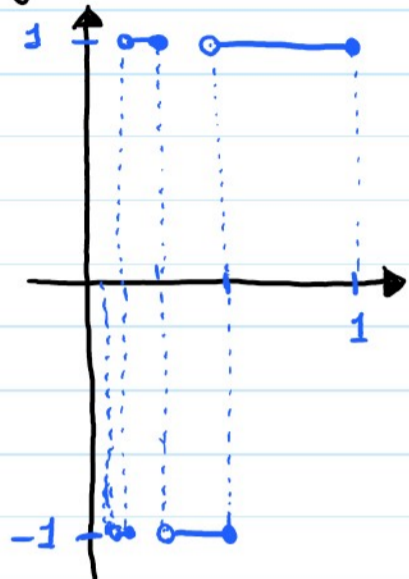


1. Let $f: (0, 1] \rightarrow [-1, 1]$, for any $k \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0}$,

$$f(x) = (-1)^k \quad \text{if} \quad \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} < x \leq \frac{1}{2^k}.$$

So its graph looks like:



Prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x)$ does NOT exist.

Proof. We have to show $\forall L \in \mathbb{R}, \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) \neq L$. I.e.

$$\forall L \in \mathbb{R}, \exists \epsilon > 0, \forall \delta > 0, \exists x, 0 < x < \delta \wedge |f(x) - L| \geq \epsilon. \quad \textcircled{\text{I}}$$

We claim that in fact any $0 < \epsilon < 1$, e.g. $\epsilon = 1/2$, satisfies $\textcircled{\text{I}}$. I.e.

We prove the following:

$$\forall L \in \mathbb{R}, \forall \delta > 0, \exists x, 0 < x < \delta \wedge |f(x) - L| \geq 1/2. \quad \textcircled{\text{II}}$$

To prove $\textcircled{\text{II}}$, first we show it is enough to prove the following:

$$\forall \delta > 0, \exists 0 < x_1, x_2 < \delta \wedge f(x_1) = 1 \wedge f(x_2) = -1 \quad \textcircled{\text{III}}$$

Suppose $\textcircled{\text{III}}$ holds. Then, for any $L \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\delta > 0$, let

x_1 and x_2 be the numbers that satisfy $\textcircled{\text{III}}$. Then we claim

either x_1 satisfies $\textcircled{\text{II}}$ or x_2 does.

If NOT, then $|f(x_1) - L| < 1/2$ and $|f(x_2) - L| < 1/2$.

$\Rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} |1 - L| < 1/2 \\ |-1 - L| < 1/2 \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} L > 1/2 \\ L < -1/2 \end{array} \right\}$, which is a contradiction.



$$\lfloor -1 - \lfloor \rfloor < 1/2 \rfloor \quad \lfloor \lfloor \rfloor < -1/2$$



Proof of ③ Suppose k is a positive integer such that $\frac{1}{2^k} < \delta$.

Then $0 < \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} < \frac{1}{2^k} < \delta$ and $f(\frac{1}{2^k}) = (-1)^k$ and $f(\frac{1}{2^{k+1}}) = (-1)^{k+1}$

So $\frac{1}{2^k}$ and $\frac{1}{2^{k+1}}$ can be x_1 and x_2 (or x_2 and x_1).

(Notice that $\frac{1}{2^k} < \delta \iff \frac{1}{\delta} < 2^k \iff \log_2(1/\delta) < k$.

So it is enough to take an integer $k > \log_2(1/\delta)$.)

2.(a) Prove or disprove: $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, ((\forall \varepsilon > 0, |x| \leq \varepsilon) \implies x = 0)$.

(b) Prove or disprove: $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \forall \varepsilon > 0, (|x| \leq \varepsilon \implies x = 0)$.

Solution. (a) It is true, and we prove it by contradiction. Suppose

to the contrary that its negation holds:

$$\exists x \in \mathbb{R}, (\forall \varepsilon > 0, |x| \leq \varepsilon) \wedge x \neq 0,$$

which is the same as:

$$\exists x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \forall \varepsilon > 0, |x| \leq \varepsilon. \quad \textcircled{I}$$

Notice that, for $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$, $0 < |x|$. So $0 < |x|/2 < |x|$,

which contradicts \textcircled{I} .

(a) An alternative, fairly close, method is proving the contrapositive

statement: $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, (x \neq 0 \implies (\exists \varepsilon > 0, |x| > \varepsilon))$

$$\equiv \forall x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \exists \varepsilon > 0, |x| > \varepsilon. \quad \textcircled{*}$$

For a given $0 \neq x \in \mathbb{R}$, we need to find $\varepsilon > 0$ which satisfies

$\textcircled{*}$. As above, we know $\varepsilon = |x|/2$ satisfies $\textcircled{*}$.

(b) It is false. We show that its negation is true.

$$\exists x \in \mathbb{R}, \exists \varepsilon > 0, |x| < \varepsilon \wedge x \neq 0. \quad \textcircled{I}$$

\textcircled{I} is clearly true. For instance, $x=1, \varepsilon=2$ satisfy \textcircled{I} .

3. Prove that $A \times (B \cup C) = (A \times B) \cup (A \times C)$.

Proof. $(x, y) \in A \times (B \cup C) \iff x \in A \wedge y \in B \cup C$
 $\iff x \in A \wedge (y \in B \vee y \in C)$
 $\iff (x \in A \wedge y \in B) \vee (x \in A \wedge y \in C)$
 $\iff (x, y) \in A \times B \vee (x, y) \in A \times C$
 $\iff (x, y) \in (A \times B) \cup (A \times C)$.

4. (a) Find all possible $a \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\exists x \in \mathbb{R}, x^2 - 2x + a^2 = 0.$$

(b) Find all possible $a \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\exists! x \in \mathbb{R}, x^2 - 2x + a^2 = 0.$$

Solution. (a) We have to find all $a \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $x^2 - 2x + a^2 = 0$

has a real-valued solution.

$$x^2 - 2x + a^2 = 0 \iff x^2 - 2x + 1 = 1 - a^2$$

$$\iff (x-1)^2 = 1 - a^2$$

It has a real-valued solution if and only if $1 - a^2 \geq 0$

$$\iff a^2 \leq 1 \iff |a| \leq 1 \iff -1 \leq a \leq 1.$$

(b) $x^2 - 2x + a^2 = 0$ has a unique real-valued solution if and

only if $(x-1)^2 = 1 - a^2$ has a unique real-valued solution.

If $1 - a^2 < 0$, it has no solution. If $1 - a^2 > 0$, it has two

solutions. So $1 - a^2 = 0$, which implies $a = \pm 1$.

5. Prove that there are 2^n functions $f: \{1, 2, \dots, n\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$.

Proof. We use induction on n .

Base. $n=1$. There are 2 functions $f_1, f_2: \{1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$.

$$f_1(1) = 0 \text{ and } f_2(1) = 1. \text{ And } 2 = 2^1.$$

Inductive step. For any positive integer k ,

number of functions $f: \{1, \dots, k\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is 2^k $\xrightarrow{?}$ number of functions $f: \{1, 2, \dots, k+1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is 2^{k+1} .

For any function $f: \{1, 2, \dots, k+1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$, we have that either $f(k+1) = 0$ or $f(k+1) = 1$.

How many functions $f: \{1, 2, \dots, k+1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ are there such that $f(k+1) = 0$?

Any such function is uniquely determined by its values on $\{1, 2, \dots, k\}$, and vice versa any function $g: \{1, \dots, k\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ can be uniquely extended to a function

$$f: \{1, \dots, k, k+1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$$

such that $f(k+1) = 0$ (to be precise $f(i) = g(i)$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$). Hence the number of such functions by the induction hypothesis is 2^k .

Similarly the number of functions $f: \{1, \dots, k+1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ such that $f(k+1) = 1$ is 2^k .

Hence the number of functions $f: \{1, 2, \dots, k+1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is $2^k + 2^k = 2^{k+1}$.

6. For $A \subseteq X$, the characteristic function $\mathbb{1}_A$ of A is

$$\mathbb{1}_A: X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}, \quad \mathbb{1}_A(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in A \\ 0 & x \in X \setminus A \end{cases}$$

(a) Prove that $\mathbb{1}_{A \cap B} = \mathbb{1}_A \cdot \mathbb{1}_B$.

(b) Prove that $\mathbb{1}_{A^c} + \mathbb{1}_A = \mathbb{1}_X$.

(a) Proof.

$x \in A$	$x \in B$	$x \in A \cap B$	$\mathbb{1}_A(x)$	$\mathbb{1}_B(x)$	$\mathbb{1}_A(x) \cdot \mathbb{1}_B(x)$	$\mathbb{1}_{A \cap B}(x)$
T	T	T	1	1	1	1
		F				0

(a) Proof.

$x \in A$	$x \in B$	$x \in A \cap B$	$\neg x \in A$	$\neg x \in B$	$\neg x \in A \cap B$	$x \in A \cap B$
T	T	T	1	1	1	1
T	F	F	1	0	0	0
F	T	F	0	1	0	0
F	F	F	0	0	0	0

So $\mathbb{1}_A(x) \cdot \mathbb{1}_B(x) = \mathbb{1}_{A \cap B}(x)$ for any x .

(b) Proof.

$x \in A$	$x \in A^c$	$\mathbb{1}_A(x)$	$\mathbb{1}_{A^c}(x)$	$\mathbb{1}_A(x) + \mathbb{1}_{A^c}(x)$
T	F	1	0	1
F	T	0	1	1

$\mathbb{1}_X(x) + \mathbb{1}_{X^c}(x) = 1 = \mathbb{1}_X(x)$ for any $x \in X$.

Corollary $\mathbb{1}_{A \cup B} = \mathbb{1}_A + \mathbb{1}_B - \mathbb{1}_A \cdot \mathbb{1}_B$.

Proof (Method 1)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{1}_{A \cup B} &= 1 - \mathbb{1}_{(A \cup B)^c} && \text{(part (b))} \\
 &= 1 - \mathbb{1}_{A^c \cap B^c} \\
 &= 1 - \mathbb{1}_{A^c} \cdot \mathbb{1}_{B^c} && \text{(part (a))} \\
 &= 1 - (1 - \mathbb{1}_A)(1 - \mathbb{1}_B) && \text{(part (b))} \\
 &= 1 - (1 - \mathbb{1}_A - \mathbb{1}_B + \mathbb{1}_A \cdot \mathbb{1}_B) \\
 &= \mathbb{1}_A + \mathbb{1}_B - \mathbb{1}_A \cdot \mathbb{1}_B.
 \end{aligned}$$

(Method 2)

Use a truth-table to prove it.

Exercise. Can you find $\mathbb{1}_{A \Delta B}$ in terms of $\mathbb{1}_A$ and $\mathbb{1}_B$?

Remark. You can see the similarities between Problem 5 and

$|\mathcal{P}(\{1, 2, \dots, n\})| = 2^n$. In your next problem set, you will

see how $\mathbb{1}_A$ can help us to understand the connection

between problem 5 and $|\mathcal{P}(\{1, \dots, n\})| = 2^n$ better.

between problem 5 and $|\mathcal{P}(\{1, \dots, n\})| = 2^n$ better.