

MA1126: Set Theory Selected Problems

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February 2019

Problem 1: 2016 Q3

(a.) Define an open set in \mathbb{R} . Define closed set.

Solution: Open set:

A set $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ is called open if $\forall x \in A, \exists \varepsilon > 0$ s.t. $N(x, \varepsilon) \subset A$

Where $N(x, \varepsilon)$ is a neighbourhood $\{y \in \mathbb{R} \mid |x - y| < \varepsilon\}$

Closed set:

A set $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ is closed if $\mathbb{R} \setminus A$ is open, where $\mathbb{R} \setminus A$ is the complement of A in \mathbb{R} \square

Prove that A is closed \iff it contains all of its accumulation points.

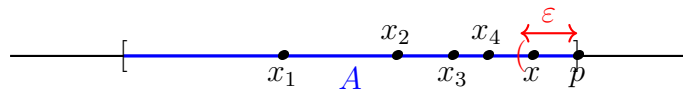
Solution:

\Rightarrow

We need to show that no accumulation points of A are contained in $\mathbb{R} \setminus A$

Accumulation Point: p is an accumulation point of A if

$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists x \in A \setminus \{p\}$ s.t. $|x - p| < \varepsilon$



i.e. \exists an infinite sequence x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots of points of A , distinct from p , that converge to p , with $\lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} x_j = p$ but all $x_j \in A$, hence $p \in A$ also

Hence A contains all of its accumulation points

A is closed \implies it contains all of its accumulation points.

\Leftarrow Now assume A contains all of its accumulation points, then choose $p \in \mathbb{R} \setminus A$, so p is not an accumulation point of A .

So by definition of accumulation points, $\exists \delta > 0$ s.t. $\{x \in A \mid 0 < |x - p| < \delta\} = \emptyset$

Hence there exists an open ball about p in $\mathbb{R} \setminus A$, so $\mathbb{R} \setminus A$ is open, $\implies A$ is closed

So A is closed \iff it contains all of its accumulation points, as required. \square

(b.) Define Cauchy sequence.

Solution: A Cauchy sequence a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots (infinite sequence) such that $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $|a_n - a_m| < \varepsilon \forall n, m \geq N$

\square

(c.) Prove that every Cauchy Sequence converges in \mathbb{R} is equivalent to the least upper bound axiom

Solution: Want C.S. \implies L.U.B and L.U.B \implies C.S. Assume Cauchy convergence.

Let A be a nonempty subset of \mathbb{R} and suppose A has an upper bound b_1

Since A is nonempty, $\exists a_1 \in A$ and not an upper bound.

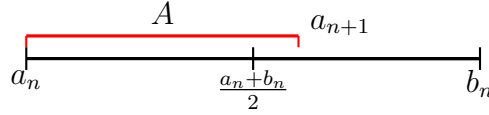
Define sequences a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots as follows:

Check if $\frac{a_n + b_n}{2}$ is an upper bound of A .

If so, $a_{n+1} = a_n$, $b_{n+1} = \frac{a_n + b_n}{2}$

Otherwise, $\exists s \in A$ s.t. $s > \frac{a_n + b_n}{2}$

Let $a_{n+1} = s, b_{n+1} = b_n$



Then $a_1 \leq a_2 \leq \dots \leq b_2 \leq b_1$ and $|b_n - a_n| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

\implies Both sequences are Cauchy \therefore they converge towards some limit L

$\implies L$ is the least upper bound for s \checkmark

Note: Every Cauchy sequence is bounded.

Proof:

Take $\varepsilon = 1$, then

$\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $m, n \geq N \implies |x_m - x_n| < 1 \implies |x_m| - |x_n| < 1 \implies |x_m| < 1 + |x_n|$

In general, $|x_n| \leq \max\{|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|, 1 + |x_n|\}$

Note also that every sequence has a monotone (strictly increasing) subsequence.

Now Assume Least upper bound axiom is true.

Suppose we have a monotone bounded sequence (increasing)

Since it is bounded, by the L.U.B axiom, then it has a supremum.

$s = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \{x_n\}$

Claim S is the limit of the sequence.

Let $\varepsilon > 0$, then $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $s - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < x_N \leq x_{N+1} \leq \dots \leq S$

$\implies \forall n \geq N$ we have $|x_n - s| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$

Now take any x_m in the original sequence with $m > N$

$|x_m - x_n| \leq |x_m - s| + |x_n - s| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$

So the sequence is Cauchy \checkmark

□

Problem 2: 2017 Q4

(a.) Show that $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous \iff the preimage of any open set U , $f^{-1}(U)$ is open

Solution:

\Rightarrow

Assume f is continuous on \mathbb{R} , then

$$\forall x_0 \in \mathbb{R}, \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } |x - x_0| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \varepsilon$$

In other words, $\forall x_0 \in \mathbb{R}, \forall N(f(x_0), \varepsilon) \exists N(x_0, \delta) \text{ s.t. } f(N(x_0, \delta)) \subset N(f(x_0), \varepsilon)$

Let U be open in \mathbb{R}

Let $x_0 \in f^{-1}(U)$

Then $f(x_0) \in U$

$$\implies \exists \varepsilon > 0 \text{ s.t. } N(f(x_0), \varepsilon) \subset U$$

$$\implies \exists N(x_0, \delta) \text{ s.t. } f(N(x_0, \delta)) \subset N(f(x_0), \varepsilon) \subset U$$

$$\implies N(x_0, \delta) \subset f^{-1}(U)$$

x_0 is an interior point of $f^{-1}(U) \implies f^{-1}(U)$ is open.

\Leftarrow

$f^{-1}(U)$ for any U open.

Given $N(f(x_0), \varepsilon)$, this is open. $\implies f^{-1}(N(f(x_0), \varepsilon))$ is open.

and $x_0 \in f^{-1}(N(f(x_0), \varepsilon))$ so x_0 is an interior point

$$\implies \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } N(x_0, \delta) \subset f^{-1}(N(f(x_0), \varepsilon))$$

$$\implies f(N(x_0, \delta)) \subset N(f(x_0), \varepsilon) \implies f \text{ is continuous.} \quad \square$$

(b.) Prove that the continuous image of a compact subset of \mathbb{R} is compact.

Solution: Suppose $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ is compact, and f is continuous

Suppose $f(A) \subset \bigcup_{\alpha} U_{\alpha}$, U_{α} open

$$\text{Then } A \subset f^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{\alpha} U_{\alpha}\right) = \bigcup_{\alpha} f^{-1}(U_{\alpha})$$

By part (a.), each of the $f^{-1}(U_{\alpha})$ is open.

And A is compact $\implies \exists$ a finite subcover of A

$$\text{.e. } A \subset f^{-1}(U_{\alpha_1}) \cup f^{-1}(U_{\alpha_2}) \cup \dots \cup f^{-1}(U_{\alpha_n})$$

$$\implies f(A) \subset U_{\alpha_1} \cup U_{\alpha_2} \cup \dots \cup U_{\alpha_n} \implies f(A) \text{ is compact.} \quad \square$$

(c.) Use part (b.) to prove the Extreme Value Theorem

Solution:

Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$,

$[a, b]$ is compact by Heine-Borel.

Then $f([a, b])$ is compact by part (b.) \implies it is closed and bounded.

bounded \implies LUB and GLB exist

closed \implies LUB and GLB belong to $f([a, b])$

$$\text{So } \exists x_0, x \in [a, b] \text{ s.t. } f(x_0) = \max_{x \in [a, b]} f(x) \quad f(x_1) = \min_{x \in [a, b]} f(x)$$

This is the Extreme Value Theorem. \square

Problem 3: 2017 Q3

(a.) Prove or disprove

$$1. U_n \text{ open } \forall n \geq 1 \implies \bigcap_{n \geq 1} U_n \text{ open.}$$

Solution: $U_n \text{ open } \not\implies \bigcap_{n \geq 1} U_n \text{ open.}$

e.g. let $U_n = (-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n})$
 $\bigcap_{n \geq 1} U_n = \{0\}$ which is not open. □

$$2. U_n \text{ open } \forall n \geq 1 \implies \bigcup_{n \geq 1} U_n \text{ open.}$$

Solution: Let $x \in \bigcup_{n \geq 1} U_n \implies x \in U_{n_i}$ for some n_i

$$\implies \exists \varepsilon > 0 \text{ s.t. } N(x, \varepsilon) \subset U_{n_i}$$

$$\implies N(x, \varepsilon) \subset \bigcup_{n \geq 1} U_n$$

$$\implies \bigcup_{n \geq 1} U_n \text{ is open.}$$

□

$$3. U_n \text{ closed } \forall n \geq 1 \implies \bigcap_{n \geq 1} U_n \text{ closed.}$$

Solution: $U_n \text{ closed } \implies (U_n)^C \text{ open}$

$$\implies \bigcup_{n \geq 1} (U_n)^C \text{ is open, from above.}$$

$$\implies (\bigcup_{n \geq 1} (U_n)^C)^C$$

$$\implies \bigcap_{n \geq 1} (U_n^C)^C = \bigcap_{n \geq 1} (U_n) \text{ closed.}$$

□

$$4. U_n \text{ closed } \forall n \geq 1 \implies \bigcup_{n \geq 1} U_n \text{ closed.}$$

Solution: $U_n \text{ closed } \not\implies \bigcup_{n \geq 1} U_n \text{ closed.}$

e.g. $O_n = \{\frac{1}{n}\}$ 0 is an accumulation point not included in $\bigcup_{n \geq 1} U_n$

\implies not closed (since a set is closed \iff it contains all its accumulation points. □

(b.) Prove a subset of \mathbb{R} is compact \iff it is closed and bounded

Solution:

\implies

Suppose $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ Suppose it is not bounded

Let $U_n = (-n, n)$ Then $A \subset \bigcup U_n = \mathbb{R}$

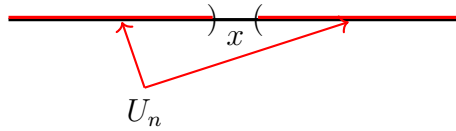
But a finite subcover cannot be found $\implies A$ is not compact

So not bounded \implies not compact

Taking the contrapositive compact \implies bounded.

Suppose $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ and not closed $\exists x$ an accumulation point of A not in A

Let $U_n = (-\infty, x - \frac{1}{n}) \cup (x + \frac{1}{n}, +\infty)$ be a cover of A



But a finite subcover cannot be found $\implies A$ not compact

So not closed \implies not compact

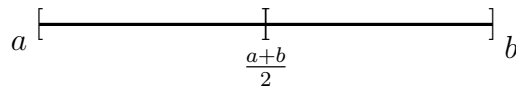
Taking the contrapositive compact \implies closed.

\Leftarrow

Now suppose A is closed and bounded.

Case 1: $A = [a, b]$

Suppose $A \subset \bigcup_{\alpha} U_{\alpha}$ and a finite number of U_{α} don't cover $A = I_1$



Consider $[a, \frac{a+b}{2}]$ and $[\frac{a+b}{2}, b]$

One of these subintervals which we will call I_2 , also does not have a finite subcover.

Divide I_2 in half, one of these will not have a finite subcover ... etc.

We have $I_1 \supset I_2 \supset I_3 \supset \dots \supset I_n \supset \dots$ infinite series of nested subintervals.

with each I_n closed and bounded interval that does not have a finite subcover of U_{α}

By the Nested Intervals Theorem, $\bigcap I_n \neq \emptyset$

Let $x \in \bigcap I_n$, so $x \in U_{\alpha_i}$ for some α_i

U_{α_i} open, then $\exists \varepsilon > 0$ s.t. $N(x, \varepsilon) \subset U_{\alpha_i}$

But $|I_n| \rightarrow 0$ and if $|I_n| < \varepsilon$, then $x \in I_n \implies I_n \subset N(x, \varepsilon)$

$\implies I_n$ has a finite subcover $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$ Contradiction

Then A is closed

Case 2:

A is closed and bounded but not necessarily an interval.

If $A \subset \bigcup U_{\alpha}$ $\exists [a, b]$ s.t. $A \subset [a, b]$

and if we consider all U_{α} and A^C , we have an open cover of $[a, b]$.

$\implies \exists$ a finite subcover $U_{\alpha_1} \cup \dots \cup U_{\alpha_n}$ ($\cup A^C$ possibly)

But $A \cup A^C = \mathbb{R} \therefore U_{\alpha_1} \cup \dots \cup U_{\alpha_n} \supset A$ covers A

□

Problem 4: Page 16 Q48

we define \oplus to denote exclusive or, so $p \oplus q \equiv (p \vee q) \wedge \neg(p \wedge q)$

Hence the truth table for exclusive or is as follows:

p	q	$p \oplus q$
T	T	F
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F

- a. find simpler statement forms that are logically equivalent to $p \oplus p$ and $(p \oplus p) \oplus p$

Solution:

p	$(p \oplus p)$	$(p \oplus p) \oplus p$
T	F	T
F	F	F

So $(p \oplus p) \equiv \text{contradiction}$, $(p \oplus p) \oplus p \equiv p$

□

- b. Is $(p \oplus q) \oplus r \equiv (p \oplus q) \oplus r$? Justify your answer.

Solution:

p	q	r	$(p \oplus q)$	$(p \oplus q) \oplus r$	$(q \oplus r)$	$p \oplus (q \oplus r)$
T	T	T	F	T	F	T
T	T	F	F	F	T	F
T	F	T	T	F	T	F
T	F	F	T	T	F	T
F	T	T	T	F	F	F
F	T	F	T	T	T	T
F	F	T	F	T	T	T
F	F	F	F	F	F	F

So $(p \oplus q) \oplus r \equiv (p \oplus q) \oplus r$

□

- c. Is $(p \oplus q) \wedge r \equiv (p \wedge q) \oplus (q \wedge r)$? Justify your answer.

Solution:

p	q	r	$(p \oplus q)$	$(p \oplus q) \wedge r$	$(p \wedge r)$	$(q \wedge r)$	$(p \wedge r) \oplus (q \wedge r)$
T	T	T	F	F	T	T	F
T	T	F	F	F	F	F	F
T	F	T	T	T	T	F	T
T	F	F	T	F	F	F	F
F	T	T	T	T	F	T	T
F	T	F	T	F	F	F	F
F	F	T	F	F	F	F	F
F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F

So $(p \oplus q) \wedge r \equiv (p \wedge q) \oplus (q \wedge r)$

□

Problem 5: 2018 Q2

(a.) Define what it means for 2 sets to have the same cardinal number.

Solution: 2 sets X and Y have the same cardinality if \exists a bijective map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ i.e. a 1-1 correspondence. \square

Define Cardinal Number.

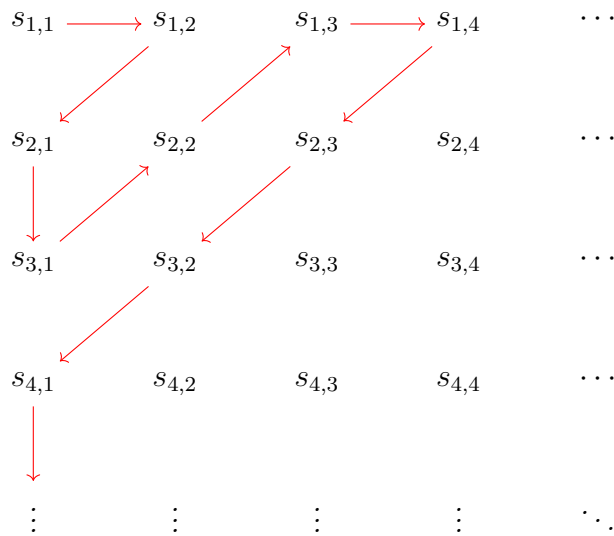
Solution: The cardinal number of a set X , $\#X$ is the number of elements in the set X

e.g. $\#\{1, 2, 4, 6, 9\} = 5$ \square

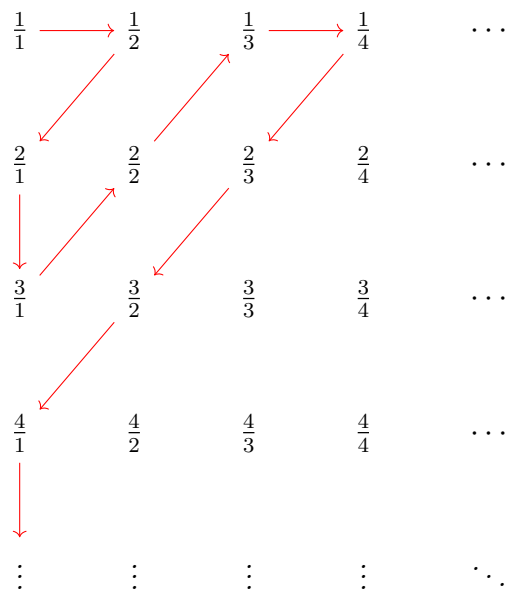
Prove that \mathbb{Q} is countable but \mathbb{R} is not.

Solution:

1. Define $\mathbb{Q}_+ =$



Where $s_{ij} = \frac{i}{j}, j \neq 0$, i.e.



We define the list in the diagonalising order as defined in the diagram, where we skip the rational numbers already in the list, e.g. $\frac{2}{2} = \frac{1}{1}$ $\frac{8}{4} = \frac{2}{1}$

Hence \mathbb{Q}_+ is countable. Similarly, \mathbb{Q}_- is countable. Hence $\mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Q}_+ \cup \{0\} \cup \mathbb{Q}_-$ is countable.

2. We show below in part (c.) that $\prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \{0, 1\} \sim \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{N})$ and that $\#\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{N}) > \#\mathbb{N}$

Claim the interval $(0, 1)$ is not countable. If not, then \mathbb{R} is not countable.

Assume \mathbb{R} is countable. We consider the countable list of decimal expansions

$$\begin{array}{rcll} a^1 = & \cdot & a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} & \cdots \\ a^2 = & \cdot & a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} & \cdots \\ a^3 = & \cdot & a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} & \cdots \\ a^4 = & \cdot & a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} & a_{44} & \cdots \\ & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{array}$$

Where $0 \leq a_{ij} \leq 9 \forall i, j \geq 1$ Define a decimal expansion

$$b = \cdot (a_{11} + 1) (a_{22} + 1) (a_{33} + 1) (a_{44} + 1) \cdots (a_{nn} + 1) \cdots$$

But $9 \rightarrow 1$ as we don't want a string of zeroes

This is a real number by completeness of the real line, This is not equal to any of the decimal expansions above since it is different to each of the a^i in the i^{th} place.

Hence $(0, 1)$ is not countable $\therefore \mathbb{R}$ is not countable.

□

- (b.) State the Schroeder-Bernstein Theorem and Cantor's Theorem.

Solution: Schroeder-Bernstein Theorem

If $\exists f : X \rightarrow Y$ one to one

If $\exists g : Y \rightarrow X$ one to one

Then $\exists h : X \rightarrow Y$ one to one and onto.

i.e. $\#X \leq \#Y$ and $\#Y \leq \#X \implies \#X = \#Y$

Cantor's Theorem

For any set A , $\#A < \#\mathbb{P}(A)$ i.e. $n < 2^n$

i.e. $\nexists f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{P}(A)$ one to one and onto.

□

Prove Cantor's Theorem.

Solution:

Suppose There exists $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{P}(A)$ one to one and onto.

Let $B = \{x \in A \mid x \notin f(x)\} \therefore B \subset A$

$B \subset A \implies B \in \mathbb{P}(A)$

f surjective $\implies \exists y$ s.t. $f(y) = B$

Suppose $y \in B, y \in f(y) \implies y \notin B \Rightarrow \Leftarrow$ contradiction.

Suppose $y \notin B, y \notin f(y) \implies y \in B \Rightarrow \Leftarrow$ contradiction.

$\therefore f$ does not exist.

□

- (c.) Prove $\prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \{0, 1\} \sim \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{N})$

Solution: This means there exists a bijective map $f : \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \{0, 1\} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{N})$

$\prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \{0, 1\}$ is a sequence of 0's and 1's. e.g. $\{1, 0, 1, 0, 0, \dots\}$

$A \subset \mathbb{N} \rightarrow f(A) \in \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \{0, 1\}$

e.g. $\{1, 3, 7\} = \begin{array}{cccccccccc} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ & \textcolor{red}{2} & \textcolor{red}{3} & \textcolor{red}{4} & \textcolor{red}{5} & \textcolor{red}{6} & \textcolor{red}{7} & \textcolor{red}{8} & \textcolor{red}{9} & \dots \end{array}$

So the sequence $\{f(A)\}_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } i \in A \\ 0, & \text{if } i \notin A \end{cases}$

Is f bijective?

Injective: Does $f(A_1) = f(A_2) \implies A_1 = A_2$?

Let $j \in A_1 \implies f(A_1)_j = 1 = f(A_2)_j \implies j \in A_2$

So $A_1 \subset A_2$

By symmetry, $A_2 \subset A_1$ also

$\implies A_1 = A_2 \therefore$ injective.

Surjective: given $b = \{b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots\} \in \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \{0, 1\}$

Does there exist $A \subset \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $f(A) = b$?

We know $j \in A \iff b_j = 1$

$f(A)_j = 1 \iff j \in A \iff b_j = 1 \forall j$

$\therefore f(A)_j = b_j \forall j$

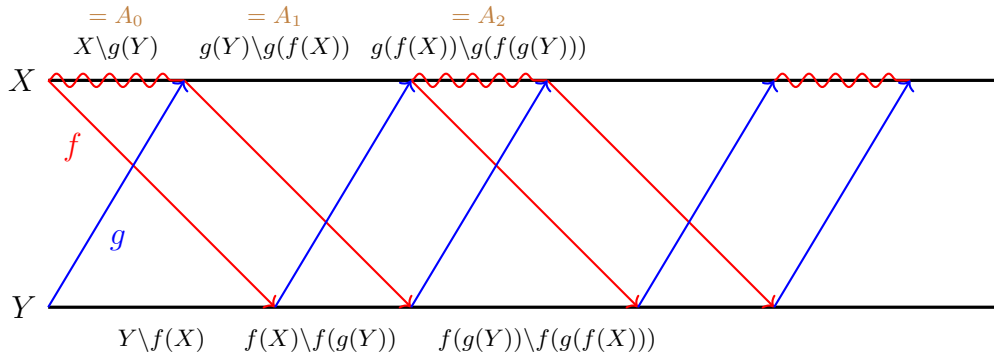
$\implies f(A) = b \therefore$ surjective

Hence f is bijective, and $\prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \{0, 1\} \sim \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{N})$ □

Extra: Prove the Schroeder-Bernstein Theorem

Solution:

In the below diagram we use the fact that $f(X \setminus Y) = f(X) \setminus f(Y)$



$$X = X \setminus g(Y) \cup g(Y) \setminus g(f(X)) \cup g(f(X)) \setminus g(f(g(Y))) \cup \dots$$

$$Y = Y \setminus f(X) \cup f(X) \setminus f(g(Y)) \cup f(g(Y)) \setminus f(g(f(X))) \cup \dots$$

$$A_{n+1} = g(f(A_n)) \text{ and } A_{\infty} = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n$$

Define

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} f(x), & \text{if } x \in A_{\infty} \\ g^{-1}(x), & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

We can easily show h is onto since all of Y is used

But is h injective?

We are also using the result that if h is injective on A_1, A_2 , then h is injective on $A_1 \cup A_2$ if $f(A_1) \cap f(A_2) = \emptyset$.

Hence A_{∞} is the union of disjoint A_n , and h is injective on all the A_n since f is. so h is injective on the A_{∞} .

Similarly h is injective $\forall x \notin A_{\infty}$ by injectivity of g .

So h is injective $\forall x \in X$

$\implies h$ is bijective, as required □