# CSCI/MATH 2113 Discrete Structures

Appendix 3 Countable and Uncountable Sets

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## 1 Cardinality

Counting: Typical questions include:

- What is |A|?
- Is it the case that |A| < |B|?
- Is it the case that |A| = |B|?

For finite sets, we have

- Count |A|, say |A| = n.
- Count |B|, say |B| = m.
- Compare n and m.

What about for infinite sets? How do  $|\mathbb{N}|$  and  $|\mathbb{Z}|$  compare? What about  $|\mathbb{N}|$  and  $|\mathbb{R}|$ ?

## 1.1 Definition of bijection

For any nonempty sets A, B the function  $f: A \to B$  is called a *one-to-one* correspondence if f is both one-to-one and onto.

#### 1.2 Definition of same cardinality

If A, B are two nonempty sets, we say that A has the same size, or cardinality, as B and we write  $A \sim B$ , if there exists a one-to-one correspondence  $f: A \to B$ .

Example:  $|\mathbb{N}| = |2\mathbb{N}| = \{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n \text{ is even}\}$ . To see this, consider the function  $f : \mathbb{N} \to 2\mathbb{N}$ . We have

- $f(n) = f(m) \Rightarrow 2n = 2m \Rightarrow n = m$ , so f is injective.
- $x \in 2\mathbb{N} \Rightarrow x = 2y$  for  $y \in \mathbb{N} \Rightarrow f(y) = x \Rightarrow f$  is surjective.

Another example is  $|\mathbb{N}| = |3\mathbb{N}|$  since  $g : \mathbb{N} \to 3\mathbb{N}$ .

## 1.3 Properties of sets

Let A, B, C be sets. Then:

- |A| = |A|
- $|A| = |B| \Rightarrow |B| = |A|$
- |A| = |B| and  $|B| = |C| \Rightarrow |A| = |C|$ .

*Proof.* •  $1_A: A \to A$  is bijective.

- If |A| = |B|, then  $\exists f : A \to B$  bijection  $\Rightarrow f$  is invertible  $\Rightarrow f^{-1} : B \to A$  is invertible  $\Rightarrow \exists g : B \to A$  bijective  $\Rightarrow |B| = |A|$ .
- |A| = |B| and |B| = |C|  $\Rightarrow \exists f : A \to B, \exists g : B \to C$  both bijective  $\Rightarrow g \circ f : A \to C$  is bijective  $\Rightarrow \exists h : A \to C$  bijective  $\Rightarrow |A| = |C|$ .

## 1.4 Finite and infinite sets

Any set A is called a *finite* set if  $A = \emptyset$  or if  $|A| = |\{1, 2, 3, ..., n\}|$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . When  $A = \emptyset$  we say that A has no elements and write |A| = 0. In the latter case, A is said to have n elements and we write |A| = n. When a set A is not finite, then it is called *infinite*.

Question: Is it the case that A, B infinite  $\Rightarrow |A| = |B|$ ? Nope.

#### 1.5 Countable

A set A is called *countable* (or *denumberable*) if (1) A is finite or (2)  $|A| = |\mathbb{Z}^+|$ .

Examples:

•  $2\mathbb{N}$  and  $3\mathbb{N}$  are countable.

•  $\mathbb{Z}$  is countable. Define  $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z}$  by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{2} & \text{if } x \text{ is even} \\ -\left(\frac{(x+1)}{2}\right) & \text{if } x \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

We show that f is injective: Suppose f(x) = f(y).

- If x and y are even, then

$$f(x) = \frac{x}{2} = \frac{y}{2} = f(y)$$

so x = y.

- If x and y are odd, then

$$f(x) = -\frac{x+1}{2} = -\frac{y+1}{2} = f(y)$$

so x = y.

- If x is odd and y is even, then

$$f(x) = -\frac{x+1}{2} = \frac{y}{2} = f(y) \Rightarrow y = -x - 1$$

but -x-1 < 0 and  $y \ge 0$  so this is a contradiction.

Thus, f is an injection. Show that f is a surjection: for all  $y \in \mathbb{Z}$  we have

- If y = 0, then f(1) = 0
- If y > 0, then  $2y \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and  $f(2y) = \frac{2y}{2} = y$
- If y < 0, then  $-2y+1 \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and f(-2y+1) = -[(-2y+1)-1]/2 = -(-2y)/2 = y.

Therefore, f is a surjection and  $|\mathbb{N}| = |\mathbb{Z}|$ .

## 1.6 Finite and infinite sequence

For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , a finite sequence of n terms is a function f whose domain is  $\{1, 2, 3, ..., n\}$ . Such a sequence is usually written as an ordered set  $\{x_1, x_2, x_3, ..., x_n\}$ , where  $x_i = f(i)$  for all  $1 \le i \le n$ .

An *infinite sequence* is a function g having  $\mathbb{Z}^+$  as ots dp,aom. This type of sequence is generally denoted by the *ordered* set  $\{x_i\}_{i\in\mathbb{Z}^+}$  or  $\{x_1,x_2,x_3,\ldots\}$ , where  $x_i=g(i)$  for all  $i\in\mathbb{Z}^+$ .

#### 1.7 Sequence of distinct elements

If A is a nonempty countable set, then A can be written as a sequence of distinct elements.

#### 1.8 Subset of an infinite countable set is countable

If S is a countable set and  $A \subseteq S$ , then A is countable.

*Proof.* When S is finite, this is clear. When S is infinite, then

- if A is finite, there is nothing to show.
- if A is infinite then we define a bijection from  $\mathbb{N}$  to A.

Let  $f: \mathbb{N} \to S$  be a bijection (which exists by assumption). Define  $\overline{f}: \mathbb{N} \to A$ 

$$\overline{f}(0) = f(n_0)$$
 where  $n_0 = \min\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid f(n) \in A\}$ 

$$\overline{f}(1) = f(n_1)$$
 where  $n_1 = \min\{n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{n_0\} \mid f(n) \in A\}.$ 

In general,

$$\overline{f}(k) = f(n_k)$$
 where  $n_k = \min\{n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{n_{k-1}\} \mid f(n) \in A\}.$ 

Corollary: If  $\exists f: A \to \mathbb{N}$  injective then A is countable.

*Proof.* Then 
$$f[A] \subseteq \mathbb{N}$$
 and  $|A| = |f[A]|$ . So, A is countable.

## 1.9 Cantor's diagonal argument

The set  $(0,1] = \{x \mid x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } 0 < x \le 1\}$  is not a countable set.

*Proof.* If (0,1] were countable, then we could write this set as a sequence of distinct terms:  $(0,1] = \{r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots\}$ . To avoid two representations we agree to write real numbers in (0,1] such as 0.5 as  $0.499\ldots$  So, no element in (0,1] is represented by a decimal expansion that terminates. We have

$$r_1 = 0.a_{11}a_{12}a_{13}a_{14} \dots$$

$$r_2 = 0.a_{21}a_{22}a_{23}a_{24} \dots$$

$$r_3 = 0.a_{31}a_{32}a_{33}a_{34} \dots$$

$$\vdots$$

$$r_n = 0.a_{n1}a_{n2}a_{n3}a_{n4} \dots$$

:

where  $a_{ij} \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, 8, 9\}$  for all  $i, j \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Consider the real number  $r = 0.b_1b_2b_3, \dots$ , where for each  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,

$$b_k = \begin{cases} 3, & \text{if } a_{kk} \neq 3\\ 7, & \text{if } a_{kk} = 3. \end{cases}$$

Then  $r \in (0,1)$ , but for every  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , we have  $r \neq r_k$ . So,  $r \notin \{r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots\}$ . This contradicts our assumption that  $(0,1] = \{r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots\}$ .

Corollary:  $|(0,1]| \neq |\mathbb{N}|$ . In fact,  $|(0,1]| > |\mathbb{N}|$ . When a set is not countable, it is termed *uncountable*. So, (0,1] is uncountable.

Corollary: The set  $\mathbb{R}$  (of all real numbers) is an uncountable set.

*Proof.* If  $\mathbb{R}$  were countable, then the subset (0,1] would be countable.  $\square$ 

Remark: If  $X \subseteq S$ , then

- if S is countable, then X is countable;
- ullet if X is uncountable, then S is uncountable.

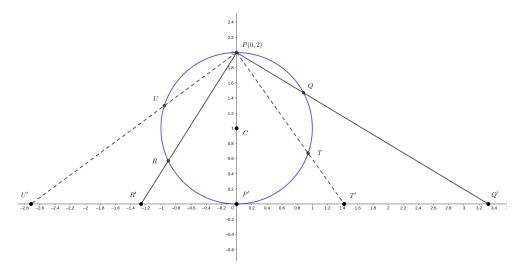
## Examples:

- $\mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$  and  $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ .
- $\mathbb{R} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  so  $\mathbb{C}$  is uncountable.
- $\mathbb{R} \subseteq \mathbb{R} \cup \{i\}$  so  $\mathbb{R} \cup \{i\}$  is uncountable.

## 1.9.1 Example

Consider the points in the Cartesian plane on the unit circle  $x^2 + (y-1)^2 = 1$ . How large is this set  $S = \{(x,y) \mid x,y \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } x^2 + (y-1)^2 = 1\}$ ? That is, is S countable or uncountable?

We have a unit circle centered at C(0,1). This circle is tangent to the real number line (or x-axis) at the point where x=0. The point P, on the circumference, has coordinates (0,2).



This way, we obtain a one-to-one correspondence between the elements of S and the set  $\mathbb{R}$ . Hence  $|S| = |\mathbb{R}|$ , so S is another uncountable set.

## 1.10 Countable sets

•  $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$  is countable.

*Proof.* Define the function  $f: \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  by  $f(a,b) = 2^a 3^b$ . The result will follow if we can show that f is one-to-one. For  $(m,n), (u,v) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ ,  $f(m,n) = f(u,v) \Rightarrow 2^m 3^n = 2^u 3^v \Rightarrow m = u, n = v$ . Consequently, f is one-to-one and  $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$  is countable.

•  $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$  is countable.

*Proof.* We know  $\exists g: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{N}$  bijective. Hence

$$q \times q : \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$$

is a bijection. But we have  $f: \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  bijective. Hence

$$g \circ (f \times f) : \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{N}$$

is a bijection.

•  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable.

*Proof.* For 
$$q \in \mathbb{Q}$$
, we have  $q = \frac{n}{d}$  (reduced)  $\Rightarrow$   $(n, d) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ .

*Remark:*  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

$$x, y \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow \exists q \in \mathbb{Q}, x \le q \le y.$$

 $\mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ , and  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q}$  is uncountable.

#### 1.11 Powerset

If A is a set, then  $|A| < |\mathcal{P}(A)|$ .

*Proof.* True if  $A = \emptyset$ . If  $A \neq \emptyset$ , define

$$f: A \to \mathcal{P}(A)$$
.

f is an injection so  $|A| \leq |\mathcal{P}(A)|$ . Now suppose  $g: A \to \mathcal{P}(A)$  is a surjection. Define

$$B = \{ a \in A \mid a \notin g(a) \}.$$

Then  $B \subseteq A$ , so  $B \in \mathcal{P}(A)$ , so  $\exists a \in A$  such that g(a) = B (g surjective).

- if  $a \in B$ , then  $a \notin g(a)$  so  $a \notin B$ .
- if  $a \notin B$ , then  $a \notin g(a)$  so  $a \in B$ . (Contradiction)

Corollary:  $|\mathbb{N}| < |\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})| < |\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}))| < \dots$