

Partial Ordering Relations

Definition. A binary relation R on a set A is said to be an antisymmetric relation if $(a, b) \in R$ implies that (b, a) is not in R unless $a = b$.

Examples.

- 1) $A = \mathbb{R}$, $R = \{(x, y) : x \leq y\}$ is an antisymmetric relation on \mathbb{R} since $x \leq y$ and $y \leq x$ implies $x = y$.
- 2) $A = \mathcal{P}(S)$ is a set of all subsets of S , $R = \{(X, Y) : X, Y \in \mathcal{P}(S), X \subset Y\}$ is an antisymmetric relation on $\mathcal{P}(S)$ since $X \subset Y$ and $Y \subset X$ implies $X = Y$.

Definition. A binary relation R on a set A is said to be a partial ordering relation if it is reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive.

A partially ordered set, poset for short, is a pair (A, R) , where R is a partial ordering relation on A .

Examples.

- 1) $A = \mathbb{R}$, $R = \{(x, y) : x^2 \leq y^2\}$.

R is reflexive, transitive, but not antisymmetric.

Indeed, $(-4, 4) \in R$, $(4, -4) \in R$ but $4 \neq -4$.

So, (A, R) is not a poset.

- 2) $A = \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$, $R = \{(a, b) : a \in A, b \in A, a = (a_1, a_2), b = (b_1, b_2), a_1 \leq b_1, a_1 + a_2 \leq b_1 + b_2\}$

R is reflexive since $(a, a) \in R \forall a = (a_1, a_2) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$

R is transitive. Indeed, let $(a, b) \in A$, $(b, c) \in A$, $a = (a_1, a_2)$, $b = (b_1, b_2)$, $c = (c_1, c_2)$. Then $a_1 \leq b_1 \leq c_1$,

i.e. $a_1 \leq c_1$; $a_1 + a_2 \leq b_1 + b_2 \leq c_1 + c_2$, i.e. $a_1 + a_2 \leq c_1 + c_2$.

It implies that $(a, c) \in A$ whenever $(a, b) \in A$, $(b, c) \in A$

Let us show that R is antisymmetric.
Assume that $(a, b) \in R$ and $(b, a) \in R$, $a = (a_1, a_2)$, $b = (b_1, b_2)$. Then $a_1 \leq b_1$ and $b_1 \leq a_1$, i.e. $a_1 = b_1$.

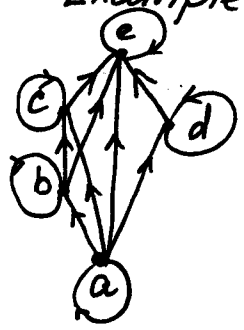
Also, $a_1 + a_2 \leq b_1 + b_2$ and $b_1 + b_2 \leq a_1 + a_2$, i.e. $b_1 + b_2 = a_1 + a_2$. The last equality together with $a_1 = b_1$ implies $a_2 = b_2$. Therefore $(a_1, a_2) = (b_1, b_2)$, i.e. $a = b$.
It proves that R is antisymmetric.

Thus, (A, R) is a poset.

Notation. Let (A, R) be a poset. For each ordered pair (a, b) in R , we write $a \leq b$ instead of $(a, b) \in R$. We also write (A, \leq) instead of (A, R) .

Definition. Let (A, \leq) be a poset. A subset of A is called a chain if every two elements in the subset are related.

Example.



$A = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$

R is a partial ordering relation on A , since it is reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive.

$S_1 = \{a, b, c, e\}$, $S_2 = \{b, c, e\}$, $S_3 = \{a, d, e\}$ are chains.

$S_4 = \{a, b, d\}$ is not a chain.

Definition. A poset (A, \leq) is called a totally ordered set if set A is a chain. In this case, the binary relation \leq is called a total ordering relation.

Examples.

1. The real numbers are totally ordered by \leq because for every pair a, b of real numbers either $a \leq b$ or $b \leq a$.
2. The set of sets $\{\{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a, c\}\}$ is not totally ordered by \subset since neither $\{a\} \subset \{b\}$ nor $\{b\} \subset \{a\}$.

Partial orders are often pictured by means of a diagram named after Helmut Hasse (1898-1979). In the Hasse diagram of a poset (A, \leq) ,

- there is a dot (or vertex) associated with each element of A ;
- if $a \leq b$, then the dot for b is positioned higher than the dot for a ; and
- if $a \leq b$, $a \neq b$ and there is no intermediate c with $a < c < b$ then a line is drawn from a to b .

Examples.

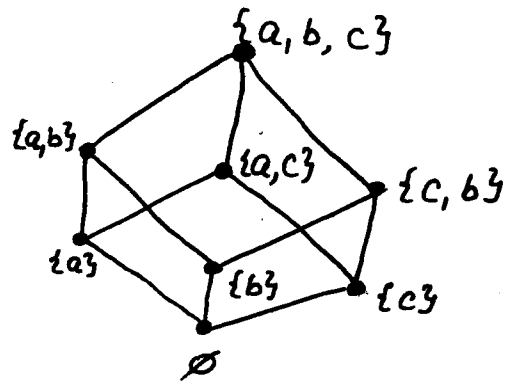
1. $A = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$.

The Hasse diagram for (A, \leq)



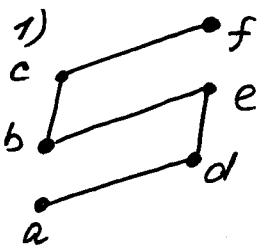
2. $A = \mathcal{P}(\{a, b, c\})$

The Hasse diagram for $(\mathcal{P}(\{a, b, c\}), \subset)$.

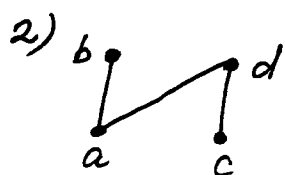


Remark. Knowing only the Hasse diagram for a poset (A, R) we can write all the elements of R .

Problem. List all pairs (x, y) with $x \leq y$ in the partial order described by the following Hasse diagrams



$R = \{(a, a), (b, b), (c, c), (d, d), (e, e), (f, f), (a, d), (d, e), (a, e), (b, e), (b, c), (c, f), (b, f)\}$.



$R = \{(a, a), (b, b), (c, c), (d, d), (a, b), (a, d), (c, d)\}$.

Binary Relations. Review.

Definition. Let (A, R) be a poset. If A is a chain then (A, R) is called a totally ordered set.

A is totally ordered $\iff \forall x \in A, \forall y \in A$, we have that $(x, y) \in R$, or $(y, x) \in R$ or both.

Problem 1.

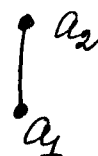
- (a) Describe the structure of the Hasse diagram for a totally ordered poset (A, R) , where $|A| = n$
- (b) For a set A where $|A| = n \geq 1$, how many relations on A are total orders?

Solution.

(a) For $n=1$, $A = \{a\}$ and the Hasse diagram is \bullet
 a

For $n=2$, $A = \{a_1, a_2\}$, $R = \{(a_1, a_1), (a_2, a_2), (a_1, a_2)\}$
 or $R = \{(a_1, a_1), (a_2, a_2), (a_2, a_1)\}$.

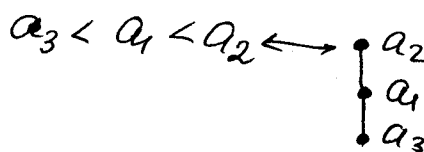
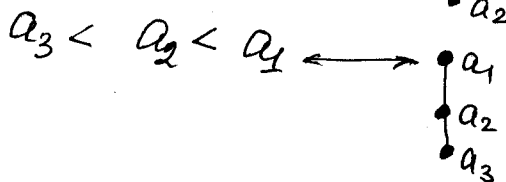
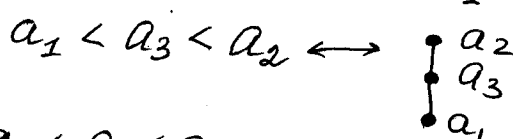
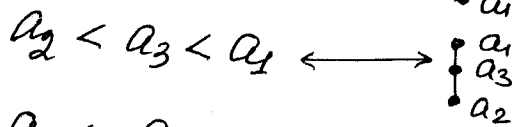
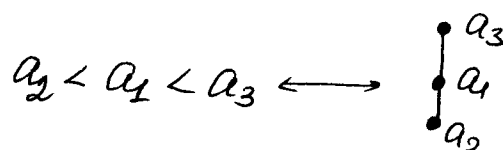
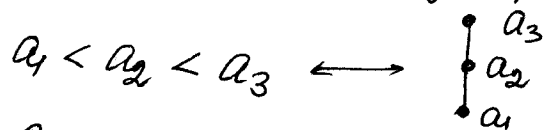
The Hasse diagram is either



or



For $n=3$, $A = \{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$. We have the following possibilities



For $n=1,2,3$, we see that in the Hasse diagram n elements are arranged along a vertical line. Let us prove that the same holds for any $n \geq 1$. We will use the Principle of Mathematical Induction.

We already checked that the base hold for $n=2$. Assume that the statement is true for some $n, n \geq 1$. Let us show that the statement is true for $n+1$.

Let $|A| = n+1$, i.e. $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n+1}\}$

We have that poset (A, R) is totally ordered.

Take element a_1 and compare it with the other elements. If $a_1 > a_i, \forall i=2,3,\dots,n+1$, then define b to be a_1 . If not, take element a_2 and compare it with the other elements. If $a_2 > a_i, \forall i=1,3,4,\dots,n+1$, then define b to be a_2 . If not, take element a_3 , and follow the procedure until we find the element a_j s.t. $a_j > a_i, \forall i=1,2,\dots,n+1$ but $i \neq j$. Define $b = a_j$.

Such defined b is one of elements of A and $(a_i, b) \in R \forall i=1,2,\dots,n+1$.

We have that $|A \setminus \{b\}| = n$ and by our assumption the Hasse diagram for $\langle A \setminus \{b\} \rangle$ is a ^{vertical} line joining n elements of $A \setminus \{b\}$. To get the Hasse diagram of A we continue this vertical line and join it with element b . It finishes the proof.

(b) By part (a), the number of totally ordered sets on $A, |A|=n$, is the number of permutations of n elements. It is $n!$

Problem 2. Let $A = \{1, 2, 4, 6, 8\}$ and for $a, b \in A$ define $a \leq b$ if and only if $\frac{b}{a}$ is an integer.

- (a) Prove that \leq defines a partial order on A
 (b) Draw the Hasse diagram for \leq .
 (c) Is (A, \leq) totally ordered. Explain.

Solution:

(a) R is reflexive since $\forall a \in A, (a, a) \in R$, i.e. $a \leq a$
 (because $\frac{a}{a} = 1$)

R is transitive since

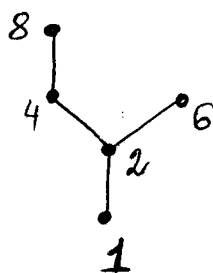
if $a \leq b, b \leq c$, then $\frac{b}{a} \in \mathbb{Z}, \frac{c}{b} \in \mathbb{Z}$ and therefore
 $\frac{c}{a} = \frac{b}{a} \cdot \frac{c}{b} \in \mathbb{Z}$, i.e. $a \leq c$.

R is antisymmetric. Indeed,

if $a \leq b$ and $b \leq a$, then $\frac{a}{b}$ and $\frac{b}{a}$ are both integers. It is possible only if $a = b$ or $a = -b$.
 But a and b are both positive then $a = b$.

Therefore, \leq defines a partial order on A .

(b)



(c) (A, \leq) is not totally ordered since its Hasse diagram is not a vertical line.

Problem 3. Let $|A| = n$, $\mathcal{P}(A)$ be the set of subsets of A , $R = \{(X, Y) : X, Y \in \mathcal{P}(A); X \subset Y\}$. What is the length of the longest chain in the poset $(\mathcal{P}(A), R)$.

Solution. Let $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$, $|\mathcal{P}(A)| = 2^n$

Let S be an arbitrary chain in $(\mathcal{P}(A), R)$. Then it is a subset of $\mathcal{P}(A)$. Its length $\leq 2^n$.

For example, for $n=2$, $A = \{a, b\}$, $\mathcal{P}(A) = \{\{a\}, \{b\}, \emptyset, \{a, b\}\}$.
 $S_1 = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$ and $S_2 = \{\emptyset, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\}$ are two chains with

the largest length, that is 3 (we have $3 \leq 2^2$)

Any chain in $(\mathcal{P}(A), R)$ is of the form

$$A_{i_1} < A_{i_2} < \dots < A_{i_m}, \text{ where } A_{i_j} \in \mathcal{P}(A).$$

Obviously,

$$0 \leq |A_{i_1}| < |A_{i_2}| < \dots < |A_{i_m}| \leq n$$

Any chain S with the largest length satisfies

$$|A_{i_1}| = 0, \text{ i.e. } A_{i_1} = \emptyset,$$

$$|A_{i_2}| = 1, |A_{i_3}| = 2, \dots, |A_{i_m}| = n \Rightarrow m = n+1.$$

Therefore, the length of the longest chain is $n+1$.

Problem 4. Let A be the set of points different from the origin in the Euclidean plane. For $p, q \in A$, define $(p, q) \in R$ if $p = q$ or the line through the distinct points p and q passes through the origin.

(a) Prove that R is an equivalence relation on A

(b) Find the equivalence classes of R .

Solution.

(a) By the definition of R , $(p, p) \in R, \forall p \in A$. Therefore R is reflexive.

- Let $(p, q) \in R$. Then either $p = q$, or $p, q, 0$ lie on the same line. Therefore, $(q, p) \in R$. Hence R is symmetric.

- Let $(p, q) \in R$ and $(q, r) \in R$. Then there are the following possibilities

$$(i) p = q \begin{cases} \rightarrow (i1) p = q = r \\ \rightarrow (i2) p = q \neq r, \exists \text{ line through } 0, q, r \end{cases}$$

$$(ii) p \neq q, \exists \text{ line through } 0, p, q \begin{cases} \rightarrow (ii1) p \neq q, \exists \text{ line through } 0, p, q, q = r \\ \rightarrow (ii) p \neq q, \exists \text{ line through } 0, p, q, q \neq r, \exists \text{ line through } 0, q, r. \end{cases}$$

In case (i1), $(p, r) \in R$

In case (i2), $(p, r) \in R$

In case (i3), $p \neq r$ and $(p, r) \in R$

In case (i4), either $p = r$ and then $(p, r) \in R$,

or $p \neq r$ and \exists a unique line through 0 and p and it contains q .

This line can be described as a line through 0 and q . We know it contains r as well.

Therefore \exists line through 0, p , r . Then $(p, r) \in R$.

Hence, R is transitive.

Totally, R is an equivalence relation on A .

(b). Let p be any element of A .

$$\begin{aligned}
 [(p, p)] &= [p] = \{ q \in A : p = q, \text{ or } p, q, 0 \text{ lie on the same line} \} \\
 &= \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} p_2 \\ p_1 \end{pmatrix} x : x \in \mathbb{R} \right\} = \text{the line passing through } 0 \text{ and } p, \text{ with deleted point } 0.
 \end{aligned}$$

Equivalence classes of R are lines passing through the origin with one removed point $(0, 0)$ from them.

Problem 4, Let $A = \mathbb{Z}$, $R = \{ (a, b) ; 3a + b \text{ is a multiple of } 4 \}$. Prove that R is an equiv. relation. Find $[0]$, $[2]$.

Solution.

- $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}$, $(a, a) \in R$. Indeed, $3a + a = 4a$ is a multiple of 4 $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}$. Therefore, R is reflexive.

- Let $(a, b) \in R \Rightarrow 3a + b = 4k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $3b + a = 3(b + 3a) - 8a$ is divisible by 4. So, $(b, a) \in R \Rightarrow R$ is symmetric.

- Let $(a, b) \in R$, $(b, c) \in R$. Then $3a + b = 4k$, $3b + c = 4l$, for some $k, l \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow 3a + c = 3a + b + 3b + c - 4c = 4(k + l) - 4c$ is divisible by 4, i.e. $(a, c) \in R$. Then R is transitive. Totally, R is an equiv. relation.

$$[0] = \{b: b \text{ is divisible by } 4\} = 4\mathbb{Z}$$

$$[2] = \{b: 3 \cdot 2 + b \text{ is divisible by } 4\} =$$

$$= \{b: 6 + b = 4k, k \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{b: -2 + b = 4k, k \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \\ = \{4k + 2, k \in \mathbb{Z}\} = 2 + 4\mathbb{Z}.$$

Problem 6. Let A and R be as in the ^{previous} example. Find the partition corresponding to R .

Solution.

The partition of A induced by R is given by equivalence classes of R . We already know classes $[0]$ and $[2]$. Let us find $[1]$ and $[3]$.

$$[1] = \{b: 3 + b = 4k, k \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{b: -1 + b = 4k, k \in \mathbb{Z}\} = 1 + 4\mathbb{Z}$$

$$[3] = \{b: 9 + b = 4k, k \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{b: -3 + b = 4k, k \in \mathbb{Z}\} = 3 + 4\mathbb{Z}.$$

We have that $A = \mathbb{Z} = [0] \cup [1] \cup [2] \cup [3]$.
Then these equivalence classes give us a partition of $A = \mathbb{Z} = \{4\mathbb{Z}, 1 + 4\mathbb{Z}, 2 + 4\mathbb{Z}, 3 + 4\mathbb{Z}\}$.

Problem 7. List all the equivalence relations on the following sets

(a) $\{a, b\}$, (b) $\{a, b, c\}$.

Solution:

(a) We have 2 different partitions of $\{a, b\} = A$

$$A = \{a, b\} = \{a\} \cup \{b\}$$

For the partition $\{a, b\}$, the corresponding equiv. relation is $\{(a, a), (a, b), (b, a), (b, b)\}$.

For the partition $\{\{a\}, \{b\}\}$, the corresponding equiv. relation is $\{(a, a), (b, b)\}$.

(b) We have

$$\mathcal{P}_1 = \{\{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}\}, \quad \mathcal{P}_2 = \{\{a, b\}, \{c\}\}, \quad \mathcal{P}_3 = \{\{a, c\}, \{b\}\},$$

$\mathcal{P}_4 = \{\{c, b\}, \{a\}\}, \quad \mathcal{P}_5 = \{\{a, b, c\}\}$. Each partition produces its own ⑥ equiv. relation.

Problem 6. For a set A , let $C = \{ \pi : \pi \text{ is a partition of } A \}$

Let R be a binary relation on C s.t.

$(\pi_1, \pi_2) \in R$ iff π_1 is a refinement of π_2 , or the same $\pi_1 \leq \pi_2$.

(a) Show that R is a partial order on C .

(b) For $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, let

$\pi_1 = \{ \{1, 2, 3\}, \{4, 5\} \}$; $\pi_2 = \{ \{1, 2\}, \{3, 4\}, \{5\} \}$

$\pi_3 = \{ \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3, 4, 5\} \}$; $\pi_4 = \{ \{1, 2\}, \{3\}, \{4\}, \{5\} \}$.

Draw the Hasse diagram for $(C = \{ \pi_1, \pi_2, \pi_3, \pi_4 \}, R)$.

Solution:

Remainding.

Let π_1 and π_2 be two partitions of A . Then \exists equivalence relations R_1 and R_2 ^{on A} associated with π_1 and π_2 . We say $\pi_1 \leq \pi_2$, if $R_1 \subset R_2$.

(a) - Since $R_1 \subset R_1 \Rightarrow \pi_1 \leq \pi_1$, \forall partition π_1 of $A \Rightarrow (\pi_1, \pi_1) \in R$. Therefore R is reflexive.

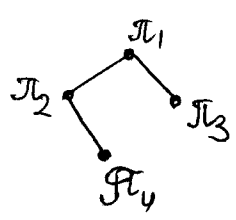
- Let $(\pi_1, \pi_2) \in R$, $(\pi_2, \pi_3) \in R$. Then $R_1 \subset R_2 \subset R_3 \Rightarrow (\pi_1, \pi_3) \in R \Rightarrow R$ is transitive.

- Let $(\pi_1, \pi_2) \in R$ and $(\pi_2, \pi_1) \in R$. Then $R_1 \subset R_2 \subset R_1 \Rightarrow R_1 = R_2 \Rightarrow \pi_1 = \pi_2 \Rightarrow R$ is antisym.

Totally, R is a partial ordering relation on A .

(b) We have

$\pi_2 \leq \pi_1$, $\pi_3 \leq \pi_1$, $\pi_4 \leq \pi_1$, $\pi_4 \leq \pi_2$



HW

Problem 7. Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$. For each of the following values of r , determine an equivalence relation on A with $|R| = r$, or explain why no such relation exists.

(a) $r=6$, (b) $r=7$, (c) $r=8$, (d) $r=9$, (e) $r=11$, (f) $r=23$.