

- (1) Show that there is no set V such that every set is a member of V .

Solution: Suppose not and let V be a set such that every set is a member of V . Define $W = \{x \in V : x \notin x\}$. Then W is a set by the axiom of comprehension. Since W is a set, either $W \in W$ or $W \notin W$. If $W \in W$, then since $W \in V$, we must have $W \notin W$. Similarly, if $W \notin W$, then $W \in W$. In either case we get a contradiction. Hence V does not exist. \square

- (2) Show that $(x, y) = (a, b)$ iff $x = a$ and $y = b$.

Solution: The right to left implication is obvious. So assume $(x, y) = (a, b)$ and we'll show $x = a$ and $y = b$. We consider two cases.

Case $x = y$: In this case, $(x, y) = \{\{x\}, \{x, y\}\} = \{\{x\}\}$. Hence $(a, b) = \{\{a\}, \{a, b\}\} = \{\{x\}\}$. It follows that $\{x\} = \{a\} = \{a, b\}$. So $x = a = b$. Hence $x = y = a = b$.

Case $x \neq y$: In this case, $\{\{x\}, \{x, y\}\}$ is a set with two distinct members. It follows that $\{\{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$ is also a set with two distinct members. So $a \neq b$. Now $\{x\} \in \{\{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$ implies $\{x\} = \{a\}$ since $\{x\} \neq \{a, b\}$ (as the latter has two distinct members). Similarly, $\{x, y\} = \{a, b\}$. As $x = a$, and $y \neq x$, we get $y = b$. \square

- (3) Suppose R is an equivalence relation on A . For each $a \in A$, define the R -equivalence class of a by $[a] = \{b \in A : aRb\}$. Show that $\{[a] : a \in A\}$ is a partition of A . Furthermore, show that for every partition \mathcal{F} of A , there is an equivalence relation S on A such that \mathcal{F} is the set of all S -equivalence classes.

Solution: To show that $\{[a] : a \in A\}$ is a partition of A , we need to show that $\bigcup\{[a] : a \in A\} = A$ and for any two distinct R -equivalence classes $[a], [b]$, we must have $[a] \cap [b] = \emptyset$.

Since R is a reflexive relation on A , for every $a \in A$, $a \in [a]$. Hence $A \subseteq \bigcup\{[a] : a \in A\}$. As $[a] \subseteq A$ for every $a \in A$, we also have $\bigcup\{[a] : a \in A\} \subseteq A$. Thus $\bigcup\{[a] : a \in A\} = A$.

Next, towards a contradiction, suppose $a, b \in A$, $[a] \neq [b]$ and $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$. Fix $c \in [a] \cap [b]$. Since $c \in [a]$, we get aRc . Similarly, bRc . Since R is symmetric, it follows that cRb . Since aRc and cRb , using the fact that R is transitive, we get aRb and hence also bRa (as R is symmetric). We now claim the following.

$[a] \subseteq [b]$: Fix $x \in [a]$. Then aRx . As bRa , by transitivity of R , we get bRx . Hence $x \in [b]$. So $[a] \subseteq [b]$.

$[b] \subseteq [a]$: Fix $y \in [b]$. Then bRy . As aRb , by transitivity of R , we get aRy . Hence $y \in [a]$. So $[b] \subseteq [a]$.

It follows that $[a] = [b]$ which contradicts our assumption that $[a] \neq [b]$. This finishes the proof that $\{[a] : a \in A\}$ is a partition of A .

Now fix a partition \mathcal{F} of A and define a relation S on A as follows. For $a, b \in A$, aSb iff there exists $E \in \mathcal{F}$ such that both a and b are members of E .

Let us first check that S is an equivalence relation on A . It is clear that S is a symmetric relation on A . Since $\bigcup \mathcal{F} = A$, it follows that S is reflexive. Next suppose aSb and bSc . Fix $E, F \in \mathcal{F}$ such that $a, b \in E$ and $b, c \in F$. Since \mathcal{F} has pairwise disjoint members and since $E \cap F \neq \emptyset$, we must have $E = F$. Hence aSc . So S is transitive. It follows that S is an equivalence relation on A .

Finally, let us check that the set $\{[a] : a \in A\}$ of S -equivalence classes is equal to \mathcal{F} . Let $[a]$ be an S -equivalence class. Fix $E \in \mathcal{F}$ such that $a \in E$. Then by the definition of S , it follows that $[a] = \{b \in A : aSb\} = \{b \in A : b \in E\} = E$. Conversely, if $E \in \mathcal{F}$, then for every $a \in E$, $[a] = E$. Hence $\{[a] : a \in A\} = \mathcal{F}$. \square

(4) Let (L, \prec) be a linear ordering. Prove the following.

(a) (L, \prec) is a well-ordering iff there is no sequence $\langle x_n : n < \omega \rangle$ in L such that $(\forall n < \omega)(x_{n+1} \prec x_n)$.

(b) (L, \prec) is a well-ordering iff for every $A \subseteq L$, (A, \prec) is isomorphic to an initial segment of (L, \prec) .

Solution: (a) First suppose that (L, \prec) is a well-ordering. We'll show that there is no \prec -decreasing sequence in L . Towards a contradiction, suppose there is a sequence $\langle x_n : n < \omega \rangle$ in L such that for every $n < \omega$, $x_{n+1} \prec x_n$. Let $A = \{x_n : n < \omega\}$ be the range of this sequence. Then A has no \prec -least member which contradicts the fact that (L, \prec) is a well-ordering.

Now suppose (L, \prec) is not a well-ordering and fix a nonempty $A \subseteq L$ such that A does not have a \prec -least member. We'll construct a \prec -decreasing sequence $\langle x_n : n < \omega \rangle$ in L . Using the axiom of choice, fix a choice function $F : \mathcal{P}(A) \setminus \{\emptyset\} \rightarrow A$. So for every nonempty $W \subseteq A$, $F(W) \in W$. By recursion on $n < \omega$, define $\langle x_n : n < \omega \rangle$ as follows. $x_0 = F(A)$ and for every $n < \omega$,

$$x_{n+1} = F(\{x \in A : x \prec x_n\})$$

Note that this is well-defined since $\{x \in A : x \prec x_n\}$ is nonempty (as A has no \prec -least member). It is clear that $\langle x_n : n < \omega \rangle$ is as required. \square

(b) First suppose (L, \prec) is a well-ordering. Fix $A \subseteq L$. We'll construct an isomorphism from (A, \prec) to an initial segment of (L, \prec) . Define

$$f = \{(x, a) \in L \times A : (\text{pred}(L, \prec, x), \prec) \cong (\text{pred}(A, \prec, a), \prec)\}$$

(i) f is a function: Clearly, f is a relation. To see that it is a function, fix $(x, a), (x, b) \in f$ and we'll show that $a = b$. Towards a contradiction suppose $a \neq b$. Without loss of generality suppose $a \prec b$. Since (x, a) and (x, b) are both in f , we get $(\text{pred}(L, \prec, x), \prec) \cong (\text{pred}(A, \prec, a), \prec)$ and $(\text{pred}(L, \prec, x), \prec) \cong (\text{pred}(A, \prec, b), \prec)$.

Hence $(\text{pred}(A, \prec, a), \prec) \cong (\text{pred}(A, \prec, b), \prec)$. But this means that $(\text{pred}(A, \prec, b), \prec)$ is a well-ordering that is isomorphic to a proper initial segment of itself.

Contradiction. So f is a function.

(ii) f is injective: The proof is similar to (i) above.

(iii) $\text{dom}(f)$ is an initial segment of (L, \prec) : Suppose $x \in \text{dom}(f)$ and $y \prec x$. We need to show that $y \in \text{dom}(f)$. Let $f(x) = a$. Fix an isomorphism $h : (\text{pred}(L, \prec, x), \prec) \rightarrow (\text{pred}(A, \prec, a), \prec)$. Note that $y \in \text{dom}(h)$. Let $h(y) = b$. It is clear that $h \upharpoonright \text{pred}(L, \prec, y)$ is an isomorphism from $(\text{pred}(L, \prec, y), \prec)$ to $(\text{pred}(A, \prec, b), \prec)$. Hence $(y, b) \in f$ and so $y \in \text{dom}(f)$.

(iv) $\text{range}(f)$ is an initial segment of (A, \prec) : The proof is similar to (iii) above.

(v) f is an isomorphism from $(\text{dom}(f), \prec)$ to $(\text{range}(f), \prec)$: Suppose $x \prec y$ are in $\text{dom}(f)$. Put $a = f(x)$ and $b = f(y)$. Using the definition of f , it follows that $(\text{pred}(L, \prec, x), \prec) \cong (\text{pred}(A, \prec, a), \prec)$ and $(\text{pred}(L, \prec, y), \prec) \cong (\text{pred}(A, \prec, b), \prec)$. As $x \prec y$, it follows that $(\text{pred}(A, \prec, a), \prec)$ is isomorphic to an initial segment of $(\text{pred}(A, \prec, b), \prec)$. Since no well-ordering can be isomorphic to a proper initial-segment of itself, it follows that $a \prec b$. So f is an isomorphism from $(\text{dom}(f), \prec)$ to $(\text{range}(f), \prec)$.

(vi) $\text{range}(f) = A$: Suppose not. Let $a = \min(A \setminus \text{range}(f))$. Since $\text{range}(f)$ is an initial segment of (A, \prec) , it follows that $\text{range}(f) = \text{pred}(A, \prec, a)$. We claim that $\text{dom}(f) = L$. For suppose not and let $x = \min(L \setminus \text{dom}(f))$. Then $\text{dom}(f) = \text{pred}(L, \prec, x)$. But this implies that $(a, b) \in f$ using (i)-(v) above which is a contradiction. So $\text{dom}(f) = L$. Hence $a \in \text{dom}(f)$. Now observe that $f(a) \prec a$ (since $\text{range}(f) = \text{pred}(A, \prec, a)$) and iteratively applying f , we get $a \succ f(a) \succ f(f(a)) \succ \dots$. But this means that (L, \prec) has an infinite \prec -descending sequence which is impossible by part (a).

(i)-(vi) imply that (A, \prec) is isomorphic (via f^{-1}) to an initial segment of (L, \prec) (namely $\text{dom}(f)$).

Next we show the converse. Suppose for every $A \subseteq L$, (A, \prec) is isomorphic to an initial segment of (L, \prec) . We'll show that (L, \prec) must be a well-ordering. We can assume that $L \neq \emptyset$. Let $a \in L$. Then $(\{a\}, \prec)$ is isomorphic to an initial segment of (L, \prec) . This implies that L has a \prec -least element, say x . Now let $A \subseteq L$ be nonempty and fix an isomorphism $f : (A, \prec) \rightarrow (W, \prec)$ where W is an initial segment of (L, \prec) . Note that $x \in W$. Put $a = f^{-1}(x)$. Then a is the \prec -least element of A . It follows that (L, \prec) is a well-ordering. \square

(5) Suppose (X, \prec_1) and (Y, \prec_2) are well-orderings. Then exactly one of the following holds.

- (a) $(X, \prec_1) \cong (Y, \prec_2)$.
- (b) For some $x \in X$, $(\text{pred}(X, \prec_1, x), \prec_1) \cong (Y, \prec_2)$.
- (c) For some $y \in Y$, $(\text{pred}(Y, \prec_2, y), \prec_2) \cong (X, \prec_1)$.

Furthermore, in each of the three cases, the isomorphism is unique.

Solution: Define

$$f = \{(a, b) \in X \times Y : (\text{pred}(X, \prec_1, a), \prec_1) \cong (\text{pred}(Y, \prec_2, b), \prec_2)\}$$

(i) f is a function: Clearly, f is a relation. To see that it is a function, fix $(a, b), (a, c) \in f$ and we'll show that $b = c$. Towards a contradiction suppose $b \neq c$. Without loss of generality suppose $b \prec_2 c$. Since (a, b) and (a, c) are both in f , we get $(\text{pred}(X, \prec_1, a), \prec_1) \cong (\text{pred}(Y, \prec_2, b), \prec_2)$ and $(\text{pred}(X, \prec_1, a), \prec_1) \cong (\text{pred}(Y, \prec_2, c), \prec_2)$. Hence $(\text{pred}(Y, \prec_2, c), \prec_2) \cong (\text{pred}(Y, \prec_2, b), \prec_2)$. But this means that $(\text{pred}(Y, \prec_2, c), \prec_2)$ is a well-ordering that is isomorphic to a proper initial segment of itself. Contradiction. So f is a function.

(ii) f is injective: The proof is similar to (i) above.

(iii) $\text{dom}(f)$ is an initial segment of (X, \prec_1) : Suppose $x \in \text{dom}(f)$ and $y \prec_1 x$. We need to show that $y \in \text{dom}(f)$. Let $f(x) = a$. Fix an isomorphism $h : (\text{pred}(X, \prec_1, x), \prec_1) \rightarrow (\text{pred}(Y, \prec_2, a), \prec_2)$. Note that $y \in \text{dom}(h)$. Let $h(y) = b$. It is clear that $h \upharpoonright \text{pred}(X, \prec_1, y)$ is an isomorphism from $(\text{pred}(X, \prec_1, y), \prec_1)$ to $(\text{pred}(Y, \prec_2, b), \prec_2)$. Hence $(y, b) \in f$ and so $y \in \text{dom}(f)$.

(iv) $\text{range}(f)$ is an initial segment of (A, \prec) : The proof is similar to (iii) above.

(v) f is an isomorphism from $(\text{dom}(f), \prec_1)$ to $(\text{range}(f), \prec_2)$: Suppose $x \prec_1 y$ are in $\text{dom}(f)$. Put $a = f(x)$ and $b = f(y)$. Using the definition of f , it follows that $(\text{pred}(X, \prec_1, x), \prec_1) \cong (\text{pred}(Y, \prec_2, a), \prec_2)$ and $(\text{pred}(X, \prec_1, y), \prec_1) \cong (\text{pred}(Y, \prec_2, b), \prec_2)$. As $x \prec_1 y$, it follows that $(\text{pred}(Y, \prec_2, a), \prec_2)$ is isomorphic to an initial segment of $(\text{pred}(Y, \prec_2, b), \prec_2)$. Since no well-ordering can be isomorphic to a proper initial-segment of itself, we must have $a \prec_2 b$. So f is an isomorphism from $(\text{dom}(f), \prec_1)$ to $(\text{range}(f), \prec_2)$.

(vi) Either $\text{dom}(f) = X$ or $\text{range}(f) = A$: Suppose not. Let x be the \prec_1 -least member of $X \setminus \text{dom}(f)$ and let a be the \prec_2 -least member of $Y \setminus \text{range}(f)$. Since $\text{range}(f)$ is an initial segment of (Y, \prec_2) , it follows that $\text{range}(f) = \text{pred}(Y, \prec_2, a)$. Similarly, $\text{dom}(f) = \text{pred}(X, \prec_1, x)$. But now $(x, a) \in f$ using (i)-(v) above which is a contradiction.

If $\text{dom}(f) = X$ and $\text{range}(f) = Y$, we get clause (a). If $\text{dom}(f) \neq X$ and $\text{range}(f) = Y$, we get clause (b). If $\text{dom}(f) = X$ and $\text{rng}(f) \neq Y$, we get clause (c).

The uniqueness part follows from the fact that the only isomorphism from a well-ordering to itself is the identity function. \square

- (6) Let $f : \mathcal{P}(\omega) \setminus \{\emptyset\} \rightarrow \omega$ be defined by $f(X) = \min(X)$. Call a well-orderings (A, \prec) f -directed iff $A \subseteq \omega$ and for every $x \in A$,

$$f(\omega \setminus \text{pred}(A, \prec, x)) = x$$

Describe all f -directed well-orderings.

Solution: It is clear that each well-ordering in $\{(\alpha, <) : \alpha \leq \omega\}$ is f -directed. Let us show that there is no other f -directed well-ordering. Suppose (A, \prec) is an f -directed well-ordering. First suppose that A is finite (and nonempty) and let $x_0 \prec x_1 \prec \cdots \prec x_n$ list the members of A where $n < \omega$. Then an easy induction on $k \leq n$ shows that $x_k = k$. Next suppose that A is infinite. Let $\text{type}(A, \prec) = \alpha$. So $\alpha \geq \omega$. Let $\langle x_\beta : \beta < \alpha \rangle$ be an order isomorphism from α to (A, \prec) . Once again by induction on $n < \omega$, we get $x_n = n$. Since $A \subseteq \omega$, it follows that $\alpha = \omega$ and hence $(A, \prec) = (\omega, <)$. \square

- (7) Show that if $\alpha < \beta$ are ordinals, then there is a unique ordinal γ such that $\alpha + \gamma = \beta$. (**Hint:** $\gamma = \text{type}(\beta \setminus \alpha, \in)$).

Solution: Following the hint, put $\gamma = \text{type}(\beta \setminus \alpha, \in)$. Note that

$$(\beta, \in) \cong (\alpha, \in) \oplus (\beta \setminus \alpha, \in)$$

Hence

$$\alpha + \gamma = \alpha + \text{type}((\beta \setminus \alpha, \in)) = \text{type}((\alpha, \in) \oplus (\beta \setminus \alpha, \in)) = \beta$$

To see uniqueness, suppose $\alpha + \gamma_1 = \alpha + \gamma_2 = \beta$. We'll show that $\gamma_1 = \gamma_2$. Suppose not and without loss of generality assume $\gamma_1 < \gamma_2$. Then $\gamma_1 + 1 \leq \gamma_2$. Now

$$\beta = \alpha + \gamma_2 \geq \alpha + (\gamma_1 + 1) = (\alpha + \gamma_1) + 1 > \alpha + \gamma_1 = \beta$$

So $\beta > \beta$ which is impossible. \square

- (8) Suppose α, β, γ are ordinals and $\alpha + \beta = \alpha + \gamma$. Show that $\beta = \gamma$.

Solution: See problem (7). \square

- (9) Suppose $\alpha \cdot \alpha = \beta \cdot \beta$. Show that $\alpha = \beta$.

Solution: If α or β is 0, then this is clear. So assume $\alpha \geq 1$ and $\beta \geq 1$. Towards a contradiction, suppose $\alpha \neq \beta$ and without loss of generality say $\alpha < \beta$. Then $\alpha + 1 \leq \beta$. Now

$$\beta \cdot \beta \geq \alpha \cdot (\alpha + 1) = (\alpha \cdot \alpha) + \alpha \geq (\alpha \cdot \alpha) + 1 > \alpha \cdot \alpha$$

which contradicts $\alpha \cdot \alpha = \beta \cdot \beta$. \square

- (10) Show that there is an uncountable chain in $(\mathcal{P}(\omega), \subseteq)$. [**Hint:** Identify ω with the set of rationals \mathbb{Q} and for each real number x , consider $\{r \in \mathbb{Q} : r \leq x\}$].

Solution: Let \mathbb{Q}^+ be the set of positive rational numbers and \mathbb{R}^+ be the set of positive real numbers. Define $h : \mathbb{Q}^+ \rightarrow \omega$ by

$$h\left(\frac{m}{n}\right) = 2^m 3^n$$

where n, m are coprime. Note that h is injective and hence a bijection from \mathbb{Q}^+ to $\text{range}(h) \subseteq \omega$. For each $x \in \mathbb{R}^+$, let $A_x = \{r \in \mathbb{Q}^+ : r < x\}$. Then $x < y$ implies $A_x \subsetneq A_y$. Hence $\{A_x : x \in \mathbb{R}^+\}$ is an uncountable chain in $(\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Q}^+), \subseteq)$. It follows that $\{h[A_x] : x \in \mathbb{R}^+\}$ is an uncountable chain in $(\mathcal{P}(\omega), \subseteq)$. \square

- (11) Call an ordinal α good iff there exists $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ such that $(X, <)$ is order isomorphic to α . Show that α is good iff $\alpha < \omega_1$.

Solution: Observe that α is good iff there is an order preserving function from α to \mathbb{R} . By transfinite induction on $\alpha < \omega_1$, we'll show that there exists $f : \alpha \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that for every $\beta < \gamma < \alpha$, $f(\beta) < f(\gamma)$.

If $\alpha \leq \omega$, this is clear. So let $\omega \leq \alpha < \omega_1$ and for each $\beta < \alpha$, fix an order preserving function $f_\beta : \beta \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We will construct an order preserving function from α to \mathbb{R} . We have the following cases.

α is successor: Suppose $\alpha = \beta + 1$. For each $n < \omega$, let $h_n : (n, n+1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be an order preserving bijection. For example, take

$$h_n(x) = \tan(\pi(x - (n + 0.5)))$$

Define $f_\alpha : \alpha \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as follows:

$$f_\alpha(\eta) = \begin{cases} h_0^{-1}(f_\beta(\eta)) & \text{if } \eta < \beta \\ 1 & \text{if } \eta = \beta \end{cases}$$

Note that $f_\alpha \upharpoonright \beta : \beta \rightarrow (0, 1)$ is an order preserving function and $f_\alpha(\beta) = 1$. So $f_\alpha : \alpha \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is order preserving.

α is limit: Since $|\alpha| = \omega$, we can fix a strictly increasing sequence of ordinals $\langle \beta_n : n < \omega \rangle$ such that $\beta_0 = 0$ and $\sup(\{\beta_n : n < \omega\}) = \alpha$. For each $\eta < \alpha$, define

$$f_\alpha(\eta) = h_n^{-1}(f_{\beta_n}(\eta)) \iff \beta_n \leq \eta < \beta_{n+1}$$

Since $h_n^{-1} \circ f_{\beta_n} : \beta_n \rightarrow (n, n+1)$ is order preserving, it follows that f_α maps $\{\eta : \beta_n \leq \eta < \beta_{n+1}\}$ into $(n, n+1)$ in an order preserving way. Hence f_α is an order preserving function from $\bigcup_{n < \omega} \{\eta : \beta_n \leq \eta < \beta_{n+1}\} = \alpha$ to \mathbb{R} .

Next we show that there is no order preserving function from ω_1 to \mathbb{R} . Suppose not and let $f : \omega_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be order preserving. For each $\alpha < \omega_1$, choose a rational r_α in the interval $(f(\alpha), f(\alpha + 1))$. Since the set of rationals \mathbb{Q} is countable and ω_1 is uncountable, there must exist $\alpha_1 < \alpha_2 < \omega_1$ such that $r_{\alpha_1} = r_{\alpha_2} = r$. Note that

$$\alpha_1 < \alpha_2 \implies \alpha_1 + 1 \leq \alpha_2 \implies f(\alpha_1 + 1) \leq f(\alpha_2)$$

It follows that $(f(\alpha_1), f(\alpha_1 + 1)) \cap (f(\alpha_2), f(\alpha_2 + 1)) = \emptyset$. But this contradicts the fact that r belongs to both of these intervals. \square

- (12) Let (P, \preceq_1) be a partial ordering. Show that there exists \preceq_2 such that (P, \preceq_2) is a linear ordering and \preceq_2 extends \preceq_1 which means the following:

$$(\forall a, b \in P)(a \preceq_1 b \implies a \preceq_2 b)$$

Solution: Let \mathcal{F} be the family of all relations \preceq on P such that (P, \preceq) is a partial ordering and $\preceq_1 \subseteq \preceq$. \mathcal{F} is nonempty since $\preceq_1 \in \mathcal{F}$.

We claim that every chain (under inclusion) in \mathcal{F} has an upper bound. Let $C \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ be a chain. Put $\preceq = \bigcup C$. It suffices to show that \preceq is in \mathcal{F} . It is clear that \preceq is a reflexive relation on P since $\preceq_1 \subseteq \preceq$. Next, suppose $a \preceq b$ and $b \preceq a$. Choose \preceq_1, \preceq_2 in C such that $a \preceq_1 b$ and $b \preceq_2 a$. Since C is a chain, either $\preceq_1 \subseteq \preceq_2$ or $\preceq_2 \subseteq \preceq_1$. Say $\preceq_1 \subseteq \preceq_2$. Then $a \preceq_2 b$ and $b \preceq_2 a$. As \preceq_2 is antisymmetric, it follows that $a = b$. Hence \preceq is antisymmetric. A similar argument shows that \preceq is transitive. Hence (P, \preceq) is a partial ordering and $\preceq_1 \subseteq \preceq$. So \preceq is in \mathcal{F} .

Using Zorn's lemma, fix a maximal element \preceq_2 in \mathcal{F} . We claim that for every a, b in P , either $a \preceq_2 b$ or $b \preceq_2 a$. Suppose this fails for some $a \neq b$ in P . Define

$$\preceq = \preceq_2 \cup \{(x, y) \in P \times P : x \preceq_2 a \text{ and } b \preceq_2 y\}$$

Note that $a \preceq b$. We'll show that (P, \preceq) is a partial ordering and hence $\preceq \in \mathcal{F}$. This suffices as it contradicts the maximality of \preceq_2 .

It is clear that \preceq is a reflexive relation on P . Let us check that \preceq is antisymmetric. Suppose $x \preceq y$ and $y \preceq x$. We have the following three cases.

- (i) Both (x, y) and (y, x) are in \preceq_2 : In this case $x = y$ as \preceq_2 is antisymmetric.
- (ii) Exactly one of (x, y) and (y, x) is in \preceq_2 : Say $(y, x) \in \preceq_2$ and $(x, y) \notin \preceq_2$ (The other case is similar). Then $x \preceq_2 a$ and $b \preceq_2 y$. Since \preceq_2 is transitive and $b \preceq_2 y$, $y \preceq_2 x$ and $x \preceq_2 a$, we get $b \preceq_2 a$ which is impossible. So this case cannot occur.
- (iii) Both (x, y) and (y, x) are not in \preceq_2 : Then $x \preceq_2 a$, $b \preceq_2 y$, $y \preceq_2 a$ and $b \preceq_2 x$. Since \preceq_2 is transitive, $b \preceq_2 x$ and $x \preceq_2 a$, we get $b \preceq_2 a$ which is impossible. So this case doesn't occur.

It follows that \preceq is antisymmetric. Let us check that \preceq is transitive. Suppose $x \preceq y$ and $y \preceq z$. We'll show $x \preceq z$. Again, we have the following three cases.

- (a) Both (x, y) and (y, z) are in \preceq_2 : In this case $x \preceq_2 z$ as \preceq_2 is transitive. Hence also $x \preceq z$.
- (b) Exactly one of (x, y) and (y, z) is in \preceq_2 : Say $(x, y) \in \preceq_2$ and $(y, z) \notin \preceq_2$ (The other case is similar). Then $y \preceq_2 a$ and $b \preceq_2 z$. Since \preceq_2 is transitive, $x \preceq_2 y$ and $y \preceq_2 a$, we get $x \preceq_2 a$. Hence $x \preceq_2 a$ and $b \preceq_2 z$. It follows that $x \preceq z$.
- (c) Both (x, y) and (y, z) are not in \preceq_2 : Then $x \preceq_2 a$, $b \preceq_2 y$, $y \preceq_2 a$ and $b \preceq_2 z$. Since \preceq_2 is transitive, $b \preceq_2 y$ and $y \preceq_2 a$, we get $b \preceq_2 a$ which is impossible. So this case doesn't occur.

It follows that \trianglelefteq is transitive. Hence (P, \trianglelefteq) is a partial ordering and the proof is complete. \square

(13) Suppose $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is additive and $a = f(1)$.

(a) Show that $f(0) = 0$.

(b) Show that for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $f(-x) = -f(x)$.

(c) Show that for every $x \in \mathbb{Q}$, $f(x) = ax$.

Solution: (a) Taking $x = y = 0$, we get $f(0 + 0) = f(0) + f(0)$. So $f(0) = 0$.

(b) Taking $y = -x$, we get $f(x + (-x)) = f(x) + f(-x)$. So $f(x) + f(-x) = f(0) = 0$. Hence $f(-x) = -f(x)$.

(c) For each $m, n \geq 1$, $f(m) = f(n(m/n)) = f(m/n + m/n + \cdots + m/n) = nf(m/n)$. So $f(m/n) = f(m)/n$. Next $f(m) = f(1 + 1 + \cdots + 1) = mf(1) = ma$. So $f(m/n) = a(m/n)$. Also $f(-m/n) = -f(m/n) = a(-m/n)$. It follows that for each nonzero $x \in \mathbb{Q}$, $f(x) = ax$. Since $f(0) = 0$, part (c) follows. \square

(14) Let $H \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be a Hamel basis.

(a) Show that every nonzero $x \in \mathbb{R}$ can be uniquely written as

$$x = a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \cdots + a_nx_n$$

where $x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_n$ are in H and a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are nonzero rational numbers. Uniqueness means the following: Suppose

$$x = a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \cdots + a_nx_n = b_1y_1 + b_2y_2 + \cdots + b_my_m$$

where $x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_n$ and $y_1 < y_2 < \cdots < y_m$ are in H and $a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_m$ are nonzero rationals. Show that $m = n$ and for every $1 \leq k \leq n$, $x_k = y_k$ and $a_k = b_k$.

(b) Let $f : H \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Show that there is a unique additive function $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $f \subseteq g$.

Solution: (a) First let us check uniqueness: Suppose

$$x = a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \cdots + a_nx_n = b_1y_1 + b_2y_2 + \cdots + b_my_m$$

where $x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_n$ and $y_1 < y_2 < \cdots < y_m$ are in H and $a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_m$ are nonzero rationals. We must show that $m = n$ and for every $1 \leq k \leq n$, $x_k = y_k$ and $a_k = b_k$. Note that

$$(a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \cdots + a_nx_n) - (b_1y_1 + b_2y_2 + \cdots + b_my_m) = 0$$

After collecting like terms this boils down to showing the following. If $w_1 < w_2 < \cdots < w_p$ are in H , c_1, c_2, \dots, c_p are rationals and

$$c_1w_1 + c_2w_2 + \cdots + c_pw_p = 0$$

then $c_1 = c_2 = \cdots = c_p = 0$. But this is true because H is \mathbb{Q} -linearly independent.

Next suppose $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is nonzero. We must show that x is a finite \mathbb{Q} -linear combination of members of H . If $x \in H$, then $x = 1 \cdot x$ hence this is clear. So assume $x \notin H$. As H is a maximal \mathbb{Q} -linearly independent subset of \mathbb{R} , it follows that $H \cup \{x\}$ is not \mathbb{Q} -linearly independent. As H is \mathbb{Q} -linearly independent, this means that there are $x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_n$ in H and nonzero rationals a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, b such that

$$a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \cdots + a_nx_n + bx = 0$$

Therefore,

$$x = -\frac{a_1}{b}x_1 - \frac{a_2}{b}x_2 - \cdots - \frac{a_n}{b}x_n$$

(b) Define $g(x)$ as follows. If $x = a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n$ where $x_1 < \cdots < x_n$ are in H and a_1, \dots, a_n are rationals, then

$$g(x) = a_1f(x_1) + \cdots + a_nf(x_n)$$

g is well-defined by part (a). That g is additive is clear from its definition. To see uniqueness suppose $g' : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is another additive extension of f . Then for every $r \in \mathbb{Q}$, $g'(rx) = rg'(x)$. Hence if $x = a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n$ where $x_1 < \cdots < x_n$ are in H and a_1, \dots, a_n are rationals, then

$$g'(x) = a_1g'(x_1) + \cdots + a_ng'(x_n) = a_1f(x_1) + \cdots + a_nf(x_n) = g(x)$$

So $g' = g$. □

- (15) Show that for every $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ there are injective functions $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $f = g + h$.

Solution: Let $\langle x_\alpha : \alpha < \mathfrak{c} \rangle$ be an injective sequence whose range is \mathbb{R} . Using transfinite recursion, construct $\langle y_\alpha : \alpha < \mathfrak{c} \rangle$ as follows.

(1) $y_0 = 0$.

(2) Suppose $1 \leq \alpha < \mathfrak{c}$ and $\langle y_\beta : \beta < \alpha \rangle$ has been defined. Put

$$W = \{y_\beta : \beta < \alpha\} \cup \{y_\beta + f(x_\alpha) - f(x_\beta) : \beta < \alpha\}$$

Then $|W| < \mathfrak{c}$. So choose $y \in \mathbb{R} \setminus W$ and define $y = y_\alpha$. Note that $y_\alpha \notin \{y_\beta : \beta < \alpha\}$ and $f(x_\alpha) - y_\alpha \notin \{f(x_\beta) - y_\beta : \beta < \alpha\}$.

Define $g(x_\alpha) = y_\alpha$ and $h(x_\alpha) = f(x_\alpha) - y_\alpha$ for every $\alpha < \mathfrak{c}$. It is clear that g, h are as required. □

(16) Suppose $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfies: For every $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, $f(x + y) = f(x)f(y)$.

(a) Show that either f is identically zero or $\text{range}(f) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^+$.

(b) Suppose f is continuous and not identically zero. Show that $f(x) = a^x$ for some $a > 0$.

Solution: (a) Suppose there is some $a \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(a) = 0$. Then for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $f(x + a) = f(x)f(a) = f(x) \cdot 0 = 0$. Hence f is identically zero. Next suppose $f(a) \neq 0$ for every $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $f(x) = f(x/2 + x/2) = (f(x/2))^2 > 0$. So either f is identically zero or $\text{range}(f) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^+$.

(b) By part (a), $\text{range}(f) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^+$ so we can define $g(x) = \ln(f(x))$. Then g is a continuous additive function and hence $g(x) = bx$ where $b = g(1)$. It follows that $f(x) = e^{g(x)} = e^{bx} = a^x$ where $a = e^b > 0$. \square

(17) Show that there is a discontinuous function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x + y) = f(x)f(y)$ for every $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$.

Solution: Let $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be any discontinuous additive function and define $f(x) = e^{g(x)}$. \square

(18) Prove the following.

(a) For every ordinal α , $|\alpha| \leq \alpha$.

(b) If κ is a cardinal and $\alpha < \kappa$, then $|\alpha| < \kappa$.

(c) There is an injection from X to Y iff $|X| \leq |Y|$.

(d) There is a surjection from X to Y iff $|Y| \leq |X|$.

(e) There is a bijection from X to Y iff $|X| = |Y|$.

Solution: Let us write $X \preceq Y$ iff there is an injection from X to Y and $X \sim Y$ iff there is a bijection from X to Y .

(a) Let $|\alpha| = \beta$. Then for every γ , if $\gamma \sim \alpha$, then $\beta \leq \gamma$. Since $\alpha \sim \alpha$, it follows that $\alpha \leq \beta = |\alpha|$.

(b) By part (a), $|\alpha| \leq \alpha < \kappa$.

(c) Since $X \sim |X|$ and $Y \sim |Y|$, we get $X \preceq Y$ iff $|X| \preceq |Y|$. So it suffices to show that if κ, λ are cardinals, then $\kappa \preceq \lambda$ iff $\kappa \leq \lambda$. It is clear that if $\kappa \leq \lambda$, then $\kappa \preceq \lambda$. Next suppose $\lambda < \kappa$. Since $|\kappa| = \kappa$ and $\lambda < \kappa$, $\lambda \not\sim \kappa$. Since $\lambda \preceq \kappa$, by the Schröder-Bernstein theorem, it follows that $\kappa \not\preceq \lambda$.

(d) By part (c), it suffices to show that for any X and Y , there is a surjection from X to Y iff $Y \preceq X$. We can assume that X, Y are nonempty. Suppose $Y \preceq X$. Fix an injective function $f : Y \rightarrow X$. Then $f : Y \rightarrow \text{range}(f)$ is a bijection. Fix $y_0 \in Y$. Define $g : X \rightarrow Y$ as follows: If $x \in \text{range}(f)$, then $g(x) = f^{-1}(x)$, otherwise $g(x) = y_0$. Clearly, $\text{range}(g) = Y$.

Next suppose $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $\text{range}(f) = Y$. Let $\mathcal{F} = \{f^{-1}[\{y\}] : y \in Y\}$. Then \mathcal{F} is a partition of X into nonempty sets. Using the axiom of choice let $h : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow Y$ be a

choice function. Define $g : Y \rightarrow X$ by $g(y) = h(f^{-1}[\{y\}])$. Then $g : Y \rightarrow X$ is injective.

(e) Use part (c) and the Schröder-Bernstein theorem. □

(19) Prove the following.

(a) $|\mathbb{R}^\omega| = \mathfrak{c}$.

(b) $|C(\mathbb{R})| = \mathfrak{c}$ where $C(\mathbb{R})$ is the set of all continuous functions from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R} .

(c) Let A be the set of all real numbers which are roots of some polynomial equation with rational coefficients. Show that $|A| = \omega$.

Solution: (a) Let us write $X \sim Y$ iff there is a bijection from X to Y . Then it is easy to check that for any set A ,

$$(A^\omega)^\omega \sim A^{\omega \times \omega} \sim A^\omega$$

Taking $A = 2 = \{0, 1\}$ and using the fact that $|\mathbb{R}| = |2^\omega| = \mathfrak{c}$, we get $|\mathbb{R}^\omega| = |(2^\omega)^\omega| = |2^\omega| = \mathfrak{c}$.

(b) It is clear that $|C(\mathbb{R})| \geq |\mathbb{R}| = \mathfrak{c}$ since every constant function is continuous. To show that $|C(\mathbb{R})| \leq \mathfrak{c}$, we'll construct an injective function from $C(\mathbb{R})$ to \mathbb{R}^ω . This suffices since by part (a), $|\mathbb{R}^\omega| = \mathfrak{c}$. Since $|\mathbb{Q}| = \omega$, it is enough to construct an injective function $H : C(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^\mathbb{Q}$ where $\mathbb{R}^\mathbb{Q}$ is the set of all functions from \mathbb{Q} to \mathbb{R} . Given $f \in C(\mathbb{R})$, define $H(f) = f \upharpoonright \mathbb{Q}$. We claim that H is injective. To see this assume that $H(f) = H(g)$ and we'll show that $f = g$. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Let $\langle a_n : n < \omega \rangle$ be a sequence of rationals converging to x . Since f, g are continuous, $f(a_n)$ converges to $f(x)$ and $g(a_n)$ converges to $g(x)$. As $f \upharpoonright \mathbb{Q} = g \upharpoonright \mathbb{Q}$, for every $n < \omega$ we must have $f(a_n) = g(a_n)$. Hence $f(x) = g(x)$. So $f = g$ and H is injective.

(c) For each $1 \leq n \leq \omega$, let P_n be the set of all polynomials of degree n with rational coefficients. The each polynomial $f \in P_n$ is of the form

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$$

where a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_0 are in \mathbb{Q} and $a_n \neq 0$. It follows that $|P_n| \leq |\mathbb{Q}^n| = \omega$. Let $A_n = \{a \in \mathbb{R} : (\exists p \in P_n)(p(a) = 0)\}$. Since each polynomial in P_n has $\leq n$ real roots, it follows that A_n is a countable union of finite sets. So each A_n is countable. Finally, $A = \bigcup \{A_n : 1 \leq n < \omega\}$ is a countable union of countable sets. Hence A is also countable. As every rational is in A , $|A| \geq \omega$. Hence $|A| = \omega$. □

(20) Show that \mathbb{R}^2 cannot be partitioned into circles of positive radii.

Solution: Towards a contradiction suppose there is a partition \mathcal{F} of \mathbb{R}^2 into circles of positive radii. Recursively construct $\langle (C_n, x_n) : n < \omega \rangle$ as follows.

(1) $C_0 \in \mathcal{F}$ is arbitrary and x_0 is the center of C_0 .

(2) For each $n < \omega$, $C_{n+1} \in \mathcal{F}$ and $x_n \in C_{n+1}$.

Since \mathcal{F} has pairwise disjoint circles, it is easy to see that each C_{n+1} lies completely inside C_n . Let r_n be the radius of C_n . Then $r_{n+1} < r_n/2$. It also follows that if $N < n \leq m < \omega$, then $\|x_n - x_m\| \leq 2r_N$ (where $\|x - y\|$ is the distance between x and y). As $N \rightarrow \infty$, $r_N \rightarrow 0$. Hence $\langle x_n : n < \omega \rangle$ is a Cauchy sequence in \mathbb{R}^2 . Let x be the limit of this sequence. Then $x \notin C_n$ because x lies inside every C_n . Since $\bigcup \mathcal{F} = \mathbb{R}^2$, there exists $C_\star \in \mathcal{F}$ such that $x \in C_\star$. Let $r_\star > 0$ be the radius of C_\star . Choose n large enough so that $r_n < r_\star/100$. Then it is clear that $C_\star \cap C_n \neq \emptyset$. But this contradicts the fact that \mathcal{F} consists of pairwise disjoint circles. \square

- (21) Show that \mathbb{R}^3 can be partitioned into circles of positive radii.

Solution: Let \mathcal{C} be the family of all circles in \mathbb{R}^3 . Let $\langle x_\alpha : \alpha < \mathfrak{c} \rangle$ be an injective sequence whose range is \mathbb{R}^3 . Using transfinite recursion, construct $\langle \mathcal{C}_\alpha : \alpha < \mathfrak{c} \rangle$ such that the following hold.

- (1) Each $\mathcal{C}_\alpha \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ consists of pairwise disjoint circles of positive radii and $\mathcal{C}_0 = \emptyset$.
- (2) If $\alpha < \beta < \mathfrak{c}$, then $\mathcal{C}_\alpha \subseteq \mathcal{C}_\beta$.
- (3) If $\alpha < \mathfrak{c}$ is limit, then $\mathcal{C}_\alpha = \bigcup \{\mathcal{C}_\beta : \beta < \alpha\}$.
- (4) For every $\alpha < \mathfrak{c}$, $|\mathcal{C}_\alpha| \leq \max(\{\omega, |\alpha|\})$.
- (5) For every $\alpha < \mathfrak{c}$, $x_\alpha \in \bigcup \mathcal{C}_{\alpha+1}$.

At limit stages $\alpha < \mathfrak{c}$, we simply define \mathcal{C}_α by Clause (3) above. Having constructed \mathcal{C}_α , $\mathcal{C}_{\alpha+1}$ is defined as follows. If $x_\alpha \in \bigcup \mathcal{C}_\alpha$, then we define $\mathcal{C}_{\alpha+1} = \mathcal{C}_\alpha$. Now assume that x_α does not lie on any circle in \mathcal{C}_α .

Claim: There is a circle C such that C passes through x_α and for every circle $T \in \mathcal{C}_\alpha$, $T \cap C = \emptyset$.

Proof of Claim: Let \mathcal{P}_α be the family of all planes P such that some circle in \mathcal{C}_α lies completely within P . Then $|\mathcal{P}_\alpha| \leq |\mathcal{C}_\alpha| \leq \max(\{\omega, |\alpha|\}) < \mathfrak{c}$. Choose a plane P such that $x_\alpha \in P$ and $P \notin \mathcal{P}_\alpha$. This can be done because there are continuum many planes passing through x_α . Let B be the set of all points in P which also lie on some circle in \mathcal{C}_α . Since each circle in \mathcal{C}_α meets P at ≤ 2 points, we get $|B| < \mathfrak{c}$. Note that $x_\alpha \notin B$ as $x_\alpha \notin \bigcup \mathcal{C}_\alpha$. Fix a line ℓ inside P that passes through x_α and consider the family \mathcal{E} of all circles inside P which are tangent to ℓ at the point x_α . It is clear that $|\mathcal{E}| = \mathfrak{c}$ and any two circles in \mathcal{E} meet exactly at x_α . Since $|B| < \mathfrak{c}$, we can find $C \in \mathcal{E}$ such that $C \cap B = \emptyset$. Then C is as required. \square

Let C be as in the claim. Define $\mathcal{C}_{\alpha+1} = \mathcal{C}_\alpha \cup \{C\}$ and note that $x_\alpha \in \bigcup \mathcal{C}_{\alpha+1}$. This completes the construction. Let $\mathcal{F} = \bigcup \{\mathcal{C}_\alpha : \alpha < \mathfrak{c}\}$. By Clause (1), it is clear that \mathcal{F} is a disjoint family of circles. Also, by Clause (5), $\bigcup \mathcal{F} = \mathbb{R}^3$. Hence \mathcal{F} is a partition of \mathbb{R}^3 into circles of positive radii. \square

- (22) Suppose $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ and every vertical section of A is finite. Show that some horizontal section of $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus A$ is uncountable.

Solution: For each $x \in \mathbb{R}$, define $W_x = A_x \cap \omega$. Then W_x is a finite subset of ω . Since $|\mathbb{R}| = \mathfrak{c} > \omega$ and there are only countably many finite subsets of ω , we can find a finite $W \subseteq \omega$ such that $Y = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : W_x = W\}$ has cardinality \mathfrak{c} . Fix $n \in \omega \setminus W$. Note that for every $x \in Y$, $(x, n) \notin A$. Now

$$(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus A)^n = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : (x, n) \notin A\} \supseteq Y$$

Hence the horizontal section of $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus A$ at n contains every member of Y . In particular, it is uncountable. \square

- (23) Let ϕ be a propositional formula in which \neg doesn't occur. Show that ϕ is satisfiable.

Solution: Let $val : \mathcal{Var} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ be defined by $val(p) = 1$ for every propositional variable p . By induction on the length of ϕ , we will show $\mathbf{val}(\phi) = 1$ for every propositional formula in which \neg doesn't occur.

If ϕ is a propositional variable, then this is clear.

Next assume that ϕ is of the form $\phi_1 \square \phi_2$ where \square is one of the following connectives: $\wedge, \vee, \implies, \iff$. Note that \neg doesn't occur in either one of ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 . So by inductive hypothesis, $\mathbf{val}(\phi_1) = \mathbf{val}(\phi_2) = 1$. Now by the definition of \mathbf{val} , it easily follows that $\mathbf{val}(\phi) = 1$ in each of these cases. \square

- (24) Suppose the set of propositional variables \mathcal{Var} is uncountable. Use Zorn's lemma to show the following: Let S be a set of propositional formulas such that every finite subset of S is satisfiable. Then S is satisfiable.

Solution: Let \mathcal{F} be the set of all functions h such that $\text{dom}(h) \subseteq \mathcal{Var}$, $\text{range}(h) \subseteq \{0, 1\}$ and for every finite $F \subseteq S$, there exists a valuation $val : \mathcal{Var} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ such that $h \subseteq val$ and every formula in F is true under val .

We claim that every chain in (\mathcal{F}, \subseteq) has an upper bound. To see this, fix an arbitrary chain $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ and define $g = \bigcup \mathcal{C}$. Since \mathcal{C} is a chain, it is easy to see that g is a function. Clearly, $\text{dom}(g) \subseteq \mathcal{Var}$ and $\text{range}(g) \subseteq \{0, 1\}$. So it would be sufficient to show that $g \in \mathcal{F}$ since then g is an upper bound of \mathcal{C} in (\mathcal{F}, \subseteq) . Towards a contradiction, suppose $g \notin \mathcal{F}$. Fix a finite $F \subseteq S$ such that there is no valuation $val : \mathcal{Var} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ satisfying: $g \subseteq val$ and every formula in F is true under val . Choose a finite $V \subseteq \mathcal{Var}$ that contains every propositional variable that occurs in a formula in F . Put $W = V \cap \text{dom}(g)$. Since \mathcal{C} is a chain, we can find an $h \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $W \subseteq \text{dom}(h)$. Since $h \in \mathcal{F}$, there exists a valuation $val' : \mathcal{Var} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ such that $h \subseteq val'$ and every formula in F is true under val' . Define another valuation $val : \mathcal{Var} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ as follows:

$$val(p) = \begin{cases} g(p) & \text{if } p \in \text{dom}(g) \\ val'(p) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Observe that val and val' agree on every propositional variable in V . Hence every formula in F is true under val . But $g \subseteq val$ so we have a contradiction. So $g \in \mathcal{F}$ is an upper bound of \mathcal{C} .

Using Zorn's lemma, fix a \subseteq -maximal f in \mathcal{F} . We claim that $\text{dom}(f) = \text{Var}$. This will complete the proof since it implies that f is a valuation under which every formula in \mathcal{F} is true. Towards a contradiction, assume some propositional variable $p \notin \text{dom}(f)$. Define $f_0 = f \cup \{(p, 0)\}$ and $f_1 = \{(p, 1)\}$. By the Lemma on Lecture slide no. 98, it follows that one of f_0, f_1 is in \mathcal{F} . But this contradicts the maximality of f . Hence $\text{dom}(f) = \text{Var}$ and the proof is complete. \square

- (25) Let $\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L}'$ be two first order languages where \mathcal{L}' is obtained from \mathcal{L} by adding a new constant symbol c to \mathcal{L} . Suppose T is an \mathcal{L} -theory, ϕ is an \mathcal{L} -formula with only free variable x , ψ is an \mathcal{L} -sentence and t is an \mathcal{L} -term with no variables. Show that the following hold.

(UG) If $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}'} \phi(c/x)$, then $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} (\forall x)(\phi)$.

(EI) If $T \cup \{\phi(c/x)\} \vdash_{\mathcal{L}'} \psi$, then $T \cup \{(\exists x)(\phi)\} \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \psi$.

Solution: Proof of (UG): Assume $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}'} \phi(c/x)$ and fix a proof ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_n of $\phi(c/x)$ in T where each ϕ_k is an \mathcal{L}' -sentence. Fix a variable v such that v does not occur in any of the formulas ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_n . Let ψ_k be the formula obtained by replacing every occurrence of c in ϕ_k by v . By induction on $k \leq n$, we'll show that $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} (\forall v)(\psi_k)$.

Case 1: $k = 1$. In this case, ϕ_1 must be either a logical axiom or a member of T . If $\phi_1 \in T$, then since c is not a symbol in \mathcal{L} , c doesn't occur in ϕ_1 . So $\psi_1 = \phi_1$. Since $\psi_1 \implies (\forall v)(\psi_1)$ is a logical axiom of type 2, by Modus Ponens, it follows that $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} (\forall v)(\psi_1)$. Next suppose ϕ_1 is a logical axiom of one of the types 1-14. It is easily checked that in each one of these types, $(\forall v)(\psi_1)$ is also a logical axiom of the same type.

Case 2: $k > 1$. If ϕ_k is a logical axiom or a member of T , then $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} (\forall v)(\psi_k)$ follows from an argument similar to Case 1. Next suppose for some $i, j < k$, ϕ_j is $(\phi_i \implies \phi_k)$. Then $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} (\forall v)(\psi_k)$ by the following.

$T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} (\forall v)(\psi_i)$ [Inductive hypothesis]

$T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} (\forall v)(\psi_i \implies \psi_k)$ [Inductive hypothesis]

$T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} (\forall v)(\psi_i \implies \psi_k) \implies ((\forall v)(\psi_i) \implies (\forall v)(\psi_k))$ [Type 3 axiom]

$T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} (\forall v)(\psi_k)$ [Modus Ponens applied twice]

This completes the proof of $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} (\forall v)(\psi_k)$ for every $k \leq n$. Next, note that $(\forall v)(\phi(v/x)) \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} (\forall x)(\phi)$ by the following proof:

$(\forall v)(\phi(v/x))$ [Assumption]

$(\forall x)((\forall v)(\phi(v/x)) \implies \phi)$ [Type 4 axiom]

$(\forall x)[(\forall v)(\phi(v/x)) \implies \phi] \implies [(\forall x)(\forall v)(\phi(v/x)) \implies (\forall x)(\phi)]$ [Type 3 axiom]

$(\forall x)(\forall v)(\phi(v/x)) \implies (\forall x)(\phi)$ [Modus Ponens]

$(\forall v)(\phi(v/x)) \implies (\forall x)(\forall v)(\phi(v/x))$ [Type 2 axiom]

$(\forall x)(\forall v)(\phi(v/x))$ [Modus Ponens]

$(\forall x)(\phi)$ [Modus Ponens]

Since ψ_n is $\phi(v/x)$, by Modus Ponens, we get $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} (\forall x)(\phi)$. This completes the proof of (UG).

Proof of (EI): Assume $T \cup \{\phi(c/x)\} \vdash_{\mathcal{L}'} \psi$. Then $T \cup \{\neg\psi, \phi(c/x)\}$ is inconsistent.

Hence $T \cup \{\neg\psi\} \vdash_{\mathcal{L}'} \neg\phi(c/x)$. Since ψ is an \mathcal{L} -sentence, $T \cup \{\neg\psi\}$ is an \mathcal{L} -theory.

Applying (UG), we get $T \cup \{\neg\psi\} \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} (\forall x)(\neg\phi)$. Since $(\forall x)(\neg\phi) \iff \neg(\exists x)(\phi)$ is a logical axiom of type 6, it follows that $T \cup \{\neg\psi\} \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \neg(\exists x)(\phi)$. So $T \cup \{(\exists x)(\phi), \neg\psi\}$ is inconsistent. Hence $T \cup \{(\exists x)(\phi)\} \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \psi$. \square

- (26) Suppose $\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L}'$ are first order languages and \mathcal{L}' extends \mathcal{L} . Let T be an \mathcal{L} -theory and ϕ be an \mathcal{L} -sentence. Then $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \phi$ iff $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}'} \phi$.

Solution sketch: That $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \phi$ implies $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}'} \phi$ is trivial. Next suppose $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}'} \phi$ and fix a proof ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_n of ϕ in T where each ϕ_k is an \mathcal{L}' -sentence. **First assume that \mathcal{L} has a constant symbol** and fix one such symbol c . For each $k \leq n$, define ψ_k as follows.

(a) Replace each atomic subformula of the form $R(t_1, \dots, t_m)$ of ϕ_k by $(\forall x)(x = x)$ where R is a relation symbol in $\mathcal{L}' \setminus \mathcal{L}$.

(b) Next, replace each constant symbol d in $\mathcal{L}' \setminus \mathcal{L}$ that occurs in ϕ_k by c .

(b) Finally, replace each term of the form $F(t_1, \dots, t_m)$ that occurs in ϕ_k by c where F is a function symbol in $\mathcal{L}' \setminus \mathcal{L}$.

It is clear that ψ_k is an \mathcal{L} -sentence. Now by induction on $k \leq n$, we can show that $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}_1} \psi_k$. We omit the easy but tedious details. Note that since ϕ_n is ϕ and ϕ is an \mathcal{L} -sentence, ψ_n is same as ϕ and so $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \phi$.

If \mathcal{L} has no constant symbols, then we can define a new language \mathcal{L}_1 by adding a constant symbol c to \mathcal{L} . By the previous argument $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}'} \phi$ implies $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}_1} \phi$. Now $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \phi$ easily follows from $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}_1} \phi$ using (UG). \square

- (27) Suppose T is a maximally consistent \mathcal{L} -theory and ϕ, ψ are \mathcal{L} -sentences. Show the following.

(a) $T \vdash \phi$ iff $\phi \in T$.

(b) $\neg\phi \in T$ iff $\phi \notin T$.

(c) $(\phi \wedge \psi) \in T$ iff $\phi \in T$ and $\psi \in T$.

(d) $(\phi \vee \psi) \in T$ iff either $\phi \in T$ or $\psi \in T$.

(e) $(\phi \implies \psi) \in T$ iff either $\psi \in T$ or $\phi \notin T$.

(f) $(\phi \iff \psi) \in T$ iff " $\phi \in T$ iff $\psi \in T$ ".

Solution:

(a) If $\phi \in T$, then $T \vdash \phi$. Next suppose $T \vdash \phi$. Then $T \cup \{\phi\}$ is consistent as T is consistent. Since T is maximally consistent, $T \cup \{\phi\} = T$. Hence $\phi \in T$.

(b) If $\neg\phi \in T$, then $\phi \notin T$ since T is consistent. Next suppose $\phi \notin T$. Then $T \cup \{\neg\phi\}$ is consistent. As T is maximally consistent, $T \cup \{\neg\phi\} = T$. Hence $\neg\phi \in T$.

(c) First suppose $\phi \in T$ and $\psi \in T$. Then $T \vdash \phi$ and $T \vdash \psi$. Since $(\phi \implies (\psi \implies (\phi \wedge \psi)))$ is a propositional tautology, by Modus Ponens, we get $T \vdash (\phi \wedge \psi)$. By part (a), $(\phi \wedge \psi) \in T$.

Next suppose $(\phi \wedge \psi) \in T$. Then $T \vdash (\phi \wedge \psi)$. Since $(\phi \wedge \psi) \implies \phi$ is a propositional tautology, by Modus Ponens, $T \vdash \phi$. Similarly, $T \vdash \psi$. By part (a), $\{\phi, \psi\} \subseteq T$.

(d) Suppose either $\phi \in T$ or $\psi \in T$. Since $(\phi \implies (\phi \vee \psi))$ and $(\psi \implies (\phi \vee \psi))$ are both propositional tautologies, by Modus Ponens, we get $(\phi \vee \psi) \in T$.

Next suppose $(\phi \vee \psi) \in T$ and $\phi \notin T$. Then by part (b), $\neg\phi \in T$. As $(\neg\phi \implies ((\phi \vee \psi) \implies \psi))$ is a propositional tautology, by Modus Ponens, $T \vdash \psi$. By part (a), $\psi \in T$.

(e) Since $((\phi \implies \psi) \implies (\neg\phi \vee \psi))$ and $((\neg\phi \vee \psi) \implies (\phi \implies \psi))$ are propositional tautologies, by Modus Ponens, we get $T \vdash (\phi \implies \psi)$ iff $T \vdash (\neg\phi \vee \psi)$. By part (a), this means that $(\phi \implies \psi) \in T$ iff $(\neg\phi \vee \psi) \in T$. By parts (b) and (d), it follows that $(\phi \implies \psi) \in T$ iff either $\psi \in T$ or $\phi \notin T$.

(f) First assume $(\phi \iff \psi) \in T$. Since $((\phi \iff \psi) \implies (\phi \implies \psi))$ and $(\phi \iff \psi) \implies (\psi \implies \phi)$ are propositional tautologies, by Modus Ponens, we get $T \vdash (\phi \implies \psi)$ and $T \vdash (\psi \implies \phi)$. Applying Modus Ponens again, this means $T \vdash \phi$ iff $T \vdash \psi$. By part (a), it follows that $\phi \in T$ iff $\psi \in T$.

Next suppose $\phi \in T$ iff $\psi \in T$. We will show $(\phi \iff \psi) \in T$. We consider the following two cases.

Case 1: Both ϕ and ψ are in T . By part (c), $T \vdash (\phi \wedge \psi)$. Since $((\phi \wedge \psi) \implies (\phi \iff \psi))$ is a propositional tautology, by Modus Ponens, we get $T \vdash (\phi \iff \psi)$. So by part (a), $(\phi \iff \psi) \in T$.

Case 2: Neither ϕ nor ψ is in T . By part (b), $\neg\phi \in T$ and $\neg\psi \in T$. By part (c), $T \vdash (\neg\phi \wedge \neg\psi)$. Since $((\neg\phi \wedge \neg\psi) \implies (\phi \iff \psi))$ is a propositional tautology, by Modus Ponens, we get $T \vdash (\phi \iff \psi)$. So by part (a), $(\phi \iff \psi) \in T$. \square

- (28) Suppose T is a consistent complete \mathcal{L} -theory. Let S be the set all \mathcal{L} -sentences ϕ such that $T \vdash \phi$. Show that S is a maximally consistent \mathcal{L} -theory.

Solution: We first claim that for every \mathcal{L} -sentence ϕ , $T \vdash \phi$ iff $S \vdash \phi$. If $T \vdash \phi$, then $\phi \in S$ so clearly $S \vdash \phi$. Conversely, suppose $S \vdash \phi$ and fix a proof $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$ of ϕ in S . So ϕ_n is ϕ and each ϕ_i is either a logical axiom or a member of S or it was obtained from two sentences using Modus Ponens. If ϕ_i is a member of S , then $T \vdash \phi_i$. Let $\phi_{i,1}, \phi_{i,2}, \dots, \phi_{i,k(i)}$ be a proof of ϕ_i in T . In the sequence $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$, replace each $\phi_i \in S$ with the sequence $\phi_{i,1}, \phi_{i,2}, \dots, \phi_{i,k(i)}$. It is easy to see that this gives us a new sequence which is a proof of ϕ in T .

Since T is consistent, by the above claim, it follows that S is also consistent. Towards a contradiction, suppose S is not maximally consistent and fix an \mathcal{L} -sentence ϕ such that $\phi \notin S$ and $S \cup \{\phi\}$ is consistent. Since T is complete, either $T \vdash \phi$ or $T \vdash \neg\phi$. Since $\phi \notin S$, we cannot have $T \vdash \phi$. So $T \vdash \neg\phi$. Hence $\neg\phi \in S$. But this contradicts

the fact that $S \cup \{\phi\}$ is consistent. Therefore S is a maximally consistent \mathcal{L} -theory. \square

- (29) Let $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{PA} \cup \{c\}$ where c is a new constant symbol. Let $\mathbf{Primes} = \{2, 3, 5, 7, \dots\}$ be the set of all primes numbers. For each $p \in \mathbf{Primes}$, let “ p divides c ” denote the \mathcal{L} -sentence $(\exists y)(S^p(0) \cdot y = c)$. For each $X \subseteq \mathbf{Primes}$, let T_X be the \mathcal{L} -theory

$$T_X = TA \cup \{(p \text{ divides } c) : p \in X\} \cup \{\neg(p \text{ divides } c) : p \in \mathbf{Primes} \setminus X\}$$

where $TA = Th(\omega, 0, S, +, \cdot)$ denotes true arithmetic.

(a) Show that T_X is consistent for every $X \subseteq \mathbf{Primes}$.

(b) Show that TA has continuum many pairwise non-isomorphic countable models.

Solution: (a) We will show that every finite subset of T_X has a model. This suffices since then, by compactness theorem, it will follow that T_X has a model and therefore T_X is consistent.

Let F be a finite subset of T_X . We will construct a model of F . Let W be the set of all primes p such that $(p \text{ divides } c) \in F$. Note that W is a finite subset of X . Let $\mathcal{M} = (\omega, 0, S, +, \cdot, c^{\mathcal{M}})$ where $(\omega, 0, S, +, \cdot)$ is the standard model of arithmetic and $c^{\mathcal{M}}$ is the product of all the primes in W (If $W = \emptyset$, then define $c^{\mathcal{M}} = 1$). Then a prime p divides $c^{\mathcal{M}}$ iff $p \in W$. It follows that $\mathcal{M} \models F$.

(b) Using part (a), we can fix a family $\{\mathcal{M}'_X : X \subseteq \mathbf{Primes}\}$ such that for each $X \subseteq \mathbf{Primes}$, $\mathcal{M}'_X = (M_X, 0^{\mathcal{M}_X}, S^{\mathcal{M}_X}, +^{\mathcal{M}_X}, \cdot^{\mathcal{M}_X}, c^{\mathcal{M}_X})$ is a countable \mathcal{L} -structure such that $\mathcal{M}'_X \models T_X$. Let $\mathcal{M}_X = (M_X, 0^{\mathcal{M}_X}, S^{\mathcal{M}_X}, +^{\mathcal{M}_X}, \cdot^{\mathcal{M}_X})$. Then \mathcal{M}_X is an \mathcal{L}_{PA} -structure such that $\mathcal{M}_X \models TA$.

We claim that for any $X \subseteq \mathbf{Primes}$, $\{Y \subseteq \mathbf{Primes} : \mathcal{M}_X \cong \mathcal{M}_Y\}$ is countable. Since $|\{X : X \subseteq \mathbf{Primes}\}| = \mathfrak{c}$, it will follow that there are continuum many pairwise non-isomorphic models of TA in $\{\mathcal{M}_X : X \subseteq \mathbf{Primes}\}$.

Let $X \subseteq \mathbf{Primes}$. For each prime p , let ϕ_p denote the formula “ p divides x ” where x is a variable. For each $a \in M_X$, let $T_a = \{p \in \mathbf{Primes} : \mathcal{M}_X \models \phi_p(a/x)\}$. Then $T_X = \{T_a : a \in M_X\}$ is a countable family of subsets of \mathbf{Primes} .

Now observe that if $Y \subseteq \mathbf{Primes}$ and $Y \notin T_X$, then \mathcal{M}_X cannot be isomorphic to \mathcal{M}_Y . This is because there exists a member $a \in M_Y$ (namely, $a = c^{\mathcal{M}_Y}$) such that $Y = \{p \in \mathbf{Primes} : \mathcal{M}_Y \models \phi_p(a/x)\}$ while there is no such member in M_X . So $\{Y \subseteq \mathbf{Primes} : \mathcal{M}_X \cong \mathcal{M}_Y\}$ is countable and we are done. \square

- (30) Show that every countable linear ordering is isomorphic to a subordering of the rationals $(\mathbb{Q}, <)$.

Solution: Let $(L, <)$ be a countable linear ordering. If L is finite, the result is clear so let us assume $|L| = \omega$. Let $L = \{a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots\}$ be a one-one enumeration of L . Inductively construct $\langle f_n : n < \omega \rangle$ such that the following hold.

- (a) Each f_n is a finite function, $\text{dom}(f_n) \subseteq L$ and $\text{range}(f_n) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$.
- (b) For every a, a' in $\text{dom}(f_n)$, $a \prec a'$ iff $f(a) < f(a')$.
- (c) For every $n < \omega$, $a_n \in \text{dom}(f_n)$.

Start by defining $f_0 = \{(a_0, 0)\}$.

Having defined f_n , define f_{n+1} as follows: If $a_{n+1} \in \text{dom}(f_n)$, then $f_{n+1} = f_n$. So assume $a_{n+1} \notin \text{dom}(f_n)$. Put $Left = \{a \in \text{dom}(f_n) : a \prec a_{n+1}\}$ and $Right = \{a \in \text{dom}(f_n) : a_{n+1} \prec a\}$. Let $L = \{f(a) : a \in Left\}$ and $R = \{f(a) : a \in Right\}$. Then L, R are finite subsets of \mathbb{Q} and every member of L is less than every member of R . Since $(\mathbb{Q}, <)$ is a dense linear ordering without end-points, we can choose $b \in \mathbb{Q} \setminus \text{range}(f_n)$ such that for every $x \in L$ and $y \in R$, $x < b$ and $b < y$. Define $f_{n+1} = f_n \cup \{(a_{n+1}, b)\}$. It is clear that clauses (a), (b) and (c) are preserved.

Finally, put $f = \bigcup \{f_n : n < \omega\}$. Then $f : L \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ is an order preserving function. Hence (L, \prec) is isomorphic to $(\text{range}(f), <)$. \square

- (31) Let $W \subseteq \omega$ be nonempty. Show that W is c.e. iff there exists a computable function $f : \omega \rightarrow \omega$ such that $\text{range}(f) = W$.

Solution: First assume that W is c.e. Fix a program P such that for each $n < \omega$, P halts on input n iff $n \in W$.

Define a program Q as follows. On input n , Q runs P on each one of the inputs $0, 1, \dots, n$ for n steps. Let S_n be the set of those $k \leq n$ such that P halts on input k in at most n steps. Let W_n be the set of outputs of Q on inputs $0, 1, \dots, n-1$. If $S_n \setminus W_n \neq \emptyset$, then Q outputs $\min(S_n \setminus W_n)$. Otherwise, Q outputs $\min(W)$.

It is clear that Q halts on every input. Let $f : \omega \rightarrow \omega$ be the function computed by Q . We claim that $\text{range}(f) = W$. That $\text{range}(f) \subseteq W$ is obvious. For the other inclusion, towards a contradiction, suppose $W \setminus \text{range}(f) \neq \emptyset$ and let $n_\star = \min(W \setminus \text{range}(f))$. Choose $m > n_\star$ large enough such that $W \cap n_\star \subseteq \text{range}(f \upharpoonright m)$ and for every $n \leq n_\star$, if $n \in W$, then P halts on input n in less than m steps. Now observe that on input m , Q must output n_\star : A contradiction. So we must have $W \subseteq \text{range}(f)$. It follows that $W = \text{range}(f)$.

Next assume that $f : \omega \rightarrow \omega$ is computable. Put $W = \text{range}(f)$. Let P be a program that on input n starts computing $f(0), f(1), f(2), \dots$ and halts iff n appears in this list. Then P witnesses that W is c.e. \square

- (32) Suppose $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n, d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n$ are natural numbers and for every $1 \leq i \leq n$, $0 \leq r_i < d_i$. Assume that for every $1 \leq i < j \leq n$, d_i and d_j are relatively prime. Show that there exists a positive integer N such that for every $1 \leq i \leq n$, $\text{rem}(N, d_i) = r_i$.

Solution: Let $D = d_1 d_2 \dots d_n$ and for each $1 \leq i \leq n$, $D_i = D/d_i$. Then $\text{GCD}(D_i, d_i) = 1$ so there are integers M_i, m_i such that $M_i D_i + m_i d_i = 1$. Define

$$x = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} r_i M_i D_i$$

Since

$$x - r_j = r_j(M_j D_j - 1) + \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n, i \neq j} r_i M_i D_i = -r_j m_j d_j + \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n, i \neq j} r_i M_i D_i$$

it follows that d_j divides $x - r_j$ for every $1 \leq j \leq n$. Let $N = x + D(1 + |x|)$. Then $N \geq 1$ is as required. \square

- (33) Let $W \subseteq \omega$ be nonempty. Show that W is c.e. iff there exists a computable $A \subseteq \omega^2$ such that $W = \{n \in \omega : (\exists m)((n, m) \in A)\}$.

Solution: First assume that W is c.e. By problem (31), we can fix a computable function $f : \omega \rightarrow \omega$ such that $\text{range}(f) = W$. Define $A = \{(f(m), m) : m < \omega\}$. Then $A \subseteq \omega^2$ is computable and $W = \{n : (\exists m)((n, m) \in A)\}$.

Next suppose $A \subseteq \omega^2$ is computable and $W = \{n : (\exists m)((n, m) \in A)\}$. Let P be a program that computes A . Consider a program Q that on input n starts running P with inputs $(n, 0), (n, 1), (n, 2), \dots$ and halts as soon as P returns 1 on any of these inputs. It is clear that Q halts on input n iff $n \in W$. So W is c.e. \square

- (34) Suppose $X \subseteq \omega$ is numeralwise representable in PA. Show that X is computable.

Solution: Fix an \mathcal{L}_{PA} formula $\phi(x)$ such that for every $n < \omega$, if $n \in A$, then $PA \vdash \phi(\bar{n})$ and if $n \notin A$, then $PA \vdash \neg\phi(\bar{n})$. Since the set of theorems in PA is c.e. (see Slides 186-187), we can fix a program P such that for any \mathcal{L}_{PA} -sentence ψ , P halts on input ψ iff $PA \vdash \psi$. Consider the program Q which on input n , runs P with inputs $\phi(\bar{n})$ and $\neg\phi(\bar{n})$. If P halts on input $\phi(\bar{n})$, then Q returns 1. If P halts on input $\neg\phi(\bar{n})$, then Q returns 0. It is easy to see that Q computes X . \square

- (35) Let $H \subseteq \omega$ be a non-computable c.e. set. Show that H is definable in $\mathcal{N} = (\omega, 0, S, +, \cdot)$ but not numeralwise representable in PA.

Solution: By problem (33), we can fix a computable $A \subseteq \omega^2$ such that $H = \{n : (\exists m)((n, m) \in A)\}$. Since H is computable, it is definable in \mathcal{N} . So there is an \mathcal{L}_{PA} -formula $\phi(y, x)$ such that for every $(n, m) \in \omega^2$, $(n, m) \in A$ iff $\mathcal{N} \models \phi(n, m)$. Let $\psi(y)$ be the formula $(\exists x)(\phi(y, x))$. Then for every $n < \omega$, $n \in H$ iff $(\exists m)((n, m) \in A)$ iff $\mathcal{N} \models \psi(n)$. Hence H is definable in \mathcal{N} via $\psi(y)$. That H is not numeralwise representable in PA follows from problem (34) and the fact that H is non-computable. \square

- (36) Do the Exercise on Lecture slide 202.

Solution: Let $m < \omega$. We must show that if $m \in H$, then Q returns 1 on input m and if $m \notin H$, then Q returns 0 on input m .

First suppose $m \in H$. Then for some $n < \omega$, $f(n) = m$. By Clause 1, $PA \vdash \psi(\overline{m}, \overline{n})$. Note that $\psi(\overline{m}, \overline{n}) \implies (\exists x)(\psi(\overline{m}, x))$ is a logical axiom of type 5. So by Modus Ponens, $PA \vdash (\exists x)(\psi(\overline{m}, x))$. Hence Q returns 1 on input m .

Next suppose $m \notin H$. We must show that $PA \not\vdash (\exists x)(\psi(\overline{m}, x))$. Towards a contradiction, suppose $PA \vdash (\exists x)(\psi(\overline{m}, x))$. Since \mathcal{N} is a model of PA, it follows that $\mathcal{N} \models (\exists x)(\psi(m, x))$. Fix $n < \omega$ such that $\mathcal{N} \models \psi(m, n)$. Since $m \notin H = \text{range}(f)$, we must have $f(n) \neq m$. By Clause 2, this implies that $PA \vdash \neg\psi(\overline{m}, \overline{n})$. As \mathcal{N} models PA, we get $\mathcal{N} \models \neg\psi(m, n)$. So $\mathcal{N} \models \psi(m, n)$ and $\mathcal{N} \models \neg\psi(m, n)$: A contradiction.

It follows that Q computes H . □