

4. CARDINALITY (of A.S)

Def. Two sets A, B are equinumerous (or have the same cardinality), when \exists bijection $f: A \leftrightarrow B$. We write $A \sim B$, or $|A| = |B|$.

Remark + Def. Note that $A \sim A$, $A \sim B \Rightarrow B \sim A$, and $A \sim B \wedge B \sim C \Rightarrow A \sim C$, so \sim is an equivalence relation on sets.

Its equivalence classes are called cardinal numbers. The class of A is denoted by $|A|$.

Def. A set X is finite, when $X = \emptyset$ or $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}_+ \exists$ bijection $f: \{1, \dots, n\} \leftrightarrow X$. Otherwise, X is called infinite.

Notation: $\{1, \dots, n\} =: I_n$. (Thus, X finite iff $X = \emptyset$ or $|X| = |I_n|$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$)

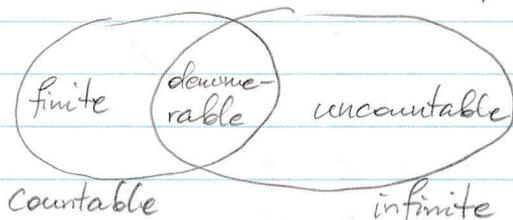
Def. For $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$, we identify $|I_n|$ with n .

• If a set X satisfies $X \sim I_n$, we say that X has n elements and write $|X| = n$.

• $|\emptyset| = 0$.

• If $|X| \neq n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, then the cardinal number of X is called transfinite.

• X is called denumerable, when \exists bijection $f: \mathbb{N}_+ \leftrightarrow X$.



• A finite or denumerable set is called countable. All other sets are uncountable.

Countable Sets

$|\mathbb{N}| \equiv \aleph_0 = \text{aleph naught}$

Examples: 1) $\mathbb{N} \sim 2\mathbb{N}$: $f(n) = 2n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$

2) $\mathbb{N} \sim \mathbb{Z}$:

$$f(n) = \begin{cases} k, & \text{if } n = 2k \\ -k, & \text{if } n = 2k - 1. \end{cases}$$

\mathbb{N} :	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	...
	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	
\mathbb{Z} :	0	-1	1	-2	2	-3	3	...

Thm. Let A be a set. Then,
 A is infinite iff $\exists B \subset A$ s.t. \exists bijection $f: B \leftrightarrow A$.

Proof = Exercise.

Thm. Let A be a countable set, and let $B \subset A$. Then, B is countable.

Pf: If B is finite, we're done. Suppose then that $|B| \neq n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.
Then also $|A| \neq n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ (since $B \subset A$), so we may fix a bijection $f: \mathbb{N}_+ \leftrightarrow A$.
We may thus write $A = \{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots\}$, where $a_n = f(n)$.
Set $X := f^{-1}(B)$. By assumption $B \neq \emptyset$, and thus $X \neq \emptyset$. By the well-ordering property of \mathbb{N} , X has a unique minimal element, say n_1 .
Define a function $g: \mathbb{N}_+ \rightarrow X$ recursively by setting $g(1) = n_1$, and for $k \geq 1$,
 $g(k+1) = n_{k+1} := \min\{l \in \mathbb{N} \mid l \in X \setminus \{g(1), \dots, g(k)\}\}$.
By definition, $\forall k, g(k+1) > g(k) \geq k$, so g is injective. Note that, $\forall k$,
 $g(k)$ is well-defined, as $X \setminus \{g(1), \dots, g(k-1)\} \neq \emptyset$ (for else B would be finite).
It follows that $f \circ g: \mathbb{N}_+ \rightarrow B$ is an injection, and by construction it is also surjective. Thus, $f \circ g: \mathbb{N}_+ \leftrightarrow B$ is bijective, which proves that B is denumerable. \square

Thm. Let A be a nonempty set. FCAE:

- (i) A is countable.
- (ii) There is an injection $f: A \hookrightarrow \mathbb{N}_+$.
- (iii) There is a surjection $g: \mathbb{N}_+ \twoheadrightarrow A$.

Pf:

(i) \Rightarrow (ii): Suppose A is countable. Then, by definition,
 $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}_+ \exists$ bijection $h_1: A \leftrightarrow I_n$ or else \exists bijection $h_2: \mathbb{N}_+ \leftrightarrow A$.
In the first case, set $f := \iota \circ h_1$, where $\iota: I_n \hookrightarrow \mathbb{N}_+$ is the inclusion.
In the second case, set $f := h_2^{-1}$. \checkmark

(ii) \Rightarrow (iii): Let $f: A \hookrightarrow \mathbb{N}_+$ be given. Then, $f: A \hookrightarrow f(A)$ is a bijection,
so f^{-1} is a bijection from $f(A) \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ onto A . Pick $a_0 \in A$,
and define
$$g(n) := \begin{cases} f^{-1}(n), & \text{if } n \in f(A) \\ a_0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \checkmark$$

(iii) \Rightarrow (i): Let $g: \mathbb{N}_+ \rightarrow A$ be given. Define $h: A \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_+$ by

$$h(a) := \min \{ n \in \mathbb{N}_+ \mid g(n) = a \}.$$

Then, h is injective ($a_1 \neq a_2 \Rightarrow \nexists n \in \mathbb{N}_+ \text{ st. } g(n) = a_1 \wedge g(n) = a_2 \Rightarrow h(a_1) \neq h(a_2)$), and so h is a bijection from A onto $h(A) \subseteq \mathbb{N}_+$. By the previous theorem, $h(A)$ is countable, and hence so is A , as $A \sim h(A)$. \square

More Examples of Countable Sets:

1) S, T countable $\Rightarrow S \cup T$ countable.

Pf: W.l.o.g. assume $S \neq \emptyset \neq T$. Then, by above thm., there are injectives $f: \mathbb{N}_+ \rightarrow S, g: \mathbb{N}_+ \rightarrow T$.

Define

$$h: \mathbb{N}_+ \ni n \mapsto \begin{cases} f(\frac{n+1}{2}), & n \text{ odd} \\ g(\frac{n}{2}), & n \text{ even} \end{cases}$$

Then, h is onto $S \cup T$, because $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}_+ \exists n \in \mathbb{N}_+ \text{ st. } k = \frac{n+1}{2} \ \&$
 $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}_+ \exists m \in \mathbb{N}_+ \text{ st. } k = \frac{m}{2}$. \square

2) S, T countable $\Rightarrow S \times T$ countable.

Pf. If $S = \emptyset$ or $T = \emptyset$, then $S \times T = \emptyset$, so we may assume $S \neq \emptyset \neq T$. There are injectives $f: S \hookrightarrow \mathbb{N}_+$ and $g: T \hookrightarrow \mathbb{N}_+$.

Define

$$h: S \times T \ni (s, t) \mapsto 2^{f(s)} \cdot 3^{g(t)} \in \mathbb{N}_+.$$

Then, h is injective, because $2^{f(s_1)} \cdot 3^{g(t_1)} = 2^{f(s_2)} \cdot 3^{g(t_2)} \Leftrightarrow f(s_1) - f(s_2) = 0 \wedge g(t_2) - g(t_1) = 0$. \square

3) \mathbb{Q} is countable.

Pf. Write $\mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Q}_- \cup \{0\} \cup \mathbb{Q}_+$. By the first example above, it suffices to show that \mathbb{Q}_+ is countable (as $\mathbb{Q}_- \sim \mathbb{Q}_+$ by the bijection $q \mapsto -q$).

Now, for any $q \in \mathbb{Q}_+$, there is a unique pair $(m_q, n_q) \in \mathbb{N}_+ \times \mathbb{N}_+$ st. $(m_q, n_q) = 1$ (rel. prime) $\wedge q = \frac{m_q}{n_q}$. Define $f: \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_+$ as

$$f(q) := 2^{m_q} \cdot 3^{n_q}.$$

Then, f is injective, b/c $2^{m_q} \cdot 3^{n_q} = 2^{m_p} \cdot 3^{n_p} \Rightarrow 2^{m_q - m_p} = 3^{n_p - n_q} \Rightarrow$
 $\Rightarrow m_q - m_p = 0 = n_p - n_q \Rightarrow (m_q, n_q) = (m_p, n_p) \Rightarrow q = p. \blacksquare$

4) Countable union of countable sets is countable.

Pf. Let $\{A_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a family of countable sets. W.l.o.g. we may assume that each A_n is denumerable. Write the elements of all the A_n in an infinite matrix:

$A_1: a_{11}, a_{12}, a_{13}, a_{14}, \dots$
 $A_2: a_{21}, a_{22}, a_{23}, a_{24}, \dots$
 $A_3: a_{31}, a_{32}, a_{33}, a_{34}, \dots$
 $A_4: a_{41}, \dots$
 \vdots

← this listing defines a surjection $\mathbb{N}_+ \rightarrow \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$.

Thm. (Cantor) The set \mathbb{R} is not countable.

Pf. For a proof by contradiction suppose \mathbb{R} is countable, and let $\{r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots\}$ be the listing of all the elements of \mathbb{R} . Write the decimal expansions of the r_n in an infinite matrix:

$r_1 = a_{10} . a_{11} a_{12} a_{13} a_{14} a_{15} \dots$
 $r_2 = a_{20} . a_{21} a_{22} a_{23} a_{24} a_{25} \dots$
 $r_3 = a_{30} . a_{31} a_{32} a_{33} a_{34} a_{35} \dots$
 \vdots

where the $a_{i0} = \lfloor r_i \rfloor$ is the integral part of r_i , and $a_{i1}, a_{i2}, a_{i3}, \dots \in \{0, 1, \dots, 9\}$ are the consecutive digits of its decimal expansion.

Define $t \in \mathbb{R}$ to be the number given by a decimal expansion $b_0 . b_1 b_2 b_3 b_4 \dots$, where

$$b_i = \begin{cases} 5, & \text{if } a_{ii} \neq 5 \\ 0, & \text{if } a_{ii} = 5. \end{cases}$$

By construction, $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}_+, t \neq r_k$, because their decimal exp's disagree in the k 'th place. \blacksquare

Ordering of Cardinals

Def. We define the " \leq " relation on cardinal numbers by setting $|A| \leq |B|$, when there is an injection $A \hookrightarrow B$.

Thm. (Cantor-Bernstein) If $|X| \leq |Y|$ and $|Y| \leq |X|$, then $|X| = |Y|$.

That is, if there are injections $X \hookrightarrow Y$ and $Y \hookrightarrow X$, then there is a bijection $X \xrightarrow{\sim} Y$.

Pf. Given injections $f: X \hookrightarrow Y$, $g: Y \hookrightarrow X$, define $\varphi := g \circ f: X \rightarrow X$.

Then, φ is an injection and hence a bijection from X onto $\varphi(X)$.

Set $Z := g(Y)$, and $V := X \setminus Z$.

Then, $g: Y \hookrightarrow Z$, and $\varphi(X) \subseteq Z \subseteq X$. (*)

Notation:

Given $\varphi: X \rightarrow X$, $C \subseteq X$, set $\varphi^0(C) := C$, $\varphi^{k+1}(C) := \varphi(\varphi^k(C))$, $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Observations: (i) $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\varphi^{n+1}(X) \subseteq \varphi^n(Z) \subseteq \varphi^n(X)$ (from (*))

(ii) $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\varphi^n(X) \setminus \varphi^n(Z) = \varphi^n(V)$ (by def. of V and inj. of φ)

(iii) $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\varphi^n(V) \cap \varphi^n(Z) = \emptyset$ (— " —)

(iv) $\forall k, l \in \mathbb{N}$, $k < l \Rightarrow \varphi^k(X) \supseteq \varphi^l(X)$ (b/c $\varphi(X) \subseteq X$)

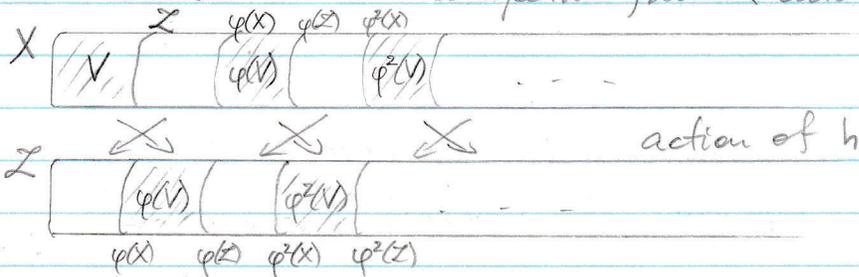
(v) $\forall k, l \in \mathbb{N}$, $k < l \Rightarrow \varphi^k(Z) \supseteq \varphi^l(X) \supseteq \varphi^l(V)$ (by (i) & (iv))

Now, define

$$S := V \cup \varphi(V) \cup \varphi^2(V) \cup \dots = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \varphi^k(V), \text{ and}$$

$$h: X \rightarrow X \text{ by } h(x) := \begin{cases} \varphi(x), & \text{if } x \in S \\ x, & \text{if } x \in X \setminus S. \end{cases}$$

We'll show that h is a bijection from X onto Z .



a) Injectivity of h follows easily from injectivity of φ .

b) Surjectivity: $h(S) = \varphi(S) = \varphi\left(\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} \varphi^k(V)\right) = \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} \varphi^{k+1}(V) = \bigcup_{l=1}^{\infty} \varphi^l(V) = \overline{S \setminus V}$

b/c by (v), $\bigcup_{l=1}^{\infty} \varphi^l(V) \subseteq \varphi^0(Z) = Z$ and $Z \cap V = \emptyset$.

Also, $h(X \setminus S) = X \setminus S$. Hence, $h(X) = h(S \cup (X \setminus S)) = h(S) \cup h(X \setminus S) =$

$$= (S \setminus V) \cup (X \setminus S) = X \setminus V = Z. \checkmark$$

Thus, $h: X \leftrightarrow Z$ and composing with the inverse of $g: Y \leftrightarrow Z$, we get $X \approx Y$.

Thm. For any set S , we have $|S| < |\mathcal{P}(S)|$.

Pf. Clearly, $|S| \leq |\mathcal{P}(S)|$ for any S , b/c there is an injection $S \ni s \mapsto \{s\} \in \mathcal{P}(S)$. \checkmark

Suppose then that there is a set S st. $|S| = |\mathcal{P}(S)|$, and let $f: S \leftrightarrow \mathcal{P}(S)$ be a bijection.

Define $T := \{s \in S \mid s \notin f(s)\}$.

By bijectivity of f , $\exists! t \in S$ st. $T = f(t)$. Then, $t \in T \Rightarrow t \notin T$ and $t \notin T \Rightarrow \neg(t \in T)$. $\downarrow \quad \square$

Corollary. $\aleph_0 = |\mathbb{N}| < |\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})| < |\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}))| < \dots$ is an infinite sequence of cardinals.

Continuum Hypothesis (Cantor):

There's no set X s.t. $\aleph_0 < |X| < \aleph_1$, where $\aleph_1 = |\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})|$.

Cardinal Arithmetic:

Def. Given cardinal numbers α, β , we define

- $\alpha + \beta := |A \cup B|$, where $|A| = \alpha$, $|B| = \beta$, and $A \cap B = \emptyset$
- $\alpha \cdot \beta := |A \times B|$, where $|A| = \alpha$, $|B| = \beta$.

Prop. The above are well-defined; i.e., independent of the choice of representations

Pf. = Exercise.

Prop. For any cardinal numbers α, β, γ , we have:

- (a) $\alpha + \beta = \beta + \alpha$
- (b) $\alpha + (\beta + \gamma) = (\alpha + \beta) + \gamma$
- (c) $\alpha \cdot \beta = \beta \cdot \alpha$
- (d) $\alpha \cdot (\beta \cdot \gamma) = (\alpha \cdot \beta) \cdot \gamma$
- (e) $\alpha \cdot (\beta + \gamma) = \alpha \cdot \beta + \alpha \cdot \gamma$.

Pf. (e): $A \times (B \cup C) = (A \times B) \cup (A \times C)$. \checkmark

The other points are trivial. \square

Notation: $\mathcal{P}(X) = 2^X$.

Justification: Every subset Y of X can be identified with its characteristic function (rel. X), $\chi_Y: X \rightarrow \{0,1\}$.

If $|X| < \aleph_0$, then $\#\{\text{characteristic functions}\} = 2^{|X|}$.

Thm. $|2^{\mathbb{N}}| = \aleph_1$.

Pf. Let $\mathcal{F} = \{\chi_A \mid A \subseteq \mathbb{N}_+\}$. Define $f: \mathcal{F} \ni \chi_A \mapsto 0.\chi_A(1)\chi_A(2)\chi_A(3)\dots \in [0,1]$.

Then, f is surjective, and hence \exists inj. $g: [0,1] \hookrightarrow \mathcal{F}$.

Since $[0,1] \sim (0,1) \sim \mathbb{R}$, and $\mathcal{F} \sim 2^{\mathbb{N}}$, it follows that:

$$x \mapsto \tan\left(\pi x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \quad \uparrow \quad \aleph_1 = |[0,1]| \leq |\mathcal{F}| = |2^{\mathbb{N}}|.$$

On the other hand, $\tilde{f}: \mathcal{F} \ni \chi_A \mapsto 0.\chi_A(1)\chi_A(2)\chi_A(3)\dots$ as a decimal exp. $\in [0,1]$.

is (clearly) injective, and so $|2^{\mathbb{N}}| = |\mathcal{F}| \leq \aleph_1$.

The result thus follows from Cantor-Bernstein. \square

Thm. \aleph_0 is the least transfinite cardinal. i.e., \forall cardinal α , $[\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \alpha \neq n] \Rightarrow \aleph_0 \leq \alpha$.

Pf. Axiom of choice. \square

Prop. $|\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}| = |\mathbb{R}|$.

Pf. Clearly, $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ is infinite. Hence, $|\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}| \geq \aleph_0$, by above.

Suppose $|\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}| = \aleph_0$. Then, $|\mathbb{R}| = |(\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}) \cup \mathbb{Q}| = \aleph_0 + \aleph_0 = \aleph_0$; contradiction.

Thus, $\aleph_0 < |\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}|$.

On the other hand, $|\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}| \leq |\mathbb{R}|$, so the claim follows from the

Continuum Hypothesis. \square

Prop. (i) $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n + \aleph_0 = \aleph_0$.

(ii) $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}_+$, $n \cdot \aleph_0 = \aleph_0$.

(iii) $\aleph_0 \cdot \aleph_0 = \aleph_0$.

(iv) $\forall \alpha, \beta$ transfinite $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n + \alpha = \aleph_0 + \beta \Leftrightarrow \alpha = \beta$,

$\aleph_0 + \alpha = \aleph_0 + \beta \Leftrightarrow \alpha = \beta$.

Example: The Cantor set (ternary) is uncountable.

III. REAL NUMBERS (cf. Ch. 3)

1. ORDERED FIELDS

Def. A field is a tuple $(F, +, \cdot)$ where F is a nonempty (!) set, $+$: $F \times F \rightarrow F$ and \cdot : $F \times F \rightarrow F$ are functions, called addition and multiplication, satisfying the following axioms:

(A1) $\forall x, y \in F, x + y \in F$

(A2) $\forall x, y \in F, x + y = y + x$ /commutativity/

(A3) $\forall x, y, z \in F, x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z$ /associativity/

(A4) there exists an element $0 \in F$ st. $\forall x \in F, x + 0 = x$ /additive identity/

(A5) $\forall x \in F \exists y \in F$ st. $x + y = 0$. We write $y = -x$. /additive inverse/

(M1) $\forall x, y \in F, x \cdot y \in F$

(M2) $\forall x, y \in F, x \cdot y = y \cdot x$

(M3) $\forall x, y, z \in F, x \cdot (y \cdot z) = (x \cdot y) \cdot z$

(M4) there exists an element $1 \in F \setminus \{0\}$ st. $\forall x \in F, x \cdot 1 = x$ /multiplicative identity/

(M5) $\forall x \in F \setminus \{0\} \exists y \in F$ st. $x \cdot y = 1$. We write $y = x^{-1}$ (or $\frac{1}{x}$)

(DL) $\forall x, y, z \in F, x \cdot (y + z) = x \cdot y + x \cdot z$. /distributive law/

(§ 3.4) Thm. Let $(F, +, \cdot)$ be a field. Then,

(i) The additive and multiplicative identities are unique.

(ii) $\forall x \in F, -x$ is unique.

(iii) $\forall x \in F \setminus \{0\}, x^{-1}$ is unique.

(iv) $\forall x, y, z \in F, (x + z = y + z) \Rightarrow (x = y)$ /cancellation law/

(v) $\forall x \in F, x \cdot 0 = 0$

(vi) $\forall x \in F, (-1) \cdot x = -x$

(vii) $\forall x, y \in F, x \cdot y = 0 \Rightarrow (x = 0 \vee y = 0)$

(viii) $\forall x, y \in F \exists! z \in F$ st. $x = y + z$ /subtraction/

(ix) $\forall x \in F \forall y \in F \setminus \{0\} \exists! z \in F$ st. $x = y \cdot z$ /division/

Pf. (i) Suppose $0_1, 0_2$ both satisfy (A4). Then, $0_1 \stackrel{(A4) \text{ for } 0_2}{=} 0_1 + 0_2 \stackrel{(A2)}{=} 0_2 + 0_1 \stackrel{(A4) \text{ for } 0_1}{=} 0_2$ ✓

Similarly, if $1_1, 1_2$ both satisfy (M4), then $1_1 \stackrel{(M4) \text{ for } 1_2}{=} 1_1 \cdot 1_2 \stackrel{(M2)}{=} 1_2 \cdot 1_1 \stackrel{(M4) \text{ for } 1_1}{=} 1_2$. ✓

(ii) Given $x \in F$, suppose $x+y=0 \wedge x+z=0$. Then, $y=y+0=y+(x+z)=(x+y)+z=0+z=x$. ✓

(iii) Given $x \in F \setminus \{0\}$, suppose $xy=1 \wedge xz=1$. Then, $y=y \cdot 1=y \cdot (x \cdot z)=(x \cdot y) \cdot z=1 \cdot z=z \cdot 1=z$. ✓

(iv) Let x, y, z be sf. $x+z=y+z$. Then, $x=x+0=x+(z+(-z))=(x+z)+(-z)=y+(z+(-z))=y+0=y$. ✓

(v) Given $x \in F$, we have $x \cdot 0 = x \cdot (0+0) = x \cdot 0 + x \cdot 0$. On the other hand, $x \cdot 0 = x \cdot 0 + 0$, hence $0 + x \cdot 0 = x \cdot 0 + x \cdot 0$, and thus $0 = x \cdot 0$, by (iv). ✓

(vi) Given $x \in F$, $(-1) \cdot x + x = ((-1)+1) \cdot x = 0 \cdot x = 0$, by (v). By (ii) then, $(-1) \cdot x = -x$. ✓

(vii) Suppose $x, y \in F \setminus \{0\}$ and $x \cdot y = 0$. Then, both x and y have multiplicative inverses and hence $1 = 1 \cdot 1 \stackrel{\text{by (iv), } 1 \neq 0}{=} x^{-1} \cdot x \cdot y \cdot y^{-1} = x^{-1} \cdot 0 \cdot y^{-1} = x^{-1} \cdot 0 = 0$, by (v). This contradicts (M4). ✓

(viii) Given $x, y \in F$, define $z = x + (-y)$. Then, $x = x + 0 = x + (y + (-y)) = y + (x + (-y)) = y + z$. If, for some other $w \in F$, $x = y + w$, then $y + w = y + z \stackrel{\text{(iv)}}{\implies} w = z$. ✓

(ix) Given $x \in F$ and $y \in F \setminus \{0\}$, define $z = x \cdot (y^{-1})$. Then $x = x \cdot 1 = x \cdot (y \cdot y^{-1}) = y \cdot (x \cdot y^{-1}) = y \cdot z$. If also $x = y \cdot w$, then $w = 1 \cdot w = y^{-1} \cdot y \cdot w = y^{-1} \cdot x = y^{-1} \cdot y \cdot z = 1 \cdot z = z$. ✓

Def. The characteristic of a field F is defined as

$$\text{char}(F) = \begin{cases} p & , \text{ if } p = \min\{k \in \mathbb{N} \mid \underbrace{1+1+\dots+1}_{k \text{ times}} = 0\} \\ 0 & , \text{ if there's no such } p \end{cases}$$

Examples:

1) $\mathbb{Q} = \{P/q : p \in \mathbb{Z}, q \in \mathbb{N}_+\}$ = rational numbers - the smallest field of characteristic 0.

2) \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C} - other fields of characteristic 0.

3) If $p \in \mathbb{N}$ is a prime, define $\mathbb{Z}_p := \{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}, \dots, \overline{p-1}\}$ with addition and multiplication induced from \mathbb{Z} modulo p (ie, $\overline{m+n} = \overline{m+n}$, $\overline{m \cdot n} = \overline{m \cdot n}$). Then, \mathbb{Z}_p is a field and $\text{char}(\mathbb{Z}_p) = p$.

Def. An ordered field is a field equipped with a linear order relation compatible with the field addition and multiplication. That is, $(F, +, \cdot)$ is an ordered field, when there is a relation " $<$ " on F satisfying the following

- (01) $\forall x, y \in F, x < y \vee x = y \vee y < x$ (trichotomy)
- (02) $\forall x, y, z \in F, x < y \wedge y < z \implies x < z$ (transitivity)
- (03) $\forall x, y, z \in F, x < y \implies x + z < y + z$
- (04) $\forall x, y, z \in F, x < y \wedge 0 < z \implies x \cdot z < y \cdot z$

Notation:
We write $x \leq y$, when $x < y \vee x = y$.

Examples: \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R} with usual $<$. But, \mathbb{C} or \mathbb{Z}_p are not ordered fields!

Def. Let $(F, <)$ be an ordered field. We say that an element $a \in F$ is positive when $0 < a$, and negative when $a < 0$. (Also, nonnegative when $0 \leq a$.)

(af.3.5) Thm. Let $(F, <)$ be an ordered field, $x, y, z, w \in F$. Then,

(i) $(x < y \wedge z < w) \Rightarrow x+z < y+w$

(ii) $x < y \Rightarrow -y < -x$

(iii) $(x < y \wedge z < 0) \Rightarrow xz > yz$

(iv) $0 < 1$

(v) $x > 0 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{x} > 0$

(vi) $0 < x < y \Rightarrow \frac{1}{x} > \frac{1}{y}$

Pf. (i) Suppose $x < y \wedge z < w$. Then, $x+z \stackrel{(03)}{<} y+z \stackrel{(03)}{<} w+z = y+w$. ✓

(ii) Suppose $x < y$. Then, $-y = -y+0 = -y+(x+(-x)) = x+(-y+(-x)) \stackrel{(01)}{<} (y+(-y))+(-x) = 0+(-x) = -x$. ✓

(iii) By (ii), if $z < 0$, then $-z > -0$. But $-0 = 0$, so $0 < -z$. Then, $x < y \stackrel{(01)}{\Rightarrow} x \cdot (-z) < y \cdot (-z) \Rightarrow -xz < -yz \stackrel{(ii)}{\Rightarrow} -(-yz) < -(-xz) \Rightarrow yz < xz$. ✓
by uniqueness of additive inverse

(iv) By definition $0 \neq 1$. Suppose then that $1 < 0$.

Then, $1 = 1 \cdot 1 \stackrel{(iv)}{>} 1 \cdot 0 = 0$ which contradicts $1 < 0$. Thus, by (01), $0 < 1$. ✓

(v) Suppose $x > 0$. Then, $\neg(\frac{1}{x} = 0)$, for else $1 = x \cdot \frac{1}{x} = x \cdot 0 = 0$; a contradiction.

By (01) thus $\frac{1}{x} < 0$ or $\frac{1}{x} > 0$. Suppose $\frac{1}{x} < 0$. Then, by (iii),

$x > 0 \Rightarrow 1 = x \cdot \frac{1}{x} < 0 \cdot \frac{1}{x} = 0$, which contradicts (v). Thus, $\frac{1}{x} > 0$. ✓

(vi) Suppose $0 < x < y$. Then, $\neg(\frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{y})$, for else $1 = x \cdot \frac{1}{x} = x \cdot \frac{1}{y} < y \cdot \frac{1}{y} = 1$; a contradiction.

Thus, by (01), $\frac{1}{x} < \frac{1}{y}$ or $\frac{1}{y} < \frac{1}{x}$. by (01) & (v)

Suppose $\frac{1}{x} < \frac{1}{y}$. Then, $1 = x \cdot \frac{1}{x} < x \cdot \frac{1}{y} < y \cdot \frac{1}{y} = 1$; a contradiction. Thus, $\frac{1}{y} < \frac{1}{x}$. ✓

Thm. Let $(F, <)$ be an ordered field. Then, there is an injection $\mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{\varphi} F$, such that elements of $\varphi(\mathbb{N}_+)$ are positive, and $\text{char}(F) = 0$.

Pf. Define a function $\varphi: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow F$ recursively by $\varphi(0_{\mathbb{N}}) = 0_F$, $\varphi(n+1_{\mathbb{N}}) = \varphi(n_{\mathbb{N}}) + 1_F$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$. Then, by above thm, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\varphi(n) = 0 + \varphi(n) < 1 + \varphi(n) = \varphi(n+1) = 0 + \varphi(n+1) < 1 + \varphi(n+1) = \varphi(n+2) < \dots$. One easily proves by induction that $\varphi(n) < \varphi(n+k)$, $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}_+$. Thus, φ is injective. In particular, there is no $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$ with $\varphi(n) = 0$, hence $\text{char}(F) = 0$, by definition. ✓

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Corollary. Every ordered field \mathbb{F} contains the field of rational numbers \mathbb{Q} .

Pf. Let $(\mathbb{F}, <)$ be an ordered field. Then, $\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{F}$ and hence, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}_+, \frac{1}{n} \in \mathbb{F}$ (by (M5)).
Similarly, by (A5), $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, -n \in \mathbb{F}$. Thus, by (M1), $\forall m, n \in \mathbb{N}_+, \frac{m}{n}, -\frac{m}{n} \in \mathbb{F}$. \square

Corollary. Let $(\mathbb{F}, <)$ be an ordered field, $x, y \in \mathbb{F}$.
If $\forall \varepsilon > 0, x \leq y + \varepsilon$, then $x \leq y$.

Pf. Suppose $\forall \varepsilon > 0, x \leq y + \varepsilon$ and $y < x$. Then $x - y > 0$, and so $\varepsilon := \frac{1}{2}(x - y) > 0$.
Now, $y + \varepsilon = y + \frac{1}{2}(x - y) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2 \cdot y + \frac{1}{2}(x - y) = \frac{1}{2}(2y + x - y) = \frac{1}{2}((1+1)y + x - y) = \frac{1}{2}(y + x + (y - y))$
 $= \frac{1}{2}(y + x) < \frac{1}{2}(x + x) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2 \cdot x = x$; a contradiction. \square

Def. Let $(\mathbb{F}, <)$ be an ordered field. Define the absolute value function on \mathbb{F} as
$$|x| := \begin{cases} x, & \text{when } 0 \leq x \\ -x, & \text{when } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

Thm. Let $(\mathbb{F}, <)$ be an ordered field, $x, y \in \mathbb{F}, a \in \mathbb{F}, a \geq 0$. Then,

(i) $|x| \geq 0$

(ii) $|x| \leq a \iff -a \leq x \leq a$

(iii) $|x \cdot y| = |x| \cdot |y|$

(iv) $|x + y| \leq |x| + |y|$ (triangle inequality)

Pf. (i) By definition, and since $x > 0 \implies -x = x \cdot (-1) < 0$. \checkmark

(ii) Suppose $|x| \leq a$. If $x \geq 0$, then $x = |x| \leq a$. Also, $a \geq 0 \implies -a \leq 0$, so $-a \leq 0 < x$. \checkmark

If $x < 0$, then $x = -|x| = (-1) \cdot |x| \geq (-1) \cdot a = -a$. Also, $a \geq 0 \implies x < 0 \leq a$. \checkmark

Conversely, suppose $-a \leq x \leq a$. If $x \geq 0$, then $|x| = x \leq a$. \checkmark

If $x < 0$, then $|x| = -x$, and $-x = (-1) \cdot x \leq (-1) \cdot (-a) = a$. \checkmark

(iii) Exercise.

(iv) We have, by (ii), $-|x| \leq x \leq |x| \wedge -|y| \leq y \leq |y|$, hence

$-(|x| + |y|) = -|x| + (-|y|) \leq x + y \leq |x| + |y|$, hence $|x + y| \leq |x| + |y|$, by (ii) again. \square

Def. (Interval) Let $(X, <)$ be a nonempty set with a linear order relation $<$.
A subset $I \subset X$ is called an interval (in X), when

$$\forall x, y, z \in X, (x \in I \wedge y \in I \wedge x < z \wedge z < y) \implies z \in I.$$

2. COMPLETENESS AXIOM

Def. Let $(X, <)$ be a nonempty set with linear ordering $<$, let $S \subset X$.

- 1) Element $a \in X$ is called a lower bound for S , when $a \leq s, \forall s \in S$.
- 2) If S has a lower bound, we say S is bounded below.
- 3) Element $a \in X$ is called an upper bound for S , when $s \leq a, \forall s \in S$.
- 4) If S has an upper bound, we say S is bounded above.
- 5) Element $a \in X$ is called the minimal element of S (or minimum of S), when $a \in S \wedge (\forall s \in S, a \leq s)$.
- 6) Element $a \in X$ is called the maximal element of S (or maximum of S), when $a \in S \wedge (\forall s \in S, s \leq a)$.

Examples: Closed vs open intervals, \mathbb{N} , $\{\frac{1}{n} : n \in \mathbb{N}_+\}$.

Def. Let $(X, <)$ be a nonempty set w/ linear order $<$, let $S \subset X$, $S \neq \emptyset$ be bounded.

- 1) Element $\alpha \in X$ is called the infimum (or greatest lower bound) of S , when $(\forall s \in S, \alpha \leq s) \wedge [\forall \beta \in X, \alpha < \beta \Rightarrow (\exists s \in S \text{ st. } s < \beta)]$.
- 2) Element $\alpha \in X$ is called the supremum (or least upper bound) of S , when $(\forall s \in S, s \leq \alpha) \wedge [\forall \beta \in X, \beta < \alpha \Rightarrow (\exists s \in S \text{ st. } \beta < s)]$.

Examples: $\{\frac{1}{n} : n \in \mathbb{N}_+\}$; $[0, \sqrt{2}] \cap \mathbb{Q}$ in $X = \mathbb{Q}$; $[0, \sqrt{2})$ in \mathbb{R} ; if $\max S$ exists, then $\sup S = \max S$. (!)

Def. We say that a nonempty linearly ordered set $(X, <)$ satisfies Completeness Axiom, when every nonempty bounded above subset of X has a least upper bound.

- (!) Def. The field \mathbb{R} of real numbers is defined as the smallest (w/ to inclusion) ordered field satisfying the Completeness Axiom.

Archimedean Property of \mathbb{R}

Thm. The set \mathbb{N} is not bounded above in \mathbb{R} .

Pf. Suppose otherwise, and let $\alpha = \sup \mathbb{N}$. Then, $\alpha - 1$ is not an upper bound for \mathbb{N} , so $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ st. $\alpha - 1 < n$. But then $\alpha < n + 1$. \downarrow \square

Thm. FCAE:

- (i) \mathbb{N} is not bounded above.
- (ii) $\forall x \in \mathbb{R} \exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ st. $x < n$.
- (iii) $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, x > 0 \Rightarrow \exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ st. $n \cdot x > y$.
- (iv) $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, x > 0 \Rightarrow \exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ st. $0 < \frac{1}{n} < x$.

Pf. (i) \Rightarrow (ii) \checkmark

(ii) \Rightarrow (iii): Let $x \in \mathbb{R}_+, y \in \mathbb{R}$ be arbitrary. By (ii), $\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ st. $\frac{y}{x} < n_0$.
Then, as $x > 0, \frac{y}{x} \cdot x < n_0 \cdot x$. \checkmark

(iii) \Rightarrow (iv): Let $x \in \mathbb{R}_+$ be arbitrary. By (iii), $\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}_+$ st. $n_0 \cdot x > 1$.
Then, $n_0 > 0 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{n_0} > 0 \Rightarrow n_0 \cdot x \cdot \frac{1}{n_0} > 1 \cdot \frac{1}{n_0}$; i.e., $x > \frac{1}{n_0}$. \checkmark

(iv) \Rightarrow (i): Suppose $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ is st. $\alpha \geq n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then, $\alpha \geq 1 > 0$, and for all $n \in \mathbb{N}_+, \frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{1}{\alpha}$, contradicting (iv). \square

Thm. For every $s \in \mathbb{R}, s > 0 \Rightarrow \exists x \in \mathbb{R}$ st. $x^2 = s$.

Pf. Given $s \in \mathbb{R}_+, \text{ let } S := \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x \geq 0 \wedge x^2 \leq s\}$.

Then, $S \neq \emptyset$ as $0 \in S$, and S is bndd above (indeed, $s > 0 \Rightarrow s+1 > 1 \Rightarrow (s+1)^2 > s+1 \Rightarrow s+1 \notin S$).

Let $\alpha := \sup S$. We claim that $\alpha^2 = s$. Proof by contradiction:

I. Suppose $\alpha^2 < s$.

Then, $s - \alpha^2 > 0$, so $\exists n_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ st. $s - \alpha^2 > \frac{1}{n_1}$, or $\alpha^2 + \frac{1}{n_1} < s$.

Now, if we find $n_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ st. $(\alpha + \frac{1}{n_2})^2 \leq \alpha^2 + \frac{1}{n_1}$, then $\alpha + \frac{1}{n_2} \in S$, contradicting definition of α .

So, it suffices to find $n_2 \in \mathbb{N}_+$ st. $\alpha^2 + \frac{2\alpha}{n_2} + \frac{1}{n_2^2} \leq \alpha^2 + \frac{1}{n_1}$, or $\frac{2\alpha}{n_2} + \frac{1}{n_2^2} \leq \frac{1}{n_1}$.

Since $1 \leq n_2$ then $\frac{2\alpha}{n_2} + \frac{1}{n_2^2} \leq \frac{2\alpha+1}{n_2}$. Choosing $n_2 \geq n_1(2\alpha+1)$ does the job. \checkmark

II. Suppose then that $s < \alpha^2$.

Then, $\exists n_1 \in \mathbb{N}_+$ st. $\alpha^2 - s > \frac{1}{n_1}$, or $\alpha^2 - \frac{1}{n_1} > s$.

Again, we look for $n_2 \in \mathbb{N}_2$ st. $(\alpha - \frac{1}{n_2})^2 \geq \alpha^2 - \frac{1}{n_1}$, b/c for such n_2 we get that $\alpha - \frac{1}{n_2} \notin S$ and hence $\sup S \leq \alpha - \frac{1}{n_2}$, contradicting definition of α .

Need $\alpha^2 - \frac{2\alpha}{n_2} + \frac{1}{n_2^2} \geq \alpha^2 - \frac{1}{n_1}$, or $\frac{1}{n_1} \geq \frac{2\alpha}{n_2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2}$.

Now, if $\frac{1}{n_1} \geq \frac{2\alpha}{n_2}$, then also $\frac{1}{n_1} \geq \frac{2\alpha}{n_2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2}$, so suffices to have $n_2 \geq n_1 \cdot 2\alpha$. \square

(28)
Corollary. For every prime number p , there exists $x_p \in \mathbb{R}$ st. $x_p^2 = p$.
Hence, $\mathbb{Q} \neq \mathbb{R}$.

Density of \mathbb{Q} in \mathbb{R}

Thm. If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, $x < y$, then there is $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ st. $x < q < y$.

Pf. By Archimedean Principle, $y > x \Rightarrow y - x > 0 \Rightarrow \exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ st. $\frac{1}{n} < \frac{y-x}{2}$.
Fix such n . Then, $\exists k_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ st. $x < \frac{k_0}{n_0} < y$. Indeed, $\exists k \in \mathbb{N}$ st. $k > n_0 \cdot x$.
Let k_0 be the minimal such k (exists, by Well-ordering Principle).
Then, $k_0 - 1 \leq n_0 \cdot x$, so $\frac{k_0}{n_0} \leq x + \frac{1}{n_0} < x + \frac{y-x}{2} = \frac{y+x}{2} < \frac{2y}{2} = y$. \square

Thm. If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, $x < y$, then there is $s \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ st. $x < s < y$.

Pf. By above theorem, $\exists q \in \mathbb{Q}$ st. $\frac{x}{\sqrt{2}} < q < \frac{y}{\sqrt{2}}$. Then $s := q\sqrt{2}$ is good. \square

Thm. (Nested Interval Principle) Let $I_1 \supseteq I_2 \supseteq I_3 \supseteq \dots$ be a nested sequence of closed intervals in \mathbb{R} . Then, $\bigcap_{k \geq 1} I_k \neq \emptyset$.

Proof: For $k \in \mathbb{N}_+$, let a_k denote the left end-point of I_k , and b_k - the right one.
Then, the set $\{a_k \mid k \in \mathbb{N}_+\}$ is bounded above (for instance, by b_1) and the set $\{b_k \mid k \in \mathbb{N}_+\}$ is bounded below (by a_1).

Thus, $\alpha := \sup \{a_k \mid k \in \mathbb{N}_+\}$, $\beta := \inf \{b_k \mid k \in \mathbb{N}_+\}$ are well-defined.

Claim: $\alpha \leq \beta$.

For a proof by contradiction, suppose $\beta < \alpha$. Then, β is not an upper bound for $\{a_k \mid k \geq 1\}$, so we can pick a_{k_1} st. $\beta < a_{k_1} \leq \alpha$. Then, in turn, a_{k_1} is not a lower bound for $\{b_k \mid k \geq 1\}$, so we can pick b_{k_2} st.

$b_{k_2} < a_{k_1}$. Let $k_0 := \max\{k_1, k_2\}$. Then, $b_{k_0} \leq b_{k_2} < a_{k_1} \leq a_{k_0}$ (by nestedness of the interval sequence), which contradicts $a_{k_0} \leq b_{k_0}$. \square

Now, by construction, $\frac{\beta + \alpha}{2}$ is greater than or equal to a_k , $\forall k \geq 1$, and less than or equal to b_k , $\forall k \geq 1$, hence $\frac{\alpha + \beta}{2} \in I_k$, $\forall k \geq 1$. \square