

CMPSCI 250: Introduction to Computation

Lecture #11: Equivalence Relations
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Equivalence Relations

- Definition of Equivalence Relations
- Two More Examples: Universal and Parity
- The Graph of an Equivalence Relation
- Partitions and the Partition Theorem
- “Same-Set” on a Partition is an E.R.
- Equivalence Classes
- The Classes Form a Partition

Defining an Equivalence Relation

- Last lecture we looked at partial orders, which are reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive. Today we look at equivalence relations: binary relations on a set that are reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.
- Recall the definitions: R is **reflexive** if $\forall x: R(x, x)$, R is **symmetric** if $\forall x: \forall y: R(x, y) \rightarrow R(y, x)$, and R is **transitive** if $\forall x: \forall y: \forall z: (R(x, y) \wedge R(y, z)) \rightarrow R(x, z)$.

Defining an Equivalence Relation

- You should be familiar with these properties of the equality relation: “ $x = x$ ” is always true, from “ $x = y$ ” we can get “ $y = x$ ”, and we know that if $x = y$ and $y = z$, then $x = z$. The idea of equivalence relations is to formalize the property of acting like equality in this way.
- To prove that a relation is an equivalence relation, we formally need to use the Rule of Generalization, though we often skip steps if they are obvious.

Some Equivalence Relations

- If A is any set, we can define the **universal relation** U on A to *always be true*. Formally, U is the entire set $A \times A$ consisting of all possible ordered pairs.
- Of course $U(x, x)$ is always true, and the implications in the definitions of symmetry and transitivity are always true because their conclusions are true.
- The **always false** relation $\neg U$ (or \emptyset) is symmetric and transitive but not reflexive.

More Equivalence Relations

- The **parity relation** on naturals is perhaps more interesting. We define $P(i, j)$ to be true if i and j are either both even or both odd. Later we'll call this "being congruent modulo 2" and we'll define "being congruent modulo n " in general.
- Any relation of the form "x and y are the same in this respect" will normally be reflexive, symmetric, and transitive, and thus be an equivalence relation.

Clicker Question #1

- Let S be the set of the fifty United States.
Which of these is *not* an equivalence relation?
- (a) $A(x, y)$: state x and state y have the same number of representatives in the US House
- (b) $B(x, y)$: state x and state y are equal
- (c) $C(x, y)$: state x and state y are equal or share a land border
- (d) $D(x, y)$: state x and state y have the same first letter in their names

Answer #1

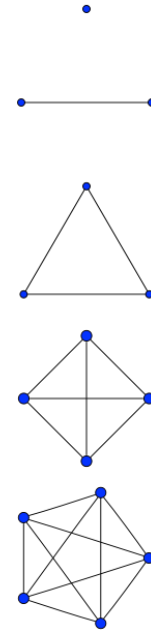
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- (b) $B(x, y)$: state x and state y are equal
- (c) $C(x, y)$: *state x and state y share a land border*
- (d) $D(x, y)$: state x and state y have the same first letter in their names

Graphs of Equivalence Relations

- What happens when we draw the diagram of an equivalence relation?
- Because it is reflexive, we have a loop on every vertex, but we can leave those out for clarity. The arrows are bidirectional because the relation is symmetric.
- The effect of transitivity on the diagram is a bit harder to see.

Complete Graphs

- If we have a set of points that have some connection from each point to each other point, transitivity forces us to have all possible direct connections among those points.
- A graph with all possible undirected edges is called a **complete graph** on its points. The graph of an equivalence relation has a complete graph for each **connected component**.



Partitions

- We've claimed a characterization of the graph of any equivalence relation in terms of complete graphs. Let's now prove that this characterization is correct -- we will need a new definition.
- If A is any set, a **partition** of A is a set of subsets of A -- a set $P = \{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k\}$ where (1) each S_i is a subset of A , (2) the union of all the S_i 's is A , and (3) the sets are **pairwise disjoint** -- $\forall i: \forall j: (i \neq j) \rightarrow (S_i \cap S_j = \emptyset)$.

Clicker Question #2

- Which of these collections of sets is *not* a partition of the set S of fifty U.S. states?
- (a) $\{X_\alpha: X_\alpha \text{ is the set of all states whose names contain the letter } \alpha\}$
- (b) $\{\{x\}: x \text{ is a state}\}$
- (c) $\{X_i: X_i \text{ is the set of all states with exactly } i \text{ representatives in the US House}\}$
- (d) $\{\{x: x \text{ was a state in } 1800\}, \{x: x \text{ became a state during } 1801-1900\}, \{x: x \text{ became a state after } 1900\}\}$

Answer #2

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The Partition Theorem

- The **Partition Theorem** relates equivalence relations to partitions. It says that a relation is an equivalence relation if and only if it is the “same-set” relation of some partition. In symbols, the same-set relation of P is given by the predicate $SS(x, y)$ defined to be true if $\exists i: (x \in S_i) \wedge (y \in S_i)$.
- So we need to get a partition from any equivalence relation, and an equivalence relation from any partition.

“Same-Set” is an E.R.

- Let $P = \{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k\}$ be a partition of A and let SS be its same set relation. We need to show that SS is an equivalence relation.
- We first show that SS is reflexive. Let x be an arbitrary element of A . Because the sets of P union to give A , x must be in at least one of them, S_i . So $(x \in S_i) \wedge (x \in S_i)$ is true, and thus $SS(x, x)$ is true for an arbitrary x .

“Same-Set” is an E.R.

- To show SS is symmetric, let x and y be arbitrary elements of A and assume that $SS(x, y)$ is true.
- We need to prove $SS(y, x)$. But we have $(x \in S_i) \wedge (y \in S_i)$ from the definition, and we can rewrite this as $(y \in S_i) \wedge (x \in S_i)$ and thus prove that $SS(y, x)$ is true.

“Same-Set” is an E.R.

- For transitivity, we let x , y , and z be arbitrary and assume $SS(x, y)$ and $SS(y, z)$.
- From the definition we know that x and y are both in some S_i and that y and z are both in some S_j . But since y is in both S_i and S_j , and the sets are pairwise disjoint, the sets S_i and S_j are the same, and this single set contains both x and z .
- So $SS(x, z)$ is true, and we have proved that SS is transitive.

Equivalence Classes

- If R is an equivalence relation on A , and x is any element of A , we define the **equivalence class** of x , written $[x]$, as the set $\{y: R(x, y)\}$, that is, the set of elements of A that are related to x by R .
- The universal relation U has a single equivalence class consisting of all the elements. The equality relation has a separate equivalence class for each element.

Equivalence Classes

- In the parity relation, the set of even numbers forms one equivalence class and the set of odd numbers forms another.
- If we let A be the set of people in the USA, and define $R(x, y)$ to mean “ x and y are legal residents of the same state”, we get fifty equivalence classes, one for each state. One of them is $\{x: x \text{ is a legal resident of Massachusetts}\}$.

Clicker Question #3

- Again let S be the set of fifty states and let $D(x, y)$ be the relation “state x and state y have the same first letter in their name”. How many (non-empty) equivalence classes does S have?
- (a) one
- (b) 26 minus the number of letters that don't begin any state names
- (c) 26
- (d) none of the above

Answer #3

- Again let S be the set of fifty states and let $D(x, y)$ be the relation “state x and state y have the same first letter in their name”. How many (non-empty) equivalence classes does S have?
- (a) one
- (b) *26 minus the number of letters that don't begin any state names ($\{B, E, J, Q, X, Y, Z\}$, so 19)*
- (c) 26
- (d) none of the above

The Classes Form a Partition

- To finish the proof of the Partition Theorem, we must prove that if R is any equivalence relation on A , the set of equivalence classes forms a partition.
- Note that in the set of classes, we only count a class once even if it has multiple definitions. So if $[x]$ and $[y]$ are the same set, it is just one set of the partition.

The Classes Form a Partition

- Recall our three conditions for a set of sets to be a partition. Condition (1) says that each set is a subset of A , which is clearly true for the classes.
- Condition (2) says that the sets union together to give A , which is true for the classes because each element is in at least one class, its own.
- We still have to show (3) for the classes, that they are pairwise disjoint.

Finishing the Proof

- Let $[x]$ and $[y]$ be the equivalence classes of two arbitrary elements x and y of A . (This gives us two arbitrary equivalence classes, which might or might not be equal as sets.)
- We must show that $([x] \neq [y]) \rightarrow ([x] \cap [y] = \emptyset)$. We'll do this by contrapositive, showing $(\exists z: z \in [x] \cap [y]) \rightarrow ([x] = [y])$.

Finishing the Proof

- Assume that an element z of $[x] \cap [y]$ exists and name it z .
- We must show that $[x] = [y]$, which means $\forall w: (w \in [x]) \leftrightarrow (w \in [y])$.
- By the definition of equivalence classes, this means $\forall w: R(x, w) \leftrightarrow R(y, w)$. So let w be arbitrary.

Finishing the Proof

- We know that $R(x, z)$ and $R(y, z)$. Assume $R(x, w)$. We have $R(z, x)$ by symmetry, and then $R(y, z)$, $R(z, x)$, and $R(x, w)$ give us $R(y, w)$ by transitivity.
- The argument that $R(y, w) \rightarrow R(x, w)$ is exactly the same as $R(x, w) \rightarrow R(y, w)$.
- So if z exists, $[x]$ and $[y]$ contain exactly the same elements. We have completed our proof that the classes form a partition.