

## Chapter 8: Functions

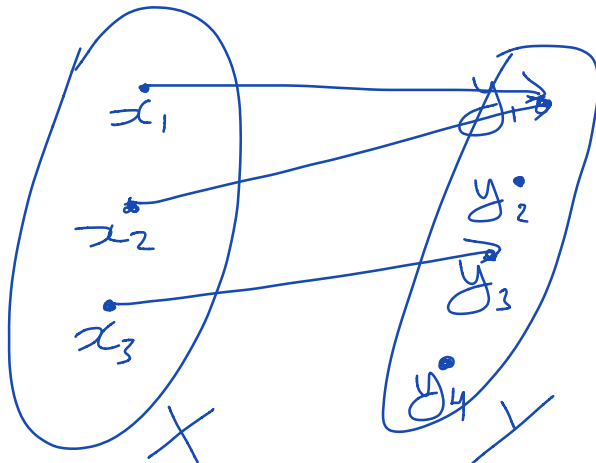
Def'n: Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be two sets. A function, map, or mapping from  $X$  to  $Y$  is the assignment of a unique element of  $Y$  to each element of  $X$ .

We write 
$$\begin{array}{l} f: X \rightarrow Y \\ x \mapsto f(x) \end{array}$$

Value of  $f$  at  $x$  / image of  $x$  under  $f$   
to mean that the element  $y = f(x) \in Y$  is assigned to  $x \in X$ .

We call  $X$  the domain of  $f$ , and we call  $Y$  its co-domain.

### Pictorial representation



Here  
 $f(x_1) = y_1$   
 $f(x_2) = y_1$   
 $f(x_3) = y_3$ .

Note: Every  $x$  in the domain  $X$  has an image  $f(x)$ .  
 On the other hand, elements in the co-domain can be the image of one, or more elements of the domain. They can also not be the image of any  $x$ .

Example: There are 8 functions from  $X = \{a, b, c\}$  to  $Y = \{d, e\}$ .

$x$	a	b	c
$f_1(x)$	d	d	d
$f_2(x)$	d	d	e
$f_3(x)$	d	e	d
$f_4(x)$	d	e	e
'	e	d	d
'	e	d	e
'	e	e	d
$f_8(x)$	e	e	e

So here,  $f_1(a) = f_1(b) = f_1(c) = d$

while  $f_4(a) = d, f_4(b) = f_4(c) = e$ .

Above, the functions had different domains and co-domains

That need not be the case.

Example: Let  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $x \mapsto 2x$

Example: Let  $A = \{a, b\}$ , and  
 $g: A \rightarrow A$ .

In fact, we can have exactly 4 functions from  $A$  to  $A$ .

Exercise: List these 4 functions.

Def'n: Given a set  $X$ , the identity function

$$I_X: X \rightarrow X$$

is given by  $I_X(x) = x \quad \forall x \in X$ .

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Important comment: The domain and co-domain of a function are needed to define it.

Functions with different domain or co-domain are different functions even if they have the same 'formula'.

Example: Let  $f_1: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $x \rightarrow x^2,$

$f_2: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $x \rightarrow x^2,$

$f_3: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$   
 $x \rightarrow x^2,$

$f_4: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$   
 $x \rightarrow x^2.$

These 4 functions are different.

Examples: Often, when we are working with functions on the real numbers, we omit specifying the domain, and co-domain.

Consider  $f_1(x) = \frac{x^2}{x-1}$ .

Here, we have to exclude  $x=1$ , from the domain (and think of  $f_1: \mathbb{R} \setminus \{1\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ) or we have to extend it, by doing something like

$$f_2(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2}{x-1}, & x \neq 1 \\ 3\pi, & x = 1. \end{cases}$$

Example (The modulus function)

$$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ x \mapsto |x|$$

is defined via  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x, & x \geq 0 \\ -x, & x < 0. \end{cases}$

Equality of Functions : The functions

$f: X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g: X \rightarrow Y$  are equal  
when  $f(x) = g(x) \forall x \in X$ .

↑ Note:  $f$  &  $g$  have the same domain  
and codomain.

Restrictions of Functions: Let  $f: X \rightarrow Y$

and let  $A \subseteq X$ . We can define  $g: A \rightarrow Y$

via  $g(x) = f(x) \forall x \in A$ . Such a function

is called the restriction of  $f$  to  $A$ , and

denoted  $f|_A$ .

## Compositions of functions:

Let  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ , we can

define a function  $h: X \rightarrow Z$  via

$$h(x) = g(f(x)) \quad \forall x \in X. \quad h \text{ is called}$$

the composition (or composite) of  $f$  and  $g$

and denoted  $g \circ f: X \rightarrow Z$ , with

$$(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) \quad \forall x \in X.$$

$$g \circ f: X \xrightarrow{f} Y \xrightarrow{g} Z$$

Examples: The function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $x \rightarrow (2x)^2$   
satisfies  $f = g \circ h$  where  $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $x \rightarrow x^2$

and  $h: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $x \rightarrow 2x.$

Proof:  $(g \circ h)(x) = g(h(x)) = g(2x) = (2x)^2 = f(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.$

Comment: Notice that  $(h \circ g)(x) = 2x^2$ ,  
so that  $h \circ g \neq g \circ h$ .

Proposition: Let  $f: X \rightarrow Y$ ,  $g: Y \rightarrow Z$  and  $h: Z \rightarrow W$   
be functions. Then

i)  $(h \circ g) \circ f = h \circ (g \circ f) : X \rightarrow Z$  (associativity)

ii)  $f \circ I_X = f = I_Y \circ f : X \rightarrow Y$ .

Proof: (i)  $(h \circ g \circ f)(x) = (h \circ g)(f(x))$   
 $= h(g(f(x))) \quad \forall x \in X.$

Similarly  $(h \circ (g \circ f))(x) = h((g \circ f)(x))$   
 $= h(g(f(x))) \quad \forall x \in X.$

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

(ii) Exercise.



## Sequences

A function  $f: \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow A$  is called a sequence (in the set  $A$ ).

Examples:

- $f: \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^+$   
 $n \mapsto n^2$

- $f: \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $n \mapsto \frac{n}{n+1}$

- The Fibonacci sequence

- $f: \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $n \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^n i$

Definition: Let  $f: \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a sequence. We say the sequence is null, written  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n) = 0$ , when

$$\forall \epsilon \in \mathbb{R}^+, \exists N \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \text{ s.t. } \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ (n \geq N \Rightarrow |f(n)| < \epsilon)$$

One way to interpret this: For any choice of

the real number  $\epsilon$ , you can find an integer  $N$   
(that can depend on  $\epsilon$ )

so that  $|f(N)| < \epsilon$ ,  $|f(N+1)| < \epsilon$ ,  $|f(N+2)| < \epsilon$  ...

Since this is true for any  $\epsilon$  (as small as we like),  
we can think of the sequence as converging to 0.

Example: Prove that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$ .

Proof: We would like to prove that

$$\forall \epsilon \in \mathbb{R}^+, \exists N \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \text{ s.t. } \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ (n \geq N \Rightarrow |\frac{1}{n}| < \epsilon).$$

To that end, consider any  $\epsilon > 0$ , and notice that

we can choose  $N$  to be a positive integer with

$N > \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ , because  $N > \frac{1}{\epsilon} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{N} < \epsilon$ . Moreover,  
 $\forall n \geq N$ ,  $\frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{1}{N} < \epsilon$ , so we are done.  $\square$

## The image of a function:

Def'n: Let  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  be a function.

The image of  $f$ , denoted  $\text{Im}(f)$  is defined

by  $\text{Im}(f) := \{ f(x) \mid x \in X \}$ .

Thus,  $\text{Im}(f) \subseteq Y$ , and consists of those elements of  $Y$  that can be reached from  $X$ .

Thus  $(y \in \text{Im}(f)) \Leftrightarrow (\exists x \in X, f(x) = y)$ .

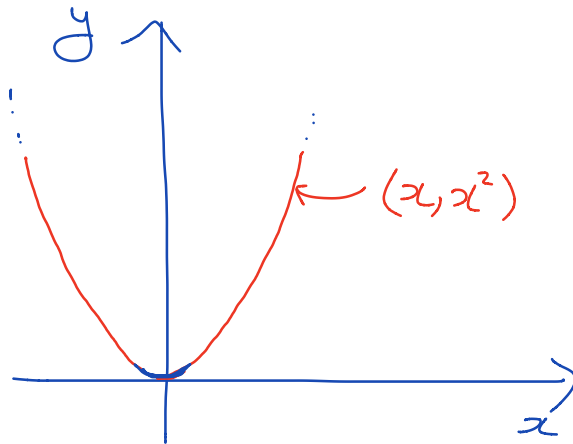
## The graph of a function:

Def'n: Let  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  be a function. The graph of  $f$ , denoted by  $G_f$  is defined by

$G_f := \{ (x, y) \in X \times Y \mid y = f(x) \}$ .

Example:  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $x \mapsto x^2$

$$G_f = \{(x, x^2) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$$



Types of functions: Injections, surjections,  
and bijections

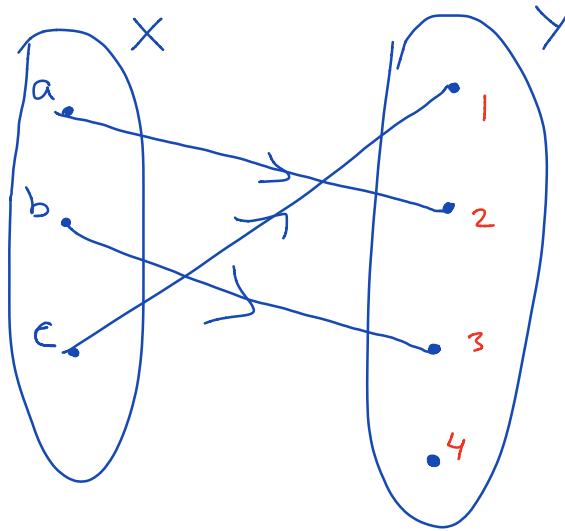
Let  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  be a function. We say that  $f$  is an **injection** (or a **one-to-one** function) if

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in X, x_1 \neq x_2 \Rightarrow f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$$

or equivalently, if

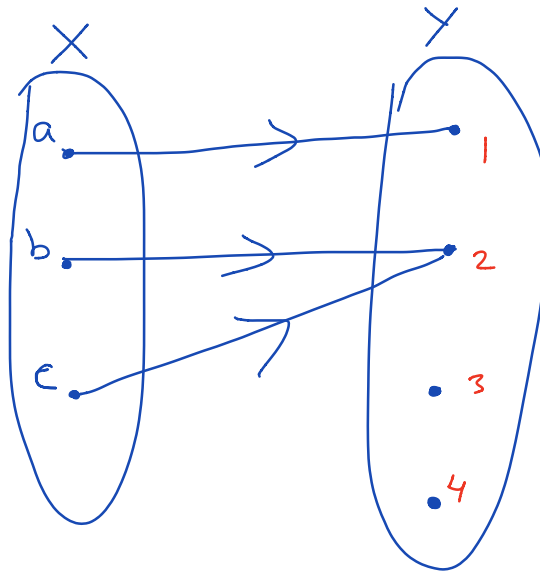
$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in X, f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2.$$

Examples :  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  given by



is an injection.

On the other hand :



is not an injection because  $f(b) = f(c)$  and  $b \neq c$ .

Let  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  be a function. We say that  $f$  is a **surjection** (or an **onto** function) if

$$\forall y \in Y, \exists x \in X \text{ s.t. } f(x) = y$$

In a sense, this says that we can 'reach' all elements of  $Y$ .

The two examples above did NOT depict surjective functions because in each case there was no  $x$ , such that  $f(x) = 4$ .

If  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is both injective and surjective, we say it is a **bijection**.

Definition: Given a function  $f: X \rightarrow Y$ , a pre-image of  $y \in Y$  is an element  $x \in X$ , such that  $f(x) = y$ .

Remark: We can always modify a function  $f_1: X \rightarrow Y$  so it is surjective by replacing the codomain  $Y$  with the image of  $f_1$ , i.e. now  $f_2: X \rightarrow \text{Im}(f_1)$ , with  $f_2(x) = f_1(x) \forall x \in X$ .

Example: Determine if the function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $x \mapsto 2x+3$   
is an injection, bijection, surjection.

Solution: First let us determine if  $f$  is injective.

Consider  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ , with  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ .  
Thus  $(2x_1+3 = 2x_2+3) \Leftrightarrow (2x_1 = 2x_2) \Leftrightarrow (x_1 = x_2)$ .  
So we showed  $(f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2)$ , so  $f$  is injective.

Second, let's determine if  $f$  is surjective.

Consider <sup>any</sup>  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ , we'd like to determine if  $\exists x \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $f(x) = y$ .

But  $2x+3 = y \in \mathbb{R} \Leftrightarrow x = \frac{y-3}{2} \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

so  $\forall y \in \mathbb{R}, \exists x \in \mathbb{R}, 2x+3=y$ . Thus  $f$  is surjective.

As  $f$  is both injective and surjective, it is a bijection.

More efficient solution

Let  $y$  be an element of the co-domain  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Then,

$x$  is a pre-image of  $y$

$$\Leftrightarrow y = f(x) = 2x + 3$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x = \frac{y-3}{2}.$$

This shows each  $y \in Y$  has <sup>exactly</sup> one pre-image in  $\mathbb{R}$

$x = \frac{y-3}{2}$ , so  $f$  is a bijection.



Exercise: Consider  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $x \mapsto x^2$ .

Determine if  $f$  is one-to-one and  
if  $f$  is onto.

Repeat this exercise with

$$(1) f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\geq} \\ x \mapsto x^2$$

$$(2) f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ x \mapsto x^3 + 1.$$

Example:  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $x \mapsto 4x^2 - 4x + 2$

Determine if  $f$  is one-to-one and if  $f$  is onto.

Solution: (1) Injectivity:

Let  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$  be such that  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ . That is

$$(4x_1^2 - 4x_1 + 2 = 4x_2^2 - 4x_2 + 2) \Leftrightarrow (x_1^2 - x_1 = x_2^2 - x_2) \\ \Leftrightarrow (x_1 - x_2)(x_1 + x_2) - (x_1 - x_2) = 0 \Leftrightarrow (x_1 - x_2)(x_1 + x_2 - 1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (x_1 = x_2) \vee (x_1 = x_2 + 1).$$

So  $f$  is not injective because  $f(1) = f(0) = 2$   
and  $1 \neq 0$ .

(2) Surjectivity:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Notice that } 4x^2 - 4x + 2 &= 4x^2 - 4x + 1 + 1 \\ &= (2x - 1)^2 + 1 \\ &\geq 1.\end{aligned}$$

Thus  $y = 0$  does not have a pre-image.  
So  $f$  is not surjective.

## Bijections and inverses

Definition: A function  $f: X \rightarrow Y$

is invertible if there is a function  $g: Y \rightarrow X$

such that

$$f(x) = y \Leftrightarrow x = g(y) \quad \forall x \in X, y \in Y.$$

$g$  is called the inverse of  $f$ .

Example: The function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , given by

$f(x) = 2x + 3$  is invertible because  
 $2x + 3 = y \Leftrightarrow x = \frac{y-3}{2} \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ . Here,  $g(y) = \frac{y-3}{2}$ .

Theorem: A function  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is invertible if and only if it is a bijection. Moreover, if  $f$  is invertible, its inverse function is unique.

Proof: (I) Proof that 'f is invertible  $\Rightarrow$  f is bijective'.

Suppose  $f$  is invertible, then there is a function  $g: Y \rightarrow X$  s.t.  $y = f(x) \Leftrightarrow x = g(y)$   
 $\forall x \in X, y \in Y$ .

(a) We will now show that  $f$  is injective. To that end, let  $x_1, x_2$  be such that  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ .

Then  $x_1 = g(f(x_1)) = g(f(x_2)) = x_2$ , so  $x_1 = x_2$  and  $f$  is injective.

(b) Now, we will show that  $f$  is surjective.

Let  $y$  be any element of  $Y$ , and set  $x = g(y)$ . Then  $f(x) = y$ . So we have shown that  $\forall y \in Y, \exists x \in X, f(x) = y$ , i.e. surjectivity.

By (a) and (b),  $f$  is bijective.

(II) Proof that  $f$  is bijective  $\Rightarrow f$  is invertible

Suppose  $f$  is bijective and let  $y \in Y$  be any element of  $Y$ . By bijectivity of  $f$ , there exists one unique element  $x \in X$  such that

$f(x) = y$ . Now, we simply define a function  $g: Y \rightarrow X$  via  $(g(y) = x$  where  $x = f^{-1}(y)$ ). Note that since  $x$  is unique,  $g$  is a function.

So now, by construction, we have

$$y = f(x) \Leftrightarrow g(y) = x,$$

so  $f$  is invertible and  $g$  is its inverse.

(III) Proof that  $f$  is invertible  $\Rightarrow$  its inverse is unique

Suppose there are two functions  $g_1, g_2: Y \rightarrow X$  that are both inverses of  $f: X \rightarrow Y$ .

For  $g_1$  to be different from  $g_2$  there

must be at least one element  $y \in Y$   
s.t.  $g_1(y) \neq g_2(y)$ .

Let  $x_1 = g_1(y)$  and  $x_2 = g_2(y)$ ,

then  $x_1 = g_1(y) \Leftrightarrow f(x_1) = y$   
and  $x_2 = g_2(y) \Leftrightarrow f(x_2) = y$

so that  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ . But  $f$  is a  
bijection, hence one-to-one, so  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$   
 $\Rightarrow x_1 = x_2 \Rightarrow g_1(y) = g_2(y)$  showing that  
 $g_1 = g_2$ .



Proposition:  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g: Y \rightarrow X$   
are inverses of each other  
if and only if

$$g \circ f = I_X \text{ and } f \circ g = I_Y.$$


Proof: If  $f$  and  $g$  are inverses of  
each other, then

$$y = f(x) \Leftrightarrow x = g(y) \quad \begin{array}{l} \forall x \in X \\ \forall y \in Y \end{array}$$

for any  $x \in X$ , <sup>let</sup>  $y = f(x)$ , <sup>then</sup>  $g(y) = g(f(x)) = x$   
 i.e.  $g \circ f = I_x$

Similarly, for any  $y \in Y$ , let  $x = g(y)$  so

$$f(x) = f(g(y)) = y$$

so  $f \circ g = I_y$ . 

### Functions on sets:

Let  $f: X \rightarrow Y$ , we may define a new function

$$\vec{f}: \mathcal{P}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Y)$$

$$\vec{f}(A) = \{ f(x) \mid x \in A \}.$$

We can also define a function  $\overleftarrow{f}$

$$\overleftarrow{f}: \mathcal{P}(Y) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(X)$$

$$\overleftarrow{f}(B) = \{ x \in X \mid f(x) \in B \}$$

Most mathematicians and textbooks, without risk of confusion drop the arrow on  $\vec{F}$  and use  $F$  instead.

They also use  $\bar{F}$  in place of  $\overleftarrow{F}$ .