

MATH 135: Introduction to the Theory of Sets

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 August 25

1.1.1 Introduction

Foundations of Mathematics: language, axioms, formal proofs

- We focus on the axioms in set theory
- We use ZFC (Zermelo-Fraenkel + Choice)
- There is only one primitive notion : \in
- Within the ZFC universe, everything is a set

Course Outline:

- Basic axioms
- Operations, relations, functions
- $\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}$
- cardinals
- AC
- ordinals

1.1.2 Basics

Principle of Extensionality: Two sets A, B are the same \leftrightarrow they have the same elements $\forall x(x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$

Example 1.1.1. $2, 3, 5 = \{5, 2, 4\} = \{2, 5, 2, 3, 3, 2\}$

Definition 1.1.2. There is a set with no elements, denoted \emptyset

- $\emptyset \neq \{\emptyset\}$
- $A \subseteq B$: A is a subset of $B \leftrightarrow$ each element of A is in B (use \subsetneq to denote proper subset)

- $\{2\} \subseteq \{2, 3, 5\}$ but $\{2\} \notin \{2, 3, 5\}$
- Power set operation: $\mathcal{P}(A) = \{B \mid B \subseteq A\}$

We can define a hierarchy:

$$V_0 = \emptyset, V_1 = \mathcal{P}(\emptyset) = \{\emptyset\}, V_2 = \mathcal{P}\mathcal{P}(\emptyset) = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$$

$$V_3 = \mathcal{P}(V_2) = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}, \{\{\emptyset\}\}, \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}\}, V_4, \dots$$

$$V_\omega = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} V_n, \mathcal{P}(V_\omega), \mathcal{P}\mathcal{P}(V_\omega), \dots, V_{\omega+\omega}, \dots, V_{\omega+\omega+\dots}, \dots, V_{\omega \times \omega}, \dots, V_{\omega^\omega}$$

Chapter 2

Axioms and Operations

2.1 August 30

2.1.1 Zermelo Fraenkel Axioms of Set Theory

Setting: in ZFC all objects are sets

Language: contains vocabulary (\in), logical symbols ($=, \wedge, \vee, \exists, \forall, \neg$), variables (x, y, A, B , etc.)

Axiom 2.1.1 (Extensionality Axiom). Two sets are the same if they have the same elements
 $\forall A, B (\forall x (x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B) \rightarrow A = B)$

Axiom 2.1.2 (Empty Set Axiom). There is a set with no members, denoted \emptyset
 $\exists A \forall x (x \notin A)$

Axiom 2.1.3 (Pairing Axiom). For any sets u, v there is a set whose elements are u and v , denoted $\{u, v\}$
 $\forall u, v \exists A \forall x (x \in A \leftrightarrow x = u \vee x = v)$

Axiom 2.1.4 (Union Axiom (Preliminary Form)). For any sets a, b there is a set whose elements are elements of a and elements of b , denoted $a \cup b$
 $\forall a, b \exists A \forall x (x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in a \vee x \in b)$

Axiom 2.1.5 (Powerset Axiom). Each set A , has a power set $\mathcal{P}(A)$.
 $\forall A \exists B \forall x (x \in B \iff x \subseteq A)$ where $x \subseteq A$ stands for $\forall y (y \in x \rightarrow y \in A)$

Axiom 2.1.6 (Union Axiom). For any set A , there is a set $\bigcup A$ whose members are members of the members of A .
 $\forall A \exists B \forall x (x \in B \leftrightarrow \exists y \in A (x \in y))$

Idea for the subset axiom: For any set A , there is a set B whose members are members of A satisfying some property.

eg. $B = \{x \in A \mid x \text{ satisfies property } P\} \subseteq A$

Example 2.1.7. $B = \{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n \text{ cannot be described in less than 20 words}\}$

- let b be the smallest element in B , then b is the smallest element that cannot be described in 20 words.
- Paradox : need to use formal language to express property P .

Example 2.1.8. Let $B = \{x \mid x \notin x\}$

Question: $B \in B$? $B \in B \leftrightarrow B \notin B$: need to have property be contained in some larger set.

We can now restate the axiom more formally:

Axiom 2.1.9 (Subset Axiom (Scheme)). For each formula $\phi(x)$, there is an axiom:
 $\forall A \exists B \forall x (x \in B \leftrightarrow x \in A \wedge \phi(x))$

Example 2.1.10. Suppose there is a set of all sets A . Consider $B = \{x \in A \mid x \notin x\}$. Then $B \in B \leftrightarrow B \notin B$, contradiction. So there can be no such set A .

The language of 1st order logic for ZFC:

The following are formulas:

- $x = y, x \in y$ atomic formulas
- $(\varphi \wedge \psi), (\varphi \vee \psi), \neg \varphi$ where φ, ψ are formulas
- $\exists v \varphi, \forall x \varphi$

Example 2.1.11. $\varphi(v, w) := (\exists v (v \in x \wedge \neg v = w)) \rightarrow (\forall y (\neg y \in y))$ is a formula

Chapter 3

Relations and Functions

3.1 September 1

3.1.1 Relations and Functions

Ordered Pair: $\langle a, b \rangle = \langle c, d \rangle \leftrightarrow a = c, b = d$

Definition 3.1.1. $\langle a, b \rangle = \{\{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$

Cartesian product of A and B , denoted $A \times B = \{\langle x, y \rangle \mid x \in A, y \in B\}$

Using the subset axiom $A \times B = \{z \in \mathcal{PP}(A \cup B) \mid \exists x \in A \exists y \in B z = \langle x, y \rangle\}$

Observation: $\langle x, y \rangle \in \mathcal{PP}(C)$ for $x, y \in C$

$\{x\}, \{x, y\} \in \mathcal{P}(C)$ so $\{\{x\}, \{x, y\}\} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(C)$ so $\{\{x\}, \{x, y\}\} \in \mathcal{PP}(C)$

Definition 3.1.2. A binary relation is a set R whose elements are ordered pairs.

If $R \subset A \times B$ then R is a relation from $A \rightarrow B$.

Definition 3.1.3. Given a relation R , $\text{dom } R = \{x \in \bigcup \bigcup R \mid \exists y \langle x, y \rangle \in R\}$,
 $\text{range } R = \{y \in \bigcup \bigcup R \mid \exists x \langle x, y \rangle \in R\}$, $\text{field } (R) = \text{dom}(R) \cup \text{range}(R)$

Example 3.1.4. $R = \{\langle a, b \rangle, \langle c, d \rangle, \langle e, f \rangle\} = \{\{\{a\}, \{a, b\}\}, \{\{c\}, \{c, d\}\}, \{\{e\}, \{e, f\}\}\}$

$\bigcup R = \{\{a\}, \{a, b\}, \{c\}, \{c, d\}, \{e\}, \{e, f\}\}$

$\bigcup \bigcup R = \{a, b, c, d, e, f\}$

n -ary relations: define n -tuple by $\langle a, b, c \rangle = \langle \langle a, b \rangle, c \rangle$ etc.

Definition 3.1.5. A function is a relation F such that $\forall x, y, z \langle x, y \rangle \in F$ and $\langle x, z \rangle \in F \rightarrow y = z$

$\forall x \in \text{dom } (F)$ there is y such that $\langle x, y \rangle \in F$. If $A = \text{dom}(F)$, $B \supseteq \text{range}(F)$ then F is said to be a function from A to B , $f : A \rightarrow B$

We say that $f : A \rightarrow B$ is onto if $B = \text{range}(F)$

Definition 3.1.6. F is injective if $\forall x, y, z \langle x, z \rangle \in F \wedge \langle y, z \rangle \in F \rightarrow x = y$.

Definition 3.1.7. For a set A , relations F, G

- (a) inverse $F^{-1} = \{\langle y, x \rangle \mid \langle x, y \rangle \in F\}$
- (b) composition: $G \circ F = \{\langle x, z \rangle \mid \exists y \langle x, y \rangle \in F, \langle y, z \rangle \in G\}$
- (c) restriction: $F \upharpoonright_A = \{\langle x, y \rangle \in F \mid x \in A\}$
- (d) image of A under F , $F[A] = \{y \mid \exists x \in A \langle x, y \rangle \in F\} = \text{range}(F \upharpoonright_A)$

Example 3.1.8. If F is a function, F^{-1} may not be a function. F^{-1} is a function $\leftrightarrow F$ is one to one.

Example 3.1.9. $F^{-1} \circ F = \{\langle x, x \rangle \mid x \in \text{dom}(F)\}$ if F is one to one

More generally, $F^{-1} \circ F = \{\langle x, z \rangle \mid \exists y \in \text{range } F \langle x, y \rangle, \langle z, y \rangle \in F\}$.

3.2 September 6

3.2.1 Functions and Relations

Theorem 3.2.1. Let $F : A \rightarrow B$ with $A \neq \emptyset$

- (a) There is a function $G : B \rightarrow A$ such that $G \circ F = \text{id}_A \leftrightarrow F$ is one to one.
- (b) There is a function $G : B \rightarrow A$ such that $F \circ G = \text{id}_B \leftrightarrow F$ is onto.

Proof. (a) Suppose there is such a G . Take a_1, a_2 such that $F(a_1) = F(a_2)$, then $a_1 = G \circ F(a_1) = G \circ F(a_2) = a_2$

Conversely, suppose F is one to one. We want to define $G : B \rightarrow A$ given $b \in B$, let $G(b)$ = the unique $a \in A$ such that $F(a) = b$ if $b \in \text{range}(F)$. If $b \notin \text{range}(F)$, let $G(b) = a_0$ with $a_0 \in A$ arbitrary (exists since A nonempty)

- (b) Suppose that $G : B \rightarrow A$, with $F \circ G = \text{id}_B$ Want to show $\forall b \in B \exists a F(a) = b$ Take $a = G(b) \rightarrow F(a) = F(G(b)) = b$

Conversely, suppose F is onto. We want to define G , given $b \in B$ want to define $G(b)$ such that $F(G(b)) = b$, equivalently, want $G(b) \in F^{-1}(\{b\})$. Since F is onto $F^{-1}(\{b\})$ is nonempty. Let $G(b)$ be any element of $F^{-1}(b)$, equivalently $G \subseteq F^{-1}$ and $\text{dom}(G) = B = \text{dom}(F^{-1})$.

Example 3.2.2. Suppose $A = \mathbb{N}$, let $G = \{(b, a) \in B \times \mathbb{N} : a \text{ is least satisfying } f(a) = b\}$

- Don't have a method to specify such elements in general.

Axiom 3.2.3 (Axiom of Choice - Form I). For every relation R , there is a function $G \subseteq R$ with $\text{dom}(G) = \text{dom}(R)$

3.2.2 Infinite Cartesian Products

$$A \times B = \{\langle x, y \rangle \in \mathcal{P}\mathcal{P}(A \cup B) \mid x \in A \wedge y \in B\}$$

Definition 3.2.4. Let M be a function with domain I such that for every $i \in I$, $H(i)$ is a set. Let

$$\times_{i \in I} H(i) = \{f : I \rightarrow \bigcup_{i \in I} H(i) \mid f(i) \in H(i) \forall i \in I\}$$

Example 3.2.5. Let ω_g be $\{G \subseteq \mathbb{R} \mid 0 \neq G, G \cup \{0\} \text{ is closed under addition}\}$
 $\times_{G \in \omega_g} H(G)$ is a function such that for each $G \in \omega_g$, you get an element of G .

Observation: If one of the $H(i)$ is \emptyset , then $\times_{i \in I} H(i) = \emptyset$

Axiom 3.2.6 (Axiom of Choice - Form II). If H is a function with domain I such that $H(i) \neq \emptyset \forall i \in I$, then $\times_{i \in I} H(i) \neq \emptyset$

(ACI) \rightarrow (ACII): We are given H with $H(i) \neq \emptyset$ for all i . Want $f : I \rightarrow \bigcup_{i \in I} H(i)$ with $f(i) \in H(i) \forall i \in I$. Let $R = \{\langle i, h \rangle \in I \times \bigcup_{i \in I} H(i) \mid h \in H(i)\}$. $\text{dom}(R) = I$, since $H(i) \neq \emptyset$ there is $h \in H(i)$ so $\langle i, h \rangle \in R$. BY ACI, there is $F \subseteq R$ with $\text{dom}(F) = \text{dom}(R) = I$. $\forall i, \langle i, f(i) \rangle \in F$ so $f(i) \in H(i)$

Chapter 4

Naturals, Rationals, Reals

4.1 September 8

4.1.1 Natural Numbers

Idea: each natural number is the set of all the previous numbers.

$0 = \emptyset, 1 = \{\emptyset\}, 2 = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}, \dots, n = \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}, \dots$

Definition 4.1.1. The successor of a set a is defined as $a^+ = a \cup \{a\}$

Definition 4.1.2. A set I is inductive if $\emptyset \in I$ and $\forall a \in I, a^+ \in I$

Definition 4.1.3. a is a natural number if it belongs to all inductive sets, $\forall I (I \text{ inductive} \rightarrow a \in I)$

If I is any inductive set, let $\omega = \{a \in I \mid a \text{ belongs to all inductive sets}\}$ = the minimal inductive set.

Observation: ω is inductive because \emptyset is in all inductive sets and if n belongs to all inductive sets then so does n^+

Axiom 4.1.4 (Infinity Axiom). There is an inductive set.

Inductivon Principle: If $A \subseteq \omega$ is inductive set $A = \omega$

Example 4.1.5. Every natural number is 0 or the successor of some natural number.

Let $A = \{n \in \omega \mid n = 0 \vee \exists m \in \omega n = m^+\}$. A is inductive so $A = \omega$

Definition 4.1.6. A set A is transitive if one of the following equivalent conditions holds:

- if $x \in a \in A$, then $x \in A$
- $\bigcup A \subseteq A$
- if $a \in A$, then $a \subseteq A$
- $A \in \mathcal{P}(A)$

Example 4.1.7. Transitive sets include \emptyset , each natural number, ω , V_ω

Claim: $A = \{n \in \omega \mid n \text{ is transitive}\}$ is inductive (implies all natural numbers are transitive)

- Base: $0 \in A$ since \emptyset is transitive
- Inductive Step: Suppose $n \in A$ transitive, want to show n^+ is transitive.
Consider $x \in a \in n^+ = n \cup \{n\}$. If $a = n$, $x \in n \subseteq n^+$. If $a \in n$, $x \in a \in n$ so by transitivity $x \in n^+$ so $x \in n^+$

Theorem 4.1.8. If a is transitive, then $\bigcup a^+ = a$

Proof. $(\supseteq) a = \bigcup \{a\} \subseteq \bigcup (a \cup \{a\}) = \bigcup a^+ \quad (a \in a^+ \text{ so } a \subseteq \bigcup a^+)$
 (\subseteq) Take $x \in \bigcup a^+$, then let $b \in a^+$ with $x \in b$. If $b = a$, $x \in a$. If $b \in a$, $x \in b \in a$ so $x \in a$.

- If a, b transitive and $a^+ = b^+$ then $a = \bigcup a^+ = \bigcup b^+ = b$ so successor function is one to one on transitive sets, more specifically ω .

Fix a number $k \in \omega$. Consider the following functions:

- $A_k : \omega \rightarrow \omega$ by $A_k(0) = 0, A_k(n^+) = A_k(n)^+$
- $M_k : \omega \rightarrow \omega$ by $M_k(0) = 0, M_k(n^+) = A_k(M_k(n))$

4.2 September 13

4.2.1 Operations on the Natural Numbers

Theorem 4.2.1. Let A be a set, $a \in A$ and $F : A \rightarrow A$. Then there is a unique function $h : \omega \rightarrow A$ such that:

1. $h(0) = a$
2. $h(n^+) = F(h(n))$ for all $n \in \omega$

Proof. Let $h = \{\langle n, b \rangle \in \omega \times A \mid \text{there is } g : n^+ \rightarrow A \text{ such that } g(0) = a, g(i^+) = F(g(i)) \wedge g(n) = b\}$

Claim 1: For all n there is a $g : \{0, \dots, n\} \rightarrow A$ such that $g(0) = a, g(i^+) = F(g(i))$

Claim 2: Such a g is unique.

Proof of Claim 1. Let $I = \{n \in \omega \mid \text{such a } g \text{ exists}\}$. Want to show that I is inductive.

1. $0 \in I$: let $g : \{0\} \rightarrow A$ be such that $g(0) = a$ eg. $g = \{\langle 0, a \rangle\}$
2. Suppose $n \in I$, we know such a g exists for n , $g : \{0, \dots, n\} \rightarrow A$. We want $\tilde{g} : \{0, \dots, n, n^+\} \rightarrow A$.
Let $\tilde{g} = g \cup \{\langle n^+, F(g(n)) \rangle\}$

□

Proof of Claim 2. Suppose $g, \tilde{g} : \{0, \dots, n\} \rightarrow A$ such that $g(0) = a = \tilde{g}(0), g(i^+) = F(g(i)), \tilde{g}(i^+) = F(\tilde{g}(i)), i < n$. We want to show $g(i) = \tilde{g}(i) \forall i \leq n$. $g(0) = \tilde{g}(0), g(i^+) = F(g(i)) = F(\tilde{g}(i)) = \tilde{g}(i^+)$

Can formally show this by induction using $I = \{i \in \omega \mid i \in n^+ \wedge g(i) = \tilde{g}(i) \vee i \notin n^+\}$ □

Claim 3: $\forall n \in \omega, h(n^+) = F(H(n))$

Definition 4.2.2. Given $k \in \omega$, define $A_k : \omega \rightarrow \omega$ by $A_k(0) = k, A_k(n^+) = (A_k(n))^+$. Define $n+k = A_k(n)$. Define $M_k : \omega \rightarrow \omega$ by $M_k(0) = 0, M_k(n^+) = A_k(M_k(n))$, let $n \times k = M_k(n)$.
Let $m < n$ if $m \in n$

Theorem 4.2.3. We can show the associativity of addition: $\forall a, b, v \in \omega((a + b) + c = a + (b + c))$, commutativity of addition: $\forall a, b \in \omega a + b = b + a$, etc.

4.2.2 Integers

Let \sim be the following equivalence relation on $\omega \times \omega$ by $\langle a, b \rangle \sim \langle c, d \rangle \leftrightarrow a + d = b + c$

Define $\mathbb{Z} = \omega \times \omega / \sim$. $0_{\mathbb{Z}} = [\langle 0, 0 \rangle]$, $1_{\mathbb{Z}} = [\langle 1, 0 \rangle]$

Let $[\langle a, b \rangle] +_{\mathbb{Z}} [\langle c, d \rangle] = [\langle a+c, b+d \rangle]$. One needs to show this is well defined eg. if $\langle a, b \rangle \sim \langle a', b' \rangle, \langle c, d \rangle \sim \langle c', d' \rangle$ then $\langle a+c, b+d \rangle \sim \langle a'+c', b'+d' \rangle$

Let $[\langle a, b \rangle] \times_{\mathbb{Z}} [\langle c, d \rangle] = [\langle ac+bd, ad+bc \rangle]$

Let $E : \omega \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ by $E(n) = [\langle n, 0 \rangle]$

4.2.3 Rationals

Let \sim be the following equivalence relation on $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$. $\langle a, b \rangle \sim \langle c, d \rangle \iff a \times_{\mathbb{Z}} d = b \times_{\mathbb{Z}} c$

Define $\mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\} / \sim$. $0_{\mathbb{Q}} = [\langle 0, 1 \rangle]$, $1_{\mathbb{Q}} = [\langle 1, 1 \rangle]$

Let $[\langle a, b \rangle] \times_{\mathbb{Q}} [\langle c, d \rangle] = [\langle a \times c, b \times d \rangle]$

Let $[\langle a, b \rangle] +_{\mathbb{Q}} [\langle c, d \rangle] = [\langle ad+bc, bd \rangle]$

$E : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ by $E(z) = [\langle z, 1 \rangle]$

4.3 September 15

4.3.1 Reals (Dedekind Cuts)

Definition 4.3.1. A dedekind cut is a subset $D \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$ such that

- $\emptyset \neq D \neq \mathbb{Q}$
- D is closed downwards, if $d \in D, c < d \rightarrow c \in D$
- D has no greatest element.

Let $\mathbb{R} = \{D \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Q}) \mid D \text{ is a dedekind cut}\}$

$\sqrt{2} = \{q \in \mathbb{Q} \mid q \times_{\mathbb{Q}} q < 2\}$, $e = \{q \in \mathbb{Q} \mid \exists n \in \omega q <_{\mathbb{Q}} (1 + \frac{1}{n})^N\}$ For $r \in \mathbb{R}$, $-r = \{q \in \mathbb{Q} \mid -q \in r\} \setminus \{-\sup(r)\}$

For $r_1, r_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, $r_1 \leq_{\mathbb{R}} r_2 \iff r_1 \subseteq r_2$

$r_1 \times r_2 = \{q \in \mathbb{Q} \mid \exists q \leq 0 \in r \exists b \leq 0 \in r_2 q, a \times_{\mathbb{Q}} b \text{ if } r_1, r_2 > 0, \dots$

Theorem 4.3.2. $(\mathbb{R}, 0, 1, +, \times, \leq)$ is an ordered field.

$E : \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a field embedding.

Chapter 5

Cardinal Numbers and the Axiom of Choice

5.1 September 15

5.1.1 Cardinality

Definition 5.1.1. A is equinumerous to B (written $A \approx B$) if there is a bijection $f : A \rightarrow B$

Theorem 5.1.2. For every A, B, C

- $A \approx A$
- If $A \approx B$, $B \approx B$
- If $A \approx B$, $B \approx C$ then $A \approx C$

Lemma 5.1.3. $\mathbb{Z} \approx \omega$

Proof. For $z \in \mathbb{Z}$, $f(z) = \begin{cases} -2z & z \leq 0 \\ 2z + 1 & z > 0 \end{cases}$

Lemma 5.1.4. $\mathbb{Q} \approx \omega$

Proof. $f : \omega \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}^+$, $\mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}^+ / \sim$
 $f' : \omega \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$, $f'(n) = \text{least } i \in \omega \text{ } g(i) \notin \{f(1), \dots, f(n-1)\}$

Lemma 5.1.5. $\mathbb{R} \approx (0, 1)_{\mathbb{R}}$

5.2 September 20

5.2.1 Cardinality

- Lemma 5.2.1.** 1. $\mathbb{N} \not\approx \mathbb{R}$
 2. For any set A , $A \not\approx \mathcal{P}(A)$

Proof. 1. Let $f : \omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, claim f is not onto. Want $r \notin \text{ran}(f)$, $\forall n \in \omega r \neq f(n)$. Choose A_0 such that $f(0) \notin A_0$. Given A_n such that $f(0), \dots, f(n) \notin A_n$. Divide A_n by 2, take half that does not contain $f(n+1)$ to be A_{n+1} , then $A_0 \supset A_1 \supset A_2 \supset \dots$, $\bigcap_{n \in \omega} A_n \neq \emptyset$ and for each n , $f(n) \notin A_n$ so $f(n) \notin \bigcap A_n$
 2. let $f : A \rightarrow A$. Claim f is not onto. Let $B = \{b \in A \mid b \notin f(b)\}$. Claim $B \notin \text{range}(f)$. Suppose for contradiction that $B = f(b)$ for $b \in A$, $b \in B \leftrightarrow b \notin f(b) \iff b \notin B$, contradiction.

Definition 5.2.2. A set A is finite if $\exists n \in \omega (A \approx n)$ eg. $\exists \text{next} : n \rightarrow A$ bijection. $A = \{f(0), f(1), \dots, f(n-1)\}$

Lemma 5.2.3 (Pigeonhole Principle). No finite set is equinumerous to a finite subset of itself.

Lemma 5.2.4. If B is a proper subset of $n \in \omega$ there is $m < n$ such that $B \approx m$

Proof. Use induction on n . Let $A = \{n \in \omega \mid \forall B \in n \exists m \in n B \approx m\}$.
 Claim A is inductive. $0 \in A$ trivial, $1 \in A$. $B \subsetneq \{\emptyset\} \rightarrow B = \emptyset \rightarrow B \approx 0$.
 Suppose $n \in A$, want to show $n^+ \in A$. Take $B \subsetneq n^+ = n \cup \{n\}$. If $n \in B$, $B \cap n \subseteq n$ so $\exists m < n B \cap n \approx m$ so $B \approx m^+ < n^+$. If $n \notin B$, either $B \cap n = n$ so $B \approx n < n^+$ or $B \cap n \subsetneq n$ so $\exists m < n B \cap n \approx m$ so $B \approx m^+ < n^+$.

Proof (Pigeonhole Principle). Take n , $B \subsetneq n$, $B \approx n$. Then $B \approx m$ for some $m < n$ so $m \approx n$. Let $A = \{n \mid \exists m < n m \approx n\}$. Claim A is inductive. $0 \in A$, suppose $n \in A$, want to show $n^+ \in A$. Idea: turn a bijection for $n^+ \approx m^+$ so a bijection $n \approx m$.

Corollary 5.2.5. • No finite set is equinumerous to a proper subset

- ω is not finite ($\omega \approx \omega \setminus \{0\}$ by $n \mapsto n+1$)
- Every finite set is equinumerous to a unique natural number.
We call that number the cardinality of A , $\text{card}(A)$
- A subset of a finite subset is finite

Definition 5.2.6. A set κ is said to be a cardinal if

- κ is transitive (if $x \in a, a \in \kappa \rightarrow x \in \kappa$)
- \in is a linear order on κ ($\forall x, y, x \in y$ or $y \in x$ or $x = y$)
- $\forall x \in \kappa, x \not\approx \kappa$

Theorem 5.2.7. For every set A , there is a unique cardinal κ such that $A \approx \kappa$. We call this κ $\text{card}(A)$

Example 5.2.8. • $n = \{0 \in 1 \in 2 \in \dots \in n-1\}$ is a cardinal

- $\omega = \{0 \in 1 \in 2 \in \dots\}$ is a cardinal
- $\omega^+ = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\} \cup \{\omega\} \approx \omega$ is not a cardinal

Notation: $\omega = \aleph_0$, $\text{card}(\mathbb{R}) = 2^{\aleph_0}$, smallest cardinal greater than $\aleph_0 = \aleph_1$

5.3 September 22

5.3.1 Cardinals

Definition 5.3.1. Given cardinals κ and λ let

- $\kappa + \lambda = \text{card}(K \cup L)$ where K and L are disjoint sets of cardinality κ and λ
- $\kappa \cdot \lambda = \text{card}(K \times L)$ where K and L are sets of cardinality κ and λ
- $\kappa^\lambda = \{f \text{ function } L \rightarrow K\} = \text{card}({}^L K)$ where K and L are sets of cardinality κ and λ

Notation: ${}^A B = \{f : f \text{ is a function } A \rightarrow B\}$

Theorem 5.3.2. Let κ, λ, μ be cardinals

- $\kappa + (\lambda + \mu) = (\kappa + \lambda) + \mu$

Proof. Let K, L, M be disjoint sets of size κ, λ, μ . $K \cup (L \cup M) = (K \cup L) \cup M$

- $\kappa + \lambda = \lambda + \kappa$
- $\kappa \cdot (\lambda \cdot \mu) = (\kappa \cdot \lambda) \cdot \mu$

Proof. $(K \times L) \times M \rightarrow K \times (L \times M)$ by $\langle \langle k, l \rangle, m \rangle \rightarrow \langle k, \langle l, m \rangle \rangle$

- $\kappa \cdot \lambda = \lambda \cdot \kappa$
- $\kappa \cdot (\lambda + \mu) = \kappa \cdot \lambda + \kappa \cdot \mu$

Proof. $K \times (L \cup M) \approx (K \times L) \cup (K \times M)$

- $\kappa^{\lambda+\mu} = \kappa^\lambda \cdot \kappa^\mu$

$$\bullet \kappa^{\lambda \cdot \mu} = (\kappa^\lambda)^\mu$$

Proof. $F : {}^{L \times M}K \rightarrow {}^M L K$, $f : {}^{L \times M}K$, $F(g)$ = the function that maps m to $g_m : L \rightarrow K$ where $g_m(l) = g(l, m)$
 $F^{-1}(h)$ with $h : M \rightarrow ({}^L K)$ is g such that $g(l, m) = h(m)(l)$

Definition 5.3.3. A is dominated by B (written $A \leq B$) if there is a one to one function from $A \rightarrow B$

$$A \leq B \iff \text{card}(A) \leq \text{card}(B)$$

Example 5.3.4. $\bullet A \subseteq B \iff A \leq B$

$$\bullet \mathbb{N} \approx \mathbb{N} \approx \mathbb{Q} \leq \mathbb{R} \leq \mathbb{C}$$

Example 5.3.5. $\mathbb{R} \approx (0, 1)_{\mathbb{R}} \leq {}^\omega 2 \leq \mathbb{R}$

$\bullet (0, 1)_{\mathbb{R}} \leq {}^\omega 2$. Given r , let $f_r : \omega \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ be $f_r(n)$ = n th digit of binary representation of r avoiding representations that end in all 1s.

$$\bullet {}^\omega 2 \leq \mathbb{R}, f : \omega \rightarrow 2 \mapsto \sum_{i \in \omega} f(i) \cdot 10^{-i}$$

Observation: ${}^2\omega \approx \mathcal{P}(\omega)$ $\text{card}({}^2\omega) = 2^{\aleph_0}$

5.4 September 27

5.4.1 Schroder-Bernstein Theorem

Example 5.4.1. Show that $\mathbb{R} \cup \{*\}$ and \mathbb{R} are equinumerous.

We define f by $f(*) = 0$, $f(r) = \begin{cases} r + 1 & r \in \mathbb{N} \\ r & r \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{N} \end{cases}$

Lemma 5.4.2. If A is finite, then $\omega \leq A$

Proof. $A \neq \emptyset$ so $\exists a_0 \in A$. Let $f(0) = a_0$, $A \setminus \{a_0\} \neq \emptyset$ since $A \neq 1$ so $a_1 \in A \setminus \{a_0\}$ Let $f(1) = a_1$.
 We want $G : \{\text{finite subsets of } A\} \rightarrow A$ such that $G(F) \in A \setminus F$. Let $R = \{\langle F, a \rangle \mid F \text{ finite } a \in A \setminus F\}$
 Observation: $\text{dom}(R) = \{\text{all finite subsets of } A\}$. Since A is not finite $A \setminus F \neq \emptyset$ for all finite sets, $F \subseteq A$. Use AC to get a function $G \subseteq R$ such that $\text{dom}(G) = \text{dom}(R)$.
 Define $f : \omega \rightarrow A$ by recursion. $f(0) = a_0$, $f(n) = G(\{f(0), \dots, f(n-1)\}) \in A \setminus \{f(0), \dots, f(n-1)\}$.

Corollary 5.4.3. A set A is infinite $\leftrightarrow A$ is equinumerous to some proper subset of itself.

If A is infinite, there is 1 to 1 $f : \omega \rightarrow A$. We define a bijection $h : A \rightarrow A \setminus \{f(0)\}$ by $h(a) = \begin{cases} a & a \notin \text{dom}(f) \\ f(n+1) & a = f(n) \end{cases}$

Theorem 5.4.4 (Schroder Bernstein Theorem). If $A \leq B$, $B \leq A$, then $A \approx B$

Proof. Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ 1 to 1, $g : A \rightarrow B$ 1 to 1. We want $h : A \rightarrow B$ bijection.

Let $C_0 = A \setminus \text{ran}(g)$, let $D_0 = f[C_0]$, $C_1 = [D_0]$. $C_0 \cap C_1 = \emptyset$ because $C_0 = A \setminus \text{ran}(g)$ and $C_1 \subseteq \text{ran}(g)$. We recursively define $C_{n+1} = g[D_n]$, $D_{n+1} = [C_{n+1}]$. We see that C_n disjoint, D_n disjoint. Define

$$h(a) = \begin{cases} g(a) & a \in \bigcup_{n \in \omega} C_n \\ g^{-1} & a \in A \setminus \bigcup_{n \in \omega} C_n \end{cases} \quad . \quad f \rightarrow \bigcup_{n \in \omega} \text{ is a bijection } \bigcup C_n \rightarrow \bigcup D_n. \quad g \rightarrow \bigcup_{n \in \omega} D_n \text{ is a bijection } B \setminus \bigcup_{n \in \omega} D_n \rightarrow A \setminus A \setminus \bigcup_{n \in \omega} C_n$$

- Follows that $\mathbb{R} \approx \mathcal{P}(\omega)$

5.5 September 29

5.5.1 Zorn's Lemma

Theorem 5.5.1. For every A, B either $A \leq B$ or $B \leq A$.

Zorn's Lemma: Let \mathcal{A} be a collection of sets such that for every chain $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$, $\bigcup \mathcal{C} \in \mathcal{A}$. Then \mathcal{A} has a maximal element.

Definition 5.5.2. \mathcal{C} is a chain if for every $C, D \in \mathcal{C}$ either $C \subseteq D$ or $D \subseteq C$
 $B \in \mathcal{A}$ is maximal if there is no $C \in \mathcal{A}$ with $B \subsetneq C$

We prove the following theorem to get some practice with Zorn's Lemma

Theorem 5.5.3. Every vector space has a basis.

Proof. Let V be a vector space over a field k . $B \subseteq V$ is linearly independent if for every $v_1, \dots, v_n \in B$, distinct, k_1, \dots, k_n such that $\sum k_i v_i = 0$, $k_1 = k_2 = \dots = 0$. B is a basis if B is linearly independent and $\langle B \rangle = V$ where $\langle B \rangle = \{ \sum_{i=1}^n k_i v_i \mid v_1, \dots, v_n \in B, k_1, \dots, k_n \in k \}$
Let $\mathcal{A} = \{ B \subseteq V \mid B \text{ is linearly independent} \}$. We need to show that if $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ is a chain then $\bigcup \mathcal{C} \in \mathcal{A}$. Consider a chain \mathcal{C} consisting of linearly independent sets. To prove that $\bigcup \mathcal{C}$ is linearly independent assume we have $v_1, \dots, v_n \in \bigcup \mathcal{C}$, $k_1, \dots, k_n \in k$ with $\sum_{i=1}^n v_i k_i = 0$. For each v_i , there is $C_i \in \mathcal{C}$ with $v_i \in C_i$. One C_i contains all the others, say C_{i_0} . $v_1, \dots, v_n \in C_{i_0}$. C_{i_0} is linearly independent so all $k_i = 0$. Now we apply Zorn's Lemma to get a maximal element $B \in \mathcal{A}$. B is a maximal linearly independent set in V . $\langle B \rangle = V$ since if there is some $v \in V \setminus \langle B \rangle$ then $B \cup \{v\}$ is linearly independent, contradicting the maximality of B .

Lemma 5.5.4. Let \mathcal{C} be a collection of functions. Then

- (i) $\bigcup \mathcal{C}$ is a function
- (ii) $\text{dom}(\bigcup \mathcal{C}) = \bigcup \{ \text{dom } f : f \in \mathcal{C} \}$
- (iii) $\text{ran}(\bigcup \mathcal{C}) = \bigcup \{ \text{ran } f : f \in \mathcal{C} \}$
- (iv) if all functions in \mathcal{C} are 1 to 1, then $\bigcup \mathcal{C}$ is one to one.

Proof. (ii): $\text{dom}(\bigcup \mathcal{C}) = \{a \mid \exists b \langle a, b \rangle \in \bigcup \mathcal{C}\} = \{a \mid \exists b \exists f \in \mathcal{C} \langle a, b \rangle \in f\} = \{a \mid \exists f (\exists b \langle a, b \rangle \in f)\} = \{a \mid \exists f \in \mathcal{C} a \in \text{dom } f\} = \bigcup \{\text{dom } f : f \in \mathcal{C}\}$

(i): $\bigcup \mathcal{C}$ is a relation. Want to show it is a function. Suppose $\langle a, b \rangle \in \bigcup \mathcal{C}$ and $\langle a, c \rangle \in \bigcup \mathcal{C}$. $\exists f \in \mathcal{C}$, $\langle a, b \rangle \in f$, $\exists g \in \mathcal{C}$ $\langle a, c \rangle \in g$. Since \mathcal{C} a chain, either $f \subseteq g$ or $g \subseteq f$. If $f \subseteq g$, $\langle a, b \rangle, \langle a, c \rangle \in g$, a function, $b = c$.

(iv): $\bigcup \mathcal{C}$ is a function. Want to show it is one to one. Suppose $\langle a, b \rangle \in \bigcup \mathcal{C}$ and $\langle c, b \rangle \in \bigcup \mathcal{C}$. $\exists f \in \mathcal{C}$, $\langle a, b \rangle \in f$, $\exists g \in \mathcal{C}$ $\langle c, b \rangle \in g$. Since \mathcal{C} a chain, either $f \subseteq g$ or $g \subseteq f$. If $f \subseteq g$, $\langle a, b \rangle, \langle c, b \rangle \in g$, a one to one, $a = c$.