Contents

1 Review of Propositional Logic

Task: Recall enough propositional logic to see how it matches up with set theory.

Definition: A proposition is any declarative sentence that is either true or false.

1.1 Connectives

	Connectives		Notation in Maths
and	$\wedge$		
or	$\vee$	"Inclusive or"	
not	$\neg$	Sometimes denoted $\sim$	
implies	$\rightarrow$	if/then; called implication	$\Rightarrow$
if and only if	$\leftrightarrow$	Called equivalence	$\Leftrightarrow$

1.1.1 Truth Table of the Connectives

Let P, Q be propositions:

P	Q	P$\wedge$Q
F	F	F
F	T	F
T	F	F
T	T	T

P	Q	P$\vee$Q
F	F	F
F	T	T
T	F	T
T	T	T

P	$\neg$P
F	T
T	F

P	Q	P$\rightarrow$Q
F	F	T
F	T	T
T	F	F
T	T	T

P	Q	P$\leftrightarrow$Q
F	F	T
F	T	F
T	F	F
T	T	T

Priority of the Connectives

Highest to Lowest: $\neg, \wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$

1.2 Important Tautologies

$$\begin{array}{rcl} (P \rightarrow Q) & \leftrightarrow & (\neg P \vee Q) \\ (P \leftrightarrow Q) & \leftrightarrow & [(P \rightarrow Q) \wedge (Q \rightarrow P)] \\ \neg(P \wedge Q) & \leftrightarrow & (\neg P \vee \neg Q) \\ \neg(P \vee Q) & \leftrightarrow & (\neg P \wedge \neg Q) \end{array} \left.\begin{array}{l} \\ \\ \end{array}\right\} \text{De Morgan Laws}$$

As a result, $\neg$ and $\vee$ together can be used to represent all of $\neg, \wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$.

Less obvious: One connective called the sheffer stroke P|Q (which stands for "not both P and Q" or "P nand Q") can be used to represent all of $\neg$, $\wedge$, $\vee$, $\rightarrow$, $\leftrightarrow$ since $\neg$P $\leftrightarrow$ P|P and P $\vee$ Q $\leftrightarrow$ (P|P) | (Q|Q).

Recall is P$\rightarrow$Q is a given implication, Q$\rightarrow$P is called the converse or P$\rightarrow$Q. $\neg$Q $\rightarrow$ $\neg$P.

1.3 Indirect Arguments/Proofs by Contradiction/Reductio as absurdum

Based on the tautology (P→Q) ↔ (¬Q → ¬P)

Example: Famous argument that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

Proof:

Suppose $\sqrt{2}$ is rational, then it can be expressed is fraction form $\frac{a}{b}$. Let us **assume** that our fraction is in the lowest term, **i.e.** their only common divisor is 1.

Then,

$$\sqrt{2} = \frac{a}{b}$$

Squaring both sides, we have

$$2 = \frac{a^2}{b^2}$$

Multiplying both sides by B^2 yields

$$2b^2 = a^2$$

Since a^2b^2, we can conclude that a^2 is even because whatever the value of b^2 has to be multiplied by 2. Is a^2 is even, then a is also even. Since a is even, no matter what the value of a is, we can always find an integer that if we divide a by 2, it is equal to that integer. If we let that integer be k, then $\frac{a}{b} = k$ which means that $a = 2k$.

Substituting the value of $2k$ to a, we have $2b^2 = (2k)^2$ which means that $2b^2 = 4k^2$. dividing both sides by 2 we have $b^2 = 2k^2$. That means that the value b^2 is even, since whatever the value of k you have to multiply it by 2. Again, is b^2 is even, then b is even.

This implies that both a and b are even, which means that both the numerator and the denominator of our fraction are divisible by 2. This contradicts our **assumption** that $\frac{a}{b}$ has no common divisor except 1. Since we found a contradiction, our assumption is, therefore, false. Hence the theorem is true.

qed

2 Predicate logic and Quantifiers

Task: Understand enough predicate logic to make sense of quantified statements.

In predicate logic, propositions depend on variable x, y, x, so their truth value may chance depending on which values these variables assume: $P(x), Q(x, y), R(x, y, z)$

2.1 Introduce quantifiers

2.1.1 $\exists$ existential quantifier

Syntax: $\exists x P(x)$

Definition: $\exists x P(x)$ is true if $P(x)$ is true or some value of x; it is false otherwise.

2.1.2 $\forall$ universal quantifier

Syntax: $\forall x P(x)$

Definition: $\forall x P(x)$ is true if $P(x)$ is true for all allowable values of x. It is false otherwise.

2.1.3 $\exists!$ for one and only one

Syntax: $\exists! x P(x)$

Definition: $\exists! x P(x)$ is true if $P(x)$ is true for exactly one value of x and false for all often values of x; otherwise, $\exists! x P(x)$ is false.

2.2 Alternation of Quantifiers

$\forall x \exists y \forall z \quad P(x, y, z)$

NB: The order <u>cannot</u> be exchanged as it might modify the truth values of the statement (think of examples with two quantifiers).

2.3 Negation of Quantifiers

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \neg(\exists x P(x)) & \leftrightarrow & \forall x \neg P(x) \\ \neg(\forall x P(x)) & \leftrightarrow & \exists x \neg P(x) \end{array}$$

3 Set Theory

Task: Understand enough set theory to make sense of other mathematical objects in abstract algebra, graph theory, etc. Set theory started around 1870's $\rightarrow$ late development in mathematics but now taught early in one's maths education due to Bourbaki school.

Definition: A set is a collection of objects. $x \in A$ means the element X is in the set A (**i.e.** belongs to A).

Examples:

1. All students in a class.
2. $\mathbb{N}$ the set of natural numbers starting at 0.

   $\mathbb{N}$ is defined via the following two axioms:

   (a) $0 \in \mathbb{N}$
   (b) if $x \in \mathbb{N}$ then $x + 1 \in \mathbb{N}$ $(x \in \mathbb{N} \to X + A \in \mathbb{N})$

3. $\mathbb{R}$ set of real numbers also introduced axiomatically

   $\mathbb{R}$ the set of real numbers.

   (a) Additive closure: $\forall x, y \exists z(x + y = z)$
   (b) Multiplicative closure: $\forall x, y, \exists z(x \times y = z)$
   (c) Additive associativity: $x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z$
   (d) Multiplicative associativity: $x \times (y \times z) = (x \times y) \times z$
   (e) Additive commutativity: $x + y = y + x$
   (f) Multiplicative commutativity: $x \times y = y \times x$
   (g) Distributivity: $x \times (y + z) = (x \times y) + (x \times z)$ and $(y + z) \times x = (y \times x) + (z \times x)$
   (h) Additive identity: There is a number, denoted 0, such that or all $x, x + 0 = x$
   (i) Multiplicative identity: There is a number, denoted 1, such that for all $x, x \times 1 = 1 \times x = x$
   (j) Additive inverses: For every x there is a number, denoted $-x$, such that $x + (-x) = 0$
   (k) Multiplicative inverses: For every nonzero x there is a number, denoted x, such that $x \times x^{-1} = x^{-1} \times x = 1$
   (l) $0 \neq 1$
   (m) Irreflexivity of $<$:$\sim (x < x)$
   (n) Transitivity of ¡: If $x < y$ and $y < z$, then $x < z$
   (o) Trichotomy: Either $x < y, y < x$, or $x = y$
   (p) If $x < y$, then $x + y < y + z$
   (q) If $x < y$ and $0 < z$, then $x \times z < y \times z$ and $z \times x < z \times y$
   (r) Completeness: If a nonempty set of real numbers has an upper bound, then it has a *least* upper bound.

4. $\emptyset$ is the empty set (The set with no elements).

Definition: Let A, B be sets. A=b if and only if all elements of A are elements of B and all elements of B are elements of A,
i.e. $A = b \leftrightarrow [\forall x(x \in A \to x \in B)] \cap [\forall y(y \in B \to y \in A)]$

3.1 Two Ways to Describe Sets

1. The enumeration/roster method: list all elements of the set.
   NB: order is <u>irrelevant</u>.
   $A = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\} = \{5, 0, 2, 3, 1, 4\}$

2. The formulaic/set builder method: give a formula that generates all elements of the set.
   $A = \{x \in \mathbb{N} \mid 0 \leq 5 \wedge x \leq 5\} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\} = \{x \in \mathbb{N} : 0 \leq x \wedge x \leq 5\}$

Using $\mathbb{N}$ and the set-builder method, we can define:

$\mathbb{Z} = \{m - n \mid \forall m, n \in \mathbb{N}\}$

$n = 0$ in any natural numbers $\Rightarrow$ we generate all of $\mathbb{N}$

$m = 0$ in any natural number $\Rightarrow$ we generator all negative integers

$\mathbb{Q} = \{\frac{p}{q} \mid p, q \in \mathbb{Z} \wedge q \neq 0\}$

Definition: A set A is called finite if it has a finite number of elements; otherwise it is called infinite.

4 Set Operations

Task: Understand how to represent sets by Venn diagrams. Understand set union, intersection, complement and difference.

Definition: Let A, B be sets. A is a <u>subset</u> of B. If all elements of A are elements of B, **i.e.** $\forall x(x \in A \to x \in B)$. We denote that A is a subset of B by $A \subseteq B$

Example: $\mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$

Definition: Let A, B be sets. A is a <u>proper</u> subset of B if $A \subseteq B \wedge A \neq B$, **i.e.** $A \subseteq B \wedge \exists x \in B s.t. x \notin A$.
A proper subset is always a subset, but a subset is not always a proper subset.

Notation: $A \subset B$

Example: $\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{Z}$ since $\exists -1 \in \mathbb{N}$
NB: $\forall A$ a set $\emptyset \subseteq A$

Recall: $B \subseteq C$ means $\forall x(x \in B \to x \in C)$, but $\emptyset$ has no elements so in $\emptyset \subseteq A$ the quantifier $\forall$ operates on a domain with no elements. Clearly, we need to give meaning to $\exists$ and $\forall$ on empty sets.

<u>Boolean Convention</u>

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\forall \text{ is true on the empty set}\\ \exists \text{ is false on the empty set}\end{array}\right\} \text{Consistent with common sense}$$

Definition: Let A, B be two sets. The <u>union</u> $A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \vee x \in B\}$

Definition: Let A, B be two sets. The <u>intersection</u> $A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \wedge x \in B\}$

Definition: Let A, B be sets. A and B are called <u>disjoint</u> is $A \cap B = \emptyset$

Definition Let A, B be two sets. $A - B = A \backslash B = \{a \mid x \in A \wedge x \notin B\}$

Examples:

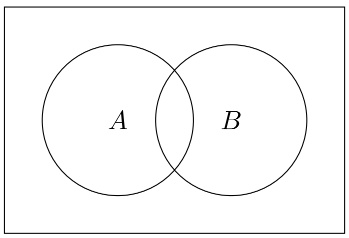
$$\begin{array}{ll} A = \{1, 2, 5\} & B = \{1, 3, 6\} \\ A \cup B = \{1, 2, 3, 5, 6\} & A \cap B = \{1\} \\ A \backslash B = \{2, 5\} & B \backslash A = \{3, 6\} \end{array}$$

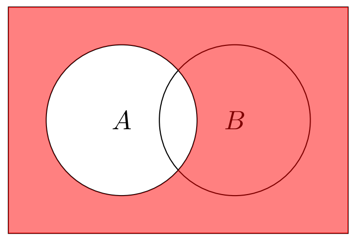
Definition: Let A, U be sets s.t. $A \subseteq U$. The <u>complement</u> of A in U = $U \backslash A = A^C = \{x \mid x \in U \wedge x \notin A\}$

Remark: The notation A^C is unambiguous only if the universe U is clearly defined or understood.

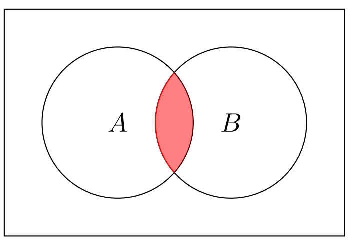
4.1 Venn Diagrams

Schematic representation of set operations.

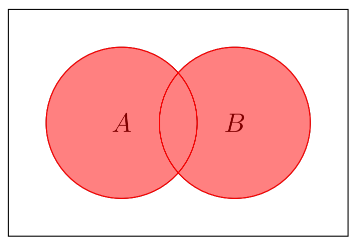




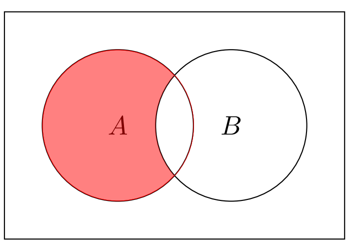
A^C



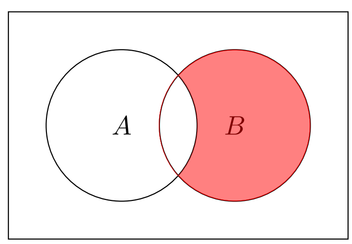
$A \cap B$



$A \cup B$



$A \backslash B$



$B \backslash A$

4.2 Properties of Set Operations

Correspondence between Logic and Set Theory

Logical Connective	Set operation
$\wedge$	intersection $\cap$
$\vee$	union $\cup$
$\neg$	complement $(\ )^C$

As a result, various properties of set operations become obvious:

- Commutativity
  - $A \cap B = B \cap A$
  - $A \cup B = B \cup A$
- Associativity
  - $(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C)$
  - $(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C)$
- Distributivity
  - $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$
  - $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup B)$
- De Morgan Laws in Set Theory
  - $(A \cap B)^C = A^C \cup B^C$
  - $(A \cup B)^C = A^C \cap B^C$
- Involutivity of the Complement
  - $(A^C)^C = A$

NB: An involution is a map such that applying it twice gives the identity. Familiar examples: reflecting across the x-axis, the y-axis, or the origin in the plane.

- Transitivity of Inclusion
  - $A \subseteq B \wedge B \subseteq C \to A \subseteq C$
- Criterion for proving equality of sets
  - $A = B \leftrightarrow A \subseteq C \wedge B \subseteq A$
- Criterion for proving non-equality of sets
  - $A \neq B \leftrightarrow (A \backslash B) \cup (B \backslash A) \neq 0$

4.3 Example Proof in Set Theory

Proposition: $\forall A, B$ sets. $(A \cap B) \cup (A \backslash B) = A$

Proof: Use the criterion for proving equality of sets from above, **i.e.** inclusion in both directions.

<u>Show $(A \cap B) \cup (A \backslash B) \subseteq A$:</u> $\forall x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \backslash B), x \in (A \cap B)$ or $x \in A \backslash B$. If $x \in (A \cap B)$ then clearly $x \in A$ as $A \cap B \subseteq A$ by definition. If $x \in A \backslash B$, then by definition $x \in A$ and $x \notin B$ so definitely $x \in A$. In both cases, $x \in A$ as needed.

<u>Show $A \subseteq (A \cap B) \cup (A \backslash B)$:</u> $\forall x \in A$, we have two possibilities, namely $x \in B$ or $x \notin B$. If $x \in B$, then $x \in A$ and $x \in B$, so $x \in A \cap B$. If $x \notin B$, then $x \in A$ and $x \notin B$, so $x \notin A \backslash B$. In both cases, $x \in (A \cap B)$ or $x \in (A \backslash B)$ so $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \backslash B)$ as needed.

qed

5 The Power Set

Task: Understand what the power set of a set A is.

Definition: Let A be a set. The power set of A denoted $P(A)$ is the collection of all the subsets of A.

Recall: $\emptyset \subseteq A$. It is also clear from the definition of a subset that $A \subseteq A$.

Examples:

1. $A = \{0, 1\}$
   $P(A) = \{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{0, 1\}\}$
2. $A = \{a, b, c\}$
   $P(A) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$
3. $A = \emptyset$
   $P(A) = \{\emptyset\}$
   $P(P(A)) = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$

NB: $\emptyset$ and $\{\emptyset\}$ are different objects. $\emptyset$ has no elements, whereas $\{\emptyset\}$ has one element.

Remark: $P(A)$ and A are viewed as living in separate worlds to avoid phenomena like Russell' paradox.

Q: If A has n elements, how many elements does $P(A)$ have?

A: 2^n

Theorem: Let A be a set with n elements, then $P(A)$ contains 2^n elements.

Proof: Based on the on/off switch idea.

$\forall x \in A$, we have two choices: either we include x in the subset or we don't (on vs off switch). A has n elements $\Rightarrow$ we have 2^n subsets of A.

qed

Alternate Proof: Using mathematical induction.

NB: It is an axiom of set theory (in the ZFC standard system) that every set has a power set, which implies no set consisting of all possible sets could limit, else what would its power set be?

6 Cartesian Products

Task: Understand sets like $\mathbb{R}^1$ in a more theoretical way.

Recall from Calculus:

$$\mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}^1 \ni x$$

$$\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}^2 \ni (x_1, x_1)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\underbrace{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}}_{\text{n times}} = \mathbb{R}^2 \ni (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$$

These are examples of Cartesian products.

Definition: Let A, B be sets. The Cartesian product denoted by $A]timesB$ consists of all ordered pairs $(x, y)stx \in A \wedge y \in B$, **i.e.** $A \times B = \{(x, y) \mid x \in A \wedge y \in B\}$

Further Examples:

1. $A = \{1, 3, 7\}$
   $B = \{1, 5\}$
   $A \times B = \{(1,1), (1,5), (3,1), (3,5), (7,1), (7,5)\}$
   NB: The order in which elements in a pair matters: $(7, 1)$ is different from $(1, 7)$. This is why we call (x, y) an <u>ordered</u> pair.
2. $A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^| x^2 + y^2 = 1\} \leftarrow$ circle of radius 1
   $B = \{z \in \mathbb{R} \mid -2 \leq z \leq 2\} = \{-2, 2\} \leftarrow$ closed interval
   $A \times B \leftarrow$ cylinder of radius 1 and height 4

6.1 Cardinality (number of elements) in a Cartesian product

If A has n elements and B has p elements, $A \times B$ has np elements.

Example:

1. $\#(A) = 3 \qquad A = \{1, 3, 7\}$
   $\#(B) = 2 \qquad B = \{1, 5\}$
   $\#(A) \times B) = 3 \times 2 = 6$

2. Both A and B are infinite sets, so $A \times B$ is infinite as well.

Remark: We can define Cartesian products of any length, **e.g.** $A \times A \times B \times A$, $B \times A \times B \times A \times B$, etc. If all sets are finite, the number of elements is the product of the numbers of elements of each factor. If $\#(A) = 3$ and $\#(B) = 2$ as above, $\#(A \times B]timesA) = 3 \times 3 \times 3 = 18$ and $\#(B \times A \times B) = 2 \times 3 \times 2 = 12$.

7 Relations

Task: Define subsets of Cartesian products with certain properties. Understand the predicates " = " (equality) and other predicates in predicate logic in a more abstract light.

Start with $x = y$. The elements x is some notation R to y (equality in this case). We can also denote it as xRy or $(x, y) \in E$)

Let x, y in $\mathbb{R}$, then $E = \{(x, x) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\} \subset \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$.

The "diagonal" in $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ gives exactly the elements equal to each other.

More generally:

Definition: Let A, B be sets. A subset of the Cartesian product $A \times B$ is called a relations between A and B. A subset of the Cartesian product $A \times A$ is called a relations on A.

Remark: Note how general this definition is. To make it useful for understanding predicates, we will need to introduce key properties relations can satisfy.

Example: $A = \{1, 3, 7\} \qquad B = \{1, 2, 5\}$

We can define a relation S on $A \times B$ by $S = \{(1, 1), (1, 5), (3, 2)\}$. This means $1S1$, $1S5$ and $3S2$ and no other ordered pairs in $A \times B$ satisfy S.

Remark: The relations we defined involve 2 elements, so they are often called binary relations in the literature.

8 Equivalence Relations

Task: Define the most useful kind of relation.

Definition: A relation R on a set A is called

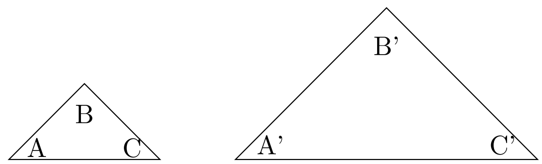
1. reflexive iff (if and only if) $\forall x \in A, xRx$
2. symmetric iff $\forall x, y \in A, xRy \to yRx$
3. transitive iff $\forall x, y, z \in A, xRy \wedge yRz \to xRz$

An equivalence relation on A is a relation that is reflexive, symmetric and transitive.

Notation: Instead of xRy, an equivalence relation is often denoted by $x \equiv y$ or $x \sim y$.

Examples:

1. "=" equality is an equivalence relation.
   (a) $x = x$ reflexive
   (b) $x = y \Rightarrow y = x$ symmetric
   (c) $x = y \wedge y = z \Rightarrow x = z$ transitive
2. $A = \mathbb{N}$
   $x \equiv y \bmod 3$ is an equivalence relation. $x \equiv y \bmod 3$ means $x - y = 3m$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z}$, **i.e.** x and y have the same remainder when divided by 3. The set of all possible remainders is $\{0, 1, 2\}$
   NB: In correct logic notation, $x \equiv y \bmod 23$ if $\exists m \in \mathbb{Z} s.t. x - y = 3m$
   (a) $x \equiv x \bmod 3$ since $x - x = 0 = 3 \times 0 \to$ reflexive
   (b) $x \equiv y \bmod 3 \Rightarrow y \equiv x \bmod 3$ because $x \equiv y \bmod 3$ means $x - y = 3m$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow y - x = -3m = 3 \times (-m) \Rightarrow y \equiv x \bmod 3 \to$ symmetric
   (c) Assume $x \equiv y \bmod 3$ and $y \equiv z \bmod 3$
   $x \equiv y \bmod 3 \Rightarrow \exists m \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $x - y = 3m \Rightarrow y = x - 3m$
   $y \equiv z \bmod 3 \Rightarrow \exists p \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $y - z = 3p \Rightarrow y = z + 3p$
   Therefore, $x - 3m = z + 3p \Leftrightarrow x - z = 3p + 3m = 3(p + m)$
   Since $p, m \in \mathbb{Z}, p + m \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow x \equiv z \bmod 3 \to$ transitive.
3. Let $f : A \to A$ be any function on a non empty set A. We define the relation $R = \{(x, y) \mid f(x) = f(y)\}$
   (a) $\forall x \in A, f(x) = f(x) \Rightarrow (x, x) \in R \to reflexive$
   (b) If $(x, y) \in R$, then $f(x) = f(y) \Rightarrow f(y) = f(x)$, **i.e.** $(y, x) \in R \to$ symmetric
   (c) If $(x, y) \in R$ and $(y, z) \in R$, then $f(x) = f(y)$ and $f(y) = f(z)$, which by the transitivity of equality implies $f(x) = f(z)$, **i.e.** $(x, z) \in R$ as needed, so R is transitive as well.
   $f(x)$ can be $e^x, sin\, x, (x)$, etc.



4. Let λ be the set of all triangles in the plane. $ABC \sim A'B'C'$ if ABC and $A'B'C'$ are similar triangles, **i.e.** have equal angles.
   (a) $\forall ABC \in \lambda, ABC \sim ABC$ so $\sim$ is reflexive
   (b) $ABC \sim A'B'C' \Rightarrow A'B'C' \sim ABC$ so $\sim$ is symmetric
   (c) $ABC \sim A'B'C'$ and $A'B'C' \sim A"B"C" \Rightarrow ABC \sim A"B"C"$, so $\sim$ is transitive

Clearly (a), (b), (c) use the fact that equality of angles is an equivalence relation.

Exercise: For various predicates you've encountered, check whether reflexive, symmetric or transitive. Examples of predicates include $\neq, <, >, \leq, \geq, \subseteq$

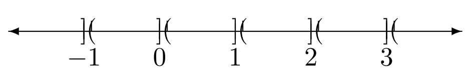
9 Equivalence Relations and Partitions

Task: Understand how equivalence relations divide sets.

Definition: Let A be a set. A partition of A is a collection of non empty sets, any two of which are disjoint such that their union is A, **i.e.** $\lambda = \{A_\alpha \mid \alpha \in I\}$ s.t. $\forall \alpha, \alpha' \in I$ satisfy $\alpha \neq \alpha', A_\alpha \cap A_{\alpha'} \neq \emptyset$ and $\underset{\alpha\in I}{\cup} A_\alpha = A$

Here I is an indexing act (may be infinite). $\underset{\alpha\in I}{A_\alpha}$ is the union of all the A_α's (possibly an infinite union)

Example $\{(n, n+1) \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a partition of $\mathbb{R}$



$\underset{n\in\mathbb{Z}}{\cup}(n, n+1] = \mathbb{R}$

$(n, n+1] \cap (m, m+1] = \emptyset$ if $n \neq m$

Definition: If R is an equivalence relations on a set A and $x \in A$, the equivalence class of x denoted $[x]_R$ is the set $\{y \mid xRy\}$. The collection of all equivalence classes is called A modulo R and denoted A/R.

Examples:

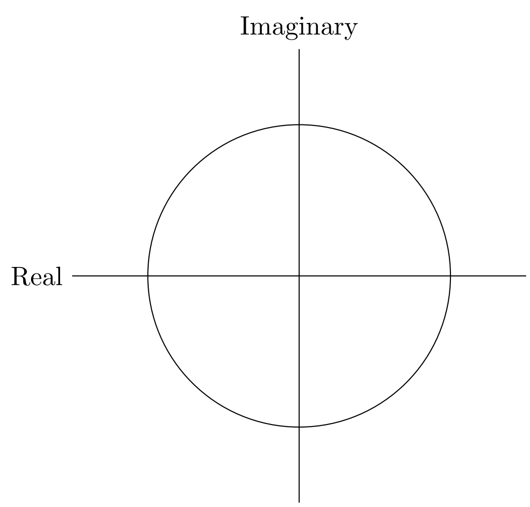
1. $A = \mathbb{N}$ $\qquad x \equiv y \bmod 3$
   We have the equivalence classes $[0]_R, [1]_R$ and $[2]_R$ given by the then possible remainders under division by 3.
   $[0]_R = \{0, 3, 6, 9, ...\}$
   $[1]_R = \{1, 4, 7, 10, ...\}$
   $[2]_R = \{2, 5, 8, 11, ...\}$
   Clearly $[0]_R \cup [1]_R \cup [2]_R = \mathbb{N}$ and they are mutually disjoint $\Rightarrow R$ gives a partition of $\mathbb{N}$.

2. $ABC \sim A'B'C'$
   $[ABC] = \{$The set of all triangles with angles of magnitude $\measuredangle ABC, \measuredangle BAC, \measuredangle ACB\}$
   The union over the set of all $[ABC]$ is the set of all triangles and $[ABC] \cap [A'B''] = \emptyset$ if $ABC \neq^* A'B'C'$ since it means these triangles have at least one angle that if difference.

* In the original notes, not $\sim$ is used (a tilde with a slash going through it) but I couldn't find this symbol in latex.

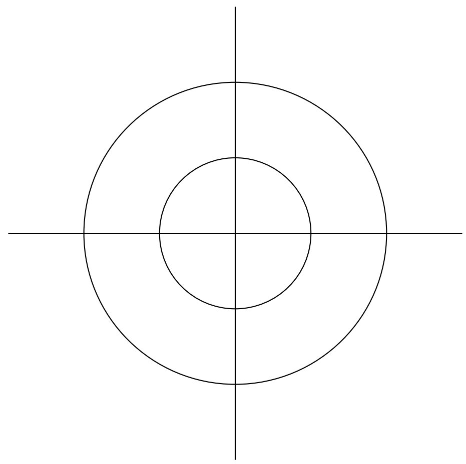
3. $A = \mathbb{C}$ $\qquad x \cap y$ if $|x| = |y|$ $\qquad$ equivalence relation
   $[x] = \{y \in \mathbb{C} \mid |x| = |y|\} = [r]$ for $r \in [0, +\infty) \wedge (r \geq 0)$

circle of radius $|x|$



$\bigcup\limits_{r \in [0,+\infty)} [r] = \mathbb{C}$
$[r_1] \cap [r_2] \neq \emptyset$ if $r_1 \neq r_2$ since two distinct circles in $\mathbb{C} \simeq \mathbb{R}^2$ with empty intersection.

circles $r_1 \wedge r_2$



Theorem: For any equivalence relation R on a set A, its equivalence classes form a partition of A, **i.e.**

1. $\forall x \in A, \exists y \in A$ s.t. $x \in [y]$ (every element of A sits somewhere)
2. $xRy \Leftrightarrow [x] = [y]$ (all elements related by R belong to the same equivalence class)
3. $\neg(xRy) \Leftrightarrow [x] \cap [y] = \emptyset$ (if two elements are not related by R, the they belong to disjoint equivalence classes)

Proof:

1. Trivial. Let $y = x$. $x \in [x]$ because R is an equivalence relation. Hence reflexive, so xRx holds.
2. We will prove $xRy \Leftrightarrow [x] \subseteq [y]$ and $[y] \subseteq [x]$
$\Rightarrow$ Fix $x \in A, [x] = \{z \in A \mid xRz\} \Rightarrow \forall y \in A$ s.t. $xRy, y \in [x]$. Furthermore, $[y] = \{w \in A \mid yRw\}$
$\Rightarrow \forall w \in [u], yRw$ but $xRy \Rightarrow xRw$ by transitivity. Therefore, $w \in [x]$. We have shown $[y] \subseteq [x]$.
Since R is an equivalence relation, it is also symmetric. **i.e.** $xRy \Leftrightarrow yRx$. So by the same argument with x and y swapped $yRx \Rightarrow [x] \subseteq [y]$. Thus $xRy \Rightarrow [x] = [y]$.
$\Rightarrow [x] = [y] \Rightarrow y \in [x]$ but $[x] = \{y \in A \mid xRy\}$
3. $\Rightarrow$ We will prove the contrapositive. Assume $[x] \cap [y] \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow \exists z \in [x] \cap [y].z \in [x]$ means xRy, whereas $z \in [y]$ means $yRx \Leftrightarrow zRy$ by symmetric of R. We thus have xRz and $zRy \Rightarrow xRy$ by transitivity of $R.xRy$ contradicts $\neg(xRy)$ so indeed $\neg(xRy) \Rightarrow [x] \cap [y] = \emptyset$
$\Leftarrow$ Once again we use the contrapositive.
Assume $\neg(\neg(xRy)) \Leftrightarrow xRy$. By part (b) $xRy \Rightarrow [x] = [y] \Rightarrow [x] \cap$

$[y] \neq \emptyset$ since $x \in [x]$ and $y \in [y]$, **i.e.** These equivalence classes are non empty. We have obtained the needed contradiction.

qed

Q: What partition does "=" impose on $\mathbb{R}$?

A: $[x] = \{x\}$ since $E = \{(x, x) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ the diagonal.
The one element equivalence class is the smallest equivalence class possible (by definition, an equivalence class cannot be empty as it contains x itself). We call such a partition the finest possible partition.

Remark: The theorem above shows how every equivalence relations partitions a set. It turns out every partition of a set can be used to define an equivalence relation: xRy is x nd y belong to the same subset of the partition (check this is indeed an equivalence relations!). Therefore, there is a 1-1 correspondence between partitions and equivlence relations: to each equivalence relation there corresponds a partition and vice versa.