# Convexity, concavity and inflexion points of a function The second derivative. Convex and concave function.

Sufficient condition of concavity (convexity) of a function.

Inflexion point.

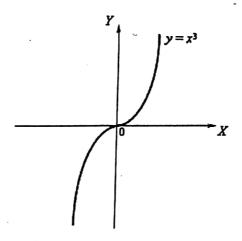
The second derivative. If a derivative f'(x) of a function f(x) is differentiable in the point  $(x_0)$ , then its derivative is called the second derivative of the function f(x) in the point  $(x_0)$  and denoted as  $f''(x_0)$ . A function f(x) is called *convex* in an interval (a, b), if a graph of the function f(x) is placed in this interval *lower* than a tangent line, going through any point  $(x_0, f(x_0)), x_0 \in (a, b)$ . A function f(x) is called *concave* in an interval (a, b), if a graph of the function f(x) is placed in this interval *higher* than a tangent line, going through any point  $(x_0, f(x_0)), x_0 \in (a, b)$ .

Sufficient condition of concavity (convexity) of a function.

Let a function f(x) be twice differentiable (i.e. it has the *second* derivative) in an interval (a, b), then: if f''(x) > 0 for any  $x \in (a, b)$ , then the function f(x) is *concave* in the interval (a, b); if f''(x) < 0 for any  $x \in (a, b)$ , then the function f(x) is *convex* in the interval (a, b).

If a function changes a convexity to a concavity or vice versa at passage through some point, then this point is called *an inflexion point* an inflexion point. Hence it follows, that if the second derivative f'' exists in an inflexion point  $x_0$ , then  $f''(x_0) = 0$ .

E x a m p l e. Consider a graph of the function  $y = x^3$ :



This function is concave at x > 0 and convex at x < 0. In fact, y'' = 6x, but 6x > 0 at x < 0 and 6x < 0 at x < 0, hence, y'' > 0 at  $x^3$  0 and y'' < 0 at x < 0, hence it follows, that the function  $y = x^3$  is concave at x > 0 and convex at x < 0. Then the point x = 0 is the inflexion point of the function  $y = x^3$ .

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## CHAPTER 2

# Sets, Functions, Relations

## 2.1. Set Theory

**2.1.1.** Sets. A set is a collection of objects, called elements of the set. A set can be represented by listing its elements between braces:  $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ . The symbol  $\in$  is used to express that an element is (or belongs to) a set, for instance  $3 \in A$ . Its negation is represented by  $\not\in$ , e.g.  $7 \not\in A$ . If the set is finite, its number of elements is represented |A|, e.g. if  $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$  then |A| = 5.

Some important sets are the following:

- 1.  $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$  = the set of natural numbers.<sup>1</sup>
- 2.  $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\} =$ the set of integers.
- 3.  $\mathbb{Q}$  = the set of rational numbers.
- 4.  $\mathbb{R}$  = the set of real numbers.
- 5.  $\mathbb{C}$  = the set of complex numbers.

Is S is one of those sets then we also use the following notations:<sup>2</sup>

- 1.  $S^+ = \text{set of positive elements in } S$ , for instance  $Z^+ = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\} = \text{ the set of positive integers.}$
- 2.  $S^-=$  set of negative elements in S, for instance  $\mathbb{Z}^-=\{-1,-2,-3,\cdots\}=$  the set of negative integers.
- 3.  $S^* = \text{set}$  of elements in S excluding zero, for instance  $\mathbb{R}^* = \text{the}$  set of non zero real numbers.

Set-builder notation. An alternative way to define a set, called set-builder notation, is by stating a property (predicate) P(x) verified by exactly its elements, for instance  $A = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid 1 \le x \le 5\}$  = "set of

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Note that  $\mathbb{N}$  includes zero—for some authors  $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ , without zero. <sup>2</sup>When working with *strings* we will use a similar notation with a different meaning—be careful not to confuse it.

integers x such that  $1 \le x \le 5$ "—i.e.:  $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ . In general:  $A = \{x \in \mathcal{U} \mid p(x)\}$ , where  $\mathcal{U}$  is the universe of discourse in which the predicate P(x) must be interpreted, or  $A = \{x \mid P(x)\}$  if the universe of discourse for P(x) is implicitly understood. In set theory the term universal set is often used in place of "universe of discourse" for a given predicate.<sup>3</sup>

*Principle of Extension*. Two sets are *equal* if and only if they have the same elements, i.e.:

$$A = B \equiv \forall x (x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B).$$

Subset. We say that A is a subset of set B, or A is contained in B, and we represent it " $A \subseteq B$ ", if all elements of A are in B, e.g., if  $A = \{a, b, c\}$  and  $B = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$  then  $A \subseteq B$ .

A is a proper subset of B, represented " $A \subset B$ ", if  $A \subseteq B$  but  $A \neq B$ , i.e., there is some element in B which is not in A.

Empty Set. A set with no elements is called empty set (or null set, or void set), and is represented by  $\emptyset$  or  $\{\}$ .

Note that nothing prevents a set from possibly being an element of another set (which is not the same as being a subset!). For instance if  $A = \{1, a, \{3, t\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$  and  $B = \{3, t\}$ , then obviously B is an element of A, i.e.,  $B \in A$ .

Power Set. The collection of all subsets of a set A is called the power set of A, and is represented  $\mathcal{P}(A)$ . For instance, if  $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ , then

$$\mathcal{P}(A) = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 3\}, A\}.$$

*Exercise*: Prove by induction that if |A| = n then  $|\mathcal{P}(A)| = 2^n$ .

Multisets. Two ordinary sets are identical if they have the same elements, so for instance,  $\{a,a,b\}$  and  $\{a,b\}$  are the same set because they have exactly the same elements, namely a and b. However, in some applications it might be useful to allow repeated elements in a set. In that case we use multisets, which are mathematical entities similar to sets, but with possibly repeated elements. So, as multisets,  $\{a,a,b\}$  and  $\{a,b\}$  would be considered different, since in the first one the element a occurs twice and in the second one it occurs only once.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Properly speaking, the universe of discourse of set theory is the collection of all sets (which is not a set).

**2.1.2.** Venn Diagrams. Venn diagrams are graphic representations of sets as enclosed areas in the plane. For instance, in figure 2.1, the rectangle represents the universal set (the set of all elements considered in a given problem) and the shaded region represents a set A. The other figures represent various set operations.

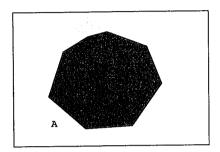


FIGURE 2.1. Venn Diagram.

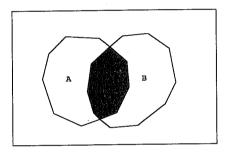


FIGURE 2.2. Intersection  $A \cap B$ .

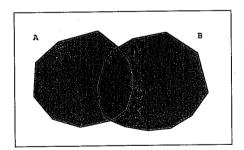


FIGURE 2.3. Union  $A \cup B$ .

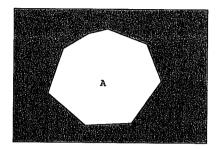


FIGURE 2.4. Complement  $\overline{A}$ .

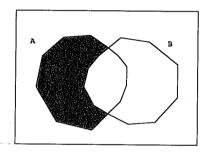


FIGURE 2.5. Difference A - B.

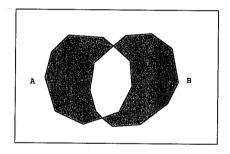


FIGURE 2.6. Symmetric Difference  $A \oplus B$ .

## 2.1.3. Set Operations.

1. Intersection: The common elements of two sets:

$$A \cap B = \{x \mid (x \in A) \land (x \in B)\}.$$

If  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , the sets are said to be *disjoint*.

2. Union: The set of elements that belong to either of two sets:

$$A \cup B = \{x \mid (x \in A) \lor (x \in B)\}.$$

3. Complement: The set of elements (in the universal set) that do not belong to a given set:

$$\overline{A} = \{ x \in \mathcal{U} \mid x \notin A \}.$$

4. Difference or Relative Complement: The set of elements that belong to a set but not to another:

$$A - B = \{x \mid (x \in A) \land (x \notin B)\} = A \cap \overline{B}.$$

5. Symmetric Difference: Given two sets, their symmetric difference is the set of elements that belong to either one or the other set but not both.

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

It can be expressed also in the following way:

$$A \oplus B = A \cup B - A \cap B = (A - B) \cup (B - A).$$

**2.1.4.** Counting with Venn Diagrams. A Venn diagram with n sets intersecting in the most general way divides the plane into  $2^n$  regions. If we have information about the number of elements of some portions of the diagram, then we can find the number of elements in each of the regions and use that information for obtaining the number of elements in other portions of the plane.

، می زمر طب Example: Let M, P and C be the sets of students taking Mathematics courses, Physics courses and Computer Science courses respectively in a university. Assume  $|M|=300, |P|=350, |C|=450, |M\cap P|=100, |M\cap C|=150, |P\cap C|=75, |M\cap P\cap C|=10$ . How many students are taking exactly one of those courses? (fig. 2.7)

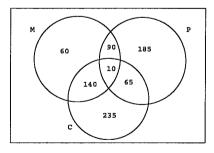


FIGURE 2.7. Counting with Venn diagrams.

We see that 
$$|(M \cap P) - (M \cap P \cap C)| = 100 - 10 = 90$$
,  $|(M \cap C) - (M \cap P \cap C)| = 150 - 10 = 140$  and  $|(P \cap C) - (M \cap P \cap C)| = 75 - 10 = 65$ .

Then the region corresponding to students taking Mathematics courses only has cardinality 300-(90+10+140)=60. Analogously we compute the number Computer Science courses one is the number of students taking exactly one of the set operations verify the following properties:

$$A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$$

$$A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$$

2. Commutative Laws:

$$A \cup B = B \cup A$$

$$A \cap B = B \cap A$$

3. Distributive Laws:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$

4. Identity Laws:

$$A \cup \emptyset = A$$

$$A \cap \mathcal{U} = A$$

5. Complement Laws:

$$A \cup \overline{A} = \mathcal{U}$$

$$A \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$$

6. Idempotent Laws:

$$A \cup A = A$$

$$A \cap A = A$$

7. Bound Laws:

$$A \cup \mathcal{U} = \mathcal{U}$$

$$A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$$

8. Absorption Laws:

$$A \cup (A \cap B) = A$$

$$A \cap (A \cup B) = A$$

9. Involution Law:

$$\overline{\overline{A}} = A$$

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10. 0/1 Laws:

$$\overline{\emptyset} = \mathcal{U}$$
 $\overline{\mathcal{U}} = \emptyset$ 

11. DeMorgan's Laws:

$$\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$$
$$\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$

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 $\rightarrow$ 2.1.6. Generalized Union and Intersection. Given a collection of sets  $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_N$ , their union is defined as the set of elements that belong to at least one of the sets (here n represents an integer in the range from 1 to N):

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{N} A_n = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_N = \left\{ x \mid \exists n \left( x \in A_n \right) \right\}.$$

Analogously, their intersection is the set of elements that belong to all the sets simultaneously:

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{N} A_n = A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_N = \{x \mid \forall n (x \in A_n)\}.$$

These definitions can be applied to infinite collections of sets as well. For instance assume that  $S_n = \{kn \mid k = 2, 3, 4, \dots\} = \text{set of multiples}$  of n greater than n. Then

$$\bigcup_{n=2}^{\infty} S_n = S_2 \cup S_3 \cup S_4 \cup \dots = \{4, 6, 8, 9, 10, 12, 14, 15, \dots\}$$
= set of composite positive integers.

**2.1.7.** Partitions. A partition of a set X is a collection S of non overlapping non empty subsets of X whose union is the whole X. For instance a partition of  $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$  could be

$$\mathbb{S} = \left\{ \{1, 2, 4, 8\}, \{3, 6\}, \{5, 7, 9, 10\} \right\}.$$

Given a partition S of a set X, every element of X belongs to exactly one member of S.

Example: The division of the integers  $\mathbb{Z}$  into even and odd numbers is a partition:  $\mathbb{S} = \{\mathbb{E}, \mathbb{O}\}$ , where  $\mathbb{E} = \{2n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ ,  $\mathbb{O} = \{2n+1 \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ .

Example: The divisions of  $\mathbb{Z}$  in negative integers, positive integers and zero is a partition:  $S = {\mathbb{Z}^+, \mathbb{Z}^-, \{0\}}$ .

**2.1.8.** Ordered Pairs, Cartesian Product. An ordinary pair  $\{a,b\}$  is a set with two elements. In a set the order of the elements is irrelevant, so  $\{a,b\} = \{b,a\}$ . If the order of the elements is relevant, then we use a different object called *ordered pair*, represented (a,b). Now  $(a,b) \neq (b,a)$  (unless a=b). In general (a,b) = (a',b') iff a=a' and b=b'.

Given two sets A, B, their Cartesian product  $A \times B$  is the set of all ordered pairs (a, b) such that  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ :

$$A \times B = \{(a,b) \mid (a \in A) \land (b \in B)\}.$$

Analogously we can define triples or 3-tuples (a, b, c), 4-tuples (a, b, c, d), ..., n-tuples  $(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n)$ , and the corresponding 3-fold, 4-fold,..., n-fold Cartesian products:

$$A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n = \{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \mid (a_1 \in A_1) \wedge (a_2 \in A_2) \wedge \cdots \wedge (a_n \in A_n)\}.$$

If all the sets in a Cartesian product are the same, then we can use an exponent:  $A^2 = A \times A$ ,  $A^3 = A \times A \times A$ , etc. In general:

$$A^n = A \times A \times \stackrel{(n \text{ times})}{\cdots} \times A.$$

An example of Cartesian product is the *real plane*  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , where  $\mathbb{R}$  is the set of real numbers ( $\mathbb{R}$  is sometimes called *real line*).

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### 2.2. Functions

**2.2.1.** Correspondences. Suppose that to each element of a set A we assign some elements of another set B. For instance,  $A = \mathbb{N}$ ,  $B = \mathbb{Z}$ , and to each element  $x \in \mathbb{N}$  we assign all elements  $y \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $y^2 = x$  (fig. 2.8).

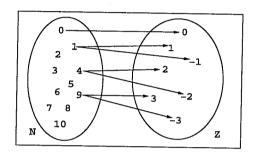


FIGURE 2.8. Correspondence  $x \mapsto \pm \sqrt{x}$ .

This operation is called a correspondence.

**2.2.2. Functions.** A function or mapping f from a set A to a set B, denoted  $f: A \to B$ , is a correspondence in which to each element x of A corresponds exactly one element y = f(x) of B (fig. 2.9).

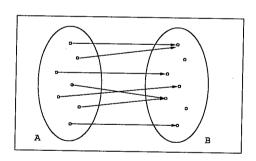


FIGURE 2.9. Function.

Sometimes we represent the function with a diagram like this:

$$f: A \to B$$
 or  $A \xrightarrow{f} B$   $x \mapsto y$ 

For instance, the following represents the function from  $\mathbb{Z}$  to  $\mathbb{Z}$  defined by f(x) = 2x + 1:

$$f: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$$
$$x \mapsto 2x + 1$$

The element y = f(x) is called the *image* of x, and x is a *preimage* of y. For instance, if f(x) = 2x + 1 then  $f(7) = 2 \cdot 7 + 1 = 15$ . The set A is the *domain* of f, and B is its *codomain*. If  $A' \subseteq A$ , the image of A' by f is  $f(A') = \{f(x) \mid x \in A'\}$ , i.e., the subset of B consisting of all images of elements of A'. The subset f(A) of B consisting of all images of elements of A is called the *range* of f. For instance, the range of f(x) = 2x + 1 is the set of all integers of the form 2x + 1 for some integer x, i.e., all odd numbers.

*Example*: Two useful functions from  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{Z}$  are the following:

1. The floor function:

|x| = greatest integer less than or equal to x.

For instance: 
$$\lfloor 2 \rfloor = 2$$
,  $\lfloor 2.3 \rfloor = 2$ ,  $\lfloor \pi \rfloor = 3$ ,  $\lfloor -2.5 \rfloor = -3$ .

2. The ceiling function:

[x] = least integer greater than or equal to x.

For instance: 
$$\lceil 2 \rceil = 2$$
,  $\lceil 2.3 \rceil = 3$ ,  $\lceil \pi \rceil = 4$ ,  $\lceil -2.5 \rceil = -2$ .

Example: The modulus operator is the function mod :  $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}^+ \to \mathbb{Z}$  defined:

 $x \mod y = \text{ remainder when } x \text{ is divided by } y.$ 

For instance 23 mod 7=2 because  $23=3\cdot 7+2$ , 59 mod 9=5 because  $59=6\cdot 9+5$ , etc.

*Graph*: The graph of a function  $f: A \to B$  is the subset of  $A \times B$  defined by  $G(f) = \{(x, f(x)) \mid x \in A\}$  (fig. 2.10).

# 2.2.3. Types of Functions.

1. One-to-One or Injective: A function  $f: A \to B$  is called one-to-one or injective if each element of B is the image of at most one element of A (fig. 2.11):

$$\forall x, x' \in A, \ f(x) = f(x') \Rightarrow x = x'.$$

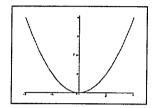


FIGURE 2.10. Graph of  $f(x) = x^2$ .

For instance, f(x) = 2x from  $\mathbb{Z}$  to  $\mathbb{Z}$  is injective.

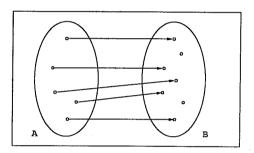


FIGURE 2.11. One-to-one function.

2. Onto or Surjective: A function  $f:A\to B$  is called onto or surjective if every element of B is the image of some element of A (fig. 2.12):

 $\forall y \in B, \exists x \in A \text{ such that } y = f(x).$ 

For instance,  $f(x) = x^2$  from  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{0\}$  is onto.

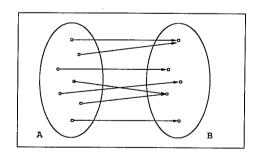


FIGURE 2.12. Onto function.

3. One-To-One Correspondence or Bijective: A function  $f: A \rightarrow B$  is said to be a one-to-one correspondence, or bijective, or a

bijection, if it is one-to-one and onto (fig. 2.13). For instance, f(x) = x + 3 from  $\mathbb{Z}$  to  $\mathbb{Z}$  is a bijection.

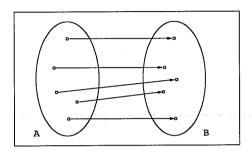


FIGURE 2.13. Bijection.

- **2.2.4.** Identity Function. Given a set A, the function  $1_A : A \to A$  defined by  $1_A(x) = x$  for every x in A is called the *identity function* for A.
- **2.2.5. Function Composition.** Given two functions  $f: A \to B$  and  $g: B \to C$ , the *composite function* of f and g is the function  $g \circ f: A \to C$  defined by  $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x))$  for every x in A:

$$A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$$

$$x \longmapsto y = f(x) \longmapsto z = g(y) = g(f(x))$$

For instance, if  $A = B = C = \mathbb{Z}$ , f(x) = x + 1,  $g(x) = x^2$ , then  $(g \circ f)(x) = f(x)^2 = (x+1)^2$ . Also  $(f \circ g)(x) = g(x) + 1 = x^2 + 1$  (the composition of functions is not commutative in general).

Some properties of function composition are the following:

- 1. If  $f: A \to B$  is a function from A to B, we have that  $f \circ 1_A = 1_B \circ f = f$ .
- 2. Function composition is associative, i.e., given three functions

$$A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \xrightarrow{h} D$$

we have that  $h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f$ .

Function iteration. If  $f: A \to A$  is a function from A to A, then it makes sense to compose it with itself:  $f^2 = f \circ f$ . For instance, if  $f: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$  is f(x) = 2x + 1, then  $f^2(x) = 2(2x + 1) + 1 = 4x + 3$ . Analogously we can define  $f^3 = f \circ f \circ f$ , and so on,  $f^n = f \circ f \circ f$ .

**2.2.6.** Inverse Function. If  $f: A \to B$  is a bijective function, its inverse is the function  $f^{-1}: B \to A$  such that  $f^{-1}(y) = x$  if and only if f(x) = y.

For instance, if  $f: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$  is defined by f(x) = x + 3, then its inverse is  $f^{-1}(x) = x - 3$ .

The arrow diagram of  $f^{-1}$  is the same as the arrow diagram of f but with all arrows reversed.

A characteristic property of the inverse function is that  $f^{-1} \circ f = 1_A$  and  $f \circ f^{-1} = 1_B$ .

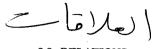
**2.2.7.** Operators. A function from  $A \times A$  to A is called a binary operator on A. For instance the addition of integers is a binary operator  $+: \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$ . In the usual notation for functions the sum of two integers x and y would be represented +(x,y). This is called prefix notation. The infix notation consists of writing the symbol of the binary operator between its arguments: x+y (this is the most common). There is also a postfix notation consisting of writing the symbol after the arguments: xy+.

Another example of binary operator on  $\mathbb{Z}$  is  $(x, y) \mapsto x \cdot y$ .

A monary or unary operator on A is a function from A to A. For instance the change of sign  $x \mapsto -x$  on  $\mathbb{Z}$  is a unary operator on  $\mathbb{Z}$ . An example of unary operator on  $\mathbb{R}^*$  (non-zero real numbers) is  $x \mapsto 1/x$ .

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## 2.3. RELATIONS

#### 2.3. Relations

**2.3.1.** Relations. Assume that we have a set of men M and a set of women W, some of whom are married. We want to express which men in M are married to which women in W. One way to do that is by listing the set of pairs (m, w) such that m is a man, w is a woman, and m is married to w. So, the relation "married to" can be represented by a subset of the Cartesian product  $M \times W$ . In general, a relation  $\mathcal{R}$  from a set A to a set B will be understood as a subset of the Cartesian product  $A \times B$ , i.e.,  $\mathcal{R} \subseteq A \times B$ . If an element  $a \in A$  is related to an element  $b \in B$ , we often write  $a \mathcal{R} b$  instead of  $(a, b) \in \mathcal{R}$ .

The set

$$\{a \in A \mid a \Re b \text{ for some } b \in B\}$$

is called the *domain* of  $\mathcal{R}$ . The set

$$\{b \in B \mid a \mathcal{R} b \text{ for some } a \in A\}$$

is called the range of  $\Re$ . For instance, in the relation "married to" above, the domain is the set of married men, and the range is the set of married women.

If A and B are the same set, then any subset of  $A \times A$  will be a binary relation in A. For instance, assume  $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ . Then the binary relation "less than" in A will be:

$$<_A = \{(x, y) \in A \times A \mid x < y\}$$
  
=  $\{(1, 2), (1, 3), (1, 4), (2, 3), (2, 4), (3, 4)\}.$ 

Notation: A set A with a binary relation  $\mathcal{R}$  is sometimes represented by the pair  $(A,\mathcal{R})$ . So, for instance,  $(\mathbb{Z},\leq)$  means the set of integers together with the relation of non-strict inequality.

# 2.3.2. Representations of Relations.

Arrow diagrams. Venn diagrams and arrows can be used for representing relations between given sets. As an example, figure 2.14 represents the relation from  $A = \{a, b, c, d\}$  to  $B = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$  given by  $\Re = \{(a, 1), (b, 1), (c, 2), (c, 3)\}$ . In the diagram an arrow from x to y means that x is related to y. This kind of graph is called directed graph or digraph.

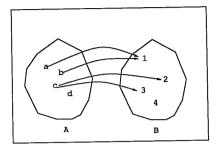


FIGURE 2.14. Relation.

Another example is given in diagram 2.15, which represents the divisibility relation on the set  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$ .

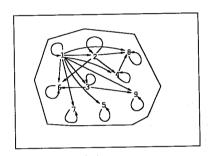


FIGURE 2.15. Binary relation of divisibility.

Matrix of a Relation. Another way of representing a relation  $\mathcal{R}$  from A to B is with a matrix. Its rows are labeled with the elements of A, and its columns are labeled with the elements of B. If  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$  then we write 1 in row a column b if  $a \mathcal{R} b$ , otherwise we write 0. For instance the relation  $\mathcal{R} = \{(a,1),(b,1),(c,2),(c,3)\}$  from  $A = \{a,b,c,d\}$  to  $B = \{1,2,3,4\}$  has the following matrix:

**2.3.3.** Inverse Relation. Given a relation  $\mathcal{R}$  from A to B, the inverse of  $\mathcal{R}$ , denoted  $\mathcal{R}^{-1}$ , is the relation from B to A defined as

$$b \mathcal{R}^{-1} a \Leftrightarrow a \mathcal{R} b$$
.

#### 2.3. RELATIONS

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For instance, if  $\mathcal{R}$  is the relation "being a son or daughter of", then  $\mathcal{R}^{-1}$  is the relation "being a parent of".

- **2.3.4.** Composition of Relations. Let A, B and C be three sets. Given a relation  $\mathcal{R}$  from A to B and a relation S from B to C, then the composition  $S \circ \mathcal{R}$  of relations  $\mathcal{R}$  and S is a relation from A to C defined by:
  - $a(S \circ \mathcal{R}) c \Leftrightarrow \text{there exists some } b \in B \text{ such that } a \mathcal{R} b \text{ and } b S c.$

For instance, if  $\mathcal R$  is the relation "to be the father of", and  $\mathcal S$  is the relation "to be married to", then  $\mathcal S \circ \mathcal R$  is the relation "to be the father in law of".

- **2.3.5.** Properties of Binary Relations. A binary relation  $\mathcal{R}$  on A is called:
  - 1. Reflexive if for all  $x \in A$ ,  $x \Re x$ . For instance on  $\mathbb{Z}$  the relation "equal to" (=) is reflexive.
  - 2. Transitive if for all  $x, y, z \in A$ ,  $x \mathcal{R} y$  and  $y \mathcal{R} z$  implies  $x \mathcal{R} z$ . For instance equality (=) and inequality (<) on  $\mathbb{Z}$  are transitive relations.
  - 3. Symmetric if for all  $x, y \in A$ ,  $x \mathcal{R} y \Rightarrow y \mathcal{R} x$ . For instance on  $\mathbb{Z}$ , equality (=) is symmetric, but strict inequality (<) is not.
  - 4. Antisymmetric if for all  $x, y \in A$ ,  $x \Re y$  and  $y \Re x$  implies x = y. For instance, non-strict inequality ( $\leq$ ) on  $\mathbb{Z}$  is antisymmetric.
- **2.3.6.** Partial Orders. A partial order, or simply, an order on a set A is a binary relation " $\preccurlyeq$ " on A with the following properties:
  - 1. Reflexive: for all  $x \in A$ ,  $x \leq x$ .
  - 2. Antisymmetric:  $(x \leq y) \land (y \leq x) \Rightarrow x = y$ .
  - 3. Transitive:  $(x \preccurlyeq y) \land (y \preccurlyeq z) \Rightarrow x \preccurlyeq z$ .

#### Examples:

- 1. The non-strict inequality ( $\leq$ ) in  $\mathbb{Z}$ .
- 2. Relation of divisibility on  $\mathbb{Z}^+$ :  $a|b \Leftrightarrow \exists t, b = at$ .

3. Set inclusion  $(\subseteq)$  on  $\mathcal{P}(A)$  (the collection of subsets of a given set A).

Exercise: prove that the aforementioned relations are in fact partial orders. As an example we prove that integer divisibility is a partial order:

- 1. Reflexive:  $a = a \ 1 \Rightarrow a | a$ .
- 2. Antisymmetric:  $a|b \Rightarrow b = at$  for some t and  $b|a \Rightarrow a = bt'$  for some t'. Hence a = att', which implies  $tt' = 1 \Rightarrow t' = t^{-1}$ . The only invertible positive integer is 1, so  $t = t' = 1 \Rightarrow a = b$ .
- 3. Transitive: a|b and b|c implies b=at for some t and c=bt' for some t', hence c=att', i.e., a|c.

Question: is the strict inequality (<) a partial order on  $\mathbb{Z}$ ?

Two elements  $a, b \in A$  are said to be *comparable* if either  $x \leq y$  or  $y \leq x$ , otherwise they are said to be *non comparable*. The order is called *total* or *linear* when every pair of elements  $x, y \in A$  are comparable. For instance  $(\mathbb{Z}, \leq)$  is totally ordered, but  $(\mathbb{Z}^+, |)$ , where "|" represents integer divisibility, is not. A totally ordered subset of a partially ordered set is called a *chain*; for instance the set  $\{1, 2, 4, 8, 16, \ldots\}$  is a chain in  $(\mathbb{Z}^+, |)$ .

2.3.7. Hasse diagrams. A Hasse diagram is a graphical representation of a partially ordered set in which each element is represented by a dot (node or vertex of the diagram). Its immediate successors are placed above the node and connected to it by straight line segments. As an example, figure 2.16 represents the Hasse diagram for the relation of divisibility on {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9}.

Question: How does the Hasse diagram look for a totally ordered set?

- **2.3.8.** Equivalence Relations. An equivalence relation on a set A is a binary relation " $\sim$ " on A with the following properties:
  - 1. Reflexive: for all  $x \in A$ ,  $x \sim x$ .
  - 2. Symmetric:  $x \sim y \Rightarrow y \sim x$ .
  - 3. Transitive:  $(x \sim y) \land (y \sim z) \Rightarrow x \sim z$ .

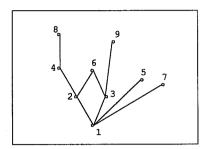


FIGURE 2.16. Hasse diagram for divisibility.

For instance, on Z, the equality (=) is an equivalence relation.

Another example, also on  $\mathbb{Z}$ , is the following:  $x \equiv y \pmod{2}$  ("x is congruent to y modulo 2") iff x-y is even. For instance,  $6 \equiv 2 \pmod{2}$  because 6-2=4 is even, but  $7 \not\equiv 4 \pmod{2}$ , because 7-4=3 is not even. Congruence modulo 2 is in fact an equivalence relation:

- 1. Reflexive: for every integer x, x-x=0 is indeed even, so  $x\equiv x\pmod 2$ .
- 2. Symmetric: if  $x \equiv y \pmod{2}$  then x y = t is even, but y x = -t is also even, hence  $y \equiv x \pmod{2}$ .
- 3. Transitive: assume  $x \equiv y \pmod{2}$  and  $y \equiv z \pmod{2}$ . Then x y = t and y z = u are even. From here, x z = (x y) + (y z) = t + u is also even, hence  $x \equiv z \pmod{2}$ .
- **2.3.9.** Equivalence Classes, Quotient Set, Partitions. Given an equivalence relation  $\sim$  on a set A, and an element  $x \in A$ , the set of elements of A related to x are called the *equivalence class* of x, represented  $[x] = \{y \in A \mid y \sim x\}$ . Element x is said to be a representative of class
- [x]. The collection of equivalence classes, represented  $A/\sim = \{[x] \mid x \in A\}$ , is called *quotient set* of A by  $\sim$ .

*Exercise*: Find the equivalence classes on  $\mathbb Z$  with the relation of congruence modulo 2.

One of the main properties of an equivalence relation on a set A is that the quotient set, i.e. the collection of equivalence classes, is a partition of A. Recall that a partition of a set A is a collection of

non-empty subsets  $A_1, A_2, A_3, \ldots$  of A which are pairwise disjoint and whose union equals A:

- 1.  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  for  $i \neq j$ ,
- 2.  $\bigcup_n A_n = A$ .

Example: in  $\mathbb{Z}$  with the relation of congruence modulo 2 (call it " $\sim_2$ "), there are two equivalence classes: the set  $\mathbb{E}$  of even integers and the set  $\mathbb{O}$  of odd integers. The quotient set of  $\mathbb{Z}$  by the relation " $\sim_2$ " of congruence modulo 2 is  $\mathbb{Z}/\sim_2=\{\mathbb{E},\mathbb{O}\}$ . We see that it is in fact a partition of  $\mathbb{Z}$ , because  $\mathbb{E}\cap\mathbb{O}=\emptyset$ , and  $\mathbb{Z}=\mathbb{E}\cup\mathbb{O}$ .

Exercise: Let m be an integer greater than or equal to 2. On  $\mathbb{Z}$  we define the relation  $x \equiv y \pmod{m} \Leftrightarrow m|(y-x)$  (i.e., m divides exactly y-x). Prove that it is an equivalence relation. What are the equivalence classes? How many are there?

Exercise: On the Cartesian product  $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}^*$  we define the relation  $(a,b) \mathcal{R}(c,d) \Leftrightarrow ad = bc$ . Prove that  $\mathcal{R}$  is an equivalence relation. Would it still be an equivalence relation if we extend it to  $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ ?

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