Relations

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Lecture 3: Relations

- Data types in most programs are not independent but connected by relations.
- Example: favouriteColours relates the set of people to the set of colours
- Example: parent relates people to other people (i.e. this is a relation within a set, not between sets)
- Ubiquitous in computing, e.g.
 - In databases (relating products to orders to customers...)
 - In OOP (e.g. the parent relation implemented as father and mother attributes in the person class)

Relations in maths

- In maths, a (binary) relation between sets X and Y is
 - A set of pairs (x,y) with x : X and y : Y
 - A subset of X*Y (which is the set of all such pairs)
 - An element of POW(X*Y) (which contains all such subsets)
 - These are all equivalent
- In B notation:
 - favouriteColours : People <-> Colours
 - Here People <-> Colours is the type of relations (between the People and Colours sets)
 - Pairs usually written in maplet notation
 e.g. (Alice |-> green) or (3 |-> 4)
 - ProB also accepts the (Alice, green) notation (but Atelier B does not)

Beyond Binary Relations

- The relations we use will be binary

 i.e. they involve two (possibly equal) sets
- In maths, higher arities are possible e.g. ternary relations: subsets of X*Y*Z
- Often they are essentially combinations of binary relations
- But there are occasional exceptions, especially in maths
- Example: in geometry, the relation
 B(x,y,z) meaning that point y is between points x and z

Colours Example

```
SETS
Colours = {Black, White, Red, Green, Blue};
People = {Alice, Bob, Carl, Diane}
CONSTANTS
Favourites
PROPERTIES
Favourites : People <-> Colours &
Favourites = {Alice |-> Black, Alice |-> Green,
Bob |-> Green, Diane |-> Blue}
```

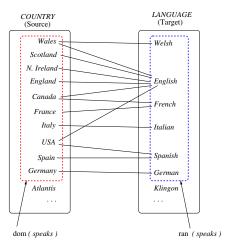
- There are four sets associated with this relation:
 - The source and target sets (People and Colours)
 i.e. the underlying types of the values in the pairs
 - The domain and range dom(Favourites) = {Alice, Bob, Ellen} ran(Favourites) = {Black, Green, Blue} i.e. the source and target values which actually occur

Languages Example

```
COUNTRY = { France, Canada, England, Wales, ...}
LANGUAGE = { French, English, Welsh, ...}
We can define speaks: COUNTRY <-> LANGUAGE by
speaks = \{ France \mid -> French, \}
                                 Canada |-> French,
            Canada |-> English,
                                 England |-> English,
            Wales |-> Welsh.
                                 Wales |-> English,...}
and its inverse spoken in: LANGUAGE <-> COUNTRY by
spoken_i n = \{ French \mid -> France, \}
                                   French |-> Canada,
              English |-> Canada.
                                   English |-> England.
              Welsh |-> Wales.
                                   English |-> Wales....}
```

Languages Example

We can represent the *speaks* relation diagrammatically as follows:



Projections of a Relation

- Given an ordered pair p: X*Y we can access its parts using the projection functions
 - prj1(X, Y)(p) returns the first part (from X)
 - prj2(X, Y)(p) returns the second part (from Y)
 - In ProB you can omit the types (i.e. just prj1(p) and prj1(p))
- Examples:
 - prj1(France |-> French) = France
 - prj2(Wales |-> English) = English

Selecting Subsets

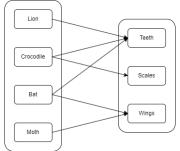
- One use of projections is to pick specific subsets:
- Given Grid = (1..8)*(1..8), then
- We can get rows and columns like this:
 - Row1 = $\{p \mid p:Grid \& prj1(p) = 1\}$
 - Column3 = {p | p:Grid & prj2(p) = 3}
- Or using restriction operators
 - Row1 = {1} <| Grid
 - Column3 = Grid |> {3}
- More Generally,
 - The domain restriction A <| R contains those pairs from R whose first part is in A
 - The range restriction R |>B contains those pairs from R whose second part is in B
 - So A <| R = {p | p:R & prj1(p):A} and
 R |> B = {p | p:R & prj2(p):B}

Selecting Subsets

- One use of projections is to pick specific subsets:
- Given Grid = (1..8)*(1..8), then
- We can get the main diagonal like this:
 - MainDiag = {p | p:Grid & prj1(p) = prj2(p)}
- Or using the identity relation
 - MainDiag = identity(1..8)
 - Generally, identity(A) contains all pairs x|->x where x:A
- We can get the off-diagonal like this:
 - MainDiag = {p | p:Grid & prj1(p) + prj2(p) = 9}
 (i.e. it contains the pairs 1|->8, 2|->7, 3|->6, ...)

Lookups in a Relation

- Related to the restriction operators is the relational image
- The domain restriction A<|R gives you all pairs x|->y where x is in A
- The image R[A] instead gives you just the y values
- For this features relation:



features[{Crodocile}] = {Teeth, Scales}
features[{Lion, Moth}] = {Teeth, Wings}

Modifying Relations

- Suppose favourites : People <-> Colours is a variable
- The usual way we want to update it is by
 - Changing the favourites of some people
 - Leaving the rest unchanged
- This is done by the override operator: In the relation R <+ S,
 - For those values occurring in dom(S), their values in R are replaced by those in S
 - All others keep the values in R

Override example

- Suppose that favourites is currently { Alice |-> black, Alice |-> green, Bob |-> red, Carl |-> blue, Ellen |-> green}
- Then favourites <+ {Bob |-> green, Dina |-> red} is {Alice |-> black, Alice |-> green,
 Bob |-> green,
 Carl |-> blue,
 Dina |-> red
 Ellen |-> green}
- Where only Bob's and Dina's favourites are affected.
- To actually change the variable, use an assignment favourites := favourites <+ {...}

Relational Algebra

- Interactions between several relations can be used to express important properties.
- This is similar to how functions can be composed
 - Which is not a coincidence:
 Functions are just a special case of relations
 We will explore this further next week
- This relational algebra is also important in e.g. data bases

Relational Algebra: Identity

- We previously introduced the identity relations
- identity(A) is the set of all pairs x|->x where x:A
- For example:
 - X <: NAT1 & X = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5}
 - identity(X) = $\{1|->1, 2|->2, 3|->3, 4|->4, 5|->5\}$
- It is called identity because applying it (using the relational image) gives the original set back:
 For any B<:A,

Relational Algebra: Composition

Given two relations

R : A<->B S : B<->C

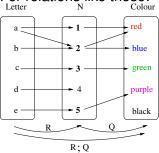
• We can compose them into

R;S: A<->C

This relation contains exactly those pairs x|->z such that:
 There is (at least) one y:B with x|->y in R and y|->z in S

Relational Algebra: Composition

• For relations like these:

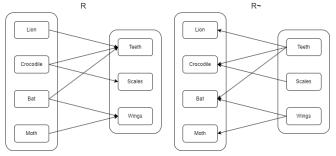


the composition contains x|->z if you can get from x to z following the arrows

 For example, it includes c|->purple because there is a path c|->5|->purple

Relational Algebra: Inverse

- The inverse relation R∼ is another important tool for relational algebra.
- It contains those pairs x|->y for which y|->x is in R.
- In a diagram, this means that the arrows are reversed:



Relational Algebra

- Relational algebra lets us express many things. Some examples:
 - Given parent : Person<->Person, we can define grandparent = parent ; parent
 - To find (half-)siblings we can use sibling = parent; parent~ since this contains a|->b exactly if there is some c with a|->c in parent and c|->b in parent~ i.e. a|->c and b|->c both in parent i.e. c is a common parent of a and b
 - The second example is like an inner join in SQL (combining rows from two tables with a common key value)

Relational Algebra

- Since relations are sets, we can also use set operations:
- Suppose we are modelling people involved in lawsuits
 - Relations
 plaintiffs: Lawsuit <-> People
 defendants: Lawsuit <-> People
 attorney: People <-> People
 - Then the same attorney must not represent a plaintiff and a defendant in the same lawsuit: (plaintiffs; attorney) \(\lambda\)(defendants; attorney) = {}