... and the following mathematical appetizer is about...

# Functions

A function f from a set A to a set 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  $f: A \rightarrow B$ 

(note: Here, " $\rightarrow$ " has nothing to do with if... then)

If  $f:A \rightarrow B$ , 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 the pre-image of b.

The range of  $f:A \rightarrow B$  is the set of all images of all elements of A.

We say that  $f:A \rightarrow B$  maps A to B.

```
Let us take a look at the function f: P \rightarrow C with
P = \{Linda, Max, Kathy, Peter\}
C = \{Boston, New York, Hong Kong, Moscow\}
f(Linda) = Moscow
f(Max) = Boston
f(Kathy) = Hong Kong
f(Peter) = New York
Here, the range of f is C.
```

Let us re-specify f as follows:

```
f(Linda) = Moscow
f(Max) = Boston
f(Kathy) = Hong Kong
f(Peter) = Boston
```

Is f still a function?

yes

What is its range?

{Moscow, Boston, Hong Kong}

### Other ways to represent f:

χ	f(x)
Linda	Moscow
Мах	Boston
Kathy	Hong Kong
Peter	Boston



If the domain of our function f is large, it is convenient to specify f with a formula, e.g.:

$$f: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$$
$$f(\chi) = 2\chi$$

This leads to:

$$f(1) = 2$$

$$f(3) = 6$$

$$f(-3) = -6$$

• • •

Let  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  be functions from A to R.

Then the sum and the product of  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  are also functions from A to **R** defined by:

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

#### Example:

$$f_1(x) = 3x, \ f_2(x) = x + 5$$

$$(f_1 + f_2)(x) = f_1(x) + f_2(x) = 3x + x + 5 = 4x + 5$$

$$(f_1 f_2)(x) = f_1(x) f_2(x) = 3x (x + 5) = 3x^2 + 15x$$

We already know that the range of a function  $f:A \rightarrow B$  is the set of all images of elements  $a \in A$ .

If we only regard a subset  $S \subseteq A$ , the set of all images of elements  $s \in S$  is called the image of S.

We denote the image of S by f(S):

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

```
Let us look at the following well-known function:
f(Linda) = Moscow
f(Max) = Boston
f(Kathy) = Hong Kong
f(Peter) = Boston
What is the image of S = \{Linda, Max\}?
f(S) = \{Moscow, Boston\}
What is the image of S = \{Max, Peter\}?
f(S) = \{Boston\}
```

A function  $f:A \rightarrow B$  is said to be one-to-one (or injective), if and only if

$$\forall \chi, y \in \mathcal{A} (f(\chi) = f(y) \rightarrow \chi = y)$$

In other words: f is one-to-one if and only if it does not map two distinct elements of A onto the same element of B.

And again...

$$f(Linda) = Moscow$$

$$f(\mathcal{M}a\chi) = \mathcal{B}oston$$

$$f(Kathy) = Hong Kong$$

$$f(Peter) = Boston$$

No, Max and Peter are mapped onto the same element of the image.

$$g(Linda) = Moscow$$

$$g(\mathcal{M}a\chi) = \mathcal{B}oston$$

$$g(Kathy) = Hong Kong$$

$$g(Peter) = New York$$

Is g one-to-one?

Yes, each element is assigned a unique element of the image.

How can we prove that a function f is one-to-one?

Whenever you want to prove something, first take a look at the relevant definition(s):

$$\forall \chi, y \in \mathcal{A} (f(\chi) = f(y) \rightarrow \chi = y)$$

### Example:

$$f(\chi) = \chi^2$$

Disproof by counterexample:

$$f(3) = f(-3)$$
, but  $3 \neq -3$ , so f is not one-to-one.

... and yet another example:

$$f: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$$
$$f(\chi) = 3\chi$$

One-to-one:  $\forall \chi, y \in \mathcal{A} (f(\chi) = f(y) \rightarrow \chi = y)$ 

To show:  $f(\chi) \neq f(y)$  whenever  $\chi \neq y$  (indirect proof)

$$\chi \neq y$$

$$\Leftrightarrow$$
  $3\chi \neq 3y$ 

$$\Leftrightarrow f(\chi) \neq f(y)$$
,

so if  $x \neq y$ , then  $f(x) \neq f(y)$ , that is, f is one-to-one.

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

In other words, f is onto if and only if its range is its entire codomain.

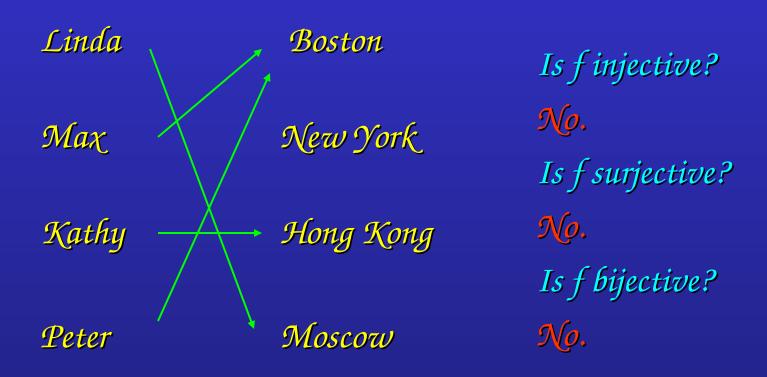
A function  $f: A \rightarrow B$  is a one-to-one correspondence, or a bijection, if and only if it is both one-to-one and onto.

Obviously, if f is a bijection and A and B are finite sets, then |A| = |B|.

### Examples:

In the following examples, we use the arrow representation to illustrate functions  $f:A\rightarrow B$ .

In each example, the complete sets A and B are shown.











#### Inversion

An interesting property of bijections is that they have an inverse function.

The inverse function of the bijection  $f:A \rightarrow B$  is the function  $f:B \rightarrow A$  with

 $f^1(b) = a$  whenever f(a) = b.

#### Inversion

Example:

$$f(Linda) = Moscow$$

$$f(Max) = Boston$$

$$f(Kathy) = Hong Kong$$

$$f(Peter) = L\ddot{u}beck$$

$$f(\mathcal{H}elena) = \mathcal{N}ew York$$

Clearly, f is bijective.

The inverse function 
$$f^1$$
 is given by:

$$f^1(Moscow) = Linda$$

$$f^1(Boston) = Max$$

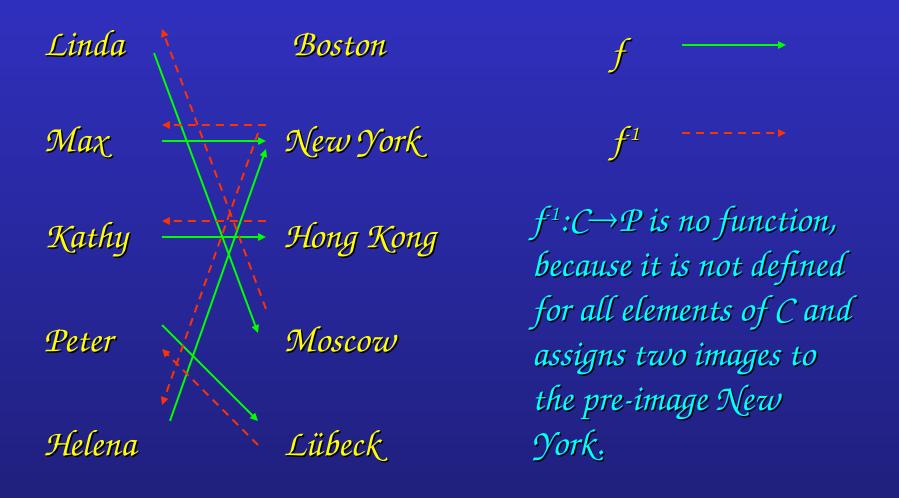
$$f^1(Hong\ Kong) = Kathy$$

$$f^1(L\ddot{u}beck) = Peter$$

$$f^1(\text{New York}) = \text{Helena}$$

Inversion is only possible for

#### Inversion



### Composition

The composition of two functions  $g:A \rightarrow B$  and  $f:B \rightarrow C$ , denoted by f g, is defined by

$$(f^*g)(a) = f(g(a))$$

#### This means that

- **first**, function g is applied to element a∈A, mapping it onto an element of B,
- **then**, function f is applied to this element of B, mapping it onto an element of C.
- Therefore, the composite function maps from A to C.

### Composition

### Example:

$$f(x) = 7x - 4, g(x) = 3x,$$
$$f: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}, g: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$$

$$(f^{\circ}g)(5) = f(g(5)) = f(15) = 105 - 4 = 101$$

$$(f^{\circ}g)(\chi) = f(g(\chi)) = f(3\chi) = 21\chi - 4$$

### Composition

Composition of a function and its inverse:

$$(f^{1^{\circ}}f)(\chi) = f^{1}(f(\chi)) = \chi$$

The composition of a function and its inverse is the **identity** function i(x) = x.

# Floor and Ceiling Functions

The **floor** and **ceiling** functions map the real numbers onto the integers ( $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ ).

The floor function assigns to  $r \in \mathbb{R}$  the largest  $z \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $z \leq r$ , denoted by  $\lfloor r \rfloor$ .

**Examples:** 
$$[2.3] = 2, [2] = 2, [0.5] = 0, [-3.5] = -4$$

The **ceiling** function assigns to  $r \in \mathbb{R}$  the smallest  $z \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $z \ge r$ , denoted by  $\lceil r \rceil$ .

**Examples:** 
$$[2.3] = 3$$
,  $[2] = 2$ ,  $[0.5] = 1$ ,  $[-3.5] = -3$ 

# Now, something about

# Boolean Alge bra

### Boolean Algebra

Boolean algebra provides the operations and the rules for working with the set {0, 1}.

These are the rules that underlie electronic circuits, and the methods we will discuss are fundamental to VLSI design.

We are going to focus on three operations:

- Boolean complementation,
- Boolean sum, and
- Boolean product

# Boolean Operations

The complement is denoted by a bar (on the slides, we will use a minus sign). It is defined by

$$-0 = 1$$
 and  $-1 = 0$ .

The **Boolean sum**, denoted by + or by OR, has the following values:

$$1 + 1 = 1$$
,  $1 + 0 = 1$ ,  $0 + 1 = 1$ ,  $0 + 0 = 0$ 

The **Boolean product**, denoted by · or by AND, has the following values:

$$1 \cdot 1 = 1$$
,  $1 \cdot 0 = 0$ ,  $0 \cdot 1 = 0$ ,  $0 \cdot 0 = 0$ 

**Definition:** Let  $B = \{0, 1\}$ . The variable  $\chi$  is called a **Boolean variable** if it assumes values only from B.

A function from  $\mathcal{B}^n$ , the set  $\{(\chi_1, \chi_2, \ldots, \chi_n) \mid \chi_i \in \mathcal{B}, 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ , to  $\mathcal{B}$  is called a **Boolean function of degree** n.

Boolean functions can be represented using expressions made up from the variables and Boolean operations.

The **Boolean expressions** in the variables  $\chi_1, \chi_2, \ldots, \chi_n$  are defined recursively as follows:

- 0, 1,  $\chi_1, \chi_2, \ldots, \chi_n$  are Boolean expressions.
- If  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  are Boolean expressions, then  $(-E_1)$ ,  $(E_1E_2)$ , and  $(E_1+E_2)$  are Boolean expressions.

Each Boolean expression represents a Boolean function. The values of this function are obtained by substituting 0 and 1 for the variables in the expression.

For example, we can create Boolean expression in the variables  $\chi$ , y, and z using the "building blocks"

0, 1, x, y, and z, and the construction rules:

Since x and y are Boolean expressions, so is xy.

Since z is a Boolean expression, so is (-z).

Since xy and (-z) are expressions, so is xy + (-z).

... and so on...

**Example:** Give a Boolean expression for the Boolean function F(x, y) as defined by the following table:

χ	y	F(x, y)
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	0
1	1	0

**Possible solution:**  $\mathcal{F}(x, y) = (-x)^{2}y$ 

### Another Example:

x	y	Z	F(x, y, z)
0	0	0	<u>1</u>
0	0	1	1
0	1	0	0
0	1	1	0
1	0	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	0
1	1	1	0

#### Possible solution I:

$$\mathcal{F}(x, y, z) = -(\chi z + y)$$

#### Possible solution II:

$$\mathcal{F}(\chi, y, z) = (-(\chi z))(-y)$$

There is a simple method for deriving a Boolean expression for a function that is defined by a table. This method is based on minterms.

**Definition:** A literal is a Boolean variable or its complement. A **minterm** of the Boolean variables  $\chi_1, \chi_2, \ldots, \chi_n$  is a Boolean product  $y_1y_2...y_n$ , where  $y_i = \chi_i$  or  $y_i = -\chi_i$ .

Hence, a minterm is a product of n literals, with one literal for each variable.

#### Consider $\mathcal{F}(\chi,y,z)$ again:

x	y	Z	F(x, y, z)
0	0	0	1
0	0	1	<u>1</u>
0	1	0	0
0	1	1	0
1	0	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	0
1	1	1	0

$$\mathcal{F}(x, y, z) = 1$$
 if and only if:

$$\chi = y = z = 0$$
 or

$$\chi = y = 0$$
,  $z = 1$  or

$$\chi = 1$$
,  $y = z = 0$ 

Therefore,

$$\mathcal{F}(x, y, z) =$$

$$(-x)(-y)(-z) +$$

$$(-x)(-y)z +$$

$$x(-y)(-z)$$

**Definition:** The Boolean functions F and G of n variables are **equal** if and only if  $F(b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n) = G(b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n)$  whenever  $b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n$  belong to B.

Two different Boolean expressions that represent the same function are called equivalent.

For example, the Boolean expressions  $\chi y$ ,  $\chi y + 0$ , and  $\chi y \cdot 1$  are equivalent.

The **complement** of the Boolean function  $\mathcal{F}$  is the function  $-\mathcal{F}$ , where  $-\mathcal{F}(b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n) = -(\mathcal{F}(b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n)).$ 

Let F and G be Boolean functions of degree n. The Boolean sum F+G and Boolean product FG are then defined by

$$(\mathcal{F} + \mathcal{G})(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) = \mathcal{F}(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) + \mathcal{G}(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$$
$$(\mathcal{F}\mathcal{G})(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) = \mathcal{F}(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) \mathcal{G}(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$$

Question: How many different Boolean functions of degree 1 are there?

**Solution:** There are four of them,  $\mathcal{F}_1$ ,  $\mathcal{F}_2$ ,  $\mathcal{F}_3$ , and  $\mathcal{F}_4$ :

χ	$\mathcal{F}_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}$	$\mathcal{F}_{2}$	$\mathcal{F}_{\scriptscriptstyle 3}$	$\mathcal{F}_{\scriptscriptstyle{4}}$
0	0	0	1	1
1	0	1	0	1

Question: How many different Boolean functions of degree 2 are there?

**Solution:** There are 16 of them,  $\mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2, \ldots, \mathcal{F}_{16}$ :

x	y	$\mathcal{F}_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}$	$\mathcal{F}_{2}$	$\mathcal{F}_{_{\mathcal{S}}}$	$\mathcal{F}_{_{4}}$	$\mathcal{F}_{\scriptscriptstyle 5}$	$\mathcal{F}_{\scriptscriptstyle 6}$	$\mathcal{F}_{7}$	$\mathcal{F}_{\!\scriptscriptstyle{\mathcal{S}}}$	$\mathcal{F}_{g}$	$\mathcal{F}_{10}$	$\mathcal{F}_{11}$	$\mathcal{F}_{12}$	$\mathcal{F}_{13}$	$\mathcal{F}_{_{14}}$	$\mathcal{F}_{15}$	$\mathcal{F}_{16}$
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1

Question: How many different Boolean functions of degree n are there?

#### Solution:

There are  $2^n$  different n-tuples of 0s and 1s.

A Boolean function is an assignment of 0 or 1 to each of these 2<sup>n</sup> different n-tuples.

Therefore, there are  $2^{2^n}$  different Boolean functions.

#### Duality

There are useful identities of Boolean expressions that can help us to transform an expression A into an equivalent expression B

We can derive additional identities with the help of the dual of a Boolean expression.

The dual of a Boolean expression is obtained by interchanging Boolean sums and Boolean products and interchanging 0s and 1s.

## Duality

#### Examples:

The dual of 
$$\chi(y+z)$$
 is  $\chi+yz$ .

The dual of  $-\chi -1 + (-y+z)$  is  $(-\chi+0)((-y)z)$ .

The dual of a Boolean function F represented by a Boolean expression is the function represented by the dual of this expression.

This dual function, denoted by  $\mathcal{F}^{d}$ , does not depend on the particular Boolean expression used to represent  $\mathcal{F}$ .

#### Duality

Therefore, an identity between functions represented by Boolean expressions remains valid when the duals of both sides of the identity are taken.

We can use this fact, called the duality principle, to derive new identities.

For example, consider the absorption law  $\chi(\chi + y) = \chi$ .

By taking the duals of both sides of this identity, we obtain the equation  $x + \chi y = \chi$ , which is also an identity (and also called an absorption law).

## Definition of a Boolean Algebra

All the properties of Boolean functions and expressions that we have discovered also apply to other mathematical structures such as propositions and sets and the operations defined on them.

If we can show that a particular structure is a Boolean algebra, then we know that all results established about Boolean algebras apply to this structure.

For this purpose, we need an abstract definition of a Boolean algebra.

## Definition of a Boolean Algebra

**Definition:** A Boolean algebra is a set B with two binary operations and  $^{\wedge}$ , elements 0 and 1, and a unary operation — such that the following properties hold for all  $\chi$ ,  $\gamma$ , and z in B:

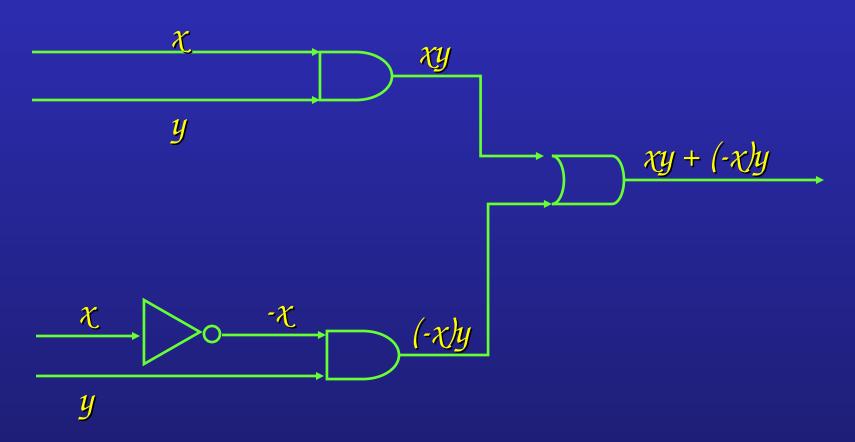
$$\chi^{\vee} 0 = \chi$$
 and  $\chi^{\wedge} 1 = \chi$  (identity laws)  
 $\chi^{\vee} (-\chi) = 1$  and  $\chi^{\wedge} (-\chi) = 0$  (domination laws)  
 $(\chi^{\vee} y)^{\vee} z = \chi^{\vee} (y^{\vee} z)$  and  
 $(\chi^{\wedge} y)^{\wedge} z = \chi^{\wedge} (y^{\wedge} z)$  and (associative laws)  
 $\chi^{\vee} y = y^{\vee} \chi$  and  $\chi^{\wedge} y = y^{\wedge} \chi$  (commutative laws)  
 $\chi^{\vee} (y^{\wedge} z) = (\chi^{\vee} y)^{\wedge} (\chi^{\vee} z)$  and  
 $\chi^{\wedge} (y^{\vee} z) = (\chi^{\wedge} y)^{\vee} (\chi^{\wedge} z)$  (distributive laws)

#### Logic Gates

Electronic circuits consist of so-called gates. There are three basic types of gates:

#### Logic Gates

Example: How can we build a circuit that computes the function xy + (-x)y?



# Logic, Sets, and Boolean Algebra

Logic	Set	Boolean Algebra
False	<b>Ø</b>	<b>O</b>
True	U	1
$\mathcal{A}^{\wedge}\mathcal{B}$	$\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}$	$\mathcal{A} \cdot \mathcal{B}$
$\mathcal{A}^{Y}\mathcal{B}$	$\mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{B}$	A+B
$\neg \mathcal{A}$	$oldsymbol{oldsymbol{eta}}^{\mathcal{C}}$	$\boldsymbol{A}$

Compare the equivalence laws of them