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. \square

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

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

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

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 $x\mathbf{R}x$.

PROOF: Immediate from trichotomy. \square Definition 78 (Strictly Monotone Functions). Let A and B be linear sets. A function $f:A \to B$ is strictly monotone iff, for all $x,y \in A$ then $f(x) < f(y)$. Theorem 79. Let A and B be linearly ordered sets and $f:A \to B$ monotone. For all $x,y \in A$, if $f(x) < f(y)$ then $x < y$. PROOF: We have $f(x) \neq f(y)$ and $f(y) \nleq f(x)$ by trichotomy, hence $y \nleq x$ since f is strictly monotone, hence $x < y$ by trichotomy. \square Theorem 80. Every strictly monotone function is injective. PROOF: If $f(x) = f(y)$, then we have $f(x) \nleq f(y)$ and $f(y) \nleq f(x)$ chotomy, hence $x \nleq y$ and $y \nleq x$ since f is strictly monotone, hence trichotomy. \square 12 Natural Numbers Definition 81 (Successor). The successor of a set a is the set $a^+ = 0$ Definition 82 (Inductive). A class A is inductive iff $\emptyset \in A$ and $\forall a \in A$ Axiom 83 (Infinity). There exists an inductive set. Definition 84 (Natural Number). A natural number is a set that every inductive set. We write ω for the class of all natural numbers. Theorem 85. The class ω is a set. PROOF: Pick an inductive set I (by the Axiom of Infinity), then apply Axiom to I . \square Theorem 86. The set ω is inductive, and is a subset of every inductive. Easy. \square Corollary 86.1 (Proof by Induction). Any inductive subclass of ω ω . Theorem 87. Every natural number except \emptyset is the successor of so number. PROOF: Easy proof by induction. \square
sets. A function $f:A\to B$ is strictly monotone iff, for all $x,y\in A$ then $f(x)< f(y)$. Theorem 79. Let A and B be linearly ordered sets and $f:A\to B$ monotone. For all $x,y\in A$, if $f(x)< f(y)$ then $x. PROOF: We have f(x)\neq f(y) and f(y)\not< f(x) by trichotomy, hence y\not< x since f is strictly monotone, hence x< y by trichotomy. \square Theorem 80. Every strictly monotone function is injective. PROOF: If f(x)=f(y), then we have f(x)\not< f(y) and f(y)\not< f chotomy, hence x\not< y and y\not< x since f is strictly monotone, hence trichotomy. \square 12 Natural Numbers Definition 81 (Successor). The successor of a set a is the set a^+= Definition 82 (Inductive). A class A is inductive iff \emptyset\in A and \forall a\in A axiom 83 (Infinity). There exists an inductive set. Definition 84 (Natural Number). A natural number is a set that every inductive set. We write \omega for the class of all natural numbers. Theorem 85. The class \omega is a set. PROOF: Pick an inductive set I (by the Axiom of Infinity), then apple Axiom to I. \square Theorem 86. The set \omega is inductive, and is a subset of every inductive mature. Corollary 86.1 (Proof by Induction). Any inductive subclass of \omega and \omega. Theorem 87. Every natural number except \emptyset is the successor of so number. PROOF: Easy proof by induction. \square$
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 $y \not< x$ since f is strictly monotone, hence $x < y$ by trichotomy. \square Theorem 80. Every strictly monotone function is injective. PROOF: If $f(x) = f(y)$, then we have $f(x) \not< f(y)$ and $f(y) \not< f$ chotomy, hence $x \not< y$ and $y \not< x$ since f is strictly monotone, hence trichotomy. \square 12 Natural Numbers Definition 81 (Successor). The successor of a set a is the set $a^+ = $ Definition 82 (Inductive). A class \mathbf{A} is inductive iff $\emptyset \in \mathbf{A}$ and $\forall a \in $ Axiom 83 (Infinity). There exists an inductive set. Definition 84 (Natural Number). A natural number is a set that every inductive set. We write ω for the class of all natural numbers. Theorem 85. The class ω is a set. PROOF: Pick an inductive set I (by the Axiom of Infinity), then apple Axiom to I . \square Theorem 86. The set ω is inductive, and is a subset of every inductive set. Corollary 86.1 (Proof by Induction). Any inductive subclass of ω ω . Theorem 87. Every natural number except \emptyset is the successor of so number. PROOF: Easy proof by induction. \square
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PROOF: If $f(x) = f(y)$, then we have $f(x) \not< f(y)$ and $f(y) \not< f$ chotomy, hence $x \not< y$ and $y \not< x$ since f is strictly monotone, hence trichotomy. \square 12 Natural Numbers Definition 81 (Successor). The successor of a set a is the set $a^+ =$ Definition 82 (Inductive). A class \mathbf{A} is inductive iff $\emptyset \in \mathbf{A}$ and $\forall a \in \mathbf{A}$ Axiom 83 (Infinity). There exists an inductive set. Definition 84 (Natural Number). A natural number is a set that every inductive set. We write ω for the class of all natural numbers. Theorem 85. The class ω is a set. PROOF: Pick an inductive set I (by the Axiom of Infinity), then application to I . \square Theorem 86. The set ω is inductive, and is a subset of every inductive PROOF: Easy. \square Corollary 86.1 (Proof by Induction). Any inductive subclass of ω ω . Theorem 87. Every natural number except \emptyset is the successor of so number. PROOF: Easy proof by induction. \square
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every inductive set. We write ω for the class of all natural numbers. Theorem 85. The class ω is a set. PROOF: Pick an inductive set I (by the Axiom of Infinity), then applied Axiom to I . \square Theorem 86. The set ω is inductive, and is a subset of every inductive PROOF: Easy. \square Corollary 86.1 (Proof by Induction). Any inductive subclass of ω ω . Theorem 87. Every natural number except 0 is the successor of so number. PROOF: Easy proof by induction. \square
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Axiom to I . \square Theorem 86. The set ω is inductive, and is a subset of every indule Proof: Easy. \square Corollary 86.1 (Proof by Induction). Any inductive subclass of ω ω . Theorem 87. Every natural number except 0 is the successor of so number. Proof: Easy proof by induction. \square
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Corollary 86.1 (Proof by Induction). Any inductive subclass of ω ω . Theorem 87. Every natural number except 0 is the successor of so number. PROOF: Easy proof by induction. \square
ω . Theorem 87. Every natural number except 0 is the successor of so number. PROOF: Easy proof by induction. \Box
number. Proof: Easy proof by induction. \Box
· -
Definition 88 (Peano System). A <i>Peano system</i> is a triple $\langle N, S, e \rangle$
of a set N, a function $S: N \to N$ and an element $e \in N$ such that:
11

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

Theorem 90. 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 91. 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 90.

Theorem 92. $\langle \omega, \sigma, 0 \rangle$ 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 $n \notin 0$.

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

PROOF: If $m^+ = n^+$ then $m = \bigcup (m^+) = \bigcup (n^+) = n$ using Theorems 90 and 91

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

Theorem 93. The set ω 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 94 (Recursion Theorem on ω). 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 ω ,

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

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

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Theorem 95. 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 ω 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.

13 Finite Sets

Definition 96 (Finite). A set is *finite* iff it is equinumerous with a natural number. Otherwise it is infinite.

Theorem 97. 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 \text{ran } f

PROOF: Since ran g \subseteq \text{ran } f.

\langle 3 \rangle 2. n \in \text{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 \text{ran } f.
```

Corollary 97.1. No finite set is equinumerous with a proper subset of itself.

Corollary 97.2. The set ω is infinite.

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

Corollary 97.3. Every finite set is equinumerous with a unique natural number.

Lemma 98. Let n be a natural number and $C \subseteq n$. Then there exists $m \in n$ such that $C \approx m$.

Proof:

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\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 $m \subseteq n$ 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 $m \in n$.

Corollary 98.1. Any subset of a finite set is finite.

14 Cardinal Numbers

Definition 99 (Cardinality). TODO

Theorem 100. For any sets A and B, |A| = |B| if and only if $A \approx B$.

Proof: TODO \square

Theorem 101. For any finite set A, |A| is the natural number such that $A \approx |A|$.

PROOF: TODO

Definition 102. We write \aleph_0 for $|\omega|$.

15 Cardinal Arithmetic

Definition 103 (Addition). Let κ and λ be any cardinal numbers. Then $\kappa + \lambda = |K \cup L|$, where K and L are any disjoint sets of cardinality κ and λ 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.

Lemma 104. For any cardinal number κ we have $\kappa + 0 = \kappa$.

PROOF: Since for any set K we have $K \cup \emptyset = K$.

Lemma 105. For any natural number n we have $n + \aleph_0 = \aleph_0$.

Proof: Easy. \square

Lemma 106.

$$\aleph_0 + \aleph_0 = \aleph_0$$

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 107.

$$\kappa + \lambda = \lambda + \kappa$$

Proof: Easy. \square

Theorem 108.

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

Proof: Easy.

Definition 109 (Multiplication). Let κ and λ be any cardinal numbers. Then $\kappa \lambda = |K \times L|$, where K and L are any sets of cardinality κ and λ respectively.

It is easy to prove this well-defined.

Lemma 110. For any cardinal number κ we have $\kappa 0 = 0$.

PROOF: For any set K we have $K \times \emptyset = \emptyset$. \square

Proof: Induction on n using Lemma 106. \square Lemma 112. $\aleph_0 \aleph_0 = \aleph_0$ PROOF: Define $f: \omega \times \omega \to \omega$ by $f(m,n) = 2^m(2n+1) - 1$. Then f is a bijection. \square Lemma 113. $\kappa 1 = \kappa$ Proof: Easy. \square Theorem 114. $\kappa\lambda = \lambda\kappa$ Proof: Easy. Theorem 115. $\kappa(\lambda\mu) = (\kappa\lambda)\mu$ Proof: Easy. Theorem 116. $\kappa(\lambda + \mu) = \kappa\lambda + \kappa\mu$ Proof: Easy. **Definition 117** (Exponentiation). Let κ and λ be any cardinal numbers. Then $\kappa^{\lambda} = |K^L|$, where K and L are any sets of cardinality κ and λ respectively. It is easy to prove this well-defined. **Theorem 118.** For any cardinal κ , $\kappa^0 = 1$. PROOF: For any set K, there is only one function $\emptyset \to K$, namely \emptyset . \square **Theorem 119.** For any non-zero cardinal κ , we have $0^{\kappa} = 0$. PROOF: For any nonempty set K, there is no function $K \to \emptyset$. \square **Theorem 120.** For any set A, $|\mathcal{P}A| = 2^{|A|}$. 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 120.1. For any cardinal κ , we have $\kappa \neq 2^{\kappa}$. Theorem 121. $\kappa^{\lambda+\mu} = \kappa^{\lambda}\kappa^{\mu}$ Proof: Easy.

Lemma 111. For any natural number n we have $n\aleph_0 = \aleph_0$.

Theorem 122. $(\kappa\lambda)^{\mu} = \kappa^{\mu}\lambda^{\mu}$ Proof: Easy. Theorem 123. $(\kappa^{\lambda})^{\mu} = \kappa^{\lambda\mu}$ Proof: Easy. Arithmetic 16 **Lemma 124.** For any natural numbers m and n, we have $m+n^+=(m+n)^+$. PROOF: Induction on n. **Lemma 125.** For any natural numbers m and n we have $mn^+ = mn + m$. PROOF: Induction on n. 17 Ordering on the Natural Numbers **Lemma 126.** 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 = nPROOF: $m^{+} = n^{+} \in n^{++}$ $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \forall m, n \in \omega(m^+ \in n^+ \Rightarrow m \in n)$

Lemma 127. For any natural number n we have $n \notin n$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $m, n \in \omega$ $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Assume: $m^+ \in n^+$

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

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ m \in m^+$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ m \in n$

PROOF: If $m^+ \in n$ this follows because n is transitive (Theorem 91).

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Proof:
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- $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 0 \notin 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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: $n \in n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ n^+ \in n \text{ or } n^+ = n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ n \in n^+$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ n \in n$

PROOF: If $n^+ \in n$ this follows because n is transitive (Theorem 91).

Theorem 128 (Trichotomy Law for ω). 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 127.

If $m \in n$ and $n \in m$ then $m \in m$ by Theorem 91, contradicting Lemma 127.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 126 so $n^+ \in m$ or $n^+ = m$.

Corollary 128.1. The relation \in is a linear ordering on ω .

Corollary 128.2. 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 91.

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

Proof: Lemma 127.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. 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 129. 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 126. \square

Theorem 130. For any non-zero natural number p, the function that maps n to np is strictly monotone.

Proof: Easy induction on p using Theorem 129. \square

Theorem 131 (Strong Induction). Let A be a subset of ω 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. \Box

Theorem 132 (Well-Ordering of ω). Every nonempty subset of ω has a least element.

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

Corollary 132.1. There is no function $f : \omega \to \omega$ such that f(n+1) < f(n) for every n.

Lemma 133. 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 $\forall m \in n^+. \exists p \in \omega. n^+ = m + p^+$

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\langle 3 \rangle1. Let: n \in \omega

\langle 3 \rangle2. Assume: \forall m \in n. \exists p \in \omega. n = m + p^+

\langle 3 \rangle3. Let: m \in n^+

\langle 3 \rangle4. Case: m \in n

\langle 4 \rangle1. Pick p such that n = m + p^+

\langle 4 \rangle2. n^+ = m + p^{++}
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 $\langle 3 \rangle 5$. Case: m = n

PROOF: $n^+ = m + 0^+$

Lemma 134. For natural numbers m, n, p and q, if $m \in n$ 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 133.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $mp + nq = mq + np + (a^+ + b)^+$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ mp + nq \in mq + np$

PROOF: Lemma 133.

18 The Integers

Theorem 135. 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 ω^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 ω .

Definition 136. The set \mathbb{Z} of *integers* is the quotient set $(\omega \times \omega)/\sim$.

Lemma 137. 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 138 (Addition). Addition + on \mathbb{Z} is the binary operation such that

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

PROOF: From the definition. \square
Theorem 140. Addition on \mathbb{Z} is associtative.
Proof: Easy. \square
Definition 141 (Zero). The zero in the integers is $0 = [(0,0)]$.
Theorem 142. For any integer a we have $a + 0 = 0$.
Proof: Easy. \square
Theorem 143. 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 144. 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. \text{ Assume: } m+n'=m'+n \text{ 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' \\ \square $
Definition 145 (Multiplication). $\textit{Multiplication} \cdot \text{is the binary operation on } \mathbb{Z}$ such that
[(m,n)][(p,q)] = [(mp+nq,mq+np)]
Theorem 146. Multiplication is commutative.
Proof: Easy. \square
Theorem 147. Multiplication is associative.
Proof: Easy. \square
Theorem 148. Multiplication is distributive over addition.
Proof: Easy. \square
Definition 149. The integer one is $1 = [(1,0)]$.
Theorem 150. For any integer a we have $a1 = a$.
Proof: Easy. \square

Theorem 139. Addition on \mathbb{Z} is commutative.

Theorem 151. $0 \neq 1$

Proof: Easy.

Lemma 152. 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 153 (Ordering). The ordering < on \mathbb{Z} is defined by: [(m,n)] < [(p,q)] iff $m+q \in n+p$.

Theorem 154. The relation < is a linear ordering on \mathbb{Z} .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. < is transitive.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. 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 ω .

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Theorem 155. 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 ω .

Corollary 155.1. *If* a + c = b + c *then* a = b.

Theorem 156. 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 134.

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

Lemma 157. For integers a and b, a(-b) = -(ab)

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

Theorem 158. 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.

Theorem 159. 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 160. 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 161 (Positive). An integer a is positive iff 0 < a.

Theorem 162. Define $E: \omega \to \mathbb{Z}$ by E(n) = [(n,0)]. Then E maps ω 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.

19 Equinumerosity

Definition 163 (Equinumerous). Two sets A and B are equinumerous, $A \approx B$, iff there exists a bijection between them.

Theorem 164. Equinumerosity is an equivalence relation on the class of sets.

Proof: Easy.

Theorem 165 (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 $x \notin g(x)$.