

## Diskrete Mathematik

### Solution 4

#### 4.1 Case Distinction with Any Number of Sets

We define the predicate  $P$  by

$$P(k) = 1 \iff (A_1 \vee \dots \vee A_k) \wedge (A_1 \rightarrow B) \wedge \dots \wedge (A_k \rightarrow B) \models B.$$

We want to prove that  $P(k) = 1$  for all  $k \geq 1$ . We proceed by induction.

*Basis Step.* The statement  $P(1)$  is proven to be true in Lemma 2.7.

*Induction Step.* Assume that  $P(k) = 1$ . We want to show that  $P(k+1) = 1$ .

Suppose that a certain truth assignment of the propositional symbols  $A_1, \dots, A_{k+1}, B$  makes the formula

$$(A_1 \vee \dots \vee A_{k+1}) \wedge (A_1 \rightarrow B) \wedge \dots \wedge (A_{k+1} \rightarrow B)$$

true. This means that  $(A_i \rightarrow B)$  is true for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, k+1\}$  and  $(A_1 \vee \dots \vee A_{k+1})$  is true. Since  $(A_1 \vee \dots \vee A_{k+1})$  is true, then  $A_i$  must be true for some  $i \in \{1, \dots, k+1\}$ . We distinguish two cases:

- *Case 1:*  $A_{k+1}$  is true. Since  $A_{k+1} \rightarrow B$  is true, then  $B$  must be true under the given truth assignment (modus ponens).
- *Case 2:*  $A_{k+1}$  is false. Since  $(A_1 \vee \dots \vee A_{k+1})$  is true, then  $A_i$  must be true for some  $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ . Since by induction hypothesis we know that  $P(k) = 1$ , this means that  $B$  is true under the given truth assignment.

The case distinction is sound because under a given truth assignment  $A_{k+1}$  is true or false. This shows that  $P(k) = 1 \Rightarrow P(k+1) = 1$  for all  $k \geq 1$ . By induction, we conclude that  $P(k) = 1$  for all  $k \geq 1$ .

#### 4.2 Element or Subset

- i)  $A \in B$  and  $A \not\subseteq B$     ii)  $A \in B$  and  $A \subseteq B$   
iii)  $A \notin B$  and  $A \subseteq B$     iv)  $A \in B$  and  $A \subseteq B$

#### 4.3 Operations on Sets

The following sets fulfill the conditions:

- a)  $A = \{\emptyset\}$

For  $x = \emptyset$  we have  $x \in A$ . Also, the empty set is the subset of any other set, so  $x \subseteq A$ .

This is not the only solution. For example,  $A = \{7, \{7\}\}$  also fulfills the given condition.

b)  $A = \{\emptyset, 1\}$

We have  $\mathcal{P}(A) = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}, \{1\}, \{\emptyset, 1\}\}$ . Since  $1 \notin \mathcal{P}(A)$ , it holds that  $A \not\subseteq \mathcal{P}(A)$ . Also, for  $x = \emptyset$  we have  $x \in A$  and  $x \subseteq \mathcal{P}(A)$  (since the empty set is the subset of any set).

c)  $A = \emptyset$

We have  $\emptyset \subseteq \mathcal{P}(A)$ . The second requirement is trivially fulfilled, since  $A$  has no elements.

#### 4.4 Cardinality

First, notice that  $A = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$ . With that said, we give the solutions to individual sub-tasks:

i)  $A \cup B = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}, \{\{\emptyset\}\}, \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}\}, |A \cup B| = 4$

ii)  $A \cap B = \{\{\emptyset\}\}, |A \cap B| = 1$

iii)  $\emptyset \times A = \emptyset, |\emptyset \times A| = 0$

iv)  $\{0\} \times \{3, 1\} = \{(0, 3), (0, 1)\}, |\{0\} \times \{3, 1\}| = 2$

v)  $\{\{1, 2\}\} \times \{3\} = \{(\{1, 2\}, 3)\}, |\{\{1, 2\}\} \times \{3\}| = 1$

vi)  $\mathcal{P}(\{\emptyset\}) = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}, |\mathcal{P}(\{\emptyset\})| = 2$

#### 4.5 Proving/Disproving Set Properties

a) We show both inclusions at once.

$$\begin{aligned}
 & x \in A \setminus (B \setminus C) \\
 \iff & x \in A \wedge \neg(x \in B \setminus C) && \text{(Definition of } X \setminus Y) \\
 \iff & x \in A \wedge \neg(x \in B \wedge \neg(x \in C)) && \text{(Definition of } X \setminus Y) \\
 \iff & x \in A \wedge (\neg(x \in B) \vee \neg\neg(x \in C)) && \text{(De Morgan's rule)} \\
 \iff & x \in A \wedge (\neg(x \in B) \vee x \in C) && \text{(Double Negation)} \\
 \iff & (x \in A \wedge \neg(x \in B)) \vee (x \in A \wedge x \in C) && \text{(Distributivity)} \\
 \iff & (x \in A \setminus B) \vee (x \in A \wedge x \in C) && \text{(Definition of } X \setminus Y) \\
 \iff & (x \in A \setminus B) \vee (x \in A \cap C) && \text{(Definition of } \cap) \\
 \iff & x \in (A \setminus B) \cup (A \cap C) && \text{(Definition of } \cup)
 \end{aligned}$$

b) We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 2 &= |\mathcal{P}(A) \cap \mathcal{P}(B)| && \text{(Assumption)} \\
 &= |\mathcal{P}(A \cap B)| && \text{(Proof as in Exercise 4.6 a)} \\
 &= 2^{|A \cap B|} && \text{(Lecture Notes 3.2.8)}
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $2 = 2^{|A \cap B|} \iff |A \cap B| = 1$ .

- c) We disprove the statement by providing a counterexample. Let  $A = \{1, 2\}$ , let  $B = \{1\}$ , and let  $C = \{1, 3\}$ . We have  $B \subseteq A$  because  $1 \in A$ . Furthermore  $B \cap C = \{1\} \neq \emptyset$ . However,  $C \not\subseteq A$  because  $3 \in C$  but  $3 \notin A$ .

#### 4.6 Relating Two Power Sets

- a) For any  $C$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 C \in \mathcal{P}(A \cap B) & \\
 \iff C \subseteq A \cap B & \quad (\text{definition of } \mathcal{P}) \\
 \iff \forall c (c \in C \rightarrow c \in A \cap B) & \quad (\text{definition of } \subseteq) \\
 \iff \forall c (c \in C \rightarrow (c \in A \wedge c \in B)) & \quad (\text{definition of } \cap) \\
 \iff \forall c ((c \in C \rightarrow c \in A) \wedge (c \in C \rightarrow c \in B)) & \quad (*) \\
 \iff \forall c (c \in C \rightarrow c \in A) \wedge \forall c (c \in C \rightarrow c \in B) & \quad (**) \\
 \iff C \subseteq A \wedge C \subseteq B & \quad (\text{definition of } \subseteq) \\
 \iff C \in \mathcal{P}(A) \wedge C \in \mathcal{P}(B) & \quad (\text{definition of } \mathcal{P}) \\
 \iff C \in \mathcal{P}(A) \cap \mathcal{P}(B) & \quad (\text{definition of } \cap)
 \end{aligned}$$

(\*) We use the fact that for any formulas  $A_1, A_2$  and  $A_3$ , we have  $A_1 \rightarrow (A_2 \wedge A_3) \equiv \neg A_1 \vee (A_2 \wedge A_3) \equiv (\neg A_1 \vee A_2) \wedge (\neg A_1 \vee A_3) \equiv (A_1 \rightarrow A_2) \wedge (A_1 \rightarrow A_3)$ . (This follows from Lemma 2.1.)

(\*\*) We use the fact that  $\forall x P(x) \wedge \forall x Q(x) \equiv \forall x (P(x) \wedge Q(x))$  for any predicates  $P$  and  $Q$  (see Chapter 2.4.8 of the lecture notes).

- b) To prove that the statement is false, we show a counterexample. Let  $A = \{1\}$  and  $B = \{2\}$ . We have  $\mathcal{P}(A) \cup \mathcal{P}(B) = \{\emptyset, \{1\}\} \cup \{\emptyset, \{2\}\} = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}\}$ . On the other hand,  $\mathcal{P}(A \cup B) = \mathcal{P}(\{1, 2\}) = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{1, 2\}\}$ .

- c) We will prove the implication in both directions separately.

$A \subseteq B \implies \mathcal{P}(A) \subseteq \mathcal{P}(B)$ : Let  $B$  be any set and let  $A$  be any subset of  $B$ . What we have to show is that each element of  $\mathcal{P}(A)$  is also an element of  $\mathcal{P}(B)$ . Let  $S$  be any element of  $\mathcal{P}(A)$ . Then, by Definition 3.7,  $S \subseteq A$ . By the assumption that  $A \subseteq B$  and by the transitivity of  $\subseteq$ , it follows that  $S \subseteq B$ . This means that  $S$  is an element of  $\mathcal{P}(B)$ .

$\mathcal{P}(A) \subseteq \mathcal{P}(B) \implies A \subseteq B$ : Let  $A, B$  be any sets and assume that  $\mathcal{P}(A) \subseteq \mathcal{P}(B)$ . Since  $A \in \mathcal{P}(A)$  (which holds for any set  $A$ ) and, by assumption,  $\mathcal{P}(A) \subseteq \mathcal{P}(B)$ , we have that  $A \in \mathcal{P}(B)$ . By Definition 3.7, this means that  $A \subseteq B$ .

#### 4.7 Special Families of Sets

- a) We prove that the statement is true by checking that all the required properties hold for  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{P}(X)$ .

- $\mathcal{P}(X) \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  trivially holds.
- Since  $X \neq \emptyset$  then  $\mathcal{P}(X) \neq \emptyset$ .
- Let  $A, B \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned}
& A \cup B \in \mathcal{P}(X) \\
& \iff A \cup B \subseteq X && \text{(Definition of } \mathcal{P}) \\
& \iff \forall x (x \in A \cup B \rightarrow x \in X) && \text{(Definition of } \subseteq) \\
& \iff \forall x ((x \in A \vee x \in B) \rightarrow x \in X) && \text{(Definition of } \cup) \\
& \iff \forall x ((x \in A \rightarrow x \in X) \wedge (x \in B \rightarrow x \in X)) && (*) \\
& \iff \forall x (x \in A \rightarrow x \in X) \wedge \forall x (x \in B \rightarrow x \in X) && (**) \\
& \iff A \subseteq X \wedge B \subseteq X && \text{(Definition of } \subseteq \text{ twice)} \\
& \iff \top && \text{(By Assumption)}
\end{aligned}$$

(\*) We use the fact that  $(F \vee G) \rightarrow H \equiv \neg(F \vee G) \vee H \equiv (\neg F \wedge \neg G) \vee H \equiv (\neg F \vee H) \wedge (\neg G \vee H) \equiv (F \rightarrow H) \wedge (G \rightarrow H)$ . See Lemma 2.1.

(\*\*) We use the fact that  $\forall x P(x) \wedge \forall x Q(x) \equiv \forall x (P(x) \wedge Q(x))$  for any predicates  $P$  and  $Q$  (see Chapter 2.4.8 of the lecture notes).

- Let  $A, B \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ , that is  $A, B \subseteq X$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned}
x \in A \cap B & \iff x \in A \wedge x \in B && \text{(Definition of } \cap) \\
& \implies x \in X \wedge x \in X && \text{(Definition of } \subseteq \text{ twice)} \\
& \implies x \in X && (A \wedge A \equiv A)
\end{aligned}$$

- Let  $A \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ , that is  $A \subseteq X$ . We have

$$x \in X \setminus A \iff x \in X \wedge x \notin A \implies x \in X$$

which shows that  $X \setminus A \subseteq X$ , that is  $X \setminus A \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ .

- The statement is false. Notice that  $X \in \{X\}$ , but  $X \setminus X = \emptyset \notin \{X\}$ . Therefore, the last property does not hold, and  $Q_X(\{X\}) = 0$ .
- The statement is true. Suppose that  $Q_X(\mathcal{A}) = 1$ . This means (by the second property) that  $\mathcal{A} \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ . We have (by the last property) that  $X \setminus A \in \mathcal{A}$ . Therefore (by the third property) we have  $X = (X \setminus A) \cup A \in \mathcal{A}$ .
- The statement is false: we provide a counterexample. Let  $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ . Let  $\mathcal{A} = \{\emptyset, \{1, 2\}, \{3, 4\}, \{1, 2, 3, 4\}\}$  and let  $\mathcal{B} = \{\emptyset, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 4\}, \{1, 2, 3, 4\}\}$ . It is straightforward to check that all the properties of  $Q_X$  hold for  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$ , so that  $Q_X(\mathcal{A}) = 1$  and  $Q_X(\mathcal{B}) = 1$ . However, consider  $\mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{B} = \{\emptyset, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 4\}, \{3, 4\}, \{1, 2, 3, 4\}\}$ . While  $\{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\} \in \mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{B}$ , we have  $\{1, 2, 3\} = \{1, 2\} \cup \{1, 3\} \notin \mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{B}$ . This shows  $Q_X(\mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{B}) = 0$ , because the third property does not hold.
- We prove that the statement is true by checking all the properties of  $Q_X$  hold for  $\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}$ .

- For the first property, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
& A \in \mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B} \\
& \iff A \in \mathcal{A} \wedge A \in \mathcal{B} && \text{(Definition of } \cap \text{)} \\
& \iff A \in \mathcal{P}(X) \wedge A \in \mathcal{P}(X) \quad (Q_X(\mathcal{A}) = 1 \text{ and } Q_X(\mathcal{B}) = 1, \text{ Property 1)} \\
& \iff A \in \mathcal{P}(X) && (A \wedge A \equiv A)
\end{aligned}$$

- To prove the second property, we remember that from above, we know  $X \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $X \in \mathcal{B}$  so that  $X \in \mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}$ . This shows the intersection is not empty.
- Let  $A, B \in \mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}$ . Then  $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $A, B \in \mathcal{B}$  by definition of intersection. Since  $Q_X(\mathcal{A}) = 1$  and  $Q_X(\mathcal{B}) = 1$ , using property 3 we conclude that  $A \cup B \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $A \cup B \in \mathcal{B}$ . By definition of intersection we get  $A \cup B \in \mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}$ . This proves property 3.
- Let  $A, B \in \mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}$ . Then  $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $A, B \in \mathcal{B}$  by definition of intersection. Since  $Q_X(\mathcal{A}) = 1$  and  $Q_X(\mathcal{B}) = 1$ , using property 4 we conclude that  $A \cap B \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $A \cap B \in \mathcal{B}$ . By definition of intersection we get  $A \cap B \in \mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}$ . This proves property 4.
- Let  $A \in \mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}$ . Then  $A \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $A \in \mathcal{B}$  by definition of intersection. Since  $Q_X(\mathcal{A}) = 1$  and  $Q_X(\mathcal{B}) = 1$ , using property 5 we conclude that  $X \setminus A \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $X \setminus A \in \mathcal{B}$ . By definition of intersection we get  $X \setminus A \in \mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}$ . This proves property 5.