

Homework: Week 9

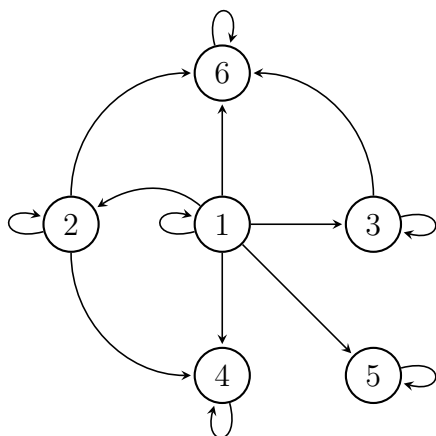
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Math 100
Due: December 1, 2017
Professor Boltje
MWF 9:20a-10:25a

Section 11.0

2.

$$R = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3), (1, 4), (1, 5), \\ (1, 6), (2, 2), (2, 4), (2, 6), (3, 3), \\ (3, 6), (4, 4), (5, 5), (6, 6)\}$$



12.

$y \leq x$. The relation is \leq .

Section 11.1

14.

Suppose $x \in A$. Since R is symmetric, then xRa and aRx , then since R is transitive then xRx .

Section 11.2

2.

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

10.

Proposition: Suppose R and A are two equivalence relations on a set A . Prove that $R \cap S$ is also an equivalence relation.

Proof. Suppose $(x, y) \in R \cap S$ is not an equivalence relation. Then $(x, y) \in R$ and $(x, y) \in S$. R and S are equivalence relations therefore $(x, y) \in R \cap S$ is an equivalence relation, but we said $(x, y) \notin R \cap S$, a contradiction.

12.

Proposition: Suppose R and S are equivalence relations on a set A , then $R \cup S$ is also an equivalence relation on A .

Proof. Let $R = \{(a, a), (b, b), (c, c), (a, b), (b, a)\}$ and $S = \{(a, a), (b, b), (c, c), (b, c), (c, b)\}$. Then $R \cup S = \{(a, a), (b, b), (c, c), (a, b), (b, a), (b, c), (c, b)\}$. Now observe that $(a, b) \in R \wedge (a, b) \in S \not\Rightarrow (a, b) \in R \cup S$. So $R \cup S$ is not transitive, therefore it is not an equivalence relation.

14.

To show S is an equivalence relation, we must show that it's reflexive, symmetric, and transitive. To show it's reflexive, we choose an $x \in A$ and $n = 1$, Then $x_1 = x$ so then xRx since R is reflexive, thus xSx . Now suppose xSy . Then, by definition, there are elements $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in A$ such that $xRx_1, x_1Rx_2, \dots, x_nRy$. Since R is symmetric, $yRx_n, \dots, x_2Rx_1, x_1Rx$, so ySx . Now suppose xSy and ySz . Since xSy then xRa, aRa_1, \dots, a_nRy . Since ySz then yRb, bRb_1, \dots, b_mRz so $xRa, \dots, a_nRy, yRb_1, \dots, b_mRz$ so xSz . Now to show that $R \subseteq S$, suppose $(x, y) \in R$. Since xRy, xSy by definition $xSy \Rightarrow (x, y) \in S$. To show S is the smallest equivalence relation on A , assume T is an equivalence relation on A containing R . Suppose $(x, y) \in S$. So xSy is xRx_1, \dots, x_nRy so xTx_1, \dots, x_nTy so xTx which shows that S is a subset of T .

Section 11.3

2.

The partitions of set A are:

$\{\{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}\},$
 $\{\{a, b\}, \{c\}\},$
 $\{\{a\}, \{b, c\}\},$
 $\{\{a, c\}, \{b\}\},$
 $\{\{a, b, c\}\}.$

4.

Proof. Suppose $x \in A$. Let $X \in P$, such that $x \in X$. Then by definition, xRx . Then suppose xRy for some $x, y \in A$, then by definition there exists a $X \in P$ such that $x, y \in X$. In particular, it also means $y, x \in X$ so yRx . Now suppose xRy and xRz for some $x, y, z \in A$. Then by definition, there exists $X_1, X_2 \in P$ such that $x, y \in X_1$ and $y, z \in X_2$. Since P is a partition of A , y can only be in one part, therefore $X_1 = X_2$. Thus $x, z \in X \rightarrow xRz$. Let $X \in P$ be a part of the partition. Then by definition xRy for any two $x, y \in X$. Also, given $a \in X$ and $b \in A - X$ then by definition a and b are not related. Thus X is an equivalence class of R . Since every element of A is in exactly one of the parts of P , there are no equivalence classes besides the ones from the partition, thus P is the set of equivalence classes of R .

Section 11.4

4.

| | | | | | | |
|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| + | [0] | [1] | [2] | [3] | [4] | [5] |
| [0] | [0] | [1] | [2] | [3] | [4] | [5] |
| [1] | [1] | [2] | [3] | [4] | [5] | [0] |
| [2] | [2] | [3] | [4] | [5] | [0] | [1] |
| [3] | [3] | [4] | [5] | [0] | [1] | [2] |
| [4] | [4] | [5] | [0] | [1] | [2] | [3] |
| [5] | [5] | [0] | [1] | [2] | [3] | [4] |
| · | [0] | [1] | [2] | [3] | [4] | [5] |
| [0] | [0] | [0] | [0] | [0] | [0] | [0] |
| [1] | [0] | [1] | [2] | [3] | [4] | [5] |
| [2] | [0] | [2] | [4] | [0] | [2] | [4] |
| [3] | [0] | [3] | [0] | [3] | [0] | [3] |
| [4] | [0] | [4] | [2] | [0] | [4] | [2] |
| [5] | [0] | [5] | [4] | [3] | [2] | [1] |

6.

No, because in \mathbb{Z}_6 , for example, $[a]$ could be $[3]$ and $[b]$ could be $[4]$ which would be $[4] \cdot [3] = [12] = [0]$. As long as $[a] \cdot [b]$ results in a multiple of 6 then the result will be $[0]$.

8.

By definition, $[a] = [a']$ is $a \equiv a' \pmod{n}$ so $n|a - a' \rightarrow a - a' = nk, k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Similarly, $[b] = [b']$ is $b \equiv b' \pmod{n}$ so $n|b - b' \rightarrow b - b' = nm, m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then we can say $a = a' + nk$ and $b = b' + nm$. If we add them together, we get $a + b = (a' + b') + nk + nm \rightarrow (a + b) - (a' + b') = n(k + m) \rightarrow (a + b) - (a' + b') = nh, h = (k + m) \in \mathbb{Z}$. Therefore $n|(a + b) - (a' + b') \rightarrow (a + b) \equiv (a' + b') \pmod{n}$. Therefore in \mathbb{Z}_n , $[a + b] = [a' + b']$.