

# Math 303, Fall 2011, Lecture 21

## ① Ordering the ordinals

Last time we saw that two well ordered sets  $X$  and  $Y$  are **similar** if there is a function  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  which is

- one-to-one
- onto
- and for all  $x_1, x_2 \in X$

$x_1 \leq x_2$  if and only if  $f(x_1) \leq f(x_2)$

and

let  $X$  and  $Y$  be well ordered sets. Either  $X$  and  $Y$  are similar or one of them is similar to an initial segment of the other

And not both

For ordinals we get one further similarity property

If two ordinals are similar then they are equal

proof let  $X$  and  $Y$  be ordinals and

$f: X \rightarrow Y$  a similarity

let  $S = \{x \in X : f(x) = x\}$

Use transfinite induction (goal show  $S = X$ )

so we need to check

whenever  $s(x) \subseteq S$  then  $x \in S$

so suppose  $x \in X$  and  $s(x) \subseteq S$

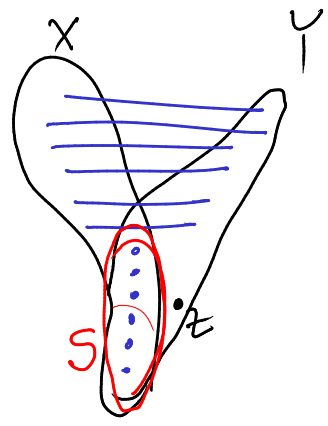
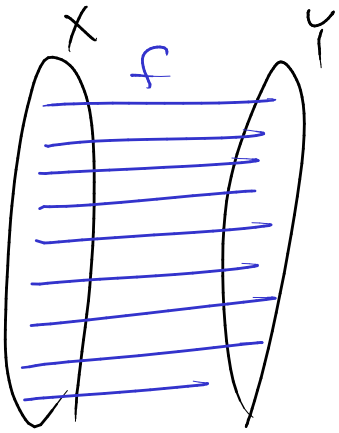
so  $f(x) > f(y)$  for all  $y \in s(x)$

but  $f(y) = y$  for all  $y \in s(x)$

so  $f(x) > y$  for all  $y \in s(x)$

this tells us  
 $s(f(x)) = s(x)$

Furthermore there is no  $z \in Y$ ,  $z < f(x)$ ,  $z \neq s(x)$   
 because if there were then nothing in  $X$  could  
 map to it preserving the order



but  $X$  and  $Y$  are ordinals

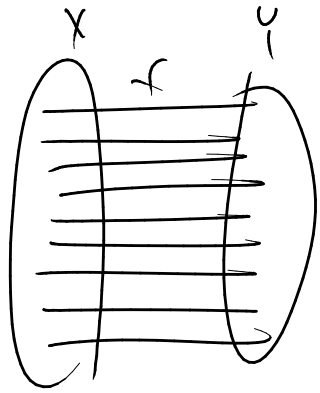
$$\text{so } f(x) = s(f(x)) = s(x) = x$$

$$\text{so } f(x) = x \quad \text{so } \boxed{x \in S}$$

So by transfinite induction  $S = X$

$$\text{so for all } x \in X \quad f(x) = x$$

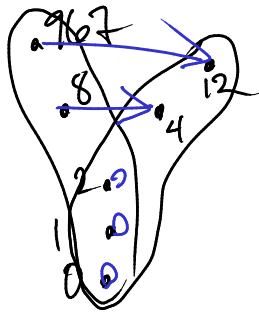
$$\text{so } \boxed{Y = X}$$



could have a map that doesn't zipper for well ordered sets that aren't ordinals

eg  $X = \{0, 1, 2, 8, 9, 6, 7\}$

$$Y = \{0, 1, 2, 4, 12\}$$



Putting all this together we get

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are ordinals then either  $X = Y$   
or one of them is equal to an initial segment  
of the other

This uses the previous results

Thus the ordinals themselves are totally ordered.

Say  $X < Y$  if  $X$  is equal to an initial  
segment of  $Y$ .

eg

$$2 = \{0, 1\}$$

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

$$\text{so } 2 < 8$$

$$\omega = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, \dots\}$$

$$\text{so } 2 < \omega$$

$$\text{and } 8 < \omega$$

In fact this ordering is a well ordering

proof let  $E$  be any nonempty set of ordinals.  
Take any  $X \in E$

-, -3, -2, -1

if  $X$  is the smallest element of  $E$  we're done

Otherwise since  $E$  is totally ordered  
there is a  $Y \in E$ ,  $Y < X$

since  $X$  is an ordinal  $Y \in X$

Note that  $Y \in X \cap E$  so in particular  $X \cap E \neq \emptyset$

Furthermore  $X \cap E \subseteq X$  and  $X$  is an ordinal  
here  $X$  is well ordered.

Take the least element of  $X \cap E$   
call it  $z$ .

Point  $z$  is also least in  $E$

(check details

take  $\omega \in E$

if  $\omega \geq X$  then  $Z \leq X \leq \omega$

so  $Z \leq \omega$

if  $\omega < X$  then  $\omega \in X$

so  $\omega \in X \cap E$

so  $Z \leq \omega$

In all cases  $Z \leq \omega$

so  $Z$  is least in  $E$ )

Furthermore

the order on ordinals satisfies the ordinal property!!

let  $X$  be an ordinal. All ordinals less than  $X$  are by definition initial segments of  $X$ , and since  $X$  is an ordinal all initial segments of  $X$  are elements of  $X$  so all ordinals less than  $X$  are elements of  $X$

Also all elements of  $X$  are ordinals and are all  $< X$ .

Question Is the set of all ordinals an ordinal?

Think about it.

It seems like yes.

for now let  $\mathcal{O}$  be set of all ordinals

Consider  $\mathcal{O}^+$  We know  $\mathcal{O}^+$  is an ordinal  
since  $\mathcal{O}$  is an ordinal

$$\text{so } \mathcal{O} < \mathcal{O}^+$$

but  $\mathcal{O}^+ \in \mathcal{O}$  since  $\mathcal{O}$  is the set of all ordinals  
so  $\mathcal{O}^+ < \mathcal{O}$  Contradiction.

Problem  $\mathcal{O}$  is not a set.

This is called the **Burali-Forti paradox**

The Burali-Forti paradox is similar to Russell's paradox but predates it (by a few years)

1897

1901

though all these ideas were in the air at the same time.

①  $\frac{1}{2}$  Hw 5 minor avg 7.94  
Final exam will be approx half-half material before and after the midterm.

② Counting with ordinals

We have

0, 1, 2, 3, 4, ...

$\omega, \omega^+, (\omega^+)^+$

↑  
↑  
write

↑  
↑  
write

$\omega+1, \omega+2, \omega+3, \omega+4, \dots$



Next is  $\{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, \omega, \omega+1, \omega+2, \dots\}$   
 $= \omega^2$

↑  
order matters  
in ordinal arithmetic  
so don't write  $2\omega$

← this notation comes from  
ordinal arithmetic we want do it  
but you can read Halmos  
section 21 if you're interested

then  $\omega^2+1, \omega^2+2, \omega^2+3, \dots$

$\{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, \omega, \omega+1, \omega+2, \dots, \omega^2, \omega^2+1, \omega^2+2, \dots\}$   
 $= \omega^3$

$\omega^3+1, \omega^3+2, \omega^3+3, \dots, \omega^4, \dots, \omega^5, \dots, \omega^6, \dots$

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$\omega^2$  ← note not exponentiation meaning sets  
of functions - it is ordinal exponentiation

$\omega^2+1, \omega^2+2, \dots, \omega^2+\omega, \dots, \omega^2+\omega^2, \dots$

$\omega^2 \cdot 2, \dots, \omega^2 \cdot 3, \dots$

$\omega^3, \dots, \omega^4, \dots, \omega^5, \dots$

$\omega^\omega$ ,  $\omega^{\omega+1}$ , ...,  $\omega^{(\omega+1)}$ , ...  
 $\omega^{\omega^2}$ , ...,  $\omega^{\omega^3}$   
 $\omega^{(\omega^2)}$ , ...,  $\omega^{(\omega^\omega)}$   
 $\omega^{\omega^{\omega^\omega}}$ , ...,  $\omega^{\omega^{\omega^{\omega^\omega}}}$

then put all these things together in a set  
 this is traditionally called

$\epsilon_0$

The first one without arithmetic notation.

keeps going  $\epsilon_0 + 1$ , ...

For the break

is  $\aleph_0$  countable?

## ② Size

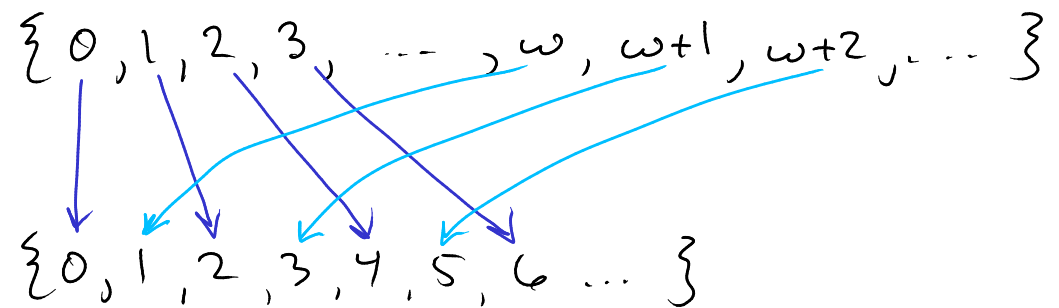
A while ago we said two sets were the same **size** if there was a one-to-one and onto function between them.

The **ordinals** **don't** **capture** this notion of size

eg  $\omega$  and  $\omega^+$  are the same size  
(on a homework and on the midterm)

Similarly  $\omega+2$ ,  $\omega+3$ , ...  
are also the same size  
as  $\omega$

Also  $\omega^2$  is the same size as  $\omega$



And so on

Two natural questions

- ① Is there anything bigger than  $\omega$  in the sense of size
- ② Are there natural sets which "count" the size.

Recall that we say two sets are **equivalent** if they are the same size in this sense

We will write  $X \sim Y$  to say  $X$  is equivalent to  $Y$

(compare to **similarity** for well ordered sets)

different

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be sets. Say  $Y$  **dominates**  $X$  and write

$\succsim$

$$X \succsim Y$$

a curly  $\leq$

if  $X$  is equivalent to a subset of  $Y$

think  $Y$  is at least as big (in size) as  $X$

eg  $\{0, 2, 4, 6, 8, \dots\} \succsim \omega$  also  $X \succsim X$  for all  $X$

We would like  $\succsim$  (domination) to give a partial order on sets of sets. However this isn't quite true.

• Suppose  $X \succsim Y$  and  $Y \succsim Z$ . Specifically say

$f: X \rightarrow \tilde{Y} \subseteq Y$   
one-to-one and onto

$f: X \rightarrow Y$  which is one-to-one  
so by  $f$ ,  $X$  is equivalent to  $\tilde{Y}$ , the image of  $X$  under  $f$

Similarly say  $g: Y \rightarrow \tilde{Z} \subseteq Z$  is one-to-one and onto.

so  $g \circ f: X \rightarrow Z$  is one-to-one since  $f$  and  $g$  were (check!)  
and is onto its image

so  $X$  is equivalent to a subset of  $Z$ .

Thus  $\cong$  is transitive.

- reflexive is also ok  $X$  is equivalent to itself ie  $X \cong X$
- antisymmetry is a problem however.

Suppose  $X \cong Y$  and  $Y \cong X$

but  $X$  and  $Y$  are not necessarily the same set  
all we can conclude is

$$X \sim Y$$

This is sufficiently important to be a named theorem

### Schröder - Bernstein Theorem

IF  $X \cong Y$  and  $Y \cong X$  then  $X \sim Y$

This tells us our notion of size is well behaved

The theorem says

if  $X$  is smaller (in size) than  $Y$   
and  $Y$  is smaller (in size) than  $X$   
then  $X$  and  $Y$  are the same size.

I'm not going to prove Schröder-Bernstein because I want to have time to get to some more paradoxes

Another useful fact is

if  $X$  and  $Y$  are sets then either  $X \approx Y$  or  $Y \approx X$

proof well order  $X$  and  $Y$

either  $X$  and  $Y$  well ordered are similar  
in which case forgetting the order we get  
 $X \sim Y$  so  $X \approx Y$  and  $Y \approx X$

or one of them is similar to an initial segment of the other. Again forgetting the order one of them is equivalent to a subset of the other i.e.  $X \preceq Y$  or  $Y \preceq X$

### ③ Countability revisited

Write  $X \prec Y$  to mean  $X \preceq Y$  and  $X \not\sim Y$

With this notion of domination, we can say

$X$  is finite if  $X \prec \omega$

$X$  is infinite if  $\omega \preceq X$

$X$  is countable if  $X \preceq \omega$

$X$  is countably infinite if  $X \sim \omega$

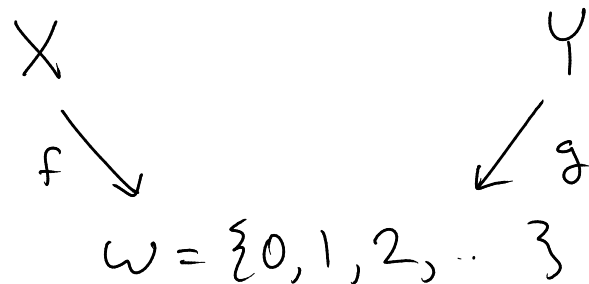
Note previously we'd said a set was finite if it was equivalent to a natural number. This is the same as saying  $X \prec \omega$



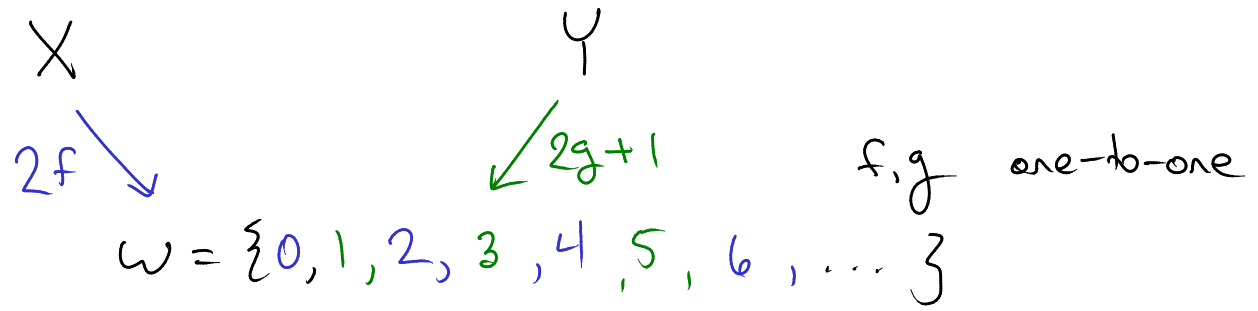
Note a set  $X$  is countable if  $X \approx \omega$   
ie there is an  $f: X \rightarrow \omega$  which is one-to-one  
but not necessarily onto.

Some things which are countable

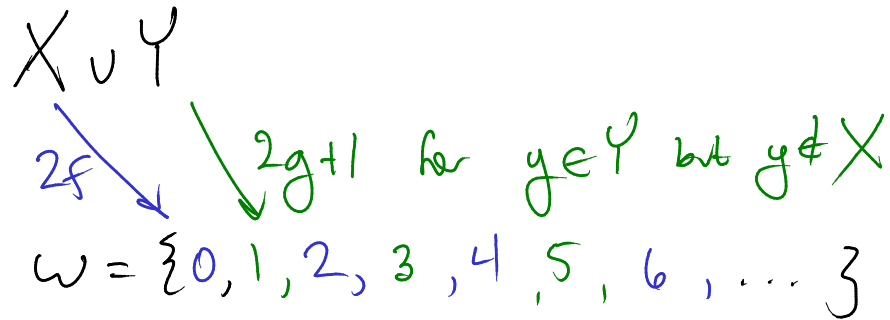
① The union of two countable sets is countable



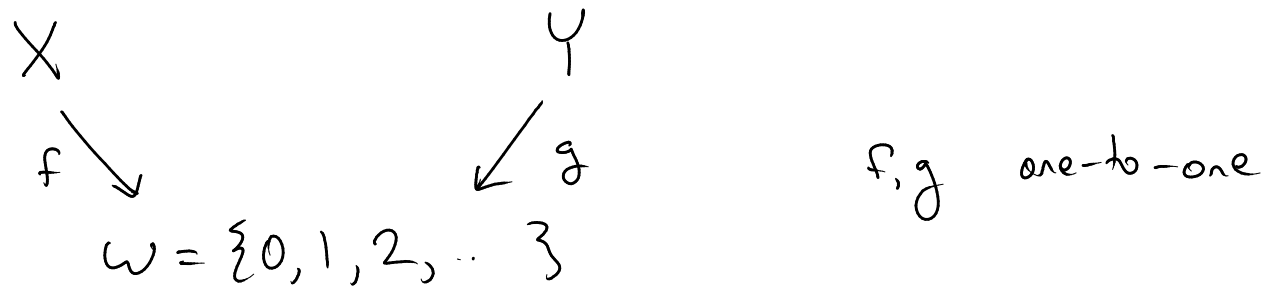
$f, g$  one-to-one

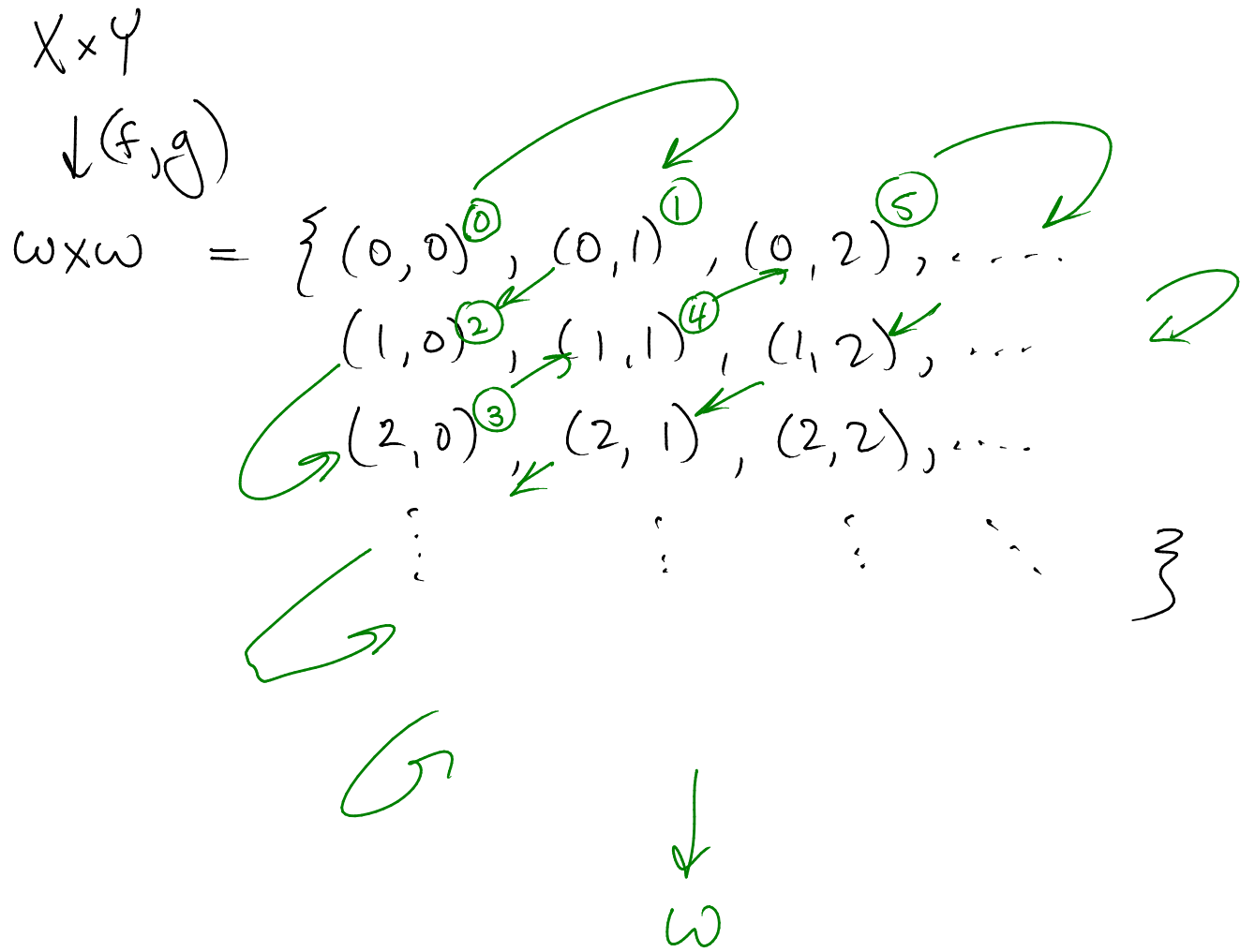


now the ranges are disjoint  
so put them together



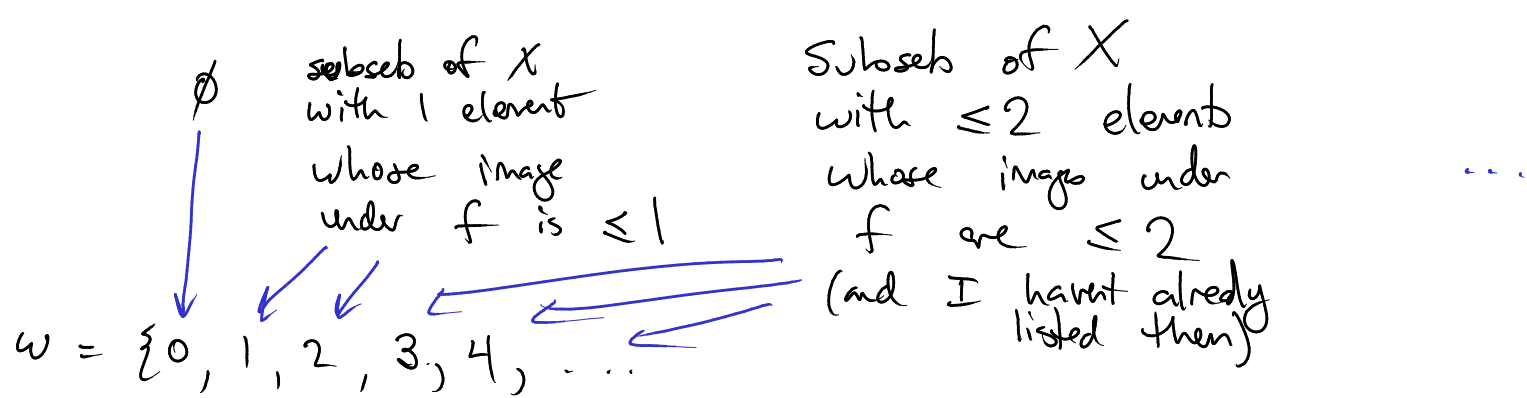
② The cartesian product of two countable sets is countable





③ The set of finite subsets of a countable set is countable

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 X & & \\
 f \downarrow & & f \text{ one-to-one} \\
 \omega = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\} & & 
 \end{array}$$



#### ④ Next time

- Cantor diagonalization - not every set is countable
- Cardinal numbers

Please read Halmos section 25