

EQUIVALENCE RELATIONS

Recall that " $a \equiv_n b$ " means $n \mid b-a$, i.e., there exists an integer k such that $b-a = nk$.

One can think of this in terms of "sticks". Consider a stick of length n (cms, say). If we can lay out that stick over and over, starting at a and ending exactly at b , then a and b are a multiple of n apart. All the integers that can be reached this way, starting from integer a , are those that are "equivalent to $a \bmod n$ ".

This concept -- as we saw much earlier -- partitions Z into the subsets

nZ

$1+nZ$

$2+nZ$

...

$(n-1) + nZ$

When n is 3, we get

$3Z$: $\{\dots -6 -3 0 3 6 \dots\}$ -- multiples of 3, aka integers equiv to 0 mod 3

$1+3Z$: $\{\dots -5 -2 1 4 7 \dots\}$ -- one more than multiples of 3, aka integers equiv to 1 mod 3

$2+3Z$: $\{\dots -4 -1 2 5 8 \dots\}$ -- two more than multiples of 3, aka integers equiv to 2 mod 3

This partition of Z is $\{3Z, 1+3Z, 2+3Z\}$. Every integer is in one -- and only one -- of the three partition elements. The integers within any *one* of those subsets are considered "equivalent" to one another: they are all reachable from one another by sticks of length n ; put differently, they all give the same remainder when divided by n . Elements of a single partition subset are "the same" in some respect.

Such a situation can vastly be generalized to *any* partition of *any* set.

Definition: Let S be a set, and $P = \{S_1, S_2, \dots\}$ a partition of S . We can consider the elements of any one partition subset as *equivalent* to each other, in this sense: they all belong to the same partition subset!

Imagine S as a large set of people, and P as some breaking up of S into "teams"; this can be done in any way at all, even at random. But once the teams are formed, members of the same team are the same in that sense: they belong to the same team.

Here is another illustration: Let $S = \{0,1,2,\dots,9,10\}$ and let P consist of the subsets

$\{0,9\}$

$\{2,4,6,7\}$

$\{1,8\}$

$\{3\}$

$\{5,10\}$

Then P partitions S : the subsets are disjoint and their union is S . And this means that -- as far as this partition goes -- 2, 4, 6, and 7 are all equivalent to each other; also 5 and 10; 1 and 8; and 0 and 9. And 3 is equivalent only to itself. True, there is no arithmetical connection here, making 1 and 8 "the same" in some way; the sameness is by accident of which subset they belong to. It's as if, say, 1 and 8 live in France; 2, 4, 6, and 7 in Japan; etc; with no other similarity.

What good is it, then? Lots! There are a great many situations in which a set naturally partitions in some way or other (by arithmetic, by happenstance, by history, by temperature, by design, etc). Moreover, there are underlying "rules" that govern elements of the same partition subset, no matter what the partition is based on. Three such rules are these:

1. symmetry: if a is equivalent to b , then b is equivalent to a [that is, if a belongs to the same partition subset as b , then b belongs to the same partition subset as a]

2. reflexivity: a is equivalent to a [that is, a belongs to the same partition subset as a]

3. transitivity: if a is equivalent to b, and b to c, then a is equivalent to c [that is, if a belongs to the same subset as b, and b the same as c, then a belongs to the same subset as c]

These are trivially obvious, so much so that it seems a waste of time to even mention them. But they are important, and lead to this key notion:

Definition: Given a set S, an "equivalence relation" on S is a set E of ordered pairs $\langle x,y \rangle$ of elements x,y of S having the "SRT" properties of

a. symmetry: for all x,y in S, if $\langle x,y \rangle$ in E, then $\langle y,x \rangle$ in E [aka: if x equiv y, then y equiv x]

b. reflexivity: $\langle x,x \rangle$ in E for all x in S [aka: x equiv x]

c. transitivity: for all x,y,z in S, if $\langle x,y \rangle$ in E and $\langle y,z \rangle$ in E, then $\langle x,z \rangle$ in E [aka: x equiv y and y equiv z implies x equiv z]

The set of ALL pairs of elements of S is just the Cartesian Product of S with itself: $S \times S = \{ \langle x,y \rangle : x,y \text{ in } S \}$. So an equiv relation E as above is a special subset of $S \times S$, namely one satisfying the "SRT" conditions.

The above discussion -- carried a bit further -- leads to the following general result:

Theorem: Given a set S, for every partition P of S there a unique equivalence relation E on S (namely $E = \{ \langle x,y \rangle : x \text{ and } y \text{ belong to the same partition subset} \}$), and conversely: for every equiv relation on S, there is a partition P such that each partition subset (known as an equivalence class) is a subset of S containing all elts of S equivalent to some fixed elt of S. [Thus for example, all integers equiv mod 5 to, say, 3 -- this gives the subset $3+5\mathbb{Z}$].

Thus there can be a great many equivalence relations on a set, namely as many as there can be partitions of the set.

Example: Let S be the set {a,b,c}. There are 5 partitions of S:

P1: {a,b,c}

P2: {a,b} {c}

P3: {a,c} {b}

P4: {a} {b,c}

P5: {a} {b} {c}

And each corresponds to a distinct equivalence relation:

E1 = $S \times S$

E2 = { $\langle a,b \rangle$, $\langle b,a \rangle$, $\langle a,a \rangle$, $\langle b,b \rangle$, $\langle c,c \rangle$ }

E3 = { $\langle a,c \rangle$, $\langle c,a \rangle$, $\langle a,a \rangle$, $\langle b,b \rangle$, $\langle c,c \rangle$ }

E4 = { $\langle b,c \rangle$, $\langle c,b \rangle$, $\langle a,a \rangle$, $\langle b,b \rangle$, $\langle c,c \rangle$ }

E5 = { $\langle a,a \rangle$, $\langle b,b \rangle$, $\langle c,c \rangle$ }

Which of these are equivalence relations; and for those that are, what are the partitions?

1. $x=y$, on $\mathbb{Z}$

2. $x < y$, on $\mathbb{Z}$

3. x and y have exactly the same molecular weight, on a set of chemical samples

4. x and y are within 0.001 gm of each other's weights, on the set of rocks

5. x and y have the same floor, on the set of reals

6. x and y live in the same country, on the set of people

7. x and y live within 100 miles of each other, on the set of people

8. $x=y$, on any set S.

9. $x^2 = y^2$, on the set $\mathbb{R}$ of reals.

10. $\frac{d}{dx} f = \frac{d}{dx} g$, on the set of differentiable functions from $\mathbb{R}$ to $\mathbb{R}$

11. $\frac{d}{dx} f \geq \frac{d}{dx} g$, on the same set as in 10.

12. $\text{mean-runtime}(p) = \text{mean-runtime}(q)$, on the set of JAVA programs

13. either p and q both eventually halt, or p and q both have infinite loops, on the same set as in 12
 14. either p and q have at most 100 lines of code, or both have more than 100, same set as in 12

RELATIONS IN GENERAL

Definition: A (binary) relation on a set S is any subset T of $S \times S$.

So, an equivalence relation on S is a relation on S, namely one that satisfies the SRT conditions.

But there are more relations (on a given set S) than equivalence relations, simply because there are always some relations that are not equivalence relations. The simplest example is the empty relation: emptyset is a subset of $S \times S$; and it is not an equiv-rel since it violates reflexivity (as long as S is non-empty: any b in S would require $\langle b, b \rangle$ to be in the equiv-rel).

Example: Let $S = \{b, c\}$. Then these are all 16 possible relations on S:

1. emptyset
2. $\{\langle b, b \rangle\}$
3. $\{\langle b, c \rangle\}$
4. $\{\langle c, c \rangle\}$
5. $\{\langle c, b \rangle\}$
6. $\{\langle b, b \rangle, \langle b, c \rangle\}$
7. $\{\langle b, b \rangle, \langle c, c \rangle\}$
8. $\{\langle b, b \rangle, \langle c, b \rangle\}$
9. $\{\langle b, c \rangle, \langle c, c \rangle\}$
10. $\{\langle b, c \rangle, \langle c, b \rangle\}$
11. $\{\langle c, c \rangle, \langle c, b \rangle\}$
12. $\{\langle b, b \rangle, \langle b, c \rangle, \langle c, c \rangle\}$
13. $\{\langle b, b \rangle, \langle b, c \rangle, \langle c, b \rangle\}$
14. $\{\langle b, b \rangle, \langle c, c \rangle, \langle c, b \rangle\}$
15. $\{\langle b, c \rangle, \langle c, c \rangle, \langle c, b \rangle\}$
16. $\{\langle b, b \rangle, \langle b, c \rangle, \langle c, c \rangle, \langle c, b \rangle\}$

Which of them are equiv-relations, and what are their associated partitions?

Ans:

7: $\{b\}, \{c\}$

16: $\{b, c\}$

(Binary) relations that are not equiv-rels are very common, and include standard "everyday" ones such as:

$\leq$, on a set of numbers

$<$, on numbers

$\neq$, on numbers

parent-of, on people

$x^2 + y^2 \leq 2$, on the set of reals x and y

Note that a relation need not follow a meaningful pattern; it can consist of any pairings whatsoever, such as: $\{\langle 3, 2 \rangle, \langle 9, 9 \rangle, \langle \pi, -72 \rangle, \langle 0, -4 \rangle\}$. What is the "relationship" in such a case? Simply that the numbers have been paired up that way! This is the same principle that we saw for partitions: we can group together elts of a set into whatever "families" (disjoint subsets) we want, and then elts in the same subset are "related" by being in the same subset (that is, because we "said so").

Notation: If R is a relation on S (i.e., R subst of $S \times S$) we write

$\langle x, y \rangle$ in R

or

xRy

to mean the same thing: that x is related to y by the relation R .

Note that we also sometimes speak of a binary relation from set A to set B ; this is a subset of $A \times B$.

Examples:

owner-of, from the set of people to the set of pets: $\{ \langle \text{person}, \text{pet} \rangle : \text{person owns pet} \}$

integral_from_0_to_1 of f , from the set reals to the set of continuous functions:

$\{ \langle \text{Integral_0_to_1 } f(x)dx, f \rangle : f \text{ is a continuous function} \}$

When $A=B$, then we have the case we defined initially.