

CSE2023 Discrete Computational Structures

Lecture 11

2.3 Inverse function

- Consider a one-to-one correspondence f from A to B
- Since f is onto, every element of B is the image of some element in A
- Since f is also one-to-one, every element of B is the image of a unique element of A
- Thus, we can define a new function from B to A that reverses the correspondence given by f

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Inverse function

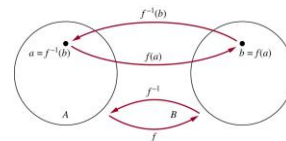
- Let f be a one-to-one correspondence from the set A to the set B
- The **inverse function** of f is the function that assigns an element b belonging to B the unique element a in A such that $f(a)=b$
- Denoted by f^{-1} , hence $f^{-1}(b)=a$ when $f(a)=b$
- Note f^{-1} is not the same as $1/f$

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One-to-one correspondence and inverse function

- If a function f is not one-to-one correspondence, cannot define an inverse function of f

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- A one-to-one correspondence is called **invertible**

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Example

- f is a function from $\{a, b, c\}$ to $\{1, 2, 3\}$ with $f(a)=2, f(b)=3, f(c)=1$. Is it invertible? What is its inverse?
- Let $f: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ such that $f(x)=x+1$. Is f invertible? If so, what is its inverse?
 $y=x+1, x=y-1, f^{-1}(y)=y-1$
- Let $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $f(x)=x^2$. Is it invertible?
– Since $f(2)=f(-2)=4$, f is not one-to-one, and so not invertible

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Example

- Sometimes we restrict the domain or the codomain of a function or both, to have an invertible function
- The function $f(x)=x^2$, from \mathbb{R}^+ to \mathbb{R}^+ is
 - one-to-one : If $f(x)=f(y)$, then $x^2=y^2$, then $x+y=0$ or $x-y=0$, so $x=-y$ or $x=y$
 - onto: $y=x^2$, every non-negative real number has a square root
 - inverse function: $f^{-1}(y)=\sqrt{y}$

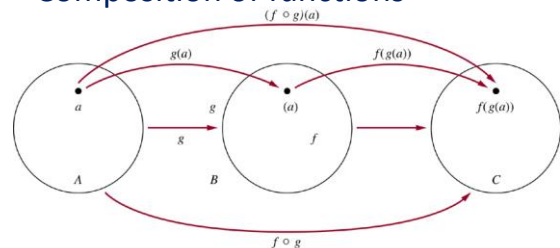
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Composition of functions

- Let g be a function from A to B and f be a function from B to C , the composition of the functions f and g , denoted by $f \circ g$, is defined by $(f \circ g)(a)=f(g(a))$
 - First apply g to a to obtain $g(a)$
 - Then apply f to $g(a)$ to obtain $(f \circ g)(a)=f(g(a))$

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Composition of functions



- Note $f \circ g$ cannot be defined unless the range of g is a subset of the domain of f

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Example

- $g: \{a, b, c\} \rightarrow \{a, b, c\}$, $g(a)=b$, $g(b)=c$, $g(c)=a$, and $f: \{a, b, c\} \rightarrow \{1, 2, 3\}$, $f(a)=3$, $f(b)=2$, $f(c)=1$. What are $f \circ g$ and $g \circ f$?
 - $(f \circ g)(a) = f(g(a)) = f(b) = 2$,
 - $(f \circ g)(b) = f(g(b)) = f(c) = 1$,
 - $(f \circ g)(c) = f(a) = 3$
- $(g \circ f)(a) = g(f(a)) = g(3)$ not defined. $g \circ f$ is not defined

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Example

- $f(x)=2x+3$, $g(x)=3x+2$. What are $f \circ g$ and $g \circ f$?
- $(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x)) = f(3x+2) = 2(3x+2)+3 = 6x+7$
- $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) = g(2x+3) = 3(2x+3)+2 = 6x+11$
- Note that $f \circ g$ and $g \circ f$ are defined in this example, **but they are not equal**
- The commutative law does not hold for composition of functions

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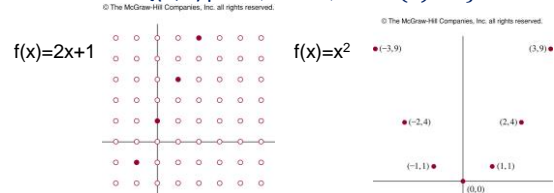
f and f^{-1}

- f and f^{-1} form an identity function in any order
 - Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ with $f(a)=b$
 - Suppose f is one-to-one correspondence from A to B
 - Then f^{-1} is one-to-one correspondence from B to A
 - The inverse function reverses the correspondence of f , so $f^{-1}(b)=a$ when $f(a)=b$, and $f(a)=b$ when $f^{-1}(b)=a$
 - $(f^{-1} \circ f)(a) = f^{-1}(f(a)) = f^{-1}(b) = a$, and
 - $(f \circ f^{-1})(b) = f(f^{-1}(b)) = f(a) = b$
- $f^{-1} \circ f = I_A$, $f \circ f^{-1} = I_B$, I_A , I_B are identity functions for A and B
- $(f^{-1})^{-1} = f$

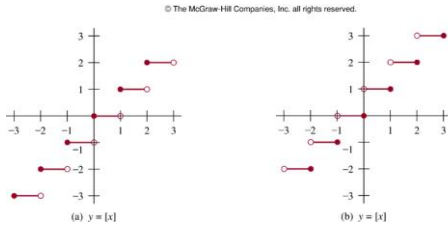
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Graphs of functions

- Associate a set of pairs in $A \times B$ to each function from A to B
- The set of pairs is called the graph of the function: $\{(a,b) \mid a \in A, b \in B, \text{ and } f(a)=b\}$



Example



floor: $y = \lfloor x \rfloor$

ceiling: $y = \lceil x \rceil$

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2.4 Sequences

- **Ordered** list of elements
 - e.g., 1, 2, 3, 5, 8 is a sequence with 5 elements
 - 1, 3, 9, 27, 81, ..., 30, ..., is an infinite sequence
- **Sequence** $\{a_n\}$: a function from a subset of the set of integers (usually either the set of $\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ or the set $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$) to a set S
- Use a_n to denote the image of the integer n
- Call a_n a **term** of the sequence

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Sequences

- Example: $\{a_n\}$ where $a_n = 1/n$
 - $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, \dots$
 - 1, $1/2$, $1/3$, $1/4, \dots$
- When the elements of an infinite set can be listed, the set is called **countable**
- Will show that the set of positive rational numbers is countable, but the set of real numbers is not

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Geometric progression

- **Geometric progression**: a sequence of the form $a, ar, ar^2, ar^3, \dots, ar^n$ where the initial term a and common ratio r are real numbers
- Can be written as $f(x) = a \cdot r^x$
- The sequences $\{b_n\}$ with $b_n = (-1)^n$, $\{c_n\}$ with $c_n = 2 \cdot 5^n$, $\{d_n\}$ with $d_n = 6 \cdot (1/3)^n$ are geometric progression
 - b_n : 1, -1, 1, -1, 1, ...
 - c_n : 2, 10, 50, 250, 1250, ...
 - d_n : 6, 2, $2/3$, $2/9$, $2/27$, ...

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Arithmetic progression

- **Arithmetic progression:** a sequence of the form
 $a, a+d, a+2d, \dots, a+nd$
 where the initial term a and the common difference d are real numbers
- Can be written as $f(x)=a+dx$
- $\{s_n\}$ with $s_n=-1+4n$, $\{t_n\}$ with $t_n=7-3n$
 - $\{s_n\}$: -1, 3, 7, 11, ...
 - $\{t_n\}$: 7, 4, 1, 02, ...

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String

- Sequences of the form a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are often used in computer science
- These finite sequences are also called **strings**
- The length of the string S is the number of terms
- The empty string, denoted by λ , is the string has no terms

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Recurrence relation

- Express a_n in terms of one or more of the previous terms of the sequence
- Example: $a_n = a_{n-1} + 3$ for $n=1, 2, 3, \dots$ and $a_1=2$
 - $a_2 = a_1 + 3 = 2 + 3 = 5$, $a_3 = a_2 + 3 = (2 + 3) + 3 = 2 + 3 \times 2 = 8$,
 - $a_4 = a_3 + 3 = (2 + 3 + 3) + 3 = 2 + 3 + 3 + 3 = 2 + 3 \times 3 = 11$
 - $a_n = 2 + 3(n-1)$
 - $a_n = a_{n-1} + 3 = (a_{n-2} + 3) + 3 = a_{n-2} + 3 \times 2$
 $= (a_{n-3} + 3) + 3 \times 2 = a_{n-3} + 3 \times 3$
 $= a_2 + 3(n-2) = (a_1 + 3) + 3(n-2) = 2 + 3(n-1)$

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Fibonacci sequence

- $f_0=0, f_1=1, f_n=f_{n-1}+f_{n-2}$, for $n=2, 3, 4$
 - $f_2=f_1+f_0=1+0=1$
 - $f_3=f_2+f_1=1+1=2$
 - $f_4=f_3+f_2=2+1=3$
 - $f_5=f_4+f_3=3+2=5$
 - $f_6=f_5+f_4=5+3=8$

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Closed formula

- Determine whether the sequence $\{a_n\}$, $a_n=3n$ for every nonnegative integer n , is a solution of the recurrence relation $a_n=2a_{n-1}-a_{n-2}$ for $n=2,3,4$,
 - For $n \geq 2$, $a_n=2a_{n-1}-a_{n-2}=2(3(n-1))-3(n-2)=3n=a_n$
- Suppose $a_n=2^n$. Note that $a_0=1$, $a_1=2$, $a_2=4$, but $2a_1-a_0=2 \times 2-1=3 \neq a_2$, thus $a_n=2^n$ is not a solution of the recurrence relation

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Special integer sequences

- Finding some patterns among the terms
- Are terms obtained from previous terms
 - by adding the same amount or an amount depends on the position in the sequence?
 - by multiplying a particular amount?
 - By combining previous terms in a certain way?
 - In some cycle?

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Summations

- The sum of terms: a_m, a_{m+1}, \dots, a_n from $\{a_n\}$

$$\sum_{j=m}^n a_j, \sum_{j=m}^n a_j, \text{ or } \sum_{m \leq j \leq n} a_j$$

that represents $a_m + a_{m+1} + \dots + a_n$

- Here j is the index of summation (can be replaced arbitrarily by i or k)
- The index runs from the lower limit m to upper limit n
- The usual laws for arithmetic applies

$$\sum_{j=1}^n (ax_j + by_j) = a \sum_{j=1}^n x_j + b \sum_{j=1}^n y_j \text{ where } a, b \text{ are real numbers}$$

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Example

- Express the sum of the first 100 terms of the sequence $\{a_n\}$ where $a_n=1/n$, $n=1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{100} \frac{1}{j}$$

- What is the value of $\sum_{k=1}^5 k^2$

$$\sum_{k=1}^5 k^2 = 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2 + 5^2 = 1 + 4 + 9 + 16 + 25 = 55$$

- What is the value of $\sum_{k=4}^8 (-1)^k$

$$\sum_{k=4}^8 (-1)^k = (-1)^4 + (-1)^5 + (-1)^6 + (-1)^7 + (-1)^8 = 1 + (-1) + 1 + (-1) + 1 = 1$$

- Shift index:

$$\sum_{j=1}^5 j^2 = \sum_{k=0}^4 (k+1)^2 \text{ by setting } j = k+1, \text{ or } k = j-1$$

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Geometric series

- **Geometric series:** sums of geometric progressions

$$\sum_{j=0}^n ar^j = \begin{cases} \frac{ar^{n+1}-a}{r-1} & \text{if } r \neq 1 \\ (n+1)a & \text{if } r = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \sum_{j=0}^n ar^j \\ rS &= \sum_{j=0}^n ar^{j+1} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} ar^k \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n ar^k + (ar^{n+1} - a) \\ &= S + (ar^{n+1} - a) \\ S &= \frac{ar^{n+1} - a}{r - 1} \end{aligned}$$

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Double summations

- Often used in programs

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^4 \sum_{j=1}^3 ij &= \sum_{i=1}^4 (i + 2i + 3i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^4 6i = 6 + 12 + 18 + 24 = 60 \end{aligned}$$

- Can also write summation to add values of a function of a set

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{s \in S} f(s) \\ \sum_{s \in \{0,2,4\}} s &= \sum 0 + 2 + 4 = 6 \end{aligned}$$

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TABLE 2 Some Useful Summation Formulae.	
Sum	Closed Form
$\sum_{k=0}^n ar^k \ (r \neq 0)$	$\frac{ar^{n+1} - a}{r - 1}, r \neq 1$
$\sum_{k=1}^n k$	$\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$
$\sum_{k=1}^n k^2$	$\frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$
$\sum_{k=1}^n k^3$	$\frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$
$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k, x < 1$	$\frac{1}{1-x}$
$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} kx^{k-1}, x < 1$	$\frac{1}{(1-x)^2}$

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Example

- Find $\sum_{k=50}^{100} k^2$

$$\sum_{k=50}^{100} k^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{100} k^2 - \sum_{k=1}^{49} k^2 = \frac{100 \cdot 101 \cdot 201}{6} - \frac{49 \cdot 50 \cdot 99}{6} = 338350 - 40425 = 297925$$
- Let x be a real number with $|x| < 1$, Find $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$

$$\sum_{j=0}^n ar^j = \begin{cases} \frac{ar^{n+1} - a}{r - 1} & \text{if } r \neq 1 \\ (n+1)a & \text{if } r = 1 \end{cases}, \sum_{n=0}^k x^n = \frac{x^{k+1} - 1}{x - 1}, \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^{k+1} - 1}{x - 1} = \frac{-1}{x - 1} = \frac{1}{1 - x}$$
- Differentiating both sides of $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k = \frac{1}{1-x}$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} kx^{k-1} = \frac{1}{(1-x)^2}$$

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2.5 Cardinality

- The sets A and B have the same cardinality, $|A|=|B|$, if and only if there is a one-to-one correspondence from A to B
- Countable:** A set that is *either finite or has the same cardinality as the set of positive integers*
- A set that is not countable is called **uncountable**
- When an infinite set S is countable, we denote the cardinality of S by \aleph_0 , i.e., $|S| = \aleph_0$

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Example

- Is the set of odd positive integers countable?
 - $f(n)=2n-1$ from \mathbb{Z}^+ to the set of odd positive integers
 - One-to-one: suppose that $f(n)=f(m)$ then $2n-1=2m-1$, so $n=m$
 - Onto: suppose t is an odd positive integer, then t is 1 less than an even integer $2k$ where k is a natural number. Hence $t=2k-1=f(k)$



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Infinite set

- An infinite set is countable if and only if it is possible to list the elements of the set in a sequence
- The reason being that a one-to-one correspondence f from the set of **positive integers** to a set S can be expressed by $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, \dots$ where $a_1=f(1), a_2=f(2), \dots, a_n=f(n)$
- For instance, the set of odd integers, $a_n=2n-1$

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Example

- Show the set of all integers is countable
- We can list all integers in a sequence by 0, 1, -1, 2, -2, ...
- Or $f(n)=n/2$ when n is even and $f(n)=-(n-1)/2$ when n is odd (n=1, 2, 3, ...)

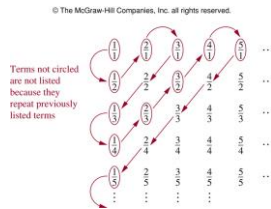
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Example

- Is the set of positive rational numbers countable?
- Every positive rational number is p/q
- First consider $p+q=2$, then $p+q=3$, $p+q=4$, ...

1, $\frac{1}{2}$, 2, 3, $\frac{1}{3}$,
 $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{3}{2}$, 4, 5, ...

Because all positive rational numbers are listed once, the set is countable



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Example

- Is the set of real numbers uncountable?
- Proof by contradiction
- Suppose the set is countable, then the subset of all real numbers that fall between 0 and 1 would be countable (as any subset of a countable set is also countable)
- The real numbers can then be listed in some order, say, r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots

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Example

- So $r_1 = 0.d_{11}d_{12}d_{13}d_{14}\dots$, where $d_i \in \{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9\}$
 $r_2 = 0.d_{21}d_{22}d_{23}d_{24}\dots$
 $r_3 = 0.d_{31}d_{32}d_{33}d_{34}\dots$
 $r_4 = 0.d_{41}d_{42}d_{43}d_{44}\dots$
 $r = 0.23794101\dots$ (for example)

- Form a new real number with

$$r = 0.d_1d_2d_3d_4\dots$$

$$d_i = \begin{cases} 4 & \text{if } d_{ii} \neq 4 \\ 5 & \text{if } d_{ii} = 4 \end{cases}$$

$$r_1 = 0.23794102\dots$$

$$r_2 = 0.44590138\dots$$

$$r_3 = 0.09118764\dots$$

$$r_4 = 0.80553900\dots$$

$$r = 0.4544\dots$$

- Every real number has a unique decimal expansion
- The real number r is not equal to r_1, r_2, \dots as its decimal expansion of r_i in the i -th place differs from others
- So there is a real number between 0 and 1 that is not in the list
- So the assumption that all real numbers can be listed between 0 and 1 can be listed must be false
- So all the real numbers between 0 and 1 cannot be listed
- The set of real numbers between 0 and 1 is uncountable

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