

Theorem Let $\{A_m\}_{m=1,2,\dots}$ be a sequence of countably infinite sets.

Let $S = \bigcup_{m=1}^{\infty} A_m$. Then S is countably infinite.

Proof Each A_m is countably infinite $\Leftrightarrow A_m \sim \mathbb{J} \quad \forall m \geq 1$

$$\Leftrightarrow A_m = \{x_{mk}\}_{k=1,2,\dots} = \{x_{m1}, x_{m2}, x_{m3}, \dots\}$$

We use two indices like for the entries of a matrix. The first

index tells us which A_m the element belongs to, while the second index tells us where that element is in the enumeration (the counting) of A_m . (55)

Write

$$\{x_{11}, x_{12}, x_{21}, x_{31}, x_{22}, x_{13}, x_{14}, x_{23}, x_{32}, x_{41}, \dots\}$$

$= \bigcup_{m=1}^{\infty} A_m = S$ is countably infinite because even if some x_{ij} 's are the same $A_m \subseteq S \quad \forall m \geq 1$ and $A_m \cap I$. (g.c.d.)

Corollary 1 Suppose an indexing set I is countable, and $\forall i \in I$, A_i is countable, then $T = \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$ is countable.

Proof: The biggest set we can obtain here is when I is countably infinite and each A_i is countably infinite. By the previous theorem, T is countably infinite in that case. Therefore, T is at most countably infinite (may be finite if I is finite and each A_i is finite), so T is countable. (g.c.d.)

Corollary 2 Let A be a countably infinite set, and let $A^m = \underbrace{A \times \dots \times A}_{m \text{ times}} = \{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m) \mid a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m \in A\}$.

Then A^m is countably infinite.

Proof We use induction:

Base case $m=1 \quad A^1 = A \sim \mathbb{N} \Rightarrow A^1$ is countably infinite.

Inductive step Assume A^{m-1} is countably infinite.

$$A^m = A^{m-1} \times A = \{(b, a) \mid b \in A^{m-1}, a \in A\}$$

$$\forall b \in A^{m-1} \quad S_b = \{(b, a) \in A^m \mid a \in A\} \sim \mathbb{N} \sim A \Rightarrow S_b \text{ is}$$

countably infinite. $A^n = \bigcup_{b \in A^{n-1}} S_b \sim J$ by Corollary 1, so A^n is indeed countably infinite as claimed. (f.e.d.)

Corollary 3 \mathbb{N}^n is countably infinite $\forall n \geq 1$.

Proof $\mathbb{N} \sim J$, so the result follows from Corollary 2. (f.e.d.)

Corollary 4 \mathbb{Z}^n is countably infinite $\forall n \geq 1$.

Proof We showed $\mathbb{Z} \sim J$, so the result follows from Corollary 2. (f.e.d.)

Corollary 5 \mathbb{Q} is countably infinite.

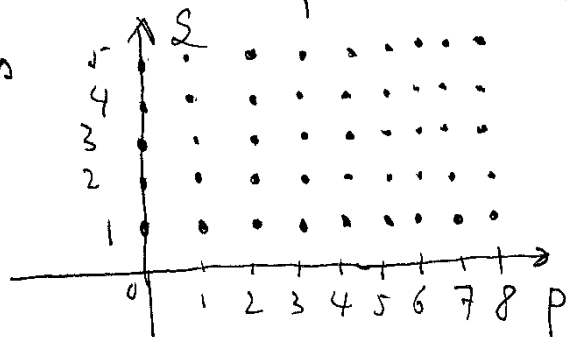
Proof $\mathbb{Q} = \left\{ \frac{p}{q} \mid q \neq 0, p, q \in \mathbb{Z}, (p, q) = 1 \right\}$, but we can
no common factors

represent \mathbb{Q} as $\{(p, q) \mid q \neq 0, p, q \in \mathbb{Z}\} / \sim \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^2$, where $(p_1, q_1) \sim (p_2, q_2)$

$\Leftrightarrow \frac{p_1}{q_1} = \frac{p_2}{q_2} \Leftrightarrow p_1 q_2 = p_2 q_1$ by cross multiplication.

We also know $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$ (let $q = 1$). Therefore, \mathbb{Q} is sandwiched between $\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z}^1$ and \mathbb{Z}^2 , both of which are countably infinite $\Rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ is countably infinite. (f.e.d.)

Remark We can give a visual representation of the previous argument as follows



The dots are pairs (p, q) w/ $q \neq 0, p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$, which form a lattice. We can use the snake trick from the theorem to show that the positive rationals $\mathbb{Q}^+ = \left\{ \frac{p}{q} \in \mathbb{Q} \mid \frac{p}{q} > 0 \right\}$ are

countably infinite.



Similarly, we can show (58)
 $\mathcal{Q}^- = \left\{ \frac{p}{q} \in \mathcal{Q} \mid \frac{p}{q} < 0 \right\}$
is countably infinite.

Then $\mathcal{Q} = \mathcal{Q}^- \cup \{0\} \cup \mathcal{Q}^+$ is countably infinite by Corollary 1.

Next, show the set of sequences of 0's and 1's is uncountably infinite. We will use this result to show other sets are uncountably infinite.

Theorem Let A be the set of all sequences $s = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\} = \{x_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ such that $x_n \in \{0, 1\} \forall n \geq 1$. Then A is uncountably infinite.

Remark This result is proven via a clever construction, which is due to Georg Cantor (1845-1918), a very famous German mathematician who invented set theory. Cantor also came up w/ the diagonal argument (snake trick) we used to prove a countably infinite union of countably infinite sets is countably infinite, the idea that sizes of sets should be understood via bijections ($A \sim B$ for A, B sets), as well as the notions of countably infinite and uncountably infinite.

Proof Assume A is countable $\Leftrightarrow A = \{s_1, s_2, \dots\}$, where $s_j = \{x_n^j\}_{n=1}^\infty$ for $x_n^j = 0$ or $x_n^j = 1$. We will now construct a sequence s_0 of 0's and 1's that cannot be in the enumeration $\{s_1, s_2, \dots\}$. Let s_0 be such that
$$x_j^0 = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x_j^j = 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x_j^j = 1 \end{cases}$$
 In other words, s_0 differs from

each s_j in the j^{th} element $\Rightarrow s_0 \notin \{s_1, s_2, \dots\}$, but s_0 is a sequence of 0's and 1's $\Rightarrow s_0 \in A \Rightarrow \text{contradiction}$ (f.e.d.)

Corollary The power set $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$ of \mathbb{N} is uncountably infinite.

Remark Recall our proof that if B is a set w/ n elements, $\#(B) = n$, then its power set $\mathcal{P}(B)$ has 2^n elements based on the "on/off"

idea. For each element of B , we have the choice to include it in our subset ("on") or not to include it ("off"). Therefore, we have 2 choices for each element and $\#(B) = n$, so $\#P(B) = 2^n$.

Proof $\mathbb{N} \sim \mathbb{J}$, so we can write $\mathbb{N} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$. When we form a subset of \mathbb{N} , for each i , we can include x_i or leave it out. Say we represent including x_i by 1 and leaving x_i out by 0. Then each subset of \mathbb{N} can be represented uniquely as a sequence of 0's and 1's. In fact, there is a one-to-one correspondence between the subsets of \mathbb{N} and the sequences of 0's and 1's. Therefore $P(\mathbb{N}) \sim A$, where A is the set of all sequences of 0's and 1's, but we showed in the previous Theorem that A is uncountably infinite $\Rightarrow P(\mathbb{N})$ is uncountably infinite.

(g.e.d.)

We shall also use the one-to-one correspondence with the set of sequences of 0's and 1's in order to prove \mathbb{R} is uncountably infinite.

The argument proceeds in two steps:

- ① We show $\mathbb{R} \sim (0, 1)$ via a cleverly chosen bijection.
- ② We set up a correspondence between $(0, 1)$ and the set A of all sequences of 0's and 1's via a binary expansion.

Step ① is the following proposition:

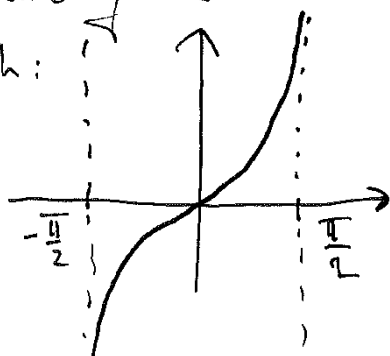
Proposition \mathbb{R} is in bijective correspondence with the interval $(0, 1)$.

Remark $(0, 1) \subsetneq \mathbb{R}$, but we saw infinite sets can be in one-to-one correspondence with one of their proper subsets.

Proof Recall from trigonometry that $\tan: \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a bijection. Here is the graph:

$$\tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x}$$

$$\cos\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 0$$

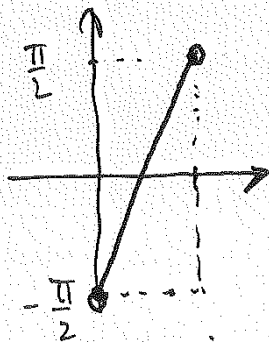


$x = -\frac{\pi}{2}$
 $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$ } are asymptotes of the graph.

We now use a linear function, a bijection, to show $(0,1) \sim (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ (57)

$$g(x) = \pi x - \frac{\pi}{2}$$

Here is the graph:



The composition of two bijections is itself a bijection $\Rightarrow \tan(g(x)) = \tan(\pi x - \frac{\pi}{2})$ is a bijection from $(0,1)$ to \mathbb{R} . The map we want $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (0,1)$ is its inverse $f(x) = \left(\tan(\pi x - \frac{\pi}{2})\right)^{-1}$ as the inverse of a bijection is itself a bijection. (f.e.d.)

Step ② is a bit more complicated: To each $x \in (0,1)$, we want to associate $0.x_1x_2x_3\ldots$, where after the decimal $\{x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots\}$ is a sequence of 0's and 1's. In other words, we are giving a binary expansion of every $x \in (0,1)$ as $0.x_1x_2x_3\ldots = 0 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot x_1 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_2 + \frac{1}{8} \cdot x_3 + \ldots$

$$= 0 + \frac{1}{2^1} \cdot x_1 + \frac{1}{2^2} \cdot x_2 + \frac{1}{2^3} \cdot x_3 + \ldots = 0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} \cdot x_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} x_n$$

Recall that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \ldots = 1$. This means that

$$\frac{1}{2^k} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} + \frac{1}{2^{k+2}} + \frac{1}{2^{k+3}} + \ldots = \frac{1}{2^k} \quad \forall k \geq 1.$$

Thus $0.\underbrace{1000\ldots}_{\text{all 0's}}$ and $0.\underbrace{0111\ldots}_{\text{all 1's}}$ both represent $\frac{1}{2}$.

Similarly, any $x \in (0,1)$ that is a sum of the form $\frac{1}{2^{p_1}} + \frac{1}{2^{p_2}} + \ldots + \frac{1}{2^{p_k}}$ for $p_1, \ldots, p_k \in \mathbb{N}^*$, $p_1 < p_2 < \ldots < p_k$ has two binary representations.