

Izmir Institute of Technology

CENG 115

Discrete Structures

Slides are based on the Text
Discrete Mathematics & Its Applications (6th Edition)
by Kenneth H. Rosen

Slides were prepared by Dr. Michael P. Frank
for COT 3100 course in University of Florida

Relations

Rosen 6th ed., Chapter 8

Binary Relations

- Let A, B be any sets. A binary relation R from A to B , is a subset of $A \times B$.
 - *E.g.* $<$ can be seen as $\{(n,m) \mid n < m\}$
- $(a,b) \in R$ means that a is related to b (by R)
- Also written as $a R b$
 - *E.g.* $a < b$ mean $(a,b) \in <$

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 \mathbf{N} of natural numbers.
- Let $A=\{1,2,3,4\}$. Which ordered pairs are in relation $R=\{(a,b) \mid a \text{ divides } b\}$?
- Relations can be represented as sets of pairs.
E.g. $A=\{0,1,2\}$ $B=\{x,y\}$ $R=\{(0,x),(0,y),(2,x)\}$
Then, $0 R x$ and $0 R y$ and $2 R x$

Reflexivity

- A relation R on A is *reflexive* if $\forall a (a,a) \in R$.
 - E.g. the relation $\geq \equiv \{(a,b) \mid a \geq b\}$ is reflexive.
 - Other examples of reflexive relations:
 $=$, ‘have same cardinality’, \leq , \geq , \subseteq

Example

E.g. Consider the following relations on $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$

$$R1 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (2,1), (2,2), (3,4), (4,1), (4,4)\}$$

$$R2 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (2,1)\}$$

$$R3 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (1,4), (2,1), (2,2), (3,3), (3,4), (4,1), (4,4)\}$$

$$R4 = \{(2,1), (3,1), (3,2), (4,1), (4,2), (4,3)\}$$

$$R5 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (1,3), (1,4), (2,2), (2,3), (2,4), (3,3), (3,4), (4,4)\}$$

$$R6 = \{(3,4)\}$$

Which of these relations are reflexive? **R3, R5**

Symmetry

- A binary relation R on A is *symmetric* if $\forall a,b((a,b) \in R \leftrightarrow (b,a) \in R)$.
 - Eg. $=$ (equality) is symmetric. $<$ is not. \leq is not.
 - “is married to” is symmetric, “likes” is not.
- A binary relation R is *asymmetric* if $\forall a,b((a,b) \in R \rightarrow (b,a) \notin R)$.
 - Eg. $<$ is asymmetric, “likes” is not.
 - \leq is not asymmetric, since it is true for (a,a)

Example

- Example: Which of the following relations are symmetric?

$$R1 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (2,1), (2,2), (3,4), (4,1), (4,4)\}$$

$$R2 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (2,1)\}$$

$$R3 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (1,4), (2,1), (2,2), (3,3), (4,1), (4,4)\}$$

$$R4 = \{(2,1), (3,1), (3,2), (4,1), (4,2), (4,3)\}$$

R2 and R3

Example

- Consider the relation $x \leq y$
- Is it symmetrical? No.
- Is it asymmetrical? No.
- Is it reflexive? Yes.

Antisymmetry

- Consider the relation $x \leq y$
 - It is not symmetric. (For instance, $5 \leq 6$ but not $6 \leq 5$)
 - It is not asymmetric. (For instance, $5 \leq 5$)
 - (You *might* say it's *nearly* asymmetric, since the only symmetries occur when $x=y$)
- This is called **antisymmetry**: the only symmetrical pairs $(x,y),(y,x)$ in the relation are ones where $x=y$.
- A binary relation R on A is *antisymmetric* iff $\forall a,b((a,b) \in R \wedge (b,a) \in R) \rightarrow a=b$. E.g. \leq, \geq, \subseteq

Transitivity

- A relation R is *transitive* if (for all a,b,c)
 $((a,b) \in R \wedge (b,c) \in R) \rightarrow (a,c) \in R$.
- Which of the relations in example are transitive?

$$R1 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (2,1)\}$$

$$R2 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (1,4), (2,1), (2,2), (3,3), (3,4), (4,1), (4,4)\}$$

$$R3 = \{(2,1), (3,1), (3,2), (4,1), (4,2), (4,3)\}$$

$$R4 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (1,3), (1,4), (2,2), (2,3), (2,4), (3,3), (3,4), (4,4)\}$$

$$R5 = \{(3,4)\} \quad \text{R3, R4 and R5}$$

§ 8.3: Representing Relations

- So far, we have seen some ways to represent n -ary relations such as ordered pairs (pairs etc.)
- Two other methods to represent binary relations:
 - Zero-one matrices.
 - Directed graphs.
- An important reason to choose among these is some calculations are easier with one of these representations.

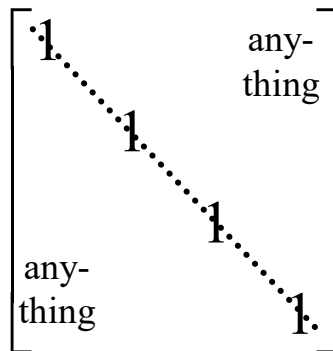
Using Zero-One Matrices

- To represent a binary relation $R:A \times B$ by an $|A| \times |B|$ 0-1 matrix $\mathbf{M}_R = [m_{ij}]$, let $m_{ij} = 1$ iff $(a_i, b_j) \in R$.
- *E.g.*, Let $A = \{\text{Joe}, \text{Fred}, \text{Mark}\}$ and $B = \{\text{Susan}, \text{Mary}, \text{Sally}\}$. Suppose Joe likes Susan and Mary, Fred likes Mary, and Mark likes Sally.
- Then the 0-1 matrix representation of the relation Likes: $A \times B$ is:

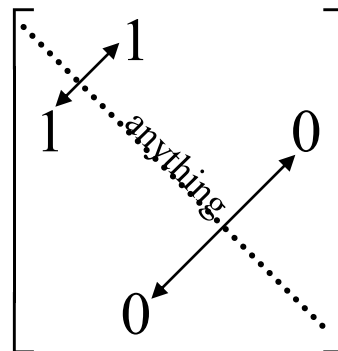
	Susan	Mary	Sally
Joe	1	1	0
Fred	0	1	0
Mark	0	0	1

Zero-One Reflexive, Symmetric

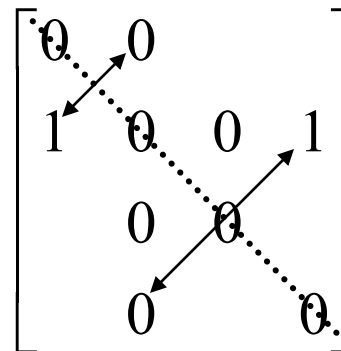
- Recall: *Reflexive*, *symmetric*, *asymmetric*, and *anti-symmetric* relations.



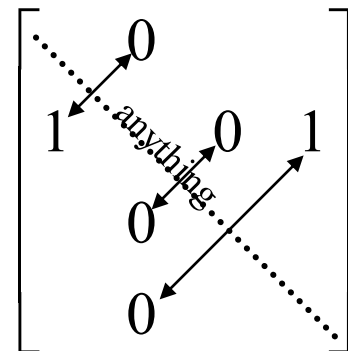
Reflexive:
only 1's on
diagonal



Symmetric:
all identical
across diagonal



Asymmetric:
0's on diagonal +
1's are 0's across
diagonal



Anti-symmetric:
all 1's are 0's
across diagonal

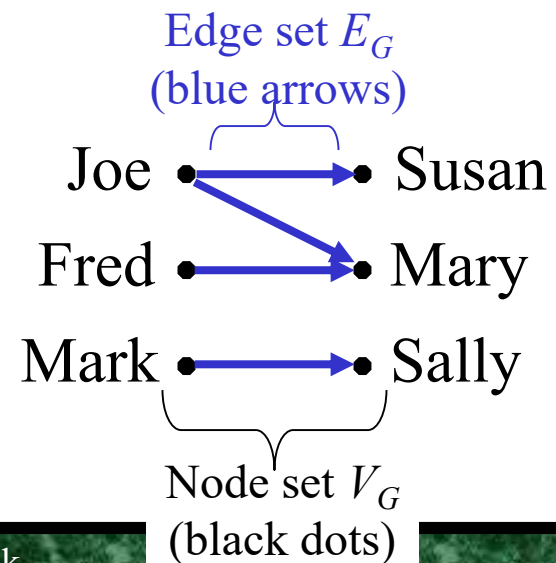
Using Directed Graphs

- A *directed graph* or *digraph* $G=(V_G, E_G)$ is a set V_G of *vertices (nodes)* with a set E_G of *edges (arcs)*.
Represented using dots for nodes, and arrows for edges.
 $R:A \times B$ can be represented as a graph $G_R=(V_G=A \cup B, E_G=R)$.

Matrix representation \mathbf{M}_R :

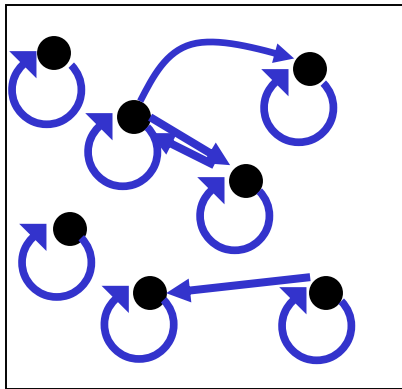
	Susan	Mary	Sally
Joe	1	1	0
Fred	0	1	0
Mark	0	0	1

Graph
rep. G_R :

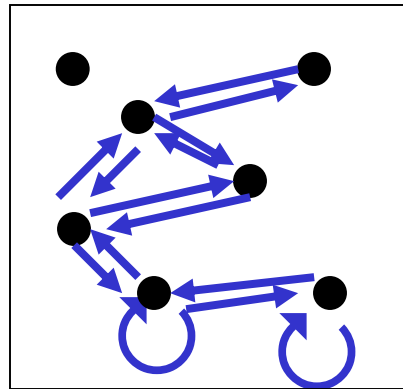


Digraph Reflexive, Symmetric

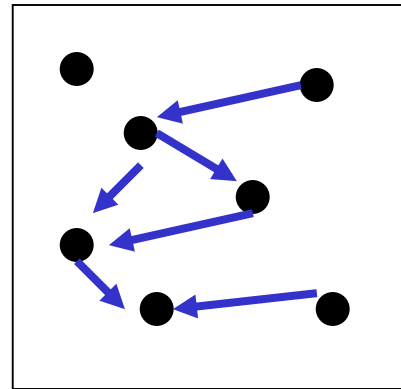
- Many properties of a relation are easily determined by inspection of its graph.



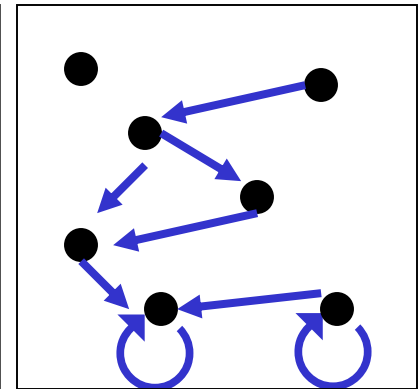
Reflexive:
Every node
has a self-loop



Symmetric:
Every link is
bidirectional



Asymmetric:
No link is
bidirectional,
no self-loop



Anti-symmetric:
No link is
bidirectional

§ 8.4: Closures of Relations

- For any property X , the “ X closure” of a set A is defined as the “smallest superset” of A that has property X . More specifically,
 - The *reflexive closure* of a relation R on A is the smallest superset of R that is reflexive.
 - The *symmetric closure* of R is the smallest superset of R that is symmetric.
 - The *transitive closure* of R is the smallest superset of R that is transitive.

Reflexive Closure

- Let R be a relation on the set A . The reflexive closure of R is $S = R \cup \{(a, a), \forall a \in A\}$.

- Example:

Let $R = \{(a,b) (a,c) (b,d) (d,e) (a,a)\}$,

then the reflexive closure of R is

$\{(a,b) (a,c) (b,d) (d,e) (a,a) (b,b) (c,c) (d,d) (e,e)\}$

Symmetric Closure

- Let R be a relation on the set A . The symmetric closure of R is $S = R \cup R^{-1}$

- Example:

Let $R = \{(a,b) (a,c) (b,d) (d,e)\},$

then the symmetric closure of R is

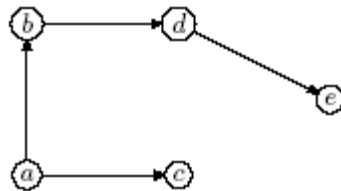
$\{(a,b) (a,c) (b,d) (d,e) (b,a) (c,a) (d,b) (e,d)\}$

Transitive Closure

- The *transitive closure* of R (notation: R^*) is obtained by “repeatedly” adding (a,c) to R for each $(a,b),(b,c)$ in R .

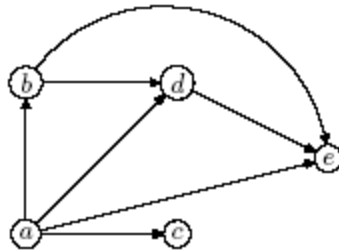
- E.g: $R = \{(a,b) (a,c) (b,d) (d,e)\}$

	a	b	c	d	e
a	0	1	1	0	0
b	0	0	0	1	0
c	0	0	0	0	0
d	0	0	0	0	1
e	0	0	0	0	0



- $R^* = \{(a,b) (a,c) (b,d) (d,e) (a,d) (b,e) (a,e)\}$

	a	b	c	d	e
a	0	1	1	1	1
b	0	0	0	1	1
c	0	0	0	0	0
d	0	0	0	0	1
e	0	0	0	0	0



Warshall's Algorithm

- Fast algorithms are available for calculating R^* , especially *Warshall's algorithm*. This algorithm uses a matrix representation.

- **Procedure** *Warshall* ($\mathbf{M}_R : n \times n$ 0-1 matrix)

$\mathbf{W} := \mathbf{M}_R$

for $k := 1$ **to** n

for $i := 1$ **to** n

for $j := 1$ **to** n

$w_{ij} := w_{ij} \vee (w_{ik} \wedge w_{kj})$

return \mathbf{W} {this represents R^* }

note: $w_{ij} = 1$ means there is a path from i to j going only through nodes $\leq k$

§ 8.6: Partial Orderings

- A relation R on A is called a *partial ordering* or *partial order* iff it is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive.
 - We often use a symbol looking something like \preceq (or analogous shapes) for such relations.
- A set A together with a partial order \preceq on A is called a *partially ordered set* or *poset* and is denoted (A, \preceq) .

Partial Orderings

- Examples:
 - The relation \geq
is a partial ordering on the set of integers
 - The divisibility relation $|$
is a partial ordering on the set of positive integers
 - The subset relation \subseteq
is a partial ordering on the power set of a set S.

Total Orderings

- The elements a and b of a poset (S, \preceq) are called comparable if $a \preceq b$ or $b \preceq a$. Otherwise, a and b are called incomparable.

- Example:

In the poset $(\mathbb{Z}^+, |)$

- 3 and 9 are comparable? Yes, because $3 \mid 9$.
- 5 and 7 are comparable? No, because $5 \nmid 7$ and $7 \nmid 5$.

Total Orderings

- If (S, \preceq) is a poset and every two elements of S are comparable
 - S is called a *totally ordered set*
 - \preceq is called a total order
- Example
 - (\mathbb{Z}, \leq) is totally ordered
 - $(\mathbb{Z}^+, |)$ is not totally ordered

Hasse Diagram

To construct a Hasse Diagram of a partial ordering:

- 1) Construct a digraph representation of the poset (A, R) so that all arcs point up (except the loops).
- 2) Eliminate all loops since we know that the poset is reflexive.
- 3) Eliminate all arcs that are redundant because of transitivity. We know that the poset is transitive.
- 4) Eliminate the arrows at the ends of arcs. Since every edge points upward, we do not show directions.

Hasse Diagrams (1)

- We are able to simplify the diagram because we know that the relation is a partial order, so the ‘missing’ information can be inferred.

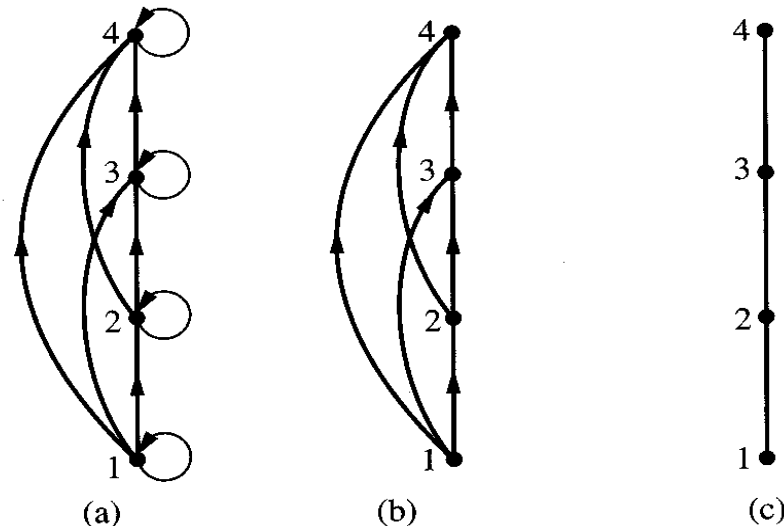


FIGURE 2 Constructing the Hasse Diagram for $(\{1, 2, 3, 4\}, \leq)$.

Hasse Diagrams (2)

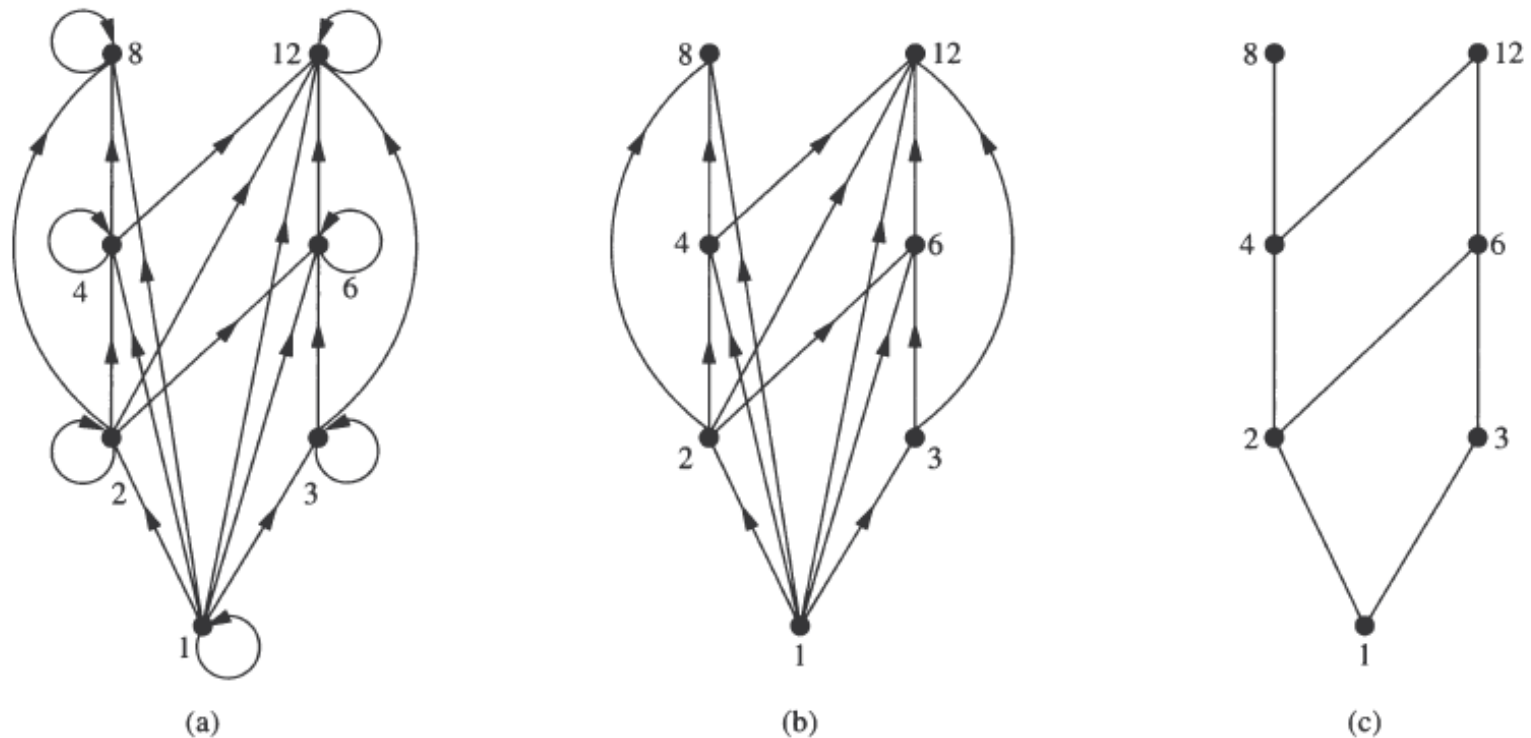


FIGURE 3 Constructing the Hasse Diagram of $(\{1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12\}, |)$.

Hasse Diagrams (3)

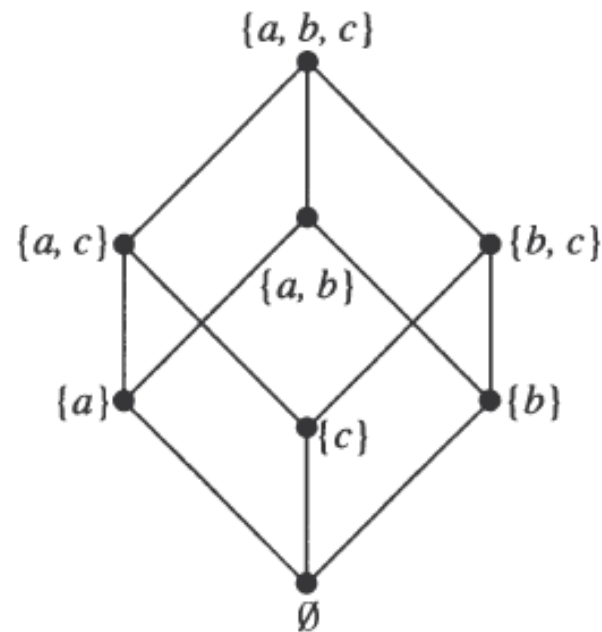


FIGURE 4 The Hasse Diagram of $(P(\{a, b, c\}), \subseteq)$.