INTRODUCTORY SET THEORY

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INTRODUCTORY SET THEORY

1. SETS

Undefined terms: set and to be an element of a set

We do not define neither the *set* nor the *element* of a set, their meanings can be understood intuitively (not needing definition).

However, we say that a set is any collection of definite, distinguishable objects, and we call these objects the elements of the set.

Notations.

- (1) Sets are usually denoted by capital letters (A, B, C, ...). The elements of the set are usually denoted by small letters (a, b, c, ...).
- (2) If X is a set and x is an element of X, we write $x \in X$. (We also say that x belongs to X.)

If X is a set and y is not an element of X, we write $y \notin X$. (We also say that y does not belong to X.)

- (3) When we give a set, we generally use braces, e.g.:
 - (i) $S := \{a, b, c, \ldots\}$ where the elements are listed between braces, three dots imply that the law of formation of other elements is known,
 - (ii) $S := \{x \in X : p(x) \text{ is true}\}$ where "x" stands for a generic element of the set S and p is a property defined on the set X.

Remark.

If we want to emphasize that the elements of the set are also sets, we denote the set by script capital letter, such as:

- (i) $A := \{A, B, C, \ldots\}$ where A, B, C, \ldots are sets,
- (ii) $A := \{A_{\alpha} : \alpha \in \Gamma\}$ where Γ is the so called *indexing set* and A_{α} 's are sets.

Examples.

- 1. $\mathbb{N} := \{0, 1, 2, 3, \ldots\}$ the set of all natural numbers, $\mathbb{N}^+ := \{n \in \mathbb{N} : n > 0\},$
- 2. $\mathbb{Z} := \{0, -1, +1, -2, +2, \ldots\}$ the set of all integers,
- 3. $\mathbb{Q} := \{p/q: p \in \mathbb{Z}, q \in \mathbb{N}^+\}$ the set of all rational numbers, $\mathbb{Q}^+ := \{r \in \mathbb{Q}: r > 0\},$
- 4. \mathbb{R} := the set of all real numbers, \mathbb{R}^+ := $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x > 0\}$,
- 5. \mathbb{C} := the set of all complex numbers.

Definitions.

(1) **Equal sets:**

We define A = B if A and B have the same elements.

(2) **Subset:**

We say that A is a *subset* of B and we write $A \subset B$ or $B \supset A$ if every element of A is also an element of B. (We also say that A is included in B or B includes A or B is a *superset* of A.)

(3) Proper subset:

We say that A is a proper subset of B and we write $A \subset B$ strictly if $A \subset B$ and $A \neq B$. (There exists at least one element $b \in B$ such that $b \notin A$.)

(4) The empty set:

The set which has no element is called the *empty set* and is denoted by \emptyset . (That is $\emptyset = \{x \in A : x \notin A\}$, where A is any set.)

(5) Power set of a set:

Let X be any set. The set of all subsets of X is called the *power set* of X and is denoted by $\mathcal{P}(X)$. (That is we define $\mathcal{P}(X) := \{A : A \subset X\}$)

Remarks.

Let A and B be any sets. Then the following propositions can be proved easily:

- (1) A = B if and only if $A \subset B$ and $B \subset A$,
- (2) $A \subset A$ and $\emptyset \subset A$,
- (3) $A \in \mathcal{P}(A)$ and $\emptyset \in \mathcal{P}(A)$,
- (4) $\mathcal{P}(\emptyset) = \{\emptyset\}$. ($\mathcal{P}(\emptyset)$ is not empty, it has exactly one element, the \emptyset .)

OPERATIONS BETWEEN SETS

Let H be a set including all sets A, B, C, \ldots which occur in the following. Let us call H the *basic set*.

Union of sets: (denoted by \cup , called "union" or "cup")

- (1) The union of sets A and B is defined by $A \cup B := \{x \in H : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}.$
- (2) The *union* of a set \mathcal{A} of sets is defined by $\bigcup \mathcal{A} := \{x \in H : \exists A \in \mathcal{A} \ x \in A\}.$ (x belongs to at least one element of \mathcal{A})

Intersection of sets: (denoted by \cap , called "intersection" or "cap")

- (1) The intersection of sets A and B is defined by $A \cap B := \{x \in H : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}.$
- (2) The intersection of a set $A \neq \emptyset$ is defined by $\bigcap A := \{x \in H : \forall A \in A \mid x \in A\}$. (x belongs to all elements of A)

Definition. (Disjoint sets.)

A and B are called disjoint sets if $A \cap B = \emptyset$ (they have no elements in common).

Difference of sets: (denoted by \setminus)

- (1) The difference of sets A and B is defined by $A \setminus B := \{x \in H : x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}$. (We also say that $A \setminus B$ is the complement of B with respect to A.)
- (2) $H \setminus B$ is called the *complement of* B and is denoted by B^c , that is $B^c := \{x \in H : x \notin B\}$.

The following theorems can be proved easily.

Theorem. (Commutativity, associativity, distributivity)

- (1) The union and the intersection are commutative and associative operations:
 - (i) $A \cup B = B \cup A$, $(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C)$,
 - (ii) $A \cap B = B \cap A$, $(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C)$.
- (2) The union is distributive with respect to the intersection and the intersection is distributive with respect to the union:
 - (i) $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$,
 - (ii) $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

Theorem. (De Morgan's laws)

- $(1) \quad C \setminus (A \cup B) = (C \setminus A) \cap (C \setminus B), \qquad C \setminus (A \cap B) = (C \setminus A) \cup (C \setminus B),$
- $(2) \quad C \setminus (\bigcup \mathcal{A}) = \bigcap \{C \setminus A : A \in \mathcal{A}\}, \qquad C \setminus (\bigcap \mathcal{A}) = \bigcup \{C \setminus A : A \in \mathcal{A}\}.$

Definitions. (Ordered pairs, Cartesian product of sets.)

Ordered pairs:

Let x and y be any objects (e.g. any elements of the basic set H).

The ordered pair (x, y) is defined by $(x, y) := \{ \{x\}, \{x, y\} \}.$

We call x and y the first and the second components of the ordered pair (x, y), respectively. In case x = y we have $(x, x) = \{ \{x\} \}$.

Cartesian product of sets:

Let A and B be sets. The Cartesian product of A and B is defined by $A \times B := \{(a,b): a \in A \text{ and } b \in B\}$, i.e. the Cartesian product $A \times B$ is the set of all ordered pairs (a,b) with $a \in A, b \in B$.

Remarks.

- (1) (x,y)=(u,v) if and only if x=u and y=v.
- (2) More generally, we can define the *ordered n-tuples* $(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ and the *Cartesian product* $A_1 \times A_2 \times ... \times A_n$ $(n \in \mathbb{N}^+, n > 2)$ in a similar way.
- (3) For $A \times A$ we often write A^2 , and similarly, A^n stands for $\underbrace{A \times A \times \ldots \times A}$.

EXERCISES 1.

- 1. Prove that $A \cup B = B$ if and only if $A \subset B$.
- 2. Prove that $A \cap B = B$ if and only if $B \subset A$.
- 3. Prove that $A \cup (A \cap B) = A$ and $A \cap (A \cup B) = A$.
- 4. Prove that $A \setminus B = A \cap B^c$.
- 5. Let $\mathcal{A} := \{A_{\alpha} : \alpha \in \Gamma\}$. Prove that for all $\alpha \in \Gamma$ $\bigcap \mathcal{A} \subset A_{\alpha} \subset \bigcup \mathcal{A}$, that is for all $\alpha \in \Gamma$ $\bigcap \{A_{\beta} : \beta \in \Gamma\} \subset A_{\alpha} \subset \bigcup \{A_{\beta} : \beta \in \Gamma\}.$
- 6. Let H be the basic set (which includes all the sets A, B, C, \ldots that we consider).

$$A \cup A = ?$$
 $A \cup H = ?$ $A \cup \emptyset = ?$

$$A \cap A = ?$$
 $A \cap H = ?$ $A \cap \emptyset = ?$

$$A \setminus A = ?$$
 $A \setminus H = ?$ $A \setminus \emptyset = ?$ $(A^c)^c = ?$ $\emptyset^c = ?$ $H^c = ?$

- 7. Prove the following statements:
 - (i) $(\bigcup A) \setminus C = \bigcup \{A \setminus C : A \in A\},$
 - (ii) $(\bigcap A) \setminus C = \bigcap \{A \setminus C : A \in A\}.$
- 8. Prove the following statements:
 - $\mathcal{P}(A \cap B) = \mathcal{P}(A) \cap \mathcal{P}(B),$ (i)
 - (strictly, if $A \not\subset B$ or $B \not\subset A$), $\mathcal{P}(A \cup B) \supset \mathcal{P}(A) \cup \mathcal{P}(B)$ (ii)
 - (iii) $\mathcal{P}(A \setminus B) \setminus \{\emptyset\} \subset \mathcal{P}(A) \setminus \mathcal{P}(B)$ (strictly, if $A \not\subset B$).
- 9. Let $H := \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, A := \{1, 2\}, B := \{1, 3, 5\}.$

$$A \cup B = ?$$
 $A \cap B = ?$ $A \setminus B = ?$ $B \setminus A = ?$ $A^c = ?$ $B^c = ?$ $A \times B = ?$ $B \times A = ?$ $\mathcal{P}(A) = ?$

- 10. Let A_1, A_2 be any sets. Find disjoint sets B_1, B_2 such that $A_1 \cup A_2 = B_1 \cup B_2$.
- 11. Prove that $A \times (B \cap C) = (A \times B) \cap (A \times C)$ for any sets A, B, C.
- 12. Determine which of the following sets are empty:

$$A_1 := \{ n \in \mathbb{Z} : \quad n^2 = 2 \},$$

$$A_2 := \{ x \in \mathbb{R} : x^3 - 2x^2 + x - 2 = 0 \},$$

$$A_1 := \{ n \in \mathbb{Z} : n^2 = 2 \},$$

$$A_2 := \{ x \in \mathbb{R} : x^3 - 2x^2 + x - 2 = 0 \},$$

$$A_3 := \{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + xy + y^2 < 0 \}.$$

2. LOGIC

Basic ideas of logic: proposition and logical values

Proposition:

We define a proposition to be a statement which is either true or false.

When we deal with propositions in logic we consider sentences without being interested in their meanings, only examining them as true or false statements.

In the following, propositions will be denoted by small letters (p, q, r, \dots) .

Logical values:

There are two logical values: true and false, denoted by T and F, respectively.

Examples.

- 1. p := for each real number x, x^2+1 is positive . The logical value of the proposition p is true.
- 2. $q := \text{if } x = 2 \text{ then } x^2 1 = 0.$ The logical value of the proposition q is false.

OPERATIONS BETWEEN PROPOSITIONS

Negation: (denoted by \neg , called "not")

The negation of a proposition p is defined by

$$\neg p := \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} true & \text{ if } p \text{ is } false \\ false & \text{ if } p \text{ is } true \ . \end{array} \right.$$

Conjunction: (denoted by \land , called "and")

The conjunction of propositions p and q is defined by

$$p \wedge q := \left\{ egin{array}{ll} \textit{true} & \text{if} \ p \ \text{and} \ q \ \text{are both} \ \textit{true} \\ \textit{false} & \text{if} \ \text{at least one of} \ p \ \text{and} \ q \ \text{is} \ \textit{false} \ . \end{array} \right.$$

Disjunction: (denoted by \vee , called "or")

The disjunction of propositions p and q is defined by

$$p \lor q := \left\{ egin{array}{ll} true & ext{if at least one of p and q is $true$} \\ false & ext{if p and q are both $false$} \end{array}
ight.$$

Implication: (denoted by \Rightarrow , read "implies")

The implication between propositions p and q is defined by

$$p \Rightarrow q := \left\{ egin{array}{ll} true & ext{if} \ p ext{ and } q ext{ are both } true, ext{ or } p ext{ is } false \ false \end{array}
ight.$$

Equivalence: (denoted by \Leftrightarrow , read "is equivalent to")

The equivalence between propositions p and q is defined by

$$p \Leftrightarrow q := \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \textit{true} & \quad \text{if} \;\; p \; \text{and} \; q \; \text{have the same logical value} \\ \textit{false} & \quad \text{if} \;\; p \; \text{and} \; q \; \text{have different logical values} \; . \end{array} \right.$$

Remarks.

(1) For $p \Rightarrow q$ we can also say that

if
$$p$$
 then q ,

$$p$$
 only if q ,

$$p$$
 is a sufficient condition for q ,

- q is a necessary condition for p.
- (2) For $p \Leftrightarrow q$ we can also say that

$$p$$
 if and only if q , (p) iff q),

- p is a necessary and sufficient condition for q.
- (3) The following *truth tables* can be useful to resume the definitions of the logical operations:

| p | $\neg p$ |
|---|----------|
| Т | F |
| F | Т |

| p | q | $p \wedge q$ | $p \lor q$ | $p \Rightarrow q$ | $p \Leftrightarrow q$ |
|---|---|--------------|------------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| Т | Т | Т | Т | Т | Т |
| Т | F | F | Т | F | F |
| F | Т | F | Т | Т | F |
| F | F | F | F | Т | Т |

- (4) The following propositions can be proved easily:
 - (i) $p \Leftrightarrow q$ is equivalent to $(p \Rightarrow q) \land (q \Rightarrow p)$, that is, for all values of p and q $p \Leftrightarrow q = (p \Rightarrow q) \land (q \Rightarrow p)$,
 - (ii) $p \Rightarrow q = (\neg p) \lor q$ for all values of p and q.
- (5) A proposition which is always *true* is called *tautology*, and a proposition which is always *false* is called *contradiction*.

According to (4) we have

$$\text{(i)}\quad \left(p \Leftrightarrow q\right) \Leftrightarrow \left(\left(p \Rightarrow q\right) \wedge \left(q \Rightarrow p\right)\right) \equiv \mathsf{T}, \qquad \text{(ii)}\quad \left(p \Rightarrow q\right) \Leftrightarrow \left(\left(\neg p\right) \vee q\right) \equiv \mathsf{T},$$

i.e.,
$$(p \Leftrightarrow q) \Leftrightarrow ((p \Rightarrow q) \land (q \Rightarrow p))$$
 and $(p \Rightarrow q) \Leftrightarrow ((\neg p) \lor q)$ are tautologies;

 $p \vee (\neg p)$ is also a tautology, while $p \wedge (\neg p)$ is a contradiction.

Universal and existential quantifiers:

Let S be a set and for all elements s of S let p(s) be a proposition. We define the propositions $\forall s \in S \ p(s)$ and $\exists s \in S \ p(s)$ such as

- $(\mathrm{i}) \quad \forall s \in S \ \ p(s) := \ \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \mathit{true} & \quad \mathrm{if} \ p(s) \ \mathrm{is} \ \mathit{true} \ \mathrm{for \ all} \ s \in S \\ \mathit{false} & \quad \mathrm{if} \ \mathrm{there} \ \mathrm{exists} \ \mathrm{at \ least \ one} \ s \in S \ \mathrm{such \ that} \ p(s) \ \mathrm{is} \ \mathit{false} \ , \end{array} \right.$
- (ii) $\exists s \in S \ p(s) := \begin{cases} true & \text{if there exists at least one } s \in S \text{ such that } p(s) \text{ is } true \\ false & \text{if } p(s) \text{ is } false \text{ for all } s \in S \end{cases}$

The symbol \forall is read "for all" and is called the **universal quantifier**, the symbol \exists is read "there exists" and is called the **existential quantifier**.

Negation of propositions.

It is of crucial importance that we can negate propositions correctly. In the following we show *how to negate propositions* in accordance with the definitions of the logical operations and the universal and existential quantifiers.

- (1) When the quantifiers do not occur in the proposition, we have
 - (i) $\neg (p \land q) \equiv (\neg p) \lor (\neg q)$,
 - (ii) $\neg (p \lor q) \equiv (\neg p) \land (\neg q)$,
 - (iii) $\neg (p \Rightarrow q) \equiv \neg ((\neg p) \lor q) \equiv (\neg (\neg p)) \land (\neg q) \equiv p \land (\neg q)$,
 - (iv) $\neg(p \Leftrightarrow q) \equiv \neg((p \Rightarrow q) \land (q \Rightarrow p)) \equiv (\neg(p \Rightarrow q)) \lor (\neg(q \Rightarrow p)) \equiv (p \land (\neg q)) \lor (q \land (\neg p)) \equiv (p \lor q) \land ((\neg p) \lor (\neg q))$.
- (2) When quantifiers occur in the proposition, we have
 - (i) $\neg (\forall s \in S \ p(s)) \equiv \exists s \in S \ \neg p(s)$,
 - (ii) $\neg (\exists s \in S \ p(s)) \equiv \forall s \in S \ \neg p(s)$.

As a general rule, we have to $change \ \forall into \ \exists and \ change \ \exists into \ \forall$, and finally $negate \ the \ proposition$ which follows the quantifier.

Methods of proofs.

There are two main methods to prove theorems:

- (1) direct methods: Since $(p \Rightarrow r) \land (r \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow (p \Rightarrow q) \equiv T$, we can prove $p \Rightarrow q$ by proving $p \Rightarrow r$ and $r \Rightarrow q$, where r is any other proposition.
- (2) indirect methods:
 - (i) Since $(p \Rightarrow q) \equiv ((\neg p) \lor q) \equiv ((\neg q) \Rightarrow (\neg p))$, we can prove $p \Rightarrow q$ by proving its *contrapositive*, $(\neg q) \Rightarrow (\neg p)$ (*contrapositive proof*).
 - (ii) If r is any false proposition, then $(p \land (\neg q)) \Rightarrow r \equiv p \Rightarrow q$, thus we can prove $p \Rightarrow q$ by proving $(p \land (\neg q)) \Rightarrow r$ (**proof by contradiction**).

EXERCISES 2.

1. Prove that for all values of p, q, r the following statements are true.

$$p \wedge q = q \wedge p \qquad (p \wedge q) \wedge r = p \wedge (q \wedge r)$$

$$p \vee q = q \vee p \qquad (p \vee q) \vee r = p \vee (q \vee r)$$

$$p \wedge (q \vee r) = (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$$

$$p \vee (q \wedge r) = (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$$

2. Answer the questions for any values of p.

$$\begin{array}{lll} p \wedge p = ? & p \wedge \mathsf{T} = ? & p \wedge \mathsf{F} = ? \\ p \vee p = ? & p \vee \mathsf{T} = ? & p \vee \mathsf{F} = ? \\ p \Rightarrow p = ? & p \Rightarrow \mathsf{T} = ? & p \Rightarrow \mathsf{F} = ? \\ p \Leftrightarrow p = ? & p \Leftrightarrow \mathsf{T} = ? & p \Leftrightarrow \mathsf{F} = ? \end{array}$$

3. Determine which of the following propositions are true:

(a)
$$n \in \mathbb{Z} \implies n^2 > 1$$

(b)
$$\exists x \in \mathbb{R} \quad x^3 - 2x^2 + x - 2 = 0$$

(a)
$$n \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow n^2 > 1$$

(b) $\exists x \in \mathbb{R} \quad x^3 - 2x^2 + x - 2 = 0$
(c) $\forall (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \quad x^2 + xy + y^2 < 0$

Negate the following propositions, then determine which of them are true.

(a)
$$\forall p \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \exists K \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \forall x \in (K, +\infty) \quad x^2 - px + 1 > 0$$

(b)
$$\forall p \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \exists K \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \forall x \in (K, +\infty) \quad x \cdot \sin \frac{p}{x} > 0$$

(c) $\forall p \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \exists K \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \forall x \in (K, +\infty) \quad \cos \frac{p}{x} > 0$

(c)
$$\forall p \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \exists K \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \forall x \in (K, +\infty) \quad \cos \frac{p}{x} > 0$$

(d)
$$\forall p \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \exists K \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \forall x \in (K, +\infty) \quad p < \log_2 x$$

(e)
$$\forall p \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \exists K \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \forall x \in (K, +\infty) \quad x^{-p} < 10^{-6}$$

(f)
$$\forall p \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \exists K \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \forall x \in (K, +\infty) \quad (p+1)^{-x} < 10^{-6}$$

(f)
$$\forall p \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \exists K \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \forall x \in (K, +\infty) \quad (p+1)^{-x} < 10^{-6}$$

(g) $\forall \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \exists x \in (0, \pi/4] \quad \sin x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\varepsilon + 1/\varepsilon}}$

(h)
$$\exists \delta \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \forall x \in (0, \delta] \quad \exists \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \sin x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\varepsilon + 1/\varepsilon}}$$

5. Prove that
$$((p \Rightarrow r) \land (r \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow (p \Rightarrow q) \equiv \mathsf{T}.$$

6. Prove that $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}^+ \ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}^+ \ \sqrt[n]{k}$ is an integer or an irrational number.

7. Prove that
$$((n \in \mathbb{N}^+) \land (n^2 \text{ is odd})) \Rightarrow (n \text{ is odd}).$$

3. RELATIONS

Definition. (Relations.)

Any subset of a Cartesian product of sets is called a *relation*. (I.e., a *relation* is a set of ordered pairs.)

If X and Y are sets and $\rho \subset X \times Y$, we say that ρ is a relation from X to Y. (We can also say that ρ is a relation between the elements of X and Y.)

If $\rho \subset X \times X$, we say that ρ is a relation in X.

If $(x, y) \in \rho$, we often write $x \rho y$.

Examples.

1. The relation of equality in a nonempty set X.

$$\rho_1 := \{ (x, x) : x \in X \},$$
thus $(x, y) \in \rho_1 \subset X \times X$ iff $x = y$.

2. The relation of divisibility in \mathbb{N}^+ .

$$\rho_2 := \{ (m, n) \in \mathbb{N}^+ \times \mathbb{N}^+ : \exists k \in \mathbb{N}^+ \quad n = k \cdot m \},$$
thus $(m, n) \in \rho_2 \subset \mathbb{N}^+ \times \mathbb{N}^+ \quad \text{iff} \quad m \mid n,$

that is n can be divided by m without remainder (n is divisible by m).

3. The relation of congruence modulo m in \mathbb{Z} .

$$\rho_3 := \{ (a,b) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} : \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \quad a-b = k \cdot m \}, \quad (m \in \mathbb{N}^+),$$

thus $(a,b) \in \rho_3 \subset \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ iff $m \mid a-b$,

that is (a-b) can be divided by m without remainder;

(a-b) is divisible by m; dividing a and b by m we get the same remainder.

4. The relation of "less" in \mathbb{R} .

$$\rho_4 := \{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} : x < y \},\$$

thus $(x,y) \in \rho_4 \subset \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ iff y-x is a positive number.

5. The relation of "greater or equal" in \mathbb{R} .

$$\rho_5 := \{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} : x \ge y \},\$$

thus $(x,y) \in \rho_5 \subset \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ iff x-y is a nonnegative number.

6. Relation between the elements of the set T of all triangles of the plane and the elements of the set \mathbb{R}_0^+ of all nonnegative numbers,

$$\rho_6 := \{ (t, a) \in T \times \mathbb{R}_0^+ : \text{ the area of the triangle } t \text{ is } a \}.$$

7. Relation between the elements of the set \mathbb{R}_0^+ of all nonnegative numbers and the elements of the set T of all triangles of the plane,

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\rho_7 := \{ (a,t) \in \mathbb{R}_0^+ \times T : \text{ the area of the triangle } t \text{ is } a \}.
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8. Relation between the elements of the set C of all circles of the plane and the elements of the set L of all lines of the plane,

$$\rho_8 := \{ (c, l) \in C \times L : l \text{ is a tangent of } c \}.$$

Definitions. (Domain and range of relations.) Let X and Y be sets and ρ be a relation from X to Y $(\rho \subset X \times Y)$.

(1) **Domain of the relation** ρ :

The domain of ρ is defined by $D(\rho) := \{x \in X : \exists y \in Y \ (x,y) \in \rho\}.$

(2) Range of the relation ρ :

The range of ρ is defined by $R(\rho) := \{ y \in Y : \exists x \in X \ (x,y) \in \rho \}.$

Definitions. (Properties of relations.)

Let X be a set and ρ be a relation in X $(\rho \subset X^2)$.

(1) Reflexivity:

 ρ is called reflexive if $\forall x \in X \ (x, x) \in \rho$.

(2) Irreflexivity:

 ρ is called *irreflexive* if $\forall x \in X \ (x, x) \notin \rho$.

(3) Symmetry:

 ρ is called *symmetric* if $\forall (x,y) \in \rho$ $(y,x) \in \rho$, that is $(x,y) \in \rho$ implies $(y,x) \in \rho$.

(4) Antisymmetry:

 ρ is called *antisymmetric* if $((x,y) \in \rho \text{ and } (y,x) \in \rho)$ implies x=y.

(5) Transitivity:

 ρ is called *transitive* if $((x,y) \in \rho \text{ and } (y,z) \in \rho)$ implies $(x,z) \in \rho$.

Examples. (see page 9)

- 1. Equality is a reflexive, symmetric, antisymmetric and transitive relation.
- 2. Divisibility is a reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive relation.
- 3. Congruence modulo m is a reflexive, symmetric and transitive relation.
- 4. The relation "less" is irreflexive, antisymmetric and transitive.
- 5. The relation "greater or equal" is reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive.

Definitions. (Special relations.)

Let X be a nonempty set and ρ be a relation in X ($\rho \subset X^2$).

(1) Equivalence relation:

We say that ρ is an equivalence relation if it is

- (a) reflexive, (b) symmetric,
- (c) transitive.

(2) Order relation:

We say that ρ is an order relation if it is

(a) reflexive, (b) antisymmetric, (c) transitive.

We say that the order relation ρ is a total (linear) order relation if for each $(x,y) \in X^2$ $(x,y) \in \rho$ or $(y,x) \in \rho$ is satisfied; otherwise ρ is said to be a partial order relation.

Examples. (see page 9)

- 1. Equality (both equivalence and order relation) is a partial order relation.
- 2. Divisibility is a partial order relation.
- 5. The relation "greater or equal" is a total order relation.

Definition. (Inverse relation.)

Let X and Y be sets and ρ be a relation from X to Y.

The *inverse* of ρ (denoted by ρ^{-1}) is defined by $\rho^{-1} := \{(y, x) \in Y \times X : (x, y) \in \rho\}.$

Definition. (Classifications of sets.)

Let X be a nonempty set. A set \mathcal{A} (of subsets of X) is called a classification of X if the following properties are satisfied:

- (i) $\forall A \in \mathcal{A}$ A is a nonempty subset of X,
- (ii) $(A, B \in A \text{ and } A \neq B)$ implies $A \cap B = \emptyset$,
- (iii) $\bigcup A = X$.

The elements of A are called the *classes* of the *classification*.

Definition. (Equivalence classes.)

Let X be a nonempty set and ρ be an equivalence relation in X.

For each $x \in X$ we define $A_x := \{y \in X : (x,y) \in \rho\} \in \mathcal{P}(X)$.

 A_x is called the (equivalence) class of x.

Theorem (3.1).

Let X be a nonempty set and ρ be an equivalence relation in X. Then

- (i) $\forall x \in X$ A_x is a nonempty subset of X,
- (ii) $(x, y \in X \text{ and } x \neq y)$ implies $(A_x \cap A_y = \emptyset \text{ or } A_x = A_y)$,
- (iii) $\bigcup \{ A_x : x \in X \} = X,$

that is $\{A_x : x \in X\}$ is a classification of X.

Proof.

- (i) Since ρ is reflexive we have $x \in A_x$ for all $x \in X$, hence we have (i).
- (ii) We prove (ii) by contradiction.

Let us suppose that $\exists x, y \in X, x \neq y$, such that $(A_x \cap A_y \neq \emptyset)$ and $A_x \neq A_y$. We prove that $A_x = A_y$, which is a *contradiction*.

Let z be an element of $A_x \cap A_y$. Then $(x, z) \in \rho$ and $(y, z) \in \rho$, thus $(x, y) \in \rho$ and $(y, x) \in \rho$ (by the symmetry and transitivity of ρ).

- (a) $A_x \subset A_y$ since $p \in A_x \Rightarrow (x,p) \in \rho \Rightarrow (p,x) \in \rho \text{ (and } (x,y) \in \rho) \Rightarrow (p,y) \in \rho \Rightarrow (y,p) \in \rho \Rightarrow p \in A_y$,
- (b) $A_y \subset A_x$ can be proved similarly to (a).
- (iii) If $z \in X$ then $z \in A_z$, thus $z \in \bigcup \{A_x \colon x \in X \} \subset X$, hence we have (iii).

Definition. (Classifications corresponding to equivalence relations.)

Let X be a nonempty set and ρ be an equivalence relation in X.

The set of all equivalence classes corresponding to ρ (which is a classification of X according to the theorem (3.1)) is called the **classification** of X corresponding to the relation ρ , and is denoted by X/ρ , i.e. $X/\rho := \{A_x : x \in X\}$. (We also say that X/ρ is the classification of X defined by ρ .)

Examples. (see page 9)

- 1. The classification of X corresponding to the relation of equality is the set $X/\rho_1 = \{ \{x\} \in \mathcal{P}(X) : x \in X \}.$
- 3. The classification of \mathbb{Z} corresponding to the relation of congruence modulo m is the set of all remainder classes modulo m $(m \in \mathbb{N}^+)$, that is $\mathbb{Z}/\rho_3 = \{ \{r + k \cdot m : k \in \mathbb{Z}\} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z}) : r \in \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\} \}.$

Remark.

Theorem (3.1) shows that each equivalence relation determines a classification of the set. The following theorem shows the opposite direction, that is each classification of a set determines an equivalence relation in the set.

Theorem (3.2).

Let X be a nonempty set and A be a classification of X. Then

- (i) the relation defined by $\rho := \{ (x,y) \in X \times X : \exists A \in \mathcal{A} \ x,y \in A \}$ is an equivalence relation in X,
- (ii) the classification of X corresponding to ρ is equal to \mathcal{A} , that is $X/\rho = \mathcal{A}$.

Proof.

- (i) $x \in X \Rightarrow (\exists A \in \mathcal{A} \ x \in A) \Rightarrow (x, x) \in \rho \Rightarrow \rho \text{ is } reflexive,$ $(x, y) \in \rho \Rightarrow (\exists A \in \mathcal{A} \ x, y \in A) \Rightarrow y, x \in A \Rightarrow (y, x) \in \rho \Rightarrow \rho \text{ is } symmetric,$ $(x, y) \in \rho \text{ and } (y, z) \in \rho \Rightarrow (\exists A_1 \in \mathcal{A} \ x, y \in A_1) \text{ and } (\exists A_2 \in \mathcal{A} \ y, z \in A_2)$ $\Rightarrow y \in A_1 \cap A_2 \Rightarrow A_1 = A_2 \Rightarrow x, z \in A_1 \Rightarrow (x, z) \in \rho \Rightarrow \rho \text{ is } transitive,$ thus ρ is an equivalence relation.
- (ii) We prove that $X/\rho \subset \mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{A} \subset X/\rho$.
 - (a) Let $B \in X/\rho \Rightarrow \exists b \in B \text{ and } B = \{x \in X : (b, x) \in \rho\},\ b \in X \Rightarrow \exists A \in \mathcal{A} \quad b \in A,\ x \in B \Rightarrow (b, x) \in \rho \quad (\text{and } b \in A) \Rightarrow x \in A, \Rightarrow B \subset A,\ x \in A \quad (\text{and } b \in A) \Rightarrow (b, x) \in \rho \Rightarrow x \in B, \Rightarrow A \subset B,\ \Rightarrow B = A \Rightarrow B \in \mathcal{A},$
 - (b) Let $A \in \mathcal{A} \Rightarrow \exists a \in A$, let $B := \{x \in X : (a, x) \in \rho\} \in X/\rho$, $x \in A \pmod{a \in A} \Rightarrow (a, x) \in \rho \Rightarrow x \in B, \Rightarrow A \subset B$, $x \in B \Rightarrow (a, x) \in \rho \pmod{a \in A} \Rightarrow x \in A, \Rightarrow B \subset A$, $\Rightarrow A = B \Rightarrow A \in X/\rho$.

EXERCISES 3.

- 1. Let X be a nonempty set and ρ be a relation in X. Prove the following propositions:
 - (a) if ρ is reflexive, then $D(\rho) = R(\rho) = X$ and ρ^{-1} is also reflexive,
 - (b) if ρ is irreflexive, then ρ^{-1} is also irreflexive,
 - (c) if ρ is symmetric, then $D(\rho) = R(\rho)$ and ρ^{-1} is also symmetric,
 - (d) if ρ is antisymmetric, then ρ^{-1} is also antisymmetric,
 - (e) if ρ is transitive, then ρ^{-1} is also transitive.
- 2. Which properties have the following relations?
 - (a) $\rho := \{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q} : x > y \},$
 - (b) $\rho := \{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} : x \leq y \},$
 - (c) $\rho := \{ (A, B) \in \mathcal{P}(X) \times \mathcal{P}(X) : A \subset B \}, (X \neq \emptyset),$
 - (d) $\rho := \{ ((m_1, m_2), (n_1, n_2)) \in (\mathbb{N}^+)^2 \times (\mathbb{N}^+)^2 : m_1 \mid n_1 \text{ and } m_2 \mid n_2 \}.$
- 3. Prove that the following relations are equivalence relations and determine the corresponding classifications.
 - (a) $\rho := \{ (p,q) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} : m \mid q-p \}, (m \in \mathbb{N}^+),$
 - (b) $\rho := \{ ((m_1, m_2), (n_1, n_2)) \in (\mathbb{N}^+)^2 \times (\mathbb{N}^+)^2 : m_1 + n_2 = m_2 + n_1 \},$
 - (c) $\rho := \{ ((m_1, m_2), (n_1, n_2)) \in (\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}) \times (\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}) : m_1 \cdot n_2 = m_2 \cdot n_1 \},$
 - (d) $\rho := \{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} : y x \in \mathbb{Q} \},$
 - (e) $\rho := \{ (p,q) \in \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q} : \exists n \in \mathbb{Z} \ n \le p < n+1 \text{ and } n \le q < n+1 \}.$
 - (f) $\rho := \{ (x, y) \in (\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\})^2 : x \cdot |y| = y \cdot |x| \},$
- 4. Determine the equivalence classes A_{α} determined by the following equivalence relations:
 - $\begin{array}{ll} \text{(a)} & \rho := \{\ (p,q) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} : & m \mid q-p\ \}, & (m \in \mathbb{N}^+), \\ & \alpha = 3, \end{array}$
 - (d) $\rho := \{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} : y x \in \mathbb{Q} \},$ $\alpha = \pi.$
 - (e) $\rho := \{ (p,q) \in \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q} : \exists n \in \mathbb{Z} \ n \leq p < n+1 \text{ and } n \leq q < n+1 \}, \alpha = 3, 14.$
- 5. Determine the inverse relations of the relations given in "Examples" on page 9.

4. FUNCTIONS

Definition. (Functions.)

Let X and Y be sets.

A relation $f \subset X \times Y$ is called a function from X to Y if

- (i) D(f) = X,
- (ii) $\forall x \in X$ the set $\{y \in Y : (x,y) \in f\}$ has exactly one element.

(I.e. $\forall x \in X$ there exists exactly one element $y \in Y$ such that $(x, y) \in f$.)

We also say that f is a map, mapping or transformation from X to Y.

If f is a function from X to Y, we write $f: X \to Y$.

The notations y = f(x) (traditionally said "y is a function of x") and $x \mapsto y$ mean that $(x, y) \in f$.

We call f(x) the element associated with x.

We also say that f(x) is the *image* of x under f or the value of f at x.

Remarks. (Domain, range and target of functions.)

Let X, Y be sets and $f: X \to Y$ be a function.

According to the definitions for relations, D(f) is the *domain* of the function f and $R(f) = \{ f(x) : x \in D(f) \}$ is the range of the function f.

If $X \subset Z$, we can also write $f: Z \supset Y$, which means that $D(f) \subset Z$. Y is called the *target* of the function f.

Definition. (Restrictions of functions.)

Let X, Y, A be sets, $A \subset X$, and $f: X \to Y$ be a function.

The function $g: A \to Y$, g(x) := f(x) is called the *restriction of* f *to* A, and we use the notation $f|_{A} := g$.

Definitions. (Injective, surjective, bijective functions.)

Let X, Y be sets and $f: X \to Y$ be a function.

(1) Injective function:

We say that f is injective if for all $x, z \in X$ f(x) = f(z) implies x = z, that is $x \neq z$ implies $f(x) \neq f(z)$.

(We also say that f is an injection, or a one-to-one correspondence.)

(2) Surjective function:

We say that f is *surjective* if $\forall y \in Y$ there exists $x \in X$ such that f(x) = y, that is R(f) = Y.

(We also say that f is a surjection, or f is a map onto Y.)

(3) Bijective function:

We say that f is bijective if it is both injective and surjective. (We also say that f is a bijection.)

Remark. (Equality of functions.)

Let f and g be functions. f and g are equal functions (f = g), iff (i) D(f) = D(g) =: X and (ii) $\forall x \in X$ f(x) = g(x).

Definition. (Inverse function.)

If $f: X \to Y$ is injective, then $\tilde{f}: X \to R(f)$, $\tilde{f}(x) := f(x)$ is bijective, thus the relation $\tilde{f}^{-1} \subset R(f) \times X$ is a function that we call the inverse function of f.

I.e., the inverse function of f is defined by $f^{-1}: R(f) \to X$, $f^{-1}(y) := x$, where x is the unique element of X such that f(x) = y.

Definition. (Composition of functions.)

Let $g: X \to Y_1$ and $f: Y_2 \to Z$ be functions.

We define the composition of f and g, denoted by $f \circ g$, such as

$$(f \circ g): X \longrightarrow Z, \quad D(f \circ g) := \{ x \in X: g(x) \in Y_2 \}, \quad (f \circ g)(x) := f(g(x)).$$

Definition. (Image and inverse image of sets under functions.)

Let $f: X \to Y$ be a function and A, B be any sets.

(1) Image of A under f:

We define the set $f(A) := \{ f(x) : x \in A \}$ and call f(A) the *image* of A under the function f.

(Note that
$$f(A) = f(A \cap X) \subset f(X) = R(f) \subset Y$$
.)

(2) Inverse image of B under f:

We define the set $f^{-1}(B) := \{ x \in X : f(x) \in B \}$ and call $f^{-1}(B)$ the *inverse image* of B under the function f.

(Note that
$$f^{-1}(B) = f^{-1}(B \cap Y) \subset f^{-1}(Y) = f^{-1}(R(f)) = X$$
.)

Remarks.

It is important to see that the set $f^{-1}(B)$ can be defined for any set B, even if f is not injective (thus, the inverse function of f does not exist). The notation f^{-1} in " $f^{-1}(B)$ " does not mean the inverse function of f. However, we can easily prove that if f is injective, then for any set B $f^{-1}(B)$ is the image of B under the inverse function of f.

We can also prove that the function f is *injective* **if and only if** for each $y \in R(f)$ the set $f^{-1}(\{y\})$ has exactly **one element**.

EXERCISES 4.

- 1. Determine the domain and the range of the following functions $f: \mathbb{R} \supset \mathbb{R}$ and examine which of them are *injective* or *surjective*:
 - (a) f(x) := |x|,
 - f(x) := [x],(c)
 - (e) $f(x) := \ln x$
 - (g) $f(x) := |\ln x|,$
 - $f(x) := \lg \sqrt{x},$ (i)

 - (k) $f(x) := \lg x^2$, (m) $f(x) := (\sqrt{x-3})^2$.

- $f(x) := \sqrt{|x|},$
- (d) f(x) := x [x],
- (f) $f(x) := \ln |x|,$
- (h) $f(x) := |\ln |x||$,
- (j) $f(x) := \sqrt{\lg x}$,
- (1) $f(x) := 2 \lg x$, (n) $f(x) := \sqrt{(x-3)^2}$.
- 2. Let f be any injective function. Prove the following propositions:
 - (a) $D(f \circ f^{-1}) = R(f), (f \circ f^{-1})(y) = y$ for all $y \in R(f),$ that is $f \circ f^{-1}$ is the *identity* function on R(f).
 - $D(f^{-1} \circ f) = D(f), \ \ (f^{-1} \circ f)(x) = x \quad \text{ for all } x \in D(f),$ that is $f^{-1} \circ f$ is the *identity* function on D(f).
- Determine the following functions:
 - (a) $\ln \circ \exp$,
 - (c) $\sin \circ \arcsin$,
 - (e) $\cos \circ \arccos$

- (b) $\exp \circ \ln$,
- (d) $\arcsin \circ \sin$,
- (f) $\arccos \circ \cos$.
- 4. Let $f: X \to Y$, $A, B \subset X$ and $C, D \subset Y$. Prove the following propositions:
 - (a) $A \subset B$ implies $f(A) \subset f(B)$,
 - (b) (f is injective and $f(A) \subset f(B)$) implies $A \subset B$,
 - $A \subset f^{-1}(f(A)),$ (c)

- (d) $f(f^{-1}(C)) \subset C$,

- $A \subset f^{-1}(f(A)), \qquad (d) \quad f(f^{-1}(C)) \subset C,$ $f(A \cup B) = f(A) \cup f(B), \qquad (f) \quad f(A \cap B) \subset f(A) \cap f(B),$ $f^{-1}(C \cup D) = f^{-1}(C) \cup f^{-1}(D), \qquad (h) \quad f^{-1}(C \cap D) = f^{-1}(C) \cap f^{-1}(D).$
- 5. Let $h: X \to Y_1$, $g: Y_2 \to Z_1$, $f: Z_2 \to W$ functions. Prove the following propositions:

- (a) $f \circ (g \circ h) = (f \circ g) \circ h$,
- (b) If q and h are both injective, then $g \circ h$ is also injective and $(g \circ h)^{-1} = h^{-1} \circ g^{-1}$,
- If g and h are both surjective and $Y_1 = Y_2$, then $g \circ h : X \to Z_1$ is also *surjective*.
- 6. Let $f: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $f(x) := \ln^3(1+\sqrt{x})$. Determine the *inverse* of f.

5. CARDINALITY OF SETS

We do not define the cardinality (cardinal number) of a set in general, but we compare sets considering the "number" of their elements by putting them in one—to—one correspondance.

Definitions.

Let X and Y be any sets.

- (i) We say that X and Y have the same cardinality and write |X| = |Y| or say that X and Y are equivalent sets and write $X \sim Y$ if there exists a bijective function $f: X \to Y$.
- (ii) We say that the cardinality of X is not greater than the cardinality of Y (or the cardinality of Y is not less than the cardinality of X) and write $|X| \leq |Y|$ if there exists an injective function $f: X \to Y$.
- (iii) We say that the cardinality of X is less than the cardinality of Y (or the cardinality of Y is greater than the cardinality of X) and write |X| < |Y| if $|X| \le |Y|$ and $|X| \ne |Y|$.

Theorem (5.1).

Let X, Y and Z be sets. Then

(i) $X \sim X$, (ii) $X \sim Y \Rightarrow Y \sim X$, (iii) $(X \sim Y \text{ and } Y \sim Z) \Rightarrow X \sim Z$.

Proof.

- (i) $id_X: X \to X$, $x \mapsto x$ is bijective,
- (ii) If $f: X \to Y$ is bijective, then $f^{-1}: Y \to X$ is also bijective,
- (iii) If $g: X \to Y$ and $f: Y \to Z$ are bijective, then $(f \circ g): X \to Z$ is also bijective.

Theorem (5.2).

Let X and Y be sets. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (i) There exists an injective function $f: X \to Y$.
- (ii) There exists a surjective function $q: Y \to X$.

Proof.

If $X = \emptyset$ or $Y = \emptyset$, then (i) and (ii) are obviously equivalent.

If $X \neq \emptyset$ and $Y \neq \emptyset$, then

(1) if $f: X \to Y$ is *injective*, then, choosing any $x_0 \in X$, the function $g: Y \to X$ defined by

$$g(y) := \begin{cases} f^{-1}(y) & \text{if } y \in R(f) \\ x_0 & \text{if } y \in Y \setminus R(f) \end{cases}$$
 is a surjection.

(2) if $g: Y \to X$ is surjective, then, choosing any $y_x \in g^{-1}(\{x\})$ for each $x \in X$, the function $f: X \to Y$, $f(x) := y_x$ is an injection.

Remarks.

- (i) According to the previous theorem we can say that $|X| \le |Y|$ if and only if there exists a surjective function $f: Y \to X$.
- (ii) The following theorem (whose proof is omitted) shows that |X|=|Y| if and only if $(|X| \le |Y|)$ and $|Y| \le |X|$.

Theorem (5.3). (Bernstein's theorem.)

Let X and Y be sets. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (i) There exists a bijective function $f: X \to Y$.
- (ii) There exist injective functions $g_1: X \to Y$ and $g_2: Y \to X$.
- (iii) There exist surjective functions $h_1: Y \to X$ and $h_2: X \to Y$.

Definition. (Finite and infinite sets.)

- (i) A set X is called *finite* if either $X = \emptyset$ or $\exists m \in \mathbb{N}^+$ such that $X \sim \{1, 2, ..., m\}$. We call m (that is uniquely determined) the cardinality (cardinal number) of X and write |X| := m. The cardinality (cardinal number) of the empty set is defined by $|\emptyset| := 0$.
- (ii) A set X is called *infinite* if it is not finite.

Theorem (5.4).

A set X is finite if and only if $|X| < |\mathbb{N}^+|$.

Proof.

- (1) If $X = \emptyset$, then we evidently have $|X| < |\mathbb{N}^+|$. If $|X| = m \in \mathbb{N}^+$, then \exists a bijection $\tilde{f}: X \to \{1, 2, ..., m\}$, thus $f: X \to \mathbb{N}^+$, $f(x) := \tilde{f}(x)$ is an injection, so we have $|X| \le |\mathbb{N}^+|$. If we suppose that \exists a bijection $g: X \to \mathbb{N}^+$, then $(g \circ \tilde{f}^{-1}): \{1, 2, ..., m\} \to \mathbb{N}^+$ is a bijection, which is obviously impossible. Thus, we have $|X| < |\mathbb{N}^+|$.
- (2) If $|X| < |\mathbb{N}^+|$, then either $X = \emptyset$ (thus X is finite) or \exists an injection $f: X \to \mathbb{N}^+$ and there is no bijection from X to \mathbb{N}^+ . If we suppose that X is infinite, then evidently R(f) is also infinite, which implies that $g: R(f) \to \mathbb{N}^+$, $g(n) := |\{x \in R(f) : x \leq n\}|$ is a bijective function. Thus, $(g \circ f)$ is a bijection from X to \mathbb{N}^+ , which is a contradiction. Hence, we obtain X to be a finite set.

Theorem (5.5).

If X is an infinite set, then $|X| \ge |\mathbb{N}^+|$ and $\exists Y \subset X$ such that $|Y| = |\mathbb{N}^+|$. **Proof.**

Let $x_0 \in X$ and define $f: \mathbb{N}^+ \to X$ recursively: $f(1) := x_0$, and for each $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ choosing any $x_n \in X \setminus \{x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}\}$ let $f(n+1) := x_n$. Since f is injective, it follows that $|\mathbb{N}^+| \leq |X|$ and $\mathbb{N}^+ \sim R(f) =: Y$.

Definition. (Countably infinite sets.)

A set X is called *countably infinite* if $|X|=|\mathbb{N}^+|$. According to (5.5) *countably infinite sets* have the *least* infinite cardinality.

Definition. (Countable and uncountable sets.)

- (i) A set X is called countable if | X |≤| N⁺ |.
 According to the theorem (5.2) X is countable if and only if ∃ f: X → N⁺ injection or ∃ g: N⁺ → X surjection.
 According to the theorems (5.4) and (5.5) X is countable if and only if it is finite or countably infinite.
- (ii) A set X is called uncountable if it is not countable. According to the theorem (5.5) X is uncountable if and only if $|X| > |\mathbb{N}^+|$.

Examples.

- 1. \mathbb{N}^+ is countably infinite, since $id^{\mathbb{N}^+}: \mathbb{N}^+ \to \mathbb{N}^+$ is a bijection.
- 2. \mathbb{N} is countably infinite, since $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}^+$, f(n) := n+1 is a bijection.
- 3. \mathbb{Z} is countably infinite, since $f: \mathbb{N}^+ \to \mathbb{Z}$, $f(1) := 0, \ f(2n) := n, \ f(2n+1) := -n \ (n \in \mathbb{N}^+)$ is a bijection.
- 4. \mathbb{Q}^+ is countably infinite, since it is infinite and countable $(f:\mathbb{Q}^+ \to \mathbb{N}^+, f(p/q) := 2^p \cdot 3^q \quad p,q \in \mathbb{N}^+, (p,q) = 1$ is an injection).
- 5. $\mathbb{N}^+ \times \mathbb{N}^+$ is countably infinite, since it is infinite and countable $(f: \mathbb{N}^+ \times \mathbb{N}^+ \to \mathbb{N}^+, f(m,n) := 2^m \cdot 3^n$ is an injection).

Theorem (5.6).

If \mathcal{A} is a countable set and for all $A \in \mathcal{A}$ A is countable, then $\bigcup \mathcal{A}$ is also countable.

Proof.

- (1) If $A = \emptyset$ or $A = \{\emptyset\}$ then $\bigcup A$ is the empty set which is *countable*.
- (2) If $\bigcup A \neq \emptyset$ then we define an *injection* from $\bigcup A$ to \mathbb{N}^+ as follows:

There exists an injection $f: \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{N}^+$ and for all $A \in \mathcal{A}$ there exists an injection $g_A: A \to \mathbb{N}^+$.

For each $x \in \bigcup \mathcal{A}$ there exists at least one set $A \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $x \in A$. Now we define $F : \bigcup \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{N}^+ \times \mathbb{N}^+$, $F(x) := (f(A), g_A(x)) \in \mathbb{N}^+ \times \mathbb{N}^+$.

F is injective, since if F(x) = F(y) =: (m, n) then $x, y \in f^{-1}(m) =: A$, thus $n = g_A(x) = g_A(y)$, which implies that x = y.

Let $G: \mathbb{N}^+ \times \mathbb{N}^+ \to \mathbb{N}^+$ be an injection (e.g. $(m,n) \mapsto 2^m \cdot 3^n$).

Since $(G \circ F)$: $\bigcup \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{N}^+$ is *injective*, it follows that $\bigcup \mathcal{A}$ is *countable*.

Theorem (5.7).

The set \mathbb{R} of all real numbers is *uncountable*.

Proof.

- (1) First we prove (by contradiction) that $(0,1) \subset \mathbb{R}$ is uncountable. If we suppose that (0,1) is countable, then \exists a surjection $f: \mathbb{N}^+ \to (0,1)$. Let $x \in (0,1)$ be defined such that $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, the n-th digit in the decimal representation of x is different from the n-th digit in the decimal representation of f(n) and from 0 and 9. It is evident that $x \notin R(f)$, which is a contradiction, since R(f) = (0,1). Thus, (0,1) is uncountable.
- (2) It is easy to see that $(0,1) \subset \mathbb{R}$ implies that \mathbb{R} is also uncountable.

Definition. (Continuum cardinality.)

We say that a set X has continuum cardinality if $|X|=|\mathbb{R}|$. We also say that X is a continuum set.

Examples.

- 1. Intervals (a, b), [a, b), (a, b], [a, b] are continuum sets. $(a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a < b)$
- 2. The power set $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}^+)$ is a continuum set.
- 3. The set $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ of all irrational numbers is a continuum set.

Theorem (5.8). (Cantor's theorem.)

The power set of any set X has greater cardinality than the set X. $(\mid \mathcal{P}(X)\mid >\mid X\mid .)$

Proof.

- (1) If $X = \emptyset$ then $\mathcal{P}(X) = \{\emptyset\}$, thus $|X| = 0 < 1 = |\mathcal{P}(X)|$.
- (2) If $X \neq \emptyset$ then $|X| \leq |\mathcal{P}(X)|$, since $f: X \to \mathcal{P}(X)$, $f(x) := \{x\}$ is an injection. If we suppose that $|X| = |\mathcal{P}(X)|$, then \exists a bijection $f: X \to \mathcal{P}(X)$. Let $A \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ be defined by $A := \{x \in X: x \notin f(x)\}$. Then $\exists y \in X$ such that f(y) = A. If $y \in A$ then by the definition of A $y \notin f(y) = A$, while if $y \notin A = f(y)$ then by the definition of A $y \in A$. Since it is a contradiction, $|X| \neq |\mathcal{P}(X)|$ must hold.

Remark. (5.9).

If X is an infinite set, then there exists $Z \subset X$ strictly such that |Z| = |X|. **Proof.**

Let $Y \subset X$ such that $|Y| = |\mathbb{N}^+|$. Then \exists a bijection $f : \mathbb{N}^+ \to Y$, thus $g : \mathbb{N}^+ \to Y$, g(n) := f(2n) is injective and $R(g) \subset Y$ strictly. Hence, the function $h : X \to X$ defined by

hence, the function
$$h: X \to X$$
 defined by
$$h(x) := \begin{cases} (g \circ f^{-1})(x) & \text{if } x \in Y \\ x & \text{if } x \in X \setminus Y \end{cases}$$
 is injective and $Z := R(h) = R(g) \cup (X \setminus Y) \subset X$ strictly.

EXERCISES 5.

- 1. Let X, Y and Z be sets. Prove the following propositions:
 - (a) If $|X| \le |Y|$ and $|Y| \le |Z|$, then $|X| \le |Z|$.
 - (b) If $X \subset Y$ then $|X| \leq |Y|$.
- 2. Let X be any infinite set and C be a countable set. Prove the propositions:
 - (a) $|X \cup C| = |X|$.
 - (b) If $X \setminus C$ is infinite, then $|X \setminus C| = |X|$.
 - (c) If C is finite, then $|X \setminus C| = |X|$.
- 3. Prove that the examples on page 20 are continuum sets.
- 4. Let A be a finite set.
 - (a) Prove that if $B \subset A$ strictly, then |B| < |A|.
 - (b) Determine the cardinal number of $\mathcal{P}(A)$. ($|\mathcal{P}(A)| = ?$)
- 5. Let X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n $(n \in \mathbb{N}^+, n > 1)$ be countable sets. Prove that $X_1 \times X_2 \times \ldots \times X_n$ is also countable.
- 6. Prove that \mathbb{Q}^n is countably infinite for all $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$.
- 7. Prove that \mathbb{R}^n is a *continuum set* for all $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, using (without proof) that \mathbb{R}^2 is a *continuum set*.
- 8. Let X and Y be sets—such that |Y| > 1. Prove that $|Y^X| > |X|$, where Y^X is the set of all functions from X to Y.
- 9. Let X be a set. Prove that $\mathcal{P}(X) \sim \{0,1\}^X$.
- 10. Determine the cardinality of the set X, if
 - (a) $X := \{(a, b) \subset \mathbb{R} : a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, a < b\}.$
 - (b) $X := \{(a, b) \subset \mathbb{R} : a, b \in \mathbb{Q}, a < b\}.$
 - (c) $X := \{(a, b) \subset \mathbb{R} : a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a < b\}.$
- 11. Determine the cardinality of the set X, if
 - (a) $X := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : ax^2 + bx + c = 0, a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}, a \neq 0\}.$
 - (b) $X := \{ x \in \mathbb{R} : ax^2 + bx + c = 0, a, b, c \in \mathbb{Q}, a \neq 0 \}.$
 - (c) $X := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : ax^2 + bx + c = 0, a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}, a \neq 0\}.$