Problem Set J

Smit Rao (1004324135) Zainab Dar (TUT104) March 26, 2018

5.6.20

$$f: A \to \mathbb{R}, \quad q: A \to \mathbb{R}. \quad q(x) = 3 \cdot [f(x)]^2 + 1$$

Claim:

$$(\forall a,\ b,\ p,\ q\in\mathbb{R})\big[(g(a)=g(b)\implies a=b)\implies (f(p)=f(q)\implies p=q)\big]$$

$$Proof:$$

$$(g(a) = g(b) \implies a = b)$$

$$\Rightarrow (g(p) = g(q) \implies p = q)$$

$$\Rightarrow (3 \cdot [f(p)]^2 + 1 = 3 \cdot [f(q)]^2 + 1 \implies p = q)$$

$$\Rightarrow (f(p) = f(q) \implies p = q)$$

5.6.26

Claim:

The composition of two injections is an injection.

Proof:

We want to show:

$$(\forall f, g)(f \text{ injective}, g \text{ injective})(f(g(a)) = f(g(b)) \implies a = b)$$

$$f(g(a)) = f(g(b))$$

$$\implies g(a) = g(b)$$

$$\implies a = b$$

5.6.38

We know that \mathbb{Z} is *countable*, and its power set $P(\mathbb{Z})$ has a strictly greater cardinality than $|\mathbb{Z}|$, hence $P(\mathbb{Z})$ is <u>uncountable</u>. If it was countable, this would mean it has the same cardinality as $|\mathbb{N}| = |\mathbb{Z}|$, a contradiction of the theorem $(\forall \text{ Set } X)(|P(X)| > |X|)$. $P(\mathbb{Z})$ is trivially not finite since its cardinality is infinite : it is lower-bounded by $|\mathbb{Z}|$.

We know that \mathbb{R} is uncountable. We also know that $|\mathbb{R}| = |(0,1)|$ from lectures. We can now form a bijection $f:(0,1)\to(2,3)$, f(x)=x+2 hence showing $|(2,3)|=|(0,1)|=|\mathbb{R}|$, $\therefore (2,3)$ must be <u>uncountable</u>.

By the Prime Number Theorem, there are infinitely many prime numbers \therefore they are not finite. In addition, $\lim_{x\to\infty}\pi(x)$, representing the number of positive primes is upper-bounded by $|\mathbb{N}|$. We can list the negatives of all such primes p simply as -p, hence it maintains its cardinality. \therefore the number of prime numbers is <u>countable</u> (\because it does not exceed the cardinality of naturals, it can't be uncountable).

Lemmas:

- (1) There are infinitely many rationals in [0, 1].
- (2) $(\forall \text{ Sets } A, B)(|A \cap B| \le \min(|A|, |B|))$

Notice that $(1) \Longrightarrow (\mathbb{Q} \cap [0,1])$ is not finite). It cannot be uncountable since it is upperbounded by $|\mathbb{Q}|$: it must be <u>countable</u>.

Trivially, $\mathbb{N} \cap (-\infty, 1000) = \{1, 2, 3 \cdots 997, 998, 999\}$. This is obviously finite since we can assign a *finite* value to $|\mathbb{N} \cap (-\infty, 1000)|$. Id est we can start counting the elements of the given set and finish counting at some point in time precisely due to its finite cardinality.

5.6.40

$$|A| \neq |B|$$

In the context of MAT102, we say a set is "countable" iff it has the *same* cardinality as \mathbb{N} . We observe there are 3 cases for cardinality:

- a) If A is countable, it is possible that |B| is finite. Exempli gratia: $B = \{1\}$.
- b) If A is uncountable, |B| be may still be finite. Exempli gratia: $B = \{2\}$.

5.6.48

 $B = \{f : X \to \{0,1\}\}$. We are producing a bijection $h : P(X) \to B$. In order to do this, we produce an injection h followed by a surjection h.

For injectivity, we want $(\forall X_1, X_2 \in P(X))[(f_1 : X_1 \to \{0, 1\}) = f_2 : X_2 \to \{0, 1\}) \implies X_1 = X_2].$

$$f_1 = f_2$$

$$\Longrightarrow (\forall x_1 \in X_1)(x_1 \in X_2) \land (\forall x_2 \in X_2)(x_2 \in X_1)$$

$$\Longrightarrow X_1 = X_2$$

For surjectivity, we want h(P(X)) = B. Due to injectivity, it suffices to show |P(X)| = |B|. Alternately we can also show $\forall f \in B, \exists X \in P(X), h(X) = f$.

Let $f \in B$ be given. Since X is nonempty, we know P(X) always has at least two elements; which are in particular, $\phi \wedge X$. Since h is one-to-one, it maps its elements to at least two distinct functions, each of which map X to f's entire codomain consisting of $0 \wedge 1$.

Another way of thinking about this is:

 $|P(X)| = 2^{|X|} = |B|$ (: f maps to two outputs, yielding cardinality $2^{|X|}$)

...as required for bijection.

6.4.2

- a) True c) True e) False
- b) False d) True f) True

6.4.4

a) True Claim: $d|a \wedge d|b \implies d|(a+b)$.

Proof:

$$\frac{a}{d} \in \mathbb{Z} \land \frac{b}{d} \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\implies \frac{a}{d} + \frac{b}{d} \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\implies \frac{a+b}{d} \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\implies d|(a+b)$$

b) False Claim: $d|(a+b) \implies d|a \wedge d|b$

Counterexample: d = 3, a = 2, b = 1.

c) False Claim: $d|(a+b) \implies d|a \vee d|b$

Counterexample: d = 3, a = 2, b = 1.

d) True Claim: $d|(a+b) \implies (d|a \wedge d|b) \vee (d \not\mid a \wedge d \not\mid b)$

Proof:

For the sake of contradiction:

$$\neg \text{Claim} = \underline{d|(a+b) \land (d|a \lor d|b)} \land (d \not\mid a \lor d \not\mid b)$$
Part (c) $\Longrightarrow \underline{d|(a+b) \land \neg (d|a \lor d|b)}$ is True $\Longrightarrow \neg \text{Claim}$ is False $\Longrightarrow \text{Claim}$ is True

6.4.8

$$\exists a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad a^2 + b^2 = c^2$$

Claim: $2|c \implies 2|a \wedge 2|b$

Proof:

Lemma: The product of evens is even, the product of odds is odd.

$$a^{2} + b^{2} = c^{2} - b^{2}$$

$$\implies a^{2} = (c+b)(c-b)$$

$$\therefore (c \ even), (Lemma) \implies (a \ even \land b \ even) \lor (a \ odd \land b \ odd)$$

For the sake of contradiction, assume a, b are odd. Then, $(\exists p, q, r \in \mathbb{Z})(2p + 1 = a)(2q + 1 = b)(2r = c)$

$$a^{2} + b^{2} = c^{2}$$

$$\implies (2p+1)^{2} + (2q+1)^{2} = 4r^{2}$$

$$\implies 4p^{2} + 4p + 4q^{2} + 4q + 2 = 4r^{2}$$

$$\implies 4p^{2} + 4p + 4q^{2} + 4q - 4r^{2} = 2$$
Notice
$$4|(4p^{2} + 4p + 4q^{2} + 4q - 4r^{2})$$
But \therefore 4 \(\left\) 2 ...a contradiction

By our lemma, we know that both a, b must be both even or both odd. Since we contradicted the case where a, b are odd, we conclude they must both be even.

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