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Composition iterates, Cauchy, translation, and Sincov inclusions

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Abstract. Improving and extending some ideas of Gottlob Frege from 1874 (on a generalization of the notion of the composition iterates of a function), we consider the composition iterates φ^n of a relation φ on X, defined by

$$\phi^0 = \Delta_X, \qquad \phi^n = \phi \circ \phi^{n-1} \quad \mathrm{if} \quad n \in \mathbb{N}, \qquad \mathrm{and} \qquad \phi^\infty = \bigcup_{n=0}^\infty \phi^n.$$

In particular, by using the relational inclusion $\varphi^n \circ \varphi^m \subseteq \varphi^{n+m}$ with $n, m \in \overline{\mathbb{N}}_0 = \{0\} \cup \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$, we show that the function α , defined by

$$\alpha(n) = \phi^n \text{ for } n \in \overline{\mathbb{N}}_0,$$

satisfies the Cauchy problem

 $\alpha(n) \circ \alpha(m) \subseteq \alpha(n+m), \qquad \alpha(0) = \Delta_X.$

Moreover, the function f, defined by

 $f(n,A) = \alpha(n)[A] \qquad {\rm for} \qquad n \in \overline{\mathbb{N}}_0 \quad {\rm and} \quad A \subseteq X,$

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$$f(n, f(m, A)) \subseteq f(n + m, A), \qquad f(0, A) = A.$$

Furthermore, the function F, defined by

$$F(A,B) = \{n \in \overline{\mathbb{N}}_0 : A \subseteq f(n,B)\} \quad \text{for} \quad A,B \subseteq X,$$

satisfies the Sincov problem

$$F(A, B) + F(B, C) \subseteq F(A, C), \qquad 0 \in F(A, A).$$

Motivated by the above observations, we investigate a function F on the product set X^2 to the power groupoid $\mathcal{P}(U)$ of an additively written groupoid U which is supertriangular in the sense that

$$F(x, y) + F(y, z) \subseteq F(x, z)$$

for all $x, y, z \in X$. For this, we introduce the convenient notations

$$R(x,y) = F(y,x)$$
 and $S(x,y) = F(x,y) + R(x,y)$,

and

$$\Phi(x) = F(x, x) \qquad \text{and} \qquad \Psi(x) = \bigcup_{y \in X} S(x, y).$$

Moreover, we gradually assume that U and F have some useful additional properties. For instance, U has a zero, U is a group, U is commutative, U is cancellative, or U has a suitable distance function; while F is nonpartial, F is symmetric, skew symmetric, or single-valued.

1 A few basic facts on relations

In [40], a subset F of a product set $X \times Y$ is called a *relation on* X to Y. In particular, a relation on X to itself is called a *relation on* X. More specially, $\Delta_X = \{(x, x) : x \in X\}$ is called the *identity relation on* X.

If F is a relation on X to Y, then by the above definitions we can also state that F is a relation on $X \cup Y$. However, for our present purposes, the latter view of the relation F would also be quite unnatural.

If F is a relation on X to Y, then for any $x \in X$ and $A \subseteq X$ the sets $F(x) = \{y \in Y : (x, y) \in F\}$ and $F[A] = \bigcup_{a \in A} F(a)$ are called the *images* of x and A under F, respectively.

If $(x, y) \in F$, then instead of $y \in F(x)$, we may also write xFy. However, instead of F[A], we cannot write F(A). Namely, it may occur that, in addition to $A \subseteq X$, we also have $A \in X$.

The sets $D_F = \{x \in X : F(x) \neq \emptyset\}$ and $R_F = F[X]$ are called the *domain* and range of F, respectively. If in particular $D_F = X$, then we say that F is a relation of X to Y, or that F is a nonpartial relation on X to Y.

In particular, a relation f on X to Y is called a *function* if for each $x \in D_f$ there exists $y \in Y$ such that $f(x) = \{y\}$. In this case, by identifying singletons with their elements, we may simply write f(x) = y instead of $f(x) = \{y\}$.

In particular, a function \star of X to itself is called a *unary operation on* X, while a function \ast of X² to X is called a *binary operation on* X. In this case, for any $x, y \in X$, we usually write x^* and $x \ast y$ instead of $\star(x)$ and $\star((x, y))$.

If F is a relation on X to Y, then we can easily see that $F = \bigcup_{x \in X} \{x\} \times F(x)$. Therefore, the values F(x), where $x \in X$, uniquely determine F. Thus, a relation F on X to Y can also be naturally defined by specifying F(x) for all $x \in X$.

For instance, the *inverse* F^{-1} can be defined such that $F^{-1}(y) = \{x \in X : y \in F(x)\}$ for all $y \in Y$. Moreover, if G is a relation on Y to Z, then the *composition* $G \circ F$ can be defined such that $(G \circ F)(x) = G[F(x)]$ for all $x \in X$.

If F is a relation on X to Y, then a relation Φ of D_F to Y is called a *selection* relation of F if $\Phi \subseteq F$, i.e., $\Phi(x) \subseteq F(x)$ for all $x \in D_F$. By using the Axiom of Choice, it can be seen that every relation is the union of its selection functions.

For a relation F on X to Y, we may naturally define two *set-valued functions* φ of X to $\mathcal{P}(Y)$ and Φ of $\mathcal{P}(X)$ to $\mathcal{P}(Y)$ such that $\varphi(x) = F(x)$ for all $x \in X$ and $\Phi(A) = F[A]$ for all $A \subseteq X$.

Functions of X to $\mathcal{P}(Y)$ can be identified with relations on X to Y, while functions of $\mathcal{P}(X)$ to $\mathcal{P}(Y)$ are more powerful objects than relations on X to Y. They were briefly called *co-relations on* X to Y in [40].

In particular, a relation R on X can be briefly defined to be *reflexive* if $\Delta_X \subseteq R$, and *transitive* if $R \circ R \subseteq R$. Moreover, R can be briefly defined to be symmetric if $R^{-1} \subseteq R$, and antisymmetric if $R \cap R^{-1} \subseteq \Delta_X$.

Thus, a reflexive and transitive (symmetric) relation may be called a *pre-order* (*tolerance*) relation, and a symmetric (antisymmetric) preorder relation may be called an *equivalence* (*partial order*) relation.

For $A \subseteq X$, *Pervin's relation* $R_A = A^2 \cup A^c \times X$, with $A^c = X \setminus A$, is an important preorder on X. While, for a *pseudometric* d on X, *Weil's surrounding* $B_r = \{(x, y) \in X^2: d(x, y) < r\}$, with r > 0, is an important tolerance on X.

Note that $S_A = R_A \cap R_A^{-1} = R_A \cap R_{A^c} = A^2 \cap (A^c)^2$ is already an equivalence on X. And, more generally if \mathcal{A} is a *partition of* X, then $S_{\mathcal{A}} = \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A^2$ is an equivalence on X which can, to some extent, be identified with \mathcal{A} .

2 A few basic facts on ordered sets and groupoids

If \leq is a relation on X, then motivated by Birkhoff [5, p. 1] the ordered pair $X(\leq) = (X, \leq)$ is called a *goset* (generalized ordered set) [39]. In particular, it is called a *proset* (preordered set) if the relation \leq is a preorder on X.

Quite similarly, a goset $X(\leq)$ is called a *poset* (partially ordered set) if the relation \leq is a partial order on X. The importance of posets lies mainly in the fact that any family of sets forms a poset with set inclusion.

A function f of one goset $X(\leq)$ to another $Y(\leq)$ is called *increasing* if $x_1 \leq x_2$ implies $f(x_1) \leq f(x_2)$ for all $x_1, x_2 \in X$. The function f can now be briefly called *decreasing* if it is increasing as a function of $X(\leq)$ to the dual $Y(\geq)$.

An increasing function φ of the goset $X = X(\leq)$ to itself is called a *projection* (*involution*) operation on X if it is *idempotent* (*involutive*) in the sense that $\varphi \circ \varphi = \varphi$ ($\varphi \circ \varphi = \Delta_X$). Note that $\varphi \circ \varphi = \Delta_X$ if and only if $\varphi^{-1} = \varphi$.

Moreover, a projection operation φ on a poset X is called a *closure operation* on X if it is *extensive* in the sense that $\Delta_X \leq \varphi$. That is, $x \leq \varphi(x)$ for all $x \in X$. The *interior operations* can again be most briefly defined by dualization.

If f is a function of one goset X to another Y and g is a function of Y to X such that, for any $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$, we have $f(x) \leq y$ if and only $x \leq g(y)$, then g is called a *Galois adjoint of* f [12, p. 155].

Hence, by taking $\varphi = g \circ f$, one can easily see that, for any $u, v \in X$, we have $f(u) \leq f(v)$ if and only if $u \leq \varphi(v)$. Moreover, if X and Y are prosets, then it can be shown that f is increasing, φ is a closure and $f = f \circ \varphi$ [39].

If + is a binary operation on a set X, then the ordered pair X(+) = (X, +) is called an *additive groupoid*. Recently, groupoids are usually called *magmas*, not to be confused with *Brandt groupoids* [6].

If X is a groupoid, then for any $A, B \subseteq X$ we may also naturally define $A + B = \{x + y : x \in A, y \in B\}$. Thus, by identifying singletons with their elements, X may be considered as a subgoupoid of its *power groupoid* $\mathcal{P}(X)$.

In a groupoid X, for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $x \in X$ we may also naturally define nx = x if n = 1, and nx = (n - 1)x + x if n > 1. Thus, for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $A \subseteq X$, we may also naturally define $nA = \{nx : x \in A\}$.

If X is a *semigroup* (associative groupoid), then we have (n+m)x = nx+mxand (nm)x = n(mx) for all $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $x \in X$. However, the equality n(x+y) = nx + ny requires the elements $x, y \in X$ to be commuting [19].

If the groupoid X has a zero element 0, then we also naturally define 0x = 0 for all $x \in X$. Moreover, if X is a group, then we also naturally define (-n)x = n(-x) for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $x \in X$. And thus also kA for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $A \subseteq X$.

Concerning the corresponding operations in $\mathcal{P}(X)$, we must be very careful.

Namely, in general, we only have $(n + m)A \subseteq nA + mA$ and $nA \subseteq \sum_{i=1}^{n} A$ for all $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $A \subseteq X$. However, $\mathcal{P}(X)$ has a richer structure than X.

In particular, an element x of a groupoid X is called *left-cancellable* if x+y = x + z implies y = z for all $y, z \in X$. Moreover, the groupoid X is called *left-cancellative* if every element of X is left-cancellable.

"Right-cancellable" and "right-cancellative" are to be defined quite similarly. Moreover, for instance, the groupoid X is to be called *cancellative* if it is both left-cancellative and right-cancellative.

A semigroup X can be easily embedded in a *monoid* (semigroup with zero element), by adjoining an element 0 not in X, and defining 0 + x = x + 0 = x for all $x \in X$. Important monoids will be $\mathbb{N}_0 = \{0\} \cup \mathbb{N}$ and $\overline{\mathbb{N}}_0 = \mathbb{N}_0 \cup \{\infty\}$.

3 The finite composition iterates of a relation

Notation 1 In the sequel, we shall assume that X is a set, Δ is the identity function of X and ϕ is a relation on X.

Note that the family $\mathcal{P}(X^2)$ of all relations on X forms a semigroup, with identity element Δ , with respect to the composition of relations. Therefore, we may naturally use the following

Definition 1 Define $\varphi^0 = \Delta$, and for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\varphi^n = \varphi \circ \varphi^{n-1}.$$

Remark 1 Thus, for each $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$, φ^n is also a relation on X which is called the nth composition iterate of φ .

Now, as a particular case of a more general theorem on monoids, we can state the following theorem whose direct proof is included here only for the reader's convenience.

Theorem 1 For any $n, m \in \mathbb{N}_0$, we have

$$\varphi^{n+\mathfrak{m}}=\varphi^{n}\circ\varphi^{\mathfrak{m}}.$$

Proof. For fixed $m \in \mathbb{N}_0$, we shall prove, by induction, that

$$\varphi^{\mathfrak{m}+\mathfrak{n}} = \varphi^{\mathfrak{n}} \circ \varphi^{\mathfrak{m}}$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$. Hence, by the commutativity of the addition in \mathbb{N}_0 , the assertion of the theorem follows.

By Definition 1, we evidently have $\varphi^{m+0} = \varphi^m = \Delta \circ \varphi^m = \varphi^0 \circ \varphi^m$. Therefore, the required equity is true for n = 0.

Let us suppose now that the required equality is true for some $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$. Then, by Definition 1, the above assumption, and the corresponding associativities, we have

$$\begin{split} \phi^{\mathfrak{m}+(\mathfrak{n}+1)} &= \phi^{(\mathfrak{m}+\mathfrak{n})+1} = \phi \circ \phi^{\mathfrak{m}+\mathfrak{n}} \\ &= \phi \circ (\phi^{\mathfrak{n}} \circ \phi^{\mathfrak{m}}) = (\phi \circ \phi^{\mathfrak{n}}) \circ \phi^{\mathfrak{m}} = \phi^{\mathfrak{n}+1} \circ \phi^{\mathfrak{m}}. \end{split}$$

Therefore, the required equality is also true for n + 1.

Remark 2 This theorem shows that the family $\{\varphi^n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ also forms a semigroup, with identity element Δ , with respect to composition.

By induction, we can also easily prove the less trivial part of the following

Theorem 2 The following assertions are equivalent: (1) $\Delta \subseteq \varphi$; (2) $\varphi^{\mathfrak{n}} \subseteq \varphi^{\mathfrak{n}+1}$ for all $\mathfrak{n} \in \mathbb{N}_0$.

Remark 3 This theorem shows that the sequence $(\varphi^n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is increasing, with respect to set inclusion, if and only if the relation φ is reflexive on X.

Note that if in particular φ is reflexive on X and φ is a function, then we necessarily have $\varphi = \Delta$, and thus also $\varphi^n = \Delta$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$.

Therefore, in the important particular case when φ is a function of X to itself, Theorem 2 cannot have any significance.

4 The infinite composition iterate of a relation

In addition to Definition 1, we may also naturally use the following

Definition 2 Define

$$\varphi^{\infty} = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} \varphi^n.$$

Remark 4 Moreover, the relations

$$\varliminf_{n \to \infty} \phi^n = \bigcup_{n=0}^\infty \bigcap_{k=n}^\infty \phi^k \qquad \text{ and } \qquad \varlimsup_{n \to \infty} \phi^n = \bigcap_{n=0}^\infty \bigcup_{k=n}^\infty \phi^k$$

may also be naturally investigated.

Note that if in particular the sequence $(\varphi^n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is increasing with respect to set inclusion, then these relations coincide with φ^{∞} .

The relation φ^{∞} is called the *preorder hull (closure) of* φ . Namely, we have

Theorem 3 ϕ^{∞} is the smallest preorder relation on X containing ϕ .

Proof. By Definition 2, it is clear that $\Delta \subseteq \varphi^{\infty}$ and $\varphi \subseteq \varphi^{\infty}$. Thus, φ^{∞} is reflexive and contains φ .

Moreover, if $(x, y) \in \varphi^{\infty}$ and $(y, z) \in \varphi^{\infty}$, then by Definition 2 there exist $\mathfrak{m}, \mathfrak{n} \in \mathbb{N}_0$ such that $(x, y) \in \varphi^{\mathfrak{m}}$ and $(y, z) \in \varphi^{\mathfrak{n}}$. Hence, by using Theorem 1, we can infer that $(x, z) \in \varphi^{\mathfrak{n}} \circ \varphi^{\mathfrak{m}} = \varphi^{\mathfrak{n}+\mathfrak{m}}$. Thus, by Definition 2, we also have $(x, z) \in \varphi^{\infty}$. Therefore, φ^{∞} is also transitive.

On the other hand, if ψ is a relation on X such that $\varphi \subseteq \psi$, then we can note that $\varphi^n \subseteq \psi^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$, and thus by Definition 2 we have $\varphi^\infty \subseteq \psi^\infty$. Moreover, if ψ is reflexive, then $\psi^0 \subseteq \psi$. And, if ψ is transitive, then $\psi^n \subseteq \psi$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Therefore, if ψ is both reflexive and transitive, then by Definition 2 we have $\psi^\infty \subseteq \psi$, and thus also $\varphi^\infty \subseteq \psi$.

Now, as an immediate consequence of this theorem, we can also state

Corollary 1 The following assertions are equivalent: (1) $\varphi^{\infty} = \varphi$; (2) φ is a preorder on X.

Remark 5 From the above results, it is clear that ∞ is a closure operation on the poset $\mathcal{P}(X^2)$.

In general, it is not even finitely union preserving. However, it is compatible with the inversion of relations [18].

Moreover, in addition to Theorem 1, we can also easily prove the following

Theorem 4 For any $n, m \in \overline{\mathbb{N}}_0$, we have

$$\varphi^{\mathfrak{n}} \circ \varphi^{\mathfrak{m}} \subseteq \varphi^{\mathfrak{n}+\mathfrak{m}}.$$

Moreover, if φ is reflexive on X, then the corresponding equality is also true.

Proof. If in particular $n, m \in \mathbb{N}_0$, then by Theorem 1 the corresponding equality is true even if φ is not assumed to be reflexive.

Moreover, by using Definition 2 and Theorem 3, we can see that

$$\varphi^{\mathfrak{n}} \circ \varphi^{\infty} \subseteq \varphi^{\infty} \circ \varphi^{\infty} \subseteq \varphi^{\infty} = \varphi^{\mathfrak{n} + \infty}.$$

Furthermore, if φ is reflexive, then it is clear that we also have

$$\varphi^{\infty} = \Delta \circ \varphi^{\infty} \subseteq \varphi^{\mathfrak{n}} \circ \varphi^{\infty}.$$

Therefore, in this case, $\varphi^n \circ \varphi^\infty = \varphi^\infty = \varphi^{n+\infty}$ also holds. The case " $\infty + \mathfrak{m}$ " can be treated quite similarly.

Remark 6 Now, in addition to Theorem 2, we can only state that $\phi^n \subseteq \phi^{\infty}$ for all $n \in \overline{\mathbb{N}}_0$.

However, by [30], we may naturally say that φ is n-well-chained if $\varphi^n = X^2$. And, φ is n-connected if $\varphi \cup \varphi^{-1}$ is n-well-chained.

Moreover, under the notation $\mathcal{T}_{\varphi} = \{A \subseteq X : \varphi[A] \subseteq A\}$ of [24], we have $\varphi^{\infty} = \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{T}_{\varphi}} R_A$. And, φ^{∞} is the largest relation on X such that $\mathcal{T}_{\varphi^{\infty}} = \mathcal{T}_{\varphi}$.

5 From the composition iterates to a Cauchy inclusion

Now, extending an idea of Frege [15, 16], we may also naturally introduce

Definition 3 For any $n \in \overline{\mathbb{N}}_0$, define

$$\alpha(\mathfrak{n}) = \varphi^{\mathfrak{n}}.$$

Thus, α may be considered as a relation on $\overline{\mathbb{N}}_0$ to X^2 , or as a function of $\overline{\mathbb{N}}_0$ to $\mathcal{P}(X^2)$, which can be proved to satisfy a Cauchy type inclusion.

First of all, by Theorem 1, we evidently have the following

Theorem 5 For any $n, m \in \mathbb{N}_0$, we have

$$\alpha(n+m) = \alpha(n) \circ \alpha(m).$$

Proof. By Definition 3 and Theorem 1, it is clear that

$$\alpha(n+m) = \varphi^{n+m} = \varphi^n \circ \varphi^m = \alpha(n) \circ \alpha(m).$$

Remark 7 In addition to this theorem, it is also worth noticing that $\alpha(0) = \Delta$.

Moreover, by Theorem 2, we can also at once state the following

Theorem 6 The following assertions are equivalent:

(1) $\Delta \subseteq \varphi$; (2) $\alpha(n) \subseteq \alpha(n+1)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$.

Remark 8 Thus, the restriction of the set-valued function α to \mathbb{N}_0 is increasing, with respect to set inclusion, if and only if the relation φ is reflexive on X.

By using Theorem 4 instead of Theorem 1, we can also easily establish

Theorem 7 For any $n, m \in \overline{\mathbb{N}}_0$ we have

 $\alpha(n) \circ \alpha(m) \subseteq \alpha(n+m).$

Moreover, if ϕ is reflexive on X, then the corresponding equality is also true.

Remark 9 Now, in addition to Theorem 6, we can also state that $\alpha(n) \subseteq \alpha(\infty)$ for all $n \in \overline{\mathbb{N}}_0$.

Thus, in particular, the set-valued function α is increasing, with respect to set inclusion, if and only if the relation φ is reflexive on X.

6 From a Cauchy inclusion to a translation inclusion

Now, as an extension of our former observations, we may naturally start with

Notation 2 Suppose that U is a additive groupoid and α is a relation on U to X^2 such that

 $\alpha(\mathfrak{u})\circ\alpha(\nu)\subseteq\alpha(\mathfrak{u}+\nu)$

for all $u, v \in U$.

Thus, extending an idea of Frege [15, 16], we may also naturally introduce

Definition 4 For any $u \in U$ and $A \subseteq X$, define

$$f(\mathfrak{u}, A) = \alpha(\mathfrak{u})[A].$$

Thus, f may be considered a relation on $U \times \mathcal{P}(X)$ to X, or as a function of $U \times \mathcal{P}(X)$ to $\mathcal{P}(X)$, which can be proved to satisfy a translation inclusion.

Theorem 8 For any $u, v \in U$ and $A \subseteq X$, we have

$$f(u, f(v, A)) \subseteq f(u + v, A).$$

$$f(\mathbf{u}, f(\mathbf{v}, A)) = \alpha(\mathbf{u}) [f(\mathbf{v}, A)] = \alpha(\mathbf{u}) [\alpha(\mathbf{v})[A]]$$

= $(\alpha(\mathbf{u}) \circ \alpha(\mathbf{v}))[A] \subseteq \alpha(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v})[A] = f(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}, A).$

Remark 10 Thus, by identifying singleton with their elements, we may also write

$$f(u, f(v, x)) \subseteq f(u + v, x)$$

for all $u, v \in U$ and $x \in X$.

Now, to illustrate the appropriateness of Definition 4, we can also state

Example 1 If in particular α is as in Definition 3, then by Definition 4 we have

$$f(n, A) = \alpha(n)[A] = \phi^{n}[A]$$

for all $n \in \overline{\mathbb{N}}_0$ and $A \subseteq X$. Thus, in particular f(0, A) = A for all $A \subseteq X$.

7 From a translation inclusion to a Sincov inclusion

Now, as an extension of our former observations, we may also naturally start with the following

Notation 3 Suppose that U is an additive groupoid, X is a goset and f is a function of $U \times X$ to X such that f is increasing in its second variable and

$$f(u, f(v, x)) \leq f(u + v, x)$$

for all $u, v \in U$ and $x \in X$.

Thus, improving an idea of Frege [15, 16], we may also naturally introduce

Definition 5 For any $x, y \in X$, define

$$F(x,y) = \{u \in U : x \le f(u,y)\}.$$

Thus, F may be considered as a relation on X^2 to U, or as a function of X^2 to $\mathcal{P}(U)$, which can be proved to satisfy a Sincov type inclusion.

 \square

Theorem 9 For any $x, y, z \in X$, we have

$$F(x, y) + F(y, z) \subseteq F(x, z).$$

Proof. If

$$u \in F(x,y)$$
 and $v \in F(y,z)$,

then by Definition 5 we get

$$x \leq f(u, y)$$
 and $y \leq f(v, z)$.

Hence, by using the assumed increasingness and translation property of f, we can infer that

$$x \leq f(u, y) \leq f(u, f(v, z)) \leq f(u + v, z).$$

Therefore, by Definition 5, we have

$$\mathfrak{u} + \mathfrak{v} \in F(\mathfrak{x}, z).$$

Thus, the required inclusion is true.

Now, to illustrate the appropriateness of Definition 5, we can also state

Example 2 If f is as in Example 1, then by Definition 5 we have

$$F(A,B) = \left\{ n \in \overline{\mathbb{N}}_0 : A \subseteq f(n,B) \right\} = \left\{ n \in \overline{\mathbb{N}}_0 : A \subseteq \phi^n[B] \right\}$$

for all $A, B \subseteq X$. Thus, in particular $0 \in F(A, A)$ for all $A \subseteq X$.

Remark 11 By Aczél [1, pp. 223, 303 and 353], Sincov's functional equation and its generalizations have been investigated by a surprisingly great number of authors.

For some more recent investigations, see [4, 33, 38, 27, 34, 35, 7, 8, 3, 14, 13]. The most relevant ones are the set-valued considerations of Smajdor [38] and Augustová and Klapka [3].

Moreover, it is noteworthy that, by using the famous partial operation

$$(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) \bullet (\mathbf{y},z) = (\mathbf{x},z),$$

the above Sincov inclusion can be turned into a restricted Cauchy inclusion.

Therefore, some of the methods of the theory of superadditive functions and relations [28, 17, 29, 19] can certainly be applied to investigate the corresponding Sincov inequalities and inclusions.

8 Some immediate consequences of a Sincov inclusion

Now, motivated by our former observations, we may also naturally introduce the following notations and definitions.

Notation 4 In what follows, we shall also assume that X is a set and U is an additive groupoid. Moreover, we shall suppose that F is a relation on X^2 to U.

Definition 6 The relation F will be called *supertriangular* if

$$F(x,y) + F(y,z) \subseteq F(x,z)$$

for all $x, y, z \in X$.

Remark 12 Now, the relation F may also be naturally called *subtriangular* if the reverse inclusion holds. Moreover, F may be naturally called *triangular* if it is both subtriangular and supertriangular.

Subtriangular relations are certainly more important than the supertriangular ones. Namely, if a function d of X^2 to $[0, +\infty]$ satisfies the triangle inequality

$$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \le d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + d(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})$$

for all $x, y, z \in X$, then the relation F, defined such that

$$F(x,y) = \begin{bmatrix} 0, \ d(x,y) \end{bmatrix} \qquad \left(\begin{array}{c} F(x,y) = \ \left[-d(x,y), \ d(x,y) \right] \end{array} \right)$$

for all $x, y \in X$, can, in general, be proved to be only subtriangular [2].

The y = x, y = z and z = x particular cases of the inclusion considered in Definition 6 strongly suggest the introduction of the following

Definition 7 For any $x, y \in X$, define

$$R(x,y) = F(y,x)$$
 and $S(x,y) = F(x,y) + R(x,y)$.

Moreover, for any $x \in X$, define

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}) = F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})$$
 and $\Psi(\mathbf{x}) = \bigcup_{\mathbf{y} \in X} S(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$.

Thus, R and S may be considered as relations on X^2 to U, and Φ and Ψ may be considered as relations on X to U.

Concerning these relations, we can easily prove the following

Theorem 10 For any $x, y \in X$ we have

(1) $\Phi(\mathbf{x}) + \Phi(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \Psi(\mathbf{x});$

(2) $R(x,x) = \Phi(x);$ (3) $S(x,x) = \Phi(x) + \Phi(x).$

Proof. By Definition 7, we evidently have

$$\mathsf{R}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x})=\mathsf{F}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x})=\Phi(\mathbf{x}),$$

and thus also

$$S(x,x) = F(x,x) + R(x,x) = \Phi(x) + \Phi(x).$$

Hence, by using the definition of Ψ , we can also easily note that

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}) + \Phi(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) \subseteq \bigcup_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbf{X}} \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \Psi(\mathbf{x}).$$

Therefore, assertions (2), (3) and (1) are true.

Now, as a counterpart of [38, Lemma 1] of Wilhelmina Smajdor, we can also prove the following

Theorem 11 If F is supertriangular, then for any $x, y \in X$ we have

- (1) $\Psi(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \Phi(\mathbf{x});$
- (2) $\Phi(\mathbf{x}) + F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \subseteq F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y});$ (3) $F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + \Phi(\mathbf{y}) \subseteq F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}).$

Proof. By using Definition 7 and the corresponding particular cases of the inclusion considered in Definition 6, we can easily see that

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}) + F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) + F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \subseteq F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$$

and

$$F(x,y) + \Phi(y) = F(x,y) + F(y,y) \subseteq F(x,y).$$

Moreover,

$$S(x,y) = F(x,y) + R(x,y) = F(x,y) + F(y,x) \subseteq F(x,x) = \Phi(x),$$

and thus also

$$\Psi(\mathbf{x}) = \bigcup_{\mathbf{y} \in X} \mathsf{S}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \subseteq \bigcup_{\mathbf{y} \in X} \Phi(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \Phi(\mathbf{x}).$$

Therefore, assertions (2), (3) and (1) are true even if only some consequences of the assumed inclusion property of F are supposed to hold. \Box

Now, as an immediate consequence of the above two theorems, we can also state

Corollary 2 If F is supertriangular, then for any $x, y \in X$ we have

- (1) $\Phi(\mathbf{x}) + \Phi(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \Phi(\mathbf{x});$ (2) $\Psi(\mathbf{x}) + \Psi(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \Psi(\mathbf{x});$ (3) $\Psi(\mathbf{x}) + \Phi(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \Psi(\mathbf{x});$ (4) $\Phi(\mathbf{x}) + \Psi(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \Psi(\mathbf{x});$
- (5) $\Psi(\mathbf{x}) + F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \subset F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y});$ (6) $F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + \Psi(\mathbf{y}) \subset F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}).$

Remark 13 By [8], in addition to Definition 6, the separability equation

$$F(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) + F(\mathbf{y},z) = F(\mathbf{x},z) + \Phi(\mathbf{y})$$

may also be naturally investigated.

Moreover, if in particular U is a group, then in addition to Definition 7, the disymmetry relation D of F, defined such that D(x,y) = F(x,y) - R(x,y) for all $x, y \in X$, may also be naturally investigated.

9 The particular case when U has a zero element

Theorem 12 If F is supertriangular, U has a one-sided zero element 0 and $x \in X$ is such that $0 \in \Phi(x)$, then

(1)
$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}) = \Psi(\mathbf{x});$$
 (2) $\Phi(\mathbf{x}) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}) + \Phi(\mathbf{x}).$

Proof. If 0 is a right zero element of U, then by using Theorems 10 and 11 we can see that

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}) + \{\mathbf{0}\} \subseteq \Phi(\mathbf{x}) + \Phi(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \Psi(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \Phi(\mathbf{x}).$$

While, if 0 is a left zero element of U, then we can quite similarly see that

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}) = \{\mathbf{0}\} + \Phi(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \Phi(\mathbf{x}) + \Phi(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \Psi(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \Phi(\mathbf{x}).$$

Therefore, in both cases, the required equalities are true.

Remark 14 Note that if in particular F is as in Example 2, then $0 \in \Phi(A)$ holds for all $A \subseteq X$. Therefore, the above theorem can be applied.

Now, by using a somewhat more complicated argument, we can also prove

Theorem 13 If F is supertriangular, U has a one-sided zero element 0 and $x, y \in X$ are such that

$$0 \in F(x,y) \cap F(y,x),$$

then

(1) $\Phi(x) = \Psi(x) = F(x, y) = S(x, y);$ (2) $\Phi(x) = \Phi(x) + \Phi(y).$

Proof. If 0 is a right zero element of U, then by using Theorem 11 we can see that

$$\begin{split} \Phi(\mathbf{x}) &= \Phi(\mathbf{x}) + \{0\} \subseteq \Phi(\mathbf{x}) + F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \subseteq F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + \{0\} \\ &\subseteq F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + F(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) = F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = S(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \subseteq \Psi(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \Phi(\mathbf{x}). \end{split}$$

While, if 0 is a left zero element of U, then we can quite similarly obtain

$$\begin{split} \Phi(\mathbf{x}) &= \{0\} + \Phi(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \mathsf{F}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) + \Phi(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \mathsf{F}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) = \{0\} + \mathsf{F}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) \\ &\subseteq \mathsf{F}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + \mathsf{F}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) = \mathsf{F}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + \mathsf{R}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathsf{S}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \subseteq \Psi(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \Phi(\mathbf{x}). \end{split}$$

Therefore, in both cases, assertion (1) is true.

Now, assertion (2) can be easily derived from assertion (1), by noticing that

$$\Phi(x) = S(x, y) = F(x, y) + R(x, y) = F(x, y) + F(y, x) = \Phi(x) + \Phi(y).$$

From this theorem, it is clear that in particular we also have the following

Corollary 3 If F is supertriangular and U has a one-sided zero element 0 such that $0 \in F(x, y)$ for all $x, y \in X$, then for any $x, y \in X$ we have (1) $\Phi(x) = \Psi(x) = F(x, y) = S(x, y);$ (2) $\Phi(x) = \Phi(x) + \Phi(y).$

10 The particular case when U is a group

By using an argument of Frege [15, 16] and Sincov [36, 23], we can prove

Theorem 14 If F is a nonpartial, triangular function and U is a group, then there exists a function ξ of X to U such that

$$F(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \xi(\mathbf{x}) - \xi(\mathbf{y})$$

for all $x, y \in X$.

Proof. By choosing $z \in X$, and defining

$$\xi(\mathbf{x}) = F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$$

for all $x \in X$, we can see that

$$F(x,y) + \xi(y) = F(x,y) + F(y,z) = F(x,z) = \xi(x),$$

and thus $F(x, y) = \xi(x) - \xi(y)$ for all $x, y \in X$.

Remark 15 If F is nonpartial and supertriangular and U is a group, then by using a similar argument we can only prove that

$$F(x,y) \subseteq \bigcap_{z \in X} (F(x,z) - F(y,z))$$

for all $x, y \in X$.

Now, analogously to [38, Theorem 1] of Wilhelmina Smajdor, we can also prove

Theorem 15 If F is nonpartial and supertriangular, U is a commutative group and ϕ is a triangular selection function of F, then

$$F(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \phi(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) + \Phi(\mathbf{x})$$

for all $x, y \in X$.

Proof. Define

 $G(x, y) = -\phi(x, y) + F(x, y)$

for all $x, y \in X$.

Then, because of $\phi(x, y) \in F(x, y)$, we evidently have

 $0 = -\varphi(x, y) + \varphi(x, y) \in -\varphi(x, y) + F(x, y) = G(x, y)$

for all $x, y \in X$. Moreover, by using the assumed triangularity properties of ϕ and F, we can easily see that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{G}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) + \mathsf{G}(\mathbf{y},z) &= -\phi(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) + \mathsf{F}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) - \phi(\mathbf{y},z) + \mathsf{F}(\mathbf{y},z) = \\ &- \left(\phi(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) + \phi(\mathbf{y},z)\right) + \mathsf{F}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) + \mathsf{F}(\mathbf{y},z) \subseteq -\phi(\mathbf{x},z) + \mathsf{F}(\mathbf{x},z) = \mathsf{G}(\mathbf{x},z) \end{aligned}$$

for all $x, y, z \in X$.

Hence, by using Corollary 3 and the simple observation that

$$\phi(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}) + \phi(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}),$$

and thus $\phi(x, x) = 0$ for all $x \in X$, we can already infer that

$$G(x,y) = G(x,x) = -\phi(x,x) + F(x,x) = \Phi(x),$$

and thus

$$-\phi(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) + F(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \Phi(\mathbf{x})$$

for all $x, y \in X$. Therefore, the required equality is also true.

Remark 16 It can be easily seen that a converse of Theorem 14 is also true. Therefore, if F is nonpartial and U is a group, then to find a triangular selection function ϕ of F, it is enough to find only a function ξ of X to U such that

$$\xi(\mathbf{x}) - \xi(\mathbf{y}) \in F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$$

for all $x, y \in X$.

11 The particular case when U is a commutative groupoid

Theorem 16 If F is supertriangular and U is commutative, then R is also supertriangular.

Proof. By Definitions 6 and 7 and the commutativity of U, we have

$$R(x,y) + R(y,z) = F(y,x) + F(z,y)$$
$$= F(z,y) + F(y,x) \subseteq F(z,x) = R(x,z)$$

for all $x, y, z \in X$.

Theorem 17 If U is commutative, then for any $x, y, z \in X$ we have (1) S(x,y) = S(y,x); (2) $S(x,y) \subseteq \Psi(x) \cap \Psi(y).$

Proof. By Definition 7 and the commutativity of U, we have

$$S(x,y) = F(x,y) + R(x,y) = R(y,x) + F(y,x)$$

= F(y,x) + R(y,x) = S(y,x).

Moreover, by the definition of Ψ , it is clear that $S(x, y) \subseteq \Psi(x)$. Hence, by using the above symmetry property of S, we can already infer that

$$S(x,y) = S(y,x) \subseteq \Psi(y),$$

and thus $S(x,y) \subseteq \Psi(x) \cap \Psi(y)$ also holds.

Remark 17 Thus, if U is commutative, then S is already *pointwise symmetric* in the sense that S(x, y) = S(y, x) for all $x, y \in X$.

Now, concerning the relation S, we can also prove the following

Theorem 18 If F is supertriangular and U is a commutative semigroup, then S is also supertriangular.

Proof. By using Definition 7, Theorem 16 and the commutativity and associativity of U, we can see that

$$S(x,y) + S(y,z) = F(x,y) + R(x,y) + F(y,z) + R(y,z)$$

= F(x,y) + F(y,z) + R(x,y) + R(y,z)
 $\subseteq F(x,z) + R(x,z) = S(x,z)$

for all $x, y, z \in X$.

12 The particular case when F is pointwise symmetric

In addition to Theorem 17, we can also prove the following

Theorem 19 If $x, y \in X$ such that F(x, y) = F(y, x), then

- (1) R(x,y) = F(x,y);
- (2) S(x,y) = S(y,x);
- (3) S(x,y) = F(x,y) + F(x,y);
- (4) $2F(x,y) \subseteq S(x,y) \subseteq \Psi(x) \cap \Psi(y)$.

Proof. By Definition 7 and the assumed symmetry property of F, we have

$$R(x,y) = F(y,x) = F(x,y),$$

and thus also

$$S(x,y) = F(x,y) + R(x,y) = F(x,y) + F(x,y).$$

Thus, assertions (1) and (3) are true.

Now, we can also easily see that

$$S(y, x) = F(y, x) + F(y, x) = F(x, y) + F(x, y) = S(x, y).$$

Therefore, assertion (2) is also true.

Hence, as in the proof of Theorem 17, we can already infer that

$$S(x,y) \subseteq \Psi(x) \cap \Psi(y).$$

Therefore, to complete the proof of assertion (4), it remains to note only that now

$$2F(x,y) \subseteq F(x,y) + F(x,y) = S(x,y)$$

is also true.

Remark 18 Thus, not only the commutativity of U, but the pointwise symmetry of F also implies the pointwise symmetry of S.

By [8], in addition to the pointwise symmetry of F, one may also naturally investigate the case when F is only *weightable* in the sense that

$$w(x) + F(x, y) = R(x, y) + w(y)$$

for all $x, y \in X$ and some function (or relation) w on X to U.

However, it is now more important to note that, as an immediate consequence of our former results, we can also state

Corollary 4 If F is supertriangular and U is commutative, then for any $x, y \in X$ we have

$$2S(x,y) \subseteq S(x,y) + S(y,x) \subseteq S(x,x) \cap S(y,y).$$

Remark 19 Note that the latter corollary only needs the important consequence of the assumed inclusion property of F that $F(x, y) + F(y, x) \subseteq F(x, x)$ for all $x, y \in X$.

In Theorem 11, by using Definition 7, the latter property has been reformulated in the shorter form that $\Psi(x) \subseteq \Phi(x)$ for all $x \in X$. Now, this already implies that Ψ is a selection relation of Φ . Namely, if $x \in X$ such that $\Phi(x) \neq \emptyset$, then because of $\Phi(\mathbf{x}) + \Phi(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \Psi(\mathbf{x})$, we also have $\Psi(\mathbf{x}) \neq \emptyset$.

The particular case when U is a group and F is 13pointwise skew symmetric

Analogously to Theorem 19, we can also prove the following

Theorem 20 If U is a group and $x, y \in X$ such that F(x, y) = -F(y, x), then

- (1) R(x,y) = -F(x,y);(2) S(x,y) = -S(y,x);
- (1) R(x,y) = -F(x,y);(3) S(x,y) = F(x,y) F(x,y);(4) $S(x,y) \subseteq \Psi(x) \cap (-\Psi(y)).$

 \square

Proof. To prove (4), note that now, in addition to $S(x, y) \subseteq \Psi(x)$, we also have

$$S(x,y) = -S(y,x) \subseteq -\Psi(y)$$

and thus $S(x,y) \subseteq \Psi(x) \cap (-\Psi(y))$ also holds.

Remark 20 If in addition to the assumptions of this theorem $F(x, y) \neq \emptyset$ also holds, then from assertion (3) we can infer that $0 \in S(x, y)$.

Now, by using the corresponding definitions and Theorem 20, we can also prove

Theorem 21 If U is a group and F is pointwise skew symmetric, then for any $x \in X$ we have

(1) $\Phi(x) = -\Phi(x);$ (2) $\Psi(x) = -\Psi(x).$

Proof. To prove (2), note that by Definition 7 and Theorem 20 we have

$$\Psi(\mathbf{x}) = \bigcup_{\mathbf{y} \in X} S(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \bigcup_{\mathbf{y} \in X} \left(-S(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \right) = -\bigcup_{\mathbf{y} \in X} S(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = -\Psi(\mathbf{x})$$

for all $x \in X$.

Remark 21 If in addition to the assumptions of this theorem, $\Phi(x) \neq \emptyset$ also holds, then from the inclusion

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}) - \Phi(\mathbf{x}) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}) + \Phi(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \Psi(\mathbf{x}),$$

we can infer that $0 \in \Psi(x)$. Therefore, if in addition F is supertriangular, then because Theorem 11, we also have $0 \in \Phi(x)$.

Thus, by Theorem 12, we can also state the following

Theorem 22 If U is a group and F is nonpartial, supertriangular and pointwise skew symmetric, then for any $x \in X$ we have

(1)
$$\Phi(x) = \Psi(x);$$
 (2) $\Phi(x) = \Phi(x) + \Phi(x).$

Now, by Theorems 20 and 21, we can also state the following

Theorem 23 If U is a group and F is a nonpartial, pointwise skew symmetric function, then for any $x, y \in X$ we have

(1) S(x,y) = 0; (2) $\Phi(x) = \Psi(x) = 0.$

 \square

The following example shows the three important consequences of the inclusion considered in Definition 6 do not imply, even in a very simple case, the validity of this inclusion itself.

Example 3 If

$$F(x, y) = \operatorname{sgn}(x - y)$$

for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, then F is a skew symmetric function of \mathbb{R}^2 to \mathbb{R} such that, under the notation $\Phi(x) = F(x, x)$, for any $x, y \in X$ we have

(1) $F(x,y) + F(y,x) = \Phi(x);$

(2) $\Phi(x) + F(x,y) = F(x,y);$ (3) $F(x,y) + \Phi(y) = F(x,y).$

However, F is not either supertriangular nor subtriangular in both functional and relational sense.

Namely, for instance, we have

$$F(2,1) + F(1,0) = 2$$
 and $F(2,0) = 1$,

and

$$F(0,1) + F(1,2) = -2$$
 and $F(0,2) = -1$.

14 The particular case when U is cancellative

Definition 8 In what follows, we shall denote by lcan(U) and rcan(U) the family of all left-cancellable and right-cancellable elements of the groupoid U, respectively.

Moreover, we shall also write $can(U) = lcan(U) \cap rcan(U)$.

Remark 22 Thus, for any $u \in U$, we have $u \in lcan(U)$ if and only if u + v = u + w implies u = w for all $v, w \in U$.

Moreover, for instance, we can state that U is left-cancellative if and only if lcan(U) = U.

Lemma 1 For any $V, W \subseteq U$,

- (1) $\operatorname{card}(V+W) \leq 1$ and $V \cap \operatorname{lcan}(U) \neq \emptyset$ imply that $\operatorname{card}(W) \leq 1$;
- (2) $\operatorname{card}(V+W) \leq 1$ and $W \cap \operatorname{rcan}(U) \neq \emptyset$ imply that $\operatorname{card}(V) \leq 1$.

Proof. Assume that the conditions of (1) hold, $v \in V \cap \text{lcan}(U)$ and $w_1, w_2 \in W$. Then, we have $v+w_1, v+w_2 \in V+W$. Hence, by using that $\text{card}(V+W) \leq 1$, we can infer that $v+w_1 = v+w_2$. Moreover, since $v \in \text{lcan}(U)$, we can also state that $w_1 = w_2$. Therefore, $\text{card}(W) \leq 1$, and thus (1) also holds.

The proof of assertion (2) is quite similar.

Now, by using this lemma, we can give some reasonable sufficient conditions in order that a suppertriangular relation should be a function.

Theorem 24 If F is supertriangular and there exist $x_0, y_0 \in X$ such that

- (1) $\operatorname{card}(F(x_0, y_0)) \leq 1;$
- (2) $F(x, y_0) \cap rcan(U) \neq \emptyset$ for all $x \in X$:
- (3) $F(x_0, y) \cap lcan(U) \neq \emptyset$ for all $y \in X$;

then $\operatorname{card}(F(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})) \leq 1$ for all $\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y} \in X$, and thus F is a function.

Proof. By the assumed inclusion property of F, we have

$$F(x_0, x) + F(x, y_0) \subseteq F(x_0, y_0)$$

for all $x \in X$. Hence, by using conditions (1) and (3) and Lemma 1, we can infer that

(a) $\operatorname{card}(F(x, y_0)) \leq 1$ for all $x \in X$.

Now, by the assumed inclusion property of F, we also have

$$F(x,y) + F(y,y_0) \subseteq F(x,y_0)$$

for all $x, y \in X$. Hence, by using assertion (a) condition (2) and Lemma 1, we can infer that

(b) $\operatorname{card}(F(x, y)) \leq 1$ for all $x, y \in X$. Thus, the required assertion is true.

From this theorem, by using Theorem 14, we can immediately derive

Corollary 5 If F is nonpartial and supertriangular, U is a group and $\operatorname{card}(F(x_0, y_0)) = 1$ for some $x_0, y_0 \in X$, then there exists a function ξ of X to U such that

$$F(x, y) = \xi(x) - \xi(y)$$

for all $x, y \in X$.

The particular case when U has a suitable dis-15tance function

Remark 23 A function d of X^2 to $[0, +\infty]$ is usually called a *distance function* on X.

 \square

 \square

Moreover, the extended real number

$$d(X) = \operatorname{diam}(X) = \sup \big\{ d(x, y) : x, y \in X \big\}$$

is called the *diameter* of X.

Remark 24 Thus, we have $d(X) = -\infty$ if $X = \emptyset$, and $d(X) \ge 0$ if $X \ne \emptyset$. Moreover, if $X \ne \emptyset$, then card $(X) = +\infty$ may also hold even if X is finite.

Definition 9 A distance function d on X will be called *admissible* if

- (a) $d(X) < +\infty;$
- (b) d(x,y) = 0 implies x = y for all $x, y \in X$.
- Moreover, the distance function d will be called *extremal* if
 - (c) for any $x, y \in X$ there exist $c \in [1, +\infty)$ and $z, w \in X$ such that

$$\operatorname{cd}(x,y) \leq \operatorname{d}(z,w).$$

Remark 25 If X is an additive groupoid, then to satisfy condition (c) we may naturally assume that for any $x, y \in X$, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{1\}$ such that

$$nd(x,y) \le d(nx,ny).$$

Namely, if X is a commutative abelian group and p is a function of U to $[0,+\infty]$ such that

$$np(x) \leq p(nx)$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $x \in X$, then by defining

$$\mathbf{d}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{p}(-\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y})$$

for all $x, y \in X$, we have

$$nd(x,y) = np(-x+y) \le p(n(-x+y))$$

= p(n(-x) + ny) = p(-nx + ny) = d(nx, ny)

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $x, y \in U$.

The introduction of Definition 9 can only be motivated by the following

Lemma 2 If there exists an extremal, admissible distance function d on X, then $card(X) \leq 1$.

Proof. If $X = \emptyset$, then the required assertion trivially holds. Therefore, we may assume that $X \neq \emptyset$, and thus $d(X) \neq -\infty$. Now, by condition (a), we can state that $d(X) \in \mathbb{R}$. Moreover, since d is nonnegative, we can now also note that $d(X) \ge 0$.

Thus, for every $\varepsilon > 0$, we have

$$\mathbf{d}(\mathbf{X}) - \varepsilon < \mathbf{d}(\mathbf{X}).$$

Therefore, by the definition of d(X), there exist $x, y \in X$ such that $d(X) - \varepsilon < d(x, y)$, and thus

$$\mathbf{d}(\mathbf{X}) < \mathbf{d}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) + \varepsilon.$$

Moreover, by condition (c), there exist $c \in [1, +\infty)$ and $z, w \in X$ such that

$$\operatorname{cd}(\operatorname{xy}) \leq \operatorname{d}(z,w).$$

Combining the above two inequalities, we can see that

$$\mathrm{cd}(\mathrm{x},\mathrm{y}) < \mathrm{d}(z,w) \leq \mathrm{d}(\mathrm{X}) < \mathrm{d}(\mathrm{x},\mathrm{y}) + \varepsilon,$$

and thus $(c-1)d(x,y) < \varepsilon$. Hence, by letting ε tend to zero, we can infer that $(c-1)d(x,y) \le 0$. Therefore, since c-1 > 0, we necessarily have $d(x,y) \le 0$, and hence $d(x,y) \le 0$ by the nonnegativity of d. Thus, we actually have

$$d(X) < d(x, x) + \varepsilon = \varepsilon.$$

Hence, by letting ε tend to zero, we can infer that $d(X) \leq 0$, and thus also d(X) = 0 by the nonnegativity of d(X).

This, by condition (b), already implies that $\operatorname{card}(X) = 1$. Namely, if this is not the case, then by the assumption $X \neq \emptyset$, there exist $x, y \in X$ such that $x \neq y$. Hence, by condition (b) and the nonnegativity of d, we can infer that d(x,y) > 0, and thus also d(X) > 0 by the definition of d(X). This contradiction proves that $\operatorname{card}(X) = 1$.

Remark 26 From condition (c), by induction, we can infer that there exist sequences $(c_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in $]1, +\infty[$ and $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $(y_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in X such that

$$d(x,y)\prod_{i=0}^{n}c_{i} \leq d(x_{n},y_{n})$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. However, this fact cannot certainly be used to give a simpler proof for Lemma 2.

From Theorem 24, by using Lemma 2, we can immediately derive

Theorem 25 If F is supertriangular and there exist $x_0, y_0 \in X$, such that

- $(1) \ F(x,y_0)\cap \operatorname{rcan}(U)\neq \emptyset; \ \textit{for all} \ x\in X;$
- $(2) \ F(x_0,y)\cap \operatorname{lcan}(U)\neq \emptyset; \ \textit{for all} \ y\in X;$

(3) there exists an extremal, admissible distance function on $F(x_0, y_0)$;

then $\operatorname{card}(F(x, y)) \leq 1$ for all $x, y \in X$, and thus F is a function.

Proof. By assumption (3) and Lemma 2, we have $\operatorname{card}(F(x_0, y_0)) \leq 1$. Hence, by Theorem 24, we can see that the required assertion is also true. \Box

16 Contructions of supertriangular relations

Theorem 26 If V is a subgroupoid of U and

$$F(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{V}$$

for all $x, y \in X$, then F is a supertriangular relation on X to U.

Proof. We evidently have

$$F(x, y) + F(y, z) = V + V \subseteq V = F(x, z)$$

for all $x, y, z \in X$.

Remark 27 Conversely, note that if F is a supertriangular relation on X^2 to U, then by Corollary 2 $\Phi(x) = F(x, x)$ is a subgroupoid of U for all $x \in X$.

Now, as a converse to Theorem 14, we can also easily prove the following

Theorem 27 If ξ is a function of X to U, U is a group and

$$F(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \xi(\mathbf{x}) - \xi(\mathbf{y})$$

for all $x, y \in X$, then F is a triangular function of X^2 to U.

Proof. We evidently have

$$F(x, y) + F(y, z) = \xi(x) - \xi(y) + \xi(y) - \xi(z) = \xi(x) - \xi(z) = F(x, z)$$

for all $x, y, z \in X$.

Remark 28 If ξ is only a relation of X to U, U is a group and $F(x, y) = \xi(x) - \xi(y)$ for all $x, y \in X$, then by using a similar argument we can only prove that F is a subtriangular relation of X^2 to U.

In addition to the above two theorems, it is also worth proving that the family of all supertriangular relations is closed under the usual pointwise operations.

Theorem 28 If F is a supertriangular relation on X^2 to U and U is a commutative semigroup, then nF is also a supertriangular relation on X^2 to U for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. If $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then by the corresponding definitions we have

$$(\mathsf{nF})(x,y) + (\mathsf{nF})(y,z) = \mathsf{nF}(x,y) + \mathsf{nF}(y,z) = \mathsf{n}(\mathsf{F}(x,y) + \mathsf{F}(y,z)) \subseteq \mathsf{nF}(x,z) = (\mathsf{nF})(x,z)$$

for all $x, y, z \in X$.

Remark 29 If F is a supertriangular relation on X^2 to U and U has a zero element, then

 $(0F)(x,y) = \emptyset$ if $F(x,y) = \emptyset$ and $(0F)(x,y) = \{0\}$ if $F(x,y) \neq \emptyset$.

Therefore, 0F is a supertriangular function on X^2 to U.

Now, analogously to Theorem 28, we can also prove the following

Theorem 29 If F is a supertriangular relation on X^2 to U and U is a commutative group, then kF is also a supertriangular relation on X^2 to U for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Moreover, in addition to Theorems 28, we can also easily prove the following

Theorem 30 If F and G are supertriangular relations on X^2 to U and U is a commutative semigroup, then F + G is also a supertriangular relation on X^2 to U.

Proof. By the corresponding definitions, it is clear that

$$(F+G)(x,y) + (F+G)(y,z) = F(x,y) + G(x,y) + F(y,z) + G(y,z)$$

= F(x,y) + F(y,z) + G(x,y) + G(y,z) \subseteq F(x,z) + G(x,z) = (F+G)(x,z)
for all x, y, z \in X.

79

 \square

17 An application of the above results

Now, by using Theorems 26, 27 and 30, we can also easily establish

Theorem 31 If ξ a function of X to U, U is a commutative group, V is a subgroupoid of U and

$$F(x, y) = \xi(x) - \xi(y) + V$$

for all $x, y \in X$, then F is a supertriangular relation on X^2 to U such that, under the notations of Definition 7, for any $x, y \in X$ we have:

- (1) $\Phi(x) = V;$ (2) S(x,y) = V + V;
- (3) $\Psi(\mathbf{x}) = \emptyset$ if $\mathbf{X} = \emptyset$ and $\Psi(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{V} + \mathbf{V}$ if $\mathbf{X} \neq \emptyset$.

Proof. From Theorems 26, 27 and 30, it is clear that F is supertriangular. Moreover, by the corresponding definitions, it is clear that

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}) = F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) = \xi(\mathbf{x}) - \xi(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{V} = \mathbf{V},$$

$$S(x,y) = F(x,y) + F(y,x) = \xi(x) - \xi(y) + V + \xi(y) - \xi(x) + V = V + V$$

and

$$\Psi(\mathbf{x}) = \bigcup_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbf{X}} \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \bigcup_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbf{X}} (\mathbf{V} + \mathbf{V}) = \begin{cases} \emptyset & \text{if } \mathbf{X} = \emptyset, \\ \mathbf{V} + \mathbf{V} & \text{if } \mathbf{X} \neq \emptyset. \end{cases}$$

 \square

Moreover, for an easy illustration of this theorem, we can also state

Example 4 If $r \ge 0$ and

$$F(x,y) = [x - y + r, +\infty[$$

for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, then F is a supertriangular relation of \mathbb{R}^2 to \mathbb{R} such that, for any $x, y \in X$, we have:

(1) $\Phi(\mathbf{x}) = [\mathbf{r}, +\infty[;$ (2) $\Psi(\mathbf{x}) = S(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = [2\mathbf{r}, +\infty[.$

To check this, note that, by taking $\xi = \Delta_{\mathbb{R}}$ and $V = [r, +\infty[$, we have

$$F(x,y) = [x - y + r, +\infty[= x - y + [r, +\infty[= \xi(x) - \xi(y) + V]]$$

for all $x, y \in X$. Therefore, Theorem 31 can be applied. For instance, by assertion (2) of Theorem 31, we have

$$S(x,y) = V + V = [r, +\infty[+[r, +\infty[= [2r, +\infty[$$

for all $x, y \in X$.

Remark 30 Note that in the present particular case, for any $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, we have:

(1) $0 \in \Phi(x) \iff r = 0;$ (2) $\Phi(x) = \Psi(x) \iff r = 0;$ (3) $x - y \in F(x, y) \iff r = 0;$ (4) $0 \in F(x, y) \iff r \le y - x;$ (5) $0 \in F(x, y) \cap F(y, x) \iff r = 0, x = y.$ To prove (5), note that by (4) we have

 $0\in F(x,y)\cap F(y,x) \ \iff \ r\leq y-x, \ r\leq x-y \ \iff \ r\leq \min\{x-y, \ y-x\}.$

Moreover, recall that $\min\{a, b\} = 2^{-1}(a + b - |a - b|)$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, and thus in particular $\min\{x - y, y - x\} = -|x - y|$. Therefore,

 $r \leq \min\{x-y, \ y-x\} \ \iff \ r \leq -|x-y| \ \iff \ r=0, \ x=y.$

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