

**M1F Foundations of Analysis—Problem Sheet 11, hints  
and solutions.**

1)

(i) Say  $a, b \in X$  and  $f(a) = f(b)$ . Then  $g(f(a)) = g(f(b))$  so  $(g \circ f)(a) = (g \circ f)(b)$  and hence  $a = b$ , and because  $a$  and  $b$  were arbitrary we deduce that  $f$  is injective.

(ii) [typo in the question—should say “surjective”.] Say  $y \in Y$ . Define  $x = g(y)$ . Then  $f(x) = f(g(y)) = (f \circ g)(y) = y$  and because  $y$  was arbitrary we see that  $f$  is surjective.

(iii) This is immediate from (i) and (ii).

2†)

a)  $A$  is countable so let's assume  $A = \mathbb{N}$ . Say  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow B$  is a surjection. Define a map  $g : B \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  by letting  $g(b)$  be the smallest  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $f(n) = b$ . Note that by surjectivity such  $b$  must exist. Then  $g$  is easily checked to be an injection, so we can regard  $B$  as a subset of  $\mathbb{N}$ . If  $B$  is not finite then we can count it as  $B = \{b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots\}$  where  $b_1$  is the smallest element of  $B$ ,  $b_2$  is the second smallest, and so on. So  $B$  is countable.

b) Fix bijections  $f_n : N \rightarrow A_n$ . Then there's a surjection  $f : \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$  defined by  $f(m, n) = f_n(m)$ . Hence by a) we see that the union is either finite or countable. But the union contains  $A_1$  which is countable and hence infinite, and so the union must be countable.

c) Fix  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and let  $A_n$  be the set of subsets of  $\mathbb{N}$  of size at most  $n$ . There's a surjection  $\mathbb{N}^n \rightarrow A_n$  defined by  $f(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$ . Hence  $A_n$  is countable and so by b) we see that the set of finite subsets of  $\mathbb{N}$  is also countable. Alternatively define an injection from the finite subsets of  $\mathbb{N}$  to  $\mathbb{N}$  sending  $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$  (assumed to be in increasing order) to  $2^{a_1} 3^{a_2} 5^{a_3} \dots p_n^{a_n}$ , where  $p_i$  is the  $i$ th prime.

d) If the set of infinite subsets of  $\mathbb{N}$  were also countable, then the set of all subsets of  $\mathbb{N}$  would be countable by c), and this contradicts Cantor's diagonal argument: the power set of  $\mathbb{N}$  is not countable.

e) The set of all subsets of  $\mathbb{N}$  is uncountable. If  $T$  is any such subset, then consider the following equivalence relation on  $\mathbb{N}$ : If  $n = 2r - 1$  is odd then  $n \sim n$ , and if  $r \in T$  then also  $n \sim n + 1$ . But  $n$  is not related to any other natural number. Similarly, if  $n = 2r$  is even, then  $n \sim n$ , and if  $r \in T$  then also  $n \sim n - 1$ , but  $n$  is related to no other natural number. Hence the equivalence classes look like  $\{2r - 1\}, \{2r\}$  if  $r \notin T$  and  $\{2r - 1, 2r\}$  if  $r \in T$ , as  $r$  runs through  $\mathbb{N}$ . The resulting equivalence relations are all distinct and so because there are uncountably many choices for  $T$ , there are also uncountably many equivalence relations on  $\mathbb{N}$ .

f) The set of functions  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  is uncountable, as it is naturally in bijection with the set of subsets of  $\mathbb{N}$ . Hence the set of functions  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  is also uncountable.

3)

(i)  $\binom{p}{a} = \frac{p!}{a!(p-a)!}$  and the LHS is an integer, so the RHS must be too, after cancelling. But after all the cancelling has finished on the RHS, the prime  $p$

will still be left in the numerator because both  $a$  and  $p - a$  are strictly smaller than  $p$ . So  $p$  must divide the RHS so  $p$  divides the LHS.

(ii) This follows instantly from the binomial theorem and the definition of “mod”.

(iii) It's true for  $n = 0$  and  $n = 1$ . For general  $n > 0$  one can easily prove  $n^p \equiv n \pmod{p}$  by induction on  $n$ , and for  $n < 0$  one can either do induction on  $-n$  or deal with  $p = 2$  explicitly and then for general  $p$  use the fact that  $(-m)^p = -m^p$  to deduce the negative case from the positive case.

(iv) If  $n$  is prime to  $p$  then there is  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  such that  $\lambda n + \mu p = 1$ . We know  $n^p \equiv n \pmod{p}$  and now multiplying both sides by  $\lambda$ , we deduce that  $n^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

4)

(i) By the binomial theorem it's  $\binom{17}{15} = \frac{17 \cdot 16}{2} = 17 \cdot 8 = 136$ .

(ii) It's  $\binom{4}{0}(2x)^4 + \binom{4}{1}(2x)^3y + \binom{4}{2}(2x)^2y^2 + \binom{4}{3}(2x)y^3 + \binom{4}{4}y^4 = 16x^4 + 32x^3y + 24x^2y^2 + 8xy^3 + y^4$ .

5)

(i) By the multinomial theorem it's  $\binom{7}{2,2,3} = \frac{7!}{2!2!3!} = \frac{7!}{2 \cdot 2 \cdot 6} = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 = 21 \cdot 10 = 210$ .

(ii) By the multinomial theorem the product is a sum of things of the form  $\binom{5}{a,b,c} 1^a x^b (x^3)^c$  and we want the degree of this to be 11 so  $b + 3c = 11$  and  $a + b + c = 5$ . Subtracting, we see  $2c - a = 6$  and hence  $2c \geq 6$  meaning that  $c = 3, 4, 5$ . Then  $2c - a = 6$  gives  $a = 0, 1, 2$  and only  $c = 3$  and  $a = 0$  gives a non-negative value of  $b$ , namely  $b = 2$ . So the answer is  $\binom{5}{0,2,3} = \frac{5!}{2!3!} = 4 \cdot 5 / 2 = 10$ .