Summary last week

- correctness and complexity statements and proofs of Floyd's algorithm
- proof method: proof by contradiction
- relations as digraphs; whether elements relate, not how
- properties of relations: reflexivity, symmetry, transitivity, ...
- closing a relation with respect to a property
- Warshall's transitive closure algorithm
- functions as relations; every element related to some unique element
- defining functions by specifications

Summary last week

Theorem

The following overwrites the adjacency matrix A of R, with that of R^+

For r from 0 to n - 1 repeat: Set N = A. For i from 0 to n - 1 repeat: For j from 0 to n - 1 repeat: Set $N_{ij} = max(A_{ij}, A_{ir} \cdot A_{rj})$ Set A = N.

Proof.

1

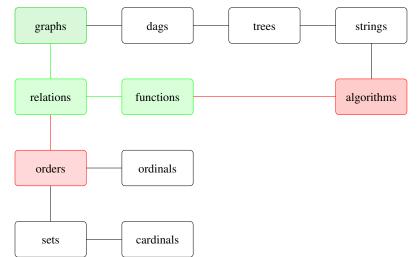
2

as for Floyd

Course themes

- directed and undirected graphs
- relations and functions
- orders and induction
- trees and dags
- finite and infinite counting
- elementary number theory
- Turing machines, algorithms, and complexity
- decidable and undecidable problem

Discrete structures



Functions as relations

Definition

A function on *M* is a relation *R* on *M* such that

1 for all $x \in M$, there exists y such that x R y (totality)

2 for all $x, y, y' \in M$ if x R y and x R y' then y = y', i.e. R relates uniquely.

we then write R(x) to denote y.

Functions as relations

Definition

A function on *M* is a relation *R* on *M* such that

1 for all $x \in M$, there exists y such that x R y (totality)

2 for all $x, y, y' \in M$ if x R y and x R y' then y = y', i.e. R relates uniquely.

we then write R(x) to denote y.

Example

- The squaring function on natural numbers is the relation {(0,0), (1,1), (2,4), (3,9), (4,16), ...}.
- Taking the square root is not a function on natural numbers, since, e.g., the square root of 2 is not a natural number (existence fails)
- Taking the square root is not a function on the real numbers either, since, e.g., both -2 and 2 are square roots of 4 (uniqueness (also) fails)

Functions as relations

Definition

A function on *M* is a relation *R* on *M* such that

1 for all $x \in M$, there exists y such that x R y (totality)

2 for all $x, y, y' \in M$ if x R y and x R y' then y = y', i.e. R relates uniquely.

we then write R(x) to denote y.

Specification of functions

A function is said to be **defined** by some specification this expresses that there **exists** a **unique** relation satisfying the specification and the relation is a **function**.

Example

The function *f* on natural numbers defined by

•
$$f(n) = n? \checkmark \text{or } f(n) = -1? \times \text{or } f(n) = f(n)? \times$$

• f(0) = 10 and $f(1) = 2? \times \text{or } f(0) = 0$ and $f(n+1) = f(n)? \checkmark \dots$

How to represent functions?

How to represent functions?

Problem

Domains are typically infinite. Then representation by

- list of tuples? infinitely many tuples!
- adjacency matrix? infinitely many rows, columns!
- ...?

How to represent functions?

Problem

Domains are typically infinite. Then representation by

- list of tuples? infinitely many tuples!
- adjacency matrix? infinitely many rows, columns!
- ...?

Solution

5

6

Represent functions by algorithms. Many ways of defining algorithms, e.g. as Turing machines, Java programs, Haskell programs, ... but all equivalent

Limitations of algorithms

• There are more functions $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ than there are algorithms (programs, TMs); so some functions cannot be represented by algorithms;

Limitations of algorithms

- There are more functions $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ than there are algorithms (programs, TMs); so some functions cannot be represented by algorithms;
- No algorithms for checking interesting properties of programs (TMs) themselves; termination (halting problem), reachability (unreachable code), ... No interesting property of programs can be programmed.

Limitations of algorithms

- There are more functions $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ than there are algorithms (programs, TMs); so some functions cannot be represented by algorithms;
- No algorithms for checking interesting properties of programs (TMs) themselves; termination (halting problem), reachability (unreachable code), ... No interesting property of programs can be programmed.
- No algorithm for checking whether a formula in first-order logic is universally valid (Entscheidungsproblem).

Limitations of algorithms

- There are more functions $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ than there are algorithms (programs, TMs); so some functions cannot be represented by algorithms;
- No algorithms for checking interesting properties of programs (TMs) themselves; termination (halting problem), reachability (unreachable code), ... No interesting property of programs can be programmed.
- No algorithm for checking whether a formula in first-order logic is universally valid (Entscheidungsproblem).
- No algorithm for checking whether Diophantine equations have a solution (Hilbert's 10th problem).

Limitations of algorithms

- There are more functions *f* : N → N than there are algorithms (programs, TMs); so some functions cannot be represented by algorithms;
- No algorithms for checking interesting properties of programs (TMs) themselves; termination (halting problem), reachability (unreachable code), ... No interesting property of programs can be programmed.
- No algorithm for checking whether a formula in first-order logic is universally valid (Entscheidungsproblem).
- No algorithm for checking whether Diophantine equations have a solution (Hilbert's 10th problem).

• ...

Limitations of algorithms

- There are more functions *f* : N → N than there are algorithms (programs, TMs); so some functions cannot be represented by algorithms;
- No algorithms for checking interesting properties of programs (TMs) themselves; termination (halting problem), reachability (unreachable code), ... No interesting property of programs can be programmed.
- No algorithm for checking whether a formula in first-order logic is universally valid (Entscheidungsproblem).
- No algorithm for checking whether Diophantine equations have a solution (Hilbert's 10th problem).
- ...

6

6

Remark

These limitations will be addressed in the last few weeks of course

Functions as imperative programs

Definition

A deterministic 1-tape Turingmachine (TM) *M* is a 9-tuple $M = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \vdash, \sqcup, \delta, s, t, r)$

- **1** *Q* is a finite set of **states**
- **2** Σ is a set of input symbols
- **3** Γ is a finite set of tape symbols with $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$
- **4** $\vdash \in \Gamma \setminus \Sigma$ is the left-end marker symbol
- **5** $\sqcup \in \Gamma$ ($\sqcup \neq \vdash$), is the blank symbol
- **6** $\delta: Q \times \Gamma \to Q \times \Gamma \times \{L, R\}$ is the transition function
- **7** $s \in Q$, the initial or start state
- **B** $t \in Q$, the accepting state
- **9** $r \in Q$, the rejecting state ($t \neq r$)

Transition function

 $\delta(p, a) = (q, b, d)$ means that if TM *M* is in state *p* and reads symbol *a*, then

- 1 *M* replaces *a* with *b* on the tape
- 2 the read/write-head moves one step in direction d
- \blacksquare *M* goes into state *q*

Transition function

- $\delta(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{a}) = (\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{d})$ means that if TM *M* is in state *p* and reads symbol *a*, then
- **1** *M* replaces *a* with *b* on the tape
- 2 the read/write-head moves one step in direction d
- \blacksquare *M* goes into state *q*

Additional constraints

• The left-end marker cannot be overwritten

$$orall \ p \in Q$$
, $\exists \ q \in Q \quad \delta(p, \vdash) = (q, \vdash, \mathsf{R})$

Transition function

- $\delta(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{a}) = (\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{d})$ means that if TM *M* is in state *p* and reads symbol *a*, then
- **1** *M* replaces *a* with *b* on the tape
- **2** the read/write-head moves one step in direction d
- **3** M goes into state q

Additional constraints

• The left-end marker cannot be overwritten

$$\forall \ p \in Q, \ \exists \ q \in Q \quad \delta(p, \vdash) = (q, \vdash, \mathsf{R})$$

• If TM is in the accepting/rejecting state, it will stay in that state

 $\forall b \in \Gamma \pi_1(\delta(t, b)) = t \text{ and } \pi_1(\delta(r, b)) = r$

Here π_1 denotes projection on the first component

Example

Let $M = (\{s, p, t, r\}, \{0, 1\}, \{\vdash, \sqcup, 0, 1\}, \vdash, \sqcup, \delta, s, t, r)$ be a TM. Then δ can be specified by a transition table

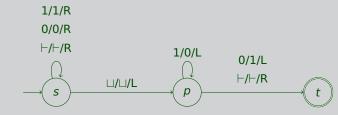
	F	0	1	
s	(s, \vdash, R) (t, \vdash, R)	(s, 0, R)	(s, 1, R)	(p,\sqcup,L)
p	(t, \vdash, R)	(t, 1, L)	(p, 0, L)	•

Example

Let $M = (\{s, p, t, r\}, \{0, 1\}, \{\vdash, \sqcup, 0, 1\}, \vdash, \sqcup, \delta, s, t, r)$ be a TM. Then δ can be specified by a transition table

	⊢	0	1	
S	(<i>s</i> ,⊢,R)	(<i>s</i> , 0, R)	(s, 1, R)	(p,\sqcup,L)
p	(<i>t</i> , ⊢, R)	(t, 1, L)	(p, 0, L)	•

or by a transition graph



Words

Definition (Alphabet)

Set Σ is an alphabet $a \in \Sigma$ is a symbol

Words

Definition (Alphabet)

Set Σ is an alphabet $a \in \Sigma$ is a symbol

Words

Definition (Alphabet)

Set Σ is an alphabet $a \in \Sigma$ is a symbol

Example

- $\mathbb{B} = \{0, 1\}$ is the binary alphabet
- $\{a, b, \dots, z\}$ is the alphabet of letters
- $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$ is the alphabet of digits

Words

Definition (Alphabet)

Set Σ is an alphabet $a \in \Sigma$ is a symbol

Example

- $\mathbb{B} = \{0, 1\}$ is the binary alphabet
- $\{a, b, \ldots, z\}$ is the alphabet of letters
- $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$ is the alphabet of digits

Words

Definition (Alphabet)

Set Σ is an alphabet $a \in \Sigma$ is a symbol

Example

- $\mathbb{B} = \{0,1\}$ is the binary alphabet
- $\{a, b, \dots, z\}$ is the alphabet of letters
- $\{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9\}$ is the alphabet of digits

Words

Definition (Alphabet)

Set Σ is an alphabet $a \in \Sigma$ is a symbol

Example

- $\mathbb{B} = \{0, 1\}$ is the binary alphabet
- $\{a, b, \ldots, z\}$ is the alphabet of letters
- $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$ is the alphabet of digits

Definition (Word)

 $w = (w_0, \dots, w_{n-1}) \in \Sigma^n$ is a word or string of length $\ell(w) = n$ over Σ

10

Words

Definition (Alphabet)

Set Σ is an alphabet $a \in \Sigma$ is a symbol

Example

- $\mathbb{B} = \{0,1\}$ is the binary alphabet
- $\{a, b, \dots, z\}$ is the alphabet of letters
- $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$ is the alphabet of digits

Definition (Word)

 $w = (w_0, \dots, w_{n-1}) \in \Sigma^n$ is a word or string of length $\ell(w) = n$ over Σ Σ^* is the set of all words over Σ

10

Words

Definition (Alphabet)

Set Σ is an alphabet $a \in \Sigma$ is a symbol

Example

- $\mathbb{B} = \{0, 1\}$ is the binary alphabet
- $\{a, b, \ldots, z\}$ is the alphabet of letters
- $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$ is the alphabet of digits

Definition (Word)

 $w = (w_0, \dots, w_{n-1}) \in \Sigma^n$ is a word or string of length $\ell(w) = n$ over Σ Σ^* is the set of all words over Σ

Remark

As in ETI, we omit parentheses in words; words of length 1 are denoted by symbols 10

Definition

A configuration of a TM *M* is a triple (p, x, n) comprising

1 $p \in Q$ its state

2 $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{y} \sqcup^{\infty}$ its tape content, $\mathbf{y} \in \Gamma^*$

3 $n \in \mathbb{N}$ the position of the read/write-head

Definition

A configuration of a TM *M* is a triple (p, x, n) comprising

1 $\boldsymbol{\rho} \in \boldsymbol{Q}$ its state

2 $x = y \sqcup^{\infty}$ its tape content, $y \in \Gamma^*$

3 $\mathbf{n} \in \mathbb{N}$ the position of the read/write-head

Definition

The initial or start configuration for input $x \in \Sigma^*$ is:

(*s*,⊢*x*⊔[∞], 0)

A configuration of a TM *M* is a triple (p, x, n) comprising

1 $p \in Q$ its state

2 $x = y \sqcup^{\infty}$ its tape content, $y \in \Gamma^*$

3 $n \in \mathbb{N}$ the position of the read/write-head

Definition

The initial or start configuration for input $x \in \Sigma^*$ is: ($s, \vdash x \sqcup^{\infty}, \mathbf{0}$)

Example

For the TM *M* of the previous example

 $(s, \vdash 0010 \sqcup^{\infty}, 0) \xrightarrow{*}_{M} (t, \vdash 0011 \sqcup^{\infty}, 3)$

The step function of a TM

Definition

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $y = y_0 \cdots y_{m-1} \in \Gamma^*$ with m > n; the relation $\frac{1}{M}$ is defined by: $(p, y \sqcup^{\infty}, n) \xrightarrow{1}_{M} \begin{cases} (q, y_0 \dots b \dots y_{m-1} \sqcup^{\infty}, n-1) & \delta(p, y_n) = (q, b, L) \\ (q, y_0 \dots b \dots y_{m-1} \sqcup^{\infty}, n+1) & \delta(p, y_n) = (q, b, R) \end{cases}$

Definition

 $\stackrel{*}{\rightarrow}$ is the reflexive-transitive closure of $\frac{1}{M}$. That is, it corresponds to a finite sequence of consecutive steps.

The step function of a TM

Definition	

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$	and $y = y_0$.	··y _r	$m_{n-1}\in \Gamma^*$ with $m>n;$ the relation	on $\xrightarrow{1}{M}$ is defined by:
	$(n \vee 1^{\infty} n)$	1	$(q, y_0 \dots b \dots y_{m-1} \sqcup^{\infty}, n-1)$	$\delta(\overset{\scriptscriptstyle M}{p}, y_n) = (q, b, L)$
	$(p, y \sqcup , n)$	м́)	$(q, y_0 \dots b \dots y_{m-1} \sqcup^{\infty}, n-1)$ $(q, y_0 \dots b \dots y_{m-1} \sqcup^{\infty}, n-1)$ $(q, y_0 \dots b \dots y_{m-1} \sqcup^{\infty}, n+1)$	$\delta(p, y_n) = (q, b, R)$

Definition

а ТМ *М*

• accepts $x \in \Sigma^*$, if $\exists y, n$:

$$(s, \vdash_{\mathbf{X}} \sqcup^{\infty}, 0) \xrightarrow{*}_{M} (\mathbf{t}, y, n)$$

• rejects $x \in \Sigma^*$, if $\exists y, n$:

$$(s, \vdash \mathbf{x} \sqcup^{\infty}, 0) \xrightarrow{*}_{M} (\mathbf{r}, y, n)$$

- halt on input *x*, if *x* is accepted or rejected
- does not halt in input x, if x is neither accepted nor rejected
- is total, if *M* halts on all inputs

11

- a TM M
 - accepts $x \in \Sigma^*$, if $\exists y, n$:

 $(s,\vdash_{\boldsymbol{X}}\sqcup^{\infty},0)\xrightarrow[M]{*}(\boldsymbol{t},y,n)$

• rejects $x \in \Sigma^*$, if $\exists y, n$:

 $(s,\vdash_{\boldsymbol{X}}\sqcup^{\infty},0) \xrightarrow[M]{*} (\boldsymbol{r},y,n)$

- halt on input *x*, if *x* is accepted or rejected
- does not halt in input *x*, if *x* is neither accepted nor rejected
- is total, if *M* halts on all inputs

Definition

A function $f : A \to B$ is defined by a TM M for every $x \in A$, M accepts input x with f(y)on the tape (and does not halt or rejects on inputs $x \notin A$).

Functions as functional programs

Example	
Squaring $\mathit{sq}:\mathbb{N} ightarrow\mathbb{N}$	

 $sqn = n \cdot n$

ok, but multiplication · ? infinite table?

Functions as **functional** programs

Example Squaring $sq : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ and multiplication $\cdot : \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \to N$ $sqn = n \cdot n$ $0 \cdot k = 0$ $(1+n)\cdot k = k+(n\cdot k)$

ok, but addition +? infinite table?

Functions as **functional** programs

Example
Squaring $sq: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$, multiplication $\cdot: \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \to N$ and addition $+: \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \to N$
$sqn = n \cdot n$
$0 \cdot k = 0$
$(1+n)\cdot k = k+(n\cdot k)$
0+k = k
(1+n)+k = 1+(n+k)
ok, but successor 1+? infinite table? (Sheet 3)

13

Algorithms, TMs, programs vs. functions

- finite representations of functions
- finiteness entails not all functions can be represented (later)
- a function that can be represented is called computable
- different programs may represent the same function; e.g. mergesort vs. bubblesort
- programs can be distinguished by their usage of resources; time, space, steps, energy, ...; functions cannot

Orders

Definition

A relation is a

- partial order if it is reflexive, anti-symmetric and transitive;
- total order if moreover every pair of elements is related either way; and
- strict order if it is irreflexive and transitive

Orders

Definition

A relation is a

- partial order if it is reflexive, anti-symmetric and transitive;
- total order if moreover every pair of elements is related either way; and
- strict order if it is irreflexive and transitive

Lemma

Strict orders are anti-symmetric

Orders

Definition

- A relation is a
 - partial order if it is reflexive, anti-symmetric and transitive;
 - total order if moreover every pair of elements is related either way; and
 - strict order if it is irreflexive and transitive

Lemma

Strict orders are anti-symmetric

Proof.

We show anti-symmetry vacuously holds, by showing that its assumption is never fulfilled. Suppose both x R y and y R x for some strict order R. By transitivity, then x R x, contradicting irreflexivity.

15

Example

The natural order \leq on $\mathbb Z$, defined by

$x \leq y$ if $y - x \in \mathbb{N}$

is a partial order and a total order, but not a strict order (consider (5,5)).

Example

The natural order \leq on $\,\mathbb Z$, defined by

$$x \leq y$$
 if $y - x \in \mathbb{N}$

is a partial order and a total order, but not a strict order (consider (5, 5)).

Example

 $m \in \mathbb{N}$ divides $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if there is some $p \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

 $n = m \cdot p$

17

17

Divisibility is a partial order, but neither total nor strict (consider (2,3) resp. (2,2))

Example

The natural order \leq on $\mathbb Z$, defined by $x \leq y \; ext{ if } \; y - x \in \mathbb N$

is a partial order and a total order, but not a strict order (consider (5,5)).

Example

 $m \in \mathbb{N}$ divides $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if there is some $p \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

 $n = m \cdot p$

Divisibility is a partial order, but neither total nor strict (consider (2,3) resp. (2,2))

Example

The natural order \leq on $\ \mathbb Z$, defined by

 $x \leq y$ if $y - x \in \mathbb{N}$

is a partial order and a total order, but not a strict order (consider (5, 5)).

Example

 $m \in \mathbb{N}$ divides $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if there is some $p \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

 $n = m \cdot p$

Divisibility is a partial order, but neither total nor strict (consider (2,3) resp. (2,2))

Example

Let, for tuples $x = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_k)$ und $y = (y_1, y_2, ..., y_k)$ in M^k

 $x R_{\text{comp}} y$ if $x_i R y_i$ for all i = 1, ..., k

The componentwise extension R_{comp} of R is a partial resp. strict order, if R is on M. Typically not total, even if R is; $(2, 1) \not< (1, 2)$ on \mathbb{N}^2 .

Example

The natural order \leq on $\ \mathbb Z$, defined by

 $x\leq y \;\; ext{if} \;\; y-x\in \mathbb{N}$ is a partial order and a total order, but not a strict order (consider (5,5)).

Example

 $m\in \mathbb{N}$ divides $n\in \mathbb{N}$, if there is some $p\in \mathbb{N}$ such that

 $n = m \cdot p$

Divisibility is a partial order, but neither total nor strict (consider (2,3) resp. (2,2))

Example

Let, for tuples $x = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_k)$ und $y = (y_1, y_2, ..., y_k)$ in M^k

$$x R$$
 y if $x_i R y_i$ for all $i = 1, \ldots, k$

The componentwise extension R_{comp} of R is a partial resp. strict order, if R is on M. Typically not total, even if R is; $(2, 1) \not\leq (1, 2)$ on \mathbb{N}^2 .

Definition

 $\mathcal{P}(M) := \{T \mid T \subseteq M\}$ the power set of M

Definition

 $\begin{array}{l} \mathcal{P}(M) := \{T \mid T \subseteq M\} & \text{the power set of } M \\ \mathcal{P}_k(M) := \{T \mid T \subseteq M \text{ and } \#(T) = k\} & \text{subsets of size } k \end{array}$

Definition

 $\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}(M) &:= \{T \mid T \subseteq M\} & \text{the power set of } M \\ \mathcal{P}_k(M) &:= \{T \mid T \subseteq M \text{ and } \#(T) = k\} & \text{subsets of size } k \end{aligned}$

Example

 $\mathcal{P}(\{a,b\}) = \{\varnothing, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a,b\}\}$

17

 $\mathcal{P}(M) := \{T \mid T \subseteq M\}$ the power set of M $\mathcal{P}_k(M) := \{T \mid T \subseteq M \text{ and } \#(T) = k\}$ subsets of size k

Example

 $\mathcal{P}(\{a,b\}) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a,b\}\} \qquad \mathcal{P}_1(\{a,b\}) = \{\{a\}, \{b\}\}$

Definition

 $\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}(M) &:= \{ T \mid T \subseteq M \} \quad \text{the power set of } M \\ \mathcal{P}_k(M) &:= \{ T \mid T \subseteq M \text{ and } \#(T) = k \} \quad \text{subsets of size } k \end{aligned}$

Example

 $\mathcal{P}(\{a,b\}) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a,b\}\} \quad \mathcal{P}_1(\{a,b\}) = \{\{a\}, \{b\}\}$

Theorem

The subset relation $S \subseteq T$ is a partial order on $\mathcal{P}(M)$

Definition

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{P}(M) &:= \{ T \mid T \subseteq M \} \quad \text{the power set of } M \\ \mathcal{P}_k(M) &:= \{ T \mid T \subseteq M \text{ and } \#(T) = k \} \quad \text{subsets of size } k \end{split}$$

Example

 $\mathcal{P}(\{a,b\}) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a,b\}\} \quad \mathcal{P}_1(\{a,b\}) = \{\{a\}, \{b\}\}$

Theorem

The subset relation $S \subseteq T$ is a partial order on $\mathcal{P}(M)$

Definition (Refining and coarsening of partitions)

Let P, Q be partitions of M. That is, $\bigcup P = M$ and $\forall p \neq p' \in P, p \cap p' = \emptyset$. $P \leq Q : \Leftrightarrow$ every block of P is a subset of a block of Q

Definition

 $\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}(M) &:= \{ T \mid T \subseteq M \} \quad \text{the power set of } M \\ \mathcal{P}_k(M) &:= \{ T \mid T \subseteq M \text{ and } \#(T) = k \} \quad \text{subsets of size } k \end{aligned}$

Example

 $\mathcal{P}(\{a,b\}) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a,b\}\} \quad \mathcal{P}_1(\{a,b\}) = \{\{a\}, \{b\}\}$

Theorem

The subset relation $S \subseteq T$ is a partial order on $\mathcal{P}(M)$

Definition (Refining and coarsening of partitions)

Let P, Q be partitions of M.

 $P \le Q$: \Leftrightarrow every block of P is a subset of a block of Q $P \le Q$ as a subset of a block of Q

If $P \leq Q$, then P is finer then Q (Q coarser than P)

18

 $\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}(M) &:= \{T \mid T \subseteq M\} & \text{the power set of } M \\ \mathcal{P}_k(M) &:= \{T \mid T \subseteq M \text{ and } \#(T) = k\} & \text{subsets of size } k \end{aligned}$

Example

 $\mathcal{P}(\{a,b\}) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a,b\}\} \qquad \mathcal{P}_1(\{a,b\}) = \{\{a\}, \{b\}\}$

Theorem

The subset relation $S \subseteq T$ is a partial order on $\mathcal{P}(M)$

Definition (Refining and coarsening of partitions)

Let P, Q be partitions of M. $P \le Q : \Leftrightarrow$ every block of P is a subset of a block of Q If $P \le Q$, then P is finer then Q (Q coarser than P)

Example

Theorem

(1) If \leq partial order, then its predecessor relation

 $x < y : \Leftrightarrow x \leq y \text{ and } x \neq y$

is a strict order

Theorem

(1) If \leq partial order, then its predecessor relation

 $x < y :\Leftrightarrow x \leq y \text{ and } x \neq y$

is a strict order

(2) If < is a strict order, then its reflexive closure

 $x \le y : \Leftrightarrow x < y \text{ or } x = y$

defines a partial order

Theorem

(1) If \leq partial order, then its predecessor relation

 $x < y : \Leftrightarrow x \leq y \text{ and } x \neq y$

is a strict order

(2) If < is a strict order, then its reflexive closure

 $x \le y :\Leftrightarrow x < y \text{ or } x = y$

defines a partial order

(3) The functions $\leq \mapsto <$ in (1) and $< \mapsto \leq$ in (2) are inverse to each other

18

Theorem

(1) If \leq partial order, then its predecessor relation

 $x < y : \Leftrightarrow x \leq y \text{ and } x \neq y$

is a strict order

(2) If < is a strict order, then its reflexive closure

 $x \le y : \Leftrightarrow x < y \text{ or } x = y$

defines a partial order

(3) The functions $\leq \mapsto <$ in (1) and $< \mapsto \leq$ in (2) are inverse to each other

Remark

Partial orders defined by strict orders, and vice versa

Theorem

(1) If \leq partial order, then its predecessor relation

 $x < y : \Leftrightarrow x \leq y \text{ and } x \neq y$

is a strict order

(2) If < is a strict order, then its reflexive closure

 $x \le y : \Leftrightarrow x < y \text{ or } x = y$

defines a partial order

(3) The functions $\leq \mapsto <$ in (1) and $< \mapsto \leq$ in (2) are inverse to each other

Remark

Partial orders defined by strict orders, and vice versa

Example

19

19

 $<=\{(0,1),(1,2),(0,2)\}$ defines the partial order

Theorem

(1) If \leq partial order, then its predecessor relation

 $x < y :\Leftrightarrow x \leq y \text{ and } x \neq y$

is a strict order

(2) If < is a strict order, then its reflexive closure

 $x \leq y : \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{x} < \mathbf{y} \text{ or } \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$

defines a partial order

(3) The functions $\leq \mapsto <$ in (1) and $< \mapsto \leq$ in (2) are inverse to each other

Remark

Partial orders defined by strict orders, and vice versa

Example

 $<=\{(0,1),(1,2),(0,2)\}$ defines the partial order $\leq=\{(0,1),(1,2),(0,2)\}$

Theorem

(1) If \leq partial order, then its predecessor relation

 $x < y : \Leftrightarrow x \leq y \text{ and } x \neq y$

is a strict order

(2) If < is a strict order, then its reflexive closure

 $x \le y : \Leftrightarrow x < y \text{ or } \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$

defines a partial order

(3) The functions $\leq \mapsto <$ in (1) and $< \mapsto \leq$ in (2) are inverse to each other

Remark

Partial orders defined by strict orders, and vice versa

Example

$$\begin{split} &<=\{(0,1),(1,2),(0,2)\} \text{ defines the partial order} \\ &\leq=\{(0,0),(0,1),(1,1),(1,2),(0,2),(2,2)\} \end{split}$$

Proof.

(1) By definition, x < y holds iff $x \le y$ and $x \ne y$. Therefore, < is irreflexive.

Proof.

(1) By definition, x < y holds iff $x \le y$ and $x \ne y$. Therefore, < is irreflexive. To show < is transitive, assume x < y and y < z.

Proof.

(1) By definition, x < y holds iff $x \le y$ and $x \ne y$. Therefore, < is irreflexive. To show < is transitive, assume x < y and y < z. First, $x \le z$ by transitivity of \le .

Proof.

(1) By definition, x < y holds iff $x \le y$ and $x \ne y$. Therefore, < is irreflexive. To show < is transitive, assume x < y and y < z. First, $x \le z$ by transitivity of \le . Next, $x \ne z$ since otherwise $x \le y$ and $y \le x$ would yield x = y by anti-symmetry.

20

Proof.

(1) By definition, x < y holds iff $x \le y$ and $x \ne y$. Therefore, < is irreflexive. To show < is transitive, assume x < y and y < z. First, $x \le z$ by transitivity of \le . Next, $x \ne z$ since otherwise $x \le y$ and $y \le x$ would yield x = y by anti-symmetry. Hence x < z.

Proof.

(1) By definition, x < y holds iff $x \le y$ and $x \ne y$. Therefore, < is irreflexive. To show < is transitive, assume x < y and y < z. First, $x \le z$ by transitivity of \le . Next, $x \ne z$ since otherwise $x \le y$ and $y \le x$ would yield x = y by anti-symmetry. Hence x < z. (2) By definition, \le is reflexive.

Proof.

(1) By definition, x < y holds iff $x \le y$ and $x \ne y$. Therefore, < is irreflexive. To show < is transitive, assume x < y and y < z. First, $x \le z$ by transitivity of \le . Next, $x \ne z$ since otherwise $x \le y$ and $y \le x$ would yield x = y by anti-symmetry. Hence x < z. (2) By definition, \le is reflexive. We show it also is transitive. Let $x, y, z \in M$ with $x \le y$ and $y \le z$.

Proof.

20

20

(1) By definition, x < y holds iff $x \le y$ and $x \ne y$. Therefore, < is irreflexive. To show < is transitive, assume x < y and y < z. First, $x \le z$ by transitivity of \le . Next, $x \ne z$ since otherwise $x \le y$ and $y \le x$ would yield x = y by anti-symmetry. Hence x < z. (2) By definition, \le is reflexive. We show it also is transitive. Let $x, y, z \in M$ with $x \le y$ and $y \le z$. If x = y and y = z, then x = z. In the other cases x < z, using in case x < y and y < z that < is transitive.

Proof.

(1) By definition, x < y holds iff $x \le y$ and $x \ne y$. Therefore, < is irreflexive. To show < is transitive, assume x < y and y < z. First, $x \le z$ by transitivity of \le . Next, $x \ne z$ since otherwise $x \le y$ and $y \le x$ would yield x = y by anti-symmetry. Hence x < z. (2) By definition, \le is reflexive. We show it also is transitive. Let $x, y, z \in M$ with $x \le y$ and $y \le z$. If x = y and y = z, then x = z. In the other cases x < z, using in case x < y and y < z that < is transitive. To show \le is anti-symmetric \le , it suffices to observe that $x \le y$ and $y \le x$ can only both hold if x = y (if y = x)

Proof.

(1) By definition, x < y holds iff $x \le y$ and $x \ne y$. Therefore, < is irreflexive. To show < is transitive, assume x < y and y < z. First, $x \le z$ by transitivity of \le . Next, $x \ne z$ since otherwise $x \le y$ and $y \le x$ would yield x = y by anti-symmetry. Hence x < z. (2) By definition, \le is reflexive. We show it also is transitive. Let $x, y, z \in M$ with $x \le y$ and $y \le z$. If x = y and y = z, then x = z. In the other cases x < z, using in case x < y and y < z that < is transitive. To show \le is anti-symmetric \le , it suffices to observe that $x \le y$ and $y \le x$ can only both hold if x = y (if y = x); the other cases contradict irreflexivity of <

Proof.

(1) By definition, x < y holds iff $x \le y$ and $x \ne y$. Therefore, < is irreflexive. To show < is transitive, assume x < y and y < z. First, $x \le z$ by transitivity of \le . Next, $x \ne z$ since otherwise $x \le y$ and $y \le x$ would yield x = y by anti-symmetry. Hence x < z. (2) By definition, \le is reflexive. We show it also is transitive. Let $x, y, z \in M$ with $x \le y$ and $y \le z$. If x = y and y = z, then x = z. In the other cases x < z, using in case x < y and y < z that < is transitive. To show \le is anti-symmetric \le , it suffices to observe that $x \le y$ and $y \le x$ can only both hold if x = y (if y = x); the other cases contradict irreflexivity of <

(3) Starting from a partial order \leq , the relation defined by $(x \leq y \land x \neq y) \lor x = y$ is \leq again, as the construction amount to first removing all loops, and then adding them, noting \leq has all loops. The other direction is similar, using that a strict order < has no loops.

Definition

Let \leq be a partial order on M. Then $x \in M$ is

- least in *M*, if for all $y \in M$, $x \leq y$
- greatest in *M*, if for all $y \in M$, $y \le x$
- minimal in *M*, if for all $y \in M$, $y \not< x$
- maximal in *M*, if for all $y \in M$, $x \neq y$

- Let \leq be a partial order on *M*. Then $x \in M$ is
 - least in *M*, if for all $y \in M$, $x \leq y$
 - greatest in *M*, if for all $y \in M$, $y \leq x$
 - minimal in *M*, if for all $y \in M$, $y \notin x$
 - maximal in *M*, if for all $y \in M$, $x \not< y$

Definition

Let \leq be a partial order on *M*. Then $x \in M$ is

- least in *M*, if for all $y \in M$, $x \leq y$
- greatest in M, if for all $y \in M$, $y \le x$
- minimal in *M*, if for all $y \in M$, $y \notin x$
- maximal in *M*, if for all $y \in M$, $x \not< y$

Definition

Let \leq be a partial order on *M*. Then $x \in M$ is

- least in *M*, if for all $y \in M$, $x \leq y$
- greatest in *M*, if for all $y \in M$, $y \le x$
- minimal in *M*, if for all $y \in M$, $y \notin x$
- maximal in *M*, if for all $y \in M$, $x \not< y$

DefinitionLet \leq be a partial order. Then x

is

- least , if for all y , $x \le y$
- greatest , if for all y , $y \le x$
- minimal , if for all y , $y \not< x$
- maximal , if for all y , $x \not< y$

21

Let \leq be a pa	rtial order	. Then <i>x</i>	is
 least 	, if for all y	, $x \leq y$	
 greatest 	, if for all y	, $y \leq x$	
 minimal 	, if for all y	, y ≮ x	
 maximal 	, if for all y	, x ≮ y	

Example

\leq generated by predecessor relation

 $<=\{(1,2),(1,4),(1,5),(2,4),(2,5),(3,4),(3,5),(4,5)\}$

- minimal elements:
- maximal elements:
- least element:
- greatest element:

Definition Let < be a partial order

• least , if for all y , $x \le y$ • greatest , if for all y , $y \le x$

. Then x

- minimal , if for all y , $y \not< x$
- maximal , if for all y , $x \not< y$

Example

 \leq generated by predecessor relation

$$\mathbf{x} = \{(1,2), (1,4), (1,5), (2,4), (2,5), (3,4), (3,5), (4,5)\}$$

is

- minimal elements: 1, 3
- maximal elements:
- least element:
- greatest element:

Definition

Let \leq be a p	artial order	. Then <i>x</i>	is
 least 	, if for all y	, $x \leq y$	

- greatest , if for all y , $y \le x$
- minimal , if for all y , $y \not< x$
- maximal , if for all y , $x \not< y$

Example

\leq generated by predecessor relation

$<=\{(1,2),(1,4),(1,5),(2,4),(2,5),(3,4),(3,5),(4,5)\}$

- minimal elements: 1, 3
- maximal elements: 5
- least element:
- greatest element:

Definition

21

21

Let \leq be a par	tial order	. Then <i>x</i>	is	
 least 	, if for all y	, $x \leq y$		
 greatest 	, if for all y	, $y \leq x$		
 minimal 	, if for all y	, y ≮ x		
 maximal 	, if for all y	, x ≮ y		

Example

 \leq generated by predecessor relation

 $<=\{(1,2),(1,4),(1,5),(2,4),(2,5),(3,4),(3,5),(4,5)\}$

- minimal elements: 1, 3
- maximal elements: 5
- least element:
- greatest element:

Let \leq be a particular test \leq be particular test \leq be a particular test \leq be a particula	artial order	. Then <i>x</i>	is	
 least 	, if for all y	, $x \leq y$		
 greatest 	, if for all y	, $y \leq x$		
 minimal 	, if for all y	, y ≮ x		
• maxima	, if for all y	, x ≮ y		

Example

 \leq generated by predecessor relation

 $<=\{(1,2),(1,4),(1,5),(2,4),(2,5),(3,4),(3,5),(4,5)\}$

- minimal elements: 1, 3
- maximal elements: 5
- least element:
- greatest element: 5