

Relations

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Ordered pair

- ▶ Earlier when we examined sets we only considered their contents (i.e. of which elements they consisted of), but disregarded the order of elements
- ▶ Let's now define a term *ordered pair*, where the elements form a two-element queue
- ▶ Notation: (x,y)
- ▶ Two ordered pairs are equal if their 1st elements are the same and 2nd elements are the same
 - ▶ Mathematically speaking:

$$(x, y) = (u, v) \Leftrightarrow x = u \wedge y = v$$

Cartesian product

- ▶ The *Cartesian product* of sets A and B is defined as

$$A \times B = \{(x, y) \mid x \in A \wedge y \in B\}$$

- ▶ So, it is a set which consists of all ordered pairs (x,y) where x is a member of A and y is a member of B
- ▶ The number of elements (= ordered pairs) in this Cartesian product set we have already examined during the previous lecture
- ▶ For example, if $A = \{1,2,3\}$ and $B = \{4,5\}$, then

$$A \times B = \{(1,4), (1,5), (2,4), (2,5), (3,4), (3,5)\}$$

$$B \times A = \{(4,1), (4,2), (4,3), (5,1), (5,2), (5,3)\}$$

- ▶ Note: Cartesian product is not commutative, because $(A \times B) \neq (B \times A)$

Cartesian product

- ▶ The definition of a Cartesian product can be generalized to a case of multiple sets
- ▶ Hence, if there are n sets, the Cartesian product of these sets is a set which consists of n -element ordered queues - *n-tuples*

$$A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid x_1 \in A_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge x_n \in A_n\}$$

- ▶ The number of elements (= n -tuples) in this set can be calculated using the multiplication principle
- ▶ For example, set \mathbb{R}^2 is the set of ordered pairs of real numbers - graphically represented as a plane
- ▶ Likewise, set \mathbb{R}^3 is the set of ordered triplets (3-tuples) of real numbers - graphically represented as 3-dimensional space

Cartesian product rules

- ▶ So, Cartesian product is not commutative
- ▶ Associativity law is not applicable either, because now when the order matters, the elements of our set may contain ordered pairs inside ordered pairs

$$A \times (B \times C) = \{ (x, (y, z)) \mid x \in A \wedge y \in B \wedge z \in C \}$$

$$(A \times B) \times C = \{ ((x, y), z) \mid x \in A \wedge y \in B \wedge z \in C \}$$

$$A \times B \times C = \{ (x, y, z) \mid x \in A \wedge y \in B \wedge z \in C \}$$

- ▶ Distributivity law on the other hand works for union, intersection and difference:

$$(1) (A_1 \cup A_2) \times B = (A_1 \times B) \cup (A_2 \times B),$$

$$(2) (A_1 \cap A_2) \times B = (A_1 \times B) \cap (A_2 \times B),$$

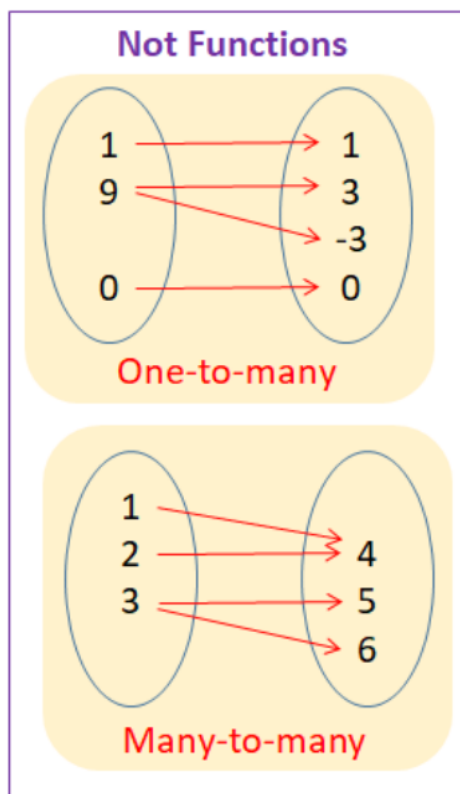
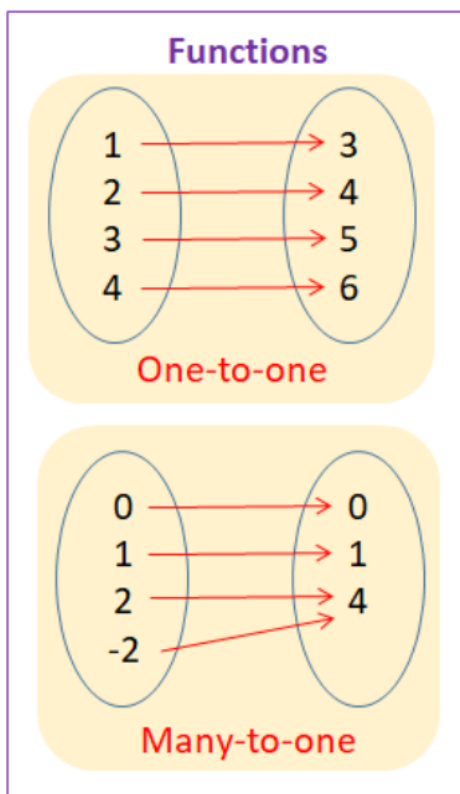
$$(3) (A_1 \setminus A_2) \times B = (A_1 \times B) \setminus (A_2 \times B).$$

Definition of a relation

- ▶ If a relation R is included in the Cartesian product $X \times Y$, we can say that R is a relation between X and Y
- ▶ Elements of the ordered pair ($x \in X$ and $y \in Y$) are in relation R to each other
- ▶ So, a two-place relation links together an element x from the domain and an element y from the range according to some rule
 - ▶ Notation: $R(x,y)$ or $x R y$
- ▶ Relation can also be multi-place relation - for example $R(x,y,z)$; in this case this domain-range-thinking is not applicable
- ▶ Two-place relations are most common, though

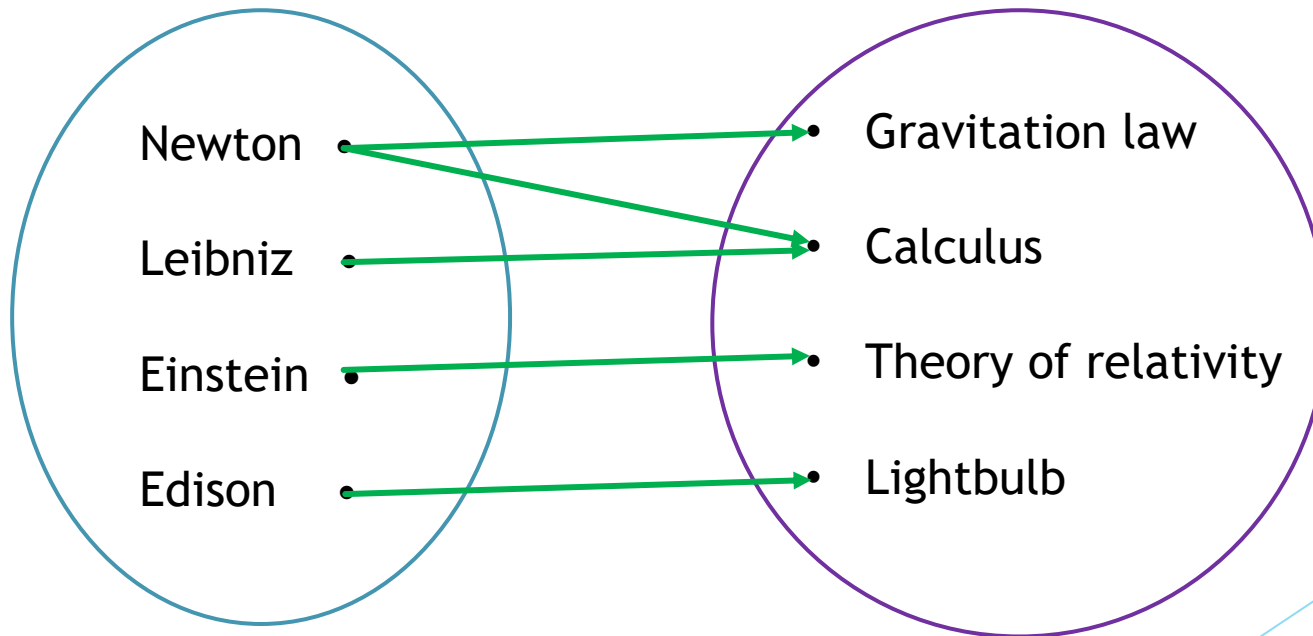
Relation vs. function

- ▶ A function $y = f(x)$ is a special case of relation, where the function assigns each value x to exactly one value y
 - ▶ All cases below are relations, but only the ones on the left can be presented as functions



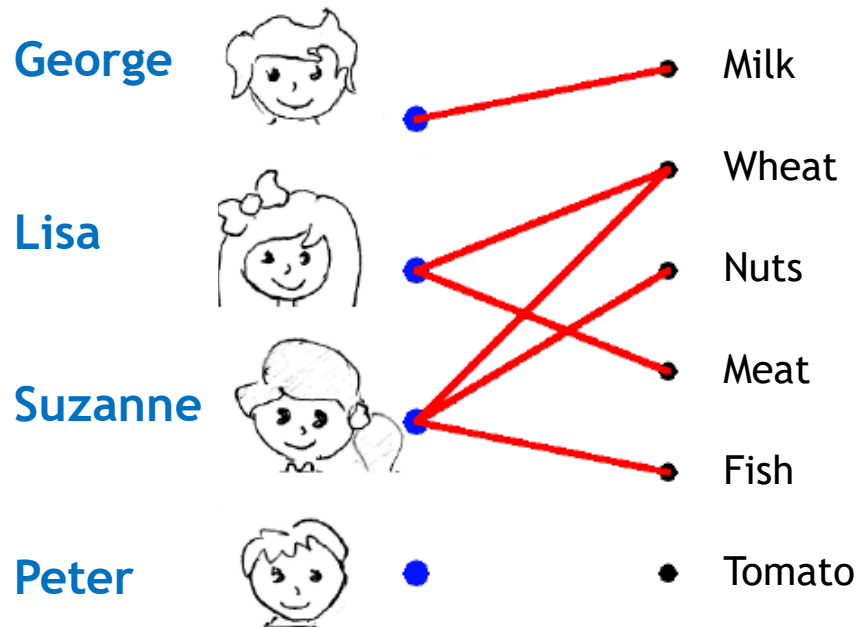
Relation as a domain-range graph

- ▶ A two-place relation can be illustrated using a graph where we mark the domain elements and connect them to corresponding range elements by a relation arrow
- ▶ For example, relation $x R y \Leftrightarrow x \text{ has invented } y$



Relation as a domain-range graph

- ▶ This kind of relations can be seen often in applications whose background is not very mathematical

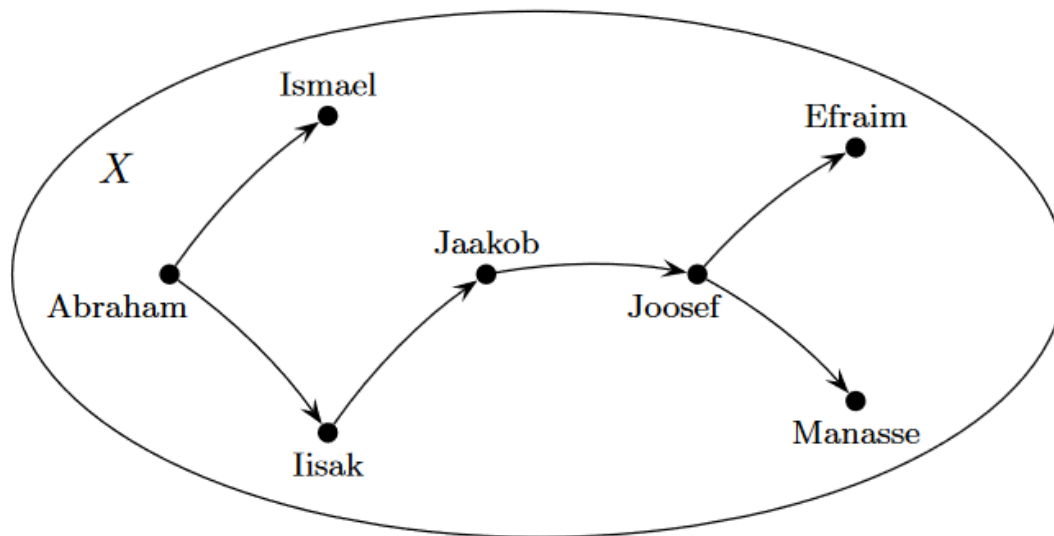


Set X: children of a certain daycare group

Set Y: list of allergizing/avoided ingredients

Directed graph (digraph)

- ▶ If the domain and range have common elements, the smartest way of graphical representation is a *directed graph* - in short, a *digraph*
 - ▶ Gives a better picture of the relation
- ▶ Example relation from the bible: $x R y = x \text{ is } y's \text{ father}$



(Note: Names in Finnish spelling.)

Directed graph (digraph)

- ▶ Another example: if in set $X = \{1,2,3,4\}$ we define a relation $(x, y) \in R$ if $x \leq y$ when $x, y \in X$

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- ▶ In this case, the ordered pairs of the relation are

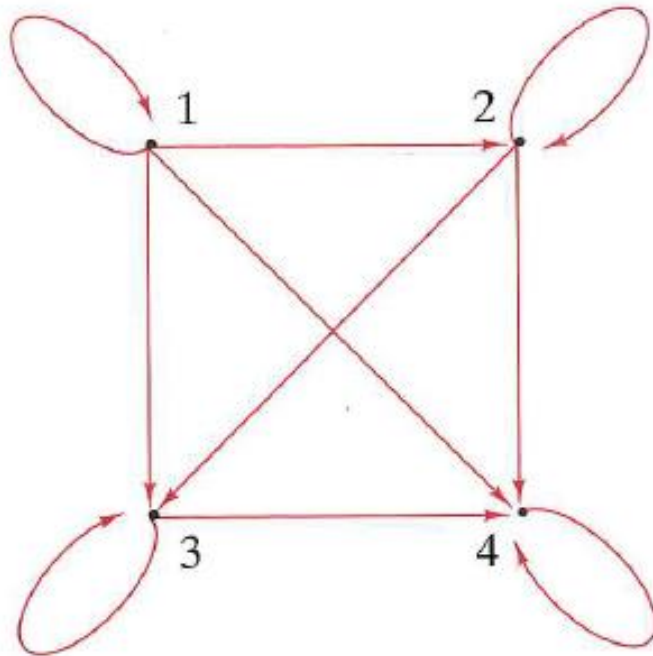
$$R = \{(1,1), (1,2), (1,3), (1,4), (2,2), (2,3), (2,4), (3,3), (3,4), (4,4)\}$$

Directed graph (digraph)

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- ▶ Digraph:



Converse relation

- ▶ If we have a relation R from set X to set Y , it is natural that we can define the relation also contrariwise - so, from set Y to set X
- ▶ This kind of a relation in “opposite direction” is (logically) called a *converse relation* R^{-1}

$$y R^{-1} x \Leftrightarrow x R y$$

- ▶ For example, the previous inventor relation

$$x R y \Leftrightarrow x \text{ has invented } y$$

- ▶ ...has converse relation

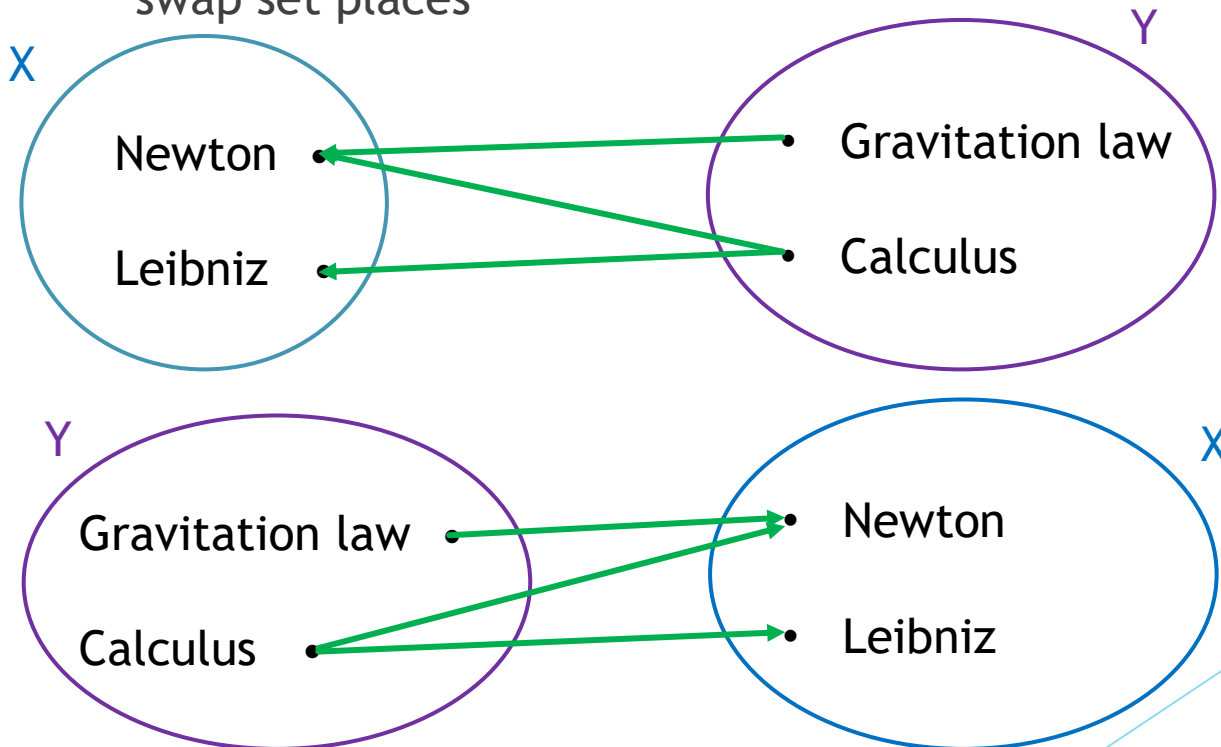
$$y R^{-1} x \Leftrightarrow y \text{ was invented by } x$$

- ▶ Respectively, the converse relation of the previous biblical fatherhood relation is

$$y R^{-1} x \Leftrightarrow y \text{ is a son of } x$$

Converse relation

- ▶ The domain-range graph of the converse relation is logically the same as the original - just the direction of arrows is inverted (same goes for digraphs)
- ▶ If we want the domain set on the left side, we have to swap set places

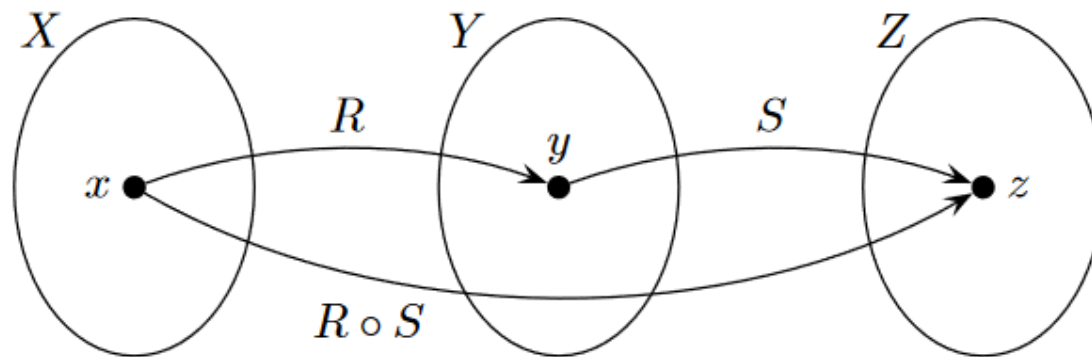


Composition of relations

- ▶ Let's (vaguely) define relations:
 - ▶ R is a relation from set X to set Y
 - ▶ S is a relation from set Y to set Z
- ▶ Using these we can define a *composition*

$$x (R \circ S) z \Leftrightarrow \exists y \in Y: x R y \wedge y S z$$

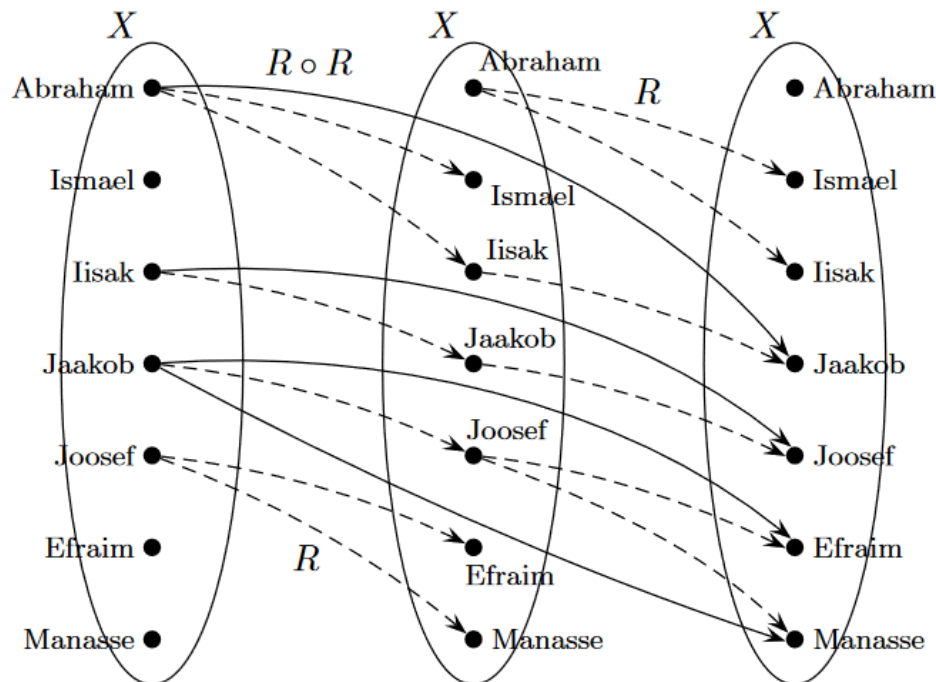
- ▶ So, elements of X and Z are in relation $R \circ S$ if and only if we can get from x to z via arrows in domain-range graph:



Composition of relations

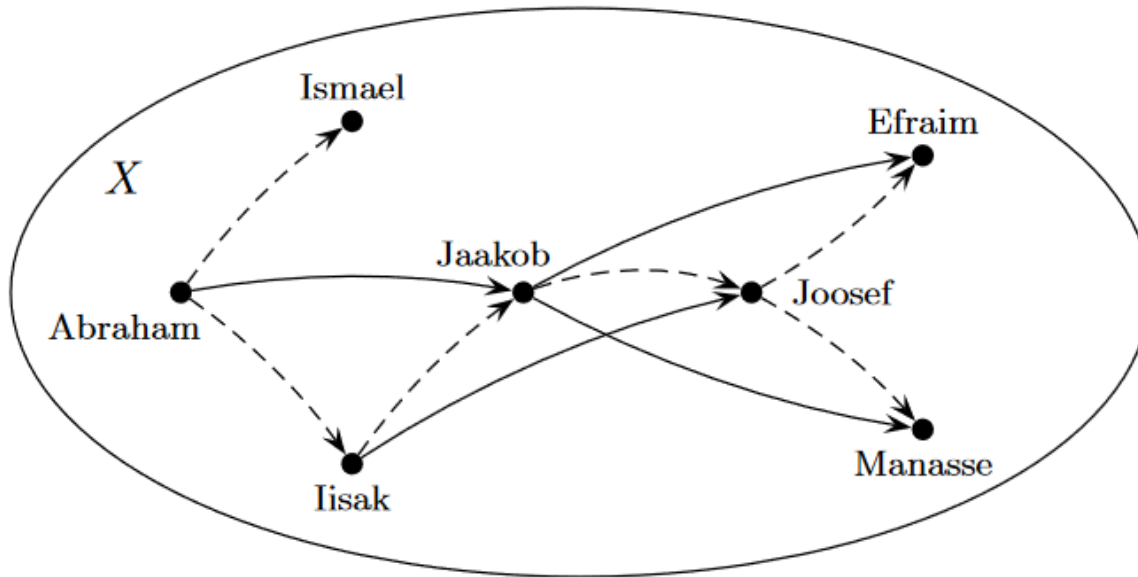
- ▶ We can also form a composition with the relation itself, so $R \circ R = R^2$
- ▶ In the case of previous biblical example, this relation would mean that

$x R^2 y \Leftrightarrow x \text{ is a grandfather of } y$



Composition of relations

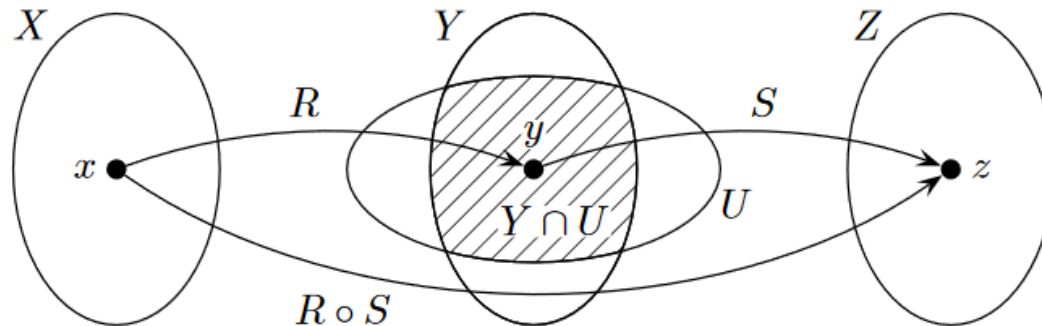
- ▶ In a digraph we can demonstrate this in such a way that an element x is in relation R^2 with element y if and only if we can get from x to y via a route of exactly two arrows



Composition of relations

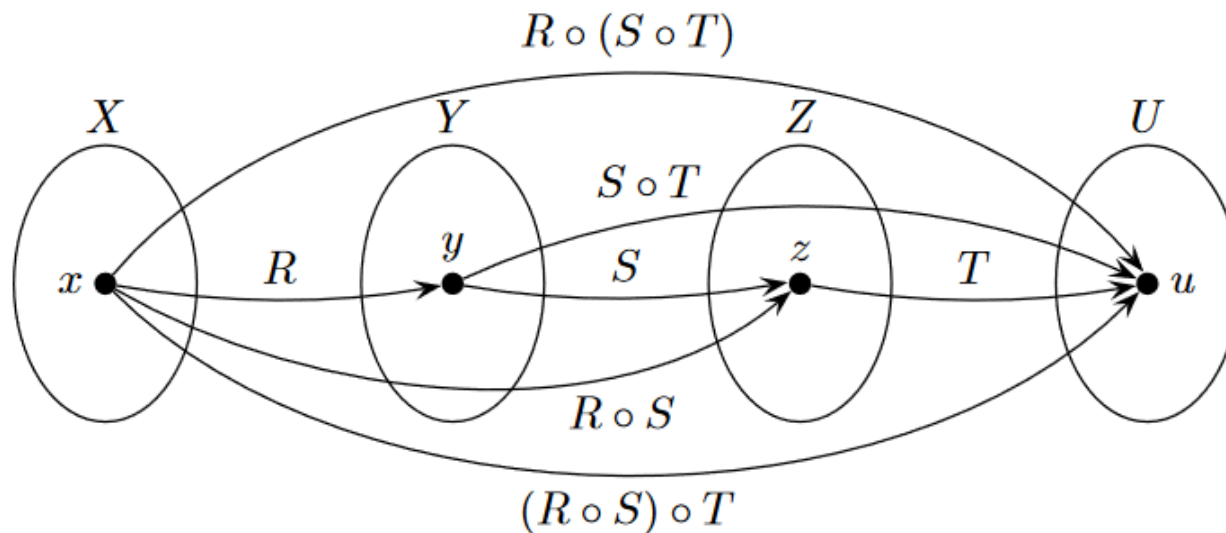
- ▶ At times, the requirement that the range of R and domain of S should be the same is a quite heavy constraint
- ▶ Luckily, this is not a hard constraint: we can freely combine relations as long as we set them a condition that the elements in domain of S (latter relation) must be included also in the range of the R (previous relation)

$$x(R \circ S)z \Leftrightarrow \exists y \in Y \cap U : xRy \wedge ySz$$



Rules of relations

- ▶ Previous notions that we made for two-set relations can be generalized to calculation rules:
- ▶ Composition of relations are associative, so we can combine relations as we wish without thinking about parentheses (as long as the order remains the same!)



Rules of relations

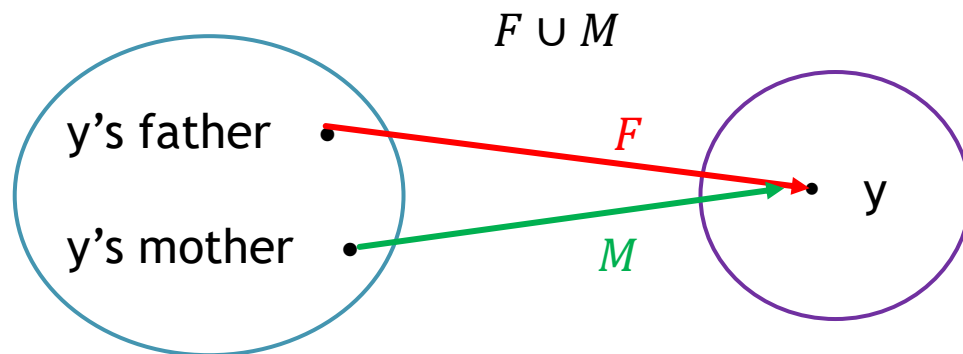
- ▶ Set theory operations (unions, intersections, etc.) can be performed to relations as well
- ▶ NOTE! “union of relations”(U) \neq “composition of relations” (\circ)
- ▶ For example, if we have relations

$$x F y \Leftrightarrow x \text{ is } y\text{'s father}$$

$$x M y \Leftrightarrow x \text{ is } y\text{'s mother}$$

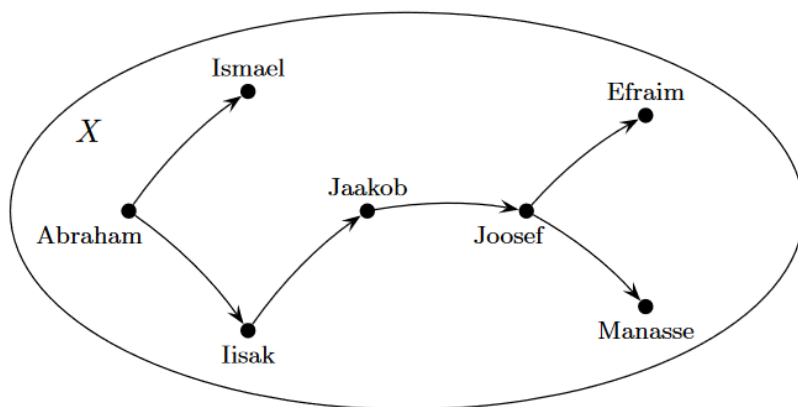
- ▶ Then the union of these relations is

$$x (F \cup M) y \Leftrightarrow x F y \vee x M y \Leftrightarrow x \text{ is a parent of } Y$$



Rules of relations

- ▶ If R is a relation defined in set X , then its n -times composition is R^n
- ▶ We don't need to draw a separate digraph for these - we can use the digraph of the original relation:
 - ▶ $x R^n y$ if and only if we can get from element x to element y using a route which consists of n arrows
- ▶ For example, the ordered pairs which fulfill the previous biblical fatherhood relation $x R^3 y \Leftrightarrow x$ is y 's greatgrandfather are
 $\{(Abraham, Joosef), (Iisak, Efraim), (Iisak, Manasse)\}$



Relation matrix

- ▶ The internal relations between elements can be presented also using matrices
 - ▶ Two-place relation: domain elements are set as rows and range elements are set as columns
 - ▶ If there's a relation between domain element i and range element j , then the element M_{Rij} of a *relation matrix* gets a value 1 (if no relation, then 0)
- ▶ This is easiest when elements have number values, because then the row and column order is self-evident
 - ▶ If the elements are not number values, then the row and column order can be selected freely; this doesn't make calculations any more complicated, but hinders the interpretation of results
- ▶ Relation matrix is the easiest way to depict relations to a computer

Relation matrix

- ▶ Example: We have sets $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ and $Y = \{6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$
- ▶ Define relation $x R y \Leftrightarrow x \text{ is a factor of } y$

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- ▶ The ordered pairs which specify the relation are

$$R = \{(1, 6), (1, 7), (1, 8), (1, 9), (1, 10), \\ (2, 6), (2, 8), (2, 10), (3, 6), (3, 9), (4, 8), (5, 10)\}$$

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- ▶ Make a table:

	6	7	8	9	10
1	1	1	1	1	1
2	1	0	1	0	1
3	1	0	0	1	0
4	0	0	1	0	0
5	0	0	0	0	1

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Relation matrix:

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

Calculations using relation matrices

- ▶ If we present the relations using relation matrices, the calculation of unions, intersections and compositions becomes surprisingly easy
- ▶ Relation matrices have only 1s and 0s as elements
- ▶ Remember Boolean algebra and define the following notations:
 - ▶ Boolean addition \oplus
 - ▶ Boolean element-wise multiplication \otimes
 - ▶ Boolean multiplication \odot
- ▶ Boolean addition is a familiar concept, but the two different multiplications may feel confusing
 - ▶ Let's check these out first!

Boolean element-wise multiplication

- ▶ “Element-wise” multiplication means that the matrices are not multiplied as we’ve learned to do before in matrix calculation, but we just multiply the corresponding elements
 - ▶ In Matlab, this operator is the “dot-multiplication” `.*`
- ▶ “Boolean” prefix means just that 1×1 yields 1 and others (0×1 , 1×0 , 0×0) yield us a zero
 - ▶ Well, this is no different than in regular algebra
- ▶ So, the elements of resulting matrix $C = A \otimes B$ will be
$$c_{ij} = a_{ij} \otimes b_{ij}$$
- ▶ NOTE! This requires that the matrices A and B must be of same size (because otherwise some elements are left without a corresponding element)

Boolean multiplication

- ▶ “Boolean multiplication” is performed the same way as regular matrix multiplication, but we follow Boolean addition law when summing up the results of row-by-column-multiplications
 - ▶ i.e. $1 + 1 = 1$
- ▶ Remembering this is sometimes hard for students who are not yet used to working in Boolean (after 10+ years, brains have gotten comfortable with regular algebra)
- ▶ If a student wishes to do these in an easier way, we can get the exact same results this way:
 - ▶ Calculate the matrix multiplication as before
 - ▶ Change all elements larger than 1 to 1s
 - ▶ Done!

Calculations using relation matrices

- ▶ If we define relations R and S followingly:
 - ▶ R is a relation from set X to set Y
 - ▶ S is a relation from set Y to set Z
- ▶ The union, intersection and composition of these relations can be calculated via relation matrices in the following way:

$$M_{R \cup S} = M_R \oplus M_S$$

$$M_{R \cap S} = M_R \otimes M_S$$

$$M_{R \circ S} = M_R \odot M_S$$

- ▶ Converse relation matrix can be defined, too: it's just a transpose (NOTE! Not inverse!) of the original relation matrix:

$$M_{R^{-1}} = M_R^T$$

Note: Some authors use the notation R^T for the converse relation in order to avoid confusion, but R^{-1} is more common.

Example 1

- ▶ Define matrices A, B and C:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- ▶ Calculate $A \oplus B$, $A \otimes B$ and $A \odot C$.

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$$\begin{aligned} A \odot C &= \begin{pmatrix} (1 \otimes 1) \oplus (1 \otimes 0) \oplus (0 \otimes 0) & (1 \otimes 1) \oplus (1 \otimes 1) \oplus (0 \otimes 1) \\ (0 \otimes 1) \oplus (1 \otimes 0) \oplus (0 \otimes 0) & (0 \otimes 1) \oplus (1 \otimes 1) \oplus (0 \otimes 1) \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 & 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 \\ 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 & 0 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Example 2

- ▶ Define sets $X = \{1,2,3\}$, $Y = \{a,b,c\}$ and $Z = \{q,r\}$.

- ▶ a) Define matrices to relations $x R y$ and $y S z$

$$R = \{(1, a), (1, b), (2, b), (2, c), (3, a)\} \quad S = \{(b, q), (c, q), (c, r)\}$$

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Change to
"1"!

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$$M_{S \circ R} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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$$M_{S \circ R} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$M_{R^{-1}} = M_R^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Thank you!

