Below are some extra examples for Math 300. These examples are to augment the lectures and help you do some of the assigned homework problems.

1. To show $(P \wedge R) \vee (\neg R \wedge (P \vee Q))$ is equivalent to $P \vee (\neg R \wedge Q)$:

$$(P \wedge R) \vee (\neg R \wedge (P \vee Q))$$
is equivalent to
$$(P \wedge R) \vee (\neg R \wedge P) \vee (\neg R \wedge Q) \quad \text{(distributive and associative laws)}$$
is equivalent to
$$((P \wedge R) \vee \neg R) \wedge ((P \wedge R) \vee P)) \vee (\neg R \wedge Q) \quad \text{(distributive law)}$$
is equivalent to
$$(((P \wedge R) \vee \neg R) \wedge P) \vee (\neg R \wedge Q) \quad \text{(absorbtion)}$$
is equivalent to
$$((\neg R \vee P) \wedge (\neg R \vee R) \wedge P) \vee (\neg R \wedge Q) \quad \text{(distributive law)}$$
is equivalent to
$$P \vee (\neg R \wedge Q) \quad \text{(absorbtion and tautology)}$$

2. Enumeration of all logical connective possibilities.

	P Q F F	P Q F T	P Q T F	P Q T T
contradiction	F	F	F	F
$P \wedge Q$	F	F	F	T
$P \wedge \neg Q$	F	F	T	F
P	F	F	T	T
$\neg P \wedge Q$	F	T	F	F
Q	F	T	F	T
$P \oplus Q$	F	T	T	F
$P \vee Q$	F	T	T	T
$\neg (P \vee Q)$	T	F	F	F
$P \leftrightarrow Q, \neg(P \oplus Q)$	T	F	F	T
$\neg Q$	T	F	T	F
$P \vee \neg Q$	T	F	T	T
$\neg P$	T	T	F	F
$P \rightarrow Q, \neg P \vee Q$	T	T	F	T
$\neg (P \wedge Q)$	T	T	T	F
tautology	T	T	T	T

3. Suppose we wish to show that $\exists x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$ is equivalent to $\forall x P(x) \rightarrow \exists x Q(x)$.

By the conditional laws (given on page 47 of Velleman),

$$\exists x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$$

is equivalent to

$$\exists x(\neg P(x) \vee Q(x)). \tag{1}$$

Now, any statement $\exists x(R(x) \lor S(x))$ means that there exists an x such that $R(x)$ or $S(x)$ is true. That is equivalent to saying that there exists an x such that $R(x)$ is true, or there exists an x such that $S(x)$ is true. That is,

$$\exists x(R(x) \lor S(x)) \text{ is equivalent to } \exists x R(x) \lor \exists x S(x)$$

Thus, expression (1) is equivalent to

$$\exists x \neg P(x) \lor \exists x Q(x)$$

and this is equivalent, by our quantifier negation laws, to

$$\neg \forall x P(x) \lor \exists x Q(x)$$

and this is equivalent to

$$\forall x P(x) \rightarrow \exists x Q(x)$$

by our conditional laws.

Along these same lines, note that

$$\forall x(R(x) \land S(x))$$

says that for all x, R(x) and S(x) are true. This is equivalent to saying that for all x R(x) is true and for all x S(x) is true (the latter just takes longer to say!). Hence, $\forall x(R(x) \land S(x))$ is equivalent to

$$\forall x R(x) \land \forall x S(x).$$

4. An example of a uniqueness argument.

   Theorem: Let S be a set. For every $A \in \mathcal{P}(S)$, there is a unique $B \in \mathcal{P}(S)$ such that for every $C \in \mathcal{P}(S), C \setminus A = C \cap B$.

   Proof. Let S be a set. Let $A \in \mathcal{P}(S)$. Let $B = S \setminus A$. Then, let $C \in \mathcal{P}(S)$.

   Suppose $x \in C \setminus A$. So, $x \in C$ and $x \notin A$, so $x \in B$.

   Hence, $x \in B \cap C$. Thus, $C \setminus A \subseteq C \cap B$.

   Suppose $x \in C \cap B$. Then $x \in C$ and $x \in B$, so $x \notin A$.

   Hence, $x \in C \setminus A$. Thus, $C \cap B \subseteq C \setminus A$.

   Thus, $C \cap B = C \setminus A$.

   Thus there exists a set with the required property, namely $B = S \setminus A$.

   To show uniqueness, suppose a set D in $\mathcal{P}(S)$ also has the required property.

   Then for all $C \in \mathcal{P}(S), C \cap D = C \setminus A$.

   Since for all $C \in \mathcal{P}(S), C \cap B = C \setminus A$, we have that for all $C \in \mathcal{P}(S)$,

   $$C \cap B = C \cap D.$$

   In particular, if we let C=B, we have $B \cap B = B \cap D$, i.e., $B = B \cap D$. This shows that $B \subseteq D$, since if $x \in B$, x is also in D.

   On the other hand, if we let C=D, we have $D \cap D = D \cap B$, i.e., $D = D \cap B$. This shows that $D \subseteq B$, since if $x \in D$, x is also in B.

   Hence, $D = B$. And so the choice of B is unique. $\qquad\square$

5. A surprising bijection.

Let's consider the intervals of real numbers $A = (0, 1]$ and $B = (0, 1)$. Since both A and B contain an infinite number of elements, and B is simply A with one element (1) removed, it would be surprising if A and B were not equinumerous. However, if we try to find a bijection from one set to the other using combinations of our standard functions (e.g. trig functions, rational functions, etc.), we find that a bijection eludes us.

It turns out that it is possible, but it requires a surprising bit of cleverness. First, consider this function from A to B:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & \text{if } x = 1, \\ x & \text{if } x \neq 1. \end{cases}$$

Notice that this *almost* works. It maps the set $(0, 1]$ onto the set $(0, 1)$, but it is not one-to-one: $f(1) = f(1/2)$.

To fix this, we might try sending 1/2 to something else:

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} 1/3 & \text{if } x = 1/2, \\ 1/2 & \text{if } x = 1, \\ x & \text{if } x \neq 1 \text{ and } x \neq 1/2. \end{cases}$$

Again, g maps the set $(0, 1]$ onto $(0, 1)$ and now $f(1) \neq f(1/2)$, but now $f(1/2) = f(1/3)$ so it is again not one-to-one.

One more try: let's send 1/3 to something else:

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} 1/4 & \text{if } x = 1/3, \\ 1/3 & \text{if } x = 1/2, \\ 1/2 & \text{if } x = 1, \\ x & \text{if } x \neq 1, x \neq 1/2, \text{ and } x \neq 1/3. \end{cases}$$

This function maps the set $(0, 1]$ onto $(0, 1)$ and $h(1) \neq h(1/2)$ *and* $h(1/2) \neq h(1/3)$, but now $h(1/3) = h(1/4)$, so h is not one-to-one.

Although this doesn't seem to be working, if we *extend this strategy forever*, we get a function that does work.

Let $k : A \to B$ be defined like this:

$$k(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n+1} & \text{if } x = 1/n \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}, \\ x & \text{if } x \neq 1/n \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}. \end{cases}$$

So we have $k(1) = 1/2$, $k(1/2) = 1/3$, $k(1/3) = 1/4$, $k(1/4) = 1/5$, etc. We are basically pushing our problem down the sequence of $1/n$, and since this sequence is infinite, it becomes a non-problem.

It is not too hard to show that our k function is a bijection from A to B, and this shows that A and B are equinumerous.