



# ICS141: Discrete Mathematics for Computer Science I

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# Lecture 11

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## Chapter 2. Basic Structures

2.3 Functions

2.4 Sequences and Summations

# The Identity Function

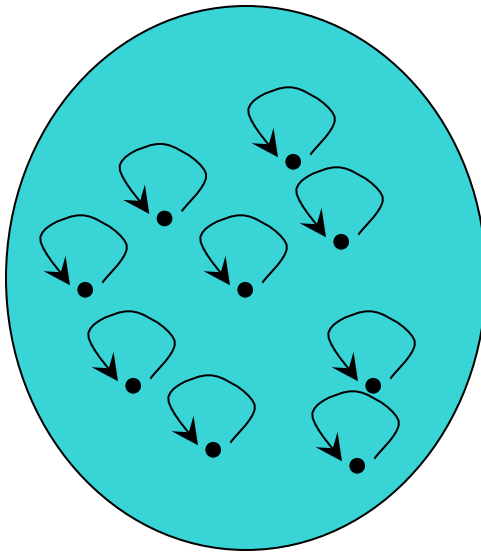
- For any domain  $A$ , the **identity function**  $I: A \rightarrow A$  (also written as  $I_A$ ,  $1$ ,  $1_A$ ) is the unique function such that  $\forall a \in A: I(a) = a$ .
- Note that the identity function is always both one-to-one and onto (i.e., bijective).
- For a bijection  $f: A \rightarrow B$  and its inverse function  $f^{-1}: B \rightarrow A$ ,

$$f^{-1} \circ f = I_A$$

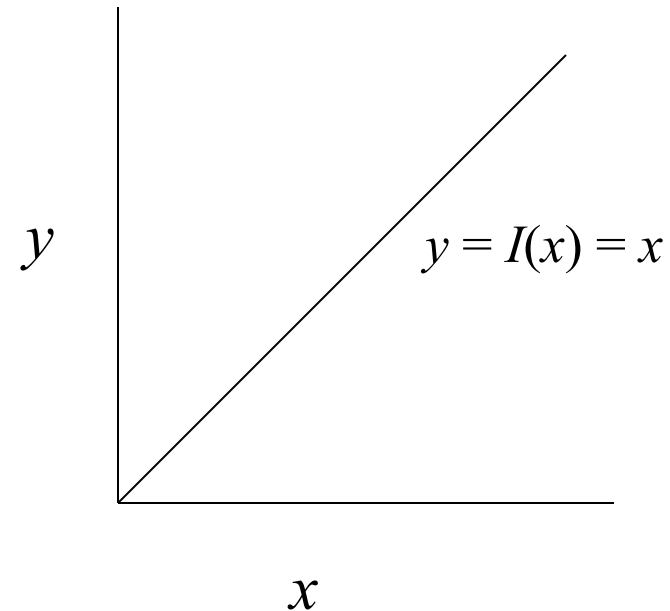
- Some identity functions you've seen:
  - $+ 0$ ,  $\times 1$ ,  $\wedge \mathbf{T}$ ,  $\vee \mathbf{F}$ ,  $\cup \emptyset$ ,  $\cap U$ .

# Identity Function Illustrations

- The identity function:



Domain and range



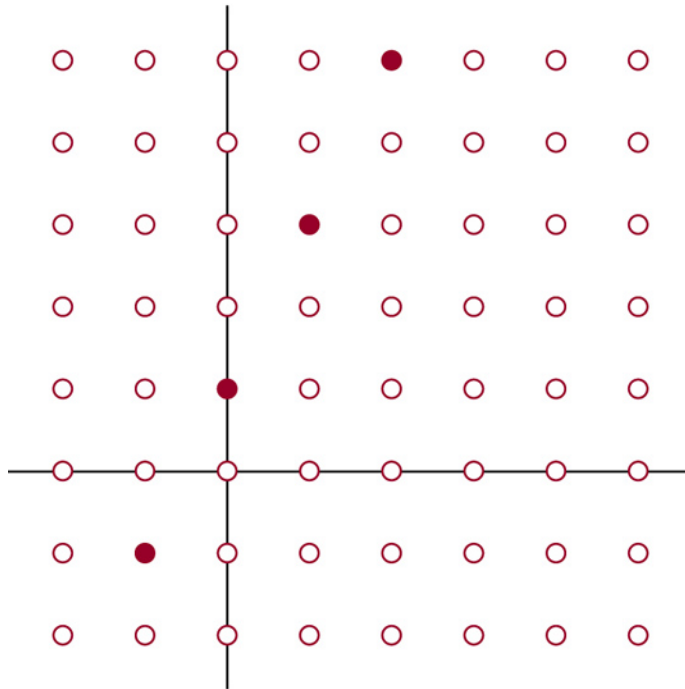


# Graphs of Functions

- We can represent a function  $f : A \rightarrow B$  as a set of ordered pairs  $\{(a, f(a)) \mid a \in A\}$ .  
← The function's *graph*.
- Note that  $\forall a \in A$ , there is only 1 pair  $(a, b)$ .
  - Later (ch.8): *relations* loosen this restriction.
- For functions over numbers, we can represent an ordered pair  $(x, y)$  as a point on a plane.
  - A function is then drawn as a curve (set of points), with only one  $y$  for each  $x$ .

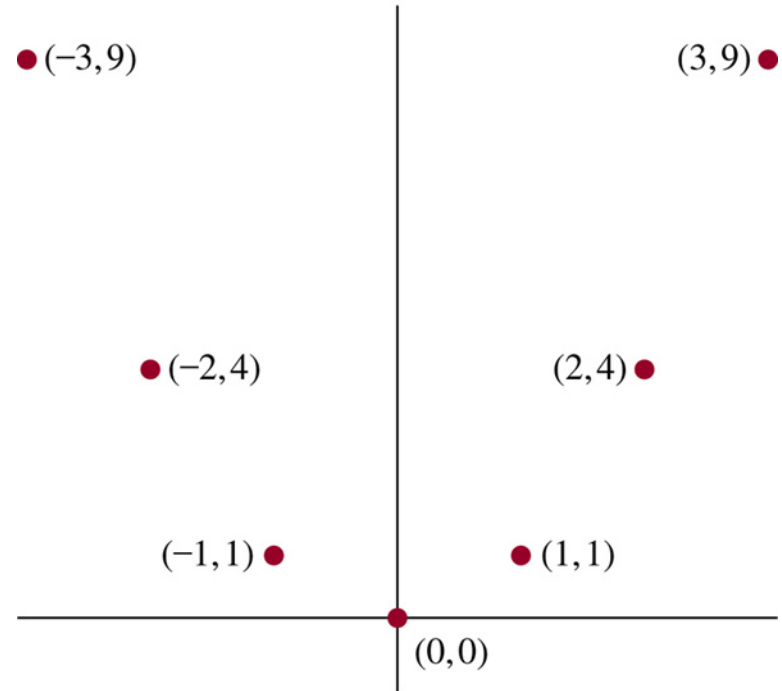
# Graphs of Functions: Examples

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The graph of  $f(n) = 2n + 1$   
from  $\mathbf{Z}$  to  $\mathbf{Z}$

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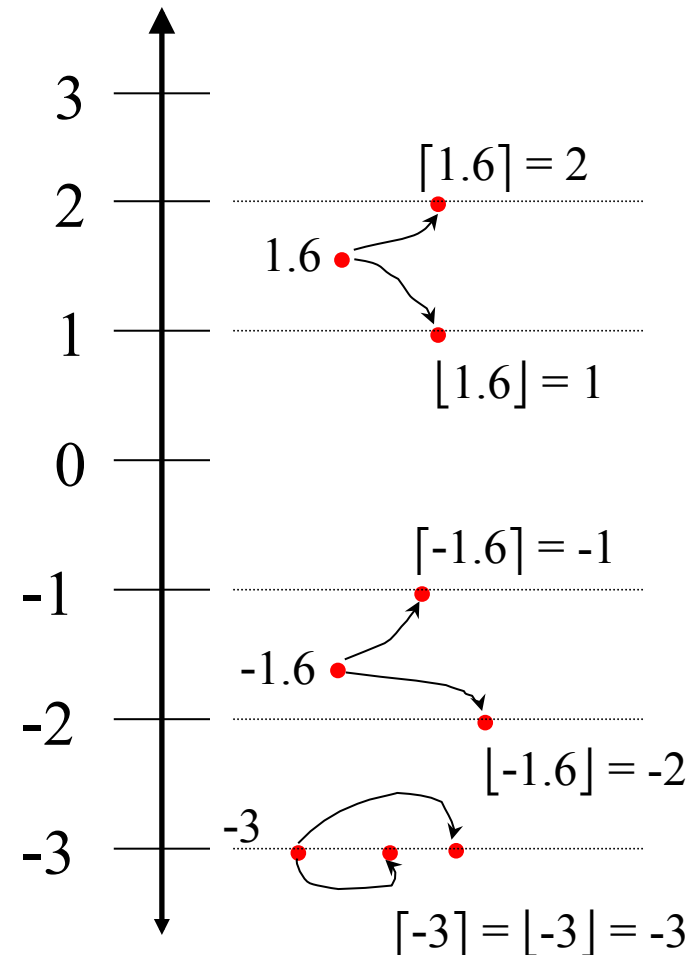
The graph of  $f(x) = x^2$   
from  $\mathbf{Z}$  to  $\mathbf{Z}$

# Floor & Ceiling Functions

- In discrete math, we frequently use the following two functions over real numbers:
  - The **floor** function  $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}$ , where  $\lfloor x \rfloor$  (“floor of  $x$ ”) means the **largest integer  $\leq x$** , i.e.,  $\lfloor x \rfloor = \max( \{i \in \mathbf{Z} \mid i \leq x\} )$ .
    - E.g.  $\lfloor 2.3 \rfloor = 2$ ,  $\lfloor 5 \rfloor = 5$ ,  $\lfloor -1.2 \rfloor = -2$ .
  - The **ceiling** function  $\lceil \cdot \rceil : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}$ , where  $\lceil x \rceil$  (“ceiling of  $x$ ”) means the **smallest integer  $\geq x$** , i.e.,  $\lceil x \rceil = \min( \{i \in \mathbf{Z} \mid i \geq x\} )$ .
    - E.g.  $\lceil 2.3 \rceil = 3$ ,  $\lceil 5 \rceil = 5$ ,  $\lceil -1.2 \rceil = -1$ .

# Visualizing Floor & Ceiling

- Real numbers “fall to their floor” or “rise to their ceiling.”
- Note that if  $x \notin \mathbb{Z}$ ,  
 $\lfloor -x \rfloor \neq -\lfloor x \rfloor$  &  
 $\lceil -x \rceil \neq -\lceil x \rceil$
- Note that if  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  
 $\lfloor x \rfloor = \lceil x \rceil = x$ .

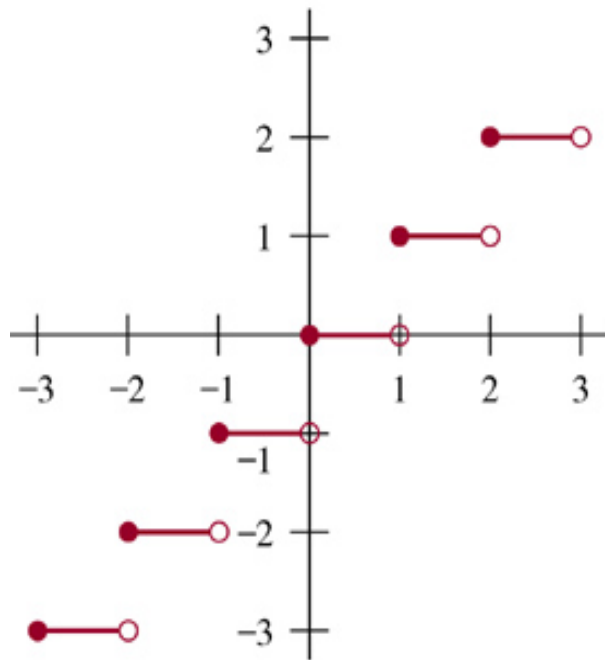




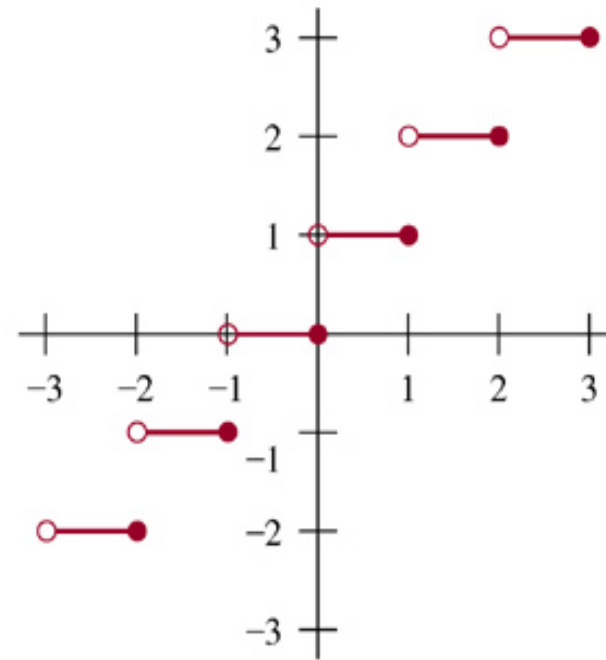


# Plots with Floor/Ceiling: Example

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$$y = \lfloor x \rfloor$$



$$y = \lceil x \rceil$$

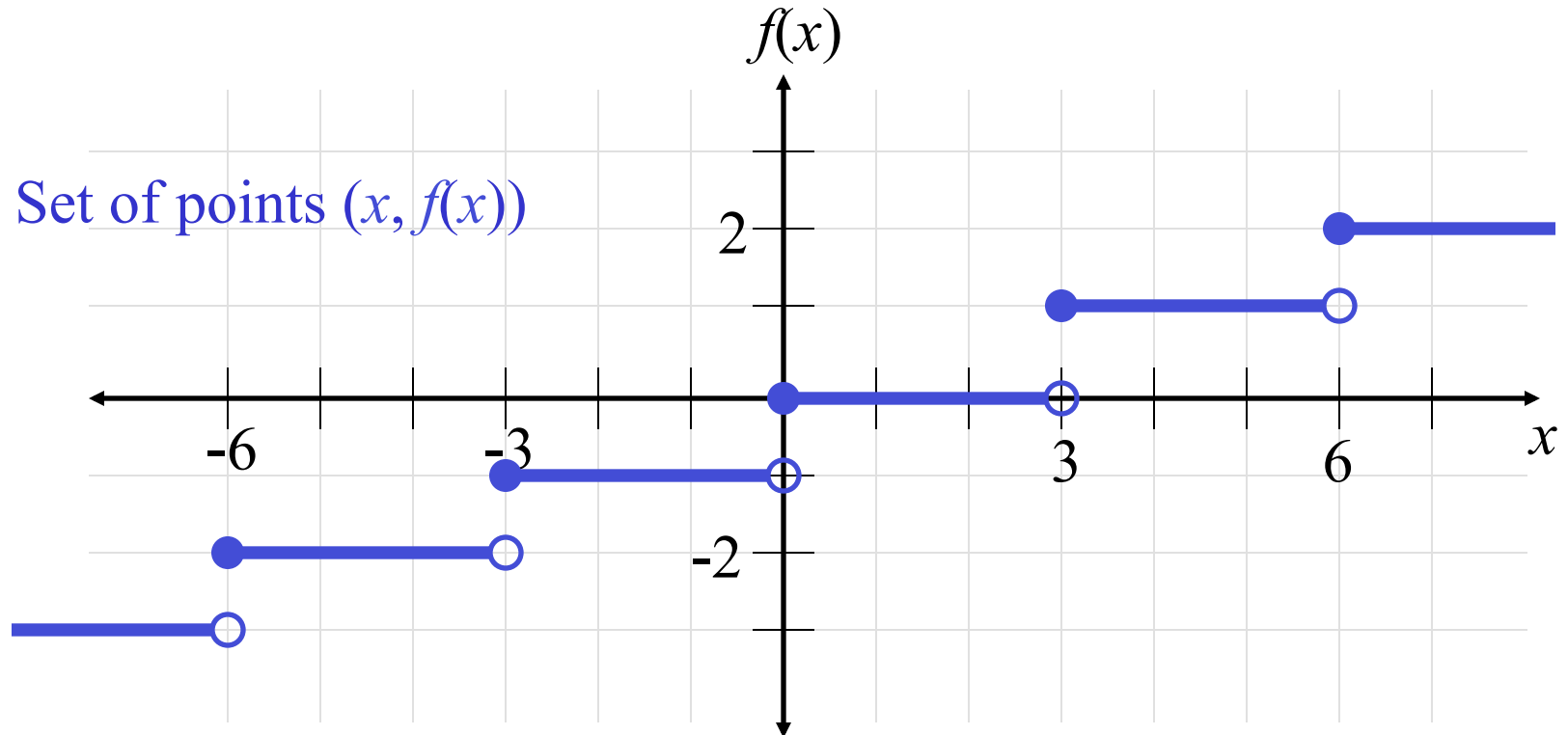


# Plots with Floor/Ceiling

- Note that for  $f(x) = \lfloor x \rfloor$ , the graph of  $f$  includes the point  $(a, 0)$  for all values of  $a$  such that  $0 \leq a < 1$ , but not for the value  $a = 1$ .
- We say that the set of points  $(a, 0)$  that is in  $f$  does not include its *limit* or *boundary* point  $(a, 1)$ .
  - Sets that do not include all of their limit points are called *open sets*.
- In a plot, we draw a limit point of a curve using an open dot (circle) if the limit point is not on the curve, and with a closed (solid) dot if it is on the curve.

# Plots with Floor/Ceiling: Another Example

- Plot of graph of function  $f(x) = \lfloor x/3 \rfloor$ :





## 2.4 Sequences and Summations

- A **sequence** or *series* is just like an ordered  $n$ -tuple, except:
  - Each element in the sequence has an associated *index* number.
  - A sequence or series may be infinite.
- A **summation** is a compact notation for the sum of the terms in a (possibly infinite) sequence.

# Sequences

- A **sequence** or **series**  $\{a_n\}$  is identified with a **generating function**  $f: I \rightarrow S$  for some subset  $I \subseteq \mathbf{N}$  and for some set  $S$ .
  - Often we have  $I = \mathbf{N}$  or  $I = \mathbf{Z}^+ = \mathbf{N} - \{0\}$ .
- If  $f$  is a generating function for a sequence  $\{a_n\}$ , then for  $n \in I$ , the symbol  $a_n$  denotes  $f(n)$ , also called **term  $n$**  of the sequence.
  - The **index** of  $a_n$  is  $n$ . (Or, often  $i$  is used.)
- A sequence is sometimes denoted by listing its first and/or last few elements, and using ellipsis (...) notation.
  - E.g., “ $\{a_n\} = 0, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, \dots$ ” is taken to mean  $\forall n \in \mathbf{N}, a_n = n^2$ .

# Sequence Examples

- Some authors write “the sequence  $a_1, a_2, \dots$ ” instead of  $\{a_n\}$ , to ensure that the set of indices is clear.
  - Be careful: Our book often leaves the indices ambiguous.
- An example of an infinite sequence:
  - Consider the sequence  $\{a_n\} = a_1, a_2, \dots$ , where  $(\forall n \geq 1) a_n = f(n) = 1/n$ .
  - Then, we have  $\{a_n\} = 1, 1/2, 1/3, \dots$ 
    - Called “harmonic series”



# Example with Repetitions

- Like tuples, but unlike sets, a sequence may contain *repeated* instances of an element.
- Consider the sequence  $\{b_n\} = b_0, b_1, \dots$  (note that 0 is an index) where  $b_n = (-1)^n$ .
  - Thus,  $\{b_n\} = 1, -1, 1, -1, \dots$ 
    - Note repetitions!
  - This  $\{b_n\}$  denotes an infinite sequence of 1's and -1's, not the 2-element set  $\{1, -1\}$ .

# Geometric Progression

- A geometric progression is a sequence of the form

$$a, ar, ar^2, \dots, ar^n, \dots$$

where the *initial term*  $a$  and the *common ratio*  $r$  are real numbers.

- A geometric progression is a discrete analogue of the exponential function  $f(x) = ar^x$

- Examples

Assuming  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

- $\{b_n\}$  with  $b_n = (-1)^n$  initial term 1, common ratio  $-1$
- $\{c_n\}$  with  $c_n = 2 \cdot 5^n$  initial term 2, common ratio 5
- $\{d_n\}$  with  $d_n = 6 \cdot (1/3)^n$  initial term 6, common ratio  $1/3$



# Arithmetic Progression

- An arithmetic progression is a sequence of the form

$$a, a+d, a+2d, \dots, a+nd, \dots$$

where the **initial term**  $a$  and the **common difference**  $d$  are real numbers.

- An arithmetic progression is a discrete analogue of the linear function  $f(x) = a + dx$

- Examples

Assuming  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

- $\{s_n\}$  with  $s_n = -1 + 4n$  initial term  $-1$ , common diff.  $4$
- $\{t_n\}$  with  $t_n = 7 - 3n$  initial term  $7$ , common diff.  $-3$

# Recognizing Sequences (I)

- Sometimes, you're given the first few terms of a sequence,
  - and you are asked to find the sequence's generating function,
  - or a procedure to enumerate the sequence.
- Examples: What's the next number?
  - 1, 2, 3, 4,...      5 (the 5th smallest number  $> 0$ )
  - 1, 3, 5, 7, 9,...    11 (the 6th smallest odd number  $> 0$ )
  - 2, 3, 5, 7, 11,...   13 (the 6th smallest prime number)



# Recognizing Sequences (II)

- General problems
  - Given a sequence, find a formula or a general rule that produced it
- Examples: How can we produce the terms of a sequence if the first 10 terms are
  - 1, 2, 2, 3, 3, 3, 4, 4, 4, 4?  
Possible match: next five terms would all be 5, the following six terms would all be 6, and so on.
  - 5, 11, 17, 23, 29, 35, 41, 47, 53, 59?  
Possible match:  $n$ th term is  $5 + 6(n - 1) = 6n - 1$   
(assuming  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ )

# Special Integer Sequences

- A useful technique for finding a rule for generating the terms of a sequence is to compare the terms of a sequence of interest with the terms of a well-known integer sequences (e.g. arithmetic/geometric progressions, perfect squares, perfect cubes, etc.)

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**TABLE 1** Some Useful Sequences.

<i><math>n</math>th Term</i>	<i>First 10 Terms</i>
$n^2$	1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81, 100, ...
$n^3$	1, 8, 27, 64, 125, 216, 343, 512, 729, 1000, ...
$n^4$	1, 16, 81, 256, 625, 1296, 2401, 4096, 6561, 10000, ...
$2^n$	2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128, 256, 512, 1024, ...
$3^n$	3, 9, 27, 81, 243, 729, 2187, 6561, 19683, 59049, ...
$n!$	1, 2, 6, 24, 120, 720, 5040, 40320, 362880, 3628800, ...



# Coding: Fibonacci Series

- Series  $\{a_n\} = \{1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, \dots\}$
- Generating function (recursive definition!):
  - $a_0 = a_1 = 1$  and
  - $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$  for all  $n > 1$
- Now let's find the entire series  $\{a_n\}$ :
  - ```
int [] a = new int [n];  
a[0] = 1;  
a[1] = 1;  
for (int i = 2; i < n; i++) {  
    a[i] = a[i-1] + a[i-2];  
}  
return a;
```



# Coding: Factorial Series

- Factorial series  $\{a_n\} = \{1, 2, 6, 24, 120, \dots\}$
- Generating function:
  - $a_n = n! = 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times \dots \times n$
- This time, let's just find the term  $a_n$ :
  - ```
int an = 1;
for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++) {
    an = an * i;
}
return an;
```