

MATH 582 HOMEWORK 2  
WEEK 3  
*Winter, 2009*  
*Due January 23*

**Exercise 1.** For all sets  $A$  and  $B$ ,

- (a)  $A \approx B \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(A) \approx \mathcal{P}(B)$ .  
(b)  $A \approx B \rightarrow A^2 \approx B^2$

*Proof.* (a). Suppose  $\pi : A \rightarrow B$  is a bijection which witnesses  $A \approx B$ . Then the map ( $X \mapsto \pi[X]$ ) defines a bijection from  $\mathcal{P}(A)$  to  $\mathcal{P}(B)$ .

- The map is injective: If  $X, Z \subseteq A$  and  $X \neq Z$ , then  $\pi[X] \neq \pi[Z]$  since  $\pi$  is injective.
  - The map is surjective: For each  $Y \subseteq B$ , let  $X = \pi^{-1}[Y]$ . Then,  $\pi[X] = Y$ , as is easily verified.
- (b). Consider the bijection  $((a_1, a_2) \mapsto (\pi(a_1), \pi(a_2)))$ . □

The following definition is for Exercise 2:

**Definition.** A real number  $\alpha$  is algebraic if it is the root of some polynomial

$$P(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n$$

with integer coefficients  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$  (where  $n \geq 1$  and  $a_n \neq 0$ ). That is,

$$P(\alpha) = 0.$$

A number which is not algebraic is transcendental.

Liouville (1844) was the first to show the existence of transcendental numbers, using continued fractions. The simplest example is

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 10^{-k!} = 0.110001000000000000000000000000001000\dots$$

Charles Hermite first proved  $e$  was transcendental in 1873; and Ferdinand von Lindemann first proved  $\pi$  was transcendental in 1882.

Cantor gave the simplest and most powerful proof of the existence of transcendental numbers (1874), which showed that “almost every” real number is transcendental.

**Exercise 2.** Show that the set of algebraic numbers is countable, and hence there exist transcendental numbers.

*Hint.* First, show that the set of all polynomials with integer coefficients is countable. Then, use the fact that any polynomial has only finitely many (real) roots.

*Proof.* Let  $\Pi$  be the set of all polynomial with integer coefficients. Define a map from  $p(x) \in \Pi$  by

$$(p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n \mapsto (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^{n+1}).$$

This is an injection from  $\Pi$  into the countable set  $\bigcup_{n=2}^{\infty} \mathbb{Z}^n$ . So,  $\Pi$  is countable. Fix an enumeration of  $\Pi$

$$\Pi = \{p_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

For each polynomial  $p(x)$ , the set of its roots

$$\Lambda(p) = \{\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \mid p(\alpha) = 0\},$$

is finite. The set of algebraic numbers is given by

$$\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \Lambda(p_n),$$

which is a countable union of countable sets – so countable.  $\square$

**Exercise 3.** For every  $\alpha < \beta$  where  $\alpha, \beta$  are reals,  $\infty$  or  $-\infty$ , construct bijections which prove the equinumerosities:

$$(\alpha, \beta) \approx (0, 1) \approx \mathbb{R}.$$

Where

$$(\alpha, \beta) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid \alpha < x < \beta\}.$$

*Proof.* Let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  be any real numbers. Then the map

$$(x \mapsto \alpha + x\beta)$$

is a bijection from  $(0, 1)$  to  $(\alpha, \beta)$ .

We get a bijection from  $(0, 1)$  to  $(0, \infty)$  by the map

$$(x \mapsto -1 + \frac{1}{x}).$$

A bijection from  $\mathbb{R} = (-\infty, \infty)$  to  $(\alpha, \infty)$  (where  $\alpha$  is any real number) is given by the map

$$(x \mapsto \alpha + e^x).$$

A bijection from  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $(-\infty, \beta)$  (where  $\beta$  is any real number) is given by the map

$$(x \mapsto \beta - e^x).$$

So, putting these bijections together, we have for any  $\alpha, \beta$  real,  $\infty$  or  $-\infty$ ,

$$(\alpha, \beta) \approx (0, 1) \approx (-\infty, \infty) = \mathbb{R}.$$

□

**Exercise 4.** For every  $\alpha < \beta$  where  $\alpha, \beta$  are reals, construct bijections which prove the equinumerosities:

$$[\alpha, \beta) \approx [\alpha, \beta] \approx \mathbb{R}.$$

Where

$$[\alpha, \beta) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid \alpha \leq x < \beta\},$$

$$[\alpha, \beta] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid \alpha \leq x \leq \beta\}.$$

*Proof.* The same maps in Exercise 3 extend to the intervals here, to show that

$$[0, 1) \approx [\alpha, \beta) \quad [0, 1] \approx [\alpha, \beta]$$

when  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are real numbers.

It is sufficient to define define bijections which show

$$(0, 1) \approx [0, 1) \approx [0, 1]$$

It then follows that

$$[0, 1) \approx [0, \infty) \quad \text{by } 0 \mapsto 0 \text{ and } (0, 1) \rightleftharpoons (0, \infty)$$

$$[0, 1] \approx [0, \infty) \quad \text{by } 1 \mapsto 0 \text{ and } [0, 1] \rightleftharpoons (0, \infty)$$

$$[0, 1) \approx \mathbb{R} \quad \text{by } [0, 1) \rightleftharpoons (0, 1) \rightleftharpoons \mathbb{R}$$

$$[0, 1] \approx \mathbb{R} \quad \text{by } [0, 1] \rightleftharpoons (0, 1) \rightleftharpoons \mathbb{R}$$

We define a bijection  $\pi : [0, 1) \rightleftharpoons (0, 1)$  by:

$$\pi(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ \frac{1}{n} & \text{if } x = \frac{1}{n+1} \\ x & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad \text{where } n > 0$$

For example,

$$\frac{1}{2} \xrightarrow{\pi} 1 \quad \frac{1}{3} \xrightarrow{\pi} \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{4} \xrightarrow{\pi} \frac{1}{3} \quad \dots$$

It is now straightforward to verify that  $\pi$  is a bijection.

We define another bijection  $\rho : [0, 1] \rightleftarrows [0, 1]$  by:

$$\rho(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n+1} & \text{if } x = \frac{1}{n} \text{ where } n > 0 \\ x & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

For example,

$$1 \xrightarrow{\rho} \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \xrightarrow{\rho} \frac{1}{3} \quad \frac{1}{3} \xrightarrow{\rho} \frac{1}{4} \quad \dots$$

It is now straightforward to verify that  $\rho$  is a bijection. □

The next exercise was seen as highly counterintuitive when Cantor first proved it.

**Exercise 5.** Show that  $\mathbb{R} \approx \mathbb{R}^2 = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ . Conclude that  $\mathbb{R} \approx \mathbb{R}^n$  for every  $n \geq 2$ .

*Hint.* You might find it easier to show that  $\Delta \approx \Delta^2$ , then use Exercise 1a. If you feel truly stuck, see H+J exercise 5.2.7, for one approach.

*Proof.* Since  $\Delta \approx \mathbb{R}$ , it follows that  $\Delta^2 \approx \mathbb{R}^2$  by Exercise 1a. It is a little easier to organize the argument using  $\Delta$  in place of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

If  $\delta_1, \delta_2 \in \Delta$ , let  $f(\delta_1, \delta_2) \in \Delta$  be defined as follows:

$$f(\delta_1, \delta_2)(n) = \begin{cases} \delta_1(n) & \text{if } n \text{ is odd,} \\ \delta_2(n) & \text{if } n \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

It is straightforward to verify that  $f : \Delta^2 \rightleftarrows \Delta$  is indeed a bijection. (I am writing  $f(\delta_1, \delta_2)$  for  $f((\delta_1, \delta_2))$ .) □