

What's Yellow and Equivalent to the Axiom of Choice?

(Axiom of Choice)

Hayden Jananthan

Vanderbilt University

Background

Background

- A **set** is an unordered collection of **elements**. $x \in A$ denotes that x is an element of A .

Background

- A **set** is an unordered collection of **elements**. $x \in A$ denotes that x is an element of A .
- $A \subseteq B$ — A is a **subset** of B , i.e. every element of A is in B .

Background

- A **set** is an unordered collection of **elements**. $x \in A$ denotes that x is an element of A .
- $A \subseteq B$ — A is a **subset** of B , i.e. every element of A is in B .
- $A \subsetneq B$ — A is a **proper subset** of B , i.e. $A \subseteq B$ and $A \neq B$.

Background

- A **set** is an unordered collection of **elements**. $x \in A$ denotes that x is an element of A .
- $A \subseteq B$ — A is a **subset** of B , i.e. every element of A is in B .
- $A \subsetneq B$ — A is a **proper subset** of B , i.e. $A \subseteq B$ and $A \neq B$.
- $f : A \rightarrow B$ — a **function**, i.e. a set of pairs (a, b) such that for each $a \in A$ there exists exactly one $b = f(a) \in B$ such that $(a, b) \in f$,

Background

- A **set** is an unordered collection of **elements**. $x \in A$ denotes that x is an element of A .
- $A \subseteq B$ — A is a **subset** of B , i.e. every element of A is in B .
- $A \subsetneq B$ — A is a **proper subset** of B , i.e. $A \subseteq B$ and $A \neq B$.
- $f : A \rightarrow B$ — a **function**, i.e. a set of pairs (a, b) such that for each $a \in A$ there exists exactly one $b = f(a) \in B$ such that $(a, b) \in f$,
- $f : A \rightarrow B$ is an **injection** if $f(a) = f(a')$ implies $a = a'$, a **surjection** if for every $b \in B$ there is an $a \in A$ such that $f(a) = b$, and a **bijection** if it is both an injection and a surjection.

Background

- A **set** is an unordered collection of **elements**. $x \in A$ denotes that x is an element of A .
- $A \subseteq B$ — A is a **subset** of B , i.e. every element of A is in B .
- $A \subsetneq B$ — A is a **proper subset** of B , i.e. $A \subseteq B$ and $A \neq B$.
- $f : A \rightarrow B$ — a **function**, i.e. a set of pairs (a, b) such that for each $a \in A$ there exists exactly one $b = f(a) \in B$ such that $(a, b) \in f$,
- $f : A \rightarrow B$ is an **injection** if $f(a) = f(a')$ implies $a = a'$, a **surjection** if for every $b \in B$ there is an $a \in A$ such that $f(a) = b$, and a **bijection** if it is both an injection and a surjection.
- $\bigcup X := \{x \mid x \in y \text{ for some } y \in X\}$ and
 $\bigcap X := \{x \mid x \in y \text{ for every } y \in X\}$

Background

- A **set** is an unordered collection of **elements**. $x \in A$ denotes that x is an element of A .
- $A \subseteq B$ — A is a **subset** of B , i.e. every element of A is in B .
- $A \subsetneq B$ — A is a **proper subset** of B , i.e. $A \subseteq B$ and $A \neq B$.
- $f : A \rightarrow B$ — a **function**, i.e. a set of pairs (a, b) such that for each $a \in A$ there exists exactly one $b = f(a) \in B$ such that $(a, b) \in f$,
- $f : A \rightarrow B$ is an **injection** if $f(a) = f(a')$ implies $a = a'$, a **surjection** if for every $b \in B$ there is an $a \in A$ such that $f(a) = b$, and a **bijection** if it is both an injection and a surjection.
- $\bigcup X := \{x \mid x \in y \text{ for some } y \in X\}$ and
 $\bigcap X := \{x \mid x \in y \text{ for every } y \in X\}$
- $A \setminus B$ — the **difference** of B from A , i.e. the set of elements in A not in B .

The Axiom of Choice

AXIOM OF CHOICE

For any collection X of non-empty sets, there exists a function f (a **choice function**) that assigns to each set x in X an element $f(x)$ of x .

1 Cantor and His Set Theory

2 Paradoxes and a Savior

3 Applications of Choice

1 Cantor and His Set Theory

2 Paradoxes and a Savior

3 Applications of Choice

The Mathematical Climate of the 1800s

Already began resembling modern day mathematics in notation and style.

The Mathematical Climate of the 1800s

Already began resembling modern day mathematics in notation and style. Sets, even infinite sets, already considered and used implicitly and explicitly in mathematics. *Seldomly were they considered as mathematical objects in their own right.*

The Mathematical Climate of the 1800s

Already began resembling modern day mathematics in notation and style. Sets, even infinite sets, already considered and used implicitly and explicitly in mathematics. *Seldomly were they considered as mathematical objects in their own right.*

Bolzano had studied some subtleties of the 'size' of infinite sets. Dedekind followed up on this by using those ideas to rigorously define the notion of 'infinite' with regards to sets.

The Mathematical Climate of the 1800s

Already began resembling modern day mathematics in notation and style. Sets, even infinite sets, already considered and used implicitly and explicitly in mathematics. *Seldomly were they considered as mathematical objects in their own right.*

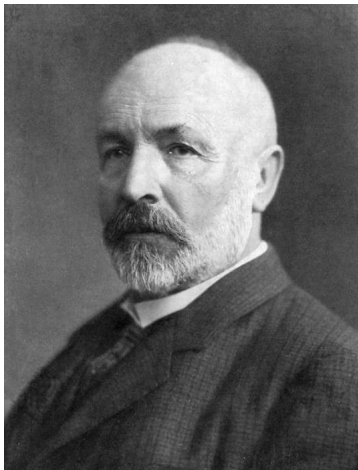
Bolzano had studied some subtleties of the 'size' of infinite sets. Dedekind followed up on this by using those ideas to rigorously define the notion of 'infinite' with regards to sets.

Definition ((Dedekind) Finite and Infinite Sets)

A is **(Dedekind) infinite** if there is $B \subsetneq A$ such that A and B are in bijection.

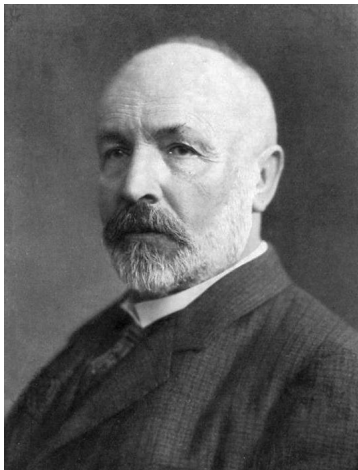
A is **(Dedekind) finite** if it is not (Dedekind) infinite.

The Major Players – Georg Cantor



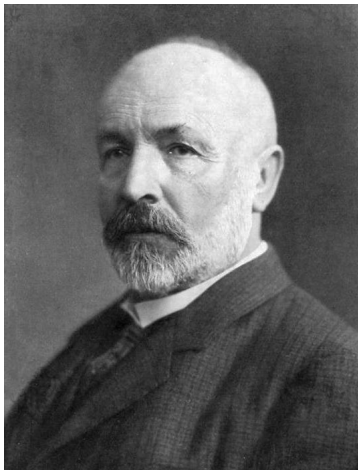
The Major Players – Georg Cantor

- Born in 1845 in St. Petersburg, Russia.



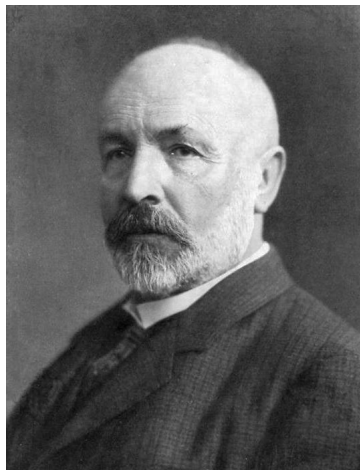
The Major Players – Georg Cantor

- Born in 1845 in St. Petersburg, Russia.
- Moved to Germany at age 11 for his father's health.



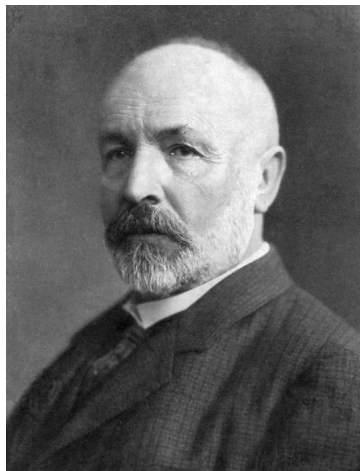
The Major Players – Georg Cantor

- Born in 1845 in St. Petersburg, Russia.
- Moved to Germany at age 11 for his father's health.
- In 1863, Cantor began studying mathematics under Weierstrass, Kummer, and Kronecker, major mathematicians of the time period, at the University of Berlin.



The Major Players – Georg Cantor

- Born in 1845 in St. Petersburg, Russia.
- Moved to Germany at age 11 for his father's health.
- In 1863, Cantor began studying mathematics under Weierstrass, Kummer, and Kronecker, major mathematicians of the time period, at the University of Berlin.
- In 1867 Cantor received his doctorate and shortly began teaching at the University of Halle.



The Major Players – Leopold Kronecker



The Major Players – Leopold Kronecker



- Born in 1823 in Liegnitz, Prussia.

The Major Players – Leopold Kronecker



- Born in 1823 in Liegnitz, Prussia.
- In 1841 he began studying at Berlin alongside Dirichlet, Jacobi, and Eisenstein.

The Major Players – Leopold Kronecker



- Born in 1823 in Liegnitz, Prussia.
- In 1841 he began studying at Berlin alongside Dirichlet, Jacobi, and Eisenstein.
- Received doctorate in 1845.

The Major Players – Leopold Kronecker



- Born in 1823 in Liegnitz, Prussia.
- In 1841 he began studying at Berlin alongside Dirichlet, Jacobi, and Eisenstein.
- Received doctorate in 1845.
- In 1880, became editor of August Leopold Crelle's *Journal for Pure and Applied Mathematics* (*Crelle's Journal*) – one of most respected mathematics journals.

The Major Players – Leopold Kronecker



- Born in 1823 in Liegnitz, Prussia.
- In 1841 he began studying at Berlin alongside Dirichlet, Jacobi, and Eisenstein.
- Received doctorate in 1845.
- In 1880, became editor of August Leopold Crelle's *Journal for Pure and Applied Mathematics* (*Crelle's Journal*) – one of most respected mathematics journals.

A number theorist, held a strong position on what mathematics was.

“God made the integers, all the rest is the work of man.”

The Minor Players

Several other mathematicians are of note in our historical account:

The Minor Players

Several other mathematicians are of note in our historical account:

- Karl Weierstrass – German analyst at Berlin. Another editor of Crelle's Journal alongside Kronecker. Popularized the rigorous modern definition of a limit (due to Bolzano) and produced the modern definition of continuity.



Weierstrass

The Minor Players

Several other mathematicians are of note in our historical account:

- Karl Weierstrass – German analyst at Berlin. Another editor of Crelle's Journal alongside Kronecker. Popularized the rigorous modern definition of a limit (due to Bolzano) and produced the modern definition of continuity.
- Richard Dedekind was a German number theorist who communicated often with Cantor and was a large proponent of Cantor's set theory.



Weierstrass



Cantor's work on Trigonometric Series

Heine (mathematics chair at Halle) suggested the uniqueness problem for trigonometric series:

Cantor's work on Trigonometric Series

Heine (mathematics chair at Halle) suggested the uniqueness problem for trigonometric series: show

$$\frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos(nx) + b_n \sin(nx)) = 0 \quad (*)$$

for every $x \in (-\pi, \pi)$ implies the coefficients a_i, b_i are 0.

Cantor's work on Trigonometric Series

Heine (mathematics chair at Halle) suggested the uniqueness problem trigonometric series: show

$$\frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos(nx) + b_n \sin(nx)) = 0 \quad (*)$$

for every $x \in (-\pi, \pi)$ implies the coefficients a_i, b_i are 0.

In Cantor's gradual proof involved him asking the following question:

*Q: If P is a certain set of exceptional points, then is the claim true if we only assume that Equation * holds for all $x \in (-\pi, \pi) \setminus P$?*

Cantor's work on Trigonometric Series

To describe the exceptional sets, Cantor defined

$$P' := \{\text{condensation points of } P\}$$

$$P^{(n+1)} := \{\text{condensation points of } P^{(n)}\} = (P^{(n)})'$$

Cantor's work on Trigonometric Series

To describe the exceptional sets, Cantor defined

$$P' := \{\text{condensation points of } P\}$$
$$P^{(n+1)} := \{\text{condensation points of } P^{(n)}\} = (P^{(n)})'$$

Cantor showed the claim is true if $P^{(n)} = \emptyset$ for some n .

Cantor's work on Trigonometric Series

To describe the exceptional sets, Cantor defined

$$P' := \{\text{condensation points of } P\}$$
$$P^{(n+1)} := \{\text{condensation points of } P^{(n)}\} = (P^{(n)})'$$

Cantor showed the claim is true if $P^{(n)} = \emptyset$ for some n .
Following this, he began considering the set

$$P^{(\omega)} = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} P^{(n)}$$

Cantor recognized he could then define $P^{(\omega+1)} := (P^{(\omega)})'$ and so on.

Cantor's work on Trigonometric Series

To describe the exceptional sets, Cantor defined

$$P' := \{\text{condensation points of } P\}$$
$$P^{(n+1)} := \{\text{condensation points of } P^{(n)}\} = (P^{(n)})'$$

Cantor showed the claim is true if $P^{(n)} = \emptyset$ for some n .
Following this, he began considering the set

$$P^{(\omega)} = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} P^{(n)}$$

Cantor recognized he could then define $P^{(\omega+1)} := (P^{(\omega)})'$ and so on.
This was Cantor's first hint of the eventual theory of ordinal numbers.

Cantor's 1874 Paper

Cantor began examining the set of real algebraic numbers (the solutions to rational-coefficient polynomials), submitting a paper with his findings to Crelle's Journal titled "On a Property of the Collection of All Real Algebraic Numbers".

Cantor's 1874 Paper

Cantor began examining the set of real algebraic numbers (the solutions to rational-coefficient polynomials), submitting a paper with his findings to Crelle's Journal titled "On a Property of the Collection of All Real Algebraic Numbers".

His two main theorems in his 1874 paper:

Cantor's 1874 Paper

Cantor began examining the set of real algebraic numbers (the solutions to rational-coefficient polynomials), submitting a paper with his findings to Crelle's Journal titled "On a Property of the Collection of All Real Algebraic Numbers".

His two main theorems in his 1874 paper:

- (1) The set of real algebraic numbers can be written as a sequence a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots . In other words, the set of real algebraic numbers is **countable**.

Cantor's 1874 Paper

Cantor began examining the set of real algebraic numbers (the solutions to rational-coefficient polynomials), submitting a paper with his findings to Crelle's Journal titled "On a Property of the Collection of All Real Algebraic Numbers".

His two main theorems in his 1874 paper:

- (1) The set of real algebraic numbers can be written as a sequence a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots . In other words, the set of real algebraic numbers is **countable**.
- (2) No open interval (a, b) can be written as such a sequence. In other word, open intervals of real numbers are **uncountable**. As a Corollary, every open interval contains a transcendental number.

Cantor's 1874 Paper

Cantor began examining the set of real algebraic numbers (the solutions to rational-coefficient polynomials), submitting a paper with his findings to Crelle's Journal titled "On a Property of the Collection of All Real Algebraic Numbers".

His two main theorems in his 1874 paper:

- (1) The set of real algebraic numbers can be written as a sequence a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots . In other words, the set of real algebraic numbers is **countable**.
- (2) No open interval (a, b) can be written as such a sequence. In other word, open intervals of real numbers are **uncountable**. As a Corollary, every open interval contains a transcendental number.

This was the birth of set theory; never before had mathematicians considered that infinite sets could have different 'sizes'.

Cantor's Notion of Size

Motivated by his findings, Cantor defined the size of a set in terms of injections and bijections:

Cantor's Notion of Size

Motivated by his findings, Cantor defined the size of a set in terms of injections and bijections:

Definition

Suppose A and B are sets. Then

Cantor's Notion of Size

Motivated by his findings, Cantor defined the size of a set in terms of injections and bijections:

Definition

Suppose A and B are sets. Then

$|A| = |B|$ if... there exists a bijection $f : A \rightarrow B$, read “ A and B have equal size/cardinality.”

Cantor's Notion of Size

Motivated by his findings, Cantor defined the size of a set in terms of injections and bijections:

Definition

Suppose A and B are sets. Then

$|A| = |B|$ if... there exists a bijection $f : A \rightarrow B$, read “ A and B have equal size/cardinality.”

$|A| \leq |B|$ if... there exists an injection $f : A \rightarrow B$.

Cantor's Notion of Size

Motivated by his findings, Cantor defined the size of a set in terms of injections and bijections:

Definition

Suppose A and B are sets. Then

$|A| = |B|$ if... there exists a bijection $f : A \rightarrow B$, read “ A and B have equal size/cardinality.”

$|A| \leq |B|$ if... there exists an injection $f : A \rightarrow B$.

$|A| < |B|$ if... $|A| \leq |B|$ but $|A| \neq |B|$.

Cantor's Notion of Size

Motivated by his findings, Cantor defined the size of a set in terms of injections and bijections:

Definition

Suppose A and B are sets. Then

$|A| = |B|$ if... there exists a bijection $f : A \rightarrow B$, read “ A and B have equal size/cardinality.”

$|A| \leq |B|$ if... there exists an injection $f : A \rightarrow B$.

$|A| < |B|$ if... $|A| \leq |B|$ but $|A| \neq |B|$.

Thus, Cantor's 1874 findings can be subsumed as

$$|\{\text{real algebraic numbers}\}| = |\mathbb{N}| < |\mathbb{R}|$$

Cantor's 1878 Paper

In search of sets which were even larger than \mathbb{R} , in 1874, Cantor wrote to Dedekind,

Cantor's 1878 Paper

In search of sets which were even larger than \mathbb{R} , in 1874, Cantor wrote to Dedekind,

“Can a surface (say, a square that includes the boundaries) be uniquely referred to a line (say, a straight-line segment that includes the end points) so that for every point of the surface there is a corresponding point of the line and conversely, for every point of the line there is a corresponding point on the surface? Methinks that answering this question would be no easy job, despite the fact that the answer seems so clearly to be ‘no’ that proof appears almost unnecessary.”

Ultimately, the answer was ‘yes’: Cantor showed that $|[0, 1]| = |[0, 1]^2|$, and this extended to higher dimensions as well.

“I see it, but I don't believe it.”

Cantor's Later Years

From 1879 to 1884, Cantor published a series of six papers expanding on his new set theory. It was in these papers that Cantor properly presented his theory of ordinals and cardinals, using *well-ordered sets* as an essential tool.

Cantor's Later Years

From 1879 to 1884, Cantor published a series of six papers expanding on his new set theory. It was in these papers that Cantor properly presented his theory of ordinals and cardinals, using *well-ordered sets* as an essential tool.

His two principal goals during this time were the following:

Cantor's Later Years

From 1879 to 1884, Cantor published a series of six papers expanding on his new set theory. It was in these papers that Cantor properly presented his theory of ordinals and cardinals, using *well-ordered sets* as an essential tool.

His two principal goals during this time were the following:

- (1) Show that every set fit into his linear hierarchy of sizes (the *cardinal numbers*).

Cantor's Later Years

From 1879 to 1884, Cantor published a series of six papers expanding on his new set theory. It was in these papers that Cantor properly presented his theory of ordinals and cardinals, using *well-ordered sets* as an essential tool.

His two principal goals during this time were the following:

- (1) Show that every set fit into his linear hierarchy of sizes (the *cardinal numbers*).
- (2) **Cantor's Continuum Hypothesis:** Show that there is no intermediate set A such that $|\mathbb{N}| < |A| < |\mathbb{R}|$.

To establish the first, Cantor made use of a result called the **Well-Ordering Theorem**, which states that every set can be *well-ordered*.

Well-Orders

The set of natural numbers, $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, has the property that *every non-empty subset has a least element*, a property that is very closely related with the property of mathematical induction.

Well-Orders

The set of natural numbers, $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, has the property that *every non-empty subset has a least element*, a property that is very closely related with the property of mathematical induction.

Well-orders generalize this notion:

Well-Orders

The set of natural numbers, $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, has the property that *every non-empty subset has a least element*, a property that is very closely related with the property of mathematical induction.

Well-orders generalize this notion:

Definition (Well-Order)

A **well-order** on a set W is a binary relation \leq satisfying

Well-Orders

The set of natural numbers, $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, has the property that *every non-empty subset has a least element*, a property that is very closely related with the property of mathematical induction.

Well-orders generalize this notion:

Definition (Well-Order)

A **well-order** on a set W is a binary relation \leq satisfying

Reflexivity: For all $x \in W$, $x \leq x$.

Well-Orders

The set of natural numbers, $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, has the property that *every non-empty subset has a least element*, a property that is very closely related with the property of mathematical induction.

Well-orders generalize this notion:

Definition (Well-Order)

A **well-order** on a set W is a binary relation \leq satisfying

Reflexivity: For all $x \in W$, $x \leq x$.

Transitivity: For all $x, y, z \in W$, $x \leq y$ and $y \leq z$ implies $x \leq z$.

Well-Orders

The set of natural numbers, $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, has the property that *every non-empty subset has a least element*, a property that is very closely related with the property of mathematical induction.

Well-orders generalize this notion:

Definition (Well-Order)

A **well-order** on a set W is a binary relation \leq satisfying

Reflexivity: For all $x \in W$, $x \leq x$.

Transitivity: For all $x, y, z \in W$, $x \leq y$ and $y \leq z$ implies $x \leq z$.

Antisymmetry: For all $x, y \in W$, if $x \leq y$ and $y \leq x$, then $x = y$.

Well-Orders

The set of natural numbers, $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, has the property that *every non-empty subset has a least element*, a property that is very closely related with the property of mathematical induction.

Well-orders generalize this notion:

Definition (Well-Order)

A **well-order** on a set W is a binary relation \leq satisfying

Reflexivity: For all $x \in W$, $x \leq x$.

Transitivity: For all $x, y, z \in W$, $x \leq y$ and $y \leq z$ implies $x \leq z$.

Antisymmetry: For all $x, y \in W$, if $x \leq y$ and $y \leq x$, then $x = y$.

Totality: For any $x, y \in W$, either $x \leq y$ or $y \leq x$.

Well-Orders

The set of natural numbers, $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, has the property that *every non-empty subset has a least element*, a property that is very closely related with the property of mathematical induction.

Well-orders generalize this notion:

Definition (Well-Order)

A **well-order** on a set W is a binary relation \leq satisfying

Reflexivity: For all $x \in W$, $x \leq x$.

Transitivity: For all $x, y, z \in W$, $x \leq y$ and $y \leq z$ implies $x \leq z$.

Antisymmetry: For all $x, y \in W$, if $x \leq y$ and $y \leq x$, then $x = y$.

Totality: For any $x, y \in W$, either $x \leq y$ or $y \leq x$.

Well-foundedness: Any non-empty subset V of W has a \leq -least element.

Ordinals - Motivation

Cantor found that there was a standard way of enumerating the elements of a well-ordered set W :

w_0

By well-foundedness, W has a least element w_0 .

Ordinals - Motivation

Cantor found that there was a standard way of enumerating the elements of a well-ordered set W :

w_0, w_1

If $W \setminus \{w_0\}$ is non-empty, then it has a least element w_1 .

Ordinals - Motivation

Cantor found that there was a standard way of enumerating the elements of a well-ordered set W :

w_0, w_1, w_2

If $W \setminus \{w_0, w_1\}$ is non-empty, then it has a least element w_2 .

Ordinals - Motivation

Cantor found that there was a standard way of enumerating the elements of a well-ordered set W :

$$w_0, w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n, \dots$$

Continuing in this way, we may define $w_3, w_4, w_5, \dots, w_n, \dots$ corresponding to each natural number.

Ordinals - Motivation

Cantor found that there was a standard way of enumerating the elements of a well-ordered set W :

$$w_0, w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n, \dots, w_\omega$$

If $W \setminus \{w_0, w_1, \dots\}$ is non-empty, it has a least element, which we denote w_ω .

Ordinals - Motivation

Cantor found that there was a standard way of enumerating the elements of a well-ordered set W :

$$w_0, w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n, \dots, w_\omega, w_{\omega+1}$$

But then we may consider $W \setminus \{w_0, w_1, \dots, w_\omega\}$; if it is non-empty, it has a least element, which we denote $w_{\omega+1}$.

Ordinals - Motivation

Cantor found that there was a standard way of enumerating the elements of a well-ordered set W :

$$w_0, w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n, \dots, w_\omega, w_{\omega+1}, \dots, w_{\omega+n}, \dots$$

We can continue in this way, defining $w_{\omega+2}, w_{\omega+3}, w_{\omega+4}, \dots, w_{\omega+n}, \dots$

Ordinals - Motivation

Cantor found that there was a standard way of enumerating the elements of a well-ordered set W :

$$w_0, w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n, \dots, w_\omega, w_{\omega+1}, \dots, w_{\omega+n}, \dots, w_{\omega \cdot 2}$$

Then, as before, we may consider the next element bigger than all of these, $w_{\omega+\omega} = w_{\omega \cdot 2}$. As long as possible, we can continue even further, to $w_{\omega \cdot 3}, w_{\omega \cdot 4}, \dots, w_{\omega \cdot n}, \dots$

Ordinals - Motivation

Cantor found that there was a standard way of enumerating the elements of a well-ordered set W :

$w_0, w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n, \dots, w_\omega, w_{\omega+1}, \dots, w_{\omega+n}, \dots, w_{\omega \cdot 2}, \dots, w_{\omega \cdot 3}, \dots, w_{\omega \cdot n}, \dots, w_{\omega^2}, \dots$

Past each of the elements of $w_{\omega \cdot n}$ is the least element above all of them, $w_{\omega \cdot \omega} = w_{\omega^2}$.

Ordinals - Motivation

Cantor found that there was a standard way of enumerating the elements of a well-ordered set W :

$$w_0, w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n, \dots, w_\omega, w_{\omega+1}, \dots, w_{\omega+n}, \dots, w_{\omega \cdot 2}, \dots, w_{\omega \cdot 3}, \dots, w_{\omega \cdot n}, \dots, w_{\omega^2}, \dots$$

And nothing stops us from continuing from there, at least until we run out of elements.

Ordinals - Cantor's and Modern Definitions

Cantor defined his ordinal numbers by starting with 0 (today, we define $0 := \emptyset$) and defining two generation rules:

Definition

Cantor's Intuitive Definition	Modern Definition

Ordinals - Cantor's and Modern Definitions

Cantor defined his ordinal numbers by starting with 0 (today, we define $0 := \emptyset$) and defining two generation rules:

Definition

Cantor's Intuitive Definition	Modern Definition
(1) Given an ordinal α , form its successor ordinal $\alpha + 1$.	$\alpha + 1 := \alpha \cup \{\alpha\}$

Ordinals - Cantor's and Modern Definitions

Cantor defined his ordinal numbers by starting with 0 (today, we define $0 := \emptyset$) and defining two generation rules:

Definition

Cantor's Intuitive Definition	Modern Definition
(1) Given an ordinal α , form its successor ordinal $\alpha + 1$.	$\alpha + 1 := \alpha \cup \{\alpha\}$
(2) Given a set of ordinals S with no maximum, form its limit ordinal $\sup S$.	$\sup S := \bigcup S$

Note that in the modern definition, an ordinal is the set of all smaller ordinals.

Cardinals

The finite ordinal numbers $0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$ and the first *countably-infinite* ordinal $\mathbb{N} = \omega = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ have the property that no smaller ordinal has equal size.

Cardinals

The finite ordinal numbers $0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$ and the first *countably-infinite* ordinal $\mathbb{N} = \omega = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ have the property that no smaller ordinal has equal size.

However, the ordinals $\omega + 1, \omega \cdot 2, \omega^2, \dots$ are all still countable.

Cardinals

The finite ordinal numbers $0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$ and the first *countably-infinite* ordinal $\mathbb{N} = \omega = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ have the property that no smaller ordinal has equal size.

However, the ordinals $\omega + 1, \omega \cdot 2, \omega^2, \dots$ are all still countable.

The so-called *initial* ordinals can serve as canonical representatives for different sizes of sets.

Cardinals

The finite ordinal numbers $0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$ and the first *countably-infinite* ordinal $\mathbb{N} = \omega = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ have the property that no smaller ordinal has equal size.

However, the ordinals $\omega + 1, \omega \cdot 2, \omega^2, \dots$ are all still countable.

The so-called *initial* ordinals can serve as canonical representatives for different sizes of sets.

An essential result that was only formalized latter is the following, which guarantees that ‘enough’ ordinals exist:

Cardinals

The finite ordinal numbers $0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$ and the first *countably-infinite* ordinal $\aleph_0 = \omega = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ have the property that no smaller ordinal has equal size.

However, the ordinals $\omega + 1, \omega \cdot 2, \omega^2, \dots$ are all still countable.

The so-called *initial* ordinals can serve as canonical representatives for different sizes of sets.

An essential result that was only formalized latter is the following, which guarantees that ‘enough’ ordinals exist:

Lemma (Hartogs' Lemma)

For every set S , there exists an ordinal γ that does not inject into S .

Cardinals

The finite ordinal numbers $0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$ and the first *countably-infinite* ordinal $\mathbb{N} = \omega = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ have the property that no smaller ordinal has equal size.

However, the ordinals $\omega + 1, \omega \cdot 2, \omega^2, \dots$ are all still countable.

The so-called *initial* ordinals can serve as canonical representatives for different sizes of sets.

An essential result that was only formalized latter is the following, which guarantees that ‘enough’ ordinals exist:

Lemma (Hartogs’ Lemma)

For every set S , there exists an ordinal γ that does not inject into S .

Without it, uncountable ordinals need not exist.

Cardinals - Alephs

Definition

Cantor defined the **alephs** by transfinite recursion:

Cardinals - Alephs

Definition

Cantor defined the **alephs** by transfinite recursion:

$$\aleph_0 := \omega$$

$\aleph_{\alpha+1} :=$ least ordinal which does not inject into \aleph_α

$$\aleph_\lambda := \sup\{\aleph_\alpha \mid \alpha < \lambda\}$$

$\lambda \neq 0$ limit

Cardinals - Alephs

Definition

Cantor defined the **alephs** by transfinite recursion:

$$\aleph_0 := \omega$$

$\aleph_{\alpha+1} :=$ least ordinal which does not inject into \aleph_α

$$\aleph_\lambda := \sup\{\aleph_\alpha \mid \alpha < \lambda\} \quad \lambda \neq 0 \text{ limit}$$

Definition

The alephs, together with the finite ordinals $0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$, are called the **cardinal numbers**.

Cardinals - Alephs

Definition

Cantor defined the **alephs** by transfinite recursion:

$$\aleph_0 := \omega$$

$\aleph_{\alpha+1} :=$ least ordinal which does not inject into \aleph_α

$$\aleph_\lambda := \sup\{\aleph_\alpha \mid \alpha < \lambda\} \quad \lambda \neq 0 \text{ limit}$$

Definition

The alephs, together with the finite ordinals $0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$, are called the **cardinal numbers**.

The cardinal numbers form a linear hierarchy of sizes

$$0 < 1 < 2 < \dots < \aleph_0 < \aleph_1 < \aleph_2 < \dots < \aleph_n < \dots < \aleph_\omega < \aleph_{\omega+1} < \dots < \aleph_{\omega^2} < \dots$$

Cardinals and the Well-Ordering Theorem

Every well-ordered set can be put into a one-to-one correspondence with an ordinal number.

Cardinals and the Well-Ordering Theorem

Every well-ordered set can be put into a one-to-one correspondence with an ordinal number.

Cantor thus concluded that *if every set could be well-ordered, then* he would get an affirmative answer to his first question, i.e. every set is in bijection with a cardinal number.

Cardinals and the Well-Ordering Theorem

Every well-ordered set can be put into a one-to-one correspondence with an ordinal number.

Cantor thus concluded that *if every set could be well-ordered, then* he would get an affirmative answer to his first question, i.e. every set is in bijection with a cardinal number.

Theorem (Well-Ordering Theorem)

Suppose S is a set. Then there exists a binary relation \leq which is a well-ordering of S .

Cantor, unfortunately, failed to find a proof.

Trichotomy

Lemma

For every ordinal β , there exists an ordinal α such that β and \aleph_α are in one-to-one correspondence.

Proof.

Assume without loss of generality that β does not inject into any $\gamma < \beta$. (Such an ordinal is an *initial ordinal*.)

By construction of the alephs, $\beta \leq \aleph_\beta$. Let α be the least ordinal such that β injects into \aleph_α . Two observations:

- β is initial, so $\beta \leq \aleph_\alpha$.
- β does not inject into \aleph_γ for any $\gamma < \alpha$, so $\aleph_\gamma < \beta$ for all $\gamma < \alpha$.

Then $\aleph_\alpha = \bigcup_{\gamma < \alpha} \aleph_\gamma \leq \beta \leq \aleph_\alpha$, so $\beta = \aleph_\alpha$. □

Trichotomy

Corollary (Trichotomy Theorem)

Suppose S is an infinite set. Then there exists an ordinal α such that S is in one-to-one correspondence with \aleph_α .

Proof.

Well-order S , so that $|S| = |\beta|$ for some ordinal β . Then $|S| = |\beta| = |\aleph_\alpha|$ for some ordinal α . □

1 Cantor and His Set Theory

2 Paradoxes and a Savior

3 Applications of Choice

Growing Paradoxes

In the late 1800s and early 1900s, paradoxes were beginning to be discovered that shook the foundations of the fledgling set theory.

Growing Paradoxes

In the late 1800s and early 1900s, paradoxes were beginning to be discovered that shook the foundations of the fledgling set theory.

Burali-Forti Paradox: Let $O := \{\text{ordinals}\}$.

Then O is also an ordinal – a *largest* ordinal. But its successor $O + 1$ is larger, a contradiction.

Growing Paradoxes

In the late 1800s and early 1900s, paradoxes were beginning to be discovered that shook the foundations of the fledgling set theory.

Burali-Forti Paradox: Let $O := \{\text{ordinals}\}$.

Then O is also an ordinal – a *largest* ordinal. But its successor $O + 1$ is larger, a contradiction.

Cantor's Paradox: Let $C := \{\text{cardinals}\}$.

Then $\sup S = \bigcup C$ is also a cardinal – a *largest* cardinal.
 $\sup S = \bigcup C = \aleph_\alpha$ for some ordinal α , but then $\aleph_{\alpha+1}$ is larger, a contradiction.

Growing Paradoxes

In the late 1800s and early 1900s, paradoxes were beginning to be discovered that shook the foundations of the fledgling set theory.

Burali-Forti Paradox: Let $O := \{\text{ordinals}\}$.

Then O is also an ordinal – a *largest* ordinal. But its successor $O + 1$ is larger, a contradiction.

Cantor's Paradox: Let $C := \{\text{cardinals}\}$.

Then $\sup S = \bigcup C$ is also a cardinal – a *largest* cardinal.
 $\sup S = \bigcup C = \aleph_\alpha$ for some ordinal α , but then $\aleph_{\alpha+1}$ is larger, a contradiction.

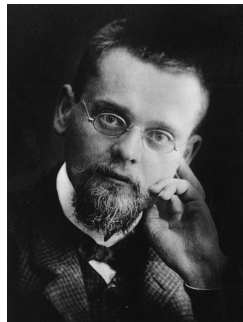
Russell's Paradox: Let $S := \{x \mid x \notin x\}$. Does S contain itself?

A Newcomer - Ernst Zermelo



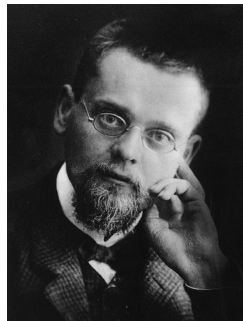
A Newcomer - Ernst Zermelo

- Born in 1871 in Berlin, Germany.



A Newcomer - Ernst Zermelo

- Born in 1871 in Berlin, Germany.
- Studied at Berlin, Halle, and Freiburg.



A Newcomer - Ernst Zermelo

- Born in 1871 in Berlin, Germany.
- Studied at Berlin, Halle, and Freiburg.
- Doctorate from the University of Berlin in 1894 and lectured at Gottingen by 1899.



A Newcomer - Ernst Zermelo

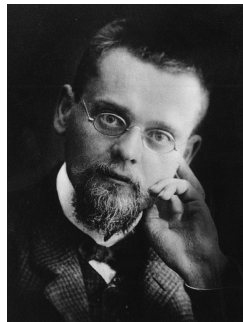
- Born in 1871 in Berlin, Germany.
- Studied at Berlin, Halle, and Freiburg.
- Doctorate from the University of Berlin in 1894 and lectured at Gottingen by 1899.



Large proponent of Cantor's set theory, though recognized that Cantor had used haphazard techniques to prove his theorems – particularly in what was considered allowable in the creation of sets.

A Newcomer - Ernst Zermelo

- Born in 1871 in Berlin, Germany.
- Studied at Berlin, Halle, and Freiburg.
- Doctorate from the University of Berlin in 1894 and lectured at Gottingen by 1899.



Large proponent of Cantor's set theory, though recognized that Cantor had used haphazard techniques to prove his theorems – particularly in what was considered allowable in the creation of sets.

In 1904, he formulated the Axiom of Choice and produced a proof of the Well-Ordering Theorem.

Proof of the Well-Ordering Theorem

Lemma (Principle of General Recursion)

For every set S , ordinal α , and function $F : \{h : \beta \rightarrow S \mid \beta < \alpha\} \rightarrow S$, there is a function $f : \alpha \rightarrow S$ such that

$$f(\beta) = F(\text{restriction of } f \text{ to } \beta)$$

Proof of Well-Ordering Theorem.

Let γ be an ordinal which does not inject into S , and let f be a choice function for $\mathcal{P}(S) \setminus \{\emptyset\}$. Define a bijection of an initial segment of γ onto S as follows:

Stage 0: Associate 0 with $f(S)$.

Stage α : Associate α with $f(S \setminus \{s_\beta \mid \beta < \alpha\})$ if that set is non-empty.

At some point in this process, we must run out of elements of S (otherwise instead run out of elements of γ and have an injection of γ into S , a contradiction).

The procedure well-orders the elements of S . □

Equivalence of Well-Ordering and Choice

Theorem

The Well-Ordering Theorem implies the Axiom of Choice.

Proof.

Suppose X is a set not containing \emptyset .

Let $S = \bigcup X$, and well-order S .

Then define $f : X \rightarrow S$ by the rule

$$f(x) := \text{least element of } x \subseteq S$$



Zermelo's Axiomatization of Set Theory

Zermelo's second article sought to put set theory on firm logical grounds, giving a rigorous axiomatization of set theory that would avoid the paradoxes that had been raised.

Zermelo's Axiomatization of Set Theory

Zermelo's second article sought to put set theory on firm logical grounds, giving a rigorous axiomatization of set theory that would avoid the paradoxes that had been raised.

Axiom I: Axiom of Extensionality. A set is determined uniquely by its elements.

Zermelo's Axiomatization of Set Theory

Zermelo's second article sought to put set theory on firm logical grounds, giving a rigorous axiomatization of set theory that would avoid the paradoxes that had been raised.

Axiom I: Axiom of Extensionality. A set is determined uniquely by its elements.

Axiom II: Axiom of Elementary Sets. For any objects in our domain a, b , the sets \emptyset , $\{a\}$, and $\{a, b\}$ exist.

Zermelo's Axiomatization of Set Theory

Zermelo's second article sought to put set theory on firm logical grounds, giving a rigorous axiomatization of set theory that would avoid the paradoxes that had been raised.

Axiom I: Axiom of Extensionality. A set is determined uniquely by its elements.

Axiom II: Axiom of Elementary Sets. For any objects in our domain a, b , the sets \emptyset , $\{a\}$, and $\{a, b\}$ exist.

Axiom III: Axiom of Separation. For a property of sets $P(x)$ and a set X , there is a set Y containingly the elements x of X satisfying $P(x)$.

Zermelo's Axiomatization of Set Theory

Zermelo's second article sought to put set theory on firm logical grounds, giving a rigorous axiomatization of set theory that would avoid the paradoxes that had been raised.

Axiom I: Axiom of Extensionality. A set is determined uniquely by its elements.

Axiom II: Axiom of Elementary Sets. For any objects in our domain a, b , the sets \emptyset , $\{a\}$, and $\{a, b\}$ exist.

Axiom III: Axiom of Separation. For a property of sets $P(x)$ and a set X , there is a set Y containingly the elements x of X satisfying $P(x)$.

Axiom IV: Axiom of Power Set. For every set X , there is a set $Y = \mathcal{P}(X)$ consisting exactly of all of the subsets of X .

Zermelo's Axiomatization of Set Theory

Zermelo's second article sought to put set theory on firm logical grounds, giving a rigorous axiomatization of set theory that would avoid the paradoxes that had been raised.

Axiom I: Axiom of Extensionality. A set is determined uniquely by its elements.

Axiom II: Axiom of Elementary Sets. For any objects in our domain a, b , the sets \emptyset , $\{a\}$, and $\{a, b\}$ exist.

Axiom III: Axiom of Separation. For a property of sets $P(x)$ and a set X , there is a set Y containingly the elements x of X satisfying $P(x)$.

Axiom IV: Axiom of Power Set. For every set X , there is a set $Y = \mathcal{P}(X)$ consisting exactly of all of the subsets of X .

Axiom V: Axiom of Union. For every set X , there is a set $Y = \bigcup X$ consisting exactly of all elements of elements of X .

Zermelo's Axiomatization of Set Theory

Zermelo's second article sought to put set theory on firm logical grounds, giving a rigorous axiomatization of set theory that would avoid the paradoxes that had been raised.

Axiom I: Axiom of Extensionality. A set is determined uniquely by its elements.

Axiom II: Axiom of Elementary Sets. For any objects in our domain a, b , the sets \emptyset , $\{a\}$, and $\{a, b\}$ exist.

Axiom III: Axiom of Separation. For a property of sets $P(x)$ and a set X , there is a set Y containingly the elements x of X satisfying $P(x)$.

Axiom IV: Axiom of Power Set. For every set X , there is a set $Y = \mathcal{P}(X)$ consisting exactly of all of the subsets of X .

Axiom V: Axiom of Union. For every set X , there is a set $Y = \bigcup X$ consisting exactly of all elements of elements of X .

Axiom VI: Axiom of Choice. If X is a set not containing \emptyset , then there is a function $f : X \rightarrow \bigcup X$ assigning to $x \in X$ an element $f(x) \in x$.

Zermelo's Axiomatization of Set Theory

Zermelo's second article sought to put set theory on firm logical grounds, giving a rigorous axiomatization of set theory that would avoid the paradoxes that had been raised.

Axiom I: Axiom of Extensionality. A set is determined uniquely by its elements.

Axiom II: Axiom of Elementary Sets. For any objects in our domain a, b , the sets \emptyset , $\{a\}$, and $\{a, b\}$ exist.

Axiom III: Axiom of Separation. For a property of sets $P(x)$ and a set X , there is a set Y containingly the elements x of X satisfying $P(x)$.

Axiom IV: Axiom of Power Set. For every set X , there is a set $Y = \mathcal{P}(X)$ consisting exactly of all of the subsets of X .

Axiom V: Axiom of Union. For every set X , there is a set $Y = \bigcup X$ consisting exactly of all elements of elements of X .

Axiom VI: Axiom of Choice. If X is a set not containing \emptyset , then there is a function $f : X \rightarrow \bigcup X$ assigning to $x \in X$ an element $f(x) \in x$.

Axiom VII: Axiom of Infinity. There exists in the domain at least Z that contains \emptyset and for every $x \in Z$ also contains $\{x\}$.

Developments in the Axiomatization of Set Theory

Morris Kline writes:

The axiom became a serious bone of contention. Despite this, however, many mathematicians continued to use it as mathematics expanded in the succeeding decades. A conflict continued to rage among mathematicians about whether it was legitimate, acceptable mathematics. It became the most discussed axiom next to Euclid's parallel axiom. As Lebesgue remarked, the opponents could do no better than insult each other because there was no agreement. He himself, despite his negative and distrustful attitude toward the axiom, employed it, as he put it, audaciously and cautiously. He maintained that future developments would help us decide.

Developments in the Axiomatization of Set Theory

Morris Kline writes:

The axiom became a serious bone of contention. Despite this, however, many mathematicians continued to use it as mathematics expanded in the succeeding decades. A conflict continued to rage among mathematicians about whether it was legitimate, acceptable mathematics. It became the most discussed axiom next to Euclid's parallel axiom. As Lebesgue remarked, the opponents could do no better than insult each other because there was no agreement. He himself, despite his negative and distrustful attitude toward the axiom, employed it, as he put it, audaciously and cautiously. He maintained that future developments would help us decide.

Meanwhile, Zermelo's theory evolved. Abraham Fraenkel found short-comings in the theory, and added his *Axiom of Replacement*.

Developments in the Axiomatization of Set Theory

Morris Kline writes:

The axiom became a serious bone of contention. Despite this, however, many mathematicians continued to use it as mathematics expanded in the succeeding decades. A conflict continued to rage among mathematicians about whether it was legitimate, acceptable mathematics. It became the most discussed axiom next to Euclid's parallel axiom. As Lebesgue remarked, the opponents could do no better than insult each other because there was no agreement. He himself, despite his negative and distrustful attitude toward the axiom, employed it, as he put it, audaciously and cautiously. He maintained that future developments would help us decide.

Meanwhile, Zermelo's theory evolved. Abraham Fraenkel found short-comings in the theory, and added his *Axiom of Replacement*. With some additional minor modifications, the resulting theory became known as Zermelo-Fraenkel Set Theory, or ZF. (Which did *not* include Choice.)

Enter Gödel



Enter Gödel

- 1930 – Completeness Theorem for First-Order Logic



Enter Gödel

- 1930 – Completeness Theorem for First-Order Logic
- 1931 – Incompleteness Theorems



Gödel's Incompleteness Theorems mostly laid to rest the question of the consistency (the inability to derive a contradiction) of the Zermelo-Fraenkel Set Theory.

Enter Gödel

- 1930 – Completeness Theorem for First-Order Logic
- 1931 – Incompleteness Theorems
- 1938 – Constructible Universe



Gödel's Incompleteness Theorems mostly laid to rest the question of the consistency (the inability to derive a contradiction) of the Zermelo-Fraenkel Set Theory.

His Constructible Universe showed that if ZF was consistent, ZFC (ZF plus the Axiom of Choice) is also consistent.

1 Cantor and His Set Theory

2 Paradoxes and a Savior

3 Applications of Choice

Equivalents of Choice

- The Cartesian product of any family of non-empty sets is non-empty.

Equivalents of Choice

- The Cartesian product of any family of non-empty sets is non-empty.
- Every surjective function has a right inverse.

Equivalents of Choice

- The Cartesian product of any family of non-empty sets is non-empty.
- Every surjective function has a right inverse.
- For every infinite set A , $|A| = |A \times A|$.

Equivalents of Choice

- The Cartesian product of any family of non-empty sets is non-empty.
- Every surjective function has a right inverse.
- For every infinite set A , $|A| = |A \times A|$.
- Hausdorff Maximal Principle: Every poset has a maximal chain.

Equivalents of Choice

- The Cartesian product of any family of non-empty sets is non-empty.
- Every surjective function has a right inverse.
- For every infinite set A , $|A| = |A \times A|$.
- Hausdorff Maximal Principle: Every poset has a maximal chain.
- Zorn's Lemma: Every non-empty poset in which every chain has an upper bound has a maximal element.

Equivalents of Choice

- The Cartesian product of any family of non-empty sets is non-empty.
- Every surjective function has a right inverse.
- For every infinite set A , $|A| = |A \times A|$.
- Hausdorff Maximal Principle: Every poset has a maximal chain.
- Zorn's Lemma: Every non-empty poset in which every chain has an upper bound has a maximal element.
- Antichain Principle: Every poset has a maximal antichain.

Equivalents of Choice

- The Cartesian product of any family of non-empty sets is non-empty.
- Every surjective function has a right inverse.
- For every infinite set A , $|A| = |A \times A|$.
- Hausdorff Maximal Principle: Every poset has a maximal chain.
- Zorn's Lemma: Every non-empty poset in which every chain has an upper bound has a maximal element.
- Antichain Principle: Every poset has a maximal antichain.
- Every vector space has a basis.

Equivalents of Choice

- The Cartesian product of any family of non-empty sets is non-empty.
- Every surjective function has a right inverse.
- For every infinite set A , $|A| = |A \times A|$.
- Hausdorff Maximal Principle: Every poset has a maximal chain.
- Zorn's Lemma: Every non-empty poset in which every chain has an upper bound has a maximal element.
- Antichain Principle: Every poset has a maximal antichain.
- Every vector space has a basis.
- Krull's Theorem: Every non-zero unital ring has a maximal ideal.

Equivalents of Choice

- The Cartesian product of any family of non-empty sets is non-empty.
- Every surjective function has a right inverse.
- For every infinite set A , $|A| = |A \times A|$.
- Hausdorff Maximal Principle: Every poset has a maximal chain.
- Zorn's Lemma: Every non-empty poset in which every chain has an upper bound has a maximal element.
- Antichain Principle: Every poset has a maximal antichain.
- Every vector space has a basis.
- Krull's Theorem: Every non-zero unital ring has a maximal ideal.
- The closed unit ball of the dual of a normed vector space over the reals has an extreme point.

Equivalents of Choice

- The Cartesian product of any family of non-empty sets is non-empty.
- Every surjective function has a right inverse.
- For every infinite set A , $|A| = |A \times A|$.
- Hausdorff Maximal Principle: Every poset has a maximal chain.
- Zorn's Lemma: Every non-empty poset in which every chain has an upper bound has a maximal element.
- Antichain Principle: Every poset has a maximal antichain.
- Every vector space has a basis.
- Krull's Theorem: Every non-zero unital ring has a maximal ideal.
- The closed unit ball of the dual of a normed vector space over the reals has an extreme point.
- Tychonoff's Theorem: Every product of compact topological spaces is compact.

Equivalents of Choice

- The Cartesian product of any family of non-empty sets is non-empty.
- Every surjective function has a right inverse.
- For every infinite set A , $|A| = |A \times A|$.
- Hausdorff Maximal Principle: Every poset has a maximal chain.
- Zorn's Lemma: Every non-empty poset in which every chain has an upper bound has a maximal element.
- Antichain Principle: Every poset has a maximal antichain.
- Every vector space has a basis.
- Krull's Theorem: Every non-zero unital ring has a maximal ideal.
- The closed unit ball of the dual of a normed vector space over the reals has an extreme point.
- Tychonoff's Theorem: Every product of compact topological spaces is compact.
- Every connected graph has a spanning tree.

Weaker Forms of Choice

- A countable union of countable sets is countable.

Weaker Forms of Choice

- A countable union of countable sets is countable.
- Every infinite set has an injection of \mathbb{N} into it.

Weaker Forms of Choice

- A countable union of countable sets is countable.
- Every infinite set has an injection of \mathbb{N} into it.
- There exist non-measurable sets.

Weaker Forms of Choice

- A countable union of countable sets is countable.
- Every infinite set has an injection of \mathbb{N} into it.
- There exist non-measurable sets.
- Banach-Tarski Paradox.

Weaker Forms of Choice

- A countable union of countable sets is countable.
- Every infinite set has an injection of \mathbb{N} into it.
- There exist non-measurable sets.
- Banach-Tarski Paradox.
- The Lebesgue measure is σ -additive.

Weaker Forms of Choice

- A countable union of countable sets is countable.
- Every infinite set has an injection of \mathbb{N} into it.
- There exist non-measurable sets.
- Banach-Tarski Paradox.
- The Lebesgue measure is σ -additive.
- Every field has an algebraic closure.

Weaker Forms of Choice

- A countable union of countable sets is countable.
- Every infinite set has an injection of \mathbb{N} into it.
- There exist non-measurable sets.
- Banach-Tarski Paradox.
- The Lebesgue measure is σ -additive.
- Every field has an algebraic closure.
- Every field extension has a transcendence basis.

Weaker Forms of Choice

- A countable union of countable sets is countable.
- Every infinite set has an injection of \mathbb{N} into it.
- There exist non-measurable sets.
- Banach-Tarski Paradox.
- The Lebesgue measure is σ -additive.
- Every field has an algebraic closure.
- Every field extension has a transcendence basis.
- Boolean Prime Ideal Theorem.

Weaker Forms of Choice

- A countable union of countable sets is countable.
- Every infinite set has an injection of \mathbb{N} into it.
- There exist non-measurable sets.
- Banach-Tarski Paradox.
- The Lebesgue measure is σ -additive.
- Every field has an algebraic closure.
- Every field extension has a transcendence basis.
- Boolean Prime Ideal Theorem.
- Nielsen-Schreier Theorem.

Weaker Forms of Choice

- A countable union of countable sets is countable.
- Every infinite set has an injection of \mathbb{N} into it.
- There exist non-measurable sets.
- Banach-Tarski Paradox.
- The Lebesgue measure is σ -additive.
- Every field has an algebraic closure.
- Every field extension has a transcendence basis.
- Boolean Prime Ideal Theorem.
- Nielsen-Schreier Theorem.
- The additive groups of \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} are isomorphic.

Weaker Forms of Choice

- A countable union of countable sets is countable.
- Every infinite set has an injection of \mathbb{N} into it.
- There exist non-measurable sets.
- Banach-Tarski Paradox.
- The Lebesgue measure is σ -additive.
- Every field has an algebraic closure.
- Every field extension has a transcendence basis.
- Boolean Prime Ideal Theorem.
- Nielsen-Schreier Theorem.
- The additive groups of \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} are isomorphic.
- Hahn-Banach Theorem.

Weaker Forms of Choice

- A countable union of countable sets is countable.
- Every infinite set has an injection of \mathbb{N} into it.
- There exist non-measurable sets.
- Banach-Tarski Paradox.
- The Lebesgue measure is σ -additive.
- Every field has an algebraic closure.
- Every field extension has a transcendence basis.
- Boolean Prime Ideal Theorem.
- Nielsen-Schreier Theorem.
- The additive groups of \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} are isomorphic.
- Hahn-Banach Theorem.
- Every Hilbert Space has an orthonormal basis.

Weaker Forms of Choice

- A countable union of countable sets is countable.
- Every infinite set has an injection of \mathbb{N} into it.
- There exist non-measurable sets.
- Banach-Tarski Paradox.
- The Lebesgue measure is σ -additive.
- Every field has an algebraic closure.
- Every field extension has a transcendence basis.
- Boolean Prime Ideal Theorem.
- Nielsen-Schreier Theorem.
- The additive groups of \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} are isomorphic.
- Hahn-Banach Theorem.
- Every Hilbert Space has an orthonormal basis.
- Banach-Alaoglu Theorem.

Weaker Forms of Choice

- A countable union of countable sets is countable.
- Every infinite set has an injection of \mathbb{N} into it.
- There exist non-measurable sets.
- Banach-Tarski Paradox.
- The Lebesgue measure is σ -additive.
- Every field has an algebraic closure.
- Every field extension has a transcendence basis.
- Boolean Prime Ideal Theorem.
- Nielsen-Schreier Theorem.
- The additive groups of \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} are isomorphic.
- Hahn-Banach Theorem.
- Every Hilbert Space has an orthonormal basis.
- Banach-Alaoglu Theorem.
- Baire Category Theorem.

Weaker Forms of Choice

- A countable union of countable sets is countable.
- Every infinite set has an injection of \mathbb{N} into it.
- There exist non-measurable sets.
- Banach-Tarski Paradox.
- The Lebesgue measure is σ -additive.
- Every field has an algebraic closure.
- Every field extension has a transcendence basis.
- Boolean Prime Ideal Theorem.
- Nielsen-Schreier Theorem.
- The additive groups of \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} are isomorphic.
- Hahn-Banach Theorem.
- Every Hilbert Space has an orthonormal basis.
- Banach-Alaoglu Theorem.
- Baire Category Theorem.
- Existence of Stone-Cech Compactification.

Weaker Forms of Choice

- A countable union of countable sets is countable.
- Every infinite set has an injection of \mathbb{N} into it.
- There exist non-measurable sets.
- Banach-Tarski Paradox.
- The Lebesgue measure is σ -additive.
- Every field has an algebraic closure.
- Every field extension has a transcendence basis.
- Boolean Prime Ideal Theorem.
- Nielsen-Schreier Theorem.
- The additive groups of \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} are isomorphic.
- Hahn-Banach Theorem.
- Every Hilbert Space has an orthonormal basis.
- Banach-Alaoglu Theorem.
- Baire Category Theorem.
- Existence of Stone-Cech Compactification.
- Godel's Completeness Theorem.

Questions?