

Discrete Mathematics

Lecture 9

Relations and Functions

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Introduction to lecture 9

Relations and functions are fundamental concepts in mathematics and computer science and in particular graph theory. This lecture forms a foundation for the lecture on trees and graph theory in general. Relations can be used to understand and solve problems in communications, networks, relationships between members of a social group among others.

References

These lecture notes have been derived from the following sources (Lipschutz & Lipson, 2007; Rosen, 2012).

Intended Learning Outcomes

At the end of this lecture, you will be able to;

- (i) Explain relations and functions.
- (ii) Apply the concepts in solving problems involving relations and functions.

Introduction to Relations

Relations are structures that are used to represent the relationships between elements of a given set

Relations can be used to solve problems such as;

- (i) Determining which pairs of towns that connected by roads or trains.
- (ii) Determining how a set of computers are networked.
- (iii) Determine the best way to store information in a computer database.

Binary relations

Product sets are examples of binary relations where it is used to express relationship between elements of two sets. For example, let A and B be any two sets. The set of all ordered pairs of (a, b) where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$ is called the product or Cartesian product of A and B i.e.

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) | a \in A, b \in B\}$$

For example, $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}^2$ is the set of ordered pairs of real numbers.

Example 1: Let $A = [2,3]$ and $B = \{a, b, c, d\}$ then;

$$A \times B = \{(2, a), (2, b), (2, c), (2, d), (3, a), (3, b), (3, c), (3, d)\}$$

$$B \times A = \{(a, 2), (a, 3), (b, 2), (b, 3), (c, 2), (c, 3), (d, 2), (d, 3)\}$$

$$A \times A = \{(2,2), (2,3), (3,2), (3,3)\}$$

Note that;

- (i) $A \times B \neq B \times A$
- (ii) The order in which the elements appear matters.
- (iii) $n(A \times B) = n(A) \cdot n(B)$ where $n(A)$ is the cardinality of set A .

For instance, in the example above, $n(A \times B) = 8$ and $n(A) = 2$, $n(B) = 4$ clearly $n(A \times B) = n(A) \cdot n(B)$

In general, for any finite sets A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n the set of all ordered n -tuples $(a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n)$ where $a_1 \in A_1, a_2 \in A_2, \dots, a_n \in A_n$ is called the product of sets A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n denoted;

$$\prod_{i=1}^n A_i = A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n = A^n$$

Definition 1: Let A and B be sets. A binary relation or simply a relation from A to B is a subset of $A \times B$. That is, for each pair $a \in A$ and $b \in B$ exactly one of the following is true;

- (i) $(a, b) \in R$ i.e. 'a is R-related to b' written $a R b$.
- (ii) $(a, b) \notin R$ i.e., 'a is not R-related to b' written $a \not R b$.

Remark 1: If R is a relation from a set A to itself, that is if R is a subset of $A^2 = A \times A$ then we say that R is a relation on A .

Example 1: Let $A = \{1,2\}$ and $B = \{x, y\}$ and $R = \{(1, x), (1, y)\}$ then R is a relation from A to B since R is a subset of $A \times B$. Hence we have $1 R x$, $1 R y$ but $2 \not R x$, $2 \not R y$.

Note that the domain of R is $\{1\}$ and the range of R is $\{x, y\}$.

Example 2: Let $A = \{\text{students in a class}\} = \{\text{Oti, Onyi, Kama, Chris, Njeri}\}$ and B be the set of courses i.e., $B = \{\text{History, Maths, English}\}$. Let R be the relation that consists of the pairs (a,b) where a is a student enrolled in course b . for instance if Oti and Njeri are enrolled in maths then we have (Oti, Maths) and (Njeri, Maths) belong to R .

Examples of Relations

- 1) Set inclusion \subseteq is a relation on any collections of sets e.g., $A \subseteq B$ or $A \not\subseteq B$.
- 2) In the set of integers, we have such relations as $m|n$ i.e., m divides n e.g., $4|12$, $5|25$ but $4 \nmid 17$.
- 3) Functions are relations. Where a function says, f from set X to a set Y assigns exactly one element of Y to each element of X . The graph of f is a set of ordered pairs (x,y) so that $y = f(x)$ which is a subset of $X \times Y$.

Inverse relation

Let R be any relation from set A to set B . The inverse of R denoted R^{-1} is the relation from B to A which consists of ordered pairs which when reversed belong to R i.e., $R^{-1} = \{(y,x) | (x,y) \in R\}$.

Example 1: Let set $A = \{1,2\}$ and $B = \{a,b\}$ then the inverse of $R = \{(1,a), (1,b), (2,a)\}$ is $R^{-1} = \{(a,1), (b,1), (a,2)\}$.

Example 2: Consider a set A with n elements. A relation on the set A is a subset of the $A \times A$. The set $A \times A$ has n^2 elements. The set A with n elements has 2^n subsets, and therefore we can say that $A \times A$ has 2^{n^2} subsets. For instance, if the set $A = \{3, d, f, g\}$ then $A \times A$ has $2^{4^2} = 65536$ relations.

Representation of Relations

a) Matrix of relation

This can be done in a matrix form where we use 1 or 0 if there is a relation or no relation respectively.

For example, let sets $A = \{1,2,3\}$ and $B = \{a, b, c\}$ and $R = \{(1, b), (1, c), (2, c), (3, a)\}$.

Then the matrix of relation is

	a	b	c
1	0	1	1
2	0	0	1
3	1	0	0

In general, if $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\}$ and $B = \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}$ are finite sets containing m and n elements, respectively. R is a relation from A to B then R can be represented by the $m \times n$ matrix $M_R = [m_{ij}]$ i.e.

$$M_R = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (a_i, b_j) \in R \\ 0 & \text{if } (a_i, b_j) \notin R \end{cases}$$

The matrix M_R is called the matrix of R .

Hence for the above example its matrix of relation is; $M_R = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Example 1: Let $M_R = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and let sets $A = \{a, b, c\}$ and $B = \{w, x, y, z\}$. Then by

definition $(a_i, b_j) \in R$ iff $m_{ij} = 1$ thus; $R = \{(a, w), (a, z), (b, x), (b, y), (c, x), (c, z)\}$.

b) Directed graphs/digraphs of R

Relations can be represented using directed graphs, where the elements represent the vertices or nodes of the digraph and the relation between vertices is represented by a directed edge.

Example 1:

Let R be a relation on the set $A = \{1,2,3,4\}$ where $R = \{(1,2), (2,2), (2,4), (3,4), (4,1), (4,3)\}$ then its directed graph is;

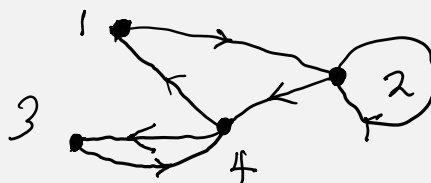


Figure 1: Digraph

Example 2: Let $A = \{1,2,3,4\}$ and $R = \{(1,1), (1,3), (1,4), (2,3), (3,1), (3,4), (4,4), (2,4)\}$. Then the digraph of the relation is;

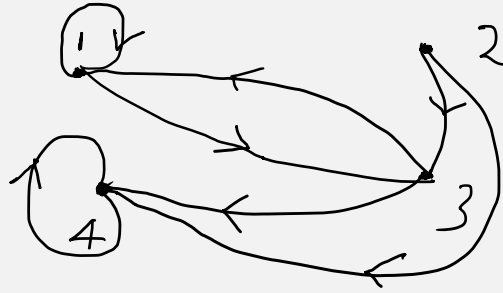


Figure 2: Digraph

Example 3: Find the relation determined by digraph below;

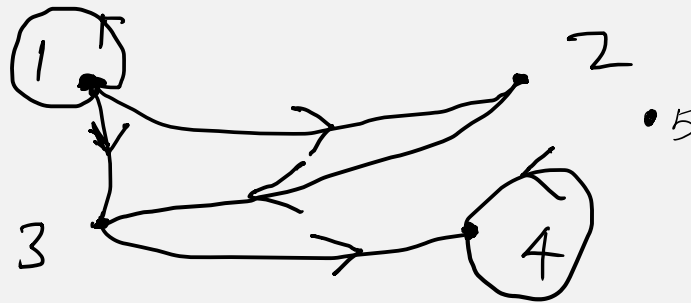


Figure 3: Digraph

Solution: Now let set $A = \{1,2,3,4,5\}$ and $R = \{(1,1), (1,2), (1,3), (2,3), (3,2), (3,4), (4,4)\}$.

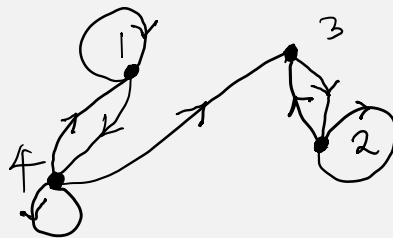
Definition 1: The in-degree of a vertex is the number of edges terminating at the vertex or node or junction, while the out-degree of a vertex is the number of edges leaving a vertex.

Example 1: Let set $A = \{1,2,3,4\}$ and let the relation on A represented by the matrix,

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

Construct the digraph of R and list in-degree and out-degrees of all vertices.

Solution:



Node	1	2	3	4
In-degrees	2	2	2	2
Out-degrees	2	2	1	3

Figure 4: Digraph

c) **Graphs of functions**

Functions are relations and hence can be represented by graphing.

d) **Arrow diagram**

Relations can be represented in an arrow diagram. For example, let sets $A = \{1,2,3\}$ and $B = \{a, b, c\}$ and $R = \{(1, b), (1, c), (2, c), (3, a)\}$.

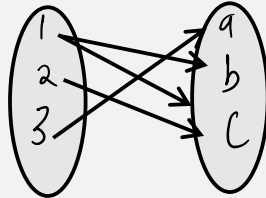


Figure 5: Arrow Diagram

Composition of relations

Definition 1: Let $A, B,$ and C be any non-empty sets. Let R and S represent the relations from A to $B,$ and B to C respectively. In other words, the relation R is a subset of $A \times B$ while the relation S is a subset of $B \times C$. Then the relation from A to C denoted $S \circ R,$ the composition of S and $R,$ is defined as;

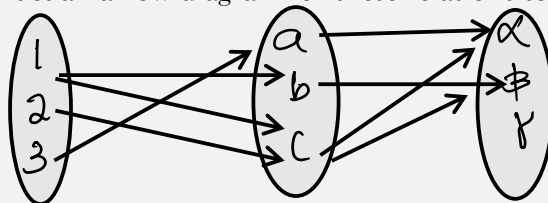
$$a(S \circ R)c$$

If for some $b \in B$ then aRb and $bSc,$ that is,

$$S \circ R = \{(a, c) | \exists b \in B, (a, b) \in R, (b, c) \in S\}$$

Example 1: Consider the sets $A = \{1,2,3\}, B = \{a, b, c\}$ and $C = \{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$ and the relations $R = \{(1, b), (1, c), (3, a), (2, c)\}$ and $S = \{(a, \alpha), (b, \beta), (c, \alpha), (c, \beta)\}$. Determine $S \circ R$.

Solution: We can construct an arrow diagram for these relations to comprehend the composite relation.



From the arrow diagram we get;

$$S \circ R = \{(1, \alpha), (1, \beta), (2, \alpha), (2, \beta), (3, \alpha)\}$$

Alternatively, consider the matrix of relations R and S .

$$M_R = \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}; M_S = \begin{matrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Then } M_R M_S = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The 2 implies that there are two ways from 1 to β . The non-zero entries indicate the relation $S \circ R$ exists.

Types of relations

(i) Reflexive

A relation R on a set A is called reflexive if $(a, a) \in R$ for every element $a \in A$. That is R is reflexive if every element $a \in A$ is related to itself, otherwise it is irreflexive.

Example 1: Consider the set $A = \{a, b, c\}$ and the relations R on the set A namely;

$$R_1 = \{(a, a), (a, b), (a, c), (c, c)\}$$

$$R_2 = \{(a, b), (b, b), (c, c), (a, a), (a, c)\}$$

$$R_3 = \{(a, a), (b, b), (c, a), (c, b)\}$$

Only R_2 is reflexive since we have $(a, a) \in R$, $(b, b) \in R$, $(c, c) \in R$.

Note that the universal relation $A \times A$ is also reflexive.

(ii) Symmetric

A relation R on a set A is symmetric if whenever $a R b$ then $b R a$.

A relation R on a set A is asymmetric if whenever $a R b$ then $b \not R a$ i.e., $(a, b) \in R$ then $(b, a) \notin R$.

A relation R on a set A is antisymmetric if whenever $a R b$ and $b R a$ then $a = b$. Also, R is still antisymmetric if whenever $a \neq b$ then $(a, b) \notin R$ or $(b, a) \notin R$.

Remarks

- Symmetric is not the opposite of antisymmetric.
- A relation can have both of these properties or may lack.
- A relation can be both symmetric and antisymmetric if it contains some pair of the form (a, b) , with $a \neq b$

Example 1: Let $A = \mathbb{Z} = \{\text{set of integers}\}$ and let $R = \{(a, b) \in A \times A \mid a < b\}$ where R is the relation less than. Is R symmetric, asymmetric, or antisymmetric?

Solution:

Symmetry: If $a < b$ then it is not true that $b < a$. Therefore, R is not symmetric.

Asymmetry: If $a < b$ then $b \not< a$ so R is asymmetric.

Antisymmetric: If $a \neq b$ then either $a \not< b$ or $b \not< a$. Therefore, R is antisymmetric.

Example 2: Let $A = \{1,2,3,4\}$ and the relations R on A be as below. Determine which of the relations are symmetric and which are antisymmetric (Rosen, 2012) ;

$$R_1 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (2,1), (2,2), (3,4), (4,1), (4,4)\}$$

$$R_2 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (2,1)\}$$

$$R_3 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (1,4), (2,1), (2,2), (3,3), (4,1), (4,4)\}$$

$$R_4 = \{(2,1), (3,1), (3,2), (4,1), (4,2), (4,3)\}$$

$$R_5 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (1,3), (1,4), (2,2), (2,3), (2,4), (3,3), (3,4), (4,4)\}$$

Solutions: R_1, R_2 and R_3 are symmetric since (b, a) belongs to the relation whenever (a, b) does.

For example $(1, 2)$ and $(2, 1)$ in R_1 and R_2 and $(1, 4)$ and $(4, 1)$ in R_3 .

R_4, R_5 are both antisymmetric i.e., for each of these relations there is no pair of elements a and b with $a \neq b$ such that both (a, b) and (b, a) belong to the relation.

(iii) Transitive

A relation R on a set A is called transitive if whenever $(a, b) \in R$ and $(b, c) \in R$ then $(a, c) \in R$ for all $a, b, c \in A$ i.e. If $a R b$ and $b R c$ then $a R c$.

Example 1: Is the 'divides' relation on set of positive integers transitive?

Solution: Let a divides b and b divides c , does a divides c ?

If a divides b then there exists an m such that $b = am \dots$ (i)

Also, if b divides c then there exists an n such that $c = bn \dots$ (ii)

From (i) and (ii) we have; $c = bn = (am)n = a(mn) \Rightarrow a|c$. Hence 'divides' relation is transitive.

Definition 1: A relation R on a set A is called an equivalence relation if it is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.

Example 1: Let $A = \{1,2,3,4\}$ and $R = \{(1,1), (1,2), (2,1), (2,2), (3,4), (4,3), (3,3), (4,4)\}$ then R is an equivalence relation.

Definition 2: Let A be a set. A partition of A is a subset of A such that every element of A is an element of exactly one of the subsets e.g. sets of odd and even numbers

Functions/Mappings/Transformations

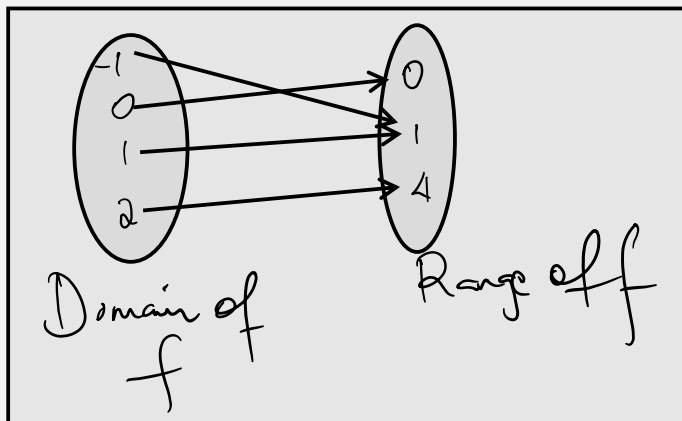
Definition 1: Let X and Y be sets. A function from X to Y is a rule that assigns to each element of X exactly one element of Y . A function is generally denoted with f, g, h etc.

If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ then X is called the Domain of f and Y is the codomain.

If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ the set of images $\{y \in Y: y = f(x) \text{ for some } x \in X\}$ is called the range of f . Note that range is a subset of codomain.

Example 1: Consider the function $f: x \rightarrow x + 1$ where $0 \leq x \leq 3, x \in \mathbb{R}$ then the domain of f is the set $X = \{0,1,2,3\}$ and the range (codomain) is the set $Y = f(x) = \{1,2,3,4\}$.

Definition 2: A function f is onto if its range is equal to its domain e.g., consider the function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, f(x) = x^2$ over $-1 \leq x \leq 2$

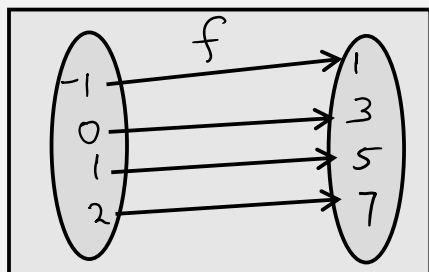


Remark: f is onto if every element of the codomain is the image of at least one element of the domain.

Definition 3: A function f from set A to B is one-to-one if no two distinct elements of the domain have the same image i.e. If $f(a) = f(b)$ then $a = b$.

Definition 4: A function f from set A to set B is onto if $\forall b \in B, \exists a \in A$ such that $f(a) = b$

Example 1: Consider the function $f: x \rightarrow 2x + 3$ over $-1 \leq x \leq 2$



f is 1-1 and onto mapping.

Definition 5: A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is said to be invertible if its inverse relation f^{-1} is also a function. Note that a function is not necessarily invertible.

Theorem 1: Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a function

- (i) Then f^{-1} is a function from B to A iff f is 1-1.
- (ii) If f^{-1} is a function, then the function f^{-1} is also 1-1.
- (iii) f^{-1} is everywhere defined iff f is onto.
- (iv) f^{-1} is onto iff f is everywhere defined.

Remark 1: Let f be a function $f: X \rightarrow Y$. Then we say that f is everywhere defined if $Dom(f) = X$

Theorem 2: A function f has an inverse iff f is onto and 1-1.

Definition 6: (Composite function) Consider the functions $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ i.e., where the codomain of f is domain of g . We define the function from X to Z as the composition of f and g written $f \circ g$ as follows

$$(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x))$$

Definition 7: (Inverse of a function) Let f be 1 – 1 function, then g is the inverse of f denoted f^{-1} if;

- (i) $(f \circ g)(x) = x, \forall x \in D(g)$
- (ii) $(g \circ f)(x) = x, \forall x \in D(f)$

Determining the inverse of a function $y = f(x)$

Steps

- (i) Check if f is 1 – 1
- (ii) If yes, then solve for x i.e. let $x = f^{-1}(y)$.
- (iii) Exchange x and y to get $y = f^{-1}(x)$
- (iv) Check that $(f \circ f^{-1})(x) = x = (f^{-1} \circ f)$

Example 1: Determine whether $f(x) = 5x$ is a 1 – 1 function

Solution: Suppose $f(x) = \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha = 5x \therefore x = \frac{\alpha}{5} \Rightarrow f(x)$ is 1 – 1.

Example 2: Determine if $f(x) = x^2$ is a one-to-one function.

Solution: Let $f(x) = \alpha \therefore \alpha = x^2 \Rightarrow x = \pm\sqrt{\alpha}$. Therefore $f(x)$ is not one-to-one (since we are getting two values of x).

Example 3: If f be defined by $f(x) = x^3 - 2$ and $g(x) = \sqrt[3]{(x + 2)}$. Determine if g is the inverse of f .

Solution:

Step 1: Determine if f is 1-1. Let $f(x) = \alpha \Rightarrow x^3 - 2 = \alpha \therefore x = \sqrt[3]{(x + 2)}$ i.e. f is 1-1.

Step 2: By definition if g is the inverse of f then $(f \circ g)(x) = (g \circ f)(x) = x$.

$$(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x)) = f(\sqrt[3]{(x + 2)}) = (\sqrt[3]{(x + 2)})^3 - 2 = x$$

$$(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) = g(x^3 - 2) = \sqrt[3]{(x^3 - 2) + 2} = x$$

$$\Rightarrow g = f^{-1}$$

Applications of Relations

It is used in relational data model, where a database consists of records that a n-tuples and are made up of fields. Tables are used to show relations in a database. The database query language SQL (Structured Query Language) is used to carry out the operations of relations in a database.

Exercise

1) Determine if f is one-to-one given

a) $f(x) = 2x - 1$

b) $f(x) = \sqrt{81 - x^2}$

2) Find the inverse of the following

a) $f(x) = \frac{2x+7}{3}$

b) $f(x) = 8 - x^2$

c) $g(x) = \frac{11}{x}$

d) $f(x) = \sqrt{13 + 2x}$

3) Attempt the exercise on (Rosen, 2012, p. 581)

References

Lipschutz, S., & Lipson, M. (2007). *Discrete Mathematics*. McGraw-Hill.

Rosen, K. (2012). *Discrete mathematics and its application* (7th ed.). McGraw-Hill.