## 4 Ordinals

The ordinals are canonical well-ordered sets.

**Definition 4.1.** A set x is *transitive* iff  $\forall y.y \in x \implies y \subseteq x$ .

*Remark.* If z is transitive, then  $x \in y \in z \implies x \in z$ .

**Definition 4.2.** x is an *ordinal* iff

- x is transitive, and
- $\langle x, \in \uparrow x \rangle$  is a well-ordering.

*Remark.* In what follows, we use  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  to refer to arbitrary ordinals.

**Lemma 4.3.** If  $x \in \alpha$ , then x is an ordinal.

*Proof.* Since  $\alpha$  is transitive,  $x \subseteq a$ ; therefore it is clear that  $\langle x, \in \upharpoonright x \rangle$  is a wellordering since  $\langle \alpha, \in \upharpoonright \alpha \rangle$  is. To see that x is transitive, suppose the contrary. That is, suppose there is some  $y \in x$  and  $z \in y$  such that  $z \notin x$ . Note that x, y, and z are all elements of  $\alpha$ , since  $\alpha$  is transitive. Since  $\alpha$  is well-ordered under  $\in$ , either x = z or  $x \in z$ . If x = z, then  $z \in y \in z$ , contradicting the fact that  $\alpha$  is well-ordered; if  $x \in z$ , then  $x \in z \in y \in x$ , contradicting the fact that x is well-ordered.

**Lemma 4.4.** If  $\beta \subseteq \alpha$  and  $\beta \neq \alpha$  then  $\beta \in \alpha$ .

*Proof.* Consider the set  $\alpha - \beta$ , which is nonempty by the given premises. Let  $\gamma$  be the  $\in$ -least element of  $\alpha - \beta$ . Then  $\beta = \gamma$ , which can be shown as follows.

 $(\subseteq)$ . Suppose there is some element  $x \in \beta$  for which  $x \notin \gamma$ . Since x and  $\gamma$  are both elements of  $\alpha$ , we must therefore have  $\gamma \leq x \in \beta$ . Since  $\beta$  is transitive, this implies that  $\gamma \in \beta$ , a contradiction.

 $(\supseteq)$ . Suppose  $x \in \gamma$ ; then we must also have  $x \in \beta$ , since otherwise it would be an element of  $\alpha - \beta$  less than  $\gamma$ , contradicting the definition of  $\gamma$ .

**Lemma 4.5.** For every  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , either  $\alpha \subseteq \beta$  or  $\beta \subseteq \alpha$ .

*Proof.* Suppose otherwise. Consider  $\gamma = \alpha \cap \beta$ , which by assumption is a proper subset of both  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . It is easy to check that  $\gamma$  is an ordinal. But then by Lemma 4.4,  $\gamma \in \alpha$  and  $\gamma \in \beta$ , so  $\gamma \in \alpha \cap \beta = \gamma$ , a contradiction.

**Theorem 4.6.** The class of ordinals is well-ordered by  $\in$ .

*Proof.* This follows directly from Lemmas 4.4 and 4.5.

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**Theorem 4.7.** For every set x there is an  $\alpha$  such that  $\alpha \notin x$ .

*Proof.* The proof of this theorem is the *Burali-Forti paradox*. Suppose there is a set x of which every ordinal is an element. Then by comprehension we may form the set

$$ord = \{ \alpha \in x \mid \alpha \text{ is an ordinal } \}.$$

But by Theorem 4.6 we can see that ord is well-ordered; by Lemma 4.3 it is transitive; hence,  $ord \in ord$ , a contradiction.

*Remark.* Theorem 4.7 can equivalently be stated as "the class of ordinals is a proper class."

Some examples of ordinals:

 $\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}, \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}, \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}, \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}\}$ 

can all easily be checked to be ordinals. Also, if  $\alpha$  is an ordinal, then  $\alpha \cup \{\alpha\}$  is also.

**Definition 4.8.** The successor of  $\alpha$ , denoted  $\alpha + 1$ , is  $\alpha \cup \{\alpha\}$ .

**Theorem 4.9.**  $\alpha + 1$  is an ordinal. Moreover, it is the least ordinal bigger than  $\alpha$ .

*Proof.* It is easy to see that  $(\alpha \cup \{\alpha\}, \in)$  is a strict linear order: for any  $x, y \in \alpha \cup \{\alpha\}$ , with  $x \neq y$ , either  $x, y \in \alpha$  (in which case  $x \in y$  or  $y \in x$ ), or one of x, y is equal to  $\alpha$  and the other is an element of  $\alpha$ . That every non-empty subset has an  $\in$ -least member follows easily. To see that  $\alpha \cup \{\alpha\}$  is transitive, it suffices to note that  $\alpha \subseteq \alpha \cup \{\alpha\}$ .

To show that  $\alpha + 1$  is the least ordinal bigger than  $\alpha$ , suppose that  $\beta > \alpha$ . Then by definition,  $\alpha \in \beta$ , and therefore  $\alpha \subseteq \beta$ ; so  $\alpha + 1 = \alpha \cup \{\alpha\} \subseteq \beta$ . By Lemma 4.4,  $\alpha + 1 \leq \beta$ .

**Definition 4.10.**  $\alpha$  is a successor ordinal iff  $\alpha = \beta + 1$  for some  $\beta$ . Otherwise,  $\alpha$  is a *limit ordinal*.

**Definition 4.11.** The smallest non-zero limit ordinal is called  $\omega$  (and it exists by the Axiom of Infinity). The elements of  $\omega$  are called *natural numbers*.

**Definition 4.12.**  $x \sim y$  iff there exists a functional relation which is a 1-1, onto mapping from x to y.

**Definition 4.13.** A set x is *finite* iff there exists some  $n \in \omega$  for which  $x \sim n$ .

**Theorem 4.14.** For every well-ordering  $\langle x, \langle \rangle$  there is an ordinal  $\alpha$  such that  $\langle x, \langle \rangle$  is isomorphic to  $\langle \alpha, \in \uparrow \alpha \rangle$ .

*Proof.* XXX finish me!

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Theorem 4.15 (Transfinite Induction). If

1.  $\varphi(\emptyset)$ , 2.  $\varphi(\alpha) \implies \varphi(\alpha+1)$ , and 3.  $\lim(\lambda) \land (\forall \beta.\beta < \lambda \implies \varphi(\beta)) \implies \varphi(\lambda)$ ,

then  $\forall \beta. \varphi(\beta)$ .

*Proof.* Suppose not; let  $\gamma$  be the  $\in$ -minimal ordinal for which  $\neg \varphi(\gamma)$ . A simple argument by cases (whether  $\gamma$  is  $\emptyset$ , a successor ordinal, or a limit ordinal) shows that  $\gamma$  cannot exist.