# Relations

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Definition: Cartesian Product or Cross Product of two sets, A and B, denoted as  $A \times B$ , is defined by,  $A \times B = \{(a, b) \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$ 

Generically,  $\mathcal{A}_1 \times \mathcal{A}_2 \times \cdots \times \mathcal{A}_k = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) \mid \forall i, x_i \in \mathcal{A}_i\}$ 

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#### Example

Let  $\mathcal{A} = \{1, 2, 3\}$  and  $\mathcal{B} = \{a, b\}$ . So, the Cartesian products are defined as,  $\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{B} = \{(1, a), (2, a), (3, a), (1, b), (2, b), (3, b)\}$  and  $\mathcal{B} \times \mathcal{A} = \{(a, 1), (a, 2), (a, 3), (b, 1), (b, 2), (b, 3)\}$ 

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Clearly,  $\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{B} \neq \mathcal{B} \times \mathcal{A}$ , however  $|\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{B}| = 6 = |\mathcal{B} \times \mathcal{A}|$ .

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Let a relation,  $\rho$ , is defined over the set,  $\mathcal{A}$  with  $|\mathcal{A}| = n$ , as  $\rho \subseteq \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{A}$ .

Let a relation,  $\rho$ , is defined over the set, A with |A| = n, as  $\rho \subseteq A \times A$ . (Count:  $2^{n^2}$ )

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Symmetric:  $\rho$  is symmetric if  $\forall x, y \in \mathcal{A}, (x, y) \in \rho \Rightarrow (y, x) \in \rho$ 

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Symmetric:  $\rho$  is symmetric if  $\forall x, y \in A$ ,  $(x, y) \in \rho \Rightarrow (y, x) \in \rho$ 

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**Transitive**:  $\rho$  is transitive if  $\forall x, y, z \in \mathcal{A}$ ,  $(x, y), (y, z) \in \rho \Rightarrow (x, z) \in \rho$ 

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### Examples of Relations

**1** Reflexive and Symmetric, but NOT Transitive:

Aritra Hazra (CSE, IITKGP)

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Example: In the relation,  $\rho = \{(x, y) \mid (x - y) \text{ is divisible by 3 and } x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ , the four equivalence classes are defined as:

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$$[0] = \{\dots, -6, -3, 0, +3, +6, \dots\} = \{3k \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$
  
•  $[1] = \{\dots, -5, -2, 1, +4, +7, \dots\} = \{3k+1 \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$   
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Note:  $[0] = [-3] = [+3] = [-6] = [+6] = \cdots$  (from definition)  
 $[0] \neq [1] \neq [2]$  and  $\mathbb{Z} = [0] \cup [1] \cup [2]$  (details in next slide)

**Theorem:** If  $\rho$  is an equivalence relation on  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $x, y \in \mathcal{A}$ , then (i)  $x \in [x]$ ; (ii)  $(x, y) \in \rho$  iff [x] = [y]; and (iii) [x] = [y] or  $[x] \cap [y] = \phi$ **Proof:** 

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[*Only-If*]  $x \in [x]$  and  $[x] = [y]$  implies  $x \in [y] \Rightarrow (x, y) \in \rho$ .

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**(a)** Assume  $[x] \neq [y]$ , then  $[x] \cap [y] = \phi$  must hold. If otherwise  $[x] \cap [y] \neq \phi$ , then let  $u \in [x]$ and  $u \in [y]$ . Thus,  $(u, x) \in \rho$  and by symmetry,  $(x, u) \in \rho$ . With  $(u, y) \in \rho$ , applying transitivity we get,  $(x, y) \in \rho \Rightarrow [x] = [y]$ , which contradicts the assumption!

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 $\begin{bmatrix} If \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{Let } a \in [x] \Rightarrow (a, x) \in \rho. \text{ As } (x, y) \in \rho, \text{ so using transitivity, we get} \\ (a, y) \in \rho \Rightarrow a \in [y]. \text{ Hence, } [x] \subseteq [y]. \text{ Again, let } b \in [y] \Rightarrow (b, y) \in \rho. \text{ By symmetry,} \\ (x, y) \in \rho \Rightarrow (y, x) \in \rho. \text{ So, using transitivity, } (b, x) \in \rho \Rightarrow b \in [x]. \text{ Hence, } [y] \subseteq [x]. \\ [ Only-If ] \quad x \in [x] \text{ and } [x] = [y] \text{ implies } x \in [y] \Rightarrow (x, y) \in \rho. \end{bmatrix}$ 

**(i)** Assume  $[x] \neq [y]$ , then  $[x] \cap [y] = \phi$  must hold. If otherwise  $[x] \cap [y] \neq \phi$ , then let  $u \in [x]$ and  $u \in [y]$ . Thus,  $(u, x) \in \rho$  and by symmetry,  $(x, u) \in \rho$ . With  $(u, y) \in \rho$ , applying transitivity we get,  $(x, y) \in \rho \Rightarrow [x] = [y]$ , which contradicts the assumption!

#### Partitions of a Set (Revisited)

Given set  $\mathcal{A}$  and index set  $\mathcal{I}$ , let  $\forall i, \phi \neq \mathcal{A}_i \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ . Then  $\{\mathcal{A}_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$  induces a partition on  $\mathcal{A}$  if: (i)  $\mathcal{A} = \bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \mathcal{A}_i$ , and (ii)  $\mathcal{A}_i \cap \mathcal{A}_j = \phi, \forall i, j \in \mathcal{I} \ (i \neq j)$ .

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**Theorem:** If  $\rho$  is an equivalence relation on  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $x, y \in \mathcal{A}$ , then (i)  $x \in [x]$ ; (ii)  $(x, y) \in \rho$  iff [x] = [y]; and (iii) [x] = [y] or  $[x] \cap [y] = \phi$ **Proof:** 

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- **(i)** Assume  $[x] \neq [y]$ , then  $[x] \cap [y] = \phi$  must hold. If otherwise  $[x] \cap [y] \neq \phi$ , then let  $u \in [x]$  and  $u \in [y]$ . Thus,  $(u, x) \in \rho$  and by symmetry,  $(x, u) \in \rho$ . With  $(u, y) \in \rho$ , applying transitivity we get,  $(x, y) \in \rho \Rightarrow [x] = [y]$ , which contradicts the assumption!

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#### **Results:** (i) Any equivalence relation $\rho$ on set A induces a partition of A. *Proof:* Follows from the above theorem.

**Theorem:** If  $\rho$  is an equivalence relation on  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $x, y \in \mathcal{A}$ , then (i)  $x \in [x]$ ; (ii)  $(x, y) \in \rho$  iff [x] = [y]; and (iii) [x] = [y] or  $[x] \cap [y] = \phi$ Proof:

**Solution** From Reflexive property,  $(x, x) \in \rho$ .

- 1 [If] Let  $a \in [x] \Rightarrow (a, x) \in \rho$ . As  $(x, y) \in \rho$ , so using transitivity, we get  $(a, y) \in \rho \Rightarrow a \in [y]$ . Hence,  $[x] \subseteq [y]$ . Again, let  $b \in [y] \Rightarrow (b, y) \in \rho$ . By symmetry,  $(x, y) \in \rho \Rightarrow (y, x) \in \rho$ . So, using transitivity,  $(b, x) \in \rho \Rightarrow b \in [x]$ . Hence,  $[y] \subseteq [x]$ . [Only-If]  $x \in [x]$  and [x] = [y] implies  $x \in [y] \Rightarrow (x, y) \in \rho$ .
- **(a)** Assume  $[x] \neq [y]$ , then  $[x] \cap [y] = \phi$  must hold. If otherwise  $[x] \cap [y] \neq \phi$ , then let  $u \in [x]$ and  $u \in [y]$ . Thus,  $(u, x) \in \rho$  and by symmetry,  $(x, u) \in \rho$ . With  $(u, y) \in \rho$ , applying transitivity we get,  $(x, y) \in \rho \Rightarrow [x] = [y]$ , which contradicts the assumption!

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#### **Results:** (i) Any equivalence relation $\rho$ on set $\mathcal{A}$ induces a partition of $\mathcal{A}$ . *Proof:* Follows from the above theorem. (ii) Any partition of $\mathcal{A}$ gives rise to an equivalence relation $\rho$ on $\mathcal{A}$ . Proof: Left for You as an Exercise!

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Partial Order: A relation  $\rho \subseteq \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{A}$  on set  $\mathcal{A}$  is called a partial ordering relation (or partial order) if it is reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive. We call  $(\mathcal{A}, \rho)$  as a Poset (Partial Ordered Set).

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Example: Let  $S = \{1, 2, 3\}$  and  $\rho = \{(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}) \mid \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B} \text{ and } \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} \in \mathcal{P}(S)\}$ , therefore  $(\mathcal{P}(S), \rho)$  or  $(\mathcal{P}(S), \subseteq)$  is a poset. Also,  $(\mathcal{P}(S), \supseteq)$  is a poset and called dual of the poset  $(\mathcal{P}(S), \subseteq)$ .

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Covering Relation: Let  $(\mathcal{A}, \rho)$  is a poset and  $p, q, r \in \mathcal{A}$ . We call q as the cover for p(denoted as  $p \prec q$ ) when  $(p, q) \in \rho$ , and no element  $r \in \mathcal{A}$  exists such that  $p \prec r \prec q$ , that is  $(p, r) \in \rho$  and  $(r, q) \in \rho$ .

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Hasse Diagram: A directed acyclic graph (DAG) with elements of set A as nodes and (p,q) as directed edges from p to q  $(p,q \in A)$  iff  $p \prec q$  (q covers p).

### Partial Order and Hasse Diagram

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**Example:** Note that,  $(\{2\}, \{1,3\}) \notin \rho$  and  $\{1,2\} \prec \{1,2,3\}$  (forming the cover), but  $\{1\} \not\prec \{1,2,3\}$  as  $\{1\} \prec \{1,3\} \prec \{1,2,3\}$ .



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Total Order: If  $(\mathcal{A}, \rho)$  is a Poset, we call  $\mathcal{A}$  is totally ordered (or linearly ordered) if for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{A}$  either  $(x, y) \in \rho$  or  $(y, x) \in \rho$ . In this case,  $\rho$  is also called a total order (or linear order).

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Maximal Element: In the poset  $(\mathcal{A}, \rho)$ , an element  $x \in \mathcal{A}$  is called a maximal element of  $\mathcal{A}$  if  $\forall a \in \mathcal{A} \ [(a \neq x) \Rightarrow (x, a) \notin \rho] \ (\equiv \exists a \in \mathcal{A} \ [(x, a) \in \rho \Rightarrow (a = x)]).$ 

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If  $(\mathcal{A}, \rho)$  is a poset has a least (greatest) element, then that element is unique.

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Lower Bound: Let  $(\mathcal{A}, \rho)$  is a poset and  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ . An element  $x \in \mathcal{A}$  is called a lower bound of  $\mathcal{B}$  if  $\forall b \in \mathcal{B}, (x, b) \in \rho$ .

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- Greatest Lower Bound: Let  $(\mathcal{A}, \rho)$  is a poset. An element  $x' \in \mathcal{A}$  is called the greatest lower bound (glb) of  $\mathcal{B}$  if it is a lower bound of  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $(x'', x') \in \rho$  for all other lower bounds x'' of  $\mathcal{B}$ .

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  - Example: In the poset  $(\mathcal{P}(S), \subseteq)$  where  $S = \{1, 2, 3\}$  and let  $\mathcal{B} = \{\{1\}, \{2\}, \{1, 2\}\} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(S)$ . Then,  $\{1, 2\}$  and  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  both are the upper bounds for  $\mathcal{B}$  in  $(\mathcal{P}(S), \rho)$ ; whereas  $\{1, 2\}$  is the lub (and is in  $\mathcal{B}$ ). However, the glb for  $\mathcal{B}$  is  $\{\}$ , i.e.  $\phi$ , which does not belong to  $\mathcal{B}$ .

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If  $(\mathcal{A}, \rho)$  is a poset and  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ , then  $\mathcal{B}$  has at most one lub (glb).

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#### Definition

A lattice is a poset,  $(\mathcal{A}, \rho)$ , in which for every pair of elements  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ , the  $lub\{a, b\}$  and  $glb\{a, b\}$  both exists in  $\mathcal{A}$ .

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#### Examples:

All the following posets are lattice.

O Poset  $(\mathbb{N}, \rho)$ , where  $\rho = \{(x, y) \mid x \leq y \text{ and } x, y \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is a lattice.

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- Solution Poset  $(\mathbb{Z}^+, \rho)$ , where  $\rho = \{(x, y) \mid x \text{ divides } y \text{ and } x, y \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$  is a lattice. Here, for any  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $lub\{x, y\} = LCM\{x, y\}$  and  $glb\{x, y\} = GCD\{x, y\}$ .

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#### Example:

#### The following poset is NOT a lattice.

Let  $S = \{1, 2, 3\}$  and  $Q \subset \mathcal{P}(S)$  (all proper subsets) where  $\phi \notin Q$ . Poset  $(Q, \rho)$ , where  $\rho = \{(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}) \mid \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B} \text{ and } x, y \in Q\}$  is NOT a lattice. Here, the pair of elements  $\{1, 2\}$  and  $\{1, 3\}$  in Q do not have a *lub*, whereas the pair of elements  $\{1\}$  and  $\{2\}$  in Q do not have a *glb*.

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# **Thank You!**

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CS21001 : Discrete Structures

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