## CS1231 Discrete Structures (AY2016/2017 Semester 1)

## Definitions, Theorem and Propositions

## 0. Basic concept

| Theorem | A theorem refers to a statement that is known to be true because it has been proved. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Corollary | A corollary is a statement whose truth can be immediately deduced from a theorem that <br> has already been proved. |

1. Number Theory

| $\begin{aligned} & \hline \text { Definition } \\ & \text { 1.6.1 } \end{aligned}$ | An integer $n$ is even if, and only if, $n$ equals twice some integer. An integer $n$ is odd if, and only if, $n$ equals twice some integer plus 1 . <br> Symbolically, if $n$ is an integer, then <br> $n$ is even $\Leftrightarrow \exists$ an integer $k$ such that $n=2 k$. <br> $n$ is odd $\Leftrightarrow \exists$ an integer $k$ such that $n=2 k+1$. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Theorem 4.1.1 (Epp) | The sum of any two even integers is even. |
| Definition | An integer $n$ is prime if, and only if, $n>1$ and for all positive integers $r$ and $s$, if $n$ $=r s$, then either $r$ or $s$ equals $n$. An integer $n$ is composite if, and only if, $n>1$ and $n=r s$ for some integers $r$ and $s$ with $1<r<n$ and $1<s<n$. <br> In symbols: <br> $n$ is prime $\Leftrightarrow \forall$ positive integers $r$ and $s$, if $n=r s$ then either $r=1$ and $s=n$ or $r=n$ and $s=1$. <br> $n$ is composite $\Leftrightarrow \exists$ positive integers $r$ and $s$ such that $n=r s$ and $1<r<n$ and $1<s<n$. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Theorem L4.2 } \\ & \text { P8 } \end{aligned}$ | Every integer $\mathrm{n}>1$ is either prime or composite. |
| Proposition 4.2.2 | For any two primes $p$ and $q$, if $p \mid q$ then $p=q$. |
| Theorem 4.2.3 | If $p$ is a prime and $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$, are any integers such that: $p \mid x_{1} x_{2} \ldots x_{n}$, then $p \mid$ $x_{i}$ for some $x_{i}(1<i<n)$. |
| Definition P163 (Epp) | A real number $r$ is rational if, and only if, it can be expressed as a quotient of two integers with a nonzero denominator. A real number that is not rational is irrational. More formally, if $r$ is a real number, then $r$ is rational $\Leftrightarrow \exists$ integers $a$ and $b$ such that $r=a b$ and $b \neq 0$. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \hline \text { Theorem 4.2.1 } \\ & (\text { Epp }) \end{aligned}$ | Every integer is a rational number. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Theorem 4.2.2 } \\ & \text { (Epp) } \end{aligned}$ | The sum of any two rational numbers is rational. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Corollary 4.2.3 } \\ & \text { (Epp) } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | The double of a rational number is rational. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Definition } \\ & \text { 1.3.1 } \end{aligned}$ | If $n$ and $d$ are integers and $d \neq 0$ then $n$ is divisible by $d$ if, and only if, $n$ equals $d$ times some integer. Instead of " $n$ is divisible by $d$," we can say that $n$ is a multiple of $d$, or $d$ is a factor of $n$, or $d$ is a divisor of $n$, or $d$ divides $n$. <br> The notation $\mathbf{d} \mid \mathbf{n}$ is read " $d$ divides $n$." Symbolically, if $n$ and $d$ are integers and $d$ $\neq 0: d \mid n \Leftrightarrow \exists$ an integer $k$ such that $n=d k$. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \hline \text { Theorem 4.3.1 } \\ & \text { (Epp) } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | For all integers $a$ and $b$, if $a$ and $b$ are positive and $a$ divides $b$, then $a \leq b$. |


| $\begin{array}{\|l} \hline \text { Theorem 4.3.2 } \\ \text { (Epp) } \end{array}$ | The only divisors of 1 are 1 and -1 . |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Theorem } 4.3 .3 \\ & \text { (Epp) } \end{aligned}$ | For all integers $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}$, and c , if a divides b and b divides c , then a divides c . |
| Theorem 4.3.4 (Epp) | Any integer $n>1$ is divisible by a prime number. |
| Theorem 4.1.1 | $\forall \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c} \in \mathrm{Z}$, if $\mathrm{a} \mid \mathrm{b}$ and $\mathrm{a} \mid c$, then $\forall \mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y} \in \mathrm{Z}, \mathrm{a} \mid(b x+c y)$. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Theorem } 4.3 .5 \\ & \text { (Epp) } \end{aligned}$ | Given any integer $n>1$, there exist a positive integer $k$, distinct prime numbers $p_{1}$, $p_{2}, \ldots, p_{\mathrm{k}}$, and positive integers $e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{\mathrm{k}}$ such that $\mathrm{n}=p_{1}^{e_{1}} p_{2}^{e_{2}} \cdots p_{k}^{e_{k}}$ <br> and any other expression for $n$ as a product of prime numbers is identical to this except, perhaps, for the order in which the factors are written. |
| Definition P177 (Epp) | Given any integer $n>1$, the standard factored form of $n$ is an expression of the form $\mathrm{n}=p_{1}^{e_{1}} p_{2}^{e_{2}} \cdots p_{k}^{e_{k}}$ <br> where $k$ is a positive integer; $p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{\mathrm{k}}$ are prime numbers; $e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{\mathrm{k}}$ are positive integers; and $p_{1}<p_{2}<\ldots<p_{\mathrm{k}}$. |
| Theorem 4.4.1 (Epp) (Epp) | Given any integer $n$ and positive integer $d$, there exist unique integers $q$ and $r$ such that $n=d q+r$ and $0 \leq r<d$. |
| Definition P181 (Epp) | Given an integer $n$ and a positive integer $d$, $\boldsymbol{n} \operatorname{div} \boldsymbol{d}=$ the integer quotient obtained when $n$ is divided by $d$, and $\boldsymbol{n} \boldsymbol{m o d} \boldsymbol{d}=$ the non-negative integer remainder obtained when $n$ is divided by $d$. <br> Symbolically, if $n$ and $d$ are integers and $d>0$, then $n \operatorname{div} d=q$ and $n \bmod d=r \Leftrightarrow n=d q+r$ <br> where $q$ and $r$ are integers and $0 \leq r<d$. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Theorem 4.4.2 } \\ & \text { (Epp) } \end{aligned}$ | Any two consecutive integers have opposite parity. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Theorem 4.4.3 } \\ & \text { (Epp) } \end{aligned}$ | The square of any odd integer has the form $8 m+1$ for some integer $m$. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Definition } \\ & \text { P187 (Epp) } \end{aligned}$ | For any real number $x$, the absolute value of $\boldsymbol{x}$, denoted $\|x\|$, is defined as follows: $\|x\|=\left\{\begin{array}{rr} -x, & x<0 \\ x, & x \geq 0 \end{array}\right.$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & \hline \begin{array}{l} \text { Lemma 4.4.4 } \\ (\mathrm{Epp}) \end{array} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | For all real numbers $r,-\|r\| \leq r \leq\|r\|$. |
| Lemma 4.4.5 (Epp) | For all real numbers $r,\|-r\|=\|r\|$. |
| Theorem 4.4.6 (Epp) | For all real numbers x and $\mathrm{y},\|x+y\| \leq\|x\|+\|y\|$. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Theorem 4.6.1 } \\ & \text { (Epp) } \end{aligned}$ | There is no greatest integer. |
| Theorem 4.6.2 (Epp) | There is no integer that is both even and odd. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Theorem } 4.6 .3 \\ & \text { (Epp) } \end{aligned}$ | The sum of any rational number and any irrational number is irrational. |
| Proposition | For all integers $n$, if $n^{2}$ is even then $n$ is even. |


| 4.6.4 (Epp) |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Theorem 4.7.1 } \\ & \text { (Epp) } \end{aligned}$ | $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational. |
| Proposition 4.7.2 (Epp) | $1+3 \sqrt{2}$ is irrational. |
| Proposition 4.7.3 (Epp) | For any integer $a$ and any prime number $p$, if $p \mid a$ then $\mathrm{p} \nmid(\mathrm{a}+1)$. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Theorem 4.7.4 } \\ & (\mathrm{Epp}) \end{aligned}$ | The set of prime numbers is infinite. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Theorem 5.2.2 } \\ & \text { (Epp) } \end{aligned}$ | For all integers $n \geq 1$, $1+2+\cdots+n=\mathrm{n}(\mathrm{n}+1) / 2 .$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Theorem 5.2.3 } \\ & \text { (Epp) } \end{aligned}$ | For any real number $r$ except 1 , and any integer $n \geq 0$, $\sum_{i=0}^{n} r^{i}=\frac{r^{n+1}-1}{r-1}$ |
| Proposition 5.3.1 (Epp) | For all integers $n \geq 0,2^{2 n}-1$ is divisible by 3 . |
| Proposition 5.3.2 (Epp) | For all integers $n \geq 3,2 n+1<2 n$. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Theorem 5.4.1 } \\ & \text { (Epp) } \end{aligned}$ | Given any positive integer $n, n$ has a unique representation in the form $n=c_{r} \cdot 2^{r}+c_{r-1} \cdot 2^{r-1}+\cdots+c_{2} \cdot 2^{2}+c_{1} \cdot 2+c_{0}$ <br> where $r$ is a nonnegative integer, $c_{r}=1$, and $c_{j}=1$ or 0 for all $j=0,1,2, \ldots, r-1$. |
| Definition 4.3.1 | An integer $b$ is said to be a lower bound for a set $X \subseteq \mathrm{Z}$ if $b \leq x$ for all $x \in X$. |
| Theorem 4.3.2 Part 1 | If a non-empty set $S \subseteq Z$ has a lower bound, then $S$ has a least element. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Theorem 4.3.2 } \\ & \text { Part } 2 \end{aligned}$ | If a non-empty set $S \subseteq \mathrm{Z}$ has an upper bound, then $S$ has a greatest element. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Proposition } \\ & \text { 4.3.3 } \end{aligned}$ | If a set $S$ of integers has a least element, then the least element is unique. |
| Proposition 4.3.4 | If a set $S$ of integers has a greatest element, then the greatest element is unique. |
| Theorem 4.4.1 | Given any integer $n$ and any positive integer $d$, there exist unique integers $q$ and $r$ such that $n=d q+r$ and $0 \leq r<d$. |
| $\begin{array}{\|l\|} \hline \text { Definition } \\ \text { 4.5.1 } \end{array}$ | Let $a$ and $b$ be integers that are not both zero. The greatest common divisor of $a$ and $b$, denoted $\operatorname{gcd}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})$, is that integer $d$ with the following properties: <br> 1. $d$ is a common divisor of both $a$ and $b$. In other words, $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$. <br> 2. For all integers $c$, if $c$ is a common divisor of both $a$ and $b$, then $c$ is less than or equal to $d$. In other words, for all integers $c$, if $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$, then $c \leq d$. |
| Proposition 4.5.2 | For any integers $a, b$, not both zero, their $g c d$ exists and is unique. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Lemma 4.8.1 } \\ & \text { (Epp) } \end{aligned}$ | If $r$ is a positive integer, then $\operatorname{gcd}(r, 0)=r$. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Lemma 4.8.2 } \\ & \text { (Epp) } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | If $a$ and $b$ are any integers not both zero, and if $q$ and $r$ are any integers such that $a$ $=b q+r$, then $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=\operatorname{gcd}(b, r)$. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Definition } \\ & \text { P486 (Epp) } \end{aligned}$ | An integer $d$ is said to be a linear combination of integers $a$ and $b$ if, and only if, there exist integers $s$ and $t$ such that $a s+b t=d$. |


| Theorem 4.5.2 | Let $a, b$ be integers, not both zero, and let $d=\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)$. Then there exist integers $x$, $y$ such that: $a x+b y=d$. |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Theorem L4.5 } \\ & \text { P29 } \end{aligned}$ | There are multiple solutions $x, y$ to the equation $a x+b y=d$. Once a solution pair $(x, y)$ is found, additional pairs may be generated by $(x+k b / d, y-k a / d)$, where $k$ is any integer. |
| Definition <br> 4.5.3, P488 <br> (Epp) <br> (1) | Integers $a$ and $b$ are relatively prime if, and only if, $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$. Integers $a_{1}, a_{2}$, $a_{3}, \ldots, a_{n}$ are pairwise relatively prime if, and only if, $\operatorname{gcd}\left(a_{i}, a_{j}\right)=1$ for all integers $i$ and $j$ with $1 \leq i, j \leq n$, and $i \neq j$. |
| Corollary 8.4.6 (Epp) | If $a$ and $b$ are relatively prime integers, then there exist integers $s$ and $t$ such that $a s$ $+b t=1$. |
| Proposition 4.5.5 | For any integers $a, b$, not both zero, if $c$ is a common divisor of $a$ and $b$, then $c \mid$ $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)$. |
| Definition 4.6.1 | The least common multiple of two nonzero integers $a$ and $b$, denoted $\operatorname{lcm}(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b})$, is the positive integer $c$ such that <br> 1. $a \mid c$ and $b \mid c$; <br> 2. for all positive integers $m$, if $a \mid m$ and $b \mid m$, then $c \leq m$. |
| $\begin{array}{\|l\|} \hline \text { Definit } \\ 4.7 .1 \end{array}$ | Let $m$ and $n$ be integers and let $d$ be a positive integer. We say that $\boldsymbol{m}$ is congruent to $\boldsymbol{n}$ modulo $\boldsymbol{d}$ and write $m \equiv n(\bmod d)$ <br> if, and only if, $d \mid(m-n)$. <br> Symbolically: $m \equiv n(\bmod d) \Leftrightarrow d \\|(m-n)$ |
| Theore (Epp) | Let $a, b$, and $n$ be any integers and suppose $n>1$. The following statements are all equivalent: <br> 1. $n \mid(a-b)$; <br> 2. $a \equiv b(\bmod n)$; <br> 3. $a=b+k n$ for some integer $k$; <br> 4. $a$ and $b$ have the same (nonnegative) remainder when divided by $n$; <br> 5. $a \bmod n=b \bmod n$. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \hline \text { Theorem } \\ & \text { (Epp) } \end{aligned}$ | Let $a, b, c, d$, and $n$ be integers with $n>1$, and suppose $a \equiv c(\bmod n)$ and $b \equiv d$ $(\bmod n)$. Then <br> 1. $(a+b) \equiv(c+d)(\bmod n)$ <br> 2. $(a-b) \equiv(c-d)(\bmod n)$ <br> 3. $a b \equiv c d(\bmod n)$ <br> 4. $a m \equiv c m(\bmod n)$ for all integers $m$. |
| Corollary 8.4.4 (Epp) | Let $a, b$, and $n$ be integers with $n>1$. Then $a b \equiv[(a \bmod n)(b \bmod n)](\bmod n),$ <br> or, equivalently, $a b \bmod n=[(a \bmod n)(b \bmod n)] \bmod n .$ <br> In particular, if $m$ is a positive integer, then $a^{m} \equiv\left[(a \bmod n)^{m}\right](\bmod n) .$ |
| Definition 4.7.2 | For any integers $a, n$ with $n>1$, if an integer $s$ is such that $a s \equiv 1(\bmod n)$, then $s$ is called the multiplicative inverse of $a$ modulo $n$. We may write the inverse as $a^{-1}$. Because the commutative law still applies in modulo arithmetic, we also have $a^{-1} a$ $\equiv 1(\bmod n)$. |
| Theorem 4.7.3 | For any integer $a$, its multiplicative inverse modulo $n$ (where $n>1$ ), $a^{-1}$, exists if, and only if, $a$ and $n$ are coprime. |
| Corollary 4.7.4 | If $n=p$ is a prime number, then all integers $a$ in the range $0<a<p$ have multiplicative inverses modulo $p$. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Theorem 8.4.8 } \\ & (\mathrm{Epp}) \end{aligned}$ | For all integers $a, b$, and $c$, if $\operatorname{gcd}(a, c)=1$ and $a \mid b c$, then $a \mid b$. |


| Theorem 8.4.9 <br> $(E p p)$ | For all integers $a, b, c$, and $n$ with $n>1$, if $\operatorname{gcd}(c, n)=1$ and $a c \equiv b c(\bmod n)$, then $a$ <br> $\equiv b(\bmod n)$. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Theorem <br> $8.4 .10(E p p)$ | If $p$ is any prime number and $a$ is any integer such that $\mathrm{p} \nmid \mathrm{a}$, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$. |

## 2. Proof Strategy

| Proof of existence by construction | A statement in the form $\exists x \in D$ such that $Q(x)$ is true if, and only if, $Q(x)$ is true for at least one $x$ in $D$. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Proof of existence by non-construction | It shows either (a) that the existence of a value of $x$ that makes $Q(x)$ true is guaranteed by an axiom or a previously proved theorem or (b) that the assumption that there is no such $x$ leads to a contradiction. |
| Disproof by counter-example | To disprove a statement of the form " $\forall x \in D$, if $P(x)$ then $Q(x)$," find a value of $x$ in $D$ for which the hypothesis $P(x)$ is true and the conclusion $Q(x)$ is false. Such an $x$ is called a counterexample. |
| Proof by exhaustion | To elaborate that every possible case of this statement is true. |
| Proof by Generalizing from Generic Particular | To show that every element of a set satisfies a certain property, suppose $x$ is a particular but arbitrarily chosen element of the set, and show that $x$ satisfies the property. |
| Method of Direct Proof | 1. Express the statement to be proved in the form " $\forall x \in D$, if $P(x)$ then $Q(x) . "$ (This step is often done mentally.) <br> 2. Start the proof by supposing $x$ is a particular but arbitrarily chosen element of $D$ for which the hypothesis $P(x)$ is true. (This step is often abbreviated "Suppose $x \in D$ and $P(x)$. .) <br> 3. Show that the conclusion $Q(x)$ is true by using definitions, previously established results, and the rules for logical inference. |
| Proof by division into cases | To prove a statement of the form "If $A_{1}$ or $A_{2}$ or $\ldots$ or $A_{\mathrm{n}}$, then $C$," prove all of the following: <br> If $A_{1}$, then $C$, <br> If $A_{2}$, then $C$, <br> ... <br> If $A_{\mathrm{n}}$, then $C$. <br> This process shows that $C$ is true regardless of which of $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{\mathrm{n}}$ happens to be the case. |
| Proof by Contradiction | 1. Suppose the statement to be proved is false. That is, suppose that the negation of the statement is true. <br> 2. Show that this supposition leads logically to a contradiction. <br> 3. Conclude that the statement to be proved is true. |
| Proof by Contraposition | 1. Express the statement to be proved in the form $\forall x$ in $D$, if $P(x)$ then $Q(x)$. <br> (This step may be done mentally.) <br> 2. Rewrite this statement in the contrapositive form $\forall x$ in $D$, if $Q(x)$ is false then $P(x)$ is false. <br> (This step may also be done mentally.) <br> 3. Prove the contrapositive by a direct proof. <br> a. Suppose $x$ is a (particular but arbitrarily chosen) element of $D$ such that $Q(x)$ is false. <br> b. Show that $P(x)$ is false. |
| Proof by Mathematical Induction | Consider a statement of the form, "For all integers $n \geq a$, a property $P(n)$ is true." To prove such a statement, perform the following two steps: |


|  | Step 1 (basis step): Show that $P(a)$ is true. <br> Step 2 (inductive step): Show that for all integers $k \geq a$, if $P(k)$ is true then <br> $P(k+1)$ is true. To perform this step, suppose that $P(k)$ is true, where $k$ is <br> any particular but arbitrarily chosen integer with $k \geq a$. [This supposition is <br> called the inductive hypothesis.] Then show that $P(k+1)$ is true. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Proof by strong <br> Mathematical <br> Induction | Let $P(n)$ be a property that is defined for integers $n$, and let $a$ and $b$ be fixed <br> integers with $a \leq b$. Suppose the following two statements are true: <br> $1 . P(a), P(a+1), \ldots$, and $P(b)$ are all true. (basis step) <br> 2. For any integer $k \geq b$, if $P(i)$ is true for all integers $i$ from $a$ through $k$, <br> then $P(k+1)$ is true. (inductive step) <br> Then the statement for all integers $n \geq a, P(n)$ is true. (The supposition that <br> $P(i)$ is true for all integers $i$ from $a$ through $k$ is called the inductive <br> hypothesis. Another way to state the inductive hypothesis is to say that <br> $P(a), P(a+1), \ldots, P(k)$ are all true.) |
| Universal Instantiation | If some property is true of everything in a set, then it is true of any <br> particular thing in the set. |
| Existential <br> Instantiation | If the existence of a certain kind of object is assumed or has been deduced <br> then it can be given a name, as long as that name is not currently being used <br> to denote something else. |

## 3. Prime Numbers Table

Below are 168 prime numbers in the range $(1,1000)$.
$2,3,5,7,11,13,17,19,23,29,31,37,41,43,47,53,59,61,67,71,73,79,83,89,97,101,103$, $107,109,113,127,131,137,139,149,151,157,163,167,173,179,181,191,193,197,199,211$, 223, 227, 229, 233, 239, 241, 251, 257, 263, 269, 271, 277, 281, 283, 293, 307, 311, 313, 317, 331, $337,347,349,353,359,367,373,379,383,389,397,401,409,419,421,431,433,439,443,449$, $457,461,463,467,479,487,491,499,503,509,521,523,541,547,557,563,569,571,577,587$, $593,599,601,607,613,617,619,631,641,643,647,653,659,661,673,677,683,691,701,709$, $719,727,733,739,743,751,757,761,769,773,787,797,809,811,821,823,827,829,839,853$, 857, 859, 863, 877, 881, 883, 887, 907, 911, 919, 929, 937, 941, 947, 953, 967, 971, 977, 983, 991, 997

## 4. Set Theory

| Theorem 6.2.1 | 1. Inclusion of Intersection: For all sets $A$ and $B$, <br> (a) $A \cap B \subseteq A$ and (b) $A \cap B \subseteq B$. <br> 2. Inclusion in Union: For all sets $A$ and $B$, <br> (a) $A \subseteq A \cup B$ and $(\mathrm{b}) B \subseteq A \cup B$. <br> 3. Transitive Property of Subsets: For all sets $A, B$, and $C$, if $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq C$, then $A \subseteq C$. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Theorem 6.2.2 | Let all sets referred to below be subsets of a universal set $U$. <br> 1. Commutative Laws: For all sets $A$ and $B$, <br> (a) $A \cup B=B \cup A$ and (b) $A \cap B=B \cap A$. <br> 2. Associative Laws: For all sets $A, B$, and $C$, <br> (a) $(A \cup B) \cup C=A \cup(B \cup C)$ and <br> (b) $(A \cap B) \cap C=A \cap(B \cap C)$. <br> 3. Distributive Laws: For all sets, $A, B$, and $C$, <br> (a) $A \cup(B \cap C)=(A \cup B) \cap(A \cup C)$ and <br> (b) $A \cap(B \cup C)=(A \cap B) \cup(A \cap C)$. |


|  | 4. Identity Laws: For all sets $A$, <br> (a) $A \cup \emptyset=A$ and (b) $A \cap U=A$. <br> 5. Complement Laws: <br> (a) $A \cup A^{c}=U$ and (b) $A \cap A^{c}=\emptyset$. <br> 6. Double Complement Law: <br> For all sets $A,\left(A^{c}\right)^{c}=A$. <br> 7. Idempotent Laws: For all sets $A$, <br> (a) $A \cup A=A$ and (b) $A \cap A=A$. <br> 8. Universal Bound Laws: For all sets $A$, <br> (a) $A \cup U=U$ and (b) $A \cap \emptyset=\emptyset$. <br> 9. De Morgan's Laws: For all sets $A$ and $B$, <br> (a) $(A \cup B)^{c}=A^{c} \cap B^{c}$ and <br> (b) $(A \cap B)^{c}=A^{c} \cup B^{c}$. <br> 10. Absorption Laws: For all sets $A$ and $B$, <br> (a) $A \cup(A \cap B)=A$ and (b) $A \cap(A \cup B)=A$. <br> 11. Complements of $U$ and $\emptyset$ : <br> (a) $U^{c}=\varnothing$ and (b) $\emptyset^{c}=U$. <br> 12. Set Difference Law: For all sets $A$ and $B$, $A-B=A \cap B^{c}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| Theorem 6.2.3 | For any sets $A$ and $B$, if $A \subseteq B$, then (a) $A \cap B=A$ and (b) $A \cup B=B$. |

5. Probability theory
6. Graph Theory
