

# CS 173 Lecture 13: Bijections and Data Types

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## 1 More on Bijections

**Bijecive Functions and Cardinality.** If  $A$  and  $B$  are finite sets we know that  $f : A \rightarrow B$  is *bijecive* iff  $|A| = |B|$ .

If  $A$  and  $B$  are *infinite* sets we can *define* that they have the *same cardinality*, written  $|A| = |B|$  iff there is a *bijecive* function.  $f : A \rightarrow B$ .

This agrees with our intuition since, as  $f$  is in particular *surjective*, we can use  $f : A \rightarrow B$  to “list<sup>1</sup>” all elements of  $B$  by elements of  $A$ . The reason why writing  $|A| = |B|$  makes sense is that, since  $f : A \rightarrow B$  is also *bijecive*, we can also use  $f^{-1} : B \rightarrow A$  to “list” all elements of  $A$  by elements of  $B$ . Therefore, this captures the notion of  $A$  and  $B$  having the “same degree of infinity,” since their elements can be put into a *bijecive* correspondence (also called a *one-to-one and onto* correspondence) with each other.

We will also use the notation  $A \cong B$  as a shorthand for the existence of a *bijecive* function  $f : A \rightarrow B$ . Of course, then  $A \cong B$  iff  $|A| = |B|$ , but the two notations emphasize slightly different, though equivalent, intuitions. Namely,  $A \cong B$  emphasizes the idea that  $A$  and  $B$  can be placed in *bijecive correspondence*, whereas  $|A| = |B|$  emphasizes the idea that  $A$  and  $B$  have the *same cardinality*. In summary, the notations  $|A| = |B|$  and  $A \cong B$  mean, by definition:

$$A \cong B \Leftrightarrow_{def} |A| = |B| \Leftrightarrow_{def} \exists f \in [A \rightarrow B] (f \text{ bijecive})$$

**Arrow Notation and Arrow Composition.** We will adopt the following *arrow notation* to abbreviate the description of *injective*, *surjective*, and *bijecive* functions:

- $f : A \rightarrowtail B \Leftrightarrow_{def} f : A \rightarrow B$  and  $f$  *injective*
- $f : A \twoheadrightarrow B \Leftrightarrow_{def} f : A \rightarrow B$  and  $f$  *surjective*
- $f : A \xrightarrow{\cong} B \Leftrightarrow_{def} f : A \rightarrow B$  and  $f$  *bijecive*.

**Theorem 1** (Arrow Composition).

1. Given  $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$  then  $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$

<sup>1</sup> When  $A = \mathbb{N}$ , such a listing is called an *enumeration*. But for sets with greater degree of infinity, like when  $A = \mathbb{R}$ , the word “listing” is more general and avoids restricting the notion to countably infinite sets.

2. Given  $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$  then  $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$
3. Given  $A \xrightarrow{\cong} B \xrightarrow{\cong} C$  then  $g \circ f : A \xrightarrow{\cong} C$

Furthermore, for any set  $A$ ,  $id_A : A \rightarrow A$  is bijective.

**Proof:** (2) was proved in Feb. 23 Discussion Session. To see (1), note that, since  $f$  and  $g$  are injective,

$$g(f(x)) = g(f(x')) \Rightarrow f(x) = f(x') \Rightarrow x = x'.$$

(3) follows immediately from (1) and (2).

$id_A : A \rightarrow A$  is bijective because  $id_A = id_A^{-1}$ . This finishes the proof of the theorem.

**The Set of Bijective Functions**  $[A \rightarrow B]_{\cong}$ . The set of bijective functions from  $A$  to  $B$  is denoted  $[A \rightarrow B]_{\cong}$  and is defined by:

$$[A \rightarrow B]_{\cong} =_{def} \{f \in [A \rightarrow B] \mid f \text{ bijective}\}$$

Of course,  $[A \rightarrow B]_{\cong} \neq \emptyset$  iff  $|A| = |B|$ .

Given any set  $A$ , a bijection  $f : A \xrightarrow{\cong} A$  is called a *permutation*. Therefore, the *set of permutations* of  $A$  is defined as:

$$Perm(A) =_{def} [A \rightarrow A]_{\cong}$$

The slides for this lecture contain a simple example of a set of permutations for a finite set  $A$  with  $|A| = 3$  and show that  $|Perm(A)| = 6 = 3!$  for such a set. This is an instance of the following theorem:

**Theorem 2.** Given finite sets with  $|A| = |B| = n$ , then  $|[A \rightarrow B]_{\cong}| = n!$  In particular,  $|Perm(A)| = n!$

The proof is by induction on  $n = |A| = |B|$  and is left as an exercise.

**Algebraic Properties of**  $[A \rightarrow A]$  and  $Perm(A)$ . Since  $Perm(A) \subseteq [A \rightarrow A]$ , we should consider the algebraic properties of  $Perm(A)$  within the context of those of  $[A \rightarrow A]$ .

The obvious *operation* that we can perform in  $[A \rightarrow A]$  is *function composition*. Given  $f, g \in [A \rightarrow A]$  we *know* from Theorem 3 in Lecture 11 that  $f \circ g \in [A \rightarrow A]$ . What *algebraic properties* does this operation have? We also *know* from the same theorem that for  $f, g, h \in [A \rightarrow A]$  we have:

**Associativity.**  $(f \circ g) \circ h = f \circ (g \circ h)$

**Identity.**  $id_A \circ f = f = f \circ id_A$ .

These are called the *monoid laws*. Therefore,  $[A \rightarrow A]$  is a *monoid* for the function composition operation.

What are the algebraic properties of  $Perm(A)$ ? By the above Arrow Composition Theorem we *know* that given  $f, g \in Perm(A)$ ,  $f \circ g \in Perm(A)$ . And by Theorem 3 in Lecture 11 and Lemma 1 in Lecture 12 we also *know* that for  $f, g, h \in Perm(A)$  the following algebraic properties hold:

**Associativity.**  $(f \circ g) \circ h = f \circ (g \circ h)$

**Identity.**  $id_A \circ f = f = f \circ id_A$ .

**Inverse.**  $f \circ f^{-1} = id_A = f^{-1} \circ f$ .

These are called the *group laws*. Therefore,  $Perm(A)$  is a *group* for the permutation composition operation.

## 2 Bijections as Changes of Data Representation

Algorithms and programs manipulate *data*. But data can be represented in different ways. For example, we can represent:

- *true* as **T** or as 1
- *false* as **F** or as 0

We can use *bijections* to change data representations. For example, the bijection  $letter2number : \{\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}\} \xrightarrow{\cong} \{0, 1\}$  defined by:  $letter2number =_{def} \lambda x \in \{\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}\}. \text{if } x = \mathbf{T} \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 0 \text{ fi} \in \{0, 1\}$  allows us to change the truth values from letters to numbers; and its inverse,  $number2letter =_{def} (letter2number)^{-1}$  allows us to change it back.

Likewise, the natural numbers do have different data representations. For example, we saw in the slides for Lecture 9 that the natural numbers in *decimal notation* are a language

$$dec\mathbb{N} \subset \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}^*$$

specifiable by a grammar.

In an entirely similar way, the natural numbers in *binary notation* are also a language

$$bin\mathbb{N} \subset \{0, 1\}^*$$

specifiable by a grammar.

An even simpler notation for numbers is the *finger notation*, where  $finger\mathbb{N}$  is, by definition, the string set  $finger\mathbb{N} =_{def} \{|\}^*$ , so that we represent numbers by “fingers” as follows:

$$0 = \epsilon, 1 = |, 2 = ||, 3 = |||, \dots$$

and number addition is “finger concatenation”

$$3 + 2 = (|||) (||) = |||||$$

We can of course *convert* numbers in one representation into the same numbers in a *different* representation by the well-known decimal to binary conversion and back, and likewise we can convert them into finger notation. That is, we have, for example, bijections:

- $dec2bin : dec\mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{\cong} bin\mathbb{N}$ , with inverse  $bin2dec : bin\mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{\cong} dec\mathbb{N}$
- $bin2finger : bin\mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{\cong} finger\mathbb{N}$ , with inverse  $finger2bin : finger\mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{\cong} bin\mathbb{N}$

Furthermore, we can *compose* these changes of data representation to get new ones. For example, composing  $dec2bin : dec\mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{\cong} bin\mathbb{N}$  with  $bin2finger : bin\mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{\cong} finger\mathbb{N}$  we get a data conversion

$$dec2finger = bin2finger \circ dec2bin : dec\mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{\cong} finger\mathbb{N}.$$

The *subsets of a set* are also data manipulated by many algorithms. Given a finite set  $A$ , its subsets  $X \in \mathcal{P}(A)$  are precisely such data elements. But subsets of  $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$  can be represented in different ways. The obvious one is to represent  $B \in \mathcal{P}(A)$  by itself, i.e., as the *set* of its  $k$  elements  $B = \{a_{i_1}, \dots, a_{i_k}\}$ . But an attractive, alternative representation is to represent  $B$  as a *predicate*, that is, as a truth-valued function. Specifically, we can represent each  $B \in \mathcal{P}(A)$  by its so-called *characteristic function*, which is the following predicate:

$$\chi_B =_{def} \lambda x \in A. (x \in B) \in \{\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}\}.$$

The change of data representation

$$B \mapsto \chi_B$$

is a bijection

$$subset2pred : \mathcal{P}(A) \xrightarrow{\cong} [A \rightarrow \{\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}\}]$$

where  $subset2pred =_{def} \lambda B \in \mathcal{P}(A). \chi_B \in [A \rightarrow \{\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}\}]$ . Its inverse is the function

$$pred2subset =_{def} \lambda p \in [A \rightarrow \{\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}\}]. \{x \in A \mid p(x) = \mathbf{T}\} \in \mathcal{P}(A).$$

Checking that, indeed,  $pred2subset = (subset2pred)^{-1}$  is left as a useful exercise.

### 3 What is a Data Type?

The changes of data representation we have considered are changes in the representation of *data types* as used in programming languages. For example,  $letter2number : \{\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}\} \xrightarrow{\cong} \{0, 1\}$  is a change of representation for the data type of *Booleans*,  $dec2bin : dec\mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{\cong} bin\mathbb{N}$  is a change of representation for the data type of *Naturals*, and  $subset2pred : \mathcal{P}(A) \xrightarrow{\cong} [A \rightarrow \{\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}\}]$  is a change of representation for the data type of *FiniteSubsets* of  $A$ .

Data types are of two kinds:

- Built-in** data types like *Booleans*, *Naturals*, *Integers*, and *Floats* are usually provided by a programming language in a built-in way;
- User-definable** data types like *Lists*, *FiniteSubsets* of a set, *BinaryTrees*, *Finite-Functions* (called *map* data types), *FiniteRelations* (called *tables* in databases), *FiniteGraphs*, and so on, are programmed by the user, or belong to libraries such as the C++ template library.

The *elements* of a data type are called *data elements* or *data structures*.

All *algorithms* manipulate data structures in given data types. In fact they are *classified* by the kind of data types they handle. For example, as:

- *numerical* algorithms,
- *string* algorithms,
- *tree* algorithms,
- *graph* algorithms,

and so on.

It is of course *impossible* to mathematically verify (as opposed to just testing) the *correctness* of algorithms and programs without having *mathematical models* of the data types they manipulate. Therefore the question:

*What is a data type?*

which could be rephrased as:

*How should a data type be modeled?*

is not an idle or trivial question at all. Without a satisfactory, mathematical answer to this question it is impossible to reason mathematically about data types and the correctness of programs and algorithms.

**Question1: What is a Data Type?** Since a data type is a collection of data elements and Set Theory is the mathematical theory of collections of objects, a possible, tentative answer to this questions could be:

**Answer1:** *A data type is just a set of data.*

This sounds quite reasonable. For example, a so-called *enumeration type* consisting of data elements  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$ , and  $d$  can be modeled mathematically as the *set*  $\{a, b, c, d\}$ .

But is this answer right? And how can we *find out* whether it is right or not? One way to find out is as follows. Whatever answer we give to **Question 1**, such an answer should be *consistent* with an answer to the following, closely related question:

**Question 2:** *What is a change of data representation between equivalent data types?*

where by “equivalent” we mean that, for example,  $\{\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}\}$  and  $\{0, 1\}$  are equivalent representations of the *Booleans*, and that  $dec\mathbb{N}$  and  $bin\mathbb{N}$  are equivalent representations of the *Naturals*. For all the examples we have seen in Section 2, the most obvious, tentative answer is:

**Answer2:** *A change of data representation between equivalent data types  $D$  and  $D'$  is just a bijection  $f : D \xrightarrow{\cong} D'$ .*

This also seems reasonable, since all the changes of data representation we have considered *are* bijections.

But is this answer right? And how can we *find out* whether it is right or not? One way to find out is to *test* whether this answer is right in the *simplest possible* example, namely, the equivalent data types  $\{\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}\}$  and  $\{0, 1\}$ , where, of course, in  $\{0, 1\}$  *not*, *or*, and the *and* operations have the following truth tables:

**NOT :**

$X$	$\neg X$
1	0
0	1

**OR :**

$X_1$	$X_2$	$X_1 \vee X_2$
1	1	1
1	0	1
0	1	1
0	0	0

**AND :**

$X_1$	$X_2$	$X_1 \wedge X_2$
1	1	1
1	0	0
0	1	0
0	0	0

Therefore, if **Answer2** is right, the following bijection

$$flip : \{\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}\} \xrightarrow{\cong} \{0, 1\}$$

where  $flip =_{def} \lambda x \in \{\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}\}. \text{ if } x = \mathbf{T} \text{ then } 0 \text{ else } 1 \text{ fi} \in \{0, 1\}$  should be a change of data representation. But is this right? It does not seem so, since we get the following *nonsense!*

1.  $\mathbf{T} \wedge \mathbf{T} = \mathbf{T}$  and  $flip(\mathbf{T}) \wedge flip(\mathbf{T}) = 0 \wedge 0 = 0$ ,
2.  $\mathbf{T} \wedge \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{F}$  and  $flip(\mathbf{T}) \wedge flip(\mathbf{F}) = 0 \wedge 1 = 0$ .

Therefore, our tentative answers:

**Answer1:** *A data type is just a set of data.*

**Answer2:** *A change of data representation between equivalent data types  $D$  and  $D'$  is just a bijection  $f : D \xrightarrow{\cong} D'$ .*

are completely wrong!

**The Problem.** What is the problem? aren't data types sets and changes of data representation bijections? Yes, they are. But the above example painfully shows that they *cannot* be *just* sets and *just* bijections between them. We must look for *shaper* answers of the form:

**Answer1:** *A data type is a set of data plus??*

**Answer2:** *A change of data representation between equivalent data types  $D$  and  $D'$  is a bijection  $f : D \xrightarrow{\cong} D'$  plus???*

Let us begin by trying to find what additional requirements we should impose on a bijection to get a satisfactory answer to **Question2**. The place to look at is the nonsense (1) and (2) above. The problem with (2), for example, is that

$$\text{flip}(\mathbf{T} \wedge \mathbf{F}) = \text{flip}(\mathbf{F}) = 1 \neq 0 = \text{flip}(\mathbf{T}) \wedge \text{flip}(\mathbf{F})$$

That is, the problem is that the *Boolean operations* are *not* preserved! Any change of Boolean data representation  $f : \{\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}\} \xrightarrow{\cong} \{0, 1\}$  worth its salt *must* satisfy at least the following requirements:

- $f(\neg x) = \neg(f(x))$
- $f(x \vee y) = f(x) \vee f(y)$
- $f(x \wedge y) = f(x) \wedge f(y)$

**Have we seen something like this before?** Yes, we have. Changing  $\vee$  to  $+$  and  $\wedge$  to  $\cdot$ , we saw in the **Homomorphism Lemma** of Lecture 7 that the function:

$$\rho : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$$

where  $\rho =_{def} \lambda x \in \mathbb{Z}. \text{rem}(x, n) \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  satisfies:

1.  $\rho(a + b) = \rho(a) +_n \rho(b)$
2.  $\rho(ab) = \rho(a) \cdot_n \rho(b)$

and that a function preserving operations, such as in this case  $+_n$  and  $\cdot_n$ , is called a *homomorphism*. This suggests the following answer to our two questions:

**Answer1:** *A data type is a set  $D$  plus some operations on that data.*

**Answer2:** *A change of data representation between equivalent data types  $D$  and  $D'$  is a bijection  $f : D \xrightarrow{\cong} D'$  that is also a homomorphism for the data operations.*

However, **Answer1** is not tight enough. A data type cannot be just any set  $D$  with some operations on it. It must be a set whose elements are *representable by finite data structures on a computer*. Furthermore the data operations should be *computable* by means of terminating programs. Technically this is called a *computable set with computable operations*. This excludes sets like  $\mathbb{R}$  because its data structures are *infinite*. Real numbers can only be *approximated* up to some level of precision in a computer; for example, by using the data type of IEEE floating point numbers. A fortiori, even bigger sets like  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$  are excluded from **Answer1**: they are not computable at all. **Answer2** should also be tightened:  $f$  should be a *computable data* function.