Outline for Today

• **Binary Relations**
  • Reasoning about connections between objects.

• **Properties of Relations**
  • Certain relations are Interesting and Noteworthy – why?

• **Equivalence Relations**
  • Reasoning about clusters.
Relationships

- In CS103, you've seen examples of relationships between sets:
  \[ A \subseteq B \]

- between numbers:
  \[ x < y \quad x \equiv_k y \quad x \leq y \]

- between people:
  \[ p \text{ loves } q \]

- Since these relations focus on connections between two objects, they are called **binary relations**.
  - The “binary” here means “pertaining to two things,” not “made of zeros and ones.”
What exactly is a binary relation?
10 < 12
5 < -2
$7 \equiv_3 10$
$6 \equiv_3 11$
Binary Relations

- A *binary relation over a set* $A$ is a predicate $R$ that can be applied to ordered pairs of elements drawn from $A$.

- If $R$ is a binary relation over $A$ and it holds for the pair $(a, b)$, we write $aRb$.

  
  $\begin{align*}
  3 = 3 & \quad 5 < 7 & \quad \emptyset \subseteq \mathbb{N} \\
  4 \neq 3 & \quad 4 \prec 3 & \quad \mathbb{N} \subseteq \emptyset
  \end{align*}$

- If $R$ is a binary relation over $A$ and it does not hold for the pair $(a, b)$, we write $a\not Rb$.

  
  $\begin{align*}
  4 \neq 3 & \quad 4 \not< 3 & \quad \mathbb{N} \not\subseteq \emptyset
  \end{align*}$
Properties of Relations

• Generally speaking, if $R$ is a binary relation over a set $A$, the order of the operands is significant.
  • For example, $3 < 5$, but $5 \not< 3$.
  • In some relations order is irrelevant; more on that later.

• Relations are always defined relative to some underlying set.
  • It's not meaningful to ask whether $\odot \subseteq 15$, for example, since $\subseteq$ is defined over sets, not arbitrary objects.
Visualizing Relations

• We can visualize a binary relation $R$ over a set $A$ by drawing the elements of $A$ and drawing an arrow between an element $a$ and an element $b$ if $aRb$ is true.

• Example: the relation $a | b$ (meaning “$a$ divides $b$”) over the set $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ looks like this:
Visualizing Relations

- We can visualize a binary relation \( R \) over a set \( A \) by drawing the elements of \( A \) and drawing an arrow between an element \( a \) and an element \( b \) if \( aRb \) is true.

- Example: the relation \( a \neq b \) over the set \( \{1, 2, 3, 4\} \) looks like this:
Visualizing Relations

- We can visualize a binary relation $R$ over a set $A$ by drawing the elements of $A$ and drawing an arrow between an element $a$ and an element $b$ if $aRb$ is true.
- Example: the relation $a = b$ over the set $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ looks like this:
Visualizing Relations

- We can visualize a binary relation $R$ over a set $A$ by drawing the elements of $A$ and drawing an arrow between an element $a$ and an element $b$ if $aRb$ is true.

- Example: below is some relation over $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ that's a totally valid relation even though there doesn't appear to be a simple unifying rule.

  ![Diagram](image)

  This element does not relate to anything, and nothing relates to it. It’s called an **isolated element**.
Capturing Structure
Capturing Structure

• Binary relations are an excellent way for capturing certain structures that appear in computer science.

• Today, we'll look at one of them (partitions), and next time we'll see another (prerequisites).

• Along the way, we'll explore how to write proofs about definitions given in first-order logic.
Partitions
Partitions

• A *partition of a set* is a way of splitting the set into disjoint, nonempty subsets so that every element belongs to exactly one subset.
  • Two sets are *disjoint* if their intersection is the empty set; formally, sets $S$ and $T$ are disjoint if $S \cap T = \emptyset$.

• Intuitively, a partition of a set breaks the set apart into smaller pieces.

• There doesn't have to be any rhyme or reason to what those pieces are, though often there is one.
Partitions and Clustering

- If you have a set of data, you can often learn something from the data by finding a “good” partition of that data and inspecting the partitions.
  - Usually, the term *clustering* is used in data analysis rather than *partitioning*.
- Interested to learn more? Take CS161 or CS246!
What's the connection between partitions and binary relations?
\( \forall a \in A. \; aRa \)

\( \forall a \in A. \; \forall b \in A. \; (aRb \rightarrow bRa) \)

\( \forall a \in A. \; \forall b \in A. \; \forall c \in A. \; (aRb \land bRc \rightarrow aRc) \)
Reflexivity

• Some relations always hold from any element to itself.

• Examples:
  • $x = x$ for any $x$.
  • $A \subseteq A$ for any set $A$.
  • $\equiv_k x$ for any $x$.

• Relations of this sort are called reflexive.

• Formally speaking, a binary relation $R$ over a set $A$ is reflexive if the following first-order statement is true:

\[
\forall a \in A. \ aRa
\]

(“Every element is related to itself.”)
Reflexivity Visualized

∀a ∈ A. aRa

("Every element is related to itself.")
\(\forall a \in A. \ aRa\)  
(“Every element is related to itself.”)
∀a ∈ A. aRa

("Every element is related to itself.")

This means that R is not reflexive, since the first-order logic statement given below is not true.
∀a ∈ A. aRa

(“Every element is related to itself.”)
Reflexivity is a property of relations, not individual objects.

∀a ∈ ?? . a ⪯ a
∀a ∈ A. aRa

∀a ∈ A. ∀b ∈ A. (aRb → bRa)

∀a ∈ A. ∀b ∈ A. ∀c ∈ A. (aRb ∧ bRc → aRc)
Symmetry

• In some relations, the relative order of the objects doesn't matter.

• Examples:
  • If $x = y$, then $y = x$.
  • If $x \equiv_k y$, then $y \equiv_k x$.

• These relations are called **symmetric**.

• Formally: a binary relation $R$ over a set $A$ is called **symmetric** if the following first-order statement is true about $R$:

\[
\forall a \in A. \forall b \in A. (aRb \rightarrow bRa)
\]

(“If $a$ is related to $b$, then $b$ is related to $a$.”)
∀a ∈ A. ∀b ∈ A. (aRb → bRa)
("If a is related to b, then b is related to a.")
Is This Relation Symmetric?

∀a ∈ A. ∀b ∈ A. (aRb → bRa)
(“If a is related to b, then b is related to a.”)
Is This Relation Symmetric?

∀a ∈ A. ∀b ∈ A. (aRb → bRa)

("If a is related to b, then b is related to a.")

Pro tip: to see if this statement is true, see if its negation is false.
\( \exists a \in A. \exists b \in A. (aRb \land bRa) \)

(“Some \(a\) relates to some \(b\), but not vice-versa”)
$\exists a \in A. \exists b \in A. (aRb \land bRa)$

(“Some a relates to some b, but not vice-versa”)

This element is isolated, so it can’t be a counterexample.
\[\exists a \in A. \exists b \in A. (aRb \land bRa)\]

(“Some a relates to some b, but not vice-versa”)
\[ \forall a \in A. \, aRa \]

\[ \forall a \in A. \forall b \in A. \, (aRb \rightarrow bRa) \]

\[ \forall a \in A. \forall b \in A. \forall c \in A. \, (aRb \land bRc \rightarrow aRc) \]
Transitivity

• Many relations can be chained together.

• Examples:
  • If $x = y$ and $y = z$, then $x = z$.
  • If $R \subseteq S$ and $S \subseteq T$, then $R \subseteq T$.
  • If $x \equiv_k y$ and $y \equiv_k z$, then $x \equiv_k z$.

• These relations are called transitive.

• A binary relation $R$ over a set $A$ is called transitive if the following first-order statement is true about $R$:
  \[
  \forall a \in A. \forall b \in A. \forall c \in A. \ (aRb \land bRc \rightarrow aRc)
  \]
  (“Whenever $a$ is related to $b$ and $b$ is related to $c$, we know $a$ is related to $c$.”)
Transitivity Visualized

\[ \forall a \in A. \forall b \in A. \forall c \in A. (aRb \land bRc \rightarrow aRc) \]

(“Whenever a is related to b and b is related to c, we know a is related to c.”)
Is This Relation Transitive?

\[ \forall a \in A. \forall b \in A. \forall c \in A. (aRb \land bRc \rightarrow aRc) \]

("Whenever a is related to b and b is related to c, we know a is related to c.")
Is This Relation Transitive?

\( \forall a \in A. \forall b \in A. \forall c \in A. (aRb \land bRc \rightarrow a Rc) \)

(“Whenever \( a \) is related to \( b \) and \( b \) is related to \( c \), we know \( a \) is related to \( c \).”)
Equivalence Relations

• An *equivalence relation* is a relation that is reflexive, symmetric and transitive.

• Some examples:
  • $x = y$
  • $x \equiv_k y$
  • $x$ has the same color as $y$
  • $x$ has the same shape as $y$. 
Binary relations give us a *common language* to describe *common structures*. 
Equivalence Relations

- Most modern programming languages include some sort of hash table data structure.
  - Java: HashMap
  - C++: std::unordered_map
  - Python: dict
- If you insert a key/value pair and then try to look up a key, the implementation has to be able to tell whether two keys are equal.
- Although each language has a different mechanism for specifying this, many languages describe them in similar ways...
Equivalence Relations

“The equals method implements an equivalence relation on non-null object references:

- **It is reflexive**: for any non-null reference value \( x \), \( x.equals(x) \) should return true.
- **It is symmetric**: for any non-null reference values \( x \) and \( y \), \( x.equals(y) \) should return true if and only if \( y.equals(x) \) returns true.
- **It is transitive**: for any non-null reference values \( x, y, \) and \( z \), if \( x.equals(y) \) returns true and \( y.equals(z) \) returns true, then \( x.equals(z) \) should return true.”

Java 8 Documentation
Equivalence Relations

“Each unordered associative container is parameterized by Key, by a function object type Hash that meets the Hash requirements (17.6.3.4) and acts as a hash function for argument values of type Key, and by a binary predicate Pred that induces an equivalence relation on values of type Key. Additionally, unordered_map and unordered_multimap associate an arbitrary mapped type T with the Key.”

C++14 ISO Spec, §23.2.5/3
Time-Out for Announcements!
Problem Set One Solutions

• We’ve just released solutions to Problem Set One on the course website (sorry – our printer broke!)

• You need to read over these solutions as soon as possible.

• Why?
  • Each question is there for a reason. We’ve described what it is that we hoped you would have learned when solving those problems.
  • There are lots of different ways of solving these problems. Comparing what you did against our solutions, which are just one possible set of solutions, can help introduce new techniques.
Problem Set Two

• The Problem Set Two checkpoint was due today at 2:30PM.
  • Solutions are available online. *You need to read these solutions* to make sure you understand why each question was there and what the main points were.

• The remaining problems are due Friday at 2:30PM.

• Have questions?
  • Stop by office hours!
  • Ask on Piazza!
Your Questions
“What’s the most important thing for us to leave Stanford knowing?”

I don’t think there’s a single, most important piece of knowledge you should make sure to gain before leaving here. If there were, we’d shout it off of rooftops at all hours of the day. 😊 There are a few things that I think are worth learning while you’re here:

1. A basic understanding of what makes you happy, what your core values are, and what you’re willing to invest your energy doing.

2. That the world is far more exciting and nuanced than it appears to be, and that it is absolutely worth your time to go learn more about it.

3. How to respectfully disagree with someone and question deeply-held beliefs.

4. Lots of interesting, exciting people who you’ll stay in touch with for the rest of your life.

5. That no discipline has a monopoly on truth and that all simple models are wrong.
“What’s the best piece of advice you’ve ever received?”

Again, no clear winners here. But here’s a sampler:

“Celebrate your ignorance, then correct it.” Never be afraid to admit that you don’t know something, and take pleasure in learning new things.

“Never underestimate the value of biological care and maintenance.” You are not a brain in a jar. You are a dynamic, living, breathing human being. So take care of yourself – get into a good exercise routine, eat well, sleep well, spend time with friends, and do what you need to do to recharge.

“You’ve never been lost until you’re lost at Mach 3.” There is a time and a place to face adversity by doubling down and pushing harder. But that approach has its limits, and you need to recognize when you’re pushing yourself too hard.
Back to CS103!
Equivalence Relation Proofs

• Let's suppose you've found a binary relation $R$ over a set $A$ and want to prove that it's an equivalence relation.

• How exactly would you go about doing this?
An Example Relation

• Consider the binary relation ~ defined over the set \( \mathbb{Z} \):
  \[ a \sim b \text{ if } a+b \text{ is even} \]

• Some examples:
  \[ 0 \sim 4 \quad 1 \sim 9 \quad 2 \sim 6 \quad 5 \sim 5 \]

• Turns out, this is an equivalence relation! Let's see how to prove it.

We can binary relations by giving a rule, like this:
  \[ a \sim b \text{ if } \text{ some property of } a \text{ and } b \text{ holds} \]

*This is the general template for defining a relation.* Although we're using “if” rather than “if and only if” here, the above statement means “these two things mean the same thing as one another.” Yes, this is confusing, but it’s a standard convention.
What properties must \( \sim \) have to be an equivalence relation?

**Reflexivity**

**Symmetry**

**Transitivity**

Let's prove each property independently.
Lemma 1: The binary relation ~ is reflexive.

A lemma is a smaller result that’s used to prove a larger theorem. Here, just for simplicity, we’re breaking out the proof that ~ is reflexive into its own separate lemma.
Lemma 1: The binary relation \( \sim \) is reflexive.

Proof:

What is the formal definition of reflexivity?

\[ \forall a \in \mathbb{Z}. \ a \sim a \]

Therefore, we’ll choose an arbitrary integer \( a \), then go prove that \( a \sim a \).
Lemma 1: The binary relation \( \sim \) is reflexive.

Proof: Consider an arbitrary \( a \in \mathbb{Z} \). We need to prove that \( a \sim a \). From the definition of the \( \sim \) relation, this means that we need to prove that \( a + a \) is even.

To see this, notice that \( a + a = 2a \), so the sum \( a + a \) can be written as \( 2k \) for some integer \( k \) (namely, \( a \)), so \( a + a \) is even. Therefore, \( a \sim a \) holds, as required. \( \blacksquare \)
Lemma 2: The binary relation \( \sim \) is symmetric.

Proof:

What is the formal definition of symmetry?

\[ \forall a \in \mathbb{Z}. \forall b \in \mathbb{Z}. (a \sim b \rightarrow b \sim a) \]

Therefore, we'll choose arbitrary integers \( a \) and \( b \) where \( a \sim b \), then prove that \( b \sim a \).
Lemma 2: The binary relation \( \sim \) is symmetric.

Proof: Consider any integers \( a \) and \( b \) where \( a \sim b \). We need to show that \( b \sim a \).

Since \( a \sim b \), we know that \( a+b \) is even. Because \( a+b = b+a \), this means that \( b+a \) is even. Since \( b+a \) is even, we know that \( b \sim a \), as required. \( \blacksquare \)
Lemma 3: The binary relation $\sim$ is transitive.

Proof: Consider arbitrary integers $a$, $b$ and $c$ where $a \sim b$ and $b \sim c$. We need to prove that $a \sim c$, meaning that we need to show that $a+c$ is even.

Since $a \sim b$ and $b \sim c$, we know that $a+b$ and $b+c$ are even. This means there are integers $k$ and $m$ where $a+b = 2k$ and $b+c = 2m$. Notice that

$$(a+b) + (b+c) = 2k + 2m.$$ 

Rearranging, we see that

$$a+c + 2b = 2k + 2m,$$

so

$$a+c = 2k + 2m - 2b = 2(k+m-b).$$

So there is an integer $r$, namely $k+m-b$, such that $a+c = 2r$. Thus $a+c$ is even, so $a \sim c$, as required. ■
An Observation
Lemma 1: The binary relation $\sim$ is reflexive.

Proof: Consider an arbitrary $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. We need to prove that $a \sim a$. From the definition of the $\sim$ relation, this means that we need to prove that $a + a$ is even. 

To see this, notice that $a + a = 2a$, so the sum $a + a$ can be written as $2k$ for some integer $k$ (namely, $a$), so $a + a$ is even. Therefore, $a \sim a$ holds, as required. ■
$a \sim b$ if $a+b$ is even

**Lemma 2:** The binary relation $\sim$ is symmetric.

**Proof:** Consider any integers $a$ and $b$ where $a \sim b$. We need to show that $b \sim a$.

Since $a \sim b$, we know that $a+b$ is even. Because $a+b = b+a$, this means that $b+a$ is even. Since $b+a$ is even, we know that $b \sim a$, as required. ■

The formal definition of symmetry is given in first-order logic, but this proof does not contain any first-order logic symbols!
$a \sim b$ if $a+b$ is even

**Lemma 3:** The binary relation $\sim$ is transitive.

**Proof:** Consider arbitrary integers $a$, $b$ and $c$ where $a \sim b$ and $b \sim c$. We need to prove that $a \sim c$, meaning that we need to show that $a+c$ is even.

Since $a \sim b$ and $b \sim c$, we know that $a+b$ and $b+c$ are even. This means there are integers $k$ and $m$ where $a+b = 2k$ and $b+c = 2m$. Notice that

$$(a+b) + (b+c) = 2k + 2m.$$  

Rearranging, we see that

$$a+c + 2b = 2k + 2m,$$

so

$$a+c = 2k + 2m - 2b.$$

So there is an integer $r$, namely $k+m-b$, such that $a+c = 2r$. Thus $a+c$ is even.

The formal definition of transitivity is given in first-order logic, but this proof does not contain any first-order logic symbols!
First-Order Logic and Proofs

● First-order logic is an excellent tool for giving formal definitions to key terms.

● While first-order logic guides the structure of proofs, it is exceedingly rare to see first-order logic in written proofs.

● Follow the example of these proofs:
  ● Use the FOL definitions to determine what to assume and what to prove.
  ● Write the proof in plain English using the conventions we set up in the first week of the class.

● Please, please, please, please, please, please, please internalize the contents of this slide!
Next Time

• **Properties of Equivalence Relations**
  • Why are equivalence relations so useful?

• **Proofs on Relations**
  • Proving properties of abstract objects.

• **Strict Orders**
  • Representing rankings and requirements.