

- We start our discussion about the size of a set. It has some purpose in connection to description of languages.
- A set is finite, if it has finite number of elements and its size is the number of its elements
- The size of A = {a, b, c, d} is 4, the size of the set of all prime numbers between 1 to 100 is 25 etc.

- The size of a finite set A is larger than the size of a finite set B, if A has more elements than B.
- But how do we compare two infinite sets e.g. the set of natural numbers, N = {0, 1, 2, ···} and the set of integers, Z = {···, -1, 0, 1, ···}?



- In an obvious sense the set of integers is larger than the set of natural numbers, as $\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{Z}$.
- But in some other sense we can establish a one-to-one correspondence between the elements of these two sets.



We have a bijection $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z}$,

$$f(n) = \begin{cases} (n-1)/2 & \text{if } n \text{ is odd,} \\ -n/2 & \text{if } n \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

The set of integers is equinumerous to the set of natural numbers $(\mathbb{N} \simeq \mathbb{Z})$.



- Similarly we can establish a bijection
 between the set of integers (Z) and the set of
 rational numbers (Q).
- We have a bijection $f_1 : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$, $f_1(n) = (a + 1, b + 1)$, where $n = 2^a(2b + 1)$ and a, b are non-negative integers.



- (1,1)1(1,2)3(1,3)5...(2,1)2(2,2)6(2,3)10...(3,1)4(3,2)12(3,3)20...(4,1)8(4,2)24(4,3)40...
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The functions f and f_1 can be used to construct a bijection from $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$.

 $(f \times id_{\mathbb{N}}) \circ f_1 : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}.$

As an example

 $(f \times id_{\mathbb{N}})((f_1(40)) = (f \times id_{\mathbb{N}})(4,3) = (-2,3),$ as $40 = 2^3(2 \times 2 + 1)$, so $f_1(40) = (3+1,2+1) = (4,3)$, and f(4) = -1.

- As $(f \times id_{\mathbb{N}}) \circ f_1$ is a bijection between \mathbb{N} and $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$, its inverse is also a bijection and therefore is an injective function from $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$.
- According to the SchröderBernstein theorem, if there are injective functions f: A → B and g: B → A, there is a bijection between A and B i.e. A ≃ B.

- The set of rational numbers $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$. An injective function from $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ gives an injective function from $\mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{N}$.
- In the other direction, an injective function from $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Q}$ is $n \mapsto (n, 1)$ i.e. n/1.
- So by SchröderBernstein theorem there is a bijection from $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Q}$ i.e. they are equinumerous $(\mathbb{N} \simeq \mathbb{Q})$.

- The obvious question is are all infinite sets equinumerous?
- The famous theorem of Cantor^a gives the negative answer.
- No set is equinumerous to its power set i.e. there cannot be a bijection from a set $A \rightarrow \mathcal{P}A$.

^aGeorg Ferdinand Ludwig Philipp Cantor, German mathematician, invented set theory, 1845-1918

- The statement is trivially true if $A = \emptyset$ as its power set $\{\emptyset\}$ has one element.
- If the A is non-empty, there is an obvious injective function from $A \to \mathcal{P}A : a \mapsto \{a\}$.
- So the actual claim of Cantor's theorem is that there cannot be any surjective function from A → PA.

- The proof of the theorem is by contradiction
 we assume that there is a surjective function g : A → PA and show that it leads to a contradiction.
- Note that for each a ∈ A, the image g(a) is a subset of A, an element of the power set of A.

- Consider the subset B = {a ∈ A : a ∉ g(a)} of A. The subset B is the collection of all elements of A such that they are not element of their images under g.
- As $B \in \mathcal{P}A$ and g is a surjective map, there is an element $a_0 \in A$ so that $g(a_0) = B$.
- The question is whether a_0 is an element of B.

- If we assume $a_0 \in B = g(a_0)$, we have to conclude that $a_0 \notin B$, by definition of B.
- But if we assume $a_0 \notin B = g(a_0)$, we have to conclude that $a_0 \in B$, by definition of B.
- So it is a contradiction a₀ ∈ B if and only if a₀ ∉ B.
- Hence the assumption that $g: A \to \mathcal{P}A$ is a surjective map is false.



In a more concrete terms we shall demonstrate that

- the set of natural numbers N is not
 equinumerous to the collection of all
 functions from N to itself, and
- the set of natural numbers N is not
 equinumerous to the collection of the set of
 real numbers ℝ.



This shows that *PA* is equinumerous to all functions from N to {1,2} ({1,2}^N).

- So \mathbb{N} is not equinumerous $\{1,2\}^{\mathbb{N}}$.
- Again all functions from \mathbb{N} to $\{1,2\}$ $(\{1,2\}^{\mathbb{N}})$ is a subset of all functions from \mathbb{N} to \mathbb{N} $(\mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}})$.
- So \mathbb{N} cannot be equinumerous to $\mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}}$.
- In fact it is not difficult to show that \mathbb{N}^k is also not equinumerous to $\mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}}$, where $k \in \mathbb{N}$.



- This result is very important in connection to effectively definable or computable functions from N^k → N, where k is a positive integer.
- There are functions that cannot be effectively defined.

- To prove that $\mathbb{N} \not\simeq \mathbb{R}$ we first show that the interval $(0,1) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is equinumerous to \mathbb{R} .
- There is a bijection $\tan: (-\pi/2, \pi/2) \to (-\infty, \infty).$
- Also there is a bijection $f_2: (0,1) \rightarrow (-\pi/2,\pi/2): x \mapsto \frac{\pi(2x-1)}{2}.$
- So $\tan \circ f_2$ is a bijection from $(0, 1) \to \mathbb{R}$, i.e. $(0, 1) \simeq \mathbb{R}$.

- Finally we demonstrate that $\mathbb{N} \not\simeq (0, 1)$. The proof is again by contradiction, well known as diagonalization.
- Suppose there is a bijective map

 h: N → (0, 1). So for every natural number i
 there is a non-zero proper fraction
 h(i) ∈ (0, 1) and that exhausts all such
 fractions.

- Each h(i) can be written as an infinite decimal fraction, $0.h_{i1}h_{i2}\cdots h_{ij}\cdots$, where h_{ij} is a decimal digit.
- We construct a fraction $d = 0.d_1d_2\cdots d_i\cdots$ as follows.

$$d_i = \begin{cases} 4 & \text{if } h_{ii} = 5\\ 5 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- The fraction d is not equal to any h(i) (by construction) and this contradicts our assumption that h is a bijection.
- So $\mathbb{N} \not\simeq \mathbb{R}$. It is possible to show that $\mathcal{P}\mathbb{N} \simeq \mathbb{R}$.

- A set A is called finite if there is $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $A \simeq \{1, \cdots, n\}$.
- A set A is called countably infinite if $A \simeq \mathbb{N}$.
- A set A is called countable if it is either finite or countably infinite.
- A set A is called uncountable if it is not countable.

- Any language has a finite set of primitive symbols known as the alphabet of the language.
- The alphabet of decimal number system is {0,1,...,9,+,-,.}. The English language alphabet has more symbols including a, ..., z, A, ..., Z, punctuation marks etc.

- For our discussion we shall often take small size of alphabet e.g. {0,1}, {a, b, c}. Symbols like Σ, Γ are used to denote an alphabet.
- A finite sequence (possibly empty) of the elements (called letters) of the alphabet Σ is called a finite word.
- Similarly an infinite sequence of letters is called an infinite word.



- Let our alphabet be $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$. Finite words over Σ are ε (empty word), a, b, aa, aba, \cdots .
- A finite word $x = \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n$, where $\sigma_i \in \Sigma$ is of length n and we write |x| = n.
- The word x may be viewed as an element of Σ^n or a map $x : \{1, \dots, n\} \to \Sigma$, where $x(i) = \sigma_i$.

- Similarly infinite words over the alphabet
 Σ = {a, b} is an infinite sequence of a's and
 b's e.g. u = aabaabaabaab.....
- It may be viewed as a map $u : \mathbb{N} \to \Sigma$, where $u(i) = \sigma_i \in \Sigma$.



- All finite words of length n are elements of Σ^n . So the collection of all finite words over Σ is $\bigcup_{n\geq 0} \Sigma^n$.
- This set is called Σ*. If Σ = {a, b}, then first few elements Σ* are {ε, a, b, aa, ab, ba, bb, aaa, … }.



- The collection of infinite words or ω -words over an alphabet Σ is denoted by Σ^{ω} .
- If there is only one element in the alphabet, then there is only one element in Σ^{ω} !



- If there are k symbols in Σ, then words of Σ* may be viewed as numerals of base-(k+1) number system.
- As an example, let $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$. We may view $a \mapsto 1$ and $b \mapsto 2$, and $\Sigma^* = \{\varepsilon, a, b, aa, ab, ba, bb, aaa, \cdots\}$ as $\{0, 1, 2, 11, 12, 21, 22, 111, \cdots\}$, numerals of base-3 number system.





We consider languages of finite words over Σ i.e. the subsets of Σ^* .

As the size of Σ* is countably infinite, the size of its power set i.e. the size of the collection of all possible languages of finite words over Σ is uncountably infinite.



- The question is how to give an effective description of a language.
- If the language is a finite collection of finite words, we can prepare a list of its words. This is possible in principle.
- But if the language is an infinite collection, or any collection of ω-words, we need some formalism to describe them.

- One simple but important need is to test membership of a word in a language, $x \stackrel{?}{\in} L$, where $x \in \Sigma^*$ and $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$.
- We may have to test whether a positive integer is a prime, or a undirected graph is connected, or a text is a valid C program.

- In fact any 'precisely defined' decision problem can be formulated as a membership problem of some language. So it is important to describe a language.
- But any description will use some alphabet Γ^{a} .
- A description of a language $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ is a sequence or a finite word over Γ .

^aThe alphabet of the language being described (object language) is Σ .



- As size of Γ* is countably infinite, the number of valid descriptions are countable.
- But the size of the collection of languages over Σ, PΣ*, is uncountable.
- So there is no surjective map from $\Gamma^* \to \mathcal{P}\Sigma^*$.

