

1 Explorations of properties of specific relations

Let's look at some specific relations and demonstrate that they have certain properties. For instance, we might consider the following example:

For sets A and B , $A \sim B$ if $A \cap B = \emptyset$.

We might test various properties of \sim . Reflexivity, for instance, is easily denied: if S is a set, then $S \cap S = S$, which is, in general, *not* \emptyset , so it will not generally be true that $S \sim S$.

Symmetry is true: if A and B are sets, then $A \cap B = B \cap A$, so either both are the empty set or neither are.

Transitivity is not true: consider, e.g. $A = \{1, 2\}$, $B = \{3\}$, and $C = \{1\}$: then $A \sim B$ and $B \sim C$ but $A \not\sim C$.

Let's try another relation, for instance on the reals: $x \sim y$ if $|x - y| \leq 1$. This is reflexive (since $|x - x| \leq 1$), symmetric (since $|x - y| = |y - x|$, so both differences are either greater than 1 or not). This is not transitive (maybe someone has a simple example).

Finally, we might look at $x \sim y$ if x and y are the same parity. This has all three properties, making it a particularly extraordinary type of relation called an *equivalence relation*.

First though, let's look at some manipulations of relations, since you were asked at length to manipulate them:

Definition 1. We might define the *complement* \overline{R} of a relation R on a set S to be $S \times S - R$.

We might now ask how R 's properties relate to those of \overline{R} . Several proofs are easy:

Proposition 1. *If R is reflexive and $S \neq \emptyset$, then \overline{R} is not reflexive.*

Proof. Since $S \neq \emptyset$, there is some $x \in S$, so by reflexivity, $(x, x) \in R$. Thus $(x, x) \notin \overline{R}$, so x is not related to x by \overline{R} , so \overline{R} is not reflexive. \square

Proposition 2. *If R is symmetric, then \overline{R} is symmetric.*

Proof. Consider some $(a, b) \in \overline{R}$. By definition $(a, b) \notin R$. Since R is symmetric, it is thus necessary that $(b, a) \notin R$ (since if $(b, a) \in R$, symmetry would require the already-refuted statement that $(a, b) \in R$ be true). Since $(b, a) \notin R$, it follows that $(b, a) \in \overline{R}$. \square

There is no good definite statement to be made about transitivity. Some investigation will show that some transitive relations have transitive complements, while some will not.

2 Equivalence relations

Definition 2. A relation which is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive is known as an *equivalence relation*.

These are pretty useful because they provide the vital information that everything is related to itself, the order of relation doesn't matter, and that everything related to a particular element is related to each other. We shall see that equivalence relations end up having a vital relationship with set partitions.

Consider the relationship on the integers a while back, where $a \sim b$ if a and b have the same parity. Then, every even number relates to every even number, and every odd number relates to every other odd number. In a real sense, this is associated with a partition of the integers into an "odd" set and an "even" set, with all the numbers lying in a specific set related to each other.

We formalize this idea with a definition which could be applied to any equivalence relation:

Definition 3. The *equivalence class*, denoted $[a]$, of a with respect to an equivalence relation R on a set S , is the set $\{b \in S : aRb\}$.

so, that is to say, the set of all b to which a is related. In theory we could define this set for non-equivalence classes, but here is a remarkable fact which is true only for equivalence classes.

Theorem 1. For an equivalence relation R on a set S , with $a, b \in S$, the following statements are true:

- $a \in [a]$,
- if aRb , then $[a] = [b]$,
- if it is not the case that aRb , then $[a] \cap [b] = \emptyset$

Proof. Our first statement is trivial: by reflexivity, aRa , so by the definition of the equivalence class, $a \in [a]$.

Our second statement will be proven by first showing that $[a] \subseteq [b]$, and then $[b] \subseteq [a]$. Consider some $x \in [a]$; by definition of the equivalence class, this means aRx , so by symmetry, xRa . The premise of the statement to be proven asserts that aRb , so by transitivity, xRb and then by symmetry bRx , so $x \in [b]$. An extremely similar argument serves to show that if $y \in [b]$, then bRy , which together with aRb and transitivity yields aRy so $y \in [a]$. Thus every element of $[a]$ is in $[b]$ and vice versa, so $[a] = [b]$.

For our third statement, we proceed by contradiction, so suppose $(a, b) \notin R$ and that $[a] \cap [b]$ is not empty, so there is some $x \in [a] \cap [b]$, so aRx and bRx . Then, by symmetry, xRb , so by transitivity, aRb , contradicting our premise. \square

Corollary 1. The equivalence classes partition S .

Proposition 3. Since $a \in [a]$, all equivalence classes are nonempty, and every element of S lies in some equivalence class. Since nonequal equivalence classes are disjoint, the distinct equivalence classes are disjoint sets whose collective union contains every element of S , so they partition S .

What may be less obvious is that any partition of S uniquely determines an equivalence relation: if we have partition of S into disjoint sets A_i , we could define a relation on S by stating that $a \sim b$ if a and b lie in the same part A_i .

3 Congruence

Back when we were originally discussing congruence, we proved that for any integers n and a , $a \equiv a \pmod{n}$; likewise, if $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$, then $b \equiv a \pmod{n}$, and if $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ and $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$, then $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$. Thus congruence modulo n is an equivalence relation, and as such gives rise to *congruence classes*, which are a beloved element of number theory and algebra.

One theorem (which is nontrivial and won't be shown here, is that for any positive integer n , an integer k can always be written as $qn + r$, where $0 \leq r < n$. In consequence, we know every k is

congruent to a number from 0 to n , so conventionally we label the *congruence classes modulo n* with:

$$\begin{aligned}[0] &= \{\dots, -3n, -2n, -n, 0, n, 2n, 3n, \dots\} \\ [1] &= \{\dots, 1 - 3n, 1 - 2n, 1 - n, 1, 1 + n, 1 + 2n, 1 + 3n, \dots\} \\ [2] &= \{\dots, 2 - 3n, 2 - 2n, 2 - n, 2, 2 + n, 2 + 2n, 2 + 3n, \dots\} \\ &\vdots \\ [n - 1] &= \{\dots, -2n - 1, -n - 1, -1, n - 1, 2n - 1, 3n - 1, 4n - 1, \dots\}\end{aligned}$$