

SYLLABUS OF THE COURSE "SET THEORY", SPRING 2016

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Axiom 1 (Class Construction Axiom of Georg Cantor, from (6.)). Given a sentence $p(x)$ there exists a set S such that $x \in S$ if and only if $p(x)$ holds is true.

Definition 1 (The set $k\mathbf{N}$, from (7.)). The set $k\mathbf{N}$ is the set of all the elements n such that the statement $q_k(n) : \exists m$ s.t. $n = km$ is true.

Example 1 (A set $T \in T$, from (11.)). There exists a set T such that $T \in T$. We consider the sentence $p(A) : \#A = \infty$. From the Class Construction Axiom 1 there exists the set $T = \{A \mid p(A)\}$. Since the set $k\mathbf{N}$ is infinite,

$$(\forall k \in \mathbf{N}) k\mathbf{N} \in T.$$

Therefore, $\#T = \infty$, hence $T \in T$.

Example 2 (A set $H \notin H$, from (12.)). We consider the sentence $q(A) : \#A$ is finite. There exists a set H such that $H \in H$. From the Class Construction Axiom 1 there exists the set $H = \{A \mid q(A)\}$. For every natural number n , $\{n\} \in H$. Then H is not finite, hence $H \notin H$.

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24. an example where A2 does not hold, Example 4
25. for every class A , there holds $\emptyset \subseteq A \subseteq \mathcal{U}$ Theorem 1.17, page 29.

Paradox 1 (The Russell Paradox, from (13.)). We define the statement

$$(1) \quad p(x) : x \notin x.$$

By the CCA, there exists a set R such that $x \in R \Leftrightarrow p(x)$. Or, using different notation,

$$(2) \quad R = \{x \mid p(x)\}.$$

Given two sets A, B , either $A \in B$ or $A \notin B$. Then $R \in R$ or $R \notin R$. Suppose that $R \in R$. By (2), $R \in R \Rightarrow p(R)$. By (1), $p(R) \Rightarrow R \notin R$. Then, we obtain a

contradiction. We consider the second case, $R \notin R$. By (1), $R \notin R \Rightarrow p(R)$. By (2), $p(R) \Rightarrow R \in R$, which gives a contradiction, again. In conclusion, the sentence $R \in R$ is neither true or false, which is a paradox.

Example 3 (A1 does not hold, from (21.)). In the example

	C	D
C	1	1
D	0	0

$C = \{C\}$ and $D = \{D\}$. Therefore, C and D have the same elements. Then $C = D$. However, $C \in C$ but $D \notin C$.

Example 4 (A2 does not hold, from (24.)). In the example

	A	B	C
A	1	0	0
B	1	1	0
C	0	1	0

are three sets A, B, C and no proper classes. A1 is satisfied. However, A2 is not satisfied. In fact, $A = \{A, B\}$ and $B = \{B, C\}$ but the intersection $A \cap B = \{B\}$ does not exist. Also, the Universal Class $\mathcal{U} = \{A, B, C\}$ does not exist.

WEEK 3 - LECTURE 1, 2016, MARCH 14

26. A function $f: A \rightarrow B$ is a relation satisfying

$$(F1) \quad (\forall x \in A) \exists y \in B \text{ s.t. } x \sim_f y$$

$$(F2) \quad (x \sim_f y_1) \wedge (x \sim_f y_2) \Rightarrow y_1 = y_2$$

27. range of f , $\text{ran}(f)$: $y \in \text{ran}(f) \Leftrightarrow \exists x \in A \text{ s.t. } f(x) = y$

28. injective functions (INJ): $f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2$

29. surjective functions (SURJ): $(\forall y \in B) \exists x \text{ s.t. } f(x) = y$

30. bijective functions (BIJ): injective and surjective

31. examples of functions

31.1. $f: \mathbf{N} \rightarrow \mathbf{N}$, $f(n) = n + 1$

31.2. identity function: $id_A: A \rightarrow A$, $f(x) = x$

31.3. the restriction, Definition 2

31.4. extension, Definition 3

31.5. characteristic function, χ_B , Definition 4

31.5.1. if χ_B is not SURJ, then either $B = A$ or $B = \emptyset$, Example 5

31.5.2. if $\#A = 2 \times \#B = 2$, then χ_B is injective, Example 6

32. if f is bijective, there exists g such that $f \circ g = id_A$ and $g \circ f = id_B$

33. inverse function

34. equipotent classes, Definition 6

35. direct image, Definition 5

36. inverse image, Definition 5

37. $\check{f}(\bar{f}(C)) \neq C$, Example 7.

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38. Union of two functions, Definition 7
 39. the constant function c_b , (2) of Example 2.13, page 73
 40. when A and B are finite classes $\#A = n$ and $\#B = m$
 40.1. $\exists f: A \rightarrow B$ SURJ $\Leftrightarrow n \geq m$
 40.2. $\exists g: A \rightarrow B$ INJ $\Leftrightarrow n \leq m$
 40.3. $\exists h: A \rightarrow B$ BIJ $\Leftrightarrow n = m$
 41. Bernstein's Lemma, Lemma 1
 42. ordered pairs, (3) of Definition 1.24
 43. cartesian product, (4) of Definition 1.24
 44. graph of a function, Definition 8
 45. the Pair Axiom, Axiom 3, page 61.

Definition 2 (Restriction, from (31.3.)). Given two functions $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: C \rightarrow B$ such that $C \subseteq A$, g is a restriction of f if $f(c) = g(c)$ for every $c \in C$.

Definition 3 (Extension, from (31.4.)). Given two functions $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: C \rightarrow B$ such that $C \subseteq A$, f is an extension of g if and only if $f(c) = g(c)$ for every $c \in C$.

Definition 4 (Characteristic Function, from (31.5.)). Given a subclass $B \subseteq A$, the characteristic function of B , in notation $\chi_B: A \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$, is defined as

$$\chi_B(x) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in B \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin B. \end{cases}$$

Example 5 (From (31.5.1.)). If χ_B is not surjective, then either $0 \notin \text{ran}(\chi_B)$ or $1 \notin \text{ran}(\chi_B)$. If $0 \notin \text{ran}(\chi_B)$, then $B = A$. If $1 \notin \text{ran}(\chi_B)$, then $B = \emptyset$.

Example 6 (From (31.5.2.)). Suppose that $\#A = 2$ and $\#B = 1$. Let $x_1, x_2 \in A$ such that $\chi_B(x_1) = \chi_B(x_2)$ and $x_1 \neq x_2$. Then Only one between x_1 and x_2 belongs to B , because $\#B = 1$. Therefore, if x_1 belongs to B , then x_2 does not belong to B . Then $\chi_B(x_1) = 1 \neq \chi_B(x_2) = 0$. Similarly, if $x_1 \notin B$ and $x_2 \in B$, we obtain $\chi_B(x_1) = 0 \neq \chi_B(x_2) = 1$.

Definition 5 (Direct and inverse image, from (35.) and (36.)). Given two classes $C \subseteq A$ and $D \subseteq B$, we define

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{f}(C) &:= \{y \in B \mid \exists x \in C \text{ s.t. } f(x) = y\} \\ \check{f}(D) &:= \{x \in A \mid f(x) \in D\}. \end{aligned}$$

Given two functions $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: C \rightarrow B$ such that $C \subseteq A$, f is an extension of g if and only if $f(c) = g(c)$ for every $c \in C$.

Definition 6 (From (34.)). Two classes A, B are equipotent if there exists $f: A \rightarrow B$ bijective. On this case, we use the notation $A \approx B$. Equivalently, we say that "the cardinality of $\#A$ " is equal to "the cardinality of B " and the notation $\#A = \#B$ is also used.

Example 7 (From (37.)). We consider the function with domain $A := \{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$, in $B := \{y_1, y_2\}$, defined as $f(x_1) = f(x_2) = y_1$ and $f(x_3) = y_2$. We set $C := \{x_2\}$. Then $\bar{f}(C) = \{y_1\}$ and $\check{f}(\bar{f}(C)) = \{x_1, x_2\} \neq \{x_2\} = C$.

Definition 7 (Union of two functions, from (38.)). If $f: B \rightarrow A$ and $g: C \rightarrow A$ are two functions and $B \cap C = \emptyset$ then

$$f \cup g(x) := \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } x \in B \\ g(x) & \text{if } x \in C \end{cases}$$

is a function.

Lemma 1 (Bernstein's Lemma, from (41.)). If there exists an injective function $f: A \rightarrow B$ and an injective function $g: B \rightarrow A$, then there exists a bijective function $h: A \rightarrow B$. That is $A \approx B$.

Definition 8 (Graph of a function, from (44.)). Given a function $f: A \rightarrow B$ its graph is the class

$$\text{graph}(f) := \{(x, y) \in A \times B \mid y = f(x)\}.$$

WEEK 4 - LECTURE 1, 2016, MARCH 21

- 46. If $(a, b) = (c, d)$, then $a = c$ and $b = d$, Theorem 1.26, page 46
- 47. Exercise 1
- 48. if A2 and A3 holds, given two sets x, y , the class (x, y) exists, Remark 1
- 49. graphs, (1) of Definition 1.30, page 50
- 50. domain and range of a graph, (4) of Definition 1.30, page 50 and 51
- 51. inverse graph, (2) of Definition 1.30, page 50
- 51.1. $(G^{-1})^{-1} = G$, (2) in Theorem 1.32, page 51
- 51.2. $\text{dom}(G) = \text{ran}(G^{-1})$, (1) in Theorem 1.33, page 52
- 51.3. $\text{ran}(G) = \text{dom}(G^{-1})$, (2) Theorem 1.33, page 52
- 52. composite graph, (3) Definition 1.30, page 50
- 52.1. $(G \circ H)^{-1} = H^{-1} \circ G^{-1}$, (3) in Theorem 1.32, page 51
- 53. Example 8.

Remark 1 (Ordered pairs exist, from (48.)). Given two sets x, y the ordered pair (x, y) exists. In fact, by the Class Construction Axiom (A2), there are the classes $\{x\}$ and $\{x, y\}$. By A3, $\{x\}$ and $\{x, y\}$ are sets. By A2, again, there exists the class $\{\{x\}, \{x, y\}\}$.

Exercise 1 (From (47.)). Given two sets $a \neq b$, the class $\{\{a, b\}\}$ is not an ordered pair. On the contrary, there are x, y sets such that

$$\{\{a, b\}\} = \{\{x\}, \{x, y\}\}.$$

The left class is a singleton while the right one is a pair. Then

$$\{a, b\} = \{x\} = \{x, y\} \Rightarrow a = b \Leftrightarrow \neg(a \neq b).$$

Example 8 (From (53.)). In the following example we want to recognize sets, proper classes, the universal class, pairs, ordered pairs and graphs

	a	b	c	U	Sets:	a, b, c
a	1	1	0	1	proper classes:	U
b	0	1	1	1	Universal Class:	U
c	0	0	0	1	pairs:	a, b, c
U	0	0	0	0	ordered pairs:	$a = (a, a), b = (a, b)$
					$\mathcal{U} \times \mathcal{U}$:	b
					graphs:	$a, b, c.$

The Pair Axiom holds, because all the pairs are also sets. The Class Construction Axiom does not hold, because, for instance, \emptyset does not exist. Or, we can argue like this: a and b are sets, so, if A2 holds, by Remark 1, (b, a) should exist. But it does not.

By definition, graphs are subclasses of $\mathcal{U} \times \mathcal{U} = U \times U$. In turn $U \times U = \{(a, a), (a, b)\} = \{a, b\} = b$. Subclasses of b are a, b, c . Here we also observe that

$$b = \{(a, a), (a, b)\}, \quad b^{-1} = \{(a, a)\}$$

because (b, a) does not exist. If we take the inverse graph one more time $(b^{-1})^{-1} = \{(a, a)\} = a \neq b$. Therefore, here we have a clear example of how a simple property as $(G^{-1})^{-1}$ fails if A3 and A2 are not satisfied at the same time.

WEEK 4 - LECTURE 2, 2016, MARCH 24

- 54. Solutions of the exercises of week three
- 55. functions, (1) of Definition 2.3
- 56. if $\text{dom}(f) = \text{dom}(g)$ then $f \subseteq g \Rightarrow f = g$, Theorem 2.10, page 71
- 57. composition of two functions is a function, Theorem 2.16, page 76.

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- 58. Remarks about the assignments:
 - 58.1. $g \circ f = id_A$ does not imply f bijective, Remark 2
 - 58.2. $B \neq \emptyset$ does not imply $A - B \neq A$, Remark 3
- 59. examples of functions
 - 59.1. id_A , (1) of Example 2.13, page 72
 - 59.2. characteristic functions χ_B , (4) of Example 2.13, page 73
- 60. injective and surjective functions, Definition 2.11, page 71
- 61. definitions equivalent to bijective functions, Theorem 1.

Remark 2 (From (58.1.)). We define $f: A := \{0, 1\} \rightarrow B := \{a, b, c\}$ as $f(0) = a$ and $f(1) = b$. We define $g: B \rightarrow A$ as $g(a) = 0$ and $g(b) = 1$. Then $g \circ f = id_A$, but f is not surjective.

Remark 3 (From (58.2.)). We define $A := \{0, 1\}$ and $B = \{2\}$. Then $B \neq \emptyset$ but $A - B = A$. If $C = \{1\}$, then $A - C = \{0\} \neq A$.

Theorem 1 (From (61.)). Given a function $f: A \rightarrow B$, the following statements are equivalent:

- (a) f is bijective
- (b) f is invertible
- (c) $(f^{-1} \circ f = id_A) \wedge (f \circ f^{-1} = id_B)$
- (d) $\exists g: B \rightarrow A$ s.t. $(f \circ g = id_B) \wedge (g \circ f = id_A)$.

Proof. (a) \Rightarrow (b). Suppose that f is bijective. Then

$$\text{dom}(f) = A \text{ and } \text{ran}(f) = B \Rightarrow \text{dom}(f^{-1}) = B \text{ and } \text{ran}(f^{-1}) = A.$$

We prove F2:

$$(y_1, x), (y_2, x) \in f^{-1} \Rightarrow (x, y_1), (x, y_2) \in f \Rightarrow y_1 = y_2$$

because f is injective. Then $f^{-1}: B \rightarrow A$ is a function.

(b) \Rightarrow (c). Since f^{-1} is a function, both compositions are functions. From (56.), it is enough to show that

$$f^{-1} \circ f \subseteq id_A$$

because $\text{dom}(f^{-1} \circ f) = \text{dom}(f) = A$, by (57.). If $(x, z) \in f^{-1} \circ f$ there exists y such that

$$(x, y) \in f \Rightarrow (y, x) \in f^{-1}, \quad (y, z) \in f^{-1}.$$

By F2, $x = z$. Thus $(x, z) \in id_A$.

Now, we prove that

$$f \circ f^{-1} \subseteq id_B.$$

Given $(z, x) \in f \circ f^{-1}$, there exists y such that

$$(z, y) \in f^{-1} \Rightarrow (y, z) \in f \\ (y, x) \in f.$$

By F2, $x = z$. Then $(z, x) \in id_B$.

(c) \Rightarrow (d). It follows by setting $g := f^{-1}$.

(d) \Rightarrow (a). Firstly, we show that

$$g \circ f = id_A \Rightarrow f \text{ INJ.}$$

Given $x_1, x_2 \in A$ and $y \in B$ such that

$$(x_1, y), (x_2, y) \in f.$$

Since

$$B = \text{dom}(id_B) = \text{dom}(f \circ g) \subseteq \text{dom}(g),$$

y belongs to $\text{dom}(g)$. Then, there exists $z \in A$ such that $(y, z) \in g$. Then

$$(x_1, z), (x_2, z) \in g \circ f \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2 = z.$$

We show that $f \circ g = id_B$ implies that f is surjective. In fact,

$$B = \text{ran}(f \circ g) \subseteq \text{ran}(f).$$

□

WEEK 5 - LECTURE 2, 2016, MARCH 31

62. Exercise using A2 and A3: if there are two sets, there exists a third set, Exercise 2

63. $f: A \rightarrow B$ INJ if and only $(\forall y \in B) \check{f}(\{y\})$ is a singleton, Proposition 1

64. generalized unions and intersections, (2) of Definition 1.39, page 55

64.1. singletons: $\cup\{A\} = \cap\{A\} = A$

64.2. Exercise 6, page 59

64.3. Remark: $\cup\mathcal{A}$ and $\cap\mathcal{A}$ are not defined when $\mathcal{A} = \emptyset$

65. subsets, Definition 1.46, page 61

66. the subsets Axiom, Axiom 4, page 61

66.1. Example 9

66.2. if A is a set and B is a class, then $A \cap B$ is a set, Consequence 1

66.3. if $C \subseteq D$ and C is a proper class, then D is a proper classes, Consequence 2

66.4. if A2 holds, then \mathcal{U} is a proper class, Consequence 3 (check Remark 1.47, page 61)

66.5. if A2 holds, then \emptyset is a set, Consequence 4

67. the Union Axiom, Axiom 5, page 61, Example 10

67.1. if A2, A3 and A5 hold, union of sets is a set, (2) of Theorem 1.48, page 62.

Exercise 2 (From (62.)). If A2 and A3 hold, and there are two sets, then there are infinitely many sets.

Solution. Let x, y be two sets such that $x \neq y$. By A2 and A3, the classes

$$a := \{x\}, \quad b := \{y\}, \quad c := \{x, y\}$$

exist and are set. Moreover, if any of these sets are equal to each other, we obtain $x = y$. □

Proposition 1 (A2, from (63.)). Given $f: A \rightarrow B$, f is injective if and only if for every $y \in B$, the class $\check{f}(\{y\})$ is a singleton or the empty class.

Proof. Suppose that f is injective and that $\check{f}(\{y\}) \neq \emptyset$. Let x_1, x_2 be elements of $\check{f}(\{y\}) \neq \emptyset$. Then $f(x_1), f(x_2) \in \{y\}$. Then $f(x_1) = y = f(x_2)$. Conversely, we can prove that f is injective. Let $x_1, x_2 \in A$ such that $y := f(x_1) = f(x_2)$. Then

$$x_1 \in \check{f}(\{y\}), \quad x_2 \in \check{f}(\{y\}) \Rightarrow \check{f}(\{y\}) \neq \emptyset.$$

From the assumptions, $\check{f}(\{y\})$ is empty or is a singleton. Since it is non-empty, it must be a singleton. Then $x_1 = x_2$. \square

Example 9 (From (66.1.)). In the following example Axiom 4 is not satisfied

x	A	Sets:	x
x	$1 \quad 0$	proper classes:	A
A	$0 \quad 0$	$x \subseteq A$	

Consequence 1 (From (66.2.)). If A is a set and B is a class, then $A \cap B$ is a set.

Proof. $A \cap B \subseteq A$. By A4, B is a set. \square

Consequence 2 (From (66.3.)). If $C \subseteq D$ and C is a proper class, then D is a proper class.

Proof. On the contrary, D is a set. Then, by A4, C is a set. But C is a proper class. \square

Consequence 4 (From (66.5.)). If the empty class exists, and there exists a set, then \emptyset is a set.

Proof. Let A be a set. Then $\emptyset \subseteq A$. By A4, \emptyset is a set. \square

Example 10 (From (67.)). In the following example the union of two sets exists, but it is not a set

x	y	\mathcal{U}	Sets:	x, y
x	$1 \quad 0$	1	proper classes:	\mathcal{U}
y	$0 \quad 0$	1	$x \cup y = \mathcal{U}$	
\mathcal{U}	$0 \quad 0$	0		

WEEK 6 - LECTURE 1, 2016, APRIL 4

68. The Power Set, $\mathcal{P}(A)$ or 2^A , Definition 1.50, page 62

69. the Power Set Axiom, Axiom 6, page 62

70. Exercise 3

71. equivalence relations, (1), (3) and (4) of Definition 3.2, page 96

Exercise 3 (From (70.)). In the example,

\in	x	y	z	t	U	Sets:	x, y, z, t
x	0	0	0	1	1	Proper Classes:	U
y	0	0	1	0	1	Pairs:	x, y, z, t
z	0	1	0	0	1	Ordered pairs:	$x = (x, x)$ and $t = (t, t)$.
t	1	1	0	0	0		
U	0	0	0	0	0		

$$\# \mathcal{U} = \{x, y, z, t\}, \quad \# z \times z, \quad \# U \times U = \{x, t\}.$$

Axioms: if it is red, it is not satisfied. If it is blue, it is satisfied

A2: $\# \mathcal{U}$

A3: all the pairs are sets

A4:

subsets of x : x (it is a set)
 subsets of y : y, t (they are sets)
 subsets of z : z (it is a set)
 subsets of t : t (it is a set)

A5:

$$\cup x = t, \quad \cup y = z \cup t = \{x, y\}, \quad \cup z = y, \quad \cup t = x.$$

A6:

$2^x = \{x, \emptyset\} = \{x\} = t$ which is a set
 $2^y = \{\emptyset, \{z\}, \{t\}, y\} = \{, , x, y\}$ which does not exist
 $2^z = \{\emptyset, z\} = \{, z\}$ which does not exist
 $2^t = \{t, \emptyset\} = \{t, \dots\} = \{t\} = x$

WEEK 6 - LECTURE 2, 2016, APRIL 7

72. An example of equivalence relation,

$$(n, m) \sim (h, k) \Leftrightarrow n + k = m + h$$

Example 11

73. equivalence classes, (2) of Definition 3.7, page 100

74. the quotient set, (3) of Definition 3.7, page 101

75. properties of the equivalence relation and the quotient set, Proposition 2

76. graphs are not functions, Exercise 4

77. order relations, (9) of Definition 3.2, page 96.

Example 11 (From (72.)). In $A = \mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{N}$ we consider the equivalence relation

$$(n, m) \sim (h, k) \Leftrightarrow n + k = m + h.$$

We prove that this is an equivalence relation.

(R).

$$(n, m) \sim (n, m) \Leftrightarrow n + m = m + n.$$

Then the reflexive property follows from the fact that the sum is commutative.

(S).

$$(n, m) \sim (h, k) \Rightarrow n + k = m + h \Rightarrow h + m = n + k \Rightarrow (h, k) \sim (n, m).$$

(T). Suppose that

$$(n, m) \sim (h, k) \wedge (h, k) \sim (a, b).$$

Then

$$n + k = m + h, \quad h + b = k + a.$$

We want to prove that $(n, m) \sim (a, b)$. That is, $n + b = m + a$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} (n + b) + h &= n + (h + b) = n + (k + a) \\ &= (n + k) + a = (m + h) + a = (m + a) + h \end{aligned}$$

which implies $n + b = m + a$.**Proposition 2.** Given an equivalence relation (A, G) the following properties hold:

- (i) for every $x \in A$, $x \in G_x$
- (ii) given $x, y \in A$, there holds

$$(G_x \cap G_y \neq \emptyset) \Rightarrow (G_x = G_y).$$

- (iii) $\cup(A/G) = A$.

Proof.

(i). Let $x \in A$. Since G is reflexive, $(x, x) \in G$. Then $x \in G_x$.

(ii). Let x and y be such that $z \in G_x \cap G_y \neq \emptyset$. Let $w \in G_x$. Since G is symmetric,

$$(w, x) \in G \Rightarrow (x, w) \in G.$$

Since $z \in R_x$, we have $(x, z) \in G$. The relation G is transitive. Then

$$(w, x) \in G \wedge (x, z) \in G \Rightarrow (w, z) \in G.$$

Since $z \in G_y$, we have $(y, z) \in G$. From (S), we have $(z, y) \in G$. Then

$$(w, z) \in G \wedge (z, y) \in G \Rightarrow (w, y) \in G.$$

Then $w \in G_y$. By switching the role of x and y , we obtain the reversed inclusion $G_y \subseteq G_x$. Then $G_x = G_y$.

(iii). If $x \in A$, from (i) we have $x \in G_x$. By definition of quotient set, $G_x \in A/G$. Then

$$x \in G_x \in A/G$$

gives $x \in \cup(A/G)$. Conversely, if $x \in A/G$, there exists $H \in A/G$ such that $x \in H$. Since H is an equivalence class, there exists $y \in A$ such that $H = G_y$. Because $G_y \subseteq A$, we can conclude that $x \in A$. \square

Exercise 4 (From (76.)). Let $f: A \rightarrow A$ be a function. As a function, it is also a graph. In general, a function is not an equivalence relation unless $f = id_A$. In fact, let $(x, y) \in f$. Since $x \in A$, and f is an equivalence relation, $(x, x) \in f$. By property F2, $(x, y), (x, x) \in f$ implies $x = y$.

WEEK 7 - LECTURE 1, 2016, APRIL 11

78. Examples of order relations

78.1. \mathbf{N} with $nRm \Leftrightarrow n \mid m$

78.2. if A is a class, $x \leq y \Leftrightarrow x \subseteq y$

79. comparable elements, (1) of Definition 4.6, page 117

80. fully ordered classes (FOC), (2) of Definition 4.6, page 117

81. chains, (2) of Definition 4.6, page 117

82. representation of the order relations

$$R_1 := \{(0, 0), (1, 1), (2, 2), (0, 1), (0, 2)\}, \quad A = \{0, 1, 2\}$$

$$R_2 := id_B \cup \{(0, 1), (1, 2), (0, 2), (0, 3), (1, 3)\}, \quad B = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$$

83. maximal chains, Definition 9.

Definition 9 (Maximal Chains, from (83.)). Given a partially ordered class (A, \leq) a subclass $C \subseteq A$ is a maximal chain if it is a chain and for every chain D there holds

$$C \subseteq D \Rightarrow C = D.$$

WEEK 7 - LECTURE 2016, APRIL 14

84. The Hausdörff's Maximum Principle, Theorem 5.18, page 166

85. exercises from the past midterms and finals, Exercises 5-9

Exercise 5. Let (\mathbf{N}, \leq) be the order relation defined as $x \leq y : \exists k$ s.t. $y = kx$. Prove that there exists a maximal chain.

Proof. A maximal chain is given by $M := \{2^n \mid n \geq 0\}$. In fact, let D be a chain such that $M \subseteq D$. We prove that $D = M$. Let $d \in D$. There exists two non-negative integers a, b such that

$$2^a \leq d < 2^b$$

Since $2^a, 2^b \in D$, the element d is comparable to both of them. Then

$$2^a \mid d \mid 2^b.$$

Then, there are k_a and k_b such that

$$2^b = k_a d, \quad d = k_a 2^a.$$

Then

$$2^b = k \times 2^a, \quad k := k_a k_b.$$

Then $k = 2^{b-a}$. Since k_a and k_b are natural numbers, they are powers of 2. Since $d = k_a 2^a$, the element d is also a power of 2. Then $d \in M$. \square

Exercise 6. For each of the following statements mark whether is true or false.

- (i) A is a set if and only if there exists x such that $x \in A$
- (ii) A is a proper class if and only if for every $b \in A$ there holds $b \neq A$
- (iii) x is a set if $x \neq \emptyset$ and there exists B such that $x \in B$
- (iv) x is a set if and only if $x \cap A$ is a set for every class A .

Solution.

(i). Both implications are false. The left implication is false. If A is set, by A2 and A4, and Consequence 1, \emptyset is a set. However, there is no x such that $x \in A$; the right implication is false as well. For instance, from A2, A4 and Consequence 3, \mathcal{U} is a proper class, and it is non-empty because $\emptyset \in \mathcal{U}$.

(ii). False. The left implication is true: if A is a proper class it is different from every set (including the sets which are elements of A), by A1. The right implication is false: for instance, if \emptyset is a set, then $1 := \{\emptyset\}$ is a set, by A3, but is different from all its elements.

(iii). False. The right implication is true. The left implication is false: for instance, consider the \emptyset .

(iv). True. If x is a set, and A is a class, then $x \cap A$ is a set, by A2, A4 and Consequence 1 $x \cap A$ is a set. The converse implication is also true: if $x \cap A$ is a set for every class A , then $x \cap A$ is a set if $A = x$. Then $x \cap x = x$ is a set. \square

Exercise 7 (A1-A6). Let D be the class defined with the Class Construction Axiom

$$y \in D \Leftrightarrow \exists x(y = \{x\}).$$

Show that D is a proper class.

Proof. We argue by contradiction. Suppose that D is a set. Then, by A5, $\cup D$ is a set. However, we can show that $\cup D = \mathcal{U}$. In fact, given $x \in \mathcal{U}$, the singleton $\{x\}$ exists by A2. By A3, $\{x\}$ is a set. Then $\{x\} \in D$. If we set $y := \{x\}$, then

$$x \in y \in D \Rightarrow x \in \cup D.$$

By A5, $\cup D$ should be a set. But it is equal to \mathcal{U} . Then, by A1, \mathcal{U} should be a set as well, giving a contradiction with Consequence 3. \square

Exercise 8. True or false? explain!

- (1) A2 is equivalent to: $\exists \emptyset, \mathcal{U}$
- (2) for every classes X, A , either $X \in A$ or $X \in A'$
- (3) $1 \in 0 \Rightarrow \mathcal{U}$ is a set

(4) let $G, H \subseteq A \times B$ graphs. Then $G \subseteq H \Rightarrow H^{-1} \subseteq G^{-1}$

Solution.

(1) False. Certainly A2 implies the existence of \emptyset and \mathcal{U} . But the converse is not true. This is an example

\in	x	y	\mathcal{U}
x	0	0	0
y	0	1	1
\mathcal{U}	0	0	1

There exists $\emptyset = x$ and \mathcal{U} . However, there is no $\{x\}$.

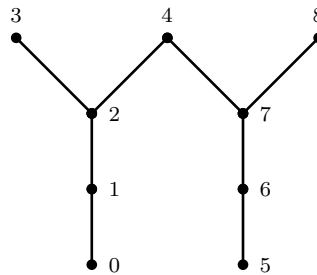
- (2) False. If X is a proper class, it does not satisfy it.
 (3) True. Because $1 \in 0$ is false.
 (4) False. For instance, if there are at least two sets x, y , we can define.

$$G = \{(x, x)\}, \quad H = \mathcal{U} \times \mathcal{U}.$$

Of course $G \subseteq H$. However, $G^{-1} = G$ and $H^{-1} = H$. And $H \subseteq G$ is not true, because $(x, y) \in H$ and $(x, y) \notin G$.

□

Exercise 9. The following graph represents an order relation



Find the maximal chains.

Solutions. The maximal chains are

$$\{0, 1, 2, 3\}, \quad \{0, 1, 2, 4\}, \quad \{5, 6, 7, 4\}, \quad \{5, 6, 7, 8\}.$$

□

WEEK 8 - LECTURE 1, 2016, APRIL 18

86. Exercises 10-14

Exercise 10 (A1 + A2 + A3). Given A, B be two non-empty classes. Prove that $\cup(\cup A \times B) = A \cup B$.

Solution. Let $a \in A$ and $b \in B$ two elements. By A2 and A3, the ordered pair (a, b) exists. Then $\{a, b\} \in (a, b) \in A \times B$. Then $\{a, b\} \in \cup A \times B$. Then

$$a, b \in \{a, b\} \in \cup A \times B.$$

Therefore, $a, b \in \cup(\cup A \times B)$. Then $A \cup B \subseteq \cup(\cup A \times B)$. We prove the converse inclusion. Suppose that $x \in \cup(\cup A \times B)$. Then there exists $y \in \cup A \times B$ such that

$$x \in y \in \cup A \times B.$$

Then, there exists z such that $x \in y \in z \in A \times B$. Then, there are a and b such that $z = (a, b)$. Then $x \in y \in (a, b)$. This means that $y = \{a\}$ or $y = \{a, b\}$. If $y = \{a\}$, then $x = a \in A \subseteq A \cup B$. If $y = \{a, b\}$, then $(x = a) \vee (x = b)$ which means $x \in A \cup B$. \square

Exercise 11. Let $B \neq \emptyset$ be a proper class. Show that $B \times B$ is a proper class.

Solution. Since $B \neq \emptyset$, there exists $b \in B$. Then $(b, b) \in B \times B$, so $B \times B$ is non-empty and it is possible to consider $\cup B \times B$. Since $(b, b) \in B \times B$, we have $\{b\} \in \cup B \times B$. Therefore, $\cup B \times B$ is non-empty and it is possible to define $\cup(\cup B \times B)$.

We argue by contradiction. Suppose that $B \times B$ is a set. Then, by A5, $\cup B \times B$ is a set. Again, by A5, $\cup(\cup B \times B)$ is a set. Finally, by Exercise 10, $\cup(\cup B \times B) = B \cup B = B$ and we obtain that B is a set and, thus, a contradiction. \square

Exercise 12. Let (A, \leq) be a partially ordered class. We consider the relation:

$$xGy \Leftrightarrow x \text{ is comparable to } y.$$

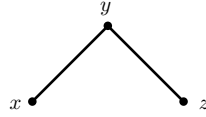
Check whether G is symmetric, reflexive and transitive.

Solution.

(R). G is reflexive: xGx if and only if x is comparable to x . Which is true, because $x = x$ (therefore $x \leq x$).

(S). G is symmetric: if xGy , then x is comparable to y , that is $(x \leq y) \vee (y \leq x)$, which is equivalent to $(y \leq x) \vee (x \leq y)$.

(R). G is not transitive: there could be x, y, z such that x is comparable to y , y is comparable to z , but x is not comparable to z , as the next example shows:



Formally, we are considering the order relation

$$A = \{x, y, z\}, \quad R = id_A \cup \{(x, y), (x, z)\}.$$

\square

Exercise 13 (A1 + A2 + A3). Given a class $A \neq \emptyset$, we define the order relation

$$B_1 \leq B_2 \Leftrightarrow B_1 \subseteq B_2$$

for every $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{P}(A)$. Suppose that $(\mathcal{P}(A), \leq)$ is a fully-ordered class. Show that A is a set.

Solution. We can prove that A is a singleton. By A3, A is a set. Let $x, y \in A$ be two elements. From A2, $\{x\}$ and $\{y\}$ exist. From A3, $\{x\}$ and $\{y\}$ are sets. Then $\{x\}, \{y\} \in \mathcal{P}(A)$. Since $\mathcal{P}(A)$ is a fully ordered class, $\{x\}$ is comparable to $\{y\}$. Then

$$(\{x\} \subseteq \{y\}) \vee (\{y\} \subseteq \{x\}).$$

In both cases, $x = y$. Since A is non-empty, A is a singleton. Then A is a set. \square

Exercise 14. In the example

\in	x	y	z	T	U
x	0	0	0	1	0
y	0	1	1	0	0
z	1	0	1	1	0
T	0	0	0	0	0
U	0	0	0	0	0

find sets, proper classes, singletons, pairs, ordered pairs. Moreover, determine whether each of the following classes exists and to which of the classes x, y, z, T, U they correspond:

$$z \times x, \quad y \times z, \quad (y \times z) \times T, \quad y \times (z \times T)$$

$$\mathcal{P}(x), \quad \mathcal{P}(y), \quad \mathcal{P}(z), \quad \mathcal{P}(T)$$

$$\cup x, \quad \cap T$$

$$id_z: z \rightarrow z$$

a bijective function from x to y

a bijective function from y to x .

Solution.

Sets: x, y, z

proper classes: T, U

pairs: x, y, z, T

ordered pairs: $y = (y, y), z = (y, z), T = (z, y)$.

Now we look at the products:

$$z \times x = x, \quad y \times z = z, \quad (y \times z) \times T = z \times T = x, \quad y \times (z \times T) = y \times x = x.$$

We look at the power sets:

$$\# \mathcal{P}(x) = \{x\}, \quad \mathcal{P}(y) = y$$

$$\# \mathcal{P}(z) = \{\{y\}, \{z\}, \{y, z\}\} = \{x, y, z\}, \quad \# \mathcal{P}(T) = \{x\}.$$

Therefore, the Power Axiom is satisfied. Because, for every set A , either $\mathcal{P}(A)$ does not exist or $\mathcal{P}(A)$ is a set. We have

$$\cup x = z, \quad \cap T = x \cap z = x.$$

Functions. The identity id_z exists, but it is not a function. In fact, $id_z = \{(y, y), (z, z)\} = \{y\} = y$, but $\text{dom}(id_z) = \{y\} = \{y, z\}$. Because x and y are singletons, there is (at most) one function from x to y , namely

$$f := \{(z, y)\} = \{T\} = \emptyset = U.$$

So, f is not a function from x to y . However, there is one bijective function from y to x which is $g := \{(y, z)\} = \{z\} = x$. Then $x: y \rightarrow x$ is a bijective function. Therefore, $\neg(x \approx y)$ but $y \approx x$. \square

2016, APRIL 25 - WEEK 9, LECTURE 1

87. Solutions of the exercises of the midterm exam

88. if A, B are sets, then $A \times B$ is a set, Theorem 1.54, page 63

89. given a graph $f \subseteq A \times B$, satisfying F2, $f: \text{dom}(f) \rightarrow B$ is a function.

2016, APRIL 28 - WEEK 9, LECTURE 2

90. $\#A \leq \#B$: there exists $f: A \rightarrow B$ injective
 91. $\#B \geq \#A$: there exists $g: B \rightarrow A$ surjective
 92. if $\#A \leq \#B$, then $\#B \geq \#A$, Theorem 2.24, page 80
 93. Choice Function, Definition 5.3, page 156.

2016, MAY 2 - WEEK 10, LECTURE 1

94. The Choice Axiom (A8), Axiom 8, page 158
 95. an application: if B is a set, $\#B \geq \#A$ then $\#A \leq \#B$, Theorem 5.9, page 160
 96. A8 is equivalent to the Hausdörff Maximum Principle Theorem 5.26, page 171
 97. solution of the Exercise 15 (Homeoworks Week 7).

Exercise 15 (From (97.)). Prove that $\mathbf{N} \approx \mathbf{N} \times \{0, 1\}$.

A bijective function is defined as

$$g(n) := \begin{cases} \left(\frac{n}{2}, 0\right) & \text{if } n \in 2\mathbf{N} \\ \left(\frac{n-1}{2}, 1\right) & \text{if } n \in 2\mathbf{N} - 1. \end{cases}$$

2016, MAY 9 - WEEK 11, LECTURE 1

98. Given two sets A, B , then $\#A \leq \#B$ or $\#B \leq \#A$

Theorem 2 (A1-A6+HMP). Given two non-empty sets A, B , either $\#A \leq \#B$ or $\#B \leq \#A$.

Proof. We define the S the class of the injective functions f such that $\text{dom}(f) \subseteq A$ and $\text{ran}(f) \subseteq B$. Since A and B are sets, $A \times B$ is a set. Since we $f \subseteq A \times B$, we have $f \in \mathcal{P}(A \times B)$. By A6 and A4, S is a set. In S we define the order relation

$$f \leq g \Leftrightarrow f \subseteq g.$$

By the Hausdörff Maximum Principle, there exists a maximal chain C . We set $h := \cup C$. Clearly,

$$(3) \quad (\forall f \in C) f \subseteq h.$$

We claim that

- (i) h is an injective function
- (ii) $\text{dom}(h) = A$ or $\text{ran}(h) = B$.

- (i). Let $(a, b_1), (a, b_2)$ be two elements of h . Then there exist f_1, f_2 , such that

$$(a, b_1) \in f_1 \in C, \quad (a, b_2) \in f_2 \in C.$$

Since C is a chain, the elements f_1, f_2 are comparable. Then $f_1 \subseteq f_2$ or $f_2 \subseteq f_1$. On the first case, we have

$$(a, b_1), (a, b_2) \in f_1.$$

Since f_1 is a function, we obtain $b_1 = b_2$. We prove that h is injective. Given $(a_1, b), (a_2, b) \in h$, there are f_1, f_2 , such that

$$(a_1, b) \in f_1 \in C, \quad (a_2, b) \in f_2 \in C.$$

Since C is a chain, the elements f_1, f_2 are comparable. Then $f_1 \subseteq f_2$ or $f_2 \subseteq f_1$. On the first case, we have

$$(a_1, b), (a_2, b) \in f_1.$$

Since f_1 is injective, a function, we obtain $a_1 = a_2$.

(ii). Suppose that $\text{dom}(f) \neq A$ and $\text{ran}(f) \neq B$. Then there are $a_* \in A - \text{dom}(f)$ and $b_* \in B - \text{ran}(f)$. We define

$$(4) \quad h_* := h \cup \{(a_*, b_*)\} \supsetneq h.$$

which is injective function. From (3) and the inclusion above, $D := C \cup \{h_*\}$ is a chain. Since C is a maximal chain, $D = C$. Then $h_* \in C$. From (3), we obtain $h_* \subseteq h$ which contradicts (4).

Now, if $\text{dom}(h) = A$, then $h: A \rightarrow B$ is an injective function and $\#A \leq \#B$.

We look at the case $\text{ran}(h) = B$. If $\text{dom}(h) = A$, then h is bijective and $\#A = \#B$. Suppose that $\text{dom}(h) \subsetneq A$. Since $B \neq \emptyset$, there exists $b_0 \in B$. We define

$$h_0 := h \cup \{(x, b_0) \mid x \in A - \text{dom}(h)\}.$$

Then $\text{dom}(h_0) = A$ and $\text{ran}(h_0) = B$. So, $h_0: A \rightarrow B$ is surjective, then $\#A \geq \#B$. By Theorem 5.9 (page 160 of the textbook), $\#B \leq \#A$, which concludes the proof. \square

2016, MAY 12 - WEEK 11, LECTURE 2

99. Successor of a set, Definition 6.1, page 174

100. Successor sets, Definition 6.3, page 175

101. Axiom of Infinity, Axiom 9, page 175

102. definition of ω , Definition 10

103. ω is a successor set, Proposition 3

104. definition of \mathbf{N} , Definition 6.6, page 176

105. if $y \in \omega$, then $y^+ \neq 0$, Theorem 6.7, page 176

106. Finite Mathematical Induction, Theorem 6.8, page 176

107. transitive sets, Definition 6.10, page 176

108. every $y \in \omega$ is a transitive set, Lemma 6.11, page 177

109. given $y, z \in \omega$, if $y^+ = z^+$, then $y = z$, Theorem 6.12, page 177

110. homeworks: prove that $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{U}) = \mathcal{U}$.

Definition 10 (From (102.)). We set

$$G := \{Y \mid Y \text{ is a successor set}\}.$$

By Axiom 9, $G \neq \emptyset$. Therefore, we can define $\omega := \cap G$.

Proposition 3 (From (103.)). ω is a successor set.

Proof. ω is a set, because $\omega \subseteq X$ and X is a set (A4). Clearly $0 \in \omega$ because $0 \in Y$ for every $Y \in G$. Now, suppose that $y \in \omega$. Then $y \in Y$ for every $Y \in G$. Since Y is a successor set, $y^+ \in Y$ for every $Y \in G$. Then $y^+ \in \cap G = \omega$. \square

2016, MAY 16 - WEEK 12, LECTURE 1

111. The order relation in ω : $n \leq m$ if $n \in m$ or $n = m$, Theorem 6.28, page 187

112. least elements, (4) of Definition 4.18, page 126

113. minimal elements, (2) of Definition 4.18, page 126

114. Well-ordered classes (WOC), Definition 4.50, page 142

115. WOC \Rightarrow FOC, Remark 4.51, page 142.

2016, MAY 19 - WEEK 12, LECTURE 2

116. Solutions of the exercises 2, 5 of Week 7 and exercises 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 of Week 9.

2016, MAY 20 - WEEK 12, LECTURE 3

117. If $n < m$, then $n^+ \leq m$, Lemma 6.30, page 188
 118. (ω, \leq) is well-ordered, Theorem 6.31, page 188
 119. the notation $\#A < \#B$: there is no surjective function from A to B
 120. finite sets, (1) of Definition 7.23, page 202
 121. infinite sets, (2) of Definition 7.23, page 202
 122. countable sets (or denumerable sets), A is countable if $\#A \leq \#\omega$
 123. $\mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{N}$ is countable.
 124. \mathbf{R} is not countable, Theorem 7.4, page 196
 125. solution of the exercise 6 of Week 9.

2016, MAY 23 - WEEK 13, LECTURE 1

126. Solution of the Exercise 16 and Exercise 17
 127. $\cup n \subseteq n$, Proposition 4
 128. $\cup n \in \omega$ for every $n \in \omega$, Proposition 5
 129. $\cup(n^+) = n$, Proposition 6

Exercise 16 (From (126.)). $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{U}) = \mathcal{U}$.

Solution. $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{U}) \subseteq \mathcal{U}$ because every class is a subclass of \mathcal{U} . We prove the converse inclusion: if $B \in \mathcal{U}$, then B is a set. Since every class is a subclass of \mathcal{U} , we have

$$B \text{ is a set and } B \subseteq \mathcal{U}$$

which means $B \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{U})$. □

Exercise 17 (From (126.)). Find a maximal chain in $(\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{N}), \subseteq)$.

Proof. We define $\mathbf{N}_k := \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ for every $k \in \mathbf{N}$. $\mathcal{C} := \{\emptyset, \mathbf{N}_k, \mathbf{N} \mid 1 \leq k\}$. Clearly, any two sets in \mathcal{C} are comparable to each other, then it is a chain. We prove that it is a maximal chain. Let \mathcal{D} be a chain such that $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$. We prove that $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{C}$. Suppose A is in \mathcal{D} . Then, we have two cases:

- (1). $\mathbf{N}_k \subseteq A$ for every $k \geq 1$. This implies $A = \mathbf{N}$. Then $A \in \mathcal{C}$.
 (2). There exists k_0 such that $\neg(\mathbf{N}_{k_0} \subseteq A)$. Since \mathcal{D} is a chain, there holds $A \subsetneq \mathbf{N}_{k_0}$. Then A is a finite set. If $A = \emptyset$, then $A \in \mathcal{C}$. If $A \neq \emptyset$ then we define $k_1 := \#A$. We claim that $A = \mathbf{N}_{k_1}$. In fact, A is comparable to \mathbf{N}_{k_1} . Then, for instance $A \subseteq \mathbf{N}_{k_1}$. However $\#A = \#(\mathbf{N}_{k_1})$ implies $A = \mathbf{N}_{k_1}$. Then $A \in \mathcal{C}$. □

Proposition 4 (From (127.)). For every $n \in \omega - \{0\}$ there holds $\cup n \subseteq n$

Solution. If $x \in \cup n$, there exists y such that $x \in y \in n$. Since n is transitive, $x \in y \subseteq n$ which implies $x \in n$. □

Proposition 5 (From (128.)). For every $n \in \omega - \{0\}$, there holds $\cup n \in \omega$.

Solution. We define $L := \{n \in \omega - \{0\} \mid \cup n \in \omega\}$. We prove that $L = \omega$. Since $0 \in L$, we only need to prove that $n \in L \Rightarrow n^+ \in L$. If $n = 0$, then $n^+ = 1$ and $\cup(n^+) = 0 \in \omega$. Now, suppose that $n \neq 0$. Then

$$\cup(n^+) = \cup(n \cup \{n\}) = (\cup n) \cup n \subseteq n \in \omega.$$

The last inclusion follows from Proposition 4. The last membership relation follows from the simple $n \in \omega$. □

Proposition 6 (From (129.)). For every $n \in \omega$ there holds $\cup(n^+) = n$.

Solution. In fact, $\cup(n^+) = \cup(n \cup \{n\}) = (\cup n) \cup n = n$. The last equality follows from Proposition 4. \square

2016, MAY 26 - WEEK 13, LECTURE 2

130. For every $n \in \omega - \{0\}$ there holds $(\cup n)^+ = n$, Proposition 7

131. if $n \approx m$ then $n = m$, Proposition 8

132. $A < 2^A$, Theorem 7.5, page 196

133. definition of cardinals, Definition 8.2, page 213

134. sum of cardinals, Definition 8.5, page 214

135. products of cardinals, Definition 8.5, page 214.

Proposition 7 (From (130.)). For every $n \in \omega - \{0\}$ there holds $(\cup n)^+ = n$, Proposition 7.

Solution. We use the Induction Principle. We define

$$L := \{n \in \omega - \{0\} \mid (\cup n)^+ = n\}.$$

Clearly, $0 \in L$. Suppose that $n \in L$. Then $n^+ \neq 0$. From Proposition 6, $(\cup n^+)^+ = n^+$. \square

Proposition 8 (From (131.)). If $n \approx m$ then $n = m$.

Proof. We use the induction and define

$$L := \{n \in \omega - \{0\} \mid \forall m (n \approx m \Rightarrow n = m)\} \cup \{0\}.$$

Clearly, $0 \in L$. Suppose that $n \in L$. We wish to prove that

$$\forall m (n^+ \approx m \Rightarrow n^+ = m).$$

Suppose that $n^+ \approx m$. Then $n \approx \cup m$. From Proposition 5, $\cup m \in \omega$. Since $n \in L$ then $n = \cup m$. Then $n^+ = (\cup m)^+$. From Proposition 6, $n^+ = m$. \square

2016, MAY 30 - WEEK 14, LECTURE 1

136. If $f: A \rightarrow B$ is bijective and $C \subseteq A$, then $A - C \approx B - \bar{f}(C)$, Proposition 9

137. given a class A and $a, b \in A$, then $A - \{a\} \approx B - \{b\}$, Proposition 10

138. if $n, m \in \omega$, then $n \approx m$, then $n = m$, Proposition 11

139. if $C \approx C'$, $D \approx D'$ and

$$C \cap D = C' \cap D' = \emptyset$$

then $C \cup D \approx C' \cup D'$, Proposition 12

140. if $C \approx C'$ and $D \approx D'$, then $C \times D \approx C' \times D'$, Proposition 13

141. exponentiation of cardinals, Definition 8.8, page 215

142. the Bernstein's Lemma, Theorem 8.14, page 219

143. Exercise 18,

144. Exercise 19.

Proposition 9 (From 136.). If $f: A \rightarrow B$ is bijective and $C \subseteq A$, then $A - C \approx B - \bar{f}(C)$

Proof. We consider the restriction of f to the subclass $A - C$. We show that $\bar{f}(A - C) \subseteq B - \bar{f}(C)$. In fact, given $y \in \bar{f}(A - C)$, there exists $x \in A - C$ such that $f(x) = y$. We claim that $y \notin \bar{f}(C)$. Otherwise, there exists $x' \in C$ such that $f(x') = y$. Since $x \notin C$ we have $x' \neq x$ but $f(x) = f(x')$. However, this contradicts the fact that f is injective. Then

$$f: A - C \rightarrow B - \bar{f}(C)$$

is a function. We prove that f is surjective. In fact, given $y \in B - \bar{f}(C)$, there exists $x \in A$ such that $f(x) = y$. Since $y \notin \bar{f}(C)$, clearly, $x \notin C$. Then $x \in A - C$. \square

Proposition 10 (From 137.). Given a class A and $a, b \in A$, then $A - \{a\} \approx B - \{b\}$.

Proof. A bijective function is given by $g := \{(x, x) \mid x \notin \{a, b\}\} \cup \{(b, a)\}$. \square

Proposition 11 (From 138.). Given $n, m \in \omega - \{0\}$, there holds $n \approx m \Rightarrow n = m$.

Proof. We use the induction. We define

$$L := \{n \in \omega - \{0\} \mid n \approx m \Rightarrow n = m\} \cup \{0\}.$$

Clearly, $0 \in L$. Suppose that $n \in L$ and $n^+ \approx m$. We want to prove that $n^+ = m$. Then there exists a bijective function $f: n^+ \rightarrow m$. We define $a := f(n)$. By Proposition 9, applied with $C = \{n\}$, we have $n^+ - \{n\} \approx m - \{a\}$. By Proposition 10, $m - \{a\} \approx m - \{\cup m\}$. Then

$$n^+ - \{n\} \approx m - \{\cup m\}.$$

Since $n \notin n$, the left set is equal to n . From Proposition 7, the right set is equal to $\cup m$. Therefore, $n \approx \cup m$. Since $n \in L$, we have $n = \cup m$. Then $(n)^+ = (\cup m)^+$. By Proposition 7, $(\cup m)^+ = m$. \square

Proposition 12 (From 139.). If $C \approx C'$, $D \approx D'$ and $C \cap D = C' \cap D' = \emptyset$, then $C \cup D \approx C' \cup D'$.

Proof. Let $f: C \rightarrow C'$ and $g: D \rightarrow D'$ be two bijective functions. Then $h := f \cup g: C \cup D \rightarrow C' \cup D'$ is a bijective function. \square

Proposition 13 (From 140.). If $C \approx C'$ and $D \approx D'$, then $C \times D \approx C' \times D'$.

Proof. Let $f: C \rightarrow C'$ and $g: D \rightarrow D'$ be two bijective functions. Then $h(c, d) = (f(c), g(d))$ is a bijective function from $C \times D$ to $C' \times D'$. \square

Exercise 18 (From 143.). There is no set y such that $y^+ = \{2\}$.

Solution. On the contrary, we have $y \in y^+ = \{2\}$. Then $y \in \{2\}$ implies $y = 2$. This implies $2^+ = \{0, 1, 2\} = \{2\}$ which implies $0 = 1 = 2$, which is not possible because $0 = \emptyset$ and $2 \neq \emptyset$. \square

Exercise 19 (From 144.). There exists a proper class \mathcal{A} such that $\mathcal{A} \neq \mathcal{U}$ and

- (i) $0 \in \mathcal{A}$
- (ii) $y \in \mathcal{A} \Rightarrow y^+ \in \mathcal{A}$.

Solution. For instance, there is $\mathcal{A} := \mathcal{U} - \{\{2\}\}$. Clearly, $0 \in \mathcal{A}$, so (i) is satisfied. Suppose that $y \in \mathcal{A}$. By Exercise 19, it is not possible that $y^+ = \{2\}$. That is $y^+ \in \mathcal{A}$. \square

2016, MAY 30 - WEEK 14, LECTURE 2

145. Exercises 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28.

Exercise 20. Is it true that for every class \mathcal{A} , there holds $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \cup \mathcal{A}$? Is it true that for every class \mathcal{A} , there holds $\cup \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$?

Proof. Both inclusion are false, and there is a counterexample for both. Consider $\mathcal{A} := \{1\}$. Then $\cup \mathcal{A} = 1$. Clearly, $\{1\} \not\subseteq 1 = \{0\}$, because $0 \neq 1$. Similarly, $\{0\} \not\subseteq \{1\}$ for the same reason. \square

Exercise 21. $\omega \notin \omega$.

Proof. If $\omega \in \omega$, then $n := \omega$ is a natural number. Thus, $n \in n$, which is not possible. \square

Exercise 22. There is no set A such that $A^+ = \omega$.

Proof. No, there is not. Otherwise, $A \cup \{A\} = \omega$ gives $A \in \omega$. Since ω is a successor set, $A^+ \in \omega$. Then $\omega \in \omega$, which contradicts Exercise 21. \square

Exercise 23. Let B be a proper class. Show that $B \times B$ is a proper class.

Proof. We argue by contradiction. Suppose that $B \times B$ is a set. By Exercise 1 of Week Seven, $\cup(\cup B \times B) = B \cup B = B$. By A5, $\cup(\cup B \times B)$ is a set. Then B is a set, and we obtain a contradiction. \square

Exercise 24. If $A - B \approx B - A$, then $A \approx B$

Proof. Let f be a bijective function from $A - B$ to $B - A$. We define $g := f \cup id_{A \cap B}$. \square

Exercise 25. Let $C \subseteq A$ and $D \subseteq B$ such that $A \approx B$ and $C \approx D$. Is it true that $A - C \approx B - D$?

Proof. It is false. For instance, consider $A := \omega$, $C = 2\omega$, $B = \omega$ and $D = \omega - \{0\}$. Then

$$A = B, \quad C = 2\omega \approx \omega \approx \omega - \{0\} = D.$$

However, $A - C = 2\omega - 1$ is not equipotent to $B - D = \{0\}$. \square

Exercise 26. For each of the following statements say whether it is true or false.

- (i) $A = \{x \mid \exists y(y^+ = x)\}$ is a successor class
- (ii) $B = \{y \mid y \text{ is transitive}\}$ is a successor class.

Proof. A is not a successor class, because $0 \notin A$; B is a successor class. In fact, $0 \in B$. Moreover, if y is transitive, then we can show that y^+ is transitive. In fact, given $x \in y^+$, either $x \in y$, implying $x \subseteq y \subseteq y^+$, because y is transitive, or $x = y \subseteq y^+$. \square

Exercise 27. Show that $(\omega \times \omega) \times \omega \approx \omega$.

We apply the relation $\omega \times \omega \approx \omega$ two times:

$$(\omega \times \omega) \times \omega \approx \omega \approx (\omega) \times \omega \approx \omega.$$

Exercise 28. If A is not finite, then $\omega \leq A$.

Proof. We consider the class

$$S := \{f \subseteq \omega \times A \mid \text{dom}(f) \in \omega \text{ and } f \text{ INJ}\}.$$

From Exercise 6 of Week 9, S is a set. We consider the order relation $f \leq g : f \subseteq g$. By the Hausdörff Maximum Principle, there exists a maximal chain $\mathcal{C} \subseteq S$. We define $f_* := \cup \mathcal{C}$.

$f_* \subseteq \omega \times A$ is an injective function. We claim that $\text{dom}(f_*) = \omega$. On the contrary, $\text{dom}(f_*) \subsetneq \omega$. We set

$$B := \{m \in \omega \mid m \notin \text{dom}(f_*)\}.$$

We set $n := \min(B)$. Then $\text{dom}(f_*) = \min(B)$. Moreover, there exists $a \in A - \text{ran}(f_*)$. Otherwise $f_* : n \rightarrow A$ would be bijective and $A \approx n$ which contradicts the assumption that A is not finite. Then, we define

$$f_{**} := f_* \cup \{(n, a)\}$$

which is injective. Then $\mathcal{D} := \mathcal{C} \cup \{f_{**}\} \supsetneq \mathcal{C}$ contradicts the fact that \mathcal{C} is a maximal chain.

Then $\text{dom}(f_*) = \omega$. Then $f_* : \omega \rightarrow A$ is an injective function. \square