

Discrete Mathematics and Its Applications

Lecture 6: Discrete Probability: Closures and Equivalence of Relations

MING GAO

DaSE@ECNU

(for course related communications)

mgao@dase.ecnu.edu.cn

Dec. 18, 2018

Outline

- 1 Closures of Relations
- 2 Transitive Closures
- 3 Equivalence Relations
 - Equivalence Classes
 - Equivalence Classes and Partitions
- 4 Partial Orderings
 - Lexicographic Order
 - Hasse Diagrams
 - Maximal and Minimal Elements
 - Lattices
 - Topological Sorting
- 5 Take-aways

Closures of relations

Definition

If there is a relation S with property P (such as reflexivity, symmetry, or transitivity) containing R such that S is a subset of every relation with property P containing R , then S is called the closure of R with respect to P .

Reflexive closure

Question:

What is the reflexive closure of the relation $R = \{(a, b) | a < b\}$ on the set of integers?

Closures of relations

Definition

If there is a relation S with property P (such as reflexivity, symmetry, or transitivity) containing R such that S is a subset of every relation with property P containing R , then S is called the closure of R with respect to P .

Reflexive closure

Question:

What is the reflexive closure of the relation $R = \{(a, b) | a < b\}$ on the set of integers?

Solution:

The reflexive closure of R is

$$R \cup \Delta = \{(a, b) | a < b\} \cup \{(a, a) | a \in Z\} = \{(a, b) | a \leq b\}.$$

Closures of relations Cont'd

Symmetric closure

Question:

What is the symmetric closure of the relation $R = \{(a, b) | a < b\}$ on the set of integers?

Closures of relations Cont'd

Symmetric closure

Question:

What is the symmetric closure of the relation $R = \{(a, b) | a < b\}$ on the set of integers?

Solution:

The symmetric closure of R is

$$R \cup \Delta = \{(a, b) | a < b\} \cup \{(a, b) | a > b\} = \{(a, b) | a \neq b\}.$$

Paths in digraphs

Definition

A **path** from a to b in the directed graph G is a sequence of edges $(x_0, x_1), (x_1, x_2), (x_2, x_3), \dots, (x_{n-1}, x_n)$ in G , where n is a nonnegative integer, and $x_0 = a$ and $x_n = b$. This path is denoted by $a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, b$ and has length n .

A path of length $n \geq 1$ that begins and ends at the same vertex is called a **circuit or cycle**.

- We view the empty set of edges as a path of length zero from a to a .

Paths in digraphs

Definition

A **path** from a to b in the directed graph G is a sequence of edges $(x_0, x_1), (x_1, x_2), (x_2, x_3), \dots, (x_{n-1}, x_n)$ in G , where n is a nonnegative integer, and $x_0 = a$ and $x_n = b$. This path is denoted by $a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, b$ and has length n .

A path of length $n \geq 1$ that begins and ends at the same vertex is called a **circuit or cycle**.

- We view the empty set of edges as a path of length zero from a to a .
- A path in a directed graph can pass through a vertex more than once. Moreover, an edge in a directed graph can occur more than once in a path.

Paths in digraphs

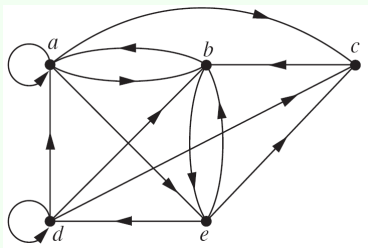
Definition

A **path** from a to b in the directed graph G is a sequence of edges $(x_0, x_1), (x_1, x_2), (x_2, x_3), \dots, (x_{n-1}, x_n)$ in G , where n is a nonnegative integer, and $x_0 = a$ and $x_n = b$. This path is denoted by $a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, b$ and has length n .

A path of length $n \geq 1$ that begins and ends at the same vertex is called a **circuit or cycle**.

- We view the empty set of edges as a path of length zero from a to a .
- A path in a directed graph can pass through a vertex more than once. Moreover, an edge in a directed graph can occur more than once in a path.
- A path in a directed graph is obtained by traversing along edges (in the same direction as indicated by the arrow on the edge).

Example of path



Question:

Which of the following are paths in the directed graph shown in the figure:

- $a, b, e, d;$
- $a, e, d, c, b;$
- $b, a, c, b, a, a, b;$
- $d, c;$
- $c, b, a;$
- $e, b, a, b, a, b, e?$

What are the lengths of those that are paths?

Which of the paths in this list are circuits?

Theorem

Let R be a relation on a set A . There is a path of length n , where n is a positive integer, from a to b if and only if $(a, b) \in R^n$.

Theorem

Let R be a relation on a set A . There is a path of length n , where n is a positive integer, from a to b if and only if $(a, b) \in R^n$.

Proof: (**Mathematical induction:**)

By definition, there is a path from a to b of length one if and only if $(a, b) \in R$, so the theorem is true when $n = 1$.

Theorem

Let R be a relation on a set A . There is a path of length n , where n is a positive integer, from a to b if and only if $(a, b) \in R^n$.

Proof: (**Mathematical induction:**)

By definition, there is a path from a to b of length one if and only if $(a, b) \in R$, so the theorem is true when $n = 1$.

Assume that the theorem is true for the positive integer n .

Theorem

Let R be a relation on a set A . There is a path of length n , where n is a positive integer, from a to b if and only if $(a, b) \in R^n$.

Proof: (**Mathematical induction:**)

By definition, there is a path from a to b of length one if and only if $(a, b) \in R$, so the theorem is true when $n = 1$.

Assume that the theorem is true for the positive integer n . There is a path of length $n+1$ from a to b if and only if there is an element $c \in A$ such that there is a path of length one from a to c , so $(a, c) \in R$, and a path of length n from c to b , that is, $(c, b) \in R^n$.

Theorem

Let R be a relation on a set A . There is a path of length n , where n is a positive integer, from a to b if and only if $(a, b) \in R^n$.

Proof: (**Mathematical induction:**)

By definition, there is a path from a to b of length one if and only if $(a, b) \in R$, so the theorem is true when $n = 1$.

Assume that the theorem is true for the positive integer n . There is a path of length $n+1$ from a to b if and only if there is an element $c \in A$ such that there is a path of length one from a to c , so $(a, c) \in R$, and a path of length n from c to b , that is, $(c, b) \in R^n$. Consequently, by the inductive hypothesis, there is a path of length $n+1$ from a to b if and only if there is an element c with $(a, c) \in R$ and $(c, b) \in R^n$. But there is such an element if and only if $(a, b) \in R^{n+1}$.

Theorem

Let R be a relation on a set A . There is a path of length n , where n is a positive integer, from a to b if and only if $(a, b) \in R^n$.

Proof: (**Mathematical induction:**)

By definition, there is a path from a to b of length one if and only if $(a, b) \in R$, so the theorem is true when $n = 1$.

Assume that the theorem is true for the positive integer n . There is a path of length $n+1$ from a to b if and only if there is an element $c \in A$ such that there is a path of length one from a to c , so $(a, c) \in R$, and a path of length n from c to b , that is, $(c, b) \in R^n$. Consequently, by the inductive hypothesis, there is a path of length $n+1$ from a to b if and only if there is an element c with $(a, c) \in R$ and $(c, b) \in R^n$. But there is such an element if and only if $(a, b) \in R^{n+1}$.

Therefore, there is a path of length $n+1$ from a to b if and only if $(a, b) \in R^{n+1}$. This completes the proof.

Connectivity relation

Definition

Let R be a relation on a set A . The *connectivity relation* R^* consists of the pairs (a, b) such that there is a path of length at least one from a to b in R .

- $R^* = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} R^n$;

Connectivity relation

Definition

Let R be a relation on a set A . The *connectivity relation* R^* consists of the pairs (a, b) such that there is a path of length at least one from a to b in R .

- $R^* = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} R^n$;
- Let R be the relation on the set of all people in the world that contains (a, b) if a has met b .
 - What is R^n , where n is a positive integer greater than one?
 - What is R^* ?

Theorem

The transitive closure of a relation R equals the connectivity relation R^* .

Theorem

The transitive closure of a relation R equals the connectivity relation R^* .

Proof.

Note that $R \subset R^*$. To show that R^* is the transitive closure of R we must also show that R^* is transitive and that $R^* \subset S$ whenever S is a transitive relation that contains R .

Theorem

The transitive closure of a relation R equals the connectivity relation R^* .

Proof.

Note that $R \subset R^*$. To show that R^* is the transitive closure of R we must also show that R^* is transitive and that $R^* \subset S$ whenever S is a transitive relation that contains R .

First, if $(a, b) \in R^*$ and $(b, c) \in R^*$, then $\exists m, n$ s.t. $(a, b) \in R^n$ and $(b, c) \in R^m$. Thus $(a, c) \in R^{m+n} \subset R^*$.

Theorem

The transitive closure of a relation R equals the connectivity relation R^* .

Proof.

Note that $R \subset R^*$. To show that R^* is the transitive closure of R we must also show that R^* is transitive and that $R^* \subset S$ whenever S is a transitive relation that contains R .

First, if $(a, b) \in R^*$ and $(b, c) \in R^*$, then $\exists m, n$ s.t. $(a, b) \in R^n$ and $(b, c) \in R^m$. Thus $(a, c) \in R^{m+n} \subset R^*$.

Now suppose that S is a transitive relation containing R . Because S is transitive, $S^n \subset S$ (by Theorem 1 of previous slides) and S^n also is transitive (why?). Furthermore, because $S^* = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} S^n$ and $S^k \subset S$, it follows that $S^* \subset S$. Now note that if $R \subset S$, then $R^* \subset S^*$, because any path in R is also a path in S . Consequently, $R^* \subset S^* \subset S$. Thus, any transitive relation that contains R must also contain R^* . Therefore, R^* is the transitive closure of R . \square

Lemma

Let R be a relation on set A of n elements. If there is a path of length at least one in R from a to b , then there is such a path with length not exceeding n . Moreover, when $a \neq b$, if there is a path of length at least one in R from a to b , then there is such a path with length not exceeding $n - 1$.

Lemma

Let R be a relation on set A of n elements. If there is a path of length at least one in R from a to b , then there is such a path with length not exceeding n . Moreover, when $a \neq b$, if there is a path of length at least one in R from a to b , then there is such a path with length not exceeding $n - 1$.

Proof: Let m be the length of the shortest path from a to b in R , namely, $x_0 = a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m = b$.

Lemma

Let R be a relation on set A of n elements. If there is a path of length at least one in R from a to b , then there is such a path with length not exceeding n . Moreover, when $a \neq b$, if there is a path of length at least one in R from a to b , then there is such a path with length not exceeding $n - 1$.

Proof: Let m be the length of the shortest path from a to b in R , namely, $x_0 = a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m = b$.

If $a = b$ and $m > n$, i.e., $m \geq n + 1$. By the pigeonhole principle, because there are n vertices in A , among the m vertices at least two are equal. Suppose that $x_i = x_j$ with $0 \leq i < j \leq m - 1$. Then the path contains a circuit from x_i to itself. This circuit can be deleted from the path from a to b , leaving a path, namely, $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_i, x_{j+1}, \dots, x_m$, from a to b of shorter length. Hence, the length of shortest path must have length less than or equal to n .

Lemma

Let R be a relation on set A of n elements. If there is a path of length at least one in R from a to b , then there is such a path with length not exceeding n . Moreover, when $a \neq b$, if there is a path of length at least one in R from a to b , then there is such a path with length not exceeding $n - 1$.

Proof: Let m be the length of the shortest path from a to b in R , namely, $x_0 = a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m = b$.

If $a = b$ and $m > n$, i.e., $m \geq n + 1$. By the pigeonhole principle, because there are n vertices in A , among the m vertices at least two are equal. Suppose that $x_i = x_j$ with $0 \leq i < j \leq m - 1$. Then the path contains a circuit from x_i to itself. This circuit can be deleted from the path from a to b , leaving a path, namely, $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_i, x_{j+1}, \dots, x_m$, from a to b of shorter length. Hence, the length of shortest path must have length less than or equal to n . The case where $a \neq b$ is left as an exercise.

Theorem

From the above lemma, we have

$$R^* = \bigcup_{k=1}^n R^k$$

Theorem

Let M_R be the zero-one matrix of the relation R on a set with n elements. Then the zero-one matrix of the transitive closure R^* is

$$M_{R^*} = M_R \vee M_R^{[2]} \vee M_R^{[3]} \vee \cdots \vee M_R^{[n]}.$$

Example

Question:

Find the zero-one matrix of the transitive closure of the relation R where

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

Example

Question:

Find the zero-one matrix of the transitive closure of the relation R where

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

Solution:

The zero-one matrix of the transitive closure of R is

$$M_{R^*} = M_R \vee M_R^{[2]} \vee M_R^{[3]}.$$

Example

Question:

Find the zero-one matrix of the transitive closure of the relation R where

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

Solution:

The zero-one matrix of the transitive closure of R is

$$M_{R^*} = M_R \vee M_R^{[2]} \vee M_R^{[3]}.$$

We have,

$$M_R^{[2]} = M_R^{[3]} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, M_R^* = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Algorithm

ALGORITHM 1 A Procedure for Computing the Transitive Closure.

procedure *transitive closure* (\mathbf{M}_R : zero-one $n \times n$ matrix)

$\mathbf{A} := \mathbf{M}_R$

$\mathbf{B} := \mathbf{A}$

for $i := 2$ **to** n

$\mathbf{A} := \mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{M}_R$

$\mathbf{B} := \mathbf{B} \vee \mathbf{A}$

return \mathbf{B} { \mathbf{B} is the zero-one matrix for R^* }

Algorithm

ALGORITHM 1 A Procedure for Computing the Transitive Closure.

procedure *transitive closure* (\mathbf{M}_R : zero-one $n \times n$ matrix)

$\mathbf{A} := \mathbf{M}_R$

$\mathbf{B} := \mathbf{A}$

for $i := 2$ **to** n

$\mathbf{A} := \mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{M}_R$

$\mathbf{B} := \mathbf{B} \vee \mathbf{A}$

return \mathbf{B} { \mathbf{B} is the zero-one matrix for R^* }

- A Boolean products can be found in $n^2(2n - 1)$ bit operations;
- $M_R^{[n]}$ requires that $n - 1$ Boolean products of $n \times n$ zeroOne matrices be found;
- Computing M_{R^*} needs $(n - 1)n^2$ bit operations.
- Overall, the algorithms is $O(n^4)$ bit operations.

Interior vertices

Interior vertices

If $a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{m-1}, b$ is a path, vertices x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{m-1} are **interior vertices** of (a, b) .

Interior vertices

Interior vertices

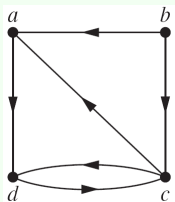
If $a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{m-1}, b$ is a path, vertices x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{m-1} are **interior vertices** of (a, b) .

We define a sequence of zero-one matrices, namely $W_0 = M_R$ and $W_k = [w_{ij}^k]$, where

$$w_{ij}^k = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{all interior vertices of } (v_i, v_j) \text{ are in } \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}; \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Note that $W_n = M_{R^*}$, because the (i, j) -th entry of M_{R^*} is 1 if and only if there is a path from v_i to v_j , with all interior vertices in $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$.

Example of W_k

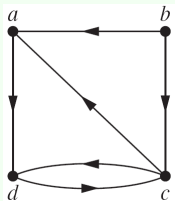


Question: Find the matrices W_0, W_1, W_2, W_3 , and W_4 for the relation R with the digraph in the figure.

$$W_0 = M_R =$$

v_1	a	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
v_2	b	
v_3	c	
v_4	d	

Example of W_k



Question: Find the matrices W_0, W_1, W_2, W_3 , and W_4 for the relation R with the digraph in the figure.

$$W_0 = M_R =$$

v_1	a	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
v_2	b	
v_3	c	
v_4	d	

$$W_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, W_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Example of W_k Cont'd

$$W_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, W_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus, we have

$$M_{R^*} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Lemma

Let $W_k = [w_{ij}^{[k]}]$ be the zero-one matrix that has a 1 in its (i, j) th position if and only if there is a path from v_i to v_j with interior vertices from the set $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$. Then

$$w_{ij}^{[k]} = w_{ij}^{[k-1]} \vee (w_{ik}^{[k-1]} \wedge w_{kj}^{[k-1]}),$$

whenever i, j , and k are positive integers not exceeding n .

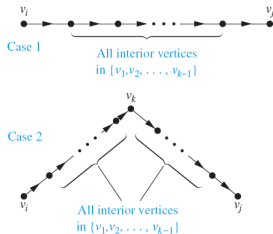
Lemma

Let $W_k = [w_{ij}^{[k]}]$ be the zero-one matrix that has a 1 in its (i, j) th position if and only if there is a path from v_i to v_j with interior vertices from the set $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$. Then

$$w_{ij}^{[k]} = w_{ij}^{[k-1]} \vee (w_{ik}^{[k-1]} \wedge w_{kj}^{[k-1]}),$$

whenever i, j , and k are positive integers not exceeding n .

Proof.



Either a path from v_i to v_j already existed before v_k was permitted as an interior vertex, or allowing v_k as an interior vertex produces a path that goes from v_i to v_k and then from v_k to v_j . These two cases are shown in the figure.

Warshall's Algorithm

ALGORITHM 2 Warshall Algorithm.

```
procedure Warshall ( $\mathbf{M}_R : n \times n$  zero-one matrix)
 $\mathbf{W} := \mathbf{M}_R$ 
for  $k := 1$  to  $n$ 
    for  $i := 1$  to  $n$ 
        for  $j := 1$  to  $n$ 
             $w_{ij} := w_{ij} \vee (w_{ik} \wedge w_{kj})$ 
return  $\mathbf{W}$  { $\mathbf{W} = [w_{ij}]$  is  $\mathbf{M}_{R^*}$ }
```


Warshall's Algorithm

ALGORITHM 2 Warshall Algorithm.

```

procedure Warshall ( $\mathbf{M}_R : n \times n$  zero-one matrix)
 $\mathbf{W} := \mathbf{M}_R$ 
for  $k := 1$  to  $n$ 
    for  $i := 1$  to  $n$ 
        for  $j := 1$  to  $n$ 
             $w_{ij} := w_{ij} \vee (w_{ik} \wedge w_{kj})$ 
return  $\mathbf{W}$  { $\mathbf{W} = [w_{ij}]$  is  $\mathbf{M}_{R^*}$ }
  
```

- To find all n^2 entries of W_k from those of W_{k-1} requires $2n^2$ bit operations.;
- The algorithm computes the sequence of n zero-one matrices $W_1, W_2, \dots, W_n = M_{R^*}$, the total number of bit operations used is $n \cdot 2n^2 = 2n^3$.

Equivalence relations

Definition

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

Two elements a and b that are related by an equivalence relation are called **equivalent**. The notation $a \sim b$ is often used to denote that a and b are equivalent elements with respect to a particular equivalence relation.

- Every element should be equivalent to itself;
- a is related to b , and b is related to a by the symmetric property;
- If a and b are equivalent and b and c are equivalent, it follows that a and c are equivalent.

Examples

Let R be the relation on the set of integers such that aRb if and only if $a = b$ or $a = -b$. Is R an equivalence relation?

Examples

Let R be the relation on the set of integers such that aRb if and only if $a = b$ or $a = -b$. Is R an equivalence relation?

Let R be the relation on the set of real numbers such that aRb if and only if $a - b$ is an integer. Is R an equivalence relation?

Examples

Let R be the relation on the set of integers such that aRb if and only if $a = b$ or $a = -b$. Is R an equivalence relation?

Let R be the relation on the set of real numbers such that aRb if and only if $a - b$ is an integer. Is R an equivalence relation?

Let m be an integer with $m > 1$. Show that the relation

$$R = \{(a, b) | a \equiv b \pmod{m}\}$$

is an equivalence relation on the set of integers.

Examples

Let R be the relation on the set of integers such that aRb if and only if $a = b$ or $a = -b$. Is R an equivalence relation?

Let R be the relation on the set of real numbers such that aRb if and only if $a - b$ is an integer. Is R an equivalence relation?

Let m be an integer with $m > 1$. Show that the relation

$$R = \{(a, b) | a \equiv b \pmod{m}\}$$

is an equivalence relation on the set of integers.

Let R be the relation on the set of real numbers such that xRy if and only if x and y are real numbers that differ by less than 1, that is $|x - y| < 1$. Show that R is not an equivalence relation.

Equivalence Classes

Definition

Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A . The set of all elements that are related to an element a of A is called the **equivalence class** of a . The equivalence class of a with respect to R is denoted by $[a]_R$. When only one relation is under consideration, we can delete the subscript R and write $[a]$ for this equivalence class.



$$[a]_R = \{s \mid (a, s) \in R\};$$

- If $b \in [a]_R$, then b is called a **representative** of this equivalence class;
- Any element of a class can be used as a representative of this class.

Examples

Question: What is the equivalence class of an integer for R such that aRb if and only if $a = b$ or $a = -b$?

Solution: $[a] = \{a, -a\}$.

Examples

Question: What is the equivalence class of an integer for R such that aRb if and only if $a = b$ or $a = -b$?

Solution: $[a] = \{a, -a\}$.

Question: What are the equivalence classes of 0 and 1 for congruence modulo 4?

Solution: $[0] = \{\dots, -8, -4, 0, 4, 8, \dots\}$,
 $[1] = \{\dots, -7, -3, 1, 5, 9, \dots\}$.

Examples

Question: What is the equivalence class of an integer for R such that aRb if and only if $a = b$ or $a = -b$?

Solution: $[a] = \{a, -a\}$.

Question: What are the equivalence classes of 0 and 1 for congruence modulo 4?

Solution: $[0] = \{\dots, -8, -4, 0, 4, 8, \dots\}$,
 $[1] = \{\dots, -7, -3, 1, 5, 9, \dots\}$.

Let m be an integer with $m > 1$. Show that the relation

$$R = \{(a, b) | a \equiv b \pmod{m}\}$$

is an equivalence relation on the set of integers.

Theorem

Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A . These statements for elements a and b of A are equivalent:

- (i) aRb ;
- (ii) $[a] = [b]$;
- (iii) $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$.

Theorem

Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A . These statements for elements a and b of A are equivalent:

- (i) aRb ;
- (ii) $[a] = [b]$;
- (iii) $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$.

Proof.

(i) \Rightarrow (ii):

Assume that aRb and $c \in [a]$.

Theorem

Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A . These statements for elements a and b of A are equivalent:

- (i) aRb ;
- (ii) $[a] = [b]$;
- (iii) $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$.

Proof.

(i) \Rightarrow (ii):

Assume that aRb and $c \in [a]$.

Because R is symmetric and transitive, we know bRa and aRc , it further follows that bRc . Hence, $c \in [b]$, i.e., $[a] \subset [b]$.

Similarly, we can know that $[b] \subset [a]$.

Thus, we have $[a] = [b]$, completing the proof of this statement. \square

Proof Cont'd

Proof.

(ii) \Rightarrow (iii):

Assume that $[a] = [b]$.

Proof Cont'd

Proof.

(ii) \Rightarrow (iii):

Assume that $[a] = [b]$. First $[a]$ is nonempty because $a \in [a]$ (because R is reflexive).

Proof Cont'd

Proof.

(ii) \Rightarrow (iii):

Assume that $[a] = [b]$. First $[a]$ is nonempty because $a \in [a]$ (because R is reflexive).

Thus $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$.

(iii) \Rightarrow (i):

Suppose that $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$. Then there is an element c with $c \in [a]$ and $c \in [b]$.

Proof Cont'd

Proof.

(ii) \Rightarrow (iii):

Assume that $[a] = [b]$. First $[a]$ is nonempty because $a \in [a]$ (because R is reflexive).

Thus $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$.

(iii) \Rightarrow (i):

Suppose that $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$. Then there is an element c with $c \in [a]$ and $c \in [b]$.

In other words, aRc and bRc . By the symmetric property, cRb .

Proof Cont'd

Proof.

(ii) \Rightarrow (iii):

Assume that $[a] = [b]$. First $[a]$ is nonempty because $a \in [a]$ (because R is reflexive).

Thus $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$.

(iii) \Rightarrow (i):

Suppose that $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$. Then there is an element c with $c \in [a]$ and $c \in [b]$.

In other words, aRc and bRc . By the symmetric property, cRb .

Then by transitivity, because aRc and cRb , we have aRb . \square

Note that

- $\bigcup_{a \in A} [a]_R = A$;
- $[a] = [b]$ or $[a] \cap [b] = \emptyset$.

Partition

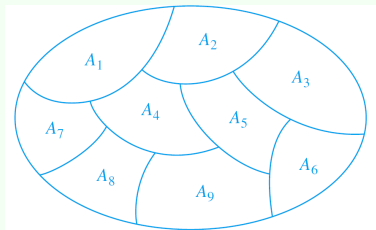
Definition

A *partition* of a set S is a collection of disjoint nonempty subsets of S that have S as their union.

Partition

Definition

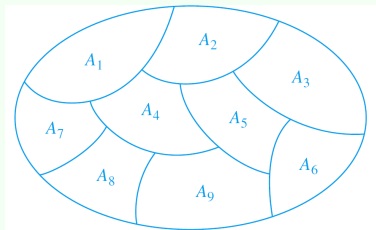
A *partition* of a set S is a collection of disjoint nonempty subsets of S that have S as their union.



Partition

Definition

A *partition* of a set S is a collection of disjoint nonempty subsets of S that have S as their union.



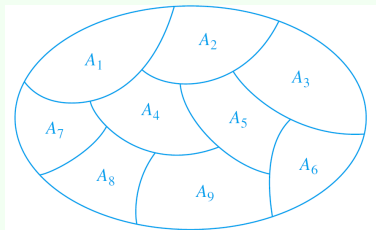
That is, the collection of subsets A_i , $i \in I$ (where I is an index set) forms a partition of S if and only if

- $A_i \neq \emptyset$ for $i \in I$;
- $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ when $i \neq j$;
- $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i = S$.

Partition

Definition

A *partition* of a set S is a collection of disjoint nonempty subsets of S that have S as their union.



That is, the collection of subsets A_i , $i \in I$ (where I is an index set) forms a partition of S if and only if

- $A_i \neq \emptyset$ for $i \in I$;
 - $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ when $i \neq j$;
 - $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i = S$.
-
- The equivalence classes of an equivalence relation on a set form a partition of the set.
 - Conversely, every partition of a set can be used to form an equivalence relation?

Theorem

Let R be an equivalence relation on S . Then the equivalence classes of R form a partition of S . Conversely, given a partition $\{A_i | i \in I\}$ of S , there is an equivalence relation R that has $A_i, i \in I$, as its equivalence classes.

Theorem

Let R be an equivalence relation on S . Then the equivalence classes of R form a partition of S . Conversely, given a partition $\{A_i | i \in I\}$ of S , there is an equivalence relation R that has $A_i, i \in I$, as its equivalence classes.

Proof: \Rightarrow : (Obvious)

Theorem

Let R be an equivalence relation on S . Then the equivalence classes of R form a partition of S . Conversely, given a partition $\{A_i | i \in I\}$ of S , there is an equivalence relation R that has $A_i, i \in I$, as its equivalence classes.

Proof: \Rightarrow : (Obvious)

\Leftarrow : Assume that $\{A_i | i \in I\}$ is a partition on S and R is the relation on S consisting of the pairs $(x, y) \in A_i$.

Theorem

Let R be an equivalence relation on S . Then the equivalence classes of R form a partition of S . Conversely, given a partition $\{A_i | i \in I\}$ of S , there is an equivalence relation R that has $A_i, i \in I$, as its equivalence classes.

Proof: \Rightarrow : (Obvious)

\Leftarrow : Assume that $\{A_i | i \in I\}$ is a partition on S and R is the relation on S consisting of the pairs $(x, y) \in A_i$.

- Since $(a, a) \in R$ for every $a \in S$, because a is in the same subset as itself. Hence, R is reflexive;
- If $(a, b) \in R$, then b and a are in the same subset of the partition, so that $(b, a) \in R$ as well. Hence, R is symmetric.
- If $(a, b) \in R$ and $(b, c) \in R$, then a and b are in the same subset X in the partition, and b and c are in the same subset X of the partition. Consequently, a and c belong to the same subset of the partition, so $(a, c) \in R$. Thus, R is transitive.

Example I

What are the sets in the partition of the integers arising from congruence modulo 4?

Example I

What are the sets in the partition of the integers arising from congruence modulo 4?

$$[0]_4 = \{\dots, -8, -4, 0, 4, 8, \dots\},$$

$$[1]_4 = \{\dots, -7, -3, 1, 5, 9, \dots\},$$

$$[2]_4 = \{\dots, -6, -2, 2, 6, 10, \dots\},$$

$$[3]_4 = \{\dots, -5, -1, 3, 7, 11, \dots\},$$

Example I

What are the sets in the partition of the integers arising from congruence modulo 4?

$$[0]_4 = \{\cdots, -8, -4, 0, 4, 8, \cdots\},$$

$$[1]_4 = \{\cdots, -7, -3, 1, 5, 9, \cdots\},$$

$$[2]_4 = \{\cdots, -6, -2, 2, 6, 10, \cdots\},$$

$$[3]_4 = \{\cdots, -5, -1, 3, 7, 11, \cdots\},$$

The congruence classes modulo m provide a useful illustration of Theorem 2. There are m different congruence classes modulo m , corresponding to the m different remainders possible when an integer is divided by m . These m congruence classes are denoted by $[0]_m, [1]_m, \cdots, [m-1]_m$. They form a partition of the set of integers.

Example II

Let n be a positive integer and S a set of strings. Suppose that R_n is the relation on S such that sR_nt if and only if $s = t$, or both s and t have at least n characters and the first n characters of s and t are the same. What are the sets in the partition given by R_3 ?

Example II

Let n be a positive integer and S a set of strings. Suppose that R_n is the relation on S such that sR_nt if and only if $s = t$, or both s and t have at least n characters and the first n characters of s and t are the same. What are the sets in the partition given by R_3 ?

Solution: Note that every bit string of length less than three is equivalent to itself. Hence $[\lambda]_{R_3} = \{\lambda\}$, $[0]_{R_3} = \{0\}$, $[1]_{R_3} = \{1\}$, $[00]_{R_3} = \{00\}$, $[01]_{R_3} = \{01\}$, $[10]_{R_3} = \{10\}$, and $[11]_{R_3} = \{11\}$.

Example II

Let n be a positive integer and S a set of strings. Suppose that R_n is the relation on S such that sR_nt if and only if $s = t$, or both s and t have at least n characters and the first n characters of s and t are the same. What are the sets in the partition given by R_3 ?

Solution: Note that every bit string of length less than three is equivalent to itself. Hence $[\lambda]_{R_3} = \{\lambda\}$, $[0]_{R_3} = \{0\}$, $[1]_{R_3} = \{1\}$, $[00]_{R_3} = \{00\}$, $[01]_{R_3} = \{01\}$, $[10]_{R_3} = \{10\}$, and $[11]_{R_3} = \{11\}$.

$$[000]_{R_3} = \{000, 0000, 0001, 00000, 00001, 00010, 00011, \dots\},$$

$$[001]_{R_3} = \{001, 0010, 0011, 00100, 00101, 00110, 00111, \dots\},$$

$$[010]_{R_3} = \{010, 0100, 0101, 01000, 01001, 01010, 01011, \dots\},$$

$$[011]_{R_3} = \{011, 0110, 0111, 01100, 01101, 01110, 01111, \dots\},$$

$$[100]_{R_3} = \{100, 1000, 1001, 10000, 10001, 10010, 10011, \dots\},$$

$$[101]_{R_3} = \{101, 1010, 1011, 10100, 10101, 10110, 10111, \dots\},$$

$$[110]_{R_3} = \{110, 1100, 1101, 11000, 11001, 11010, 11011, \dots\},$$

$$[111]_{R_3} = \{111, 1110, 1111, 11100, 11101, 11110, 11111, \dots\}.$$

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 S 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.

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 S 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.

- We often use relations to order some or all of the elements of sets;
- $(a, b) \in R \rightarrow (b, a) \notin R$, otherwise $a = b$;
- $\forall a \in S, (a, a) \in R$;
- $\forall a \forall b \forall c ((a, b) \in R, (b, c) \in R \rightarrow (a, c) \in R)$.

Examples

Show that the “greater than or equal” relation (\geq) is a partial ordering on the set of integers.

Examples

Show that the “greater than or equal” relation (\geq) is a partial ordering on the set of integers.

Show that the divisibility relation $|$ is a partial ordering on the set of positive integers.

Examples

Show that the “greater than or equal” relation (\geq) is a partial ordering on the set of integers.

Show that the divisibility relation $|$ is a partial ordering on the set of positive integers.

Show that the inclusion relation \subseteq is a partial ordering on the power set of a set S .

Examples

Show that the “greater than or equal” relation (\geq) is a partial ordering on the set of integers.

Show that the divisibility relation $|$ is a partial ordering on the set of positive integers.

Show that the inclusion relation \subseteq is a partial ordering on the power set of a set S .

Let R be the relation on the set of people such that xRy if x and y are people and x is older than y . Show that R is not a partial ordering.

Customarily, the notation $a \preceq b$ is used to denote that $(a, b) \in R$ in an arbitrary poset (S, R) . ($a \prec b$ denotes $a \preceq b$, but $a \neq b$)

Comparable

Definition

The elements a and b of a poset (S, \preceq) are called **comparable** if either $a \preceq b$ or $b \preceq a$. When a and b are elements of S such that neither $a \preceq b$ nor $b \preceq a$, a and b are called **incomparable**.

Comparable

Definition

The elements a and b of a poset (S, \preceq) are called **comparable** if either $a \preceq b$ or $b \preceq a$. When a and b are elements of S such that neither $a \preceq b$ nor $b \preceq a$, a and b are called **incomparable**.

- In the poset $(\mathbb{Z}^+, |)$, are the integers 3 and 9 comparable? Are 5 and 7 comparable?

Comparable

Definition

The elements a and b of a poset (S, \preceq) are called **comparable** if either $a \preceq b$ or $b \preceq a$. When a and b are elements of S such that neither $a \preceq b$ nor $b \preceq a$, a and b are called **incomparable**.

- In the poset $(\mathbb{Z}^+, |)$, are the integers 3 and 9 comparable? Are 5 and 7 comparable?
- The poset $(\mathbb{Z}^+, |)$ is not totally ordered because it contains elements that are incomparable, such as 5 and 7.

Comparable

Definition

The elements a and b of a poset (S, \preceq) are called **comparable** if either $a \preceq b$ or $b \preceq a$. When a and b are elements of S such that neither $a \preceq b$ nor $b \preceq a$, a and b are called **incomparable**.

- In the poset $(\mathbb{Z}^+, |)$, are the integers 3 and 9 comparable? Are 5 and 7 comparable?
- The poset $(\mathbb{Z}^+, |)$ is not totally ordered because it contains elements that are incomparable, such as 5 and 7.
- The set of ordered pairs $\mathbb{Z}^+ \times \mathbb{Z}^+$ with $(a_1, a_2) \preceq (b_1, b_2)$ if $a_1 < b_1$, or if $a_1 = b_1$ and $a_2 \leq b_2$ (the lexicographic ordering), is a well-ordered set. How about $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$?

Totally ordered

Definition

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

Totally ordered

Definition

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

- The poset (\mathbb{Z}, \leq) is totally ordered, because $a \leq b$ or $b \leq a$ whenever a and b are integers.

Totally ordered

Definition

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

- The poset (\mathbb{Z}, \leq) is totally ordered, because $a \leq b$ or $b \leq a$ whenever a and b are integers.
- The adjective “partial” is used to describe partial orderings because pairs of elements may be incomparable.

Totally ordered

Definition

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

- The poset (\mathbb{Z}, \leq) is totally ordered, because $a \leq b$ or $b \leq a$ whenever a and b are integers.
- The adjective “partial” is used to describe partial orderings because pairs of elements may be incomparable.
- When every two elements in the set are comparable, the relation is called a total ordering.

Totally ordered

Definition

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

- The poset (\mathbb{Z}, \leq) is totally ordered, because $a \leq b$ or $b \leq a$ whenever a and b are integers.
- The adjective “partial” is used to describe partial orderings because pairs of elements may be incomparable.
- When every two elements in the set are comparable, the relation is called a total ordering.
- (S, \preceq) is a **well-ordered set** if it is a poset such that \preceq is a total ordering and every nonempty subset of S has a least element.

The principle of well-ordered induction

Theorem

Suppose that S is a well-ordered set. Then $P(x)$ is true for all $x \in S$, if

INDUCTIVE STEP: For every $y \in S$, if $P(x)$ is true for all $x \in S$ with $x \prec y$, then $P(y)$ is true.

The principle of well-ordered induction

Theorem

Suppose that S is a well-ordered set. Then $P(x)$ is true for all $x \in S$, if

INDUCTIVE STEP: For every $y \in S$, if $P(x)$ is true for all $x \in S$ with $x \prec y$, then $P(y)$ is true.

Proof.

Suppose it is not the case that $P(x)$ is true for all $x \in S$, i.e., there is an element $y \in S$ such that $P(y)$ is false.

The principle of well-ordered induction

Theorem

Suppose that S is a well-ordered set. Then $P(x)$ is true for all $x \in S$, if

INDUCTIVE STEP: For every $y \in S$, if $P(x)$ is true for all $x \in S$ with $x \prec y$, then $P(y)$ is true.

Proof.

Suppose it is not the case that $P(x)$ is true for all $x \in S$, i.e., there is an element $y \in S$ such that $P(y)$ is false.

Consequently, the set $A = \{x \in S \mid P(x) \text{ is false}\}$ is nonempty.

The principle of well-ordered induction

Theorem

Suppose that S is a well-ordered set. Then $P(x)$ is true for all $x \in S$, if

INDUCTIVE STEP: For every $y \in S$, if $P(x)$ is true for all $x \in S$ with $x \prec y$, then $P(y)$ is true.

Proof.

Suppose it is not the case that $P(x)$ is true for all $x \in S$, i.e., there is an element $y \in S$ such that $P(y)$ is false.

Consequently, the set $A = \{x \in S \mid P(x) \text{ is false}\}$ is nonempty.

Because S is well ordered, A has a least element a . By the choice of a as a least element of A , we know that $P(x)$ is true for all $x \in S$ with $x \prec a$. This implies by the inductive step $P(a)$ is true.

The principle of well-ordered induction

Theorem

Suppose that S is a well-ordered set. Then $P(x)$ is true for all $x \in S$, if

INDUCTIVE STEP: For every $y \in S$, if $P(x)$ is true for all $x \in S$ with $x \prec y$, then $P(y)$ is true.

Proof.

Suppose it is not the case that $P(x)$ is true for all $x \in S$, i.e., there is an element $y \in S$ such that $P(y)$ is false.

Consequently, the set $A = \{x \in S \mid P(x) \text{ is false}\}$ is nonempty.

Because S is well ordered, A has a least element a . By the choice of a as a least element of A , we know that $P(x)$ is true for all $x \in S$ with $x \prec a$. This implies by the inductive step $P(a)$ is true.

This contradiction shows that $P(x)$ must be true for all $x \in S$. \square

Lexicographic ordering

Definition

A **lexicographic ordering** can be defined on the cartesian product of n posets (A_i, \preceq_i) for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Define the partial ordering \preceq on $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$ by $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \prec (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$ if $a_1 \prec_1 b_1$, or if there is an integer $i > 0$ such that $a_1 = b_1, \dots, a_i = b_i$, and $a_{i+1} \prec_{i+1} b_{i+1}$.

Lexicographic ordering

Definition

A **lexicographic ordering** can be defined on the cartesian product of n posets (A_i, \preceq_i) for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Define the partial ordering \preceq on $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$ by $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \prec (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$ if $a_1 \prec_1 b_1$, or if there is an integer $i > 0$ such that $a_1 = b_1, \dots, a_i = b_i$, and $a_{i+1} \prec_{i+1} b_{i+1}$.

- Let (A_1, \preceq_1) and (A_2, \preceq_2) be two posets. The **lexicographic ordering** \preceq on $A_1 \times A_2$ is defined by $(a_1, a_2) \prec (b_1, b_2)$, either if $a_1 \prec_1 b_1$ or if both $a_1 = b_1$ and $a_2 \prec_2 b_2$.

Lexicographic ordering

Definition

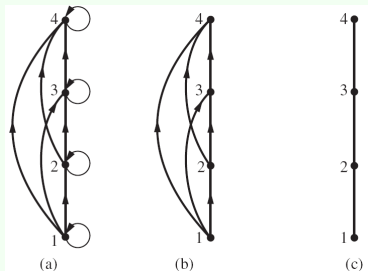
A **lexicographic ordering** can be defined on the cartesian product of n posets (A_i, \preceq_i) for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Define the partial ordering \preceq on $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$ by $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \prec (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$ if $a_1 \prec_1 b_1$, or if there is an integer $i > 0$ such that $a_1 = b_1, \dots, a_i = b_i$, and $a_{i+1} \prec_{i+1} b_{i+1}$.

- Let (A_1, \preceq_1) and (A_2, \preceq_2) be two posets. The **lexicographic ordering** \preceq on $A_1 \times A_2$ is defined by $(a_1, a_2) \prec (b_1, b_2)$, either if $a_1 \prec_1 b_1$ or if both $a_1 = b_1$ and $a_2 \prec_2 b_2$.
- Determine whether $(3, 5) \prec (4, 8)$, whether $(3, 8) \prec (4, 5)$, and whether $(4, 9) \prec (4, 11)$ in the poset $(Z \times Z, \preceq)$, where \preceq is the lexicographic ordering constructed from the usual \leq relation on Z .

Hasse diagrams

Many edges in the directed graph for a finite poset do not have to be shown because they must be present.

In general, we can represent a finite poset (S, \preceq) using this procedure:

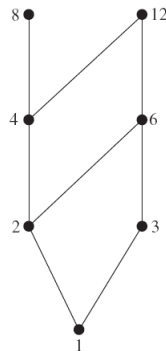
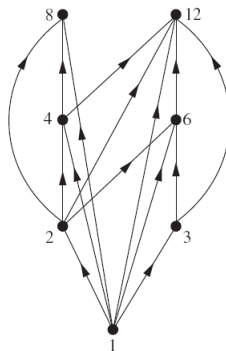
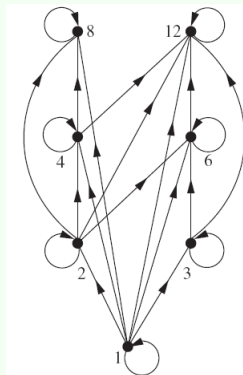


- Remove these loops;
- Remove all edges (x, y) if $\exists z \in S$ such that $x \prec z$ and $z \prec y$;
- Arrange each edge so that its initial vertex is below its terminal vertex;
- Remove all the arrows on the directed edges.

The resulting diagram is called the **Hasse diagram** of (S, \preceq) .

Example

Draw the Hasse diagram representing the partial ordering $\{(a, b) | a \text{ divides } b\}$ on $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12\}$.



Maximal and minimal elements

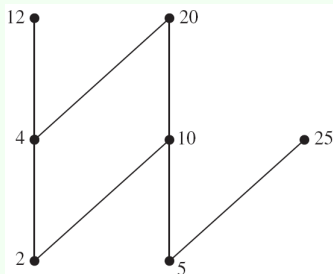
Definition

Element a is **maximal** in the poset (S, \preceq) if there is no $b \in S$ such that $a \prec b$. Element a is **minimal** if there is no element $b \in S$ such that $b \prec a$.

Maximal and minimal elements

Definition

Element a is **maximal** in the poset (S, \preceq) if there is no $b \in S$ such that $a \prec b$. Element a is **minimal** if there is no element $b \in S$ such that $b \prec a$.

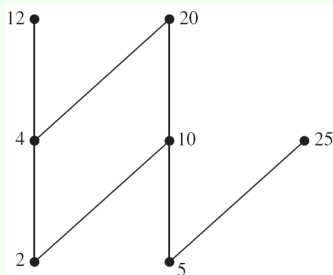


Which elements of the poset $(\{2, 4, 5, 10, 12, 20, 25\}, |)$ are maximal, and which are minimal?

Maximal and minimal elements

Definition

Element a is **maximal** in the poset (S, \preceq) if there is no $b \in S$ such that $a \prec b$. Element a is **minimal** if there is no element $b \in S$ such that $b \prec a$.



Which elements of the poset $(\{2, 4, 5, 10, 12, 20, 25\}, |)$ are maximal, and which are minimal? The Hasse diagram in the figure for this poset shows that the maximal elements are 12, 20, and 25, and the minimal elements are 2 and 5.

Greatest and least elements

Definition

Element a is **greatest element** of (S, \preceq) if $b \preceq a$ for all $b \in S$.

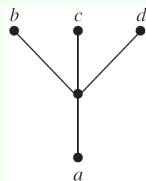
Element a is **least element** of (S, \preceq) if $a \preceq b$ for all $b \in S$.

Greatest and least elements

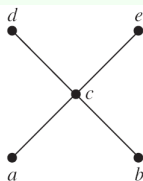
Definition

Element a is **greatest element** of (S, \preceq) if $b \preceq a$ for all $b \in S$.

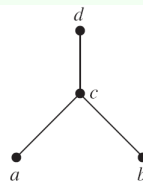
Element a is **least element** of (S, \preceq) if $a \preceq b$ for all $b \in S$.



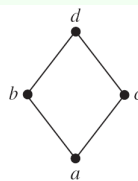
(a)



(b)



(c)



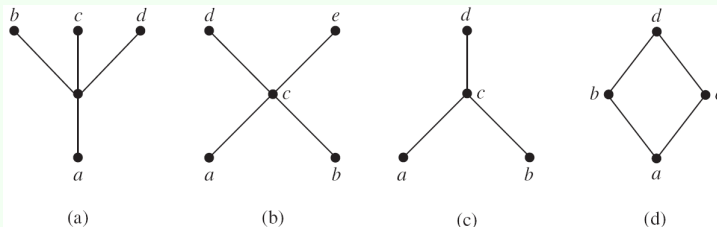
(d)

Greatest and least elements

Definition

Element a is **greatest element** of (S, \preceq) if $b \preceq a$ for all $b \in S$.

Element a is **least element** of (S, \preceq) if $a \preceq b$ for all $b \in S$.



Determine whether the posets represented by each of the Hasse diagrams in the figure have a greatest element and a least element.

Upper and lower bounds

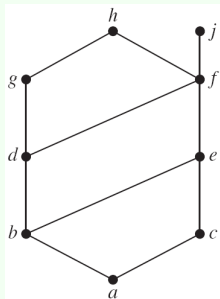
Definition

If u is an element of S such that $a \preceq u$ for all elements $a \in A$, then u is called an **upper bound** of A . Likewise, if l is an element of S such that $l \preceq a$ for all elements $a \in A$, then l is called a **lower bound** of A .

Upper and lower bounds

Definition

If u is an element of S such that $a \preceq u$ for all elements $a \in A$, then u is called an **upper bound** of A . Likewise, if l is an element of S such that $l \preceq a$ for all elements $a \in A$, then l is called a **lower bound** of A .

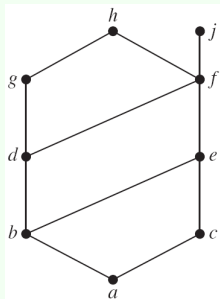


Question: Find the lower and upper bounds of the subsets $\{a, b, c\}$, $\{j, h\}$, and $\{a, c, d, f\}$ in the poset with the Hasse diagram shown in the figure.

Upper and lower bounds

Definition

If u is an element of S such that $a \preceq u$ for all elements $a \in A$, then u is called an **upper bound** of A . Likewise, if l is an element of S such that $l \preceq a$ for all elements $a \in A$, then l is called a **lower bound** of A .



Question: Find the lower and upper bounds of the subsets $\{a, b, c\}$, $\{j, h\}$, and $\{a, c, d, f\}$ in the poset with the Hasse diagram shown in the figure.

Solution: The upper bounds of $\{a, b, c\}$ are e, f, j , and h , and its only lower bound is a . There are no upper bounds of $\{j, h\}$, and its lower bounds are a, b, c, d, e , and f . The upper bounds of $\{a, c, d, f\}$ are f, h , and j , and its lower bound is a .

Least upper and greatest lower bounds

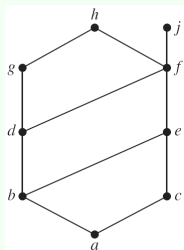
Definition

Element x is called the **least upper bound** of the subset A if x is an upper bound that is less than every other upper bound of A . Similarly, element y is called the **greatest lower bound** of A if y is a lower bound of A and $z \preceq y$ whenever z is a lower bound of A .

Least upper and greatest lower bounds

Definition

Element x is called the **least upper bound** of the subset A if x is an upper bound that is less than every other upper bound of A . Similarly, element y is called the **greatest lower bound** of A if y is a lower bound of A and $z \preceq y$ whenever z is a lower bound of A .

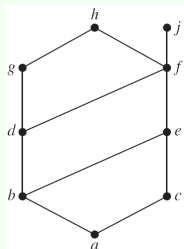


Question: Find the greatest lower and the least upper bounds of $\{b, d, g\}$ in the figure.

Least upper and greatest lower bounds

Definition

Element x is called the **least upper bound** of the subset A if x is an upper bound that is less than every other upper bound of A . Similarly, element y is called the **greatest lower bound** of A if y is a lower bound of A and $z \preceq y$ whenever z is a lower bound of A .



Question: Find the greatest lower and the least upper bounds of $\{b, d, g\}$ in the figure.

Solution: The upper bounds of $\{b, d, g\}$ are g and h . Because $g \prec h$, g is the least upper bound. The lower bounds of $\{b, d, g\}$ are a and b . Because $a \prec b$, b is the greatest lower bound.

The least upper and greatest lower bounds of A are unique if they exist. The greatest lower bound and least upper bound of a subset A are denoted by $glb(A)$ and $lub(A)$, respectively.

Lattices

Definition

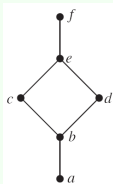
A partially ordered set in which every pair of elements has both a least upper bound and a greatest lower bound is called a **lattice**.

Lattices

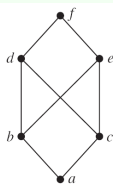
Definition

A partially ordered set in which every pair of elements has both a least upper bound and a greatest lower bound is called a **lattice**.

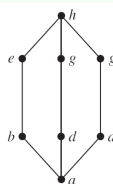
Question: Determine whether the posets represented by each of the Hasse diagrams in the figure are lattices.



(a)



(b)



(c)

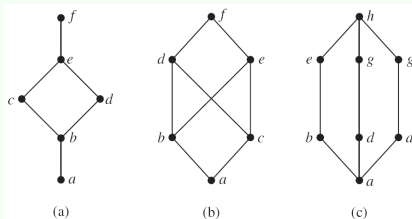
Lattices

Definition

A partially ordered set in which every pair of elements has both a least upper bound and a greatest lower bound is called a **lattice**.

Question: Determine whether the posets represented by each of the Hasse diagrams in the figure are lattices.

Solution: The posets represented by the Hasse diagrams in (a) and (c) are both lattices. On the other hand, the poset with the Hasse diagram shown in (b) is not a lattice, because the elements b and c have no least upper bound.



Examples

Question: Is the poset $(\mathbb{Z}^+, |)$ a lattice?

Solution:

Yes.

Examples

Question: Is the poset $(\mathbb{Z}^+, |)$ a lattice?

Solution:

Yes.

Question: Determine whether the posets $(\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, |)$ and $(\{1, 2, 4, 8, 16\}, |)$ are lattices.

Solution:

$(\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, |)$ is a lattice, but $(\{1, 2, 4, 8, 16\}, |)$ is not.

Examples

Question: Is the poset $(\mathbb{Z}^+, |)$ a lattice?

Solution:

Yes.

Question: Determine whether the posets $(\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, |)$ and $(\{1, 2, 4, 8, 16\}, |)$ are lattices.

Solution:

$(\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, |)$ is a lattice, but $(\{1, 2, 4, 8, 16\}, |)$ is not.

Question: Determine whether $(P(S), \subseteq)$ is a lattice where S is a set.

Solution:

Yes.

Topological sorting

Definition

A total ordering \preceq is said to be **compatible** with the partial ordering R if $a \preceq b$ whenever aRb . Constructing a compatible total ordering from a partial ordering is called **topological sorting**.

Lemma

Every finite nonempty poset (S, \preceq) has at least one minimal element.

Proof.

Choose an element a_0 of S . If a_0 is not minimal, then there is an element a_1 with $a_1 \prec a_0$.

Topological sorting

Definition

A total ordering \preceq is said to be **compatible** with the partial ordering R if $a \preceq b$ whenever aRb . Constructing a compatible total ordering from a partial ordering is called **topological sorting**.

Lemma

Every finite nonempty poset (S, \preceq) has at least one minimal element.

Proof.

Choose an element a_0 of S . If a_0 is not minimal, then there is an element a_1 with $a_1 \prec a_0$. If a_1 is not minimal, there is an element a_2 with $a_2 \prec a_1$.

Topological sorting

Definition

A total ordering \preceq is said to be **compatible** with the partial ordering R if $a \preceq b$ whenever aRb . Constructing a compatible total ordering from a partial ordering is called **topological sorting**.

Lemma

Every finite nonempty poset (S, \preceq) has at least one minimal element.

Proof.

Choose an element a_0 of S . If a_0 is not minimal, then there is an element a_1 with $a_1 \prec a_0$. If a_1 is not minimal, there is an element a_2 with $a_2 \prec a_1$. Continue this process, so that if a_n is not minimal, there is an element a_{n+1} with $a_{n+1} \prec a_n$.

Topological sorting

Definition

A total ordering \preceq is said to be **compatible** with the partial ordering R if $a \preceq b$ whenever aRb . Constructing a compatible total ordering from a partial ordering is called **topological sorting**.

Lemma

Every finite nonempty poset (S, \preceq) has at least one minimal element.

Proof.

Choose an element a_0 of S . If a_0 is not minimal, then there is an element a_1 with $a_1 \prec a_0$. If a_1 is not minimal, there is an element a_2 with $a_2 \prec a_1$. Continue this process, so that if a_n is not minimal, there is an element a_{n+1} with $a_{n+1} \prec a_n$.

Because there are only a finite number of elements in the poset, this process must end with a minimal element a_n . □

Least upper and greatest lower bounds

Definition

ALGORITHM 1 Topological Sorting.

procedure *topological sort* $((S, \preceq)$: finite poset)

$k := 1$

while $S \neq \emptyset$

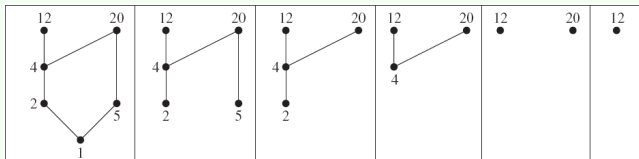
$a_k :=$ a minimal element of S {such an element exists by Lemma 1}

$S := S - \{a_k\}$

$k := k + 1$

return a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ is a compatible total ordering of $S\}$

Find a compatible total ordering for the poset $(\{1, 2, 4, 5, 12, 20\}, |)$.



Take-aways

Conclusions

- Closure of Relations
- Transitive Closures
- Equivalence Relations
 - Equivalence Classes
 - Equivalence Classes and Partitions
- Partial Orderings
 - Lexicographic Order
 - Hasse Diagrams
 - Maximal and Minimal Elements
 - Lattices
 - Topological Sorting