

Chapter 6: Digraphs and Relations

Definition 1.8 If a relation \mathcal{R} on a set S is reflexive, symmetric and transitive, then we say that \mathcal{R} is an equivalence relation on S . The relation "=" defined on any set S is an example of an equivalence relation on S .

Indeed equivalence relations can be seen as generalizations of the "equality" relation. If two elements of a set are related by an equivalence relation, then they are in some sense equivalent.

Example 1.9 Let S be the set of all 3-bit binary strings. Define a relation \mathcal{R} on S by saying that two binary strings are related if they contain the same number of ones. Thus $100\mathcal{R}010$ but 100 is not related to 101 . Then \mathcal{R} is an equivalence relation on S .

Definition 1.10 Let \mathcal{R} be an equivalence relation defined on a set S and $x \in S$. Then the equivalence class of x is the subset of S containing all elements of S which are related to x . We denote this by $[x]$. Thus $[0] = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$. Example 1.11 In Example 1.9, the equivalence class of a 3-bit binary string x is the set of all 3-bit binary strings which contain the same number of ones as x . This gives us four distinct equivalence classes: $[000] = \{000\}$, $[010] = \{010, 100, 001\}$, $[110] = \{110, 011, 101\}$, and $[111] = \{111\}$. Example 1.11 has the following nice structural properties.

- Every element of S belongs to exactly one of the four distinct equivalence classes.
- Two elements of S are related if and only if they belong to the same equivalence class.

We shall see that these properties hold for all equivalence relations. We first need one more definition.

Definition 1.12 Let S be a set and $T = \{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n\}$ be a set of nonempty subsets of S . Then T is said to be a **partition** of S if every element of S belongs to exactly one element of T .

Example 1.13 In Example 1.9, let T be the set whose elements are the four distinct equivalence classes. Thus

$$T = \{000, 010, 100, 001, 110, 011, 101, 111\}$$

Then T is a partition of S . Our promised result on equivalence relations is: Theorem 1.14 Let \mathcal{R} be an equivalence relation on a set S . Then:

- The set of distinct equivalence classes of \mathcal{R} in S is a partition of S .
- Two elements of S are related if and only if they belong to the same equivalence class.

The proof of this result is beyond the scope of this course. Theorem 1.14 tells us that if we have an equivalence relation \mathcal{R} defined on a set S , then we can think of the equivalence classes as the subsets of S containing all the elements which are

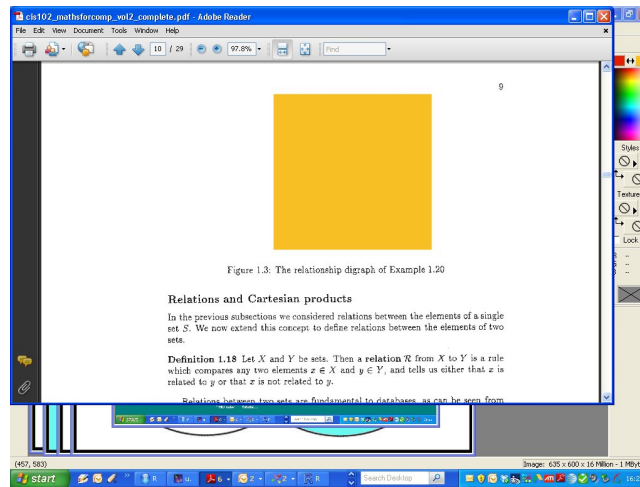


Figure 1:

equivalent” to each under this relation. The relationship digraph corresponding to the equivalence relation falls into distinct components, one component for each equivalence class. Inside each component every vertex is incident to a directed loop and every pair of vertices are joined by a directed cycle of length two.

Partial orders

In the previous subsection we looked at equivalence relations as a generalisation of the relation “ $=$ ”. In this subsection we will consider relations which generalise the relation \subseteq . Definition 1.15 We say that a relation R on a set S is **anti-symmetric** if for all $x, y \in S$ such that xRy and yRx , we have $x = y$. Thus R is anti-symmetric if and only if the relationship digraph of R has no directed cycles of length two. It follows that the relations described in Examples 1.3, 1.5 and 1.9 are not anti-symmetric. Examples of relations which are anti-symmetric are “ $<$ ” on any set of numbers, and “ \subset ” on the set of all subsets of a given set. Definition 1.16 We say that a relation R on a set S is a **partial order** if it is reflexive, anti-symmetric and transitive.

We say further that R is an order if it is a partial order with the additional property that for any two elements $x, y \in S$, either xRy or yRx . It follows that S is an example of an order on any set of numbers. An example of a partial order which is not an order is the following. **Example 1.17** Let $U = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $S = P[U]$ be the set of all subsets of U . Then \subseteq is a partial order on S . It is not an order, however, since if we let $X = \{1, 2\}$ and $Y = \{1, 3\}$ then $X \subseteq Y$ and $Y \not\subseteq X$. Thus X and Y are two elements of S such that X is not related to Y , and Y is not related to X .

Figure 1.3: The relationship digraph of Example 1.20

Relations and Cartesian products

In the previous subsections we considered relations between the elements of a single set S . We now extend this concept to define relations between the elements of two sets. **Definition 1.18** Let X and Y be sets. Then a relation R from X to Y is a rule which compares any two elements $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$, and tells us either that x is related to y or that x is not related to y . Relations between two sets are fundamental to databases, as can be seen from the following example.