## Relations

- Cartesian product:

$$
\begin{aligned}
S \times & T=\{(s, t): s \in S, t \in T\} \\
& \{1,2,3\} \times\{3,4\}= \\
& \{(1,3),(2,3),(3,3),(1,4),(2,4),(3,4)\} \\
& |S \times T|=|S| \times|T| .
\end{aligned}
$$

- A relation on $S$ and $T$ (or, on $S \times T$ ) is a subset of $S \times T$
- A relation on $S$ is a subset of $S \times S$
- Taller than is a relation on people: (Joe,Sam) is in the Taller than relation if Joe is Taller than Sam
- Greater than is a relation on $\boldsymbol{R}$ (the real numbers):

$$
L=\{(x, y): x, y \in R, x>y\}
$$

- Divisibility is a relation on $N$ (the natural numbers):

$$
D=\{(x, y): x, y \in \boldsymbol{N}, x \mid y\}
$$

Notation: the book writes $a R b$ to denote that the pair $(a, b) \in R$. The latter notation is more standard, and that's what I will use.

- You can use either one.


## Functions; Composing and Inverting Relations

A function $f: A \rightarrow B$ is just a relation where for all $a \in A$, there is a unique $b \in B$ such that $(a, b) \in R$.
If $R$ is a relation on $A \times B$, then $R^{-1}$ is a relation on $B \times A$ :

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(a, b) \in R \text { iff }(b, a) \in R^{-1}
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(a, b) \in R \text { iff }(b, a) \in R^{-1}
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- This generalizes the definition of inverse function If $R$ is a relation on $B \times C$ and $S$ is a relation on $A \times B$, then $R \circ S$ is a relation on $A \times C$ :

$$
(a, c) \in R \circ S \text { iff } \exists b((a, b) \in S \text { and }(b, c) \in R)
$$

- Note the order of $R$ and $S$ on the right-hand side
- This is what we need to generalize the definition of function composition:
- If $f: A \rightarrow B, g: B \rightarrow C$, then $g \circ f: A \rightarrow C$ (note that it's $g \circ f, \operatorname{not} f \circ c$ )
- $g \circ f(a)=g(f(a))=c$ if there exists a $b$ such that $f(a)=b$ and $g(b)=c$ (i.e., $(a, b) \in f$ and $(b, c) \in g)$.

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Let $S=\{(n, n+2): n \in \boldsymbol{N}\}$. We need to show that $R \circ R \subseteq S$ and $S \subseteq R \circ R$ :

- Suppose that $x \in S$. Then $x=(n, n+2)$ for some $n$.
- Note that $(n, n+1) \in R$ and $(n+1, n+2) \in R$.
- Thus, by definition $(n, n+2) \in R \circ R$; that is, $x \in R \circ R$.

This shows that $S \subseteq R \circ R$.

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This shows that $S \subseteq R \circ R$.
The other direction works essentially the same way:

- Suppose that $(a, c) \in R \circ R$.
- Then (by definition), there is a $b$ such that $(a, b) \in R$ and $(b, c) \in R$.
- Thus, $b=a+1$ and $c=b+1=a+2$.
- Thus $(a, c)=(a, a+2) \in S$.

This shows that $R \circ R \subseteq S$.

## Graphs

A graph consists of nodes and edges between nodes.
A directed graph (digraph) is one where the edges have a direction, usually denoted with an arrow.


Graphs come up everywhere.

- We can view the internet as a graph (in many ways)
- who is connected to whom
- Web search views web pages as a graph
- who points to whom
- Niche graphs (Ecology):
- The vertices are species
- Two vertices are connected by an edge if they compete (use the same food resources, etc.)
Niche graphs give a visual representation of competitiveness.
- Influence Graphs
- The vertices are people
- There is an edge from $a$ to $b$ if $a$ influences $b$ Influence graphs give a visual representation of power structure.

There are lots of other examples in all fields...

## Terminology and Notation

An undirected graph $G$ is a pair $(V, E)$, where $V$ is a set of vertices or nodes and $E$ is a set of edges or branches; an edge is a set $\left\{v, v^{\prime}\right\}$ of two not necessarily distinct vertices (i.e., $v, v^{\prime} \in V$ ).

- We sometimes write $G(V, E)$ instead of $G$
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A digraph is a pair $(V, E)$ where $E$ is a set of directed edges
- A directed edge is a pair $\left(v, v^{\prime}\right)$, where $v, v^{\prime} \in G$
- The order matters!


## Walks, Paths, and Cycles

- A walk in a graph $G$ is an alternating sequence of vertices and edges, starting and ending with a vertex, where, for every edge ( $u, v$ ) on the walk, $u$ is the preceding vertex and $v$ is the following vertex.


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- E.g., 1 (1,3), 3, (3,8), 8
- Yuck! (The vertices are redundant)
- It's more standard to leave them out; the text includes them
- The length of a walk is the number of vertices -1
- A path is a walk where all the vertices are different
- A cycle is a walk of positive length where all vertices are distinct except for the first and last one


## Graphs and Relations

Given a relation $R$ on $S \times T$, we can represent it by the directed graph $G(V, E)$, where

- $V=S \cup T$ and
- $E=\{(s, t):(s, t) \in R\}$

Example: We can represent the $<$ relation on $\{0,1,2,3,4\}$ graphically.


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- $\leq$ and $\geq$ are antisymmetric


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- < and $>$ are asymmetric
- $\leq$ and $\geq$ are not
- A relation $R$ on $S$ is antisymmetric if $(x, y) \in R$ and $x \neq y$ implies $(y, x) \notin R$.
- $\leq$ and $\geq$ are antisymmetric
- A relation $R$ on $S$ is transitive if $(x, y) \in R$ and $(y, z) \in R$ implies $(x, z) \in R$.
- $\leq,<, \geq,>$ are all transitive;
- "parent-of" is not transitive; "ancestor-of" is

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## Equivalence Relations

- A relation $R$ is an equivalence relation if it is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive
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- Parity is an equivalence relation on $\boldsymbol{N}$; $(x, y) \in$ Parity if $x-y$ is even


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An equivalence relation on $S$ partitions $S$ into equivalence classes:

- The equivalence class of $s$ is denoted $[s]$.
- $[s]=\{t:(s, t) \in R\}$

Theorem: Equivalences classes are either equal or disjoint: for all $s, s^{\prime} \in S$, either $[s]=\left[s^{\prime}\right]$ or $[s] \cap\left[s^{\prime}\right]=\emptyset$.

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- What are the equivalence classes of the parity relation?


## Transitive Closure

The transitive closure of a relation $R$ is the least relation $R^{*}$ such that

1. $R \subseteq R^{*}$
2. $R^{*}$ is transitive (so that if $(u, v),(v, w) \in R^{*}$, then so is $(u, w)$ ).

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How do we know that there is a least relation $R^{*}$ with these properties:

- "least" means that $R^{*}$ must be a subset of any other relation with these properties;
- that is, if there is a relation $R^{\prime}$ such that that $R \subseteq R^{\prime}$ and $R^{\prime}$ is transitive, then $R^{*} \subseteq R^{\prime}$.


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Take $R^{*}$ to be the intersection of all the transitive relations that contain $R$.
- We must check that the intersection contains $R$ and is transitive.
Clearly $R^{*}$ is a subset of any transtive relation $R^{\prime}$ that contains $R$.

Example: Suppose $R=\{(1,2),(2,3),(1,4)\}$.

- $R^{*}=\{(1,2),(1,3),(2,3),(1,4)\}$
- we need to add $(1,3)$, because $(1,2),(2,3) \in R$

Note that we don't need to add $(2,4)$.

- If $(2,1),(1,4)$ were in $R$, then we'd need $(2,4)$
- $(1,2),(1,4)$ doesn't force us to add anything (it doesn't fit the "pattern" of transitivity.
Note that if $R$ is already transitive, then $R^{*}=R$.


## An Inductive Definition of Transitive Closure

Given a relation $R$ on $S$, here is a constructive inductive definition of transitive closure. Define $R_{0}, R_{1}, \ldots$ inductively:

- Let $R_{0}=R$.
- Let $R_{n+1}=R_{n} \cup\left\{(s, t): \exists u \in S\left((s, u) \in R_{n},(u, t) \in R_{n}\right)\right\}$.
- Let $R^{\prime}=\cup_{n=0}^{\infty} R_{n}$.


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What do you have to prove to show that this is true?

- $R \subseteq R^{\prime}$
- $R^{\prime}$ is transitive
- If $R^{\prime \prime}$ is transitive and $R \subseteq R^{\prime \prime}$, then $R^{\prime} \subseteq R^{\prime \prime}$ (i.e., $R^{\prime}$ is the smallest transitive set that contains $R$ ).

This will be homework.

## Partial Orders

A relation is strict partial order if it is irreflexive and transitive.

- < and $>$ are strict partial orders

A relation is weak partial order if it is reflexive, transitive, and antisymmetric

- $\leq$ and $\geq$ are weak partial orders

