3.5.1

Suppose A, B, and C are sets.

Theorem. $A \cap (B \cup C) \subseteq (A \cap B) \cup C$

Proof. Let x be arbitrary and suppose $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$. Thus $x \in A$ and $x \in B$ or $x \in C$. If $x \in C$ then $x \in (A \cap B) \cup C$. In the case where $x \in B$ it follows that $x \in A \cap B$ and therefore $x \in (A \cap B) \cup C$. Since x was arbitrary we can conclude that $A \cap (B \cup C) \subseteq (A \cap B) \cup C$. □

3.5.2

Suppose A, B, and C are sets.

Theorem. $(A \cup B) \setminus C \subseteq A \cup (B \setminus C)$

Proof. Let x be arbitrary and suppose $x \in (A \cup B) \setminus C$. Thus $x \notin C$ and $x \in A$ or $x \in B$. If $x \in A$ then $x \in A \cup (B \setminus C)$. If $x \in B$ then if follows that $x \in B \setminus C$ and therefore $x \in A \cup (B \setminus C)$. Since x was arbitrary we can conclude $A \cap (B \cup C) \subseteq (A \cap B) \cup C$. □

3.5.3

Suppose A and B are sets.

Theorem. $A \setminus (A \setminus B) = A \cap B$

Proof. Let x be arbitrary and suppose $x \in A \setminus (A \setminus B)$. Then

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

□

3.5.4

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

Proof. Suppose $A \cap C \subseteq B \cap C$ and $A \cup C \subseteq B \cup C$. Let x be arbitrary and suppose $x \in A$. Thus $x \in A \cup C$ and it follows that $x \in B \cup C$. Now if $x \in B \cup C$ then either $x \in B$ or $x \in C$. If $x \in B$ then since x was arbitrary we can conclude $A \subseteq B$. In the case that $x \in C$, then $x \in A \cap C$ and it follows that $x \in B \cap C$. Therefore $x \in C$ and $x \in B$. Thus, if $x \in A$ then $x \in B$ and since x was arbitrary we can conclude $A \subseteq B$. □

3.5.5

Suppose A and B are sets.

Theorem. *If $A \triangle B \subseteq A$ then $B \subseteq A$.*

Proof. Suppose $A \triangle B \subseteq A$. We will prove by contradiction. Let x be arbitrary and suppose $x \in B$ and $x \notin A$. Since $x \in B$ and $x \notin A$ then $x \in A \triangle B$. Since $A \triangle B \subseteq A$, then $x \in A$. But this contradicts $x \notin A$. Therefore, if $x \in B$ then $x \in A$ and since x was arbitrary we can conclude that $B \subseteq A$. □

3.5.6

Suppose A, B, and C are sets.

Theorem. $A \cup C \subseteq B \cup C \iff A \setminus C \subseteq B \setminus C$.

Proof. ($\rightarrow$) Suppose A, B, and C are sets. Suppose $(A \cup C) \subseteq (B \cup C)$. Let x be arbitrary and suppose $c \in A \setminus C$, which means $x \in A$ and $x \notin C$. Since $x \in A$, then $x \in A \cup C$ and therefore $x \in B \cup C$. This means $x \in B$ or $x \in C$ and since $x \notin C$, it must be that $x \in B$. Now since $x \in B$ and $x \notin C$ then $x \in B \setminus C$. Therefore, if $x \in A \setminus C$ then $x \in B \setminus C$ and since x was arbitrary we can conclude if $A \cup C \subseteq B \cup C$ then $A \setminus C \subseteq B \setminus C$.

($\leftarrow$) Now suppose $A \setminus C \subseteq B \setminus C$. Let x be arbitrary and suppose $x \in A \cup C$, which means $x \in A$ or $x \in C$. If $x \in C$ then $x \in B \cup C$ and since x was arbitrary then $A \cup C \subseteq B \cup C$. In the case that $x \in A$, since $A \setminus C \subseteq B \setminus C$ then $x \in B$. Therefore, $x \in B \cup C$ and since x was arbitrary then $A \cup C \subseteq B \cup C$. □

3.5.7

Theorem. *For any sets A and B, $\mathscr{P}(A) \cup \mathscr{P}(B) \subseteq \mathscr{P}(A \cup B)$*

Proof. Let A and B be arbitrary sets. Let M be arbitrary and suppose $M \in \mathscr{P}(A) \cup \mathscr{P}(B)$. Thus $M \in \mathscr{P}(A)$ or $M \in \mathscr{P}(B)$, which means $M \subseteq A$ or $M \subseteq B$. In the case where $M \subseteq A$, let x be an arbitrary member of M and it follows that $x \in A$. Since $x \in A$ then $x \in A \cup B$ and because x was arbitrary we can conclude $M \subseteq A \cup B$ and therefore $M \in \mathscr{P}(A \cup B)$. In the case where $M \subseteq B$, let x be an arbitrary member of M and it follows that $x \in B$. Since $x \in B$ then $x \in A \cup B$ and because x was arbitrary we can conclude $M \subseteq A \cup B$ and therefore $M \in \mathscr{P}(A \cup B)$. □

3.5.8

Theorem. *For any sets A and B, if $\mathscr{P}(A) \cup \mathscr{P}(B) = \mathscr{P}(A \cup B)$ then either $A \subseteq B$ or $B \subseteq A$.*

Proof. We will prove the contrapositive. Since we proved that $\mathscr{P}(A) \cup \mathscr{P}(B) \subseteq \mathscr{P}(A \cup B)$ in exercise 3.5.7, we must show that $\mathscr{P}(A \cup B) \not\subseteq \mathscr{P}(A) \cup \mathscr{P}(B)$ to prove our goal that $\mathscr{P}(A) \cup \mathscr{P}(B) \neq \mathscr{P}(A \cup B)$. Let A and B be arbitrary sets and suppose $A \not\subseteq B$ and $B \not\subseteq A$. This means there is an element $x \in A \setminus B$ and an element $y \in B \setminus A$. Since $x \in A$ and $y \in B$ then both x and y are in $A \cup B$ and therefore the set $\{x, y\}$ is in $\mathscr{P}(A \cup B)$ but not in $\mathscr{P}(A)$ or $\mathscr{P}(B)$. Thus $\mathscr{P}(A \cup B) \not\subseteq \mathscr{P}(A) \cup \mathscr{P}(B)$. □

3.5.9

Theorem. *Suppose x and y are real numbers and $x \neq 0$. Then $y + 1/x = 1 + y/x$ iff either $x = 1$ or $y = 1$.*

Proof. (→) Suppose that $y + 1/x = 1 + y/x$. Now if $y = 1$ then we have proven our goal. So now assume $y \neq 1$ and $y + 1/x = 1 + y/x$, then it follows that $x = 1$.

(←) Now suppose $x = 1$ or $y = 1$. In the case that $x = 1$ we have

$$y + \frac{1}{x} = y + \frac{1}{1} = y + 1 = 1 + \frac{y}{1} = 1 + \frac{y}{x}$$

In the case that $y = 1$ we have

$$y + \frac{1}{x} = 1 + \frac{1}{x} = 1 + \frac{y}{x}$$

□

3.5.10

Theorem. *For every real number x, if $|x - 3| > 3$ then $x^2 > 6x$.*

Proof. Suppose that x is an arbitrary real number and that $|x - 3| > 3$. Then either $x - 3 \geq 0$ or $x - 3 < 0$. In the case that $x - 3 \geq 0$, then $|x - 3| = x - 3$ and therefore $|x - 3| > 3 = x - 3 > 3$. Solving for x, we have $x > 6$ and then multiplying both sides by x we have $x^2 > 6x$. In the case that $x - 3 < 0$, then $|x - 3| = 3 - x$ and therefore $3 - x > 3$. Solving for x we have $x < 0$. Multiplying both sides of $x < 0$ by $6 - x$ we have $6x - x^2 < 0$ and therefore $x^2 > 6x$. □

3.5.11

Theorem. *For every real number x, $|2x - 6| > x$ iff $|x - 4| > 2$.*

Proof. (→) Let x be an arbitrary real number and suppose $|2x - 6| > x$. Our goal $|x - 4| > 2$ means that either $x - 4 > 2$ or $4 - x > 2$. Since $|2x - 6| > 2$ then either $2x - 6 > x$ or $6 - 2x > x$. If $2x - 6 > x$ then it follows that $x - 4 > 2$. Now if $6 - 2x > x$ then if follows that $4 - x > 2$.

($\leftarrow$) Now suppose $|x-4| > 2$. Our goal $|2x-6| > x$ means that either $2x-6 > x$ or $6-2x > x$. Since $|x-4| > 2$ then either $x-4 > 2$ or $4-x > 2$. If $x-4 > 2$ then it follows that $2x-6 > x$. In the case that $4-x > 2$ then it follows that $6-2x > x$. □

3.5.12

Theorem. *For all real numbers a and b, $|a| \leq b$ if and only if $-b \leq a \leq b$.*

Proof. ($\rightarrow$) Suppose a and b are arbitrary real numbers and that $|a| \leq b$. There are two cases to consider: $a \geq 0$ and $a < 0$. If $a \geq 0$ then $|a| = a \leq b$. It follows that $-b \leq -a$ and since $a \geq 0$ then $-a \leq a$. Therefore, $-b \leq -a \leq a \leq b$ and $-b \leq a \leq b$. Now in the case that $a < 0$ then $|a| = -a \leq b$. It follows that $-b \leq a$ and since $a < 0$ then $-a > a$ or $a < -a$. Therefore $-b \leq a < -a \leq b$ and $-b \leq a \leq b$.

($\leftarrow$) Now suppose $-b \leq a \leq b$ and therefore $a \leq b$. Now we must prove that $-a \leq b$ to complete the proof. If we subtract a from both sides of $-b \leq a$ and add b to both sides we have $-a \leq b$. □

3.5.13

Theorem. *For every integer x, $x^2 + x$ is even.*

Proof. Let x be an arbitrary integer. There are two cases to consider: x is even or x is odd. If x is even then there exists an integer k such that $x = 2k$. Plugging in $2k$ for x in $x^2 + x$ we have $x^2 + x = (2k)^2 + 2k = 4k^2 + 2k = 2(2k^2 + k)$. Since $2k^2 + k$ is an integer then $x^2 + x$ is even. In the case that x is odd there is a j such that $x = 2j + 1$. Plugging in $2j + 1$ for x in $x^2 + x$ we have $x^2+x = (2j+1)^2+(2j+1) = (4j^2+4j+1)+(2j+1) = 4j^2+6j+2 = 2(2j^2+3j+1)$. Since $2j^2 + 3j + 1$ is an integer, $x^2 + x$ is even. □

3.5.14

Theorem. *For every integer x, the remainder when x^4 is divided by 8 is either 0 or 1.*

Proof. Suppose x is an integer and there exists an integer k such that $8k = x^4$. Since x is an integer, x is either even or odd. If x is even then there exists an integer m such that $x = 2m$. Then $8k = (2m)^4 = 16m^4$ and $k = 2m^4$ r 0. In the case that x is odd, then there exists an integer m such that $x = 2m + 1$. Then $8k = (2m+1)^4 = 16x^4 + 32x^3 + 24x^2 + 8x + 1$ and $k = 2x^4 + 4x^3 + 3x^2 + x$ r 1. Therefore, when x^4 is divided by 8 the remainder is either 0 or 1. □