# Summary of Halmos' Naive Set Theory

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## Chapter 1

# Primitive Terms and Axioms

Let there be *sets*. We assume that everything is a set.

Let there be a binary relation of membership,  $\in$ . If  $x \in A$  we say that x belongs to A, x is an element of A, or x is contained in A. If this does not hold we write  $x \notin A$ .

**Definition 1.1** (Empty). A set is *empty* iff it has no elements; otherwise it is *nonempty*.

**Definition 1.2** (Disjoint). Two sets A and B are *disjoint* iff there is no x such that  $x \in A$  and  $x \in B$ .

**Definition 1.3** (Pairwise Disjoint). We say the elements of a set x are pairwise disjoint iff, for all  $y, z \in x$ , either y and z are disjoint or y = z.

**Definition 1.4** (Subset). Let A and B be sets. We say that A is a *subset* of B, or B includes A, and write  $A \subseteq B$  or  $B \supseteq A$ , iff every element of A is an element of B.

**Axiom 1.5** (Axiom of Extensionality). If two sets have the same elements then they are equal.

**Axiom 1.6** (Axiom of Regularity). For any nonempty set A, there exists  $m \in A$  such that m and A are disjoint.

**Axiom 1.7** (Axiom of Union). For every set A, there exists a set that contains all the elements that belong to at least one element of A.

**Axiom 1.8** (Axiom of Pairing). For any two sets, there exists a set that they both belong to.

**Axiom Schema 1.9** (Axiom Schema of Replacement). For any property P(x, y), the following is an axiom:

Let A be a set such that, for all  $x \in A$ , there exists at most one y such that P(x,y). Then there exists a set B whose elements are exactly those sets y such that  $\exists x \in A.P(x,y)$ .

**Axiom 1.10** (Axiom of Infinity). There exists a set I that has an empty element and such that, for all  $x \in I$ , there exists  $y \in I$  such that the elements of y are exactly x and the elements of x.

**Axiom 1.11** (Power Set Axiom). For any set A, there exists a set B such that every subset of A belongs to B.

**Axiom 1.12** (Axiom of Choice). Let A be a set of nonempty, pairwise disjoint sets. Then there exists a set C such that, for all  $x \in A$ , there is exactly one y such that  $y \in C$  and  $y \in x$ .

## Chapter 2

# Basic Properties and Operations on Sets

**Axiom 2.1** (Axiom of Comprehension, Aussonderungsaxiom). To every set A and to every condition S(x) there corresponds a set B whose elements are exactly those elements x of A for which S(x) holds.

**Definition 2.2.** Given a set A and a condition S(x), we write  $\{x \in A : S(x)\}$  for the set whose elements are exactly those elements x of A for which S(x) holds.

PROOF: This exists by the Axiom of Comprehension and is unique by the Axiom of Extensionality.  $\Box$ 

**Definition 2.3** ((Unordered) Pair). For any sets a and b, the (unordered) pair  $\{a,b\}$  is the set whose elements are just a and b.

PROOF: This exists by the Axioms of Pairing and Comprehension, and is unique by the Axiom of Extensionality.  $\Box$ 

**Axiom 2.4** (Power Set Axiom). For any set A, there exists a set that contains all the subsets of A.

**Definition 2.5** (Empty). A set is *empty* iff it has no elements; otherwise it is *non-empty*.

**Axiom 2.6** (Axiom of Infinity). There exists a set I such that:

- I has an element that is empty
- for all  $x \in I$ , there exists  $y \in I$  such that the elements of y are exactly x and the elements of x.

**Definition 2.7** (Ordered Pair). For any sets a and b, the *ordered pair* (a,b) is defined by

$$(a,b) := \{\{a\}, \{a,b\}\}$$
.

**Definition 2.8** (Power Set). For any set A, the power set of A,  $\mathcal{P}A$ , is the set whose elements are exactly the subsets of A.

PROOF: This exists by the Power Set Axiom and Axiom of Comprehension, and is unique by the Axiom of Extensionality.  $\Box$ 

**Definition 2.9** (Cartesian Product). For any sets A and B, the Cartesian product  $A \times B$  is

$$A \times B := \{ p \in \mathcal{PP}(A \cup B) : \exists a \in A . \exists b \in B . p = (a, b) \}$$
.

**Definition 2.10** (Relation). A *relation* is a set of ordered pairs.

If R is a relation, we write xRy for  $(x, y) \in R$ .

Given sets X and Y, a relation between X and Y is a subset of  $X \times Y$ .

Given a set X, a relation on X is a relation between X and X.

**Definition 2.11** (Function). Let X and Y be sets. A function, map, mapping, transformation or operator f from X to Y,  $f: X \to Y$ , is a relation f between X and Y such that, for all  $x \in X$ , there exists a unique  $f(x) \in Y$ , called the value of f at the argument x, such that  $(x, f(x)) \in f$ .

**Definition 2.12** (Family). Let I and X be sets. A family of elements of X indexed by I is a function  $a: I \to X$ . We write  $a_i$  for a(i), and  $\{a_i\}_{i \in I}$  for a.

**Definition 2.13** (Cartesian Product of a Family of Sets). Let  $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$  be a family of sets. The *Cartesian product*  $\times_{i\in I} A_i$  is the set of all families  $\{a_i\}_{i\in I}$  such that  $\forall i\in I.a_i\in A_i$ .

We write  $A^I$  for  $\times_{i \in I} A$ .

**Axiom 2.14** (Axiom of Choice). The Cartesian product of a non-empty family of non-empty sets is non-empty.

**Axiom 2.15** (Axiom of substitution). If S(a,b) is a sentence such that for each a in A the set  $\{b: S(a,b)\}$  can be formed, then there exists a function F with domain A such that  $F(a) = \{b: S(a,b)\}$  for each a in A.

## 2.1 The Subset Relation

**Theorem 2.16.** For any set A, we have  $A \subseteq A$ .

PROOF: Every element of A is an element of A.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 2.17.** For any sets A, B and C, if  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B \subseteq C$  then  $A \subseteq C$ .

PROOF: If every element of A is an element of B, and every element of B is an element of C, then every element of A is an element of C.  $\Box$ 

**Theorem 2.18.** For any sets A and B, if  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B \subseteq A$  then A = B.

PROOF: If every element of A is an element of B, and every element of B is an element of A, then A and B have the same elements, and therefore are equal by the Axiom of Extensionality.  $\square$ 

**Definition 2.19** (Proper Subset). Let A and B be sets. We say that A is a *proper* subset of B, or B properly includes A, and write  $A \subseteq B$  or  $B \supseteq A$ , iff  $A \subseteq B$  and  $A \neq B$ .

## 2.2 Comprehension Notation

**Theorem 2.20.** There is no set that contains every set.

## 2.3 The Empty Set

**Theorem 2.21.** There exists a set with no elements.

PROOF: Immediate from the Axiom of Infinity.  $\Box$ 

**Definition 2.22** (Empty Set). The *empty set*  $\emptyset$  is the set with no elements.

**Theorem 2.23.** For any set A we have  $\emptyset \subset A$ .

Proof: Vacuous.

## 2.4 Unordered Pairs

**Definition 2.24** (Singleton). For any set a, the *singleton*  $\{a\}$  is defined to be  $\{a, a\}$ .

#### 2.5 Unions

**Definition 2.25** (Union). For any set  $\mathcal{C}$ , the *union* of  $\mathcal{C}$ ,  $\bigcup \mathcal{C}$ , is the set whose elements are the elements of the elements of  $\mathcal{C}$ .

We write  $\bigcup_{X \in \mathcal{A}} t[X]$  for  $\bigcup \{t[X] \mid X \in \mathcal{A}\}.$ 

PROOF: This exists by the Union Axiom and Comprehension Axiom, and is unique by the Axiom of Extensionality.  $\square$ 

Proposition 2.26.

$$\bigcup \emptyset = \emptyset$$

PROOF: There is no set that is an element of an element of  $\emptyset$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.27.** For any set A, we have  $\bigcup \{A\} = A$ .

PROOF: For any x, we have x is an element of an element of  $\{A\}$  if and only if x is an element of A.  $\square$ 

**Definition 2.28.** We write  $A \cup B$  for  $\bigcup \{A, B\}$ .

**Proposition 2.29.** For any set A, we have  $A \cup \emptyset = A$ .

PROOF:  $x \in A \cup \emptyset$  iff  $x \in A$  or  $x \in \emptyset$ , iff  $x \in A$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.30** (Idempotence). For any set A, we have  $A \cup A = A$ .

PROOF:  $x \in A$  or  $x \in A$  is equivalent to  $x \in A$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.31.** For any sets A and B, we have  $A \subseteq B$  if and only if  $A \cup B = B$ .

PROOF: For any x, the statement "if  $x \in A$  then  $x \in B$ " is equivalent to " $x \in A$  or  $x \in B$  if and only if  $x \in B$ ".  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.32.** For any sets a and b, we have  $\{a\} \cup \{b\} = \{a,b\}$ .

Proof: Immediate from definitions.  $\Box$ 

#### 2.6 Intersections

**Definition 2.33** (Intersection). For any sets A and B, the intersection  $A \cap B$  is defined to be  $\{x \in A : x \in B\}$ .

**Proposition 2.34.** For any set A, we have  $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$ .

PROOF: There is no x such that  $x \in A$  and  $x \in \emptyset$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.35.** For any set A, we have

$$A \cap A = A$$
.

PROOF: We have  $x \in A$  and  $x \in A$  if and only if  $x \in A$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.36.** For any sets A and B, we have  $A \subseteq B$  if and only if  $A \cap B = A$ .

PROOF: For any x, the statement "if  $x \in A$  then  $x \in B$ " is equivalent to " $x \in A$  and  $x \in B$  if and only if  $x \in A$ ".  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.37.** For any sets A, B and C, we have  $C \subseteq A$  if and only if  $(A \cap B) \cup C = A \cap (B \cup C)$ .

PROOF: The statement "if  $x \in C$  then  $x \in A$ " is equivalent to the statement " $((x \in A \land x \in B) \lor x \in C) \Leftrightarrow (x \in A \land (x \in B \lor x \in C))$ ".  $\square$ 

**Definition 2.38** (Disjoint). Two sets A and B are disjoint if and only if  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ .

**Definition 2.39** (Pairwise Disjoint). Let A be a set. We say the elements of A are pairwise disjoint if and only if, for all  $x, y \in A$ , if  $x \cap y \neq \emptyset$  then x = y.

**Definition 2.40** (Intersection). For any nonempty set C, the *intersection* of C,  $\bigcap C$ , is the set that contains exactly those sets that belong to every element of C.

We write  $\bigcap_{X \in \mathcal{A}} t[X]$  for  $\bigcap \{t[X] \mid X \in \mathcal{A}\}.$ 

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\mathcal{C}$  be a nonempty set.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . There exists a set I whose elements are exactly the sets that belong to every element of  $\mathcal{C}$ .

PROOF: Pick  $A \in \mathcal{C}$ , and take  $I = \{x \in A : \forall X \in \mathcal{C}.x \in X\}$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For any sets I, J, if the elements of I and J are exactly the sets that belong to every element of C then I = J.

PROOF: Axiom of Extensionality.

## 2.7 Unordered Triples

**Definition 2.41** ((Unordered) Triple). Given sets  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$ , define the (unordered) n-tuple  $\{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$  to be

$$\{a_1,\ldots,a_n\} := \{a_1\} \cup \cdots \cup \{a_n\}$$
.

## 2.8 Relative Complements

**Definition 2.42** (Relative Complement). For any sets A and B, the difference or relative complement A - B is defined to be

$$A - B := \{ x \in A : x \notin B \} .$$

**Proposition 2.43.** For any sets A and E, we have  $A \subseteq E$  if and only if

$$E - (E - A) = A$$

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: A and E be sets.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If  $A \subseteq E$  then E (E A) = A
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $A \subseteq E$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $E (E A) \subseteq A$

PROOF: If  $x \in E$  and  $x \notin E - A$  then  $x \in A$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ A \subseteq E - (E - A)$ 

PROOF: If  $x \in A$  then  $x \in E$  and  $x \notin E - A$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . If E - (E - A) = A then  $A \subseteq E$ .

PROOF: Since  $E - (E - A) \subseteq E$ .

**Proposition 2.44.** For any set E we have

$$E - \emptyset = E$$

PROOF:  $x \in E$  if and only if  $x \in E$  and  $x \notin \emptyset$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.45.** For any set E we have

$$E - E = \emptyset$$
.

PROOF: There is no x such that  $x \in E$  and  $x \notin E$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.46.** For any sets A and E, we have

$$A \cap (E - A) = \emptyset$$
.

PROOF: There is no x such that  $x \in A$  and  $x \in E - A$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.47.** Let A and E be sets. Then  $A \subseteq E$  if and only if

$$A \cup (E - A) = E$$
.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: A and E be sets.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If  $A \subseteq E$  then  $A \cup (E - A) = E$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $A \subseteq E$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $A \cup (E - A) \subseteq E$ 

PROOF: If  $x \in A$  or  $x \in E - A$  then  $x \in E$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ E \subseteq A \cup (E - A)$ 

PROOF: If  $x \in E$  then either  $x \in A$  or  $x \notin A$ . In the latter case,  $x \in E - A$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . If  $A \cup (E - A) = E$  then  $A \subseteq E$ 

PROOF: Since  $A \subseteq A \cup (E - A)$ .

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**Proposition 2.48.** Let A, B and E be sets. Then:

1. If  $A \subseteq B$  then  $E - B \subseteq E - A$ .

2. If  $A \subseteq E$  and  $E - B \subseteq E - A$  then  $A \subseteq B$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: A, B and E be sets.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If  $A \subseteq B$  then  $E - B \subseteq E - A$ .

PROOF: If  $A \subseteq B$ ,  $x \in E$  and  $x \notin B$ , then we have  $x \in E$  and  $x \notin A$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . If  $A \subseteq E$  and  $E - B \subseteq E - A$  then  $A \subseteq B$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $A \subseteq E$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $E B \subseteq E A$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $x \in A$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \in E$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x \notin E A$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ x \notin E B$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ x \in B$

**Example 2.49.** We cannot remove the hypothesis  $A \subseteq E$  in item 2 above. Let  $E = \emptyset$ ,  $A = \{\emptyset\}$  and  $B = \emptyset$ . Then  $E - B = E - A = \emptyset$  but  $A \nsubseteq B$ .

**Proposition 2.50** (De Morgan's Law). For any sets A, B and E, we have  $E - (A \cup B) = (E - A) \cap (E - B)$ .

PROOF:  $(x \in E \land \neg (x \in A \lor x \in B)) \Leftrightarrow (x \in E \land x \notin A \land x \in E \land x \notin B)$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.51** (De Morgan's Law). For any sets A, B and E, we have  $E - (A \cap B) = (E - A) \cup (E - B)$ .

PROOF:  $(x \in E \lor \neg (x \in A \land x \in B)) \Leftrightarrow (x \in E \land x \notin A) \lor (x \in E \land x \notin B)$ .

**Proposition 2.52.** For any sets A, B and E, if  $A \subseteq E$  then

$$A - B = A \cap (E - B)$$
.

PROOF: If  $A \subseteq E$  then we have  $(x \in A \land x \notin B) \Leftrightarrow (x \in A \land x \in E \land x \notin B)$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.53.** For any sets A and B, we have  $A \subseteq B$  if and only if  $A - B = \emptyset$ .

PROOF: Both are equivalent to the statement that there is no x such that  $x \in A$  and  $x \notin B$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.54.** For any sets A and B, we have

$$A - (A - B) = A \cap B .$$

PROOF:  $(x \in A \land \neg (x \in A \land x \notin B)) \Leftrightarrow x \in A \land x \in B$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.55.** For any sets A, B and C, we have

$$A \cap (B - C) = (A \cap B) - (A \cap C)$$
.

PROOF:  $(x \in A \land x \in B \land x \notin C) \Leftrightarrow (x \in A \land x \in B \land \neg (x \in A \land x \in C))$ .

**Proposition 2.56.** For any sets A, B, C and E, if  $(A \cap B) - C \subseteq E$  then we have

$$A \cap B \subseteq (A \cap C) \cup (B \cap (E - C))$$
.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in A \cap B$ 

PROVE:  $x \in (A \cap C) \cup (B \cap (E - C))$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Case:  $x \in C$ 

PROOF: Then  $x \in A \cap C$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Case:  $x \notin C$ 

PROOF: Then  $x \in E$  and so  $x \in B \cap (E - C)$ .

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**Proposition 2.57.** For any sets A, B, C and E, we have

$$(A \cup C) \cap (B \cup (E - C)) \subseteq A \cup B$$
.

PROOF: The statement  $(x \in A \lor x \in C) \land (x \in B \lor (x \in E \land x \notin C))$  implies  $x \in A \lor x \in B$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.58** (De Morgan's Law). Let E be a set and  $\mathcal C$  a nonempty set. Then

$$E - \bigcup \mathcal{C} = \bigcap_{X \in \mathcal{C}} (E - X) .$$

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 2.59** (De Morgan's Law). Let E be a set and  $\mathcal C$  a nonempty set. Then

$$E - \bigcap \mathcal{C} = \bigcup_{X \in \mathcal{C}} (E - X)$$
.

Proof: Easy.

## 2.9 Symmetric Difference

**Definition 2.60** (Symmetric Difference). For any sets A and B, the *symmetric difference* A+B is defined to be

$$A + B := (A - B) \cup (B - A) .$$

**Proposition 2.61.** For any sets A and B, we have

$$A + B = B + A$$

PROOF: From the commutativity of union.

**Proposition 2.62.** For any sets A, B and C, we have

$$A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C$$
.

PROOF: Each is the set of all x that belong to either exactly one or all three of A, B and C.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.63.** For any set A, we have

$$A + \emptyset = A$$
.

Proof:

$$A + \emptyset = (A - \emptyset) \cup (\emptyset - A)$$
$$= A \cup \emptyset$$
$$= A$$

Proposition 2.64. For any set A we have

$$A + A = \emptyset$$
.

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Proof:

$$A + A = (A - A) \cup (A - A)$$
$$= \emptyset \cup \emptyset$$
$$= \emptyset$$

## 2.10 Power Sets

Proposition 2.65.

$$\mathcal{P}\emptyset = \{\emptyset\}$$

PROOF: The only subset of  $\emptyset$  is  $\emptyset$ .  $\square$ 

Proposition 2.66. For any set a, we have

$$\mathcal{P}\{a\} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}\} .$$

PROOF: The only subsets of  $\{a\}$  are  $\emptyset$  and  $\{a\}$ .  $\square$ 

Proposition 2.67. For any sets a and b, we have

$$\mathcal{P}{a,b} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a,b\}\}\$$
.

PROOF: The only subsets of  $\{a,b\}$  are  $\emptyset$ ,  $\{a\}$ ,  $\{b\}$  and  $\{a,b\}$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.68.** For any nonempty set C we have

$$\bigcap_{X \in \mathcal{C}} \mathcal{P}X = \mathcal{P}\left(\bigcap \mathcal{C}\right) .$$

Proof:

$$x \in \bigcup_{X \in \mathcal{C}} \mathcal{P}X \Leftrightarrow \forall X \in \mathcal{C}.x \subseteq X$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \forall X \in \mathcal{C}.\forall y \in x.y \in X$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \forall y \in x.\forall X \in mathcalC.y \in X$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x \subseteq \bigcap \mathcal{C}$$

Proposition 2.69. For any set C we have

$$\bigcup_{X\in\mathcal{C}}\mathcal{P}X\subseteq\mathcal{P}\bigcup\mathcal{C}\ .$$

PROOF: If there exists  $X \in \mathcal{C}$  such that  $x \subseteq X$  then  $x \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{C}$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.70.** For any set E, we have

$$\bigcap \mathcal{P}E = \varnothing .$$

PROOF: Since  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{P}E$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.71.** For any sets E and F, if  $E \subseteq F$  then  $\mathcal{P}E \subseteq \mathcal{P}F$ .

PROOF: If  $E \subseteq F$  and  $X \subseteq E$  then  $X \subseteq F$ .  $\square$ 

# Chapter 3

## Relations and Functions

## 3.1 Ordered Pairs

**Proposition 3.1.** For any sets a, b, x and y, if (a,b) = (x,y) then a = x and b = y.

```
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: a, b, x and y be sets.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Assume: (a,b) = (x,y)
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ a = x
   PROOF: \{a\} = \bigcap (a, b) = \bigcap (x, y) = \{x\}.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \{a,b\} = \{x,y\}
\langle 1 \rangle 5. Case: a = b
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ x = y
      PROOF: Since \{x, y\} = \{a, b\} is a singleton.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. b = y
      PROOF: b = a = x = y
\langle 1 \rangle 6. Case: a \neq b
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ x \neq y
      PROOF: Since \{x, y\} = \{a, b\} is not a singleton.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. b = y
       PROOF: \{b\} = \{a, b\} - \{a\} = \{x, y\} - \{x\} = \{y\}.
```

**Proposition 3.2.** For any sets A, B and X, we have

$$(A - B) \times X = (A \times X) - (B \times X) .$$

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 3.3.** For any sets A and B, we have  $A \times B = \emptyset$  if and only if  $A = \emptyset$  or  $B = \emptyset$ .

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 3.4.** For any sets A, B, X and Y, if  $A \subseteq X$  and  $B \subseteq Y$  then  $A \times B \subseteq X \times Y$ . The converse holds assuming  $A \neq \emptyset$  and  $B \neq \emptyset$ .

Proof: Easy.

## 3.2 Relations

**Definition 3.5** (Domain). The *domain* of a relation R is the set

$$\operatorname{dom} R := \left\{ x \in \bigcup \bigcup R : \exists y . (x, y) \in R \right\} .$$

**Definition 3.6** (Range). The range of a relation R is the set

$$\operatorname{ran} R := \left\{ y \in \bigcup \bigcup R : \exists x . (x, y) \in R \right\} .$$

**Definition 3.7** (Reflexive). Let R be a relation on X. Then R is *reflexive* iff, for all  $x \in X$ , we have xRx.

**Definition 3.8** (Symmetric). Let R be a relation on X. Then R is *symmetric* iff, whenever xRy, then yRx.

**Definition 3.9** (Antisymmetric). A relation R is antisymmetric iff, whenever xRy and yRx, then x = y.

**Definition 3.10** (Transitive). Let R be a relation on X. Then R is *transitive* iff, whenever xRy and yRz, then xRz.

**Definition 3.11** (Identity Relation). For any set X, the *identity relation*  $I_X$  on X is

$$I_X = \{(x, x) : x \in X\}$$
.

## 3.3 Composition

**Definition 3.12** (Composition). Let R be a relation between X and Y, and S a relation between Y and Z. The *composite* or *relative product*  $S \circ R = SR$  is the relation between X and Z defined by

$$x(S \circ R)z \Leftrightarrow \exists y \in Y(xRy \land ySz)$$
.

**Proposition 3.13.** Let R be a relation between X and Y, S a relation between Y and Z, and T a relation between Z and W. Then

$$T(SR) = (TS)R$$
.

Proof: Easy.

**Example 3.14.** Composition of relations is not commutative in general. Let  $X = \{a, b\}$  where  $a \neq b$ . Let  $R = \{(a, a), (b, a)\}$  and  $S = \{(a, b), (b, b)\}$ . Then SR = S but  $RS = R \neq S$ .

**Proposition 3.15.** A relation R is transitive if and only if  $RR \subseteq R$ .

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

## 3.4 Inverses

**Definition 3.16** (Inverse). Let R be a relation between X and Y. The *inverse* or *converse*  $R^{-1}$  is the relation between Y and X defined by

$$yR^{-1}x \Leftrightarrow xRy$$
.

**Proposition 3.17.** For any relation R, we have

$$dom R^{-1} = ran R .$$

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 3.18.** For any relation R, we have

$$ran R^{-1} = dom R .$$

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 3.19.** Let R be a relation between X and Y, and S a relation between Y and Z. Then

$$(SR)^{-1} = R^{-1}S^{-1}$$
.

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 3.20.** A relation R is symmetric if and only if  $R \subseteq R^{-1}$ .

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 3.21.** Let R be a relation between X and Y. Then

$$I_Y R = R I_X = R$$
.

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 3.22.** A relation R on a set X is reflexive if and only if  $I_X \subseteq R$ .

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 3.23.** Let R be a relation on a set X. Then R is antisymmetric iff  $R \cap R^{-1} \subseteq I_X$ .

Proof: Easy.

## 3.5 Equivalence Relations

**Definition 3.24** (Equivalence Relation). Let R be a relation on X. Then R is an *equivalence relation* iff it is reflexive, symmetric and transitive.

**Definition 3.25** (Partition). Let X be a set. A partition of X is a pairwise disjoint set of nonempty subsets of X whose union is X.

**Definition 3.26** (Equivalence Class). Let R be an equivalence relation on X. Let  $x \in X$ . The *equivalence class* of x with respect to R is

$$x/R := \{ y \in X : xRy \} .$$

We write X/R for the set of all equivalence classes with respect to R.

**Definition 3.27** (Induced). Let P be a partition of X. The relation *induced* by P is X/P where x(X/P)y iff there exists  $X \in P$  such that  $x \in X$  and  $y \in X$ .

**Theorem 3.28.** Let R be an equivalence relation on X. Then X/R is a partition of X that induces the relation R.

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 3.29.** Let P be a partition of X. Then X/P is an equivalence relation on X, and P = X/(X/P).

Proof: Easy.

## 3.6 Functions

**Definition 3.30** (Injective). A function  $f: X \to Y$  is one-to-one or injective or an injection iff, for all  $x, y \in X$ , if f(x) = f(y) then x = y. In this case, we write  $f: X \rightarrowtail Y$ .

**Definition 3.31** (Surjective). Let  $f: X \to Y$ . We say f is *surjective*, or a *surjection*, or f maps X *onto* Y iff ran f = Y. In this case, we write  $f: X \to Y$ .

**Definition 3.32** (Bijective). Let  $f: X \to Y$ . Then f is bijective, or a bijection, iff it is injective and surjective.

**Definition 3.33** (Image). Let  $f: X \to Y$  and  $A \subseteq X$ . The *image* of A under f is

$$f(A) := \{ f(x) : x \in A \}$$
.

**Proposition 3.34.** Let  $f: X \to Y$  and  $A \subseteq B \subseteq X$ . Then  $f(A) \subseteq f(B)$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X and Y be sets.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $f: X \to Y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $A, B \in \mathcal{P}X$  with  $A \subseteq B$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $y \in f(A)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. PICK  $x \in A$  such that f(x) = y

Proof:  $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ x \in B$ 

Proof:  $\langle 1 \rangle 3, \langle 1 \rangle 5$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ y \in f(B)$ 

Proof:  $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ ,  $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ 

**Proposition 3.35.** Let  $f: X \to Y$ . Let  $A \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ . Then  $f(\bigcup A) = \bigcup_{A \in A} f(A)$ .

Proof:

$$y \in f\left(\bigcup \mathcal{A}\right) \Leftrightarrow \exists x \in \bigcup \mathcal{A}.y = f(x)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \exists x. \exists A \in \mathcal{A}(x \in A \land y = f(x))$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \exists A \in \mathcal{A}.\exists x \in A.y = f(x)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \exists A \in \mathcal{A}.y \in f(A)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow y \in \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} f(A)$$

**Proposition 3.36.** Let  $f: X \to Y$ . Let A be a nonempty subset of  $\mathcal{P}X$ . Then  $f(\bigcap A) \subseteq \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} f(A)$ . Equality holds if f is injective.

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: X and Y be sets.
```

$$\langle 1 \rangle 2$$
. Let:  $f: X \to Y$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\mathcal{A}$  be a nonempty subset of  $\mathcal{P}X$ .

$$\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ f(\bigcap A) \subseteq \bigcap_{A \in A} f(A)$$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 1$$
. Let:  $y \in f(\bigcap A)$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . PICK  $x \in \bigcap \mathcal{A}$  such that y = f(x)

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 3$$
. Let:  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \in A$ 

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 2, \langle 2 \rangle 3$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ y \in f(A)$ 

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. If f is injective then  $f(\bigcap A) = \bigcap_{A \in A} f(A)$ 

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: f is injective.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $y \in \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} f(A)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $A \in \mathcal{A}$

PROOF: A is nonempty by  $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ y \in f(A)$ 

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 2, \langle 2 \rangle 3$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Pick  $x \in A$  such that y = f(x)

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ x \in \bigcap \mathcal{A}$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $A' \in \mathcal{A}$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ y \in f(A')$ 

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 2, \langle 3 \rangle 1$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $x' \in A'$  such that y = f(x')

Proof:  $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ x = x'$ 

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ ,  $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 5. \ x \in A'$ 

```
Proof: \langle 3 \rangle 3, \langle 3 \rangle 4
   \langle 2 \rangle 7. \ y \in f(\bigcap \mathcal{A})
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 5, \langle 2 \rangle 6
Proposition 3.37. Let X and Y be sets. Let f: X \to Y. Let A, B \in \mathcal{P}X.
Then f(A) - f(B) \subseteq f(A - B). Equality holds if f is injective.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: X and Y be sets.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: f: X \to Y
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: A, B \in \mathcal{P}X
\langle 1 \rangle 4. f(A) - f(B) \subseteq f(A - B)
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: y \in f(A) - f(B)
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. \ y \in f(A)
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 1
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. PICK x \in A such that y = f(x).
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 2
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \notin B
        \langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction x \in B
        \langle 3 \rangle 2. \ y \in f(B)
            Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 3, \langle 3 \rangle 1
        \langle 3 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
            PROOF: \langle 2 \rangle 1 and \langle 3 \rangle 2 form a contradiction.
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x \in A - B
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 3, \langle 2 \rangle 4
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ y \in f(A-B)
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 3, \langle 2 \rangle 5
\langle 1 \rangle5. If f is injective then f(A - B) = f(A) - f(B).
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: f is injective.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: y \in f(A - B)
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Pick x \in A - B such that y = f(x)
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 2
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \in A
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 3
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ y \in f(A)
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 3, \langle 2 \rangle 4
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ y \notin f(B)
        \langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: y \in f(B)
        \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick x' \in B such that y = f(x')
            Proof: \langle 3 \rangle 1
        \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ x = x'
            Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 1, \langle 2 \rangle 3, \langle 3 \rangle 2
        \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ x \in B
            Proof: \langle 3 \rangle 2, \langle 3 \rangle 3
        \langle 3 \rangle 5. Q.E.D.
            PROOF: \langle 2 \rangle 3 and \langle 3 \rangle 4 form a contradiction.
```

$$\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ y \in f(A) - f(B)$$
  
PROOF:  $\langle 2 \rangle 5, \langle 2 \rangle 6$ 

**Definition 3.38** (Inclusion Map). Let Y be a set and  $X \subseteq Y$ . Then the inclusion map  $i: X \hookrightarrow Y$  is the function defined by i(x) = x for all  $x \in X$ .

**Proposition 3.39.** For any set X, the identity relation  $I_X$  is a function  $X \to X$ .

Proof: Easy.

**Definition 3.40** (Restriction). Let  $f: Y \to Z$  and  $X \subseteq Y$ . The restriction of f to X is the function  $f \upharpoonright X : X \to Z$  defined by

$$(f \upharpoonright X)(x) = f(x) \qquad (x \in X)$$
.

Given sets X, Y and Z with  $X \subseteq Y$ , if  $f: X \to Z$  and  $g: Y \to Z$ , we say g is an extension of f to Y iff  $f = g \upharpoonright X$ .

**Definition 3.41** (Projection). Given sets X and Y, the *projection* maps  $\pi_1: X \times Y \to X$  and  $\pi_2: X \times Y \to Y$  are defined by

$$\pi_1(x,y) = x, \qquad \pi_2(x,y) = y \qquad (x \in X, y \in Y) .$$

**Definition 3.42** (Canonical Map). Let X be a set and R an equivalence relation on X. The *canonical map*  $\pi: X \to X/R$  is the map defined by  $\pi(x) = x/R$ .

**Proposition 3.43.** Let  $f: X \to Y$ . Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. f is one-to-one.
- 2. For all  $A, B \subseteq X$ , we have  $f(A \cap B) = f(A) \cap f(B)$ .
- 3. For all  $A \subseteq X$ , we have  $f(X A) \subseteq Y f(A)$ .

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 3.44.** Let  $f: X \to Y$ . Then f maps X onto Y if and only if, for all  $A \subseteq X$ , we have  $Y - f(A) \subseteq f(X - A)$ .

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

## 3.7 Families

**Proposition 3.45** (Generalized Associative Law for Unions). Let  $\{I_j\}_{j\in J}$  be a family of sets. Let  $K = \bigcup_{j\in J} I_j$ . Let  $\{A_k\}_{k\in K}$  be a family of sets indexed by K. Then

$$\bigcup_{k \in K} A_k = \bigcup_{j \in J} \bigcup_{i \in I_j} A_i .$$

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 3.46** (Generalized Commutative Law for Unions). Let  $\{I_j\}_{j\in J}$  be a family of sets. Let  $f: J \to J$  be a one-to-one correspondence from J onto J. Then

$$\bigcup_{j \in J} I_j = \bigcup_{j \in J} I_{f(j)} .$$

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 3.47** (Generalized Associative Law for Intersections). Let  $\{I_j\}_{j\in J}$  be a nonempty family of nonempty sets. Let  $K = \bigcup_{j\in J} I_j$ . Let  $\{A_k\}_{k\in K}$  be a family of sets indexed by K. Then

$$\bigcap_{k \in K} A_k = \bigcap_{j \in J} \bigcap_{i \in I_j} A_i .$$

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 3.48** (Generalized Commutative Law for Intersections). Let  $\{I_j\}_{j\in J}$  be a nonempty family of sets. Let  $f: J \to J$  be a one-to-one correspondence from J onto J. Then

$$\bigcap_{j\in J} I_j = \bigcap_{j\in J} I_{f(j)} .$$

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 3.49.** Let B be a set and  $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$  a family of sets. Then

$$B \cap \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i = \bigcup_{i \in I} (B \cap A_i)$$

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 3.50.** Let B be a set and  $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$  a nonempty family of sets. Then

$$B \cup \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i = \bigcap_{i \in I} (B \cup A_i)$$

Proof: Easy.

**Definition 3.51** (Projection). Let  $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$  be a family of sets and  $i\in I$ . The projection function  $\pi_i: \times_{i\in I} A_i \to A_i$  is defined by  $\pi_i(a) = a_i$ .

**Proposition 3.52.** Let  $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$  and  $\{B_j\}_{j\in J}$  be families of sets. Then

$$\left(\bigcup_{i\in I} A_i\right) \times \left(\bigcup_{j\in I} B_j\right) = \bigcup_{i\in I} \bigcup_{j\in I} (A_i \times B_j) .$$

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 3.53.** Let  $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$  and  $\{B_j\}_{j\in J}$  be nonempty families of sets. Then

$$\left(\bigcap_{i\in I} A_i\right) \times \left(\bigcap_{j\in J} B_j\right) = \bigcap_{i\in I} \bigcap_{j\in J} (A_i \times B_j) .$$

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 3.54.** Let  $f: X \to Y$ . Let  $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$  be a family of subsets of X. Then

 $f\left(\bigcup_{i\in I}A_i\right) = \bigcup_{i\in I}f(A_i)$ .

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Example 3.55.** It is not true in general that, if  $f: X \to Y$  and  $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$  is a nonempty family of subsets of X, then  $f(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i) = \bigcap_{i \in I} f(A_i)$ .

Take  $X = \{a, b\}$  and  $Y = \{c\}$  where  $a \neq b$ . Take  $I = \{i, j\}$  with  $i \neq j$ . Let  $A_i = \{a\}$  and  $A_j = \{b\}$ . Let f be the unique function  $X \to Y$ . Then  $f(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i) = f(\emptyset) = \emptyset$  but  $\bigcap_{i \in I} f(A_i) = \{c\}$ .

## 3.8 Inverses and Composites of Functions

## 3.8.1 Inverse Image

**Definition 3.56** (Inverse Image). Let  $f: X \to Y$ . Let B be a subset of Y. Then the *inverse image* of B under f is

$$f^{-1}(B) = \{x \in X : f(x) \in B\} .$$

**Proposition 3.57.** *Let*  $f: X \to Y$ . *Let*  $B \subseteq Y$ . *Then* 

$$f(f^{-1}(B)) \subseteq B$$
.

Equality holds if f is surjective.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X and Y be sets.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $f: X \to Y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $B \subseteq Y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ f(f^{-1}(B)) \subseteq B$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $y \in f(f^{-1}(B))$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . PICK  $x \in f^{-1}(B)$  such that f(x) = y
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ f(x) \in B$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ y \in B$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . If f is surjective then  $f(f^{-1}(B)) = B$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: f is surjective.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $y \in B$

```
\langle 2 \rangle 3. PICK x \in X such that f(x) = y
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 1, \langle 2 \rangle 2
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \in f^{-1}(B)
       Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 2, \langle 2 \rangle 3
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ y \in f(f^{-1}(B))
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 3, \langle 2 \rangle 4
Proposition 3.58. Let f: X \to Y. Let A \subseteq X. Then
                                                     A \subseteq f^{-1}(f(A)).
Equality holds if f is one-to-one.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: X and Y be sets.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: f: X \to Y
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: A \subseteq X
\langle 1 \rangle 4. A \subseteq f^{-1}(f(A))
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: x \in A
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. f(x) \in f(A)
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ x \in f^{-1}(f(x))
\langle 1 \rangle5. If f is injective then f^{-1}(f(A)) = A
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: f is injective.
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: x \in f^{-1}(f(A))
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ f(x) \in f(A)
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 2
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. PICK x' \in A such that f(x') = f(x)
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 3
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x' = x
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 1, \langle 2 \rangle 4
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ x \in A
       Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 4, \langle 2 \rangle 5
Proposition 3.59. Let f: X \to Y. Let A \subseteq B \subseteq Y. Then f^{-1}(A) \subseteq f^{-1}(B).
PROOF:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: X and Y be sets.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: f: X \to Y
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: A \subseteq B \subseteq Y
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Let: x \in f^{-1}(A)
\langle 1 \rangle 5. f(x) \in A
\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ f(x) \in B
\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ x \in f^{-1}(B)
```

**Proposition 3.60.** Let  $f: X \to Y$ . Let  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq Y$ . Then

$$f^{-1}\left(\bigcup\mathcal{B}\right) = \bigcup_{B\in\mathcal{B}} f^{-1}(B) \ .$$

Proof:

$$x \in f^{-1}\left(\bigcup \mathcal{B}\right) \Leftrightarrow f(x) \in \bigcup \mathcal{B}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \exists B \in \mathcal{B}. f(x) \in B$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \exists B \in \mathcal{B}. x \in f^{-1}(B)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x \in \bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{B}} f^{-1}(B)$$

**Proposition 3.61.** Let  $f: X \to Y$ . Let  $\{B_i\}_{i \in I}$  be a nonempty family of subsets of Y. Then

$$f^{-1}\left(\bigcap_{i\in I} B_i\right) = \bigcap_{i\in I} f^{-1}(B_i) .$$

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 3.62.** Let  $f: X \to Y$  and  $B \subseteq Y$ . Then  $f^{-1}(Y - B) = X - f^{-1}(B)$ .

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

#### 3.8.2 Inverse of a Function

**Proposition 3.63.** Let  $f: X \approx Y$ . Then  $f^{-1}$  is a function, and is a bijection  $f^{-1}: Y \approx X$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X and Y be sets.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $f: X \approx Y$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $f^{-1}$  is a function.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $(x, y), (x, z) \in f^{-1}$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ (y,x), (z,x) \in f$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ y = z$ 

PROOF: f is injective.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . dom  $f^{-1} = Y$ 

Proof: Proposition 3.17,  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . ran  $f^{-1} = X$ 

Proof:

$$x \in \operatorname{ran} f^{-1} \Leftrightarrow \exists y.(y, x) \in f^{-1}$$
  
 $\Leftrightarrow \exists y.(x, y) \in f$   
 $\Leftrightarrow x \in \operatorname{dom} f$   
 $\Leftrightarrow x \in X$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ .  $f^{-1}$  is injective.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $y, y' \in Y$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $f^{-1}(y) = f^{-1}(y')$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ y = y'$ 

PROOF:  $y = f(f^{-1}(y)) = f(f^{-1}(y')) = y'$ .

**Proposition 3.64.** Let  $f: X \to Y$  and  $g: Y \to Z$ . Then  $gf: X \to Z$  and, for all  $x \in X$ , we have

$$(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) .$$

Proof: Easy.

**Example 3.65.** Example 3.14 shows that function composition is not commutative in general.

**Proposition 3.66.** The composite of two injective functions is injective.

PROOF:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x, y \in X$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Assume:  $(g \circ f)(x) = (g \circ f)(y)$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4.$  g(f(x)) = g(f(y))

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5.$  f(x) = f(y)

PROOF: g is injective.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ x = y$ 

Proof: f is injective.

**Proposition 3.67.** Let  $f: X \to Y$  and  $g: Y \to Z$ . If  $g \circ f$  is injective then f is injective.

PROOF: If f(x) = f(y) then g(f(x)) = g(f(y)) and so x = y.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 3.68.** The composite of two surjective functions is surjective.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $f: X \twoheadrightarrow Y$  and  $g: Y \twoheadrightarrow Z$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $z \in Z$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . PICK  $y \in Y$  such that g(y) = z

PROOF: Since q is surjective.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . PICK  $x \in X$  such that f(x) = y

Proof: Since f is surjective.

$$\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ (g \circ f)(x) = z$$

**Proposition 3.69.** Let  $f: X \to Y$  and  $g: Y \to Z$ . If  $g \circ f$  is surjective then g is surjective.

PROOF: Let  $z \in Z$ . Pick  $x \in X$  such that g(f(x)) = z. Then there exists y such that g(y) = z, namely y = f(x).  $\square$ 

Proposition 3.70. The composite of two bijective functions is bijective.

Proof: Propositions 3.66 and 3.68.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 3.71.** Let X, Y and Z be sets. Let  $f: X \to Y$  and  $g: Y \to Z$ . Let  $A \subseteq Z$ . Then

$$(g \circ f)^{-1}(A) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(A))$$
.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X, Y and Z be sets.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $f: X \to Y$  and  $g: Y \to Z$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $A \subseteq Z$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ (g \circ f)^{-1}(A) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(A))$ 

Proof:

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in X$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $x \in (g \circ f)^{-1}(A) \Leftrightarrow x \in f^{-1}(g^{-1}(A))$ 

Proof:

$$x \in (g \circ f)^{-1}(A) \Leftrightarrow (g \circ f)(x) \in A$$

$$\Leftrightarrow g(f(x)) \in A \qquad \text{(Proposition 3.64, } \langle 1 \rangle 2, \langle 2 \rangle 1)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow f(x) \in g^{-1}(A)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x \in f^{-1}(g^{-1}(A))$$

**Proposition 3.72.** Let  $f: X \approx Y$  and  $g: Y \approx Z$ . Then

$$(gf)^{-1} = f^{-1}g^{-1} : Z \to X$$
.

Proof: Easy.

**Definition 3.73** (Left Inverse, Right Inverse). Let  $f: X \to Y$  and  $g: Y \to X$ . Then g is a *left inverse* of f, and f is a *right inverse* of g, iff  $g \circ f = I_X$ .

**Proposition 3.74.** Let  $f: X \to Y$  and  $g: Y \to X$ . If  $gf = I_X$  then f is one-to-one and g maps Y onto X.

Proof: Easy.

**Lemma 3.75.** Let  $f: A \to B$ . If there are functions  $g: B \to A$  and  $h: B \to A$  such that  $\forall a \in A.g(f(a)) = a$  and  $\forall b \in B.f(h(b)) = b$ , then f is bijective and  $g = h = f^{-1}$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: A and B be sets.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $f: A \to B$  and  $g, h: B \to A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Assume:  $\forall a \in A.g(f(a)) = a$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Assume:  $\forall b \in B.f(h(b)) = b$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . f is injective.

Proof: Proposition 3.74,  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ ,  $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . f is surjective.

PROOF: Proposition 3.74,  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ ,  $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ g = h$ 

## 3.9 Choice Functions

**Definition 3.76** (Choice Function). A *choice function* for a set X is a function  $f: \mathcal{P}X - \{\emptyset\} \to X$  such that  $f(S) \in S$  for all S.

**Proposition 3.77.** Every set has a choice function.

PROOF: Given a nonempty set X, apply the Axiom of Choice to the family  $\{S\}_{S\in\mathcal{P}X-\{\varnothing\}}$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 3.78.** For any relation R, there exists a function  $f \subseteq R$  such that dom f = dom R.

#### Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: R be a relation. \langle 1 \rangle 2. Pick a choice function g for ran R. \langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: f: \operatorname{dom} R \to \operatorname{ran} R be the function f(x) = g(\{y \in \operatorname{ran} R : xRy\}) \langle 1 \rangle 4. f \subseteq R and \operatorname{dom} f = \operatorname{dom} R.
```

**Proposition 3.79.** If C is a set of pairwise disjoint nonempty sets, then there exists a set A such that, for all  $C \in C$ , we have  $A \cap C$  is a singleton.

#### Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: f be a choice function for \bigcup \mathcal{C} \langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: A = \{ f(C) : C \in \mathcal{C} \} \langle 1 \rangle 3. For all C \in \mathcal{C} we have A \cap C = \{ f(C) \}
```

## Chapter 4

# Equivalence

**Definition 4.1** (Equivalent). Sets E and F are equivalent,  $E \sim F$ , iff there exists a one-to-one correspondence between them.

**Proposition 4.2.** For any set X, equivalence is an equivalence relation on  $\mathcal{P}X$ .

PROOF: Easy.

**Theorem 4.3** (Schröder-Bernstein). Let X and Y be sets. If there exist injective functions  $X \to Y$  and  $Y \to X$ , then  $X \sim Y$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $f: X \to Y$  and  $g: Y \to X$  be one-to-one.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume: w.l.o.g.  $X \cap Y = \emptyset$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For  $x \in X$ , let us say that x is the parent of f(x); and for  $y \in Y$ , let us say that y is the parent of g(y).
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For  $z \in X \cup Y$ , let the set of descendants of z be the intersection of all the subsets S of  $X \cup Y$  such that  $z \in S$  and, if  $t \in S$  and t is the parent of u then  $u \in S$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Let:  $X_X$  be the set of all elements of X that are descendants of the elements of X that have no parent.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 6. Let:  $X_Y$  be the set of all elements of X that are descendants of the elements of Y that have no parent.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . Let:  $X_{\infty} = X X_X X_Y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . Let:  $Y_X$  be the set of all elements of Y that are descendants of the elements of X that have no parent.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 9$ . Let:  $Y_Y$  be the set of all elements of Y that are descendants of the elements of Y that have no parent.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 10$ . Let:  $Y_{\infty} = Y Y_X Y_Y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 11. \ f \upharpoonright X_X : X_X \sim Y_X$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 12. \ g \upharpoonright Y_Y : Y_Y \sim X_Y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 13. \ f \upharpoonright X_{\infty} : X_{\infty} \sim Y_{\infty}$
- (1)14. Define  $h: X \to Y$  by  $h(x) = g^{-1}(x)$  if  $x \in X_Y$ , and f(x) if not.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 15. \ h: X \sim Y$ 

**Theorem 4.4** (Cantor). For any set X we have  $X \not\sim \mathcal{P}X$ .

PROOF: If  $f: X \to \mathcal{P}X$  then  $\{x \in X : x \notin f(x)\}$  is a subset of X not in ran f.  $\square$ 

# Chapter 5

## Order

### 5.1 Partial Orders

**Definition 5.1** (Partial Order). A partial order on a set X is a relation on X that is reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive.

A partially ordered set or poset is a pair  $(X, \leq)$  such that  $\leq$  is a partial order on X. We write X for the poset  $(X, \leq)$ .

Given a partial order  $\leq$ , we write  $\geq$  for the inverse of  $\leq$ .

We write x < y or y > x for  $x \le y \land x \ne y$ . When this holds, we say x is less than y or smaller than y; and y is greater than x, larger than x.

**Proposition 5.2.** For any set X, the relation  $\subseteq$  is a partial order on  $\mathcal{P}X$ .

PROOF: From Theorems 2.16, 2.17 and 2.18.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 5.3.** Let X be a set. Let < be a relation on X. Then there exists a partial order  $\le$  on X such that

$$\forall x, y \in X (x < y \Leftrightarrow x \leq y \land x \neq y)$$

if and only if < is irreflexive and transitive. In this case,  $\le$  is unique and is defined by

$$\forall x, y \in X (x \le y \Leftrightarrow x < y \lor x = y)$$
.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X be a set.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let: < be a relation on X.
- (1)3. If there exists a partial order  $\leq$  on X such that  $\forall x, y \in X (x < y \Leftrightarrow x \leq y \land x \neq y)$ , then < is irreflexive.

PROOF: Trivial.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . If there exists a partial order  $\leq$  on X such that  $\forall x, y \in X (x < y \Leftrightarrow x \leq y \land x \neq y)$ , then < is transitive.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\leq$  be a partial order on X.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $\forall x, y \in X (x < y \Leftrightarrow x \leqslant y \land x \neq y)$

```
\langle 2 \rangle 3. Let: x < y and y < z
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \leqslant y
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 3
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x \neq y
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 3
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ y \leqslant z
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 3
    \langle 2 \rangle 7. \ y \neq z
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 3
    \langle 2 \rangle 8. \ x \leqslant z
        PROOF: From \langle 2 \rangle 4 and \langle 2 \rangle 6 since \leq is transitive by \langle 2 \rangle 1.
    \langle 2 \rangle 9. \ x \neq z
        \langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction x = z
        \langle 3 \rangle 2. \ y \leqslant x
            Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 6, \langle 3 \rangle 1
        \langle 3 \rangle 3. x = y
            PROOF: From \langle 2 \rangle 4 and \langle 3 \rangle 2 since \leq is antisymmetric by \langle 2 \rangle 1.
        \langle 3 \rangle 4. Q.E.D.
            PROOF: \langle 2 \rangle 5 and \langle 3 \rangle 3 form a contradiction.
    \langle 2 \rangle 10. x < z
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 8, \langle 2 \rangle 9
\langle 1 \rangle 5. If there exists a partial order \leq on X such that \forall x, y \in X (x < y \Leftrightarrow x \leq
          y \wedge x \neq y), then \forall x, y \in X (x \leq y \Leftrightarrow x < y \lor x = y).
    PROOF: Trivial.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. If < is irreflexive and transitive, then the relation \leq defined by \forall x, y \in
          X(x \le y \Leftrightarrow x < y \lor x = y) is a partial order on X.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: < is irreflexive.
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: < is transitive.
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. Let: \leq be the relation defined by \forall x, y \in X (x \leq y \Leftrightarrow x < y \lor x = y)
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. \leq \text{is reflexive.}
        PROOF: Immediate from \langle 2 \rangle 3.
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. \leq \text{is transitive.}
        \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: x, y, z \in X
        \langle 3 \rangle 2. Assume: x \leq y and y \leq z
        \langle 3 \rangle 3. x < y or x = y
            Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 4, \langle 3 \rangle 2
        \langle 3 \rangle 4. y < z or y = z
            Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 4, \langle 3 \rangle 2
        \langle 3 \rangle 5. Case: x < y and y < z
            \langle 4 \rangle 1. \ x < z
                Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 2
            \langle 4 \rangle 2. \ x \leq z
                Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 4, \langle 4 \rangle 1
        \langle 3 \rangle 6. Case: x = y
            PROOF: Then x \leq z from \langle 3 \rangle 2
        \langle 3 \rangle7. Case: y = z
```

PROOF: Then  $x \leq z$  from  $\langle 3 \rangle 2$  $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \leq \text{is antisymmetric.}$  $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x, y \in X$  $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $x \leq y$  $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Assume:  $y \leqslant x$  $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . x < y or x = yProof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 4, \langle 3 \rangle 2$  $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ . y < x or y = xProof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 4, \langle 3 \rangle 2$  $\langle 3 \rangle 6$ .  $\neg (x < y \land y < x)$  $\langle 4 \rangle$ 1. Assume: for a contradiction x < y and y < x $\langle 4 \rangle 2$ . x < xProof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 2, \langle 4 \rangle 1$  $\langle 4 \rangle 3$ . Q.E.D. PROOF:  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$  and  $\langle 4 \rangle 2$  form a contradiction.  $\langle 3 \rangle 7$ . x = yProof:  $\langle 3 \rangle 4, \langle 3 \rangle 5, \langle 3 \rangle 6$  $y \lor x = y$ ) satisfies  $\forall x, y \in X (x < y \Leftrightarrow x \leq y \land x \neq y)$ . Proof: Trivial.

**Proposition 5.4.** In a poset, we never have x < y and y < x.

PROOF: We would then have x < x by transitivity, contradicting the irreflexivity of <.  $\square$ 

**Definition 5.5** ((Strict) Initial Segment). Let X be a poset and  $a \in X$ . The (strict) initial segment determined by a is

$$s(a) := \{ x \in X : x < a \}$$
.

**Definition 5.6** (Weak Initial Segment). Let X be a poset and  $a \in X$ . The weak initial segment determined by a is

$$\overline{s}(a) := \{ x \in X : x \leqslant a \} .$$

**Definition 5.7** (Immediate Successor). Let X be a poset and  $x, y \in X$ . Then y is the *(immediate) successor* of x, and x is the *(immediate) predecessor* of y, iff x < y and there is no z such that x < z < y.

**Definition 5.8** (Least). Let X be a partial order and  $a \in X$ . Then a is *least* in X iff  $\forall x \in X.a \leq x$ .

**Proposition 5.9.** A poset has at most one least element.

PROOF: If a and b are least then  $a \leq b$  and  $b \leq a$ , hence a = b.  $\square$ 

**Definition 5.10** (Greatest). Let X be a partial order and  $a \in X$ . Then a is greatest in X iff  $\forall x \in X.x \leq a$ .

**Proposition 5.11.** A poset has at most one greatest element.

PROOF: If a and b are greatest then  $a \leq b$  and  $b \leq a$ , hence a = b.  $\square$ 

**Definition 5.12** (Minimal). Let X be a poset and  $a \in X$ . Then a is minimal iff there is no  $x \in X$  such that x < a.

**Definition 5.13** (Maximal). Let X be a poset and  $a \in X$ . Then a is maximal iff there is no  $x \in X$  such that a < x.

**Definition 5.14** (Lower Bound). Let X be a poset. Let  $E \subseteq X$  and  $a \in X$ . Then a is a lower bound for E iff  $\forall x \in E.a \leq x$ .

**Definition 5.15** (Upper Bound). Let X be a poset. Let  $E \subseteq X$  and  $a \in X$ . Then a is an *upper bound* for E iff  $\forall x \in E.x \leq a$ .

**Definition 5.16** (Greatest Lower Bound, Infimum). Let X be a poset. Let  $E \subseteq X$  and  $a \in X$ . Then a is the greatest lower bound or infimum for E iff a is the greatest element in the set of lower bounds for E.

**Definition 5.17** (Least Upper Bound, Supremum). Let X be a poset. Let  $E \subseteq X$  and  $a \in X$ . Then a is the least upper bound or supremum for E iff a is the least element in the set of upper bounds for E.

## 5.2 Linear Orders

**Definition 5.18** (Linear Order). A partial order  $\leq$  on a set X is a *linear order*, total order or simple order iff, for all  $x, y \in X$ , either  $x \leq y$  or  $y \leq x$ . We then call the poset  $(X, \leq)$  a *linearly ordered set* or a *chain*.

**Proposition 5.19.** Let R be a partial order on X. Then R is total if and only if  $X^2 \subseteq R \cup R^{-1}$ .

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 5.20.** Let X be a set and < a relation on X. Then there exists a linear order  $\le$  on X such that

$$\forall x, y \in X. (x < y \Leftrightarrow x \leq y \land x \neq y)$$

if and only if < is irreflexive, transitive, and:

$$\forall x, y \in X. (x < y \lor x = y \lor y < x) .$$

In this case,  $\leq$  is unique and is defined by

$$\forall x, y \in X. (x \leqslant y \Leftrightarrow x < y \lor x = y)$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X be a set.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let: < be a relation on X
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . If there exists a linear order  $\leq$  on X such that  $\forall x, y \in X (x < y \Leftrightarrow x \leq y \land x \neq y)$ , then < is irreflexive.

Proof: Trivial.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . If there exists a linear order  $\leq$  on X such that  $\forall x, y \in X (x < y \Leftrightarrow x \leq y \land x \neq y)$ , then < is transitive.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\leq$  be a linear order on X.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $\forall x, y \in X (x < y \Leftrightarrow x \leq y \land x \neq y)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let: x < y and y < z
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \leq y$

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x \neq y$ 

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ y \leqslant z$ 

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ y \neq z$ 

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 8. \ x \leq z$ 

PROOF: From  $\langle 2 \rangle 4$  and  $\langle 2 \rangle 6$  since  $\leq$  is transitive.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 9. \ x \neq z$ 
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction x = z
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ y \leqslant x$

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 6, \langle 3 \rangle 1$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ x = y$ 

PROOF: From  $\langle 2 \rangle 4$  and  $\langle 3 \rangle 2$  since  $\leq$  is antisymmetric.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF:  $\langle 2 \rangle 5$  and  $\langle 3 \rangle 3$  form a contradiction.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 10$ . x < z

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 8$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle 9$ 

- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. If there exists a linear order  $\leq$  on X such that  $\forall x,y \in X(x < y \Leftrightarrow x \leq y \land x \neq y)$ , then  $\forall x,y \in X(x < y \lor x = y \lor y < x)$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\leq$  be a linear order on X.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $\forall x, y \in X (x < y \Leftrightarrow x \leqslant y \land x \neq y)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $x, y \in X$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $x \leqslant y$  or  $y \leqslant x$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Case:  $x \leq y$

PROOF: Then x < y or x = y using  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Case:  $y \leqslant x$ 

PROOF: Then y < x or x = y using  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 6. If there exists a linear order  $\leq$  on X such that  $\forall x, y \in X(x < y \Leftrightarrow x \leq y \land x \neq y)$ , then  $\forall x, y \in X(x \leq y \Leftrightarrow x < y \lor x = y)$ .

Proof: Trivial.

- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 7. If  $\langle$  is irreflexive, transitive and satisfies  $\forall x,y \in X. (x < y \lor x = y \lor y < x)$ , then the relation  $\leq$  defined by  $\forall x,y (x \leq y \Leftrightarrow x < y \lor x = y)$  is a linear order on X.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $\langle$  is irreflexive.

```
\langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: < is transitive.
\langle 2 \rangle 3. Assume: \forall x, y \in X (x < y \lor x = y \lor y < x)
\langle 2 \rangle 4. Let: \leq be the relation defined by \forall x, y (x \leq y \Leftrightarrow x < y \lor x = y)
\langle 2 \rangle 5. \leq \text{is reflexive.}
    PROOF: Immediate from \langle 2 \rangle 4.
\langle 2 \rangle 6. \leq \text{is transitive.}
    \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: x, y, z \in X
    \langle 3 \rangle 2. Assume: x \leq y and y \leq z
    \langle 3 \rangle 3. x < y or x = y
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 4, \langle 3 \rangle 2
    \langle 3 \rangle 4. y < z or y = z
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 4, \langle 3 \rangle 2
    \langle 3 \rangle5. Case: x < y and y < z
        \langle 4 \rangle 1. \ x < z
            Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 2
        \langle 4 \rangle 2. \ x \leq z
            Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 4, \langle 4 \rangle 1
    \langle 3 \rangle 6. Case: x = y
        PROOF: Then x \leq z from \langle 3 \rangle 2
    \langle 3 \rangle 7. Case: y = z
        PROOF: Then x \leq z from \langle 3 \rangle 2
\langle 2 \rangle 7. \leq \text{is antisymmetric.}
    \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: x, y \in X
    \langle 3 \rangle 2. Assume: x \leq y
    \langle 3 \rangle 3. Assume: y \leqslant x
    \langle 3 \rangle 4. x < y or x = y
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 4, \langle 3 \rangle 2
    \langle 3 \rangle 5. y < x or y = x
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 4, \langle 3 \rangle 2
    \langle 3 \rangle 6. \ \neg (x < y \land y < x)
        \langle 4 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction x < y and y < x
        \langle 4 \rangle 2. x < x
            Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 2, \langle 4 \rangle 1
        \langle 4 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
            PROOF: \langle 2 \rangle 1 and \langle 4 \rangle 2 form a contradiction.
    \langle 3 \rangle 7. x = y
        Proof: \langle 3 \rangle 4, \langle 3 \rangle 5, \langle 3 \rangle 6
\langle 2 \rangle 8. \ \forall x, y \in X (x \leqslant y \lor y \leqslant x)
    \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: x, y \in X
    \langle 3 \rangle 2. x < y or x = y or y < x
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 3, \langle 3 \rangle 1
    \langle 3 \rangle 3. x \leqslant y or y \leqslant x
        Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 4, \langle 3 \rangle 2
```

**Theorem 5.21** (Zorn's Lemma). Let X be a poset such that every chain in X

has an upper bound. Then X has a maximal element.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . PICK a choice function f for X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\mathcal{X}$  be the set of chains in X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For all  $A \in \mathcal{X}$ ,

Let:  $\hat{A} = \{x \in X : A \cup \{x\} \in \mathcal{X}\}\$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $g: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{X}$  be the function

$$g(A) = \begin{cases} A \cup \{f(\hat{A} - A)\} & \text{if } \hat{A} - A \neq \emptyset \\ A & \text{if } \hat{A} - A = \emptyset \end{cases}$$
  $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . For  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ , let us say  $\mathcal{T}$  is a *tower* iff:

- - $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$
  - $\forall A \in \mathcal{T}.g(A) \in \mathcal{T}$
  - For every chain  $\mathcal{C}$  in  $\mathcal{T}$ , we have  $| \mathcal{C} \in \mathcal{T}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Let:  $\mathcal{T}_0$  be the intersection of the set of all towers.

PROOF: The set of all towers is nonempty since  $\mathcal{X}$  is a tower.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . Let:  $A = \bigcup \mathcal{T}_0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . A is a chain in X.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ .  $\mathcal{T}_0$  is a chain under  $\subseteq$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Given  $C \in \mathcal{T}_0$ , let us say that C is *comparable* iff, for all  $A \in \mathcal{T}_0$ , either  $A \subseteq C$  or  $C \subseteq A$ .
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . For all  $A, C \in \mathcal{T}_0$ , if C is comparable and  $A \subsetneq C$  then  $g(A) \subseteq C$ . PROOF: Since g(A) - A has at most one element, so if  $A \subsetneq C \subseteq g(A)$ then C = g(A).
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . For  $C \in \mathcal{T}_0$  comparable,

Let:  $\mathcal{U}_C = \{A \in \mathcal{T}_0 : A \subseteq C \vee g(C) \subseteq A\}$ 

- $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . For  $C \in \mathcal{T}_0$  comparable,  $\mathcal{U}_C$  is a tower.
  - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $C \in \mathcal{T}_0$  be comparable
  - $\langle 4 \rangle 2. \varnothing \in \mathcal{U}_C$

Proof: Since  $\emptyset \subseteq C$ .

 $\langle 4 \rangle 3. \ \forall A \in \mathcal{U}_C. g(A) \in \mathcal{U}_C$ 

Proof: By  $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ .

- $\langle 4 \rangle 4$ . For every chain  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{U}_C$  we have  $\bigcup \mathcal{C} \in \mathcal{U}_C$ 
  - $\langle 5 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{U}_C$  be a chain.
  - $\langle 5 \rangle 2$ . Case:  $\exists A \in \mathcal{C}.g(C) \subseteq A$

PROOF: Then  $g(C) \subseteq \bigcup C$ 

 $\langle 5 \rangle 3$ . Case:  $\forall A \in \mathcal{C}.A \subseteq C$ 

PROOF: Then  $\bigcup C \subseteq C$ .

- $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ . For  $C \in \mathcal{T}_0$  comparable,  $\mathcal{U}_C = \mathcal{T}_0$ .
- $\langle 3 \rangle 6$ . For  $C \in \mathcal{T}_0$  comparable we have g(C) is comparable.

PROOF: Since for all  $A \in \mathcal{T}_0$  either  $A \subseteq C \subseteq g(C)$  or  $g(C) \subseteq A$ .

- $\langle 3 \rangle 7$ . The set of comparable sets in  $\mathcal{T}_0$  is a tower.
  - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$ .  $\emptyset$  is comparable.

Proof:  $\forall A \in \mathcal{T}_0.\emptyset \subseteq A$ 

```
\langle 4 \rangle 2. For all C \in \mathcal{T}_0, if A is comparable then g(C) is comparable.
                 Proof: \langle 3 \rangle 6
            \langle 4 \rangle 3. For every chain \mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_0 of comparable sets, we have | \mathcal{C} \rangle = \mathcal{C}_0 is comparable sets.
                       rable.
                 \langle 5 \rangle 1. Let: \mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_0 be a chain of comparable sets.
                 \langle 5 \rangle 2. Let: A \in \mathcal{T}_0
                 \langle 5 \rangle 3. Case: there exists C \in \mathcal{C} such that A \subseteq C
                     PROOF: Then A \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{C}.
                 \langle 5 \rangle 4. Case: for all C \in \mathcal{C} we have C \subseteq A
                     PROOF: Then \bigcup C \subseteq A.
        \langle 3 \rangle 8. Every set in \mathcal{T}_0 is comparable.
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: x, y \in A
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. PICK A, C \in \mathcal{T}_0 such that x \in A and y \in C
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. Assume: w.l.o.g. A \subseteq C
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x, y \in C
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. x \leq y or y \leq x
        PROOF: Since C \in \mathcal{X} so C is a chain.
\langle 1 \rangle 9. PICK an upper bound u for A.
\langle 1 \rangle 10. \ A \in \mathcal{T}_0
    PROOF: Since \mathcal{T}_0 is a chain in \mathcal{T}_0 so \bigcup \mathcal{T}_0 \in \mathcal{T}_0.
\langle 1 \rangle 11. \ g(A) \in \mathcal{T}_0
\langle 1 \rangle 12. \ g(A) \subseteq A
\langle 1 \rangle 13. g(A) = A
\langle 1 \rangle 14. \hat{A} - A = \emptyset
\langle 1 \rangle 15. u \in A
    PROOF: Since A \cup \{u\} is a chain so u \in \hat{A} and therefore u \in A.
\langle 1 \rangle 16. u is maximal in X.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: x \in X
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: u \leq x
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. A \cup \{x\} is a chain.
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \in A
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x \leq u
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ x = u
```

**Definition 5.22** (Cofinal). Let X be a poset and  $A \subseteq X$ . Then A is *cofinal* iff, for all  $x \in X$ , there exists  $a \in A$  such that  $x \leq a$ .

**Definition 5.23** (Order Isomorphism). Two posets X and Y are *(order) isomorphic*,  $X \cong Y$  iff there exists an order preserving one-to-one correspondence f between them. We write  $f: X \cong Y$  and call f a *(order) isomorphism*.

**Proposition 5.24.** Let X and Y be posets. Let f be a one-to-one correspondence between X and Y. Then f is a similarity if and only if, for all  $x, y \in X$ , we have x < y iff f(x) < f(y).

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 5.25.** For any poset X we have  $I_X : X \cong X$ .

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 5.26.** If  $f: X \cong Y$  then  $f^{-1}: Y \cong X$ .

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 5.27.** If  $f: X \cong Y$  and  $g: Y \cong Z$  then  $g \circ f: X \cong Z$ .

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

Corollary 5.27.1. For any set E, similarity is an equivalence relation on the set of all posets that are subsets of E.

**Definition 5.28** (Open Interval). Let X be a linearly ordered set. Let  $a, b \in X$  with a < b. The *open interval* (a, b) is

$$(a,b) := \{x \in X : a < x < b\}$$
.

**Definition 5.29** (Lexicographical Order). Let A and B be linearly ordered sets. The *lexicographical* order on  $A \times B$  is the relation  $\leq$  defined by  $(a,b) \leq (x,y)$  iff a < x or  $(a = x \text{ and } b \leq y)$ .

**Definition 5.30** (Least Upper Bound Property). A linearly ordered set A has the *least upper bound property* iff every nonempty subset of A bounded above has a least upper bound.

**Proposition 5.31.** Let A be a linearly ordered set. Then A has the least upper bound property if and only if every nonempty subset of A bounded below has a greatest lower bound.

# Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For any linearly ordered set A, if A has the least upper bound property then every nonempty subset of A bounded below has a greatest lower bound.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Let: A be a linearly ordered set.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: A has the least upper bound property.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. Let: S be a nonempty subset of A bounded below.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $S \downarrow$  be the set of all lower bounds for S.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ S \downarrow \neq \emptyset$

PROOF: Since S is bounded below by  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ .  $S \downarrow$  is bounded above.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Pick  $s \in S$

PROOF: S is nonempty by  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . s is an upper bound for  $S \downarrow$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. Let: *l* be the supremum of  $S \downarrow$ .

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 8$ . l is a lower bound for S.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $s \in S$ 

- $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . s is an upper bound for  $S \downarrow$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ l \leqslant s$

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ ,  $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ 

- $\langle 2 \rangle 9$ . For any lower bound l' for S we have  $l' \leq l$ . PROOF: Since l is an upper bound for  $S \downarrow by \langle 2 \rangle 7$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For any linearly ordered set A, if every nonempty subset of A bounded below has a greatest lower bound then A has the least upper bound property.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $(A, \leq)$  be a linearly ordered set.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 2. Assume: Every nonempty subset of A bounded below has a greatest lower bound.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $(A, \geq)$  has the least upper bound property.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Every nonempty subset of A bounded below with respect to  $\geq$  has ja greatest lower bound with respect to  $\geq$ .
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Every nonempty subset of A bounded above with respect to  $\leq$  has a least upper bound with respect to  $\leq$ .

Well Orderings

**Definition 5.32** (Well Ordered Set). A poset X is well ordered, and its ordering is a well ordering, iff every nonempty subset of X has a least element.

**Proposition 5.33.** Every well ordered set is totally ordered.

PROOF: For all x and y we have  $\{x,y\}$  has a least element, so  $x \leq y$  or  $y \leq x$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 5.34** (Transfinite Induction). Let X be a well ordered set. Let  $S \subseteq X$ satisfy:

$$\forall x \in X (\forall y < x. y \in S) \Rightarrow x \in S$$
.

Then S = X.

5.3

PROOF: We have X - S has no least element, so  $X - S = \emptyset$ .  $\square$ 

**Definition 5.35** (Continuation). Let A and B be well ordered sets. Then B is a continuation of A iff there exists  $b \in B$  such that A = s(b) and the order on A is the restriction of the order on B to A.

**Proposition 5.36.** Let C be a set of well ordered sets that is totally ordered under continuation. Then there exists a unique well ordering on  $| \ | \mathcal{C}$  such that  $\bigcup \mathcal{C}$  is a continuation of every element of  $\mathcal{C}$ .

PROOF: Define  $\leq$  on  $\bigcup \mathcal{C}$  by:  $x \leq y$  iff there exists  $C \in \mathcal{C}$  such that  $x, y \in C$  and  $x \leq y \text{ in } C. \sqcup$ 

**Proposition 5.37.** Every totally ordered set has a cofinal well ordered subset.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X be a totally ordered set.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let: C be the poset of all well ordered subsets of X under continuation.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Every chain in  $\mathcal{C}$  has an upper bound.

Proof: Proposition 5.36.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Pick a maximal element C of C

Prove: C is cofinal

Proof: Zorn's Lemma

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $x \in X$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . We cannot have  $\forall c \in C.c < x$

PROOF: Then  $C \cup \{x\}$  would be a larger chain.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ \exists c \in C.x \leqslant c$ 

**Theorem 5.38** (Well Ordering Theorem). Every set can be well ordered.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X be a set.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let: W be the poset of all well ordered subsets of X under continuation.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Every chain in W has an upper bound.

PROOF: Proposition 5.36.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Pick a maximal  $M \in \mathcal{W}$ 

Proof: Zorn's Lemma

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5.$  M = X

PROOF: If  $x \in X - M$  then  $M \cup \{x\}$  with x as the greatest element is a continuation of M.

**Theorem 5.39** (Transfinite Recursion). Let W be a well ordered set and X a set. Let S be the set of all functions f such that ran  $f \subseteq X$ , and there exists  $a \in W$  such that dom f = s(a). Then there exists a unique function  $U: W \to X$  such that

$$\forall a \in W.U(a) = f(U \!\upharpoonright\!\! s(a)) \ .$$

# PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let us say that a subset  $A \subseteq W \times X$  is f-closed iff, whenever  $a \in W$  and  $t: s(a) \to X$  satisfies  $\forall c < a.(c, t(c)) \in A$ , then  $(a, f(t)) \in A$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. Let: U be the intersection of the set of f-closed subsets of  $W \times X$  Proof: This set is nonempty since  $W \times X$  is f-closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . *U* is *f*-closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . *U* is a function.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Let: P(a) be the property: there is at most one  $x \in X$  such that  $(a,x) \in U$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $a \in W$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Assume: as transfinite induction hypothesis  $\forall c < a.P(c)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $(a, x), (a, y) \in U$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5.$   $x = f(U \upharpoonright c)$

PROOF: If not then  $U - \{(a, x)\}$  would be f-closed.

```
\langle 2 \rangle 6. y = f(U \upharpoonright c)
   \langle 2 \rangle 7. x = y
\langle 1 \rangle 5. dom U = W
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: a \in W
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: as transfinite induction hypothesis \forall c < a.c \in \text{dom } U
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ (a, f(U \upharpoonright s(a))) \in U
\langle 1 \rangle 6. If U': W \to X and \forall a \in W.U'(a) = f(U' \upharpoonright s(a)), then U' = U.
   PROOF: Prove U'(a) = U(a) by transfinite induction on a.
Proposition 5.40. Let X be a well ordered set and f a similarity between X
and a subset of X. Then, for all a \in X, we have a \leq f(a).
PROOF:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: a \in X
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Assume: as transfinite induction hypothesis \forall c < a.c \leq f(c)
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Assume: for a contradiction f(a) < a
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ f(a) \leq f(f(a))
   Proof: \langle 1 \rangle 2
\langle 1 \rangle 5. f(f(a)) < f(a)
   PROOF: From \langle 1 \rangle 3 since f is a similarity.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. Q.E.D.
   PROOF: This is a contradiction.
Proposition 5.41. Let X and Y be well ordered sets. Then there is at most
one similarity between them.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: f, g: X \cong Y
        PROVE: \forall a \in X. f(a) = g(a)
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: a \in X
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Assume: as transfinite induction hypothesis \forall c < a. f(c) = g(c)
```

**Proposition 5.42.** A well ordered set is not similar to any of its initial segments.

```
Proof:
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```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: X be a well ordered set. \langle 1 \rangle 2. Assume: for a contradiction f
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $f: X \cong s(a)$  for some  $a \in X$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . f(a) < a

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6.$  f(a) = g(a)

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts Proposition 5.40.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . f(a) is the least element of  $Y - \{f(c) : c < a\}$  $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . g(a) is the least element of  $Y - \{g(c) : c < a\}$  **Theorem 5.43** (Comparability Theorem). Given well ordered sets X and Y, either  $X \cong Y$ , or X is similar to an initial segment of Y, or Y is similar to an initial segment of X.

```
PROOF:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: X_0 = \{ a \in X : \exists b \in Y . s(a) \cong s(b) \}
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: U: X_0 \to Y be the function: for a \in X_0, we have U(a) is the unique
                 element in Y such that s(a) \cong s(U(a))
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: Y_0 = \operatorname{ran} U
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Either X_0 = X or there exists a \in X such that X_0 = s(a)
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: X_0 \neq X
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: a be the least element of X - X_0
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Let: x \in X_0
           Prove: x < a
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. Pick f: s(x) \cong s(U(x))
   \langle 2 \rangle5. Assume: for a contradiction a < x
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ f \upharpoonright s(a) : s(a) \cong s(f(a))
   \langle 2 \rangle 7. a \in X_0
   \langle 2 \rangle 8. Q.E.D.
      PROOF: This is a contradiction.
\langle 1 \rangle5. Either Y_0 = Y or there exists b \in Y such that Y_0 = s(b)
   PROOF: Similar.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. Case: X_0 = X and Y_0 = Y
   PROOF: Then U: X \cong Y.
\langle 1 \rangle 7. Case: X_0 = X and Y_0 \neq Y
   PROOF: Then U: X \cong s(b) where Y_0 = s(b).
\langle 1 \rangle 8. Case: X_0 \neq X and Y_0 = Y
   PROOF: Then U: s(a) \cong Y where X_0 = s(a).
\langle 1 \rangle 9. Case: X_0 \neq X and Y_0 \neq Y
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: X_0 = s(a) and Y_0 = s(b)
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. U: s(a) \cong s(b)
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ a \in X_0
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. Q.E.D.
      Proof: This is a contradiction.
```

Corollary 5.43.1. Let X be a well ordered set. Then any subset A of X is either similar to X or to an initial segment of X.

PROOF: We cannot have X is similar to an initial segment of A, say  $f: X \cong \{x \in A: x < a\}$ , because then we would have f(a) < a contradicting Proposition 5.40.  $\square$ 

**Corollary 5.43.2.** For any sets X and Y, either there exists an injective function  $X \to Y$ , or there exists an injective function  $Y \to X$ .

PROOF: Using the Well Ordering Theorem.

# Chapter 6

# Natural Numbers

# 6.1 Natural Numbers

**Definition 6.1** (Successor). The *successor* of a set x,  $x^+$ , is defined by

$$x^+ := x \cup \{x\} .$$

**Definition 6.2.** We define

$$0 = \emptyset$$

$$1 = 0^{+}$$

$$2 = 1^{+}$$

etc.

**Definition 6.3** (Characteristic Function). Let X be a set and  $A \subseteq X$ . The characteristic function of A is the function  $\chi_A : X \to 2$  defined by

$$\chi_A(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in A \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin A \end{cases}$$

**Theorem 6.4.** Let X be a set. The function  $\chi : \mathcal{P}X \to 2^X$  that maps a subset A of X to  $\chi_A$  is a one-to-one correspondence.

Proof: Easy.

**Definition 6.5.** The set  $\omega$  of natural numbers is the set such that:

- $0 \in \omega$
- For all  $n \in \omega$  we have  $n^+ \in \omega$
- For any set X, if  $0 \in X$  and  $\forall n \in X.n^+ \in X$  then  $\omega \subseteq X$

PROOF: To show this exists, pick a set A such that  $0 \in A$  and  $\forall n \in A.n^+ \in A$  (by the Axiom of Infinity), and let  $\omega = \bigcap \{X \in \mathcal{P}A : 0 \in X \land \forall n \in X.n^+ \in X\}$ .

**Definition 6.6** (Sequence). A *finite sequence* is a family whose index set is a natural number. An *infinite sequence* is a family whose index set is  $\omega$ .

Given a finite sequence of sets  $\{A_i\}_{i\in n^+}$ , we write  $\bigcup_{i=0}^n A_i$  for  $\bigcup_{i\in n^+} A_i$ . Given an infinite sequence of sets  $\{A_i\}_{i\in\omega}$ , we write  $\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} A_i$  for  $\bigcup_{i\in\omega} A_i$ .

We make similar definitions for  $\bigcap$  and  $\times$ .

**Proposition 6.7.** For any natural numbers m and n, if  $m \in n$  then  $m^+ \in n^+$ .

```
Proof:
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: P(n) be the property  $\forall m \in n.m^+ \in n^+ \langle 1 \rangle 2$ . P(0) Proof: Vacuous.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For any natural number n, if P(n) then  $P(n^+)$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Let: n be a natural number.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: P(n)

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $m \in n^+$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $m \in n$  or m = n

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ m^+ \in n^+ \text{ or } m^+ = n^+$ 

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Case:  $m^+ \in n^{++}$ 

**Theorem 6.8** (Principle of Mathematical Induction). For any subset S of  $\omega$ , if  $0 \in S$  and  $\forall n \in S.n^+ \in S$ , then  $S = \omega$ .

PROOF: From the definition of  $\omega$ .  $\square$ 

# Proposition 6.9.

 $\forall n \in \omega. \forall x \in n. n \nsubseteq x$ 

# Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $\forall x \in 0.0 \nsubseteq x$ 

Proof: Vacuous.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For any natural number n, if  $\forall x \in n.n \subseteq x$  then  $\forall x \in n^+.n^+ \subseteq x$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Let: *n* be a natural number.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $\forall x \in n.n \subseteq x$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $x \in n^+$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $n^+ \subseteq x$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .  $x \in n$  or x = n
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Case:  $x \in n$

PROOF: Then we have  $n \subseteq n^+ \subseteq x$  contradicting  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ . Case: x = n

PROOF: Then we have  $n \in n^+ \subseteq x = n$  and  $n \subseteq n$  contradicting  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .

**Corollary 6.9.1.** For any natural number n we have  $n \notin n$ .

Corollary 6.9.2. For any natural number n we have  $n \neq n^+$ .

**Definition 6.10** (Transitive Set). A set E is a *transitive* set iff, whenever  $x \in y \in E$ , then  $x \in E$ .

**Proposition 6.11.** Every natural number is a transitive set.

#### PROOF:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . 0 is a transitive set.

PROOF: Vacuously, if  $x \in y \in 0$  then  $x \in 0$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For any natural number n, if n is a transitive set, then  $n^+$  is a transitive set.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: n be a natural number.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: *n* is a transitive set.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $x \in y \in n^+$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ y \in n \text{ or } y = n$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . Case:  $y \in n$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1. \ x \in n$

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .

- $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ x \in n^+$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Case: y = n
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1. \ x \in n$

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 3, \langle 2 \rangle 6$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ x \in n^+$ 

П

**Proposition 6.12.** For any natural numbers m and n, if  $m^+ = n^+$  then m = n.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: m and n be natural numbers.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $m^+ = n^+$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ m \in m^+ = n^+$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $m \in n$  or m = n
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ .  $n \in n^+ = m^+$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ n \in m \text{ or } n = m$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . We cannot have  $m \in n$  and  $n \in m$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $m \in n$  and  $n \in m$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $m \in m$

PROOF: Since m is a transitive set (Proposition 6.11).

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Q.E.D.

Proof: This contradicts Proposition 6.9.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 8. \ m = n$ 

**Theorem 6.13** (Recursion Theorem). Let X be a set. Let  $a \in X$ . Let  $f: X \to X$ . There exists a function  $u: \omega \to X$  such that u(0) = a and, for all  $n \in \omega$ , we have  $u(n^+) = f(u(n))$ .

```
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: \mathcal{C} = \{ A \in \mathcal{P}(\omega \times X) : (0,a) \in A \land \forall n \in \omega . \forall x \in X . (n,x) \in A \Rightarrow A \}
                  (n^+, f(x)) \in A
\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \mathcal{C} \neq \emptyset
   Proof: \omega \times X \in \mathcal{C}
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: u = \bigcap \mathcal{C}
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ u \in \mathcal{C}
\langle 1 \rangle 5. u is a function.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: P(n) be the property: \forall x, y \in X . (n, x) \in u \land (n, y) \in u \Rightarrow x = y
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. P(0)
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. \ \forall x \in X.(0,x) \in u \Rightarrow x = a
          PROOF: If (0, x) \in u and x \neq a then u - \{(0, x)\} \in \mathcal{C} and so u - \{(0, x)\} \subseteq u,
          which is impossible.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. For every natural number n, if P(n) then P(n^+).
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: n be a natural number.
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. Assume: P(n)
       \langle 3 \rangle 3. Let: x, y \in X
       ⟨3⟩4. Assume: (n^+, x), (n^+, y) \in u
       \langle 3 \rangle 5. PICK x', y' \in X such that (n, x') \in u, (n, y') \in u and f(x') = x and
                f(y') = y
          PROOF: If no such x' exists then u-\{(n^+,x)\}\in\mathcal{C} and so u-\{(n^+,x)\}\subseteq u
          which is impossible. Similarly for y'.
       \langle 3 \rangle 6. \ x' = y'
          Proof: \langle 3 \rangle 2
       \langle 3 \rangle 7. x = y
П
Proposition 6.14. For any natural number n, either n = 0 or there exists a
natural number m such that n = m^+.
Proof: Easy induction on n. \square
Proposition 6.15. \omega is a transitive set.
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: P(n) be the property \forall x \in n.x \in \omega
\langle 1 \rangle 2. P(0)
   Proof: Vacuous.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. For any natural number n, if P(n) then P(n^+).
   \langle 2 \rangle1. Let: n be a natural number.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: P(n)
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Let: x \in n^+
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. x \in n or x = n
   \langle 2 \rangle5. Case: x \in n
       PROOF: Then x \in \omega by \langle 2 \rangle 2.
```

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Case: x = n

PROOF: Then  $x \in \omega$  by  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ .

```
Proposition 6.16. For any natural number n and any nonempty subset E \subseteq n, there exists k \in E such that \forall m \in E.k = m \lor k \in m.

PROOF: \langle 1 \rangle 1. LET: P(n) be the property: for any nonempty subset E \subseteq n, there exists k \in E such that \forall m \in E.k = m \lor k \in m
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . P(0) PROOF: Vacuous as there is no nonempty subset of 0.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For any natural number n, if P(n) then  $P(n^+)$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: *n* be a natural number.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: P(n)
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let: E be a nonempty subset of  $n^+$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Case:  $E \{n\} = \emptyset$

PROOF: Then  $E = \{n\}$  so take k = n.

- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Case:  $E \{n\} \neq \emptyset$ 
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Pick  $k \in E \{n\}$  such that  $\forall m \in E \{n\}.k = m \lor k \in m$

Proof: By  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ .  $\forall m \in E.k = m \lor k \in m$ 

PROOF: Since  $k \in n$ .

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# Chapter 7

# **Ordinal Numbers**

**Definition 7.1** (Ordinal (Number)). An ordinal (number) is a well ordered set  $\alpha$  such that  $\forall \xi \in \alpha.s(\xi) = \xi$ . Given ordinals  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , we write  $\alpha < \beta$  iff  $\alpha \in \beta$ . Proposition 7.2. Every natural number is an ordinal. Proof: Easy. **Proposition 7.3.**  $\omega$  is an ordinal. Proof: Easy. **Proposition 7.4.** If  $\alpha$  is an ordinal number then so is  $\alpha^+$ . Proof: Easy.  $\square$ **Proposition 7.5.** Let  $\alpha$  be an ordinal and  $\eta, \xi \in \alpha$ . Then  $\eta < \xi$  if and only if  $\eta \in \xi$ . Proof: Easy. Proposition 7.6. Every ordinal is a transitive set. Proof: Easy. Proposition 7.7. Every element of an ordinal is an ordinal. Proof: Easy. Proposition 7.8. Similar ordinals are equal. Proof:  $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\alpha, \beta$  be ordinals.  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $f : \alpha \cong \beta$  be a similarity. PROVE:  $\forall \xi \in \alpha. f(\xi) = \xi$  $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\xi \in \alpha$ 

```
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Assume: as transfinite induction hypothesis \forall \eta < \xi. f(\eta) = \eta
\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ f(\xi) \subseteq \xi
     \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: \eta \in f(\xi)
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. PICK \zeta \in \alpha such that f(\zeta) = \eta
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \zeta \in \xi
         PROOF: Since f(\zeta) \in f(\xi) and f is a similarity.
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. f(\zeta) = \zeta
         Proof: \langle 1 \rangle 4
     \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ \eta = \zeta
         Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 2, \langle 2 \rangle 4
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ \eta \in \xi
         Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 3, \langle 2 \rangle 5
\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ \xi \subseteq f(\xi)
     \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: \eta \in \xi
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. \eta = f(\eta) \in f(\xi)
\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ f(\xi) = \xi
Proposition 7.9. Let \alpha and \beta be ordinals. Then the following are equivalent.
     1. \alpha \in \beta
     2. \alpha \subseteq \beta
     3. \beta is a continuation of \alpha.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. 1 \Rightarrow 3
    PROOF: If \alpha \in \beta then \alpha = s(\alpha).
\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ 3 \Rightarrow 2
    PROOF: Immediate from definitions.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 2 \Rightarrow 1
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: \gamma be the least element of \beta such that \gamma \notin \alpha
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. \alpha \subseteq \gamma
         \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: \eta \in \alpha
         \langle 3 \rangle 2. \eta \subseteq \alpha
         \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ \gamma \notin \eta
         \langle 3 \rangle 4. \eta \in \gamma or \eta = \gamma
         \langle 3 \rangle 5. \ \eta \neq \gamma
             PROOF: Since \eta \in \alpha and \gamma \notin \alpha.
         \langle 3 \rangle 6. \ \eta \in \gamma
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \gamma \subseteq \alpha
         PROOF: For all \eta \in \gamma we have \eta \in \alpha by leastness of \gamma.
     \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ \gamma = \alpha
     \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ \alpha \in \beta
Proposition 7.10. For any ordinal numbers \alpha and \beta, either \alpha = \beta, or \alpha < \beta,
```

or  $\beta < \alpha$ .

#### PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Either  $\alpha = \beta$ , or  $\alpha$  is similar to an initial segment of  $\beta$ , or  $\beta$  is similar to an initial segment of  $\alpha$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Case:  $\alpha$  is similar to an initial segment of  $\beta$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . PICK  $\eta \in \beta$  such that  $\alpha \sim s(\eta)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $\alpha \sim \eta$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \alpha = \eta$

Proof: Proposition 7.8.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ \alpha \in \beta$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Case:  $\beta$  is similar to an initial segment of  $\alpha$ .

PROOF: Then  $\beta \in \alpha$  similarly.

**Proposition 7.11.** Every set of ordinals is well ordered by <.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: E be a set of ordinals.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let: A be a nonempty subset of E.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $\alpha \in A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Case:  $\alpha \cap A = \emptyset$

PROOF: Then  $\alpha$  is least in A.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Case:  $\alpha \cap A \neq \emptyset$ 

PROOF: Then  $\alpha \cap A$  has a least element, which is least in A.

П

**Definition 7.12** (Limit Ordinal). A *limit ordinal* is an ordinal number that is not 0 and not  $\alpha^+$  for any ordinal  $\alpha$ .

**Proposition 7.13.** For any set E of ordinal numbers,  $\bigcup E$  is an ordinal and is the supremum of E.

Proof: Proposition 5.36.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 7.14** (Burali-Forti Paradox). There is no set whose members are exactly the ordinal numbers.

PROOF: For any set of ordinals E, we have  $(\bigcup E)^+$  is an ordinal that is not in E.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 7.15** (Counting Theorem). Every well ordered set is similar to a unique ordinal.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X be a well ordered set.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . There exists an ordinal  $\alpha$  such that  $X \cong \alpha$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . For all  $a \in X$ , there exists a unique ordinal  $\alpha$  such that  $s(a) \cong \alpha$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $a \in X$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Assume: as transfinite induction hypothesis that, for all b < a, there exists a unique ordinal  $\beta$  such that  $s(b) \cong \beta$

```
\langle 3 \rangle 3. Let: \alpha = \{ \beta : \beta \text{ is an ordinal } \wedge \exists b < a.s(b) \cong \beta \}
          PROOF: This is a set by the Axiom of Substitution.
       \langle 3 \rangle 4. \alpha is an ordinal
          \langle 4 \rangle 1. Let: \gamma \in \beta \in \alpha
          \langle 4 \rangle 2. Pick b < a and f : s(b) \cong \beta
          \langle 4 \rangle 3. PICK c < b such that f(c) = \gamma
          \langle 4 \rangle 4. \ f \upharpoonright s(c) : s(c) \cong \gamma
       \langle 3 \rangle 5. \ s(a) \cong \alpha
          PROOF: The function f: s(a) \to \alpha defined by f(b) is the ordinal such
          that s(b) \cong f(b) is a similarity.
       \langle 3 \rangle 6. \alpha is unique.
          Proof: Proposition 7.8.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: \alpha = \{ \beta : \beta \text{ is an ordinal } \wedge \exists a \in X.s(a) \cong \beta \}
       PROOF: This is a set by the Axiom of Substitution.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. \alpha is an ordinal.
       PROOF: Similar.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ X \cong \alpha
       PROOF: Similar.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. For any ordinals \alpha and \beta, if X \cong \alpha and X \cong \beta then \alpha = \beta.
   Proof: Proposition 7.8.
П
```

# 7.1 Order on the Natural Numbers

**Proposition 7.16.** For natural numbers m, n and k, if m < n then m + k < n + k.

```
Proof:
```

```
⟨1⟩1. Let: m, n \in \omega ⟨1⟩2. Assume: m < n ⟨1⟩3. m + 0 < n + 0 ⟨1⟩4. \forall k \in \omega.m + k < n + k \Rightarrow m + k^+ < n + k^+ Proof: By Proposition 6.7.
```

**Proposition 7.17.** For natural numbers m, n and k, if m < n and  $k \neq 0$  then mk < nk.

# Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: m, n \in \omega

\langle 1 \rangle 2. Assume: m < n

\langle 1 \rangle 3. m1 < n1

\langle 1 \rangle 4. For all k \in \omega, if k \neq 0 and mk < nk then m(k+1) < n(k+1)
```

Proof:

$$m(k+1) = mk + m$$
  
 $< mk + n$  (Proposition 7.16)  
 $< nk + n$  (Proposition 7.16)  
 $= n(k+1)$ 

**Proposition 7.18.** Let n be a natural number. Let X be a proper subset of n. Then there exists m < n such that  $X \sim m$ .

#### PROOF:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: P(n) be the property: for every proper subset  $X \subsetneq n$ , there exists m < n such that  $X \sim m$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . P(0)

PROOF: Vacuous.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \forall n \in \omega. P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $n \in \omega$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: P(n)

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let: X be a proper subset of n+1

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Case:  $X - \{n\} = n$ 

PROOF: Then X = n so  $X \sim n < n + 1$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . Case:  $X - \{n\} \subsetneq n$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Pick m < n such that  $X - \{n\} \sim m$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ .  $X \sim m$  or  $X \sim m+1$ 

PROOF: If  $n \in X$  then  $X \sim m+1$ . If  $n \notin X$  then  $X \sim m$ .

П

**Proposition 7.19.** For every natural number n, we have n is not equivalent to a proper subset of n.

# Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: P(n) be the property: every one-to-one function  $n \to n$  is onto.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . P(0)

PROOF: The only function  $0 \to 0$  is  $\emptyset$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \forall n \in \omega. P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $n \in \omega$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: P(n)

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Assume:  $f: n+1 \rightarrow n+1$  is one-to-one.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $g: n \to n$  be the function

$$g(k) = \begin{cases} f(k) & \text{if } f(k) < n \\ f(n) & \text{if } f(k) = n \end{cases}$$

PROOF: If k < n and f(k) = n then  $\dot{f}(n) < n$  since f is one-to-one.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . g is one-to-one.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let: k, l < n

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Assume: g(k) = g(l)

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Case: f(k) < n and f(l) < n

```
PROOF: Then f(k) = g(k) = g(l) = f(l) so k = l since f is one-to-one.
      \langle 3 \rangle 4. Case: f(k) < n and f(l) = n
         PROOF: Then f(k) = g(k) = g(l) = f(n) contradicting the fact that f is
         one-to-one.
      \langle 3 \rangle 5. Case: f(k) = n and f(l) < n
         Proof: Similar.
      \langle 3 \rangle 6. Case: f(k) = n and f(l) = n
         PROOF: Then k = l since f is one-to-one.
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. q maps n onto n.
      Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 2
   \langle 2 \rangle 7. f maps n+1 onto n+1.
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: l < n+1
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. Case: l < n
         \langle 4 \rangle 1. PICK k < n such that q(k) = l
         \langle 4 \rangle 2. f(k) = l or f(n) = l
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. Case: l = n
         \langle 4 \rangle 1. Case: f(n) = n
            PROOF: Then l \in \operatorname{ran} f as required.
         \langle 4 \rangle 2. Case: f(n) < n
            \langle 5 \rangle 1. Pick k < n such that g(k) = f(n)
            \langle 5 \rangle 2. f(k) = n
```

Corollary 7.19.1. Equivalent natural numbers are equal.

**Proposition 7.20.** The lexicographical order is a well ordering on  $\omega \times \omega$ .

Proof: Easy.

# 7.2 Finite Sets

**Definition 7.21** (Finite). A set is *finite* iff it is equivalent to a natural number; otherwise, it is *infinite*.

**Proposition 7.22.** No finite set is equivalent to one of its proper subsets.

Proof: From Proposition 7.19.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.23.**  $\omega$  is infinite.

PROOF: Since the function that maps n to n+1 is a one-to-one correspondence between  $\omega$  and  $\omega - \{0\}$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.24.** Every subset of a finite set is finite.

Proof: Proposition 7.18.

**Definition 7.25** (Number of Elements). For any finite set E, the number of elements in E,  $\sharp(E)$ , is the unique natural number such that  $E \sim \sharp(E)$ .

**Proposition 7.26.** Let E and F be finite sets. If  $E \subseteq F$  then  $\sharp(E) \leqslant \sharp(F)$ .

Proof: Proposition 7.18.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.27.** Let E and F be disjoint finite sets. Then  $E \cup F$  is finite and  $\sharp (E \cup F) = \sharp (E) \cup \sharp (F)$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: P(n) be the statement:  $n \in \omega$  and for any  $m \in \omega$ , if  $E \sim m$ ,  $F \sim n$  and  $E \cap F = \emptyset$ , then  $E \cup F \sim m + n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . P(0)
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $m \in \omega$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $E \sim m$  and  $F \sim 0$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ F = \emptyset$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $E \cup F = E \sim m = m + 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \forall n \in \omega. P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $n \in \omega$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: P(n)
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $m \in \omega$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $E \sim m$  and  $F \sim n+1$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Assume:  $E \cap F = \emptyset$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Pick  $f \in F$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ .  $F \{f\} \sim n$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 8. \ E \cap (F \{f\}) = \emptyset$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 9$ .  $E \cup (F \{f\}) \sim m + n$

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ 

 $(2)10. \ E \cup F \sim m+n+1$ 

Corollary 7.27.1. The union of two finite sets is finite.

PROOF: Since, if E and F are finite, then  $E \cup F = (E - F) \cup (E \cap F) \cup (F - E)$  and these are finite and disjoint.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.28.** If E and F are finite sets then  $E \times F$  is finite and  $\sharp(E \times F) = \sharp(E)\sharp(F)$ .

#### PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: P(n) be the statement:  $n \in \omega$  and for all  $m \in \omega$ , if  $E \sim m$  and  $F \sim n$  then  $E \times F \sim mn$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . P(0)

PROOF: If  $F \sim 0$  then  $F = \emptyset$  so  $E \times F = \emptyset \sim 0$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \forall n \in \omega. P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $n \in \omega$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: P(n)
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $m \in \omega$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Assume:  $E \sim m$  and  $F \sim n+1$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Pick  $f \in F$

```
\langle 2 \rangle 6. F - \{f\} \sim n
\langle 2 \rangle 7. E \times (F - \{f\}) \sim mn
\langle 2 \rangle 8. \ E \times F = (E \times (F - \{f\})) \cup (E \times \{f\})
\langle 2 \rangle 9. E \times \{f\} \sim m
\langle 2 \rangle 10.~E \times F \sim mn + m
    Proof: Proposition 7.27.
```

**Proposition 7.29.** For any finite sets E and F, we have  $E^F$  is finite and  $\sharp(E^F)=\sharp(E)^{\sharp(F)}.$ 

### PROOF:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: P(n) be the property:  $n \in \omega$  and for all  $m \in \omega$ , if  $E \sim m$  and  $F \sim n$ then  $E^F \sim m^n$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . P(0)

PROOF: Since  $E^{\emptyset} = {\emptyset} \sim 1$  $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \forall n \in \omega. P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)$  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $n \in \omega$  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: P(n) $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $m \in \omega$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $E \sim m$  and  $F \sim n+1$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . Pick  $f \in F$  $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ .  $F - \{f\} \sim n$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. Let:  $\phi: E^F \to E^{F-\{f\}} \times E$  be the function  $\phi(g) = (g \upharpoonright (F - \{f\}), g(f))$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 8.~\phi$  is a one-to-one correspondence

 $\langle 2 \rangle 9. \ \sharp (E^F) = m^{n+1}$ 

Proof:

$$\sharp(E^F) = \sharp(E^{F-\{f\}} \times E)$$

$$= \sharp(E^{F-\{f\}})\sharp(E) \qquad \text{(Proposition 7.28)}$$

$$= m^n m \qquad (\langle 2 \rangle 2, \langle 2 \rangle 4)$$

$$= m^{n+1}$$

Corollary 7.29.1. If E is finite then PE is finite and  $\sharp(PE) = 2^{\sharp(E)}$ .

**Proposition 7.30.** The union of a finite set of finite sets is finite.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: P(n) be the property: for any set E, if  $E \sim n$  and every element of E is finite, then  $\bigcup E$  is finite.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . P(0)

PROOF: Since  $\bigcup \emptyset = \emptyset$  is finite.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \forall n \in \omega. P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: *n* be a natural number.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: P(n)

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $E \sim n+1$ 

```
\langle 2 \rangle 5. E - \{X\} \sim n
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. \bigcup (E - \{X\}) is finite.
      Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 2
   \langle 2 \rangle 7. \bigcup E = \bigcup (E - \{X\}) \cup X
   \langle 2 \rangle 8. \bigcup E is finite.
      Proof: Corollary 7.27.1.
Proposition 7.31. Every nonempty finite set of natural numbers has a greatest
element.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: P(n) be the property: for every E \subseteq \mathbb{N}, if E \sim n then E has a
                 greatest element.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. P(1)
   PROOF: Since k is the greatest element of \{k\}.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \forall n \geqslant 1.P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: n \geqslant 1
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: P(n)
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Assume: E \subseteq \omega and E \sim n+1
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. Pick k \in E
   \langle 2 \rangle5. Let: l be the greatest element of E - \{k\}
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. Either k or l is greatest in E.
Proposition 7.32. Every infinite set has a subset equivalent to \omega.
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: X be an infinite set.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. PICK a choice function f for X.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: \mathcal{C} be the set of all finite subsets of X.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. For all A \in \mathcal{C} we have X - A \in \text{dom } f.
   PROOF: For all A \in \mathcal{C} we have X - A \neq \emptyset.
\langle 1 \rangle5. Let: U: \omega \to \mathcal{C} be the function defined recursively by U(0) = \emptyset and
                 U(n+1) = U(n) \cup \{f(X - U(n))\} for all n \in \omega.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. Let: v: \omega \to X be the function v(n) = f(X - U(n))
        Prove: v is one-to-one.
\langle 1 \rangle 7. \forall n \in \omega . v(n) \notin U(n)
   PROOF: Since v(n) = f(X - U(n)) \in X - U(n).
\langle 1 \rangle 8. \ \forall n \in \omega. v(n) \in U(n+1)
\langle 1 \rangle 9. \ \forall m, n \in \omega. n \leq m \Rightarrow U(n) \subseteq U(m)
   PROOF: Since U(n) \subseteq U(n+1) for all n.
\langle 1 \rangle 10. \ \forall m, n \in \omega.n < m \Rightarrow v(n) \neq v(m)
   PROOF: Since v(n) \in U(m) and v(m) \notin U(m).
```

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Pick  $X \in E$ 

Corollary 7.32.1. A set is infinite if and only if it is equivalent to a proper subset.

# 7.3 Ordinal Arithmetic

**Definition 7.33** (Addition). Let I be a well ordered set and  $(\alpha_i)_{i \in I}$  be a sequence of ordinals. Choose a well ordered set  $A_i$  such that  $A_i \cong \alpha_i$  for each  $i \in I$ , and assume the sets  $A_i$  are pairwise disjoint. The  $sum \sum_{i \in I} \alpha_i$  is the ordinal of the well ordered set  $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$ , where:

- for  $x, y \in A_i$ , we have  $x <_{\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i} y$  if and only if  $x <_{A_i} y$
- for  $x \in A_i$  and  $y \in A_j$  with  $i \neq j$ , we have  $x <_{\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i} y$  iff  $i <_I j$

We write  $\alpha + \beta$  for  $\sum_{i \in 2} \gamma_i$  where  $\gamma_0 = \alpha$  and  $\gamma_1 = \beta$ .

Proposition 7.34.

$$\alpha + 0 = \alpha$$

$$0 + \alpha = \alpha$$

$$\alpha + 1 = \alpha^{+}$$

$$\alpha + (\beta + \gamma) = (\alpha + \beta) + \gamma$$

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 7.35.** For any ordinals  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , we have  $\alpha < \beta$  if and only if there exists  $\gamma \neq 0$  such that  $\beta = \alpha + \gamma$ .

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

Proposition 7.36.

$$1 + \omega = \omega$$

Proof: Easy.

**Definition 7.37** (Multiplication). Given ordinals  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , the product  $\alpha\beta$  is the ordinal of  $\alpha \times \beta$  under the reverse lexicographic order: (a,b) < (c,d) iff b < d or (b=d and a < c).

Proposition 7.38.

$$\alpha 0 = 0$$

$$0\alpha = 0$$

$$\alpha 1 = \alpha$$

$$1\alpha = \alpha$$

$$\alpha(\beta \gamma) = (\alpha \beta)\gamma$$

$$\alpha(\beta + \gamma) = \alpha \beta + \alpha \gamma$$

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.39.** For ordinals  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , if  $\alpha\beta = 0$  then  $\alpha = 0$  or  $\beta = 0$ .

Proof: Easy.

Example 7.40. The commutative law fails:

$$2\omega = \omega \neq \omega 2$$

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

Example 7.41. The right distributive law fails:

$$(1+1)\omega = \omega \neq 1\omega + 1\omega = \omega 2$$

**Definition 7.42** (Exponentiation). Given ordinals  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , define the ordinal  $\alpha^{\beta}$  by

$$\alpha^0 = 1$$

$$\alpha^{\beta+1} = \alpha^{\beta} \alpha$$

$$\alpha^{\lambda} = \bigcup_{\beta < \lambda} \alpha^{\beta}$$
(\lambda \text{ a limit ordinal})

Proposition 7.43.

$$0^{\alpha} = 0 \qquad (\alpha \ge 1)$$

$$1^{\gamma} = 1$$

$$\alpha^{\beta+\gamma} = \alpha^{\beta}\alpha^{\gamma}$$

$$\alpha^{\beta\gamma} = (\alpha^{\beta})^{\gamma}$$

Proof: Easy.

**Example 7.44.**  $(\alpha\beta)^{\gamma}$  is different from  $\alpha^{\gamma}\beta^{\gamma}$  in general:

$$(2 \cdot 2)^{\omega} = \omega \neq 2^{\omega} 2^{\omega} = \omega^2 .$$

# 7.4 Arithmetic on the Natural Numbers

**Proposition 7.45.** For all  $m, n \in \omega$ , we have

$$m+n=n+m \ .$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: P(m) be the property  $\forall n \in \omega.m + n = n + m$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . P(0)

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: Q(n) be the property 0 + n = n + 0

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Q(0)

PROOF: Trivial.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \forall n \in \omega. Q(n) \Rightarrow Q(n^+)$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $n \in \omega$ 

⟨3⟩2. Assume: 
$$Q(n)$$
⟨3⟩3.  $0 + n^+ = n^+ + 0$ 
PROOF:
$$0 + n^+ = (0 + n)^+$$

$$= (n + 0)^+$$

$$= n^+$$

$$= n^+ + 0$$
⟨1⟩3.  $\forall m \in \omega.P(m) \Rightarrow P(m^+)$ 
⟨2⟩1. Let:  $m \in \omega$ 
⟨2⟩2. Assume:  $P(m)$ 
⟨2⟩3. Let:  $Q(n)$  be the property  $m^+ + n = n + m^+$ 
⟨2⟩4.  $Q(0)$ 
PROOF: ⟨1⟩2
⟨2⟩5.  $\forall n \in \omega.Q(n) \Rightarrow Q(n^+)$ 
⟨3⟩1. Let:  $n \in \omega$ 
⟨3⟩2. Assume:  $Q(n)$ 
⟨3⟩3.  $Q(n^+)$ 
PROOF:
$$m^+ + n^+ = (m^+ + n)^+$$

$$= (n + m)^+$$

$$= (n + m)^+$$

$$= (m + n)^+$$

$$= (m + n)^+$$

$$= (m^+ + m)^+$$

$$= (n^+ + m$$

**Proposition 7.46.** For all  $m, n \in \omega$ , we have

mn = nm .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: P(m) be the statement  $\forall n \in \omega.mn = nm \langle 1 \rangle 2$ . P(0)

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: Q(n) be the statement 0n = n0

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Q(0)

PROOF: Trivial.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \forall n \in \omega. Q(n) \Rightarrow Q(n^+)$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $n \in \omega$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Assume: Q(n)

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ Q(n^+)$ 

Proof:

$$0n^{+} = 0n + 0$$

$$= 0n$$

$$= n0$$

$$= 0$$

$$= n^{+}0$$

$$(\langle 3 \rangle 2)$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \forall m \in \omega. P(m) \Rightarrow P(m^+)$ 

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $m \in \omega$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: P(m)
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let: Q(n) be the statement  $m^+ n = n m^+$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ Q(0)$

Proof:  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ 

- $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ \forall n \in \omega. Q(n) \Rightarrow Q(n^+)$ 
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $n \in \omega$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Assume: Q(n)
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ Q(n^+)$

Proof:

$$m^{+}n^{+} = m^{+}n + m^{+}$$

$$= (m^{+}n + m)^{+}$$

$$= (nm^{+} + m)^{+}$$

$$= (nm + n + m)^{+}$$

$$= (mn + m + n)^{+}$$

$$= (mn^{+} + n)^{+}$$

$$= (n^{+}m + n)^{+}$$

$$= n^{+}m + n^{+}$$

$$= n^{+}m^{+}$$

# Chapter 8

# Countable Sets

**Definition 8.1** (Countable). A set A is *countable* or *denumerable* iff there exists an injective function  $A \to \omega$ .

**Definition 8.2** (Countably Infinite). A set is *countably infinite* iff it is similar to  $\omega$ .

**Proposition 8.3.** Every subset of a countable set is countable.

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 8.4.** Let X be a set. If there exists a function from  $\omega$  onto X, then X is countable.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: f be a function from  $\omega$  onto X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Choose a function  $g: X \to \omega$  such that, for all  $x \in X$ , we have f(g(x)) = x.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . g is one-to-one.

**Proposition 8.5.**  $\omega \times \omega$  is countable.

PROOF: The sequence

$$(0,0),(0,1),(1,0),(0,2),(1,1),(2,0),\ldots$$

is an enumeration of  $\omega \times \omega$ .

Corollary 8.5.1. A countable union of countable sets is countable.

#### PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: A be a countable set of countable sets.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Pick a surjection  $f : \omega \to A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For  $n \in \omega$ , Pick a surjection  $g_n : \omega \to f(n)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Pick a surjection  $h : \omega \to \omega \times \omega$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ \lambda n \in \omega.g_{\pi_1(h(n))}(\pi_2(h(n))) \text{ is a surjection } \omega \to \bigcup A$

Corollary 8.5.2. The Cartesian product of two countable sets is countable.
Corollary 8.5.3. For any countable set $A$ , the set of all finite subsets of $A$ is countable.
PROOF: Prove by induction on $n$ that the set of all subsets of size $n$ is countable. The set of all finite subsets is then the union of these. $\square$
<b>Proposition 8.6.</b> $\mathcal{P}\omega$ is uncountable.
Proof: Cantor's Theorem. $\square$

# Chapter 9

# Cardinal Numbers

**Definition 9.1** (Cardinal Number). A cardinal number or initial ordinal is an ordinal  $\alpha$  such that, for all  $\beta < \alpha$ , we have  $\beta \not\sim \alpha$ .

**Definition 9.2** (Cardinality). For any set X, the *cardinality* of X, card X, is the least ordinal that is equivalent to X.

**Proposition 9.3.** Given sets X and Y, we have  $X \sim Y$  if and only if card X = card Y.

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 9.4.** For sets X and Y, we have  $\operatorname{card} X \leq \operatorname{card} Y$  if and only if there exists an injective function  $X \to Y$ .

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 9.5.** Every natural number is a cardinal.  $\omega$  is a cardinal.

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

Proposition 9.6. Every infinite cardinal is a limit ordinal.

PROOF: For  $\alpha$  infinite we have  $f: \alpha^+ \sim \alpha$  where  $f(\alpha) = 0$  and  $f(\beta) = \beta^+$  for all other  $\beta$ .  $\square$ 

# 9.1 Cardinal Arithmetic

**Definition 9.7** (Addition). Given a family of cardinal numbers  $\{\kappa_i\}_{i\in I}$ , let  $\sum_{i\in I} \kappa_i$  be card  $\bigcup_{i\in I} A_i$ , where  $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$  is a pairwise disjoint family of sets with card  $A_i = \kappa_i$  for all i.

We write  $\kappa + \lambda$  for  $\sum_{i \in 2} \kappa_i$  where  $\kappa_0 = \kappa$  and  $\kappa_1 = \lambda$ .

Proposition 9.8.

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

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 9.9.** Cardinal addition agrees with ordinal addition on the natural numbers.

Proof: Easy induction.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 9.10.** *If*  $\kappa \leq \kappa'$  *then*  $\kappa + \lambda \leq \kappa' + \lambda$ .

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 9.11.** If  $\kappa$  is an infinite cardinal number then  $\kappa + \kappa = \kappa$ .

### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: A be an infinite set.

Prove:  $A \times 2 \sim A$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. Let:  $\mathcal F$  be the set of all functions f such that there exists  $X \subseteq A$  such that  $f: X \times 2 \sim X$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\mathcal{F}$  is non-empty.

PROOF: Pick a subset  $X \subseteq A$  such that  $X \sim \omega$ , and a bijection  $X \times 2 \sim X$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $\mathcal{F}$  is partially ordered by extension.

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Every chain in  $\mathcal{F}$  has an upper bound.

PROOF: If  $C \subseteq \mathcal{F}$  is a chain then  $\bigcup C \in \mathcal{F}$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Pick  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  maximal.

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 7. Pick  $X \subseteq A$  such that  $f: X \times 2 \sim X$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . X - A is finite.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction X-A is infinite.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $Y \subseteq X - A$  such that  $Y \sim \omega$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $g: Y \times 2 \sim Y$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ f \cup g : (X \cup Y) \times 2 \sim X \cup Y$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts the maximality of f.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 9$ . card  $A + \operatorname{card} A = \operatorname{card} A$ 

PROOF:

$$2\operatorname{card} A = 2(\operatorname{card} X + \operatorname{card}(A - X))$$

$$= 2\operatorname{card} X + 2\operatorname{card}(A - X)$$

$$= \operatorname{card} X + 2\operatorname{card}(A - X) \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 7)$$

$$= \operatorname{card} X \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 8)$$

$$= \operatorname{card} A \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 8)$$

г

Corollary 9.11.1. For any cardinals  $\kappa$  and  $\lambda$  that are not both finite, we have

$$\kappa + \lambda = \max(\kappa, \lambda)$$
.

**Definition 9.12** (Multiplication). Given a family of cardinal numbers  $\{\kappa_i\}_{i\in I}$ , let  $\prod_{i\in I} \kappa_i = \operatorname{card} \times_{i\in I} \kappa_i$ .

We write  $\kappa\lambda$  for  $\prod_{i\in 2}\kappa_i$  where  $\kappa_0=\kappa$  and  $\kappa_1=\lambda$ .

# Proposition 9.13.

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

Proposition 9.14. Cardinal multiplication agrees with ordinal multiplication on the natural numbers.

Proof: Easy induction.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 9.15.** *If*  $\kappa \leq \kappa'$  *then*  $\kappa \lambda \leq \kappa' \lambda$ .

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 9.16.** Let  $\{\kappa_i\}_{i\in I}$  and  $\{\lambda_i\}_{i\in I}$  be families of cardinal numbers with the same index set. If  $\kappa_i < \lambda_i$  for all i, then  $\sum_{i \in I} \kappa_i < \prod_{i \in I} \lambda_i$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Choose a one-to-one function  $f_i : \kappa_i \to \lambda_i$  for each  $i \in I$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \sum_{i \in I} \kappa_i \leqslant \prod_{i \in I} \lambda_i$ PROOF: Define  $g: \sum_{i \in I} \kappa_i \to \prod_{i \in I} \lambda_i$  by

Theorem 
$$g: \sum_{i \in I} \kappa_i \to \prod_{i \in I} \lambda_i$$
 by 
$$g(i, \eta)(j) = \begin{cases} f_i(\eta) & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$
  $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . There is no surjective function  $\sum_{i \in I} \kappa_i < \prod_{i \in I} \lambda_i$   $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $h: \sum_i \kappa_i \to \prod_i \lambda_i$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $h: \sum_i \kappa_i \to \prod_i \lambda_i$  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Choose  $t(i) < \lambda_i$  for each  $i \in I$  such that, for all  $\eta < \kappa_i$ , we have  $t(i) \neq h(i, \eta)(i)$ .

PROOF: Since the function that maps  $\eta$  to  $h(i,\eta)(i)$  cannot be surjective

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . For all  $i \in I$  and  $\eta < \kappa_i$  we have  $h \neq t(i, \eta)$ .

**Proposition 9.17.** If  $\kappa$  is an infinite cardinal then  $\kappa \kappa = \kappa$ .

PROOF:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: A be an infinite set.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\mathcal{F}$  be the set of all functions f such that there exists  $X \subseteq A$  such that  $f: X \times X \sim X$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\mathcal{F}$  is nonempty.

PROOF: Pick a countably infinite  $X \subseteq A$ . Then  $X \times X \sim X$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $\mathcal{F}$  is partially ordered by extension.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Every chain in  $\mathcal{F}$  has an upper bound.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Pick  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  maximal.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . Pick  $X \subseteq A$  such that  $f: X \times X \sim X$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . card  $X = \operatorname{card} A$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction card  $X < \operatorname{card} A$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . card  $A = \operatorname{card}(A - X)$ 

PROOF: Corollary 9.11.1.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . card  $X < \operatorname{card}(A X)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . PICK  $Y \subseteq A X$  such that  $Y \sim X$
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Pick  $g: (X \times Y) \cup (Y \times X) \cup (Y \times Y) \sim Y$ Proof:

$$(X \times Y) \cup (Y \times X) \cup (Y \times Y) \sim 3 \times X \times X$$
  $(\langle 2 \rangle 4)$ 

$$\sim 3 \times X$$
 ( $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ )

$$\sim X$$
 (Corollary 9.11.1)

$$\sim Y$$
  $(\langle 2 \rangle 4)$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ f \cup g : (X \cup Y) \times (X \cup Y) \sim X \cup Y$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. Q.E.D.

Proof: This contradicts the maximality of f.

Corollary 9.17.1. If  $\kappa$  and  $\lambda$  are non-zero cardinals that are not both finite, then

$$\kappa\lambda = \max(\kappa, \lambda)$$
.

**Definition 9.18** (Exponentiation). Given cardinal numbers  $\kappa$  and  $\lambda$ , let  $\kappa^{\lambda}$  be the cardinality of the set of all functions  $\lambda \to \kappa$ .

Proposition 9.19.

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

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

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

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 9.20.** Cardinal exponentiation and ordinal exponentiation agree on the natural numbers.

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

Proposition 9.21.

$$\operatorname{card} \mathcal{P} X = 2^{\operatorname{card} X}$$

PROOF: Define  $\chi: \mathcal{P}X \sim 2^X$  to be the function that maps S to the function  $\chi_S: X \to 2$  where  $\chi_S(x) = 1$  if  $x \in S$  and  $\chi_S(x) = 0$  if  $x \notin S$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 9.22.** For any infinite cardinal  $\kappa$  we have  $\kappa < 2^{\kappa}$ .

Proof: Proposition 9.16.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 9.23.** If  $\kappa \leq \lambda$  then  $\kappa^{\mu} \leq \lambda^{\mu}$ .

Proof: Easy.

# 9.2 Alephs

**Definition 9.24** (Aleph). Define the cardinal  $\aleph_{\alpha}$  for every ordinal  $\alpha$  as follows:  $\aleph_{\alpha}$  is the least infinite cardinal greater than  $\aleph_{\beta}$  for all  $\beta < \alpha$ .

Proposition 9.25.

$$\aleph_0 = \omega$$

Proof: Easy.

**Definition 9.26** (Continuum Hypothesis). The *continuum hypothesis* is the statement  $\aleph_1 = 2^{\aleph_0}$ .

**Definition 9.27** (Generalized Continuum Hypothesis). The *generalized continuum hypothesis* is the statement: for every ordinal  $\alpha$  we have  $\aleph_{\alpha+1} = 2^{\aleph_{\alpha}}$ .

# Chapter 10

# Real Numbers

# 10.1 Axioms for Real Numbers

Let there be a set  $\mathbb{R}$ , whose elements are called *real numbers*. Let there be two functions  $+, \cdot : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ . Let there be a relation  $\leq \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ .

Axiom 10.1 (Associativity of Addition).

$$\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}.x + (y+z) = (x+y) + z$$

Axiom 10.2 (Associativity of Multiplication).

$$\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}.x(yz) = (xy)z$$

Axiom 10.3 (Commutativity of Addition).

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}.x + y = y + x$$

Axiom 10.4 (Commutativity of Multiplication).

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}.xy = yx$$

**Axiom 10.5** (Identity for Addition). There exists a unique  $z \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}.x + z = x$ .

**Definition 10.6** (Zero). The real number *zero*, 0, is the unique real number such that  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}.x + 0 = x$ .

**Axiom 10.7** (Identity for Multiplication). There exists a unique  $i \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}.xi = x$ . Further, we have  $i \neq 0$ .

**Definition 10.8** (One). The real number *one*, 1, is the unique real number such that  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}.x1 = x$ .

**Axiom 10.9** (Additive Inverses). For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , there exists a unique  $y \in \mathbb{R}$  such that x + y = 0.

**Axiom 10.10** (Multiplicative Inverses). For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , if  $x \neq 0$  then there exists a unique  $y \in \mathbb{R}$  such that xy = 1.

Axiom 10.11 (Distributive Law).

$$\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}.x(y+z) = xy + xz$$

**Axiom 10.12** (Monotonicity of Addition). For all  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$ , if x < y then x + z < y + z.

**Axiom 10.13** (Monotonicity of Multiplication). For all  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$ , if x < y and 0 < z then xz < yz.

**Axiom 10.14** (Least Upper Bound Property). The relation < is a strict linear order on  $\mathbb{R}$  with the least upper bound property.

**Axiom 10.15** (Density). For all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ , if x < y then there exists  $z \in \mathbb{R}$  such that x < z < y.

# 10.2 Consequences of the Axioms

# 10.2.1 Negation

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ 

**Definition 10.16** (Negation). For any real number x, the negation of x, -x, is the unique real number such that x + (-x) = 0.

**Theorem 10.17.** For any real numbers x and y, if x + y = x then y = 0.

Proof:

```
\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ Assume: } x+y=x \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. \ y=0 \\ \text{Proof:} \\ y=y+0 & \text{(Definition of zero)} \\ =y+(x+(-x)) & \text{(Definition of } -x) \\ =(y+x)+(-x) & \text{(Associativity of Addition)} \\ =(x+y)+(-x) & \text{(Commutativity of Addition)} \\ =x+(-x) & \text{($\langle 1 \rangle 2$)} \\ =0 & \text{(Definition of } -x) \end{array}
```

Theorem 10.18.

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}.0x = 0$$

Proof:

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1$$
. Let:  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 2$$
.  $xx + 0x = xx$ 

PROOF:

$$xx + 0x = (x + 0)x$$
 (Distributive Law)  
=  $xx$  (Definition of 0)

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 0x = 0$ 

Proof: Theorem 10.17,  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .

# Theorem 10.19.

$$-0 = 0$$

PROOF: Since 0 + 0 = 0.  $\square$ 

Theorem 10.20.

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}. - (-x) = x$$

PROOF: Since -x + x = 0.  $\square$ 

Theorem 10.21.

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}.x(-y) = -(xy)$$

Proof:

$$x(-y) + xy = x((-y) + y)$$
 (Distributive Law)  
=  $x0$  (Definition of  $-y$ )  
=  $0$  (Theorem 10.18)

Theorem 10.22.

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}.(-1)x = -x$$

Proof:

$$(-1)x = -(1 \cdot x)$$
 (Theorem 10.21)  
=  $-x$  (Definition of 1)

# 10.2.2 Subtraction

**Definition 10.23** (Subtraction). Define subtraction  $-: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$  by x - y = x + (-y).

Theorem 10.24.

$$\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}.x(y-z) = xy - xz$$

Proof:

$$x(y-z) = x(y+(-z))$$
 (Definition of subtraction)  
 $= xy + x(-z)$  (Distributive Law)  
 $= xy + (-(xz))$  (Theorem 10.21)  
 $= xy - xz$  (Definition of subtraction)

### Theorem 10.25.

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}. - (x+y) = -x - y$$

Proof:

$$-(x+y) = (-1)(x+y)$$
 (Theorem 10.22)  

$$= (-1)x + (-1)y$$
 (Distributive Law)  

$$= -x + (-y)$$
 (Theorem 10.22)  

$$= -x - y$$
 (Definition of subtraction)  $\square$ 

Theorem 10.26.

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}. - (x - y) = -x + y$$

Proof:

$$-(x-y) = -(x+(-y))$$
 (Definition of subtraction)  

$$= -x - (-y)$$
 (Theorem 10.25)  

$$= -x + (-(-y))$$
 (Definition of subtraction)  

$$= -x + y$$
 (Theorem 10.20)  $\square$ 

**Definition 10.27** (Reciprocal). Given  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $x \neq 0$ , the *reciprocal* of x, 1/x, is the unique real number such that  $x \cdot 1/x = 1$ .

**Theorem 10.28.** For any real numbers x and y, if  $x \neq 0$  and xy = x then y = 1.

Proof:

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1$$
. Let:  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$   
 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $x \neq 0$   
 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Assume:  $xy = x$   
 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $y = 1$   
Proof:  
 $y = y1$   
 $= y(x \cdot 1/x)$   
 $= (yx)1/x$ 

 $\label{eq:condition} \mbox{(Definition of $1/x,\langle 1\rangle 2$)}$  (Associativity of Multiplication)

(Definition of 1)

= (xy)1/x (Commutativity of Multiplication) =  $x \cdot 1/x$  ( $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ )

 $= 1 (Definition of 1/x, \langle 1 \rangle 2)$ 

**Definition 10.29** (Quotient). Given real numbers x and y with  $y \neq 0$ , the quotient x/y is defined by

$$x/y = x \cdot 1/y$$
.

**Theorem 10.30.** For any real number x, if  $x \neq 0$  then x/x = 1.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

### Theorem 10.31.

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}.x/1 = x$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 1/1 = 1

PROOF: Since  $1 \cdot 1 = 1$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ x/1 = x$ 

PROOF: Since  $x/1 = x \cdot 1/1 = x \cdot 1 = x$ .

**Theorem 10.32.** For any real numbers x and y, if  $x \neq 0$  and  $y \neq 0$  then  $xy \neq 0$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume: xy = 0 and  $x \neq 0$ 

Prove: y = 0

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ y = 0$ 

PROOF:

$$y = 1y$$
 (Definition of 1)  
=  $(1/x)xy$  (Definition of  $1/x$ ,  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ )  
=  $(1/x)0$  ( $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ )  
= 0 (Theorem 10.18)

**Theorem 10.33.** For any real numbers y and z, if  $y \neq 0$  and  $z \neq 0$  then (1/y)(1/z) = 1/(yz).

PROOF: Since  $yz(1/y)(1/z) = 1 \cdot 1 = 1$ .

**Corollary 10.33.1.** For any real numbers x, y, z, w with  $y \neq 0 \neq w$ , we have (x/y)(z/w) = (xz)/(yw).

**Theorem 10.34.** For any real numbers x, y, z, w with  $y \neq 0 \neq w$ , we have

$$\frac{x}{y} + \frac{z}{w} = \frac{xw + yz}{yw}$$

Proof:

$$yw\left(\frac{x}{y} + \frac{z}{w}\right) = yw\frac{x}{y} + yw\frac{z}{w}$$
$$= wx + yz$$

**Theorem 10.35.** For any real number x, if  $x \neq 0$  then  $1/x \neq 0$ .

PROOF: Since  $x \cdot 1/x = 1 \neq 0$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 10.36.** For any real numbers w, z, if  $w \neq 0 \neq z$  then 1/(w/z) = z/w.

PROOF: Since (z/w)(w/z) = (wz)/(wz) = 1.

**Theorem 10.37.** For any real numbers a, x and y, if  $y \neq 0$  then (ax)/y = a(x/y)

PROOF: Since ya(x/y) = ax.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 10.38.** For any real numbers x and y, if  $y \neq 0$  then (-x)/y = x/(-y) = -(x/y).

### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . (-x)/y = -(x/y)

PROOF: Take a = -1 in Theorem 10.37.

$$\langle 1 \rangle 2$$
.  $x/(-y) = -(x/y)$ 

PROOF: Since (-y)(-(x/y)) = y(x/y) = x.

**Theorem 10.39.** For any real numbers x, y, z and w, if x > y and w > z then x + w > y + z.

PROOF: We have y + z < x + z < x + w by Monotonicity of Addition twice.  $\square$ 

**Corollary 10.39.1.** For any real numbers x and y, if x > 0 and y > 0 then x + y > 0.

**Theorem 10.40.** For any real numbers x and y, if x > 0 and y > 0 then xy > 0.

PROOF:

$$xy > 0y$$
 (Monotonicity of Multiplication)  
= 0 (Theorem 10.18)

**Theorem 10.41.** For any real number x, we have x > 0 iff -x < 0.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If 0 < x then -x < 0

PROOF: By Monotonicity of Addition adding -x to both sides.

$$\langle 1 \rangle 2$$
. If  $-x < 0$  then  $0 < x$ 

PROOF: By Monotonicity of Addition adding x to both sides.

**Theorem 10.42.** For any real numbers x and y, we have x > y iff -x < -y.

### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If y < x then -x < -y.

PROOF: By Monotonicity of Addition adding -x-y to both sides.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If -x < -y then y < x.

PROOF: By Monotonicity of Addition adding x+y to both sides.

```
xz < yz.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: x, y and z be real numbers.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Assume: x > y
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Assume: z < 0
\langle 1 \rangle 4. -z > 0
  PROOF: Theorem 10.41, \langle 1 \rangle 3.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ x(-z) > y(-z)
  PROOF: \langle 1 \rangle 2, \langle 1 \rangle 4, Monotonicity of Multiplication.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. -(xz) > -(yz)
  PROOF: Theorem 10.21, \langle 1 \rangle 5.
\langle 1 \rangle 7. xz < yz
  PROOF: Theorem 10.41, \langle 1 \rangle 6.
Theorem 10.44. For any real number x, if x \neq 0 then xx > 0.
PROOF:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. If x > 0 then xx > 0
  PROOF: By Monotonicity of Multiplication.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. If x < 0 then xx > 0
  PROOF: Theorem 10.43.
Theorem 10.45.
                                         0 < 1
PROOF: By Theorem 10.44 since 1 = 1 \cdot 1.
Definition 10.46 (Positive). A real number x is positive iff x > 0.
    We write \mathbb{R}_+ for the set of positive reals.
Theorem 10.47. For any real numbers x and y, we have xy is positive if and
only if x and y are both positive or both negative.
PROOF: By the Monotonicity of Multiplication and Theorem 10.43.
Corollary 10.47.1. For any real number x, if x > 0 then 1/x > 0.
PROOF: Since x \cdot 1/x = 1 is positive. \square
Theorem 10.48. For any real numbers x and y, if x > y > 0 then 1/x < 1/y.
PROOF: If 1/y \le 1/x then 1 < 1 by Monotonicity of Multiplication.
Theorem 10.49. For any real numbers x and y, if x < y then x < (x+y)/2 < y.
PROOF: We have 2x < x + y and x + y < 2y by Monotonicity of Addition, hence
x < (x+y)/2 < y by Monotonicity of Multiplication since 1/2 > 0.
Definition 10.50 (Negative). A real number x is negative iff x < 0.
    We write \overline{\mathbb{R}_+} for the set of nonnegative reals.
```

**Theorem 10.43.** For any real numbers x, y and z, if x > y and z < 0 then