CHAPTER

2 Basic Structures: Sets, Functions, Sequences, Sums, and Matrices

Much of discrete mathematics is devoted to the study of discrete structures, used to represent discrete objects. Many important discrete structures are built using sets, which are collections of objects. Among the discrete structures built from sets are combinations, unordered collections of objects used extensively in counting; relations, sets of ordered pairs that represent relationships between objects; graphs, sets of vertices and edges that connect vertices; and finite state machines, used to model computing machines. These are some of the topics we will study in later chapters.

The concept of a function is extremely important in discrete mathematics. A function assigns to each element of a first set exactly one element of a second set, where the two sets are not necessarily distinct. Functions play important roles throughout discrete mathematics. They are used to represent the computational complexity of algorithms, to study the size of sets, to count objects, and in a myriad of other ways. Useful structures such as sequences and strings are special types of functions. In this chapter, we will introduce the notion of a sequence, which represents ordered lists of elements. Furthermore, we will introduce some important types of sequences and we will show how to define the terms of a sequence using earlier terms. We will also address the problem of identifying a sequence from its first few terms.

In our study of discrete mathematics, we will often add consecutive terms of a sequence of numbers. Because adding terms from a sequence, as well as other indexed sets of numbers, is such a common occurrence, a special notation has been developed for adding such terms. In this chapter, we will introduce the notation used to express summations. We will develop formulae for certain types of summations that appear throughout the study of discrete mathematics. For instance, we will encounter such summations in the analysis of the number of steps used by an algorithm to sort a list of numbers so that its terms are in increasing order.

The relative sizes of infinite sets can be studied by introducing the notion of the size, or cardinality, of a set. We say that a set is countable when it is finite or has the same size as the set of positive integers. In this chapter we will establish the surprising result that the set of rational numbers is countable, while the set of real numbers is not. We will also show how the concepts we discuss can be used to show that there are functions that cannot be computed using a computer program in any programming language.

Matrices are used in discrete mathematics to represent a variety of discrete structures. We will review the basic material about matrices and matrix arithmetic needed to represent relations and graphs. The matrix arithmetic we study will be used to solve a variety of problems involving these structures.

2.1 Sets

Introduction

In this section, we study the fundamental discrete structure on which all other discrete structures are built, namely, the set. Sets are used to group objects together. Often, but not always, the objects in a set have similar properties. For instance, all the students who are currently enrolled in your school make up a set. Likewise, all the students currently taking a course in discrete mathematics at any school make up a set. In addition, those students enrolled in your school who are taking a course in discrete mathematics form a set that can be obtained by taking the elements common to the first two collections. The language of sets is a means to study such collections in an organized fashion. We now provide a definition of a set. This definition is an intuitive definition, which is not part of a formal theory of sets.

DEFINITION 1 A *set* is an unordered collection of objects, called *elements* or *members* of the set. A set is said to *contain* its elements. We write $a \in A$ to denote that a is an element of the set A. The notation $a \notin A$ denotes that a is not an element of the set A.

It is common for sets to be denoted using uppercase letters. Lowercase letters are usually used to denote elements of sets.

There are several ways to describe a set. One way is to list all the members of a set, when this is possible. We use a notation where all members of the set are listed between braces. For example, the notation $\{a, b, c, d\}$ represents the set with the four elements a, b, c, and d. This way of describing a set is known as the **roster method**.

EXAMPLE 1 The set V of all vowels in the English alphabet can be written as $V = \{a, e, i, o, u\}$. ◀

EXAMPLE 2 The set O of odd positive integers less than 10 can be expressed by $O = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$. ◀

EXAMPLE 3 Although sets are usually used to group together elements with common properties, there is nothing that prevents a set from having seemingly unrelated elements. For instance, $\{a$, 2, Fred, New Jersey$\}$ is the set containing the four elements a, 2, Fred, and New Jersey. ◀

Sometimes the roster method is used to describe a set without listing all its members. Some members of the set are listed, and then *ellipses* (. . .) are used when the general pattern of the elements is obvious.

EXAMPLE 4 The set of positive integers less than 100 can be denoted by $\{1, 2, 3, \ldots, 99\}$. ◀

Extra Examples

Another way to describe a set is to use **set builder** notation. We characterize all those elements in the set by stating the property or properties they must have to be members. For instance, the set O of all odd positive integers less than 10 can be written as

$$O = \{x \mid x \text{ is an odd positive integer less than } 10\},$$

or, specifying the universe as the set of positive integers, as

$$O = \{x \in \mathbf{Z}^+ \mid x \text{ is odd and } x < 10\}.$$

We often use this type of notation to describe sets when it is impossible to list all the elements of the set. For instance, the set $\mathbf{Q}^+$ of all positive rational numbers can be written as

$$\mathbf{Q}^+ = \{x \in \mathbf{R} \mid x = \tfrac{p}{q}, \text{ for some positive integers } p \text{ and } q\}.$$

Beware that mathematicians disagree whether 0 is a natural number. We consider it quite natural.

These sets, each denoted using a boldface letter, play an important role in discrete mathematics:

$\mathbf{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \ldots\}$, the set of **natural numbers**
$\mathbf{Z} = \{\ldots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$, the set of **integers**
$\mathbf{Z}^+ = \{1, 2, 3, \ldots\}$, the set of **positive integers**
$\mathbf{Q} = \{p/q \mid p \in \mathbf{Z}, q \in \mathbf{Z}, \text{ and } q \neq 0\}$, the set of **rational numbers**
$\mathbf{R}$, the set of **real numbers**
$\mathbf{R}^+$, the set of **positive real numbers**
$\mathbf{C}$, the set of **complex numbers**.

(Note that some people do not consider 0 a natural number, so be careful to check how the term *natural numbers* is used when you read other books.)

Recall the notation for **intervals** of real numbers. When a and b are real numbers with $a < b$, we write

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

Note that $[a, b]$ is called the **closed interval** from a to b and (a, b) is called the **open interval** from a to b.

Sets can have other sets as members, as Example 5 illustrates.

EXAMPLE 5 The set $\{\mathbf{N}, \mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{R}\}$ is a set containing four elements, each of which is a set. The four elements of this set are **N**, the set of natural numbers; **Z**, the set of integers; **Q**, the set of rational numbers; and **R**, the set of real numbers. ◀

Remark: Note that the concept of a datatype, or type, in computer science is built upon the concept of a set. In particular, a **datatype** or **type** is the name of a set, together with a set of operations that can be performed on objects from that set. For example, *boolean* is the name of the set $\{0, 1\}$ together with operators on one or more elements of this set, such as AND, OR, and NOT.

Because many mathematical statements assert that two differently specified collections of objects are really the same set, we need to understand what it means for two sets to be equal.

DEFINITION 2 Two sets are *equal* if and only if they have the same elements. Therefore, if A and B are sets, then A and B are equal if and only if $\forall x(x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$. We write $A = B$ if A and B are equal sets.

EXAMPLE 6 The sets $\{1, 3, 5\}$ and $\{3, 5, 1\}$ are equal, because they have the same elements. Note that the order in which the elements of a set are listed does not matter. Note also that it does not matter if an element of a set is listed more than once, so $\{1, 3, 3, 3, 5, 5, 5, 5\}$ is the same as the set $\{1, 3, 5\}$ because they have the same elements. ◀

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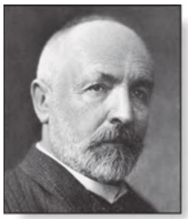

GEORG CANTOR (1845–1918) Georg Cantor was born in St. Petersburg, Russia, where his father was a successful merchant. Cantor developed his interest in mathematics in his teens. He began his university studies in Zurich in 1862, but when his father died he left Zurich. He continued his university studies at the University of Berlin in 1863, where he studied under the eminent mathematicians Weierstrass, Kummer, and Kronecker. He received his doctor's degree in 1867, after having written a dissertation on number theory. Cantor assumed a position at the University of Halle in 1869, where he continued working until his death.

Cantor is considered the founder of set theory. His contributions in this area include the discovery that the set of real numbers is uncountable. He is also noted for his many important contributions to analysis. Cantor also was interested in philosophy and wrote papers relating his theory of sets with metaphysics.

Cantor married in 1874 and had five children. His melancholy temperament was balanced by his wife's happy disposition. Although he received a large inheritance from his father, he was poorly paid as a professor. To mitigate this, he tried to obtain a better-paying position at the University of Berlin. His appointment there was blocked by Kronecker, who did not agree with Cantor's views on set theory. Cantor suffered from mental illness throughout the later years of his life. He died in 1918 from a heart attack.

THE EMPTY SET There is a special set that has no elements. This set is called the **empty set**, or **null set**, and is denoted by ∅. The empty set can also be denoted by { } (that is, we represent the empty set with a pair of braces that encloses all the elements in this set). Often, a set of elements with certain properties turns out to be the null set. For instance, the set of all positive integers that are greater than their squares is the null set.

{∅} has one more element than ∅.

A set with one element is called a **singleton set**. A common error is to confuse the empty set ∅ with the set {∅}, which is a singleton set. The single element of the set {∅} is the empty set itself! A useful analogy for remembering this difference is to think of folders in a computer file system. The empty set can be thought of as an empty folder and the set consisting of just the empty set can be thought of as a folder with exactly one folder inside, namely, the empty folder.

Links

NAIVE SET THEORY Note that the term *object* has been used in the definition of a set, Definition 1, without specifying what an object is. This description of a set as a collection of objects, based on the intuitive notion of an object, was first stated in 1895 by the German mathematician Georg Cantor. The theory that results from this intuitive definition of a set, and the use of the intuitive notion that for any property whatever, there is a set consisting of exactly the objects with this property, leads to **paradoxes**, or logical inconsistencies. This was shown by the English philosopher Bertrand Russell in 1902 (see Exercise 46 for a description of one of these paradoxes). These logical inconsistencies can be avoided by building set theory beginning with axioms. However, we will use Cantor's original version of set theory, known as **naive set theory**, in this book because all sets considered in this book can be treated consistently using Cantor's original theory. Students will find familiarity with naive set theory helpful if they go on to learn about axiomatic set theory. They will also find the development of axiomatic set theory much more abstract than the material in this text. We refer the interested reader to [Su72] to learn more about axiomatic set theory.

Venn Diagrams

Sets can be represented graphically using Venn diagrams, named after the English mathematician John Venn, who introduced their use in 1881. In Venn diagrams the **universal set** U, which contains all the objects under consideration, is represented by a rectangle. (Note that the universal set varies depending on which objects are of interest.) Inside this rectangle, circles or other geometrical figures are used to represent sets. Sometimes points are used to represent the particular elements of the set. Venn diagrams are often used to indicate the relationships between sets. We show how a Venn diagram can be used in Example 7.

Assessment

EXAMPLE 7 Draw a Venn diagram that represents V, the set of vowels in the English alphabet.

Solution: We draw a rectangle to indicate the universal set U, which is the set of the 26 letters of the English alphabet. Inside this rectangle we draw a circle to represent V. Inside this circle we indicate the elements of V with points (see Figure 1). ◀

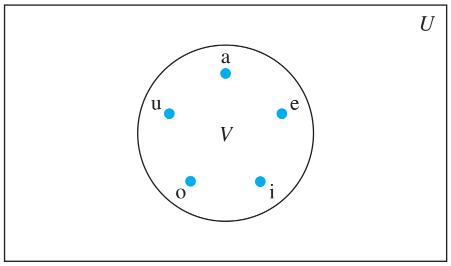

FIGURE 1 **Venn Diagram for the Set of Vowels.**

Subsets

It is common to encounter situations where the elements of one set are also the elements of a second set. We now introduce some terminology and notation to express such relationships between sets.

DEFINITION 3 The set A is a *subset* of B if and only if every element of A is also an element of B. We use the notation $A \subseteq B$ to indicate that A is a subset of the set B.

We see that $A \subseteq B$ if and only if the quantification

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

is true. Note that to show that A is not a subset of B we need only find one element $x \in A$ with $x \notin B$. Such an x is a counterexample to the claim that $x \in A$ implies $x \in B$.

We have these useful rules for determining whether one set is a subset of another:

Showing that A is a Subset of B To show that $A \subseteq B$, show that if x belongs to A then x also belongs to B.

Showing that A is Not a Subset of B To show that $A \nsubseteq B$, find a single $x \in A$ such that $x \notin B$.

EXAMPLE 8 The set of all odd positive integers less than 10 is a subset of the set of all positive integers less than 10, the set of rational numbers is a subset of the set of real numbers, the set of all computer science majors at your school is a subset of the set of all students at your school, and the set of all people in China is a subset of the set of all people in China (that is, it is a subset of itself). Each of these facts follows immediately by noting that an element that belongs to the first set in each pair of sets also belongs to the second set in that pair. ◀

EXAMPLE 9 The set of integers with squares less than 100 is not a subset of the set of nonnegative integers because -1 is in the former set [as $(-1)^2 < 100$], but not the later set. The set of people who have taken discrete mathematics at your school is not a subset of the set of all computer science majors at your school if there is at least one student who has taken discrete mathematics who is not a computer science major. ◀

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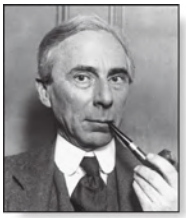

BERTRAND RUSSELL (1872–1970) Bertrand Russell was born into a prominent English family active in the progressive movement and having a strong commitment to liberty. He became an orphan at an early age and was placed in the care of his father's parents, who had him educated at home. He entered Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1890, where he excelled in mathematics and in moral science. He won a fellowship on the basis of his work on the foundations of geometry. In 1910 Trinity College appointed him to a lectureship in logic and the philosophy of mathematics.

Russell fought for progressive causes throughout his life. He held strong pacifist views, and his protests against World War I led to dismissal from his position at Trinity College. He was imprisoned for 6 months in 1918 because of an article he wrote that was branded as seditious. Russell fought for women's suffrage in Great Britain. In 1961, at the age of 89, he was imprisoned for the second time for his protests advocating nuclear disarmament.

Russell's greatest work was in his development of principles that could be used as a foundation for all of mathematics. His most famous work is *Principia Mathematica*, written with Alfred North Whitehead, which attempts to deduce all of mathematics using a set of primitive axioms. He wrote many books on philosophy, physics, and his political ideas. Russell won the Nobel Prize for literature in 1950.

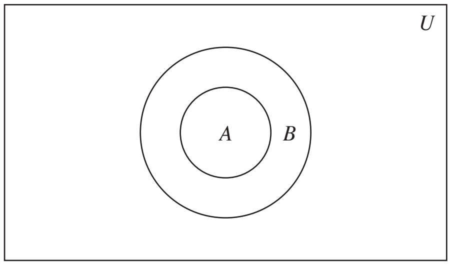

FIGURE 2 **Venn Diagram Showing that A Is a Subset of B.**

Theorem 1 shows that every nonempty set S is guaranteed to have at least two subsets, the empty set and the set S itself, that is, $\emptyset \subseteq S$ and $S \subseteq S$.

THEOREM 1 For every set S, $(i)\ \emptyset \subseteq S$ and $(ii)\ S \subseteq S$.

Proof: We will prove (i) and leave the proof of (ii) as an exercise.

Let S be a set. To show that $\emptyset \subseteq S$, we must show that $\forall x(x \in \emptyset \rightarrow x \in S)$ is true. Because the empty set contains no elements, it follows that $x \in \emptyset$ is always false. It follows that the conditional statement $x \in \emptyset \rightarrow x \in S$ is always true, because its hypothesis is always false and a conditional statement with a false hypothesis is true. Therefore, $\forall x(x \in \emptyset \rightarrow x \in S)$ is true. This completes the proof of (i). Note that this is an example of a vacuous proof. ◁

When we wish to emphasize that a set A is a subset of a set B but that $A \neq B$, we write $A \subset B$ and say that A is a **proper subset** of B. For $A \subset B$ to be true, it must be the case that $A \subseteq B$ and there must exist an element x of B that is not an element of A. That is, A is a proper subset of B if and only if

$$\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B) \wedge \exists x(x \in B \wedge x \notin A)$$

is true. Venn diagrams can be used to illustrate that a set A is a subset of a set B. We draw the universal set U as a rectangle. Within this rectangle we draw a circle for B. Because A is a subset of B, we draw the circle for A within the circle for B. This relationship is shown in Figure 2.

A useful way to show that two sets have the same elements is to show that each set is a subset of the other. In other words, we can show that if A and B are sets with $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$, then $A = B$. That is, $A = B$ if and only if $\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$ and $\forall x(x \in B \rightarrow x \in A)$ or equivalently if and only if $\forall x(x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$, which is what it means for the A and B to be equal. Because this method of showing two sets are equal is so useful, we highlight it here.

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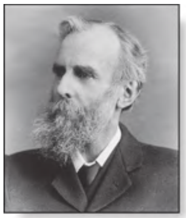


JOHN VENN (1834–1923) John Venn was born into a London suburban family noted for its philanthropy. He attended London schools and got his mathematics degree from Caius College, Cambridge, in 1857. He was elected a fellow of this college and held his fellowship there until his death. He took holy orders in 1859 and, after a brief stint of religious work, returned to Cambridge, where he developed programs in the moral sciences. Besides his mathematical work, Venn had an interest in history and wrote extensively about his college and family.

Venn's book *Symbolic Logic* clarifies ideas originally presented by Boole. In this book, Venn presents a systematic development of a method that uses geometric figures, known now as *Venn diagrams*. Today these diagrams are primarily used to analyze logical arguments and to illustrate relationships between sets. In addition to his work on symbolic logic, Venn made contributions to probability theory described in his widely used textbook on that subject.

Showing Two Sets are Equal To show that two sets A and B are equal, show that $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$.

Sets may have other sets as members. For instance, we have the sets

$$A = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\} \quad \text{and} \quad B = \{x \mid x \text{ is a subset of the set } \{a, b\}\}.$$

Note that these two sets are equal, that is, $A = B$. Also note that $\{a\} \in A$, but $a \notin A$.

The Size of a Set

Sets are used extensively in counting problems, and for such applications we need to discuss the sizes of sets.

DEFINITION 4 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 that n is the *cardinality* of S. The cardinality of S is denoted by $|S|$.

Remark: The term *cardinality* comes from the common usage of the term *cardinal number* as the size of a finite set.

EXAMPLE 10 Let A be the set of odd positive integers less than 10. Then $|A| = 5$. ◀

EXAMPLE 11 Let S be the set of letters in the English alphabet. Then $|S| = 26$. ◀

EXAMPLE 12 Because the null set has no elements, it follows that $|\emptyset| = 0$. ◀

We will also be interested in sets that are not finite.

DEFINITION 5 A set is said to be *infinite* if it is not finite.

EXAMPLE 13 The set of positive integers is infinite. ◀

Extra Examples

We will extend the notion of cardinality to infinite sets in Section 2.5, a challenging topic full of surprising results.

Power Sets

Many problems involve testing all combinations of elements of a set to see if they satisfy some property. To consider all such combinations of elements of a set S, we build a new set that has as its members all the subsets of S.

DEFINITION 6 Given a set S, the *power set* of S is the set of all subsets of the set S. The power set of S is denoted by $\mathcal{P}(S)$.

EXAMPLE 14 What is the power set of the set $\{0, 1, 2\}$?

Extra Examples

Solution: The power set $\mathcal{P}(\{0, 1, 2\})$ is the set of all subsets of $\{0, 1, 2\}$. Hence,

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

Note that the empty set and the set itself are members of this set of subsets. ◀

EXAMPLE 15 What is the power set of the empty set? What is the power set of the set $\{\emptyset\}$?

Solution: The empty set has exactly one subset, namely, itself. Consequently,

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

The set $\{\emptyset\}$ has exactly two subsets, namely, $\emptyset$ and the set $\{\emptyset\}$ itself. Therefore,

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

If a set has n elements, then its power set has 2^n elements. We will demonstrate this fact in several ways in subsequent sections of the text.

Cartesian Products

The order of elements in a collection is often important. Because sets are unordered, a different structure is needed to represent ordered collections. This is provided by **ordered n-tuples**.

DEFINITION 7 The *ordered n-tuple* $(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n)$ is the ordered collection that has a_1 as its first element, a_2 as its second element, ..., and a_n as its nth element.

We say that two ordered n-tuples are equal if and only if each corresponding pair of their elements is equal. In other words, $(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) = (b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n)$ if and only if $a_i = b_i$, for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. In particular, ordered 2-tuples are called **ordered pairs**. The ordered pairs (a, b) and (c, d) are equal if and only if $a = c$ and $b = d$. Note that (a, b) and (b, a) are not equal unless $a = b$.

Links

RENÉ DESCARTES (1596–1650) René Descartes was born into a noble family near Tours, France, about 200 miles southwest of Paris. He was the third child of his father's first wife; she died several days after his birth. Because of René's poor health, his father, a provincial judge, let his son's formal lessons slide until, at the age of 8, René entered the Jesuit college at La Flèche. The rector of the school took a liking to him and permitted him to stay in bed until late in the morning because of his frail health. From then on, Descartes spent his mornings in bed; he considered these times his most productive hours for thinking.

Descartes left school in 1612, moving to Paris, where he spent 2 years studying mathematics. He earned a law degree in 1616 from the University of Poitiers. At 18 Descartes became disgusted with studying and decided to see the world. He moved to Paris and became a successful gambler. However, he grew tired of bawdy living and moved to the suburb of Saint-Germain, where he devoted himself to mathematical study. When his gambling friends found him, he decided to leave France and undertake a military career. However, he never did any fighting. One day, while escaping the cold in an overheated room at a military encampment, he had several feverish dreams, which revealed his future career as a mathematician and philosopher.

After ending his military career, he traveled throughout Europe. He then spent several years in Paris, where he studied mathematics and philosophy and constructed optical instruments. Descartes decided to move to Holland, where he spent 20 years wandering around the country, accomplishing his most important work. During this time he wrote several books, including the *Discours*, which contains his contributions to analytic geometry, for which he is best known. He also made fundamental contributions to philosophy.

In 1649 Descartes was invited by Queen Christina to visit her court in Sweden to tutor her in philosophy. Although he was reluctant to live in what he called "the land of bears amongst rocks and ice," he finally accepted the invitation and moved to Sweden. Unfortunately, the winter of 1649–1650 was extremely bitter. Descartes caught pneumonia and died in mid-February.

Many of the discrete structures we will study in later chapters are based on the notion of the *Cartesian product* of sets (named after René Descartes). We first define the Cartesian product of two sets.

DEFINITION 8 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 $b \in B$. Hence,

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

EXAMPLE 16 Let A represent the set of all students at a university, and let B represent the set of all courses offered at the university. What is the Cartesian product $A \times B$ and how can it be used?

Extra Examples

Solution: The Cartesian product $A \times B$ consists of all the ordered pairs of the form (a, b), where a is a student at the university and b is a course offered at the university. One way to use the set $A \times B$ is to represent all possible enrollments of students in courses at the university. ◂

EXAMPLE 17 What is the Cartesian product of $A = \{1, 2\}$ and $B = \{a, b, c\}$?

Solution: The Cartesian product $A \times B$ is

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

Note that the Cartesian products $A \times B$ and $B \times A$ are not equal, unless $A = \emptyset$ or $B = \emptyset$ (so that $A \times B = \emptyset$) or $A = B$ (see Exercises 31 and 38). This is illustrated in Example 18.

EXAMPLE 18 Show that the Cartesian product $B \times A$ is not equal to the Cartesian product $A \times B$, where A and B are as in Example 17.

Solution: The Cartesian product $B \times A$ is

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

This is not equal to $A \times B$, which was found in Example 17. ◂

The Cartesian product of more than two sets can also be defined.

DEFINITION 9 The *Cartesian product* of the sets $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$, denoted by $A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n$, is the set of ordered n-tuples $(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n)$, where a_i belongs to A_i for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. In other words,

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

EXAMPLE 19 What is the Cartesian product $A \times B \times C$, where $A = \{0, 1\}$, $B = \{1, 2\}$, and $C = \{0, 1, 2\}$?

Solution: The Cartesian product $A \times B \times C$ consists of all ordered triples (a, b, c), where $a \in A$, $b \in B$, and $c \in C$. Hence,

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

Remark: Note that when A, B, and C are sets, $(A \times B) \times C$ is not the same as $A \times B \times C$ (see Exercise 39).

We use the notation A^2 to denote $A \times A$, the Cartesian product of the set A with itself. Similarly, $A^3 = A \times A \times A$, $A^4 = A \times A \times A \times A$, and so on. More generally,

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

EXAMPLE 20 Suppose that $A = \{1, 2\}$. It follows that $A^2 = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (2, 1), (2, 2)\}$ and $A^3 = \{(1, 1, 1), (1, 1, 2), (1, 2, 1), (1, 2, 2), (2, 1, 1), (2, 1, 2), (2, 2, 1), (2, 2, 2)\}$. ◀

A subset R of the Cartesian product $A \times B$ is called a **relation** from the set A to the set B. The elements of R are ordered pairs, where the first element belongs to A and the second to B. For example, $R = \{(a, 0), (a, 1), (a, 3), (b, 1), (b, 2), (c, 0), (c, 3)\}$ is a relation from the set $\{a, b, c\}$ to the set $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$. A relation from a set A to itself is called a relation on A.

EXAMPLE 21 What are the ordered pairs in the less than or equal to relation, which contains (a, b) if $a \le b$, on the set $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$?

Solution: 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, the ordered pairs in R are (0,0), (0,1), (0,2), (0,3), (1,1), (1,2), (1,3), (2,2), (2, 3), and (3, 3). ◀

We will study relations and their properties at length in Chapter 9.

Using Set Notation with Quantifiers

Sometimes we restrict the domain of a quantified statement explicitly by making use of a particular notation. For example, $\forall x \in S(P(x))$ denotes the universal quantification of $P(x)$ over all elements in the set S. In other words, $\forall x \in S(P(x))$ is shorthand for $\forall x(x \in S \to P(x))$. Similarly, $\exists x \in S(P(x))$ denotes the existential quantification of $P(x)$ over all elements in S. That is, $\exists x \in S(P(x))$ is shorthand for $\exists x(x \in S \wedge P(x))$.

EXAMPLE 22 What do the statements $\forall x \in \mathbf{R}\ (x^2 \ge 0)$ and $\exists x \in \mathbf{Z}\ (x^2 = 1)$ mean?

Solution: The statement $\forall x \in \mathbf{R}(x^2 \ge 0)$ states that for every real number x, $x^2 \ge 0$. This statement can be expressed as "The square of every real number is nonnegative." This is a true statement.

The statement $\exists x \in \mathbf{Z}(x^2 = 1)$ states that there exists an integer x such that $x^2 = 1$. This statement can be expressed as "There is an integer whose square is 1." This is also a true statement because $x = 1$ is such an integer (as is -1). ◀

Truth Sets and Quantifiers

We will now tie together concepts from set theory and from predicate logic. Given a predicate P, and a domain D, we define the **truth set** of P to be the set of elements x in D for which $P(x)$ is true. The truth set of $P(x)$ is denoted by $\{x \in D \mid P(x)\}$.

EXAMPLE 23 What are the truth sets of the predicates $P(x)$, $Q(x)$, and $R(x)$, where the domain is the set of integers and $P(x)$ is "$|x| = 1$," $Q(x)$ is "$x^2 = 2$," and $R(x)$ is "$|x| = x$."

Solution: The truth set of P, $\{x \in \mathbf{Z} \mid |x| = 1\}$, is the set of integers for which $|x| = 1$. Because $|x| = 1$ when $x = 1$ or $x = -1$, and for no other integers x, we see that the truth set of P is the set $\{-1, 1\}$.

The truth set of Q, $\{x \in \mathbf{Z} \mid x^2 = 2\}$, is the set of integers for which $x^2 = 2$. This is the empty set because there are no integers x for which $x^2 = 2$.

The truth set of R, $\{x \in \mathbf{Z} \mid |x| = x\}$, is the set of integers for which $|x| = x$. Because $|x| = x$ if and only if $x \geq 0$, it follows that the truth set of R is $\mathbf{N}$, the set of nonnegative integers. ◀

Note that $\forall x P(x)$ is true over the domain U if and only if the truth set of P is the set U. Likewise, $\exists x P(x)$ is true over the domain U if and only if the truth set of P is nonempty.

Exercises

1. List the members of these sets.
   a) $\{x \mid x \text{ is a real number such that } x^2 = 1\}$
   b) $\{x \mid x \text{ is a positive integer less than } 12\}$
   c) $\{x \mid x \text{ is the square of an integer and } x < 100\}$
   d) $\{x \mid x \text{ is an integer such that } x^2 = 2\}$

2. Use set builder notation to give a description of each of these sets.
   a) $\{0, 3, 6, 9, 12\}$
   b) $\{-3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3\}$
   c) $\{m, n, o, p\}$

3. For each of these pairs of sets, determine whether the first is a subset of the second, the second is a subset of the first, or neither is a subset of the other.
   a) the set of airline flights from New York to New Delhi, the set of nonstop airline flights from New York to New Delhi
   b) the set of people who speak English, the set of people who speak Chinese
   c) the set of flying squirrels, the set of living creatures that can fly

4. For each of these pairs of sets, determine whether the first is a subset of the second, the second is a subset of the first, or neither is a subset of the other.
   a) the set of people who speak English, the set of people who speak English with an Australian accent
   b) the set of fruits, the set of citrus fruits
   c) the set of students studying discrete mathematics, the set of students studying data structures

5. Determine whether each of these pairs of sets are equal.
   a) $\{1, 3, 3, 3, 5, 5, 5, 5, 5\}, \{5, 3, 1\}$
   b) $\{\{1\}\}, \{1, \{1\}\}$ **c)** $\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}$

6. Suppose that $A = \{2, 4, 6\}$, $B = \{2, 6\}$, $C = \{4, 6\}$, and $D = \{4, 6, 8\}$. Determine which of these sets are subsets of which other of these sets.

7. For each of the following sets, determine whether 2 is an element of that set.
   a) $\{x \in \mathbf{R} \mid x \text{ is an integer greater than } 1\}$
   b) $\{x \in \mathbf{R} \mid x \text{ is the square of an integer}\}$
   c) $\{2, \{2\}\}$ **d)** $\{\{2\}, \{\{2\}\}\}$
   e) $\{\{2\}, \{2, \{2\}\}\}$ **f)** $\{\{\{2\}\}\}$

8. For each of the sets in Exercise 7, determine whether $\{2\}$ is an element of that set.

9. Determine whether each of these statements is true or false.
   a) $0 \in \emptyset$ **b)** $\emptyset \in \{0\}$
   c) $\{0\} \subset \emptyset$ **d)** $\emptyset \subset \{0\}$
   e) $\{0\} \in \{0\}$ **f)** $\{0\} \subset \{0\}$
   g) $\{\emptyset\} \subseteq \{\emptyset\}$

10. Determine whether these statements are true or false.
   a) $\emptyset \in \{\emptyset\}$ **b)** $\emptyset \in \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$
   c) $\{\emptyset\} \in \{\emptyset\}$ **d)** $\{\emptyset\} \in \{\{\emptyset\}\}$
   e) $\{\emptyset\} \subset \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$ **f)** $\{\{\emptyset\}\} \subset \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$
   g) $\{\{\emptyset\}\} \subset \{\{\emptyset\}, \{\emptyset\}\}$

11. Determine whether each of these statements is true or false.
   a) $x \in \{x\}$ **b)** $\{x\} \subseteq \{x\}$ **c)** $\{x\} \in \{x\}$
   d) $\{x\} \in \{\{x\}\}$ **e)** $\emptyset \subseteq \{x\}$ **f)** $\emptyset \in \{x\}$

12. Use a Venn diagram to illustrate the subset of odd integers in the set of all positive integers not exceeding 10.

13. Use a Venn diagram to illustrate the set of all months of the year whose names do not contain the letter R in the set of all months of the year.

14. Use a Venn diagram to illustrate the relationship $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq C$.

15. Use a Venn diagram to illustrate the relationships $A \subset B$ and $B \subset C$.

16. Use a Venn diagram to illustrate the relationships $A \subset B$ and $A \subset C$.

17. Suppose that A, B, and C are sets such that $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq C$. Show that $A \subseteq C$.

18. Find two sets A and B such that $A \in B$ and $A \subseteq B$.

19. What is the cardinality of each of these sets?

a) $\{a\}$ **b)** $\{\{a\}\}$
c) $\{a, \{a\}\}$ **d)** $\{a, \{a\}, \{a, \{a\}\}\}$

20. What is the cardinality of each of these sets?

a) $\emptyset$ **b)** $\{\emptyset\}$
c) $\{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$ **d)** $\{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}, \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}\}$

21. Find the power set of each of these sets, where a and b are distinct elements.

a) $\{a\}$ **b)** $\{a, b\}$ **c)** $\{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$

22. Can you conclude that $A = B$ if A and B are two sets with the same power set?

23. How many elements does each of these sets have where a and b are distinct elements?

a) $\mathcal{P}(\{a, b, \{a, b\}\})$
b) $\mathcal{P}(\{\emptyset, a, \{a\}, \{\{a\}\}\})$
c) $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(\emptyset))$

24. Determine whether each of these sets is the power set of a set, where a and b are distinct elements.

a) $\emptyset$ **b)** $\{\emptyset, \{a\}\}$
c) $\{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{\emptyset, a\}\}$ **d)** $\{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\}$

25. Prove that $\mathcal{P}(A) \subseteq \mathcal{P}(B)$ if and only if $A \subseteq B$.

26. Show that if $A \subseteq C$ and $B \subseteq D$, then $A \times B \subseteq C \times D$

27. Let $A = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and $B = \{y, z\}$. Find

a) $A \times B$. **b)** $B \times A$.

28. What is the Cartesian product $A \times B$, where A is the set of courses offered by the mathematics department at a university and B is the set of mathematics professors at this university? Give an example of how this Cartesian product can be used.

29. What is the Cartesian product $A \times B \times C$, where A is the set of all airlines and B and C are both the set of all cities in the United States? Give an example of how this Cartesian product can be used.

30. Suppose that $A \times B = \emptyset$, where A and B are sets. What can you conclude?

31. Let A be a set. Show that $\emptyset \times A = A \times \emptyset = \emptyset$.

32. Let $A = \{a, b, c\}$, $B = \{x, y\}$, and $C = \{0, 1\}$. Find

a) $A \times B \times C$. **b)** $C \times B \times A$.
c) $C \times A \times B$. **d)** $B \times B \times B$.

33. Find A^2 if

a) $A = \{0, 1, 3\}$. **b)** $A = \{1, 2, a, b\}$.

34. Find A^3 if

a) $A = \{a\}$. **b)** $A = \{0, a\}$.

35. How many different elements does $A \times B$ have if A has m elements and B has n elements?

36. How many different elements does $A \times B \times C$ have if A has m elements, B has n elements, and C has p elements?

37. How many different elements does A^n have when A has m elements and n is a positive integer?

38. Show that $A \times B \neq B \times A$, when A and B are nonempty, unless $A = B$.

39. Explain why $A \times B \times C$ and $(A \times B) \times C$ are not the same.

40. Explain why $(A \times B) \times (C \times D)$ and $A \times (B \times C) \times D$ are not the same.

41. Translate each of these quantifications into English and determine its truth value.

a) $\forall x \in \mathbf{R}\ (x^2 \neq -1)$ **b)** $\exists x \in \mathbf{Z}\ (x^2 = 2)$
c) $\forall x \in \mathbf{Z}\ (x^2 > 0)$ **d)** $\exists x \in \mathbf{R}\ (x^2 = x)$

42. Translate each of these quantifications into English and determine its truth value.

a) $\exists x \in \mathbf{R}\ (x^3 = -1)$ **b)** $\exists x \in \mathbf{Z}\ (x + 1 > x)$
c) $\forall x \in \mathbf{Z}\ (x - 1 \in \mathbf{Z})$ **d)** $\forall x \in \mathbf{Z}\ (x^2 \in \mathbf{Z})$

43. Find the truth set of each of these predicates where the domain is the set of integers.

a) $P(x)$: $x^2 < 3$ **b)** $Q(x)$: $x^2 > x$
c) $R(x)$: $2x + 1 = 0$

44. Find the truth set of each of these predicates where the domain is the set of integers.

a) $P(x)$: $x^3 \geq 1$ **b)** $Q(x)$: $x^2 = 2$
c) $R(x)$: $x < x^2$

***45.** The defining property of an ordered pair is that two ordered pairs are equal if and only if their first elements are equal and their second elements are equal. Surprisingly, instead of taking the ordered pair as a primitive concept, we can construct ordered pairs using basic notions from set theory. Show that if we define the ordered pair (a, b) to be $\{\{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$, then $(a, b) = (c, d)$ if and only if $a = c$ and $b = d$. [*Hint:* First show that $\{\{a\}, \{a, b\}\} = \{\{c\}, \{c, d\}\}$ if and only if $a = c$ and $b = d$.]

***46.** This exercise presents **Russell's paradox**. Let S be the set that contains a set x if the set x does not belong to itself, so that $S = \{x \mid x \notin x\}$.

a) Show the assumption that S is a member of S leads to a contradiction.

b) Show the assumption that S is not a member of S leads to a contradiction.

By parts (a) and (b) it follows that the set S cannot be defined as it was. This paradox can be avoided by restricting the types of elements that sets can have.

***47.** Describe a procedure for listing all the subsets of a finite set.

2.2 Set Operations

Introduction

Two, or more, sets can be combined in many different ways. For instance, starting with the set of mathematics majors at your school and the set of computer science majors at your school, we can form the set of students who are mathematics majors or computer science majors, the set of students who are joint majors in mathematics and computer science, the set of all students not majoring in mathematics, and so on.

Links

DEFINITION 1 Let A and B be sets. The *union* of the sets A and B, denoted by $A \cup B$, is the set that contains those elements that are either in A or in B, or in both.

An element x belongs to the union of the sets A and B if and only if x belongs to A or x belongs to B. This tells us that

$$A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \lor x \in B\}.$$

The Venn diagram shown in Figure 1 represents the union of two sets A and B. The area that represents $A \cup B$ is the shaded area within either the circle representing A or the circle representing B.

We will give some examples of the union of sets.

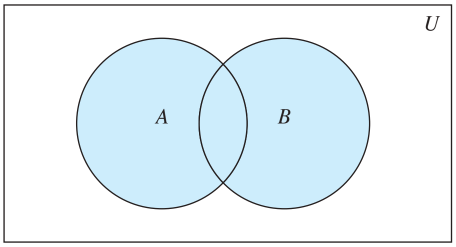
EXAMPLE 1 The union of the sets $\{1, 3, 5\}$ and $\{1, 2, 3\}$ is the set $\{1, 2, 3, 5\}$; that is, $\{1, 3, 5\} \cup \{1, 2, 3\} = \{1, 2, 3, 5\}$. ◀

EXAMPLE 2 The union of the set of all computer science majors at your school and the set of all mathematics majors at your school is the set of students at your school who are majoring either in mathematics or in computer science (or in both). ◀

DEFINITION 2 Let A and B be sets. The *intersection* of the sets A and B, denoted by $A \cap B$, is the set containing those elements in both A and B.

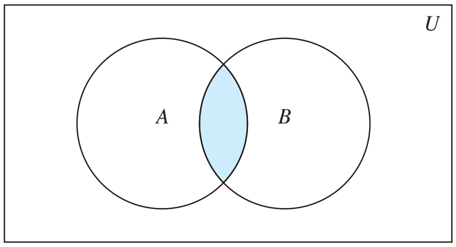
An element x belongs to the intersection of the sets A and B if and only if x belongs to A and x belongs to B. This tells us that

$$A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \land x \in B\}.$$



$A \cup B$ is shaded.

FIGURE 1 **Venn Diagram of the Union of A and B.**



$A \cap B$ is shaded.

FIGURE 2 **Venn Diagram of the Intersection of A and B.**

The Venn diagram shown in Figure 2 represents the intersection of two sets A and B. The shaded area that is within both the circles representing the sets A and B is the area that represents the intersection of A and B.

We give some examples of the intersection of sets.

EXAMPLE 3 The intersection of the sets $\{1, 3, 5\}$ and $\{1, 2, 3\}$ is the set $\{1, 3\}$; that is, $\{1, 3, 5\} \cap \{1, 2, 3\} = \{1, 3\}$. ◀

EXAMPLE 4 The intersection of the set of all computer science majors at your school and the set of all mathematics majors is the set of all students who are joint majors in mathematics and computer science. ◀

DEFINITION 3 Two sets are called *disjoint* if their intersection is the empty set.

EXAMPLE 5 Let $A = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$ and $B = \{2, 4, 6, 8, 10\}$. Because $A \cap B = \emptyset$, A and B are disjoint. ◀

Be careful not to overcount!

We are often interested in finding the cardinality of a union of two finite sets A and B. Note that $|A| + |B|$ counts each element that is in A but not in B or in B but not in A exactly once, and each element that is in both A and B exactly twice. Thus, if the number of elements that are in both A and B is subtracted from $|A| + |B|$, elements in $A \cap B$ will be counted only once. Hence,

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

The generalization of this result to unions of an arbitrary number of sets is called the **principle of inclusion–exclusion**. The principle of inclusion–exclusion is an important technique used in enumeration. We will discuss this principle and other counting techniques in detail in Chapters 6 and 8.

There are other important ways to combine sets.

DEFINITION 4 Let A and B be sets. The *difference* of A and B, denoted by $A - B$, is the set containing those elements that are in A but not in B. The difference of A and B is also called the *complement of B with respect to A*.

Remark: The difference of sets A and B is sometimes denoted by $A \backslash B$.

An element x belongs to the difference of A and B if and only if $x \in A$ and $x \notin B$. This tells us that

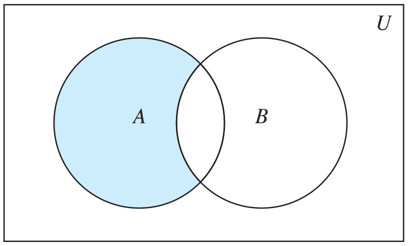
$$A - B = \{x \mid x \in A \wedge x \notin B\}.$$

The Venn diagram shown in Figure 3 represents the difference of the sets A and B. The shaded area inside the circle that represents A and outside the circle that represents B is the area that represents $A - B$.

We give some examples of differences of sets.

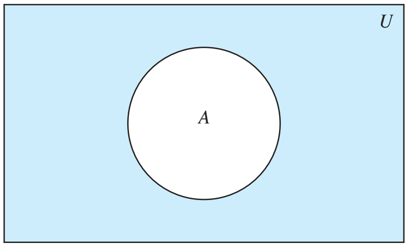
EXAMPLE 6 The difference of $\{1, 3, 5\}$ and $\{1, 2, 3\}$ is the set $\{5\}$; that is, $\{1, 3, 5\} - \{1, 2, 3\} = \{5\}$. This is different from the difference of $\{1, 2, 3\}$ and $\{1, 3, 5\}$, which is the set $\{2\}$. ◀

EXAMPLE 7 The difference of the set of computer science majors at your school and the set of mathematics majors at your school is the set of all computer science majors at your school who are not also mathematics majors. ◀



$A - B$ is shaded.

FIGURE 3 **Venn Diagram for the Difference of A and B.**



$\overline{A}$ is shaded.

FIGURE 4 **Venn Diagram for the Complement of the Set A.**

Once the universal set U has been specified, the **complement** of a set can be defined.

DEFINITION 5 Let U be the universal set. The *complement* of the set A, denoted by $\overline{A}$, is the complement of A with respect to U. Therefore, the complement of the set A is $U - A$.

An element belongs to $\overline{A}$ if and only if $x \notin A$. This tells us that

$$\overline{A} = \{x \in U \mid x \notin A\}.$$

In Figure 4 the shaded area outside the circle representing A is the area representing $\overline{A}$.

We give some examples of the complement of a set.

EXAMPLE 8 Let $A = \{a, e, i, o, u\}$ (where the universal set is the set of letters of the English alphabet). Then $\overline{A} = \{b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z\}$. ◀

EXAMPLE 9 Let A be the set of positive integers greater than 10 (with universal set the set of all positive integers). Then $\overline{A} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$. ◀

It is left to the reader (Exercise 19) to show that we can express the difference of A and B as the intersection of A and the complement of B. That is,

$$A - B = A \cap \overline{B}.$$

Set Identities

Set identities and propositional equivalences are just special cases of identities for Boolean algebra.

Table 1 lists the most important set identities. We will prove several of these identities here, using three different methods. These methods are presented to illustrate that there are often many different approaches to the solution of a problem. The proofs of the remaining identities will be left as exercises. The reader should note the similarity between these set identities and the logical equivalences discussed in Section 1.3. (Compare Table 6 of Section 1.6 and Table 1.) In fact, the set identities given can be proved directly from the corresponding logical equivalences. Furthermore, both are special cases of identities that hold for Boolean algebra (discussed in Chapter 12).

One way to show that two sets are equal is to show that each is a subset of the other. Recall that to show that one set is a subset of a second set, we can show that if an element belongs to the first set, then it must also belong to the second set. We generally use a direct proof to do this. We illustrate this type of proof by establishing the first of De Morgan's laws.

TABLE 1 Set Identities.

Identity	*Name*
$A \cap U = A$ $A \cup \emptyset = A$	Identity laws
$A \cup U = U$ $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$	Domination laws
$A \cup A = A$ $A \cap A = A$	Idempotent laws
$\overline{(\overline{A})} = A$	Complementation law
$A \cup B = B \cup A$ $A \cap B = B \cap A$	Commutative laws
$A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$ $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$	Associative laws
$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$ $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$	Distributive laws
$\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$ $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$	De Morgan's laws
$A \cup (A \cap B) = A$ $A \cap (A \cup B) = A$	Absorption laws
$A \cup \overline{A} = U$ $A \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$	Complement laws

EXAMPLE 10 Prove that $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$.

This identity says that the complement of the intersection of two sets is the union of their complements.

Solution: We will prove that the two sets $\overline{A \cap B}$ and $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$ are equal by showing that each set is a subset of the other.

First, we will show that $\overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$. We do this by showing that if x is in $\overline{A \cap B}$, then it must also be in $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$. Now suppose that $x \in \overline{A \cap B}$. By the definition of complement, $x \notin A \cap B$. Using the definition of intersection, we see that the proposition $\neg((x \in A) \wedge (x \in B))$ is true.

By applying De Morgan's law for propositions, we see that $\neg(x \in A)$ or $\neg(x \in B)$. Using the definition of negation of propositions, we have $x \notin A$ or $x \notin B$. Using the definition of the complement of a set, we see that this implies that $x \in \overline{A}$ or $x \in \overline{B}$. Consequently, by the definition of union, we see that $x \in \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$. We have now shown that $\overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$.

Extra Examples

Next, we will show that $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cap B}$. We do this by showing that if x is in $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$, then it must also be in $\overline{A \cap B}$. Now suppose that $x \in \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$. By the definition of union, we know that $x \in \overline{A}$ or $x \in \overline{B}$. Using the definition of complement, we see that $x \notin A$ or $x \notin B$. Consequently, the proposition $\neg(x \in A) \vee \neg(x \in B)$ is true.

By De Morgan's law for propositions, we conclude that $\neg((x \in A) \wedge (x \in B))$ is true. By the definition of intersection, it follows that $\neg(x \in A \cap B)$. We now use the definition of complement to conclude that $x \in \overline{A \cap B}$. This shows that $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cap B}$.

Because we have shown that each set is a subset of the other, the two sets are equal, and the identity is proved. ◂

We can more succinctly express the reasoning used in Example 10 using set builder notation, as Example 11 illustrates.

EXAMPLE 11 Use set builder notation and logical equivalences to establish the first De Morgan law $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$.

Solution: We can prove this identity with the following steps.

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

Note that besides the definitions of complement, union, set membership, and set builder notation, this proof uses the second De Morgan law for logical equivalences. ◀

Proving a set identity involving more than two sets by showing each side of the identity is a subset of the other often requires that we keep track of different cases, as illustrated by the proof in Example 12 of one of the distributive laws for sets.

EXAMPLE 12 Prove the second distributive law from Table 1, which states that $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$ for all sets A, B, and C.

Solution: We will prove this identity by showing that each side is a subset of the other side.

Suppose that $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$. Then $x \in A$ and $x \in B \cup C$. By the definition of union, it follows that $x \in A$, and $x \in B$ or $x \in C$ (or both). In other words, we know that the compound proposition $(x \in A) \wedge ((x \in B) \vee (x \in C))$ is true. By the distributive law for conjunction over disjunction, it follows that $((x \in A) \wedge (x \in B)) \vee ((x \in A) \wedge (x \in C))$. We conclude that either $x \in A$ and $x \in B$, or $x \in A$ and $x \in C$. By the definition of intersection, it follows that $x \in A \cap B$ or $x \in A \cap C$. Using the definition of union, we conclude that $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$. We conclude that $A \cap (B \cup C) \subseteq (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

Now suppose that $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$. Then, by the definition of union, $x \in A \cap B$ or $x \in A \cap C$. By the definition of intersection, it follows that $x \in A$ and $x \in B$ or that $x \in A$ and $x \in C$. From this we see that $x \in A$, and $x \in B$ or $x \in C$. Consequently, by the definition of union we see that $x \in A$ and $x \in B \cup C$. Furthermore, by the definition of intersection, it follows that $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$. We conclude that $(A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C) \subseteq A \cap (B \cup C)$. This completes the proof of the identity. ◀

Set identities can also be proved using **membership tables**. We consider each combination of sets that an element can belong to and verify that elements in the same combinations of sets belong to both the sets in the identity. To indicate that an element is in a set, a 1 is used; to indicate that an element is not in a set, a 0 is used. (The reader should note the similarity between membership tables and truth tables.)

EXAMPLE 13 Use a membership table to show that $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

Solution: The membership table for these combinations of sets is shown in Table 2. This table has eight rows. Because the columns for $A \cap (B \cup C)$ and $(A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$ are the same, the identity is valid. ◀

Additional set identities can be established using those that we have already proved. Consider Example 14.

TABLE 2 A Membership Table for the Distributive Property.

A	B	C	$B \cup C$	$A \cap (B \cup C)$	$A \cap B$	$A \cap C$	$(A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1
1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

EXAMPLE 14 Let A, B, and C be sets. Show that

$$\overline{A \cup (B \cap C)} = (\overline{C} \cup \overline{B}) \cap \overline{A}.$$

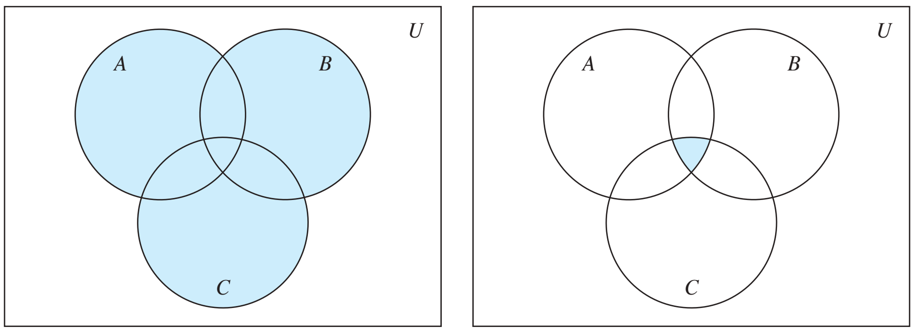
Solution: We have

$$\begin{aligned}
\overline{A \cup (B \cap C)} &= \overline{A} \cap (\overline{B \cap C}) && \text{by the first De Morgan law} \\
&= \overline{A} \cap (\overline{B} \cup \overline{C}) && \text{by the second De Morgan law} \\
&= (\overline{B} \cup \overline{C}) \cap \overline{A} && \text{by the commutative law for intersections} \\
&= (\overline{C} \cup \overline{B}) \cap \overline{A} && \text{by the commutative law for unions.}
\end{aligned}$$

◀

Generalized Unions and Intersections

Because unions and intersections of sets satisfy associative laws, the sets $A \cup B \cup C$ and $A \cap B \cap C$ are well defined; that is, the meaning of this notation is unambiguous when A, B, and C are sets. That is, we do not have to use parentheses to indicate which operation comes first because $A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$ and $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$. Note that $A \cup B \cup C$ contains those elements that are in at least one of the sets A, B, and C, and that $A \cap B \cap C$ contains those elements that are in all of A, B, and C. These combinations of the three sets, A, B, and C, are shown in Figure 5.



(a) $A \cup B \cup C$ is shaded. (b) $A \cap B \cap C$ is shaded.

FIGURE 5 **The Union and Intersection of A, B, and C.**

EXAMPLE 15 Let $A = \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8\}$, $B = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$, and $C = \{0, 3, 6, 9\}$. What are $A \cup B \cup C$ and $A \cap B \cap C$?

Solution: The set $A \cup B \cup C$ contains those elements in at least one of A, B, and C. Hence,

$$A \cup B \cup C = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 9\}.$$

The set $A \cap B \cap C$ contains those elements in all three of A, B, and C. Thus,

$$A \cap B \cap C = \{0\}.$$

◀

We can also consider unions and intersections of an arbitrary number of sets. We introduce these definitions.

DEFINITION 6 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.

We use the notation

$$A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_n = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i$$

to denote the union of the sets $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$.

DEFINITION 7 The *intersection* of a collection of sets is the set that contains those elements that are members of all the sets in the collection.

We use the notation

$$A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_n = \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_i$$

to denote the intersection of the sets $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$. We illustrate generalized unions and intersections with Example 16.

EXAMPLE 16 For $i = 1, 2, \ldots$, let $A_i = \{i, i + 1, i + 2, \ldots\}$. Then,

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \{i, i + 1, i + 2, \ldots\} = \{1, 2, 3, \ldots\},$$

and

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_i = \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} \{i, i + 1, i + 2, \ldots\} = \{n, n + 1, n + 2, \ldots\} = A_n.$$

◀

We can extend the notation we have introduced for unions and intersections to other families of sets. In particular, we use the notation

$$A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_n \cup \cdots = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$$

to denote the union of the sets $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n, \ldots$. Similarly, the intersection of these sets is denoted by

$$A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_n \cap \cdots = \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i.$$

More generally, when I is a set, the notations $\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i$ and $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$ are used to denote the intersection and union of the sets A_i for $i \in I$, respectively. Note that we have $\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i = \{x \mid \forall i \in I\ (x \in A_i)\}$ and $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i = \{x \mid \exists i \in I\ (x \in A_i)\}$.

EXAMPLE 17 Suppose that $A_i = \{1, 2, 3, \ldots, i\}$ for $i = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$. Then,

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \{1, 2, 3, \ldots, i\} = \{1, 2, 3, \ldots\} = \mathbf{Z}^+$$

and

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} \{1, 2, 3, \ldots, i\} = \{1\}.$$

To see that the union of these sets is the set of positive integers, note that every positive integer n is in at least one of the sets, because it belongs to $A_n = \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$, and every element of the sets in the union is a positive integer. To see that the intersection of these sets is the set $\{1\}$, note that the only element that belongs to all the sets $A_1, A_2, \ldots$ is 1. To see this note that $A_1 = \{1\}$ and $1 \in A_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \ldots$. ◀

Computer Representation of Sets

There are various ways to represent sets using a computer. One method is to store the elements of the set in an unordered fashion. However, if this is done, the operations of computing the union, intersection, or difference of two sets would be time-consuming, because each of these operations would require a large amount of searching for elements. We will present a method for storing elements using an arbitrary ordering of the elements of the universal set. This method of representing sets makes computing combinations of sets easy.

Assume that the universal set U is finite (and of reasonable size so that the number of elements of U is not larger than the memory size of the computer being used). First, specify an arbitrary ordering of the elements of U, for instance $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$. Represent a subset A of U with the bit string of length n, where the ith bit in this string is 1 if a_i belongs to A and is 0 if a_i does not belong to A. Example 18 illustrates this technique.

EXAMPLE 18 Let $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$, and the ordering of elements of U has the elements in increasing order; that is, $a_i = i$. What bit strings represent the subset of all odd integers in U, the subset of all even integers in U, and the subset of integers not exceeding 5 in U?

Solution: The bit string that represents the set of odd integers in U, namely, $\{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$, has a one bit in the first, third, fifth, seventh, and ninth positions, and a zero elsewhere. It is

$$10\ 1010\ 1010.$$

(We have split this bit string of length ten into blocks of length four for easy reading.) Similarly, we represent the subset of all even integers in U, namely, $\{2, 4, 6, 8, 10\}$, by the string

$$01\ 0101\ 0101.$$

The set of all integers in U that do not exceed 5, namely, $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, is represented by the string

$$11\ 1110\ 0000.$$ ◀

Using bit strings to represent sets, it is easy to find complements of sets and unions, intersections, and differences of sets. To find the bit string for the complement of a set from the bit string for that set, we simply change each 1 to a 0 and each 0 to 1, because $x \in A$ if and only if $x \notin \overline{A}$. Note that this operation corresponds to taking the negation of each bit when we associate a bit with a truth value—with 1 representing true and 0 representing false.

EXAMPLE 19 We have seen that the bit string for the set $\{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$ (with universal set $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$) is

$$10\ 1010\ 1010.$$

What is the bit string for the complement of this set?

Solution: The bit string for the complement of this set is obtained by replacing 0s with 1s and vice versa. This yields the string

$$01\ 0101\ 0101,$$

which corresponds to the set $\{2, 4, 6, 8, 10\}$. ◀

To obtain the bit string for the union and intersection of two sets we perform bitwise Boolean operations on the bit strings representing the two sets. The bit in the ith position of the bit string of the union is 1 if either of the bits in the ith position in the two strings is 1 (or both are 1), and is 0 when both bits are 0. Hence, the bit string for the union is the bitwise *OR* of the bit strings for the two sets. The bit in the ith position of the bit string of the intersection is 1 when the bits in the corresponding position in the two strings are both 1, and is 0 when either of the two bits is 0 (or both are). Hence, the bit string for the intersection is the bitwise *AND* of the bit strings for the two sets.

EXAMPLE 20 The bit strings for the sets $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ and $\{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$ are 11 1110 0000 and 10 1010 1010, respectively. Use bit strings to find the union and intersection of these sets.

Solution: The bit string for the union of these sets is

$$11\ 1110\ 0000 \vee 10\ 1010\ 1010 = 11\ 1110\ 1010,$$

which corresponds to the set $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9\}$. The bit string for the intersection of these sets is

$$11\ 1110\ 0000 \wedge 10\ 1010\ 1010 = 10\ 1010\ 0000,$$

which corresponds to the set $\{1, 3, 5\}$. ◀

Exercises

1. Let A be the set of students who live within one mile of school and let B be the set of students who walk to classes. Describe the students in each of these sets.
a) $A \cap B$ **b)** $A \cup B$
c) $A - B$ **d)** $B - A$

2. Suppose that A is the set of sophomores at your school and B is the set of students in discrete mathematics at your school. Express each of these sets in terms of A and B.
a) the set of sophomores taking discrete mathematics in your school
b) the set of sophomores at your school who are not taking discrete mathematics
c) the set of students at your school who either are sophomores or are taking discrete mathematics
d) the set of students at your school who either are not sophomores or are not taking discrete mathematics

3. Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ and $B = \{0, 3, 6\}$. Find
a) $A \cup B$. **b)** $A \cap B$.
c) $A - B$. **d)** $B - A$.

4. Let $A = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$ and $B = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h\}$. Find
a) $A \cup B$. **b)** $A \cap B$.
c) $A - B$. **d)** $B - A$.

In Exercises 5–10 assume that A is a subset of some underlying universal set U.

5. Prove the complementation law in Table 1 by showing that $\overline{\overline{A}} = A$.

6. Prove the identity laws in Table 1 by showing that
a) $A \cup \emptyset = A$. **b)** $A \cap U = A$.

7. Prove the domination laws in Table 1 by showing that
a) $A \cup U = U$. **b)** $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$.

8. Prove the idempotent laws in Table 1 by showing that
a) $A \cup A = A$. **b)** $A \cap A = A$.

9. Prove the complement laws in Table 1 by showing that
a) $A \cup \overline{A} = U$. **b)** $A \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$.

10. Show that
a) $A - \emptyset = A$. **b)** $\emptyset - A = \emptyset$.

11. Let A and B be sets. Prove the commutative laws from Table 1 by showing that
a) $A \cup B = B \cup A$.
b) $A \cap B = B \cap A$.

12. Prove the first absorption law from Table 1 by showing that if A and B are sets, then $A \cup (A \cap B) = A$.

13. Prove the second absorption law from Table 1 by showing that if A and B are sets, then $A \cap (A \cup B) = A$.

14. Find the sets A and B if $A - B = \{1, 5, 7, 8\}$, $B - A = \{2, 10\}$, and $A \cap B = \{3, 6, 9\}$.

15. Prove the second De Morgan law in Table 1 by showing that if A and B are sets, then $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$
a) by showing each side is a subset of the other side.
b) using a membership table.

16. Let A and B be sets. Show that
a) $(A \cap B) \subseteq A$. **b)** $A \subseteq (A \cup B)$.
c) $A - B \subseteq A$. **d)** $A \cap (B - A) = \emptyset$.
e) $A \cup (B - A) = A \cup B$.

17. Show that if A, B, and C are sets, then $\overline{A \cap B \cap C} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \cup \overline{C}$
a) by showing each side is a subset of the other side.
b) using a membership table.

18. Let A, B, and C be sets. Show that
a) $(A \cup B) \subseteq (A \cup B \cup C)$.
b) $(A \cap B \cap C) \subseteq (A \cap B)$.
c) $(A - B) - C \subseteq A - C$.
d) $(A - C) \cap (C - B) = \emptyset$.
e) $(B - A) \cup (C - A) = (B \cup C) - A$.

19. Show that if A and B are sets, then
a) $A - B = A \cap \overline{B}$.
b) $(A \cap B) \cup (A \cap \overline{B}) = A$.

20. Show that if A and B are sets with $A \subseteq B$, then
a) $A \cup B = B$.
b) $A \cap B = A$.

21. Prove the first associative law from Table 1 by showing that if A, B, and C are sets, then $A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$.

22. Prove the second associative law from Table 1 by showing that if A, B, and C are sets, then $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$.

23. Prove the first distributive law from Table 1 by showing that if A, B, and C are sets, then $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$.

24. Let A, B, and C be sets. Show that $(A - B) - C = (A - C) - (B - C)$.

25. Let $A = \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10\}$, $B = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$, and $C = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$. Find
a) $A \cap B \cap C$. **b)** $A \cup B \cup C$.
c) $(A \cup B) \cap C$. **d)** $(A \cap B) \cup C$.

26. Draw the Venn diagrams for each of these combinations of the sets A, B, and C.
a) $A \cap (B \cup C)$ **b)** $\overline{A} \cap \overline{B} \cap \overline{C}$
c) $(A - B) \cup (A - C) \cup (B - C)$

27. Draw the Venn diagrams for each of these combinations of the sets A, B, and C.
a) $A \cap (B - C)$ **b)** $(A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$
c) $(A \cap \overline{B}) \cup (A \cap \overline{C})$

28. Draw the Venn diagrams for each of these combinations of the sets A, B, C, and D.
a) $(A \cap B) \cup (C \cap D)$ **b)** $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \cup \overline{C} \cup \overline{D}$
c) $A - (B \cap C \cap D)$

29. What can you say about the sets A and B if we know that
a) $A \cup B = A$? **b)** $A \cap B = A$?
c) $A - B = A$? **d)** $A \cap B = B \cap A$?
e) $A - B = B - A$?

30. Can you conclude that $A = B$ if A, B, and C are sets such that

a) $A \cup C = B \cup C$? b) $A \cap C = B \cap C$?

c) $A \cup C = B \cup C$ and $A \cap C = B \cap C$?

31. Let A and B be subsets of a universal set U. Show that $A \subseteq B$ if and only if $\overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A}$.

The **symmetric difference** of A and B, denoted by $A \oplus B$, is the set containing those elements in either A or B, but not in both A and B.

32. Find the symmetric difference of $\{1, 3, 5\}$ and $\{1, 2, 3\}$.

33. Find the symmetric difference of the set of computer science majors at a school and the set of mathematics majors at this school.

34. Draw a Venn diagram for the symmetric difference of the sets A and B.

35. Show that $A \oplus B = (A \cup B) - (A \cap B)$.

36. Show that $A \oplus B = (A - B) \cup (B - A)$.

37. Show that if A is a subset of a universal set U, then

a) $A \oplus A = \emptyset$. b) $A \oplus \emptyset = A$.

c) $A \oplus U = \overline{A}$. d) $A \oplus \overline{A} = U$.

38. Show that if A and B are sets, then

a) $A \oplus B = B \oplus A$. b) $(A \oplus B) \oplus B = A$.

39. What can you say about the sets A and B if $A \oplus B = A$?

***40.** Determine whether the symmetric difference is associative; that is, if A, B, and C are sets, does it follow that $A \oplus (B \oplus C) = (A \oplus B) \oplus C$?

***41.** Suppose that A, B, and C are sets such that $A \oplus C = B \oplus C$. Must it be the case that $A = B$?

42. If A, B, C, and D are sets, does it follow that $(A \oplus B) \oplus (C \oplus D) = (A \oplus C) \oplus (B \oplus D)$?

43. If A, B, C, and D are sets, does it follow that $(A \oplus B) \oplus (C \oplus D) = (A \oplus D) \oplus (B \oplus C)$?

44. Show that if A and B are finite sets, then $A \cup B$ is a finite set.

45. Show that if A is an infinite set, then whenever B is a set, $A \cup B$ is also an infinite set.

***46.** Show that if A, B, and C are sets, then

$$\begin{aligned}|A \cup B \cup C| = |A| + |B| + |C| - |A \cap B| \\ - |A \cap C| - |B \cap C| + |A \cap B \cap C|.\end{aligned}$$

(This is a special case of the inclusion–exclusion principle, which will be studied in Chapter 8.)

47. Let $A_i = \{1, 2, 3, \ldots, i\}$ for $i = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$. Find

a) $\displaystyle\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i$. b) $\displaystyle\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_i$.

48. Let $A_i = \{\ldots, -2, -1, 0, 1, \ldots, i\}$. Find

a) $\displaystyle\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i$. b) $\displaystyle\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_i$.

49. Let A_i be the set of all nonempty bit strings (that is, bit strings of length at least one) of length not exceeding i. Find

a) $\displaystyle\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i$. b) $\displaystyle\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_i$.

50. Find $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ and $\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ if for every positive integer i,

a) $A_i = \{i, i + 1, i + 2, \ldots\}$.

b) $A_i = \{0, i\}$.

c) $A_i = (0, i)$, that is, the set of real numbers x with $0 < x < i$.

d) $A_i = (i, \infty)$, that is, the set of real numbers x with $x > i$.

51. Find $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ and $\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ if for every positive integer i,

a) $A_i = \{-i, -i + 1, \ldots, -1, 0, 1, \ldots, i - 1, i\}$.

b) $A_i = \{-i, i\}$.

c) $A_i = [-i, i]$, that is, the set of real numbers x with $-i \le x \le i$.

d) $A_i = [i, \infty)$, that is, the set of real numbers x with $x \ge i$.

52. Suppose that the universal set is $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$. Express each of these sets with bit strings where the ith bit in the string is 1 if i is in the set and 0 otherwise.

a) $\{3, 4, 5\}$

b) $\{1, 3, 6, 10\}$

c) $\{2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9\}$

53. Using the same universal set as in the last problem, find the set specified by each of these bit strings.

a) 11 1100 1111

b) 01 0111 1000

c) 10 0000 0001

54. What subsets of a finite universal set do these bit strings represent?

a) the string with all zeros

b) the string with all ones

55. What is the bit string corresponding to the difference of two sets?

56. What is the bit string corresponding to the symmetric difference of two sets?

57. Show how bitwise operations on bit strings can be used to find these combinations of $A = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$, $B = \{b, c, d, g, p, t, v\}$, $C = \{c, e, i, o, u, x, y, z\}$, and $D = \{d, e, h, i, n, o, t, u, x, y\}$.

a) $A \cup B$ b) $A \cap B$

c) $(A \cup D) \cap (B \cup C)$ d) $A \cup B \cup C \cup D$

58. How can the union and intersection of n sets that all are subsets of the universal set U be found using bit strings?

The **successor** of the set A is the set $A \cup \{A\}$.

59. Find the successors of the following sets.

a) $\{1, 2, 3\}$ b) $\emptyset$

c) $\{\emptyset\}$ d) $\{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$

60. How many elements does the successor of a set with n elements have?

Sometimes the number of times that an element occurs in an unordered collection matters. **Multisets** are unordered collections of elements where an element can occur as a member more than once. The notation $\{m_1 \cdot a_1, m_2 \cdot a_2, \ldots, m_r \cdot a_r\}$ denotes the multiset with element a_1 occurring m_1 times, element a_2 occurring m_2 times, and so on. The numbers m_i, $i = 1, 2, \ldots, r$ are called the **multiplicities** of the elements $a_i, i = 1, 2, \ldots, r$.

Let P and Q be multisets. The **union** of the multisets P and Q is the multiset where the multiplicity of an element is the maximum of its multiplicities in P and Q. The **intersection** of P and Q is the multiset where the multiplicity of an element is the minimum of its multiplicities in P and Q. The **difference** of P and Q is the multiset where the multiplicity of an element is the multiplicity of the element in P less its multiplicity in Q unless this difference is negative, in which case the multiplicity is 0. The **sum** of P and Q is the multiset where the multiplicity of an element is the sum of multiplicities in P and Q. The union, intersection, and difference of P and Q are denoted by $P \cup Q$, $P \cap Q$, and $P - Q$, respectively (where these operations should not be confused with the analogous operations for sets). The sum of P and Q is denoted by $P + Q$.

61. Let A and B be the multisets $\{3 \cdot a, 2 \cdot b, 1 \cdot c\}$ and $\{2 \cdot a, 3 \cdot b, 4 \cdot d\}$, respectively. Find

a) $A \cup B$. **b)** $A \cap B$. **c)** $A - B$.
d) $B - A$. **e)** $A + B$.

62. Suppose that A is the multiset that has as its elements the types of computer equipment needed by one department of a university and the multiplicities are the number of pieces of each type needed, and B is the analogous multiset for a second department of the university. For instance, A could be the multiset $\{107 \cdot \text{personal computers}, 44 \cdot \text{routers}, 6 \cdot \text{servers}\}$ and B could be the multiset $\{14 \cdot \text{personal computers}, 6 \cdot \text{routers}, 2 \cdot \text{mainframes}\}$.

a) What combination of A and B represents the equipment the university should buy assuming both departments use the same equipment?

b) What combination of A and B represents the equipment that will be used by both departments if both departments use the same equipment?

c) What combination of A and B represents the equipment that the second department uses, but the first department does not, if both departments use the same equipment?

d) What combination of A and B represents the equipment that the university should purchase if the departments do not share equipment?

Fuzzy sets are used in artificial intelligence. Each element in the universal set U has a **degree of membership**, which is a real number between 0 and 1 (including 0 and 1), in a fuzzy set S. The fuzzy set S is denoted by listing the elements with their degrees of membership (elements with 0 degree of membership are not listed). For instance, we write {0.6 Alice, 0.9 Brian, 0.4 Fred, 0.1 Oscar, 0.5 Rita} for the set F (of famous people) to indicate that Alice has a 0.6 degree of membership in F, Brian has a 0.9 degree of membership in F, Fred has a 0.4 degree of membership in F, Oscar has a 0.1 degree of membership in F, and Rita has a 0.5 degree of membership in F (so that Brian is the most famous and Oscar is the least famous of these people). Also suppose that R is the set of rich people with $R =$ {0.4 Alice, 0.8 Brian, 0.2 Fred, 0.9 Oscar, 0.7 Rita}.

63. The **complement** of a fuzzy set S is the set $\overline{S}$, with the degree of the membership of an element in $\overline{S}$ equal to 1 minus the degree of membership of this element in S. Find $\overline{F}$ (the fuzzy set of people who are not famous) and $\overline{R}$ (the fuzzy set of people who are not rich).

64. The **union** of two fuzzy sets S and T is the fuzzy set $S \cup T$, where the degree of membership of an element in $S \cup T$ is the maximum of the degrees of membership of this element in S and in T. Find the fuzzy set $F \cup R$ of rich or famous people.

65. The **intersection** of two fuzzy sets S and T is the fuzzy set $S \cap T$, where the degree of membership of an element in $S \cap T$ is the minimum of the degrees of membership of this element in S and in T. Find the fuzzy set $F \cap R$ of rich and famous people.

2.3 Functions

Introduction

In many instances we assign to each element of a set a particular element of a second set (which may be the same as the first). For example, suppose that each student in a discrete mathematics class is assigned a letter grade from the set $\{A, B, C, D, F\}$. And suppose that the grades are A for Adams, C for Chou, B for Goodfriend, A for Rodriguez, and F for Stevens. This assignment of grades is illustrated in Figure 1.

This assignment is an example of a function. The concept of a function is extremely important in mathematics and computer science. For example, in discrete mathematics functions are used in the definition of such discrete structures as sequences and strings. Functions are also used to represent how long it takes a computer to solve problems of a given size. Many computer programs and subroutines are designed to calculate values of functions. Recursive functions,

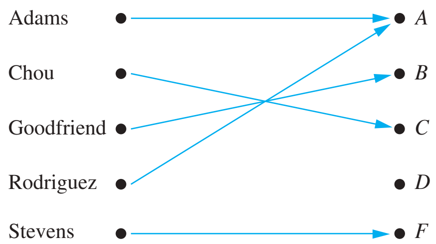


FIGURE 1 **Assignment of Grades in a Discrete Mathematics Class.**

which are functions defined in terms of themselves, are used throughout computer science; they will be studied in Chapter 5. This section reviews the basic concepts involving functions needed in discrete mathematics.

DEFINITION 1 Let A and B be nonempty sets. A *function* f from 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. If f is a function from A to B, we write $f : A \to B$.

Remark: Functions are sometimes also called **mappings** or **transformations**.

Functions are specified in many different ways. Sometimes we explicitly state the assignments, as in Figure 1. Often we give a formula, such as $f(x) = x + 1$, to define a function. Other times we use a computer program to specify a function.

A function $f : A \to B$ can also be defined in terms of a relation from A to B. Recall from Section 2.1 that a relation from A to B is just a subset of $A \times B$. A relation from A to B that contains one, and only one, ordered pair (a, b) for every element $a \in A$, defines a function f from A to B. This function is defined by the assignment $f(a) = b$, where (a, b) is the unique ordered pair in the relation that has a as its first element.

DEFINITION 2 If f is a function from A to B, we say that A is the *domain* of f and B is the *codomain* of f. If $f(a) = b$, we say that b is the *image* of a and a is a *preimage* of b. The *range*, or *image*, of f is the set of all images of elements of A. Also, if f is a function from A to B, we say that *f maps A* to B.

Figure 2 represents a function f from A to B.

When we define a function we specify its domain, its codomain, and the mapping of elements of the domain to elements in the codomain. Two functions are **equal** when they have the same domain, have the same codomain, and map each element of their common domain to the same element in their common codomain. Note that if we change either the domain or the codomain

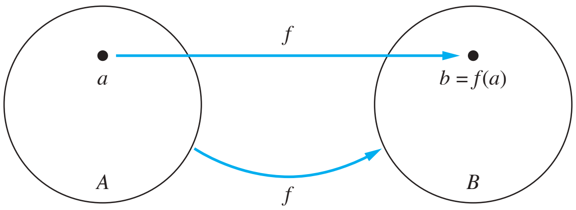


FIGURE 2 **The Function f Maps A to B.**

of a function, then we obtain a different function. If we change the mapping of elements, then we also obtain a different function.

Examples 1–5 provide examples of functions. In each case, we describe the domain, the codomain, the range, and the assignment of values to elements of the domain.

EXAMPLE 1 What are the domain, codomain, and range of the function that assigns grades to students described in the first paragraph of the introduction of this section?

Solution: Let G be the function that assigns a grade to a student in our discrete mathematics class. Note that $G(\text{Adams}) = A$, for instance. The domain of G is the set {Adams, Chou, Goodfriend, Rodriguez, Stevens}, and the codomain is the set $\{A, B, C, D, F\}$. The range of G is the set $\{A, B, C, F\}$, because each grade except D is assigned to some student.

EXAMPLE 2 Let R be the relation with ordered pairs (Abdul, 22), (Brenda, 24), (Carla, 21), (Desire, 22), (Eddie, 24), and (Felicia, 22). Here each pair consists of a graduate student and this student's age. Specify a function determined by this relation.

Solution: If f is a function specified by R, then $f(\text{Abdul}) = 22$, $f(\text{Brenda}) = 24$, $f(\text{Carla}) = 21$, $f(\text{Desire}) = 22$, $f(\text{Eddie}) = 24$, and $f(\text{Felicia}) = 22$. (Here, $f(x)$ is the age of x, where x is a student.) For the domain, we take the set {Abdul, Brenda, Carla, Desire, Eddie, Felicia}. We also need to specify a codomain, which needs to contain all possible ages of students. Because it is highly likely that all students are less than 100 years old, we can take the set of positive integers less than 100 as the codomain. (Note that we could choose a different codomain, such as the set of all positive integers or the set of positive integers between 10 and 90, but that would change the function. Using this codomain will also allow us to extend the function by adding the names and ages of more students later.) The range of the function we have specified is the set of different ages of these students, which is the set {21, 22, 24}.

EXAMPLE 3 Let f be the function that assigns the last two bits of a bit string of length 2 or greater to that string. For example, $f(11010) = 10$. Then, the domain of f is the set of all bit strings of length 2 or greater, and both the codomain and range are the set {00, 01, 10, 11}.

Extra Examples

EXAMPLE 4 Let $f: \mathbf{Z} \to \mathbf{Z}$ assign the square of an integer to this integer. Then, $f(x) = x^2$, where the domain of f is the set of all integers, the codomain of f is the set of all integers, and the range of f is the set of all integers that are perfect squares, namely, $\{0, 1, 4, 9, \ldots\}$.

EXAMPLE 5 The domain and codomain of functions are often specified in programming languages. For instance, the Java statement

int **floor**(float real){. . .}

and the C++ function statement

int **function** (float x){. . .}

both tell us that the domain of the floor function is the set of real numbers (represented by floating point numbers) and its codomain is the set of integers.

A function is called **real-valued** if its codomain is the set of real numbers, and it is called **integer-valued** if its codomain is the set of integers. Two real-valued functions or two integer-valued functions with the same domain can be added, as well as multiplied.

DEFINITION 3

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

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

Note that the functions $f_1 + f_2$ and $f_1 f_2$ have been defined by specifying their values at x in terms of the values of f_1 and f_2 at x.

EXAMPLE 6 Let f_1 and f_2 be functions from $\mathbf{R}$ to $\mathbf{R}$ such that $f_1(x) = x^2$ and $f_2(x) = x - x^2$. What are the functions $f_1 + f_2$ and $f_1 f_2$?

Solution: From the definition of the sum and product of functions, it follows that

$$(f_1 + f_2)(x) = f_1(x) + f_2(x) = x^2 + (x - x^2) = x$$

and

$$(f_1 f_2)(x) = x^2(x - x^2) = x^3 - x^4.$$

◀

When f is a function from A to B, the image of a subset of A can also be defined.

DEFINITION 4

Let f be a function from A to B and let S be a subset of A. The *image* of S under the function f is the subset of B that consists of the images of the elements of S. We denote the image of S by $f(S)$, so

$$f(S) = \{t \mid \exists s \in S \ (t = f(s))\}.$$

We also use the shorthand $\{f(s) \mid s \in S\}$ to denote this set.

Remark: The notation $f(S)$ for the image of the set S under the function f is potentially ambiguous. Here, $f(S)$ denotes a set, and not the value of the function f for the set S.

EXAMPLE 7 Let $A = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$ and $B = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ with $f(a) = 2$, $f(b) = 1$, $f(c) = 4$, $f(d) = 1$, and $f(e) = 1$. The image of the subset $S = \{b, c, d\}$ is the set $f(S) = \{1, 4\}$. ◀

One-to-One and Onto Functions

Some functions never assign the same value to two different domain elements. These functions are said to be **one-to-one**.

DEFINITION 5

A function f is said to be *one-to-one*, or an *injunction*, if and only if $f(a) = f(b)$ implies that $a = b$ for all a and b in the domain of f. A function is said to be *injective* if it is one-to-one.

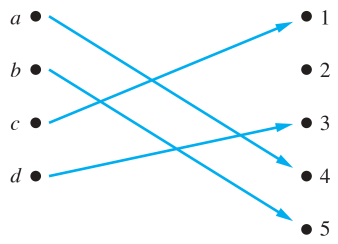


FIGURE 3 **A One-to-One Function.**

Note that a function f is one-to-one if and only if $f(a) \neq f(b)$ whenever $a \neq b$. This way of expressing that f is one-to-one is obtained by taking the contrapositive of the implication in the definition.

Remark: We can express that f is one-to-one using quantifiers as $\forall a \forall b(f(a) = f(b) \rightarrow a = b)$ or equivalently $\forall a \forall b(a \neq b \rightarrow f(a) \neq f(b))$, where the universe of discourse is the domain of the function.

Assessment

We illustrate this concept by giving examples of functions that are one-to-one and other functions that are not one-to-one.

EXAMPLE 8 Determine 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.

Extra Examples

Solution: The function f is one-to-one because f takes on different values at the four elements of its domain. This is illustrated in Figure 3. ◀

EXAMPLE 9 Determine whether the function $f(x) = x^2$ from the set of integers to the set of integers is one-to-one.

Solution: The function $f(x) = x^2$ is not one-to-one because, for instance, $f(1) = f(-1) = 1$, but $1 \neq -1$.

Note that the function $f(x) = x^2$ with its domain restricted to $\mathbf{Z}^+$ is one-to-one. (Technically, when we restrict the domain of a function, we obtain a new function whose values agree with those of the original function for the elements of the restricted domain. The restricted function is not defined for elements of the original domain outside of the restricted domain.) ◀

EXAMPLE 10 Determine whether the function $f(x) = x + 1$ from the set of real numbers to itself is one-to-one.

Solution: The function $f(x) = x + 1$ is a one-to-one function. To demonstrate this, note that $x + 1 \neq y + 1$ when $x \neq y$. ◀

EXAMPLE 11 Suppose that each worker in a group of employees is assigned a job from a set of possible jobs, each to be done by a single worker. In this situation, the function f that assigns a job to each worker is one-to-one. To see this, note that if x and y are two different workers, then $f(x) \neq f(y)$ because the two workers x and y must be assigned different jobs. ◀

We now give some conditions that guarantee that a function is one-to-one.

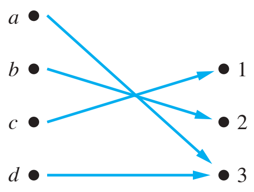


FIGURE 4 **An Onto Function.**

DEFINITION 6

A function f whose domain and codomain are subsets of the set of real numbers is called *increasing* if $f(x) \leq f(y)$, and *strictly increasing* if $f(x) < f(y)$, whenever $x < y$ and x and y are in the domain of f. Similarly, f is called *decreasing* if $f(x) \geq f(y)$, and *strictly decreasing* if $f(x) > f(y)$, whenever $x < y$ and x and y are in the domain of f. (The word *strictly* in this definition indicates a strict inequality.)

Remark: A function f is increasing if $\forall x \forall y (x < y \rightarrow f(x) \leq f(y))$, strictly increasing if $\forall x \forall y (x < y \rightarrow f(x) < f(y))$, decreasing if $\forall x \forall y (x < y \rightarrow f(x) \geq f(y))$, and strictly decreasing if $\forall x \forall y (x < y \rightarrow f(x) > f(y))$, where the universe of discourse is the domain of f.

From these definitions, it can be shown (see Exercises 26 and 27) that a function that is either strictly increasing or strictly decreasing must be one-to-one. However, a function that is increasing, but not strictly increasing, or decreasing, but not strictly decreasing, is not one-to-one.

For some functions the range and the codomain are equal. That is, every member of the codomain is the image of some element of the domain. Functions with this property are called **onto** functions.

DEFINITION 7

A function f from A to B is called *onto*, or a *surjection*, if and only if for every element $b \in B$ there is an element $a \in A$ with $f(a) = b$. A function f is called *surjective* if it is onto.

Remark: A function f is onto if $\forall y \exists x (f(x) = y)$, where the domain for x is the domain of the function and the domain for y is the codomain of the function.

We now give examples of onto functions and functions that are not onto.

EXAMPLE 12 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?

Extra Examples

Solution: Because all three elements of the codomain are images of elements in the domain, we see that f is onto. This is illustrated in Figure 4. Note that if the codomain were $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, then f would not be onto. ◀

EXAMPLE 13 Is the function $f(x) = x^2$ from the set of integers to the set of integers onto?

Solution: The function f is not onto because there is no integer x with $x^2 = -1$, for instance. ◀

EXAMPLE 14 Is the function $f(x) = x + 1$ from the set of integers to the set of integers onto?

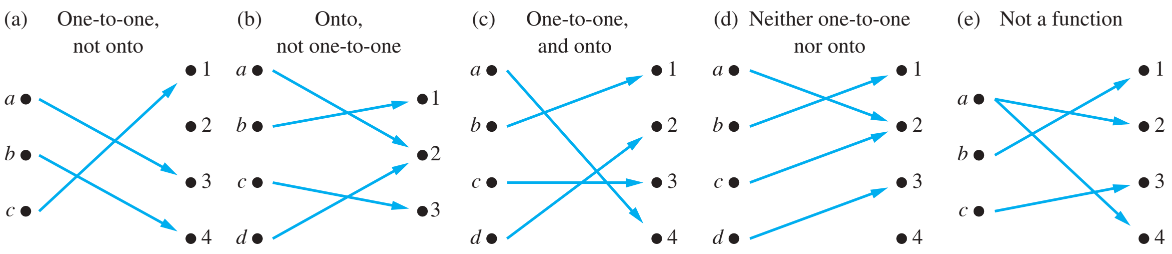


FIGURE 5 **Examples of Different Types of Correspondences.**

Solution: This function is onto, because for every integer y there is an integer x such that $f(x) = y$. To see this, note that $f(x) = y$ if and only if $x + 1 = y$, which holds if and only if $x = y - 1$. ◀

EXAMPLE 15 Consider the function f in Example 11 that assigns jobs to workers. The function f is onto if for every job there is a worker assigned this job. The function f is not onto when there is at least one job that has no worker assigned it. ◀

DEFINITION 8 The function f is a *one-to-one correspondence,* or a *bijection,* if it is both one-to-one and onto. We also say that such a function is *bijective*.

Examples 16 and 17 illustrate the concept of a bijection.

EXAMPLE 16 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 bijection?

Solution: The function f is one-to-one and onto. It is one-to-one because no two values in the domain are assigned the same function value. It is onto because all four elements of the codomain are images of elements in the domain. Hence, f is a bijection. ◀

Figure 5 displays four functions where the first is one-to-one but not onto, the second is onto but not one-to-one, the third is both one-to-one and onto, and the fourth is neither one-to-one nor onto. The fifth correspondence in Figure 5 is not a function, because it sends an element to two different elements.

Suppose that f is a function from a set A to itself. If A is finite, then f is one-to-one if and only if it is onto. (This follows from the result in Exercise 72.) This is not necessarily the case if A is infinite (as will be shown in Section 2.5).

EXAMPLE 17 Let A be a set. The *identity function* on A is the function $\iota_A : A \to A$, where

$$\iota_A(x) = x$$

for all $x \in A$. In other words, the identity function ι_A is the function that assigns each element to itself. The function ι_A is one-to-one and onto, so it is a bijection. (Note that ι is the Greek letter iota.) ◀

For future reference, we summarize what needs be to shown to establish whether a function is one-to-one and whether it is onto. It is instructive to review Examples 8–17 in light of this summary.

Suppose that $f : A \to B$.

To show that f is injective Show that if $f(x) = f(y)$ for arbitrary $x, y \in A$ with $x \neq y$, then $x = y$.

To show that f is not injective Find particular 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 f is not surjective Find a particular $y \in B$ such that $f(x) \neq y$ for all $x \in A$.

Inverse Functions and Compositions of Functions

Now consider a one-to-one correspondence f from the set A to the set B. Because f is an onto function, every element of B is the image of some element in A. Furthermore, because f is also a one-to-one function, every element of B is the image of a *unique* element of A. Consequently, we can define a new function from B to A that reverses the correspondence given by f. This leads to Definition 9.

DEFINITION 9 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 to an element b belonging to B the unique element a in A such that $f(a) = b$. The inverse function of f is denoted by f^{-1}. Hence, $f^{-1}(b) = a$ when $f(a) = b$.

Remark: Be sure not to confuse the function f^{-1} with the function $1/f$, which is the function that assigns to each x in the domain the value $1/f(x)$. Notice that the latter makes sense only when $f(x)$ is a non-zero real number.

Figure 6 illustrates the concept of an inverse function.

If a function f is not a one-to-one correspondence, we cannot define an inverse function of f. When f is not a one-to-one correspondence, either it is not one-to-one or it is not onto. If f is not one-to-one, some element b in the codomain is the image of more than one element in the domain. If f is not onto, for some element b in the codomain, no element a in the domain exists for which $f(a) = b$. Consequently, if f is not a one-to-one correspondence, we cannot assign to each element b in the codomain a unique element a in the domain such that $f(a) = b$ (because for some b there is either more than one such a or no such a).

A one-to-one correspondence is called **invertible** because we can define an inverse of this function. A function is **not invertible** if it is not a one-to-one correspondence, because the inverse of such a function does not exist.

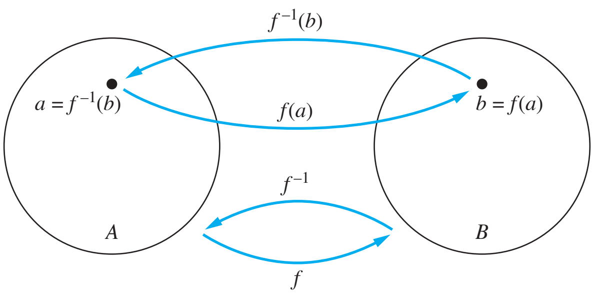


FIGURE 6 The Function f^{-1} Is the Inverse of Function f.

EXAMPLE 18 Let f be the function from $\{a, b, c\}$ to $\{1, 2, 3\}$ such that $f(a) = 2$, $f(b) = 3$, and $f(c) = 1$. Is f invertible, and if it is, what is its inverse?

Solution: The function f is invertible because it is a one-to-one correspondence. The inverse function f^{-1} reverses the correspondence given by f, so $f^{-1}(1) = c$, $f^{-1}(2) = a$, and $f^{-1}(3) = b$. ◀

EXAMPLE 19 Let $f : \mathbf{Z} \to \mathbf{Z}$ be such that $f(x) = x + 1$. Is f invertible, and if it is, what is its inverse?

Solution: The function f has an inverse because it is a one-to-one correspondence, as follows from Examples 10 and 14. To reverse the correspondence, 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 $\mathbf{Z}$ that is sent to y by f. Consequently, $f^{-1}(y) = y - 1$. ◀

EXAMPLE 20 Let f be the function from $\mathbf{R}$ to $\mathbf{R}$ with $f(x) = x^2$. Is f invertible?

Solution: Because $f(-2) = f(2) = 4$, f is not one-to-one. If an inverse function were defined, it would have to assign two elements to 4. Hence, f is not invertible. (Note we can also show that f is not invertible because it is not onto.) ◀

Sometimes we can restrict the domain or the codomain of a function, or both, to obtain an invertible function, as Example 21 illustrates.

EXAMPLE 21 Show that if we restrict the function $f(x) = x^2$ in Example 20 to a function from the set of all nonnegative real numbers to the set of all nonnegative real numbers, then f is invertible.

Solution: The function $f(x) = x^2$ from the set of nonnegative real numbers to the set of nonnegative real numbers is one-to-one. To see this, note that if $f(x) = f(y)$, then $x^2 = y^2$, so $x^2 - y^2 = (x + y)(x - y) = 0$. This means that $x + y = 0$ or $x - y = 0$, so $x = -y$ or $x = y$. Because both x and y are nonnegative, we must have $x = y$. So, this function is one-to-one. Furthermore, $f(x) = x^2$ is onto when the codomain is the set of all nonnegative real numbers, because each nonnegative real number has a square root. That is, if y is a nonnegative real number, there exists a nonnegative real number x such that $x = \sqrt{y}$, which means that $x^2 = y$. Because the function $f(x) = x^2$ from the set of nonnegative real numbers to the set of nonnegative real numbers is one-to-one and onto, it is invertible. Its inverse is given by the rule $f^{-1}(y) = \sqrt{y}$. ◀

DEFINITION 10 Let g be a function from the set A to the set B and let f be a function from the set B to the set C. The *composition* of the functions f and g, denoted for all $a \in A$ by $f \circ g$, is defined by

$$(f \circ g)(a) = f(g(a)).$$

In other words, $f \circ g$ is the function that assigns to the element a of A the element assigned by f to $g(a)$. That is, to find $(f \circ g)(a)$ we first apply the function g to a to obtain $g(a)$ and then we apply the function f to the result $g(a)$ to obtain $(f \circ g)(a) = f(g(a))$. Note that the composition $f \circ g$ cannot be defined unless the range of g is a subset of the domain of f. In Figure 7 the composition of functions is shown.

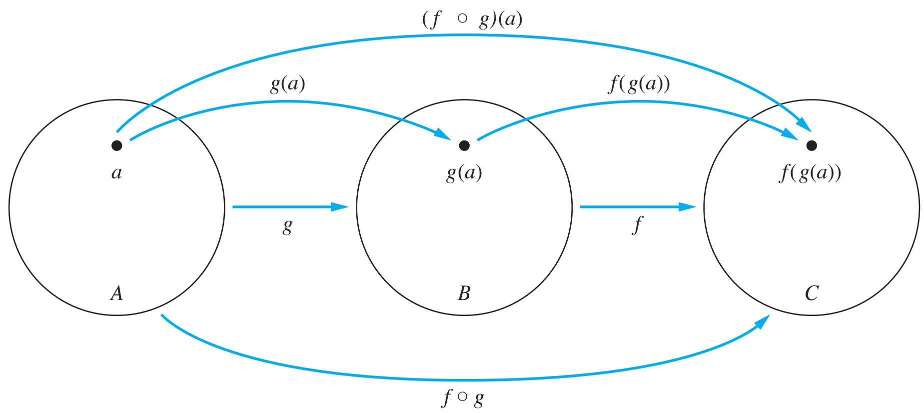


FIGURE 7 **The Composition of the Functions f and g.**

EXAMPLE 22 Let g be the function from the set $\{a, b, c\}$ to itself such that $g(a) = b$, $g(b) = c$, and $g(c) = a$. Let f be the function from the set $\{a, b, c\}$ to the set $\{1, 2, 3\}$ such that $f(a) = 3$, $f(b) = 2$, and $f(c) = 1$. What is the composition of f and g, and what is the composition of g and f?

Solution: The composition $f \circ g$ is defined by $(f \circ g)(a) = f(g(a)) = f(b) = 2$, $(f \circ g)\,(b) = f(g(b)) = f(c) = 1$, and $(f \circ g)(c) = f(g(c)) = f(a) = 3$.

Note that $g \circ f$ is not defined, because the range of f is not a subset of the domain of g. ◀

EXAMPLE 23 Let f and g be the functions from the set of integers to the set of integers defined by $f(x) = 2x + 3$ and $g(x) = 3x + 2$. What is the composition of f and g? What is the composition of g and f?

Solution: Both the compositions $f \circ g$ and $g \circ f$ are defined. Moreover,

$$(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x)) = f(3x + 2) = 2(3x + 2) + 3 = 6x + 7$$

and

$$(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) = g(2x + 3) = 3(2x + 3) + 2 = 6x + 11.$$ ◀

Remark: Note that even though $f \circ g$ and $g \circ f$ are defined for the functions f and g in Example 23, $f \circ g$ and $g \circ f$ are not equal. In other words, the commutative law does not hold for the composition of functions.

When the composition of a function and its inverse is formed, in either order, an identity function is obtained. To see this, suppose that f is a one-to-one correspondence from the set A to the set B. Then the inverse function f^{-1} exists and is a one-to-one correspondence from B to A. The inverse function reverses the correspondence of the original function, so $f^{-1}(b) = a$ when $f(a) = b$, and $f(a) = b$ when $f^{-1}(b) = a$. Hence,

$$(f^{-1} \circ f)(a) = f^{-1}(f(a)) = f^{-1}(b) = a,$$

and

$$(f \circ f^{-1})(b) = f(f^{-1}(b)) = f(a) = b.$$

Consequently $f^{-1} \circ f = \iota_A$ and $f \circ f^{-1} = \iota_B$, where ι_A and ι_B are the identity functions on the sets A and B, respectively. That is, $(f^{-1})^{-1} = f$.

The Graphs of Functions

We can associate a set of pairs in $A \times B$ to each function from A to B. This set of pairs is called the **graph** of the function and is often displayed pictorially to aid in understanding the behavior of the function.

DEFINITION 11 Let f be a function from the set A to the set B. The *graph* of the function f is the set of ordered pairs $\{(a, b) \mid a \in A \text{ and } f(a) = b\}$.

From the definition, the graph of a function f from A to B is the subset of $A \times B$ containing the ordered pairs with the second entry equal to the element of B assigned by f to the first entry. Also, note that the graph of a function f from A to B is the same as the relation from A to B determined by the function f, as described on page 139.

EXAMPLE 24 Display the graph of the function $f(n) = 2n + 1$ from the set of integers to the set of integers.

Solution: The graph of f is the set of ordered pairs of the form $(n, 2n + 1)$, where n is an integer. This graph is displayed in Figure 8. ◀

EXAMPLE 25 Display the graph of the function $f(x) = x^2$ from the set of integers to the set of integers.

Solution: The graph of f is the set of ordered pairs of the form $(x, f(x)) = (x, x^2)$, where x is an integer. This graph is displayed in Figure 9. ◀

Some Important Functions

Next, we introduce two important functions in discrete mathematics, namely, the floor and ceiling functions. Let x be a real number. The floor function rounds x down to the closest integer less than or equal to x, and the ceiling function rounds x up to the closest integer greater than or equal to x. These functions are often used when objects are counted. They play an important role in the analysis of the number of steps used by procedures to solve problems of a particular size.

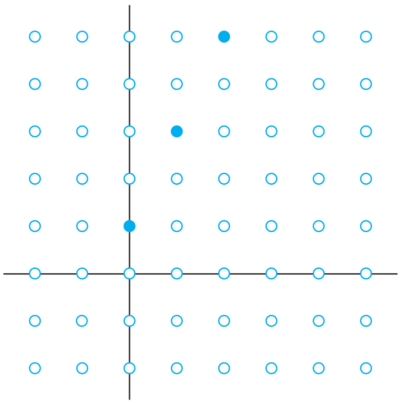


FIGURE 8 **The Graph of $f(n) = 2n + 1$ from Z to Z.**

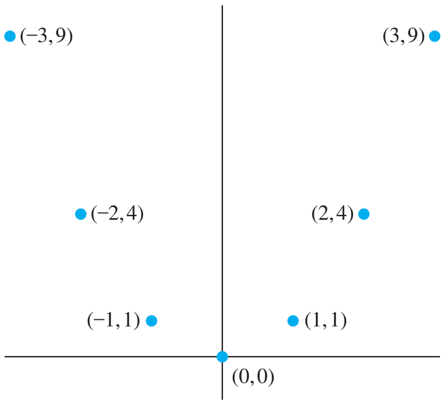


FIGURE 9 **The Graph of $f(x) = x^2$ from Z to Z.**

DEFINITION 12

The *floor function* assigns to the real number x the largest integer that is less than or equal to x. The value of the floor function at x is denoted by $\lfloor x \rfloor$. The *ceiling function* assigns to the real number x the smallest integer that is greater than or equal to x. The value of the ceiling function at x is denoted by $\lceil x \rceil$.

Remark: The floor function is often also called the *greatest integer function*. It is often denoted by $[x]$.

EXAMPLE 26 These are some values of the floor and ceiling functions:

$$\lfloor \tfrac{1}{2} \rfloor = 0,\ \lceil \tfrac{1}{2} \rceil = 1,\ \lfloor -\tfrac{1}{2} \rfloor = -1,\ \lceil -\tfrac{1}{2} \rceil = 0,\ \lfloor 3.1 \rfloor = 3,\ \lceil 3.1 \rceil = 4,\ \lfloor 7 \rfloor = 7,\ \lceil 7 \rceil = 7.$$ ◀

We display the graphs of the floor and ceiling functions in Figure 10. In Figure 10(a) we display the graph of the floor function $\lfloor x \rfloor$. Note that this function has the same value throughout the interval $[n, n+1)$, namely n, and then it jumps up to $n+1$ when $x = n+1$. In Figure 10(b) we display the graph of the ceiling function $\lceil x \rceil$. Note that this function has the same value throughout the interval $(n, n+1]$, namely $n+1$, and then jumps to $n+2$ when x is a little larger than $n+1$.

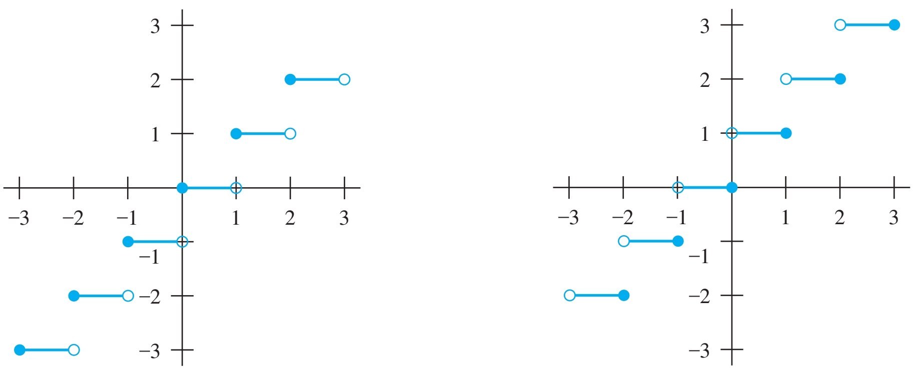
The floor and ceiling functions are useful in a wide variety of applications, including those involving data storage and data transmission. Consider Examples 27 and 28, typical of basic calculations done when database and data communications problems are studied.

EXAMPLE 27 Data stored on a computer disk or transmitted over a data network are usually represented as a string of bytes. Each byte is made up of 8 bits. How many bytes are required to encode 100 bits of data?

Solution: To determine the number of bytes needed, we determine the smallest integer that is at least as large as the quotient when 100 is divided by 8, the number of bits in a byte. Consequently, $\lceil 100/8 \rceil = \lceil 12.5 \rceil = 13$ bytes are required. ◀

EXAMPLE 28 In asynchronous transfer mode (ATM) (a communications protocol used on backbone networks), data are organized into cells of 53 bytes. How many ATM cells can be transmitted in 1 minute over a connection that transmits data at the rate of 500 kilobits per second?

Solution: In 1 minute, this connection can transmit $500{,}000 \cdot 60 = 30{,}000{,}000$ bits. Each ATM cell is 53 bytes long, which means that it is $53 \cdot 8 = 424$ bits long. To determine the number



(a) $y = \lfloor x \rfloor$ (b) $y = \lceil x \rceil$

FIGURE 10 **Graphs of the (a) Floor and (b) Ceiling Functions.**

TABLE 1 **Useful Properties of the Floor and Ceiling Functions.** (n is an integer, x is a real number)
(1a) $\lfloor x \rfloor = n$ if and only if $n \le x < n+1$
(1b) $\lceil x \rceil = n$ if and only if $n-1 < x \le n$
(1c) $\lfloor x \rfloor = n$ if and only if $x-1 < n \le x$
(1d) $\lceil x \rceil = n$ if and only if $x \le n < x+1$
(2) $x-1 < \lfloor x \rfloor \le x \le \lceil x \rceil < x+1$
(3a) $\lfloor -x \rfloor = -\lceil x \rceil$
(3b) $\lceil -x \rceil = -\lfloor x \rfloor$
(4a) $\lfloor x+n \rfloor = \lfloor x \rfloor + n$
(4b) $\lceil x+n \rceil = \lceil x \rceil + n$

of cells that can be transmitted in 1 minute, we determine the largest integer not exceeding the quotient when 30,000,000 is divided by 424. Consequently, $\lfloor 30{,}000{,}000/424 \rfloor = 70{,}754$ ATM cells can be transmitted in 1 minute over a 500 kilobit per second connection. ◀

Table 1, with x denoting a real number, displays some simple but important properties of the floor and ceiling functions. Because these functions appear so frequently in discrete mathematics, it is useful to look over these identities. Each property in this table can be established using the definitions of the floor and ceiling functions. Properties (1a), (1b), (1c), and (1d) follow directly from these definitions. For example, (1a) states that $\lfloor x \rfloor = n$ if and only if the integer n is less than or equal to x and $n+1$ is larger than x. This is precisely what it means for n to be the greatest integer not exceeding x, which is the definition of $\lfloor x \rfloor = n$. Properties (1b), (1c), and (1d) can be established similarly. We will prove property (4a) using a direct proof.

Proof: Suppose that $\lfloor x \rfloor = m$, where m is a positive integer. By property (1a), it follows that $m \le x < m+1$. Adding n to all three quantities in this chain of two inequalities shows that $m + n \le x + n < m + n + 1$. Using property (1a) again, we see that $\lfloor x+n \rfloor = m + n = \lfloor x \rfloor + n$. This completes the proof. Proofs of the other properties are left as exercises. ◁

The floor and ceiling functions enjoy many other useful properties besides those displayed in Table 1. There are also many statements about these functions that may appear to be correct, but actually are not. We will consider statements about the floor and ceiling functions in Examples 29 and 30.

A useful approach for considering statements about the floor function is to let $x = n + \epsilon$, where $n = \lfloor x \rfloor$ is an integer, and ϵ, the fractional part of x, satisfies the inequality $0 \le \epsilon < 1$. Similarly, when considering statements about the ceiling function, it is useful to write $x = n - \epsilon$, where $n = \lceil x \rceil$ is an integer and $0 \le \epsilon < 1$.

EXAMPLE 29 Prove that if x is a real number, then $\lfloor 2x \rfloor = \lfloor x \rfloor + \lfloor x + \frac{1}{2} \rfloor$.

Extra Examples

Solution: To prove this statement we let $x = n + \epsilon$, where n is an integer and $0 \le \epsilon < 1$. There are two cases to consider, depending on whether ϵ is less than, or greater than or equal to $\frac{1}{2}$. (The reason we choose these two cases will be made clear in the proof.)

We first consider the case when $0 \le \epsilon < \frac{1}{2}$. In this case, $2x = 2n + 2\epsilon$ and $\lfloor 2x \rfloor = 2n$ because $0 \le 2\epsilon < 1$. Similarly, $x + \frac{1}{2} = n + (\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon)$, so $\lfloor x + \frac{1}{2} \rfloor = n$, because $0 < \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon < 1$. Consequently, $\lfloor 2x \rfloor = 2n$ and $\lfloor x \rfloor + \lfloor x + \frac{1}{2} \rfloor = n + n = 2n$.

Next, we consider the case when $\frac{1}{2} \le \epsilon < 1$. In this case, $2x = 2n + 2\epsilon = (2n + 1) + (2\epsilon - 1)$. Because $0 \le 2\epsilon - 1 < 1$, it follows that $\lfloor 2x \rfloor = 2n + 1$. Because $\lfloor x + \frac{1}{2} \rfloor = \lfloor n + (\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon) \rfloor = \lfloor n + 1 + (\epsilon - \frac{1}{2}) \rfloor$ and $0 \le \epsilon - \frac{1}{2} < 1$, it follows that $\lfloor x + \frac{1}{2} \rfloor = n + 1$. Consequently, $\lfloor 2x \rfloor = 2n + 1$ and $\lfloor x \rfloor + \lfloor x + \frac{1}{2} \rfloor = n + (n + 1) = 2n + 1$. This concludes the proof. ◀

EXAMPLE 30 Prove or disprove that $\lceil x + y \rceil = \lceil x \rceil + \lceil y \rceil$ for all real numbers x and y.

Solution: Although this statement may appear reasonable, it is false. A counterexample is supplied by $x = \frac{1}{2}$ and $y = \frac{1}{2}$. With these values we find that $\lceil x + y \rceil = \lceil \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \rceil = \lceil 1 \rceil = 1$, but $\lceil x \rceil + \lceil y \rceil = \lceil \frac{1}{2} \rceil + \lceil \frac{1}{2} \rceil = 1 + 1 = 2$. ◀

There are certain types of functions that will be used throughout the text. These include polynomial, logarithmic, and exponential functions. A brief review of the properties of these functions needed in this text is given in Appendix 2. In this book the notation $\log x$ will be used to denote the logarithm to the base 2 of x, because 2 is the base that we will usually use for logarithms. We will denote logarithms to the base b, where b is any real number greater than 1, by $\log_b x$, and the natural logarithm by $\ln x$.

Another function we will use throughout this text is the f**actorial function** $f : \mathbf{N} \to \mathbf{Z}^+$, denoted by $f(n) = n!$. The value of $f(n) = n!$ is the product of the first n positive integers, so $f(n) = 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (n-1) \cdot n$ [and $f(0) = 0! = 1$].

EXAMPLE 31 We have $f(1) = 1! = 1$, $f(2) = 2! = 1 \cdot 2 = 2$, $f(6) = 6! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdot 6 = 720$, and $f(20) = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdot 6 \cdot 7 \cdot 8 \cdot 9 \cdot 10 \cdot 11 \cdot 12 \cdot 13 \cdot 14 \cdot 15 \cdot 16 \cdot 17 \cdot 18 \cdot 19 \cdot 20 =$ 2,432,902,008,176,640,000. ◀

Example 31 illustrates that the factorial function grows extremely rapidly as n grows. The rapid growth of the factorial function is made clearer by Stirling's formula, a result from higher mathematics that tell us that $n! \sim \sqrt{2\pi n}(n/e)^n$. Here, we have used the notation $f(n) \sim g(n)$, which means that the ratio $f(n)/g(n)$ approaches 1 as n grows without bound (that is, $\lim_{n\to\infty} f(n)/g(n) = 1$). The symbol $\sim$ is read "is asymptotic to." Stirling's formula is named after James Stirling, a Scottish mathematician of the eighteenth century.

Links

JAMES STIRLING (1692–1770) James Stirling was born near the town of Stirling, Scotland. His family strongly supported the Jacobite cause of the Stuarts as an alternative to the British crown. The first information known about James is that he entered Balliol College, Oxford, on a scholarship in 1711. However, he later lost his scholarship when he refused to pledge his allegiance to the British crown. The first Jacobean rebellion took place in 1715, and Stirling was accused of communicating with rebels. He was charged with cursing King George, but he was acquitted of these charges. Even though he could not graduate from Oxford because of his politics, he remained there for several years. Stirling published his first work, which extended Newton's work on plane curves, in 1717. He traveled to Venice, where a chair of mathematics had been promised to him, an appointment that unfortunately fell through. Nevertheless, Stirling stayed in Venice, continuing his mathematical work. He attended the University of Padua in 1721, and in 1722 he returned to Glasgow. Stirling apparently fled Italy after learning the secrets of the Italian glass industry, avoiding the efforts of Italian glass makers to assassinate him to protect their secrets.

In late 1724 Stirling moved to London, staying there 10 years teaching mathematics and actively engaging in research. In 1730 he published *Methodus Differentialis*, his most important work, presenting results on infinite series, summations, interpolation, and quadrature. It is in this book that his asymptotic formula for $n!$ appears. Stirling also worked on gravitation and the shape of the earth; he stated, but did not prove, that the earth is an oblate spheroid. Stirling returned to Scotland in 1735, when he was appointed manager of a Scottish mining company. He was very successful in this role and even published a paper on the ventilation of mine shafts. He continued his mathematical research, but at a reduced pace, during his years in the mining industry. Stirling is also noted for surveying the River Clyde with the goal of creating a series of locks to make it navigable. In 1752 the citizens of Glasgow presented him with a silver teakettle as a reward for this work.

Partial Functions

A program designed to evaluate a function may not produce the correct value of the function for all elements in the domain of this function. For example, a program may not produce a correct value because evaluating the function may lead to an infinite loop or an overflow. Similarly, in abstract mathematics, we often want to discuss functions that are defined only for a subset of the real numbers, such as $1/x$, $\sqrt{x}$, and $\arcsin(x)$. Also, we may want to use such notions as the "youngest child" function, which is undefined for a couple having no children, or the "time of sunrise," which is undefined for some days above the Arctic Circle. To study such situations, we use the concept of a partial function.

DEFINITION 13 A *partial function* f from a set A to a set B is an assignment to each element a in a subset of A, called the *domain of definition* of f, of a unique element b in B. The sets A and B are called the *domain* and *codomain* of f, respectively. We say that f is *undefined* for elements in A that are not in the domain of definition of f. When the domain of definition of f equals A, we say that f is a *total function*.

Remark: We write $f : A \to B$ to denote that f is a partial function from A to B. Note that this is the same notation as is used for functions. The context in which the notation is used determines whether f is a partial function or a total function.

EXAMPLE 32 The function $f : \mathbf{Z} \to \mathbf{R}$ where $f(n) = \sqrt{n}$ is a partial function from $\mathbf{Z}$ to $\mathbf{R}$ where the domain of definition is the set of nonnegative integers. Note that f is undefined for negative integers. ◀

Exercises

1. Why is f not a function from $\mathbf{R}$ to $\mathbf{R}$ if

a) $f(x) = 1/x$?

b) $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$?

c) $f(x) = \pm\sqrt{(x^2 + 1)}$?

2. Determine whether f is a function from $\mathbf{Z}$ to $\mathbf{R}$ if

a) $f(n) = \pm n$.

b) $f(n) = \sqrt{n^2 + 1}$.

c) $f(n) = 1/(n^2 - 4)$.

3. Determine whether f is a function from the set of all bit strings to the set of integers if

a) $f(S)$ is the position of a 0 bit in S.

b) $f(S)$ is the number of 1 bits in S.

c) $f(S)$ is the smallest integer i such that the ith bit of S is 1 and $f(S) = 0$ when S is the empty string, the string with no bits.

4. Find the domain and range of these functions. Note that in each case, to find the domain, determine the set of elements assigned values by the function.

a) the function that assigns to each nonnegative integer its last digit

b) the function that assigns the next largest integer to a positive integer

c) the function that assigns to a bit string the number of one bits in the string

d) the function that assigns to a bit string the number of bits in the string

5. Find the domain and range of these functions. Note that in each case, to find the domain, determine the set of elements assigned values by the function.

a) the function that assigns to each bit string the number of ones in the string minus the number of zeros in the string

b) the function that assigns to each bit string twice the number of zeros in that string

c) the function that assigns the number of bits left over when a bit string is split into bytes (which are blocks of 8 bits)

d) the function that assigns to each positive integer the largest perfect square not exceeding this integer

6. Find the domain and range of these functions.

a) the function that assigns to each pair of positive integers the first integer of the pair

b) the function that assigns to each positive integer its largest decimal digit

c) the function that assigns to a bit string the number of ones minus the number of zeros in the string

d) the function that assigns to each positive integer the largest integer not exceeding the square root of the integer

e) the function that assigns to a bit string the longest string of ones in the string

7. Find the domain and range of these functions.
   a) the function that assigns to each pair of positive integers the maximum of these two integers
   b) the function that assigns to each positive integer the number of the digits 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 that do not appear as decimal digits of the integer
   c) the function that assigns to a bit string the number of times the block 11 appears
   d) the function that assigns to a bit string the numerical position of the first 1 in the string and that assigns the value 0 to a bit string consisting of all 0s
8. Find these values.
   a) $\lfloor 1.1 \rfloor$
   b) $\lceil 1.1 \rceil$
   c) $\lfloor -0.1 \rfloor$
   d) $\lceil -0.1 \rceil$
   e) $\lceil 2.99 \rceil$
   f) $\lceil -2.99 \rceil$
   g) $\lfloor \frac{1}{2} + \lceil \frac{1}{2} \rceil \rfloor$
   h) $\lceil \lfloor \frac{1}{2} \rfloor + \lceil \frac{1}{2} \rceil + \frac{1}{2} \rceil$
9. Find these values.
   a) $\lceil \frac{3}{4} \rceil$
   b) $\lfloor \frac{7}{8} \rfloor$
   c) $\lceil -\frac{3}{4} \rceil$
   d) $\lfloor -\frac{7}{8} \rfloor$
   e) $\lceil 3 \rceil$
   f) $\lfloor -1 \rfloor$
   g) $\lfloor \frac{1}{2} + \lceil \frac{3}{2} \rceil \rfloor$
   h) $\lfloor \frac{1}{2} \cdot \lfloor \frac{5}{2} \rfloor \rfloor$
10. Determine whether each of these functions from $\{a, b, c, d\}$ to itself is one-to-one.
    a) $f(a) = b,\ f(b) = a,\ f(c) = c,\ f(d) = d$
    b) $f(a) = b,\ f(b) = b,\ f(c) = d,\ f(d) = c$
    c) $f(a) = d,\ f(b) = b,\ f(c) = c,\ f(d) = d$
11. Which functions in Exercise 10 are onto?
12. Determine whether each of these functions from $\mathbf{Z}$ to $\mathbf{Z}$ is one-to-one.
    a) $f(n) = n - 1$
    b) $f(n) = n^2 + 1$
    c) $f(n) = n^3$
    d) $f(n) = \lceil n/2 \rceil$
13. Which functions in Exercise 12 are onto?
14. Determine whether $f\colon \mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z} \to \mathbf{Z}$ is onto if
    a) $f(m, n) = 2m - n$.
    b) $f(m, n) = m^2 - n^2$.
    c) $f(m, n) = m + n + 1$.
    d) $f(m, n) = |m| - |n|$.
    e) $f(m, n) = m^2 - 4$.
15. Determine whether the function $f\colon \mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z} \to \mathbf{Z}$ is onto if
    a) $f(m, n) = m + n$.
    b) $f(m, n) = m^2 + n^2$.
    c) $f(m, n) = m$.
    d) $f(m, n) = |n|$.
    e) $f(m, n) = m - n$.
16. Consider these functions from the set of students in a discrete mathematics class. Under what conditions is the function one-to-one if it assigns to a student his or her
    a) mobile phone number.
    b) student identification number.
    c) final grade in the class.
    d) home town.
17. Consider these functions from the set of teachers in a school. Under what conditions is the function one-to-one if it assigns to a teacher his or her
    a) office.
    b) assigned bus to chaperone in a group of buses taking students on a field trip.
    c) salary.
    d) social security number.
18. Specify a codomain for each of the functions in Exercise 16. Under what conditions is each of these functions with the codomain you specified onto?
19. Specify a codomain for each of the functions in Exercise 17. Under what conditions is each of the functions with the codomain you specified onto?
20. Give an example of a function from $\mathbf{N}$ to $\mathbf{N}$ that is
    a) one-to-one but not onto.
    b) onto but not one-to-one.
    c) both onto and one-to-one (but different from the identity function).
    d) neither one-to-one nor onto.
21. Give an explicit formula for a function from the set of integers to the set of positive integers that is
    a) one-to-one, but not onto.
    b) onto, but not one-to-one.
    c) one-to-one and onto.
    d) neither one-to-one nor onto.
22. Determine whether each of these functions is a bijection from $\mathbf{R}$ to $\mathbf{R}$.
    a) $f(x) = -3x + 4$
    b) $f(x) = -3x^2 + 7$
    c) $f(x) = (x + 1)/(x + 2)$
    d) $f(x) = x^5 + 1$
23. Determine whether each of these functions is a bijection from $\mathbf{R}$ to $\mathbf{R}$.
    a) $f(x) = 2x + 1$
    b) $f(x) = x^2 + 1$
    c) $f(x) = x^3$
    d) $f(x) = (x^2 + 1)/(x^2 + 2)$
24. Let $f\colon \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ and let $f(x) > 0$ for all $x \in \mathbf{R}$. Show that $f(x)$ is strictly increasing if and only if the function $g(x) = 1/f(x)$ is strictly decreasing.
25. Let $f\colon \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ and let $f(x) > 0$ for all $x \in \mathbf{R}$. Show that $f(x)$ is strictly decreasing if and only if the function $g(x) = 1/f(x)$ is strictly increasing.
26. a) Prove that a strictly increasing function from $\mathbf{R}$ to itself is one-to-one.
    b) Give an example of an increasing function from $\mathbf{R}$ to itself that is not one-to-one.
27. a) Prove that a strictly decreasing function from $\mathbf{R}$ to itself is one-to-one.
    b) Give an example of a decreasing function from $\mathbf{R}$ to itself that is not one-to-one.
28. Show that the function $f(x) = e^x$ from the set of real numbers to the set of real numbers is not invertible, but if the codomain is restricted to the set of positive real numbers, the resulting function is invertible.

29. Show that the function $f(x) = |x|$ from the set of real numbers to the set of nonnegative real numbers is not invertible, but if the domain is restricted to the set of nonnegative real numbers, the resulting function is invertible.

30. Let $S = \{-1, 0, 2, 4, 7\}$. Find $f(S)$ if
   a) $f(x) = 1$.
   b) $f(x) = 2x + 1$.
   c) $f(x) = \lceil x/5 \rceil$.
   d) $f(x) = \lfloor (x^2 + 1)/3 \rfloor$.

31. Let $f(x) = \lfloor x^2/3 \rfloor$. Find $f(S)$ if
   a) $S = \{-2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3\}$.
   b) $S = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$.
   c) $S = \{1, 5, 7, 11\}$.
   d) $S = \{2, 6, 10, 14\}$.

32. Let $f(x) = 2x$ where the domain is the set of real numbers. What is
   a) $f(\mathbf{Z})$?
   b) $f(\mathbf{N})$?
   c) $f(\mathbf{R})$?

33. Suppose that g is a function from A to B and f is a function from B to C.
   a) Show that if both f and g are one-to-one functions, then $f \circ g$ is also one-to-one.
   b) Show that if both f and g are onto functions, then $f \circ g$ is also onto.

*34. If f and $f \circ g$ are one-to-one, does it follow that g is one-to-one? Justify your answer.

*35. If f and $f \circ g$ are onto, does it follow that g is onto? Justify your answer.

36. Find $f \circ g$ and $g \circ f$, where $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ and $g(x) = x + 2$, are functions from $\mathbf{R}$ to $\mathbf{R}$.

37. Find $f + g$ and fg for the functions f and g given in Exercise 36.

38. Let $f(x) = ax + b$ and $g(x) = cx + d$, where a, b, c, and d are constants. Determine necessary and sufficient conditions on the constants a, b, c, and d so that $f \circ g = g \circ f$.

39. Show that the function $f(x) = ax + b$ from $\mathbf{R}$ to $\mathbf{R}$ is invertible, where a and b are constants, with $a \neq 0$, and find the inverse of f.

40. Let f be a function from the set A to the set B. Let S and T be subsets of A. Show that
   a) $f(S \cup T) = f(S) \cup f(T)$.
   b) $f(S \cap T) \subseteq f(S) \cap f(T)$.

41. a) Give an example to show that the inclusion in part (b) in Exercise 40 may be proper.
   b) Show that if f is one-to-one, the inclusion in part (b) in Exercise 40 is an equality.

Let f be a function from the set A to the set B. Let S be a subset of B. We define the **inverse image** of S to be the subset of A whose elements are precisely all pre-images of all elements of S. We denote the inverse image of S by $f^{-1}(S)$, so $f^{-1}(S) = \{a \in A \mid f(a) \in S\}$. (*Beware:* The notation f^{-1} is used in two different ways. Do not confuse the notation introduced here with the notation $f^{-1}(y)$ for the value at y of the inverse of the invertible function f. Notice also that $f^{-1}(S)$, the inverse image of the set S, makes sense for all functions f, not just invertible functions.)

42. Let f be the function from $\mathbf{R}$ to $\mathbf{R}$ defined by $f(x) = x^2$. Find
   a) $f^{-1}(\{1\})$.
   b) $f^{-1}(\{x \mid 0 < x < 1\})$.
   c) $f^{-1}(\{x \mid x > 4\})$.

43. Let $g(x) = \lfloor x \rfloor$. Find
   a) $g^{-1}(\{0\})$.
   b) $g^{-1}(\{-1, 0, 1\})$.
   c) $g^{-1}(\{x \mid 0 < x < 1\})$.

44. Let f be a function from A to B. Let S and T be subsets of B. Show that
   a) $f^{-1}(S \cup T) = f^{-1}(S) \cup f^{-1}(T)$.
   b) $f^{-1}(S \cap T) = f^{-1}(S) \cap f^{-1}(T)$.

45. Let f be a function from A to B. Let S be a subset of B. Show that $f^{-1}(\overline{S}) = \overline{f^{-1}(S)}$.

46. Show that $\lfloor x + \frac{1}{2} \rfloor$ is the closest integer to the number x, except when x is midway between two integers, when it is the larger of these two integers.

47. Show that $\lceil x - \frac{1}{2} \rceil$ is the closest integer to the number x, except when x is midway between two integers, when it is the smaller of these two integers.

48. Show that if x is a real number, then $\lceil x \rceil - \lfloor x \rfloor = 1$ if x is not an integer and $\lceil x \rceil - \lfloor x \rfloor = 0$ if x is an integer.

49. Show that if x is a real number, then $x - 1 < \lfloor x \rfloor \leq x \leq \lceil x \rceil < x + 1$.

50. Show that if x is a real number and m is an integer, then $\lceil x + m \rceil = \lceil x \rceil + m$.

51. Show that if x is a real number and n is an integer, then
   a) $x < n$ if and only if $\lfloor x \rfloor < n$.
   b) $n < x$ if and only if $n < \lceil x \rceil$.

52. Show that if x is a real number and n is an integer, then
   a) $x \leq n$ if and only if $\lceil x \rceil \leq n$.
   b) $n \leq x$ if and only if $n \leq \lfloor x \rfloor$.

53. Prove that if n is an integer, then $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor = n/2$ if n is even and $(n - 1)/2$ if n is odd.

54. Prove that if x is a real number, then $\lfloor -x \rfloor = -\lceil x \rceil$ and $\lceil -x \rceil = -\lfloor x \rfloor$.

55. The function INT is found on some calculators, where $\text{INT}(x) = \lfloor x \rfloor$ when x is a nonnegative real number and $\text{INT}(x) = \lceil x \rceil$ when x is a negative real number. Show that this INT function satisfies the identity $\text{INT}(-x) = -\text{INT}(x)$.

56. Let a and b be real numbers with $a < b$. Use the floor and/or ceiling functions to express the number of integers n that satisfy the inequality $a \leq n \leq b$.

57. Let a and b be real numbers with $a < b$. Use the floor and/or ceiling functions to express the number of integers n that satisfy the inequality $a < n < b$.

58. How many bytes are required to encode n bits of data where n equals
   a) 4?
   b) 10?
   c) 500?
   d) 3000?

59. How many bytes are required to encode n bits of data where n equals

a) 7? **b)** 17? **c)** 1001? **d)** 28,800?

60. How many ATM cells (described in Example 28) can be transmitted in 10 seconds over a link operating at the following rates?

a) 128 kilobits per second (1 kilobit = 1000 bits)
b) 300 kilobits per second
c) 1 megabit per second (1 megabit = 1,000,000 bits)

61. Data are transmitted over a particular Ethernet network in blocks of 1500 octets (blocks of 8 bits). How many blocks are required to transmit the following amounts of data over this Ethernet network? (Note that a byte is a synonym for an octet, a kilobyte is 1000 bytes, and a megabyte is 1,000,000 bytes.)

a) 150 kilobytes of data
b) 384 kilobytes of data
c) 1.544 megabytes of data
d) 45.3 megabytes of data

62. Draw the graph of the function $f(n) = 1 - n^2$ from **Z** to **Z**.

63. Draw the graph of the function $f(x) = \lfloor 2x \rfloor$ from **R** to **R**.

64. Draw the graph of the function $f(x) = \lfloor x/2 \rfloor$ from **R** to **R**.

65. Draw the graph of the function $f(x) = \lfloor x \rfloor + \lfloor x/2 \rfloor$ from **R** to **R**.

66. Draw the graph of the function $f(x) = \lceil x \rceil + \lfloor x/2 \rfloor$ from **R** to **R**.

67. Draw graphs of each of these functions.

a) $f(x) = \lfloor x + \frac{1}{2} \rfloor$ **b)** $f(x) = \lfloor 2x + 1 \rfloor$
c) $f(x) = \lceil x/3 \rceil$ **d)** $f(x) = \lceil 1/x \rceil$
e) $f(x) = \lceil x - 2 \rceil + \lfloor x + 2 \rfloor$
f) $f(x) = \lfloor 2x \rfloor \lceil x/2 \rceil$ **g)** $f(x) = \lceil \lfloor x - \frac{1}{2} \rfloor + \frac{1}{2} \rceil$

68. Draw graphs of each of these functions.

a) $f(x) = \lceil 3x - 2 \rceil$ **b)** $f(x) = \lceil 0.2x \rceil$
c) $f(x) = \lfloor -1/x \rfloor$ **d)** $f(x) = \lfloor x^2 \rfloor$
e) $f(x) = \lceil x/2 \rceil \lfloor x/2 \rfloor$ **f)** $f(x) = \lfloor x/2 \rfloor + \lceil x/2 \rfloor$
g) $f(x) = \lfloor 2 \lceil x/2 \rceil + \frac{1}{2} \rfloor$

69. Find the inverse function of $f(x) = x^3 + 1$.

70. Suppose that f is an invertible function from Y to Z and g is an invertible function from X to Y. Show that the inverse of the composition $f \circ g$ is given by $(f \circ g)^{-1} = g^{-1} \circ f^{-1}$.

71. Let S be a subset of a universal set U. The **characteristic function** f_S of S is the function from U to the set $\{0, 1\}$ such that $f_S(x) = 1$ if x belongs to S and $f_S(x) = 0$ if x does not belong to S. Let A and B be sets. Show that for all $x \in U$,

a) $f_{A \cap B}(x) = f_A(x) \cdot f_B(x)$
b) $f_{A \cup B}(x) = f_A(x) + f_B(x) - f_A(x) \cdot f_B(x)$
c) $f_{\overline{A}}(x) = 1 - f_A(x)$
d) $f_{A \oplus B}(x) = f_A(x) + f_B(x) - 2 f_A(x) f_B(x)$

☞ **72.** Suppose that f is a function from A to B, where A and B are finite sets with $|A| = |B|$. Show that f is one-to-one if and only if it is onto.

73. Prove or disprove each of these statements about the floor and ceiling functions.

a) $\lceil \lfloor x \rfloor \rceil = \lfloor x \rfloor$ for all real numbers x.
b) $\lfloor 2x \rfloor = 2 \lfloor x \rfloor$ whenever x is a real number.
c) $\lceil x \rceil + \lceil y \rceil - \lceil x + y \rceil = 0$ or 1 whenever x and y are real numbers.
d) $\lceil xy \rceil = \lceil x \rceil \lceil y \rceil$ for all real numbers x and y.
e) $\left\lceil \frac{x}{2} \right\rceil = \left\lfloor \frac{x+1}{2} \right\rfloor$ for all real numbers x.

74. Prove or disprove each of these statements about the floor and ceiling functions.

a) $\lfloor \lceil x \rceil \rfloor = \lceil x \rceil$ for all real numbers x.
b) $\lfloor x + y \rfloor = \lfloor x \rfloor + \lfloor y \rfloor$ for all real numbers x and y.
c) $\lceil \lceil x/2 \rceil /2 \rceil = \lceil x/4 \rceil$ for all real numbers x.
d) $\lfloor \sqrt{\lceil x \rceil} \rfloor = \lfloor \sqrt{x} \rfloor$ for all positive real numbers x.
e) $\lfloor x \rfloor + \lfloor y \rfloor + \lfloor x + y \rfloor \le \lfloor 2x \rfloor + \lfloor 2y \rfloor$ for all real numbers x and y.

75. Prove that if x is a positive real number, then

a) $\lfloor \sqrt{\lfloor x \rfloor} \rfloor = \lfloor \sqrt{x} \rfloor$.
b) $\lceil \sqrt{\lceil x \rceil} \rceil = \lceil \sqrt{x} \rceil$.

76. Let x be a real number. Show that $\lfloor 3x \rfloor = \lfloor x \rfloor + \lfloor x + \frac{1}{3} \rfloor + \lfloor x + \frac{2}{3} \rfloor$.

77. For each of these partial functions, determine its domain, codomain, domain of definition, and the set of values for which it is undefined. Also, determine whether it is a total function.

a) $f : \mathbf{Z} \to \mathbf{R}$, $f(n) = 1/n$
b) $f : \mathbf{Z} \to \mathbf{Z}$, $f(n) = \lceil n/2 \rceil$
c) $f : \mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z} \to \mathbf{Q}$, $f(m, n) = m/n$
d) $f : \mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z} \to \mathbf{Z}$, $f(m, n) = mn$
e) $f : \mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z} \to \mathbf{Z}$, $f(m, n) = m - n$ if $m > n$

78. a) Show that a partial function from A to B can be viewed as a function f^* from A to $B \cup \{u\}$, where u is not an element of B and

$$f^*(a) = \begin{cases} f(a) & \text{if } a \text{ belongs to the domain} \\ & \text{of definition of } f \\ u & \text{if } f \text{ is undefined at } a. \end{cases}$$

b) Using the construction in (a), find the function f^* corresponding to each partial function in Exercise 77.

☞ **79. a)** Show that if a set S has cardinality m, where m is a positive integer, then there is a one-to-one correspondence between S and the set $\{1, 2, \ldots, m\}$.

b) Show that if S and T are two sets each with m elements, where m is a positive integer, then there is a one-to-one correspondence between S and T.

***80.** Show that a set S is infinite if and only if there is a proper subset A of S such that there is a one-to-one correspondence between A and S.