



Foundation of Mathematics 1

CHAPTER 3 RELATIONS ON SETS

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Chapter Three

Relations on Sets

3.1 Cartesian Product

Definition 3.1.1. A set A is called

- (i) **finite** set if A contains finite number of element, say n , and denote that by $|A| = n$. The symbol $|A|$ is called the **cardinality** of A ,
- (ii) **infinite** set if A contains infinite number of elements.

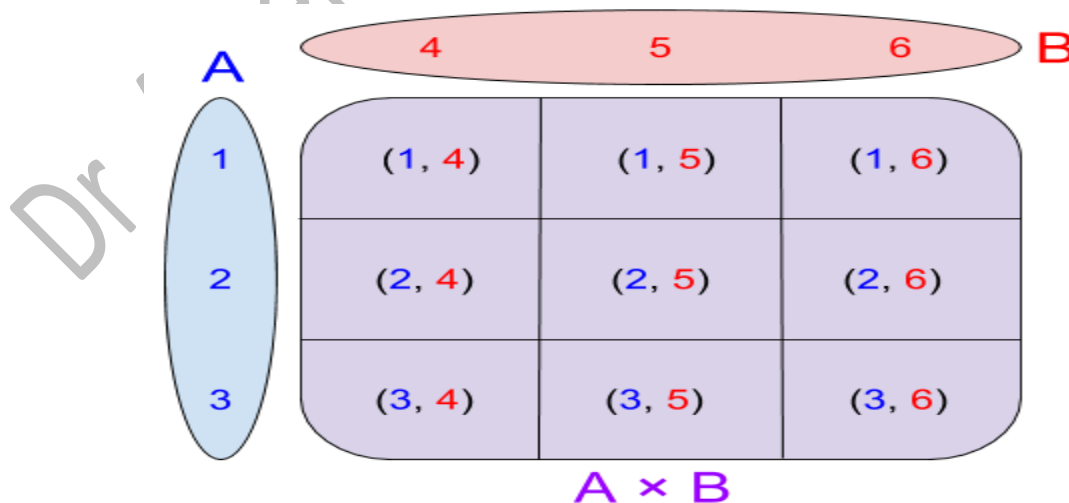
Definition 3.1.2. The **Cartesian product (or cross product)** of A and B , denoted by $A \times B$, is the set $A \times B = \{(a, b) \mid a \in A \text{ and } b \in B\}$.

- (1) The elements (a, b) of $A \times B$ are ordered pairs, a is called the **first coordinate (component)** of (a, b) and b is called the **second coordinate (component)** of (a, b) .
- (2) For pairs $(a, b), (c, d)$ we have $(a, b) = (c, d) \Leftrightarrow a = c$ and $b = d$.
- (3) The n -fold product of sets A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n is the set of n -tuples

$$A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n = \{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \mid a_i \in A_i \text{ for all } 1 \leq i \leq n\}.$$

Example 3.1.3. Let $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $B = \{4, 5, 6\}$.

- (i) $A \times B = \{(1, 4), (1, 5), (1, 6), (2, 4), (2, 5), (2, 6), (3, 4), (3, 5), (3, 6)\}$.



$$(ii) \quad B \times A = \{(4,1), (4,2), (4,3), (5,1), (5,2), (5,3), (6,1), (6,2), (6,3)\}.$$

Remark 3.1.4.

(i) For any set A , we have $A \times \emptyset = \emptyset$ (and $\emptyset \times A = \emptyset$) since, if $(a,b) \in A \times \emptyset$, then $a \in A$ and $b \in \emptyset$, impossible.

(ii) If $|A| = n$ and $|B| = m$, then $|A \times B| = nm$.

If A or B is infinite set then cross product $A \times B$ is infinite set.

(iii) Example 3.1.3 showed that $A \times B \neq B \times A$.

Theorem 3.1.5.

For any sets A, B, C, D

(i) $A \times B = B \times A \Leftrightarrow A = B$,

(ii) if $A \subseteq B$, then $A \times C \subseteq B \times C$,

(iii) $A \times (B \cap C) = (A \times B) \cap (A \times C)$,

(iv) $A \times (B \cup C) = (A \times B) \cup (A \times C)$,

(v) $(A \times B) \cap (C \times D) = (A \cap C) \times (B \cap D)$,

(vi) $(A \times B) \cup (C \times D) \subseteq (A \cup C) \times (B \cup D)$. The equality may not hold.

(vii) $A \times (B - C) = (A \times B) - (A \times C)$.

Proof.

(i) The necessary condition. Let $A \times B = B \times A$. To prove $A = B$.

Let $x \in A \Rightarrow (x, y) \in A \times B, \forall y \in B$. Def. of \times

$\Rightarrow (x, y) \in B \times A$ By hypothesis

$\Leftrightarrow x \in B \wedge y \in A$ Def. of \times

(1) $\Rightarrow x \in B \Rightarrow A \subseteq B$ Def. of \subseteq

(2) By the same way we can prove that $B \subseteq A$.

Therefore, $A = B$ Inf. (1),(2).

The sufficient condition. Let $A = B$. To prove $A \times B = B \times A$.

$A \times B = A \times A = B \times A$ Hypothesis

(vii) $A \times (B - C) = (A \times B) - (A \times C)$.

$$\begin{aligned}
(x, y) \in A \times (B - C) &\Leftrightarrow x \in A \wedge y \in (B - C) && \text{Def. of } \times \\
&\Leftrightarrow x \in A \wedge (y \in B \wedge y \notin C) && \text{Def. of } - \\
&\Leftrightarrow (x \in A \wedge x \in A) \wedge (y \in B \wedge y \notin C) && \text{Idempotent Law of } \wedge \\
&\Leftrightarrow (x \in A \wedge y \in B) \wedge (x \in A \wedge y \notin C) && \text{Commut. and Assoc. Laws of } \wedge \\
&\Leftrightarrow (x, y) \in (A \times B) \wedge (x, y) \notin (A \times C) && \text{Def. of } \times \\
&\Leftrightarrow (x, y) \in (A \times B) - (A \times C) && \text{Def. of } -
\end{aligned}$$

3.2 Relations

Definition 3.2.1. Any subset “ R ” of $A \times B$ is called a **relation between A and B** and denoted by $R(A, B)$. Any subset of $A \times A$ is called a **relation on A** .

In other words, if A is a set, any set of ordered pairs with components in A is a relation on A . Since a relation R on A is a subset of $A \times A$, it is an element of the power set of $A \times A$; that is, $R \in P(A \times A)$.

If R is a relation on A and $(x, y) \in R$, then we write xRy , read as “ x is in R -relation to y ”, or simply, x is in relation to y , if R is understood.

Example 3.2.2.

(i) Let $A = \{2, 4, 6, 8\}$, and define the relation R on A by $(x, y) \in R$ iff x divides y . Then, $R =$

$$\{(2, 2), (2, 4), (2, 6), (2, 8), (4, 4), (4, 8), (6, 6), (8, 8)\}.$$

(ii) Let $A = \{0, 3, 5, 8\}$, and define $R \subseteq A \times A$ by xRy iff x and y have the same remainder when divided 3.

$$R = \{(0, 0), (0, 3), (3, 0), (3, 3), (5, 5), (5, 8), (8, 5), (8, 8)\}.$$

Observe, that xRx for $x \in N$ and, whenever xRy then also yRx .

(iii) Let $A = \mathbb{R}$, and define the relation R on \mathbb{R} by xRy iff $y = x^2$. Then R consists of all points on the parabola $y = x^2$.

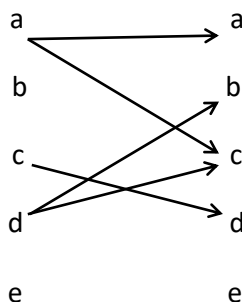
- (iv) Let $A = \mathbb{R}$, and define R on \mathbb{R} by xRy iff $x \cdot y = 1$. Then R consists of all pairs $(x, \frac{1}{x})$, where x is non-zero real number.
- (v) Let $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$, and define R on A by xRy iff $x + y = 7$. Since the sum of two elements of A is at most 6, we see that xRy for no two elements of A ; hence, $R = \emptyset$.

For small sets we can use a pictorial representation of a relation R on A : Sketch two copies of A and, if xRy then draw an arrow from the x in the left sketch to the y in the right sketch.

- (vi) Let $A = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$, and consider the relation

$$R = \{(a, a), (a, c), (c, d), (d, b), (d, c)\}.$$

An arrow representation of R is given in Fig.



- (vii) Let A be any set. Then the relation $R = \{(x, x) : x \in A\} = I_A$ on A is called the **identity relation on A** . Thus, in an identity relation, every element is related to itself only.

Definition 3.2.3. Let R be a relation on A . Then

- (i) $\text{Dom}(R) = \{x \in A : \text{There exists some } y \in A \text{ such that } (x, y) \in R\}$ is called the **domain of R** .

- (ii) $\text{Ran}(R) = \{y \in A : \text{There exists some } x \in A \text{ such that } (x, y) \in R\}$

is called the **range of R** .

Observe that $\text{Dom}(R)$ and $\text{Ran}(R)$ are both subsets of A .

Example 3.2.4.

(i) Let A and R be as in Example 3.2.2(vi). Then

$$\text{Dom}(R) = \{a, c, d\}, \text{Ran}(R) = \{a, b, c, d\}.$$

(ii) Let $A = \mathbb{R}$, and define R by xRy iff $y = x^2$. Then

$$\text{Dom}(R) = \mathbb{R}, \text{Ran}(R) = \{y \in \mathbb{R} : y \geq 0\}.$$

(iii) Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$, and define R by xRy iff $x \leq y$ and x divides y ; $R = \{(1, 2), (1, 3), \dots, (1, 6), (2, 4), (2, 6), (3, 6)\}$, and $\text{Dom}(R) = \{1, 2, 3\}$, $\text{Ran}(R) = \{2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.

(iv) Let $A = \mathbb{R}$, and R be defined as $(x, y) \in R$ iff $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. Then

$(x, y) \in R$ iff (x, y) is on the unit circle with centre at the origin. So,

$$\text{Dom}(R) = \text{Ran}(R) = \{z \in \mathbb{R} : -1 \leq z \leq 1\}.$$

Definition 3.2.5. (Reflexive, Symmetric, antisymmetric and Transitive Relations)

Let R be a relation on a nonempty set A .

- (i) R is **reflexive** if $(x, x) \in R$ for all $x \in A$.
- (ii) R is **antisymmetric** if for all $x, y \in A$, $(x, y) \in R$ and $(y, x) \in R$ implies $x = y$.
- (iii) R is **transitive** if for all $x, y, z \in A$, $(x, y) \in R$ and $(y, z) \in R$ implies $(x, z) \in R$.
- (iv) R is **symmetric** if whenever $(x, y) \in R$ then $(y, x) \in R$.

Definition 3.2.6.

(i) R is an **equivalence relation** on A , if R is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive. The set

$$[x] = \{y \in A : xRy\}$$

is called **equivalence class**. The set of all different equivalence classes A/R is called the **quotient set**.

(ii) R is a **partial order** on A (an **order** on A , or an **ordering** of A), if R is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive. We usually write \leq for R ; that is,

$$\boxed{x \leq y \text{ iff } xRy}.$$

- (iii) If R is a **partial order** on A , then the element $a \in A$ is called **least element of A with respect to R** if and only if aRx for all $x \in A$.
- (iv) If R is a **partial order** on A , then the element $a \in A$ is called **greatest element of A with respect to R** if and only if xRa for all $x \in A$.
- (v) If R is a **partial order** on A , then the element $a \in A$ is called **minimal element of A with respect to R** if and only if xRa then $a = x$ for all $x \in A$.
- (vi) If R is a **partial order** on A , then the element $a \in A$ is called **maximal element of A with respect to R** if and only if aRx then $a = x$ for all $x \in A$.

Example 3.2.7.

(i) The relation on the set of integers \mathbb{Z} defined by

$$(x, y) \in R \text{ if } x - y = 2k, \quad \text{for some } k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

is an equivalence relation, and partitions the set integers into two equivalence classes, i.e., the even and odd integers.

If $y = 0$, then $[x] = \mathbb{Z}_e$. If $y = 1$, then $[x] = \mathbb{Z}_o$. $\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z}_e \cup \mathbb{Z}_o$, $\mathbb{Z}/R = \{\mathbb{Z}_e, \mathbb{Z}_o\}$.

(ii) The inclusion relation \subseteq is a partial order on power set $P(X)$ of a set X .

(iii) Let $A = \{3,6,7\}$, and

$$R_1 = \{(x, y) \in A \times A : x \leq y\}, R_2 = \{(x, y) \in A \times A : x \geq y\}$$

$$R_3 = \{(x, y) \in A \times A : y \text{ divisible by } x\}$$

are relations defined on A .

$$R_1 = \{(3,3), (3,6), (3,7), (6,6), (6,7), (7,7)\},$$

$$R_2 = \{(3,3), (6,3), (6,6), (7,3), (7,6), (7,7)\}.$$

$$R_3 = \{(3,3), (3,6), (6,6), (7,7)\}.$$

R_1, R_2 and R_3 are partial orders on A .

- (1) The least element of A with respect to R_1 is
- (2) The least element of A with respect to R_2 is
- (3) The greatest element of A with respect to R_1 is
- (4) The greatest element of A with respect to R_2 is
- (5) A has no least and greatest element with respect to R_3 since,
- (6) The maximal element of A with respect to R_3 is
- (7) The minimal element of A with respect to R_3 is

(iv) Let $X = \{1,2,4,7\}$, $K = \{\{1,2\}, \{4,7\}, \{1,2,4\}, X\}$ and

$$R_1 = \{(A, B) \in K \times K : A \subseteq B\},$$

$$R_2 = \{(A, B) \in K \times K : A \supseteq B\},$$

are relations defined on K .

$$R_1 = (\{1,2\}, \{1,2\}), (\{1,2\}, \{1,2,4\}), (\{1,2\}, X),$$

$$(\{4,7\}, \{4,7\}), (\{4,7\}, X),$$

$$(\{1,2,4\}, \{1,2,4\}), (\{1,2,4\}, X),$$

$$(X, X)$$

$$R_2 = (\{1,2\}, \{1,2\}),$$

$$(\{4,7\}, \{4,7\}),$$

$$(\{1,2,4\}, \{1,2\}), (\{1,2,4\}, \{1,2,4\}),$$

$$(X, \{1,2\}), (X, \{4,7\}), (X, \{1,2,4\}), (X, X)$$

R_1 and R_2 are partial orders on K .

- (1) K has no least element with respect to R_1 since,
- (2) The greatest element of K with respect to R_1 is
- (3) The least element of K with respect to R_2 is
- (4) K has no greatest element with respect to R_2 since,
- (5) The minimal elements of K with respect to R_1 are
- (6) The maximal element of K with respect to R_1 is
- (7) The minimal element of K with respect to R_2 is
- (8) The maximal element of K with respect to R_2 is

Remark 3.2.8.

- (i) Every greatest (least) element is maximal (minimal). The converse is not true.
- (ii) The greatest (least) element if exist, it is unique.
- (iii) Every finite partially ordered set has maximal (minimal) element.

Properties of equivalence classes

- (iv) For all $a \in X, a \in [a]$.
- (v) $aRb \Leftrightarrow [a] = [b]$.
- (vi) $[a] = [b] \Leftrightarrow (a,b) \in R \Leftrightarrow aRb$.
- (vii) $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset \Leftrightarrow [a] = [b]$.
- (viii) $[a] \cap [b] = \emptyset \Leftrightarrow [a] \neq [b]$.
- (ix) For all $a \in X, [a] \in X/R$ but $[a] \subseteq X$.

Definition 3.2.9. R is a **totally order** on A if R is a partial order, and xRy or yRx for all $x, y \in A$; that is, if any two elements of A are comparable with respect to R . Then we call the pair (A, \leq) a **totally order set** or a **chain**.

Example 3.2.10.

(i) Let $A = \{2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$, and define R by the usual \leq relation on \mathbb{N} , i.e. aRb iff $a \leq b$. Then R is a **totally order** on A .

(ii) Let us define another relation on \mathbb{N}

$$a/b \text{ iff } a \text{ divides } b.$$

To show that $/$ is a partial order we have to show the three defining properties of a partial order relation:

Reflexive: Since every natural number is a divisor of itself, we have a/a for all $a \in A$.

Antisymmetric: If a divides b then we have either $a = b$ or $a < b$ in the usual ordering of \mathbb{N} ; similarly, if b divides a , then $b = a$ or $b < a$. Since $a < b$ and $b < a$ is not possible, a/b and b/a implies $a = b$.

Transitive: If a divides b and b divides c then a also divides c . Thus, $/$ is a partial order on N .

The relation $/$ is not totally order since $(3,4) \notin /$.

(iii) Let $A = \{x, y\}$ and define \leq on the power set $P(A) = \{\emptyset, \{x\}, \{y\}, A\}$ by

$$s \leq t \text{ iff } s \text{ is a subset of } t.$$

This gives us the following relation:

$$\emptyset \leq \emptyset, \emptyset \leq \{x\}, \emptyset \leq \{y\}, \emptyset \leq \{x, y\} = A, \{x\} \leq \{x\}, \{x\} \leq \{x, y\}, \{y\} \leq \{y\}, \{y\} \leq \{x, y\}, \{x, y\} \leq \{x, y\}.$$

The relation \leq is not totally order since $(\{x\}, \{y\}) \notin \leq$.

Exercise 3.2.11.

Let $A = \{1, 2, \dots, 10\}$ and define the relation R on A by xRy iff x is a multiple of y . Show that R is a partial order on A .

(Hint: $R = \{(ny, y) : \text{for some } n \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } y \in A\}$)

Definition 3.2.12. (Inverse of a Relation)

Suppose $R \subseteq A \times B$ is a relation between A and B then the inverse relation $R^{-1} \subseteq B \times A$ is defined as the relation between B and A and is given by

$$bR^{-1}a \quad \text{if and only if} \quad aRb.$$

That is, $R^{-1} = \{(b, a) \in B \times A : (a, b) \in R\}$.

Example 3.2.13. Let R be the relation between \mathbb{Z} and \mathbb{Z}^+ defined by

$$mRn \text{ if and only if } m^2 = n.$$

Then

$$R = \{(m, n) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}^+ : m^2 = n\} = \{(m, m^2) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}^+\},$$

and

$$R^{-1} = \{(n, m) \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \times \mathbb{Z} : m^2 = n\} = \{(m^2, m) \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \times \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

For example, $-3 R 9$, $-4 R 16$, $16 R^{-1} 4$, $9 R^{-1} 3$, etc.

Remark 3.2.14. If R is partial order relation on $A \neq \emptyset$, then

- (i) R^{-1} is also partial order relation on A .
- (ii) $(R^{-1})^{-1} = R$.
- (iii) $\text{Dom}(R^{-1}) = \text{Ran}(R)$ and $\text{Ran}(R^{-1}) = \text{Dom}(R)$.

Proof. (i)

(1) **Reflexive.** Let $x \in A$.

$$\Rightarrow (x, x) \in R \text{ (Reflexivity of } A) \Rightarrow (x, x) \in R^{-1} \quad \text{Def of } R^{-1}$$

(2) **Anti-symmetric.** Let $(x, y) \in R^{-1}$ and $(y, x) \in R^{-1}$. To prove $x = y$.

$$\Rightarrow (y, x) \in R \wedge (x, y) \in R \quad \text{Def of } R^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow y = x \quad \text{Since } R \text{ is antisymmetric}$$

(3) **Transitive.** Let $(x, y) \in R^{-1}$ and $(y, z) \in R^{-1}$. To prove $(x, z) \in R^{-1}$.

$$\Rightarrow (y, x) \in R \wedge (z, y) \in R \quad \text{Def of } R^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow (z, y) \in R \wedge (y, x) \in R \quad \text{Commut. Law of } \wedge$$

$$\Rightarrow (z, x) \in R \quad \text{Since } R \text{ is transitive}$$

$$\Rightarrow (x, z) \in R^{-1} \quad \text{Def of } R^{-1}$$

Definition 3.2.15. (Partitions)

Let A be a set and let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n be subsets of A such

- (i) $A_i \neq \emptyset$ for all i ,
- (ii) $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ if $i \neq j$,
- (iii) $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n$. Then the sets A_i partition the set A and these sets are called the **classes of the partition**.

Remark 3.2.16. An equivalence relation on X leads to a partition of X , and **vice versa** for every partition of X there is a corresponding equivalence relation.

Proof:

(a) Let R be an equivalence relation on X .

1- $\forall a \in X, a \in [a]$ Def. of equ. Class

2- $\exists [b] \in X/R$ such that $[b] = [a]$ Since X/R contains all diff. classes

3- $X = \bigcup_{a \in X} \{a\} \subseteq \bigcup_{a \in X} [a] \subseteq \bigcup_{a \in [b]} [b] \subseteq X \Rightarrow X = \bigcup_{[b] \in X/R} [b]$.

4- $[b] \cap [a] = \emptyset$, for all $[b], [a] \in X/R$ Def. of X/R

5- R is partition of X Inf.(3),(4)

(b) Let (i) $A_i \neq \emptyset$ for all $i, A_i \subseteq X$

(ii) $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ if $i \neq j$,

(iii) $X = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n$.

Define R (relation) on X by $aRb \Leftrightarrow \exists A_i$ such that $a, b \in A_i$.

This relation is an equivalence relation on X .

Definition 3.2.17. (The Composition of Two Relations)

The composition of two relations $R_1(A, B)$ and $R_2(B, C)$ is given by $R_2 \circ R_1$ where $(a, c) \in R_2 \circ R_1$ if and only if there exists $b \in B$ such that $(a, b) \in R_1$ and $(b, c) \in R_2$. That is,

$$R_2 \circ R_1 = \{(a, c) \in A \times C \mid \exists b \in B \text{ such that } (a, b) \in R_1 \text{ and } (b, c) \in R_2\}$$

Remark 3.2.18. Let $R_1(A, B)$, $R_2(B, C)$ and $R_3(C, D)$ are relations. Then,

(i) $(R_3 \circ R_2) \circ R_1 = R_3 \circ (R_2 \circ R_1)$.

(ii) $(R_2 \circ R_1)^{-1} = R_1^{-1} \circ R_2^{-1}$.

(iii) Let $R^{-1} = \{(b, a) | (a, b) \in R\} \subseteq B \times A$. Then

$$(a, b) \in R \circ R^{-1} \Leftrightarrow (b, a) \in R \circ R^{-1}.$$

Proof. Exercise.

Example 3.2.19.

Let sets $A = \{a, b, c\}$, $B = \{d, e, f\}$, $C = \{g, h, i\}$ and relations

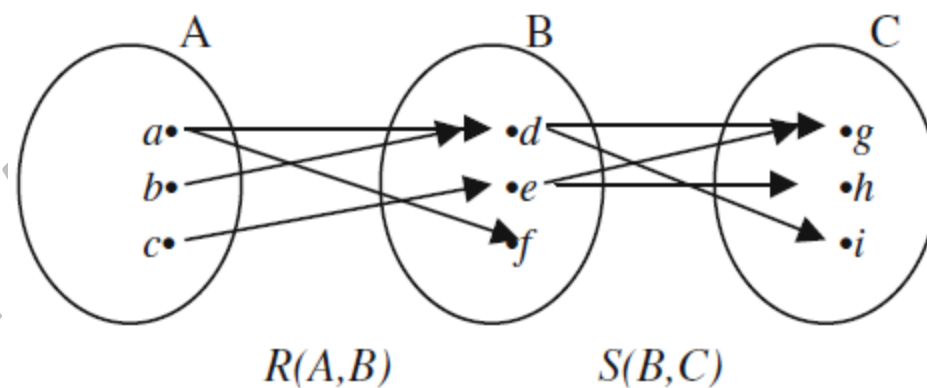
$$R(A, B) = \{(a, d), (a, f), (b, d), (c, e)\}$$

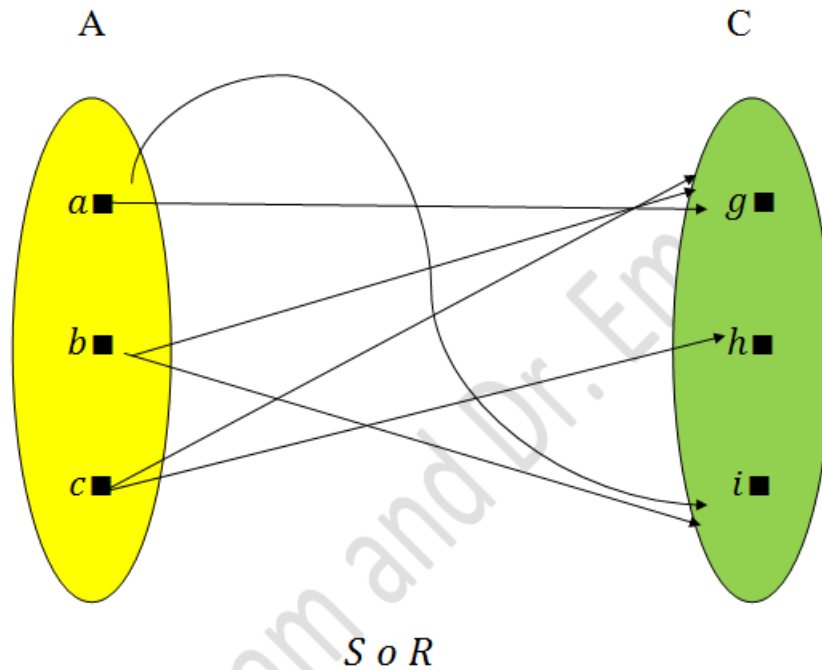
and

$$S(B, C) = \{(d, g), (d, i), (e, g), (e, h)\}.$$

Then we graph these relations and show how to determine the composition pictorially $S \circ R$ is determined by choosing $x \in A$ and $y \in C$ and checking if there is a route from x to y in the graph. If so, we join x to y in $S \circ R$.

$$S \circ R = \{(a, g), (a, i), (b, g), (b, i), (c, g), (c, h)\}.$$





For example, if we consider a and g we see that there is a path from a to d and from d to g and therefore (a, g) is in the composition of S and R .

Definition 3.2.19. Union and Intersection of Relations

(i) The union of two relations $R_1(A, B)$ and $R_2(A, B)$ is subset of $A \times B$ and defined as

$$(a, b) \in R_1 \cup R_2 \text{ if and only if } (a, b) \in R_1 \text{ or } (a, b) \in R_2.$$

(ii) The intersection of two relations $R_1(A, B)$ and $R_2(A, B)$ is subset of $A \times B$ and defined as

$$(a, b) \in R_1 \cap R_2 \text{ if and only if } (a, b) \in R_1 \text{ and } (a, b) \in R_2.$$

Remark 3.2.20.

(i) The relation R_1 is a subset of R_2 ($R_1 \subseteq R_2$) if whenever $(a, b) \in R_1$ then $(a, b) \in R_2$.

(ii) The intersection of two equivalence relations R_2, R_1 on a set X is also equivalence relation on X .

(iii) In general, the union of two equivalence relations R_1, R_2 on a set X need not to be an equivalence relation on X .

Proof. Exercise.

Example 3.2.21. Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$. Define two relations on X as follows:

$$R_1(X, X) = \{(a, a), (b, b), (c, c), (a, b), (b, a)\},$$

$$R_2(X, X) = \{(a, a), (b, b), (c, c), (a, c), (c, a)\}.$$

Let $R = R_1 \cup R_2$. Here, R is not an equivalence relation on X since it is not transitive relation, because (b, a) and $(a, c) \in R$ but $(b, c) \notin R$.

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