

Relations, Functions, and Sequences

Relations

- An *ordered pair* can be constructed from any two mathematical objects. For example, the ordered pair $(2, 1)$ has 2 as its *first component* and 1 as its *second component*. The ordered pair $(0, 0)$ has 0 in both components. If \cdot stands for the multiplication operation then the ordered pair (\mathbb{N}, \cdot) has the set of natural numbers as its first component and multiplication as its second component.
- Two ordered pairs (a, b) and (c, d) are said to be *equal*, written $(a, b) = (c, d)$, if $a = c$ and $b = d$.
- An ordered pair is different from an unordered pair. So $(a, a) \neq \{a, a\}$, $(a, b) \neq (b, a)$, but $\{a, b\} = \{b, a\}$.
- Given two sets A and B , we define its *Cartesian product*, written $A \times B$, to be $A \times B = \{(a, b) : a \in A, b \in B\}$. For example, the plane we study in analytic geometry is simply $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ (also written \mathbb{R}^2).
- A *relation* R from A to B is some subset of $A \times B$. If $(a, b) \in R$, we say that a is *related to* b in R , and write aRb .

The empty set \emptyset is the smallest relation from A to B .

The relation $A \times B$ is the biggest relation from A to B .

- A relation R from A to A is called a *relation on* A . Here are some examples.

The unit circle U centered at the origin is a relation on \mathbb{R} since U is $\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$, a subset of \mathbb{R}^2 .

The relations $<$, \leq , $>$, \geq , $=$ and their negations are all relations on \mathbb{R} .

‘is a brother (sister, parent, sibling, etc) of’ are relations on humans.

- A relation R on A is said to be *reflexive* if aRa for all $a \in A$.
- A relation R on A is said to be *symmetric* if bRa whenever aRb .
- A relation R on A is said to be *transitive* if aRc whenever both aRb and bRc .
- (How to axiomatize equality.) A relation R on a set A is said to be an *equivalence relation* if R is *reflexive*, *symmetric*, and *transitive*.
- Show that if we define “ aRb if $a^2 - b^2$ is even”, then R is an equivalence relation on \mathbb{Z} .
- A partition of a set S is a nonempty collection of disjoint, nonempty subsets of S whose union equals S . For example, if $\mathcal{P} = \{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k\}$ is a partition of S into k subsets, then we have that (i) $S_i \neq \emptyset$ for any i , (ii) $\bigcup_{i=1}^k S_i = S$, and (iii) $S_i \cap S_j = \emptyset$ if $i \neq j$. In general, a partition may be infinite.
- Equivalence relation and partition are closely related concepts. Given an equivalence relation, there is a unique partition associated with it, and vice versa.
- Let X be any set and let \mathcal{C} be any collection of subsets of X , i.e., for every C , if $C \in \mathcal{C}$ then $C \subseteq X$. We define $\bigcup \mathcal{C}$ to be $\bigcup \mathcal{C} = \{y : y \in C \text{ for some } C \in \mathcal{C}\}$.

Let R be an equivalence relation on X . For each $a \in X$, define the *equivalence class of a* under the relation R , written $[a]_R$, to be the set of all elements of X that a is related to, i.e., $[a]_R = \{x \in X : aRx\}$.

Theorem. *For any $a, b \in X$ and any equivalence relation R on X , we have aRb if and only if $[a]_R = [b]_R$.*

Proof. Assume that a, b are any elements of X and R is any equivalence relation on X .

Suppose aRb . We will prove that $[a]_R = [b]_R$. We'll first show that $[a]_R \subseteq [b]_R$. So let c be an arbitrary element in $[a]_R$. By definition of $[a]_R$, we have aRc . So by symmetry of R , we see that cRa . By assumption, aRb . So by transitivity of R , it follows that cRb . Again by symmetry of R , we see that bRc . So by definition of $[b]_R$, we conclude that $c \in [b]_R$. We have now shown that every element in $[a]_R$ is also a member of $[b]_R$. In other words, $[a]_R \subseteq [b]_R$.

That $[b]_R \subseteq [a]_R$ can be proved in a similar way. Thus $[a]_R = [b]_R$.

Conversely, suppose that $[a]_R = [b]_R$. We will show that aRb . Since R is reflexive, we know that bRb . So by definition of $[b]_R$, we conclude that $b \in [b]_R$. Since $[a]_R = [b]_R$ by assumption, we then have that $b \in [a]_R$. So by definition of $[a]_R$, we conclude that aRb . \square

Theorem. *Let R be an equivalence relation on X . Define \mathcal{P} to be $\mathcal{P} = \{[x]_R : x \in X\}$. The collection \mathcal{P} is then a partition of X .*

Proof. To prove that \mathcal{P} is a partition of X , we have to show that

1. $[x]_R \neq \emptyset$ for all $x \in X$,
2. for any $a, b \in X$, if $[a]_R \cap [b]_R \neq \emptyset$ then $[a]_R = [b]_R$, and
3. $\bigcup \mathcal{P} = X$.

We prove item 1 as follows. Let x be an arbitrary element of X . By the reflexivity of R , we conclude xRx . This means that the equivalence class $[x]_R$ is not empty since it contains at least an element, specifically element x .

We prove item 2 as follows. Suppose a, b are any elements of X such that $[a]_R \cap [b]_R \neq \emptyset$. Let $c \in ([a]_R \cap [b]_R)$. Then $c \in [a]_R$ and $c \in [b]_R$. Since $c \in [a]_R$, we see that aRc by definition of $[a]_R$. Therefore, $[a]_R = [c]_R$ by last theorem. Since $c \in [b]_R$, we see that bRc by definition of $[b]_R$. Therefore, $[b]_R = [c]_R$ by last theorem. (Therefore, $[c]_R = [b]_R$ as well since equality of sets is an equivalence relation.) Therefore, $[a]_R = [c]_R$ and $[c]_R = [b]_R$. So $[a]_R = [b]_R$ by transitivity of set equality.

We prove item 3 as follows. Since each element of \mathcal{P} is a subset of X , we conclude that $\bigcup \mathcal{P} \subseteq X$. Now let x be an arbitrary element of X . Then $x \in [x]_R \in \mathcal{P}$. Therefore, $x \in \bigcup \mathcal{P}$. Thus, $X \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{P}$. Hence, $\bigcup \mathcal{P} = X$. \square

Theorem. *Let \mathcal{C} be any partition of X . Define R to be a relation on X by declaring that for any $a, b \in X$, it holds that aRb if and only if there exists a $C \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $a \in C$ and $b \in C$. The relation R so defined is then an equivalence relation on X .*

Proof. ... \square

- For any relation R from A to B , we define its *inverse relation* R^{-1} to be $\{(b, a) \subseteq B \times A : (a, b) \in R\}$.
- A relation R on X is called *antisymmetric* if for all $a, b \in X$ if aRb and bRa , then $a = b$. A relation R on X is called *asymmetric* if for no $a \in X$ is aRa . A relation R on X is called a *partial order* if it is reflexive, transitive, and antisymmetric. A partial order R on X is a *total order* (or *linear order*) if for all $a, b \in X$, either aRb or bRa . Let R be a partial order on X . An element a in X is called a *minimal* element if for any element $b \in X$, if bRa then $b = a$. Similarly, an element a in X is called a *maximal* element if for any element $b \in X$, if aRb then $b = a$. An element a in X is called a *minimum* element if aRb for all elements $b \in X$. An element a in X is called a *maximum* element if bRa for all elements $b \in X$.

- **Exercises:**

1. Let S be a nonempty set, and let \mathcal{C} be the collection of all subsets of S , i.e., $\mathcal{C} = \{C : C \subseteq S\}$. Prove that \subseteq is a partial order on \mathcal{C} .
Show that if $|S| > 1$, then \subseteq is not a total order.
2. Let $X = \{2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$. Define R to be a relation on X by declaring that for all $a, b \in X$, we have aRb if and only if a is factor of b . For example, $2R8$, $3R9$, but it's not true that $9R8$. Prove that R is a partial order on X .
Show that R is not a total order.
3. Prove that \leq is a total order on \mathbb{R} .
4. For each of the partial orders listed above, list all elements that are minimal, maximal, minimum, or maximum.

Functions

- A function f from set A to set B , written $f : A \rightarrow B$, is a relation from A to B such that each $a \in A$ is the first component of exactly one ordered pair. Set A is called the *domain* and set B is called the *codomain* of f . If $(a, b) \in f$, we write $b = f(a)$ and call b the *image of a under f* .

The *range of f* is defined to be $\{b \in B : b = f(a) \text{ for some } a\}$.

- A function f is *injective (1-1)* if $f(a) = f(a') \implies a = a'$ for all a, a' .

A function is *surjective (onto)* if its range equals its codomain.

A function is *bijective (1-1 and onto)* if it is both injective and surjective.

- **Theorem.** A function $f : A \rightarrow A$ that is 1-1 (onto) is not necessarily onto (1-1) unless A is finite.

Proof. ...

□

- Given functions $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : B \rightarrow C$ we define the *composite function $g \circ f$* to be the function from A to C such that $(g \circ f)(a) = g(f(a))$ for all $a \in A$.

- **Theorem 2.4** (Appendix 2, CZ). If $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : B \rightarrow C$ are bijective, then $g \circ f$ is bijective.

Proof. ...

□

- **Theorem 2.5** (Appendix 2, CZ). If $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a function, then f^{-1} is a bijective function if and only if f is bijective.

Proof. ...

□

- A permutation of A is any bijective $f : A \rightarrow A$.
- $|A| = |B|$ if there is a bijection $f : A \rightarrow B$

Sequences

- Let S be any nonempty set. A infinite sequence in S is a function from \mathbb{N} to S . A finite sequence in S is a function from $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$ to S for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
- We usually write a sequence by enumerating its range like so

$$\langle a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots \rangle$$

or like so

$$(s_0, s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4, s_5)$$

or even like so

$$v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4.$$

- We sometimes start counting from 1 instead of 0. So it's common to also see a sequence written as

$$v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5$$

etc.