5.1 Function Definition and Properties



- 5.1.1 Definition of a Function
- 5.1.2 Image and Preimage of a Function
- 5.1.3 Properties of a Function

5.1.2 Image and Preimage of a Function





- **Definition 5.7:** Let $f:A \rightarrow B$ be a function, and let $A_1 \subseteq A$, $B_1 \subseteq B$. Then:
 - • $f(A_1)=\{f(x)\mid x\in A_1\}$ is called the image of A_1 under f.
 - In particular, f(A) is called the image of the function.
 - • $f^{-1}(B_1)=\{x\mid x\in A\land f(x)\in B_1\}$ is called the complete preimage of B_1 under f.

Note:

- •A function value $f(x) \subseteq B$ is a point-to-point result, while an image $f(A_1) \subseteq B$ is a set-to-set transformation.
- ${}^{\bullet}A_1 \subseteq f^{-1}(f(A_1))$: The preimage of the image of A_1 may contain more elements than A_1 itself.
- • $f(f^{-1}(B_1))$ ⊆ B_1 : Taking the image of the preimage of B_1 may not recover the original set B_1 .
- •A complete preimage is the source of a set of outputs; a preimage refers to the source of a single output. Both follow the same set operation rules.

5.1.2 Image and Preimage of a Function Image and complete preimage of the function (e.g.)



Examples:

(1) Let
$$f: N \rightarrow N$$
, and let $f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{2} & \text{if } x \text{ even} \\ x+1 & \text{if } x \text{ odd} \end{cases}$
 $A = \{0, 1\}, B = \{2\}, \text{ then}$
 $f(A) = f(\{0, 1\}) = \{f(0), f(1)\} = \{0, 2\}$
 $f(B) = \{f(2)\} = \{1\}$

- - •{1} \subset {1,2}= $f^{-1}(\{a\})$ = $f^{-1}(f(\{1\}))$ (Non-injective functions expand preimages)
 - $f(f^{-1}(\{b,c\}))=f(\{3\})=\{b\}\subset\{b,c\}$ (Non-surjective ones shrink images)



5.1 Function Definition and Properties



- 5.1.1 Definition of a Function
- 5.1.2 Image and Preimage of a Function
- 5.1.3 Properties of a Function
 - Surjective, Injective, and Bijective Functions
 - Constructing a bijective function

5.1.3 Properties of a Function Surjective, Injective, and Bijective Functions(e.g.)



- Definitions of Surjective, Injective, and Bijective Functions
- Note:
 - Surjectivity means: for $\forall y \in B$, here exists an $x \in A$ such that f(x) = y.
 - Injectivity means: if : $f(x_1)=f(x_2) \Rightarrow x_1=x_2$.
 - A surjection ensures full coverage of the codomain, an injection ensures no duplication in mapping, and a bijection guarantees reversibility.
- **Examples:** Determine whether the following functions are injective, surjective, or bijective, and explain why.
 - (1) $f: R \to R, f(x) = -x^2 + 2x 1$

Solution: When x=0,2, f(x)=-1, so it is not injective.



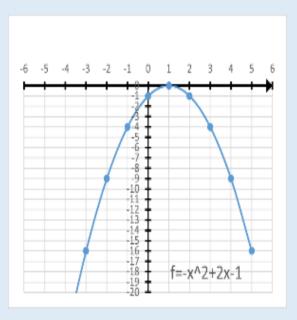
Surjective, Injective, and Bijective Functions(e.g.)



Examples: Determine whether the following functions are injective, surjective, or bijective, and explain why.

(1)
$$f: R \to R, f(x) = -x^2 + 2x - 1$$

Solution: When x=0,2, f(x)=-1, so it is **not injective**.



As shown in the figure, the function f cannot map to any positive real number, and thus it is *neither* surjective nor bijective.



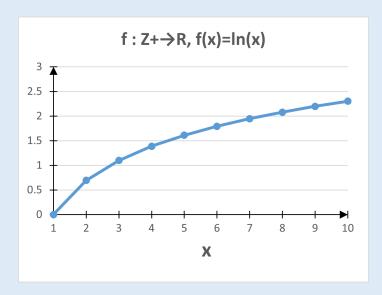
5.1.3 Properties of a Function Surjective, Injective, and Bijective Functions(e.g.)



Examples: Determine whether the following functions are injective, surjective, or bijective, and explain why.

(2) $f: Z^+ \rightarrow R$, $f(x) = \ln x$, Z^+ is the set of positive integers.

Solution:



Solution: f(x) is monotonically increasing, so it is *injective*. Since $ranf = \{ln1, ln2, ...\}$ cannot cover all values in the real number set R, f is not surjective.



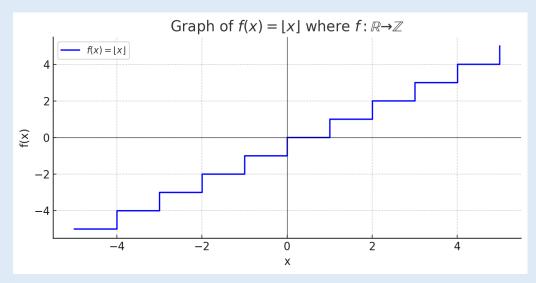
Surjective, Injective, and Bijective Functions(e.g.)



Examples: Determine whether the following functions are injective, surjective, or bijective, and explain why.

(3)
$$f: R \rightarrow Z, f(x) = \lfloor x \rfloor$$

Solution:



Every integer f(x) has a corresponding real number x, so the function is *surjective*. However, different real numbers may have the same floor value f(x), so the function is *not injective*.



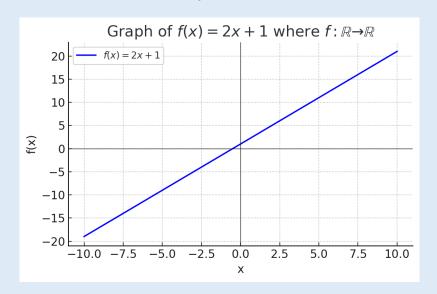
Surjective, Injective, and Bijective Functions(e.g.)



Examples: Determine whether the following functions are injective, surjective, or bijective, and explain why.

(4)
$$f: R \rightarrow R, f(x)=2x+1$$

Solution:



Surjective, injective, bijective, because it is monotonic and the range of ranf=R





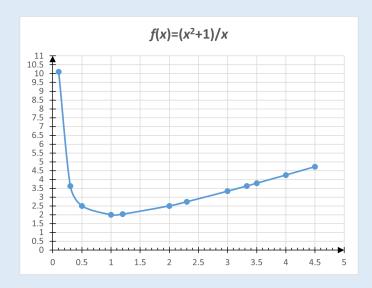




Examples: Determine whether the following functions are injective, surjective, or bijective, and explain why.

(5) $f: \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$, $f(x) = (x^2 + 1)/x$, where \mathbb{R}^+ is the set of positive real numbers.

Solution:



The function has a minimum value f(1)=2. This function is neither injective nor surjective.



Constructing a bijective function (between finite sets)(e.g.)



Example: $A=P(\{1,2,3\}), B=\{0,1\}^{\{1,2,3\}}$

Solve:
$$A=\{\emptyset,\{1\},\{2\},\{3\},\{1,2\},\{1,3\},\{2,3\},\{1,2,3\}\}\}$$
.
 $B=\{f_0, f_1, ..., f_7\}$.
 $f_0=\{<1,0>,<2,0>,<3,0>\}, f_1=\{<1,0>,<2,0>,<3,1>\},$
 $f_2=\{<1,0>,<2,1>,<3,0>\}, f_3=\{<1,0>,<2,1>,<3,1>\},$
 $f_4=\{<1,1>,<2,0>,<3,0>\}, f_5=\{<1,1>,<2,0>,<3,1>\},$
 $f_6=\{<1,1>,<2,1>,<3,0>\}, f_7=\{<1,1>,<2,1>,<3,1>\}.$
Let $f:A\rightarrow B$,
 $f(\emptyset)=f_0, f(\{1\})=f_1, f(\{2\})=f_2, f(\{3\})=f_3,$
 $f(\{1,2\})=f_4, f(\{1,3\})=f_5, f(\{2,3\})=f_6, f(\{1,2,3\})=f_7$

Each subset in A is mapped to its characteristic function. For example, $f(\{2\})=f_2$, since only element 2 is in the subset, its characteristic value is (0,1,0).







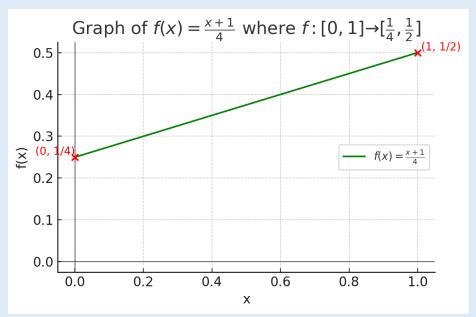
Sonstructing a bijective function (between real intervals)(e.g.

- Construction Method: Linear Equation
- Example: A=[0,1], B=[1/4,1/2]Construct a bijection $f: A \rightarrow B$

Solve: To map A=[0,1] onto B=[1/4,1/2], match the endpoints and use a straight-line function to create a bijection.

Let
$$f:[0,1] \rightarrow [1/4,1/2]$$

 $f(x)=(x+1)/4$







5.1.3 Properties of a Function • Constructing a bijective function • (between set A and the set of natural numbers)(e.g.)



- **Construction Method:** Arrange the elements of set *A* in a specific order based on a certain criterion. Then, starting from the first element, map them sequentially to the natural numbers.
- **Example:** $A=\mathbb{Z}$, $B=\mathbb{N}$, Construct a bijection $f:A\to B$ Solve: Arrange the elements of \mathbb{Z} in the following order and correspond them with the elements of \mathbb{N} :

The function represented by this correspondence is:

$$f: \mathbf{Z} \to \mathbf{N}, f(x) = \begin{cases} 2x & x \ge 0 \\ -2x - 1 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$



5.1 Function Definition and Properties • Brief summary



Objective:

Key Concepts:





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Chapter 5: Function



- 5.1 Function Definition and Properties
- 5.2 Composition of Functions and Inverse Functions
- 5.3 Relational Algebra



5.2 Composition of Functions and Inverse Functions



■ 5.2.1 Composition of Functions

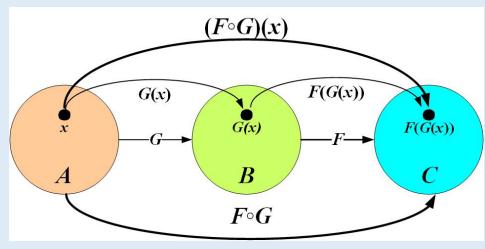
- The fundamental theorem of function composition and its corollaries
- Properties of function composition
- 5.2.2 Inverse Functions
 - Conditions for the existence of an inverse function
 - Properties of inverse function

5.2 Composition of Functions and Inverse Functions

▶ 5.2.1 Composition of Functions



- Theorem 5.1: Let F,G be functions, then the composition $F \circ G$ is also a function and satisfies the following conditions:
 - (1) $dom(F \circ G) = \{ x \mid x \in domG \land G(x) \in domF \}$ (This describes the relationship between the domains and ranges of the functions.)
 - (2) $\forall x \in \text{dom}(F \circ G)$, $F \circ G(x) = F(G(x))$ (This specifies the order of computation for the composite function.)



Note: The composition of functions is left composition with right-hand priority, while the composition of relations is right composition with left-hand priority.



5.2.1 Composition of Functions

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- Theorem 5.2: Let $f: B \rightarrow C$, $g: A \rightarrow B$.
 - (1) If f, g are surjective, then $f \circ g : A \rightarrow C$ is also surjective.
 - (2) If both f, g are injective, then the composition $f \circ g$: $A \rightarrow C$ is also *injective*.
 - (3) If both f, g are bijective, then the composition $f \circ g$: $A \rightarrow C$ is also *bijective*.



5.2.1 Composition of Functions

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Function Composition and Mapping Properties

- Theorem 5.2: Let $f: B \rightarrow C$, $g: A \rightarrow B$.
- (1) If f, g are surjective, then $f \circ g : A \rightarrow C$ is also *surjective*.
- **proof**: Goal: Prove that for any $c \in C$, there exists at least one element $a \in A$ such that $(f \circ g)(a) = c$.
- ①Since f is surjective, for any $c \in C$, there exists some $b \in B$ such that f(b)=c.
- ②Since g is also surjective, there exists some $a \in A$ such that g(a)=b.
- ③Given that g(a)=b and f(b)=c, by the definition of function composition, we have: $(f \circ g)(a)=f(g(a))=f(b)=c$.
- Therefore, $f \circ g : A \rightarrow C$ is surjective.



5.2.1 Composition of Functions

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- Theorem 5.2: Let $f: B \rightarrow C$, $g: A \rightarrow B$.
- (2) If both f, g are injective, then the composition $f \circ g : A \rightarrow C$ is also injective.
- proof: Goal: We need to prove that if $x_1, x_2 \in A$, $x_1 \neq x_{2}$, then $f \circ g(x_1) \neq f \circ g(x_2)$.
 - ①Since g injective, $g(x_1) \neq g(x_2)$, and $g(x_1)$, $g(x_2) \in B=domf_o$
 - ②Since f injective, we know that $f(g(x_1)) \neq f(g(x_2))$, thus $f \circ g(x_1) \neq f \circ g(x_2)$.
- so $f \circ g : A \rightarrow C$ is injective.



5.2 Composition of Functions and Inverse Functions



5.2.1 Composition of Functions

- The fundamental theorem of function composition and its corollaries
- Properties of function composition
- 5.2.2 Inverse Functions
 - Conditions for the existence of an inverse function
 - Properties of inverse function

5.2.2 Inverse Functions

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Inverse Function Existence Theorem

- Theorem 5.4: Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ be bijective, so $f^{-1}: B \rightarrow A$ is also bijective. Proof:
- ①Since f is a function, so f^{-1} is relation, and we have $dom f^{-1} = ran f = B$, $ran f^{-1} = dom f = A$.
- ②For any $x \in B$, suppose have $y_1, y_2 \in A$ such that $\langle y_1, x \rangle \in f^{-1} \land \langle y_2, x \rangle \in f^{-1}$, then by the definition of inverse $\langle x, y_1 \rangle \in f \land \langle x, y_2 \rangle \in f$. Since f is injective, it follows that $y_1 = y_2$, hence f^{-1} is a well-defined function.
- ③Also, for every $x \in B$, there is a unique $a \in A$ such that f(a) = x, so $f^{-1}(x) = a$, therefore, f^{-1} is surjective.
- 4 Now, suppose exist $x_1, x_2 \in B$ such that $f^{-1}(x_1) = f^{-1}(x_2) = y$, then we have $\langle y, x_1 \rangle \in f^{-1} \wedge \langle y, x_2 \rangle \in f^{-1} \Rightarrow \langle x_1, y \rangle \in f \wedge \langle x_2, y \rangle \in f \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2$ (Since f is injective function), then proves that f^{-1} is injective.
- Conclusion: Since f^{-1} is both injective and surjective, $f^{-1}:B\to A$ is a bijective function.

5.2.2 Inverse Functions

Find the inverse of a composite function



- Example: Let $f: R \rightarrow R$, $g: R \rightarrow R$, $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & x \ge 3 \\ -2 & x < 3 \end{cases}$, g(x) = x + 2
 - Find $f \circ g$, $g \circ f$.
 - If f and g have inverse functions, find their inverses.

Solve:

$$g \circ f \colon \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R} \qquad f \circ g \colon \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$$

$$g \circ f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 + 2 & x \ge 3 \\ 0 & x < 3 \end{cases} \qquad f \circ g(x) = \begin{cases} (x+2)^2 & x \ge 1 \\ -2 & x < 1 \end{cases}$$

 $f: R \rightarrow R$ does not have an inverse function.

 $g: R \rightarrow R$ inverse function is $g^{-1}: R \rightarrow R$, $g^{-1}(x) = x - 2$.



5.2.2 Inverse Functions

Identity Composition Theorem of Inverse Functions



- The composition of a bijective function and its inverse is the identity function.
- Theorem 5.5: Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ be a bijective function, then: $f^{-1} \circ f = I_{\Delta}, \quad f \circ f^{-1} = I_{B}$

Proof:

- ① According to Theorem **5.4** f^{-1} : $B \rightarrow A$ is also bijective.
- ② By the theorem on function composition, $f^{-1} \circ f : A \rightarrow A$, $f \circ f^{-1} : B \rightarrow B$, and both equal the corresponding identity functions.
- ③ By the above Therefore, we have: $f^{-1} \circ f = I_A$, $f \circ f^{-1} = I_B$.
- The left and right compositions of a bijective function and its inverse are identity functions on their respective sets, and I_A is generally not equal to I_B .



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Chapter 5: Function



- 5.1 Function Definition and Properties
- 5.2 Composition of Functions and Inverse Functions
- 5.3 Relational Algebra

5.3 Relational Algebra



- 5.3.1 Relational Algebra and Its Components
 - Algebra, Algebraic Systems, and Branches of Algebra
 - Relational Algebra and Relational Database Operations
 - Relational Model and Relational Database
- 5.3.2 Relational Algebra and Its Operations
- 5.3.3 Applications of Relational Algebra



5.3.1 Relational Algebra and Its Components





- Algebra is the science of studying operational structures.
- **Algebraic systems** are the stage for these operations.
- **Algebraic branches** are the specific forms performed on that stage.

Algebra Branch	Algebraic System	Description	Applications
Relationa l Algebra	(R ,σ,π, ∪ ,∩, ×,)	Operations on relations (tables) in databases	SQL, database query languages
Boolean Algebra	(B,∨,∧,¬)	Logic system over two values (true/false or sets)	Logic design, digital circuits
Linear Algebra	(V,+,·)	Vector spaces over a field with scalar multiplication	Physics, machine learning, data science

Group Theory(G, \cdot), Ring Theory($R, +, \cdot$), Field Theory($F, +, \cdot$), Automata Algebra Statetransition structures,....





5.3.1 Relational Algebra and Its Components • Relational Algebra and Relational Database Operations



- Relational algebra is an abstract query language used to operate on relations (tables) in a relational database.
- Relational algebra provides the *theoretical foundation* for query languages such as SQL.
- Relational algebra allows for query optimization and equivalence transformations.
- Relational algebra operates on relations (tables) using a set of operators—including selection, projection, union, and intersection—and produces new relations as output.



5.3.1 Relational Algebra and Its Components • Relational Model and Relational Database



- The *relational model*, proposed by E.F. Codd, is a data model that represents real-world entities and their relationships using relations (tables). Each relation consists of rows (tuples) and columns (attributes).
- The relational model is the theoretical foundation for building relational databases. It represents data and relationships using relations (tables).
- *Tables and Relations*: Each table in a database represents a **relation**. Each row in the table (also called a **tuple**) represents an **ordered tuple**, which is a member of the relation.
- Relationships Between Elements: Each row in a table represents a specific association or "relation" between columns (also called attributes), forming a meaningful set of data.



5.3 Relational Algebra



- 5.3.1 Relational Algebra and Its Components
- **5.3.2** Relational Algebra Operations
 - Basic and Compound Operations in Relational Algebra
 - Algebraic Operations of Relational Databases
 - Relational Algebra Operations and SQL
- 5.3.3 Business Process Modeling and Its Tools (Languages)



5.3.2 Relational algebra operations





- Relational algebra operations are a subset of relational operations. They form a formal, algebraic system for constructing and optimizing queries.
- Relational algebra operations are a set of *closed operations*, where both the input and the result are relations (tables). They form the theoretical foundation of the SQL query language.
- Relational algebra consists of basic and derived operations.
 Derived operations are constructed by combining basic ones.
- The *basic operations include* Selection, Projection, Union, Difference, Cartesian Product, and Rename.
- The *Derived operations include* Join, Natural Join, Theta Join, and Division.

5.3.2 Relational algebra operations





- Selection(o): Selects all tuples from a relation that satisfy a given condition.
- **Projection**(π): Creates a new relation by selecting specific columns from an existing relation.
- Union(\cup): Combines two relations with the same attributes into a single relation, denoted as $R \cup S$.
- Set Difference(-): Removes the elements of one relation from another, denoted as R S.
- **Cartesian Product**(\times): Forms all possible combinations of tuples from two relations, denoted as $\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{S}$.



5.3.2 Relational algebra operations Solution Solut



- Rename(p): Changes the names of attributes in a relation.
- Natural Join(⋈): Merges two relations based on their common attributes, denoted as R ⋈ S。
- Intersection(∩): $R \cap S$ is not a basic operation in relational algebra, but it can be constructed using union and set difference: $R \cap S = (R \cup S) (R S) (S R)$.
- Structured Query Language (SQL) is a practical implementation of relational algebra and relational calculus, enabling operations such as intersection, querying, insertion, updating, and deletion in relational databases.



5.3.2 Relational Algebra Operations



- Data Tables in Databases as Relations
 - A relation is a *set of tuples*, where each tuple $\langle A_1, A_2, ..., A_n \rangle$ represents a relation with n attributes.
- **Example:** (ID, Name, Age, Address, Phone, Email) Let R and S be m-ary relations with the same attributes, where the mattributes are denoted as $A_1, A_2, ..., A_m$, The basic operations are as follows:
 - $R \cup S$ contains tuples from both R and S.
 - $R \cap S$ contains tuples that are present in both R and S;
 - R S contains tuples that are in R but not in S.
 - Projection $\pi_{A_{i_1},A_{i_2},...,A_{i_n}}(R)$ Select only certain columns $A_{i_1},A_{i_2},...,A_{i_n}$ from R form a new relation.



5.3.2 Relational Algebra Operations • Algebraic Operations of Relational Databases(e.g.)



Example: *R*:Employee Information

Name	Age	Address	Phone	Email
Zhang Wei	28	Zhongguancun, Beijing	13812345678	zhangwei@exa.com
Li Ting	32	Pudong, Shanghai	13987654321	liting@exa.com
Wang Qiang	45	Tianhe, Guangzhou	13722223333	wangqiang@exa.com
Zhao Xiaolin	26	Jinjiang, Chengdu	13611114444	zhaoxiaolin@exa.com

$\pi_{Name,Phone,Email}$ (R) The query result is selecting the columns Name, Phone, and Email.

Name	Phone	Email
Zhang Wei	13812345678	zhangwei@exa.com
Li Ting	13987654321	liting@exa.com
Wang Qiang	13722223333	wangqiang@exa.com
Zhao Xiaolin	13611114444	zhaoxiaolin@exa.com



5.3.2 Relational Algebra Operations





Example: (ID, Name, Age, Address, Phone, Email) Let *R* and *S* be *m*-ary relations with the same attributes. $R \cup S$: SELECT * FROM R UNION SELECT * FROM S; $R \cap S$: SELECT * FROM **R** INTERSECT SELECT * FROM **S**; R - S: SELECT * FROM **R** EXCEPT SELECT * FROM **S**; $\pi_{\text{Name,Phone,Email}}(R)$: SELECT Name, Phone, Email FROM R;



5.3.2 Applications of Relational Algebra



- The Cartesian Product $R \times S$ is a set consisting of $m \times n$ tuples of the form $\langle A_1,...,A_m,B_1,...,B_n \rangle$ where the tuples have m+n attributes.
- Example: R={<1,abc>,<2,cabel>},
 S={<cabel,300,25>,<sin,190,15>,<cod,60,5>},
 R × S={<1,abc,cabel,300,25>,<1,abc,sin,190,15>,
 <1,abc,cod,60,5>,<2,cabel,cabel,300,25>,
 <2,cabel,sin,190,15>,<2,cabel,cod,60,5>}

R×S: SELECT * FROM R CROSS JOIN S;



5.3 Relational Algebra



- 5.3.1 Relational Algebra and Its Components
- 5.3.2 Relational Algebra Operations
- **5.3.3** Business Process Modeling and Its Tools (Languages)
 - Business Process Modeling Tools
 - Workflow Net and Its Components
 - WF-net Transition Types
 - Formal Definition of WF-net

5.3.4 Business Process Modeling and Its Tools (Languages) Business Process Modeling Tools



- Business Process Modeling (BPM) is a method for graphically representing internal processes within an organization.
- BPM is an interdisciplinary application of several branches of discrete mathematics—such as graph theory, logic, and automata theory—and represents an advanced application level of system behavior modeling based on discrete mathematics.
- Popular Business Process Modeling Tools and Languages:
 - Petri Nets
 - Workflow Net
 - UML Activity Diagrams
 - BPMN (Business Process Model and Notation)
 - EPC (Event-driven Process Chain)



5.3.4 Business Process Modeling and Its Tools (Languages) Workflow Net and Its Components



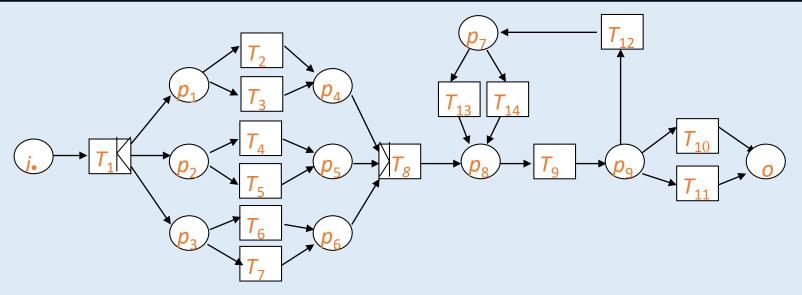
- Petri Net is a mathematical modeling language consisting of places, transitions, and tokens. It can accurately describe and analyze the dynamic behavior of complex systems.
- A WF-net is a specialized Petri net that adds start and end constraints for workflows, using sets, relations, and functions to enhance business process modeling and analysis.

WF-net Components:

Component	Symbol / Notation	Description
Place P	0	condition or state
Transition <i>T</i>		activity or task
Flow Relation <i>F</i>	\rightarrow	control flow connection
Start Place i	o (no input)	start place
End Place o	o (no output)	end place
Net Definition	N = (P, T, F)	triple of P , T , and F







T₁: Receive the paper, invite three reviewers.

 T_2, T_4, T_6, T_{13} : Receive review comments on time.

 T_3, T_5, T_7, T_{14} : Do not receive review comments on time;

T₈: Summarize review comments.

*T*₉: Decide whether to accept the paper; ;

 T_{10} : Accept the paper; ;

T₁₁: Reject the paper; ;

T₁₂: Re-invite other reviewers;



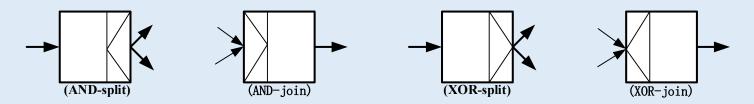
WF-net Transition Types



WF-net Transition Types:

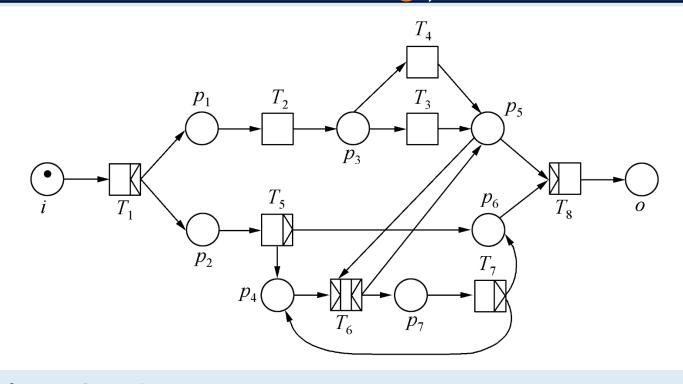
Туре	Structure	Description	
Normal	One input → One output	Executes a single task in sequence	
AND-split	One input → Multiple outputs	Starts parallel branches	
AND-join	Multiple inputs → One output	Waits for all branches to continue	
XOR-split	One input \rightarrow One of several outputs	Selects one path based on condition	
XOR-join	One of several inputs \rightarrow One output	Any path completes to proceed	
Loop	Output reconnects to earlier place	Repeats a task until condition met	
Cancel/Inter rupt	Interrupts flow	End a process branch prematurely	

WF-net Control-flow Operator Symbols:









Place Set P:

i: Start;

o: End

 $p_1, p_2, p_3, ..., p_7$: Intermediate places

Meaning of Transition Set T:

T₁: Register

T₂: Send out survey

T₃: Process survey

*T*₄: Handle expiration

T₅: Evaluate complaints

T₆: Handle complaints

 T_7 : Check processing results

T₈: Archive



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- Formal Definition of WF-net
- WF_net is a triple < P, T, F > , P: Set of places, T: Set of transitions, F: Flow relation.
 - (1) $P \cap T = \emptyset$; (2) $P \cup T \neq \emptyset$; (3) $F \subseteq P \times T \cup T \times P$;
 - (4) $dom F \cup ran F = P \cup T$, where $dom F = \{x \mid \exists y (\langle x, y \rangle \in F)\}$, $ran F = \{y \mid \exists x (\langle x, y \rangle \in F)\}$;
 - (5) There exists a starting place $i \in P$, such that $i = \emptyset$, $i = \{j \mid \langle j, i \rangle \in F\}$ is the pre-set of i;
 - (6) There exists an ending place $o \in P$, such that $o^* = \emptyset$, $o^* = \{j \mid \langle o, j \rangle \in F\}$ is the post-set of o;
 - (7) Each node $x \in P \cup T$, lies on a path from I to o.



5.3 Relational Algebra• Brief summary



Objective:

Key Concepts:



Chapter 5: Function • Brief summary



Objective:

Key Concepts:

