FUNCTIONS AND RELATIONS

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1. Relations

Definition 1.1. An n-ary relation R on a set S can be encoded as a subset:

$$R \subseteq S^n$$

We write R(a, ..., z) whenever $(a, ..., z) \in R$. Binary relations will be the main focus of this class. For these relations, it is customary to use infix notations. That is, we write aRb instead of R(a, b).

Example 1.2. The substring relation \sqsubseteq on $\{a,b\}^*$ is the subset

$$\{(\varepsilon,\varepsilon),(\varepsilon,a),\ldots,(a,a),(a,ab),(a,ba),\ldots\}$$

Example 1.3. The divisibility relation \mid on \mathbb{Z} is defined by

$$a \mid b \iff \exists c. \, b = ac$$

It is the subset

$$\{(a,b) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \mid \exists c. \, b = ac\}$$

Example 1.4. The adjacency relation on a simple graph: two vertices u are v are adjacent if they are connected by an edge. It is the subset

$$\{(u,v) \in V \times V \mid (u,v) \in E \lor (v,u) \in E\}$$

Definition 1.5 (Reflexivity). A binary relation R on a set S is *reflexive* if every element of S is related to itself by R.

$$\forall a.\,aRa$$

Example 1.6. The divisibility relation on \mathbb{Z} is reflexive because every integer divides into itself once.

Definition 1.7 (Symmetry). A binary relation R on a set S is *symmetric* if whenever a is related to b by R, then b is also related to a by R.

$$\forall a. \forall b. (aRb \Rightarrow bRa)$$

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Example 1.8. The adjacency relation on a simple graph is symmetric. If a vertex u is adjacent to another vertex v, then v is also adjacent to u.

Definition 1.9 (Transitivity). A binary relation R on a set S is *transitive* if for any three elements a, b, c of S, if aRb and bRc then aRc.

$$\forall a. \forall b. \forall c. (aRb \land bRc \Rightarrow aRc)$$

Example 1.10. The substring relation on $\{a, b\}^*$ is transitive. In fact, it is also reflexive, but it is not symmetric.

Definition 1.11 (Equivalence Relation). A binary relation R on a set S is an equivalence relation if it is

- (i) reflexive,
- (ii) symmetric, and
- (iii) transitive.

Proposition 1.12. The congruence-modulo-2 relation on \mathbb{Z} is defined by

$$a \equiv b \mod 2 \iff 2 \mid (a - b)$$

It is an equivalence relation.

Proof. (Reflexivity). Let a be any integer. We need to prove that $a \equiv a \mod 2$. By definition, this is equivalent to proving $2 \mid (a-a)$, or equivalently, $2 \mid 0$. By definition again, this is equivalent to $\exists c. \ 0 = 2c$. Setting c := 0 yields $0 = 2 \cdot 0 = 0$ as desired.

(Symmetry). Let a, b be any integers. Assume that $a \equiv b \mod 2$. By definition, this hypothesis asserts that there's an integer c so that a - b = 2c. We need to prove $\exists k. b - a = 2k$. Setting k := -c yields b - a = -(a - b) = -2c = 2(-c) as desired

(Transitivity). Let a,b,c be any integers. Assume that $a\equiv b \mod 2$ and that $b\equiv c \mod 2$. By definition, these two hypotheses assert that there are integers n,m so that a-b=2n and c-b=2m. We need to show that $\exists c.\ a-c=2c$. Setting c:=n-m yields 2(n-m)=2n-2m=a-b-(c-b)=a-b-c+b=a-c as desired.

Definition 1.13 (Antisymmetry). A binary relation R on a set S is antisymmetric if for any two elements a, b of S, if aRb and bRa then a = b.

Example 1.14. The subset relation \subseteq on $\mathcal{P}(S)$ is antisymmetric. Recall that two sets A and B are equal precisely when $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$.

Remark 1.15. Antisymmetry does **not** imply asymmetry. For example, the indiscrete relation I on the singleton set $\{a\}$, defined as

$$I = \{(a, a)\}$$

is both antisymmetric and symmetric.

Definition 1.16 (Preorder). A binary relation is a *preorder* if it is

- (i) reflexive, and
- (ii) transitive.

Definition 1.17 (Partial Order). A partial order is a preorder that additionally satisfies antisymmetry.

Proposition 1.18. The divisibility relation on \mathbb{N} is a partial order.

Proof. (Reflexivity): Exercise.

(Transitivity): Exercise. Hint: See Proposition 1.12.

(Antisymmetry): Let a,b be natural numbers so that $a\mid b$ and $b\mid a$. These hypotheses assert that there are natural numbers n,m so that b=an and that a=bm. Thus, b=(bm)n. If b=0, then since a=bm=0m=0, a=b as desired. However, if $b\neq 0$, then mn=1. Since n,m are natural numbers, n=m=1. Thus, a=b as desired.

Remark 1.19. Proposition 1.18 does not hold if we replace \mathbb{N} with \mathbb{Z} because $2 \mid -2$ and $-2 \mid 2$, but $2 \neq -2$. Although the divisibility relation on \mathbb{Z} is not a partial order, it is a preorder.

2. Functions

3. Countable Sets and Uncountable Sets

Theorem 3.1. $\mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}}$ is uncountable.

Proof. Suppose that $\mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}}$ is countable, i.e., $\mathbb{N} \cong \mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}}$. A possible interpretation of this hypothesis is that every function $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ can be given a unique natural-number code. That is, there are functions

$$\mathsf{decode}: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}}$$

$$\mathsf{encode}: \mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}} \to \mathbb{N}$$

that are mutual inverses. Consider the function

$$k: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$$

 $k: n \mapsto \mathsf{decode}(n)(n) + 1$

Given a code n, the function k decodes n, yielding a function $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$, then evaluates that function at n, and finally adds 1 to the result.

The function k has a unique code given by encode(k). Now, let's evaluate k at its own code:

$$\begin{split} k(\mathsf{encode}(k)) &= \mathsf{decode}(\mathsf{encode}(k))(\mathsf{encode}(k)) + 1 \\ &= k(\mathsf{encode}(k)) + 1 \end{split}$$

This is a contradiction.

Theorem 3.1 tells us that some functions $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ are uncomputable: there are only countably many programs that one can write, but there are uncountably many endofunctions on \mathbb{N} . Thus, some of those functions do not have a corresponding program that computes it.