# C1 Set Theory

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## 1 Primitive Notions

Let there be sets.

Let there be a binary relation called *membership*,  $\in$ . When  $x \in y$  holds, we say x is a *member* or *element* of y. We write  $x \notin y$  iff x is not a member of y.

### 2 The Axioms

**Axiom 1** (Extensionality). If two sets have exactly the same members, then they are equal.

As a consequence of this axiom, we may identify a set A with the class  $\{x:x\in A\}$ . The use of the symbols  $\in$  and = is consistent.

**Definition 2.** We say that a class **A** is a set iff there exists a set A such that  $A = \mathbf{A}$ . That is, the class  $\{x : P(x)\}$  is a set iff

$$\exists A. \forall x (x \in A \leftrightarrow P(x))$$
.

Otherwise, **A** is a proper class.

**Definition 3** (Subset). If A is a set and **B** is a class, we say A is a *subset* of **B** iff  $A \subseteq \mathbf{B}$ .

**Axiom 4** (Empty Set). The empty class is a set, called the empty set.

**Axiom 5** (Pairing). For any objects a and b, the class  $\{a,b\}$  is a set, called a pair set.

**Definition 6** (Union). For any class of sets **A**, the *union*  $\bigcup$  **A** is the class  $\{x: \exists A \in \mathbf{A}. x \in A\}.$ 

We write  $\bigcup_{P[x_1,...,x_n]} t[x_1,...,x_n]$  for  $\bigcup \{t[x_1,...,x_n]: P[x_1,...,x_n]\}.$ 

**Proposition 7.** If  $A \subseteq B$  then  $\bigcup A \subseteq \bigcup B$ .

Proof: Easy.

**Axiom 8** (Union). For any set A, the union  $\bigcup A$  is a set.

**Proposition 9.** For any sets A and B, the class  $A \cup B$  is a set. PROOF: It is  $\bigcup \{A, B\}$ .  $\square$ **Proposition Schema 10.** For any objects  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$ , the class  $\{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$ is a set. Proof: By repeated application of the Pairing and Union axioms.  $\square$ **Definition 11** (Power Set). For any set A, the power set of A,  $\mathcal{P}A$ , is the class of all subsets of A. **Axiom 12** (Power Set). For any set A, the class PA is a set. **Axiom 13** (Subset, Aussonderung). For any class **A** and set B, if  $\mathbf{A} \subseteq B$  then A is a set. **Proposition 14.** For any set A and class B, the intersection  $A \cap B$  is a set. PROOF: By the Subset Axiom since it is a subclass of A.  $\square$ **Proposition 15.** For any set A and class B, the relative complement A - B is a set. PROOF: By the Subset Axiom since it is a subclass of A.  $\square$ **Theorem 16.** The universal class **V** is a proper class. Proof:  $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: **V** is a set.  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $R = \{x : x \notin x\}$  $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . R is a set. PROOF: By the Subset Axiom.  $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $R \in R$  if and only if  $R \notin R$  $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Q.E.D. PROOF: This is a contradiction. **Definition 17** (Intersection). For any class of sets A, the *intersection*  $\bigcap A$  is the class  $\{x : \forall A \in \mathbf{A}. x \in A\}.$ We write  $\bigcap_{P[x_1,...,x_n]} t[x_1,...,x_n]$  for  $\bigcap \{t[x_1,...,x_n]: P[x_1,...,x_n]\}.$ **Proposition 18.** For any nonempty class of sets A, the class  $\bigcap A$  is a set. PROOF: Pick  $A \in \mathbf{A}$ . Then  $\bigcap \mathbf{A} \subseteq A$ .  $\square$ 

Proposition 20. For any set A and class of sets B, we have

**Proposition 19.** *If*  $A \subseteq B$  *then*  $\bigcap B \subseteq \bigcap A$ .

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

$$A \cup \bigcap \mathbf{B} = \bigcap \{A \cup X \mid X \in \mathbf{B}\}$$

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 21.** For any set A and class of sets B, we have

$$A\cap\bigcup\mathbf{B}=\bigcup\{A\cap X\mid X\in\mathbf{B}\}$$

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 22.** For any set C and class of sets A, we have

$$C - \bigcup \mathbf{A} = \bigcap \{C - X \mid X \in \mathbf{A}\}\$$
.

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 23.** For any set C and class of sets A, we have

$$C - \bigcap \mathbf{A} = \bigcup \{C - X \mid X \in \mathbf{A}\} .$$

Proof: Easy.

# 3 Ordered Pairs

**Definition 24** (Ordered Pair). For any objects a and b, the ordered pair (a,b) is  $\{\{a\},\{a,b\}\}$ . We call a its first coordinate and b its second coordinate.

**Theorem 25.** For any objects (a,b), we have (a,b) = (c,d) if and only if a = c and b = d.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If (a,b) = (c,d) then a = c and b = d
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: (a,b) = (c,d)
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . a = c

PROOF: Since  $\{a\} = \bigcap (a, b) = \bigcap (c, d) = \{c\}.$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \{a,b\} = \{c,d\}$ 

Proof:  $\{a, b\} = \bigcup (a, b) = \bigcup (c, d) = \{c, d\}.$ 

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . b = c or b = d
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Case: b = c
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1. \ a = b$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ \{c,d\} = \{a\}$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ \ b = d$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Case: b = d

PROOF: We have a = c and b = d as required.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If a = c and b = d then (a, b) = (c, d)

PROOF: Trivial.

**Definition 26** (Cartesian Product). The *Cartesian product* of classes **A** and **B** is the class

$$\mathbf{A}\times\mathbf{B}=\{(x,y):x\in\mathbf{A},y\in\mathbf{B}\}$$
 .

<b>Lemma 27.</b> For any objects $x$ and $y$ and set $C$ , if $x \in C$ and $y \in C$ then $(x,y) \in \mathcal{PPC}$ .
Proof: Easy. $\square$
Corollary 27.1. For any sets A and B, the Cartesian product $A \times B$ is a set.
PROOF: By the Subset Axiom applied to $\mathcal{PP}(A \cup B)$ . $\square$
<b>Lemma 28.</b> If $(x,y) \in \mathbf{A}$ then $x,y \in \bigcup \bigcup \mathbf{A}$ .
Proof: Easy. $\square$
4 Relations
<b>Definition 29</b> (Relation). A relation is a class of ordered pairs. It is small iff
it is a set. When <b>R</b> is a relation, we write $x\mathbf{R}y$ for $(x,y) \in \mathbf{R}$ .
<b>Definition 30</b> (Domain). The <i>domain</i> of a class <b>R</b> is dom <b>R</b> = $\{x : \exists y . (x,y) \in \mathbf{R}\}.$
<b>Definition 31</b> (Range). The range of a class $\mathbf{R}$ is ran $\mathbf{R} = \{y : \exists x . (x, y) \in \mathbf{R}\}.$
<b>Definition 32</b> (Field). The <i>field</i> of a class $\mathbf{R}$ is fld $\mathbf{R} = \operatorname{dom} \mathbf{R} \cup \operatorname{ran} \mathbf{R}$ .
<b>Proposition 33.</b> If $R$ is a set then dom $R$ , ran $R$ and fld $R$ are sets.
PROOF: Apply the Subset Axiom to $\bigcup \bigcup R$ . $\Box$
<b>Definition 34</b> (Single-Rooted). A class <b>R</b> is <i>single-rooted</i> iff, for all $y \in \operatorname{ran} \mathbf{R}$ , there is only one $x$ such that $x\mathbf{R}y$ .
<b>Definition 35</b> (Inverse). The <i>inverse</i> of a class $\mathbf{F}$ is the class $\mathbf{F}^{-1} = \{(y, x) \mid (x, y) \in \mathbf{F}\}.$
<b>Theorem 36.</b> For any class $\mathbf{F}$ , we have dom $\mathbf{F}^{-1} = \operatorname{ran} \mathbf{F}$ and $\operatorname{ran} \mathbf{F}^{-1} = \operatorname{dom} \mathbf{F}$ .
Proof: Easy. $\square$
<b>Theorem 37.</b> For a relation $\mathbf{F}$ , $(\mathbf{F}^{-1})^{-1} = \mathbf{F}$ .
Proof: Easy. $\square$
<b>Definition 38</b> (Composition). The <i>composition</i> of classes <b>F</b> and <b>G</b> is the class $\mathbf{G} \circ \mathbf{F} = \{(x,z) \mid \exists y.(x,y) \in \mathbf{F} \land (y,z) \in \mathbf{G}\}.$
<b>Theorem 39.</b> For any classes $\mathbf{F}$ and $\mathbf{G}$ , $(\mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G})^{-1} = \mathbf{G}^{-1} \circ \mathbf{F}^{-1}$ .
Proof: Easy. $\square$

**Definition 40** (Restriction). The *restriction* of the class **F** to the class **A** is the class **F**  $\upharpoonright$  **A** =  $\{(x,y): x \in A \land (x,y) \in \mathbf{F}\}.$ 

**Definition 41** (Image). The *image* of the class **A** under the class **F** is the class  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}) = \{y : \exists x \in \mathbf{A}.(x,y) \in \mathbf{F}\}.$ 

Theorem 42.

$$F(A \cup B) = F(A) \cup F(B)$$

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

Theorem 43.

$$\mathbf{F}(\c|\ \mathbf{J}\mathbf{A}) = \c|\ \mathbf{J}\{\mathbf{F}(X) : X \in \mathbf{A}\}$$

Proof: Easy.

Theorem 44.

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}\cap\mathbf{B})\subseteq\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A})\cap\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{B})$$

Equality holds if F is single-rooted.

Proof: Easy.

Theorem 45.

$$\mathbf{F}(\bigcap \mathbf{A}) \subseteq \bigcap \{ \mathbf{F}(X) : X \in \mathbf{A} \}$$

Equality holds if  ${f F}$  is single-rooted.

Proof: Easy.

Theorem 46.

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}) - \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{B}) \subseteq \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B})$$

Equality holds if  $\mathbf{F}$  is single-rooted.

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Definition 47** (Reflexive). A binary relation **R** on **A** is *reflexive* on **A** if and only if  $\forall x \in \mathbf{A}.x\mathbf{R}x$ .

**Definition 48** (Symmetric). A binary relation **R** is *symmetric* iff, whenever  $x\mathbf{R}y$ , then  $y\mathbf{R}x$ .

**Definition 49** (Transitive). A binary relation **R** is *transitive* iff, whenever  $x\mathbf{R}y$  and  $y\mathbf{R}z$ , then  $x\mathbf{R}z$ .

# 5 n-ary Relations

**Definition 50.** Given objects a, b, c, define the *ordered triple* (a, b, c) to be ((a, b), c).

Define (a, b, c, d) = ((a, b, c), d), etc.

Define the 1-tuple (a) to be a.

**Definition 51** (n-ary Relation). Given a class  $\mathbf{A}$ , an n-ary relation on  $\mathbf{A}$  is a class of ordered n-tuples, all of whose components are in  $\mathbf{A}$ .

## 6 Functions

**Definition 52** (Function). A function is a relation  $\mathbf{F}$  such that, for all  $x \in \text{dom } \mathbf{F}$ , there is only one y such that  $x\mathbf{F}y$ . We call this unique y the value of  $\mathbf{F}$  at x and denote it by  $\mathbf{F}(x)$ .

We say **F** is a function *from* **A** *into* **B**, or **F** *maps* **A** into **B**, and write  $\mathbf{F} : \mathbf{A} \to \mathbf{B}$ , iff **F** is a function, dom  $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{A}$ , and ran  $\mathbf{F} \subseteq \mathbf{B}$ .

If, in addition, ran  $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{B}$ , we say  $\mathbf{F}$  is a function from  $\mathbf{A}$  onto  $\mathbf{B}$ .

**Theorem 53.** For a class  $\mathbf{F}$ ,  $\mathbf{F}^{-1}$  is a function if and only if  $\mathbf{F}$  is single-rooted.

Proof: Easy.

**Theorem 54.** A relation  $\mathbf{F}$  is a function if and only if  $\mathbf{F}^{-1}$  is single-rooted.

Proof: Easy.

Theorem 55. For any function G and classes A and B,

$$\mathbf{G}^{-1}(\bigcup \mathbf{A}) = \bigcup \{\mathbf{G}^{-1}(X) : X \in \mathbf{A}\}$$

$$\mathbf{G}^{-1}(\bigcap \mathbf{A}) = \bigcap \{\mathbf{G}^{-1}(X) : X \in \mathbf{A}\}$$

$$(if \mathbf{A} \neq \emptyset)$$

$$\mathbf{G}^{-1}(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{G}^{-1}(\mathbf{A}) - \mathbf{G}^{-1}(\mathbf{B})$$

Proof: Easy.

**Theorem 56.** Assume that  $\mathbf{F}$  and  $\mathbf{G}$  are functions. Then  $\mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G}$  is a function, its domain is  $\{x \in \text{dom } \mathbf{G} : \mathbf{G}(x) \in \text{dom } \mathbf{F}\}$ , and for x in its domain,

$$(\mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G})(x) = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{G}(x))$$
.

Proof: Easy.

**Definition 57** (One-to-one). A function F is one-to-one or an injection iff it is single-rooted.

**Theorem 58.** Let **F** be a one-to-one function. For  $x \in \text{dom } \mathbf{F}$ ,  $\mathbf{F}^{-1}(\mathbf{F}(x)) = x$ .

Proof: Easy.

**Theorem 59.** Let **F** be a one-to-one function. For  $y \in \operatorname{ran} \mathbf{F}$ ,  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{F}^{-1}(y)) = y$ .

Proof: Easy.

**Definition 60** (Identity Function). For any class **A**, the *identity* function on **A** is  $id_{\mathbf{A}} = \{(x, x) \mid x \in \mathbf{A}\}.$ 

**Theorem 61.** Let  $F: A \to B$ . Assume  $A \neq \emptyset$ . Then F has a left inverse (i.e. there exists  $G: B \to A$  such that  $G \circ F = \mathrm{id}_A$ ) if and only if F is one-to-one.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If F is one-to-one then F has a left inverse.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: F is one-to-one.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $F^{-1} : \operatorname{ran} F \to A$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $a \in A$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Define  $G: B \to A$  by:

$$G(x) = \begin{cases} F^{-1}(x) & \text{if } x \in \operatorname{ran} F \\ a & \text{if } x \in B - \operatorname{ran} F \end{cases}$$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ \forall x \in A.G(F(x)) = x$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If F has a left inverse then F is one-to-one.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: F has a left inverse G.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x, y \in A$  with F(x) = F(y)
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ x = y$

PROOF: x = G(F(x)) = G(F(y)) = y.

**Definition 62** (Binary Operation). A binary operation on a set A is a function from  $A \times A$  into A.

### 7 The Axiom of Choice

**Axiom 63** (Choice). For any relation R there exists a function  $H \subseteq R$  with dom H = dom R.

**Theorem 64.** Let  $F: A \to B$ . Then F has a right inverse if and only if F maps A onto B.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If F has a right inverse then F maps A onto B.

PROOF: If  $H: B \to A$  is a right inverse, then for any y in B, we have y = F(H(y)).

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If F maps A onto B then F has a right inverse.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: F maps A onto B.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . PICK a function H with  $H \subseteq F^{-1}$  and dom  $H = \operatorname{dom} F^{-1}$

PROOF: By the Axiom of Choice.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . dom H = B

PROOF: dom  $H = \text{dom } F^{-1} = \text{ran } F = B \text{ by } \langle 2 \rangle 1.$ 

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . For all  $y \in B$  we have F(H(y)) = y
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $y \in B$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ (y, H(y)) \in F^{-1}$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . F(H(y)) = y

## 8 Sets of Functions

**Definition 65.** Let A be a set and B be a class. Then  $\mathbf{B}^A$  is the class of all functions  $A \to \mathbf{B}$ .

# 9 Dependent Products

**Definition 66.** Let I be a set and  $H_i$  a set for all  $i \in I$ . Define

$$\prod_{i \in I} H_i = \{f : f \text{ is a function}, \text{dom } f = I, \forall i \in I.f(i) \in H_i \} .$$

**Theorem 67.** The Axiom of Choice is equivalent to the statement: For any set I and any function H with domain I, if  $H(i) \neq \emptyset$  for all  $i \in I$ , then  $\prod_{i \in I} H(i) \neq \emptyset$ 

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If the Axiom of Choice is true then, for any set I and any function H with domain I, if  $H(i) \neq \emptyset$  for all  $i \in I$ , then  $\prod_{i \in I} H(i) \neq \emptyset$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: The Axiom of Choice.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: I be a set.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let: H be a function with domain I.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Assume:  $H(i) \neq \emptyset$  for all  $i \in I$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $R = \{(i, x) : i \in I, x \in H(i)\}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 6. PICK a function  $F \subseteq R$  with dom F = dom R PROVE:  $F \in \prod_{i \in I} H(i)$

PROOF: By the Axiom of Choice.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ . dom H = I

PROOF: We have dom R = I since for all  $i \in I$  there exists x such that  $x \in H(i)$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 8. \ \forall i \in I.F(i) \in H(i)$ PROOF: Since iRF(i).

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If, for any set I and any function H with domain I, if  $H(i) \neq \emptyset$  for all  $i \in I$ , then  $\prod_{i \in I} H(i) \neq \emptyset$ , then the Axiom of Choice is true.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Assume: For any set I and any function H with domain I, if  $H(i) \neq \emptyset$  for all  $i \in I$ , then  $\prod_{i \in I} H(i) \neq \emptyset$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: R be a relation
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let: I = dom R
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Define the function H with domain I by: for  $i \in I$ ,  $H(i) = \{y : iRy\}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .  $H(i) \neq \emptyset$  for all  $i \in I$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Pick  $F \in \prod_{i \in I} H(i)$

Proof: By  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ 

- $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ . F is a function
- $\langle 2 \rangle 8. \ F \subseteq R$

PROOF: For all  $i \in I$  we have  $F(i) \in H(i)$  and so iRF(i).

 $\langle 2 \rangle 9. \operatorname{dom} F = \operatorname{dom} R$ 

# 10 Equivalence Relations

**Definition 68** (Equivalence Relation). An *equivalence relation* on **A** is a binary relation on **A** that is reflexive on **A**, symmetric and transitive.

**Theorem 69.** If  $\mathbf{R}$  is a symmetric and transitive relation then  $\mathbf{R}$  is an equivalence relation on fld  $\mathbf{R}$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in \operatorname{fld} \mathbf{R}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK y such that either  $x \mathbf{R} y$  or  $y \mathbf{R} x$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $x \mathbf{R} y$  and  $y \mathbf{R} x$

PROOF: Since  $\mathbf{R}$  is symmetric.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $x \mathbf{R} x$ 

PROOF: Since  $\mathbf{R}$  is transitive.

**Definition 70** (Equivalence Class). If **R** is an equivalence relation and  $x \in \operatorname{fld} \mathbf{R}$ , the *equivalence class* of x modulo **R** is

$$[x]_{\mathbf{R}} = \{t : x\mathbf{R}t\} .$$

**Lemma 71.** Assume that  ${\bf R}$  is an equivalence relation on  ${\bf A}$  and that x and y belong to  ${\bf A}$ . Then

$$[x]_{\mathbf{R}} = [y]_{\mathbf{R}} \text{ iff } x \mathbf{R} y$$
.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If  $[x]_{\mathbf{R}} = [y]_{\mathbf{R}}$  then  $x \mathbf{R} y$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $[x]_{\mathbf{R}} = [y]_{\mathbf{R}}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ y \in [y]_{\mathbf{R}}$

PROOF: Since  $\mathbf{R}$  is reflexive on  $\mathbf{A}$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ y \in [x]_{\mathbf{R}}$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $x \mathbf{R} y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If  $x \mathbf{R} y$  then  $[x]_{\mathbf{R}} = [y]_{\mathbf{R}}$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $x \mathbf{R} y$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $[y]_{\mathbf{R}} \subseteq [x]_{\mathbf{R}}$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $z \in [y]_{\mathbf{R}}$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ y \mathbf{R} z$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ x \mathbf{R} z$

PROOF: Since  $\mathbf{R}$  is transitive.

- $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ z \in [x]_{\mathbf{R}}$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ y \mathbf{R} x$

PROOF: Since  $\mathbf{R}$  is symmetric.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ [x]_{\mathbf{R}} \subseteq [y]_{\mathbf{R}}$ 

PROOF: Similar.

**Definition 72** (Partition). A partition of a set A is a set  $P \subseteq \mathcal{P}A$  such that:

- $\bullet$  Every member of P is nonempty.
- ullet Any two distinct members of P are disjoint.
- $A = \bigcup P$

**Theorem 73.** Let R be an equivalence relation on the set A. Then the set of all equivalence classes is a partition of A.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Every equivalence class is nonempty.

PROOF: For any  $x \in A$  we have  $x \in [x]_R$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Any two distinct equivalence classes are disjoint.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x, y \in A$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $z \in [x]_R \cap [y]_R$ Prove:  $[x]_R = [y]_R$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . xRy
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . xRz
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . yRz
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . zRy

PROOF: By  $\langle 3 \rangle 2$  and symmetry.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . xRy

PROOF: By  $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ ,  $\langle 3 \rangle 3$  and transitivity.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $[x]_R = [y]_R$ 

Proof: By Lemma 3N.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . A is the union of all the equivalence classes.

PROOF: For any  $x \in A$  we have  $x \in [x]_R$ .

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**Definition 74** (Quotient Set). If R is an equivalence relation on the set A, then the quotient set A/R is the set of all equivalence classes, and the natural map or canonical map  $\phi: A \to A/R$  is defined by  $\phi(x) = [x]_R$ .

**Theorem 75.** Assume that R is an equivalence relation on A and that F:  $A \to B$ . Assume that F is compatible with R; that is, whenever xRy, then F(x) = F(y). Then there exists a unique  $\overline{F}: A/R \to B$  such that  $F = \overline{F} \circ \phi$ .

PROOF: The unique such  $\overline{F}$  is  $\{([x], F(x)) : x \in A\}$ .  $\square$ 

### 11 Linear Orders

**Definition 76** (Linear Ordering). Let A be a class. A *linear ordering* or *total ordering* on A is a relation B on A such that:

- R is transitive.
- R satisfies trichotomy on A; i.e. for any  $x, y \in A$ , exactly one of

$$x\mathbf{R}y, x = y, y\mathbf{R}x$$

holds.

Theorem 77. Let R be a linear ordering on A.

1. There is no x such that  $x\mathbf{R}x$ .

2. For distinct x and y in A, either xRy or yRx.

PROOF: Immediate from trichotomy.

## 12 Natural Numbers

**Definition 78** (Successor). The *successor* of a set a is the set  $a^+ = a \cup \{a\}$ .

**Definition 79** (Inductive). A class **A** is *inductive* iff  $\emptyset \in \mathbf{A}$  and  $\forall a \in \mathbf{A}.a^+ \in \mathbf{A}$ .

Axiom 80 (Infinity). There exists an inductive set.

**Definition 81** (Natural Number). A *natural number* is a set that belongs to every inductive set.

We write  $\omega$  for the class of all natural numbers.

**Theorem 82.** The class  $\omega$  is a set.

PROOF: Pick an inductive set I (by the Axiom of Infinity), then apply a Subset Axiom to I.  $\Box$ 

**Theorem 83.** The set  $\omega$  is inductive, and is a subset of every inductive set.

Proof: Easy.

Corollary 83.1 (Proof by Induction). Any inductive subclass of  $\omega$  is equal to  $\omega$ .

**Theorem 84.** Every natural number except 0 is the successor of some natural number.

Proof: Easy proof by induction.  $\square$ 

**Definition 85** (Peano System). A *Peano system* is a triple  $\langle N, S, e \rangle$  consisting of a set N, a function  $S: N \to N$  and an element  $e \in N$  such that:

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

**Definition 86** (Transitive Set). A set A is a *transitive set* iff every member of a member of A is a member of A.

**Theorem 87.** For any transitive set a,  $\bigcup (a^+) = a$ .

Proof:

$$\bigcup (a^{+}) = \bigcup (a \cup \{a\})$$

$$= \bigcup a \cup \bigcup \{a\}$$

$$= \bigcup a \cup a$$

$$= a$$

since  $\bigcup a \subseteq a$ .  $\square$ 

Theorem 88. Every natural number is a transitive set.

#### PROOF:

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

Proof: Vacuous.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 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 that is a transitive set.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $\bigcup (n^+) \subseteq n^+$

PROOF: Theorem 87.

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**Theorem 89.**  $\langle \omega, \sigma, 0 \rangle$  is a Peano system, where  $0 = \emptyset$  and  $\sigma = \{\langle n, n^+ \rangle : n \in \omega \}$ .

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $0 \notin \operatorname{ran} \sigma$ 

PROOF: For any  $n \in \omega$  we have  $0 \neq n^+$  since  $n \in n^+$  and  $n \notin 0$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\sigma$  is one-to-one.

PROOF: If  $m^+ = n^+$  then  $m = \bigcup (m^+) = \bigcup (n^+) = n$  using Theorems 87 and 88.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Any subset  $A \subseteq \omega$  that contains 0 and is closed under  $\sigma$  equals  $\omega$ .

**Theorem 90.** The set  $\omega$  is a transitive set.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For every natural number n we have  $\forall m \in n$ . m is a natural number.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ .  $\forall m \in \mathbb{O}$ . m is a natural number.

Proof: Vacuous.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . If n is a natural number and  $\forall m \in n$ . m is a natural number, then  $\forall m \in n^+$ . m is a natural number.

PROOF: Since if  $m \in n^+$  we have either  $m \in n$  or m = n, and m is a natural number in either case.

**Theorem 91** (Recursion Theorem on  $\omega$ ). Let A be a set,  $a \in A$  and  $F : A \to A$ . Then there exists a unique function  $h : \omega \to A$  such that

$$h(0) = a ,$$

and for every n in  $\omega$ ,

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

#### Proof

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let us call a function v acceptable iff dom  $v \subseteq \omega$ , ran  $v \subseteq A$  and:
  - 1. If  $0 \in \text{dom } v \text{ then } v(0) = a$
  - 2. For all  $n \in \omega$ , if  $n^+ \in \text{dom } v$  then  $n \in \text{dom } v$  and  $v(n^+) = F(v(n))$ .

```
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: \mathcal{K} be the set of acceptable functions.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: h = \bigcup \mathcal{K}
\langle 1 \rangle 4. h is a function.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: S = \{ n \in \omega : \text{for at most one } y, (n, y) \in h \}
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. S is inductive.
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. \ 0 \in S
            \langle 4 \rangle 1. Let: \langle 0, y_1 \rangle, \langle 0, y_2 \rangle \in h
            \langle 4 \rangle 2. PICK acceptable v_1 and v_2 such that v_1(0) = y_1 and v_2(0) = y_2
            \langle 4 \rangle 3. \ y_1 = a
            \langle 4 \rangle 4. \ y_2 = a
            \langle 4 \rangle 5. \ y_1 = y_2
        \langle 3 \rangle 2. \forall k \in S.k^+ \in S
            \langle 4 \rangle 1. Let: k \in S
            \langle 4 \rangle 2. Let: (k^+, y_1), (k^+, y_2) \in h
            \langle 4 \rangle 3. PICK acceptable v_1, v_2 such that v_1(k^+) = y_1 and v_2(k^+) = y_2
            \langle 4 \rangle 4. y_1 = F(v_1(k))
            \langle 4 \rangle 5. f_2 = F(v_2(k))
            \langle 4 \rangle 6. \ v_1(k) = v_2(k)
                \langle 5 \rangle 1. \ (k, v_1(k)), (k, v_2(k)) \in h
                \langle 5 \rangle 2. Q.E.D.
                   Proof: By \langle 4 \rangle 1
           \langle 4 \rangle 7. \ y_1 = y_2
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ S = \omega
\langle 1 \rangle 5. h is acceptable.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. If 0 \in \text{dom } h \text{ then } h(0) = a
        \langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: 0 \in \text{dom } h
        \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick v acceptable with v(0) = h(0)
        \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ v(0) = a
        \langle 3 \rangle 4. h(0) = a
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. For all n \in \omega, if n^+ \in \text{dom } h then n \in \text{dom } h and h(n^+) = F(h(n))
        \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: n \in \omega with n^+ \in \text{dom } h
        \langle 3 \rangle 2. PICK v acceptable with v(n^+) = h(n^+)
        \langle 3 \rangle 3. n \in \text{dom } v
        \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ v(n) = h(n)
        \langle 3 \rangle 5. \ h(n^+) = F(h(n))
           Proof:
                                                            h(n^+) = v(n^+)
                                                                        = F(v(n))
                                                                        = F(h(n))
\langle 1 \rangle 6. dom h = \omega
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ 0 \in \text{dom } h
       PROOF: Since \{(0,a)\} is an acceptable function.
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. \forall n \in \text{dom } h.n^+ \in \text{dom } h
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: n \in \text{dom } h
```

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . PICK an acceptable v such that  $n \in \text{dom } v$ 

```
\langle 3 \rangle 3. Assume: w.l.o.g. n^+ \notin \text{dom } v
```

- $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ v \cup \{(n^+, F(v(n)))\}$  is acceptable.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . For any acceptable function  $h': \omega \to A$  we have h' = h
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $h' : \omega \to A$  be acceptable.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . h'(0) = h(0)

Proof: h'(0) = h(0) = a

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

PROOF: We have  $h'(n^+) = F(h'(n)) = F(h(n)) = h(n^+)$ .

**Theorem 92.** Let (N, S, e) be a Peano system. Then  $(\omega, \sigma, 0)$  is isomorphic to (N, S, e), i.e. there is a function h mapping  $\omega$  one-to-one onto N in a way that preserves the successor operation

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

and the zero element

$$h(0) = e .$$

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . There exists a function h that satisfies those two conditions.

PROOF: By the Recursion Theorem.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $m, n \in \omega$ , if  $m \neq n$  then  $h(m) \neq h(n)$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . For all  $n \in \omega$ , if  $n \neq 0$  then  $h(n) \neq h(0)$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $n \in \omega$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $n \neq 0$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Pick p such that  $n = p^+$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ .  $h(n) \neq h(0)$

PROOF:  $h(n) = S(h(p)) \neq e = h(0)$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For all  $m \in \omega$ , if  $\forall n (m \neq n \Rightarrow h(m) \neq h(n))$  then  $\forall n (m^+ \neq n \Rightarrow h(m^+) \neq h(n))$ 
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $m \in \omega$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $\forall n (m \neq n \Rightarrow h(m) \neq h(n))$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $n \in \omega$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle$ 4. Assume:  $m^+ \neq n$ Prove:  $h(m^+) \neq h(n)$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ . Case: n=0

PROOF:  $h(m^+) = S(h(m)) \neq e = h(n)$ 

- $\langle 3 \rangle 6$ . Case:  $n = p^+$ 
  - $\langle 4 \rangle 1. \ m \neq p$
  - $\langle 4 \rangle 2$ .  $h(m) \neq h(p)$
  - $\langle 4 \rangle 3. \ S(h(m)) \neq S(h(p))$
  - $\langle 4 \rangle 4$ .  $h(m^+) \neq h(p^+)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For all  $x \in N$ , there exists  $n \in \omega$  such that h(n) = x

PROOF: An easy induction on x.

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#### Arithmetic 13

**Definition 93** (Addition). Addition + is the binary operation on  $\omega$  such that, for all  $m, n \in \omega$ ,

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

Theorem 94 (Associative Law for Addition).

$$\forall m, n, p \in \omega.m + (n+p) = (m+n) + p$$

Proof:

$$m + (n+0) = m+n = (m+n) + 0$$
If  $m + (n+p) = (m+n) + p$  then
$$m + (n+p^+) = m + (n+p)^+$$

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

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

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

Theorem 95 (Commutative Law for Addition).

$$\forall m, n \in \omega.m + n = n + m$$

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $\forall n \in \omega . 0 + n = n + 0$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1. \ 0 + 0 = 0 + 0$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For all  $n \in \omega$ , if 0 + n = n + 0 then  $0 + n^+ = n^+ + 0$ Proof:

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

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $m \in \omega$ , if  $\forall n.m + n = n + m$  then  $\forall n.m^+ + n = n + m^+$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $m \in \omega$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $\forall n.m + n = n + m$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ m^+ + 0 = 0 + m^+$ PROOF: From  $\langle 1 \rangle 1$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . For all  $n \in \omega$ , if  $m^+ + n = n + m^+$  then  $m^+ + n^+ = n^+ + m^+$ 

Proof:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Definition 96** (Multiplication). *Multiplication*  $\cdot$  is the binary operation on  $\omega$  such that, for all  $m, n \in \omega$ ,

$$m0 = 0$$
$$m \cdot n^+ = mn + m$$

Theorem 97 (Distributive Law).

$$\forall m, n, p \in \omega.m(n+p) = mn + mp$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \forall m,n \in \omega. m(n+0) = mn + m0$ 

Proof:

$$m(n+0) = mn$$
$$= mn + 0$$
$$= mn + m0$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $p \in \omega$ , if m(n+p) = mn + mp then  $m(n+p^+) = mn + mp^+$  PROOF:

$$m(n+p^+) = m(n+p)^+$$
  
 $= m(n+p) + m$   
 $= (mn+mp) + m$   
 $= mn + (mp+m)$  (Associative Law for Addition)  
 $= mn + mp^+$ 

Theorem 98 (Associative Law for Multiplication).

$$\forall m, n, p \in \omega.m(np) = (mn)p$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \forall m, n \in \omega.m(n0) = (mn)0$ 

PROOF: Both are equal to 0.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $m, n, p \in \omega$ , if m(np) = (mn)p then  $m(np^+) = (mn)p^+$ 

Proof:

$$m(np^+) = m(np + n)$$
  
=  $m(np) + mn$  (Distributive Law)  
=  $(mn)p + mn$   
=  $(mn)p^+$ 

Theorem 99 (Commutative Law for Multiplication).

$$\forall m, n \in \omega.mn = nm$$

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \forall n \in \omega.0n = n0$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1. \ 0 \cdot 0 = 0 \cdot 0$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For all  $n \in \omega$ , if 0n = n0 then  $0n^+ = n^+0$

Proof:

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

$$= 0n$$

$$= n0$$

$$= 0$$

$$= n^{+}0$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $m \in \omega$ , if  $\forall n \in \omega.mn = nm$  then  $\forall n \in \omega.m^+n = nm^+$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $m \in \omega$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $\forall n \in \omega.mn = nm$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ m^+0 = 0 m^+$

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

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . For all  $n \in \omega$ , if  $m^+ n = n m^+$  then  $m^+ n^+ = n^+ m^+$ 

Proof:

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

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

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

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

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

$$= (mn + m + n)^{+}$$
 (Associative and Commutative Laws for Addition)
$$= (mn^{+} + n)^{+}$$

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

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

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

# 14 Ordering on the Natural Numbers

**Lemma 100.** For any natural numbers m and n,  $m \in n$  if and only if  $m^+ \in n^+$ .

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \forall m, n \in \omega (m \in n \Rightarrow m^+ \in n^+)
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \forall m \in \omega (m \in 0 \Rightarrow m^+ \in 0^+)
       Proof: Vacuous.
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. For all n \in \omega, if \forall m \in n.m^+ \in n^+ then \forall m \in n^+.m^+ \in n^{++}
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: n \in \omega
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. Assume: \forall m \in n.m^+ \in n^+
       \langle 3 \rangle 3. Let: m \in n^+
       \langle 3 \rangle 4. Case: m \in n
          \langle 4 \rangle 1. \ m^+ \in n^+
              Proof: By \langle 3 \rangle 2
           \langle 4 \rangle 2. \ m^+ \in n^{++}
       \langle 3 \rangle 5. Case: m=n
          PROOF: m^{+} = n^{+} \in n^{++}
\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \forall m, n \in \omega(m^+ \in n^+ \Rightarrow m \in n)
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: m, n \in \omega
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: m^+ \in n^+
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ m \in m^+
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. m^+ \in n or m^+ = n
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ m \in n
       PROOF: If m^+ \in n this follows because n is transitive (Theorem 88).
Lemma 101. For any natural number n we have n \notin n.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 0 \notin 0
\langle 1 \rangle 2. For all n \in \omega, if n \notin n then n^+ \notin n^+
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: n \in \omega
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: n^+ \in n^+
            Prove: n \in n
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. n^+ \in n or n^+ = n
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ n \in n^+
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ n \in n
       PROOF: If n^+ \in n this follows because n is transitive (Theorem 88).
Theorem 102 (Trichotomy Law for \omega). For any natural numbers m and n,
exactly one of
                                             m\in n, m=n, n\in m
holds.
```

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. For any m, n \in \omega, at most one of m \in n, m = n, n \in m holds.
  PROOF: If m \in n and m = n then m \in m contradicting Lemma 101.
  If m \in n and n \in m then m \in m by Theorem 88, contradicting Lemma 101.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. For any m, n \in \omega, at least one of m \in n, m = n, n \in m holds.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. For all n \in \omega, either 0 \in n or 0 = n
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. \ 0 = 0
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. For all n \in \omega, if 0 \in n or 0 = n then 0 \in n^+
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. For all m \in \omega, if \forall n \in \omega (m \in n \vee m = n \vee n \in m) then \forall n \in \omega (m^+ \in m)
           n \vee m^+ = n \vee n \in m^+
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: m \in \omega
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. Assume: \forall n \in \omega (m \in n \lor m = n \lor n \in m)
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. Let: n \in \omega
      \langle 3 \rangle 4. Case: m \in n
         Proof: Then m \in n^+
      \langle 3 \rangle 5. Case: m = n
         PROOF: Then m \in n^+
      \langle 3 \rangle 6. Case: n \in m
         PROOF: Then n^+ \in m^+ by Lemma 100 so n^+ \in m or n^+ = m.
```