

# MHF3202

## Exam 3

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## Question 1: Question 2

**Lemma 0.0.1** The complement of the complement of a set in some universal set  $P$  is the original set, i.e. for some set  $A$ ,  $\overline{\overline{A}} = A$ .

**Proof:** Let  $P$  be some non-empty set, and let  $A \subseteq P$ .

Observe  $\overline{A} = P \setminus A = \{x : x \in P \text{ and } x \notin A\}$ .

Then  $\overline{\overline{A}} = P \setminus \overline{A} = \{y : y \in P \text{ and } y \notin \overline{A} = P \setminus A\}$ .

Notice that if  $y \in P$  and  $y \notin \overline{A}$ , then  $y \in P$  and  $y \in \{z : z \notin P \text{ or } z \in A\} = \{z : z \in \emptyset \cup \{a : a \in A\}\} = A$ .

So  $y \in P$  and  $y \in A$ , which by definition is the set  $P \cap A = A$ .

So  $\overline{\overline{A}} = \{y : y \in A\} = A$ . ☺

Let  $A$  be a non-empty set, and define the function  $f : \mathcal{P}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(A)$  by  $f(X) = \overline{X} (= A \setminus X)$ .

**Theorem 0.0.1**  $f$  is injective

**Proof:** To show that  $f$  is injective, fix  $X, Y \in \mathcal{P}(A)$ .

Then suppose that  $f(X) = f(Y)$ , i.e.  $\overline{X} = \overline{Y}$ .

Taking the complement of both sides, we get  $\overline{\overline{X}} = \overline{\overline{Y}}$  and  $X = Y$  by lemma 0.0.1.

So  $f$  is injective. ☺

**Theorem 0.0.2**  $f$  is surjective

**Proof:** To show that  $f$  is surjective, take some  $C \in \mathcal{P}(A)$ .

Then take  $B = \overline{C}$ .

Since  $C \in \mathcal{P}(A)$  and  $A \in \mathcal{P}(A)$ , then  $B = C \setminus A \in \mathcal{P}(A)$ .

Then we have  $f(B) = \overline{\overline{C}} = C$  by lemma 0.0.1.

So  $f$  is surjective. ☺

**Theorem 0.0.3**  $f$  is bijective

**Proof:** By theorems 0.0.1 and 0.0.2,  $f$  is both injective and surjective.

So  $f$  is bijective. ☺

## Question 2: Question 3

The minimum number of players that guarantee two cards of the same value/rank are dealt face up at some point in a single game of seven card stud is **four** players.

**Proof:** Notice that each player ends up with 4 face up cards.

With four players, there will be a total of 16 face up cards on the table.

Observe that there are only 13 ranks.

So the set of face up cards at the end of the game  $C$  has cardinality of 16 and the set of ranks  $R$  has cardinality of 13.

Define  $f : C \rightarrow S$  as an arbitrary function which assigns a rank to each card.

Notice that  $|C| > |S|$ , and so  $f$  is not injective by the pigeonhole principle.

So there are at least one rank that gets two cards mapped to it, so our original claim is proven. ☺

### Question 3: Question 5

**Proof:** First, notice that we can partition  $\mathbb{Z}$  into 6 equivalence classes that make up  $\mathbb{Z}_7$ .

Observe that we can split these equivalence classes into 4 distinct sets:  $[0]$ ,  $[1]$  and  $[6]$ ,  $[2]$  and  $[5]$ , and  $[3]$  and  $[4]$ , which we will label  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $C$ , and  $D$  respectively.

We denote  $G = \{A, B, C, D\}$ .

We want to show that choosing 2 integers from equivalence classes in the same set in  $G$  will result in either their sum or difference being divisible by 7.

Notice that if we choose two distinct integers  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  from  $A$  (for  $a_1 = 7a_m$ ,  $a_2 = 7a_n$ ,  $a_1 \neq a_2$  by definition of congruence of integers) we can observe  $a_1 + a_2 = 7a_m + 7a_n = 7(a_m + a_n) = 7a_k$  for  $a_k = a_m + a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

So, by definition of divisibility,  $7 \mid a_1 + a_2$ .

Thus, choosing any two distinct integers from the equivalence classes in  $A$ , their sum is divisible by 7.

If we choose two distinct integers  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  from equivalence classes from  $B$ , we have four cases:

**Case 1:**  $b_1, b_2 \in [1]$

If  $b_1, b_2 \in [1]$ , then  $b_1 = 7b_m + 1$  and  $b_2 = 7b_n + 1$  by definition of congruence for  $b_1 \neq b_2$ .

Then by subtracting  $b_1$  from  $b_2$ , then  $b_1 - b_2 = 7b_m + 1 - 7b_n - 1 = 7(b_m - b_n) = 7b_k$  for  $b_k = b_m - b_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

So, by definition of divisibility,  $7 \mid b_1 - b_2$

**Case 2:**  $b_1, b_2 \in [6]$

If  $b_1, b_2 \in [6]$ , then  $7 \mid b_1 - b_2$  by similarity to case 1.

**Case 3:**  $b_1 \in [1], b_2 \in [6]$

If  $b_1 \in [1]$  and  $b_2 \in [6]$ , then  $b_1 = 7b_q + 1$  and  $b_2 = 7b_r + 6$  by definition of congruence.

Then by adding  $b_1$  and  $b_2$ , we get  $b_1 + b_2 = 7b_q + 1 + 7b_r + 6 = 7(b_q + b_r + 1) = 7b_j$  for  $b_j = b_q + b_r + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

So, by definition of divisibility,  $7 \mid b_1 + b_2$

**Case 4:**  $b_1 \in [6], b_2 \in [1]$

If  $b_1 \in [6]$  and  $b_2 \in [1]$ , then  $7 \mid b_1 + b_2$  by similarity to case 3.

So for any two distinct integers from the equivalence classes in  $B$ , either their sum or their difference is divisible by 7.

Observe that we can show a similar result for  $C$  and  $D$ , since  $2 + 5 = 7$  and  $3 + 4 = 7$ .

Hence, for any two distinct integers from the same set in  $G$ , either their sum or their difference will be divisible by 7.

Now, create a set with 5 distinct arbitrary integers  $S = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5\} \subset \mathbb{Z}$  with  $x_i \neq x_j$  for  $i \neq j$ .

Define  $f : S \rightarrow G$  as an arbitrary function that maps 5 distinct integers to the four defined groups.

Observe that  $|S| = 5$  and  $|G| = 4$ , so  $|S| > |G|$  and  $f$  is not injective by the pigeonhole principle.

So two of the arbitrary integers must be from the same set in  $G$ .

Thus, if we choose 5 distinct integers, two of them will add or subtract to a number divisible by 7.  $\odot$

### Question 4: Question 7

**Proof:** We want to show that the set  $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$  has the same cardinality as  $\mathbb{N}$ , i.e. there is a bijection from  $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$  to  $\mathbb{N}$ .

Consider the function  $f : \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  defined by  $f(a, b, c) = 2^{(2^{a-1}(2b-1)-1)}(2c-1)$ .

To show that  $f$  is surjective, take some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

By the fundamental theorem of arithmetic,  $n$  can be written by a unique prime factorization  $n = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3 \cdot \dots \cdot p_k$ .

Now  $n$  is either even or odd, since it is a natural number.

If  $n$  is even, then there is some  $p_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq k$  such that  $p_i = 2^{m-1}$  for some  $m \geq 2$  (i.e.  $m-1 \geq 1$ ),

since  $2 \mid n$  and is thus a factor of  $n$ .

So we can then write  $n = 2^{m-1} \cdot p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3 \cdot \dots \cdot p_{i-1} \cdot p_{i+1} \cdot \dots \cdot p_k$ .

If  $n$  is odd, then 2 is not a factor of  $n$ , and we can write  $n = 2^{m-1} \cdot p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3 \cdot \dots \cdot p_k$  where  $m = 1$  (i.e.  $m - 1 = 0$ ).

Either way, we can take  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  since  $m > 0$  in either case.

We can then write  $n = 2^{m-1}p$  where  $p = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3 \cdot \dots \cdot p_k$  (with the  $p_i$  element removed if  $n$  is even) is a unique product by the fundamental theorem of algebra.

Recall that 2 is the only even prime.

Observe that we either factored all powers of 2 out of  $n$  in the case that  $n$  was even, or  $n$  didn't have any factors of 2 in the case that  $n$  was odd.

Thus  $p$  is odd, since all the factors of  $p$  are odd.

**Note**

I forget if we proved that the product of any number of odd integers is odd, but I know it's easy to do by induction. However, I have another exam I really need to study for so I'm gonna gloss over that to get this done.

Since  $p$  is odd, it can be written as  $p = 2j - 1$  for some  $j$  where  $j \in \mathbb{N}$  because  $p > 0$  and thus  $j > 0$ .

So we have an  $m$  and  $j$  such that  $2^{m-1}(2j - 1) = n$ , and we can thus find a pair of natural numbers to generate any given natural number.

Now take  $x \in \mathbb{N}$ .

We know from before that we can find a pair of natural numbers  $x_m$  and  $x_n$  that generates  $x$ .

Since  $x_m$  is a natural number, we can find a pair of natural numbers  $x_{m_m}$  and  $x_{m_n}$  that generates  $x_m$ .

So taking  $(x_{m_m}, x_{m_n}, x_n)$ , we have a tuple of 3 numbers such that  $f(x_{m_m}, x_{m_n}, x_n) = 2^{x_m}(2x_n - 1) = x$ .

**Note**

I'm sure this all could've been made into a lemma and written neater but again, I'm in a rush :(.

To show that  $f$  is injective, consider some  $y = (a_1, b_1, c_1), z = (a_2, b_2, c_2) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ .

Suppose that  $y \neq z$ , i.e.  $a_1 \neq a_2$ ,  $b_1 \neq b_2$ , or  $c_1 \neq c_2$ .

**Case 1:**  $a_1 \neq a_2$

If  $a_1 \neq a_2$ , then  $2^{a_1-1} \neq 2^{a_2-1}$ .

Also,  $2b_1 - 1$  and  $2b_2 - 1$  are both odd and cannot have a 2 factored out.

Thus,  $2^{a_1-1}(2b_1 - 1) = a_3 \neq a_4 = 2^{a_2-1}(2b_2 - 1)$ , since the exponents of 2 are different and the resulting products will have differing unique prime factorizations.

By similar logic, since  $2^{a_3-1} \neq 2^{a_4-1}$ , then  $f(y) = 2^{a_3}(2c_1 - 1) \neq 2^{a_4}(2c_2 - 1) = f(z)$ .

Notice that this does not depend on if  $b_1 = b_2$  or  $c_1 = c_2$ .

**Case 2:**  $b_1 \neq b_2$

If  $b_1 \neq b_2$ , then  $b_3 = 2b_1 - 1 \neq 2b_2 - 1 = b_4$ .

By the fundamental theorem of algebra,  $b_3$  and  $b_4$  have different prime factorizations, and since  $b_3$  and  $b_4$  are odd, none of those factors are 2.

So multiplying either of them by any power of 2 cannot make them equal.

So  $b_5 = 2^{a_1-1}b_3 \neq 2^{a_2-1}b_4 = b_6$ .

Thus  $f(y) = 2^{b_5-1}(2c_1 - 1) \neq 2^{b_6-1}(2c_2 - 1) = f(z)$ .

Notice that this does not depend on if  $a_1 = a_2$  or  $c_1 = c_2$ .

**Case 3:**  $c_1 \neq c_2$

If  $c_1 \neq c_2$ , then  $c_3 = 2c_1 - 1 \neq 2c_2 - 1 = c_4$ .

By the fundamental theorem of algebra,  $c_3$  and  $c_4$  have different prime factorizations, and  $c_3$  and  $c_4$  are odd, none of those factors are 2.

So multiplying either of them by any power of 2 cannot make them equal.

So  $f(y) = 2^{(2^{a_1-1}(2b_1-1))}c_3 \neq 2^{(2^{a_2-1}(2b_2-1))}c_4 = f(z)$ .

Notice that this does not depend on if  $a_1 = a_2$  or  $b_1 = b_2$ .

Since our cases are exhaustive, if  $y \neq z$ , then  $f(y) \neq f(z)$ .

So  $f$  is injective.

Since  $f$  is injective and surjective, it is bijective.

So we have a bijection  $f$  from  $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$  to  $\mathbb{N}$  which thus have the same cardinality. ☺

#### Question 5: Question 8

**Proof:** We seek to prove that a bijection must exist.

Suppose  $A$  and  $B$  are finite sets.

Suppose an injective function  $f : A \rightarrow B$  and a surjective function  $g : A \rightarrow B$  exist.

By the pigeonhole principle,  $|A| \leq |B|$  and  $|A| \geq |B|$ , and so  $|A| = |B|$ .

Notice that since  $f$  is injective, it maps  $|A|$  elements to  $|A| = |B|$  distinct elements.

So  $f$  maps to every element in  $B$ , and  $f$  is surjective and thus bijective.

So a bijection must exist. ☺