

## 离散数学(011122)



魏可佶 <u>kejiwei@tongji.edu.cn</u> <u>https://kejiwei.github.io/</u>





- 4.1 Definition and Representation of Relations
- 4.2 Relational Operations
- 4.3 Properties of Relations
- 4.4 Equivalence Relations and Partial Order
  - Relations





#### 4.2.1 Basic Operations of Relations

- Domain, range, domain (again), inverse, composition
- Properties of basic operations

#### 4.2.2 Power Operations of Relations

- Definition of power operations
- •Methods of power operations
- Properties of power operations





■ Definition 4.10: Domain, Range, and Field  $domR = \{x \mid \exists y (\langle x, y \rangle \in R)\}$   $ranR = \{y \mid \exists x (\langle x, y \rangle \in R)\}$  $fldR = domR \cup ranR$ 









**4.2.1** Basic Operations of Relations

#### **I** Find the composition using a diagram

Use the diagrammatic (not relational diagram) method to find the composition.

www.Example: R={<1,2>, <2,3>, <1,4>, <2,2>}

S={<1,1>, <1,3>, <2,3>, <3,2>, <3,3>}



*R*∘*S*  $R \circ S = \{ <1, 3 >, <2, 2 >, <2, 3 > \}$  $S \circ R = \{ <1,2 >, <1,4 >, <3,2 >, <3,3 > \}$ 

 $S \cdot R$ 





4.2.1 Basic Operations of Relations

**Properties of Inverse Operations** 



```
    Theorem 4.1: Let F be an arbitrary relation, then:
    (1) (F<sup>-1</sup>)<sup>-1</sup>=F
    (2) domF<sup>-1</sup>=ranF, ranF<sup>-1</sup>=domF
```

Proof:

```
(1) For any <x, y>, by the definition of inverse, we have <x,
```

$$y \ge (F^{-1})^{-1} \Leftrightarrow \langle y, x \ge F^{-1} \Leftrightarrow \langle x, y \ge F$$

Thus,  $(F^{-1})^{-1} = F$ 

(2) For any *x*,

```
x \in \text{dom}F^{-1} \Leftrightarrow \exists y(\langle x, y \rangle \in F^{-1})\Leftrightarrow \exists y(\langle y, x \rangle \in F) \Leftrightarrow x \in \text{ran}FThus, domF^{-1} = ranF.
```

Similarly, we can prove  $ranF^{-1} = domF$ .



4.2.1 Basic Operations of Relations **Associativity and Inverse Operations of Relational Composition** Theorem 4.2: Let F, G, and H be arbitrary relations, then: (1)  $(F \circ G) \circ H = F \circ (G \circ H)$ (2)  $(F \circ G)^{-1} = G^{-1} \circ F^{-1}$ Proof (1) : For any <x,y>, <x, y>∈(F∘G)∘H  $\Leftrightarrow \exists t (\langle x, t \rangle \in F \circ G \land \langle t, y \rangle \in H)$  $\Leftrightarrow \exists t \ (\exists s \ (\langle x, s \rangle \in F \land \langle s, t \rangle \in G) \land \langle t, y \rangle \in H)$  $\Leftrightarrow \exists t \exists s (\langle x, s \rangle \in F \land \langle s, t \rangle \in G \land \langle t, y \rangle \in H)$  $\Leftrightarrow \exists s (\langle x, s \rangle \in F \land \exists t (\langle s, t \rangle \in G \land \langle t, y \rangle \in H))$  $\Leftrightarrow \exists s \ (\langle x, s \rangle \in F \land \langle s, y \rangle \in G \circ H)$  $\Leftrightarrow \langle x, y \rangle \in F \circ (G \circ H)$ Thus,  $(F \circ G) \circ H = F \circ (G \circ H)$ 

4.2.1 Basic Operations of Relations **Associativity and Inverse Operations of Relational Composition** Theorem 4.2: Let F, G, and H be arbitrary relations, then: (1)  $(F \circ G) \circ H = F \circ (G \circ H)$ (2)  $(F \circ G)^{-1} = G^{-1} \circ F^{-1}$ **Proof** (2): For any  $\langle x, y \rangle$ , <*x*, *y*>∈(*F*∘*G*)<sup>-1</sup> ⇔<*y*, *x*>∈*F*∘*G*  $\Leftrightarrow \exists t (\langle y, t \rangle \in F \land (t, x) \in G)$  $\Leftrightarrow \exists t (\langle x, t \rangle \in G^{-1} \land (t, y) \in F^{-1})$  $\Leftrightarrow <x, y> \in G^{-1} \circ F^{-1}$ 

Thus  $(F \circ G)^{-1} = G^{-1} \circ F^{-1}$ 



同济经管







#### Definition 4.13: R<sup>n</sup>

Let **R** be a relation on **A**, and **n** be a natural number. The **n**-

th power of R is defined as:

(1) 
$$R^0 = \{ < x, x > | x \in A \} = I_A$$
  
(2)  $R^{n+1} = R^n \circ R$ 

#### Note:

• For any relations  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  on A, we have,

$$R_1^0 = R_2^0 = I_A$$

• For any relation R on A, we have:  $R^1 = R$ 





For a relation R represented by a set, computing  $R^n$  means the composition of R with itself n times.

The n-th power of a relation is equal to the n-th power of its matrix representation.

The matrix representation of a relation is obtained by matrix multiplication, where addition is performed using logical addition.

Example: 设A = {a, b, c, d}, R = {<a,b>,<b,a>,<b,c>,<c,d>}, Find the powers of R, and represent them using both a matrix and a relation diagram.

**Solution:** The relation matrix for R and  $R^2$  are as follows:

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad M^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



4.2.2 Power Operations of Relations • Methods of power operations • matrix multiplication



Example: Let A = {a, b, c, d}, R = {<a,b>,<b,a>,<b,c>,<c,d>}, Find the powers of R, and represent them using both a matrix and a relation diagram.

**Solution:** The relation matrix for  $R^3$  and  $R^4$  are as follows:

$$M^{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad M^{4} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus:  $M^4 = M^2$ ,  $R^4 = R^2$ . Then we can find  $R^2 = R^4 = R^6 = ..., R^3 = R^5 = R^7 = ...$  $R^0 = I_A$  relation matrix :  $M^0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ 



## 4.2.2 Power Operations of Relations **b** Methods of power operations **c** relation diagram



Let 
$$R$$
 be a relation on  $A = \{a, b, c, d\}$ ,

Using the relation diagram method, the relation diagrams

for **R**<sup>0</sup>, **R**<sup>1</sup>, **R**<sup>2</sup>, **R**<sup>3</sup>









 $R^3 = R^5$ 



4.2.2 Power Operations of Relations • The properties of a power operations
 • periodicity or eventual stability



Theorem 4.4: The periodicity or eventual stability of a power operation under finite exponents.

Let *A* be a set with *n* elements, and let *R* be a relation on *A*.

Then, there exist natural numbers s and t such that  $R^s = R^t$ .

#### Proof Outline:

(1) A relation R on A is a subset of  $A \times A$ , which contains  $2^{n^2}$  at most pairs.

(2) Since each  $R^s$  is a subset of A×A, there are at most  $2^{n^2}$  distinct possible relations.

(3) The sequence  $R: R^0, R^1, R^2, R^3, ...$  has infinitely many indices but only finitely many distinct relations  $2^{n^2}$ , so by the pigeonhole principle, there exist s≠t such that  $R^s = R^t$ .



4.2.2 Power Operations of Relations • The properties of a power operations
 **Composition of Powers and Power of a Power properties**



- Theorem 4.5: Composition of Powers and Power of a Power properties.
  - Let R be a relation on A, and  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ , Then
    - (1)  $R^m \circ R^n = R^{m+n}$
    - (2)  $(R^m)^n = R^{mn}$

Proof: By induction.

(1) For any given  $m \in N$ , , we induct on n. If n=0, then  $R^m \circ R^0 = R^m \circ I_A = R^m = R^{m+0}$ Assume  $R^m \circ R^n = R^{m+n}$ , then  $R^m \circ R^{n+1} = R^m \circ (R^n \circ R) = (R^m \circ R^n) \circ R = R^{m+n+1}$ , Thus, for all  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$  有  $R^m \circ R^n = R^{m+n}$ .



4.2.2 Power Operations of Relations • The properties of a power operations
 **Composition of Powers and Power of a Power properties**



- Theorem 4.5: Composition of Powers and Power of a Power properties.
  - Let R be a relation on A, and  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ , Then
    - (1)  $R^m \circ R^n = R^{m+n}$
    - (2)  $(R^m)^n = R^{mn}$

**Proof:** By induction.

(2) For any given  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ , we induct on n. If n = 0, then  $(R^m)^0 = I_A = R^0 = R^{m \times 0}$ Assume  $(R^m)^n = R^{mn}$ , then  $(R^m)^{n+1} = (R^m)^n \circ R^m = (R^{mn}) \circ R^m = R^{mn+m} = R^{m(n+1)}$ Thus, for any  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$  有  $(R^m)^n = R^{mn}$ .



#### 4.2.2 Power Operations of Relations • The properties of a power operations • Stabilization, Periodicity and Finite State Constraint



#### Theorem 4.6:, Stabilization, Periodicity and Finite State Constraint in the Powers of a Relation Let *R* be a relation on *A*. If there exist natural numbers *s*, *t* (*s*<*t*) such that *R<sup>s</sup>* = *R<sup>t</sup>*, then

(1) For any  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $R^{s+k} = R^{t+k}$  (Stabilization Property)

The two powers are equal and remain unchanged when the same power is added.

(2) For any k,  $i \in \mathbb{N} R^{s+kp+i} = R^{s+i}$ , where p = t-s

(Periodicity Property)

The period for the equality of the two powers is *p* 

(3) Let  $S = \{R^0, R^1, ..., R^{t-1}\}$ , then for any  $q \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $R^q \in S$ 

(Finite State Constraint)

The natural number powers of a relation R on a finite set always have a period.



4.2.2 Power Operations of Relations • The properties of a power operations
Stabilization, Periodicity and Finite State Constraint



#### Proof:

(1) 
$$R^{s+k} = R^s \circ R^k = R^t \circ R^k = R^{t+k}$$

(2) Induct on k. If k=0, then we have

 $R^{s+0p+i} = R^{s+i}$ 

Assume  $R^{s+kp+i} = R^{s+i}$ , where p = t-s, then

 $R^{s+(k+1)p+i} = R^{s+kp+i+p} = R^{s+kp+i} \circ R^p$ 

$$= R^{s+i} \circ R^p = R^{s+p+i} = R^{s+t-s+i} = R^{t+i} = R^{s+i}$$

By the principle of mathematical induction, the proposition is proven.



4.2.2 Power Operations of Relations • The properties of a power operations
Stabilization, Periodicity and Finite State Constraint



#### Proof:

(3) For any  $q \in \mathbb{N}$ , if q < t, it is obvious that  $R^q \in S$ .

If  $q \ge t$ , then there exist natural numbers k and i such that

```
q = s + kp + i, where 0 \le i \le p - 1.
```

Thus,

 $R^{q} = R^{s+kp+i} = R^{s+i}$ Since  $s+i \le s+p-1 = s+t-s-1 = t-1$ this proves that  $R^{q} \in S$ .



#### 4.2 Relational Operation • Brief summary



**Objective :** 

**Key Concepts :** 





## 离散数学(011122)



魏可佶 <u>kejiwei@tongji.edu.cn</u> <u>https://kejiwei.github.io/</u>





- 4.1 Definition and Representation of Relations
- 4.2 Relational Operations
- 4.3 Properties of Relations
- 4.4 Equivalence Relations and Partial Order
  - Relations





#### 4.3.1 Definition and Determination of Relation Properties

- Reflexivity and Irreflexivity
- Symmetry and Antisymmetry
- Transitivity
- 4.3.2 Closure of Relations
  - Definition of Closure
  - Closure Calculation
  - •Warshall's Algorithm





- Definition 4.14: Reflexivity and irreflexivity of Relations
   Let *R* be a relation on *A*.
  - (1) If  $\forall x (x \in A \rightarrow \langle x, x \rangle \in R)$ , then R is called *reflexive* on A.
  - (2) If  $\forall x (x \in A \rightarrow \langle x, x \rangle \notin R)$ , then R is called *irreflexive* on A.
- **Reflexive:** The universal relation  $E_A$  on A, the identity relation  $I_A$ , the less-than-or-equal relation  $L_A$ , and the divisibility relation  $D_A$ .
- Irreflexive: The less-than relation(<) on the real number set and the strict inclusion relation (⊊) on the power set.





 $\blacksquare$  Example:  $A = \{a, b, c\}, R_1, R_2, R_3$  is the relation on A, where

 $R_1 = \{ <a,a>, <b,b> \} , R_2 = \{ <a,a>, <b,b>, <c,c>, <a,b> \}, R_3 = \{ <a,c> \}$ 

To determine whether the relations  $R_1$ ,  $R_2$ ,  $R_3$  are reflexive or irreflexive.

#### Reflexivity check:

- Since  $(c,c) \notin R_1(c,c)$ ,  $R_1$  is not reflexive.
- All of (a,a),(b,b),(c,c) are in  $R_2$ ,  $R_2$  is reflexive.
- None of (a,a),(b,b),(c,c) are present, R<sub>3</sub> is **not reflexive**.

#### Irreflexivity check:

- *R*<sub>1</sub> contains (a,a) and (b,b) ,meaning some elements have self-loops, *R*<sub>1</sub> is not irreflexive.
- Since **R**<sub>2</sub> contains self-loops ((a,a),(b,b),(c,c)), **R**<sub>2</sub> is **not irreflexive**.
- $R_3$  does not contain any self-loops ((x, x)),  $R_2$  is irreflexive.
- Final Summary: R<sub>1</sub>: Neither reflexive nor irreflexive; R<sub>2</sub>: Reflexive;
   R<sub>3</sub>: Irreflexive





# Definition 4.15: Symmetric and Antisymmetric of Relations. Let R be a relation on A,

(1) If  $\forall x \forall y (x, y \in A \land \langle x, y \rangle \in \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \langle y, x \rangle \in \mathbb{R})$ , then R is called a symmetric relation on A.

(2) If  $\forall x \forall y (x, y \in A \land \langle x, y \rangle \in R \land \langle y, x \rangle \in R \rightarrow x = y)$ , 则称R is called an *antisymmetric relation* on A.

#### Such as:

**Symmetric:** The universal  $E_A$  on A, the identity relation  $I_A$ , and the empty relation  $\emptyset$ .

Antisymmetric: The identity relation  $I_A$  and the empty relation  $\emptyset$  are antisymmetric relations on A.

Note: The formulas (1) and (2) iterates over all elements x,y in A, but the actual constraint applies only to the elements in R.





Example 2: Let A={a,b,c}, and R1,R2,R3 and R4 are relations on A, where...

 $R_1 = \{ <a,a>,<b,b> \}, R_2 = \{ <a,a>,<a,b>,<b,a> \}$ 

 $R_3 = \{ <a,b>,<a,c> \}, R_4 = \{ <a,b>,<b,a>,<a,c> \}$ 

To determine whether the relations  $R_1$ ,  $R_2$ ,  $R_3$ ,  $R_4$  are Symmetric or Antisymmetric.

	Symmetric check: $\forall x \forall y (x, y \in A \land \langle x, y \rangle)$ $\in \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \langle y, x \rangle \in \mathbb{R}$	Antisymmetric check: $\forall x \forall y (x, y \in A \land \langle x, y \rangle)$ $\in R \land \langle y, x \rangle \in R \rightarrow x = y$	Conclusion
<b>R</b> <sub>1</sub>	<b>R</b> <sub>1</sub> only contains (a,a) and (b,b).	Only contains reflexive elements (x,x) and does not include any (x,y) such that x≠y.	Symmetric: Yes Symmetric: Yes
<b>R</b> <sub>2</sub>	Every $(x,y) \in R_2$ , the corresponding $(y,x)$ is also in $R_2$ .	Contains and (b,a), but a≠b, which violates the requirement that x=y.	Symmetric: Yes Symmetric: X No



**Example:** Let A={a,b,c}, and R1,R2,R3 and R4 are relations on A, where...  $R_1 = \{\langle a,a \rangle, \langle b,b \rangle\}, R_2 = \{\langle a,a \rangle, \langle a,b \rangle, \langle b,a \rangle\}$ 

$$R_3 = \{ ,  \}, R_4 = \{ , ,  \}$$

To determine whether the relations  $R_1$ ,  $R_2$ ,  $R_3$ ,  $R_4$  are Symmetric or Antisymmetric.

	Symmetric check:	Antisymmetric check:	Conclusion
	∀x∀y(x,y∈A∧ <x,y< th=""><th><math>\forall x \forall y (x, y \in A \land \langle x, y \rangle)</math></th><th></th></x,y<>	$\forall x \forall y (x, y \in A \land \langle x, y \rangle)$	
	>∈R→ <y,x>∈R)</y,x>	$\in R \land \langle y, x \rangle \in R \rightarrow x = y$	
<b>R</b> <sub>3</sub>	(a,b)∈ $R_3$ but (b,a)∉ $R_3$ , and (a,c)∈ $R_3$ but (c,a)∉ $R_3$	no pairs $(x,y)$ and $(y,x)$ in $R_3$ for $x \neq y$ , making the condition trivially true.	Symmetric: X No Symmetric: Yes
R <sub>4</sub>	(a,c)∈ <b>R</b> ₄ but (c,a)∉ <b>R</b> ₄	(a,b) $\in \mathbf{R}_4$ and (b,a) $\in \mathbf{R}_4$ , but a≠b	Symmetric: X No Symmetric: X No



**回济经管** TONGJI SEM

Definition 4.16: transitive relation on A.
 Let *R* be a relation on *A*. If
 ∀x∀y∀z(x,y,z∈A∧<x,y>∈R∧<y,z>∈R→<x,z>∈R),
 then *R* is called a transitive relation on A.

Such as: The universal relation  $E_A$  on A, the identity relation  $I_A$ , the empty relation  $\emptyset$ , the less-than-or-equal relation, the lessthan relation, the divisibility relation, the inclusion relation, and the strict inclusion relation.



Transitive relation (e.g.)



Second S

	$\forall x \forall y \forall z(x,y,z \in A \land \langle x,y \rangle \in R \land \langle y,z \rangle \\ \in R \rightarrow \langle x,z \rangle \in R)$	Conclusion
<b>R</b> <sub>1</sub>	only contains reflexive elements and has no pairs that could violate transitivity.	Transitive relation <b>Yes</b>
<b>R</b> <sub>2</sub>	because (a,b) $\in R_2$ and (b,c) $\in R_2$ , but (a,c) $\notin R_2$	Transitive relation 🗙 No
<b>R</b> <sub>3</sub>	contains only a single pair and has no chains to check for transitivity violations.	Transitive relation <b>Yes</b>

