## Solutions to homework #11

1. Problem 1(a)(b) from Section 6.3. Recall that we proved 1(c) in Lecture 22. Give a detailed argument.

**Solution:** Recall that if A and B are sets, the expression |A| = |B| should not be interpreted as equality of two elements of a certain set – it is just a shortcut for the statement 'There exists a bijection from A to B'. Thus, to prove that  $\sim$  is reflexive we need to show that for any set A there exists a bijection  $f: A \to A$ . An example of such a bijection is the identity function  $(f(a) = a \text{ for all } a \in A)$ .

To prove that  $\sim$  is symmetric we need to show that if there exists a bijection  $f:A\to B$ , then there exists a bijection  $g:B\to A$ . An example of such g is the inverse function  $f^{-1}:B\to A$  (the inverse  $f^{-1}$  exists since f is bijective, and it is clear from the definition that  $f^{-1}$  is bijective whenever it exists).

**2.** Problem 2 from Section 6.4. Note: the problem should say  $f^{-1}(\{i\})$  is countable, not  $|f^{-1}(\{i\})|$  is countable. **Hint:** Let  $A_i = f^{-1}(\{i\})$ . How is the collection of sets  $\{A_i\}$  related to A?

**Solution:** First we claim that  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = A$ . The inclusion  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \subseteq A$  is clear since each  $A_i$  is a subset of A. Conversely, take any  $a \in A$ . Since f is a function from A to  $\mathbb{N}$ , we have f(a) = i for some  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ , so  $a \in f^{-1}(\{i\}) = A_i$  and hence  $a \in \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ . Thus,  $A \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ .

Since  $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$  and each  $A_i$  is countable by assumption, Theorem 23.5 implies that A is also countable.

**3.** Let  $A_1, \ldots, A_n$  be countable sets. Prove that the Cartesian product  $A_1 \times A_2 \times \ldots \times A_n$  is countable.

**Solution:** We argue by induction on n.

Base case: n = 1, 2. If n = 1, there is nothing to prove, and if n = 2, the result is true by Corollary 6.3.10 from the book.

Induction step: Take  $n \geq 3$ , and assume that  $A_1 \times ... \times A_{n-1}$  is countable. We want to show that  $A_1 \times ... \times A_n$  is countable.

Let  $B = A_1 \times ... \times A_{n-1}$ . Since B is countable by the induction hypothesis, Corollary 6.3.10 implies that  $B \times A_n$  is countable. On the other hand, there is an obvious bijection between  $A_1 \times ... \times A_n$  and  $B \times A_n$  (which sends an n-tuple  $(a_1, ..., a_n)$  to the pair  $((a_1, ..., a_{n-1}), a_n)$ ). Thus,  $|A_1 \times ... \times A_n| = |B \times A_n|$  and hence  $A_1 \times ... \times A_n$  is also countable.

**4.** In Lecture 24 (Tue, April 24) we will prove that  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable using Theorem 23.5 from class (a countable union of countable sets is countable). Give another proof of countability of  $\mathbb{Q}$  by constructing a surjective map  $g:A\times B\to \mathbb{Q}$  for certain countable sets A and B (and using suitable theorems).

**Solution:** By definition, the elements of  $\mathbb{Q}$  are precisely the numbers of the form  $\frac{a}{b}$  where  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $b \neq 0$ . This means that if we let  $A = \mathbb{Z}$  and  $B = \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$  and define the function  $f: A \times B \to \mathbb{Q}$  by  $f((a, b)) = \frac{a}{b}$ , then f is surjective.

We proved in class that  $\mathbb{Z}$  is countable, and  $\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$  is countable being a subset of a countable set. Thus, A and B are both countable and hence  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable by Theorem 23.4(2).

- **5.** Let A be an uncountable set and B a countable subset of A.
- (a) Prove that  $A \setminus B$  is uncountable.
- (b) Prove that A and  $A \setminus B$  have the same cardinality.

**Hint for (b):** Since  $A \setminus B$  is infinite by (a), by Theorem 6.3.5 from the book we can choose a countably infinite subset C of  $A \setminus B$ . Use things proved in class to show that the identity map  $f: (A \setminus B) \setminus C \to (A \setminus B) \setminus C$  can be extended to a bijection from  $A \setminus B$  and A. Draw a picture!

**Solution:** (i) We argue by contradiction. Suppose that  $A \setminus B$  is countable. Then,  $A = (A \setminus B) \cup B$  is a union of two countable sets, hence A is countable, contrary to our hypothesis.

(ii) As suggested in the hint, let C be a countably infinite subset of  $A \setminus B$ . Note that  $(A \setminus B) \setminus C = A \setminus (B \cup C)$ .

Since B and C are both countable, their union  $B \cup C$  is also countable; moreover  $B \cup C$  is infinite since C is infinite. Thus, B and C are both countably infinite, so by definition  $|B| = |\mathbb{N}|$  and  $|C| = |\mathbb{N}|$ , whence |B| = |C| by Problem 1, so there is a bijection  $\phi: C \to B \cup C$ .

Now define the map  $f: A \setminus B \to A$  by

$$f(x) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} x & \text{if } x \in (A \setminus B) \setminus C = A \setminus (B \cup C) \\ \phi(x) & \text{if } x \in C. \end{array} \right.$$

It is clear that f is a bijection from  $A \setminus B$  to A.

**6.** A real number  $\alpha$  is called algebraic if  $\alpha$  is a root of a (nonzero) polynomial with **integer** coefficients, that is, if there exist integers  $c_0, \ldots, c_n$ , not all 0 such that  $\sum_{k=0}^{n} c_k \alpha^k = 0$ . Note that all rational numbers are algebraic (if  $\alpha = \frac{p}{q}$ , then  $\alpha$  is a root of the polynomial qx - p), but many irrational numbers are algebraic as well (e.g.  $\sqrt{2}$  is algebraic as  $\sqrt{2}$  is a root of  $x^2 - 2$ ).

The goal of this problem is to prove that the set of all algebraic numbers is countable.

- (a) For a fixed integer  $n \geq 0$ , let  $Z_n$  be the set of all polynomials of degree at most n with integer coefficients, that is,  $Z_n$  is the set of all polynomials of the form  $\sum_{k=0}^{n} c_k x^k$  with each  $c_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Prove that each  $Z_n$  is countable. **Hint:** Construct a bijection between  $Z_n$  and a Cartesian product of finitely many countable sets and use the result of Problem 2.
- (b) Now use (a) (and a suitable theorem) to show that the set of polynomials with integer coefficients (of arbitrary degree) is countable.
- (c) Finally use (b) and the fact that every polynomial has finitely many roots to show that the set of all algebraic numbers is countable.

**Solution:** (a) Let  $\mathbb{Z}^{n+1} = \underbrace{\mathbb{Z} \times \ldots \times \mathbb{Z}}_{n+1 \text{ times}}$  be the Cartesian product of n+1 copies of  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Define the function  $f: \mathbb{Z}^{n+1} \to Z_n$  by  $f((c_0, \ldots, c_n)) = \sum_{k=0}^n c_k x^k$ .

copies of  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Define the function  $f: \mathbb{Z}^{n+1} \to Z_n$  by  $f((c_0, \ldots, c_n)) = \sum_{k=0}^n c_k x^k$ . Then f is surjective (by definition of  $Z_n$ ); also, f is injective since two polynomials are equal if and only if they have the same coefficients in every degree. Thus, f is bijective. Since  $\mathbb{Z}^{n+1}$  is countable by Problem 3, we conclude that  $Z_n$  is also countable.

- (b) By definition, the set of all polynomials with integer coefficients is equal to  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} Z_n$ . Since each  $Z_n$  is countable by (a),  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} Z_n$  is also countable by Theorem 23.5.
- (c) Let Z be the set of all polynomials with integer coefficients. Since Z is countable, there is a sequence  $p_1, p_2, \ldots$  containing all elements of Z (and where each  $p_i \in Z$ ). Thus, if we denote by  $A_i$  the set of roots of  $p_i$ , then  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$  is the set of all algebraic numbers. On the other hand, each  $A_i$  is finite, hence countable, and therefore  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$  is countable.

The above argument can be made a bit more elegant using a slightly more general form of Theorem 23.5 which says the following:

**Theorem 23.5'**: If I is any countable set and  $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$  is a collection of sets indexed by I such that each  $A_i$  is countable, then  $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$  is countable.

Note that Theorem 23.5' is what the statement "A countable union of countable sets is countable" really refers to. Theorem 23.5 corresponds to the case where  $I = \mathbb{N}$  or  $I = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Let us apply Theorem 23.5' with I = Z. For each polynomial  $p \in I$  let  $A_p$  be the set of its roots. Then the set of all algebraic numbers is  $\bigcup_{p \in I} A_p$ .

Since each  $A_p$  is finite and I is countable, we can conclude that  $\bigcup_{p \in I} A_p$  is countable.

7. Problem 3 from Section 6.3. For parts (a) and (b) construct an explicit bijection between the given sets; one way to solve (c) is to use a suitable theorem from Section 6.4.

**Solution:** (a) By basic calculus the function  $f: \mathbb{R} \to (0, \infty)$  given by  $f(x) = e^x$  is a bijection, so  $|\mathbb{R}| = |(0, \infty)|$ .

- (b) It is straightforward to check that the function  $f:[0,1] \to [a,b]$  given by f(x) = a + (b-a)x is a bijection, so |[0,1]| = |[a,b]|.
- (c) We will solve (c) without using the Schroeder-Bernstein theorem, but we will use transitivity of equality for cardinalities. By (a) we know  $|\mathbb{R}| = |(0,\infty)|$ . In HW#9 we showed that the function  $f:[0,\infty) \to [0,1)$  given by  $f(x) = \frac{x}{x+1}$  is bijection; the same argument shows that the same f is a bijection from  $(0,\infty)$  to (0,1), so  $|(0,\infty)| = |(0,1)|$ .

Thus, to prove that  $|\mathbb{R}| = |[0,1]|$  it suffices to prove that |(0,1)| = |[0,1]|. Similarly to the end of Lecture 24, we have the following explicit bijection  $f:(0,1) \to [0,1]$ :

 $f(\frac{1}{2}) = 0$ ;  $f(\frac{1}{3}) = 1$ ;  $f(\frac{1}{n}) = \frac{1}{n-2}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 4}$  and finally f(x) = x for all  $x \in (0,1) \setminus \{\frac{1}{n} \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 2}\}$ .