

## Finite, countable and uncountable sets

**Definition 1** (Injective function) Let  $f : S \rightarrow T$  be a function. We say that  $f$  is injective if  $f(x) = f(y) \Rightarrow x = y$ .

**Remark 2**  $f$  is injective iff  $x \neq y \Rightarrow f(x) \neq f(y)$ .

**Definition 3** (Onto function) Let  $f : S \rightarrow T$  be a function. We say that  $f$  is onto iff  $\forall y \in T$ , there exists some  $x \in S$  such that  $f(x) = y$ .

**Definition 4** (Bijection) Let  $f : S \rightarrow T$  be a function. We say that  $f$  is a bijection iff  $f$  is injective and onto.

**Definition 5** (Cardinality of a set) Let  $S$  be a finite set,  $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n\}$ . Then the cardinality of  $S$  is  $|S| = n$ .

**Proposition 6** Suppose that  $S$  and  $T$  are finite. Then  $|S| = |T|$  iff there exists a bijection  $f : S \rightarrow T$ .

**Proof.** " $\Rightarrow$ "

Suppose that  $|S| = |T| = n$ ,  $S, T$  are finite sets. Then  $S$  should be of the type  $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n\}$  and  $T = \{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n\}$ . Consider the function  $f : S \rightarrow T$ ,  $s_i \rightarrow t_i$ . This function is a bijection.

" $\Leftarrow$ "

Suppose that  $f : S \rightarrow T$  is a bijection. We need to show that  $|S| = |T|$ . Suppose not. Then we have 2 alternatives:

(a)  $|S| > |T|$ , where  $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n, s_{n+1}, \dots, s_m\}$  and  $T = \{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n\}$ . Then  $f(s_1) \neq f(s_2) \neq \dots \neq f(s_n)$ , since  $f$  is injective. But  $f(s_{n+1}) = t_j = f(s_i)$  for some  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ , which is a contradiction with the injectivity of  $f$ .

(b)  $|S| < |T|$ , where  $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m\}$  and  $T = \{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m, t_{m+1}, \dots, t_n\}$ . Then  $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ ,  $t_i = f(s_j)$  ( $\forall j \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ ), else the function is not onto. But then  $t_{m+1} \neq f(s_j)$  for any  $j \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ . Then  $f$  is not onto, which is a contradiction. ■

**Example 7** Consider a set  $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$ . Then the power set of  $A$  is defined as

$$\mathcal{P}(A) = \{B \mid B \text{ is a subset of } A\}.$$

Then,  $|\mathcal{P}(A)| = 2^n$ .

**Proof.** Consider the set  $X = \{0, 1\}^n$ ,  $X = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid x_i \in \{0, 1\}\}$ . (A typical set has the form  $X = \{0, 1, 1, 0, \dots, 1\}$ ). Then  $|X| = 2^n$ . Now we find a bijection between  $\mathcal{P}(A)$  and  $X$ ,  $f : \mathcal{P}(A) \rightarrow X$ ,  $B \rightarrow$

$$f(B) = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \text{ with } x_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a_i \in B \\ 0 & \text{if } a_i \notin B \end{cases}.$$

(For example, consider  $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ . If  $B = \{1, 2, 3\}$  then  $f(B) = \{1, 1, 1, 0\}$ ; if  $B = \emptyset$ , then  $f(B) = \{0, 0, 0, 0\}$ .)

(a)  $f$  is injective.

Consider  $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{P}(A)$ . Suppose that  $f(B_1) = f(B_2)$ . We need to show that  $B_1 = B_2$ . Note that  $a_i \in B_1 \Leftrightarrow [f(B_1)]_i = 1 \Leftrightarrow [f(B_2)]_i = 1$  (since  $f(B_1) = f(B_2)$ )  $\Leftrightarrow a_i \in B_2$ . Then  $B_1 = B_2$ .

(b)  $f$  is onto.

We need to show that  $\forall x \in X$ , there exists some  $B \in \mathcal{P}(A)$  such that  $f(B) = x$ . Consider  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in X$ , and  $B = \{a_i \mid x_i = 1\}$ . Then  $f(B) = x$ .

Since  $f$  is injective and onto, then  $f$  is bijective, and therefore  $|\mathcal{P}(A)| = |X| = 2^n$ . ■

**Definition 8** For infinite sets, we say that  $|A| = |B|$  iff there exists a bijection  $f : A \rightarrow B$ .

**Definition 9** (Denumerable and countable sets) If  $|A| = |\mathbb{N}|$  then we say that  $A$  is denumerable. If  $|A| = |\mathbb{N}|$  or  $A$  is finite, then  $A$  is countable.

**Proposition 10**  $|\mathbb{N}| = |\mathbb{Z}|$ .

**Proof.** Define a function  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $n \rightarrow \begin{cases} \frac{n}{2} & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ -\frac{(n+1)}{2} & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$ .

(a)  $f$  is injective.

Suppose that  $f(n_1) = f(n_2)$ .

(a.1) Let  $f(n_1) = f(n_2) \geq 0$ . Then  $\frac{n_1}{2} = \frac{n_2}{2} \Rightarrow n_1 = n_2$ .

(a.2) Let  $f(n_1) = f(n_2) \leq 0$ . Then  $-\frac{(n_1+1)}{2} = -\frac{(n_2+1)}{2} \Rightarrow n_1 = n_2$ .

(b)  $f$  is onto.

Consider any  $z \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

(b.1) Let  $z \geq 0$ , and consider  $n = 2z$ , which is an even natural number. Then  $f(n) = \frac{n}{2} = \frac{(2z)}{2} = z$ .

(b.2) Let  $z < 0$ , and consider  $n = -(2z + 1)$ , an odd natural number. Then  $f(n) = \frac{-(n+1)}{2} = \frac{-(-(2z+1)+1)}{2} = z$ .

Then  $|\mathbb{N}| = |\mathbb{Z}|$ . ■

**Theorem 11** Any subset of a countable set is also countable.

**Proof.** Assigned for homework. ■

**Theorem 12** Let  $S_1, S_2, \dots$  be a countable family of countable sets. Then  $\bigcup_{i \geq 1} S_i$  is countable.

**Proof.**  $S_m$  is countable for  $m \geq 1$ . Then it can be put into a bijection with a (possibly proper) subset of  $\mathbb{N}$

$$S_m = \{(m, 1), (m, 2), (m, 3), (m, 4), \dots\}.$$

Then:

$$\begin{aligned} S_1 &= (1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3), \dots \\ S_2 &= (2, 1), (2, 2), (2, 3), \dots \\ S_3 &= (3, 1), (3, 2), (3, 3), \dots \\ &\vdots \\ S_m &= (m, 1) (m, 2) (m, 3) \dots \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

And (1, 1) can be assigned to 1, (2, 1) to 2, (1, 2) to 3, (3, 1) to 4, (2, 2) to 5, and so on, so all elements can be covered without repeating.

Now consider  $f : \{(m, n) | m, n \in \mathbb{N}^*\} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^*$ ,  $(m, n) \rightarrow \frac{(m+n-1)(m+n-2)}{2} + n$ . Then  $f$  is an injection, but not necessarily onto (since some  $S_i$ 's can be finite and some elements of some  $S_i$ 's can be dropped because of repetition). However, for  $S = \{(m, n) | m, n \in \mathbb{N}^*\}$  then  $f : \{(m, n) | m, n \in \mathbb{N}^*\} \rightarrow f[S]$  is onto. Then, there is a bijection between  $\bigcup_{i \geq 1} S_i$  and  $f[S]$ . Since  $f[S] \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ , then  $f[S]$  is countable, because of Theorem 11. Then  $\bigcup_{i \geq 1} S_i$  is countable. ■

**Corollary 13**  $|\mathbb{Q}| = |\mathbb{N}|$ .

**Proof.** Note that  $\mathbb{Q}$  can be expressed as

$$\mathbb{Q} = \bigcup_{Q \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}} \left\{ \frac{p}{q} | p \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}.$$

Call the set  $\left\{ \frac{p}{q} | p \in \mathbb{Z} \right\} = B_Q$ , the set of rational numbers with denominator  $q$ . Note that  $|B_Q| = |\mathbb{Z}|$ . ( $f : B_Q \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\frac{p}{q} \rightarrow p$  is a bijection). Then  $B_Q$  is countable.

But note that the union is made in  $Q \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ , which is countable. So we have that  $\mathbb{Q}$  is a countable union of countable sets, so  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable. If a set is countable, it can be the case that either  $|\mathbb{Q}| = |\mathbb{N}|$  or that  $\mathbb{Q}$  is finite. Since  $\mathbb{Q}$  is not finite, then  $|\mathbb{Q}| = |\mathbb{N}|$ . ■

**Theorem 14**  $\mathbb{R}$  is not countable.

**Proof.** It is enough to show that  $[0, 1]$  is not countable. Suppose that  $[0, 1]$  is countable. Then its elements can be put in a sequence:

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= 0.x_{11}x_{12}x_{13}\dots \\ x_2 &= 0.x_{21}x_{22}x_{23}\dots \\ x_3 &= 0.x_{31}x_{32}x_{33}\dots \\ x_4 &= 0.x_{41}x_{42}x_{43}\dots \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

where  $x_{ij}$  are the digits of the number. Now we construct a number  $\bar{x}$  such that it is not in the list. Consider  $\bar{x} = 0.\bar{x}_1\bar{x}_2\bar{x}_3\dots$  defined as:

$$\bar{x}_i = \begin{cases} 5 & \text{if } x_{ii} = 4 \\ 4 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Then  $\bar{x} \neq x_n \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$  since  $\bar{x}_n \neq x_{nn}$ . Therefore, no bijection between  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $[0, 1]$  can be established, and  $\mathbb{R}$  is not countable. ■

**Theorem 15** Any family of disjoint nonempty open intervals in  $\mathbb{R}$  is countable.

**Proof.** Let  $\{(a_\lambda, b_\lambda)\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$  be a family of open sets. Then there exists  $x_\lambda$  in  $(a_\lambda, b_\lambda)$  such that  $x_\lambda \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Consider  $f : \Lambda \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}, \lambda \rightarrow x_\lambda$ . We now claim that  $f$  is injective. To see that this is so, suppose that  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$ , and without loss of generality, suppose that  $b_{\lambda_1} < a_{\lambda_2}$  (and the intervals are disjoint). Then  $x_{\lambda_1} < x_{\lambda_2}$  implies that  $f(\lambda_1) \neq f(\lambda_2)$ . Then  $f : \Lambda \rightarrow f[\Lambda]$  is a bijection, and it follows that  $|\Lambda| = |f[\Lambda]|$ .

Since  $f[\Lambda]$  is a subset of  $\mathbb{Q}$ , which is countable, we know that  $f[\Lambda]$  is countable. Then  $\Lambda$  is countable. ■

**Theorem 16** Suppose  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  is a finite family of countable sets. Then the cartesian product  $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$  is countable.

**Proof.** The proof is by induction.

For  $n = 1$ ,  $A_1$  is countable by hypothesis.

For  $n = n + 1$ , consider

$$A_1 \times \dots \times A_{n+1} = \{(x_1, \dots, x_{n+1}) \mid x_i \in A_i\},$$

which can also be expressed as

$$A_1 \times \dots \times A_{n+1} = \bigcup_{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in A_1 \times \dots \times A_n} \{(x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}) \mid x_{n+1} \in A_{n+1}\}.$$

(Example:  $A_1 = \{a, b\}$ ,  $A_2 = \{x, y\}$ ,  $A_3 = \{u, v, w\}$ . Then  $A_1 \times A_2 \times A_3 = \{(a, x, u), (a, x, v), (a, x, w)\} \cup \{(a, y, u), (a, y, v), (a, y, w)\} \cup \{(b, x, u), \dots\} \cup \{(b, y, u), \dots\}$ .)

Note that we are taking the union over  $A_1 \times \dots \times A_n$ , which is countable. Furthermore, note that  $\{(x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}) \mid x_{n+1} \in A_{n+1}\} = B_{x_1 x_2 \dots x_n}$ . Then:

(a)  $|B_{x_1 x_2 \dots x_n}| = |A_{n+1}|$ . Consider  $f : B_{x_1 x_2 \dots x_n} \rightarrow A_{n+1}, (x_1, \dots, x_n) \rightarrow x_{n+1}$ . Then:

(a.1)  $f$  is injective. Note that  $f(x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}) = f(x_1, \dots, x_n, y_{n+1}) \Rightarrow x_{n+1} = y_{n+1} \Rightarrow (x_1, \dots, x_{n+1}) = (y_1, \dots, y_{n+1})$ .

(a.2)  $f$  is onto. Consider any element  $a \in A_{n+1}$ . Then  $f(x_1, \dots, x_n, a) = a$ .

(b)  $A_1 \times \dots \times A_n$  is countable by induction hypothesis.

Then  $A_1 \times \dots \times A_{n+1}$  is a countable union of countable sets, and therefore it is countable. ■

**Remark 17** If the finiteness of the family is dropped, then the previous result is no longer true.

**Example 18** Consider  $A = \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}} = \{0, 1\} \times \{0, 1\} \times \{0, 1\} \times \dots$ . Then  $A$  is not countable. Note that  $A$  is a set of infinite sequences of 0s and 1s:

$$A = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots) \mid x_i \in \{0, 1\}\}.$$

Suppose that  $A$  is countable. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= (x_{11}, x_{12}, x_{13}, \dots) \\ x_2 &= (x_{21}, x_{22}, x_{23}, \dots) \\ x_3 &= (x_{31}, x_{32}, x_{33}, \dots) \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

Consider  $\bar{x} \in \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  defined by  $\bar{x} = (\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2, \dots)$ ,  $\bar{x}_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x_{ii} = 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x_{ii} = 1 \end{cases}$ . Then  $\bar{x} \neq x_n \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$  since  $\bar{x}_n \neq x_{nn}$ . It follows that  $A$  is not countable.

**Remark 19** There is a bijection between  $\mathcal{P}(\{a_1, \dots, a_n\})$  and  $\{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ . In addition, there is a bijection between  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$  and  $\{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ . Then  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$  is not countable.

**Theorem 20** If  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a nondecreasing function, then the set of points where  $f$  is discontinuous is at most countable.

**Proof.** Consider the family  $\{x_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$ , the set of points where  $f$  is discontinuous. We need to show that  $\Lambda$  is countable. Note that if  $x$  is discontinuous at  $x_\lambda$ , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_\lambda^-} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow x_\lambda^+} f(x)$$

Since  $f$  is nondecreasing,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_\lambda^-} f(x) < \lim_{x \rightarrow x_\lambda^+} f(x)$$

It is possible to find  $Q_\lambda \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_\lambda^-} f(x) < Q_\lambda < \lim_{x \rightarrow x_\lambda^+} f(x)$$

Now consider  $g : \Lambda \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\lambda \rightarrow Q_\lambda$ . Then  $g$  is injective. (Note that if  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$ , then either  $x_{\lambda_1} > x_{\lambda_2}$  or  $x_{\lambda_1} < x_{\lambda_2}$ . In the first case,  $x_{\lambda_1} > x_{\lambda_2} \Rightarrow Q_{\lambda_1} > Q_{\lambda_2} \Rightarrow g(\lambda_1) > g(\lambda_2)$ . In the second case,  $x_{\lambda_1} < x_{\lambda_2} \Rightarrow Q_{\lambda_1} < Q_{\lambda_2} \Rightarrow g(\lambda_1) < g(\lambda_2)$  and it is true that  $g(\lambda_1) \neq g(\lambda_2)$ .)

It follows that  $g : \Lambda \rightarrow g[\Lambda]$  is a bijection, so  $|\Lambda| = |g[\Lambda]|$ . Since  $g[\Lambda] \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$ , then  $g[\Lambda]$  is countable. Therefore,  $\Lambda$  is countable. ■