

Student Information

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Answer 1

1.a

We can use $(f^{-1} \circ g^{-1})(C_0)$ instead of $f^{-1}(g^{-1}(C_0))$.

If we show that $(g \circ f) \circ (f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}) = I$ and $(f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}) \circ (g \circ f) = I$, it means the equation is true since the composition of a function and its inverse is equal to Identity.

For the first one:

$$\begin{aligned}(g \circ f) \circ (f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}) &= g \circ ((f \circ f^{-1}) \circ g^{-1}) && \text{(from Associativity Law)} \\ &= g \circ (I \circ g^{-1}) \\ &= g \circ g^{-1} \\ &= I\end{aligned}$$

For the second one:

$$\begin{aligned}(f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}) \circ (g \circ f) &= (f^{-1} \circ (g^{-1} \circ g)) \circ f && \text{(from Associativity Law)} \\ &= (f^{-1} \circ I) \circ f \\ &= f^{-1} \circ f \\ &= I\end{aligned}$$

Hence , $(g \circ f)^{-1}(C_0) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(C_0))$ for $C_0 \subseteq C$.

1.b

Let's say $A = \{a_1, a_2\}$, $B = \{b_1\}$ and $C = \{c_1\}$ to determine whether f is injective or not.

First assume that f is not 1-to-1 . It means \exists two members $a_1 \neq a_2$ such that $f(a_1) = f(a_2) = b_1$ where $b_1 \in B$. We know $g \circ f(a_1)$ and $g \circ f(a_2)$ means $g(f(a_1))$ and $g(f(a_2))$. Then , according to our assumption , $\exists g(f(a_1)) = g(f(a_2)) = c_1$ where $c_1 \in C$. Which means $g \circ f$ is not 1-to-1 and there is a contradiction . Because we know $g \circ f$ is injective(1-to-1) from the question. Therefore , f must be injective .

Now, let's assume $A = \{a_1, a_2\}$, $B = \{b_1, b_2, b_3\}$ and $C = \{c_1, c_2\}$ to determine whether g is injective or not.

There can be conditions such that :

$$\begin{aligned}f(a_1) &= b_1 \\ f(a_2) &= b_2 \\ g(b_1) &= c_1 \\ g(b_2) &= c_2 \\ g(b_3) &= c_2\end{aligned}$$

Then , $g \circ f(a_1) = c_1$ and $g \circ f(a_2) = c_2$. So , we've seen that $g \circ f$ is injective . Therefore , the function g does not have to be injective .

1.c

Let's say $A = \{a_1, a_2\}$, $B = \{b_1, b_2, b_3\}$ and $C = \{c_1, c_2\}$ and use the conditions of previous question :

$$f(a_1) = b_1$$

$$f(a_2) = b_2$$

$$g(b_1) = c_1$$

$$g(b_2) = c_2$$

$$g(b_3) = c_2$$

It's clearly seen that f is not onto (surjective) in this example because of the member b_3 . So , f does not have to be surjective. In addition , g is surjective in this assumption and if $g \circ f$ is surjective , there is no condition that can make function g non-surjective .Therefore , function g must be surjective .

Answer 2

2.a

If g is left inverse for f :

Now , we need to show that if $f(a) = f(b)$, then $a = b$.

If $f(a) = f(b)$, $g(f(a)) = g(f(b))$.Then ,clearly $g(f(a)) = a$ and $g(f(b)) = b$ since g is left inverse for f . By comparing these two , we obtain $g(f(a)) = a = b = g(f(b))$. Therefore, f must be injective if it has a left inverse .

If h is right inverse for f :

Now , we need to show that f is onto , i.e. for any member $m \in B$, $\exists n \in A$ with $f(n) = m$.

If we choose $h(m) = n$, then we have $f(n) = f(h(m)) = m$ since h is right inverse for f . Thus , f must be surjective if it has a right inverse .

2.b

Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g, h: B \rightarrow A$ with $A = \{1, 2\}$, $B = \{a, b, c\}$.

Take $f(1) = a$, $f(2) = b$; $g(a) = 1$, $g(b) = 2$, $g(c) = 1$; $h(a) = 1$, $h(b) = 2$, $h(c) = 2$. It's clearly seen that $h \circ f = g \circ f = \iota_A$ but $g \neq h$. We've showed that there are two left inverses of f in this example . Hence , a function can have more than one left inverse .

Let's explain the question for right inverses by giving another example .

Say $f: \{a, b\} \rightarrow \{c\}$. In this case , $f(a) = f(b) = c$. Now we can define two different right inverses of f , say g and h . It is obvious that $g: \{c\} \rightarrow \{a, b\}$ and $h: \{c\} \rightarrow \{a, b\}$. There can be condition such that $g(c) = a$ and $h(c) = b$. These functions are both right inverse for f and they are different from each other . Thus , a function can have more than one right inverse .

2.c

Assume f has left and right inverse.

If f has left inverse g , then f is injective which is proven in part(a). Similarly, if f has right inverse h , then f is surjective from part(a) again. Thus, as f is both injective and surjective, it is bijective. If f is a bijective function, its right and left inverses must be same. So, $g = h = f^{-1}$.

Answer 3

For the function f

We know f is defined on Z^+ . For the second parameter which is y , we can easily obtain any number we want on this region since it depends only on y , so the second parameter is surjective. Now, let's consider the conditions $y = 1$ and $y = 2$. For $y = 1$, our function becomes;

$$f(x, 1) = (x + 1 - 1, 1) = (x, 1)$$

And $x \in Z^+$. If $x = 1$, we have $(1, 1)$; if $x = 2$, we have $(2, 1)$; if $x = 3$, we have $(3, 1)$ and so on.

For $y = 2$, our function becomes;

$$f(x, 2) = (x + 2 - 1, 2) = (x + 1, 2)$$

If $x = 1$, we have $(2, 2)$; if $x = 2$, we have $(3, 2)$; if $x = 3$, we have $(4, 2)$ and so on.

The condition $y \leq x$ is satisfied and we can obtain numbers in Z^+ , hence first parameter is surjective, too. Since both parameters are surjective, f is surjective.

For the injectivity of f , the second parameter depends only on y , so there is only one value for each y and this parameter is clearly injective. Then, let's think some y is chosen which means first parameter depends only on x . So, there is only one value for each x , hence first parameter is injective, too. Therefore, f is injective.

Since f is both surjective and injective, it is bijection.

For the function g

Let's try some values of x and y to determine whether it is surjective.

$$g(1, 1) = 1$$

$$g(2, 1) = 2$$

$$g(2, 2) = 3$$

$$g(3, 1) = 4$$

These values satisfy the condition $y \leq x$ and $x, y \in Z^+$. We can easily obtain all numbers $\in Z^+$. Hence, g is surjective. For the injectivity, we can compare some values of the function g .

$$g(1, 1) = 1$$

$$g(2, 1) = 2$$

$$g(2, 2) = 3$$

$$g(3, 1) = 4$$

$$g(3, 2) = 5$$

$$g(3, 3) = 6$$

These values satisfy the condition $y \leq x$ and $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ again . We could think that values we've tried can give same images since they are close numbers . But all of them gave different images . While x and y are increasing , the image of g is increasing ,too . Hence , g is injective .

As g is both surjective and injective , it is bijection .

Answer 4

4.b

I couldn't prove the part (a) . But it says the set of algebraic numbers is countable. So , we can use this .

Let's say A for the set of algebraic numbers and B for the set of transcendental numbers . And $R = A \cup B$. We know that R is uncountable . So one of A or B must be uncountable . A is countable from part(a) . Therefore, B is uncountable .

Answer 5

We can choose n for k . Now , we should show that $n \ln n$ is $O(n)$ and $n \ln n$ is $\Omega(n)$.

When $n \leq e$, $|n \ln n| \leq C |n|$ for $C = 1$.

$n \geq e$, $|n \ln n| \geq C |n|$ for $C = 1$.

Therefore , $n \ln n = \Theta(k)$ for $k = n$.

Now , it's time to show that $n = \Theta(\frac{n}{\ln n})$ because we are using n instead of k .

For $n \leq e$, $|n| \leq C |\frac{n}{\ln n}|$ for $C = 1$.

$n \geq e$, $|n| \geq C |\frac{n}{\ln n}|$ for $C = 1$.

We have showed that $n = \Theta(\frac{n}{\ln n})$. Hence , $n = \Theta(\frac{k}{\ln k})$.

Answer 6

6.a

Positive divisors of 6 which are other than itself are 1,2,3 . And $6 = 1+2+3$.

Positive divisors of 28 that are other than itself are 1,2,4,7,14 . And $28 = 1+2+4+7+14$.

Therefore , as they satisfied the definition of perfect number , 6 and 28 are perfect number .

6.b

Positive divisors of $2^{p-1}(2^p - 1)$ other than itself are all the number with the type 2^a for $0 \leq a \leq p - 1$, and $2^b(2^p - 1)$ for $0 \leq b \leq p - 1$ when $2^p - 1$ is prime . And we can obtain $\sum_{a=0}^n 2^a = 2^{n+1} - 1$ by using the formula for $\sum_{j=0}^n ar^j$ from the text book ($n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$) .

Let's take the sum of these positive divisors :

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{a=0}^{p-1} 2^a + \sum_{b=0}^{p-2} 2^b (2^p - 1) &= (2^p - 1) + (2^p - 1) (2^{p-1} - 1) \\ &= (2^p - 1) (1 + (2^{p-1} - 1)) \\ &= (2^p - 1) 2^{p-1}\end{aligned}$$

We've reached our first expression . Hence , when $(2^p - 1)$ is prime , $2^{p-1}(2^p - 1)$ is a perfect number .

Answer 7

7.a

From given expressions , we can say $x = a.m + c_1 = b.n + c_2$ where $a, b, m, n, c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m > 0$ and $n > 0$. Then , we have :

$$\rightarrow x - c_1 = a.m$$

$$\rightarrow x - c_2 = b.n$$

Now , let's assume $\gcd(m, n) = k$. And clearly ;

$$\rightarrow k \mid (a.m) \text{ and } k \mid (b.n)$$

$$\rightarrow k \mid (x - c_1) \text{ and } k \mid (x - c_2)$$

$$\rightarrow (x - c_2) - (x - c_1) = (k.u) - (k.v) \text{ for some } u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\rightarrow (c_1 - c_2) = k(u - v)$$

$$\rightarrow k \mid (c_1 - c_2)$$

We proved the condition $\gcd(m, n) \mid (c_1 - c_2)$.