

Equivalence Relations, Partitions, and Rationals

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(Recall that) An *equivalence relation* " \sim " on A is a relation satisfying the following conditions:

- (i) $x \sim x$ for all $x \in A$. [Reflexivity]
- (ii) If $x \sim y$ then $y \sim x$ for all $x, y \in A$. [Symmetry]
- (iii) If $x \sim y$ and $y \sim z$ then $x \sim z$ for all $x, y, z \in A$. [Transitivity]

Example 1. In \mathbb{Z} , we define $p \sim q$ if and only if $5|p - q$. Then \sim is an equivalence relation on \mathbb{Z} . (In fact, $p \sim q$ means $p \equiv q \pmod{5}$.)

Proof. It clear that $5|0 = p - p$, so $p \sim p$ for all p . If $5|p - q$ then $5|(p - q)(-1) = q - p$, so $p \sim q$ implies $q \sim p$. If $5|p - q$ and $5|q - r$ then $5|(p - q) + (q - r) = p - r$, so $p \sim q$ and $q \sim r$ implies $p \sim r$. Hence \sim is an equivalence relation on \mathbb{Z} . \square

Example 2. Let L denote all triangles in Euclidean plane. Then similarity of graphs decides an equivalence on L .

Proof. By proportion on lengths for corresponding edges, it's clear. \square

An important purpose for defining equivalence relations is their *equivalence classes*. With the properties of them, we might deal with complicated objects with a simple way.

Let A, \sim as above, and $x \in A$. Define the equivalence class of x by

$$[x]_{\sim} = \{y \in A : y \sim x\}$$

and the quotient set is defined by

$$A / \sim = \{[x]_{\sim} : x \in A\}$$

Then we have a property:

Proposition 1. Let A, \sim as above. Then

- (a) For $x, y \in A$, if $x \sim y$ then $[x]_{\sim} = [y]_{\sim}$; if $x \not\sim y$ then $[x]_{\sim} \cap [y]_{\sim} = \emptyset$.
- (b) $\cup_{x \in A} [x]_{\sim} = A$.

In fact, this leads us to what is called a partition on a set.

Let A be a set, and Π be a collection of subsets of A . Π is called a partition on A if

- (i) Whenever $P_1 \neq P_2, \in \Pi$, it follows that $P_1 \cap P_2 = \emptyset$.

$$(ii) \bigcup \Pi (= \cup_{P \in \Pi} P) = A.$$

Example 3. If $A := \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$, then $\Pi := \{\{1, 4, 7\}, \{2, 5, 8\}, \{3, 6, 9\}\}$ is a partition on A .

Example 4. A/\sim is a partition on A (Why?). Sometimes, it is called the partition from \sim , and denoted Π_{\sim} .

Moreover, we wonder whether we can produce an equivalence relation from a given partition? We define

$$\sim_{\Pi} = \{(x, y) : x, y \in P, \text{ for some } P \in \Pi\}$$

Then we have two properties to show:

Proposition 2. \sim_{Π} is an equivalence relation on A . Π_{\sim} is a partition on A .

Proof. Verification for the three conditions is quite direct. We only show the latter assertion. For $p \in \Pi_{\sim}$. Let $P = [x]_{\sim}$ then $P \subset A$. If $P_1 \neq P_2$, choose $P_1 = [x_1]_{\sim}$ and $P_2 = [x_2]_{\sim}$. Let (Why can we let?) $x_0 \in [x_1]_{\sim} \cap [x_2]_{\sim}$. Then $x_0 \sim x_1$ and $x_0 \sim x_2$. Hence $x_1 \sim x_2$. Hence

$$P_1 = [x_1]_{\sim} \stackrel{\text{Why?}}{=} [x_2]_{\sim} = P_2,$$

a contradiction. Hence $P_1 \cap P_2 = \emptyset$. Let $a \in A$. Choose $[a]_{\sim} \in \Pi_{\sim}$, then $a \in [a]_{\sim}$. Hence $\bigcup \Pi_{\sim} = A$. \square

Theorem 1. Let A , \sim , and Π be as before. Then

$$(1) \sim_{\Pi_{\sim}} = \sim.$$

$$(2) \Pi_{\sim_{\Pi}} = \Pi.$$

Proof. For (1), if $(a, b) \in \sim_{\Pi_{\sim}}$, then $a, b \in P$ for some $P \in \Pi$. By definition of Π_{\sim} , $P = [x]_{\sim}$ for some $x \in A$. So we find that $a \sim x$ and $b \sim x$. Hence $a \sim b$ and then $(a, b) \in \sim$.

Conversely, given $(a, b) \in \sim$, then $a \sim b$ and $a, b \in [a]_{\sim}$. Since $[a]_{\sim} \in \Pi$, we obtain that $a, b \in \sim_{\Pi_{\sim}}$. Hence we have the equality.

For (2), Let $P \in \Pi_{\sim_{\Pi}}$. Then $P = [x]_{\sim_{\Pi}}$ for some $x \in A$. Then $x \in P$. Since $x \in [x]_{\sim_{\Pi}}$, $x \in P'$ for some $P' \in \Pi$. Then P and P' has a common element x , so $P = P' \in \Pi$.

Conversely, for $P \in \Pi$, we can find $x \in P$. Because $x \sim_{\Pi} x$, $[x]_{\sim_{\Pi}} \in \Pi_{\sim_{\Pi}}$. We are going to show that

$$P = [x]_{\sim_{\Pi}}$$

Let $y \in [x]_{\sim_{\Pi}}$. Then $y \sim_{\Pi} x$. It follows that $x, y \in P'$ for some $P' \in \Pi$. Since $x \in P$, $P' = P$. This yields that $y \in P$. Let $y \in P$. By $x \in P$ and $P \in \Pi$ we obtain $x \sim_{\Pi} y$. So $y \in [x]_{\sim_{\Pi}}$. Hence $P = [x]_{\sim_{\Pi}}$, and then $P \in \Pi_{\sim_{\Pi}}$. \square

A little proposition afterward is:

Proposition 3. As all assumptions above, one has that

$$(a) \text{ If } \Pi_{\sim_1} = \Pi_{\sim_2}, \text{ then } \sim_1 = \sim_2.$$

$$(b) \text{ If } \sim_{\Pi_1} = \sim_{\Pi_2}, \text{ then } \Pi_1 = \Pi_2.$$

Proof. We simply have $\sim_1 = \sim_{\Pi_1} = \sim_{\Pi_2} = \sim_2$, and $\Pi_1 = \Pi_{\sim_{\Pi_1}} = \Pi_{\sim_{\Pi_2}} = \Pi_2$. \square

Finally I shall mention some important senses for application of equivalence relations for pure mathematics. One example is the *rationalization* for \mathbb{N} (or for an *Integral Domain*). In fact, in many other fields of mathematics such as the notion *homotopy* in *algebraic topology*, *textitp – adic numbers* in *algebraic number theory*, and so on.

Example 5. On $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$, define

$$\langle a, b \rangle \sim \langle c, d \rangle \text{ if and only if } ad = bc$$

Then we must have that \sim is an equivalence relation on $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$. Further, the quotient set $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} / \sim$ will become the set of rationals (In intuitive sense, it means all positive rational numbers).

Proof. Reflexivity and symmetry are clear. We only show transitivity. If $\langle a, b \rangle \sim \langle c, d \rangle$ and $\langle c, d \rangle \sim \langle e, f \rangle$, then we have $ad = bc$ and $cf = de$. It follows that

$$daf = adf = bcf = bde = dbe$$

Hence $af = be$, and then \sim is an equivalence relation. \square

Example 6. Define $\mathfrak{Q} = \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} / \sim$. Then we hope to construct its operations. Intuitively, if $X, Y \in \mathfrak{Q}$, expressed as $[\langle x_1, x_2 \rangle]$ and $[\langle y_1, y_2 \rangle]$ respectively (We omit the subscription \sim since it contains no vagueness.), we may define

$$\begin{aligned} X + Y &= [\langle x_1y_2 + x_2y_1, x_2y_2 \rangle] \\ Y \cdot Y &= [\langle x_1y_1, x_2y_2 \rangle] \end{aligned}$$

We then ought to show that this definition is well-defined. i.e. When X expressed as both $[\langle x_1, x_2 \rangle]$ and $[\langle r_1, r_2 \rangle]$, and Y both $[\langle y_1, y_2 \rangle]$ and $[\langle s_1, s_2 \rangle]$, then we must have $[\langle x_1y_2 + x_2y_1, x_2y_2 \rangle] = [\langle r_1s_2 + r_2s_1, r_2s_2 \rangle]$ and $[\langle x_1y_1, x_2y_2 \rangle] = [\langle r_1s_1, r_2s_2 \rangle]$. i.e.

$$\begin{aligned} \langle x_1y_2 + x_2y_1, x_2y_2 \rangle &\sim \langle r_1s_2 + r_2s_1, r_2s_2 \rangle \\ \langle x_1y_1, x_2y_2 \rangle &\sim \langle r_1s_1, r_2s_2 \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Proof. Assume $\langle x_1, x_2 \rangle \sim \langle r_1, r_2 \rangle$ and $\langle y_1, y_2 \rangle \sim \langle s_1, s_2 \rangle$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} (x_1y_2 + y_1x_2) \cdot r_2s_2 &= x_1r_2y_2s_2 + y_1s_2x_2r_2 \\ &= x_2r_1y_2s_2 + y_2s_1x_2r_2 \\ &= (r_1s_2 + r_2s_1) \cdot x_2y_2 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} (x_1y_1) \cdot (r_2s_2) &= x_1r_2y_1s_2 = x_2r_1s_1y_2 \\ &= (r_1s_1) \cdot (x_2y_2) \end{aligned}$$

Hence the two equivalence holds. \square

Note that for $x \in \mathbb{N}$, we define $\bar{x} = [\langle x, 1 \rangle]$, and for $x, y \in \mathbb{N}$, we define $x/y = [\langle x, y \rangle]$.

Theorem 2. For given $X, Y \in \mathfrak{Q}$ (expressed as $q/p, n/m$ respectively), there is a unique $U \in \mathfrak{Q}$ such that

$$X \cdot U = Y$$

Proof. (Uniqueness) Assume $q/p \cdot s/r = n/m$ and $q/p \cdot s'/r' = n/m$. Then we have $\langle qs, pr \rangle \sim \langle qs', pr' \rangle$. It follows that $pqr's = prqs'$. Hence $r's = rs'$, and then $s/r = s'/r'$.

(Existence) Choose $U = ps/qr$. Then $X \cdot U = q/p \cdot ps/qr = qps/pqr$. Because $qps \cdot r = pqr \cdot s$, we obtain $X \cdot U = s/r$. \square

As a consequence, we define $\frac{Y}{X}$ as the unique U in the previous theorem.

Recall that at first we begin with the pair $\langle x, y \rangle$, and by equivalence classes we define x/y . Moreover, by above equation, we introduce the notation $\frac{N}{M}$. Now those x 's in \mathbb{N} and those \bar{x} looks alike, so we hope to illustrate the relationship between these two types of numbers.

The sense is that, we are used to denoting it ($\{\bar{x} : x \in \mathbb{N}\}$) by \mathfrak{N} , and view it the *exact* natural number set we always write and use. Hence

$$\mathfrak{N} \subset \mathfrak{Q}$$

while the set \mathbb{N} is from now on hidden behind. Hence we have the following property.

Example 7. For each $X \in \mathfrak{Q}$, there are $M, N \in \mathfrak{N}$ such that

$$X = \frac{N}{M}$$

Proof. It's clear that we can write X in the following form

$$X = [\langle n, m \rangle] = n/m$$

By easy verification we obtain that

$$M \cdot n/m = \bar{m} \cdot n/m = \bar{n} = N$$

Hence $n/m = \frac{N}{M}$. \square

This is merely a simple introduction about construction of those rationals. There are many properties that I have not mentioned, for example, ordering, but all discussion above reveals enough information for those basic properties for rationals. If someone feels interested on this topic, a reference is *Foundations of Analysis* written by *Edmund Landau*.