

3.4.1

Use the methods of this chapter to prove that $\forall x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))$ is equivalent to $\forall xP(x) \wedge \forall xQ(x)$.

We want to prove $\forall x(P(x) \wedge Q(x)) \iff \forall xP(x) \wedge \forall xQ(x)$.

Theorem. *The statement $\forall x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))$ is equivalent to $\forall xP(x) \wedge \forall xQ(x)$.*

Proof. (\rightarrow) Suppose $\forall x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))$. Let y be arbitrary. Since $\forall x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))$ it follows $P(y)$ and $Q(y)$. Since y was arbitrary, we can conclude $\forall xP(x)$ and $\forall xQ(x)$ or $\forall xP(x) \wedge \forall xQ(x)$.

(\leftarrow) Let y be arbitrary. Since $\forall xP(x)$ and $\forall xQ(x)$ then it follows $P(y)$ and $Q(y)$. Since y was arbitrary we can conclude $\forall x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))$. \square

3.4.2

Prove that if $A \subseteq B$ and $A \subseteq C$ then $A \subseteq B \cap C$.

Theorem. *If $A \subseteq B$ and $A \subseteq C$ then $A \subseteq B \cap C$.*

Proof. Let x be arbitrary and suppose $x \in A$. Since $A \subseteq B$ then $x \in B$ and since $A \subseteq C$ then $x \in C$ or $x \in B \cap C$. Therefore, if $x \in A$ then $x \in B \cap C$ and since x was arbitrary we can conclude $A \subseteq B \cap C$. \square

3.4.3

Suppose $A \subseteq B$. Prove that for every set C , $C \setminus B \subseteq C \setminus A$.

Theorem. *Suppose $A \subseteq B$, then for every set C , $C \setminus B \subseteq C \setminus A$.*

Proof. Suppose $A \subseteq B$ and C is an arbitrary set. Let x be arbitrary and suppose $x \in C \setminus B$, which means $x \in C$ and $x \notin B$. Since $x \notin B$ and $A \subseteq B$, then $x \notin A$, which means that $x \in C \setminus A$. Therefore, if $x \in C \setminus B$ then $x \in C \setminus A$ and since x and C were arbitrary, we can conclude $\forall C(C \setminus B \subseteq C \setminus A)$. \square

3.4.5

Prove that if $A \subseteq B \setminus C$ and $A \neq \emptyset$ then $B \not\subseteq C$.

Theorem. *If $A \subseteq B \setminus C$ and $A \neq \emptyset$ then $B \not\subseteq C$.*

Proof. Let x be arbitrary and suppose $x \in A$. Since $A \subseteq B \setminus C$ then $x \in B$ and $x \notin C$. Since x was arbitrary we can conclude $B \not\subseteq C$. \square

3.4.6

Prove that for any sets A , B , and C , $A \setminus (B \cap C) = (A \setminus B) \cup (A \setminus C)$ finding a string of equivalences starting with $x \in A \setminus (B \cap C)$ and ending with $x \in (A \setminus B) \cup (A \setminus C)$.

Theorem. *for any sets A , B , and C , $A \setminus (B \cap C) = (A \setminus B) \cup (A \setminus C)$.*

Proof. Suppose A , B , and C are arbitrary sets. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 x \in A \setminus (B \cap C) &\text{ iff } x \in A \rightarrow (x \notin B \wedge x \notin C) \\
 &\text{ iff } x \notin A \vee (x \notin B \wedge x \notin C) \\
 &\text{ iff } (x \notin A \vee x \notin B) \wedge (x \notin A \vee x \notin C) \\
 &\text{ iff } (x \in A \rightarrow x \notin B) \vee (x \in A \rightarrow x \notin C) \\
 &\text{ iff } x \in A \setminus B \vee x \in A \setminus C \\
 &\text{ iff } x \in (A \setminus B) \cup (A \setminus C)
 \end{aligned}$$

□

3.4.7

Theorem. *For any sets A and B , $\mathcal{P}(A \cap B) = \mathcal{P}(A) \cap \mathcal{P}(B)$.*

Proof. (\rightarrow) Let M be an arbitrary set and suppose $M \in \mathcal{P}(A \cap B)$. Then $M \subseteq A \cap B$. Let x be arbitrary and suppose $x \in M$. Since $M \subseteq A \cap B$, $x \in A \cap B$ and therefore $x \in A$. Since x was arbitrary, $M \subseteq A$ and therefore $M \in \mathcal{P}(A)$. Similarly, since $M \subseteq A \cap B$, $x \in B$. Since x was arbitrary, $M \subseteq B$ and therefore $M \in \mathcal{P}(B)$. Therefore, $M \in \mathcal{P}(A)$ and $M \in \mathcal{P}(B)$.

(\leftarrow) Now suppose $M \in \mathcal{P}(A) \cap \mathcal{P}(B)$. Then $M \subseteq A$ and $M \subseteq B$. Suppose $x \in M$. Since $M \subseteq A$ and $M \subseteq B$ then $x \in A \cap B$. Since x was arbitrary, $M \subseteq A \cap B$ and therefore $M \in \mathcal{P}(A \cap B)$. □

3.4.8

Theorem. $A \subseteq B \iff \mathcal{P}(A) \subseteq \mathcal{P}(B)$

Proof. (\rightarrow) Suppose $A \subseteq B$. Let M be an arbitrary set and suppose $M \in \mathcal{P}(A)$. Then $M \subseteq A$. Now let y be arbitrary and suppose $y \in M$. Since $M \subseteq A$ then $y \in A$, and since $A \subseteq B$ then $y \in B$. Since y was arbitrary, $M \subseteq B$ and therefore $M \in \mathcal{P}(B)$. Since M was arbitrary, $\mathcal{P}(A) \subseteq \mathcal{P}(B)$.

(\leftarrow) Now suppose $\mathcal{P}(A) \subseteq \mathcal{P}(B)$ and $y \in A$. Then the set $\{y\}$ is in $\mathcal{P}(A)$. Since $\mathcal{P}(A) \subseteq \mathcal{P}(B)$ then $\{y\} \in \mathcal{P}(B)$ and $y \in B$. Since y was arbitrary, $A \subseteq B$. □

3.4.9

Theorem. *If x and y are odd integers, then xy is odd.*

Proof. Suppose x and y are odd integers. This means there is an integer k such that $x = 2k + 1$ and there is an integer j such that $y = 2j + 1$. Therefore, $xy = 2(2kj + k + j) = 4kj + 2k + 2j + 1 = (2k + 1)(2j + 1)$, and since $2kj + k + j$ is an integer, then xy is odd. \square

3.4.10

Theorem. *For every integer n , n^3 is even iff n is even.*

Proof. (\rightarrow) Let n be arbitrary. We will prove the contrapositive. Suppose x is odd, which means there exists an integer k such that $x = 2k + 1$. Therefore, $n^3 = (2k + 1)^3 = 8k^3 + 12k^2 + 6k + 1 = 2(4k^3 + 6k^2 + 3k) + 1$. Since $4k^3 + 6k^2 + 3k$ is an integer, n^3 is odd. Therefore, if n^3 is even, n is even.

(\leftarrow) Now suppose n is even, which means there exists an integer m such that $n = 2m$. Now $n^3 = (2m)^3 = 8m^3 = 2(4m^3)$ and since $4m^3$ is an integer, n^3 is even. \square

3.4.11

A

The problem is with using the same variable for defining m as an even integer and n as an odd integer.

B

Let $m = 2$ and $n = -3$. Then $n^2 - m^2 = (-3)^2 - 2^2 = 9 - 4 = 5$ and $n + m = -3 + 2 = -1$. Therefore $n^2 - m^2 \neq n + m$.