Axiom of Choice Equivalents, Consequences, and Independence

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Partial Order

Definition

A relation R is a partial order on a set S iff

- Reflexivity: aRa for any $a \in S$.
- Anti-symmetry: If aRb and bRa, then a = b.
- ▶ Transitivity: If *aRb* and *bRc*, then *aRc*.

Examples

- 1. (\mathbb{R}, \leq) , where \leq is the usual order.
- 2. (\mathbb{N}, \leq) , where $a \leq b$ iff a|b, called ordering by divisibility.

Totally Ordered Set and Well-Ordered Set

Definition

- 1. Let (S, \leq) be partially ordered. S is totally ordered iff $\forall a, b \in S$ either $a \leq b$ or $b \leq a$.
- 2. Let (S, \leq) be totally ordered. S is well-ordered iff every non-empty subset of S has a least element.

Examples

Let \leq be the usual order. Then

- 1. (\mathbb{R}, \leq) is totally ordered but not well-ordered.
- 2. (\mathbb{N}, \leq) is well-ordered.

Maximum and Maximal Element

Definition

Let (S, \leq) be a partially ordered set.

1. $m \in S$ is a maximal element of S iff m is greater than or equal to all elements comparable with m.

2. $M \in S$ is the maximum of S iff $\forall x \in S, x \leq M$.

Examples Let (\mathbb{N}, \leq) be defined such that $a \leq b$ iff b|a. Then

- 1. 1 is the maximum of (\mathbb{N}, \leq) .
- 2. Prime numbers are the maximal elements of $(\mathbb{N} \setminus \{1\}, \leq)$.

Chain and Upper Bound

Definition

Let (S, \leq) be a partially ordered set and $S' \subseteq S$.

- 1. $u \in S$ is an upper bound for S' iff $\forall x \in S', x \leq u$.
- 2. S' is a chain iff (S', \leq) is a totally ordered.

Examples

Let $S = \mathbb{N}$, and $a \leq b$ iff. a|b.

- 1. $S_1 = \{1, 2, 3, 5, 12, 15\}$: 60 is an upper bound.
- 2. $S_2 = \{2^n | n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is a chain.

Equivalence

The following statements are equivalent:

- 1. Well-Ordering Theorem: For any set S, there exists a relation R on S such that (S, R) is well-ordered.
- Axiom of Choice: Let {A_i}_{i∈I} be a family of non-empty sets indexed by *I*. Then there exists some *f* such that *f*(A_i) ∈ A_i for all *i* ∈ *I*.
- 3. **Zorn's Lemma:** Let S be a non-empty partially ordered set. If every chain in S has an upper bound in S, then S contains a maximal element.

Applications to Linear Algebra

Theorem 2.1

Every nonzero vector space V contains a basis.

Proof.

Let S be the set of linearly independent subsets in V.

- ► S is non-empty.
- ▶ (S, \subseteq) is partially ordered.
- Every chain of *S* has an upper bound in *S*.
- ▶ Zorn's Lemma \implies S has a maximal element \mathcal{B} .
- \triangleright \mathcal{B} is a basis for V.

Applications to Linear Algebra

Corollary 2.2

Every spanning set of a nonzero vector space V contains a basis of V.

Proof.

Let S be a spanning set of V. Consider the set S' of linearly independent subsets of S.

- S' is nonempty. (S', ⊆) is partially ordered. Every chain of S' has an upper bound in S'.
- ▶ Zorn's lemma \implies S' has a maximal element \mathcal{B} .
- Show that B is a basis of V by showing B spans S which spans V.

Applications to Linear Algebra

Corollary 2.3

Every linearly independent subset of a nonzero vector space V can be extended to a basis of V. In particular, every subspace W of V is a direct summand: $V = W \oplus U$ for some subspace U of V.

Corollary 2.4

There exists some $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ satisfying f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y) for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ and not of the form f(x) = cx for some $c \in R$.

Corollary 2.5

As abelian groups, the vector space \mathbb{R}^n with + is isomorphic to the group $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ for every $n \ge 1$.

Banach-Tarski Paradox

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The Banach Tarski Paradox

The Banach Tarski Principle is a demonstration of how the axiom of choice can use volume preserving transformations (such as rotations) to duplicate the volume of an object.

Banach-Tarski Paradox

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Terrence Tao's Proof

Terrence Tao proved a smaller version of the paradox; which works off a line instead of a sphere.

Banach-Tarski Paradox

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Terrence Tao's Proof

Theorem 3.1

There exists an (uncountably large) subset of [0, 2], breaking it up into a countable number of disjoint subsets, and translating each subset to form \mathbb{R}

Step 1

Define ~ over [0, 1] to be an equivalence relation where x ~ y iff x − y ∈ Q, creating uncountable equivalence classes countably large.

Step 2

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- Use the AC to create a new set X by selecting an arbitrary element from each equivalence class

Step 3

- Define ~ over [0, 1] to be an equivalence relation where x ~ y iff x − y ∈ Q, creating uncountable equivalence classes countably large.
- Use the AC to create a new set X by selecting an arbitrary element from each equivalence class
- Note that X + q is disjoint for any q ∈ Q ∩ [0, 1]. Let Y be the union of these sets; this is an uncountably large subset of [0, 2] made up of a countable number of disjoint subsets.

Step 4

- ▶ Define ~ over [0, 1] to be an equivalence relation where $x \sim y$ iff $x y \in \mathbb{Q}$, creating uncountable equivalence classes countably large.
- Use the AC to create a new set X by selecting an arbitrary element from each equivalence class
- Note that X + q is disjoint for any q ∈ Q ∩ [0, 1]. Let Y be the union of these sets; this is an uncountably large subset of [0, 2] made up of a countable number of disjoint subsets.
- Let f be a mapping from all rationals in [0, 1] (which exists as both sets are countably infinity) to the entirety of \mathbb{Q} . Translate all of X + q to X + f(q). This is \mathbb{R} .

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Formal Theory

A **theory** T is a collection of logical statements.

Example

Let T_G be consisted of the following:

- 1. Closure: $\forall a, b \in G \quad a * b \in G$,
- 2. Associativity: $\forall a, b, c \in G$ a * (b * c) = (a * b) * c,
- 3. Identity: $\exists e \in G \forall a \in G \quad a * e = e * a = a$,
- 4. Inverse: $\forall a \in G \exists b \in G \quad a * b = b * a$.

Then T_G is a theory for groups.

Zermelo-Fraenkel Set Theory

ZF denotes the Zermelo-Fraenkel axioms excluding AC:

- 1. Extensionality: $\forall A, B[\forall x(x \in A \iff x \in B)] \iff A = B$.
- 2. Regularity: $\forall A[A \neq \emptyset \implies \exists x \in A(x \cap A = \emptyset)].$
- 3. Separation: $\{x \in A : \phi(x)\}$ defines a set.
- 4. Pairing: $\{x, y\}$ is a set.
- 5. Union: Let \mathcal{F} be a set of sets. Then $\{x : \exists A \in \mathcal{F}(x \in A)\}$ is a set.
- 6. Replacement: If $\forall x \in A \exists ! y[\phi(x, y)]$, then $\{y : \exists x \in A[\phi(x, y)]\}$ is a set.
- 7. Infinity: \mathbb{N} is a set.
- 8. Power set: $\{X : X \subseteq A\}$ is a set.

Consistency of Formal Theories

T is **consistent** iff no contradiction can be proved from T.

For any proposition p and any consistent T,

- T proves p iff $T \cup \{\neg p\}$ is inconsistent.
- $T \cup \{p\}$ and $T \cup \{\neg p\}$ cannot be both inconsistent.
- *p* is **independent** from *T* when *p* can neither be proved nor disproved from *T*.

Independence of AC from ZF

Theorem 4.1

If ZF is consistent, then

- Kurt Gödel (1938): $ZF \cup \{AC\}$ is consistent.
- ▶ Paul Cohen (1963): $ZF \cup \{\neg AC\}$ is consistent.



Kurt Gödel



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Ideas of Independence Proofs

A group (G, *) is said to be abelian iff it satisfies T_G and

• Commutativity: $\forall a, b \in G$ a * b = b * a.

Theorem 4.2

Commutativity is independent from T_G .

Proof.

Note that $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ and (S_3, \circ) are both groups:

- ▶ If commutativity can be disproved from T_G , then $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is not abelian.
- ▶ If commutativity can be proved from T_G , then (S_3, \circ) must be abelian.
- Contradiction in both cases!

Models for Set Theory

Mathematics is a game played according to certain simple rules with meaningless marks on paper. — David Hilbert

- $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ and (S_3, \circ) are **models** for $(T_G, G, *)$.
- When T is a collection of axioms for set theory, a model for (T, V, ∈) specifies the collection of sets V and defines ∈ so that all statements in T are true.
- Soundness: *T* is consistent if it has a model.
- ▶ Gödel found a model for $(ZF \cup \{AC\}, V, \in)$.
- Cohen found a model for $(ZF \cup \{\neg AC\}, V, \in)$.

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The axiom of choice and Banach-Tarski paradoxes

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