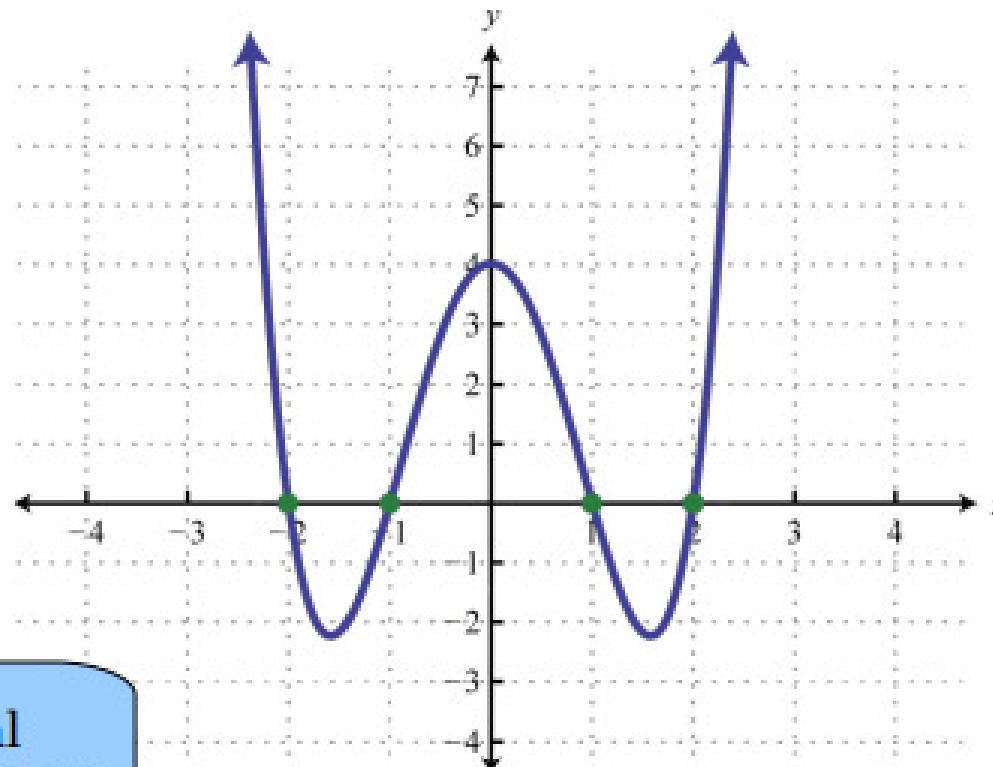


Discrete Mathematics

Functions

What is a function?

In high school math:



Take a real
number as input

$$f(x) = x^4 - 5x^2 + 4$$

Give a real
number as output

In C++ coding:

```
int flipUntil(int n) {  
    int numHeads = 0;  
    int numTries = 0;  
  
    while (numHeads < n) {  
        if (randomBoolean()) {  
            numHeads++;  
        }  
        numTries++;  
    }  
  
    return numTries;  
}
```

Take input(s) of
different type(s)

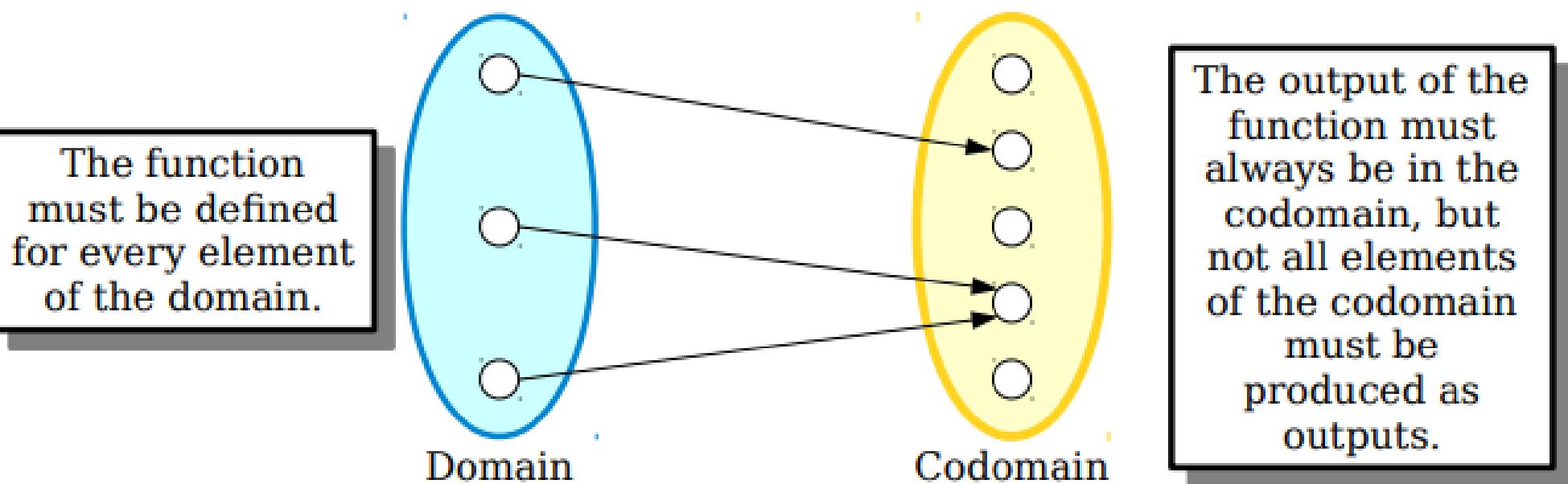
Return an output
of some type

What's Common?

- Although high-school math functions and CS functions are pretty different, they have two key aspects in common:
 - They take in inputs.
 - They produce outputs.
- In math, we like to keep things easy, so that's pretty much how we're going to define a function.

Domains and Codomains

- Every function f has two sets associated with it: its **domain** and its **codomain**.
- A function f can only be applied to elements of its domain. For any x in the domain, $f(x)$ belongs to the codomain.



Domains and Codomains

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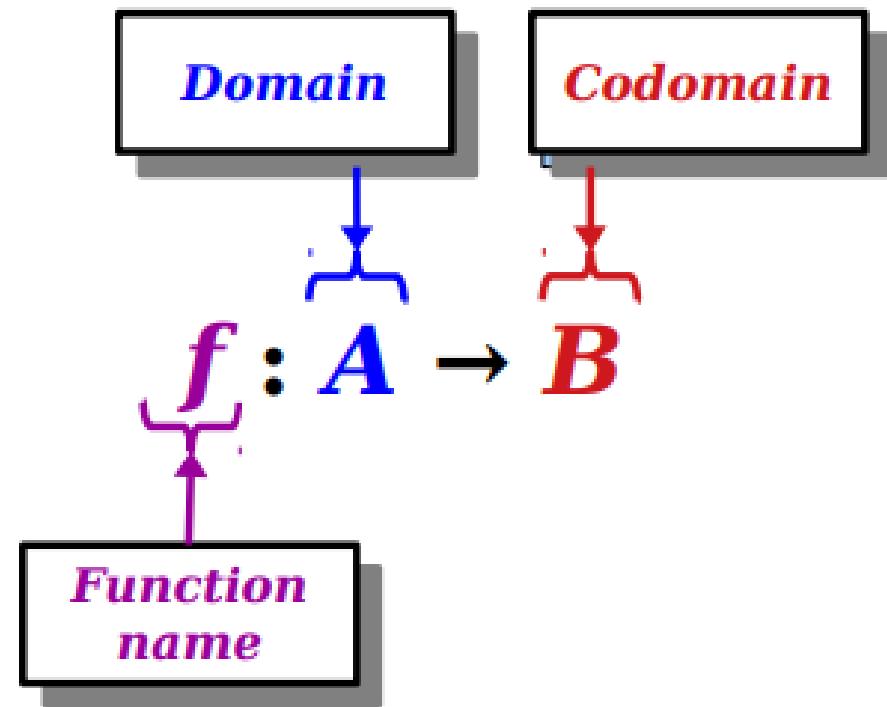
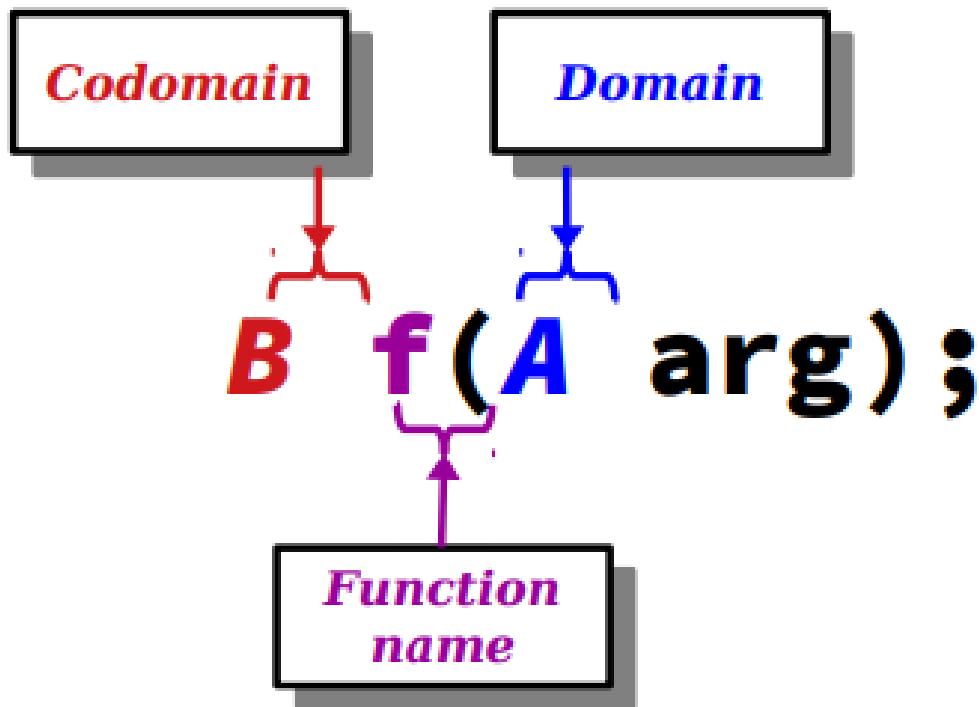
The **codomain** of this function is \mathbb{R} . Everything produced is a real number, but not all real numbers can be produced.

The **domain** of this function is \mathbb{R} . Any real number can be provided as input.

```
double absoluteValueOf(double x) {  
    if (x >= 0) {  
        return x;  
    } else {  
        return -x;  
    }  
}
```

Domains and Codomains

- If f is a function whose domain is A and whose codomain is B , we write $f : A \rightarrow B$.
- Think of this like a “function prototype” in C++.



The Official Rules for Functions

- Formally speaking, we say that $f : A \rightarrow B$ if the following two rules hold.
- First, f must be obey its domain/codomain rules:

$$\forall a \in A. \exists b \in B. f(a) = b$$

("Every input in A maps to some output in B.")

- Second, f must be deterministic:

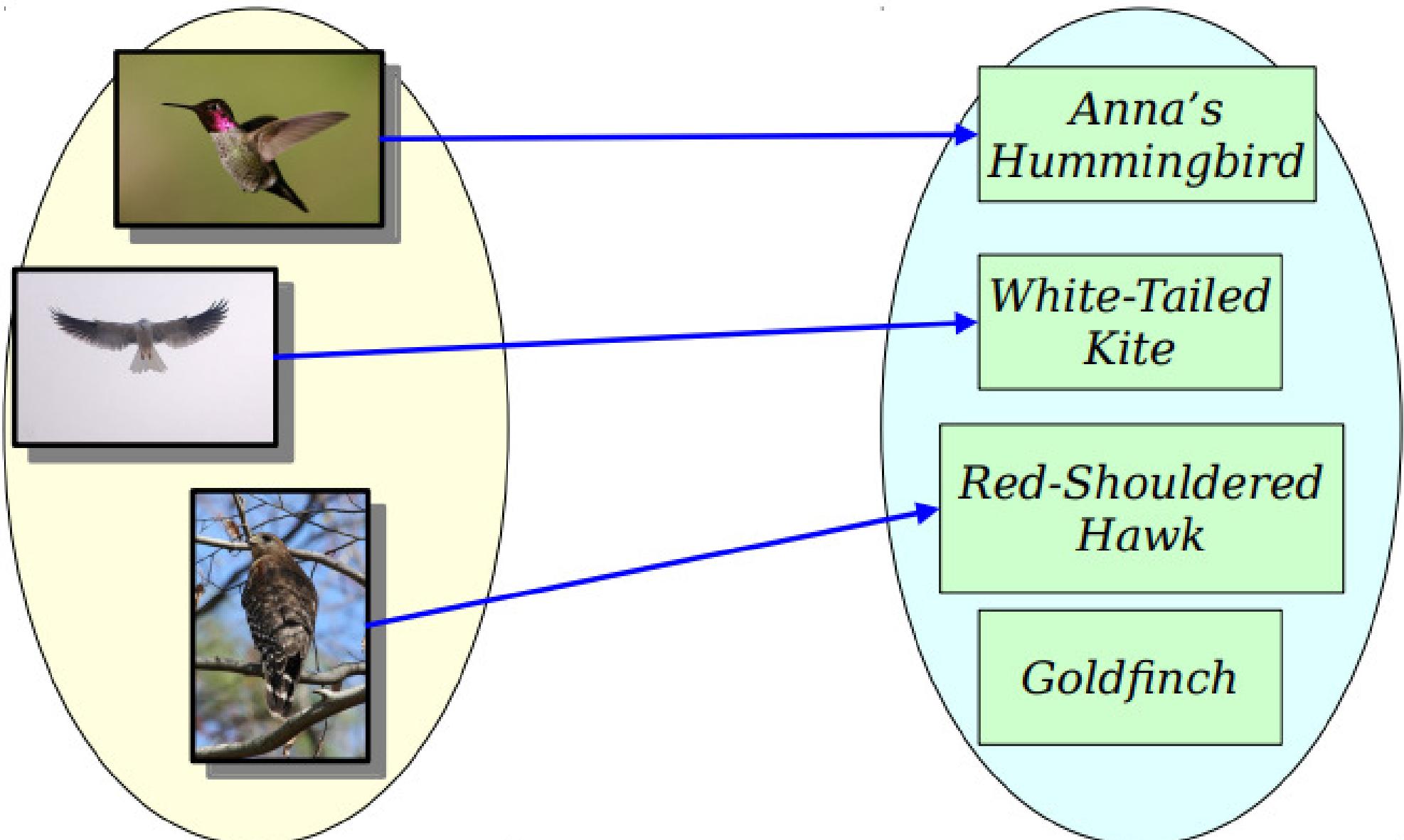
$$\forall a_1 \in A. \forall a_2 \in A. (a_1 = a_2 \rightarrow f(a_1) = f(a_2))$$

("Equal inputs produce equal outputs.")

Defining Functions

- To define a function, you need to
 - specify the domain,
 - specify the codomain, and
 - give a **rule** used to evaluate the function.

Functions can be defined as a *picture*.



Draw sets (ovals) to give the domain and codomain.
Draw a mapping (arrows) to define the function's action.

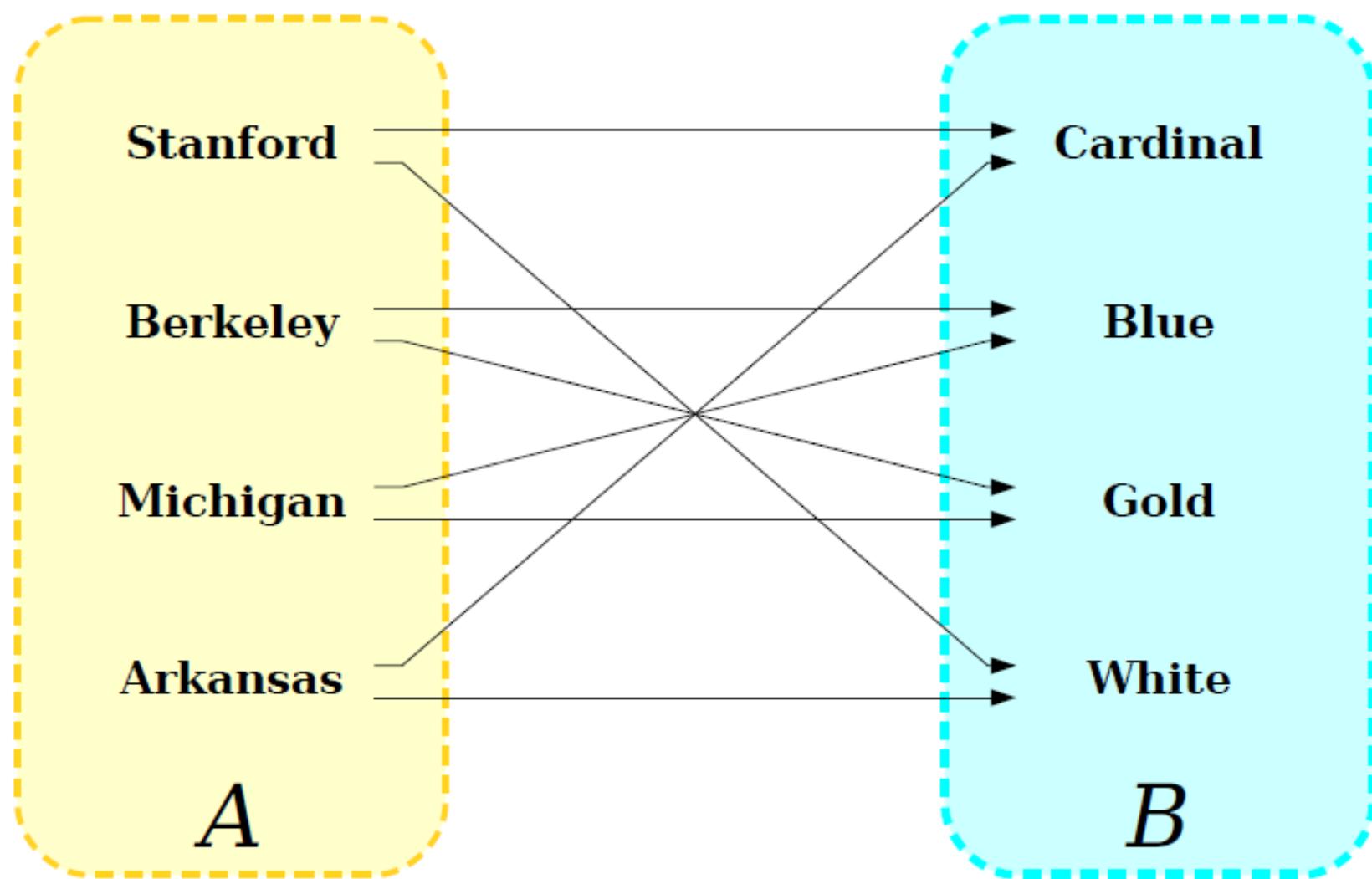
Functions can be defined as a **rule**.

$f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$, where

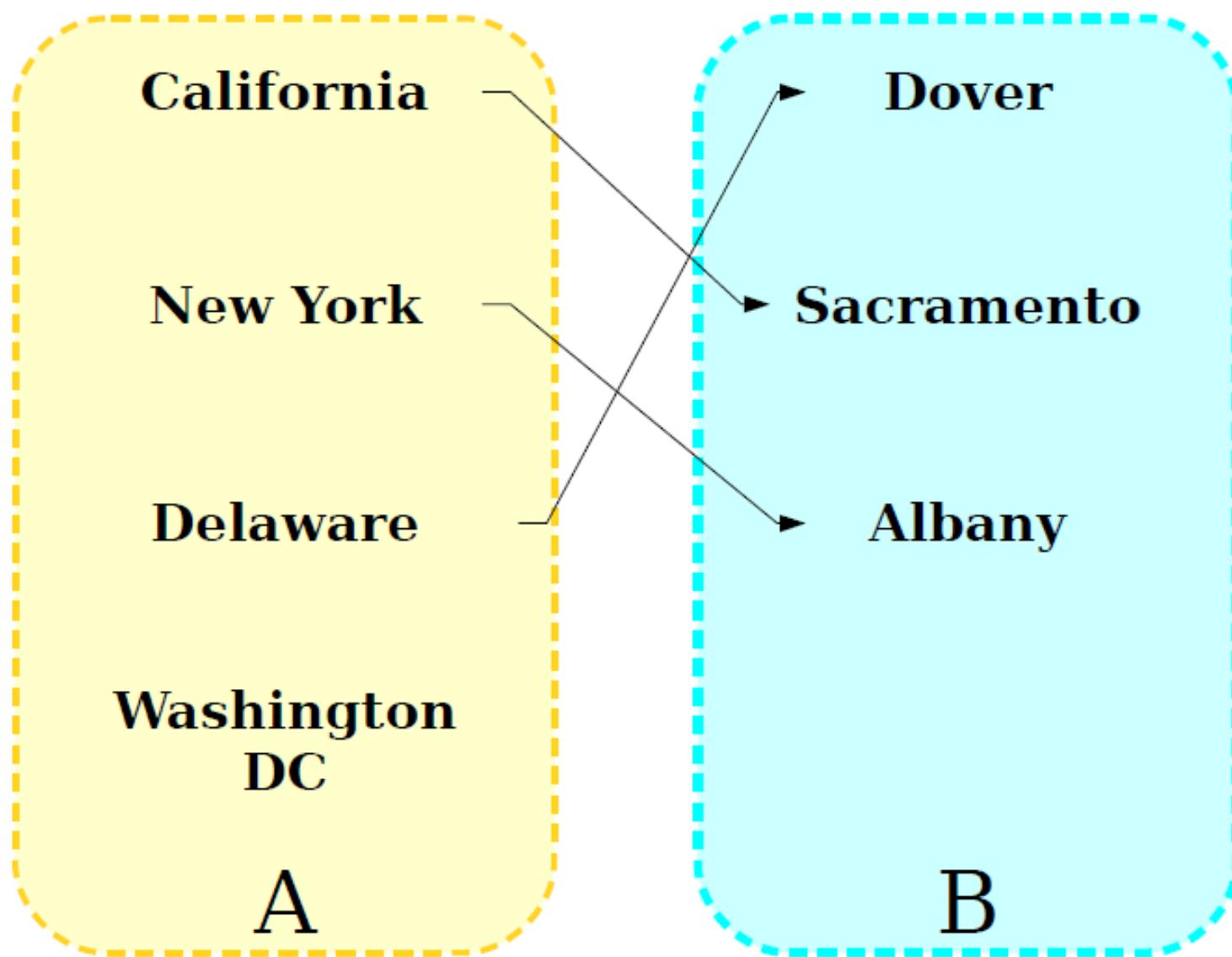
$$f(x) = x^2 + 3x - 15$$

Use the $:$ notation to name the domain and codomain.
Use the $f(x) =$ notation to define the function's action.

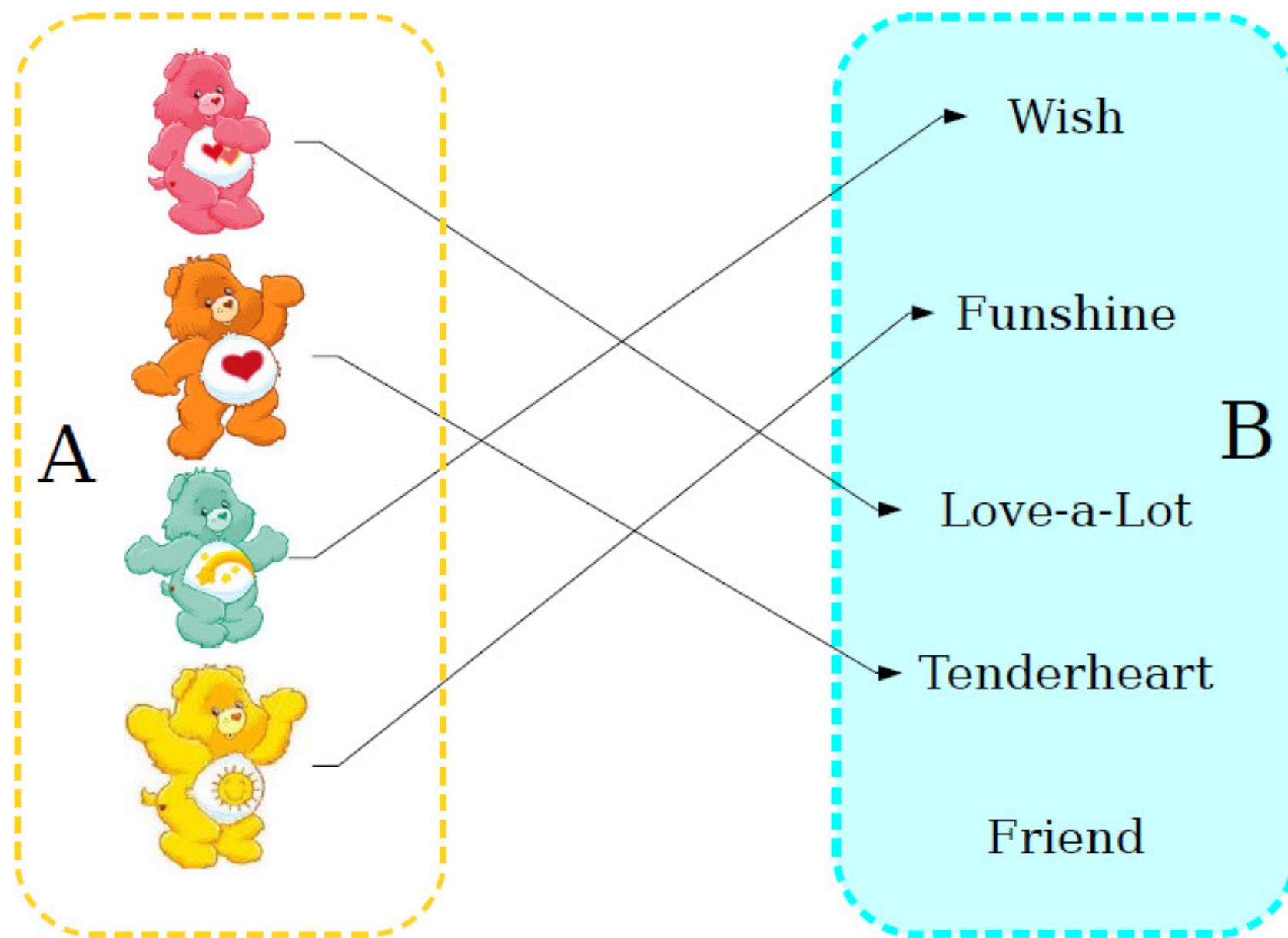
Is this a function from A to B ?



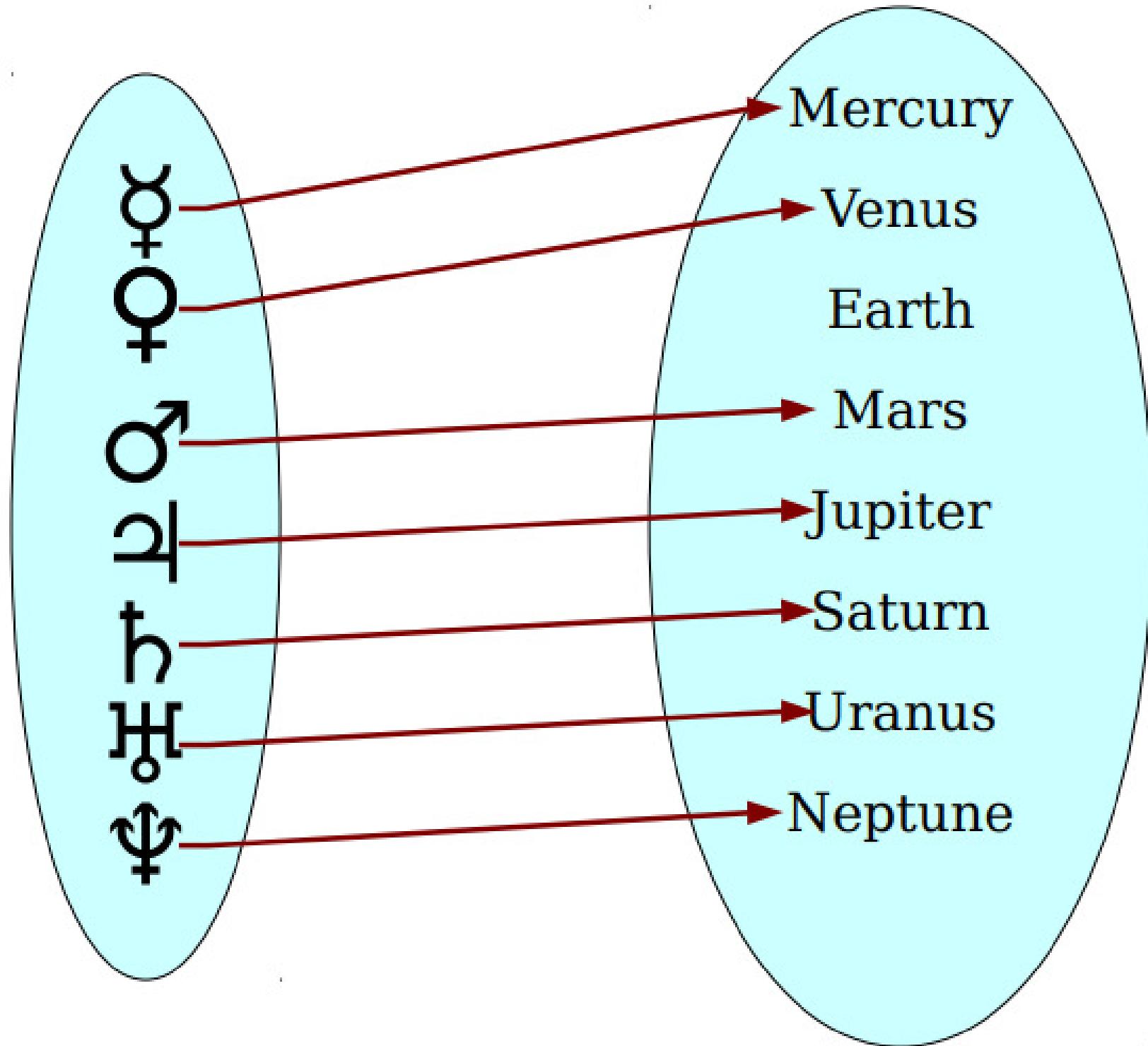
Is this a function from A to B ?



Is this a function from A to B ?



Injective Functions



Injective Functions

- A function $f : A \rightarrow B$ is called **injective** (or **one-to-one**) if the following statement is true about f :

$$\forall a_1 \in A. \forall a_2 \in A. (a_1 \neq a_2 \rightarrow f(a_1) \neq f(a_2))$$

("If the inputs are different, the outputs are different.")

- The following first-order definition is equivalent (*why?*) and is often useful in proofs.

$$\forall a_1 \in A. \forall a_2 \in A. (f(a_1) = f(a_2) \rightarrow a_1 = a_2)$$

("If the outputs are the same, the inputs are the same.")

- A function with this property is called an **injection**.

Injective Functions

Theorem: Let $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be defined as $f(n) = 2n + 7$.
Then f is injective.

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What does it mean for the function f to be injective?

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$$\forall n_1 \in \mathbb{N}. \forall n_2 \in \mathbb{N}. (f(n_1) = f(n_2) \rightarrow n_1 = n_2)$$

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Therefore, we'll pick arbitrary $n_1, n_2 \in \mathbb{N}$, assume $f(n_1) = f(n_2)$, then prove that $n_1 = n_2$.

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Therefore, we'll pick arbitrary $n_1, n_2 \in \mathbb{N}$, **assume** $f(n_1) = f(n_2)$, then prove that $n_1 = n_2$.

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Theorem: Let $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be defined as $f(n) = 2n + 7$.
Then f is injective.

Proof: Consider any $n_1, n_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ where $f(n_1) = f(n_2)$. We will prove that $n_1 = n_2$.

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Proof: Consider any $n_1, n_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ where $f(n_1) = f(n_2)$. We will prove that $n_1 = n_2$.

Since $f(n_1) = f(n_2)$, we see that

$$2n_1 + 7 = 2n_2 + 7.$$

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Since $f(n_1) = f(n_2)$, we see that

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This in turn means that

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Since $f(n_1) = f(n_2)$, we see that

$$2n_1 + 7 = 2n_2 + 7.$$

This in turn means that

$$2n_1 = 2n_2,$$

so $n_1 = n_2$, as required. ■

Injective Functions

Theorem: Let $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be defined as $f(x) = x^4$. Then f is not injective.

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Proof:

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Proof:

What does it mean for f to be injective?

$$\forall x_1 \in \mathbb{Z}. \forall x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}. (x_1 \neq x_2 \rightarrow f(x_1) \neq f(x_2))$$

What is the negation of this statement?

$$\begin{aligned} &\neg \forall x_1 \in \mathbb{Z}. \forall x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}. (x_1 \neq x_2 \rightarrow f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)) \\ &\exists x_1 \in \mathbb{Z}. \neg \forall x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}. (x_1 \neq x_2 \rightarrow f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)) \\ &\exists x_1 \in \mathbb{Z}. \exists x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}. \neg (x_1 \neq x_2 \rightarrow f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)) \\ &\exists x_1 \in \mathbb{Z}. \exists x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}. (x_1 \neq x_2 \wedge \neg (f(x_1) \neq f(x_2))) \\ &\exists x_1 \in \mathbb{Z}. \exists x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}. (x_1 \neq x_2 \wedge f(x_1) = f(x_2)) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we need to find $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x_1 \neq x_2$, but $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$. Can we do that?

Injective Functions

Theorem: Let $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be defined as $f(x) = x^4$. Then f is not injective.

Proof:

What does it mean for f to be injective?

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What is the negation of this statement?

$$\neg \forall x_1 \in \mathbb{Z}. \forall x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}. (x_1 \neq x_2 \rightarrow f(x_1) \neq f(x_2))$$

$$\exists x_1 \in \mathbb{Z}. \neg \forall x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}. (x_1 \neq x_2 \rightarrow f(x_1) \neq f(x_2))$$

$$\exists x_1 \in \mathbb{Z}. \exists x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}. \neg (x_1 \neq x_2 \rightarrow f(x_1) \neq f(x_2))$$

$$\exists x_1 \in \mathbb{Z}. \exists x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}. (x_1 \neq x_2 \wedge \neg (f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)))$$

$$\exists x_1 \in \mathbb{Z}. \exists x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}. (\mathbf{x_1 \neq x_2 \wedge f(x_1) = f(x_2)})$$

Therefore, we need to find $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x_1 \neq x_2$, but $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$. Can we do that?

Injective Functions

Theorem: Let $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be defined as $f(x) = x^4$. Then f is not injective.

Proof: We will prove that there exist integers x_1 and x_2 such that $x_1 \neq x_2$, but $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$.

Injective Functions

Theorem: Let $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be defined as $f(x) = x^4$. Then f is not injective.

Proof: We will prove that there exist integers x_1 and x_2 such that $x_1 \neq x_2$, but $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$.

Let $x_1 = -1$ and $x_2 = +1$.

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Let $x_1 = -1$ and $x_2 = +1$. Notice that

$$f(x_1) = f(-1) = (-1)^4 = 1$$

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Theorem: Let $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be defined as $f(x) = x^4$. Then f is not injective.

Proof: We will prove that there exist integers x_1 and x_2 such that $x_1 \neq x_2$, but $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$.

Let $x_1 = -1$ and $x_2 = +1$. Notice that

$$f(x_1) = f(-1) = (-1)^4 = 1$$

and

$$f(x_2) = f(1) = 1^4 = 1$$

Injective Functions

Theorem: Let $f: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be defined as $f(x) = x^4$. Then f is not injective.

Proof: We will prove that there exist integers x_1 and x_2 such that $x_1 \neq x_2$, but $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$.

Let $x_1 = -1$ and $x_2 = +1$. Notice that

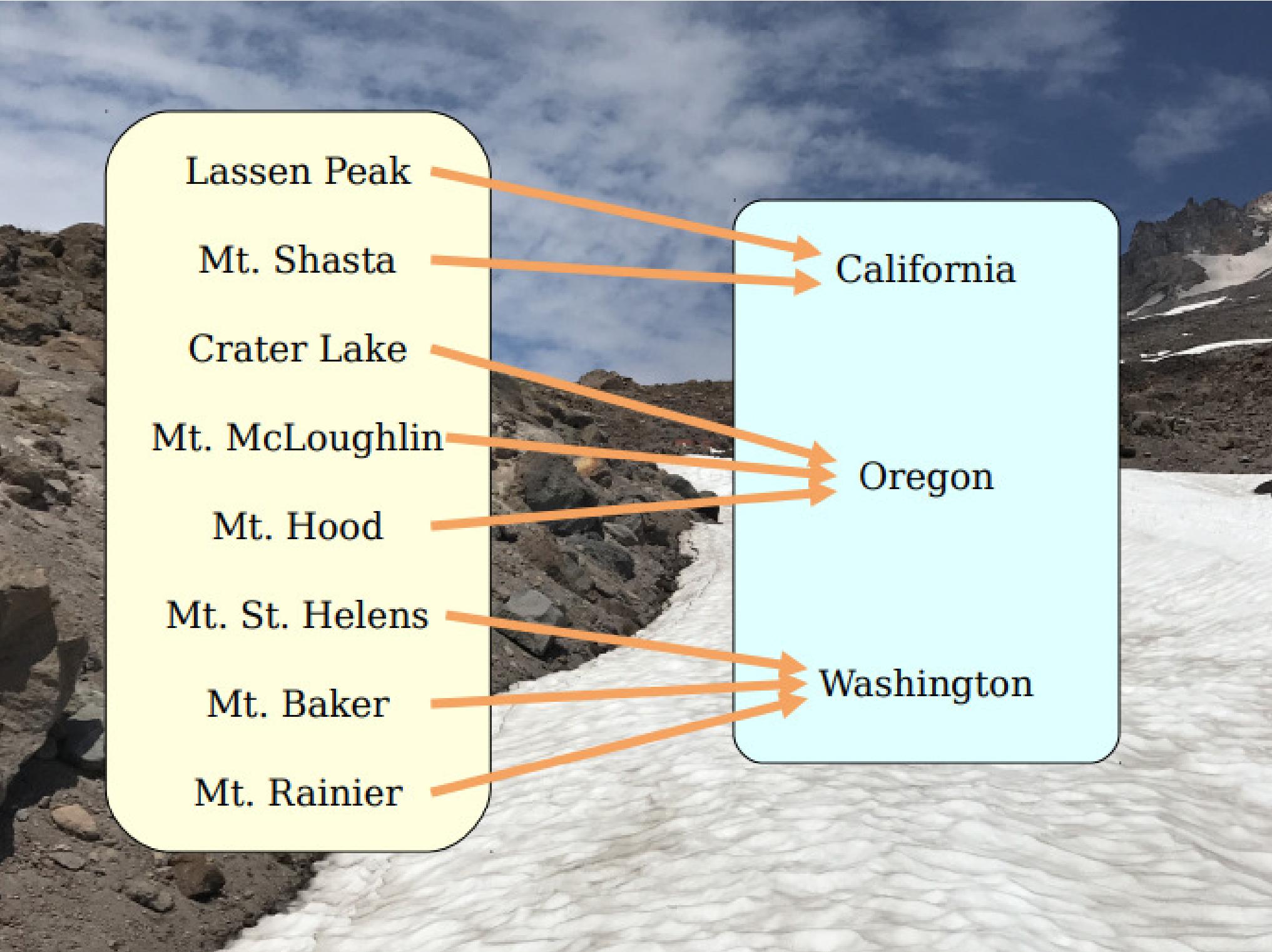
$$f(x_1) = f(-1) = (-1)^4 = 1$$

and

$$f(x_2) = f(1) = 1^4 = 1,$$

so $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ even though $x_1 \neq x_2$, as required. ■

Surjective Functions



Lassen Peak

Mt. Shasta

Crater Lake

Mt. McLoughlin

Mt. Hood

Mt. St. Helens

Mt. Baker

Mt. Rainier

California

Oregon

Washington

Surjective Functions

- A function $f : A \rightarrow B$ is called **surjective** (or **onto**) if this first-order logic statement is true about f :

$$\forall b \in B. \exists a \in A. f(a) = b$$

("For every output, there's an input that produces it.")

- A function with this property is called a **surjection**.

Surjective Functions

Theorem: Let $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined as $f(x) = 2x$. Then $f(x)$ is surjective.

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Proof:

Surjective Functions

Theorem: Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined as $f(x) = 2x$. Then $f(x)$ is surjective.

Proof:

What does it mean for f to be surjective?

$$\forall y \in \mathbb{R}. \exists x \in \mathbb{R}. f(x) = y$$

Therefore, we'll choose an arbitrary $y \in \mathbb{R}$, then prove that there is some $x \in \mathbb{R}$ where $f(x) = y$.

Surjective Functions

Theorem: Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined as $f(x) = 2x$. Then $f(x)$ is surjective.

Proof:

What does it mean for f to be surjective?

$$\forall y \in \mathbb{R}. \exists x \in \mathbb{R}. f(x) = y$$

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Proof:

What does it mean for f to be surjective?

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Therefore, we'll choose an arbitrary $y \in \mathbb{R}$, then prove that there is some $x \in \mathbb{R}$ where $f(x) = y$.

Surjective Functions

Theorem: Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined as $f(x) = 2x$. Then $f(x)$ is surjective.

Proof:

What does it mean for f to be surjective?

$$\forall y \in \mathbb{R}. \exists x \in \mathbb{R}. \mathbf{f(x) = y}$$

Therefore, we'll choose an arbitrary $y \in \mathbb{R}$, then prove that there is some $x \in \mathbb{R}$ where $f(x) = y$.

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Theorem: Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined as $f(x) = 2x$. Then $f(x)$ is surjective.

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Proof: Consider any $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

Surjective Functions

Theorem: Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined as $f(x) = 2x$. Then $f(x)$ is surjective.

Proof: Consider any $y \in \mathbb{R}$. We will prove that there is a choice of $x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x) = y$.

Surjective Functions

Theorem: Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined as $f(x) = 2x$. Then $f(x)$ is surjective.

Proof: Consider any $y \in \mathbb{R}$. We will prove that there is a choice of $x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x) = y$.

Let $x = y / 2$.

Surjective Functions

Theorem: Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined as $f(x) = 2x$. Then $f(x)$ is surjective.

Proof: Consider any $y \in \mathbb{R}$. We will prove that there is a choice of $x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x) = y$.

Let $x = y / 2$. Then we see that

$$f(x) = f(y / 2)$$

Surjective Functions

Theorem: Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined as $f(x) = 2x$. Then $f(x)$ is surjective.

Proof: Consider any $y \in \mathbb{R}$. We will prove that there is a choice of $x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x) = y$.

Let $x = y / 2$. Then we see that

$$f(x) = f(y / 2) = 2y / 2$$

Surjective Functions

Theorem: Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined as $f(x) = 2x$. Then $f(x)$ is surjective.

Proof: Consider any $y \in \mathbb{R}$. We will prove that there is a choice of $x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x) = y$.

Let $x = y / 2$. Then we see that

$$f(x) = f(y / 2) = 2y / 2 = y.$$

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Theorem: Let $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined as $f(x) = 2x$. Then $f(x)$ is surjective.

Proof: Consider any $y \in \mathbb{R}$. We will prove that there is a choice of $x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x) = y$.

Let $x = y / 2$. Then we see that

$$f(x) = f(y / 2) = 2y / 2 = y.$$

So $f(x) = y$, as required. ■

Surjective Functions

Theorem: Let $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be defined as $g(n) = 2n$. Then $g(x)$ is not surjective.

Surjective Functions

Theorem: Let $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be defined as $g(n) = 2n$. Then $g(x)$ is not surjective.

What does it mean for g to be surjective?

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \exists m \in \mathbb{N}. g(m) = n$$

What is the negation of the above statement?

$$\begin{aligned} &\neg \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \exists m \in \mathbb{N}. g(m) = n \\ &\exists n \in \mathbb{N}. \neg \exists m \in \mathbb{N}. g(m) = n \\ &\exists n \in \mathbb{N}. \forall m \in \mathbb{N}. g(m) \neq n \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we need to find a natural number n where, regardless of which m we pick, we have $g(m) \neq n$.

Surjective Functions

Theorem: Let $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be defined as $g(n) = 2n$. Then $g(x)$ is not surjective.

Proof:

Surjective Functions

Theorem: Let $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be defined as $g(n) = 2n$. Then $g(x)$ is not surjective.

Proof: Let $n = 137$.

Surjective Functions

Theorem: Let $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be defined as $g(n) = 2n$. Then $g(x)$ is not surjective.

Proof: Let $n = 137$.

Our overall goal is to prove

$$\exists n \in \mathbb{N}. \forall m \in \mathbb{N}. g(m) \neq n.$$

We just made our choice of n . Therefore, we need to prove

$$\forall m \in \mathbb{N}. g(m) \neq n.$$

We'll therefore pick an arbitrary $m \in \mathbb{N}$, then prove that $g(m) \neq n$.

Surjective Functions

Theorem: Let $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be defined as $g(n) = 2n$. Then $g(x)$ is not surjective.

Proof: Let $n = 137$. Now, pick an arbitrary $m \in \mathbb{N}$.

Surjective Functions

Theorem: Let $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be defined as $g(n) = 2n$. Then $g(x)$ is not surjective.

Proof: Let $n = 137$. Now, pick an arbitrary $m \in \mathbb{N}$. We need to show that $g(m) \neq n$.

Surjective Functions

Theorem: Let $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be defined as $g(n) = 2n$. Then $g(x)$ is not surjective.

Proof: Let $n = 137$. Now, pick an arbitrary $m \in \mathbb{N}$. We need to show that $g(m) \neq n$.

Notice that $g(m) = 2m$ is even, while 137 is odd.

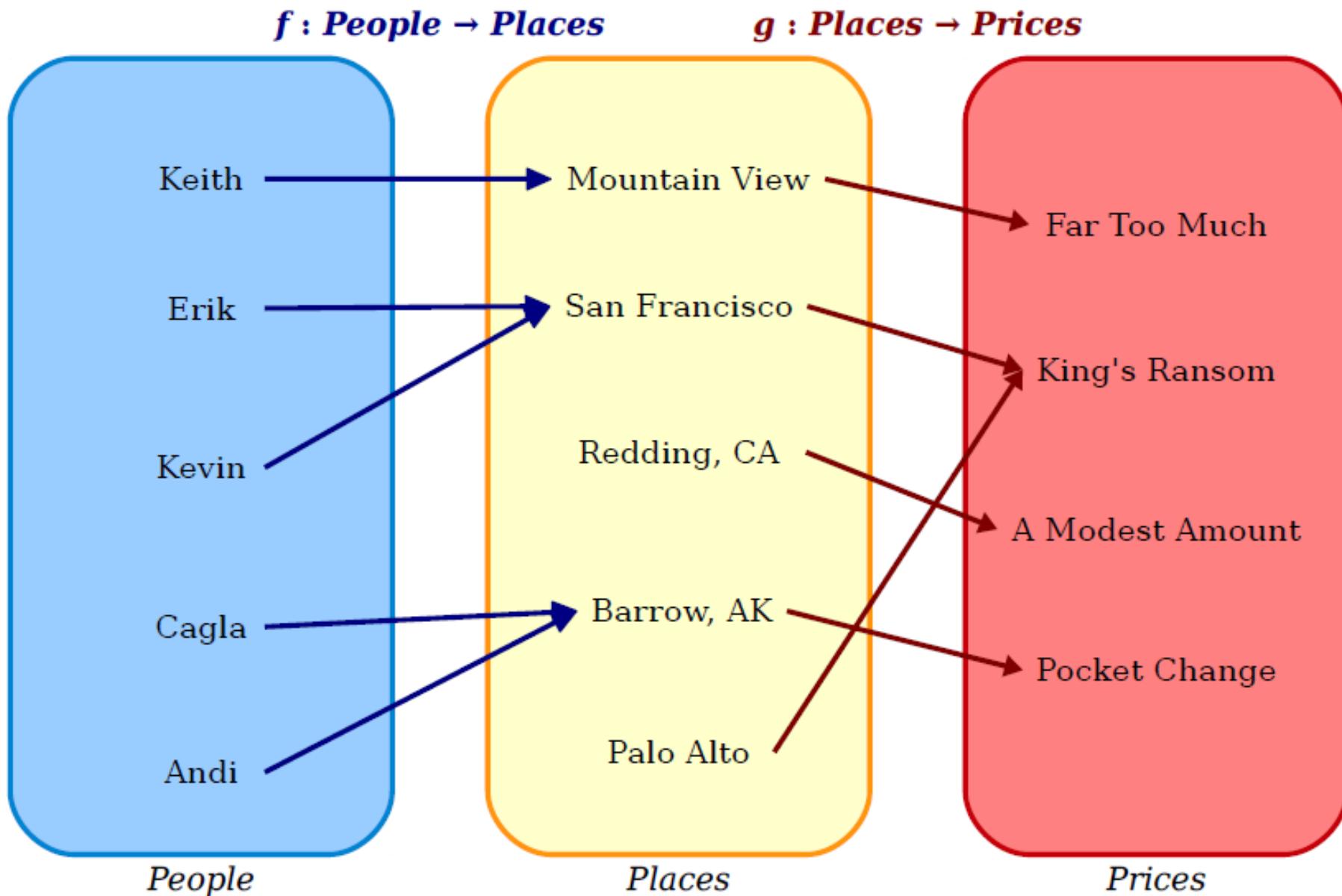
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Theorem: Let $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be defined as $g(n) = 2n$. Then $g(x)$ is not surjective.

Proof: Let $n = 137$. Now, pick an arbitrary $m \in \mathbb{N}$. We need to show that $g(m) \neq n$.

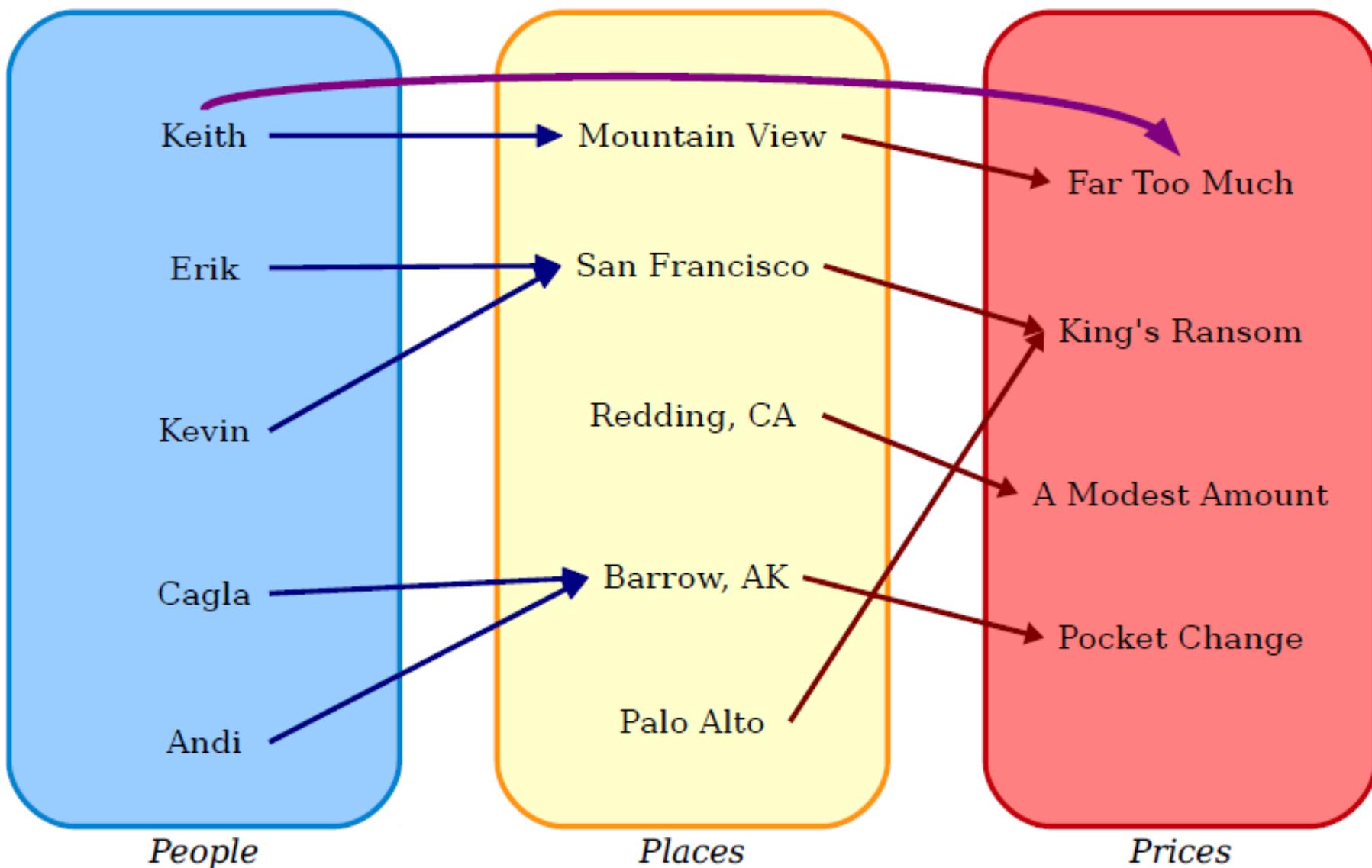
Notice that $g(m) = 2m$ is even, while 137 is odd. Therefore, we have $g(m) \neq 137$, as required. ■

Function Composition



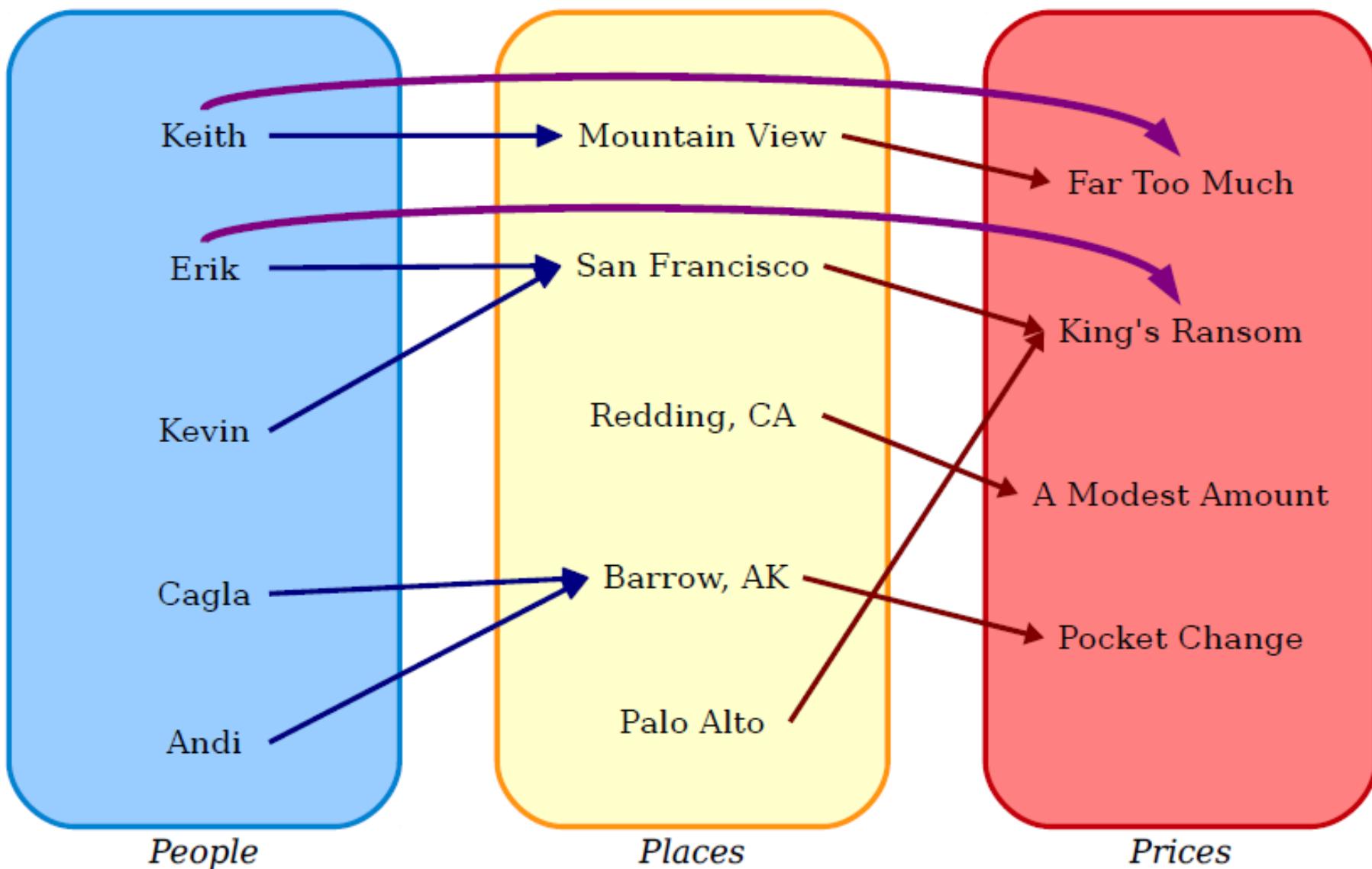
f : People → Places

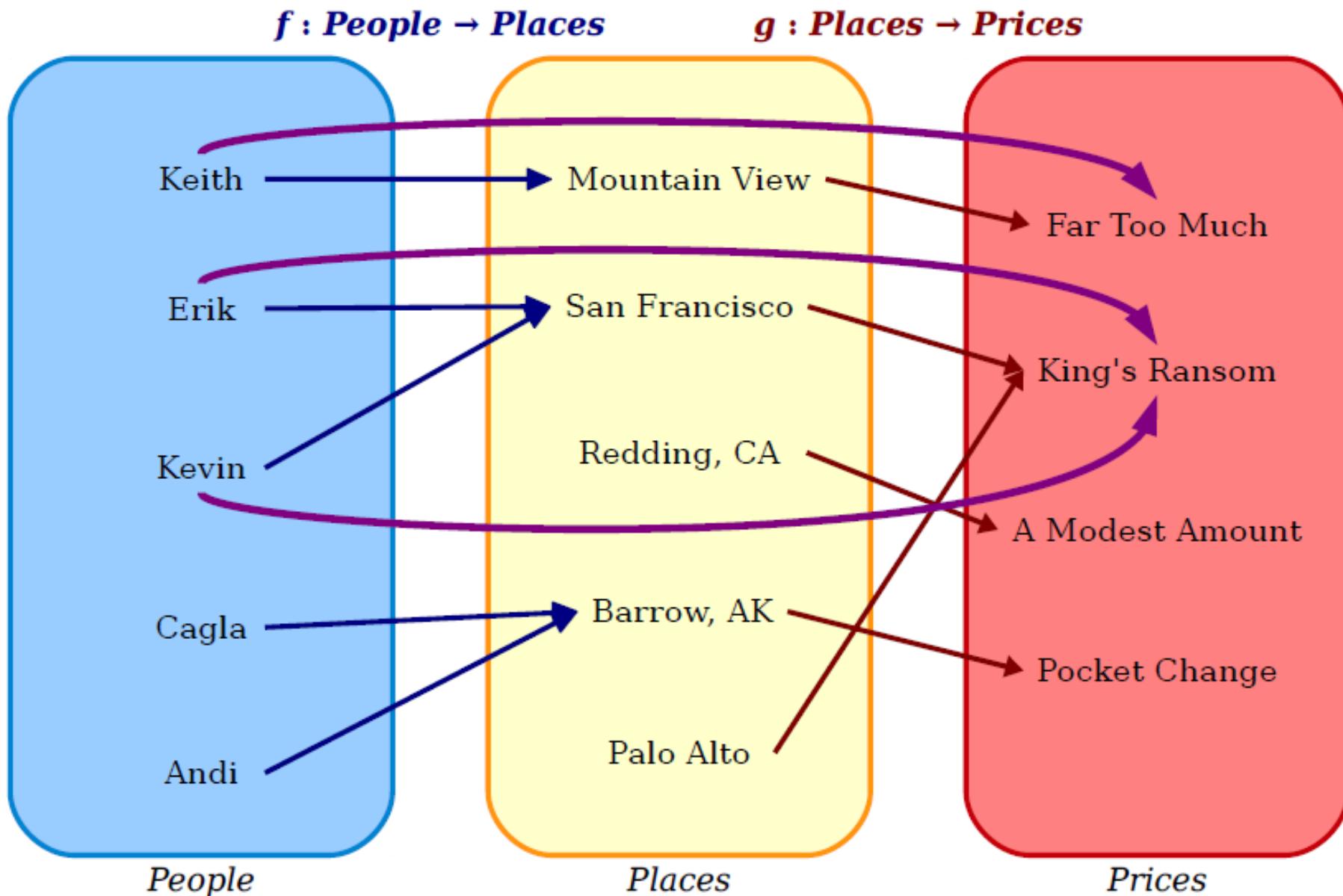
g : Places → Prices

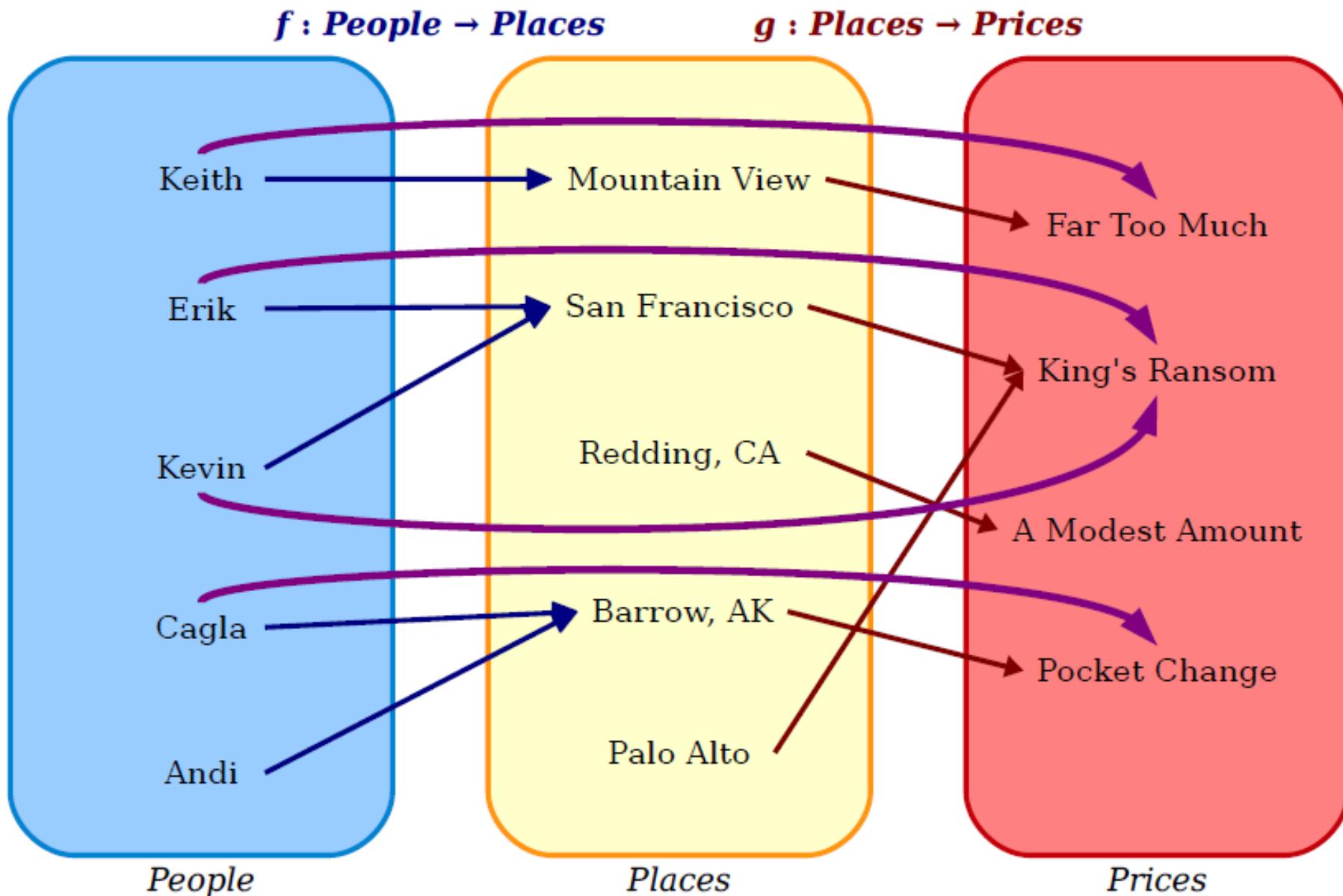


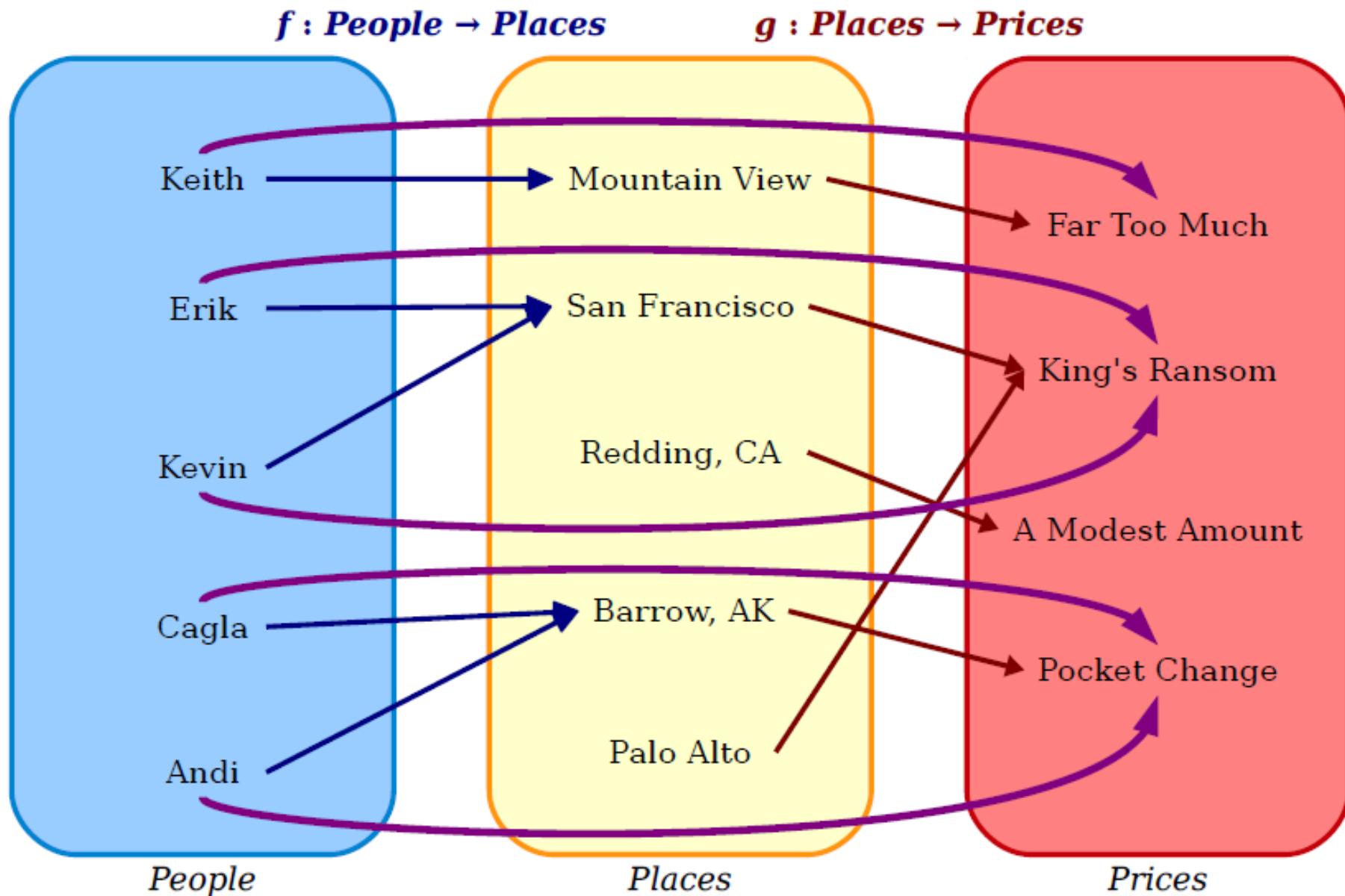
f : People → Places

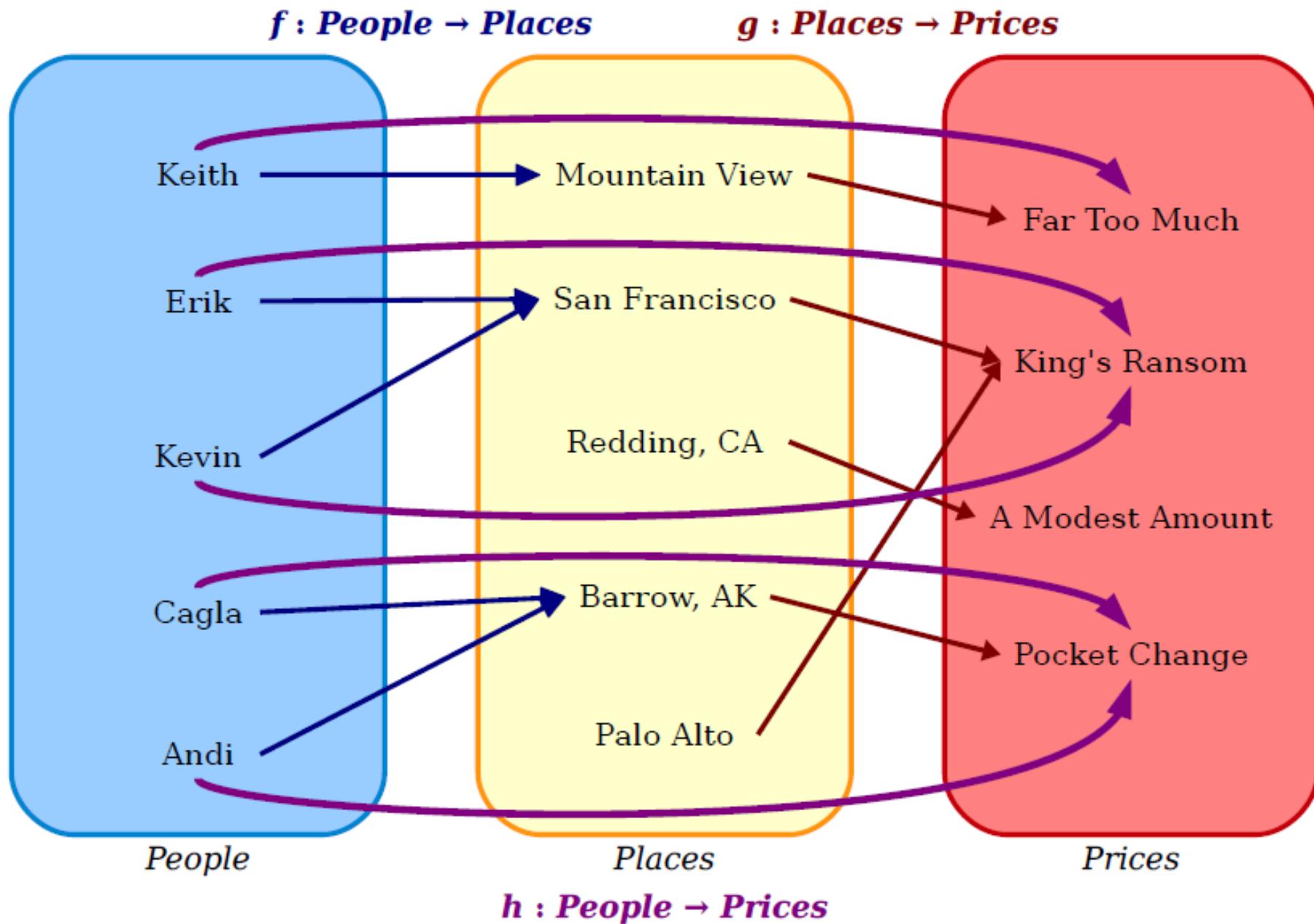
g : Places → Prices





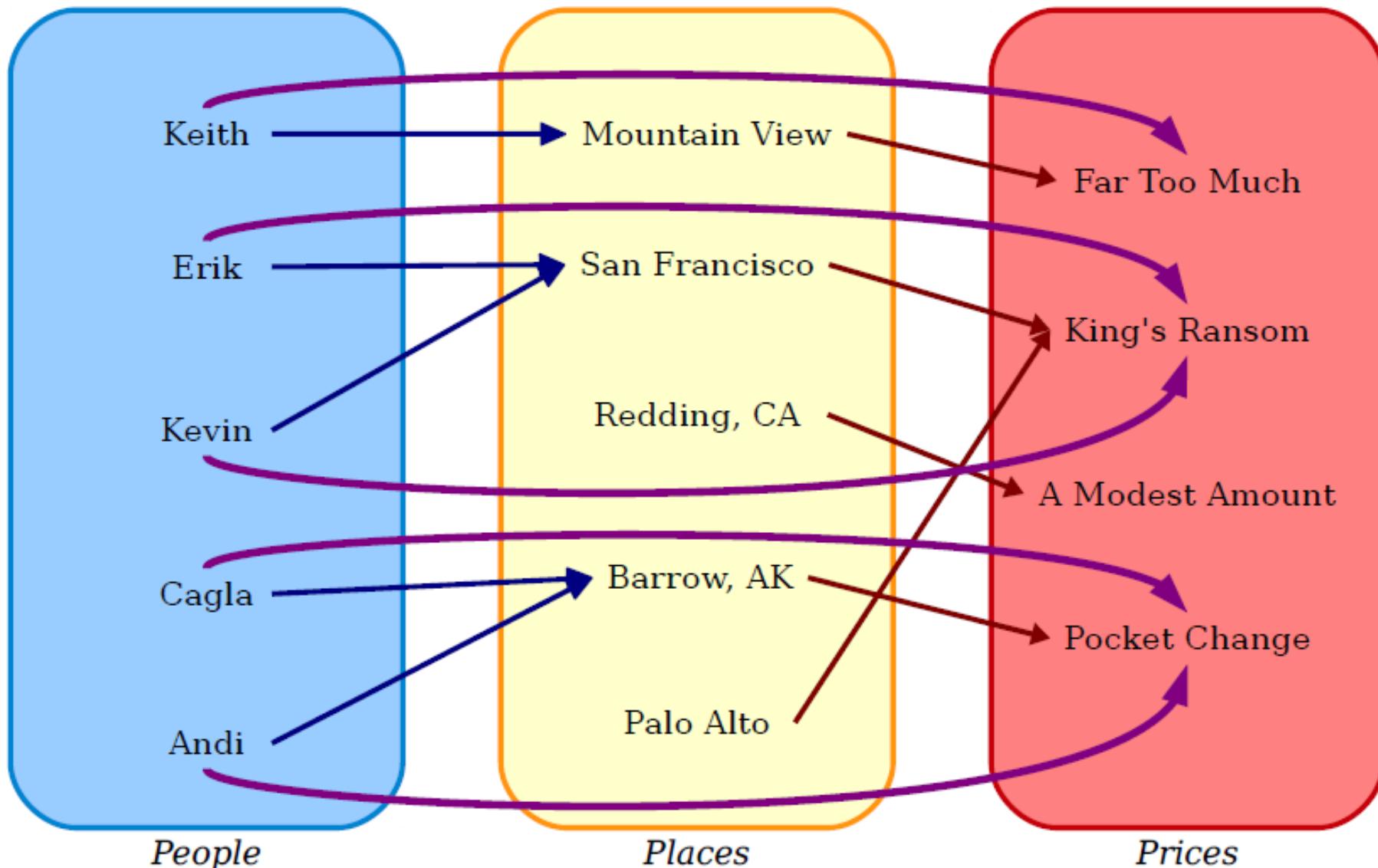






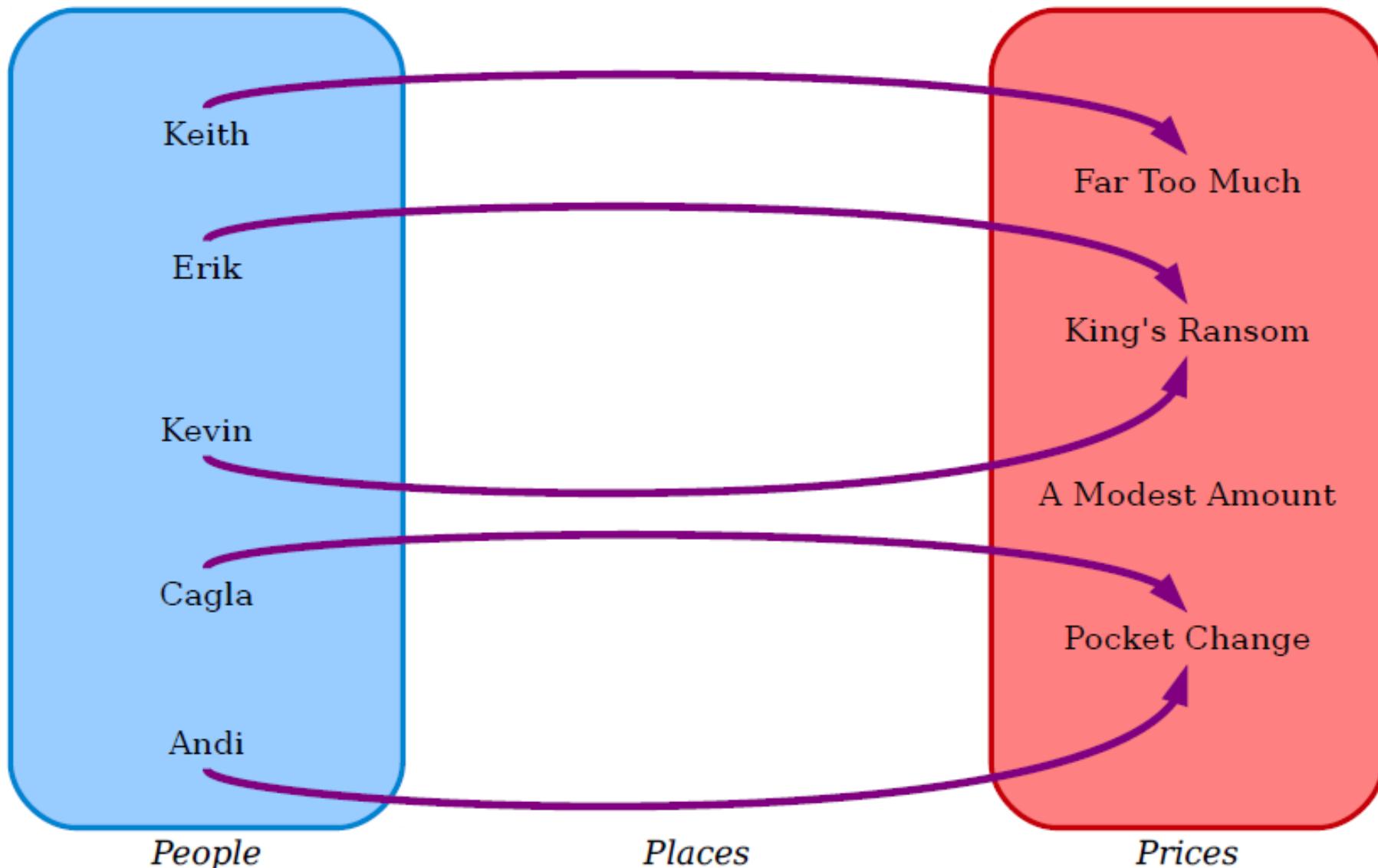
$$f : \mathbf{People} \rightarrow \mathbf{Places}$$

g : Places → Prices



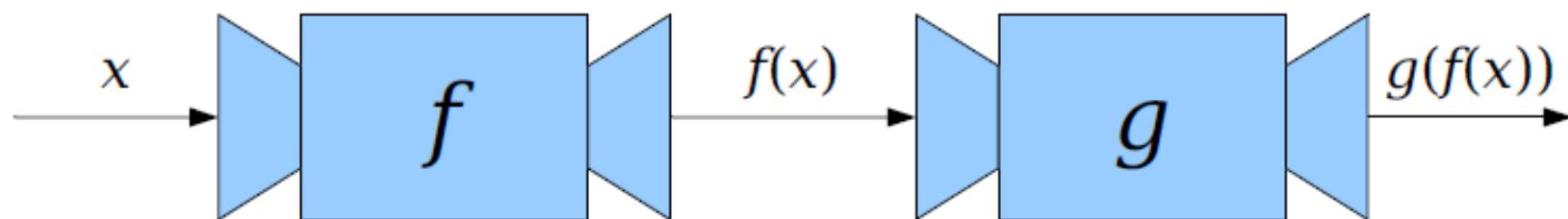
$$h : \text{People} \rightarrow \text{Prices}$$

$$h(x) = g(f(x))$$



Function Composition

- Suppose that we have two functions $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : B \rightarrow C$.
- Notice that the codomain of f is the domain of g . This means that we can use outputs from f as inputs to g .



Function Composition

- Suppose that we have two functions $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : B \rightarrow C$.
- The ***composition of f and g***, denoted $\mathbf{g} \circ \mathbf{f}$, is a function where
 - $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$, and
 - $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x))$.
- A few things to notice:
 - The domain of $g \circ f$ is the domain of f . Its codomain is the codomain of g .
 - Even though the composition is written $g \circ f$, when evaluating $(g \circ f)(x)$, the function f is evaluated first.

Function Composition

- Let $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be defined as $f(n) = 2n + 1$ and $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be defined as $g(n) = n^2$.
- What is $g \circ f$?

$$\begin{aligned}(g \circ f)(n) &= g(f(n)) \\ &= g(2n + 1) \\ &= (2n + 1)^2 = 4n^2 + 4n + 1\end{aligned}$$

- What is $f \circ g$?

$$\begin{aligned}(f \circ g)(n) &= f(g(n)) \\ &= f(n^2) \\ &= 2n^2 + 1\end{aligned}$$

- In general, if they exist, the functions $g \circ f$ and $f \circ g$ are usually not the same function. **Order matters in function composition!**

Properties of Composition

Theorem: If $f : A \rightarrow B$ is an injection and $g : B \rightarrow C$ is an injection, then the function $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$ is an injection.

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What We're Assuming

$f : A \rightarrow B$ is an injection.

$$\forall x \in A. \forall y \in A. (x \neq y \rightarrow f(x) \neq f(y))$$

)

$g : B \rightarrow C$ is an injection.

$$\forall x \in B. \forall y \in B. (x \neq y \rightarrow g(x) \neq g(y))$$

)

We're **assuming** these universally-quantified statements, so we won't introduce any variables for what's here.

What We Need to Prove

$g \circ f$ is an injection.

$$\forall a_1 \in A. \forall a_2 \in A. (a_1 \neq a_2 \rightarrow (g \circ f)(a_1) \neq (g \circ f)(a_2))$$

)

We need to **prove** this universally-quantified statement. So let's introduce arbitrarily-chosen values.

Theorem: If $f : A \rightarrow B$ is an injection and $g : B \rightarrow C$ is an injection, then the function $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$ is an injection.

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Now we're looking at an implication. Let's **assume** the antecedent and **prove** the consequent.

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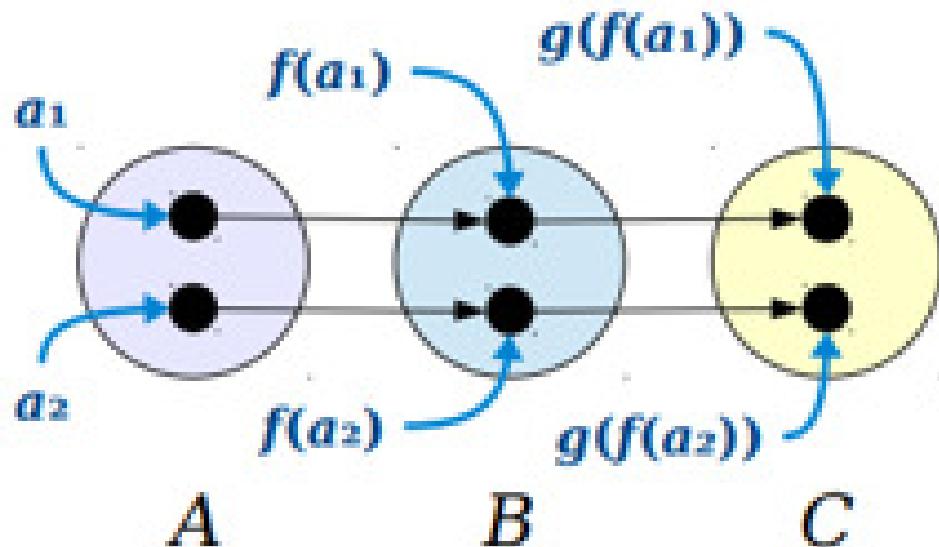
What We Need to Prove

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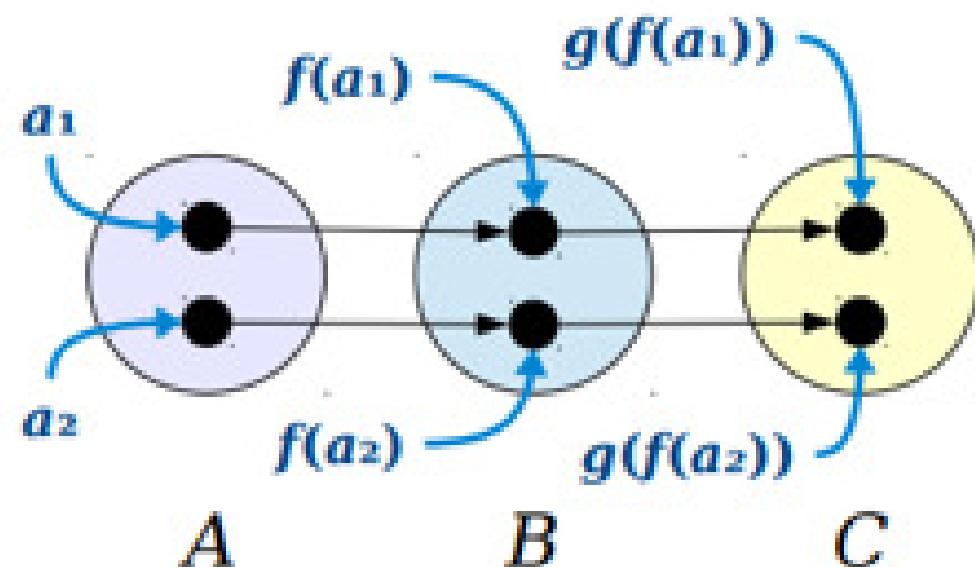
)

$g(f(a_1)) \neq g(f(a_2))$



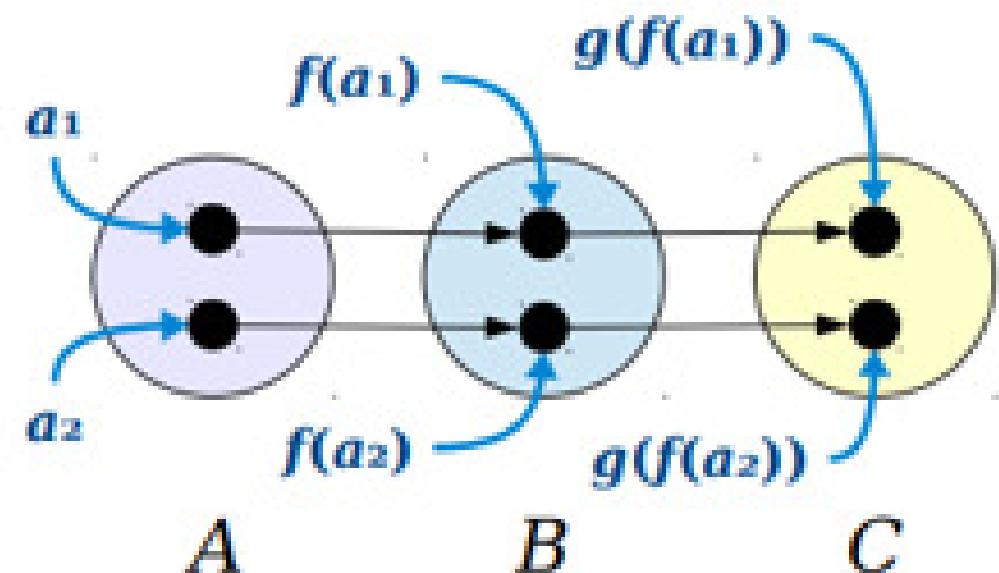
Theorem: If $f : A \rightarrow B$ is an injection and $g : B \rightarrow C$ is an injection, then the function $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$ is also an injection.

Proof:



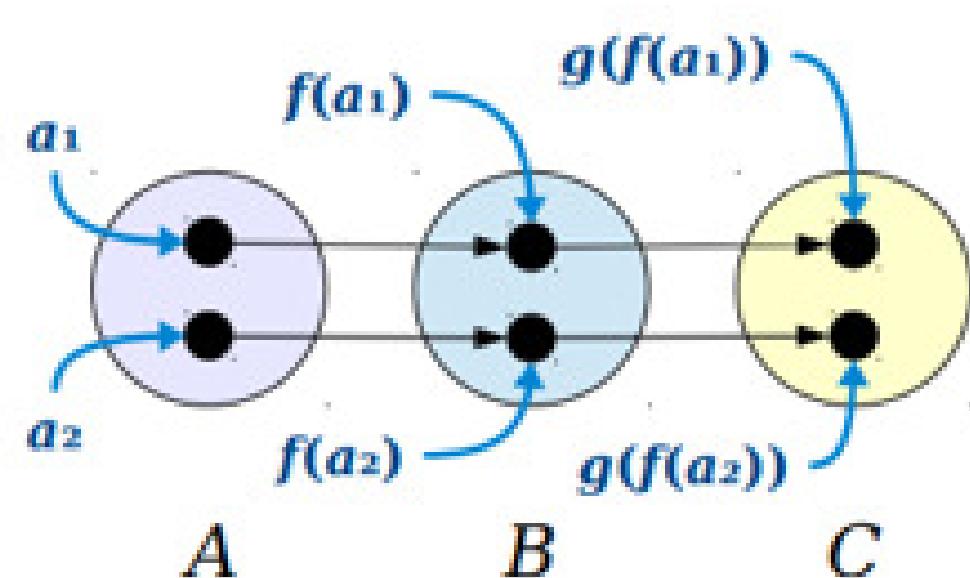
Theorem: If $f : A \rightarrow B$ is an injection and $g : B \rightarrow C$ is an injection, then the function $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$ is also an injection.

Proof: Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : B \rightarrow C$ be arbitrary injections.



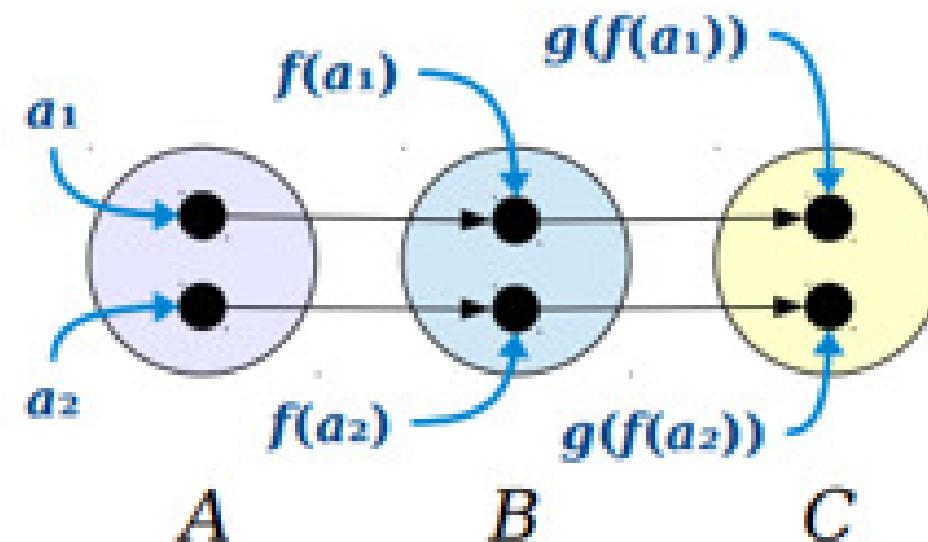
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Proof: Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : B \rightarrow C$ be arbitrary injections. We will prove that the function $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$ is also injective.



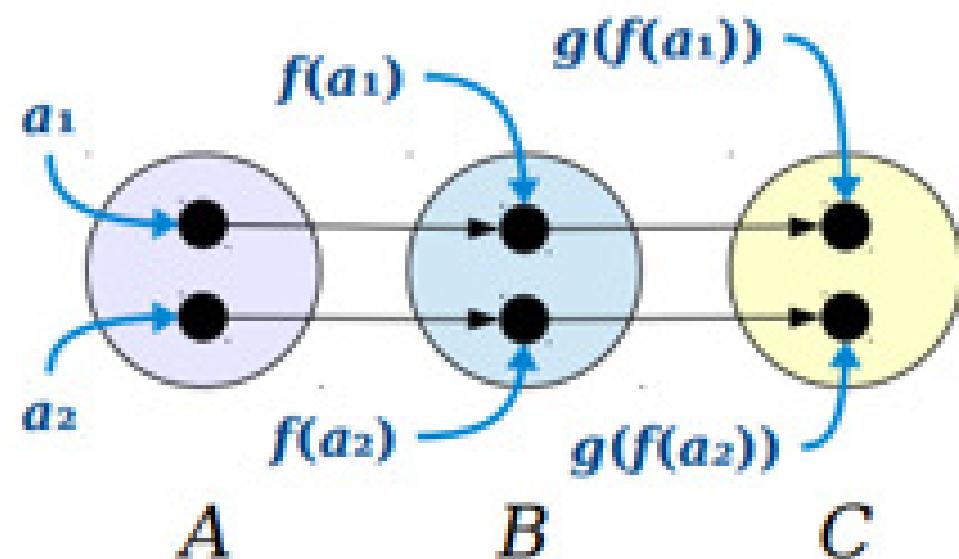
Theorem: If $f : A \rightarrow B$ is an injection and $g : B \rightarrow C$ is an injection, then the function $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$ is also an injection.

Proof: Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : B \rightarrow C$ be arbitrary injections. We will prove that the function $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$ is also injective. To do so, consider any $a_1, a_2 \in A$ where $a_1 \neq a_2$.



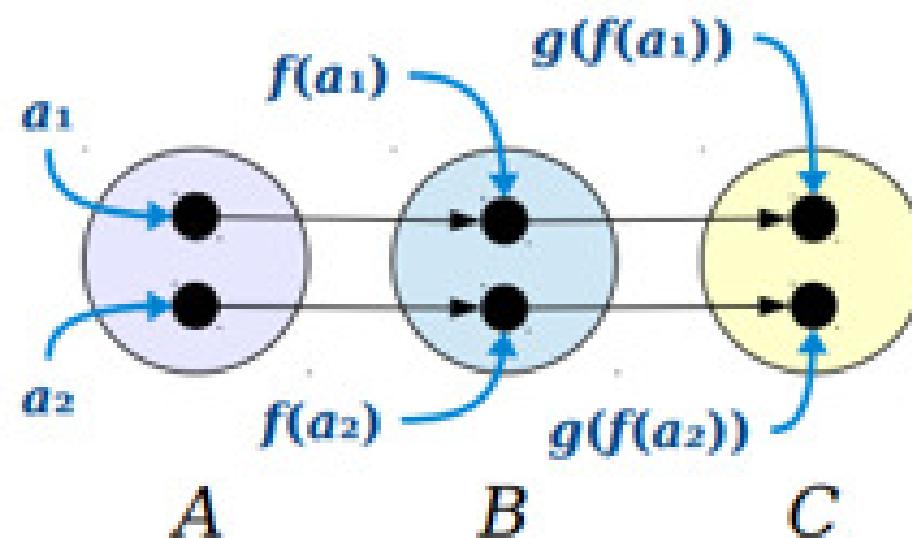
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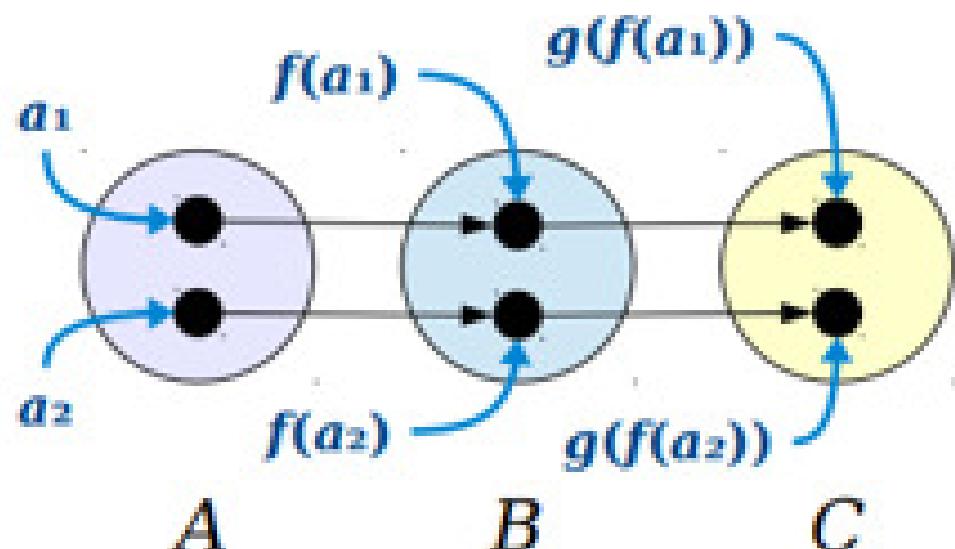
Proof: Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : B \rightarrow C$ be arbitrary injections. We will prove that the function $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$ is also injective. To do so, consider any $a_1, a_2 \in A$ where $a_1 \neq a_2$. We will prove that $(g \circ f)(a_1) \neq (g \circ f)(a_2)$. Equivalently, we need to show that $g(f(a_1)) \neq g(f(a_2))$.



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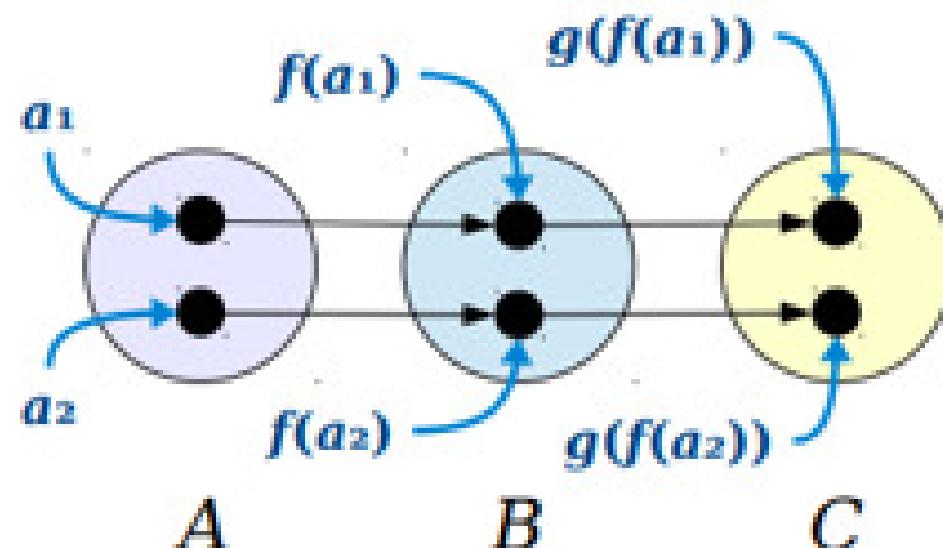
Since f is injective and $a_1 \neq a_2$, we see that $f(a_1) \neq f(a_2)$.



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Since f is injective and $a_1 \neq a_2$, we see that $f(a_1) \neq f(a_2)$. Then, since g is injective and $f(a_1) \neq f(a_2)$, we see that $g(f(a_1)) \neq g(f(a_2))$, as required. ■



Theorem: If $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a surjection and $g : B \rightarrow C$ is a surjection, then the function $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$ is a surjection.

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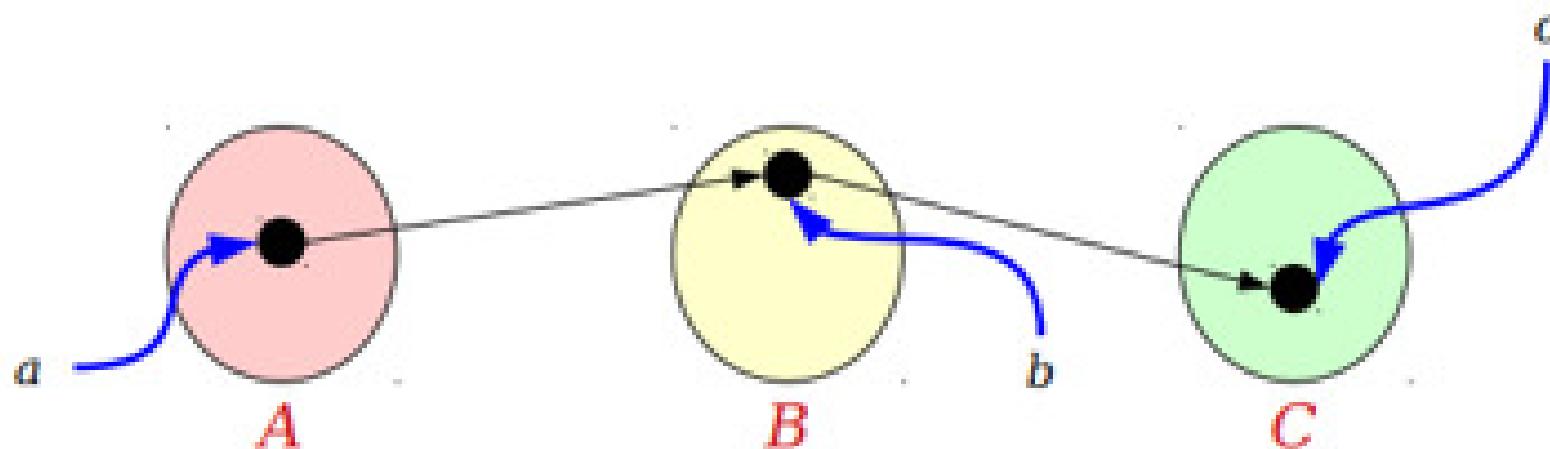
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We will prove that the function $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$ is also surjective. To do so, we will prove that for any $c \in C$, there is some $a \in A$ such that $(g \circ f)(a) = c$.

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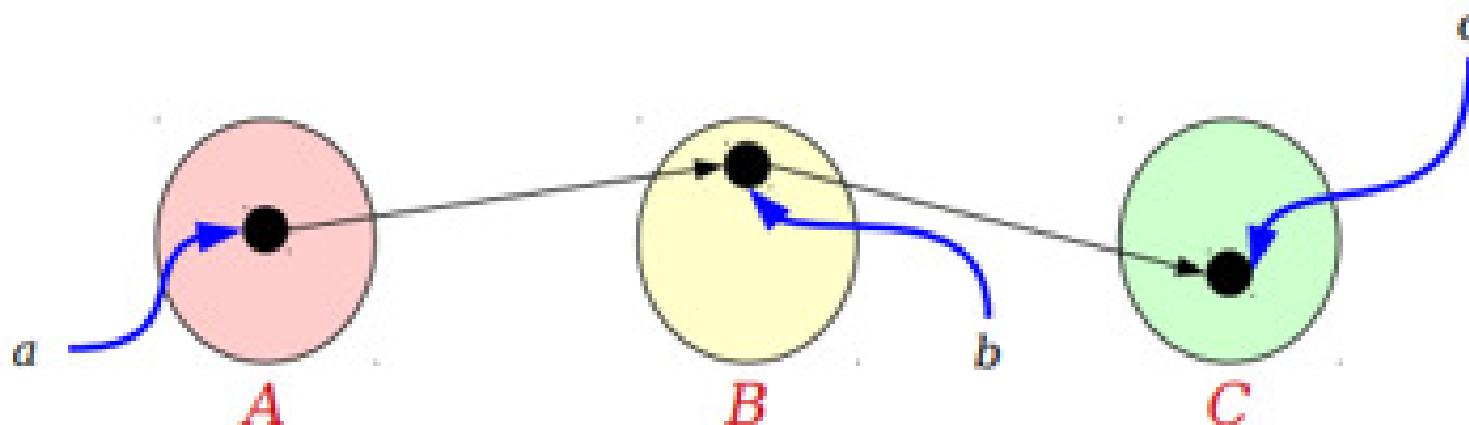


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Consider any $c \in C$.

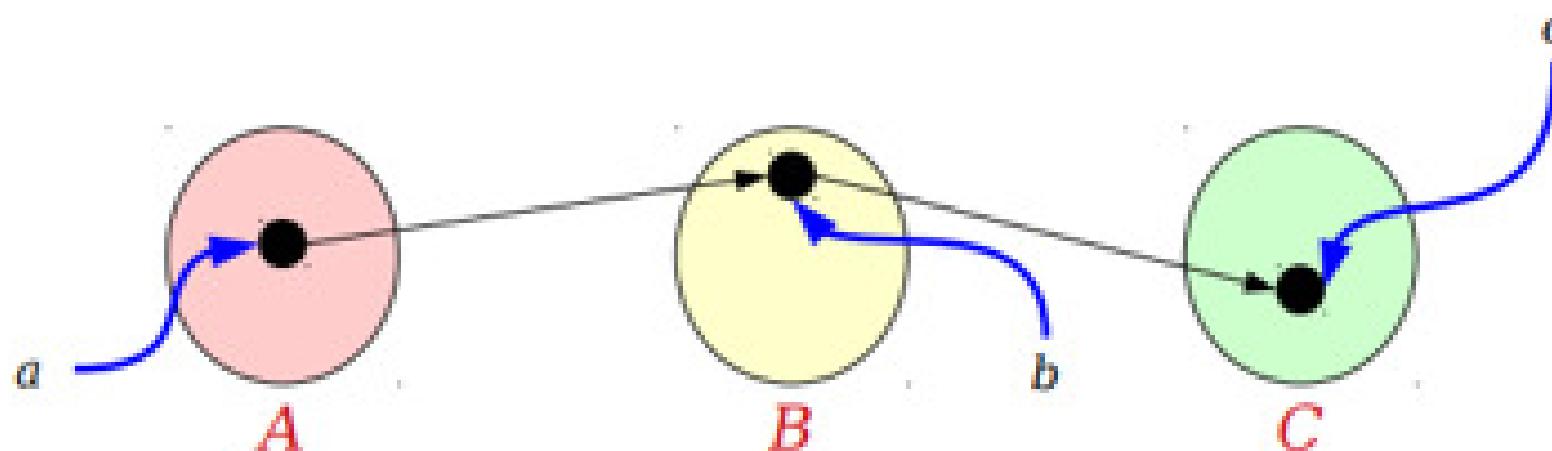


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Consider any $c \in C$. Since $g : B \rightarrow C$ is surjective, there is some $b \in B$ such that $g(b) = c$.

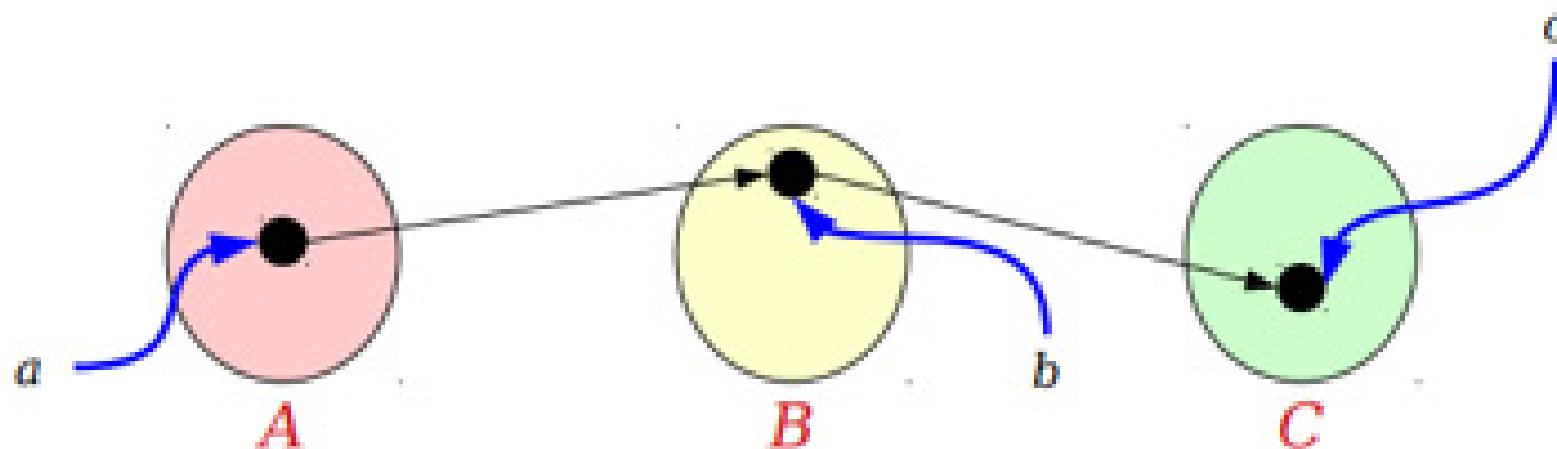


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Consider any $c \in C$. Since $g : B \rightarrow C$ is surjective, there is some $b \in B$ such that $g(b) = c$. Similarly, since $f : A \rightarrow B$ is surjective, there is some $a \in A$ such that $f(a) = b$.



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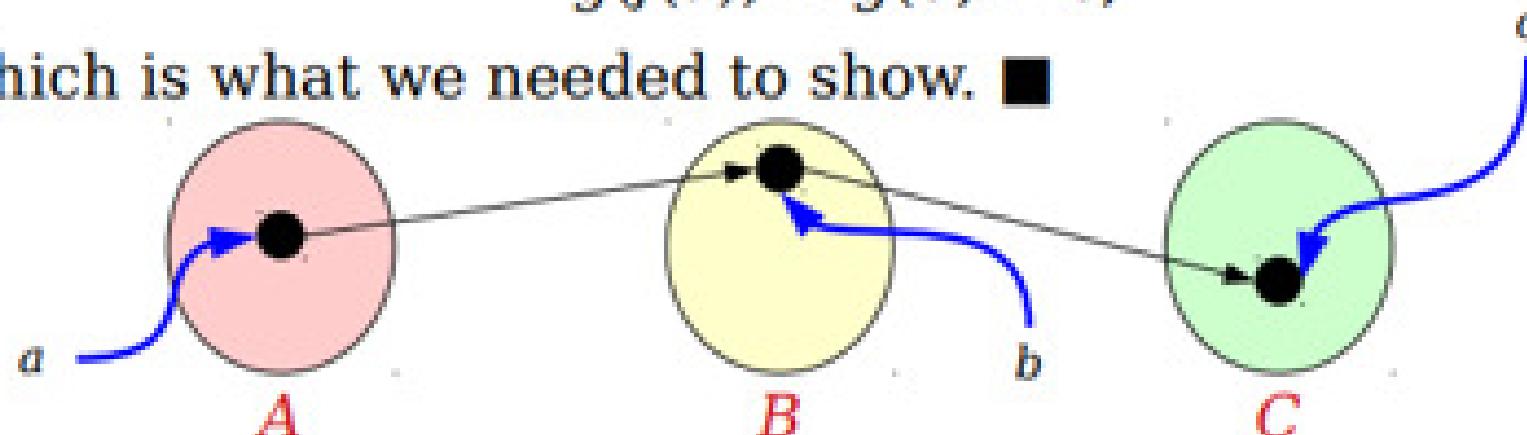
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Consider any $c \in C$. Since $g : B \rightarrow C$ is surjective, there is some $b \in B$ such that $g(b) = c$. Similarly, since $f : A \rightarrow B$ is surjective, there is some $a \in A$ such that $f(a) = b$. Then we see that

$$g(f(a)) = g(b) = c,$$

which is what we needed to show. ■



Injections and Surjections

- An injective function associates ***at most*** one element of the domain with each element of the codomain.
- A surjective function associates ***at least*** one element of the domain with each element of the codomain.
- What about functions that associate ***exactly one*** element of the domain with each element of the codomain?

Bijections

- A function that associates each element of the codomain with a unique element of the domain is called ***bijection***.
 - Such a function is a ***bijection***.
 - Formally, a bijection is a function that is both *injective* and *surjective*.
 - Bijections are sometimes called ***one-to-one correspondences***.
 - Not to be confused with “one-to-one functions.”

Bijections and Composition

- Suppose that $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : B \rightarrow C$ are bijections.
- Is $g \circ f$ necessarily a bijection?
- **Yes!**
 - Since both f and g are injective, we know that $g \circ f$ is injective.
 - Since both f and g are surjective, we know that $g \circ f$ is surjective.
 - Therefore, $g \circ f$ is a bijection.

Cardinality

Cardinality

- Recall (*from our first lecture!*) that the **cardinality** of a set is the number of elements it contains.
- If S is a set, we denote its cardinality by $|S|$.
- For finite sets, cardinalities are natural numbers:
 - $|\{1, 2, 3\}| = 3$
 - $|\{100, 200\}| = 2$
- For infinite sets, we introduced **infinite cardinals** to denote the size of sets:

$$|\mathbb{N}| = \aleph_0$$

Comparing Cardinalities

- Here is the formal definition of what it means for two sets to have the same cardinality:

$|S| = |T|$ if there exists a **bijection** $f: S \rightarrow T$

Properties of Cardinality

- For any sets A , B , and C , the following are true:
 - $|A| = |A|$.
 - Define $f : A \rightarrow A$ as $f(x) = x$.
 - **If $|A| = |B|$, then $|B| = |A|$.**
 - If $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a bijection, then $f^{-1} : B \rightarrow A$ is a bijection.
 - **If $|A| = |B|$ and $|B| = |C|$, then $|A| = |C|$.**
 - If $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : B \rightarrow C$ are bijections, then $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$ is a bijection.

Big O

Big O

Big-O defines a **set** or class **of functions** with a similar upper bound.

Definition : Let f and g be functions whose domain and co-domain are subsets of the real numbers.
Then,

$$f(x) \in O(g(x)) \Leftrightarrow \exists c, k \ \forall x \geq k \ (f(x) \leq c \cdot g(x))$$

The notation $f(n)=O(g(x))$ is also often used to denote $f(x) \in O(g(x))$.

Big O

For functions f and g we write

$$f(x) = O(g(x))$$

to denote

$$\exists c, k \text{ so that } \forall x \geq k, f(x) \leq c \cdot g(x)$$

We say “ $f(x)$ is big O of $g(x)$ ”

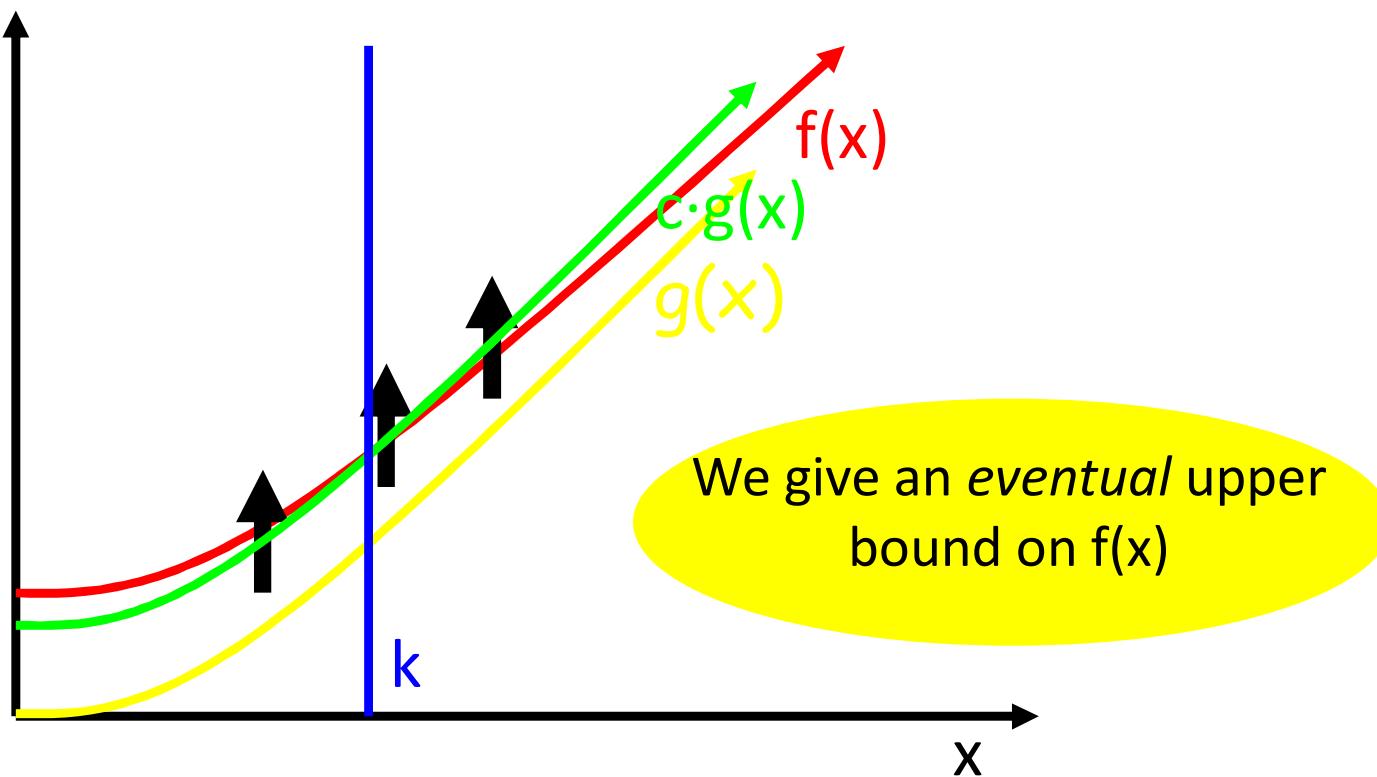
Recipe for proving $f(x) = O(g(x))$: find a c and k so that the inequality holds.

Big O

$$f(x) = O(g(x))$$

iff

$$\exists c, k \text{ so that } \forall x \geq k, f(x) \leq c \cdot g(x)$$



Big O : Example

$$f(x) = O(g(x))$$

iff

$$\exists c, k \text{ so that } \forall x \geq k, f(x) \leq c \cdot g(x)$$

$$3n = O(15n) \text{ since } \forall n \geq 0, 3n \leq 15n$$

There's k

There's c

Big O : Example

$$f(x) = O(g(x))$$

iff

$$\exists c, k \text{ so that } \forall x \geq k, f(x) \leq c \cdot g(x)$$

$$15n = O(3n) \text{ since } \forall n \geq 0, 15n \leq 5 \cdot 3n$$

Big O : Example

$$f(x) = O(g(x))$$

iff

$$\exists c, k \text{ so that } \forall x \geq k, f(x) \leq c \cdot g(x)$$

$$x^2 = O(x^3) \text{ since } \forall x \geq \underline{1}, x^2 \leq x^3$$

Big O : Example

$$f(x) = O(g(x))$$

iff

$$\exists c, k \text{ so that } \forall x \geq k, f(x) \leq c \cdot g(x)$$

$$1000x^2 = O(x^2) \text{ since } \forall x \geq 0, 1000x^2 \leq 1000 \cdot x^2$$

Big O : Example

$$f(x) = O(g(x))$$

iff

$$\exists c, k \text{ so that } \forall x \geq k, f(x) \leq c \cdot g(x)$$

Prove that $x^2 + 100x + 100 = O((1/100)x^2)$

$$x^2 + 100x + 100 \leq 201x^2 \text{ when } x > 1$$

$$\leq 20100 \cdot (1/100)x^2$$

$$100x \leq 100x^2$$

$$100 \leq 100x^2$$

$$k = 1, \\ c = 20100$$

Big O : Example

Prove that $5x + 100 = O(x/2)$

Similar problem,
different technique.

Need $\forall x \geq \underline{\quad}, 5x + 100 \leq \underline{\quad} \cdot x/2$

Try $c = 10$

$\forall x \geq \underline{\quad}, 5x + 100 \leq 10 \cdot x/2$

Nothing works for k

Try $c = 11$

$\forall x \geq \underline{\quad}, 5x + 100 \leq 5x + x/2$

$\forall x \geq \underline{200}, 100 \leq x/2$

$k = 200,$
 $c = 11$

Big O

Guidelines:

- In general, only the largest term in a sum matters.

$$a_0x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1}x^1 + a_nx^0 = O(x^n)$$

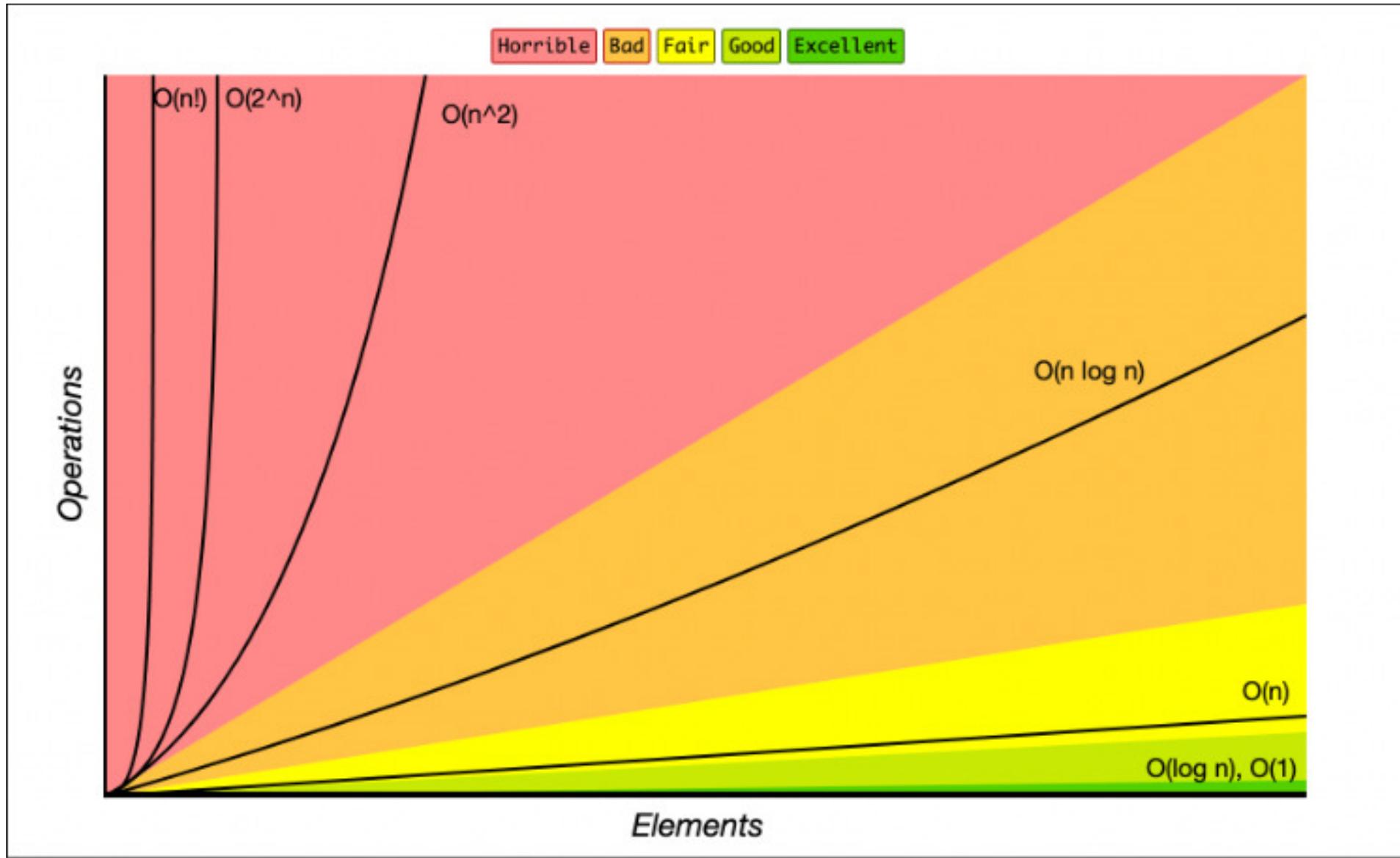
- n dominates $\lg n$.

$$n^5 \lg n = O(n^6)$$

- List of common functions in increasing O() order:

$$1 \ n \ (n \lg n) \ n^2 \ n^3 \ \dots \ 2^n \ n!$$

Big O



Big O

$$n! = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot \dots \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \leq n \cdot n \cdot \dots \cdot n \cdot n \cdot n = n^n$$

$$n! = O(n^n)$$

$$\log n! \leq \log n^n = n \log n$$

$$\log n! = O(n \log n)$$

Algorithm Analysis with Big O

What does the following algorithm compute?

```
who_knows(a1, a2, ..., an: integers)
who_knows := 0
for i := 1 to n-1
    for j := i + 1 to n
        if |ai – aj| > who_knows then who_knows := |ai – aj|
{who_knows is the maximum difference between any two
numbers in the input sequence}
```

Comparisons: $(n-1) + (n-2) + (n-3) + \dots + 1$
 $= (n - 1)n/2 = 0.5n^2 - 0.5n$

Time complexity is $O(n^2)$.

Algorithm Analysis with Big O

Another algorithm solving the same problem:

```
max_diff(a1, a2, ..., an: integers)
min := a1
max := a1
for i := 2 to n
    if ai < min then min := ai
    else if ai > max then max := ai
max_diff := max - min
```

Comparisons: $2n - 2$

Time complexity is $O(n)$.

Algorithm Analysis with Big O

What is time complexity of the following algorithm?

mystery(n : positive integers)

$j := n^3$

while (j > 1)

$j := j/2$

Number of comparisons k : $n^3 = 2^k$; $k = \log_2 n^3$

$$= 3\log_2 n = (3/\log 2)\log n$$

Time complexity is $O(\log n)$.

Computing Sums

Computing Sums: Tool 1: Constant Rule

$$S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} 3$$

Computing Sums: Tool 1: Constant Rule

$$S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} 3 = 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3$$

Computing Sums: Tool 1: Constant Rule

$$S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} 3 = 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 \quad 3 \times 10$$

Computing Sums: Tool 1: Constant Rule

$$S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} 3 = 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 \quad 3 \times 10$$

$$S_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} j$$

Computing Sums: Tool 1: Constant Rule

$$S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} 3 = 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 \quad 3 \times 10$$

$$S_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} j = j + j + j + j + j + j + j + j + j + j$$

Computing Sums: Tool 1: Constant Rule

$$S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} 3 = 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 \quad 3 \times 10$$

$$S_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} j = j + j + j + j + j + j + j + j + j + j \quad j \times 10$$

Computing Sums: Tool 1: Constant Rule

$$S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} 3 = 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 \quad 3 \times 10$$

$$S_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} j = j + j + j + j + j + j + j + j + j + j \quad j \times 10$$

$$S_3 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} i$$

Computing Sums: Tool 1: Constant Rule

$$S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} 3 = 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 \quad 3 \times 10$$

$$S_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} j = j + j + j + j + j + j + j + j + j + j \quad j \times 10$$

$$S_3 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} i = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6 + 7 + 8 + 9 + 10$$

Computing Sums: Tool 1: Constant Rule

$$S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} 3 = 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 \quad 3 \times 10$$

$$S_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} j = j + j + j + j + j + j + j + j + j + j \quad j \times 10$$

$$S_3 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} i = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6 + 7 + 8 + 9 + 10 \quad \frac{1}{2} \times 10 \times (10 + 1)$$

Computing Sums: Tool 1: Constant Rule

$$S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} 3 = 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 \quad 3 \times 10$$

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The *index of summation* is i in these examples.

Computing Sums: Tool 1: Constant Rule

$$S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} 3 = 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 \quad 3 \times 10$$

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.

The *index of summation* is i in these examples.

Constants (independent of summation index) can be taken outside the sum.

$$S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} 3 = 3 \sum_{i=1}^{10} 1 = 3 \times 10 \quad S_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} j = j \sum_{i=1}^{10} 1 = j \times 10.$$

Computing Sums: Tool 2: Addition Rule

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^5 (i + i^2)$$

Computing Sums: Tool 2: Addition Rule

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \sum_{i=1}^5 (i + i^2) \\ &= (1 + 1^2) + (2 + 2^2) + (3 + 3^2) + (4 + 4^2) + (5 + 5^2) \end{aligned}$$

Computing Sums: Tool 2: Addition Rule

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \sum_{i=1}^5 (i + i^2) \\ &= (1 + 1^2) + (2 + 2^2) + (3 + 3^2) + (4 + 4^2) + (5 + 5^2) \\ &= (1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5) + (1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2 + 5^2) \end{aligned} \quad \text{(rearrange terms)}$$

Computing Sums: Tool 2: Addition Rule

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \sum_{i=1}^5 (i + i^2) \\ &= (1 + 1^2) + (2 + 2^2) + (3 + 3^2) + (4 + 4^2) + (5 + 5^2) \\ &= (1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5) + (1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2 + 5^2) \quad \text{(rearrange terms)} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^5 i + \sum_{i=1}^5 i^2. \end{aligned}$$

Computing Sums: Tool 2: Addition Rule

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \sum_{i=1}^5 (i + i^2) \\ &= (1 + 1^2) + (2 + 2^2) + (3 + 3^2) + (4 + 4^2) + (5 + 5^2) \\ &= (1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5) + (1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2 + 5^2) \quad \text{(rearrange terms)} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^5 i + \sum_{i=1}^5 i^2. \end{aligned}$$

The sum of terms added together is the addition of the individual sums.

$$\sum_i (a(i) + b(i) + c(i) + \dots) = \sum_i a(i) + \sum_i b(i) + \sum_i c(i) + \dots$$

Computing Sums: Tool 3: Common Sums

$$\sum_{i=k}^n 1 = n + 1 - k$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{1}{2}n(n + 1)$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^n 2^i = 2^{n+1} - 1$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n f(x) = nf(x)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{1}{6}n(n + 1)(2n + 1)$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^n \frac{1}{2^i} = 2 - \frac{1}{2^n}$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^n r^i = \frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{1 - r} \quad (r \neq 1)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^3 = \frac{1}{4}n^2(n + 1)^2$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \log i = \log n!$$

Example: $\sum_{i=1}^n (1 + 2i + 2^{i+2})$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (1 + 2i + 2^{i+2}) =$$

Computing Sums: Tool 3: Common Sums

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Example: $\sum_{i=1}^n (1 + 2i + 2^{i+2})$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (1 + 2i + 2^{i+2}) = \sum_{i=1}^n 1 + \sum_{i=1}^n 2i + \sum_{i=1}^n 2^{i+2} \quad (\text{addition rule})$$

Computing Sums: Tool 3: Common Sums

$$\sum_{i=k}^n 1 = n + 1 - k$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{1}{2}n(n + 1)$$

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$$= \sum_{i=1}^n 1 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n i + 4 \sum_{i=1}^n 2^i \quad (\text{constant rule})$$

Computing Sums: Tool 3: Common Sums

$$\sum_{i=k}^n 1 = n + 1 - k$$

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$$= \sum_{i=1}^n 1 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n i + 4 \sum_{i=1}^n 2^i \quad (\text{constant rule})$$

$$= n + 2 \times \frac{1}{2}n(n+1) + 4 \cdot (2^{n+1} - 1 - 1) \quad (\text{common sums})$$

Computing Sums: Tool 3: Common Sums

$$\sum_{i=k}^n 1 = n + 1 - k$$

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$$= \sum_{i=1}^n 1 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n i + 4 \sum_{i=1}^n 2^i \quad (\text{constant rule})$$

$$= n + 2 \times \frac{1}{2}n(n + 1) + 4 \cdot (2^{n+1} - 1 - 1) \quad (\text{common sums})$$

$$= n + n(n + 1) + 2^{n+3} - 8 \quad (\text{common sums})$$

Computing Sums: Tool 3: Nested Sum Rule

$$S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^3 1; \quad S_2 = \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^i 1.$$

Computing Sums: Tool 3: Nested Sum Rule

$$S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^3 1; \quad S_2 = \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^i 1.$$

To compute a nested sum, start with the innermost sum and proceed outward.

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$$S_1 = \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ (i=1)}}^3 1 = \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ (i=2)}}^3 1 = \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ (i=3)}}^3 1$$

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$$S_1 = \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ (i=1)}}^3 1 + \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ (i=2)}}^3 1 + \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ (i=3)}}^3 1 = 3 + 3 + 3 = 9.$$

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$$S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^3 1; \quad S_2 = \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^i 1.$$

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More generally:

$$S(n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i 1$$

Computing Sums: Tool 3: Nested Sum Rule

$$S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^3 1; \quad S_2 = \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^i 1.$$

To compute a nested sum, start with the innermost sum and proceed outward.

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$$S(n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i 1 = \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^i 1}_{f(i)=i}$$

Computing Sums: Tool 3: Nested Sum Rule

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More generally:

$$S(n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i 1 = \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^i 1}_{f(i)=i} = \sum_{i=1}^n i$$

Computing Sums: Tool 3: Nested Sum Rule

$$S_1 = \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^3 1; \quad S_2 = \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^i 1.$$

To compute a nested sum, start with the innermost sum and proceed outward.

$$S_1 = \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ (i=1)}}^3 1 + \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ (i=2)}}^3 1 + \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ (i=3)}}^3 1 = 3 + 3 + 3 = 9.$$

$$S_2 = \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ (i=1)}}^1 1 + \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ (i=2)}}^2 1 + \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ (i=3)}}^3 1 = 1 + 2 + 3 = 6.$$

More generally:

$$S(n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i 1 = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ f(i)=i}}^i 1 = \sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{1}{2}n(n+1).$$

Practice: Compute a Formula for the Sum $\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij =$$

Practice: Compute a Formula for the Sum $\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij \quad (\text{innermost sum})$$

Practice: Compute a Formula for the Sum $\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij$

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij && \text{(innermost sum)} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n i \sum_{j=1}^i j && \text{(constant rule)}\end{aligned}$$

Practice: Compute a Formula for the Sum $\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij$

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij && \text{(innermost sum)} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n i \sum_{j=1}^i j && \text{(constant rule)} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n i \times \frac{1}{2}i(i+1) && \text{(common sum)}\end{aligned}$$

Practice: Compute a Formula for the Sum $\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij$

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij && \text{(innermost sum)} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n i \sum_{j=1}^i j && \text{(constant rule)} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n i \times \frac{1}{2}i(i+1) && \text{(common sum)} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (i^3 + i^2) && \text{(algebra, constant rule)}\end{aligned}$$

Practice: Compute a Formula for the Sum $\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij$

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij && \text{(innermost sum)} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n i \sum_{j=1}^i j && \text{(constant rule)} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n i \times \frac{1}{2}i(i+1) && \text{(common sum)} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (i^3 + i^2) && \text{(algebra, constant rule)} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n i^3 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 && \text{(sum rule)}\end{aligned}$$

Practice: Compute a Formula for the Sum $\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij$

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij && \text{(innermost sum)} \\&= \sum_{i=1}^n i \sum_{j=1}^i j && \text{(constant rule)} \\&= \sum_{i=1}^n i \times \frac{1}{2}i(i+1) && \text{(common sum)} \\&= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (i^3 + i^2) && \text{(algebra, constant rule)} \\&= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n i^3 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 && \text{(sum rule)} \\&= \frac{1}{8}n^2(n+1)^2 + \frac{1}{12}n(n+1)(2n+1) && \text{(common sums)}\end{aligned}$$

Practice: Compute a Formula for the Sum $\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij$

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i ij && \text{(innermost sum)} \\&= \sum_{i=1}^n i \sum_{j=1}^i j && \text{(constant rule)} \\&= \sum_{i=1}^n i \times \frac{1}{2}i(i+1) && \text{(common sum)} \\&= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (i^3 + i^2) && \text{(algebra, constant rule)} \\&= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n i^3 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 && \text{(sum rule)} \\&= \frac{1}{8}n^2(n+1)^2 + \frac{1}{12}n(n+1)(2n+1) && \text{(common sums)} \\&= \frac{1}{12}n + \frac{3}{8}n^2 + \frac{5}{12}n^3 + \frac{1}{8}n^4 && \text{(algebra)}\end{aligned}$$