Discrete Mathematics for Computer Science

Lecture 4: Set and Function

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Questions from Students

Prove that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational. (Rational numbers are those of the form $\frac{m}{n}$, where m and n are integers.)

Proof: Suppose that $\sqrt{2}$ is rational. Then, there exist integers a and b with $\sqrt{2} = a/b$, where $b \neq 0$ and a and b have no common factors.

Since $\sqrt{2} = a/b$, it follows that $2b^2 = a^2$. By the definition of an even integer, it follows that a^2 is even, so a is even.

Since a is even, a = 2k for some integer k. Thus, $b^2 = 2k^2$. This implies that b^2 is even, so b is even.

As a result, a and b have a common factor 2, which contradicts our assumption.



Questions from Students

- Write the numbers 1, 2, 3, ..., 2n on a blackboard, where n is an odd integer.
- Pick any two of the numbers, j and k, write |j k| on the board and erase j and k. Continue this process until only one integer is written on the board.

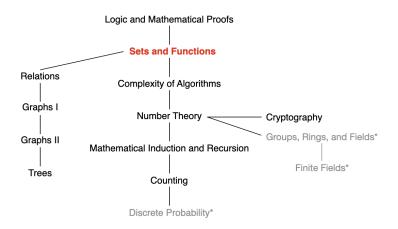
Prove that this integer must be odd.

Questions: Why is 1 + 2 + ... + 2n odd?

$$1+2+...+2n=\frac{2n(1+2n)}{2}=n(1+2n)$$

- n is odd, so n = 2k + 1
- $n(1+2n) = (2k+1)(1+4k+2) = 2(4k^2+5k+1) + 1$ SUSTECH Souther University of Souther University

This Lecture



Set and Functions: <u>set</u>, <u>set operations</u>, <u>functions</u>, sequences and summation, cardinality of sets

Sets

A set is an unordered collection of objects. These objects are called elements or members.

- $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$
- $B = \{a, b, c, d\}$
- $C = \{a, 2, 1, Mary\}$

Many discrete structures are built with sets:

- combinations
- relations
- graphs



Set Representation

Examples:

- $A = \{2, 3, 5, 7\}$
- $B = \{1, 2, 3, ..., 100\}$
- $C = \{ a \mid a \ge 2, a \text{ is a prime} \}$
- $D = \{2n \mid n = 0, 1, 2, ..., \}$

Representing a set by:

- listing (enumerating) the elements
- if enumeration is hard, use ellipses (...)
- definition by property, using the set builder

$$\{x \mid x \text{ has property } P \text{ or property } P(x))\}$$

Notation:

- $a \in A$: a is an element of set A
- $a \notin A$: a is not an element of set A



Important sets

■ Natural numbers:

$$\diamond$$
 N = {0, 1, 2, 3, ...}

■ Integers:

$$\diamond \mathbf{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$$

■ Positive integers:

$$\diamond \mathbf{Z}^+ = \{1, 2, 3, \ldots\}$$

■ Rational numbers:

$$\diamond \mathbf{Q} = \{ \frac{p}{q} \mid p \in \mathbf{Z}, q \in \mathbf{Z}, q \neq 0 \}$$

Real numbers:

Complex numbers:



Important sets

$$[a,b] = \{x \mid a \le x \le b\}$$

$$[a,b) = \{x \mid a \le x < b\}$$

$$(a,b] = \{x \mid a < x \le b\}$$

$$(a,b) = \{x \mid a < x < b\}$$

■ Two sets A, B are equal if and only if $\forall x \ (x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$.

Are sets $\{1,2,5\}$ and $\{2,5,1\}$ equal? Yes Are sets $\{1,2,2,2,5\}$ and $\{2,5,1\}$ equal? Yes



Universal and Empty Set

The universal set is the set of all objects under consideration, denoted by U.

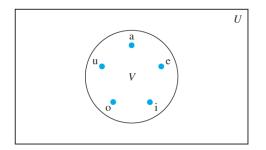
The empty set is the set of no object, denoted by \emptyset or $\{\}$.

• Are \emptyset and $\{\emptyset\}$ equal? No



Venn Diagrams

A set can be visualized using Venn diagrams

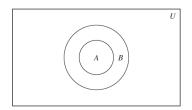




Subset

The set A is a subset of B if and only if every element of A is also an element of B, i.e., $\forall x (x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$, denoted by $A \subseteq B$.

If $A \subseteq B$, but $A \neq B$, then we say A is a proper subset of B, i.e., $\forall x (x \in A \rightarrow x \in B) \land \exists x (x \in B \land x \notin A)$, denoted by $A \subset B$.





Proof of Subset

Proof:

- Showing $A \subseteq B$: if x belongs to A, then x also belongs to B.
- Showing $A \nsubseteq B$: find a single $x \in A$ such that $x \notin B$.



Theorems

Prove that $\emptyset \subseteq S$.

Proof:

By definition, we need to prove $\forall x (x \in \emptyset \to x \in S)$. Since the empty set does not contain any element, $x \in \emptyset$ is always false. Then the implication is always true.

Prove that $S \subseteq S$.

Proof:

By definition, we need to prove $\forall x (x \in S \rightarrow x \in S)$. This is obviously true.

Note: two sets are equal if and only if each is a subset of the other:

$$\forall x (x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$$



The Size of a Set – Cardinality

Let S be a set. If there are exactly n distinct elements in S, where n is a nonnegative integer, we say that S is a finite set and n is the cardinality of S, denoted by |S|.

A set is said to be infinite if it is not finite.

Examples:

- $A = \{1, 2, 3, ..., 20\}$, where |A| = 20
- $B = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}$, which is infinite
- $|\emptyset| = 0$
- $|\{\emptyset\}| = 1$



Power Set

Many problems involve testing <u>all combinations of elements of a set</u> to see if they satisfy some property. To consider all such combinations,

Given a set S, the power set of S is the set of all subsets of the set S, denoted by $\mathcal{P}(S)$.

Example: What is the power set of the set $\{0,1,2\}$?

$$\mathcal{P}(\{0,1,2\}) = \{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{0,1\}, \{0,2\}, \{1,2\}, \{0,1,2\}\}$$

If S is a set with |S| = n, then $|\mathcal{P}(S)| = 2^n$. Why?



Power Set

What is the power set of \emptyset ?

$$\mathcal{P}(\emptyset) = \{\emptyset\}.$$

What is the power set of the set $\{\emptyset\}$?

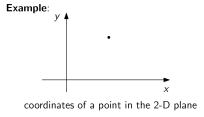
$$\mathcal{P}(\{\emptyset\}) = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}.$$



Tuples

The ordered n-tuple $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$ is the ordered collection that has a_1 as its first element and a_2 as its second element and so on.

Ordered 2-tuples are called ordered pairs



Two ordered n-tuples are equal if and only if each corresponding pair of their elements is equal. That is, $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n) = (b_1, b_2, ..., b_n)$ if and only if $a_i = b_i$ for i = 1, 2, ..., n.

Cartesian Product

Let A and B be sets. The Cartesian product of A and B, denoted by $A \times B$, is the set of all ordered pairs (a, b), where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$:

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

Example:

- $A = \{1, 2\}, B = \{a, b, c\}$
- $A \times B = \{(1, a), (1, b), (1, c), (2, a), (2, b), (2, c)\}$

Are $A \times B$ and $B \times A$ equal? No, $A \times B \neq B \times A$

What is the cardinality $|A \times B|$? $|A \times B| = |A| \times |B|$



Cartesian Product

The Cartesian product of the sets $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$, denoted by $A_1 \times A_2 \times ... \times A_n$, is the set of ordered *n*-tuples $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$ where $a_i \in A_i$ for i = 1, ..., n:

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

Example:

$$A = \{0, 1\}, B = \{1, 2\}, C = \{0, 1, 2\}$$

 $A \times B \times C = \{(0, 1, 0), (0, 1, 1), (0, 1, 2), (0, 2, 0), (0, 2, 1), (0, 2, 2), (1, 1, 0), (1, 1, 1), (1, 1, 2), (1, 2, 0), (1, 2, 1), (1, 2, 2)\}$

Let A be a set. A^n denotes $A \times A \times ... \times A$ with n sets:

$$A^n = \{(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n) \mid a_i \in A \text{ for } i = 1, 2,$$

Relation

A subset R of the Cartesian product $A \times B$ is called a relation from the set A to the set B.

Example: What are the ordered pairs in the less than or equal to relation, which contains (a, b) if $a \le b$, on the set $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$?

The ordered pair (a, b) belongs to R if and only if both a and b belong to $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ and $a \le b$. Consequently,

$$R = \{(0,0), (0,1), (0,2), (0,3), (1,1), (1,2), (1,3), (2,2), (2,3), (3,3)\}$$



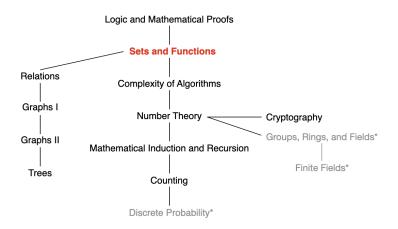
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Summary of Set

- Set: unordered collection of objects
- Subset $A \subseteq B$
- Cardinality: size of set
- Power of set $\mathcal{P}(A)$
- Tuple: (a, b)
- Cartesian Product $A \times B$
- Relation: a subset of $A \times B$



This Lecture

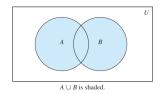


Set and Functions: <u>set</u>, <u>set operations</u>, <u>functions</u>, sequences and summation, cardinality of sets

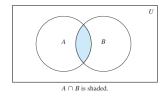
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Set Operations

Union: Let A and B be sets. The union of the sets A and B, denoted by $A \cup B$, is the set $\{x \mid x \in A \lor x \in B\}$.



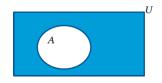
Intersection: The intersection of the sets A and B, denoted by $A \cap B$, is the set $\{x \mid x \in A \land x \in B\}$.



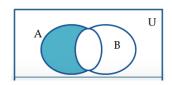


Set Operations

Complement: If A is a set, then the complement of the set A (with respect to U), denoted by \bar{A} is the set U - A, $\bar{A} = \{x \in U \mid x \notin A\}$



Difference: Let A and B be sets. The difference of A and B, denoted by A-B, is the set containing the elements of A that are not in B. $A-B=\{x\mid x\in A\land x\notin B\}=A\cap \bar{B}.$





Disjoint Sets

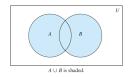
Two sets A and B are called disjoint if their intersection is empty, i.e., $A \cap B = \emptyset$.

Example: $A = \{1, 3, 5, 7\}$ and $B = \{2, 4, 6\}$ are disjoint, because $A \cap B = \emptyset$.



Cardinality of the Union

What is the cardinality of $A \cup B$?



$$|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$$

The generalization of this result to unions of <u>an arbitrary number of sets</u> is called the <u>principle of inclusion</u>—exclusion

$$|A \cup B \cup C| = |A| + |B| + |C| - |A \cap B| - |A \cap C| - |B \cap C| + |A \cap B \cap C|.$$

THE PRINCIPLE OF INCLUSION–EXCLUSION Let $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$ be finite sets. Then

$$\begin{split} |A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n| &= \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} |A_i| - \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} |A_i \cap A_j| \\ &+ \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq k \leq n} |A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k| - \dots + (-1)^{n+1} |A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n| \text{, herr University order} \\ &\text{order} \end{split}$$

Exercises

- $U = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 10\}, A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, B = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$
 - 1. $A \cup B$
 - 2. $A \cap B$
 - 3. *Ā*
 - 4. *B*
 - 5. A B
 - 6. B A
- $U = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 10\}, A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, B = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$
 - 1. $A \cup B$ {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8}



Set Identities

The properties and laws of sets that help us demonstrate and prove set operations, subsets and equivalence.

- Identity laws
 - $\Diamond A \cup \emptyset = A$
 - $\diamond A \cap U = A$
- Domination laws
 - $\diamond A \cup U = U$
 - $\diamond A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$
- Idempotent laws
 - $\Diamond A \cup A = A$
 - $\Diamond A \cap A = A$
- Complementation laws
 - $\diamond \bar{\bar{A}} = A$



Set Identities

■ Commutative laws

$$\diamond A \cup B = B \cup A$$

$$\diamond A \cap B = B \cap A$$

Associative laws

$$\diamond A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$$

$$\diamond A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$$

■ Distributive laws

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

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

De Morgan's laws

$$\diamond \, \overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$

$$\diamond \overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$$



Set Identities

Absorbtion laws

$$\diamond A \cup (A \cap B) = A$$

$$\Diamond A \cap (A \cup B) = A$$

Complement laws

$$\diamond A \cup \bar{A} = U$$

$$\diamond A \cap \bar{A} = \emptyset$$



Proof of Set Identities

Prove that $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

Proof 1: Using membership tables. Consider an arbitrary element x: 1, x is in A; 0, x is not in A.

Α	В	Ā	\overline{B}	$\overline{A \cap B}$	$\overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$	
1	1	0	0	0	0	
1	0	0	1	1	1	
0	1	1	0	1	1	
0	0	1	1	1	1	

Proof 2: by showing that $\overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$ and $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cap B}$

- $\overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$:
 - ▶ Suppose that $x \in \overline{A \cap B}$. By the definition of complement, $x \notin A \cap B$. Using the definition of intersection, $\neg((x \in A) \land (x \in B))$ is true.
 - ▶ By applying De Morgan's law, $\neg(x \in A) \lor \neg(x \in B)$). Thus, $x \notin A$ or $x \notin B$. Using the definition of the complement of a set, $x \in \bar{A}$ or $x \in \bar{B}$.
- ▶ By the definition of union, we see that $x \in \bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$. By the definition of union, we see that $x \in \bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$. By $\bar{A} \cup \bar{B} \subseteq \bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$.

Proof of Set Identities

Prove that
$$\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$

- Proof 1: using membership tables.
- **Proof 2:** by showing that $\overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$ and $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cap B}$
- **Proof 3:** Using set builder and logical equivalences

$$\overline{A \cap B} = \{x \mid x \notin A \cap B\}$$
 by definition of complement
$$= \{x \mid \neg(x \in (A \cap B))\}$$
 by definition of does not belong symbol by definition of intersection
$$= \{x \mid \neg(x \in A \land x \in B)\}$$
 by the first De Morgan law for logical equivalences
$$= \{x \mid x \notin A \lor x \notin B\}$$
 by definition of does not belong symbol by definition of complement
$$= \{x \mid x \in \overline{A} \lor x \in \overline{B}\}$$
 by definition of complement by definition of union
$$= \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$
 by meaning of set builder notation



Generalized Unions and Intersections

■ The union of a collection of sets is the set that contains those elements that are members of at least one set in the collection $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_n$.

■ The intersection of a collection of sets is the set that contains those elements that are members of all sets in the collection $\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_i = A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_n$.



Computer Representation of Sets

Question: How to represent sets in a computer?

- One solution: explicitly store the elements in a list
 - ► Computing the union, intersection, or difference operations would be time-consuming, because of the needs for searching elements.
- A better solution: assign a bit in a bit string to each element in the universal set and set the bit to 1 if the element is in the set.
 - ▶ Universal set *U* is finite and with *n* elements
 - ▶ Represent a subset *A* of *U* with *n* bits, where the *i*-th bit is 1 if *a_i* belongs to *A* and is 0 if *a_i* does not belong to *A*.



Computer Representation of Sets

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Example: U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\} A = \{2, 5\}. Thus, A is represented by 01001 B = \{1, 5\}. Thus, B is represented by 10001
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- Union: $A \lor B = 11001$, i.e., $\{1, 2, 5\}$
- Intersection: $A \wedge B = 00001$, i.e., $\{5\}$
- Complement: $\bar{A} = 10110$, i.e., $\{1, 3, 4\}$

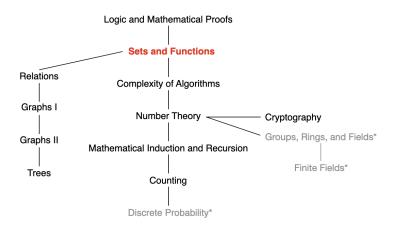


Summary of Set Operations

- Union $A \cup B$, cardinality (principle of inclusion-exclusion)
- Intersection $A \cap B$
- ullet Complement $ar{A}$
- Difference A B
- Disjoint set
- Set identities
- Proof of set identities
 - membership table, subset, set build and logical equivalences
- Computer representations



This Lecture



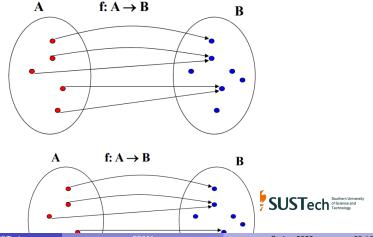
Set and Functions: <u>set</u>, <u>set operations</u>, <u>functions</u>, sequences and summation, cardinality of sets

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Function

Let A and B be two sets. A function from A to B, denoted by $f : A \to B$, is an assignment of exactly one element of B to each element of A.

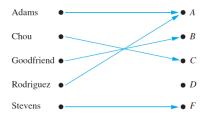
• We write f(a) = b if b is the unique element of B assigned by the function f to the element a of A.



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Representing Functions

1 Explicitly state the assignments between elements of the two sets



Note: Admas \mapsto A, Chou \mapsto C, ...

- 2 By a formula: f(x) = x + 1
- 3 By a relation from A to B: (Abdul, 22), (Brenda, 24), (Carla, 21), (Desire, 22), (Eddie, 24), and (Felicia, 22).



Important Sets of Functions

Let f be a function from A to B.

- A is the domain of f; B is the codomain of f
- If f(a) = b, b is called the image of a and a is a preimage of b.
- The range of f is the set of all images of elements of A, denoted by f(A).
- We also say f maps A to B.

Example:

$$A = \{1, 2, 3\}, B = \{a, b, c\}$$



Example:

$$A = \{1, 2, 3\}, B = \{a, b, c\}$$

-c is the image of 1

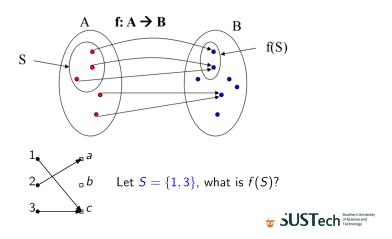




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Image of a Subset

For a function $f:A\to B$ and $S\subseteq A$, the image of S is a subset of B that consists of the images of the elements of S, denoted by f(S), where $f(S)=\{f(s)|s\in S\}$



One-to-One and Onto Functions

One-to-one function

never assign the same value to two different domain elements.

Onto function

 every member of the codomain is the image of some element of the domain.

One-to-one correspondence

One-to-one and onto



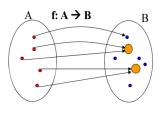
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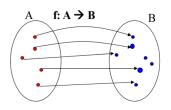
One-to-One (Injective) Function

A function f is called one-to-one or injective if and only if f(x) = f(y) implies x = y for all x, y in the domain of f. Also called an injunction.

Alternatively: A function is one-to-one if and only if $x \neq y$ implies $f(x) \neq f(y)$. (contrapositive!)



Not injective



Injective function

How about:

- $f(x) \neq f(y)$ implies $x \neq y$?
- x = y implies f(x) = f(y)?



One-to-One (Injective) Function

Example 1:

Whether the function f from $\{a, b, c, d\}$ to $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ with f(a) = 4, f(b) = 5, f(c) = 1, and f(d) = 3 is one-to-one? Yes.

Example 2:

Whether the function $f(x) = x^2$ from the set of integers to the set of integers is one-to-one? No, f(-1) = f(1)

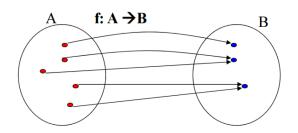
What if it is from the set of positive integers to the set of integers? Yes.



Onto (Surjective) Function

A function f is called onto or surjective if and only if for every $b \in B$ there is an element $a \in A$ such that f(a) = b. Also called a surjection.

Alternatively: A function is onto if and only if all codomain elements are covered, i.e., f(A) = B.





Onto (Surjective) Function: Example

Example 1:

Let f be the function from $\{a,b,c,d\}$ to $\{1,2,3\}$ defined by f(a)=3, f(b)=2, f(c)=1, and f(d)=3. Is f an onto function? Yes.

What if the codomain were $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$? No.

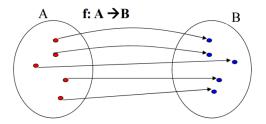
Example 2: Is the function $f(x) = x^2$ from the set of integers to the set of integers onto? No, as there is no integer x with $x^2 = -1$.



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One-to-One Correspondence (Bijective Function)

A function f is called one-to-one correspondence or bijective, if and only if it is both one-to-one and onto. Also called bijection.





One-to-One Correspondence: Example

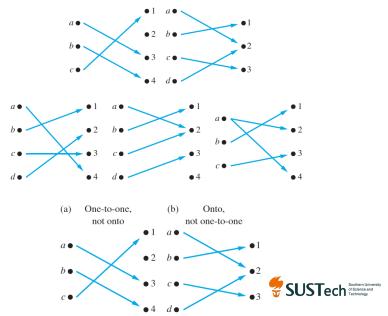
Example 1:

Let f be the function from $\{a,b,c,d\}$ to $\{1,2,3,4\}$ with f(a)=4, f(b)=2, f(c)=1, and f(d)=3. Is f a one-to-one correspondence? Yes.

Example 2: Consider an identity function on A, i.e., $\iota: A \to A$, where $\iota_A(x) = x$. Is this function a one-to-one correspondence? Yes.



Are These Functions Injective, Surjective, Bijective?



Proof for One-to-One and Onto

To show that f is injective	Show that if $f(x) = f(y)$ for all $x, y \in A$, then $x = y$
To show that f is not <i>injective</i>	, , ,
To show that f is surjective	Consider an arbitrary element $y \in B$ and find an element $x \in A$ such that $f(x) = y$
To show that f is not surjective	Find a specific element $y \in B$ such that $f(x) \neq y$ for all $x \in A$



Example

 $f: \mathbf{Z} \to \mathbf{Z}$, where f(x) = x + 1. Is f injective? Surjective? Bijective?

Proof:

- Injective (one-to-one function): If f(x) = f(x') for any arbitrary x and x', then x = x'.
- Surjective (onto function): For every integer y, these exists an integer x such that f(x) = y.
- Bijective (one-to-one correspondence): injective and surjective



One-to-One and Onto

Prove that "for a function $f: A \to B$ with |A| = |B| = n, f is one-to-one if and only if f is onto."

Proof: Since |A| = n, let $\{x_1, x_2, ..., x_n\}$ be elements of A.

- If f is one-to-one, then f is onto (direct proof): Suppose that f is one-to-one. According to the definition of one-to-one function, $f(x_i) \neq f(x_j)$ for any $i \neq j$. Thus, $|f(A)| = |\{f(x_1), ..., f(x_n)\}| = n$. Since |B| = n and $f(A) \subseteq B$, we have f(A) = B.
- If f is onto, then f is one-to-one (contradiction): Suppose that f is onto. Suppose that f is not one-to-one. Thus, $f(x_i) = f(x_j)$ for some $i \neq j$. Then, $|\{f(x_1), ..., f(x_n)\}| \leq n-1$. Note that |f(A)| = |B| = n, which leads to a contradiction.



One-to-One and Onto

Consider an infinite set A and a function from A to A. Consider the statement "For any arbitrary $f:A\to A$, f is one-to-one if and only if f is onto". Is this statement true?

Proof (Counterexample): Consider the following $f: \mathbf{Z} \to \mathbf{Z}$, where f(x) = 2x. f is one-to-one but not onto:

- f(1) = 2
- f(2) = 4
- f(3) = 6
- ...

We can prove that 3 has no preimage.



Two Functions on Real Numbers

Let f_1 and f_2 be functions from A to R. Then $f_1 + f_2$ and $f_1 f_2$ are also functions from A to R defined for all $x \in A$ by

$$(f_1 + f_2)(x) = f_1(x) + f_2(x)$$

 $(f_1f_2)(x) = f_1(x)f_2(x)$

Example:

$$f_1 = x - 1$$
 and $f_2 = x^3 + 1$

Then

$$(f_1 + f_2)(x) = x^3 + x$$

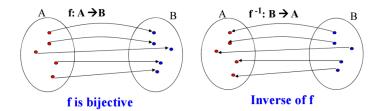
 $(f_1 f_2)(x) = x^4 - x^3 + x - 1$



Inverse Functions

Let f be a one-to-one correspondence (bijection) from the set A to the set B. The inverse function of f is the function that assigns to an element b belonging to b the unique element a in b such that f(a) = b.

The inverse function of f is denoted by f^{-1} . Hence, $f^{-1}(b) = a$ when f(a) = b.



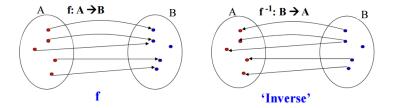
A bijection is called invertible.



Inverse Functions

If is not a one-to-one correspondence (bijection), it is impossible to define the inverse function of f. Why?

Assume f is not one-to-one (injective):



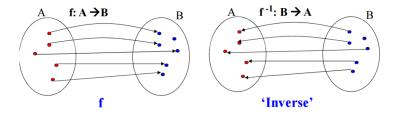
The inverse is not a function: one element of B is mapped to two different elements of A.



Inverse Functions

If is not a one-to-one correspondence (bijection), it is impossible to define the inverse function of f. Why?

Assume f is not onto (surjective):



The inverse is not a function: one element of B is not assigned an element of A.



Proof for Inverse Function

1 Prove function f is a bijection: injective, surjective

To show that f is injective	Show that if $f(x) = f(y)$ for all $x, y \in A$, then $x = y$
To show that f is not injective	Find specific elements $x, y \in A$ such that $x \neq y$ and $f(x) = f(y)$
To show that f is surjective	Consider an arbitrary element $y \in B$ and find an element $x \in A$ such that $f(x) = y$
To show that <i>f</i> is not <i>surjective</i>	Find a specific element $y \in B$ such that $f(x) \neq y$ for all $x \in A$

- 2 If f is a bijection, then it is invertible
- 3 Determine the inverse function



Inverse Functions: Example 1

 $f: \mathbf{Z} \to \mathbf{Z}$, where f(x) = x + 1. Is f invertible? If yes, then what is the inverse function f^{-1} ?

Proof: f is invertible, as it is a bijection (one-to-one correspondence):

- Injective (one-to-one function): If f(x) = f(x') for any arbitrary x and x', then x = x'.
- Surjective (onto): For every integer y, these exists an integer x = y - 1 such that f(x) = y.

To reverse the function, suppose that y is the image of x, so that y = x + 1. Then, x = y - 1. This means that y - 1 is the unique element of **Z** that is sent to y by f. Consequently, $f^{-1}(y) = y - 1$.



Inverse Functions: Example 2

Let f be the function from **R** to **R** with $f(x) = x^2$. Is f invertible?

Proof: No, f is not invertible. This is because f is not injective, as f(-2) = f(2).

What if we restrict function $f(x) = x^2$ to a function from the set of all nonnegative real numbers to the set of all nonnegative real numbers?

Proof: It is invertible, as it is a bijection:

- Injective: Consider x and x'. If f(x) = f(x') (i.e., $x^2 = (x')^2$), then we have $x^2 (x')^2 = (x + x')(x x') = 0$. Since we consider the set of all nonnegative real numbers, we must have x = x'.
- Surjective: Consider an arbitrary nonnegative real number y. There exists a nonnegative real number $x = \sqrt{y}$ such that f(x) = y.

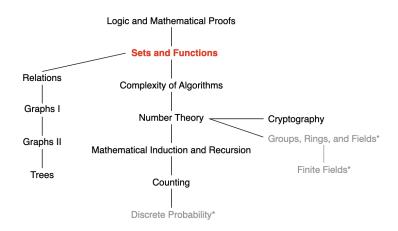
To reverse the function, suppose that y is the image of x, so that $y=x^2$. Then, $x=\sqrt{y}$. Consequently, $f^{-1}(y)=\sqrt{y}$.

Summary of Function

- Function $f: A \rightarrow B$: an assignment of exactly one element of B to each element of A
- Domain, codedomain, image, preimage, range
- One-to-one function
 - also called an injunction or injective function
- Onto function
 - also called a surjection or surjective function
- One-to-one correspondence
 - one-to-one and onto
 - also called a bijection or bijective function
- Inverse function
 - One-to-one correspondence



Next Lecture



Set and Functions: set, set operations, functions, sequences and summation, cardinality of sets

