## 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  $x \notin A$ .

**Axiom 1.1** (Axiom of Extensionality). Two sets are equal if and only if they have the same elements.

**Axiom 1.2** (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 1.3.** 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.  $\Box$ 

**Axiom 1.4** (Axiom of Pairing). For any two sets, there exists a set that they both belong to.

**Definition 1.5** ((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 1.6** (Union Axiom). For every set A, there exists a set that contains all the elements that belong to at least one element of A.

**Definition 1.7** (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 1.8** (Power Set Axiom). For any set A, there exists a set that contains all the subsets of A.

**Definition 1.9** (Empty). A set is *empty* iff it has no elements; otherwise it is *non-empty*.

**Axiom 1.10** (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 1.11** (Ordered Pair). For any sets a and b, the *ordered pair* (a,b) is defined by

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

**Definition 1.12** (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 1.13** (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 1.14** (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 1.15** (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 1.16** (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 1.17** (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 1.18** (Axiom of Choice). The Cartesian product of a non-empty family of non-empty sets is non-empty.

**Axiom 1.19** (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.

## Chapter 2

## Basic Properties and Operations on Sets

### 2.1 The Subset Relation

**Theorem 2.1.** For any set A, we have  $A \subseteq A$ .

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

**Theorem 2.2.** 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 2.3.** 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 2.4** (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 2.5.** There is no set that contains every set.

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Proof:
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\langle 1 \rangle1. Let: A be a set.

PROVE: There exists a set B such that B \notin A.

\langle 1 \rangle2. Let: B = \{x \in A : x \notin x\}

\langle 1 \rangle3. If B \in A then we have B \in B if and only if B \notin B.

\langle 1 \rangle4. B \notin A
```

## 2.3 The Empty Set

**Theorem 2.6.** There exists a set with no elements.

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

**Definition 2.7** (Empty Set). The *empty set*  $\emptyset$  is the set with no elements.

**Theorem 2.8.** For any set A we have  $\emptyset \subset A$ .

Proof: Vacuous.

### 2.4 Unordered Pairs

**Definition 2.9** (Singleton). For any set a, the *singleton*  $\{a\}$  is defined to be  $\{a, a\}$ .

#### 2.5 Unions

**Definition 2.10** (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.  $\Box$ 

Proposition 2.11.

$$\bigcup \emptyset = \emptyset$$

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

**Proposition 2.12.** 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 2.13.** We write  $A \cup B$  for  $\bigcup \{A, B\}$ .

**Proposition 2.14.** 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 2.15** (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 2.16.** 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 2.17.** For any sets a and b, we have  $\{a\} \cup \{b\} = \{a,b\}$ .

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

## 2.6 Intersections

**Definition 2.18** (Intersection). For any sets A and B, the *intersection*  $A \cap B$  is defined to be  $\{x \in A : x \in B\}$ .

**Proposition 2.19.** 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 2.20.** 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 2.21.** 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 2.22.** 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 2.23** (Disjoint). Two sets A and B are disjoint if and only if  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ .

**Definition 2.24** (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 2.25** (Intersection). For any nonempty set C, the *intersection* of C,  $\cap C$ , 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 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.  $\Box$ 

## 2.7 Unordered Triples

**Definition 2.26** ((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 2.27** (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 2.28.** 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  $E - (E - A) \subseteq E$ .

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Proposition 2.29. 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 2.30.** 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 2.31.** 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 2.32.** 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  $A \subseteq A \cup (E - A)$ .

**Proposition 2.33.** 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:  $x \in A$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \in E$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x \notin E A$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ x \notin E B$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ x \in B$

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**Example 2.34.** 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 2.35** (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 2.36** (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 2.37.** 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 2.38.** 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 2.39.** 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 2.40.** 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 2.41.** 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  $x \in B \cap (E - C)$ .

**Proposition 2.42.** 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 2.43** (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.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.44** (De Morgan's Law). Let E be a set and C a nonempty set. Then

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

Proof: Easy.

## 2.9 Symmetric Difference

**Definition 2.45** (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 2.46.** For any sets A and B, we have

$$A + B = B + A$$

PROOF: From the commutativity of union.  $\Box$ 

**Proposition 2.47.** 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 2.48. For any set A, we have

$$A + \emptyset = A$$
.

Proof:

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

**Proposition 2.49.** For any set A we have

$$A + A = \emptyset$$
.

Proof:

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

### 2.10 Power Sets

Proposition 2.50.

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

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

Proposition 2.51. For any set a, we have

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

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

**Proposition 2.52.** 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 2.53.** 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 2.54. 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 2.55.** For any set E, we have

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

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

**Proposition 2.56.** 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.

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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.  $\square$ 

**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.  $\square$ 

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

PROOF: Easy.

**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** (Onto). Let  $f: X \to Y$ . We say f maps X onto Y iff ran f = Y.

**Definition 3.31** (Image). Let  $f: X \to Y$  and  $A \subseteq X$ . The *image* of A under f is

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

**Definition 3.32** (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 3.33.** For any set X, the identity relation  $I_X$  is a function  $X \to X$ .

Proof: Easy.

**Definition 3.34** (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 3.35** (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 3.36** (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  $\pi(x) = x/R$ .

**Definition 3.37** (One-to-One). A function  $f: X \to Y$  is one-to-one, or a one-to-one correspondence, iff, for all  $x, y \in X$ , if f(x) = f(y) then x = y.

**Proposition 3.38.** 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 3.39.** 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 3.40** (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 3.41** (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 3.42** (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.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 3.43** (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 3.44.** 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 3.45.** 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 3.46** (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 3.47.** Let  $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$  and  $\{B_j\}_{j\in J}$  be families of sets. Then

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

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 3.48.** 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.

**Proposition 3.49.** Let  $f: X \to Y$ . Let  $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$  be a family of subsets of X.

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

Proof: Easy.

**Example 3.50.** 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

**Definition 3.51** (Inverse). Given a function  $f: X \to Y$ , the *inverse* of f is the function  $f^{-1}: \mathcal{P}Y \to \mathcal{P}X$  defined by

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

We call  $f^{-1}(B)$  the inverse image of B under f.

**Proposition 3.52.** Let  $f: X \to Y$ . Then f maps X onto Y if and only if the inverse image of any nonempty subset of Y is nonempty.

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 3.53.** Let  $f: X \to Y$ . Then f is one-to-one if and only if the inverse image of any singleton subset of Y is a singleton.

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 3.54.** *Let*  $f: X \to Y$ . *Let*  $B \subseteq Y$ . *Then* 

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

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 3.55.** *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: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 3.56.** Let  $f: X \to Y$ . Let  $\{B_i\}_{i \in I}$  be a family of subsets of Y. Then

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

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 3.57.** 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 3.58.** Let  $f: X \to Y$  and  $B \subseteq Y$ . Then  $f^{-1}(Y - B) = X - f^{-1}(B)$ .

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 3.59.** Let  $f: X \to Y$  be one-to-one. Then the inverse of f as a relation,  $f^{-1}$ , is a function  $f^{-1}: \operatorname{ran} f \to X$ , and for all  $y \in \operatorname{ran} f$ , we have  $f^{-1}(y)$  is the unique x such that f(x) = y.

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 3.60.** 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.  $\square$ 

**Example 3.61.** Example 3.14 shows that function composition is not commutative in general.

**Proposition 3.62.** Let  $f: X \to Y$  and  $g: Y \to Z$ . Then

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

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 3.63.** 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.  $\square$ 

### 3.9 Choice Functions

**Definition 3.64** (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 3.65.** 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 3.66.** 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:  $f : \text{dom } R \to \text{ran } R$  be the function  $f(x) = g(\{y \in \text{ran } R : xRy\})$ 

(1)4.  $f \subseteq R$  and dom f = dom R.

**Proposition 3.67.** 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  $| | \mathcal{C} \rangle$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 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.

## Chapter 5

## Order

**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, smaller than y, or a predecessor of y; and y is greater than x, larger than x, or a successor of x.

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

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 5.3.** In a poset, we never have x < y and y < x.

PROOF: We would then have  $x \leq y$  and  $y \leq x$  hence x = y by antisymmetry. But if x < y or y < x then  $x \neq y$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 5.4.** The relation < is transitive.

#### PROOF

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Assume: x < y and y < z \langle 1 \rangle 2. x \leqslant y and y \leqslant z \langle 1 \rangle 3. x \leqslant z Proof: Since \leqslant is transitive. \langle 1 \rangle 4. x \neq z Proof: By Proposition 5.3.
```

**Proposition 5.5.** Let < be a transitive relation on X such that we never have x < y and y < x. Define  $\le$  by:  $x \le y$  iff x < y or x = y. Then  $\le$  is a partial order on X.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \leq \text{is reflexive.}$ 

PROOF: By definition.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \leq \text{is asymmetric.}$ 

PROOF: If  $x \le y$  and  $y \le x$ , we must have x = y, because otherwise we would have x < y and y < x.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \leq \text{is transitive.}$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \leq y$  and  $y \leq z$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Case: x = y

PROOF: We have  $y \le z$  so  $x \le z$ .

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

PROOF: We have  $x \leq y$  so  $x \leq z$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Case: x < y and y < z

PROOF: We have x < z by transitivity, so  $x \le z$ .

**Definition 5.6** ((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 5.7** (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 5.8** (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 5.9** (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 5.10.** 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 5.11** (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 5.12.** 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 5.13** (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 5.14** (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 5.15** (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 5.16** (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 5.17** (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 5.18** (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.

**Definition 5.19** (Total Order). A partial order  $\leq$  on a set X is a total order, simple order or linear 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 5.20.** 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 5.21.** For any set X, the relation  $\subseteq$  is a total order on X iff X is either  $\emptyset$  or a singleton.

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 5.22** (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 C in T, we have  $\bigcup C \in T$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . 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 \lor 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 \bigcup \mathcal{C} is compa-
                       rable.
                \langle 5 \rangle 1. Let: 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 | \mathcal{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
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 $\langle 1 \rangle 13.$  g(A) = A

```
\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 14. \ \hat{A} - A = \varnothing \\ \langle 1 \rangle 15. \ u \in A \\ \text{Proof: Since } A \cup \{u\} \text{ is a chain so } u \in \hat{A} \text{ and therefore } u \in A. \\ \langle 1 \rangle 16. \ u \text{ is maximal in } X. \\ \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \text{Let: } x \in X \\ \langle 2 \rangle 2. \ \text{Assume: } u \leqslant x \\ \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ A \cup \{x\} \text{ is a chain.} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \in A \\ \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x \leqslant u \\ \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ x = u \\ \end{array}
```

**Definition 5.23** (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 5.24** (Similar). Two posets X and Y are similar,  $X \cong Y$  iff there exists an order preserving one-to-one correspondence f between them. We write  $f: X \cong Y$  and call f a similarity.

**Proposition 5.25.** 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 5.26.** For any poset X we have  $I_X : X \cong X$ .

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 5.27.** If  $f: X \cong Y$  then  $f^{-1}: Y \cong X$ .

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 5.28.** If  $f: X \cong Y$  and  $g: Y \cong Z$  then  $g \circ f: X \cong Z$ .

Proof: Easy.

**Corollary 5.28.1.** For any set E, similarity is an equivalence relation on the set of all posets that are subsets of E.

## 5.1 Well Orderings

**Definition 5.29** (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 5.30.** 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 5.31** (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.

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

**Definition 5.32** (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 5.33.** Let C be a set of well ordered sets that is totally ordered under continuation. Then there exists a unique well ordering on  $\bigcup C$  such that  $\bigcup C$  is a continuation of every element of 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  $x \leq y$  in C.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 5.34.** 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 5.33.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . 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 5.35 (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 5.33.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . 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 5.36** (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 5.37.** 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 5.38.** Let X and Y be well ordered sets. Then there is at most one similarity between them.

```
Proof:
```

```
\begin{split} &\langle 1 \rangle 1. \text{ Let: } f,g:X \cong Y \\ &\quad \text{Prove: } \forall a \in X. f(a) = g(a) \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ Let: } a \in X \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 3. \text{ Assume: as transfinite induction hypothesis } \forall c < a. f(c) = g(c) \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ f(a) \text{ is the least element of } Y - \{f(c):c < a\} \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ g(a) \text{ is the least element of } Y - \{g(c):c < a\} \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ f(a) = g(a) \end{split}
```

**Proposition 5.39.** A well ordered set is not similar to any of its initial segments.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X be a well ordered set.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $f: X \cong s(a)$  for some  $a \in X$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . f(a) < a
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Q.E.D.

Proof: This contradicts Proposition 5.37.

**Theorem 5.40** (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  $f: s(x) \cong s(U(x))$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. 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.

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. 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  $Y_0 = s(b)$ .

```
\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 8. \text{ Case: } X_0 \neq X \text{ and } Y_0 = Y \\ \text{Proof: Then } U: s(a) \cong Y \text{ where } X_0 = s(a). \\ \langle 1 \rangle 9. \text{ Case: } X_0 \neq X \text{ and } Y_0 \neq Y \\ \langle 2 \rangle 1. \text{ Let: } X_0 = s(a) \text{ 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. \\ \text{Proof: This is a contradiction.} \end{array}
```

**Corollary 5.40.1.** 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 5.37.  $\square$ 

## 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:  $\forall x \in n.n \nsubseteq x$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . 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
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . 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:  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ 

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

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

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . 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
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ .  $n \in n^+ = m^+$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ .  $n \in m$  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  $f: X \to X$ 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
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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 \rangle5. 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  $k \in n$ .

## 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:  $\xi \in \alpha$ 

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\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.

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**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.

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**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 5.33.  $\square$ 

**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.
```

#### 7.1 Order on the Natural Numbers

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

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

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**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  $X \sim m$ .

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**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.

**Definition 7.20** (Lexicographical Order). The *lexicographical* order on  $\omega \times \omega$  is the relation S defined by (a,b)S(x,y) iff a < x or (a = x and b < y).

**Proposition 7.21.** The lexicographical order is a well ordering on  $\omega \times \omega$ .

Proof: Easy.

### 7.2 Finite Sets

**Definition 7.22** (Finite). A set is *finite* iff it is equivalent to a natural number; otherwise, it is *infinite*.

Proposition 7.23. No finite set is equivalent to one of its proper subsets.

Proof: From Proposition 7.19.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.24.**  $\omega$  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 7.25.** Every subset of a finite set is finite.

Proof: Proposition 7.18.  $\square$ 

**Definition 7.26** (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 7.27.** Let E and F be finite sets. If  $E \subseteq F$  then  $\sharp(E) \leqslant \sharp(F)$ .

Proof: Proposition 7.18.

**Proposition 7.28.** 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  $E \cup F \sim m + n$ 

```
⟨1⟩2. P(0)

⟨2⟩1. Let: m \in \omega

⟨2⟩2. Let: E \sim m and F \sim 0

⟨2⟩3. F = \emptyset

⟨2⟩4. E \cup F = E \sim m = m + 0

⟨1⟩3. \forall n \in \omega. P(n) \Rightarrow P(n + 1)

⟨2⟩1. Let: n \in \omega

⟨2⟩2. Assume: P(n)

⟨2⟩3. Let: m \in \omega

⟨2⟩4. Let: E \sim m and F \sim n + 1

⟨2⟩5. Assume: E \cap F = \emptyset

⟨2⟩6. Pick f \in F

⟨2⟩7. F - \{f\} \sim n

⟨2⟩8. E \cap (F - \{f\}) = \emptyset

⟨2⟩9. E \cup (F - \{f\}) \sim m + n
```

Corollary 7.28.1. 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 7.29.** 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:  $n \in \omega$

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 10$ .  $E \cup F \sim m + n + 1$ 

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: P(n)
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $m \in \omega$

```
\langle 2 \rangle5. 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 7.28.
Proposition 7.30. 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)
                                                                                (Proposition 7.29)
                                    = m^n m
                                                                                           (\langle 2 \rangle 2, \langle 2 \rangle 4)
                                    = m^{n+1}
```

Corollary 7.30.1. If E is finite then PE is finite and  $\sharp(PE) = 2^{\sharp(E)}$ .

**Proposition 7.31.** The union of a finite set of finite sets is finite.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . 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.

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

```
\langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: P(n)
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Let: E \sim n+1
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. Pick X \in E
   \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. | JE is finite.
      Proof: Corollary 7.28.1.
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Proposition 7.32. 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 \rangle6. Either k or l is greatest in E.
Proposition 7.33. Every infinite set has a subset equivalent to \omega.
Proof:
\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  $v(m) \notin U(m)$ .

Corollary 7.33.1. A set is infinite if and only if it is equivalent to a proper subset.

#### 7.3 Ordinal Arithmetic

**Definition 7.34** (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 7.35.

$$\alpha + 0 = \alpha$$
$$0 + \alpha = \alpha$$
$$\alpha + 1 = \alpha^{+}$$
$$\alpha + (\beta + \gamma) = (\alpha + \beta) + \gamma$$

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.36.** 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.

Proposition 7.37.

$$1 + \omega = \omega$$

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Definition 7.38** (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 < dor (b = d and a < c).

Proposition 7.39.

$$\alpha 0 = 0$$

$$0\alpha = 0$$

$$\alpha 1 = \alpha$$

$$1\alpha = \alpha$$

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

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

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.40.** For ordinals  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , if  $\alpha\beta = 0$  then  $\alpha = 0$  or  $\beta = 0$ .

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Example 7.41.** The commutative law fails:

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

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

Example 7.42. The right distributive law fails:

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

**Definition 7.43** (Exponentiation). Given ordinals  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , define the ordinal  $\alpha^{\beta}$  by

$$\begin{split} \alpha^0 &= 1 \\ \alpha^{\beta+1} &= \alpha^{\beta} \alpha \\ \alpha^{\lambda} &= \bigcup_{\beta < \lambda} \alpha^{\beta} \end{split} \qquad (\lambda \text{ a limit ordinal})$$

Proposition 7.44.

$$0^{\alpha} = 0$$

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

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

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

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Example 7.45.**  $(\alpha\beta)^{\gamma}$  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 7.46.** 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
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. Assume: Q(n)
       \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ 0 + n^+ = n^+ + 0
           Proof:
                                     0 + n^+ = (0 + n)^+
                                                 = (n+0)^+
                                                                                             (\langle 3 \rangle 2)
                                                 = n^+
                                                 = n^+ + 0
\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 property 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)^+
                                                = (n+m^+)^+
                                                                                                (\langle 3 \rangle 2)
                                                 = (n+m)^{++}
                                                  =(m+n)^{++}
                                                                                                (\langle 2 \rangle 2)
                                                  =(m+n^+)^+
                                                  = (n^+ + m)^+
                                                                                                (\langle 2 \rangle 2)
                                                  = n^+ + m^+
```

**Proposition 7.47.** For all  $m, n \in \omega$ , we have

mn = nm.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . 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
                                                                                     (\langle 3 \rangle 2)
                                             = 0
                                             = n^{+}0
\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 = nm^+
   \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)^+
                                                                                                             (\langle 3 \rangle 2)
                         = (nm + n + m)^+
                         = (mn + m + n)^+
                                                        (\langle 2 \rangle 2, Proposition ??, Proposition 7.46)
                         = (mn^+ + n)^+
                         = (n^+ m + n)^+
                                                                                                             (\langle 2 \rangle 2)
                         = n^+ m + n^+
                         = n^+ m^+
```