## **3** Sequences

An ordered *n*-tuple  $(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n)$  is also called a *sequence* of length *n*. Sometimes this is written as  $(a_i)_{i=1}^n$ . When  $(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n)$  is a sequence of numbers, we use the following notation for the *sum* or *product* of terms in the sequence.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n$$

and

$$\prod_{i=1}^{n} a_i = a_1 \times a_2 \times \dots \times a_n.$$

The i here is called a *dummy variable*. Note that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k$$

so the letter which we choose to represent the dummy variable does not affect the sum (or product).

**Proposition 3.1.** Let  $(a_1, a_2, ...)$  and  $(b_1, b_2, ...)$  be sequences of real numbers.

(a) If 
$$c, d \in \mathbb{R}$$
 then

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} (ca_k + db_k) = c \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k + d \sum_{k=1}^{n} b_k$$

(b)

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_k\right) \times \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} b_k\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_i b_j\right)$$

The proof is straightforward – just rearrange the terms.

We will also consider infinite sequences. We denote such a sequence by  $(a_1, a_2, a_3, ...)$ , or  $(a_i)_{i\geq 1}$ , or  $(a_i)_{i=1}^{\infty}$ . We use the notation

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i \quad \text{or} \quad \sum_{i \ge 1} a_i$$

for summing infinite sequences of numbers. We can't really say what this means without a little more analysis (Calculus II). One special case we will need for this module, however, is when  $a_i = r^i$  for some real number r with -1 < r < 1.

Proposition 3.2. Let r be a real number. Then

$$\sum_{i=0}^n r^i = \frac{1-r^{n+1}}{1-r} \, .$$

Furthermore, if -1 < r < 1, then

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} r^i = \frac{1}{1-r} \,.$$

## 4 Functions

**Definition** A function (or map) from a set X to a set Y is a rule which assigns an element of Y to each element of X. We denote the element of Y assigned to  $x \in X$  by f(x), and refer to f(x) as the value of f at x. The set X is called the *domain* of f and the set Y is called the *codomain* of f. The range of f is the set of all elements of  $y \in Y$  for which there exists an  $x \in X$  such that f(x) = y. In set theoretic notation this is  $\{f(x) : x \in X\}$ .

We use the notation

$$f:X\to Y$$

to mean "f is a function from X to Y", and

$$f: x \mapsto f(x)$$

to mean "f maps x to f(x)".

**Definition** Suppose  $f : X \to Y$ . We say that:

- f is *injective* if for all  $x_1, x_2 \in X$  with  $x_1 \neq x_2$  we have  $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$  i.e. no two distinct elements of X map to the same element of Y.
- f is surjective if for every  $y \in Y$  there is an  $x \in X$  with f(x) = y i.e. every element in Y has an element of X mapped onto it.
- f is *bijective* if it is both injective and surjective.

An injective function is also called an *injection*. A surjective function is also called a *surjection*. A bijective function is also called a *bijection*.

**Lemma 4.1.** Suppose X and Y are finite sets and  $f: X \to Y$ .

- (a) If f is injective then  $|X| \leq |Y|$ .
- (b) If f is surjective then  $|X| \ge |Y|$ .
- (c) If f is bijective then |X| = |Y|.

**Proof** Let  $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\}$  and  $Y = \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_m\}$ .

(a) Suppose f is injective. Then  $f(x_1), f(x_2), \ldots, f(x_m)$  are all distinct elements of Y. Hence  $|Y| \ge m = |X|$ .

The proofs of (b) and (c) are left as an exercise.

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**Definition** Suppose X, Y, Z are sets,  $f : X \to Y$  and  $g : Y \to Z$ . Then the *composite function*  $h : X \to Z$  is defined by h(x) = g(f(x)). We denote this function h by  $g \circ f$ .

Note that if X = Z then  $g \circ f$  and  $f \circ g$  are both functions from X to X but they may be different functions.

**Definition** Suppose  $f : X \to Y$ . Then a function  $g : Y \to X$  is an *inverse* to f if  $(g \circ f)(x) = x$  for all  $x \in X$  and  $(f \circ g)(y) = y$  for all  $y \in Y$ .

It is important to remember that not every function has an inverse. The following result characterizes when a function does have an inverse.

**Theorem 4.2.** Suppose  $f : X \to Y$ . Then f has an inverse if and only if f is a bijection.

**Proof** There are two things to prove here. Firstly, we must show that if f has an inverse then f is a bijection. Secondly, we must show that if f is a bijection then f has an inverse.

**First direction** Let  $g: Y \to X$  be an inverse for f. Given any  $y \in Y$  let x = g(y). Then f(x) = f(g(y)) = y. Since this holds for all  $y \in Y$ , f is surjective. If  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$  for some  $x_1, x_2 \in X$  then applying g to both sides we have  $g(f(x_1)) = g(f(x_2))$  so  $x_1 = x_2$ . Thus, f is injective. Hence f is both surjective and injective, so it is bijective and we have proved the first direction.

**Second direction** Suppose that f is bijective. Then f is surjective so given any  $y \in Y$  there exists an  $x \in X$  with f(x) = y. Moreover, there is only one such x, since f is injective. Define g(y) to be equal to this x. Then g(f(x)) = x for any  $x \in X$  and f(g(y)) = y for any  $y \in Y$ . So g is an inverse to f. This completes the proof of the second direction.

## Countable sets

Lemma 4.1 suggests a way we can compare the 'cardinalities' of infinite sets. **Definition** Let X and Y be infinite sets. We say that

- the cardinality of X is less than or equal to the cardinality of Y if there exists an injection  $f: X \to Y$ .
- the cardinality of X is equal to the cardinality of Y if there exists a bijection  $f: X \to Y$ .

Recall that  $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, ...\}$  is the set of *natural numbers*.

**Definition** let X be an infinite set. We say that X is *countable* if there exists a bijection  $f : \mathbb{N} \to X$  i.e. X has the same cardinality as  $\mathbb{N}$ . If there is no bijection  $f : \mathbb{N} \to X$  then we say that X is *uncountable*.

Recall that  $\mathbb{Z} = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, ...\}$  is the set of *integers* and  $\mathbb{R}$  is the set of *real numbers*. We will show that  $\mathbb{Z}$  is countable and  $\mathbb{R}$  is uncountable.

**Lemma 4.3.**  $\mathbb{Z}$  is countable.

**Proof** (a) Let  $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z}$  be defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x/2 & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{N} \text{ is even,} \\ -(x+1)/2 & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{N} \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

It can be shown that f is a bijection (see Exercise Sheet 2). Hence  $\mathbb{Z}$  is countable.

Lemma 4.4.  $\mathbb{R}$  is uncountable.

**Proof** We use 'proof by contradiction'. (We assume that the statement we are trying to prove is false and show that this assumption implies a contradiction. The only way out of this contradiction is that the original statement must be true.)

Suppose that  $\mathbb{R}$  is countable. Then there exists a bijection  $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$ . For each  $i \in \mathbb{N}$  let  $f(i) = r_i$ . Since f is surjective, the sequence  $(r_0, r_1, r_2, ...)$  must include all of the real numbers. We will obtain our contradiction by constructing a real number r such that  $r \neq r_i$  for all  $i \geq 0$ .

Consider an 'infinite decimal expansion' of each number  $r_i$  (if  $r_i$  has a finite decimal expansion then we make it infinite by adding an infinite sequence of zeros after the last decimal place). We define a real number r with decimal expansion  $r = 0.a_0a_1a_2...$  as follows. For each  $i \in \mathbb{N}$  put  $a_i = 5$  if the (i + 1)'th digit after the decimal point in the decimal expansion of  $r_i$  is equal to 0, and otherwise put  $a_i = 0$ . Then  $r \neq r_i$  for all  $i \geq 0$  since r and  $r_i$  differ in their (i + 1)'th decimal place. This means that  $r \neq f(i)$  for all  $i \geq 0$  which contradicts the assumption that f is surjective. The only way out of this contradiction is that  $\mathbb{R}$  is uncountable.