# Diskrete Mathematik Solution 6

#### 6.1 Partial Order Relations

- a) i) 11 and 12 are incomparable, since 11  $\frac{1}{2}$  12 and 12  $\frac{1}{2}$  11.
  - ii) 4 and 6 are incomparable, since 4 / 6 and 6 / 4.
  - iii) 5 and 15 are comparable, since  $5 \mid 15$ .
  - iv) 42 and 42 are comparable, since  $42 \mid 42$ .
- **b)** The elements  $(a, b) \in A$ , such that  $(a, b) \leq_{\mathsf{lex}} (2, 5)$  are: (2, 1), (2, 5) and (1, n) for all  $n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ .

*Justification:* Let  $(a, b) \in A$ . We distinguish the following cases:

**Case** a = 1: Since  $1 \mid 2$ , we have  $(a, b) \leq_{lex} (2, 5)$  for any b.

**Case** a=2: Since 1 and 5 are the only natural numbers which divide 5, we have  $(a,b) \leq_{\mathsf{lex}} (2,5)$  only for  $b \in \{1,5\}$ .

**Case** a > 2: Since  $a \not\mid 2$ ,  $(a, b) \leq_{lex} (2, 5)$  cannot hold for any b.

- c)  $(\{1,3,6,9,12\}, |)$  is not a lattice, since 9 and 12 do not have a common upper bound.
- **d)**  $(A; \widehat{\preceq})$  is a poset. To prove this, we show that  $\widehat{\preceq}$  is a partial order on A.

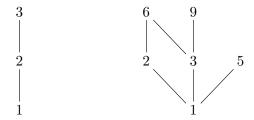
**Reflexivity:** For any  $a \in A$ , by the reflexivity of  $\leq$ , we have  $a \leq a$ , hence,  $a \subseteq a$ .

**Antisymmetry:** Let  $a, b \in A$  be such that  $a \subseteq b$  and  $b \subseteq a$ . This means that  $b \preceq a$  and  $a \preceq b$  By the antisymmetry of  $\preceq$ , it follows that a = b.

**Transitivity:** Let  $a,b,c\in A$  be such that  $a\widehat{\preceq}b$  and  $b\widehat{\preceq}c$ . This means that  $b\preceq a$  and  $c\preceq b$ . By the transitivity of  $\preceq$ , we have  $c\preceq a$ . Hence,  $a\widehat{\preceq}c$ .

# 6.2 Hasse Diagrams

a) The Hasse diagrams of the posets  $(\{1,2,3\}; \leq)$  and  $(\{1,2,3,5,6,9\}; \mid)$  are as follows:



In both cases, 1 is the least and the only minimal element. In the poset  $(\{1,2,3\};\leq)$ , the greatest and the only maximal element is 3. In the poset  $(\{1,2,3,5,6,9\};\mid)$  there is no greatest element. The maximal elements in this poset are 5,6 and 9.

#### 6.3 The Lexicographic Order

For posets  $(A; \preceq)$  and  $(B; \sqsubseteq)$  the lexicographic order  $\leq_{lex}$  on  $A \times B$  is defined by

$$(a_1,b_1) \leq_{\mathsf{lex}} (a_2,b_2) :\iff a_1 \prec a_2 \lor (a_1 = a_2 \land b_1 \sqsubseteq b_2)$$

We show that  $\leq_{lex}$  is a partial order relation.

**Reflexivity:** Take any  $(a_1, b_1) \in A \times B$ . Since  $\sqsubseteq$  is reflexive, we have  $b_1 \sqsubseteq b_1$ . Hence, it is true that  $(a_1 = a_1 \land b_1 \sqsubseteq b_1)$  and, thus,  $(a_1, b_1) \leq_{\mathsf{lex}} (a_1, b_1)$ .

**Antisymmetry:** Take any  $(a_1,b_1)$  and  $(a_2,b_2)$  in  $A \times B$  such that  $(a_1,b_1) \leq_{\mathsf{lex}} (a_2,b_2)$  and  $(a_2,b_2) \leq_{\mathsf{lex}} (a_1,b_1)$ . This means that

$$\underbrace{a_1 \prec a_2}_{(1)} \lor \underbrace{(a_1 = a_2 \land b_1 \sqsubseteq b_2)}_{(2)} \quad \text{and} \quad \underbrace{a_2 \prec a_1}_{(3)} \lor \underbrace{(a_2 = a_1 \land b_2 \sqsubseteq b_1)}_{(4)}.$$

We have to show that  $(a_1, b_1) = (a_2, b_2)$ . The proof proceeds by case distinction.

- (1) **and** (3): We have  $a_1 \leq a_2 \wedge a_1 \neq a_2$  and  $a_2 \leq a_1 \wedge a_2 \neq a_1$ . But since  $\leq$  is antisymmetric, it follows that  $a_1 = a_2$ , which is a contradiction with  $a_1 \neq a_2$ . Therefore, this case cannot occur.
- (1) **and** (4): We have  $a_1 \leq a_2 \wedge a_1 \neq a_2$  and  $a_2 = a_1 \wedge b_2 \sqsubseteq b_1$ , which is a contradiction. Therefore, this case also cannot occur.
- (2) **and** (3): We have  $a_1 = a_2 \wedge b_1 \sqsubseteq b_2$  and  $a_2 \preceq a_1 \wedge a_2 \neq a_1$ , which is a contradiction. Therefore, this case cannot occur as well.
- (2) **and** (4): We have  $a_1 = a_2 \wedge b_1 \sqsubseteq b_2$  and  $a_2 = a_1 \wedge b_2 \sqsubseteq b_1$ . Since  $\sqsubseteq$  is antisymmetric, it follows that  $b_1 = b_2$ . But we also have  $a_1 = a_2$  and, thus,  $(a_1, b_1) = (a_2, b_2)$ .

**Transitivity:** Take any  $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2), (a_3, b_3)$  in  $A \times B$  such that  $(a_1, b_1) \leq_{\mathsf{lex}} (a_2, b_2)$  and  $(a_2, b_2) \leq_{\mathsf{lex}} (a_3, b_3)$ . This means that

$$\underbrace{a_1 \prec a_2}_{(1)} \vee \underbrace{(a_1 = a_2 \wedge b_1 \sqsubseteq b_2)}_{(2)} \quad \text{and} \quad \underbrace{a_2 \prec a_3}_{(3)} \vee \underbrace{(a_2 = a_3 \wedge b_2 \sqsubseteq b_3)}_{(4)}.$$

We have to show that  $(a_1, b_1) \leq_{\text{lex}} (a_3, b_3)$ . The proof proceeds by case distinction.

- (1) **and** (3): We have  $a_1 \prec a_2$  and  $a_2 \prec a_3$ . Since  $\leq$  is transitive we have  $a_1 \leq a_3$ . Moreover, if we had  $a_1 = a_3$ , the antisymmetry of  $\leq$  would imply that  $a_1 = a_2$ , a contradiction to  $a_1 \prec a_2$ . Thus,  $a_1 \neq a_3$ , and therefore  $a_1 \prec a_3$ . Hence,  $(a_1,b_1) \leq_{\mathsf{lex}} (a_3,b_3)$ .
- (1) **and** (4): We have  $a_1 \prec a_2$  and  $a_2 = a_3 \wedge b_2 \sqsubseteq b_3$ . Hence,  $a_1 \prec a_3$  and, therefore,  $(a_1, b_1) \leq_{\mathsf{lex}} (a_3, b_3)$ .
- (2) **and** (3): We have  $a_1 = a_2 \wedge b_1 \sqsubseteq b_2$  and  $a_2 \prec a_3$ . Hence,  $a_1 \prec a_3$  and, therefore,  $(a_1, b_1) \leq_{\mathsf{lex}} (a_3, b_3)$ .
- (2) **and** (4): We have  $a_1 = a_2 \wedge b_1 \sqsubseteq b_2$  and  $a_2 = a_3 \wedge b_2 \sqsubseteq b_3$ . It follows that  $a_1 = a_3$ . Since  $\sqsubseteq$  is transitive, we also have  $b_1 \sqsubseteq b_3$ . Therefore,  $(a_1, b_1) \leq_{\mathsf{lex}} (a_3, b_3)$ .

#### 6.4 Inverses of Functions

We prove the two implications separately.

( $\Longrightarrow$ ) Let g be a function such that  $g \circ f = \mathrm{id}$ . We show that f is injective. Assume that f(a) = f(b) for some  $a, b \in A$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} a &= (g \circ f)(a) & (g \circ f = \mathrm{id}) \\ &= g(f(a)) & (\mathrm{def.} \circ) \\ &= g(f(b)) & (f(a) = f(b)) \\ &= (g \circ f)(b) & (\mathrm{def.} \circ) \\ &= b & (g \circ f = \mathrm{id}) \end{aligned}$$

( $\iff$ ) Assume that f is injective. We construct a function g such that  $g \circ f = \operatorname{id}$  as follows. For any  $b \in \operatorname{Im}(f)$ , by the injectivity of f, there exists a unique a such that f(a) = b, and we define g(b) = a. For  $b \notin \operatorname{Im}(f)$ , we define g(b) = b. We have  $g \circ f = \operatorname{id}$ , because for any  $a \in A$ ,  $f(a) \in \operatorname{Im}(f)$ , so g(f(a)) = a.

**Note:** The choice g(b) = b in case  $b \notin \text{Im}(f)$  is irrelevant. For example, we could set  $g(b) = a_0$  for some fixed  $a_0 \in A$ .

# 6.5 Countability and Uncountability

- a) We prove the implication indirectly. Assume that B is countable. Then  $B \leq \mathbb{N}$  (Definition 3.42). Since  $A \leq B$  (by assumption) and  $B \leq \mathbb{N}$ , we get  $A \leq \mathbb{N}$  (Lemma 3.15 (a)), that is, A is countable (Definition 3.42).
- **b)** We show an injection from  $\{0,1\}^{\infty}$  into S. Consider the function<sup>1</sup>

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \psi: \{0,1\}^\infty & \to S \\ f & \mapsto g \end{array}$$

where  $g:\{0,1\}\to\{0,1\}^\infty$  is the (constant) function such that g(0)=g(1)=f. We show that  $\psi$  is injective, that is, for all  $f,f'\in\{0,1\}^\infty$  if  $\psi(f)=\psi(f')$  then f=f' (the indirect implication of Definition 3.39-1). Let  $g=\psi(f)$  and  $g'=\psi(f')$  and suppose g=g'. We have f=g(0)=g'(0)=f'. Therefore  $\psi$  is an injection from the uncountable set  $\{0,1\}^\infty$  (Theorem 3.18) into S. This means  $\{0,1\}^\infty \preceq S$  (Definition 3.42-(ii)) and the claim follows from subtask (a).

### 6.6 The Hunt for the Red October

The set  $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$  of possible parameters  $(v, s_0)$  is countable due to the fact that  $\mathbb{Z}$  is countable (see Example 3.57) and Corollary 3.20. Thus, due to Theorem 3.17 there exists a bijection  $\psi : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ . The strategy is to attempt the parameters in the sequence

$$\psi(0), \psi(1), \psi(2), \dots$$

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$ We interpret the set  $\{0,1\}^{\infty}$  as the set of functions  $\mathbb{N} \to \{0,1\}$ .

Since  $\psi$  is a bijection, Svetlana will find the correct values  $(\widehat{v}, \widehat{s_0}) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$  in the *i*-th attempt (we start to count from zero), where

$$i = \psi^{-1}(\widehat{v}, \widehat{s_0}).$$

Hence, Svetlana only needs finitely many attempts, so she is guaranteed to find the correct parameters in a finite time.

# 6.7 More Countability

- a) The set of all Java programs is countable. Every Java program can be seen as a finite binary sequence. That is, there is an injection from the set of all Java programs to the set  $\{0,1\}^*$  of finite binary sequences. By Theorem 3.18, this set is countable.
- **b)** This set is uncountable. To prove this, we notice that  $\{0,1\}^\infty \subseteq A$ , which implies that  $\{0,1\}^\infty \preceq A$  (Lemma 3.15). Since  $\{0,1\}^\infty$  is uncountable, A must be uncountable as well (if A was countable, the transitivity of  $\preceq$  would imply that  $\{0,1\}^\infty$  is countable, which is a contradiction).

An alternative proof. We can also apply directly the diagonalization argument.

Assume towards a contradiction that there is a bijection  $f : \mathbb{N} \to A$ . Let  $\beta_{i,j}$  denote the j-th number in the i-th sequence. We define a new sequence as follows:

$$\alpha \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} R_{10}(\beta_{0,0}+1), R_{10}(\beta_{1,1}+1), R_{10}(\beta_{2,2}+1), \dots,$$

where  $R_{10}(a)$  denotes the remainder when a is divided by 10. Of course,  $\alpha \in A$ . Moreover, there is no  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\alpha = f(n)$ , since  $\alpha$  disagrees with a sequence f(n) on position n.

c) This set is uncountable. We can define an injective function  $f:[0,1]\to C$  by  $f(x)=\left(x,\sqrt{1-x^2}\right)$ . Hence, we have  $[0,1]\preceq C$ . Since [0,1] is uncountable, C must be uncountable as well (if C was countable, the transitivity of  $\preceq$  would imply that [0,1] is countable as well, which is a contradiction).

**Note:** The fact that the interval [0,1] is uncountable follows from Theorem 3.23 and the fact that any element of  $\{0,1\}^{\infty}$  can be interpreted as the binary expansion of a number in the interval [0,1], and vice versa.

**d)** To begin, consider the subset  $\mathbb{P} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  of prime numbers and consider the inclusion function

$$i: \mathbb{P} \to \mathbb{N},$$
  $p \mapsto p.$  (1)

The function i is injective, as i(p)=i(p') clearly implies p=p'. This means  $\mathbb{P} \preceq \mathbb{N}$  (Definition 3.42). Since  $\mathbb{P}$  is infinite (hint), then  $\mathbb{P} \sim \mathbb{N}$  (Theorem 3.17), or equivalently there exists a bijection between  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{P}$ . Let  $\phi: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{P}$  be such a bijective function. We prove that S is uncountable by exhibiting an injection from  $\{0,1\}^\infty$  to S. In what follows, we understand the set  $\{0,1\}^\infty$  as the set of functions  $\mathbb{N} \to \{0,1\}$ . Consider the following function

$$\psi: \{0,1\}^{\infty} \to S, f \mapsto g$$
 (2)

where g is defined as follows:

$$g(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } n \neq 1 \text{ and } n \text{ is not prime }, \\ f(\phi^{-1}(n)) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
 (3)

First of all, we prove that  $\psi$  is well defined, that is, for all  $f \in \{0,1\}^{\infty}$  it holds that  $\psi(f) \in S$ . Let  $f \in \{0,1\}^{\infty}$  and let  $g = \psi(f)$ . Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that g(n) = 0. There are three cases to consider.

- The first case is that n=0. In this case, for all  $m\in\mathbb{N}$  we have  $0\nmid m$  so that there is nothing to check.
- The second case is that  $n \notin \{0,1\}$  and n is not prime. In this case, if  $n \mid m$  then  $m \neq 1$  and m is not prime, so that g(m) = 0.
- The last case is that n is prime. In this case, if  $n \mid m$  then m is not prime, so that g(m) = 0.

This shows that  $g \in S$ .

Next, we show that  $\psi$  is injective. Suppose that  $\psi(f) = \psi(f')$  for some  $f, f' \in \{0, 1\}^{\infty}$ . Let  $g = \psi(f)$  and  $g' = \psi(f')$ . This means that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  it holds that g(n) = g'(n). We want to show that f(n) = f'(n) for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Since  $\phi$  is bijective we have  $n = \phi^{-1}(p)$  for some  $p \in \mathbb{P}$ . Therefore

$$f(n) = f(\phi^{-1}(p)) \qquad (n = \phi^{-1}(p))$$

$$= g(p) \qquad \text{(Definition of } g)$$

$$= g'(p) \qquad (g(n) = g'(n) \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N})$$

$$= f'(\phi^{-1}(p)) \qquad \text{(Definition of } g)$$

$$= f'(n) \qquad (n = \phi^{-1}(p)).$$

$$(4)$$

This shows that  $\psi$  is injective.