Multiversity *Algebra Chapter 0* Reading Group

# Summaries

Chapter I)

Section 1) Explains fundamentals of set theory and basic set operations

Section 2) Explains set relations, set functions and some more advanced set operations

Section 3) Presents categories, and multiple examples of categories. Some are simple, some are advanced.

# Group Weekly Reports

Week 1 : Today we mostly talked about the first chapter first section’s reading; going over the vocabulary term by term (see the lexicon on the github repo), and going more in depth over certain concepts (particularly relating to set relations). We also saw a bit of a "teaser" of how these notions are used. We did not go over the exercises since not everyone had done them.

Week 2 : Today we continued on discussing the first chapter, it was mostly freeform. We mostly talked about foundations of set theory (mostly stemming from the discussion of exercise 1 on russell’s paradox), why we use function notation the way we do, and about some of the operators over sets themselves (including through some examples from linear algebra and things like the subobject classifier which is seen at the end of section 3).

Week 3 : Today we finished discussing the first chapter. We went over all exercises. We mostly spoke about equivalence relations and partitions. We also spoke about the geometry/topology of quotients of sets by equivalence relations. This was naturally related to exercises 1.2 to 1.7.

Week 4 : We went over monomorphisms and epimorphisms in more depth. We corrected exercises 2.1 to 2.3 (included)

Week 5 : We went in depth over the distinction between isomorphisms and bijections (foreshadowing a bunch of category theory while we were at it) and corrected exercises 2.4 and 2.5.

Week 6 : We went in depth over the notion of section. We corrected exercises 2.6 and 2.7. For the latter exercise, we understood Tristan’s solution by ourselves ! (written by Amric)

# Lexicon

## Chapter 1

### Section 1

* Set (not a multiset)
* ∅: the empty set, containing no elements;
* N: the set of natural numbers (that is, nonnegative integers);
* Z: the set of integers;
* Q: the set of rational numbers;
* R: the set of real numbers;
* C: the set of complex numbers.
* Singleton:
* ∃: existential quantifier, "there exists"
* ∀: universal quantifier, "for all"
* inclusion:
* subset:
* cardinal:
* powerset:
* ∪: the union:
* ∩: the intersection:
* $\\$: the difference:
* : the disjoint union:
* ×: the (Cartesian) product:
* complement of a subset
* relation
* order relation
* equivalence relation
* reflexivity
* symmetry
* antisymmetry
* transitivity
* partition
* quotient by an equivalence relation

### Section 2

* function
* graph
* (categorical, function) diagram
* identity function
* kernel (of a function)
* image (of a function)
* restriction (of a function to a subset)
* multiset
* composition
* commutative (diagram)
* injection
* surjection
* bijection
* isomorphism
* inverse
* pre-inverse, right-inverse
* post-inverse, left-inverse
* monomorphism
* epimorphism
* natural projection
* natural injection
* canonical decomposition (of a function)

### Section 3

* category
* object
* morphism
* endomorphism
* operation
* discrete category
* small category
* locally small category
* slice category
* coslice category
* comma category (mentioned, undefined)
* pointed set
* category ??

# Exercise solutions

## Chapter I)

### Section 1)

#### 1.1)

In a nutshell, Russell’s paradox proves, by contradiction, that certain mathematical collections cannot be sets. It posits the existence of a "set of all sets that don’t contain themselves". Such a set can neither contain itself (since in that case, it would be a "set that does contain itself", and should be excluded); nor can it exclude it itself (since in that case, it would be a "set that doesn’t contain itself", and should be included).

#### 1.2)

Prove that any equivalence relation over a set defines a partition of .

a) has no empty elements: any element in is part of at least one equivalence class, the class containing at least that element itself. Since there is no equivalence class constructed independently from elements, there are no empty equivalence classes.

b) Elements of are disjoint: suppose there is an element that is part of and , two distinct equivalence classes. and . By transivity through , . Therefore, and are the same equivalence class: . Contradiction. Therefore all elements of are disjoint subsets of .

c) The union of all elements of makes up : suppose such that . From the argument made in (a), exists in at least one equivalence class, the class which contains only itself. This is one of ou sets. Contradiction. Therefore,

#### 1.3)

Given a partition on a set , show how to define a relation on such that is the corresponding partition.

The insight here is to build an equivalence relation such that two elements are equivalent if and only if they are part of the same subset of , which is understood as their common equivalence class.

We define such that .

Let us prove that is an equivalence relation.

a) Reflexivity:

b) Symmetry:

c) Transitivity:

Therefore, is indeed an equivalence relation, and is generated uniquely by the partition.

#### 1.4)

How many different equivalence relations may be defined on the set ?

If we start with the 1 element set, we have only one possible partition, one possible equivalence class.

With the 2 element set, there are 2 partitions, and .

With the 3 element set, there is:

* 1 partition of type 1-1-1: .
* 3 partitions of type 2-1: , , and .
* 1 partition of type 3: .

Hence, there are five equivalence classes on the 3 element set.

See the Bell numbers: https://oeis.org/A000110

#### 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?

Let’s imagine a "similarity relation" we can notate with . We can imagine it to work like a looser version of equality (say for example, if an integer is only away, then it counts as similar).

* reflexive: (an element is always "similar" to itself)
* symmetric: ("similarity" goes both ways)
* not transitive: (just because and are similar, that doesn’t mean works, because it is possible for the "similarity gap" to be too large to qualify as "similar". E.g.: .).

If we use this to define a partition on some set : , there is ambiguity as to which element should go into which equivalence class.

This idea deserves further discussion.

In terms of graph theory, if we express a set with an internal relation as a graph, we can represent elements as nodes and relationships as edges. Reflexivity means that every node has a loop (unary, self-edge). Symmetry means that the graph is not directed (since every relationship goes both ways). Transitivity means that every connected subset of nodes is a maximal clique (synonymously, every connected component is a complete subgraph).

In a relation which is reflexive and symmetric, but not transitive, you would have connected components of this graph which are not cliques. For these, there is ambiguity as to how you would group their nodes. Two obvious choices would be either:

* to remove the minimal number of edges to obtain n distinct cliques (thereby gaining the *transitive restriction* of the relation) from a given non-clique; or
* to complete the connected subgraph into a clique (thereby gaining the *transitive closure* of the relation).

#### 1.6)

Define a relation on the set of real numbers, by setting . Prove that this is an equivalence relation, and find a ’compelling’ description for . Do the same for the relation on the plane defined by declaring .

TODO: forgot to prove that it’s an equivalence relation

means that 2 real numbers differ by an integral amount. This means that the equivalence relation algebraically describes the idea that "with this relation, 2 real numbers are the same iff they have the same fractional component (or for negative numbers)". Eg, , since , etc.

To make an algebraic quotient of a set by an equivalence relation, we take the function which maps each element to its corresponding equivalence class, in the set (partition) containing these equivalence class. Intuitively, this is similar to keeping only one representative element per equivalence class. For the example class above, we can keep the representative . There is such an equivalence class for every fractional part possible, that is, one for every number in . The corresponding map is the "real remainder of division modulo 1". This map is well-defined because each real number has only one output for this map, and all real numbers that are equivalent through are mapped to the same value in the output set.

We should also notice that since , this space loops around on itself. Intuitively, if you increase linearly in the input space , it goes back to after in the output space. This output space is thus a circle of perimeter .

Similarly, means that 2 points in the 2D plane are the same iff they differ in each coordinate by an integral amount. This boils down to combining two such loops from the first part of the exercise: one in the direction and one in the direction: what this gives is the small square , which loops to (resp. ) when (resp. ) is reached. This space functions like a small torus, of area .

### Section 2)

#### 2.1)

How many different bijections are there between a set with elements and itself?

Any bijection is a choice of a pairs from 2 sets of the same size, where each element is used only once, and each pair has one element from each set. At first there are choices in each set. We go through each possible input element in order (no choice), for each one, we pick one amongst possibilities for an output.

There are then choice of output left, etc.

Ccl°:

#### 2.2)

Prove that a function has a right-inverse (pre-inverse) iff it is surjective (can use AC).

Let .

##### 2.2.a)

Suppose that has a right-inverse (pre-inverse). We have

Suppose that is not a surjection. This means

Necessarily, is such an , so . Contradiction.

Ccl°:: f is a surjection.

##### 2.2.b)

Suppose that f is a surjection.

We will construct a pre-inverse for .

The insight here is to realize that a surjection divides its input set into a partition, where each 2-by-2 disjoint subset corresponds to , for every in the output set. More formally, each "fiber" (preimage of a singleton) is a disjoint subset of the input set, and the union of fibers is the input set itself. You can see this in the following diagram:

(add diagram) 1234 to ab 1a 2a (fiber from a) 3b 4b (fiber from b) https://tex.stackexchange.com/questions/157450/producing-a-diagram-showing-relations-between-sets https://tex.stackexchange.com/questions/79009/drawing-the-mapping-of-elements-for-sets-in-latex

Using AC, we select a single element from each such fiber. For each , we name the chosen element. We define as . With this, , and so . Thus, has a preinverse.

A summary of this idea: all surjection preinverses are simply a choice of a representative for each fiber of the surjection as the output to the respective singleton.

#### 2.3)

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

##### 2.3.a)

Using the fact that a function is a bijection iff it has a two-sided inverse (Corollary 2.2) we can see from this defining fact, that is naturally ’s (unique) two-sided inverse, and so is also a bijection.

##### 2.3.b)

Let be , both bijective (hence with inverses in the respective function spaces). Let and . We have:

Therefore and are two-sided inverses of each other, and thus bijections. From this we conclude that the composition of any two bijections is also a bijection.

#### 2.4)

Prove that ‘isomorphism’ is an equivalence relation (on any set of sets).

##### 2.4.a) Problem statement

Let be a set of sets. We define the relation between the elements of as the following:

Let us show that is an equivalence relation.

##### 2.4.b) Reflexivity

For any set , the identity mapping on is a bijection. This means that , ie, is reflexive.

##### 2.4.c) Symmetry

Therefore, is symmetric.

##### 2.4.d) Transitivity

Let be . Suppose that and . This means , both bijections. Let be . is also a bijection since the composition of two bijections is also a bijection (exercise 2.3).

The existence of implies .

Therefore is transitive.

##### 2.4.e) Conclusion

Isomorphism, , is a relation on an arbitrary set (of sets) which is always reflexive, symmetric and transitive. It is thus an equivalence relation.

#### 2.5)

Formulate a notion of epimorphism and prove that epimorphisms and surjections are equivalent.

See "notes" file: section "Proofs of mono/inj and epi/surj equivalence".

#### 2.6)

With notation as in Example 2.4, explain how any function determines a section of .

A section is the preinverse of a surjection. Here, the surjection in question is the projection of onto .

Let .

We now consider the function which maps an input of to its "geometric representation" (its coordinates in the enclosing space , corresponding to a point of the graph ).

We notice that .

Naturally, , therefore, is a pre-inverse (section) of .

This set of relationships can be expressed in the following commutative diagram:

PS: see "On sections and fibers" in the "notes" file for a worked example.

#### 2.7)

Let be any function. Prove that the graph of is isomorphic to .

Using the elements from the previous exercise, we know that is injective from into . This property is inherited to any restriction of the codomain , and corresponding implied restriction of the domain to . In particular, here, and . We now consider . We can see that is injective from being a restriction of an injective function to a smaller codomain. We also know that is surjective, since its domain is its image. Therefore, is a bijection. This means that .

#### 2.8)

Describe as explicitly as you can all terms in the canonical decomposition of the function defined by . (This exercise matches one assigned previously, which one?)

Firstly, elements of are equivalent by this map (they have the same output) if they vary by from each other. This is a reference to the equivalence relation in exercise 1.6. Therefore, we will use in our decomposition. Obviously, the map from , which maps each element of to respective their equivalence class is a surjection (since there’s no empty equivalence class).

Secondly, as mentioned, we have a bijection between and , the circle group of unit complex numbers, namely , where each element of can be understood to correspond to a (class representative) value in the interval .

Finally, we do the canonical injection of into its superset .

#### 2.9)

Show that if and , and further and , then . Conclude that the operation (as described in §1.4) is well-defined up to isomorphism.

We suppose the aforementioned.

Let be a bijection from , and be a bijection from .

We define the following:

This function is a well-defined function, since : every element of the domain has one, and only one, possible image.

Similarly, we define:

Similarly, because , is well-defined.

Let us study . We have:

Hence, . Similarly, . Therefore, , is a bijection, and .

We’ll now do a shift in notation. Let be some arbitrary sets and . Let be such that , , , and . This means , , , and . It also means and . From the above, this implies .

This means that the disjoint union of and is indeed well-defined, up to isomorphism: so long as 2 respective copies of and are made in a way that their intersection is empty, the 2 respective unions of 1 copy each will be isomorphic.

#### 2.10)

Show that if and are finite sets, then .

The number of functions in can be counted in the following way.

For each element of , of which there are , we can pick any element of as the image. This means , a total of times. Hence, .

#### 2.11)

In view of Exercise 2.10, it is not unreasonable to use to denote the set of functions from an arbitrary set to a set with elements (say ). Prove that there is a bijection between and the power set of .

Simply put, every subset of is built through a series of choices: for each element in , do we keep the element in our subset (output ) or do we remove it (output ) ? It is then easy to see that such a series of choices can easily be encoded as a unique function in . The totality of such series of choices thus corresponds both to the space , and to the powerset , and there is a bijection between the two.

### Section 3)

#### 3.1)

Let be a category. Consider a structure with: - ; - for , objects of (hence, objects of ), Show how to make this into a category.

##### 3.1.a) Composition

First, to make things clearer and more rigorous, let us distinguish composition in as and composition in as . We define as:

We will now show that with verifies the other axioms of a category (namely identity and assossiativity of composition).

##### 3.1.b) Identity

Since is a category, since has the same objects, and since, by definition, for all object , we have , we can take every as the same identity in . We can verify that this is compatible with :

##### 3.1.c) Associativity

Using associativity in , we have:

Therefore, is associative.

We conclude that is a category.

#### 3.2)

If is a finite set, how large is ?

We know that, in Set, . From a previous exercise, we know that , therefore .

#### 3.3)

Formulate precisely what it means to say that " is an identity with respect to composition" in Example 3.3, and prove this assertion.

Example 3.3 is that of a category over a set with a (reflexive, transitive) relation , where the objects of the category are the elements of , and the homset between two elements and is the singleton if , and otherwise. Composition is given by transitivity of , where . Reflexivity gives the identities ( for any element ).

In this context, to say that " is an identity with respect to composition" means that we can cancel out an element of the form from a composition.

Formally, we have:

proving that is indeed a post-identity, and a pre-identity, in this context.

#### 3.4)

Can we define a category in the style of Example 3.3, using the relation on the set ?

(Description of example 3.3 in the exercise 3.3 just above.)

Naively, saying like in example 3.3 "there is a singleton homset each time we have ", we cannot define such a category, since is not reflexive, and we would thus lack identity morphisms.

However, in a roundabout way, we can define a category over the *negation* of : "there is a singleton homset each time we DO NOT have ". Namely this corresponds to the relation , which is, itself, reflexive, transitive (and antisymmetric), and is a valid instance of the kind of category presented in example 3.3.

In fact, the pair is an instance of what is called a "totally ordered set", which is a more restrictive kind of "partially ordered set" (also called "poset" for short). Consequently, this kind of category is called a "poset category".

#### 3.5)

Explain in what sense Example 3.4 is an instance of the categories considered in Example 3.3.

(Description of example 3.3 in the exercise 3.3 just above.)

Example 3.4 describes a category where the objects are the subsets of a set (equivalently: elements of the powerset of ), and morphisms between two subsets and of are singleton (or empty) homsets based on whether the inclusion is true (or false).

Inclusion of sets, , is also an order relation, this time between the elements of a set of sets (here, ). This means inclusion is reflexive, transitive, and antisymmetric. This makes a poset category, and thus another instance of example 3.3.

#### 3.6)

Define a category by taking , and , the set of matrices with real entries, for all . (I will leave the reader the task to make sense of a matrix with 0 rows or columns.) Use product of matrices to define composition. Does this category ’feel’ familiar ?

The formulation of the exercise is strange. It says to use the product of matrices to define composition, and to have homsets be sets of matrices, but objects of the category are supposed to be integers. I don’t know of any matrix with real entries that maps an integer to an integer in this way.

We thus infer that the meaning of the exercise can be one of two things.

Either we suppose the set of objects could rather be understood as "something isomorphic to ", ie, the collection of real vector spaces with finite bases (ie, ). In which case, this is just the category of real vector spaces with finite basis (and linear maps as morphisms), which is a subcategory of the category real vector spaces (commonly called ). In this context, any morphism starting from is just the injection of the origin into the codomain; and any morphism ending at is the mapping of all elements to the origin.

Otherwise, we understand this as "yes, the objects of the category are integers: this means you should ignore the actual content of the matrices, and instead consider only their effect on the dimensionality of domains and codomains". In this case, this category is a complete directed graph over where each edge corresponds to the change in dimension (from domain to codomain) caused by a given linear map.

#### 3.7)

Define carefully objects and morphisms in Example 3.7, and draw the diagram corresponding to composition.

Example 3.7 (on coslice categories) refers to example 3.5 (on slice categories). Let’s go over slice categories (since example 3.5 asks the reader to "check all [their various properties]").

##### 3.7.1) Slice categories

Slice categories are categories made by singling out an object (say ) in some parent (larger) category (say ), and studying all morphisms into that object. These morphisms become the objects of a new category (ie, for any of , is an object of the slice category, called in this context). In the slice category, morphisms are defined as those morphism in that preserve composition between 2 morphisms into .

Note that there exist pairs of morphisms and between which there is no morphism that exists in the slice category. One such example we can make is in . If we take the maps:

There exists no map such that the following diagram commutes (since the output of will always be null in its second coordinate, and the output of will always be null in the first):

Now, let us prove that is indeed a category for an arbitrary object of an arbitrary category .

3.7.1.a) Identity

A generic identity morphism is expressed diagrammatically in as:

We can see that since in , this is compatible with the definition of a (pre-/right-)unit morphism in . Also, since the only maps post- are maps from , we have as the (post-/left-)unit for every morphism (ie, .

3.7.1.b) Composition

Taking 3 objects of the slice category (, and ), and two morphisms ( mapping to via a -morphism , and mapping to via a -morphism ), we have that and . This is expressed as the following commutative diagram.

Composition of morphisms is then defined as as a mapping from to , such that . This can be understood through the following commutative diagram:

Which commutes, because we have:

Thus, we have a working composition of morphisms.

3.7.1.c) Associativity

We take 4 objects of the slice category (, , and ), and three morphisms ( mapping to , mapping to , and mapping to ). Using composition defined as above, we have

Through associativity in .

##### 3.7.2) Coslice categories

A coslice category is similar, except it takes the morphisms coming *from* a chosen object , rather than those going *to* this object . Below is a commutative diagram in the style of the one of the textbook for slice categories.

We can similarly show that this also defines a category.

3.7.2.a) Identity

A generic identity morphism is expressed diagrammatically in as:

We can see that since in , this is compatible with the definition of a (post-/left-)unit morphism in . Also, since the only maps pre- are maps from , we have as the (pre-/right-)unit for every morphism (ie, .

3.7.2.b) Composition

Taking 3 objects of the slice category (, and ), and two morphisms ( mapping to via a -morphism , and mapping to via a -morphism ), we have that and . This is expressed as the following commutative diagram.

Composition of morphisms is then defined as as a mapping from to , such that . This can be understood through the following commutative diagram:

Which commutes, because we have:

Thus, we have a working composition of morphisms.

3.7.2.c) Associativity

We take 4 objects of the slice category (, , and ), and three morphisms ( mapping to , mapping to , and mapping to ). Using composition defined as above, we have

Through associativity in .

#### 3.8)

A subcategory of a category consists of a collection of objects of , with morphisms for all objects , in , such that identities and compositions in make into a category. A subcategory is *full* if for all , in . Construct a category of *infinite sets* and explain how it may be viewed as a full subcategory of .

To put it less technically, a "subcategory" is just "picking only certain items of a base category , and making sure that things stay closed uneder morphism composition". It is "full" if *all* morphisms between the objects that remain are also conserved.

We can construct a category of infinite sets by taking all the objects of such that , and only homsets between these objects. This is clearly a subcategory of , since it inherits all identity morphisms, composition works the same, and so does associativity; also, restricting the choice of homsets makes it so that the category is closed (you can’t reach a finite set via a homset that went from an infinite to a finite set).

For this category to not be full, there would need to be some homset that loses a morphism, or fully disappears, in the ordeal. However, there is no restriction as to the kind of morphism that is conserved, so any homset that is kept is identical to its original version. Finally, homsets between infinite sets are also infinite sets, so they don’t disappear in this operation.

Consequently defined as such is a full subcategory of .

#### 3.9)

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 instances of elements ’of the same kind’. Define a notion of morphism between such enhanced sets, obtaining a category containing (a ’copy’ of) 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 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 notions of morphisms of multisets. Try to define morphisms in MSet so that the notion you obtain for ordinary multisets captures your intuitive understanding of these objects.) [§2.2, §3.2, 4.5]

Let us recall how multisets were defined in §2.2. Since duplicate elements do not exist in sets, multisets were instead defined as functions from a set to , the set of (nonzero) positive integers. This allows each element in to have a "count", thereby encoding the intuitive notion of multiset. A similar, and equivalent (isomorphic), way of defining it is *via* pairs , which is simpler to think about. We’ll call this category , for "count multiset" (TODO: probably has a conventional and better name, but I don’t know it). As for morphisms in , we can consider that for any multisets and , the homset from to is simply the set functions from to as usual.

We first notice that if we restrict to only the objects for which all elements have a count of , and where morphisms only ever output to in the second coordinate (a subcategory we can call , for example), we get a "copy" of : and are isomorphic in . This is a full subcategory because there are no morphisms that map counts to anything else than if we restrict our objects to this form; so all morphisms between the kept objects are also kept.

Now let us do a similar construction, but based on equivalence classes instead. We know that each equivalence class over a set corresponds uniquely to a partition of that set. By considering only these partitions (these "sets of sets") as objects, we can build a category (for "equivalence multiset"). The "count" corresponds simply to the cardinal of a top-level element in the partition. For example, the top-level elements of would be understood to have counts , and respectively.

As for morphisms in , they simply map each top-level element of the domain multiset (a distinct subset of the original set) to some other top-level elements in the codomain multiset. This has precisely the same effect as mapping pairs of "value and count" as seen in the previous construction.

In this example, any set itself, when "injected" (by a functor) into would just nest all of its elements into singletons. I.e., in would become in . This also shows how restricting to "only objects that are a set of (toplevel) singletons" makes have a "copy" of as a full subcategory (for similar arguments as above).

Yet another example could be something akin to polynomials with integer coefficients on freeform indeterminates of degree 1 (which would be our set elements); raising the operators one rank, a product of freeform variables with integer powers (multiplicities), etc.

#### 3.10)

Since the objects of a category 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 in are in one-to-one correspondence with the morphisms for a fixed, special object of , called a subobject classifier. Show that has a subobject classifier.

We define the set , aka the binary alphabet or booleans, as the subobject classifier of . For any subset of , there is a unique map , such that (otherwise , of course, as the equivalence and lack of alternatives to as an output imply). The map always fully describes from its relationship with .

#### 3.11)

Draw the relevant diagrams and define composition and identities for the category mentioned in Example 3.9. Do the same for the category mentioned in Example 3.10. [§5.5, 5.12]

For lack of a better term, we will refer to the categories of the form represented by Example 3.9 as "bi-slice categories". The first part of the exercise is thus asking us to define and explain what "bi-coslice categories" (of the form ) are.

Similarly, we will refer to the categories of the form represented by Example 3.10 as "fibered bi-slice categories". The second part of the exercise is thus asking us to define and explain what "fibered bi-coslice categories" (of the form ) are.

We will, of course, attempt to make more formal and pedagogical all definitions broached in the textbook’s examples as well.

##### 3.11.1) Bi-slice categories

3.11.1.a) Objects and morphisms

To make a bi-slice category , we pick 2 objects and of a base category , and consider for all other objects of , all pairs of morphisms . These pairs of morphisms are the objects of the bi-slice category . Morphisms are defined from an object to an object so that we have both and , for some .

A generic object in is of the form:

3.11.1.b) Morphisms

Morphisms are defined between objects as

such that the following diagram commutes

3.11.1.c) Identity

It is clear that identity morphisms exist for all objects, simply by taking , , and , in the diagram above.

3.11.1.d) Composition

Let be 3 objects of , which we will name , and (and define with the respective triplet for ).

Composition of two morphisms and is defined so that the following diagram commutes.

3.11.1.e) Associativity

Associativity follows from associativity of morphisms in , similarly to what was done for slice categories in exercise 3.7 .

##### 3.11.2) Bi-coslice categories

3.11.2.a) Objects and morphisms

To make a bi-coslice category , we similarly pick 2 objects and of our base category , but instead consider, for all other objects of , all pairs of morphisms .

A generic object in is of the form:

3.11.2.b) Morphisms

Morphisms are defined between objects as

such that the following diagram commutes

3.11.2.c) Identity

It is clear that identity morphisms exist for all objects, simply by taking , , and , in the diagram above.

3.11.2.d) Composition

Let be 3 objects of , which we will name , and (and define with the respective triplet for ).

Composition of two morphisms and is defined so that the following diagram commutes.

3.11.2.e) Associativity

Associativity follows from associativity of morphisms in , similarly to what was done for slice categories in exercise 3.7 .

##### 3.11.3) Fibered bi-slice categories

3.11.3.a) Objects

To build a fibered bi-slice category , one takes a base category , as well as a fixed pair of morphisms and in , that point to a common object of . Our basic "fixed construct" from looks like so:

The role of the category is now to study the morphisms into this construct. A generic object from this new category looks like so:

such that the diagram commutes. This means that valid object in are triplets , with and , such that . In a caricatural way, this boils down to studying "the comparison of the different paths one can use to reach , knowing that the last steps are on one hand, , and on the other, ".

3.11.3.b) Morphisms

Morphisms are defined between objects as:

such that the following diagram commutes

3.11.3.c) Identity

Once again, it is clear that identity morphisms exist for all objects, simply by taking , , and , in the diagram above.

3.11.3.d) Composition

Let be 3 objects of , which we will name , and (and define with the respective triplet for ).

Composition of two morphisms and is defined so that the following diagram commutes.

3.11.3.e) Associativity

Associativity follows from associativity of morphisms in , similarly to what was done for slice categories in exercise 3.7 .

##### 3.11.4) Fibered bi-coslice categories

3.11.4.a) Objects

To build a fibered bi-coslice category , one takes a base category , as well as a fixed pair of morphisms and in , that originate from a common object of . Our basic "fixed construct" from looks like so:

The role of the category is now to study the morphisms from this construct. A generic object from this new category looks like so:

such that the diagram commutes. This means that valid object in are triplets , with and , such that . In a caricatural way, this boils down to studying "the comparison of the different paths one can build by starting from , knowing that the choice of first step is on one hand, , and on the other, ".

3.11.4.b) Morphisms

Morphisms are defined between objects as:

such that the following diagram commutes

3.11.4.c) Identity

Once again, it is clear that identity morphisms exist for all objects, simply by taking , , and , in the diagram above.

3.11.4.d) Composition

Let be 3 objects of , which we will name , and (and define with the respective triplet for ).

Composition of two morphisms and is defined so that the following diagram commutes.

3.11.4.e) Associativity

Associativity follows from associativity of morphisms in , similarly to what was done for slice categories in exercise 3.7 .

### Section 4)

#### 4.1)

Composition is defined for *two* morphisms. If more than 2 morphisms are given, one may compose them in several ways, so that every step only consists in composing 2 morphisms. Prove that for any such valid sequence of morphisms, the order of parentheses doesn’t matter.

This boils down to showing that associativity is a global property, that doesn’t just make parentheses meaningless when there are 3 elements and 2 operators between them, but in general elements with operators between them.

Note: A useful way of visualizing this is representing the order of operations as a binary tree, and noticing that applying associativity (forwards or backwards) is just a tree rotation (resp. right or left) at a given node. Then it is easy to show that one can always obtain a "left comb binary tree". Since every choice of parentheses is equal to this left comb choice, and equality is transitive, every choice of parentheses is equal to every other choice.

To be more rigorous, we will proceed by induction.

Hypothesis: = "for a given , for any valid, composable, ordered sequence of morphisms in our base category , any choice of parentheses to compose elements of this sequence 2-by-2, giving a formula , will lead to the same result, which can be seen by always having ".

Initialization: We initialize at ; the validity is immediate as it is precisely the definition of associativity.

Heredity: We suppose the hypothesis true for a given ; let us show that this implies that the hypothesis is true for .

What this means is that, no matter the composable ordered sequence of functions, for a fixed , the order of parentheses does not matter. Note that though is chosen and fixed; the statement is true for EVERY (ordered, composable) sequence of functions. We add a new function to this sequence. By a simple renaming of the functions, we deduce that it doesn’t matter where we insert , so we’ll insert it at the very right to simplify our argument, giving us the sequence .

Here, there are 3 cases. Either:

* is part of the last composition (i.e., it’s not in a semantically necessary parenthethical grouping; it can be made external to all parentheses),
* is part of the first composition (i.e., the first operation is )
* it isn’t either (it’s inside some non-removable parentheses, and needs to be composed earlier on, but not as the first operation).

If is part of the last composition, then by applying the hypothesis to the terms , we immediately find that our new sequence can be made equal to , which is precisely what we wanted for .

If is part of the first composition, we isolate it so that it isn’t anymore. To do so, we apply "backwards" associativity on the grouping of terms in order to obtain , where is the appropriate choice of such that associativity can be applied (with ). This makes it so that our problem is identical to our final case, solved just below.

If is part of neither the first nor last composition, then we consider the innermost composition to be a single element . We now have a sequence of only terms. We apply our hypothesis . This makes the outermost right term, part of the last composition. Unravelling back into two members, we see that we are back at our initial case, with an arbitrary order of parentheses for the terms, and outermost. We already saw that this implied .

Conclusion: since we have initialization and heredity of our hypothesis in all cases, we can conclude by induction that it is true for all .

#### 4.2)

In Example 3.3 we have seen how to construct a category from a set endowed with a relation, provided the latter is reflexive and transitive. For what types of relations is the corresponding category a groupoid (cf. Example 4.6) ?

We remind example 4.6 : a groupoid is a category in which every morphism is an isomorphism. This means that every morphism needs to be 2-way invertible.

In this context, this means that for every morphism , there should be a corresponding inverse morphism . This property is precisely the symmetry of a relation.

This means that all sets with an equivalence relation can be reconstructed into a groupoid.

#### 4.3)

Let , be objects of a category , and a morphism. Prove that if has a pre-inverse, then is an epimorphism. Show that the converse does not hold, by giving an explicit example of a category and an epimorphism without a pre-inverse.

##### 4.3.a)

has a pre-inverse is an epimorphism

Let be a category. Let , having some pre-inverse which we’ll call :

Let be an arbitrary object of , and $\beta', \beta" \in Hom\_{\mathcal{C}} (B, Z)$:

This means that is an epimorphism.

##### 4.3.b)

is an epimorphism $\;\not\!\!\!\Rightarrow$ has a pre-inverse

As was mentioned in the text, "order" categories (poset categories) where there’s only at most one morphism between any two objects makes it so that every morphism is trivially an epimorphism. However, only identities have any kind of inverse (since they are isomorphisms, they are their own inverse).

See also [here](https://ncatlab.org/nlab/show/partial+order) and [here](https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/81123/examples-of-categories-where-epimorphism-does-not-have-a-right-inverse-not-surj).

#### 4.4)

Prove that the composition of two monomorphisms is a monomorphism. Deduce that one can define a subcategory of a category by taking the same objects as in , and defining to be the subset of consisting of monomorphisms, for all objects , . (Cf. Exercise 3.8; of course, in general is not full in .) Do the same for epimorphisms. Can you define a subcategory of by restricting to morphisms that are not monomorphisms?

##### 4.4.a)

Mono

Let be and be monomorphisms. Let us show that is also a monomorphism.

Let be an arbitrary object of , and $\alpha', \alpha" \in Hom\_{\mathcal{A}} (Z, A)$:

This means that the composition of 2 monomorphisms is always an monomorphism. We can thus make a subcategory. Taking all objects, properties, and homsets of , but restricting the homsets only to the monomorphisms, we know that this makes a new category since it is closed under composition, has identities (which are iso, and *a fortiori* mono) and associativity.

##### 4.4.b)

Epi

Let be and be epimorphisms. Let us show that is also a epimorphism.

Let be an arbitrary object of , and $\beta', \beta" \in Hom\_{\mathcal{C}} (C, Z)$:

This means that the composition of 2 epimorphisms is always an epimorphism. We can thus make a subcategory. Taking all objects, properties, and homsets of , but restricting the homsets only to the epimorphisms, we know that this makes a new category since it is closed under composition, has identities (which are iso, and *a fortiori* epi) and associativity.

##### 4.4.c)

Nonmono and nonepi

We could consider the fact that (TODO prove lol) we can’t obtain a monomorphism from the composition of two non-monomorphisms (you need at least one monomorphism in the mix). However, the real problem is identities. Identities are iso, and thus mono. You can’t make a category without identities, so there is no such . the same reasoning applies to .

#### 4.5)

Give a concrete description of monomorphisms and epimorphisms in the category you constructed in Exercise 3.9. (Your answer will depend on the notion of morphism you defined in that exercise!)

We’ll use our construction, where elements of multisets consisted of a pair of the set-element and its count in the multiset.

We recall that in the way we formulated this, morphisms were just simple set functions on "(element, count)" pairs (i.e., returning any other "(element, count)" pair of the codomain). Let be a morphism of multisets . Labelling the elements of the domain as and of the codomain as with , , and any two indexing sets such that and , we can see that and now just look like "normal" sets.

We now simply recycle the notion of injections and surjections. These form our monomorphisms and epimorphisms respectively.

# Extra exercises by/for the group

### Chapter I) 1) Set notation)

Write the following in set notation (as a list of numbers, and algebraically):

* the set of all odd integers
* the set of all integers that are not multiples of 3
* the set of integers from 10 (included) to 20 (included)
* the set of integers from 10 (included) to 20 (excluded)
* the set of pairs of integers with both elements of the same value
* the set of triplets of real numbers that together sum to 1
* the set of pairs of positive real numbers that together sum to 1
* the set of -tuplets (for any ) of real number that together sum to 1
* the set of all natural numbers such that there exists at least one triplet of positive even numbers which are all different and which sum to that number.

Now take the sets in their algebraic notation, and represent them both as a list of numbers (as a logical sequence or just a couple of examples), and as a "description" of what they are:

# Notes

## Chapter 1, Section 1

Go check out the extra exercises on set notation.

## Chapter 1, Section 2

### On injections and surjections

#### Injections

Injections (which aren’t also surjections) have multiple left-inverses (post-inverses). Eg:

It is precisely the free element with no antecedent in (here, ) which leaves room for multiple choices, but doesn’t affect the overall inversion process.

#### Surjections

Surjections (which aren’t also injections) have multiple right-inverses (pre-inverses), called sections.

It is precisely the fact that there are multiple elements that map to the same element (here, and to ) which leaves room for multiple choices, but doesn’t affect the overall inversion process.

#### Cancellations

Function Cancellation Lemma: If a composition of functions cancels out, then the first of the pair is an injection, and the second of the pair is a surjection. Algebraically:

Corollary 1: any post-inverse of an injection is a surjection.

Corollary 2: any pre-inverse of a surjection is an injection.

Proof: Let be

a) Suppose is not an injection. This means:

However, with such an , we have:

This means that is an injection. Contradiction.

Conclusion: in this context, must be an injection.

b) Suppose is not a surjection. This means:

Since , that means that , this means that . Contradiction.

Conclusion: in this context, must be a surjection.

### On sections and fibers

Section example with a tangent bundle.

Consider the cylinder , and the function , the projection onto the circle. The cylinder is itself the space in which one can easily represent maps of . Each such map corresponds to a section.

Let be

We have

(TODO add diagrams for S1xR, g1 and g2)

A fiber is the preimage of a singleton. In the case of above, for every , is the copy of the real line on the cylinder that passes by .

(TODO add diagram)

### Alternative characterization of a bijection

" is bijective" ("every element of has a non-empty fiber" (surjection) and "every fiber is a singleton" (injection))

### On monomorphisms and epimorphisms

#### Failing the mono/epi condition

##### Example of failing the monomorphism definition for a non-injection

Monomorphism definition:

$$\text{$f : A \to B$ is a monomorphism}
\\ \Leftrightarrow \\
\forall Z \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{C}), \;
\forall g\_1, g\_2 \in \text{Hom}(Z, A), \;
(f \circ g\_1 = f \circ g\_2 \Rightarrow g\_1 = g\_2)$$

The multiple choice of elements (here, and ) in which map to in is precisely what allows the overall composition to be equal, even when . This provides insight into a proof of " is a monomorphism implies that is an injection". If you suppose that is a monomorphism and not an injection, you can easily reach a contradiction, since you can use elements like and that both map to the same to construct a counter-example to the implication that defines a monomorphism.

##### Example of failing the epimorphism definition for a non-surjection

Epimorphism definition:

$$\text{$f : A \to B$ is an epimorphism}
\\ \Leftrightarrow \\
\forall Z \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{C}), \;
\forall g\_1, g\_2 \in \text{Hom}(B, Z), \;
(g\_1 \circ f = g\_2 \circ f \Rightarrow g\_1 = g\_2)$$

The element in not being reached by is precisely that which provides the opportunity to build such that they compose to the same result with , since the output of for them doesn’t affect the overall composition. This provides insight into a proof of " is an epimorphism implies that is a surjection". If you suppose that is an epimorphism and not a surjection, you can easily reach a contradiction, since you can use elements like that are not reached by to construct a counter-example to the implication that defines an epimorphism.

#### Proofs of mono/inj and epi/surj equivalence

Let .

The parts which are "Injection => Monomorphism" and "Surjection => Epimorphism" both use the respective sided inverses to prove the implication.

The other parts use the following tautology to prove the implication by contradiction. "Suppose that and , show that it leads to a contradiction".

##### Injection => Monomorphism

Suppose that is an injection. It thus has post-inverses.

From there:

We conclude that is also a monomorphism.

##### Surjection => Epimorphism

Suppose that is a surjection. It thus has pre-inverses.

From there:

We conclude that is also an epimorphism.

##### Monomorphism => Injection

Suppose that is a monomorphism.

Suppose now that is not an injection. Algebraically, this means that:

We can construct and such that but , using such a pair . Thereby, we prove that is not an monomorphism and arrive at a contradiction.

(If is the empty set, being initial in , there is only 1 map into (the empty map) and always hold. Therefore, any counterexample to the epimorphism definition needs to have at least 1 element.)

Let .

Clearly, . However, we also have:

This means that is not a monomorphism: contradiction.

Conclusion: is an injection.

##### Epimorphism => Surjection

Suppose that is an epimorphism.

Suppose now that isn’t a surjection. Algebraically, this means that:

We can construct and such that but , using such an . Thereby, we prove that is not an epimorphism and arrive at a contradiction.

(If is the singleton set, being terminal in , there is only 1 map into and always hold. Therefore, any counterexample to the epimorphism definition needs to have at least 2 elements. We will however use a 3-element set, since it makes things more intuitive and pedagogical.)

Let .

Clearly, . However, since is the domain of , of , and of , we have:

This means that is not an epimorphism: contradiction.

Conclusion: is a surjection.

## Chapter 1, Section 3

### On terminal and initial objects in **Set**

If $\empty$ is initial and is terminal, it is because a function in (in categorical terms) must always have an output for every input. Ie, in category theory, all functions are maps ("applications").

Said algebraically:

$$\forall A, B \in \text{Obj}(\bold{Set}), \;
\forall a \in A, \;
\forall f \in \text{Hom}(A, B), \;
\exists f(a) \in B$$

In the case of $\empty$ as the input set, and there is only one function $f: \empty \to Z$ for any : is the empty mapping. But any $Z \to \empty$ (expept $\empty \to \empty$) contains no mapping (since we’d necessarily be ignoring at least one element of ).

Similarly, in the case of the (unique up-to-isomorphism) singleton set as the output, you’d have multiple functions (precisely ) into it, if you could ignore some elements of the input set. However, if all elements of the input set are required, that leaves you with only one function possible from : the function which maps all elements to .

### Restrictions and extensions of functions, and its consequences on a function’s nature

8 possibilities to study, based on the following binary dichotomies:

* injection or surjection
* enlarging or restricting
* domain or codomain

Note that enlarging the domain sometimes implies enlarging the codomain, and restricting the codomain sometimes implies restricting the domain.

Legend: Yes, No, Depends

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | enlarge dom | restrict dom | enlarge cod | restrict cod |
| injection | D | Y | Y | Y |
| surjection | Y | D | N | Y |

Theorems:

A) if , then , the restriction of the function to the corresponding smaller codomain, is also an injection (resp. surjection).

B) if , then (with the the canonical injection of into its superset ), is also an injection (resp. is never a surjection).

C) if , then , we have that is also an injection. However, one can construct such that stops being a surjection.

D) if , then , we have that is also a surjection. However, one can construct such that stops being a injection.

Proof: TODO