# 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<sub>i</sub> is a sequence of n objects denoted by <a<sub>1</sub>,a<sub>2</sub>,...,a<sub>n</sub>>. Two ordered n-tuples are equal iff their ith components are equal for all i, 1<=i<=n.</li>
- For n=2, ordered pair
- For n=3, ordered triple

#### **Cartesian Product**

Let {A<sub>1</sub>,A<sub>2</sub>,...,A<sub>n</sub>} be an indexed collection of sets with indices from 1 to n, where n>0. The cartesian product, or cross product of the sets A<sub>1</sub> through A<sub>n</sub>, denoted by A<sub>1</sub> × A<sub>2</sub> × ... ×A<sub>n</sub>, or ×<sup>n</sup><sub>i=1</sub>A<sub>i</sub> is the set of n-tuples <a<sub>1</sub>,a<sub>2</sub>,...,a<sub>n</sub>>|a<sub>i</sub>∈A<sub>i</sub>}. When A<sub>i</sub>=A, for all i, then ×<sup>n</sup><sub>i=1</sub>A<sub>i</sub> will be denoted by A<sup>n</sup>.

## 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?

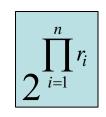
• Let  $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$  be sets. An n-ary relation R on  $\times_{i=1}^n A_i$  is a subset of  $\times_{i=1}^n A_i$ . If R= $\Phi$ , then R is called the empty or void relation. If

 $R = \times_{i=1}^{n} A_i$  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<sub>i</sub>s.
- 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<sub>R</sub>*:*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<sup>-1</sup>:B↔A, defined by
 R<sup>-1</sup> :≡ {(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<sup>-1</sup> 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:

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

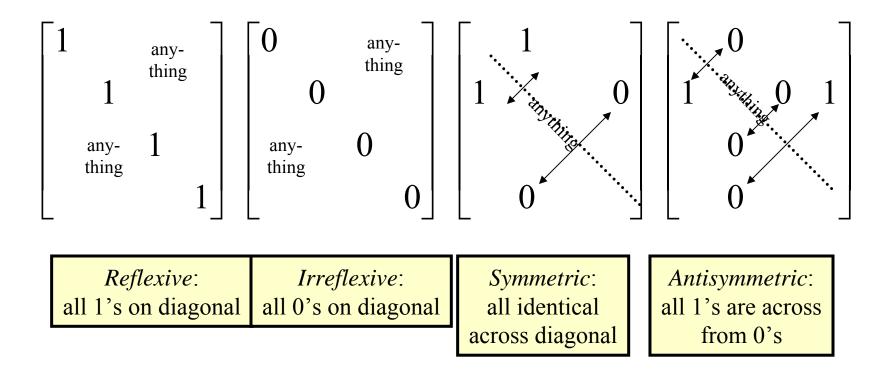
We can obtain by the element wise bit complement of the matrix.

## **Types of Relations**

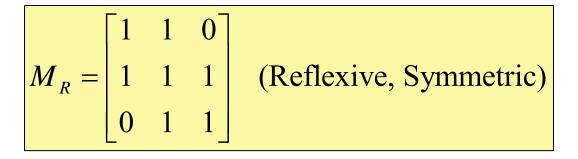
- Let R be a binary relation on A:
  - R is reflexive if xRx for every x in A
  - -R is irreflexive if xRx for every x in A
  - R is symmetric if xRy implies yRx for every x,y in A
  - R is antisymmetric if xRy and yRx together imply x=y for every x,y in A
  - R is transitive if xRy and yRz imply xRz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

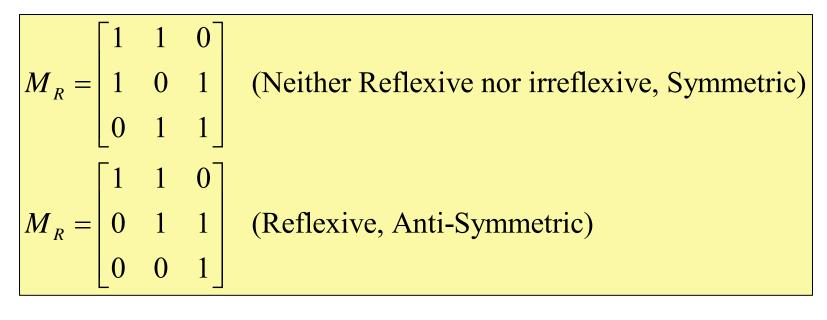
## Zero-One Reflexive, Symmetric

 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<sub>S</sub>:[s<sub>ij</sub>] (nxp), M<sub>R</sub>:[r<sub>ij</sub>](mxn), M<sub>S.R</sub>:[t<sub>ij</sub>](mxp)
- (a<sub>i</sub>,c<sub>j</sub>) belongs to S.R iff there is (a<sub>i</sub>,b<sub>k</sub>) belonging to R and (b<sub>k</sub>,c<sub>i</sub>) belonging to S for some k.
- Thus  $t_{ij}=1$  iff  $r_{ik}=1$  and  $s_{kj}=1$ , for some k.
- Thus,  $M_{S \circ R} = M_R \odot M_S$

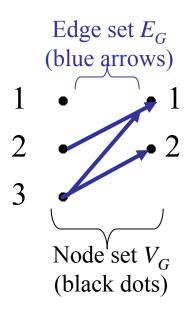
#### Example of composition

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

## **Using Directed Graphs**

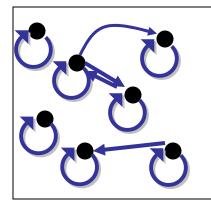
A directed graph or digraph G=(V<sub>G</sub>, E<sub>G</sub>) is a set V<sub>G</sub> of vertices (nodes) with a set E<sub>G</sub>⊆V<sub>G</sub>×V<sub>G</sub> of edges (arcs,links). Visually represented using dots for nodes, and arrows for edges. Notice that a relation R:A↔B can be represented as a graph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

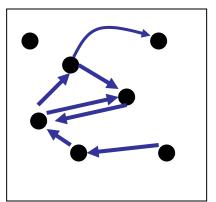
$$M_R = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



## 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

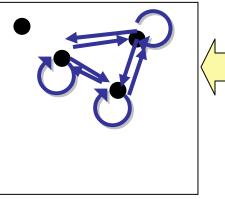
Irreflexive: No node links to itself

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<sup>-1</sup>

   ={(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 : R<sup>n</sup>

- 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 R<sup>n</sup>, n=1, 2, 3, ... are defined recursively by:

R<sup>1</sup>=R and R<sup>n+1</sup>=R<sup>n</sup>.R

Example: R={(1,1),(2,1),(3,2),(4,3)}
 R<sup>2</sup>={(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,x<sub>1</sub>),(x<sub>1</sub>,x<sub>2</sub>),...,(x<sub>n-1</sub>,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 R<sup>n</sup>.

## 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) ER<sup>n</sup> (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 R<sup>2</sup> 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)€R<sup>n+1</sup>. Thus, there is an element c st (a,c) € R and (c,b) € R<sup>n</sup>. 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<sup>+</sup> contains R
  - R<sup>+</sup> is transitive

## To show that R<sup>+</sup> is the smallest!

- Assume a transitive S containing R
- R<sup>+</sup> is a subset of S<sup>+</sup> (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<sub>R</sub>, 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)

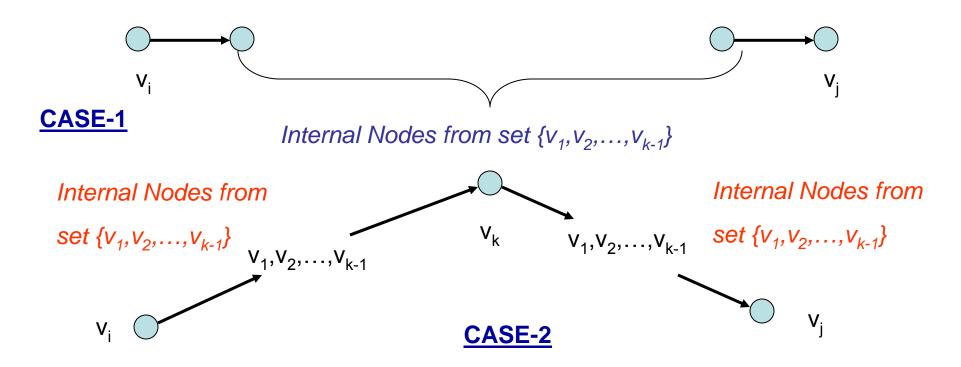
- Based on the construction of 0-1 matrices, W<sub>0</sub>,W<sub>1</sub>,...,W<sub>n</sub>, where W<sub>0</sub>=M<sub>R</sub> (0-1 matrix of the relation).
- Uses the concept of internal vertices of a path: If there is a path (a,b), namely, (a,x<sub>1</sub>,x<sub>2</sub>,...x<sub>m-1</sub>,b)
- Internal 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<sub>n</sub> is easy than the boolean product of matrices.

## Construct W<sub>k</sub>

w<sub>ij</sub><sup>(k)</sup>=1, if there is a path from v<sub>i</sub> to v<sub>j</sub> such that all the interior vertices of this path are in the set {v<sub>1</sub>, v<sub>2</sub>,..., v<sub>k</sub>}, and 0 otherwise.



## Computing W<sub>k</sub>

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]<sub>R</sub>. When only one relation is under consideration, one can drop the subscript R.
- [a]<sub>R</sub>={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]<sub>R</sub>={-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?

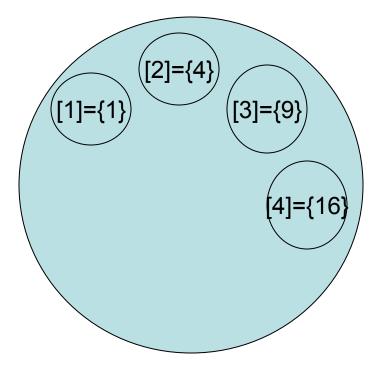
- In the class we had a discussion, saying that is 1 sufficient and does 2 always hold?
- Lets consider the following example: Define over the set A={y|y EI<sup>+</sup>} R={(a,b)|b=a<sup>2</sup>}. Thus (1,1),(2,4) are members of R.
- Consider the class: [x]={s|(x,s)ER}

## **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]<sub>R</sub>|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<sub>i</sub>|i €I} of A, there is an equivalence relation R that has the sets, A<sub>i</sub> as its equivalence classes.
  - Equivalence relations induce partitions and partitions induce equivalence relations