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# The Necklace Poset is a Symmetric Chain Order 

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#### Abstract

Let $N_{n}$ denote the quotient poset of the Boolean lattice, $B_{n}$, under the relation equivalence under rotation. Griggs, Killian, and Savage proved that $N_{p}$ is a symmetric chain order for prime $p$. In this paper, we settle the question of whether this poset is a symmetric chain order for all $n$ by providing an algorithm that produces a symmetric chain decompostion (or SCD). We accomplish this by modifying bracketing from Greene and Kleitman. This allows us to take appropriate "middles" of certain chains from the Greene-Kleitman SCD for $B_{n}$. We also prove additional properties of the resulting SCD and show that this settles a related conjecture.


[^0]

Figure 1: The Hasse Diagram for $B_{4}$

## 1 Introduction

In this paper, we prove that the necklace poset $\left(N_{n}\right)$ is in fact a symmetric chain decomposition (SCD). In Section 2, we introduce some terms related to posets. We also give a description and proof of the Greene-Kleitman SCD for the Boolean lattice and define and discuss known properties of $N_{n}$. In Section 3, we introduce three lemmas without proof and use them to prove that $N_{n}$ is an SCD. In Section 4, we introduce the idea of circular matchings and prove various properties of these matchings. In Section 5, we use circular matchings to prove the lemmas from Section 3. This completes the proof that $N_{n}$ is an SCD. In Section 6, we modify the proof in Section 3 and use the modified proof to answer a related conjecture. Finally, in Section 7, we offer some open questions.

## 2 Symmetric Chain Decompositions in the Boolean Lattice

We begin with some important definitions, following Anderson [1] and Engel [3].

A chain in a poset, $P$, is a totally ordered subset of $P$. The length of a


Figure 2: The Hasse Diagram for $B_{4}$, Represented by $\{0,1\}$ Sequences
chain is one less than its cardinality. In a poset, $P$, for some elements $x$ and $y$ of $P$, we say that $x$ covers $y$ if $x>y$ and there is no element $z$ such that $x>z>y$. A saturated chain is a chain $x_{1}<\ldots<x_{k}$ such that $x_{i}$ covers $x_{i-1}$ for each $i>0$. If there is a unique element $E$ in $P$ such that $E \leq x$ for all $x \in P$, we say that $E$ is the zero element of $P$. We say a poset is ranked if it has the property that for any $x<y$, all saturated chains from $x$ to $y$ have the same length. In a ranked poset $P$, we define the rank, $r(x)$, of an element to be the length of each chain from the zero element of the poset to $x$. For $x_{i} \in P$, the saturated chain $x_{1}<x_{2},<, \ldots,<x_{k}$ is a symmetric chain in $P$ if

$$
r\left(x_{1}\right)+r\left(x_{k}\right)=r(P)
$$

where $r(P)$ is the maximum rank in $P$. A symmetric chain decomposition (or $\mathbf{S C D}$ ) of $P$ is a partition of $P$ into symmetric chains $C_{1}, \ldots, C_{k}$. If a poset has an SCD, we say it is a symmetric chain order, (or SCO).

In this paper, we are primarily interested in subposets and quotients of the Boolean lattice, $B_{n}$, which is the poset of subsets of the set $[n]=\{1, \ldots, n\}$ ordered by inclusion. A chain in $B_{n}$ consists of elements $A_{i} \in B_{n}$ with $A_{1} \subset, \ldots, \subset A_{k}$. It is clear that $B_{n}$ is a ranked poset, with rank function $r(A):=|A|$. The subposet $\left\{A_{i} \mid i=1, \ldots, k\right\}$ is a symmetric chain in $B_{n}$ if for $i=1, \ldots, k-1$, we have $\left|A_{i+1}\right|=\left|A_{i}\right|+1$, and $\left|A_{1}\right|+\left|A_{k}\right|=n$. There
are several proofs of the fact that $B_{n}$ is an SCO (see [2] and [4]).
Greene and Kleitman provide a particularly nice construction of an SCD for $B_{n}$ (see [4]). To a set $A \in B_{n}$ with $A=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right\}$, we associate a sequence $\hat{A}$ of zeros and ones of length $n$, so that $\hat{A}$ has a one in position $i$ if and only if $i \in A$. For example, in $B_{7}$, the set $\{2,3,6\}$ corresponds to the sequence 0110010. In this paper, elements of $B_{n}$ will be primarily represented by and referred to by these sequences.

Using these $\{0,1\}$ sequences, we then perform a procedure equivalent to matching and closing parentheses with "(" represented by a zero and ")" represented by a one. This procedure is commonly referred to as bracketing or parenthesis matching. Formally, starting at the left, when we encounter a zero, it becomes (possibly temporarily) unmatched. When a one is encountered, it is matched to the rightmost unmatched zero, and this zero is now matched as well. If there are currently no unmatched zeros, then this one is unmatched. We continue in this manner until we reach the end of the sequence. We should now have three sets associated with the given sequence $x$ : The set of positions of unmatched zeros, $U_{0}(x)$, the set of positions of unmatched ones, $U_{1}(x)$, and finally, the set of matchings, $M(x):=\{(a, b)$ : a zero in position $a$ is matched to a one in position $b\}$. For example, if $x=1011011100010110$, then the parenthesis version is $)())()))((()())($, and when we perform the matching, we get:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& U_{0}(x)=\{9,16\} \\
& U_{1}(x)=\{1,4,7,8\} \\
& M(x)=\{(2,3),(5,6),(10,15),(11,12),(13,14)\}
\end{aligned}
$$

We should establish an important fact about these sets. If $a \in U_{1}(x)$ and $b \in U_{0}(x)$, then $a<b$. That is, all unmatched ones precede all unmatched zeroes. (If $b<a$, then the zero in position $b$ was encountered before the one in position $a$. So, position $b$ consisted of an unmatched zero when the one in position $a$ was encountered, and the one in position $a$ would not have become unmatched.)

We next introduce a function $\tau$ which acts on the $\{0,1\}$ sequences by changing the leftmost unmatched zero to a one. The function $\tau$ is defined on all $x \in B_{n}$ such that $U_{0}(x) \neq \emptyset$. By the fact above, we observe that:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& U_{0}(\tau(x))=U_{0}(x) \backslash\{i\} \\
& U_{1}(\tau(x))=U_{1}(x) \cup\{i\} \\
& M(\tau(x))=M(x)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $i=\min \left(U_{0}(x)\right)$. We also define $\tau^{-1}$ which changes the rightmost unmatched one to a zero. It is defined on all $x \in B_{n}$ such that $U_{1}(x) \neq \emptyset$. We observe that:

$$
\begin{aligned}
U_{0}\left(\tau^{-1}(x)\right) & =U_{0}(x) \cup\{i\} \\
U_{1}\left(\tau^{-1}(x)\right) & =U_{1}(x) \backslash\{i\} \\
M\left(\tau^{-1}(x)\right) & =M(x)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $i=\max \left(U_{1}(x)\right)$. From the observations above, we conclude that for $x \in B_{n}$ such that $U_{0}(x) \neq \emptyset$, we have that $\tau^{-1}(\tau(x))=x$. Similarly, for $x \in B_{n}$ such that $U_{1}(x) \neq \emptyset$, we have $\tau\left(\tau^{-1}(x)\right)=x$. Thus, $\tau(x)$ is one-toone.

The following theorem gives a construction of the Greene-Kleitman SCD for $B_{n}$.

Theorem 2.1 (Greene and Kleitman [4]) The following is a symmetric chain decomposition of $B_{n}$ :

$$
S=\left\{C_{x} \mid x \in B_{n}, U_{1}(x)=\emptyset\right\}
$$

Proof. Using the facts above about $\tau$, we construct the chains of the Greene-Kleitman SCD for $B_{n}$ as follows. For $x$ in $B_{n}$ with $U_{1}(x)=\emptyset$ and $\left|U_{0}(x)\right|=k$, let $C_{x}=\left\{x, \tau(x), \tau^{2}(x), \ldots, \tau^{k}(x)\right\}$ be a chain in the decomposition. We need to show that $C_{x}$ is in fact symmetric. Note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
|x|+\left|\tau^{k}(x)\right| & =|M(x)|+\left|U_{1}(x)\right|+\left|M\left(\tau^{k}(x)\right)\right|+\left|U_{1}\left(\tau^{k}(x)\right)\right| \\
& =2|M(x)|+k \\
& =n,
\end{aligned}
$$

because $2|M(x)|+k$ is simply the total number of zeros and ones in $x$. Any matching accounts for two positions, and any unmatched position in


Figure 3: The Greene-Kleitman SCD for $B_{4}$
$x$ is an unmatched zero. So, $C_{x}$ is symmetric. The fact that $\tau(x)$ is one-to-one proves that the chains in $S$ are disjoint. Further, for $y \in B_{n}$ with $k=\max \left\{i \mid U_{0}\left(\tau^{-i}(y)\right)>0\right\}$, let $x=\tau^{-k-1}(y)$. By our choice of $k$, we see that $U_{1}(x)=\emptyset$. So the chain $C_{x}$ is in $S$. Note also that $\tau^{k+1}(x)=y$, so that $y \in C_{x}$. Since $x$ was chosen arbitrarily, $S$ is a partition of $B_{n}$.

We now define several additional properties of posets, in the manner of [1] and [3]. Let $P$ be a ranked poset with maximum rank $M$ where $P_{k}=\{x \in$ $P: \operatorname{rank}(x)=k\}$. Then, $P$ is rank-symmetric if, given $k=0,1,2, \ldots, M$, we have $\left|P_{k}\right|=\left|P_{M-k}\right|$. Further, $P$ is rank-unimodal if there exists $j$ such that $\left|P_{0}\right| \leq\left|P_{1}\right| \leq \ldots \leq\left|P_{j}\right|$ and $\left|P_{j}\right| \geq\left|P_{j+1} \geq \ldots \geq\left|P_{M}\right|\right.$. The poset $P$ is strongly Sperner if, for all $k=1,2, \ldots, M+1$, the union of the $k$ middle levels of $P$ is a union of $k$ antichains of maximum size. A poset is Peck if it is rank-symmetric, rank-unimodal, and strongly Sperner. Finally, given a group $G$ of automorphisms of a poset $P$, the set of orbits of the automorphism form a quotient of $P$ under $G($ or $P / G)$ ordered in the following way: For orbits of $G, A$ and $B$, we have $A \leq_{P / G} B$ if and only if there are $a \in A$ and $b \in B$ such that $a \leq_{P} b$. It is simple to see that the this structure is a poset.

We are now ready to define necklaces and the necklace poset.
First, we define $\sigma$, the function that rotates an element of $B_{n}$. For $x \in B_{n}$, with $x=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right),\left(x_{i} \in\{0,1\}, i=1,2, \ldots, n\right)$, define

$$
\sigma(x)=\left(x_{n}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)
$$



Figure 4: The Greene-Kleitman SCD for $B_{4}$, Represented by $\{0,1\}$ Sequences

For $x, y \in B_{n}, y$ we say is a rotation of $x($ or $y \sim x)$ if for some $k, y=\sigma^{k}(x)$. It is clear that " $\sim$ " is an equivalence relation on $B_{n}$.

Definition 2.2 The necklace poset, $N_{n}$ is the quotient poset of $B_{n}$ under the relation $\sim$, where for $X, Y \in N_{n}, X \leq Y$ if there exist $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$ $\left(x, y \in B_{n}\right)$ with $x \subseteq y$. [7]

We now discuss $N_{n}$ in relation to the previously defined properties. By definition, the necklace poset is a quotient of the Boolean lattice, because its elements are orbits of the elements of $B_{n}$ under the rotation automorphism. Stanley showed that any quotient of the Boolean lattice is a Peck poset.

Theorem 2.3 (Stanley [12]) If $P$ is a unitary Peck poset, then $P / G$ is Peck.
Stanley also proved that $B_{n}$ is unitary Peck for all $n$ (see [12]). Therefore, $N_{n}$ satisfies the properties of rank symmetry, rank unimodality, and is strongly Sperner.

Griggs(see [8]) showed that the LYM property (which we will not define here), together with rank-symmetry and rank-unimodality, implies that a poset has a symmetric chain decomposition. For prime $p$, it may be easily verified that $N_{p}$ satisfies the LYM property, and therefore has an SCD. It is


Figure 5: The Hasse Diagram for $N_{6}$
not known whether $N_{n}$ has the LYM property in the general case. However, the fact that the general $N_{n}$ is Peck lent some support that it had an SCD.

In a paper on symmetric venn diagrams, Griggs, Killian and Savage (see [7]) gave an elegant explicit construction of an SCD for $N_{p}$, with $p$ prime. This SCD has an additional property, the chain cover property, which we will discuss in Section 5. They used the idea of bracketing from the GreeneKleitman SCD for $B_{n}$, which we also use in this paper. They also used the idea of block codes to choose a representative in $B_{n}$ for each element of $N_{n}$. Denote by $R_{n}$ this subposet of representatives. (Note that $R_{n} \subset B_{n}$.)

Theorem 2.4 (Griggs, Killian, and Savage [7]) If $n$ is prime, $R_{n}$ has a symmetric chain decomposition with the chain cover property.

Jiang and Savage [11] applied some of the methods in [7] to the case of composite $n$. They were able to narrow the problem to that of finding an SCD for the elements of $N_{n}$ with periodic block code. It is possible to find SCDs for the elements of $N_{n}$ with periodic block codes for $n$ up to 16. So, there exist SCDs for $N_{n}$ with $n \leq 16$.

## 3 The Necklace Poset is an SCO

In this section, we prove that $N_{n}$ has an SCD in the general case. The proof that $N_{n}$ has an SCD utilizes three lemmas. The lemmas demonstrate that we can perform certain operations on the Greene-Kleitman SCD for $B_{n}$ while preserving the property that each chain is symmetric. These operations allow us to remove all but one representative from each equivalence class in $N_{n}$, leaving a symmetric chain decomposition for $N_{n}$. In this section, we assume the lemmas and use them to prove the following theorem. We will prove the lemmas in Section 5.

Theorem 3.1 For all positive integers $n, N_{n}$ is a symmetric chain order.
Proof. We define a set $M_{n}$, consisting of $x \in B_{n}$ such that $x$ achieves the maximum number of unmatched ones over all rotations, that is,

$$
M_{n}=\left\{y \in B_{n}:\left|U_{1}(y)\right|=\max \left\{\mid U_{1}\left(\tau^{k}(y) \mid: k=1,2, \ldots, n\right\}\right\}\right.
$$

We use the set $M_{n}$ in the first two lemmas.

```
111111
111110}0011111 101111 110111 111011 111101
111100 011110 101110}1110110 111010 111001 001111 100111 110011 010111 101011
111000 011100 101100 110100 110010 110001 001110 100110 100011 010110 101010
110000 011000 1010000100100 100010 100001 001100 000110 000011 010100 001010
100000 010000 001000 000100 000010}000000
0 0 0 0 0 0
110101 101101 011011 011101
100101 101001 011010 011001 000111 001101 010011 010101 001011
000101 001001 010010 010001
```

Figure 6: SCD for $B_{6}$ With Members of $M_{n}$ in Bold

| 111111 |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 111110 |  |  |  |
| 111100 | $101110 \longleftrightarrow 111010$ | 110110 |  |
| 111000 | $101100 \longleftrightarrow 110010$ | 110100 | 101010 |
| 110000 | $101000 \longleftrightarrow 100010$ | 100100 |  |
| 100000 |  |  |  |
| 000000 |  |  |  |

Figure 7: SCD for $M_{6}$ With Duplicate Representatives of $N_{6}$ Members Indicated

Lemma 3.2 Let $x \in M_{n}$. Then, if $|x|<\frac{n}{2}$,

$$
\tau^{i}(x) \in M_{n}, 1 \leq i \leq n-2|x|
$$

and if $|x|>\frac{n}{2}$,

$$
\tau^{-i}(x) \in M_{n}, 1 \leq i \leq 2|x|-n .
$$

That is, if $x \in M_{n}$ and $C$ is the chain containing $x$ in the Greene-Kleitman SCD of $B_{n}$, all of the elements of the smallest symmetric "sub-chain" of $C$ that contains $x$ are also in $M_{n}$.

This lemma allows us to remove all of the elements of $B_{n}$ that are not also in $M_{n}$. Note that the resulting chains still contain at least one representative of every element of $N_{n}$. We will refer to the remaining chains as the SCD for $M_{n}$. The next two lemmas allow us to eliminate remaining duplicate representatives of elements of $N_{n}$.

Lemma 3.3 Let $x, y \in M_{n}$ with $x \sim y$.
If $|x| \geq \frac{n}{2}$, then $\tau(x) \sim \tau(y)$ or $\{\tau(x), \tau(y)\} \cap M_{n}=\emptyset$.
If $|x| \leq \frac{n}{2}$, then $\tau^{-1}(x) \sim \tau^{-1}(y)$ or $\left\{\tau^{-1}(x), \tau^{-1}(y)\right\} \cap M_{n}=\emptyset$.


Figure 8: Lemma 3.3 Illustrated

Lemma 3.4 Let $x, y \in B_{n}$ with $|x|=|y|=k<\frac{n}{2}$. Then,

$$
x \sim y \Longleftrightarrow \tau^{n-2 k}(x) \sim \tau^{n-2 k}(y)
$$

In the rest of the proof, we describe an algorithm that produces an SCD for $N_{n}$ from the SCD for $M_{n}$. Each iteration produces an SCD for a subset $D^{k}$ of $B_{n}$. We always preserve the property that each necklace element has at least one representative in $D^{k}$, and $D^{k+1} \subsetneq D^{k}$.

Let $C_{x}^{0}$ be the chain in the Greene-Kleitman SCD for $B_{n}$, restricted to $M_{n}$, that contains $x$. Also, let $D^{0}=M_{n}$. At step $j$ in the iteration, $C_{x}^{j}$ is the chain containing $x$, and $D^{j}$ is the set of elements of $B_{n}$ remaining in the poset. At step $j$ let $x, y \in M_{n}$ with $x \sim y,|x|=k$. Without loss of generality, suppose that $|x| \geq \frac{n}{2}$. Otherwise, by Lemma 3.4, we can choose $\tau^{n-2 k}(x)$ and $\tau^{n-2 k}(y)$. We also assume that $C_{x}^{j}$ is at least as long as $C_{y}^{j}$. By repeated application of Lemma 3.3, we get that for all $i \geq 0$ with $\tau^{-i}(y) \in M_{n}, \tau^{-i}(x) \sim \tau^{-i}(y)$. This corresponds to the "bottom tail" of $C_{y}^{j}$. Define the "bottom tail" by:

$$
T_{b}^{j}:=\left\{\tau^{-i}(y) \mid i \geq 0, \tau^{-i}(y) \in M_{n}\right\}
$$

Using Lemma 3.4, we get that $\tau^{n-2 k}(x) \in M_{n}$. Then, applying Lemma 3.3 repeatedly, we get that for all $i \geq 0$ with $\tau^{n-2 k+i}(y) \in M_{n}, \tau^{n-2 k+i}(x) \sim$ $\tau^{n-2 k+i}(y)$. This corresponds to the "top tail" of $C_{y}^{j}$. Define the "top tail" by:

$$
T_{t}^{j}:=\left\{\tau^{n-2 k+i}(y) \mid i \geq 0, \tau^{n-2 k+i}(y) \in M_{n}\right\}
$$

We then remove the tails of $C_{y}^{j}$. That is, we set

$$
\begin{aligned}
& C_{*}^{j+1}=C_{y}^{j} \backslash\left(T_{b}^{j} \cup T_{t}^{j}\right) \\
& D^{j+1}:=D_{j} \backslash\left(T_{b}^{j} \cup T_{t}^{j}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The new chain, $C_{*}^{j+1}$ is symmetric, and we have only removed members which were rotations of members of the chain containing $x$. For $z \in D^{j+1} \backslash C_{y}^{j}$, set $C_{z}^{j+1}:=C_{z}^{j}$. Also, for $z \in C_{*}^{j+1}$, let $C_{z}^{j+1}:=C_{*}^{j+1}$. The set $D^{j+1}$ has at least one fewer duplicate representative than $D^{j}$, and the following is an SCD for $D^{j+1}$ :

$$
\bigcup_{z \in D^{j+1}} C_{z}^{j+1}
$$

If there remain $x, y \in D^{j+1}$ with $x \sim y$, repeat this process. If not, we have an SCD for $N_{n}$. So given the three lemmas, the theorem holds.


Figure 9: Removing Duplicate Representatives of Elements of $M_{n}$






Figure 10: SCD for $N_{6}$

## 4 Circular Matchings

To prove the lemmas, we introduce the idea of circular matching, which remains structurally unchanged under rotation. Intuitively, we arrange the string of zeros and ones in a circle and match them in the same manner Greene and Kleitman did in a straight line. Formally, we must pick a starting position, although we will later prove that the end result does not depend on this starting position. This starting position, together with the necklace element, corresponds to an element $x$ of $B_{n}$. We first perform the normal Greene and Kleitman parenthesis matching process, forming sets $U_{0}(x), U_{1}(x)$, and $M(x)$. Then, we iteratively form the sets $C U_{0}(x), C U_{1}(x)$, and $C M(x)$, the set of circulary unmatched zeros, circulary unmatched ones, and circular matchings, repsectively. Start with $C U_{0}(x)=U_{0}(x), C U_{1} 0(x)=U_{1}(x)$, and $C M_{0}(x)=M(x)$. At step $i$, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
a & :=\min \left(C U_{0}^{i}(x)\right) \\
b & :=\max \left(C U_{1}^{i}(x)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note here that $b<a$. Then define,

$$
\begin{aligned}
C M^{i+1}(x) & :=C M^{i}(x) \cup\{(a, b)\} \\
C U_{0}^{i+1}(x) & :=C U_{0}^{i}(x) \backslash\{a\} \\
C U_{1}^{i+1}(x) & :=C U_{1}^{i}(x) \backslash\{b\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Continue until $C U_{0}^{i}(x)=\emptyset$ or $C U_{1}^{i}(x)=\emptyset$. At this point, set

$$
\begin{aligned}
& C M(x):=C M^{i}(x) \\
& C U_{0}(x):=C U_{0}^{i}(x) \\
& C U_{1}(x):=C U_{1}^{i}(x)
\end{aligned}
$$

We next establish some properties of these sets. As we can observe in figure (insert), there is an intuitive order of the matchings with the relation "inside of." Define:

$$
(a, b)^{*}= \begin{cases}I(a, b) & \text { if } a<b \\ I(0, b) \cup I(a, n) & \text { if } a>b\end{cases}
$$

We use the notation $I(a, b)$ to refer to the open interval $(a, b)$ in order to avoid confusion with our notation for the circular matching $(a, b)$.

Proposition 4.1 For $x \in B_{n}$, the set $C M(x)$ with the order $\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)<_{m}$ $\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)$ if $\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)^{*} \subset\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)^{*}$, is a partial order such that $\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)$ and $\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)$ are incomparable if and only if $\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)^{*} \cap\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)^{*}=\emptyset$.

Proof. First, it is clear that the above induces a partial order on $C M(x)$. Next, if $\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)^{*} \cap\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)^{*}=\emptyset$, then clearly $\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)$ and $\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)$ are incomparable. We prove the converse by cases. Assume $\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)^{*} \cap\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)^{*} \neq \emptyset$, and we assume, without loss of generality, that $a_{1}<a_{2}$.

Case 1: $\mathrm{b}_{1}<\mathrm{b}_{2}<\mathrm{a}_{1}<\mathrm{a}_{2}$
Both matchings are in $C M(x) \backslash M(x)$. So at the step that the circular matching $\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)$ was added to $C M^{i+1}(x), a_{1}=\min \left(C U_{0}^{i}(x)\right)$ and $b_{1}=$ $\max \left(C U_{1}^{i}(x)\right)$. This means that the circular matching $\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)$ had to have been added first. But using the same reasoning, this also couldn't have happened. So, this case simply never happens.

Case 2: $\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{2}}<\mathrm{b}_{\mathbf{1}}<\mathrm{a}_{\mathbf{1}}<\mathrm{a}_{\mathbf{2}}$
Here, $\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)^{*}=I\left(0, b_{2}\right) \cup I\left(a_{2}, n\right) \subset I\left(0, b_{1}\right) \cup I\left(a_{1}, n\right)=\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)^{*}$, so that $\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)<_{m}\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)$.

Case 3: $\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{1}}<\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{1}}<\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{2}}<\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{2}}$
Here, $\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)^{*}=I\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right) \subset I\left(0, b_{2}\right) \cup I\left(a_{2}, n\right)=\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)^{*}$, so that $\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)<_{m}$ $\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)$.

Case 4: $\mathrm{a}_{1}<\mathrm{b}_{\mathbf{2}}<\mathrm{b}_{\mathbf{1}}<\mathrm{a}_{\mathbf{2}}$
Here, in the initial Greene-Kleitman matching phase, $b_{2}$ was encountered when $a_{1}$ was an unmatched zero, so $a_{1}$ would have been matched to $b_{2}$ instead. This case never happens.

Case 5: $\mathrm{a}_{1}<\mathrm{a}_{\mathbf{2}}<\mathrm{b}_{1}<\mathrm{b}_{\mathbf{2}}$
Similar to Case 4, in the initial Greene-Kleitman matching phase, $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$ were both unmatched zeros when $b_{1}$ was encountered. Since $a_{2}>a_{1}, b_{1}$ would have been matched to $a_{2}$ instead. This case never happens.

Case 6: $\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{1}}<\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{2}}<\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{2}}<\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{1}}$
Here, $\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)^{*}=I\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right) \subset I\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)=\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)^{*}$, so that $\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)<_{m}\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)$.
Case 7: $\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{1}}<\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{1}}<\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{2}}<\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{2}}$
Here, $\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)^{*}=I\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right) \subset I\left(0, b_{1}\right) \cup I\left(a_{1}, n\right)=\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)^{*}$, so that $\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)<_{m}$ $\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)$.

Case 8: $\mathrm{b}_{\mathbf{2}}<\mathrm{a}_{1}<\mathrm{a}_{2}<\mathrm{b}_{1}$
During the initial Greene-Kleitman matching phase, $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$ were both unmatched zeros when $b_{1}$ was encountered. Since $a_{2}>a_{1}, b_{1}$ would have been matched to $a_{2}$ instead. This case never happens.

Case 9: $\mathrm{b}_{1}<\mathrm{a}_{1}<\mathrm{b}_{\mathbf{2}}<\mathrm{a}_{2}$
During the initial Greene-Kleitman matching phase, $a_{1}$ was an unmatched zero when $b_{2}$ was encountered, so $a_{1}$ would have been matched to $b_{2}$. This case never occurs.

Case 10: $\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{2}}<\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{1}}<\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{1}}<\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{2}}$
Here, $\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)^{*}=I\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)$ is disjoint from $I\left(0, b_{2}\right) \cup I\left(a_{2}, n\right)=\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)^{*}$, which contradicts our assumption.

Case 11: $\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{1}}<\mathbf{b}_{1}<\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{2}}<\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{2}}$
Here, $\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)^{*}=I\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)$ is disjoint from $I\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)=\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)^{*}$, which contradicts our assumption.

Case 12: $\mathrm{a}_{1}<\mathrm{b}_{\mathbf{2}}<\mathrm{a}_{2}<\mathrm{b}_{1}$
During the initial Greene-Kleitman matching phase, $a_{1}$ was an unmatched zero when $b_{2}$ was encountered, so $a_{1}$ would have been matched to $b_{2}$. This case never occurs.

This proposition verifies that the circular matching procedure is equivalent to the parenthesis matching and closing process. Thinking of circular matching in this manner, we first match all of the minimal elements of the poset in Proposition 4.1. Then, we remove them from the poset and repeat the process. These matchings are illustrated in figure ?????????????.

We have previously alluded to the fact that the sets $C M(x), C U_{0}(x)$, and $C U_{1}(x)$ are "structurally unchanged" under rotation. In fact, the sets above simply rotate as we rotate $x$, as it appears in the figure above. To make notation simpler, in the rest of the paper all addition will be performed modulo $n$. We now prove the following proposition:

Proposition 4.2 Let $x \in B_{n}$. Then, for $i \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& C M\left(\sigma^{i}(x)\right)=\{(a+i, b+i):(a, b) \in C M(x)\} \\
& C U_{0}\left(\sigma^{i}(x)\right)=\left\{a+i: a \in C U_{0}(x)\right\} \\
& C U_{1}\left(\sigma^{i}(x)\right)=\left\{a+i: a \in C U_{1}(x)\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. First note that it is enough to show that if $(a, b) \in C M(x)$, then $(a+1, b+1) \in C M(\sigma(x))$. We can prove this by using the fact that the circular matchings are equivalent to the procedure of closing parentheses. In other words, we first close and remove the sequences that read 01 (moving clockwise.), iterating this process until there are no more such sequences. In the case of linear Greene-Kleitman matching, this is when the sequence
consists of all of the ones followed by all of the zeros. In the circular case, this is when the necklace consists of either all ones or all zeros or is the empty necklace. It is easy to see that, in the circular case, if there is a sequence 01 starting at position $a$ (moving clockwise) in $x$, then $(a, a+1(\bmod n)) \in$ $C M(x)$. It is clear that if such a sequence is in $x$, there will be a sequence 01 starting in position $a+1$ in $\sigma(x)$. So then $(a+1, a+2) \in C M(\sigma(x))$. We can then remove the sequences corresponding to these matchings. The rest follows by induction on the size of the necklace.

Proposition 4.3 The structure of the poset of circular matchings is preserved under rotation. That is, if $\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)<_{m}\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)$, then $\left(a_{1}+1, b_{1}+1\right)<_{m}$ $\left(a_{2}+1, b_{2}+1\right)$.

Proof. This follows immediately from Propositions 4.1 and 4.2.
Proposition 4.4 Let $X \in N_{n}$. For any representative $x \in B_{n}$ of $X$, $k \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$, the following holds: The matchings in $C M\left(\sigma^{k}(x)\right)$ but not $M\left(\sigma^{k}(x)\right)$ correspond to matchings in $C M(x)$ that cross the space between positions $k-1$ and $k$.

Proof. $M(x)$ consists of matchings in $C M(x)$ that do not cross the space between positions $n-1$ and 0 . By rotating $x$, we see that the matchings in $M\left(\sigma^{k}(x)\right)$ correspond to matchings in $C M(x)$ that do not cross the space between positions $k-1$ and $k$.

We say that the matchings that are in $C M\left(\sigma^{k}(x)\right)$ but not $M\left(\sigma^{k}(x)\right)$ are "cut" by the rotation of $x$ that starts with this position $k$. The next proposition states that the elements of $M_{n}$ are in fact the rotations that "cut" the most circular matchings.

Proposition 4.5 Let $X \in N_{n}$. For any representative $x \in B_{n}$ of $X$, the following holds. Let $k \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$ be such that the number of matchings in $C M(x)$ that cross the space between positions $k-1$ and $k$ is maximized. Then, $\sigma^{k}(x) \in M_{n}$.

Proof. It is simple to see that

$$
\left|U_{1}\left(\sigma^{k}(x)\right)\right|=\left|C U_{1}\left(\sigma^{k}(x)\right)\right|+\left|C M\left(\sigma^{k}(x)\right)\right|-\left|M\left(\sigma^{k}(x)\right)\right| .
$$

Since the first term of the sum is fixed under rotation, $\left|U_{1}\left(\sigma^{k}(x)\right)\right|$ is maximized when $\left|C M\left(\sigma^{k}(x)\right)\right|-\left|M\left(\sigma^{k}(x)\right)\right|$ is maximized. This quantity, by Proposition 4.4, is just the number of matchings in $C M(x)$ that cross the space between positions $k-1$ and $k$. This is maximal by assumption.

Proposition 4.6 Let $x \in B_{n}$. Then,

$$
C M(x)=C M\left(\tau^{n-2 k}(x)\right)
$$

In fact, if $x_{1}<x_{2}<\ldots<x_{j}$ is a chain in the Greene-Kleitman SCD, then
$\left.C M\left(x_{1}\right)=C M\left(x_{j}\right) \subset C M\left(x_{2}\right)=C M\left(x_{j-1}\right) \subset \ldots \subset C M\left(x_{\frac{j}{2}}\right)=C M\left(x_{\left\lfloor\frac{j+1}{2}\right.}\right\rfloor\right)$
Proof. We claim that, in the poset of circular matchings, there are no $(a, b) \in C M(x) \backslash M(x),(c, d) \in M(x)$, with $(a, b)<_{m}(c, d)$. To demonstrate the claim, suppose that such a matching exists, and note that $n \in(a, b)^{*}$, because $b<a$. Also, note that $n \notin(c, d)^{*}$, because $c<d$. So, $(a, b)^{*} \nsubseteq(c, d)^{*}$, which implies that $(a, b) Z_{m}(c, d)$. By Proposition 4.1, since $n$ is in each $(a, b)^{*}$ in $C M(x) \backslash M(x), C M(x) \backslash M(x)$ is totally ordered.

By properties of the Greene-Kleitman SCD of $B_{n}$, we know that $M(x)=$ $M\left(\tau^{n-2 k}(x)\right)$. So, it is enough to show that $C M(x) \backslash M(x)=C M\left(\tau^{n-2 k}(x)\right) \backslash$ $M\left(\tau^{n-2 k}(x)\right)$. Note that while $|y|<n / 2, C M(y) \subseteq C M(\tau(y))$. If $|y| \geq n / 2$, then $C M(y) \supset C M(\tau(y))$. During each step in the circular matching process, the leftmost circularly unmatched one is paired to the rightmost circularly unmatched zero. If ( $a, b$ ) is a circular matching made earlier in the circular matching process than $(c, d)$ ), then $b$ is to the left of $d$, and $a$ is to the right of $c$. In other words, $b<d$ and $c<a$. So, $(a, b)<_{m}(c, d)$. If $|y|<n / 2$, then there are more zeros than ones, so all of the ones are circularly matched. The one added by $\tau(y)$ is to the right of all of the circularly matched ones in $U_{1}(y)$, so if it is circularly matched, it will be circularly matched last. (Since $|y|<n / 2$, the zero we changed was not circularly matched, and this new one will not affect any of the circular matchings already present in $C M(y)$.) In other words, the new circular matching (if any) made with this new one will be the greatest element in the chain of matchings in $C M(\tau(y)) \backslash M(\tau(y))$.

Now, we assume $|y| \geq n / 2$. In this case, all of the zeros are circularly matched. So, when we apply $\tau$, we change the leftmost (smallest) element of $U_{0}(y)$ to a one. This zero was circularly matched, so we are removing a circular matching. But, because the zero was the leftmost, the circular matching we remove is the maximal matching in the chain of matchings in $C M(y) \backslash M(y)$.

## 5 Three Lemmas

In this section, we will use the properties of circular matching to prove the lemmas.

Proof of Lemma 3.2. Note that for the first part of the lemma, it is enough to show that if $x \in M_{n}$ with $|x|=k<n / 2$, then $\tau(x) \in M_{n}$. Let $x$ be as above. Then we know that $M(x)=M(\tau(x))$. By changing a zero to a one, at most one circular matching can be added. By Proposition 4.6, if $k$ is not a middle level, then $C M(x) \subset C M(\tau(x))$. So $C M(\tau(x)) \backslash M(\tau(x))$ has one more circular matching than $C M(x) \backslash M(x)$. Thus, $\tau(x)$ also has the maximum cardinality of $C M(\tau(x)) \backslash M(\tau(x))$ over all rotations of $\tau(x)$. Thus, by Propositions 4.4 and $4.5, \tau(x) \in M_{n}$. If $k<n / 2$ is a middle level, then by Proposition 4.6, CM(x) $=C M(\tau(x))$, so by the same reasoning as above, $\tau(x) \in M_{n}$. This completes the proof of the first part of the lemma. Now, suppose $|x|=k>n / 2$. By Proposition 4.6, $C M(x)=C M\left(\tau^{n-2 k}(x)\right)$. So, $\tau^{n-2 k}(x) \in M_{n}$ and $\left|\tau^{n-2 k}(x)\right|<n / 2$. So, by the first part of the lemma we have already proven, $\tau\left(\tau^{n-2 k}(x)\right)-\tau^{n-2 k+1}(x) \in M_{n}$. But by applying Proposition 4.6 again, $C M\left(\tau^{n-2 k+1}(x)\right)=C M\left(\tau^{-1}(x)\right)$. Thus, $\tau^{-1}(x) \in M_{n}$.

Proof of Lemma 3.3. Let $x, y$ be as in the statement of the lemma with $|x| \geq n / 2$ and $y=\sigma^{k}(x)$. By Propositon 4.6, $\tau(x)$ and $\tau(y)$ are obtained from $x$ and $y$, respectively by changing the zero in the maximal matching in $C M(x) \backslash M(x)$ and $C M(y) \backslash M(y)$ to a one. Let $(a, b)$ be the maximal matching in $C M(x) \backslash M(x)$. First assume that $(a+k, b+k) \in C M(y) \backslash M(y)$. If $(a+k, b+k)$ is not maximal in $C M(y) \backslash M(y)$, then there was some matching in $M(x)$ that covered $(a, b)$. We saw in the proof of Proposition 4.6 that this isn't possible. So, $(a+k, b+k)$ is maximal in $C M(y) \backslash M(y)$. Then, $(a+k, b+k)$ is the matching removed by $\tau(y)$. Thus, $C M(\tau(y))$ is a rotation of $C M(\tau(x))$, which implies that $\tau(x) \sim \tau(y)$. Next, assume that $(a+k, b+k) \in M(y)$. Then, if $(c, d)$ is another matching in $C M(x) \backslash M(x),(c, d) \subset(a, b)$ means that $(c+k, d+k) \subset(a+k, b+k)$. Therefore, $(c+k, d+k) \in M(y)$. Essentially, this means that the set of circular matchings cut by $x$ is disjoint from the set of circular matchings cut by $y$. Note that since $x$ and $y$ are both in $M_{n}$, and they have the same number of ones, $|C M(x) \backslash M(x)|=|C M(y) \backslash M(y)|$. Then,

$$
\begin{align*}
|C M(\tau(x)) \backslash M(\tau(x))| & =|(C M(x) \backslash M(x)) \backslash\{(a, b)\}| \\
& =|C M(x) \backslash M(x)|-1  \tag{1}\\
& =|C M(y) \backslash M(y)|-1
\end{align*}
$$

On the other hand,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|C M\left(\sigma^{k}(\tau(x))\right) \backslash M\left(\sigma^{k}(\tau(x))\right)\right|=|C M(y) \backslash M(y)| \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

So, $\tau(x) \notin M_{n}$.
In a symmetrical argument, we also get that $\tau(y) \notin M_{n}$.
Proof of Lemma 3.4. Since $x \sim y$, by Proposition 4.2, $C M(x)$ is a rotation of $C M(y)$. By Proposition 4.6, $C M(x)=C M\left(\tau^{n-2 k}(x)\right)$ and $C M(y)=C M\left(\tau^{n-2 k}(y)\right)$. So, $C M\left(\tau^{n-2 k}(x)\right)$ is a rotation of $C M\left(\tau^{n-2 k}(y)\right)$. Since $\left|\tau^{n-2 k}(x)\right|=\left|\tau^{n-2 k}(y)\right|>n / 2$, all of the circularly unmatched positions are ones. Thus, $\tau^{n-2 k}(x) \sim \tau^{n-2 k}(y)$.

The proofs of the lemmas complete the proof of Theorem 3.1.

## 6 Additional Properties and Related Conjectures

A motivating application for finding symmetric chain decompositions for $N_{n}$ is related to finding symmetric Venn diagrams.

Definition 6.1 $A n$ independent family is a collection of $n$ curves in the plane such that every subset of $[n]$ is represented at least once in the regions formed by the intersections of the interiors of the curves. A Venn diagram is an independent family where each subset is represented exactly once. [11]

Definition 6.2 $A$ rotationally symmetric independent family is an independent family of $n$ congruent curves such that each curve is a rotation of the other curves by some multiple of $2 \pi / n$ radians about a fixed point. $A$ rotationally symmetric Venn diagram is a rotationally symmetric independent family that is also a Venn diagram. [6]

Grünbaum [5] proves that any independent family of $n$ curves must have at least $2+n\left(\left|N_{n}\right|-2\right)$ regions. He also shows that rotationally symmetric independent families of $n$ curves exist for all $n$. He asks if a rotationally symmetric independent family of $n$ curves with $2+n\left(\left|N_{n}\right|-2\right)$ regions can be found for each $n$.

Griggs, Killian, and Savage show in [7] that rotationally symmetric Venn diagrams of $p$ curves exist when $p$ is prime. It is simple to see that for prime $p$, any Venn diagram has the minimum number of regions. That is, the number of regions is $\left|B_{p}\right|$, which is equal to $2+p\left(\left|N_{p}\right|-2\right)$. In order to prove that these Venn diagrams exist, this method required the existence of an SCD for $N_{p}$ with an additional property, defined below.

Definition 6.3 Let starter $(C)$ be the element of minimum rank in the chain $C$, and let terminator $(C)$ be the element of maximum rank in the chain $C$. We say that chain $C^{*}$ covers chain $C$ if there is an element $x \in C^{*}$ such that starter $(C)$ covers $x$ and an element $y \in C^{*}$ such that $y$ coversterminator $(C)$. Let $A$ be an $S C D$ in a finite ranked poset. A has the chain cover property if each chain in $A$ that is not of maximal length is covered by some other chain in A. [7]

Jiang proved that, given an SCD with the chain cover property for $N_{n}$, there exists a rotationally symmetric independent family of $n$ curves, using the same methods as [7].

Theorem 6.4 (Jiang [10]) Let $R_{n}$, a subposet of $B_{n}$, be a complete set of representatives of the elements of $N_{n}$ such that each necklace element is represented exactly once. If there exists an $S C D$ of $R_{n}$ with the chain cover property, then there exists a rotationally symmetric independent family of $n$ curves, with number of regions that reaches the lower bound, $2+n\left(\left|N_{n}\right|-2\right)$.

By being slightly more specific about which representatives we delete, we can construct an SCD for $N_{n}$ that has the chain cover property. By the theorem above, this will give us a rotationally symmetric independent family of $n$ curves with $2+n\left(\left|N_{n}\right|-2\right.$ regions. This settles Grünbaum's question in [5].

Theorem 6.5 For all $n, N_{n}$ has an $S C D$ with the chain cover property.
Proof. First, we show that the Greene-Kleitman SCD for $B_{n}$, restricted to $M_{n}$, has the chain cover property. Let $C$ be a nonempty chain in the Greene-Kleitman SCD for $B_{n}$, restricted to $M_{n}$. Note that if a chain is not shortened when we restrict it to $M_{n}$, then the element of smallest rank has no unmatched ones. Unless the element consists of all zeros, there is some rotation of it with at least one unmatched one. Therefore, the only unmodified chain is the chain beginning with $(0,0, \ldots, 0)$. This is the longest chain in the SCD, and it doesn't need to covered by any other chain. Now, we can assume that $C$ was shortened when we restricted it to $M_{n}$. Let $x=$ $\operatorname{starter}(C)$, and $y=$ terminator $(C)$. Then, $\tau^{-1}(x) \notin M_{n}$ and $\tau(y) \notin M_{n}$. So then, some rotation $\sigma^{k}(\tau(y))$ is in a longer chain in the SCD restricted to $M_{n}$. By Lemma 3.4, $\sigma^{k}\left(\tau^{-1}(x)\right)$ is in the same chain. So, $C$ is covered by
this longer chain. Therefore, the Greene-Kleitman SCD for $B_{n}$, restricted to $M_{n}$, has an SCD with the chain cover property.

Next, we iteratively remove duplicate representatives in a way that preserves the following properties: The resulting chains form symmetric chains satisfying the chain cover property, and, for all $x \in N_{n}$, all chains containing a representative of $x$ are of the same length. Lemmas 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4 show that the SCD for $M_{n}$ satisfies both properties. For each iteration, we choose a chain $C$ that contains an element of $N_{n}$ that is duplicated in at least one other chain. Then, we choose $x \in C$ with $|x| \geq n / 2$ such that $|x|$ is closest to $n / 2$. Suppose that the chains $C_{1}, C_{2}, \ldots, C_{k}$ are the other chains in the SCD of $M_{n}$ that contain rotations of $x$. If $|x|=n / 2$, then we simply delete the chains $C_{1}, C_{2}, \ldots, C_{k}$. We are only deleting elements that are rotations of elements in $C$. So, the resulting SCD still contains at least one representative of each element of $N_{n}$, and it satisfies the properties above.

Now, assume that $|x|<n / 2$. In this case, we delete the rotations of $\left\{x, \tau^{-1}(x), \tau^{-2}(x), \ldots\right\} \cup\left\{\tau^{n-2 k}(x), \tau^{n-2 k+1}(x), \tau^{n-2 k+2}(x), \ldots\right\}$ in the chains $C_{1}, C_{2}, \ldots, C_{k}$. Call the shortened chains $C_{1}^{\prime}, C_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots, C_{k}^{\prime}$. Now, all of the elements of $C$ are unique to the remaining SCD, so $C$ will not be modified again. Each of $C_{1}^{\prime}, C_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots, C_{k}^{\prime}$ are covered by $C$, preserving the chain cover property.

If some element in a chain $C_{1}^{\prime}, C_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots, C_{k}^{\prime}$ is duplicated, it must have been in a chain originally the same length as $C_{1}, C_{2}, \ldots, C_{k}$. Using Lemma 3.4 this means that some rotation of $x$ was also in this chain. So, if any elements of $C_{1}^{\prime}, C_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots, C_{k}^{\prime}$ are not unique in the resulting SCD, they must be duplicated only in one or more chains in $C_{1}^{\prime}, C_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots, C_{k}^{\prime}$. So, any remaining duplicated elements remain in chains of equal length. Therefore, both of the above properties are preserved.

In each iteration, we reduce the number of duplicated elements of $N_{n}$. By iterating until there are no more duplicated elements, we get an SCD for $N_{n}$ that has the chain cover property.

The following corollary follows from Theorems 6.4 and 6.5.
Corollary 6.6 For all $n$, there exists a rotationally symmetric independent family of $n$ curves with $2+n\left(\left|N_{n}\right|-2\right)$ regions.

## 7 Open Questions

A quotient closely related to $N_{n}$ is the "true necklace," meaning $B_{n} / G$, where $G$ is the group of automorphisms that includes both rotations and inversions. Does the "true necklace" have an SCD? By Stanley [12], we know that $B_{n} / G$ is also Peck. One approach to this problem would be to try to show that $B_{n} / G$ has the LYM property or the normalized matching property. Another approach would be to define a new type of matching or structuring that allows one to prove Lemmas 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4 (or other similar lemmas) for this quotient of $B_{n}$. The "true necklace" is actually a quotient of $N_{n}$, which leads to a third approach. This strategy would involve starting with an SCD given in this paper for $N_{n}$ and show that there is some method to remove the "extra" representatives of the elements of $B_{n} / G$.

Let $G$ and $H$ be two groups of automorphisms on $B_{n}$, and $K$ the group of automorphisms generated by $G$ and $H$. Then, if $B_{n} / G$ and $B_{n} / H$ are SCOs, is $B_{n} / K$ also an SCO ?

Are there other quotients of the Boolean lattice that have SCDs? Can we show that in general, any quotient of $B_{n}$ is an SCO?

Instead of using the Boolean lattice, use the poset of subsets of a multiset under the rotation automorphism. This would correspond to strings with not only zeros and ones, but each position is filled by a number in $\{0,1, \ldots, k\}$. Visually, these necklaces could have $k+1$ different "colors" of beads.

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