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## Algebra.

### Equivalence relations and partitions.

**Definition.** A binary relation on a set  $A$ ,

$$x \sim y, \quad x, y \in A$$

is a collection of ordered pairs of elements of  $A$ ,  $\{(x, y)\}$ ,  $x, y \in A$ . In other words, it is a subset of the Cartesian product  $A^2 = A \times A$ .

More generally, a binary relation between two sets  $A$  and  $B$  is a subset of  $A \times B$ . The terms correspondence, dyadic relation and 2-place relation are synonyms for binary relation.

**Example 1.** A binary relation  $>$  (“is greater than”) between real numbers  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  associates to every real number all real numbers that are to the left of it on the number axis.

**Example 2.** A binary relation “is the divisor of” between the set of prime numbers  $P$  and the set of integers  $\mathbb{Z}$  associates every prime  $p$  with every integer  $n$  that is a multiple of  $p$ , but not with integers that are not multiples of  $p$ . In this relation, the prime 3 is associated with numbers that include  $-6, 0, 6, 9$ , but not 2 or  $-8$ ; and the prime 5 is associated with numbers that include 0, 10, and 125, but not 6 or 11.

Injections, surjections, bijections between the sets are established by defining the corresponding (injective, surjective, or one-to-one) binary relations between the elements of these sets. A relation  $x \sim y$  is,

- **left-total:**  $\forall x \in X, \exists y \in Y, x \sim y$ , a relation is left-total when it is a function, or a multivalued function;
- **surjective** (right-total, or onto):  $\forall y \in Y, \exists x \in X, x \sim y$ ;
- **injective** (left-unique):  $\forall (x_1, x_2, \in X, y \in Y), ((x_1 \sim y) \wedge (x_2 \sim y)) \Rightarrow (x_1 = x_2)$
- **functional** (right-unique, also called univalent, or right-definite):  $\forall (x \in X, y_1, y_2, \in Y), ((x \sim y_1) \wedge (x \sim y_2)) \Rightarrow (y_1 = y_2)$ , such a binary relation is also called a partial function;

- **one-to-one:** injective and functional.

A binary relation  $x \sim y$  is

- **reflexive** if  $\forall x \in A$ , we have  $x \sim x$
- **symmetric** if  $\forall x, y \in A$ , we have  $(x \sim y) \Rightarrow (y \sim x)$
- **transitive** if  $\forall x, y, z \in A$ , we have  $(x \sim y) \wedge (y \sim z) \Rightarrow (x \sim z)$

**Definition.** An **equivalence relation** is a binary relation that is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.

Given an equivalence relation on  $A$ , we can define, for every  $a \in A$ , its **equivalence class**  $[a]$  as the following subset of  $A$ :

$$[a] = \{x \in A, (x \sim a)\}$$

**Definition.** A **partition** of a set  $A$  is decomposition of it into non-intersecting subsets:

$$A = A_1 \cup A_2 \dots \cup A_n \dots$$

with  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ . It is allowed to have infinitely many subsets  $A_i$ .

**Theorem.** If  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on a set  $A$ , then it defines a partition of  $A$  into equivalence classes.

**Example.** Define the equivalence relation on  $\mathbb{Z}$  by congruence *mod* 3:  $a \equiv b \pmod{3}$  if  $a - b$  is a multiple of 3. This defines a partition,  $[0] = \{\dots, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots\}$ ,  $[1] = \{\dots, -2, 1, 4, 7, \dots\}$ ,  $[2] = \{\dots, -1, 2, 5, 8, \dots\}$ .

**Exercise 1.** Present examples of binary relations that are, and that are not equivalence relations. For each of the following relations, check whether it is an equivalence relation.

- On the set of all lines in the plane: relation of being parallel
- On the set of all lines in the plane: relation of being perpendicular
- On  $\mathbb{R}$ : relation given by  $x \sim y$  if  $x + y \in \mathbb{Z}$
- On  $\mathbb{R}$ : relation given by  $x \sim y$  if  $x - y \in \mathbb{Z}$
- On  $\mathbb{R}$ : relation given by  $x \sim y$  if  $x > y$
- On  $\mathbb{R} - \{0\}$ : relation given by  $x \sim y$  if  $xy > 0$

**Exercise 2.** Let  $\sim$  be an equivalence relation on  $A$ .

- Prove that if  $a \sim b$ , then  $[a] = [b]: \forall x \in A, x \in [a] \Rightarrow x \in [b]$
- Prove that if  $a \not\sim b$ , then  $[a] \cap [b] = \emptyset$ .

**Exercise 3.** Let  $f: A \xrightarrow{f} B$  be a function. Define a relation on  $A$  by  $a \sim b$  if  $f(a) = f(b)$ . Prove that it is an equivalence relation.

**Exercise 4.** For a positive integer number  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , define relation  $\equiv$  on  $\mathbb{Z}$  by  $a \equiv b$  if  $a - b$  is a multiple of  $n$

- Prove that it is an equivalence relation;
- Describe equivalence class  $[0]$ ;
- Prove that equivalence class of  $[a + b]$  only depends on equivalence classes of  $a, b$ , that is, if  $[a] = [a']$ ,  $[b] = [b']$ , then  $[a + b] = [a' + b']$ .

**Exercise 5.** Define a relation  $\sim$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2 = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$  by  $(x_1, y_1) \sim (x_2, y_2)$  if  $x_1 + y_1 = x_2 + y_2$ . Prove that it is an equivalence relation and describe the equivalence class of  $(1, 2)$ .

**Exercise 6.** Is it possible to partition the set of all integers,  $\mathbb{Z}$ , into equivalence classes using the binary relation  $p \sim q: p \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$  (“ $p$  is a multiple of  $q$ ”), which was defined in Example 2.

## Recap: Elements of number theory. Modular arithmetics.

**Definition.** For  $a, b, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , the congruence relation,  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ , denotes that,  $a - b$  is a multiple of  $n$ , or,  $\exists q \in \mathbb{Z}, a = nq + b$ .

All integers congruent to a given number  $r \in \mathbb{Z}$  with respect to a division by  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  form congruence classes,  $[r]_n$ . For example, for  $n = 3$ ,

$$[0]_3 = \{\dots, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots\}$$

$$[1]_3 = \{\dots, -2, 1, 4, 7, \dots\}$$

$$[2]_3 = \{\dots, -1, 2, 5, 8, \dots\}$$

$$[3]_3 = \{\dots, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots\} = [0]_3$$

There are exactly  $n$  congruence classes mod  $n$ , forming set  $Z_n$ . In the above example  $n = 3$ , the set of equivalence classes is  $Z_3 = \{[0]_3, [1]_3, [2]_3\}$ . For general  $n$ , the set is  $Z_n = \{[0]_n, [1]_n, \dots, [n-1]_n\}$ , because  $[n]_n = [0]_n$ .

One can define addition and multiplication in  $Z_n$  in the usual way,

$$[a]_n + [b]_n = [a + b]_n$$

$$[a]_n \cdot [b]_n = [a \cdot b]_n$$

$$([a]_n)^p = [a^p]_n, p \in \mathbb{N}$$

Here the last relation for power follows from the definition of multiplication.

**Exercise.** Check that so defined operations do not depend on the choice of representatives  $a, b$  in each equivalence class.

**Exercise.** Check that so defined operations of addition and multiplication satisfy all the usual rules: associativity, commutativity, distributivity.

In general, however, it is impossible to define division in the usual way: for example,  $[2]_6 \cdot [3]_6 = [6]_6 = [0]_6$ , but one cannot divide both sides by  $[3]_6$  to obtain  $[2]_6 = [0]_6$ . In other words, for general  $n$  an element  $[a]_n$  of  $Z_n$  could give  $[0]_n$  upon multiplication by some of the elements in  $Z_n$  and therefore would not have properties of an algebraic inverse, so there may exist elements in  $Z_n$

which do not have inverse. In practice, this means that if we try to define an inverse element,  $[r^{-1}]_n$ , to an element  $[r]_n$  employing the usual relation,  $[r]_n \cdot [r^{-1}]_n = [1]_n$ , there might be no element  $[r^{-1}]_n$  in class  $Z_n$  satisfying this equation. However, it is possible to define the inverse for some special values of  $r$  and  $n$ . The corresponding classes  $[r]_n$  are called invertible in  $Z_n$ .

**Definition.** The congruence class  $[r]_n \in Z_n$  is called invertible in  $Z_n$ , if there exists a class  $[r^{-1}]_n \in Z_n$ , such that  $[r]_n \cdot [r^{-1}]_n = [1]_n$ .

**Theorem.** Congruence class  $[r]_n \in Z_n$  is invertible in  $Z_n$ , if and only if  $r$  and  $n$  are mutually prime,  $(r, n) = 1$ . Or,  $\forall [r]_n, (\exists [r^{-1}]_n \in Z_n) \Leftrightarrow ((r, n) = 1)$ .

To find the inverse of  $[a] \in Z_n$ , we have to solve the equation,  $ax + ny = 1$ , which can be done using Euclidean algorithm. Then,  $ax \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , and  $[a]^{-1} = [x]$ .

### Examples.

3 is invertible mod 10, i. e. in  $Z_{10}$ , because  $[3]_{10} \cdot [7]_{10} = [21]_{10} = [1]_{10}$ , but is not invertible mod 9, i. e. in  $Z_9$ , because  $[3]_9 \cdot [3]_9 = [0]_9$ .

7 is invertible in  $Z_{15}$ :  $[7]_{15} \cdot [13]_{15} = [91]_{15} = [1]_{15}$ , but is not invertible in  $Z_{14}$ :  $[7]_{14} \cdot [2]_{14} = [14]_{14} = [0]_{14}$ .