## Solutions to Homework #10

**1.** Problem 3(b)(c)(d) from Section 6.2.

**Solution:** (b) Since 2 and 4 both lie in the domain of f and f(2) = f(4), the function f is not injective, hence not bijective, hence has no inverse.

- (d) This function is also not injective (and hence has no inverse). For instance,  $f(\{1\}) = f(\{2\}) = \{1\}$ .
  - (c) We first show that f is bijective.

We start with injectivity. Let  $A_1 = \mathbb{N}$  and  $A_2 = \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ . Take any  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that f(a) = f(b). It is clear from the definition that f(x) is even if  $x \in A_1$  and f(x) is odd if  $x \in A_2$ . Thus, f(a) = f(b) implies that a and b both lie in  $A_1$  or both lie in  $A_2$ . We consider two cases accordingly:

Case 1:  $a, b \in A_1$ . Then f(a) = f(b) implies 2a = 2b, and dividing by 2, we get a = b.

Case 2:  $a, b \in A_2$ . Then f(a) = f(b) implies -2a + 1 = -2b + 1, and subtracting 1 from both sides and dividing by -2, we also get a = b.

Thus f is injective.

Next we check that f is surjective. Take any  $y \in \mathbb{N} = \text{codomain of } f$ . We need to show that y = f(a) for some  $a \in A$ .

If y is even, we can write y = 2a for some  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Also since y > 0, we have a > 0, so  $a \in A_1$  and hence y = f(a). If y is odd, we can write y = 2b + 1 for some  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Again since y > 0, we have  $2b + 1 \ge 1$ , so  $b \ge 0$ . If we now let a = -b, then  $a \in A_2$  and y = -2a + 1, so y = f(a). Thus, f is surjective.

Thus, we proved that f is bijective and hence has an inverse. By definition, the inverse  $f^{-1}: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z}$  is given by the formula  $f^{-1}(y) = a$  where  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  is the unique number such that f(a) = y. According to our computation in the proof of surjectivity, if y is even, then a is the solution of the equation 2a = y, that is,  $a = \frac{y}{2}$ , and if y is odd, then a is the solution of the equation -2a + 1 = y, that is,  $a = \frac{1-y}{2}$ . Thus,  $f^{-1}$  is given by the formula

$$f^{-1}(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{y}{2} & \text{if } y \text{ is even} \\ \frac{1-y}{2} & \text{if } y \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

Note that a different (slightly more conceptual) way to compute inverses of piecewise functions was described at the end of Lecture 25.

2. Problem 5(b)(d) from Section 6.2.

(d)  $g(\{k\pi \mid k \in \{2,3,6,8,10\}\}) = \{g(2\pi), g(3\pi), g(6\pi), g(8\pi), g(10\pi)\} = \{[2\pi], [3\pi], [6\pi], [8\pi], [10\pi]\} = \{7, 10, 19, 26, 32\}.$ 

**3.** Problem 6(a)(b) from Section 6.2.

**Solution:** (a) We have h(2) = 2, h(4) = 2 + 2 = 4, h(6) = 2 + 3 = 5, h(8) = 2 + 2 + 2 = 6, h(10) = 2 + 5 = 7, so  $h(\{2, 4, 6, 8, 10\}) = \{2, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$ .

(b) To compute this set we need to find all possible ways to write 2, 4, 6, 8 and 10 as a sum of primes (possibly with repetitions, a single prime is allowed and the order does not matter). The number 2 is itself prime and cannot be written as a sum of two or more primes. The only way to write 4 is 2+2; 6 can be written as 2+2+2 or 3+3; 8 can be written as 2+2+2+2+2, 2+3+3 or 3+5; finally 10 can be written 2+2+2+2+2+2+3+3 or 2+3+5, 3+7 or 5+5. Thus,

 $h^{-1}(\{2,4,6,8,10\}) = \{2,2^2,2^3,3^2,2^4,2\cdot 3^2,3\cdot 5,2^5,2^2\cdot 3^2,2\cdot 3\cdot 5,3\cdot 7,5^2\} = \{2,4,8,9,16,18,15,32,36,30,21,25\} = \{2,4,8,9,15,16,18,21,25,30,32,36\}.$ 

**4.** Problem 7 from Section 6.2. Note that  $f^{-1}(b)$  in the statement of the problem denotes  $f^{-1}(\{b\})$ .

Recall that by definition  $f: A \to B$  is

- injective if  $\forall b \in B$  there is at most one  $a \in A$  such that f(a) = b
- surjective if  $\forall b \in B$  there is at least one  $a \in A$  such that f(a) = b

Reformulating this definition using preimages, we obtain the following statements:

 $f: A \to B$  is injective if  $\forall b \in B$  the set  $f^{-1}(\{b\})$  has at most one element.  $f: A \to B$  is surjective if  $\forall b \in B$  the set  $f^{-1}(\{b\})$  has at least one element (equivalently,  $f^{-1}(\{b\}) \neq \emptyset$ ).

**5.** Problem 9 from Section 6.2: Let  $f: A \to B$  be a function. If  $C \subseteq D \subseteq A$ , then  $f(C) \subseteq f(D)$ . Does the converse hold?

**Solution:** We need to show the implication  $y \in f(C) \Rightarrow y \in f(D)$ . So take any  $y \in f(C)$ . By definition this means y = f(c) for some  $c \in C$ . Since  $C \subseteq D$ , we have  $c \in D$  and hence  $y = f(c) \in f(D)$ .

The converse fails in general; in fact, it fails for any non-injective function. Indeed, suppose that f is not injective, so there exist  $a_1, a_2 \in A$  such that  $a_1 \neq a_2$  but  $f(a_1) = f(a_2)$ . Let  $C = \{a_1\}$  and  $D = \{a_2\}$ . Then  $C \not\subseteq D$ , but  $f(C) = f(D) = \{f(a_1)\}$ , so in particular,  $f(C) \subseteq f(D)$ .

However, one can show that the converse holds for any injective function f (see Problem 1 on the list of practice problems for the final).

- **6.** Problem 11 from Section 6.2. Let  $f: A \to B$  be a function and C and D subsets of A. Then
  - (a)  $f(C \setminus D) \supseteq f(C) \setminus f(D)$
  - (b)  $f(C \setminus D) = f(C) \setminus f(D) \iff f$  is injective

**Solution:** (a) As in 5, we need to prove the implication  $y \in f(C) \setminus f(D) \Rightarrow y \in f(C \setminus D)$ . So take any  $y \in f(C) \setminus f(D)$ . This means  $y \in f(C)$  and  $y \notin f(D)$ . Since  $y \in f(C)$ , we must have y = f(c) for some  $c \in C$ .

Claim:  $c \notin D$ . Proof of the claim: By contradiction. Suppose  $c \in D$ . Then  $y = f(c) \in f(D)$ , which contradicts our assumption above.

Thus,  $c \in C$  and  $c \notin D$ , so  $c \in C \setminus D$ . Hence  $y = f(c) \in f(C \setminus D)$ , as desired.

(b) " $\Rightarrow$ " We will prove the contrapositive: if f is not injective, then there exist C and D such that  $f(C \setminus D) \neq f(C) \setminus f(D)$ . We use the same counterexample as in 5. Since f is not injective, there exist  $a_1, a_2 \in A$  such that  $a_1 \neq a_2$  but  $f(a_1) = f(a_2)$ . Let  $C = \{a_1\}$  and  $D = \{a_2\}$ . Then  $C \setminus D = C$ , so  $f(C \setminus D) = \{f(a_1)\}$ . On the other hand,  $f(C) \setminus f(D) = \{f(a_1)\} \setminus \{f(a_1)\} = \emptyset$  and hence  $f(C \setminus D) \neq f(C) \setminus f(D)$ .

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Will be posted later (see Problem 2 on the practice problems list)

**7.** Problem 12 from Section 6.2. Let  $f:A\to B$  be a function. If  $C\subseteq D\subseteq B$ , then  $f^{-1}(C)\subseteq f^{-1}(D)$ .

**Solution:** We need to prove the implication  $x \in f^{-1}(C) \Rightarrow x \in f^{-1}(D)$ . So suppose  $x \in f^{-1}(C)$ . By definition this means that  $f(x) \in C$ . Since  $C \subseteq D$ , we have  $f(x) \in D$  and hence  $x \in f^{-1}(D)$ .

The converse fails for any non-surjective function. Let  $f:A \to B$  be non-surjective, and let C=B (the codomain of f) and D=f(A) (the image of f). Then  $f^{-1}(C)=f^{-1}(D)=A$  (for any function, the preimage of the codomain and the preimage of the image is the whole domain since for any element a of the domain must we must have  $f(a) \in f(A)$  and  $f(a) \in B$  by the definition of the image and the definition of a function, respectively). In particular,  $f^{-1}(C) \subseteq f^{-1}(D)$ . On the other hand, since f is not surjective, f(A) is a proper subset of B, so  $C \nsubseteq D$ .

In analogy with Problem 5, one can show that the converse holds for any surjective function f.

**8.** Problem 13 from Section 6.2. Let  $f: A \to B$  be a function and C and D subsets of B. Then  $f^{-1}(C \setminus D) = f^{-1}(C) \setminus f^{-1}(D)$ .

**Solution:** Instead of checking inclusions in both directions, we will prove directly the two sided implication  $x \in f^{-1}(C \setminus D) \iff x \in f^{-1}(C) \setminus f^{-1}(D)$ .

So let  $x \in A$  (we can start with this assumption since both  $f^{-1}(C \setminus D)$  and  $f^{-1}(C) \setminus f^{-1}(D)$  are clearly subsets of A). Then

$$x \in f^{-1}(C \setminus D) \iff f(x) \in C \setminus D \iff f(x) \in C \text{ and } f(x) \notin D \iff x \in f^{-1}(C) \text{ and } x \notin f^{-1}(D) \iff x \in f^{-1}(C) \setminus f^{-1}(D).$$

9. Problem 17 from Section 6.2.

**Answer:**  $g^{-1}(0)$  is the set of all natural numbers one of whose digits is 0.

 $g^{-1}(1)$  is the set of all natural numbers all of whose digits are 1.

To simplify the answer in all the remaining cases, we introduce an additional notation. Given  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  which has at least one digit different from 1, let u(n) be the number obtained from n by removing all the occurrences of 1 (e.g. u(21311) = 23).

If n = 2, 3, 5 and 7, then  $g^{-1}(n)$  is the set of all natural numbers with u(n) = n.

 $g^{-1}(4)$  is the set of all natural numbers with u(n) = 4 or u(n) = 22

 $g^{-1}(6)$  is the set of all natural numbers with u(n) = 6,23 or 32.

 $g^{-1}(8)$  is the set of all natural numbers with u(n) = 8, 24, 42 or 222.

 $g^{-1}(9)$  is the set of all natural numbers with u(n) = 9 or 33.

 $g^{-1}(10)$  is the set of all natural numbers with u(n) = 25 or 52.

 $g^{-1}(11)$  is the empty set. In general,  $g^{-1}(n) = \emptyset \iff n$  has a prime divisor larger than 7.

 $g^{-1}(12)$  is the set of all natural numbers with u(n)=26,62,34,43,223,232 or 322.