



Discrete Mathematics 2025 Spring



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- 4.1 Definition and Representation of Relations
- 4.2 Operations on Relations
- 4.3 Properties of Relations
- **4.4 Equivalence Relations and Partial Order Relations**

- 4.4.1 Equivalence Relations
- 4.4.2 Equivalence Classes and Quotient Sets
- 4.4.3 Partition of a Set
- 4.4.4 Partial Order Relations
- 4.4.5 Partially Ordered Sets and Hasse Diagrams

↳ Equivalence relation \sim

- **Definition 4.18:** let R be a relation on a non-empty set. If R is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive, then R is called an **equivalence relation** on A . If R is an equivalence relation and $\langle x, y \rangle \in R$, we say that x is equivalent to y , denoted as $x \sim y$.

e.g. >>> **Example:** Verify that R is an equivalence relation on A .

Let $A = \{1, 2, \dots, 8\}$, and define the relation R on A as follows :

$$R = \{ \langle x, y \rangle \mid x, y \in A \wedge x \equiv y \pmod{3} \}$$

where $x \equiv y \pmod{3}$ means that x and y are congruent modulo 3, i.e., the remainder when x is divided by 3 is equal to the remainder when y is divided by 3.

↳ Equivalence relation \sim (e.g.)

e.g. >>> **Example:** Let $A = \{1, 2, \dots, 8\}$, and define the relation R on A as follows : $R = \{ \langle x, y \rangle \mid x, y \in A \wedge x \equiv y \pmod{3} \}$
where $x \equiv y \pmod{3}$ means that x and y are congruent modulo 3, i.e., the remainder when x is divided by 3 is equal to the remainder when y is divided by 3.

It is easy to verify that R is an equivalence relation on A , because:

$\forall x \in A$, if $x \equiv x \pmod{3}$ (reflexivity)

$\forall x, y \in A$, if $x \equiv y \pmod{3}$, then $y \equiv x \pmod{3}$ (symmetry)

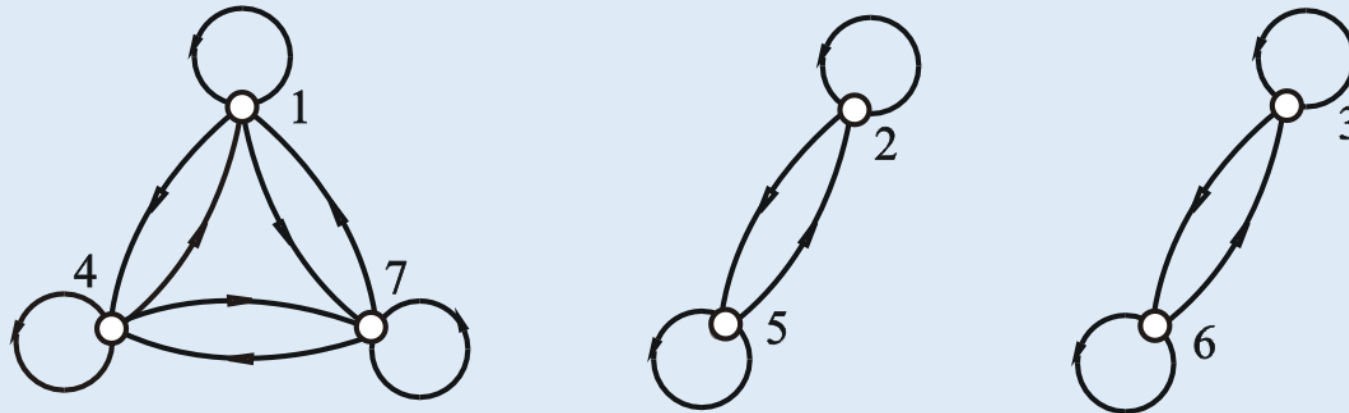
$\forall x, y, z \in A$, if $x \equiv y \pmod{3}$, $y \equiv z \pmod{3}$, then $x \equiv z \pmod{3}$ (transitivity)

- Relation Graph of the Modulo 3 Equivalence Relation on A

Let $A = \{1, 2, \dots, 7\}$,

$$R = \{ \langle x, y \rangle \mid x, y \in A \wedge x \equiv y \pmod{3} \}$$


The relation graph of R is shown below :



- 4.4.1 Equivalence Relations
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- **Definition 4.19:** let R be an equivalence relation on a non-empty set A , $\forall x \in A$, define $[x]_R = \{ y \mid y \in A \wedge xRy \}$

We call $[x]_R$ the *equivalence class* of x under R , or simply the equivalence class of x , denoted as $[x]$.

 **Note:** $[x]_R$ is the set of all elements in A that are equivalent to x under the relation R .

$$[x]_R = \{y \in A \mid (x, y) \in R\}$$

e.g. >>> **Example:** Equivalence classes of the modulo 3 equivalence relation on $A = \{1, 2, \dots, 8\}$:

$$[1] = [4] = [7] = \{1, 4, 7\}$$

$$[2] = [5] = [8] = \{2, 5, 8\}$$

$$[3] = [6] = \{3, 6\}$$

- The three equivalence classes with remainders 1, 2, and 0 are disjoint, and their union is A .

■ Theorem 4.8: Partition Theorem of Equivalence Classes.

Let R be an equivalence relation on a non-empty set A

The following conclusions hold:

- (1) $\forall x \in A$, $[x]$ is a non-empty subset of A .
- (2) $\forall x, y \in A$, if xRy , then $[x]=[y]$.
- (3) $\forall x, y \in A$, if $x \not R y$, then $[x]$ and $[y]$ are disjoint.
- (4) $\bigcup_{x \in A} [x] = A$, the union of all equivalence classes is equal to A .

↳ Proof of the Partition Theorem of Equivalence Classes

- **Theorem 4.8(1):** $\forall x \in A$, $[x]$ is a non-empty subset of A .

Proof: From the definition of equivalence classes, $\forall x \in A$, we have $[x] \subseteq A$. By reflexivity, xRx , so $x \in [x]$, which implies that $[x]$ is non-empty. Since all elements in the equivalence class $[x]$ are selected from the set A , it follows that $[x]$ is a subset of A .

- **Theorem 4.8(2):** $\forall x, y \in A$, if xRy , then $[x] = [y]$.

Proof: For any element a in $[x]$, $(x, a) \in R$. Since $(x, y) \in R$ and R is transitive, we can conclude that $(y, a) \in R$, so $a \in [y]$. This proves that $[x] \subseteq [y]$.

Similarly, we can prove that $[y] \subseteq [x]$. Therefore $[x] = [y]$.

↳ Proof of the Partition Theorem of Equivalence Classes (cont.)

- Theorem 4.8(3): $\forall x, y \in A$, if $x \not R y$, then $[x]$ and $[y]$ are disjoint.

Proof:

Suppose $[x] \cap [y] \neq \emptyset$, then there exists an element $z \in [x] \cap [y]$, which implies $z \in [x] \wedge z \in [y]$, then $\langle x, z \rangle \in R \wedge \langle y, z \rangle \in R$ holds.

By the transitivity and symmetry of R , then $\langle x, y \rangle \in R$,
contradicted to $x \not R y$.

↳ Proof of the Partition Theorem of Equivalence Classes (cont.)

■ Theorem 4.8(4):

$\bigcup_{x \in A} [x] = A$, the union of all equivalence classes is A .

- **Proof1:** $\bigcup_{x \in A} [x] \in A$, For any y .

$$y \in \bigcup_{x \in A} [x] \Leftrightarrow \exists x (x \in A \wedge y \in [x])$$

$$\Rightarrow y \in [x] \wedge [x] \subseteq A \Rightarrow y \in A$$

Then $\bigcup_{x \in A} [x] \in A$

- **Proof2:** $A \in \bigcup_{x \in A} [x]$, For any y .

$$y \in A \Rightarrow y \in [y] \wedge y \in A \Rightarrow y \in \bigcup_{x \in A} [x]$$

Hence $A \subseteq \bigcup_{x \in A} [x]$ **host.**

- Thus, we conclude that: $\bigcup_{x \in A} [x] = A$.

↳ Quotient Sets

- **Definition 4.20:** Let R be an equivalence relation on a non-empty set A . The set of equivalence classes of R is called the *quotient set* of A with respect to R , denoted by A/R ,

$$A/R = \{ [x]_R \mid x \in A \}$$

- e.g. >>> **Example:** Let $A = \{1, 2, \dots, 8\}$, the quotient set of A with respect to the equivalence relation R modulo 3 is: $A/R = \{ \{1, 4, 7\}, \{2, 5, 8\}, \{3, 6\} \}$

- The quotient sets of A with respect to the identity relation and the universal relation are:

$$A/I_A = \{ \{1\}, \{2\}, \dots, \{8\} \}$$

$$A/E_A = \{ \{1, 2, \dots, 8\} \}$$

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■ **Definition 4.21:** Let A be a non-empty set, \mathcal{A} a family of subset π ($\pi \subseteq P(A)$), if it satisfies the following conditions:

(1) $\emptyset \notin \pi$; (2) $\forall x \forall y (x, y \in \pi \wedge x \neq y \rightarrow x \cap y = \emptyset)$; (3) $\cup \pi = A$

Then π is called a *partition of A* , and the element of π are called blocks of the partition of A .

e.g. >>> **Example:** Let $A = \{a, b, c, d\}$, given the partitions:

$$\pi_1 = \{\{a, b, c\}, \{d\}\}, \quad \pi_2 = \{\{a, b\}, \{c\}, \{d\}\}$$

$$\pi_3 = \{\{a\}, \{a, b, c, d\}\}, \quad \pi_4 = \{\{a, b\}, \{c\}\}$$

$$\pi_5 = \{\emptyset, \{a, b\}, \{c, d\}\}, \quad \pi_6 = \{\{a, \{a\}\}, \{b, c, d\}\}$$

Then π_1, π_2 are *partitions of A* , while the others are not.

- The quotient set A/R is a partition of A .
- Different quotient sets correspond to different partitions.
- Given any partition π of A , we define a relation R on A as follows:

$$R = \{ \langle x, y \rangle \mid x, y \in A \text{ and } [x]_{\pi} = [y]_{\pi} \}$$

($[x]_{\pi} = [y]_{\pi}$: x and y are in the same partition block of π)

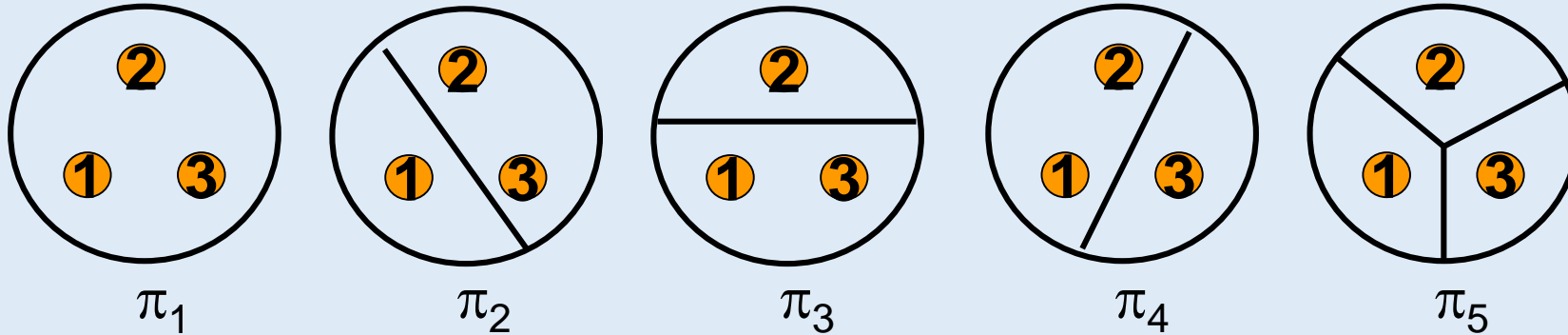
Then, R is an equivalence relation on A , and the quotient set determined by this equivalence relation is exactly π .

e.g. >>> **Example:** List all equivalence relations on $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$

Solution approach:

First, determine all partitions of A , and then write out the corresponding equivalence relations based on these partitions.

↳ Set Partitions and Equivalence Relation(e.g.)

 Determine all partitions of $A=\{1,2,3\}$

 π_1 corresponds to the universal relation E_A
 π_5 corresponds to the identity relation I_A
 π_2, π_3, π_4 correspond to the equivalence relations R_2, R_3 和 R_4 .

$$R_2 = \{ \langle 2, 3 \rangle, \langle 3, 2 \rangle \} \cup I_A$$

$$R_3 = \{ \langle 1, 3 \rangle, \langle 3, 1 \rangle \} \cup I_A$$

$$R_4 = \{ \langle 1, 2 \rangle, \langle 2, 1 \rangle \} \cup I_A$$

↳ Set Partitions and Equivalence Relation(e.g.)

e.g. >>> Example: Let $A=\{1,2,3,4\}$

- Define a binary relation R on $A \times A$:

$\langle \langle x, y \rangle, \langle u, v \rangle \rangle \in R \Leftrightarrow x+y = u+v$, find the partition induced by R .

Solution: $A \times A = \{ \langle 1,1 \rangle, \langle 1,2 \rangle, \langle 1,3 \rangle, \langle 1,4 \rangle, \langle 2,1 \rangle, \langle 2,2 \rangle, \langle 2,3 \rangle, \langle 2,4 \rangle, \langle 3,1 \rangle, \langle 3,2 \rangle, \langle 3,3 \rangle, \langle 3,4 \rangle, \langle 4,1 \rangle, \langle 4,2 \rangle, \langle 4,3 \rangle, \langle 4,4 \rangle \}$

- According to the sum condition $\langle x,y \rangle$ and $x+y=2,3,4,5,6,7,8$ which partition $A \times A$ into 7 equivalence classes:

$(A \times A) / R = \{ \{ \langle 1,1 \rangle \}, \{ \langle 1,2 \rangle, \langle 2,1 \rangle \}, \{ \langle 1,3 \rangle, \langle 2,2 \rangle, \langle 3,1 \rangle \},$

$\{ \langle 1,4 \rangle, \langle 2,3 \rangle, \langle 3,2 \rangle, \langle 4,1 \rangle \}, \{ \langle 2,4 \rangle, \langle 3,3 \rangle, \langle 4,2 \rangle \},$

$\{ \langle 3,4 \rangle, \langle 4,3 \rangle \}, \{ \langle 4,4 \rangle \} \}$

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■ Definition 4.22:

A relation on a non-empty set that is **reflexive**, **antisymmetric**, and **transitive** is called a *partial order relation* on A , denoted by \preceq . If $\langle x, y \rangle \in \preceq$, then we write it as $x \preceq y$, which is read as x “less than or equal” y .

e.g. >>> Examples:

- The **identity relation** I_A on set A is a partial order relation on A .
- The **less than or equal to** relation, **divisibility** relation, and **subset inclusion** relation are also partial order relations on their respective sets.

↳ Characteristics of Partial Order - Comparability and Total Order

■ Definition 4.23: Comparability

Let R be a partial order relation on a non-empty set A ,

- For $x, y \in A$, we say that x and y are *comparable* if and only if $x \leq y$ or $y \leq x$.
- **Condition for incomparability:** If no partial order relation relates x and y , then they are **not comparable**.

■ Definition 4.24: Total Order

- If R is a partial order on a non-empty set A , $\forall x, y \in A$, x and y are always comparable, R is called a *total order*.

e.g. >>> Examples:

- The "less than or equal to" relation on numerical sets (such as real numbers and integers) is a **total order**.
- The **divisibility relation** is **not a total order** on the set of positive integers.

■ Definition 4.25: Covering

$x, y \in A$, if $x < y$ and there is no $z \in A$ such that $x < z < y$, then we say that ***y covers x***.

- Such as: On the set $\{1, 2, 4, 6\}$ with the divisibility relation:
 - 2 covers 1, 4 and 6 covers 2.
 - 4 doesn't cover 1.

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■ Definition 4.26: Partially ordered set.

A *partially ordered set* (poset) consists of a set A together with a partial order relation \preceq , denoted as $\langle A, \preceq \rangle$.

■ Such as:

- The set of integers with the "less than or equal to" relation forms a poset $\langle \mathbb{Z}, \leq \rangle$.
- The power set $P(A)$ with the subset inclusion relation forms a poset $\langle P(A), R_{\subseteq} \rangle$.

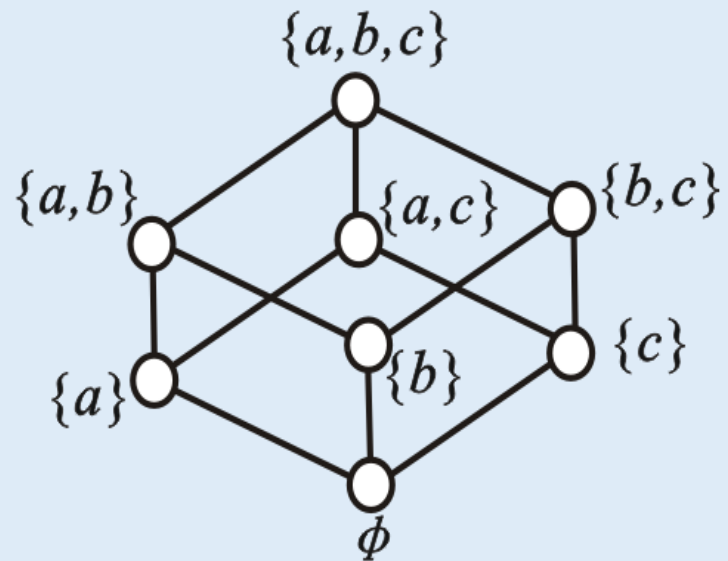
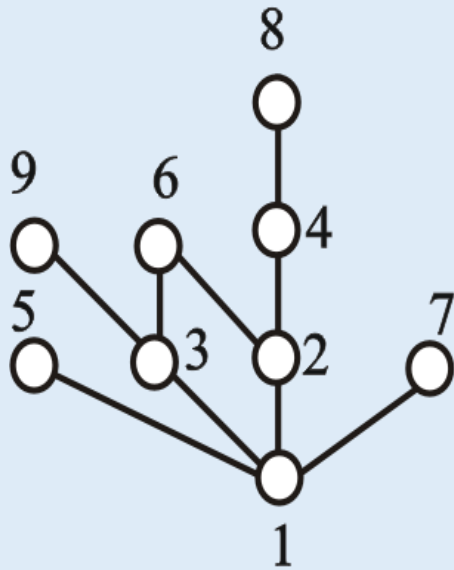
↳ Simplified representation of a poset - Hasse diagram

- **Hasse Diagram:** A simplified graphical representation of a partial order that eliminates reflexivity, antisymmetry, and transitivity in the diagram.
- **Characteristics:**
 - Each node has no self-loops.
 - The order between two connected nodes is represented by their relative position: **Lower-positioned elements come earlier in the order.**
 - There is an edge between two nodes **if and only if** they have a covering relation.
- A Hasse diagram is a special type of relational graph for posets, with transitive edges removed and implicit direction.

4.4.5 Partially Ordered Sets and Hasse Diagrams

↳ Simplified representation of a poset - Hasse diagram(e.g.)

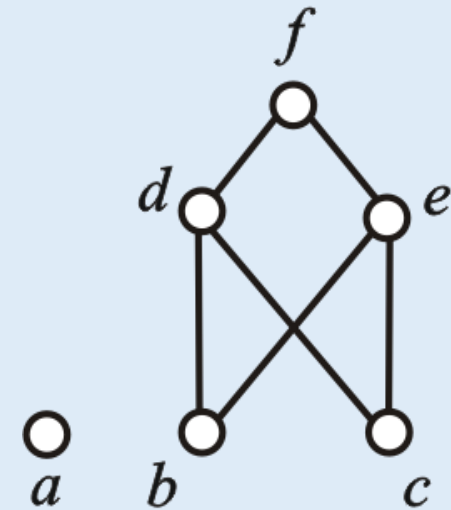
e.g. >>> Example : $\langle \{ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 \}, R_{Div} \rangle$
 $\langle P(\{a, b, c\}), R_{\subseteq} \rangle$



↳ Simplified representation of a poset - Hasse diagram(e.g.)

e.g. >>> Example : Given the Hasse diagram of the partially ordered set $\langle A, R \rangle$ shown below, find the expression for the set A and the relation R .

- Solution: ① Identify the Elements in A ; ② Extract the Covering Relations; ③ Complete transitive and reflexive relations.



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

$$R = \{\langle b, d \rangle, \langle b, e \rangle, \langle b, f \rangle, \langle c, d \rangle, \langle c, e \rangle, \langle c, f \rangle, \langle d, f \rangle, \langle e, f \rangle\} \cup I_A$$

↳ Key elements of a poset and their properties

■ **Definition 4.27:** Let $\langle A, \preceq \rangle$ be a partially ordered set (poset), $B \subseteq A$, $y \in B$.

(1) if $\forall x(x \in B \rightarrow y \preceq x)$, then y is called the *least element* of B .

(2) if $\forall x(x \in B \rightarrow x \preceq y)$, then y is called the *greatest element* of B .

(3) If $\forall x(x \in B \wedge x \preceq y \rightarrow x = y)$, then y is called a *minimal element* of B .

(4) If $\forall x(x \in B \wedge y \preceq x \rightarrow x = y)$, then y is called a *maximal element* of B .

■ Properties:

- In a **finite set**, minimal and maximal elements **always exist** and **may not be unique**.
- **Least and greatest elements** are not guaranteed to exist, but if they do, they are unique.
- The **least element** is always a minimal element.
- The **greatest element** is always a maximal element.
- **Isolated nodes** are both minimal and maximal elements.

↳ Upper/lower bounds, supremum, infimum of a poset

- **Definition 4.28:** Let $\langle A, \leq \rangle$ be a partially ordered set (poset), and let $B \subseteq A$, $y \in A$.
 - (1) If $\forall x (x \in B \rightarrow x \leq y)$, then y is called an upper bound of B .
 - (2) If $\forall x (x \in B \rightarrow y \leq x)$, then y is called a lower bound of B .
 - (3) Let $C = \{y \mid y \text{ is an upper bound of } B\}$, the least element of C , if it exists, is called the least upper bound (supremum) of B or the supremum.
 - (4) Let $D = \{y \mid y \text{ is a lower bound of } B\}$, The greatest element of D , if it exists, is called the greatest lower bound (infimum) of B or the infimum.

↳ Mathematical properties of bounds, supremum, and infimum in a poset

■ Properties:

- Lower bounds, upper bounds, infimum, and supremum are **not always guaranteed to exist**.
- Lower bounds and upper bounds, if they exist, **may not be unique**.
- The infimum and supremum, if they exist, are unique.
- The least element of a set is its infimum, and the greatest element is its supremum, however, the **reverse is not always true**.

↳ Upper/lower bounds, supremum, infimum of a poset (e.g.)

e.g. >>> Example:

- (1) Given the partially ordered set $\langle A, \leq \rangle$ as shown in the diagram, find the minimal elements, least element, maximal elements, and greatest element of A .
- (2) Let $B = \{b, c, d\}$, find the lower bounds, upper bounds, infimum (greatest lower bound), and supremum (least upper bound) of B .

Solution (1) : Minimal elements: a, b, c ;

Maximal elements: a, f ;

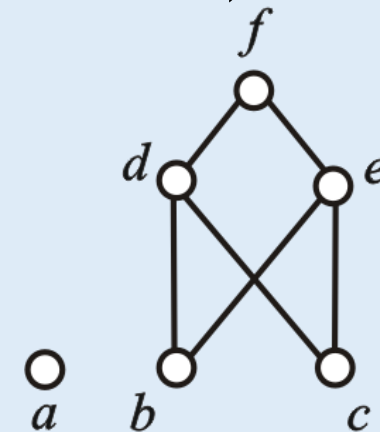
No least element or greatest element.

Solution (2) :

Lower bounds and greatest lower bound do not exist.

Upper bounds: d, f

Least upper bound (supremum): d



↳ Special Subsets of a Poset: Chains and Antichains

- **Definition 4.29:** Let $\langle A, \leq \rangle$ be a partially ordered set (poset), and $B \subseteq A$.
 - (1) If for all $\forall x, y \in B$, x and y are comparable, then B is called a *chain* in A . The number of elements in B is called the **length of the chain**.
 - (2) If for all $\forall x, y \in B$, $x \neq y$, x and y are not comparable, then B is called an *antichain* in A . The number of elements in B is called the **length of the antichain**.
- **Examples:** In the poset $\langle \{1, 2, \dots, 9\}, | \rangle$, $\{1, 2, 4, 8\}$ is a chain of length 4, $\{1, 4\}$ is a chain of length 2, $\{2, 3\}$ is an antichain of length 2. The singleton set $\{2\}$ has length 1 and is both a chain and an antichain.

↳ Antichain Decomposition Algorithm for Poset

■ **Theorem 4.9:** Let $\langle A, \leq \rangle$ be a partially ordered set (poset). If the length of the longest chain in A is n , then the poset can be decomposed into n *disjoint antichains*.

■ **Algorithm 4.2: Antichain Decomposition Algorithm for Posets.**

Input: A partially ordered set A

Output: Antichains B_1, B_2, \dots

1. $i \leftarrow 1$
2. $B_i \leftarrow$ the set of all maximal elements in A (which is an antichain)
3. $A \leftarrow A - B_i$
4. if $A \neq \emptyset$
5. $i \leftarrow i + 1$
6. Go to 2

↳ Topological Sorting - Extending a Poset to a Total Order

■ **Topological Sorting:** Expanding a partially ordered set (poset) into a totally ordered set is called *topological sorting*.

■ **Algorithm 4.3: Topological Sorting**

Input: A partially ordered set A

Output: A sorted order of elements in A

1. $i \leftarrow 1$
2. Select a minimal element a_i from A and consider it the smallest element
3. $A \leftarrow A - \{a_i\}$
4. if $A \neq \emptyset$
5. $i \leftarrow i + 1$
6. Go to 2

↳ Topological Sorting - Extending a Poset to a Total Order(e.g.)

e.g. >>> **Example:** A set of tasks A is given with partial order constraints, and its Hasse diagram is shown in the figure.

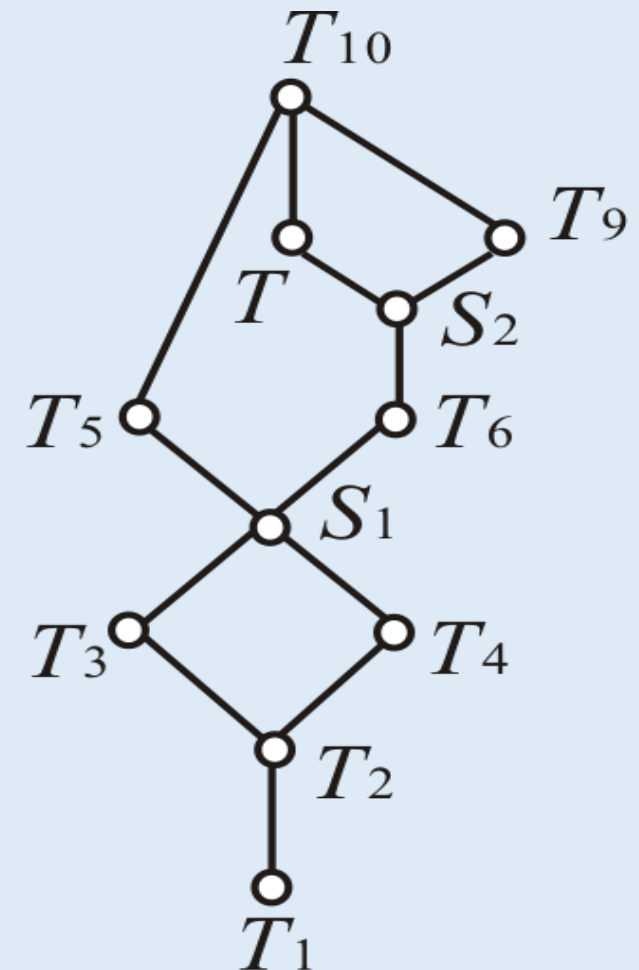
$$A = \{T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4, T_5, S_1, T_6, S_2, T, T_9, T_{10}\}$$

Check whether the following topological order is valid.

such as:

$$T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4, S_1, T_5, T_6, S_2, T, T_9, T_{10};$$

$$T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4, S_1, T_6, S_2, T, T_9, T_5, T_{10};$$



Objective :

Key Concepts :