

- 1 If the set  $A$  has  $n$  elements and the set  $B$  has  $m$  elements, show that there are  $m^n$  many functions from  $A$  to  $B$ .

**Solution** As  $A$  is finite with  $n$  elements, we can list its elements as  $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ . Similarly, we can list the elements of  $B$  as  $B = \{b_1, \dots, b_m\}$ .

Consider a function  $f : A \rightarrow B$ . As  $f$  is a function, each element  $a_i \in A$  must have an image  $f(a_i) \in B$ . As there are  $m$  elements in  $B$ , there are  $m^n$  different ways to map elements from  $A$  to  $B$ . Thus, there are  $m^n$  different functions from  $A$  to  $B$ .

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- 2 Fix  $n \geq 1$ . Show that if  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  are countable, then  $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$  is countable.

**Solution** We will prove this by induction.

Base step:

$A_1$  is countable, as given.

Inductive step:

Suppose  $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$  is countable. Then there exists a bijection  $f : A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ . Since  $A_{n+1}$  is countable, there exists a bijection  $g : A_{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ . By a proposition proved in class,  $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$  is countable. Let  $h : \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  be a bijection. Then  $h(f, g)$  is a bijection from  $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n \times A_{n+1}$  to  $\mathbb{N}$ . Thus,  $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n \times A_{n+1}$  is countable.

By the principle of mathematical induction,  $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$  is countable for all  $n \geq 1$ .

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- 3 If  $A \sim B$ , show that  $\mathcal{P}(A) \sim \mathcal{P}(B)$ .

**Solution** As  $A \sim B$ , there exists a bijection  $f : A \rightarrow B$ . If  $a \in \mathcal{P}(A)$ , we define  $F : \mathcal{P}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(B)$  as follows:

$$F(a) = \begin{cases} \emptyset & a = \emptyset \\ f(a) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

E.g., if  $a = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ , then  $F(a) = \{f(x_1), f(x_2), \dots, f(x_n)\}$ . We claim that  $F$  is bijective.

$F$  is injective:

Let  $a_1, a_2 \in \mathcal{P}(A)$  such that they are not the empty set and  $F(a_1) = F(a_2)$ . Then  $f(a_1) = f(a_2)$ . Since  $f$  is bijective, we have that  $a_1 = a_2$ . If  $a_1$  is the empty set, then  $f(a_1) = \emptyset = f(a_2) \implies a_1 = a_2 = \emptyset$  by construction.

Thus,  $F$  is injective.

$F$  is surjective:

If  $b = \emptyset$ , then  $F(\emptyset) = b$ .

Let  $b \in \mathcal{P}(B)$  such that  $b \neq \emptyset$ . Then its preimage is  $f^{-1}(b)$ , which exists in  $\mathcal{P}(A)$  since each element of  $b$  has a preimage in  $A$ . Thus, every element of  $\mathcal{P}(B)$  has a preimage in  $\mathcal{P}(A) \iff F$  surjective.

$F$  is a bijection between  $\mathcal{P}(A)$  and  $\mathcal{P}(B)$ , so by definition,  $\mathcal{P}(A) \sim \mathcal{P}(B)$ .

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- 4 Prove that  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$  is equivalent with the set of functions

$$2^{\mathbb{N}} = \{f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{0, 1\} \mid f \text{ is a function}\}.$$

In particular, the cardinality of  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$  is  $2^{\aleph_0}$ .

**Solution** Let  $N \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$ . Let  $f : \mathcal{P}(N) \rightarrow 2^{\mathbb{N}}$ . Note that the image of  $N$  under  $f$  is a sequence of 1's and 0's. We define  $f(N) = \{N_n\}_{n \geq 1}$  as follows: if  $i \in N$ , then  $N_i = 1$ . Otherwise,  $N_i = 0$ . We claim that  $F$  is bijective.

$F$  is injective:

Let  $N_1, N_2 \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$  such that  $f(N_1) = f(N_2) \iff (N_1)_n = (N_2)_n$  with the sequences defined as above for all  $n$ . Then by the definition of  $F$ ,  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  must contain the same elements as each other, which means that  $N_1 = N_2$ . Thus,  $F$  is injective.

$F$  is surjective:

Let  $\{a_n\}_{n \geq 1} \in 2^{\mathbb{N}}$ . The sequence clearly has a preimage in  $\mathcal{P}(N)$ , which is given by  $\{i \in \mathbb{N} \mid a_i = 1\}$ . Thus,  $F$  is surjective.

Hence,  $F$  is a bijection from  $\mathcal{P}(N)$  to  $2^{\mathbb{N}}$ , so by definition,  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}) \sim 2^{\mathbb{N}}$ . By definition, their cardinalities are the same, i.e.,  $|\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})| = |2^{\mathbb{N}}| = 2^{\aleph_0}$ .

**5** Show that  $\mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}} \sim 2^{\mathbb{N}}$ , that is, the set of sequences with values in  $\mathbb{N}$  is equivalent with the set of sequences with values in  $\{0, 1\}$ .

**Solution** Let  $\{N_n\}_{n \geq 1} \in \mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}}$ . Let  $f : \mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow 2^{\mathbb{N}}$ . We define  $f(\{N_n\}_{n \geq 1}) = \{N'_n\}_{n \geq 1}$  by induction:

Base step:

Put the first  $N_1 - 1$  elements as 0, unless  $N_1 = 1$ , and then let the  $N_1$ -th element be 1.

Inductive step:

Suppose we have gone through the first  $n$  elements of  $\{N_n\}_{n \geq 1}$ . Then we have defined the first  $\sum_{i=1}^n N_i$  elements of  $\{N'_n\}_{n \geq 1}$ . Then define the next  $N_{n+1} - 1$  elements to be 0, and define the element after that to be 1.

Thus, we have defined  $f(\{N_n\}_{n \geq 1})$  through induction.

To illustrate what  $f$  does, consider the sequence  $\{4, 1, 5, 6, \dots\}$ . Then the first elements of its image under  $f$  is given by

$$\underbrace{0, 0, 0}_3, 1, \underbrace{\phantom{0, 0, 0}}_0, \underbrace{1, 0, 0, 0, 0}_4, 1, \underbrace{0, 0, 0, 0, 0}_5, 1, \dots$$

$f$  is clearly injective:

Given a sequence in  $\mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}}$ , its image encodes the original sequence, so if two sequences have the same image under  $f$ , the sequences in  $\mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}}$  must be the same. Thus,  $f$  is injective.

Next, we define  $g: 2^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}}$ ,  $\{a_n\}_{n \geq 1} \mapsto \{a_n + 1\}_{n \geq 1}$ .  $g$  is clearly an injective function.

Since  $f$  and  $g$  are both injective, it follows by Schröder–Bernstein that there exists a bijection between the two functions. Thus,  $\mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}} \sim 2^{\mathbb{N}}$ .

**6** Show that the cardinality of  $\mathbb{R}$  is  $2^{\aleph_0}$ . You may use the fact that the interval  $(0, 1)$  has cardinality  $2^{\aleph_0}$ .

**Solution** Define  $f : (0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $x \mapsto \tan(\frac{\pi}{2} + \pi x)$ . We will show that  $f$  is bijective.

Consider  $f'(x) = \frac{\pi}{\cos^2(\frac{\pi}{2} + \pi x)}$ .  $f'$  exists on the interval  $(0, 1)$  and is clearly positive. Thus,  $f(x)$  is strictly increasing, so if  $f(x_1) > f(x_2) \implies x_1 > x_2$  for all  $x_1, x_2 \in (0, 1)$ .

As  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = -\infty$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = \infty$ ,  $f$  is unbounded on  $(0, 1)$ . Since  $f$  is continuous on that interval,  $f$  must attain all values of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Thus,  $f$  is surjective.

Hence  $f$  is a bijection from  $(0, 1)$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ , so  $|\mathbb{R}| = |(0, 1)| = 2^{\aleph_0}$ .

7 Prove that the set of irrational numbers has the cardinality of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Solution** We start by showing that  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$  has a cardinality greater than  $\aleph_0$ . Suppose otherwise, and that  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$  is at most countable. Then there are two cases:

$\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$  is finite:

$\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$  as proven in class, so the set cannot be finite.

$\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$  is countable:

Consider  $\mathbb{R} = (\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}) \cup \mathbb{Q} \cup \mathbb{Q} \cup \dots$ . By a theorem, a countable union of countable sets is countable, but this is a contradiction, as this implies that  $\mathbb{R}$  is countable. Thus,  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$  is not countable.

Hence,  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$  is not at most countable, so it must be uncountable.

Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , where  $x \mapsto x$ . This is clearly an injective function.

Let  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ .

By a theorem proven in class, since  $(-1, 1)$  is infinite, it admits a countable subset, which we will denote as  $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots\}$ . As  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable also, there exists a bijection  $h : \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow A$ .

We then define  $g(x)$  as follows:

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} x + \text{sign}(x) & x \text{ irrational} \\ h(x) & x \text{ rational} \end{cases}$$

We claim that  $g$  is injective:

Let  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $g(x_1) = g(x_2)$ .

We cannot have one number be rational and the other be irrational as the rational number lies in the interval  $(-1, 1)$  and the irrational number lies in the interval  $(-\infty, -1) \cup (1, \infty)$ . So,  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  must fall in one of the following cases.

$x_1$  and  $x_2$  are both rational:

Then  $g(x_1) = g(x_2) \implies h(x_1) = h(x_2)$ . Since  $h$  is bijective, it follows that  $x_1 = x_2$ .

$x_1$  and  $x_2$  are both irrational:

Over the irrational numbers,  $g$  is strictly increasing, so we must have that  $x_1 = x_2$ .

In all cases, we have  $g(x_1) = g(x_2) \implies x_1 = x_2$ , so  $g$  is injective.

We have shown that there exist injections from  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$  and  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ , so by Schröder–Bernstein,  $\mathbb{R} \sim \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \implies$  there exists a bijection between the two sets, so their cardinalities must be the same.