

Ordinals:

Definition:

- $\mathcal{A}$ well-order $(\mathcal{A}, \leq)$ is
 - total and
 - well-founded.

- An order isomorphism is a function

$$i: (\mathcal{A}, \leq_{\mathcal{A}}) \longrightarrow (\mathcal{B}, \leq_{\mathcal{B}})$$

between quasi orders that is

- bijective and

- $a \leq_{\mathcal{A}} b \iff i(a) \leq_{\mathcal{B}} i(b)$,
f.a. $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$.

Write $(\mathcal{A}, \leq_{\mathcal{A}}) \equiv (\mathcal{B}, \leq_{\mathcal{B}})$

if such an order isomorphism exists.

Note that $\equiv$ is an equivalence.

Definition:

An ordinal is an equivalence class wrt. $\equiv$.

Idea: It only matters how long you can count,
the names of elements are unimportant.

Definition:

An initial segment of a well-order $(\mathcal{A}, \leq)$

is a downward-closed subset $I \subseteq \mathcal{A}$,

where downward-closed means: $a \leq b \in I \Rightarrow a \in I$
f.a. $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$.

This induces an ordering on well-orders.

Definition:

Let $(A, \leq_A)$ and $(B, \leq_B)$ be well-orders.

We have $(A, \leq_A) \leq (B, \leq_B)$, if

$\exists$ initial segment $I \subseteq B$: $(A, \leq_A) \cong (I, \leq_B \cap (I \times I))$.

Since $\leq$ is defined up to isomorphism,
it can be lifted to ordinals.

Fact:

The ordinals are well-ordered wrt. $\leq$.

Examples and Notation:

These are the names typically used for ordinals

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0 = [(\emptyset, \emptyset)]_{\cong} \\ 1 = [(\{e\}, e < e)]_{\cong} = \bullet \\ 2 = [(\{e, f\}, \{(e, e), (f, f), (e, f)\})]_{\cong} = \bullet \longrightarrow \bullet \\ 3 = \bullet \longrightarrow \bullet \longrightarrow \bullet \\ \vdots \\ \omega = [(\mathbb{N}, \leq_{\mathbb{N}})]_{\cong} = \bullet \longrightarrow \bullet \longrightarrow \bullet \longrightarrow \dots \\ \omega + 1 = [(\mathbb{N} \cup \{e\}, \leq_{\mathbb{N}} \cup \mathbb{N} \times \{e\})]_{\cong} \\ = \bullet \longrightarrow \bullet \longrightarrow \bullet \longrightarrow \dots \quad \uparrow \bullet \end{array} \right.$$

Note:

$\omega \neq \omega + 1$, there is
no isomorphism.

larger than every
natural number.

Definition:

The order type of a well-order $(A, \leq)$
is the ordinal (which is an equivalence class)
that contains the well-order.

Representations:

It is sometimes helpful to have
a concrete representation of ordinals.

Let $(A, \leq)$ be a well-order.

The function $i: (A, \leq) \rightarrow (P_{\downarrow}(A), \subseteq)$ ^{only downward-closed subsets of A}

$$i: (A, \leq) \longrightarrow (P_{\downarrow}(A), \subseteq)$$

$$a \mapsto I(a) := \{b \in A \mid b \leq a\} \\ = a \downarrow \cup \{a\}.$$

is an order isomorphism

Since the ordinals themselves form a well-order,

the isomorphism says that we can

represent every ordinal as the set of smaller ordinals:

$$i(3) = \{0, 1, 2\}$$

$$3 < 4 \text{ by } i(3) \in i(4).$$

$$i(4) = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$$

$$i(\omega) = \mathbb{N}$$

We will sometimes skip i
and just write ordinals

as sets of smaller ordinals: $3 = \{0, 1, 2\}$
 $\omega = \mathbb{N}$.

This just fixes a representation
of the equivalence class, namely $(\{0, 1, 2\}, \leq)$.

There is another very common definition of ordinals.

Definition:

A set α is an ordinal, if

- it is transitive, meaning $\beta \in \alpha$ implies $\beta \subseteq \alpha$,
- membership $\in$ is a strict well-order on α .

This definition leads to the following definition,
often called von Neumann ordinals:

$$0 := \emptyset \qquad 2 := \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$$

$$1 := \{\emptyset\} \qquad 3 := \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}, \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}\}.$$

Transfinite Induction:

We already observed in our example
that there are three kinds of ordinals:

0 = does not have a predecessor,
it is the smallest ordinal.

$1, 2, \dots, \omega + 1$ = has a maximal predecessor

ω = does have predecessors
but no maximal one.

Definition:

- A limit ordinal λ is an ordinal $\neq 0$
that satisfies

$$\forall \alpha < \lambda. \exists \beta < \lambda. \alpha < \beta.$$

17 successor ordinal α is an ordinal $\neq 0$
that is not a limit ordinal.

This means

$$\exists \beta < \alpha. \forall \gamma < \alpha. \rightarrow (\beta < \gamma) \\ \text{"} \\ \gamma \leq \beta.$$

We then also write $\alpha = \beta + 1$.

Fact:

Using the axiom of choice,

every set can be well-ordered.

The proof technique of transfinite induction

can then be used to establish properties

For all elements in the set

in a way that is very similar to induction.

Theorem (Soundness of Transfinite Induction):

Let $(I_1, \leq)$ be a well-order. Let $P \subseteq I_1$.

If $\forall x \in A. (I(x) \in P \Rightarrow x \in P)$, then $P = A$.

Proof:

Towards a contradiction, assume $p \notin R$.

Then $P \setminus R \neq \emptyset$ and R has a $\leq$ -minimal element a .

Since a is $\leq$ -minimal, $I(a) \in P$.

By the assumption, $a \in P$. $\square$

How does this look in practice?

still well-founded induction

normal induction

Base : Show $0 \in P$.
case 0

Inductive : Consider a successor ordinal $\alpha + 1$,
step $\alpha + 1$ show $\alpha + 1 \in P$ assuming $\alpha \in P$.

Inductive : Consider a limit ordinal λ ,
step λ show $\lambda \in P$ assuming $\alpha \in P$ f.o. $\alpha < \lambda$.

Ordinal Arithmetic:

Our goal is to move from the semantic understanding of ordinals to a syntactic manipulation.

Definition:

Let $(A, \leq_A)$ and $(B, \leq_B)$ be well-orders.

Define

$$A + B := (A \cup B, \leq_A \cup \leq_B \cup A \times B)$$

$$A \cdot B := (A \times B, (a \times b) \leq (a' \times b') \text{ if } b < b' \vee (b = b' \wedge a \leq a'))$$

Illustration:

$$A + B = \overbrace{\longrightarrow \longrightarrow \dots}^A \overbrace{\longrightarrow \longrightarrow \dots}^B$$

$$A \cdot B = \underbrace{\longrightarrow \dots}_{A \times \{0\}} \underbrace{\longrightarrow \dots}_{A \times \{1\}} \underbrace{\longrightarrow \dots}_{A \times \{2\}} \underbrace{\longrightarrow \dots}_{A \times \{3\}} \dots$$

one copy of A for each element in B .

We can reflect these operations on the syntactic representation of ordinals.

Definition:

$$\alpha + 0 := \alpha$$

$+1$ is the successor function from above

$$\alpha + (\beta + 1) := (\alpha + \beta) + 1$$

$$\alpha + \lambda := \sup \{ \alpha + \beta \mid \beta < \lambda \}.$$

$$\alpha \cdot 0 := 0$$

$$\alpha \cdot (\beta + 1) := \alpha \cdot \beta + \alpha$$

$$\alpha \cdot \lambda := \sup \{ \alpha \cdot \beta \mid \beta < \lambda \}.$$

This is transfinite recursion in the 2nd operand.

Lemma:

$+$, $\cdot$ are associative.

$+$, $\cdot$ are not commutative: $1 + \omega = \omega \neq \omega + 1$

$$\omega \cdot \omega = \omega \neq \omega \cdot 2.$$

- distributes over $+$ from the left: $\alpha \cdot (\beta + \gamma) = \alpha \cdot \beta + \alpha \cdot \gamma$.
- does not distribute over $+$ from the right:

$$(1 + 1) \cdot \omega = \omega \neq 1 \cdot \omega + 1 \cdot \omega = \omega \cdot 2.$$

To define exponentiation α^β semantically,

we consider α and β as sets of smaller ordinals

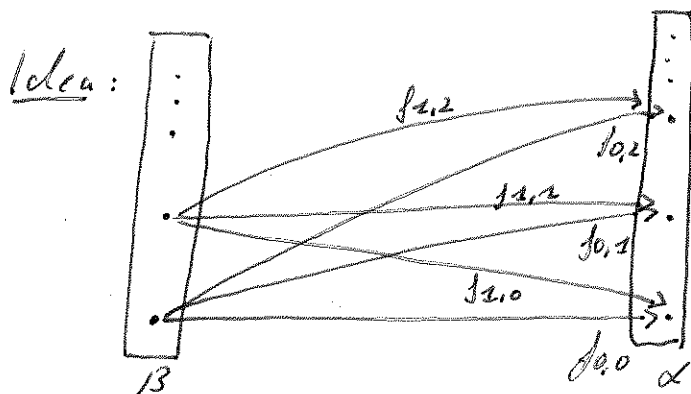
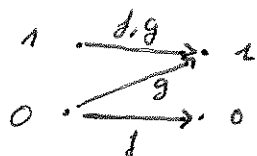
and consider functions $f: \beta \rightarrow \alpha$ with finite support,

meaning $f(x) \neq 0$ for only finitely many elements.

These functions are well-ordered by

$$f < g \text{ if } \exists x \in \beta. f(x) < g(x) \\ \wedge \forall x < y \in \beta. f(x) = g(x).$$

Example:



$$f_{0,0} < f_{0,1} < \dots \\ < f_{1,0} < f_{1,1} < \dots \\ < f_{2,0} < f_{2,1} < \dots$$

There are α -many functions $f_{0,*}$.

There are α -many ways to define $f_{1,i}$.

Hence, there are α^2 -many functions $f_{1,*}$.

There are α^3 -many functions $f_{2,*}$.

Definition:

$$\alpha^0 := 1$$

$$\alpha^{\beta+1} := (\alpha^\beta) \cdot \alpha$$

$$\alpha^\lambda := \sup \{ \alpha^\beta \mid \beta < \lambda \}$$

Lemma:

$$\cdot 1^\alpha = 1$$

$$\cdot \alpha^1 = \alpha$$

$$\cdot \alpha^\beta \cdot \alpha^\gamma = \alpha^{\beta+\gamma}$$

$$\cdot (\alpha^\beta)^\gamma = \alpha^{\beta \cdot \gamma}$$

$$\cdot (\alpha \cdot \beta)^\gamma \neq \alpha^\gamma \cdot \beta^\gamma$$

Counterexample:

$$(\omega \cdot 2)^2$$

$$= \omega \cdot 2 \cdot (\omega + \omega)$$

$$= \omega \cdot (2 \cdot \omega) + \omega \cdot (2 \cdot \omega)$$

$$= \omega \cdot \omega + \omega \cdot \omega$$

$$= \omega^2 \cdot 2$$

$$\neq \omega^2 \cdot 4 = \omega^2 \cdot 2^2.$$

Definition:

$$\epsilon_0 = \sup \{0, 1, \omega, \omega^\omega, \omega^{\omega^\omega}, \dots\}$$

This ordinal is the least solution to $\omega^x = x$.

Theorem (Cantor Normal Form (CNF)):

Every ordinal $\alpha < \epsilon_0$ can be written as

$$\alpha = \omega^{\beta_1} + \dots + \omega^{\beta_m} = \sum_{i=1}^m \omega^{\beta_i}$$

where $\alpha > \beta_1 \geq \dots \geq \beta_m \geq 0$

and each β_i is again in CNF.

We write $CNF(\alpha)$ for the set of ordinals $\beta < \alpha$ in CNF.

Definition:

The natural sum of ordinals in CNF is

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \omega^{\beta_i} \oplus \sum_{j=1}^n \omega^{\beta'_j} := \sum_{h=1}^{m+n} \omega^{\gamma_h}$$

where $\gamma_1 \geq \gamma_2 \geq \dots \geq \gamma_{m+n}$ reorders $\beta_1, \dots, \beta_m, \beta'_1, \dots, \beta'_n$.

The natural product is

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \omega^{\beta_i} \otimes \sum_{j=1}^n \omega^{\beta'_j} := \bigoplus_{i=1}^m \bigoplus_{j=1}^n \omega^{\beta_i \oplus \beta'_j}$$

Example:

$$5 \oplus 3 = 8$$

$$5 \otimes 3 = 15$$

$$\omega^5 + \omega^3 \oplus \omega^4 = \omega^5 + \omega^4 + \omega^3$$

$$\omega^5 + \omega^3 \otimes \omega^4 = \omega^9 + \omega^7$$

Fundamental Sequences and Predecessors

Our goal is to approximate limit ordinals by sequences of smaller ordinals.

Definition:

Let λ be a limit ordinal.

A fundamental sequence for λ

is a sequence of ordinals $(\lambda_x)_{x \in \mathbb{N}}$

with

- $\lambda_x < \lambda$ f.a. $x \in \mathbb{N}$

- $\lambda = \sup \{ \lambda_x \mid x \in \mathbb{N} \}.$

The latter condition in particular means

$$\forall \alpha < \lambda. \exists x. \alpha < \lambda_x.$$

Construction:

One typically fixes a fundamental sequence for ω , like

$$\omega_x := x+1.$$

One then lifts this to all ordinals in CNF by

$$(\gamma + \omega^{\beta+1})_x := \gamma + \omega^\beta \cdot \omega_x$$

$$(\gamma + \omega^1)_x := \gamma + \omega^{1x}.$$

The definition $\omega_x := x+1$ guarantees $\lambda_x > 0$ f.a. $x \in \mathbb{N}$.

From now on, we assume to have

- 10 - an assignment of fundamental sequences.

Definition:

The $x \in \mathbb{N}$ -indexed predecessor $P_x(\alpha) < \alpha$ of $\alpha \neq 0$ is

$$P_x(\alpha + 1) := \alpha$$

$$P_x(\lambda) := P_x(\lambda_x).$$

Since $\lambda_x < \lambda$, we have $P_x(\alpha) < \alpha$.

Example:

$$\cdot P_n(\omega^0) = P_n(1) = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \cdot P_n(\omega^d) &= P_n(\omega^{d-1} \cdot \omega_n) \\ &= P_n(\omega^{d-1} \cdot (n+1)) \\ &= P_n(\omega^{d-1} \cdot n + \omega^{d-1}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\{\text{needs a proof}\} = \omega^{d-1} \cdot n + P_n(\omega^{d-1}).$$

The property

$$\boxed{P_x(\gamma + \alpha) = \gamma + P_x(\alpha)}$$

reminds us of

$$\partial_n \alpha = \{\gamma \oplus \partial_n \omega^d \mid \alpha = \gamma \oplus \omega^d\},$$

we just choose to pick the summand
with the smallest exponent.