#### Subsets of Countable Sets

A function  $f: A \rightarrow B$  is called a *one-to-one correspondence* (between A and B) if it is one-to-one and onto.

Theorem.

Every subset of a countable set is countable.

*Proof.* It is sufficient to show that subsets of P are countable. Let A be a subset of P.

If A is finite it is countable by definition.

Suppose A is infinite. We define a one-to-one correspondence f from  ${\bf P}$  to A by recursion:

- 1. Let f(1) be the smallest element of A.
- 2. If n > 1, then f(n) is defined to be the smallest element of  $A \setminus \{f(1), \dots, f(n-1)\}$ .

It can easily be verified that f is one-to-one and onto.  $\blacksquare$ 

Note that the above proof uses the so-called *well-ordering principle* of the natural numbers:

Every non-empty subset of N has a smallest element.

## Cartesian Products of Countable Sets

Theorem.

The set  $P \times P$  is countable.

Sketch of proof. We define a one-to-one correspondence between P and  $P \times P$  by "enumerating" all ordered pairs of positive natural numbers as follows:

```
(1,1) (1,2) (1,3) (1,4) ... (2,1) (2,2) (2,3) (2,4) ... (3,1) (3,2) (3,3) (3,4) ... (4,1) (4,2) (4,3) (4,4) ...
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#### Corollary

The Cartesian product of two countable sets is countable.

*Proof.* Let A and B be countable sets. Thus there are one-to-one correspondences f between A and P and g between B and P. But then the function h defined by h(x,y)=(f(x),g(y)) is a one-to-one correspondence between  $A\times B$  and  $P\times P$ .

It follows immediately from the definition of countability that if there is a one-to-one correspondence between two sets X and Y, then one set is countable if and only if the other is countable.

We already know that  $P \times P$  is countable. Consequently  $A \times B$  is also countable.  $\blacksquare$ 

### **Examples of Countable Sets**

The set of integers  $\mathbf{Z}$  is countable. A suitable bijection from  $\mathbf{Z}$  to  $\mathbf{P}$  is the function f, defined by:

$$f(n) = \begin{cases} 2n+1 & \text{if } n \ge 0\\ -2n & \text{if } n < 0 \end{cases}$$

Surprisingly, the set of rational numbers  ${f Q}$  is also countable.

*Proof.* The set of integers  $\mathbf{Z}$  is countable. Hence by the above theorem, the set  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$  is also countable.

But the set of rational numbers  $\mathbf{Q}$  is a subset of  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ , and therefore is also countable.  $\blacksquare$ 

#### Countability of Formal Languages

Theorem.

The set  $\Sigma^*$  of all strings over an alphabet  $\Sigma$  is countable.

Proof. We use the fact that

$$\Sigma^* = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \Sigma^k,$$

where  $\Sigma^k$  denotes the set of all strings of length k.

Since all sets  $\Sigma^k$  are countable, there are corresponding one-to-one functions  $f_k: \Sigma^k \to \mathbf{N}$ .

We define a function  $f: \Sigma^* \to \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$  by:

$$f(w) = (f_{|w|}(w), |w|).$$

The function f is one-to-one. (If f(w) = f(v), then |w| = |v| and  $f_{|w|}(w) = f_{|v|}(v) = f_{|w|}(v)$ . But since  $f_{|w|}$  is one-to-one, we may conclude that w = v.)

By the theorems we proved previously,  $\Sigma^*$  is countable.

Note that the proof does not depend on the assumption that  $\Sigma$  is finite, but shows that the statement is valid for infinite sets  $\Sigma$  as well.

#### The Diagonalization Principle

We next discuss a mathematical proof technique that has important applications in the theory of computation.

The Diagonalization Principle.

Let R be a binary relation on a set A, and let D, the diagonal set for R, be  $\{a \in A : (a,a) \notin R\}$ . Furthermore, for each  $a \in A$ , let  $R_a$  be the set  $\{b \in A : (a,b) \in R\}$ .

Then the set D is distinct from each set  $R_a$ .

We illustrate this principle by an example.

### Example of Diagonalization

For example, let R be the binary relation

$$\{(a,b),(a,d),(b,b),(b,c),(c,c),(d,b),(d,c),(d,e),(e,e)\}.$$

This relation can be represented by a table:

	а	b	С	d	е
а		X		X	
b		Х	Х		
С			Х		
d		Х	Х		X
е					Χ

We have

$$R_a = \{b, d\}$$
 $R_b = \{b, c\}$ 
 $R_c = \{c\}$ 
 $R_d = \{b, c, e\}$ 
 $R_e = \{e\}$ 

and  $D = \{a, d\}.$ 

Note that these sets correspond to the rows in the above table. The set D is represented by a sequence of boxes

that is different from each row in the above table.

# Application of Diagonalization: Uncountable Sets

Theorem.

The powerset of N is uncountable.

*Proof.* We prove the theorem by contradiction. Suppose  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{N})$  is countable. Then there is a one-to-one correspondence f between  $\mathbf{N}$  and  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{N})$ .

We first define a binary relation

$$R = \{(i, j) \in \mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{N} : j \in f(i)\}.$$

The set  $R_i$ , as defined in the statement of the diagonalization principle, is equal to the set f(i). In other words, each subset of N is equal to one of the sets  $R_i$ .

Now consider the diagonal set for R,

$$D = \{ n \in \mathbf{N} : n \notin R_n \}.$$

By the diagonalization principle, the set D is distinct from each set  $R_i$ .

But D is a subset of  $\mathbb{N}$ , and since f is a one-to-one correspondence between  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$ , we must have  $D = R_k$  for some k.

In short, the assumption that  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{N})$  is countable leads to a contradiction. Thus we have proved that  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{N})$  is not countable.  $\blacksquare$