

CS 207 Discrete Mathematics – 2012-2013

Nutan Limaye

Indian Institute of Technology, Bombay

nutan@cse.iitb.ac.in

Mathematical Reasoning and Mathematical Objects

Lecture 7: Properties of equivalence relations and partial orders

August 13, 2012

Last time

Recap

- What are relations?

Recap

- What are relations?
- What are different types of functions?

Recap

- What are relations?
- What are different types of functions?
reflexive, transitive, symmetric, anti-symmetric

Recap

- What are relations?
- What are different types of functions?
reflexive, transitive, symmetric, anti-symmetric
- Equivalence relations and partial orders.

Recap

- What are relations?
- What are different types of functions?
reflexive, transitive, symmetric, anti-symmetric
- Equivalence relations and partial orders.

	reflexive	transitive	symmetric	anti-symmetric
equivalence relation	✓	✓	✓	
partial order	✓	✓		✓

- Representation of partial orders by graphs

Today

- What are equivalence classes and properties of equivalence classes.

Today

- What are equivalence classes and properties of equivalence classes.
- Recall chains and anti-chains and study properties of partial orders.

Equivalence relations and equivalence classes

Definition

A relation R defined over a set A , denoted as $R(A)$ or (A, R) , is called an equivalence relation if it is reflexive, transitive and symmetric.

Equivalence relations and equivalence classes

Definition

A relation R defined over a set A , denoted as $R(A)$ or (A, R) , is called an equivalence relation if it is reflexive, transitive and symmetric.

Definition

Let $[x] := \{y \mid x, y \in A, \text{ and } (x, y) \in R\}$.

$[x]$ is called the equivalence class of x .

Example: Consider $(\mathbb{N}, \equiv (\text{mod } 4))$.

- $[0]$

Equivalence relations and equivalence classes

Definition

A relation R defined over a set A , denoted as $R(A)$ or (A, R) , is called an equivalence relation if it is reflexive, transitive and symmetric.

Definition

Let $[x] := \{y \mid x, y \in A, \text{ and } (x, y) \in R\}$.

$[x]$ is called the equivalence class of x .

Example: Consider $(\mathbb{N}, \equiv (\text{mod } 4))$.

- $[0] = \{0, 4, 8, 12, 16, \dots\}$

Equivalence relations and equivalence classes

Definition

A relation R defined over a set A , denoted as $R(A)$ or (A, R) , is called an equivalence relation if it is reflexive, transitive and symmetric.

Definition

Let $[x] := \{y \mid x, y \in A, \text{ and } (x, y) \in R\}$.

$[x]$ is called the equivalence class of x .

Example: Consider $(\mathbb{N}, \equiv (\text{mod } 4))$.

- $[0] = \{0, 4, 8, 12, 16, \dots\}$
- $[1]$

Equivalence relations and equivalence classes

Definition

A relation R defined over a set A , denoted as $R(A)$ or (A, R) , is called an equivalence relation if it is reflexive, transitive and symmetric.

Definition

Let $[x] := \{y \mid x, y \in A, \text{ and } (x, y) \in R\}$.

$[x]$ is called the equivalence class of x .

Example: Consider $(\mathbb{N}, \equiv (\text{mod } 4))$.

- $[0] = \{0, 4, 8, 12, 16, \dots\}$
- $[1] = \{1, 5, 9, 13, 17, \dots\}$

Properties of equivalence relations

Let R be an equivalence relation of A . Let elements of A be x, y, z etc.

Lemma

The following three are equivalent: (a) xRy , (b) $[x] = [y]$, (c) $[x] \cap [y] \neq \emptyset$.

Properties of equivalence relations

Let R be an equivalence relation of A . Let elements of A be x, y, z etc.

Lemma

The following three are equivalent: (a) xRy , (b) $[x] = [y]$, (c) $[x] \cap [y] \neq \emptyset$.

Proof.

(a) \Rightarrow (b): Say $z \in [x]$. But xRy . As xRy and R is symmetric, yRx . Therefore, yRx , xRz . R is transitive. Therefore, yRz , i.e. $z \in [y]$. This proves that $[x] \subseteq [y]$. The proof of $[y] \subseteq [x]$ is similar.

Properties of equivalence relations

Let R be an equivalence relation of A . Let elements of A be x, y, z etc.

Lemma

The following three are equivalent: (a) xRy , (b) $[x] = [y]$, (c) $[x] \cap [y] \neq \emptyset$.

Proof.

(a) \Rightarrow (b): Say $z \in [x]$. But xRy . As xRy and R is symmetric, yRx . Therefore, yRx , xRz . R is transitive. Therefore, yRz , i.e. $z \in [y]$. This proves that $[x] \subseteq [y]$. The proof of $[y] \subseteq [x]$ is similar.

(b) \Rightarrow (c): Say $[x] = [y]$. The only way $[x] \cap [y] = \emptyset$ is if $[x] = \emptyset$. However, as R is reflexive, $x \in [x] \neq \emptyset$.

Properties of equivalence relations

Let R be an equivalence relation of A . Let elements of A be x, y, z etc.

Lemma

The following three are equivalent: (a) xRy , (b) $[x] = [y]$, (c) $[x] \cap [y] \neq \emptyset$.

Proof.

(a) \Rightarrow (b): Say $z \in [x]$. But xRy . As xRy and R is symmetric, yRx . Therefore, yRx , xRz . R is transitive. Therefore, yRz , i.e. $z \in [y]$. This proves that $[x] \subseteq [y]$. The proof of $[y] \subseteq [x]$ is similar.

(b) \Rightarrow (c): Say $[x] = [y]$. The only way $[x] \cap [y] = \emptyset$ is if $[x] = \emptyset$. However, as R is reflexive, $x \in [x] \neq \emptyset$.

(c) \Rightarrow (a): Let $z \in [x] \cap [y]$. Therefore, xRz and yRz . But as R is symmetric, zRy . But R is also transitive. Therefore xRz and zRy imply xRy . □

Equivalence classes and partitions

Theorem

Let R be an equivalence relation defined on a set A .

- *The equivalence classes of R , partition the set A .*

Equivalence classes and partitions

Theorem

Let R be an equivalence relation defined on a set A .

- The equivalence classes of R , partition the set A .*

Sets X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m are said to partition a set X if

- $\forall i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}, i \neq j : X_i \cap X_j = \emptyset$
- $\forall x \in X, \exists i \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\} : x \in X_i$

Equivalence classes and partitions

Theorem

Let R be an equivalence relation defined on a set A .

- *The equivalence classes of R , partition the set A .*

Proof.

Let $[x] \neq [y]$ be two distinct equivalence classes of R . From the previous lemma $[x] \cap [y] = \emptyset$.

Equivalence classes and partitions

Theorem

Let R be an equivalence relation defined on a set A .

- *The equivalence classes of R , partition the set A .*
- *Conversely, given a partition $\{A_i \mid i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}\}$ of A , there is an equivalence relation R_A with equivalence classes A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n .*

Proof.

Let $[x] \neq [y]$ be two distinct equivalence classes of R . From the previous lemma $[x] \cap [y] = \emptyset$. Also, for each $x \in A, x \in [x]$.

Equivalence classes and partitions

Theorem

Let R be an equivalence relation defined on a set A .

- *The equivalence classes of R , partition the set A .*
- *Conversely, given a partition $\{A_i \mid i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}\}$ of A , there is an equivalence relation R_A with equivalence classes A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n .*

Proof.

Let $[x] \neq [y]$ be two distinct equivalence classes of R . From the previous lemma $[x] \cap [y] = \emptyset$. Also, for each $x \in A, x \in [x]$.

Equivalence classes and partitions

Theorem

Let R be an equivalence relation defined on a set A .

- The equivalence classes of R , partition the set A .
- Conversely, given a partition $\{A_i \mid i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}\}$ of A , there is an equivalence relation R_A with equivalence classes A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n .

Proof.

Let $[x] \neq [y]$ be two distinct equivalence classes of R . From the previous lemma $[x] \cap [y] = \emptyset$. Also, for each $x \in A, x \in [x]$.

Let $R_A = \{(x, y) \mid \exists i : x, y \in A_i\}$.

Equivalence classes and partitions

Theorem

Let R be an equivalence relation defined on a set A .

- The equivalence classes of R , partition the set A .
- Conversely, given a partition $\{A_i \mid i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}\}$ of A , there is an equivalence relation R_A with equivalence classes A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n .

Proof.

Let $[x] \neq [y]$ be two distinct equivalence classes of R . From the previous lemma $[x] \cap [y] = \emptyset$. Also, for each $x \in A, x \in [x]$.

Let $R_A = \{(x, y) \mid \exists i : x, y \in A_i\}$.

R_A relates (x, y) if they belong to the same part in the partition of A .

Equivalence classes and partitions

Theorem

Let R be an equivalence relation defined on a set A .

- The equivalence classes of R , partition the set A .
- Conversely, given a partition $\{A_i \mid i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}\}$ of A , there is an equivalence relation R_A with equivalence classes A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n .

Proof.

Let $[x] \neq [y]$ be two distinct equivalence classes of R . From the previous lemma $[x] \cap [y] = \emptyset$. Also, for each $x \in A, x \in [x]$.

Let $R_A = \{(x, y) \mid \exists i : x, y \in A_i\}$.

R_A is reflexive. If $(x, y) \in R_A$ then even $(y, x) \in R_A$. Finally, if $(x, y) \in R_A$ then $\exists i : x, y \in A_i$. Let that index be called i_0 . Now if $(y, z) \in R_A$ then both y, z must be in the same part of the partition. But we know that $y \in A_{i_0}$. Therefore, $z \in A_{i_0}$. Hence, $x, z \in A_{i_0}$ and hence $(x, z) \in R_A$. This proves that R_A is also transitive. □

Partial orders, chains, anti-chains

Definition

A relation R defined over a set A , denoted as $R(A)$ or (A, R) , is called a partially ordered set or a poset if it is reflexive, transitive and anti-symmetric.

Partial orders, chains, anti-chains

Definition

A relation R defined over a set A , denoted as $R(A)$ or (A, R) , is called a partially ordered set or a poset if it is reflexive, transitive and anti-symmetric.

Definition

If (S, \preceq) is a poset and $A \subseteq S$ such that every pair of elements in A is comparable as per \preceq , then A is called a chain.

Partial orders, chains, anti-chains

Definition

A relation R defined over a set A , denoted as $R(A)$ or (A, R) , is called a partially ordered set or a poset if it is reflexive, transitive and anti-symmetric.

Definition

If (S, \preceq) is a poset and $A \subseteq S$ such that every pair of elements in A is comparable as per \preceq , then A is called a chain.

Definition

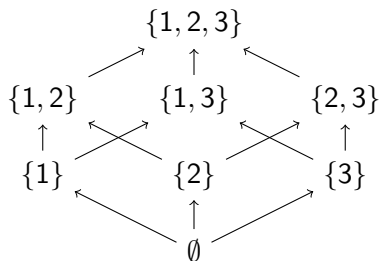
Let (S, \preceq) be a poset. A subset $A \subseteq S$ is called an anti-chain if no two elements of A are related to reach other under \preceq .

Example

Let $S = \{1, 2, 3\}$. Recall the poset (S, \subseteq) .

Example

Let $S = \{1, 2, 3\}$. Recall the poset (S, \subseteq) .



Chains and anti-chains

Theorem

If the largest chain in a poset (S, \preceq) is of size m then S has at least m anti-chains.

Chains and anti-chains

Theorem

If the largest chain in a poset (S, \preceq) is of size m then S has at least m anti-chains. The size of an anti-chain is the number of elements in the chain.

Chains and anti-chains

Theorem

If the largest chain in a poset (S, \preceq) is of size m then S has at least m anti-chains.

Proof.

Let the chain be denoted as $a_1 \preceq a_2 \preceq \dots \preceq a_m$. Now observe that every element of this chain, must go to different anti-chains.

Chains and anti-chains

Theorem

If the largest chain in a poset (S, \preceq) is of size m then S has at least m anti-chains.

Proof.

Let the chain be denoted as $a_1 \preceq a_2 \preceq \dots \preceq a_m$. Now observe that every element of this chain, must go to different anti-chains. Therefore, there are at least m anti-chains in (S, \preceq) . □

Chains and anti-chains

Theorem (Mirsky's theorem, 1971)

If the largest chain in a poset (S, \preceq) is of size m then S can be partitioned into m anti-chains.

Chains and anti-chains

Theorem (Mirsky's theorem, 1971)

If the largest chain in a poset (S, \preceq) is of size m then S can be partitioned into m anti-chains.

Proof.

For each element $s \in S$, let C_s be the set of all chains that have s as the maximum element. And define $label(s) := \max_{c \in C_s} \{size(c)\}$.

Chains and anti-chains

Theorem (Mirsky's theorem, 1971)

If the largest chain in a poset (S, \preceq) is of size m then S can be partitioned into m anti-chains.

Proof.

For each element $s \in S$, let C_s be the set of all chains that have s as the maximum element. And define $label(s) := \max_{c \in C_s} \{size(c)\}$.

[CW] For any $s \in S$, how large can $label(s)$ be?

Chains and anti-chains

Theorem (Mirsky's theorem, 1971)

If the largest chain in a poset (S, \preceq) is of size m then S can be partitioned into m anti-chains.

Proof.

For each element $s \in S$, let C_s be the set of all chains that have s as the maximum element. And define $label(s) := \max_{c \in C_s} \{size(c)\}$.

Let us now define sets A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m such that $A_i = \{x \mid label(x) = i\}$.

Chains and anti-chains

Theorem (Mirsky's theorem, 1971)

If the largest chain in a poset (S, \preceq) is of size m then S can be partitioned into m anti-chains.

Proof.

For each element $s \in S$, let C_s be the set of all chains that have s as the maximum element. And define $label(s) := \max_{c \in C_s} \{size(c)\}$.

Let us now define sets A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m such that $A_i = \{x \mid label(x) = i\}$.

It is easy to see that if $i \neq j$ then $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$. Also, it is easy to observe that $\cup_{i=1}^m A_i = S$.

Chains and anti-chains

Theorem (Mirsky's theorem, 1971)

If the largest chain in a poset (S, \preceq) is of size m then S can be partitioned into m anti-chains.

Proof.

For each element $s \in S$, let C_s be the set of all chains that have s as the maximum element. And define $label(s) := \max_{c \in C_s} \{size(c)\}$.

Let us now define sets A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m such that $A_i = \{x \mid label(x) = i\}$.

It is easy to see that if $i \neq j$ then $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$. Also, it is easy to observe that $\cup_{i=1}^m A_i = S$.

Now we prove that each A_i is an anti-chain. For $x, y \in A_i$ for some $i \in [m]$.

Chains and anti-chains

Theorem (Mirsky's theorem, 1971)

If the largest chain in a poset (S, \preceq) is of size m then S can be partitioned into m anti-chains.

Proof.

For each element $s \in S$, let C_s be the set of all chains that have s as the maximum element. And define $label(s) := \max_{c \in C_s} \{size(c)\}$.

Let us now define sets A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m such that $A_i = \{x \mid label(x) = i\}$. It is easy to see that if $i \neq j$ then $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$. Also, it is easy to observe that $\cup_{i=1}^m A_i = S$.

Now we prove that each A_i is an anti-chain. For $x, y \in A_i$ for some $i \in [m]$. $[m] = \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$

Chains and anti-chains

Theorem (Mirsky's theorem, 1971)

If the largest chain in a poset (S, \preceq) is of size m then S can be partitioned into m anti-chains.

Proof.

For each element $s \in S$, let C_s be the set of all chains that have s as the maximum element. And define $label(s) := \max_{c \in C_s} \{size(c)\}$.

Let us now define sets A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m such that $A_i = \{x \mid label(x) = i\}$.

It is easy to see that if $i \neq j$ then $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$. Also, it is easy to observe that $\cup_{i=1}^m A_i = S$.

Now we prove that each A_i is an anti-chain. For $x, y \in A_i$ for some $i \in [m]$. $\therefore label(x) = label(y) = i$. Suppose $x \preceq y$ then $label(x) < label(y)$. Contradiction!

Chains and anti-chains

Theorem (Mirsky's theorem, 1971)

If the largest chain in a poset (S, \preceq) is of size m then S can be partitioned into m anti-chains.

Proof.

For each element $s \in S$, let C_s be the set of all chains that have s as the maximum element. And define $label(s) := \max_{c \in C_s} \{size(c)\}$.

Let us now define sets A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m such that $A_i = \{x \mid label(x) = i\}$.

It is easy to see that if $i \neq j$ then $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$. Also, it is easy to observe that $\cup_{i=1}^m A_i = S$.

Now we prove that each A_i is an anti-chain. For $x, y \in A_i$ for some $i \in [m]$. $\therefore label(x) = label(y) = i$. Suppose $x \preceq y$ then $label(x) < label(y)$. Contradiction! Similarly, if $x \succeq y$ then we get a contradiction.

Chains and anti-chains

Theorem (Mirsky's theorem, 1971)

If the largest chain in a poset (S, \preceq) is of size m then S can be partitioned into m anti-chains.

Proof.

For each element $s \in S$, let C_s be the set of all chains that have s as the maximum element. And define $label(s) := \max_{c \in C_s} \{size(c)\}$.

Let us now define sets A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m such that $A_i = \{x \mid label(x) = i\}$. It is easy to see that if $i \neq j$ then $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$. Also, it is easy to observe that $\cup_{i=1}^m A_i = S$.

Now we prove that each A_i is an anti-chain. For $x, y \in A_i$ for some $i \in [m]$. $\therefore label(x) = label(y) = i$. Suppose $x \preceq y$ then $label(x) < label(y)$. Contradiction! Similarly, if $x \succeq y$ then we get a contradiction. Hence, every A_i is an anti-chain.



Subset Take-away problem

Removing supersets \equiv getting rid of some chains.

Subset Take-away problem

Removing supersets \equiv getting rid of some chains.

Do partial orders help?