

Solutions to Homework Assignment 2

Math 74, Fall 2006

October 1, 2006

1. (a) If P and Q are statements, then using De Morgan's laws we see that

$$\neg[\neg P \wedge \neg Q] \Leftrightarrow \neg\neg P \vee \neg\neg Q \Leftrightarrow P \vee Q.$$

Likewise,

$$\neg[P \wedge \neg Q] \Leftrightarrow P \Rightarrow Q,$$

and

$$(\neg[P \wedge \neg Q]) \wedge (\neg[Q \wedge \neg P]) \Leftrightarrow (P \Leftrightarrow Q).$$

So we see that we can build all of the logical connectives out of \neg and \wedge .

- (b) Let P , Q and R be statements. Then using our work above we have

$$\begin{aligned} [(P \Rightarrow Q) \vee R] &\Rightarrow [\neg Q \vee (R \vee P)] \\ &\Leftrightarrow \neg([(P \Rightarrow Q) \vee R] \wedge \neg[\neg Q \vee (R \vee P)]) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \neg([\neg(P \wedge \neg Q) \vee R] \wedge [Q \wedge \neg(R \vee P)]) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \neg(\neg[\neg R \wedge P \wedge \neg Q] \wedge [Q \wedge \neg R \wedge \neg P]). \end{aligned}$$

From this point, it is easy to see that the statement is equivalent to $\neg[Q \wedge \neg R \wedge \neg P]$.

2. (a) We will show that we can write the five common logical connectives $\neg, \wedge, \vee, \Rightarrow, \Leftrightarrow$ by using only the logical connective \uparrow . It is clear that

$$P \uparrow P \Leftrightarrow \neg[P \wedge P] \Leftrightarrow \neg P.$$

Using De Morgan's laws, we see that

$$(P \uparrow P) \uparrow (Q \uparrow Q) \Leftrightarrow (\neg P) \uparrow (\neg Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg[\neg P \wedge \neg Q] \Leftrightarrow P \vee Q.$$

Also,

$$(P \uparrow Q) \uparrow (P \uparrow Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg(P \uparrow Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg[\neg(P \wedge Q)] \Leftrightarrow P \wedge Q.$$

Also,

$$\begin{aligned} [(P \uparrow P) \uparrow (P \uparrow P)] \uparrow [Q \uparrow Q] &\Leftrightarrow [(\neg P) \uparrow (\neg P)] \uparrow [Q \uparrow Q] \\ &\Leftrightarrow (\neg P) \vee Q \\ &\Leftrightarrow (P \Rightarrow Q). \end{aligned}$$

From our work above we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
[P \Leftrightarrow Q] &\Leftrightarrow [P \Rightarrow Q] \wedge [Q \Rightarrow P] \\
&\Leftrightarrow [(P \Rightarrow Q) \uparrow (Q \Rightarrow P)] \uparrow [(P \Rightarrow Q) \uparrow (Q \Rightarrow P)] \\
&\Leftrightarrow [R \uparrow S] \uparrow [R \uparrow S],
\end{aligned}$$

where the symbol R is used in place of the statement

$$[(P \uparrow P) \uparrow (P \uparrow P)] \uparrow [Q \uparrow Q]$$

and S is used in place of

$$[(Q \uparrow Q) \uparrow (Q \uparrow Q)] \uparrow [P \uparrow P].$$

- (b) We will show that we can write the five common logical connectives $\neg, \wedge, \vee, \Rightarrow, \Leftrightarrow$ by using only the logical connective \downarrow . It is clear that

$$P \downarrow P \Leftrightarrow \neg[P \vee P] \Leftrightarrow \neg P.$$

Using De Morgan's laws,

$$(P \downarrow P) \downarrow (Q \downarrow Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg[(\neg P) \vee (\neg Q)] \Leftrightarrow P \wedge Q.$$

Also,

$$(P \downarrow Q) \downarrow (P \downarrow Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg(P \downarrow Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg[\neg(P \vee Q)] \Leftrightarrow P \vee Q.$$

Also,

$$\begin{aligned}
[(P \downarrow P) \downarrow (P \downarrow P)] \downarrow [Q \downarrow Q] &\Leftrightarrow [(\neg P) \downarrow (\neg P)] \downarrow [Q \downarrow Q] \\
&\Leftrightarrow (\neg P) \vee Q \\
&\Leftrightarrow (P \Rightarrow Q).
\end{aligned}$$

From our work above we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
[P \Leftrightarrow Q] &\Leftrightarrow [P \Rightarrow Q] \wedge [Q \Rightarrow P] \\
&\Leftrightarrow [R \downarrow R] \downarrow [S \downarrow S],
\end{aligned}$$

where the symbol R is used in place of the statement

$$[(P \downarrow P) \downarrow (P \downarrow P)] \downarrow [Q \downarrow Q]$$

and S is used in place of

$$[(Q \downarrow Q) \downarrow (Q \downarrow Q)] \downarrow [P \downarrow P].$$

(c) From part (a), we see that

$$\begin{aligned}(P \Rightarrow \neg Q) \wedge R &\Leftrightarrow [(P \Rightarrow \neg Q) \uparrow R] \uparrow [(P \Rightarrow \neg Q) \uparrow R] \\ &\Leftrightarrow [S \uparrow R] \uparrow [S \uparrow R]\end{aligned}$$

where S stands for the statement

$$[(P \uparrow P) \uparrow (P \uparrow P)] \uparrow [(Q \uparrow Q) \uparrow (Q \uparrow Q)].$$

From part (b), we see that

$$\begin{aligned}(P \Rightarrow \neg Q) \wedge R &\Leftrightarrow [(P \Rightarrow \neg Q) \downarrow (P \Rightarrow \neg Q)] \downarrow [R \downarrow R] \\ &\Leftrightarrow [T \downarrow T] \downarrow [R \downarrow R]\end{aligned}$$

where T stands for the statement

$$[(P \downarrow P) \downarrow (P \downarrow P)] \downarrow [(Q \downarrow Q) \downarrow (Q \downarrow Q)].$$

3. (a) This statement is false. Consider the sets $A = \{1, 2\}$, $B = \{1\}$, and $C = \{2\}$. Then clearly $C \cap (A \cap B) = \emptyset$, but $C \cap A = \{2\}$ and $B \cap A = \{1\}$.

(b)

Proposition 1. *Suppose that A , B , and C are sets such that C is a subset of both A and B . Then $C \subseteq A \cap B$.*

Proof. Pick an element $x \in C$. Then $x \in A$ since $C \subseteq A$, and $x \in B$ since $C \subseteq B$. Thus $x \in A \cap B$. \square

- (c) This statement is false. Consider the same sets we used in part (a): $A = \{1, 2\}$, $B = \{1\}$, and $C = \{2\}$. Then $A \setminus B = \{2\}$, and so $(A \setminus B) \setminus C = \emptyset$. Also notice that $B \setminus C = \{1\}$, so $A \setminus (B \setminus C) = \{2\}$. Thus $(A \setminus B) \setminus C \neq A \setminus (B \setminus C)$.

(d)

Proposition 2. *Suppose that A , B , and C are sets such that $(A \cap B) \cup C \subseteq A \cap (B \cup C)$. Then $C \subseteq A$.*

Proof. Let $x \in C$. Then $x \in (A \cap B) \cup C$, which implies that $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$. Thus $x \in A$. \square

4. (a)

Proposition 3. *Let A , B , and X be sets such that $A \cup B \subseteq X$. Then*

$$A \setminus B = (X \setminus B) \setminus (X \setminus A).$$

Proof. Pick a point $x \in A \setminus B$. Then $x \in A$ and $x \notin B$. Since $A \subseteq X$, this implies that $x \in X$. Thus $x \in X \setminus B$ and $x \notin X \setminus A$, which implies that $x \in (X \setminus B) \setminus (X \setminus A)$. Now suppose that $y \in (X \setminus B) \setminus (X \setminus A)$. Then $y \in (X \setminus B)$ but $y \notin (X \setminus A)$. So we see that $y \in X$, but $y \notin B$. Also, it must be that $y \in A$, for otherwise we would have $y \in (X \setminus A)$. Thus y is an element of A but not B , so $y \in A \setminus B$. \square

- (b) This statement is false. Consider the (only) function $f : \{1, 2\} \rightarrow \{1\}$, and let $A = \{1, 2\}$ and $B = \{1\}$. Then $f(A) = f(B) = \{1\}$, so $f(A) \setminus f(B) = \emptyset$. However, $f(A \setminus B) = f(\{2\}) = \{1\}$. Thus $f(A) \setminus f(B) \neq f(A \setminus B)$.

(c)

Proposition 4. Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a function, and suppose that $C, D \subseteq Y$. Then

$$f^{-1}[C] \setminus f^{-1}[D] = f^{-1}[C \setminus D].$$

Proof. Pick an element $x \in f^{-1}[C] \setminus f^{-1}[D]$. This means that $x \in f^{-1}[C]$ and $x \notin f^{-1}[D]$. Hence $f(x) \in C$ but $f(x) \notin D$. This implies that $f(x) \in C \setminus D$, and hence $x \in f^{-1}[C \setminus D]$.

Now pick an element $z \in f^{-1}[C \setminus D]$. Then $f(z) \in C \setminus D$. Hence $f(z) \in C$ but $f(z) \notin D$. Thus $z \in f^{-1}[C]$ but $z \notin f^{-1}[D]$, and so $z \in f^{-1}[C] \setminus f^{-1}[D]$. \square

5. (a)

Proposition 5. Suppose that X and Y are sets, and $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$. Then the ordered pair $(x, y) \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X \cup Y)$.

Proof. Let $z \in (x, y) = \{\{x\}, \{x, y\}\}$. Then either $z = \{x\}$ or $z = \{x, y\}$. In the first case, clearly $z \subseteq X \subseteq X \cup Y$ since $x \in X$. In the second case, $z \subseteq X \cup Y$, since $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$. Either way, $z \subseteq X \cup Y$. Hence $z \in \mathcal{P}(X \cup Y)$. \square

(b)

Proposition 6. If X and Y are sets, then the Cartesian product $X \times Y \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(X \cup Y)))$.

Proof. Let $(x, y) \in X \times Y$. Then from the proposition above, $(x, y) \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X \cup Y)$. Hence $(x, y) \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(X \cup Y))$. Therefore,

$$X \times Y \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(X \cup Y)).$$

Thus

$$X \times Y \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(X \cup Y))).$$

\square

6. (a)

Proposition 7. Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a map, and suppose that $A, B \subseteq X$. Then

$$f(A \cap B) \subseteq f(A) \cap f(B).$$

Proof. Let $y \in f(A \cap B)$. Then there exists an element $x \in A \cap B$ such that $f(x) = y$. Since $x \in A$, and $y = f(x)$, we see that $y \in f(A)$. Likewise, $y \in f(B)$. Thus $y \in f(A) \cap f(B)$. \square

Equality in the above proposition need not hold. For example, consider the function $f : \{1, 2\} \rightarrow \{1\}$, and sets $A = \{1\}$ and $B = \{2\}$. Then $A \cap B = \emptyset$, and so $f(A \cap B) = \emptyset$ while $f(A) \cap f(B) = \{1\}$.

(b)

Proposition 8. *Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a map, and suppose that $A, B \subseteq X$. Then*

$$f(A \cup B) = f(A) \cup f(B).$$

Proof. Pick an element $y \in f(A \cup B)$. Then there exists an element $x \in A \cup B$ such that $y = f(x)$. If $x \in A$, then clearly $y \in f(A)$. Likewise, if $x \in B$ then $y \in f(B)$. Either way, $y \in f(A) \cup f(B)$.

Conversely, suppose that y is an element of the set $f(A) \cup f(B)$. If $y \in f(A)$, then there exists an element $x \in A \subseteq A \cup B$ such that $y = f(x)$. If $y \in f(B)$, then there exists an element $z \in B \subseteq A \cup B$ such that $y = f(z)$. Either way, it is clear that $y \in f(A \cup B)$. \square

(c)

Proposition 9. *Suppose that $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a function and A and B are subsets of X . Then*

$$f(A) \Delta f(B) \subseteq f(A \Delta B).$$

Proof. Suppose that y is an element of $f(A) \Delta f(B)$. Then $y \in f(A)$ or $y \in f(B)$, but not both. In the first case, that $y \in f(A)$, there exists an element $x \in A$ such that $y = f(x)$. Since $y \notin f(B)$, it must be the case that $x \notin B$. Hence $x \in A \Delta B$, and we deduce that $y \in f(A \Delta B)$. If, on the other hand, $y \in f(B)$, then there exists an element $z \in B$ such that $y = f(z)$. Since $y \notin f(A)$, we deduce that $z \in A \Delta B$ and $y \in f(A \Delta B)$. In both cases, $y \in f(A \Delta B)$. \square

Equality need not hold in the above proposition. For example, suppose that $f : \{1, 2\} \rightarrow \{1\}$, let $A = \{1\}$ and $B = \{2\}$. Then $A \Delta B = \{1, 2\}$, and hence $f(A \Delta B) = \{1\}$. However, $f(A) = f(B) = \{1\}$, so $f(A) \Delta f(B) = \emptyset$. Thus

$$f(A) \Delta f(B) \neq f(A \Delta B).$$

7. (a)

Proposition 10. *Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a function, and suppose that $A \subseteq X$. Then*

$$A \subseteq f^{-1}[f(A)].$$

Proof. Pick an arbitrary element $x \in A$. Then clearly $f(x) \in \{f(z) \mid z \in A\} = f(A)$. Thus $x \in \{z \in X \mid f(z) \in f(A)\} = f^{-1}[f(A)]$. \square

Equality need not hold in the above proposition. Consider the function $f : \{1, 2\} \rightarrow \{1\}$, and $A = \{1\}$. Then $f^{-1}[f(A)] = \{1, 2\} \neq A$.

(b)

Proposition 11. *Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a function, and suppose that $B \subseteq Y$. Then*

$$f(f^{-1}[B]) \subseteq B.$$

Proof. Let y be an arbitrary element of the set

$$f(f^{-1}[B]) = \{f(x) \in Y \mid x \in f^{-1}[B]\}.$$

Then there exists an $x \in f^{-1}[B]$ such that $y = f(x)$. But since $x \in f^{-1}[B]$, we see that $f(x) \in B$. Thus $y \in B$. \square

Equality need not hold in the above proposition. Consider the function $f : \{1\} \rightarrow \{1, 2\}$ given by $1 \mapsto 2$, and set $B = \{1\}$. Then $f(f^{-1}[B]) = \emptyset \neq B$.

(c)

Proposition 12. *If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $B \subseteq Y$, then $f^{-1}[Y \setminus B] = X \setminus f^{-1}[B]$.*

Proof. Pick a point $x \in f^{-1}[Y \setminus B]$. This means that $f(x) \in Y \setminus B$. Hence $f(x) \notin B$. Thus $x \notin f^{-1}[B]$, and so $x \in X \setminus f^{-1}[B]$.

Now pick a point $z \in X \setminus f^{-1}[B]$. Then $f(z) \notin B$. Hence $f(z) \in Y \setminus B$, which implies that $z \in f^{-1}[Y \setminus B]$. \square