Numbers and Numerosities

Dedicated to Mauro Di Nasso in occasione of his 60° birthday

Vieri Benci Università di Pisa

July 9, 2023

Vieri Benci ()

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The story of Mauro and the Numerosity Theory

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The story of Mauro and the Numerosity Theory





0. Introduction

Similarly in cardinals and collimits, the "narresovides" we present in this paper originate an anternet in extending the tools of finite cardinality. By considering simable "hadelings", see show that a notion of muncrosity for (contradhel) influenses can be defined in outs any start that want appropriate of finite cardinalities are preserved. Most assilable, the numerosity of a grouper subset is study smaller than numerosities; and the numerosity of a grouper subset is study smaller than numerosities; and the numerosity of a structure product of the numerosities; we treate, that these properties together are nother satisfied by cardinal new by colonial algebra.

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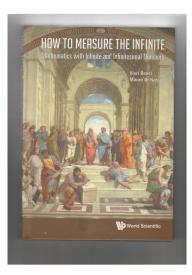
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Benci V., Di Nasso M., *How to measure the infinite: Mathematics with infinite and infinitesimal numbers*, World Scientific, Singapore, 2018.



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V. Benci, M. Di Nasso - *Numerosities of labelled sets: a new way of counting*, Adv. Math. 21 (2003), 505–67.

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- Benci V., Luperi Baglini L., *Euclidean numbers and numerosities*, The Journal of Symbolic Logic, (2022) pp. 1 35, DOI: https://doi.org/10.1017/jsl.2022.17.

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In this talk I will present Numerosity Theory with a slightly different approach.

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In this talk I will present Numerosity Theory with a slightly different approach.

This approach is possible thanks to a new result which I recently obtained.

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One of the aims in counting the elements of sets is the comparison of their sizes. We denote by \preceq is a total preorder relation, and as usual, we set

$$X \cong Y : \Leftrightarrow (X \preceq Y \text{ and } Y \preceq X)$$

and

$$X \prec Y :\Leftrightarrow (X \preceq Y \text{ and } Y \not\cong X)$$

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A comparison system is a couple (\mathbb{U}, \preceq) where \mathbb{U} is a universe and \preceq is a total preorder relation, called **comparison relation**, which satisfies the following properties:

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- ② Comparison Principle: $A \preceq B$, if and only if there exists $A' \subseteq B$ such that $A' \cong A$.
- Union Principle: If $A \cong A'$ and $B \cong B'$ and $A \cap B = A' \cap B' = \emptyset$, then

 $A \cup B \cong A' \cup B'$

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Product Principle: If A
and B
B' are four families of pairwise disjoint sets, we define the following "product":

$$A \otimes B := \{ a \cup b \mid a \in A, b \in B \};$$

then,

 $A\otimes B\cong A'\otimes B'.$

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THE NUMBERS

If we have a comparison system then it is possible to build the notion of number:

Definition

A set of numbers $\ensuremath{\mathcal{N}}$ is a set of atoms such that there exists a biunivoc corrisondence

 $\Phi:(\mathbb{U}/\cong)\to\mathcal{N}$

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Then given a set A the number of its elements is given by

$$\mathfrak{n}(A) = \Phi\left([A]_{\cong}
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Notice that in every set of numbers there are two distingushed elements:

$$0 := \mathfrak{n}(\emptyset)$$

and

$$1:=\mathfrak{n}(\{\varnothing\}).$$

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The numbers are a linearly ordered set with the following order relation:

Definition
If $\alpha = \mathfrak{n}(A)$ and $\beta = \mathfrak{n}(B)$
$\alpha \leq \beta : \Leftrightarrow A \preceq B.$
$\mathfrak{a} \leq p : \forall A \leq B.$

On the set of numbers we can define also the two basic operations: the sum and the product.

Definition

Given two numbers $\alpha = \mathfrak{n}(A)$ and $\beta = \mathfrak{n}(B)$ with $A \cap B = \emptyset$, we set

$$\mathfrak{n}(A) + \mathfrak{n}(B) := \mathfrak{n}(A \cup B)$$

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Definition

Given two numbers $\alpha = \mathfrak{n}(A)$ and $\beta = \mathfrak{n}(B)$ where A and B are as in Def. 1-(4), we set

$$\mathfrak{n}(A) \cdot \mathfrak{n}(B) := \mathfrak{n}(A \otimes B)$$

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ullet commutative property with respect to + and \cdot

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- distributive property

The Cartesian Product plays a prominent role in the development of Mathematics, but probably is not the fundamental notion related to the product between numbers since it is not commutative nor associative namely

 $A \times B \neq B \times A$; $(A \times B) \times C \neq A \times (B \times C)$.

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$$A \times B \neq B \times A$$
; $(A \times B) \times C \neq A \times (B \times C)$.

However, a good notion of comparison relation must satisfy the following principle:

• Cartesian Product Principle: If A and B are two families of sets as in Def. 1, then

$$A \times B \cong A \otimes B$$

In conclusion, we are lead to the following definition:

Definition

Given comparison system (\mathbb{U}, \preceq) which satisfies the Cartesian Product Principle, the corresponding triple $(\mathbb{U}, \mathcal{N}, \mathfrak{n})$ is called **counting system**.

First example

Now let us see some examples of counting systems: we take

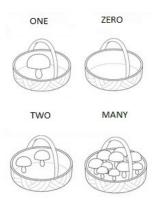
• $\mathbb{U} =$ the class of all sets:

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First example

Now let us see some examples of counting systems: we take

- $\mathbb{U} = \mathsf{the class of all sets:}$
- $\mathcal{N} = \{0, 1, 2, M\}$ where the number M is read "many".



Then, there exists a unique comparison relation defined by the following tables:

+	[0]	[1]	[2]	[<i>M</i>]		•	[0]	[1]	[2]	[<i>M</i>]
[0]	0	1	2	М		[0]	0	0	0	0
[1]	1	2	М	М	;	[1]	0	1	2	М
[2]	2	М	М	М		[2]	0	2	М	М
[<i>M</i>]	М	М	М	М		[<i>M</i>]	0	М	М	М

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[0]	0	1	2	M		[0]	0	0	0	0
[1]	1	2	М	М	;	[1]	0	1	2	М
[2]	2	М	М	М		[2]	0	2	М	М
[<i>M</i>]	М	М	М	М		[<i>M</i>]	0	Μ	М	М

Actually, $(\mathbb{U}, \{0, 1, 2, M\}, \mathfrak{n})$ is not the "smallest" counting system since we can take $(\mathbb{U}, \{0, 1\}, \mathfrak{n})$.

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Euclid's Principle



If we want to exclude these interesting, but mathematically trivial examples we need to add some other principle: for example the V common notion of Euclid's elements:

The whole is greater than the part.

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The whole is greater than the part.

In our formalism

• Euclid's principle - (V common notion) Given two sets F and G such that F is a proper part of G, then F ≺ G.



The most important counting system which satisfies Euclid's Principle is the counting system of natural numbers (**Fin**, \mathbb{N} , $|\cdot|$)



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• Fin is the class of finite sets



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- $\mathbb N$ is the set of natural numbers



The most important counting system which satisfies Euclid's Principle is the counting system of natural numbers (Fin, \mathbb{N} , $|\cdot|$) where

- Fin is the class of finite sets
- ullet $\mathbb N$ is the set of natural numbers
- $|A| = \mathfrak{n}(A)$ is the number of elements of a finite set.

If we want to have a universe ${\rm I\!U}$ which incudes infinite sets and satisfies the Euclid's Principle we get some limitation.

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For example

Theorem

If $(\mathbb{U}, \mathcal{N}, \mathfrak{n})$ is a counting system which satisfies Euclid's principle, then \mathbb{U} cannot contain sets of rank ω .

Proof.

lf

$$A = \left\{ a, (a, a), (a, a, a), (a, a, a, a),
ight\}.$$

then

$$\mathsf{A} imes \{\mathsf{a}\} = \{(\mathsf{a},\mathsf{a})$$
 , $(\mathsf{a},\mathsf{a},\mathsf{a})$, $(\mathsf{a},\mathsf{a},\mathsf{a},\mathsf{a})$, …. $\} \subset \mathsf{A}$

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Proof.

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then

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Hence, by Euclid's Principle

 $\mathfrak{n}\left(A\times\left\{\mathbf{a}\right\}\right)<\mathfrak{n}\left(A\right)$

and

$$\mathfrak{n}(A) < \mathfrak{n}(A \times \{a\}) = \mathfrak{n}(A) \cdot \mathfrak{n}(\{a\}) = \mathfrak{n}(A) \cdot 1 = \mathfrak{n}(A).$$
CONTRADICTION!



So, if we want to have a universe $\mathbb U$ which incudes all the infinite sets, the simplest idea is to renounce to Euclid's Principle and to take the counting system $(\mathbb U,\mathbb N\cup\{\infty\},\mathfrak n)$ with the relations

$$n + \infty = \infty,$$

$$n \cdot \infty = \infty \text{ for } n \neq 0,$$

$$0 \cdot \infty = 0.$$

This system, does not have a good algebra: in particular, the equation

$$x + \infty = \infty$$
,

has infinitely many solutions, and hence $\mathbb{N}\cup\{\infty\}$ is not even the positive part of an ordered ring.

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In particular, we cannot define infinitesimal numbers such as

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in a consistent way. For this reason, in the History of Mathematics, the symbol " ∞ " did not even got the dignity of "*number*".



Hume's Principle



Until the XIX century, the idea of natural number was rooted not only on the Euclid's principle, but also on the Hume's Principle



Until the XIX century, the idea of natural number was rooted not only on the Euclid's principle, but also on the Hume's Principle :

The number of elements in F is equal to the number of elements in G if there is a one-to-one correspondence between F and G.

Hume's Principle suggests the comparison relation " $\preceq_{\mathfrak{c}}$ ".

Hume's Principle suggests the comparison relation " \leq_{c} ".

In our formalism

• Hume's principle - Given two sets F and G, then F ≤_c G if there is an injective map

$$\phi: F \to G.$$

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Hume's Principle and the cardinal numbers

It is well known that Euclid's principle and Hume's Principle are satisfied by (**Fin**, \mathbb{N} , $|\cdot|$) but they lead to a contradiction if our universe contains an infinite set.

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Hume's Principle and the cardinal numbers

It is well known that Euclid's principle and Hume's Principle are satisfied by (**Fin**, \mathbb{N} , $|\cdot|$) but they lead to a contradiction if our universe contains an infinite set.

Cantor had the great idea to drop Euclid's principle and to use only the preorder relation " \leq_c " suggested by Hume and introduced the **cardinal numbers**.



The cardinal numbers counting system which we will denote by

 $(\mathbb{U}, \operatorname{Crd}, |\cdot|).$

is much reacher than $(\mathbb{U}, \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}, \mathfrak{n})$ since for every set A,

 $\left|\wp\left(A\right)\right|>\left|A\right|$

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even if the operation tables resemble the trivial one since if β is an infinite number

$$x + \beta = x \cdot \beta = \max{\{x, \beta\}}$$

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The ordinal numbers do not fit in a counting system in the sense of our definition; however they are related to these systems in several ways.

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- W is the class of well ordered set;
- Ord is the class of ordered numbers,
- $\forall A \in \mathbb{W}$, $\mathfrak{ot}(A) \in \mathbf{Ord}$ is the order type of A.

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- W is the class of well ordered set;
- Ord is the class of ordered numbers,
- $\forall A \in \mathbb{W}$, $\mathfrak{ot}(A) \in \mathbf{Ord}$ is the order type of A.

 (W, Ord, \mathfrak{ot}) is not a counting system since the operations between ordinals do not satisfy (BAC); we will call it **pseudo-counting system**.

Similarly, we can define a preorder relation on sets in ${\mathbb W}$ as follows:

A ≤_o B if and only there exists a injective map Φ : A → B which preserves the order, namely ∀a₁, a₂ ∈ A,

$$a_1 <_A a_2 \Rightarrow \Phi(a) <_B \Phi(b)$$
.

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- Num is the set of the numerosities;
- for every A ∈ U, num (A) ∈ Num is called the numerosity of the set A.

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As we have seen, it is not possible to have a numerosity counting system (U, Num, num) such that U is the class of all sets. Thus, it is necessary to restrict U.

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The first counting system has been introduced by Mauro and me:

V. Benci, M. Di Nasso - Numerosities of labelled sets: a new way of counting, Adv. Math. 21 (2003), 505–67. As we have seen, it is not possible to have a numerosity counting system (U, Num, num) such that U is the class of all sets. Thus, it is necessary to restrict U.

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V. Benci, M. Di Nasso - *Numerosities of labelled sets: a new way of counting*, Adv. Math. 21 (2003), 505–67.

In this case ${\mathbb U}$ is the class of denumerable sets and the counting system takes the form

$$(\mathbb{U}, \mathbb{N}^*, \mathfrak{num})$$

where \mathbb{N}^* is an elementary extension of the natural numbers.

After this paper the "theory of numerosity" has been developed in several directions and also non-denumerable sets have been included.

After this paper the "theory of numerosity" has been developed in several directions and also non-denumerable sets have been included.

However no counting system for non-denumerable sets has been described since in (almost) all these models, the Comparison Principle

 $A \leq B$, if and only if there exists $A' \subseteq B$ such that $A' \cong A$,

has not been established.

The Numerosity Counting Systems

Thus a question arises naturally:

there exists a numerosity counting system in which the sets in \mathbb{U} might have any cardinality?



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Thus a question arises naturally:

there exists a numerosity counting system in which the sets in ${\rm I\!U}$ might have any cardinality?



The answer is YES and we will discuss this point in the rest of this talk.



Before presenting a numerosity counting system in a formal way, I want to give an intuitive idea and to compare it with the cardinal counting system and the ordinal pseudo-counting system

Three ways of counting



In everyday life, there exist (at least) three ways to count the elements of a set:

The first way of counting consists in associating to each element of a set an element of another one.

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- In the second way of counting, one arranges the elements of a given set in a row, and then compares such a row with the sequence of natural numbers. This is the concept of number of a five years old child.

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- The third way of counting consists in arranging the elements of a given sets into smaller groups to be counted separately.

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- In the second way of counting, one arranges the elements of a given set in a row, and then compares such a row with the sequence of natural numbers. This is the concept of number of a five years old child.
- The third way of counting consists in arranging the elements of a given sets into smaller groups to be counted separately. This is the way of counting of a grown child.

Obviously these three methods of counting give the same result when finite sets are counted, but different results are obtained when we deal with infinite sets.

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- Ordinal numbers

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Therefore, among the infinite numbers it is necessary to distinguish (at least) three sets of numbers:

- Cardinal numbers
- Ordinal numbers
- Numerosities

The third way of counting

Clearly, the third way of counting is only possible if the objects of a given set have a "some feature" that allows us to bunch "similar objects".

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The third way of counting

Clearly, the third way of counting is only possible if the objects of a given set have a "some feature" that allows us to bunch "similar objects".



Let us see an example. Assume we are given a big bunch of randomly chosen playing cards. Probably, the better strategy to count the cards is to divide them into smaller decks. For example, one can put all the aces in a deck, all the twos in another deck, and so forth. So the third way of counting is possible if the objects of a given set have a "**label**".



We are lead to a structure formalized by the notion of **labelled universe** that will be described next.

We are lead to a structure formalized by the notion of **labelled universe** that will be described next.

The formal definition which I will present here has been introduced in

Benci V., Luperi Baglini L., Euclidean numbers and numerosities, The Journal of Symbolic Logic, (2022) pp. 1 - 35, DOI: https://doi.org/10.1017/jsl.2022.17. From now on we will assume that our universe is given by

$$\Lambda:=\{X\in V_\infty(\operatorname{\mathsf{Ato}})ackslash\operatorname{\mathsf{Ato}}\mid \ |X|<|\operatorname{\mathsf{Ato}}|\}$$
 ,

where Ato is an infinite set of atoms.

The family of labels \mathfrak{L} is a subset of $V_{\infty}(\mathbf{Ato})$ satisfying the following requests:

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• $\mathfrak{L} \subseteq \mathbf{Fin}$,

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The family of labels \mathfrak{L} is a subset of $V_{\infty}(\mathbf{Ato})$ satisfying the following requests:

- $\mathfrak{L} \subseteq \mathsf{Fin}$,
- $\forall \lambda \in \mathfrak{L}, \lambda \cap \mathbf{Fin} = \emptyset$, namely if $\lambda \in \mathfrak{L}, \lambda$ is a finite set and if $x \in \lambda$, then x is either an atom or an infinite set.

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- the set of labels must be sufficiently large:

$$igcup_{\lambda\in\mathfrak{L}}V_{\infty}\left(\lambda
ight)=\Lambda\cup$$
 Ato,

namely $\forall a \in \Lambda \cup \mathsf{Ato}, \ \exists \lambda \in \mathfrak{L}, \ a \in V_{\infty}(\lambda)$.

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namely $\forall a \in \Lambda \cup \mathsf{Ato}, \exists \lambda \in \mathfrak{L}, a \in V_{\infty}(\lambda)$. • $\forall \lambda, \mu \in \mathfrak{L} \Rightarrow \lambda \cup \mu, \lambda \cap \mu \in \mathfrak{L}$

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Example:

$$\mathfrak{L}=\wp_{\omega}\left(\left(\Lambdaackslash \mathsf{Fin}
ight)\cup\mathsf{Ato}
ight)$$

If $a \in V_{\infty}(\mathbf{Ato})$, we define the label of "a" as follows:

$$\ell\left(\mathbf{a}\right)=igcap\left\{\lambda\in\mathfrak{L}\mid\mathbf{a}\in\mathcal{V}_{\infty}\left(\lambda
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ight\}$$

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From now on, $\forall A \in \Lambda \subset V_{\infty}(\mathsf{Ato})$, we set

$$A_{\lambda} = \{x \in A \mid \ell(x) \subseteq \lambda\}$$

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Proposition

The labelling $\ell: V_{\infty}(Ato) \rightarrow \mathfrak{L}$ satisfies the following properties:

- $\ \, \bullet \ \, \ell \left(\varnothing \right) = \varnothing;$
- **2** $\forall A \in \Lambda$, the set A_{λ} is finite;
- $(A \cup B)_{\lambda} = A_{\lambda} \cup B_{\lambda};$
- $(A \otimes B)_{\lambda} = A_{\lambda} \otimes B_{\lambda};$
- $(A \times B)_{\lambda} = A_{\lambda} \times B_{\lambda};$
- $(\wp(A)]_{\lambda} = \wp(A_{\lambda});$
- $(B^{\mathcal{A}})_{\lambda} = (B_{\lambda})^{\mathcal{A}_{\lambda}} .$

We take a fine ultrafilter over ${\mathfrak L}$ and we we set:

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Definition

We set

$$A \preceq_{\mathfrak{n}} B$$

if there exists a qualified set $Q \in \mathcal{U}$ such that $orall \lambda \in Q$

 $|A_{\lambda}| \leq |B_{\lambda}|$.

It is not difficult to prove that the above definition implies the following fact:

Proposition

 $A\cong_{\mathfrak{n}} B$

if and only if \exists a qualified set Q and a bijective map $\Phi : A \to B$ such that $\forall \lambda \in Q$,

$$\Phi\left(\mathsf{A}_{\lambda}
ight)=\mathsf{B}_{\lambda}$$

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Theorem

The couple $(\Lambda, \preceq_{\mathfrak{n}})$ is a comparison system that satisfies the Cartesian Product Principle.

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Theorem

The couple (Λ, \preceq_n) is a comparison system that satisfies the Cartesian Product Principle.

Corollary

The numerosity theory $(\Lambda, \text{Num}, \mathfrak{num})$ is a counting system that satisfies Euclid's Principle.

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The cardinality of A equal to the cardinality of B (in our symbols A ≃_c B) if there exists a bijective map Φ : A → B.

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- The cardinality of A equal to the cardinality of B (in our symbols A ≃_c B) if there exists a bijective map Φ : A → B.
- One order type of (A, ≤) is equal to the order type of (B, ≤) (in our symbols A ≅₀ B) if there exists bijective map Φ : A → B which respects the order, namely ∀a ∈ A, ∀b ∈ B,

$$a \in A, \forall b, a \lessdot b \Rightarrow \Phi(a) \lessdot \Phi(b)$$

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$$a \in A, \forall b, a \lessdot b \Rightarrow \Phi(a) \lessdot \Phi(b)$$

The numerosity of A ∈ Λ is equal to the the numerosity of B ∈ Λ (in our symbols A ≅_n B) if there exists bijective map map Φ : A → B which respects the labelling, namely ∃Q ∈ U, ∀λ ∈ Q,

$$\Phi\left(\mathsf{A}_{\lambda}\right)=\mathsf{B}_{\lambda}$$

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From the point (1), it follows straightforwardly the following theorem:

Theorem

If $\operatorname{num}(A) < \operatorname{num}(B)$, then $|A| \leq |B|$.

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Now let us compare the set of numerosities with the ordinal numbers. In order to do this, we take an injective map

 $\Psi: \text{Num} \to \text{Ato}.$

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$Num \subset Ato.$

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Hence it makes sense to talk of the numerosity of a set of numerosities.

Definition of the ordinal numerosities

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Definition

The set **Ordn** of *ordinal numerosities* is defined by the following property:

$$\gamma\in \mathsf{Ordn}\Leftrightarrow\gamma=\mathfrak{num}\left(\Omega_{eta}
ight)$$

where

$$\Omega_{\beta} := \{ x \in \mathbf{Ordn} \mid x < \beta \}$$

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The set **Ordn** is not empty since

 $0 := \mathfrak{num}(\emptyset) \in \mathbf{Ordn}$

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and hence

$$1 := num (\{0\}) \in Ordn$$

$$2 := num (\{0,1\}) \in Ordn$$

.....

$$n+1 := num (\{0,...,n\})$$

.....

$$\omega := num (\mathbb{N}), \quad \mathbb{N} := \{0, 1, ..., n, ...\}$$

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and so on.

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and so on. Thus, we get a "copy" of the Von Nemann ordinal numbers.

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Clearly

$\mathbf{Ordn} \subset \mathbf{Num}$

since

$$\omega - 1 = \operatorname{num}(\mathbb{N}^+) = \operatorname{num}(\{1, 2.., n, ...\}) \notin \mathbf{Ordn}.$$

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Cardinal numbers, ordinal numbers and numerosities

It is well known that the cardinal numbers can be identified with some ordinal numbers by the map

$$\Psi: \mathbf{Card} \to \mathbf{Ord}$$

defined by

$$\Psi\left(\beta
ight):=\min\left\{x\in\mathbf{Ord}_{_{\mathrm{VN}}}\mid\;|x|=\beta
ight\}$$

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Similarly, we can identify the cardinal numbers with some numerosities by the map

$$\Psi: \mathbf{Card} \to \mathbf{Num}$$

defined by

$$\Psi_{\mathfrak{n}}\left(eta
ight):=\min\left\{x\in\mathbf{Ordn}\mid\ \left|\Omega_{x}
ight|=eta
ight\}$$

In conclusion, we have the following diagram:

where **Cardn** := Ψ_n (**Card**) is the set of cardinal numerosities and the vertical arrows are isomorphisms.

For every set of labels $\mathfrak L$ the following result holds:

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Proposition

Let E, F be sets in Λ . Numerosities satisfy the following properties:

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Image: A matrix and a matrix

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- Sinite functions principle: let E be nonempty, and let

$$\mathfrak{F}_{\omega}(X, E) := \{ f : D \to E \mid D \in \wp_{\omega}(X) \}$$

then

$$\operatorname{num}\left(\mathfrak{F}_{\omega}\left(X,E\right)\right)=\operatorname{num}\left(E\right)^{\operatorname{num}(X)}$$

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Hessenberg principle: the operation "+" and "." between ordinal numerosities correspond to the natural (Hessenberg) operations between ordinals.

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However it we choose the set of labels \mathfrak{L} in a smart way, we get other properties of the numrosities which appear quite natural (B., Luperi Baglini):

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• for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\operatorname{num} (\mathbb{Q} \cap [n, n+1)) = \alpha$;

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2 $\operatorname{num}(\{m^n \mid m \in \mathbb{N}^+\}) = \alpha^{\frac{1}{n}};$
3 $\operatorname{num}(\mathbb{Z}) = 2\alpha + 1;$
3 $\operatorname{for all } n \in \mathbb{N}, \operatorname{num}(\mathbb{Q} \cap [n, n+1)) = \alpha;$
5 $\operatorname{num}(\mathbb{Q}^+) = \alpha^2;$

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Theorem

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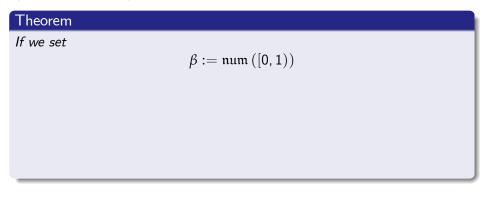
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As far as non-denumerable sets are concerned, we have the following result (B., Luperi Baglini):

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As far as non-denumerable sets are concerned, we have the following result (B., Luperi Baglini):

Theorem

If we set

$$\beta := \mathfrak{num}([0,1))$$

and $E \subset \mathbb{R} \subset \mathbf{Ato}$ is a Lebesgue measurable set, then

$$m_{L}(E) = st\left(rac{\mathfrak{num}(E)}{eta}
ight)$$
,

where m_L denotes the Lebesgue measure.

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We will end this talk with an open question worth to think about:



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If we give up the CARTESIAN PRODUCT PRINCIPLE and we consider only the product " \otimes ", there is a numerosity counting system (Λ , Num, num) where Λ is the class of all sets?

Vieri Benci ()

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Thank you for your attention!



Happy birthday, Mauro!

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