Equivalence relations in mathematics, K-16+

Art Duval

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Fractions Geometry Real life

One reason fractions are hard

 $\frac{2}{3}+\frac{1}{5}=$

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$$\frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{5} = \frac{10}{15} + \frac{3}{15}$$

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$$\frac{10}{15} + \frac{3}{15} = \frac{13}{15}$$

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We have to use $\frac{2}{3} = \frac{10}{15}$ and $\frac{1}{5} = \frac{3}{15}$.

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Questions:

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- If $\frac{2}{3}$ and $\frac{10}{15}$ are equal, why can we use one but not the other?
- Could we have used something else besides $\frac{10}{15}$?
- Would we use something else in another situation, or should we always use $\frac{10}{15}$?

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Equivalent fractions

Definition: $\frac{a}{b} \sim \frac{c}{d}$ if they reduce to the same fraction (ad = bc).

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Equivalent fractions

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Equivalent fractions

Definition: $\frac{a}{b} \sim \frac{c}{d}$ if they reduce to the same fraction (ad = bc). It's easy to check \sim is an equivalence relation, so we can partition fractions as follows:

 $\frac{a}{b}$ and $\frac{c}{d}$ are in the same part ("equivalence class") if $\frac{a}{b} \sim \frac{c}{d}$.

$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{17}{34}$	$\frac{2}{3}$	$\frac{10}{15}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{3}{15}$	$\frac{4}{7}$	$\frac{20}{35}$
$\frac{4}{8}$	$\frac{6}{12}$	$\frac{4}{6}$	$\frac{14}{21}$	$\frac{10}{50}$	$\frac{8}{40}$	$\frac{40}{70}$	$\frac{16}{28}$
$\frac{10}{20}$	$\frac{7}{14}$	$\frac{20}{20}$	$\frac{8}{12}$	$\frac{2}{10}$	$\frac{7}{35}$	$\frac{8}{14}$	$\frac{36}{63}$

Adding fractions (revisited)

if	$\frac{a}{b} \sim \frac{c}{d}$
and	$\frac{\tilde{e}}{f} \sim \frac{\tilde{g}}{h}$

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Adding fractions (revisited)

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{if} & \frac{a}{b} \sim \frac{c}{d} \\ \text{and} & \frac{e}{f} \sim \frac{g}{h} \\ \text{then} & \frac{a}{b} + \frac{e}{f} \sim \frac{c}{d} + \frac{g}{h} \end{array}$$

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So, really we should say

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2\\ \overline{3} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ \overline{5} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 13\\ \overline{15} \end{bmatrix},$$

because anything equivalent to $\frac{2}{3}$ plus anything equivalent to $\frac{1}{5}$ "equals" something equivalent to $\frac{13}{15}$.

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because anything equivalent to $\frac{2}{3}$ plus anything equivalent to $\frac{1}{5}$ "equals" something equivalent to $\frac{13}{15}$.

- But it's hard to compute unless we pick the right representative.
- In other settings, we stick to the fraction in lowest terms, a distinguished representative.

Some equivalence relations from geometry:

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Some equivalence relations from geometry:

- Similarity
 - same "shape", possibly different size
 - can get via dilation, reflection, rotation, translation

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Some equivalence relations from geometry:

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- Congruence
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- Same shape, size, chirality
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- Same shape, size, chirality, orientation
 - can get via translation

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- Same shape, size, chirality, orientation
 - can get via translation
- Same shape, size, chirality, orientation, position
 - equality

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Finer partitions

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Finer partitions

As we go down that ladder, we refine the partition, by splitting each part into more parts.

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Finer partitions

- As we go down that ladder, we refine the partition, by splitting each part into more parts.
- Different situations call for different interpretations of when two shapes are "the same".

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Money

▶ At the store, 1 dollar equals 4 quarters equals 10 dimes.

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- At old vending machines, dollar bad, coins good.

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- At my vending machine, dollar good, coins bad.
- At parking meters, quarters good, everything else bad.

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- At old vending machines, dollar bad, coins good.
- At my vending machine, dollar good, coins bad.
- At parking meters, quarters good, everything else bad.
- Everywhere, pennies bad.

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When is $\frac{2}{6}$ not the same as $\frac{1}{3}$?

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When is $\frac{2}{6}$ not the same as $\frac{1}{3}$? • When it's apple pie.

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When is $\frac{2}{6}$ not the same as $\frac{1}{3}$?

- When it's apple pie.
- When it's apple pie, and you have two kids

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When is $\frac{2}{6}$ not the same as $\frac{1}{3}$?

- When it's apple pie.
- When it's apple pie, and you have two kids and no knife.

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Where else do we see this?

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Where else do we see this?

Glad you asked

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Regrouping

To do multidigit addition and subtraction,

 $436 = 400 + 30 + 6 = 400 + 20 + 16 = 300 + 130 + 6 = \cdots$

- Different representations are better or worse for different addition and subtraction problems.
- Using base-10 blocks, these all make different (but "equivalent") pictures.

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"Unique" factorization

Completely factor 60, as

 $2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 5 = 2 \times 3 \times 2 \times 5 = 5 \times 2 \times 2 \times 3 = \cdots$

Natural to say these are all the "same"; once we do, we get unique factorization into primes.

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- Natural to say these are all the "same"; once we do, we get unique factorization into primes.
- Distinguished representative is usually to arrange primes from smallest to largest.
- In context of factorization, 6 × 10 and 4 × 15 are different, even though usually 6 × 10 = 4 × 15.

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Definitions and motivation Examples More theory College

0.999...

$0.999\ldots = 1$

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Definitions and motivation Examples More theory College

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right?

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$0.999\ldots = 1$

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▶ 0.999... isn't even a number, it's an infinite process

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$0.999\ldots=1$

right?

 0.999... isn't even a number, it's an infinite process that gets arbitrarily close to 1

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$0.999\ldots=1$

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- 0.999... isn't even a number, it's an infinite process that gets arbitrarily close to 1
- "gets arbitrarily close to" is an equivalence relation.

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- 0.999... isn't even a number, it's an infinite process that gets arbitrarily close to 1
- "gets arbitrarily close to" is an equivalence relation.
- This equivalence relation respects addition, multiplication, etc. (like equivalent fractions).

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- So it's close enough for everything we do.

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- 0.999... isn't even a number, it's an infinite process that gets arbitrarily close to 1
- "gets arbitrarily close to" is an equivalence relation.
- This equivalence relation respects addition, multiplication, etc. (like equivalent fractions).
- So it's close enough for everything we do.
- And allowing it (and all its infinite process buddies) allows us to say things like $\sqrt{2}$ and *e* are numbers, on the number line.

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$$(x-1)(x+1) = x^2 - 1$$

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▶ The two expressions are equal for all values of *x*.

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$$(x-1)(x+1) = x^2 - 1$$

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- ► The two expressions are equal for all values of *x*.
- Being equal for all values of [all relevant variables] is an equivalence relation.

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- The two expressions are equal for all values of x.
- Being equal for all values of [all relevant variables] is an equivalence relation.
- This equivalence relation respects addition, multiplication, etc. (like equivalent fractions).
- So it's good enough for everything we do.
- But it is not so obvious when expressions are equivalent.
- There are many different ideas of "distinguished representative".

3x + 7 = 22 is the same as 3x = 15,

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3x + 7 = 22 is the same as 3x = 15, right?

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▶ The two equations have the same solution set for *x*.

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- The two equations have the same solution set for x.
- Having the same solution set for [all relevant variables] is an equivalence relation.
- The algebraic manipulations we do when solving equations should take us from equations only to equivalent equations.

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Definitions and motivation Examples More theory College

Elementary Probability (combinations and permutations)

When you ask "How many ways can we pick 6 of these 54 numbers?" [Texas Lotto], we mean $\{17, 23, 42, 10, 54, 1\}$ is the same as $\{10, 23, 54, 17, 42, 1\}$,

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Elementary Probability (combinations and permutations)

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- With combinations (like this), order does not matter, so it's an equivalence relation on ordered lists (permutations).
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- To present a combination, we need to pick some way of writing it down (a permutation), a representative of its equivalence class.

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- To present a combination, we need to pick some way of writing it down (a permutation), a representative of its equivalence class.
- ► Usually, the distinguished representative (ordered list) to represent a combination (unordered list) is to put the items "in order"; for instance: {1,10,17,23,42,54}.

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Modular arithmetic

- ► Two numbers are equivalent if they give the same remainder after dividing by *m*.
- Example: Even and odd (m = 2).

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Modular arithmetic

- Two numbers are equivalent if they give the same remainder after dividing by m.
- Example: Even and odd (m = 2).
- This equivalence relation respects addition and multiplication.
- Example: Last digit arithmetic (m = 10).

Anti-differentiation

Solve

$$f'(x) = 3x^2$$

• "Answer" is
$$x^3 + C$$
.

- This really means the equivalence class of functions that can be written in this form.
- The equivalence relation is $f \sim g$ if f g is a constant.
- This equivalence relation respects addition, multiplication by a constant, which is why those are easy to deal with in anti-differentiation.

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Linear Differential equations Solve

$$y''' - 5y'' + y' - y = 3x^2$$

Solutions of the form

$$y = y_0 + y_p$$

where y_0 is the general solution to the homogeneous equation, and y_p is a particular solution.

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Similarly for the matrix equation

$$Mx = b.$$

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Gaussian elimination in matrices

- Consists of a series of elementary row operations that do not change the solution set.
- So at the end, we have a nicer representative of the same equivalence class (of systems with the same solution).

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Cardinality

What is the cardinality of a set?

- It's not defined as a function, per se
- ▶ We just say when two sets have the same cardinality.
- That's an equivalence relation, not a function.
- There are some distinguished representatives: $0; 1; 2; ...; \mathbb{N}; \mathbb{R}$.

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Why do some equivalence relations respect addition?

What we really need is to make sure that $\left[0\right]$ acts like the additive identity:

$$[0] + [0] = [0].$$

Also

$$-[0] = [0].$$

This is just the definition of subgroup (in an abelian group).

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Similarly, the nonabelian case gives rise to normal subgroups.

Why do some equivalence relations respect multiplication?

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$$[0] \times [x] = [0]$$

for all [x].

Along with the subgroup condition (for addition), this is just the definition of ideal.

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