

# Lecture 7: Partial Order and Lattices

Xiaoxing Ma

Nanjing University

[xxm@nju.edu.cn](mailto:xxm@nju.edu.cn)

November 13, 2017

Acknowledgement: These Beamer slides are totally based on the textbook *Discrete Mathematical Structures*, by B. Kolman, R. C. Busby and S. C. Ross, and Prof. Daoxu Chen's PowerPoint slides.

# At the Last Class

## ① Basics of Functions

- Function as a class of special relations
- Types of functions
- Function and comparison of set size

## ② Functions and Computer Science

- Commonly used functions in computer applications
- Growth of functions
- Permutation: bijection on one set

# Overview

## 1 Partial Order

- Order relations and Hasse Diagrams
- Extremal elements in partially ordered sets

## 2 Lattices

- Lattices as a mathematical structure
- Isomorphic lattices
- Properties of lattices

# Partial Order

## Definition

A relation  $R$  on a set  $A$  is called a **Partial Order** if  $R$  is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive.

- Generalization of “less than or equal to”
- Denotation:  $\preceq$
- Example 1: set containment  
Note: not any two of sets are “comparable”
- Example 2: divisibility on  $\mathbb{Z}^+$

# Partially Ordered Set

## Definition

A **partially ordered set (poset)** is a set with a partial order defined on it.

- Denotation:  $(A, \preceq)$
- Examples
  - $(\mathbb{Z}, \leq)$  or  $(\mathbb{Z}, \geq)$
  - $(\mathbb{Z}^+, |)$
  - $(2^A, \subseteq)$

# Product Partial Order

Given two posets  $(A, \preceq_A)$  and  $(B, \preceq_B)$ , we can define a new partial order  $\preceq$  on  $A \times B$ :

$$(a, b) \preceq (a', b') \text{ iff. } a \preceq_A a' \text{ in } A \text{ and } b \preceq_B b' \text{ in } B$$

It is easy to prove that  $(A \times B, \preceq)$  is a poset.

# Product Partial Order

Given two posets  $(A, \preceq_A)$  and  $(B, \preceq_B)$ , we can define a new partial order  $\preceq$  on  $A \times B$ :

$$(a, b) \preceq (a', b') \text{ iff. } a \preceq_A a' \text{ in } A \text{ and } b \preceq_B b' \text{ in } B$$

It is easy to prove that  $(A \times B, \preceq)$  is a poset.

Lexicographic order, as simplified: Given a partial order on a alphabet  $A$ , then  $\preceq$  is a simplified “dictionary” order:

$$(a, b) \preceq (a', b') \text{ iff. } (a \preceq a' \text{ and } a \neq a') \text{ or } (a = a' \text{ and } b \preceq b')$$

# Product Partial Order

Given two posets  $(A, \preceq_A)$  and  $(B, \preceq_B)$ , we can define a new partial order  $\preceq$  on  $A \times B$ :

$$(a, b) \preceq (a', b') \text{ iff. } a \preceq_A a' \text{ in } A \text{ and } b \preceq_B b' \text{ in } B$$

It is easy to prove that  $(A \times B, \preceq)$  is a poset.

Lexicographic order, as simplified: Given a partial order on a alphabet  $A$ , then  $\preceq$  is a simplified “dictionary” order:

$$(a, b) \preceq (a', b') \text{ iff. } (a \preceq a' \text{ and } a \neq a') \text{ or } (a = a' \text{ and } b \preceq b')$$

$a \preceq a'$  and  $a \neq a'$  is often denoted as  $a \prec a'$ .



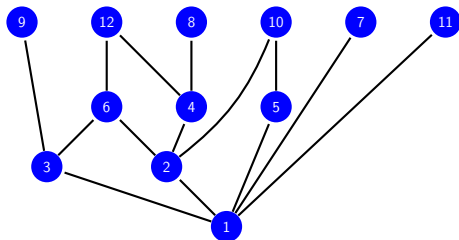
# Hasse Diagrams

Partial order can be represented by common relation diagram.

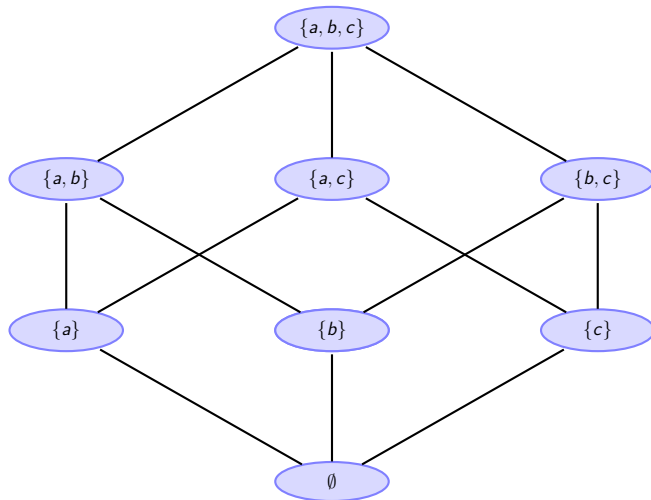
However, the special properties of partial order can be used to simplifying the diagram.

- Reflexivity: ring everywhere, so no need
- Antisymmetric: no cycle, location dependent
- Transitivity: there is a path, there is a edge

Divisibility on  $\{1, 2, \dots, 12\}$



# Containment on $P(\{a, b, c\})$



# Isomorphism

## Definition

Let  $(A, \preceq)$  and  $(A', \preceq')$  be posets and let  $f : A \rightarrow A'$  be a one-to-one correspondence between  $A$  and  $A'$ . The function  $f$  is called an **isomorphism** from  $(A, \preceq)$  to  $(A', \preceq')$  if for any  $a$  and  $b$  in  $A$ ,  $a \preceq b$  iff.  $f(a) \preceq' f(b)$ . The two posets are called isomorphic posets.

## Example

$\mathbb{Z}^+$  and the set of positive even number are isomorphic under “ $\leq$ ”.

Principle of Correspondence.

# Maximal and Minimal Elements

## Definition

An element  $a \in A$  is called a **maximal element** of  $A$  if there is no element  $c \in A$  such that  $a \prec c$ .

## Definition

An element  $b \in A$  is called a **minimal element** of  $A$  if there is no element  $c \in A$  such that  $c \prec b$ .

# Existence of Maximal/Minimal Elements

## Theorem

*Given a poset  $(A, \preceq)$ , if  $A$  is finite, then there is at least one maximal element and at least one minimal element.*

# Existence of Maximal/Minimal Elements

## Theorem

*Given a poset  $(A, \preceq)$ , if  $A$  is finite, then there is at least one maximal element and at least one minimal element.*

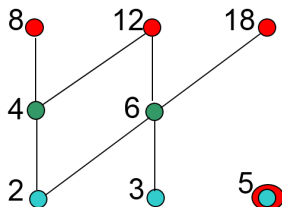
## Proof.

Let  $a$  be any element of  $A$ . If  $a$  is not maximal, there must be some  $a_1$ , such that  $a \preceq a_1$ . If  $a_1$  is not maximal either, there must be some  $a_2$ , such that  $a_1 \preceq a_2$ . Since  $A$  is finite, we can't continue this procedure indefinitely, and find some  $a_k$ , which is maximal. Same for the minimal element. □

# Examples of Maximal/Minimal Elements

Divisibility on  $\{2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 12, 18\}$

- Maximal elements: 5, 8, 12, 18
- Minimal elements: 2, 3, 5



● Maximal

● Minimal

Note: 5 is maximal and minimal

# Greatest and Least Elements

## Definition

An element  $a \in A$  is called a **greatest element** of  $A$  if  $x \preceq a$  for all  $x \in A$ .

## Definition

An element  $a \in A$  is called a **least element** of  $A$  if  $a \preceq x$  for all  $x \in A$ .



# Examples of Greatest and Least Elements

- Containment on  $P(\{a, b, c\})$ 
  - Greatest element:  $\{a, b, c\}$
  - Least element:  $\emptyset$
- Divisibility on  $\{2, 3, 4, 6, 12\}$ 
  - Greatest element: 12
  - Least element: none (Note: there are two minimal elements: 2 and 3)

# Uniqueness of Largest Element

## Theorem

*A poset has at most one greatest element.*

# Uniqueness of Largest Element

## Theorem

*A poset has at most one greatest element.*

## Proof.

Suppose that there are two greatest elements,  $a$  and  $b$ . By the definition of the greatest elements, we have  $a \preceq b$ , and  $b \preceq a$ . So,  $a = b$ , by the antisymmetry property. □

# Uniqueness of Largest Element

## Theorem

*A poset has at most one greatest element.*

## Proof.

Suppose that there are two greatest elements,  $a$  and  $b$ . By the definition of the greatest elements, we have  $a \preceq b$ , and  $b \preceq a$ . So,  $a = b$ , by the antisymmetry property. □

It is same for the least element.

# Bounds of Subsets of Poset

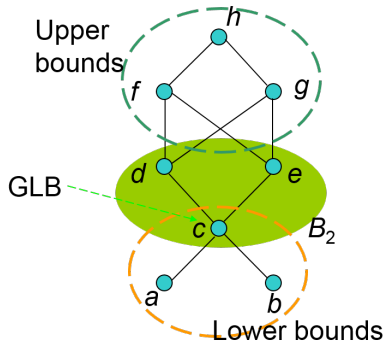
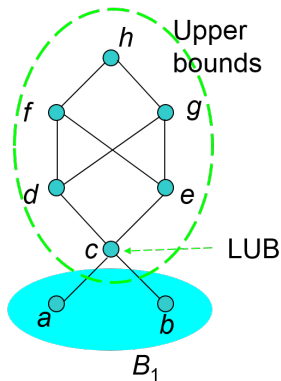
## Definition

Given a poset  $A$  and its subset  $B$ , an element  $a \in A$  is called an **upper bound** of  $B$  if  $b \preceq a$  for all  $b \in B$ .

For a given subset  $B$ , upper bound may not exist. On the other hand, there may be more than one upper bound. The least element (if existing) of the poset consisting of all upper bounds of  $B$  is called the **least upper bound (LUB)**.

**Lower Bound** and **Greatest Lower Bound** can be defined similarly.

# Example of Bounds



# Linear Ordering and Well-Ordering

$(A, \preceq)$  is a poset.

- **Linear-ordering** – any two element of  $A$  are comparable. Also called **total order**, or **simple order**.
- **Well-ordering** – every nonempty subset of  $A$  has a least element.
- If every nonempty subset of  $A$  has a least element, then any two elements of  $A$  are comparable.
- If any two elements of  $A$  are comparable, can it be implied that every nonempty subset of  $A$  has a least element?

# Linear Ordering and Well-Ordering

$(A, \preceq)$  is a poset.

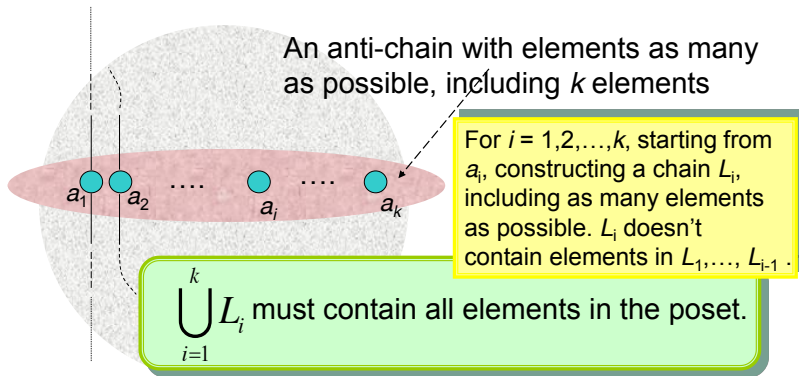
- **Linear-ordering** – any two element of  $A$  are comparable. Also called **total order**, or **simple order**.
- **Well-ordering** – every nonempty subset of  $A$  has a least element.
- If every nonempty subset of  $A$  has a least element, then any two elements of  $A$  are comparable.
- If any two elements of  $A$  are comparable, can it be implied that every nonempty subset of  $A$  has a least element?  
No, for some infinite  $A$ .



# Chain and Anti-Chain

## Definition

A **chain** is a totally ordered subset of a poset  $S$ ; an **anti-chain** is a subset of a poset  $S$  in which any two distinct elements are incomparable.



# Order in Disorder

## Theorem

*In any permutation of natural numbers  $1, 2, 3, \dots, n^2 + 1$ , there must be a strictly increasing or decreasing sequence with length not less than  $n + 1$ .*

# Order in Disorder

## Theorem

*In any permutation of natural numbers  $1, 2, 3, \dots, n^2 + 1$ , there must be a strictly increasing or decreasing sequence with length not less than  $n + 1$ .*

## Proof.

Given a permutation, labeling each number using a pair  $(p, q)$ , where  $p$  is the length of the largest increasing sequence ending at the number, and  $q$  is the length of the largest decreasing sequence ending at the number. Note, each number has a unique label (Why?). If  $p$  and  $q$  are both not larger than  $n$ , there are only  $n^2$  possible label value. □

# Order in Disorder

## Theorem

*In any permutation of natural numbers  $1, 2, 3, \dots, n^2 + 1$ , there must be a strictly increasing or decreasing sequence with length not less than  $n + 1$ .*

## The model of partial order:

Set:  $A = \{\langle i, v_i \rangle \mid i = 1, 2, \dots, n^2 + 1, \text{ each } v_i \text{ has an unique value in } 1, 2, \dots, n^2 + 1\}$

Two partial orderings:

$R_1: \langle i, v_i \rangle R_1 \langle j, v_j \rangle$  iff.  $i < j$  and  $v_i < v_j$

$R_2: \langle i, v_i \rangle R_2 \langle j, v_j \rangle$  iff.  $i < j$  and  $v_i > v_j$

Problem: Prove that there must a subset of  $A$  with no less than  $n + 1$  elements, which is a chain of  $R_1$  or  $R_2$ .

Note: a chain of  $R_1$  is a anti-chain of  $R_2$ , and vice versa.

## Definition

$(L, \preceq)$  is called a lattice if

- $(L, \preceq)$  is a poset.
- For any  $x, y \in L$ ,  $\{x, y\}$  has a LUB, which is denoted as  $x \vee y$  (join).
- For any  $x, y \in L$ ,  $\{x, y\}$  has a GLB, which is denoted as  $x \wedge y$  (meet).

## Definition

$(L, \preceq)$  is called a lattice if

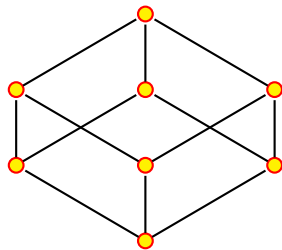
- $(L, \preceq)$  is a poset.
- For any  $x, y \in L$ ,  $\{x, y\}$  has a LUB, which is denoted as  $x \vee y$  (join).
- For any  $x, y \in L$ ,  $\{x, y\}$  has a GLB, which is denoted as  $x \wedge y$  (meet).

## Example

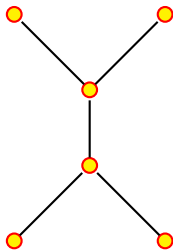
- For  $(\{1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12, 16, 24, 48\}, |)$ :  $x \wedge y = \gcd(x, y)$ ,  
 $x \vee y = \text{lcm}(x, y)$ ;
- For  $(P(B), \subseteq)$ :  $x \wedge y = x \cap y$ ,  $x \vee y = x \cup y$
- For  $(\mathbb{Z}, \leq)$ :  $x \wedge y = \min\{x, y\}$ ,  $x \vee y = \max\{x, y\}$

# Lattice and Hasse Diagram

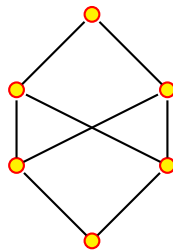
The posets represented by the two Hasse diagram on the right are not lattices.



Yes



No



No

# Basic Formula about Lattices

By the definitions of LUB and GLB, it is easy to prove that:

- $a \preceq a \vee b, b \preceq a \vee b$
- If  $a \preceq c, b \preceq c$ , then  $a \vee b \preceq c$
- $a \wedge b \preceq a, a \wedge b \preceq b$
- If  $c \preceq a, c \preceq b$ , then  $c \preceq a \wedge b$



# Algebraic Properties of Lattice

**Idempotence**  $a \vee a = a \wedge a = a$

**commutativity**  $a \vee b = b \vee a; a \wedge b = b \wedge a$

**Associativity**  $a \vee (b \vee c) = (a \vee b) \vee c;$

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

**Absorption**  $a \vee (a \wedge b) = a; a \wedge (a \vee b) = a$

# More Properties of Lattices

Let  $L$  be a lattice,  $\forall a, b, c, d \in L$ , If  $a \preceq b$ ,  $c \preceq d$ , then  $a \wedge c \preceq b \wedge d$ ,  $a \vee c \preceq b \vee d$

- $\because a \wedge c \preceq a \preceq b$ ,  $a \wedge c \preceq c \preceq d$ , then  $a \wedge c$  is one lower bound of  $\{b, d\}$ ,  $\therefore a \wedge c \preceq b \wedge d$ ;
- $\because a \preceq b \preceq b \vee d$ ,  $c \preceq d \preceq b \vee d$ , so,  $b \vee d$  is one of the upper bound of  $\{a, c\}$ ,  $\therefore a \vee c \preceq b \vee d$

# More Properties of Lattice

## Theorem (Distributive Inequality)

$$\forall a, b, c \in L, a \vee (b \wedge c) \preceq (a \vee b) \wedge (a \vee c)$$

# More Properties of Lattice

## Theorem (Distributive Inequality)

$$\forall a, b, c \in L, a \vee (b \wedge c) \preceq (a \vee b) \wedge (a \vee c)$$

### Proof.

Since  $a \preceq a$  and  $b \wedge c \preceq b$ , we have  $a \vee (b \wedge c) \preceq (a \vee b)$ , on the other hand, since  $a \preceq a$  and  $b \wedge c \preceq c$ , we have  $a \vee (b \wedge c) \preceq (a \vee c)$ , i.e.  $a \vee (b \wedge c)$  is a lower bound of  $\{(a \vee b), (a \vee c)\}$ , so  $a \vee (b \wedge c) \preceq (a \vee b) \wedge (a \vee c)$ . □

# More Properties of Lattice

## Theorem (Distributive Inequality)

$$\forall a, b, c \in L, a \vee (b \wedge c) \preceq (a \vee b) \wedge (a \vee c)$$

### Proof.

Since  $a \preceq a$  and  $b \wedge c \preceq b$ , we have  $a \vee (b \wedge c) \preceq (a \vee b)$ , on the other hand, since  $a \preceq a$  and  $b \wedge c \preceq c$ , we have  $a \vee (b \wedge c) \preceq (a \vee c)$ , i.e.  $a \vee (b \wedge c)$  is a lower bound of  $\{(a \vee b), (a \vee c)\}$ , so  $a \vee (b \wedge c) \preceq (a \vee b) \wedge (a \vee c)$ . □

Similarly, it is easy to prove that:

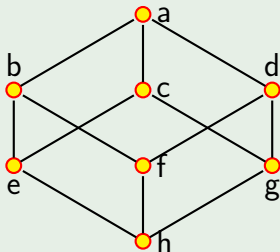
$$(a \wedge b) \vee (a \wedge c) \preceq a \wedge (b \vee c)$$

# Sublattice

## Definition

Let  $(L, \wedge, \vee)$  is a lattice,  $S$  is a nonempty subset of  $L$ . If  $S$  is close under the operations  $\wedge$  and  $\vee$ , then  $S$  is a **sublattice** of  $L$ .

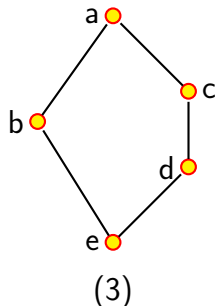
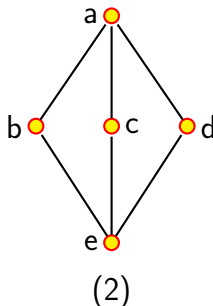
## Example



Let  $S_1 = \{a, b, d, h\}$ ;  $S_2 = \{a, b, d, f\}$ , Then  $S_2$  is a sublattice, but  $S_1$  is not ( $b \wedge d \notin S_1$ ).

# Several Special Lattice

- 1 Chain
- 2 Diamond lattice. Note:  $b \vee (c \wedge a) = (b \vee c) \wedge a = a$
- 3 Pentagon lattice. Note:  
 $c \vee (b \wedge d) = c \vee e = c \neq (c \vee b) \wedge d = a \wedge d = d$



# Distributive Lattice

## Definition

$L$  is a lattice, if for all  $a, b, c \in L$ ,  $a \wedge (b \vee c) = (a \wedge b) \vee (a \wedge c)$ , then  $L$  is called a **distributive lattice**.

Note:  $a \wedge (b \vee c) = (a \wedge b) \vee (a \wedge c)$  iff.  
 $a \vee (b \wedge c) = (a \vee b) \wedge (a \vee c)$



# Distributive Lattice

## Definition

$L$  is a lattice, if for all  $a, b, c \in L$ ,  $a \wedge (b \vee c) = (a \wedge b) \vee (a \wedge c)$ , then  $L$  is called a **distributive lattice**.

Note:  $a \wedge (b \vee c) = (a \wedge b) \vee (a \wedge c)$  iff.  
 $a \vee (b \wedge c) = (a \vee b) \wedge (a \vee c)$

## Example

Diamond (2) and pentagon (3) are not distributive lattices.

- In (2),  $b \wedge (c \vee d) = b$ , but  $(b \wedge c) \vee (b \wedge d) = e$ .
- In (3),  $d \vee (b \wedge c) = d$ , but  $(d \vee b) \wedge (d \vee c) = c$

# Distributive Lattice

## Definition

$L$  is a lattice, if for all  $a, b, c \in L$ ,  $a \wedge (b \vee c) = (a \wedge b) \vee (a \wedge c)$ , then  $L$  is called a **distributive lattice**.

Note:  $a \wedge (b \vee c) = (a \wedge b) \vee (a \wedge c)$  iff.  
 $a \vee (b \wedge c) = (a \vee b) \wedge (a \vee c)$

## Example

Diamond (2) and pentagon (3) are not distributive lattices.

- In (2),  $b \wedge (c \vee d) = b$ , but  $(b \wedge c) \vee (b \wedge d) = e$ .
- In (3),  $d \vee (b \wedge c) = d$ , but  $(d \vee b) \wedge (d \vee c) = c$

## Characteristics of Distributive Lattices

Lattice  $L$  is a distributive lattice if and only if it does not contain sublattice isomorphic to diamond lattice or pentagon lattice.

# Bounded Lattice

A lattice  $L$  is bounded if  $L$  has both a greatest element  $\mathbf{1}$  and a least element  $\mathbf{0}$ .

- Finite lattice is bounded lattice
  - $\mathbf{1}$  is  $a_1 \vee a_2 \vee \cdots \vee a_n$
  - $\mathbf{0}$  is  $a_1 \wedge a_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge a_n$
- If  $L$  is a bounded lattice, then for all  $x$  in  $L$ 
  - $\mathbf{1} \wedge x = x$ ;  $\mathbf{1} \vee x = \mathbf{1}$
  - $\mathbf{0} \wedge x = \mathbf{0}$ ;  $\mathbf{0} \vee x = x$

# Complement

## Definition

Let  $L$  is a bounded lattice. For any given element  $a$  in  $L$ , if there exists some  $b$  in  $L$ , such that  $a \vee b = \mathbf{1}$  and  $a \wedge b = \mathbf{0}$ , then  $b$  is called the **complement** of  $a$ .

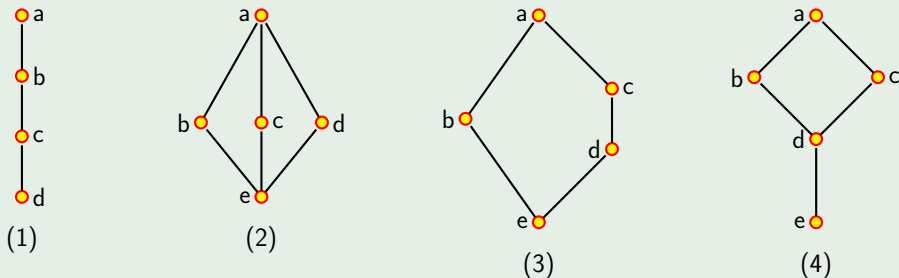
Note:  $\mathbf{0}$  and  $\mathbf{1}$  are complement of each other.

# Complement

## Definition

Let  $L$  is a bounded lattice. For any given element  $a$  in  $L$ , if there exists some  $b$  in  $L$ , such that  $a \vee b = \mathbf{1}$  and  $a \wedge b = \mathbf{0}$ , then  $b$  is called the **complement** of  $a$ .

## Example



Note:  $\mathbf{0}$  and  $\mathbf{1}$  are complement of each other.

# Uniqueness of Complement

## Theorem

*Let  $L$  be a bounded distributive lattice. If a complement exists, it is unique.*

# Uniqueness of Complement

## Theorem

*Let  $L$  be a bounded distributive lattice. If a complement exists, it is unique.*

## Proof.

Suppose that  $b$  and  $c$  are both complements of  $a$ , i.e.  $a \vee b = 1$ ,  $a \wedge b = 0$ ;  $a \vee c = 1$ ,  $a \wedge c = 0$ , then:

$$b = b \vee 0 = b \vee (a \wedge c) = (b \vee a) \wedge (b \vee c) = (b \vee c)$$

$$\text{Also, } c = c \vee 0 = c \vee (a \wedge b) = (c \vee a) \wedge (c \vee b) = (b \vee c)$$

So,  $b = c$



# Home Assignments

To be checked

Ex. 6.1: 10, 13, 14, 16, 18, 26-28, 29, 30, 34-36, 38, 40

Ex. 6.2: 6, 8, 12, 14, 17-19, 20, 22, 23-26, 32, 33,  
35-38

Ex. 6.3: 1-6, 13-15, 18-20, 22, 24-26, 27, 29, 34, 37-40



# The End