

Sets, functions and binary relations

5.0

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1 Sets, sets operations

1.0.1 Definitions and notations

Definition 1.0.1 *A set is the mathematical model for a collection of different things (objects); a set contains elements or members, which can be mathematical objects of any kind : A class of students, numbers, symbols, points in space, lines, other geometrical shapes, variables, or even other sets.*

The notation $a \in A$ stands for the statement a belongs to A (a is an element of A). The negation of $a \in A$ is denoted by $a \notin A$.

1. If A is finite, the cardinality of A is the number of its elements denoted by $\text{card}A$.
2. A particular set is the empty set, denoted \emptyset which is the set containing no element.

Here's another way to define sets : a collection of elements that satisfy a property. We then write :

$$E = \{x, P(x)\}.$$

Example 1.0.1

$$\{x \in \mathbb{R} / -1 \leq x \leq 1\} = [-1, 1].$$

Example 1.0.2

1. The set of (positive, negative and zero) integers by

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{m - n/m, n \in \mathbb{N}\} = \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}.$$

2. The set of rational numbers (ratios of integers) by $\mathbb{Q} = \left\{ \frac{p}{q} : p, q \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } q \neq 0 \right\}$.
3. The set of complex numbers : $\mathbb{C} = \{x + iy : x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$.

Where we add and multiply complex numbers in the natural way, with the additional identity that $i^2 = -1$, meaning that i is a square root of -1 . If $z = x + iy \in \mathbb{C}$, we call x the real part of z and y the imaginary part of z , and we call $|z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ the absolute value, or modulus, of z .

Axiom 1.1 (Axiom of extension) *Let A and B be sets. Then, $A = B$ if and only if for all x ($x \in A$ if and only if $x \in B$).*

Thus, two sets A and B are equal if they have same members. Two equal sets are treated as same.

1.1 Inclusion

Definition 1.1.1 Let A and B be sets. We say that A is a **subset of B** (A is contained in B or B contains A) if every member of A is a member of B . The statement A is a subset of B is the same as the statement : For all x (if $x \in A$, then $x \in B$). The notation $A \subseteq B$ stands for the statement A is a subset of B . Thus, $A = B$ if and only if $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$. The negation of $A \subseteq B$ is denoted by $A \not\subseteq B$ it stands for the statement : There exists $x / x \in A$ and $x \notin B$.

1. Every set is a subset of itself, because : For all x (if $x \in A$, then $x \in A$) is a tautology (always a true statement).
2. By convention, for any set E we have $\emptyset \subset E$.

Cardinality of $\emptyset = |\emptyset| = 0$.

3. If $A \subseteq B$ and $A \neq B$, then we say that A is a proper subset of B . The notation $A \subset B$ stands for the statement A is a proper subset of B .

Proposition 1.1.1 If $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq C$, then $A \subseteq C$.

1.2 Power set of E .

Definition 1.2.1 Let E be a set. We call Power set of E , the set denoted $\mathcal{P}(E)$, defined by :

$$\mathcal{P}(E) = \{X, X \subseteq E\}$$

By definition we have : $\emptyset \in \mathcal{P}(E)$ et $E \in \mathcal{P}(E)$.

For example if $E = \{1, 2, 3\}$: $\mathcal{P}(E) = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 3\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$.

Remark 1.2.1 1. We have $\{a\} \subset E$ and $\{a\} \in \mathcal{P}(E)$.

2. If $\text{card } E = n$, then $\text{card } \mathcal{P}(E) = 2^n$.
For $E = \{1, 2, 3\}$, $\mathcal{P}(E)$ have $2^3 = 8$ parts.
3. The cardinality of $\mathcal{P}(\emptyset) = 1$.

Partition

We call partition of a set any family $F \subset E$ such that :

1. The elements of F are disjoint two by two (see example 1.4.1).
2. F is an overlay of E .

Example 1.2.1 1. $E = \mathbb{N}$, $P = \{2k / k \in \mathbb{N}\}$, $I = \{2k + 1 / k \in \mathbb{N}\}$.

$F = \{P, I\}$ is a partition of E .

2. $E = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$. Then the subsets : $\{0, 1, 2\}$, $\{3, 5, 7\}$, $\{4, 6\}$ et $\{8\}$ constitute a partition of E .

1.3 Set Complement

Definition 1.3.1 Let A be a subset of E . We call Set Complement of A in E , and we note \mathcal{C}_E^A , the set of elements of E which do not belong to A .

$$\mathcal{C}_E^A = \{x \in E \mid x \notin A\}.$$

We also note $E \setminus A$ and just $\mathcal{C}A$ if there is no ambiguity (and sometimes also A^c or \overline{A}).

Example 1.3.1 Let $A = \mathbb{N}$ and $E = \mathbb{Z}$, then $\mathcal{C}_E^A = \{-x \mid x \in \mathbb{N}\}$.

Let A and B be sets.

there is a unique set defined by $\{x \in B \mid x \notin A\}$. This set is denoted by $B - A$, and it B difference A . Clearly, $B - A$ is a subset of A .

1.4 Operations on sets

1.4.1 Intersection

Let A and B be sets. The set $\{x \in A \mid x \in B\}$ is denoted by $A \cap B$ and it is called the intersection of A and B . Thus, $x \in A \cap B$ if and only if $x \in A$ and $x \in B$.

Proposition 1.4.1 Algebraic properties of the intersection

Let A, B, C be sets. We have the relationships :

1. $A \cap B = B \cap A$ [Commutativity].
2. $A \cap B \subseteq A$ and $A \cap B \subseteq B$.
3. If $[C \subseteq A$ and $C \subseteq B]$, then $C \subseteq A \cap B$.
4. $A \cap A = A$.
5. If $A \subset B$, then $A \cap B = A$.
6. $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$ [absorbent element].
7. $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$. [Associativity] (we can therefore write $A \cap B \cap C$ without ambiguity).

Example 1.4.1 If we have $A \cap B = \emptyset$, we say that the sets A and B are **disjoint**.

We can take as an example :

$$]-1, 1] \cap]0, 2] =]0, 1], \text{ or also } \{x \in \mathbb{R}, x^2 \geq 5\} \cap \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x^2 - 4x + 3 < 0\} = [\sqrt{5}, 3[.$$

1.5 Union

For $A, B \subset E$. The set $A \cup B = \{x \in E \mid x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$ is called the union of A and B . Thus, $x \in A \cup B$ if and only if $x \in A$ or $x \in B$.

The "or" is not exclusive : x can belong to A and B at the same time.

Proposition 1.5.1 Algebraic properties of the union.

Let A, B, C be sets. We have the relationships :

1. $A \cup B = B \cup A$ [Commutativity].

2. $A \subseteq A \cup B$ and $B \subseteq A \cap B$.
3. If $[A \subseteq C \text{ and } B \subseteq C]$, then $A \cup B \subseteq C$.
4. $A \cup A = A$.
5. If $A \subset B$, then $A \cup B = B$.
6. $A \cup \emptyset = A$ [Identity].
7. $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap C$. [Associativity].

Example 1.5.1 1. $E = \mathbb{R}$, $A =]-\infty, 3]$, $B =]-1, 5[$. Then

$$A \cap B =]-1, 3], \quad A \cup B =]-\infty, 5[\quad A - B =]-\infty, -1]$$

2. $E = \mathbb{R}$, $A = [-3, 3]$, $B = [0, 1]$. Then

$$A \setminus B = [-3, 0[\cup]1, 3].$$

$$B \setminus A = \emptyset.$$

3. We call **symmetric difference** of A and B , and we denote by $A \Delta B$ the set defined by :

$$A \Delta B = (A \cup B) \setminus (A \cap B) = (A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A).$$

We clearly see that the symmetric difference of the sets is not commutative.

1.6 Calculation rules

Let A , B , C parts of a set E . We have :

1. $A \subset B \Leftrightarrow A \cap B = A$.
 2. $A \subset B \Leftrightarrow A \cup B = B$.
 3. $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$, $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$.
 4. $\mathbb{C}_E^A = A$ and so $A \subset B \Leftrightarrow \mathbb{C}_E^B \subset \mathbb{C}_E^A$.
 5. $\mathbb{C}_E^{A \cap B} = \mathbb{C}_E^A \cup \mathbb{C}_E^B$.
 6. $\mathbb{C}_E^{A \cup B} = \mathbb{C}_E^A \cap \mathbb{C}_E^B$.
- (5 and 6 **Morgan's Laws**).

1.7 Cartesian product of sets

Let E and F be two sets. The Cartesian product, denoted $E \times F$, is the set of all ordered pairs (x, y) where $x \in E$ and $y \in F$. Hence,

$$E \times F = \{(x, y) / x \in E \wedge y \in F\}$$

Example 1.7.1 $[0, 1] \times \mathbb{R} = \{(x, y) / 0 \leq x \leq 1, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$

2 Function

Definition 2.0.1 A function $f : E \rightarrow F$ between sets E, F assigns to each $x \in E$ a unique element $f(x) \in F$. Functions are also called maps, mappings, or transformations.

A map or function of E in F associates with every element of E a unique element of F denoted $f(x)$.

If f is a map from E to F , and (x, y) an element of $E \times F$ verifying the relation f , we write

$$f : E \rightarrow F \\ x \mapsto y$$

Example 2.0.1 The identity function $id_E : E \rightarrow E$ on a set E is the function $id_E : x \mapsto x$ that maps every element to itself.

Let $E = \mathbb{R}^+$ and $F = \mathbb{R}$.

We consider the relation f_1 given by :

$$(x, y) \in E \times F \quad \text{vérifies } f_1 \Leftrightarrow y^2 = x$$

For given x there exists $y_1 = \sqrt{x}$ and $y_2 = -\sqrt{x}$, then f is not an application.

1. The element $f(x) \in F$ is called the image of element $x \in E$ through application f .
2. E on which f is defined is called the domain of f and the set F in which it takes its values is called the range. f is an application defined on E with values in F .
3. **The graphic** of the application (function) $f : E \rightarrow F$ denoted by G_f :

$$G_f = \{(x, f(x)) \in (E \times F) / x \in E\}.$$

4. **The equality of applications.** Two applications $f, g : E \rightarrow F$ are called equal if and only if they have the same domain, the same codomain, the equality $f = g$ is equivalent to say : for all $x \in E$, $f(x) = g(x)$. We then note $f = g$.

Definition 2.0.2 The range, or **image**, of a function $f : E \rightarrow F$ is the set of values

$$\text{ran } f = \{y \in F : y = f(x) \text{ for some } x \in E\}.$$

A function is **onto** if its range is all of F ; that is, if for every $y \in F$ there exists $x \in E$ such that $y = f(x)$.

A function is **one-to-one** if it maps distinct elements of E to distinct elements of F ; that is, if $x_1, x_2 \in E$ and $x_1 \neq x_2$ implies that $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$.

An onto function is also called a **surjection**, a one-to-one function an **injection**, and a one-to-one, onto function a **bijection**.

Example 2.0.2 Consider the maps f, g and h given by :

$$f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+ \quad g : \mathbb{R}_- \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ x \mapsto x^2 \quad , \quad x \mapsto x^2 \quad .$$

1. Let $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$, then $x_1^2 = x_2^2$ and so $|x_1| = |x_2|$. For $x_1 = -2 \neq x_2 = 2$, we have $f(-2) = f(2) = 4$, then f is an injection.

2. For all $y \in \mathbb{R}_+$, $\exists x \in \mathbb{R}$, $x = \sqrt{y}$, such that $y = f(x) = x^2$.
Thus, the map f is a surjection.
3. Let $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}_-$ such that $g(x_1) = g(x_2)$, then $x_1^2 = x_2^2$ and therefore $|x_1| = |x_2|$, i.e. $-x_1 = -x_2$ and therefore $x_1 = x_2$. Thus g is an injection. For $x_1 = -2 \neq x_2 = 2$, we have $f(-2) = f(2) = 4$, then f is not an injection.
4. For $y = -1$, the equation $-1 = g(x) = x^2$ has no solution. Thus, the map g is not a surjection.

Composition and inverses of functions

The successive application of mappings leads to the notion of the composition of functions.

Definition 2.0.3 The composition of functions $f : E \rightarrow F$ and $g : F \rightarrow G$, is the application $g \circ f : E \rightarrow G$ defined by

$$g \circ f(x) = g(f(x)).$$

The order of application of the functions in a composition is crucial and is read from right to left.

The composition $g \circ f$ can only be defined if the domain of g includes the range of f , and the existence of $g \circ f$ does not imply that $f \circ g$ even makes sense.

Example 2.0.3 Let X be the set of students in a class and $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ the function that maps a student to her age. Let $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be the function that adds up the digits in a number e.g., $g(1729) = 19$. If $x \in X$ is 23 years old, then $(g \circ f)(x) = 5$, but $(f \circ g)(x)$ makes no sense, since students in the class are not natural numbers. Even if both $g \circ f$ and $f \circ g$ are defined, they are, in general, different functions.

Let f be a map from E to F . Then f is bijective if and only if there exists a map g from F to E such that $g \circ f = I_E$ and $f \circ g = I_F$. Further, then $g = f^{-1}$.

Example 2.0.4 1. Let us define f, g thus :

$$f :]0, +\infty[\rightarrow]0, +\infty[$$

$$x \mapsto \frac{1}{x}.$$

$$g :]0, +\infty[\rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$x \mapsto \frac{x-1}{x+1}.$$

Then $g \circ f :]0, +\infty[\rightarrow \mathbb{R} :$

$$g \circ f(x) = g(f(x)) = g\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = \frac{\frac{1}{x} - 1}{\frac{1}{x} + 1} = \frac{1 - x}{1 + x} = -g(x).$$

2.1 Image, Inverse image

Let f be a map from E to F . Let $A \subset E$ and $B \subset F$. The subset

$$f(A) = \{f(x) \mid x \in A\}.$$

of F is called **the image of A** under the map f .

To say that f is surjective is to say that $f(E) = F$.

The subset

$$f^{-1}(B) = \{x \in E \mid f(x) \in B\}.$$

of E is called the **inverse image** of B under f .

What are $f^{-1}(F)$ and $f^{-1}(\emptyset)$?

Proposition 2.1.1 *Let f be a map from E to F and $A \subseteq E$. Then $A \subseteq f^{-1}(f(A))$. Also $A = f^{-1}(f(A))$ for all $A \subseteq E$ if and only if f is injective.*

Proof(See tutorial series)

Proposition 2.1.2 *Let f be a map from E to F and $B \subseteq F$. Then $f(f^{-1}(B)) \subseteq B$. Also $B = f(f^{-1}(B))$ for all $B \subseteq F$ if and only if f is surjective.*

Proof(See tutorial series)

Proposition 2.1.3 *Let f be a map from E to F . Let A_1 and A_2 be subsets of E . Then*

1. $f(A_1 \cup A_2) = f(A_1) \cup f(A_2)$.
2. $f(A_1 \cap A_2) \subseteq f(A_1) \cap f(A_2)$.

Further, in (ii), equality holds for every pair of subsets A_1 and A_2 of E if and only if f is injective.

Lemme 2.1.1 *Let f be a map from E to F . Let A_1 and A_2 be subsets of E , Let B_1 and B_2 be subsets of F . Then*

$$\begin{aligned} A_1 \subset A_2 &\Rightarrow f(A_1) \subset f(A_2), \\ B_1 \subset B_2 &\Rightarrow f^{-1}(B_1) \subset f^{-1}(B_2). \end{aligned}$$

Proposition 2.1.4 *Let f be a map from E to F . Let B_1 and B_2 be subsets of F . Then*

1. $f^{-1}(B_1 \cup B_2) = f^{-1}(B_1) \cup f^{-1}(B_2)$.
2. $f^{-1}(B_1 \cap B_2) = f^{-1}(B_1) \cap f^{-1}(B_2)$.

Example 2.1.1 *Define $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $f(x) = x^2$.*

1. $A =]-2, 2[\quad f(A) = [0, 4[$
2. $B =]0, 4[\quad f^{-1}(B) =]-2, 0[\cup]0, 2[.$
3. $C =]-4, 0[\quad f^{-1}(C) = \emptyset.$

Example 2.1.2 *We consider the map f given by :*

$$\begin{aligned} f : \mathbb{R}^* &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ x &\longmapsto 2 + \frac{1}{x^2}. \end{aligned}$$

1. Consider $A = [-1, 0[$, then the image of A under the map f is :

$$f(A) = \left\{ 2 + \frac{1}{x^2} / x \in [-1, 0[\right\} = [3, +\infty[.$$

Indeed, for $-1 \leq x < 0$ we have $2 + \frac{1}{x^2} \geq 3$.

2. Consider $B = [3, +\infty[$, then the inverse image of B under f is :

$$f^{-1}(B) = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^* / 2 + \frac{1}{x^2} \in [3, +\infty[\right\} = [-1, 0[\cup]0, 1].$$

Indeed, for $2 + \frac{1}{x^2} \geq 3$ we have $\frac{1}{x^2} \geq 1$ which leads to $x^2 \leq 1$ and so $x \in [-1, 0[\cup]0, 1]$.

Example 2.1.3 We consider the map $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by :

$$f(x) = x^2,$$

Let $A = [-1, 4]$.

1. *The image of A under f :*

$$f(A) = f([-1, 4]) = \{f(x) \in \mathbb{R} / -1 \leq x \leq 4\}.$$

however $[-1, 4] = [-1, 0] \cup [0, 4]$, then

$$f([-1, 4]) = f([-1, 0] \cup [0, 4]) = f([-1, 0]) \cup f([0, 4]),$$

It's clear that $-1 \leq x \leq 0 \Rightarrow 0 \leq x^2 \leq 1$ et $0 \leq x \leq 4 \Rightarrow 0 \leq x^2 \leq 16$.

So $f([-1, 4]) = [0, 1] \cup [0, 16] = [0, 16]$.

2. *The inverse of A under f.*

$$f^{-1}([-1, 4]) = f^{-1}([-1, 0]) \cup f^{-1}([0, 4]).$$

however

$$f^{-1}([-1, 0]) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} / -1 \leq f(x) \leq 0\} = \{0\},$$

and

$$f^{-1}([0, 4]) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} / 0 \leq f(x) \leq 4\}$$

It is clear that $0 \leq f(x) \leq 4 \Leftrightarrow 0 \leq x^2 \leq 4 \Leftrightarrow 0 \leq |x| \leq 2 \Leftrightarrow -2 \leq x \leq 2$.

So

$$f^{-1}([0, 4]) = [-2, 2]$$

From where

$$f^{-1}([-1, 4]) = \{0\} \cup [-2, 2] = [-2, 2].$$

3 Relations

Definition 3.0.1 A binary relation \mathcal{R} on sets E and F is a definite relation between elements of E and elements of F . We write $x\mathcal{R}y$ if $x \in E$ and $y \in F$ are related. If $E = F$, then we call \mathcal{R} a relation on E .

Example 3.0.1 Suppose that S is a set of students enrolled in a university and B is a set of books in a library. We might define a relation \mathcal{R} on S and B by :
 $s \in S$ has read $b \in B$. In that case, $s\mathcal{R}b$ if and only if s has read b . Another, probably inequivalent relation is : $s \in S$ has checked $b \in B$ out of the library.

For sets, it doesn't matter how a relation is defined, only what elements are related. Let us give some examples to illustrate this definition.

Example 3.0.2 1. For $E = \mathbb{R}$, consider the property \mathcal{R}_1 defined by :

(x, y) check property \mathcal{R}_1 if $y = x^2$. Thus, we do have $\mathcal{R}_1(2, 4)$ and $\mathcal{R}_1(-2, 4)$ but we do not have $\mathcal{R}_1(2, 2)$

2. For $E = \mathbb{N}$ consider the property $\mathcal{R}_2(x, y)$ defined by :
 (x, y) checks the property \mathcal{R}_2 if x divides y , this means that there exists $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $y = kx$. Thus, we have $\mathcal{R}_2(0, 0)$ and $\mathcal{R}_2(2, 0)$, but we do not have $\mathcal{R}_2(0, 2)$

In a set E , when a pair (x, y) satisfies a relation \mathcal{R} , we write $\mathcal{R}(x, y)$ or $x\mathcal{R}y$. This last notation is adopted for the following, we then say that : “ x is related to y by the relation \mathcal{R} ”.

Example 3.0.3 Let $P(E)$ be the set of all parts of a set E . We define the relation \mathcal{R} in $P(E)$ by :

$$\forall A, B \in P(E), \quad A\mathcal{R}B \Leftrightarrow A \subset B,$$

$$\forall A \in P(E), \quad \emptyset \subset A, \quad \text{alors} \quad \forall A \in P(E), \quad \emptyset\mathcal{R}A.$$

Definition 3.0.2 The graph $Gr_{\mathcal{R}}$ of a relation \mathcal{R} on E and F is the subset of $E \times F$ defined by :

$$Gr_{\mathcal{R}} = \{(x, y) \in E \times F / x\mathcal{R}y\}$$

This graph contains all of the information about which elements are related.

Example 3.0.4 In $E = \mathbb{R}$, we define the relation \mathcal{R} by :

$$x\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow x^2 + y^2 < 1$$

Then, $Gr_{\mathcal{R}} = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 / x^2 + y^2 < 1\}$ is the inside of the unit disk.

3.1 Properties of binary relations in a set

Let E a set and let \mathcal{R} a relation defined on E .

3.1.1 The equivalence Relation

The binary relation \mathcal{R} is called

1. **Reflexive**, if $\forall x \in E, x\mathcal{R}x$.
2. **Symmetrical**, if $\forall x, y \in E, x\mathcal{R}y \Rightarrow y\mathcal{R}x$.
3. **transitive**, if $\forall x, y, z \in E, (x\mathcal{R}y) \wedge (y\mathcal{R}z) \Rightarrow x\mathcal{R}z$.
4. **Anti-symmetrical**, if $\forall x, y \in E, (x\mathcal{R}y) \wedge (y\mathcal{R}x) \Rightarrow x = y$.
5. **Equivalence relation on E**, if it is reflexive, symmetrical and transitive.

Example 3.1.1 1. Equality in any set is reflexive, symmetrical and transitive.

2. The inclusion in $P(E)$ is reflexive, non-symmetrical, anti-symmetrical and transitive.

3. In \mathbb{R} , the relation "... \leq ..." is reflexive, non-symmetrical, antisymmetrical and transitive.

3.2 The equivalence relation

Definition 3.2.1 *The binary relation \mathcal{R} on a set E is called equivalence relation if it is reflexive, symmetrical and transitive.*

Example 3.2.1 *In the plane \mathcal{P} , the relation "...is parallel..." is an equivalence relation.*

Let \mathcal{R} be an equivalence relation on set E . For each element $x \in E$, the set

$$\bar{x} = \mathcal{R}_x = \{y \in E / x\mathcal{R}y\}$$

is called the equivalence class of x modulo \mathcal{R} (or in relation to \mathcal{R}), and the set $E/\mathcal{R} = \{\bar{x} / x \in E\}$ is called a factor set (or quotient set) of E through \mathcal{R} .

The properties of the equivalence classes. Let \mathcal{R} be an equivalence relation on set E and $x, y \in E$. Then, the following affirmations have effect :

1. $x \in \mathcal{R}_x$,
2. $\mathcal{R}_x = \mathcal{R}_y \Leftrightarrow x\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow y \in \mathcal{R}_x$
3. $\mathcal{R}_x \neq \mathcal{R}_y \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}_x \cap \mathcal{R}_y = \emptyset$,
4. $\sqcup_{x \in E} \mathcal{R}_x = E$.

Partitions on a set. Let E be a non-empty set. A family of subsets $\{E_i / i \in I\}$ of E is called a partition on E (or of E), if the following conditions are met :

1. $i \in I \Rightarrow E_i \neq \emptyset$,
2. $E_i \neq E_j \Rightarrow E_i \cap E_j = \emptyset$,
3. $\sqcup_{i \in I} E_i = E$.

Théorème 3.2.1 *For any equivalence relation \mathcal{R} on set E , the factor set $E/\mathcal{R} = \{\mathcal{R}_x / x \in E\}$ is a partition of E .*

Example 3.2.2 *We define on set $E = \mathbb{Z}$ the binary relation \mathcal{R} according to the equivalence*

$$\forall a, b \in E, \quad a\mathcal{R}b \Leftrightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} : \quad a = b + kn,$$

where $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$, n fixed.

1. Prove that \mathcal{R} is an equivalence relation on \mathbb{Z} .
2. Determine the structure of the classes of equivalence.
3. Form the factor set \mathbb{Z}/\mathcal{R} . Application : $n = 3$.

We have :

1. Reflexivity : $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad \exists k = 0 \in \mathbb{Z} : \quad a = b + kn = a + 0n$, so $a\mathcal{R}a$.
2. Symmetry : $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad a\mathcal{R}b \Leftrightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} : \quad a = b + kn$ so $\exists(-k) \in \mathbb{Z} : \quad b = a + (-k)n$ and so $b\mathcal{R}a$.
3. Transitivity : $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad (a\mathcal{R}b \Leftrightarrow \exists k_1 \in \mathbb{Z} : \quad a = b + k_1n) \wedge (b\mathcal{R}c \Leftrightarrow \exists k_2 \in \mathbb{Z} : \quad b = c + k_2n) \Rightarrow a = b + k_1n = (c + k_2n) + k_1n = c + (k_2 + k_1)n = c + k_3n$ so $a\mathcal{R}c$.

From 1) - 3) it follows that \mathcal{R} is an equivalence relation on \mathbb{Z} .

Let's determine the class of equivalence of an element $x \in E$:

The class of equivalence of $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ will be denoted \mathcal{R}_x or \bar{x} and given by

$$\bar{x} = \{y \in \mathbb{Z} / y\mathcal{R}x\}$$

$$\bar{x} = \{y \in \mathbb{Z} / y = x + kn, \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

$$\bar{x} = \{x + kn \in \mathbb{Z} / k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

In the case $n = 3$, let us give the classes of equivalence of $x = 0, x = 1$ and $x = 2$, their respective classes of equivalence are $\bar{0}$, $\bar{1}$ and $\bar{2}$ and are given by :

$$\bar{0} = \{3k / k \in \mathbb{Z}\},$$

$$\bar{1} = \{3k + 1 / k \in \mathbb{Z}\},$$

$$\bar{2} = \{3k + 2 / k \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

Definition 3.2.2 The relation \mathcal{R} defined above is called a **congruency relation modulo n on \mathbb{Z}** , and class $\bar{a} = \mathcal{R}_a$ is called a **remainder class modulo n** and its elements are called the representatives of the class.

The usual notation :

$$a\mathcal{R}b \Leftrightarrow a \equiv b \pmod{n}$$

(a is congruent with b modulo n), and

$$E/\mathcal{R} = \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}.$$

Then

$$E/\mathcal{R} = \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} = \{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \dots, \overline{n-1}\}.$$

3.3 Order relations

Definition 3.3.1 A binary relation \mathcal{R} on the set E is called an order relation on E , if it is reflexive, anti-symmetrical and transitive. Usually, the relation \mathcal{R} is denoted by " \leq ".

With this notation, the conditions that " \leq " is an order relation on the set E are written :

1. reflexivity $x \in E \Rightarrow x \leq x$;
2. asymmetry $(x \leq y \wedge y \leq x) \Rightarrow x = y$;
3. transitivity $(x \leq y \wedge y \leq z) \Rightarrow x \leq z$.

The pair (E, \mathcal{R}) , where E is a set and \mathcal{R} an order relation, is called an ordered set.

Definition 3.3.2 Let (E, \mathcal{R}) be an ordered set. The relationship \mathcal{R} is called a **total order relation** if any two elements of E are comparable i.e. For all $x, y \in E$ we have either $x\mathcal{R}y$, or $y\mathcal{R}x$:

$$\forall x, y \in E, \quad (x\mathcal{R}y \vee y\mathcal{R}x)$$

We also say that E is totally ordered by the relation \mathcal{R} . Otherwise, the order is said to be **partial**.

Example 3.3.1 Orders

1. A primary example of an order is the standard order $\dots \leq \dots$ on the natural (or real) numbers. This order is a linear or total order, meaning that two numbers are always comparable.
2. Another example of an order is inclusion $\dots \subset \dots$ on the power set of some set; one set is "smaller" than another set if it is included in it. This order is a partial order (provided the original set has at least two elements), meaning that two subsets need not be comparable.
So, if $E = \{a, b\}$, the inclusion in $P(E)$ is a partial order relation. In fact we have $\{a\} \not\subseteq \{b\}$ and $\{b\} \not\subseteq \{a\}$
3. On $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$, we define the relation \mathcal{R} by

$$\forall (x, y), (x', y') \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}, (x, y) \mathcal{R} (x', y') \Leftrightarrow ((x \leq x') \wedge (y \leq y'))$$

It is easy to show that \mathcal{R} is an order relation. the order is not total order.

Indeed, for $(x, y) = (1, 2)$ and $(x', y') = (3, 1)$, we have $1 \leq 3$ and $2 \not\leq 1$ therefore $(1, 2)$ is not related to $(3, 1)$, similarly we find $(3, 1)$ is not related to $(1, 2)$.