# Ordered Sets and Fixpoints <br> (Based on [Davey and Priestley 2002]) 

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## Partial Orders

## Let $P$ be a set.

- A partial order, or simply order, on $P$ is a binary relation $\leq$ on $P$ such that:

1. $\forall x \in P, x \leq x$, (reflexivity)
2. $\forall x, y, z \in P, x \leq y \wedge y \leq z \rightarrow x \leq z$, (transitivity)
3. $\forall x, y \in P, x \leq y \wedge y \leq x \rightarrow x=y$. (antisymmetry)

- A set $P$ equipped with a partial order $\leq$, often written as $\langle P, \leq\rangle$, is called a partially ordered set, or simply ordered set, sometimes abbreviated as poset.
A binary relation that is reflexive and transitive is called a pre-order or quasi-order.
- We write $x<y$ to mean $x \leq y$ and $x \neq y$.


## Examples of Ordered Sets

$\langle\mathcal{N}, \leq\rangle$
e $\mathcal{N}=\{1,2,3, \cdots\}$, the set of natural numbers.

* $\leq$ is the usual "less than or equal to" relation.

Variant: $\left\langle\mathcal{N}_{0}, \leq\right\rangle$ with $\mathcal{N}_{0}=\mathcal{N} \cup\{0\}=\{0,1,2,3, \cdots\}$.

- $\langle\mathcal{P}(X), \subseteq\rangle$
e $\mathcal{P}(X)$ is the powerset of $X$, consisting of all subsets of $X$.
© is the set inclusion relation.
$\left\langle\Sigma^{*}, \leq\right\rangle$
e $\Sigma^{*}$ is the set of all finite strings over the alphabet $\Sigma$.
廹 $\leq$ is the "is a prefix of" relation.


## Order-Isomorphisms

We want to be able to tell when two ordered sets are essentially the same.
Let $\left\langle P, \leq_{P}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle Q, \leq_{Q}\right\rangle$ be two ordered sets.

- $P$ and $Q$ are said to be (order-)isomorphic, denoted $P \cong Q$, if there is a map $\varphi$ from $P$ onto $Q$ such that $x \leq_{P} y$ if and only if $\varphi(x) \leq_{Q} \varphi(y)$.
- The $\operatorname{map} \varphi$ above is called an order-isomorphism.
- For example, $\mathcal{N}_{0}$ and $\mathcal{N}$ are order-isomorphic with the successor function $n \mapsto n+1$ as the order-isomorphism.
- An order-isomorphism is necessarily bijective (one-to-one and onto). Therefore, an order-isomorphism $\varphi: P \rightarrow Q$ has a well-defined inverse $\varphi^{-1}: Q \rightarrow P$.


## Chains and Antichains

Let $P$ be an ordered set.
$P$ is called a chain if $\forall x, y \in P, x \leq y \vee y \leq x$, i.e., any two elements in $P$ are comparable.

- For example, $\langle\mathcal{N}, \leq\rangle$ is a chain.

Alternative names for a chain are totally ordered set and linearly ordered set.

- $P$ is called an antichain if $\forall x, y \in P, x \leq y \rightarrow x=y$, i.e., no two distinct elements in $P$ are ordered.
- Clearly, any subset of a chain (an antichain) is a chain (an antichain).
- We write n to denote a chain of $n$ elements and $\overline{\mathrm{n}}$ an antichain of $n$ elements.


## Sums of Ordered Sets

- Let $P$ and $Q$ be two disjoint ordered sets.
- The disjoint union $P \uplus Q$ is defined by $x \leq y$ in $P \uplus Q$ if and only if

1. $x, y \in P$ and $x \leq y$ in $P$, or
2. $x, y \in Q$ and $x \leq y$ in $Q$.

The linear sum $P \oplus Q$ is defined by $x \leq y$ in $P \oplus Q$ if and only if

1. $x, y \in P$ and $x \leq y$ in $P$, or
2. $x, y \in Q$ and $x \leq y$ in $Q$, or
3. $x \in P$ and $y \in Q$.

## Diagrams for Ordered Sets

All possible ordered sets with three elements:

$\langle\mathcal{P}(\{1,2,3\}), \subseteq\rangle$ :


## Partial Maps

A (total) map or function $f$ from $X$ to $Y$ is a binary relation on $X$ and $Y$ satisfying the following conditions:

1. (single-valued) For every $x \in X$, there is at most one $y \in Y$ such that $(x, y)$ is related by $f$.
In other words, if both $\left(x, y_{1}\right)$ and $\left(x, y_{2}\right)$ are related by $f$, then $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ must be equal.
2. (total) For every $x \in X$, there is at least one $y \in Y$ such that $(x, y)$ is related by $f$.

- A partial map $f$ from $X$ to $Y$ is a single-valued, not necessarily total, binary relation on $X$ and $Y$.
- Representation of a total or partial map $f$ from $X$ to $Y$ as a subset of $X \times Y$, or as an element of $\mathcal{P}(X \times Y)$, is called the graph of $f$, denoted graph $(f)$.


## Partial Maps as an Ordered Set

We write $(X \longrightarrow Y)$ to denote the set of all partial maps from $X$ to $Y$.
For $\sigma, \tau \in(X \hookrightarrow Y)$, we define $\sigma \leq \tau$ if and only if $\operatorname{graph}(\sigma) \subseteq \operatorname{graph}(\tau)$. In other words, $\sigma \leq \tau$ if and only if whenever $\sigma(x)$ is defined, $\tau(x)$ is also defined and equals $\sigma(x)$.

- $\langle(X \longrightarrow Y), \leq\rangle$ is an ordered set.


## Programs as Partial Maps

Two programs $P$ and $Q$ with common sets $X$ and $Y$ respectively of initial states and final states may be seen as defining two partial maps $\sigma_{P}, \sigma_{Q}: X \hookrightarrow Y$.
The two programs might be related by $\sigma_{P} \leq \sigma_{Q}$, meaning that
for any input state from which $P$ terminates, $Q$ also terminates, and
e for every case where $P$ terminates, $Q$ produces the same output as $P$ does.
When $\sigma_{P} \leq \sigma_{Q}$ does hold, we say $P$ is refined by $Q$ or $Q$ refines $P$. (Some prefer the opposite.)
The refinement relation between two programs as defined is clearly a partial order.

## Dual of an Ordered Set

- Given an ordered set $P$, we can form a new ordered set $P^{\partial}$ (the "dual of $P^{\prime \prime}$ ) by defining $x \leq y$ to hold in $P^{\partial}$ if and only if $y \leq x$ holds in $P$.
- For a finite $P$, a diagram for $P^{\partial}$ can be obtained by turning upside down a diagram for $P$ :



## The Duality Principle

- For a statement $\Phi$ about ordered sets, its dual statement $\Phi^{\partial}$ is obtained by replacing each occurrence of $\leq$ with $\geq$ and vice versa.
The Duality Principle: Given a statement $\Phi$ about ordered sets that is true for all ordered sets, the dual statement $\Phi^{\partial}$ is also true for all ordered sets.


## Bottom and Top

- Let $P$ be an ordered set.
- $P$ has a bottom element if there exists $\perp \in P$ ("bottom") such that $\perp \leq x$ for all $x \in P$.
Dually, $P$ has a top element if there exists $T \in P$ ("top") such that $x \leq \mathrm{T}$ for all $x \in P$.
- $\perp$ is unique when it exists; dually, $T$ is unique when it exists.
- In $\langle\mathcal{P}(X), \subseteq\rangle$, we have $\perp=\emptyset$ and $T=X$.
- A finite chain always has a bottom and a top elements; this may not hold for an infinite chain.
- Given a bottomless $P$, we may form $P_{\perp}$ ( $P$ lifted or the lifting of $P$ ) by $P_{\perp} \triangleq{ }^{\triangleq} \oplus P$.


## Maximal and Minimal Elements

- Let $P$ be an ordered set and $S \subseteq P$.
- An element $a \in S$ is a maximal element of $S$ if $a \leq x$ and $x \in S$ imply $x=a$.
- If $Q$ has a top element $\mathrm{T}_{Q}$, it is called the greatest element (or maximum) of $Q$.
A minimal element of $S$ and the least element (or minimum) of $S$ (if it exists) are defined dually.


## Down-sets and Up-sets

Let $P$ be an ordered set and $S \subseteq P$.
$S$ is a down-set (order ideal) if, whenever $x \in S, y \in P$, and $y \leq x$, we have $y \in S$.

- Dually, $S$ is a up-set (order filter) if, whenever $x \in S$, $y \in P$, and $y \geq x$, we have $y \in S$.
- Given an arbitrary $Q \subseteq P$ and $x \in P$, we define $\downarrow Q \triangleq\{y \in P \mid \exists x \in Q, y \leq x\}$ ("down $Q$ "),
e $\uparrow Q \triangleq\{y \in P \mid \exists x \in Q, y \geq x\}$ ("up $Q$ "),
$\downarrow x \triangleq\{y \in P \mid y \leq x\}$, and
, $\uparrow x \triangleq\{y \in P \mid y \geq x\}$.
$\downarrow Q$ is the smallest down-set containing $Q$ and $Q$ is a down-set if and only if $Q=\downarrow Q$; dually for $\uparrow Q$.


## Order-Preserving Maps

Let $P$ and $Q$ be ordered sets.

- A map $\varphi: P \rightarrow Q$ is said to be order-preserving (or monotone) if $x \leq y$ in $P$ implies $\varphi(x) \leq \varphi(y)$ in $Q$.
- The composition of two order-preserving maps is also order-preserving.
- A map $\varphi: P \rightarrow Q$ is said to be an order-embedding (denoted $P \hookrightarrow Q$ ) if $x \leq y$ in $P$ if and only if $\varphi(x) \leq \varphi(y)$ in $Q$.


## Upper and Lower Bounds

- Let $P$ be an ordered set and $S \subseteq P$.
- An element $x \in P$ is an upper bound of $S$ if, for all $s \in S$, $s \leq x$.
Dually, an element $x \in P$ is an lower bound of $S$ if, for all $s \in S, s \geq x$ (or $x \leq s$ ).
The set of all upper bounds of $S$ is denoted by $S^{u}$ (" S upper"); $S^{u}=\{x \in P \mid \forall s \in S, s \leq x\}$.
The set of all lower bounds of $S$ is denoted by $S^{l}$ (" $S$ lower"); $S^{l}=\{x \in P \mid \forall s \in S, s \geq x\}$.
- By convention, $\emptyset^{u}=P$ and $\emptyset^{l}=P$.
- Since $\leq$ is transitive, $S^{u}$ is an up-set and $S^{l}$ a down-set.


## Least Upper and Greatest Lower Bounds

- Let $P$ be an ordered set and $S \subseteq P$.
- If $S^{u}$ has a least element, it is called the least upper bound (supremum) of $S$, denoted $\sup (S)$.
- Equivalently, $x$ is the least upper bound of $S$ if
w is an upper bound of $S$, and
e for every upper bound $y$ of $S, x \leq y$.
Dually, if $S^{l}$ has a greatest element, it is called the greatest lower bound (infimum) of $S$, denoted $\inf (S)$.
- When $P$ has a top element, $P^{u}=\{T\}$ and $\sup (P)=T$. Dually, if $P$ has a bottom element, $P^{l}=\{\perp\}$ and $\inf (P)=\perp$.
Since $\emptyset^{u}=\emptyset^{l}=P, \sup (\emptyset)$ exists if $P$ has a bottom element; dually, $\inf (\emptyset)$ exists if $P$ has a top element.


## Join and Meet

We write $x \vee y$ (" $x$ join $y$ ") in place of $\sup (\{x, y\})$ when it exists and $x \wedge y$ (" $x$ meet $y$ ") in place of $\inf (\{x, y\})$ when it exists.
Let $P$ be an ordered set. If $x, y \in P$ and $x \leq y, x \vee y=y$ and $x \wedge y=x$.

- In the following two cases, $a \vee b$ does not exist.

- Analogously, we write $\vee S$ (the "join of $S$ ") and $\wedge S$ (the "meet of $S$ ").


## Lattices and Complete Lattices

Let $P$ be a non-empty ordered set.
$P$ is called a lattice if $x \vee y$ and $x \wedge y$ exist for all $x, y \in P$.

- $P$ is called a complete lattice if $\bigvee S$ and $\wedge S$ exist for all $S \subseteq P$.
Note: as $S$ may be empty, the definition implies that every complete lattice is bounded, i.e., it has top and bottom elements.
- Every finite lattice is complete.


## Fixpoints

- Given an ordered set $P$ and a map $F: P \rightarrow P$, an element $x \in P$ is called a fixpoint of $F$ if $F(x)=x$.
The set of fixpoints of $F$ is denoted $\operatorname{fix}(F)$.
- The least element of fix $(F)$, when it exists, is denoted $\mu(F)$, and the greatest by $\nu(F)$ if it exists.


## A Fixpoint Theorem for Complete Lattices

The Knaster-Tarski Fixpoint Theorem
Let $L$ be a complete lattice and $F: L \rightarrow L$ an orderpreserving map. Then,

$$
\mu(F)=\bigwedge\{x \in L \mid F(x) \leq x\} .
$$

Dually, $\nu(F)=\bigvee\{x \in L \mid x \leq F(x)\}$.
Let $M=\{x \in L \mid F(x) \leq x\}$ and $\alpha=\wedge M$. We need to show (1) $F(\alpha)=\alpha$ and (2) for every $\beta \in \operatorname{fix}(F), \alpha \leq \beta$.

- For all $x \in M, \alpha \leq x$ and so $F(\alpha) \leq F(x) \leq x$. Thus, $F(\alpha) \in M^{l}$ and hence $F(\alpha) \leq \alpha(=\wedge M)$.
- $F(F(\alpha)) \leq F(\alpha)$, implying $F(\alpha) \in M$ and so $\alpha \leq F(\alpha)$. For every $\beta \in \operatorname{fix}(F), \beta \in M$ and hence $\alpha \leq \beta$.


## Galois Connections

Let $P$ and $Q$ be ordered sets.
A pair $\left({ }^{\triangleright},{ }^{\triangleleft}\right)$ of maps ${ }^{\triangleright}: P \rightarrow Q$ ("right") and ${ }^{\triangleleft}: Q \rightarrow P$ ("left") is a Galois connection between $P$ and $Q$ if, for all $p \in P$ and $q \in Q$,

$$
p^{\triangleright} \leq q \leftrightarrow p \leq q^{\triangleleft}
$$

The map ${ }^{\triangleright}$ is called the lower adjoint of $\triangleleft$ and the map $\triangleleft$ the upper adjoint of ${ }^{\triangleright}$.
Alternatively, $(\triangleright, \triangleleft)$ is a Galois connection between $P$ and $Q$ if, for all $p, p_{1}, p_{2} \in P, q, q_{1}, q_{2} \in Q$,

1. $p \leq p^{\triangleright \triangleleft}$ and $q \triangleleft \leq q$ and
2. $p_{1} \leq p_{2} \rightarrow p_{1}{ }^{\triangleright} \leq p_{2}{ }^{\triangleright}$ and $q_{1} \leq q_{2} \rightarrow q_{1}{ }^{\triangleleft} \leq q_{2}{ }^{\triangleleft}$.

## Chain Conditions

- Let $P$ be an ordered set.
- $P$ satisfies the ascending chain condition (ACC), if given any sequence $x_{1} \leq x_{2} \leq \cdots \leq x_{n} \leq \cdots$ of elements in $P$, there exists $k \in N$ such that $x_{k}=x_{k+1}=\cdots$.
Dually, $P$ satisfies the descending chain condition (DCC), if given any sequence $x_{1} \geq x_{2} \geq \cdots \geq x_{n} \geq \cdots$ of elements in $P$, there exists $k \in N$ such that $x_{k}=x_{k+1}=\cdots$.


## Directed Sets

Let $S$ be a non-empty subset of an ordered set.

- $S$ is said to be directed if, for every pair of elements $x, y \in S$ there exists $z \in S$ such that $z \in\{x, y\}^{u}$.
$S$ is directed if and only if, for every finite subset $F$ of $S$, there exists $z \in S$ such that $z \in F^{u}$.
- In an ordered set with the ACC, a set is directed if and only if it has a greatest element.
When $D$ is directed for which $\vee D$ exists, we write $\sqcup D$ in place of $\vee D$.


## Complete Partial Orders (CPO)

An ordered set $P$ is called a Complete Partial Order (CPO) if

1. $P$ has a bottom element $\perp$ and
2. $\sqcup D$ exists for each directed subset $D$ of $P$.

Alternatively, $P$ is a CPO if each chain of $P$ has a least upper bound in $P$.

- Any complete lattice is a CPO.
- For an ordered $P$ satisfying Condition 2 above (called a pre-CPO), its lifting $P_{\perp}$ is a CPO.


## Continuous Maps

- Let $P$ and $Q$ be CPOs.
- A map $\varphi: P \rightarrow Q$ is said to be continuous if, for every directed set $D$ in $P$,

1. the subset $\varphi(D)$ of $Q$ is directed and
2. $\varphi(\sqcup D)=\bigsqcup \varphi(D)$.

- A continuous map need not preserve bottoms, since by definition the empty set is not directed.
- A map $\varphi: P \rightarrow Q$ such that $\varphi(\perp)=\perp$ is called strict.


## A Fixpoint Theorem for CPOs

The $n$-fold composite $F^{n}$ of $F: P \rightarrow P$ is defined as follows.

1. $F^{0}$ is the identity.
2. $F^{n}=F \circ F^{n-1}$ for $n \geq 1$.

If $F$ is order-preserving, so is $F^{n}$.

## CPO Fixpoint Theorem I

Let $P$ be a CPO and $F: P \rightarrow P$ an order-preserving map. Define $\alpha \triangleq \bigsqcup_{n \geq 0} F^{n}(\perp)$.

1. If $\alpha \in \operatorname{fix}(F)$, then $\alpha=\mu(F)$.
2. If $F$ is continuous, then $\mu(F)$ exists and equals $\alpha$.

## Proof of CPO Fixpoint Theorem I (1)

$\perp \leq F(\perp)$. So, $F^{n}(\perp) \leq F^{n+1}(\perp)$, for all $n$, inducing a chain in P :

$$
\perp \leq F(\perp) \leq F^{2}(\perp) \leq \cdots \leq F^{n}(\perp) \leq F^{n+1}(\perp) \leq \cdots
$$

- Since $P$ is a CPO, $\alpha \triangleq \triangleq \sqcup_{n \geq 0} F^{n}(\perp)$ exists.
- Let $\beta$ be any fixpoint of $F$; we need to show that $\alpha \leq \beta$.
- By induction, $F^{n}(\beta)=\beta$, for all $n$.
- We have $\perp \leq \beta$, hence $F^{n}(\perp) \leq F^{n}(\beta)=\beta$.
- The definition of $\alpha$ then ensures $\alpha \leq \beta$.


## Proof of CPO Fixpoint Theorem I (2)

- It suffices to show that $\alpha \in \operatorname{fix}(F)$.
- We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
F\left(\sqcup_{n \geq 0} F^{n}(\perp)\right) & =\bigsqcup_{n \geq 0} F\left(F^{n}(\perp)\right) \quad(F \text { continuous }) \\
& =\bigsqcup_{n \geq 1} F^{n}(\perp) \\
& =\bigsqcup_{n \geq 0} F^{n}(\perp) \quad\left(\perp \leq F^{n}(\perp) \text { for all } n\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Another Fixpoint Theorem for CPOs

## CPO Fixpoint Theorem II

Let $P$ be a CPO and $F: P \rightarrow P$ an order-preserving map. Then $F$ has a least fixpoint.

