



## Grade 11/12 Math Circles

### Cardinality I - Problem Set Solutions

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1. Which of the following functions are surjective? Which are injective?

(a)  $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ ,  $f(n) = |n| + 1$

(b)  $g : [0, \infty) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ ,  $g(x) = \frac{x}{x+1}$

(c)  $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $h(x) = \begin{cases} 2x & \text{if } x \text{ is rational,} \\ 3x & \text{if } x \text{ is irrational.} \end{cases}$

*Solution:*

(a) To show that  $f$  is surjective, we must verify that any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  can be produced as an output of  $f$ . Given  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have that  $n - 1$  is a non-negative element of  $\mathbb{Z}$ , and hence  $|n - 1| = n - 1$ . This means that

$$f(n - 1) = |n - 1| + 1 = (n - 1) + 1 = n.$$

Therefore,  $f$  is surjective.

Note that  $f$  is not injective, as  $f(1) = |1| + 1 = 2$  and  $f(-1) = |-1| + 1 = 2$ , yet  $1 \neq -1$ .

(b) If  $g$  were surjective, it would mean that every  $y \in [0, \infty)$  could be attained as an output of  $g$ . This cannot possibly be the case, however: since every  $x \in [0, \infty)$  satisfies  $x < x + 1$ , we have  $\frac{x}{x+1} < 1$ . Thus, we will never be able to output values larger than 1, so  $g$  is *not* surjective.

[**Note:** The input  $x$  that produces a given output  $y \in [0, \infty)$  is

$$x = \frac{y}{1 - y}.$$



This quantity, however, isn't defined when  $y = 1$  and is negative (i.e., not in the domain) when  $y > 1$ .]

To see that  $g$  is injective, consider two equal outputs,  $g(x_1) = g(x_2)$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned}g(x_1) = g(x_2) &\implies \frac{x_1}{x_1 + 1} = \frac{x_2}{x_2 + 1} \\ &\implies x_1(x_2 + 1) = x_2(x_1 + 1) && \text{(cross multiplying)} \\ &\implies x_1x_2 + x_1 = x_1x_2 + x_2 && \text{(expanding)} \\ &\implies x_1 = x_2 && \text{(cancelling common terms)}\end{aligned}$$

Since we have just shown that equal outputs must come from equal inputs,  $g$  is injective.

(c) To see that  $h$  is surjective, let  $y$  be some element of  $\mathbb{R}$ , the codomain. We will consider two cases:

- If  $y$  is rational, then so too is  $x = \frac{y}{2}$ . Hence

$$h\left(\frac{y}{2}\right) = 2\left(\frac{y}{2}\right) = y.$$

- If  $y$  is irrational, then so too is  $x = \frac{y}{3}$  (for if  $\frac{y}{3}$  were instead rational, then  $3\left(\frac{y}{3}\right) = y$  would also be rational, which we know is not the case.) Hence

$$h\left(\frac{y}{3}\right) = 3\left(\frac{y}{3}\right) = y.$$

The above argument shows that any rational or irrational number (i.e., any real number) can be produced as an output of  $h$ . Therefore,  $h$  is surjective.

To see that  $h$  is injective, suppose we have two equal outputs,  $h(x_1) = h(x_2)$ . Since  $h$  produces rational outputs from rational inputs and irrational outputs from irrational inputs, it must be the case that either  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are both rational, or  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are both irrational. We consider these cases separately:

- If  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are rational, then

$$h(x_1) = h(x_2) \implies 2x_1 = 2x_2 \implies x_1 = x_2.$$



- If  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are irrational, then

$$h(x_1) = h(x_2) \implies 3x_1 = 3x_2 \implies x_1 = x_2.$$

In either case, we see that equal outputs must come from equal inputs, hence  $h$  is injective.

2. For each pair of sets  $A$  and  $B$  shown below, prove that  $|A| = |B|$  by finding a bijection  $f : A \rightarrow B$ .

(a)  $A = \{3n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} = \{3, 6, 9, 12, \dots\}$

$$B = \{4m : m \in \mathbb{N}\} = \{4, 8, 12, 16, \dots\}$$

(b)  $A = \{2n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{\dots, -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, \dots\}$

$$B = \{m^2 : m \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{0, 1, 4, 9, \dots\}$$

(c)  $A = [0, 100]$

$$B = [0, 1]$$

(d)  $A = (0, 1)$

$$B = \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

(e)  $A = \mathbb{R}$

$$B = (0, \infty)$$

*Solution:*

(a) Consider the matching of elements of  $A$  to elements of  $B$  shown below:

$A$		3	6	9	12	...
		↓	↓	↓	↓	...
$B$		4	8	12	16	...



This relationship is given by the function

$$f : A \rightarrow B, f(3n) = 4n.$$

This function is surjective, for if  $4m$  is a typical element of  $B$ , then  $3m \in A$  and  $f(3m) = 4m$ . To see that  $f$  is injective, consider two equal outputs,  $f(3n_1) = f(3n_2)$ . We have

$$f(3n_1) = f(3n_2) \implies 4n_1 = 4n_2 \implies n_1 = n_2.$$

Thus,  $f$  is bijective, and hence  $|A| = |B|$ .

- (b) Our strategy will be to send the non-negative even integers to the even perfect squares and the negative even integers to the odd perfect squares. This relationship can be described by the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{c|cccccccc} A & 0 & -2 & 2 & -4 & 4 & -6 & 6 & \cdots \\ & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \cdots \\ B & 0 & 1 & 4 & 9 & 16 & 25 & 36 & \cdots \end{array}$$

If you'd like an explicit formula for this function, consider

$$f : A \rightarrow B, f(2n) = \begin{cases} (2n)^2 & \text{if } 2n \geq 0, \\ (2n + 1)^2 & \text{if } 2n < 0. \end{cases}$$

One can show as in (a) that  $f$  is both surjective and injective, though the reasoning is a bit more involved. Hopefully the diagram presented above will convince you that  $f$  is indeed bijective.

- (c) This part is interesting, as the interval  $[0, 100]$  appears to be *much* larger than the interval  $[0, 1]$ . However, consider the function

$$f : A \rightarrow B, f(x) = \frac{x}{100}.$$

To see that  $f$  is surjective, let  $y$  be an element of  $[0, 1]$ . Since  $0 \leq y \leq 1$ , we have



$100 \cdot 0 \leq 100 \cdot y \leq 100 \cdot 1$  and hence  $100y \in [0, 100]$ . Furthermore,

$$f(100y) = \frac{100y}{100} = y.$$

Thus,  $f$  is indeed surjective. It's also not hard to see that  $f$  is injective:

$$f(x_1) = f(x_2) \implies \frac{x_1}{100} = \frac{x_2}{100} \implies x_1 = x_2.$$

Thus,  $f$  is bijective, and hence  $|A| = |B|$ .

- (d) The strategy here will be similar to the strategy for (c), but we will need to both stretch and shift our domain. Consider the function

$$f : A \rightarrow B, f(x) = \pi x - \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

The idea here is that multiplying by  $\pi$  will stretch the interval  $(0, 1)$  into the interval  $(0, \pi)$ ; and then subtracting  $\pi/2$  will shift the interval  $(0, \pi)$  to the interval  $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ .

To see that  $f$  is surjective, consider a value  $y$  in  $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$  and let  $x = \frac{y + \frac{\pi}{2}}{\pi}$ . Note that

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{\pi}{2} < y < \frac{\pi}{2} &\implies 0 < y + \frac{\pi}{2} < \pi && \text{(adding } \frac{\pi}{2} \text{ to all sides)} \\ &\implies 0 < \frac{y + \frac{\pi}{2}}{\pi} < 1 && \text{(dividing by } \pi) \\ &\implies 0 < x < 1. \end{aligned}$$

So  $x \in (0, 1)$ , and we have

$$f(x) = \pi \left( \frac{y + \frac{\pi}{2}}{\pi} \right) - \frac{\pi}{2} = \left( y + \frac{\pi}{2} \right) - \frac{\pi}{2} = y.$$

Thus,  $f$  is surjective. The argument for injectivity is very similar to the argument in (c). We conclude that  $f$  is bijective, and therefore  $|A| = |B|$ .

- (e) It turns out that almost any exponential function  $f(x) = a^x$  will work here. We'll consider the function

$$f : A \rightarrow B, f(x) = e^x.$$



Since  $e^x > 0$  for all  $x$ , this function does indeed output values in  $(0, \infty)$ . To see that it is surjective, note that if  $y \in (0, \infty)$ , then  $x = \ln(y)$  is a real number and  $f(x) = e^{\ln(y)} = y$ . To see that  $f$  is injective, note that if we have equal outputs  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ , then

$$f(x_1) = f(x_2) \implies e^{x_1} = e^{x_2} \implies \ln(e^{x_1}) = \ln(e^{x_2}) \implies x_1 = x_2.$$

Thus,  $f$  is bijective, hence  $|A| = |B|$ .

3. [Exercise 1 from the notes] Let's return to the example of the Hilbert Hotel, where we begin with every room occupied by a guest. Suppose that a countably infinite number of buses arrive, each carrying a countably infinite numbers of guests. Devise a strategy to rearrange the guests in the Hilbert Hotel to make room for all these new guests, or argue that this is impossible.

**Hint:** Think about how we showed that the set of rational numbers,  $\mathbb{Q}$ , is countable.

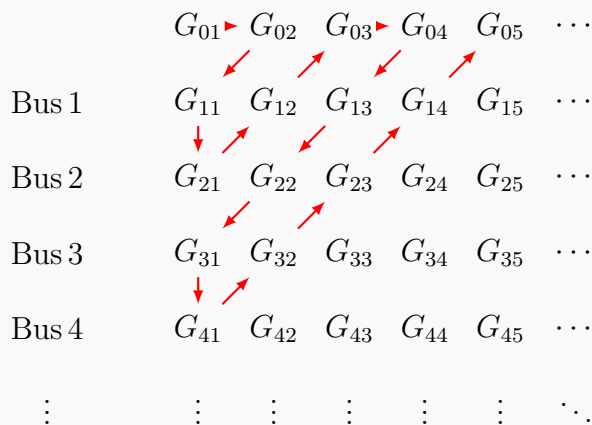
*Solution:* Enumerate the existing guests as  $G_{01}, G_{02}, G_{03}, G_{04}, \dots$ . Next, if we assign natural numbers to each of our infinitely many buses and enumerate the guests in bus  $n$  as  $G_{n1}, G_{n2}, G_{n3}, G_{n4}, \dots$ , we can arrange all of the guests in an infinite table, just as we did when exploring the cardinality of  $\mathbb{Q}_+$ :

	$G_{01}$	$G_{02}$	$G_{03}$	$G_{04}$	$G_{05}$	$\dots$
Bus 1	$G_{11}$	$G_{12}$	$G_{13}$	$G_{14}$	$G_{15}$	$\dots$
Bus 2	$G_{21}$	$G_{22}$	$G_{23}$	$G_{24}$	$G_{25}$	$\dots$
Bus 3	$G_{31}$	$G_{32}$	$G_{33}$	$G_{34}$	$G_{35}$	$\dots$
Bus 4	$G_{41}$	$G_{42}$	$G_{43}$	$G_{44}$	$G_{45}$	$\dots$
$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\ddots$

We can now use the same strategy as when listing the elements of  $\mathbb{Q}_+$ : we can thread through this table diagonally, starting at the top left entry. Note that unlike in the



example with  $\mathbb{Q}_+$ , this table has no repetition (as all of our guests are distinct people).



This gives us the following one-to-one correspondence between the guests and the rooms in the hotel:

Guests	$G_{01}$	$G_{02}$	$G_{11}$	$G_{21}$	$G_{12}$	$G_{03}$	$G_{04}$	$G_{13}$	$G_{22}$	$G_{31}$	$\dots$
	$\downarrow$	$\downarrow$	$\downarrow$	$\downarrow$	$\downarrow$	$\downarrow$	$\downarrow$	$\downarrow$	$\downarrow$	$\downarrow$	$\dots$
Rooms	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	$\dots$

4. Let  $A$  and  $B$  be sets. We say that  $A$  is a **subset** of  $B$ , and write  $A \subseteq B$ , if every element of  $A$  is also an element of  $B$ . For instance,  $\{0, 2\} \subseteq \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$  since  $0 \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$  and  $2 \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ . Another example:

$$\mathbb{Z}_n \subseteq \mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R}.$$

- (a) Fill in the blanks using the words **countable** and **uncountable** to make each statement true. You can mix-and-match the words as needed and use each word multiple times. Afterwards, explain why your completed statement is true.
- i. If  $A \subseteq B$  and  $A$  is \_\_\_\_\_, then  $B$  is \_\_\_\_\_.
  - ii. If  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B$  is \_\_\_\_\_, then  $A$  is \_\_\_\_\_.
- (b) Show that the set of all prime numbers is countable. (In fact, it is countably infinite.)
- (c) Show that the set of real numbers,  $\mathbb{R}$ , is uncountable.



*Solution:*

(a) For (i), the correct statement should read:

If  $A \subseteq B$  and  $A$  is **uncountable**, then  $B$  is **uncountable**.

The rationale is that if  $A$  is uncountable, then there are so many elements in this set that they cannot all possibly be contained in any infinite list. But note that any infinite list of the elements of  $B$ —the larger set—would contain within it a list of the elements of  $A$ , which we've assumed cannot exist. Therefore, the elements of  $B$  also cannot be expressed in an infinite list, hence  $B$  is uncountable.

For (ii), the correct statement should read:

If  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B$  is **countable**, then  $A$  is **countable**.

The rationale is that if  $B$ —the larger set—is countable, then its elements can be written in a (possibly infinite) list. Within this list we will find a list of the elements of  $A$ . Since the elements of  $A$  can be listed,  $A$  is countable.

- (b) Note that every prime number is a positive integer, hence the set of prime numbers is a subset of  $\mathbb{N}$ . Since  $\mathbb{N}$  is countable, by part a(ii) above, so too is the set of all prime numbers.
- (c) Note that  $(0, 1)$  is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Since we have shown that  $(0, 1)$  is uncountable, by part a(i) above, so too is  $\mathbb{R}$ .

5. Let  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  be sets. Show that if  $|A| = |B|$  and  $|B| = |C|$ , then  $|A| = |C|$ .

**Note:** Does this look obvious to you? If so, remember that we're not really dealing with our usual notion of equality for real numbers —  $|A|$ ,  $|B|$ , and  $|C|$  represent (possibly infinite) cardinalities. To get started, think about what it means for two sets to have the same cardinality. What exactly needs to be shown here?





*Solution:* Recall that “ $|A| = |B|$ ” means that there exists a bijection  $f : A \rightarrow B$ . So we need to show that if there exist bijections  $f : A \rightarrow B$  and  $g : B \rightarrow C$ , then there also exists a bijection  $h : A \rightarrow C$ .

Let's assume we have bijections  $f : A \rightarrow B$  and  $g : B \rightarrow C$ . Consider the function

$$h : A \rightarrow C, \quad h(x) = g(f(x)).$$

(This function is known as the **composition** of  $f$  and  $g$ , and is often written as  $g \circ f$ .) We claim that  $h$  is a bijection.

To see that  $h$  is surjective, let  $c$  be an element of  $C$ . Since  $g : B \rightarrow C$  is a bijection and hence surjective, there exists some  $b \in B$  such that  $g(b) = c$ . Likewise, since  $f : A \rightarrow B$  is bijective and hence surjective, there exists some  $a \in A$  such that  $f(a) = b$ . Therefore,

$$h(a) = g(f(a)) = g(b) = c.$$

Since any  $c \in C$  can be obtained as an output of  $h$ , the function  $h$  is indeed surjective.

To see that  $h$  is injective, suppose we have equal outputs  $h(a_1) = h(a_2)$ . We will show that  $a_1 = a_2$ . Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned} h(a_1) = h(a_2) &\implies g(f(a_1)) = g(f(a_2)) \\ &\implies f(a_1) = f(a_2) && \text{(since } g \text{ is bijective, hence injective)} \\ &\implies a_1 = a_2 && \text{(since } f \text{ is bijective, hence injective)} \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $h$  is injective, and this proves that  $h$  is a bijection.

Consequently, if  $|A| = |B|$  and  $|B| = |C|$ , then  $|A| = |C|$ , as required.

6. Show that  $|\mathbb{R}| = |(0, 1)|$ .

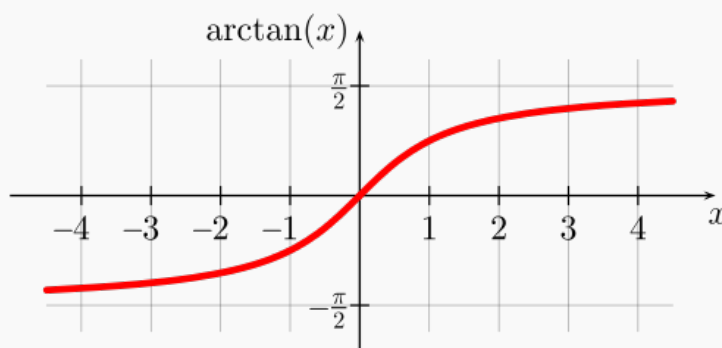
**Hint:** There are a few different ways to do this. One approach I can think of involves a trig function and some of the other problems on this worksheet.



*Solution:* Consider the function

$$f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right), \quad f(x) = \arctan(x).$$

(Perhaps you've seen this function written as  $f(x) = \tan^{-1}(x)$  – these are two different ways of describing the same function!) The graph of  $f$  is shown below:



This function accepts real numbers as inputs and can output any value in  $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ . The function is therefore surjective. For injectivity, note that for any given output ( $y$ -value) in  $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ , there is only one input ( $x$ -value) in  $\mathbb{R}$  that will produce this output. This can be verified more precisely: since  $\tan(x)$  and  $\arctan(x)$  are inverses of each other, we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_1) = f(x_2) &\implies \arctan(x_1) = \arctan(x_2) \\ &\implies \tan(\arctan(x_1)) = \tan(\arctan(x_2)) \\ &\implies x_1 = x_2. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $f$  is injective.

We've just argued that  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$  is a bijection, and therefore  $|\mathbb{R}| = |(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})|$ . By problem 2(d), we also know that  $|(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})| = |(0, 1)|$ . Thus, since  $|\mathbb{R}| = |(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})|$  and  $|(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})| = |(0, 1)|$ , problem 5 tells us that  $|\mathbb{R}| = |(0, 1)|$ , as desired.

Alternatively, if you'd like an explicit bijection  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (0, 1)$ , consider the function

$$f(x) = \frac{\arctan(x)}{\pi} + \frac{1}{2}.$$

(Think about how I might have come up with this function!)



7. If you've seen the 2014 film *The Fault in Our Stars* or read the 2012 John Green novel of the same name, you may have encountered the following curious quote on the concept of infinity:

*“There are infinite numbers between 0 and 1. There's .1 and .12 and .112 and an infinite collection of others. Of course, there is a bigger infinite set of numbers between 0 and 2, or between 0 and a million. Some infinities are bigger than other infinities.”*

Analyze this statement using what we've learned about cardinality. What part of this statement is correct? What part of this statement is incorrect? Explain.

*Solution:* We have seen that different sizes of infinity do exist. For example, the cardinality of  $(0, 1)$  describes a larger infinity than the cardinality of  $\mathbb{N}$ . So the statement, “Some infinities are bigger than other infinities” is true.

What's not true, however, is the claim that “there is a bigger infinite set of numbers between 0 and 2 or between 0 and a million” than between 0 and 1. We showed in problem 2(c) that the intervals  $[0, 1]$  and  $[0, 100]$  have the same cardinality, and very similar arguments can be used to show that

$$|[0, 1]| = |[0, 2]| = |[0, 1\,000\,000]|.$$