

# Student Information

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## Answer 1

A function  $f : A \rightarrow B$  is surjective if and only if  $\forall b \in B, \exists a \in A$  such that  $f(a) = b$ .

A function  $f : A \rightarrow B$  is injective if and only if  $\forall a_1 \in A, \forall a_2 \in A, f(a_1) = f(a_2) \rightarrow a_1 = a_2$ .

The set of nonnegative real numbers  $\overline{\mathbb{R}}^+ = \{0\} \cup \mathbb{R}^+$ .

a)

- $f_1$  is not surjective since  $-1 \in \mathbb{R}$ , and there does not exist an  $a$  such that  $f_1(a) = -1$ , since  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, x^2 \geq 0 > -1$ .
- $f_1$  is not injective since  $f_1(2) = f_1(-2) = 4$ , and  $2 \neq -2$ .

b)

- $f_2$  is not surjective since  $-1 \in \mathbb{R}$ , and there does not exist an  $a$  such that  $f_2(a) = -1$ , since  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, x^2 \geq 0 > -1$ .
- $f_2$  is injective since  $\forall a_1 \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}^+, \forall a_2 \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}^+$ :

$$\begin{aligned} f_2(a_1) = f_2(a_2) &\rightarrow a_1^2 = a_2^2 \\ &\rightarrow a_1^2 - a_2^2 = 0 \\ &\rightarrow (a_1 - a_2)(a_1 + a_2) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

This means that either  $a_1 - a_2 = 0 \rightarrow a_1 = a_2$  or  $a_1 + a_2 = 0$ . If  $a_1 + a_2 = 0$ ,  $a_1 = a_2 = 0$  since  $a_1 \in \{0\} \cup \mathbb{R}^+$  and  $a_2 \in \{0\} \cup \mathbb{R}^+$ . I will prove this by contradiction. Suppose that  $a_1$  is not zero but a positive real number. This would mean that  $a_1 + a_2$  is strictly greater than  $a_2$ :  $a_1 + a_2 > a_2$ . That would mean zero is strictly greater than  $a_2$ :  $0 > a_2$ . That is not possible since  $a_2 \in \{0\} \cup \mathbb{R}^+$  and every value of  $a_2$  is equal to or greater than zero. This leads to a contradiction, therefore  $a_1$  must be zero since  $a_1 \in \{0\} \cup \mathbb{R}^+$ . Since  $a_1 = 0$ ,  $a_1 + a_2 = 0 \rightarrow 0 + a_2 = 0 \rightarrow a_2 = 0$ . Therefore, if  $a_1 + a_2 = 0$ ,  $a_1 = a_2$ . We have already shown that if  $a_1 - a_2 = 0$ ,  $a_1 = a_2$ . Therefore,  $\forall a_1 \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}^+, \forall a_2 \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}^+, f_2(a_1) = f_2(a_2) \rightarrow a_1 = a_2$ .

c)

- $f_3$  is surjective since  $\forall b \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}^+, \exists a \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $a = \sqrt{b}$  and  $f_3(\sqrt{b}) = (\sqrt{b})^2 = |b| = b$  since  $b \geq 0$  since  $b \in \{0\} \cup \mathbb{R}^+$ . Therefore,  $\forall b \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}^+, \exists a = \sqrt{b} \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f_3(a) = b$ .
- $f_3$  is not injective since  $f_3(2) = f_3(-2) = 4$ , and  $2 \neq -2$ .

d)

- $f_4$  is surjective since  $\forall b \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}^+, \exists a \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}^+$  such that  $a = \sqrt{b}$  and  $f_4(\sqrt{b}) = (\sqrt{b})^2 = |b| = b$  since  $b \geq 0$  since  $b \in \{0\} \cup \mathbb{R}^+$ . Therefore,  $\forall b \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}^+, \exists a = \sqrt{b} \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}^+$  such that  $f_4(a) = b$ .
- $f_4$  is injective since  $\forall a_1 \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}^+, \forall a_2 \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}^+$ :

$$\begin{aligned} f_4(a_1) = f_4(a_2) &\rightarrow a_1^2 = a_2^2 \\ &\rightarrow a_1^2 - a_2^2 = 0 \\ &\rightarrow (a_1 - a_2)(a_1 + a_2) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

This means that either  $a_1 - a_2 = 0 \rightarrow a_1 = a_2$  or  $a_1 + a_2 = 0$ . If  $a_1 + a_2 = 0$ ,  $a_1 = a_2 = 0$  since  $a_1 \in \{0\} \cup \mathbb{R}^+$  and  $a_2 \in \{0\} \cup \mathbb{R}^+$ . The proof is similar to above.

## Answer 2

a) Since  $f : A \subset \mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , we can take  $n$  and  $m$  to be 1 and apply the definition of continuity.

$$\forall \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^+ \exists \delta \in \mathbb{R}^+ \forall x \in A (\|x - x_0\| < \delta \rightarrow \|f(x) - f(x_0)\| < \varepsilon)$$

The Euclidean norm in  $\mathbb{R}^n = \mathbb{R}$  simply becomes the absolute value of the number itself, since  $\|x\| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^1 x_i^2} = \sqrt{x_1^2} = |x_1|$ .

$$\forall \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^+ \exists \delta \in \mathbb{R}^+ \forall x \in A (|x - x_0| < \delta \rightarrow |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \varepsilon)$$

I claim that for all  $\varepsilon$ , taking  $\delta < 1$  works, which would mean  $|x - x_0|$  must also be less than one.

$$\forall x \in A (|x - x_0| < 1 \rightarrow |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \varepsilon)$$

In that case, either  $x = x_0$  or  $x \neq x_0$ .

- In the first case,  $x = x_0 \rightarrow f(x) = f(x_0) \rightarrow f(x) - f(x_0) = 0$ . Additionally,  $x = x_0 \rightarrow x - x_0 = 0$ . Since the both sides of the implication are true, the result is true.
- In the second case,  $|x - x_0|$  must take positive integer values like  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$  since  $x, x_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ . In that case  $|x - x_0| < 1$  is always false, and the result is vacuously true.

Therefore,  $\delta < 1$  satisfies the definition of continuity for all  $\varepsilon$ ,  $x$  and  $x_0$ . Since we assumed nothing about  $x_0$ , the function  $f$  is continuous for all  $x_0$  in  $A$ .

b) Since  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{R}$ , we can take  $n$  and  $m$  to be 1 and apply the definition of continuity.

$$\forall \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^+ \exists \delta \in \mathbb{R}^+ \forall x \in \mathbb{R} (\|x - x_0\| < \delta \rightarrow \|f(x) - f(x_0)\| < \varepsilon)$$

Similarly, the Euclidean norm in  $\mathbb{R}^n = \mathbb{R}$  simply becomes the absolute value of the number itself, since  $\|x\| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^1 x_i^2} = \sqrt{x_1^2} = |x_1|$ .

$$\forall \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^+ \exists \delta \in \mathbb{R}^+ \forall x \in \mathbb{R} (|x - x_0| < \delta \rightarrow |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \varepsilon)$$

The question is to show that  $f$  being a constant function is a necessary and sufficient condition for the function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  to be continuous (at every point). This means that the truth of one implies the other.

- The first part is to show that  $f$  being a constant function is a sufficient condition for the function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  to be continuous. That means  $f$  being a constant function implies  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  is continuous. Since  $f$  is constant,  $f(x) = f(x_0)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ , which would imply  $|f(x) - f(x_0)| = |0| = 0 < \varepsilon$  for all  $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^+$ . Since the right hand side of the implication is true for all  $\varepsilon$ ,  $x$  and  $x_0$ , and it is independent of  $\delta$ , it is always true.  $\delta$  can be chosen arbitrarily.
- The second part is to show that  $f$  being a constant function is a necessary condition for the function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  to be continuous. That means  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  being continuous implies  $f$  is a constant function. The proof will involve Intermediate Value Theorem, which says that a continuous function  $f$  whose domain contains the interval  $[a, b]$  takes on all values between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$  in that interval. I will pick two numbers and show that  $f(a) = f(b)$  for all  $a$  and  $b$ .
  - If  $a$  and  $b$  are equal,  $f(a) = f(b)$  trivially by the virtue of  $f$  being a function.
  - If  $a$  and  $b$  are different, assume that  $f(a) \neq f(b)$ . That would mean  $f$  needs to take a non-integer value between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ , since there always exist (uncountably infinitely many) real numbers between any two different integers. Since the codomain of  $f$  is the set of integers, that is not possible, thus  $f(a)$  cannot be different from  $f(b)$ .

Since we assumed nothing about  $a$  and  $b$ , they can be chosen arbitrarily among all real numbers, showing that  $f$  has the same value throughout its domain, i.e.  $f$  is constant.

## Answer 3

a) Proof by mathematical induction:

1. Basis:  $X_2 = A_1 \times A_2$  is countable since  $A_1 = \{a_{11}, a_{12}, \dots\}$  and  $A_2 = \{a_{21}, a_{22}, \dots\}$  can be enumerated by the sum of  $i$  and  $j$  in indices of  $a_{1i}$  and  $a_{2j}$ .

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 (a_{11}, a_{21}) & i + j = 2 \\
 (a_{11}, a_{22}), (a_{12}, a_{21}) & i + j = 3 \\
 (a_{11}, a_{23}), (a_{12}, a_{22}), (a_{13}, a_{21}) & i + j = 4 \\
 \dots & \dots \\
 (a_{11}, a_{2(n-1)}), (a_{12}, a_{2(n-2)}), \dots, (a_{1(n-2)}, a_{22}), (a_{1(n-1)}, a_{21}) & i + j = n \\
 \dots & \dots
 \end{array}$$

2. Inductive Step: Assuming  $X_k = A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_k$  is countable, I will show that  $X_{k+1} = A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_k \times A_{k+1}$  is countable.

b)

## Answer 4

I will first show that for functions  $f, g$ , and  $h$ , if  $f \in O(g)$  and  $g \in O(h)$ , then  $f \in O(h)$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 f \in O(g) &\leftrightarrow \exists c_1 \exists k_1 (\forall x \geq k_1 (|f(x)| \leq c_1 \cdot |g(x)|)) \\
 g \in O(h) &\leftrightarrow \exists c_2 \exists k_2 (\forall x \geq k_2 (|g(x)| \leq c_2 \cdot |h(x)|)) \\
 f \in O(h) &\leftrightarrow \exists c_3 \exists k_3 (\forall x \geq k_3 (|f(x)| \leq c_3 \cdot |h(x)|))
 \end{aligned}$$

For  $x$  values bigger than both  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ , both equations are satisfied. We can multiply the second equation by  $c_1$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 (f \in O(g)) \wedge (g \in O(h)) &\leftrightarrow \exists c_1 \exists k_1 \exists c_2 \exists k_2 \forall x \\
 &(((x \geq k_1) \wedge (x \geq k_2)) \rightarrow (|f(x)| \leq c_1 \cdot |g(x)| \leq c_1 \cdot c_2 \cdot |h(x)|))
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, there exists a  $c_3$  value such that  $c_3 = c_1 \cdot c_2$  and there exists a  $k_3$  value such that  $k_3 = \max\{k_1, k_2\}$  that makes  $|f(x)| \leq c_3 \cdot |h(x)|$  for all  $x$  values greater than  $k_3$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 (f \in O(g)) \wedge (g \in O(h)) &\leftrightarrow \exists c_3 \exists k_3 (\forall x \geq k_3 (|f(x)| \leq c_3 \cdot |h(x)|)) \\
 (f \in O(g)) \wedge (g \in O(h)) &\leftrightarrow f \in O(h)
 \end{aligned}$$

a)

$$O((n!)^2) \ni (5^n) \leftrightarrow \exists c \exists k (\forall x \geq k (|5^x| \leq c \cdot |(x!)^2|))$$

Let  $c = \frac{5^5}{5!}$  and  $k = 6$ . Since for  $k \geq 6$  both of these functions are always positive, we can get rid of absolute value signs.

$$\begin{aligned} 5^x &\leq 5^5 \cdot 5^{x-5} & \forall x \geq 6 \\ &\leq 5^5 \cdot (5 \cdot 5 \cdot \dots \cdot 5) & \forall x \geq 6 \\ &\leq 5^5 \cdot (6 \cdot 7 \cdot \dots \cdot x) & \forall x \geq 6 \\ &\leq 5^5 \cdot \frac{x!}{5!} & \forall x \geq 6 \\ &\leq \frac{5^5}{5!} \cdot x! \cdot x! & \forall x \geq 6 \\ &\leq \frac{5^5}{5!} \cdot (x!)^2 & \forall x \geq 6 \end{aligned}$$

b)

$$O(5^n) \ni (2^n) \leftrightarrow \exists c \exists k (\forall x \geq k (|2^x| \leq c \cdot |5^x|))$$

Let  $c = 1$  and  $k = 1$ . Since for  $k \geq 1$  both of these functions are always positive, we can get rid of absolute value signs.

$$\begin{aligned} 2^x &\leq 2 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot 2 & \forall x \geq 1 \\ &\leq 5 \cdot 5 \cdot \dots \cdot 5 & \forall x \geq 1 \\ &\leq 5^x & \forall x \geq 1 \end{aligned}$$

Before these four proofs I will have to prove that  $\log_2 x \leq \frac{x}{51}$ ,  $\forall x \geq 1$ ,  $\log_2 x \leq x$ ,  $\forall x \geq 1$ , and  $\log_2 x \leq \sqrt{x}$ ,  $\forall x \geq 16$ .

c)

$$O(2^n) \ni (n^{51} + n^{49}) \leftrightarrow \exists c \exists k (\forall x \geq k (|n^{51} + n^{49}| \leq c \cdot |2^x|))$$

Let  $c = 2$  and  $k = 500$ . Since for  $k \geq 500$  both of these functions are always positive, we can get rid of absolute value signs.

$$\begin{aligned} x^{51} + x^{49} &\leq x^{51} + x^{51} & \forall x \geq 500 \\ &\leq 2 \cdot x^{51} & \forall x \geq 500 \\ &\leq 2 \cdot 2^{\log_2 (x^{51})} & \forall x \geq 500 \\ &\leq 2 \cdot 2^{51 \cdot \log_2 x} & \forall x \geq 500 \\ &\leq 2 \cdot 2^{51 \cdot \frac{x}{51} *} & \forall x \geq 500 \\ &\leq 2 \cdot 2^x & \forall x \geq 500 \end{aligned}$$

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\*Since  $\log_2 x \leq \frac{x}{51}$ ,  $\forall x \geq 500$ .

d)

$$O(n^{51} + n^{49}) \ni (n^{50}) \leftrightarrow \exists c \exists k (\forall x \geq k (|n^{50}| \leq c \cdot |n^{51} + n^{49}|))$$

Let  $c = 1$  and  $k = 1$ . Since for  $k \geq 1$  both of these functions are always positive, we can get rid of absolute value signs.

$$\begin{aligned} x^{50} &\leq x^{51} & \forall x \geq 1 \\ &\leq x^{51} + x^{49} & \forall x \geq 1 \end{aligned}$$

For these two proofs I am assuming  $\log n$  is of base 2, however, proofs are similar for different bases.

e)

$$O(n^{50}) \ni (\sqrt{n} \cdot \log n) \leftrightarrow \exists c \exists k (\forall x \geq k (|\sqrt{n} \cdot \log n| \leq c \cdot |n^{50}|))$$

Let  $c = 1$  and  $k = 1$ . Since for  $k \geq 1$  both of these functions are always positive, we can get rid of absolute value signs.

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{x} \cdot \log x &\leq \sqrt{x} \cdot x^\dagger & \forall x \geq 1 \\ &\leq x^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot x & \forall x \geq 1 \\ &\leq x^{\frac{3}{2}} & \forall x \geq 1 \\ &\leq x^{50} & \forall x \geq 1 \end{aligned}$$

f)

$$O(\sqrt{n} \cdot \log n) \ni (\log n)^2 \leftrightarrow \exists c \exists k (\forall x \geq k (|(\log n)^2| \leq c \cdot |\sqrt{n} \cdot \log n|))$$

Let  $c = 1$  and  $k = 16$ . Since for  $k \geq 16$  both of these functions are always positive, we can get rid of absolute value signs.

$$\begin{aligned} (\log x)^2 &\leq (\log x) \cdot (\log x) & \forall x \geq 16 \\ &\leq \sqrt{x}^\ddagger \cdot \log x & \forall x \geq 16 \end{aligned}$$

## Answer 5

a)

b)

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<sup>†</sup>Since  $\log x \leq x$ ,  $\forall x \geq 1$ .

<sup>‡</sup>Since  $\log x \leq \sqrt{x}$ ,  $\forall x \geq 16$ .