# 基礎數學 MA-1015A

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### **Chapter 4. Functions**

- §4.1 Functions as Relations
- §4.2 Construction of Functions
- §4.3 Functions that are Onto; One-to-One Functions
- §4.4 Inverse Functions
- §4.5 Set Images

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Recall the usual definition of functions from A to B:

#### Definition

Let *A* and *B* be sets. A *function*  $f: A \to B$  consists of two sets *A* and *B* together with a "rule" that assigns to each  $x \in A$  a special element of *B* denoted by f(x). One writes  $x \mapsto f(x)$  to denote that *x* is mapped to the element f(x). *A* is called the *domain* of *f*, and *B* is called the *target* or *co-domain* of *f*. The *range* of *f* or the *image* of *f*, is the subset of *B* defined by  $f(A) = \{f(x) \mid x \in A\}$ .

Each function is associated with a collection of ordered pairs

$$\{(x, f(x)) \mid x \in A\} \subseteq A \times B.$$

Since a collection of ordered pairs is a relation, we can say that a function is a relation from one set to another.

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However, not every relation can serve as a function. A function is a relation with additional special properties and we have the following

Definition (Alternative Definition of Functions)

A **function** (or **mapping**) from A to B is a relation f from A to B such that

• the domain of f is A; that is,  $(\forall x \in A)(\exists y \in B)((x, y) \in f)$ , and

2 if  $(x, y) \in f$  and  $(x, z) \in f$ , then y = z.

We write  $f: A \rightarrow B$ , and this is read "f is a function from A to B" or "f maps A to B". The set B is called the **co-domain** of f. In the case where B = A, we say f is a function on A.

When  $(x, y) \in f$ , we write y = f(x) instead of *xfy*. We say that *y* is the *image* of *f* at *x* (or value of *f* at *x*) and that *x* is a *pre-image* of *y*.

#### Remark:

- A function has only one domain and one range but many possible co-domains.
- ② A function on ℝ is usually called a real-valued function or simply real function. The domain of a real function is usually understood to be the largest possible subset of ℝ on which the function takes values.

#### Definition

A function x with domain  $\mathbb{N}$  is called an *infinite sequence*, or simply a *sequence*. The image of the natural number n is usually written as  $x_n$  instead of x(n) and is called the *n*-th term of the sequence.

### Definition

- Let A, B be sets, and  $A \subseteq B$ .
  - The the *identity function/map* on A is the function  $I_A : A \rightarrow A$  given by  $I_A(x) = x$  for all  $x \in A$ .
  - **2** The *inclusion function/map* from A to B is the function  $\iota$ :  $A \rightarrow B$  given by  $\iota(x) = x$  for all  $x \in A$ .
  - The *characteristic/indicator function* of A (defined on B) is the map 1<sub>A</sub> : B → ℝ given by

$$\mathbf{1}_{\mathcal{A}}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in \mathcal{A} \,, \\ 0 & \text{if } x \in \mathcal{B} \backslash \mathcal{A} \,. \end{cases}$$

### Definition (Cont'd)

- The greatest integer function on ℝ is the function [·] : ℝ → ℤ given by
  - [x] = the largest integer which is not greater than x.

The function  $[\cdot]$  is also called the *floor function* or the *Gauss function*.

Let R be an equivalence relation on A. The canonical map for the equivalence relation R is the map from A to A/R which maps x ∈ A to x̄, the equivalence class of x modulo R.

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### Theorem

Two functions f and g are equal if and only if

$$Dom(f) = Dom(g), and$$

2 for all 
$$x \in \text{Dom}(f)$$
,  $f(x) = g(x)$ .

### Example

The identity map of A and the inclusion map from A to B are identical functions.

#### Example

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{x}}$$
 and  $g(\mathbf{x}) = 1$  are different functions since they have different domains.

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#### Remark:

When a rule of correspondence assigns more than one values to an object in the domain, we say "the function is not well-defined", meaning that it is not really a function. A proof that a function is well-defined is nothing more than a proof that the relation defined by a given rule is single valued.

#### Example

Let  $\bar{x}$  denote the equivalence class of x modulo the congruence relation modulo 4 and  $\tilde{y}$  denote the equivalence class of y modulo the congruence relation modulo 10. Define  $f(\bar{x}) = 2 \cdot \bar{x}$ . Then this "function" is not really a function since  $\bar{0} = \bar{4}$  but  $2 \cdot \bar{0} = 0$  while  $2 \cdot \bar{4} = 8 \neq 0$ . In other words, the way f assigns value to  $\bar{x}$  is not well-defined.

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#### Example

Let  $\bar{x}$  denote the equivalence class of x modulo the congruence relation modulo 8 and  $\tilde{y}$  denote the equivalence class of y modulo the congruence relation modulo 4. The function  $f: \mathbb{Z}_8 \to \mathbb{Z}_4$  given by  $f(\bar{x}) = \tilde{x+2}$  is well-defined. To see this, suppose that  $\bar{x} = \bar{z}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_8$ . Then 8 divides x-z which implies that 4 divides x-z; thus 4 divides (x+2) - (z+2). Therefore,  $x+2 = z+2 \pmod{4}$  or equivalently,  $\tilde{x+2} = \tilde{z+2}$ . So f is well-defined.

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### Definition

Let  $f: A \rightarrow B$ . The *inverse* of f is the relation from B to A:

$$f^{-1} = \{(y, x) \in B \times A \mid y = f(x)\} = \{(y, x) \in B \times A \mid (x, y) \in f\}.$$

When  $f^{-1}$  describes a function,  $f^{-1}$  is called the *inverse function/map* of *f*.

#### Definition

Let  $f : A \to B$  and  $g : B \to C$  be functions. The *composite* of f and g is the relation from A to C:

$$g \circ f = \{(x, z) \in A \times C \mid \text{there exists (a unique) } y \in B \text{ such that} \\ (x, y) \in f \text{ and } (y, z) \in g \}.$$

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**Remark**: Using the notation in the definition of functions, if  $(x, z) \in g \circ f$ , then  $z = (g \circ f)(x)$ . On the other hand, if  $(x, z) \in g \circ f$ , there exists (a unique)  $y \in B$  such that  $(x, y) \in f$  and  $(y, z) \in g$ . Then y = f(x) and z = g(y). Therefore, we also have z = g(f(x)); thus  $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x))$ .

#### Theorem

Let A, B and C be sets, and  $f: A \rightarrow B$  and  $g: B \rightarrow C$  be functions. Then  $g \circ f$  is a function from A to C.

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### Proof of $g \circ f$ is a function from A to C.

By the definition of composition of relations,  $g \circ f$  is a relation from A to C.

- First, we show that Dom(g ∘ f) = A. Clearly Dom(g ∘ f) ⊆ A, so it suffices to show that A ⊆ Dom(g ∘ f). Let x ∈ A. Since f: A → B is a function, there exists y ∈ B such that (x, y) ∈ f. Since g : B → C is a function, there exists z ∈ C such that (y, z) ∈ g. This shows that for every x ∈ A, there exists z ∈ C such that (x, z) ∈ g ∘ f; thus Dom(g ∘ f) = A.
- Next, we show that if (x, z<sub>1</sub>) ∈ g ∘ f and (x, z<sub>2</sub>) ∈ g ∘ f, then z<sub>1</sub> = z<sub>2</sub>. Suppose that (x, z<sub>1</sub>) ∈ g ∘ f and (x, z<sub>2</sub>) ∈ g ∘ f. Then there exists y<sub>1</sub>, y<sub>2</sub> ∈ B such that (x, y<sub>1</sub>) ∈ f and (y<sub>1</sub>, z<sub>1</sub>) ∈ g, while (x, y<sub>2</sub>) ∈ f and (y<sub>2</sub>, z<sub>2</sub>) ∈ g. Since f is a function, y<sub>1</sub> = y<sub>2</sub>; thus that g is a function implies that z<sub>1</sub> = z<sub>2</sub>.

Recall that if A, B, C, D are sets, R be a relation from A to B, S be a relation from B to C, and T be a relation from C to D. Then

$$T \circ (S \circ R) = (T \circ S) \circ R.$$

$$I_B \circ R = R \text{ and } R \circ I_A = R.$$

#### Theorem

Let A, B, C, D be sets, and  $f : A \rightarrow B$ ,  $g : B \rightarrow C$ ,  $h : C \rightarrow D$  be functions. Then  $h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f$ .

#### Theorem

Let  $f: A \to B$  be a function. Then  $f \circ I_A = f$  and  $I_B \circ f = f$ .

#### Theorem

Let  $f : A \to B$  be a function, and  $C = \operatorname{Rng}(f)$ . If  $f^{-1} : C \to A$  is a function, then  $f^{-1} \circ f = I_A$  and  $f \circ f^{-1} = I_C$ .

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### Definition

Let  $f: A \to B$  be a function, and  $D \subseteq A$ . The *restriction* of f to D, denoted by  $f|_D$ , is the function

$$f|_D = \{(x, y) | y = f(x) \text{ and } x \in D\}.$$

If g and h are functions and g is a restriction of h, the h is called an *extension* of g.

### Example

Let F and G be functions

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{F} &= \left\{ (1,2), (2,6), (3,-9), (5,7) \right\}, \\ \mathbf{G} &= \left\{ (1,8), (2,6), (4,8), (5,7), (8,3) \right\} \end{split}$$

Then  $F \cap G = \{(2, 6), (5, 7)\}$  is a function with domain  $\{2, 5\}$  which is a proper subset of  $Dom(F) \cap Dom(G) = \{1, 2, 5\}$ . On the other hand,  $\{(1, 2), (1, 8)\} \subseteq F \cup G$ ; thus  $F \cup G$  cannot be a function.

#### Theorem

Suppose that f and g are functions. Then  $f \cap g$  is a function with domain  $A = \{x \mid f(x) = g(x)\}$ , and  $f \cap g = f|_A = g|_A$ .

#### Proof.

Let 
$$(x, y) \in f \cap g$$
. Then  $y = f(x) = g(x)$ ; thus

$$\mathsf{Dom}(f \cap g) = \big\{ x \, \big| \, f(x) = g(x) \big\} (\equiv A) \, .$$

If  $(x, y_1), (x, y_2) \in f \cap g$ ,  $(x, y_1), (x, y_2) \in f$  which, by the fact that f is a function, implies that  $y_1 = y_2$ . Therefore,  $f \cap g$  is a function. Moreover,

$$f \cap g = \left\{ (x, y) \, \middle| \, \exists x \in A, y = f(x) \right\}$$

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which implies that  $f \cap g = f|_A$ .

For  $f \cup g$  being a function, it is (sufficient and) necessary that if  $x \in \text{Dom}(f) \cap \text{Dom}(g)$ , then f(x) = g(x). Moreover, if  $f \cup g$  is a function, then  $f = (f \cup g)|_{\text{Dom}(f)}$  and  $g = (f \cup g)|_{\text{Dom}(g)}$ . In particular, we have the following

#### Theorem

Let f and g be functions with Dom(f) = A and Dom(g) = B. If  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , then  $f \cup g$  is a function with domain  $A \cup B$ . Moreover,  $(f_{i} + e^{i})(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \quad \text{if } x \in A$ ,

$$f \cup g(x) = \begin{cases} g(x) & \text{if } x \in B. \end{cases}$$

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#### Theorem

Let f and g be functions with Dom(f) = A and Dom(g) = B. If  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , then  $f \cup g$  is a function with domain  $A \cup B$ . Moreover,

$$(f \cup g)(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } x \in A, \\ g(x) & \text{if } x \in B. \end{cases}$$

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### Proof.

Clearly  $Dom(f \cup g) = A \cup B$ . Suppose that  $(x, y_1), (x, y_2) \in f \cup g$ . If  $(x, y_1) \in f$ , then  $x \in Dom(f)$ ; thus by the fact that  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , we must have  $(x, y_2) \in f$ . Since f is a function,  $y_1 = f(x) = y_2$ . Similarly, if  $(x, y_1) \in g$ , then  $(x, y_2) \in g$  which also implies that  $y_1 = g(x) = y_2$ . Therefore,  $f \cup g$  is a function and  $(\star)$  is valid.  $\Box$ 

### Definition Let f be a real-valued function defined on an interval $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . increasing **①** The function f is said to be on *I* if $x \leq y$ implies decreasing that $\begin{array}{c} f(x) \leq f(y) \\ f(x) \geq f(y) \end{array}$ for all $x, y \in I$ . strictly increasing on *I* if x < yO The function f is said to be strictly decreasing implies that $\frac{f(x) < f(y)}{f(x) > f(y)}$ for all $x, y \in I$ .

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### Definition

- Let  $f: A \to B$  be a function.
  - The function f is said to be *surjective* or *onto* B if Rng(f) = B. When f is surjective, f is called a surjection, and we write f: A → B.
  - 2 The function f is said to be *injective* or *one-to-one* if it holds that "f(x) = f(y) ⇒ x = y". When f is injective, f is called a injection, and we write f: A <sup>1-1</sup>/<sub>→</sub> B.
  - O The function *f* is called a *bijection* if it is both injective and surjective. When *f* is a bijection, we write *f*: A → B.

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### Remark:

- It is always true that Rng(f) ⊆ B; thus f: A → B is onto if and only if B ⊆ Rng(f). In other words, f: A → B is onto if and only if every b ∈ B has a pre-image. Therefore, to prove that f: A → B is onto B, it is sufficient to show that for every b ∈ B there exists a ∈ A such that f(a) = b.
- O The direct proof of that f: A → B is injective is to verify the property that "f(x) = f(y) ⇒ x = y". A proof of the injectivity of f by contraposition assumes that x ≠ y and one needs to show that f(x) ≠ f(y).

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#### Theorem

- If f: A → B is onto B and g: B → C is onto C, then g ∘ f is onto C.
- If f: A → B is one-to-one and g: B → C is one-to-one, then g ∘ f is one-to-one.

### Proof.

• Let  $c \in C$ . By the surjectivity of g, there exists  $b \in B$  such that g(b) = c. The surjectivity of f then implies the existence of  $a \in A$  such that f(a) = b. Therefore,  $(g \circ f)(a) = g(f(a)) = g(b) = c$  which concludes ①.

Assume that (g ∘ f)(x) = (g ∘ f)(y). Then g(f(x)) = g(f(y)); thus by the injectivity of g, f(x) = f(y). Therefore, the injectivity of f implies that x = y which concludes ②.

#### Theorem

If  $f : A \to B$ ,  $g : B \to C$  are bijections, then  $g \circ f : A \to C$  is a bijection.

#### Theorem

- Let  $f: A \rightarrow B$  and  $g: B \rightarrow C$  be functions.
  - If  $g \circ f$  is onto C, then g is onto C.
  - 2 If  $g \circ f$  is one-to-one, then f is one-to-one.

#### Proof.

- Let  $c \in C$ . Since  $g \circ f$  is onto C, there exists  $a \in A$  such that  $(g \circ f)(a) = c$ . Let b = f(a). Then  $g(b) = g(f(a)) = (g \circ f)(a) = c$ .
- Suppose that f(x) = f(y). Then  $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) = g(f(y)) = (g \circ f)(y)$ , and the injectivity of  $g \circ f$  implies that x = y.

### Remark:

- In part ① of the theorem above, we cannot conclude that f is also onto B since there might be a proper subset  $\tilde{B} \subsetneq B$  such that  $f: A \to \tilde{B}$ ,  $g: \tilde{B} \to C$  and  $g \circ f$  is onto C. For example, Let  $A = B = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $C = \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{0\}$ , and  $f(x) = g(x) = x^2$ . Then clearly f is not onto B but  $g \circ f$  is onto C.
- In part ② of the theorem above, we cannot conclue that g is one-to-one since it might happen that g is one-to-one on Rng(f) ⊊ B but g is not one-to-one on B. For example, let A = C = ℝ<sup>+</sup> ∪ {0}, B = ℝ, and f(x) = x<sup>2</sup>, g(x) = log(1 + |x|). Then clearly g is not one-to-one, but g ∘ f is one-to-one.

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#### Theorem

If  $f: A \rightarrow B$  is one-to-one, then every restriction of f is one-to-one.

In the following we consider the function  $f \cup g$ . Recall that if  $Dom(f) \cap Dom(g) = \emptyset$ , then  $(f \cup g)(x) \stackrel{(\star)}{=} \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } x \in Dom(f) \\ g(x) & \text{if } x \in Dom(g) . \end{cases}$ 

#### Theorem

Let  $f : A \to C$  and  $g : B \to D$  be functions. Suppose that A and B are disjoint sets.

- If f is onto C and g is onto D, then  $f \cup g : A \cup B \rightarrow C \cup D$  is onto  $C \cup D$ .
- ② If f is one-to-one, g is one-to-one, and C and D are disjoint, then  $f \cup g : A \cup B \rightarrow C \cup D$  is one-to-one.

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### Proof.

We note that  $f \cup g : A \cup B \rightarrow C \cup D$  is a function.

- Let  $y \in C \cup D$ . Then  $y \in C$  or  $y \in D$ . W.L.O.G., we can assume that  $y \in C$ . Since  $f : A \to C$  is onto C, there exists  $x \in A$  such that  $(x, y) \in f$ . Using  $(\star)$ ,  $(f \cup g)(x) = f(x) = y$ . Therefore,  $f \cup g$  is onto  $C \cup D$ .
- Suppose that (x<sub>1</sub>, y), (x<sub>2</sub>, y) ∈ f ∪ g ⊆ (A × C) ∪ (B × D). Then (x<sub>1</sub>, y) ∈ f or (x<sub>1</sub>, y) ∈ g. W.L.O.G., we can assume that (x<sub>1</sub>, y) ∈ f. Since f ⊆ A × C and g ⊆ B × D, by the fact that C ∩ D = Ø we must have (x<sub>2</sub>, y) ∈ f for otherwise y ∈ C ∩ D, a contradiction. Now, since (x<sub>1</sub>, y), (x<sub>2</sub>, y) ∈ f, the injectivity of f then implies that x<sub>1</sub> = x<sub>2</sub>.

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Recall that the inverse of a relation  $f: A \rightarrow B$  is the relation  $f^{-1}$  satisfying

$$yf^{-1}x \iff xfy \iff (x,y) \in f \iff y = f(x)$$
.

This relation is a function, called the inverse function of f, if the relation itself is a function with certain domain.

### Definition

A function  $f: A \rightarrow B$  is said to be a **one-to-one correspondence** if f is a bijection.

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#### Theorem

- Let  $f: A \rightarrow B$  be a function.
  - $f^{-1}$  is a function from  $\operatorname{Rng}(f)$  to A if and only if f is one-to-one.
  - 2 If  $f^{-1}$  is a function, then  $f^{-1}$  is one-to-one.

#### Proof.

"⇒" If (x<sub>1</sub>, y), (x<sub>2</sub>, y) ∈ f, then (y, x<sub>1</sub>), (y, x<sub>2</sub>) ∈ f<sup>-1</sup>. Since f<sup>-1</sup> is a function, we must have x<sub>1</sub> = x<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, f is one-to-one. "⇐" If (y, x<sub>1</sub>), (y, x<sub>2</sub>) ∈ f<sup>-1</sup>, then (x<sub>1</sub>, y), (x<sub>2</sub>, y) ∈ f, and the injectivity of f implies that x<sub>1</sub> = x<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, by the fact that Rng(f) = Dom(f<sup>-1</sup>), f<sup>-1</sup> is a function with domain Rng(f).
Suppose that f<sup>-1</sup> is a function, and (y<sub>1</sub>, x), (y<sub>2</sub>, x) ∈ f<sup>-1</sup>. Then (x, y<sub>1</sub>), (x, y<sub>2</sub>) ∈ f which, by the fact that f is a function, implies

that  $y_1 = y_2$ . Therefore,  $f^{-1}$  is one-to-one.

Corollary

The inverse of a one-to-one correspondence is a one-to-one correspondence.

#### Theorem

Let  $f: A \rightarrow B$ ,  $g: B \rightarrow A$  be functions. Then

- $g = f^{-1}$  if and only if  $g \circ f = I_A$  and  $f \circ g = I_B$  (if and only if  $f = g^{-1}$ ).
- 2 If f is surjective, and  $g \circ f = I_A$ , then  $g = f^{-1}$ .
- **()** If f is injective, and  $f \circ g = I_B$ , then  $g = f^{-1}$ .

Recall that "If  $C = \operatorname{Rng}(f)$  and  $f^{-1} : C \to A$  is a function, then  $f^{-1} \circ f = I_A$  and  $f \circ f^{-1} = I_C$ ". Therefore, the  $\Rightarrow$  direction in (1) has already been proved.

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### Proof.

We first prove the following two claims:

(a) If  $g \circ f = I_A$ , then  $f^{-1} \subseteq g$ . (b) If  $f \circ g = I_B$ , then  $g \subseteq f^{-1}$ . To see (a), let  $(y, x) \in f^{-1}$  be given. Then  $(x, y) \in f$  or y = f(x). Since  $(g \circ f) = I_A$ , we must have

$$g(y) = g(f(x)) = (g \circ f)(x) = I_{\mathcal{A}}(x) = x$$

or equivalently,  $(y, x) \in g$ . Therefore,  $f^{-1} \subseteq g$ .

To see (b), let  $(y, x) \in g$  be given. Then x = g(y); thus the fact that  $(f \circ g) = I_B$  implies that

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

or equivalently,  $(x, y) \in f$ . Therefore,  $(y, x) \in f^{-1}$ ; thus  $g \subseteq f^{-1}$ .

"⇐" This direction is a direct consequence of the claims.

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### Proof. (Cont'd).

Suppose that f: A → B is surjective and g ∘ f = I<sub>A</sub>. Then claim
(a) implies that f<sup>-1</sup> ⊆ g; thus it suffices to show that g ⊆ f<sup>-1</sup>. Let (y, x) ∈ g. Then by the surjectivity of f there exists x<sub>1</sub> ∈ A such that y = f(x<sub>1</sub>) or equivalently, (y, x<sub>1</sub>) ∈ f<sup>-1</sup>. On the other hand,

$$x = g(y) = g(f(x_1)) = (g \circ f)(x_1) = I_A(x_1) = x_1$$
.

Therefore,  $g \subseteq f^{-1}$ .

Now suppose that f: A → B is injective and f ∘ g = I<sub>B</sub>. Then claim (b) implies that g ⊆ f<sup>-1</sup>; thus it suffices to show that f<sup>-1</sup> ⊆ g. Let (y, x) ∈ f<sup>-1</sup> or equivalently, (x, y) ∈ f or y = f(x). By the fact that f ∘ g = I<sub>B</sub>, we have f(g(y)) = y; thus the injectivity of f implies that g(y) = x or (y, x) ∈ g. Therefore, f<sup>-1</sup> ⊆ g which completes the proof.

Since we have shown in the previous theorem that for functions  $f: A \rightarrow B$  and  $g: B \rightarrow A$ ,

$$g = f^{-1} \text{ if and only if } g \circ f = I_A \text{ and } f \circ g = I_B,$$

2 If f is surjective, and  $g \circ f = I_A$ , then  $g = f^{-1}$ ,

**③** If f is injective, and  $f \circ g = I_B$ , then  $g = f^{-1}$ ,

we can conclude the following

#### Corollary

If  $f: A \to B$  is an one-to-one correspondence, and  $g: B \to A$  be a function. Then  $g = f^{-1}$  if and only if  $g \circ f = I_A$  or  $f \circ g = I_B$ .

#### Example

Let  $A = \mathbb{R}$  and  $B = \{x | x \ge 0\}$ . Define  $f : A \to B$  by  $f(x) = x^2$ and  $g : B \to A$  by  $g(y) = \sqrt{y}$ . Then  $f \circ g = I_B$  but g is not inverse function of f since  $(g \circ f)(x) = |x|$  for all  $x \in A$ .

### Definition

Let A be a non-empty set. A **permutation** of A is a one-to-one correspondence from A onto A.

#### Theorem

Let A be a non-empty set. Then

- the identity map  $I_A$  is a permutation of A.
- 2 the composite of permutations of A is a permutation of A.
- **(3)** the inverse of a permutation of A is a permutation of A.
- if f is a permutation of A, then  $f \circ I_A = I_A \circ f = f$ .
- **(**) if f is a permutation of A, then  $f \circ f^{-1} = f^{-1} \circ f = I_A$ .
- if f and g are permutations of A, then  $(g \circ f)^{-1} = f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}$ .

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### Definition

Let  $f: A \to B$  be a function, and  $X \subseteq A$ ,  $Y \subseteq B$ . The *image* of X (under f) or *image set* of X, denoted by f(X), is the set

$$f(X) = \{ y \in B \mid y = f(x) \text{ for some } x \in X \} = \{ f(x) \mid x \in X \},\$$

and the **pre-image** of Y (under f) or the **inverse image** of Y, denoted by  $f^{-1}(Y)$ , is the set

$$f^{-1}(Y) = \{x \in A \mid f(x) \in Y\}.$$

**Remark**: Here are some facts about images of sets that follow from the definitions:

#### Theorem

Let  $f : A \rightarrow B$  be a function. Suppose that C, D are subsets of A, and E, F are subsets of B. Then

•  $f(C \cap D) \subseteq f(C) \cap f(D)$ . In particular, if  $C \subseteq D$ , then  $f(C) \subseteq f(D)$ .

$$f(C \cup D) = f(C) \cup f(D).$$

**③**  $f^{-1}(E \cap F) = f^{-1}(E) \cap f^{-1}(F)$ . In particular, if  $E \subseteq F$ , then  $f^{-1}(E) \subseteq f^{-1}(F)$ .

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$$f^{-1}(E \cup F) = f^{-1}(E) \cup f^{-1}(F).$$

$$C \subseteq f^{-1}(f(C)).$$

$$\bullet f(f^{-1}(E)) \subseteq E.$$

### Proof of $f(C \cap D) \subseteq f(C) \cap f(D)$ .

Let  $y \in f(C \cap D)$ . Then there exists  $x \in C \cap D$  such that y = f(x). Therefore,  $y \in f(C)$  and  $y \in f(D)$ ; thus  $y \in f(C) \cap f(D)$ .

**Remark**: It is possible that  $f(C \cap D) \subsetneq f(C) \cap f(D)$ . For example,  $f(x) = x^2$ ,  $C = (-\infty, 0)$  and  $D = (0, \infty)$ . Then  $C \cap D = \emptyset$  which implies that  $f(C \cap D) = \emptyset$ ; however,  $f(C) = f(D) = (0, \infty)$ .

### Proof of $f(C \cup D) = f(C) \cup f(D)$ .

Let  $y \in B$  be given. Then  $y \in f(C \cup D) \Leftrightarrow (\exists x \in C \cup D) (y = f(x))$   $\Leftrightarrow (\exists x \in C) (y = f(x)) \lor (\exists x \in D) (y = f(x))$   $\Leftrightarrow (y \in f(C)) \lor (y \in f(D))$  $\Leftrightarrow y \in f(C) \cup f(D).$ 

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### Proof of $f^{-1}(E \cap F) = f^{-1}(E) \cap f^{-1}(F)$ .

Let  $x \in A$  be given. Then

$$\begin{aligned} x \in f^{-1}(E \cap F) \Leftrightarrow f(x) \in E \cap F \\ \Leftrightarrow (f(x) \in E) \land (f(x) \in F) \\ \Leftrightarrow (x \in f^{-1}(E)) \land (x \in f^{-1}(F)) \\ \Leftrightarrow x \in f^{-1}(E) \cap f^{-1}(F). \end{aligned}$$

### Proof of $f^{-1}(E \cup F) = f^{-1}(E) \cup f^{-1}(F)$ .

Let  $x \in A$  be given. Then  $x \in f^{-1}(E \cup F) \Leftrightarrow f(x) \in E \cup F$   $\Leftrightarrow (f(x) \in E) \lor (f(x) \in F)$   $\Leftrightarrow (x \in f^{-1}(E)) \lor (x \in f^{-1}(F))$  $\Leftrightarrow x \in f^{-1}(E) \cup f^{-1}(F).$ 

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### Proof of $C \subseteq f^{-1}(f(C))$ .

Let  $x \in C$ . Then  $f(x) \in f(C)$ ; thus  $x \in f^{-1}(f(C))$ . Therefore,  $C \subseteq f^{-1}(f(C))$ .

**Remark**: It is possible that  $C \subsetneq f^{-1}(f(C))$ . For example, if  $f(x) = x^2$  and C = [0, 1], then  $f^{-1}(f(C)) = f^{-1}([0, 1]) = [-1, 1] \supsetneq [0, 1]$ .

### Proof of $f(f^{-1}(E)) \subseteq E$ .

Suppose that  $y \in f(f^{-1}(E))$ . Then there exists  $x \in f^{-1}(E)$  such that f(x) = y. Since  $x \in f^{-1}(E)$ , there exists  $z \in E$  such that f(x) = z. Then y = z which implies that  $y \in E$ . Therefore,  $f(f^{-1}(E)) \subseteq E$ .  $\Box$ 

**Remark**: It is possible that  $f(f^{-1}(E)) \subsetneq E$ . For example, if  $f(x) = x^2$  and E = [-1, 1], then  $f(f^{-1}(E)) = f([0, 1]) = [0, 1] \subsetneq [-1, 1]$ .