### 2IT80 Discrete Structures

2023-24 Q2

Lecture 4: Orderings



#### Relation

A relation between two sets X and Y is a subset  $R \subseteq X \times Y$  of the Cartesian product.

Important special case: X = Y

We then speak of a relation on X.

This is an arbitrary subset  $R \subseteq X \times X$ .

For  $(x, y) \in R$ :

say: x and y are related by R

write: *xRy* 

### Properties of relations

A relation R on a set X is

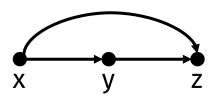
Reflexive, if xRx for all  $x \in X$ 

Irreflexive, if there is no  $x \in X$  with xRx

Symmetric, if xRy implies yRx for all  $x, y \in X$ 

Antisymmetric if, xRy and yRx implies x = y

Transitive, if xRy and yRz implies xRz for all  $x, y, z \in X$ 



### Quiz

Are the following relations reflexive, irreflexive, symmetric, antisymmetric and / or transitive?

On set of students sRt iff student s graduates before student t

On set of integers

$$xRy \text{ iff } x + y = 10$$

# **Ordering Relations**

#### Motivation

Usual ordering  $\leq$  on  $\mathbb{N}$  is a relation.

We would like to order other sets as well ...

Example: apartments have a size s and a monthly rental cost r. Can we order apartments  $A_1 = (s_1, r_1)$  and  $A_2 = (s_2, r_2)$ ?  $A_1$  is better or equal to  $A_2$  if

- it has at least the same size and
- at most the same prize.

What are the crucial properties that make  $\leq$  useful?

## Ordering relation

An ordering relation on a set *X* is a reflexive, antisymmetric, transitive relation on *X*.

A partially ordered set (poset) is a pair (X, R) where X is a set and R is an ordering relation on X.

We often use notation  $\leq$  and  $\leq$ .

A relation R is a linear or total ordering if for every two elements x, y we have xRy or yRx.

Reflexive, if xRx for all  $x \in X$ 

Antisymmetric if, xRy and yRx implies x = y

Transitive, if xRy and yRz implies xRz for all  $x, y, z \in X$ 

### Orderings

#### Linear orderings (or total orderings):

Smaller or equal on natural numbers:  $(\mathbb{N}, \leq)$ 

Lexicographic order of words

Partial orderings: (to emphasize they are not necessarily linear)

 $\Delta = \{ (x, x) \mid x \in X \}; \Delta \text{ is the usual "equal" relation}$ 

Divisors:  $(\mathbb{N}, |)$ , where  $a \mid b$  if and only if a is a divisor of b.

Inclusion of subsets of X:  $(2^X, \subseteq)$ , where  $\subseteq$  is the usual "subset-of" relation

Domination orderings:  $(\mathbb{R}^3, \leq)$  where  $(x_1, x_2, x_3) \leq (y_1, y_2, y_3)$  if and only if  $x_1 \leq y_1$ ,  $x_2 \leq y_2$ , and  $x_3 \leq y_3$ .

The "worse in every respect" relation for multiple criteria

#### Exercise

Come up with a two orderings (one linear ordering and one that is not linear) on the gives set.

Example: on natural numbers we have seen "is smaller or equal too" and "divides"

- 1 Real numbers
- 2 Courses (at the university)
- 3 People (all people currently on the planet)

## Orderings

Given an ordering  $\leq$ , we can derive the following relations Strict inequality:  $\prec$  as  $a \prec b$  if and only if  $a \leq b$  and  $a \neq b$ Reverse ordering:  $\geq$  as  $a \geq b$  if and only if  $b \leq a$ 

#### **Examples:**

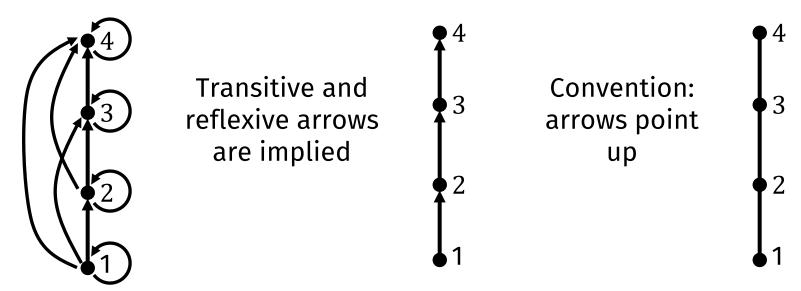
 $(\mathbb{N}, \leq)$ ,  $(\mathbb{R}, \leq)$  where  $\leq$  is the usual ordering. The corresponding strict ordering is the usual ordering <. The reverse ordering is  $\geq$ .

# Drawing as a relation

Elements are drawn as points

Arrows indicate relation a → b iff aRb

Example  $\leq$  on  $\{1,2,3,4\}$ 



A lot of excessive arrows if we know it is an ordering ....

## Representing orderings

Let  $(X, \leq)$  be a poset

An element  $x \in X$  is an immediate predecessor of element  $y \in X$  iff

- $\blacksquare x \prec y$  and
- there is no  $t \in X$  with x < t < y.

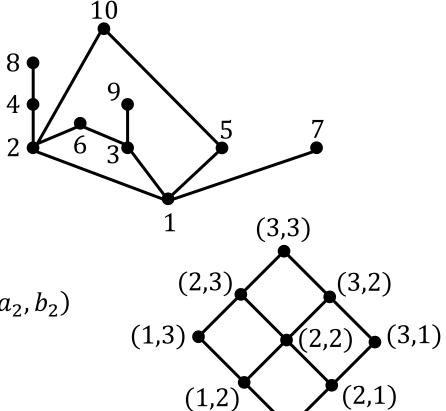
Write  $x \triangleleft y$  if x is the immediate predecessor of y

Theorem: Let  $(X, \leq)$  be a finite poset and let  $\lhd$  be the corresponding "immediate predecessor" relation. Then for any  $x, y \in X$ , x < y holds if and only if there is a chain of elements  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_k \in X$  such that  $x \lhd x_1 \lhd \cdots \lhd x_k \lhd y$  (possibly k = 0, i.e.,  $x \lhd y$ ).

**Proof:** In book!

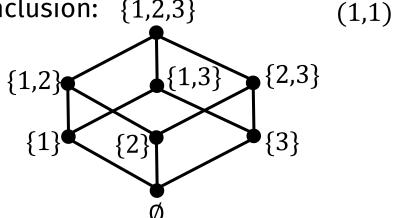
# Hasse diagrams

Divisibility relation: ({1,2, ..., 10}, |):



Set  $\{1,2,3\} \times \{1,2,3\}$  where  $(a_1,b_1) \leq (a_2,b_2)$  if and only if  $a_1 \leq a_2$  and  $b_1 \leq b_2$ :

Subsets of {1,2,3} ordered by inclusion: {1,2,3}



# Orderings and Linear Orderings

# Linear ordering

Every linear ordering is also a (partial) ordering.

The converse statement is false: divisibility in  $\mathbb{N}$ 

Theorem: Let  $(X, \leq)$  be a finite partially ordered set. Then there exists a linear ordering  $\leq$  of X such that  $x \leq y$  implies  $x \leq y$ .

This means: each partial ordering can be extended to a linear ordering: linear extension

Need some more concepts for the proof ...

#### Minimal element

Let  $(X, \leq)$  be an ordered set. An element  $a \in X$  is called a minimal element of  $(X, \leq)$  if there is no  $x \in X$  such that x < a.

A maximal element a is defined analogously (there is no x > a).

Theorem: Every finite partially ordered set  $(X, \leq)$ , with  $|X| \geq 1$ , has at least one minimal element.

#### Does not hold for infinite sets!

Example:  $(\mathbb{Z}, \leq)$ , the integers with the usual ordering: no minimal element.

#### Smallest element

Let  $(X, \leq)$  be an ordered set. An element  $a \in X$  is called a smallest element of  $(X, \leq)$  if for every  $x \in X$  we have  $a \leq x$ .

A largest element is defined analogously.

Smallest/largest elements are sometimes called minimum/maximum element.

Beware: minimal  $\neq$  smallest, maximal  $\neq$  largest!

#### Existence of minimal elements

Theorem: Every finite partially ordered set  $(X, \leq)$ , with  $|X| \geq 1$ , has at least one minimal element.

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Intuition: Choose x_0 \in X arbitrarily.
If x_0 is minimal, we are done.
Otherwise, there exists some x_1 < x_0.
If x_1 is minimal, we are done.
Otherwise, there exists some x_2 < x_1
After finitely many steps we arrive at a minimal element.
Otherwise X would have infinitely many elements x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots
```

### Alternative proof

Theorem: Every finite partially ordered set  $(X, \leq)$ , with  $|X| \geq 1$ , has at least one minimal element.

#### **Proof:**

Choose  $x \in X$  such that  $L_x = \{ y : y \le x \}$  is the smallest over all elements in X.

We prove that  $|L_x| \leq 1$  by contradiction.

Assume  $|L_{\chi}| > 1$ .

Then  $y \in L_x$  with  $x \neq y$  exists and  $|L_y| < |L_x|$  since  $L_y \subset L_x$ This contradicts the choice of x, so  $|L_x| \leq 1$ 



Also  $|L_x| \ge 1$ , since  $x \in |L_x|$ So x is a minimal element.

#### Linear extensions

Theorem: Let  $(X, \leq)$  be a finite partially ordered set. Then there exists a linear ordering  $\leq$  of X such that  $x \leq y$  implies  $x \leq y$ . Proof: Proof by induction on n = |X|.

Base case: n = 0: The empty ordering is linear.

#### Linear extensions

Theorem: Let  $(X, \leq)$  be a finite partially ordered set. Then there exists a linear ordering  $\leq$  of X such that  $x \leq y$  implies  $x \leq y$ .

Proof: Inductive step: Let  $k \ge 0$ 

IH: For any set  $(X', \leq')$  with  $0 \leq |X'| \leq k$  there exists a linear ordering  $(X', \leq')$  such that  $x \leq' y$  implies  $x \leq' y$  for all  $x, y \in X'$ .

Consider an partially ordered set  $(X, \leq)$  with |X| = k + 1.

Let  $x_0 \in X$  be a minimal element in  $(X, \leq)$ 

Set  $X' = X \setminus \{x_0\}$ , and let  $\leq'$  be the relation  $\leq$  restricted to the set X'.  $(X', \leq')$  is an ordered set with |X'| = k

By IH linear ordering  $(X', \le')$  exists such that  $x \le' y$  implies  $x \le' y$ We define relation  $\le$  on X as follows:

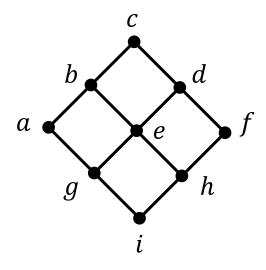
$$x_0 \le y$$
 for each  $y \in X$ ;  $x \le y$  whenever  $x \le' y$ .

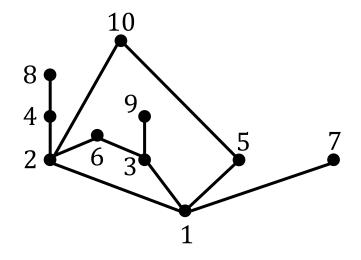
To prove:  $x \leq y$  implies  $x \leq y$ .

To prove:  $\leq$  is a linear ordering.

#### Lets make some linear extensions

Given the ordering defined by the Hasse diagram below. Give a linear extension of the ordering.

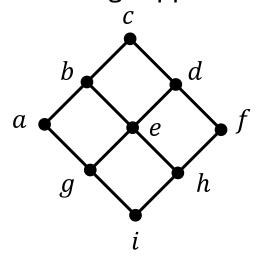


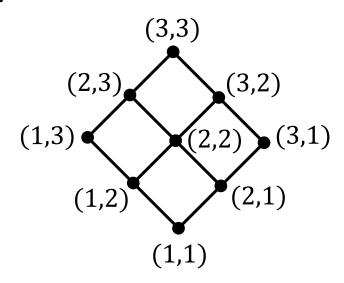


# Ordering by Inclusion

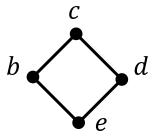
# Relating orderings

Some orderings appear to be similar.





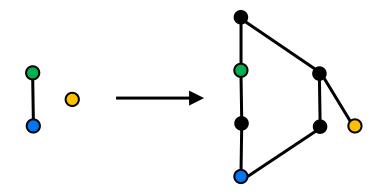
Or one is an extended version of another.



## **Embedding**

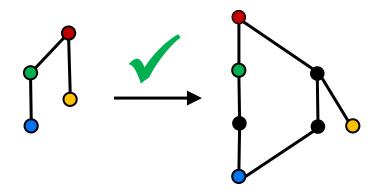
Let  $(X, \leq)$  and  $(X', \leq')$  be ordered sets. A mapping  $f: X \to X'$  is called an embedding of  $(X, \leq)$  into  $(X', \leq')$  if the following conditions hold: (i) f is injective;

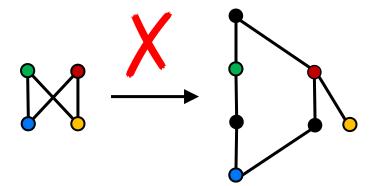
(ii)  $f(x) \le' f(y)$  if and only if  $x \le y$ .



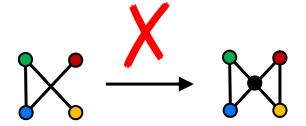
If an embedding is surjective, then it is an isomorphism.

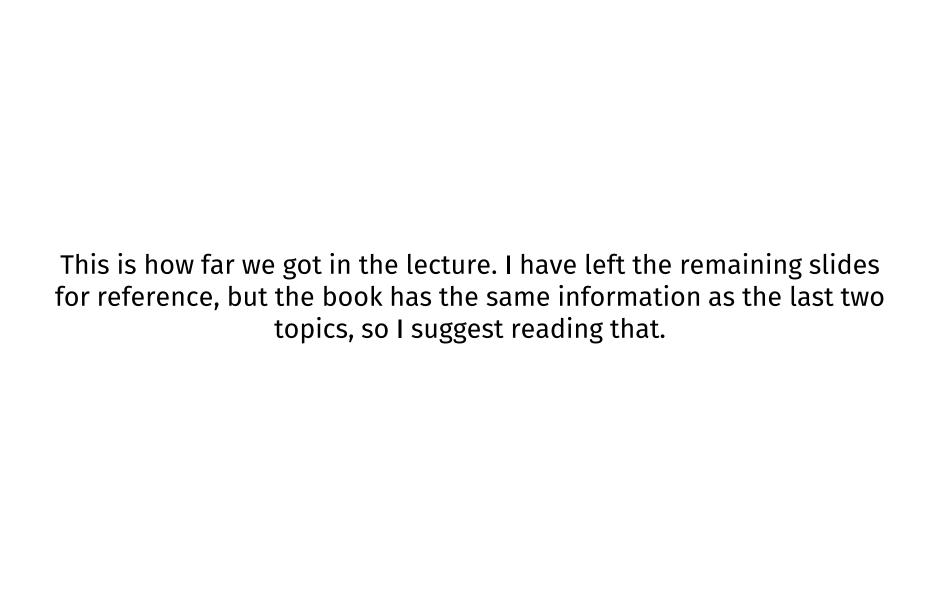
# **Embeddings**











## Ordering by Inclusion

Theorem: For every ordered set  $(X, \leq)$  there exists an embedding into the ordered set  $(2^X, \subseteq)$ .

Proof (sketch): Define  $f: X \to 2^X$  by  $f(x) = \{a \in X : a \le x\}$ . Remains to check: f is an embedding.

1. f is injective: Assume f(x) = f(y).

$$x \in f(x) = f(y) \Rightarrow x \le y$$
  
 $y \in f(y) = f(x) \Rightarrow y \le x$   $\Rightarrow x = y \text{ (anti-symmetry)}$ 

2. Show: if  $x \le y$ , then  $f(x) \subseteq f(y)$ .

Let 
$$x \leq y$$
.

If  $z \in f(x)$ , then  $z \le x$ . By transitivity  $z \le y$ .

But then  $z \in f(y)$ .

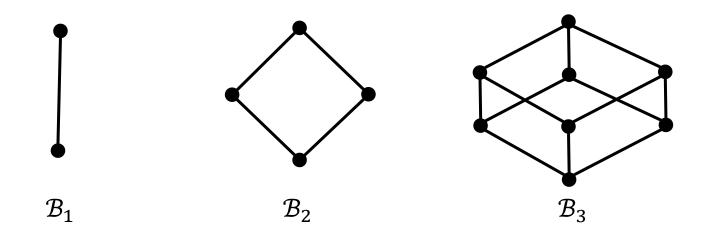
3. Show: if  $f(x) \subseteq f(y)$ , then  $x \le y$ . If  $f(x) \subseteq f(y)$ , then  $x \in f(y)$ . Hence  $x \le y$ .

#### Remarks

"Order by inclusion" holds for infinite sets as well.

The ordered sets  $(2^X, \subseteq)$  are universal: they contain a copy of every ordered set

For  $X = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  the set  $(2^X, \subseteq)$  is often denoted by  $\mathcal{B}_n$ .



Boolean lattice, n-dimensional cube ...

# Large Implies Tall or Wide

Theorem: An arbitrary sequence  $(x_1, ..., x_{n^2+1})$  of real numbers contains a monotone subsequence of length n+1.

Subsequence is determined by indices  $i_1, i_2, ..., i_m, i_1 < i_2 < \cdots < i_m$ . It has the form  $(x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}, ..., x_{i_m})$ .

A subsequence is monotone if either

$$\begin{aligned} &x_{i_1} \leq x_{i_2} \leq \cdots \leq x_{i_m}, \text{ or } \\ &x_{i_1} \geq x_{i_2} \geq \cdots \geq x_{i_m}. \end{aligned}$$

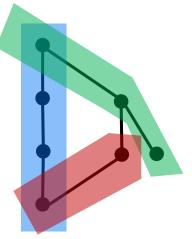
$$(3,5,6,2,8,1,4,7)$$
  
(with  $i_1 = 1$ ,  $i_2 = 2$ ,  $i_3 = 3$ ,  $i_4 = 5$ )

### Comparability and chains

Let  $P = (X, \leq)$  be a poset.

Elements x, y are called comparable if either  $x \le y$  or  $y \le x$ Incomparable if neither  $x \le y$  nor  $y \le x$ 

A set  $A \subseteq X$  is called a chain in P if every two of its elements are comparable (in P).

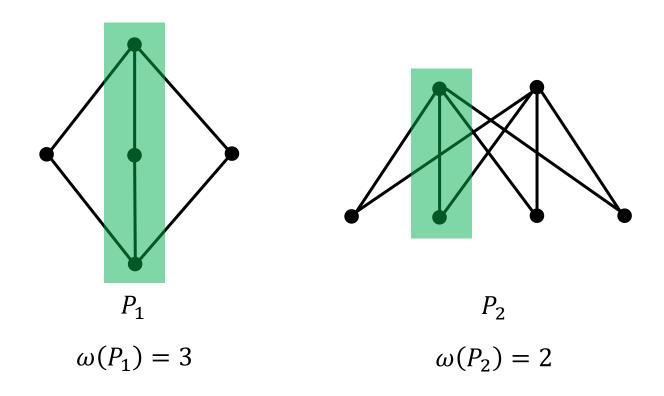


### Maximum chains

We use

$$\omega(P) = \max\{|A| : A \text{ chain in } P\}$$

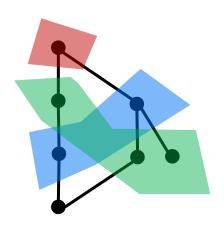
to denote the maximum size of a chain in P.



### Independence

A set  $A \subseteq X$  is called independent in P if any two of its elements are incomparable.

Independent sets are also called antichains



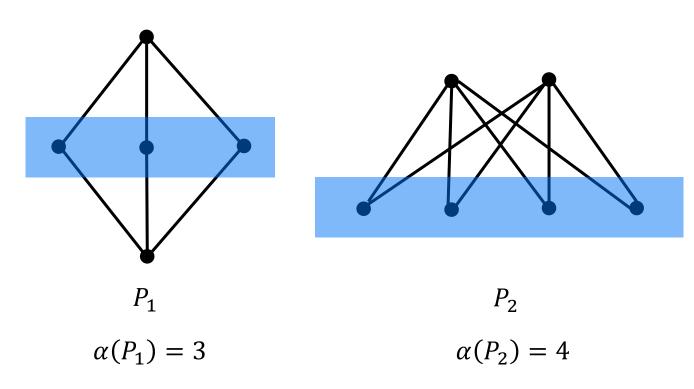
Observation: The set of all minimal elements in *P* is independent.

### Maximum independent sets

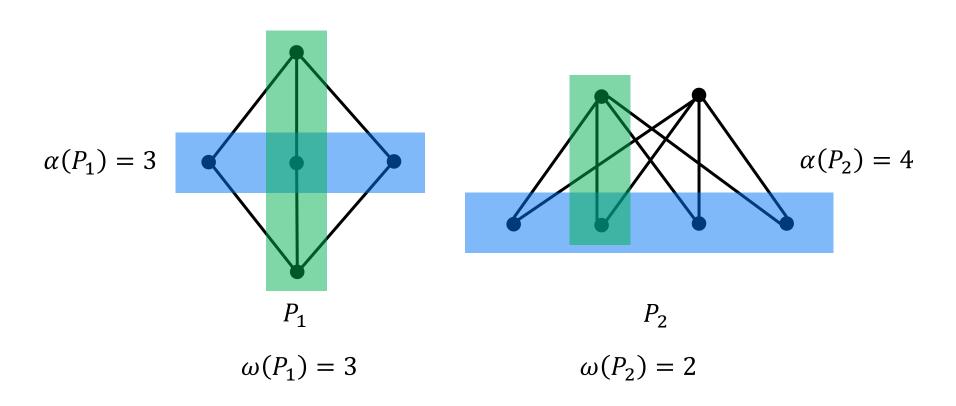
We use

$$\alpha(P) = \max\{|A| : A \text{ independent in } P\}$$

to denote the maximum size of an independent set in P



### Maximum chains and antichains



Intuition:  $\omega(P)$  measures "height"  $\alpha(P)$  measures "width"

Claim: A large poset cannot have low height and low width, i.e.,  $\alpha(P) \cdot \omega(P) \ge |X|$ .

#### Either tall or wide ...

Theorem: For every finite ordered set  $P = (X, \leq)$  we have  $\alpha(P) \cdot \omega(P) \geq |X|$ .

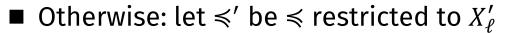
Proof: Define sets  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_t$  inductively:

 $X_1$ : all minimal elements of P

Inductive step:  $X_1, ..., X_\ell$  already defined:

$$\blacksquare X'_{\ell} = X \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^{\ell} X_i$$

■ if  $X'_{\ell} = \emptyset$ , then put  $t = \ell$ , construction finished

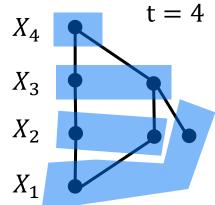


■  $X_{\ell+1}$ : all minimal elements of  $(X'_{\ell}, \leq')$ 



(2) Each  $X_i$  is an independent set in P

(3) 
$$\omega(P) \geq t$$



 $X_{\ell+1} \neq \emptyset$  since  $X_{\ell}$ , is finite

#### Either tall or wide ...

Claims: (1)  $X_1, ..., X_t$  form a partition of X

- (2) Each  $X_i$  is an independent set in P
- (3)  $\omega(P) \geq t$

Together these claims finish the proof:

(1) 
$$\Rightarrow$$
  $|X| = \sum_{i=1}^{t} |X_i| \le \sum_{i=1}^{t} \alpha(P) = t \cdot \alpha(P) \le \omega(P) \cdot \alpha(P)$ 

(1), (2) follow by construction of  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_t$  and the observation that minimal elements are independent

Remains to prove claim (3).

#### Either tall or wide ...

Claim:  $\omega(P) \ge t$ 

Idea: Inductively construct a chain of length t to prove the claim

Choose  $x_t \in X_t$  arbitrarily

 $x_t \notin X_{t-1} \Rightarrow \text{there exists } x_{t-1} \in X_{t-1} \text{ so that } x_{t-1} < x_t.$ 

Repeat this argument:

- Have constructed  $x_t \in X_t, x_{t-1} \in X_{t-1}, ..., x_{k+1} \in X_{k+1}$
- Then  $x_{k+1} \notin X_k \Rightarrow$  there exists  $x_k \in X_k$  with  $x_k < x_{k+1}$

The set  $\{x_1, ..., x_t\}$  constructed this way is a chain.

Therefore  $\omega(P) \geq t$ .

Theorem: An arbitrary sequence  $(x_1, ..., x_{n^2+1})$  of real numbers contains a monotone subsequence of length n+1.

Subsequence is determined by indices  $i_1, i_2, ..., i_m, i_1 < i_2 < \cdots < i_m$ . It has the form  $(x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}, ..., x_{i_m})$ .

A subsequence is monotone if either

$$x_{i_1} \le x_{i_2} \le \cdots \le x_{i_m}$$
, or  $x_{i_1} \ge x_{i_2} \ge \cdots \ge x_{i_m}$ .

(3,5,6,2,8,1,4,7)

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$$(3,5,6,2,8,1,4,7)$$
  
(with  $i_1 = 1$ ,  $i_2 = 2$ ,  $i_3 = 3$ ,  $i_4 = 5$ )

Theorem: An arbitrary sequence  $(x_1, ..., x_{n^2+1})$  of real numbers contains a monotone subsequence of length n+1.

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$$(3,5,6,2,8,1,4,7)$$
 (with  $i_1 = 3, i_2 = 4, i_3 = 6$ )

Theorem: An arbitrary sequence  $(x_1, ..., x_{n^2+1})$  of real numbers contains a monotone subsequence of length n+1.

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Proof: Let a sequence (x_1, ..., x_{n^2+1}) be given.
Let X = \{1, 2, ..., n^2 + 1\}. Define a relation \leq on X by
i \leq j if and only if both i \leq j and x_i \leq x_j.
\leq is a partial ordering of X
It is \alpha(X, \leq) \cdot \omega(X, \leq) \geq n^2 + 1; therefore \alpha(X, \leq) > n or \omega(X, \leq) > n.
Chain i_1 < i_2 < \cdots < i_m in \leq corresponds to non-decreasing
subsequence x_{i_1} \le x_{i_2} \le \cdots \le x_{i_m} (note i_1 < i_2 < \cdots < i_m)
Independent set \{i_1, i_2, ..., i_m\} corresponds to decreasing
subsequence: Choose numbering so that i_1 < i_2 < \cdots < i_m,
then x_{i_1} > x_{i_2} > \cdots > x_{i_m}.
by contradiction: x_{i_1} \le x_{i_2} and i_1 < i_2 would mean i_1 < i_2.
```

### Organizational

- □ Practice set:
  - Exercises 2,3 for Discussion group (you can decide differently with your group)
- In-class test A1
  - Do the SEB test
  - Be on time
  - Any questions can go in slack