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Problem Set 2

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### Problem Set 2

### Chapter 2

1.(i) 
$$1^2 + \dots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$
.

### **Proof:**

Let n = 1, then we have on the left hand side:

$$1^2 = 1$$

Then, on the right hand side:

$$\frac{1 \times (1+1) \times (2 \cdot 1+1)}{6} = \frac{1 \times 2 \times 3}{6}$$
$$= \frac{6}{6}$$
$$= 1$$

Therefore, left hand side equals to right hand side. This claim holds for 1.

Then, assume if n = k, and  $1^2 + \cdots + k^2 = \frac{k(k+1)(2k+1)}{6}$ .

Let n = k + 1, on the left hand side, we would have:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

And on the right hand side, we would have:

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

... Left hand side equals to right hand side

The claim holds.

1.(ii) 
$$1^3 + \dots + n^3 = (1 + \dots + n)^2$$
.

### **Proof:**

Let n = 1, then we would have on the left hand side:

$$1^3 = 1$$

On the right hand side:

$$1^2 = 1$$

Therefore, left hand side equals to right hand side this claim holds for 1.

Then, assume if n = k, and  $1^3 + \cdots + k^3 = (1 + \cdots + k)^2$ .

Let n = k + 1, on the left hand side, we would have:

$$1^{3} + \dots + k^{3} + (k+1)^{3} = (1 + \dots + k)^{2} + (k+1)^{3}$$

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

$$= (\frac{k^{2}(k+1)^{2}}{4}) + (k+1) \cdot (k+1)^{2}$$

$$= \frac{k^{2}}{4} \cdot (k+1)^{2} + (k+1) \cdot (k+1)^{2}$$

$$= (k+1)^{2} \cdot (\frac{k^{2}}{4} + (k+1))$$

$$= (k+1)^{2} \cdot (\frac{k^{2}}{4} + \frac{4(k+1)}{4})$$

$$= (k+1)^{2} \cdot (\frac{k^{2}}{4} + \frac{4k+4}{4})$$

$$= (k+1)^{2} \cdot \left(\frac{k^{2}+4k+4}{4}\right)$$

$$= (k+1)^{2} \cdot \left(\frac{(k+2)^{2}}{4}\right)$$

$$= (k+1)^{2} \cdot \left(\frac{(k+2)}{2}\right)^{2}$$

$$= (k+1)^{2} \cdot \left(\frac{(k+1)+1}{2}\right)^{2}$$

$$= \left(\frac{(k+1)((k+1)+1)}{2}\right)^{2}$$

$$= (1+\dots+(k+1))^{2}$$

And on the right hand side, we would have:

$$(1+\cdots+(k+1))^2$$

... Left hand side equals to right hand side

The claim holds.

2.(i)

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (2i - 1) = n^2$$

2.(ii)

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (2i-1)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{2n} (i)^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{n} (2i)^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{2n} (i)^2 - 4 \sum_{i=1}^{n} (i)^2$$

$$= \frac{(2n)((2n)+1)(2(2n)+1)}{6}$$

$$= \frac{(2n)(2n+1)(4n+1) - 4n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

$$= \frac{(2n)(2n+1)(4n+1-2n-2)}{6}$$

$$= \frac{(2n)(2n+1)(2n-1)}{6}$$

3.(a)

On the right hand side we have:

$$\binom{n}{k-1} + \binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(k-1)!(n-(k-1))!} + \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

$$= \frac{k \cdot n! + (n-k+1) \cdot n!}{k!(n-k+1))!}$$

$$= \frac{(k+n-k+1)n!}{k!((n+1)-k))!}$$

$$= \frac{(n+1)!}{k!((n+1)-k))!}$$

$$= \binom{n+1}{k}$$

... Left hand side is the same as the right hand side.

### 3.(b)

 $\forall n, n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ , we would have by definition  $\binom{n}{n} = \binom{n}{0} = 1$ , which is a natural number.

Let n = 0, we would have  $\binom{0}{0} = 1$ , and it is a natural number. The claim holds for 0.

Then, assume n = m and  $\forall k, k \leq m, \binom{m}{k}$  is natural number.

Let n = m + 1, we would have  $\forall k, k < m + 1, \binom{m+1}{k} = \binom{m}{k-1} + \binom{m}{k}$  from the theorem we prove in (a). It is because from the assumption above, we have both  $\binom{m}{k-1}, \binom{m}{k}$  are natural numbers. Therefore,  $\binom{m+1}{k}$  is a natural number. And  $\binom{m+1}{m+1} = m + 10 = 1$  by definition of a binomial coefficient. Therefore, the claim holds for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ .

#### 3.(c)

When choosing k things out of n things, we are looking at the arrangement of first k things in an ordered list of n things without considering their order. Therefore, first we are arranging all n things, then we have n! ways to do the arrangement. Then, we choose the first k things and find their arrangements. Therefore, we are overcounting all such arrangements by (n-k)! times, since we do not care about the rest n-k things' arrangements. Then we would have  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$  ways of arrangement left. However, we are still overcounting the arrangements k! times because we do not need to know the order fo the arrangements of these k things. Therefore, we have  $\frac{n!}{k!\cdot(n-k)!}$  in total.

#### 3.(d)

Let n = 1, then we have on the left hand side:  $(a + b)^1 = a + b$  and on the right hand side:  $\binom{1}{0}a^1 + \binom{1}{1}b^1 = a + b$ . We have left hand side equals to the right hand side. The claim holds for n = 1.

Let 
$$n = m$$
, such that  $(a + b)^m = a^m + {m \choose 1}a^{m-1}b + {m \choose 2}a^{m-2}b^2 + \dots + {m \choose m-1}ab^{m-1} + b^m$ 

Let n = m + 1, on the left hand side we would have:

$$(a+b)^{m+1} = (a+b)^m \cdot (a+b)$$

$$= (a^m + \binom{m}{1} a^{m-1} b + \binom{m}{2} a^{m-2} b^2 + \dots + \binom{m}{m-1} a b^{m-1} + b^m) \cdot (a+b)$$

$$= a \cdot \left( \binom{m}{0} a^m + \binom{m}{1} a^{m-1} b + \binom{m}{2} a^{m-2} b^2 + \dots + \binom{m}{m-1} a b^{m-1} + \binom{m}{m} b^m \right)$$

$$+ b \cdot \left( \binom{m}{0} a^m + \binom{m}{1} a^{m-1} b + \binom{m}{2} a^{m-2} b^2 + \dots + \binom{m}{m-1} a b^{m-1} + \binom{m}{m} b^m \right)$$

$$= \binom{m}{0} a^{m+1} + \binom{m}{1} a^m b + \dots + \binom{m}{m-1} a^2 b^{m-1} + \binom{m}{m} a b^m$$

$$+ \binom{m}{0} a^m b + \binom{m}{1} a^m b^2 + \dots + \binom{m}{m-1} a b^m + \binom{m}{m} b^{m+1}$$

$$= \binom{m}{0} a^{m+1} + \left( \binom{m}{0} + \binom{m}{1} \right) a^m b + \dots + \left( \binom{m}{m-1} + \binom{m}{m} \right) a b^m + \binom{m}{m} b^{m+1}$$

It's because from (a) we have proved that  $\binom{n}{k-1} + \binom{n}{k} = \binom{n+1}{k}$ . Also, by definition of a binomial coefficient we know that  $\forall m, m \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}\binom{m}{0} = \binom{m}{m} = 1$  Therefore, on the left hand side, we should have:

$$\binom{m}{0}a^{m+1} + \binom{m}{0} + \binom{m}{1}a^{m}b + \dots + \binom{m}{m-1} + \binom{m}{m}ab^{m} + \binom{m}{m}b^{m+1}$$

$$= \binom{m+1}{0}a^{m+1} + \binom{m+1}{a}^{m}b + \dots + \binom{m+1}{m}ab^{m} + b^{m+1}$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{m+1} \binom{m+1}{j}a^{m+1-j}b^{j}$$

On the right hand side, we would have when n = m + 1:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{m+1} \binom{m+1}{j} a^{m+1-j} b^{j}$$

: Left hand side equals to the right hand side. The claim holds.

**3.**(e)

(i)

### **Proof:**

Let n = 0, then we would have on the left hand side  $\binom{0}{0} = 1$ , and on the right hand side, we would have  $2^0 = 1$ . Therefore, the claim holds for n = 0.

Let n = m such that

$$\sum_{j=0}^{m} \binom{m}{j} = 2^m$$

Let n = m + 1, we would have on the left hand side:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{m+1} {m+1 \choose j} = {m+1 \choose 0} + {m+1 \choose 1} + \dots + {m+1 \choose m+1}$$

$$= {m \choose 0} + {m \choose 0} + {m \choose 1} + \dots + {m \choose m-1} + {m \choose m} + {m \choose m}$$

$$= {m \choose 0} + {m \choose 0} + {m \choose 1} + {m \choose 1} + \dots + {m \choose m} + {m \choose m}$$

$$= 2 \cdot {m \choose 0} + {m \choose 1} + \dots + {m \choose m}$$

$$= 2 \cdot 2^n$$

$$= 2^{n+1}$$

On the right hand side, we would have  $2^{m+1}$ . Thus, the left hand side is equal to the right hand side. The claim holds.

(ii)

#### **Proof:**

This only holds for any number n, n > 0. It is because if n = 0, this equation would be 1 instead of 0.

Let n = 1, on the left hand side we would have  $\binom{1}{0} - \binom{1}{1} = 0$ . On the right hand side we have 0. Therefore, the claim holds for n = 1.

Let n = m, assume

$$\sum_{j=0}^{m} (-1)^j \cdot \binom{m}{j} = 0$$

Let n = m + 1, we would have on the left hand side:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{m+1} (-1)^j \cdot \binom{m+1}{j} = \binom{m+1}{0} - \binom{m+1}{1} + \dots + (-1)^{m+1} \cdot \binom{m+1}{m+1}$$

$$= \binom{m}{0} - \binom{m}{0} + \binom{m}{1} + \dots + (-1)^m \cdot \binom{m}{m-1} + \binom{m}{m} + (-1)^m \cdot \binom{m}{m}$$

$$= \binom{m}{0} - \binom{m}{0} - \binom{m}{1} + \dots + (-1)^m \cdot \binom{m}{m-1} + (-1)^m \cdot \binom{m}{m} + (-1)^m \cdot \binom{m}{m}$$

$$= 0$$

On the left hand side, we have 0.

Therefore, this claim holds for all number n > 0.

### (iii) and (iv)

### **Proof:**

From the question above we have proved that  $\sum_{j=0}^{m} (-1)^j \cdot \binom{m}{j} = 0$ . This means that for even binomial coefficients, it is always posivtive in this equation, and for odd coefficients, it is always negative. Therefore, we can have  $\sum_{j \text{ even }} \binom{n}{j} = \sum_{j \text{ odd }} \binom{n}{j}$ . It is because from (i) we know  $\sum_{j=0}^{m} \binom{m}{j} = 2^n$ . Thus,  $\sum_{j \text{ even }} \binom{n}{j} = \sum_{j \text{ odd }} \binom{n}{j} = 2^{n-1}$  5.(a)

Let n = 0, we would have on the left hand side:  $r^0 = 1$ .

On the right hand side, we would have:

$$\frac{1 - r^{0+1}}{1 - r} = \frac{1 - r}{1 - r}$$
$$= 1$$

... Left hand side is the same as the right hand side.

The claim holds for n = 0.

Let n = k, assume  $1 + \cdots + r^k = \frac{1 - r^{k+1}}{1 - r}$ 

If n = k + 1, then on the left hand side we would have:

$$1 + \dots + r^{k} + r^{k+1} = \frac{1 - r^{k+1}}{1 - r} + r^{k+1}$$

$$= \frac{1 - r^{k+1}}{1 - r} + \frac{(1 - r)r^{k+1}}{1 - r}$$

$$= \frac{1 - r^{k+1}}{1 - r} + \frac{r^{k+1} - r^{k+2}}{1 - r}$$

$$= \frac{1 - r^{k+1} + r^{k+1} - r^{k+2}}{1 - r}$$

$$= \frac{1 - r^{k+2}}{1 - r}$$

$$= \frac{1 - r^{(k+1)+1}}{1 - r}$$

On the right hand side, we have:  $\frac{1-r^{(k+1)+1}}{1-r}$ .

... Left hand side is the same as the right hand side.

The claim holds.

5.(b)

Let  $S = 1 + \cdots + r^n$ , by multiplying both sides with r, then we would have:

$$r \cdot S = r \cdot 1 + \dots + r^{n}$$
$$= r + \dots + r^{n+1}$$

It is because we would like to know about S, then we could have:

$$r \cdot S - S = (r - 1) \cdot S$$

$$= r + \dots + r^{n+1} - (1 + \dots + r^n)$$

$$= r^{n+1} - 1$$

$$\therefore (r - 1) \cdot S = r^{n+1} - 1$$

$$S = \frac{r^{n+1} - 1}{r - 1} = \frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{1 - r}$$

# Chapter 3

1.(i)

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

$$= \frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+x}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\frac{2+x}{1+x}}$$

$$= \frac{1+x}{2+x}$$

 $\therefore x \neq -1, -2$ 

1.(ii)

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

 $\therefore x \neq -1$ 

1.(iii)

$$f(cx) = \frac{1}{1 + cx}$$

 $\therefore x \neq -\frac{1}{c}, ifc \neq 0$ 

1.(iv)

$$f(x+y) = \frac{1}{1+x+y}$$

 $\therefore x + y \neq -1$ 

1.(v)

$$f(x) + f(y) = \frac{1}{1+x} + \frac{1}{1+y}$$
$$= \frac{2+x+y}{(1+x)(1+y)}$$

$$\therefore x, y \neq -1$$

1.(vi)

 $f(cx) = f(x), x \neq -1, or - c^{-1}$ , then we would have  $\frac{1}{1+x} = \frac{1}{1+cx}$ .

$$\therefore 1 + x = 1 + cx$$

$$(c-1)x = 0$$

If we only want one x solution for such an equation, then we could have  $(c-1) \cdot 0 = 0$ . Therefore,  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  the equation would always hold.

1.(vii)

If we would like to have at least two different answers for x in the equation (c-1)x = 0, then we need to have c-1=0. Thus, c=1.

2.(i)

It is because for any y is rational, h(y) = 0, and for any y that is irrational, h(y) = 1. If we would like to have  $h(y) \ge y$ , then we need  $y \le 0, y \in \mathbb{Q}$  or  $y < 1, y \in \mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}$ .

2.(ii)

It's because we want to have  $h(y) \leq g(y)$ . Thus meaning for  $y \in \mathbb{Q}$ ,  $y^2 \geq 0$ , and for  $y \in \mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}$ ,  $y^2 \geq 1$ . Therefore,  $|y| \geq 0$ ,  $y \in \mathbb{Q}$  or |y| > 1,  $y \in \mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}$ 

2.(iii)

Suppose z is a rational number, then we have h(z) = 0, and  $h(g(z)) = 0^2 = 0$ . Therefore, h(g(z)) - h(z) = 0. Suppose z is a irrational number, we would have h(z) = 1, and  $h(g(z)) = 1^2 = 1$ . Therefore, h(g(z)) - h(z) = 0. In conclusion, h(g(z)) - h(z) = 0.

2.(iv)

For  $g(w) \le w$ , we would have  $w - w^2 = w \cdot (1 - w) \ge 0$ . Thus, w and 1 - w should be the same sign or one of them is 0.

Both of them are positive:

$$w > 0$$
$$1 - w > 0$$

Therefore, 1 > w > 0.

Both of the are negative:

$$w < 0$$
$$1 - w < 0$$

This is not possible, because we need w > 1 and w < 0.

If one of them is 0. Say w, then w = 0. If w - 1 = 0, then w = 1.

$$\therefore 1 \ge w \ge 0$$

2.(v)

Suppose g(g(e)) = g(e), then we have  $g(e^2) = e^4 = e^2$ . Then we have:

$$e^{4} - e^{2} = 0$$
  
 $e^{2} \cdot (e^{2} - 1) = 0$   
 $e^{2} = 0 \text{ or } e^{2} - 1 = 0$   
 $e_{1} = 0 \text{ and } e_{2,3} = \pm 1$ 

3.(i)

 $1-x^2 \ge 0$ . Thus,  $1 \ge x^2$ . Therefore,  $-1 \le x \le 1$ .

3.(ii)

 $1-\sqrt{1-x^2} \ge 0$ , and we know  $1+\sqrt{1-x^2}$ . Thus, we can have:

$$(1 - \sqrt{1 - x^2}) \cdot 1 + \sqrt{1 - x^2} \ge (1 + \sqrt{1 - x^2}) \cdot 0$$
$$1 - 1 + x^2 \ge 0$$
$$x^2 \ge 0$$

$$\therefore x \in \mathbb{R}$$

3.(iii)

 $x \neq 1, 2$ 

3.(iv)

 $1-x^2 \ge 0$  and  $x^2-1 \ge 0$ . Thus, we have  $1 \ge x^2$  and  $1 \le x^2$ . Therefore,  $1 \le x^2 \le 1$  and  $1 \le x^2 \le 1$ .

3.(v)

 $1-x \ge 0, x-2 \ge 0$ . Therefore,  $1 \ge x$  and  $x \le 2$  It is not possible. Therefore, this function cannot happen in real number domain.

4.(i)

We should have the following:

$$(S \circ P)(y) = S(P(y))$$

$$= S(2^{y})$$

$$= (2^{y})^{2}$$

$$= 2^{2y}$$

## 4.(ii)

We should have the following:

$$(S \circ s)(y) = S(P(y))$$

$$= S(sin(y))$$

$$= (sin(y))^{2}$$

$$= sin^{2}(y)$$

### 4.(iii)

We should have the following:

$$(S \circ P \circ s)(t) + (s \circ P)(t) = S(P(s(t))) + s(P(t))$$

$$= S(P(sin(t))) + s(2^t)$$

$$= S(2^{sin(t)}) + sin(2^t)$$

$$= (2^{sin(t)})^2 + sin(2^t)$$

## 4.(iv)

We should have the following:

$$s(t^3) = \sin(t^3)$$

**5**.

$$S(x) = x^2, P(x) = 2^x, s(x) = sinx$$

### 5.(i)

We should have the following:

$$f(x) = 2^{sinx} = 2^{(s(x))}$$
$$= P(s(x))$$
$$= (P \circ s)(x)$$

# 5.(ii)

We should have the following:

$$f(x) = sin(2^{x})$$

$$= sin(P(x))$$

$$= s(P(x))$$

$$= (s \circ P)(x)$$

# 5.(iii)

We should have the following:

$$f(x) = sin(x^{2})$$

$$= sin(S(x))$$

$$= s(S(x))$$

$$= (s \circ S)(x)$$

# 5.(iv)

We should have the following:

$$f(x) = \sin^2(x)$$

$$= (\sin(x))^2$$

$$= (s(x))^2$$

$$= S(s(x))$$

$$= (S \circ s)(x)$$

# 5.(v)

We should have the following:

$$f(t) = 2^{2^t}$$

$$= 2^{P(t)}$$

$$= P(P(t))$$

$$= (P \circ P)(x)$$

### 5.(vi)

We should have the following:

$$f(u) = sin(2^{u} + 2^{u^{2}})$$

$$= sin(P(u) + 2^{S}(u))$$

$$= sin(P(u) + P(S(u)))$$

$$= s(P(u) + (P \circ S)(u))$$

$$= s(P + P \circ S)(u)$$

### 5.(vii)

We should have the following:

$$f(y) = sin(sin(sin(2^{2^{siny}})))$$

$$= sin(sin(sin(2^{2^{s(y)}})))$$

$$= sin(sin(sin(2^{P(s(y))})))$$

$$= sin(sin(sin(P(P(s(y))))))$$

$$= s(s(s(P(P(s(y))))))$$

$$= (s \circ s \circ s \circ P \circ P \circ s)(y)$$

# 5.(viii)

We should have the following:

$$f(a) = 2^{\sin^2(a)} + \sin(a^2) + 2^{\sin(a^2 + \sin(a))}$$

$$= 2^{s(a)^2} + \sin(S(a)) + 2^{\sin(S(a) + s(a))}$$

$$= 2^{S(s(a))} + s(S(a)) + 2^{s(S(a) + s(a))}$$

$$= P(S(s(a))) + s(S(a)) + P(s(S(a) + s(a)))$$

$$= P(S(s(a))) + s(S(a)) + P(s(S(a) + s(a)))$$

$$= (P \circ S \circ s)(a) + (s \circ S)(a) + (P \circ s(S + s))(a)$$

### 21.(a)

This is not equivalent. Let  $f(x) = x^2$  and g(x) = x, h(x) = 1. Thus,  $f \circ (g+h)(x) = f(x+1) = (x+1)^2 = x^2 + 2x + 1$  and  $f \circ g(x) + f \circ h(x) = f(x) + f(1) = x^2 + 1^2 = x^2 + 1$ . Therefore, they are not the same.

**21.(b)** We know that for any two given functions a(x) + b(x) = (a+b)(x). Therefore, in

this equation, we have on the left hand side:

$$((g+h) \circ f)(x) = (g+h)(f(x))$$
$$= g(f(x)) + h(f(x))$$
$$= (g \circ f)(x) + (h \circ f)(x)$$
$$= RHS$$

### 21.(c)

Let h(x) = 1/x, then on the left hand side, we would have  $1/(f \circ g) = (h \circ (f \circ g))(x)$ . On the right hand side, we would have  $(1/f) \circ g = ((h \circ f) \circ g)(x)$ . From the theorem stating that composition of functions are associative, we know that  $(h \circ (f \circ g))(x) = ((h \circ f) \circ g)(x)$ . Thus, LHS=RHS.

### 21.(d)

This is not equivalent. For instance, let f(x) = 2, g(x) = x. Then, on the left hand side we would have  $\frac{1}{(f \circ g)(x)} = \frac{1}{f(x)} = \frac{1}{2}$ . On the right hand side, we would have  $(f \circ \frac{1}{g})(x) = f(1/x) = 2$ . Therefore, left hand side does not equal to right hand side.

### 22.(a)

It is because  $g(x) = (h \circ f)(x) = h(f(x))$ , we would have g(x) = h(f(x)) and g(y) = h(f(y)). If f(x) = f(y), then  $h(f(x)) = h(f(y)) \to g(x) = g(y)$ . Therefore, if f(x) = f(y), then g(x) = g(y).

## 22.(b)

Suppose whenever f(x) = f(y), g(x) = g(y). Let h(z) be a function that takes in z = f(x). If f(x) = f(y), we would have h(f(x)) = h(f(y)) because we know if the values of the variable is the same then the value of the function is the same. We also know that g(x) = g(y), then we can say that g(x) = h(f(x)) = g(y) = h(f(y)). Thus,  $g(x) = (h \circ f)(x)$ .

### 23.(a)

Want to prove that if  $x \neq y$ , then  $g(x) \neq g(y)$ . Thus, showing if g(x) = g(y), then x = y still holds. Thus, suppose g(x) = g(y), we would have f(g(x)) = f(g(y)) = I(x) = I(y) = x = y. Therefore, x = y.

### 23. (b)

Suppose b = f(a), and let a = g(x). From the identity function we know that all f(g(x)) = x, meaning for all a = g(x) we can have b = f(a) = f(g(x)) = x. Also, because the domain of I = x is all real numbers. Therefore, for any number b there exist an a such that b = f(a).