# Set Theory <br> 2012/13 

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Die Mengenlehre ist das Fundament der gesamten Mathematik
(Felix Hausdorff,
Grundzuge der Mengenlehre, 1914)

## 1 Introduction

Georg Cantor characterized sets as follows:
Unter einer Menge verstehen wir jede Zusammenfassung $M$ von bestimmten, wohlunterschiedenen Objekten $m$ unsrer Anschauung oder unseres Denkens (welche die "Elemente" von $M$ genannt werden) zu einem Ganzen.

Felix Hausdorff in Grundzuge formulated shorter:
Eine Menge ist eine Zusammenfassung von Dingen zu einem Ganzen, d.h. zu einem neuen Ding.

Sets are ubiquitous in mathematics. According to Hausdorff
Differential- und Integralrechnung, Analysis und Geometrie arbeiten in Wirklichkeit, wenn auch vielleicht in verschleiernder Ausdrucksweise, bestandig mit unendlichen Mengen.

In current mathematics, many notions are explicitely defined using sets. The following example indicates that notions which are not set-theoretical prima facie can be construed settheoretically:
$f$ is a real funktion $\equiv f$ is a set of ordered pairs $(x, f(x))$ of real numbers, such that ... ;
$(x, y)$ is an ordered pair $\equiv(x, y)$ is a set $\ldots\{x, y\} \ldots$;
$x$ is a real number $\equiv x$ is a left half of a Dedekind cut in $\mathbb{Q} \equiv x$ is a subset of $\mathbb{Q}$, such that ...;
$r$ is a rational number $\equiv r$ is an ordered pair of integers, such that ...;
$z$ is an integer $\equiv z$ is an ordered pair of natural numbers ( $=$ non-negative integers);
$\mathbb{N}=\{0,1,2, \ldots\} ;$
0 is the empty set;
1 is the set $\{0\}$;
2 is the set $\{0,1\}$; etc. etc.
We shall see that all mathematical notions can be reduced to the notion of set
Besides this foundational role, set theory is also the mathematical study of the infinite. There are infinite sets like $\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}$ which can be subjected to the constructions and analyses of set theory; there are various degrees of infinity which lead to a rich theory of infinitary combinatorics.

In this course, we shall first apply set theory to obtain the standard foundation of mathematics and then turn towards "pure" set theory.

## 2 The Language of Set Theory

If $m$ is an element of $M$ one writes $m \in M$. If all mathematical objects are reducible to sets, both sides of these relation have to be sets. This means that set theory studies the $\in$-relation $m \in M$ for arbitrary sets $m$ and $M$. As it turns out, this is sufficient for the purposes of set theory and mathematics. In set theory variables range over the class of all sets, the $\in$-relation is the only undefined structural component, every other notion will be defined from the $\in$-relation. Basically, set theoretical statement will thus be of the form

$$
\ldots \forall x \ldots \exists y \ldots \ldots x \in y \ldots u \equiv v \ldots
$$

belonging to the first-order predicate language with the only given predicate $\in$.
To deal with the complexities of set theory and mathematics one develops a comprehensive and intuitive language of abbreviations and definitions which, eventually, allows to write familiar statements like

$$
e^{i \pi}=-1
$$

and to view them as statements within set theory.
The language of set theory may be seen as a low-level, internal language. The language of mathematics possesses high-level "macro" expressions which abbreviate low-level statements in an efficient and intuitive way.

## 3 Russell's Paradox

Cantor's naive description of the notion of set suggests that for any mathematical statement $\varphi(x)$ in one free variable $x$ there is a set $y$ such that

$$
x \in y \leftrightarrow \varphi(x),
$$

i.e., $y$ is the collection of all sets $x$ which satisfy $\varphi$.

This axiom is a basic principle in Gottlob Frege's Grundgesetze der Arithmetik, 1893, Grundgesetz V, Grundgesetz der Wertverlaufe.

Bertrand Russell noted in 1902 that setting $\varphi(x)$ to be $x \notin x$ this becomes

$$
x \in y \leftrightarrow x \notin x,
$$

and in particular for $x=y$ :

$$
y \in y \leftrightarrow y \notin y .
$$

Contradiction.
This contradiction is usually called RusSell's paradox, antinomy, contradiction. It was also discoved slightly earlier by Ernst Zermelo. The paradox shows that the formation of sets as collections of sets by arbitrary formulas is not consistent.

## 4 The Zermelo-Fraenkel Axioms

The difficulties around Russell's paradox and also around the axiom of choice lead Zermelo to the formulation of axioms for set theory in the spirit of the axiomatics of David Hilbert of whom Zermelo was an assistant at the time.

Zermelo's main idea was to restrict Frege's Axiom V to formulas which correspond to mathematically important formations of collections, but to avoid arbitrary formulas which can lead to paradoxes like the one exhibited by Russell.

The original axiom system of Zermelo was extended and detailed by Abraham Fraenkel (1922), Dmitry Mirimanoff (1917/20), and Thoralf Skolem.

We shall discuss the axioms one by one and simultaneously introduce the logical language and useful conventions.

### 4.1 Set Existence

The set existence axiom

$$
\exists x \forall y \neg y \in x
$$

like all axioms, is expressed in a language with quantifiers $\exists$ ("there exists") and $\forall$ ("for all"), which is familiar from the $\epsilon$ - $\delta$-statements in analysis. The language of set theory uses variables $x, y, \ldots$ which may satisfy the binary relations $\in$ or $=: x \in y$ (" $x$ is an element of $y$ ") or $x=y$. These elementary formulas may be connected by the propositional connectives $\wedge$ ("and"), $\vee$ ("or"), $\rightarrow$ ("implies"), $\leftrightarrow$ ("is equivalent"), and $\neg$ ("not"). The use of this language will be demonstrated by the subsequent axioms.

The axiom expresses the existence of a set which has no elements, i.e., the existence of the empty set.

### 4.2 Extensionality

The axiom of extensionality

$$
\forall x \forall x^{\prime}\left(\forall y\left(y \in x \leftrightarrow y \in x^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow x=x^{\prime}\right)
$$

expresses that a set is exactly determined by the collection of its elements. This allows to prove that there is exactly one empty set.

Lemma 1. $\forall x \forall x^{\prime}\left(\forall y \neg y \in x \wedge \forall y \neg y \in x^{\prime} \rightarrow x=x^{\prime}\right)$.
Proof. Consider $x, x^{\prime}$ such that $\forall y \neg y \in x \wedge \forall y \neg y \in x^{\prime}$. Consider $y$. Then $\neg y \in x$ and $\neg y \in x^{\prime}$. This implies $\forall y\left(y \in x \leftrightarrow y \in x^{\prime}\right)$. The axiom of extensionality implies $x=x^{\prime}$.

Note that this proof is a usual mathematical argument, and it is also a formal proof in the sense of mathematical logic. The sentences of the proof can be derived from earlier ones by purely formal deduction rules. The rules of natural deduction correspond to common sense figures of argumentation which treat hypothetical objects as if they would concretely exist.

### 4.3 Pairing

The pairing axiom

$$
\forall x \forall y \exists z \forall u(u \in z \leftrightarrow u=x \vee u=y)
$$

postulates that for all sets $x, y$ there is set $z$ which may be denoted as

$$
z=\{x, y\} .
$$

This formula, including the new notation, is equivalent to the formula

$$
\forall u(u \in z \leftrightarrow u=x \vee u=y) .
$$

In the sequel we shall extend the small language of set theory by hundreds of symbols and conventions, in order to get to the ordinary language of mathematics with notations like

$$
\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{R}, \sqrt{385}, \pi,\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right), \int_{a}^{b} f^{\prime}(x) \mathrm{dx}=f(b)-f(a), \text { etc. }
$$

Such notations are chosen for intuitive, pragmatic, or historical reasons.
Using the notation for unordered pairs, the pairing axiom may be written as

$$
\forall x \forall y \exists z z=\{x, y\} .
$$

By the axiom of extensionality, the term-like notation has the expected behaviour. E.g.:
Lemma 2. $\forall x \forall y \forall z \forall z^{\prime}\left(z=\{x, y\} \wedge z^{\prime}=\{x, y\} \rightarrow z=z^{\prime}\right)$.

## Proof. Exercise.

Note that we implicitly use several notational conventions: variables have to be chosen in a reasonable way, for example the symbols $z$ and $z^{\prime}$ in the lemma have to be taken different and different from $x$ and $y$. We also assume some operator priorities to reduce the number of brackets: we let $\wedge$ bind stronger than $\vee$, and $\vee$ stronger than $\rightarrow$ and $\leftrightarrow$.

We used the "term" $\{x, y\}$ to occur within set theoretical formulas. This abbreviation is than to be expanded in a natural way, so that officially all mathematical formulas are formulas in the "pure" $\in$-language. We want to see the notation $\{x, y\}$ as an example of a class term. We define uniform notations and convention for such abbreviation terms.

### 4.4 Class Terms

The extended language of set theory contains class terms and notations for them. There are axioms for class terms that fix how extended formulas can be reduced to formulas in the unextended $\in$-language of set theory.

Definition 3. $A$ class term is of the form $\{x \mid \varphi\}$ where $x$ is a variable and $\varphi \in L^{\epsilon}$. The usage of these class terms is defined recursively by the following axioms: If $\{x \mid \varphi\}$ and $\{y \mid \psi\}$ are class terms then

- $u \in\{x \mid \varphi\} \leftrightarrow \varphi \frac{u}{x}$, where $\varphi \frac{u}{x}$ is obtained from $\varphi$ by (resonably) substituting the variable $x$ by the variable $u$;
- $\quad u=\{x \mid \varphi\} \leftrightarrow \forall v\left(v \in u \leftrightarrow \varphi \frac{v}{x}\right) ;$
- $\{x \mid \varphi\}=u \leftrightarrow \forall v\left(\varphi \frac{v}{x} \leftrightarrow v \in u\right)$;
- $\quad\{x \mid \varphi\}=\{y \mid \psi\} \leftrightarrow \forall v\left(\varphi \frac{v}{x} \leftrightarrow \psi \frac{v}{y}\right) ;$
- $\{x \mid \varphi\} \in u \leftrightarrow \exists v(v \in u \wedge v=\{x \mid \varphi\} ;$
$-\quad\{x \mid \varphi\} \in\{y \mid \psi\} \leftrightarrow \exists v\left(\psi \frac{v}{y} \wedge v=\{x \mid \varphi\}\right)$.
$A$ term is either a variable or a class term.


## Definition 4.

a) $\emptyset:=\{x \mid x \neq x\}$ is the empty set;
b) $V:=\{x \mid x=x\}$ is the universe (of all sets);
c) $\{x, y\}:=\{u \mid u=x \vee u=y\}$ is the unordered pair of $x$ and $y$.

## Lemma 5.

a) $\emptyset \in V$.
b) $\forall x, y\{x, y\} \in V$.

Proof. a) By the axioms for the reduction of abstraction terms, $\emptyset \in V$ is equivalent to the following formulas

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \exists v(v=v \wedge v=\emptyset) \\
& \exists v v=\emptyset \\
& \exists v \forall w(w \in v \leftrightarrow w \neq w) \\
& \exists v \forall w w \notin v
\end{aligned}
$$

which is equivalent to the axiom of set existence. So $\emptyset \in V$ is another way to write the axiom of set existence.
b) $\forall x, y\{x, y\} \in V$ abbreviates the formula

$$
\forall x, y \exists z(z=z \wedge z=\{x, y\})
$$

This can be expanded equivalently to the pairing axiom

$$
\forall x, y \exists z \forall u(u \in z \leftrightarrow u=x \vee u=y)
$$

So a) and b) are concise equivalent formulations of the axiom Ex and Pair.
We also introduce bounded quantifiers to simplify notation.
Definition 6. Let $A$ be a term. Then $\forall x \in A \varphi \leftrightarrow \forall x(x \in A \rightarrow \varphi)$ and $\exists x \in A \varphi \leftrightarrow \exists x(x \in A \wedge \varphi)$.
Definition 7. Let $x, y, z, \ldots$ be variables and $X, Y, Z, \ldots$ be class terms. Define
a) $X \subseteq Y \leftrightarrow \forall x \in X x \in Y$, $X$ is a subclass of $Y$;
b) $X \cup Y:=\{x \mid x \in X \vee x \in Y\}$ is the union of $X$ and $Y$;
c) $X \cap Y:=\{x \mid x \in X \wedge x \in Y\}$ is the intersection of $X$ and $Y$;
d) $X \backslash Y:=\{x \mid x \in X \wedge x \notin Y\}$ is the difference of $X$ and $Y$;
e) $\bigcup X:=\{x \mid \exists y \in X x \in y\}$ is the union of $X$;
f) $\bigcap X:=\{x \mid \forall y \in X x \in y\}$ is the intersection of $X$;
g) $\mathcal{P}(X):=\{x \mid x \subseteq X\}$ is the power class of $X$;
h) $\{X\}:=\{x \mid x=X\}$ is the singleton set of $X$;
i) $\{X, Y\}:=\{x \mid x=X \vee x=Y\}$ is the (unordered) pair of $X$ and $Y$;
j) $\left\{X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n-1}\right\}:=\left\{x \mid x=X_{0} \vee \ldots \vee x=X_{n-1}\right\}$.

One can prove the well-known boolean properties for these operations. We only give a few examples.

Proposition 8. $X \subseteq Y \wedge Y \subseteq X \rightarrow X=Y$.
Proposition 9. $\cup\{x, y\}=x \cup y$.
Proof. We show the equality by two inclusions:
$(\subseteq)$. Let $u \in \bigcup\{x, y\} . \exists v(v \in\{x, y\} \wedge u \in v)$. Let $v \in\{x, y\} \wedge u \in v .(v=x \vee v=y) \wedge u \in v$.
Case 1. $v=x$. Then $u \in x . u \in x \vee u \in y$. Hence $u \in x \cup y$.
Case 2. $v=y$. Then $u \in y . u \in x \vee u \in y$. Hence $u \in x \cup y$.
Conversely let $u \in x \cup y . u \in x \vee u \in y$.
Case 1. $u \in x$. Then $x \in\{x, y\} \wedge u \in x . \exists v(v \in\{x, y\} \wedge u \in v)$ and $u \in \bigcup\{x, y\}$.
Case 2. $u \in y$. Then $x \in\{x, y\} \wedge u \in x . \exists v(v \in\{x, y\} \wedge u \in v)$ and $u \in \bigcup\{x, y\}$.
Exercise 1. Show: a) $\cup V=V$. b) $\cap V=\emptyset$. c) $\cup \emptyset=\emptyset$. d) $\cap \emptyset=V$.

### 4.5 Ordered Pairs

Combining objects into ordered pairs $(x, y)$ is taken as an undefined fundamental operation of mathematics. We cannot use the unordered pair $\{x, y\}$ for this purpose, since it does not respect the order of entries:

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

We have to introduce some asymmetry between $x$ and $y$ to make them distinguishable. Following Kuratowski and Wiener we define:

Definition 10. $(x, y):=\{\{x\},\{x, y\}\}$ is the ordered pair of $x$ and $y$.
The definition involves substituting class terms within class terms. We shall see in the following how these class terms are eliminated to yield pure $\in$-formulas.

Lemma 11. $\forall x \forall y \exists z z=(x, y)$.

Proof. Consider sets $x$ and $y$. By the pairing axiom choose $u$ and $v$ such that $u=\{x\}$ and $v=$ $\{x, y\}$. Again by pairing choose $z$ such that $z=\{u, v\}$. We argue that $z=(x, y)$. Note that $(x, y)=\{\{x\},\{x, y\}\}=\{w \mid w=\{x\} \vee w=\{x, y\}\}$.
Then $z=(x, y)$ is equivalent to
$\forall w(w \in z \leftrightarrow w=\{x\} \vee w=\{x, y\})$,
$\forall w(w=u \vee w=v \leftrightarrow(w=\{x\} \vee w=\{x, y\})$,
and this is true by the choice of $u$ and $v$.
The Kuratowski-pair satisfies the fundamental property of ordered pairs:
Lemma 12. $(x, y)=\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow x=x^{\prime} \wedge y=y^{\prime}$.
Proof. Assume $(x, y)=\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)$, i.e.,
(1) $\{\{x\},\{x, y\}\}=\left\{\left\{x^{\prime}\right\},\left\{x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right\}\right\}$.

Case 1. $x=y$. Then
$\{x\}=\{x, y\}$,
$\{\{x\},\{x, y\}\}=\{\{x\},\{x\}\}=\{\{x\}\}$,
$\{\{x\}\}=\left\{\left\{x^{\prime}\right\},\left\{x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right\}\right\}$, $\{x\}=\left\{x^{\prime}\right\}$ and $x=x^{\prime}$, $\{x\}=\left\{x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right\}$ and $y^{\prime}=x$.
Hence $x=x^{\prime}$ and $y=x=y^{\prime}$ as required.
Case 2. $x \neq y$. (1) implies $\left\{x^{\prime}\right\}=\{x\}$ or $\left\{x^{\prime}\right\}=\{x, y\}$.
The right-hand side would imply $x=x^{\prime}=y$, contradicting the case assumption. Hence $\left\{x^{\prime}\right\}=\{x\}$ and $x^{\prime}=x$.
Then (1) implies $\{x, y\}=\left\{x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right\}=\left\{x, y^{\prime}\right\}$ and $y=y^{\prime}$.

## Exercise 2.

a) Show that $\langle x, y\rangle:=\{\{x, \emptyset\},\{y,\{\emptyset\}\}\}$ also satisfies the fundamental property of ordered pairs (F. Hausdorff).
b) Can $\{x,\{y, \emptyset\}\}$ be used as an ordered pair?

Exercise 3. Give a set-theoretical formalization of an ordered-triple operation.

### 4.6 Relations and Functions

Ordered pairs allow to introduce relations and functions in the usual way. One has to distinguish between sets which are relations and functions, and class terms which are relations and functions.

Definition 13. $A$ term $R$ is a relation if all elements of $R$ are ordered pairs, i.e., $R \subseteq V \times V$. Also write Rxy or $x$ Ry instead of $(x, y) \in R$. If $A$ is a term and $R \subseteq A \times A$ then $R$ is a relation on $A$.

Note that this definition is really an infinite schema of definitions, with instances for all terms $R$ and $A$. The subsequent extensions of our language are also infinite definition schemas. We extend the term language by parametrized collections of terms.

Definition 14. Let $t(\vec{x})$ be a term in the variables $\vec{x}$ and let $\varphi$ be an $\in$-formula. Then $\{t(\vec{x}) \mid \varphi\}$ stands for $\{z \mid \exists \vec{x}(\varphi \wedge z=t(\vec{x})\}$.

Definition 15. Let $R, S, A$ be terms.
a) The domain of $R$ is $\operatorname{dom}(R):=\{x \mid \exists y x R y\}$.
b) The range of $R$ is $\operatorname{ran}(R):=\{y \mid \exists x x R y\}$.
c) The field of $R$ is field $(R):=\operatorname{dom}(R) \cup \operatorname{ran}(R)$.
d) The restriction of $R$ to $A$ is $R \upharpoonright A:=\{(x, y) \mid x R y \wedge x \in A\}$.
e) The image of $A$ under $R$ is $R[A]:=R^{\prime \prime} A:=\{y \mid \exists x \in A x R y\}$.
f) The preimage of $A$ under $R$ is $R^{-1}[A]:=\{x \mid \exists y \in A x R y\}$.
g) The composition of $S$ and $R$ ("S after $R$ ") is $S \circ R:=\{(x, z) \mid \exists y(x R y \wedge y S z)\}$.
h) The inverse of $R$ is $R^{-1}:=\{(y, x) \mid x R y\}$.

Relations can play different roles in mathematics.
Definition 16. Let $R$ be a relation.
a) $R$ is reflexive iff $\forall x \in \operatorname{field}(R) x R x$.
b) $R$ is irreflexive iff $\forall x \in \operatorname{field}(R) \neg x R x$.
c) $R$ is symmetric iff $\forall x, y(x R y \rightarrow y R x)$.
d) $R$ is antisymmetric iff $\forall x, y(x R y \wedge y R x \rightarrow x=y)$.
e) $R$ is transitive iff $\forall x, y, z(x R y \wedge y R z \rightarrow x R z)$.
f) $R$ is connex iff $\forall x, y \in \operatorname{field}(R)(x R y \vee y R x \vee x=y)$.
g) $R$ is an equivalence relation iff $R$ is reflexive, symmetric and transitive.
$h)$ Let $R$ be an equivalence relation. Then $[x]_{R}:=\{y \mid y R x\}$ is the equivalence class of $x$ modulo $R$.

It is possible that an equivalence class $[x]_{R}$ is not a set: $[x]_{R} \notin V$. Then the formation of the collection of all equivalence classes modulo $R$ may lead to contradictions. Another important family of relations is given by order relations.

Definition 17. Let $R$ be a relation.
a) $R$ is a partial order iff $R$ is reflexive, transitive and antisymmetric.
b) $R$ is a linear order iff $R$ is a connex partial order.
c) Let $A$ be a term. Then $R$ is a partial order on $A$ iff $R$ is a partial order and field $(R)=$ A.
d) $R$ is a strict partial order iff $R$ is transitive and irreflexive.
e) $R$ is a strict linear order iff $R$ is a connex strict partial order.

Partial orders are often denoted by symbols like $\leqslant$, and strict partial orders by $<$. A common notation in the context of (strict) partial orders $R$ is to write

$$
\exists p R q \varphi \text { and } \forall p R q \varphi \text { for } \exists p(p R q \wedge \varphi) \text { and } \forall p(p R q \rightarrow \varphi) \text { resp. }
$$

One of the most important notions in mathematics is that of a function.
Definition 18. Let $F$ be a term. Then $F$ is a function if it is a relation which satisfies

$$
\forall x, y, y^{\prime}\left(x F y \wedge x F y^{\prime} \rightarrow y=y^{\prime}\right)
$$

If $F$ is a function then

$$
F(x):=\{u \mid \forall y(x F y \rightarrow u \in y)\}
$$

is the value of $F$ at $x$.
If $F$ is a function and $x F y$ then $y=F(x)$. If there is no $y$ such that $x F y$ then $F(x)=V$; the "value" $V$ at $x$ may be read as "undefined". A function can also be considered as the (indexed) sequence of its values, and we also write

$$
(F(x))_{x \in A} \text { or }\left(F_{x}\right)_{x \in A} \text { instead of } F: A \rightarrow V .
$$

We define further notions associated with functions.
Definition 19. Let $F, A, B$ be terms.
a) $F$ is a function from $A$ to $B$, or $F: A \rightarrow B$, iff $F$ is a function, $\operatorname{dom}(F)=A$, and range $(F) \subseteq B$.
b) $F$ is a partial function from $A$ to $B$, or $F: A \rightharpoonup B$, iff $F$ is a function, $\operatorname{dom}(F) \subseteq A$, and range $(F) \subseteq B$.
c) $F$ is a surjective function from $A$ to $B$ iff $F: A \rightarrow B$ and range $(F)=B$.
d) $F$ is an injective function from $A$ to $B$ iff $F: A \rightarrow B$ and

$$
\forall x, x^{\prime} \in A\left(x \neq x^{\prime} \rightarrow F(x) \neq F\left(x^{\prime}\right)\right)
$$

e) $F$ is a bijective function from $A$ to $B$, or $F: A \leftrightarrow B$, iff $F: A \rightarrow B$ is surjective and injective.
f) ${ }^{A} B:=\{f \mid f: A \rightarrow B\}$ is the class of all functions from $A$ to $B$.

One can check that these functional notions are consistent and agree with common usage:
Exercise 4. Define a relation $\sim$ on $V$ by

$$
x \sim y \longleftrightarrow \exists f f: x \leftrightarrow y
$$

One say that $x$ and $y$ are equinumerous or equipollent. Show that $\sim$ is an equivalence relation on $V$. What is the equivalence class of $\emptyset$ ? What is the equivalence class of $\{\emptyset\}$ ?
Exercise 5. Consider functions $F: A \rightarrow B$ and $F^{\prime}: A \rightarrow B$. Show that

$$
F=F^{\prime} \text { iff } \forall a \in A F(a)=F^{\prime}(a) .
$$

### 4.7 Unions

The union axiom reads

$$
\forall x \exists y \forall z(z \in y \leftrightarrow \exists w(w \in x \wedge z \in w)) .
$$

Lemma 20. The union axiom is equivalent to $\forall x \bigcup x \in V$.
Proof. Observe the following equivalences:

```
\(\forall x \bigcup x \in V\)
\(\leftrightarrow \forall x \exists y(y=y \wedge y=\bigcup x)\)
\(\leftrightarrow \forall x \exists y \forall z(z \in y \leftrightarrow z \in \bigcup x)\)
\(\leftrightarrow \forall x \exists y \forall z(z \in y \leftrightarrow \exists w \in x z \in w)\)
```

which is equivalent to the union axiom.
Note that the union of $x$ is usually viewed as the union of all elements of $x$ :

$$
\bigcup x=\bigcup_{w \in x} w,
$$

where we define

$$
\bigcup_{a \in A} t(a)=\{z \mid \exists a \in A z \in t(a)\} .
$$

Graphically $\bigcup x$ can be illustrated like this:
Combining the axioms of pairing and unions we obtain:
Lemma 21. $\forall x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\left\{x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right\} \in V$.
Note that this is a schema of lemmas, one for each ordinary natural number $n$. We prove the schema by complete induction on $n$.

Proof. For $n=0,1,2$ the lemma states that $\emptyset \in V, \forall x\{x\} \in V$, and $\forall x, y\{x, y\} \in V$ resp., and these are true by previous axioms and lemmas. For the induction step assume that the lemma holds for $n, n \geqslant 1$. Consider sets $x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}$. Then

$$
\left\{x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}=\left\{x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right\} \cup\left\{x_{n}\right\} .
$$

The right-hand side exists in $V$ by the inductive hypothesis and the union axiom.

### 4.8 Separation

It is common to form a subset of a given set consisting of all elements which satisfy some condition. This is codified by the separation schema. For every $\in$-formula $\varphi\left(z, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ postulate:

$$
\forall x_{1} \ldots \forall x_{n} \forall x \exists y \forall z\left(z \in y \leftrightarrow z \in x \wedge \varphi\left(z, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)\right) .
$$

Using class terms the schema can be reformulated as: for every term $A$ postulate

$$
\forall x A \cap x \in V
$$

The crucial point is the restriction to the given set $x$. The unrestricted, Fregean version $A \in V$ for every term $A$ leads to the Russell antinomy. We turn the antinomy into a consequence of the separation schema:

Theorem 22. $V \notin V$.
Proof. Assume that $V \in V$. Then $\exists x x=V$. Take $x$ such that $x=V$. Let $R$ be the Russellian class:

$$
R:=\{x \mid x \notin x\} .
$$

By separation, $y:=R \cap x \in V$. Note that $R \cap x=R \cap V=R$. Then

$$
y \in y \leftrightarrow y \in R \leftrightarrow y \notin y,
$$

contradiction.
This simple but crucial theorem leads to the distinction:
Definition 23. Let $A$ be a term. Then $A$ is a proper class iff $A \notin V$.
Set theory deals with sets and proper classes. Sets are the favoured objects of set theory, the axiom mainly state favorable properties of sets and set existence. Sometimes one says that a term $A$ exists if $A \in V$. The intention of set theory is to construe important mathematical classes like the collection of natural and real numbers as sets so that they can be treated set-theoretically. Zermelo observed that this is possible by requiring some set existences together with the restricted separation principle.

Exercise 6. Show that the class $\{\{x\} \mid x \in V\}$ of singletons is a proper class.

### 4.9 Power Sets

The power set axiom in class term notation is

$$
\forall x \mathcal{P}(x) \in V
$$

The power set axiom yields the existence of function spaces
Definition 24. Let $A, B$ be terms. Then

$$
A \times B:=\{(a, b) \mid a \in A \wedge b \in B\}
$$

is the cartesian product of $A$ and $B$.

## Exercise 7.

By the specific implementation of Kuratowski ordered pairs:
Lemma 25. $A \times B \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(A \cup B))$.
Proof. Let $(a, b) \in A \times B$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
a, b & \in A \cup B \\
\{a\},\{a, b\} & \subseteq A \cup B \\
\{a\},\{a, b\} & \in \mathcal{P}(A \cup B) \\
(a, b)=\{\{a\},\{a, b\}\} & \subseteq \mathcal{P}(A \cup B) \\
(a, b)=\{\{a\},\{a, b\}\} & \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(A \cup B))
\end{aligned}
$$

## Theorem 26.

a) $\forall x, y x \times y \in V$.
b) $\forall x, y^{x} y \in V$.

Proof. Let $x, y$ be sets. a) Using the axioms of pairing, union, and power sets, $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(x \cup y)) \in V$. By the previous lemma and the axiom schema of separation,

$$
x \times y=(x \times y) \cap \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(x \cup y)) \in V .
$$

b) ${ }^{x} y \subseteq \mathcal{P}(x \times y)$ since a function $f: x \rightarrow y$ is a subset of $x \times y$. By the separation schema,

$$
{ }^{x} y={ }^{x} y \cap \mathcal{P}(x \times y) \in V .
$$

Note that to "find" the sets in this theorem one has to apply the power set operation repeatedly. We shall see that the universe of all sets can be obtained by iterating the power set operation.

The power set axiom leads to higher cardinalities. The theory of cardinalities will be developed later, but we can already prove Cantor's theorem:

Theorem 27. Let $x \in V$.
a) There is an injective map $f: x \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(x)$.
b) There does not exist an injective map $g: \mathcal{P}(x) \rightarrow x$.

Proof. a) Define the map $f: x \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(x)$ by $u \mapsto\{u\}$. This is a set since

$$
f=\{(u,\{u\}) \mid u \in x\} \subseteq x \times \mathcal{P}(x) \in V
$$

$f$ is injective: let $u, u^{\prime} \in x, u \neq u^{\prime}$. By extensionality,

$$
f(u)=\{u\} \neq\left\{u^{\prime}\right\}=f\left(u^{\prime}\right) .
$$

b) Assume there were an injective map $g: \mathcal{P}(x) \rightarrow x$. Define the Cantorean set

$$
c=\left\{u \mid u \in x \wedge u \notin g^{-1}(u)\right\} \in P(x)
$$

similar to the class $R$ in Russell's paradox.
Let $u_{0}=g(c)$. Then $g^{-1}\left(u_{0}\right)=c$ and

$$
u_{0} \in c \leftrightarrow u_{0} \notin g^{-1}\left(u_{0}\right)=c .
$$

Contradiction.

### 4.10 Replacement

If every element of a set is definably replaced by another set, the result is a set again. The schema of replacement postulates for every term $F$ :

$$
F \text { is a function } \rightarrow \forall x F[x] \in V
$$

Lemma 28. The replacement schema implies the separation schema.
Proof. Let $A$ be a term and $x \in V$.
Case 1. $A \cap x=\emptyset$. Then $A \cap x \in V$ by the axiom of set existence.
Case 2. $A \cap x \neq \emptyset$. Take $u_{0} \in A \cap x$. Define a map $F: x \rightarrow x$ by

$$
F(u)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
u, \text { if } u \in A \cap x \\
u_{0}, \text { else }
\end{array}\right.
$$

Then by replacement

$$
A \cap x=F[x] \in V
$$

as required.

### 4.11 Infinity

All the axioms so far can be realized in a domain of finite sets, see exercise ???. The true power of set theory is set free by postulating the existence of one infinite set and continuing to assume the axioms. The axiom of infinity expresses that the set of "natural numbers" exists. To this end, some "number-theoretic" notions are defined.

## Definition 29.

a) $0:=\emptyset$ is the number zero.
b) For any term $t, t+1:=t \cup\{t\}$ is the successor of $t$.

These notions are reasonable in the later formalization of the natural numbers. The axiom of infinity postulates the existence of a set which contains 0 and is closed under successors

$$
\exists x(0 \in x \wedge \forall n \in x n+1 \in x) .
$$

Intuitively this says that there is a set which contains all natural numbers. Let us define set-theoretic analogues of the standard natural numbers:

Definition 30. Define
a) $1:=0+1$;
b) $2:=1+1$;
c) $3:=2+1 ; \ldots$

From the context it will be clear, whether " 3 ", say, is meant to be the standard number "three" or the set theoretical object

$$
\begin{aligned}
3 & =2 \cup\{2\} \\
& =(1+1) \cup\{1+1\} \\
& =(\{\emptyset\} \cup\{\{\emptyset\}\}) \cup\{\{\emptyset\} \cup\{\{\emptyset\}\}\} \\
& =\{\emptyset,\{\emptyset\},\{\emptyset\} \cup\{\{\emptyset\}\}\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The set-theoretic axioms will ensure that this interpretation of "three" has the important number-theoretic properties of "three".

### 4.12 Foundation

The axiom schema of foundation provides structural information about the set theoretic universe $V$. It can be reformulated by postulating, for any term $A$ :

$$
A \neq \emptyset \rightarrow \exists x \in A A \cap x=\emptyset
$$

Viewing $\in$ as some kind of order relation this means that every non-empty class has an $\in$-minimal element $x \in A$ such that the $\in$-predecessors of $x$ are not in $A$. Foundation excludes circles in the $\in$-relation:

Lemma 31. Let $n$ be a natural number $\geqslant 1$. Then there are no $x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}$ such that

$$
x_{0} \in x_{1} \in \ldots \in x_{n-1} \in x_{0} .
$$

Proof. Assume not and let $x_{0} \in x_{1} \in \ldots \in x_{n-1} \in x_{0}$. Let

$$
A=\left\{x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right\}
$$

$A \neq \emptyset$ since $n \geqslant 1$. By foundation take $x \in A$ such that $A \cap x=\emptyset$.
Case 1. $x=x_{0}$. Then $x_{n-1} \in A \cap x=\emptyset$, contradiction.
Case 2. $x=x_{i}, i>0$. Then $x_{i-1} \in A \cap x=\emptyset$, contradiction.
Exercise 8. Show that $x \neq x+1$.
Exercise 9. Show that the successor function $x \mapsto x+1$ is injective.
Exercise 10. Show that the term $\{x,\{x, y\}\}$ may be taken as an ordered pair of $x$ and $y$.
Theorem 32. The foundation scheme is equivalent to the following, PEANO-type, induction scheme: for every term $B$ postulate

$$
\forall x(x \subseteq B \rightarrow x \in B) \rightarrow B=V
$$

This says that if a "property" $B$ is inherited by $x$ if all elements of $x$ have the property $B$, then every set has the property $B$.

Proof. $(\rightarrow)$ Assume $B$ were a term which did not satisfy the induction principle:

$$
\forall x(x \subseteq B \rightarrow x \in B) \text { and } B \neq V
$$

Set $A=V \backslash B \neq \emptyset$. By foundation take $x \in A$ such that $A \cap x=\emptyset$. Then

$$
u \in x \rightarrow u \notin A \rightarrow u \in B
$$

i.e., $x \subseteq B$. By assumption, $B$ is inherited by $x: x \in B$. But then $x \notin A$, contradiction.
$(\leftarrow)$ Assume $A$ were a term which did not satisfy the foundation scheme:

$$
A \neq \emptyset \text { and } \forall x \in A A \cap x \neq \emptyset .
$$

Set $B=V \backslash A$. Consider $x \subseteq B$. Then $A \cap x=\emptyset$. By assumption, $x \notin A$ and $x \in B$. Thus $\forall x(x \subseteq B \rightarrow x \in B)$. The induction principle implies that $B=V$. Then $A=\emptyset$, contradiction.

This proof shows, that the induction principle is basically an equivalent formulation of the foundation principle. The $\in$-relation is taken as some binary relation without reference to specific properties of this relation. This leads to:

Exercise 11. A relation $R$ on a domain $D$ is called wellfounded, iff for all terms $A$

$$
\emptyset \neq A \wedge A \subseteq D \rightarrow \exists x \in A A \cap\{y \mid y R x\}=\emptyset
$$

Formulate and prove a principle for $R$-induction on $D$ which coressponds to the assumption that $R$ is wellfounded on $D$.

### 4.13 Set Theoretic Axiom Schemas

Note that the axiom system introduced is an infinite informal set of axioms. It seems unavoidable that we have to go back to some previously given set notions to be able to define the collection of set theoretical axioms - another example of the frequent circularity in foundational theories.

Definition 33. The system ZF of the Zermelo-Fraenkel axioms of set theory consists of the following axioms:
a) The set existence axiom (Ex):

- there is a set without elements, the empty set.
b) The axiom of extensionality (Ext):

$$
\forall x \forall y(\forall z(z \in x \leftrightarrow z \in y) \rightarrow x=y)
$$

- a set is determined by its elements, sets having the same elements are identical.
c) The pairing axiom (Pair):

$$
\forall x \forall y \exists z \forall w(u \in z \leftrightarrow u=x \vee u=y)
$$

- $z$ is the unordered pair of $x$ and $y$.
d) The union axiom (Union):

$$
\forall x \exists y \forall z(z \in y \leftrightarrow \exists w(w \in x \wedge z \in w))
$$

- $y$ is the union of all elements of $x$.
e) The separation schema (Sep) postulates for every $\in$-formula $\varphi\left(z, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ :

$$
\forall x_{1} \ldots \forall x_{n} \forall x \exists y \forall z\left(z \in y \leftrightarrow z \in x \wedge \varphi\left(z, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)\right)
$$

- this is an infinite scheme of axioms, the set $z$ consists of all elements of $x$ which satisfy $\varphi$.
f) The powerset axiom (Pow):

$$
\forall x \exists y \forall z(z \in y \leftrightarrow \forall w(w \in z \rightarrow w \in x))
$$

- $y$ consists of all subsets of $x$.
g) The replacement schema (Rep) postulates for every $\in$-formula $\varphi\left(x, y, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
\forall x_{1} \ldots \forall x_{n}\left(\forall x \forall y \forall y^{\prime}\left(\left(\varphi\left(x, y, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \wedge \varphi\left(x, y^{\prime}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)\right) \rightarrow y=y^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\right. \\
\left.\forall u \exists v \forall y\left(y \in v \leftrightarrow \exists x\left(x \in u \wedge \varphi\left(x, y, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)\right)\right)\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

$-v$ is the image of $u$ under the map defined by $\varphi$.
$h)$ The axiom of infinity (Inf):

$$
\exists x(\exists y(y \in x \wedge \forall z \neg z \in y) \wedge \forall y(y \in x \rightarrow \exists z(z \in x \wedge \forall w(w \in z \leftrightarrow w \in y \vee w=y))))
$$

- by the closure properties of $x, x$ has to be infinite.
i) The foundation schema (Found) postulates for every $\in$-formula $\varphi\left(x, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ :

$$
\forall x_{1} \ldots \forall x_{n}\left(\exists x \varphi\left(x, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \rightarrow \exists x\left(\varphi\left(x, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \wedge \forall x^{\prime}\left(x^{\prime} \in x \rightarrow \neg \varphi\left(x^{\prime}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)\right)\right)\right)
$$

- if $\varphi$ is satisfiable then there are $\in$-minimal elements satisfying $\varphi$.


### 4.14 ZF in Class Notation

Using class terms, the ZF can be formulated concisely:
Theorem 34. The ZF axioms are equivalent to the following system; we take all free variables of the axioms to be universally quantified:
a) $E x: \emptyset \in V$.
b) Ext: $x \subseteq y \wedge y \subseteq x \rightarrow x=y$.
c) Pair: $\{x, y\} \in V$.
d) Union: $\bigcup x \in V$.
e) Sep: $A \cap x \in V$.
f) Pow: $\mathcal{P}(x) \in V$.
g) Rep: $F$ is a function $\rightarrow F[x] \in V$.
h) Inf: $\exists x(0 \in x \wedge \forall n \in x n+1 \in x)$.
i) Found: $A \neq \emptyset \rightarrow \exists x \in A A \cap x=\emptyset$.

This axiom system can be used as a foundation for all of mathematics. Axiomatic set theory considers various axiom systems of set theory.

Definition 35. The axiom system $\mathrm{ZF}^{-}$consists of the ZF -axioms except the power set axiom. The system EML ("elementary set theory") consists of the axioms Ex, Ext, Pair, and Union.

Nach Einfuehrung der Axiome etwas zu Axiomatik sagen, Geometrische Axiomensysteme, Hilberts formale Auffassung, Hausdorffs Meinung dazu, axiomatische Mengenlehre untersucht verschiedene Axiomensysteme, insbesondere ist ZFC unvollstaendig, etc.

## 5 Ordinal Numbers

We had defined some "natural numbers" in set theory. Recall that

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =\emptyset \\
1 & =0+1=0 \cup\{0\}=\{0\} \\
2 & =1+1=1 \cup\{1\}=\{0,1\} \\
3 & =2+1=2 \cup\{2\}=\{0,1,2\} \\
& \vdots
\end{aligned}
$$

We would then like to have $\mathbb{N}=\{0,1,2,3, \ldots\}$. To obtain a set theoretic formalization of numbers we note some properties of the informal presentation:

1. "Numbers" are ordered by the $\in$-relation:

$$
m<n \text { iff } m \in n .
$$

E.g., $1 \in 3$ but not $3 \in 1$.
2. On each "number", the $\in$-relation is a strict linear order: $3=\{0,1,2\}$ is strictly linearly ordered by $\in$.
3. "Numbers" are "complete" with respect to smaller "numbers"

$$
i<j<m \rightarrow i \in m
$$

This can be written with the $\in$-relation as

$$
i \in j \in m \rightarrow i \in m
$$

## Definition 36.

a) $A$ is transitive, $\operatorname{Trans}(A)$, iff $\forall y \in A \forall x \in y x \in A$.
b) $x$ is an ordinal (number), $\operatorname{Ord}(x)$, if $\operatorname{Trans}(x) \wedge \forall y \in x \operatorname{Trans}(y)$.
c) Let Ord: $=\{x \mid \operatorname{Ord}(x)\}$ be the class of all ordinal numbers.

We shall use small greek letter $\alpha, \beta, \ldots$ as variables for ordinals. So $\exists \alpha \varphi$ stands for $\exists \alpha \in \operatorname{Ord} \varphi$, and $\{\alpha \mid \varphi\}$ for $\{\alpha \mid \operatorname{Ord}(\alpha) \wedge \varphi\}$.

Exercise 12. Show that arbitrary unions and intersections of transitive sets are again transitive.
We shall see that the ordinals extend the standard natural numbers. Ordinals are particularly adequate for enumerating infinite sets.

## Theorem 37.

a) $0 \in$ Ord.
b) $\forall \alpha \alpha+1 \in \operatorname{Ord}$.

Proof. a) $\operatorname{Trans}(\emptyset)$ since formulas of the form $\forall y \in \emptyset$... are tautologously true. Similarly $\forall y \in$ $\emptyset \operatorname{Trans}(y)$.
b) Assume $\alpha \in$ Ord.
(1) $\operatorname{Trans}(\alpha+1)$.

Proof. Let $u \in v \in \alpha+1=\alpha \cup\{\alpha\}$.
Case 1. $v \in \alpha$. Then $u \in \alpha \subseteq \alpha+1$, since $\alpha$ is transitive.
Case 2. $v=\alpha$. Then $u \in \alpha \subseteq \alpha+1$. qed (1)
(2) $\forall y \in \alpha+1 \operatorname{Trans}(y)$.

Proof. Let $y \in \alpha+1=\alpha \cup\{\alpha\}$.
Case 1. $y \in \alpha$. Then $\operatorname{Trans}(y)$ since $\alpha$ is an ordinal.
Case 2. $y=\alpha$. Then $\operatorname{Trans}(y)$ since $\alpha$ is an ordinal.

## Exercise 13.

a) Let $A \subseteq$ Ord be a term, $A \neq \emptyset$. Then $\bigcap A \in$ Ord.
b) Let $x \subseteq$ Ord be a set. Then $\cup A \in \operatorname{Ord}$.

Theorem 38. Trans(Ord).
Proof. This follows immediately from the transitivity definition of Ord.
Exercise 14. Show that Ord is a proper class. (Hint: if Ord $\in V$ then Ord $\in$ Ord.)
Theorem 39. The class Ord is strictly linearly ordered by $\in$, i.e.,
a) $\forall \alpha, \beta, \gamma(\alpha \in \beta \wedge \beta \in \gamma \rightarrow \alpha \in \gamma)$.
b) $\forall \alpha \alpha \notin \alpha$.
c) $\forall \alpha, \beta(\alpha \in \beta \vee \alpha=\beta \vee \beta \in \alpha)$.

Proof. a) Let $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in \operatorname{Ord}$ and $\alpha \in \beta \wedge \beta \in \gamma$. Then $\gamma$ is transitive, and so $\alpha \in \gamma$.
b) follows immediately from the non-circularity of the $\in$-relation.
c) Assume that there are "incomparable" ordinals. By the foundation schema choose $\alpha_{0} \in$ Ord $\in$ minimal such that $\exists \beta \neg\left(\alpha_{0} \in \beta \vee \alpha_{0}=\beta \vee \beta \in \alpha_{0}\right)$. Again, choose $\beta_{0} \in$ Ord $\in$-minimal such that $\neg$ $\left(\alpha_{0} \in \beta_{0} \vee \alpha_{0}=\beta_{0} \vee \beta_{0} \in \alpha_{0}\right)$. We obtain a contradiction by showing that $\alpha_{0}=\beta_{0}$ :

Let $\alpha \in \alpha_{0}$. By the $\in$-minimality of $\alpha_{0}, \alpha$ is comparable with $\beta_{0}: \alpha \in \beta_{0} \vee \alpha=\beta_{0} \vee \beta_{0} \in \alpha$. If $\alpha=\beta_{0}$ then $\beta_{0} \in \alpha_{0}$ and $\alpha_{0}, \beta_{0}$ would be comparable, contradiction. If $\beta_{0} \in \alpha$ then $\beta_{0} \in \alpha_{0}$ by the transitivity of $\alpha_{0}$ and again $\alpha_{0}, \beta_{0}$ would be comparable, contradiction. Hence $\alpha \in \beta_{0}$.

For the converse let $\beta \in \beta_{0}$. By the $\in$-minimality of $\beta_{0}, \beta$ is comparable with $\alpha_{0}: \beta \in \alpha_{0} \vee$ $\beta=\alpha_{0} \vee \alpha_{0} \in \beta$. If $\beta=\alpha_{0}$ then $\alpha_{0} \in \beta_{0}$ and $\alpha_{0}, \beta_{0}$ would be comparable, contradiction. If $\alpha_{0} \in \beta$ then $\alpha_{0} \in \beta_{0}$ by the transitivity of $\beta_{0}$ and again $\alpha_{0}, \beta_{0}$ would be comparable, contradiction. Hence $\beta \in \alpha_{0}$.

But then $\alpha_{0}=\beta_{0}$ contrary to the choice of $\beta_{0}$.
Definition 40. Let $<:=\in \cap(\operatorname{Ord} \times \operatorname{Ord})=\{(\alpha, \beta) \mid \alpha \in \beta\}$ be the natural strict linear ordering of Ord by the $\in$-relation.

Theorem 41. Let $\alpha \in \operatorname{Ord}$. Then $\alpha+1$ is the immediate successor of $\alpha$ in the $\in$-relation:
a) $\alpha<\alpha+1$;
b) if $\beta<\alpha+1$, then $\beta=\alpha$ or $\beta<\alpha$.

Definition 42. Let $\alpha$ be an ordinal. $\alpha$ is a successor ordinal, $\operatorname{Succ}(\alpha)$, iff $\exists \beta \alpha=\beta+1$. $\alpha$ is a limit ordinal, $\operatorname{Lim}(\alpha)$, iff $\alpha \neq 0$ and $\alpha$ is not a successor ordinal. Also let

$$
\operatorname{Succ}:=\{\alpha \mid \operatorname{Succ}(\alpha)\} \text { and } \operatorname{Lim}:=\{\alpha \mid \operatorname{Lim}(\alpha)\} .
$$

The existence of limit ordinals will be discussed together with the formalization of the natural numbers.

### 5.1 Induction

Ordinals satisfy an induction theorem which generalizes complete induction on the integers:
Theorem 43. Let $\varphi\left(x, v_{0}, \ldots, v_{n-1}\right)$ be an $\in$-formula and $x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1} \in V$. Assume that the property $\varphi\left(x, x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)$ is inductive, i.e.,

$$
\forall \alpha\left(\forall \beta \in \alpha \varphi\left(\beta, x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right) \rightarrow \varphi\left(\alpha, x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)\right)
$$

Then $\varphi$ holds for all ordinals:

$$
\forall \alpha \varphi\left(\alpha, x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)
$$

Proof. It suffices to show that

$$
B=\left\{x \mid x \in \operatorname{Ord} \rightarrow \varphi\left(x, x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)\right\}=V
$$

Theorem 32 implies

$$
\forall x(x \subseteq B \rightarrow x \in B) \rightarrow B=V
$$

and it suffices to show

$$
\forall x(x \subseteq B \rightarrow x \in B)
$$

Consider $x \subseteq B$. If $x \notin$ Ord then $x \in B$. So assume $x \in$ Ord. For $\beta \in x$ we have $\beta \in B, \beta \in \operatorname{Ord}$, and so $\varphi\left(\beta, x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)$. By the inductivity of $\varphi$ we get $\varphi\left(x, x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)$ and again $x \in B$.

Induction can be formulated in various forms:
Exercise 15. Prove the following transfinite induction principle: Let $\varphi(x)=\varphi\left(x, v_{0}, \ldots, v_{n-1}\right)$ be an $\in$-formula and $x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1} \in V$. Assume
a) $\varphi(0)$ (the initial case),
b) $\forall \alpha(\varphi(\alpha) \rightarrow \varphi(\alpha+1))$ (the successor step),
c) $\forall \lambda \in \operatorname{Lim}(\forall \alpha<\lambda \varphi(\alpha) \rightarrow \varphi(\lambda))$ (the limit step).

Then $\forall \alpha \varphi(\alpha)$.

### 5.2 Natural Numbers

We have $0,1, \ldots \in$ Ord. We shall now define and study the set of natural numbers/integers within set theory. Recall the axiom of infinity:

$$
\exists x(0 \in x \wedge \forall u \in x u+1 \in x) .
$$

The set of natural numbers should be the $\subseteq$-smallest such $x$.
Definition 44. Let $\omega:=\bigcap\{x \mid 0 \in x \wedge \forall u \in x u+1 \in x\}$ be the set of natural numbers. Sometimes we write $\mathbb{N}$ instead of $\omega$.

## Theorem 45.

a) $\omega \in V$.
b) $\omega \subseteq$ Ord.
c) $(\omega, 0,+1)$ satisfy the second order Peano axiom, i.e.,

$$
\forall x \subseteq \omega(0 \in x \wedge \forall n \in x n+1 \in x \rightarrow x=\omega)
$$

d) $\omega \in \operatorname{Ord}$.
e) $\omega$ is a limit ordinal.

Proof. a) By the axiom of infinity take a set $x_{0}$ such that

$$
0 \in x_{0} \wedge \forall u \in x_{0} u+1 \in x_{0} .
$$

Then

$$
\omega=\bigcap\{x \mid 0 \in x \wedge \forall u \in x u+1 \in x\}=x_{0} \cap \bigcap\{x \mid 0 \in x \wedge \forall u \in x u+1 \in x\} \in V
$$

by the separation schema.
b) By a), $\omega \cap \operatorname{Ord} \in V$. Obviously $0 \in \omega \cap \operatorname{Ord} \wedge \forall u \in \omega \cap \operatorname{Ord} u+1 \in \omega \cap \operatorname{Ord}$. So $\omega \cap$ Ord is one factor of the intersection in the definition of $\omega$ and so $\omega \subseteq \omega \cap$ Ord. Hence $\omega \subseteq$ Ord.
c) Let $x \subseteq \omega$ and $0 \in x \wedge \forall u \in x u+1 \in x$. Then $x$ is one factor of the intersection in the definition of $\omega$ and so $\omega \subseteq x$. This implies $x=\omega$.
d) By b), every element of $\omega$ is transitive and it suffices to show that $\omega$ is transitive. Let

$$
x=\{n \mid n \in \omega \wedge \forall m \in n m \in \omega\} \subseteq \omega
$$

We show that the hypothesis of c) holds for $x .0 \in x$ is trivial. Let $u \in x$. Then $u+1 \in \omega$. Let $m \in u+1$. If $m \in u$ then $m \in \omega$ by the assumption that $u \in x$. If $m=u$ then $m \in x \subseteq \omega$. Hence $u+1 \in x$ and $\forall u \in x u+1 \in x$. By b), $x=\omega$. So $\forall n \in \omega n \in x$, i.e.,

$$
\forall n \in \omega \forall m \in n m \in \omega
$$

e) Of course $\omega \neq 0$. Assume for a contradiction that $\omega$ is a successor ordinal, say $\omega=\alpha+1$. Then $\alpha \in \omega$. Since $\omega$ is closed under the +1 -operation, $\omega=\alpha+1 \in \omega$. Contradiction.

Thus the axiom of infinity implies the existence of the set of natural numbers, which is also the smallest limit ordinal. The axiom of infinity can now be reformulated equivalently as:
h) Inf: $\omega \in V$.

Exercise 16. Show that $\bigcup(\alpha+1)=\alpha$ and that $\operatorname{Lim}(\gamma) \rightarrow \bigcup \gamma=\gamma$.
Exercise 17. Show that

$$
n \in \omega \leftrightarrow(n=0 \vee \exists m \in n n=m+1) \wedge \forall m \in n(m=0 \vee \exists l \in m m=l+1)
$$

### 5.3 Recursion

Recursion, often called induction, over the natural numbers is a ubiquitous method for defining mathematical object. We prove the following recursion theorem for ordinals.

Theorem 46. Let $G: V \rightarrow V$. Then there is a canonical class term $F$, given by the subsequent proof, such that

$$
F: \operatorname{Ord} \rightarrow V \text { and } \forall \alpha F(\alpha)=G(F \upharpoonright \alpha)
$$

We then say that $F$ is defined recursively (over the ordinals) by the recursion rule $G$. $F$ is unique in the sense that if another term $F^{\prime}$ satisfies

$$
F^{\prime}: \operatorname{Ord} \rightarrow V \text { and } \forall \alpha F^{\prime}(\alpha)=G\left(F^{\prime} \upharpoonright \alpha\right)
$$

then $F=F^{\prime}$.
Proof. We say that $H: \operatorname{dom}(H) \rightarrow V$ is $G$-recursive if

$$
\operatorname{dom}(H) \subseteq \operatorname{Ord}, \operatorname{dom}(H) \text { is transitive, and } \forall \alpha \in \operatorname{dom}(H) H(\alpha)=G(H \upharpoonright \alpha)
$$

(1) Let $H, H^{\prime}$ be $G$-recursive. Then $H, H^{\prime}$ are compatible, i.e., $\forall \alpha \in \operatorname{dom}(H) \cap \operatorname{dom}\left(H^{\prime}\right) H(\alpha)=$ $H^{\prime}(\alpha)$.
Proof. We want to show that

$$
\forall \alpha \in \operatorname{Ord}\left(\alpha \in \operatorname{dom}(H) \cap \operatorname{dom}\left(H^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H(\alpha)=H^{\prime}(\alpha)\right)
$$

By the induction theorem it suffices to show that $\alpha \in \operatorname{dom}(H) \cap \operatorname{dom}\left(H^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H(\alpha)=H^{\prime}(\alpha)$ is inductive, i.e.,
$\forall \alpha \in \operatorname{Ord}\left(\forall y \in \alpha\left(y \in \operatorname{dom}(H) \cap \operatorname{dom}\left(H^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H(y)=H^{\prime}(y)\right) \rightarrow\left(\alpha \in \operatorname{dom}(H) \cap \operatorname{dom}\left(H^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H(\alpha)=\right.\right.$ $\left.H^{\prime}(\alpha)\right)$ ).
So let $\alpha \in \operatorname{Ord}$ and $\forall y \in \alpha\left(y \in \operatorname{dom}(H) \cap \operatorname{dom}\left(H^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H(y)=H^{\prime}(y)\right)$. Let $\alpha \in \operatorname{dom}(H) \cap \operatorname{dom}\left(H^{\prime}\right)$. Since $\operatorname{dom}(H)$ and $\operatorname{dom}\left(H^{\prime}\right)$ are transitive, $\alpha \subseteq \operatorname{dom}(H)$ and $\alpha \subseteq \operatorname{dom}\left(H^{\prime}\right)$. By assumption

$$
\forall y \in \alpha H(y)=H^{\prime}(y)
$$

Hence $H \upharpoonright \alpha=H^{\prime} \upharpoonright \alpha$. Then

$$
H(\alpha)=G(H \upharpoonright \alpha)=G\left(H^{\prime} \upharpoonright \alpha\right)=H^{\prime}(\alpha)
$$

qed (1)
Let

$$
F:=\bigcup\{f \mid f \text { is } G \text {-recursive }\} .
$$

be the union of the class of all approximations to the desired function $F$.
(2) $F$ is $G$-recursive.

Proof. By (1), $F$ is a function. Its domain $\operatorname{dom}(F)$ is the union of transitive classes of ordinals and hence $\operatorname{dom}(F) \subseteq$ Ord is transitive.

Let $\alpha \in \operatorname{dom}(F)$. Take some $G$-recursive function $f$ such that $\alpha \in \operatorname{dom}(f)$. Since $\operatorname{dom}(f)$ is transitive, we have

$$
\alpha \subseteq \operatorname{dom}(f) \subseteq \operatorname{dom}(F)
$$

Moreover

$$
F(\alpha)=f(\alpha)=G(f \upharpoonright \alpha)=G(F \upharpoonright \alpha)
$$

qed (2)
(3) $\forall \alpha \alpha \in \operatorname{dom}(F)$.

Proof. By induction on the ordinals. We have to show that $\alpha \in \operatorname{dom}(F)$ is inductive in the variable $\alpha$. So let $\alpha \in$ Ord and $\forall y \in \alpha y \in \operatorname{dom}(F)$. Hence $\alpha \subseteq \operatorname{dom}(F)$. Let

$$
f=F \upharpoonright \alpha \cup\{(\alpha, G(F \upharpoonright \alpha))\}
$$

$f$ is a function with $\operatorname{dom}(f)=\alpha+1 \in \operatorname{Ord}$. Let $\alpha^{\prime}<\alpha+1$. If $\alpha^{\prime}<\alpha$ then

$$
f\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)=F\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)=G\left(F \upharpoonright \alpha^{\prime}\right)=G\left(f \upharpoonright \alpha^{\prime}\right) .
$$

if $\alpha^{\prime}=\alpha$ then also

$$
f\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)=f(\alpha)=G(F \upharpoonright \alpha)=G(f \upharpoonright \alpha)=G\left(f \upharpoonright \alpha^{\prime}\right) .
$$

Hence $f$ is $G$-recursive and $\alpha \in \operatorname{dom}(f) \subseteq \operatorname{dom}(F)$. $q e d(3)$
The extensional uniqueness of $F$ follows from (1)

