

American University of Beirut
Dept. of Computer Science
CMPS/Math 211
Discrete Structures

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Section 2.3: Functions

On to section 1.8... Functions

- From calculus, you are familiar with the concept of a real-valued function f , which assigns to each number $x \in \mathbf{R}$ a unique value $y = f(x)$, where $y \in \mathbf{R}$.
- A function can also be naturally generalized to the concept of assigning elements of *any* set to elements of *any* set. (Also known as a *mapping*, a *transformation*.)

Function: Formal Definition

- For any sets A, B , we say that a *function f from (or “mapping”) A to B* ($f: A \rightarrow B$) is a unique assignment of exactly one element $f(x) \in B$ to each element $x \in A$.
- **Some further generalizations of this idea:**
 - A *partial (non-total) function* f assigns *zero or one* elements of B to each element $x \in A$.
 - Functions of n arguments.

More

- A function $f: A \rightarrow B$ can also be defined in terms of a relation from A to B , which is a subset of $A \times B$.
- A relation from A to B which contains one, and only one, ordered pair (a, b) for every element a in A defines a function from A to B .

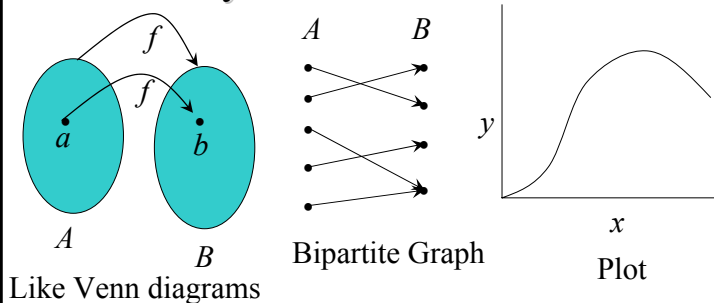
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More

- Functions are specified in various ways. Sometimes, we explicitly state the assignments.
- Often, we give a formula.
- Other times, we use a computer program to specify a function.

Graphical Representations

- Functions can be represented graphically in several ways:



Functions We've Seen So Far

- A *proposition* can be viewed as a function from “situations” to truth values $\{T, F\}$
 - A logic system called *situation theory*.
 - $p = \text{“It is raining.”}$; $s = \text{our situation here, now}$
 - $p(s) \in \{T, F\}$.
- A *propositional operator* can be viewed as a function from *ordered pairs* of truth values to truth values: *e.g.*, $\vee((F, T)) = T$.

Another example: $\rightarrow((T, F)) = F$.

More functions so far...

- A *predicate* can be viewed as a function from *objects* to *propositions* (or truth values): $P \equiv \text{"is 7 feet tall"}$;
 $P(\text{Mike}) = \text{"Mike is 7 feet tall."} = \text{False}$.
- A *bit string* B of length n can be viewed as a function from the numbers $\{1, \dots, n\}$ (bit positions) to the bits $\{0, 1\}$.
E.g., $B=101 \rightarrow B(3)=1$.

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Still More Functions

- A *set* S over universe U can be viewed as a function from the elements of U to $\{\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}\}$, saying for each element of U whether it is in S . $S=\{3\} \rightarrow S(0)=\mathbf{F}, S(3)=\mathbf{T}$.
- A *set operator* such as $\cap, \cup, \bar{}$ can be viewed as a function from pairs of sets to sets.
– Example: $\cap((\{1,3\}, \{3,4\})) = \{3\}$

Terminology

- If it is written that $f:A \rightarrow B$, and $f(a)=b$ (where $a \in A$ & $b \in B$), then we say:
 - A is the *domain* of f .
 - B is the *codomain* of f .
 - b is the *image* of a under f .
 - a is a *pre-image* of b under f .
 - In general, b may have more than 1 pre-image.
 - The *range* $R \subseteq B$ of f is $R = \{b \mid \exists a f(a)=b\}$.

We also say
the *signature*
of f is $A \rightarrow B$.

Range versus Codomain

- The range of a function might *not* be its whole codomain.
- The codomain is the set that the function is *declared* to map all domain values into.
- The range is the *particular* set of values in the codomain that the function *actually* maps elements of the domain to.

Range vs. Codomain - Example

- Suppose I declare to you that: “ f is a function mapping students in this class to the set of grades $\{A,B,C,D,E\}$.”
- At this point, you know f 's codomain is: $\{A,B,C,D,E\}$, and its range is unknown.
- Suppose the grades turn out all As and Bs.
- Then the range of f is $\{A,B\}$, but its codomain is still $\{A,B,C,D,E\}$.

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Equal Functions

- Two functions are equal when they have the same domain, the same codomain, and map elements of their common domain to the same elements in their common codomain.
- If we change either the domain or the codomain of a function, we obtain a different function.
- If we change the mapping of elements, then we also obtain a different function.

Examples

- Specify the functions embedded in the following definitions (to specify a function, we need to state the rule, domain, codomain, and range)
 - Let R be the relation consisting of ordered pairs (Abdul 22), (Brenda, 24), (Carla 21), (Desire, 22), (Eddie, 24), and (Felicia, 22), where each pair denotes a graduate student and corresponding age.
 - Let f be the function that assigns the last two bits of a bit string of length 2 or greater to that string. For example $f(11010) = 10$.
 - H.W. Examples 4 and 5 on page 135 of the 6th edition.

Operators (general definition)

- An n -ary operator over (or on) the set S is any function from the set of ordered n -tuples of elements of S , to S itself.
- E.g., if $S = \{T, F\}$, \neg can be seen as a unary operator, and \wedge, \vee are binary operators on S .
- Another example: \cup and \cap are binary operators on the set of all sets.

Constructing Function Operators

- If \bullet (“dot”) is any operator over B , then we can extend \bullet to also denote an operator over functions $f:A \rightarrow B$.
- $E.g.$: Given any binary operator $\bullet:B \times B \rightarrow B$, and functions $f,g:A \rightarrow B$, we define $(f \bullet g):A \rightarrow B$ to be the function defined by:
 $\forall a \in A, (f \bullet g)(a) = f(a) \bullet g(a)$.

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Function Operator Example

- $+, \times$ (“plus”, “times”) are binary operators over \mathbf{R} . (Normal addition & multiplication.)
- Therefore, we can also add and multiply functions $f,g:\mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$:
 - $(f + g):\mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$, where $(f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$
 - $(f \times g):\mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$, where $(f \times g)(x) = f(x) \times g(x)$

Images of Sets under Functions

- Given $f:A \rightarrow B$, and $S \subseteq A$,
- The *image* of S under f is simply the set of all images (under f) of the elements of S .
 $f(S) \equiv \{f(s) \mid s \in S\}$
 $\equiv \{b \mid \exists s \in S: f(s) = b\}$.
- Note the range of f can be defined as simply the image (under f) of f 's domain!

Example

- Let f and g denote functions from \mathbf{R} to \mathbf{R} such that $f(x) = x^2$ and $g(x) = x - x^2$. What are the functions $f+g$ and fg ?
- Let $A = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$, and $B = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ with $f(a) = 2, f(b) = 1, f(c) = 4, f(d) = 1$, and $f(e) = 1$. Find the image of the subset $S = \{b, c, d\}$.

Function Composition Operator

Note match here.

- For functions $g:A \rightarrow B$ and $f:B \rightarrow C$, there is a special operator called *compose* (“ \circ ”).
 - It composes (creates) a new function out of f and g by applying f to the result of applying g .
 - We say $(f \circ g):A \rightarrow C$, where $(f \circ g)(a) \equiv f(g(a))$.
 - Note $g(a) \in B$, so $f(g(a))$ is defined and $\in C$.
 - Note that \circ (like Cartesian \times , but unlike $+$, \wedge , \cup) is non-commuting. (Generally, $f \circ g \neq g \circ f$.)

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Function composition

- Note also that the composition $f \circ g$ cannot be defined unless the range of g is a subset of the domain of f .
- When the composition of a function and its inverse is formed, in either order, an identity function is obtained (why?)
- Examples 20, 21.

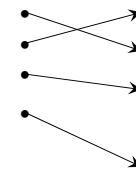
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One-to-One Functions

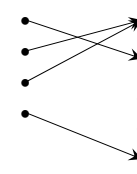
- A function is *one-to-one* (1-1), or *injective*, or an *injection*, iff every element of its range has *only* 1 pre-image.
 - Formally: given $f:A \rightarrow B$, “ x is injective” $\equiv (\neg \exists x,y: x \neq y \wedge f(x) = f(y))$.
- Only one element of the domain is mapped to any given one element of the range.
 - Domain & range have same cardinality. What about codomain? *May Be Larger*
- Memory jogger: Each element of the domain is injected into a different element of the range.
 - Compare “each dose of vaccine is injected into a different patient.”

One-to-One Illustration

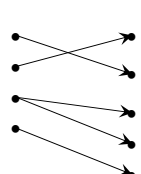
- Bipartite (2-part) graph representations of functions that are (or not) one-to-one:



One-to-one



Not one-to-one



Not even a function!

Exercises

- Examples 8 – 10.

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Sufficient Conditions for injectivity

- For functions f over numbers, we say:
 - f is *strictly (or monotonically) increasing* iff $x > y \rightarrow f(x) > f(y)$ for all x, y in domain;
 - f is *strictly (or monotonically) decreasing* iff $x > y \rightarrow f(x) < f(y)$ for all x, y in domain;
- If f is either strictly increasing or strictly decreasing, then f is one-to-one. *E.g. x^3*
 - *Converse is not necessarily true. E.g. $1/x$*

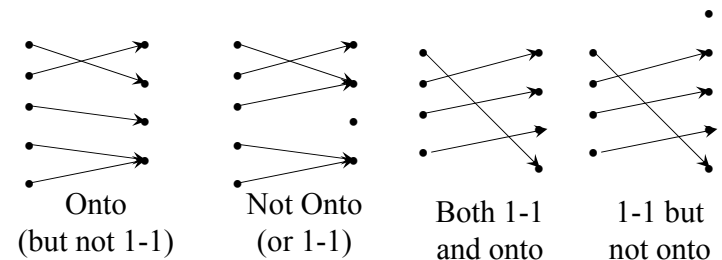
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Onto (Surjective) Functions

- A function $f: A \rightarrow B$ is *onto* or *surjective* or a *surjection* iff its range is equal to its codomain ($\forall b \in B, \exists a \in A: f(a) = b$).
- Think: An *onto* function maps the set A onto (over, covering) the *entirety* of the set B , not just over a piece of it.
- *E.g., for domain & codomain \mathbf{R} , x^3 is onto, whereas x^2 isn't. (Why not?)*

Illustration of Onto

- Some functions that are, or are not, *onto* their codomains:



Exercises

- Examples 11– 13.

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Bijections

- A function f is said to be a *one-to-one correspondence*, or a *bijection*, or *reversible*, or *invertible*, iff it is both one-to-one and onto.
- For bijections $f:A \rightarrow B$, there exists an *inverse of f* , written $f^{-1}:B \rightarrow A$, which is the unique function such that $f^{-1} \circ f = I_A$
– (where I_A is the identity function on A)

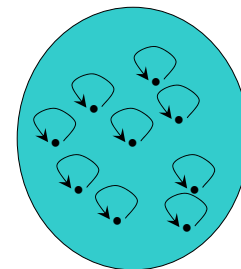
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The Identity Function

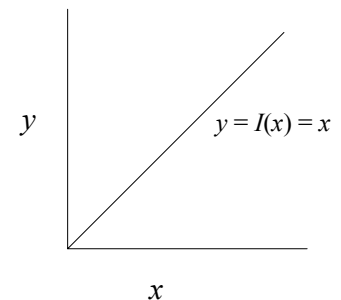
- For any domain A , the *identity function* $I:A \rightarrow A$ (variously written, I_A , $\mathbf{1}$, $\mathbf{1}_A$) is the unique function such that $\forall a \in A: I(a) = a$.
- Some identity functions you've seen:
 - +ing 0, ·ing by 1, ∧ing with **T**, ∨ing with **F**,
∪ing with \emptyset , ∩ing with U .
- Note that the identity function is always both one-to-one and onto (bijective).

Identity Function Illustrations

- The identity function:



Domain and range



Bijections

- Suppose that f is a function from a set A to itself. If A is finite, then f is one-to-one if and only if it is onto.
- This is not the case if A were infinite.
- Examples 16—19.

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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 $\forall a$, there is only 1 pair (a, b) .
 - Later (ch.6): *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 .

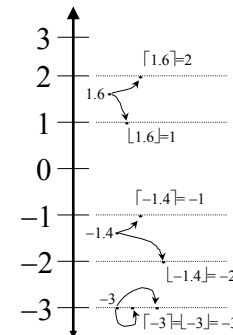
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A Couple of Key Functions

- In discrete math, we will 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 (most positive) integer $\leq x$. I.e., $\lfloor x \rfloor := \max(\{i \in \mathbf{Z} \mid i \leq x\})$.
 - The *ceiling* function $\lceil \cdot \rceil : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}$, where $\lceil x \rceil$ (“ceiling of x ”) means the smallest (most negative) integer $\geq x$. $\lceil x \rceil := \min(\{i \in \mathbf{Z} \mid i \geq x\})$

Visualizing Floor & Ceiling

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



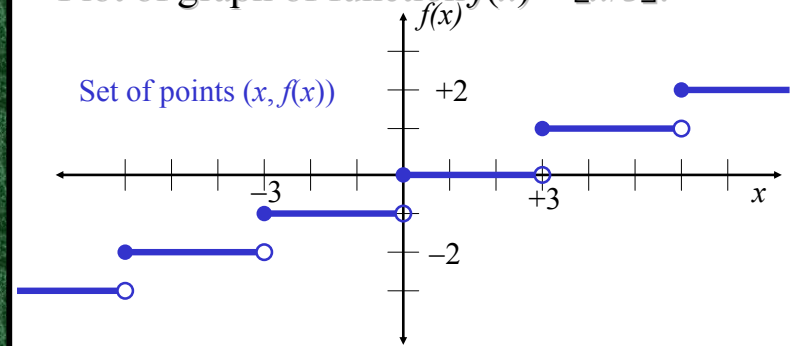
Plots with floor/ceiling

- Note that for $f(x) = \lfloor x \rfloor$, the graph of f includes the point $(a, 0)$ for all values of a such that $a \geq 0$ and $a < 1$, 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 generally 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.

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Plots with floor/ceiling: Example

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



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Exercises

- Data stored on a computer disk or transmitted over a data network are usually represented as a string of bytes. Each byte is made up of 8 bits. How many bytes are required to encode 100 bits of data?
- Examples 28, 29.
- H.W. 26.
- Look up Table 1 on page 144 of the 6th edition. Make sure you know it well.