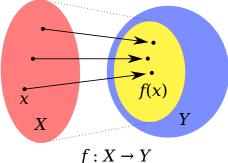
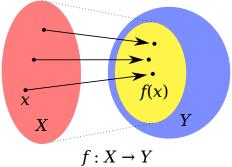


Suppose we are given some sets X and Y and a function $f \subseteq X \times Y$.



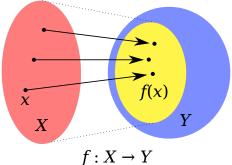
Suppose we are given some sets X and Y and a function $f \subseteq X \times Y$.



• The set X is called the domain of the function f

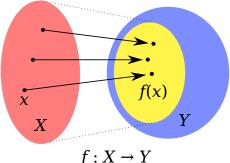
Image from Wikipedia

Suppose we are given some sets X and Y and a function $f \subseteq X \times Y$.



- The set X is called the domain of the function f
- The set Y is called the codomain (or range) of the function f

Suppose we are given some sets X and Y and a function $f \subseteq X \times Y$.



- The set X is called the domain of the function f
- The set Y is called the codomain (or range) of the function f
- ullet The subset of the codomain Y containing elements mapped-to by f is called the image of the function f

Image from Wikipedia

Domain, codomain and image: example

For example, consider the two functions $sq, db \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ defined as

- $sq \triangleq (\lambda x \in \mathbb{Z} \cdot x^2)$
- $db \triangleq (\lambda x \in \mathbb{Z} \cdot 2 * x)$

Domain, codomain and image: example

For example, consider the two functions $sq, db \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ defined as

- $sq \triangleq (\lambda x \in \mathbb{Z} \cdot x^2)$
- $db \triangleq (\lambda x \in \mathbb{Z} \cdot 2 * x)$

In each case the domain and codomain is the set \mathbb{Z} , but

- The image of sq is the set $\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n^2\}$ = $\{0, 1, 4, 9, 16, \ldots\}$
- The image of db is the set $\{n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid 2*n\}$ = $\{\ldots, -6, -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, 6, \ldots\}$

For any sets sets X and Y and a function $f \subseteq X \times Y$, we say that the function f is:

• injective (one-to-one) if each element in the image is mapped to by *just one* element in the domain; that is, if

$$(\forall x, y \cdot (x \in X \land y \in X \land f(x) = f(y)) \rightarrow x = y)$$

For any sets sets X and Y and a function $f \subseteq X \times Y$, we say that the function f is:

• injective (one-to-one) if each element in the image is mapped to by *just one* element in the domain; that is, if

$$(\forall x, y \cdot (x \in X \land y \in X \land f(x) = f(y)) \rightarrow x = y)$$

Thus the *inverse* of an injective function is always a function (from the image to the domain).

For any sets sets X and Y and a function $f \subseteq X \times Y$, we say that the function f is:

• injective (one-to-one) if each element in the image is mapped to by *just one* element in the domain; that is, if

$$(\forall x, y \cdot (x \in X \land y \in X \land f(x) = f(y)) \rightarrow x = y)$$

 surjective (onto) if each element in the codomain is mapped to by at least one element in the domain; that is, if

$$(\forall z \cdot z \in Y \to (\exists x \cdot x \in X \land f(x) = z))$$

For any sets sets X and Y and a function $f \subseteq X \times Y$, we say that the function f is:

• injective (one-to-one) if each element in the image is mapped to by *just one* element in the domain; that is, if

$$(\forall x, y \cdot (x \in X \land y \in X \land f(x) = f(y)) \rightarrow x = y)$$

• surjective (onto) if each element in the codomain is mapped to by at least one element in the domain; that is, if

$$(\forall z \cdot z \in Y \to (\exists x \cdot x \in X \land f(x) = z))$$

For a surjective function the image is the whole codomain.

For any sets sets X and Y and a function $f \subseteq X \times Y$, we say that the function f is:

• injective (one-to-one) if each element in the image is mapped to by *just one* element in the domain; that is, if

$$(\forall x, y \cdot (x \in X \land y \in X \land f(x) = f(y)) \rightarrow x = y)$$

 surjective (onto) if each element in the codomain is mapped to by at least one element in the domain; that is, if

$$(\forall z \cdot z \in Y \to (\exists x \cdot x \in X \land f(x) = z))$$

• bijective if it is both injective and surjective.

For any sets sets X and Y and a function $f \subseteq X \times Y$, we say that the function f is:

• injective (one-to-one) if each element in the image is mapped to by *just one* element in the domain; that is, if

$$(\forall x, y \cdot (x \in X \land y \in X \land f(x) = f(y)) \rightarrow x = y)$$

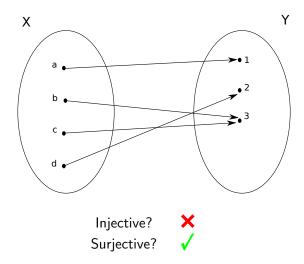
• surjective (onto) if each element in the codomain is mapped to by at least one element in the domain; that is, if

$$(\forall z \cdot z \in Y \to (\exists x \cdot x \in X \land f(x) = z))$$

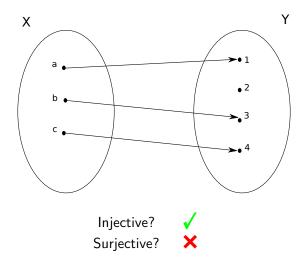
• bijective if it is both injective and surjective.

Thus if there is a bijection between two sets, then those sets have the same number of elements.

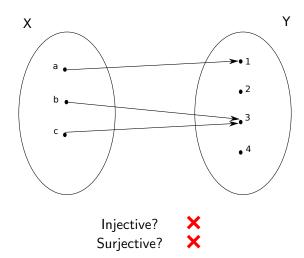
Example: Surjective but not injective



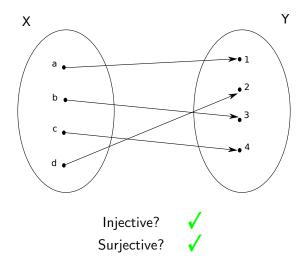
Example: Injective but not surjective



Example: Neither injective nor surjective



Example: Both injective and surjective (so, bijective)



Consider the function from the variable names $\{a,b,c\}$ to the objects on the heap created by the following Java code:

```
Person a = new Person("Tom");
Person b = new Person("Dick");
Person c = new Person("Harry");
```

Consider the function from the variable names {a,b,c} to the objects on the heap created by the following Java code:

```
Person a = new Person("Tom");
Person b = new Person("Dick");
Person c = new Person("Harry");
```

• There is a bijective function from the variable names {a,b,c} to the three objects on the heap.

Consider the function from the variable names {a,b,c} to the objects on the heap created by the following Java code:

```
Person a = new Person("Tom");
Person b = new Person("Dick");
Person c = b;
```

Consider the function from the variable names {a,b,c} to the objects on the heap created by the following Java code:

```
Person a = new Person("Tom");
Person b = new Person("Dick");
Person c = b;
```

• There is now a surjective (but not injective) function from the variable names {a,b,c} to the *two* objects on the heap.

Consider the function from the variable names $\{a,b,c\}$ to the objects on the heap created by the following Java code:

```
Person a = new Person("Tom");
Person b = new Person("Dick");
Person c = new Person("Harry");
c = new Person("Fred");
```

Consider the function from the variable names $\{a,b,c\}$ to the objects on the heap created by the following Java code:

```
Person a = new Person("Tom");
Person b = new Person("Dick");
Person c = new Person("Harry");
c = new Person("Fred");
```

• There is an injective (but not surjective) function from the variable names {a,b,c} to the *four* objects on the heap.

Consider the function from the variable names $\{a,b,c\}$ to the objects on the heap created by the following Java code:

```
Person a = new Person("Tom");
Person b = new Person("Dick");
Person c = new Person("Harry");
c = new Person("Fred");
```

- There is an injective (but not surjective) function from the variable names {a,b,c} to the *four* objects on the heap.
- Calling the garbage collector would make this function surjective again.

Injective: Hash Tables Example

- Hash tables are a data structure used to map keys to values.
- Like an array, except the index (key) can be of any type.
 Sometimes called an associative array (or, if the keys are strings, a dictionary).
- To implement this, you need a hash function that maps the key type to an integer.

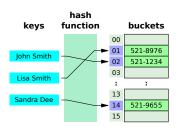


Image from Wikipedia

Injective: Hash Tables Example

- Hash tables are a data structure used to map keys to values.
- Like an array, except the index (key) can be of any type.
 Sometimes called an associative array (or, if the keys are strings, a dictionary).
- To implement this, you need a hash function that maps the key type to an integer.

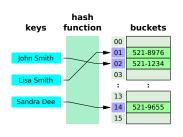


Image from Wikipedia

- Ideally, the hash function would be injective.
- When it's not injective, you get collisions.

• Typically in mathematics we assume that a function maps *all* the elements in the domain to an element in the codomain.

- Typically in mathematics we assume that a function maps all the elements in the domain to an element in the codomain.
- In certain cases we may want to allow *some* elements not to be mapped: this is known as a partial function. For example:

$$reciprocal \triangleq (\lambda \ a \in \mathbb{Z} \mid a \neq 0 \cdot 1/a)$$

 We can always make a partial function into a total function by restricting the domain to just those elements that are mapped from.

$$(\lambda a \in (\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}) \cdot 1/a)$$

- Typically in mathematics we assume that a function maps all the elements in the domain to an element in the codomain.
- In certain cases we may want to allow *some* elements not to be mapped: this is known as a partial function. For example:

$$reciprocal \triangleq (\lambda \ a \in \mathbb{Z} \mid a \neq 0 \cdot 1/a)$$

• We can always make a partial function into a total function by restricting the domain to just those elements that are mapped from.

$$(\lambda a \in (\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}) \cdot 1/a)$$

- assuming we have some way of deciding which elements of the domain it won't work for...

Partial functions in CS

 Partial functions are interesting in Computer Science where we might have to allow for a method to be non-halting (e.g. because of an infinite loop).

```
int fact(int n) {
  if (n==0) return 1;
  else return n * fact(n-1);
}
```

• What is fact(-1)?

Partial functions in CS

 Partial functions are interesting in Computer Science where we might have to allow for a method to be non-halting (e.g. because of an infinite loop).

```
int fact(int n) {
  if (n==0) return 1;
  else return n * fact(n-1);
}
```

• What is fact(-1)?



Theorem: It is not possible to write a code-analyser that will detect in advance whether *any* function is total or partial (i.e. whether it will halt or not).

- Halting Problem, Alan Turing, 1936

Example: classifying functions

Consider the set

$$\{0,1\}\times\{0,1\}=\{(0,0),(0,1),(1,0),(1,1)\}$$

Example: classifying functions

Consider the set

$$\{0,1\} \times \{0,1\} = \{(0,0),(0,1),(1,0),(1,1)\}$$

There are 16 possible *subsets* of this set, thus 16 possible relations whose domain and codomain are the set $\{0,1\}$.

Consider the set

$$\{0,1\} \times \{0,1\} = \{(0,0),(0,1),(1,0),(1,1)\}$$

- 1 relation of size 0
- 4 relations of size 1
- 6 relations of size 2
- 4 relations of size 3
- 1 relation of size 4

Consider the set

$$\{0,1\} \times \{0,1\} = \{(0,0),(0,1),(1,0),(1,1)\}$$

- 1 relation of size 0 is a (partial) function
- 4 relations of size 1 all are (partial) functions
- 6 relations of size 2
- 4 relations of size 3
- 1 relation of size 4

Consider the set

$$\{0,1\} \times \{0,1\} = \{(0,0),(0,1),(1,0),(1,1)\}$$

- 1 relation of size 0 is a (partial) function
- 4 relations of size 1 all are (partial) functions
- 6 relations of size 2
- 4 relations of size 3 none are functions
- 1 relation of size 4 not a function

Consider the set

$$\{0,1\} \times \{0,1\} = \{(0,0),(0,1),(1,0),(1,1)\}$$

- 1 relation of size 0 is a (partial) function
- 4 relations of size 1 all are (partial) functions
- 6 relations of size 2 only 4 are functions
- 4 relations of size 3 none are functions
- 1 relation of size 4 not a function

Function	Total	Injective	Surjective	Bijective
{}				
$\{(0,0)\}\$ $\{(0,1)\}\$ $\{(1,0)\}\$ $\{(1,1)\}\$				
$\{(0,0),(1,0)\}$ $\{(0,0),(1,1)\}$ $\{(0,1),(1,0)\}$ $\{(0,1),(1,1)\}$				

Function	Total	Injective	Surjective	Bijective
{}	×	✓	×	×
$\{(0,0)\}\$ $\{(0,1)\}\$ $\{(1,0)\}\$ $\{(1,1)\}$				
$\{(0,0),(1,0)\}$ $\{(0,0),(1,1)\}$ $\{(0,1),(1,0)\}$ $\{(0,1),(1,1)\}$				

Function	Total	Injective	Surjective	Bijective
{}	×	✓	×	×
{(0,0)}	×	✓	×	×
$\{(0,1)\}$	×	✓	×	×
$\{(1,0)\}$	×	✓	×	×
$\{(1,1)\}$	×	✓	×	×
$\{(0,0),(1,0)\}$				
$\{(0,0),(1,1)\}$				
$\{(0,1),(1,0)\}$				
$\{(0,1),(1,1)\}$				

Function	Total	Injective	Surjective	Bijective
{}	×	✓	×	×
$\{(0,0)\}$	×	✓	×	×
$\{(0,1)\}$	×	✓	×	×
$\{(1,0)\}$	×	✓	×	×
$\{(1,1)\}$	×	✓	×	×
$\{(0,0),(1,0)\}\$ $\{(0,0),(1,1)\}$	✓	×	×	×
$\{(0,1),(1,0)\}\$ $\{(0,1),(1,1)\}$				

Function	Total	Injective	Surjective	Bijective
{}	×	✓	×	×
{(0,0)}	×	√	×	×
$\{(0,1)\}$	×	✓	×	×
$\{(1,0)\}$	×	✓	×	×
$\{(1,1)\}$	×	✓	×	×
$\{(0,0),(1,0)\}$	✓	×	×	×
$\{(0,0),(1,1)\}$	✓	✓	✓	✓
$\{(0,1),(1,0)\}$				
$\{(0,1),(1,1)\}$				

Function	Total	Injective	Surjective	Bijective
{}	×	√	×	×
{(0,0)}	×	✓	×	×
$\{(0,1)\}$	×	✓	×	×
$\{(1,0)\}$	×	✓	×	×
$\{(1,1)\}$	×	✓	×	×
$\{(0,0),(1,0)\}$	✓	×	×	×
$\{(0,0),(1,1)\}$	✓	✓	✓	✓
$\{(0,1),(1,0)\}$	✓	✓	✓	✓
$\{(0,1),(1,1)\}$				

Function	Total	Injective	Surjective	Bijective
{}	×	√	×	×
{(0,0)}	×	√	×	×
$\{(0,1)\}$	×	✓	×	×
$\{(1,0)\}$	×	✓	×	×
$\{(1,1)\}$	×	✓	×	×
$\{(0,0),(1,0)\}$	✓	×	×	×
$\{(0,0),(1,1)\}$	✓	✓	✓	✓
$\{(0,1),(1,0)\}$	✓	✓	✓	✓
$\{(0,1),(1,1)\}$	✓	×	×	×

Sets, bags, and sequences

A set is a collection of objects.

We can only ask: is $x \in S$?

We cannot ask:

- how many times does x occur in S?
- where does x occur in S?

Sets, bags, and sequences

A set is a collection of objects.

We can only ask: is $x \in S$?

We cannot ask:

- how many times does x occur in S?
- where does x occur in S?
- A bag is like a set, but we also remember how many times an object occurs.
- A sequence is like a set, but we also remember where an object occurs.

Bags: basic definition

 A bag (or multiset) is like a set except that members are allowed to occur many times.

Bags: basic definition

- A bag (or multiset) is like a set except that members are allowed to occur many times.
- The number of times an element occurs in a bag is called the multiplicity of that element.
- We typically use a special kind of bracket to indicate that we care about multiplicity;
 - For example: [a, a, b, b, b, c] is the bag where a occurs twice, b occurs thrice and c occurs once.

Bags: basic definition

- A bag (or multiset) is like a set except that members are allowed to occur many times.
- The number of times an element occurs in a bag is called the multiplicity of that element.
- We typically use a special kind of bracket to indicate that we care about multiplicity;
 - For example: [a, a, b, b, b, c] is the bag where a occurs twice, b occurs thrice and c occurs once.
- Notes:
 - The notation [···] is not very standard.
 - The order of elements in a bag doesn't matter.

- A bag is really a special kind of function.
- For any set S, a "bag of S" is a function from S to \mathbb{N} , giving the multiplicity of each element.

- A bag is really a special kind of function.
- For any set S, a "bag of S" is a function from S to \mathbb{N} , giving the multiplicity of each element.
- Thus $[\![a,a,b,b,b,c]\!]$ is just a shorthand for $\{(a,2),(b,3),(c,1)\}$

- A bag is really a special kind of function.
- For any set S, a "bag of S" is a function from S to \mathbb{N} , giving the multiplicity of each element.
- Thus $[\![a,a,b,b,b,c]\!]$ is just a shorthand for $\{(a,2),(b,3),(c,1)\}$

 $myShopping \triangleq [apple, apple, pear, pear]$

- A bag is really a special kind of function.
- For any set S, a "bag of S" is a function from S to \mathbb{N} , giving the multiplicity of each element.
- Thus [a, a, b, b, b, c] is just a shorthand for $\{(a, 2), (b, 3), (c, 1)\}$
- For example, given some set $F \triangleq \{apple, orange, pear\}$, given the bag

$$myShopping \triangleq [apple, apple, pear, pear]$$

we can say

$$myShopping = \{(apple, 2), (orange, 0), (pear, 3)\}$$

- Since bags are a special kind of function/relation/set, we can use all the function/relation/set operations with them.
- But note: the union (or intersection) of two functions is a relation, but not necessarily a function.

- Since bags are a special kind of function/relation/set, we can use all the function/relation/set operations with them.
- But note: the union (or intersection) of two functions is a relation, but not necessarily a function.
- Example:

$$[\![a,a,b,b,c,c]\!] \cup [\![a,b,b,c,c]\!]$$

- Since bags are a special kind of function/relation/set, we can use all the function/relation/set operations with them.
- But note: the union (or intersection) of two functions is a relation, but not necessarily a function.
- Example:

$$[a, a, b, b, b, c] \cup [a, b, b, c, c]$$

$$= \{(a, 2), (b, 3), (c, 1)\} \cup \{(a, 1), (b, 2), (c, 2)\}$$

- Since bags are a special kind of function/relation/set, we can use all the function/relation/set operations with them.
- But note: the union (or intersection) of two functions is a relation, but not necessarily a function.
- Example:

$$[a, a, b, b, b, c] \cup [a, b, b, c, c]$$

$$= \{(a,2), (b,3), (c,1)\} \cup \{(a,1), (b,2), (c,2)\}$$

$$= \{(a,2), (b,3), (c,1), (a,1), (b,2), (c,2)\}$$

- Since bags are a special kind of function/relation/set, we can use all the function/relation/set operations with them.
- But note: the union (or intersection) of two functions is a relation, but not necessarily a function.
- Example:

$$[a, a, b, b, b, c] \cup [a, b, b, c, c]$$

$$= \{(a,2), (b,3), (c,1)\} \cup \{(a,1), (b,2), (c,2)\}$$

$$= \{(a,2), (b,3), (c,1), (a,1), (b,2), (c,2)\}$$

- This is a relation, but not a function (and thus not a bag)
 - probably not what we intended to happen...

Operations on Bags (new)

We can define a special union operator just for bags, so that e.g.

$$[\![a,a,b,b,b,c]\!] \ \uplus \ [\![a,b,b,c,c]\!] = [\![a,a,a,b,b,b,b,b,c,c,c]\!]$$

Operations on Bags (new)

We can define a special union operator just for bags, so that e.g.

$$[\![a,a,b,b,c,c]\!] \ \uplus \ [\![a,b,b,c,c]\!] = [\![a,a,a,b,b,b,b,b,c,c,c]\!]$$

Definition: for any two bags A and B,

$$A \uplus B = (\lambda x \cdot A(x) + B(x))$$

Operations on Bags (new)

We can define a special union operator just for bags, so that e.g.

$$[\![a,a,b,b,c,c]\!] \ \uplus \ [\![a,b,b,c,c]\!] = [\![a,a,a,b,b,b,b,c,c,c]\!]$$

• Definition: for any two bags A and B,

$$A \uplus B = (\lambda x \cdot A(x) + B(x))$$

- Notes:
 - Since any bag is a function, B(x) is just the multiplicity of element x in bag B.
 - Can you define bag versions of intersection and difference?
 - Can you define the relation is-a-subbag-of?

Sequence: basic definition

• A sequence is like a set except that we remember the order in which members occur.

Sequence: basic definition

- A sequence is like a set except that we remember the order in which members occur.
- The place where an element occurs in a sequence is called the position of that element.
- We typically use a special kind of bracket to indicate that we care about ordering;
 - For example: $\langle a, b, c, b, a, a \rangle$ is the sequence where a occurs at positions 1, 5 and 6, b occurs at positions 2 and 4, and c occurs at position 3.

Sequence: basic definition

- A sequence is like a set except that we remember the order in which members occur.
- The place where an element occurs in a sequence is called the position of that element.
- We typically use a special kind of bracket to indicate that we care about ordering;
 - For example: $\langle a, b, c, b, a, a \rangle$ is the sequence where a occurs at positions 1, 5 and 6, b occurs at positions 2 and 4, and c occurs at position 3.
- Notes:
 - The notation $\langle \cdots \rangle$ is not very standard.
 - We usually start counting position at 1 (unlike arrays)

- A sequence is really a special kind of function.
- For any set S, a sequence of S is a (partial) function from $\mathbb N$ to S, giving the element at each position.

- A sequence is really a special kind of function.
- For any set S, a sequence of S is a (partial) function from \mathbb{N} to S, giving the element at each position.
- Thus (a, b, c, b, a) is just a shorthand for $\{(1, a), (2, b), (3, c), (4, b), (5, a)\}$

- A sequence is really a special kind of function.
- For any set S, a sequence of S is a (partial) function from $\mathbb N$ to S, giving the element at each position.
- Thus (a, b, c, b, a) is just a shorthand for $\{(1, a), (2, b), (3, c), (4, b), (5, a)\}$
- For example, given some set $F \triangleq \{apple, orange, pear\}$, given the sequence

$$myEating \triangleq \langle apple, pear, apple, pear, apple \rangle$$

- A sequence is really a special kind of function.
- For any set S, a sequence of S is a (partial) function from $\mathbb N$ to S, giving the element at each position.
- Thus (a, b, c, b, a) is just a shorthand for $\{(1, a), (2, b), (3, c), (4, b), (5, a)\}$
- For example, given some set $F \triangleq \{apple, orange, pear\}$, given the sequence

$$myEating \triangleq \langle apple, pear, apple, pear, apple \rangle$$

we can say

$$myEating = \{(1, apple), (2, pear), (3, apple), (4, pear), (5, apple)\}$$

Operations on Sequences (inherited)

- Since sequences are a special kind of function/relation/set, we can
 use all the function/relation/set operations with them.
- But note: the union (or intersection) of two functions is a relation, but not necessarily a function.

- Since sequences are a special kind of function/relation/set, we can use all the function/relation/set operations with them.
- But note: the union (or intersection) of two functions is a relation, but not necessarily a function.
- Example:

$$\langle a, a, b \rangle \cup \langle a, b \rangle$$

- Since sequences are a special kind of function/relation/set, we can use all the function/relation/set operations with them.
- But note: the union (or intersection) of two functions is a relation, but not necessarily a function.
- Example:

$$\langle a, a, b \rangle \cup \langle a, b \rangle$$

= $\{(1, a), (2, a), (3, b)\} \cup \{(1, a), (2, b)\}$

- Since sequences are a special kind of function/relation/set, we can use all the function/relation/set operations with them.
- But note: the union (or intersection) of two functions is a relation, but not necessarily a function.
- Example:

$$\langle a, a, b \rangle \cup \langle a, b \rangle$$

$$= \{(1, a), (2, a), (3, b)\} \cup \{(1, a), (2, b)\}$$

$$= \{(1, a), (2, a), (2, b), (3, b)\}$$

- Since sequences are a special kind of function/relation/set, we can use all the function/relation/set operations with them.
- But note: the union (or intersection) of two functions is a relation, but not necessarily a function.
- Example:

$$\langle a, a, b \rangle \cup \langle a, b \rangle$$

$$= \{(1, a), (2, a), (3, b)\} \cup \{(1, a), (2, b)\}$$

$$= \{(1, a), (2, a), (2, b), (3, b)\}$$

- This is a relation, but not a function (and thus not a sequence)
 - probably not what we intended to happen...

- One useful inherited operation is cardinality:
 - The cardinality of a finite set is the number of elements it contains.
 - Notation: If S is a finite set, we write #S to denote the cardinality of S.
- Since a sequence is a set of tuples, the cardinality of a sequence is also its *length*.

Example:

$$\#\langle a, b, c, b, a \rangle = 5$$

- One useful inherited operation is *cardinality*:
 - The cardinality of a finite set is the number of elements it contains.
 - Notation: If S is a finite set, we write #S to denote the cardinality of S.
- Since a sequence is a set of tuples, the cardinality of a sequence is also its *length*.

Example:

$$\#\langle a, b, c, b, a \rangle = 5$$

• The **empty set** \emptyset is also a sequence; when we want to refer to it as a sequence we usually write $\langle \rangle$

Naturally,
$$\#\langle\rangle=0$$

Operations on Sequences (new)

- One of the most important sequence-specific operations is concatenation.
- This just appends two sequences together, in order:

$$\langle a, b, c \rangle \widehat{\ } \langle b, a \rangle = \langle a, b, c, b, a \rangle$$

 $\langle a, b, c \rangle \widehat{\ } \langle b, a \rangle \widehat{\ } \langle b, a \rangle = \langle a, b, c, b, a, b, a \rangle$

Operations on Sequences (new)

- One of the most important sequence-specific operations is concatenation.
- This just appends two sequences together, in order:

$$\langle a, b, c \rangle \widehat{\ } \langle b, a \rangle = \langle a, b, c, b, a \rangle$$

 $\langle a, b, c \rangle \widehat{\ } \langle b, a \rangle \widehat{\ } \langle b, a \rangle = \langle a, b, c, b, a, b, a \rangle$

Definition: for any two sequences s and t,

$$s \cap t = \lambda n \in \mathbb{N} \cdot \begin{cases} s(n) & \text{if } 1 \leq n \leq \#s \\ t(n - \#s) & \text{if } (\#s + 1) \leq n \leq (\#s + \#n) \end{cases}$$

Operations on Sequences (new)

- One of the most important sequence-specific operations is concatenation.
- This just appends two sequences together, in order:

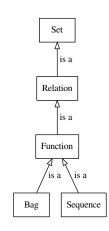
$$\langle a, b, c \rangle \widehat{\ } \langle b, a \rangle = \langle a, b, c, b, a \rangle$$

 $\langle a, b, c \rangle \widehat{\ } \langle b, a \rangle \widehat{\ } \langle b, a \rangle = \langle a, b, c, b, a, b, a \rangle$

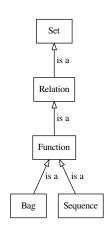
Definition: for any two sequences s and t,

$$s \cap t = \lambda n \in \mathbb{N} \cdot \begin{cases} s(n) & \text{if } 1 \leq n \leq \#s \\ t(n - \#s) & \text{if } (\#s + 1) \leq n \leq (\#s + \#n) \end{cases}$$

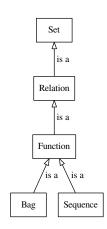
- Notes:
 - Since any sequence is a function, s(n) is just the element at position n in sequence s.
 - Notation: sometimes we write s.t for the concatenation of s and t.



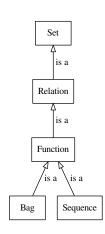
 We took sets as the basic concept because they fit well with logic.



- We took sets as the basic concept because they fit well with logic.
- Database theory takes relations as the basic concept (Codd's relational algebra).



- We took sets as the basic concept because they fit well with logic.
- Database theory takes relations as the basic concept (Codd's relational algebra).
- The theory of computation takes *functions* as the basic concept (Church's λ -calculus).



- We took sets as the basic concept because they fit well with logic.
- Database theory takes relations as the basic concept (Codd's relational algebra).
- The theory of computation takes *functions* as the basic concept (Church's λ -calculus).
- Language theory takes sequences as the basic concept (Kleene's regular expressions, Chomsky's grammars etc.).

