Chapter 4: Binary Operations and Relations

4.1: Binary Operations

DEFINITION 1. A binary operation * on a nonempty set A is a function from $A \times A$ to A.

Addition, subtraction, multiplication are binary operations on **Z**.

Addition is a binary operation on **Q** because

Division is NOT a binary operation on **Z** because

Division is a binary operation on

Classification of binary operations by their properties

Associative and Commutative Laws

DEFINITION 2. A binary operation * on A is associative if

$$\forall a, b, c \in A$$
, $(a*b)*c = a*(b*c)$.

A binary operation * on A is commutative if

$$\forall a, b \in A, \quad a * b = b * a.$$

Identities

DEFINITION 3. If * is a binary operation on A, an element $e \in A$ is an identity element of A w.r.t * if

$$\forall a \in A, \quad a*e = e*a = a.$$

EXAMPLE 4. 1 is an identity element for **Z**, **Q** and **R** w.r.t. multiplication. 0 is an identity element for **Z**, **Q** and **R** w.r.t. addition.

Inverses

DEFINITION 5. Let * be a binary operation on A with identity e, and let $a \in A$. We say that a is **invertible** w.r.t. * if there exists $b \in A$ such that

$$a * b = b * a = e$$
.

If b exists, we say that b is an **inverse** of a w.r.t. * and write $b = a^{-1}$.

Note, inverses may or may not exist.

EXAMPLE 6. Every $x \in \mathbf{Z}$ has inverse w.r.t. addition because

$$\forall x \in \mathbf{Z}, \quad x + (-x) = (-x) + x = 0.$$

However, very few elements in Z have multiplicative inverses. Namely,

EXAMPLE 7. Let * be a binary operation on **Z** defined by

$$\forall a, b \in \mathbf{Z}, \quad a * b = a + 3b - 1.$$

- (a) Prove that the operation is binary.
- (b) Determine whether the operation is associative and/or commutative. Prove your answers.

(c) Determine whether the operation has identities.

(d) Discuss inverses.

EXAMPLE 8. Let * be a binary operation on the power set P(A) defined by

$$\forall X, Y \in P(A), \quad X * Y = X \cap Y.$$

- (a) Prove that the operation is binary.
- (b) Determine whether the operation is associative and/or commutative. Prove your answers.

(c) Determine whether the operation has identities.

(d) Discuss inverses.

EXAMPLE 9. Let * be a binary operation on F(A) defined by

$$\forall f,g \in F(A), \quad f * g = f \circ g.$$

- (a) Prove that the operation is binary.
- (b) Determine whether the operation is associative and/or commutative. Prove your answers.

(c) Determine whether the operation has identities.

(d) Discuss inverses.

PROPOSITION 10. Let * be a binary operation on a nonempty set A. If e is an identity element on A then e is unique.

Proof.

PROPOSITION 11. Let * be an associative binary operation on a nonempty set A with the identity e, and if $a \in A$ has an inverse element w.r.t. *, then this inverse element is unique.

Proof. See Exercise 12.

Closure

DEFINITION 12. Let * be a binary operation on a nonempty set A, and suppose that $X \subseteq A$. If * is also a binary operation on X then we say that X is closed in A under *.

EXAMPLE 13. Determine whether the following subsets of \mathbf{Z} are closed in \mathbf{Z} under addition and multiplication.

- (a) **Z**⁺
- (b) E
- (c) O

4.2: Equivalence Relations

DEFINITION 14. A relation R on a set A is a subset of $A \times A$. If $(a,b) \in R$, we write aRb.

EXAMPLE 15. On the set **R** one can define aRb by a < b. Then, for example,

EXAMPLE 16. On the power set $P(\mathbf{Z})$ one can define R by ARB if |A| = |B|.

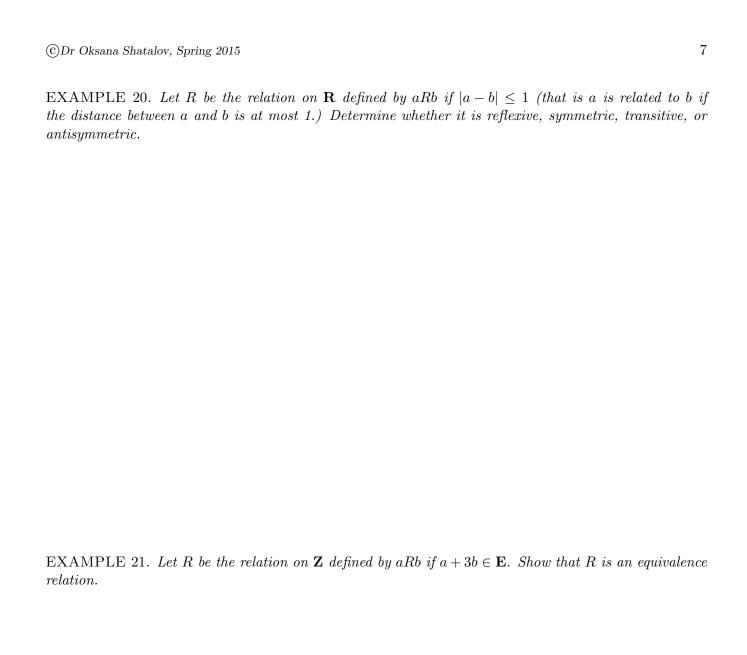
Properties of Relations

DEFINITION 17. Let R be a relation on a set A. We say:

- 1. R is reflexive if aRa, $\forall a \in A$.
- 2. R is symmetric if $\forall a, b \in A$, if aRb then bRa.
- 3. R is transitive if $\forall a, b, c \in A$, if aRb and bRc, then aRc.
- 4. R is antisymmetric if $\forall a, b \in A$, if aRb and bRa, then a = b.

DEFINITION 18. A relation R on a set A is called an **equivalence relation** if it is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.

EXAMPLE 19. Let R be the relation on **Z** defined by aRb if $a \le b$. Determine whether it is reflexive, symmetric, transitive, or antisymmetric.



REMARK 22. When R is an equivalence relation, it is common to write $a \sim b$ instead of aRb, read "a is equivalent to b."

EXAMPLE 23. Let $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$. Define aRb on \mathbf{Z} by n|a-b. (In particular, if n=2 the aRb means a-b is _____). Show that R is an equivalence relation.

REMARK 24. The above relation is called **congruence** mod n, and usually written

 $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$

Equivalence Classes

DEFINITION 25. If R is an equivalence relation on a set A, and $a \in A$, then the set

$$[a] = \{ x \in A | \ x \sim a \}$$

is called the equivalence class of a. Elements of the same class are said to be equivalent.

EXAMPLE 26. Define aRb on \mathbb{Z} by 2|a-b. (In other words, R is the relation of congruence mod 2 on \mathbb{Z} .)

(a) What integers are in the equivalence class of 6?

(b) What integers are in the equivalence class of 25?

(c) How many distinct equivalence classes there? What are they?

EXAMPLE 27. Define aRb on \mathbf{Z} by n|a-b. (In other words, R is the relation of congruence mod n on \mathbf{Z} .)

(a) How many distinct equivalence classes there? What are they?

(b)	S	lhou	v th	at th	he se	et of	thes	se eq	uival	ence	class	$ses\ fa$	rms	a pa	rtitio	on of	\mathbf{Z} .						
							$an \epsilon n A$		alence	ce rel	ation	n on	a nor	nemp	ty se	t A,	then	the s	eet of	equi	valen	ce cl	asse.
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So, any equivalence relation on a set A leads to a partition of A. In addition, any partition of A gives rise to an equivalence relation on A.

THEOREM 29. Let \mathcal{R} be a partition of a nonempty set A. Define a relation R_1 on A by aR_1b if a and b are in the same element of the partition \mathcal{R} . Then R_1 is an equivalence relation on A.

Proof.

Conclusion: Theorems 28 and 29 imply that there is a bijection between the set of all equivalence relations of A and the set of all partitions on A.

EXAMPLE 30. Let R be the relation on **Z** defined by aRb if $a + 3b \in \mathbf{E}$. By one of the above examples, R is an equivalence relation. Determine all equivalence classes for R.

Partial	and	linear	ordering
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Recall that aRb defined by $a \le b$, $a, b \in \mathbf{R}$, is not an equivalence relation. Why?

DEFINITION 31. A relation R on a set A is called a **partial ordering** on A if R is reflexive, transitive and antisymmetric.

If A is a set and there exists a partial ordering on A, then we say that A is a partially ordered set.

EXAMPLE 32. Lat A be a set. For all $X, Y \in P(A)$ define R by $X \subseteq Y$. Then R is a partial ordering of P(A).

DEFINITION 33. Let A be a set and R be a partial ordering on A. We say that R is a linear ordering on A if for all $a, b \in A$ either aRb, or bRa.

EXAMPLE 34. \leq is a linear ordering of \mathbf{R}

