

I. Chapter 1

1. Preliminaries: Set theory and categories

Problem 1.1. Locate a discussion of Russel's paradox, and understand it.

Solution. Recall that, in naive set theory, any collection of objects that satisfy some property can be called a set. Russel's paradox can be illustrated as follows. Let R be the set of all sets that do not contain themselves. Then, if $R \notin R$, then by definition it must be the case that $R \in R$; similarly, if $R \in R$ then it must be the case that $R \notin R$. ■

Problem 1.2. ▷ Prove that if \sim is an equivalence relation on a set S , then the corresponding family \mathcal{P}_\sim defined in §1.5 is indeed a partition of S ; that is, its elements are nonempty, disjoint, and their union is S . [§1.5]

Solution. Let S be a set with an equivalence relation \sim . Consider the family of equivalence classes w.r.t. \sim over S :

$$\mathcal{P}_\sim = \{ [a]_\sim \mid a \in S \}$$

Let $[a]_\sim \in \mathcal{P}_\sim$. Since \sim is an equivalence relation, by reflexivity we have $a \sim a$, so $[a]_\sim$ is nonempty. Now, suppose a and b are arbitrary elements in S such that $a \not\sim b$. For contradiction, suppose that there is an $x \in [a]_\sim \cap [b]_\sim$. This means that $x \sim a$ and $x \sim b$. By transitivity, we get that $a \sim b$; this is a contradiction. Hence the $[a]_\sim$ are disjoint. Finally, let $x \in S$. Then $x \in [x]_\sim \in \mathcal{P}_\sim$. This means that

$$\bigcup_{[a]_\sim \in \mathcal{P}_\sim} [a]_\sim = S,$$

that is, the union of the elements of \mathcal{P}_\sim is S . ■

Problem 1.3. ▷ Given a partition \mathcal{P} on a set S , show how to define a relation \sim such that $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}_\sim$. [§1.5]

Solution. Define, for $a, b \in S$, $a \sim b$ if and only if there exists an $X \in \mathcal{P}$ such that $a \in X$ and $b \in X$. We will show that $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}_\sim$.

1. ($\mathcal{P} \subseteq \mathcal{P}_\sim$). Let $X \in \mathcal{P}$; we want to show that $X \in \mathcal{P}_\sim$. We know that X is nonempty, so choose $a \in X$ and consider $[a]_\sim \in \mathcal{P}_\sim$. We need to show that $X = [a]_\sim$. Suppose $a' \in X$ (it may be that $a' = a$.) Since $a, a' \in X$, $a \sim a'$, so $a' \in [a]_\sim$. Now, suppose $a' \in [a]_\sim$. We have $a' \sim a$, so $a' \in X$. Hence $X = [a]_\sim \in \mathcal{P}_\sim$, so $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \mathcal{P}_\sim$.
2. ($\mathcal{P}_\sim \subseteq \mathcal{P}$). Let $[a]_\sim \in \mathcal{P}_\sim$. From exercise I.1.1 we know that $[a]_\sim$ is nonempty. Suppose $a' \in [a]_\sim$. By definition, since $a' \sim a$, there exists a set X such that $a, a' \in X$. Hence $[a]_\sim \subseteq X$. Also, if $a, a' \in X$ (not necessarily distinct) then $a \sim a'$. Therefore, $\mathcal{P}_\sim \subseteq \mathcal{P}$, and with 1. we get that the sets \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{P}_\sim are equal.

■

Problem 1.4. How many different equivalence relations can be defined on the set $\{1, 2, 3\}$?

Solution. From the definition of an equivalence relation and the solution to problem I.1.3, we can see that an equivalence relation on S is equivalent to a partition of S . Thus the number of equivalence relations on S is equal to the number of partitions of S . Since $\{1, 2, 3\}$ is small we can determine this by hand:

$$\mathcal{P}_0 = \{ \{1, 2, 3\} \}$$

$$\mathcal{P}_1 = \{ \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\} \}$$

$$\mathcal{P}_2 = \{ \{1, 2\}, \{3\} \}$$

$$\mathcal{P}_3 = \{ \{1\}, \{2, 3\} \}$$

$$\mathcal{P}_4 = \{ \{1, 3\}, \{2\} \}$$

Thus there can be only 5 equivalence relations defined on $\{1, 2, 3\}$. ■

Problem 1.5. Give an example of a relation that is reflexive and symmetric but not transitive. What happens if you attempt to use this relation to define a partition on the set? (Hint: Thinking about the second question will help you answer the first one.)

Solution. For $a, b \in \mathbf{Z}$, define $a \diamond b$ to be true if and only if $|a - b| \leq 1$. It is reflexive, since $a \diamond a = |a - a| = 0 \leq 1$ for any $a \in \mathbf{Z}$, and it is symmetric since $a \diamond b = |a - b| = |b - a| = b \diamond a$ for any $a, b \in \mathbf{Z}$. However, it is not transitive. Take for example $a = 0, b = 1, c = 2$. Then we have $|a - b| = 1 \leq 1$, and $|b - c| = 1 \leq 1$, but $|a - c| = 2 > 1$; so $a \diamond b$ and $b \diamond c$, but not $a \diamond c$.

When we try to build a partition of \mathbf{Z} using \diamond , we get "equivalence classes" that are not disjoint. For example, $[2]_\diamond = \{1, 2, 3\}$, but $[3]_\diamond = \{2, 3, 4\}$. Hence \mathcal{P}_\diamond is not a partition of \mathbf{Z} . ■

Problem 1.6. Define a relation \sim on the set \mathbf{R} of real numbers by setting $a \sim b \iff b - a \in \mathbf{Z}$. Prove that this is an equivalence relation, and find a 'compelling' description for \mathbf{R} / \sim . Do the same for the relation \approx on the plane $\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$ by declaring $(a_1, b_1) \approx (a_2, b_2) \iff b_1 - a_1 \in \mathbf{Z}$ and $b_2 - a_2 \in \mathbf{Z}$. [§II.8.1, II.8.10]

Solution. Suppose $a, b, c \in \mathbf{R}$. We have that $a - a = 0 \in \mathbf{Z}$, so \sim is reflexive. If $a \sim b$, then $b - a = k$ for some $k \in \mathbf{Z}$, so $a - b = -k \in \mathbf{Z}$, hence $b \sim a$. So \sim is symmetric. Now, suppose that $a \sim b$ and $b \sim c$, in particular that $b - a = k \in \mathbf{Z}$ and $c - b = l \in \mathbf{Z}$. Then $c - a = (c - b) + (b - a) = l + k \in \mathbf{Z}$, so $a \sim c$. So \sim is transitive.

An equivalence class $[a]_{\sim} \in \mathbf{R} / \sim$ is the set of integers \mathbf{Z} transposed by some real number $\epsilon \in [0, 1)$. That is, for every set $X \in \mathbf{R} / \sim$, there is a real number $\epsilon \in [0, 1)$ such that every $x \in X$ is of the form $k + \epsilon$ for some integer k .

Now we will show that \approx is an equivalence relation over $\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$. Supposing $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$, we have $a_1 - a_1 = a_2 - a_2 = 0 \in \mathbf{Z}$, so $(a_1, a_2) \approx (a_1, a_2)$. If we also suppose that $b_1, b_2, c_1, c_2 \in \mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$, then symmetry and transitivity can be shown as well: $(a_1, a_2) \approx (b_1, b_2) \implies b_1 - a_1 = k$ for some integer k and $b_2 - a_2 = l$ for some integer l , hence $a_1 - b_1 = -k \in \mathbf{Z}$ and $a_2 - b_2 = -l \in \mathbf{Z}$, so $(b_1, b_2) \approx (a_1, a_2)$; also if $(a_1, a_2) \approx (b_1, b_2)$ and $(b_1, b_2) \approx (c_1, c_2)$, then $(b_1, b_2) - (a_1, a_2) = (k_1, k_2) \in \mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ as well as $(c_1, c_2) - (b_1, b_2) = (l_1, l_2) \in \mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$, so $(c_1, c_2) - (a_1, a_2) = (c_1, c_2) - (b_1, b_2) + (b_1, b_2) - (a_1, a_2) = (k_1 + l_1, k_2 + l_2) \in \mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$. Thus \approx is an equivalence relation.

The interpretation of \approx is similar to \sim . An equivalence class $X \in \mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R} / \approx$ is just the 2-dimensional integer lattice $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ transposed by some pair of values $(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2) \in [0, 1) \times [0, 1)$. ■

2. Functions between sets

Problem 2.1. How many different bijections are there between a set with n elements and itself?

Solution. A function $f : S \rightarrow S$ is a graph $\Gamma_f \subseteq S \times S$. Since f is bijective, then for all $y \in S$ there exists a unique $x \in S$ such that $(x, y) \in \Gamma_f$. We can see that $|\Gamma_f| = n$. Since each x must be unique, all the elements $x \in S$ must be present in the first component of exactly one pair in Γ_f . Furthermore, if we order the elements (x, y) in Γ_f by the first component, we can see that Γ_f is just a permutation on the n elements in S . For example, for $S = \{1, 2, 3\}$ one such Γ_f is:

$$\{ (1, 3), (2, 2), (3, 1) \}$$

Since $|S| = n$, the number of permutations of S is $n!$. Hence there can be $n!$ different bijections between S and itself. ■

Problem 2.2. ▷ Prove statement (2) in Proposition 2.1. You may assume that given a family of disjoint subsets of a set, there is a way to choose one element in each member of the family. [§2.5, V3.3]

Proposition 2.1. Assume $A \neq \emptyset$, and let $f : A \rightarrow B$ be a function. Then

- (1) f has a left-inverse if and only if f is injective; and
- (2) f has a right-inverse if and only if f is surjective.

Solution. Let $A \neq \emptyset$ and suppose $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a function.

(\implies) Suppose there exists a function g that is a right-inverse of f . Then $f \circ g = \text{id}_B$. Let $b \in B$. We have that $f(g(b)) = b$, so there exists an $a = g(b)$ such that $f(a) = b$. Hence f is surjective.

(\Leftarrow) Suppose that f is surjective. We want to construct a function $g : B \rightarrow A$ such that $f(g(a)) = a$ for all $a \in A$. Since f is surjective, for all $b \in B$ there is an $a \in A$ such that $f(a) = b$. For each $b \in B$ construct a set Λ_b of such pairs:

$$\Lambda_b = \{ (a, b) \mid a \in A, f(a) = b \}$$

Note that Λ_b is non-empty for all $b \in B$. So that we can choose one pair (a, b) (a not necessarily unique) from each set in $\Lambda = \{ \Lambda_b \mid b \in B \}$ to define $g : B \rightarrow A$:

$$g(b) = a, \text{ where } a \text{ is in some } (a, b) \in \Lambda_b$$

Now, g is a right-inverse of f . To show this, let $b \in B$. Since f is surjective, g has been defined such that when $a = g(b)$, $f(a) = b$, so we get that $f(g(b)) = (f \circ g)(b) = b$, thus g is a right-inverse of f . ■

Problem 2.3. Prove that the inverse of a bijection is a bijection and that the composition of two bijections is a bijection.

1. Suppose $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a bijection, and that $f^{-1} : B \rightarrow A$ is its inverse. We have that $f \circ f^{-1} = \text{id}_B$ and $f^{-1} \circ f = \text{id}_A$. Hence f is the left- and right-inverse of f^{-1} , so f^{-1} must be a bijection.
2. Let $f : B \rightarrow C$ and $g : A \rightarrow B$ be bijections, and consider $f \circ g$. To show that $f \circ g$ is injective, let $a, a' \in A$ such that $(f \circ g)(a) = (f \circ g)(a')$. Since f is a bijection, $f(g(a)) = f(g(a')) \implies g(a) = g(a')$. Also, since g is a bijection, $g(a) = g(a') \implies a = a'$. Hence $f \circ g$ is injective. Now, let $c \in C$. Since f is surjective, there is a $b \in B$ such that $f(b) = c$. Also, since g is surjective, there is an $a \in A$ such that $g(a) = b$; this means that there is an $a \in A$ such that $(f \circ g)(a) = c$. So $f \circ g$ is bijective.

Problem 2.4. \triangleright Prove that ‘isomorphism’ is an equivalence relation (on any set of sets.) [§4.1]

Solution. Let S be a set. Then id_S is a bijection from S to itself, so $S \cong S$. Let T be another set with $S \cong T$, i.e. that there exists a bijection $f : S \rightarrow T$. Since f is a bijection, it has an inverse $f^{-1} : T \rightarrow S$, so $T \cong S$. Finally, let U also be a set, and assume that there exists bijections $f : S \rightarrow T$ and $g : T \rightarrow U$, i.e. that $S \cong T$ and $T \cong U$. From exercise **I.2.3** we know that the composition of bijections is itself a bijection. This means that $g \circ f : S \rightarrow U$ is a bijection, so $S \cong U$. Hence \cong is an equivalence relation. ■

Problem 2.5. \triangleright Formulate a notion of *epimorphism*, in the style of the notion of *monomorphism* seen in §2.6, and prove a result analogous to Proposition 2.3, for epimorphisms and surjections.

Solution. A function $f : A \rightarrow B$ is an *epimorphism* if and only if for all sets Z and all functions $b' : Z \rightarrow B$, there is a function $a' : Z \rightarrow A$ such that $f \circ a' = b'$. Now we will show that f is a surjection if and only if it is an epimorphism.

(\implies) Suppose that $f : A \rightarrow B$ is surjective. Let Z be a set and $b' : Z \rightarrow B$ a function. We need to construct a function $a' : Z \rightarrow A$ such that $f \circ a' = b'$. Fix $z \in Z$. Suppose $b = b'(z) \in B$. Since $b \in B$ and f is surjective, there exists an $a \in A$ such $f(a) = b$. Now, define $a'(z) = a$ this way for each $z \in Z$. Then $f \circ a'(z) = b'(z)$ for all $z \in Z$, so $f \circ a' = b'$. Hence f is an epimorphism.

(\impliedby) Suppose that f is an epimorphism. Let $b' : B \rightarrow B$ be a bijection. Since f is an epimorphism, there is a function $a' : B \rightarrow A$ such that $f \circ a' = b'$. Let $b \in B$. Since b' is a bijection, there is a unique element $y \in B$ such that $b'(y) = b$. Furthermore, we have that $(f \circ a')(y) = b$. In other words, $a = a'(y)$ is an element in A such that $f(a) = b$. Hence f is surjective, as required. ■

Problem 2.6. With notation as in Example 2.4, explain how any function $f : A \rightarrow B$ determines a section of π_A .

Solution. Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ and let $\pi_A : A \times B \rightarrow A$ be such that $\pi_A(a, b) = a$ for all $(a, b) \in A \times B$. Construct $g : A \rightarrow A \times B$ defined as $g(a) = (a, f(a))$ for all $a \in A$. The function g can be thought of as ‘determined by’ f . Now, since $(\pi_A \circ g)(a) = \pi_A(g(a)) = \pi_A(a, f(a)) = a$ for all $a \in A$, g is a right inverse of π_A , i.e. g is a section of π_A as required. ■

Problem 2.7. Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ be any function. Prove that the graph Γ_f of f is isomorphic to A .

Solution. Recall that sets Γ_A and A are *isomorphic*, written $\Gamma_A \cong A$, if and only if there exists a bijection $g : \Gamma_A \rightarrow A$. Let’s construct such a function g , defined to be $g(a, b) = a$. Keep in mind that here $(a, b) \in \Gamma_f \subseteq A \times B$.

Let $(a', b'), (a'', b'') \in \Gamma_f$ such that $f(a', b') = f(a'', b'')$. For contradiction, suppose that $(a', b') \neq (a'', b'')$. Since $f(a', b') = a' = a'' = f(a'', b'')$, it must be that $b' \neq b''$. However, this would mean that both (a', b') and (a', b'') are in Γ_f ; this would mean that $f(a') = b' \neq b'' = f(a')$, which is impossible since f is a function. Hence g is injective.

Let $a' \in A$. Since f is a well-defined function with A as its domain, there must exist a pair $(a', b') \in \Gamma_f$ for some $b' \in B$, in particular that $g(a', b') = a'$; thus g is surjective, so it is a bijection. ■

Problem 2.8. Describe as explicitly as you can all terms in the canonical decomposition (cf. §2.8) of the function $\mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{C}$ defined by $r \mapsto e^{2\pi i r}$. (This exercise matches one previously. Which one?)

Solution. Let $f : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{C}$ be as above. The first piece in the canonical decomposition is the equivalence relation \sim defined as $x \sim x' \iff f(x) = f(x')$, i.e. $[x]_{\sim}$ is the set of all elements in \mathbf{R} that get mapped to the same element in \mathbf{C} by f as x .

The second piece is the set \mathcal{P}_{\sim} . This set is the set of all equivalence classes of \mathbf{R} over equality up to f . Note that, since $f(x) = e^{2\pi i x} = \cos(2\pi x) + i \sin(2\pi x)$, f is periodic with period 1. That is, $f(x) = e^{2\pi i x} = e^{2\pi i x + 2\pi} = e^{2\pi i(x+1)} = f(x+1)$. In other words, we can write \mathcal{P}_{\sim} as,

$$\mathcal{P}_{\sim} = \{ \{ r + k \mid k \in \mathbf{Z} \} \mid r \in [0, 1) \subseteq \mathbf{R} \},$$

and it is here when we notice uncanny similarities to exercise 1.6 where $x \sim y$, for $x, y \in \mathbf{R}$, if and only if $x - y \in \mathbf{Z}$, in which we could have written \mathcal{P}_{\sim} in the same way.

Now we will explain the mysterious $\tilde{f} : \mathcal{P}_{\sim} \rightarrow \text{im} f$. This function is taking each *equivalence class* $[x]_{\sim}$ over the reals w.r.t. \sim and mapping it to the element in \mathbf{C} that f maps each element $x' \in [x]_{\sim}$ to; indeed, since $x \sim x'$ is true for $x, x' \in \mathbf{R}$ if and only if $f(x) = f(x')$, we can see that for any $x \in \mathbf{R}$, for all $x' \in [x]_{\sim}$, there exists a $c \in \mathbf{C}$ such that $f(x') = c$. To illustrate with the equivalence class over \mathbf{R} w.r.t. \sim corresponding to the element $0 \in \mathbf{R}$, we have $[0]_{\sim} = \{ \dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots \}$. We can see that $e^{-4\pi i} = e^{-2\pi i} = e^{0\pi i} = 1 = e^{2\pi i} = e^{4\pi i}$, etc; so the function would map $[0]_{\sim} \mapsto 1 \in \mathbf{C}$, and so on. Furthermore, we can see that \tilde{f} is surjective, since for y to be in $\text{im} f$ is to say that there is an $x \in \mathbf{R}$ such that $f(x) = y$; so there must be an equivalence class $[x]_{\sim}$ which is mapped to y by \tilde{f} .

Finally, the simple map from $\text{im} f \rightarrow \mathbf{C}$ that simply takes $c \mapsto c$. This can be thought of as a potential “expansion” of the domain of \tilde{f} . It is obviously injective, since (trivially) $c \neq c' \implies c \neq c'$. However, it may not be surjective: for example, $2 \in \mathbf{C}$ is not in $\text{im} f$ as it is defined above. ■

Problem 2.9. ▷ Show that if $A' \cong A''$ and $B' \cong B''$, and further $A' \cap B' = \emptyset$ and $A'' \cap B'' = \emptyset$, then $A' \cup B' \cong A'' \cup B''$. Conclude that the operation $A \sqcup B$ is well-defined up to *isomorphism* (cf. §2.9) [§2.9, 5.7]

Solution. Let A', A'', B', B'' be sets as described above. Since $A' \cong A''$ and $B' \cong B''$, we know there exists respective bijections $f : A' \rightarrow A''$ and $g : B' \rightarrow B''$. Now, we wish to show that $A' \cup B' \cong A'' \cup B''$. Define a function $h : A' \cup B' \rightarrow A'' \cup B''$ such that $h(x) = f(x)$ if $x \in A'$ and $g(x)$ if $x \in B'$.

We will now show that h is a bijection. Let $y \in A'' \cup B''$. Then, since $A'' \cap B'' = \emptyset$, either $y \in A''$ or $y \in B''$. Without loss of generality suppose that $y \in A''$. Then, since $f : A' \rightarrow A''$ is a bijection, it is *surjective*, so there exists an $x \in A' \subseteq A' \cup B'$ such that $h(x) = f(x) = y$. So h is surjective. Now, suppose that $x \neq x'$, for $x, x' \in A' \cup B'$. If $x, x' \in A'$, then since f is injective and $h(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in A'$, then $h(x) \neq h(x')$. Similarly for if $x, x' \in B'$. Now, without loss of generality if $x \in A'$ and $x' \in B'$, then $h(x) = f(x) \neq g(x') = h(x')$ since $A'' \cap B'' = \emptyset$. Hence h is a bijection, so $A' \cup B' \cong A'' \cup B''$.

Since these constructions of A', A'', B', B'' correspond to creating “copies” of sets A and B for use in the disjoint union operation, we have that disjoint union is a well-defined function *up to isomorphism*. In particular, since \cong is an equivalence relation, we can consider \sqcup to be well-defined from \mathcal{P}_{\cong} to $A' \cup B'$. ■

Problem 2.10. ▷ Show that if A and B are finite sets, then $|B^A| = |B|^{|A|}$. [§2.1, 2.11, I.4.1]

Solution. Let A and B be sets with $|A| = n$ and $|B| = m$, with n, m being non-negative integers. Recall that B^A denotes the set of functions $f : A \rightarrow B$. Now, if $A = B = \emptyset$ or $A = \emptyset$ and $|B| = 1$, we get one function, the empty function $\Gamma_f = \emptyset$, and $0^0 = 1^0 = 1$. If $|A| = |B| = 1$, then we get the singleton function $\Gamma_f = \{(a, b)\}$, and $1^1 = 1$. If $A \neq \emptyset$ and $B = \emptyset$, then no well-defined function can exist from A to B since there will be no value for the elements in A to take; this explains $|B^A| = |B|^{|A|} = 0^{|A|} = 0$.

Suppose that $B \neq \emptyset$ and B is finite. We will show inductively that $|B^A| = |B|^{|A|}$. First, suppose that $|A| = 1$. Then there are exactly $|B|$ functions from A to B : if $B = \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m\}$, then the functions are $\{(a, b_1)\}, \{(a, b_2)\}$, etc. Hence $|B^A| = |B|^{|A|} = |B|$. Now, fix $k \geq 2$, and assume that $|B^A| = |B|^{|A|}$ for all sets A such that $|A| = k - 1$. Suppose that $|A| = k$. Let $a \in A$. (We can do this since $|A| = k \geq 2$.) Then, by the inductive hypothesis, since $|A \setminus \{a\}| = k - 1$, $|B^{(A \setminus \{a\})}| = |B|^{|A|-1}$. Let F be the set of functions from $A \setminus \{a\}$ to B . Then, for each of those functions $f \in F$, there is $|B|$ “choices” of where to assign a : one choice for each element in B . Hence, $|B^A| = |B| |B|^{|A|-1} = |B|^{|A|}$ as required. ■

Problem 2.11. ▷ In view of Exercise 2.10, it is not unreasonable to use 2^A to denote the set of functions from an arbitrary set A to a set with 2 elements (say $\{0, 1\}$). Prove that there is a bijection between 2^A and the *power set* of A (cf. §1.2). [§1.2, III.2.3]

Solution. Let $S = \{0, 1\}$, and consider $f : \mathcal{P}(A) \rightarrow 2^A$, defined as

$$f(X) = \{(a, 1) \text{ if } a \in X, \text{ and } (a, 0) \text{ otherwise}\}$$

We will show that f is bijective. Let $g \in 2^A$. Then f is a function from A to S . Let $A_1 = \{a \in A \mid g(a) = 1\}$. Then A_1 is a set such that $A_1 \in \mathcal{P}(A)$, and $f(A_1) = g$. Hence f is surjective.

Now, suppose that $X, Y \subseteq A$ and $f(X) = f(Y)$. Then, for all $a \in A$, $a \in X \iff f(X)(a) = 1 \iff f(Y)(a) = 1 \iff a \in Y$. Hence f is injective, so $2^A \cong \mathcal{P}(A)$. ■

3. Category theory

Problem 3.1. \triangleright Let \mathbf{C} be a category. Consider a structure \mathbf{C}^{op} with

1. $\text{Obj}(\mathbf{C}^{op}) = \text{Obj}(\mathbf{C})$
2. For A, B objects of \mathbf{C}^{op} (hence objects of \mathbf{C}), $\text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^{op}}(A, B) := \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}}(B, A)$.

Show how to make this into a category (that is, define composition of morphisms in \mathbf{C}^{op} and verify the properties listed in §3.1).

Intuitively, the ‘opposite’ category \mathbf{C}^{op} is simply obtained by ‘reversing all the arrows’ in \mathbf{C} . [5.1, §III.1.1, §IX.1.2, IX.1.10]

Solution. For objects $A, B, C \in \text{Obj}(\mathbf{C}^{op})$, the set of morphisms between A and B in \mathbf{C}^{op} , $\text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^{op}}(A, B)$, is defined as $\text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}}(B, A)$. Similarly for the morphisms between B and C . So for morphisms $f \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^{op}}(A, B)$ and $g \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^{op}}(B, C)$, to define composition we recall the set-function $\circ_{\mathbf{C}} : \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}}(C, B) \times \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}}(B, A) \rightarrow \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}}(C, A)$ that is defined for the objects $A, B, C \in \text{Obj}(\mathbf{C}) = \text{Obj}(\mathbf{C}^{op})$; we shall define the composition of morphisms $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : B \rightarrow C$ in \mathbf{C}^{op} with this function. Precisely, we define

$$\circ_{\mathbf{C}^{op}} : \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^{op}}(A, B) \times \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^{op}}(B, C) \rightarrow \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^{op}}(A, C)$$

to be

$$\circ_{\mathbf{C}^{op}}(f, g) = \circ_{\mathbf{C}}(g, f)$$

for all $f \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^{op}}(A, B)$ and $f \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^{op}}(B, C)$. The domain and codomain of $\circ_{\mathbf{C}}$ and $\circ_{\mathbf{C}^{op}}$ match (up to transposing the coordinates in the domain) due to the equality of $\text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}}(A, B)$ with $\text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^{op}}(B, A)$.

To show that this composition makes \mathbf{C}^{op} a category, first we note that the fact that \mathbf{C} is a category implies the existence of a morphism 1_A taking A to itself where $A \in \text{Obj}(\mathbf{C})$; this morphism is thus also present in $\text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^{op}}(A, A) = \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}}(A, A)$. Secondly, for objects $A, B, C, D \in \text{Obj}(\mathbf{C})$, any morphisms $f \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^{op}}(A, B)$, $g \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^{op}}(B, C)$, and $h \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^{op}}(C, D)$ are associative, since

$$(h \circ_{\mathbf{C}^{op}} g) \circ_{\mathbf{C}^{op}} f = f \circ_{\mathbf{C}} (g \circ_{\mathbf{C}} h) = (f \circ_{\mathbf{C}} g) \circ_{\mathbf{C}} h = h \circ_{\mathbf{C}^{op}} (g \circ_{\mathbf{C}^{op}} f).$$

Finally, for any morphism $f \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^{op}}(A, B)$ we have,

$$f \circ_{\mathbf{C}^{op}} 1_A = 1_A \circ_{\mathbf{C}} f = f \text{ and } 1_B \circ_{\mathbf{C}^{op}} f = f \circ_{\mathbf{C}} 1_B = f;$$

hence the identities are “identities with respect to composition”. Last, for objects $A, B, C, D \in \text{Obj}(\mathbf{C})$ where $A \neq C$ and $B \neq D$, clearly $\text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}}(B, A) \cap \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}}(D, C) = \emptyset$ is true iff $\text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^{op}}(A, B) \cap \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^{op}}(C, D) = \emptyset$. Hence \mathbf{C}^{op} is a category. ■

Problem 3.2. If A is a finite set, how large is $\text{End}_{\text{Set}}(A)$?

Solution. The set $\text{End}_{\text{Set}}(A)$ is the set of functions $f : A \rightarrow A$. Since A is finite, write $|A| = n$ for some $n \in \mathbf{Z}$. By exercise 2.10, we know that $|A^A| = |A|^{|A|} = n^n$. So the the set $\text{End}_{\text{Set}}(A)$ has size n^n . ■

Problem 3.3. ▷ Formulate precisely what it means to say that 1_a is an identity with respect to composition in Example 3.3, and prove this assertion. [§3.2]

Solution. Let S be a set and \sim be a binary relation on the set S . Then, for elements $a, b \in S$, $\text{Hom}(a, b)$ is the pair $(a, b) \in S \times S$ if $a \sim b$, or \emptyset otherwise. Composition of morphisms (a, b) and (b, c) is simply the pair (a, c) , which captures the transitivity of \sim . We will say that $1_a = (a, a)$, for $a \in S$, is *an identity with respect to composition* if, for any $b \in S$, $(a, b)(a, a) = (a, b)$. Now, if $a \sim a$ and $a \sim b$, then trivially it is the case that $a \sim b$; hence $(a, b)(a, a) = (a, b)$, and 1_a is an identity w.r.t. composition as required. ■

Problem 3.4. Can we define a category in the style of Example 3.3 using the relation $<$ on the set \mathbf{Z} ?

Solution. No, we can't. This is because $<$ isn't reflexive: $x \not< x$ for any $x \in \mathbf{Z}$. ■

Problem 3.5. ▷ Explain in what sense Example 3.4 is an instance of the categories considered in Example 3.3. [§3.2]

Solution. Let S be a set. Example 3.4 considers the category \hat{S} with objects $\text{Obj}(\hat{S}) = \mathcal{P}(S)$ and morphisms $\text{Hom}_{\hat{S}}(A, B) = \{(A, B)\}$ if $A \subseteq B$ and \emptyset otherwise, for all sets $A, B \in \mathcal{P}$. The category \hat{S} is an instance of the categories explained in Example 3.3 because \subseteq is a reflexive and transitive operation on the power set of any set S . Indeed, for $X, Y, Z \subseteq S$, we have that $X \subseteq X$ and, if $X \subseteq Y$ and $Y \subseteq Z$, then if $x \in X$, then $x \in Y$ and $x \in Z$ so $X \subseteq Z$. ■

Problem 3.6. ▷ (Assuming some familiarity with linear algebra.) Define a category \mathbf{V} by taking $\text{Obj}(\mathbf{V}) = \mathbf{N}$ and letting $\text{Hom}_{\mathbf{V}}(m, n) =$ the set of $m \times n$ matrices with real entries, for all $m, n \in \mathbf{N}$. (We will leave the reader the task of making sense of a matrix with 0 rows or columns.) Use product of matrices to define composition. Does this category ‘feel’ familiar? [§VI.2.1, §VIII.1.3]

Solution. Yes! It is yet another instance of Example 3.3. The binary relation \sim on $\mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{N}$ holds for all values $(n, m) \in \mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{N}$, and means that a matrix of size $m \times n$ “can be built”. It is reflexive trivially. It is transitive trivially as well—a matrix of any size can be built. However, it would also hold, for example, if we had to in some sense “deduce” that a 3×3 matrix could be built using the fact that 3×1 and 1×3 matrices can be built. ■

Problem 3.7. \triangleright Define carefully the objects and morphisms in Example 3.7, and draw the diagram corresponding to composition. [§3.2]

Solution. Let \mathbf{C} be a category, and $A \in \mathbf{C}$. We want to define \mathbf{C}^A . Let $\text{Obj}(\mathbf{C}^A)$ include all morphisms $f \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}}(A, Z)$ for all $Z \in \text{Obj}(\mathbf{C})$. For any two objects $f, g \in \text{Obj}(\mathbf{C}^A)$, $f : A \rightarrow Z_1$ and $g : A \rightarrow Z_2$, we define the morphisms $\text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^A}(f, g)$ to be the morphisms $\sigma \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}}(Z_1, Z_2)$ such that $g = \sigma f$. Now we must check that these morphisms satisfy the axioms.

1. Let $f \in \text{Obj}(\mathbf{C}^A) \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}}(A, Z)$ for some object $Z \in \text{Obj}(\mathbf{C})$. Then there exists an identity morphism $1_Z \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}}(Z, Z)$ since \mathbf{C} is a category. This is a morphism such that $f = 1_Z f$, so $\text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^A}(f, f)$ is also nonempty.
2. Let $f, g, h \in \text{Obj}(\mathbf{C}^A)$ such that there are morphisms $\sigma \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^A}(f, g)$ and $\tau \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^A}(g, h)$. Then there is a morphism $v \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^A}(f, h)$, namely $\tau\sigma$, which exists because of morphism composition in \mathbf{C} . For clarity, we write that $f : A \rightarrow Z_1$, $g : A \rightarrow Z_2$, $h : A \rightarrow Z_3$, with $\sigma : Z_1 \rightarrow Z_2$ and $\tau : Z_2 \rightarrow Z_3$. We have $g = \sigma f$ and $h = \tau g$. Hence, $vf = \tau\sigma f = \tau g = h$ as required.
3. Lastly, let $f, g, h, i \in \text{Obj}(\mathbf{C}^A)$ with Z_1, Z_2, Z_3, Z_4 codomains respectively, and with $\sigma \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^A}(f, g)$, $\tau \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^A}(g, h)$, and $v \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}^A}(h, i)$. Since σ , τ , and v are morphisms in \mathbf{C} taking $Z_1 \rightarrow Z_2$, etc., morphism composition is associative; hence morphism composition is associative in \mathbf{C}^A as well.

■

Problem 3.8. \triangleright A *subcategory* \mathbf{C}' of a category \mathbf{C} consists of a collection of objects of \mathbf{C} , with morphisms $\text{Hom}'_{\mathbf{C}}(A, B) \subseteq \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}}(A, B)$ for all objects $A, B \in \text{Obj}(\mathbf{C}')$, such that identities and compositions in \mathbf{C} make \mathbf{C}' into a category. A subcategory \mathbf{C}' is *full* if $\text{Hom}'_{\mathbf{C}}(A, B) = \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}}(A, B)$ for all $A, B \in \text{Obj}(\mathbf{C}')$. Construct a category of *infinite sets* and explain how it may be viewed as a full subcategory of **Set**. [4.4, §VI.1.1, §VIII.1.3]

Solution. Let **InfSet** be a subcategory of **Set** with $\text{Obj}(\text{InfSet})$ being all infinite sets and $\text{Hom}_{\text{InfSet}}(A, B)$ for infinite sets A, B being the functions from A to B . Since $\text{Hom}_{\text{Set}}(A, B)$ is just the set of all functions from A to B and not, say, the set of all functions from subsets of A that are in $\text{Obj}(\text{Set})$ to B , **InfSet** is full since $\text{Hom}_{\text{InfSet}}(A, B) = \text{Hom}_{\text{Set}}(A, B)$ for all infinite sets $A, B \in \text{Obj}(\text{InfSet})$. ■

Problem 3.9. \triangleright An alternative to the notion of *multiset* introduced in §2.2 is obtained by considering sets endowed with equivalence relations; equivalent elements are taken to be multiple instance of elements ‘of the same kind’. Define a notion of morphism between such enhanced sets, obtaining a category **MSet** containing (a ‘copy’ of) **Set** as a full subcategory. (There may be more than one reasonable way to do this! This is intentionally an open-ended exercise.) Which objects in **MSet** determine ordinary multisets as defined in §2.2 and how? Spell out what a morphism of multisets would be from this point of view. (There are several natural

motions of morphisms of multisets. Try to define morphisms in \mathbf{MSet} so that the notion you obtain for ordinary multisets captures your intuitive understanding of these objects.) [§2.2, §3.2, 4.5]

Solution. Define $\text{Obj}(\mathbf{MSet})$ as all tuples (S, \sim) where S is a set and \sim is an equivalence relation on S . For two multisets $\hat{S} = (S, \sim), \hat{T} = (T, \approx) \in \text{Obj}(\mathbf{MSet})$, we define a morphism $f \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{MSet}}(\hat{S}, \hat{T})$ to be a set-function $f : S \rightarrow T$ such that, for $x, y \in S$, $x \sim y \implies f(x) \approx f(y)$, and morphism composition the same way as set-functions. Now we verify the axioms:

1. For a multiset (S, \sim) , we borrow the set-function $1_S : S \rightarrow S$ and note that it necessarily preserves equivalence, i.e. $x \sim y \implies 1_S(x) \sim 1_S(y)$.
2. Let there be objects $\hat{S} = (S, \sim), \hat{T} = (T, \approx), \hat{U} = (U, \cong)$ with morphisms $f \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{MSet}}(\hat{S}, \hat{T})$ and $g \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{MSet}}(\hat{T}, \hat{U})$. Note that $gf : S \rightarrow U$ is a set-function since \mathbf{Set} is a category. Now, since f is a morphism in \mathbf{MSet} , for $x, y \in S$, if $x \sim y$, then $f(x) \approx f(y)$, and since $f(x), f(y) \in T$ and g is a morphism in \mathbf{MSet} , $g(f(x)) \cong g(f(y))$.
3. Associativity can be proven similarly.

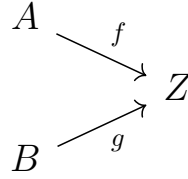
Hence \mathbf{MSet} as defined above is a category. Now, recall that multisets are defined in §2.2 as a set S and a *multiplicity function* $m : S \rightarrow \mathbf{N}$. So, for any set S and function $m : S \rightarrow \mathbf{N}$, if we define the equivalence relation corresponding to m as \sim_m then the tuple $(S, \sim_m) \in \text{Obj}(\mathbf{MSet})$. The objects in \mathbf{MSet} which *don't* correspond to any multiset as defined in §2.2 are sets S with equivalence relations \sim such that both S and \mathcal{P}_\sim are uncountable; this way, one cannot construct a function $m : S \rightarrow \mathbf{N}$ corresponding to each set in the partition \mathcal{P}_\sim , since \mathbf{N} is countable. ■

Problem 3.10. Since the objects of a category \mathbf{C} are not (necessarily) sets, it is not clear how to make sense of a notion of ‘subobject’ in general. In some situations it *does* make sense to talk about subobjects, and the subobjects of any given object A in \mathbf{C} are in one-to-one correspondence with the morphisms $A \rightarrow \Omega$ for a fixed, special object Ω of \mathbf{C} , called a *subobject classifier*. Show that \mathbf{Set} has a subobject classifier.

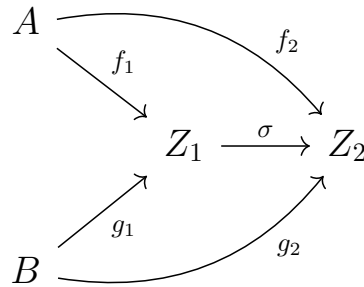
Solution. Let $A \in \text{Obj}(\mathbf{Set})$. Any set $X \subseteq A$ corresponds to a mapping $A \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$; the elements $x \in A$ that are also in X are mapped to 1, and the elements $x \in A$ that aren't in X are mapped to 0. Hence the “subobject classifier” for \mathbf{Set} is $\Omega = \{0, 1\}$. ■

Problem 3.11. ▷ Draw the relevant diagrams and define composition and identities for the category $\mathbf{C}^{A,B}$ mentioned in Example 3.9. Do the same for the category $\mathbf{C}^{\alpha,\beta}$ mentioned in Example 3.10. [§5.5, 5.12]

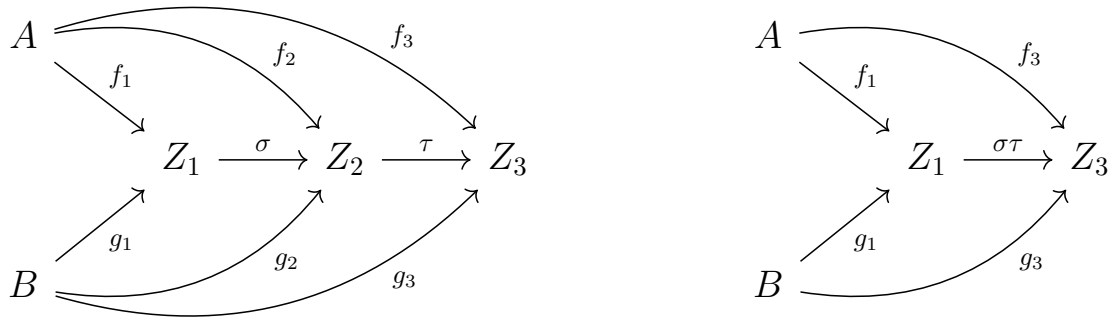
Solution. Let \mathbf{C} be a category, with $A, B \in \text{Obj}(\mathbf{C})$. The objects of $\mathbf{C}^{A,B}$ are then diagrams:



Namely, tuples (Z, f, g) where $Z \in \text{Obj}(\mathbf{C})$, $g \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}}(A, Z)$, and $f \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}}(B, Z)$. For objects $O_1 = (Z_1, f_1, g_1)$ and $O_2 = (Z_2, f_2, g_2)$ in $\text{Obj}(\mathbf{C}^{A,B})$, the morphisms between them are morphisms $\sigma \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{C}}(Z_1, Z_2)$ such that $f_1\sigma = f_2$ and $g_1\sigma = g_2$. This forms the following commutative diagram:



Given a third object $O_3 = (Z_3, f_3, g_3)$, with another morphism $\tau : O_2 \rightarrow O_3$ (which is a morphism from $Z_2 \rightarrow Z_3$), composition in $\mathbf{C}^{A,B}$ is defined the same way as composition in \mathbf{C} : $\sigma\tau : Z_1 \rightarrow Z_3$. Since σ and τ both commute (i.e. $f_1\sigma = f_2$, $g_1\sigma = g_2$, $f_2\tau = f_3$, and $g_2\tau = g_3$), then $\sigma\tau$ also commutes: $f_1\sigma\tau = f_2\tau = f_3$ and $g_1\sigma\tau = g_2\tau = g_3$. This is how we can define composition the same in $\mathbf{C}^{A,B}$ as in \mathbf{C} . Diagrammatically, this is like "taking away" the (Z_2, f_2, g_2) object in the joint commutative diagram for σ and τ :



■