COMP9020 Week 2 Binary Relations

• Textbook (R & W) - Ch. 3., Sec. 3.1, 3.4; Ch. 11, Sec. 11.1

Applications in Computer Science

Many relations that appear in CS fall into two broad categories:

Equivalence relations (generalizing "equality"):

- Programs that exhibit the same behaviour
- Logically equivalent statements
- The .equals() method in Java

Partial orders (generalizing "less than or equal to"):

- Object inheritance
- Simulation
- Requirement specifications
- The .compareTo() method in Java



Summary of topics

- Defining binary relations
- Properties of binary relations
- Equivalence relations, classes, and partitions
- Orderings



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Binary relations

A binary relation between S and T is a subset of $S \times T$: i.e. a set of ordered pairs.

Also: over S and T; from S to T; on S (if S = T).

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Example (Special (Trivial) Relations)
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Identity (diagonal, equality) E = \{ (x, x) : x \in S \}

Empty \emptyset
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Universal $U = S \times S$



Defining binary relations: Set-based definitions

Defining a relation $R \subseteq S \times T$:

- Explicitly listing tuples: e.g. $\{(1,1),(2,3),(3,2)\}$
- Set comprehension: $\{(x,y) \in [1,3] \times [1,3] : 5|xy-1\}$
- Construction from other relations:

$$\{(1,1)\} \cup \{(2,3)\} \cup \{(2,3)\}^{\leftarrow}$$



Defining binary relations: Matrix representation

Defining a relation $R \subseteq S \times T$:

Rows enumerated by elements of S, columns by elements of T:

Examples

• The relation $\{(1,1),(2,3),(3,2)\}\subseteq [1,3]\times [1,3]$:

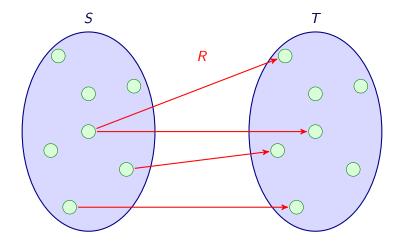
The relation

$$\{(1,1),(1,2),(1,3),(1,4),(2,2),(3,2)\}\subseteq [1,3]\times [1,4]:$$

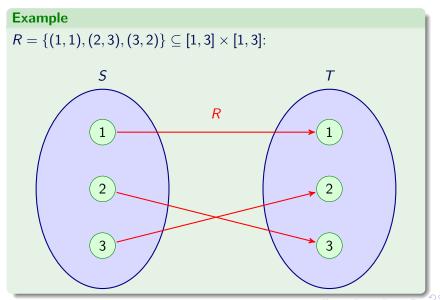
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Defining binary relations: Graphical representation

Defining a relation $R \subseteq S \times T$:

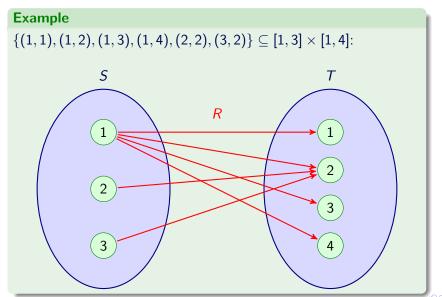


Defining binary relations: Graphical representation



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Defining binary relations: Graphical representation



Defining binary relations: Graph representation

If S = T we can define $R \subseteq S \times S$ as a **directed graph** (week 5).

- Nodes: Elements of S
- Edges: Elements of R

$$R = \{(1,1),(2,3),(3,2)\} \subseteq [1,3] \times [1,3]:$$







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Properties of Binary Relations $R \subseteq S \times S$

Definition

(R)	reflexive	For all $x \in S$: $(x, x) \in R$
(AR)	antireflexive	For all $x \in S$: $(x,x) \notin R$
(S)	symmetric	For all $x, y \in S$: If $(x, y) \in R$
		then $(y,x) \in R$
(AS)	antisymmetric	For all $x, y \in S$: If (x, y) and $(y, x) \in R$
		then $x = y$
(T)	transitive	For all $x, y, z \in S$: If (x, y) and $(y, z) \in R$
		then $(x,z) \in R$

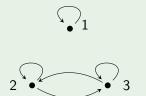
NB

- Properties have to hold for all elements
- (S), (AS), (T) are conditional statements they will hold if there is nothing which satisfies the 'if' part



Examples

(R) Reflexivity: $(x,x) \in R$ for all x





- (R) Reflexivity: $(x,x) \in R$ for all x
- **(AR)** Antireflexivity: $(x,x) \notin R$ for all x



- (R) Reflexivity: $(x, x) \in R$ for all x
- (AR) Antireflexivity: $(x,x) \notin R$ for all x
 - **(S)** Symmetry: If $(x, y) \in R$ then $(y, x) \in R$ for all x, y

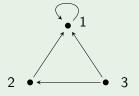


- (R) Reflexivity: $(x, x) \in R$ for all x
- (AR) Antireflexivity: $(x,x) \notin R$ for all x
 - (S) Symmetry: If $(x, y) \in R$ then $(y, x) \in R$ for all x, y
- (AS) Antisymmetry: $(x, y) \in R$ and $(y, x) \in R$ implies x = y for all x, y





- (R) Reflexivity: $(x, x) \in R$ for all x
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 - (S) Symmetry: If $(x, y) \in R$ then $(y, x) \in R$ for all x, y
- (AS) Antisymmetry: $(x, y) \in R$ and $(y, x) \in R$ implies x = y for all x, y
 - (T) Transitivity: $(x, y) \in R$ and $(y, z) \in R$ implies $(x, z) \in R$ for all x, y, z.





Interaction of Properties

A relation *can* be both symmetric and antisymmetric. Namely, when R consists only of some pairs $(x,x), x \in S$. A relation *cannot* be simultaneously reflexive and antireflexive

A relation *cannot* be simultaneously reflexive and antireflexive (unless $S = \emptyset$).

NB

 $\begin{array}{c} \textit{nonreflexive} \\ \textit{nonsymmetric} \end{array} \} \hspace{0.1in} \textit{is not the same as} \hspace{0.1in} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \textit{antireflexive/irreflexive} \\ \textit{antisymmetric} \end{array} \right.$



Exercises

3.1.1 The following relations are on $S = \{1, 2, 3\}$. Which of the properties (R), (AR), (S), (AS), (T) does each satisfy?

(a)
$$(m, n) \in R$$
 if $m + n = 3$?

(e)
$$(m, n) \in R$$
 if $\max\{m, n\} = 3$?

$$3.1.2(b) (m, n) \in R \text{ if } m < n?$$



Exercises

3.1.1 The following relations are on $S = \{1, 2, 3\}$. Which of the properties (R), (AR), (S), (AS), (T) does each satisfy?

(a)
$$(m, n) \in R$$
 if $m + n = 3$? (AR) and (S)

(e)
$$(m, n) \in R$$
 if $\max\{m, n\} = 3$? (S)

3.1.2(b)
$$(m, n) \in R \text{ if } m < n?$$
 (AR), (AS), (T)

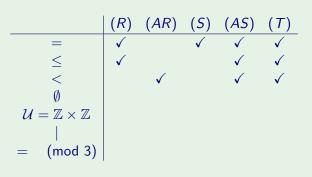


Exercises

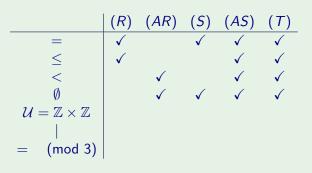
Exercises

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Exercises



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	(R)	(AR)	(5)	(<i>AS</i>)	(<i>T</i>)
=	√		√	✓	\checkmark
\leq	\checkmark			\checkmark	\checkmark
<		\checkmark		\checkmark	\checkmark
Ø		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
$\mathcal{U}=\mathbb{Z} imes\mathbb{Z}$	✓		\checkmark		\checkmark
	√			\checkmark	\checkmark
$= \pmod{3}$					

Exercises

	(R)	(AR)	(5)	(AS)	(<i>T</i>)
=	√		√	\checkmark	√
\leq	✓			\checkmark	\checkmark
<		\checkmark		\checkmark	\checkmark
Ø		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
$\mathcal{U} = \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$	✓		\checkmark		\checkmark
	✓			\checkmark	\checkmark
$= \pmod{3}$	✓		\checkmark		\checkmark

Exercises

3.1.10(a) Give examples of relations with specified properties. (AS), (T), not (R).

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Some examples over \mathbb{N} , Pow(\mathbb{N}):

- strict order of numbers x < y
- simple (weak) order, but with some pairs (x,x)
 removed from R
- being a prime divisor $(p, n) \in R$ iff p is prime and p|n
 - not reflexive: $(1,1) \notin R, (4,4) \notin R, (6,6) \notin R$
 - transitivity is meaningful only for the pairs (p, p), (p, n), p|n for p prime



Exercises

(S), not (R), not (T).



Exercises

3.1.10(b) Give examples of relations with specified properties.

(S), not (R), not (T).

Simplest example - inequality



Exercises

3.6.10 (supp)

R is a relation on $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$, i.e. it is a subset of $\mathbb{N}^2 \times \mathbb{N}^2$ (m, n) R(p, q) if $m = p \pmod{3}$ or $n = q \pmod{5}$. (a) Is R reflexive?

- (b) Is R symmetric?
- (c) Is R transitive?



Exercises

3.6.10 (supp)

R is a relation on $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$, i.e. it is a subset of $\mathbb{N}^2 \times \mathbb{N}^2$ (m,n) R(p,q) if $m=p \pmod 3$ or $n=q \pmod 5$.

(a) Is R reflexive?

Yes: $m = m \pmod{3}$ (and $n = n \pmod{5}$) so (m, n)R(m, n).

- (b) Is *R* symmetric?
- (c) Is R transitive?



Exercises

3.6.10 (supp)

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Yes: $m = m \pmod{3}$ (and $n = n \pmod{5}$) so (m, n)R(m, n).

(b) Is *R* symmetric?

Yes: by symmetry of $. = . \pmod{n}$.

(c) Is R transitive?



Exercises

3.6.10 (supp)

R is a relation on $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$, i.e. it is a subset of $\mathbb{N}^2 \times \mathbb{N}^2$ (m,n) R(p,q) if $m=p \pmod 3$ or $n=q \pmod 5$.

(a) Is R reflexive?

Yes: $m = m \pmod{3}$ (and $n = n \pmod{5}$) so (m, n)R(m, n).

(b) Is R symmetric?

Yes: by symmetry of $. = . \pmod{n}$.

(c) Is R transitive? No: Consider (1,1), (1,4) and (2,4).

Summary of topics

- Defining binary relations
- Properties of binary relations
- Equivalence relations, classes, and partitions
- Orderings

Equivalence relations

Equivalence relations capture a general notion of "equality". They are relations which are:

- Reflexive (R): Every object should be "equal" to itself
- Symmetric (S): If x is "equal" to y, then y should be "equal" to x
- Transitive (T): If x is "equal" to y and y is "equal" to z, then x should be "equal" to z.

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Definition

A binary relation $R \subseteq S \times S$ is equivalence relation if it satisfies (R), (S), (T).



Example

Partition of $\mathbb Z$ into classes of numbers with the same remainder on division by p; it is particularly important for p prime

$$\mathbb{Z}(p) = \mathbb{Z}_p = \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$$

One can define all four arithmetic operations (with the usual properties) on \mathbb{Z}_p for a prime p; division has to be restricted when p is not prime.

NB

 $(\mathbb{Z}_p, +, \cdot, 0, 1)$ are fundamental algebraic structures known as **rings**. These structures are very important in coding theory and cryptography.

Equivalence Classes and Partitions

Suppose $R \subseteq S \times S$ is an equivalence relation The **equivalence class** [s] (w.r.t. R) of an element $s \in S$ is

$$[s] = \{t : t \in S \text{ and } sRt\}$$

Fact

s R t if and only if [s] = [t].



Equivalence classes: Proof example

Proof

Suppose [s] = [t]. Recall $[s] = \{x \in S : (s, x) \in R\}$. We will show that $(s, t) \in R$.

Because R is reflexive, $(t, t) \in R$.

Therefore $t \in [t]$.

Because [t] = [s], it follows that $t \in [s]$.

But then $(s, t) \in R$ by the definition of [s].



Equivalence classes: Proof example

Proof

Now suppose $(s, t) \in R$. We will show [s] = [t] by showing $[s] \subseteq [t]$ and $[t] \subseteq [s]$.

Take any $x \in [s]$.

By the definition of [s], $(s,x) \in R$.

Since R is symmetric $(x, s) \in R$.

Since R is transitive and $(s, t) \in R$ we have that $(x, t) \in R$.

Since R is symmetric $(t, x) \in R$.

Therefore, $x \in [t]$.

Therefore $[s] \subseteq [t]$.

Equivalence classes: Proof example

Proof

Now suppose $(s, t) \in R$. We will show [s] = [t] by showing $[s] \subseteq [t]$ and $[t] \subseteq [s]$.

Take any $x \in [t]$.

By the definition of [t], $(t,x) \in R$.

Since R is transitive and $(s, t) \in R$ we have that $(s, x) \in R$.

Therefore $x \in [s]$.

Therefore $[t] \subseteq [s]$.



Partitions

Definition

A **partition** of a set S is a collection of sets S_1, \ldots, S_k such that

- S_i and S_j are disjoint (for $i \neq j$)
- $S = S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \cdots \cup S_k = \bigcup_{i=1}^k S_i$

The collection of all equivalence classes $\{[s]: s \in S\}$ forms a partition of S

In the opposite direction, a partition of a set defines the equivalence relation on that set. If $S = S_1 \cup \cdots \cup S_k$, then we can define $\sim \subseteq S \times S$ as:

 $s \sim t$ exactly when s and t belong to the same S_i .



Exercises

3.6.6 (supp) Show that $m \sim n$ iff $m^2 = n^2 \pmod{5}$ is an equivalence on $S = \{1, ..., 7\}$. Find all the equivalence classes.

Exercises

3.6.6 (supp) Show that $m \sim n$ iff $m^2 = n^2 \pmod{5}$ is an equivalence on $S = \{1, ..., 7\}$. Find all the equivalence classes.

- (a) It just means that $m = n \pmod{5}$ or $m = -n \pmod{5}$, e.g. $1 = -4 \pmod{5}$. This satisfies (R), (S), (T).
- (b) We have
- $[1] = \{1, 4, 6\}$
- $[2] = \{2, 3, 7\}$
- $[5] = \{5\}$



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Partial Order

A partial order \leq on S satisfies (R), (AS), (T). We call (S, \leq) a poset — partially ordered set

Examples

Posets:

- (\mathbb{Z}, \leq)
- $(Pow(X), \subseteq)$ for some set X
- (N, |)

Not posets:

- \bullet $(\mathbb{Z},<)$
- (ℤ, |)

Hasse diagram

Every finite poset (S, \preceq) can be represented with a **Hasse** diagram:

- Nodes are elements of S
- An edge is drawn *upward* from x to y if $x \prec y$ and there is no z such that $x \prec z \prec y$

Example

Hasse diagram for positive divisors of 24 ordered by |:

Ordering Concepts

Definition

Let (S, \preceq) be a poset.

- **Minimal** element: x such that there is no y with $y \leq x$
- **Maximal** element: x such that there is no y with $x \leq y$
- Minimum (least) element: x such that $x \leq y$ for all $y \in S$
- Maximum (greatest) element: x such that $y \leq x$ for all $y \in S$

NB

- There may be multiple minimal/maximal elements.
- Minimum/maximum elements are the unique minimal/maximal elements if they exist.
- Minimal/maximal elements always exist in finite posets, but not necessarily in infinite posets.

Examples

Examples

- Pow($\{a, b, c\}$) with the order \subseteq \emptyset is minimum; $\{a, b, c\}$ is maximum
- Pow($\{a, b, c\}$) \ $\{\{a, b, c\}\}$ (proper subsets of $\{a, b, c\}$) Each two-element subset $\{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{b, c\}$ is maximal.
 - But there is no maximum



Ordering Concepts

Definition

Let (S, \preceq) be a poset.

- x is an **upper bound** for A if $a \leq x$ for all $a \in A$
- x is a **lower bound** for A if $x \leq a$ for all $a \in A$
- The **set of upper bounds** for A is defined as $ub(A) = \{x : a \leq x \text{ for all } a \in A\}$
- The **set of lower bounds** for A is defined as $lb(A) = \{x : x \leq a \text{ for all } a \in A\}$
- The least upper bound of A, lub(A), is the minimum of ub(A) (if it exists)
- The greatest lower bound of A, glb(A) is the maximum of lb(A) (if it exists)



glb and lub

To show x is glb(A) you need to show:

- x is a lower bound: $x \leq a$ for all $a \in A$.
- x is the greatest of all lower bounds: If $y \leq a$ for all $a \in A$ then $y \leq x$.

Example

Pow(X) ordered by \subseteq .

- $glb(A, B) = A \cap B$
- $lub(A, B) = A \cup B$



Ordering Concepts

Definition

Let (S, \preceq) be a poset.

- (S, \preceq) is a **lattice** if lub(x, y) and glb(x, y) exist for every pair of elements $x, y \in S$.
- (S, \leq) is a **complete lattice** if lub(A) and glb(A) exist for every subset $A \subseteq S$.

NB

A finite lattice is always a complete lattice.



Examples

Examples

- $\bullet~\{1,2,3,4,6,8,12,24\}$ partially ordered by divisibility is a lattice
 - e.g. $lub({4,6}) = 12$; $glb({4,6}) = 2$
- $\{1,2,3\}$ partially ordered by divisibility is not a lattice
 - {2,3} has no lub
- {2,3,6} partially ordered by divisibility
 - {2,3} has no glb
- \bullet $\{1, 2, 3, 12, 18, 36\}$ partially ordered by divisibility
 - {2,3} has no lub (12,18 are minimal upper bounds)

NB

An infinite lattice need not have a lub (or no glb) for an arbitrary infinite subset of its elements, in particular no such bound may exist for all its elements.

Examples

- (\mathbb{Z}, \leq) : neither $lub(\mathbb{Z})$ nor $glb(\mathbb{Z})$ exist
- $(\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{N}), \subseteq)$ [all finite subsets of \mathbb{N}]: lub exists for pairs of elements but not generally for (infinite) sets of elements. glb exists for any set of elements: intersection of a set of finite sets is finite.
- $(\mathcal{I}(\mathbb{N}),\subseteq)$ [all infinite subsets of \mathbb{N}]: glb does not exist for some pairs of elements (e.g. odds and evens). lub exists for any set of elements: union of a set of infinite sets is always infinite.

Exercises

11.1.5 Consider poset (\mathbb{R}, \leq)

- Is this a lattice?
- lacktriangle Give an example of a non-empty subset of $\mathbb R$ that has no upper bound.

- **(a)** Find lub($\{x: x^2 < 73\}$)
- ① Find glb($\{x: x^2 < 73\}$)

Exercises

11.1.5 Consider poset (\mathbb{R}, \leq)

- Is this a lattice? Yes
- Give an example of a non-empty subset of $\mathbb R$ that has no upper bound. $\mathbb R_{>0}=\{\ r\in\mathbb R:r>0\ \}$
- **⑤** Find lub({ $x ∈ \mathbb{R} : x < 73$ }) 73
- ① Find lub($\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \leq 73\}$) 73
- **a** Find lub($\{x: x^2 < 73\}$) $\sqrt{73}$
- ① Find glb($\{x: x^2 < 73\}$) $-\sqrt{73}$

Total orders

Definition

A total order is a partial order that also satisfies:

(L) Linearity (any two elements are comparable):

For all x, y either: $x \le y$ or $y \le x$ (or both if x = y)

NB

On a finite set all total orders are "isomorphic" On an infinite set there is quite a variety of possibilities.

Examples

Examples

- ℤ with ≤: (no minimum/maximum element)
- \mathbb{Z} with $\{(x,y): x < 0 \le y \text{ or } |x| \le |y|\}$: (no maximum element, minimum element is -1)
- \mathbb{Z} with $\{(x,y): x < 0 \le y \text{ or } x \ge y\}$: (minimum element -1, maximum element 0)

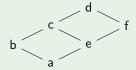
Ordering of a Poset — Topological Sort

Definition

For a poset (S, \preceq) any total order \leq that is consistent with \preceq (if $a \preceq b$ then $a \leq b$) is called a **topological sort**.

Example

Consider



The following all are topological sorts:

$$a \le b \le e \le c \le f \le d$$

 $a \le e \le b \le f \le c \le d$

$$a \le e \le f \le b \le c \le d$$

Well-Ordered Sets

Definition

A *well-ordered set* is a poset where every subset has a least element.

NB

The greatest element is not required.

Examples

- $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, \ldots\}$
- $\mathbb{N}_1 \dot{\cup} \mathbb{N}_2 \dot{\cup} \mathbb{N}_3 \dot{\cup} \dots$, where each $\mathbb{N}_i \simeq \mathbb{N}$ and $\mathbb{N}_1 < \mathbb{N}_2 < \mathbb{N}_3 \dots$

NB

Well-ordered sets are an important mathematical tool to prove termination of programs.

Combining Orders

Product order — can combine any partial orders. In general, it is only a *partial order*, even if combining total orders. For $s, s' \in S$ and $t, t' \in T$ define

$$(s,t) \leq (s',t')$$
 if $s \leq s'$ and $t \leq t'$



Practical Orderings

They are, effectively, total orders on the product of ordered sets.

- Lexicographic order defined on all of Σ^* . It extends a total order already assumed to exist on Σ .
- Lenlex the order on (potentially) the entire Σ^* , where the elements are ordered first by length.
 - $\Sigma^{(1)} \prec \Sigma^{(2)} \prec \Sigma^{(3)} \prec \cdots$, then lexicographically within each $\Sigma^{(k)}$. In practice it is applied only to the finite subsets of Σ^* .
- Filing order lexicographic order confined to the strings of the same length.
 - It defines total orders on Σ^i , separately for each i.

Example

Example

 $\boxed{11.2.5 }$ Let $\mathbb{B}=\{0,1\}$ with the usual order 0<1. List the elements 101,010,11,000,10,0010,1000 of \mathbb{B}^* in the (a) Lexicographic order

(b) Lenlex order

11.2.8 When are the lexicographic order and *lenlex* on Σ^* the same?



Example

Example

 $\lfloor 11.2.5 \rfloor$ Let $\mathbb{B}=\{0,1\}$ with the usual order 0<1. List the elements 101,010,11,000,10,0010,1000 of \mathbb{B}^* in the

- (a) Lexicographic order 000, 0010, 010, 10, 1000, 101, 11
- (b) Lenlex order 10, 11, 000, 010, 101, 0010, 1000

11.2.8 When are the lexicographic order and *lenlex* on Σ^* the same?

Only when $|\Sigma| = 1$.

Exercises

- 11.6.6 True or false?
- If a set Σ is totally ordered, then the corresponding lenlex order on Σ^* also must be totally ordered.
- Every finite partially ordered set has a Hasse diagram.



Exercises

- If a set Σ is totally ordered, then the corresponding lenlex order on Σ^* also must be totally ordered.
- Servery finite partially ordered set has a Hasse diagram.



Exercises

- If a set Σ is totally ordered, then the corresponding lexicographic partial order on Σ^* also must be totally ordered. True
- If a set Σ is totally ordered, then the corresponding lenlex order on Σ^* also must be totally ordered. True
- Every finite partially ordered set has a Hasse diagram.



Exercises

- If a set Σ is totally ordered, then the corresponding lexicographic partial order on Σ^* also must be totally ordered. True
- If a set Σ is totally ordered, then the corresponding lenlex order on Σ^* also must be totally ordered. True
- Every finite partially ordered set has a Hasse diagram. True

Exercises

- 11.6.6 True or false?
- Every finite partially ordered set has a topological sorting.
- Every finite partially ordered set has a minimum element.
- Every finite totally ordered set has a maximum element.
- An infinite partially ordered set cannot have a maximum element.



Exercises

- Every finite partially ordered set has a topological sorting. True
- Every finite partially ordered set has a minimum element.
- Every finite totally ordered set has a maximum element.
- An infinite partially ordered set cannot have a maximum element.



Exercises

- Every finite partially ordered set has a topological sorting. True
- Every finite partially ordered set has a minimum element.
 False
- Every finite totally ordered set has a maximum element.
- An infinite partially ordered set cannot have a maximum element.



Exercises

- Every finite partially ordered set has a topological sorting. True
- Every finite partially ordered set has a minimum element.
 False
- Every finite totally ordered set has a maximum element.
 True
- An infinite partially ordered set cannot have a maximum element.



Exercises

11.6.6 True or false?

- Every finite partially ordered set has a topological sorting. True
- Every finite partially ordered set has a minimum element.
 False
- Every finite totally ordered set has a maximum element.
 True
- An infinite partially ordered set cannot have a maximum element.

False

