# 1 Set Theory

# 1.1 Set Axioms

#### 1.1.1 Undefined notions

Set:  $A, B, C, \dots$ 

#### 1.1.2 Axioms

- 1. Extension:  $\forall A \forall B [\forall C (C \in A \Leftrightarrow C \in B) \Rightarrow A = B]$
- 2. Regularity:  $\forall A[\exists C(C \in A) \Rightarrow \exists B(B \in A \land \neg \exists D(D \in B \land D \in A))]$  (Every nonempty set contains a set that is disjoint from it. Also know as "Axiom of Foundation.")
- 3. Schema of Specification:  $\forall B \forall X_1 \forall X_2 \dots \forall X_n \exists A \forall C [C \in A \Leftrightarrow (C \in B \land \phi)]$
- 4. Pairing:  $\forall X_1 \forall X_2 \exists A(X_1 \in A \land X_2 \in A)$
- 5. Union:  $\forall \mathcal{F}_A \exists U \forall A \forall X [(X \in A \land A \in \mathcal{F}_A) \Rightarrow X \in U]$
- 6. Schema of Replacement:  $\forall A \forall X_1 \forall X_2 \dots \forall X_n [\forall B (B \in A \Rightarrow \exists ! D\phi) \Rightarrow \exists B \forall C (C \in A \Rightarrow \exists D (D \in B \land \phi))]$
- 7. Infinity:  $\exists \omega_0 [\emptyset \in \omega_0 \land \forall X (X \in \omega_0 \Rightarrow X \cup X) \in \omega_0)]$
- 8. Power Set:  $\forall X \exists \mathcal{P}(X) \forall S[S \subseteq X \Rightarrow S \in \mathcal{P}(X)]$
- 9. Empty Set:  $\exists A \forall X (X \notin A)$
- 10. Choice:  $\forall X [\emptyset \notin X \Rightarrow \exists (f : X \to \bigcup X) \forall A \in X (f(A) \in A)]$

**Proposition 1.1.1.** The empty set axiom is implied by the other nine axioms.

*Proof.* Just choose any formula that is always false such as  $\phi(X) = X \in B \land X \notin B$  and apply the axiom schema of specification. This will give the empty set. The axiom of extension proves uniqueness vacuously.

### 1.1.3 Universe

A set U is defined with the following properties...

- 1.  $x \in u \in U \Rightarrow x \in U$
- 2.  $u \in U \land v \in U \Rightarrow \{u, v\}, \langle u, v \rangle, u \times v \in U$
- 3.  $X \in U \Rightarrow \mathcal{P}(X) \in U \land \bigcup X \in U$
- 4.  $\omega_0 \in U$  is the set of finite ordinals
- 5. if  $f: A \to B$  is a surjective function with  $A \in U \land B \subset U$ , then  $B \in U$  (See: Set Constructions.)

In category theory,  $small\ sets$  are members of U.

# 1.2 Set Constructions

# 1.2.1 Union

- $\bullet \ A \cup B := \{x | x \in A \lor x \in B\}$
- $\bigcup \mathcal{F} := \{x | x \in X \text{ for some } X \in \mathcal{F}\}$

**Proposition 1.2.1.** For sets A, B, C, the following hold...

- Identity:  $A \cup \emptyset = A$
- Idempotence:  $A \cup A = A$
- Absorption:  $A \subseteq B \Leftrightarrow A \cup B = B$
- Commutative:  $A \cup B = B \cup A$
- Associative:  $A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$

# 1.2.2 Intersection

- $A \cap B := \{x \in A | x \in B\} = \{x \in B | x \in A\}$
- $\bigcap \mathcal{F} := \{x | x \in X \text{ for all } X \in \mathcal{F}\}$

**Proposition 1.2.2.** For sets A, B, C, the following hold...

- Zero:  $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$
- Idempotence:  $A \cap A = A$
- Absorption:  $A \subseteq B \Leftrightarrow A \cap B = A$
- Commutative:  $A \cap B = B \cap A$
- Associative:  $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$

# 1.2.3 Complement

- $\bullet \ \textit{Relative Complement: } A \setminus B := \{x \in A | x \not \in B\}$
- Absolute Complement: For some universe U and  $A \subseteq U$ ,  $A^c := U \setminus A$

**Proposition 1.2.3.** For a universe U and sets  $A, B \subseteq U \dots$ 

- $\bullet \ (A^c)^c = A$
- $\bullet \ \emptyset^c = U$
- $U^c = \emptyset$
- $\bullet \ A\cap A^c=\emptyset$

- $\bullet \ \ A \cup A^c = U$
- $\bullet \ \ A \subseteq B \Leftrightarrow B^c \subseteq A^c$

**Proposition 1.2.4** (DeMorgan's Laws). For a universe U and sets  $A, B \subseteq U \dots$ 

- $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$
- $\bullet \ (A \cap B)^c = A^c \cup B^c$

**Proposition 1.2.5.** For sets A, B...

- $\bullet \ A \setminus B = A \cap B^c$
- $A \subseteq B \Leftrightarrow A \setminus B = \emptyset$
- $A \setminus (A \setminus B) = A \cap B$
- $A \cap (B \setminus C) = (A \cap B) \setminus (A \cap C)$
- $A \cap B \subseteq (A \cap C) \cup (B \cap C^c)$
- $(A \cup C) \cap (B \cup C^c) \subseteq A \cup B$

**Proposition 1.2.6.** For a family  $\mathcal{F}$ ...

- $\forall X \in \mathcal{F}, \bigcup_{k \in K} X_k = \bigcup_{i \in J} (\bigcup_{i \in I_i} X_i)$
- $\forall X \in \mathcal{F}, \bigcap_{k \in K} X_k = \bigcap_{j \in J} (\bigcap_{i \in I_j} X_i)$
- $\forall X \in \mathcal{F}, \bigcup_{i \in I} X_i = \bigcup_{j \in J} X_j$
- $\forall X \in \mathcal{F}, \bigcap_{i \in I} X_i = \bigcap_{j \in J} X_j$
- $(\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i) \cap (\bigcup_{j \in J} B_j) = \bigcup_{i,j} (A_i \cap B_j)$
- $(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i) \cup (\bigcap_{j \in J} B_j) = \bigcap_{i,j} (A_i \cup B_j)$

**Proposition 1.2.7** (Generalized DeMorgan's Laws). For a universe U and a family  $\mathcal{F}...$ 

- $(\bigcup_{X \in \mathcal{F}} X)^c = \bigcap_{X \in \mathcal{F}} X^c$
- $(\bigcap_{X \in \mathcal{F}} X)^c = \bigcup_{X \in \mathcal{F}} X^c$

# 1.2.4 Symmetric Difference

$$A\triangle B:=(A\setminus B)\cup (B\setminus A))$$

# 1.2.5 Power Set

$$\mathcal{P}(X) := \{ S | S \subseteq X \}$$

**Proposition 1.2.8.** For sets A, B and a family  $\mathcal{F}...$ 

- $\mathcal{P}(A) \cap \mathcal{P}(B) = \mathcal{P}(A \cap B)$
- $\mathcal{P}(A) \cup \mathcal{P}(B) \subseteq \mathcal{P}(A \cup B)$
- $\bigcap_{X \in \mathcal{F}} \mathcal{P}(X) = \mathcal{P}(\bigcap_{X \in \mathcal{F}} X)$
- $\bigcup_{X \in \mathcal{F}} \mathcal{P}(X) \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\bigcup_{X \in \mathcal{F}} X)$

# 1.2.5.1 Characteristic Function of a subset

For  $A \subseteq X$ ,  $\chi_A : X \to 2$  where...

$$\chi_A(x) := \begin{cases} 0 & x \in X \setminus A \\ 1 & x \in A \end{cases}$$

# 1.2.6 *n*-Tuple

- Ordered pair:  $(a, b) := \{\{a\}, \{a, b\}\}\$
- $\langle a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots a_n \rangle := \langle \langle \langle \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle, a_3 \rangle \dots \rangle, a_n \rangle$

# 1.2.7 Cartesian Product

- $A \times B := \{ \langle a, b \rangle | \text{ for some } a \in A \text{ and for some } b \in B \}$
- $\times \mathcal{F} := \{ \langle a_1, a_2, \dots a_n \rangle | \text{ for } a_1 \in A_1, a_2 \in A_2, \dots a_n \in A_n \text{ where } A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n \in \mathcal{F} \}$

**Proposition 1.2.9.** For sets A, B...

- $(A \cup B) \times X = (A \times X) \cup (B \times X)$
- $(A \cap B) \times (X \cap Y) = (A \times X) \cap (B \times X)$
- $(A \setminus B) \times X = (A \times X) \setminus (B \times X)$

**Proposition 1.2.10.** For families  $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}, \{B_j\}_{j \in J}, \{X_i\}_{i \in I}, ...$ 

- $(\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i) \times (\bigcup_{i \in I} B_i) = \bigcup_{i \in I} (A_i \times B_i)$
- $(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i) \times (\bigcap_{i \in J} B_i) = \bigcap_{i,j} (A_i \times B_j)$
- $\bigcap_i X_i \subseteq X_j \subseteq \bigcup_i X_i$

# 1.2.8 Quotient by Equivalence Relation

 $X/\sim:=\{[a]_{\sim}|a\in X\}$  (See: equivalence relations)

# **1.2.9** Family

Given a set X and an index set I, a family is a function  $\mathcal{F}: I \to X$ . A cleaner way of denoting the concept is...

$$\mathcal{F}(i) := S_i, \ \{S_i\}_{i \in I}$$

# 1.3 Relations

 $\mathcal{R} :\subseteq A \times B$  for some  $A \times B$ 

# 1.3.1 Equivalence Relations

Relations  $\sim \subseteq A \times A$  such that  $\forall a, b, c \in A$ ...

- Reflexive:  $a \sim a$
- Symmetric:  $a \sim b \Rightarrow b \sim a$
- Transitive:  $a \sim b \wedge b \sim c \Rightarrow a \sim c$

# 1.3.1.1 Equivalence Class

$$[a]_{\sim} := \{ b \in S | b \sim a \}$$

# 1.3.1.2 Set Partition

A set  $P :\subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  such that...

- $\bullet$   $\bigcup P = X$
- $\forall S_1, S_2 \in P(S_1 \cap S_2 \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow S_1 = S_2)$

# 1.3.2 Functions

A relation  $f: A \to B$  satisfying  $\forall a \in A \exists ! b \in B$  such that afb, denoted f(a) = b.

### 1.3.2.1 Injection

A function  $f: A \hookrightarrow B$  such that  $\forall x, y \in A$  if  $x \neq y$ , then  $f(x) \neq f(y)$ . (See: monomorphism. Injections have right inverses.)

### 1.3.2.2 Surjection

A function  $f:A \to B$  such that  $\forall b \in B \ \exists a \in A \ \text{such that} \ f(a) = b$ . (See: epimorphism. Surjections have left inverses, called *sections*.)

# 1.3.2.3 Bijection

A function  $f:A\xrightarrow{\sim} B$  which is an injection and a surjection. (See: isomorphism)

### 1.3.2.4 Restriction

For  $C \subseteq A$  and  $f: A \to B$ ,  $f \upharpoonright_C : C \to B$  where  $\forall c \in C f \upharpoonright_C (c) := f(c)$ 

# 1.3.2.5 Image

$$f(A) := \{ f(a) | a \in A \}$$

**Proposition 1.3.1.** For a function  $f: A \to B$  and a family  $\{X_i\}_{i \in I}$  where  $\forall i \in I \ X_i \subseteq A...$ 

- $f(\bigcup_i X_i) = \bigcup_i f(X_i)$
- In general,  $f(\bigcap_i X_i) \neq \bigcap_i f(X_i)$
- In general,  $f(X)^c \neq f(X^c)$

# 1.3.2.6 Preimage

$$f^{-1}(A) := \{ a \in A | f(a) \in B \}$$

**Proposition 1.3.2.** Given a function  $f: X \to Y$ , f is surjective if and only if  $\forall A \subseteq Y$ , where  $A \neq \emptyset$ ,  $f^{-1}(A) \neq \emptyset$ .

**Proposition 1.3.3.** Given a function  $f: X \to Y$ , f is injective if and only if  $\forall A \subseteq ran \ f$ , where A is a singleton,  $f^{-1}(A)$  is a singleton.

**Proposition 1.3.4.** Given a function  $f: X \to Y \dots$ 

- If  $B \subseteq Y$ , then  $f(f^{-1}(B)) \subseteq B$ .
- If f is surjective, then  $f(f^{-1}(B)) = B$ .
- If  $A \subseteq X$ , then  $A \subseteq f^{-1}(f(A))$ .
- If f is injective, then  $A = f(f^{-1}(A))$ .
- If  $\{B_i\}$  is a family of subset of Y, then  $f^{-1}(\bigcup_i B_i) = \bigcup_i f^{-1}(B_i)$  and  $f^{-1}(\bigcap_i B_i) = \bigcap_i f^{-1}(B_i)$ .

#### 1.3.2.7 Function Composition

 $f: X \to Y$  and  $g: Y \to Z \Rightarrow g \circ f: X \to Z$  where  $\forall x \in X, g \circ f(x) := g(f(x))$ 

### 1.4 Natural Numbers

### 1.4.1 Successor

For a set n, its successor  $n^+$  is defined by...

$$n^+ = n \cup n\}$$

### 1.4.2 Inductive

A set N is *inductive* if and only if  $\emptyset \in N$  and  $(\forall n \in N) n^+ \in N$ .

The Axiom of Infinity may be restated in terms of "inductiveness," i.e....

There exists an inductive set  $\omega_0$ .

#### 1.4.3 Natural Number

A *natural number* is a set that belongs to every inductive set, i.e. the intersection of them all.

The following theorem is a consequence of the definition...

**Theorem 1.4.1** (Induction on  $\omega_0$ ). Any inductive subset of  $\omega_0$  coincides with  $\omega_0$ .

**Proposition 1.4.1.** Every natural number except 0 is the successor of some natural number.

*Proof.* Let 
$$T = \{n \in \omega_0 | n = 0 \lor (\exists p \in \omega_0) n = p^+\}$$
 and use induction.

# 1.4.4 Peano's Postulates

# 1.4.4.1 Peano System

An ordered triple  $\langle N, S, e \rangle$  consiting of a set N, a function  $S: N \to N$ , and a member  $e \in N$  such that the following three conditions are met:

- 1.  $e \notin \operatorname{ran} S$ .
- 2. S is injective.
- 3. Any subset  $A \subseteq N$  that contains e and is closed under S equals N itself.

**Proposition 1.4.2.** Let  $\sigma = \{\langle n, n^+ \rangle | n \in \omega_0 \}$ . Then  $\langle \omega_0, \sigma, 0 \rangle$  is a Peano system.

#### 1.4.4.2 Transitive Set

A set A is said to be a transitive set if and only if  $x \in a \in A \Rightarrow x \in A$ .

**Proposition 1.4.3.** For a transitive set a,

$$\bigcup (a^+) = a.$$

**Proposition 1.4.4.** Every natural number is a transitive set and  $\omega_0$  is a transitive set.

*Proof.* Use induction.

### 1.4.5 Recursion

**Theorem 1.4.2** (Recursion Theorem on  $\omega_0$ ). Let A be a set,  $a \in A$ , and  $F: A \to A$ . Then there exists an unique function  $h: \omega_0 \to A$  such that...

$$h(0) = a$$
,

and for every  $n \in \omega_0$ ,

$$h(n^+) = F(h(n)).$$

*Proof.* The idea is to lef h be the union of many approximating functions. For the purposes of this proof, call a function v acceptable if and only if dom  $v \subseteq \omega_0$ , ran  $v \subseteq A$ , and the following conditions hold:

- 1. If  $0 \in \text{dom } v$ , then v(0) = a.
- 2. If  $n^+ \in \text{dom } v$  (where  $n \in \omega_0$ ), then also  $n \in \text{dom } v$  and  $v(n^+) = F(v(n))$ .

Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be the collection of all acceptable functions, and let  $h = \bigcup \mathcal{H}$ . Thus...

$$\langle n, y \rangle \in h \Leftrightarrow \langle n, y \rangle \text{ is a member of some acceptable } v \\ \Leftrightarrow v(n) = y \text{ for some acceptabe } v.$$

We claim that this h meets the demands of the theorem. This claim can be broken down into four parts. The four parts involve showing that (I) h is a function, (II) h is acceptable, (III) dom h is all of  $\omega_0$ , and (IV) h is unique.

I. We first claim that h is a function. Let...

$$S = \{n \in \omega_0 | \text{ for at most one } y, \langle n, y \rangle \in h\}.$$

We must check that S is inductive. If  $\langle 0, y_1 \rangle \in h$  and  $\langle 0, y_2 \rangle \in h$ , then by  $(\star)$  there exist acceptable  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  such that  $v_1(0) = y_1$  and  $v_2(0) = y_2$ . But by (1) it follows that  $y_1 = a = y_2$ . Thus  $0 \in S$ .

Next suppose that  $k \in S$ . Consider  $\langle k^+, y_1 \rangle \in h$  and  $\langle k^+, y_2 \rangle \in h$ . As before there must exist acceptabel  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  such that  $v_1(k^+) = y_1$  and  $v_2(k+) = y_2$ . By condition (2) it follows that...

$$y_1 = v_1(k^+) = F(v_1(k))$$
 and  $y_2 = v_2(k^+) = F(v_2(k))$ .

But since  $k \in S$ , we have  $v_1(k) = v_2(k)$ . Therefore...

$$y_1 = F(v_1(k)) = F(v_2(k)) = y_2.$$

So  $k^+ \in S$ , proving S is inductive and conincides with  $\omega_0$ . Consequently h is a function.

II. Next we claime that h itself is acceptable. We have just seen that h is a function, and it is clear from  $(\star)$  that dom  $h \subseteq \omega_0$  and ran  $h \subseteq A$ .

First examine (1). If  $0 \in \text{dom } h$ , then there must be some acceptable v with v(0) = h(0). Since v(0) = a, we have h(0) = a.

Next examine (2). Assume  $n^+ \in \text{dom } h$ . Again there must be some acceptable v with  $v(n^+) = h(n^+)$ . Since v is acceptable we have  $n \in \text{dom } v$  (and v(n) = h(n)) and

$$h(n^+) = v(n^+) = F(v(n)) = F(h(n)).$$

Thus h satisfies (2) and so is acceptable.

III. We now claim that dom  $h = \omega_0$  (the function is nonempty). It suffices to show that dom h is inductive. The function  $\{\langle 0, a \rangle\}$  is acceptable and hence  $0 \in \text{dom } h$ . Suppose the  $k \in \text{dome } h$ . If  $k^+ \notin \text{dom } h$ , then let...

$$v = h \cup \{\langle k^+, F(h(k)) \rangle\}.$$

Then v is a function, dom  $v \subseteq \omega_0$ , and ran  $v \subseteq A$ . We will show that v is acceptable.

Condition (1) holds since v(0) = h(0) = a. For condition (2) there are two cases. If  $n^+ \in \text{dom } v$  where  $n^+ \neq k^+$ , then  $n^+ \in \text{dom } h$  and  $v(n^+) = h(n^+) = F(h(n)) = F(v(n))$ . The other case occurs if  $n^+ = k^+$ . Since the successor operation is injective, n = k. By assumption  $k \in \text{dom } h$ . Thus...

$$v(k^+) = F(h(k)) = F(v(k))$$

and (2) holds. Hence v is acceptable. But then  $v \subseteq h$ , so that  $k^+ \in \text{dom } h$  after all. So dom h is inductive and therefore coincides with  $\omega_0$ .

IV. Finally we claim that h is unique. For let  $h_1$  and  $h_2$  both satisfy the conclusion fo the theorem. Let...

$$S = \{ n \in \omega_0 | h_1(n) = h_2(n) \}.$$

S is inductive, showing  $h_1 = h_2$ . Thus h is unique.

**Example 1.4.2.1.** There is no function  $h: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$  such that for every  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,

$$h(a+1) = h(a)^2 + 1.$$

*Proof.* Note  $h(a) > h(a-1) > h(a-2) > \cdots > 0$ . Recursion on  $\omega_0$  reliex on there being a starting point 0.  $\mathbb{Z}$  has no analogous starting point.

**Theorem 1.4.3.** Let  $\langle N, S, e \rangle$  be a Peano system. Then  $\langle \omega_0, \sigma, 0 \rangle$  is isomorphic to  $\langle N, S, e \rangle$ , i.e. there is a function h mapping  $\omega_0$  bijectively to N in a way that preserves the successor operation

$$h(\sigma(n)) = S(h(n))$$

and the zero element

$$h(0) = e$$
.

# 1.4.6 Arithmetic

#### 1.4.6.1 Addition

Addition (+) is the binary operation on  $\omega_0$  such that for any m and  $n \in \omega_0$ ,

$$m+n=A_m(n),$$

where  $A_m:\omega_0\to\omega_0$  is the unique function given by the recursion theorem for which...

- $A_m(0) = m$
- $A_m(n^+) = A_m(n)^+ \ \forall n \in \omega_0.$

**Proposition 1.4.5.** For natural numbers m and n,

- m + 0 = m,
- $m + n^+ = (m+n)^+$

# 1.4.6.2 Multiplication

Multiplication (·) is the binary operation on  $\omega_0$  such that for any m and  $n \in \omega_0$ ,

$$m \cdot n = M_m(n),$$

where  $M_m:\omega_0\to\omega_0$  is the unique function given by the recursion theorem for which...

- $M_m(0) = 0$
- $M_m(n^+) = M_m(n) + m$ .

**Proposition 1.4.6.** For natural numbers m and n,

- $m \cdot 0 = 0$ ,
- $m \cdot n^+ = m \cdot n + m$

# 1.4.6.3 Exponentiation

Exponentiation is the binary operation on  $\omega_0$  such that for any m and  $n \in \omega_0$ ,

$$m^n = E_m(n),$$

where  $E_m:\omega_0\to\omega_0$  is the unique function given by the recursion theorem for which...

- $E_m(0) = 1$
- $M_m(n^+) = E_m(n) \cdot m$ .

**Proposition 1.4.7.** For natural numbers m and n,

- $m^0 = 1$ .
- $\bullet \ m^{(n^+)} = m^n \cdot m.$

# 1.4.7 Ordering on the natural numbers

Define m < n if and only if  $m \in n$ .

**Lemma 1.4.4.** For any natural numbers m and n...

- $m \in n \Leftrightarrow m^+ \in n^+$ .
- $n \notin n$

**Theorem 1.4.5** (Trichotomy Law for  $\omega_0$ ). For any natural numbers m and n, exactly one of the three conditions...

- $m \in n$
- $\bullet$  m=n
- $n \in m$

holds.

Corollary 1.4.5.1. For any natural numbers m and n,

- $m \in n \Leftrightarrow m \subset n$
- $(m \in n) \lor (m = n) \Leftrightarrow m \subseteq n$

**Proposition 1.4.8.** For any natural numbers m, n and p, ...

- $m \in n \Leftrightarrow m + p \in n + p$ .
- If, in addition,  $p \neq 0$ , then  $m \in n \Leftrightarrow m \cdot p \in n \cdot p$ .

**Corollary 1.4.5.2.** The following canncellation laws hold for  $m, n, p \in \omega_0 \dots$ 

- $m + p \in n + p \Rightarrow m = n$
- If, in addition,  $p \neq 0$ , then  $m \cdot p \in n \cdot p \Rightarrow m = n$

**Theorem 1.4.6** (Well Ordering of  $\omega_0$ ). Let A be a nonempty set of  $\omega_0$ . Then there is some  $m \in A$  such that  $(m \in n) \vee (m = n)$  for all  $n \in A$ .

*Proof.* Assume that A is a subset of  $\omega_0$  without a least element; we will show that  $A = \emptyset$ . We could attempt to do this by showing that the complement  $\omega_0 \setminus A$  is inductive. But in order to show that  $k^+ \in \omega_0 - A$ , it is not enough to know merely that  $k \in \omega_0 \setminus A$ , we must know that all numbers smaller than k are in  $\omega_0 \setminus A$  as well. Given this additional information, we can argue that  $k^+ \in \omega_0 \setminus A$  lest it be a least element of A.

To write down what is approximately this argument, let...

$$B = \{m \in \omega_0 | \text{ no number less than } m \text{ belongs to } A\}.$$

We claim that B is inductive.  $0 \in B$  vacuously. Suppose that  $k \in B$ . Then if n is less that  $k^+$ , either n is less than k (in which case  $n \notin A$  since  $k \in B$ ) or n = k (in which case  $n \notin A$  lest, by trichotomy, it be least in A). In either case, n is outside of A. Hence  $k^+ \in B$  and B is inductive. It clearly follows that  $A = \emptyset$ .

Corollary 1.4.6.1. There is no function  $f : \omega_0 \to \omega_0$  such that  $f(n^+) \in f(n)$  for every natural number n.

**Theorem 1.4.7** (Strong Induction Principle for  $\omega_0$ ). Let A be a subset of  $\omega_0$ , and assume the for every  $n \in \omega_0$ , if every number less than n is in A, then  $n \in A$ . Then  $A = \omega_0$ .

# 1.5 Constructing Number Systems

For the purposes of this subsection let  $\mathbb{N} := \omega_0$ .

# 1.5.1 The Integers

Let  $\sim_{\mathbb{Z}}$  be the equivalence relation on  $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$  for which...

$$\langle m, n \rangle \Leftrightarrow m + q = p + n.$$

Then the set of *Integers*, denoted  $\mathbb{Z}$ , is the set  $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} / \sim_{\mathbb{Z}}$ .

Addition of integers  $a = \langle m, n \rangle$  and  $b = \langle p, q \rangle$  is defined as...

$$a +_{\mathbb{Z}} b = [\langle m+p, n+q \rangle]$$

**Lemma 1.5.1.** Addition of integers  $(+_{\mathbb{Z}})$  is well defined, i.e. if  $\langle m, n \rangle \sim_{\mathbb{Z}} \langle m', n' \rangle$  and  $\langle p, q \rangle \sim_{\mathbb{Z}} \langle p', q' \rangle$ , then...

$$\langle m+p, n+q \rangle \sim_{\mathbb{Z}} \langle m'+p', n'+q' \rangle$$

The integers under addition form an abelian group.

Multiplication of integers  $a = \langle m, n \rangle$  and  $b = \langle p, q \rangle$  is defined as...

$$a \cdot_{\mathbb{Z}} b = [\langle mp + nq, mq + np \rangle]$$

**Lemma 1.5.2.** Multiplication of integers  $(\cdot_{\mathbb{Z}})$  is well defined, i.e. if  $\langle m, n \rangle \sim_{\mathbb{Z}} \langle m', n' \rangle$  and  $\langle p, q \rangle \sim_{\mathbb{Z}} \langle p', q' \rangle$ , then...

$$\langle mp + nq, mq + np \rangle \sim_{\mathbb{Z}} \langle m'p' + n'q', m'q' + n'p' \rangle$$

The integers under multiplication form an abelian group.

Order of integers  $a = \langle m, n \rangle$  and  $b = \langle p, q \rangle$  is defined as...

$$a <_{\mathbb{Z}} b \Leftrightarrow m + q \in p + n$$

**Lemma 1.5.3.** Order of integers  $(<_{\mathbb{Z}})$  is well defined, i.e. if  $\langle m, n \rangle \sim_{\mathbb{Z}} \langle m', n' \rangle$  and  $\langle p, q \rangle \sim_{\mathbb{Z}} \langle p', q' \rangle$ , then...

$$m+q \in p+n \Leftrightarrow m'+q' \in p'+n'$$

The order relation so defined linearly orders the integers.

# 1.5.2 The Rational Numbers

Let  $\sim_{\mathbb{Q}}$  be the equivalence relation on  $\mathbb{Z} \times (\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0_{\mathbb{Z}}\})$  for which...

$$\langle a, b \rangle \sim \langle c, d \rangle \Leftrightarrow a \cdot_{\mathbb{Z}} d = c \cdot_{\mathbb{Z}} b.$$

Then the set of *Rational Numbers*, denoted  $\mathbb{Q}$ , is the set  $\mathbb{Z} \times (\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0_{\mathbb{Z}}\}/\sim_{\mathbb{Q}}$ .

Addition of rational numbers  $p = \langle a, b \rangle$  and  $q = \langle c, d \rangle$  is defined as...

$$p +_{\mathbb{Q}} q = [\langle ad + cb, bd \rangle]$$

Lemma 1.5.4. Addition of rational numbers is well defined.

The rational numbers under addition form an abelian group.

Multiplication of rational numbers  $p = \langle a, b \rangle$  and  $q = \langle c, d \rangle$  is defined as...

$$p \cdot_{\mathbb{Q}} q = [\langle ac, bd \rangle]$$

Lemma 1.5.5. Multiplication of rational numbers is well defined.

The rational numbers under addition and multiplication form a field.

Order of rational numbers  $p = \langle a, b \rangle$  and  $q = \langle c, d \rangle$  is defined as...

$$p <_{\mathbb{O}} q \Leftrightarrow ad < cb.$$

**Lemma 1.5.6.** The order of rational numbers is well-defined.

The order relation so defined linearly orders the rational numbers.

#### 1.5.3 The Real Numbers

# 1.5.3.1 With Cauchy Sequences

Define a Cauchy sequence to be a function  $s: \omega_0 \to \mathbb{Q}$  such that...

$$(\forall \varepsilon > 0)(\exists k \in \omega_0)(\forall m > k)(\forall n > k)|s_m - s_n| < \varepsilon.$$

Let C be the set of all Cauchy sequences. For  $r, s \in C$ , define  $r \sim_{\mathbb{R}} s$  if and only if  $|r_n - s_n|$  is arbitrarily small for large n.

With more work we can define  $\mathbb{R} := C/\sim$ .

#### 1.5.3.2 With Dedekind Cuts

A Dedekind cut is a subset x of  $\mathbb{Q}$  such that:

- 1.  $\emptyset \neq x \neq \mathbb{Q}$
- 2. x is "closed downward," i.e.,

$$q \in x \land r < q \Rightarrow r \in x.$$

3. x has no largest member

# 2 Combinatorics

# 2.1 Basic Methods

# 2.1.1 Addition

**Theorem 2.1.1** (Addition principle). If A and B are two disjoint finite sets, then...

$$|A \cup B| = |A| + |B|.$$

**Theorem 2.1.2** (Generalized addition principle). Let  $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$  be finite sets that are pairwise disjoint. Then...

$$|\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i| = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |A_i|$$

### 2.1.2 Subtraction

**Theorem 2.1.3** (Subtraction principle). Let A be a finite set, and let  $B \subseteq A$ . Then  $|A \setminus B| = |A| - |B|$ .

*Proof.* Observe  $|A \setminus B| + |B| = |A|$  by the addition principle.

### 2.1.3 Multiplication

**Theorem 2.1.4** (Product principle). Let X and Y be two finite sets. Then  $|X \times Y| = |X| \times |Y|$ .

**Theorem 2.1.5** (Generalized product principle). Let  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  be finite sets. Then  $|\times_{i\in I}^n X_i| = \prod_{i\in I}^n |X_i|$ .

#### 2.1.4 Division

**Theorem 2.1.6.** Let S and T be finite sets so that a d-to-one function  $f: T \to S$  exists. Then

$$|S| = \frac{|T|}{d}$$
.

# 2.1.5 Binomial Coefficients

See permutations.

**Theorem 2.1.7.** Let n be a positive integer, and let  $k \leq n$  be a nonnegative integer. Then the number of all k-element subsets of [n] is

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{(n)_k}{k!} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}.$$

Note:  $\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k}$  exhibits duality.

**Theorem 2.1.8** (Binomial theorem). If n is a positive integer, then...

$$(x+y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k}.$$

*Proof.* The left-hand side of the equation contains the factor (x+y) n times. To compute the product we choose an x or y term from each factor and multiply those n terms together, then do this in all  $2^n$  possible ways, adding all the resulting products. It suffices to show that there are exactly  $\binom{n}{k}$  products of the form  $x^ky^{n-k}$ , which is immediately obvious from the way we compute the product.

**Theorem 2.1.9.** Let n and k be nonnegative integers so that k < n. Then...

$$\binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k+1} = \binom{n+1}{k+1}$$

**Theorem 2.1.10.** For all positive integers n,

$$\binom{2n}{n} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k}^{2}.$$

### 2.1.6 Pigeonhole Principle

**Theorem 2.1.11** (Pigeonhole Principle). Let  $A_1, A_2, ..., A_k$  be finite sets that are pairwise disjoint. Let us assume that

$$|A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_k| > kr.$$

Then there exists at least one index i so that  $|A_i| > r$ .

**Example 2.1.11.1.** Consider the sequence  $1, 3, 7, 15, 31, \ldots$ , in other words, the sequence whose ith element is  $a_i = 2^i - 1$ . Let q be any odd integer. Then our sequence contains an element that is divisible by q.

*Proof.* Consider the first q elements of our sequence. If one of them is divisible by q, then we are done. If not, then consider their remainders modulo q. That is, let us write...

$$a_i = d_i q + r_i$$

where  $0 < r_i < q$ , and  $d_i = \lfloor a_i/q \rfloor$ . As the integers  $r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_q$  all come from the open interval (0,q), there are q-1 possibilities for their values. On the other hand, their number is q, so, by the pigeonhole principle, there have to be two of them that are equal. Say these are  $r_n$  and  $r_m$ , with n > m. Then  $a_n = d_n q + r_n$  and  $a_m = d_m q + r_n$ , so...

$$a_n - a_m = (d_n - d_m)q$$

or, after rearranging,

$$(d_n - d_m)q = a_n - a_m$$

$$= (2^n - 1) - (2^m - 1)$$

$$= 2^m (2^{n-m} - 1)$$

$$= 2^m a_{n-m}$$

As the first expression of our chain of equations is divisible by q, so too must be the last expression. Note that  $2^{n-m}$  is relatively prime to any odd number q, that is, the largest common divisor of  $2^{n-m}$  and q is 1. Therefore, the equality  $(d_n - d_m)q = 2^{n-m}a_{n-m}$  implies that  $a_{n-m}$  is divisible by q.

# 2.2 Applications of Basic Methods

#### 2.2.1 Multisets

Given a set A, a multiset is defined via a function  $m: A \to \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ . It is a set containing  $a \in A$  m(a) many times.

# 2.2.1.1 Multinomial Coefficients

**Theorem 2.2.1.** Given a multiset A of n elements over a k element sets. The number of ways to linearly order the elements of A is...

$$\binom{n}{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k} = \frac{n!}{a_1! a_2! \dots a_k!}.$$

### 2.2.2 Weak Compositions

Let  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_k$  be nonnegative integers satisfying

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i = n.$$

Then the ordered k-tuple  $(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_k)$  is called a weak composition of n into k parts.

**Theorem 2.2.2.** The number of weak compositions of n into k parts is...

$$\binom{n+k-1}{n} = \binom{n+k-1}{k-1}.$$

Corollary 2.2.2.1. The number of n-element multisets over a k-elemnt set is...

$$\binom{n+k-1}{n} = \binom{n+k-1}{k-1}.$$

# 2.2.3 Compositions

Let  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_k$  be positive integers satisfying

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i = n.$$

Then the ordered k-tuple  $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k)$  is called a *composition* of n into k parts.

Corollary 2.2.2.2. The number of compositions of n into k parts is...

$$\binom{n-1}{k-1}$$
.

# 2.2.4 Stirling numbers of the second kind

Given a finite set A, |A| = n, the number of set partitions of A into  $0 < k \le n$  classes is denoted S(n, k), the Stirling number of the second kind.

# 2.3 Permutations

Given a set A, a permutation of A is a bijection  $f: A \to A$ .

**Proposition 2.3.1.** Given a finite set A, if n = |A| the number of permutations of A is n!.

Intuitively permutations represent the reordering of an ordered list. Looking at the idea of "sub-orderings" of lists we come up with the following proposition

**Proposition 2.3.2** (k-lists). Let n and k be positive integers so that  $n \geq k$ . Then the number of injections  $f : [k] \to [n]$  is...

$$(n)_k := n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-k+1).$$

# 2.4 Graphs

# 3 Category Theory

# 3.1 Metacategories

# 3.1.1 Undefined notions

- Objects:  $a, b, c \dots$
- Arrows:  $f, g, h \dots$

# 3.1.2 Operations

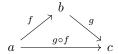
Given  $f: a \to b \dots$ 

• Domain: dom: arrows  $\rightarrow$  objects,  $f \mapsto a$ 

• Codomain: cod: arrows  $\rightarrow$  objects,  $f \mapsto b$ 

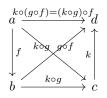
• *Identity:* **id**: objects  $\rightarrow$  arrows,  $a \mapsto id_a = 1_a$ 

• Composition: comp: arrows  $\times$ : arrows  $\rightarrow$  arrows,  $\langle g, f \rangle \mapsto g \circ f$ ,  $g \circ f : \text{dom } f \rightarrow \text{cod } g$ 

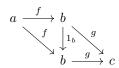


# 3.1.3 Axioms

• Associativity:  $a \xrightarrow{f} b \xrightarrow{g} c \xrightarrow{k} d$ ,  $k \circ (g \circ f) = (k \circ g) \circ f$ 



• Unit Law:  $1_a \circ f = f$  and  $g \circ 1_b = g$ 



# 3.2 Categories

# 3.2.1 Directed Graph

 $\bullet$  A - a set of arrows

ullet O - a set of objects

• dom :  $A \rightarrow O$ , cod :  $A \rightarrow O$ 

Set of composable pairs of arrows:

$$A \times_O A = \{\langle g, f \rangle | g, f \in A \text{ and } \mathbf{dom}(g) = \mathbf{cod}(f)\}$$

# 3.2.2 Categories

Add the following structure to a directed graph...

- $O \xrightarrow{id} A, c \mapsto id_C$
- $A \times_O A \xrightarrow{\circ} A$ ,  $\langle g, f \rangle \mapsto g \circ f$

which satisfy  $\forall a \in O$  and  $\forall \langle g, f \rangle \in A \times_O A...$ 

- $\bullet \ \mathbf{dom}(\mathbf{id}(a)) = a = \mathbf{cod}(\mathbf{id}(a))$
- $\operatorname{dom}(g \circ f) = \operatorname{dom}(f)$
- $\operatorname{\mathbf{cod}}(g \circ f) = \operatorname{\mathbf{cod}}(g)$
- metacategorical axioms

Small categories use small sets for their objects.

#### 3.2.3 Hom Sets

$$hom(b,c) = \{f | f \in C, \mathbf{dom}(f) = b, \mathbf{cod}(f) = c\}$$

# 3.2.4 Groupoids

A category in which every arrow is an isomorphism.

# 3.3 Morphisms

Arrows in categories.

# 3.3.1 Isomorphisms

A morphism  $f \in hom(b,c)$  that has a two-sided inverse  $g \in hom(c,b)$  under composition such that

$$gf = 1_b, fg = 1_c.$$

**Proposition 3.3.1.** The inverse of an isomorphism is unique.

*Proof.* For inverses  $g_1, g_2$  of f observe...

$$g_1 = g_1 1_c = g_1(fg_2) = (g_1 f)g_2 = 1_b g_2 = g_2$$

**Proposition 3.3.2.** Supposing  $f^{-1}$  is the inverse of f...

- ullet Each identity  $1_c$  is an isomorphism and is its own inverse.
- If f is an isomorphism, then  $f^{-1}$  is an isomorphism and further  $(f^{-1})^{-1} = f$ .

• If  $f \in hom(a,b)$ ,  $g \in hom(b,c)$  are isomorphisms, then the composition gf is an isomorphism and  $(gf)^{-1} = f^{-1}g^{-1}$ .

# 3.3.2 Automorphisms

An isomorphism of an object to itself. Denoted:

$$hom(c, c) = aut(c)$$

Observe aut(c) is a group.

# 3.3.3 Monomorphisms

A morphism  $f \in hom(b, c)$  such that  $\forall z \in C$  and  $\forall \alpha', \alpha'' \in hom(z, b)$ :

$$f \circ \alpha' = f \circ \alpha'' \Rightarrow \alpha' = \alpha''$$

# 3.3.4 Epimorphisms

A morphism  $f \in hom(b, c)$  such that  $\forall z \in C$  and  $\forall \beta', \beta'' \in hom(b, z)$ :

$$\beta' \circ f = \beta'' \circ f \Rightarrow \beta' = \beta''$$

### 3.4 Functors

Morphisms  $T:C\to B$  with domain and codomain both categories. It consists of two suitably related functions

- object function  $T, c \mapsto Tc$
- arrow function  $T, f: c \to c' \mapsto Tf: Tc \to Tc'$

which satisfy...

- $T(1_c) = 1_c$
- $T(g \circ f) = T_g \circ T_f$

# 3.4.1 Full

 $\forall c, c' \in C \text{ and } g: Tc \to Tc' \in B, \exists f: c \to c' \in C \text{ s.t. } g \in Tf$ 

#### 3.4.2 Faithful

 $\forall c, c' \in C \text{ and } f_1, f_2 : c \to c', Tf_1 = Tf_2 \Rightarrow f_1 = f_2$ 

- 3.5 Duality
- 4 Group Theory
- 5 Ring Theory
- 6 Modules
- 7 Homology
- 8 Topology
- 9 Homotopy