Representing Relations

Section 9.3

Section Summary

- Representing Relations using Matrices
- Representing Relations using Digraphs

Representing Relations Using Matrices

- A relation between finite sets can be represented using a zero-one matrix.
- Suppose R is a relation from $A = \{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_m\}$ to $B = \{b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n\}$.
  - The elements of the two sets can be listed in any particular arbitrary order. When $A = B$, we use the same ordering.
- The relation R is represented by the matrix $M_R = [m_{ij}]$, where

$$m_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } (a_i, b_j) \in R, \\ 0 \text{ if } (a_i, b_j) \notin R. \end{cases}$$

- The matrix representing R has a 1 as its (i,j) entry when a_i is related to b_j and a 0 if a_i is not related to b_j.

Examples of Representing Relations Using Matrices

Example 1: Suppose that $A = \{1,2,3\}$ and $B = \{1,2\}$. Let R be the relation from A to B containing (a,b) if $a \in A$, $b \in B$, and $a > b$. What is the matrix representing R (assuming the ordering of elements is the same as the increasing numerical order)?

Solution: Because $R = \{(2,1), (3,1),(3,2)\}$, the matrix is

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

Examples of Representing Relations Using Matrices (*cont.*)

Example 2: Let $A = \{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$ and $B = \{b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4, b_5\}$. Which ordered pairs are in the relation R represented by the matrix

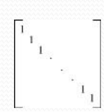
$$M_R = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}?$$

Solution: Because R consists of those ordered pairs (a_i, b_j) with $m_{ij} = 1$, it follows that:

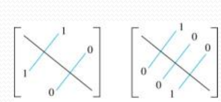
$R = \{(a_1, b_2), (a_2, b_1), (a_2, b_3), (a_2, b_4), (a_3, b_1), \{(a_3, b_3), (a_3, b_5)\}.$

Matrices of Relations on Sets

- If R is a reflexive relation, all the elements on the main diagonal of M_R are equal to 1.



- R is a symmetric relation, if and only if $m_{ij} = 1$ whenever $m_{ji} = 1$. R is an antisymmetric relation, if and only if $m_{ij} = 0$ or $m_{ji} = 0$ when $i \neq j$.



(a) Symmetric (b) Antisymmetric

Example of a Relation on a Set

Example 3: Suppose that the relation R on a set is represented by the matrix

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

Is R reflexive, symmetric, and/or antisymmetric?

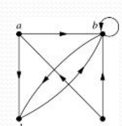
Solution: Because all the diagonal elements are equal to 1, R is reflexive. Because M_R is symmetric, R is symmetric and not antisymmetric because both $m_{1,2}$ and $m_{2,1}$ are 1.

Representing Relations Using Digraphs

Definition: A *directed graph*, or *digraph*, consists of a set V of *vertices* (or *nodes*) together with a set E of ordered pairs of elements of V called *edges* (or *arcs*). The vertex a is called the *initial vertex* of the edge (a,b), and the vertex b is called the *terminal vertex* of this edge.

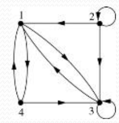
- An edge of the form (a,a) is called a *loop*.

Example 7: A drawing of the directed graph with vertices a, b, c, and d, and edges (a, b), (a, d), (b, b), (b, d), (c, a), (c, b), and (d, b) is shown here.



Examples of Digraphs Representing Relations

Example 8: What are the ordered pairs in the relation represented by this directed graph?

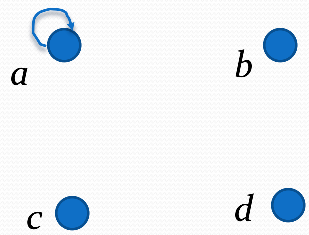


Solution: The ordered pairs in the relation are
(1, 3), (1, 4), (2, 1), (2, 2), (2, 3), (3, 1), (3, 3),
(4, 1), and (4, 3)

Determining which Properties a Relation has from its Digraph

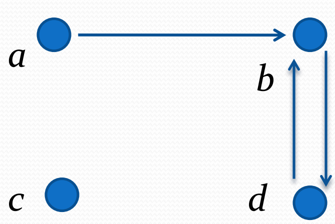
- *Reflexivity*: A loop must be present at all vertices in the graph.
- *Symmetry*: If (x,y) is an edge, then so is (y,x).
- *Antisymmetry*: If (x,y) with $x \neq y$ is an edge, then (y,x) is not an edge.
- *Transitivity*: If (x,y) and (y,z) are edges, then so is (x,z).

Determining which Properties a Relation has from its Digraph – Example 1



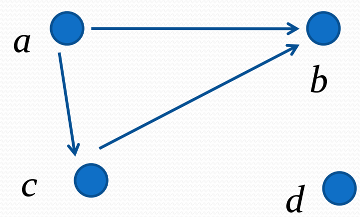
- *Reflexive?* No, not every vertex has a loop
- *Symmetric?* Yes (trivially), there is no edge from one vertex to another
- *Antisymmetric?* Yes (trivially), there is no edge from one vertex to another
- *Transitive?* Yes, (trivially) since there is no edge from one vertex to another

Determining which Properties a Relation has from its Digraph – Example 2



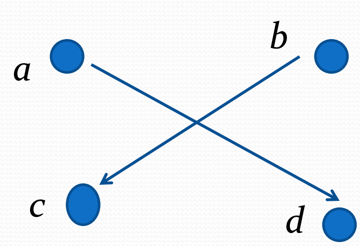
- *Reflexive?* No, there are no loops
- *Symmetric?* No, there is an edge from a to b, but not from b to a
- *Antisymmetric?* No, there is an edge from d to b and b to d
- *Transitive?* No, there are edges from a to c and from c to b, but there is no edge from a to d

Determining which Properties a Relation has from its Digraph – Example 3



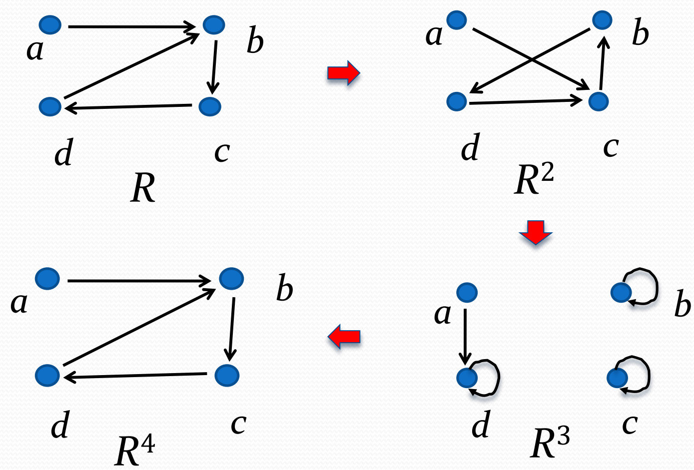
Reflexive? No, there are no loops
Symmetric? No, for example, there is no edge from c to a
Antisymmetric? Yes, whenever there is an edge from one vertex to another, there is not one going back
Transitive? Yes, there is an edge from a to c and there is an edge from c to b, there is also an edge from a to b

Determining which Properties a Relation has from its Digraph – Example 4



- *Reflexive?* No, there are no loops
- *Symmetric?* No, for example, there is no edge from d to a
- *Antisymmetric?* Yes, whenever there is an edge from one vertex to another, there is not one going back
- *Transitive?* Yes (trivially), there are no two edges where the first edge ends at the vertex where the second edge begins

Example of the Powers of a Relation



The pair (x,y) is in R^n if there is a path of length n from x to y in R (following the direction of the arrows).

Equivalence Relations

Section 9.5

Section Summary

- Equivalence Relations
- Equivalence Classes
- Equivalence Classes and Partitions

Equivalence Relations

Definition 1: A relation on a set A is called an *equivalence relation* if it is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.

Definition 2: Two elements a, and b that are related by an equivalence relation are called *equivalent*. The notation $a \sim b$ is often used to denote that a and b are equivalent elements with respect to a particular equivalence relation.

Strings

Example: Suppose that R is the relation on the set of strings of English letters such that aRb if and only if $l(a) = l(b)$, where $l(x)$ is the length of the string x. Is R an equivalence relation?

Solution: Show that all of the properties of an equivalence relation hold.

- *Reflexivity*: Because $l(a) = l(a)$, it follows that aRa for all strings a.
- *Symmetry*: Suppose that aRb. Since $l(a) = l(b)$, $l(b) = l(a)$ also holds and bRa.
- *Transitivity*: Suppose that aRb and bRc. Since $l(a) = l(b)$,and $l(b) = l(c)$, $l(a) = l(a)$ also holds and aRc.

Congruence Modulo *m*

Example: Let m be an integer with $m > 1$. Show that the relation

$R = \{(a,b) \mid a \equiv b \pmod{m}\}$

is an equivalence relation on the set of integers.

Solution: Recall that $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ if and only if m divides $a - b$.

- *Reflexivity*: $a \equiv a \pmod{m}$ since $a - a = 0$ is divisible by m since $0 = 0 \cdot m$.
- *Symmetry*: Suppose that $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$. Then $a - b$ is divisible by m, and so $a - b = km$, where k is an integer. It follows that $b - a = (-k)\, m$, so $b \equiv a \pmod{m}$.
- *Transitivity*: Suppose that $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $b \equiv c \pmod{m}$. Then m divides both $a - b$ and $b - c$. Hence, there are integers k and l with $a - b = km$ and $b - c = lm$. We obtain by adding the equations:

  $$a - c = (a - b) + (b - c) = km + lm = (k + l)\, m.$$

  Therefore, $a \equiv c \pmod{m}$.

Divides

Example: Show that the "divides" relation on the set of positive integers is not an equivalence relation.

Solution: The properties of reflexivity, and transitivity do hold, but there relation is not transitive. Hence, "divides" is not an equivalence relation.

- *Reflexivity*: $a \mid a$ for all a.
- *Not Symmetric*: For example, $2 \mid 4$, but $4 \nmid 2$. Hence, the relation is not symmetric.
- *Transitivity*: Suppose that a divides b and b divides c. Then there are positive integers k and l such that $b = ak$ and $c = bl$. Hence, $c = a(kl)$, so a divides c. Therefore, the relation is transitive.

Equivalence Classes

Definition 3: Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A. The set of all elements that are related to an element a of A is called the *equivalence class* of a. The equivalence class of a with respect to R is denoted by $[a]_R$.

When only one relation is under consideration, we can write $[a]$, without the subscript R, for this equivalence class.

Note that $[a]_R = \{s \mid (a,s) \in R\}$.

- If $b \in [a]_R$, then b is called a representative of this equivalence class. Any element of a class can be used as a representative of the class.
- The equivalence classes of the relation congruence modulo m are called the *congruence classes modulo m*. The congruence class of an integer a modulo m is denoted by $[a]_m$, so $[a]_m = \{\ldots, a-2m, a-m, a+2m, a+2m, \ldots\}$. For example,

$[0]_4 = \{\ldots, -8, -4, 0, 4, 8, \ldots\}$ $\quad$ $[1]_4 = \{\ldots, -7, -3, 1, 5, 9, \ldots\}$

$[2]_4 = \{\ldots, -6, -2, 2, 6, 10, \ldots\}$ $\quad$ $[3]_4 = \{\ldots, -5, -1, 3, 7, 11, \ldots\}$

Equivalence Classes and Partitions

Theorem 1: let R be an equivalence relation on a set A. These statements for elements a and b of A are equivalent:

(*i*) aRb

(*ii*) $[a] = [b]$

(*iii*) $[a] \cap [b] = \emptyset$

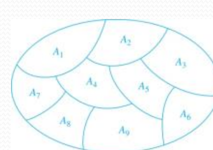
Proof: We show that (*i*) implies (*ii*). Assume that aRb. Now suppose that $c \in [a]$. Then aRc. Because aRb and R is symmetric, bRa. Because R is transitive and bRa and aRc, it follows that bRc. Hence, $c \in [b]$. Therefore, $[a] \subseteq [b]$. A similar argument (omitted here) shows that $[b] \subseteq [a]$. Since $[a] \subseteq [b]$ and $[b] \subseteq [a]$, we have shown that $[a] = [b]$.

(*see text for proof that* (*ii*) *implies* (*iii*) *and* (*iii*) *implies* (*i*))

Partition of a Set

Definition: A *partition* of a set S is a collection of disjoint nonempty subsets of S that have S as their union. In other words, the collection of subsets A_i, where $i \in I$ (where I is an index set), forms a partition of S if and only if

- $A_i \neq \emptyset$ for $i \in I$,
- $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ when $i \neq j$,
- and $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i = S.$



A Partition of a Set

An Equivalence Relation Partitions a Set

- Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A. The union of all the equivalence classes of R is all of A, since an element a of A is in its own equivalence class $[a]_R$. In other words,

$$\bigcup_{a \in A} [a]_R = A.$$

.

- From Theorem 1, it follows that these equivalence classes are either equal or disjoint, so $[a]_R \cap [b]_R = \emptyset$ when $[a]_R \neq [b]_R$.
- Therefore, the equivalence classes form a partition of A, because they split A into disjoint subsets.

An Equivalence Relation Partitions a Set (*continued*)

Theorem 2: Let R be an equivalence relation on a set S. Then the equivalence classes of R form a partition of S. Conversely, given a partition $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$ of the set S, there is an equivalence relation R that has the sets A_i, $i \in I$, as its equivalence classes.

Proof: We have already shown the first part of the theorem.

For the second part, assume that $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$ is a partition of S. Let R be the relation on S consisting of the pairs (x, y) where x and y belong to the same subset A_i in the partition. We must show that R satisfies the properties of an equivalence relation.

- *Reflexivity*: For every $a \in S$, $(a,a) \in R$, because a is in the same subset as itself.
- *Symmetry*: If $(a,b) \in R$, then b and a are in the same subset of the partition, so $(b,a) \in R$.
- *Transitivity*: If $(a,b) \in R$ and $(b,c) \in R$, then a and b are in the same subset of the partition, as are b and c. Since the subsets are disjoint and b belongs to both, the two subsets of the partition must be identical. Therefore, $(a,c) \in R$ since a and c belong to the same subset of the partition.