Graphs and Relations

#### Friday Four Square! 4:15PM, Outside Gates

#### Announcements

- Problem Set 1 due right now.
- Problem Set 2 out.
  - Checkpoint due Monday, October 8.
  - Assignment due Friday, October 12.
  - Play around with induction and its applications!

### Mathematical Structures

- Just as there are common data structures in programming, there are common mathematical structures in discrete math.
- So far, we've seen simple structures like sets and natural numbers, but there are many other important structures out there.
- For the next week, we'll explore several of them.

#### Some Formalisms

## Ordered and Unordered Pairs

- An **unordered pair** is a set {*a*, *b*} of two elements (remember that sets are unordered).
  - $\{0, 1\} = \{1, 0\}$
- An **ordered pair** (*a*, *b*) is a pair of elements in a specific order.
  - $(0, 1) \neq (1, 0).$
  - Two ordered pairs are equal iff each of their components are equal.
- An ordered tuple (a<sub>1</sub>, a<sub>2</sub>, ..., a<sub>n</sub>) is an collection of n elements in a specific order.
  - This is sometimes called a **sequence**.
  - As with ordered pairs, two ordered tuples are equal iff each of their elements are equal.

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$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 0, 1, 2 \\ A \end{array} \right\} \times \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} a, b, c \\ B \end{array} \right\} = B$$

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$$\begin{cases} 0, 1, 2 \\ A & B \end{cases} \times \begin{cases} a, b, c \\ B & B \end{cases} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ 0 & (0, a) & (0, b) & (0, c) \\ 1 & (1, a) & (1, b) & (1, c) \\ 2 & (2, a) & (2, b) & (2, c) \end{cases}$$

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• We denote 
$$A^{k} \equiv A \times A \times ... \times A$$
  
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• We denote  $A^{k} \equiv A \times A \times \dots \times A$  $\begin{cases} 0, 1, 2 \\ A \end{cases}^{k \text{ times}} = \begin{cases} (0, 0), (0, 1), (0, 2), \\ (1, 0), (1, 1), (1, 2), \\ (2, 0), (2, 1), (2, 2) \end{cases}$  Graphs





A graph consists of a set of **nodes** (or **vertices**) connected by **edges** (or **arcs**)



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#### Some graphs are **undirected**.



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You can think of them as directed graphs with edges both ways.

#### Graphs are Everywhere!



http://www.princeton.edu/pr/pictures/l-r/packingproblem/pu-platonic-solids.jpg



MIT TO A DOWN

10

ALC: NO









#### Formalisms

- A **graph** is an ordered pair G = (V, E) where
  - *V* is a set of the **vertices** (nodes) of the graph.
  - *E* is a set of the **edges** (arcs) of the graph.
- *E* can be a set of ordered pairs or unordered pairs.
  - If *E* consists of ordered pairs, *G* is a **directed** graph.
  - If *E* consists of unordered pairs, *G* is an **undirected** graph.
- Each edge is an pair of the start and end (or source and sink) of the edge.







#### Navigating a Graph PC IP CC Ŷ, V CDC SC LT From PT VE( CI FC

#### $\mathrm{PT} \rightarrow \mathrm{VC} \rightarrow \mathrm{PC} \rightarrow \mathrm{CC} \rightarrow \mathrm{SC} \rightarrow \mathrm{CDC}$


### Navigating a Graph PC IP CC ł VC LT CDC SC From PT VE CI FC

## $PT \rightarrow VC \rightarrow VEC \rightarrow SC \rightarrow CDC$





 $PT \rightarrow CI \rightarrow FC \rightarrow CDC$ 

A **path** from  $v_1$  to  $v_n$  is a sequence of edges  $((v_1, v_2), (v_2, v_3), ..., (v_{n-1}, v_n)).$ 

The **length** of a path is the number of edges it contains.





# Navigating a Graph









# A node v is **reachable** from node u iff there is a path from u to v.

We denote this as  $\mathbf{u} \rightarrow \mathbf{v}$ .

# Navigating a Graph











### $PC \rightarrow CC \rightarrow VEC \rightarrow VC \rightarrow PC$

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## $\mathrm{PT} \rightarrow \mathrm{VC} \rightarrow \mathrm{PC} \rightarrow \mathrm{CC} \rightarrow \mathrm{VEC} \rightarrow \mathrm{VC} \rightarrow \mathrm{IP}$

# A **cycle** in a graph is a path $((v_1, v_2), ..., (v_n, v_1))$

that starts and ends at the same node.

A **simple path** is a path that does not repeat any nodes or edges.

A **simple cycle** is a cycle that does not repeat any nodes or edges (except the first/last node).

# Summary of Terminology

- A **path** is a series of edges connecting two nodes.
  - The **length** of a path is the number of edges in the path.
  - A node v is **reachable** from u if there is a path from u to v.
- A **cycle** is a path from a node to itself.
- A **simple path** is a path with no duplicate nodes or edges.
- A **simple cycle** is a cycle with no duplicate nodes or edges (except the start/end node).

## **Representing Prerequisites**



A **directed acyclic graph** (DAG) is a directed graph with no cycles.















### Wake Up In The Morning

Feel Like P Diddy



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Wake Up In The Morning

Feel Like P Diddy

Brush Teeth With Bottle of Jack


Feel Like P Diddy

Brush Teeth With Bottle of Jack



Feel Like P Diddy

Brush Teeth With Bottle of Jack

Leave



Feel Like P Diddy

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- Algorithm:
  - Find a node with no incoming edges.
  - Remove it from the graph.
  - Add it to the resulting ordering.
- There may be many valid orderings:

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**Theorem:** A graph has a topological ordering iff it is a DAG.

# Relations
# Relations

- A **binary relation** is a property that describes whether two objects are related in some way.
- Examples:
  - Less-than: x < y
  - Divisibility: *x* divides *y* evenly
  - Friendship: *x* is a friend of *y*
  - Tastiness: *x* is tastier than *y*
- Given binary relation *R*, we write *aRb* iff *a* is **related** to *b*.
  - *a* = *b*
  - *a* < *b*
  - *a* "is tastier than" *b*
  - $a \equiv_k b$

# Relations as Sets

- Formally, a relation is a set of ordered pairs representing the pairs for which the relation is true.
  - Equality: { (0, 0), (1, 1), (2, 2), ... }
  - Less-than: { (0, 1), (0, 2), ..., (1, 2), (1, 3), ... }
- Formally, we have that

#### $aRb \equiv (a, b) \in R$

- The binary relations we'll discuss today will be binary relations over a set A.
  - Each relation is a subset of  $A^2$ .

# Binary Relations and Graphs

- Each (directed) graph defines a binary relation:
  - *aRb* iff (*a*, *b*) is an edge.
- Each binary relation defines a graph:
  - (*a*, *b*) is an edge iff *aRb*.
- Example: Less-than



# An Important Question

- Why study binary relations and graphs separately?
- Simplicity:
  - Certain operations feel more "natural" on binary relations than on graphs and vice-versa.
  - Converting a relation to a graph might result in an overly complex graph (or vice-versa).
- Terminology:
  - Vocabulary for graphs often different from that for relations.

# Equivalence Relations

"x and y have the same color"

"x and y have the same shape"

"x and y have the same area"

"x and y are programs that produce the same output"

"x = y"

## Informally

#### An **equivalence relation** is a relation that indicates when objects have some trait in common.

Do <u>not</u> use this definition in proofs: It's just an intuition:













 $xRy \equiv x$  and y have the same shape.

xRy yRx

## Symmetry

# A binary relation *R* over a set *A* is called **symmetric** iff

For any  $x \in A$  and  $y \in A$ , if xRy, then yRx.

This definition (and others like it) can be used in formal proofs.

# An Intuition for Symmetry







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xRx

## Reflexivity

#### A binary relation R over a set Ais called **reflexive** iff

For any  $x \in A$ , we have xRx.

# Some Reflexive Relations

- Equality:
  - For any x, we have x = x.
- Not greater than:
  - For any integer x, we have  $x \le x$ .
- Subset:
  - For any set S, we have  $S \subseteq S$ .

## An Intuition for Reflexivity













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*xRz* 

## Transitivity

A binary relation *R* over a set *A* is called **transitive** iff

For any  $x, y, z \in A$ , if xRy and yRz, then xRz.

# Some Transitive Relations

- Equality:
  - x = y and y = z implies x = z.
- Less-than:
  - x < y and y < z implies x < z.
- Subset:
  - $S \subseteq T$  and  $T \subseteq U$  implies  $S \subseteq U$ .

## An Intuition for Transitivity



## Equivalence Relations

A binary relation *R* over a set *A* is called an **equivalence relation** if it is

- reflexive,
- **symmetric**, and
- transitive.
## Sample Equivalence Relations

- Equality: x = y.
- For any graph *G*, the relation  $x \leftrightarrow y$ meaning "x and y are mutually reachable."
- For any integer k, the relation  $x \equiv_k y$  of modular congruence.





































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 $xRy \equiv x$  and y have the same **color**.



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## Equivalence Classes

Given an equivalence relation R over a set A, for any a ∈ A, the equivalence class of a is the set

$$[a]_{\mathbb{R}} \equiv \{ x \mid x \in A \text{ and } a \mathbb{R}x \}$$

- Informally, the set of all elements equal to *a*.
- *R* **partitions** the set *A* into a set of equivalence classes.

How do we prove this?

## Existence and Uniqueness

- The proof we are attempting is a type of proof called an existence and uniqueness proof.
- We need to show that for any  $a \in A$ , there **exists** an equivalence class containing *a* and that this equivalence class is **unique**.
- These are two completely separate steps.

## **Proving Existence**

- To prove **existence**, we need to show that for any  $a \in A$ , that a belongs to at least one equivalence class.
- This is just a proof of an existential statement.
- Can we find an equivalence class containing *a*?

*Proof:* 

- Theorem: Let R be an equivalence relation over a set A. Then every element of A belongs to exactly one equivalence class.
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How do we prove this?

# Proving Uniqueness

- To prove that there is a **unique** object with some property, we can do the following:
  - Consider any two arbitrary objects *x* and *y* with that property.
  - Show that x = y.
  - Conclude, therefore, that there is only one object with that property, and we just gave it two different names.

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Assume that  $a \in [x]_{\mathbb{R}}$  and  $a \in [y]_{\mathbb{R}}$ .

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Assume that  $a \in [x]_{R}$  and  $a \in [y]_{R}$ . Consider any  $t \in [x]_{R}$ . We will show that  $t \in [y]_{R}$ . Since  $t \in [x]_{R}$ , we know *xRt*. Since  $a \in [x]_{R}$ , we have *xRa*. Since *R* is an equivalence relation, *R* is symmetric and transitive. By symmetry, from *xRa* we have *aRx*. By transitivity, from *aRx* and *xRt* we have *aRt*. Since  $a \in [y]_{R}$ , we have *yRa*. By transitivity, from *yRa* and *aRt* we have *yRt*. Thus,  $t \in [y]_{R}$ . Since our choice of *t* was arbitrary, we have  $[x]_{R} \subseteq [y]_{R}$ . Therefore, by our earlier reasoning,  $[x]_{R} = [y]_{R}$ .

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Theorem: Let R be an equivalence relation over a set A. Then every element of A belongs to exactly one equivalence class.

*Proof:* We will show that every  $a \in A$  belongs to at least one equivalence class and to at most one equivalence class.

To see that every  $a \in A$  belongs to at least one equivalence class, consider any  $a \in A$  and the equivalence class  $[a]_R = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ and } aRx\}$ . Since R is an equivalence relation, R is reflexive, so aRa. Thus  $a \in [a]_R$ . Since our choice of a was arbitrary, this means every  $a \in A$  belongs to at least one equivalence class – namely,  $[a]_R$ .

To see that every  $a \in A$  belongs to at most one equivalence class, we show that for any  $a \in A$ , if  $a \in [x]_R$  and  $a \in [y]_R$ , then  $[x]_R = [y]_R$ . To do this, we prove that if  $a \in [x]_R$  and  $a \in [y]_R$ , then  $[x]_R \subseteq [y]_R$ . By swapping  $[x]_R$  and  $[y]_R$ , we can conclude that  $[y]_R \subseteq [x]_R$ , meaning that  $[x]_R = [y]_R$ .

Assume that  $a \in [x]_R$  and  $a \in [y]_R$ . Consider any  $t \in [x]_R$ . We will show that  $t \in [y]_R$ . Since  $t \in [x]_R$ , we know xRt. Since  $a \in [x]_R$ , we have xRa. Since R is an equivalence relation, R is symmetric and transitive. By symmetry, from xRa we have aRx. By transitivity, from aRx and xRt we have aRt. Since  $a \in [y]_R$ , we have yRa. By transitivity, from yRa and aRtwe have yRt. Thus,  $t \in [y]_R$ . Since our choice of t was arbitrary, we have  $[x]_R \subseteq [y]_R$ . Therefore, by our earlier reasoning,  $[x]_R = [y]_R$ . Theorem: Let R be an equivalence relation over a set A. Then every element of A belongs to exactly one equivalence class.

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Since *R* is an equivalence relation, *R* is reflexive, so *aRa*. Thus  $a \in [a]_R$ . Since our choice of *a* was arbitrary, this means every  $a \in A$  belongs to at

This proof helps to justify our definition of equivalence relations. We need all three of the properties we've listed in order for this proof to work, and we don't need any others.

do pping [y]<sub>R</sub>.

Assume that  $a \in [x]_R$  and  $a \in [y]_R$ . Consider any  $t \in [x]_R$ . We will show that  $t \in [y]_R$ . Since  $t \in [x]_R$ , we know xRt. Since  $a \in [x]_R$ , we have xRa. **Since** R is an equivalence relation, R is symmetric and transitive. By symmetry, from xRa we have aRx. By transitivity, from aRx and xRt we have aRt. Since  $a \in [y]_R$ , we have yRa. By transitivity, from yRa and aRtwe have yRt. Thus,  $t \in [y]_R$ . Since our choice of t was arbitrary, we have  $[x]_R \subseteq [y]_R$ . Therefore, by our earlier reasoning,  $[x]_R = [y]_R$ .

## Next Time

#### Order Relations

• How can we rank objects against one another?

#### Functions

• How do we transform objects into one another?

### • Cardinality

- How do we formalize infinite cardinality?
- Cantor's Theorem Revisited
  - Making sense of diagonalization.