

1. a. The contrapositive of  $P \Rightarrow Q$  is  $(\text{NOT } Q) \Rightarrow (\text{NOT } P)$

P	Q	$P \Rightarrow Q$	NOT Q	NOT P	$(\text{NOT } Q) \Rightarrow (\text{NOT } P)$
T	T	T	F	F	T
T	F	F	T	F	F
F	T	T	F	T	T
F	F	T	T	T	T

The truth tables for  $P \Rightarrow Q$  and  $(\text{NOT } Q) \Rightarrow (\text{NOT } P)$  are the same, so they are logically equivalent.

b. The converse of  $P \Rightarrow Q$  is  $Q \Rightarrow P$

P	Q	$P \Rightarrow Q$	$Q \Rightarrow P$
T	T	T	T
T	F	F	T
F	T	T	F
F	F	T	T

The truth tables for  $P \Rightarrow Q$  and  $Q \Rightarrow P$  are different, so they are not logically equivalent.

2 a.  $A \cup B = \{x \mid (x \in A) \text{ OR } (x \in B)\}$

$A \cap B = \{x \mid (x \in A) \text{ AND } (x \in B)\}$

$A \setminus B = \{x \mid (x \in A) \text{ AND } (x \notin B)\}$

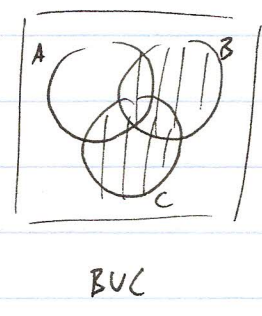
b. Let  $P = (x \in A)$ ,  $Q = (x \in B)$ ,  $R = (x \in C)$

Then  $(x \in A \wedge (B \vee C)) = P \text{ AND } (Q \text{ OR } R)$  |  
 $(x \in (A \wedge B) \vee (A \wedge C)) = (P \text{ AND } Q) \text{ OR } (P \text{ AND } R)$  | (\*)

P	Q	R	Q OR R	P AND (Q OR R)	P AND Q	P AND R	(P AND Q) OR (P AND R)
T	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
T	T	F	T	T	T	F	T
T	F	T	T	T	F	T	T
T	F	F	F	F	F	F	F
F	T	T	T	F	F	F	F
F	T	F	T	F	F	F	F
F	F	T	T	F	F	F	F
F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F

The truth tables for  $P \text{ AND } (Q \text{ OR } R)$  and  $(P \text{ AND } Q) \text{ OR } (P \text{ AND } R)$  are the same, so they are logically equivalent. So by (\*) we have  $A \wedge (B \vee C) = (A \wedge B) \vee (A \wedge C)$ .

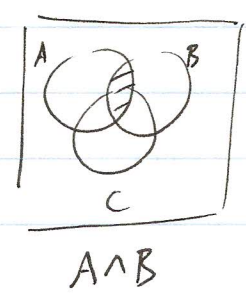
Alternatively, using Venn diagrams:-



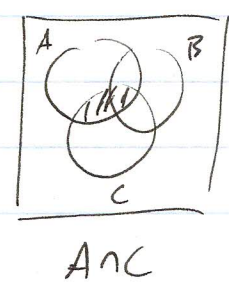
$\rightsquigarrow$



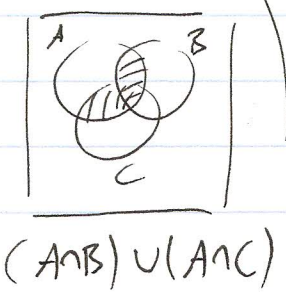
We see that  
 $A \cap (B \vee C)$   
 $= (A \cap B) \vee (A \cap C)$



,



$\rightsquigarrow$



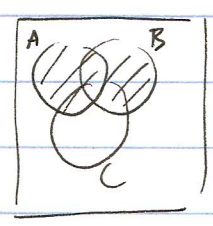
c. Let  $P = \{x \in A\}$ ,  $Q = \{x \in B\}$ ,  $R = \{x \in C\}$

Then  $(x \in (A \cup B) \setminus C) = (P \text{ OR } Q) \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } R)$  (\*)  
 $(x \in (A \setminus C) \cup (B \setminus C)) = (P \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } R)) \text{ OR } (Q \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } R))$

P	Q	R	P OR Q	NOT R	(P OR Q) AND (NOT R)	P AND (NOT R)	Q AND (NOT R)	(P AND (NOT R)) OR (Q AND (NOT R))
T	T	T	T	F	F	F	F	F
T	T	F	T	T	T	T	T	T
T	F	T	T	F	F	F	F	F
T	F	F	T	T	T	T	F	T
F	T	T	T	F	F	F	F	F
F	T	F	T	T	T	F	T	T
F	F	T	F	F	F	F	F	F
F	F	F	F	T	F	F	F	F

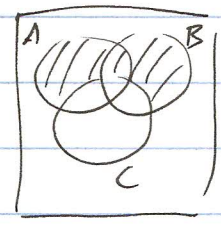
The truth tables for  $(P \text{ OR } Q) \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } R)$  and  $(P \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } R)) \text{ OR } (Q \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } R))$  are the same, so they are logically equivalent. So by (\*), we have  $(A \cup B) \setminus C = (A \setminus C) \cup (B \setminus C)$

Alternatively, using Venn diagrams:-



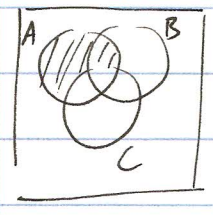
$A \cup B$

$\implies$



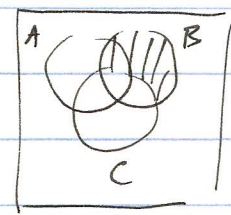
$(A \cup B) \setminus C$

We see that  $(A \cup B) \setminus C = (A \setminus C) \cup (B \setminus C)$



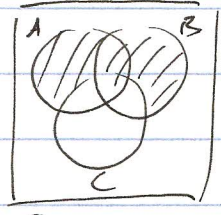
$A \setminus C$

,



$B \setminus C$

$\implies$



$(A \setminus C) \cup (B \setminus C)$



3. a. For all positive integers  $x$ ,  $x \geq 1$   
 b. For all real numbers  $x$ ,  $x^2 \geq 0$ .  
 c. There is a real number  $x$  such that  $x^2 - 6x + 7 = 0$ .  
 d. There is an integer  $x$  such that  $x^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$ .  
 e. For all real numbers  $x$  and  $y$ , if  $xy = 0$  then  $x = 0$  or  $y = 0$ .  
 f. For all positive integers  $x$  there exists a positive integer  $y$  such that  $y > x$ .  
 g. For all real numbers  $y$  there is a real number  $x$  such that  $x^3 = y$ .

4. a.  $\text{NOT} \left( (\exists x \in \mathbb{Z}) (x^2 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}) \right) \equiv (\forall x \in \mathbb{Z}) (x^2 \not\equiv 3 \pmod{4})$  logically equivalent

For all integers  $x$ ,  $x^2 \not\equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ .

b.  $\text{NOT} \left( (\forall x \in \mathbb{R}) (x^2 - 4x + 2 > 0) \right) \equiv (\exists x \in \mathbb{R}) (x^2 - 4x + 2 \leq 0)$

~~For all real numbers~~ There is a real number  $x$  such that  $x^2 - 4x + 2 \leq 0$ .

c.  $\text{NOT} \left( (\forall x \in \mathbb{N}) (\exists y \in \mathbb{N}) (y < x) \right) \equiv (\exists x \in \mathbb{N}) (\forall y \in \mathbb{N}) (y \geq x)$

There is a positive integer  $x$  such that for all positive integers  $y$ ,  $y \geq x$ .

d.  $\text{NOT} \left( (\exists b \in \mathbb{R}) (\forall x \in \mathbb{R}) (\log x \leq b) \right) \equiv (\forall b \in \mathbb{R}) (\exists x \in \mathbb{R}) (\log x > b)$

For all real numbers  $b$  there is a real number  $x$  such that  $\log x > b$ .



$$e \text{ NOT } ((\exists x, y, z \in \mathbb{N})(x^3 + y^3 = z^3)) \equiv (\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{N})(x^3 + y^3 \neq z^3)$$

For all positive integers  $x, y, z$ ,  $x^3 + y^3 \neq z^3$ .

5 a.  $(\forall x \in \mathbb{R})(x^2 + 2x + 3 > 0)$

b.  $(\exists x \in \mathbb{R})(x^2 = 2)$

c.  $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N})(\exists a \in \mathbb{R})(x > a \Rightarrow (e^x > x^n))$

d.  $(\exists b \in \mathbb{R})(\forall x \in \mathbb{R})(x - x^2 \leq b)$

6.  $a_1 = 10, a_{n+1} = 3a_n - 8 \text{ for } n \in \mathbb{N}$

Claim:  $a_n = 2 \cdot 3^n + 4$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$

Proof: By induction.

$n=1$   $a_1 = 10$  and  $2 \cdot 3^1 + 4 = 6 + 4 = 10 \checkmark$

$n=k \Rightarrow n=k+1$ : We assume  $a_k = 2 \cdot 3^k + 4$  and show that

$$a_{k+1} = 2 \cdot 3^{k+1} + 4 :-$$

$$\begin{aligned} a_{k+1} &= 3a_k - 8 = 3(2 \cdot 3^k + 4) - 8 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 3^k + 12 - 8 \\ &= 2 \cdot 3^{k+1} + 4. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

7. Claim  $\sum_{r=1}^n (2r+1) = n(n+2)$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Proof: By induction

$n=1$  LHS =  $(2 \cdot 1 + 1) = 3$ . RHS =  $1 \cdot (1+2) = 3 \checkmark$

$n=k \Rightarrow n=k+1$ : We assume  $\sum_{r=1}^k (2r+1) = k(k+2)$  and show that

$$\sum_{r=1}^{k+1} (2r+1) = (k+1)((k+1)+2).$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LHS} &= \sum_{r=1}^k (2r+1) + (2(k+1)+1) = k(k+2) + (2k+3) = k^2 + 2k + 2k + 3 \\ &= k^2 + 4k + 3 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{RHS} = (k+1)(k+3) = k^2 + 4k + 3 \quad \checkmark. \quad \square$$

8. Claim  $\sum_{r=1}^n r(r+2) = \frac{1}{6} n(n+1)(2n+7)$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Proof. By induction

$$\underline{n=1} \quad \text{LHS} = 1 \cdot (1+2) = 3. \quad \text{RHS} = \frac{1}{6} \cdot 1 \cdot (1+1) \cdot (2 \cdot 1 + 7) = \frac{1}{6} \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 9 = 3. \quad \checkmark$$

$$\underline{n=k \Rightarrow n=k+1}: \quad \text{We assume } \sum_{r=1}^k r(r+2) = \frac{1}{6} k(k+1)(2k+7)$$

$$\text{and show } \sum_{r=1}^{k+1} r(r+2) = \frac{1}{6} (k+1)((k+1)+1)(2(k+1)+7)$$

$$\text{LHS} = \sum_{r=1}^k r(r+2) + (k+1)((k+1)+2) = \frac{1}{6} k(k+1)(2k+7) + (k+1)(k+3)$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} (k+1) (k(2k+7) + 6(k+3))$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} (k+1) (2k^2 + 13k + 18)$$

$$\text{RHS} = \frac{1}{6} (k+1)(k+2)(2k+9) = \frac{1}{6} (k+1) (2k^2 + 13k + 18) \quad \checkmark$$

$\square$ .

9. Claim  $5^n > 4^n + 3^n + 2^n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n \geq 3$ .

Proof By induction.

$$\underline{n=3} \quad 5^3 = 125, \quad 4^3 + 3^3 + 2^3 = 64 + 27 + 8 = 99, \\ 125 > 99 \quad \checkmark.$$

$$\underline{n=k \Rightarrow n=k+1}. \quad \text{We assume } 5^k > 4^k + 3^k + 2^k \quad \text{and show}$$

$$5^{k+1} > 4^{k+1} + 3^{k+1} + 2^{k+1}$$

$$5^{k+1} = 5 \cdot 5^k > 5 \cdot (4^k + 3^k + 2^k) = 5 \cdot 4^k + 5 \cdot 3^k + 5 \cdot 2^k$$

$$> 4 \cdot 4^k + 3 \cdot 3^k + 2 \cdot 2^k$$

$$= 4^{k+1} + 3^{k+1} + 2^{k+1}. \quad \square$$

10 a.  $1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, \dots$

b. Claim  $f_1^2 + f_2^2 + \dots + f_n^2 = f_n \cdot f_{n+1}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Proof. By induction.

$$\underline{n=1}. \quad \text{LHS} = f_1^2 = 1^2 = 1$$

$$\text{RHS} = f_1 \cdot f_2 = 1 \cdot 1 = 1 \quad \checkmark$$

$$\underline{n=k \Rightarrow n=k+1}. \quad \text{We assume } f_1^2 + \dots + f_k^2 = f_k \cdot f_{k+1}$$

$$\text{and show } f_1^2 + \dots + f_{k+1}^2 = f_{k+1} \cdot f_{(k+1)+1} \quad :-$$

$$\text{LHS} = f_1^2 + \dots + f_k^2 + f_{k+1}^2 = (f_1^2 + \dots + f_k^2) + f_{k+1}^2$$

$$= (f_k \cdot f_{k+1}) + f_{k+1}^2 = f_{k+1} \cdot (f_k + f_{k+1})$$

$$= f_{k+1} \cdot f_{k+2} = \text{RHS}$$

↑

by definition of Fibonacci sequence

□.

11 a. The greatest common divisor of  $a$  &  $b$  is the largest  $d \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $d|a$  and  $d|b$ .

$$\text{gcd}(123, 39) = ?$$

Use Euclidean algorithm

$$123 = 3 \cdot 39 + 6$$

$$39 = 6 \cdot 6 + \boxed{3}$$

$$6 = 2 \cdot 3 + 0$$

$$\text{gcd}(123, 39) = 3.$$

$$\text{b. } \text{gcd}(157, 83) = ?$$

$$157 = 1 \cdot 83 + 74$$

$$83 = 1 \cdot 74 + 9$$

$$74 = 8 \cdot 9 + 2$$

$$9 = 4 \cdot 2 + \boxed{1}$$

$$2 = 2 \cdot 1 + 0.$$

$$\text{gcd}(157, 83) = 1.$$



$$c \quad \gcd(2 \cdot 3^5 \cdot 7 \cdot 5^9 \cdot 11^4, 2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 7^{10}) = 2 \cdot 3^2 = 12.$$

using  $\gcd(p_1^{\alpha_1} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r}, p_1^{\beta_1} \dots p_r^{\beta_r}) = p_1^{\min(\alpha_1, \beta_1)} \dots p_r^{\min(\alpha_r, \beta_r)}$

for  $p_1, \dots, p_r$  primes and  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_r, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_r \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ .  
 (follows from the fundamental theorem of arithmetic.)

12. Claim  $\gcd(3n+2, 3n+5) = 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Proof. By Euclidean algorithm: -

$$\begin{aligned} 3n+5 &= 1 \cdot (3n+2) + 3 \\ 3n+2 &= n \cdot 3 + 2 \\ 3 &= 1 \cdot 2 + \boxed{1} \\ 2 &= 2 \cdot 1 + 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\gcd(3n+5, 3n+2) = 1. \quad \square$$

13. a.  $24x + 52y = 8$

$\gcd(24, 52) = 4 \mid 8 \Rightarrow$  solutions exist.

EA:  $52 = 2 \cdot 24 + \boxed{4}$ ,  $24 = 6 \cdot 4 + 0$ .

$4 = 24 \cdot (-2) + 52 \cdot (1)$  (solve  $ax+by = \gcd(a,b)$  using back subst. in EA)

$\times 2 \quad 8 = 24 \cdot (-4) + 52 \cdot (2) \Rightarrow$  one solution is  $x = -4, y = 2$ .

All solutions of  $ax+by=c$  are given by  $x = x_0 + \frac{b}{d} \cdot t, y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d} \cdot t$ ,  
 where  $x_0, y_0$  is one solution and  $d = \gcd(a,b)$ . For  $t \in \mathbb{Z}$  arbitrary.

In our case:  $x = -4 + \frac{52}{4}t, y = 2 - \frac{24}{4}t$   
 $= -4 + 13t \quad = 2 - 6t$

b.  $\gcd(42, 15) = 3 \nmid 7 \Rightarrow$  no solutions.

14. a)  $5x \equiv 12 \pmod{17}$

$\Leftrightarrow 5x = 17q + 12$ , some  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$

$\Leftrightarrow 5x + 17y = 12$   $y = -q$

One solution :  $x = -1, y = 1$  (By inspection, or use EA)

All solutions  $x = -1 + 17t, y = 1 - 5t$  ( $\gcd(5, 17) = 1$ )

$\therefore 5x \equiv 12 \pmod{17} \Leftrightarrow x \equiv -1 \pmod{17}$

b)  $x^2 + 3x + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$

(cases  $x \equiv 0, 1, 2, 3$  or  $4 \pmod{5}$ )

$x$	0	1	2	3	4
$x^2 + 3x + 1$	1	$5 \equiv 0$	$11 \equiv 1$	$19 \equiv 4$	$29 \equiv 4$

So  $x^2 + 3x + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{5} \Leftrightarrow x \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$ .

15 a)  $x^3 + x + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$

(cases  $x \equiv 0, 1, 2$ , or  $3 \pmod{4}$ )

$x$	0	1	2	3
$x^3 + x + 1$	1	3	$11 \equiv 3$	$31 \equiv 3$

So there are no solutions of  $x^3 + x + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ .

b) (claim: The equation  $x^3 + x = 4y^2 + 7$  has no solutions  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ .)

Proof: ~~Let~~ Proof by contradiction. Suppose  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  satisfy  $x^3 + x = 4y^2 + 7$ .

Then  $x^3 + x + 1 = (4y^2 + 7) + 1 = 4y^2 + 8 = 4 \cdot (y^2 + 2) \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ .



This is a contradiction because the congruence  $x^3+x+1 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$  has no solutions (by part (a)).  $\square$ .

16. A positive integer  $n$  is prime if  $n > 1$  and the only positive integers which divide  $n$  are  $1$  and  $n$  itself.

a) FTA: For all positive integers  $n$  such that  $n > 1$ ,  $n$  can be written as a product of primes in a unique way (up to reordering the factors).

b) In general, if  $n \in \mathbb{N}, n > 1$ , and  $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r}$  is the prime factorization of  $n$ , then the positive integers  $d$  such that  $d | n$  are given by  $d = p_1^{\beta_1} \dots p_r^{\beta_r}$  where  $0 \leq \beta_i \leq \alpha_i$  for each  $i = 1, \dots, r$ .

For  $108 = 2 \cdot 54 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 27 = 2^2 \cdot 3^3$ , we have  $d = 2^{\alpha_1} 3^{\alpha_2}$  where  $0 \leq \alpha_1 \leq 2$  and  $0 \leq \alpha_2 \leq 3$ , so  $d = 1, 2, 4, 3, 6, 12, 9, 18, 36, 27, 54, 108$

c) By part b),  $\# \{ d \in \mathbb{N} \mid d | n \} = \# \{ (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_r) \in \mathbb{Z}^r \mid 0 \leq \beta_i \leq \alpha_i \text{ for each } i = 1, \dots, r \} = (\alpha_1 + 1) \cdot (\alpha_2 + 1) \cdot \dots \cdot (\alpha_r + 1)$ .

17. Claim. For all  $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ , if  $a^2 | b^2$  then  $a | b$ .

Proof: Let  $a = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r}$  and  $b = p_1^{\beta_1} p_2^{\beta_2} \dots p_r^{\beta_r}$

be the prime factorizations of  $a$  &  $b$ .

(Note: here we allow  $\alpha_i$  or  $\beta_i = 0$  for some  $i$  so that we can use the same set of primes  $p_1, \dots, p_r$  for  $a$  &  $b$ .)



Then  $a^2 = p_1^{2\alpha_1} p_2^{2\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{2\alpha_r}$  &  $b^2 = p_1^{2\beta_1} p_2^{2\beta_2} \dots p_r^{2\beta_r}$

So  $a^2 | b^2 \iff 2\alpha_i \leq 2\beta_i$  for each  $i=1, \dots, r$   
 $\iff \alpha_i \leq \beta_i$  for each  $i=1, \dots, r$   
 $\iff a | b. \quad \square$

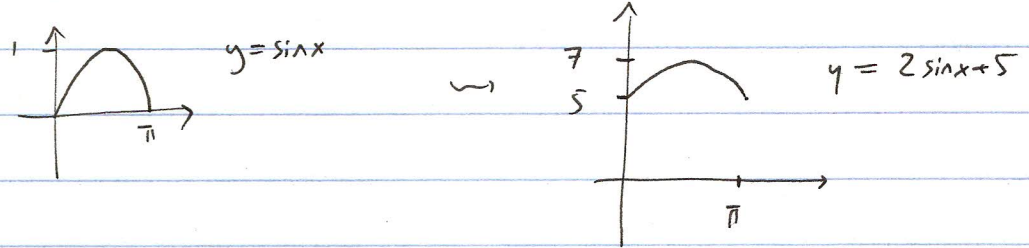
18.  $f: A \rightarrow B$  is injective (or one-to-one) if

for all  $a_1, a_2 \in A$ ,  $(a_1 \neq a_2) \implies (f(a_1) \neq f(a_2))$   
 (Equivalently,  $(f(a_1) = f(a_2)) \implies (a_1 = a_2)$ ).

$f: A \rightarrow B$  is surjective (or onto) if for all  $b \in B$ ,

there is an  $a \in A$  such that  $f(a) = b$ .

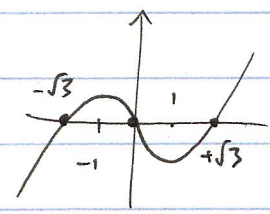
a.  $f: [0, \pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = 2\sin x + 5$ .



NOT injective : e.g.  $f(0) = f(\pi) = 5$

NOT surjective :  $|\sin x| \leq 1 \implies \text{range } 3 \leq f(x) \leq 7$   
 (More precisely, for  $0 \leq x \leq \pi$ ,  $0 \leq \sin x \leq 1 \implies 5 \leq f(x) \leq 7$ )  
 range  $f = [5, 7]$

b.  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   $f(x) = x^3 - 3x$



$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 3 = 3(x^2 - 1)$  .  $f'(x) = 0 \iff x = \pm 1$ .

See  $f$  NOT injective. e.g.  $f(x) = 0 \iff x \cdot (x^2 - 3) = 0$   
 $\iff x = 0, \pm\sqrt{3}$ .

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = -\infty, \quad \text{if } f \text{ is continuous.}$$

$\Rightarrow f$  is surjective (by intermediate value theorem)

c.  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad f(x,y) = x^2 + y^2$

NOT injective:  $f(x_1, y_1) = f(x_2, y_2) \iff x_1^2 + y_1^2 = x_2^2 + y_2^2$   
 $\iff (x_1, y_1) \neq (x_2, y_2)$  are same distance from  $(0,0)$ .

e.g.  $f(1,0) = f(0,1)$ .

NOT surjective:  $f(x,y) = x^2 + y^2 \geq 0$  for all  $x,y$ .

d.  $f: \mathbb{N}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}, \quad f(x,y,z) = 2^x \cdot 3^y \cdot 5^z$ .

injective: by FTA: If  $n = 2^{x_1} 3^{y_1} 5^{z_1} = 2^{x_2} 3^{y_2} 5^{z_2}$   
 then  $(x_1, y_1, z_1) = (x_2, y_2, z_2)$   
 by uniqueness of prime factorizations.

NOT surjective: by FTA, only  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that the prime factorization of  $n$  involves the prime factors 2, 3, 5 and no other primes are in the range of  $f$ .

19. a.  $f: \mathbb{Z}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}, \quad f(x,y) = ax + by$ .

The equation  $ax + by = c$  has a solution  $x,y \in \mathbb{Z}$  iff  $\gcd(a,b) \mid c$ .  
 So  $f$  is surjective  $\iff \gcd(a,b) \mid c$  for all  $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ .  
 $\iff \gcd(a,b) = 1$ .

b.  $f$  is NOT injective

because for all  $x,y \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $t \in \mathbb{Z}$   ~~$f(x+tb, y-ta) = f(x,y)$~~   
 $f(x+tb, y-ta) = f(x,y)$

20 a.  $f(x_1) = f(x_2) \iff ax_1 \equiv ax_2 \pmod{m}$   
 $\iff m \mid ax_1 - ax_2 = a(x_1 - x_2)$   
 $\implies m \mid (x_1 - x_2)$  (using  $\gcd(a, m) = 1$ )  
 $\iff x_1 \equiv x_2 \pmod{m}$   
 $\iff x_1 = x_2$  (using  $x_1, x_2 \in \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$ )

So  $f$  is injective.

b. If  $A$  &  $B$  are finite sets such that  $|A| = |B|$  and  $f$  is a function from  $A$  to  $B$  then  $f$  is injective iff  $f$  is surjective :-

$f$  injective  $\iff |\text{range}(f)| = |A|$   
 $\iff \text{range}(f) = B$  (because  $\text{range}(f) \subset B$  &  $|A| = |B|$ )  
 $\iff f$  surjective.

(This is sometimes called the "pigeonhole principle").

In our case,  $f: A \rightarrow A$ ,  $|A| = |A| = m$ ,  $f$  injective  $\implies f$  surjective.

So  $f$  is bijective (= injective AND surjective)

21.  $f: A \rightarrow B$  has an inverse  $\iff f$  is bijective

a.  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [5, \infty)$ ,  $f(x) = 4e^x + 5$ .  
 $f(x) > 5$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  (because  $e^x > 0$ ), so  $f$  is NOT surjective,  $f$  does NOT have an inverse

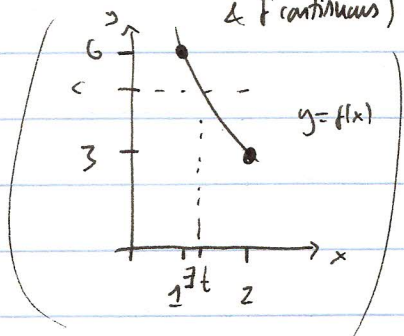
b.  $f: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $f(x) = 3x + 8$ ,  $f(x) \equiv 8 \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$   
for all  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ , so  $f$  is NOT surjective,  $f$  does NOT have an inverse.

c.  $f: [1, 2] \rightarrow [3, 6]$ ,  $f(x) = x^2 - 6x + 11$ .  
 $f'(x) = 2x - 6 < 0$  for  $x \in [1, 2]$   
So  $f$  is decreasing  $\implies f$  is injective.  
(Using Mean Value Thm)



$$f: [1, 2] \rightarrow [3, 6]$$

$f(1) = 6, f(2) = 3$   $\Rightarrow$   $f$  surjective by intermediate value theorem.  
&  $f$  continuous)



So  $f$  is bijective,  $f$  has an inverse.

To find explicit formula for inverse, write  $f(x) = y$  & solve for  $x$  in terms of  $y$  (then  $x = f^{-1}(y)$ ):-

$$x^2 - 6x + 11 = y$$

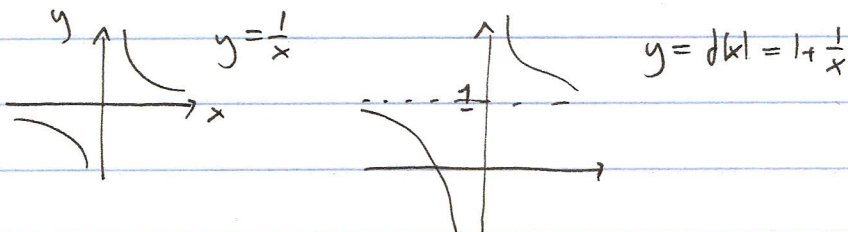
$$x^2 - 6x + (11 - y) = 0$$

$$x = \frac{-(-6) \pm \sqrt{36 - 4(11-y)}}{2} = \frac{6 \pm \sqrt{4y - 8}}{2} = 3 \pm \sqrt{y-2}$$

$$x \in [1, 2] \Rightarrow \text{sign is } "-", \quad x = 3 - \sqrt{y-2}.$$

$$f^{-1}(y) = 3 - \sqrt{y-2}, \quad f^{-1}: [3, 6] \rightarrow [1, 2].$$

d.  $f: \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad f(x) = 1 + \frac{1}{x}$



$$\frac{1}{x} \neq 0 \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} \Rightarrow f(x) \neq 1 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$$

$\Rightarrow$   $f$  NOT surjective,

$f$  does NOT have an inverse.

e.  $f: (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$f(x) = x - \frac{1}{x}$$

$$f'(x) = 1 + \frac{1}{x^2} > 0 \quad \text{for all } x \in (0, \infty) \Rightarrow f \text{ increasing (by MVT)}$$

$\Rightarrow$   $f$  injective.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = -\infty, \quad f \text{ continuous}$$

$\Rightarrow$   $f$  surjective (by IVT)

So  $f$  is bijective,  $f$  has an inverse.

Explicit formula:  $f(x) = y \iff x = f^{-1}(y)$ .

$$x - \frac{1}{x} = y \iff x^2 - 1 = x \cdot y \quad (\text{note: } x \neq 0)$$

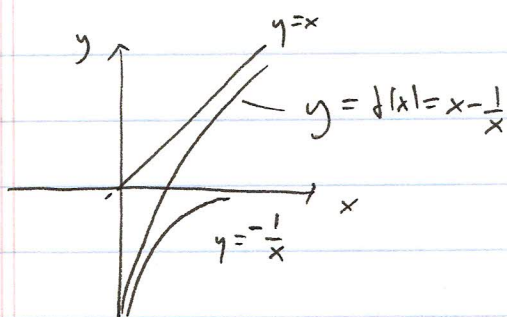
$$\iff x^2 - y \cdot x - 1 = 0$$

$$\iff x = \frac{y \pm \sqrt{y^2 + 4}}{2}$$

$$x \in (0, \infty) \Rightarrow \text{sign is "+"}, \quad \boxed{f^{-1}(y) = \frac{y + \sqrt{y^2 + 4}}{2}}$$

(note  $\sqrt{y^2 + 4} > \sqrt{y^2} = |y|$ )

$$f^{-1}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (0, \infty)$$



22 a.  $f: A \rightarrow B$ ,  $g: B \rightarrow A$   $g(f(x)) = x$  for all  $x \in A$  (\*)  
 $f$  surjective.

Claim:  $f(g(y)) = y$  for all  $y \in B$ .

Proof:  $f$  surjective  $\Rightarrow y = f(x)$  for some  $x \in A$

$$\Rightarrow f(g(y)) = f(g(f(x))) = f(x) = y. \quad \square$$

$(0, \infty)$   
 $\parallel$

b.  $f: \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$

$g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ ,  $g(y) = y^2$

$$g(f(x)) = (\sqrt{x})^2 = x \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$$

$$f(g(y)) = \sqrt{y^2} = |y| \neq y \text{ if } y < 0.$$

23. a.  $|A|=m, |B|=n$

# functions  $f: A \rightarrow B$  ?  $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\}$

$n$  choices for  $f(a_1)$ ,  $n$  choices for  $f(a_2)$ , ...,  $n$  choices for  $f(a_m)$

$\Rightarrow n^m$  choices for  $f$ .

b. # injective functions  $f: A \rightarrow B$  ?

for  $f: A \rightarrow B$  a function

If  $n < m$ , no such functions. (because  $\text{range}(f) \subset B$   
 $\Rightarrow |\text{range}(f)| \leq |B| < |A|$   
 $\Rightarrow f$  not injective)

If  $n \geq m$  :-

$n$  choices for  $f(a_1)$ ,  $(n-1)$  choices for  $f(a_2)$ , ...,  $(n-m+1)$  choices for  $f(a_m)$

$\Rightarrow n \cdot (n-1) \cdot \dots \cdot (n-m+1) = \frac{n!}{(n-m)!}$  choices for  $f$ .

c). We use the hint.

# surjective functions  $f: A \rightarrow B$

$$= |S \setminus S_1 \cup \dots \cup S_n|$$

$$= |S| - |S_1 \cup \dots \cup S_n|$$

$$= |S| - \sum_{K \in \mathcal{K}} |S_K| + \sum_{K_1 \cap K_2 \in \mathcal{K}} |S_{K_1 \cap K_2}| - \sum_{K_1 \cap K_2 \cap K_3 \in \mathcal{K}} |S_{K_1 \cap K_2 \cap K_3}| + \dots + (-1)^n |S_{S_1 \cap \dots \cap S_n}|$$

$$= n^m - \binom{n}{1} (n-1)^m + \binom{n}{2} (n-2)^m - \dots + (-1)^n \binom{n}{n} (n-n)^m$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} (n-k)^m \quad (*)$$

Note that

$$|S_{i_1} \cap S_{i_2} \cap \dots \cap S_{i_k}| = (n-k)^m$$

(for  $k_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k \leq n$ , because LHS

$$= \# \text{ functions } f: A \rightarrow B \setminus \{b_{i_1}, b_{i_2}, \dots, b_{i_k}\}$$

= RHS by part a.

If  $m < n$  then there are

no surjective functions  $f: A \rightarrow B$

(because  $|\text{range}(f)| \leq |A| < |B|$

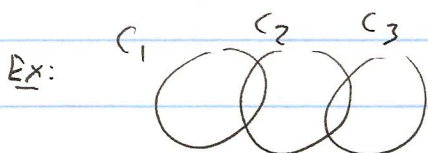
$\Rightarrow \text{range}(f) \neq B$ ), but this is not obvious from the formula (\*)



24. a.  $R$  is not an equivalence relation because it is not transitive: -

$$C_1 R C_2 \ \& \ C_2 R C_3 \ \not\Rightarrow \ C_1 R C_3$$

$$C_1 \cap C_2 \neq \emptyset \ \& \ C_2 \cap C_3 \neq \emptyset \ \not\Rightarrow \ C_1 \cap C_3 \neq \emptyset$$



$$C_1 \cap C_2 \neq \emptyset \ \& \ C_2 \cap C_3 \neq \emptyset, \text{ but } C_1 \cap C_3 = \emptyset.$$

b.  $R$  is an equivalence relation: - Must check

1. Reflexive  $\forall a \in S \ a R a$

2. Symmetric:  $\forall a, b \in S \ a R b \Rightarrow b R a$

3. Transitive:  $\forall a, b, c \in S \ a R b \ \text{AND} \ b R c \Rightarrow a R c$

1. It's possible to travel from a city  $a$  to itself by land (no travel required!)

2. If one can travel from  $a$  to  $b$  by land, then, reversing the route, one can travel from  $b$  to  $a$  by land.

3. If one can travel from  $a$  to  $b$  by land, and from  $b$  to  $c$  by land then one can travel from  $a$  to  $c$  by land by combining the two routes (travelling from  $a$  to  $b$  to  $c$ ).

c.  $R$  is an equivalence relation: -

1.  $\forall a \in S \ a R a$ :  $\frac{a}{a} = 1 = 1^2, \ 1 \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

2.  $\forall a, b \in S \ a R b \Rightarrow b R a$ : If  $a/b = t^2, \ t \in \mathbb{Q}$   
then  $b/a = (1/t)^2, \ 1/t \in \mathbb{Q}$

(note  $t \neq 0$  because  $a, b \in S = \mathbb{N}$ )

3.  $\forall a, b, c \in S \ a R b \ \text{AND} \ b R c \Rightarrow a R c$ :

If  $a/b = t^2$  and  $b/c = u^2, \ t, u \in \mathbb{Q}$ ,

then  $a/c = a/b \cdot b/c = t^2 u^2 = (tu)^2, \ tu \in \mathbb{Q} \quad \square$ .

25 No,  $R$  is not an equivalence relation.

If  $R$  is an equivalence relation on a set  $S$ , then the equivalence classes

$[a] = \{x \in S \mid x R a\}$  for  $a \in S$  form a partition of  $S$

In our example:  $[1] = \{1, 4, 5\}$ ,  $[2] = \{2, 6\}$ ,  $[3] = \{3, 5\}$ ,  $[4] = \{1, 4, 5\}$ ,  $[5] = \{1, 3, 4, 5\}$   
&  $[6] = \{2, 6\}$ .

These do not form a partition (because for example  $[1] \cap [3] = \{5\} \neq \emptyset$   
but  $[1] \neq [3]$ ).

So  $R$  is not an equivalence relation.

Alternatively,  $R$  is not transitive, because for example  $1 R 5$  and  $5 R 3$  but  $1 \not R 3$ .

26 a)  $R$  is reflexive  $\Leftrightarrow R$  contains the line  $y=x$

$R$  is symmetric  $\Leftrightarrow R = f(R)$ , where  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $f(x,y) = (y,x)$   
is reflection in the line  $y=x$ .

b) <sup>suppose</sup>  $R \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $R$  contains the line  $y=x+1$ , and  $R$  is an equivalence relation. } on  $\mathbb{R}$

So  $x R (x+1) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

$\therefore$  Using transitivity & induction,  $x R (x+n) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$

Also  $x R x \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$  (reflexive) and, by symmetry

$(x+n) R x \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , equivalently,  $x R (x-n) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Combining,  $x R (x+n) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

i.e.  $(x R y) \Leftrightarrow (y-x \in \mathbb{Z})$

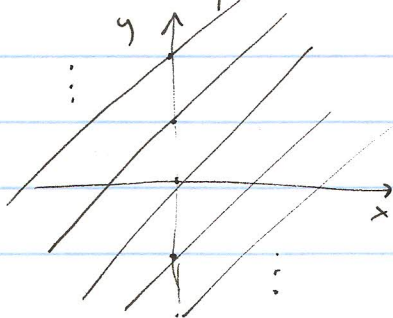
(conversely, if we define a relation  $R'$  on  $S = \mathbb{R}$  by

$x R' y \Leftrightarrow y-x \in \mathbb{Z}$

then  $R'$  is an equivalence relation (checked in class / Exercise).

So  $R'$  is the smallest equivalence relation containing the line  $y=x+1$ .

Sketch of  $R' \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ :



$R'$  = the union of the lines

$y = x + n, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .



27 a. Yes: - Write  $R = R_1 \cap R_2$ . Note  $aRb \Leftrightarrow aR_1b \ \& \ aR_2b$

1. (Reflexive)  $\forall a \in S, aR_1a \ \& \ aR_2a \Rightarrow aRa$

2. (Symmetric)  $\forall a, b \in S, aR_1b \Rightarrow bR_1a \ \& \ aR_2b \Rightarrow bR_2a \Rightarrow (aRb \Rightarrow bRa)$

3. (Transitive)  $\forall a, b, c \in S, aR_1b \ \& \ bR_1c \Rightarrow aR_1c \ \& \ aR_2b \ \& \ bR_2c \Rightarrow aR_2c \Rightarrow (aRb \ \& \ bRc \Rightarrow aRc)$

b. No. Write  $R = R_1 \cup R_2$ . Note  $aRb \Leftrightarrow aR_1b \ \text{OR} \ aR_2b$

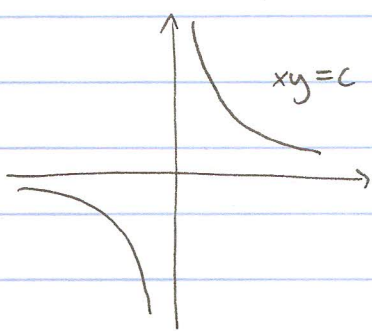
Transitivity will fail in general because we could have  $aR_1b$  and  $bR_2c$  but  $a \not R_1c$  and  $a \not R_2c$ , so that  $aRb$  and  $bRc$  but  $a \not R c$ .

Ex:  $R_1 =$  congruence modulo 2 on  $S = \mathbb{Z}$ .

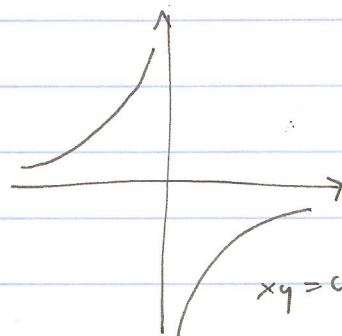
$R_2 =$  congruence modulo 3

$2R_1 0$  and  $0R_2 3$  but  $2 \not R_1 3$  and  $2 \not R_2 3$ .

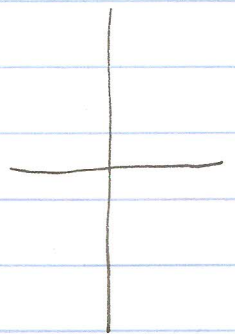
28.



$c > 0$



$c < 0$



$(xy=0) = (x=0) \cup (y=0)$   
 $c = 0$

(The equivalence classes of  $R$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  are the curves  $f(x,y) = c$ , where  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  is a constant.)

29. a)  $A = \{n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid n \geq -4\}$  is countable:

$f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow A$   $f(n) = n-5$  is a bijection.

b).  $A = \{n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid n \equiv 3 \pmod{5}\} = \{n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid n = 5q + 3, \text{ some } q \in \mathbb{Z}\}$



So, we have a bijection  $f: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow A$

Also, we have a bijection  $g: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$

(HW8Q5)

Composing gives a bijection  $f \circ g: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow A$ .

So  $A$  is countable.

c)  $A = \{p \in \mathbb{N} \mid p \text{ is prime}\}$  is a subset of  $\mathbb{N}$ ,  
so it is countable.

(In general, a subset of a countable set is countable)

d)  $A = \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q}$ .

$\mathbb{Q}$  is countable:  $\exists f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$  bijection (proved in class).

So we have a bijection  $g: \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q}$

$$g(n, m) = (f(n), f(m))$$

$\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$  is countable:  $\exists h: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$  bijection (proved in class)

So, composing, we have a bijection  $g \circ h: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q}$ .

So  $\mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q}$  is countable.

e)  $A = (0, 1) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid 0 < x < 1\}$

$A$  is uncountable:—

Either we Cantor's diagonal argument (using decimal expansion)  
as in class to give a proof by contradiction

Or describe a bijection  $f: (0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

for example  $f(x) = \tan\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \cdot (2x-1)\right)$

Then  $\mathbb{R}$  uncountable (proved in class)  $\Rightarrow (0, 1)$  uncountable.

f.  $A = \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x \text{ is irrational}\}$

Notice  $\mathbb{R} = (\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}) \cup \mathbb{Q}$ .

$\mathbb{R}$  is uncountable &  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable

So  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$  is uncountable :-

we showed in class that if  $A$  and  $B$  are countable,

then  $A \cup B$  is countable. The contrapositive of this

statement is: if  $A \cup B$  is uncountable then  $A$  or  $B$  is uncountable.  $\square$