Logic, Computability and Incompleteness

Cardinality, Enumerability, Diagonalization

- The **cardinality** of a set is a measure of its 'size' in terms of numbers of elements. For example, the set $\Gamma = \{0,1,2\}$ contains 3 elements, and therefore Γ has a cardinality of 3.
- Two sets have the <u>same</u> cardinality iff they are 'equinumeros'.
- Equinumerosity is defined in terms of a 1-1 correspondence between two sets, where a 1-1 correspondence is in turn defined in terms of certain types of 'mappings' or **functions**.
- In brief, a function is an assignment of *values* to *arguments*, where the <u>domain</u> of the function is the set to which its arguments or 'inputs' belong, and the <u>range</u> of the function is the set to which its values or 'outputs' belong.

- A function f with the set Γ as domain and the set Δ as range, written $f \colon \Gamma \dashrightarrow \Delta$, is a **bijection** (also called a 1-1 correspondence between Γ and Δ) iff
 - (1) $\forall x, z \in \Gamma$, if $x \neq z$, then $f(x) \neq f(z)$ (i.e. f is 1-1, or *injective*), and
 - (2) $\forall y \in \Delta$, $\exists x \in \Gamma$: y = f(x) (i.e. f is onto or surjective).
- Two sets Δ and Γ have the **same cardinality** iff there exists a bijection $f : \Gamma \bullet \rightarrow \Delta$.
- The cardinal number of Γ will be written as $|\Gamma|$.
- If Γ and Δ have the same cardinality, then $|\Gamma| = |\Delta|$.

- Π is a subset of Γ , written $\Pi \subseteq \Gamma$, iff $\forall x (x \in \Pi \to x \in \Gamma)$.
- By failure of the antecedent condition in this definition, the empty set Ø is a subset of every set, and obviously every set Γ is a subset of itself.
- Π is a **proper subset** of Γ , written $\Pi \subseteq \Gamma$, iff $\Pi \subseteq \Gamma$ and $\Pi \neq \Gamma$
- Γ has **greater cardinality** than Δ , written $|\Gamma| > |\Delta|$, iff
 - (i) there is no bijection $g : \Delta \longrightarrow \Gamma$ and
 - (ii) for some proper subset $\Sigma \subset \Gamma$, there is a bijection $f: \Sigma \longrightarrow \Delta$

- All sets have either <u>finite</u> or <u>infinite</u> cardinality.
 A simple characteristic which distinguishes the two is that a set Γ is **infinite** iff there exits a bijection *f* : Γ •→Σ for some proper subset Σ ⊂ Γ.
- For example, the set N of natural numbers (= $\{0,1,2,3,...\}$) is **infinite**, since the set of squares of natural numbers is a proper subset of N, and the function $f(x) = x^2$ is a bijection between N and the set of squares of natural numbers.
- The *smallest* infinite cardinality is that of the natural numbers. Any set with this cardinality is called **denumerable**, and has cardinal number \aleph_0 .

- A **countable** set is defined as either <u>finite</u> or <u>denumerable</u> and an **uncountable** set is **neither**.
- The power set of Γ , written $\mathcal{F}(\Gamma)$, is defined as the set of all subsets of Γ .
- Thus \emptyset and Γ form the two endpoints of the spectrum for membership in $\mathcal{F}(\Gamma)$, and all other members of the power set fall between these two extremes.
- As a simple example, let $\Gamma = \{0,1,2\}$.
- Then $\mathcal{F}(\Gamma) = \{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{0,1\}, \{0,2\}, \{1,2\}, \{0,1,2\}\}$

- Cantor's Theorem (1891): The power set of any set always has greater cardinality than the set itself.
 - A brief proof of this theorem will be given in the section on diagonalization.
- If it is assumed that there is an infinite set, and that the power set of a set always exists,
 - then an **infinite hierarchy** of ever increasing cardinality is induced.
- Power set cardinality is governed by the general equation that for any set Γ :
 - $|\mathcal{F}(\Gamma)| = 2^{|\Gamma|}$ This relation is easy to verify for finite sets.

• Cantor's Theorem, in combination with the fact that **N** is denumerable, immediately yields the result that

 $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{N})$ is uncountable

this will also be proved (independently) in the section on diagonalization.

- The present section will end by mentioning a few related mathematical facts and conjectures.
- Even though the natural numbers N are not dense, while the rational numbers Q are, the set of rational numbers Q is still denumerable.

Thus
$$|\mathbf{Q}| = |\mathbf{N}| = \aleph_0$$

- However, the set \mathcal{R} of real numbers is <u>uncountable</u>, and furthermore it is provable that $|\mathcal{R}| = |\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{N})|$.
- The above identity relation, in combination with the exponential equation governing power set cardinality, yields the result that $|\mathcal{R}| = 2^{\aleph_0}$
- Cantor's Continuum Hypothesis (1878): there is no cardinal number greater than \aleph_0 and less than 2^{\aleph_0} .
- If this conjecture is true, then there is no 'missing' level of infinity between

| N | and $| \mathcal{P}(N) |$.

- Establishing the truth or falsity of the Continuum Hypothesis (CH) is the first of Hilbert's 23 outstanding problems for 20th century mathematics.
- In 1938 Kurt Gödel proved that CH is consistent with the axioms of standard (ZFC) set theory and in 1963 Paul Cohen proved that the *negation* of CH is also consistent with ZFC.
- Hence CH is **logically independent** of standard set theory: it cannot be proved or disproved on the basis of these axioms.

- Intuitively, an enumerable set is one whose members can all be 'arranged' in a single list.
- Clearly every finite set is enumerable.
- For infinite sets, an acceptable list must be such that each item eventually appears as the nth entry, for some finite n.
- Thus for the set **P** of positive integers (= $\mathbb{N} \{0\}$),
 - 1,2,3,4,5, ... is an acceptable list, while
 - 1,3,5, ..., 2,4,6, ... is *not*

because in the latter case, it takes infinitely many entries to get to the first even number.

- In more precise terms, an enumeration of a set Γ is equivalent to an *onto* function $f: \mathbf{P} \longrightarrow \Gamma$. The function f must be *onto* so that every member of Γ appears at least once in the list.
- It is not required that f be 1-1, and hence an enumeration can be **redundant** (since if f is not 1-1, then at least one item $b \in \Gamma$ will occur at least twice on the list).
- In principle this is not a problem, because redundancies can be systematically eliminated by reviewing the (finitely many) entries preceding any given item on the list and deleting it if it has already appeared.

- It is also permissible to have *gaps* in the list, since in principle it is always possible to close these gaps.
- A gap in the list means that f is <u>undefined</u> on the respective argument $n \in \mathbf{P}$, in which case f is a partial function on \mathbf{P} .
- For example, the set **E** of even positive integers is very naturally enumerated by the function
- $h: \mathbf{P} \cdot \rightarrow \mathbf{E}$ such that h(n) = 2n, which defines the non-gappy list 2,4,6,8, ...
- However, **E** is also enumerated by the partial function j such that j(n) = n, if n is even, and undefined otherwise.
- The function j defines the gappy list -,2,-,4,-,6,-,8, ...

- The positive rational numbers can be enumerated through use of a 2-dimensional array, with (+)integer numerators comprising one axis and (+)integer denominators the other.
- A path through this array can be defined by taking all fractions whose numerators and denominators sum to 2, then 3, then 4, ...,
 - listing the fractions in order of lowest numerator.
 - There will be k 1 entries for each sum k. This gives the (redundant) list 1/1, 1/2, 2/1, 1/3, 2/2, 3/1, 1/4, 2/3, ...
- Since every positive rational will appear at least once on this list, it follows that the set of positive rationals is <u>denumerable</u>.

- The enumerability of a set is simply a result of its cardinality. Any countable set Γ is necessarily enumerable (and vice versa), because to be enumerable is just to be the range of an onto function of positive integers.
- So if Γ is countable, then it follows that there must be a bijection between Γ and some subset of \mathbf{P} , and this bijection is sufficient to serve as an enumeration.
- Similarly, if Γ is uncountable, then it *cannot* be enumerable, because any attempted list would have to omit (an uncountable infinity of) elements of Γ .

- An enumeration is <u>effective</u> iff the enumerated set is finite, or else there is an explicit, 'mechanical' procedure for determining the value $f(n) \in \Gamma$ in a finite number of steps, for every $n \in \mathbf{P}$.
- It is important to make <u>two</u> immediate points about effective enumerability:
- (i) it is a claim about the *abstract existence* of a mechanical procedure, and as such carries no <u>epistemological</u> baggage; a set may be effectively enumerable, even though no human being ever knows of an effective procedure for enumerating it

- (ii) it makes no claim about the <u>practicability</u> of the procedure, which means that it may not be humanly possible, due to various resource limitations, to actually compute the value f(n) for even a single n.
- The only requirement for the enumeration to be effective is that it will yield the correct output value after a finite number of steps.
- Thus a procedure could be effective even though no computation took less than, say, 10⁵⁰ steps.

- This definition of *effective* may seem overly idealized, but it is the natural limiting case mathematically, and the fact that it is in principle so liberal lends significant conceptual bite to the following <u>negative</u> result (to be demonstrated in due course):
- <u>Not</u> all enumerable sets are effectively enumerable, even under this very idealized notion of what it is to be effective.
- Thus *effective* enumerability is *not* just the result of brute cardinality.

- In this section, Cantor's elegant and versatile **diagonal method** will be employed, first in a *specific* instance to show that $\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{P})$ is uncountable, and then in the *general* case to prove that the cardinality of the power set is <u>always</u> greater than that of the original set.
- **Proof** that $|\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{P})| > |\mathbf{P}|$:
 - $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{P})$ is by definition the set of all subsets of \mathbf{P} .
 - If $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{P})$ were enumerable, then there would exist some function
 - $f: \mathbf{P} \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{P})$ which would define a <u>list</u> of all subsets of **P**.

Suppose there were some such list L, and suppose that the sequence S_1, S_2, S_3, \ldots is the resulting enumeration of the sets S_i of positive integers.

• Let the **antidiagonal set**, with respect to the list L, written \underline{D}_L , be specified as follows.

(i)
$$\forall n \in \mathbf{P} [n \in \underline{D_L} \text{ iff } \neg (n \in S_n)].$$

- The set \underline{D}_L is perfectly well defined given a well defined list L, and clearly $\underline{D}_L \subseteq \mathbf{P}$ and hence $\underline{D}_L \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{P})$.
- But $\underline{D_L}$ has been constructed in such away that it <u>cannot appear</u> anywhere in the given list \underline{L} of subsets of \underline{P} .
- For suppose that \underline{D}_L did appear somewhere in L. Then it must be the case that $\underline{D}_L = S_k$ for some $k \in \mathbf{P}$.

But if \underline{D}_L and S_k were indeed the same set, then the extensional identity condition on sets requires that

(ii)
$$\forall n \in \mathbf{P} [n \in \underline{D_L} \text{ iff } n \in S_k)].$$

- Now take the particular positive integer k which specifies the place of S_k in the list L. Formula (ii) above requires that
 - $k \in \underline{D}_L$ iff $k \in S_k$, while formula (i) above requires that $k \in \underline{D}_L$ iff $\neg (k \in S_k)$.
- Since by hypothesis $\underline{D}_L = S_k$, this leads to the contradiction (iii) $k \in \underline{D}_L$ iff $\neg (k \in \underline{D}_L)$.
- And since the choice of k was arbitrary, formula (iii) establishes by *reductio ad absurdum* that the set of positive integers \underline{D}_L cannot occur <u>anywhere</u> on the list L.

- And since an <u>antidiagonal</u> set can be defined for *any* purported list L, it follows that there can be no enumeration of $\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{P})$.
- Accordingly there is no bijection $f: \mathbf{P} \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{P})$.
- But for each $n \in \mathbf{P}$, $\{n\} \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{P})$. Let \mathbf{S} be the set of all such singletons $\{n\}$ for $n \in \mathbf{P}$.
- Then clearly $S \subset \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{P})$ and the function $g: S \to \mathbf{P}$, such that $g(\{n\}) = n$ is a bijection.
- Therefore the cardinality of $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{P})$ is strictly greater than that of \mathbf{P} , which means that $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{P})$ is *un*countable.

- **Proof of Cantor's Theorem** that the power set of *any* set always has greater cardinality than the set itself.
- Let Γ be any set (countable or otherwise), and consider any 1-1 function $f: \Gamma \dashrightarrow \mathscr{F}(\Gamma)$.
- Since f is 1-1, it follows that for each distinct $x \in \Gamma$, f(x) is a distinct set $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$.
- Let the <u>antidiagonal set \triangle </u> be defined as the set of all $x \in \Gamma$ such that $x \in \underline{\triangle} \leftrightarrow \neg (x \in f(x))$.

Then $\underline{\Delta} \subseteq \Gamma$, and so $\underline{\Delta} \in \mathcal{F}(\Gamma)$. But $\neg \exists x \in \Gamma$ such that $f(x) = \underline{\Delta}$.

For suppose there were such an x. Then, by the definition of \triangle , it must be the case that $x \in \triangle \longleftrightarrow \neg (x \in \triangle)$.

- Hence for any set Γ and any 1-1 function $f: \Gamma \dashrightarrow \mathcal{P}(\Gamma)$ it is impossible for f to be *onto*, from which it follows that there can be *no* bijection between Γ and $\mathcal{P}(\Gamma)$.
- And by taking the set S of singletons of elements of Γ , as in the proof above,

it can be established that there is a bijection

 $g: \mathbf{S} \longrightarrow \mathbf{\Gamma}$, where $\mathbf{S} \subset \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{\Gamma})$ and $g(\{n\}) = n$

• Thus for any set Γ , the <u>cardinality</u> of the power set of Γ is strictly **greater than** the <u>cardinality</u> of Γ .