Relations --- Binary Relations Debdeep Mukhopadhyay IIT Madras

What is a relation?

- The mathematical concept of relation is based on the common notion of relationships among objects:
 - One box is heavier than the other
 - One man is richer than the other
 - An event occurs prior to the other

Ordered n-tuple

- For n>0, an ordered n-tuple (or simply n-tuple) with ith component a_i is a sequence of n objects denoted by <a₁,a₂,...,a_n>. Two ordered n-tuples are equal iff their ith components are equal for all i, 1<=i<=n.
- For n=2, ordered pair
- For n=3, ordered triple

Cartesian Product

Let {A₁,A₂,...,A_n} be an indexed collection of sets with indices from 1 to n, where n>0. The cartesian product, or cross product of the sets A₁ through A_n, denoted by A₁ × A₂ × ... ×A_n, or ×ⁿ_{i=1}A_i is the set of n-tuples <a₁,a₂,...,a_n>|a_i∈A_i}. When A_i=A, for all i, then ×ⁿ_{i=1}A_i will be denoted by Aⁿ.

Examples

- Let A={1,2}, B={m,n}, C={0}, D=Φ.
 AxB={<1,m>,<1,n>,<2,m>,<2,n>}
 AxC={<1,0>,<2,0>}
 AxD=Φ
- When A and B are real numbers, then AxB can be represented as a set of points in the Cartesian Plane. Let, A={x|1≤x≤2} and B={y|0≤y≤1}. Then

 $-AxB=\{<x,y>| 1 \le x \le 2 \land 0 \le y \le 1\}$

- 4. $(A \cap B)XC=(AXC) \cap (BXC)$
- 3. (A U B)XC=(AXC) U (BXC)
- 2. $AX(B \cap C)=(AXB) \cap (AXC)$
- 1. $AX(B \cup C)=(AXB) \cup (AXC)$

Theorems

Proof of 1

$$< x, y > \in A \times (B \cup C) \Leftrightarrow x \in A \land y \in (B \cup C)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x \in A \land (y \in B \lor y \in C)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (x \in A \land y \in B) \lor (x \in A \land y \in C)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (< x, y > \in A \times B) \lor (< x, y > \in A \times C)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow < x, y > \in (A \times B) \cup (A \times C)$$

The rest of the proofs are similar.

What is a relation mathematically?

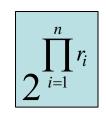
• Let $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$ be sets. An n-ary relation R on $\times_{i=1}^n A_i$ is a subset of $\times_{i=1}^n A_i$. If R= Φ , then R is called the empty or void relation. If

 $R = \times_{i=1}^{n} A_i$ then R is the universal relation. If $A_i = A$ for all i, then R is called an *n*-ary relation on A.

- If n=1, unary
- If n=2, binary
- Ternary...

Number of n-ary relations

- If A_i has r_i elements, then $\times_{i=1}^n A_i$ has $\prod_{i=1}^n r_i$ elements
- The number of n-ary relations is the cardinal number of the power set of the cartesian product of the A_is.
- Thus, the number of relations is



Equality of relations

- Let R_1 be an n-ary relation on $\times_{i=1}^{n} A_i$ and R_2 be an m-ary relation on $\times_{i=1}^{m} B_i$. Then $R_1 = R_2$ iff n=m, and $A_i = B_i$ for all i, $1 \le i \le n$, and $R_1 = R_2$ are equal sets of ordered n-tuples.
- Every n-ary relation on a set A, corresponds to an n-ary predicate with A as the universe of discourse.
- A unary relation on a set A is simply a subset of set A.

Binary Relations

- They are frequently used in abstraction in CS
- Various data structures, like trees and graphs can be modeled as binary relations and vice versa.
- We shall see techniques and methods to analyze.

Binary Relations

- Let *A*, *B* be any two sets.
- A binary relation R from A to B, written (with signature)
 R:A↔B, is a subset of A×B.

- *E.g.*, let < : $\mathbf{N} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{N} := \{ <n,m > | n < m \}$

• The notation a R b or aRb means $\langle a, b \rangle \in R$.

– E.g., a < b means (a,b) ∈ <</p>

- If aRb we may say "a is related to b (by relation R)", or "a relates to b (under relation R)".
- A binary relation *R* corresponds to a predicate function *P_R*:*A*×*B*→{**T**,**F**} defined over the 2 sets *A*,*B*; *e.g.*, "eats" := {<*a*,*b*>| organism *a* eats food *b*}

Domain and Co-domain

- Let R be a binary relation over AxB.
- Domain: Set A
- Co-domain: Set B
- <a,b>ER=> aRb
- <a,b> € R => aŔb

Complementary Relations

- Let $R: A \leftrightarrow B$ be any binary relation.
- Then, R:A↔B, the complement of R, is the binary relation defined by
 R := {<a,b> | (a,b)∉R}

Example: $\leq = \{(a,b) \mid (a,b) \notin \leq \} = \{(a,b) \mid \neg a \leq b\} = \geq$

Inverse Relations

Any binary relation R:A↔B has an *inverse* relation R⁻¹:B↔A, defined by
 R⁻¹ :≡ {(b,a) | (a,b)∈R}.

 $E.g., <^{-1} = \{(b,a) \mid a < b\} = \{(b,a) \mid b > a\} = >.$

 E.g., if R:People→Foods is defined by aRb ⇔ a eats b, then: b R⁻¹ a ⇔ b is eaten by a. (Passive voice.)

Relations on a Set

- A (binary) relation from a set A to itself is called a relation *on* the set A.
- *E.g.*, the "<" relation from earlier was defined as a relation *on* the set **N** of natural numbers.
- The *identity relation* I_A on a set A is the set $\{(a,a)|a \in A\}$.

Representing Relations

- With a zero-one matrix.
- With a directed graph.

Using Zero-One Matrices

- To represent a relation *R* by a matrix $\mathbf{M}_R = [m_{ij}]$, let $m_{ij} = 1$ if $(a_i, b_j) \in R$, else 0.
- E.g.,A={1,2,3}, B={1,2}. Let R be the relation from A to B containing (a,b) s.t a is in A and b is in B and a>b.
- The 0-1 matrix representation

When A=B, we have a square matrix

$$M_R = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

So, what is complement of R?

- A={1,2,3}, B={1,2}. Let R be the relation from A to B containing (a,b) s.t a is in A and b is in B and a>b
- Complement of R = {(a,b)|not(a>b)}

• 0-1 matrix is:

$$M_{\overline{R}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

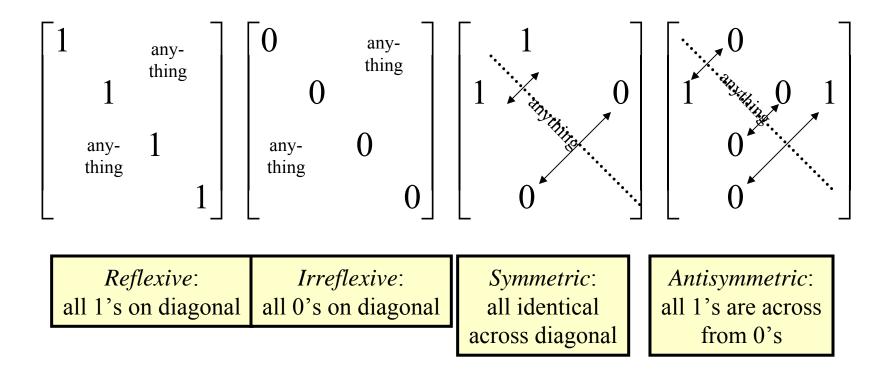
We can obtain by the element wise bit complement of the matrix.

Types of Relations

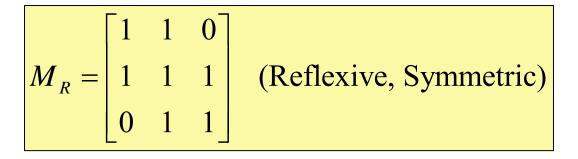
- Let R be a binary relation on A:
 - R is reflexive if xRx for every x in A
 - -R is irreflexive if xRx for every x in A
 - R is symmetric if xRy implies yRx for every x,y in A
 - R is antisymmetric if xRy and yRx together imply x=y for every x,y in A
 - R is transitive if xRy and yRz imply xRz for every x,y,z in A

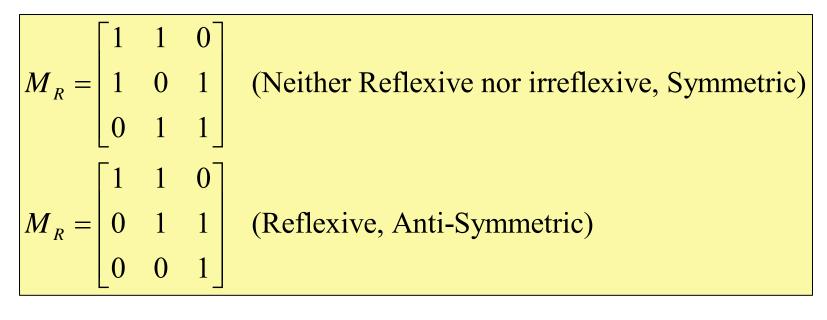
Zero-One Reflexive, Symmetric

 These relation characteristics are very easy to recognize by inspection of the zero-one matrix.



Tell what type of relation





Operations on 0-1 Matrix

 Union and Intersection of relations can be obtained by join and meet of the Binary matrices

$$M_{R_1 \cup R_2} = M_{R_1} \lor M_{R_2}$$
$$M_{R_1 \cap R_2} = M_{R_1} \land M_{R_2}$$

Operations on 0-1 Matrix

$$M_{R_{1}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} M_{R_{2}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$M_{R_{1} \cup R_{2}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} M_{R_{1} \cap R_{2}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Composition of relations

• R: $A \rightarrow B$, S: $B \rightarrow C$

 $\mathbf{S} \circ \mathbf{R} : \mathbf{A} \to \mathbf{C}$

- Suppose, A, B and C have m, n and p elements
- M_S:[s_{ij}] (nxp), M_R:[r_{ij}](mxn), M_{S.R}:[t_{ij}](mxp)
- (a_i,c_j) belongs to S.R iff there is (a_i,b_k) belonging to R and (b_k,c_i) belonging to S for some k.
- Thus $t_{ij}=1$ iff $r_{ik}=1$ and $s_{kj}=1$, for some k.
- Thus, $M_{S \circ R} = M_R \odot M_S$

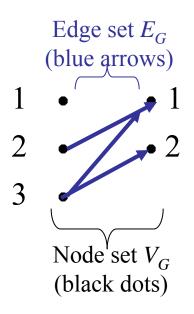
Example of composition

$$M_{R} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} M_{S} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$M_{S \circ R} = M_{R} \odot M_{S} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Using Directed Graphs

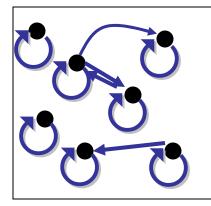
A directed graph or digraph G=(V_G, E_G) is a set V_G of vertices (nodes) with a set E_G⊆V_G×V_G of edges (arcs,links). Visually represented using dots for nodes, and arrows for edges. Notice that a relation R:A↔B can be represented as a graph G_R=(V_G=A∪B, E_G=R).

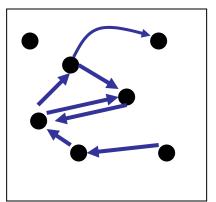
$$M_R = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



Digraph Reflexive, Symmetric

It is extremely easy to recognize the reflexive/irreflexive/ symmetric/antisymmetric properties by graph inspection.





Reflexive: Every node has a self-loop

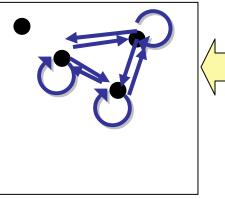
Irreflexive: No node links to itself

Symmetric: Every link is bidirectional

Antisymmetric: No link is bidirectional

A Question discussed in class

- Does symmetricity and transitivity imply reflexivity ?
- Reason of doubt:
 - aRb=>bRa (symmetricity)
 - This implies aRa (transitivity)
 - So, R is reflexive!
- Clarification:



Symmetric, Transitive But not Reflexive..

Closure of Relations

Closure?

- Let R be a relation on a set A
- R may or may not have a property P
- Define S, as the relation which has the property P AND
- S contains R AND
- S is the subset of every relation with property P and which contains R
- S is called the closure of R w.r.t P
- Closure may not exist.

Reflexive Closure

- $R=\{(1,1),(1,2),(2,1),(3,2)\}$ on the set $A=\{1,2,3\}$
- Is R reflexive?
- How can we create an S (which is as small as possible) containing R which is reflexive?
- Add (2,2) and (3,3).
- S is reflexive and contains R
- Since, any reflexive relation on A must contain (2,2) and (3,3), all such relations must be a superset of S
- S is hence the reflexive closure.

Generalization

- Define Δ={(a,a)|a ∈ A} (Diagonal Relation)
- S=R U Δ
- S is the reflexive closure of R.

Symmetric Closure

- R={(1,1),(1,2),(2,2),(2,3),(3,1),(3,2)} on the set A={1,2,3}
- Is R symmetric?
- How can we create an S (which is as small as possible) containing R which is symmetric?
- Add (2,1) and (1,3).
- S is symmetric and contains R
- Since, any symmetric relation on A must contain (2,1) and (1,3), all such relations must be a superset of S
- S is hence the symmetric closure.

Generalization

- Define $R^{-1}=\{(b,a)|(a,b)\in R\}$
- $R=\{(1,1),(1,2),(2,2),(2,3),(3,1),(3,2)\}$
- $R^{-1} = \{(1,1), (2,1), (2,2), (3,2), (1,3), (2,3)\}$
- S=R U R⁻¹

 ={(1,1),(1,2),(1,3),(2,1),(2,2),(2,3),(3,1),(3,2)}
- S contains R
- All such relations contain S
- Thus, S is the symmetric closure.

Transitive Closure?

- R={(1,3),(1,4),(2,1),(3,2)}
- R is not transitive.
- So, add (1,2),(2,3),(2,4),(3,1).
- Does it become transitive?
- No, because say (3,2) and (2,4) are members but not (3,4).
- So, transitive closure is not that easy.

Composition of R with itself : Rⁿ

- Let R be a relation on set A
- aRb => {(a,b) | (a,b)ER}
- Let R be a relation on the set A. The powers Rⁿ, n=1, 2, 3, ... are defined recursively by:

R¹=R and Rⁿ⁺¹=Rⁿ.R

Example: R={(1,1),(2,1),(3,2),(4,3)}
 R²={(1,1),(2,1),(3,1),(4,2)}

Composition in DAG

- A path from a to b in DAG G, is a sequence of edges (a,x₁),(x₁,x₂),...,(x_{n-1},b). The path has length n. A path of length n≥1 that begins and ends at the same vertex is called a circuit or cycle.
- <u>Theorem</u>: Let R be a relation on a set A. There is a path of length n, where n is a positive integer from a to b, iff (a,b) belongs to Rⁿ.

Proof

- Base: There is a path from a to b of length 1, iff (a,b) is in R.
- Induction: Assume theorem is true for n
- There is a path of length (n+1) between a and b, iff there is a path of length 1 between (a,c) and there is a path of length of n between (c,b) for some c.
- Hence, there is such a path iff (a,c)ER and (c,b) ERⁿ (inductive hypothesis)
- But there is such an element c iff (a,b) $\in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$

Theorem

• The relation R on a set A is transitive iff

$$R^n \subseteq R$$

- If part: If R² is a subset of R (special case) then R is transitive
- Else part:
 - Trivial proof for n=1
 - Assume if R is transitive R^n is a subset of R.
 - Consider (a,b)€Rⁿ⁺¹. Thus, there is an element c st (a,c) € R and (c,b) € Rⁿ. By hypothesis, (c,b) € R.
 - But R is transitive, so (a,c) \in R and (c,b) \in R means (a,b) \in R

Now lets look at the Problem of Transitive Closure

 Define, the connectivity relation consisting of the pairs (a,b) such that there is a path of length at least one from a to b in R.

$$R^+ = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} R^n$$

- Theorem: The connectivity relation is the transitive closure
- Proof:
 - R⁺ contains R
 - R⁺ is transitive

To show that R⁺ is the smallest!

- Assume a transitive S containing R
- R⁺ is a subset of S⁺ (as all paths in R are also paths in S)
- Thus, we have

 $R^+ \subseteq S^+ \subseteq S$ (as S is transitive we have $S^n \subseteq S$)

Lemma

- Let, A be a set with n elements, and let R be a relation on A. If there is a path of length at least one in R from a to b, then there is such a path with length not exceeding n.
- Thus, the transitive closure is

$$t(R) = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} R^{i}$$

• Proof follows from the fact R^k is a subset of t(R)

Example

Find the zero-one matrix of the transitive closure of

$$M_{R} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$M_{R^{+}} = M_{R} \lor M_{R}^{[2]} \lor M_{R}^{[3]}$$

$$M_{R^{+}}^{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, M_{R}^{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$M_{R^{+}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \lor \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \lor \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Algorithm-1

 Procedure transitive $closure(M_R)$ A=M_R, B=A for i=2 to n begin $A = A \odot B$ $B = B \lor A$ end B is the answer

Complexity: $n^{2}(2n-1)(n-1)+n^{2}(n-1)=O(n^{4})$

Algorithm-2 (Roy-Warshall algorithm)

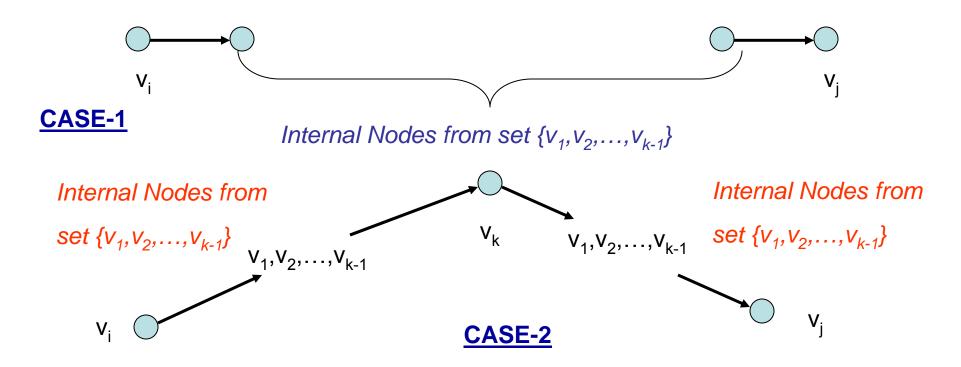
- Based on the construction of 0-1 matrices, W₀,W₁,...,W_n, where W₀=M_R (0-1 matrix of the relation).
- Uses the concept of internal vertices of a path: If there is a path (a,b), namely, (a,x₁,x₂,...x_{m-1},b)
- Internal vertices: x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{m-1}
- The start vertex is not an internal vertex unless it is visited again, except as a last vertex
- The end vertex is not an internal vertex unless it has been visited before, except as a first vertex

So, what is the trick?

- Construct, $W_k = [w_{ij}^{(k)}]$, where $w_{ij}^{(k)} = 1$, if there is a path from v_i to v_j such that all the interior vertices of this path are in the set $\{v_1, v_2, ..., v_k\}$, and 0 otherwise.
- $W_n = M_R^*$. Can you see why?
- But construction of W_n is easy than the boolean product of matrices.

Construct W_k

w_{ij}^(k)=1, if there is a path from v_i to v_j such that all the interior vertices of this path are in the set {v₁, v₂,..., v_k}, and 0 otherwise.



Computing W_k

Complexity:

 $(2n^2)n=O(n^3)$

- $w_{ii}^{[k]} = w_{ii}^{[k-1]} V (w_{ik}^{[k-1]} \wedge w_{ki}^{[k-1]}) --- 2 \text{ oper}$
- Procedure Warshall-transitive-closure(M_R) $W=M_{R}$ for k=1 to n begin for i=1 to n begin for j=1 to n $w_{ii}^{[k]} = w_{ii}^{[k-1]} V (w_{ik}^{[k-1]} \wedge w_{ki}^{[k-1]})$ end end end W is the answer M_{R}^{+}

Equivalence Relation

Definition

- Three important characteristics of the notion "equivalence":
 - Every element is equivalent to itself (reflexivity)
 - If a is equivalent to b, then b is equivalent to a (symmetry)
 - If a is equivalent to b, and b is equivalent to c, then a is equivalent to c (transitivity)
- A binary relation R on a set A is an equivalence relation if R is reflexive, symmetric and transitive.

Modular equivalences: Congruence Modulo m

- $\mathsf{R}=\{(\mathsf{a},\mathsf{b})|a \equiv b \pmod{m}$
- **Reflexive** as aRa
- Symmetric:
 - If aRb=>m|(a-b)=>(a-b)=km, where k is an integer
 - Thus, (b-a)=-km=>m|(b-a)=>bRa
- Transitive:
 - $aRb =>(a-b)=k_1m$
 - $bRc = (b-c) = k_2 m$
 - So, $(a-c)=(a-b)+(b-c)=(k_1+k_2)m=>m|(a-c)=>aRc$

Equivalence Class

- Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A. The set of all the elements that are related to an element *a* of A is called the equivalence class of *a*. It is denoted by [a]_R. When only one relation is under consideration, one can drop the subscript R.
- [a]_R={s|(a,s)ER}. Any element in the class can be chosen as the **representative** element in the class.

Example

- aRb iff a=b or a=-b
- R is an Equivalence relation (exercise)
- What is the equivalence class of an integer a?
- [a]_R={-a,a}

Example

- What are the equivalence classes of 0 and 1 for congruence modulo 4?
 - [0]={...,-8,-4,0,4,8,...}
 - [1]={...,-7,-3,1,5,9,...}
- The equivalence classes are called congruent classes modulo m.

Partitions

- Let R be an equivalence relation on a set
 A. These statements are equivalent if:
 - 1. aRb
 - 2. [a]=[b]
 - 3. [a]∩[b]≠Ø
- 1=>2=>3=>1

Theorem

- Let R be an equivalence relation on set A.
- 1. For, all a, bEA, either [a]=[b] or [a] \cap [b]=Ø
- 2. $U_{x \in A}[x] = A$

Thus, the equivalence classes form a partition of A. By partition we mean a collection of disjoint nonempty subsets of A, that have A as their union.

Why both conditions 1 and 2 are required?

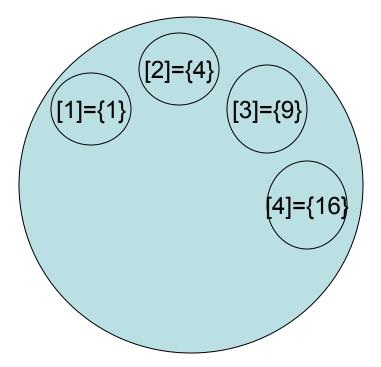
- In the class we had a discussion, saying that is 1 sufficient and does 2 always hold?
- Lets consider the following example: Define over the set A={y|y EI⁺} R={(a,b)|b=a²}. Thus (1,1),(2,4) are members of R.
- Consider the class: [x]={s|(x,s)ER}

Pictographic Representation

 So, we see that we have classes which satisfy property 1

(here for distinct a and b, the intersection of [a] and [b] is always null)

- But the union of the partitions is not the set A. It's a subset of A
- For equivalence classes it is exactly A.
- Property 1 and 2 together define equivalence classes.



Quotient Set

- Let R be an equivalence relation on A. The *quotient* set, A/R, is the partition {[a]_R|a€A}. The quotient set is also called A modulo R or the partition of A induced by R.
- Equivalence classes of R form a partition of A. Conversely, given a partition {A_i|i €I} of A, there is an equivalence relation R that has the sets, A_i as its equivalence classes.
 - Equivalence relations induce partitions and partitions induce equivalence relations