

Infinite sets

Adam Wyner

CS3518, Spring 2017

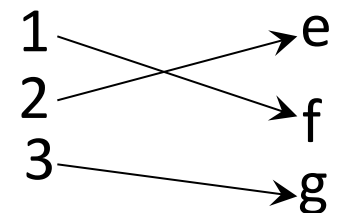
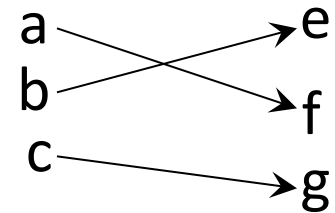
University of Aberdeen

Cardinality (informal)

- The cardinality of a finite set is its number of elements
- E.g., $\text{card}(\{a,b,c\}) = \text{card}(\{e,f,g\}) = 3$
- Note: for finite sets X and Y , $\text{card}(X) = \text{card}(Y)$ if and only if there exists a bijection between X and Y .
- There are different, but related notions here:
 - what is the ‘size’ of a set?
 - is there a bijection between the sets?
 - if there is a bijection, what are the elements (in the sets) that are being related?
 - what is the bijective function?

Cardinality (informal)

- For these sets $\{a,b,c\}$ and $\{e,f,g\}$, we could make a function:
- This is a bijection (one-to-one and onto).
- The elements being related are letters.
- It isn't clear what the bijective function is other than what is given.
- We could also have the domain as natural numbers, which is similarly a bijection; in which case, we have a way to determine the cardinality.
- We can call this an enumeration.



Enumeration

- What can and what cannot be enumerated?
- This is related to a basic idea running through the course – where we have more problems than solutions.
- In turn, can we make a bijective function (a program) from solutions to the problems they solve.
- Hard to answer in a general way. At least we can enumerate the problems, leaving the actual function as a number. Thus, we will try to understand what problems we can and cannot solve “in principle” with a program.
- Enumerated sets are computable; if some set is not enumerable, it is not computable.

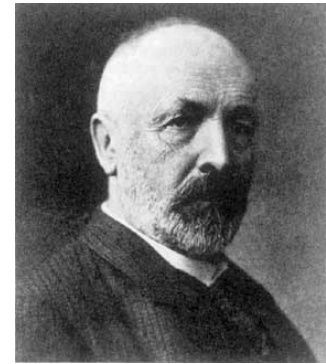
Infinity

- We can determine the cardinality of a set if the set has 0 or 1 or 2 or ... n (i.e. any natural number) elements.
- But what if the set has an infinite number of elements?

Some examples:

- The set of all natural numbers
- The set of all even natural numbers
- $L(1^*) = 1, 11, 111, 1111, 11111, \text{etc.}$
- $L(0^*1^*) = 01, 001, 011, 0001, 0011, \text{etc}$
- * is the Kleene Star, meaning zero or more

The diagonalisation method



- Georg Cantor (1873): What's the size of an infinite set?
- e.g., is $\text{card}(L(1^*)) = \text{card}(L(0^*1^*))$?
 - Both are infinite
 - But is one larger than the other?
- Cantor's idea:
 - The size (cardinality) of a set should not depend on the *identity* of its elements
 - Two finite sets A and B have the same size if we can pair the elements of A with elements of B , *that is, the elements correspond.*
 - Formally: there exists a **bijection** between A and B

Correspondences

n	$f(n)$
1	2
2	4
3 ⋮	6 ⋮

- Example: Let
 - \mathcal{N} be the set of pos. natural numbers $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
 - \mathcal{E} the set of even pos. natural numbers $\{2, 4, 6, \dots\}$
- Using Cantor's definition of size, we can show that \mathcal{N} and \mathcal{E} have the same size:
 - Bijection (!): $f(n) = 2n$
- Intuitively, \mathcal{E} is smaller than \mathcal{N} , but
 - Pairing each element of \mathcal{N} with its corresponding element in \mathcal{E} is possible,
 - So we declare these two sets to be the same size
 - This even though $\mathcal{E} \subset \mathcal{N}$ (\mathcal{E} is a real subset of \mathcal{N})
- Strange but true!

Countable (enumerable) sets

- A set X is finite if it has n elements, for some n in \mathcal{N} .
- A set is countable if either
 - It is finite or
 - It has the same size as \mathcal{N} , the natural numbers
- For example,
 - \mathcal{N} (natural numbers) is countable, and so are all its subsets
 - \mathcal{E} (even numbers) is countable
 - $\{0,1,2,3\}$ is countable
 - \emptyset is countable (it is a finite set!)
- How about supersets of \mathcal{N} ?

An even stranger example...

- Let Q be the set of positive rational numbers

$$Q = \{ m/n \mid m, n \in \mathcal{N} \}$$

- Just like \mathcal{E} , the set Q has the same size as \mathcal{N} !
 - We show this giving a bijection from Q to \mathcal{N}
 - Q is thus countable
- One way is to enumerate (i.e., to list) Q 's elements.
 - Pair the first element of Q with 1 (first element of \mathcal{N})
 - And so on, making sure every member of Q appears only once in the list

An even stranger example... (Cont'd)

- To build a list with the elements of Q
 - make infinite matrix with all positive rational numbers
 - i -th row contains all numbers with numerator i
 - j -th column has all numbers with denominator j
 - i/j is in i -th row and j -th column

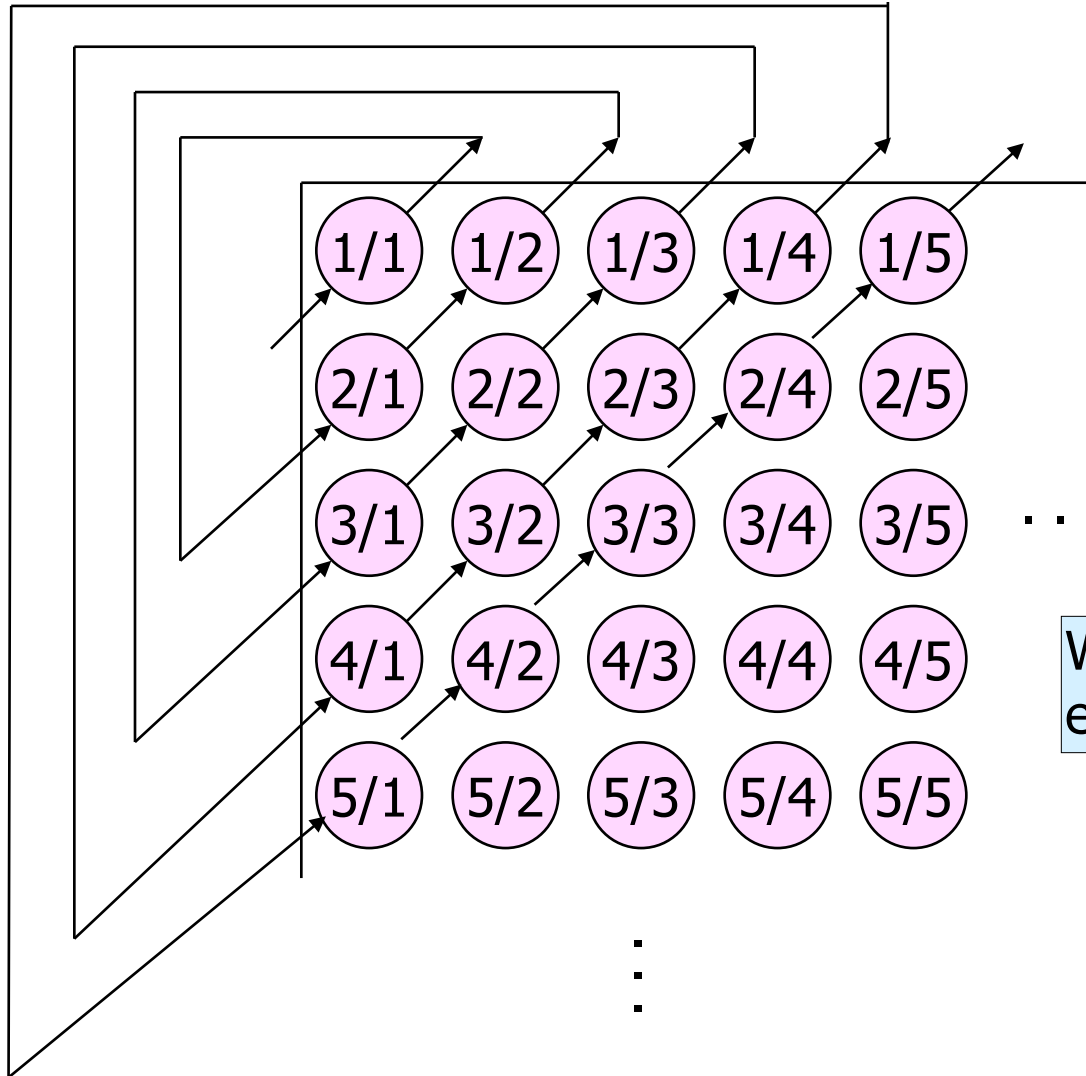
1/1	1/2	1/3	1/4	1/5	
2/1	2/2	2/3	2/4	2/5	
3/1	3/2	3/3	3/4	3/5	...
4/1	4/2	4/3	4/4	4/5	
5/1	5/2	5/3	5/4	5/5	
		⋮			

An even stranger example... (Cont'd)

- Now we turn the previous matrix into a list
- A bad way: begin list with first row
 - Since rows are infinite, we will never get to 2nd row!

An even stranger example... (Cont'd)

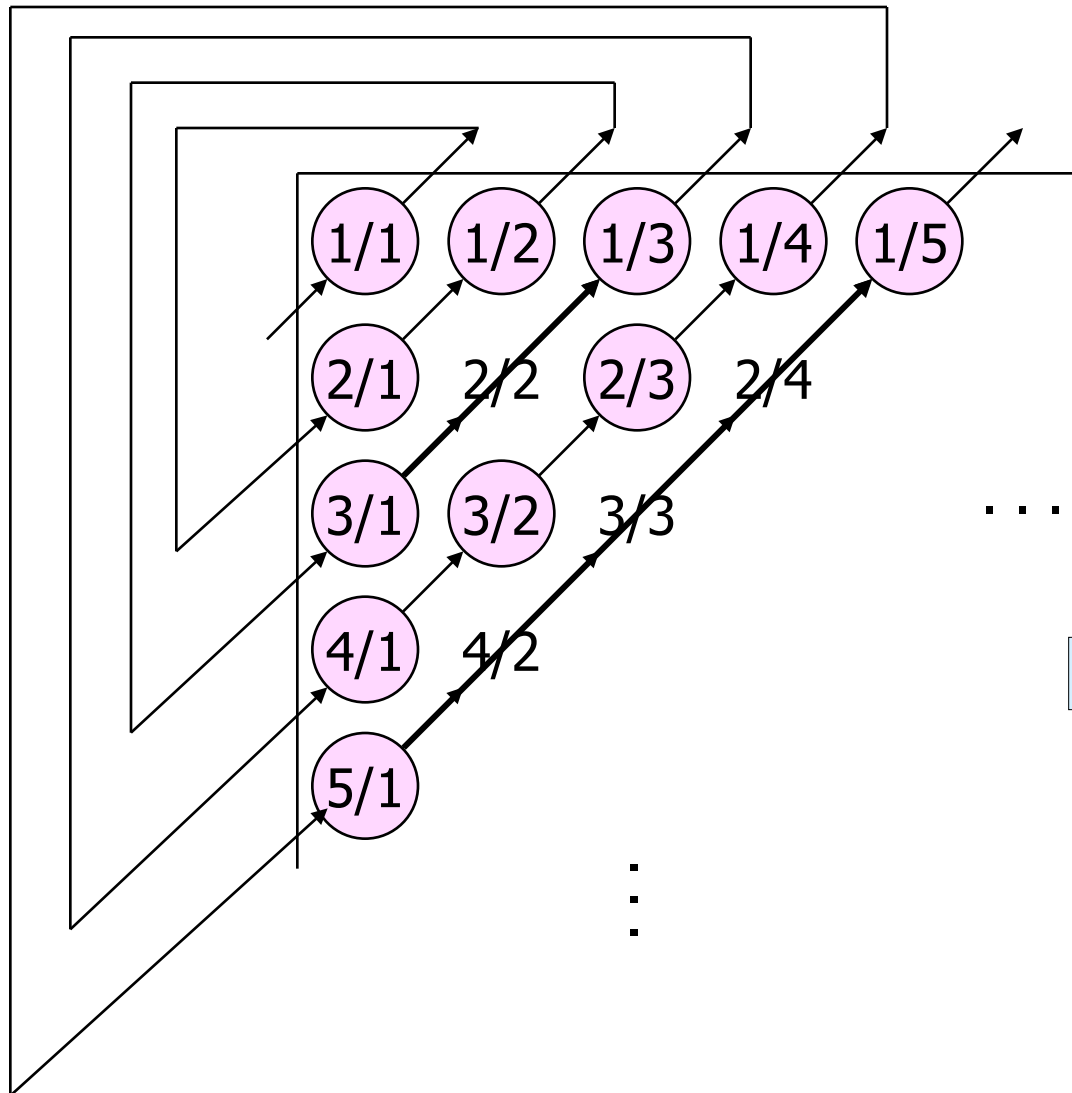
- Instead, we list the elements along diagonals:



We should, however,
eliminate repeated elements

An even stranger example... (Cont'd)

- We list elements along diagonals without repetitions:



We make an
enumerable
list:

$(1/1, 2/1, 1/2, 3/1, 1/3, \dots)$

Why does diagonalisation work?

- While each of the 'axes' are infinite, the diagonal is finite – 'bouncing off the bumpers'.
- Enumeration by example.
- It is a bijective function from \mathcal{Q} to \mathcal{N}

1/1	1/2	1/3	1/4	1/5	
2/1	2/2	2/3	2/4	2/5	
3/1	3/2	3/3	3/4	3/5	...
4/1	4/2	4/3	4/4	4/5	
5/1	5/2	5/3	5/4	5/5	
		⋮			

What is the bijective function between \mathbb{Q} and \mathbb{N} ?

- Can we provide not just the enumerated list, but more 'content' to the function $f: \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ such that $f(q) = n$ is a bijective function, e.g. $f(x) = 2n$.
- Can we prove it is bijective?
- This is, apparently, more complex....

Uncountable sets

- Some sets have no correspondence with \mathcal{N}
- These sets are simply too big!
 - They are not countable: we say uncountable
- Theorem:
 - The set of real numbers between 0 and 1 (e.g., 0.244, 0.3141592323....) is uncountable
Call this set $R_{0,1}$
- Strange but true!
- Some sets are even larger. “Serious” set theory is all about theorems that concern infinite sets, most of which is irrelevant for this course.

Proof about uncountability of reals

- Theorem: $|R_{0,1}| > |N|$. Proof strategy:
- $|R_{0,1}| \geq |N|$. Suppose $|R_{0,1}| = |N|$ and derive a contradiction.
- Each member of $R_{0,1}$ can be written as a zero followed by a dot and a countable sequence of digits.
- Suppose there existed a complete enumeration of R , (using *whatever* order) $\langle e_1, e_2, e_3, \dots \rangle$.

Proof about uncountability of reals

An arbitrary list might start this way:

e1. 0.000000000000000000000000....

e2. 0.010000000000000000000000....

e3. 0.820000000000000000000000....

e4. 0.171000000000000000000000....

...

Now construct a real number n
that's not in the enumeration:

n 's first digit (after the dot) =
[e_1 's first digit] + 1

n 's second digit = [e_2 's second digit] + 1 ...

General: n 's i -th digit = [e_i 's i -th digit] + 1

$\forall i$: n differs from e_i in its i -th digit

Contradiction: $\langle e_1, e_2, e_3, \dots \rangle$ is not a (complete) enumeration
after all because we can always create a real number not
in the previous enumeration. QED

Point

- This proof of the non-countability of the set of real numbers is known as Cantor's *diagonalisation* argument
- We have something that cannot be enumerated
- It proved to be the start of a large new area of set theory, involving the cardinalities of infinite sets

The Russell Paradox

Rosen 5th ed., §1.6
especially ex. 30 on p. 86

Basic Set Notations

- Set enumeration $\{a, b, c\}$ and set-builder $\{x \mid P(x)\}$.
- \in relation, and the empty set \emptyset .
- Set relations $=, \subseteq, \subset, \supset, \not\subset$, etc.
- Venn diagrams.
- Cardinality $|S|$ and infinite sets **N, Z, R**.
- Power sets $P(S)$.

Axiomatic set theory

- Various axioms, e.g., saying that the union of a set of sets is a set; the intersection of a set of sets is a set; etc.
- **One key axiom “The Comprehension Principle”:**
Given a Predicate P , one can construct a set. It consists of all those elements x such that $P(x)$ is true (recall the characteristic function). Alternatively, given any property P there exists a set containing all objects that have that property.

Axiomatic set theory

- But, the resulting theory turns out to be *logically inconsistent*! (more detail soon)
 - This means, there exists a set theoretic proposition p such that both p and $\neg p$ follow logically from the axioms of the theory!
 - \therefore The conjunction of the axioms leads to a contradiction.
 - This makes the theory fundamentally uninteresting, because *any* possible statement in it can be (very trivially) proven!

Prove:

Theorem: Given a contradiction, any statement can be proven

Proof: Let your contradiction be $p \ \& \ \neg p$ (assuming you have proven it before)

Suppose you want to prove an arbitrary q

$(p \ \& \ \neg p) \rightarrow q$ is a tautology of propositional logic

(Check truth table of the formula, given $p \ \& \ \neg p$ is false)

Since you have proven $p \ \& \ \neg p$, q follows with Modus Ponens.

This version of set theory is inconsistent

Russell's paradox:

- Background: can have “The set A of all sets is a set, so A is a member of itself.” Not generally true since “The set B of all teapots is not a teapot, so B is not a member of itself.”
- But, this leads to a problem. Consider the set that corresponds with the predicate S, where elements in S are not elements of themselves; alternatively, the set of all sets which don't contain themselves i.e. $x \notin x$, where x is a set:
$$S = \{x \mid x \notin x\}$$
- Now ask: is $S \in S$?

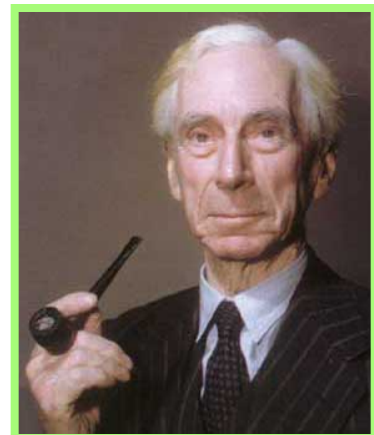
Russell's paradox

- Let $S = \{x \mid x \notin x\}$. Is $S \in S$?
- If $S \in S$, then S is one of those x for which $x \notin x$. In other words, $S \notin S$. The assumption and the conclusion are a contradiction.
- If $S \notin S$, then S is not one of those x for which $x \notin x$. If this is so, i.e. S is not an element of the set of sets that are not elements of themselves, then $S \in S$. The assumption and the conclusion are a contradiction.
- We conclude that both $S \in S$ nor $S \notin S$
- Paradox!

What to do?

- To avoid inconsistency, set theory had reject the Comprehension Principle and use an alternative set of axioms.
- A consistent axiomatic set theory is Zermelo-Fraenkel set theory with the axiom of choice, though we don't discuss this further here.

Bertrand Russell
1872-1970



One technique to avoid the problem:

- *Given a **set** S and a predicate P , construct a new set, consisting of those elements x of S such that $P(x)$ is true.*
- You will see this technique in use when we get to the programming language Haskell, where we can write something like:

$\{x \mid x \in \{1..\}, \text{even } x\}$

but not

$\{x \mid \text{even } x\}$

Notice that the definition of the set restricts the domain of x .

Another technique to avoid the problem:

- Russell's paradox arises from the fact that we can write funny things like $x \notin x$ (or $x \in x$, for that matter).
- One solution: use types to forbid such expressions.
- You'll see this technique in Haskell's use of typing.

Our focus: computability

- We shall not worry about “saving” set theory from paradoxes like Russell’s
- Instead, we shall use the Russell paradox in a different setting
- But first we need to talk about Formal Languages, Haskell, and Turing Machines