

Chapter 5

5.1 Relations

Definition 16 Let S be a set. If x and y are elements of the set S , then the pair (x, y) is called an **ordered pair** of elements in S . For the ordered pair, (x, y) , x is called the **first element** and y is called the **second element** of the order pair. Two ordered pairs, (x, y) and (u, v) are **equal** means $x = u$ and $y = v$. The collection of ordered pairs with all elements of the set S as first and second elements is called the **Cartesian product of S with itself**, denoted by $S \times S$.

Definition 17 Let S and T be sets. S is a **subset** of T means every element of S is an element of T . S is **equal** to T means S is a subset of T and T is a subset of S .

Definition 18 Let S be a set. A **relation** R on S is any subset of $S \times S$. The **domain** of the relation R on S is the set of all first elements in R and the **range** of the relation R on S is the set of all second elements in R .

Definition 19 Let S be a set and R be a relation on S . R is called an **equivalence relation** on S means each of the following is true:

1. For every x in S , (x, x) is in R . This is called the **reflexive property**.
2. If (x, y) is in R , then (y, x) is in R . This is called the **symmetric property**.
3. If each of (x, y) and (y, z) is in R , then (x, z) is in R . This is called the **transitive property**.

Remark 1 For simplicity, given a set S and an equivalence relation R on S , we shall sometimes use the notation xRy to mean (x, y) is in R .

Example 1 Let N denote the set of natural numbers and let $S = N \times N$. If each of (x, y) and (u, v) is an element of S , we define the relation R on S to be the subset of $S \times S$ such that

$$R = \{((x, y), (u, v)) : x + v = y + u\}.$$

Show R is an equivalence relation on S .

Example 2 Let N denote the set of natural numbers and let $S = N \times N$. If each of (x, y) and (u, v) is an element of S , we define the relation T on S to be the subset of $S \times S$ such that

$$T = \{((x, y), (u, v)) : x \cdot v = y \cdot u\}.$$

Show T is an equivalence relation on S .

Definition 20 Let S be a set, R be an equivalence relation on S , and also let s be an element in S . The collection of all elements y in S such that (s, y) is in R is called the **equivalence class of s** , denoted by s^R .

Example 3 Using Example ?? before, the equivalence classes of each element (a, b) in S contain arbitrarily many elements, namely

$$(a, b)^R = \{(x, y) : a + y = b + x\}.$$

List six elements of $(7, 8)^R$.

Example 4 Using Example 2, list six elements of $(7, 8)^T$.

Theorem 21 Let S denote a set and R an equivalence relation on S . If each of s and t is an element of S such that sRt , then $s^R = t^R$.

Theorem 22 Let S denote a set and R an equivalence relation on S . If each of s and t are elements of S , then either $s^R = t^R$ or s^R and t^R have no common elements.

5.2 Integers

Definition 21 (From Example 1 of the previous section) Let N denote the set of natural numbers and let $S = N \times N$. If each of (x, y) and (u, v) is an element of S , define the relation R on S to be the subset of $S \times S$ such that

$$R = \{((x, y), (u, v)) : x + v = y + u\}$$

We'll say $(x, y)R(u, v)$ to mean the pair $((x, y), (u, v))$ is in R .

Theorem 23 The relation R on S from Definition ?? is an equivalence relation on S .

Theorem 24 If R is the equivalence relation on S from Definition ??, then for each (a, b) and (c, d) in S ,

$$(a, b)^R = (c, d)^R \text{ if and only if } a + d = b + c.$$

Definition 22 Let R be the equivalence relation on S from Definition ???. Let $Z = \{(a, b)^R : (a, b) \text{ is in } S\}$. Each $(a, b)^R$ is called an integer and Z is called the set of integers.

Theorem 25 Two integers, $(a, b)^R$ and $(c, d)^R$, are equal if and only if $a + d = b + c$.

Definition 23 Let $(a, b)^R$ and $(c, d)^R$ denote integers and define the sum of $(a, b)^R$ and $(c, d)^R$, denoted by $(a, b)^R + (c, d)^R$, to be the integer $(a + c, b + d)^R$.

Theorem 26 If each of $(a, b)^R$ and $(c, d)^R$ is an integer, then

$$(a, b)^R + (c, d)^R = (c, d)^R + (a, b)^R.$$

Theorem 27 For integers, $(a, b)^R$, $(c, d)^R$, and $(e, f)^R$,

$$(a, b)^R + ((c, d)^R + (e, f)^R) = ((a, b)^R + (c, d)^R) + (e, f)^R.$$

Remark 2 The integer $(a, a)^R$ has an unusual characteristic. It is given in the next theorem. We shall call such a number an **additive identity**.

Theorem 28 If $(c, d)^R$ is any integer, then

$$(c, d)^R + (a, a)^R = (c, d)^R.$$

Theorem 29 The additive identity for the set of integers is unique and has the form that if a is a natural number, then the additive identity is $(a, a)^R$.

Theorem 30 If $(a, b)^R$, $(c, d)^R$, and $(e, f)^R$ are integers, and if $(a, b)^R + (e, f)^R = (c, d)^R + (e, f)^R$ then $(a, b)^R = (c, d)^R$.

Theorem 31 If $(c, d)^R$ is an integer, then there exists one and only one integer $(e, f)^R$ such that

$$(c, d)^R + (e, f)^R = (a, a)^R.$$

Definition 24 Given an integer $(c, d)^R$, the integer $(e, f)^R$ from the above theorem is called the **additive inverse** of $(c, d)^R$ and is denoted by $-(c, d)^R$.

5.3 Multiplication – Integers

Definition 25 If $(a, b)^R$ and $(c, d)^R$ are integers, the product of $(a, b)^R$ and $(c, d)^R$, denoted by $(a, b)^R \cdot (c, d)^R$, is the integer given by $(ac + bd, ad + bc)^R$.

Theorem 32 If $(a, b)^R$ and $(c, d)^R$ are integers, then

$$(a, b)^R \cdot (c, d)^R = (c, d)^R \cdot (a, b)^R.$$

Theorem 33 If $(a, b)^R$, $(c, d)^R$, and $(e, f)^R$ are integers, then

$$((a, b)^R \cdot (c, d)^R) \cdot (e, f)^R = (a, b)^R \cdot ((c, d)^R \cdot (e, f)^R).$$

Theorem 34 If $(c, d)^R$ is any integer, then

$$(c, d)^R \cdot (a, a)^R = (a, a)^R.$$

Definition 26 *The integer $(a + 1, a)^R$ has an important property with respect to multiplication which is given in the next theorem. $(a + 1, a)^R$ is called a **multiplicative identity**.*

Theorem 35 *If $(c, d)^R$ is any integer, then*

$$(a + 1, a)^R \cdot (c, d)^R = (c, d)^R.$$

Theorem 36 *The multiplicative identity for the set of integers is unique.*

Theorem 37 *For integers $(a, b)^R$, $(c, d)^R$, and $(e, f)^R$,*

$$(a, b)^R \cdot ((c, d)^R + (e, f)^R) = (a, b)^R \cdot (c, d)^R + (a, b)^R \cdot (e, f)^R.$$

5.4 Some New Notation

New notation. Given the integer $(a, b)^R$, we know that a, b are natural numbers so, by trichotomy, exactly one of the following is true:

1. $a = b$.
2. $a < b$.
3. $a > b$.

We shall simplify our notation for integers $(a, b)^R$ in the following way:

1. The symbol 0 denotes the integer $(a, b)^R$ when $a = b$.
2. The symbol $+p$ is used to denote the integer $(a, b)^R$ when $a > b$ and p is the natural number such that $a = b + p$. Such integers are called **positive integers**.
3. The symbol $-q$ is used to denote the integer $(a, b)^R$ when $a < b$ and q is the natural number such that $a + q = b$. These integers are called **negative integers**.

5.4.1 Exercises

1. Show that $(5, 3)^R + (2, 5)^R = (5, 6)^R$.
2. Show that $(+2) + (-3) = (-1)$.
3. If n is a natural number, then $(n, 2n)^R = -n$.
4. If n is a natural number, then $-(n, 2n)^R = +n$.
5. Prove that the product of two positive integers is a positive integer.
6. Prove that the sum of two negative integers is a negative integer.
7. Prove that the sum of two positive integers is a positive integer.
8. Prove that the product of two negative integers is a positive integer.
9. Prove that the product of a negative integer and a positive integer is a negative integer.
10. Suppose the sum of two natural numbers a, b is the natural number c . Prove that

$$(+a) + (+b) = +c.$$

11. Suppose the product of two natural numbers a, b is the natural number c , prove that

$$(+a)(+b) = +c.$$

12. Given natural numbers a, b , prove that:

(a) $-((+a) + (+b)) = (-a) + (-b)$.

(b) $(+a) + (-b) = -((+b) + (-a))$.

5.5 Order – Integers

Definition 27 Given integers a and b , we say that a is less than b , denoted by $a < b$, provided there is a positive integer p such that $a + p = b$. Also $a > b$ if and only if $b < a$; $a \leq b$ if and only if $a < b$ or $a = b$; and $a \geq b$ if and only if $a > b$ or $a = b$.

Theorem 38 An integer a is positive if and only if $a > 0$.

Theorem 39 An integer a is negative if and only if $a < 0$.

Theorem 40 If a and b are integers, then exactly one of the following holds:

1. $a = b$.
2. $a < b$.
3. $a > b$.

Theorem 41 Let a , b , and c denote integers. If $a < b$ and $b < c$, then $a < c$.

Remark 3 Note that since the integers have both trichotomy and transitive properties, the set of integers is an **ordered set**.

Theorem 42 If a , b , and c are integers and $a < b$, then $a + c < b + c$.

Theorem 43 If a , b , and c are integers and $a + c < b + c$, then $a < b$.

Theorem 44 If a , b , and c are integers and $a < b$ and $c > 0$, then $ac < bc$.

Theorem 45 If a , b , and c are integers and $a < b$ and $c < 0$, then $ac > bc$.

Theorem 46 If a , b , and c are integers, c is not 0 and $ac = bc$, then $a = b$.

5.5.1 Exercises

1. If a and b are integers, show that $ab = 0$ if and only if $a = 0$ or $b = 0$.
2. Show there is no integer a such that $2a = 1$.
3. Show that for integers a and b , $ab = 1$ if and only if $a = b = 1$ or $a = b = -1$.
4. Show that if a , b , c are integers such that $ac < bc$ and $c > 0$, then $a < b$.
5. Show that if a , b , c are integers such that $ac < bc$ and $c < 0$, then $a > b$.

5.6 A New Relation

Theorem 47 *Let Z be the set of integers and let $S = Z \times (Z - \{0\})$. Note that if a pair (a, b) is in S , then b is not 0. Prove that the relation F on S given by*

$$F = \{((a, b), (c, d)) : ad = bc\}$$

is an equivalence relation on S .

Example 5 *Using the relation F above, list six elements in each of the following equivalence class: $(2, 3)^F$, $(5, 1)^F$, $(-7, 14)^F$, $(-6, -2)^F$, and $(0, 10)^F$.*