

§1 Sets, Functions, and Sequences

- A *set* is a well-defined collection of distinct objects.
- An *element* of a set is any object in the set.
 - \in - "belongs to" or "is an element of" or "is in"
 - \notin - "does not belong to" or "is not an element of" or "is not in"
- The *cardinality* of a set S , denoted by $|S|$, is the number of elements in S .

Example. Some commonly-used sets in our number system:

- \mathbb{N} - the set of *natural numbers* $0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$
- \mathbb{Z} - the set of *integers* (*whole numbers*) $\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$
- \mathbb{Q} - the set of *rational numbers* (*fractions*) $\dots, -1, 0, 1, 2, \frac{1}{2}, 3, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \dots$
- \mathbb{R} - the set of *real numbers*, which includes all rational numbers as well as *irrational numbers* such as π , e , and $\sqrt{2}$
- \mathbb{R}^+ - the set of all *positive real numbers*

Example. We can specify a set by listing its elements between curly brackets, separated by commas:

$$S = \{b, c\}.$$

The elements of S are b and c . Thus $|S| = 2$.

We can write $b \in S$, $c \in S$, and $d \notin S$, for instance.

Example. We can specify a set by some property that all elements must have:

$$S = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x^2 \leq 4\}$$

(or $S = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} : x^2 \leq 4\}$).

The elements of S are $-2, -1, 0, 1$ and 2 . Thus $|S| = 5$.

Also $S = \{-2, -1, 0, 1, 2\}$.

We can write $-2 \in S$, $-1 \in S$, $0 \in S$, $1 \in S$, and $4 \notin S$, for instance.

Exercise. Let $A = \{\{a\}, a\}$. What are the elements of A ? What is $|A|$?

The elements of A are $\{a\}$ and a

$$|A| = 2$$

- Two sets S and T are *equal*, denoted by $S = T$, if and only if (written iff)
 - (i) every element of S is also an element of T , and
 - (ii) every element of T is also an element of S .
 i.e., when they have precisely the same elements.
- The *empty set*, denoted by \emptyset , is ^{the} ~~a~~ set which has no elements. $|\emptyset| = 0$

Exercise. Are any of the following sets equal?

$$A = \{2, 3, 4, 5\}, \quad C = \{2, 2, 3, 3, 4, 5\},$$

$$B = \{5, 4, 3, 2\}, \quad D = \{x \in \mathbb{N} \mid 2 \leq x \leq 5\}.$$

Exercise. What is the difference between the sets \emptyset , $\{\emptyset\}$ and $\{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$?

The cardinalities are 0, 1 and 2 respectively

- Loosely speaking, a *subset* is a part of a set. More precisely, a set S is a *subset* of a set T if and only if each element of S is also an element of T .
 - \subseteq - "is a subset of", $\not\subseteq$ - "is not a subset of"
 - * $S = T$ if and only if $S \subseteq T$ and $T \subseteq S$.
- A set S is a *proper subset* of a set T iff S is a subset of T and $S \neq T$.
 - We then write $S \subsetneq T$ (or sometimes $S \subset T$).
 - * \emptyset is a proper subset of any non-empty set.
 - * Any non-empty set is an improper subset of itself.
- The *power set* $P(S)$ of a set S is the set of all possible subsets of S .
 - * For any set S , we have $\emptyset \subseteq S$ and $S \subseteq S$.
 - * For any set S , we have $\emptyset \in P(S)$ and $S \in P(S)$.
- The number of subsets of S is $|P(S)| = 2^{|S|}$. (Why?)

Example. $\mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$

Why is $|P(S)| = 2^{|S|}$?

Proof Let $|S| = n$

Let $S = \{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n\}$

Form a subset of S like this:

For each element, decide Y or N: is it in the subset

· " Y Y N N N ... $\{a_1, a_2\}$

Each sequence of Y/N choices gives a subset

2 choices at each place

Total choices is $2 \times 2 \times 2 \times \dots \times 2$ (n times)

$$= 2^n$$

$$= |P(S)|$$

(Note: same as number of bit strings of length n)

Example. Let $S = \{a, b, c\}$. The subsets of S are:

$$\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, b, c\}.$$

S has 8 subsets. We can write $\emptyset \subseteq S$, $\{b\} \subseteq S$, $\{a, c\} \subseteq S$, $\{a, b, c\} \subseteq S$, etc. The power set of S is

$$P(S) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, b, c\}\}.$$

and $|P(S)| = 2^3 = 8$.

We can write $\emptyset \in P(S)$, $\{b\} \in P(S)$, $\{a, c\} \in P(S)$, $\{a, b, c\} \in P(S)$, etc.

Exercise. Let $A = P(P(\{1\}))$. Find A and $|A|$.

$$P(\{1\}) = \{\emptyset, \{1\}\}$$

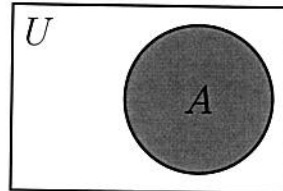
$$\text{So } P(P(\{1\})) = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}, \{\{1\}\}, \{\emptyset, \{1\}\}\}$$

$$|A| = 4$$

Exercise. For $B = \{\emptyset, 0, \{1\}\}$, are the following statements true or false?

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. $\emptyset \in B$ \top | 8. $\{\{0\}\} \subseteq P(B)$ \top |
| 2. $\emptyset \subseteq B$ \top | 9. $1 \in B$ \bar{F} |
| 3. $\{\emptyset\} \in B$ \bar{F} | 10. $\{1\} \subseteq B$ \bar{F} |
| 4. $\{\emptyset\} \subseteq P(B)$ \top | 11. $\{1\} \in P(B)$ F |
| 5. $\{0\} \in P(B)$ \top | 12. $\{\{1\}\} \subseteq P(B)$ F |
| 6. $\{\emptyset\} \subsetneq B$ \top | 13. $\emptyset \in P(P(P(P(B))))$ \top |
| 7. $\{\emptyset\} \in P(B)$ \top | |

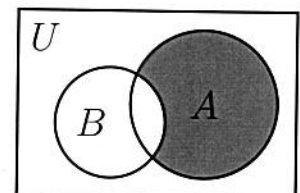
- It is often convenient to work inside a specified *universal set*, denoted by U , which is assumed to contain everything that is relevant.
- Venn diagrams are visualizations of sets as regions in the plane.
For instance, here is a Venn diagram of a universal set U containing a set A :



- Set operations and set algebra: ~ illustrated by Venn diagrams ~

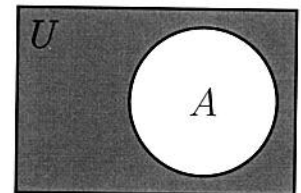
- difference $(-, \setminus)$ - "but not"

$$A - B = A \setminus B = \{x \in U \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}$$



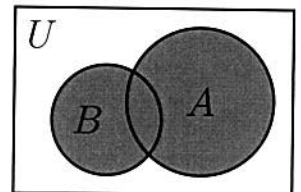
- complement $(^c, \overline{})$ - "not"

$$A^c = \overline{A} = U \setminus A = \{x \in U \mid x \notin A\}$$



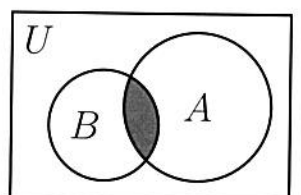
- union (\cup) - "or" meaning "one or other or both"

$$A \cup B = \{x \in U \mid x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$$



- intersection (\cap) - "and"

$$A \cap B = \{x \in U \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$$



- Two sets A and B are *disjoint* if $A \cap B = \emptyset$.
- The *Inclusion-Exclusion Principle*: $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$.

Example. Set $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$, $A = \{1, 3, 5\}$, and $B = \{1, 2\}$.
Then

$$A^c = \{2, 4, 6\} \quad A \cap B = \{1\} \quad A \cup B = \{1, 2, 3, 5\} \quad A - B = \{3, 5\}.$$

Exercise. Given $U = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$,

$$A = \{x \in U \mid x \text{ is odd}\}$$

$$B = \{x \in U \mid x \text{ is even}\}$$

$$C = \{x \in U \mid x \text{ is a multiple of 3}\}$$

$$D = \{x \in U \mid x \text{ is prime}\}$$

determine the following sets:

$$A \cap C = \{3, 9\}$$

$$B - D$$

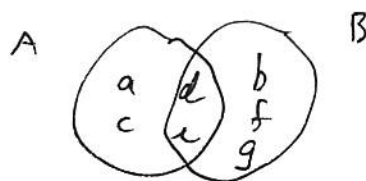
$$B \cup D$$

$$A^c$$

$$(A \cap C) - D = \{9\}$$

Exercise. Determine the sets A and B , where

$$A - B = \{a, c\}, B - A = \{b, f, g\}, \text{ and } A \cap B = \{d, e\}.$$



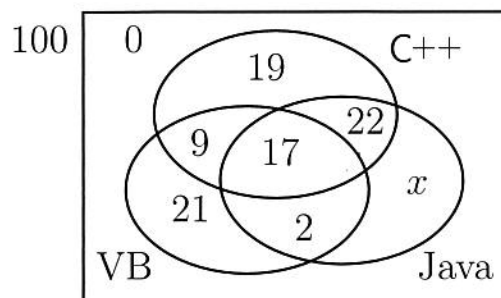
$$A = \{a, c, d, e\}$$

$$B = \{d, e, b, f, g\}$$

Example. In a survey of 100 students majoring in computer science, the following information was obtained:

- 17 can program in C++, Java, and Visual Basic.
- 22 can program in C++ and Java, but not Visual Basic.
- 9 can program in C++ and Visual Basic, but not Java.
- 2 can program in Java and Visual Basic, but not C++.
- 19 can program in C++, but not Visual Basic or Java.
- 21 can program in Visual Basic, but not C++ or Java.

Also, all of the 100 students can program in at least one of these three languages. How many students can program in Java, but not C++ or Visual Basic?



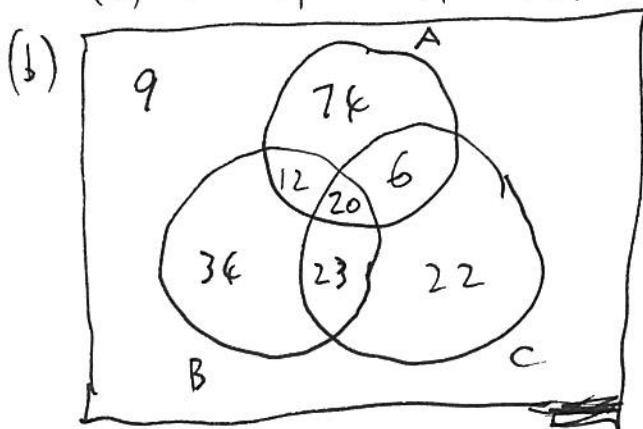
$$x = 100 - (17 + 22 + 9 + 2 + 19 + 21 + 0) = 10$$

Exercise. In a survey of 200 people asked about whether they like apples (A), bananas (B), and cherries (C), the following data was obtained:

$$\begin{aligned} |A| &= 112, & |B| &= 89, & |C| &= 71, \\ |A \cap B| &= 32, & |A \cap C| &= 26, & |B \cap C| &= 43, \\ |A \cap B \cap C| &= 20. \end{aligned}$$

- a) How many people like apples or bananas?
 b) How many people like exactly one of these fruit?
 c) How many people like none of these fruit?

(e.) $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B| = 112 + 89 - 32 = 169$



Plan: Start in the middle (triple intersection) and work outwards to find numbers in individual regions

Answer: $74 + 34 + 22 = 130$

(c.) 9

● Hints for proofs:

- To prove that $S \subseteq T$, we assume that $x \in S$ and show that $x \in T$.
- To prove that $S = T$, we show that $S \subseteq T$ and $T \subseteq S$.

Example. We prove that if $A \subseteq C$ and $B \subseteq C$, then $A \cup B \subseteq C$.

Proof. Let $A \subseteq C$ and $B \subseteq C$ and suppose that $x \in A \cup B$.

Then either $x \in A$ or $x \in B$ (maybe both).

If $x \in A$, then $x \in C$, because $A \subseteq C$.

Likewise, if $x \in B$, then $x \in C$, since $B \subseteq C$.

In all possible cases, we have $x \in C$, which proves that $A \cup B \subseteq C$.

see next
page for
fuller version

Exercise. Prove that if $A \subseteq B$ and $A \subseteq C$, then $A \subseteq B \cap C$. see p. 66

To prove "If p then q "

Suppose p

\downarrow (work)

q

Let $A \subseteq C$ and $B \subseteq C$

Suppose $x \in A \cup B$

$x \in A$ or $x \in B$

Case 1: If $x \in A$

then $x \in C$ because $A \subseteq C$

Case 2: If $x \in B$

then $x \in C$ because $B \subseteq C$

So in either case, $x \in C$

$A \cup B \subseteq C$

To prove: if $A \subseteq B$ and $A \subseteq C$ then $A \subseteq B \cap C$

Suppose $A \subseteq B$ and $A \subseteq C$

Let $a \in A$

$a \in B$ since $A \subseteq B$

and $a \in C$ since $A \subseteq C$

So $a \in B \cap C$

So $A \subseteq B \cap C$

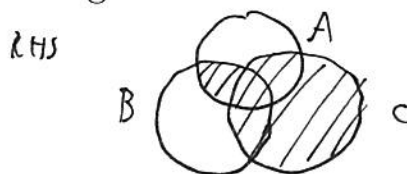
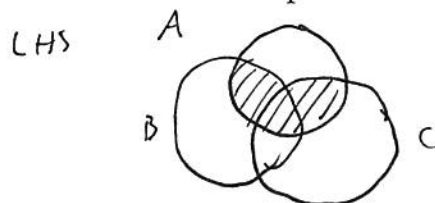
Exercise. Prove that if $A \subseteq B$, then $A \cap B = A$.

See over; 7a-7b

Exercise. Prove that if $A \cap B = A$, then $A \subseteq B$.

Thus, putting these last two examples together, we can say
 $A \cap B = A$ if and only if $A \subseteq B$.

Exercise. Is the statement $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup C$ true (for all sets A, B, C)? Provide a proof if it is true or give a counter example if it is false.



Venn diagram gives insight:
statement is false

One counterexample:

$$A = \{1, 2\}, B = \emptyset, C = \{2, 3\}. \quad A \cap (B \cup C) = \{2\} \quad \text{but} \quad (A \cap B) \cup C = \{2, 3\}$$

A wrong answer is "False: because LHS is $(A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$ not $(A \cap B) \cup C$."

Exercise. Is the statement $A - (B - C) = (A - B) - C$ true?

Provide a proof if it is true or give a counter example if it is false.

Again, draw a Venn diagram to get insight. It's false
 Then take particular sets which make the two sides unequal
 e.g. $A = \{1, 2\}, B = \{3\}, C = \{2, 4\}$

Suppose $A \subseteq B$

Let $x \in A \cap B$

$\therefore x \in A$ and $x \in B$

$\therefore x \in A$

$\therefore A \cap B \subseteq A$

Also, let $x \in A$

$\therefore x \in B$ since $A \subseteq B$

$x \in A \cap B$

$\therefore A \subseteq A \cap B$

Therefore $A = A \cap B$

Suppose $A \cap B = A$

Let $a \in A$

So $a \in A \cap B$ since $A \cap B = A$

So $x \in A$ and $x \in B$

So $x \in B$

So $A \subseteq B$

"p if and only if q"

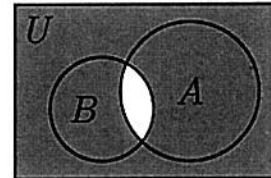
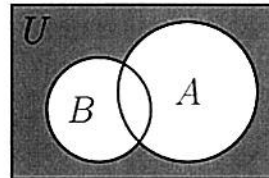
means "If p then q and if q then p"

To prove an "all" statement true, give a general proof

To prove an "all" statement false, give one counterexample

● **Laws of set algebra:**

- ✦ *Commutative laws* $A \cap B = B \cap A$
 $A \cup B = B \cup A$
- ✦ *Associative laws* $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$
 $A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$
- ✦ *Distributive laws* $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$
 $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
- ✦ *Absorption laws* $A \cap (A \cup B) = A$
 $A \cup (A \cap B) = A$
- ✦ *Identity laws* $A \cap U = U \cap A = A$
 $A \cup \emptyset = \emptyset \cup A = A$
- ✦ *Idempotent laws* $A \cap A = A$
 $A \cup A = A$
- ✦ *Double complement law* $(A^c)^c = A$
- ✦ *Difference law* $A - B = A \cap B^c$
- ✦ *Domination or universal bound laws* $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset \cap A = \emptyset$
 $A \cup U = U \cup A = U$
- ✦ *Intersection and union with complement* $A \cap A^c = A^c \cap A = \emptyset$
 $A \cup A^c = A^c \cup A = U$
- ✦ *De Morgan's Laws* $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$ $(A \cap B)^c = A^c \cup B^c$



Proof of De Morgan's law $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$:

(i) Suppose that $x \in (A \cup B)^c$. Then we have $x \notin A \cup B$, so $x \notin A$ and $x \notin B$. Thus, $x \in A^c$ and $x \in B^c$, so $x \in A^c \cap B^c$. This proves that $(A \cup B)^c \subseteq A^c \cap B^c$.

(ii) Suppose now that $x \in A^c \cap B^c$. Then $x \in A^c$ and $x \in B^c$, so $x \notin A$ and $x \notin B$. Thus, $x \notin A \cup B$, so $x \in (A \cup B)^c$. This proves that $A^c \cap B^c \subseteq (A \cup B)^c$.

Combining (i) and (ii), we conclude that $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$.

Example. We can use the laws of set algebra to simplify $(A^c \cap B)^c \cup B$:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (A^c \cap B)^c \cup B &= ((A^c)^c \cup B^c) \cup B && \text{De Morgan's law} \\
 &= (A \cup B^c) \cup B && \text{Double complement law} \\
 &= A \cup (B^c \cup B) && \text{Associative law} \\
 &= A \cup U && \text{Union with complement} \\
 &= U && \text{Domination}
 \end{aligned}$$

Exercise. Use the laws of set algebra to simplify $(A \cap (A \cap B)^c) \cup B^c$:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= (A \cap (A^c \cup B^c)) \cup B^c && \text{De Morgan's} \\
 &= ((A \cap A^c) \cup (A \cap B^c)) \cup B^c && \text{Distributive} \\
 &= (\emptyset \cup (A \cap B^c)) \cup B^c && \text{Domination (Intersection)} \\
 &= (A \cap B^c) \cup B^c && \text{Identity} \\
 &= B^c \cup (B^c \cup A) = B^c && \text{Commutative Absorption}
 \end{aligned}$$

Exercise. Use the laws of set algebra to simplify $((A \cup B)^c \cup C] \cup B^c)^c$

You do

Challenge: Prove the result (uniqueness of complement):

If $A \cup B = U$ and $A \cap B = \emptyset$ then $B = A^c$.

Suppose $A \cup B = U$ and $A \cap B = \emptyset$

Let $x \in B$. So $x \notin A$ (as $A \cap B = \emptyset$). So $x \in A^c$. Thus $B \subseteq A^c$

Let $x \in A^c$. So $x \notin A$. So $x \in B$ (otherwise, $x \notin A$ and $x \notin B$ so $x \notin A \cup B$. But $A \cup B = U$ so $x \in U$)

Thus $A^c \subseteq B$.

Therefore $B = A^c$

● ^{Q2}Principle of Duality:

For a set identity involving only unions, intersections and complements, its *dual* is obtained by replacing \cap with \cup , \cup with \cap , \emptyset with U , and U with \emptyset .

As all the relevant laws of set algebra come in dual pairs, then the dual of any true set identity is also true.

The duals of the last 3 examples are:

$$\text{Dual of } (A^c \cap B)^c \cup B = U$$

$$\text{is } (A^c \cup B)^c \cap B = \emptyset$$

● Generalized set operations:

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_n \quad \text{and} \quad \bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i = A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_n$$

Example. If $A_k = \{k, k+1\}$ for every positive integer k , then

$$\bigcup_{k=1}^3 A_k = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 = \{1, 2\} \cup \{2, 3\} \cup \{3, 4\} = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$$

$$\bigcap_{k=1}^3 A_k = A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3 = \{1, 2\} \cap \{2, 3\} \cap \{3, 4\} = \emptyset$$

● Let I be an (*index*) set. For each $i \in I$, let A_i be a subset of a given set A .

$$\bullet \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i = \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i = \{a \in A \mid a \in A_i \text{ for some } i \in I\}$$

$$\bullet \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i = \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i = \{a \in A \mid a \in A_i \text{ for every } i \in I\}$$

Example.

Let $I = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ be the index set. For each $i \in I$ let

$A_i = [0, \frac{1}{i}] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be the set of real numbers between

0 and $\frac{1}{i}$ including 0 and $\frac{1}{i}$.

$$\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i = [0, 1] \cup [0, \frac{1}{2}] \cup [0, \frac{1}{3}] \cup \dots = [0, 1] = A_1$$

$$\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i = [0, 1] \cap [0, \frac{1}{2}] \cap [0, \frac{1}{3}] \cap \dots = \{0\} \quad (\text{not } \emptyset)$$

Example. (*The Barber Puzzle*) In a certain town there is a barber

(*) who shaves all those men, and only those, who do not shave themselves.

Does the barber shave himself?

Problem: If he shaves himself, (*) \implies he doesn't shave himself.

If he doesn't shave himself, (*) \implies he shaves himself.

CONTRADICTION!

Solution: Avoid self-reference

The paradox occurred because a self-referential statement was used. The "themself" in (*) could also refer to the barber unless our above solution is imposed.

?? But some self-reference is OK, e.g. if the gas bill says
"This is our first and final demand."

Example. (*Russell's Paradox*)

- Let U be the set of all sets.
- First weird phenomenon: then $U \in U$.
- Even worse, we have *Russell's paradox*. Let

$$S = \{A \in U \mid A \notin A\}.$$

Is S an element of itself?

- i) If $S \in S$, then the definition of S implies that $S \notin S$, a contradiction.
- ii) If $S \notin S$, then the definition of S implies that $S \in S$, also a contradiction.

Hence neither $S \in S$ nor $S \notin S$.

Usual Solution: (1.) Avoid self-reference. (2.) Avoid $x \in x$
(3.) Build up from individuals, sets of individuals, power sets...

Key Point: The notion of set and set theory is very subtle. We will for the most part ignore these subtleties.

- An *ordered pair* is a collection of two objects in a specified order.
We use round brackets to denote ordered pairs; e.g., (a, b) is an ordered pair.
 - Note that (a, b) and (b, a) are different ordered pairs, whereas $\{a, b\}$ and $\{b, a\}$ are the same set.
- An *ordered n -tuple* is a collection of n objects in a specified order; e.g., (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) is an ordered n -tuple.
 - Two ordered n -tuples (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) and (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) are equal if and only if $a_i = b_i$ for all $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.
- The *Cartesian product* of two sets A and B , denoted by $A \times B$, is the set of all ordered pairs, the first from A , the second from B :

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) \mid a \in A \text{ and } b \in B\}$$

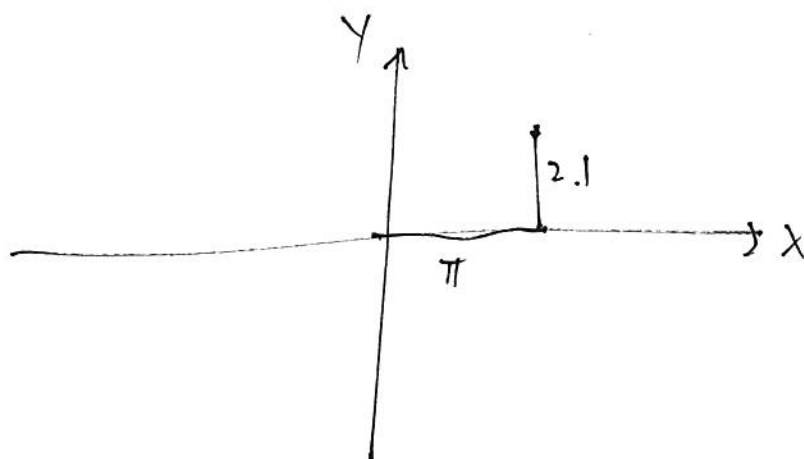
* If $|A| = m$ and $|B| = n$, then we have $|A \times B| = mn = |A| \times |B|$

- The *Cartesian product* of n sets A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n is the set of all ordered n -tuples (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) such that $a_i \in A_i$ for all $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$:

$$A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n = \{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \mid a_i \in A_i \text{ for all } i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

$\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}^2$ Cartesian plane

What about $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}^2$



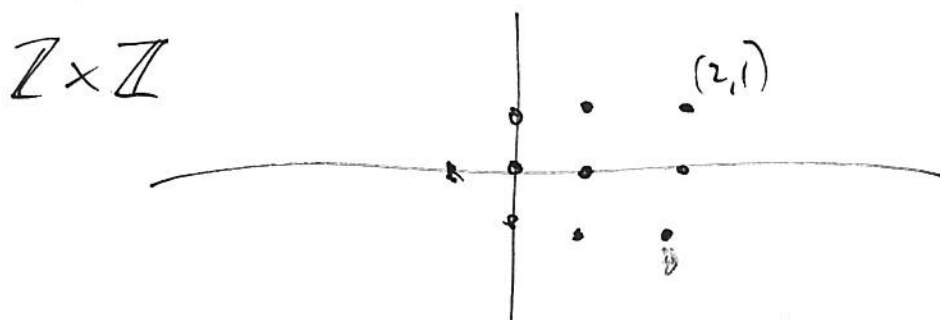
Cartesian plane

~~$A = \{0, a\}$~~ $A = \{0, a\}$

$$A \times A = \{(0,0), (0,a), (a,0), (a,a)\}$$

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

$$A \times A = \{(\{1\}, \{1\}), (\{1\}, 2), \dots\}$$



Grid of integer points on Cartesian plane
Lattice

Example. Let $A = \{a, b\}$ and $B = \{1, 2, 3\}$. Then

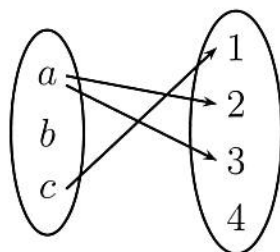
$$A \times B = \{(a, 1), (a, 2), (a, 3), (b, 1), (b, 2), (b, 3)\}.$$

Exercise. For A in the above example, find $A \times A$.

$$A \times A = \{(a, a), (a, b), (b, a), (b, b)\}$$

- When X and Y are small finite sets, we can use an *arrow diagram* to represent a subset S of $X \times Y$: we list the elements of X and the elements of Y , and then we draw an arrow from x to y for each pair $(x, y) \in S$.

Example. Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$, $Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, and $S = \{(a, 2), (a, 3), (c, 1)\}$ which is a subset of $X \times Y$, then the arrow diagram for S is



- A *function* f from a set X to a set Y is a subset of $X \times Y$ such that for every $x \in X$ there is exactly one $y \in Y$ for which (x, y) belongs to f .
 - We write $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and say that " f is a function from X to Y ".
 - X is the *domain* of f , Y is the *codomain* of f .
 - For any $x \in X$, there is a unique $y \in Y$ for which (x, y) belongs to f .
 - We write $f(x) = y$ or $f : x \mapsto y$.
 - We call y "the *image* of x under f " or "the *value* of f at x ".
 - The *range* of f is the set of all values of f , that is

$$f(X) = \{y \in Y \mid y = f(x) \text{ for some } x \in X\}.$$
- This definition of a function corresponds to what is normally thought of as the *graph* of a function, with an x -axis and a y -axis.

How does this relate to the definition of a function given in Calculus in MATH1131/1141/1151?: bottom of next page

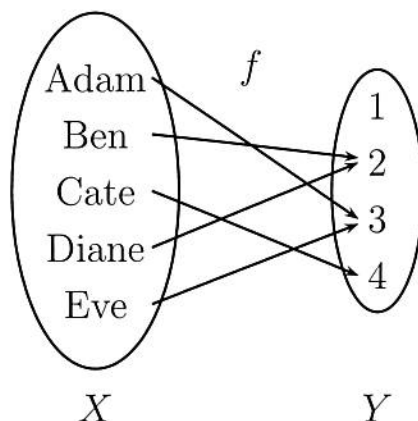
Example. Adam, Ben, Cate, Diane, and Eve were each given a mark out of 4. Their marks define a function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ as follows:

domain $X = \{\text{Adam, Ben, Cate, Diane, and Eve}\}$

codomain $Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$,

and suppose $f = \{(\text{Adam}, 3), (\text{Ben}, 2), (\text{Cate}, 4), (\text{Diane}, 2), (\text{Eve}, 3)\}$.

The arrow diagram for this function is



This is a function because every person has exactly one mark.

The range of this function is $\{2, 3, 4\}$.

Exercise. Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$ and $Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$.

Determine whether or not each of the following is a function from X to Y .

If it is, then write down its range.

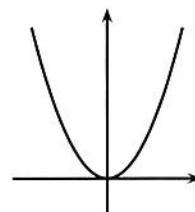
$$\begin{aligned} f &= \{(a, 2), (a, 4), (b, 3), (c, 5)\}, & \mathcal{N} & \text{(two values for } a) \\ g &= \{(b, 1), (c, 3)\}, & \mathcal{N} & \text{(there's no } g(a)) \\ h &= \{(a, 5), (b, 2), (c, 2)\}. & \mathcal{Y} & : \text{ range is } \{2, 5\} \end{aligned}$$

Example. The square function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is defined by set of the pairs

$$\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \mid y = x^2\}.$$

The function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ can also be specified by

$$f(x) = x^2 \quad \text{or} \quad f : x \mapsto x^2.$$



The domain of f is \mathbb{R} ; the codomain of f is \mathbb{R} ; and the range of f is

$$\{y \in \mathbb{R} \mid y = x^2 \text{ for some } x \in \mathbb{R}\} = \{y \in \mathbb{R} \mid y \geq 0\} = \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{0\}.$$

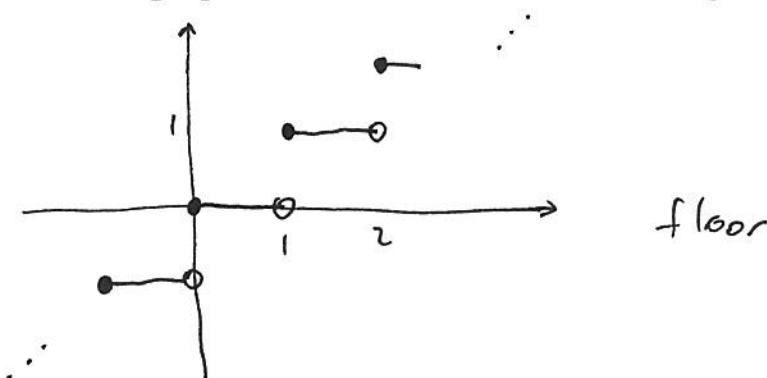
Function: each vertical line intersects the graph once

- The *floor* function: (round down)
for any $x \in \mathbb{R}$, we denote by $\lfloor x \rfloor$ the largest integer less than or equal to x .
- The *ceiling* function: (round up)
for any $x \in \mathbb{R}$, we denote by $\lceil x \rceil$ the smallest integer greater than or equal to x .

Exercise. Evaluate the following:

$$\begin{array}{llll} \lfloor 3.7 \rfloor = 3 & \lfloor -3.7 \rfloor = -4 & \lfloor 3 \rfloor = 3 & \lfloor -3 \rfloor = -3 \\ \lceil 3.7 \rceil = 4 & \lceil -3.7 \rceil = -3 & \lceil 3 \rceil = 3 & \lceil -3 \rceil = -3 \end{array}$$

Exercise. What are the ranges of the floor and ceiling functions? \mathbb{Z} (for both)
Plot the graphs of the floor and the ceiling functions.



Exercise. Determine whether or not each of the following definitions corresponds to a function. If it does, then write down its range.

$$\begin{array}{ll} f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, & f(x) = \frac{1}{x} \\ g : \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, & g(x) = \frac{1}{x} \\ h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, & h(x) = \lfloor x^2 - x \rfloor \\ j : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} & j(x) = 2x \end{array}$$

- The *image* of a set $A \subseteq X$ under a function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is
 $f(A) = \{y \in Y \mid y = f(x) \text{ for some } x \in A\} = \{f(x) \mid x \in A\} \subseteq Y$.
- The *inverse image* of a set $B \subseteq Y$ under a function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is
 $f^{-1}(B) = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \in B\} \subseteq X$.