

CS215 DISCRETE MATH

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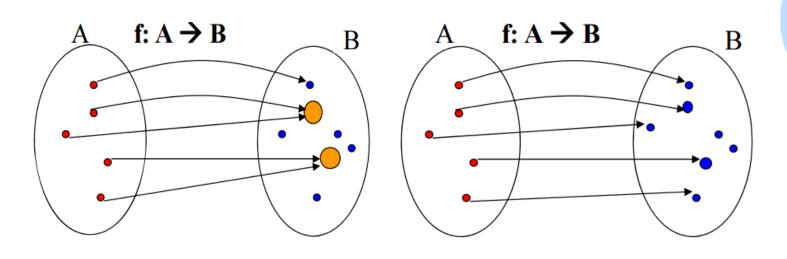
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Injective (One-to-One) Function

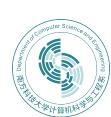
• A function f is called *one-to-one* or *injective*, if and only if f(x) = f(y) implies x = y for all x, y in the domain of f. In this case, f is called an *injection*.

Alternatively: A function is *one-to-one* if and only if $f(x) \neq f(y)$ whenever $x \neq y$. (contrapositive!)



Not injective

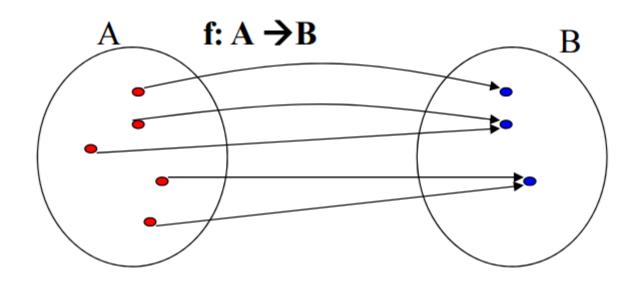
Injective function



Surjective (Onto) Function

■ A function f is called *onto* or *surjective*, if and only if for every $b \in B$ there is an element $a \in A$ such that f(a) = b. In this case, f is called a *surjection*.

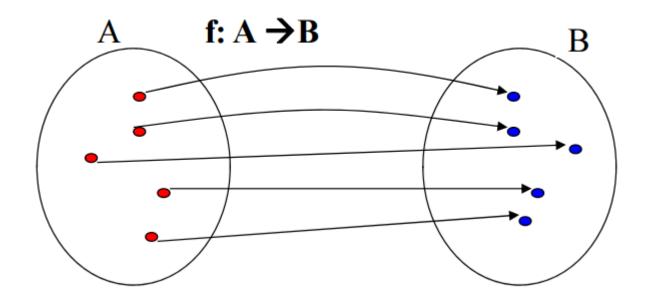
Alternatively: A function is *onto* if and only if all codomain elements are covered (f(A) = B).





Bijective Function (One-to-One Correspondence)

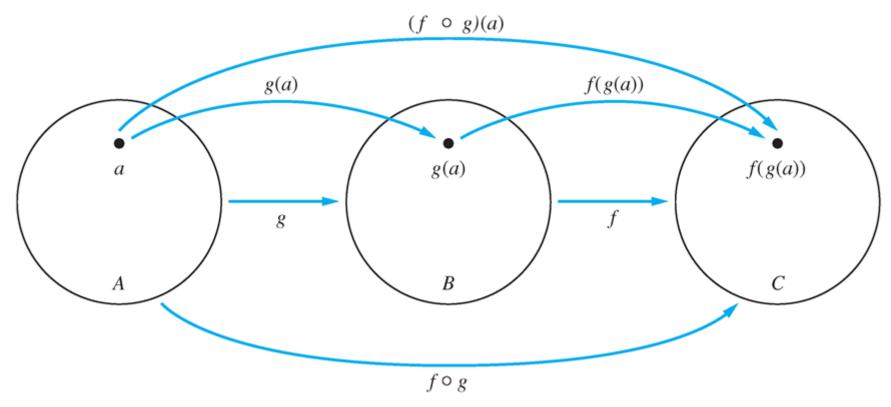
■ A function *f* is called *bijective*, if and only if it is both one-to-one and onto.





Composition of Functions

Let f be a function from B to C and let g be a function from A to B. The composition of the functions f and g, denoted by $f \circ g$, is defined by $(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x))$.

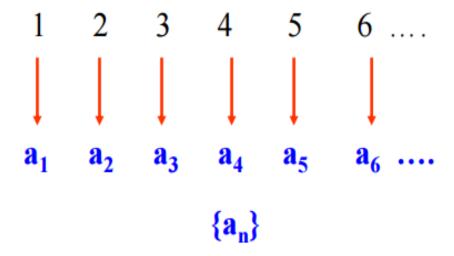




■ A sequence is a function from a subset of the set of integers (typically the set $\{0, 1, 2, ...\}$ or $\{1, 2, 3, ...\}$ to a set S. We use the notation a_n to denote the image of the integer n. ($\{a_n\}$ represents the ordered list $a_1, a_2, a_3, ...$)



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1.1 Basic Concepts and Notation

In general, a sequence is an ordered list of elements from a set S. Formally, a finite sequence with elements over S is a function from the index set $\{0, 1, ..., N-1\}$ to S for some integer $N \geq 0$, and N is called the length of the sequence. An infinite sequence with elements over S is a function from the integer group \mathbb{Z} to S, and a semi-infinite sequence with elements over S is a function from the semi-group $\{0, 1, ...\}$ to S. If the set S is a finite field \mathbb{F}_q with q elements, we say that the sequence is a q-ary sequence over \mathbb{F}_q . In particular, if $S = \mathrm{GF}(2)$, the sequence is called a binary sequence.

For a sequence $\mathbf{s} = (s_i)_{i \geq 0}$, if there exist integers r > 0 and $u \geq 0$ such that

$$s_{i+r} = s_i \quad \text{for all } i \ge u,$$
 (1.1)

the sequence is said to be *ultimately periodic* with parameters (r, u), and r is called a period of the sequence s. The smallest number r satisfying (1.1) is called the *least period*



Examples:

```
\Rightarrow a_n = n^2, where n = 1, 2, 3, \dots
```

$$\diamond a_n = (-1)^n$$
, where $n = 0, 1, 2, ...$

$$\diamond a_n = 2^n$$
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• An arithmetic progression is a sequence of the form $a, a+d, a+2d, a+3d, \ldots, a+nd, \ldots$, where the initial term a and common difference d are real numbers.



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Example:

$$\diamond a_n = -1 + 4n$$
, where $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$



A geometric progression is a sequence of the form $a, ar, ar^2, \ldots, ar^n, \ldots$, where the *initial term a* and the *common ratio r* are real numbers.



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Given a sequence, how to find a rule for generating the sequence?



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```
8, 42, 226, 1232, 6646, 35362, 185868, . . .
```



Recursively Defined Sequences

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Examples:

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\Rightarrow a_n = a_{n-1} + 2 assuming a_0 = 1, for n \ge 1
\Rightarrow f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2} for n = 2, 3, 4, ... (Fibonacci sequence)
```



Summations

■ The summation of the terms of a sequence is

$$\sum_{j=m}^n a_j = a_m + a_{m+1} + \cdots + a_n$$

The variable j is referred to as the index of summation and the choice of the letter j is arbitrary.

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$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} (ax_j + by_j) = a \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j + b \sum_{j=1}^{n} y_j$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_i b_j = \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_i \sum_{j=1}^{n} b_j$$



Summations

■ The sum of the first n terms of the arithmetic progression $a, a + d, a + 2d, \ldots, a + nd$ is

$$S = \sum_{j=0}^{n} (a+jd) = (n+1)a + d\sum_{j=0}^{n} j = (n+1)a + d\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

■ The sum of the first n terms of the geometric progression $a, ar, ar^2, \ldots, ar^k$ is

$$S = \sum_{j=0}^{n} (ar^{j}) = a \sum_{j=0}^{n} r^{j} = a \frac{r^{n+1} - 1}{r - 1}$$



Examples

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$$\diamond S = \sum_{j=1}^{5} (2+3j)$$
 55

$$\diamond S = \sum_{i=3}^{5} (2+3i)$$
 42

$$\diamond S = \sum_{i=1}^{4} \sum_{j=1}^{2} (2i - j)$$
 28

$$\diamond S = \sum_{j=0}^{3} 2(5)^{j}$$
 312

$$\diamond S = \sum_{i=1}^{4} \sum_{j=1}^{3} ij$$
 60



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$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} kx^{k-1} = \frac{1}{(1-x)^2}$$



Some Useful Summation Formulas

TABLE 2 Some Useful Summation Formulae.	
Sum	Closed Form
$\sum_{k=0}^{n} ar^k \ (r \neq 0)$	$\frac{ar^{n+1}-a}{r-1}, r \neq 1$
$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k$	$\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$
$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^2$	$\frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$
$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^3$	$\frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$
$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k, x < 1$	$\frac{1}{1-x}$
$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} kx^{k-1}, x < 1$	$\frac{1}{(1-x)^2}$



Cardinality of Sets

■ Recall: the cardinality of a finite set is defined by the number of the elements in the set.



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Cardinality of Sets

- Recall: the cardinality of a finite set is defined by the number of the elements in the set.
- The sets A and B have the same cardinality if there is a one-to-one correspondence between elements in A and B.
- If there is a one-to-one function from A to B, the cardinality of A is less than or the same as the cardinality of B, denoted by $|A| \le |B|$. Moreover, when $|A| \le |B|$ and A and B have different cardinalities, we say that the cardinality of A is less than the cardinality of B, denoted by |A| < |B|.



■ A set that is **either finite** or **has the same cardinality as the set of positive integers Z**⁺ is called *countable*. A set that is **not countable** is called *uncountable*.



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Why are these called **countable**?

♦ The elements of the set can be enumerated and listed.



Hilbert's Grand Hotel

■ The Grand Hotel has **countably infinite number of rooms**, each occupied by a guest. We can always accommodate a new guest at this hotel. How is this possible?



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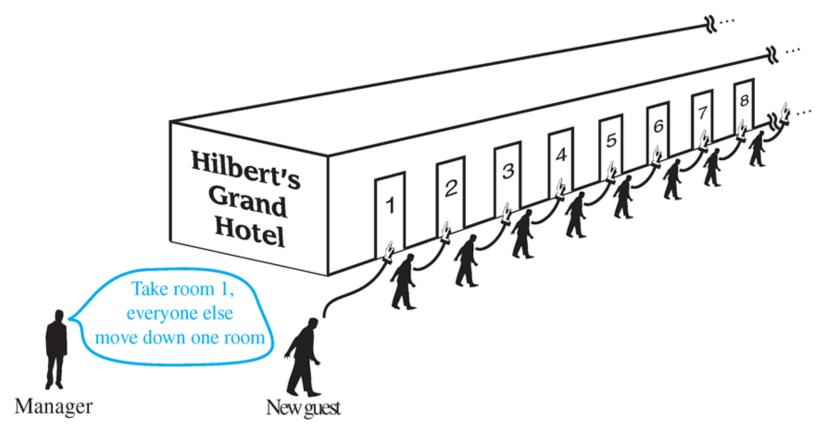




FIGURE 2 A New Guest Arrives at Hilbert's Grand Hotel.

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Define a function $f: x \mapsto 2x - 2$. This is a bijection!

one-to-one Why?

onto Why?



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one-to-one Why?

if
$$2x - 2 = 2y - 2$$
, then $x = y$

onto Why?

 $\forall x \in A$, (x+2)/2 is the preimage in \mathbf{Z}^+



Example 2 (Theorem)

The set of integers **Z** is countable.



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Solution:

We can list a sequence:

$$0, 1, -1, 2, -2, 3, -3, \dots$$

or define a bijection from \mathbf{Z}^+ to \mathbf{Z} :

- when n is even: f(n) = n/2
- when *n* is odd: f(n) = -(n-1)/2



Example 3 (Theorem)

The set of (positive) rational numbers is countable.



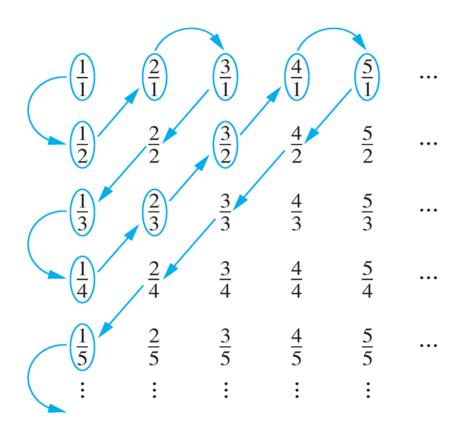
Example 3 (Theorem)

The set of (positive) rational numbers is countable.

Solution:

Constructing the list: first list p/q with p+q=2, next list p/q with p+q=3, and so on.

$$1, 1/2, 2, 3, 1/3, 1/4, 2/3, \dots$$





Example 4 (Theorem)

The set of finite strings S over a finite alphabet A is countably infinite. (Assume an alphabetical ordering of symbols in A)



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The set of finite strings S over a finite alphabet A is countably infinite. (Assume an alphabetical ordering of symbols in A)

Solution:

We show that the strings can be listed in a sequence. First list

- (i) all the strings of length 0 in alphabetical order.
- (ii) then all the strings of length 1 in lexicographic order.
- (iii) and so on.

This implies a bijection from \mathbf{Z}^+ to S.



Example 5

The set of all Java programs is countable.



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Solution:

Let S be the set of strings constructed from the characters which may appear in a Java program. Use the ordering from the previous example. Take each string in turn

- feed the string into a Java compiler
- if the complier says YES, this is a syntactically correct Java program, we add this program to the list
 - we move on to the next string

In this way, we construct a bijection from \mathbf{Z}^+ to the set of Java programs.



Theorem

The set of real numbers **R** is uncountable.



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Proof by contradiction:

Assume that **R** is countable. Then every subset of **R** is countable (why?), in particular, the interval from 0 to 1 is countable. This implies that the elements of this set can be listed as r_1, r_2, r_3, \ldots , where

```
-r_1 = 0.d_{11}d_{12}d_{13}d_{14}\cdots
-r_2 = 0.d_{21}d_{22}d_{23}d_{24}\cdots
-r_3 = 0.d_{31}d_{32}d_{33}d_{34}\cdots
all d_{ii} \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 9\}.
```



Theorem

The set of real numbers \mathbf{R} is uncountable.

Proof by contradiction:

We want to show that not all real numbers in the interval between 0 and 1 are in this list.

Form a new number called $r = 0.d_1d_2d_3d_4\cdots$, where $d_i = 2$ if $d_{ii} \neq 2$, and $d_i = 3$ if $d_{ii} = 2$.



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Example: suppose	r1 = 0.75243	d1 = 2
	r2 = 0.524310	d2 = 3
	r3 = 0.131257	d3 = 2
	r4 = 0.9363633	d4 = 2
	rt = 0.23222222	dt = 3



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We claim that r is different from each number in the list.

Each expansion is unique, if we exclude an infinite string of 9's. r and r_i differ in the i-th decimal place for all i.



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This is called *Cantor diagonalization argument*.



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The set $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$ is uncountable.



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Proof by contradiction:

Assume that $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$ is countable. This implies that the elements of this set can be listed as S_0, S_1, S_2, \ldots , where $S_i \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, and each S_i can be represented uniquely by the bit string $b_{i0}b_{i1}b_{i2}\ldots$, where $b_{ij}=1$ if $j\in S_i$ and $b_{ij}=0$ if $j\not\in S_i$

```
-S_0 = b_{00}b_{01}b_{02}b_{03}\cdots
-S_1 = b_{10}b_{11}b_{12}b_{13}\cdots
-S_2 = b_{20}b_{21}b_{22}b_{23}\cdots
\vdots
all b_{ij} \in \{0,1\}.
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Each bit string is unique, and R and S_i differ in the i-th bit for all i.



Theorem

If A and B are sets with $|A| \le |B|$ and $|B| \le |A|$, then |A| = |B|. In other words, if there are one-to-one functions f from A to B and g from B to A, then there is a one-to-one correspondence between A and B.



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$$f(x) = x$$
; $g(x) = (2 \arctan(x)/\pi + 1)/2$



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- (1) prove that the set of computer programs is *countably infinite* (Example 5)
- (2) prove that the number of functions is *uncountable*The set of functions from \mathbf{Z}^+ to the set $\{0, 1, 2, ..., 9\}$ is *uncountable*.

 Proof?



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If S is a set, then
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$$Q$$
: Is $s_0 \in T$?



Next Lecture

complexity ...

