

## Discretionary Note

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**IF YOU USE THIS FILE TO CHEAT, YOU ARE NOT ONLY STUPID BUT YOU ARE CHEATING YOURSELF OUT OF THE ABILITY TO FALL IN LOVE WITH MATH.** Furthermore, I am not smarter than you and my solutions did not always get a perfect score.

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## Math 244 - Problem Set 3

due Monday, February 10, 2025, at 11:59pm

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Section 2.3

1. A linear extension  $\leq$  of poset  $\mathcal{B}_2$  is a total ordering where  $\forall x, y \in \mathcal{B}_2, x \subseteq y \implies x \leq y$ . In such a total ordering, all elements should be comparable. This means that we could write them all out in a sorted list, according to our linear extension. We try to create a total ordering for  $\mathcal{B}_2$  by trying to assemble a sorted list of  $\mathcal{B}_2$ . First, because  $\forall A \neq \emptyset \in \mathcal{B}_2, \emptyset \subset A$ , the  $\emptyset$  must be our lowest element in this ordering. Similarly, because  $\forall A \neq \{1, 2\} \in \mathcal{B}_2, A \subset \{1, 2\}$ ,  $\{1, 2\}$  must be our greatest element in this ordering. Thus, we are left with two remaining elements,  $\{1\}$  and  $\{2\}$ , with two remaining positions. Because there are  $2! = 2$  ways to order two elements, we have that two unique listings (i.e. two unique total orderings) are possible for  $\mathcal{B}_2 \implies \mathcal{B}_2$  has two linear extensions.

We now proceed in the same fashion to find all possible linear extensions of  $\mathcal{B}_3$ : we find all possible sorted orderings of all elements in  $\mathcal{B}_3$ . Identical to our reasoning above,  $\emptyset$  must be the smallest element and  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  must be the largest element in the list. Thus the remaining elements are  $\{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 3\}$ , and  $\{1, 2, 3\}$ .

There are now two possible options for how these elements can be ordered. Consider the distinct numbers  $a, b, c \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ . The following two orderings work:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Order 1 : } & \emptyset, \underbrace{\{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}}_{\text{Seq 1.1}}, \underbrace{\{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{b, c\}}_{\text{Seq 1.2}}, \{a, b, c\} \\
\text{Order 2 : } & \emptyset, \underbrace{\{a\}, \{b\}}_{\text{Seq 2.1}}, \{a, b\}, \{c\}, \underbrace{\{a, c\}, \{b, c\}}_{\text{Seq 2.2}}, \{a, b, c\}
\end{aligned}$$

The total number of possible total orderings for  $\mathcal{B}_3$  is the sum of possible orderings for order 1 and order 2. We compute the number of orderings possible for both:

1. **Order 1**

In this ordering, there are  $3! = 6$  different ways to order  $\{1, 2, 3\} \implies$  there are 6 unique ways to order **Seq 1.1**. Similarly, there are  $3! = 6$  different ways to order **Seq 1.2**, given by  $\{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{b, c\}$ <sup>1</sup>. Thus we have  $6 \times 6 = 36$  total orderings of  $\mathcal{B}_3$  for Order 1.

2. **Order 2**

We first look at **Seq 2.1**. We have  ${}_3P_2 = 6$  unique orderings of 2 elements selected from 3 elements  $\implies$  **Seq 2.1** has 6 possible orderings. Note that the selection of  $a, b$  in this sequence will naturally lead to only one possible option for the next elements in Order 2:  $\{a, b\}$  and  $\{c\}$ . Next we look at the possible orderings for **Seq 2.2**. For this sequence, either  $\{a, c\}$  or  $\{b, c\}$  can be placed first. Thus, there are 2 possible orderings for **Seq 2.2**. So in total, there are  $6 \times 2 = 12$  total orderings of  $\mathcal{B}_3$  for Order 2.

Thus, for both Order 1 and Order 2, we have  $36 + 12 = 48$  unique total orderings of  $\mathcal{B}_3 \implies \mathcal{B}_3$  has 48 linear extensions.

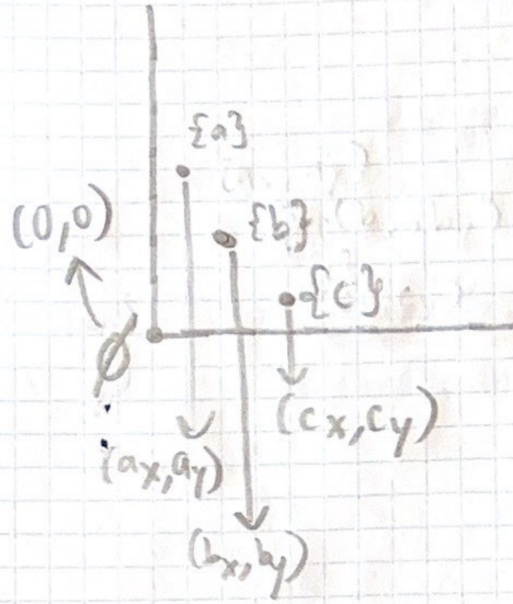
5. To show that not every finite poset admits an embedding into the poset  $(\mathbb{N}^2, \preceq)$ , we demonstrate that for the finite poset  $\mathcal{B}_3$ , such an embedding is not possible.

Let us define distinct numbers  $a, b, c \in \{1, 2, 3\}$  and define  $a_x, a_y, b_x, b_y, c_x, c_y \in \mathbb{N}$ . WLOG<sup>2</sup>, let us define  $a_x < b_x < c_x$ . Then, we can provide

<sup>1</sup>Note that any possible ordering works as they are all after  $\{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}$  (**Seq 1.1**) in the sequence.

<sup>2</sup>We are using the generic variables  $a, b, c$  to show that this can occur for any ordering of numbers in [3].

the following diagram to show that after embedding four elements  $\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\} \in \mathcal{B}_3$  at respective locations  $(0, 0), (a_x, a_y), (b_x, b_y), (c_x, c_y) \in (\mathbb{N}^2, \preceq)$ , then it will be impossible for us to embed  $\{a, c\}$  that respects the embedding relationship<sup>3</sup>. Here is our diagram of these four elements embedded in  $(\mathbb{N}^2, \preceq)$ :



Let us define  $d_x, d_y \in \mathbb{N}$ , where we want to embed  $\{a, c\}$  at  $(d_x, d_y)$ . Because  $\{a\} \subset \{a, c\} \implies (a_x, a_y) \preceq (d_x, d_y) \implies a_x \leq d_x$  and  $a_y \leq d_y$ . Similarly, because  $\{c\} \subset \{a, c\} \implies (c_x, c_y) \preceq (d_x, d_y) \implies c_x \leq d_x$  and  $c_y \leq d_y$ .

As shown in our diagram, we had to place  $c_x > b_x$  so that the following would not be met:  $c_x \leq b_x$  and  $c_y \leq b_y \implies (c_x, c_y) \preceq (b_x, b_y) \implies \{c\} \subset \{b\}$ , which is a contradiction. By this same argument, we required that  $a_y > b_y$  so that  $\{b\} \not\subset \{a\}$ .

Thus we require that  $d_x \geq c_x > b_x \implies b_x < d_x$  and  $d_y \geq a_y > b_y \implies b_y < d_y$ . These two necessary conditions  $b_x < d_x$  and  $b_y < d_y$  for placing  $\{a, c\}$  force  $(b_x, b_y) \preceq (d_x, d_y) \implies \{b\} \subset \{a, c\}$ , which is a contradiction. Thus, we have shown there is no place for us to embed

<sup>3</sup>The  $\emptyset$  must map on  $\mathbb{N}^2$  to an element that is smaller (by the  $\preceq$  relationship) to all elements in  $\mathbb{N}^2$ . For simplicity, we choose  $(0, 0)$  for this proof.





(ii) **Case Two:  $a = b$**

In this case,  $a = b \implies ab = a^2 = n \implies a = \sqrt{n} \in \mathbb{Z}$  as  $a$  is a divisor. Note that we are guaranteed for this case to occur if  $\sqrt{n} \in \mathbb{Z}$  as the pairing  $(\sqrt{n}, \sqrt{n})$  will appear in  $P$  as  $\sqrt{n} \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\sqrt{n} \times \sqrt{n} = n$ , and  $\sqrt{n} \leq \sqrt{n}$ . In this case, there is only one unique divisor,  $\sqrt{n}$ , of  $n$ . Furthermore, note if  $\sqrt{n} \in \mathbb{Z}$ , this case will only occur once as the square root is unique.

Across all enumerations of the pairings of  $P$ , let us define the number of times we encounter case one as  $k$ . As stated before, if  $\sqrt{n} \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we are guaranteed to arrive at Case Two is only once. Thus, the number of distinct divisors is given by  $2k + 1$  which is odd  $\implies n$  has an odd number of (distinct) divisors.

2. **If  $n$  has an odd number of divisors  $\implies \sqrt{n} \in \mathbb{Z}$**

We prove this statement by contrapositive and thus assume  $\sqrt{n} \notin \mathbb{Z}$ . We now define  $D$  as the set of all divisors of  $n$ . Note that divisors come in pairs, if  $a$  is a divisor of  $n \implies \exists b \in [n]$  s.t.  $ab = n$ . Furthermore, we can be guaranteed  $a \neq b$  because if  $a = b$  that would imply that  $a = \sqrt{n} \in D \implies \sqrt{n} \in \mathbb{Z}$  which is a contradiction.

We can denote the number of these pairs of divisors of  $n$  as  $k$ . Because both of the two elements for each of these pairs exist in  $D$ ,  $|D| = 2k$ , which is even. This means that  $n$  has an even number of divisors. Thus we have proved this statement with contrapositive.