

1. a. The contrapositive of $P \Rightarrow Q$ is $(\neg Q) \Rightarrow (\neg P)$

P	$\neg Q$	$P \Rightarrow Q$	$\neg(\neg Q)$	$\neg P$	$(\neg Q) \Rightarrow (\neg P)$
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 $(\neg Q) \Rightarrow (\neg P)$ are the same, so they are logically equivalent.

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

P	$\neg Q$	$P \Rightarrow Q$	$\neg Q \Rightarrow P$
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 $(x \in A \wedge (B \cup C)) = P \text{ AND } (Q \text{ OR } R)$

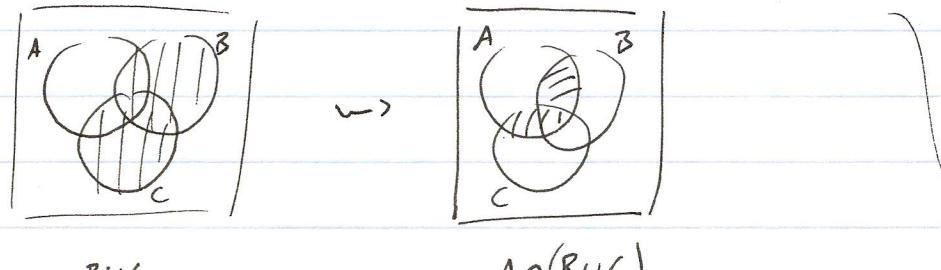
$(x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)) = (P \text{ AND } Q) \text{ OR } (P \text{ AND } R)$

| (*)

$P \wedge R$	$Q \text{ OR } R$	$P \text{ AND } (Q \text{ OR } R)$	$P \text{ AND } Q$	$P \text{ AND } R$	$(P \text{ AND } Q) \text{ OR } (P \text{ AND } R)$
T T T	T	T	T	T	T
T T F	T	T	F	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 $A \wedge (B \cup C) = (A \wedge B) \vee (A \wedge C)$.

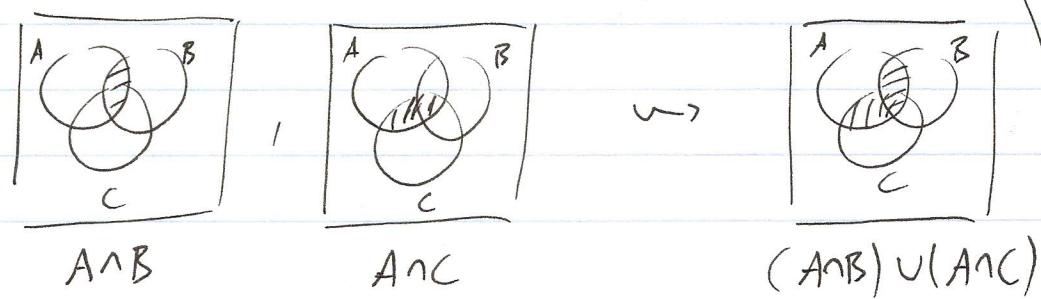
Alternatively, using Venn diagrams:-



We see that

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

$$= (A \wedge B) \vee (A \wedge C)$$



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

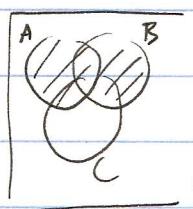
Then $(x \in (A \cup B) \setminus C) = (P \text{ OR } Q) \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } R)$

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

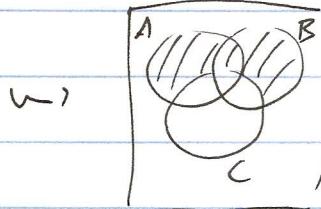
$P \& R$	$P \text{ OR } Q$	$\text{NOT } R$	$(P \text{ OR } Q) \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } R)$	$P \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } R)$	$Q \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } R)$	$(P \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } R)) \text{ OR } (Q \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } R))$
T T T	T	F	F	F	F	F
T T F	T	T	T	T	T	T
T F T	T	F	F	F	F	F
T F F	T	T	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:-



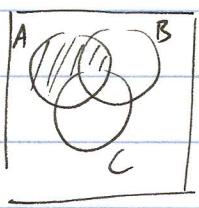
$A \cup B$



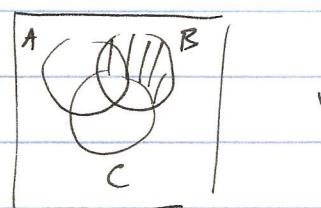
$(A \cup B) \setminus C$

We see that

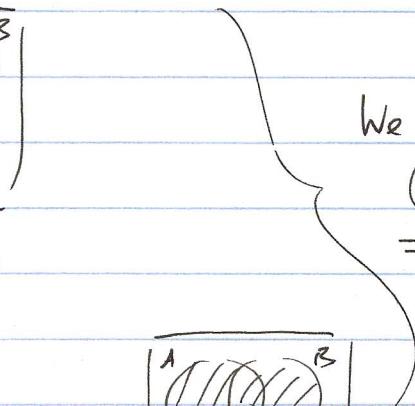
$$(A \cup B) \setminus C = (A \setminus C) \cup (B \setminus C)$$



$A \setminus C$



$B \setminus C$



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

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 $x^3 = y$.

logically equivalent

4. a. $\neg (\exists x \in \mathbb{Z}) (x^2 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}) \equiv (\forall x \in \mathbb{Z}) (x^2 \not\equiv 3 \pmod{4})$

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

b. $\neg (\forall x \in \mathbb{R}) (x^2 - 4x + 2 > 0) \equiv (\exists x \in \mathbb{R}) (x^2 - 4x + 2 \leq 0)$

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

c. $\neg (\forall x \in \mathbb{N}) (\exists y \in \mathbb{N}) (y < x) \equiv (\exists x \in \mathbb{N}) (\forall y \in \mathbb{N}) (y \geq x)$

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

d. $\neg (\exists b \in \mathbb{R}) (\forall x \in \mathbb{R}) (\log x \leq b) \equiv (\forall b \in \mathbb{R}) (\exists x \in \mathbb{R}) (\log x > b)$

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

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

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

Proof: By induction.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Proof. By induction

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

□.

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

Proof By induction.

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

$$125 > 99 \quad \checkmark.$$

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} 5^{k+1} &= 5 \cdot 5^k > 5 \cdot (4^k + 3^k + 2^k) = 5 \cdot 4^k + 5 \cdot 3^k + 5 \cdot 2^k \\ &> 4 \cdot 4^k + 3 \cdot 3^k + 2 \cdot 2^k \\ &= 4^{k+1} + 3^{k+1} + 2^{k+1}. \quad \square. \end{aligned}$$

- 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.

$n=1$. $LHS = f_1^2 = 1^2 = 1$

$RHS = f_1 \cdot f_2 = 1 \cdot 1 = 1 \quad \checkmark$

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

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

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

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

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

↑

\square .

by definition of Fibonacci sequence

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

$\gcd(123, 39) = ?$

Use Euclidean algorithm

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

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

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

$$\gcd(123, 39) = 3.$$

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

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

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

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

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

$$\gcd(157, 83) = 1.$$

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

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

$$\text{using } \gcd(P_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots P_r^{\alpha_r}, P_1^{\beta_1} \cdots P_r^{\beta_r}) = P_1^{\min(\alpha_1, \beta_1)} \cdots P_r^{\min(\alpha_r, \beta_r)}$$

for $P_1 \cdots P_r$ 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:-

$$3n+5 = 1 \cdot (3n+2) + 3$$

$$3n+2 = n \cdot 3 + 2$$

$$3 = 1 \cdot 2 + \boxed{1} \quad \gcd(3n+5, 3n+2) = 1.$$

$$2 = 2 \cdot 1 + 0 \quad \square$$

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

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

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

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

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

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.

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

$$= -4 + 13t \quad = 2 - 6t$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } x^3 + x + 1 &= (4y^2 + 7) + 1 = 4y^2 + 8 = 4(y^2 + 2) \\ &\equiv 0 \pmod{4}. \end{aligned}$$

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 $i = 1, \dots, r$.

$$\text{For } 108 = 2 \cdot 54 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 27 = 2^2 \cdot 3^3,$$

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

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

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 α_i or $\beta_i = 0$ for some i so that we can use the same set of primes p_1, \dots, p_r for $a \neq b$.)

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } a^2 | b^2 &\iff 2\alpha_i \leq 2\beta_i \text{ for each } i=1,\dots,r \\ &\iff \alpha_i \leq \beta_i \text{ for each } i=1,\dots,r \\ &\iff a \mid b. \end{aligned} \quad \square.$$

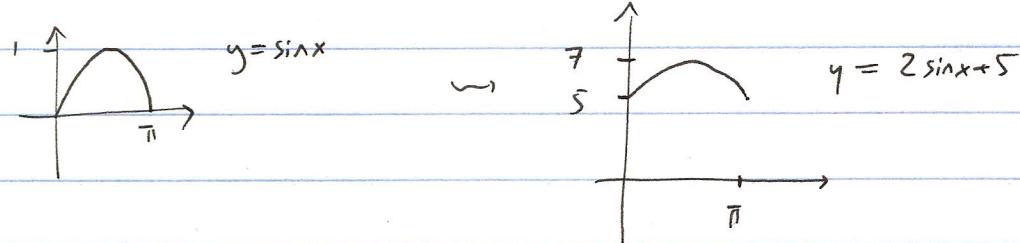
18. $f: A \rightarrow B$ is injective (or one-to-one) if

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

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

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

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

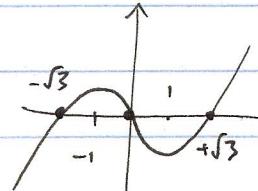


NOT injective : e.g. $f(0) = f(\pi) = 5$

NOT surjective : $|\sin x| \leq 1 \Rightarrow \boxed{3 \leq f(x) \leq 7}$

(More precisely, for $0 \leq x \leq \pi$, $0 \leq \sin x \leq 1 \Rightarrow 5 \leq f(x) \leq 7$,)
 range $f = [5, 7]$

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



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

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

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

$\Rightarrow f$ 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 others.

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 $\gcd(a,b) | c$.
So f is surjective $\iff \gcd(a,b) | c$ 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 $t \in \mathbb{Z}$ $f(x+tb, y-ta) = f(x, y)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 20 \text{ a. } f(x_1) = f(x_2) &\iff ax_1 \equiv ax_2 \pmod{m} \\
 &\iff m \mid ax_1 - ax_2 = a(x_1 - x_2) \\
 &\Rightarrow m \mid (x_1 - x_2) \quad (\text{using gcd } (a, m) = 1) \\
 &\iff x_1 \equiv x_2 \pmod{m} \\
 &\iff x_1 = x_2 \quad (\text{using } x_1, x_2 \in \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\})
 \end{aligned}$$

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 :-

$$\begin{aligned}
 f \text{ injective} &\iff |\text{range}(f)| = |A| \\
 &\iff \text{range}(f) = B \quad (\text{because range}(f) \subseteq B \text{ & } |A|=|B|) \\
 &\iff f \text{ surjective.}
 \end{aligned}$$

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

In our case, $f: A \rightarrow A$, $|A|=|A|=m$, f injective
 $\Rightarrow f$ 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. $f: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$, $f(x) = 3x+8$, $f(x) \equiv 8 \pmod{3}$

for all $x \in \mathbb{Z}$, so f is NOT surjective, f does NOT have an inverse.

c. $f: [1, 2] \rightarrow [3, 6]$, $f(x) = x^2 - 6x + 11$.

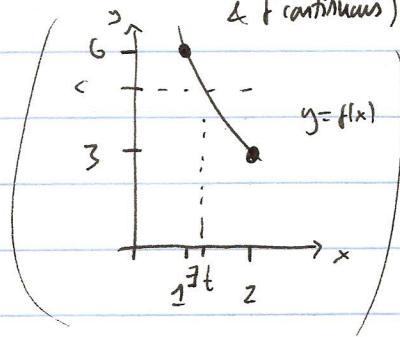
$$f'(x) = 2x - 6 < 0 \quad \text{for } x \in [1, 2]$$

so f is decreasing $\Rightarrow f$ is injective.

(using Mean Value Thm)

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

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



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 $x = f^{-1}(y)$):-

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

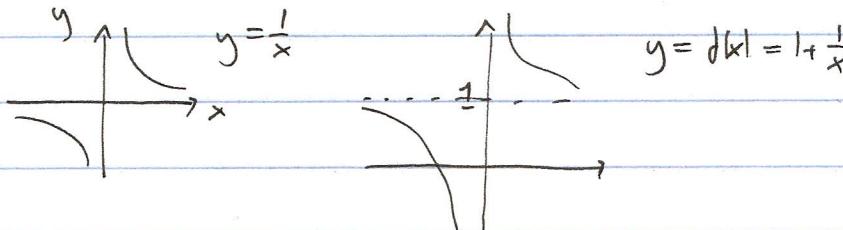
$$x^2 - 6x + (11-y) = 0$$

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

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

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

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



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

$\Rightarrow f$ NOT surjective,

f does NOT have an inverse.

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

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

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

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

$\Rightarrow f$ surjective (by IVT)

So f is bijective, f has an inverse.

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

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

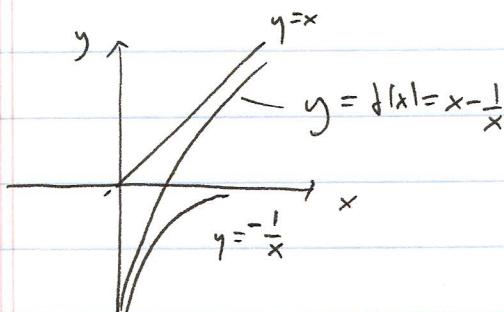
$$\iff x^2 - y \cdot x - 1 = 0$$

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

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

(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 $x \in A$
 $\Rightarrow f(g(y)) = \underbrace{f(g(f(x)))}_{\text{x by (*)}} = f(x) = y$. □.

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

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

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

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

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 $f(a_2)$, \dots , n choices for $f(a_m)$
 $\Rightarrow n^m$ choices for f .

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

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 $f(a_2)$, \dots , $(n-m+1)$ choices for $f(a_m)$

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

c). We use the hint.

$$\begin{aligned} & \# \text{ surjective functions } f: A \rightarrow B; \\ &= |S \setminus S_1 \cup \dots \cup S_n| \\ &= |S| - |S_1 \cup \dots \cup S_n| \\ &= |S| - \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} |S_i| + \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} |S_i \cap S_j| - \sum_{1 \leq i < j < k \leq n} |S_i \cap S_j \cap S_k| + \dots \\ &= n^m - \binom{n}{1} (n-1)^m + \binom{n}{2} (n-2)^m - \dots + (-1)^n \binom{n}{n} (n-n)^m \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} (n-k)^m \quad (*) \end{aligned}$$

Note that

$$|S_1 \cap S_2 \cap \dots \cap S_{n-k}| = (n-k)^m$$

(for $1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k \leq n$, 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 $f: A \rightarrow B$

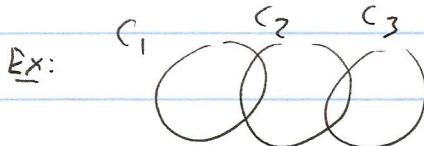
(because $|\text{range}(f)| \leq |A| < |B|$)

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

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

$$C_1 R C_2 \text{ & } C_2 R C_3 \not\Rightarrow C_1 R C_3$$

$$C_1 \cap C_2 \neq \emptyset \text{ & } C_2 \cap C_3 \neq \emptyset \not\Rightarrow C_1 \cap C_3 \neq \emptyset$$



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

b. R is an equivalence relation :- Must check

1. Reflexive $\forall a \in S \quad aRa$

2. Symmetric: $\forall a, b \in S \quad aRb \Rightarrow bRa$

3. Transitive: $\forall a, b, c \in S \quad aRb \text{ AND } bRc \Rightarrow aRc$

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

2. $\forall a, b \in S \quad aRb \Rightarrow bRa : \quad \text{If } \frac{a}{b} = t^2, \quad t \in \mathbb{Q}$

then $\frac{b}{a} = (1/t)^2, \quad 1/t \in \mathbb{Q}$

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

3. $\forall a, b, c \in S \quad aRb \text{ AND } bRc \Rightarrow aRc :$

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

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

25 No, R is not an equivalence relation.

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

$[a] = \{x \in S \mid xRa\}$ 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 $1R5$ and $5R3$ but $1R3$.

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) ^{Suppose} $R \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, R contains the line $y=x+1$, and R is an equivalence relation.

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

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

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

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

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

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

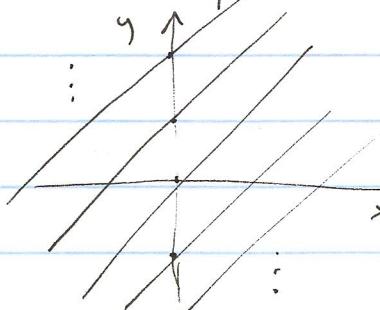
(conversely, if we define a relation R' on $S = \mathbb{R}$ by

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

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 $aRb \Leftrightarrow aR_1 b \wedge aR_2 b$

1. (Reflexive) $\forall a \in S$, $aR_1 a \wedge aR_2 a \Rightarrow aR a$

2. (Symmetric) $\forall a, b \in S$, $aR_1 b \Rightarrow bR_1 a \} \Rightarrow (aR_1 b \Rightarrow bR_1 a)$
 $aR_2 b \Rightarrow bR_2 a \}$

3. (Transitive) $\forall a, b, c \in S$, $aR_1 b \wedge bR_1 c \Rightarrow aR_1 c \} \Rightarrow (aR_1 b \wedge bR_2 c \Rightarrow aR_2 c)$
 $aR_2 b \wedge bR_2 c \Rightarrow aR_2 c \}$

b. No. Write $R = R_1 \cup R_2$. Note $aRb \Leftrightarrow aR_1 b \text{ OR } aR_2 b$

Transitivity will fail in general because we could have

$aR_1 b$ and $bR_2 c$ but $aR_1 c$ and $aR_2 c$,

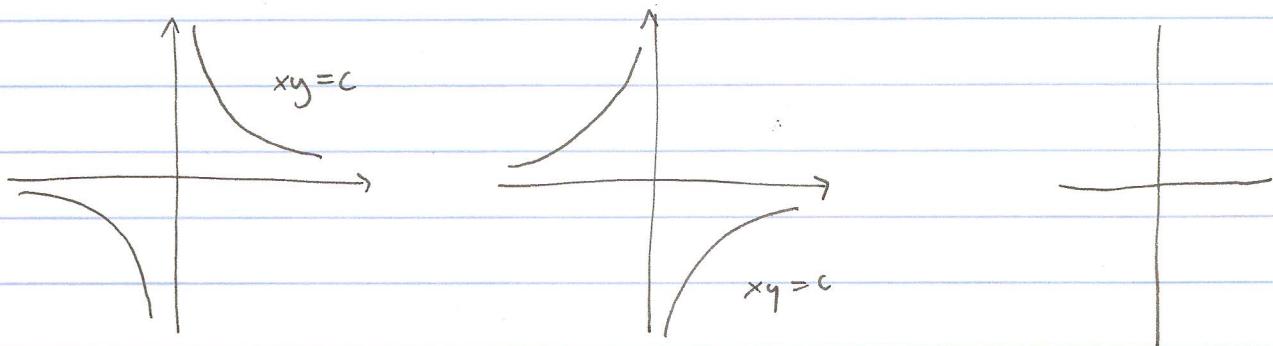
so that aRb and bRc but aRc .

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

R_2 = congruence modulo 3 |

$2R_1 0$ and $0R_2 3$ but $2R_1 3$ and $2R_2 3$.

28.



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

$$c=0$$

(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 $f: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow A$

$$f(g) = 5g + 3$$

Also, we have a bijection $g: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$
(HW8 Q5)

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

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

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

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