

Algebra 1 Course

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Algebra 1

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Lesson Plan :

1. Mathematical Logic.
2. Sets, Applications and Binary relations.
3. Algebraic structures.
4. Polynomials.

References :

1. M. Mignotte et J. Nervi, Algèbre : licences sciences 1ère année, Ellipses, Paris, 2004.
2. J. Franchini et J. C. Jacquens, Algèbre : cours, exercices corrigés, travaux dirigés, Ellipses, Paris, 1996.
3. C. Degrave et D. Degrave, Algèbre 1ère année : cours, méthodes, exercices résolus, Bréal, 2003.
4. S. Balac et F. Sturm, Algèbre et analyse : cours de mathématiques de première année avec exercices corrigés, Presses Polytechniques et Universitaires romandes, 2003.

CHAPITRE 1

SETS, FUNCTIONS, AND BINARY RELATIONS

1.1 Sets

Definition 1.1. *A set is a collection of objects called the elements of that set.*

Notations :

- In general, sets are represented by capital letters : $E, F, \dots$
- Elements of a set are usually represented by lowercase letters : $x, y, \dots$
- If x is in E , we write $x \in E$.
- If x is not in E , we write $x \notin E$.

Example 1.1. 1. *The set of digits in the decimal system :*

$$E = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\},$$

we have : $5 \in E$, $15 \notin E$.

2. *The set of even natural numbers :*

$$\mathbb{P} = \{x \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } 2 \text{ divides } x\},$$

we have : $2 \in \mathbb{P}$, $3 \notin \mathbb{P}$.

3. *The empty set is denoted by $\emptyset$, which contains no elements.*

4. *The set*

$$F = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ such that } |x - 1| \leq 2\} = [-1, 3].$$

1.1.1 Sets Inclusion

Definition 1.2. *Let A and B be two sets. We say that A is included in B if and only if every element of A is in B , and we write $A \subset B$.*

Remark 1.1. 1. *If A is included in B , we can say that A is a part of B (or A is a subset of B), and we write :*

$$A \subset B \Leftrightarrow \forall x : x \in A \Rightarrow x \in B.$$

2. *We say that A is not included in B if there exists at least one element of A that does not belong to B , and we write :*

$$A \not\subset B \Leftrightarrow \exists x : x \in A \wedge x \notin B.$$

Example 1.2. 1. *We have : $\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R}$.*

2. *If $A =]1, 2[$ and $B = [1, 2]$, then $A \subset B$*

1.1.2 Equality of Two Sets

Definition 1.3. Let A and B be two sets. We say that A and B are equal if they have the same elements, and we write $A = B$.

$$A = B \Leftrightarrow ((A \subset B) \wedge (B \subset A)).$$

Example 1.3. Let

$$A = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : |x - 1| \leq 1\}, \quad B = [0, 2], \quad C = [0, 2[.$$

We have :

$$A = B, \quad A \neq C, \quad B \neq C, \quad C \subset B.$$

1.1.3 Subsets of a Set

Definition 1.4. Let E be a set. The set of all subsets of E is called the parts of a Set E , denoted $P(E)$.

Example 1.4. Let $E = \{-1, 0, 1\}$, then :

$$P(E) = \{\emptyset, E, \{-1\}, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{-1, 0\}, \{-1, 1\}, \{0, 1\}\}$$

1.1.4 Set Operations

Set Complement

Definition 1.5. Let A be a subset of E . The complement of A in E is :

$$C_E A = \{x \in E : x \notin A\}.$$

Example 1.5. 1. Let $E = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ and $A = \{1, 3, 5\}$, then : $C_E A = \{0, 2, 4\}$.

2. Let $I = [-1, 8[$, then : $C_{\mathbb{R}} I =]-\infty, -1[\cup [8, +\infty[$.

Remark 1.2. $C_E(C_E A) = A$.

Intersection

Definition 1.6. Let A and B be subsets of E . The intersection of A and B is :

$$A \cap B = \{x \in E : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}.$$

Example 1.6. 1. Let : $A = \{2, 4, 6\}$ and $B = \{3, 4, 5, 6\}$, then : $A \cap B = \{4, 6\}$.

2. Let : $A = [-5, 5]$ and $A =]2, +\infty[$, then : $A \cap B =]2, 5]$.

Union

Definition 1.7. Let A and B be subsets of E . The union of A and B is :

$$A \cup B = \{x \in E : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}.$$

Example 1.7. 1. Let : $A = \{0, 2, 4\}$ and $B = \{3, 4, 5, 6\}$, then : $A \cup B = \{0, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.

2. Let : $A = [-5, 5]$ and $A =]2, +\infty[$, then : $A \cup B = [-5, +\infty[$.

Remark 1.3. 1. If A and B have no elements in common, they are said to be disjoint ; in this case, $A \cap B = \emptyset$.

2. $A \cap C_E A = \emptyset$ and $A \cup C_E A = E$.

Difference of Two Sets

Definition 1.8. Let A and B be subsets of E . The difference of A and B is :

$$A \setminus B = \{x \in E : x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}.$$

Example 1.8. Let : $E = \mathbb{R}, A = [-1, 2]$ and $B = [0, 3]$, then we have :

$$A \setminus B = [-1, 0[\text{ et } B \setminus A =]2, 3]$$

Symmetric Difference

Definition 1.9. Let A and B be subsets of E . The symmetric difference of A and B is :

$$A \Delta B = (A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A) = (A \cup B) \setminus (A \cap B).$$

Example 1.9. Let : $E = \mathbb{Z}, A = \{-3, 0, 2, 6\}$ et $B = \{-1, 1, 2, 6\}$, then we have :

$$A \Delta B = \{-3, -1, 0, 1\}$$

Properties of Set Operations

Let A, B , and C be subsets of a set E . We have :

1. Commutativity :

$$A \cap B = B \cap A, \quad A \cup B = B \cup A.$$

2. Associativity :

$$A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C, \quad A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C.$$

3. Distributivity :

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C), \quad A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C).$$

4. De Morgan's Laws :

$$(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c, \quad (A \cap B)^c = A^c \cup B^c.$$

Démonstration. **6.** Show that : $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$ It must be shown that : $(A \cup B)^c \subset A^c \cap B^c$ and $A^c \cap B^c \subset (A \cup B)^c$.

— $(A \cup B)^c \subset A^c \cap B^c$:

Let $x \in (A \cup B)^c \Rightarrow x \notin (A \cup B) \Rightarrow x \notin A \wedge x \notin B \Rightarrow x \in A^c \wedge x \in B^c$ as well as $x \in (A \cup B)^c \Rightarrow x \in (A^c \cap B^c)$, from where $(A \cup B)^c \subset (A^c \cap B^c)$.

— $A^c \cap B^c \subset (A \cup B)^c$

Let $x \in (A^c \cap B^c) \Rightarrow x \in A^c \wedge x \in B^c \Rightarrow x \notin A \wedge x \notin B \Rightarrow x \notin (A \cup B), d'$ where $A^c \cap B^c \subset (A \cup B)^c$, then $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$.

□

1.1.5 Cartesian Product

Definition 1.10. For two sets A and B , the Cartesian product is the set of all pairs (a, b) with $a \in A$ and $b \in B$:

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

Example 1.10. Let : $A = \{1, 2\}, B = \{1, 2, 3\}$

$$A \times B = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 1), (2, 2), (2, 3)\},$$

$$B \times A = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (2, 1), (2, 2), (3, 1), (3, 2)\},$$

$$A \times B \neq B \times A, \text{ car } (3, 2) \in B \times A, \text{ and } (3, 2) \notin A \times B.$$

1.2 Functions

Definition 1.11. A **function** from a set E to a set F is a correspondence f that associates to each element $x \in E$ one and only one element $y \in F$.

The set E is called the domain, and F is called the codomain. The element y of F associated with an element x of E is denoted by $y = f(x)$.

$y = f(x)$ is called the image of x , and x is called a preimage (or antecedent) of y . We write :

$$\begin{aligned} f : E &\longrightarrow F \\ x &\longmapsto y = f(x) \end{aligned}$$

Example 1.11. 1. Consider the following functions :

$$\begin{aligned} f : \mathbb{N} &\longrightarrow \mathbb{N} \\ n &\longmapsto 2n + 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} g : \mathbb{R} &\longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \\ x &\longmapsto x^2. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} Id_E : E &\longrightarrow E \\ x &\longmapsto x. \end{aligned}$$

Id_E is called the identity function on E .

2. The correspondence :

$$\begin{aligned} f : \mathbb{R} &\longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ x &\longmapsto \frac{1}{x}. \end{aligned}$$

is not a function, since the element 0 has no image in $\mathbb{R}$.

1.2.1 Direct Image and Inverse Image

a) Direct Image

Definition 1.12. Let $f : E \rightarrow F$ and $A \subset E$. The direct image of A by f , written $f(A)$, is the set of all images of the elements of A by f :

$$f(A) = \{f(x) \in F \mid x \in A\}.$$

Example 1.12. Let f be the function defined by :

$$\begin{aligned} f : [0, 3] &\longrightarrow [0, 5] \\ x &\longmapsto f(x) = 2x + 1 \end{aligned}$$

— Let's calculate $f(\{2\})$:

$$f(\{2\}) = \{f(x) \mid x \in \{2\}\} = \{2x + 1 \mid x = 2\} = \{f(2)\} = \{5\}.$$

— Let's calculate $f([0, 1])$:

$$\begin{aligned} f([0, 1]) &= \{f(x) \mid x \in [0, 1]\} = \{2x + 1 \mid 0 \leq x \leq 1\}. \\ \text{Since } 0 \leq x \leq 1 &\Rightarrow 0 \leq 2x \leq 2 \Rightarrow 1 \leq 2x + 1 \leq 3, \\ \text{then } f([0, 1]) &= [1, 3] \subset [0, 5]. \end{aligned}$$

b) Inverse Image

Definition 1.13. Let $f : E \rightarrow F$ and $B \subset F$. The inverse image of B by f , written $f^{-1}(B)$, is the set of all x in E such that $f(x)$ is in B :

$$f^{-1}(B) = \{x \in E \mid f(x) \in B\}.$$

Example 1.13. Let f be the function defined by :

$$\begin{aligned} f : [0, 2] &\longrightarrow [0, 4] \\ x &\longmapsto f(x) = (x - 1)^2 \end{aligned}$$

1. Let's find $f^{-1}(\{0\})$:

$$f^{-1}(\{0\}) = \{x \in [0, 2] \mid f(x) \in \{0\}\} = \{x \in [0, 2] \mid f(x) = 0\} = \{x \in [0, 2] \mid (x-1)^2 = 0\} = \{1\}.$$

2. Let's find $f^{-1}((0, 1))$:

$$\begin{aligned} f^{-1}((0, 1)) &= \{x \in [0, 2] \mid f(x) \in (0, 1)\} \\ &= \{x \in [0, 2] \mid 0 < (x - 1)^2 < 1\}. \end{aligned}$$

We have $(x - 1)^2 > 0$ for all $x \in [0, 1) \cup (1, 2]$.

Also, $(x - 1)^2 < 1 \Rightarrow |x - 1| < 1 \Rightarrow -1 < x - 1 < 1 \Rightarrow 0 < x < 2$.

Combining both, we get :

$$f^{-1}((0, 1)) = ([0, 1) \cup (1, 2]) \cap (0, 2) = (0, 1) \cup (1, 2).$$

Proposition 1.1. Let $f : E \rightarrow F$. Then :

1. If $A \subset B$, then $f(A) \subset f(B)$.
2. $f(A \cup B) = f(A) \cup f(B)$.
3. $f(A \cap B) \subset f(A) \cap f(B)$.

Démonstration. 1. Let $y \in f(A)$. Then there exists $x \in A$ such that $f(x) = y$. Since $A \subset B$, we have $x \in B$, hence $y = f(x) \in f(B)$. Therefore, $f(A) \subset f(B)$.

2. Let's show that $f(A \cup B) \subset f(A) \cup f(B)$.

$$\begin{aligned} y \in f(A \cup B) &\Leftrightarrow \exists x \in A \cup B \text{ such that } f(x) = y \\ &\Leftrightarrow (\exists x \in A, f(x) = y) \vee (\exists x \in B, f(x) = y) \\ &\Leftrightarrow y \in f(A) \vee y \in f(B) \\ &\Leftrightarrow y \in f(A) \cup f(B). \end{aligned}$$

The reverse inclusion $f(A) \cup f(B) \subset f(A \cup B)$ is proved in the same way. Hence, $f(A \cup B) = f(A) \cup f(B)$.

3. Let

$$\begin{aligned} y \in f(A \cap B) &\Rightarrow \exists x \in A \cap B \text{ such that } f(x) = y \\ &\Rightarrow (\exists x \in A, f(x) = y) \wedge (\exists x \in B, f(x) = y) \\ &\Rightarrow y \in f(A) \wedge y \in f(B) \\ &\Rightarrow y \in f(A) \cap f(B). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $f(A \cap B) \subset f(A) \cap f(B)$.

□

Example 1.14. Let $f(x) = x^2$, $A = [-1, 0]$, $B = [0, 1]$. Then $A \cap B = \{0\}$, $f(A) = [0, 1]$, and $f(B) = [0, 1]$.

$$f(A) \cap f(B) = [0, 1], \quad f(A \cap B) = f(\{0\}) = \{0\} \neq [0, 1] = f(A) \cap f(B).$$

The equality $f(A \cap B) = f(A) \cap f(B)$ holds only when f is injective.

1.2.2 Injection, Surjection, Bijection

Let E and F be two non-empty sets, and let f be a function from E to F .

a) Injection

Definition 1.14. A function f is **injective** (or one-to-one) if each element of F has at most one preimage in E . That is,

$$f \text{ is injective} \Leftrightarrow \forall x_1, x_2 \in E, f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2,$$

or equivalently,

$$x_1 \neq x_2 \Rightarrow f(x_1) \neq f(x_2).$$

Example 1.15. Are the following functions injective?

1.

$$f_1 : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$$

$$n \mapsto 3n + 5.$$

f_1 is injective because : $\forall n_1, n_2 \in \mathbb{N}, f_1(n_1) = f_1(n_2) \Rightarrow 3n_1 + 5 = 3n_2 + 5 \Rightarrow 3n_1 = 3n_2 \Rightarrow n_1 = n_2$

2.

$$f_2 : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$$

$$x \mapsto x^2.$$

f_2 is not injective because -1 and 1 have the same image.

b) Surjection

Definition 1.15. A function f is **surjective** (onto) if every y in F is the image of at least one x in E :

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

Example 1.16. Are the following functions surjective?

1.

$$f_1 : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$$

$$n \mapsto 3n + 5$$

f_1 is not surjective. Suppose it is surjective, that is :

$$\forall y \in \mathbb{N}, \exists n \in \mathbb{N} : y = 3n + 5 \Rightarrow n = \frac{y-5}{3}.$$

But $n = \frac{y-5}{3}$ is not always a natural number, which is a contradiction. Therefore, f_1 is not surjective.

2.

$$f_2 : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$$

$$x \mapsto x^2$$

f_2 is surjective because every element of $\mathbb{R}^+$ has at least one preimage in $\mathbb{R}$.

c) Bijection

Definition 1.16. A function f is **bijective** (or a **bijection**) if it is both injective and surjective. That is, every element of F is the image of one and only one element of E :

$$f \text{ is bijective} \Leftrightarrow \forall y \in F, \exists! x \in E : y = f(x).$$

Example 1.17. 1. f_1 is not bijective because it is not surjective.

2. f_2 is not bijective because it is not injective.

3. Let

$$\begin{aligned} f_3 : \mathbb{R} &\longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ x &\longmapsto 2x + 1 \end{aligned}$$

f_3 is bijective because :

- it is **injective** : if $f_3(x_1) = f_3(x_2)$, then $2x_1 + 1 = 2x_2 + 1$, so $x_1 = x_2$;
- it is **surjective** : for every $y \in \mathbb{R}$, we have $y = 2x + 1$, which gives $x = \frac{y-1}{2} \in \mathbb{R}$.

Remark 1.4. If f is bijective, then there exists an inverse function f^{-1} from F to E , and

$$(f^{-1})^{-1} = f.$$

Example 1.18. The function f_3 is bijective, and its inverse is defined by :

$$\begin{aligned} f_3^{-1} : \mathbb{R} &\longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ y &\longmapsto \frac{y-1}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

1.2.3 Composition of Functions

Definition 1.17. Let E , F , and G be sets. If $f : E \rightarrow F$ and $g : F \rightarrow G$, then the composition of f and g , written $g \circ f$, is the function from E to G defined by

$$(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)).$$

Example 1.19. We consider the following functions :

$$\begin{aligned} f : \mathbb{R} &\longrightarrow \mathbb{R} & g : \mathbb{R} &\longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ x &\longmapsto x^2. & x &\longmapsto x + 1. \end{aligned}$$

Alors :

$$\begin{aligned} g \circ f : \mathbb{R} &\longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ x &\longmapsto x^2 + 1. \end{aligned}$$

et

$$\begin{aligned} f \circ g : \mathbb{R} &\longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ x &\longmapsto (x + 1)^2. \end{aligned}$$

It is clear that : $g \circ f \neq f \circ g$.

Proposition 1.2. 1. If f and g are injective, then $g \circ f$ is injective.

2. If f and g are surjective, then $g \circ f$ is surjective.

Démonstration. 1. Suppose that f and g are injective. Let us show that $g \circ f$ is injective.

Let $x_1, x_2 \in E$ such that

$$g \circ f(x_1) = g \circ f(x_2).$$

Then

$$g(f(x_1)) = g(f(x_2)).$$

Since g is injective, we have

$$f(x_1) = f(x_2).$$

As f is injective, it follows that

$$x_1 = x_2.$$

Hence, $g \circ f$ is injective.

2. Suppose that f and g are surjective, that is, $f(E) = F$ and $g(F) = G$.

Let us show that $g \circ f$ is surjective. We have

$$g \circ f(E) = g(f(E)) = g(F) = G,$$

by the surjectivity of f and g . Therefore, $g \circ f$ is surjective. □

Remark 1.5. It follows that the composition of two bijections is a bijection. In particular, for $f : E \rightarrow F$ and its inverse $f^{-1} : F \rightarrow E$, we have

$$f^{-1} \circ f = Id_E \quad \text{and} \quad f \circ f^{-1} = Id_F.$$

Proposition 1.3. Let $f : E \rightarrow F$ and $g : F \rightarrow G$. Then :

1. If $g \circ f$ is injective, then f is injective.
2. If $g \circ f$ is surjective, then g is surjective.
3. If $g \circ f$ is bijective, then f is injective and g is surjective.

Démonstration. 1. Let $x_1, x_2 \in E$ such that $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$. Then

$$g(f(x_1)) = g(f(x_2)).$$

Since $g \circ f$ is injective, we have $x_1 = x_2$. Hence, f is injective.

2. We have $f(E) \subset F \Rightarrow g \circ f(E) \subset g(F) \subset G$. Since $g \circ f$ is surjective, we get $g \circ f(E) = G$, which implies $G \subset g(F)$. Therefore, $G = g(F)$, and thus g is surjective. □

1.3 Binary Relations

Definition 1.18. A relation from a set E to a set F is a correspondence $\mathcal{R}$ that links elements of E with elements of F .

If x is related to y by $\mathcal{R}$, we write $x\mathcal{R}y$.

If $E = F$, the relation $\mathcal{R}$ is called a binary relation.

Example 1.20. 1. For all $x, y \in \mathbb{N}$, let $x\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow x$ divides y . Then $\mathcal{R}$ is a binary relation.

2. For all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, let $x\mathcal{S}y \Leftrightarrow x^2 + 1 = y^2 + 1$. Then $\mathcal{S}$ is a binary relation.

3. Let $\mathbb{P}(E)$ be the set of all subsets of a set E .

For all $A, B \subset \mathbb{P}(E)$, let $A\mathcal{T}B \Leftrightarrow A \subset B$. Then $\mathcal{T}$ is a binary relation.

1.3.1 Properties of Binary Relations

Let $\mathcal{R}$ be a binary relation on a set E , and let $x, y, z \in E$. We say that $\mathcal{R}$ is :

1. **Reflexive** : $\forall x \in E, x\mathcal{R}x$.
2. **Symmetric** : $\forall x, y \in E, x\mathcal{R}y \Rightarrow y\mathcal{R}x$.
3. **Antisymmetric** : $\forall x, y \in E, (x\mathcal{R}y) \wedge (y\mathcal{R}x) \Rightarrow (x = y)$.
4. **Transitive** : $\forall x, y, z \in E, (x\mathcal{R}y) \wedge (y\mathcal{R}z) \Rightarrow (x\mathcal{R}z)$.

1.3.2 Equivalence Relation

Definition 1.19. A binary relation $\mathcal{R}$ on a set E is an **equivalence relation** if it is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.

Example 1.21. Let $\mathcal{R}$ be a binary relation on $\mathbb{R}$ defined by :

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, x\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow x + 1 = y + 1.$$

Let us show that $\mathcal{R}$ is an equivalence relation :

- a) $\mathcal{R}$ is reflexive : $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, x\mathcal{R}x$.
Indeed, $x\mathcal{R}x \Leftrightarrow x + 1 = x + 1 \Rightarrow 0 = 0$, which is true.
Therefore, $\mathcal{R}$ is reflexive.
- b) $\mathcal{R}$ is symmetric : $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, x\mathcal{R}y \Rightarrow y\mathcal{R}x$.
We have $x\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow x + 1 = y + 1 \Leftrightarrow y + 1 = x + 1 \Rightarrow y\mathcal{R}x$.
Therefore, $\mathcal{R}$ is symmetric.
- c) $\mathcal{R}$ is transitive : $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\begin{cases} x\mathcal{R}y, \\ y\mathcal{R}z \end{cases} \Rightarrow x\mathcal{R}z.$$

We have

$$\begin{cases} x\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow x + 1 = y + 1, \\ y\mathcal{R}z \Leftrightarrow y + 1 = z + 1, \end{cases} \Rightarrow x + 1 = z + 1 \Leftrightarrow x\mathcal{R}z.$$

Therefore, $\mathcal{R}$ is transitive.

Hence, from (a), (b), and (c), $\mathcal{R}$ is an equivalence relation.

Equivalence Class

Definition 1.20. Let $\mathcal{R}$ be an equivalence relation on a set E . The **equivalence class** of $x \in E$ is the set

$$\bar{x} = \{ y \in E \mid x\mathcal{R}y \}.$$

Remark 1.6. The set of all equivalence classes of elements of E is called the **quotient set** of E by $\mathcal{R}$, and is denoted by $E/\mathcal{R}$:

$$E/\mathcal{R} = \{ \bar{x} \mid x \in E \}.$$

Example 1.22. Let $\mathcal{R}$ be the binary relation on $\mathbb{R}$ defined by :

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, x\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow x^2 - x = y^2 - y.$$

$\mathcal{R}$ is an equivalence relation because :

1. $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, x^2 - x = x^2 - x \Leftrightarrow x\mathcal{R}x$. Hence, $\mathcal{R}$ is reflexive.
2. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, x\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow x^2 - x = y^2 - y \Leftrightarrow y^2 - y = x^2 - x \Leftrightarrow y\mathcal{R}x$. Hence, $\mathcal{R}$ is symmetric.
3. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}, (x\mathcal{R}y \wedge y\mathcal{R}z) \Leftrightarrow (x^2 - x = y^2 - y \wedge y^2 - y = z^2 - z) \Rightarrow x^2 - x = z^2 - z \Leftrightarrow x\mathcal{R}z$. Hence, $\mathcal{R}$ is transitive.

Now, let us find the following equivalence classes : C_0 , $\bar{1}$, $\dot{2}$, and $C_{\frac{1}{2}}$.

1. $C_0 = \{y \in E \mid 0\mathcal{R}y\}$, and $0\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow y^2 - y = 0$, hence $C_0 = \{0, 1\}$.
2. $\bar{1} = \{y \in E \mid 1\mathcal{R}y\}$, and $y^2 - y = 1 - 1 = 0$, hence $\bar{1} = \{0, 1\}$.
3. $\dot{2} = \{y \in E \mid 2\mathcal{R}y\}$, and $y^2 - y = 2$, hence $\dot{2} = \{-1, 2\}$.
4. $C_{\frac{1}{2}} = \{y \in E \mid \frac{1}{2}\mathcal{R}y\}$, and $y^2 - y = \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{2} = -\frac{1}{4}$, hence $C_{\frac{1}{2}} = \{\frac{1}{2}\}$.

1.3.3 Order Relation

Definition 1.21. Let E be a non-empty set. A binary relation $\mathcal{R}$ on E is called an **order relation** if it is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive.

Example 1.23. Let $\mathcal{R}$ be the binary relation on E defined by :

$$\forall A \subset E, \forall B \subset E, \quad A\mathcal{R}B \Leftrightarrow A \subset B.$$

Let us show that $\mathcal{R}$ is an order relation :

- a) Reflexive : $\forall A \subset E, A \subset A$. Hence, $\mathcal{R}$ is reflexive.
- b) Antisymmetric : $\forall A, B \subset E, (A \subset B \wedge B \subset A) \Rightarrow A = B$. Hence, $\mathcal{R}$ is antisymmetric.
- c) Transitive : $\forall A, B, C \subset E, (A \subset B \wedge B \subset C) \Rightarrow A \subset C$. Hence, $\mathcal{R}$ is transitive.

Therefore, from (a), (b), and (c), $\mathcal{R}$ is an order relation.

Definition 1.22. An order relation on a set E is called a **total order** if any two elements of E are comparable, i.e., $\forall x, y \in E$, we have $x\mathcal{R}y$ or $y\mathcal{R}x$. An order relation that is not total is called a **partial order**.

Example 1.24. 1. For all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, let $x\mathcal{R}y \Leftrightarrow x \leq y$. This is a total order relation because :

2. Reflexive : $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, x \leq x \Leftrightarrow x\mathcal{R}x$.
3. Antisymmetric : $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, (x\mathcal{R}y \wedge y\mathcal{R}x) \Leftrightarrow (x \leq y \wedge y \leq x) \Rightarrow x = y$.
4. Transitive : $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}, (x\mathcal{R}y \wedge y\mathcal{R}z) \Leftrightarrow (x \leq y \wedge y \leq z) \Rightarrow x \leq z \Leftrightarrow x\mathcal{R}z$.
5. Total : $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, x \leq y$ or $y \leq x$, so $\mathcal{R}$ is a total order relation.