

**Solution to Tutorial Series No. 2**  
**Sets, relations and functions**

**Solution0 1.**

- *Union of A and B:*

$$A \cup B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$$

- *Intersection of B and C:*

$$B \cap C = \{4, 6\}$$

- *Set difference A - B:*

$$A - B = \{1, 2\}$$

- *Symmetric difference of A and C:*

$$A \Delta C = \{1, 3, 5, 8, 10\}$$

**Solution0 2.**

1.  $a \in E$ : True. Since  $E = \{a, b, c\}$ ,  $a$  is an element of  $E$ .
2.  $a \subset E$ : False.  $a$  is not a subset of  $E$ ;  $\{a\}$  is a subset of  $E$ .
3.  $\{a\} \subset E$ : True.  $\{a\}$  is a subset of  $E$  because  $a \in E$ .
4.  $\emptyset \in E$ : False.  $\emptyset$  (empty set) is not an element of  $E$ .
5.  $\emptyset \subset E$ : True. The empty set  $\emptyset$  is a subset of every set, including  $E$ .
6.  $\{\emptyset\} \subset E$ : False.  $\{\emptyset\}$  is not a subset of  $E$  because  $\emptyset \notin E$ .

**Solution0 3.**

1.  $A \setminus B = A \cap B^c$  By definition:

$$A \setminus B = \{x \in A \mid x \notin B\},$$

and on the other hand:

$$A \cap B^c = \{x \in A \mid x \in B^c\} = \{x \in A \mid x \notin B\}.$$

Thus:

$$A \setminus B = A \cap B^c.$$

$$2. A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$

Using the distributive property of intersection over union:

$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C).$$

$$3. A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Using the distributive property of union over intersection:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C).$$

This can also be verified using element-based reasoning: If  $x \in A \cup (B \cap C)$ , then  $x \in A$  or  $x \in B \cap C$ . If  $x \in B \cap C$ , then  $x \in B$  and  $x \in C$ , so  $x \in A \cup B$  and  $x \in A \cup C$ .

Conversely, if  $x \in (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$ , then  $x \in A \cup B$  and  $x \in A \cup C$ . This implies  $x \in A$ , or  $x \in B$  and  $x \in C$ , so  $x \in A \cup (B \cap C)$ .

$$4. A \Delta B = (A \cup B) \setminus (A \cap B)$$

By the definition of symmetric difference:

$$A \Delta B = (A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A).$$

Using part (1):

$$A \setminus B = A \cap B^c \quad \text{and} \quad B \setminus A = B \cap A^c.$$

Thus:

$$A \Delta B = (A \cap B^c) \cup (B \cap A^c).$$

On the other hand:

$$(A \cup B) \setminus (A \cap B) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cap B)^c.$$

Since  $(A \cap B)^c = A^c \cup B^c$ , we have:

$$(A \cup B) \setminus (A \cap B) = (A \cup B) \cap (A^c \cup B^c).$$

Using the distributive property:

$$(A \cup B) \cap (A^c \cup B^c) = [(A \cup B) \cap A^c] \cup [(A \cup B) \cap B^c].$$

Simplifying each term:

$$(A \cup B) \cap A^c = (A \cap A^c) \cup (B \cap A^c) = B \cap A^c,$$

$$(A \cup B) \cap B^c = (A \cap B^c) \cup (B \cap B^c) = A \cap B^c.$$

Thus:

$$(A \cup B) \setminus (A \cap B) = (A \cap B^c) \cup (B \cap A^c).$$

Therefore:

$$A \Delta B = (A \cup B) \setminus (A \cap B).$$

**Solution0 4.****The Power Set  $\mathcal{P}(E)$** 

The power set  $\mathcal{P}(E)$  of a set  $E$  is the set of all subsets of  $E$ , including the empty set and  $E$  itself. For  $E = \{a, b, c, d\}$ , the power set  $\mathcal{P}(E)$  is:

$$\mathcal{P}(E) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{d\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{a, d\}, \{b, c\}, \{b, d\}, \{c, d\}, \\ \{a, b, c\}, \{a, b, d\}, \{a, c, d\}, \{b, c, d\}, E\}.$$

In total,  $\mathcal{P}(E)$  contains  $2^n$  subsets, where  $n = 4$  is the number of elements in  $E$ . Thus,  $|\mathcal{P}(E)| = 2^4 = 16$ .

**Example of a Partition of  $E$** 

A partition of  $E$  is a collection of non-empty, pairwise disjoint subsets of  $E$  whose union equals  $E$ . An example of a partition of  $E$  is:

$$\mathcal{P}_1 = \{\{a, b\}, \{c\}, \{d\}\}.$$

Verify:

- Each subset is non-empty:  $\{a, b\}, \{c\}, \{d\} \neq \emptyset$ ,
- The subsets are pairwise disjoint:

$$\{a, b\} \cap \{c\} = \emptyset, \quad \{a, b\} \cap \{d\} = \emptyset, \quad \{c\} \cap \{d\} = \emptyset,$$

- The union of all subsets equals  $E$ :

$$\{a, b\} \cup \{c\} \cup \{d\} = \{a, b, c, d\} = E.$$

Thus,  $\mathcal{P}_1 = \{\{a, b\}, \{c\}, \{d\}\}$  is a valid partition of  $E$ .

**Solution0 5.****1. Images and Pre-images under  $f(x) = \sin(x)$ :**

(a) The image of  $\mathbb{R}$  under  $f(x) = \sin(x)$  is:

$$f(\mathbb{R}) = [-1, 1],$$

because the sine function oscillates between  $-1$  and  $1$  for all real  $x$ .

(b) The image of  $[0, 2\pi]$  under  $f(x) = \sin(x)$  is:

$$f([0, 2\pi]) = [-1, 1],$$

because  $\sin(x)$  completes one full cycle in the interval  $[0, 2\pi]$ .

(c) The image of  $[0, \frac{\pi}{2}]$  under  $f(x) = \sin(x)$  is:

$$f([0, \frac{\pi}{2}]) = [0, 1],$$

because the sine function is strictly increasing from  $0$  to  $1$  in this interval.

(d) The inverse image of  $[0, 1]$  under  $f(x) = \sin(x)$  is:

$$f^{-1}([0, 1]) = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} [2k\pi, 2k\pi + \pi],$$

as sine is periodic with period  $2\pi$ .

(e) The inverse image of  $[3, 4]$  under  $f(x) = \sin(x)$  is:

$$f^{-1}([3, 4]) = \emptyset,$$

because  $\sin(x) \notin [3, 4]$  for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

(f) The inverse image of  $[1, 2]$  under  $f(x) = \sin(x)$  is:

$$f^{-1}([1, 2]) = f^{-1}(\{1\}) = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \left\{ \frac{\pi}{2} + 2k\pi \right\},$$

because  $\sin(x) = 1$  occurs only at  $x = \frac{\pi}{2} + 2k\pi$  for  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ , and  $\sin(x) \notin (1, 2]$ .

2. **Comparison of  $f(A \setminus B)$  and  $f(A) \setminus f(B)$ :**

Let  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ ,  $A = [-3, 2]$ , and  $B = [0, 4]$ :

(a) The set  $A \setminus B = [-3, 0)$ , as  $B = [0, 4]$  removes  $[0, 4]$  from  $A$ .

(b) The image of  $A \setminus B$  under  $f(x)$ :

$$f(A \setminus B) = f([-3, 0)) = (1, 10],$$

because  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$  is increasing on  $[0, \infty)$  and symmetric about  $x = 0$ .

(c) The image of  $A$  under  $f(x)$ :

$$f(A) = f([-3, 2]) = [1, 10],$$

and the image of  $B$  under  $f(x)$ :

$$f(B) = f([0, 4]) = [1, 17].$$

(d) The set  $f(A) \setminus f(B)$  is:

$$f(A) \setminus f(B) = [1, 10] \setminus [1, 17] = \emptyset.$$

Comparing:

$$f(A \setminus B) = (1, 10], \quad f(A) \setminus f(B) = \emptyset.$$

Thus,  $f(A \setminus B) \neq f(A) \setminus f(B)$ .

3. **Condition for  $f(A \setminus B) = f(A) \setminus f(B)$ :**

For  $f(A \setminus B) = f(A) \setminus f(B)$  to hold, the function  $f$  must be **\*\*injective\*\*** (one-to-one). Injectivity ensures that elements in  $A \setminus B$  map uniquely to  $f(A \setminus B)$ , without overlap from elements in  $B$ .

**Solution 6.**

1.  $E = \mathbb{Z}$  and  $x \mathcal{R} y \Leftrightarrow |x| = |y|$ :

- **Reflexive:** Yes, since  $|x| = |x|$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ .
- **Symmetric:** Yes, since  $|x| = |y| \implies |y| = |x|$ .
- **Antisymmetric:** No, because  $|x| = |y|$  does not imply  $x = y$  (e.g.,  $x = 3, y = -3$ ).
- **Transitive:** Yes, since  $|x| = |y|$  and  $|y| = |z|$  imply  $|x| = |z|$ .
- **Type:** This is an **equivalence relation**, not an order.

2.  $E = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$  and  $x\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow xy > 0$ :

- **Reflexive:** Yes, since  $x \cdot x > 0$  for all  $x \neq 0$ .
- **Symmetric:** Yes, since  $xy > 0 \implies yx > 0$ .
- **Antisymmetric:** No, because  $xy > 0$  does not imply  $x = y$  (e.g.,  $x = 1, y = 2$ ).
- **Transitive:** Yes, since  $xy > 0$  and  $yz > 0$  imply  $xz > 0$ .
- **Type:** This is an **equivalence relation**, not an order.

3.  $E = \mathbb{Z}$  and  $x\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow x - y$  is even:

- **Reflexive:** Yes, since  $x - x = 0$ , which is even.
- **Symmetric:** Yes, since  $x - y$  even implies  $y - x$  is even.
- **Antisymmetric:** No, because  $x - y$  even does not imply  $x = y$  (e.g.,  $x = 2, y = 4$ ).
- **Transitive:** Yes, since  $x - y$  even and  $y - z$  even imply  $x - z$  is even.
- **Type:** This is an **equivalence relation**, not an order.

## Summary

- $\mathcal{R}_1, \mathcal{R}_2$ , and  $\mathcal{R}_3$  are all **equivalence relations**.
- None of them is an **order** because they fail antisymmetry.

## Solution0 7.

1.  $E = \mathbb{R}$  and  $x\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow x = -y$ :

- **Reflexive:** No, since  $x = -x$  only holds for  $x = 0$ , so it is not reflexive.
- **Symmetric:** Yes, since  $x = -y \implies y = -x$ .
- **Antisymmetric:** No, because  $x = -y$  and  $y = -x$  do not imply  $x = y$  (e.g.,  $x = 1, y = -1$ ).
- **Transitive:** No, because  $x = -y$  and  $y = -z$  imply  $x = -(-z) = z$ , which contradicts the original definition unless  $x = 0$  or  $z = 0$ .
- **Type:** This is **not an equivalence relation** because it is not reflexive, and it is **not an order** because it is not antisymmetric.

2.  $E = \mathbb{R}$  and  $x\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow \cos^2(x) + \sin^2(y) = 1$ :

- **Reflexive:** Yes, since  $\cos^2(x) + \sin^2(x) = 1$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- **Symmetric:** Yes, since  $\cos^2(x) + \sin^2(y) = 1 \implies \cos^2(y) + \sin^2(x) = 1$ .
- **Antisymmetric:** No, because  $\cos^2(x) + \sin^2(y) = 1$  and  $\cos^2(y) + \sin^2(x) = 1$  do not imply  $x = y$ .
- **Transitive:** Yes, since  $\cos^2(x) + \sin^2(y) = 1$  and  $\cos^2(y) + \sin^2(z) = 1$  imply  $\cos^2(x) + \sin^2(z) = 1$ .
- **Type:** This is an **equivalence relation** but **not an order**.

3.  $E = \mathbb{N}$  and  $x\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow \exists p, q \geq 1$  such that  $y = px^q$  (where  $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$ ):

- **Reflexive:** Yes, since  $x = px^q$  holds for  $p = 1, q = 1$ , implying  $x\mathcal{R}x$ .
- **Symmetric:** No, since  $y = px^q$  does not imply  $x = py^q$ .
- **Antisymmetric:** Yes, because if  $y = px^q$  and  $x = p'y^{q'}$ , then  $x = y$ .
- **Transitive:** Yes, since if  $y = px^q$  and  $z = p'y^{q'}$ , then  $z = (pp')x^{qq'}$ .
- **Type:** This is a **partial order**, not an equivalence relation.

**Solution 0 8.**

1. **Relation  $\sim_1$ :**  $x \sim_1 y$  if and only if  $x + y$  is even.

**Reflexive:** Yes, because  $x + x = 2x$  is always even for any  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Symmetric:** Yes, because if  $x + y$  is even, then  $y + x = x + y$ , which is also even.

**Transitive:** Yes, because if  $x + y$  is even and  $y + z$  is even, then  $(x + y) + (y + z) = x + 2y + z$  is even, implying that  $x + z$  is even.

**Equivalence Classes:** The equivalence classes are:

$$\dot{0} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \text{ is even}\}, \quad \dot{1} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \text{ is odd}\}.$$

2. **Relation  $\sim_2$ :**  $x \sim_2 y$  if and only if  $x$  and  $y$  have the same remainder when divided by 5.

**Reflexive:** Yes, because  $x \bmod 5 = x \bmod 5$  for any  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Symmetric:** Yes, because if  $x \bmod 5 = y \bmod 5$ , then  $y \bmod 5 = x \bmod 5$ .

**Transitive:** Yes, because if  $x \bmod 5 = y \bmod 5$  and  $y \bmod 5 = z \bmod 5$ , then  $x \bmod 5 = z \bmod 5$ .

**Equivalence Classes:** The equivalence classes are:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{0} &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \equiv 0 \pmod{5}\}, & \dot{1} &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \equiv 1 \pmod{5}\}, & \dot{2} &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \equiv 2 \pmod{5}\}, \\ \dot{3} &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}\}, & \dot{4} &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \equiv 4 \pmod{5}\}. \end{aligned}$$

3. **Relation  $\sim_3$ :**  $x \sim_3 y$  if and only if  $x - y$  is a multiple of 7.

**Reflexive:** Yes, because  $x - x = 0$  is a multiple of 7 for any  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Symmetric:** Yes, because if  $x - y$  is a multiple of 7, then  $y - x = -(x - y)$  is also a multiple of 7.

**Transitive:** Yes, because if  $x - y$  and  $y - z$  are multiples of 7, then  $(x - y) + (y - z) = x - z$  is also a multiple of 7.

**Equivalence Classes:** The equivalence classes are:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{0} &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \equiv 0 \pmod{7}\}, & \dot{1} &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \equiv 1 \pmod{7}\}, & \dot{2} &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \equiv 2 \pmod{7}\}, \\ \dot{3} &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}\}, & \dot{4} &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \equiv 4 \pmod{7}\}, & \dot{5} &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \equiv 5 \pmod{7}\}, \\ & & \dot{6} &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \equiv 6 \pmod{7}\}. \end{aligned}$$

**Solution0 9.**

We will prove the equivalence in two directions.

**(1) If  $x\mathcal{R}y$ , then  $\dot{x} = \dot{y}$ :**

Since  $\mathcal{R}$  is an equivalence relation, it satisfies three properties: reflexivity, symmetry, and transitivity. By the definition of an equivalence relation, if  $x\mathcal{R}y$ , then  $x$  and  $y$  belong to the same equivalence class, denoted  $\dot{x} = \dot{y}$ . This means that the equivalence classes of  $x$  and  $y$  are identical.

$$x\mathcal{R}y \quad \Rightarrow \quad \dot{x} = \dot{y}.$$

**(2) If  $\dot{x} = \dot{y}$ , then  $x\mathcal{R}y$ :**

If  $\dot{x} = \dot{y}$ , then by the definition of equivalence classes,  $x$  and  $y$  belong to the same equivalence class. Therefore, by the properties of an equivalence relation,  $x\mathcal{R}y$ .

$$\dot{x} = \dot{y} \quad \Rightarrow \quad x\mathcal{R}y.$$

Thus, we have shown both directions, completing the proof.

**Solution0 10.**

Let  $\mathbb{N}^*$  denote the set of positive integers. Define the relation  $\mathcal{R}$  on  $\mathbb{N}^*$  by  $x\mathcal{R}y$  if and only if  $x$  divides  $y$ .

1. **Show that  $\mathcal{R}$  is a partial order relation on  $\mathbb{N}^*$ :**

To show that  $\mathcal{R}$  is a partial order, we need to verify that it is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive.

- **Reflexive:** For any  $x \in \mathbb{N}^*$ ,  $x$  divides itself, i.e.,  $x\mathcal{R}x$ .
- **Antisymmetric:** If  $x\mathcal{R}y$  and  $y\mathcal{R}x$ , then  $x$  divides  $y$  and  $y$  divides  $x$ . This implies that  $x = y$ , because the only way two distinct positive integers can divide each other is if they are equal.
- **Transitive:** If  $x\mathcal{R}y$  and  $y\mathcal{R}z$ , then  $x$  divides  $y$  and  $y$  divides  $z$ . This implies that  $x$  divides  $z$ , so  $x\mathcal{R}z$ .

Since  $\mathcal{R}$  is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive, it is a partial order on  $\mathbb{N}^*$ .

2. **Is  $\mathcal{R}$  a total order relation?**

A relation is a total order if it is a partial order and, for any two elements  $x$  and  $y$  in  $\mathbb{N}^*$ , either  $x\mathcal{R}y$  or  $y\mathcal{R}x$  holds. In this case,  $\mathcal{R}$  is not a total order because, for example, 2 and 3 do not divide each other, so neither  $2\mathcal{R}3$  nor  $3\mathcal{R}2$  holds. Therefore,  $\mathcal{R}$  is not a total order.

3. **Describe the sets  $\{x \in \mathbb{N}^* \mid x\mathcal{R}5\}$  and  $\{x \in \mathbb{N}^* \mid 5\mathcal{R}x\}$ :**

- The set  $\{x \in \mathbb{N}^* \mid x\mathcal{R}5\}$  is the set of all positive integers that divide 5. The divisors of 5 are 1 and 5, so:

$$\{x \in \mathbb{N}^* \mid x\mathcal{R}5\} = \{1, 5\}.$$

- The set  $\{x \in \mathbb{N}^* \mid 5\mathcal{R}x\}$  is the set of all positive integers divisible by 5. This set is:

$$\{x \in \mathbb{N}^* \mid 5\mathcal{R}x\} = \{5, 10, 15, 20, 25, \dots\}.$$

4. **Does  $\mathbb{N}^*$  have a least element? A greatest element?**

- **Least element:** The least element in  $\mathbb{N}^*$  with respect to the relation  $\mathcal{R}$  is 1, because 1 divides all positive integers. Therefore, 1 is the least element.
- **Greatest element:** The greatest element in  $\mathbb{N}^*$  with respect to the relation  $\mathcal{R}$  does not exist because there is no single integer that is divisible by all positive integers. Thus, there is no greatest element.

**Solution 11.**

Let  $f$  be the function from  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x) = x^2 + x - 2$ .

1. **Definition of  $f^{-1}(\{4\})$ :** The set  $f^{-1}(\{4\})$  is the preimage of  $\{4\}$  under  $f$ , i.e., it consists of all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f(x) = 4$ .

$$f(x) = 4 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x^2 + x - 2 = 4$$

Solving this equation:

$$x^2 + x - 6 = 0$$

Factorizing:

$$(x - 2)(x + 3) = 0$$

Thus,  $x = 2$  or  $x = -3$ . Therefore,  $f^{-1}(\{4\}) = \{2, -3\}$ .

2. **Is the function  $f$  bijective?**

*Injectivity:*  $f$  is not bijective because  $f$  is not injective.

*Surjectivity:* For surjectivity, we would need to show that for every  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ , there exists  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f(x) = y$ . However, since the function is quadratic and opens upwards, it is not surjective over  $\mathbb{R}$ . Specifically,  $f(x) = x^2 + x - 2$  has a minimum value, but no maximum, meaning it cannot take all real values. Therefore,  $f$  is not surjective.

Since  $f$  is neither injective nor surjective, it is not bijective.

3. **Definition of  $f([-1, 1])$ :** The set  $f([-1, 1])$  is the image of the interval  $[-1, 1]$  under the function  $f$ , i.e., it is the set of all values  $f(x)$  for  $x \in [-1, 1]$ .

To calculate  $f([-1, 1])$ , we need to find the minimum and maximum values of  $f(x) = x^2 + x - 2$  on the interval  $[-1, 1]$ .

First, evaluate  $f(x)$  at the endpoints of the interval:

$$f(-1) = (-1)^2 + (-1) - 2 = 1 - 1 - 2 = -2$$

$$f(1) = 1^2 + 1 - 2 = 1 + 1 - 2 = 0$$

Next, compute the derivative of  $f(x)$ :

$$f'(x) = 2x + 1$$

Setting  $f'(x) = 0$  to find critical points:

$$2x + 1 = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x = -\frac{1}{2}$$

Since  $-\frac{1}{2} \in [-1, 1]$ , we evaluate  $f$  at  $x = -\frac{1}{2}$ :

$$f\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) = \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) - 2 = \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{2} - 2 = -\frac{9}{4}$$

Thus, the minimum value of  $f(x)$  on  $[-1, 1]$  is  $-\frac{9}{4}$ , and the maximum value is 0.

Therefore,  $f([-1, 1]) = [-\frac{9}{4}, 0]$ .



4. **Definition of  $f^{-1}([-2, 4])$ :** The set  $f^{-1}([-2, 4])$  is the preimage of the interval  $[-2, 4]$ , i.e., it consists of all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f(x) \in [-2, 4]$ .

We need to solve for  $x$  such that  $-2 \leq f(x) = x^2 + x - 2 \leq 4$ .

First, solve  $f(x) \geq -2$ :

$$x^2 + x - 2 \geq -2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x^2 + x \geq 0$$

Factoring:

$$x(x + 1) \geq 0$$

This inequality holds when  $x \leq -1$  or  $x \geq 0$ .

Next, solve  $f(x) \leq 4$ :

$$x^2 + x - 2 \leq 4 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x^2 + x - 6 \leq 0$$

Factoring:

$$(x - 2)(x + 3) \leq 0$$

This inequality holds when  $-3 \leq x \leq 2$ .

Combining the two results, we have:

$$-3 \leq x \leq -1 \quad \text{or} \quad 0 \leq x \leq 2$$

Therefore, the set  $f^{-1}([-2, 4]) = [-3, -1] \cup [0, 2]$ .

## Solution 12.

### 1. **Injectivity:**

A function  $f$  is injective if  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$  implies  $x_1 = x_2$ . Let's assume  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ , which gives:

$$\frac{2x_1}{1 + x_1^2} = \frac{2x_2}{1 + x_2^2}.$$

Simplifying this equation:

$$x_1(1 + x_2^2) = x_2(1 + x_1^2),$$

which does not necessarily imply  $x_1 = x_2$ . Therefore, the function is **not injective**.

**Counterexample:** Take  $x_1 = 2$  and  $x_2 = \frac{1}{2}$ :

$$f(2) = \frac{4}{5}, \quad f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{4}{5}.$$

Clearly,  $f(2) = f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$ , but  $2 \neq \frac{1}{2}$ , proving that the function is not injective.

### 2. **Surjectivity:**

A function  $f$  is surjective if for every  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ , there exists an  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f(x) = y$ . We know that the function  $f(x) = \frac{2x}{1+x^2}$  has a maximum at  $x = 1$  where  $f(1) = 1$  and a minimum at  $x = -1$  where  $f(-1) = -1$ , and as  $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$ ,  $f(x) \rightarrow 0$ . Therefore, the range of  $f(x)$  is  $(-1, 1)$ , and the function is **not surjective** because it cannot take values outside of this interval.

3. **Range of  $f(x)$ :**

We now show that the range of  $f(x) = \frac{2x}{1+x^2}$  is  $[-1, 1]$ . To do this, we need to find the maximum and minimum values of  $f(x)$ .

First, we calculate the derivative of  $f(x)$ :

$$f'(x) = \frac{(1+x^2)(2) - 2x(2x)}{(1+x^2)^2} = \frac{2(1-x^2)}{(1+x^2)^2}.$$

Setting  $f'(x) = 0$  gives:

$$1 - x^2 = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x = \pm 1.$$

Evaluating  $f(x)$  at  $x = 1$  and  $x = -1$ :

$$f(1) = \frac{2 \times 1}{1+1^2} = 1, \quad f(-1) = \frac{2 \times (-1)}{1+(-1)^2} = -1.$$

As  $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$ ,  $f(x) \rightarrow 0$ . Therefore, the range of  $f(x)$  is  $[-1, 1]$ , so we have shown that:

$$f(\mathbb{R}) = [-1, 1].$$

4. **Restriction  $g(x) = f(x)$  on  $[-1, 1]$ :**

Now, we need to show that the restriction of  $f$  to  $[-1, 1]$ , which we denote by  $g(x) = f(x)$ , is a bijection.

**Injectivity:** Since the derivative  $f'(x)$  is positive over the entire interval  $[-1, 1]$ , the function  $f(x) = \frac{2x}{1+x^2}$  is strictly increasing on this interval.

Therefore, the function  $f(x)$  is **injective** on  $[-1, 1]$ .

**Surjectivity:** The range of  $f(x)$  on  $[-1, 1]$  is  $[-1, 1]$ , so the restriction  $g(x)$  is surjective.

Since  $g(x)$  is both injective and surjective, it is a bijection.

**Solution 0 13.**

Let  $f : E \rightarrow F$ ,  $g : F \rightarrow G$ , and  $h = g \circ f$ .

1. **Injectivity of  $f$ :** Show that if  $h$  is injective, then  $f$  is injective. Also, show that if  $h$  is surjective, then  $g$  is surjective.

**Proof:**

1.1 **Injectivity of  $f$ :** Assume that  $h = g \circ f$  is injective. To show that  $f$  is injective, we need to prove that for any  $x_1, x_2 \in E$ , if  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ , then  $x_1 = x_2$ .

Since  $h(x_1) = g(f(x_1))$  and  $h(x_2) = g(f(x_2))$ , if  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ , then

$$h(x_1) = h(x_2).$$

Since  $h$  is injective, it follows that

$$x_1 = x_2.$$

Hence,  $f$  is injective.

1.2 **Surjectivity of  $g$ :** Assume that  $h = g \circ f$  is surjective. To show that  $g$  is surjective, we need to prove that for every  $y \in G$ , there exists some  $x \in F$  such that  $g(x) = y$ .

Since  $h$  is surjective, for each  $y \in G$ , there exists  $x \in E$  such that  $h(x) = g(f(x)) = y$ . Therefore, for every  $y \in G$ , we can find an  $x \in F$  such that  $g(x) = y$ , which proves that  $g$  is surjective.

2. **Surjectivity of  $f$ :** Show that if  $h$  is surjective and  $g$  is injective, then  $f$  is surjective.

**Proof:**

Assume that  $h$  is surjective and  $g$  is injective. To prove that  $f$  is surjective, we need to show that for every  $y \in F$ , there exists some  $x \in E$  such that  $f(x) = y$ .

Since  $h$  is surjective, for each  $y \in G$ , there exists  $z \in E$  such that  $h(z) = g(f(z)) = y$ . Since  $g$  is injective, there exists a unique  $x \in F$  such that  $f(x) = y$ , which implies that  $f$  is surjective.

3. **Injectivity of  $g$ :** Show that if  $h$  is injective and  $f$  is surjective, then  $g$  is injective.

**Proof:**

Assume that  $h$  is injective and  $f$  is surjective. To show that  $g$  is injective, we need to prove that if  $g(x_1) = g(x_2)$ , then  $x_1 = x_2$ .

Since  $h(x_1) = g(f(x_1))$  and  $h(x_2) = g(f(x_2))$ , if  $g(x_1) = g(x_2)$ , we have

$$h(x_1) = h(x_2).$$

Since  $h$  is injective, it follows that

$$f(x_1) = f(x_2).$$

Since  $f$  is surjective, there exists some  $x \in F$  such that  $f(x) = y$ , and therefore,  $g(x_1) = g(x_2)$ .

Hence,  $g$  is injective.