

Lattices

Aryaman Maithani

Undergraduate
IIT Bombay

8th October, 2019

Definition 1 (Upper bound)

If x and y belong to a poset P , then an upper bound of x and y is an element $z \in P$ satisfying $x \leq z$ and $y \leq z$.

Definition 2 (Least upper bound)

A least upper bound z of x and y is an upper bound such that every upper bound w of x and y satisfies $z \leq w$.

Thus, if a least upper bound of x and y exists, then it is clearly unique due to antisymmetry of \leq . The element is denoted by $x \vee y$, read as “ x join y ” or “ x sup y .”

Dually, one can define a greatest lower bound of x and y .

Definition 3

A lattice is a poset for which every pair of elements has a least upper bound and greatest lower bound.

Let L be a lattice and $x, y \in L$.

One can verify that the following properties hold:

- 1 The operations \wedge and \vee are associative, commutative and idempotent, that is,
 $x \wedge x = x \vee x = x$,
- 2 $x \wedge (x \vee y) = x \vee (x \wedge y) = x$, and
- 3 $x \wedge y = x \iff x \leq y \iff x \vee y = y$.

In fact, one could even define a lattice axiomatically in terms of a set L with the operations \wedge and \vee satisfying the first two properties.

All finite lattices have $\hat{0}$ and $\hat{1}$. Indeed, if $L = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$. Then $x_1 \wedge \dots \wedge x_n$ and $x_1 \vee \dots \vee x_n$ are well-defined elements of L and they are $\hat{0}$ and $\hat{1}$, respectively.

If L and M are lattices, then so are L^* , $L \times M$, $L \oplus M$. However, $L + M$ will never be lattice unless $L = \emptyset$ or $M = \emptyset$. Indeed, if one takes $x \in L$ and $y \in M$, then there exists no meet of x and y in $L + M$.

However, one can verify that $\widehat{L + M}$ is always a lattice.

Definition 4 (Meet semilattice)

If every pair of elements of a poset P has a meet, we say that P is a meet-semilattice.

Sometimes, it may be easy to check whether a finite poset is a meet-semilattice. The following proposition then helps us in determining whether the poset is also a lattice.

Proposition 1

Let P be a finite meet semilattice with $\hat{1}$. Then, P is a lattice.

Proof.

We just need to show that given $x, y \in P$, there exists a join of x and y .

Towards this end, define $S := \{z \in P : x \leq z, y \leq z\}$.

Then, S is finite as P is finite. Moreover, S is nonempty as $\hat{1} \in S$.

Then, it can be seen that $x \vee y = \bigwedge_{z \in S} z$. □

The proof breaks for infinite posets as S defined earlier need not be finite and hence, its meet may not exist.

Analogously, one may define a join-semilattice and the corresponding proposition for a join-semilattice holds as well.

Definition 5

If every subset of L does have a meet and a join, then L is called a complete lattice.

(The meet and join of a subset of a lattice have their natural meanings.)

Clearly, a complete lattice has a $\hat{0}$ and $\hat{1}$.

Proposition 2

Let L be a finite lattice. The following are equivalent:

- 1 L is graded and the rank generating function ρ of L satisfies $\rho(x) + \rho(y) \geq \rho(x \wedge y) + \rho(x \vee y)$ for all $x, y \in L$.
- 2 If x and y cover $x \wedge y$, then $x \vee y$ covers x and y .

We omit the proof.

A finite lattice satisfying either of the above (equivalent) properties is called a finite (upper) semimodular lattice.

A finite lattice L whose dual is semimodular is said to be lower semimodular.

A lattice which is both semimodular and lower semimodular is said to be modular.

Thus, a finite lattice is modular if and only if $\rho(x) + \rho(y) = \rho(x \wedge y) + \rho(x \vee y)$ for all $x, y \in L$.

This is the most important class of lattices from a combinatorial point of view.

Definition 6 (Distributive lattices)

A lattice L is said to be distributive if the following laws hold for all $x, y, z \in L$:

- 1 $x \vee (y \wedge z) = (x \vee y) \wedge (x \vee z)$, and
- 2 $x \wedge (y \vee z) = (x \wedge y) \vee (x \wedge z)$.

Examples.

$[n]$, B_n , D_n are distributive lattices.

Π_n is not distributive for $n > 2$.

Recall that the set of all order ideals of a poset P , denoted by $J(P)$, ordered by inclusion, forms a poset.

Moreover, $J(P)$ is closed under unions and intersections.

Thus, one can check that $J(P)$ is a lattice as well with \wedge being \cap and \vee being \cup .

Now, set theory tells us that $J(P)$ is in fact, a distributive lattice as well.

The Fundamental Theorem of Finite Distributive Lattices (FTFDL) states that the converse is true when P is finite.

The Fundamental Theorem of Finite Distributive Lattices

Theorem 1 (FTFDL)

Let L be a finite distributive lattice. Then, there is a unique (up to isomorphism) finite poset P for which $L \cong J(P)$.

The above theorem is also known as *Birkoff's Theorem*.

To prove this theorem, we first produce a candidate P and show that is indeed the case that $J(P) \cong L$. Towards this end, we define the following.

Definition 7 (Join-irreducible)

An element x of a lattice L is said to be join-irreducible if one cannot write $x = y \vee z$ with $y < x$ and $z < x$.

Equivalently, the above condition says that if x is join-irreducible, then $x = y \vee z$ forces $x = y$ or $x = z$.

Before carrying forward, we emphasise the following result from before as it will be used often.

Proposition 3

Given an order ideal I of a finite poset P , there exists a corresponding antichain $A = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ where each x_i is a maximal element of I .

We also write $I = \langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle$.

Moreover, I is the smallest order ideal containing A .

It can also be verified that $\langle x_1, x_2 \rangle = \langle x_1 \rangle \cup \langle x_2 \rangle$.

In fact, one has $\langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle = \langle x_1 \rangle \cup \dots \cup \langle x_n \rangle$.

Link between $J(P)$ and P

The following theorem will help us in coming up with a suitable candidate P and it will also help in showing the uniqueness of P claimed in FTFDL.

Theorem 2

An order ideal I of the finite poset P is join-irreducible in $J(P)$ if and only if it is a principal order ideal of P .

Before giving a proof of this theorem, we observe that there's a natural one-to-one correspondence between principal order ideals of P and P . Namely, $\langle x \rangle \leftrightarrow x$. In fact, this correspondence is also an isomorphism as $\langle x \rangle \subset \langle y \rangle \iff x \leq y$.

Thus, if $J(P) \cong J(Q)$, then the set of join-irreducibles will also be isomorphic and in turn, $P \cong Q$. This shows us that the P mentioned in FTFDL, if it exists, is indeed unique.

Proof.

(\implies) Suppose I is join-irreducible. Since P is finite, Proposition 3 tells us that there exists a corresponding antichain A that generates I .

Let us assume that $|A| > 1$. Choose $a \in A$ and let $B := \{a\}$. Then, $\langle A \setminus B \rangle \cup \langle B \rangle = I$. By Proposition 3, $\langle A \setminus B \rangle \subsetneq I$ and $\langle B \rangle \subsetneq I$.

However, this contradicts that I is join-irreducible. Thus, $|A| = 1$ and hence, I is principal.

(\impliedby) Suppose I is a principal order ideal. Then, there exists some $x \in P$ such that $\langle x \rangle = I$. Suppose $I = J \cup K$ for some $J, K \in J(P)$.

Then $x \in J$ or $x \in K$. WLOG, we assume that $x \in J$. As J is an order ideal, we get that $\langle x \rangle \subset J$. But $\langle x \rangle = I$. Hence, we get that $J = I$. This proves that J is join-irreducible. □

What the theorem helps us with is the following -

Suppose that we are given an arbitrary (finite) poset Q and are told that $Q \cong J(P)$ for some poset P . The theorem has then shown that the poset P must be isomorphic to the set of the join-irreducibles of Q . (Or rather, the subposet obtained by inducing the structure of Q on the set of join-irreducibles of Q .)

In effect, it has given us a way of procuring an eligible candidate P to prove the Fundamental theorem that we wanted to prove.

A helpful lemma

Before proving the theorem, we shall prove the following lemma. Let L be a finite distributive lattice and let P be the set of all the join-irreducible elements of L .

Lemma 1

For $y \in L$, there exist $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n \in P$ such that $y = y_1 \vee y_2 \vee \dots \vee y_n$. For n minimal, the expression is unique up to permutations.

Proof (Of existence).

If y is join-irreducible, then we are done.

Suppose $y \notin P$. Then, by definition, there exist $y_1, y_2 \in L$ such that $y = y_1 \vee y_2$ with $y_1 < y$ and $y_2 < y$. If one of y_1 or y_2 is not in P , then we can further “decompose” it. As L is finite and we keep getting smaller elements, this process must stop after a finite number of steps. Thus, given any $y \in L$, there does exist a representation as stated. □

Proof of the lemma

Proof (of uniqueness).

Now, suppose $y_1 \vee y_2 \vee \cdots \vee y_n = y = z_1 \vee \cdots \vee z_n$ for $y_i, z_i \in P$ for each $i \in [n]$ where n is the least number of elements of P required to be “joined” to get y .

Note that given any $i \in [n]$, $z_i \leq y$.

Thus, $z_i = z_i \wedge y = z_i \wedge \left(\bigvee_{j=1}^n y_j \right) = \bigvee_{j=1}^n (z_i \wedge y_j)$, by distributivity.

But $z_i \in P$ and thus, we get that $z_i = z_i \wedge y_j$ for some $j \in [n]$. This gives us that $z_i \leq y_j$.

Now, suppose it is the case that there exists $k \in [n]$ such that $k \neq i$ and $z_k \leq y_j$. We show that this leads to a contradiction. Since \vee is associative and commutative, we can assume that $i = 1$ and $k = 2$. As $y_j \leq y$, we get that $y_j \vee z_3 \vee \cdots \vee z_n = y$, contradicting the minimality of n .

Thus, given any $i \in [n]$, there exists a unique $j \in [n]$ such that $z_i \leq y_j$. Similarly, we get an inequality in the other direction which proves the lemma. □

Carrying on with the same notation, we define the following functions:

$$f : J(P) \rightarrow L$$

$$f(I) := \bigvee_{x \in I} x.$$

$$g : L \rightarrow J(P)$$

$$g(y) := \bigcup_{i=1}^n \langle y_i \rangle,$$

where $y = y_1 \vee \cdots \vee y_n$ in the unique way as described earlier. By our previous lemma and commutativity of union, we get that g is indeed well defined.

By our previous lemma, it is also clear that f is surjective.

Now, we claim that $g(f(I)) = I$ for every $I \in J(P)$.

To see this, let A be the antichain corresponding to I . That is, let $A = \{y_1, \dots, y_n\}$ where each y_i is a maximal element of I .

Then, we get that $f(I) = \bigvee_{x \in I} x = y_1 \vee \dots \vee y_n$, using the fact that each $a \vee b = b$ if

$a \leq b$.

Now, $g(f(I)) = g(y_1 \vee \dots \vee y_n) = \langle y_1 \rangle \cup \dots \cup \langle y_n \rangle = \langle y_1, \dots, y_n \rangle = I$. (*)

Thus, $g \circ f$ is the identity function on $J(P)$ and hence, f is injective.

This shows that f is bijective. As g is its one-sided inverse, it is also its two-sided inverse since f is a bijection. Now, we show that f is an isomorphism by showing that both f and g are order preserving.

1. f is order preserving.

Suppose $l_1, l_2 \in J(P)$ with $l_1 \subsetneq l_2$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} f(l_2) &= \bigvee_{x \in l_2} x \\ &= \left(\bigvee_{x \in l_1} x \right) \vee \left(\bigvee_{x \in l_2 \setminus l_1} x \right) \\ &\geq \bigvee_{x \in l_1} x \\ &= f(l_1) \end{aligned}$$

As we already have seen that f is injective, we get that $f(l_1) < f(l_2)$, as desired.

2. g is order preserving.

Suppose that for $I_1, I_2 \in J(P)$, we have $\bigvee_{x \in I_1} x \leq \bigvee_{x \in I_2} x$. We want to show that $I_1 \subset I_2$.

Let $x \in I_1$ be given. We have that $x \leq \bigvee_{x \in I_1} x$ and thus, $x \leq \bigvee_{y \in I_2} y$.

$$\begin{aligned} \implies x &= \left(\bigvee_{y \in I_2} y \right) \wedge x \\ &= \bigvee_{y \in I_2} (y \wedge x) \quad \text{(By distributivity)} \end{aligned}$$

As x is join-irreducible, there exists some $y \in I_2$ such that $x = y \wedge x$, that is, $x \leq y$. As I_2 is an order ideal, this implies that $x \in I_2$.

Thus, $I_1 \subset I_2$. ■

The line marked (*) has a possible flaw. We are assuming that $g(y_1 \vee \cdots \vee y_n) = \langle y_1 \rangle \cup \cdots \cup \langle y_n \rangle$, that is, we are assuming that $y_1 \vee \cdots \vee y_n$ is indeed the minimal representation of $f(I)$.

However, this is justified for if there were a shorter representation in terms of join-irreducibles, we would get a contradiction about the maximality of y_i s.