PMATH 351: Real Analysis

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# 1. Cardinality

# Definition 1.1 — domain, range, image, inverse image.

Let X and Y be sets and let  $f: X \to Y$ . Recall the **domain** of f and the **range** of f are the sets

$$Domain(f) = X, Range(f) = f(X) = \{f(x) | x \in X\}$$

for  $A \subseteq X$ , the **image** of A under f is the set

$$f(A) = \{ f(x) | x \in A \}$$

For  $B \subseteq Y$ , the **inverse image** of B under f is the set

$$f^{-1}(B) = \{ x \in X | f(x) \in B \}$$

# Definition 1.2 — Composite.

Let X, Y and Z be sets, let  $f: X \to Y$  and let  $g: Y \to Z$ . We define the **composite** function  $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x))$  for all  $x \in X$ 

# Definition 1.3 — injective, surjective, bijective.

We say that f is **injective** (or **one-to-one**) when for every  $y \in Y$  there exists at most one  $x \in X$  such that f(x) = y. Equivalently, f is injective when for all  $x_1, x_2 \in X$ , if  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$  then  $x_1 = x_2$ .

We say that f is **surjective** (or **onto**) when for every  $y \in Y$  there exists at least one  $x \in X$  such that f(x) = y. Equivalently, f is surjective when Range(f) = Y

We say that f is **bijective** (or **invertible**) when f is both injective and surjective, that is when for every  $y \in Y$  there exists exactly one  $x \in X$  such that f(x) = y. When f is both injective and surjective, that is when for every  $y \in Y$  there exists exactly one  $x \in X$  such that  $f^{-1}: Y \to X$  such that for all  $y \in Y$ ,  $f^{-1}(y)$  is equal to the unique element  $x \in X$  such that f(x) = y. Note that when f is bijective so is  $f^{-1}$ , and in this case we have  $(f^{-1})^{-1} = f$ 

# **Theorem 1.1** Let $f: X \to Y$ and let $g: Y \to Z$ . Then

- (1) If f and g are both injective then so is  $g \circ f$
- (2) If f and g are both surjective then so is  $g \circ f$
- (3) If f and g are both invertible then so is  $g \circ f$ , and in this case  $(g \circ f)^{-1} = f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}$

# Proof.

- (1) Suppose that f and g are both injective. Let  $x_1, x_2 \in X$ . If  $g(f(x_1)) = g(f(x_2))$  then since g is injective we have  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ , and then since f is injective we have  $x_1 = x_2$ . Thus  $g \circ f$  is injective.
- (2) Suppose that f and g are both injective. Given  $z \in Z$ , since g is surjective we can choose  $y \in Y$  so that g(y) = z, then since f is surjective we can choose  $x \in X$  so that f(x) = y, and then we have g(f(x)) = g(y) = z. Thus  $g \circ f$  is surjective.
- (3) Follows (1) and (2).

### Definition 1.4 — identity function.

For a set X, we define the **identity function** on X to be the function  $I_X: X \to X$  given by  $I_X(x) = x$  for all  $x \in X$ . Note that for  $f: X \to Y$  we have  $f \circ I_X = f$  and  $I_Y \circ f = f$ .

# Definition 1.5 — inverse.

Let X and Y be sets and let  $f: X \to Y$ . A **left inverse** of f is a function  $g: Y \to X$  given by  $g \circ f = I_X$ . Equivalently, a function  $g: Y \to X$  is a left inverse of f when g(f(x)) = x for all  $x \in X$ .

A **right inverse** of f is a function  $h: Y \to X$  such that  $f \circ h = I_Y$ . Equivalently, a function  $h: Y \to X$  is a right inverse of f when f(h(y)) = y for all  $y \in Y$ .

# **Theorem 1.2** Let X and Y be nonempty sets and let $f: X \to Y$ . Then

- (1) f is injective  $\iff$  f has a left inverse.
- (2) f is surjective  $\iff$  f has a right inverse.
- (3) f is bijective  $\iff$  f has a left inverse g and a right inverse h, and in this case we have  $g = h = f^{-1}$ .

#### Proof.

- (1) Suppose first that f is injective. Since  $X \neq \emptyset$  we can choose  $a \in X$  and then define  $g: Y \to X$  as follows: if  $y \in \text{Range}(f)$  then (using the fact the f is injective) we define g(y) to be the unique element  $x_y \in X$  with  $f(x_y) = y$ , and if  $y \notin \text{Range}(f)$ , then we define g(y) = a. Then for every  $x \in X$  we have  $y = f(x) \in \text{Range}(f)$ , so  $g(y) = x_y = x$ , that is g(f(x)) = x. Conversely, if f has a left inverse, say g, then f is injective since for all  $x_1, x_2 \in X$ , if  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$  then  $x = g(f(x_1)) = g(f(x_2)) = x_2$ .
- (2) Suppose first that f is onto. For each  $y \in Y$ , choose  $x_y \in X$  with  $f(x_y) = y$ , then define  $g: X \to Y$  by  $g(y) = x_y$  (We need the Axiom of Choice for this). Then g is a right inverse of f since for every  $y \in Y$  we have  $f(g(y)) = f(x_y) = y$ . Conversely, if f has a right inverse, say g, then f is onto since given any  $g \in Y$  we can choose g(y) and then we have g(y) = g(y) = y.
- (3) Suppose first that f is bijective. The inverse function  $f^{-1}: Y \to X$  is a left inverse for f because given  $x \in X$  we can let y = f(x) and then  $f^{-1}(y) = x$  so that  $f^{-1}(f(x)) = f^{-1}(y) = x$ . Similarly,  $f^{-1}$  is a right inverse for f because given  $y \in Y$  we can let x be the unique element in X with y = f(x) and then we have  $x = f^{-1}(y)$  so that  $f(f^{-1}(y)) = f(x) = y$ . Conversely, suppose that g is a left inverse for f and h

is a right inverse for f. Since f has a left inverse, it is injective by (1). Since f has a right inverse, it is surjective by (2). Since f is injective and surjective, it is bijective. As shown above, the inverse function  $f^{-1}$  is both a left inverse and a right inverse. Finally, note that  $g = f^{-1} = h$  because for all  $y \in Y$  we have

$$g(y=g(f(f^{-1}(y))) = f^{-1}(y) = f^{-1}(f(h(y))) = h(y)$$

# Corollary 1.3

Let X and Y be sets. Then there exists an injective map  $f: X \to Y$  if and only if there exists a surjective map  $g: Y \to X$ .

**Proof.** Suppose  $f: X \to Y$  is an injective map. Then f has a left inverse. Let g be a left inverse of f. Since  $g \circ f = I_X$ , we see that f is a right inverse of g. Since g has a right inverse, g is surjective. Thus, there is a surjective map  $g: Y \to X$ . Similarly, if  $g: Y \to X$  is surjective, then it has a right inverse  $f: X \to Y$  which is injective.

# Definition 1.6 — same cardinality, less than or equal to, less than.

Let A and B be sets. We say that A and B have the **same cardinality**, and write |A| = |B|, when there exists a bijective map:  $f: A \to B$  (or equivalently when there exists a bijective map  $g: B \to A$ ).

We say that the cardinality of A is **less than or equal to** the cardinality of B, and write  $|A| \leq |B|$ , when there exists an injective map  $f: A \to B$  (or equivalently a surjective map  $g: B \to A$ ).

We say that the cardinality of A is **less than** the cardinality of B, and write |A| < |B|, when  $|A| \le |B|$  and  $|A| \ne |B|$ , (that is when there exists an injective map  $f: A \to B$  but there does not exist a bijective map  $g: A \to B$ ).

We also write  $|A| \ge |B|$  when  $|B| \le |A|$ ; and |A| > |B| when |B| < |A|.

- **Example 1.1** Let  $\mathbb{N} = \{n \in \mathbb{Z} | n \ge 0\} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}.$ 
  - (1) The map  $f: \mathbb{N} \to 2\mathbb{N}$  given by f(k) = 2k is bijective, so  $|2\mathbb{N}| = |\mathbb{N}|$ .
  - (2) The map  $g: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z}$  given by g(2k) = k and g(2k+1) = -k-1 for  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  is bijective, so we have  $|\mathbb{Z}| = |\mathbb{N}|$ .
  - (3) The map  $h: \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  given by  $h(k,l) = 2^k(2l+1) 1$  is bijective, so we have  $|\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}| = |\mathbb{N}|$ .

# **Theorem 1.4** For all sets A, B and C

- (1) |A| = |A|
- (2) If |A| = |B| then |B| = |A|
- (3) If |A| = |B| and |B| = |C|, then |A| = |C|
- $(4) |A| \le |B| \iff (|A| = |B| \text{ or } |A| < |B|)$
- (5) If  $|A| \le |B|$  and  $|B| \le |C|$ , then  $|A| \le |C|$

# Proof.

- (1) holds because the identity function  $I_A: A \to A$  is bijective.
- (2) holds because if  $f: A \to B$  is bijective then so is  $f^{-1}: B \to A$ .
- (3) holds because if  $f:A\to B$  and  $g:B\to C$  are bijective then so is the composite  $g\circ f:A\to C$

# Definition 1.7 — finite, infinite, countable.

Let A be a set. For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $S_n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we say that the cardinality of A is equal to n, or that A has n **elements**, and we write |A| = n, when  $|A| = |S_n|$ .

We say that A is **finite** when |A| = n for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . We say A is **infinite** when A is not finite. We say that A is countable when  $|A| = |\mathbb{N}|$ 

**Note 1.1** When a set A is finite with |A| = n, and when  $f: A \to S_n$  is a bijection, if we let  $a_k = f^{-1}(k)$  for each  $k \in S_n$  then we have  $A = \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{k-1}\}$  with the elements  $a_k$  distinct. Conversely, if  $A = \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{k-1}\}$  with the elements  $a_k$  all distinct, then we define a bijection  $f: A \to S_n$  by  $f(a_k) = k$ . Thus we see that A is finite with |A| = n if and only if A is of the form  $A = \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}\}$  with the elements  $a_k$  all distinct. Similarly, a set A is countable if and only if A is of the form  $A = \{a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots\}$  with the elements  $a_k$  all distinct.

**Note 1.2** For  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , if A is a finite set with |A| = n + 1 and  $a \in |A \setminus \{a\}| = n$ . Indeed, if  $A = \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n\}$  with the elements  $a_i$  distinct, and if  $a = a_k$  so that we have  $A \setminus \{a\} = \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{k-1}, a_{k+1}, \dots, a_n\}$ , then we can define a bijection  $f : S_n \to A \setminus \{a\}$  by  $f(i) = a_i$  for  $0 \le i < k$  and  $f(i) = a_{i+1}$  for  $k \le i < n$ .

# **Theorem 1.5** Let A be a set. Then the following are equivalent:

- (1) A is infinite
- (2) A contains a countable subset
- $(3) |\mathbb{N}| \leq |A|$
- (4) There exists a map  $f: A \to A$  which is injective but not surjective

#### Proof.

- (1)  $\Longrightarrow$  (2) Suppose A is infinite. Since  $A \neq \emptyset$  we can choose an element  $a_0 \in A$ . Since  $A \neq \{a_0\}$  we can choose an element  $a_1 \in A \setminus \{a_0\}$ . Since  $A \neq \{a_0, a_1\}$  we can choose  $a_3 \in A \setminus \{a_0, a_1\}$ . Continue this procedure: having chosen distinct elements  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1} \in A$ , since  $A \neq \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}\}$  we can choose  $a_n \in A \setminus \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}\}$ . In this way we obtain  $\{a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots\} \subseteq A$ .
- (2)  $\iff$  (3) Suppose that A contains a countable subset, say  $\{a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots\} \subseteq A$  with the element  $a_i$  distinct. Since  $a_i$  are distinct, the map  $f: \mathbb{N} \to A$  given by  $f(k) = a_k$  is injective, and so we have  $|\mathbb{N}| \leq |A|$ . Conversely as a map from  $\mathbb{N} \to f(\mathbb{N})$  where f is bijective, so we have  $|\mathbb{N}| = |f(\mathbb{N})|$  hence  $f(\mathbb{N})$  is a countable subset of A.
- (2)  $\Longrightarrow$  (4) Suppose that A has a countable subset, say  $\{a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots\} \subseteq A$  with the element  $a_i$  distinct. Define  $f: A \to A$  by  $f(a_k) = a_{k+1}$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and by f(b) = b for all  $b \in A \setminus \{a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots\}$ . Then f is injective but not surjective (the element  $a_0$  is not in the range of f).
- (4)  $\Longrightarrow$  (1) To prove this we shall prove that if A is finite then every injective map  $f: A \to A$  is surjective. We prove this by induction on the cardinality of A.

The only set A with |A| = 0 is the set  $A \neq \emptyset$ , and then the only function  $f: A \to A$  is the empty function, which is surjective.

Since that base case may appear too trivial, let us consider the next case. Let n = 1 and let A be a set with |A| = 1, say  $A = \{a\}$ . The only function  $f: A \to A$  is the function given by f(a) = a, which is surjective.

Let  $n \geq 1$  and suppose, inductively, that for every set A with |A| = n, every injective

map  $f:A\to A$  is surjective. Let B be a set with |B|=n+1 and let  $g:B\to B$  be injective.

Suppose, for a contradiction, that g is not surjective. Choose an element  $b \in B$  which is not in the range of g so that we have  $g: B \to B \setminus \{b\}$ . Let  $A = B \setminus \{b\}$  and let  $f: A \to A$  be given by f(x) = g(x) for all  $x \in A$ . Since  $g: B \to A$  is injective and f(x) = g(x) for all  $x \in A$ , f is also injective. Again since g is injective, there is no element  $x \in B \setminus \{b\}$  with g(x) = g(b), so there is no element  $x \in A$  with f(x) = g(b), and so f is not surjective. Since |A| = n, this contradicts the induction hypothesis. Thus g must be surjective.

By the Principle of Induction, for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and for every set A with |A| = n, every injective function  $f: A \to A$  is surjective.

# Corollary 1.6

Let A and B be sets.

- (1) If A is countable then A is infinite
- (2) When  $|A| \leq |B|$ , if B is finite so is A (equivalently if A is infinite then so is B)
- (3) If |A| = n and |B| = m then |A| = |B| if and only if n = m
- (4) If |A| = n and |B| = m then  $|A| \le |B|$  if and only if  $n \le m$
- (5) When one of the two sets A and B is finite, if  $|A| \leq |B|$  and  $|B| \leq |A|$  then |A| = |B|

Proof.

- (1) If A is countable then A contains a countable subset (itself), so A is infinite by Theorem 1.5.
- (2) Suppose that  $|A| \leq |B|$  and that |A| is infinite. Since A is infinite, we have  $|\mathbb{N}| \leq |A|$  (by Theorem 1.5). Since  $|\mathbb{N}| \leq |A|$  and  $|A| \leq |B|$  we have  $|\mathbb{N}| \leq |B|$  (by Theorem 1.4). Since  $|\mathbb{N}| \leq |B|$ , B is infinite (by Theorem 1.5).
- (3) Suppose that |A| = n and |B| = m. If n = m then we have  $S_n = S_m$  and so  $|A| = |S_n| = |S_m| = |B|$ . Conversely, suppose that |A| = |B|. Suppose, for a contradiction, that  $n \neq m$ , say n > m, and note that  $S_m \subsetneq S_n$ . Since |A| = |B| we have  $|S_n| = |A| = |B| = |S_m|$  so we must have n = m.
- (4) Suppose |A| = n and |B| = m. If  $n \le m$  then  $S_n \subseteq S_m$  so the inclusion map  $I: S_n \to S_m$  is injective and we have  $|A| = |S_n| \le |S_m| = |B|$ . Conversely, suppose that  $|A| \le |B|$  and suppose, for a contradiction, that n > m. Since  $|A| \le |B|$  we have  $|S_n| = |A| \le |B| = |S_m|$  so we can choose an injective map  $f: S_n \to S_m$ . Since n > m we have  $S_m \subseteq S_n$  so we can consider f as a map  $f: S_n \to S_m$ , and this map is injective but not surjective. This contradicts Theorem 1.5, and so  $n \le m$ .
- (5) Suppose that one of the two sets A and B is finite, and that  $|A| \leq |B|$  and  $|B| \leq |A|$ . If A is finite then, since  $|B| \leq |A|$ , (2) implies that B is finite. If B is finite then, since  $|A| \leq |B|$ , (2) implies that A is finite. Thus, in either case, we see that A and B are both finite. Since A and B are both finite with  $|A| \leq |B|$  and  $|B| \leq |A|$ , we must have |A| = |B| by (3) and (4).

**Theorem 1.7** Let A be a set. Then  $|A| \leq |\mathbb{N}| \iff A$  is finite or countable.

*Proof.* First we claim that every subset of  $\mathbb{N}$  is either finite or countable. Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  and suppose that A is not finite.

Since  $A \neq \emptyset$ , we can set  $a_0 = \min\{A\}$  (using the Well-Ordering Property of N). Note that

 $\{0, 10, \cdots, a_0\} \cap A = \{a_0\}.$ 

Since  $A \neq \{a_0\}$  (so the set  $A \setminus \{a_0\}$  is nonempty), we can set  $a_1 = \min\{A \setminus \{a_0\}\}$ . Then we have  $a_0 < a_1$  and  $\{0, 1, \dots, a_1\} \cap A = \{a_0, a_1\}$ .

Since  $A \neq \{a_0, a_1\}$  we can set  $a_2 = \min\{A \setminus \{a_0, a_1\}\}$ . Then we have  $a_0 < a_1 < a_2$  and  $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, a_3\} \cap A = \{a_0, a_1, a_2\}$ 

We continue the procedure: having chosen  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1} \in A$  with  $a_0 < a_1 < \dots < a_{n-1}$  such that  $\{0, 1, \dots, a_{n-1}\} \cap A = \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}\}$ . Since  $A \neq \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}\}$ , we can set  $a_n = \min\{A \setminus \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}\}\}$  and then we have  $a_0 < a_1 < \dots < a_{n-1} < a_n$  and  $\{0, 1, \dots, a_n\} \cap A = \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ .

In this way, we obtain a countable set  $\{a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots\} \subseteq A$  with  $a_0 < a_1 < a_2 < \dots$  with the property that for all  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, a_m\} \cap A = \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_m\}$ .

Since  $0 \le a_0 < a_1 < a_2 < \cdots$ , it follows (by induction) that  $a_k \ge k$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . It follows in turn that  $A \subseteq \{a_0, a_1, a_2, \cdots\}$  because given  $m \in A$ , since  $m \le a_m$  we have

$$m \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, m\} \cap A \subseteq \{0, 1, 2, \dots, a_m\} \cap A = \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_m\}.$$

Thus  $A = \{a_0, a_1, a - 2, \dots\}$  and the elements  $a_i$  are distinct, so A is countable. This proves our claim that every subset of  $\mathbb{N}$  is either finite or countable.

Suppose that  $|A| \leq |\mathbb{N}|$  and choose an injective map  $f: A \to \mathbb{N}$ . Since f is injective, when we consider it as a map  $f: A \to f(A)$ , it is bijective, and so |A| = |f(A)|. Since  $f(A) \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ , the previous paragraph shows that f(A) is either finite or countable. If f(A) is finite with |f(A)| = n then  $|A| = |f(A)| = |S_n|$ , and if f(A) is countable then we have  $|A| = |f(A)| = |\mathbb{N}|$ . Thus A is finite or countable.

# **Theorem 1.8** Let A be a set. Then

- (1)  $|A| < |\mathbb{N}| \iff A \text{ is finite}$
- (2)  $|\mathbb{N}| < |A| \iff A$  is neither finite nor countable
- (3) if  $|A| \leq |\mathbb{N}|$  and  $|\mathbb{N}| \leq |A|$  then  $|A| = |\mathbb{N}|$

#### Proof.

(1) By Theorem 1.5

$$|A| < |\mathbb{N}| \iff (|A| \le |\mathbb{N}| \text{ and } |A| \ne |\mathbb{N}|)$$
  
 $\iff (A \text{ if finite or countable and } A \text{ is not countable})$   
 $\iff A \text{ is finite}$ 

(2) By Theorem 1.7

$$|\mathbb{N}| < |A| \iff (|\mathbb{N}| \le |A| \text{ and } |\mathbb{N}| \ne |A|)$$
  
  $\iff (A \text{ is not finite and } A \text{ is not countable})$ 

(3) Suppose that  $|A| \leq |\mathbb{N}|$  and  $|\mathbb{N}| \leq |A|$ . Since  $|A| \leq |\mathbb{N}|$ , we know that A is finite or countable by Theorem 1.7. Since  $|N| \leq |A|$ , we know that A is infinite by Theorem 1.5. Since A is finite or countable and A is not finite, it follows that A is countable. Thus  $|A| = |\mathbb{N}|$ 

# Definition 1.8 — at most countable, uncountable.

Let A be a set. When A is countable we write  $|A| = \aleph_0$ . When A is finite we write  $|A| < \aleph_0$ . When A is infinite we write  $|A| \ge \aleph_0$ . When A is either finite or countable we write  $|A| \le \aleph_0$  and we say that A is **at most countable**. When A is neither finite nor

countable we write  $|A| > \aleph_0$  and we say that A is **uncountable**.

# Theorem 1.9

- (1) If A and B are countable sets, then so is  $A \times B$
- (2) If A and B are countable sets, then so is  $A \cup B$
- (3) If  $A_0, A_1, A_2, \cdots$  are countable sets, then so is  $\bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k$
- (4)  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable

#### Proof.

- (1) Let  $A = \{a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots\}$  with the  $a_i$  distinct and let  $B = \{b_0, b_1, b_2, \dots\}$  with  $b_i$  distinct. Since every positive integer can be written uniquely in the form  $2^k(2l+1)$  with  $k, l \in \mathbb{N}$ , the map  $f : A \times B \to \mathbb{N}$  given by  $f(a_k, b_l) = 2^k(2l+1) 1$  is bijective, and so  $|A \times B| = |\mathbb{N}|$
- (2) Similar to (1), since the map  $g: \mathbb{N} \to A \cup B$  given by  $g(k) = a_k$  is injective, we have  $|\mathbb{N}| \leq |A \cup B|$ . Since the map  $h: \mathbb{N} \to A \cup B$  given by  $h(2k) = a_k$  and  $h(2k+1) = b_k$  is surjective, we have  $|A \cup B| \leq |\mathbb{N}|$ . Since  $|\mathbb{N}| \leq |A \cup B|$  and  $|A \cup B| \leq |\mathbb{N}|$ , we have  $|A \cup B| = |\mathbb{N}|$  by Theorem 1.8
- (3) For each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $A_k = \{a_{k0}, a_{k1}, a_{k2}, \cdots\}$  with the  $a_{ki}$  distinct. Since the map  $f: \mathbb{N} \to \bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k$  given by  $f(k) = a_{0,k}$  is injective,  $|\mathbb{N}| \le \left|\bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k\right|$ . Since  $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$  is countable by (1), and since the map  $g: \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \to \bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k$  given by  $g(k, l) = a_{k, l}$  is surjective, we have  $\left|\bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k\right| \le |\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}| = |\mathbb{N}|$ . By Theorem 1.8, we have  $\left|\bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k\right| = |\mathbb{N}|$ .
- (4) Since the map  $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Q}$  given by f(k) = k is injective, we have  $|\mathbb{N}| \le |\mathbb{Q}|$ . Since the map  $g: \mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$  given by  $g(\frac{a}{b}) = (a, b)$  for all  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  with b > 0 and  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ , is injective, and since  $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$  is countable, we have  $|\mathbb{Q}| \le |\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}| = |\mathbb{N}|$ . Since  $|\mathbb{N}| \le |\mathbb{Q}|$  and  $|\mathbb{Q}| \le |\mathbb{N}|$ , we have  $|\mathbb{Q}| = |\mathbb{N}|$

**Exercise 1.1** Let A be a countable set. Show that the set of finite sequences with terms in A is countable. Show that the set of all finite subsets of A is countable.

# Definition 1.9 — power set.

For a set A, let  $\mathcal{P}(A)$  denote the **power set** of A, that is the set of all subsets of A, and let  $2^A$  denote the set of all functions from A to  $S_2 = \{0, 1\}$ 

#### Theorem 1.10

- (1) For every set A,  $\mathcal{P}(A) = |2^A|$
- (2) For every set A,  $|A| < \mathcal{P}(A)$
- (3)  $\mathbb{R}$  is uncountable

# Proof.

(1) Let A be any set. Define a map  $g: \mathcal{P}(A) \to 2^A$  as follows: given  $S \in \mathcal{P}(A)$ , that is given  $S \subseteq A$ , we define  $g(S) \in 2^A$  to be the map  $g(S): A \to \{0,1\}$  given by

$$g(S)(a) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \in S, \\ 0 & \text{if } a \notin S. \end{cases}$$

Define map  $h: 2^A \to \mathcal{P}(A)$  as follows: given  $f \in 2^A$ , that is given a map:  $f: A \to \{0,1\}$ , we define  $h(f) \in (A)$  to be the subset

$$h(f) = \{a \in A | f(a) = 1\} \subseteq A$$

This maps g and h are the inverses of each other because for every  $S \subseteq A$  and every  $f: A \to \{0,1\}$  we have

$$f = g(S) \iff \forall a \in A, f(a) = g(S)(a) \iff \forall a \in A, f(a) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \in S, \\ 0 & \text{if } a \notin S. \end{cases}$$
$$\iff \forall a \in A, (f(a) = 1 \iff a \in S) \iff \{a \in A | f(a) = 1\} = S$$
$$\iff h(f) = S$$

(2) Let A be any set. Since the map  $f: A \to \mathcal{P}(A)$  given by  $f(a) = \{a\}$  is injective, we have  $|A| \leq |\mathcal{P}(A)|$ . We need to show that  $|A| \neq |\mathcal{P}(A)|$ . Let  $g: A \to \mathcal{P}(A)$  be any map. Let  $S = \{a \in A | a \notin g(a)\}$ . Note that S cannot be in the range of g because we could choose  $g \in A$  so that g(g) = S then, by the definition of S, we would have

$$a \in S \iff a \notin g(a) \iff a \notin S$$

which is impossible. Since S is not in the range of g, the map g is not surjective. Since g was an arbitrary map from A to  $\mathcal{P}(A)$ , it follows that there is no surjective map from A to  $\mathcal{P}(A)$ . Thus there is no bijective map from A to  $\mathcal{P}(A)$  and so we have  $|A| \neq |\mathcal{P}(A)|$ .

(3) We prove  $\mathbb{R}$  is uncountable using the fact that every real number has a unique decimal expansion which does not end with an infinite string of 9's. Define a map  $g: 2^{\mathbb{N}} \to \mathbb{R}$  as follows: given  $f \in 2^{\mathbb{N}}$ , that is given a map  $f: \mathbb{N} \to \{0,1\}$ , we define g(f) to be the real number of  $g(f) \in [0,1)$  with the decimal expansion  $g(f) = 0.f(1)f(2)f(3)\cdots$ , that is  $g(f) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f(k)10^{-k-1}$ . By the uniqueness of decimal expansions, the map g is injective, so we have  $|2^{\mathbb{N}}| \leq |\mathbb{R}|$ . Thus  $|\mathbb{N}| < |\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})| = |2^{\mathbb{N}}| \leq |\mathbb{R}|$ , and so  $\mathbb{R}$  is uncountable by Theorem 1.8.

# Theorem 1.11 — Cantor-Schroeder-Bernstein.

Let A and B be sets. Suppose that  $|A| \leq |B|$  and  $|B| \leq |A|$ . Then |A| = |B|

Proof. We sketch a proof. Choose injective functions  $f:A\to B$  and  $g:B\to A$ . Since the functions  $f:A\to f(A)$ ,  $g:B\to g(B)$  and  $f:g(B)\to f(g(B))$  are bijective, we have |A|=|f(A)| and |B|=|g(B)|=|f(g(B))|. Also note that  $f(g(B))\subseteq f(A)\subseteq B$ . Let X=f(g(B)), Y=f(A) and Z=B. Then we have  $X\subseteq Y\subseteq Z$  and we have |x|=|z| and we need to show that |Y|=|Z|. The composite  $h=f\circ g:Z\to X$  is a bijective. Define sets  $Z_n$  and  $Y_n$  for  $n\in\mathbb{N}$  recursively by

$$Z_0 = Z, Z_n = h(Z_{n-1})$$
 and  $Y_0 = Y, Y_n = h(Y_{n-1})$ 

Since  $Y_0 = Y$ ,  $Z_0 = Z$ ,  $Z_1 = h(Z_0) = h(Z) = X$  and  $X \subseteq Y \subseteq Z$ , we have

$$Z_1 \subseteq Y \subseteq Z_0$$

Also note that for  $1 \leq n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$Z_n \subseteq Y_{n-1} \subseteq Z_{n-1} \implies h(Z_n) \subseteq h(Y_{n-1}) \subseteq h(Z_{n-1}) \implies Z_{n+1} \subseteq Y_n \subseteq Z_n$$

By the Induction Principle, it follows that  $Z_n \subseteq Y_{n-1} \subseteq Z_{n-1}$  for all  $n \ge 1$ , so we have

$$Z_0 \supseteq Y_0 \supseteq Z_1 \supseteq Y_1 \supseteq Z_2 \supseteq Y_2 \supseteq \cdots$$

Let  $U_n = \frac{Z_n}{Y_n}$ ,  $U = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n$  and  $V = \frac{Z}{U}$ . Define  $H: Z \to Y$  by

$$H(x) = \begin{cases} h(x) & \text{if } x \in U \\ x & \text{if } x \in V \end{cases}$$

Verify that H is bijective.

# **Exercise 1.2** Show that $|\mathbb{R}| = |2^{\mathbb{N}}|$

Solution.  $g: 2^{\mathbb{N}} \to \mathbb{R}$  as follows: for  $f \in 2^{\mathbb{N}}$  we let g(f) be the real number  $g(f) \in [0,1)$  with decimal expansion  $g(f) = 0.f(1)f(2)\cdots$ . Then g is injective so  $|2^{\mathbb{N}}| \leq \mathbb{R}$ . Define  $h: 2^{\mathbb{N}} \to [0,1)$  as follows: for  $f \in 2^{\mathbb{N}}$  let h(f) be the real number  $h(f) \in [0,1]$  with binary expansion  $h(f) = 0.f(0)f(1)f(2)\cdots$ . Then h is surjective so we have  $|[0,1]| \leq |2^{\mathbb{N}}|$ . The map  $k: \mathbb{R} \to [0,1]$  given by  $k(x) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\pi} \tan^{-1}(x)$  is injective, so we have  $|\mathbb{R}| \leq |[0,1]|$ . Since  $|\mathbb{R}| \leq |[0,1]| \leq |2^{\mathbb{N}}|$  and  $|2^{\mathbb{N}}| \leq \mathbb{R}$ , we have  $|\mathbb{R}| = |2^{\mathbb{N}}|$  by the Cantor-Schroeder-Bernstein Theorem (1.11)