#### CS 441 Discrete Mathematics for CS Lecture 24

# **Relations IV**

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# **Equivalence relation**

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

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# **Equivalence relation**

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

**Example:** Let  $A = \{0,1,2,3,4,5,6\}$  and

•  $R = \{(a,b) | a,b \in A, a \equiv b \mod 3\}$  (a is congruent to b modulo 3)

**Congruencies:** 

- $0 \mod 3 = 0$   $1 \mod 3 = 1$   $2 \mod 3 = 2$   $3 \mod 3 = 0$
- $4 \mod 3 = 1$   $5 \mod 3 = 2$   $6 \mod 3 = 0$

Relation R has the following pairs:

- (0,0) (0,3), (3,0), (0,6), (6,0)
- (3,3), (3,6) (6,3), (6,6) (1,1),(1,4), (4,1), (4,4)
- (2,2), (2,5), (5,2), (5,5)

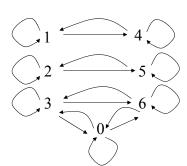
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## **Equivalence relation**

- Relation R on A={0,1,2,3,4,5,6} has the following pairs:
  - (0,0)

- (0,3), (3,0), (0,6), (6,0)
- (3,3), (3,6) (6,3), (6,6)
- (1,1),(1,4),(4,1),(4,4)
- (2,2), (2,5), (5,2), (5,5)
- Is R reflexive? **Yes.**
- Is R symmetric? Yes.
- Is R transitive. **Yes.**



#### Then

• R is an equivalence relation.

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## **Equivalence class**

**Definition:** Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A. The set  $\{x \in A \mid a R x\}$  is called **the equivalence class of a**, denoted by  $[a]_R$  or simply [a]. If  $b \in [a]$  then b is called **a representative of this equivalence class**.

#### **Example:**

• Assume  $R=\{(a,b) \mid a \equiv b \mod 3\}$  for  $A=\{0,1,2,3,4,5,6\}$  $R=\{(0,0), (0,3), (3,0), (0,6), (6,0), (3,3), (3,6), (6,3), (6,6),$ 

(1,1),(1,4),(4,1),(4,4),(2,2),(2,5),(5,2),(5,5)

- Pick an element a = 0.
- $[0]_R = \{0,3,6\}$
- Element 1:  $[1]_R = \{1,4\}$
- Element 2:  $[2]_R = \{2,5\}$
- Element 3:  $[3]_R = \{0,3,6\} = [0]_R = [6]_R$
- Element 4:  $[4]_R = \{1,4\} = [1]_R$  Element 5:  $[5]_R = \{2,5\} = [2]_R$

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#### **Equivalence class**

#### **Example:**

- Assume  $R=\{(a,b) \mid a \equiv b \mod 3\}$  for  $A=\{0,1,2,3,4,5,6\}$
- R= {(0,0), (0,3), (3,0), (0,6), (6,0),(3,3), (3,6) (6,3), (6,6), (1,1),(1,4), (4,1), (4,4), (2,2), (2,5), (5,2), (5,5)}

#### Three different equivalence classes all together:

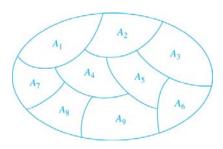
- $[0]_R = [3]_R = [6]_R = \{0,3,6\}$
- $[1]_R = [4]_R = \{1,4\}$
- $[2]_R = [5]_R = \{2,5\}$

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#### Partition of a set S

**Definition:** Let S be a set. A collection of nonempty subsets of S  $A_1, A_2, ..., A_k$  is called a partition of S if:

• 
$$A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$$
,  $i \neq j$  and  $S = \bigcup_{i=1}^k A_i$ 



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 is called **a partition of S** if:  
•  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ ,  $i \neq j$  and  $S = \bigcup_{i=1}^k A_i$ 

**Example:** Let  $S=\{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$  and

- $A_1 = \{0,3,6\}$   $A_2 = \{1,4\}$   $A_3 = \{2,5\}$
- Is  $A_1$ ,  $A_2$ ,  $A_3$  a partition of S? **Yes.**
- Give a partition of S?
- {0,2,4,6} {1,3,5}
- {0} {1,2} {3,4,5} {6}

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#### **Equivalence classes and partitions**

**Theorem:** Let *R* be an equivalence relation on a set *A*. Then the union of all the equivalence classes of *R* is *A*:  $A = \bigcup_{a \in A}^{k} [a]_{R}$ 

**Proof:** an element a of A is in its own equivalence class  $[a]_R$  so union cover A.

**Theorem:** The equivalence classes form a partition of *A*. **Proof:** The equivalence classes split *A* into disjoint subsets.

**Theorem**: Let  $\{A_1, A_2, ... A_i, ...\}$  be a partitioning of S. Then there is an equivalence relation R on S, that has the sets  $A_i$  as its equivalence classes.

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## **Partial orderings**

**Definition:** A relation *R* on a set S is called a *partial ordering*, or *partial order*, if it is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive. A set together with a partial ordering *R* is called a *partially ordered set*, or *poset*, and is denoted by (*S*, *R*). Members of *S* are called *elements* of the poset.

**Example:** Assume R denotes the "greater than or equal" relation  $(\ge)$  on the set  $S=\{1,2,3,4,5\}$ .

- Is the relation reflexive? Yes
- Is it antisymmetric? Yes
- Is it transitive? Yes
- Conclusion: R is a partial ordering.

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## **Partial orderings**

**Example:** Assume R is the divisibility relation (I) on the set of integers  $S=\{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$ 

- Is the relation reflexive? Yes
- Is it antisymmetric? Yes
- Is it transitive? Yes
- Conclusion: R is a partial ordering.

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## **Comparability**

**Definition 1:** The elements a and b of a poset  $(S, \le)$  are *comparable* if either  $a \le b$  or  $b \le a$ . When a and b are elements of S so that neither  $a \le b$  nor  $b \le a$  holds, then a and b are called *incomparable*.

**Definition 2:** If  $(S, \le)$  is a poset and every two elements of S are comparable, S is called a *totally ordered* or *linearly ordered set*, and  $\le$  is called a *total order* or a *linear order*. A totally ordered set is also called a *chain*.

**Definition 3:**  $(S, \leq)$  is a well-ordered set if it is a poset such that  $\leq$  is a total ordering and every nonempty subset of S has a least element.

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#### Lexicographical ordering

**Definition**: Given two posets  $(A_1, \leq_1)$  and  $(A_2, \leq_2)$ , the *lexicographic ordering* on  $A_1 \times A_2$  is defined by specifying that  $(a_1, a_2)$  is less than  $(b_1, b_2)$ , that is,  $(a_1, a_2) < (b_1, b_2)$ , either if  $a_1 <_1 b_1$  or if  $a_1 = b_1$  then  $a_2 <_2 b_2$ .

The definition can be extended to a lexicographic ordering on strings **Example**: Consider strings of lowercase English letters. A lexicographic ordering can be defined using the ordering of the letters in the alphabet. This is the same ordering as that used in dictionaries.

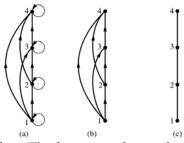
- discreet  $\prec$  discrete, because these strings differ in the seventh position and  $e \prec t$ .
- discreet 
   < discreetness, because the first eight letters agree, but the second string is longer.</li>

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#### Hasse diagram

**Definition**: A *Hasse diagram* is a visual representation of a partial ordering that leaves out edges that must be present because of the reflexive and transitive properties.



- (a) A partial ordering. The loops are due to the reflexive property
- (b) The edges that must be present due to the transitive property are deleted
- (c) The Hasse diagram for the partial ordering (a).

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## **Procedure for constructing Hasse diagram**

- To represent a finite poset  $(S, \leq)$  using a Hasse diagram, start with the directed graph of the relation:
  - Remove the loops (a, a) present at every vertex due to the reflexive property.
  - Remove all edges (x, y) for which there is an element  $z \in S$  such that x < z and z < y. These are the edges that must be present due to the transitive property.
  - Arrange each edge so that its initial vertex is below the terminal vertex. Remove all the arrows, because all edges point upwards toward their terminal vertex.

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#### CS 441 Discrete Mathematics for CS Lecture 24b

# Graphs (chapter 10)

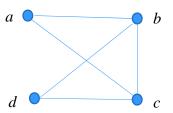
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## Definition of a graph

- **Definition:** A graph G = (V, E) consists of a nonempty set V of vertices (or nodes) and a set E of edges. Each edge has either one or two vertices associated with it, called its endpoints. An edge is said to connect its endpoints.
- Example:



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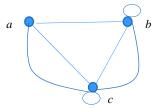
# **Terminology**

- In a *simple graph* each edge connects two different vertices and no two edges connect the same pair of vertices.
- *Multigraphs* may have multiple edges connecting the same two vertices. When m different edges connect the vertices u and v, we say that  $\{u,v\}$  is an edge of *multiplicity* m.
- An edge that connects a vertex to itself is called a *loop*.
- A *pseudograph* may include loops, as well as multiple edges connecting the same pair of vertices.

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# **Directed graph**

**Definition:** An *directed graph* (or *digraph*) G = (V, E) consists of a nonempty set V of *vertices* (or *nodes*) and a set E of *directed edges* (or *arcs*). Each edge is associated with an ordered pair of vertices. The directed edge associated with the ordered pair (u,v) is said to *start at u* and *end at v*.

#### Remark:

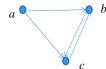
 Graphs where the end points of an edge are not ordered are said to be *undirected graphs*.

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# **Directed graph**

• A *simple directed graph* has no loops and no multiple edges.

**Example:** 



• A *directed multigraph* may have multiple directed edges. When there are *m* directed edges from the vertex *u* to the vertex *v*, we say that (*u*,*v*) is an edge of *multiplicity m*.

**Example:** 

• multiplicity of (a,b) is ?

• and the multiplicity of (*b,c*) is ?



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