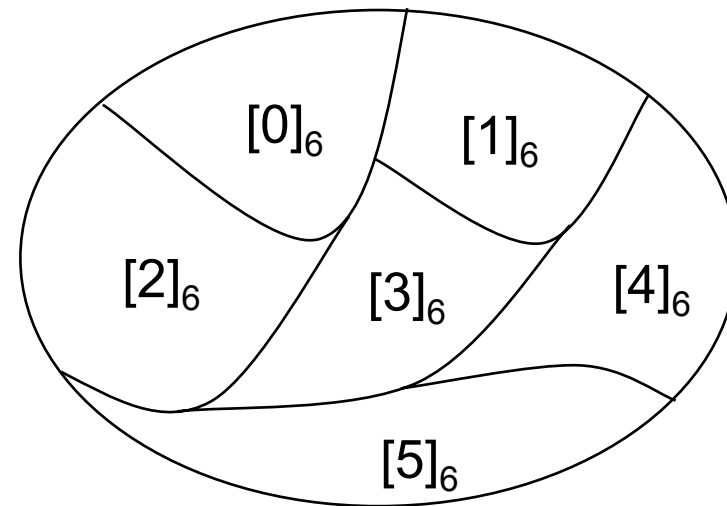


Lesson 11:

Relations II

- Equivalence Relations
- Equivalence Classes
- Partial Ordered Sets
- Linear Ordered Sets
- Well Ordered Sets
- Topological Sorting



Chapter 7.5-7.6

Equivalence Relations

Example:

DM students are divided into 3 classrooms for the final exam according to the first letter of their family name:

A - H - room 1

I - N - room 2

M - Z - room 3

R is a relation on the students. $(a,b) \in R$ iff a and b are in the same group of family names.

R is **Reflexive**, **Symmetric** and **Transitive**.

R divides the students into 3 groups.

Equivalence Relations

Example:

R is a relation on the set of Hebrew words.

$a R b$ iff length of a equals length of b.

R is **Reflexive**, **Symmetric** and **Transitive**.

R divides the Hebrew words into groups.

Each group contains words of equal length.

אנציקלופדיה	משטרה	מכתב	אבא
קלסטרופוביה	שולחן	תפוח	אמא
	פסנתר	קורס	דשא

Equivalence Relations

Definition:

A relation R on a set A is called *Equivalence Relation* (יחס שקילות) if it is reflexive, symmetric and transitive.

Definition:

2 elements of A that are related by an equivalence relation are called *Equivalent* (שקולים).

- An element is equivalent to itself (reflexivity).
- If a and b are equivalent and b and c are equivalent then a and c are equivalent (transitivity).

Equivalence Relations

Example:

R is a relation on the real numbers.

aRb iff $a-b$ is a whole number.

Is R an Equivalence relation?

Answer:

1) R is **Reflexive**.

Proof: For real a , $a-a = 0$ and 0 is whole.

So $\forall a (a,a) \in R$.

Equivalence Relations

Answer cont:

2) R is **Symmetric**.

Proof: if $(a,b) \in R$ then, $a-b = k$ s.t. k is whole. But then $b-a = -k$ and $-k$ is also whole. So $(b,a) \in R$.

3) R is **Transitive**.

Proof: if $(a,b) \in R$ and $(b,c) \in R$ then, $a-b = k$ and $b-c = l$ s.t. k and l are whole. But then $a-c = (a-b) + (b-c) = k+l$ is whole. So $(a,c) \in R$.

Equivalence Relations

Example:

R is a relation on \mathbb{Z} . $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, $m > 1$.

$$R_m = \{ (a,b) \mid m \mid (a-b) \}$$

Is R an Equivalence relation?

Answer:

1) R_m is **Reflexive**.

Proof: $a-a = 0$ and $m \mid 0$. So $(a,a) \in R_m$.

Equivalence Relations

Answer cont:

2) R is **Symmetric**.

Proof: if $(a,b) \in R_m$ then, $m|a-b$ i.e. $(a-b) = km$ s.t. $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

But then $(b-a) = (-k)m$ and $-k$ is also whole. So $m|(b,a)$ and $(b,a) \in R_m$.

3) R is **Transitive**.

Proof: if $(a,b) \in R_m$ and $(b,c) \in R_m$ then, $m|(a-b)$ and $m|(b-c)$ i.e. $a-b = km$ and $b-c = lm$ s.t. k and l are whole.

But then $a-c = (a-b) + (b-c) = km + lm = (k+l)m$ and $k+l$ is whole. So $m|(a-c)$ and $(a,c) \in R_m$.

Equivalence Relations

R_m divides \mathbb{Z}^+ into groups.

What are these groups?

$(a,b) \in R_m$ iff $(a-b)$ is a multiple of m

$0, m, 2m, 3m, \dots$

$1, 1+m, 1+2m, 1+3m, \dots$

•
•
•

$m-1, m-1+m, m-1+2m, m-1+3m, \dots$

$$R_m = \{ (a,b) \mid a \equiv b \pmod{m} \}$$

Equivalence Classes

Definition:

Let R be an equivalence relation on set A .

The set of all elements of A that are related R to $a \in A$ is called the *Equivalence Class* (מחלקת השקילות) of a .

The set is denoted $[a]_R$

If only the relation is obvious then denote by $[a]$.

$$[a]_R = \{ s \mid (a, s) \in R \}$$

Equivalence Classes

Example:

$$R = \{ (a,b) \mid a \equiv b \pmod{4} \}$$

$$[0]_R = \{ \dots, -8, -4, 0, 4, 8, 12, \dots \}$$

integers with remainder 0

$$[1]_R = \{ \dots, -7, -3, 1, 5, 9, 13, \dots \}$$

integers with remainder 1

$$R = \{ (a,b) \mid a \equiv b \pmod{m} \}$$

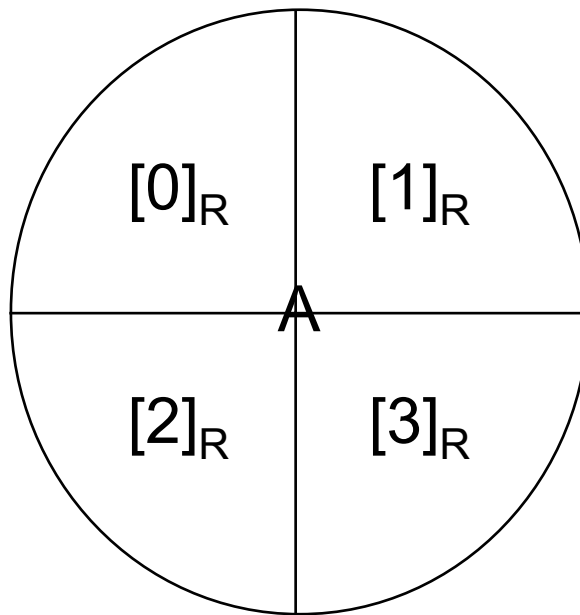
$$[a]_m = \{ \dots, a-2m, a-m, a, a+m, a+2m, a+3m, \dots \}$$

Equivalence Classes

Example:

Equivalence R on set A divides A into disjoint equivalence classes.

$$R = \{ (a,b) \mid a \equiv b \pmod{4} \}$$



Equivalence Classes

Theorem: Let R be an equivalence relation on set A .
The following 3 statements are equivalent:

- 1) $(a,b) \in R$
- 2) $[a] = [b]$
- 3) $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$

Corollary: Every pair of equivalence classes are either identical or equivalent.

Equivalence Classes

Proof:

I. Prove $1) \rightarrow 2)$

Assume aRb and show equality of the sets $[a]=[b]$.

A) Prove $[a] \subseteq [b]$.

Assume $c \in [a]$, thus

$(a, c) \in R$ (def. of equiv. class)

$(a, b) \in R$ (assumption 1))

$(b, a) \in R$ (R is symmetric)

$(b, c) \in R$ (R is transitive)

$c \in [a]$ (def. of equiv. class)

Thus $[a] \subseteq [b]$.

B) Prove $[b] \subseteq [a]$ similarly

Equivalence Classes

Proof cont.:

II. Prove $2) \rightarrow 3)$

Assume $[a]=[b]$ and show $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$

Since $[a]=[b]$, $[a] \cap [b] = [a] = [b]$

We must show that $[a]$ is not empty.

However $a \in [a]$, since R is reflexive and $(a,a) \in R$.

III. Prove $3) \rightarrow 1)$

Assume $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$ and show aRb .

There exists $c \in [a] \cap [b]$ not empty set.

$(a,c) \in R$, $(b,c) \in R$ def. of equiv. class.

$(c,b) \in R$ R is symmetric

$(a,b) \in R$ R is transitive

Equivalence Classes

Theorem: Every equivalence relation R on set A induces a *Partition* (חלוקה) of A .

Definition:

A *Partition* (חלוקה) of a set A is a collection of nonempty subsets A_i of A such that :

$$A_i \neq \emptyset$$

$$A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$$

$$\bigcup_i A_i = A$$

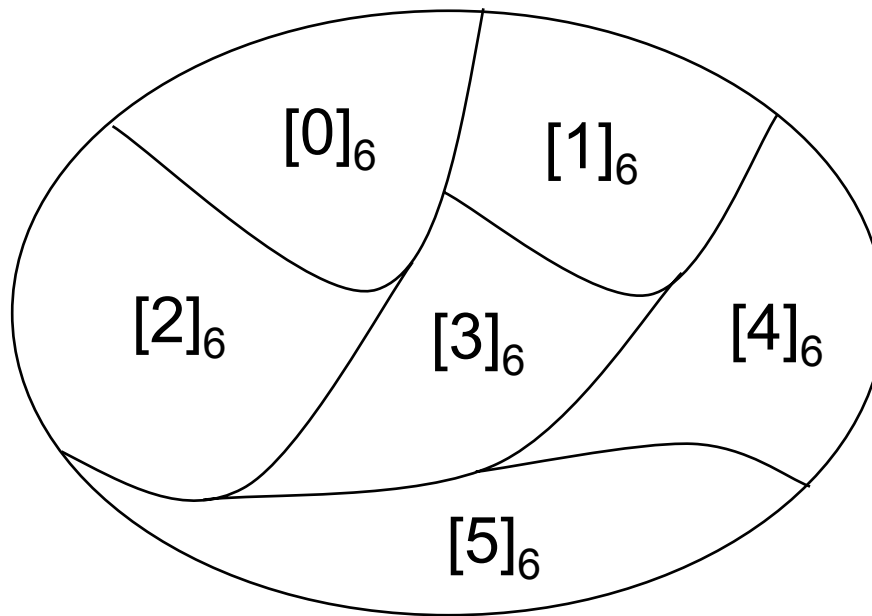
Proof : from previous theorem and corollary.

Equivalence Classes

Example:

$$R_6 = \{ (a,b) \mid a \equiv b \pmod{6} \}$$

Partition induced by R_6 :



Equivalence Classes

Theorem: Every partition of set A induces an equivalence relation R on A .

Proof : Assume $\{ A_i \}_{i=1..n}$ is a partition of A .

Define a relation R on A : $(a,b) \in R$ if a and b are in the same subset A_i .

Prove that R is an equivalence relation.

1) R is reflexive:

$(a,a) \in R$ since $a \in A$

2) R is symmetric

if $(a,b) \in R$ then $(b,a) \in R$ by definition of R (same sets).

Equivalence Classes

Proof cont. :

2) R is symmetric

if $(a,b) \in R$ then $(b,a) \in R$ definition of R (same sets).

3) R is transitive:

assume $(a,b) \in R$ and $(b,c) \in R$ then

$a,b \in A_i$ $b,c \in A_j$ ($\{A_i\}$ is a cover of A)

$(b \in A_i) \wedge (b \in A_j) \rightarrow A_i = A_j$ (since A_i and A_j are
either equal or disjoint)

Thus $a,b,c \in A_i$ and $(a,c) \in R$ (definition of R).

Partial Orderings

Relations can be used to order objects:

$R = \{ (a,b) \mid \text{if } a \text{ precedes } b \text{ alphabetically} \}$ Alphabetical order

$R = \{ (a,b) \mid \text{if } a \text{ is a task that must be completed before } b \}$ Task scheduling

$R = \{ (a,b) \mid \text{if } a < b \}$ Numerical order

Adding $(a,a) \in R$ for all a , R becomes:
Reflexive, Anti-Symmetric, and Transitive.

Partial Orderings

Definition:

A relation R on a set A is called a *Partial Order* (יחס סדר חלקי) if it is reflexive, anti-symmetric and transitive.

Definition:

A set A together with a partial order R is called a Partially Ordered Set or Poset (קבוצה סדורה חלקית).

Denoted: (A, R)

Partial Orderings

Example:

The relation \geq is a partial order on the integers.

Reflexive - since $a \geq a$

Antisymmetric - since $a \geq b$ and $b \geq a$ implies $a = b$

Transitive - if $a \geq b$ and $b \geq c$ then $a \geq c$.

(\mathbb{Z}, \geq) - is a partially ordered set.

Partial Orderings

Example:

The relation $|$ (“divides”) is a partial order on \mathbb{Z}^+ .

Reflexive - since $a | a$

Antisymmetric - since $a | b$ and $b | a$ implies $a = b$

Transitive - if $a | b$ and $b | c$ then $a | c$.

$(\mathbb{Z}^+, |)$ - is a partially ordered set.

Partial Orderings

Example:

The relation \subseteq on the power set $P(S)$ is a partial order .

Reflexive - since $T \subseteq T$ for any subset of S .

Antisymmetric - since $T \subseteq Q$ and $Q \subseteq T$ implies $T = Q$

Transitive - if $T \subseteq Q$ and $Q \subseteq U$ then $T \subseteq U$.

$(P(S) , \subseteq)$ - is a partially ordered set.

Partial Orderings

Definition:

Two elements a, b of a partially ordered set (A, R) are called *Comparable* (ברי השוואה) if aRb or bRa . Otherwise they are called *Incomparable*.

Examples:

$(\mathbb{Z}^+, |)$ $2 \nmid 3$ and $3 \nmid 2$ 2 and 3 are incomparable.

$(P(S), \subseteq)$ $\{1,2\} \not\subseteq \{2,3\}$ $\{1,2\}$ and $\{2,3\}$ are
 $\{2,3\} \not\subseteq \{3,2\}$ incomparable.

Linear Orderings

Definition:

A partially ordered set (A, R) in which every 2 elements are comparable is called a

Totally Ordered Set (קבוצה סדורה לגמרי)

or a

Linearly Ordered Set (קבוצה סדורה לינארית)

or a

Chain (שרשרת)

The relation R is called a

Total Order (יחס סדר מלא) or a Linear Order (יחס לינארי)

Linear Orderings

Example:

(\mathbb{Z}, \geq) - is a linearly ordered set.

It is a partially ordered set (proven above) and all pairs of elements are comparable:

for all $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ $a \leq b$ or $b \leq a$ or both.

$(\mathbb{Z}^+, |)$ - is not a linearly ordered set (only partially)
because 2 and 3 are not comparable.

Minimal/Maximal Elements

Definition:

An element a of a partially ordered set (A, R) is called *Minimal* (מינימלי) if there is no element $b \in A$ s.t.
 $b \neq a$ and bRa .

Definition:

An element a of a partially ordered set (A, R) is called *Maximal* (מקסימלי) if there is no element $b \in A$ s.t.
 $b \neq a$ and aRb .

Minimal/Maximal Elements

Examples:

$(\{2, 4, 5, 10, 12, 20, 25\}, |)$

Elements 2,5 are minimal - there is no a s.t. $a|2$ or $a|5$.

Elements 12, 20,25 are maximal - there is no a s.t.
 $12|a$, $20|a$ or $25|a$.

Minimal/Maximal Elements

Examples:

	<u>Minimal</u>	<u>Maximal</u>
$(P(B), \subseteq)$	\emptyset	B
$(P(B) - \emptyset, \subseteq)$	all elements of B	B
$(\mathbb{N} - \{0\},)$	1	None
$(\mathbb{N} - \{0, 1\},)$	all primes	None
(\mathbb{Z}^-, \leq)	None	-1
(\mathbb{Z}, \leq)	None	None

Minimal/Maximal Elements

Theorem: Every Partially Ordered set (A,R) has at least one minimal (maximal) element .

Theorem: Every Linearly Ordered set (A,R) if it contains a minimal (maximal) element then it is unique.

Smallest/Greatest Elements

Definition:

An element a of a partially ordered set (A, R) is called *The Smallest Element* (קטן ביותר) if for every element $b \in A$ aRb .

Definition:

An element a of a partially ordered set (A, R) is called *The Greatest Element* (גדול ביותר) if for every element $b \in A$ bRa .

Well Ordered Sets

Definition:

A set (A, R) is called a

Well Ordered Set (קבוצה סדורה היטב)

If it is linearly ordered and every subset of A has a smallest element.

(\mathbb{Z}^+, \geq) - is a well ordered set.

(\mathbb{R}, \geq) - is not well ordered.

(\mathbb{Z}, \geq) - is not well ordered.

Topological Sorting

Example:

In task scheduling, some tasks can start only after other tasks have finished, other tasks are independent.

A scheduling (order) must be determined for the tasks.

Define a relation R on the tasks s.t. aRb iff task a must finish before b can start.

The set (Tasks, R) is a partial order.

The scheduler must produce a linear order which is compatible with this partial order.

Topological Sorting

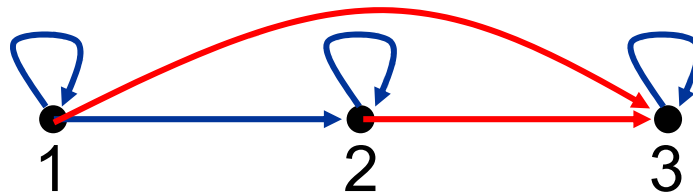
Definition:

A linear order R is *Compatible* (\sqsubseteq) with a partial order S if $aSb \rightarrow aRb$.

Example:

$$S = \{ (1,1), (2,2), (3,3), (1,2) \}$$

$$R = \{ (1,1), (2,2), (3,3), (1,2), (2,3), (1,3) \}$$

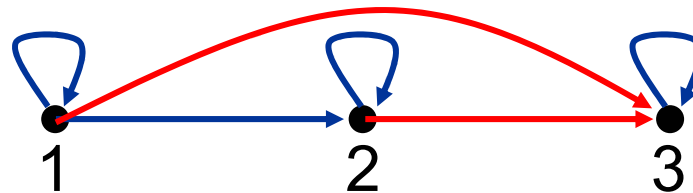


Topological Sorting

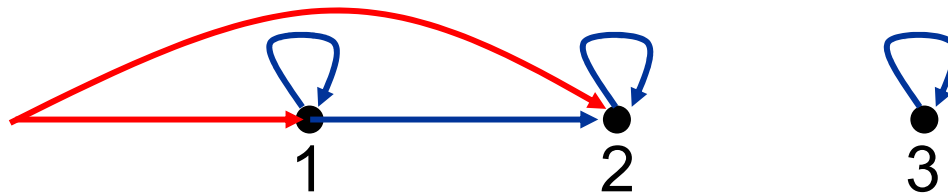
Compatible Linear Orders are not necessarily unique:

$$S = \{ (1,1), (2,2), (3,3), (1,2) \}$$

$$R = \{ (1,1), (2,2), (3,3), (1,2), (2,3), (1,3) \}$$



$$R_2 = \{ (1,1), (2,2), (3,3), (1,2), (3,1), (3,2) \}$$



Topological Sorting

Definition:

Constructing a linear ordering from a partial ordering is called *Topological Sorting* (מיין טופולוגי).

Lemma: Every finite partial ordered set (A,R) has a minimal element (at least one).

Topological Sorting

Topological Sorting Algorithm:

Given a partially ordered set (A, S) .

- 1) Choose a minimal element a_1 in A
- 2) Choose a minimal element a_2 in $A - \{a_1\}$
- 3) Choose a minimal element a_3 in $A - \{a_1, a_2\}$

•
•
•

Continue until: $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\} = A$

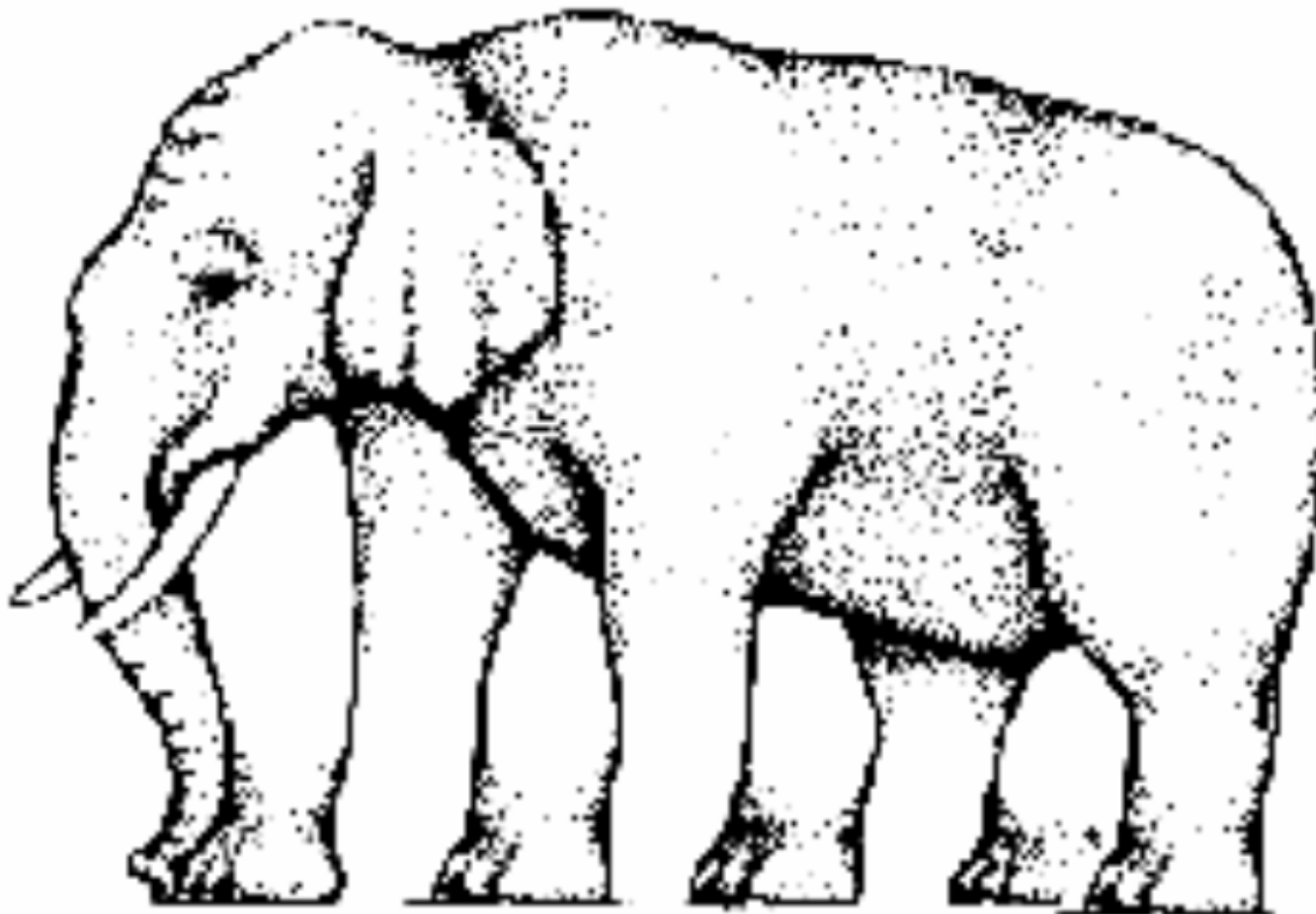
Topological Sorting

Example:

$$S = (\{1,2,4,5,12,20\}, |)$$

- | | |
|---|------------|
| 1) 1 is minimal in S | $a_1 = 1$ |
| 2) 2,5 are minimal in $S - \{1\}$ | $a_2 = 5$ |
| 3) 2 is minimal in $S - \{1,5\}$ | $a_3 = 2$ |
| 4) 4 is minimal in $S - \{1,5,2\}$ | $a_4 = 4$ |
| 5) 12,20 are minimal in $S - \{1,2,4,5\}$ | $a_5 = 20$ |
| 6) 12 is minimal in $S - \{1,2,4,5,20\}$ | $a_6 = 12$ |

Topological Fun



Roger N. Shepard

Topological Fun

