Lattices and Topology

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Lecture 1: Basics of lattice theory

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Further advances in lattice theory were obtained by Bjarni Jónsson, Bernhard Banaschewski, George Grätzer, and many many others..

Why is Lattice Theory useful for logic?? Well..

• Lattices encode algebraic behavior of the entailment relation and such basic logical connectives as "and" (∧, conjunction) and "or" (∨, disjunction).

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- Relationship between syntax and semantics is likewise reflected in the relationship between lattices and their dual spaces.
- Duals are used to provide various useful representation theorems for lattices, which reflect various completeness results in logic. We will address this issue in detail in Lecture 5.

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The logical significance of these theorems lies in the fact that they are essentially equivalent to results about relational and topological completeness of some well-known propositional calculi.

Lecture 1: Basics of lattice theory

- Partial orders and lattices
- Lattices as algebras
- Distributive laws, Birkhoff's characterization of distributive lattices
- Boolean lattices and Heyting lattices

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Lecture 2: Representation of distributive lattices

- Join-prime and meet-prime elements
- Birkhoff's duality between finite distributive lattices and finite posets
- Prime filters and prime ideals
- Representation of distributive lattices

Lecture 3: Topology

- Topological spaces
- Closure and interior
- Separation axioms
- Compactness
- Compact Hausdorff spaces
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Lecture 5: Spectral duality and applications to logic

- Spectral duality
- Distributive lattices in logic
- Relational completeness of IPC and CPC
- Topological completeness of IPC and CPC

A pair (P, \leq) is called a **poset** (shorthand for **partially ordered** set) if *P* is a nonempty set and \leq is a partial order on *P*; that is \leq is a binary relation on *P* which is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive.

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- Antisymmetric: If $p \leq q$ and $q \leq p$, then p = q for all $p, q \in P$.
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Of course, $p \leq r$ by transitivity, but connecting p and r by a line would make the diagram messy, so we avoid it. By the same reason, we don't draw a loop connecting p with itself.

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The corresponding Hasse diagram does not thus have any lines, and looks like this:



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Hasse diagrams of linear orders look like this:



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The latter requirement is necessary since there exist 1-1 and onto order-preserving maps whose inverses aren't order-preserving.

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Similarly, whenever there exists $p \in P$ such that $p \leq q$ for each $q \in P$, we call p the least or bottom element of P and denote it by 0.

Let (P, \leq) be a poset and let $S \subseteq P$. We call $u \in P$ an upper bound of *S* if $s \leq u$ for all $s \in S$. We denote the set of upper bounds of *S* by S^u .

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If *S* has glb, then we denote it by Inf(S) or $\bigwedge S$.

We call a poset (P, \leq) a lattice if

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Examples:

(1) Here are Hasse diagrams of a couple of finite lattices:



(2) Any linearly ordered set is a lattice, where

$$a \lor b = \max(a, b) = \begin{cases} b & \text{if } a \leqslant b, \\ a & \text{if } a \geqslant b \end{cases}$$

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(3) The following posets, however, are not lattices:



Fact: Let L be a lattice. Then all nonempty finite subsets of L possess suprema and infima.

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Proof (Sketch): Let $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n \in L$. Then an easy induction gives:

$$\bigvee \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_n\} = (...(a_1 \lor a_2) \lor ...) \lor a_n$$

and

$$\bigwedge \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_n\} = (...(a_1 \land a_2) \land ...) \land a_n.$$

Therefore, $\bigvee \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_n\}$ and $\bigwedge \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_n\}$ exist in *L*.

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Examples:

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(2) Let \mathbb{N} denote the set of non-negative integers. Then the set $\mathscr{P}_{\text{fin}}\mathbb{N}$ of finite subsets of \mathbb{N} is a lattice with set-theoretic union and intersection as lattice operations.

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(2) Let \mathbb{N} denote the set of non-negative integers. Then the set $\mathscr{P}_{\text{fin}}\mathbb{N}$ of finite subsets of \mathbb{N} is a lattice with set-theoretic union and intersection as lattice operations. However, the set of all finite subsets of $\mathscr{P}_{\text{fin}}\mathbb{N}$ has no supremum.

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(2) The powerset $\mathscr{P}X$ of a set *X* is a complete lattice with respect to the order $\leq = \subseteq$. In fact, for each $S \subseteq \mathscr{P}X$ we have $\bigvee S = \bigcup S$ and $\bigwedge S = \bigcap S$.

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Example: Let \mathbb{Q} be the set of rational numbers, and let $L = [0, 1] \cap \mathbb{Q}$. Then *L* is bounded, but it is not complete.

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Moreover, $a \leq b$ iff $a \wedge b = a$ iff $a \vee b = b$.

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Fact: We have that \leq is a partial order on *L*, that $Sup\{a, b\} = a \lor b$, and that $Inf\{a, b\} = a \land b$ for each $a, b \in L$.

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Fact: We have that \leq is a partial order on *L*, that $Sup\{a, b\} = a \lor b$, and that $Inf\{a, b\} = a \land b$ for each $a, b \in L$.

Thus, we can think of lattices as algebras (L, \lor, \land) , where $\lor, \land : L^2 \to L$ are two binary operations on *L* satisfying the commutativity, associativity, idempotency, and absorption laws.

A map $f : L \to K$ between two lattices *L* and *K* is called a lattice homomorphism if $f(x \land y) = f(x) \land f(y)$ and $f(x \lor y) = f(x) \lor f(y)$ for all $x, y \in L$.

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Clearly each lattice homomorphism is order-preserving: if $x \le y$ then $x \land y = x$; therefore $f(x) = f(x \land y) = f(x) \land f(y)$, which means that $f(x) \le f(y)$.

A lattice isomorphism is a 1-1 and onto lattice homomorphism.

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and that

$$a \lor (b \land c) \leqslant (a \lor b) \land (a \lor c).$$

We say that in *L* meet distributes over join if for each $a, b, c \in L$ we have

$$a \wedge (b \vee c) = (a \wedge b) \vee (a \wedge c).$$

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$$a \lor (b \land c) \leqslant (a \lor b) \land (a \lor c).$$

We say that in *L* meet distributes over join if for each $a, b, c \in L$ we have

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These laws are called the distributive laws.

In fact, in every lattice the two distributive laws are equivalent to each other.

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We show that $a \land (b \lor c) = (a \land b) \lor (a \land c)$ implies $a \lor (b \land c) = (a \lor b) \land (a \lor c)$. The converse is proved similarly.

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(3) Let (P, \leq) be a poset. We call $A \subseteq P$ an upset of P if $x \in A$ and $x \leq y$ imply $y \in A$. Let $\mathscr{U}(P)$ denote the set of upsets of P. Then $(\mathscr{U}(P), \cup, \cap)$ is a distributive lattice.

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Dually, *A* is called a downset of *P* if $x \in A$ and $y \leq x$ imply $y \in A$. Let $\mathscr{D}(P)$ denote the set of downsets of *P*. Then $(\mathscr{D}(P), \cup, \cap)$ is a distributive lattice.

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(2) Another non-distributive lattice, called the pentagon, is shown below.



Birkhoff's characterization of distributive lattices

The next theorem, due to Birkhoff, says that the diamond and pentagon are essentially the only reason for non-distributivity in lattices.
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Let *L* be a lattice and $S \subseteq L$. If for each $a, b \in S$ we have $a \lor b, a \land b \in S$, then we call *S* a sublattice of *L*. If in addition *L* is bounded and $0, 1 \in S$, then we call *S* a bounded sublattice of *L*.

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We say that a lattice K is isomorphic to a (bounded) sublattice S of L if there exists a (bounded) lattice isomorphism from K onto S.

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Proof (Idea): Clearly if either the diamond or the pentagon can be embedded into *L*, then *L* is non-distributive.

The converse is more difficult to prove. The rough idea is to show that if L is not distributive, then we can build either the diamond or the pentagon inside L. We skip the details.

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In general *a* may have several complements or none.

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We denote the complement of *a* by $\neg a$.

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Thus, in a Heyting lattice *L* we have:

 $a \land x \leqslant b$ iff $x \leqslant a \rightarrow b$

for all $a, b, x \in L$.
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This is exactly the reason that *L* is not a Heyting lattice because a complete distributive lattice is a Heyting lattice iff the (\land, \bigvee) -distributivity holds in it.