# Set Theory

Relations II

### Content

- Equivalence relation (等价关系)
- · Order relation (序关系)

Equivalence Relations 等所系統滿足。個人对称,可传氧性。

# Equivalence Relations

- Equivalence relations are used to relate objects that are similar in some way.
- Definition: A relation on a set A is called an equivalence relation if it is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.
- Two elements that are related by an equivalence relation R are called equivalent. 通过等价关系R相关的两个元素称为等价。

# Equivalence Relations

- Since R is symmetric, a is equivalent to b whenever b is equivalent to a.
- Since R is reflexive, every element is equivalent to itself.
- Since R is transitive, if a and b are equivalent and b and c are equivalent, then a and c are equivalent.
- Obviously, these three properties are necessary for a reasonable definition of equivalence.

# Equivalence Relations

• Example: Suppose that R is the relation on the set of strings that consist of English letters such that aRb if and only if I(a)=I(b), where I(x) is the length of the string x. Is R an equivalence relation?

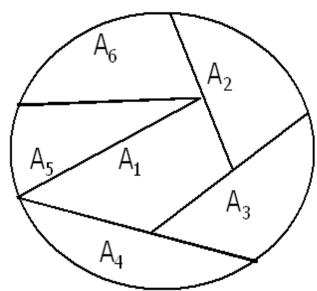
#### · Solution:

- R is reflexive, because I(a) = I(a) and therefore aRa for any string a.
- R is symmetric, because if I(a) = I(b) then I(b) = I(a), so if aRb then bRa.
- R is transitive, because if I(a) = I(b) and I(b) = I(c), then I(a) = I(c), so aRb and bRc implies aRc.
- · R is an equivalence relation.

- **Definition**: Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A. The set of all elements that are related to an element a of A is called the equivalence class of a.
- The equivalence class of a with respect to R is denoted by  $[a]_R$ .
- When only one relation is under consideration, we will delete the subscript R and write [a] for this equivalence class.
- If b∈[a]<sub>R</sub>, b is called a representative of this equivalence class. b是 [四] 这可以这个等例类的代表

- Example: In the previous example (strings of identical length), what is the equivalence class of the word mouse, denoted by [mouse]?
- · Solution:
  - [mouse] is the set of all English words containing five letters.
  - For example, 'horse' would be a representative of this equivalence class.

- Theorem: Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A. The following statements are equivalent:
  - 1. aRb
  - -2.[a]=[b]
- Definition: A partition of a set S is a collection of disjoint nonempty subsets of S that have S as their union. In other words, the collection of subsets Ai,  $i \in I$ , forms a partition of S iff
  - 1. Ai  $\neq$  Ø for i∈I
  - 2. Ai ∩ Aj = Ø, if i ≠ j
  - 3.  $\cup$  i  $\in$  I  $\land$  i = S



Examples: Let S be the set {u, m, b, r, o, c, k, s}. Do the following collections of sets partition S? 是住的 划分学

- {{m, o, c, k}, {r, u, b, s}} yes.
- {{c, o, m, b}, {u, s}, {r}} no (k is missing).
- {{b, r, o, c, k}, {m, u, s, t}} no (t is not in S).
- {{u, m, b, r, o, c, k, s}} yes.
- {{b, o, o, k}, {r, u, m}, {c, s}} yes ({b,o,o,k} ={b,o,k}). 可量复
- $\{\{u, m, b\}, \{r, o, c, k, s\}, \emptyset\}$  no  $(\emptyset \text{ not allowed})$ .

定理:令R是集合S上的等价关系。然后R的等价类形成S的一个划分。相反,给定一个分区{Ail集合S的iel},存在一个等价关系R,它具有集合Aiiel作为其等价类。

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

#### · Example:

Let us assume that Frank, Suzanne and George live in Boston,
 Stephanie and Max live in Lübeck, and Jennifer lives in Sydney.

- Let R be the equivalence relation {(a, b) | a and b live in the same city}
  on the set P = {Frank, Suzanne, George, Stephanie, Max, Jennifer}.
- Then R = { (Frank, Frank), (Frank, Suzanne), (Frank, George), (Suzanne, Frank), (Suzanne, Suzanne), (Suzanne, George), (George, Frank), (George, Suzanne), (George, George), (Stephanie, Stephanie), ( Stephanie, Max), (Max, Stephanie), (Max Max), (Jennifer, Jennifer) }.

- Then the equivalence classes of R are:
  - {{Frank, Suzanne, George}, {Stephanie, Max}, {Jennifer}}.
  - This is a partition of P.
- The equivalence classes of any equivalence relation R defined on a set S
  constitute a partition of S, because every element in S is assigned to
  exactly one of the equivalence classes.

在集合S上定义的任何等价关系R的等价类都构成S的分区,因为S中的每个元素都精确地分配给其中一个等价类。

(紫点)

· Example:

- 梭3同余
- Let R be the relation  $\{(a,b)|a\equiv b \pmod{3}\}$  on the set of integers.
- Is R an equivalence relation?

Yes, R is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.

What are the equivalence classes of R?

電流が此: R= (1,1), (1,4), (1,7), (4,2), (2,5), (3,3), (3,6), (4,1), (4,4),(4)(5,5), (5,2), (6,6), (6,3), (7,7), (7,4)(1)



### L +0 0 1 =0 0 h

# Equivalence relations



### · Example:

- Consider set  $X = \{1,2,...,13\}$ . Define xRy as 5 divides x y (i.e., x y = 5k, for some int k). We can verify that R is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive. Here is how.
- The equivalence class [1] consists of all x with xR1. Thus:
  - [1] =  $\{x \in X \mid 5 \text{ divides } x 1\} = \{1, 6, 11\}$
- Similarly:
  - $\cdot$  [2] = {2, 7, 12}
  - · [3] = {3, 8, 13}
  - · [4] = {4, 9}
  - · [5] = {5, 10}

# Equivalence relations

- These 5 sets partition X. Note that:
- · [1] = [6] = [11]
- · [2] = [7] = [12]
- · [3] = [8] = [13]
- · [4] = [9]
- · [5] = [10]
- For this relation, equivalence is "has the same reminder when divided by 5".

# 偏序关系 Partial Orders Relations

#### Order relations

- Definition: Let X be a set and R a relation on X, R is a partial order on X if R is reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive. A set X together with a partial ordering R is called a partially ordered set, or poset, or PO, and is denoted by (X, R).
- Example: Is  $(x, y) \in R$  in partial order if  $x \ge y$ ?
  - Yes, since:
    - Reflexive:  $(x, x) \in R$
    - Anti-symmetric: If  $(x, y) \in R$  and  $x \neq y$ , then  $(y, x) \notin R$
    - Transitive: If  $(x, y) \in R$  and  $(y, z) \in R$ , then  $(x, z) \in R$

#### Order relations

# 包含关系是一个偏序关条吗?

- Example: Is the "inclusion relation"  $\subseteq$  a partial ordering on the power set of a set 5?
  - $\subseteq$  is reflexive, because  $A \subseteq A$  for every set  $A \in S$ .
  - $\subseteq$  is antisymmetric, because if  $A \neq B$ , then  $A \subseteq B \land B \subseteq A$  is false.
  - $\subseteq$  is transitive, because if  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B \subseteq C$ , then  $A \subseteq C$ .
- Consequently,  $(P(S), \subseteq)$  is a partially ordered set or poset.

# 年序类 Order relations

- Let x,y∈X,
  - If (x,y) or (y,x) are in R, then x and y are comparable.
  - If  $(x,y) \notin R$  and  $(y,x) \notin R$ , then x and y are incomparable.
  - Definition: If every pair of elements in X are comparable, then R is a total order on X.
    - In this case, X is called a totally ordered or linearly ordered set, and ≤ is called a total order or linear order. A totally ordered set is also called a chain.

#### Order relations

- Example: Is  $(Z, \leq)$  a totally ordered poset?
  - Yes, because  $a \le b$  or  $b \le a$  for all integers a and b.
- Example: Is (Z+, division) a totally ordered poset?
  - No, because it contains incomparable elements such as 5 and 7. 程序程序(约),以为)在存在于R

#### Order relations

- In a poset the notation  $a \le b$  denotes that  $(a, b) \in R$ .
- Note that the symbol ≤ is used to denote the relation in any poset, not just the "less than or equal" relation.
- The notation a < b denotes that  $a \le b$ , but  $a \ne b$ .
- If a < b we say "a is less than b" or "b is greater than a".</li>

#### 字典序

# Lexicographic Order

- How can we define a lexicographic ordering on the set of English words?
   这是从集合上的部分排序构造的集合上字符串排序的一种特殊情况
- This is a special case of an ordering of strings on a set constructed from a partial ordering on the set.
- We already have an ordering of letters (such as a < b, b < c, ...), and from that we want to derive an ordering of strings我们要导出字符串的顺序。
- Let us take a look at the general case, that is, how the construction works in any poset.

• First step: Construct a partial ordering on the Cartesian product of two posets,  $(A_1, \leq_1)$  and  $(A_2, \leq_2)$ :  $A_1 \times A_2$ 

• 
$$(a_1,a_2)$$
 ·  $(b_1,b_2)$  if  $(a_1$  ·  $(a_1)$  ·  $(a_1=b_1)$  ·  $(a_2$  ·  $(a_2)$  ·  $(a_1,a_2)$  ·  $(a_1,a_2)$  ·  $(a_1+a_2)$  ·

- Examples:
  - In the poset  $(Z \times Z, \leq)$ , ...
    - is (5, 5) < (6, 4) ? YES</li>
    - is (6, 5) < (6, 4) ? NO
    - is (3, 3) < (3, 3) ? NO

- Second step: Extend the previous definition to the Cartesian product of n posets  $(A_1, \leq_1)$ ,  $(A_2, \leq_2)$ , ...,  $(A_n, \leq_n)$ :
- $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$  <  $(b_1, b_2, ..., b_n)$  if  $(a_1 <_1 b_1) \lor \exists i > 0$   $(a_1 = b_1, a_2 = b_2, ..., a_i = b_i, a_{i+1} <_{i+1} b_{i+1})$
- · Examples:
  - Is (1,1,1,2,1) < (1,1,1,1,2)? No
  - Is (1, 1, 1, 1, 1) < (1, 1, 1, 1, 2)? Yes

We can now define lexicographic ordering of strings. Consider the strings  $a_1a_2\ldots a_m$  and  $b_1b_2\ldots b_n$  on a partially ordered set S.

Suppose these strings are not equal. Let t be the minimum of m and n. The definition of lexicographic ordering is that the string  $a_1a_2\ldots a_m$  is less than  $b_1b_2\ldots b_n$  if and only if

- $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_t) \cdot (b_1, b_2, ..., b_t)$ , or
- $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_t) = (b_1, b_2, ..., b_t)$  and m < n,

where < in this inequality represents the lexicographic ordering of  $S^{\dagger}$ .

- In other words, to determine the ordering of two different strings, the longer string is truncated to the length of the shorter string, namely, to t = min(m, n) terms.
- Then the t-tuples made up of the first t terms of each string are compared using the lexicographic ordering on S<sup>†</sup>.
- One string is less than another string if the t-tuple corresponding to the first string is less than the t-tuple of the second string, or if these two ttuples are the same, but the second string is longer.
- $(a_1a_2 ... a_m) R (b_1b_2 ... b_n)$  if -  $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_t) = (b_1, b_2, ..., b_t)$  and t = m = n, -  $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_t) < (b_1, b_2, ..., b_t)$ , or  $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_t) = (b_1, b_2, ..., b_t)$ and m < n,
- · R is a partial ordering

# Hasse Diagram (哈斯图)

- Hasse diagram is a graphical display of a poset.
- A point is drawn for each element of the poset, and line segments are drawn between these points according to the following two rules:
  - 1. If x < y in the poset, then the point corresponding to x appears lower in the drawing than the point corresponding to y.
  - 2. The line segment between the points corresponding to any two elements x and y of the poset is included in the drawing iff x covers y or y covers x.

# 盖伯美統 (a.b之间)没有其他元素) Cover Relation

Let  $(S, \le)$  be a poset. We say that an element  $y \in S$  covers an element  $x \in S$  if x < y and there is no element  $z \in S$  such that x < z < y. The set of pairs (x, y) such that y covers x is called the covering relation of  $(S, \le)$ .

# 作图方法

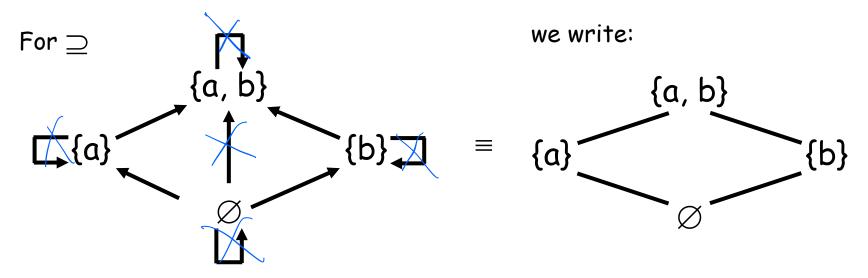
# Hasse Diagrams

We produce Hasse Diagrams from directed graphs of relations by doing a transitive reduction plus a reflexive reduction (if weak) and (usually) dropping arrowheads (using, instead, "above" to give direction)

1) Transitive reduction — discard all arcs except those that "directly cover" an element.

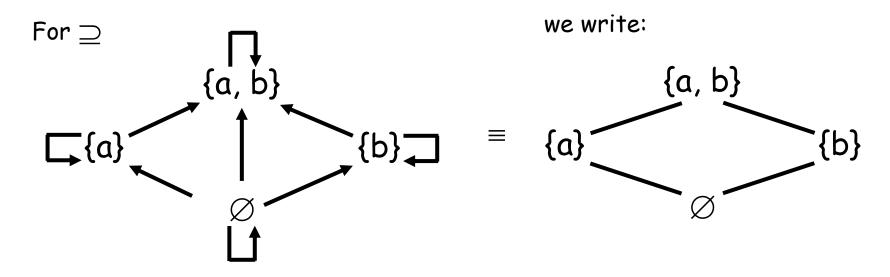
2) Reflexive reduction—discard all self loops. 支持 例文

37最小的在下面, 大何在上面 W犯箭头玄祥



# The Procedure Summary

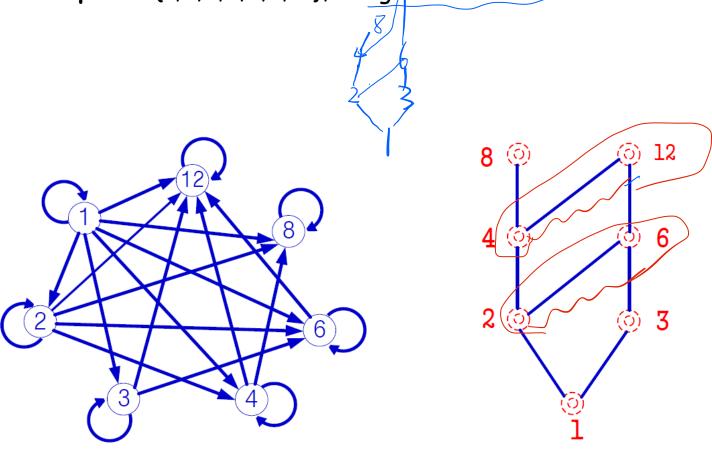
- Start with the directed graph for this relation.
- Because a partial ordering is reflexive, a loop (a, a) is present at every vertex a. Remove these loops.
- Next, remove all edges that must be in the partial ordering because of the presence of other edges and transitivity. That is, remove all edges (x, y) for which there is an element  $z \in S$  such that x < z and z < x.
- Finally, arrange each edge so that its initial vertex is below its terminal vertex (as it is drawn on paper). Remove all the arrows on the directed edges, because all edges point "upward" toward their terminal vertex.



# (考试地南河图画出作吃新图)

# Hasse Diagram

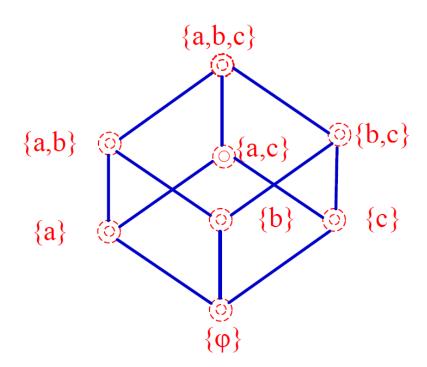
• Example:  $A = \{1,2,3,4,6,8,12\}$ , integral division relation.

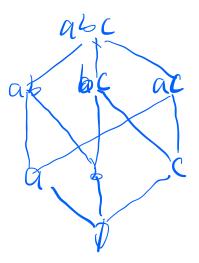


# Hasse Diagram

暴原的熊

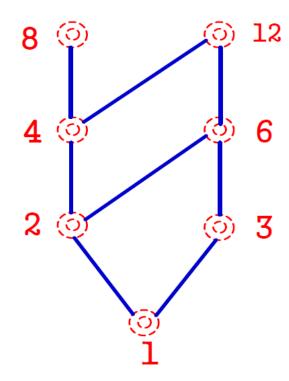
• Example:  $S=\{a, b, c\}, (P(S), \subseteq)$ 





### Maximum/Minimum/Greatest/Least

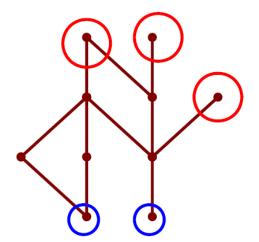
- 张
- Maximum/Minimum element
- 极大、极小
- Greatest/Least element
- \* 最大、最小
- Upper/Lower bound
- 上界、下界
- · Least upper/Greatest lower bound
- 最小上界、最大下界



# Minimum and Maximum

没有肯达勿多 Cover 的元素

- Definition: In a poset S, an element z is a minimum element if there is no element  $b \in S$ , thus  $b \le z$  and  $b \ne z$ .
- How about definition for maximum element? 以成有元素的E Lover它
- Example:
  - Reds are maximal.
  - Blues are minimal.

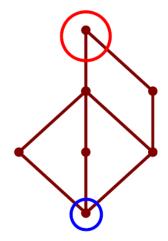


# 表入人表大 Least and Greatest

散被任何一个满 cover

- Definition: In a poset S, an element z is a Least element if  $\forall b \in S$ ,  $z \le b$ .
- How about definition for Greatest element.
- · Example:
  - Reds are greatest.
  - Blues are least.
- · Greatest/Least may not exist.





#### Least and Greatest

#### 在每个偏序集合中,如果存在最大元素,那么它是唯一的。最少也一样

- Theorem: In every poset, if the greatest element exists, then it is unique. Similarly for the least.
- · Proof:
  - Suppose there are two greatest elements,  $a_1$  and  $a_2$ , with  $a_1 \ne a_2$ . Then  $a_1 \le a_2$ , and  $a_2 \le a_1$ , by defining of greatest. So  $a_1 = a_2$ , a contradiction. Thus, our assumption was incorrect, and the greatest element, if it exists, is unique.
  - Similar proof for least.

# The End