

Math 713 HW #1

#1 Let $f: \Omega \rightarrow A$ and $B \subseteq A$. Then $f^{-1}(B^c) = f^{-1}(B)^c$.

Since every step in showing \subseteq and \supseteq is a biconditional it is easiest to prove this as

$$\begin{aligned}f^{-1}(B^c) &= \{x \in \Omega : f(x) \in B^c\} \\&= \{x \in \Omega : f(x) \notin B\} \\&= \{x \in \Omega : f(x) \in B\}^c = f^{-1}(B)^c\end{aligned}$$

It is also correct to write a longer element by element proof as follows:

Claim: $x \notin f^{-1}(B)$ if and only if $f(x) \notin B$.

Proof of claim: By definition

$$f^{-1}(B) = \{x \in \Omega : f(x) \in B\}.$$

Therefore $x \in f^{-1}(B)$ if and only if $f(x) \in B$. Taking the contrapositive of this statement proves the claim.

To finish we show first that $f^{-1}(B^c) \subseteq f^{-1}(B)^c$ and then that $f^{-1}(B)^c \subseteq f^{-1}(B^c)$.

" \subseteq " Let $x \in f^{-1}(B^c)$. Then $f(x) \in B^c$ so $f(x) \notin B$. By the claim $x \notin f^{-1}(B)$ and so $x \in f^{-1}(B)^c$.

" \supseteq " Let $x \in f^{-1}(B)^c$. Then $x \notin f^{-1}(B)$. By the claim $f(x) \notin B$. Therefore $f(x) \in B^c$ and so $x \in f^{-1}(B^c)$.

#2 Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $A \subseteq X$. Prove or find a counter-example to the claim $f(A^c) = (f(A))^c$.

The claim is not correct. Here is a counterexample:

$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = 1$ and $A = \{1\}$.

Then

$$f(A^c) = f(\{1\}^c) = f((-∞, 1) ∪ (1, ∞)) = \{1\},$$

whereas

$$f(A)^c = f(\{1\})^c = \{1\}^c = (-∞, 1) ∪ (1, ∞).$$

One might think that if f is one-to-one the result is true, but consider

$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined $f(x) = e^x$ and $A = (-∞, 0)$.

Then

$$f(A^c) = f([0, ∞)) = [1, ∞)$$

whereas

$$f(A)^c = f((-∞, 0))^c = (0, 1)^c = (-∞, 0] ∪ [1, ∞)$$

Indeed $f: X \rightarrow Y$ in general should be bijective in order that $f(A^c) = (f(A))^c$ hold true.

3. Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: B \rightarrow A$ where $A = [0, 1]$ and $B = [0, 2]$ be given by $f(x) = 1+x$ and $g(y) = y/3$. Define $\gamma(E) = g(f(E)^c)^c$ for $E \subseteq A$,

$C = \{E \subseteq A : E \in \gamma(E)\}$, $G = \bigcup_{E \in C} E$, and $h: A \rightarrow B$ by

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{for } x \in G \\ g^{-1}(x) & \text{for } x \notin G \end{cases}$$

Compute $h(0)$, $h(\frac{1}{4})$, $h(\frac{1}{2})$, $h(\frac{3}{4})$ and $h(1)$.

We need G to compute h . To find G we first look for elements of C of the form $[a, b]$.

Suppose $E \in C$ and $E = [a, b]$. Then $[a, b] \subseteq [0, 1]$ implies $0 \leq a \leq b \leq 1$. Moreover

$$\begin{aligned} [a, b] \cap \gamma([a, b]) &= g(f([a, b])^c)^c \\ &= g([a+1, b+1]^c)^c = g([0, a+1] \cup [b+1, 2])^c \\ &= \left[0, \frac{a+1}{3}\right] \cup \left[\frac{b+1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}\right]^c = \left[\frac{a+1}{3}, \frac{b+1}{3}\right] \cup \left(\frac{2}{3}, 1\right]. \\ &= \begin{cases} \left[\frac{a+1}{3}, \frac{b+1}{3}\right] \cup \left(\frac{2}{3}, 1\right] & \text{if } b < 1 \\ \left[\frac{a+1}{3}, 1\right] & \text{if } b = 1 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Taking the case $b = 1$ we obtain $[a, 1] \subseteq [\frac{a+1}{3}, 1]$ and therefore $a \geq \frac{a+1}{3}$ or $2a \geq 1$ or $a \geq \frac{1}{2}$. It follows that $[\frac{1}{2}, 1] \in E$ and therefore $[\frac{1}{2}, 1] \subseteq G$.

#3 continues...

Since $[\frac{1}{2}, 1] \subseteq G$, we know

$$h(x) = f(x) \text{ for every } x \in [\frac{1}{2}, 1].$$

It follows that

$$h(\frac{1}{2}) = \frac{3}{2}, \quad h(\frac{3}{4}) = \frac{9}{4} \text{ and } h(1) = 2.$$

It remains to compute $h(0)$ and $h(\frac{1}{4})$. Since

$$\begin{aligned} G &= T(G) \subseteq T(A) = g(f([0, 1])^c) \\ &= g([1, 2]^c) = g([0, 1])^c = [0, \frac{1}{3}]^c = [\frac{1}{3}, 1]. \end{aligned}$$

Then $0 \notin [\frac{1}{3}, 1]$ and $\frac{1}{4} \notin [\frac{1}{3}, 1]$ implies that

$$0 \notin G \text{ and } \frac{1}{4} \notin G.$$

Therefore

$$h(0) = g^{-1}(0) = 0$$

and

$$h(\frac{1}{4}) = g^{-1}(\frac{1}{4}) = \frac{3}{4}.$$

Note that it was possible to compute h for the values of $0, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{4}$ and 1 only knowing that

$$[\frac{1}{2}, 1] \subseteq G \subseteq [\frac{1}{3}, 1].$$

and not exactly what G is. That $G = [\frac{1}{2}, 1]$ seems plausible, but needs more justification.

#4 Suppose A and B are sets and that there are onto functions $f:A \rightarrow B$ and $g:B \rightarrow A$. Prove or find a counterexample to the claim that $A \cap B$.

The claim is true. Here is the proof: Let

$$\mathcal{C} = \{f^{-1}(\{y\}) : y \in B\}$$

Since f is onto then each element $f^{-1}(\{y\})$ of \mathcal{C} is a non-empty set. By the axiom of choice there exists a function $w: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow A$ such that $w(f^{-1}(\{y\})) \in f^{-1}(\{y\})$ for each $y \in B$. Define $\phi: B \rightarrow A$ as

$$\phi(y) = w(f^{-1}(\{y\})).$$

Claim that ϕ is one-to-one.

Proof of the claim: Suppose $y_1, y_2 \in B$. If $y_1 \neq y_2$ then $f^{-1}(\{y_1\}) = \{x \in A : f(x) = y_1\}$ and

$$f^{-1}(\{y_2\}) = \{x \in A : f(x) = y_2\}$$

are disjoint. Since $f^{-1}(\{y_1\}) \cap f^{-1}(\{y_2\}) = \emptyset$ and $\phi(y_1) \in f^{-1}(\{y_1\})$ and $\phi(y_2) \in f^{-1}(\{y_2\})$

then $\phi(y_1) \neq \phi(y_2)$ thus proving the claim.

Similarly there is $\gamma: A \rightarrow B$ based on g that is one-to-one.

Therefore the Schröder - Bernstein theorem applied to $\phi: B \rightarrow A$ and $\gamma: A \rightarrow B$ shows that $A \cap B$.

5 Show it a collection \mathcal{A} of subsets is closed under complementation and intersection it is an algebra.

Proof: Since \mathcal{A} is already closed under complementation it is sufficient to prove that $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$ implies $A \cup B \in \mathcal{A}$.

Let $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$. Then $A^c, B^c \in \mathcal{A}$ and so $A^c \cap B^c \in \mathcal{A}$.

By DeMorgan's law $A^c \cap B^c = (A \cup B)^c$. In other words $(A \cup B)^c \in \mathcal{A}$ and therefore $A \cup B \in \mathcal{A}$.

6 Prove that an algebra of subsets of Ω is a σ -algebra if and only if it is a monotone class.

" \Rightarrow " Let A be an algebra of subsets of Ω which is also a σ -algebra. To show A is a monotone class we need show that countable monotone unions and intersections are contained in A .

Let $A_i \in A$ with $A_1 \subseteq A_2 \subseteq \dots$. Then $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in A$ because A is a σ -algebra and σ -algebras contain any countable union.

Let $A_i \in A$ with $A_1 \supseteq A_2 \supseteq \dots$. Then $A_i^c \subseteq A_2^c \subseteq \dots$ and $A_i^c \in A$. Since A is a σ -algebra $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i^c \in A$.

By DeMorgan's law

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i^c = \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \right)^c$$

or, in other words, $\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \right)^c \in A$. Thus $\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in A$.

" \Leftarrow " Let A be an algebra of subsets of Ω which is also a monotone class. To show A is a σ -algebra we need to show that any countable union is contained in A .

Let $A_i \in A$. Define $B_i = \bigcup_{k=1}^i A_i$. Since A is an algebra it is closed under finite unions. Therefore $B_i \in A$.

Moreover since $B_1 \subseteq B_2 \subseteq \dots$. Then $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i \in A$ since A is a monotone class. Since $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i$ we have shown that $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in A$.