# 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 $\mathbf{R} = \{x : \exists y . (x,y) \in \mathbf{R}\}.$
<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.  $\square$ 

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:  $R = \{(i, x) : i \in I, x \in H(i)\}$
  - (2)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).

 $\langle 2 \rangle 9$ . dom F = dom R

Theorem 68. The following are equivalent.

- 1. The Axiom of Choice.
- 2. Let A be a set such that (a) every member of A is a nonempty set, and

- (b) any two distinct members of A are disjoint. Then there exists a set C such that, for all  $B \in A$ , we have  $C \cap B$  is a singleton.
- 3. For any set A, there exists a function  $F: \mathcal{P}A \{\emptyset\} \to A$  such that  $F(X) \in X$  for all  $X \in \mathcal{P}A \{\emptyset\}$ .

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 1 \Rightarrow 2$ 

PROOF: Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a set matching the two conditions. By the Multiplicative Axiom, pick a function  $f \in \prod_{B \in \mathcal{A}} B$ . Let  $C = \operatorname{ran} f$ . Then  $C \cap B = \{f(B)\}$  for all  $B \in \mathcal{A}$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ 2 \Rightarrow 3$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: 2
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: A be a set.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\mathcal{A} = \{ \{B\} \times B : B \in \mathcal{P}A \{\emptyset\} \}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . PICK a set C such that  $C \cap (\{B\} \times B)$  is a singleton for all  $B \in \mathcal{P}A \{\emptyset\}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Let:  $F = C \cap \bigcup \mathcal{A}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ F : \mathcal{P}A \{\emptyset\} \to A \text{ is a function and } F(X) \in X \text{ for all } X$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 3 \Rightarrow 1$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: 3
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: R be a relation
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Pick a choice function G for ran R
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Define  $F : \operatorname{dom} R \to \operatorname{ran} R$  by F(x) = G(R(x))
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ F \subseteq R$

# 10 Equivalence Relations

**Definition 69** (Equivalence Relation). An *equivalence relation* on **A** is a binary relation on **A** that is reflexive on **A**, symmetric and transitive.

**Theorem 70.** 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.

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**Definition 71** (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 72.** Assume that  $\mathbf{R}$  is an equivalence relation on  $\mathbf{A}$  and that x and y belong to  $\mathbf{A}$ . 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.

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**Definition 73** (Partition). A partition of a set A is a set  $P \subseteq \mathcal{P}A$  such that:

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

**Theorem 74.** 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  $x \in [x]_R$ .

**Definition 75** (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 76.** 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 77** (Linear Ordering). Let **A** be a class. A *linear ordering* or *total ordering* on **A** is a relation **R** on **A** such that:

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

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

holds.

Theorem 78. 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.

**Definition 79** (Strictly Monotone Functions). Let A and B be linearly ordered sets. A function  $f: A \to B$  is *strictly monotone* iff, for all  $x, y \in A$ , if x < y then f(x) < f(y).

**Theorem 80.** Let A and B be linearly ordered sets and  $f: A \to B$  be strictly monotone. For all  $x, y \in A$ , if f(x) < f(y) then x < y.

PROOF: We have  $f(x) \neq f(y)$  and  $f(y) \not < f(x)$  by trichotomy, hence  $x \neq y$  and  $y \not < x$  since f is strictly monotone, hence x < y by trichotomy.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 81.** Every strictly monotone function is injective.

PROOF: If f(x) = f(y), then we have  $f(x) \not< f(y)$  and  $f(y) \not< f(x)$  by trichotomy, hence  $x \not< y$  and  $y \not< x$  since f is strictly monotone, hence x = y by trichotomy.  $\square$ 

## 12 Natural Numbers

**Definition 82** (Successor). The *successor* of a set a is the set  $a^+ = a \cup \{a\}$ .

**Definition 83** (Inductive). A class **A** is *inductive* iff  $\emptyset \in \mathbf{A}$  and  $\forall a \in \mathbf{A}.a^+ \in \mathbf{A}$ .

Axiom 84 (Infinity). There exists an inductive set.

**Definition 85** (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 86.** The class  $\omega$  is a set.

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

**Theorem 87.** The set  $\omega$  is inductive, and is a subset of every inductive set.

Proof: Easy.

Corollary 87.1 (Proof by Induction). Any inductive subclass of  $\omega$  is equal to  $\omega$ .

**Theorem 88.** Every natural number except 0 is the successor of some natural number.

Proof: Easy proof by induction.  $\square$ 

**Definition 89** (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 90** (Transitive Set). A set A is a *transitive set* iff every member of a member of A is a member of A.

**Theorem 91.** 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 92.** 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 91.

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**Theorem 93.**  $\langle \omega, \sigma, 0 \rangle$  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 91 and 92.

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

**Theorem 94.** 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.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ .  $\forall m \in 0$ . 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 95** (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. \quad y_1 = y_2
\langle 3 \rangle 2. \quad \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 \operatorname{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
```

```
\begin{array}{l} \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ v \cup \{(n^+, F(v(n)))\} \ \text{is acceptable.} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 7. \ \text{For any acceptable function} \ h': \omega \to A \ \text{we have} \ h' = h \\ \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \text{Let:} \ h': \omega \to A \ \text{be acceptable.} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 2. \ h'(0) = h(0) \\ \text{Proof:} \ h'(0) = h(0) = a \\ \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \forall n \in \omega.h'(n) = h(n) \Rightarrow h'(n^+) = h(n^+) \\ \text{Proof:} \ \text{We have} \ h'(n^+) = F(h'(n)) = F(h(n)) = h(n^+). \\ \end{array}
```

**Theorem 96.** 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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## 13 Finite Sets

**Definition 97** (Finite). A set is *finite* iff it is equinumerous with a natural number. Otherwise it is infinite.

**Theorem 98.** No natural number is equinumerous with a proper subset of itself.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Any injective function  $f: 0 \to 0$  has range 0.

PROOF: Since the only such function is  $\emptyset$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For any natural number n, if every injective function  $f: n \to n$  has range n, then every injective function  $f: n^+ \to n^+$  has range  $n^+$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $n \in \omega$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: Every injective function  $f: n \to n$  has range n.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $f: n^+ \to n^+$  be injective.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Define  $g: n \to n$  by

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

PROOF: If  $k \in n$  and f(k) = n then  $f(n) \in n$  since f is injective.

- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. g is injective.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $i, j \in n$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Assume: g(i) = g(j)
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Case:  $f(i) \in n, f(j) \in n$

PROOF: Then f(i) = f(j) so i = j

 $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . Case:  $f(i) \in n, f(j) \notin n$ 

PROOF: Then f(i) = f(n) which is impossible as f is injective.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ . Case:  $f(i) \notin n, f(j) \in n$ 

PROOF: Then f(n) = f(j) which is impossible as f is injective.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 6$ . Case:  $f(i) \notin n, f(j) \notin n$ 

PROOF: Then f(i) = f(j) = n so i = j.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . ran g = n

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

- $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ . ran  $f = n^+$ 
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1. \ \forall k \in n.k \in \operatorname{ran} f$

PROOF: Since ran  $g \subseteq \operatorname{ran} f$ .

- $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ .  $n \in \operatorname{ran} f$ 
  - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$ . Case:  $f(n) \in n$ 
    - $\langle 5 \rangle 1$ . PICK k such that g(k) = f(n)
    - $\langle 5 \rangle 2$ . f(k) = n
  - $\langle 4 \rangle 2$ . Case: f(n) = n

PROOF: Then  $n \in \operatorname{ran} f$ .

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Corollary 98.1. No finite set is equinumerous with a proper subset of itself.

Corollary 98.2. The set  $\omega$  is infinite.

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

Corollary 98.3. Every finite set is equinumerous with a unique natural number.

**Lemma 99.** Let n be a natural number and  $C \subseteq n$ . Then there exists  $m \in n$  such that  $C \approx m$ .

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For all  $C \subseteq 0$ , there exists  $m \in 0$  such that  $C \approx m$ .

PROOF: In this case  $C = \emptyset$  and so  $C \approx 0$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let  $n \in \omega$ . Assume that, for all  $C \subseteq n$ , there exists  $m \in n$  such that  $C \approx m$ . Let  $C \subseteq n^+$ . Then there exists  $m \in n^+$  such that  $C \approx m$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $n \in \omega$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: For all  $C \subseteq n$ , there exists  $m \in n$  such that  $C \approx m$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $C \subseteq n^+$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Case:  $n \in C$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Pick  $m \in n$  such that  $C \{n\} \approx m$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ .  $C \approx m^+$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Case:  $n \notin C$

PROOF: Then  $C \subseteq n$  so  $C \approx m$  for some  $m \subseteq n$ .

Corollary 99.1. Any subset of a finite set is finite.

## 14 Cardinal Numbers

**Definition 100** (Cardinality). TODO

**Theorem 101.** For any sets A and B, |A| = |B| if and only if  $A \approx B$ .

Proof: TODO

**Theorem 102.** For any finite set A, |A| is the natural number such that  $A \approx |A|$ .

Proof: TODO

**Definition 103.** We write  $\aleph_0$  for  $|\omega|$ .

## 15 Cardinal Arithmetic

**Definition 104** (Addition). Let  $\kappa$  and  $\lambda$  be any cardinal numbers. Then  $\kappa + \lambda = |K \cup L|$ , where K and L are any disjoint sets of cardinality  $\kappa$  and  $\lambda$  respectively. To show this is well-defined, we must prove that, if  $K_1 \approx K_2$ ,  $L_1 \approx L_2$ , and  $K_1 \cap L_1 = K_2 \cap L_2 = \emptyset$ , then  $K_1 \cup L_1 \approx K_2 \cup L_2$ .

Proof: Easy.

PROOF: Since for any set $K$ we have $K \cup \emptyset = K$ .
<b>Lemma 106.</b> For any natural number n we have $n + \aleph_0 = \aleph_0$ .
Proof: Easy. $\square$
Lemma 107. $\aleph_0 + \aleph_0 = \aleph_0$
PROOF: Define $f:(\omega\times\{0\})\cup(\omega\times\{1\})\to\omega$ by $f(n,0)=2n$ and $f(n,1)=2n+1$ . Then $f$ is a bijection. $\square$
Theorem 108.
$\kappa + \lambda = \lambda + \kappa$
Proof: Easy. $\square$
Theorem 109. $\kappa + (\lambda + \mu) = (\kappa + \lambda) + \mu$
Proof: Easy. $\square$
<b>Definition 110</b> (Multiplication). Let $\kappa$ and $\lambda$ be any cardinal numbers. Then $\kappa\lambda= K\times L $ , where $K$ and $L$ are any sets of cardinality $\kappa$ and $\lambda$ respectively.
It is easy to prove this well-defined.
<b>Lemma 111.</b> For any cardinal number $\kappa$ we have $\kappa 0 = 0$ .
PROOF: For any set $K$ we have $K \times \emptyset = \emptyset$ . $\square$
<b>Lemma 112.</b> For any natural number $n$ we have $n\aleph_0 = \aleph_0$ .
Proof: Induction on $n$ using Lemma 107. $\square$
Lemma 113.
$leph_0leph_0=leph_0$
PROOF: Define $f:\omega\times\omega\to\omega$ by $f(m,n)=2^m(2n+1)-1.$ Then $f$ is a bijection. $\square$
Lemma 114.
$\kappa 1 = \kappa$
Proof: Easy. $\square$
Theorem 115. $\kappa\lambda=\lambda\kappa$
Proof: Easy. $\square$

**Lemma 105.** For any cardinal number  $\kappa$  we have  $\kappa + 0 = \kappa$ .

Theorem 116.

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

Proof: Easy.

Theorem 117.

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

Proof: Easy.

**Definition 118** (Exponentiation). Let  $\kappa$  and  $\lambda$  be any cardinal numbers. Then  $\kappa^{\lambda} = |K^L|$ , where K and L are any sets of cardinality  $\kappa$  and  $\lambda$  respectively.

It is easy to prove this well-defined.

**Theorem 119.** For any cardinal  $\kappa$ ,  $\kappa^0 = 1$ .

PROOF: For any set K, there is only one function  $\emptyset \to K$ , namely  $\emptyset$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 120.** For any non-zero cardinal  $\kappa$ , we have  $0^{\kappa} = 0$ .

PROOF: For any nonempty set K, there is no function  $K \to \emptyset$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 121.** For any set A,  $|PA| = 2^{|A|}$ .

PROOF: Define the bijection  $f: \mathcal{P}A \to 2^A$  by f(S)(a) = 1 if  $a \in S$ , 0 if  $a \notin S$ .

Corollary 121.1. For any cardinal  $\kappa$ , we have  $\kappa \neq 2^{\kappa}$ .

Theorem 122.

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

Proof: Easy.

Theorem 123.

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

Proof: Easy.

Theorem 124.

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

Proof: Easy.

## 16 Arithmetic

**Lemma 125.** For any natural numbers m and n, we have  $m+n^+=(m+n)^+$ .

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

Corollary 125.1. The union of two finite sets is finite.

**Lemma 126.** For any natural numbers m and n we have  $mn^+ = mn + m$ .

Proof: Easy.

Corollary 126.1. The Cartesian product of two finite sets is finite.

**Lemma 127.** For any natural numbers m and n we have  $m^{n^+} = m^n m$ .

Proof: Easy.

Corollary 127.1. If A and B are finite sets then  $A^B$  is finite.

# 17 Ordering on the Natural Numbers

**Lemma 128.** For any natural numbers m and n,  $m \in n$  if and only if  $m^+ \in n^+$ .

```
Proof:
```

```
\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 92).
```

**Lemma 129.** 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 92).

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**Theorem 130** (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 129.

If  $m \in n$  and  $n \in m$  then  $m \in m$  by Theorem 92, contradicting Lemma 129.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 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  $\forall n \in \omega (m \in n \lor m = n \lor n \in m)$  then  $\forall n \in \omega (m^+ \in n \lor m^+ = n \lor n \in m^+)$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . 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 128 so  $n^+ \in m$  or  $n^+ = m$ .

Corollary 130.1. The relation  $\in$  is a linear ordering on  $\omega$ .

Corollary 130.2. For any natural numbers m and n,

 $m \in n \Leftrightarrow m \subset n$  .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $m, n \in \omega$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If  $m \in n$  then  $m \subset n$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $m \in n$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $m \subseteq n$

PROOF: Theorem 92.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ m \neq n$ 

Proof: Lemma 129.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . If  $m \subset n$  then  $m \in n$ .

PROOF: We have  $m \neq n$  and  $n \notin m$  by  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ , hence  $m \in n$  by trichotomy.

**Theorem 131.** For any natural number p, the function that maps n to n+p is strictly monotone. For any natural numbers m, n and p, we have  $m \in n$  if and only if  $m+p \in n+p$ .

PROOF: We prove that  $m \in n \Rightarrow m+p \in n+p$ . This is an easy induction on p using Lemma 128.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 132.** For any non-zero natural number p, the function that maps n to np is strictly monotone.

PROOF: Easy induction on p using Theorem 131.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 133** (Strong Induction). Let A be a subset of  $\omega$  and suppose that, for all  $n \in \omega$ , we have

$$(\forall m < n.m \in A) \Rightarrow n \in A$$
.

Then  $A = \omega$ .

PROOF: Prove  $\forall n \in \omega. \forall m < n.m \in A$  by induction on n.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 134** (Well-Ordering of  $\omega$ ). Every nonempty subset of  $\omega$  has a least element.

PROOF: If A is a subset of  $\omega$  with no least element, we prove  $\forall n \in \omega. n \notin A$  by strong induction on n.  $\square$ 

**Corollary 134.1.** There is no function  $f : \omega \to \omega$  such that f(n+1) < f(n) for every n.

**Lemma 135.** For any natural numbers m and n, we have  $m \in n$  if and only if there exists a natural number p such that  $n = m + p^+$ .

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For all m, p, we have  $m \in m + p^+$ 
  - PROOF:  $m = m + 0 \in m + p^+$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all m, n, if  $m \in n$  then there exists p such that  $n = m + p^+$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . For all m, if  $m \in 0$  then there exists p such that  $0 = m + p^+$  PROOF: Vacuous.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For all  $n \in \omega$ , if  $\forall m \in n. \exists p \in \omega. n = m+p^+$  then  $\forall m \in n^+. \exists p \in \omega. n^+ = m+p^+$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $n \in \omega$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $\forall m \in n. \exists p \in \omega. n = m + p^+$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $m \in n^+$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . Case:  $m \in n$ 
      - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$ . PICK p such that  $n = m + p^+$
    - $\langle 4 \rangle 2. \ n^+ = m + p^{++}$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ . Case: m = n

Proof:  $n^{+} = m + 0^{+}$ 

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**Lemma 136.** For natural numbers m, n, p and  $q, if <math>m \in n$  and  $p \in q$  then  $mp + nq \in mq + np$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . PICK natural numbers a and b such that  $n=m+a^+$  and  $q=p+b^+$  PROOF: Lemma 135.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $mp + nq = mq + np + (a^+ + b)^+$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ mp + nq \in mq + np$

Proof: Lemma 135.

# 18 The Integers

**Theorem 137.** The relation  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on  $\omega \times \omega$ , where  $(m,n) \sim (p,q)$  iff m+q=n+p.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . The relation  $\sim$  is reflexive on  $\omega^2$ 

PROOF: For any m, n, we have m+n=m+n and so  $(m,n)\sim (m,n)$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . The relation  $\sim$  is symmetric.

PROOF: If m + q = n + p then p + n = q + m.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . The relation  $\sim$  is transitive.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $(m,n) \sim (p,q) \sim (r,s)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . m+q=n+p
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ p+s=q+r$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . m + p + q + s = n + p + q + r
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . m+s=n+r

PROOF: By cancellation of addition in  $\omega$ .

**Definition 138.** The set  $\mathbb{Z}$  of *integers* is the quotient set  $(\omega \times \omega)/\sim$ .

**Lemma 139.** If  $(m,n) \sim (m',n')$  and  $(p,q) \sim (p',q')$  then  $(m+p,n+q) \sim (m'+p',n'+q')$ .

PROOF: Assume m+n'=m'+n and p+q'=p'+q. Then m+p+n'+q'=m'+p'+n+q.  $\square$ 

**Definition 140** (Addition). Addition + on  $\mathbb{Z}$  is the binary operation such that

$$[(m,n)] + [(p,q)] = [(m+p,n+q)]$$

**Theorem 141.** Addition on  $\mathbb{Z}$  is commutative.

PROOF: From the definition.  $\Box$ 

**Theorem 142.** Addition on  $\mathbb{Z}$  is associtative.

Proof: Easy.

**Definition 143** (Zero). The zero in the integers is 0 = [(0,0)].

**Theorem 144.** For any integer a we have a + 0 = 0.

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 145.** For any integer a, there exists an integer b such that a+b=0.

PROOF: If a = [(m, n)] take b = [(n, m)].  $\square$ 

**Lemma 146.** If  $(m,n) \sim (m',n')$  and  $(p,q) \sim (p',q')$  then  $(mp+nq,mq+np) \sim (m'p'+n'q',m'q'+n'p')$ .

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: m + n' = m' + n and p + q' = p' + q
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . mp + n'p = m'p + np
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ m'q + nq = mq + n'q$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . mp + mq' = mp' + mq
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . n'p' + n'q = n'p + n'q'
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ mp + n'p + m'q + nq + mp + mq' + n'p' + n'q = m'p + np + mq + n'q + mp' + mq + n'p + n'q'$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ mp + nq + m'q' + n'p' = mq + np + m'p' + n'q'$

**Definition 147** (Multiplication).  $\textit{Multiplication} \cdot \text{is the binary operation on } \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$[(m,n)][(p,q)] = [(mp + nq, mq + np)]$$

Theorem 148. Multiplication is commutative.

Proof: Easy.

Theorem 149. Multiplication is associative.

Proof: Easy.

**Theorem 150.** Multiplication is distributive over addition.

Proof: Easy.

**Definition 151.** The integer one is 1 = [(1, 0)].

**Theorem 152.** For any integer a we have a1 = a.

Proof: Easy.

**Theorem 153.**  $0 \neq 1$ 

Proof: Easy.

**Lemma 154.** If  $(m,n) \sim (m',n')$  and  $(p,q) \sim (p',q')$  then  $m+q \in p+n$  iff  $m'+q' \in p'+n'$ .

Proof:

$$m+q \in p+n \Leftrightarrow m+q+n'+q' \in p+n+n'+q'$$
  
$$\Leftrightarrow m'+n+q+q' \in p'+n+n'+q$$
  
$$\Leftrightarrow m'+q' \in p'+n'$$

**Definition 155** (Ordering). The ordering < on  $\mathbb{Z}$  is defined by: [(m,n)] < [(p,q)] iff  $m+q \in n+p$ .

**Theorem 156.** The relation < is a linear ordering on  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . < is transitive.
  - (2)1. Assume: [(m,n)] < [(p,q)] and [(p,q)] < [(r,s)]
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $m+q \in n+p$  and  $p+s \in q+r$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $m+q+s \in n+p+s$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $n+p+s \in n+q+r$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .  $m+q+s \in n+q+r$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ m+s \in n+r$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . < satisfies trichotomy.

PROOF: From trichotomy on  $\omega$ .

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**Theorem 157.** For any integers a, b and c, we have a < b iff a + c < b + c.

PROOF: An easy consequence of the corresponding property in  $\omega$ .

**Corollary 157.1.** *If* a + c = b + c *then* a = b.

**Theorem 158.** If 0 < c, then the function that maps an integer a to ac is strictly monotone.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: a, b and c be integers.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume: 0 < c and a < b
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let: a = [(m, n)]
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let: b = [(p,q)]
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Let: c = [(r, s)]
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ s \in r$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ .  $m+q \in p+n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8. \ (m+q)r + (p+n)s \in (m+q)s + (p+n)r$

Proof: Lemma 136.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 9. \ ac < bc$ 

**Lemma 159.** For integers a and b, a(-b) = -(ab)

PROOF: This follows from the fact that ab + a(-b) = a(b + (-b)) = a0 = 0.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 160.** For integers a, b and c, if a < b and c < 0 then ac > bc.

PROOF: We have 0 < -c so a(-c) < b(-c) hence -(ac) < -(bc) so bc < ac.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 161.** For any integers a and b, if ab = 0 then a = 0 or b = 0.

PROOF: We prove if  $a \neq 0$  and  $b \neq 0$  then  $ab \neq 0$ .

If a > 0 and b > 0 then ab > 0. Similarly for the other four cases.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 162.** If ac = bc and  $c \neq 0$  then a = b.

PROOF: We have (a - b)c = 0 so a - b = 0 hence a = b.  $\square$ 

**Definition 163** (Positive). An integer a is positive iff 0 < a.

**Theorem 164.** Define  $E: \omega \to \mathbb{Z}$  by E(n) = [(n,0)]. Then E maps  $\omega$  one-to-one into  $\mathbb{Z}$ , and:

- 1. E(m+n) = E(m) + E(n)
- 2. E(mn) = E(m)E(n)
- 3.  $m \in n$  if and only if E(m) < E(n).

Proof: Routine calculations.  $\square$ 

# 19 Equinumerosity

**Definition 165** (Equinumerous). Two sets A and B are equinumerous,  $A \approx B$ , iff there exists a bijection between them.

**Theorem 166.** Equinumerosity is an equivalence relation on the class of sets.

Proof: Easy.

**Theorem 167** (Cantor 1873). No set is equinumerous with its power set.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $g: A \to \mathcal{P}A$ 

Prove: g is not surjective.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $B = \{ x \in A : x \notin g(x) \}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \forall x \in A.g(x) \neq B$

PROOF: Because  $x \in B$  iff  $x \notin g(x)$ .

# 20 Ordering Cardinal Numbers

**Definition 168** (Dominated). A set A is dominated by a set B,  $A \leq B$ , iff there exists an injection  $f: A \to B$ .

Lemma 169. Domination is a preorder on the class of sets.

Proof: Easy.

**Lemma 170.** *If*  $A \subseteq B$  *then*  $A \preceq B$ .

PROOF: The inclusion from A to B is an injection.  $\square$ 

**Lemma 171.** If  $A \leq B$ ,  $A \approx A'$  and  $B \approx B'$  then  $A' \leq B'$ .

Proof: Easy.

**Definition 172.** Given cardinal numbers  $\kappa$  and  $\lambda$ , we write  $\kappa \leq \lambda$  iff  $K \leq L$ , where K is any set of cardinality  $\kappa$  and L is any set of cardinality  $\lambda$ .

We write  $\kappa < \lambda$  iff  $\kappa \le \lambda$  and  $\kappa \ne \lambda$ .

**Theorem 173** (Schröder-Bernstein). If  $A \leq B$  and  $B \leq A$  then  $A \approx B$ .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$  Let:  $f:A \to B$  and  $g:B \to A$  be one-to-one.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Define the sequence of sets  $C_n \subseteq A$  by:

$$C_0 = A - \operatorname{ran} g$$

$$C_{n+1} = g(f(C_n))$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Define  $h: A \to B$  by

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } \exists n \in \mathbb{N}. x \in C_n \\ g^{-1}(x) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . h is injective.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x, y \in A$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: h(x) = h(y)
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Case:  $x \in C_m, y \in C_n$

PROOF: We have f(x) = f(y) so x = y

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Case:  $x \in C_m, y \notin \bigcup_n C_n$ 

PROOF: This case is impossible because we would have y = g(f(x)) and so  $y \in C_{m+1}$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Case:  $x, y \notin \bigcup_n C_n$ 

PROOF: We have  $g^{-1}(x) = g^{-1}(y)$  so x = y.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . h is surjective.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $y \in B$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $y \notin f(C_n)$  for all n
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3.$   $g(y) \notin C_n$  for all n
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ \ y = h(g(y))$

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**Corollary 173.1.** The relation  $\leq$  is a partial order on the class of cardinal numbers.

**Theorem 174.** Let  $\kappa$ ,  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  be cardinal numbers.

1. 
$$\kappa \leq \lambda \Rightarrow \kappa + \mu \leq \lambda + \mu$$

2. 
$$\kappa \leq \lambda \Rightarrow \kappa \mu \leq \lambda \mu$$

3. 
$$\kappa \leq \lambda \Rightarrow \kappa^{\mu} \leq \lambda^{\mu}$$

4.  $\kappa \leq \lambda \Rightarrow \mu^{\kappa} \leq \mu^{\lambda}$  if  $\kappa$  and  $\mu$  are not both zero.

PROOF: Parts 1-3 are easy. For part 4:

Let  $|K| = \kappa$ ,  $|L| = \lambda$  and  $|M| = \mu$  with  $K \subseteq L$ .

If  $M = \emptyset$  then  $\kappa \neq 0$  so  $\mu^{\kappa} = 0 \leq \mu^{\lambda}$ .

Otherwise, pick  $a \in M$ . Define  $\Phi : M^K \to M^L$  by:

$$\Phi(f)(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } x \in K \\ a & \text{if } x \notin K \end{cases}$$

Then  $\Phi$  is an injection.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 175** (Zorn's Lemma). The Axiom of Choice is equivalent to this statement:

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a set such that, for every chain  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ , we have  $\bigcup \mathcal{B} \in \mathcal{A}$ . Then  $\mathcal{A}$  has a maximal element.

#### PROOF:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If the Axiom of Choice then Zorn's Lemma.

PROOF: TODO

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If Zorn's Lemma then the Axiom of Choice.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: Zorn's Lemma
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: R be a relation.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\mathcal{A}$  be the set of all functions that are subsets of R.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . For any chain  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$  we have  $\bigcup \mathcal{B} \in \mathcal{A}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Pick  $F \in \mathcal{A}$  maximal.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . dom F = dom R

**Theorem 176** (Cardinal Comparability). The Axiom of Choice is equivalent to the statement: for any sets C and D, either  $C \leq D$  or  $D \leq C$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If Zorn's Lemma then Cardinal Comparability.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Assume: Zorn's Lemma
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: C and D be sets.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\mathcal A$  be the set of all injective functions f with  $\mathrm{dom}\, f \subseteq C$  and  $\mathrm{ran}\, f \subseteq D$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . For every chain  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$  we have  $\bigcup \mathcal{B} \in \mathcal{A}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Let:  $f \in \mathcal{A}$  be maximal
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . dom f = C or ran f = D
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ . f is an injective function  $C \to D$  or  $f^{-1}$  is an injective function  $D \to C$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If Cardinal Comparability then the Axiom of Choice.

PROOF: TODO

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**Theorem 177** (Choice). For any infinite set A, we have  $\omega \leq A$ .

### Proof:

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

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\langle 1 \rangle2. Pick a choice function F for A \langle 1 \rangle3. Define f: \omega \to A by recursion by: f(n) = F(A - \{f(0), f(1), \dots, f(n-1)\}) Proof: A - \{f(0), f(1), \dots, f(n-1)\} is nonempty because A is infinite. \langle 1 \rangle4. f is injective. \Box
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**Corollary 177.1** (Choice). For any infinite cardinal  $\kappa$  we have  $\aleph_0 \leq \kappa$ .

Corollary 177.2 (Choice). A set is infinite iff it is equinumerous to a proper subset of itself.