

Diskrete Mathematik

Solution 5

5.1 A Property of Any Two Sets

We prove the statement constructively. Let A and B be two sets. We define

$$C \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A).$$

In order to show that $A = (B \setminus C) \cup (C \setminus B)$ we first show that for any x we have

$$x \in B \setminus C \iff x \in B \wedge x \in A \tag{1}$$

and

$$x \in C \setminus B \iff x \notin B \wedge x \in A \tag{2}$$

Combining both claims we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} x \in (B \setminus C) \cup (C \setminus B) & \\ \iff x \in (B \setminus C) \vee x \in (C \setminus B) & \quad (\text{def. } \cup) \\ \iff (x \in B \wedge x \in A) \vee (x \notin B \wedge x \in A) & \quad ((1) \text{ and } (2)) \\ \iff (x \in B \vee x \notin B) \wedge x \in A & \quad (\text{distributivity}) \\ \iff x \in A. & \quad (F \vee \neg F \equiv \top, \top \wedge G \equiv G) \end{aligned}$$

It thus only remains to prove (1) and (2). We first prove (1).

$$\begin{aligned} x \in B \setminus C & \\ \iff x \in B \wedge x \notin C & \\ \iff x \in B \wedge \neg(x \in (A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A)) & \quad (\text{def. } C) \\ \iff x \in B \wedge \neg(x \in (A \setminus B) \vee x \in (B \setminus A)) & \quad (\text{def. } \cup) \\ \iff x \in B \wedge \neg((x \in A \wedge x \notin B) \vee (x \in B \wedge x \notin A)) & \quad (\text{def. } \setminus) \\ \iff x \in B \wedge \neg(x \in A \wedge x \notin B) \wedge \neg(x \in B \wedge x \notin A) & \quad (\text{de Morgan}) \\ \iff x \in B \wedge (x \notin A \vee x \in B) \wedge (x \notin B \vee x \in A) & \quad (\text{de Morgan}) \\ \iff x \in B \wedge (x \notin B \vee x \in A) & \quad (\text{absorption}) \\ \iff (x \in B \wedge x \notin B) \vee (x \in B \wedge x \in A) & \quad (\text{distributivity}) \\ \iff x \in B \wedge x \in A & \quad (F \wedge \neg F \equiv \perp, \perp \vee G \equiv G) \end{aligned}$$

Now, we prove (2).

$$x \in C \setminus B$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\iff x \in C \wedge x \notin B \\ &\iff x \in (A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A) \wedge x \notin B && \text{(def. } C) \\ &\iff (x \in A \setminus B \vee x \in B \setminus A) \wedge x \notin B && \text{(def. } \cup) \\ &\iff ((x \in A \wedge x \notin B) \vee (x \in B \wedge x \notin A)) \wedge x \notin B && \text{(def. } \setminus) \\ &\iff ((x \in A \wedge x \notin B) \wedge x \notin B) \vee ((x \in B \wedge x \notin A) \wedge x \notin B) && \text{(distributivity)} \\ &\iff (x \in A \wedge x \notin B \wedge x \notin B) \vee ((x \in B \wedge x \notin B) \wedge x \notin A) && \text{(assoc., comm.)} \\ &\iff (x \in A \wedge x \notin B \wedge x \notin B) \vee \perp && (F \wedge \neg F \equiv \perp, \perp \wedge G \equiv \perp) \\ &\iff x \in A \wedge x \notin B \wedge x \notin B && (F \vee \perp \equiv F) \\ &\iff x \notin B \wedge x \in A && \text{(idempotence, comm.)} \end{aligned}$$

This concludes the proof.

Alternative proof. We show a less formal proof of $A = (B \setminus C) \cup (C \setminus B)$.

We first prove $A \subseteq (B \setminus C) \cup (C \setminus B)$. Assume $x \in A$. We do a case distinction on $x \in B$.

- $x \in B$. Then, we have $x \notin (A \setminus B)$ and $x \notin (B \setminus A)$, so $x \notin C$. Thus, $x \in (B \setminus C)$, and therefore $x \in (B \setminus C) \cup (C \setminus B)$.
- $x \notin B$. Then, we have $x \in (A \setminus B)$, so $x \in (A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A) = C$. Thus, $x \in (C \setminus B)$, and therefore $x \in (B \setminus C) \cup (C \setminus B)$.

It remains to prove that $(B \setminus C) \cup (C \setminus B) \subseteq A$. Assume $x \in (B \setminus C) \cup (C \setminus B)$. We have $x \in (B \setminus C)$ or $x \in (C \setminus B)$. Case distinction.

- $x \in (B \setminus C)$. Then, $x \in B$ and $x \notin C$. By definition of C we have $x \notin (B \setminus A)$. Moreover, by definition of set difference (and De Morgan), $x \notin (B \setminus A)$ implies $x \notin B$ or $x \in A$. Combined with $x \in B$, this implies $x \in A$.
- $x \in (C \setminus B)$. Then, $x \in C$ and $x \notin B$. Since we have by definition of C either $x \in (A \setminus B)$ or $x \in (B \setminus A)$. Since $x \notin B$ implies $x \notin (B \setminus A)$ we must have $x \in (A \setminus B)$. Hence, $x \in A$.

Combining both directions, we have proved that $A = (B \setminus C) \cup (C \setminus B)$.

5.2 Relating Two Power Sets

a) For any C , we have

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

(*) 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 3.5, $S \subseteq A$. 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 3.5, this means that $A \subseteq B$.

5.3 Family Relations

a) The relations can be expressed in the following way:

- i) $iggf = if \circ ip \circ ip$
- ii) $ihs = (ic \circ ip) \setminus (ic \circ im \cap ic \circ if)$
- iii) $ico = (ic \circ ic \circ ip \circ ip) \setminus (ic \circ ip)$

b) These relations are neither the same, nor is one a subset of the other. To see this, consider six different people a, b, c, d, e and f , where c and d are the mother and

father of a , while e and f are the mother and father of b . Also, c has no common parent or child with e or f and f has no common parent or child with c or d .

For such six people, $a \text{ ic} \circ \text{ic} \circ \text{ip} \circ \text{ip} b$ if and only if d and e have a common parent, while $a \text{ ic} \circ \text{ip} \circ \text{ic} \circ \text{ip} b$ if and only if d and e have a common child.

While it is theoretically possible that two people share both a parent and a child, in general neither of these implies the other. One can easily argue that a counterexample actually exists.

5.4 Computing Representations of Relations

a) We have $\rho^3 = \{(1, 1), (1, 3), (2, 2), (4, 4)\}$ and

$$M^{\rho^3} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

5.5 Operations on Relations

	Relation	reflexive	symmetric	transitive
a)	$< \circ $	\times	\times	\checkmark
b)	$ \cup \equiv_2$	\checkmark	\times	\times
c)	$ \cup ^{-1}$	\checkmark	\checkmark	\times

a) Two numbers (a, b) are in the relation whenever there exists an x such that $a < x$ and $x | b$. This relation is not reflexive, since $(1, 1) \notin < \circ |$. Moreover, it is not symmetric, because $(1, 2) \in < \circ |$, but $(2, 1) \notin < \circ |$. This relation is transitive. For any (a, b, c) , assume that there exist some x and y , such that $a < x$, $x | b$, $b < y$ and $y | c$. From $x | b$ it follows that $x \leq b$, hence, $a < x \leq b < y$. Therefore, $a < y$ and $y | c$.

b) Two numbers (a, b) are in the relation whenever $a | b$ or $a \equiv_2 b$. This relation is reflexive, since for any a , we have $a \equiv_2 a$ (alternatively, one could use the fact that $a | a$). It is, however, not symmetric, because $(1, 2) \in | \cup \equiv_2$, but $(2, 1) \notin | \cup \equiv_2$. It is also not transitive, since $(3, 1) \in | \cup \equiv_2$ and $(1, 2) \in | \cup \equiv_2$, but $(3, 2) \notin | \cup \equiv_2$.

c) Two numbers (a, b) are in the relation whenever $a | b$ or $b | a$. This relation is reflexive, since for any a , we have $a | a$. It is also symmetric, because for any (a, b) , we trivially have $a | b$ or $b | a$ if and only if $b | a$ or $a | b$. The relation is, however, not transitive, since $(3, 1) \in | \cup |^{-1}$ and $(1, 2) \in | \cup |^{-1}$ but $(3, 2) \notin | \cup |^{-1}$.

5.6 A False Proof

a) For an arbitrary $x \in A$, there does not always exist a $y \in A$ such that $x \rho y$.

b) Consider the following counterexample: $A = \{1, 2\}$ and $\rho = \{(1, 1)\}$. The relation ρ is symmetric and transitive. However, it is not reflexive, since $2 \rho 2$ does not hold.

5.7 Properties of Relations

- a) The statement is false. A counterexample is the relation $\sigma = \{(0, 1), (1, 0)\}$ on the set $A = \{0, 1\}$. Obviously, σ is not reflexive. Further, we have $\sigma^2 = \{(0, 0), (1, 1)\}$, which is reflexive. This disproves the statement.
- b) The statement is true. We present two different (direct) proofs, each using one of the two equivalent definitions of an antisymmetric relation.

Proof 1 Let A be any set and let σ and ρ be any antisymmetric relations on A . We show that $\sigma \cap \rho$ is antisymmetric, that is that for any $(a, b) \in A \times A$, we have

$$a (\sigma \cap \rho) b \wedge b (\sigma \cap \rho) a \implies a = b.$$

To this end, consider any pair $(a, b) \in A \times A$ such that $a (\sigma \cap \rho) b$ and $b (\sigma \cap \rho) a$. From $a (\sigma \cap \rho) b$ it follows that $a \sigma b$. Moreover, from $b (\sigma \cap \rho) a$ it follows that $b \sigma a$.

From those two facts and the antisymmetry of σ we can conclude that $a = b$.

Proof 2 Let A be any set and let σ and ρ be any antisymmetric relations on A . We show that $\sigma \cap \rho$ is antisymmetric, that is that $(\sigma \cap \rho) \cap (\sigma \cap \rho)^{-1} \subseteq \text{id}$.

$$\begin{aligned} (\sigma \cap \rho) \cap (\sigma \cap \rho)^{-1} &= \sigma \cap \rho \cap (\sigma \cap \rho)^{-1} \\ &\subseteq \rho \cap (\sigma \cap \rho)^{-1} && (A \cap B \subseteq B) \\ &\subseteq \rho \cap \rho^{-1} && (\alpha \subseteq \beta \implies \alpha^{-1} \subseteq \beta^{-1}) \\ &\subseteq \text{id}, && (\text{antisymmetry of } \rho) \end{aligned}$$

where the statement $\alpha \subseteq \beta \implies \alpha^{-1} \subseteq \beta^{-1}$ follows directly from the definition of the inverse of a relation. Therefore, $\sigma \cap \rho$ is antisymmetric.