

What we need to learn from Sec 3.3

Given a set S (nothing else is known about it).

- (1) Subsets S_1, \dots, S_m form a partition of S if

- (i) S_i are disjoint.
- (ii) Union of S_i is S .

In other words, each $a \in S$ belongs to one and only one S_i .

- (2) Given any statement on 2 elements a, b (ordered) in S , it induces a relation R on S as:

If statement true, then aRb (say a -is-related-to- b). If statement false, then $a \not R b$ (say a -is-not-related-to- b).

- (3) R is call (i) reflexive, if $\forall a \in S, aRa$

(ii) symmetric, if $\forall a, b \in S, aRb \Rightarrow bRa$

(iii) transitive, if $\forall a, b, c \in S, aRb$ and $bRc \Rightarrow aRc$.

A relation that satisfies (i)-(iii) is called an **equivalence relation**.

- (4) Examples of general relations. Take $S = \mathbb{Z}$.

e.g.1 Define aRb iff $a \leq b$.

Then, R reflexive ($a \leq a$), transitive $a \leq b$ and $b \leq c \Rightarrow a \leq c$, but not symmetric (say, $3R4$ but $4 \not R 3$).

e.g.2 Define aRb iff $a < b$.

Same as above, but R no longer reflexive.

e.g.3 Define aRb iff $a|b$.

R reflexive ($a|a$), transitive $a|b$ and $b|c \Rightarrow a|c$ (Prop 3.11 (i)), but not symmetric (say, $2R4$ but $4 \not R 2$).

Similar to e.g.1.

e.g.4 Define aRb iff $a + b = 0$.

Then, not reflexive nor transitive but symmetric.

e.g.5 Define aRb iff $a = 2b$.

Then, neither reflexive nor symmetric nor transitive.

- (5) Any partition of S induces an equivalence relation via the statement aRb iff a, b in same subset.
(Proved in Lec 10.)

- (6) Conversely, any equivalence relation induces a partition S_1, S_2, \dots to S , as follows:

Take 1 element $a_1 \in S$. Collect all b_1 's that are related to a_1 . Call the collection S_1 .

Look at $S - S_1$. Take 1 element $a_2 \in S - S_1$. Collect all b_2 's in $S - S_1$ that are related to a_2 . Call the collection S_2 .

Look at $S - S_1 - S_2$ etc, until all elements in S are placed in some S_i .

Proof that S_i 's form a partition is in the textbook.

- (7) So, partitions and equivalence relations on S come hand-in-hand.

The S_i 's are called **equivalence classes**, and any $b_i \in S_i$ is called a **representative** of S_i .

- (8) Intuition, and reasons for terminology.

There are many thing in S , but some are equivalent to another, some are not. We don't quite care which specific one among those equivalent ones. Effectively we only care about which subsets.

e.g. There is a bag of many socks and gloves and hats and scarfs (this is S). I put all socks in drawer 1 (S_1), all lefthanded gloves in drawer 2 (S_2), all righthanded gloves in drawer 3 (S_3), all hats in drawer 4 (S_4), all scarfs in drawer 5 (S_5). Every morning, I pick 2 socks from S_1 , 1 glove from each of $S_{2,3}$, one hat from S_4 and one scarf from S_5 before going to school. Don't care which specific item(s) from each drawer, all socks are "equivalent" to one another etc. Each hat is representing my collection of hat.