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filename: Math115 homework5

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desc: <https://courses.csail.mit.edu/6.042/spring18/mcs.pdf> (Links to an external site.) please do these

problems: 4.8, 4.9, 4.15, 4.19, 4.20

4.8

Let A , B and C be sets. Prove that

$$A \cup B \cup C = (A - B) \cup (B - C) \cup (C - A) \cup (A \cap B \cap C)$$

using a chain of IFF's as Section 4.1.5.

$$A \cup B \cup C = (A - B) \cup (B - C) \cup (C - A) \cup (A \cap B \cap C)$$

converting minus signs to equivalent set expressions

$$\text{iff } (A \cap \bar{B}) \cup (B \cap \bar{C}) \cup (C \cap \bar{A}) \cup (A \cap B \cap C)$$

manipulating the right side, we get

$$\text{iff } (A \cap \bar{B}) \cup (B \cap \bar{C}) \cup (C \cap \bar{A}) \cup ((A \cap B) \cup (B \cap C) \cup (C \cup A))$$

$$\text{iff } (A \cap \bar{B}) \cup (B \cap \bar{C}) \cup (C \cap \bar{A}) \cup (A \cap B) \cup (B \cap C) \cup (C \cup A)$$

Associative property to shuffle things around

$$\text{iff } (A \cap \bar{B}) \cup (A \cap B) \cup (B \cap \bar{C}) \cup (B \cap C) \cup (C \cap \bar{A}) \cup (C \cup A)$$

Reverse distribute for A, B, C

$$\text{iff } (A \cap (\bar{B} \cup B)) \cup (B \cap (\bar{C} \cup C)) \cup (C \cap (\bar{A} \cup A))$$

$$\text{Universe} = \text{set} \cup \bar{\text{set}}$$

$$\text{iff } (A \cap U) \cup (B \cap U) \cup (C \cap U)$$

$$\text{Identity: } A \cap U = A$$

$$= A \cup B \cup C$$

4.9

Union distributes over the intersection of two sets:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Use (4.11) and the Well Ordering Principle to prove the Distributive Law of union over the intersection of n sets:

$$A \cup (B_1 \cap \dots \cap B_{n-1} \cap B_n) = (A \cup B_1) \cap \dots \cap (A \cup B_{n-1}) \cap (A \cup B_n)$$

Extending formulas to an arbitrary number of terms is a common (if mundane) application of the WOP.

Prove by contradiction/induction.

Let's say $P(n) \leftrightarrow Q(n)$

and let

$$P(n) = A \cup (B_1 \cap \dots \cap B_n)$$

and

$$Q(n) = (A \cup B_1) \cap \dots \cap (A \cup B_n)$$

So the setup would be to assume $(B_1 \cap \dots \cap B_n) \in P(n)$ and test $Q(n)$ to find a set (or sets) where $(B_1 \cap \dots \cap B_n) \notin Q(n)$.

- Case 1: $P(0)$ case. Let a single set be represented as B . We'll say set $B \in P(n)$.

$$\text{Since } Q(n) = A \cup B$$

I would have to say $B \in Q(n)$

$$\text{so } B \in P(n) \cap Q(n)$$

- Case 2: Lets 1 to n sets be represented by $B_1 \dots B_n$ and $B_1 \dots B_n \in P(n)$.

$$\text{Since } Q(n) = (A \cup B_1) \cap \dots \cap (A \cup B_n).$$

I would have to say $B_1 \dots B_n \in Q(n)$

$$\text{so } B_1 \dots B_n \in P(n) \cap Q(n)$$

- Similar arguments follow if we assume $(B_1 \cap \dots \cap B_n) \in Q(n)$ and tested $P(n)$ if the set(s) exist(s).
 - Since I was unable to find a set that exist in $P(n)$ and not in $Q(n)$, I couldn't prove the contradiction. So the distributive law is valid.
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4.15

a) Give a simple example where the following result fails, and briefly explain why:

False Theorem. For sets A, B, C and D , let

$$L ::= (A \cup B) \times (C \cup D).$$

$$R ::= (A \times C) \cup (B \times D).$$

Then $L = R$.

b) Identify the mistake in the following proof of the False Theorem.

Bogus proof. Since L and R are both sets of pairs, it's sufficient to prove that

$$(x, y) \in L \leftrightarrow (x, y) \in R \text{ for all } x, y.$$

The proof will be a chain of iff implications:

$$(x, y) \in R$$

$$\text{iff } (x, y) \in (A \times C) \cup (B \times D)$$

iff $(x, y) \in A \times C$, or $(x, y) \in B \times D$

iff $(x \in A \text{ and } y \in C)$ or else $(x \in B \text{ and } y \in D)$

iff either $x \in A$ or $x \in B$, and either $y \in C$ or $y \in D$

iff $x \in A \cup B$ and $y \in C \cup D$

iff $(x, y) \in L$.

c) Fix the proof to show that $R \subseteq L$.

- a) this proof is false because L would have two times more combinations or products than R .

For example if A , B , C and D have 2 elements each. $L ::= (A \cup B) \times (C \cup D)$ would have 16 combinations total. $R ::= (A \times C) \cup (B \times D)$ would have 8 combinations total.

- b) The step with "*iff either $x \in A$ or $x \in B$, and either $y \in C$ or $y \in D$* " is incorrect. Because this statement implies for R , x can belong to A or B and y can belong to either C or D . But for R , if x belongs to A it has to belong to C as well. So a combination such as $x \in A \cup B$ wouldn't be valid for R .

- c) $(x, y) \in R$

iff $(x, y) \in (A \times C) \cup (B \times D)$

iff $(x, y) \in A \times C$, or $(x, y) \in B \times D$

iff $(x \in A \text{ and } y \in C)$ or else $(x \in B \text{ and } y \in D)$

iff $(x \notin A \text{ and } y \notin C)$ or $(y \notin B \text{ and } y \notin D)$

iff $(x \in A \text{ and } y \in D)$ or $(y \in B \text{ and } y \in C)$

iff $x \in A \cup B$ and $y \in C \cup D$

iff $(x, y) \subseteq L$

$\therefore R \subseteq L$.

4.19

For each of the following real-valued functions on the real numbers, indicate whether it is a bijection, a surjection but not a bijection, an injection but not a bijection, or neither an injection nor a surjection.

a) $x \rightarrow x + 2$

b) $x \rightarrow 2x$

c) $x \rightarrow x^2$

d) $x \rightarrow x^3$

e) $x \rightarrow \sin(x)$

f) $x \rightarrow x \sin(x)$

g) $x \rightarrow e^x$



- a) bijective.

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R} : x \rightarrow x + 2$$

let x_1 and $x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$

$$x_1 + 2 = x_2 + 2$$

subtract 2 from both sides

$$x_1 = x_2$$

x_1 has to equal x_2 , this implies this function is injective. The function can continuously map an x in its domain to the codomain through out \mathbb{R} , so by the intermediate value theorem the function is surjective as well.

- b) bijective.

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R} : x \rightarrow 2x$$

let x_1 and $x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$

$$2x_1 = 2x_2$$

dividing 2 on both sides

$$x_1 = x_2$$

x_1 has to equal x_2 , this implies this function is injective. The function can continuously map an x in its domain to the codomain through out \mathbb{R} , so by the intermediate value theorem the function is surjective as well.

- c) neither an injection nor a surjection.

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R} : x \rightarrow x^2$$

let x_1 and $x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$

$$(x_1)^2 = (x_2)^2$$

If $x_1 \neq x_2$ they can still map to the same element in the codomain, example -2 and 2 would both map to 4, so not injective. There also isn't mapping of an $f(x)$ to every \mathbb{R} because x^2 is always positive, so not surjective.

- d) bijection.

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R} : x \rightarrow x^3$$

let x_1 and $x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$

if $x_1 \neq x_2$

$(x_1)^3$ and $(x_2)^3$ would only be equal if $x_1 = x_2$, so this is injective.

The function can continuously map an x in its domain to the codomain through out \mathbb{R} , so by the intermediate value theorem the function is surjective as well.

- e) neither an injection nor a surjection.

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R} : x \rightarrow \sin(x)$$

let x_1 and $x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$

$$\sin(x_1) = \sin(x_2)$$

This is not injective because multiple x values can be mapped to $f(x)$. There isn't mapping of a $f(x)$ to every \mathbb{R} , so it is not surjective.

- f) surjection but not a bijection.

the explanation is similar to e) but because of the multiplied by x , the function can span continuously to ∞ or $-\infty$, so by the intermediate value theorem, this function is surjective.

- g) injection but not a bijection.

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R} : x \rightarrow e^x$$

let x_1 and $x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$

if $x_1 \neq x_2$, there is no combination x_1 and x_2 that can make $e^{x_1} = e^{x_2}$, therefore injective.

if we take e^x to ∞ or $-\infty$ there would not be a e^x to map from $-\infty$ to 0. So I would say it's not surjective.



4.20

Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : B \rightarrow C$ be functions and $h : A \rightarrow C$ be their composition, namely, $h(a) ::= g(f(a))$ for all $a \in A$.

- Prove that if f and g are surjections, then so is h .
- Prove that if f and g are bijections, then so is h .
- If f is a bijection, then so is f^{-1} .



- a) proof by deduction

Assuming f and g are surjective, then C is a subset of B and B is a subset of A . This implies C would be a subset of A .

so then $f \supseteq g \supseteq h$, which means h has to be surjective as well.

- b) proof by deduction

Assuming f and g are injective, a similar argument can be said compared to a).

let $x...x_n \in \mathbb{R}$ be in the set of $f : A \rightarrow B$

and let $y...y_n \in \mathbb{R}$ be in the set of $g : B \rightarrow C$

and let $z...z_n \in \mathbb{R}$ be in the set of $h : A \rightarrow C$

if f is in \mathbb{R} and g is in \mathbb{R} . Then h would also have to be in \mathbb{R} .

- c) If f is bijective $\rightarrow f^{-1}$ is bijective.

let $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R} : x \rightarrow f(x)$.

$$f(x) = y \text{ and } y \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$f^{-1}(y) = x \text{ and } x \in \mathbb{R}$$

So the inverse function would just remap all y 's to x 's.

$$\text{example: } x \in \mathbb{R} : f(x) = x^3$$

$$\text{let } x = 2n, n \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$f(x) = (2n)^3$$

$$\text{So } f^{-1}(x) = x^{\frac{1}{3}}$$

$$((2n)^3)^{\frac{1}{3}} = (2n)^{\frac{3}{3}} = 2n$$

so we can say $(f^{-1}(f(x))) = x$, or a bijective functions inverse is bijective since it just undoes what the function did.

