ON THE NONEXISTENCE OF FREE COMPLETE BOOLEAN ALGEBRAS

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ABSTRACT

Rieger asked in 1951 if there exists a free complete Boolean algebra on ω complete generators. Crawley and Dean proved in 1955 that there does not exist a free complete lattice on three complete generators, but their method does not extend to Boolean algebras. In this thesis Rieger's question is answered in the negative. The following more general result is then proved. Let γ be an infinite regular cardinal. Then there does not exist a free complete weakly (γ, ∞) distributive Boolean algebra on γ complete generators.

I. INTRODUCTION

In the study of algebraic systems it is often useful to investigate a "free" system of a given type, i.e. a system which has any other system of that type as a homomorphic image. Intuitively, one may look upon it as the "least constrained" system of the given type. Thus free groups, free Abelian groups, free lattices, and free Boolean algebras have been investigated extensively. In each of the above cases there is no difficulty in proving the existence of such a free system. The polynomial method of Birkhoff (1), p. viii, yields the desired result. If we consider algebraic systems which have operations applicable to arbitrarily many arguments, however, such as complete lattices and complete Boolean algebras, even a generalization of this polynomial method may not suffice to prove the existence of a free system. The difficulty in such cases arises from the fact that the "algebra" formed may have too many elements, i.e. may not be a set. Crawley and Dean (2) have in fact shown that there does not exist a free complete lattice on three complete generators. Their proof, reproduced in Chapter 3, depends upon an effective characterization of when two formally distinct polynomials are actually equal.

In 1951 Rieger (3) asked whether or not there exists a free complete Boolean algebra on ω complete generators. The technique of Crawley and Dean does not apply. Rieger's question is answered in the negative in Chapter 4 of this thesis. The method involves constructing a class of examples which establish the inequality of certain formally

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distinct polynomials. This result was obtained independently by H. Gaifman (4) and the author in the summer of 1961.

In Chapter 5 the following more general result is proved in a similar fashion. Let γ be an infinite regular cardinal. Then there does not exist a free complete weakly (γ , ∞) distributive Boolean algebra on γ complete generators.

II. PRELIMINARIES

In this thesis lattice (also Boolean algebra) unions and intersections are denoted by \bigcup and \bigcap respectively. Set unions and intersections are denoted by \bigvee and \bigwedge respectively. In either case inclusion and proper inclusion are denoted by \leq and < respectively. If A is a subset of a given set or an element of a Boolean algebra, its complement is denoted by A^{c} . Ordinal numbers are usually denoted by small Greek letters and small Latin letters. Cardinal numbers are identified with the corresponding initial ordinals.

Let a be an infinite cardinal. A lattice (or Boolean algebra) L is said to be weakly a-complete if every subset of L with cardinality less than a has a least upper bound (union) and a greatest lower bound (intersection) in L. A sublattice (subalgebra) L' of a lattice (Boolean algebra) L is said to be a weakly a-complete sublattice (subalgebra) if unions and intersections in L of subsets of L' with cardinality less than a lie in L'. A sublattice (subalgebra) L' of a lattice (Boolean algebra) L is said to be a weakly a-regular sublattice (subalgebra) if unions and intersections in L of subsets of L' of a lattice (Boolean algebra) L is said to be a weakly a-regular sublattice (subalgebra) if unions and intersections in L' of subsets of L' of cardinality less than a are also unions and intersections in L. A field of subsets of a set S (a collection of subsets of S closed under finite union, finite intersection, and complementation, and hence a Boolean algebra) is said to be a weakly a-complete field of sets if it is a weakly a-complete subalgebra of the Boolean algebra of all subsets of S.

If A is a subset of a lattice (Boolean algebra) L, then the sub-

lattice (subalgebra) of L weakly α -generated by A is the smallest weakly α -complete sublattice (subalgebra) of L containing A. If S is a set and A is a collection of subsets of S, the field of sets weakly α -generated by A is the subalgebra of the Boolean algebra of all subsets of S weakly α -generated by A. The word "generated" is used as an abbreviation for the words "weakly ω -generated. "

A homomorphism of a lattice (Boolean algebra) L is said to be a weakly a-complete homomorphism if it preserves unions and intersections of subsets of L with cardinality less than a.

A lattice (Boolean algebra) which is weakly a-complete for every a is called complete. A sublattice (subalgebra) of a lattice (Boolean algebra) which is a weakly a-complete sublattice (subalgebra) for every a is called a complete sublattice (subalgebra). A sublattice (subalgebra) of a lattice (Boolean algebra) which is a weakly a-regular sublattice (subalgebra) for every a is called a regular sublattice (subalgebra). If A is a subset of a lattice (Boolean algebra) L, the smallest complete sublattice (subalgebra) of L containing A is called the sublattice (subalgebra) completely generated by A. A homomorphism of a lattice (Boolean algebra) which is a weakly a-complete homomorphism for every a is called a complete homomorphism.

Any lattice L may be embedded as a regular sublattice of a complete lattice L^* , the "normal completion" of L. This was proved by MacNeille (5). Stone (6) and Glivenko (7) have shown that if L is a Boolean algebra, then L^* is a Boolean algebra.

Let γ be a non-zero cardinal. A lattice (Boolean algebra) L

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is said to be a free lattice (Boolean algebra) on γ generators if L contains a subset A of cardinality equal to γ which generates L, and if any mapping f of A onto a subset A' of a lattice (Boolean algebra) L' which generates L' can be extended to a homomorphism f^{*} of L onto L'.

A free lattice on γ generators can also be defined in a manner which automatically establishes its existence. We denote the generators by $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_i, \ldots$ where $0 \leq i < \gamma$. Then polynomials of rank r for each finite r are defined inductively as follows.

<u>Definition 1</u>. For each i with $0 \le i < \gamma$, a_i is a polynomial of rank $r(a_i) = 0$. If A is a finite set of polynomials previously defined, and if A has cardinality n, then the symbols $\bigcup A$ and $\bigcap A$ are polynomials of rank $r(\bigcup A) = r(\bigcap A) = \max(n, \max_{A \in A} [r(A) + 1])$.

The collection of all such polynomials is denoted by $L_{\omega}(\gamma)$. We now define a valuation of $L_{\omega}(\gamma)$ as a mapping f of $\{a_i: 0 \leq i < \gamma\}$ onto a subset of a lattice L which generates L. Such an f can be extended in a natural way $(f^*(\bigcup A) = \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} f^*(A), \text{ etc.})$ to a mapping f^* from $L_{\omega}(\gamma)$ to L. If A_1 and A_2 lie in $L_{\omega}(\gamma)$, and if, for every valuation f of $L_{\omega}(\gamma)$, we have $f^*(A_1) = f^*(A_2)$, then A_1 and A_2 are said to be equal. Then $L_{\omega}(\gamma)$ is a lattice in the natural manner (under \bigcup and \bigcap), and moreover it is a free lattice on the γ generators a_i .

We can extend Definition 1 as follows: if A is a previously defined polynomial, then the symbol A^{C} is a polynomial of rank $r(A^{C}) = r(A) + 1$. We denote the extended collection of polynomials by $B_{\omega}(\gamma)$. A valuation of $B_{\omega}(\gamma)$ is defined as a mapping f of $\{a_{i}: 0 \leq i < \gamma\}$ onto a subset of a Boolean algebra B which generates B. Equality in $B_{\omega}(\gamma)$ is then defined analogously to that in $L_{\omega}(\gamma)$. $B_{\omega}(\gamma)$ thus becomes, in the natural way, a free Boolean algebra on the γ generators a.

A free Boolean algebra on γ generators can also be described as follows. Let $S = 2^{\gamma}$, i.e. the set of all functions from γ to $\{0,1\}$. For each ρ less than γ , let e_{ρ} be the evaluation map corresponding to ρ ; i.e., if f is in S, then $e_{\rho}(f) = f(\rho)$. Then the subsets of S of the form $e_{\rho}^{-1}(1)$, for $\rho < \gamma$, generate a field of subsets of S. This field of subsets is a free Boolean algebra on the γ generators $e_{\rho}^{-1}(1)$.

In this thesis we shall be chiefly concerned with free complete lattices and free complete Boolean algebras, defined as follows. Let γ be a non-zero cardinal. A complete lattice (Boolean algebra) L is said to be a free complete lattice (Boolean algebra) on γ complete generators if L contains a subset A of cardinality equal to γ which completely generates L, and if any mapping f of A onto a subset A' of a complete lattice (Boolean algebra) L' which completely generates L' can be extended to a complete homomorphism f^{*} of L onto L'.

We can attempt as above to define a free complete lattice on γ complete generators in terms of (infinite) polynomials, thus establishing the existence of such a system. We denote the generators by $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_i, \ldots$ where $0 \leq i < \gamma$. Then polynomials of rank r for each ordinal r are defined inductively as follows.

Definition 2. For each i with $0 \le i < \gamma$, a_i is a polynomial of rank $r(a_i) = 0$. If \mathcal{A} is a set of polynomials previously defined, and if \mathcal{A} has cardinality β , then the symbols $\bigcup \mathcal{A}$ and $\bigcap \mathcal{A}$ are poly-

nomials of rank $r(\bigcup A) = r(\bigcap A) = \max(\beta, \sup_{A \in A} [r(A) + 1]).$

The collection of all such polynomials is denoted by $L(\gamma)$. A valuation of $L(\gamma)$ is defined as a mapping f of $\{a_i: 0 \le i < \gamma\}$ onto a subset of a complete lattice L which completely generates L. Such an f can be extended in a natural way $(f^*(\bigcup A) = \bigcup_{A \in A} f^*(A), \text{ etc. })$ to a mapping f^* from $L(\gamma)$ to L. If A_1 and A_2 lie in $L(\gamma)$, and if, for every valuation f of $L(\gamma)$, we have $f^*(A_1) = f^*(A_2)$, then A_1 and A_2 are said to be equal. At this point we are in trouble, however, for we cannot say that $L(\gamma)$ is a complete lattice in the natural manner. It may (after the identification of equal elements) not be a set, but a proper class instead--i.e., it may have too many elements.

If $L(\gamma)$ (after identifications) is a set, then in the natural manner (under \bigcup, \bigcap) it is a free complete lattice on γ complete generators. If there does exist a free complete lattice on γ complete generators, then its cardinality is an upper bound for the cardinality of any complete lattice with γ complete generators. Finally, suppose any complete lattice on γ complete generators has cardinality less than or equal to β . Let β' be the smallest cardinal greater than β , and let $L_{\beta'}(\gamma)$ be the collection of polynomials in $L(\gamma)$ with rank less than β' . It is easily shown, by induction on β' , that $L_{\beta'}(\gamma)$ is a set. Then $L_{\beta'}(\gamma)$ (after identifications), in the natural manner, is a weakly β' -complete lattice with γ complete generators. Its normal completion $L_{\beta'}^*(\gamma)$ is complete and has γ complete generators--hence the cardinality of $L_{\beta'}^*(\gamma)$ is less than or equal to β . But then $L_{\beta'}(\gamma)$ (after identifications) has cardinality less than or equal to β . This implies

that any \bigcup or \bigcap of elements of $L_{\beta'}(\gamma)$ is equal to an element of $L_{\beta'}(\gamma)$. Thus, by induction on its rank, every polynomial in $L(\gamma)$ is equal to one in $L_{\beta'}(\gamma)$, so $L(\gamma)$ (after identifications) is a set.

We can extend Definition 2 in the same way we previously extended Definition 1: if A is a previously defined polynomial, then the symbol A^{C} is a polynomial of rank $r(A^{C}) = r(A) + 1$. We denote the extended collection of polynomials by $B(\gamma)$. A valuation of $B(\gamma)$ is defined as a mapping f of $\{a_i: 0 \le i < \gamma\}$ onto a subset of a complete Boolean algebra B which completely generates B. Equality in $B(\gamma)$ is then defined analogously to that in $L(\gamma)$. The conclusions of the preceeding paragraph carry over--i. e. the following are equivalent: $B(\gamma)$ (after identifications) is a set; $B(\gamma)$ is a free complete Boolean algebra on γ complete generators; there exist a free complete Boolean algebra on γ complete generators; and the cardinality of complete Boolean algebras with γ complete generators is bounded.

To prove the nonexistence of a free complete lattice (Boolean algebra) on γ complete generators we need only show that the cardinality of complete lattices (Boolean algebras) on γ complete generators is unbounded. Alternatively, we may exhibit an ordinal-indexed collection (hence not a set) of pairwise unequal polynomials in L(γ) (B(γ)), proving inequality by exhibiting an appropriate valuation for each pair. The actual method used is a combination of the two; in the more difficult case, for Boolean algebras (Chapters 4 and 5), the choice of the polynomials suggests the method of constructing complete Boolean algebras with γ complete generators of arbitrarily large cardinality. These complete Boolean algebras, in turn, establish the pairwise inequality of the chosen polynomials.

III. FREE COMPLETE LATTICES

In this chapter we investigate the existence of a free complete lattice on γ complete generators. A free lattice on one generator is finite, consisting of one element (the polynomial a_0 in $L_{\omega}(1)$). A free lattice on two generators is also finite, consisting of four elements (the polynomials $\bigcap \{a_0, a_1\}, a_0, a_1$, and $\bigcup \{a_0, a_1\}$ in $L_{\omega}(2)$). Thus they coincide, respectively, with free complete lattices on one and two complete generators.

Crawley and Dean (2) have shown that there does not exist a free complete lattice on three complete generators. Their proof is reproduced here. The first step is to define inductively a partial order on L(3).

<u>Definition 1</u>. If A, B lie in L(3), then $A \ge B$ if and only if one of the following conditions holds:

(1) $A \equiv B \equiv a_i$ for some $0 \le i \le 3$, (2) $A \equiv \bigcup A$ and $A' \ge B$ for some A' in A, (3) $A \equiv \bigcap A$ and $A' \ge B$ for all A' in A, (4) $B \equiv \bigcup B$ and $A \ge B'$ for all B' in B, (5) $B \equiv \bigcap B$ and $A \ge B'$ for some B' in B.

We establish some elementary properties of \geq .

<u>Lemma 1</u>. Let $A \equiv \bigcup A$, $B \equiv \bigcap B$, and C be polynomials in L(3). Then

(1) If $0 \le i < 3$, $a_i \ge B$ implies $a_i \ge B'$ for some B' in β , and $A \ge a_i$ implies $A' \ge a_i$ for some A' in β . (2) $A \ge B$ implies either $A \ge B'$ for some B' in β or $A' \ge B$ for some A' in β .

(3) $C \ge A$ implies $C \ge A'$ for all A' in A, and $B \ge C$ implies $B' \ge C$ for all B' in β .

Proof. The proofs of (1) and (2) are clear from Definition 1 above. We prove the first half of (3) by induction on r(C); the second half will follow by duality. If r(C) = 0, then $C \equiv a_i$ for some i with $0 \le i < 2$, and the result follows from part 4 of Definition 1. Assume the result for all C' with r(C') less than j, and suppose we have $C \ge A$ with r(C) = j. If $C \equiv \bigcup C$, then either part 2 or part 4 of Definition 1 applies. If part 4 applies, we are done. If part 2 applies, there is a C' in \subseteq such that $C' \ge A$. But then r(C') is less than j, so by induction hypothesis $C' \ge A'$ for all A' in A. Thus $C \ge A'$ for all A' in A by part 2 of Definition 1. A similar proof applies if $C \equiv \bigcap C$.

We now prove that \geq is a partial order.

Lemma 2. For A, B, C in L(3), we have

(1) $A \ge A$ and

(2) $A \ge B$ and $B \ge C$ imply $A \ge C$.

Proof. (1) If $A \equiv a_i$ with $0 \le i \le 3$, part 1 of Definition 1 gives the result. Suppose (1) is true for all A' with $r(A^{\dagger})$ less than j, and suppose r(A) = j. If $A \equiv \bigcup A$, then $A^{\dagger} \ge A^{\dagger}$ for all A' in A by induction hypothesis. Parts 2 and 4 of Definition 1 then give $A \ge A$. A similar proof applies if $A \equiv \bigcap A$.

(2) We prove this by induction on the ordered triples

<r(A), r(B), r(C)>, ordered lexicographically. When <r(A), r(B), r(C)> = < 0, 0, 0 >, part 1 of Definition 1 applies. We assume that (2) is true for all triples less than < j, j', j" >,

and that $\langle r(A), r(B), r(C) \rangle = \langle j, j', j'' \rangle$ with $A \ge B$ and $B \ge C$. There are ten cases to consider: (i) j = j' = 0, $C \equiv \bigcup C$; (ii) j = j' = 0, $C \equiv \bigcap C$; (iii) j' = 0, $A \equiv \bigcup A$; (iv) j' = 0, $A \equiv \bigcap A$; (v) $B \equiv \bigcup B$, j'' = 0; (vi) $B \equiv \bigcup B$, $C \equiv \bigcup C$; (vii) $B \equiv \bigcup B$, $C \equiv \bigcap C$; and the duals of (v), (vi), and (vii). We give proofs of (i) and (vii); the proofs of the other cases are very similar.

(i) j = j' = 0, $C \equiv \bigcup C$. Since $B \ge C$, it follows that $B \ge C'$ for all C' in C. But $\langle r(A), r(B), r(C') \rangle$ is less than $\langle j, j', j'' \rangle$, so that $A \ge C'$ for all C' in C by the induction hypothesis. Hence $A \ge C$.

(vii) $B \equiv \bigcup \beta$, $C \equiv \bigcap \zeta$. Since $B \ge C$, we have either $B \ge C'$ for some C' in ζ for $B' \ge C$ for some B' in β . In the first case, by the induction hypothesis, $A \ge C'$, and hence $A \ge C$. In the second case, Lemmal gives $A \ge B'$. Then, again by the induction hypothesis, $A \ge C$.

We have thus shown that \geq is reflexive and transitive, and is therefore a partial order (where we identify A and B if and only if $A \geq B$ and $B \geq A$). If A is a subset of L(3), then $\bigcup A$ and $\bigcap A$ are, respectively, the least upper bound and greatest lower bound of A under this partial order (this follows from Definition 1 and Lemma 2, Part 1). Thus, if β is an infinite regular cardinal, and $L_{\beta}(3)$ the subset of L(3) consisting of polynomials of length less than β , $L_{\beta}(3)$ is a weakly β -complete lattice with three complete generators (under the partial ordering). Its normal completion $L_{\beta}^{*}(3)$ is a complete lattice with three complete generators. Thus, if A, B in L(3) are not identified by \geq (i. e. not both A \geq B and B \geq A), then, taking β greater than max (r(A), r(B)), A and B are unequal in the natural valuation of L(3) in $L_{\beta}^{*}(3)$, and hence A and B are unequal in the sense of Chapter 2. Finally, by induction on the ordered pairs < r(A), r(B) >, ordered lexicographically, it is easy to show that A \geq B implies $f^{*}(A) \geq f^{*}(B)$ for all valuations f of L(3). Thus elements in L(3) are identified by \geq if and only if they are equal in the sense of Chapter 2, i. e. coincide in every valuation. Thus Definition 1 gives us an <u>effective</u> method of deciding when two polynomials in L(3) are equal.

For convenience we write, for A, B in L(3), $A \bigcup B \equiv B \bigcup A \equiv \bigcup \{A, B\}$ and $A \bigcap B \equiv B \bigcap A \equiv \bigcap \{A, B\}$.

Now define polynomials x_i in L(3) for all ordinals i as follows:

and, if i is a limit ordinal,

$$\mathbf{x}_{i} \equiv \bigcup \{\mathbf{x}_{j}: j < i\}$$

We next prove that the x_i are a pairwise "unequal" collection of polynomials.

Lemma 3. If
$$i < j$$
, $x_j \ge x_i$ but $x_i \ne x_j$.

Proof. We first prove two preliminary statements:

(a) If 0 < i, then $x_i \not\geq a_1, a_2$ and $a_0, a_1, a_2 \not\geq x_i$. We easily verify that, for 0 < i, $a_0 \bigcup (a_1 \bigcap (a_2 \bigcup a_0) \geq x_i \geq a_0 \bigcup (a_1 \bigcap a_2)$. From this (a) follows.

(b) If A, B are in L(3), then $a_0 \bigcup a_2 \ge A$, $B \ge a_2$ and $a_0 \bigcup (a_1 \bigcap A) \ge a_0 \bigcup (a_1 \bigcap B)$ imply $a_1 \bigcap A \ge a_1 \bigcap B$. Suppose $a_0 \bigcup (a_1 \bigcap A) \ge a_0 \bigcup (a_1 \bigcap B) \ge a_1 \bigcap B$. Then if $a_0 \bigcup (a_1 \bigcap A) \ge a_1$, we have $a_0 \bigcup a_2 \ge a_0 \bigcup A \ge a_1$, a contradiction. If $a_0 \bigcup (a_1 \bigcap A) \ge B$, we have $a_0 \bigcup a_1 \ge a_2$, a contradiction. If $a_0 \ge a_1 \bigcup B$, we have $a_0 \ge a_1 \bigcap A \ge a_1 \bigcap A \ge a_1 \bigcap A \ge a_1 \bigcap B$. Note that (b) is valid if a_0 , a_1 , and a_2 are permuted.

Now from (a) it is clear that $x_i \ge x_o$, $x_o \ne x_i$, for $0 \le i$. Suppose that $j \le k$ implies $x_j \le x_k$ whenever $k \le i$. If i is a limit ordinal then $x_i \equiv \bigcup \{x_j; j \le i\} \ge x_j$ for all $j \le i$. If i and i-hard indicating indicating indicating $x_{i-1} \ge x_{i-2}$ implies $a_o \bigcup (a_1 \bigcap (a_2 \bigcup (a_o \bigcap (a_1 \bigcup (a_2 \bigcap x_{i-1}))))) \ge a_o \bigcup (a_1 \bigcap (a_2 \bigcup (a_o \bigcap (a_1 \bigcup (a_2 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_2 \bigcup (a_o \bigcap (a_1 \bigcup (a_2 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_2 \bigcup (a_0 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcup (a_2 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_2 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_2 \bigcup (a_0 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcup (a_2 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_2 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_2 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_2 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_2 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_2 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_2 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_2 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_2 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_2 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap (a_2 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcap ($

To show this inclusion is proper, assume the contrary. Then there is a smallest ordinal i such that $x_j \ge x_i$ for some j < i. Then i is not a limit ordinal, since otherwise $x_i \equiv \bigcup \{x_k : k < i\} \le x_j$ implies $x_j \ge x_{j+1}$, a contradiction to the minimality of i. Suppose j is not a limit ordinal. Then $x_j \equiv a_0 \bigcup (a_1 \bigcap (a_2 \bigcup (a_0 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcup (a_2 \bigcap x_{j-1})))))$, and successive applications of (b) give $x_{j-1} \ge a_2 \bigcap x_{j-1} \ge a_2 \bigcap x_{i-1}$. If j-1 is not a limit ordinal, $x_{j-1} \ne a_2$ and $a_0, a_1 \ne a_2 \bigcap x_{i-1}$ imply that $x_{j-1} \ge x_{i-1}$, a contradiction. If j-1 is a limit ordinal, then $x_{j-1} \ge a_2, x_{i-1}$, and hence $x_k \ge a_2 \bigcap x_{i-1}$ for some k < j-1. Continuing in this way if k is a limit ordinal, we get a descending chain of ordinals which must end in a finite number of steps at an ordinal k', not a limit ordinal. But then, as above, $x_{k'} \ge a_2 \bigcap x_{i-1}$ implies $x_{k'} \ge x_{i-1}$, a contradiction. Finally, if j is a limit ordinal, we conclude from $x_j \ne a_1, a_2$ and $x_j \equiv \bigcup \{x_k; k < j\} \ge x_i \equiv a_{\bigcup} (a_1 \bigcap (a_2 \bigcup (a_0 \bigcap (a_1 \bigcup (a_2 \bigcap x_{i-1}))))))$ that $x_k \ge x_i$ for some k < j. If k is a limit ordinal we repeat the process to obtain a descending chain of ordinals which must end in a finite number of steps at an ordinal k', not a limit ordinal. This is just the preceding case, however, and hence yields a contradiction. Thus $x_i \ge x_i$ but $x_i \ne x_i$ whenever i < j.

We are now in a position to prove

Theorem 1. There does not exist a free complete lattice on three complete generators.

Proof. From Lemma 3 the x_i form an ordinal indexed collection (hence not a set) of pairwise unequal polynomials in L(3). Alternatively, given any infinite regular cardinal β , $L_{\beta}^{*}(3)$ is a complete lattice with three complete generators and has cardinality greater than or equal to β (since $L_{\beta}^{*}(3)$ contains the β unequal elements x_i , for $i < \beta$). Thus the cardinality of complete lattices with three complete generators is unbounded.

IV. FREE COMPLETE BOOLEAN ALGEBRAS

We now investigate the existence of a free complete Boolean algebra on γ complete generators. If n is finite, the free Boolean algebra on n generators is finite, and in fact is isomorphic to the collection of all subsets of a set of cardinality n. It therefore coincides with the free complete Boolean algebra on n complete generators.

We now prove that there does not exist a free complete Boolean algebra on ω complete generators. To do this we would like to use a technique similar to that of Chapter 3, but this does not appear to be possible. In Chapter 3 we were able to give an effective method of deciding when two polynomials were equivalent. The presence of the distributive law in Boolean algebras appears to prevent this. We must therefore use a more subtle technique.

The first step is to choose an ordinal indexed collection of polynomials in $B(\omega)$ which we wish to prove pairwise unequal. To do this we must first establish how strong a distributivity condition holds in Boolean algebras. Theorem 1 is due to Tarski (8) and Von Neumann (9), Appendix, p. 7.

 $\bigcap_{i \in I}^{\text{Theorem 1.}} A \text{ Boolean algebra is continuous; that is, whenever} \\ \bigcap_{i \in I} b_i \text{ exists, we have } \bigcap_{i \in I} (aU_{b_i}) \text{ exists, and}$

 $a \bigcup (\bigcap_{i \in I} b_i) = \bigcap_{i \in I} (a \bigcup_{i})$ (and dually).

Proof. Trivially we have $a \bigcup (\bigcap_{i \in I} b_i) \leq a \bigcup b_i$ for all i in I. Now assume $x \leq a \bigcup b_i$ for all i in I. Then $a^c \bigcap x \leq a^c \bigcap (a \bigcup b_i) = a^c \bigcap x \in A^c \bigcap (a \bigcup b_i) = a^c \bigcap x \in A^c \bigcap (a \bigcup b_i) = a^c \bigcap x \in A^c \bigcap (a \bigcup b_i) = a^c \bigcap x \in A^c \bigcap (a \bigcup b_i) = a^c \bigcap x \in A^c \bigcap (a \bigcup b_i) = a^c \bigcap x \in A^c \bigcap (a \bigcup b_i) = a^c \bigcap x \in A^c \bigcap (a \bigcup b_i) = a^c \bigcap x \in A^c \bigcap (a \bigcup b_i) = a^c \bigcap x \in A^c \bigcap (a \bigcup b_i) = a^c \bigcap x \cap (a \bigcap b_i) = a$

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 $\begin{array}{l} a \overset{\mathsf{q}}{\overset{\mathsf{h}}} b_{i} \ \text{for all } i \in I. \ \text{Then } a^{\mathsf{c}} \bigcap x \leqslant \bigcap_{i \in I} (a^{\mathsf{c}} \bigcap b_{i}) = a^{\mathsf{q}} \bigcap (\bigcap_{i \in I} b_{i}). \ \text{Thus} \\ a \bigcup (a^{\mathsf{c}} \bigcap x) \leqslant a \bigcup (a^{\mathsf{c}} \bigcap (\bigcap_{i \in I} b_{i})), \text{ so } a \bigcup x \leqslant \bigcup (\bigcap_{i \in I} b_{i}), \text{ so } x \leqslant \\ a \bigcup (\bigcap_{i \in I} b_{i}). \ \text{Thus } a \bigcup (\bigcap_{i \in I} b_{i}) \text{ is the greatest lower bound of } \{a \bigcup b_{i}: i \in I\}, \\ \text{so } a \bigcup (\bigcap_{i \in I} b_{i}) = \bigcap_{i \in I} (a \bigcup b_{i}). \ \text{The dual is proved similarly.} \end{array}$

We now ask if, in a Boolean algebra, a stronger distributive law than continuity holds. The following theorem shows that the answer is no.

Theorem 2. A continuous lattice can be regularly embedded in a Boolean algebra.

Proof. Let L be a continuous lattice. Since L is distributive it is isomorphic to a collection C of subsets of a set S under finite set union and intersection (Birkhoff (1), p. 140). We now look at the field F of subsets of S generated by C. Then F is a Boolean algebra in which C (or L) is embedded. To show this embedding is regular, let $\{c_i: i \in I\}$ be a collection of elements in C with least upper bound c in C. Suppose f in F is an upper bound for $\{c_i: i \in I\}$. We may write f as $(f_1 \bigvee f_2^c) \bigwedge (f_3 \bigvee f_4^c) \bigwedge \dots \bigwedge (f_{2n-1} \bigvee f_{2n}^c)$, where n is finite and f_i is either ϕ (the null set), S, or an element of C (this follows from the way F was constructed). Then $f_1 \sqrt{f_2^c}$ is an upper bound for $\{c_i: i \in I\}$. Now, since the lattice C is continuous, we have $f_2 \bigcap (\bigcup_{i \in I} c_i) = \bigcup_{i \in I} (f_2 \bigcap c_i)$. But since $c_i \leq f_1 \bigvee f_2^c$ for all if I, we have $f_2 \bigcap_{c_1}^{c_1} \leq f_2 \bigcap_{(f_1 \cup f_2)}^{c_1} = f_2 \bigcap_{f_1}^{c_1} \text{ for all } i \in I. \text{ Thus } \bigcup_{c_1}^{c_1} (f_2 \bigcap_{c_1}) \leq f_2 \bigcap_{f_1}^{c_1} f_1.$ In other words $f_2 \bigcap (\bigcup_{i \in J} c_i) \leq f_2 \bigcap f_1$. Thus $f_2^c \bigcup (f_2 \bigcap (\bigcup_{i \in J} c_i)) \leq f_2 \bigcap (f_2 \bigcap (\bigcap_{i \in J} c_i)) \leq f_2 \bigcap (f_2 \bigcap (\bigcap_{i \in J} c_i)) \leq f_2 \bigcap (f_2 \bigcap (\bigcap_{i \in J} c_i)) \leq f_2 \bigcap (f_2 \bigcap (\bigcap_{i \in J} c_i)) \leq f_2 \bigcap (f_2 \bigcap (\bigcap_{i \in J} c_i)) \leq f_2 \bigcap (f_2 \bigcap (f_2 \bigcap (\bigcap_{i \in J} c_i)) \in f_2 \bigcap (f_2 \bigcap (f_2 \bigcap (\bigcap_{i \in J} c_i)) \in f_2 \bigcap (f_2 \bigcap (f_2 \bigcap (\bigcap_{i \in J} c_i)) \in f_2 \bigcap (f_2 \bigcap (f_2 \bigcap (f_2 \bigcap (\bigcap_{i \in J} c_i))) \in f_2 \bigcap (f_2 \bigcap (f$ $f_2^c \bigcup (f_2 \bigcap f_1)$, or $f_2^c \bigcup (\bigcup_{i \in T} c_i) \leq f_2^c \bigcup f_1$. This implies $c \leq f_2^c \bigvee f_1$. Similarly, for $1 \le k \le n$, $c \le f_{2k-1} \bigvee f_{2k}^c$. Thus $c \le f$. We have therefore proved that c is still the least upper bound for $\{c_i:i \in I\}$ in F. A dual argument shows that all greatest lower bounds are preserved, so C is regularly embedded in F.

It is easy to show, using continuity and inducting on r(A), that any polynomial A in B(ω) is equal to a polynomial of the form $(a_0 \cap B) \bigcup (a_0^c \cap C)$, where neither a_0 nor a_0^c appear in either B or C. But if we define $x_0 \equiv a_0$, $x_1 \equiv (x_0 \cap B) \bigcup (x_0^c \cap C)$, $x_2 \equiv (x_1 \cap B) \bigcup (x_1^c \cap C)$, ..., we obtain at most 2^{2^3} unequal x_1 's, since 2^{2^3} is the size of a free Boolean algebra on three generators (a_0, B, C) . Thus we cannot choose our polynomials in as simple a way as we did in Chapter 3. Roughly, we cannot build just one chain (or a finite number of chains), but must instead build ω chains simultaneously.

First, for notational convenience, let us relabel our ω generators. We thus suppose that the set of generators is $\{a_{0,j}: 0 \leq j < \omega\} \bigvee \{b_{i,j}: i \neq j, 0 \leq i, j < \omega\}$. We define polynomials $a_{i,j}$, where i is arbitrary and $j < \omega$, as follows:

$$a_{i+1, j} \equiv \bigcup \{a_{i, j} \bigcap a_{i, k} \bigcap b_{j, k}: 0 \leq k < \omega, k \neq j\}$$

and, if i is a limit ordinal,

$$a_{i,j} \equiv \bigcap \{a_{k,j}: 0 \leq k < i\}$$

We wish to show that, for fixed j, the $a_{i,j}$ are pairwise unequal. To do this we construct, for each cardinal a, a field of sets containing elements $A_{i,j}$ (for $0 \le j \le \omega$, $0 \le i \le a$) and $B_{i,j}$ (for $0 \le i,j \le \omega$, $i \ne j$), with $A_{i,j} \le A_{i',j}$ whenever i > i'. We take the normal completion of this field of sets. We then show, if f is the valuation such that $f(a_{0,j}) = A_{0,j}$ for $0 \le j < \omega$ and $f(b_{i,j}) = B_{i,j}$ for $0 \le i, j < \omega$, $i \ne j$, that $f^*(a_{i,j}) = A_{i,j}$ for $0 \le j < \omega$, $0 \le i \le \alpha$. This establishes that, for fixed j, the $a_{i,j}$ are pairwise unequal. We have also, in the process, constructed complete Boolean algebras with ω complete generators of arbitrarily large cardinality.

Our construction will, in fact, be more general, depending on a cardinal parameter γ (the number of complete generators) in addition to a. The case $\gamma = \omega$ is the relevant one for this Chapter. The general construction will be used in Chapter 5.

Let a, γ be infinite cardinals with γ regular. Let $\beta = \gamma^2 + a \cdot \gamma$, and $S = 2^{\beta}$, i.e. the set of all functions from β to $\{0,1\}$. For each $\delta < \beta$, let e_{δ} be the evaluation map corresponding to δ ; i.e., if f is in S, $e_{\delta}(f) = f(\delta)$. Note that each $\delta < \beta$ can be <u>uniquely</u> written in one of the following forms: $\gamma \cdot i + j$, where $0 \le i, j < \gamma$; or $\gamma^2 + a \cdot j + i$, where $0 \le j < \gamma$ and $0 \le i < a$.

Define subsets $B_{i,j}$ (0 \leq i, j $< \gamma$, i \neq j) of S as follows:

$$B_{i,j} = e_{\gamma \cdot i+j}^{-1}(1)$$
.

Define subsets $A_{i,j}$ ($0 \le i \le \alpha$, $0 \le j < \gamma$) of S as follows:

$$A_{0,j} = e_{\gamma^{2}+\alpha \cdot j}^{-1} (1) ,$$

$$A_{i+1,j} = \left[\bigvee_{\substack{0 \leq k \leq \gamma \\ k \neq j}} (A_{i,j} \wedge A_{i,k} \wedge B_{j,k}) \right] \bigvee \left[\bigwedge_{\substack{0 \leq k \leq i+1 \\ \gamma^{2}+\alpha \cdot j+k}} e^{-1} (1) \right],$$

and, if i is a limit ordinal,

$$A_{i,j} = \bigwedge_{0 \leq k < i} A_{k,j}$$

Let F be the field of subsets of S weakly γ -generated by $\{B_{i,j}: 0 \leq i, j < \gamma, i \neq j\} \bigvee \{A_{i,j}: 0 \leq i \leq \alpha, 0 \leq j < \gamma\}$. Then F is a Boolean algebra in which we denote union and intersection by \bigcup and \bigcap , respectively (where \bigcup and \bigcap coincide with \bigvee and \bigwedge , respectively, when applied to finite collections).

Lemma 1. If $0 \le k < i \le a$, $0 \le j < \gamma$, then $A_{i,j}$ is properly contained in $A_{k,j}$.

Proof. Suppose that i < h implies $A_{i,j} \leq A_{k,j}$ for all $k \leq i$ (this is obviously true for h = 1). Trivially $A_{h,j} \leq A_{h,j}$. If h is a limit ordinal, then $A_{h,j} = \bigwedge_{k < h} A_{h,j} \leq A_{k,j}$ for all k < h. If h is not a limit ordinal, then

$$A_{h,j} = \left[\bigvee_{\substack{0 \leq k \leq \gamma \\ k \neq j}} (A_{h-1}), j \wedge A_{h-1,k} \wedge B_{j,k}\right] \bigvee \left[\bigwedge_{\substack{0 \leq k \leq h \\ \gamma^{2} + a \cdot j + k}} e^{-1} (1)\right]$$

But it is obvious that

$$\bigvee_{\substack{0 \leq k < \gamma \\ k \neq j}} (A_{h-1, j} \bigwedge A_{h-1, k} \bigwedge B_{j, k}) \leq A_{h-1, j}.$$

If h-l is not a limit ordinal, then $\bigwedge_{0 \leq k \leq h} e^{-1} (1) \leq \bigwedge_{0 \leq k > h-1} e^{-1} (1) \leq A = 1$ (1) $A_{h+l, j}, so A_{h, j} \leq A_{h-l, j}.$ Finally, if h-l is a limit ordinal, then $\bigwedge_{0 \leq k \leq h} e^{-1} (1) \leq \bigwedge_{0 \leq k \leq k'+1} e^{-1} (1)$ for all k' < h-l, so $A_{e+l, j} = 1$ (1) $A_{e+l, j} = 1$ (1) for all k' < h-l, so $A_{e+l, j} = 1$ (1) $A_{e+l, j} = 1$ (1) A

Thus $A_{h,j} \leq A_{h-1,j}$. But by induction $A_{h-1,j} \leq A_{k,j}$ for all $k \leq h-1$, so $A_{h,j} \leq A_{k,j}$ for all k < h. We have thus proved, by induction, that k > i implies $A_{i,j} \leq A_{k,j}$.

To show that the inclusion is proper, let k be given and define a function f from β to $\{0,1\}$ as follows:

 $f(\gamma^2 + a \cdot j + h) = 1$ for $0 \le h \le k$, and f = 0 otherwise.

If k is not a limit ordinal, then f is an element of $\bigwedge_{0 \le h \le k} e_{2}^{-1}(1)$, so f is an element of $A_{k,j}$. If k is a limit ordinal, then f is an element of $\bigwedge_{0 \le h \le t+1} e_{2}^{-1}(1)$ for all $t \le k$, so f is an element of $A_{t+1,j}$ for all t < k, and hence of $A_{t,j}$ for all t < k. Thus f is an element of $A_{k,j}$. But f is not an element of $B_{j,h}$ for any $h < \gamma$, since $f(\gamma \cdot j+h) = 0$, and f is not an element of $\bigwedge_{0 \le h \le k+1} e_{2}^{-1}(1)$, since $f(\gamma^{2} + a \cdot j + h + 1) = 0$. Hence f is not an element of $A_{k+1,j}$, and therefore is not an element of $A_{i,j}$ for any $i \ge k+1$. Therefore $A_{k,j}$ properly contains $A_{i,j}$ for all i > k, and the lemma is proved.

Lemma 2. Every element of F can be written in the form

$$\bigwedge_{y \in Y} \left(\bigvee_{z \in Z_y} x_{y,z} \right),$$

where the $x_{y,z}$ are chosen from a subset of $\{A_{i,j}\}\bigvee\{A_{i,j}^c\}\bigvee\{B_{i,j}\}\bigvee\{B_{i,j}^c\}$ which has cardinality less than γ (the subset varies with the element).

Proof. We must show that elements of the stipulated form are closed under intersection and unions of less than γ elements, and also closed under complementation. That they are closed under intersections follows from the regularity of γ . To show that they are closed under unions, note that by distributivity $\bigwedge_{y \in Y} (\bigvee_{z \in Z_y} x_{y,z}) = \bigvee_{\substack{\phi \in \Pi Z \\ v \in Y}} (\bigwedge_{y \in Y} x_{y,\phi(y)})$

where the $x_{y,\phi}(y)$ come from the same set as the $x_{y,z}$. But elements of the form $\bigvee_{y \in Y} (\bigwedge_{z \in Z_y} x_{y,z})$, with the same restriction on the $x_{y,z}$, are closed under unions, again by the regularity of γ . Then another application of the distributive law returns us to the original form. To show that elements of the stipulated form are closed under complementation, note that $[\bigwedge_{y \in Y} (\bigvee_{z \in Z_y} x_{y,z})]^c = \bigvee_{y \in Y} (\bigwedge_{z \in Z_y} x_{y,z}^c)$. An application of the distributive law returns us to the original form. Thus the lemma is proved. (Note that we have also proved that every element of F can be written as $\bigvee_{y \in Y} (\bigwedge_{z \in Z_y} x_{y,z})$, with the same restriction on the $x_{y,z}$). <u>Lemma 3.</u> If $0 \le i < a, 0 \le j < \gamma$, then

$$A_{i+1,j} = \bigcup_{\substack{0 \leq k < \gamma \\ k \neq j}} (A_{i,j} | A_{i,k} | B_{j,k})$$

Proof. We must show that $A_{i+1,j}$, obviously an upper bound, is the least upper bound of $\{(A_{i,j} \cap A_{i,k} \cap B_{j,k}): 0 \le k < \gamma, k \ne j\}$ in F. Suppose x in F is an upper bound for this collection. We have, from Lemma 2, that $x = \bigwedge_{y \in Y} (\bigvee_{z \in Z_y} x_{y,z})$, with the stipulated restriction on the $x_{y,z}$. Then each $\bigvee_{z \in Z_y} x_{y,z}$ is an upper bound for this collection. If we can prove that each $\bigvee_{z \in Z_y} x_{y,z}$ contains $A_{i+1,j}$, then x will contain $A_{i+1,j}$, and we are done. (Note that the stipulated restriction on the $x_{y,z}$ implies that Z_y may be assumed to have cardinality less than γ .) Let us therefore assume that

$$\begin{split} A &= (\bigvee_{\rho < \gamma_1} A_{m_{\rho}}, n_{\rho}) \bigvee (\bigvee_{\rho < \gamma_2} A_{p_{\rho}}^c, q_{\rho}) \bigvee (\bigvee_{\rho < \gamma_3} B_{r_{\rho}}, s_{\rho}) \bigvee (\bigvee_{\rho < \gamma_4} B_{t_{\rho}}^c, u_{\rho}) \;, \\ \text{where } \gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_3, \gamma_4 < \gamma, \text{ is an upper bound for } \{(A_{i,j} \bigcap A_{i,k} \bigcap B_{j,k}: 0 \leq k < \gamma, k \neq j\} \;. \\ \text{We wish to prove that } A &\geq A_{i+1,j} \;. \\ \text{Without loss of generality we may} \\ \text{assume that } \gamma_2 > 0, \; p_o = i+1, \; \text{and } q_o = j, \; \text{since } A_{i+1,j}^c \; \text{ is disjoint from} \\ A_{i+1,j} \;. \end{split}$$

Let $\lambda = \max (\sup n, \sup q, \sup s, \sup t, \sup u) + 1$. Since $\rho < \gamma_1 \rho, \rho < \gamma_2 \rho, \rho < \gamma_3 \rho, \rho < \gamma_4 \rho, \rho < \gamma_4 \rho$ γ is regular, λ is less than γ . Now define a function f from β to {0,1} as follows:

$$\begin{split} &f(\gamma^2 + a \cdot q_{\rho} + k) = 1 \text{ for } 0 \leq k < \min (p_{\rho} + l_{*} a), 0 \leq \rho < \gamma_2; \\ &f(\gamma \cdot t_{\rho} + u_{\rho}) = 1 \text{ for } 0 \leq \rho < \gamma_4; \\ &f(\gamma^2 + a \cdot \lambda + k) = 1 \text{ for } 0 \leq k \leq i; \\ &f(\gamma \cdot j + \lambda) = 1; \end{split}$$

and

as

f = 0 otherwise.

Since $f(\gamma \cdot j + \lambda) = 1$, f is in $e_{\gamma \cdot j + \lambda}^{-1}(1)$, so f is in $B_{j \cdot \lambda}$ (note that $\lambda > q_0 = j$. Since $f(\gamma^2 + a \cdot \lambda + k) = 1$ for $0 \le k \le i$, f is in $e^{-1}_{\gamma^2 + a \cdot \lambda + k}$ for $0 \le k \le i$, and hence in $A_{i,\lambda}$. Since $f(\gamma^2 + a \cdot q_0 + k) = 1$ for $0 \le k \le p_0$, where $p_0 = i + 1$ and $q_0 = j$, f is in e^{-1}_{γ} (1) for $0 \le k \le i+1$, so f is in $A_{i,j} \wedge A_{i,\lambda} \wedge B_{j,\lambda}^{\gamma}$, and hence f must be in A.

Since $f(\gamma^2 + a \cdot q_{\rho} + k) = 1$ for $0 \le k < \min(p_{\rho} + 1, a), 0 \le \rho < \gamma_2$, we

have that f is in $\bigwedge_{\substack{0 \leq k < \min(p_{\rho}+1, \alpha)}} e^{-1}_{\gamma^{2}+\alpha \cdot q_{\rho}+k} (1) \text{ for } 0 \leq \rho < \gamma_{2}, \text{ so}$ f is in A for $0 \leq \rho < \gamma_{2}$. Thus f is not in $\bigvee_{\substack{0 \leq \rho < \gamma_{2}}} A^{c}_{p_{\rho}, q_{\rho}} .$ Since $f(\gamma \cdot t_{\rho} + u_{\rho}) = 1$ for $0 \le \rho < \gamma_4$, f is in $e_{\gamma \cdot t_{\rho} + u_{\rho}}^{-1}(1)$ for $0 \le \rho < \gamma_4$, so f is in B_{t_0, u_0} for $0 \le \rho < \gamma_4$. Thus f is not in $\bigvee_{0 \leq \rho < v} B_{t_{\rho}, u_{\rho}}^{c}$ There are two remaining possibilities: f is in $\bigvee_{0 \le \rho < \gamma_2} B_{\rho', s_\rho'}$ or f is in $\bigvee_{0 \le \rho < \gamma_1} A_{m_{\rho}, n_{\rho}}$. Suppose f is in $\bigvee_{0 \le \rho < \gamma_2} B_{r_{\rho}, s_{\rho}}^{0 \le \rho < \gamma_3}$. Then, for some σ with $0 \leq \sigma < \gamma_3$, f is in $B_{r_{\sigma}}$, s_{σ} . Thus $f(\gamma \cdot r_{\sigma} + s_{\sigma}) = 1$. But, since $\lambda > s_{\sigma}$, this implies that $r_{\sigma} = t_{\tau}$, $s_{\sigma} = u_{\tau}$, for some τ with $0 \leq \tau < \gamma_4$. But then we have $A \geq B_{r_{\sigma}}, s_{\sigma} \bigvee B_{t_{\tau}}^c, u_{\tau} = B_{r_{\sigma}}, s_{\sigma} \bigvee B_{r_{\sigma}}^c, s_{\sigma} = B_{r_{\sigma}}$ $S \ge A_{i+1,j}$, and we are done. Now suppose f is in $\bigvee_{0 \le \rho < \gamma_1} A_{m_{\rho}, n_{\rho}}$. Then, for some σ with $0 \leq \sigma < \gamma_1$, f is in $A_{m_{\sigma}, n_{\sigma}}$. If $A \geq A_{m_{\sigma}, n_{\sigma}}^c$, then $A \ge A_{m_{\sigma}}, n_{\sigma} \bigvee A_{m_{\sigma}}^{c}, n_{\sigma} = S \ge A_{i+1, j}$ and we are done. Suppose $A \ne A_{m_{\sigma}}^{c}, n_{\sigma}$ Then let π be the smallest ordinal such that there exists an ordinal $\theta \neq \lambda$ with f in $A_{\pi,\theta}$ but $A \neq A_{\pi,\theta}^{c}$ (since $\lambda > n_{\sigma}, m_{\sigma}$ is such an ordinal). Now π cannot be 0; if it were, f in $A_{o,\theta}$ would imply $f(\gamma^2 + a \cdot \theta) = 1$. This, since $\theta \neq \lambda$, would imply that there exists a σ with $0 \le \sigma < \gamma_2$ such that $q_{\sigma} = \theta$. But then $A \ge A_{p_{\sigma}}, q_{\sigma} \ge A_{\sigma, \theta}$, a contradiction. Also π cannot be a limit ordinal; if it were, the

minimality of π would imply that $A \ge A_{\pi^{\prime},\theta}^{c}$ for all π^{\prime} with $0 \le \pi^{\prime} < \pi$.

But then $A \ge \bigvee_{0 \le \pi' < \pi} A^{c}_{\pi'}, \theta^{z} A^{c}_{\pi}, \theta'$, a contradiction.

Thus $\pi = \pi'+1$. There are then two possibilities: f is in $\bigwedge_{\substack{0 \leq k \leq \pi}} e^{-1}_{\gamma^2 + a^{\bullet} \theta + k} (1), \text{ or f is in } \bigvee_{\substack{0 \leq k < \gamma \\ k \neq \theta}} (A_{\pi'}, \theta \wedge A_{\pi'}, k \wedge B_{\theta, k}). \text{ Suppose}$ that f is in $\bigwedge_{\substack{0 \leq k \leq \pi}} e^{-1}_{\gamma^2 + a^{\bullet} \theta + k} (1).$ Then $f(\gamma^2 + a^{\bullet} \theta + \pi) = 1$. Since $\theta \neq \lambda$ this implies that, for some σ with $\emptyset \leq \sigma < \gamma_2$, we have $q_{\sigma} = \theta$, $p_{\sigma} \geq \pi$. But then $A \geq A_{p_{\sigma}}^{c}, q_{\sigma} \geq A_{\pi, \theta}^{c}$, a contradiction. Now suppose f is in $\bigvee_{\substack{0 \leq k < \gamma \\ k \neq \theta}} (A_{\pi'}, \theta \wedge A_{\pi'}, k \wedge B_{\theta, k}).$ Then, for

some k' with $0 \leq k' < \gamma$, $k' \neq \theta$, we have that f is in $A_{\pi', \theta} \bigwedge A_{\pi', k'} \bigwedge B_{\theta, k'}$. We distinguish two further cases: $k' \neq \lambda$ and $k' = \lambda$. Suppose $k' \neq \lambda$. Since f is in $A_{\pi', \theta}$, and π was chosen minimal, we must have $A \geq A_{\pi', \theta}^{C}$. Since f is in $A_{\pi', k'}$, where $k' \neq \lambda$, and π was chosen minimal, we must have $A \geq A_{\pi', k'}^{C}$. Since f is in $B_{\theta, k''}$, we must have $f(\gamma \cdot \theta + k') = 1$. This implies, since $k' \neq \lambda$, that for some σ with $0 \leq \sigma < \gamma_4$ we have $t_{\sigma} = \theta$, $u_{\sigma} = k'$. But then $A \geq B_{t_{\sigma}, u_{\sigma}}^{C} = B_{\theta, k'}^{C}$. Thus $A \geq (A_{\pi', \theta}^{C} \bigvee A_{\pi', k'}^{C} \bigvee B_{\theta, k'}^{C}) \geq A_{\pi, \theta}^{C}$, a contradiction.

Finally suppose $k' = \lambda$. Since f is in $B_{\theta, k'} = B_{\theta, \lambda}$, we must have $f(\gamma, \theta + \lambda) = 1$. But since $\lambda > \sup \mu_{\rho}$, this implies that $\theta = j$. Thus $\rho < \gamma_4$ $A \neq A_{\pi, j}^c$. But we know that $A \geq A_{p_0}^c = A_{i+1, j}^c$. Thus $\pi > i+1$, or $\pi' \geq i+1$. Since f is in $A_{\pi', k'} = A_{\pi', \lambda}$, f must therefore be in $A_{i+1, \lambda}$. In other words, f is either in $\bigwedge_{0 \leq k \leq i+1} \gamma^2 + \alpha \cdot \lambda + k$.

 $\bigvee_{\substack{0 \leq k < \gamma \\ k \neq \lambda}} (A_{i,\lambda} \bigwedge A_{i,k} \bigwedge B_{\lambda,k}). \text{ If f is in } \bigwedge_{\substack{0 \leq k \leq i+1 \\ \gamma^2 + \alpha \cdot \lambda + k}} e^{-1} (1), \text{ then }$

 $f(\gamma^{2}+a\cdot\lambda+i+1) = 1$. But, since $\lambda > \sup q_{\rho}$, this is impossible. On the other hand, if f is in $\bigvee_{\substack{0 \le k < \gamma \\ k \ne \lambda}} (A_{i,\lambda} \bigwedge^{\rho < \gamma_{2}} A_{i,k} \bigwedge^{\beta} B_{\lambda,k})$, then for some k^{n}

with $0 \le k^n < \gamma$, $k^n \ne \lambda$, we know that f is in B_{λ, k^n} . Thus $f(\gamma \cdot \lambda + k^n) = 1$. But, since $\lambda > \sup t_{\rho}$, this is impossible. The existence $\rho < \gamma_4$ of π has thus led to a contradiction, and the proof of Lemma 3 is complete.

We note that, if $0 \le i \le a$, $0 \le j < \gamma$, and i is a limit ordinal, then $A_{i,j} = \bigwedge_{0 \le k < i} A_{k,j} = \bigcap_{0 \le k < i} A_{k,j}$.

Let us write $F = F_{\gamma, a}$ to indicate its dependence on γ and a. Then we denote the normal completion of $F_{\gamma, a}$ by $F_{\gamma, a}^*$.

 $\underbrace{\text{Theorem 3.}}_{\{A_{0,j}:0\leq j<\gamma\}} \mathbb{V}_{\{B_{i,j}:0\leq i,j<\gamma,\ i\neq j\}}, \text{ and has cardinality at least a.}$

Proof. From Lemma 3 it follows that $\{A_{o,j}\}\bigvee\{B_{i,j}\}$ completely generates $F_{\gamma,\alpha}$, and hence $F_{\gamma,\alpha}^*$. From Lemma 1 it follows that, for fixed j, the $A_{i,j}$ for $0 \le i \le \alpha$ are pairwise unequal. Thus $F_{\gamma,\alpha}$, and hence $F_{\gamma,\alpha}^*$, have cardinality at least α .

<u>Theorem 4.</u> There is no free complete Boolean algebra on ω complete generators.

Proof. $F_{\omega,a}^*$ is completely generated by { $A_{o,j}: 0 \le j < \omega$ } \bigvee { $B_{i,j}: 0 \le i, j < \omega, i \ne j$ } a set of cardinality ω . Also $F_{\omega,a}^*$ has cardinality at least a. Hence there exist complete Boolean algebras with ω complete generators of arbitrarily large cardinality.

Alternatively, consider the valuation f such that $f(a_{0,j}) = A_{0,j}$

for $0 \le j < \omega$ and $f(b_{i,j}) = B_{i,j}$ for $0 \le i, j_7 < \omega$, $i \ne j$. Then, by Lemma 3, $f^*(a_{i,j}) = A_{i,j}$ for $0 \le i \le \alpha$, $0 \le j < \omega$. Hence, for fixed j, we conclude from Lemma 1 that the $a_{i,j}$ for all ordinals i are pairwise unequal.

V. WEAK (α, β) DISTRIBUTIVITY

In this chapter we generalize the results of Chapter 4. We shall be concerned with Boolean algebras in which a certain type of distributive law holds.

<u>Definition 1.</u> A Boolean algebra B is said to be weakly (α, β) distributive, where α and β are cardinals with $\alpha \ge \omega$ and $\beta \ge 2$, if the following identity is valid whenever Y has cardinality less then α , Z has cardinality at most β , and all the \bigcup 's and \bigcap 's exist in B:

$$\bigcap_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbf{Y}} \left(\bigcup_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbf{Z}} \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}} \right) = \bigcup_{\phi \in \mathbf{Z}^{\mathbf{y}}} \left(\bigcap_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbf{Y}} \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{y}, \phi(\mathbf{y})} \right)$$

Note that this identity implies its dual and vice versa.

If B is weakly (a, β) distributive for all β , then it is said to be weakly (a, ∞) distributive.

A complete weakly (a, β) distributive Boolean algebra B is said to be a free complete weakly (a, β) distributive Boolean algebra on γ complete generators if B contains a subset A of cardinality γ which completely generates B, and if every mapping f of A onto a subset A' of a complete weakly (a, β) distributive Boolean algebra B' which completely generates B' can be extended to a complete homomorphism f* of B onto B'.

Replacing (a, β) by (a, ∞) everywhere in the above definition, we obtain the definition of a free complete weakly (a, ∞) distributive Boolean algebra on γ complete generators.

We can define a new equality on polynomials in $B(\gamma)$ as follows:

 A_1, A_2 in $B(\gamma)$ are equal (α, β) if and only if, for every valuation f from $\{a_i: 0 \le i < \gamma\}$ into a complete <u>weakly (α, β) distributive</u> Boolean algebra, $f^*(A_1) = f^*(A_2)$. Then the statements of Chapter 2 carry over, i.e. the following are equivalent: $B(\gamma)$ (after the identification of equal (α, β) elements) is a set; $B(\gamma)$ (after the same identification) is a free complete weakly (α, β) distributive Boolean algebra on γ complete generators; there exists a free complete weakly (α, β) distributive Boolean algebra on γ complete generators; and the cardinality of complete weakly (α, β) distributive Boolean algebras with γ complete generators is bounded.

Defining equal (a, ∞) in the obvious way, the above statements carry over if (a, β) is replaced by (a, ∞) everywhere.

We wish to investigate the existence of a free complete weakly (α, β) distributive Boolean algebra on γ complete generators. Theorem 1 which was first proved by Tarski (10), settles the question for $\gamma < \alpha$.

<u>Theorem 1.</u> If $\gamma < a$, the free complete weakly (a, β) distributive Boolean algebra on γ complete generators is isomorphic to the collection of all subsets of a set of cardinality 2^{γ} .

Proof. Let B be any complete weakly (a, β) distributive Boolean algebra with the γ complete generators $\{x_i: 0 \le i \le \gamma\}$. Then, applying the distributive law, we obtain

$$I = \bigcap_{0 \leq i \leq \gamma} (x_i \bigcup x_i^c) = \bigcup_{\phi \in 2^{\gamma}} (\bigcap_{0 \leq i < \gamma} x_{i, \phi(i)}),$$

where $x_{i,\phi(i)} = x_{i}$ if $\phi(i) = 0$, and $x_{i,\phi(i)} = x_{i}^{c}$ if $\phi(i) = 1$. Now choose any ϕ in 2^{γ} . Then $\bigcap_{0 \le i < \gamma} x_{i,\phi(i)}$ is either contained in or disjoint to each x_i and each x_i^c . The collection of all elements in B which either contain or are disjoint to $\bigcap_{0 \le i < \gamma} x_{i,\phi(i)}$ are easily seen to form a complete sub-algebra of B containing the x_i , and hence must include all of B. Thus $\bigcap_{0 \le i < \gamma} x_{i,\phi(i)}$ is either 0 or an atom in B. Thus I is a union of not more than 2^{γ} atoms, so B is isomorphic to the collection of all subsets of a set of cardinality at most 2^{γ} . On the other hand, the Boolean algebra of all subsets of 2^{γ} is weakly (a, β) distributive and is completely generated by $\{e_i^{-1}(1): 0 \le i < \gamma\}$. The mapping f taking $e_i^{-1}(1)$ to x_i for each $i < \gamma$ extends naturally to a complete homomorphism f^{*}, so Theorem 1 is proved.

We now suppose that $\gamma \ge a$, and ask if there exists a free complete weakly (a, ∞) distributive Boolean algebra on γ complete generators. It is easily seen that, if a is a singular cardinal, weak (a, ∞) distributivity implies weak (a^+, ∞) distributivity in a complete Boolean algebra, where a^+ is the smallest cardinal greater than a. We thus assume that a is regular. If we can show that, for $\gamma = a$, such an algebra does not exist, the question will be settled for all $\gamma \ge a$.

We therefore suppose that γ is an infinite regular cardinal, and prove that there does not exist a free complete weakly (γ, ∞) distributive Boolean algebra on γ complete generators. Our method will be a direct extension of that of Chapter 4.

We first choose an ordinal indexed collection of polynomials in B(γ) which we wish to prove pairwise unequal (γ, ∞). First we relabel the generators as $\{a_{0,j}:0 \le j \le \gamma\} \bigvee \{b_{i,j}:0 \le i,j \le \gamma, i \ne j\}$. Then we define polynomials $a_{i,j}$, where i is arbitrary and $j \le \gamma$, as follows:

$$a_{i+1,j} \equiv \bigcup \{a_{i,j} \bigcap a_{i,k} \bigcap b_{j,k} : 0 \leq k < \gamma, k \neq j \},$$

and, if i is a limit ordinal,

$$a_{i,j} \equiv \bigcap \{a_{k,j}: 0 \leq k \leq i\}.$$

Thus the polynomials are obvious generalizations of those in Chapter 4.

Now, for any infinite cardinal a, consider the valuation f from $\{a_{0,j}\} \bigvee \{b_{i,j}\}\$ to $F_{\gamma,\alpha}^*$ defined by $f(a_{0,j}) = A_{0,j}$ and $f(b_{i,j}) = B_{i,j}$. It follows from Lemma 3, Chapter 4, that $f^*(a_{i,j}) = A_{i,j}$ for $0 \le i \le \alpha$, $0 \le j < \gamma$. Moreover, from Lemma 1, Chapter 4, the $A_{i,j}$ for fixed j and for $0 \le i < \alpha$ are pairwise unequal. All that remains (to show the $a_{i,j}$ for fixed j are pairwise unequal (γ, ∞)) is to show that $F_{\gamma,\alpha}^*$ is weakly (γ, ∞) distributive. This will also, of course, show that there exist complete weakly (γ, ∞) distributive Boolean algebras on γ complete generators of arbitrarily large cardinality (namely the $F_{\gamma,\alpha}^*$).

To show that $F_{\gamma,\alpha}^*$ is weakly (γ,∞) distributive it is sufficient to show that $F_{\gamma,\alpha}$ is weakly (γ,∞) distributive. (Pierce, (11)).

Theorem 2. $F_{\gamma, \alpha}$ is weakly (γ, ∞) distributive.

Proof. Let us assume the contrary. Then, for some cardinal $\gamma_0 < \gamma$, and for some choice of elements $x_{\rho,\gamma}$ in $F_{\gamma,\alpha}$, we have

$$\bigcap_{\rho \leq \gamma_{o}} \left(\bigcup_{y \in Y} x_{\rho, y} \right) \neq \bigcup_{\phi \in Y^{\gamma_{o}}} \left(\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_{o}} x_{\rho, \phi(\rho)} \right),$$

where the \bigcup 's and \bigcap 's all exist in $F_{\gamma, a}$. But, since each $\bigcup_{y \in Y} x_{\rho, y}$ contains each $\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_{o}} x_{\rho, \phi(\rho)}$, we know that $\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_{o}} (\bigcup_{y \in Y} x_{\rho, y}) \ge \bigcup_{\phi \in Y^{\gamma_{o}}} (\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_{o}} x_{\rho, \phi(\rho)})$. It therefore follows that

(1)
$$\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_{o}} \left(\bigcup_{y \in Y} x_{\rho, y} \right) > \bigcup_{\phi \in Y \gamma_{o}} \left(\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_{o}} x_{\rho, \phi(\rho)} \right)$$

Let us denote $\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_0} (\bigcup_{y \in Y} x_{\rho,y})$ by b and $\bigcup_{\phi \in Y} \gamma_0 (\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_0} x_{\rho,\phi(\rho)})$ by d. Intersecting both sides of (1) by d^c, we obtain

$$d^{\circ} \bigcap \left[\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_{o}} \left(\bigcup_{y \in Y} x_{\rho, y} \right) \right] > \bigcup_{\phi \in Y \gamma_{o}} \left[d^{\circ} \bigcap \left(\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_{o}} x_{\rho, \phi(\rho)} \right) \right] = 0 .$$

This is of the form of (1), and each $d \bigcap (\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_0} x_{\rho, \phi(\rho)}) = 0$. We may thus assume, in (1), that each $\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_0} x_{\rho, \phi(\rho)} = 0$. Now intersect both sides of (1) by b. This gives

$$\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_{o}} \left[\bigcup_{y \in Y} (b \bigcap x_{\rho, y}) \right] > \bigcup_{\phi \in Y \gamma_{o}} \left[b \bigcap (\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_{o}} x_{\rho, \phi(\rho)}) \right]$$

This is of the form (1), and each $\bigcup_{y \in Y} (b \bigcap x_{\rho, y}) = b$; also, each $b \bigcap (\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_o} x_{\rho, \phi(\rho)}) = 0$. We may thus assume that, in (1), the $\bigcup_{y \in Y} x_{\rho, y}$ are all equal, and that each $\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_o} x_{\rho, \phi(\rho)} = 0$.

From Lemma 2 of Chapter 4 it follows that each element of $F_{\gamma, \alpha}$ can be written as a set union of elements of the form

(2)
$$A = (\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_1} A_{m_{\sigma}, n_{\sigma}}) \wedge (\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_2} A_{p_{\sigma}, q_{\sigma}}^c) \wedge (\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_3} B_{r_{\sigma}, s_{\sigma}}) \wedge (\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_4} B_{t_{\sigma}, q_{\sigma}}^c)$$

where γ_1 , γ_2 , γ_3 , $\gamma_4 < \gamma$. Now, for each $\sigma < \gamma_1$, write

$$A_{m_{\sigma},n_{\sigma}} = \left[\bigvee_{m_{\sigma} \leq k < a} (A_{k,n_{\sigma}} \wedge A_{k+1,n_{\sigma}}^{c})\right] \bigvee A_{a,n_{\sigma}}$$

(This follows from $A_{i,j} = \bigwedge_{k < i} A_{k,j}$ if i is a limit ordinal.) Then we have

$$A = (\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_{1}} [\bigvee_{m_{\sigma} \leq k < a} (A_{k, n_{\sigma}} \land A_{k+1, n_{\sigma}}^{c}) \lor A_{a, n_{\sigma}}]) \land (\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_{2}} A_{p_{\sigma}, q_{\sigma}}^{c}) \land (\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_{3}} B_{r_{\sigma}, s_{\sigma}}) \land (\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_{4}} A_{r_{\sigma}, u_{\sigma}}^{c}))$$

Now let

$$\Phi = \prod_{\sigma < \gamma_1} \left[\{ (A_{k,n_{\sigma}} \land A_{k+l,n_{\sigma}}^{c}) : m_{\sigma} \leq k < a \} \bigvee \{A_{a,n_{\sigma}}\} \right] .$$

Then, by distributivity,

$$A = \bigvee_{\phi \in \Phi} \left[(\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_1} \phi(\sigma)) \wedge (\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_2} A_p^c, q_\sigma) \wedge (\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_3} B_r, s_\sigma) \wedge (\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_4} B_t^c, u_\sigma) \right].$$

Thus each element of $F_{\gamma,a}$ can be written as a set union of elements of the form (2), with the added condition (condition C) that for each $\sigma < \gamma_1$ such that $m_{\sigma} < a$ there exists a $\tau < \gamma_2$ such that $m_{\sigma} + 1 = p_{\tau}$, $n_{\sigma} = q_{\tau}$.

Now write each $x_{\rho,y}$ in (1) in this fashion, i.e. $x_{\rho,y} = \bigvee_{z \in \mathbb{Z}_{\rho,y}} x_{\rho,y,z}$, where $x_{\rho,y,z}$ is of the form (2) with condition C. Let

 $\Phi^{\dagger} = \prod_{\rho < \gamma_{0}} \{x_{\rho,y,z} : y \in Y, z \in \mathbb{Z}_{\rho,y} \}.$ Then we have

$$\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_{o}} (\bigcup_{\substack{y \in Y \\ z \in \mathbb{Z}_{\rho, y}}} x_{\rho, y, z}) > \bigcup_{\phi \in \Phi'} (\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_{o}} \phi(\rho))$$

where the $\bigcup_{\substack{y \in Y \\ z \in \mathbb{Z}_{\rho,y}}} x_{\rho,z,y}$ are all equal, the $\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_{O}} \phi(\rho)$ are all 0, and

each $x_{\rho,y,z}$ is of the form (2) with condition C.

We thus assume that in (1) each
$$\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_0} x_{\rho, \phi(\rho)} = 0$$
, all the $\bigcup_{y \in Y} x_{\rho, y}$ are equal, and each $x_{\rho, y}$ is of the form (2), with condition C.

For convenience assume Y is well ordered. Now define elements $y_{\rho}(0 \le \rho < \gamma_{\rho})$ in Y by induction as follows:

 $y_0 = \text{the first y in } Y \text{ such that } x_{0,y} \neq 0 \text{ (since } \bigcup_{y \in Y} x_{0,y} > 0,$ such a y_0 must exist)

 $y_{\rho} = \text{the first y in Y such that } (\prod_{k < \rho} x_{k}, y_{k}) \cap x_{\rho, y} \neq 0, \text{ or,}$ if no such y exists, $y_{\rho} = y_{0}$.

The function ϕ such that $\phi(\rho) = y_{\rho}$ for $0 \le \rho < \gamma_{o}$ lies in $Y^{\gamma_{O}}$. Thus $\bigcap_{\rho < \gamma_{O}} x_{\rho, y_{\rho}} = 0$. Let ρ_{O} be the smallest $\rho \le \gamma_{O}$ such that $\bigcap_{k \le \rho} x_{k, y_{k}} = 0$.

Suppose ρ_0 is not a limit ordinal, i.e. $\rho_0 = \rho^t + 1$. Then, since $\rho^t < \rho_0$, $\bigcap_{k < \rho^t} x_{k,y_k} \neq 0$. But $\bigcap_{k < \rho^t} x_{k,y_k} \leq \bigcup_{y \in Y} x_{o,y} = \bigcup_{y \in Y} x_{\rho^t,y}$. Therefore, by continuity,

$$\bigcup_{\mathbf{y}\in\mathbf{Y}}[\mathbf{x}_{\rho^{\mathbf{i}}}, \bigcup_{\mathbf{y}}(\bigcap_{k<\rho^{\mathbf{i}}}\mathbf{x}_{k,\mathbf{y}_{k}})] = (\bigcap_{k<\rho^{\mathbf{i}}}\mathbf{x}_{k,\mathbf{y}_{k}})\bigcap(\bigcup_{\mathbf{y}\in\mathbf{Y}}\mathbf{x}_{\rho^{\mathbf{i}}}, y) = \bigcap_{k<\rho^{\mathbf{i}}}\mathbf{x}_{k,\mathbf{y}_{k}} \neq 0.$$

Thus, for some y in Y, and hence for y_{ρ^1} , we have $x_{\rho^1, y} \bigcap (\bigcap_{k \leq \rho^1} x_{k, y_k}) \neq 0$. Thus we have that $\bigcap_{k < \rho_0} x_{k, y_k} \neq 0$, a contradiction.

Now suppose that ρ_0 is a limit ordinal. We shall examine $\bigcap_{k < \rho_0} x_{k, y_k}$ more closely. For each $k < \rho_0, x_{k, y_k}$ is of the form (2), with condition C. Thus, forming the intersection $\bigcap_{k < \rho_0} x_{k, y_k}$ formally (remember $\rho_0 < \gamma$, so $\bigcap_{k < \rho_0} x_{k, y_k} = \bigwedge_{k < \rho_0} x_{k, y_k}$), and reindexing the terms, we can write

$$\bigcap_{k < \rho_{o}} x_{k, y_{k}} = (\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_{1}} A_{m_{\sigma}}, n_{\sigma}) \bigwedge (\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_{2}} A_{p_{\sigma}}^{c}, q_{\sigma}) \bigwedge (\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_{3}} B_{r_{\sigma}}, s_{\sigma}) \bigwedge (\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_{4}} B_{t_{\sigma}}^{c}, u_{\sigma})$$

with γ_1 , γ_2 , γ_3 , $\gamma_4 < \gamma$, where each term occurs in the representation (in the form (2), with condition C) of x_k, y_k for some $k < \rho_0$.

Now construct a function f in 2^{β} as follows:

$$f(\gamma^2 + a \cdot n_{\sigma} + x) = 1 \text{ for } 0 \leq x < \min(m_{\sigma} + 1, a), 0 \leq \sigma < \gamma_1,$$

$$f(\gamma \cdot r_{\sigma} + s_{\sigma}) = 1$$
 for $0 \le \sigma < \gamma_3$,

and f = 0 otherwise.

Since, for
$$0 \le \sigma < \gamma_1$$
, f is in $\bigwedge_{0 \le x < \min(m_{\sigma}^{-1} + 1, a)} e^{-1} (1)$, f
f is in $\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_1} A_{m_{\sigma}^{-1}, n_{\sigma}^{-1}}$. Since for $0 \le \sigma < \gamma_3$, f is in $e^{-1}_{\gamma^* r_{\sigma}^{-1} + s_{\sigma}^{-1}} (1)$, f
is in $\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_3} B_{r_{\sigma}^{-1}, s_{\sigma}^{-1}}$. Then, since $\bigcap_{k < \rho_0} x_{k, y_k} = 0$, f cannot lie in both
 $\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_4} B_{t_{\sigma}^{-1}, u_{\sigma}^{-1}}^c$ and $\bigwedge_{\sigma < \gamma_2} A_{p_{\sigma}^{-1}, q_{\sigma}^{-1}}^c$. Thus f is either in $\bigvee_{\sigma < \gamma_4} B_{t_{\sigma}^{-1}, u_{\sigma}^{-1}}^c$ or
in $\bigvee_{\sigma < \gamma_2} A_{p_{\sigma}^{-1}, q_{\sigma}^{-1}}^c$. Suppose f is in $\bigvee_{\sigma < \gamma_4} B_{t_{\sigma}^{-1}, u_{\sigma}^{-1}}^c$. Then, for some σ with
 $0 \le \sigma < \gamma_4$, $f(\gamma \cdot t_{\sigma}^{-1} + u_{\sigma}^{-1}) = 1$. Therefore there exists a τ with $0 \le \tau < \gamma_3$
such that $r_{\tau} = t_{\sigma}$, $s_{\tau} = u_{\sigma}^{-1}$. But $B_{r_{\tau}^{-1}, s_{\tau}^{-1}}^c$ occurs as a term in the repre-
sentation (in the form (2), with condition C), of x_{k, y_k}^{-1} for some
 $k < \rho_0$, say $k = k_1$. Likewise $B_{t_{\sigma}^{-1}, u_{\sigma}^{-1}}^c$ occurs as a term in the repre-

sentation of x_{k,y_k} for some $k < \rho_0$, say $k = k_2$. Then

 $|| x_{k,y_k} \leq B_{r_{\tau},s_{\tau}} \wedge B_{t_{\sigma},u_{\sigma}}^{c} = 0, \text{ a contradiction, since}$ k<max(k₁, k₂)+1 k, y_k < B_{r_{\tau},s_{\tau}} \wedge B_{t_{\sigma},u_{\sigma}}^{c} = 0, \text{ a contradiction, since}}

 $\max (k_1, k_2) + 1 < \rho_0$, and ρ_0 was chosen minimal.

Finally suppose f is in $\bigvee_{\sigma < \gamma_2} A_{p_{\sigma}}, q_{\sigma}$. Then, for some σ with $0 \le \sigma < \gamma_2$, f is in $A_{p_{\sigma}}, q_{\sigma}$. Suppose, for some $\rho' < \rho_{\sigma}$, $\bigcap_{k < \rho'} x_{k}, y_{k} \le A_{p_{\sigma}}, q_{\sigma}$. We know that $A_{p_{\sigma}}^{c}$ occurs as a term in the representation (in the form (2), with condition C) of x_{k}, y_{k} for some $k < \rho_{o}$, say $k = k_{1}$. But then $\bigcap_{k < \max(\rho', k_{1}) + 1} x_{k}, y_{k} \le A_{p_{\sigma}}, q_{\sigma} \bigwedge A_{p_{\sigma}}^{c}, q_{\sigma} = 0$. This is a contradiction, since $\max(\rho', k_{1}) + 1 < \rho_{o}$, and ρ_{o} was chosen minimal. Thus, for all $\rho' < \rho_{o}$, $\bigcap_{k < o'} x_{k}, y_{k} \not \leq A_{p_{\sigma}}, q_{\sigma}$.

Now let i be the smallest ordinal less than or equal to a such that there exists a j, $0 \le j < \gamma$, with f in $A_{i,j}$ but, for all $\rho^i < \rho_o$, $\bigcap_{k < \rho'} x_{k,y_k} \not \le A_{i,j}$ (p_σ is such an ordinal).

Since f is in $A_{i,j}$, f is in $A_{o,j}$, and hence $f(\gamma^2 + a \cdot j) = 1$. Thus there exists a $\tau < \gamma_1$ such that $n_{\tau} = j$. Then $A_{m_{\tau}, n_{\tau}}$ must occur as a term in the representation (in the form (2), with condition C) of x_{k, y_k} for some $k < \rho_o$, say $k = k_1$. If i = 0, then $\bigcap_{k < k_1 + 1}^{r} x_{k, y_k} \leq A_{m_{\tau}, n_{\tau}} \leq A_{o,j}$, a contradiction, since $k_1 + 1 < \rho_o$. Suppose i is a limit ordinal. Since $\bigcap_{k < k' + 1}^{r} x_{k, y_k} \not\leq A_{i, j}$, we must have $m_{\tau} < i$. Moreover, it follows from condition C that $A_{m_{\tau} + 1, n_{\tau}}^{c}$ is a term in $x_{k_1, y_{k_1}}$. But $m_{\tau} + 1 < i$ and f is in $A_{m_{\tau} + 1, n_{\tau}}$. Hence, by the minimality of i, there exists a $\rho^i < \rho_o$ such that $\bigcap_{k < \rho^i}^{r} x_{k, y_k} \leq A_{m_{\tau} + 1, n_{\tau}}^{r}$. But then $\prod_{k < \max(\rho', k_1) + 1} x_{k, y_k} \leq A_{m_\tau + 1, n_\tau} \bigwedge A_{m_\tau + 1, n_\tau}^c = 0, \text{ a contra-}$ diction, since max $(\rho', k_1) + 1 < \rho_0$.

The only remaining alternative is that $i = i^{t} + 1$. There are then two possibilities: f is in $\bigwedge_{k \leq i} e^{-1}_{\gamma^{2} + \alpha \cdot j + k}$ (1), or f is in $\bigvee_{\substack{0 \leq k < \gamma \\ k \neq j}} (A_{i^{t}, j} \bigwedge A_{i^{t}, k} \bigwedge B_{j, k})$. If f is in $\bigwedge_{k \leq i} e^{-1}_{\gamma^{2} + \alpha \cdot j + k}$ (1), then $f(\gamma^{2} + \alpha \cdot j + i) = 1$. Thus there exists a $\delta < \gamma_{1}$ such that $n_{\delta} = j$, $m_{\delta} \geq i$. But $A_{m_{\delta}, n_{\delta}}$ occurs as a term in the representation (in the form (2) with condition C) of $x_{k, y_{k}}$ for some $k < \rho_{0}$, say $k = k_{2}$. Thus $\bigcap_{k < k_{2} + 1} x_{k, y_{k}} \leq A_{m_{\delta}, n_{\delta}} \leq A_{i, j}$, a contradiction, since $k_{2} + 1 < \rho_{0}$. Now suppose f is in $\bigvee_{\substack{0 \leq k < \gamma \\ k \neq j}} (A_{i^{t}, j} \bigwedge A_{i^{t}, k} \bigwedge B_{j, k})$. Then

there is a k^t with $0 \le k^t < \gamma$, $k^t \ne j$, such that f is in $A_{i^t, j} \bigwedge A_{i^t, k^t} \bigwedge B_{j, k^{t^*}}$. Since i was minimal and $i^t < i$, there exist ρ^{tt} , $\rho^{tt} < \rho_0$ such that $\bigcap_{k < \rho^{tt}} x_{k, y_k} \le A_{i^t, j}$ and $\bigcap_{k < \rho^{tt}} x_{k, y_k} \le A_{i^t, k^{t^*}}$. Since f is in $B_{j, k^{t^*}}$, $f(\gamma \cdot j + k^t) = 1$. Thus there exists a $\lambda < \gamma_3$ such that $r_{\lambda} = j$, $s_{\lambda} = k^t$. Then $B_{r_{\lambda}, s_{\lambda}}$ occurs as a term in the representation (in the form (2), with condition C) of x_{k, y_k} for some $k < \rho_0$, say $k = k_3$. But then

$$\prod_{k < \max(\rho^{\mathfrak{m}}, \rho^{\mathfrak{m}}, k_3)+1} x_{k, y_k} \leq (A_{i', j} \bigwedge A_{i', k'} \bigwedge A_{j, k'}) \leq A_{i, j'}$$

a contradiction, since max $(\rho^{tt}, \rho^{tt}, k_3) + 1 < \rho_0$.

Thus our original assumption, that $F_{\gamma,\alpha}$ is not weakly (γ,∞) distributive, has led to a contradiction, and Theorem 2 is proved.

<u>Theorem 3.</u> If γ is an infinite regular cardinal, then there does not exist a free complete weakly (γ, ∞) distributive Boolean algebra on γ complete generators.

Proof. Theorem 3 follows from the remarks preceding Theorem 2 and Theorem 2 itself.

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