

The Pigeonhole Principle & Functions

Problem set Two due
in the box up front.

The **pigeonhole principle** is the following:

If m objects are placed into n bins, where $m > n$, then some bin contains at least two objects.

(We sketched a proof in Lecture #02)

Why This Matters

- The pigeonhole principle can be used to show results must be true because they are “too big to fail.”
- Given a large enough number of objects with a bounded number of properties, eventually at least two of them will share a property.
- Can be used to prove some surprising results.

Using the Pigeonhole Principle

- To use the pigeonhole principle:
 - Find the m objects to distribute.
 - Find the $n < m$ buckets into which to distribute them.
 - Conclude by the pigeonhole principle that there must be two objects in some bucket.
- The details of how to proceed from there are specific to the particular proof you're doing.

A Surprising Application

Theorem: Suppose that every point in the real plane is colored either red or blue. Then for any distance $d > 0$, there are two points exactly distance d from one another that are the same color.

A Surprising Application

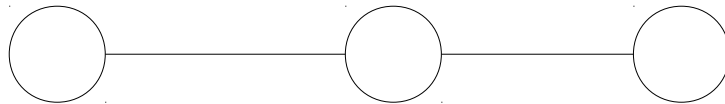
Theorem: Suppose that every point in the real plane is colored either red or blue. Then for any distance $d > 0$, there are two points exactly distance d from one another that are the same color.

Thought: There are two colors here, so if we start picking points, we'll be dropping them into one of two buckets (red or blue).

How many points do we need to pick to guarantee that we get two of the same color?

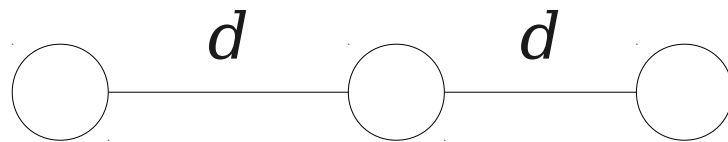
A Surprising Application

Theorem: Suppose that every point in the real plane is colored either red or blue. Then for any distance $d > 0$, there are two points exactly distance d from one another that are the same color.



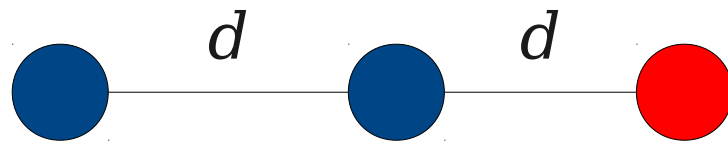
A Surprising Application

Theorem: Suppose that every point in the real plane is colored either red or blue. Then for any distance $d > 0$, there are two points exactly distance d from one another that are the same color.



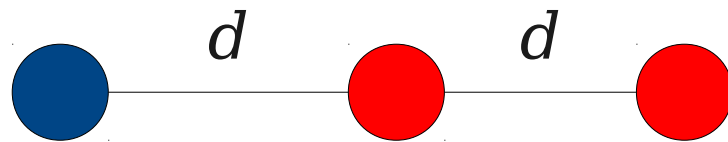
A Surprising Application

Theorem: Suppose that every point in the real plane is colored either red or blue. Then for any distance $d > 0$, there are two points exactly distance d from one another that are the same color.



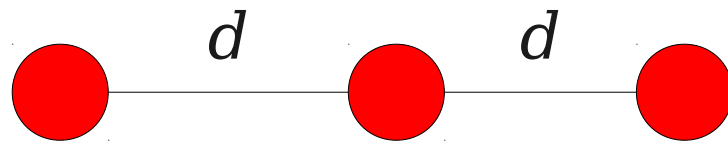
A Surprising Application

Theorem: Suppose that every point in the real plane is colored either red or blue. Then for any distance $d > 0$, there are two points exactly distance d from one another that are the same color.



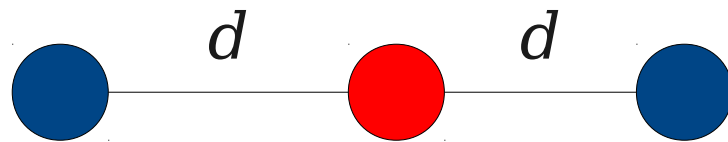
A Surprising Application

Theorem: Suppose that every point in the real plane is colored either red or blue. Then for any distance $d > 0$, there are two points exactly distance d from one another that are the same color.



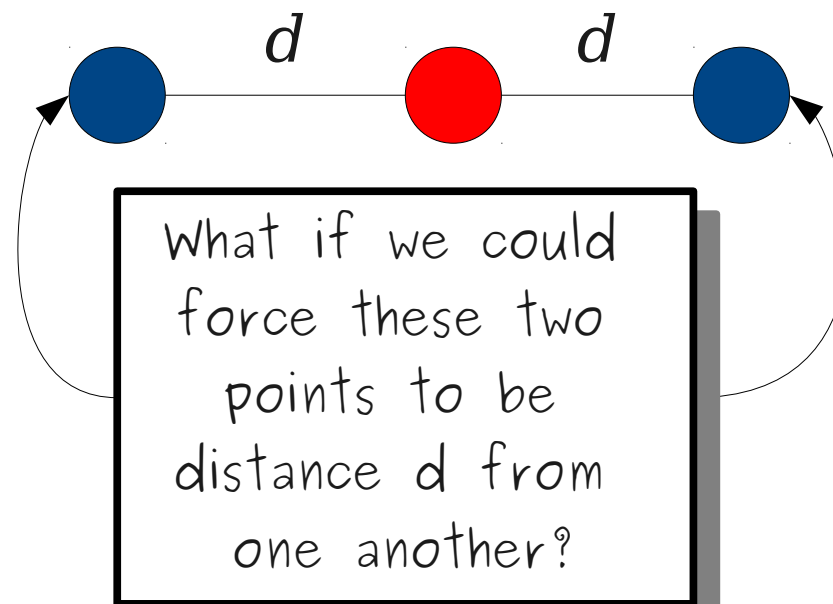
A Surprising Application

Theorem: Suppose that every point in the real plane is colored either red or blue. Then for any distance $d > 0$, there are two points exactly distance d from one another that are the same color.



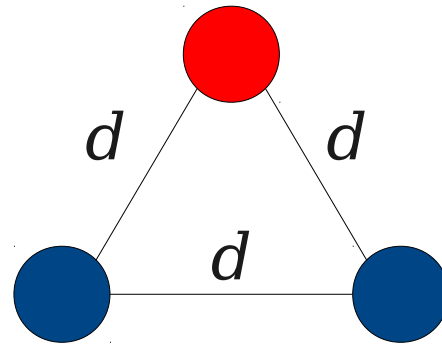
A Surprising Application

Theorem: Suppose that every point in the real plane is colored either red or blue. Then for any distance $d > 0$, there are two points exactly distance d from one another that are the same color.



A Surprising Application

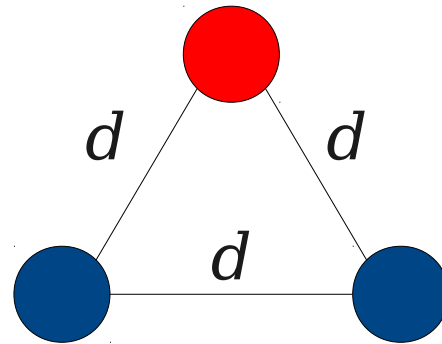
Theorem: Suppose that every point in the real plane is colored either red or blue. Then for any distance $d > 0$, there are two points exactly distance d from one another that are the same color.



A Surprising Application

Theorem: Suppose that every point in the real plane is colored either red or blue. Then for any distance $d > 0$, there are two points exactly distance d from one another that are the same color.

Any pair of these points is at distance d from one another. Since two must be the same color, there is a pair of points of the same color at distance d !



A Surprising Application

Theorem: Suppose that every point in the real plane is colored either red or blue. Then for any distance $d > 0$, there are two points exactly distance d from one another that are the same color.

Proof: Consider any equilateral triangle whose side lengths are d . Put this triangle anywhere in the plane. By the pigeonhole principle, because there are three vertices, two of the vertices must have the same color. These vertices are at distance d from each other, as required. ■

The Hadwiger-Nelson Problem

- No matter how you color the points of the plane, there will always be two points at distance 1 that are the same color.
- Relation to graph coloring:
 - Every point in the real plane is a node.
 - There's an edge between two points that are at distance exactly one.
- Question: What is the chromatic number of this graph? (That is, how many colors do you need to ensure no points at distance 1 are the same color?)
- This is the **Hadwiger-Nelson** problem. It's known that the number is between 4 and 7, but no one knows for sure!

Theorem: For any nonzero natural number n , there is a nonzero multiple of n whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

Theorem: For any nonzero natural number n , there is a nonzero multiple of n whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

1
11
111
1111
11111
111111
1111111
11111111
111111111
1111111111

There are 10 objects here.

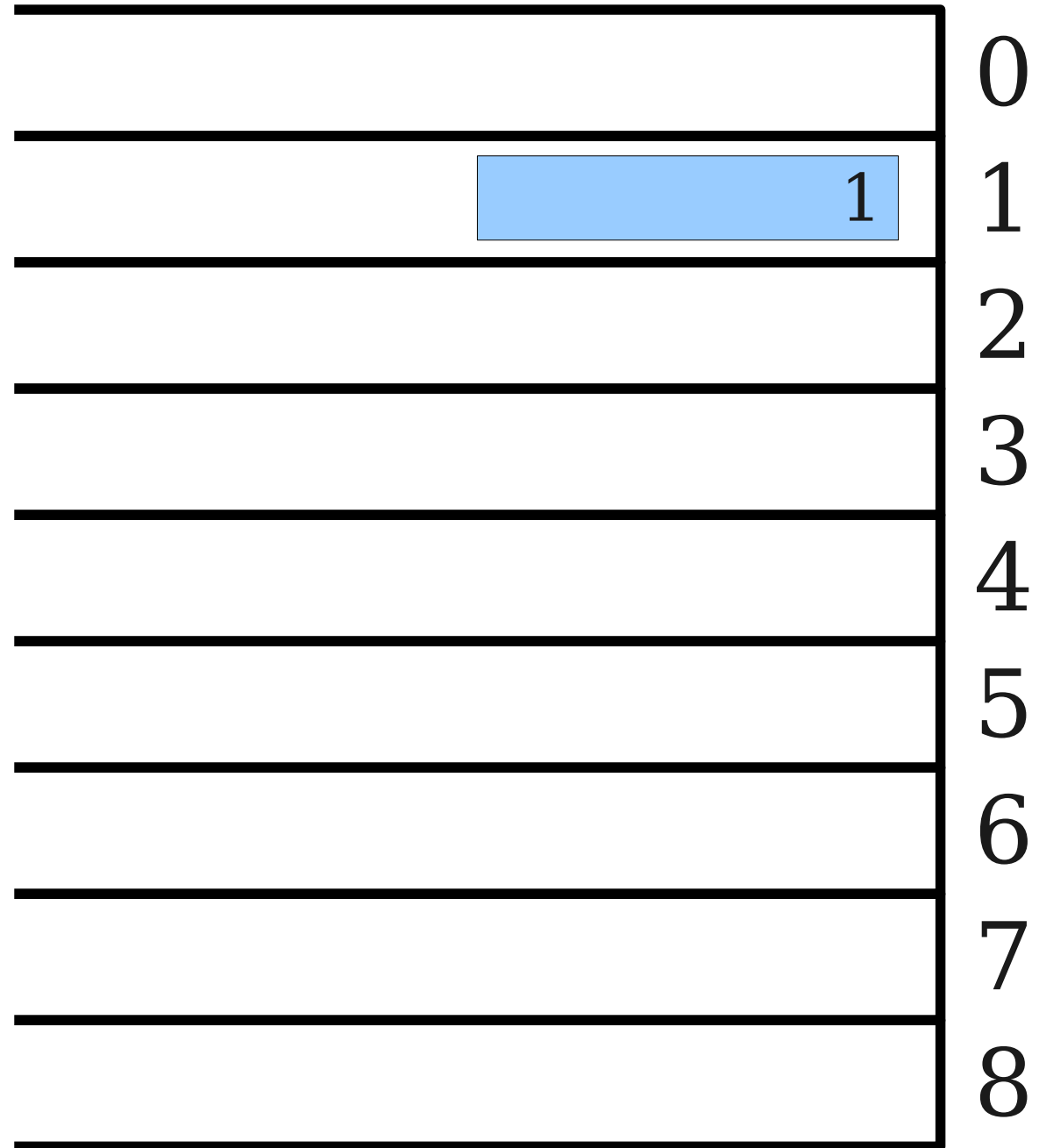
Theorem: For any nonzero natural number n , there is a nonzero multiple of n whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

1
11
111
1111
11111
111111
1111111
11111111
111111111
1111111111

	0
	1
	2
	3
	4
	5
	6
	7
	8

Theorem: For any nonzero natural number n , there is a nonzero multiple of n whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

11
111
1111
11111
111111
1111111
11111111
111111111
1111111111
11111111111



Theorem: For any nonzero natural number n , there is a nonzero multiple of n whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

111
1111
11111
111111
1111111
11111111
111111111
1111111111

	0
1	1
11	2
	3
	4
	5
	6
	7
	8

Theorem: For any nonzero natural number n , there is a nonzero multiple of n whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

1111
11111
111111
1111111
11111111
111111111
1111111111

	0
1	1
11	2
111	3
	4
	5
	6
	7
	8

Theorem: For any nonzero natural number n , there is a nonzero multiple of n whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

11111
111111
1111111
11111111
111111111
1111111111

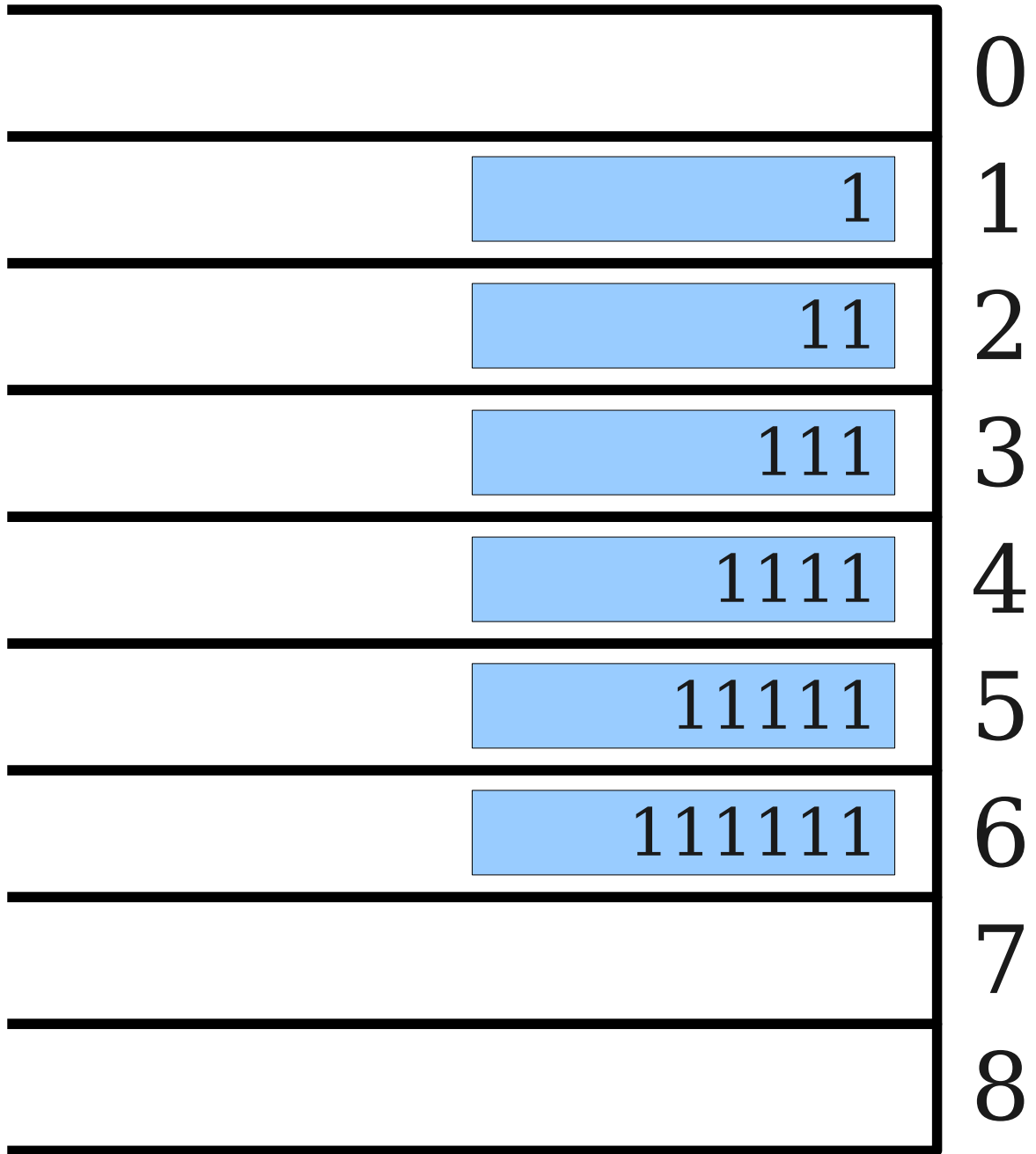
	0
1	1
11	2
111	3
1111	4
	5
	6
	7
	8

Theorem: For any nonzero natural number n , there is a nonzero multiple of n whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

111111
1111111
11111111
111111111
1111111111

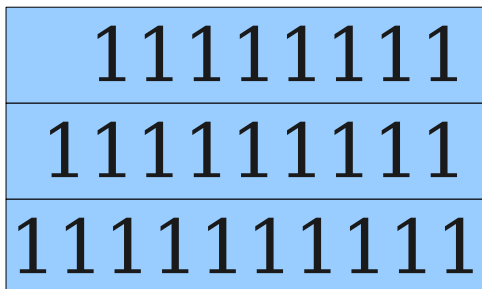
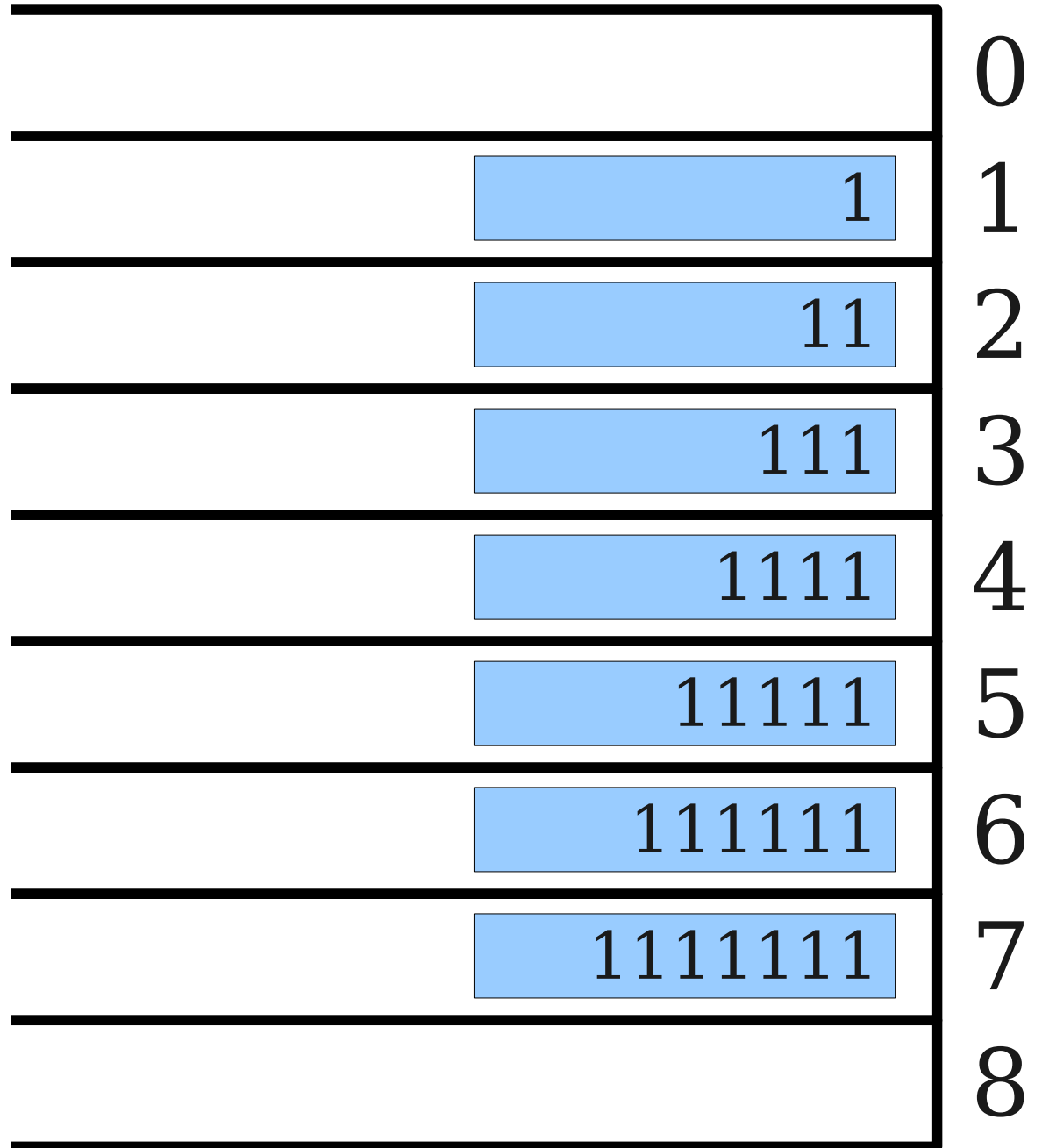
	0
1	1
11	2
111	3
1111	4
11111	5
	6
	7
	8

Theorem: For any nonzero natural number n , there is a nonzero multiple of n whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

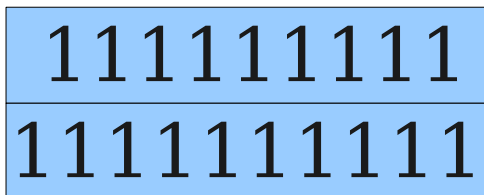
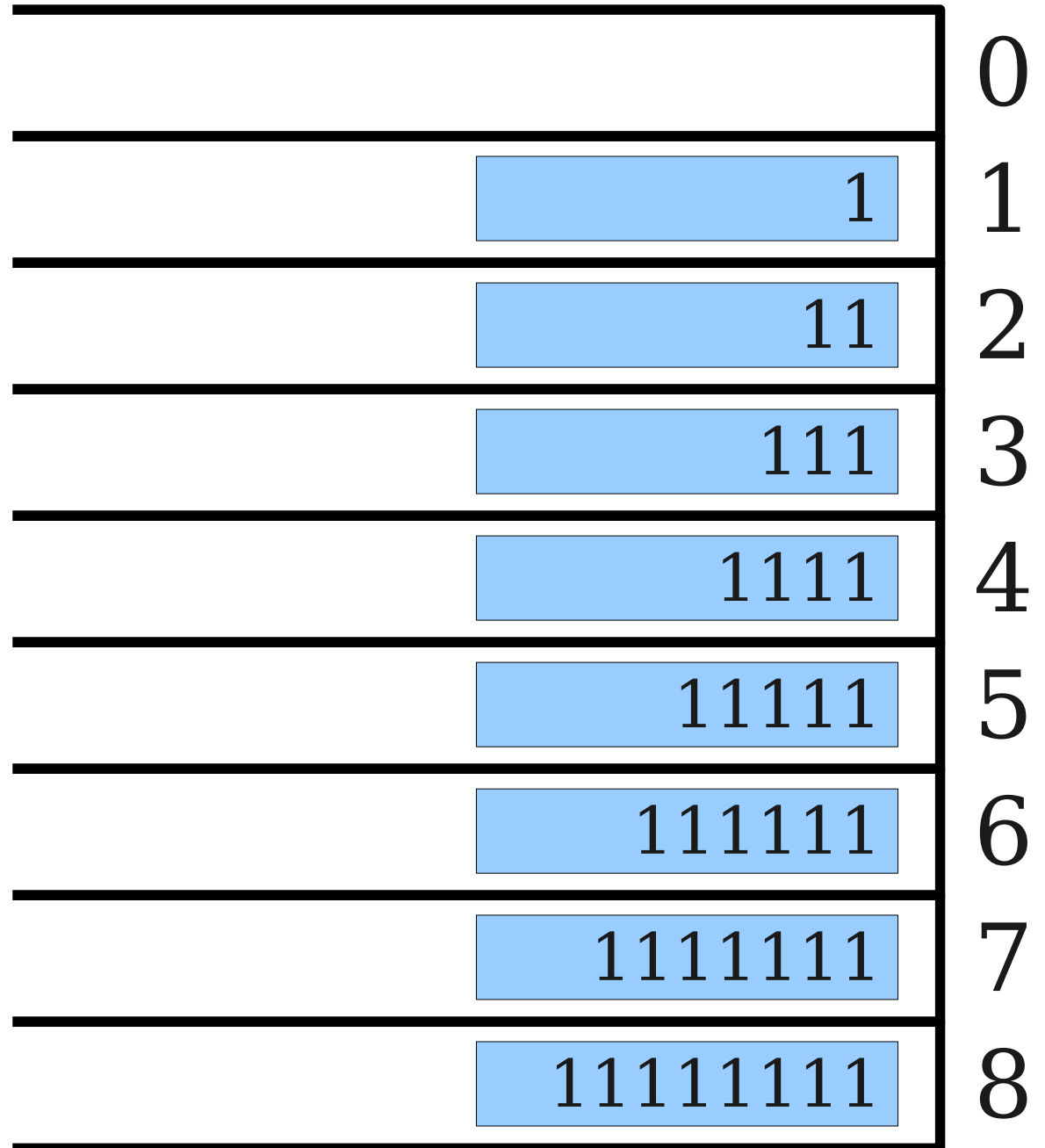


11111111
11111111
1111111111
111111111111

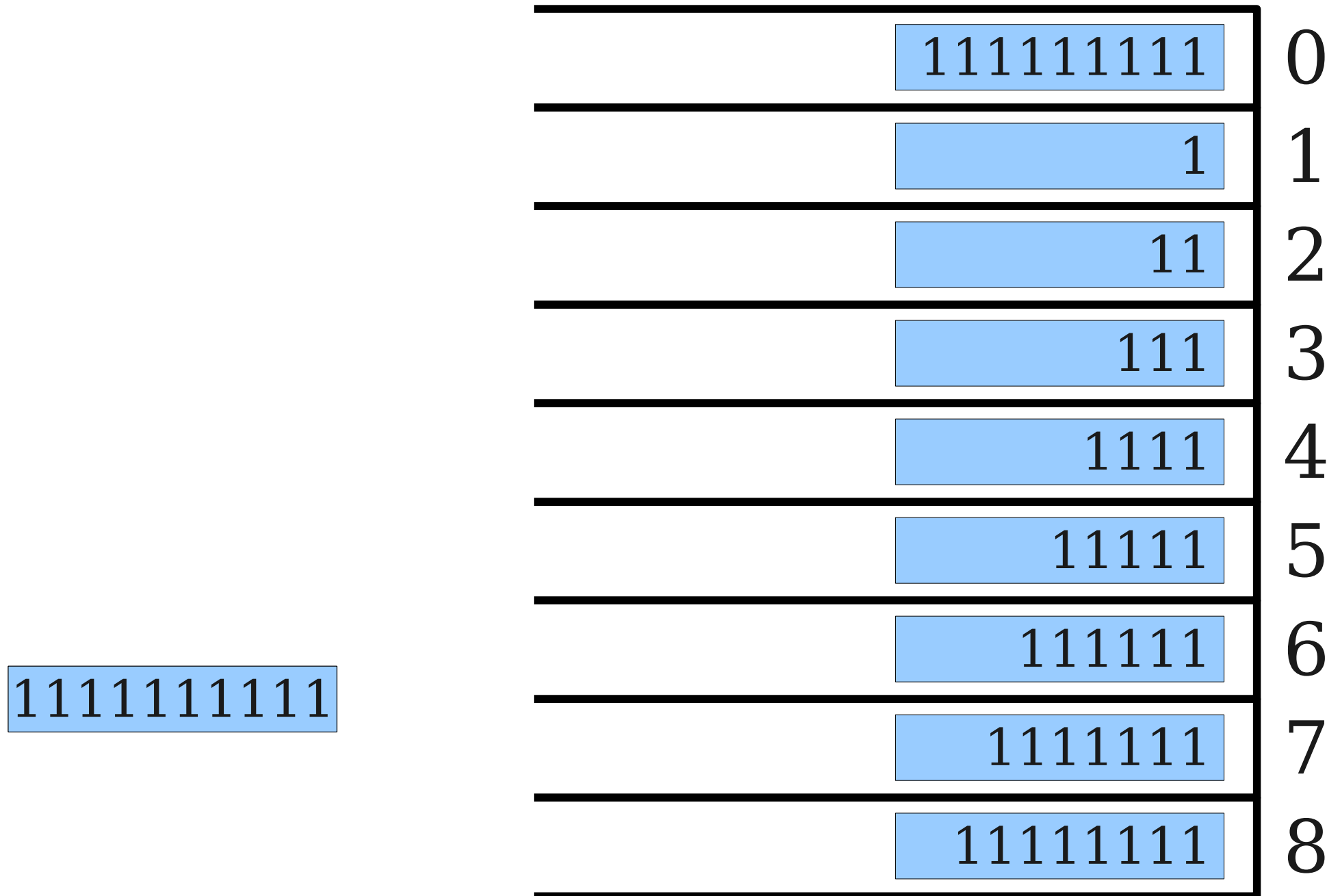
Theorem: For any nonzero natural number n , there is a nonzero multiple of n whose digits are all 0s and 1s.



Theorem: For any nonzero natural number n , there is a nonzero multiple of n whose digits are all 0s and 1s.



Theorem: For any nonzero natural number n , there is a nonzero multiple of n whose digits are all 0s and 1s.



Theorem: For any nonzero natural number n , there is a nonzero multiple of n whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

	1111111111	0
111111111111	1	1
	11	2
	111	3
	1111	4
	11111	5
	111111	6
	1111111	7
	11111111	8

Theorem: For any nonzero natural number n , there is a nonzero multiple of n whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

	1111111111	0
1111111111	1	1
	11	2
	111	3
	1111	4
	11111	5
	111111	6
	1111111	7
	11111111	8

Theorem: For any nonzero natural number n , there is a nonzero multiple of n whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 111111111111 \\
 - \quad \quad \quad 1 \\
 \hline
 11111111110
 \end{array}$$

1111111111	0
11111111111 1	1
11	2
111	3
1111	4
11111	5
111111	6
1111111	7
11111111	8

Proof Idea

- Generate the numbers $1, 11, 111, \dots$ until $n + 1$ numbers are generated.
- There are n possible remainders modulo n , so two of these numbers have the same remainder.
- Their difference is a multiple of n .
- Their difference consists of 1s and 0s.

Theorem: Every positive natural number has a nonzero multiple whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

Theorem: Every positive natural number has a nonzero multiple whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

Proof: Let n be an arbitrary positive natural number.

Theorem: Every positive natural number has a nonzero multiple whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

Proof: Let n be an arbitrary positive natural number. For every natural number k in the range $0 \leq k \leq n$, define X_k as

$$X_k = \sum_{i=0}^k 10^i.$$

Theorem: Every positive natural number has a nonzero multiple whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

Proof: Let n be an arbitrary positive natural number. For every natural number k in the range $0 \leq k \leq n$, define X_k as

$$X_k = \sum_{i=0}^k 10^i.$$

Now, consider the remainders of the X_k 's modulo n .

Theorem: Every positive natural number has a nonzero multiple whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

Proof: Let n be an arbitrary positive natural number. For every natural number k in the range $0 \leq k \leq n$, define X_k as

$$X_k = \sum_{i=0}^k 10^i.$$

Now, consider the remainders of the X_k 's modulo n . Since there are $n + 1$ X_k 's and n remainders modulo n , by the pigeonhole principle there must be at least two X_k 's that leave the same remainder modulo n .

Theorem: Every positive natural number has a nonzero multiple whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

Proof: Let n be an arbitrary positive natural number. For every natural number k in the range $0 \leq k \leq n$, define X_k as

$$X_k = \sum_{i=0}^k 10^i.$$

Now, consider the remainders of the X_k 's modulo n . Since there are $n + 1$ X_k 's and n remainders modulo n , by the pigeonhole principle there must be at least two X_k 's that leave the same remainder modulo n . Let X_s and X_t be two of these numbers and let r be that remainder.

Theorem: Every positive natural number has a nonzero multiple whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

Proof: Let n be an arbitrary positive natural number. For every natural number k in the range $0 \leq k \leq n$, define X_k as

$$X_k = \sum_{i=0}^k 10^i.$$

Now, consider the remainders of the X_k 's modulo n . Since there are $n + 1$ X_k 's and n remainders modulo n , by the pigeonhole principle there must be at least two X_k 's that leave the same remainder modulo n . Let X_s and X_t be two of these numbers and let r be that remainder. Without loss of generality, let $s > t$.

Theorem: Every positive natural number has a nonzero multiple whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

Proof: Let n be an arbitrary positive natural number. For every natural number k in the range $0 \leq k \leq n$, define X_k as

$$X_k = \sum_{i=0}^k 10^i.$$

Now, consider the remainders of the X_k 's modulo n . Since there are $n + 1$ X_k 's and n remainders modulo n , by the pigeonhole principle there must be at least two X_k 's that leave the same remainder modulo n . Let X_s and X_t be two of these numbers and let r be that remainder. Without loss of generality, let $s > t$.

Since $X_s \equiv_n r$, there exists a $q_s \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $X_s = nq_s + r$.

Theorem: Every positive natural number has a nonzero multiple whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

Proof: Let n be an arbitrary positive natural number. For every natural number k in the range $0 \leq k \leq n$, define X_k as

$$X_k = \sum_{i=0}^k 10^i.$$

Now, consider the remainders of the X_k 's modulo n . Since there are $n + 1$ X_k 's and n remainders modulo n , by the pigeonhole principle there must be at least two X_k 's that leave the same remainder modulo n . Let X_s and X_t be two of these numbers and let r be that remainder. Without loss of generality, let $s > t$.

Since $X_s \equiv_n r$, there exists a $q_s \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $X_s = nq_s + r$. Since $X_t \equiv_n r$, there exists a $q_t \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $X_t = nq_t + r$.

Theorem: Every positive natural number has a nonzero multiple whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

Proof: Let n be an arbitrary positive natural number. For every natural number k in the range $0 \leq k \leq n$, define X_k as

$$X_k = \sum_{i=0}^k 10^i.$$

Now, consider the remainders of the X_k 's modulo n . Since there are $n + 1$ X_k 's and n remainders modulo n , by the pigeonhole principle there must be at least two X_k 's that leave the same remainder modulo n . Let X_s and X_t be two of these numbers and let r be that remainder. Without loss of generality, let $s > t$.

Since $X_s \equiv_n r$, there exists a $q_s \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $X_s = nq_s + r$. Since $X_t \equiv_n r$, there exists a $q_t \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $X_t = nq_t + r$. Therefore,

$$X_s - X_t = (nq_s + r) - (nq_t + r)$$

Theorem: Every positive natural number has a nonzero multiple whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

Proof: Let n be an arbitrary positive natural number. For every natural number k in the range $0 \leq k \leq n$, define X_k as

$$X_k = \sum_{i=0}^k 10^i.$$

Now, consider the remainders of the X_k 's modulo n . Since there are $n + 1$ X_k 's and n remainders modulo n , by the pigeonhole principle there must be at least two X_k 's that leave the same remainder modulo n . Let X_s and X_t be two of these numbers and let r be that remainder. Without loss of generality, let $s > t$.

Since $X_s \equiv_n r$, there exists a $q_s \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $X_s = nq_s + r$. Since $X_t \equiv_n r$, there exists a $q_t \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $X_t = nq_t + r$. Therefore,

$$X_s - X_t = (nq_s + r) - (nq_t + r) = nq_s - nq_t$$

Theorem: Every positive natural number has a nonzero multiple whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

Proof: Let n be an arbitrary positive natural number. For every natural number k in the range $0 \leq k \leq n$, define X_k as

$$X_k = \sum_{i=0}^k 10^i.$$

Now, consider the remainders of the X_k 's modulo n . Since there are $n + 1$ X_k 's and n remainders modulo n , by the pigeonhole principle there must be at least two X_k 's that leave the same remainder modulo n . Let X_s and X_t be two of these numbers and let r be that remainder. Without loss of generality, let $s > t$.

Since $X_s \equiv_n r$, there exists a $q_s \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $X_s = nq_s + r$. Since $X_t \equiv_n r$, there exists a $q_t \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $X_t = nq_t + r$. Therefore,

$$X_s - X_t = (nq_s + r) - (nq_t + r) = nq_s - nq_t = n(q_s - q_t).$$

Theorem: Every positive natural number has a nonzero multiple whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

Proof: Let n be an arbitrary positive natural number. For every natural number k in the range $0 \leq k \leq n$, define X_k as

$$X_k = \sum_{i=0}^k 10^i.$$

Now, consider the remainders of the X_k 's modulo n . Since there are $n + 1$ X_k 's and n remainders modulo n , by the pigeonhole principle there must be at least two X_k 's that leave the same remainder modulo n . Let X_s and X_t be two of these numbers and let r be that remainder. Without loss of generality, let $s > t$.

Since $X_s \equiv_n r$, there exists a $q_s \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $X_s = nq_s + r$. Since $X_t \equiv_n r$, there exists a $q_t \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $X_t = nq_t + r$. Therefore,

$$X_s - X_t = (nq_s + r) - (nq_t + r) = nq_s - nq_t = n(q_s - q_t).$$

Therefore, $X_s - X_t$ is a multiple of n .

Theorem: Every positive natural number has a nonzero multiple whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

Proof: Let n be an arbitrary positive natural number. For every natural number k in the range $0 \leq k \leq n$, define X_k as

$$X_k = \sum_{i=0}^k 10^i.$$

Now, consider the remainders of the X_k 's modulo n . Since there are $n + 1$ X_k 's and n remainders modulo n , by the pigeonhole principle there must be at least two X_k 's that leave the same remainder modulo n . Let X_s and X_t be two of these numbers and let r be that remainder. Without loss of generality, let $s > t$.

Since $X_s \equiv_n r$, there exists a $q_s \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $X_s = nq_s + r$. Since $X_t \equiv_n r$, there exists a $q_t \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $X_t = nq_t + r$. Therefore,

$$X_s - X_t = (nq_s + r) - (nq_t + r) = nq_s - nq_t = n(q_s - q_t).$$

Therefore, $X_s - X_t$ is a multiple of n . Moreover, we have

$$X_s - X_t = \sum_{i=0}^s 10^i - \sum_{i=0}^t 10^i = \sum_{i=t+1}^s 10^i.$$

Theorem: Every positive natural number has a nonzero multiple whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

Proof: Let n be an arbitrary positive natural number. For every natural number k in the range $0 \leq k \leq n$, define X_k as

$$X_k = \sum_{i=0}^k 10^i.$$

Now, consider the remainders of the X_k 's modulo n . Since there are $n + 1$ X_k 's and n remainders modulo n , by the pigeonhole principle there must be at least two X_k 's that leave the same remainder modulo n . Let X_s and X_t be two of these numbers and let r be that remainder. Without loss of generality, let $s > t$.

Since $X_s \equiv_n r$, there exists a $q_s \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $X_s = nq_s + r$. Since $X_t \equiv_n r$, there exists a $q_t \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $X_t = nq_t + r$. Therefore,

$$X_s - X_t = (nq_s + r) - (nq_t + r) = nq_s - nq_t = n(q_s - q_t).$$

Therefore, $X_s - X_t$ is a multiple of n . Moreover, we have

$$X_s - X_t = \sum_{i=0}^s 10^i - \sum_{i=0}^t 10^i = \sum_{i=t+1}^s 10^i.$$

So $X_s - X_t$ is a sum of distinct powers of ten, so its digits are 0s and 1s.

Theorem: Every positive natural number has a nonzero multiple whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

Proof: Let n be an arbitrary positive natural number. For every natural number k in the range $0 \leq k \leq n$, define X_k as

$$X_k = \sum_{i=0}^k 10^i.$$

Now, consider the remainders of the X_k 's modulo n . Since there are $n + 1$ X_k 's and n remainders modulo n , by the pigeonhole principle there must be at least two X_k 's that leave the same remainder modulo n . Let X_s and X_t be two of these numbers and let r be that remainder. Without loss of generality, let $s > t$.

Since $X_s \equiv_n r$, there exists a $q_s \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $X_s = nq_s + r$. Since $X_t \equiv_n r$, there exists a $q_t \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $X_t = nq_t + r$. Therefore,

$$X_s - X_t = (nq_s + r) - (nq_t + r) = nq_s - nq_t = n(q_s - q_t).$$

Therefore, $X_s - X_t$ is a multiple of n . Moreover, we have

$$X_s - X_t = \sum_{i=0}^s 10^i - \sum_{i=0}^t 10^i = \sum_{i=t+1}^s 10^i.$$

So $X_s - X_t$ is a sum of distinct powers of ten, so its digits are 0s and 1s. Therefore $X_s - X_t$ is a nonzero multiple of n whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

Theorem: Every positive natural number has a nonzero multiple whose digits are all 0s and 1s.

Proof: Let n be an arbitrary positive natural number. For every natural number k in the range $0 \leq k \leq n$, define X_k as

$$X_k = \sum_{i=0}^k 10^i.$$

Now, consider the remainders of the X_k 's modulo n . Since there are $n + 1$ X_k 's and n remainders modulo n , by the pigeonhole principle there must be at least two X_k 's that leave the same remainder modulo n . Let X_s and X_t be two of these numbers and let r be that remainder. Without loss of generality, let $s > t$.

Since $X_s \equiv_n r$, there exists a $q_s \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $X_s = nq_s + r$. Since $X_t \equiv_n r$, there exists a $q_t \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $X_t = nq_t + r$. Therefore,

$$X_s - X_t = (nq_s + r) - (nq_t + r) = nq_s - nq_t = n(q_s - q_t).$$

Therefore, $X_s - X_t$ is a multiple of n . Moreover, we have

$$X_s - X_t = \sum_{i=0}^s 10^i - \sum_{i=0}^t 10^i = \sum_{i=t+1}^s 10^i.$$

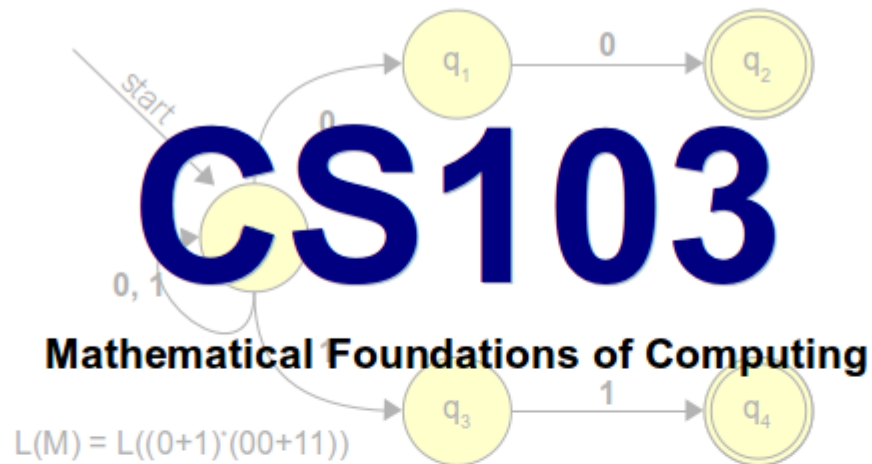
So $X_s - X_t$ is a sum of distinct powers of ten, so its digits are 0s and 1s. Therefore $X_s - X_t$ is a nonzero multiple of n whose digits are all 0s and 1s. ■

Announcements!

Friday Four Square!
Today at 4:15PM, in front of Gates

Problem Set Three

- Problem Set Two due at the start of today's lecture, or Monday with a late period.
- Problem Set Three out.
 - Checkpoint due next Monday at the start of lecture.
 - Rest of the problem set due Friday.
 - Play around with graphs, relations, and the pigeonhole principle!



Announcements

Problem Set Three Out

Problem Set Three goes out today. This problem set covers graphs, relations, and the pigeonhole principle. It will give you a chance to play around with these structures. The checkpoint problem is due on Friday, October 14 and the rest of the problem set is due on Friday, October 18.

Handouts

- 00: Course Information
- 01: Syllabus
- 02: Problem Set Policies
- 03: Honor Code
- 04: Set Theory Definitions
- 07: Guide to Proofs

Discussion Problems

Resources

- Course Reader
- Lecture Videos
- Theorem and Definition Reference
- Office Hours Schedule
- Grades

Lectures

Your Questions

“How do you decide whether a statement needs to be proved with a lemma or is counted as logical reasoning?”

“Can we email you or TAs questions we have about homework?”

Yes! Please!

Functions

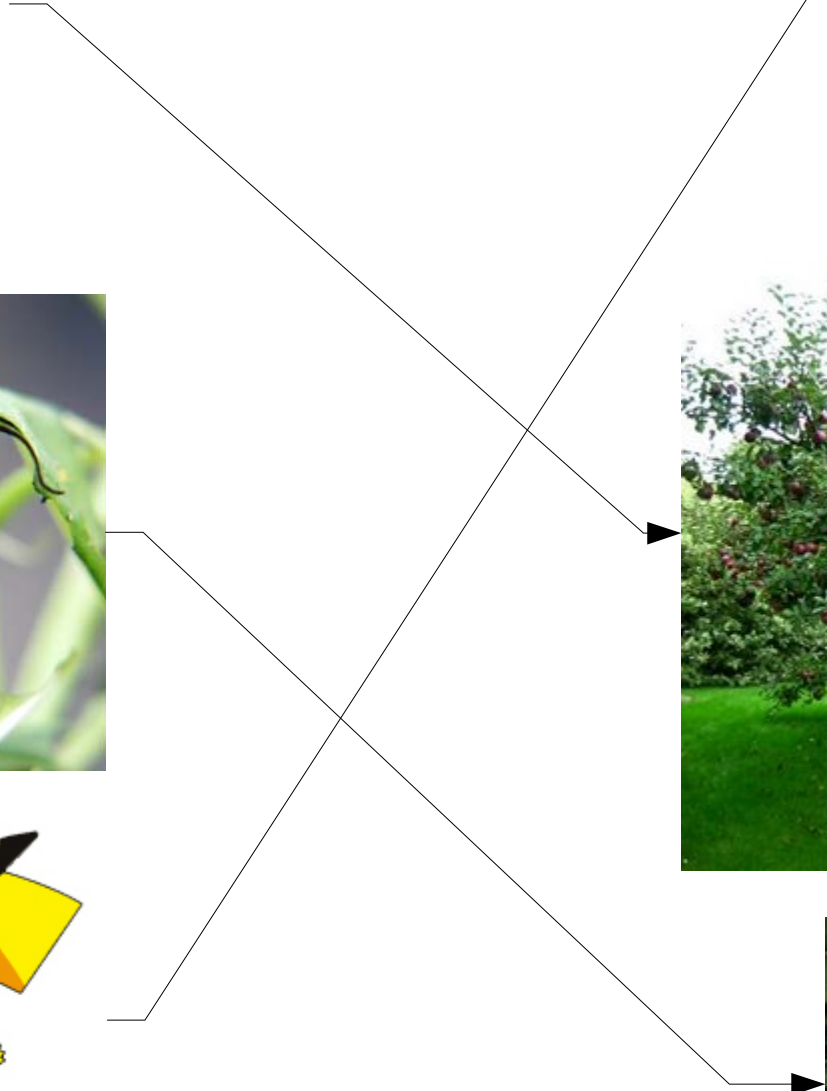
A **function** is a means of associating each object in one set with an object in some other set.

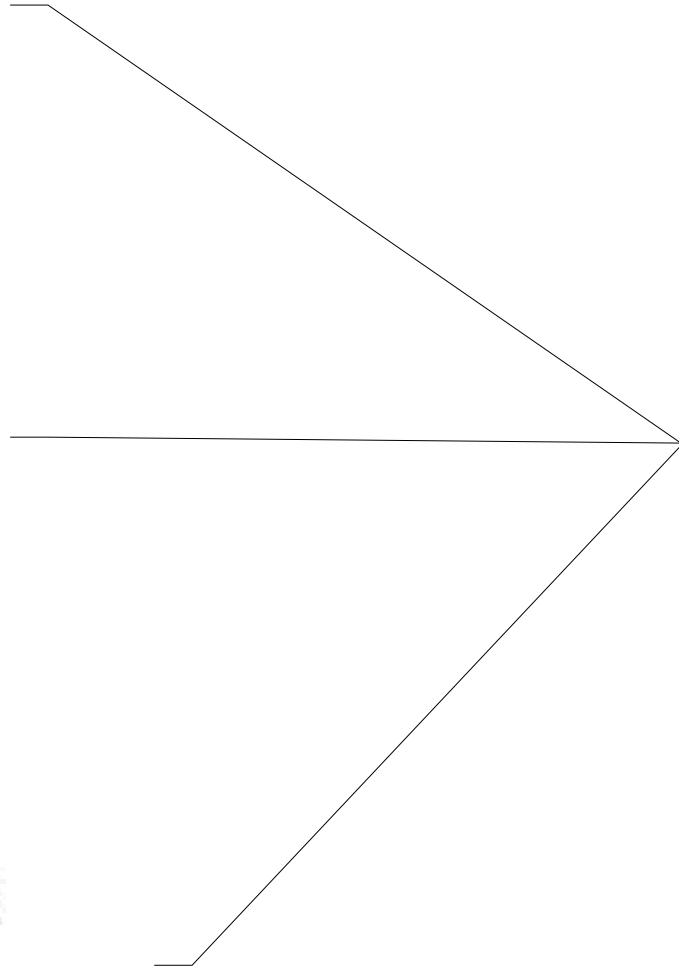


Dikdik

Nubian
Ibex

Sloth





→ Black and White

Terminology

- A **function** f is a mapping such that every element of A is associated with a single element of B .
 - For each $a \in A$, there is some $b \in B$ with $f(a) = b$.
 - If $f(a) = b_0$ and $f(a) = b_1$, then $b_0 = b_1$.
- If f is a function from A to B , we say that f is a **mapping** from A to B .
 - We call A the **domain** of f .
 - We call B the **codomain** of f .
- We denote that f is a function from A to B by writing

$$f : A \rightarrow B$$

Defining Functions

- Typically, we specify a function by describing a rule that maps every element of the domain to some element of the codomain.
- Examples:
 - $f(n) = n + 1$, where $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$
 - $f(x) = \sin x$, where $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 - $f(x) = \lfloor x \rfloor$, where $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$
- Notice that we're giving both a rule and the domain/codomain.

Defining Functions

Typically, we specify a function by describing a rule that maps every element of the domain to some codomain.

Examples:

$$f(n) = n + 1, \text{ where } f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$$

$$f(x) = \sin x, \text{ where } f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

- $f(x) = \lceil x \rceil, \text{ where } f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$

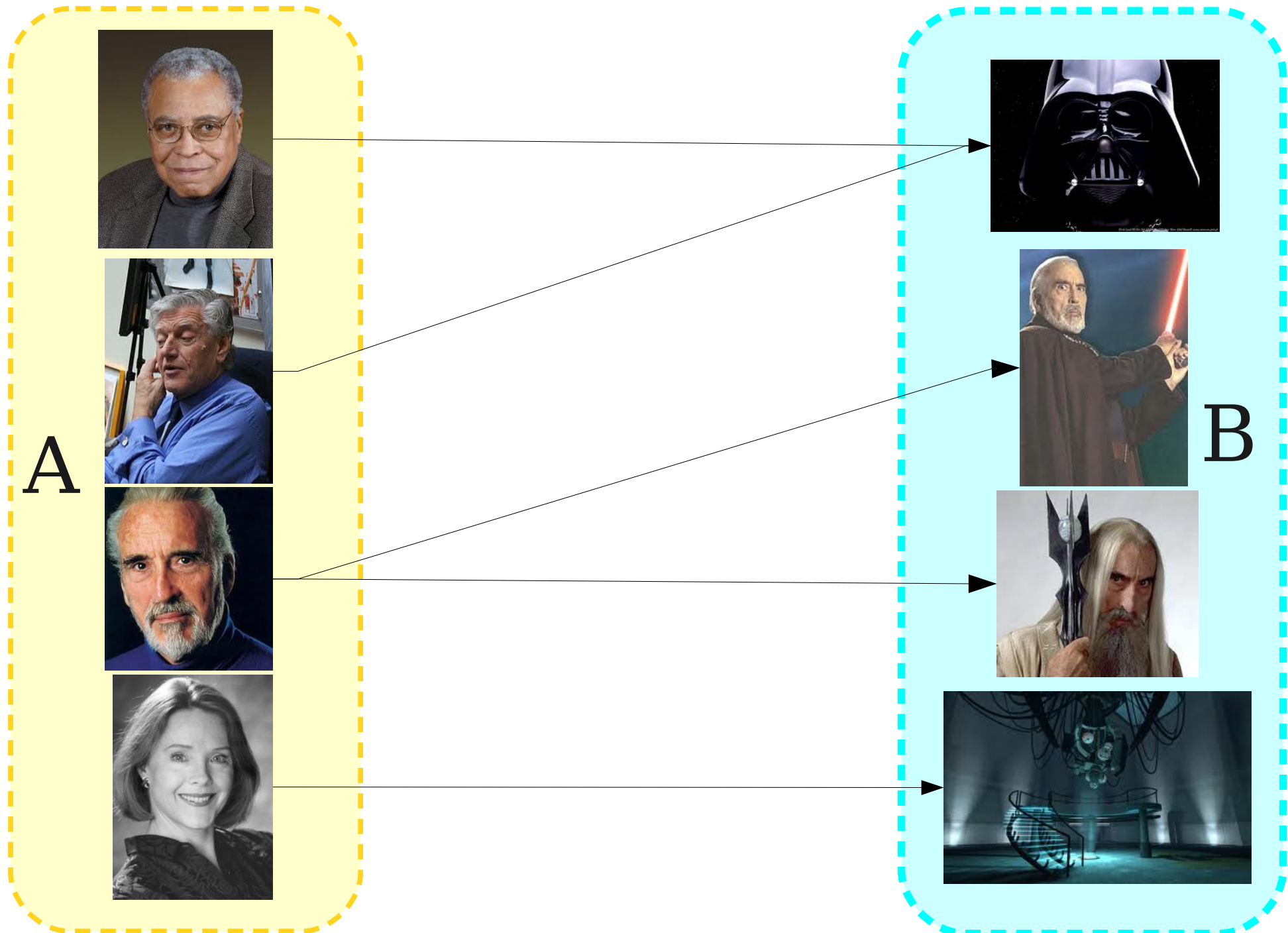
Notice that we're giving both a rule and the domain/codomain.

This is the ceiling function - the smallest integer greater than or equal to x . For example, $\lceil 1 \rceil = 1$, $\lceil 1.37 \rceil = 2$, and $\lceil \pi \rceil = 4$.

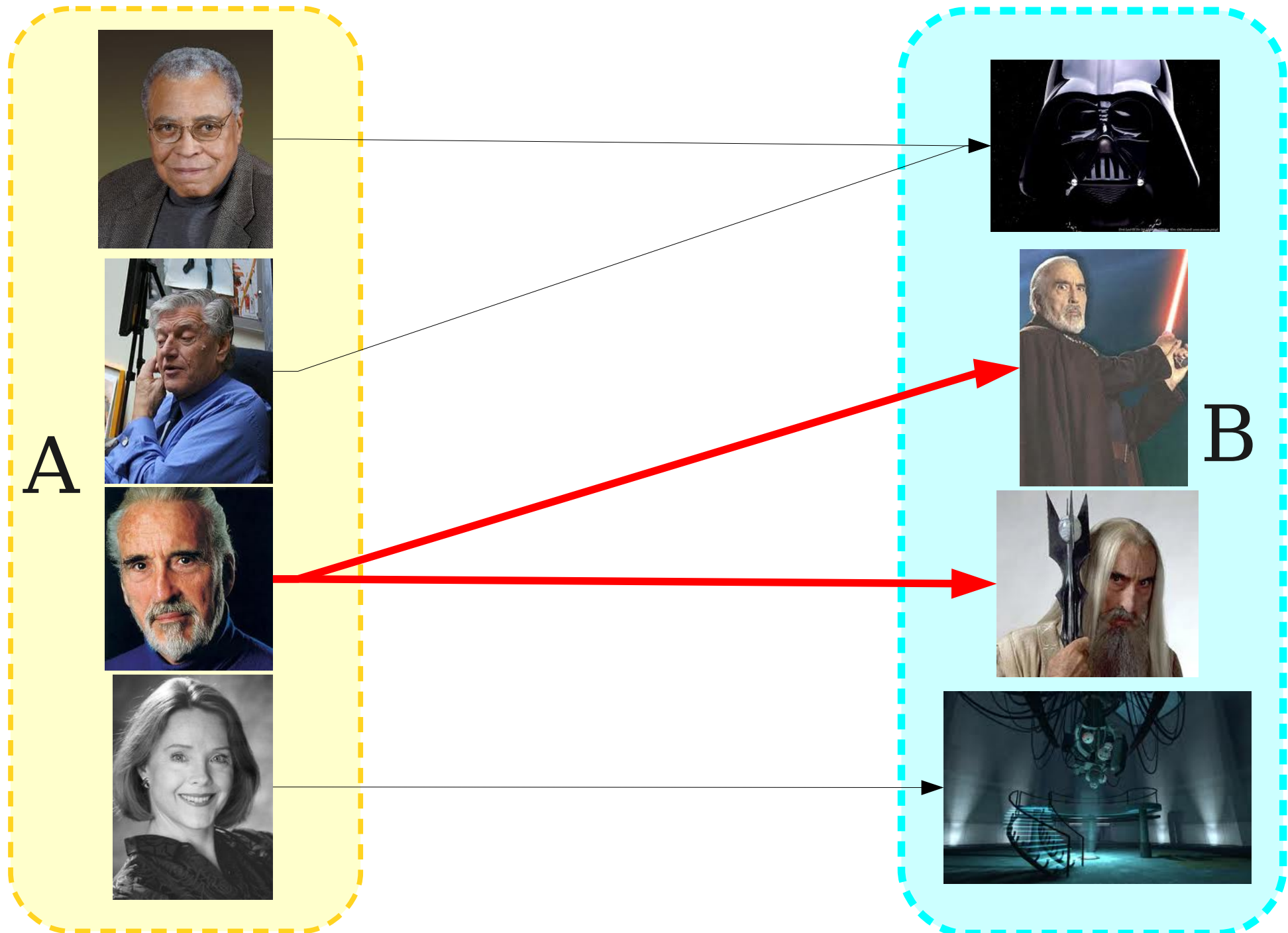
Defining Functions

- Typically, we specify a function by describing a rule that maps every element of the domain to some element of the codomain.
- Examples:
 - $f(n) = n + 1$, where $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$
 - $f(x) = \sin x$, where $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 - $f(x) = \lfloor x \rfloor$, where $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$
- Notice that we're giving both a rule and the domain/codomain.

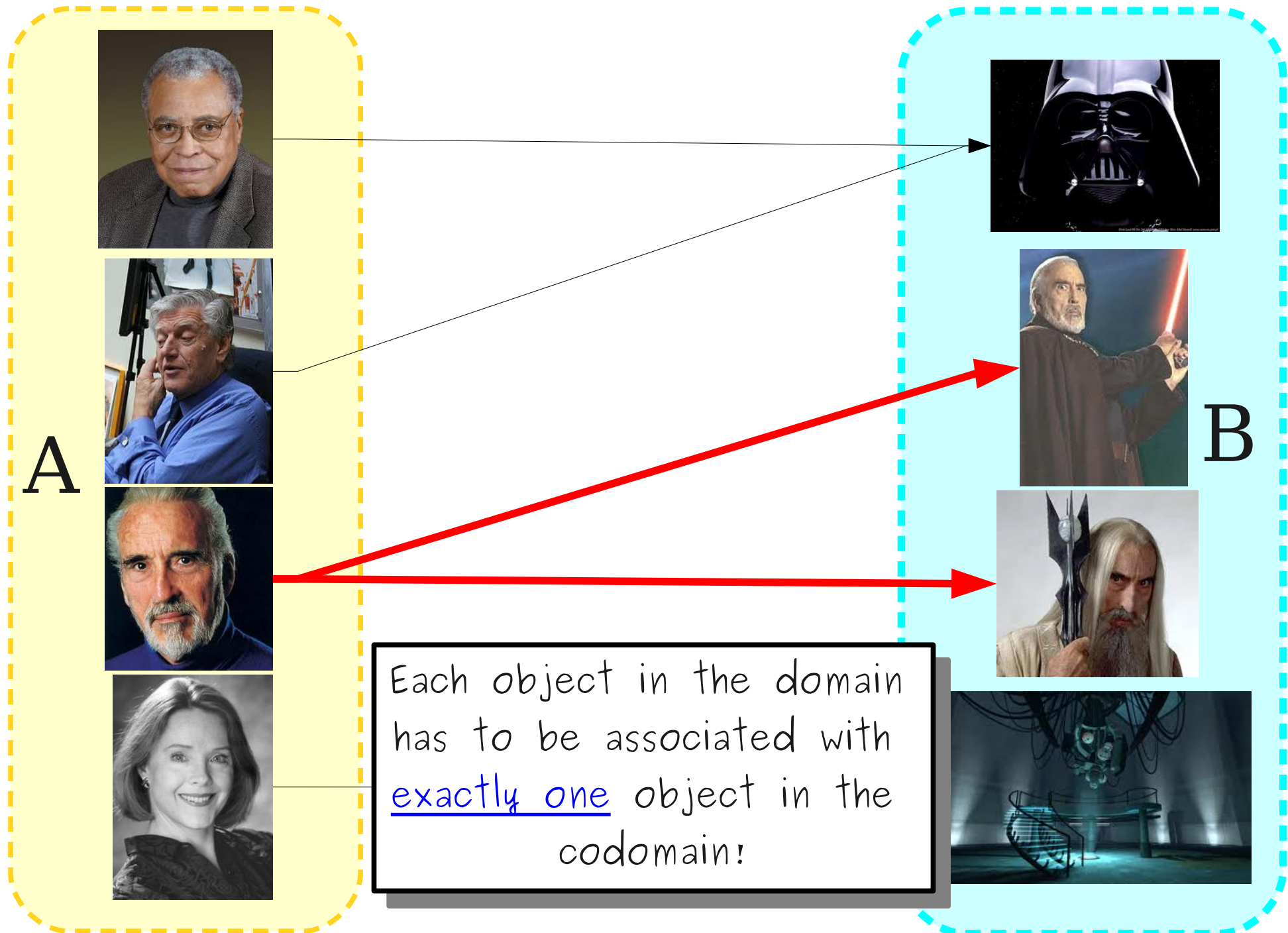
Is this a function from A to B ?



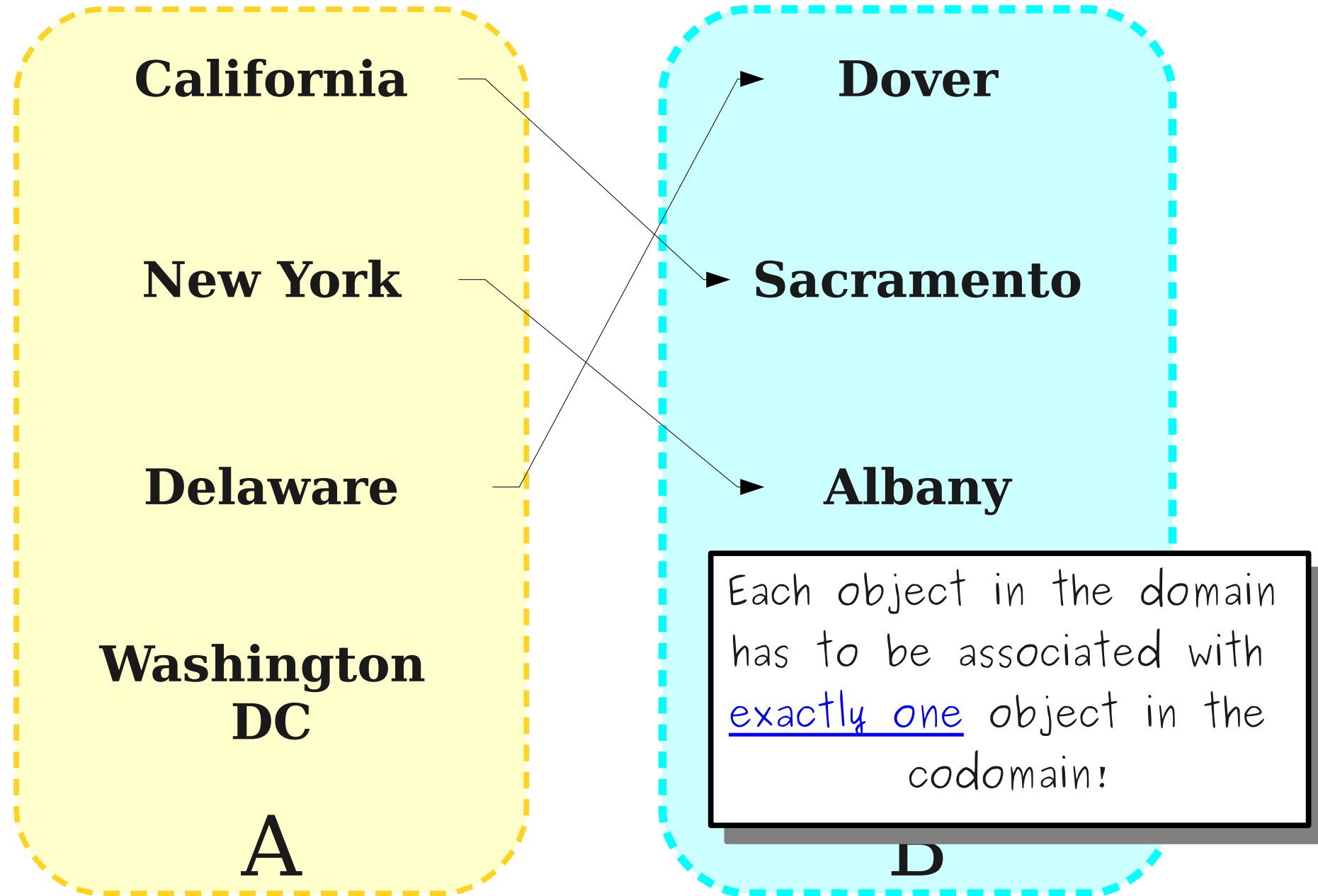
Is this a function from A to B ?



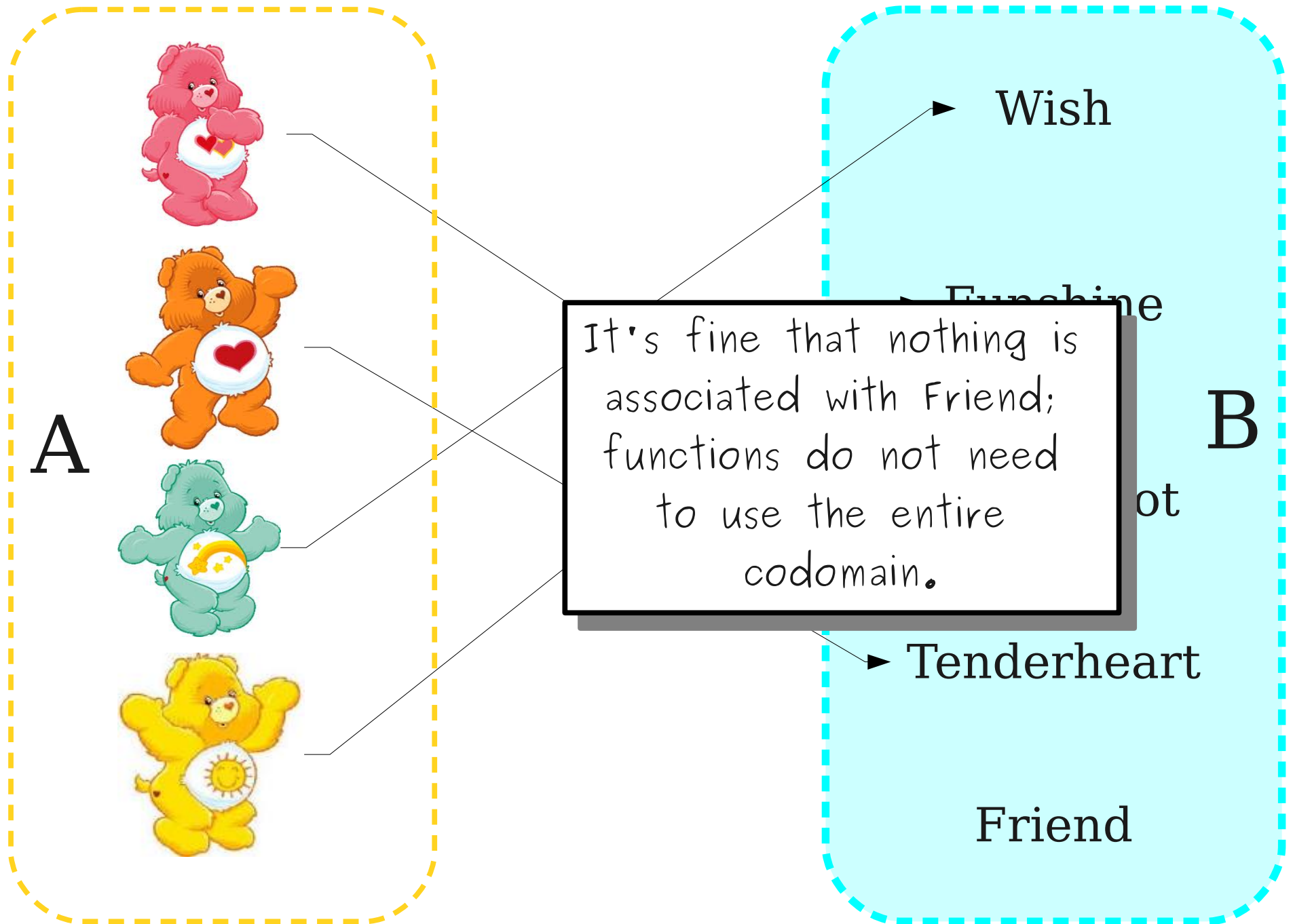
Is this a function from A to B ?



Is this a function from A to B ?



Is this a function from A to B ?



Piecewise Functions

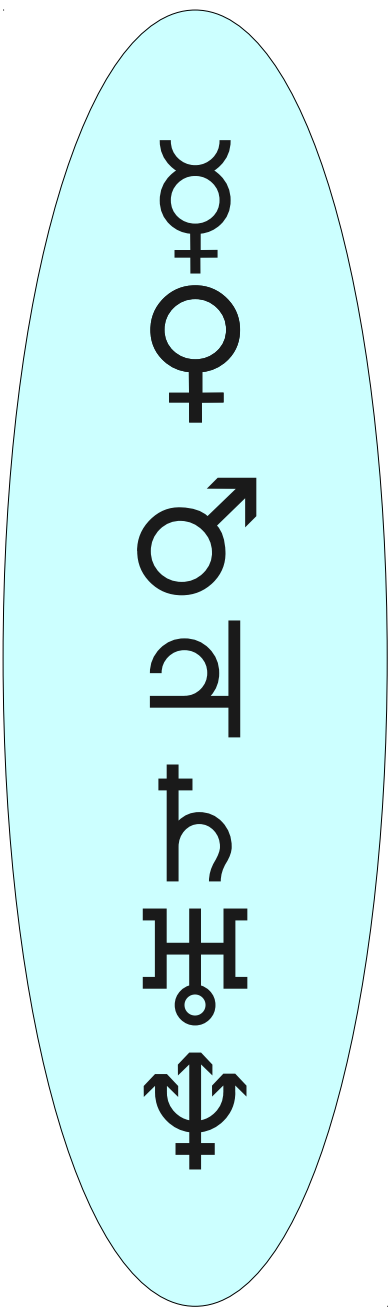
- Functions may be specified **piecewise**, with different rules applying to different elements.

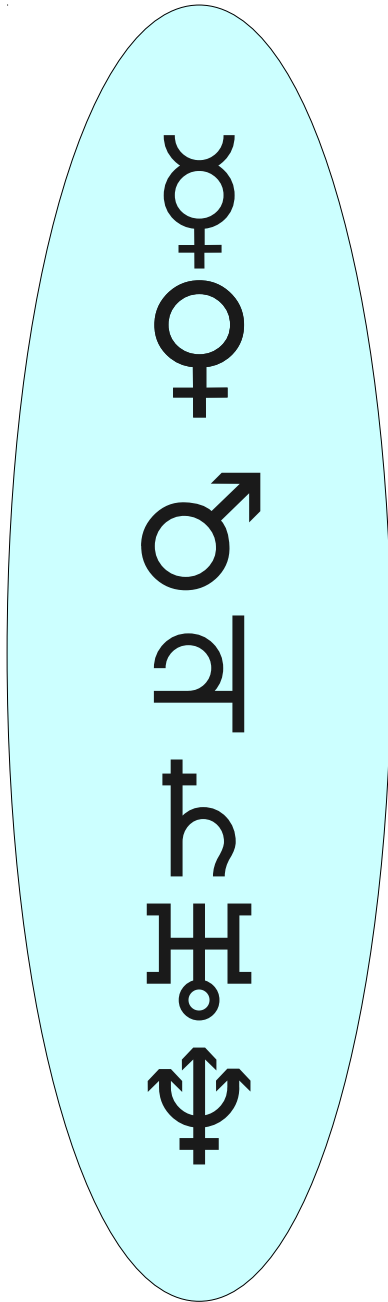
- Example:

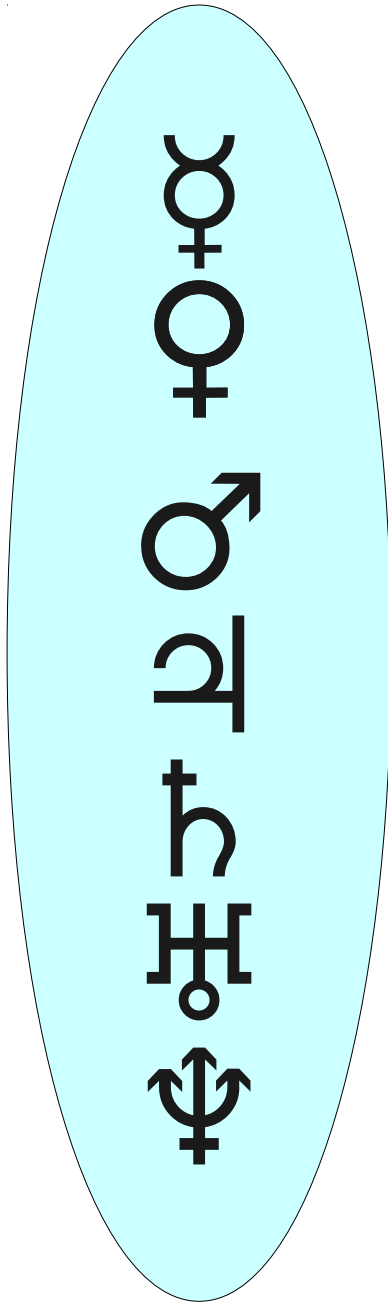
$$f(n) = \begin{cases} -n/2 & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ (n+1)/2 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

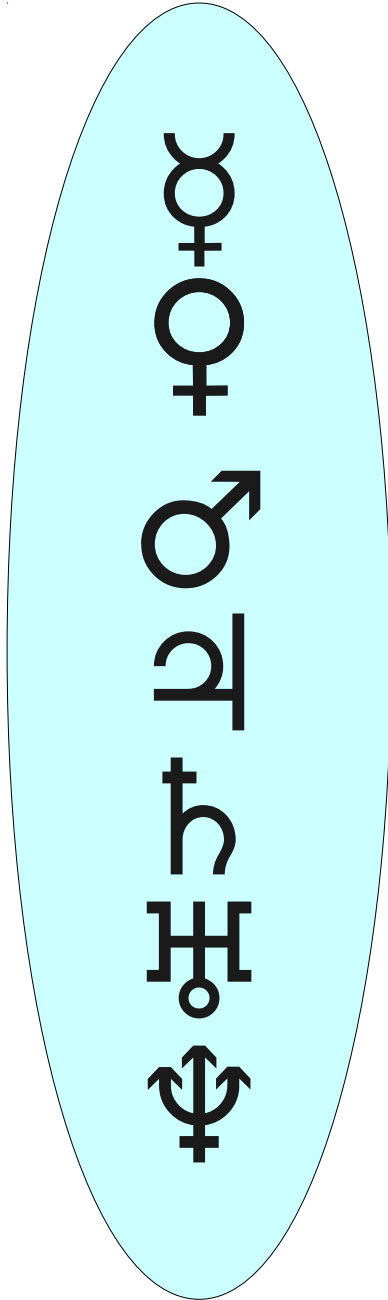
- When defining a function piecewise, it's up to you to confirm that it defines a legal function!

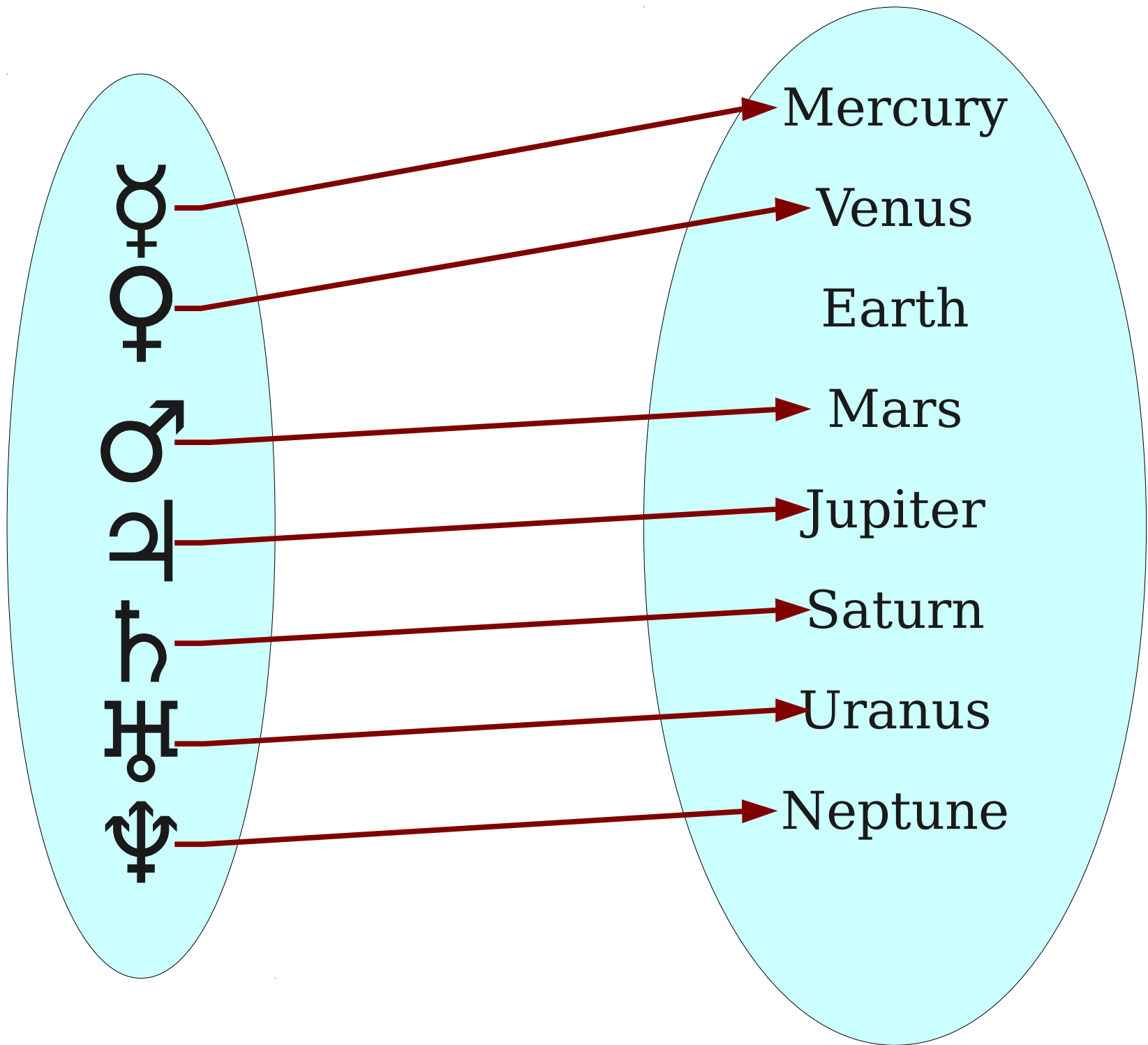
♁♂ ♀♀ ♀♂ ♀♀ ♀♂ ♀♂







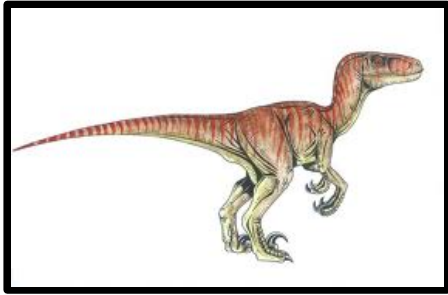


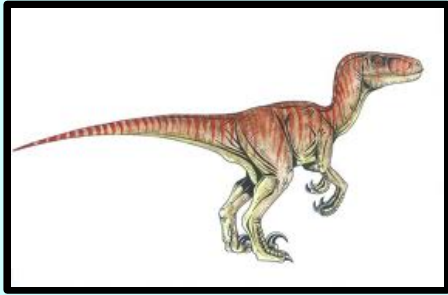


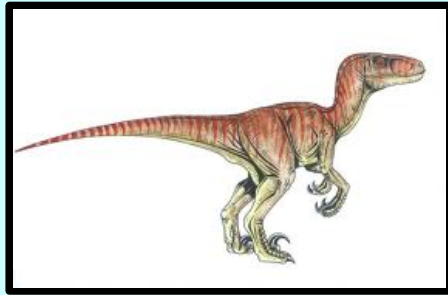
Injective Functions

- A function $f : A \rightarrow B$ is called **injective** (or **one-to-one**) if each element of the codomain has at most one element of the domain that maps to it.
 - A function with this property is called an **injection**.
- Formally, $f : A \rightarrow B$ is an injection iff

For any $x_0, x_1 \in A$:
if $f(x_0) = f(x_1)$, then $x_0 = x_1$
- An intuition: injective functions label the objects from A using names from B .



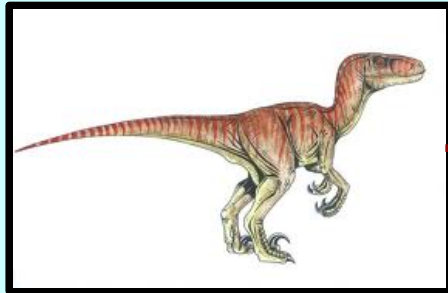




Front Door

Balcony
Window

Bedroom
Window



Front Door

Balcony Window

Bedroom Window

Surjective Functions

- A function $f : A \rightarrow B$ is called **surjective** (or **onto**) if each element of the codomain has at least one element of the domain that maps to it.
 - A function with this property is called a **surjection**.
- Formally, $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a surjection iff

For every $b \in B$, there exists at least one $a \in A$ such that $f(a) = b$.
- Intuition: surjective functions cover every element of B with at least one element of A .

Injections and Surjections

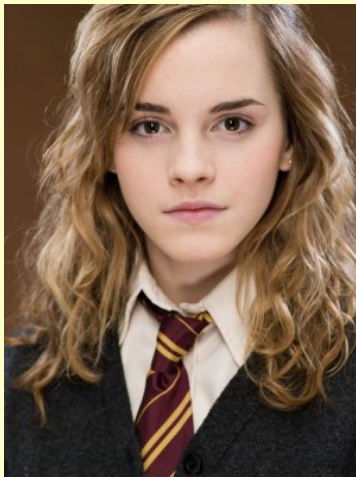
- An injective function associates ***at most*** one element of the domain with each element of the codomain.
- A surjective function associates ***at least*** one element of the domain with each element of the codomain.
- What about functions that associate ***exactly one*** element of the domain with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



**Katniss
Everdeen**



Merida



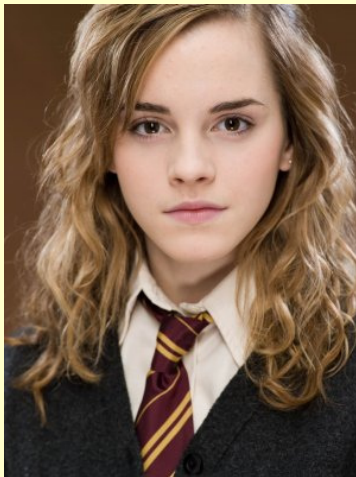
**Hermione
Granger**



**Katniss
Everdeen**



Merida



**Hermione
Granger**

Bijections

- A function that associates each element of the codomain with a unique element of the domain is called **bijjective**.
 - 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.”

Compositions

www.microsoft.com

www.apple.com

www.google.com

www.microsoft.com

www.apple.com

www.google.com

Microsoft[®]



Google[™]

www.microsoft.com



Microsoft[®]

www.apple.com



www.google.com



Google[™]

www.microsoft.com

www.apple.com

www.google.com



Microsoft[®]



Google[™]



www.microsoft.com

www.apple.com

www.google.com



Microsoft[®]



Google[™]



www.microsoft.com

www.apple.com

www.google.com

Microsoft®



Google™



www.microsoft.com

www.apple.com

www.google.com



Function Composition

- Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : B \rightarrow C$.
- The **composition of f and g** (denoted $g \circ f$) is the function $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$ defined as

$$(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x))$$

- Note that f is applied first, but f is on the right side!
- Function composition is **associative**:

$$h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f$$

Function Composition

- Suppose $f : A \rightarrow A$ and $g : A \rightarrow A$.
- Then both $g \circ f$ and $f \circ g$ are defined.
- Does $g \circ f$ always equal $f \circ g$?
- **In general, no:**
 - Let $f(x) = 2x$
 - Let $g(x) = x + 1$
 - $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) = g(2x) = 2x + 1$
 - $(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x)) = f(x + 1) = 2x + 2$

Next Time

- **Cardinality**
 - Formalizing infinite cardinalities
- **Diagonalization**
 - $|\mathbb{N}| \stackrel{?}{=} |\mathbb{R}|$
 - Formalizing Cantor's Theorem