

Math 321: Relations, part II: Orders

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Last time

We talked about how to make relations—such as $=$, $<$, $|$, or so on—mathematical objects. Specifically, in the most general form, a (binary) relation from a set A to a set B is a subset of the Cartesian product $A \times B$. That is, a relation is a set of ordered pairs (a, b) with $a \in A$ and $b \in B$.

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Today we're going to focus on a particularly important kind of relation, namely [order relations](#).

Intuitive picture

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Some examples:

- \leq on \mathbb{N} compares numbers by size.
- You can think of \leq on \mathbb{R} as ordering the real line by position.
- You can think of \subseteq as comparing sets by size.
- $|$ on \mathbb{N} measures how complex a natural number is by how many primes you have to multiply together to get it.

Order relations

Recall these properties we talked about last time, for a relation R on a set A :

- R is **reflexive** if $a R a$ for all $a \in A$.
- R is **transitive** if $a R b$ and $b R c$ implies $a R c$ for all $a, b, c \in A$.

Let's introduce a couple new properties:

- R is **antireflexive** if $a \not R a$ for all $a \in A$.
- R is **antisymmetric** if $a R b$ and $a \neq b$ implies $b \not R a$ for all $a, b \in A$.
 - If R is reflexive, you can equivalently state antisymmetry as: $a R b$ and $b R a$ implies $a = b$ for all $a, b \in A$.
 - If R is antireflexive, you can equivalently state antisymmetry as: $a R b$ implies $b \not R a$ for all $a, b \in A$.

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 - If R is antireflexive, you can equivalently state antisymmetry as: $a R b$ implies $b \not R a$ for all $a, b \in A$.

If R is reflexive, transitive, and antisymmetric we call R a **(nonstrict) order relation** or **(reflexive) order relation**.

If R is antireflexive, transitive, and antisymmetric we call R a **(strict) order relation** or **(antireflexive) order relation**.

Examples

Let's look at $<$ on \mathbb{Z} , $|$ on \mathbb{N} , and \subseteq on sets.

Strict versus nonstrict orders

Theorem

There is a correspondence between strict and nonstrict orders.

- *If \sqsubset is a strict order on A then $\sqsubseteq = \{(a, b) \in A : a \sqsubset b \text{ or } a = b\}$ is a nonstrict order on A .*
- *If \sqsubseteq is a nonstrict order on A then $\sqsubset = \{(a, b) \in A : a \sqsubseteq b \text{ and } a \neq b\}$ is a strict order on A .*

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Homework :)



Strict versus nonstrict orders

Notation:

- A line underneath, as in \subseteq or \leq or \sqsubseteq , denotes a nonstrict order.
- A line underneath with a slash through it, as in \subsetneq or \lessdot , denotes a strict order. You may also see \subsetneqq or $\lessdot\dot$.
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 - Some authors—very rudely in my opinion—use \subset to mean \subseteq . So to avoid confusion it's best to use \subsetneq for the strict order.
- To denote the reverse of an order you flip the symbol horizontally: \leq becomes \geq , \subsetneq becomes \supsetneq , \sqsubseteq becomes \sqsupseteq , and so on.

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Warning! $\not\subseteq$ does not have the same meaning as \subsetneq !

Partial and total orders

In some orders, everything is comparable.

- If x and y are real numbers, then $x < y$, $x = y$, or $x > y$.

In other orders, this is not the case.

- $A = \{0\}$ and $B = \{1\}$ are sets, but $A \not\subseteq B$ and $B \not\subseteq A$.
- 7 and 13 are natural numbers, but $7 \nmid 13$ and $13 \nmid 7$.

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- 7 and 13 are natural numbers, but $7 \nmid 13$ and $13 \nmid 7$.

We want to be able to distinguish these circumstances.

Partial and total orders

A set X equipped with an order \leq on X is called a **partially ordered set** (or **poset**). We also call \leq a **partial order**.

If \leq satisfies the additional property that $x \leq y$ or $y \leq x$ for all $x, y \in X$, then we call it **totally ordered** or **linearly ordered**.

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Warning! Partial order does not mean non-total order. Rather, a total order is a special case of a partial order.
(Is this bad terminology? Probably.)

Extreme elements

Suppose (X, \leq) is a poset.

- $m \in X$ is the **smallest** or **least** element if $m \leq x$ for all $x \in X$.
- $m \in X$ is a **minimal** element if there is no $x \in X$ so that $x < m$.

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Remark: If m is the smallest element in (X, \leq) then m is minimal, and if M is the largest element then M is maximal. In both cases, it is the unique minimal/maximal element.

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Remark: A smallest element in (X, \leq) is a largest element in (X, \geq) , and vice versa. A similar fact holds for minimal/maximal elements.

Extreme elements

Let's look at $<$ on \mathbb{N} , \subseteq on $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$, and $|$ on $\{n \in \mathbb{N} : n \geq 2\}$.

Extreme elements

Proposition

Smallest elements, if they exist, are unique. The same is true for largest elements.

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Proof.

Suppose m and m' both satisfy the definition of being the smallest element of a partially ordered set (X, \leq) . Then, by definition, $m \leq m'$ and $m' \leq m$. So by antisymmetry $m = m'$.

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You could make a similar argument for largest elements, but I'd rather be lazy. As remarked before, if (X, \leq) is a poset then so is (X, \geq) . So if (X, \geq) has a smallest element it must be unique, but being a smallest element of (X, \geq) is the same as being a largest element of (X, \leq) . \square

Extreme elements

Proposition

In a total order, being a minimal element is equivalent to being a smallest element, and being a maximal element is equivalent to being a largest element.

For this reason, in total orders smallest elements are sometimes called **minimums** and largest elements are called **maximums**.

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Proof.

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(\Leftarrow) We said earlier that smallest elements are minimal.

(\Rightarrow) Suppose m is a minimal element of (X, \leq) . Consider any $x \in X$. By totalness, either $m < x$, $m = x$, or $m > x$. The last is impossible, because m is minimal, so $m \leq x$. So we have seen m is the smallest element of X . □

Upper bounds and lower bounds, suprema and infima

Let (X, \leq) be a poset, and suppose $A \subseteq X$ is nonempty.

- $u \in X$ is an **upper bound** for A if $a \leq u$ for all $a \in A$.
- $\ell \in X$ is a **lower bound** for A if $a \geq \ell$ for all $a \in A$.

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- $\ell \in X$ is a **lower bound** for A if $a \geq \ell$ for all $a \in A$.
- Let U be the set of upper bounds for A . The smallest element of U , if it exists, is called the **supremum** or **least upper bound** for A .
- Let L be the set of lower bounds for A . The largest element of L , if it exists, is called the **infimum** or **greatest lower bound** for A .

Examples

Let's look at \leq on \mathbb{Q} and \mathbb{R} and \subseteq on $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$.