Department of Computer Science Ashoka University

Discrete Mathematics: CS-1104-1 & CS-1104-2

Assignment 3

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1 Straightforward

1. (a) Let $\mathbb{P} = \{p_n | n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ be the set of all prime numbers, where p_n is the n^{th} prime number. But since \mathbb{N} is countably infinite, we also need to show that there are an infinite number of primes.

Suppose there are a finite number of primes.

Let $P = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\}$ be the set of all primes.

Then, we can construct a new number $N = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n + 1$.

N is not divisible by any of the primes in P, so it must be divisible by a new prime number p_{n+1} . This is a contradiction, so there must be an infinite number of primes.

Now, since we know that there are an infinite number of primes, we can prove that P has the same cardinality as \mathbb{N} by constructing a bijection between the two sets.

Let $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{P}$ be a function defined as follows:

$$f(n) = p_n$$

This function is a bijection, so \mathbb{N} and \mathbb{P} have the same cardinality.

(b) Let P_R be the set of all points on a circle of radius R. Let $P_{R'}$ be the set of all points on a circle of radius R'.

Using the polar coordinate system, we get:

$$P_R = \{ (Rcos(\theta), Rsin(\theta)) \mid \theta \in [0, 2\pi) \}$$

$$P_{R'} = \{ (R'cos(\theta), R'sin(\theta)) \mid \theta \in [0, 2\pi) \}$$

Let $f: P_R \to P_{R'}$ be a function defined as follows:

$$f((R\cos(\theta), R\sin(\theta))) = (R'\cos(\theta), R'\sin(\theta))$$

This function is a bijection, so P_R and $P_{R'}$ have the same cardinality.

2. (a) Consider the L.H.S:

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_{i} = (x \in A_{1}) \lor (x \in A_{2}) \lor \dots \lor (x \in A_{n})$$

Now, consider the R.H.S:

$$\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}^{c}\right)^{c} = \neg((x \in A_{1}^{c}) \land (x \in A_{2}^{c}) \land \dots \land (x \in A_{n}^{c}))$$

$$= \neg((x \notin A_{1}) \land (x \notin A_{2}) \land \dots \land (x \notin A_{n}))$$

$$= (x \in A_{1}) \lor (x \in A_{2}) \lor \dots \lor (x \in A_{n})$$

Since the L.H.S and R.H.S are the same, we can conclude that the given statement is true.

(b) Consider the L.H.S:

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_i = (x \in A_1) \land (x \in A_2) \land \dots \land (x \in A_n)$$

Now, consider the R.H.S:

$$(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i^c)^c = \neg((x \in A_1^c) \lor (x \in A_2^c) \lor \dots \lor (x \in A_n^c))$$
$$= \neg((x \notin A_1) \lor (x \notin A_2) \lor \dots \lor (x \notin A_n))$$
$$= (x \in A_1) \land (x \in A_2) \land \dots \land (x \in A_n)$$

Since the L.H.S and R.H.S are the same, we can conclude that the given statement is true.

3. We will use induction to prove the law for n functions.

Base Case (n = 2): By De Morgan's Law for two functions, we know that if we have two invertible functions $f_1: A_1 \to A_2$ and $f_2: A_2 \to A_3$, then

$$(f_2 \circ f_1)^{-1} = f_1^{-1} \circ f_2^{-1}$$

is true.

Inductive Step: Assume the statement holds for n = k, that is, given invertible functions f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_k , we have:

$$(f_k \circ \cdots \circ f_1)^{-1} = f_1^{-1} \circ \cdots \circ f_k^{-1}$$

Now, consider n = k + 1 with invertible functions $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_k, f_{k+1}$. We need to show that:

$$(f_{k+1} \circ f_k \circ \cdots \circ f_1)^{-1} = f_1^{-1} \circ \cdots \circ f_k^{-1} \circ f_{k+1}^{-1}$$

Proof: Start by considering the composition of the first k functions and then apply f_{k+1} :

$$f_{k+1} \circ (f_k \circ \cdots \circ f_1)$$

By the base case with n=2, we can take the inverse of this composition to be:

$$(f_k \circ \cdots \circ f_1)^{-1} \circ f_{k+1}^{-1}$$

By the induction hypothesis, this is equal to:

$$f_1^{-1} \circ \cdots \circ f_k^{-1} \circ f_{k+1}^{-1}$$

Since function composition is associative, we can rearrange the parentheses without changing the order of the functions:

$$f_1^{-1} \circ \cdots \circ (f_k^{-1} \circ f_{k+1}^{-1})$$

Thus, we have shown that the inverse of the composition of k+1 functions is the composition of their inverses in reverse order. By PMI, the statement is proved for all natural numbers n. \square

4. (a) False. Consider the case when $(x \in D) \land (x \in A^c)$. Then, $x \notin A$, so $\forall x (x \in A \land x \in D) \equiv False$.

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- (b) $x \notin A \to x \in A^c$. Now, $\exists x (x \in A^c)$ is only true when A^c is non-empty. So, the given statement is true if $A \neq D$ and false if A = D.
- (c) $A^c = x \notin A$. $D \backslash A = x \in D \land x \notin A$. Since D is the domain of discourse, $x \in D$ is always true. So, $A^c = D \backslash A$ is always true.
- (d) By definition, D being the domain of discourse, D contains all elements. So, $D^c := \{x \notin D\}$ is an empty set. Since an empty set is a subset of every set, $D^c \subseteq A$ is true.

- 5. (a) Subsets:
 - $\{(1,1),(1,2),(2,1),(2,2)\}$
 - $\{(2,1),(2,2),(3,1),(3,2)\}$
 - $\{(1,2),(1,3),(2,2),(2,3)\}$
 - $\bullet \ \{(2,2),(2,3),(3,2),(3,3)\}$
 - $\{(1,1),(1,3),(3,1),(3,3)\}$
 - $\{(1,2),(2,1),(2,3),(3,2)\}$
 - (b) Over here, the idea is to find any 3 points such that they do not form a straight line.

So, we can take T, which is the set of all subsets of $S \times S$ which are vertices of a triangle:

$$T := \{ \{a, b, c\} | (a, b, c \in S \times S) \land \neg (straightLine(a, b, c)) \}$$

Now, all we need to do is define a function straightLine(a,b,c) which returns true if a,b,c are on the straight line.

We can define this function as follows:

$$straightLine(a, b, c) := (a_1 - c_1) \cdot (b_2 - c_2) = (b_1 - c_1) \cdot (a_2 - c_2)$$

This function returns true if a, b, c are on the same straight line because it checks if the slopes of the lines formed by a, b and b, c are equal. Using python, here are the 76 possible subsets:

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\{(1,1),(1,2),(2,3)\}\ \{(1,3),(2,1),(2,3)\}
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                                                   \{(1,2),(2,1),(2,2)\}\ \{(1,1),(1,2),(3,3)\}
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6. First, let's see if p is a function of t.

For p to be a function of t, for every t, there should be exactly one p. Since p is the position (a single point) based on the time, it is evident that p is a function of t.

Now, let's find the domain of p(t).

We know the recorded motion is from t = 0 to t = n > 0. So, the domain of p(t) is [0, n].

The image of p(t) is the set of all positions of the particle at any given time.

For p(t) to be injective, for every $t_1 \neq t_2$, $p(t_1) \neq p(t_2)$. This in simple words means that the particle must travel in the same direction (since $p \in (R)$). Otherwise, if the particle changes direction or is stationary, it will have the same position at two different times.

7. (a) For a bijection to exist, we need each element from A to map to exactly one unique element in B.

We know |A| = |B| = n. When we start mapping the elements, we see the first element from A can map to any of the n elements from B. The second element from A can map to any of the remaining n-1 elements from B. This goes on till the last element from A can map to the last element from B.

So, the total number of bijections is $n \times (n-1) \times \cdots \times 1 = n!$

- (b) First, we show that if f is an injection, then f is a surjection.
 - For f to be an injection, for every $b \in B, \exists a \in A \text{ such that } f(a) = b$.
 - Since |A| = |B| = n, and f is an injection, n elements from A are mapped to n unique elements in B, which implies f is a surjection.

Now, we show that if f is a surjection, then f is an injection.

- For f to be a surjection, for every $b \in B$, $\exists a \in A$ such that f(a) = b.
- Since |A| = |B| = n, and f is a surjection, using the fact that all functions must be well defined, we can say that n elements from A are mapped to n unique elements in B, which implies f is an injection.

Therefore, f is an injection $\leftrightarrow f$ is a surjection.

(c) For f to be an injection, $|A| \leq |B|$. So, if m > n, then there are no injections from A to B.

Now, if $m \leq n$, we need to choose m elements from n elements in B. This can be done in $\binom{n}{m}$ ways.

Now, for each of these m elements, we can map them to any of the m elements in A. This can be done in m! ways.

So, the total number of injections is $\binom{n}{m} \times m! = \frac{n!}{(n-m)!m!} \times m! = \frac{n!}{(n-m)!}$

8. The image of f, Img(f), is defined as $\{f(x)|x\in D\}$, where D=Dom(f) is the domain of f.

Since f is a function from $D \to D$, for every $x \in Dom(f)$, $f(x) \in Dom(f)$. Now, since Dom(f) = D and $Img(f) = \{f(x) | x \in D\}$, we can say that $Img(f) \subseteq D = Dom(f)$.

Therefore, $Img(f) \subseteq Dom(f)$.

9. (a) Since n is even, f is not injective, since $\forall x (f(-x) = f(x))$.

A left inverse does not exist because negative numbers do not have a corresponding output in $\mathbb{R}^+ \cap \{0\}$ under f. But, a right inverse does exist.

Let
$$g: R \to R + \cup \{0\}$$
 be defined as $g(x) = \sqrt[n]{x}$.
Then, $f(g(x)) = (g(x))^n = x$.

(b) In this case, f is injective and surjection since a unique output is defined for each input. Therefore, f is a bijection and a full inverse exists.

Let
$$g: R \to R$$
 be defined as $g(x) = \sqrt[n]{x}$.
Then, $f(g(x)) = (g(x))^n = x$.

(c) In this case, f is injective and surjection since a unique output is defined for each input. Therefore, f is a bijection and a full inverse exists.

Let
$$g: R \to R + \cup \{0\}$$
 be defined as $g(x) = e^x$.
Then, $f(g(x)) = ln(e^x) = x$.

- (d) In this case, f is a constant function, so it is not injective and not surjective. Therefore, a left, right or full inverse does not exist.
- 10. Let f be an invertible function. Let g and h be two unique inverses of f.

Since g and h are inverses of f, we have:

$$f(g(x)) = x$$

$$f(h(x)) = x$$

Now, we need to show that g = h.

- Let's assume that $g \neq h$.
- Then, $\exists x \text{ such that } g(x) \neq h(x)$.
- Now, since f is a function, f(g(x)) = f(h(x)).
- But, f(g(x)) = x and f(h(x)) = x.
- So, x = x, which is true for all x.
- This is a contradiction, so our assumption that $g \neq h$ is false.

Therefore, g = h.

2 ¬Straightforward

1. (a) Let
$$(a_1, b_1) := \{\{a_1\}, \{a_1, b_1\}\}, \text{ and } (a_2, b_2) := \{\{a_2\}, \{a_2, b_2\}\}.$$

Now, we need to show that $(a_1, b_1) = (a_2, b_2) \leftrightarrow (a_1 = a_2 \land b_1 = b_2)$.

Showing $(a_1, b_1) = (a_2, b_2) \rightarrow (a_1 = a_2 \land b_1 = b_2)$:

- Let's assume that $(a_1, b_1) = (a_2, b_2)$.
- Then, $\{\{a_1\}, \{a_1, b_1\}\} = \{\{a_2\}, \{a_2, b_2\}\}.$
- This implies that $\{a_1\} = \{a_2\}$ and $\{a_1, b_1\} = \{a_2, b_2\}$.
- Since $\{a_1\} = \{a_2\}, a_1 = a_2$.
- Since $\{a_1, b_1\} = \{a_2, b_2\}$ and $a_1 = a_2, b_1 = b_2$.
- Therefore, $(a_1, b_1) = (a_2, b_2) \rightarrow (a_1 = a_2 \land b_1 = b_2)$.

Showing $(a_1 = a_2 \land b_1 = b_2) \rightarrow (a_1, b_1) = (a_2, b_2)$:

- Let's assume that $a_1 = a_2$ and $b_1 = b_2$.
- Then, $\{a_1\} = \{a_2\}$ and $\{a_1, b_1\} = \{a_2, b_2\}$.
- This implies that $\{\{a_1\}, \{a_1, b_1\}\} = \{\{a_2\}, \{a_2, b_2\}\}.$
- Therefore, $(a_1 = a_2 \land b_1 = b_2) \rightarrow (a_1, b_1) = (a_2, b_2).$

Therefore, $(a_1, b_1) = (a_2, b_2) \leftrightarrow (a_1 = a_2 \land b_1 = b_2).$

(b)
$$(a,b) = \{\{a\}, \{a,b\}\}\$$

$$\therefore (a,b,c) = ((a,b),c) = \{\{\{a\},\{a,b\}\},\{\{\{a\},\{a,b\}\},c\}\}\}$$

(c) Let
$$(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) := ((x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}), x_n)$$
.

From part (b), we can say $((x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}), x_n) = \{\{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1})\}, \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}), x_n\}\}$

We also know, $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}) := ((x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-2}), x_{n-1})$ This goes on till $(x_1, x_2) := \{\{x_1\}, \{x_1, x_2\}\}.$

Therefore, $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \{\{\{x_1\}, \{x_1, x_2\}\}, \{\{\{x_1\}, \{x_1, x_2\}\}, \dots, x_n\}\}$

3 Bonus

1.