Graphs and Relations

Friday Four Square! Today at 4:15PM outside Gates.

Announcements

- Problem Set 1 due right now.
- Problem Set 2 out.
 - Checkpoint due Monday, April 16.
 - Assignment due Friday, April 20.
 - Play around with induction and its applications!

Mathematical Structures

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

Some Formalisms

Ordered and Unordered Pairs

- An unordered pair is a set {a, b} of two elements (remember that sets are unordered).
 - $\{0, 1\} = \{1, 0\}$
- An ordered pair (a, b) is a pair of elements in a specific order.
 - $(0, 1) \neq (1, 0)$.
 - Two ordered pairs are equal iff each of their components are equal.
- An unordered tuple is a set {a₀, a₁, ..., a_{n-1}} of n elements.
- An ordered tuple $(a_0, a_1, ..., a_{n-1})$ is an collection of n elements in a specific order.
 - This is sometimes called a sequence.
 - As with ordered pairs, two ordered tuples are equal iff each of their elements are equal.

- Recall: The power set ℘(S) of a set is the set of all its subsets.
- The Cartesian Product of A × B of two sets is defined as

$$A \times B \equiv \{ (a, b) \mid a \in A \text{ and } b \in B \}$$

- Recall: The power set $\wp(S)$ of a set is the set of all its subsets.
- The Cartesian Product of A × B of two sets is defined as

$$A \times B \equiv \{ (a, b) \mid a \in A \text{ and } b \in B \}$$

$$\{0, 1, 2\}$$
 $\{a, b, c\}$

- Recall: The power set $\wp(S)$ of a set is the set of all its subsets.
- The Cartesian Product of A × B of two sets is defined as

$$A \times B \equiv \{ (a, b) \mid a \in A \text{ and } b \in B \}$$

$$\{0, 1, 2\} \times \{a, b, c\} =$$

- Recall: The power set ℘(S) of a set is the set of all its subsets.
- The Cartesian Product of A × B of two sets is defined as

$$A \times B \equiv \{ (a, b) \mid a \in A \text{ and } b \in B \}$$

- Recall: The power set $\wp(S)$ of a set is the set of all its subsets.
- The Cartesian Product of A × B of two sets is defined as

$$A \times B \equiv \{ (a, b) \mid a \in A \text{ and } b \in B \}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0,\,1,\,2 \right\} \times \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a,\,b,\,c \\ \end{array} \right\} = \left[\begin{array}{l} 0,\,(0,\,a),\,(0,\,b),\,(0,\,c) \\ 1,\,(1,\,a),\,(1,\,b),\,(1,\,c) \\ 2,\,(2,\,a),\,(2,\,b),\,(2,\,c) \end{array} \right]$$

- Recall: The power set $\wp(S)$ of a set is the set of all its subsets.
- The Cartesian Product of A × B of two sets is defined as

$$A \times B \equiv \{ (a, b) \mid a \in A \text{ and } b \in B \}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0,\,1,\,2 \\ \end{array} \right\} \times \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a,\,b,\,c \\ \end{array} \right\} \,=\, \left\{ \begin{array}{l} {}^{(0,\,a),\,(0,\,b),\,(0,\,c),}\\ {}^{(1,\,a),\,(1,\,b),\,(1,\,c),}\\ {}^{(2,\,a),\,(2,\,b),\,(2,\,c)} \end{array} \right\}$$

- Recall: The power set $\wp(S)$ of a set is the set of all its subsets.
- The Cartesian Product of A × B of two sets is defined as

$$A \times B \equiv \{ (a, b) \mid a \in A \text{ and } b \in B \}$$

• We denote $A^k \equiv \underbrace{A \times A \times ... \times A}$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0, \ 1, \ 2 \\ \end{array} \right\} \times \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a, \ b, \ c \\ \end{array} \right\} \ = \ \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (0, a), \ (0, b), \ (0, c), \\ (1, a), \ (1, b), \ (1, c), \\ (2, a), \ (2, b), \ (2, c) \end{array} \right\}$$

- Recall: The power set $\wp(S)$ of a set is the set of all its subsets.
- The Cartesian Product of A × B of two sets is defined as

$$A \times B \equiv \{ (a, b) \mid a \in A \text{ and } b \in B \}$$

• We denote $A^k \equiv \underbrace{A \times A \times ... \times A}$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0, \ 1, \ 2 \\ \end{array} \right\} \times \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0, \ 1, \ 2 \\ \end{array} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (0, 0), \ (0, 1), \ (0, 2), \\ (1, 0), \ (1, 1), \ (1, 2), \\ (2, 0), \ (2, 1), \ (2, 2) \end{array} \right\}$$

- Recall: The power set $\wp(S)$ of a set is the set of all its subsets.
- The Cartesian Product of A × B of two sets is defined as

$$A \times B \equiv \{ (a, b) \mid a \in A \text{ and } b \in B \}$$

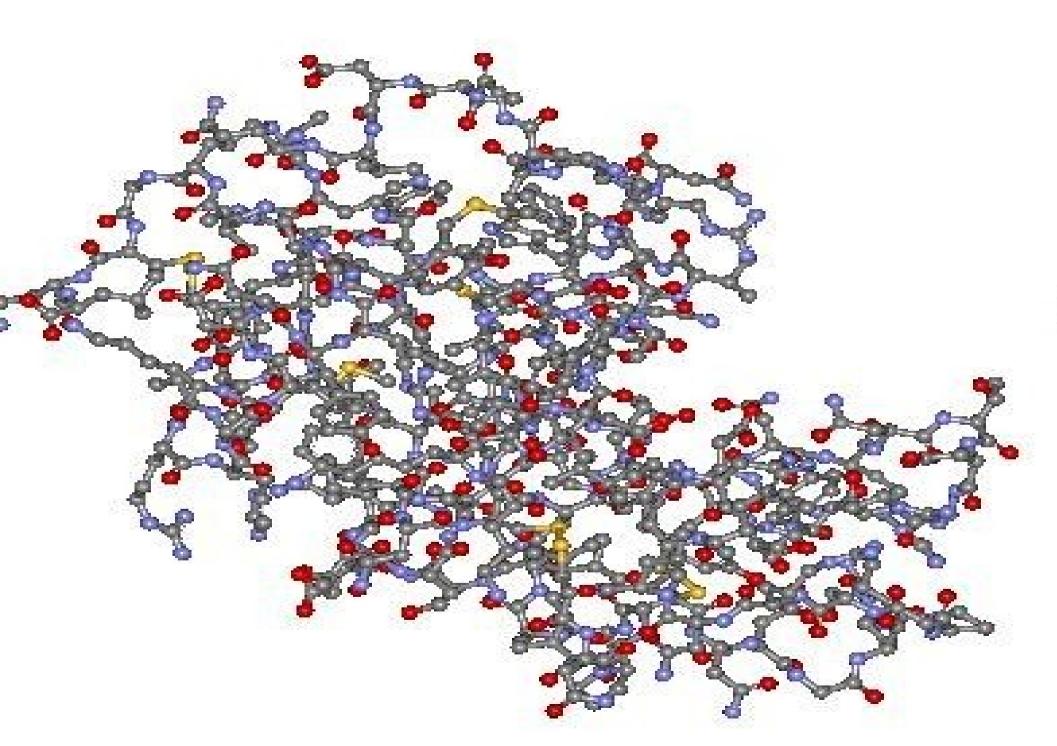
• We denote $A^k \equiv \underbrace{A \times A \times ... \times A}_{k \text{ times}}$

$$\left\{\begin{array}{c} \overbrace{0,1,2}^{\text{k times}} \\ 0,1,2 \end{array}\right\}^{2} = \left\{\begin{array}{c} (0,0),(0,1),(0,2),\\ (1,0),(1,1),(1,2),\\ (2,0),(2,1),(2,2) \end{array}\right\}$$

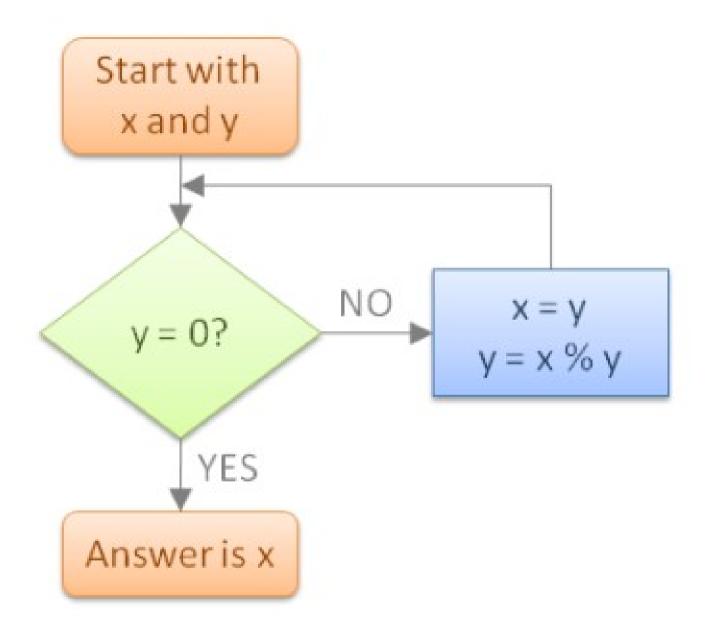
Graphs

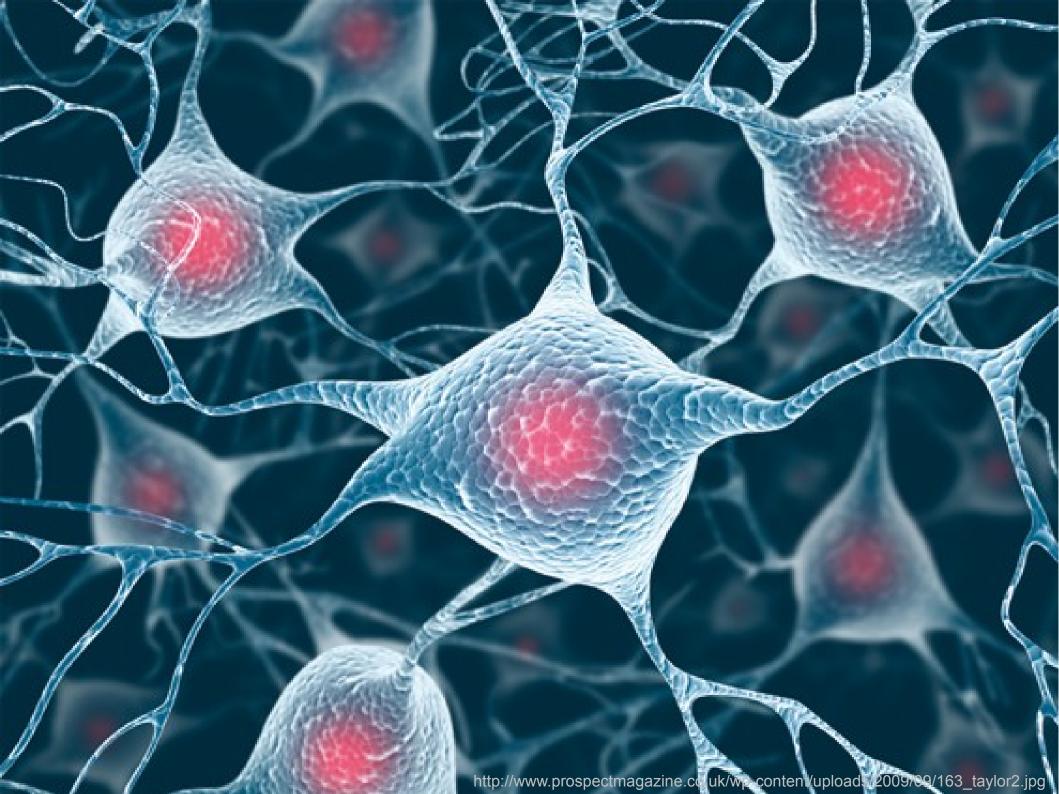
A graph is a mathematical structure for representing relationships.

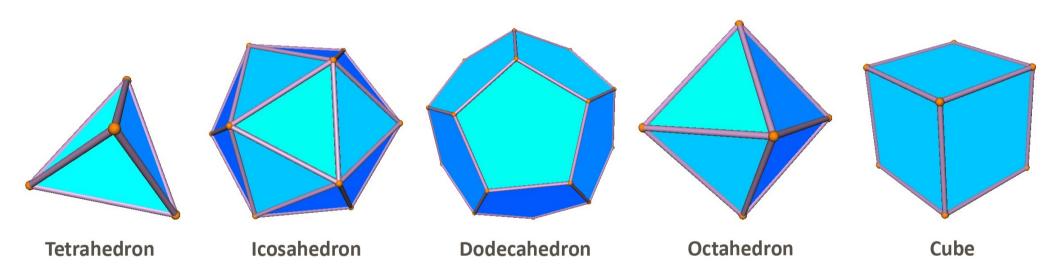
Each graph is a set of vertices (or nodes) connected by edges (or arcs).



http://lysozyme.co.uk/results/lysozyme-ball-stick-stereo.jpg

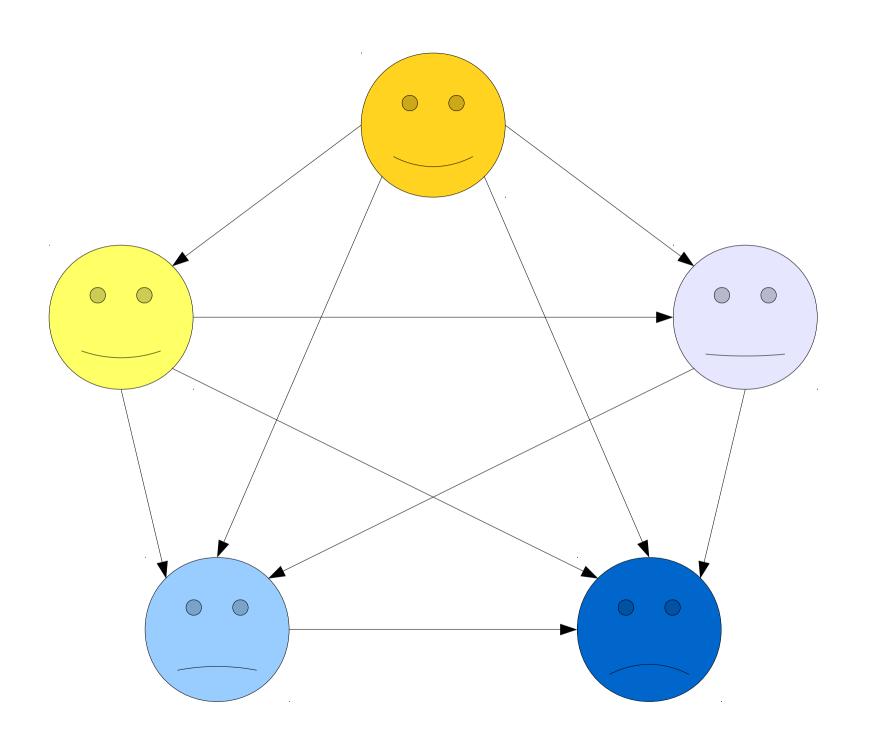


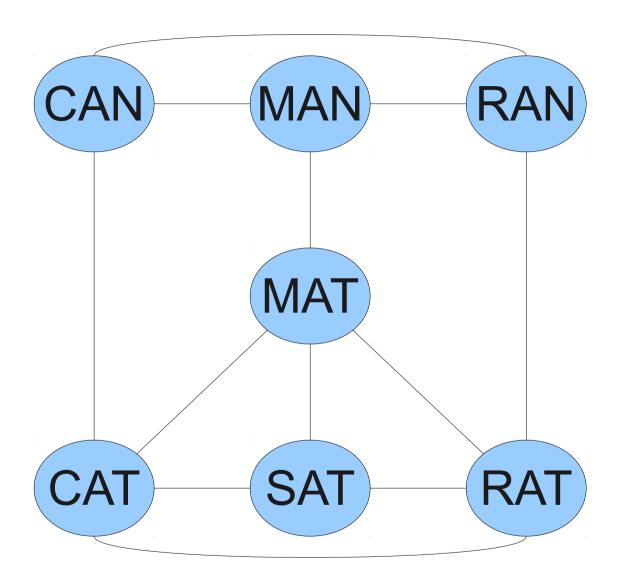




Formalisms

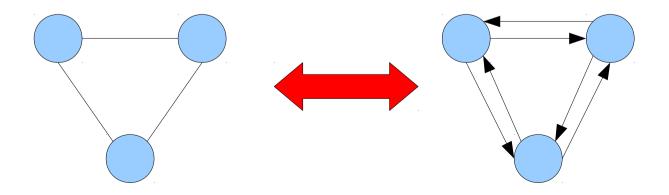
- A graph is an ordered pair G = (V, E) where
 - V is a set of the vertices (nodes) of the graph.
 - E is a set of the edges (arcs) of the graph.
- Each edge is an pair of the start and end (or source and sink) of the edge.

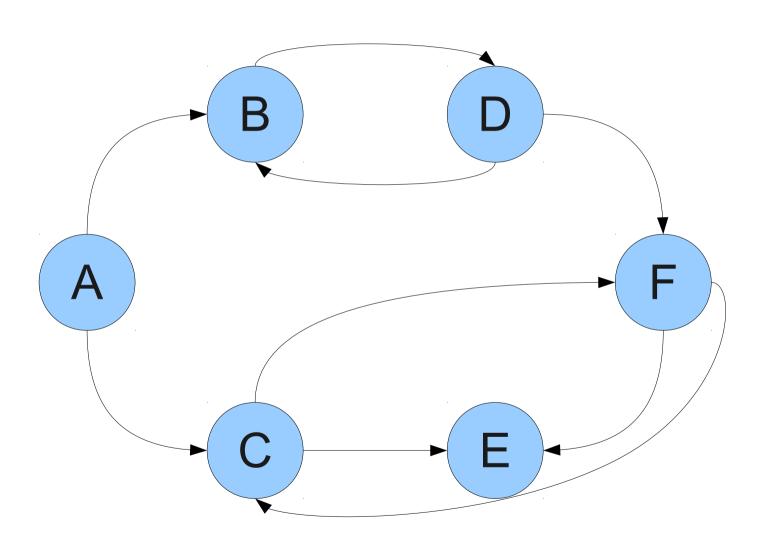


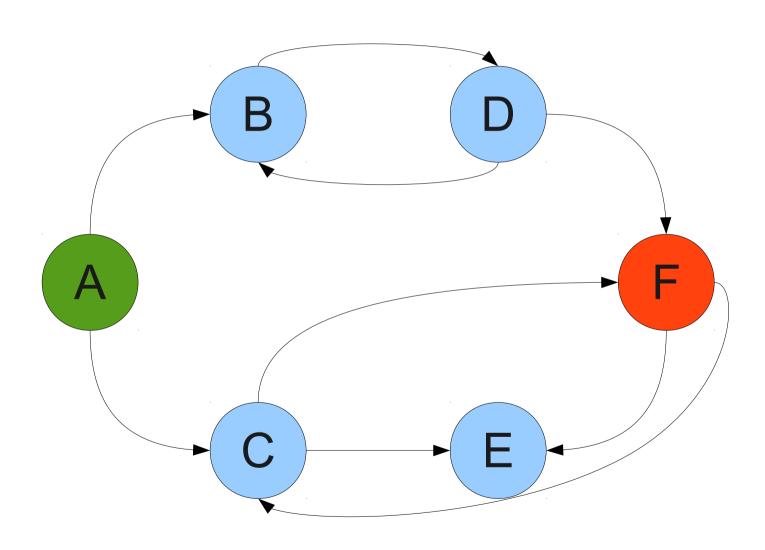


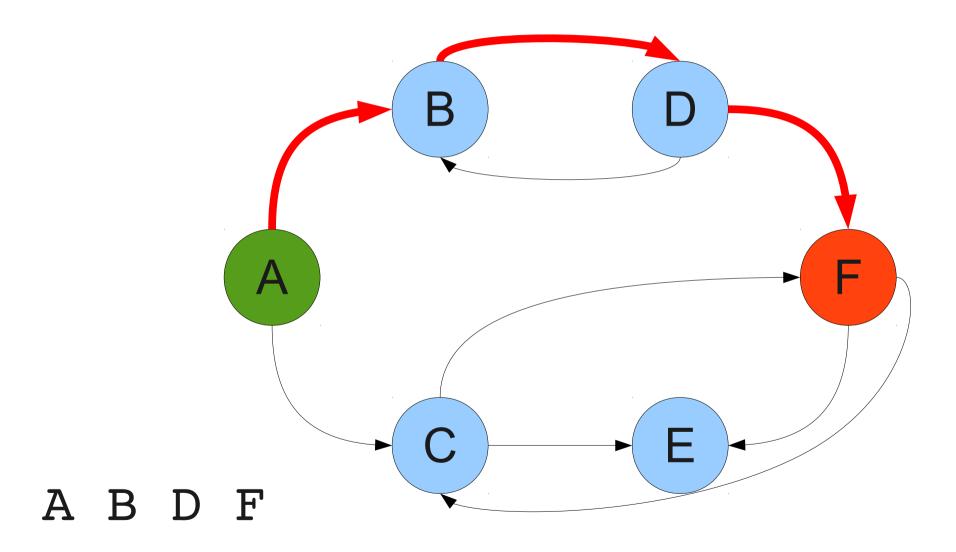
Directed and Undirected Graphs

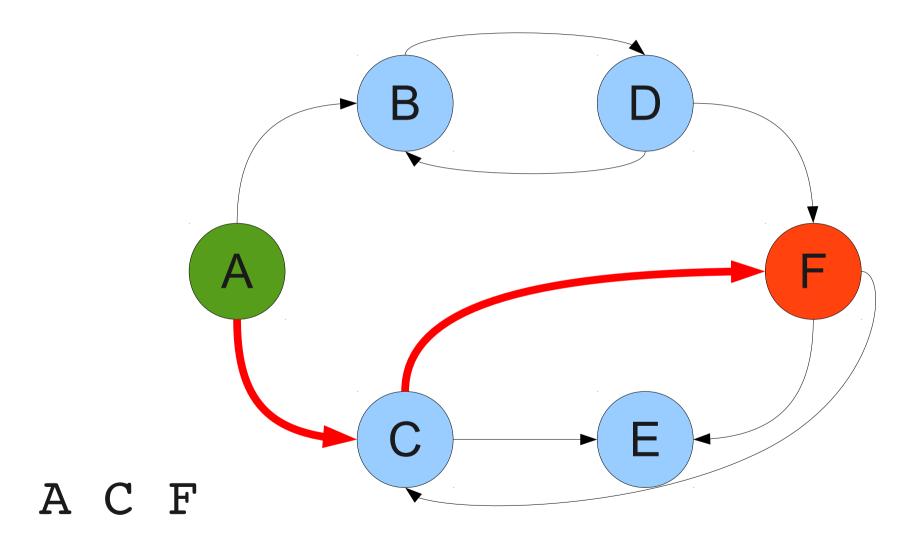
- A graph is directed if its edges are ordered pairs.
- A graph is undirected if the edges are unordered pairs.
- An undirected graph is a special case of a directed graph (just add edges both ways).





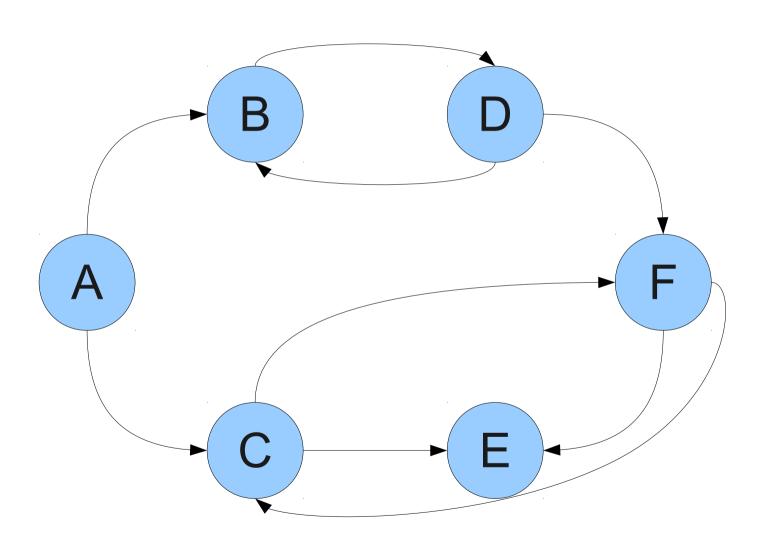


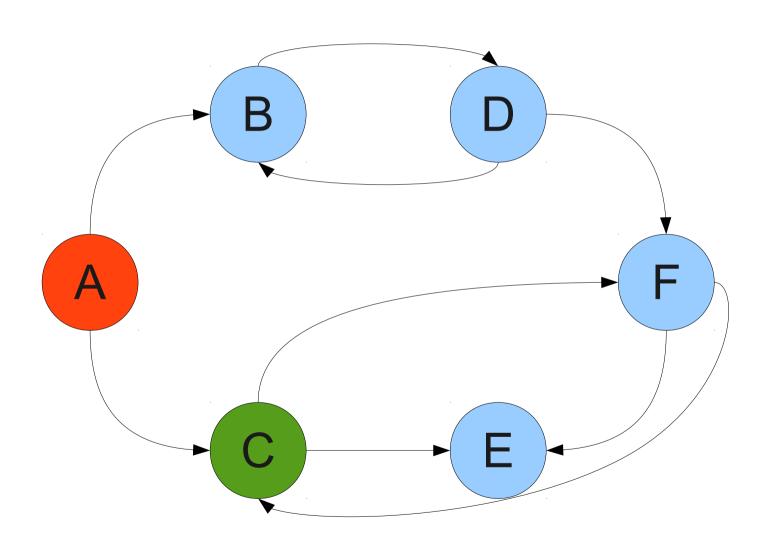




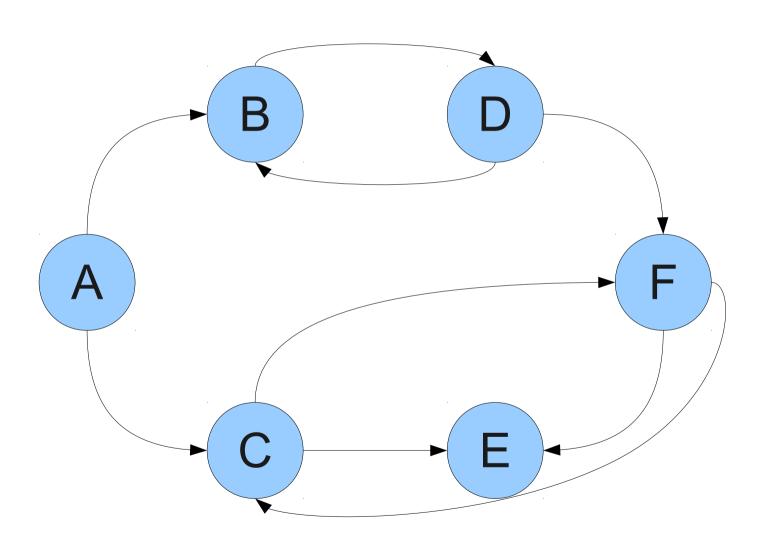
A path from v_0 to v_n is a sequence of edges $((v_0, v_1), (v_1, v_2), ..., (v_{n-1}, v_n)).$

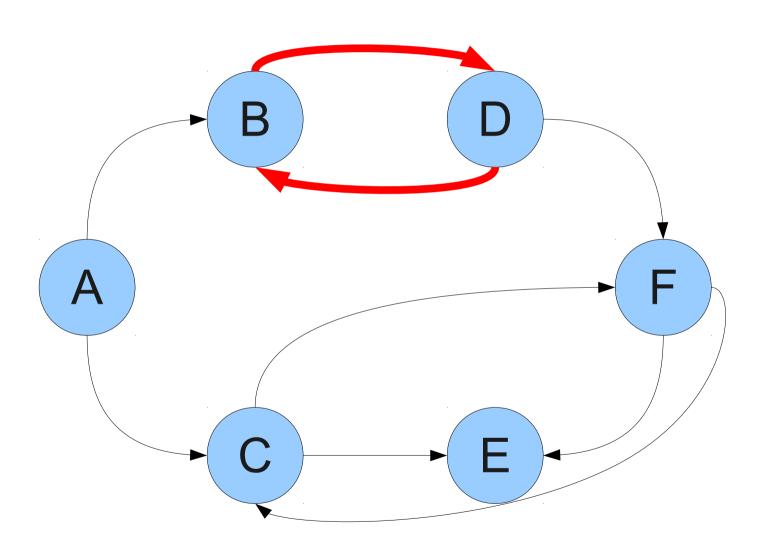
The length of a path is the number of edges it contains.

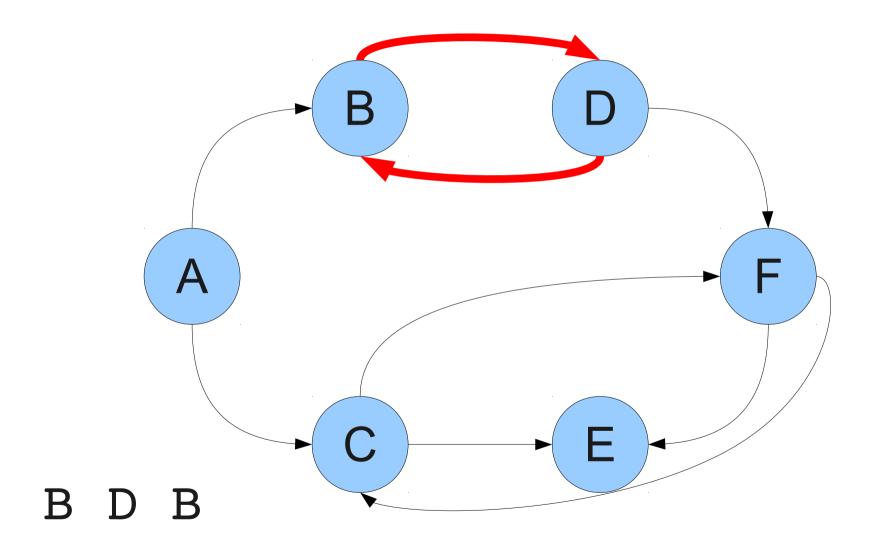


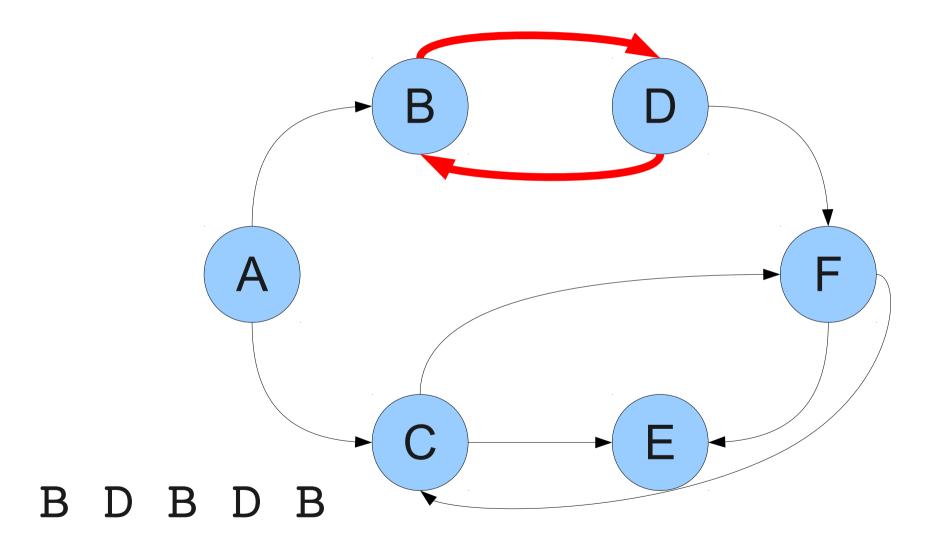


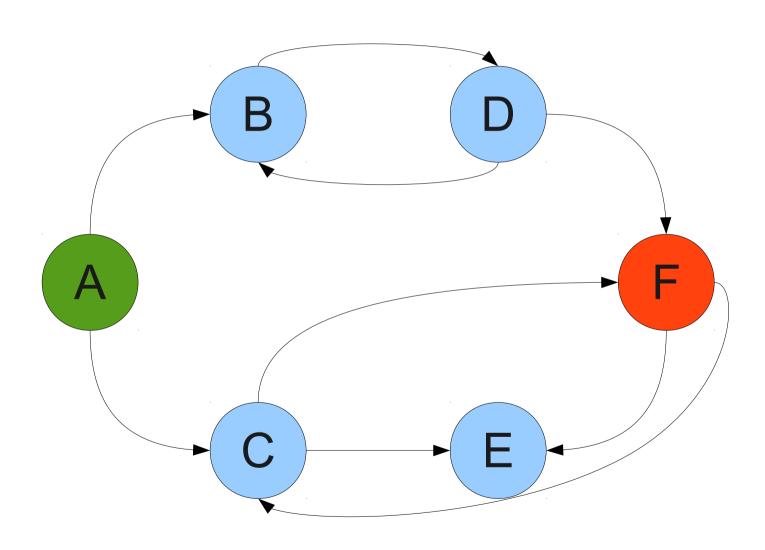
A node v is reachable from node u if there is a path from u to v.

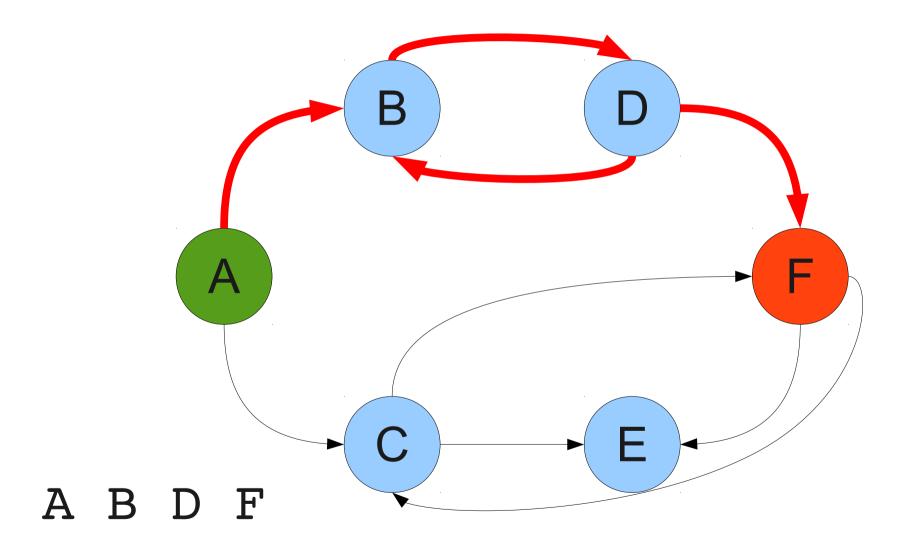


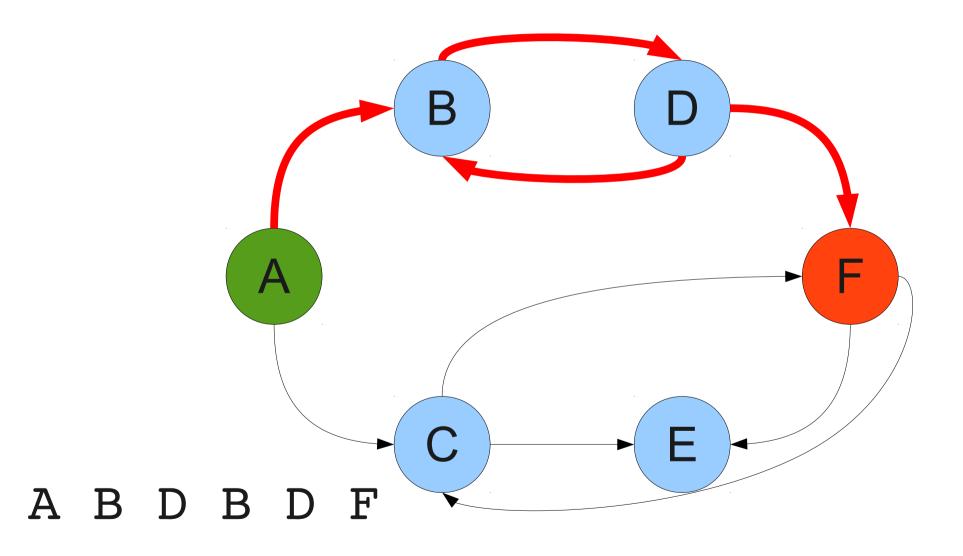












A cycle in a graph is a path

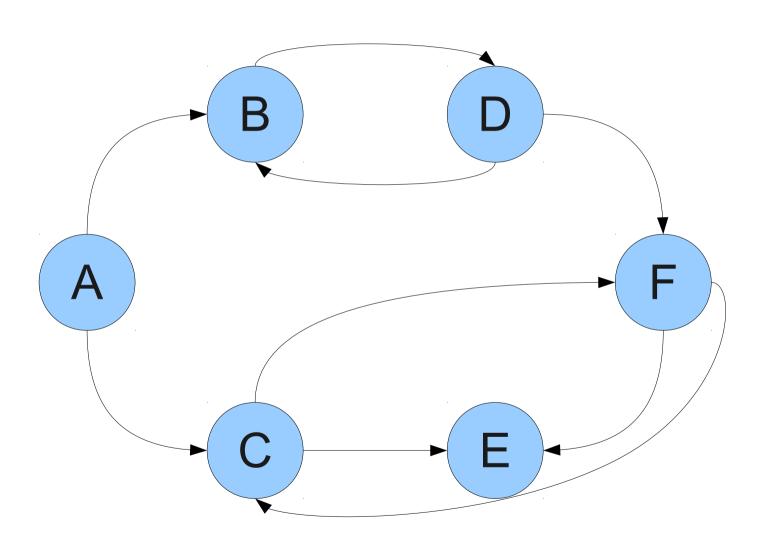
$$((v_0, v_1), (v_1, v_2), ..., (v_n, v_0))$$

that starts and ends at the same node.

A simple path is a path that does not contain a cycle.

A simple cycle is a cycle that does not contain a smaller cycle

Properties of Nodes



The indegree of a node is the number of edges entering that node.

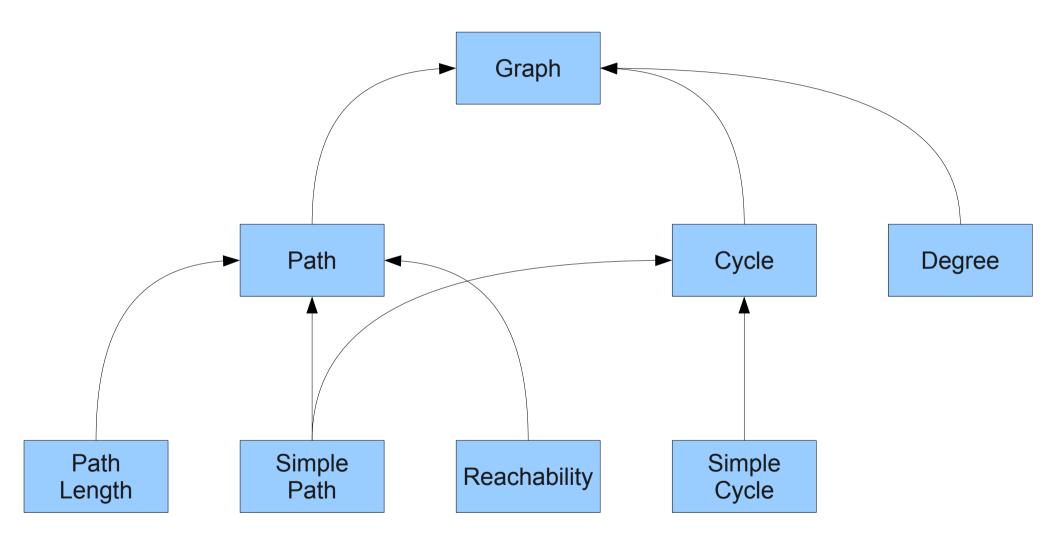
The **outdegree** of a node is the number of edges leaving that node.

In an undirected graph, these are the same and are called the degree of the node.

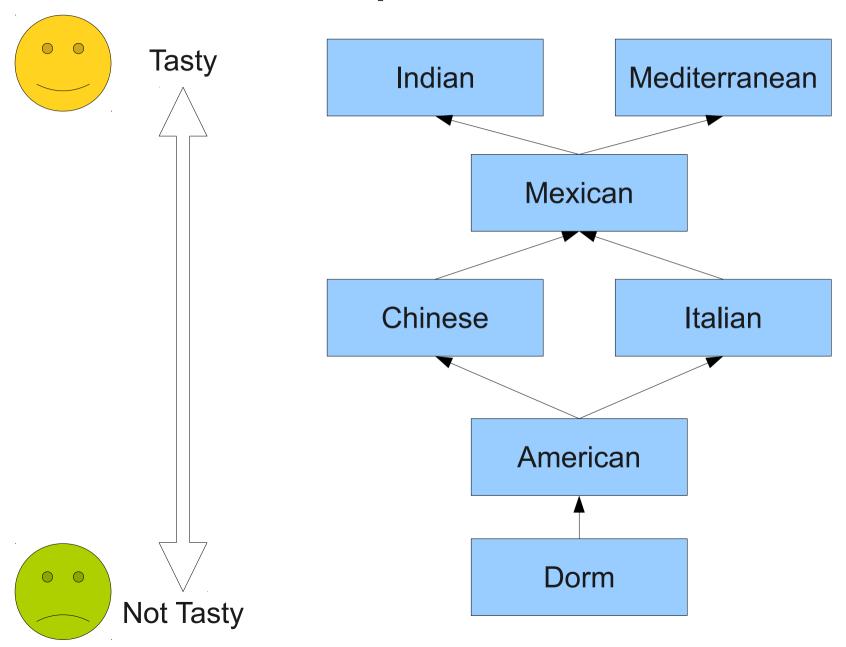
Summary of Terminology

- A path is a series of edges connecting two nodes.
 - The length of a path is the number of edges in the path.
 - A node v is reachable from u if there is a path from u to v.
- A cycle is a path from a node to itself.
- A simple path is a path without a cycle.
- A simple cycle is a cycle that does not contain a nested cycle.
- The indegree and outdegree of a node are the number of edges entering/leaving it.

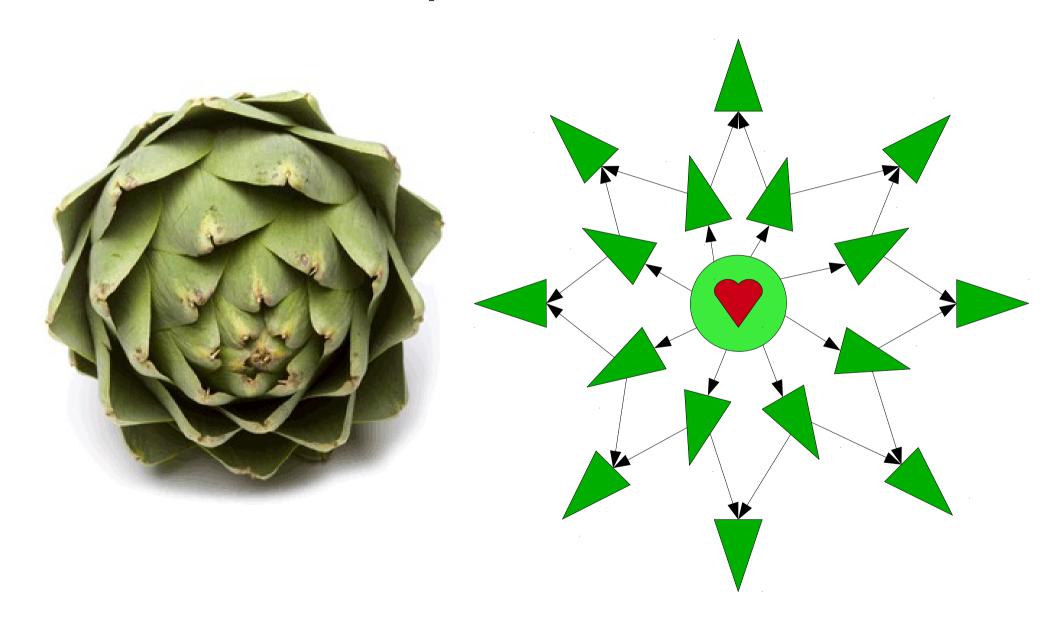
Representing Prerequisites

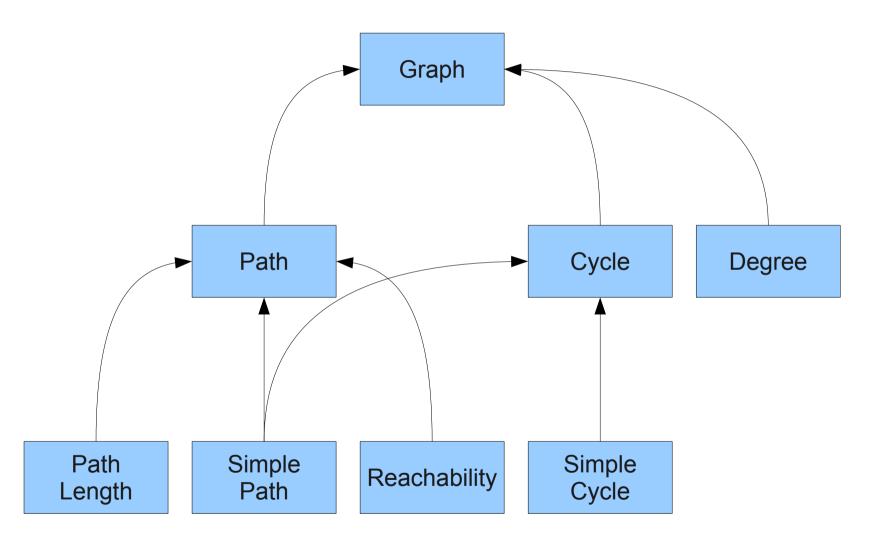


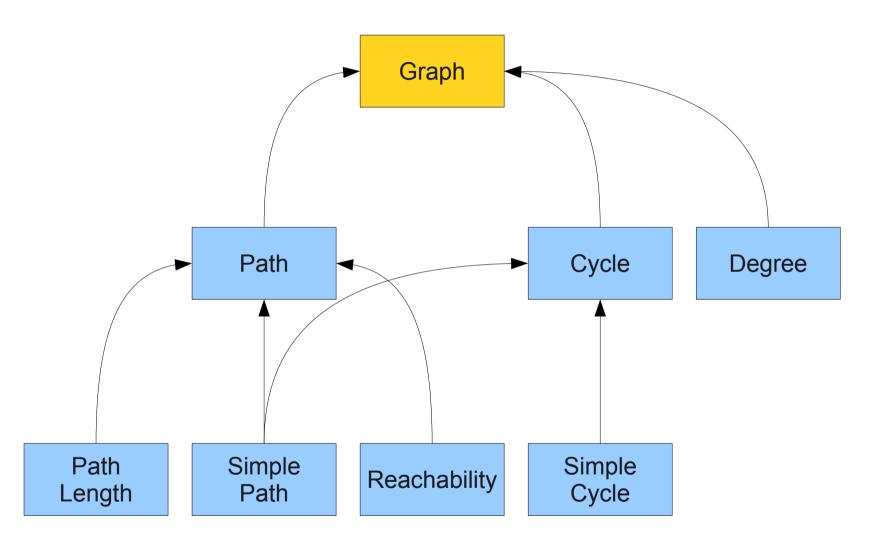
A directed acyclic graph (DAG) is a directed graph with no cycles.

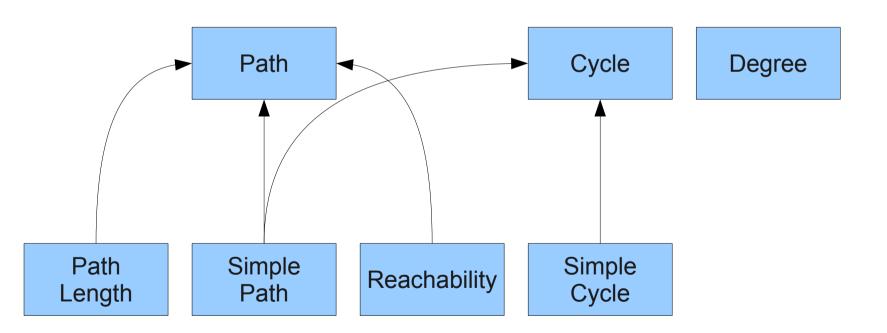


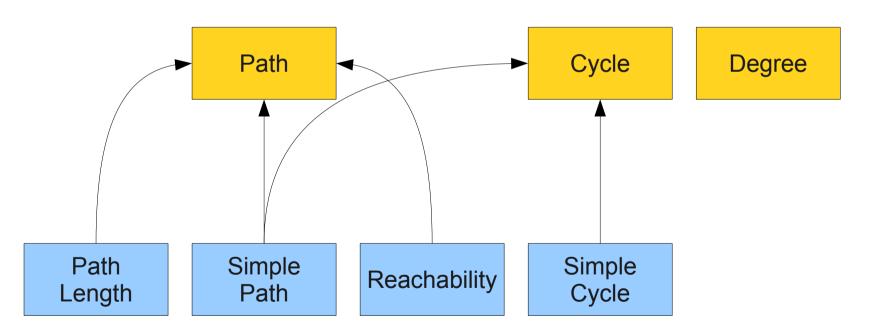






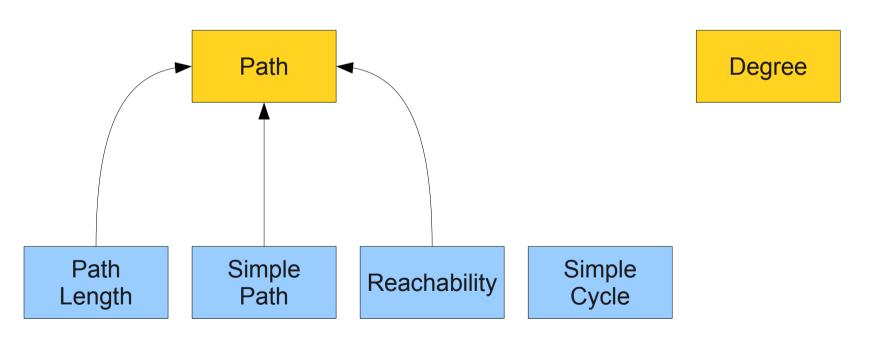






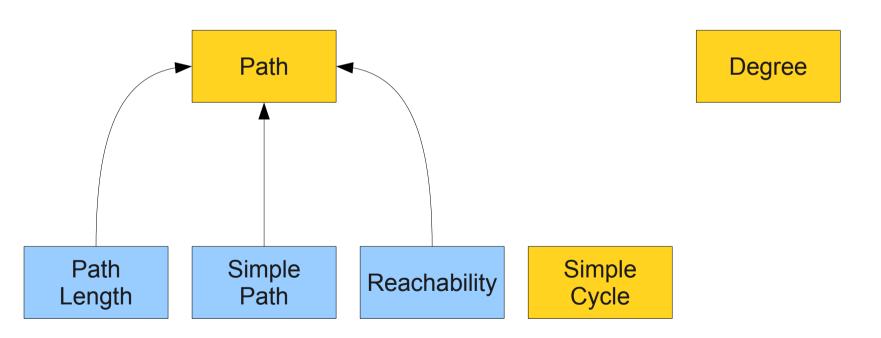
Graph

Cycle



Graph

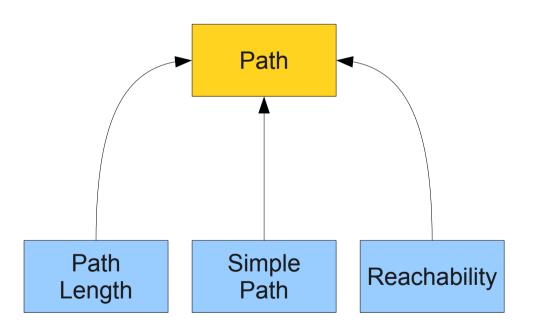
Cycle



Graph

Cycle

Simple Cycle



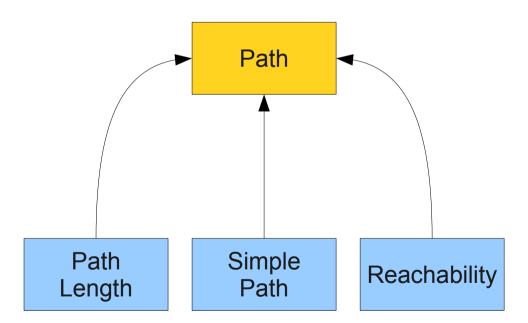
Degree

Graph

Cycle

Simple Cycle

Degree



Graph

Cycle

Simple Cycle

Degree

Path

Path Length Simple Path

Graph

Cycle

Simple Cycle

Degree

Path

Path Length Simple Path

Graph

Cycle

Simple Cycle

Degree

Path

Path Length

Simple Path

Graph

Cycle

Simple Cycle

Degree

Path

Path Length

Simple Path

Graph

Cycle

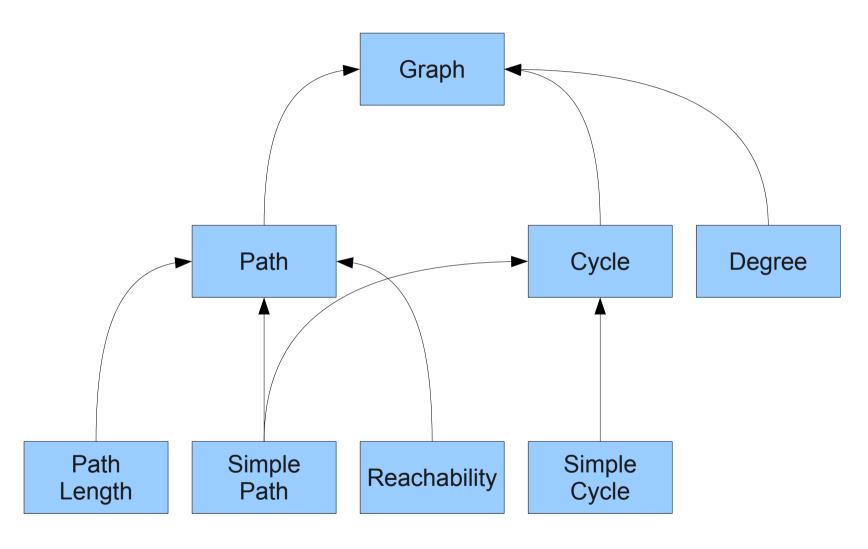
Simple Cycle

Degree

Path

Path Length

Simple Path



Graph

Cycle

Simple Cycle

Degree

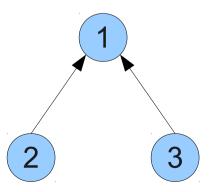
Path

Path Length

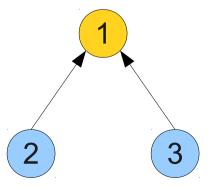
Simple Path

- Order the nodes of a DAG so no node is picked before its predecessors.
- Algorithm:
 - Find a node with no outgoing edges (outdegree 0)
 - Remove it from the graph.
 - Add it to the resulting ordering.
- There may be many valid orderings:

- Order the nodes of a DAG so no node is picked before its predecessors.
- Algorithm:
 - Find a node with no outgoing edges (outdegree 0)
 - Remove it from the graph.
 - Add it to the resulting ordering.
- There may be many valid orderings:



- Order the nodes of a DAG so no node is picked before its predecessors.
- Algorithm:
 - Find a node with no outgoing edges (outdegree 0)
 - Remove it from the graph.
 - Add it to the resulting ordering.
- There may be many valid orderings:



- Order the nodes of a DAG so no node is picked before its predecessors.
- Algorithm:
 - Find a node with no outgoing edges (outdegree 0)
 - Remove it from the graph.
 - Add it to the resulting ordering.
- There may be many valid orderings:

1

2

- Order the nodes of a DAG so no node is picked before its predecessors.
- Algorithm:
 - Find a node with no outgoing edges (outdegree 0)
 - Remove it from the graph.
 - Add it to the resulting ordering.
- There may be many valid orderings:

1

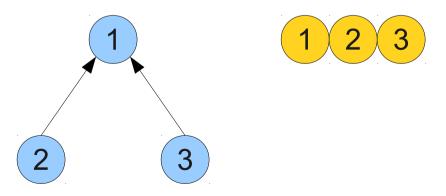
- Order the nodes of a DAG so no node is picked before its predecessors.
- Algorithm:
 - Find a node with no outgoing edges (outdegree 0)
 - Remove it from the graph.
 - Add it to the resulting ordering.
- There may be many valid orderings:



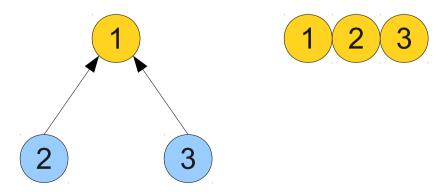
- Order the nodes of a DAG so no node is picked before its predecessors.
- Algorithm:
 - Find a node with no outgoing edges (outdegree 0)
 - Remove it from the graph.
 - Add it to the resulting ordering.
- There may be many valid orderings:



- Order the nodes of a DAG so no node is picked before its predecessors.
- Algorithm:
 - Find a node with no outgoing edges (outdegree 0)
 - Remove it from the graph.
 - Add it to the resulting ordering.
- There may be many valid orderings:



- Order the nodes of a DAG so no node is picked before its predecessors.
- Algorithm:
 - Find a node with no outgoing edges (outdegree 0)
 - Remove it from the graph.
 - Add it to the resulting ordering.
- There may be many valid orderings:



- Order the nodes of a DAG so no node is picked before its predecessors.
- Algorithm:
 - Find a node with no outgoing edges (outdegree 0)
 - Remove it from the graph.
 - Add it to the resulting ordering.
- There may be many valid orderings:

1 2 3

1

2

- Order the nodes of a DAG so no node is picked before its predecessors.
- Algorithm:
 - Find a node with no outgoing edges (outdegree 0)
 - Remove it from the graph.
 - Add it to the resulting ordering.
- There may be many valid orderings:

1 2 3

1

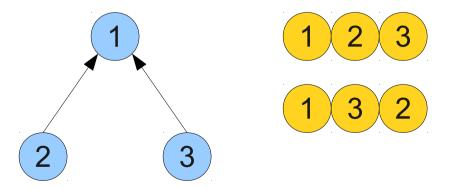
2 3

- Order the nodes of a DAG so no node is picked before its predecessors.
- Algorithm:
 - Find a node with no outgoing edges (outdegree 0)
 - Remove it from the graph.
 - Add it to the resulting ordering.
- There may be many valid orderings:
 - 1 2 3
 - 1 3

- Order the nodes of a DAG so no node is picked before its predecessors.
- Algorithm:
 - Find a node with no outgoing edges (outdegree 0)
 - Remove it from the graph.
 - Add it to the resulting ordering.
- There may be many valid orderings:



- Order the nodes of a DAG so no node is picked before its predecessors.
- Algorithm:
 - Find a node with no outgoing edges (outdegree 0)
 - Remove it from the graph.
 - Add it to the resulting ordering.
- There may be many valid orderings:



Relations

Relations

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

Relations as Sets

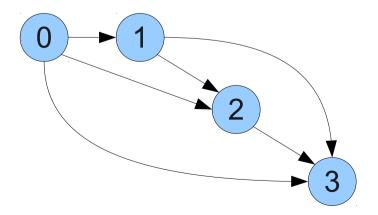
- Formally, a relation is a set of ordered pairs representing the pairs for which the relation is true.
 - Equality: { (0, 0), (1, 1), (2, 2), ... }
 - Less-than: { (0, 1), (0, 2), ..., (1, 2), (1, 3), ... }
- Formally, we have that

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

- The binary relations we'll discuss today will be binary relations over a set A.
 - Each relation is a subset of A².

Binary Relations and Graphs

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



An Important Question

Why study binary relations and graphs separately?

Simplicity:

- Certain operations feel more "natural" on binary relations than on graphs and vice-versa.
- Converting a relation to a graph might result in an overly complex graph.

Terminology:

Vocabulary for graphs often different from that for relations.

Equivalence Relations

"x and y have the same color"

$$x = y$$

"x and y have the same shape"

"x and y have the same area"

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

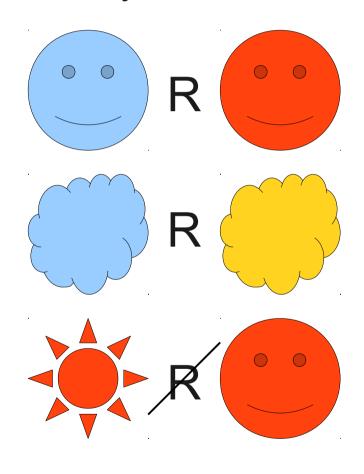
Informally

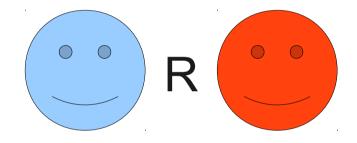
An equivalence relation is a relation that indicates when objects have some trait in common.

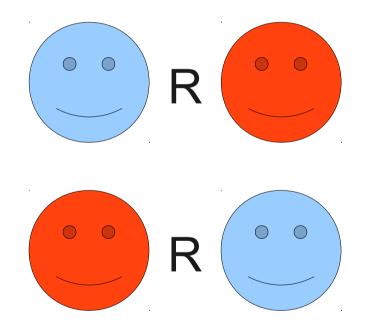
Do <u>not</u> use this definition in proofs! It's just an intuition!

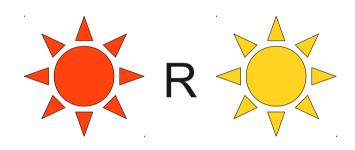
```
xRy x and y have the same shape.
```

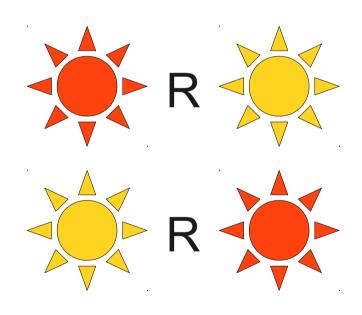
Recall: This symbol means "is defined as"











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

xRy

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

xRy

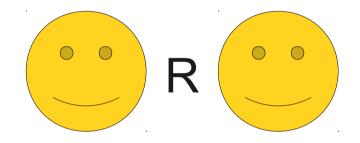
yRx

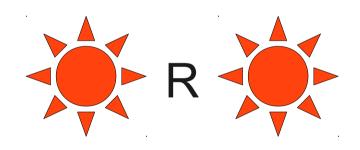
Symmetry

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

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

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





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

xRx

Reflexivity

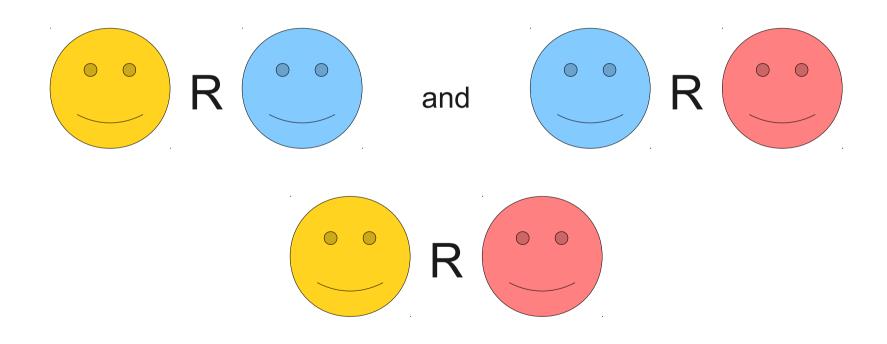
A binary relation R over a set A is called **reflexive** iff

For any $x \in A$, $x \in X$.

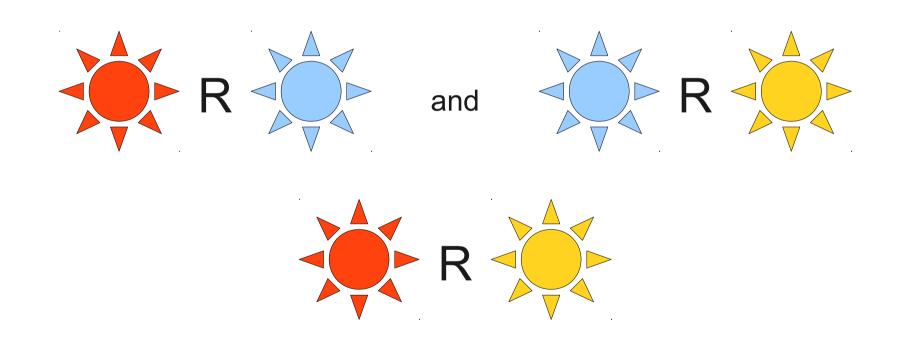
Some Reflexive Relations

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









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

xRy and yRz

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

xRy and yRz

xRz

Transitivity

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

For any x, y, and z, if xRy and yRz, then xRz.

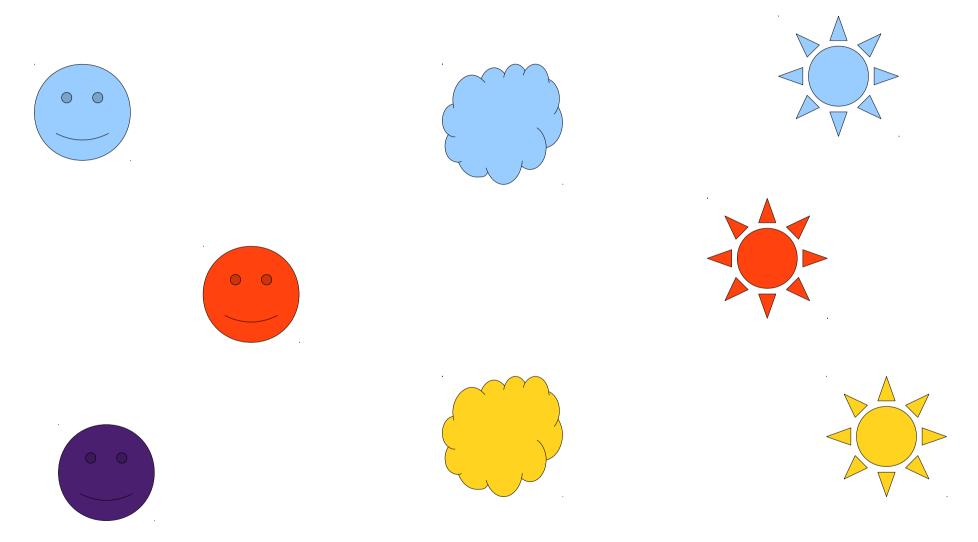
Some Transitive Relations

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

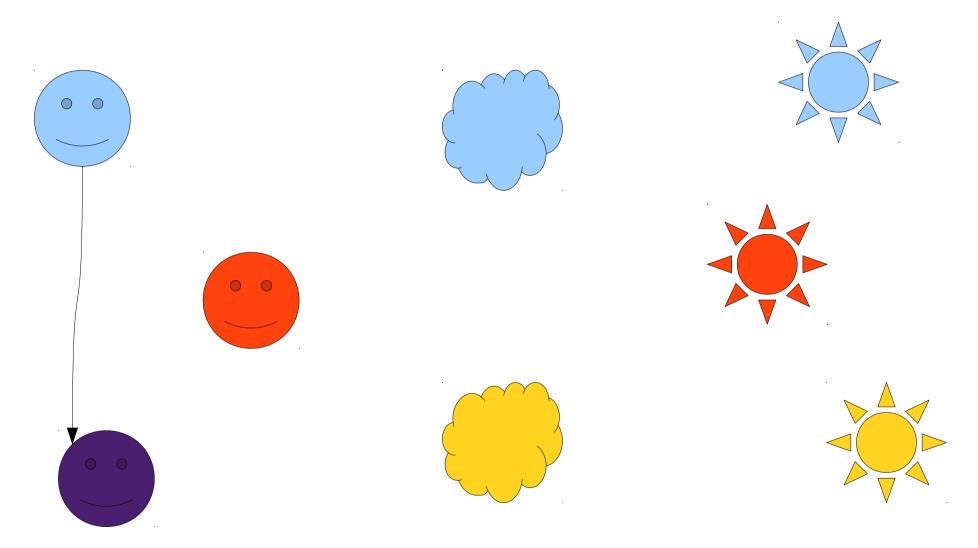
Equivalence Relations

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

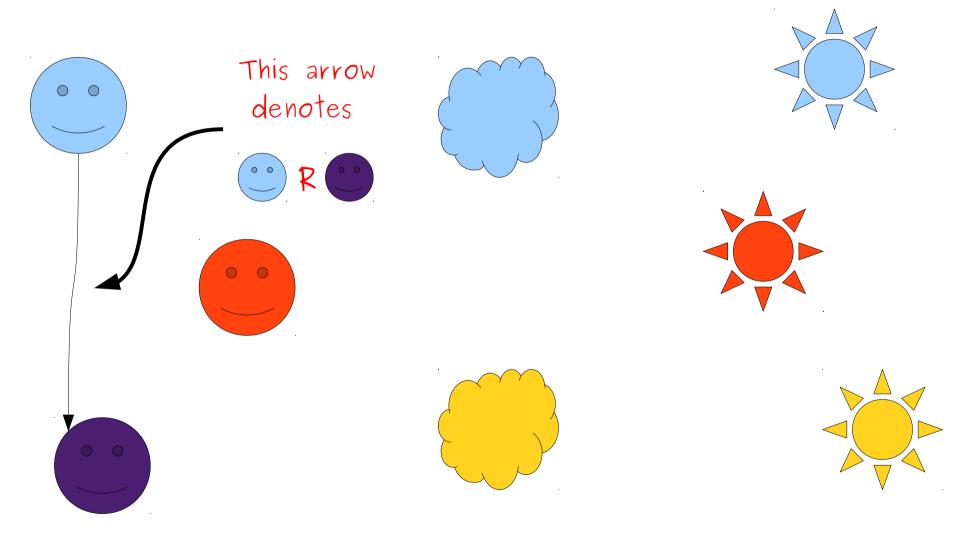
- reflexive,
- symmetric, and
- transitive.



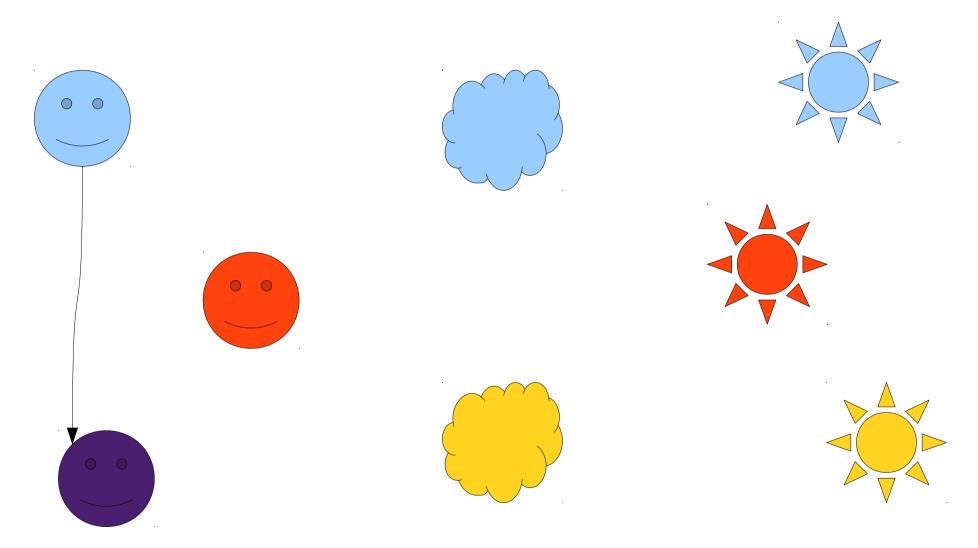
 $xRy \equiv x$ and y have the same shape.



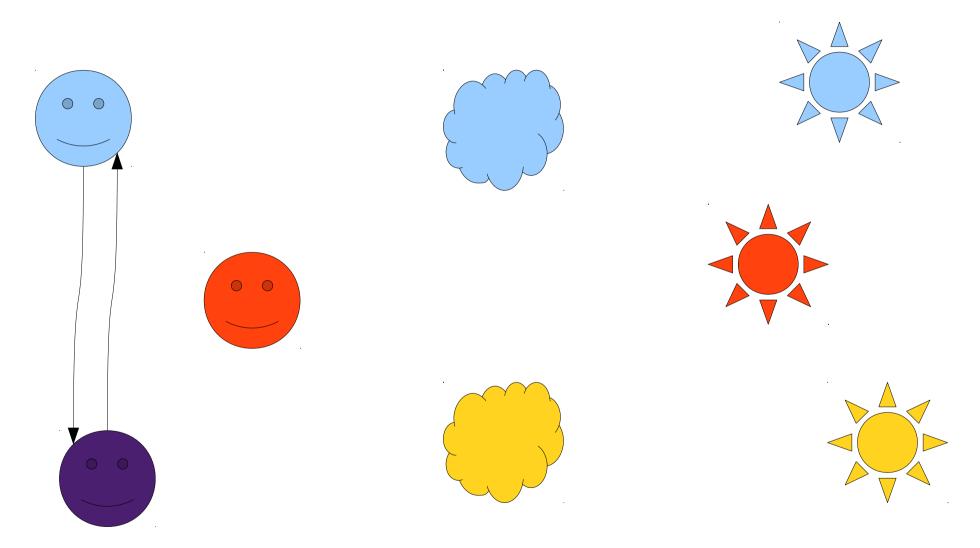
 $xRy \equiv x$ and y have the same shape.



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

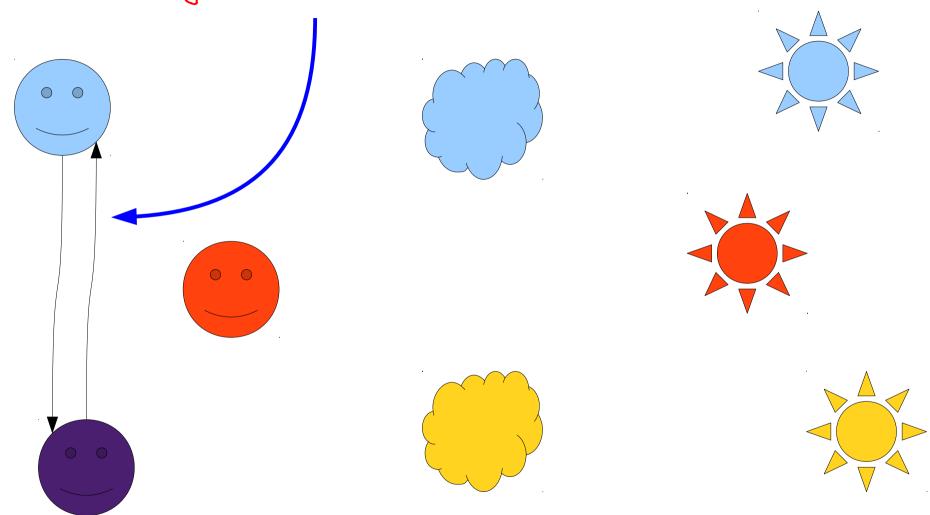


 $xRy \equiv x$ and y have the same shape.

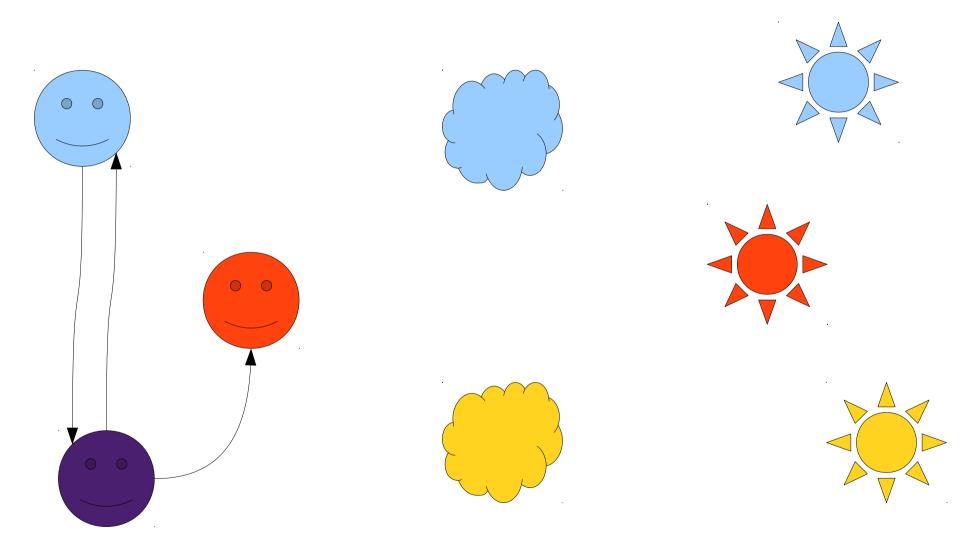


 $xRy \equiv x$ and y have the same shape.

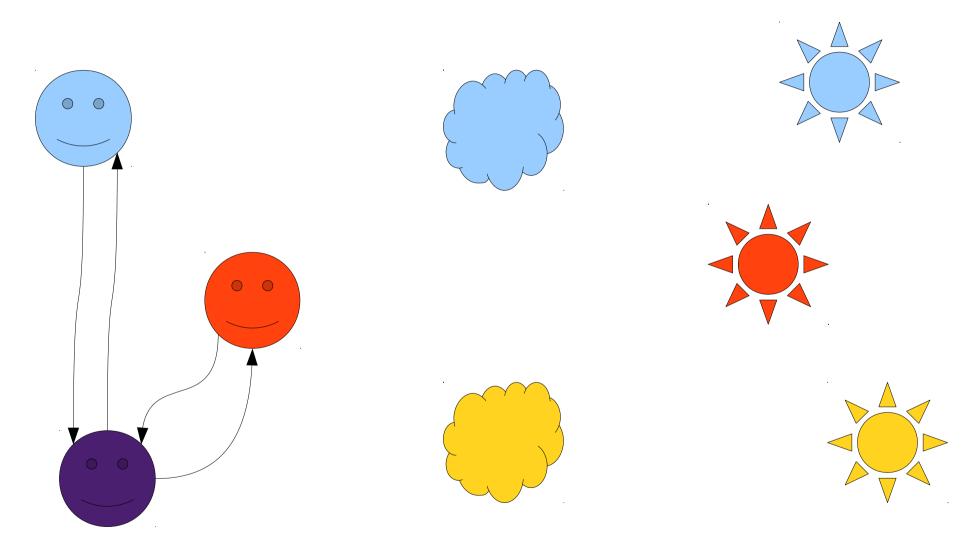
What property says this edge must be here?



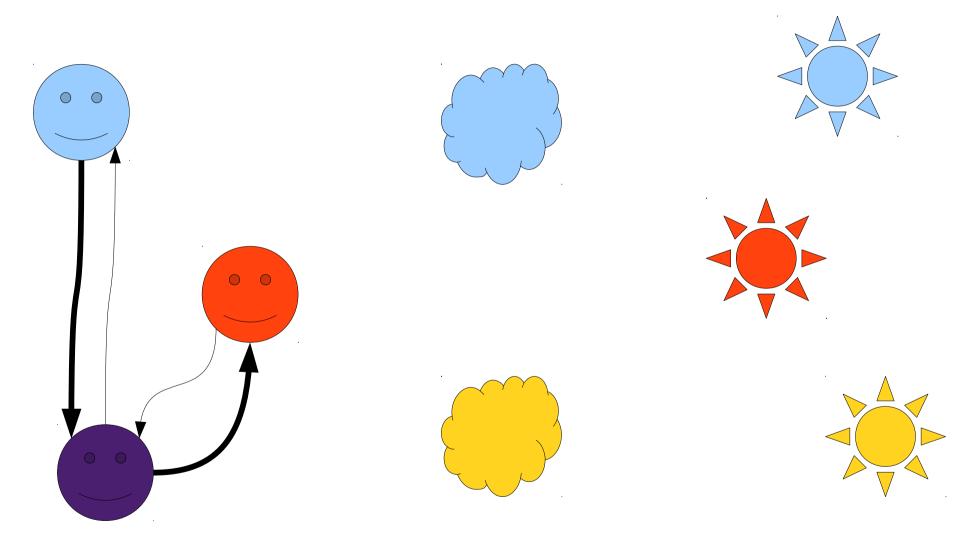
 $xRy \equiv x$ and y have the same shape.



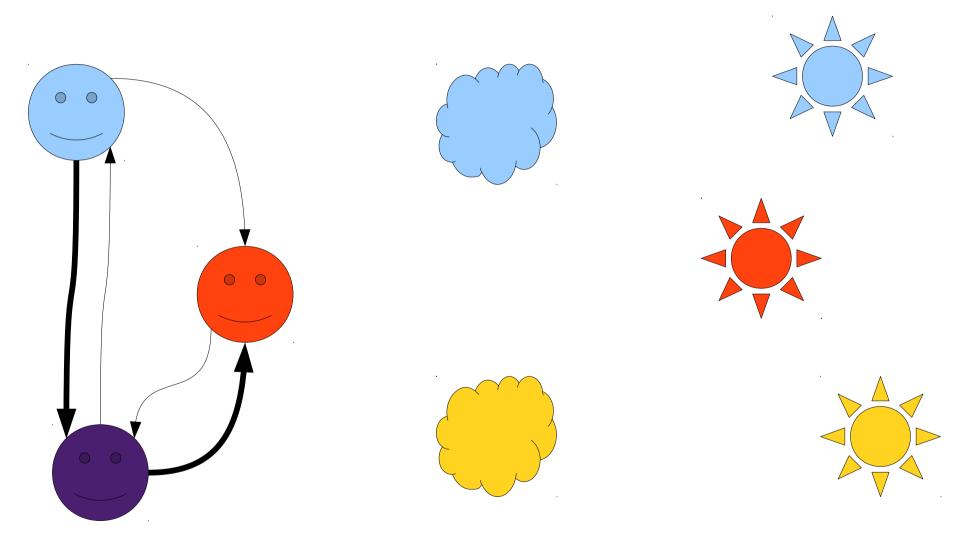
 $xRy \equiv x$ and y have the same shape.



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

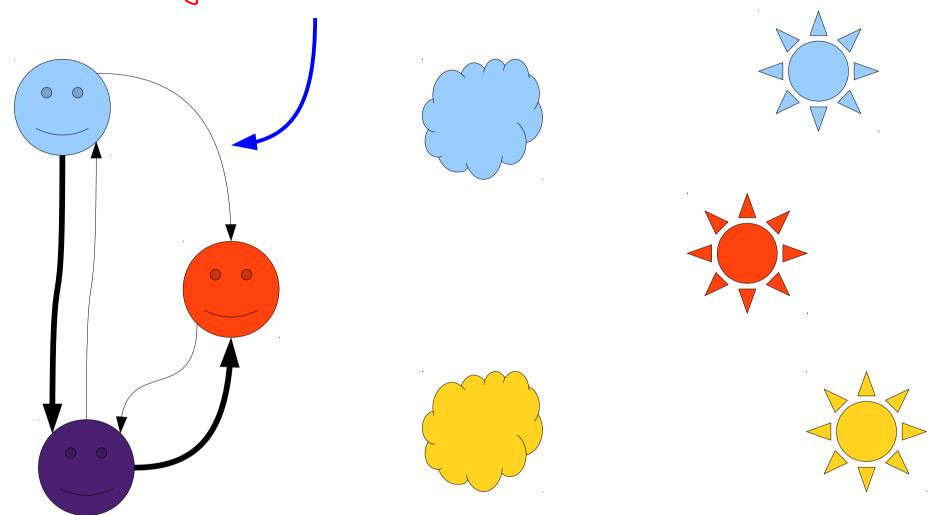


 $xRy \equiv x$ and y have the same shape.

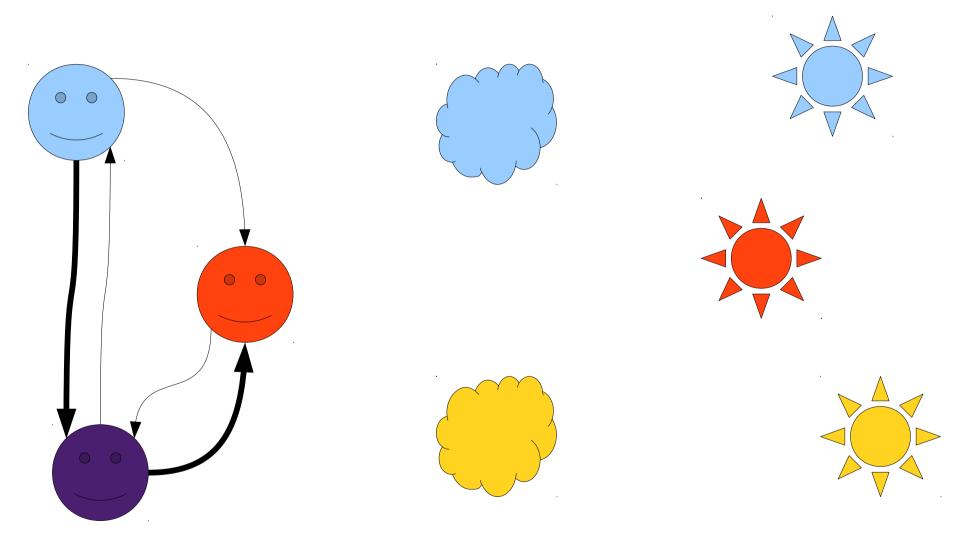


 $xRy \equiv x$ and y have the same shape.

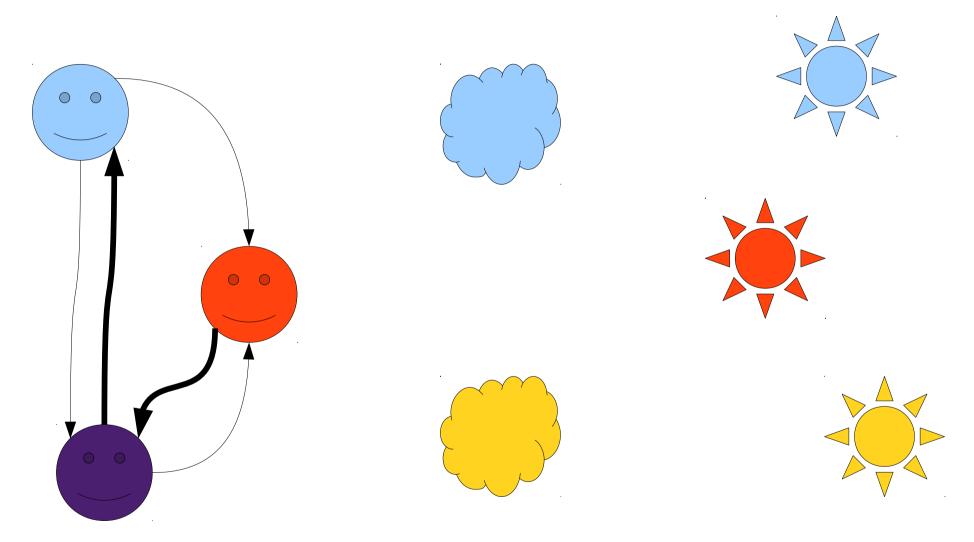
What property says this edge must be here?



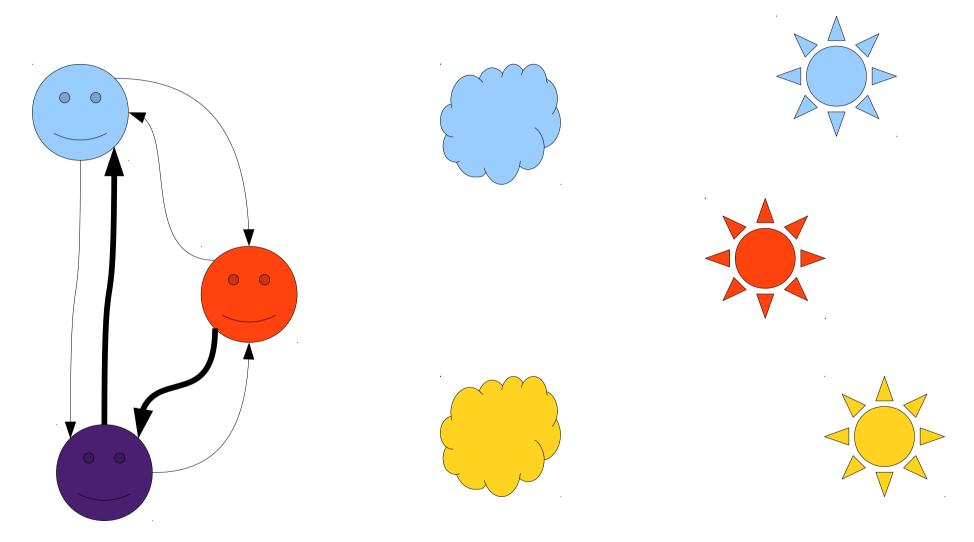
 $xRy \equiv x$ and y have the same shape.



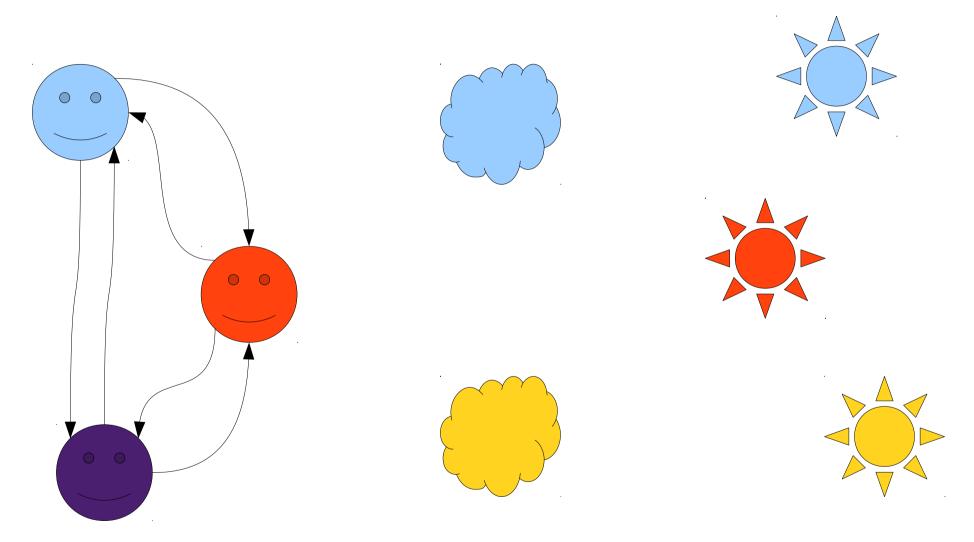
 $xRy \equiv x$ and y have the same shape.



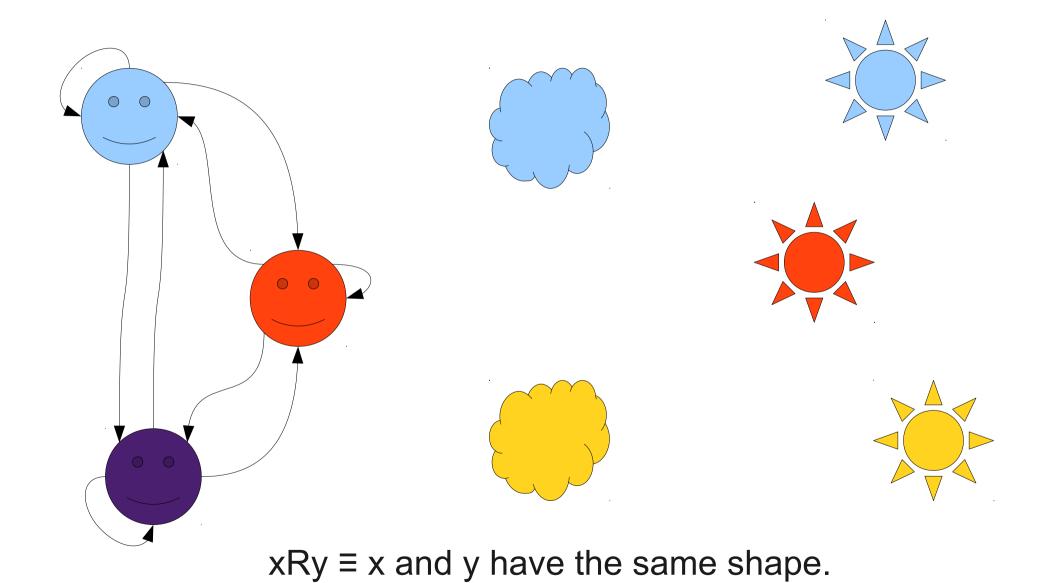
 $xRy \equiv x$ and y have the same shape.

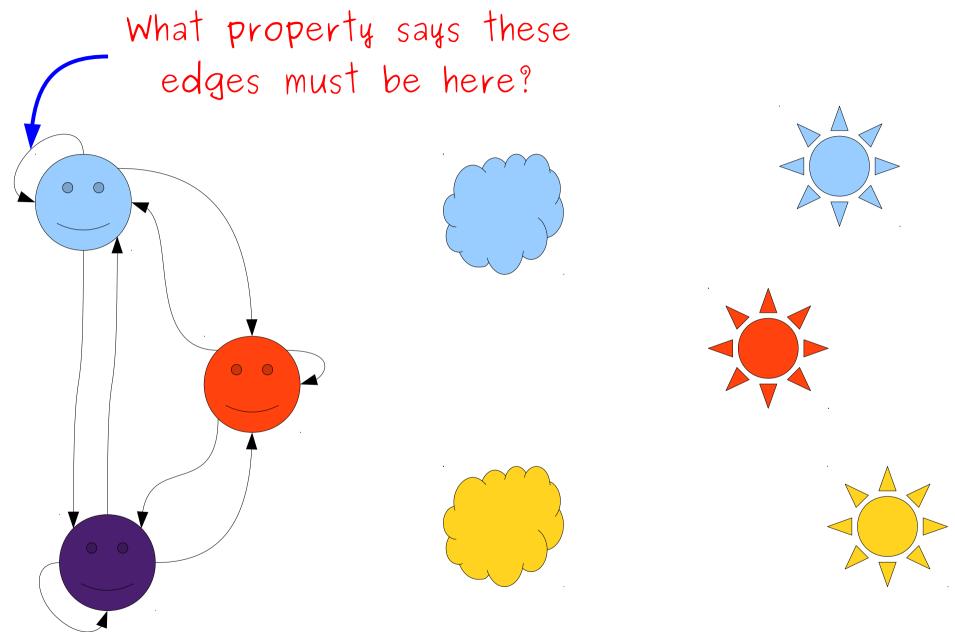


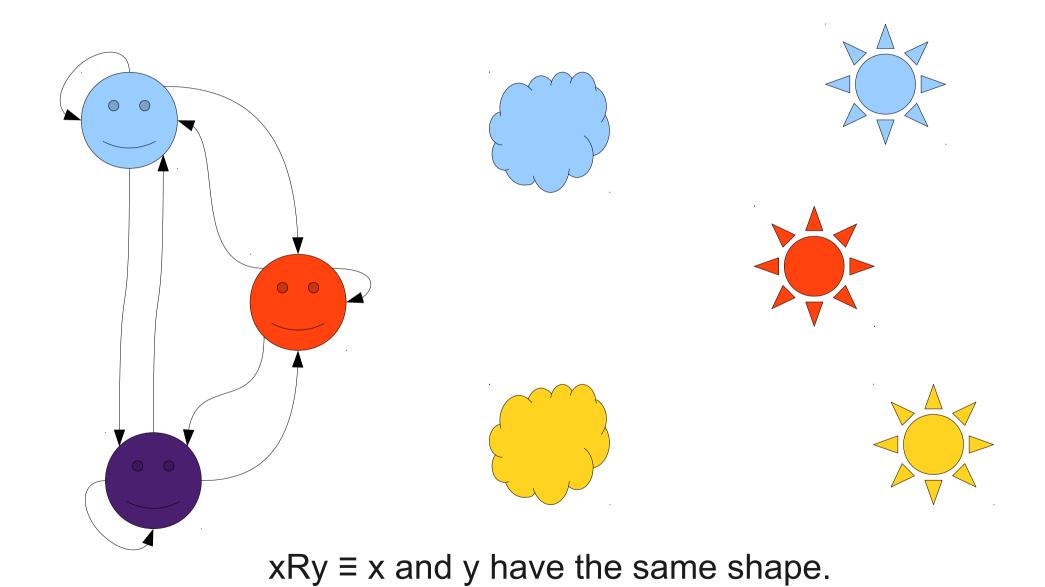
 $xRy \equiv x$ and y have the same shape.

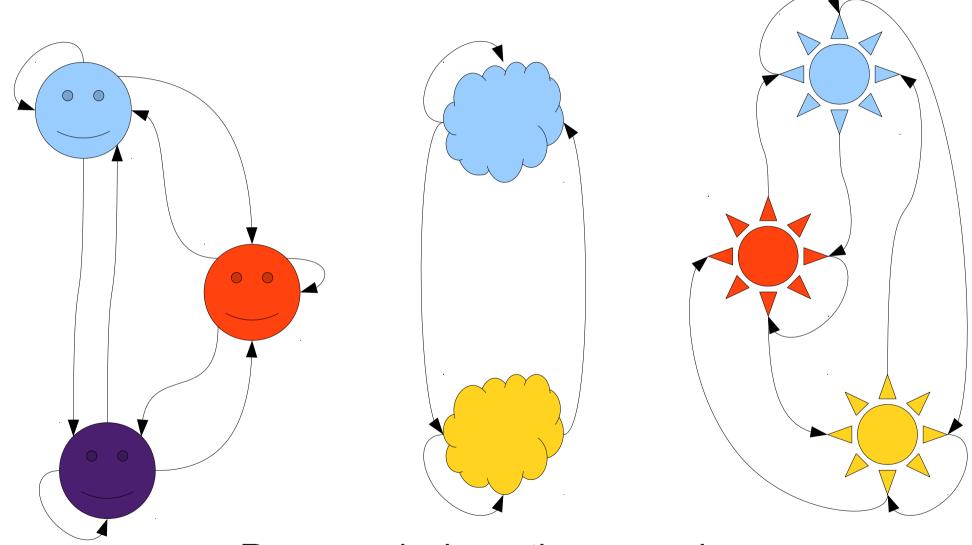


 $xRy \equiv x$ and y have the same shape.

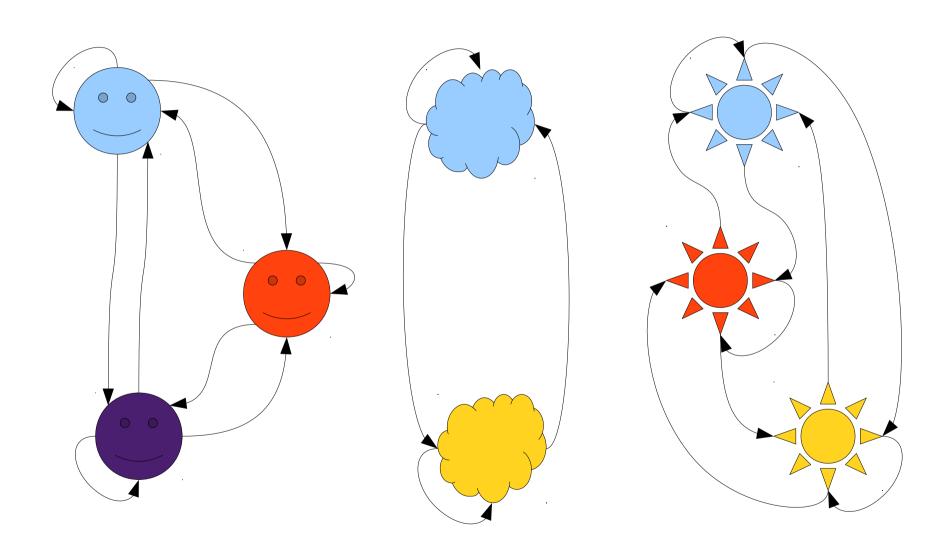




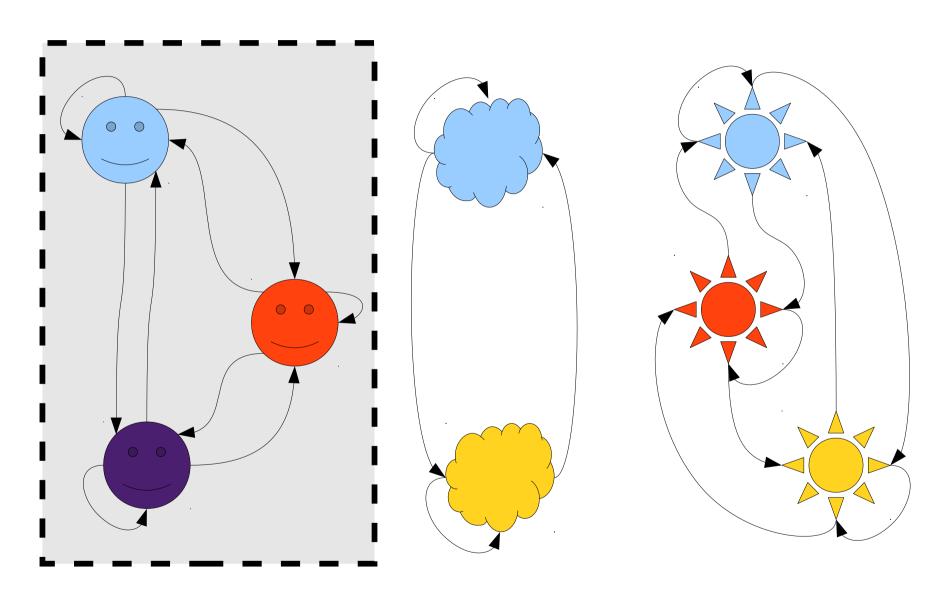




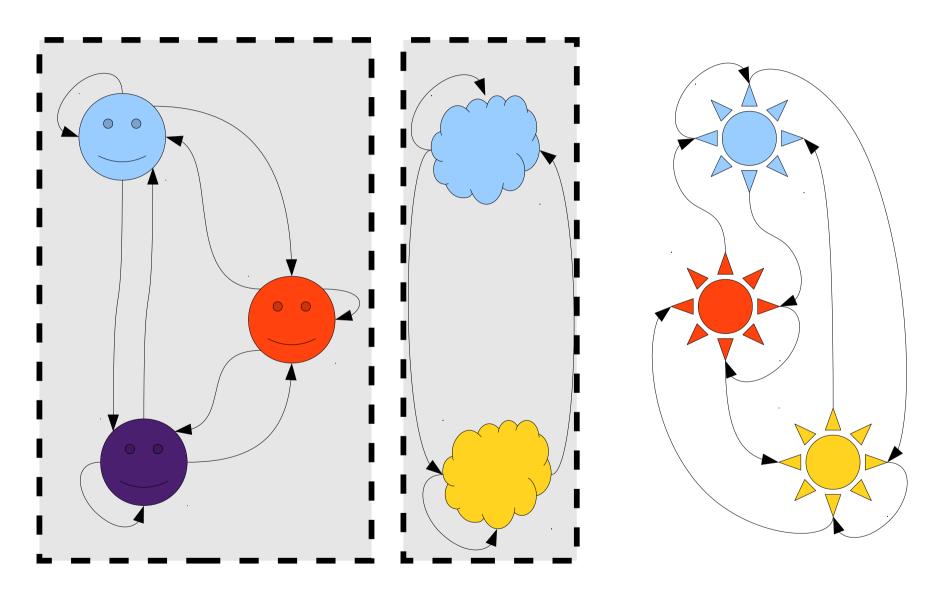
 $xRy \equiv x$ and y have the same shape.



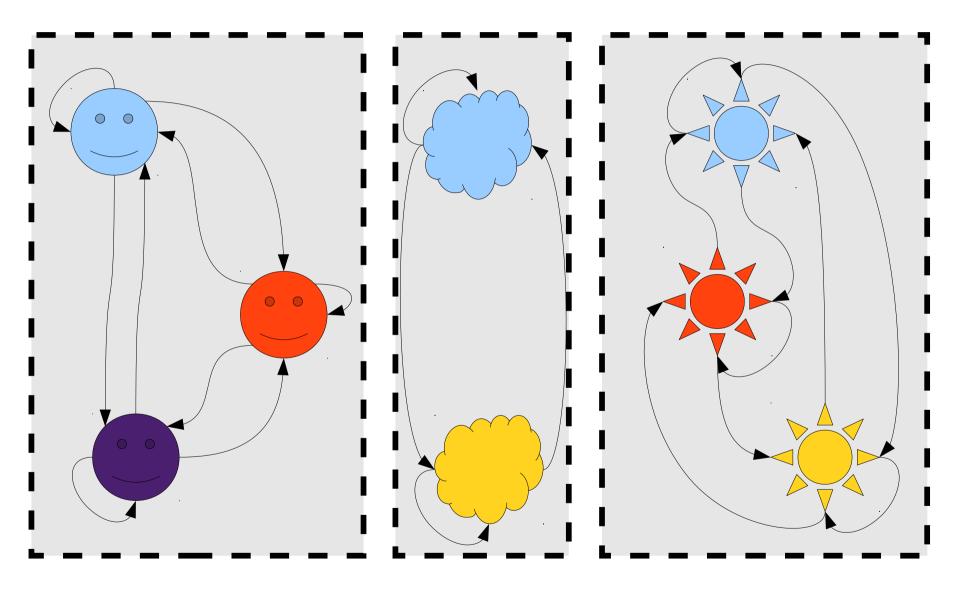
 $xRy \equiv x$ and y are the same shape.



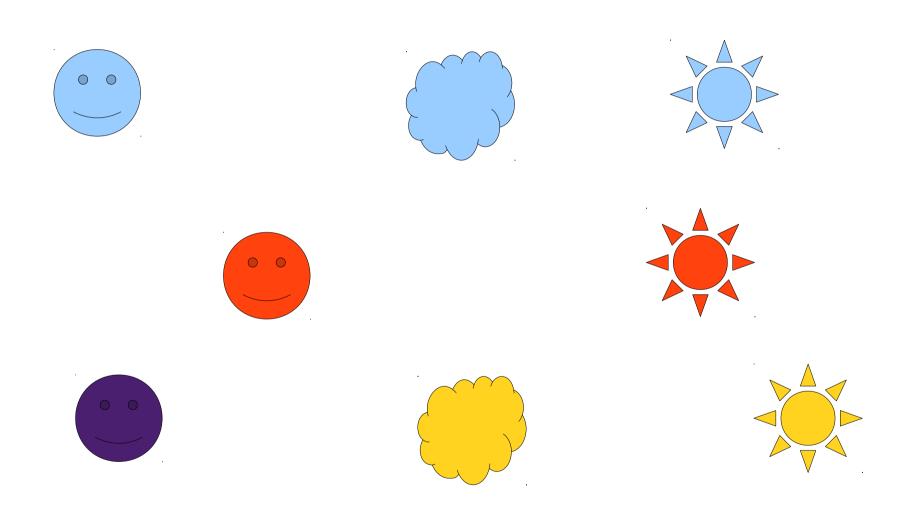
 $xRy \equiv x$ and y are the same shape.



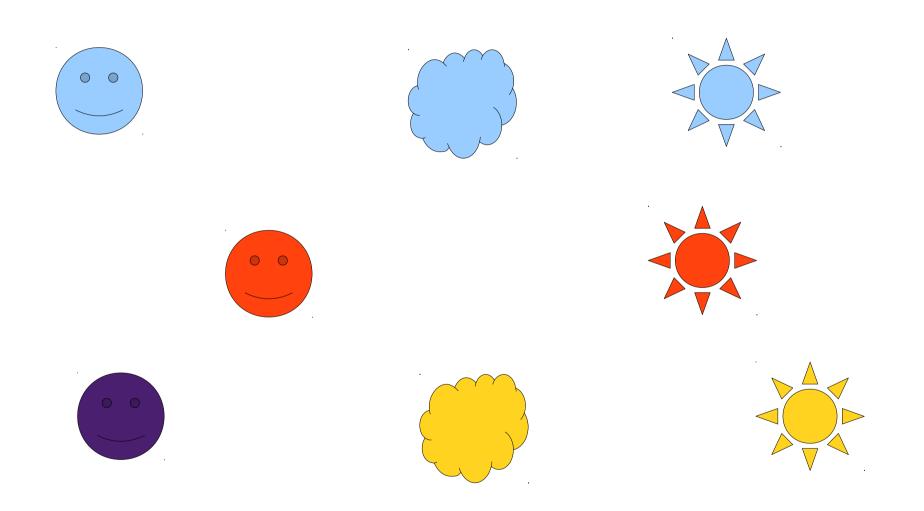
 $xRy \equiv x$ and y are the same shape.



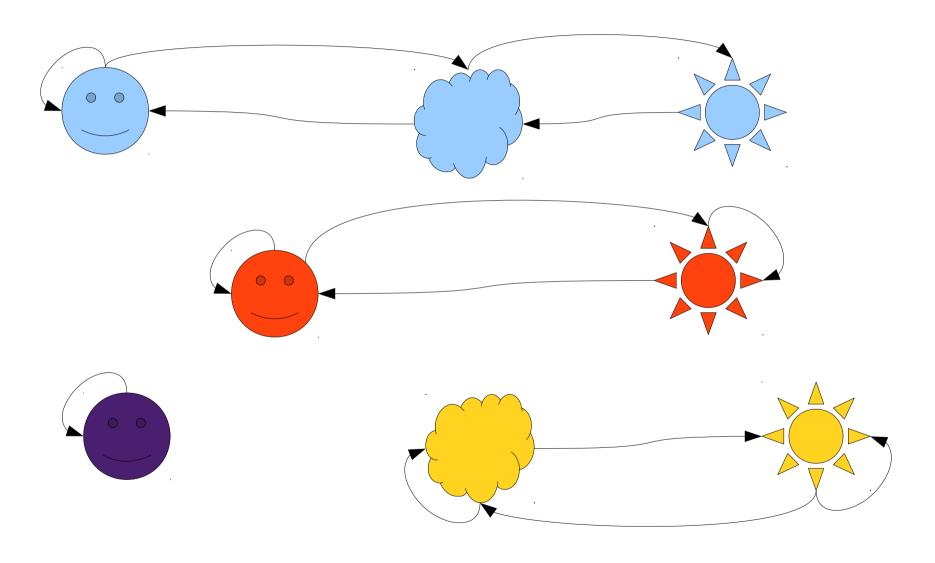
 $xRy \equiv x$ and y are the same shape.



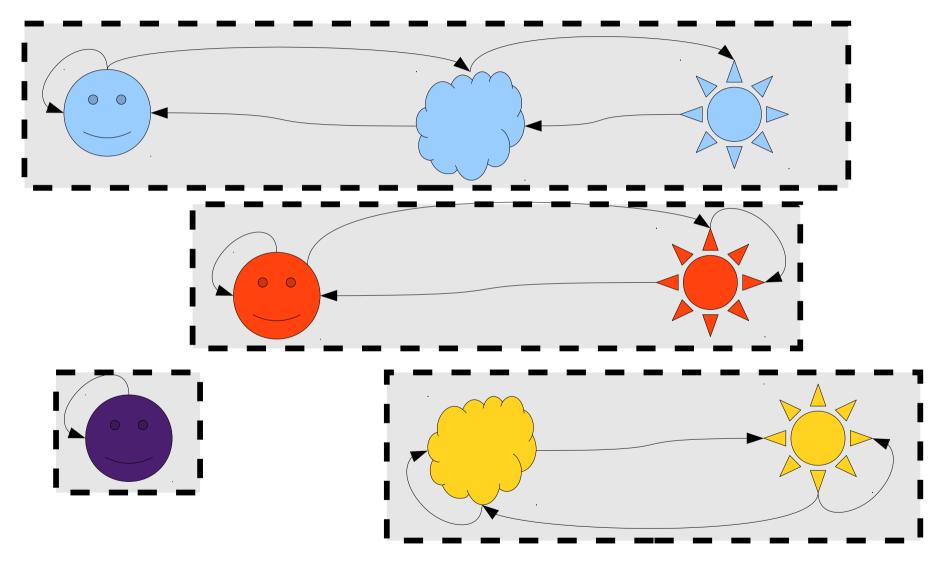
 $xRy \equiv x$ and y are the same shape.



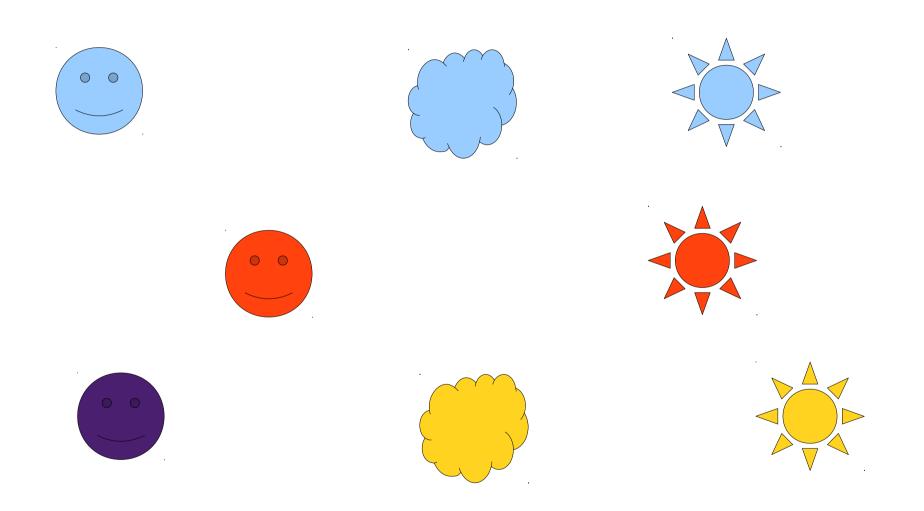
 $xRy \equiv x$ and y are the same color.



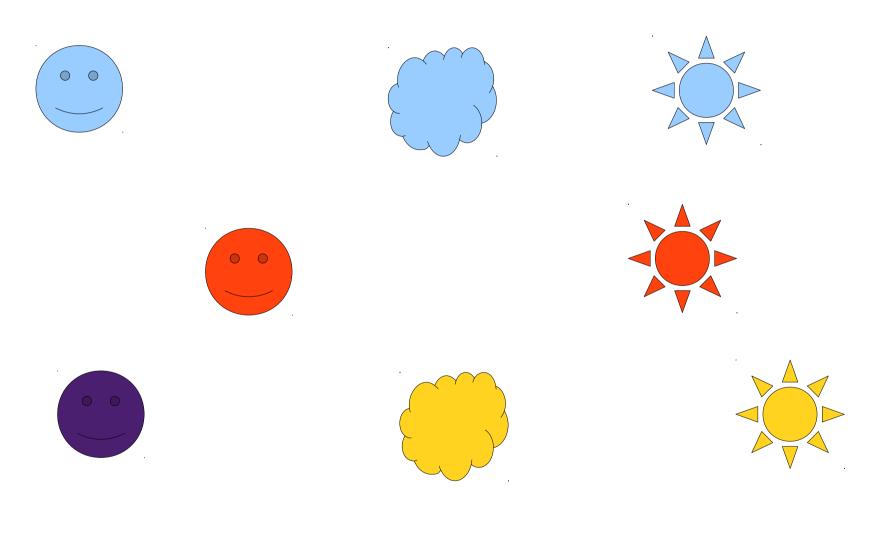
 $xRy \equiv x$ and y are the same color.



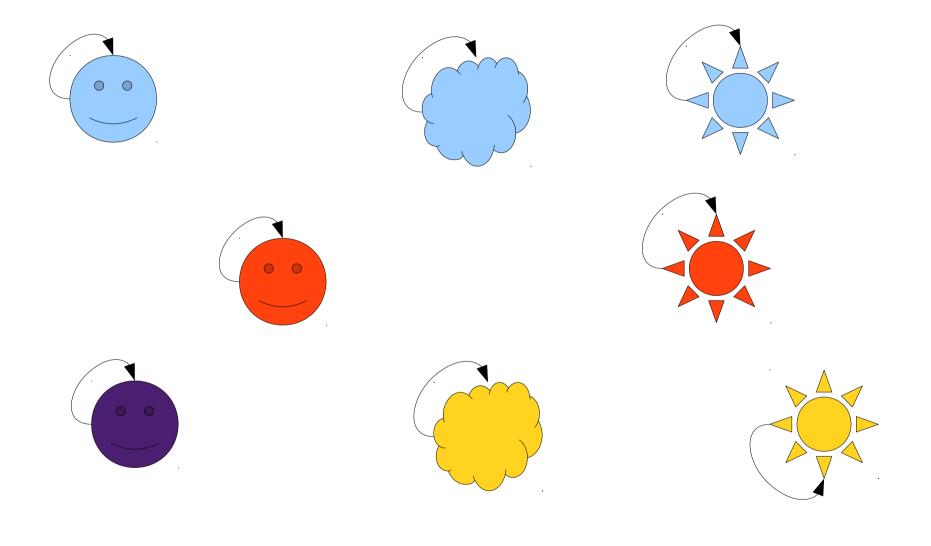
 $xRy \equiv x$ and y are the same color.



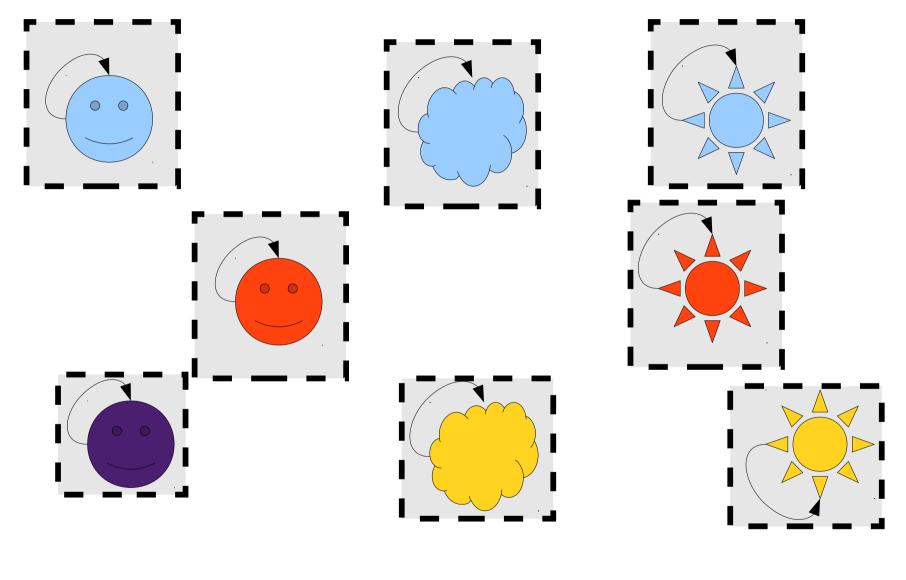
 $xRy \equiv x$ and y are the same color.



 $xRy \equiv x = y$



 $xRy \equiv x = y$



 $xRy \equiv x = y$

Equivalence Classes

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

$$[x]_R \equiv \{ a \mid a \in A \text{ and } xRa \}$$

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

How do we prove this?

Existence and Uniqueness

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

Proving Existence

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

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

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

To see that every element of A belongs to at least one equivalence class, consider any $a \in A$ and the equivalence class $[a]_R = \{ x \mid x \in A \text{ and } aRx \}$.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

To see that every $a \in A$ belongs to at most one equivalence class, ?????

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

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

To see that every $a \in A$ belongs to at most one equivalence class, ?????

How do we prove this?

Proving Uniqueness

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

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

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

To see that every $a \in A$ belongs to at most one equivalence class, ?????

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

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

To see that every $a \in A$ belongs to at most one equivalence class, we show that for any $a \in A$, if $a \in [x]_R$ and $a \in [y]_R$, then $[x]_R = [y]_R$.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Assume that $a \in [x]_R$ and $a \in [y]_R$. Consider any $t \in [x]_R$.

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

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

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

Assume that $a \in [x]_R$ and $a \in [y]_R$. Consider any $t \in [x]_R$. Since $t \in [x]_R$, we know xRt.

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

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

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

Assume that $a \in [x]_R$ and $a \in [y]_R$. Consider any $t \in [x]_R$. Since $t \in [x]_R$, we know xRt. Since $a \in [x]_R$, we have that xRa.

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

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

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

Assume that $a \in [x]_R$ and $a \in [y]_R$. Consider any $t \in [x]_R$. Since $t \in [x]_R$, we know xRt. Since $a \in [x]_R$, we have that xRa. Since R is an equivalence relation, R is symmetric and transitive.

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

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

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

Assume that $a \in [x]_R$ and $a \in [y]_R$. Consider any $t \in [x]_R$. Since $t \in [x]_R$, we know xRt. Since $a \in [x]_R$, we have that xRa. Since R is an equivalence relation, R is symmetric and transitive. By symmetry, from xRa we know aRx.

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

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

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

Assume that $a \in [x]_R$ and $a \in [y]_R$. Consider any $t \in [x]_R$. Since $t \in [x]_R$, we know xRt. Since $a \in [x]_R$, we have that xRa. Since R is an equivalence relation, R is symmetric and transitive. By symmetry, from xRa we know aRx. By transitivity, from aRx and xRt we know aRt.

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

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

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

Assume that $a \in [x]_R$ and $a \in [y]_R$. Consider any $t \in [x]_R$. Since $t \in [x]_R$, we know xRt. Since $a \in [x]_R$, we have that xRa. Since R is an equivalence relation, R is symmetric and transitive. By symmetry, from xRa we know aRx. By transitivity, from aRx and xRt we know aRt. Since $a \in [y]_R$, we also know yRa.

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

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

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

Assume that $a \in [x]_R$ and $a \in [y]_R$. Consider any $t \in [x]_R$. Since $t \in [x]_R$, we know xRt. Since $a \in [x]_R$, we have that xRa. Since R is an equivalence relation, R is symmetric and transitive. By symmetry, from xRa we know aRx. By transitivity, from aRx and xRt we know aRt. Since $a \in [y]_R$, we also know yRa. By transitivity, from yRa and aRt we know yRt.

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

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

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

Assume that $a \in [x]_R$ and $a \in [y]_R$. Consider any $t \in [x]_R$. Since $t \in [x]_R$, we know xRt. Since $a \in [x]_R$, we have that xRa. Since R is an equivalence relation, R is symmetric and transitive. By symmetry, from xRa we know aRx. By transitivity, from aRx and xRt we know aRt. Since $a \in [y]_R$, we also know yRa. By transitivity, from yRa and aRt we know yRt. Thus, $t \in [y]_R$.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

To see that every element of A belongs to at least one equivalence class, consider any $a \in A$ and the equivalence class $[a]_{P} = \{ x \mid x \in A \text{ and } aRx \}$.

Since R is an equivalence relation, R is reflexive, so aRa. Thus $a \in [a]_R$.

Since our choice of a was arbitrary, every $a \in A$ belongs to at least one

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

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

Order Relations

"x is larger than y"

"x is tastier than y"

"x runs faster than y"

"x is a subset of y"

"x divides y"

"x is a part of y"

Informally

An order relation is a relation that ranks elements against one another.

Again, do <u>not</u> use this definition in proofs! It's just an intuition!

$$x \le y$$

$$x \le y$$

$$1 \le 5$$
 and $5 \le 8$

$$x \le y$$

$$1 \le 5$$
 and $5 \le 8$

$$x \le y$$

$$42 \le 99$$
 and $99 \le 137$

$$x \le y$$

$$42 \le 99$$
 and $99 \le 137$
 $42 \le 137$

$$x \le y$$
 and $y \le z$

$$x \le y$$

$$X \le y \quad \text{and} \quad y \le Z$$

$$X \le Z$$

$$x \le y$$

$$x \le y$$
 and $y \le Z$ $x \le Z$

Transitivity

$$x \le y$$

$$x \le y$$

$$x \le y$$

$$137 \le 137$$

$$x \le y$$

$$X \leq X$$

$$x \le y$$

$$X \leq X$$

Reflexivity

$$x \le y$$

$$x \le y$$

$$19 \le 21$$
 $21 \le 19$?

19 ≤ 21

21 ≤ 19?

$$x \le y$$

$$42 \le 137$$

$$x \le y$$

$$42 \le 137$$
 $137 \le 42$?

$$42 \le 137$$

$$137 \le 137$$

$$x \le y$$

$$137 \le 137$$
 $137 \le 137$?

$$x \le y$$

 $137 \le 137$

137 ≤ 137

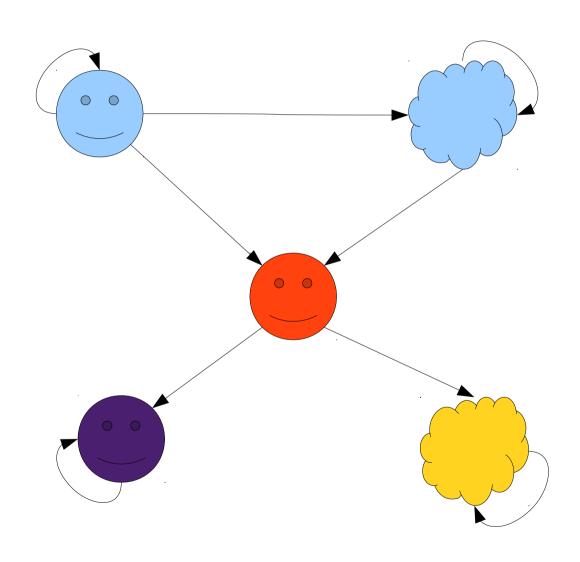
Antisymmetry

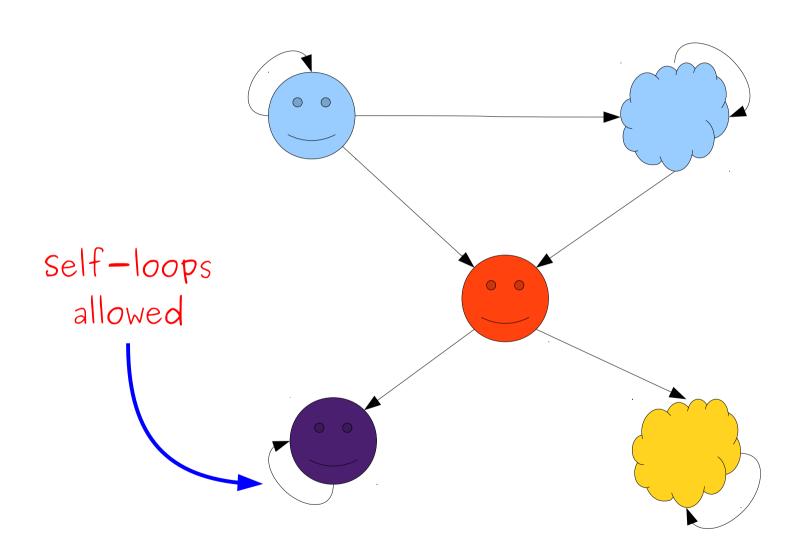
A binary relation R over a set A is called antisymmetric iff

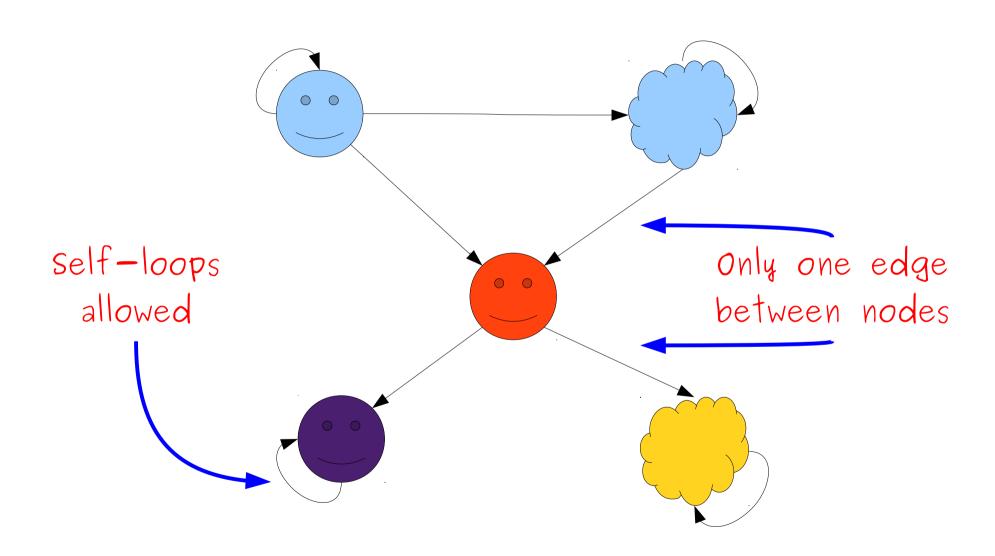
For any $x \in A$ and $y \in A$, if xRy and yRx, then x = y.

Equivalently:

For any $x \in A$ and $y \in A$, If xRy and $y \neq x$, then $y\not\in x$.







An Important Detail

- A binary relation R over a set A is antisymmetric iff for any $x \in A$ and $y \in A$, if xRy and yRx, then x = y.
- Is the relation < over real numbers antisymmetric?

An Important Detail

- A binary relation R over a set A is antisymmetric iff for any $x \in A$ and $y \in A$, if xRy and yRx, then x = y.
- Is the relation < over real numbers antisymmetric?
- Yes: This is vacuously true.
 - It's never possible for x < y and y < x to be true simultaneously.
 - The claim "if xRy and yRx, then x = y" is thus vacuously true.

Partial Orders

- A binary relation R is a partial order if it is
 - reflexive,
 - antisymmetric, and
 - transitive.
- A pair (S, R), where R is a partial order over S, is called a partially ordered set or poset.

Partial Orders

- A binary relation R is a partial order if it is
 - reflexive,
 - antisymmetric, and
 - transitive.

Why "partial"?

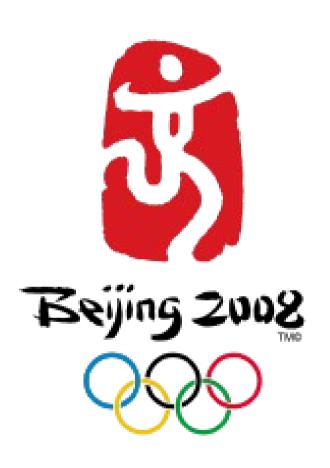
 A pair (S, R), where R is a partial order over S, is called a partially ordered set or poset.

2008 Summer Olympics



Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
51	21	28	100
36	38	36	110
23	21	28	72
19	13	15	47
14	15	17	46

2008 Summer Olympics



Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
51	21	28	100
36	38	36	110
23	21	28	72
19	13	15	47
14	15	17	46

Define the relationship

(gold₀, total₀)R(gold₁, total₁)

to be true when

gold₀ ≤ gold₁ and total₀ ≤ total₁

100

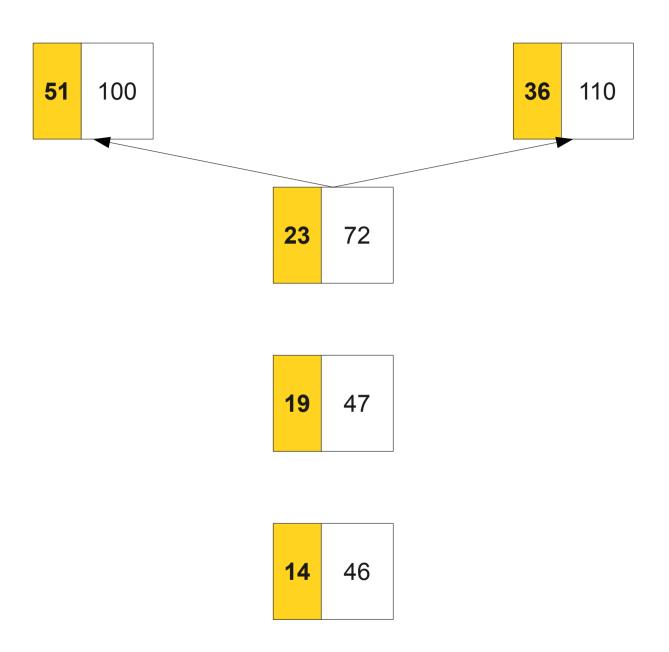
110

72

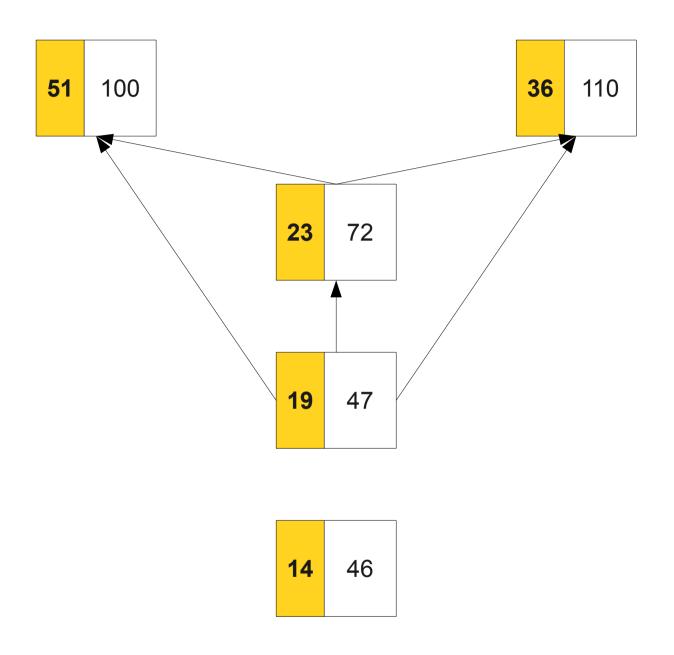
47

46

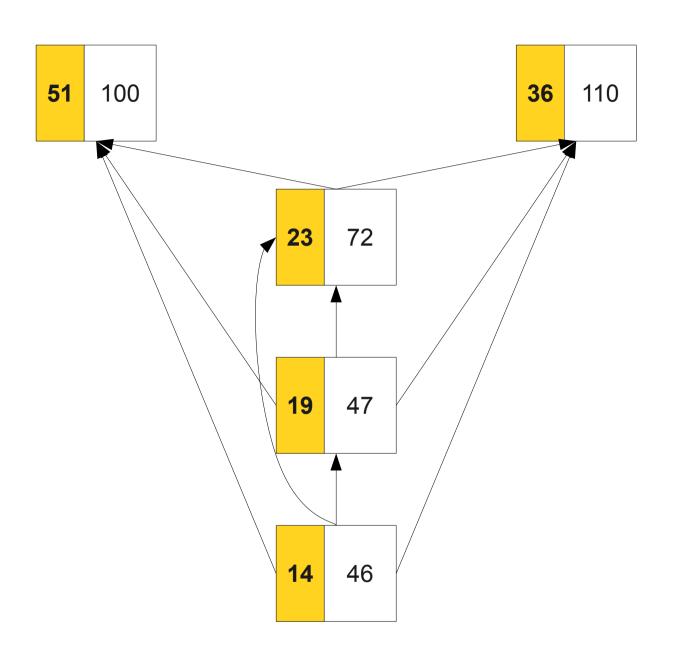
 $(g, t)R(g', t') \equiv g \leq g' \text{ and } t \leq t'$



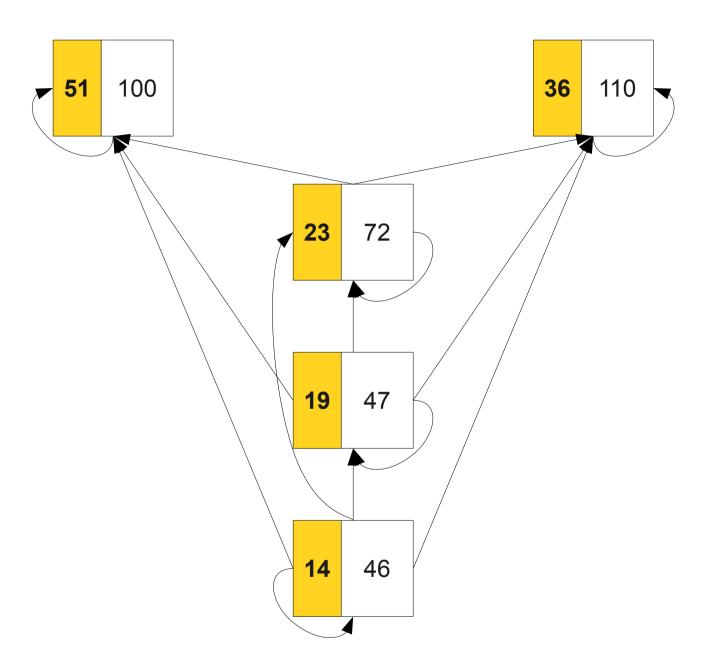
 $(g, t)R(g', t') \equiv g \leq g' \text{ and } t \leq t'$



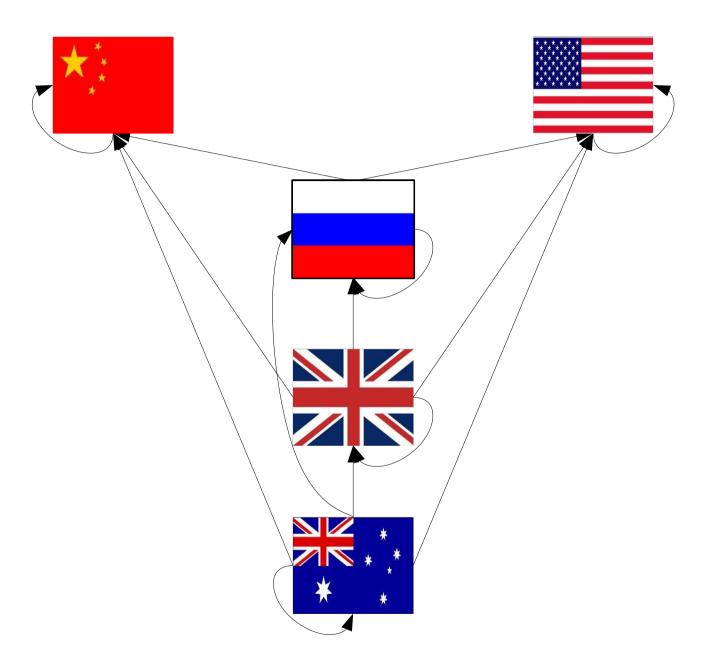
 $(g, t)R(g', t') \equiv g \leq g' \text{ and } t \leq t'$



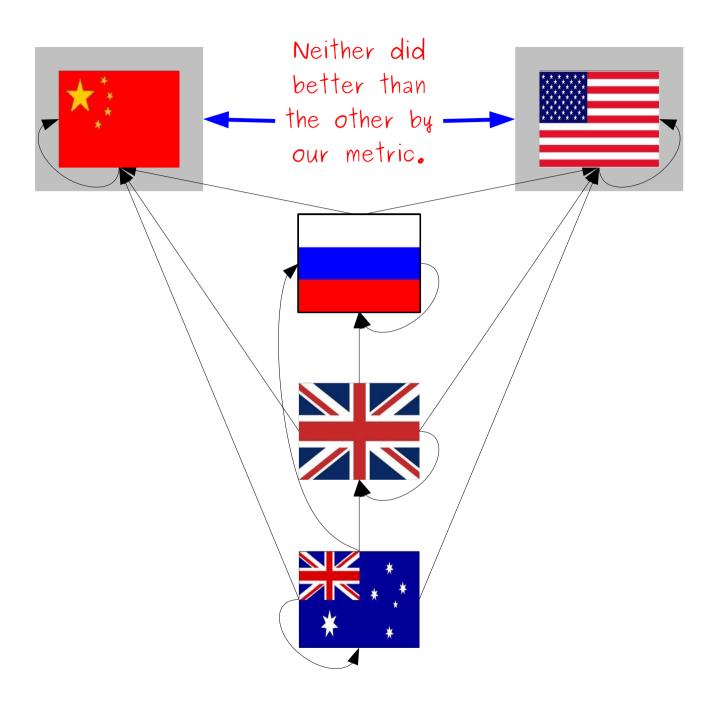
 $(g, t)R(g', t') \equiv g \leq g' \text{ and } t \leq t'$



 $(g, t)R(g', t') \equiv g \leq g' \text{ and } t \leq t'$



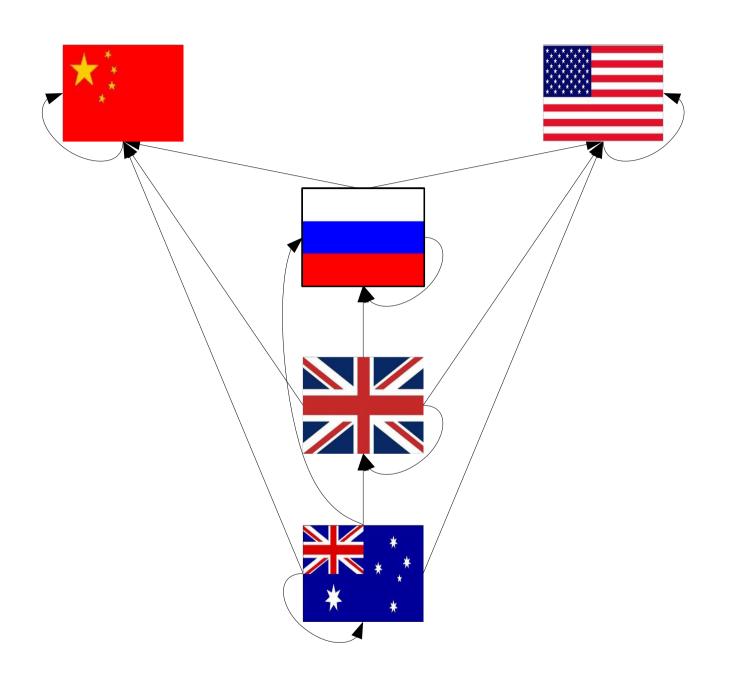
 $(g, t)R(g', t') \equiv g \leq g' \text{ and } t \leq t'$

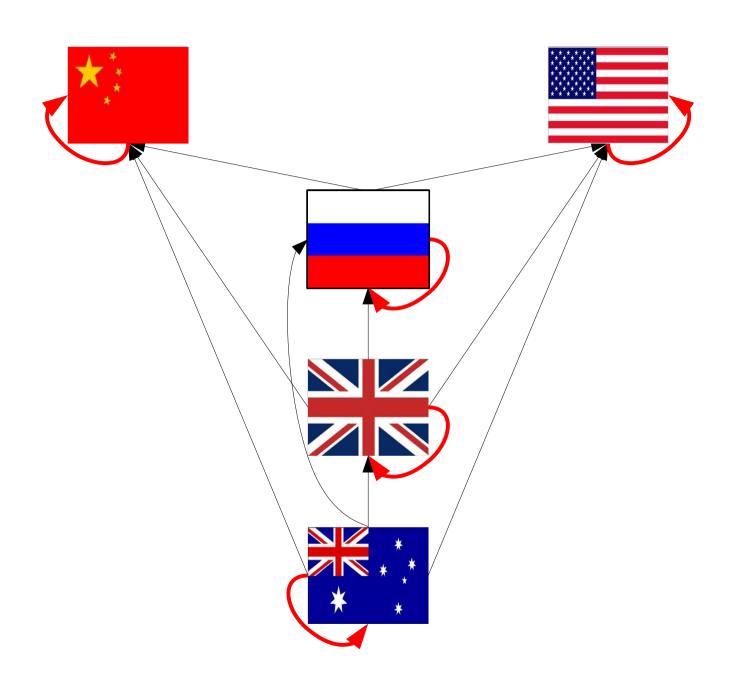


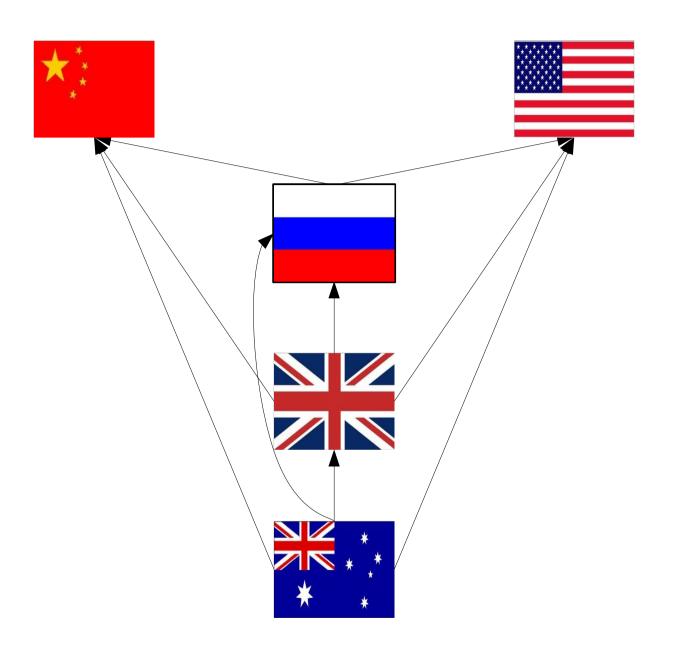
 $(g, t)R(g', t') \equiv g \leq g' \text{ and } t \leq t'$

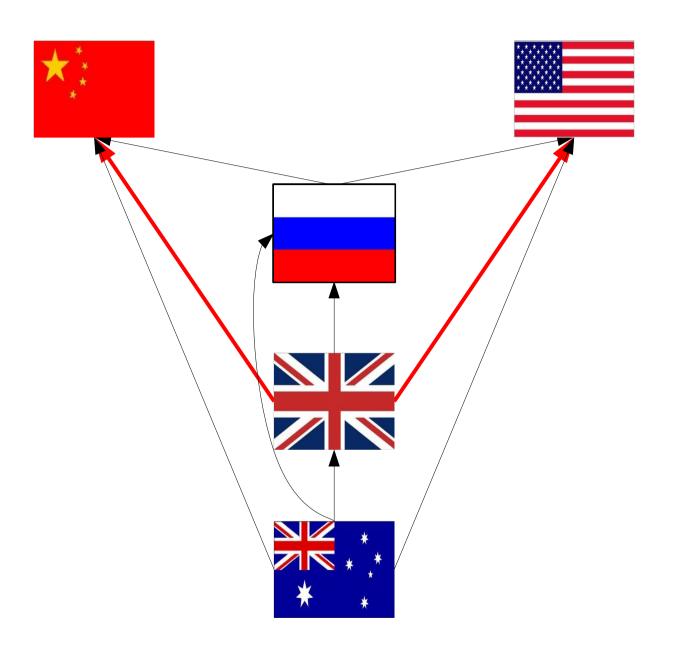
Partial and Total Orders

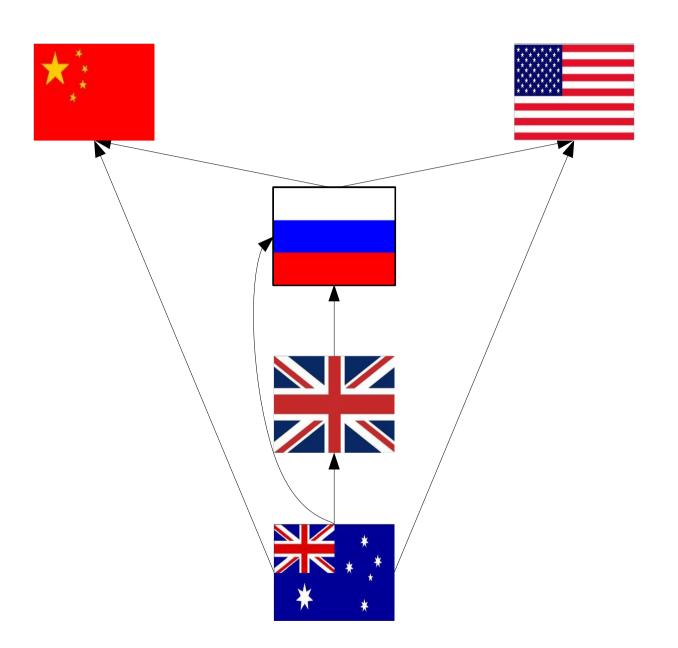
- A relation R over a set A is called total iff for any x ∈ A and y ∈ A, either xRy or yRx.
 - Could both be true?
- A partial order is called a total order if it is total.
- Examples:
 - Integers ordered by ≤.
 - Strings ordered alphabetically.

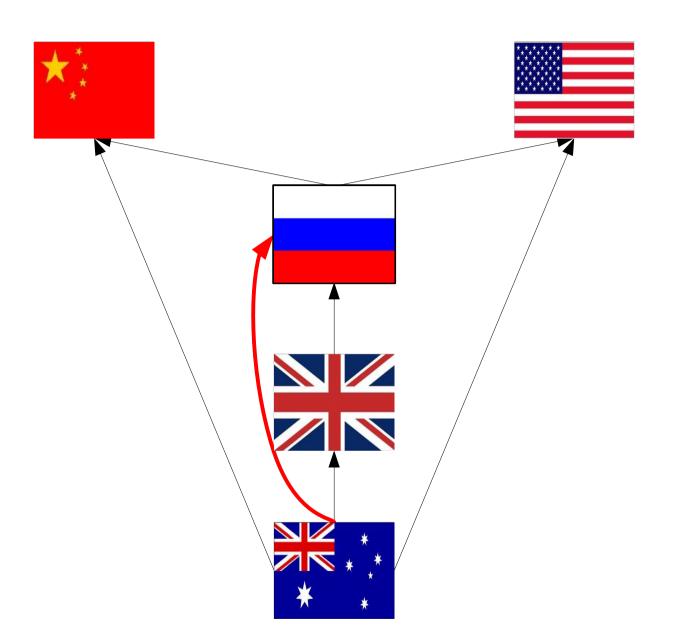


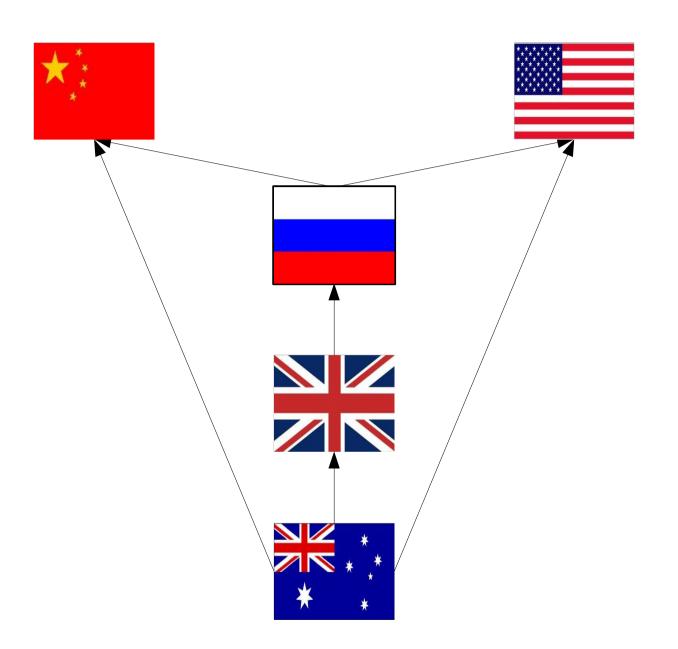


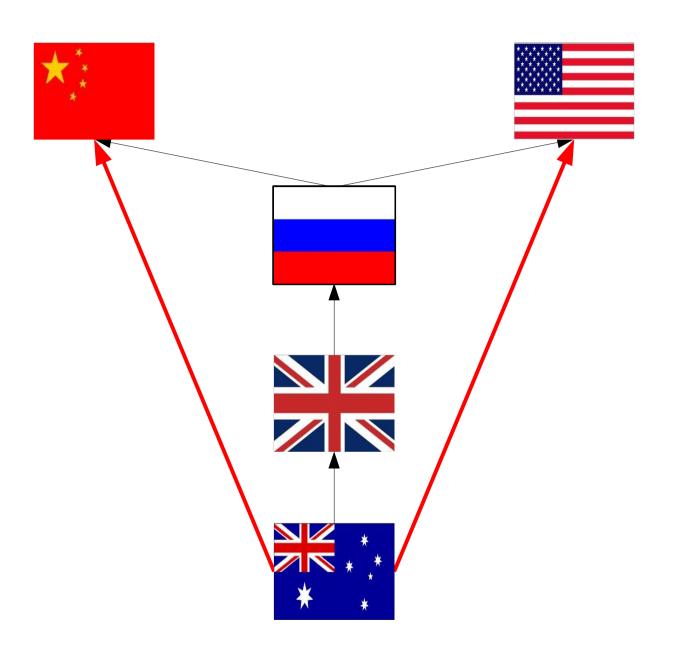


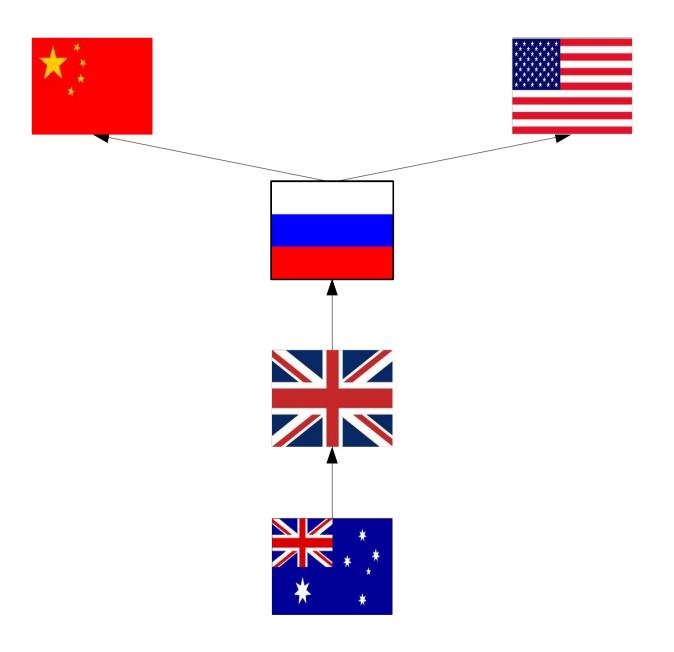


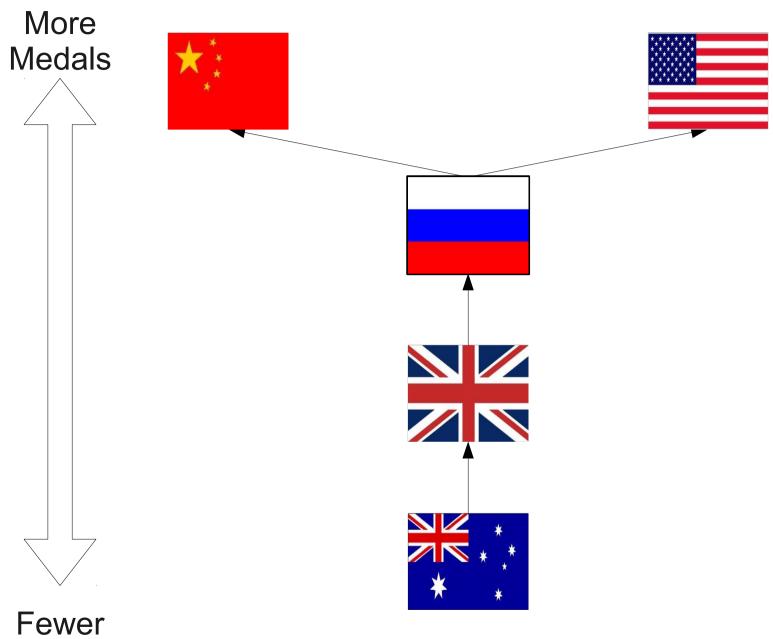




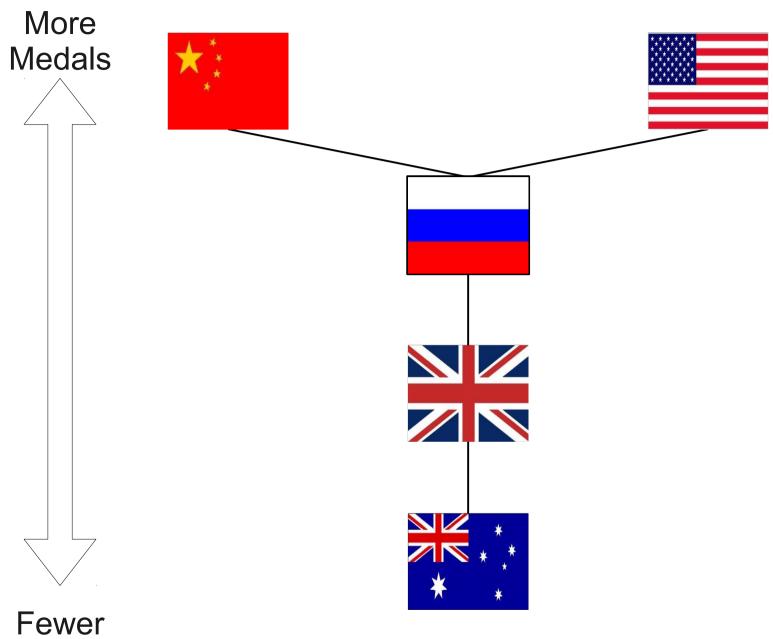








Fewer Medals



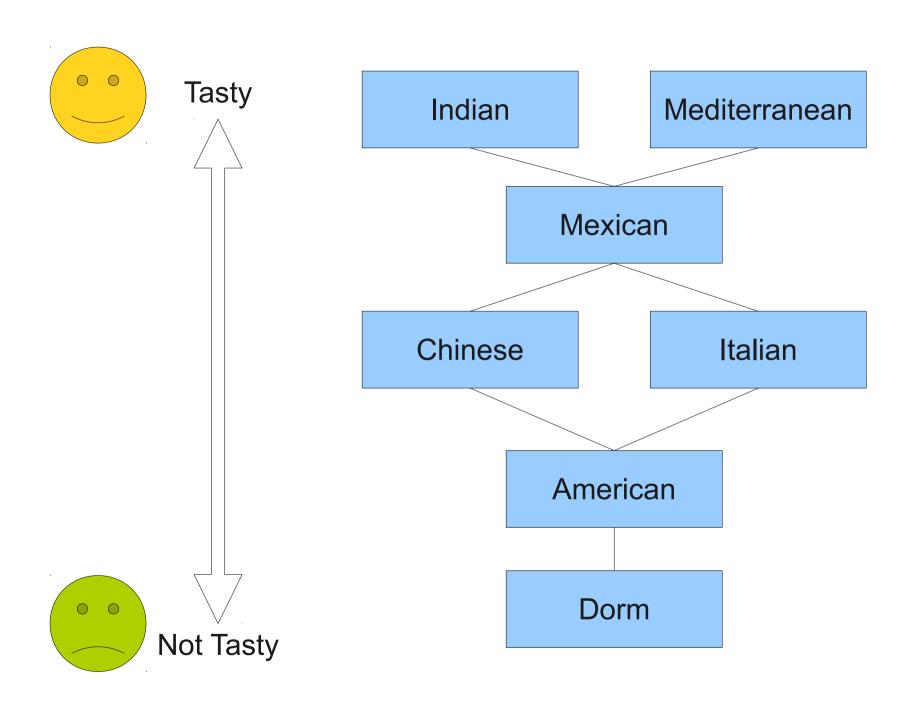
Fewer Medals

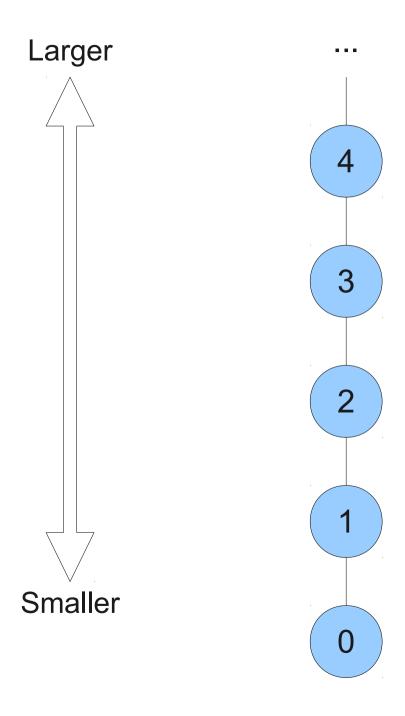
Hasse Diagrams

- A Hasse diagram is a graphical representation of a partial order.
- No self-loops: by reflexivity, we can always add them back in.
- Higher elements are bigger than lower elements: by antisymmetry, the edges can only go in one direction.
- No redundant edges: by transitivity, we can infer the missing edges.

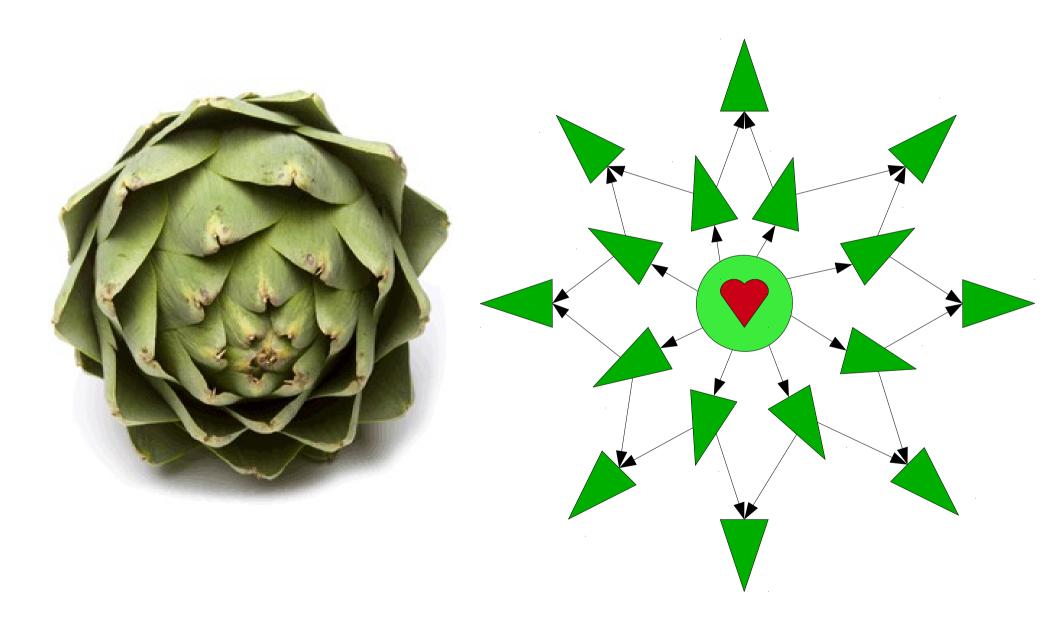
This is a good justification for our definition! These drawings encode the structure we'd like, and the three properties we've picked guarantee us that they mean what we want them to mean.

- No self-loops: by reflexivity, we can always add them back in.
- Higher elements are bigger than lower elements: by antisymmetry, the edges can only go in one direction.
- No redundant edges: by transitivity, we can infer the missing edges.

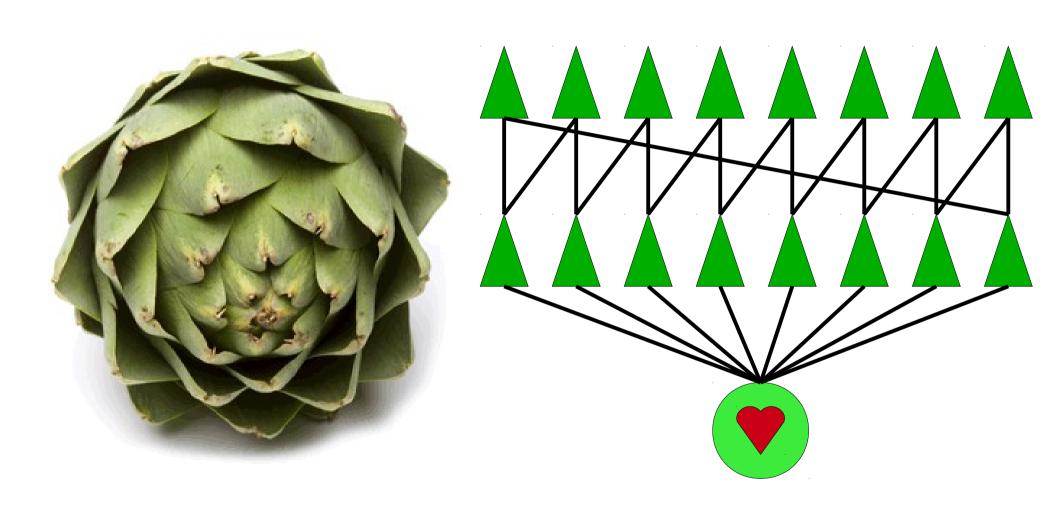




Hasse Artichokes



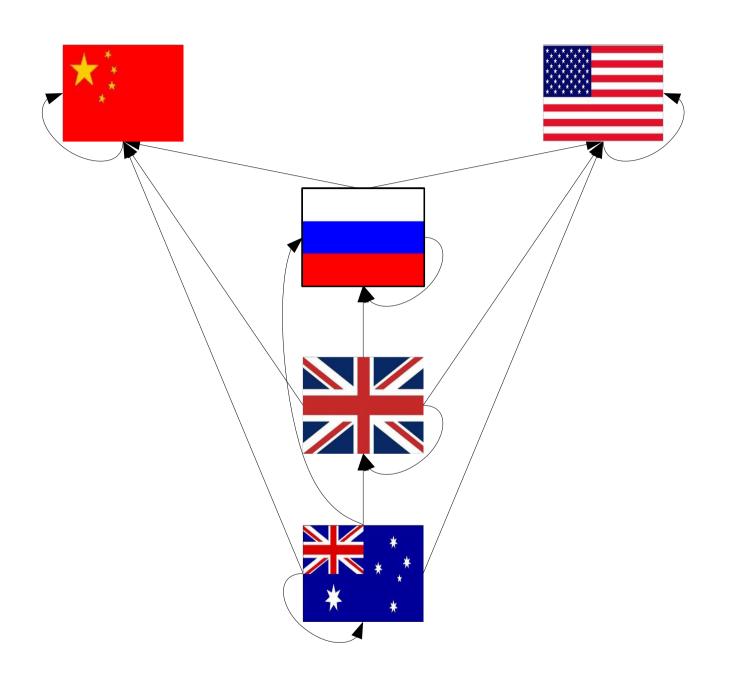
Hasse Artichokes

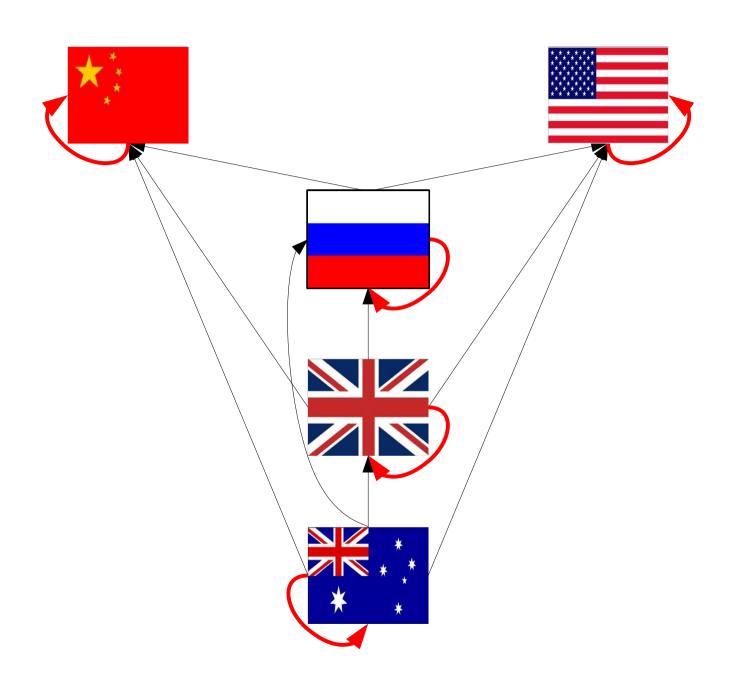


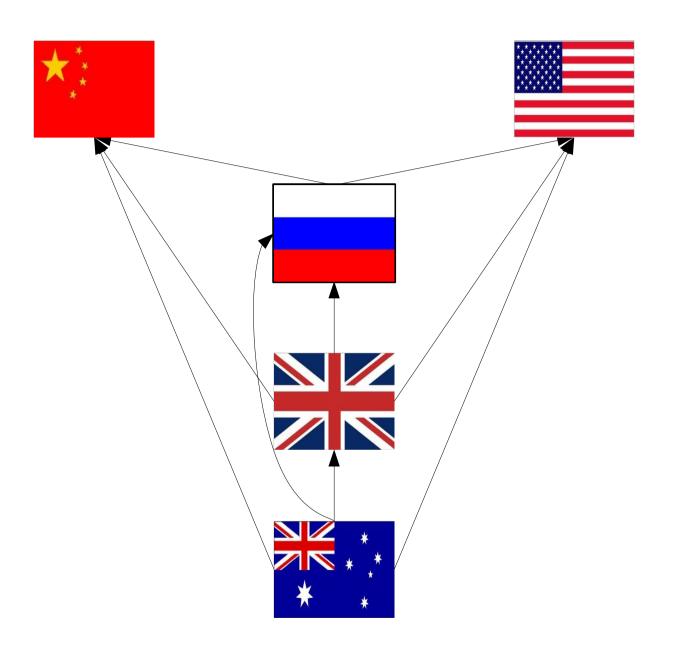
Hass Avocado

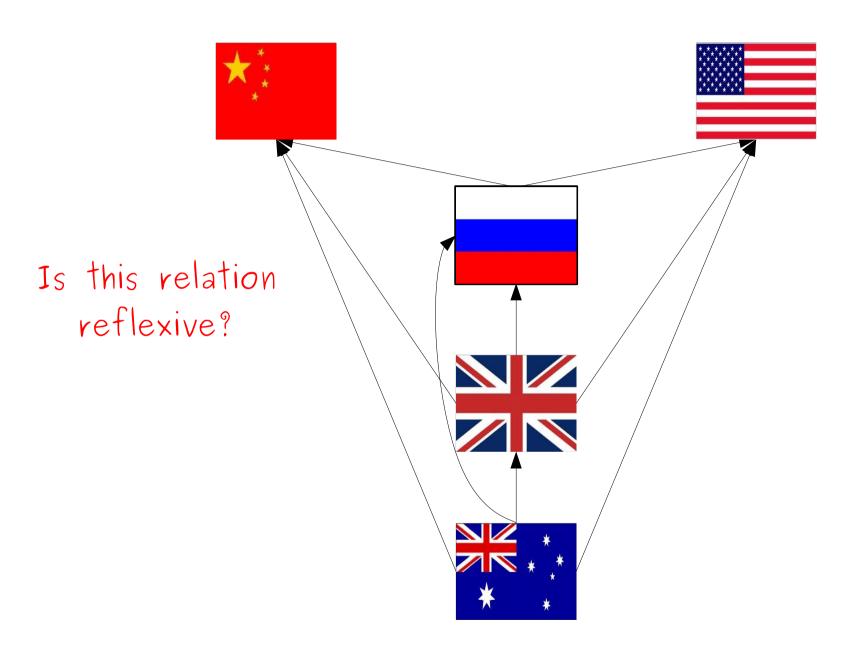


One Final Type of Order









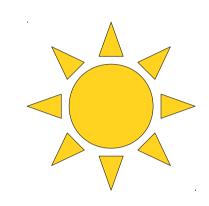
Irreflexivity

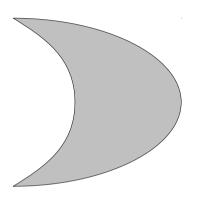
- Let R be a binary relation over A.
- R is irreflexive iff for any $a \in A$, aRa is false.
 - x is heavier than y
 - x < y
 - x ≠ y
- Note that irreflexive does not mean "not reflexive."
- Reflexive: Every element is always related to itself.
- Irreflexive: Every element is never related to itself.

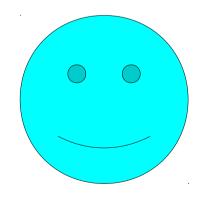
Strict Orders

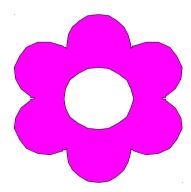
- A binary relation R over a set A is called a strict order iff it is
 - irreflexive,
 - antisymmetric, and
 - transitive.

Turning Things Around

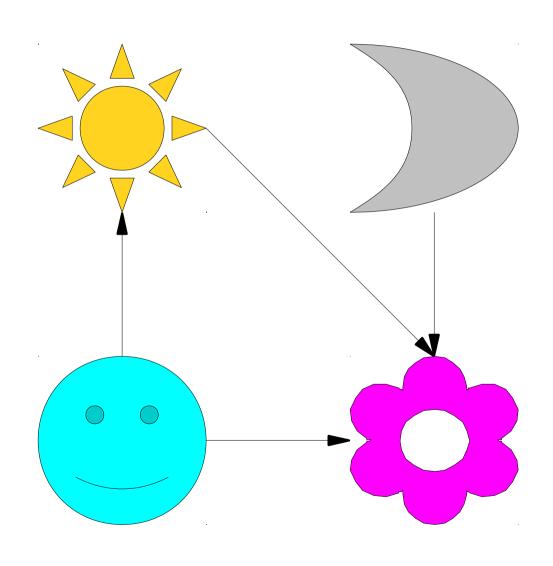




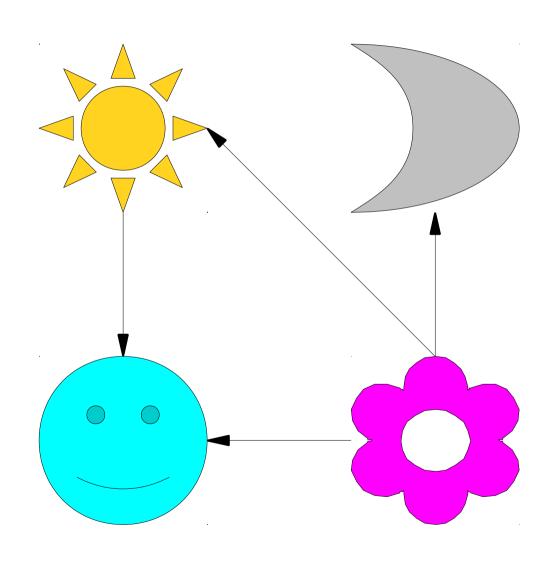




Turning Things Around



Turning Things Around



Inverses

 Given a relation R, the inverse relation of R (denoted R⁻¹) is the relation

$$R^{-1} = \{ (b, a) \mid aRb \}$$

- Example: The inverse of \leq is \geq , since $a \geq b$ iff $b \leq a$.
- Note: inverse relations are **not** the same the opposite of the original relation.
 - The inverse of ≤ is not >.
- We will see this used more next lecture when we talk about functions.

Important Terms for Today

- Cartesian Product
- Ordered Pair
- Graph
- Path
- Connectivity
- Cycle
- Degree
- DAG
- Topological Sort
- Relation
- Reflexivity

- Symmetry
- Transitivity
- Antisymmetry
- Irreflexivity
- Totality
- Equivalence relation
- Equivalence class
- Partial order
- Hasse Diagram
- Total order
- Strict order
- Inverse relation