

**Math 3210-3**  
**HW 6**  
Solutions

You were only required to turn in problems 1(b), 2, 3, 4(a), 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9. Each problem is worth one point. Parts (b) and (c) of 4 were extra credit. Note: Finish the whole assignment before attempting problem 4 as it is a more difficult problem.

## Cardinality

1. Show that each of the following pairs of sets  $S$  and  $T$  are equinumerous by finding a specific bijection between them.

(a)  $S = [0, 1]$  and  $T = [1, 3]$

Let  $f(x) = 2x + 1, 0 \leq x \leq 1$ . Clearly this is a bijection from  $S$  to  $T$ .

(b)  $S = [0, 1]$  and  $T = [0, 1)$

We must shift infinitely many points in order to have our bijection, so define  $g$  as follows:

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \neq \frac{1}{2^n} \text{ for any } n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \\ \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} & \text{if } x = \frac{1}{2^n} \text{ for } n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \end{cases}$$

Now  $1 \mapsto \frac{1}{2}$  and  $\frac{1}{2} \mapsto \frac{1}{4}$ , and so on. Clearly this is bijective.

(c)  $S = [0, 1)$  and  $T = (0, 1)$

We need a similar method as in part (b). Define  $h$  as follows:

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \neq \frac{1}{3^n} \text{ for any } n \in \mathbb{N} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \text{if } x = 0 \\ \frac{1}{3^{n+1}} & \text{if } x = \frac{1}{3^n} \text{ for and } n \in \mathbb{N} \end{cases}$$

(d)  $S = (0, 1)$  and  $T = (0, \infty)$

Let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x} - 1$ .

(e)  $S = (0, 1)$  and  $T = \mathbb{R}$

We will do this map in stages. We will take  $(0, \frac{1}{2})$  to  $(0, 1)$  and then  $(0, 1)$  to  $(-\infty, 0)$ . Then we will take  $(\frac{1}{2}, 1)$  to  $(0, 1)$  to  $(0, \infty)$ . Finally we will send  $\frac{1}{2}$  to 0. We can take  $(0, \frac{1}{2})$  to  $(0, 1)$  by the function  $g(x) = 2x$ . Then we can compose this with the function from part (d) to get  $(0, \frac{1}{2})$  to  $(0, \infty)$ . Next, multiply this function by a negative to get it to be in  $(-\infty, 0)$ . The second function is similar. We take  $(\frac{1}{2}, 1)$  to  $(0, 1)$  by the function  $h(x) = 2(x - \frac{1}{2}) = 2x - 1$ . Compose this with the map from (d) to get our desired function. In summary, we have the following bijection:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} -(\frac{1}{2x} - 1) & \text{if } 0 < x < \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \text{if } x = \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2x-1} - 1 & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} < x < 1 \end{cases}$$

2. (a) Suppose that  $m < n$ . Prove that the intervals  $(0, 1)$  and  $(m, n)$  are equinumerous by finding a specific bijection between them.

*Proof:* We can use our method from part (a) of the previous problem. We simply want a straight line with  $0 \mapsto m$  and  $1 \mapsto n$ . So our points for our line are  $(0, m), (1, n)$ . The slope of this line is  $\frac{n-m}{1-0} = n - m$ . The  $y$ -intercept is  $(0, m)$ , so the equation of our line is  $f(x) = (n - m)x + m$ .

□

(b) Use part (a) to prove that any two open intervals are equinumerous.

*Proof:* Let  $(a, b)$  and  $(c, d)$  be open intervals with  $a < b$  and  $c < d$ . By the method of part (a), we can find the equation of the straight line from  $(a, c)$  to  $(b, d)$ . The slope of this line is  $\frac{d-c}{b-a}$ ,

so the bijection is  $f(x) = \frac{d-c}{b-a}(x-a) + c$ .

□

3. ♣ Prove: If  $(S \setminus T) \sim (T \setminus S)$ , then  $S \sim T$ .

*Proof:* Let  $f : S \setminus T \rightarrow T \setminus S$  be a bijection. Define  $g : S \rightarrow T$  by

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } x \in S \setminus T \\ x & \text{if } x \in S \cap T \end{cases}$$

We need to show that  $g$  is bijective. Suppose  $g(x) = g(y)$ . We have three cases to consider. First, suppose  $x, y \in S \setminus T$ . Then  $g(x) = f(x) = f(y) = g(y)$ , so  $x = y$  since  $f$  is injective. Second, suppose  $x, y \in S \cap T$ . Then  $g(x) = x = y = g(y)$ , so  $x = y$  since the identity function is injective. Finally, suppose  $x \in S \setminus T$  and  $y \in S \cap T$ . Then  $g(x) = f(x) = y = g(y)$  implies that  $f(x) \in S \cap T$ , a contradiction since  $f(x) \in T \setminus S$ . Therefore  $g$  is injective.

Now let  $t \in T$ . If  $t \in S \cap T$ , then  $t \in S$  and  $g(t) = t$ . If  $t \in T \setminus S$ , then  $\exists x \in S$  such that  $f(x) = t$  since  $f$  is bijective. Therefore  $g$  is surjective. And we can conclude that  $g$  is in fact bijective. Therefore  $S \sim T$ .

□

4. A real number is said to be algebraic if it is a root of a polynomial equation

$$a_n x^n + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0 = 0$$

with integer coefficients. Note that the algebraic numbers include the rationals and all roots of rationals (such as  $\sqrt{2}$ ,  $\sqrt[3]{5}$ , etc.). If a number is not algebraic, it is called transcendental.

- (a) Show that the set of polynomials with integer coefficients is countable. (Hint: use the fact that the countable union of countable sets is countable.)

We will begin this problem by proving a lemma.

**Lemma 1**

Let  $\mathbb{Z}^i = \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}$  where there are  $i$  factors in the product. Then  $\mathbb{Z}^i$  is countable.

*Proof:* We will prove this by induction (something we will learn in the next section). Let  $i = 1$ . Then  $\mathbb{Z}^1 = \mathbb{Z}$ . Let  $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  be given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 2x & x \geq 0 \\ -2x - 1 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

By theorem 16, we must only show that  $f(x)$  is injective for  $\mathbb{Z}$  to be countable. Suppose  $f(x) = f(y)$ . Then there are three cases to consider. Case 1:  $x, y \geq 0$ . Then  $f(x) = 2x = 2y = f(y)$ , which implies that  $x = y$ . Case 2:  $x, y < 0$ , so  $f(x) = -2x - 1 = -2y - 1 = f(y)$ , so  $x = y$ . And Case 3:  $x \geq 0$  and  $y < 0$ . Then  $f(x) = 2x = -2y - 1 = f(y)$  which implies that  $x = -y - \frac{1}{2} \notin \mathbb{Z}$ , so we have a contradiction. Therefore,  $f$  is injective, and  $\mathbb{Z}$  is countable.

Now suppose that  $\mathbb{Z}^k$  is countable for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Now we need to show that  $\mathbb{Z}^{k+1}$  is countable. But  $\mathbb{Z}^{k+1} = \mathbb{Z}^k \times \mathbb{Z}$ . Since  $\mathbb{Z}^k$  and  $\mathbb{Z}$  are countable, by an exercise we did in class,  $\mathbb{Z}^{k+1}$  is countable. Therefore, by induction, we know that  $\mathbb{Z}^i$  is countable for all  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ .

□

Now we will prove the homework problem.

*Proof:* Let  $\mathcal{A}$  = the set of all polynomials with integer coefficients. Let  $A_i$  be the set of all polynomials of degree  $i$  with integer coefficients. Then  $\mathcal{A} = \cup A_i$ , which is a countable union. Let  $h_i : A_i \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{i+1}$  be given by  $h_i(a_i x^i + a_{i-1} x^{i-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0) = (a_i, a_{i-1}, \dots, a_1, a_0)$ . Clearly  $h_i$  is injective. By the lemma we just proved,  $\mathbb{Z}^{i+1}$  is countable, so  $\exists f_{i+1} : \mathbb{Z}^{i+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  which is bijective. Define  $g_i : A_i \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  by  $g_i(p) = f_{i+1} \circ h_i(p)$  for any  $p \in A_i$ . The composition of injective functions is injective, as we proved in class, so  $A_i$  is countable for all  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ . Finally,  $\mathcal{A}$  is a countable union of countable sets, so it is countable, by an exercise from class.

□

(b) Show that the set of algebraic numbers is countable.

*Proof:* Let  $A_i$  be defined as above. Note that  $A_i$  is countable for all  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ , so we can label all of the polynomials in  $A_i$  as  $p_1, p_2, \dots$ . For any  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $p_k \in A_i$  has at most  $i$  roots. (Note that we don't need finite roots, we just need countable roots, but finite is still countable.) Let  $r_1 =$  roots of  $p_1$ ,  $r_2 =$  roots of  $p_2$ , and so on. Now let  $R_i = \cup r_j$  which are all of the roots of polynomials of degree  $i$ .  $R_i$  is countable since it is the countable union of countable sets. Also note that there is such an  $R_i$  for each  $A_i$ . Let  $\mathcal{R} = \cup R_i$ . Then  $\mathcal{R}$  is the set of all of the algebraic numbers, and it is countable since it is the countable union of countable sets.

□

(c) Are there more algebraic numbers or transcendental numbers?

Since there are uncountable many real numbers, and  $\mathbb{R} =$  algebraic numbers  $\cup$  transcendental numbers, there must be more transcendental numbers than algebraic numbers.