LECTURE 8

Cardinality

In this lecture we shall discuss the relative *size* of sets. If S and T are sets with only a finite number of elements then this notion of relative size is straight-forward, the set S is the same *size* as the set T if it has the same number of elements and S is *larger* than the set T if S has more elements than T. If, however, S and T are sets with infinite numbers of elements then the notions of equivalent and relative sizes are a bit subtler.

We begin by stating a definition that tells us when two sets (infinite or finite) are the same size.

DEFINITION 8.1. Two sets S and T are equinumerous if there exists a bijection from S to T.

THEOREM 8.2. Let \mathcal{F} denote any family of sets, The relation

 $S \sim T \iff S$ and T are equinumerous

is an equivalence relation on \mathcal{F} .

The proof of this is easy, and will be assigned as homework.

We shall use the notation $S \sim T$ to indicate that S and T are equinumerous. Since this is an equivalence relation on any family \mathcal{F} of sets, it partitions \mathcal{F} up into disjoint equivalence classes. With each of these equivalence classes we shall associate a *cardinal number* indicating the size of the sets in that equivalence classes. This is done as follows.

NOTATION 8.3. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, Let I_n denote the set of integers between 1 and n:

$$I_n = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$$

DEFINITION 8.4. A set S is said to be **finite** if $S = \{\}$ or if there exists a natural number n, and a bijection $f : I_n \to S$. If S is finite, we say that the **cardinal number** (or **cardinality**) of S is 0 if $S = \{\}$, or n if the bijection is from I_n to S.If no such bijection exists we say that S is **infinite**, and that the cardinal number of S is **transfinite**.

DEFINITION 8.5. A set S is denumerable if there exists a bijection $f : \mathbb{N} \to S$.

DEFINITION 8.6. If a set is finite or denumerable, then we say that the set is countable.

REMARK 8.7. If a set S is countable, then there either exists a bijection from I_n to S or there exists a bijection from N to S. Such a bijection (in either case) allows us to create a listing of the elements of S:

$$S = \{f(1), f(2), f(3), \dots\}$$

NOTATION 8.8. The cardinal number of a denumberable set is denoted by \aleph_0

EXAMPLE 8.9. Show that the cardinality of the set of integers is \aleph_0 .

As usual we denote by \mathbb{Z} , the the set of integers, and by \mathbb{N} , the set of natural numbers . Then it is easy to verify that the map

$$f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z} \quad n \mapsto \begin{cases} \frac{n}{2} & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ -\frac{n+1}{2} & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

is a bijection. Thus, $\mathbb{Z} \sim \mathbb{N}$, and so the cardinality of \mathbb{Z} is \aleph_0 .

8. CARDINALITY

LEMMA 8.10. If T is an infinite subset of a set S, then S is also infinite.

Proof. (Proof by Contradiction). Suppose that T is an infinite subset of a finite set S. Then, since S is finite, for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there is a bijection $f: I_n \to S$. Let $\{f(1), \ldots, f(n)\}$ be the corresponding listing of elements of S. Now remove from this list those elements of S that are not in T (this is a finite list so this is a finite procedure). What is left is a listing of elements of T which is equivalent to giving a bijection from some $I_m \to T$ with $m \leq n$. However, T is supposed to be infinite, so no such bijection is possible. We conclude that S must also be infinite.

THEOREM 8.11. Let S be a countable set and let T be a subset of S. Then T is countable.

Proof. If T is finite, then we are done. Suppose then that T is infinite. The preceding lemma implies that S is infinite, so it is denumerable (since it is infinite and countable). Hence, there is a bijection $f : \mathbb{N} \to S$. We can then list the elements of S as

$$S = \{f(1), f(2), \dots\}$$

Now define

$$A = \{ n \in \mathbb{N} \mid f(n) \in T \}$$

This set is nonempty (since T is now assumed to be infinite) and so by the Well-Ordering Axiom for \mathbb{N} , it has a least element, say m_1 . Similarly, the set $A \setminus \{m_1\}$ has a least member; call it m_2 . Proceeding like this, we denote by m_k the least element of $A \setminus \{a_1, \ldots, a_{k-1}\}$.

We now define a function $g: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ by $g(n) = a_n$, since T is infinite g(n) is defined for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Since $a_{n+1} > a_n > \ldots > a_1 g$ must be injective. The composition $f \circ g: \mathbb{N} \to T$ is also then injective, and since every element of T must appear somewhere in this listing of S, $f \circ g$ is also surjective. Hence, there is a bijection from \mathbb{N} to T so T is denumerable, hence countable.

THEOREM 8.12. Let S be a non-empty set. Then the following conditions are equivalent.

- 1. S is countable
- 2. There exists a injective function $f: S \to \mathbb{N}$.
- 3. There exists a surjective function $g : \mathbb{N} \to S$.

Proof.

 $1 \Rightarrow 2$: Suppose S is countable. Then either S is finite or S is denumerable.

If S is denumerable, then by definition there exists a bijection $f : \mathbb{N} \to S$. But a bijection always has a bijective inverse and so f^{-1} will be, in particular, an injective function from S to \mathbb{N} .

If S is finite, then by definition there exists a bijection $f: I_n \to S$. The inverse $f^{-1}: S \to I_n$ of this mapping then exists and is bijective. Let $\iota: I_n \to \mathbb{N}$ be the natural *inclusion mapping*, where i(k) = k for all $k \in I_n$. This is an injective function. The composition $i \circ f^{-1}: S \to I_n \to \mathbb{N}$, as the composition of two injective mappings, is itself injective.

 $2 \Rightarrow 3$: Suppose $f: S \to \mathbb{N}$ is injective. Then $\tilde{f}: S \to f(S)$, $s \mapsto f(s)$ is bijective, and so $\tilde{f}^{-1}: f(S) \to S$ exists and is bijective. Then k be any element of f(S) and define $g: \mathbb{N} \to S$ by

$$g(n) = \begin{cases} \tilde{f}^{-1}(n) & \text{if } n \in f(S) \\ k & \text{if } n \notin f(S) \end{cases}$$

This function is obviously surjective and so we are done.

 $3 \Rightarrow 1$: Suppose there is a surjective function $g : \mathbb{N} \to S$. Then for each $s \in S$, $f^{-1}(\{s\})$ is a non-empty subset of \mathbb{N} . By the Well-Ordering Axiom each of these subsets has a minimal element, call it n_s . This gives us a one-to-one pairing of elements of S with elements of \mathbb{N} ; hence, an injective function from S to \mathbb{N} .

EXAMPLE 8.13. Show that the set \mathbb{Q} of rational numbers is countable

In view of the preceding theorem, it suffices to display an injective function from \mathbb{Q} to \mathbb{N} . Every rational number r has a unique presentation as the ratio p/q of two integers which have no common factors. But then it is easy to check that the function

$$g: \mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{N} \quad ; \quad \frac{p}{q} \to 2^p 3^q$$

is injective. Hence, \mathbb{Q} is countable.

THEOREM 8.14. The set of real numbers is not countable.

Proof. By a preceding theorem, every subset of a countable set is countable, therefore it suffices to show that the subset of \mathbb{R} consisting of real numbers between 0 and 1 is not countable. So set

$$J = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} \mid 0 \le x \le 1 \}$$

If J is countable then we can form a list of its elements

$$J = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$$

Every real number is representable in terms of a (possibly infinite) decimal expansion, so we can write

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= & 0.a_{11}a_{12}a_{13} \dots \\ x_2 &= & 0.a_{21}a_{22}a_{33} \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

Now we construct a real number $y \in J$ by defining

$$y = 0.b_1b_2b_3\ldots$$

where

$$b_i = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{if } a_{ii} \neq 2\\ 3 & \text{if } a_{ii} = 2 \end{cases}$$

Now y evidently belongs to J, however, y can not be any of the x_n . For suppose

$$y = x_n$$

Then, by construction the n^{th} digit its decimal expansion can not be the same as that of x_n , so $y \neq x_n$. We conclude if we can not list the elements of J without running into a contradiction. Therefore, J and hence \mathbb{R} is not countable.

NOTATION 8.15. Let S be a set. We shall denote the cardinal number of S by |S|. We shall say that |S| = |T| if there exists a bijection $f: S \to T$ and that $|S| \le |T|$ if there exists an injection $f: S \to T$ and we shall write |S| < |T| if $|S| \le |T|$ but $|S| \ne |T|$.

THEOREM 8.16. Let S, T, and U be sets.

1. If $S \subset T$, then $|S| \leq |T|$.

2. $|S| \le |S|$

- 3. If $|S| \le |T|$ and $|T| \le |U|$, then $|S| \le |U|$.
- 4. If $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $m \le n$, then $|\{1, 2, 3, \dots, m\}| \le |\{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}|$
- 5. If S is finite, then $|S| \leq \aleph_0$

DEFINITION 8.17. Given any set S, we denote the collection of all subsets of S, by $\mathcal{P}(S)$ and refer to it as the **power set** of S.

THEOREM 8.18. For any set S, we have $|S| < |\mathcal{P}(S)|$

Proof. If S and $\mathcal{P}(S)$ are equinumerous, then there must exist a bijection $f: S \to \mathcal{P}(S)$. The natural inclusion map

$$i: S \to \mathcal{P}(S) \quad , \quad s \mapsto \{s\}$$

is obviously injective, so $|S| \leq |\mathcal{P}(S)|$. We need to show that no map from S to $\mathcal{P}(S)$ can be surjective.

Let f be an injective map from S to $\mathcal{P}(S)$. Then for each $x \in S$, each f(x) is a subset of S. Now for some x in S it may be that x is in the subset f(x), while for others may not be. Let

$$T = \{ x \in S \mid x \notin f(x) \}$$

Now $T \subset S$, so $T \in \mathcal{P}(S)$. If f is surjective then T = f(y) for some $y \in S$. But now either $y \in T$ or $y \notin T$; however, both possibilities lead to contradictions.

- If $y \in T$, then $s \notin f(y) = T$.
- If $y \notin T$, then $y \notin f(y) \Rightarrow y \in T$.

Theorem 8.19. $|\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})| = |\mathbb{R}|$

PROBLEM 8.1. Is there a set S such that $|\mathbb{N}| < |S| < |\mathbb{R}|$?