

# DISCRETE MATHEMATICS FOR COMPUTER SCIENCE

Dr. QI WANG

Department of Computer Science and Engineering

Office: Room903, Nanshan iPark A7 Building

Email: wangqi@sustc.edu.cn

**Reflexive Relation**: A relation R on a set A is called *reflexive* if  $(a, a) \in R$  for every element  $a \in A$ .



■ Reflexive Relation: A relation R on a set A is called reflexive if  $(a, a) \in R$  for every element  $a \in A$ .

**Irreflexive Relation**: A relation R on a set A is called *irreflexive* if  $(a, a) \notin R$  for every element  $a \in A$ .



■ Reflexive Relation: A relation R on a set A is called reflexive if  $(a, a) \in R$  for every element  $a \in A$ .

**Irreflexive Relation**: A relation R on a set A is called *irreflexive* if  $(a, a) \notin R$  for every element  $a \in A$ .

**Symmetric Relation**: A relation R on a set A is called *symmetric* if  $(b, a) \in R$  whenever  $(a, b) \in R$  for all  $a, b \in A$ .



■ Reflexive Relation: A relation R on a set A is called reflexive if  $(a, a) \in R$  for every element  $a \in A$ .

**Irreflexive Relation**: A relation R on a set A is called *irreflexive* if  $(a, a) \notin R$  for every element  $a \in A$ .

**Symmetric Relation**: A relation R on a set A is called symmetric if  $(b, a) \in R$  whenever  $(a, b) \in R$  for all  $a, b \in A$ .

**Antisymmetric Relation**: A relation R on a set A is called antisymmetric if  $(b, a) \in R$  and  $(a, b) \in R$  implies a = b for all  $a, b \in A$ .



■ Reflexive Relation: A relation R on a set A is called reflexive if  $(a, a) \in R$  for every element  $a \in A$ .

**Irreflexive Relation**: A relation R on a set A is called *irreflexive* if  $(a, a) \notin R$  for every element  $a \in A$ .

**Symmetric Relation**: A relation R on a set A is called *symmetric* if  $(b, a) \in R$  whenever  $(a, b) \in R$  for all  $a, b \in A$ .

**Antisymmetric Relation**: A relation R on a set A is called antisymmetric if  $(b, a) \in R$  and  $(a, b) \in R$  implies a = b for all  $a, b \in A$ .

**Transitive Relation**: A relation R on a set A is called *reflexive* if  $(a, b) \in R$  and  $(b, c) \in R$  implies  $(a, c) \in R$  for all  $a, b, c \in A$ .

#### Closures

■ **Definition** Let R be a relation on a set A. A relation S on A with property P is called the closure of R with respect to P if S is subset of every relation Q ( $S \subseteq Q$ ) with property P that contains R ( $R \subseteq Q$ ).

S is the **minimal set** containing R satisfying the property P.



## Connectivity Relation

**Definition** Let R be a relation on a set A. The *connectivity* relation  $R^*$  consists of all pairs (a, b) s.t. there is a path (of any length) between a and b in R.

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



## Connectivity Relation

**Definition** Let R be a relation on a set A. The *connectivity* relation  $R^*$  consists of all pairs (a, b) s.t. there is a path (of any length) between a and b in R.

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

■ **Lemma**: Let A be a set with n elements, and R a relation on A. If there is a path from a to b with  $a \neq b$ , then there exists a path of length  $\leq n-1$ .



## Connectivity Relation

**Definition** Let R be a relation on a set A. The connectivity relation  $R^*$  consists of all pairs (a, b) s.t. there is a path (of any length) between a and b in R.

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

■ **Lemma**: Let A be a set with n elements, and R a relation on A. If there is a path from a to b with  $a \neq b$ , then there exists a path of length  $\leq n-1$ .

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



■ **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  $R^*$ .



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

- 1.  $R^*$  is transitive
- 2.  $R^* \subseteq S$  whenever S is a transitive relation containing R



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

- 1.  $R^*$  is transitive
- 2.  $R^* \subseteq S$  whenever S is a transitive relation containing R
- 1. If  $(a, b) \in R^*$  and  $(b, c) \in R^*$ , then there are paths from a to b and from b to c in R. Thus, there is a path from a to c in R. This means that  $(a, c) \in R^*$ .



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

- 1.  $R^*$  is transitive
- 2.  $R^* \subseteq S$  whenever S is a transitive relation containing R
- 2. Suppose that S is a transitive relation containing R.



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

#### **Proof**

- 1.  $R^*$  is transitive
- 2.  $R^* \subseteq S$  whenever S is a transitive relation containing R
- 2. Suppose that S is a transitive relation containing R.

Then  $S^n$  is also transitive and  $S^n \subseteq S$ . Why?



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

#### **Proof**

- 1.  $R^*$  is transitive
- 2.  $R^* \subseteq S$  whenever S is a transitive relation containing R
- 2. Suppose that S is a transitive relation containing R.

Then  $S^n$  is also transitive and  $S^n \subseteq S$ . Why?

We have  $S^* \subseteq S$ . Thus,  $R^* \subseteq S^* \subseteq S$ 



## Simple Transitive Closure Algorithm

**procedure** transClosure ( $\mathbf{M}_R$ : zero-one  $n \times n$  matrix) // computes  $R^*$  with zero-one matrices  $A := B := \mathbf{M}_{R};$ for i := 2 to n $A := A \odot \mathbf{M}_R$  $B := B \vee A$ return B //B is the zero-one matrix for  $R^*$ This algorithm takes  $\Theta(n^4)$  time.



#### Roy-Warshall Algorithm

```
procedure Warshall (M_R: zero-one n \times n matrix)

// computes R^* with zero-one matrices

W := 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 W

// W is the zero-one matrix for R^*
```



#### Roy-Warshall Algorithm

```
procedure Warshall (M_R: zero-one n \times n matrix)
// computes R^* with zero-one matrices
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 W
//W is the zero-one matrix for R^*
w_{ij} = 1 means there is a path from i to j going only through
nodes \leq k.
                  W_{ij}^{[k]} = W_{ij}^{[k-1]} \vee \left(W_{ik}^{[k-1]} \wedge W_{kj}^{[k-1]}\right)
```



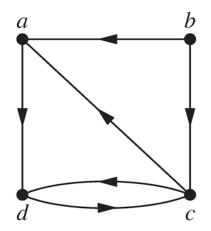
#### Roy-Warshall Algorithm

This algorithm takes  $\Theta(n^3)$  time.

```
procedure Warshall (M_R: zero-one n \times n matrix)
// computes R^* with zero-one matrices
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 W
//W is the zero-one matrix for R^*
w_{ii} = 1 means there is a path from i to j going only through
nodes \leq k.
                  W_{ij}^{[k]} = W_{ij}^{[k-1]} \vee \left( W_{ik}^{[k-1]} \wedge W_{kj}^{[k-1]} \right)
```



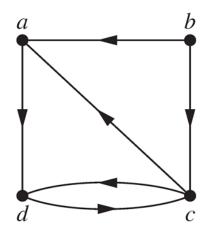
Find the matrices  $W_0$ ,  $W_1$ ,  $W_2$ ,  $W_3$ , and  $W_4$ . The matrix  $W_4$  is the transitive closure of R.



Let  $v_1 = a$ ,  $v_2 = b$ ,  $v_3 = c$ ,  $v_4 = d$ .



Find the matrices  $W_0$ ,  $W_1$ ,  $W_2$ ,  $W_3$ , and  $W_4$ . The matrix  $W_4$  is the transitive closure of R.

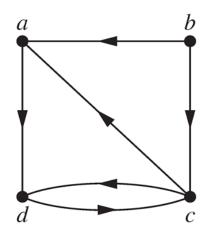


Let 
$$v_1 = a$$
,  $v_2 = b$ ,  $v_3 = c$ ,  $v_4 = d$ .

$$W_0 = \left[ egin{array}{cccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} 
ight]$$



Find the matrices  $W_0$ ,  $W_1$ ,  $W_2$ ,  $W_3$ , and  $W_4$ . The matrix  $W_4$  is the transitive closure of R.



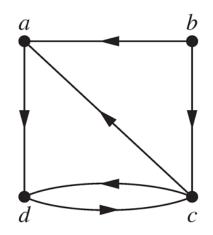
Let 
$$v_1 = a$$
,  $v_2 = b$ ,  $v_3 = c$ ,  $v_4 = d$ .

$$W_0 = \left[ egin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} 
ight]$$

$$W_2 = W_1 = \left[ egin{array}{cccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} 
ight]$$



Find the matrices  $W_0$ ,  $W_1$ ,  $W_2$ ,  $W_3$ , and  $W_4$ . The matrix  $W_4$  is the transitive closure of R.



Let 
$$v_1 = a$$
,  $v_2 = b$ ,  $v_3 = c$ ,  $v_4 = d$ .

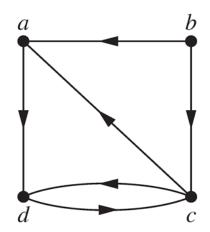
$$W_0 = \left[ egin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} 
ight]$$

$$W_2 = W_1 = \left[ egin{array}{cccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} 
ight]$$

$$W_3 = \left[ egin{array}{cccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{array} 
ight]$$



Find the matrices  $W_0, W_1, W_2, W_3$ , and  $W_4$ . The matrix  $W_4$ is the transitive closure of R.



Let 
$$v_1 = a$$
,  $v_2 = b$ ,  $v_3 = c$ ,  $v_4 = d$ .

$$W_0 = \left[ egin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} 
ight]$$

$$W_2 = W_1 = \left[ egin{array}{cccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} 
ight]$$

$$W_3 = \left[ egin{array}{cccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \ \end{array} 
ight] \qquad W_4 = \left[ egin{array}{ccccc} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \ \end{array} 
ight]$$



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



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

#### **Example**:

$$A = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$
  
 $R = \{(a, b) : a \equiv b \mod 3\}$ 



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

#### **Example**:

$$A = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$
  
 $R = \{(a, b) : a \equiv b \mod 3\}$ 

R has the following pairs:

- $\bullet$ (0,0),(0,3),(3,0),(0,6),(6,0),(3,3),(3,6),(6,3),(6,6)
- $\bullet(1,1),(1,4),(4,1),(4,4)$
- $\bullet$ (2,2),(2,5),(5,2),(5,5)



• Relation R on  $A = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  has the pairs:

- $\bullet$ (0,0),(0,3),(3,0),(0,6),(6,0),(3,3),(3,6),(6,3),(6,6)
- $\bullet(1,1),(1,4),(4,1),(4,4)$
- $\bullet$ (2,2),(2,5),(5,2),(5,5)



• Relation R on  $A = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  has the pairs:

- $\bullet$ (0,0),(0,3),(3,0),(0,6),(6,0),(3,3),(3,6),(6,3),(6,6)
- $\bullet(1,1),(1,4),(4,1),(4,4)$
- $\bullet$ (2,2),(2,5),(5,2),(5,5)

Is R reflexive?

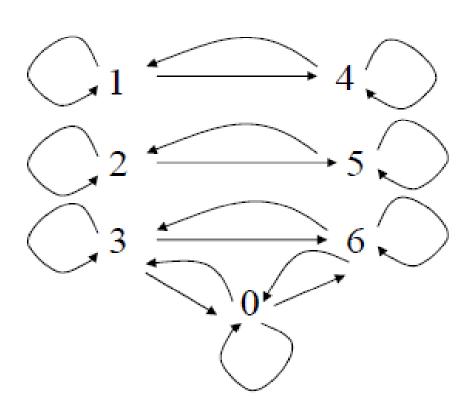


• Relation R on  $A = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  has the pairs:

$$\bullet$$
(0,0),(0,3),(3,0),(0,6),(6,0),(3,3),(3,6),(6,3),(6,6)

- $\bullet$ (1,1),(1,4),(4,1),(4,4)
- $\bullet$ (2,2),(2,5),(5,2),(5,5)

Is R reflexive?



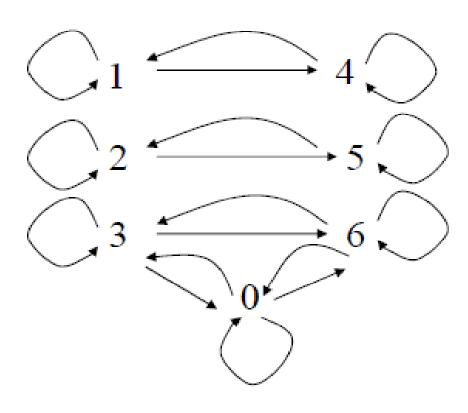


• Relation R on  $A = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  has the pairs:

$$\bullet$$
(0,0),(0,3),(3,0),(0,6),(6,0),(3,3),(3,6),(6,3),(6,6)

- $\bullet(1,1),(1,4),(4,1),(4,4)$
- $\bullet$ (2,2),(2,5),(5,2),(5,5)

Is R reflexive? Yes





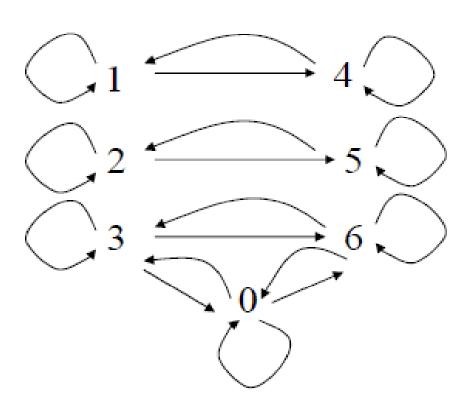
• Relation R on  $A = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  has the pairs:

$$\bullet$$
(0,0),(0,3),(3,0),(0,6),(6,0),(3,3),(3,6),(6,3),(6,6)

- $\bullet(1,1),(1,4),(4,1),(4,4)$
- $\bullet$ (2,2),(2,5),(5,2),(5,5)

Is R reflexive? Yes

Is R symmetric?





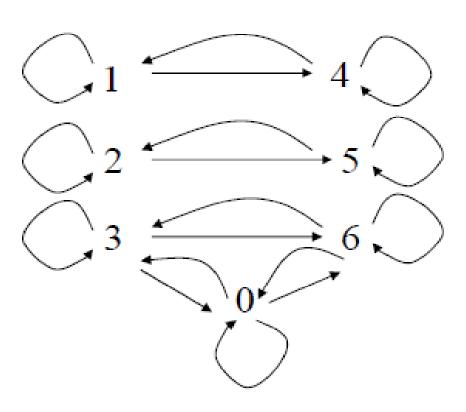
• Relation R on  $A = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  has the pairs:

$$\bullet$$
(0,0),(0,3),(3,0),(0,6),(6,0),(3,3),(3,6),(6,3),(6,6)

- $\bullet(1,1),(1,4),(4,1),(4,4)$
- $\bullet$ (2,2),(2,5),(5,2),(5,5)

Is R reflexive? Yes

Is R symmetric? Yes





• Relation R on  $A = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  has the pairs:

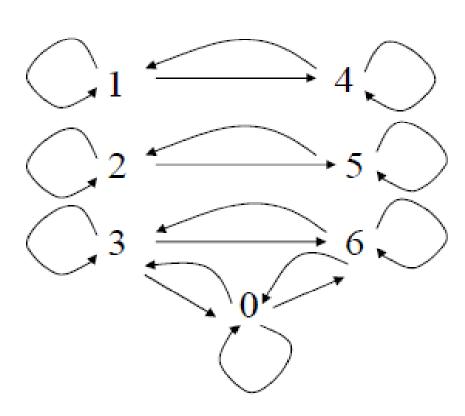
$$\bullet$$
(0,0),(0,3),(3,0),(0,6),(6,0),(3,3),(3,6),(6,3),(6,6)

- $\bullet(1,1),(1,4),(4,1),(4,4)$
- $\bullet$ (2,2),(2,5),(5,2),(5,5)

Is R reflexive? Yes

Is R symmetric? Yes

Is R transitive?





### Equivalence Relation

• Relation R on  $A = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  has the pairs:

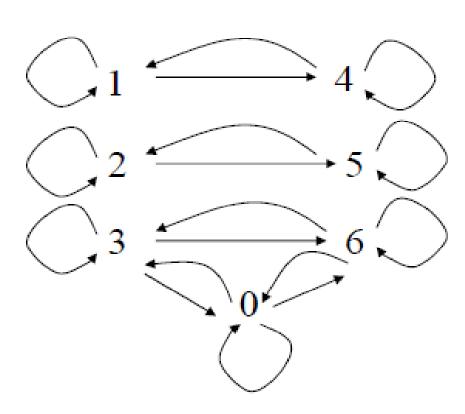
$$\bullet$$
(0,0),(0,3),(3,0),(0,6),(6,0),(3,3),(3,6),(6,3),(6,6)

- $\bullet(1,1),(1,4),(4,1),(4,4)$
- $\bullet$ (2,2),(2,5),(5,2),(5,5)

Is R reflexive? Yes

Is R symmetric? Yes

Is R transitive? Yes





### Equivalence Relation

• Relation R on  $A = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  has the pairs:

$$\bullet$$
(0,0),(0,3),(3,0),(0,6),(6,0),(3,3),(3,6),(6,3),(6,6)

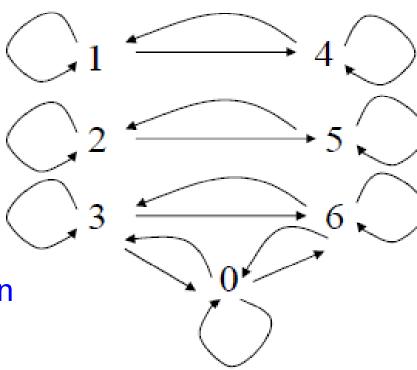
- $\bullet(1,1),(1,4),(4,1),(4,4)$
- $\bullet$ (2,2),(2,5),(5,2),(5,5)

Is R reflexive? Yes

Is R symmetric? Yes

Is R transitive? Yes

R is an equivalence relation



## Examples of Equivalence Relations

### Examples

"Strings a and b are the same length."

"Integers a and b have the same absolute value."

"Real numbers a and b have the same fractional part (i.e.,  $a-b \in \mathbf{Z}$ )."



# Examples of Equivalence Relations

### Examples

"Strings a and b are the same length."

"Integers a and b have the same absolute value."

"Real numbers a and b have the same fractional part (i.e.,  $a - b \in \mathbf{Z}$ )."

"The relation  $\geq$  between real numbers."

"has a common factor greater than 1 between natural numbers."





$$[a]_R = \{b : (a, b) \in R\}$$



$$[a]_R = \{b : (a, b) \in R\}$$

$$A = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$
  
 $R = \{(a, b) : a \equiv b \mod 3\}$ 



$$[a]_R = \{b : (a, b) \in R\}$$

$$A = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$
  
 $R = \{(a, b) : a \equiv b \mod 3\}$   
 $[0] = [3] = [6] = \{0, 3, 6\}$   
 $[1] = [4] = \{1, 4\}$   
 $[2] = [5] = \{2, 5\}$ 



## Examples of Equivalence Classes

### Examples

"Strings a and b are the same length."

"Integers a and b have the same absolute value."

"Real numbers a and b have the same fractional part (i.e.,  $a-b \in \mathbf{Z}$ )."



### Examples of Equivalence Classes

### Examples

"Strings a and b are the same length."

[a] = the set of all strings of the same length as a

"Integers a and b have the same absolute value."

$$[a]$$
 = the set  $\{a, -a\}$ 

"Real numbers a and b have the same fractional part (i.e.,  $a-b \in \mathbf{Z}$ )."

$$[a]$$
 = the set  $\{\ldots, a-2, a-1, a, a+1, a+2, \ldots\}$ 



■ **Theorem** Let *R* be an equivalence relation on a set *A*. The following statements are equivalent:

(i) 
$$a R b$$
  
(ii)  $[a] = [b]$   
(iii)  $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$ 



■ **Theorem** Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A. The following statements are equivalent:

(i) 
$$a R b$$
  
(ii)  $[a] = [b]$   
(iii)  $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$ 

$$(i) \rightarrow (ii)$$
:



■ **Theorem** Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A. The following statements are equivalent:

(i) 
$$a R b$$
  
(ii)  $[a] = [b]$   
(iii)  $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$ 

$$(i) \rightarrow (ii)$$
: prove  $[a] \subseteq [b]$  and  $[b] \subseteq [a]$ 



■ **Theorem** Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A. The following statements are equivalent:

(i) 
$$a R b$$
  
(ii)  $[a] = [b]$   
(iii)  $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$ 

$$(i) \rightarrow (ii)$$
: prove  $[a] \subseteq [b]$  and  $[b] \subseteq [a]$   
 $(ii) \rightarrow (iii)$ :



■ **Theorem** Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A. The following statements are equivalent:

(i) 
$$a R b$$
  
(ii)  $[a] = [b]$   
(iii)  $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$ 

```
(i) \rightarrow (ii): prove [a] \subseteq [b] and [b] \subseteq [a]
```

$$(ii) \rightarrow (iii)$$
: [a] is not empty (R reflexive)



■ **Theorem** Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A. The following statements are equivalent:

(i) 
$$a R b$$
  
(ii)  $[a] = [b]$   
(iii)  $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$ 

```
(i) \rightarrow (ii): prove [a] \subseteq [b] and [b] \subseteq [a]
(ii) \rightarrow (iii): [a] is not empty (R \text{ reflexive})
(iii) \rightarrow (i):
```



■ **Theorem** Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A. The following statements are equivalent:

(i) 
$$a R b$$
  
(ii)  $[a] = [b]$   
(iii)  $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$ 

```
(i) \rightarrow (ii): prove [a] \subseteq [b] and [b] \subseteq [a]

(ii) \rightarrow (iii): [a] is not empty (R \text{ reflexive})

(iii) \rightarrow (i): there exists a c s.t. c \in [a] and c \in [b]
```



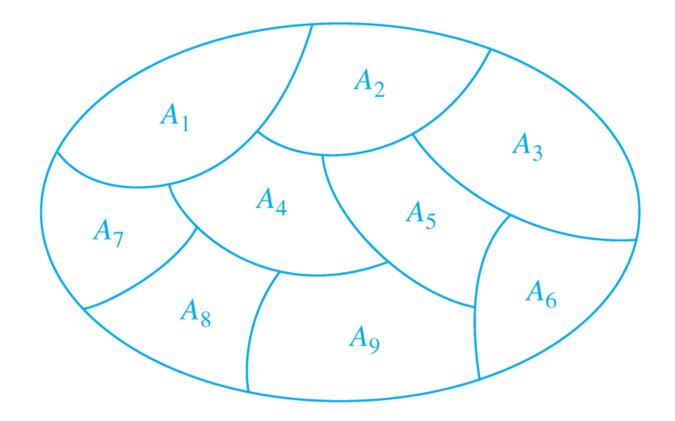
**Definition** Let S be a set. A collection of nonempty subsets of S  $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_k$  is called a partition of S if:

$$A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset, \ i \neq j \text{ and } S = \bigcup_{i=1}^k A_i$$



**Definition** Let S be a set. A collection of nonempty subsets of S  $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_k$  is called a partition of S if:

$$A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset, \ i \neq j \text{ and } S = \bigcup_{i=1}^k A_i$$





**Definition** Let S be a set. A collection of nonempty subsets of S  $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_k$  is called a partition of S if:

$$A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset, \ i \neq j \text{ and } S = \bigcup_{i=1}^k A_i$$

#### **Example**:

$$A = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$
  
 $A_1 = \{0, 3, 6\}, A_2 = \{1, 4\}, A_3 = \{2, 5\}$ 



**Definition** Let S be a set. A collection of nonempty subsets of S  $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_k$  is called a partition of S if:

$$A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset, \ i \neq j \text{ and } S = \bigcup_{i=1}^k A_i$$

#### **Example**:

$$A = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$
  
 $A_1 = \{0, 3, 6\}, A_2 = \{1, 4\}, A_3 = \{2, 5\}$ 

Is  $A_1, A_2, A_3$  a partition of S?



### Equivalence Classes and Partitions

■ **Theorem** Let *R* be an equivalence relation on a set *A*. Then union of all the equivalence classes of *R* is *A*:

$$A = \bigcup_{a \in A} [a]_R$$



### **Equivalence Classes and Partitions**

■ **Theorem** Let *R* be an equivalence relation on a set *A*. Then union of all the equivalence classes of *R* is *A*:

$$A = \bigcup_{a \in A} [a]_R$$

**Theorem** The equivalence classes form a partition of A.



### Equivalence Classes and Partitions

■ **Theorem** Let *R* be an equivalence relation on a set *A*. Then union of all the equivalence classes of *R* is *A*:

$$A = \bigcup_{a \in A} [a]_R$$

**Theorem** The equivalence classes form a partition of A.

**Theorem** Let  $\{A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_i, \ldots\}$  be a partition of S. Then there is an equivalence relation R on S, that has the sets  $A_i$  as its equivalence classes.



■ **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, denoted by (S, R). Members of S are called elements of the poset.



■ **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, denoted by (S, R). Members of S are called elements of the poset.

#### **Example**:

 $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, R$  denotes the "\ge " relation



■ **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, denoted by (S, R). Members of S are called elements of the poset.

#### **Example**:

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$$
,  $R$  denotes the " $\geq$ " relation Is  $R$  reflexive?



■ **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, denoted by (S, R). Members of S are called elements of the poset.

#### **Example**:

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$$
,  $R$  denotes the " $\geq$ " relation Is  $R$  reflexive? Yes



■ **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, denoted by (S, R). Members of S are called elements of the poset.

### **Example**:

 $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ , R denotes the "\ge " relation

Is R reflexive? Yes

Is R antisymmetric?



■ **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, denoted by (S, R). Members of S are called elements of the poset.

#### Example:

 $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ , R denotes the "\ge " relation

Is R reflexive? Yes

Is R antisymmetric? Yes



■ **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, denoted by (S, R). Members of S are called elements of the poset.

#### **Example**:

```
S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, R denotes the "\ge " relation
```

Is R reflexive? Yes

Is R antisymmetric? Yes

Is R transitive?



■ **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, denoted by (S, R). Members of S are called elements of the poset.

#### **Example**:

 $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ , R denotes the "\ge " relation

Is R reflexive? Yes

Is R antisymmetric? Yes

Is R transitive? Yes



■ **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, denoted by (S, R). Members of S are called elements of the poset.

#### **Example**:

 $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ , R denotes the "\ge " relation

Is R reflexive? Yes

Is R antisymmetric? Yes

Is R transitive? Yes

R is a partial ordering



### **Example:**

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$
, R denotes the "|" relation



### Example:

 $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ , R denotes the "|" relation

Is R reflexive? Yes

Is R antisymmetric? Yes

Is R transitive? Yes



#### Example:

 $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ , R denotes the "|" relation

Is R reflexive? Yes

Is R antisymmetric? Yes

Is R transitive? Yes

R is a partial ordering



# Comparability

■ **Definition** The elements a and b of a poset  $(S, \preccurlyeq)$  are comparable if either  $a \preccurlyeq b$  or  $b \preccurlyeq a$ . Otherwise, a and b are called *incomparable*.



## Comparability

**Definition** The elements a and b of a poset  $(S, \preccurlyeq)$  are comparable if either  $a \preccurlyeq b$  or  $b \preccurlyeq a$ . Otherwise, a and b are called *incomparable*.

#### **Example**:

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$
, R denotes the "|" relation



# Comparability

■ **Definition** The elements a and b of a poset  $(S, \preccurlyeq)$  are comparable if either  $a \preccurlyeq b$  or  $b \preccurlyeq a$ . Otherwise, a and b are called *incomparable*.

### **Example**:

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$
, R denotes the "|" relation

2, 4 are comparable, 3, 5 are incomparable.



# Total Ordering

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



# Total Ordering

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

### **Example**:

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$
, R denotes the "\ge " relation



# Total Ordering

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

### **Example**:

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$
, R denotes the "\ge " relation

S is a chain.



# Lexicographic Ordering

**Definition** Given two posets  $(A_1, \preccurlyeq_1)$  and  $(A_2, \preccurlyeq_2)$ , the *lexicographic ordering* on  $A_1 \times A_2$  is defined by specifying that  $(a_1, a_2)$  is less than  $(b_1, b_2)$ , i.e.,  $(a_1, a_2) \prec (b_1, b_2)$ , either if  $a_1 \prec_1 b_1$  or if  $a_1 = b_1$  then  $a_2 \prec_2 b_2$ .



# Lexicographic Ordering

**Definition** Given two posets  $(A_1, \preccurlyeq_1)$  and  $(A_2, \preccurlyeq_2)$ , the *lexicographic ordering* on  $A_1 \times A_2$  is defined by specifying that  $(a_1, a_2)$  is less than  $(b_1, b_2)$ , i.e.,  $(a_1, a_2) \prec (b_1, b_2)$ , either if  $a_1 \prec_1 b_1$  or if  $a_1 = b_1$  then  $a_2 \prec_2 b_2$ .

**Example** Consider strings of lowercase English letters. A lexicographic ordering can be defined using the ordering of the letters in the alphabet. This is the same ordering as that used in dictionaries.



# Lexicographic Ordering

■ **Definition** Given two posets  $(A_1, \preccurlyeq_1)$  and  $(A_2, \preccurlyeq_2)$ , the *lexicographic ordering* on  $A_1 \times A_2$  is defined by specifying that  $(a_1, a_2)$  is less than  $(b_1, b_2)$ , i.e.,  $(a_1, a_2) \prec (b_1, b_2)$ , either if  $a_1 \prec_1 b_1$  or if  $a_1 = b_1$  then  $a_2 \prec_2 b_2$ .

**Example** Consider strings of lowercase English letters. A lexicographic ordering can be defined using the ordering of the letters in the alphabet. This is the same ordering as that used in dictionaries.

- ♦ discreet ≺ discrete
- ♦ discreet ≺ discreetness



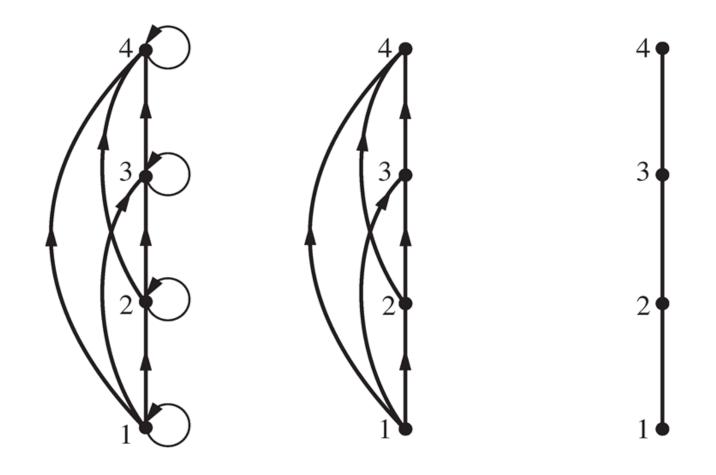
## Hasse Diagram

A Hasse diagram is a visual representation of a partial ordering that leaves out edges that must be present because of the reflexive and transitive properties.



# Hasse Diagram

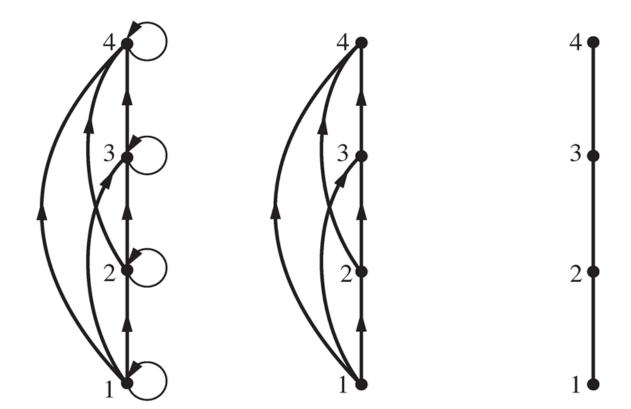
A Hasse diagram is a visual representation of a partial ordering that leaves out edges that must be present because of the reflexive and transitive properties.





# Hasse Diagram

- (a) A partial ordering. The loops are due to the reflexive property
  - (b) The edges that must be present due to the transitive property are deleted
  - (c) The Hasse diagram for the partial ordering (a)





Start with the directed graph of the relation:



- Start with the directed graph of the relation:
  - $\diamond$  Remove the loops (a, a) present at every vertex due to the reflexive property



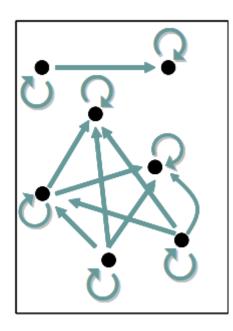
- Start with the directed graph of the relation:
  - $\diamond$  Remove the loops (a, a) present at every vertex due to the reflexive property
  - $\diamond$  Remove all edges (x, y) for which there is an element  $z \in S$  s.t.  $x \prec z$  and  $z \prec y$ . These are the edges that must be present due to the transitive property



- Start with the directed graph of the relation:
  - $\diamond$  Remove the loops (a, a) present at every vertex due to the reflexive property
  - $\diamond$  Remove all edges (x, y) for which there is an element  $z \in S$  s.t.  $x \prec z$  and  $z \prec y$ . These are the edges that must be present due to the transitive property
  - Arrange each edge so that its initial vertex is below the terminal vertex. Remove all the arrows, because all edges point upwards toward their terminal vertex.

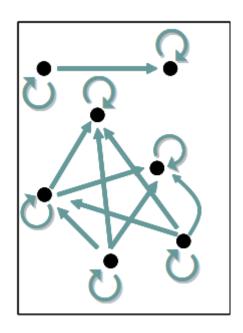


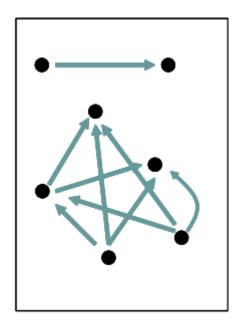
# Hasse Diagram Example





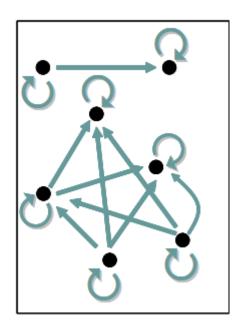
# Hasse Diagram Example

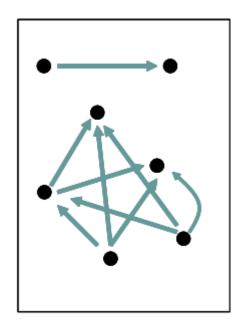


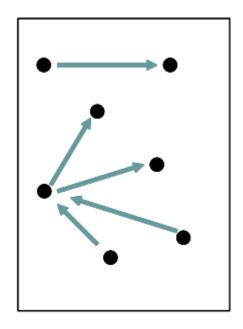




# Hasse Diagram Example









**Definition** *a* is a *maximal* (resp. *minimal*) element in poset  $(S, \preccurlyeq)$  if there is no  $b \in S$  such that  $a \prec b$  (resp.  $b \prec a$ ).



**Definition** a is a maximal (resp. minimal) element in poset  $(S, \preccurlyeq)$  if there is no  $b \in S$  such that  $a \prec b$  (resp.  $b \prec a$ ).

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



**Definition** a is a maximal (resp. minimal) element in poset  $(S, \preccurlyeq)$  if there is no  $b \in S$  such that  $a \prec b$  (resp.  $b \prec a$ ).

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

**Definition** a is the *greatest* (resp. *least*) element of the poset  $(S, \preceq)$  if  $b \preceq a$  (resp.  $a \preceq b$ ) for all  $b \in S$ .

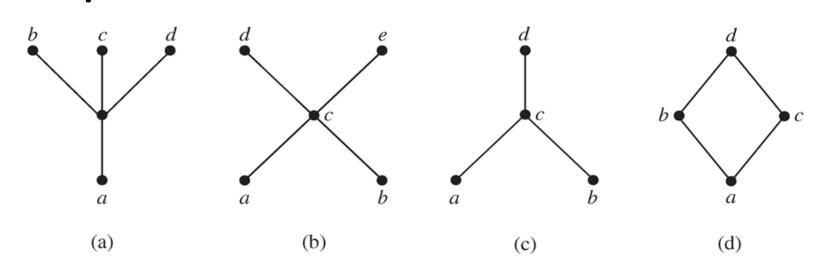


**Definition** a is a maximal (resp. minimal) element in poset  $(S, \preccurlyeq)$  if there is no  $b \in S$  such that  $a \prec b$  (resp.  $b \prec a$ ).

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

**Definition** a is the *greatest* (resp. *least*) element of the poset  $(S, \preceq)$  if  $b \preceq a$  (resp.  $a \preceq b$ ) for all  $b \in S$ .

#### **Example**





- **Definition** Let A be a subset of a poset  $(S, \preceq)$ .
  - $u \in S$  is called an *upper bound* (resp. *lower bound*) of A if  $a \preccurlyeq u$  (resp.  $u \preccurlyeq a$ ) for all  $a \in A$ .
  - $x \in S$  is called the *least upper bound* (resp. *greatest lower bound*) of A if x is an upper bound (resp. lower bound) that is less than any other upper bound (resp. lower bound) of A.



- **Definition** Let A be a subset of a poset  $(S, \preceq)$ .
  - $u \in S$  is called an *upper bound* (resp. *lower bound*) of A if  $a \preccurlyeq u$  (resp.  $u \preccurlyeq a$ ) for all  $a \in A$ .
  - $x \in S$  is called the *least upper bound* (resp. *greatest lower bound*) of A if x is an upper bound (resp. lower bound) that is less than any other upper bound (resp. lower bound) of A.

**Example** Find the greatest lower bound and the least upper bound of the sets  $\{3, 9, 12\}$  and  $\{1, 2, 4, 5, 10\}$ , if they exist, in the poset  $(\mathbf{Z}^+, |)$ .



**Definition**  $(S, \preccurlyeq)$  is a *well-ordered set* if it is a poset such that  $\preccurlyeq$  is a total ordering and every nonempty subset of S has a least element.



**Definition**  $(S, \preccurlyeq)$  is a *well-ordered set* if it is a poset such that  $\preccurlyeq$  is a total ordering and every nonempty subset of S has a least element.

The Principle of Well-Ordering Induction 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 ture.



**Definition**  $(S, \preccurlyeq)$  is a *well-ordered set* if it is a poset such that  $\preccurlyeq$  is a total ordering and every nonempty subset of S has a least element.

The Principle of Well-Ordering Induction 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 ture.

**Proof** Consider  $A = \{x \in S : P(x) \text{ is false}\}\$ 



**Definition**  $(S, \preccurlyeq)$  is a *well-ordered set* if it is a poset such that  $\preccurlyeq$  is a total ordering and every nonempty subset of S has a least element.

The Principle of Well-Ordering Induction 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 ture.

**Proof** Consider  $A = \{x \in S : P(x) \text{ is false}\}\$ 

Question: Why don't we need a basic step here?



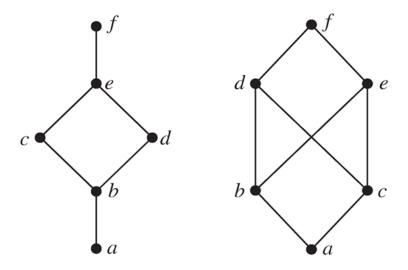
### Lattices

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



## Lattices

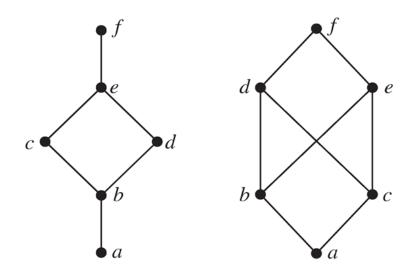
Definition A partial ordered set in which every pair of elements has both a least upper bound and a greatest lower bound is called a *lattice*.





### Lattices

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



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



# Topological Sorting

• Motivation: A project is made up of 20 different tasks. Some tasks can be completed only after others have been finished. How can an order be found for these tasks?



# Topological Sorting

• Motivation: A project is made up of 20 different tasks. Some tasks can be completed only after others have been finished. How can an order be found for these tasks?

Topological sorting: Given a partial ordering R, find a total ordering  $\leq$  such that  $a \leq b$  whenever  $a R b \leq s$  is said compatible with R.



## Topological Sorting for Finite Posets

```
procedure topological_sort (S: finite poset)
k := 1;
while S \neq \emptyset
a_k := a minimal element of S
S := S \setminus \{a_k\}
k := k + 1
end while
M = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\} is a compatible total ordering of S
```

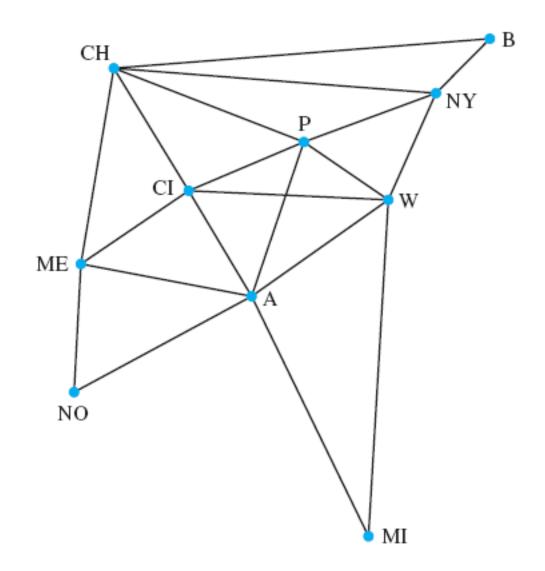


## Example

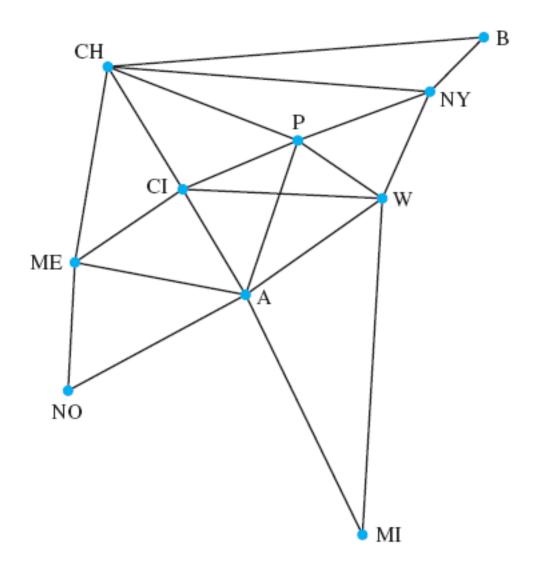
• Map of some cities in Eastern U.S. with communication lines existing between certain pairs of these cities.



• Map of some cities in Eastern U.S. with communication lines existing between certain pairs of these cities.

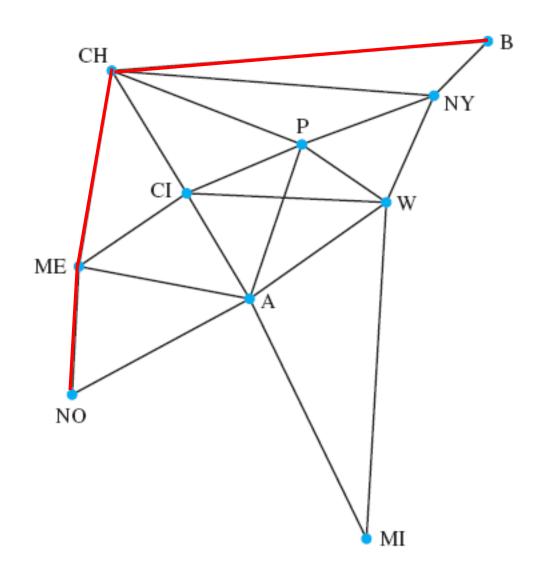






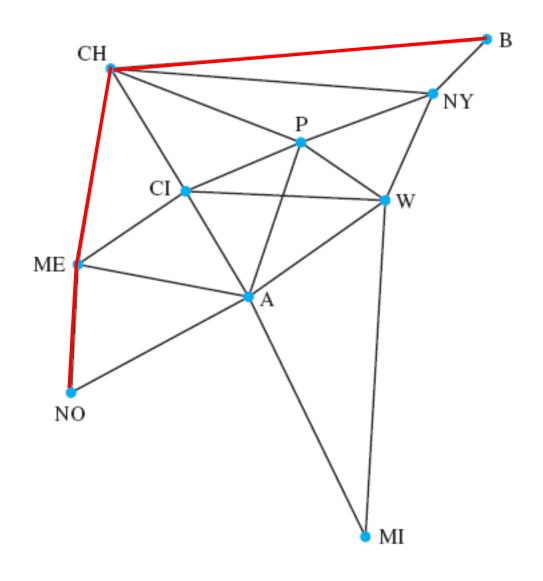
What is the minimum number of links to send a message from B to NO?





What is the minimum number of links to send a message from B to NO?

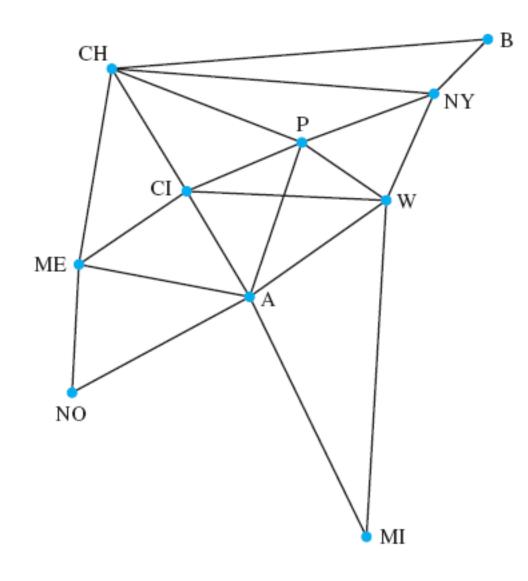




What is the minimum number of links to send a message from B to NO?

3: B - CH - ME - NO



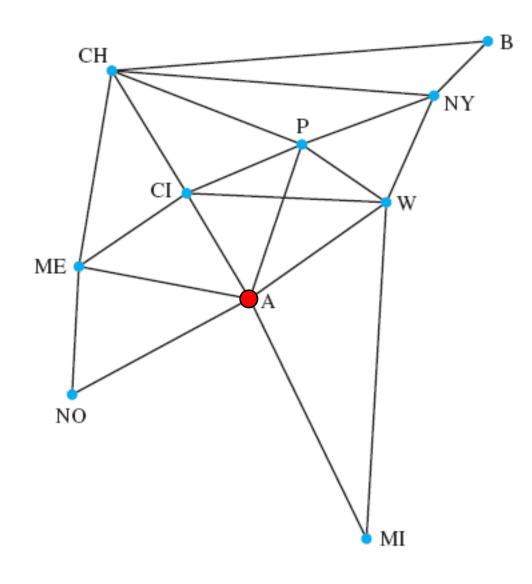


What is the minimum number of links to send a message from B to NO?

3: B - CH - ME - NO

Which city/cities has/have the most communication links emanating from it/them?



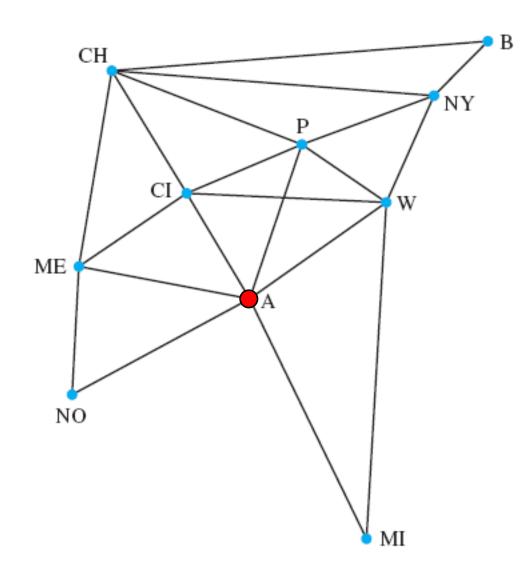


What is the minimum number of links to send a message from B to NO?

3: B - CH - ME - NO

Which city/cities has/have the most communication links emanating from it/them?





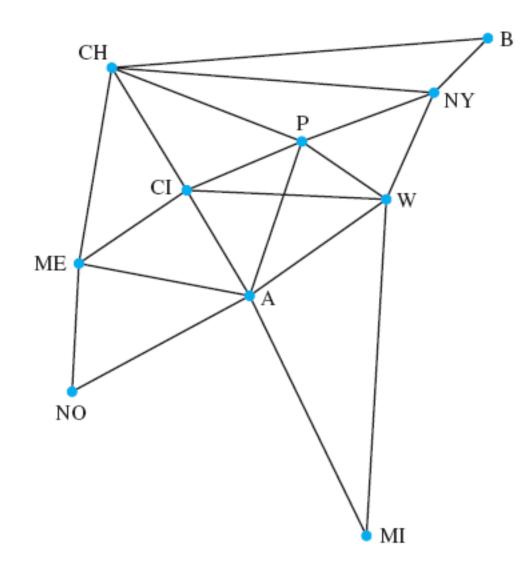
What is the minimum number of links to send a message from B to NO?

3: B - CH - ME - NO

Which city/cities has/have the most communication links emanating from it/them?

A: 6 links





What is the minimum number of links to send a message from B to NO?

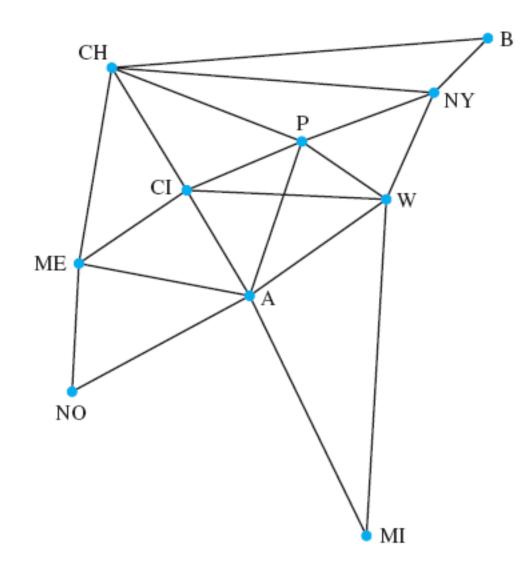
3: B - CH - ME - NO

Which city/cities has/have the most communication links emanating from it/them?

A: 6 links

What is the total number of communication links?





What is the minimum number of links to send a message from B to NO?

3: B - CH - ME - NO

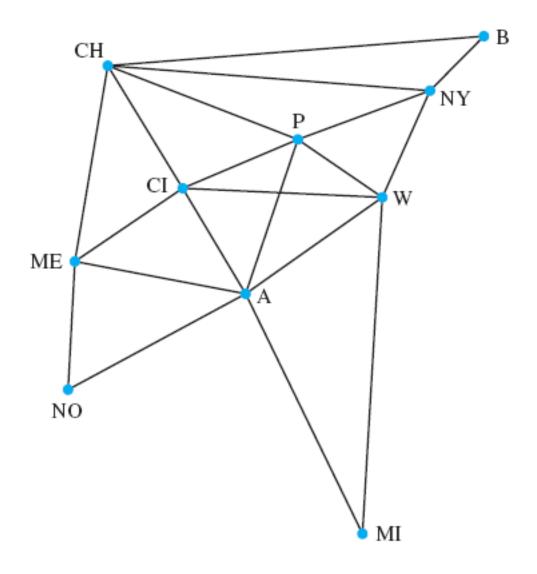
Which city/cities has/have the most communication links emanating from it/them?

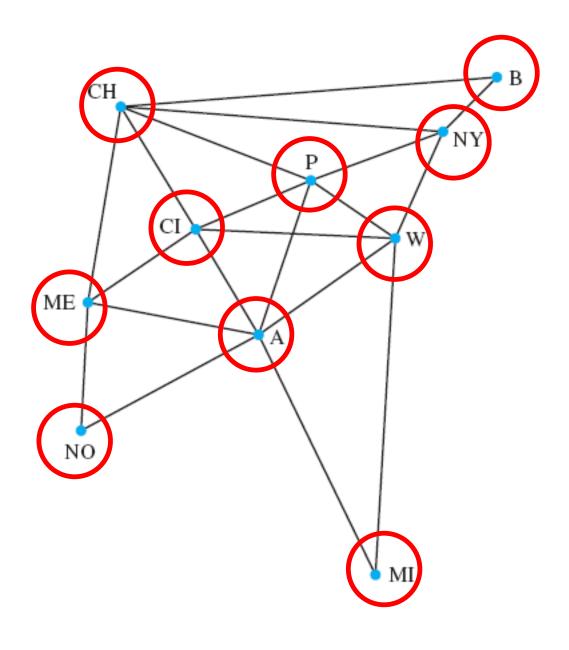
A: 6 links

What is the total number of communication links?

20 links

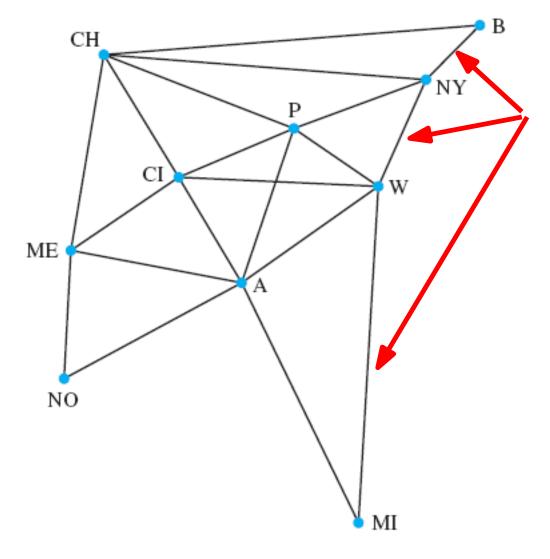






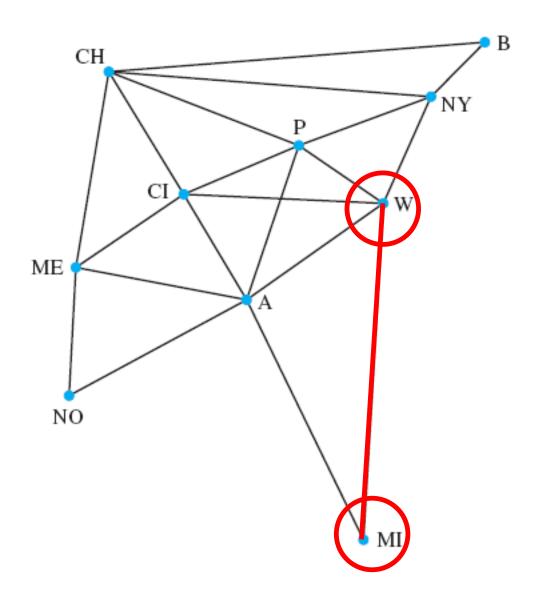
consists of a set of vertices

$$|V,|V|=n$$



consists of a set of vertices V, |V| = n

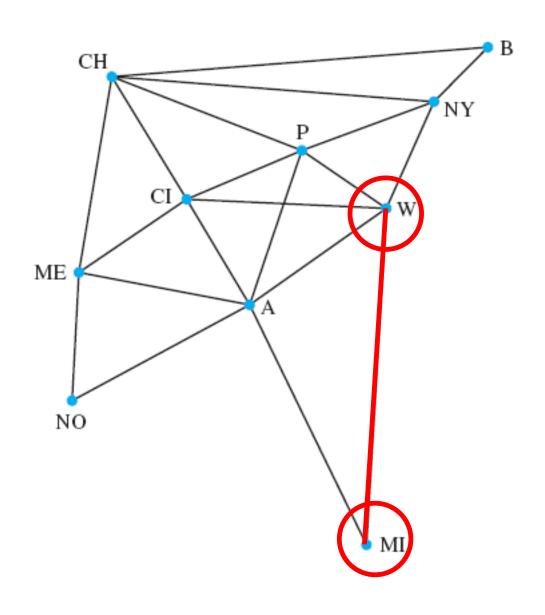
and a set of edges E, |F| = m



consists of a set of vertices V, |V| = n

and a set of edges E, |E| = m

Each edge has two endpoints

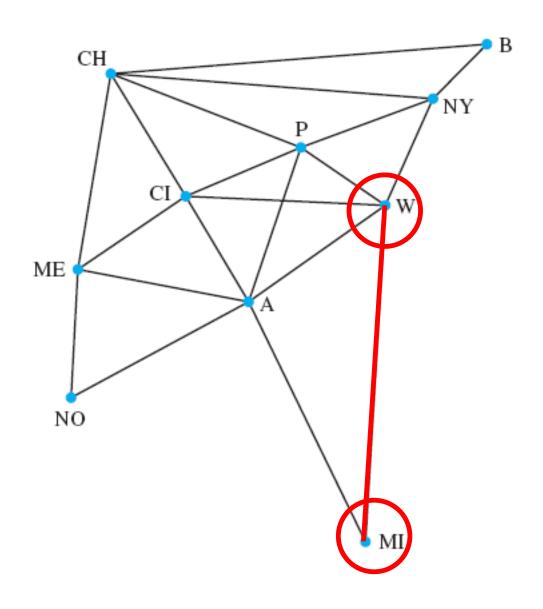


consists of a set of vertices V, |V| = n

and a set of edges E, |E| = m

Each edge has two endpoints

An edge joins its endpoints, two endpoints are adjacent if they are joined by an edge



consists of a set of vertices V, |V| = n

and a set of edges E, |E| = m

Each edge has two endpoints

An edge joins its endpoints, two endpoints are adjacent if they are joined by an edge

When a vertex is an endpoint of an edge, we say that the edge and the vertex are incident to each other

Vertices: biological species

Edges: species have a common ancestor



Vertices: biological species

Edges: species have a common ancestor

Vertices: people

Edges: people who know each other



Vertices: biological species

Edges: species have a common ancestor

Vertices: people

Edges: people who know each other

Vertices: subway stations

Edges: direct connection



Vertices: biological species

Edges: species have a common ancestor

Vertices: people

Edges: people who know each other

Vertices: subway stations

Edges: direct connection

Vertices: web sites

Edges: a link from one site to another



Vertices: biological species

Edges: species have a common ancestor

Vertices: people

Edges: people who know each other

Vertices: subway stations

Edges: direct connection

Vertices: web sites

Edges: a link from one site to another

How Google models the Internet!



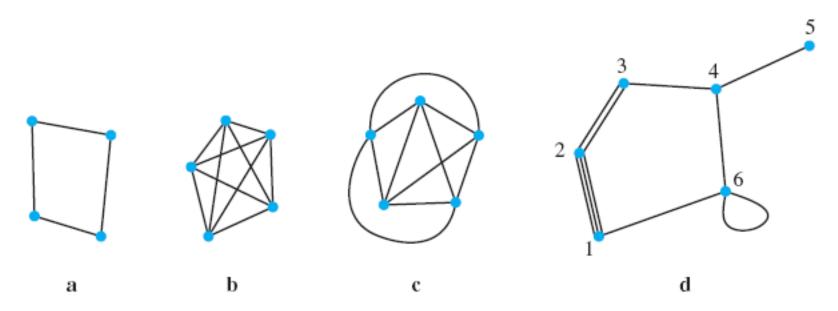
# Definition of a Graph

**Definition**. A graph G = (V, E) consists of a nonempty set V of vertices (or nodes) and a set E of edges. Each edge has either one or two vertices associated with it, called its endpoints. An edge is said to be incident to (or connect its endpoints.



# Definition of a Graph

**Definition**. A graph G = (V, E) consists of a nonempty set V of vertices (or nodes) and a set E of edges. Each edge has either one or two vertices associated with it, called its endpoints. An edge is said to be incident to (or connect its endpoints.





#### More Definitions

Simple graph vs. multigraph pseudograph

A graph in which at most one edge joins each pair of distinct vertices (vs. multiple edges) and no edge joins a vertex to itself (= loop)



#### More Definitions

Simple graph vs. multigraph pseudograph

A graph in which at most one edge joins each pair of distinct vertices (vs. multiple edges) and no edge joins a vertex to itself (= loop)

#### Complete graph K<sub>n</sub>

A graph with *n* vertices that has an edge between each pair of vertices



### Graphs

- Graphs and graph theory can be used to model:
  - Computer networks
  - Social networks
  - Communication networks
  - ♦ Infromation networks
  - ♦ Software design
  - ♦ Transportation networks
  - ♦ Biological networks



Computer Networks

Vertices: computers

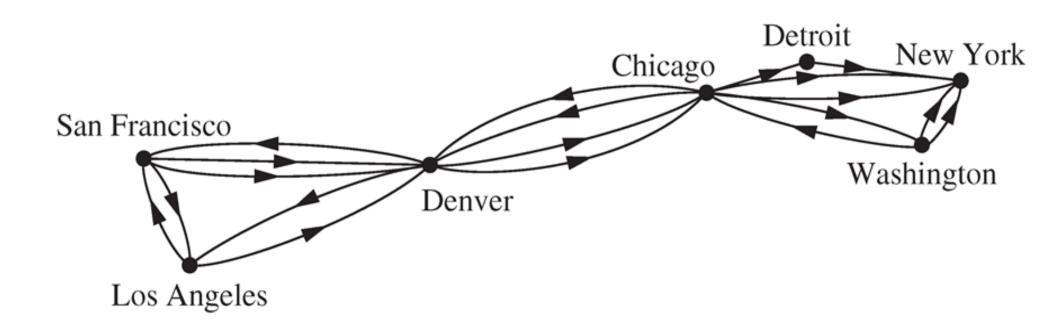
Edges: connections



Computer Networks

Vertices: computers

**Edges:** connections





Social Networks

Vertices: individuals

Edges: relationships



Social Networks

Vertices: individuals

Edges: relationships

Friendship graphs: undirected graphs where two people are connected if they are friends (in the real world, wechat, or Facebook, etc.)

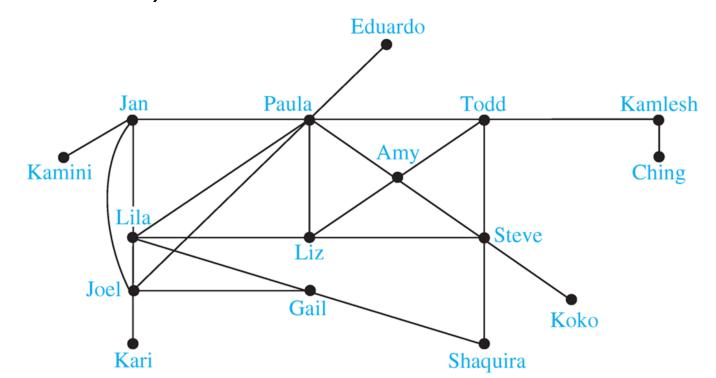


Social Networks

Vertices: individuals

Edges: relationships

Friendship graphs: undirected graphs where two people are connected if they are friends (in the real world, wechat, or Facebook, etc.)





Influence graphs

directed graphs where there is an edge from one person to another if the first person can influence the second one



#### Influence graphs

directed graphs where there is an edge from one person to another if the first person can influence the second one

#### Collaboration graphs

undirected graphs where two people are connected if they collaborate in some way



#### Influence graphs

directed graphs where there is an edge from one person to another if the first person can influence the second one

#### Collaboration graphs

undirected graphs where two people are connected if they collaborate in some way

#### Example

the Hollywood graph

the Erdös number



#### Announcements

#### Homework assignment 5

```
♦ P397 Ex. 37, P398 Ex. 50, 62, 64, P405 Ex. 10, P406 Ex. 40, P413 Ex. 13, P422 Ex. 24, 27, P525 Ex. 12, 28, P526 Ex. 44, P550 Ex. 22, P551 Ex. 42, P583 Ex. 47 (a) (b) (d) (e), P607 Ex. 20, 22, 23, 24, P615 Ex. 16, P616 Ex. 40, P630 Ex. 6, P631 Ex. 32
```

- ♦ Due on *Dec. 12th, 2017 at the beginning of Class*
- Please write your homeowork neatly, as a courtesy to graders.

#### Next Lecture

graph theory ...

