# Mathematics

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# Chapter 1

# Primitive Terms and Axioms

# 1.1 Primitive Terms

Let there be sets.

For any set A, let there be *elements* of A. We write  $a \in A$  for: a is an element of A.

For any sets A and B, let there be a set  $B^A$ , whose elements are called functions from A to B. We write  $f: A \to B$  for  $f \in B^A$ .

For any function  $f:A\to B$  and element  $a\in A$ , let there be an element  $f(a)\in B$ , the value of the function f at the argument a.

# 1.2 Injections, Surjections and Bijections

**Definition 1.2.1** (Injective). A function  $f: A \to B$  is injective or an injection iff, for all  $x, y \in A$ , if f(x) = f(y) then x = y.

**Definition 1.2.2** (Surjective). A function  $f: A \to B$  is *surjective* or a *surjection* iff, for all  $y \in B$ , there exists  $x \in A$  such that f(x) = y.

**Definition 1.2.3** (Bijective). A function  $f: A \to B$  is bijective or a bijection iff it is injective and surjective.

Sets A and B are equinumerous,  $A \approx B$ , iff there exists a bijection between them.

If we prove there exists a set X such that P(X), and that any two sets that satisfy P are bijective, then we may introduce a constant C and define "Let C be the set such that P(C)".

**Definition 1.2.4** (Composition). Let  $f:A\to B$  and  $g:B\to C$ . The composite  $g\circ f:A\to C$  is the function such that, for all  $a\in A$ , we have

$$(g \circ f)(a) = g(f(a)) .$$

# 1.3 Axioms

**Axiom Schema 1.3.1** (Choice). Let P[X, Y, x, y] be a formula where X and Y are set variables, x : El(X) and y : El(Y). Then the following is an axiom.

Let A and B be sets. Assume that, for all a : El(A), there exists b : El(B) such that P[A, B, a, b]. Then there exists a function  $f : A \to B$  such that  $\forall a : El(A) . P[A, B, a, f(a)]$ .

**Axiom 1.3.2** (Extensionality). Let  $f, g : A \to B$ . If, for all  $x \in A$ , we have f(x) = g(x), then f = g.

**Axiom 1.3.3** (Pairing). For any sets A and B, there exists a set  $A \times B$ , the Cartesian product of A and B, and functions  $\pi_1 : A \times B \to A$  and  $\pi_2 : A \times B \to B$  such that, for all a : El(A) and b : El(B), there exists a unique  $(a,b) : \text{El}(A \times B)$  such that  $\pi_1(a,b) = a$  and  $\pi_2(a,b) = b$ .

**Axiom Schema 1.3.4** (Separation). For every property P[X,x] where X is a set variable and x : El(X), the following is an axiom:

For every set A, there exists a set  $S = \{x : \text{El}(A) \mid P[A, x]\}$  and an injection  $i: S \to A$  such that, for all x : El(A), we have

$$(\exists y : S.i(y) = x) \Leftrightarrow P[A, x]$$
.

**Axiom 1.3.5** (Infinity). There exists a set  $\mathbb{N}$ , an element  $0 : \text{El}(\mathbb{N})$ , and a function  $s : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  such that:

- $\forall n : \text{El}(\mathbb{N}) . s(n) \neq 0$
- $\forall m, n : \text{El}(\mathbb{N}) . s(m) = s(n) \Rightarrow m = n.$

**Axiom Schema 1.3.6** (Collection). Let P[X, Y, x] be a formula with set variables X and Y and an element variable  $x \in X$ . Then the following is an axiom.

For any set A, there exists a set B, a function  $p: B \to A$ , a set Y and a relation  $M: B \hookrightarrow Y$  such that:

- $\forall b \in B.P[A, \{y \in Y : bMy\}, p(b)]$
- For all  $a \in A$ , if  $\exists Y.P[A,Y,a]$ , then there exists  $b \in B$  such that a = p(b).

**Axiom 1.3.7** (Universe). There exists a set E, a set U and a function  $el: E \rightarrow U$  such that the following holds.

Let us say that a set A is small iff there exists  $u \in U$  such that  $A \approx \{e \in E : el(e) = u\}$ .

- $\mathbb{N}$  is small.
- For any U-small sets A and B, the set  $B^A$  is small.
- For any U-small sets A and B, the set  $A \times B$  is small.
- Let  $f: A \to B$  be a function. If B is small and  $f^{-1}(b)$  is U-small for all  $b \in B$ , then A is small.

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• If  $p: B \twoheadrightarrow A$  is a surjective function such that A is small, then there exists a U-small set C, a surjection  $q: C \twoheadrightarrow A$ , and a function  $f: C \rightarrow B$  such that  $q = p \circ f$ .

# Chapter 2

# **Sets and Functions**

# 2.1 Composition

**Proposition 2.1.1.** Given functions  $f: A \to B$ ,  $g: B \to C$  and  $h: C \to D$ , we have

$$h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f$$
.

PROOF: Each is the function that maps  $a \in A$  to h(g(f(a))).  $\square$ 

# 2.1.1 Injections

**Proposition 2.1.2.** The composite of injective functions is injective.

#### Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: f: A \rightarrow B and g: B \rightarrow C be injective. \langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: x, y \in A satisfy (g \circ f)(x) = (g \circ f)(y) \langle 1 \rangle 3. g(f(x)) = g(f(y)) \langle 1 \rangle 4. f(x) = f(y) \langle 1 \rangle 5. x = y
```

**Proposition 2.1.3.** For functions  $f:A\to B$  and  $g:B\to C$ , if  $g\circ f$  is injective then f is injective.

#### Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Assume: g \circ f is injective. \langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: x, y \in A \langle 1 \rangle 3. Assume: f(x) = f(y) \langle 1 \rangle 4. g(f(x)) = g(f(y)) \langle 1 \rangle 5. x = y
```

**Proposition 2.1.4.** Let  $f: A \to B$ . Then f is injective if and only if, for every set X and functions  $x, y: X \to A$ , if  $f \circ x = f \circ y$  then x = y.

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. If f is injective then, for every set X and functions x, y : X \to A, if f \circ x = f \circ y then x = y.
```

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: f is injective.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: X be a set.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $x, y: X \to A$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Assume:  $f \circ x = f \circ y$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ \forall t \in X. x(t) = y(t)$ 
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $t \in X$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . f(x(t)) = f(y(t))

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ x(t) = y(t)$ 

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ x = y$ 

PROOF: Axiom of Extensionality.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If, for every set X and functions  $x,y:X\to A$ , if  $f\circ x=f\circ y$  then x=y. PROOF: Take X=1.

**Proposition 2.1.5.** The composite of surjective functions is surjective.

#### PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $f: A \rightarrow B$  and  $g: B \rightarrow C$  be injective.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $c \in C$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $b \in B$  such that g(b) = c.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . PICK  $a \in A$  such that f(a) = b.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ (g \circ f)(a) = c$

**Proposition 2.1.6.** Let  $f: A \to B$ . Then the following are equivalent.

- 1. f is surjective.
- 2. For any set X and functions  $g, h : B \to X$ , if  $g \circ f = h \circ f$  then g = h.
- 3. There exists  $g: B \to A$  such that  $f \circ g = id_B$

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 1 \Rightarrow 2$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: f is surjective.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: X be a set.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $g, h : B \to X$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Assume:  $g \circ f = h \circ f$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Let:  $b \in B$

PROVE: g(b) = h(b)

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Pick  $a \in A$  such that f(a) = b

 $\langle 2 \rangle 7.$  g(b) = h(b)

Proof: g(b) = g(f(a)) = h(f(a)) = h(b)

```
\langle 1 \rangle 2. 1 \Rightarrow 3
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: f is surjective.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Pick g: B \to A such that, for all b \in B, we have f(g(b)) = b.
       PROOF: Axiom of Choice.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. f \circ g = \mathrm{id}_B.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 3 \Rightarrow 2
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: g: B \to A such that f \circ g = \mathrm{id}_B
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: X be a set.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Let: h, k : B \to X
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. Assume: h \circ f = k \circ f
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. h = k
       Proof: h = h \circ f \circ g = k \circ f \circ g = k
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ 2 \Rightarrow 1
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: 2
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: b \in B
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Let: h: B \to 2 be the function that maps everything to 1.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. Let: k: B \to 2 be the function that maps b to 0 and everything else
                     to 1.
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ h \neq k
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. h \circ f \neq k \circ f
   \langle 2 \rangle7. PICK a \in A such that h(f(a)) \neq k(f(a))
   \langle 2 \rangle 8. \ f(a) = b
Proposition 2.1.7. Let f: A \to B and g: B \to C. If g \circ f is surjective then
q is surjective.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: c \in C
\langle 1 \rangle 2. There exists a \in A such that q(f(a)) = c.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. There exists b \in B such that g(b) = c.
```

**Proposition 2.1.8.** The composite of bijections is a bijection.

Proof: Propositions 2.1.2 and 2.1.5.  $\Box$ 

**Proposition 2.1.9.** Let  $f: A \to B$ . Then f is bijective if and only if there exists a function  $f^{-1}: B \to A$ , the inverse of f, such that  $f \circ f^{-1} = \mathrm{id}_B$  and  $f^{-1} \circ f = \mathrm{id}_A$ , in which case the inverse is unique.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If f is bijective then there exists  $f^{-1}: B \to A$  such that  $f \circ f^{-1} = \mathrm{id}_B$ and  $f^{-1} \circ f = \mathrm{id}_A$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: f is bijective.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $g: B \to A$  such that  $f \circ g = \mathrm{id}_B$

Proof: Proposition 2.1.6.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $f \circ g \circ f = f$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $g \circ f = \mathrm{id}_A$ 

Proof: Proposition 2.1.4.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If there exists  $f^{-1}: B \to A$  such that  $f \circ f^{-1} = \mathrm{id}_B$  and  $f^{-1} \circ f = \mathrm{id}_A$ , then f is bijective.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $f^{-1}: B \to A$  satisfy  $f \circ f^{-1} = \mathrm{id}_B$  and  $f^{-1} \circ f = \mathrm{id}_A$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . f is injective.

PROOF: If f(x) = f(y) then  $x = f^{-1}(f(x)) = f^{-1}(f(y)) = y$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . f is surjective.

Proof: Proposition 2.1.6.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . If  $g, h : B \to A$  satisfy  $f \circ g = \mathrm{id}_B$  and  $g \circ f = \mathrm{id}_A$  and  $f \circ h = \mathrm{id}_B$  and  $h \circ f = \mathrm{id}_A$  then g = h.

PROOF: We have  $g = g \circ f \circ h = h$ .

**Proposition 2.1.10.** Let  $f: A \to B$ . Then  $id_B \circ f = f = f \circ id_A$ .

PROOF: Each is the function that maps a to f(a).  $\square$ 

Proposition 2.1.11.

$$(A \times B)^C \approx A^C \times B^C$$

PROOF: The function that maps f to  $(\pi_1 \circ f, \pi_2 \circ f)$  is a bijection.  $\square$ 

Proposition 2.1.12.

$$A^{B \times C} \approx (A^B)^C$$

PROOF: The function  $\Phi$  such that  $\Phi(f)(c)(b) = f(b,c)$  is a bijection.  $\sqcup$ 

# 2.2 Identity Function

**Definition 2.2.1** (Identity). For any set A, the *identity* function  $id_A : A \to A$  is the function defined by  $id_A(a) = a$ .

#### 2.2.1 The Empty Set

**Theorem 2.2.2.** There exists a set which has no elements.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . PICK a set A

PROOF: By the Axiom of Infinity, a set exists.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $S = \{x : \text{El}(A) \mid \bot \}$  with injection  $i : S \to A$ 

Proof: Axiom of Separation.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . S has no elements.

Ì

**Theorem 2.2.3.** If E and E' have no elements then  $E \approx E'$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: E and E' have no elements.

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. PICK a function  $F: E \to E'$ .
PROOF: Axiom of Choice since vacuously  $\forall x: \text{El}\,(E) . \exists y: \text{El}\,(E') . \top$ .  $\langle 1 \rangle$ 3. F is injective.
PROOF: Vacuously, for all  $x,y: \text{El}\,(E)$ , if F(x) = F(y) then x = y.  $\langle 1 \rangle$ 4. F is surjective.
PROOF: Vacuously, for all  $y: \text{El}\,(E)$ , there exists  $x: \text{El}\,(E)$  such that F(x) = y.

□

**Definition 2.2.4** (Empty Set). The *empty set*  $\emptyset$  is the set with no elements.

# 2.2.2 The Singleton

**Theorem 2.2.5.** There exists a set that has exactly one element.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . PICK a set A that has an element.

PROOF: By the Axiom of Infinity, there exists a set that has an element.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Pick a : El(A)

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 3. PICK a set S and injection  $i: S \rightarrow A$  such that, for all x: El(A), there exists s: El(S) such that s=x if and only if x=a

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . S has exactly one element.

**Theorem 2.2.6.** If A and B both have exactly one element then  $A \approx B$ .

#### PROOF:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: A and B both have exactly one element a and b respectively.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $F: A \to B$  be the function such that, for all x: El(A), we have  $(x = a \land F(x) = b)$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . F is a bijection.

**Definition 2.2.7** (Singleton). Let 1 be the set that has exactly one element. Let \* be its element.

### 2.2.3 Subsets

**Definition 2.2.8** (Subset). A *subset* of a set A consists of a set S and an injection  $i: S \rightarrow A$ . We write  $(S, i) \subseteq A$ .

We say two subsets (S, i) and (T, j) are equal, (S, i) = (T, j), iff there exists a bijection  $\phi : S \approx T$  such that  $j \circ \phi = i$ .

**Proposition 2.2.9.** For any subset (S,i) of A we have (S,i) = (S,i).

PROOF: We have  $id_S : S \approx S$  and  $i \circ id_S = i$ .

**Proposition 2.2.10.** *If* (S, i) = (T, j) *then* (T, j) = (S, i).

PROOF: If  $\phi: S \approx T$  and  $j \circ \phi = i$  then  $\phi^{-1}: T \approx S$  and  $i \circ \phi^{-1} = j$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.2.11.** *If* (R, i) = (S, j) *and* (S, j) = (T, k) *then* (R, i) = (T, k).

PROOF: If  $\phi: R \approx S$  and  $j \circ \phi = i$ , and  $\psi: S \approx T$  and  $k \circ \psi = j$ , then  $\psi \circ \phi: R \approx T$  and  $k \circ \psi \circ \phi = i$ .  $\square$ 

**Definition 2.2.12** (Membership). Given  $(S, i) \subseteq A$  and  $a \in A$ , we write  $a \in (S, i)$  for  $\exists s \in S.i(s) = a$ .

**Proposition 2.2.13.** If  $a \in (S, i)$  and (S, i) = (T, j) then  $a \in (T, j)$ .

PROOF: If i(s) = a then  $j(\phi(s)) = a$ .

**Definition 2.2.14** (Union). Given subsets S and T of A, the *union* is the subset  $\{x \in A : x \in S \lor x \in T\}$ .

**Definition 2.2.15** (Intersection). Given subsets S and T of A, the *intersection* is the subset  $\{x \in A : x \in S \land x \in T\}$ .

Proposition 2.2.16 (Distributive Law).

$$R \cap (S \cup T) = (R \cap S) \cup (R \cap T)$$

Proposition 2.2.17 (Distributive Law).

$$R \cup (S \cap T) = (R \cup S) \cap (R \cup T)$$

**Definition 2.2.18.** Given a set A, we write  $\emptyset$  for the subset  $(\emptyset,!)$  where ! is the unique function  $\emptyset \to A$ .

Proposition 2.2.19.

$$S \cup \emptyset = S$$

Proposition 2.2.20.

$$S \cap \emptyset = S$$

**Definition 2.2.21** (Inclusion). Given subsets (S, i) and (T, j) of a set A, we write  $(S, i) \subseteq (T, j)$  iff there exists  $f: S \to T$  such that  $j \circ f = i$ .

Proposition 2.2.22.

$$\emptyset \subseteq S$$

**Definition 2.2.23** (Disjoint). Subsets S and T of A are disjoint iff  $S \cap T = \emptyset$ .

**Definition 2.2.24** (Difference). Given subsets S and T of A, the difference of S and T is  $S - T = \{x \in A : x \in S \land x \notin T\}$ .

Proposition 2.2.25 (De Morgan's Law).

$$R - (S \cup T) = (R - S) \cap (R - T)$$

Proposition 2.2.26 (De Morgan's Law).

$$R - (S \cap T) = (R - S) \cup (R - T)$$

#### 2.2.4 Union

**Definition 2.2.27** (Union). Given  $A \in \mathcal{PP}X$ , its union is

$$\bigcup \mathcal{A} := \{x \in X : \exists S \in \mathcal{A}. x \in S\} \in \mathcal{P}X .$$

#### 2.2.5 Intersection

**Definition 2.2.28** (Intersection). Given  $A \in \mathcal{PP}X$ , its *intersection* is

$$\bigcap \mathcal{A} := \{ x \in X : \forall S \in \mathcal{A}. x \in S \} \in \mathcal{P}X .$$

# 2.2.6 Direct Image

**Definition 2.2.29** (Direct Image). Let  $f: A \to B$ . Let S be a subset of A. The *(direct) image* of S under f is the subset of B given by

$$f(S) := \{ f(a) : a \in S \}$$
.

Proposition 2.2.30.

- 1. If  $S \subseteq T$  then  $f(S) \subseteq f(T)$
- 2.  $f(\bigcup S) = \bigcup_{S \in S} f(S)$

**Example 2.2.31.** It is not true in general that  $f(\bigcap S) = \bigcap_{S \in S} f(S)$ . Take f to be the only function  $\{0,1\} \to \{0\}$ , and  $S = \{\{0\},\{1\}\}$ . Then  $f(\bigcap S) = \emptyset$  but  $\bigcap_{S \in S} f(S) = \{0\}$ .

**Example 2.2.32.** It is not true in general that f(S-T)=f(S)-f(T). Take f to be the only function  $\{0,1\} \to \{0\}$ ,  $S=\{0\}$  and  $T=\{1\}$ . Then  $f(S-T)=\{0\}$  but  $f(S)-f(T)=\emptyset$ .

#### 2.2.7 Inverse Image

**Definition 2.2.33** (Inverse Image). Let  $f: A \to B$ . Let S be a subset of B. The *inverse image* or *preimage* of S under f is the subset of A given by

$$f^{-1}(S) := \{x \in A : f(x) \in S\}$$
.

**Proposition 2.2.34.** 1. If  $S \subseteq T$  then  $f^{-1}(S) \subseteq f^{-1}(T)$ 

- 2.  $f^{-1}(\bigcup S) = \bigcup_{S \in S} f^{-1}(S)$
- 3.  $f^{-1}(\bigcap S) = \bigcap_{S \in S} f^{-1}(S)$
- 4.  $f^{-1}(S-T) = f^{-1}(S) f^{-1}(T)$
- 5.  $S \subseteq f^{-1}(f(S))$ . Equality holds if f is injective.
- 6.  $f(f^{-1}(T)) \subseteq T$ . Equality holds if f is surjective.
- 7.  $(g \circ f)^{-1}(S) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(S))$

# 2.3 Relations

**Definition 2.3.1** (Relation). Let A and B be sets. A relation R between A and B,  $R: A \hookrightarrow B$ , is a subset of  $A \times B$ .

Given  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ , we write aRb for  $(a, b) \in R$ .

A relation on a set A is a relation between A and A.

**Definition 2.3.2** (Reflexive). A relation R on a set A is *reflexive* iff  $\forall a \in A.aRa$ .

**Definition 2.3.3** (Symmetric). A relation R on a set A is *symmetric* iff, whenever xRy, then yRx.

**Definition 2.3.4** (Transitive). A relation R on a set A is *transitive* iff, whenever xRy and yRz, then xRz.

### 2.3.1 Equivalence Relations

**Definition 2.3.5** (Equivalence Relation). A relation R on a set A is an *equivalence relation* iff it is reflexive, symmetric and transitive.

**Definition 2.3.6** (Equivalence Class). Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A and  $a \in A$ . The *equivalence class* of a with respect to R is

$$\{x \in A : xRa\}$$
 .

Proposition 2.3.7. Two equivalence classes are either disjoint or equal.

### 2.4 Power Set

**Definition 2.4.1** (Power Set). The *power set* of a set A is  $\mathcal{P}A := 2^A$ . Given  $S \in \mathcal{P}A$  and  $a \in A$ , we write  $a \in A$  for S(a) = 1.

**Definition 2.4.2** (Pairwise Disjoint). Let  $P \subseteq \mathcal{P}A$ . We say the members of P are pairwise disjoint iff, for all  $S, T \in P$ , if  $S \neq T$  then  $S \cap T = \emptyset$ .

#### 2.4.1 Partitions

**Definition 2.4.3** (Partition). Let A be a set. A partition of A is a set  $P \in \mathcal{PP}A$  such that:

- $\bullet \ | \ |P = A$
- $\bullet$  Every member of P is nonempty.
- The members of P are pairwise disjoint.

# 2.5 Cartesian Product

**Definition 2.5.1** (Cartesian Product). Let A and B be sets. The Cartesian product of A and B,  $A \times B$ , is the tabulation of the relation  $A \hookrightarrow B$  that holds for all  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ . The associated functions  $\pi_1 : A \times B \to A$  and  $\pi_2 : A \times B \to B$  are called the *projections*.

Given  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ , we write (a, b) for the unique element of  $A \times B$  such that  $\pi_1(a, b) = a$  and  $\pi_2(a, b) = b$ .

# 2.6 Quotient Sets

**Proposition 2.6.1.** Let  $\sim$  be an equivalence relation on X. Then there exists a set  $X/\sim$ , the quotient set of X with respect to  $\sim$ , and a surjective function  $\pi:X\twoheadrightarrow X/\sim$ , the canonical projection, such that, for all  $x,y:\operatorname{El}(X)$ , we have  $x\sim y$  if and only if  $\pi(x)=\pi(y)$ .

Further, if  $p: X \twoheadrightarrow Q$  is another quotient with respect to  $\sim$ , then there exists a unique bijection  $\phi: X/\sim \approx Q$  such that  $\phi \circ \pi = p$ .

# 2.7 Partitions

**Definition 2.7.1** (Partition). A partition of a set X is a set of pairwise disjoint subsets of X whose union is X.

# 2.8 Disjoint Union

**Theorem 2.8.1.** For any sets A and B, there exists a set A+B, the disjoint union of A and B, and functions  $\kappa_1:A\to A+B$  and  $\kappa_2:B\to A+B$ , the injections, such that, for every set X and functions  $f:A\to X$  and  $g:B\to X$ , there exists a unique function  $[f,g]:A+B\to X$  such that  $[f,g]\circ\kappa_1=f$  and  $[f,g]\circ\kappa_2=g$ .

#### Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: A+B := \{ p \in \mathcal{P}A \times \mathcal{P}B : \exists a \in A.p = (\{a\}, \emptyset) \lor \exists b \in B.p = (\emptyset, \{b\}) \}
```

**Definition 2.8.2** (Restriction). Let  $f: A \to B$  and let (S, i) be a subset of A. The *restriction* of f to S is the function  $f \upharpoonright S: S \to B$  defined by  $f \upharpoonright S = f \circ i$ .

### 2.9 Finite and Infinite Sets

**Definition 2.9.1** (Finite). A set A is *finite* iff there exists  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $A \approx \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\}$ . In this case, we say A has cardinality n.

**Proposition 2.9.2.** Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let A be a set. Let  $a_0 \in A$ . Then  $A \approx \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n + 1\}$  if and only if  $A - \{a_0\} \approx \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\}$ .

**Theorem 2.9.3.** Let A be a set. Suppose that  $A \approx \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\}$ . Let B be a proper subset of A. Then  $B \not\approx \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\}$  but there exists m < n such that  $B \approx \{k \in \mathbb{N} : k < m\}$ .

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: P[n] be the property: for every set A, if  $Aapprox\{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\}$ , then for every proper subset B of A, we have  $B \not\approx \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\}$  but there exists m < n such that  $B \approx \{k \in \mathbb{N} : k < m\}$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . P[0]

PROOF: If  $A \approx \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < 0\}$  then A is empty and so has no proper subset.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For every natural number n, if P[n] then P[n+1].
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: *n* be a natural number.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: P[n]
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let: A be a set.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Assume:  $A \approx \{ m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n+1 \}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Let: B be a proper subset of A.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Case:  $B = \emptyset$

PROOF: Then  $B \not\approx \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n+1\}$  but  $B \approx \{k \in \mathbb{N} : k < 0\}$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. Case:  $B \neq \emptyset$ 
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Pick  $b_0 \in B$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ .  $A \{b_0\} \approx \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\}$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ .  $B \{b_0\}$  is a proper subset of  $A \{b_0\}$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ B \{b_0\} \not\approx \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\}$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ .  $B \approx \{ m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n+1 \}$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 6$ . Pick m < n such that  $B \{b_0\} \approx \{k \in \mathbb{N} : k < m\}$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 7. \ m+1 < n+1$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 8. \ B \approx \{k \in \mathbb{N} : k < m+1\}$

**Corollary 2.9.3.1.** If A is finite then there is no bijection between A and a proper subset of A.

Corollary 2.9.3.2.  $\mathbb{N}$  is infinite.

Corollary 2.9.3.3. The cardinality of a finite set is unique.

Corollary 2.9.3.4. A subset of a finite set is finite.

**Corollary 2.9.3.5.** If A is finite and B is a proper subset of A then |B| < |A|.

**Corollary 2.9.3.6.** Let A be a set. Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. A is finite.
- 2. There exists a surjection from an initial segment of  $\mathbb{N}$  onto A.
- 3. There exists an injection from A to an initial segment of  $\mathbb{N}$ .

Corollary 2.9.3.7. A finite union of finite sets is finite.

Corollary 2.9.3.8. A finite Cartesian product of finite sets is finite.

# 2.10 Countable Sets

**Definition 2.10.1** (Countable). A set A is countably infinite iff  $A \approx \mathbb{N}$ .

**Proposition 2.10.2.**  $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$  is countably infinite.

```
PROOF: Define f: \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \approx \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} : y \leq x\} by f(x,y) = (x+y,y) Define g: \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} : y \leq x\} \approx \mathbb{N} by g(x,y) = x(x-1)/2 + y . \square
```

**Proposition 2.10.3.** Every infinite subset of  $\mathbb{N}$  is countably infinite.

```
Proof:
```

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: C be an infinite subset of N
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Define  $h: \mathbb{Z} \to C$  by recursion thus: h(n) is the smallest element of  $C \{h(m): m < n\}$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . h is injective.

PROOF: If m < n then  $h(m) \neq h(n)$  because  $h(n) \in C - \{h(m) : m < n\}$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . h is surjective.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . For all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  we have  $n \leq h(n)$ .
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $c \in C$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3.$   $c \leqslant h(c)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Let: n be least such that  $c \leq h(n)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ c \in C \{h(m) : m < n\}$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ h(n) \leqslant c$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ h(n) = c$ 

**Definition 2.10.4** (Countable). A set is *countable* iff it is either finite or countably infinite; otherwise it is *uncountable*.

**Proposition 2.10.5.** Let B be a nonempty set. Then the following are equivalent.

- 1. B is countable.
- 2. There exists a surjection  $\mathbb{N} \to B$ .
- 3. There exists an injection  $B \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $1 \Rightarrow 2$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: B is countable.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Case: B is finite.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . PICK a natural number n and bijection  $f : \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\} \approx B$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $b \in B$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Extend f to a surjection  $g: \mathbb{N} \to B$  by setting g(m) = b for  $m \geq n$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Case: B is countably infinite.

PROOF: Then there exists a bijection  $\mathbb{N} \approx B$ .

```
\langle 1 \rangle 2. 2 \Rightarrow 3
```

PROOF: Given a surjection  $f: \mathbb{N} \to B$ , define  $g: B \to \mathbb{N}$  by g(b) is the smallest number such that f(g(b)) = b.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 3 \Rightarrow 1$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $f: B \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  be injective.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . f(B) is countable.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ B \approx f(B)$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . B is countable.

# Chapter 3

# Order Theory

# 3.1 Relations

**Definition 3.1.1** (Reflexive). A relation  $R \subseteq A \times A$  is *reflexive* iff, for all  $a \in A$ , we have  $(a, a) \in R$ .

**Definition 3.1.2** (Antisymmetric). A relation  $R \subseteq A \times A$  is antisymmetric iff, for all  $a, b \in A$ , if  $(a, b) \in R$  and  $(b, a) \in R$  then a = b.

**Definition 3.1.3** (Transitive). A relation  $R \subseteq A \times A$  is *transitive* iff, for all  $a, b, c \in A$ , if  $(a, b) \in R$  and  $(b, c) \in R$  then  $(a, c) \in R$ .

**Definition 3.1.4** (Partial Order). A partial order on a set A is a relation on A that is reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive.

We say  $(A, \leq)$  is a partially ordered set or poset iff  $\leq$  is a partial order on A.

**Definition 3.1.5** (Greatest). Let A be a poset and  $a \in A$ . Then a is the *greatest* element iff  $\forall x \in A.x \leq a$ .

**Definition 3.1.6** (Least). Let A be a poset and  $a \in A$ . Then a is the *least* element iff  $\forall x \in A.a \leq x$ .

**Definition 3.1.7** (Upper Bound). Let A be a poset,  $S \subseteq A$ , and  $u \in A$ . Then u is an *upper bound* for S iff  $\forall x \in S.x \leq u$ . We say S is *bounded above* iff it has an upper bound.

**Definition 3.1.8** (Lower Bound). Let A be a poset,  $S \subseteq A$ , and  $l \in A$ . Then l is a lower bound for S iff  $\forall x \in S.l \leq x$ . We say S is bounded below iff it has a lower bound.

**Definition 3.1.9** (Supremum). Let A be a poset,  $S \subseteq A$  and  $s \in A$ . Then s is the *supremum* or *least upper bound* for S iff s is the least element in the sub-poset of upper bounds for A.

**Definition 3.1.10** (Supremum). Let A be a poset,  $S \subseteq A$  and  $i \in A$ . Then i is the *infimum* or *greatest lower bound* for S iff i is the greatest element in the sub-poset of lower bounds for A.

**Definition 3.1.11** (Least Upper Bound Property). A poset A has the *least upper bound property* iff every nonempty subset of A that is bounded above has a least upper bound.

**Proposition 3.1.12.** Let A be a poset. Then A has the least upper bound property if and only if every nonempty subset of A that is bounded below has a greatest lower bound.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If A has the least upper bound property then every subset of A that is bounded below has a greatest lower bound.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: A has the least upper bound property.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $S \subseteq A$  be nonempty and bounded below.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let: L be the set of lower bounds of S.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . L is nonempty.

PROOF: Because S is bounded below.

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. L is bounded above.

PROOF: Pick an element  $s \in S$ . Then s is an upper bound for L.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Let: s be the supremum of L.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ . s is the greatest lower bound of S.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . s is a lower bound of S.
    - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in S$
    - $\langle 4 \rangle 2$ . x is an upper bound for L.
    - $\langle 4 \rangle 3. \ s \leqslant x$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . For any lower bound l of S we have  $l \leq s$ .

PROOF: Immediate from  $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If every subset of A that is bounded below has a greatest lower bound, then A has the least upper bound property.

PROOF: Dual.

#### 3.1.1 Linear Orders

**Definition 3.1.13** (Linear Order). A *linear order* on a set A is a partial order  $\leq$  on A such that, for all  $x, y \in A$ , we have  $x \leq y$  or  $y \leq x$ .

A linearly ordered set is a pair  $(X, \leq)$  such that X is a set and  $\leq$  is a linear order on X.

**Definition 3.1.14** (Open Interval). Let X be a linearly ordered set and  $a, b \in X$ . The *open interval* (a, b) is the set

$$\{x \in X : a < x < b\}$$
.

**Definition 3.1.15** (Immediate Predecessor, Immediate Successor). Let X be a linearly ordered set and  $a, b \in X$ . Then b is the *(immediate) successor* of a,

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and a is the *(immediate) predecessor* of b, iff a < B and there is no x such that a < x < b.

**Definition 3.1.16** (Dictionary Order). Let A and B be linearly ordered sets. The *dictionary order* on  $A \times B$  is the order defined by

$$(a,b) < (a',b') \Leftrightarrow a < a' \lor (a = a' \land b < b')$$
.

# Chapter 4

# Category Theory

# 4.1 Categories

**Definition 4.1.1.** A category C consists of:

- a set  $Ob(\mathcal{C})$  of *objects*. We write  $A \in \mathcal{C}$  for  $A \in Ob(\mathcal{C})$ .
- for any objects X and Y, a set  $\mathcal{C}[X,Y]$  of morphisms from X to Y. We write  $f:X\to Y$  for  $f\in\mathcal{C}[X,Y]$ .
- for any objects X, Y and Z, a function  $\circ : \mathcal{C}[Y, Z] \times \mathcal{C}[X, Y] \to \mathcal{C}[X, Z]$ , called *composition*.

such that:

- Given  $f: X \to Y$ ,  $g: Y \to Z$  and  $h: Z \to W$ , we have  $h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f$
- For any object X, there exists a morphism  $id_X : X \to X$ , the *identity morphism* on X, such that:
  - for any object Y and morphism  $f: Y \to X$  we have  $\mathrm{id}_X \circ f = f$
  - for any object Y and morphism  $f: X \to Y$  we have  $f \circ id_X = f$

We write the composite of morphism  $f_1, \ldots, f_n$  as  $f_n \circ \cdots \circ f_1$ . This is unambiguous thanks to Associativity.

**Definition 4.1.2.** Let **Set** be the category of small sets and functions.

**Definition 4.1.3.** Let **LPos** be the category of linearly ordered sets and monotone functions.

**Definition 4.1.4.** We identify a poset  $(A, \leq)$  with the category with:

- set of objects A
- for  $a, b \in A$ , the set of homomorphisms is  $\{x \in 1 : a \leq b\}$

**Proposition 4.1.5.** A category is a poset iff, for any two objects, there exists at most one morphism between them.

**Proposition 4.1.6.** The identity morphism on an object is unique.

**Definition 4.1.7.** Given  $f: A \to B$  and an object C, define the function  $f^*: C[B,C] \to C[A,C]$  by  $f^*(g) = g \circ f$ .

**Definition 4.1.8.** Given  $f: A \to B$  and an object C, define the function  $f_*: \mathcal{C}[C, A] \to \mathcal{C}[C, B]$  by  $f_*(g) = f \circ g$ .

### 4.1.1 Monomorphisms

**Definition 4.1.9** (Monomorphism). Let  $f: A \to B$ . Then f is *monic* or a *monomorphism*,  $f: A \rightarrowtail B$ , iff, for any object X and functions  $x, y: X \to A$ , if  $f \circ x = f \circ y$  then x = y.

### 4.1.2 Epimorphisms

**Definition 4.1.10** (Epimorphism). Let  $f:A\to B$ . Then f is *epic* or an *epimorphism*,  $f:A\to B$ , iff, for any object X and functions  $x,y:B\to X$ , if  $x\circ f=y\circ f$  then x=y.

#### 4.1.3 Sections and Retractions

**Definition 4.1.11** (Section, Retraction). Let  $r: A \to B$  and  $s: B \to A$ . Then r is a retraction of s, and s is a section of r, iff  $rs = id_B$ .

**Proposition 4.1.12.** Let  $f: A \to B$  and  $r, s: B \to A$ . If r is a retraction of f and s is a section of f then r = s.

Proof:

$$r = rid_B$$
 (Unit Law)  
 $= rfs$  (s is a section of f)  
 $= id_A s$  (r is a retraction of f)  
 $= s$  (Unit Law)

**Proposition 4.1.13.** Every section is monic.

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Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $s: B \to A$  be a section of  $r: A \to B$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let: X be an object and  $x, y: X \to B$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Assume:  $s \circ x = s \circ y$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ x = y$ 

PROOF:  $x = r \circ s \circ x = r \circ s \circ y = y$ .

Proposition 4.1.14. Every retraction is epic.

Proof: Dual.

# 4.1.4 Isomorphisms

**Definition 4.1.15** (Isomorphism). A morphism  $f: A \to B$  is an *isomorphism*,  $f: A \cong B$ , iff there exists a morphism  $f^{-1}: B \to A$  that is both a retraction and section of f.

Objects A and B are  $isomorphic, A \cong B$ , iff there exists an isomorphism between them.

**Proposition 4.1.16.** The inverse of an isomorphism is unique.

Proof: From Proposition 4.1.12.  $\Box$ 

**Proposition 4.1.17.** If  $f : A \cong B$  then  $f^{-1} : B \cong A$  and  $(f^{-1})^{-1} = f$ .

PROOF: Since  $ff^{-1} = id_B$  and  $f^{-1}f = id_A$ .  $\square$ 

Isomorphism.

Define the opposite category.

Slice categories

**Definition 4.1.18.** Let C be a category and  $B \in C$ . The category  $C_B^B$  of objects over and under B is the category with:

- objects all triples (X, u, p) such that  $u: B \to X$  and  $p: X \to B$
- morphisms  $f:(X,u,p)\to (Y,u',p')$  all morphisms  $f:X\to Y$  such that fu=u' and p'f=p.

Proposition 4.1.19.

$$\mathcal{C}_B^B \cong (\mathcal{C}/B) \backslash \mathrm{id}_B \cong (\mathcal{C}\backslash B) / \mathrm{id}_B$$

 $(B, \mathrm{id}_B, \mathrm{id}_B)$  is the zero object in  $\mathcal{C}_B^B$ .

### 4.1.5 Initial Objects

**Definition 4.1.20** (Initial Object). An object I is *initial* iff, for any object X, there exists exactly one morphism  $I \to X$ .

Proposition 4.1.21. The empty set is initial in Set.

PROOF: For any set A, the nowhere-defined function is the unique function  $\emptyset \to A$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 4.1.22.** If I and I' are initial objects, then there exists a unique isomorphism  $I \cong I'$ .

#### PROOF:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: i: I \to I' be the unique morphism I \to I'.
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $i^{-1}: I' \to I$  be the unique morphism  $I' \to I$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3.$   $ii^{-1} = id_{I'}$ 

PROOF: There is only one morphism  $I' \to I'$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ i^{-1}i = \mathrm{id}_I$ 

PROOF: There is only one morphism  $I \to I$ .

П

# 4.1.6 Terminal Objects

**Definition 4.1.23** (Terminal Object). An object T is terminal iff, for any object X, there exists exactly one morphism  $X \to T$ .

Proposition 4.1.24. 1 is terminal in Set.

PROOF: For any set A, the constant function to \* is the only function  $A \to 1$ .

**Proposition 4.1.25.** If T and T' are terminal objects, then there exists a unique isomorphism  $T \cong T'$ .

Proof: Dual to Proposition 4.1.22.  $\square$ 

#### 4.1.7 Zero Objects

**Definition 4.1.26** (Zero Object). An object Z is a zero object iff it is an initial object and a terminal object.

**Definition 4.1.27** (Zero Morphism). Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a category with a zero object Z. Let  $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$ . The zero morphism  $A \to B$  is the unique morphism  $A \to Z \to B$ .

Proposition 4.1.28. There is no zero object in Set.

Proof: Since  $\emptyset \not\approx 1$ .

#### 4.1.8 Triads

**Definition 4.1.29** (Triad). Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a category. A *triad* consists of objects X, Y, M and morphisms  $\alpha: X \to M$ ,  $\beta: Y \to M$ . We call M the *codomain* of the triad.

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#### 4.1.9Cotriads

**Definition 4.1.30** (Cotriad). Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a category. A *cotriad* consists of objects X, Y, W and morphisms  $\xi: W \to X, \eta: W \to Y$ . We call W the domain of the triad.

#### 4.1.10 Pullbacks

**Definition 4.1.31** (Pullback). A diagram

$$W \xrightarrow{\xi} X$$

$$\downarrow^{\eta} \qquad \downarrow^{\alpha}$$

$$Y \xrightarrow{\beta} M$$

is a pullback iff  $\alpha \xi = \beta \eta$  and, for every object Z and morphism  $f: Z \to X$ and  $g: Z \to Y$  such that  $\alpha f = \beta g$ , there exists a unique  $h: Z \to W$  such that  $\xi h = f$  and  $\eta h = g$ .

In this case we also say that  $\eta$  is the *pullback* of  $\beta$  along  $\alpha$ .

**Proposition 4.1.32.** If  $\xi: W \to X$  and  $\eta: W \to Y$  form a pullback of  $\alpha: X \to M$  and  $\beta: Y \to M$ , and  $\xi': W' \to X$  and  $\eta': W' \to Y$  also form the pullback of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , then there exists a unique isomorphism  $\phi: W \cong W'$  such that  $\eta' \phi = \eta$  and  $\xi' \phi = \xi$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\phi: W \to W'$  be the unique morphism such that  $\eta' \phi = \eta$  and  $\xi' \phi = \xi$ .

(1)2. Let:  $\phi^{-1}: W' \to W$  be the unique morphism such that  $\eta \phi^{-1} = \eta'$  and  $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \phi \phi^{-1} = \xi'.$ 

PROOF: Each is the unique  $x: W' \to W'$  such that  $\eta' x = \eta'$  and  $\xi' x = \xi'$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \phi^{-1} \phi = \mathrm{id}_W$ 

PROOF: Each is the unique  $x: W \to W$  such that  $\eta x = \eta$  and  $\xi x = \xi$ .

**Proposition 4.1.33.** For any morphism  $h: A \to B$ , the following diagram is a pullback diagram.

$$A \xrightarrow{h} B$$

$$\parallel \qquad \parallel$$

$$A \xrightarrow{h} B$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: Z be an object.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $f: Z \to B$  and  $g: Z \to A$  satisfy  $\mathrm{id}_B f = hg$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3.$   $g: Z \to B$  is the unique morphism such that  $\mathrm{id}_A g = g$  and hg = f.

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**Proposition 4.1.34.** The pullback of an isomorphism is an isomorphism.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:

$$W \xrightarrow{\xi} X$$

$$\downarrow \alpha$$

$$Y \xrightarrow{\beta} M$$

be a pullback diagram.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $\beta$  is an isomorphism.

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 3. Let:  $\xi^{-1}$  be the unique morphism  $X \to W$  such that  $\xi \xi^{-1} = \mathrm{id}_X$  and  $\eta \xi^{-1} = \beta^{-1} \alpha.$ 

Proof: This exists since  $\alpha id_X = \beta \beta^{-1} \alpha = \alpha$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \xi^{-1} \xi = \mathrm{id}_W$ 

PROOF: Each is the unique  $x: W \to W$  such that  $\xi x = \xi$  and  $\eta x = \eta$ .

**Proposition 4.1.35.** Let  $\beta:(Y,y)\to (M,m)$  and  $\alpha:(X,x)\to (M,m)$  in  $\mathcal{C}\backslash A$ . Let

$$W \xrightarrow{\xi} X$$

$$\uparrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \alpha$$

$$Y \xrightarrow{\beta} M$$

be a pullback in C. Let  $w: A \to W$  be the unique morphism such that  $\xi w = x$ and  $\eta w = y$ . Then  $\xi: (W, w) \to (X, x)$  and  $\eta: (W, w) \to (Y, y)$  is the pullback of  $\beta$  and  $\alpha$  in  $C \setminus A$ .

### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $(Z, z) \in \mathcal{C} \backslash A$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $f: (Z,z) \to (X,x)$  and  $g: (Z,z) \to (Y,y)$  satisfy  $\alpha f = \beta g$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $h: Z \to W$  be the unique morphism such that  $\xi h = f$  and  $\eta h = g$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . hz = w

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ .  $\xi hz = \xi w$ 

Proof:

$$\xi hz = fz \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 3)$$

$$= x \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 2)$$

$$= \xi w$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $\eta hz = \eta w$ 

PROOF: Similar.

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5.  $h: (Z,z) \to (W,w)$ 

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**Proposition 4.1.36.** Let  $\beta:(Y,y)\to (M,m)$  and  $\alpha:(X,x)\to (M,m)$  in  $\mathcal{C}/A$ . Let

$$\begin{array}{ccc} W & \xrightarrow{\xi} & X \\ \eta & & \downarrow \alpha \\ Y & \xrightarrow{\beta} & M \end{array}$$

be a pullback in C. Let  $w = x\xi : W \to A$ . Then  $\xi : (W, w) \to (X, x)$  and  $\eta : (W, w) \to (Y, y)$  form a pullback of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  in C/A.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \eta : (W, w) \rightarrow (Y, y)$ PROOF:

$$y\eta = m\beta\eta$$
$$= m\alpha\xi$$
$$= x\xi$$
$$= w$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $(Z, z) \in \mathcal{C}/A$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $f: (Z,z) \to (X,x)$  and  $g: (Z,z) \to (Y,y)$  satisfy  $\alpha f = \beta g$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 4. Let:  $h: Z \to W$  be the unique morphism such that  $\xi h = f$  and  $\eta h = g$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ h: (Z,z) \to (W,w)$ 

Proof:

$$wh = x\xi h$$

$$= xf \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 4)$$

$$= z \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 3)$$

**Proposition 4.1.37.** In Set, let  $\alpha: X \to M$  and  $\beta: Y \to M$ . Let  $W = \{(x,y) \in X \times Y : \alpha(x) = \beta(y)\}$  with inclusion  $i: W \to X \times Y$ . Let  $\xi = \pi_1 i: W \to X$  and  $\eta: \pi_2 i: W \to Y$ . Then  $\xi$  and  $\eta$  form the pullback of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \alpha \xi = \beta \eta$ 

PROOF: For  $w \in W$ , if i(w) = (x, y) then then  $\alpha(\xi(w)) = \alpha(x) = \beta(y) = \beta(\eta(w))$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For every set Z and functions  $f: Z \to X$ ,  $g: Z \to Y$  such that  $\alpha f = \beta g$ , there exists a unique  $h: Z \to W$  such that  $\xi h = f$  and  $\eta h = g$ 

PROOF: For  $z \in Z$ , let h(z) be the unique element of W such that i(h(z)) = (f(z), g(z)).

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Pullback lemma

#### **4.1.11** Pushouts

**Definition 4.1.38** (Pushout). A diagram

is a pushout iff  $\alpha \xi = \beta \eta$  and, for every object Z and morphism  $f: X \to Z$  and  $g: Y \to Z$  such that  $f\xi = g\eta$ , there exists a unique  $h: M \to Z$  such that  $h\alpha = f$  and  $h\beta = g$ .

We also say that  $\beta$  is the *pushout* of  $\xi$  along  $\eta$ .

**Proposition 4.1.39.** If  $\alpha: X \to M$  and  $\beta: Y \to M$  form a pushout of  $\xi: W \to X$  and  $\eta: W \to Y$ , and  $\alpha': X \to M'$  and  $\beta': Y \to M'$  also form a pushout of  $\xi$  and  $\eta$ , then there exists a unique isomorphism  $\phi: M \cong M'$  such that  $\phi\alpha = \alpha'$  and  $\phi\beta = \beta'$ .

Proof: Dual to Proposition 4.1.32.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 4.1.40.** For any morphism  $h: A \to B$ , the following diagram is a pushout diagram.

$$A \xrightarrow{h} B$$

$$\parallel \qquad \parallel$$

$$A \xrightarrow{h} B$$

PROOF: Dual to Proposition 4.1.33.

**Proposition 4.1.41.** The diagram (4.1) is a pushout in C iff it is a pullback in  $C^{op}$ .

Proof: Immediate from definitions.

**Proposition 4.1.42.** The pushout of an isomorphism is an isomorphism.

PROOF: Dual to Proposition 4.1.34.

**Proposition 4.1.43.** Let  $\xi:(W,w)\to (X,x)$  and  $\eta:(W,w)\to (Y,y)$  in  $\mathcal{C}\backslash A$ . Let

$$W \xrightarrow{\xi} X$$

$$\downarrow \alpha$$

$$Y \xrightarrow{\beta} M$$

be a pushout in C. Let  $m := \alpha x : A \to M$ . Then  $\alpha : (X, x) \to (M, m)$  and  $\beta : (Y, y) \to (M, m)$  is the pushout of  $\xi$  and  $\eta$  in  $C \setminus A$ .

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PROOF: Dual to Proposition 4.1.36.

**Proposition 4.1.44.** Let  $\xi:(W,w)\to (X,x)$  and  $\eta:(W,w)\to (Y,y)$  in  $\mathcal{C}/A$ . Let

$$\begin{array}{c|c} W & \xrightarrow{\xi} X \\ \eta & & \downarrow \alpha \\ Y & \xrightarrow{\beta} M \end{array}$$

be a pushout in C. Let  $m: M \to A$  be the unique morphism such that  $m\alpha = x$  and  $m\beta = y$ . Then  $\alpha: (X, x) \to (M, m)$  and  $\beta: (Y, y) \to (M, m)$  is the pushout of  $\xi$  and  $\eta$  in  $C \setminus A$ .

Proof: Dual to Proposition 4.1.35.  $\square$ 

### Proposition 4.1.45. Set has pushouts.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\xi : W \to X$  and  $\eta : W \to Y$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2.$  Let:  $\sim$  be the equivalence relation on X+Y generated by  $\xi(w) \sim \eta(w)$  for all  $w \in W$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $M = (X + Y) / \sim$  with canonical projection  $\pi : X + Y \twoheadrightarrow M$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $\alpha = \pi \circ \kappa_1 : X \to M$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $\beta = \pi \circ \kappa_2 : Y \to M$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 6. Let: Z be any set,  $f: X \to Z$  and  $g: Y \to Z$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . Assume:  $f \xi = g \eta$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 8. Let:  $h: X+Y \to Z$  be the function defined by h(x)=f(x) and h(y)=g(y) for  $x \in X$  and  $y \in Y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 9$ . h respects  $\sim$

PROOF: For  $w \in W$  we have

$$h(\xi(w)) = f(\xi(w)) \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 8)$$
  
=  $g(\eta(w)) \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 7)$   
=  $h(\eta(w)) \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 8)$ 

- $\langle 1 \rangle 10$ . Let:  $\overline{h}: M \to Z$  be the induced function.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 11$ .  $\overline{h}\alpha = f$

Proof:

$$\overline{h}(\alpha(x)) = \overline{h}(\pi(\kappa_1(x)))$$

$$= h(\kappa_1(x))$$

$$= f(x)$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 12$ .  $\overline{h}\beta = g$ 

PROOF: Similar.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 13$ . For all  $k: M \to Z$ , if  $k\alpha = f$  and  $k\beta = g$  then  $k = \overline{h}$ .

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Proof:

$$k(\pi(\kappa_1(x))) = k(\alpha(x))$$

$$= f(x)$$

$$k(\pi(\kappa_2(y))) = k(\beta(y))$$

$$= g(y)$$

$$\therefore k \circ \pi = h$$

$$\therefore k = \overline{h}$$

**Definition 4.1.46.** Let  $u: A \rightarrow X$  be an injection. The *pointed set obtained* from X by collapsing (A, u), denoted X/(A, u), is the pushout

$$A \longrightarrow 1$$

$$\downarrow u \qquad * \downarrow$$

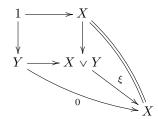
$$X \longrightarrow X/(A, u)$$

**Proposition 4.1.47.** In **Set**\*, any two morphisms  $1 \rightarrow X$  and  $1 \rightarrow Y$  have a pushout.

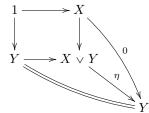
PROOF: The pushout of  $a:(1,*)\to (X,x)$  and  $b:(1,*)\to (Y,y)$  is  $(X+Y/\sim,x)$  where  $\sim$  is the equivalence relation generated by  $x\sim y$ .  $\square$ 

**Definition 4.1.48** (Wedge). The *wedge* of pointed sets X and Y,  $X \vee Y$ , is the pushout of the unique morphism  $1 \to X$  and  $1 \to Y$ .

**Definition 4.1.49** (Smash). Let X and Y be pointed sets. Let  $\xi: X \vee Y \to X$  be the unique morphism such that the following diagram commutes.



Let  $\eta: X \vee Y \to Y$  be the unique morphism such that the following diagram commutes.



Let  $\zeta = \langle \xi, \eta \rangle : X \vee Y \to X \times Y$ . The *smash* of X and Y, X \( Y \), is the result of collapsing  $X \times Y$  with respect to  $\zeta$ .

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Pushout lemma

### 4.1.12 Subcategories

**Definition 4.1.50** (Subcategory). A subcategory C' of a category C consists of:

- a subset Ob(C') of C
- for all  $A, B \in \text{Ob}(\mathcal{C}')$ , a subset  $\mathcal{C}'[A, B] \subseteq \mathcal{C}[A, B]$

such that:

- for all  $A \in \mathrm{Ob}(\mathcal{C}')$ , we have  $\mathrm{id}_A \in \mathcal{C}'[A,A]$
- for all  $f \in \mathcal{C}'[A, B]$  and  $g \in \mathcal{C}'[B, C]$ , we have  $g \circ f \in \mathcal{C}'[A, C]$ .

It is a full subcategory iff, for all  $A, B \in \text{Ob}(\mathcal{C}')$ , we have  $\mathcal{C}'[A, B] = \mathcal{C}[A, B]$ .

### 4.1.13 Opposite Category

**Definition 4.1.51** (Opposite Category). For any category C, the *opposite* category  $C^{op}$  is the category with

- $Ob(\mathcal{C}^{op}) = Ob(\mathcal{C})$
- $\mathcal{C}^{\text{op}}[A,B] = \mathcal{C}[B,A]$
- Given  $f \in \mathcal{C}^{\text{op}}[A, B]$  and  $g \in \mathcal{C}^{\text{op}}[B, C]$ , their composite in  $\mathcal{C}^{\text{op}}$  is  $f \circ g$ , where  $\circ$  is composition in  $\mathcal{C}$ .

**Proposition 4.1.52.** An object is initial in C iff it is terminal in  $C^{op}$ .

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

**Proposition 4.1.53.** An object is terminal in C iff it is initial in  $C^{op}$ .

Proof: Immediate from definitions.

**Corollary 4.1.53.1.** If T and T' are terminal objects in C then there exists a unique isomorphism  $T \cong T'$ .

### 4.1.14 Groupoids

**Definition 4.1.54** (Groupoid). A *groupoid* is a category in which every morphism is an isomorphism.

### 4.1.15 Concrete Categories

**Definition 4.1.55** (Concrete Category). A concrete category  $\mathcal{C}$  consists of:

- a set Ob(C) of *objects*
- for any object  $A \in Ob(\mathcal{C})$ , a set |A|
- for any objects  $A, B \in \text{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$ , a set of functions  $\mathcal{C}[A, B] \subseteq |B|^{|A|}$

such that:

- for any  $f \in \mathcal{C}[A, B]$  and  $g \in \mathcal{C}[B, C]$ , we have  $g \circ f \in \mathcal{C}[A, C]$
- for any object A we have  $id_{|A|} \in C[A, A]$ .

### 4.1.16 Power of Categories

**Definition 4.1.56.** Let C be a category and J a set. The category  $C^J$  is the category with:

- objects all J-indexed families of objects of  $\mathcal C$
- morphisms  $\{X_j\}_{j\in J}\to \{Y_j\}_{j\in J}$  all families  $\{f_j\}_{j\in J}$  where  $f_j:X_j\to Y_j$

### 4.1.17 Arrow Category

**Definition 4.1.57** (Arrow Category). Let C be a category. The *arrow category*  $C^{\rightarrow}$  is the category with:

- objects all triples (A, B, f) where  $f: A \to B$  in  $\mathcal{C}$
- morphisms  $(A, B, f) \to (C, D, g)$  all pairs  $(u : A \to C, v : B \to D)$  such that vf = gu.

#### 4.1.18 Slice Category

**Definition 4.1.58** (Slice Category). Let C be a category and  $A \in C$ . The *slice category under* A,  $C \setminus A$ , is the category with:

- objects all pairs (B, f) where  $B \in \mathcal{C}$  and  $f: A \to B$
- morphisms  $(B, f) \to (C, g)$  are morphisms  $u: B \to C$  such that uf = g.

We identify this with the subcategory of  $\mathcal{C}^{\rightarrow}$  formed by mapping (B, f) to (A, B, f) and u to  $(\mathrm{id}_A, u)$ .

**Proposition 4.1.59.** If  $s:(B,f) \to (C,g)$  in  $C \setminus A$ , then any retraction of s in C is a retraction of s in  $C \setminus A$ .

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $r: C \to B$  be a retraction of s in  $\mathcal{C}$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ rg = f$ PROOF: rg = rsf = f.  $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ r : (C,g) \rightarrow (B,f) \text{ in } C \backslash A$   $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ rs = \mathrm{id}_{(B,f)}$ PROOF: Because composition is inherited from C.

**Proposition 4.1.60.** id<sub>A</sub> is the initial object in  $\mathcal{C}\backslash A$ .

PROOF: For any  $(B, f) \in \mathcal{C}\backslash A$ , we have f is the only morphism  $A \to B$  such that  $f \operatorname{id}_A = f$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 4.1.61.** *If* A *is terminal in* C *then*  $id_A$  *is the zero object in*  $C \setminus A$ .

PROOF: For any  $(B, f) \in \mathcal{C} \backslash A$ , the unique morphism  $!: B \to A$  is the unique morphism such that  $!f = \mathrm{id}_A$ .  $\square$ 

**Definition 4.1.62** (Pointed Sets). The category of pointed sets is  $Set \setminus 1$ .

**Definition 4.1.63.** Let C be a category and  $A \in C$ . The *slice category over* A, C/A, is the category with:

- objects all pairs (B, f) with  $f: B \to A$
- morphisms  $u:(B,f)\to (C,g)$  all morphisms  $u:B\to C$  such that gu=f.

**Proposition 4.1.64.** Let  $u:(B,f) \to (C,g): \mathcal{C}/A$ . Any section of u in  $\mathcal{C}$  is a section of u in  $\mathcal{C}/A$ .

Proof: Dual to Proposition 4.1.59.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 4.1.65.**  $id_A$  is terminal in C/A.

PROOF: Dual to Proposition 4.1.60.

**Proposition 4.1.66.** If A is initial in C then  $id_A$  is the zero object in C/A.

PROOF: Dual to Proposition 4.1.61.

**Definition 4.1.67.** Let  $A \in \mathcal{C}$ . The category of objects over and under A, written  $\mathcal{C}_A^A$ , is the category with:

- objects all triples (X, u, p) where  $u: A \to X, p: X \to A$  and  $pu = \mathrm{id}_A$
- morphism  $f:(X,u,p)\to (Y,v,q)$  all morphisms  $f:X\to Y$  such that fu=v and qf=p

**Proposition 4.1.68.**  $(A, id_A, id_A)$  is the zero object in  $\mathcal{C}_A^A$ .

PROOF: For any object (X, u, p), we have p is the unique morphism  $(X, u, p) \rightarrow (A, \mathrm{id}_A, \mathrm{id}_A)$ , and u is the unique morphism  $(A, \mathrm{id}_A, \mathrm{id}_A) \rightarrow (X, u, p)$ .  $\square$ 

**Definition 4.1.69** (Fibre Collapsing). Let *B* be a set. Let  $u:(A,a)\to (X,x)$  in **Set**/*B*. Form the pushout

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
A & \xrightarrow{a} & B \\
\downarrow u & \downarrow & \downarrow \\
X & \xrightarrow{i} & C
\end{array}$$

Let  $c: C \to B$  be the unique morphism such that  $cj = \mathrm{id}_B$  and ci = x. Then  $(C, j, c) \in \mathbf{Set}_B^B$  is called the set over and under B obtained from X by fibre collapsing with respect to u. If (A, u) is a subset of X, we denote this set over and under B by X/B(A, u).

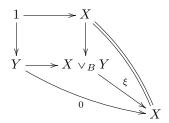
**Definition 4.1.70** (Fibre Wedge). Let B be a small set. Let  $(X, u_X, p_X), (Y, u_Y, p_Y) \in \mathbf{Set}_B^B$ . The *fibre wedge* of X and Y is the pushout of  $u_X$  and  $u_Y$ :

$$B \xrightarrow{u_X} X$$

$$\downarrow^{u_Y} \qquad \downarrow$$

$$Y \longrightarrow X \vee_B Y$$

**Definition 4.1.71** (Fibre Smash). Let  $X, Y \in \mathbf{Set}_B^B$ . Let  $\xi : X \vee_B Y \to X$  be the unique morphism such that the following diagram commutes.



Let  $\eta: X \vee_B Y \to Y$  be the unique morphism such that the following diagram commutes.



Let  $\zeta = \langle \xi, \eta \rangle : X \vee_B Y \to X \times Y$ . The fibre smash of X and Y,  $X \wedge_B Y$ , is the result of collapsing  $X \times Y$  with respect to  $\zeta$ .

**Proposition 4.1.72. Set** has products and coproducts.

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**Proposition 4.1.73.** Let C be a category. Let  $\{X_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in I}$  be a family of objects in C and  $Z \in C$ . Let  $\coprod_{{\alpha}\in I} X_{\alpha}$  be the coproduct of  $\{X_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in I}$ . Then

$$\mathcal{C}[\coprod_{\alpha \in I} X_{\alpha}, Z] \approx \prod_{\alpha \in I} \mathcal{C}[X_{\alpha}, Z] \ .$$

**Proposition 4.1.74.** Let C be a category. Let  $\{X_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in I}$  be a family of objects in C and  $Z \in C$ . Let  $\prod_{{\alpha}\in I} X_{\alpha}$  be the product of  $\{X_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in I}$ . Then

$$\mathcal{C}[Z, \prod_{\alpha \in I} X_{\alpha}] \approx \prod_{\alpha \in I} \mathcal{C}[Z, X_{\alpha}] \ .$$

**Proposition 4.1.75.** A product in C constitutes a product in  $C \setminus A$ .

**Proposition 4.1.76.** A coproduct in C constitutes a product in C/A.

### 4.2 Functors

**Definition 4.2.1** (Functor). Let  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $\mathcal{D}$  be categories. A functor  $F:\mathcal{C}\to\mathcal{D}$  consists of:

- a function  $F: \mathrm{Ob}(\mathcal{C}) \to \mathrm{Ob}(\mathcal{D})$
- for every morphism  $f: A \to B$  in C, a morphism  $Ff: FA \to FB$  in D

such that:

- for all A : El(Ob(C)) we have  $Fid_A = id_{FA}$
- for any morphism  $f:A\to B$  and  $g:B\to C$  in  $\mathcal C,$  we have  $F(g\circ f)=Fg\circ Ff$

**Proposition 4.2.2.** Functors preserve isomorphisms.

PROOF:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $F : \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$  be a functor.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $f: A \cong B$  in  $\mathcal{C}$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $Ff^{-1} \circ Ff = \mathrm{id}_{FA}$ 

Proof:

$$Ff^{-1} \circ Ff = F(f^{-1} \circ f)$$
$$= Fid_A$$
$$= id_{FA}$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $Ff \circ Ff^{-1} = \mathrm{id}_{FB}$ PROOF:

$$Ff \circ Ff^{-1} = F(f \circ f^{-1})$$
$$= Fid_B$$
$$= id_{FB}$$

**Definition 4.2.3** (Identity Functor). For any category C, the *identity* functor on C is the functor  $I_C: C \to C$  defined by

$$I_{\mathcal{C}}A := A$$
  $(A \in \mathcal{C})$   
 $I_{\mathcal{C}}f := f$   $(f : A \to B \text{ in } \mathcal{C})$ 

**Proposition 4.2.4.** Let  $F: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$ . If  $r: A \to B$  is a retraction of  $s: B \to A$  in  $\mathcal{C}$  then Fr is a retraction of Fs.

Proof:

$$Fr \circ Fs = F(r \circ s)$$
  
=  $Fid_B$   
=  $id_{FB}$ 

**Corollary 4.2.4.1.** Let  $F: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$ . If  $\phi: A \cong B$  is an isomorphism in  $\mathcal{C}$  then  $F\phi: FA \cong FB$  is an isomorphism in  $\mathcal{D}$  with  $(F\phi)^{-1} = F\phi^{-1}$ .

**Definition 4.2.5** (Composition of Functors). Given functors  $F: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$  and  $G: \mathcal{D} \to \mathcal{E}$ , the *composite* functor  $GF: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{E}$  is defined by

$$(GF)A = G(FA)$$
  $(A \in \mathcal{C})$   
 $(GF)f = G(Ff)$   $(f: A \to B: \mathcal{C})$ 

**Definition 4.2.6** (Category of Categories). Let **Cat** be the category of small categories and functors.

**Definition 4.2.7** (Isomorphism of Categories). Let  $F: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$  be a functor. Then F is an *isomorphism of categories* iff there exists a functor  $F^{-1}: \mathcal{D} \to \mathcal{C}$ , the *inverse* of F, such that  $FF^{-1} = I_{\mathcal{D}}$  and  $F^{-1}F = I_{\mathcal{C}}$ .

Categories  $\mathcal C$  and  $\mathcal D$  are  $isomorphic,\, \mathcal C\cong \mathcal D,$  iff there exists an isomorphism between them.

**Proposition 4.2.8.** *If* A *is initial in* C *then*  $C \setminus A \cong C$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$  Define  $F: \mathcal{C} \backslash A \to \mathcal{C}$  by

$$F(B, f) = B$$

$$F(u : (B, f) \rightarrow (C, g)) = u$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle$$
2. Define  $G: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{C} \backslash A$  by 
$$GB = (B,!_B) \qquad \text{where } !_B \text{ is the unique morphism } A \to B$$
 
$$G(u: B \to C) = u: (B,!_B) \to (C,!_C)$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $FG = id_{\mathcal{C}}$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $GF = id_{\mathcal{C} \backslash A}$ 

PROOF: Since  $GF(B,f)=(B,!_B)=(B,f)$  because the morphism  $A\to B$  is unique.

**Proposition 4.2.9.** If A is terminal in C then  $C/A \cong C$ .

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Proof: Dual.

### Proposition 4.2.10.

$$\mathcal{C}_A^A \cong (\mathcal{C}/A) \backslash (A, \mathrm{id}_A) \cong (\mathcal{C}\backslash A) / (A, \mathrm{id}_A)$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Define a functor  $F : \mathcal{C}_A^A \to (\mathcal{C}/A) \backslash (A, \mathrm{id}_A)$ .  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Given  $A \xrightarrow{u} X \xrightarrow{p} A$  in  $\mathcal{C}_A^A$ , let F(X, u, p) = ((X, p), u)

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Given  $f: (A \xrightarrow{u} X \xrightarrow{p} A) \to (A \xrightarrow{v} Y \xrightarrow{q} A)$ , let Ff = f.

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. Define a functor  $G: (\mathcal{C}/A) \setminus (A, \mathrm{id}_A) \to \mathcal{C}_A^A$ .  $\langle 1 \rangle$ 3. Define a functor  $H: \mathcal{C}_A^A \to (\mathcal{C} \setminus A)/(A, \mathrm{id}_A)$ .  $\langle 1 \rangle$ 4. Define a functor  $K: (\mathcal{C} \setminus A)/(A, \mathrm{id}_A) \to \mathcal{C}_A^A$ .

**Definition 4.2.11** (Forgetful Functor). For any concrete category  $\mathcal{C}$ , define the forgetful functor  $U: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbf{Set}$  by:

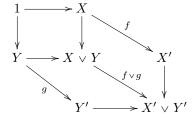
$$UA = |A|$$
$$Uf = f$$

**Definition 4.2.12** (Switching Functor). For any category  $\mathcal{C}$ , define the *switch*ing functor  $T: \mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}$  by

$$T(A, B) = (B, A)$$
$$T(f, q) = (q, f)$$

**Definition 4.2.13** (Reduction). Let  $\Phi : \mathbf{Set} \to \mathbf{Set}$  be a functor. The *reduction* of  $\Phi$  is the functor  $\Phi^*: \mathbf{Set}_* \to \mathbf{Set}_*$  defined by:  $\Phi^*(X,a)$  is the collapse of  $\Phi(X)$  with respect to  $\Phi(a):\Phi(1) \rightarrow \Phi(X)$ .

**Definition 4.2.14.** Extend the wedge  $\vee$  to a functor  $\mathbf{Set}_* \times \mathbf{Set}_* \to \mathbf{Set}_*$  by defining, given  $f: X \to X'$  and  $g: Y \to Y'$ , thene  $f \vee g$  is the unique morphism that makes the following diagram commute.



**Definition 4.2.15.** Extend smash to a functor  $\wedge:\mathbf{Set}_*\times\mathbf{Set}_*\to\mathbf{Set}_*$  as follows. Given  $f: X \to X'$  and  $g: Y \to Y'$ , let  $f \wedge g: X \wedge Y \to X' \wedge Y'$  be the unique morphism such that the following diagram commutes.



**Definition 4.2.16** (Reduction). Let B be a small set. Let  $\Phi_B : \mathbf{Set}/B \to \mathbf{Set}/B$  be a functor. The *reduction* of  $\Phi_B$  is the functor  $\Phi_B^B : \mathbf{Set}_B^B \to \mathbf{Set}_B^B$  defined as follows.

For  $(X, u : B \to X, p : X \to B) \in \mathbf{Set}_B^B$ , let  $\Phi_B^B(X)$  be the set over and under B obtained from  $\Phi_B(X)$  by collapsing with respect to  $\Phi_B(u) : \Phi_B(B) \to \Phi_B(X)$ .

**Definition 4.2.17.** Extend  $\vee_B$  to a functor  $\mathbf{Set}_B^B \times \mathbf{Set}_B^B \to \mathbf{Set}_B^B$ .

**Definition 4.2.18.** Extend  $\wedge_B$  to a functor  $\mathbf{Set}_B^B \times \mathbf{Set}_B^B \to \mathbf{Set}_B^B$ .

**Definition 4.2.19** (Faithful). A functor  $F: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$  is *faithful* iff, for any objects  $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$  and morphisms  $f, g: A \to B: \mathcal{C}$ , if Ff = Fg then f = g.

**Definition 4.2.20** (Full). A functor  $F: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$  is *full* iff, for any objects  $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$  and morphism  $g: FA \to FB: \mathcal{D}$ , there exists  $f: A \to B: \mathcal{C}$  such that Ff = g.

**Definition 4.2.21** (Fully Faithful). A functor  $F: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$  is *fully faithful* iff it is full and faithful.

**Definition 4.2.22** (Full Embedding). A functor  $F: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$  is a full embedding iff it is fully faithful and injective on objects.

### 4.3 Natural Transformations

**Definition 4.3.1** (Natural Transformation). Let  $F,G:\mathcal{C}\to\mathcal{D}$ . A natural transformation  $\tau:F\Rightarrow G$  is a family of morphisms  $\{\tau_X:FX\to GX\}_{X\in\mathcal{C}}$  such that, for every morphism  $f:X\to Y:\mathcal{C}$ , we have  $Gf\circ\tau_X=\tau_Y\circ Ff$ .

$$FX \xrightarrow{Ff} FY$$

$$\tau_X \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \tau_Y$$

$$GX \xrightarrow{Gf} GY$$

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**Definition 4.3.2** (Natural Isomorphism). A natural transformation  $\tau: F \Rightarrow G: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$  is a natural isomorphism,  $\tau: F \cong G$ , iff for all  $X \in \mathcal{C}$ ,  $\tau_X$  is an isomorphism  $FX \cong GX$ .

Functors F and G are naturally isomorphic,  $F \cong G$ , iff there exists a natural isomorphism between them.

**Definition 4.3.3** (Inverse). Let  $\tau : F \cong G$ . The *inverse* natural isomorphism  $\tau^{-1} : G \cong F$  is defined by  $(\tau^{-1})_X = \tau_X^{-1}$ .

### 4.4 Bifunctors

**Definition 4.4.1** (Commutative). A bifunctor  $\square : \mathcal{C}^2 \to \mathcal{C}$  is *commutative* iff  $\square \cong \square \circ T$ , where  $T : \mathcal{C}^2 \to \mathcal{C}^2$  is the swap functor.

**Proposition 4.4.2.**  $\vee : \mathbf{Set}_* \times \mathbf{Set}_* \to \mathbf{Set}_*$  is commutative.

PROOF: Since the pushout of f and g is the pushout of g and f.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 4.4.3.**  $\wedge : \mathbf{Set}_* \times \mathbf{Set}_* \to \mathbf{Set}_*$  is commutative.

PROOF: In the diagram defining  $X \wedge Y$ , construct the isomorphism between the version with X and Y and the version with X for every object.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 4.4.4.**  $\vee_B : \mathbf{Set}_B^B \times \mathbf{Set}_B^B \to \mathbf{Set}_B^B$  is commutative.

**Proposition 4.4.5.**  $\wedge_B : \mathbf{Set}_B^B \times \mathbf{Set}_B^B \to \mathbf{Set}_B^B$  is commutative.

**Definition 4.4.6** (Associative). A bifunctor  $\square$  is associative iff  $\square \circ (\square \times id) \cong \square \circ (id \times \square)$ .

**Proposition 4.4.7.**  $\vee : \mathbf{Set}_* \times \mathbf{Set}_* \to \mathbf{Set}_*$  is associative.

PROOF: Since  $X \vee (Y \vee Z)$  and  $(X \vee Y) \vee Z$  are both the pushout of the unique morphisms  $1 \to X$ ,  $1 \to Y$  and  $1 \to Z$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 4.4.8.**  $\wedge : \mathbf{Set}_* \times \mathbf{Set}_* \to \mathbf{Set}_*$  is associative.

PROOF: Draw isomorphisms between the diagrams for  $X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$  and  $(X \wedge Y) \wedge Z$ .  $\square$ 

Product and coproduct are commutative and associative.

**Proposition 4.4.9.**  $\vee_B : \mathbf{Set}_B^B \times \mathbf{Set}_B^B \to \mathbf{Set}_B^B$  is associative.

**Proposition 4.4.10.**  $\wedge_B : \mathbf{Set}_B^B \times \mathbf{Set}_B^B \to \mathbf{Set}_B^B$  is associative.

**Proposition 4.4.11.** Let C be a category with binary coproducts. Let  $\square$ :  $C \times C \to C$  be a bifunctor. Then  $\square$  distributes over + iff the canonical morphism

$$(X \square Z) + (Y \square Z) \rightarrow (X + Y) \square Z$$

is an isomorphism for all X, Y, Z.

**Proposition 4.4.12.** In a category with binary products and binary coproducts, then  $\times$  distributes over +.

**Proposition 4.4.13.** In Set/\*, we have  $\times$  does not distribute over  $\vee$ .

**Proposition 4.4.14.** In Set/\*, we have  $\land$  distributes over  $\lor$ .

**Proposition 4.4.15.** In Set/B, we have  $\times_B$  distributes over  $+_B$ .

**Proposition 4.4.16.** In Set/ $B^B$ , we have  $\wedge_B$  distributes over  $\vee_B$ .

### 4.5 Functor Categories

**Definition 4.5.1** (Functor Category). Given categories  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $\mathcal{D}$ , define the functor category  $\mathcal{C}^{\mathcal{D}}$  to be the category with objects the functors from  $\mathcal{D}$  to  $\mathcal{C}$  and morphisms the natural transformations.

**Definition 4.5.2** (Yoneda Embedding). Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a category. The *Yoneda* embedding  $Y: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbf{Set}^{\mathcal{C}^{\mathrm{op}}}$  is the functor that maps an object A to  $\mathcal{C}[-,A]$  and morphisms similarly.

**Theorem 4.5.3** (Yoneda Lemma). Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a category. There exists a natural isomorphism

$$\phi_{XF}: \mathbf{Set}^{\mathcal{C}^{\mathrm{op}}}[\mathcal{C}[-,X],F] \cong FX$$

that maps  $\tau : \mathcal{C}[-,X] \Rightarrow F$  to  $\tau_X(\mathrm{id}_X)$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $\phi$  is natural in X.

```
Proof:
```

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $f: X \to Y: \mathcal{C}$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\tau : \mathcal{C}[-, X] \Rightarrow F$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $Ff(\phi(\tau)) = \phi(\tau \circ \mathcal{C}[-, f])$

Proof:

$$\phi(\tau \circ \mathcal{C}[-, f]) = \tau_Y(\mathrm{id}_Y \circ f)$$

$$= \tau_Y(f)$$

$$= \tau_Y(f \circ \mathrm{id}_X)$$

$$= Ff(\tau_X(\mathrm{id}_X)) \qquad (\tau \text{ natural})$$

$$= Ff(\phi(\tau))$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\phi$  is natural in F.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\alpha : F \Rightarrow G : \mathcal{C}^{op} \to \mathbf{Set}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\tau : \mathcal{C}[-, X] \Rightarrow F$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \alpha_X(\phi(\tau)) = \phi(\alpha \bullet \tau)$

PROOF:  $\phi(\alpha \bullet \tau) = \alpha_X(\tau_X(\mathrm{id}_X)) = \alpha_X(\phi(\tau))$ 

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Each  $\phi_{XF}$  is injective.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\sigma, \tau : \mathcal{C}[-, X] \Rightarrow F$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $\phi(\sigma) = \phi(\tau)$

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$$\begin{array}{l} \langle 2 \rangle 3. \text{ Let: } f: Y \rightarrow X \\ \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ \sigma_Y(f) = \tau_Y(f) \\ \text{Proof:} \\ \sigma_Y(f) = \sigma_Y(\operatorname{id}_X \circ f) \\ = Ff(\sigma_X(\operatorname{id}_X)) \qquad (\sigma \text{ is natural}) \\ = Ff(\tau_X(\operatorname{id}_X)) \qquad (\langle 2 \rangle 2) \\ = \tau_Y(\operatorname{id}_X \circ f) \qquad (\tau \text{ is natural}) \\ = \tau_Y(f) \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. \text{ Each } \phi_{XF} \text{ is surjective.} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 1. \text{ Let: } X \in \mathcal{C} \text{ and } F: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 2. \text{ Let: } a \in FX \\ \langle 2 \rangle 3. \text{ Let: } \tau: \mathcal{C}[-,X] \Rightarrow F \text{ be given by } \tau_Y(g) = Fg(a) \text{ for } g: Y \rightarrow X \\ \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ \tau \text{ is natural.} \\ \langle 3 \rangle 1. \text{ Let: } h: Y \rightarrow Z: \mathcal{C} \\ \text{PROVE: } Fh \circ \tau_Z = \tau_Y \circ \mathcal{C}[h, \operatorname{id}_X] \\ \langle 3 \rangle 2. \text{ Let: } g: Z \rightarrow X \\ \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ Fh(\tau_Z(g)) = \tau_Y(g \circ h) \\ \text{PROOF:} \\ \tau_Y(g \circ h) = F(g \circ h)(a) \\ = Fh(Fg(a)) \\ = Fh(Fg(a)) \\ = Fh(\tau_Z(g)) \\ \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ \phi(\tau) = a \\ \text{PROOF:} \\ \phi_X(\tau) = \tau_X(\operatorname{id}_X) \\ = F \operatorname{id}_X(a) \\ = a \\ \square \\ \end{array}$$

Corollary 4.5.3.1. The Yoneda embedding is fully faithful.

**Corollary 4.5.3.2.** Given objects A and B in C, we have  $A \cong B$  if and only if  $C[-, A] \cong C[-, B]$ .

### The Real Numbers

**Theorem 5.0.1.** The following hold in the real numbers:

1. 
$$x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z$$

$$2. \ x(yz) = (xy)z$$

3. 
$$x + y = y + x$$

4. 
$$xy = yx$$

5. 
$$x + 0 = x$$

6. 
$$x1 = x$$

7. 
$$x + (-x) = 0$$

8. If 
$$x \neq 0$$
 then  $x \cdot (1/x) = 1$ 

$$9. \ x(y+z) = xy + xz$$

10. If 
$$x > y$$
 then  $x + z > y + z$ .

11. If 
$$x > y$$
 and  $z > 0$  then  $xz > yz$ .

12.  $\mathbb{R}$  has the least upper bound property.

13. If x < y then there exists z such that x < z < y.

**Definition 5.0.2** (Subtraction). We write x - y for x + (-y).

**Definition 5.0.3.** Given real numbers x and y with  $y \neq 0$ , we write x/y for  $xy^{-1}$ .

**Theorem 5.0.4.** For any real numbers x and y, if x + y = x then y = 0.

Proof:

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1$$
. Let:  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ 

$$\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ Assume: } x+y=x \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. \ y=0 \\ \text{Proof:} \\ y=y+0 & \text{(Definition of zero)} \\ =y+(x+(-x)) & \text{(Definition of } -x) \\ =(y+x)+(-x) & \text{(Associativity of Addition)} \\ =(x+y)+(-x) & \text{(Commutativity of Addition)} \\ =x+(-x) & \text{($\langle 1 \rangle 2$)} \\ =0 & \text{(Definition of } -x) \\ \end{array}$$

#### Theorem 5.0.5.

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}.0x = 0$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . xx + 0x = xxProof:

$$xx + 0x = (x + 0)x$$
 (Distributive Law)  
=  $xx$  (Definition of 0)

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 0x = 0$ 

PROOF: Theorem 5.0.4,  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .

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#### Theorem 5.0.6.

$$-0 = 0$$

PROOF: Since 0 + 0 = 0.  $\square$ 

Theorem 5.0.7.

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}. - (-x) = x$$

PROOF: Since -x + x = 0.  $\square$ 

Theorem 5.0.8.

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}.x(-y) = -(xy)$$

Proof:

$$x(-y) + xy = x((-y) + y)$$
 (Distributive Law)  
=  $x0$  (Definition of  $-y$ )  
=  $0$  (Theorem 5.0.5)

Theorem 5.0.9.

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}.(-1)x = -x$$

Proof:

$$(-1)x = -(1 \cdot x)$$
 (Theorem 5.0.8)  
=  $-x$  (Definition of 1)

#### 5.0.1 Subtraction

Theorem 5.0.10.

$$\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}.x(y-z) = xy - xz$$

Proof:

$$x(y-z) = x(y+(-z))$$
 (Definition of subtraction)  
 $= xy + x(-z)$  (Distributive Law)  
 $= xy + (-(xz))$  (Theorem 5.0.8)  
 $= xy - xz$  (Definition of subtraction)

Theorem 5.0.11.

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}. - (x+y) = -x - y$$

Proof:

$$-(x+y) = (-1)(x+y)$$
 (Theorem 5.0.9)  

$$= (-1)x + (-1)y$$
 (Distributive Law)  

$$= -x + (-y)$$
 (Theorem 5.0.9)  

$$= -x - y$$
 (Definition of subtraction)  $\square$ 

Theorem 5.0.12.

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}. - (x - y) = -x + y$$

PROOF:

$$-(x-y) = -(x+(-y))$$
 (Definition of subtraction)  

$$= -x - (-y)$$
 (Theorem 5.0.11)  

$$= -x + (-(-y))$$
 (Definition of subtraction)  

$$= -x + y$$
 (Theorem 5.0.7)  $\square$ 

**Definition 5.0.13** (Reciprocal). Given  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $x \neq 0$ , the *reciprocal* of x, 1/x, is the unique real number such that  $x \cdot 1/x = 1$ .

**Theorem 5.0.14.** For any real numbers x and y, if  $x \neq 0$  and xy = x then y = 1.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ 

$$\begin{array}{lll} \langle 1 \rangle 2. & \text{Assume: } x \neq 0 \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. & \text{Assume: } xy = x \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. & y = 1 \\ & \text{Proof:} \\ & y = y1 & \text{(Definition of 1)} \\ & = y(x \cdot 1/x) & \text{(Definition of } 1/x, \langle 1 \rangle 2) \\ & = (yx)1/x & \text{(Associativity of Multiplication)} \\ & = (xy)1/x & \text{(Commutativity of Multiplication)} \\ & = x \cdot 1/x & \text{($\langle 1 \rangle 3$)} \\ & = 1 & \text{(Definition of } 1/x, \langle 1 \rangle 2) \end{array}$$

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**Definition 5.0.15** (Quotient). Given real numbers x and y with  $y \neq 0$ , the quotient x/y is defined by

$$x/y = x \cdot 1/y$$
.

**Theorem 5.0.16.** For any real number x, if  $x \neq 0$  then x/x = 1.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.  $\Box$ 

Theorem 5.0.17.

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}.x/1 = x$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 1/1 = 1

PROOF: Since  $1 \cdot 1 = 1$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ x/1 = x$ 

PROOF: Since  $x/1 = x \cdot 1/1 = x \cdot 1 = x$ .

**Theorem 5.0.18.** For any real numbers x and y, if  $x \neq 0$  and  $y \neq 0$  then  $xy \neq 0$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume: xy = 0 and  $x \neq 0$ 

Prove: y = 0

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ y = 0$  PROOF:

y = 1y (Definition of 1) = (1/x)xy (Definition of 1/x,  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ ) = (1/x)0 ( $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ ) = 0 (Theorem 5.0.5)

**Theorem 5.0.19.** For any real numbers y and z, if  $y \neq 0$  and  $z \neq 0$  then (1/y)(1/z) = 1/(yz).

PROOF: Since  $yz(1/y)(1/z) = 1 \cdot 1 = 1$ .

**Corollary 5.0.19.1.** For any real numbers x, y, z, w with  $y \neq 0 \neq w$ , we have (x/y)(z/w) = (xz)/(yw).

**Theorem 5.0.20.** For any real numbers x, y, z, w with  $y \neq 0 \neq w$ , we have

$$\frac{x}{y} + \frac{z}{w} = \frac{xw + yz}{yw}$$

Proof:

$$yw\left(\frac{x}{y} + \frac{z}{w}\right) = yw\frac{x}{y} + yw\frac{z}{w}$$
$$= wx + yz$$

**Theorem 5.0.21.** For any real number x, if  $x \neq 0$  then  $1/x \neq 0$ .

PROOF: Since  $x \cdot 1/x = 1 \neq 0$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 5.0.22.** For any real numbers w, z, if  $w \neq 0 \neq z$  then 1/(w/z) = z/w.

PROOF: Since (z/w)(w/z) = (wz)/(wz) = 1.

**Theorem 5.0.23.** For any real numbers a, x and y, if  $y \neq 0$  then (ax)/y = a(x/y)

PROOF: Since ya(x/y) = ax.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 5.0.24.** For any real numbers x and y, if  $y \neq 0$  then (-x)/y = x/(-y) = -(x/y).

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ (-x)/y = -(x/y)$ 

PROOF: Take a = -1 in Theorem 5.0.23.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . x/(-y) = -(x/y)

PROOF: Since (-y)(-(x/y)) = y(x/y) = x.

**Theorem 5.0.25.** For any real numbers x, y, z and w, if x > y and w > z then x + w > y + z.

PROOF: We have y + z < x + z < x + w by Monotonicity of Addition twice.  $\square$ 

**Corollary 5.0.25.1.** For any real numbers x and y, if x > 0 and y > 0 then x + y > 0.

**Theorem 5.0.26.** For any real numbers x and y, if x > 0 and y > 0 then xy > 0.

Proof:

$$xy > 0y$$
 (Monotonicity of Multiplication)  
= 0 (Theorem 5.0.5)

**Theorem 5.0.27.** For any real number x, we have x > 0 iff -x < 0.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If 0 < x then -x < 0

PROOF: By Monotonicity of Addition adding -x to both sides.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If -x < 0 then 0 < x

PROOF: By Monotonicity of Addition adding x to both sides.

<b>Theorem 5.0.28.</b> For any real numbers $x$ and $y$ , we have $x > y$ iff $-x < -y$ .
PROOF: $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If $y < x$ then $-x < -y$ .  PROOF: By Monotonicity of Addition adding $-x - y$ to both sides. $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If $-x < -y$ then $y < x$ .  PROOF: By Monotonicity of Addition adding $x + y$ to both sides.
<b>Theorem 5.0.29.</b> For any real numbers $x$ , $y$ and $z$ , if $x > y$ and $z < 0$ then $xz < yz$ .
PROOF: $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: $x, y$ and $z$ be real numbers. $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume: $x > y$ $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Assume: $z < 0$ $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . $-z > 0$ Proof: Theorem $5.0.27, \langle 1 \rangle 3$ . $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . $x(-z) > y(-z)$ Proof: $\langle 1 \rangle 2, \langle 1 \rangle 4$ , Monotonicity of Multiplication. $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . $-(xz) > -(yz)$ Proof: Theorem $5.0.8, \langle 1 \rangle 5$ . $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . $xz < yz$ Proof: Theorem $5.0.27, \langle 1 \rangle 6$ .
<b>Theorem 5.0.30.</b> For any real number $x$ , if $x \neq 0$ then $xx > 0$ .
PROOF: $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If $x > 0$ then $xx > 0$ PROOF: By Monotonicity of Multiplication. $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If $x < 0$ then $xx > 0$ PROOF: Theorem 5.0.29.
Theorem 5.0.31.
0 < 1
PROOF: By Theorem 5.0.30 since $1 = 1 \cdot 1$ . $\Box$
<b>Definition 5.0.32</b> (Positive). A real number $x$ is <i>positive</i> iff $x > 0$ . We write $\mathbb{R}_+$ for the set of positive reals.
<b>Theorem 5.0.33.</b> For any real numbers $x$ and $y$ , we have $xy$ is positive if and only if $x$ and $y$ are both positive or both negative.
Proof: By the Monotonicity of Multiplication and Theorem 5.0.29. $\Box$
Corollary 5.0.33.1. For any real number $x$ , if $x > 0$ then $1/x > 0$ .
PROOF: Since $x \cdot 1/x = 1$ is positive. $\square$

**Theorem 5.0.34.** For any real numbers x and y, if x > y > 0 then 1/x < 1/y.

PROOF: If  $1/y \le 1/x$  then 1 < 1 by Monotonicity of Multiplication.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 5.0.35.** For any real numbers x and y, if x < y then x < (x+y)/2 < y.

PROOF: We have 2x < x + y and x + y < 2y by Monotonicity of Addition, hence x < (x + y)/2 < y by Monotonicity of Multiplication since 1/2 > 0.  $\square$ 

Corollary 5.0.35.1.  $\mathbb{R}$  is a linear continuum.

**Definition 5.0.36** (Negative). A real number x is negative iff x < 0. We write  $\overline{\mathbb{R}_+}$  for the set of nonnegative reals.

**Theorem 5.0.37.** For every positive real number a, there exists a unique positive real  $\sqrt{a}$  such that  $\sqrt{a}^2 = a$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: a be a positive real.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For any real numbers x and h, if  $0 \leq h < 1$ , then

$$(x+h)^2 < x^2 + h(2x+1)$$
.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: x and h be real numbers.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $0 \le h < 1$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $(x+h)^2 < x^2 + h(2x+1)$

Proof:

$$(x+h)^{2} = x^{2} + 2hx + h^{2}$$

$$< x^{2} + 2hx + h$$

$$= x^{2} + h(2x+1)$$
(\langle 2\rangle 2)

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For any real numbers x and h, if h > 0 then

$$(x-h)^2 > x^2 - 2hx .$$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: x and h be real numbers.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: h > 0
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $(x-h)^2 > x^2 2hx$

Proof:

$$(x-h)^2 = x^2 - 2hx + h^2$$
  
>  $x^2 - 2hx$  (\langle 2\rangle 2)

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For any positive real x, if  $x^2 < a$  then there exists h > 0 such that  $(x+h)^2 < a$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: x be a positive real.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $x^2 < a$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $h = \min((a x^2)/(2x + 1), 1/2)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ 0 < h < 1$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .  $(x+h)^2 < a$

Proof:

$$(x+h)^2 < x^2 + h(2x+1)$$

$$\leq a$$

$$(\langle 1 \rangle 2)$$

```
\langle 1 \rangle 5. For any positive real x, if x^2 > a then there exists h > 0 such that
         (x-h)^2 > a.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: x be a positive real.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: x^2 > a
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Let: h = (x^2 - a)/2x
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ h > 0
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. (x-h)^2 > a
      Proof:
                              (x-h)^2 > x^2 - 2hx
                                                                                      (\langle 2 \rangle 3)
\langle 1 \rangle 6. Let: B = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 < a \}
\langle 1 \rangle 7. B is bounded above.
   PROOF: If a \ge 1 then a is an upper bound. If a < 1 then 1 is an upper bound.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. B contains at least one positive real.
   PROOF: If a \ge 1 then 1 \in B. If a < 1 then a \in B.
\langle 1 \rangle 9. Let: b = \sup B
\langle 1 \rangle 10. b^2 = a
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. b^2 \geqslant a
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction b^2 < a
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick h > 0 such that (b+h)^2 < a
          Proof: \langle 1 \rangle 4
       \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ b+h \in B
       \langle 3 \rangle 4. Q.E.D.
          PROOF: This contradicts \langle 1 \rangle 9.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. \ b^2 \leqslant a
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction b^2 > a
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick h > 0 such that (b-h)^2 > a
          Proof: \langle 1 \rangle 5
       \langle 3 \rangle 3. Pick x \in B such that b - h < x
          Proof: \langle 1 \rangle 9
       \langle 3 \rangle 4. (b-h)^2 < x^2 < a
       \langle 3 \rangle 5. Q.E.D.
          Proof: This contradicts \langle 3 \rangle 2
\langle 1 \rangle 11. For any positive reals b and c, if b^2 = c^2 then b = c.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: b and c be positive reals.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: b^2 = c^2
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ b^2 - c^2 = 0
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. (b-c)(b+c)=0
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. b - c = 0 or b + c = 0
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. b+c \neq 0
      PROOF: Since b + c > 0
   \langle 2 \rangle 7. \ b-c=0
   \langle 2 \rangle 8. b = c
```

**Theorem 5.0.38.** The set of real numbers is uncountable.

### Integers and Rationals

#### **Positive Integers** 6.1

**Definition 6.1.1** (Inductive). A set of real numbers A is inductive iff  $1 \in A$ and  $\forall x \in A.x + 1 \in A$ .

**Definition 6.1.2** (Positive Integer). The set  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  of positive integers is the

intersection of the set of inductive sets. **Proposition 6.1.3.** Every positive integer is positive. PROOF: The set of positive reals is inductive.  $\square$ **Proposition 6.1.4.** 1 is the least element of  $\mathbb{Z}_+$ . PROOF: Since  $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \ge 1\}$  is inductive.  $\square$ **Proposition 6.1.5.**  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  is inductive. PROOF: 1 is an element of every inductive set, and for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , if x is an element of every inductive set then so is x + 1. **Theorem 6.1.6** (Principle of Induction). If A is an inductive set of positive integers then  $A = \mathbb{Z}_+$ . Proof: Immediate from definitions.

**Theorem 6.1.7** (Well-Ordering Property).  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  is well ordered.

PROOF: Construct the obvious order isomorphism  $\omega \cong \mathbb{Z}_+$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 6.1.8** (Archimedean Ordering Property). The set  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  is unbounded above.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  is bounded above.

$$\begin{split} &\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \text{Let:} \\ &s = \sup \mathbb{Z}_+ \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \text{Pick } n \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \text{ such that } s-1 < n \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ s < n+1 \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ \text{Q.E.D.} \\ &\text{Proof:} &\langle 1 \rangle 2 \text{ and } \langle 1 \rangle 4 \text{ form a contradiction.} \\ &\sqcap \end{split}$$

### 6.1.1 Exponentiation

**Definition 6.1.9.** For a a real number and n a positive integer, define the real number  $a^n$  recursively as follows:

$$a^1 = a$$
$$a^{n+1} = a^n a$$

**Theorem 6.1.10.** For all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $m, n \in mathbb{Z_+}$ , we have

$$a^n a^m = a^{n+m}$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: P(m) be the property  $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}. \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_+. a^n a^m = a^{n+m}$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . P(1)

PROOF:  $a^n a^1 = a^n a = a^{n+1}$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \forall m \in \mathbb{Z}_+.P(m) \Rightarrow P(m+1)$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: m be a positive integer.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: P(m)

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .  $a^n a^{m+1} = a^{n+m+1}$ 

Proof:

$$a^{n}a^{m+1} = a^{n}a^{m}a$$

$$= a^{n+m}a \qquad (\langle 2 \rangle 2)$$

$$= a^{n+m+1}$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Q.E.D.

Proof: By induction.

П

**Theorem 6.1.11.** For all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ ,

$$(a^n)^m = a^{nm} .$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: P(m) be the property  $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}. \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_+. (a^n)^m = a^{nm}$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . P(1)

PROOF:  $(a^n)^1 = a^n = a^{n \cdot 1}$ 

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$$\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \forall m \in \mathbb{Z}_+.P(m) \Rightarrow P(m+1)$$

$$(a^n)^{m+1} = (a^n)^m a^n$$

$$= a^{nm} a^n$$

$$= a^{nm+n}$$
 (Theorem 6.1.10)
$$= a^{n(m+1)}$$

**Theorem 6.1.12.** For any real numbers a and b and positive integer m,

$$a^m b^m = (ab)^m .$$

PROOF: Induction on m.  $\square$ 

### 6.2 Integers

**Definition 6.2.1** (Integer). The set  $\mathbb{Z}$  of *integers* is

$$\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z}_+ \cup \{0\} \cup \{-x : x \in \mathbb{Z}_+\} .$$

**Proposition 6.2.2.** The sum, difference and product of two integers is an integer.

Proof: Easy.

**Example 6.2.3.** 1/2 is not an integer.

**Proposition 6.2.4.** For any integer n, there is no integer a such that n < a < n + 1.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For any positive integer n, there is no integer a such that n < a < n + 1.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . There is no integer a such that 1 < a < 2.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . There is no positive integer a such that 1 < a < 2.
      - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$ . We do not have 1 < 1 < 2.
      - $\langle 4 \rangle 2$ . For any positive integer n, we do not have 1 < n + 1 < 2.

PROOF: Since  $n \ge 1$  so  $n + 1 \ge 2$ .

- $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . We do not have 1 < 0 < 2.
- $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . For any positive integer a, we do not have 1 < -a < 2.

PROOF: Since -a < 0 < 1.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For any positive integer n, if there is no integer a such that n < a < n + 1, then there is no integer a such that n + 1 < a < n + 2.

PROOF: If n + 1 < a < n + 2 then n < a - 1 < n + 1.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . There is no integer a such that 0 < a < 1.

PROOF: If 0 < a < 1 then 1 < a + 1 < 2.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For any positive integer n, there is no integer a such that -n < a < -n+1. PROOF: If -n < a < -n+1 then n-1 < -a < n.

П

**Theorem 6.2.5.** Every nonempty subset of  $\mathbb{Z}$  bounded above has a largest element.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: S be a nonempty subset of  $\mathbb{Z}$  bounded above.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let: u be an upper bound for S.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . PICK an integer n > u

PROOF: Archimedean property.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let: k be the least positive integer such that  $n k \in S$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Pick  $m \in S$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . n-m is a positive integer.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . There exists a positive integer k such that  $n k \in S$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . n-k is the greatest element in S.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $m \in S$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $n m \geqslant k$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ m \leqslant n k$

**Theorem 6.2.6.** For any real number x, if x is not an integer then there exists a unique integer n such that n < x < n + 1.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $\{ n \in \mathbb{Z} : n < x \}$  is a nonempty set of integers bounded above.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Pick m > -x

PROOF: Archimedean property.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . -m < x
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $\{ n \in \mathbb{Z} : n < x \}$  is nonempty.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let: n be the greatest integer such that n < x
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ x < n+1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . If n' is an integer with n' < x < n' + 1 then n' = n.

PROOF: We have n' < n + 1 so  $n' \le n$ , and n < n' + 1 so  $n \le n'$ .

**Definition 6.2.7** (Even). An integer n is *even* iff n/2 is an integer; otherwise, n is odd.

**Theorem 6.2.8.** If the integer m is odd then there exists an integer n such that m = 2n + 1.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 1. LET: n be the integer such that n < m/2 < n+1 PROOF: Theorem 6.2.6.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 2n < m < 2n + 2
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ m = 2n+1$

**Theorem 6.2.9.** The product of two odd integers is odd.

PROOF: (2m+1)(2n+1) = 2(2mn+m+n) + 1.

**Corollary 6.2.9.1.** If p is an odd integer and n is a positive integer then  $p^n$  is an odd integer.

**Definition 6.2.10** (Exponentiation). Extend the definition of exponentiation so  $a^n$  is defined for:

- ullet all real numbers a and non-negative integers n
- $\bullet$  all non-zero real numbers a and integers n

as follows:

$$a^0 = 1$$
  
 $a^{-n} = 1/a^n$  (n a positive integer)

**Theorem 6.2.11** (Laws of Exponents). For all non-zero reals a and b and integers m and n,

$$a^{n}a^{m} = a^{n+m}$$
$$(a^{n})^{m} = a^{nm}$$
$$a^{m}b^{m} = (ab)^{m}$$

Proof: Easy.

Theorem 6.2.12.  $\mathbb{Z}$  is countable.

PROOF: The function that maps an integer n to 2n if  $n \ge 0$  and -1-2n if n < 0 is a bijection  $\mathbb{Z} \approx \mathbb{N}$ .  $\square$ 

#### 6.3 Rational Numbers

**Definition 6.3.1** (Rational Number). The set  $\mathbb{Q}$  of rational numbers is the set of all real numbers that are the quotient of two integers. A real that is not rational is *irrational*.

Theorem 6.3.2.  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For any positive rational a, there exist positive integers m and n not both even such that a=m/n.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: a be a positive rational.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: n be the least positive integer such that na is a positive integer.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let: m = na
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Assume: for a contradiction m and n are both even.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . m/2 = (n/2)a
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Q.E.D.

```
PROOF: This contradicts the leastness of n (\langle 2 \rangle 2). \langle 1 \rangle 2. Assume: for a contradiction \sqrt{2} is rational. \langle 1 \rangle 3. Pick positive integers m and n not both even such that \sqrt{2} = m/n. \langle 1 \rangle 4. m^2 = 2n^2 \langle 1 \rangle 5. m^2 is even. \langle 1 \rangle 6. m is even. PROOF: Theorem 6.2.9. \langle 1 \rangle 7. Let: k = m/2 \langle 1 \rangle 8. 4k^2 = 2n^2 \langle 1 \rangle 8. 4k^2 = 2n^2 \langle 1 \rangle 9. n^2 = 2k^2 \langle 1 \rangle 10. n^2 is even. PROOF: Theorem 6.2.9. \langle 1 \rangle 11. n is even. PROOF: \langle 1 \rangle 3, \langle 1 \rangle 6 and \langle 1 \rangle 11 form a contradiction.
```

## Monoid Theory

**Definition 7.0.1** (Monoid). A monoid is a category with one object.

**Definition 7.0.2.** Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a category and  $X \in \mathcal{C}$ . The monoid  $\operatorname{End}_{\mathcal{C}}(X)$  is the set of all morphisms  $X \to X$  under composition.

**Proposition 7.0.3.** For any functor  $F: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$  and  $X \in \mathcal{C}$ , we have that  $F: \operatorname{End}_{\mathcal{C}}(X) \to \operatorname{End}_{\mathcal{D}}(FX)$  is a monoid homomorphism.

PROOF: Since  $Fid_X = id_{FX}$  and  $F(g \circ f) = Fg \circ Ff$ .  $\square$ 

## Group Theory

**Definition 8.0.1.** Let **Grp** be the category of small groups and group homomorphisms.

**Definition 8.0.2.** We identify any group G with the category with one object whose morphisms are the elements of G with composition given by the multiplication in G.

Proposition 8.0.3. The trivial group is a zero object in Grp.

Proof: Easy.

The zero morphism  $G \to H$  maps every element in G to e.

**Definition 8.0.4.** Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a category and  $X \in \mathcal{C}$ . We write  $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathcal{C}}(X)$  for the set of all isomorphisms  $X \cong X$  under composition.

**Proposition 8.0.5.** Let  $F: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$  be a functor and  $X \in \mathcal{C}$ . Then  $F: \operatorname{Aut}_{\mathcal{C}}(X) \to \operatorname{Aut}_{\mathcal{D}}(FX)$  is a group homomorphism.

PROOF: Since  $Fid_X = id_{FX}$ ,  $F(g \circ f) = Fg \circ Ff$ , and  $Ff^{-1} = (Ff)^{-1}$ .  $\square$ 

Proposition 8.0.6. Grp has products.

**Definition 8.0.7** (Free Product). The product of a family of groups in **Grp** is called the *free product*.

**Proposition 8.0.8.** Ab has products given by direct sums.

### Ring Theory

**Definition 9.0.1.** Let **Ring** be the concrete category of rings and ring homomorphisms.

**Definition 9.0.2** (Spectrum). Let R be a commutative ring. The *spectrum* of R, spec R, is the set of all prime ideals of R.

**Definition 9.0.3** (Zariski Topology). Let R be a commutative ring. The Zariski topology on spec R is the topology where the closed sets are the sets of the form

$$VE := \{ p \in \operatorname{spec} R : E \subseteq p \}$$

for any  $E \in \mathcal{P}R$ .

We prove this is a topology.

#### Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: \mathcal{C} = \{VE : E \in \mathcal{P}R\}
\langle 1 \rangle 2. For all \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{C} we have \bigcap \mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{C}
     \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{C}
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: E = \bigcup \{E' \in \mathcal{P}R : VE' \in \mathcal{A}\}
                 PROVE: VE = \bigcap A
     \langle 2 \rangle 3. For all p \in \operatorname{spec} R, if E \subseteq p then p \in \bigcap \mathcal{A}
         \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: p \in \operatorname{spec} R
         \langle 3 \rangle 2. Assume: E \subseteq p
         \langle 3 \rangle 3. Let: E' \in \mathcal{P}R with VE' \in \mathcal{A}
         \langle 3 \rangle 4. E' \subseteq E
         \langle 3 \rangle 5. E' \subseteq p
         \langle 3 \rangle 6. \ p \in VE'
     \langle 2 \rangle 4. For all p \in \operatorname{spec} R, if p \in \bigcap A then E \subseteq p
         \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: p \in \bigcap \mathcal{A}
         \langle 3 \rangle 2. For all E' \in \mathcal{P}R with VE' \in \mathcal{A} we have E' \subseteq p
         \langle 3 \rangle 3. E \subseteq p
\langle 1 \rangle 3. For all C, D \in \mathcal{C} we have C \cup D \in \mathcal{C}.
     PROOF: Since VE \cup VE' = V(E \cap E')
```

 $\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \varnothing \in \mathcal{C} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ VR = \varnothing \\ \text{Proof: If } p \in VR \text{ then } R \subseteq p \text{ contradicting the fact that } p \text{ is a prime ideal.} \\ \end{array}$ 

**Definition 9.0.4.** For any ring R, let  $R - \mathbf{Mod}$  be the category of small R-modules and R-module homomorphisms.

**Proposition 9.0.5.**  $R-\mathbf{Mod}$  has products and coproducts.

# Field Theory

Proposition 10.0.1. Field does not have binary products.

PROOF: There cannot be a field K with field homomorphisms  $K \to \mathbb{Z}_2$  and  $K \to \mathbb{Z}_3$ , because its characteristic would be both 2 and 3.  $\square$ 

# Linear Algebra

**Definition 11.0.1.** For any field K, we write  $\mathbf{Vect}_K$  for  $K-\mathbf{Mod}$ .

Dual space functor  $\mathbf{Vect}_K^{\mathrm{op}} \to \mathbf{Vect}_K$ .

# Chapter 12

# Topology

## 12.1 Topological Spaces

**Definition 12.1.1** (Topological Space). Let X be a set and  $\mathcal{O} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ . Then we say  $(X, \mathcal{O})$  is a *topological space* iff:

- For any  $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{O}$  we have  $\bigcup \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{O}$ .
- For any  $U, V \in \mathcal{O}$  we have  $U \cap V \in \mathcal{O}$ .
- $X \in \mathcal{O}$

We call  $\mathcal{O}$  the topology of the topological space, and call its elements open sets. We shall often write X for the topological space  $(X, \mathcal{O})$ .

**Definition 12.1.2** (Discrete Topology). For any set X, the power set  $\mathcal{P}X$  is called the *discrete* topology on X.

**Proposition 12.1.3.** For any set X, the discrete topology on X is a topology on X.

**Definition 12.1.4** (Indiscrete Topology). For any set X, the *indiscrete* or *trivial* topology on X is  $\{\emptyset, X\}$ .

**Proposition 12.1.5.** For any set X, the indiscrete topology on X is a topology on X.

**Definition 12.1.6** (Cofinite Topology). For any set X, the *cofinite* topology is  $\{X - U : U \subseteq X \text{ is finite}\}.$ 

**Definition 12.1.7** (Cocountable Topology). For any set X, the *cocountable* topology is  $\{X - U : U \subseteq X \text{ is countable}\}.$ 

**Definition 12.1.8** (Sierpiński Two-Point Space). The *Sierpiński two-point space* is  $\{0,1\}$  under the topology  $\{\emptyset,\{1\},\{0,1\}\}$ .

**Definition 12.1.9** (Closed Set). Let X be a topological space and  $A \subseteq X$ . Then A is *closed* iff X - A is open.

**Proposition 12.1.10.** A set B is open if and only if X - B is closed.

**Proposition 12.1.11.** Let X be a set and  $C \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ . Then there exists a topology  $\mathcal{O}$  on X such that C is the set of closed sets if and only if:

- For any  $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{C}$  we have  $\bigcap \mathcal{D} \in \mathcal{C}$
- For any  $C, D \in \mathcal{C}$  we have  $C \cup D \in \mathcal{C}$ .
- $\varnothing \in \mathcal{C}$

In this case,  $\mathcal{O}$  is unique and is given by  $\mathcal{O} = \{X - C : C \in \mathcal{C}\}.$ 

**Theorem 12.1.12.** There are infinitely many primes.

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Furstenberg's proof:
```

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For  $a \in \mathbb{Z} \{0\}$  and  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,
- LET:  $S(a,b) := \{an + b : n \in \mathbb{N}\}\$   $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . LET:  $\mathcal{T}$  be the topology generated by the basis  $\{S(a,b) : a \in \mathbb{Z} \{0\}, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. For every  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , there exist a, b such that  $n \in S(a, b)$ .

PROOF:  $n \in S(n,0)$ 

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . If  $n \in S(a_1,b_1) \cap S(a_2,b_2)$  then there exist  $a_3,b_3$  such that  $n \in S(a_3,b_3) \subseteq S(a_1,b_1) \cap S(a_2,b_2)$ 
  - ⟨3⟩1. Let:  $d = \text{lcm}(a_1, a_2)$ Prove:  $S(d, n) \subseteq S(a_1, b_1) \cap S(a_2, b_2)$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $d = a_1 k = a_2 l$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle$ 3. Let:  $n = a_1c + b_1 = a_2d + b_2$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $z \in \mathbb{Z}$

PROVE: 
$$dz + n \in S(a_1, b_1) \cap S(a_2, b_2)$$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 5.$   $dz + n \in S(a_1, b_1)$ 

Proof:

$$dz + n = a_1kz + a_1c + b_1$$
$$= a_1(kz + c) + b_1$$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 6.$   $dz + n \in S(a_2, b_2)$ 

PROOF: Similar.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For all  $a \in \mathbb{Z} \{0\}$  and  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$  we have S(a, b) is closed.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $a \in \mathbb{Z} \{0\}$  and  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $n \in \mathbb{Z} S(a,b)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ n \in S(a,n) \subseteq \mathbb{Z} S(a,b)$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in S(a, n)$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $x \in S(a,b)$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Pick m such that x = am + b
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . Pick l such that x = al + n
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ . n = a(m-l) + b

$$\langle 3 \rangle 6. \ n \in S(a, b)$$
  
 $\langle 3 \rangle 7. \text{ Q.E.D.}$ 

PROOF: This contradicts  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4.$ 

$$\mathbb{Z} - \{1, -1\} = \bigcup_{\substack{p \text{ prime} \\ 1 \text{ i. i. i.}}} S(p, 0)$$

PROOF: Since every integer except 1 and -1 is divisible by a prime.

- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. No nonempty finite set is open.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Let: U be a nonempty open set
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $n \in U$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . There exist a, b such that  $n \in S(a,b) \subseteq U$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . *U* is infinite.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ .  $\mathbb{Z} \{1, -1\}$  is not closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ .  $\bigcup_{p \text{ prime}} S(p,0)$  is not closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . The union of finitely many closed sets is closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 9$ . There are infinitely many primes.

**Definition 12.1.13** (Neighbourhood). Let X be a topological space,  $Sx \in X$  and  $U \subseteq X$ . Then U is a *neighbourhood* of x, and x is an *interior* point of U, iff there exists an open set V such that  $x \in V \subseteq U$ .

**Proposition 12.1.14.** A set B is open if and only if it is a neighbourhood of each of its points.

**Proposition 12.1.15.** Let X be a set and  $\mathcal{N}: X \to \mathcal{P}X$ . Then there exists a topology  $\mathcal{O}$  on X such that, for all  $x \in X$ , we have  $\mathcal{N}_x$  is the set of neighbourhoods of x, if and only if:

- For all  $x \in X$  and  $N \in \mathcal{N}_x$  we have  $x \in N$
- For all  $x \in X$  we have  $X \in \mathcal{N}_x$
- For all  $x \in X$ ,  $N \in \mathcal{N}_x$  and  $V \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ , if  $N \subseteq V$  then  $V \in \mathcal{N}_x$
- For all  $x \in X$  and  $M, N \in \mathcal{N}_x$  we have  $M \cap N \in \mathcal{N}_x$
- For all  $x \in X$  and  $N \in \mathcal{N}_x$ , there exists  $M \in \mathcal{N}_x$  such that  $M \subseteq N$  and  $\forall y \in M.M \in \mathcal{N}_y$ .

In this case,  $\mathcal{O}$  is unique and is given by  $\mathcal{O} = \{U : \forall x \in U.U \in \mathcal{N}_x\}.$ 

**Definition 12.1.16** (Exterior Point). Let X be a topological space,  $x \in X$  and  $B \subseteq X$ . Then x is an *exterior point* of B iff B - X is a neighbourhood of x.

**Definition 12.1.17** (Boundary Point). Let X be a topological space,  $x \in X$  and  $B \subseteq X$ . Then x is a boundary point of B iff it is neither an interior point nor an exterior point of B.

**Definition 12.1.18** (Interior). Let X be a topological space and  $B \subseteq X$ . The *interior* of B,  $B^{\circ}$ , is the set of all interior points of B.

**Proposition 12.1.19.** The interior of B is the union of all the open sets included in B.

**Definition 12.1.20** (Closure). Let X be a topological space and  $B \subseteq X$ . The *closure* of B,  $\overline{B}$ , is the set of all points that are not exterior points of B.

**Proposition 12.1.21.** The closure of B is the intersection of all the closed sets that include B.

**Proposition 12.1.22.** A set B is open iff  $X - B = \overline{X - B}$ .

**Proposition 12.1.23** (Kuratowski Closure Axioms). Let X be a set and -:  $\mathcal{P}X \to \mathcal{P}X$ . Then there exists a topology  $\mathcal{O}$  such that, for all  $B \subseteq X$ ,  $\overline{B}$  is the closure of B, if and only if:

- $\overline{\varnothing} = \varnothing$
- For all  $A \subseteq X$  we have  $A \subseteq \overline{A}$
- For all  $A \subseteq X$  we have  $\overline{\overline{A}} = \overline{A}$
- For all  $A, B \subseteq X$  we have  $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

In this case,  $\mathcal{O}$  is unique and is defined by  $\mathcal{O} = \{U : X - U = \overline{X - U}\}.$ 

**Definition 12.1.24** (Finer, Coarser). Let  $\mathcal{T}$  and  $\mathcal{T}'$  be topologies on the set X. Then  $\mathcal{T}$  is coarser, smaller or weaker than  $\mathcal{T}'$ , or  $\mathcal{T}'$  is finer, larger or weaker than  $\mathcal{T}$ , iff  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$ .

## 12.1.1 Subspaces

**Definition 12.1.25** (Subspace). Let X be a topological space and  $X_0 \subseteq X$ . The *subspace topology* on  $X_0$  is  $\{U \cap X_0 : U \text{ is open in } X\}$ .

**Example 12.1.26.** The unit sphere  $S^2$  is  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^3 : ||x|| = 1\}$  as a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

**Theorem 12.1.27.** Let X be a topological space and (Y,i) a subset of X. Then the subspace topology on Y is the unique topology such that, for every topological space Z and function  $f:Z \to Y$ , we have f is continuous if and only if  $i \circ f:Z \to X$  is continuous.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If we give Y the subspace topology then, for every topological space Z and function  $f: Z \to Y$ , we have f is continuous if and only if  $i \circ f$  is continuous.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Given Y the subspace topology.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: Z be a topological space.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $f: Z \to Y$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . If f is continuous then  $i \circ f$  is continuous.

Proof: Since i is continuous.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . If  $i \circ f$  is continuous then f is continuous.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $i \circ f$  is continuous.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Let: *U* be open in *Y*.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ f^{-1}(i^{-1}(i(U))) \text{ is open in } Z.$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ .  $f^{-1}(U)$  is open in Z.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If, for every topological space Z and function  $f: Z \to Y$ , we have f is continuous if and only if  $i \circ f$  is continuous.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: For every topological space Z and function  $f: Z \to Y$ , we have f is continuous if and only if  $i \circ f$  is continuous.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . *i* is continuous.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . For every open set U in X, we have  $i^{-1}(X)$  is open in Y
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Let: Z be the set Y under the subspace topology and  $f: Z \to Y$  the identity function.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .  $i \circ f$  is continuous.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . f is continuous.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ . Every set open in Y is open in Z.

#### Topological Disjoint Union 12.1.2

**Definition 12.1.28** (Coproduct Topology). Let  $\{X_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in A}$  be a family of topological spaces. The coproduct topology on  $\coprod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$  is

$$\mathcal{T} = \left\{ \coprod_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha} : \{U_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in A} \text{ is a family with } U_{\alpha} \text{ open in } X_{\alpha} \text{ for all } \alpha \right\} .$$

We prove this is a topology.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For all  $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$  we have  $\bigcup \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{T}$ 

Proof:

PROOF: 
$$\bigcup_{i \in I} \coprod_{\alpha \in A} U_{i\alpha} = \coprod_{\alpha \in A} \bigcup_{i \in I} U_{i\alpha}$$
 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $U, V \in \mathcal{T}$  we have  $U \cap V \in \mathcal{T}$ 

Proof:

$$\coprod_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha} \cap \coprod_{\alpha \in A} V_{\alpha} = \coprod_{\alpha \in A} (U_{\alpha} \cap V_{\alpha})$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \coprod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{T}$ 

PROOF: Since every  $X_{\alpha}$  is open in  $X_{\alpha}$ .

**Proposition 12.1.29.** The coproduct topology is the finest topology on  $\coprod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$ such that every injection  $\kappa_{\alpha}: X_{\alpha} \to \coprod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$  is continuous.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $P = \coprod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\mathcal{T}_c$  be the coproduct topology.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\mathcal{T}$  be any topology on P
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For all  $\alpha \in A$ , the injection  $\kappa_{\alpha} : X_{\alpha} \to (P, \mathcal{T}_c)$  is continuous.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\alpha \in A$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\{U_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha} \in A}$  be a family with each  $U_{\alpha}$  open in  $X_{\alpha}$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . For all  $\alpha \in A$ , we have  $\kappa_{\alpha}^{-1}(\coprod_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha})$  is open in  $X_{\alpha}$ .

PROOF: Since  $\kappa_{\alpha}^{-1}(\coprod_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha}) = U_{\alpha}$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . If, for all  $\alpha \in A$ , the injection  $\kappa_{\alpha} : X_{\alpha} \to (P, \mathcal{T})$  is continuous, then  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_c$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: For all  $\alpha \in A$ , the injection  $\kappa_{\alpha} : X_{\alpha} \to (P, \mathcal{T})$  is continuous.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $U \in \mathcal{T}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . For all  $\alpha \in a$ , we have  $\kappa_{\alpha}^{-1}(U)$  is open in  $X_{\alpha}$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $U = \coprod_{\alpha \in A} \kappa_{\alpha}^{-1}(U) \in \mathcal{T}_c$

**Theorem 12.1.30.** Let  $\{X_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in A}$  be a family of topological spaces. The coproduct topology is the unique topology on  $\coprod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$  such that, for every topological space Z and function  $f: \coprod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha} \to Z$ , we have f is continuous if and only if  $\forall \alpha \in A.f \circ \kappa_{\alpha} \text{ is continuous.}$ 

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $X = \coprod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\mathcal{T}_c$  be the coproduct topology.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For every topological space Z and function  $f: (X, \mathcal{T}_c) \to Z$ , we have f is continuous if and only if  $\forall \alpha \in A. f \circ \kappa_{\alpha}$  is continuous.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: Z be a topological space.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $f: X \to Z$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . If f is continuous then  $\forall \alpha \in A.f \circ \kappa_{\alpha}$  is continuous.

Proof: Because the composite of two continuous functions is continuous.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . If  $\forall \alpha \in A. f \circ \kappa_{\alpha}$  is continuous then f is continuous.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $\forall \alpha \in A. f \circ \kappa_{\alpha}$  is continuous.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Let: *U* be open in *Z*
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . For all  $\alpha \in A$  we have  $\kappa_{\alpha}^{-1}(f^{-1}(U))$  is open in  $X_{\alpha}$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 4.$   $f^{-1}(U) = \coprod_{\alpha \in A} \kappa_{\alpha}^{-1}(f^{-1}(U))$  $\langle 3 \rangle 5.$   $f^{-1}(U)$  is open in X
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For any topology  $\mathcal{T}$  on X, if for every topological space Z and function  $f:(X,\mathcal{T})\to Z$ , we have f is continuous if and only if  $\forall \alpha\in A.f\circ\kappa_{\alpha}$  is continuous, then  $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{T}_c$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\mathcal{T}$  be a topology on X.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: For every topological space Z and function  $f:(X,\mathcal{T}) \to \mathcal{T}$ Z, we have f is continuous if and only if  $\forall \alpha \in A.f \circ \kappa_{\alpha}$  is continuous.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_c$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . For all  $\alpha \in A$  we have  $\kappa_{\alpha} : X_{\alpha} \to (X, \mathcal{T})$  is continuous.

PROOF: From  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$  since  $id_X$  is continuous.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ .  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_c$ 

Proof: Proposition 12.1.29.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $\mathcal{T}_c \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ 

```
\langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: f: (X, \mathcal{T}) \to (X, \mathcal{T}_c) be the identity function.
         \langle 3 \rangle 2. f \circ \kappa_{\alpha} is continuous for all \alpha.
         \langle 3 \rangle 3. f is continuous.
              Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 1
         \langle 3 \rangle 4. \mathcal{T}_c \subseteq \mathcal{T}
П
```

#### 12.1.3Product Topology

**Definition 12.1.31** (Product Topology). Let  $\{X_{\lambda}\}_{{\lambda} \in \Lambda}$  be a family of topological spaces. The product topology on  $\prod_{\lambda \in \Lambda} X_{\lambda}$  is the coarsest topology such that every projection onto  $X_{\lambda}$  is continuous.

**Proposition 12.1.32.** Let  $\{X_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in A}$  be a family of topological spaces. The product topology on  $\prod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$  is the topology generated by the basis  $\mathcal{B} = \{\prod_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha} : \}$ for all  $\alpha \in A$ ,  $U_{\alpha}$  is open in  $X_{\alpha}$  and  $U_{\alpha} = X_{\alpha}$  for all but finitely many  $\alpha \in A$ .

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Proof:
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\langle 1 \rangle 1. \mathcal{B} is a basis for a topology.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: \mathcal{T} be the topology generated by \mathcal{B}.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: \mathcal{T}_p be the product topology.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_p
     \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: B \in \mathcal{B}
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: B = \prod_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha} with each U_{\alpha} open in X_{\alpha} and U_{\alpha} = X_{\alpha} except for
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ B = \pi_{\alpha_1}^{-1}(U_{\alpha_1}) \cap \cdots \cap \pi_{\alpha_n}^{-1}(U_{\alpha_n})
     \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ B \in \mathcal{T}_p
\langle 1 \rangle 5. \mathcal{T}_p \subseteq \mathcal{T}
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. For every \alpha \in A we have \pi_{\alpha} is continuous.
         PROOF: Since \pi^{-1}(U) is open for every U open in X_{\alpha}.
```

**Theorem 12.1.33.** Let  $\{X_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in A}$  be a family of topological spaces. Then the product topology on  $\prod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$  is the unique topology such that, for every topological space Z and function  $f: Z \to \prod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$ , we have f is continuous if and only if, for all  $\alpha \in A$ , we have  $\pi_{\alpha} \circ f : Z \to X_{\alpha}$  is continuous.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If we give  $\prod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$  the product topology, then for every topological space Z and function  $f: Z \to \prod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$ , we have f is continuous if and only if, for all  $\alpha \in A$ , we have  $\pi_{\alpha} \circ f$  is continuous.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Give  $\prod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$  the product topology.  $\langle 2 \rangle$ 2. Let: Z be a topological space.

  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $f: Z \to \prod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . If f is continuous then, for all  $\alpha \in A$ , we have  $\pi_{\alpha} \circ f$  is continuous. PROOF: Since the composite of two continuous functions is continuous.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . If, for all  $\alpha \in A$ , we have  $\pi_{\alpha} \circ f$  is continuous, then f is continuous.

- $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Assume: For all  $\alpha \in A$  we have  $\pi_{\alpha} \circ f$  is continuous.
- $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\{U_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha} \in A}$  be a family with  $U_{\alpha}$  open in  $X_{\alpha}$  such that  $U_{\alpha} = X_{\alpha}$  for all  $\alpha$  except  $\alpha = \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ .
- $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . For all  $\alpha$  we have  $f^{-1}(\pi_{\alpha}^{-1}(U_{\alpha}))$  is open in Z.
- $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ .  $f^{-1}(\prod_{\alpha} U_{\alpha})$  is open in Z

PROOF: Since  $f^{-1}(\prod_{\alpha} U_{\alpha}) = f^{-1}(\pi_{\alpha_1}^{-1}(U_{\alpha_1})) \cap \cdots \cap f^{-1}(\pi_{\alpha_n}^{-1}(U_{\alpha_n})).$ 

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If  $\mathcal{T}$  is a topology on  $\prod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$  such that, for every topological pace Z and function  $f: Z \to \prod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$ , we have f is continuous if and only if, for all  $\alpha \in A$ , we have  $\pi_{\alpha} \circ f$  is continuous, then  $\mathcal{T}$  is the product topology.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Assume:  $\mathcal{T}$  is a topology on  $\prod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$  such that, for every topological pace Z and function  $f: Z \to \prod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$ , we have f is continuous if and only if, for all  $\alpha \in A$ , we have  $\pi_{\alpha} \circ f$  is continuous.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\mathcal{T}_p$  be the product topology.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_p$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $Z = (\prod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}, \mathcal{T}_p)$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $f: Z \to \prod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$  be the identity function
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . For all  $\alpha$  we have  $\pi_{\alpha} \circ f$  is continuous.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . f is continuous.

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ 

- $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ . Every set open in  $\mathcal{T}$  is open in  $\mathcal{T}_p$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $\mathcal{T}_p \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ 
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . id<sub> $\prod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$ </sub> is continuous.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . For all  $\alpha$  we have  $\pi_{\alpha}$  is continuous.

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ .  $\mathcal{T}_p \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ 

PROOF: Since  $\mathcal{T}_p$  is the coarsest topology such that every  $\pi_\alpha$  is continuous.

**Example 12.1.34.** It is not true that, for any function  $f: \prod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha} \to Y$ , if f is continuous in every variable separately then f is continuous.

Define  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$  by

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0 & \text{if } x = y = 0 \end{cases}$$

Then f is continuous in x and in y, but is not continuous.

**Proposition 12.1.35.** Let  $\{X_i\}_{i\in I}$  be a family of topological spaces. Let  $Y_i$  be a subspace of  $X_i$  for all  $i\in I$ . Then the product topology on  $\prod_{i\in I}Y_i$  is the same as the subspace topology on  $\prod_{i\in I}Y_i$  as a subspace of  $\prod_{i\in I}X_i$ .

## Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Given  $\prod_{i \in I} Y_i$  the subspace topology.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\iota : \prod_{i \in I} Y_i$  be the inclusion.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let: Z be any topological space.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $f: Z \to \prod_{i \in I} Y_i$

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. f is continuous if and only if, for all  $i \in I$ , we have  $\pi_i \circ f$  is continuous. PROOF:

$$f$$
 is continuous  $\Leftrightarrow \iota \circ f: Z \to \prod_{i \in I} X_i$  is continuous (Theorem 12.1.27) 
$$\Leftrightarrow \forall i \in I. \pi_i \circ \iota \circ f: Z \to X_i \text{ is continuous} \text{(Theorem 12.1.33)}$$
 
$$\Leftrightarrow \forall i \in I. \iota_i \circ \pi_i \circ f: Z \to X_i \text{ is continuous}$$
 
$$\Leftrightarrow \forall i \in I. \pi_i \circ f: Z \to Y_i \text{ is continuous}$$
 where  $\iota_i$  is the inclusion  $Y_i \to X_i$ .

#### 12.1.4 Bases

**Definition 12.1.36** (Basis). Let X be a topological space. A *basis* for the topology on X is a set of open sets  $\mathcal{B}$  such that every open set is the union of a subset of  $\mathcal{B}$ . The elements of  $\mathcal{B}$  are called *basic open neighbourhoods* of their elements.

**Definition 12.1.37** (Order Topology). Let X be a linearly ordered set. The *order topology* on X is the topology generated by the open interval (a, b) as well as the open rays  $(a, +\infty)$  and  $(-\infty, b)$  for  $a, b \in X$ .

**Definition 12.1.38** (Lower Limit Topology). The *lower limit topology*, *Sorgen-frey topology*, *uphill topology* or *half-open topology* is the topology generated by the basis consisting of all half-open intervals [a, b).

**Proposition 12.1.39.** Let X be a topological space and  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ . Then  $\mathcal{B}$  is a basis for a topology on X if and only if:

1. 
$$\bigcup \mathcal{B} = X$$

2. For all  $A, B \in \mathcal{B}$  and  $x \in A \cap B$ , there exists  $C \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in C \subseteq A \cap B$ .

In this case, the topology is unique and is the set of all unions of subsets of  $\mathcal{B}$ . We call it the topology generated by  $\mathcal{B}$ .

## 12.1.5 Subbases

**Definition 12.1.40** (Subbasis). Let X be a topological space. A *subbasis* for the topology on X is a subset  $S \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$  such that every open set is a union of finite intersections of S.

**Definition 12.1.41** (Space with Basepoint). A space with basepoint is a pair (X, x) where X is a topological space and x : El(X).

## 12.1.6 Countability Axioms

**Definition 12.1.42** (Neighbourhood Basis). Let X be a topological space and  $x_0 : \text{El }(X)$ . A *neighbourhood basis* of  $x_0$  is a set  $\mathcal{U}$  of neighbourhoods of  $x_0$  such that every neighbourhood of  $x_0$  includes an element of  $\mathcal{U}$ .

**Definition 12.1.43** (First Countable). A topological space is *first countable* iff every point has a countable neighbourhood basis.

**Definition 12.1.44** (Second Countable). A topological space is *second countable* iff it has a countable basis.

Every second countable space is first countable.

A subspace of a first countable space is first countable.

A subspace of a second countable space is second countable.

 $\mathbb{R}^n$  is second countable.

An uncountable discrete space is first countable but not second countable.

**Proposition 12.1.45.** Let  $\{X_{\lambda}\}_{{\lambda}\in\Lambda}$  be a family of topological spaces such that no  $X_{\lambda}$  is indiscrete. If  $\Lambda$  is uncountable, then  $\prod_{{\lambda}\in\Lambda} X_{\lambda}$  is not first countable.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For all  $\lambda : \text{El}(\Lambda)$ , PICK  $U_{\lambda}$  open in  $X_{\lambda}$  such that  $\emptyset \neq U_{\lambda} \neq X_{\lambda}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $\lambda : \text{El}(\lambda)$ , PICK  $x_{\lambda} \in U_{\lambda}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Assume: for a contradiction B is a countable neighbourhood basis for  $(x_{\lambda})_{{\lambda} \in {\Lambda}}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . PICK  $\lambda \in \Lambda$  such that, for all  $U \in B$ , we have  $\pi_{\lambda}(U) = X_{\lambda}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . There is no  $U \in \lambda$  such that  $U \subseteq \pi_{\lambda}^{-1}(U_{\lambda})$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Q.E.D.

Proof: This is a contradiction.

## 12.2 Continuous Functions

**Definition 12.2.1** (Continuous). Let X and Y be topological spaces. A function  $f: X \to Y$  is *continuous* iff, for every open set V in Y, the inverse image  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in X.

**Proposition 12.2.2.** 1.  $id_X$  is continuous

- 2. The composite of two continuous functions is continuous.
- 3. If  $f:X\to Y$  is continuous and  $X_0\subseteq X$  then  $f{\upharpoonright} X_0:X_0\to Y$  is continuous.
- 4. If  $f: X + Y \to Z$ , then f is continuous iff  $f \circ \kappa_1 : X \to Z$  and  $f \circ \kappa_2 : Y \to Z$  are continuous.
- 5. If  $f: Z \to X \times Y$ , then f is continuous iff  $\pi_1 \circ f$  and  $\pi_2 \circ f$  are continuous.

**Proposition 12.2.3.** Let X and Y be topological spaces. Let  $f: X \to Y$ . Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a basis for Y. Then f is continuous if and only if, for all  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ , we have  $f^{-1}(B)$  is open in X.

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. If f is continuous then, for all B \in \mathcal{B}, we have f^{-1}(B) is open in X. Proof: Since every element of \mathcal{B} is open in Y. \langle 1 \rangle 2. If, for all B \in \mathcal{B}, we have f^{-1}(B) is open in X, then f is continuous. \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: For all B \in \mathcal{B}, we have f^{-1}(B) is open in X. \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: U be open in Y. \langle 2 \rangle 3. Let: x \in f^{-1}(U) \langle 2 \rangle 4. Pick B \in \mathcal{B} such that f(x) \in B \subseteq U. \langle 2 \rangle 5. x \in f^{-1}(B) \subseteq f^{-1}(U)
```

**Definition 12.2.4** (Homeomorphism). Let X and Y be topological spaces. A homeomorphism between X and Y is a bijection  $f: X \approx Y$  such that f and  $f^{-1}$  are continuous.

**Definition 12.2.5** (Retraction). Let X be a topological space and A a subspace of X. A continuous function  $\rho: X \to A$  is a *retraction* iff  $\rho \upharpoonright A = \mathrm{id}_A$ . We say A is a *retract* of X iff there exists a retraction.

**Definition 12.2.6.** Let **Top** be the category of small topological spaces and continuous functions.

Proposition 12.2.7.  $\emptyset$  is initial in Top.

Proposition 12.2.8. 1 is terminal in Top.

Forgetful functor  $\mathbf{Top} \to \mathbf{Set}$ .

Basepoint preserving continuous functor.

**Proposition 12.2.9.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space. Let S be the Sierpiński two-point space. Define  $\Phi : \mathcal{T} \to \mathbf{Top}[X, S]$  by  $\Phi(U)(x) = 1$  iff  $x \in U$ . Then  $\Phi$  is a bijection.

```
Proof:
```

```
⟨1⟩1. For all U \in \mathcal{T} we have \Phi(U) is continuous.

⟨2⟩1. Let: U \in \mathcal{T}

⟨2⟩2. \Phi(U)(\{1\}) is open.

PROOF: Since \Phi(U)(\{1\}) = U.

⟨1⟩2. \Phi is injective.

PROOF: If \Phi(U) = \Phi(V) then we have \forall x(x \in U \Leftrightarrow \Phi(U)(x) = 1 \Leftrightarrow \Phi(V)(x) = 1 \Leftrightarrow x \in V.

⟨1⟩3. \Phi is surjective.

PROOF: Given f: X \to S continuous we have \Phi(f^{-1}(1)) = f.
```

## 12.2.1 Paths

**Definition 12.2.10** (Path). A path in a topological space X is a continuous function  $[0,1] \to X$ .

## 12.2.2 Loops

**Definition 12.2.11** (Loop). A *loop* in a topological space X is a path  $\alpha$ :  $[0,1] \to X$  such that  $\alpha(0) = \alpha(1)$ .

## 12.3 Convergence

**Definition 12.3.1** (Convergence). Let X be a topological space. Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in X. A point a : El(X) is a *limit* of the sequence iff, for every neighbourhood U of a, there exists  $n_0$  such that  $\forall n \ge n_0.x_n \in U$ .

Convergence in a product space is pointwise convergence.

If  $f: X \to Y$  is continuous and  $x_n \to l$  in X then  $f(x_n) \to f(l)$  in Y.

**Example 12.3.2.** The converse does not hold.

Let X be the set of all continuous functions  $[0,1] \to [-1,1]$  under the product topology. Let  $i: X \to L^2([0,1])$  be the inclusion.

If  $f_n \to f$  then  $i(f_n) \to i(f)$  — Lebesgue convergence theorem.

We prove that i is not continuous.

Assume for a contradiction i is continuous. Choose a neighbourhood K of 0 in X such that  $\forall \phi \in K_{\epsilon}$ .  $\int \phi^2 < 1/2$ . Let  $K = \prod_{\lambda \in [0,1]} U_{\lambda}$  where  $U_{\lambda} = [-1,1]$  except for  $\lambda = \lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ . Let  $\phi$  be the function that is 0 at  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$  and 1 everywhere else. Then  $\phi \in K$  but  $\int \phi^2 = 1$ .

**Proposition 12.3.3.** The converse does hold for first countable spaces. If  $f: X \to Y$  where X is first countable, and Y is a topological space, and whenever  $x_n \to x$  then  $f(x_n) \to f(x)$ , then f is continuous.

## 12.4 Subspaces

**Definition 12.4.1** (Subspace). Let X be a topological space, Y a set, and  $f: Y \to X$ . The *subspace topology* on Y induced by f is  $\mathcal{T} = \{i^{-1}(U) : U \text{ is open in } X\}.$ 

We prove this is a topology.

#### Proof:

```
 \begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 1. \text{ For all } \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T} \text{ we have } \bigcup \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{T} \\ \text{ PROOF: Since } \bigcup \mathcal{U} = f^{-1}(\bigcup \{V: f^{-1}(V) \in \mathcal{U}\}). \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ For all } U, V \in \mathcal{T} \text{ we have } U \cap V \in \mathcal{T} \\ \text{ PROOF: Since } f^{-1}(U) \cap f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(U \cap V). \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. \ Y \in \mathcal{T} \\ \text{ PROOF: Since } Y = f^{-1}(X). \\ \end{array}
```

**Proposition 12.4.2.** Let X be a topological space, Y a set and  $f: Y \to X$  a function. Then the subspace topology on Y is the coarsest topology such that f is continuous.

Proof: Immediate from definition.  $\square$ 

## 12.5 Embedding

**Definition 12.5.1** (Embedding). Let X and Y be topological spaces and  $f: X \to Y$ . Then f is an *embedding* iff f is injective and the topology on X is the subspace induced by f.

## 12.6 Quotient Spaces

**Definition 12.6.1** (Quotient Topology). Let X be a topological space, S a set, and  $\pi: X \to S$  be a surjection. The *quotient topology* on S induced by  $\pi$  is  $\mathcal{T} = \{U \in \mathcal{P}S : \pi^{-1}(U) \text{ is open in } X\}.$ 

We prove this is a topology.

#### Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle1. For all \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T} we have \bigcup \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{T}.

PROOF: Since \pi^{-1}(\bigcup \mathcal{U}) = \bigcup \{\pi^{-1}(U) : U \in \mathcal{U}\}.

\langle 1 \rangle2. For all U, V \in \mathcal{T} we have U \cap V \in \mathcal{T}.

PROOF: Since \pi^{-1}(U \cap V) = \pi^{-1}(U) \cap \pi^{-1}(V).

\langle 1 \rangle3. X \in \mathcal{T}

PROOF: Since X = \pi^{-1}(Y).
```

**Proposition 12.6.2.** Let X be a topological space, S a set and  $\pi: X \to S$  a surjection. Then the quotient topology on S is the finest topology such that  $\pi$  is continuous.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

**Definition 12.6.3** (Quotient Map). Let X and S be topological spaces and  $\pi: X \to S$ . Then  $\pi$  is a *quotient map* iff  $\pi$  is surjective and the topology on S is the quotient topology induced by  $\pi$ .

**Theorem 12.6.4.** Let X be a topological space, let S be a set, and let  $\pi: X \to S$  be surjective. Then the quotient topology on S is the unique topology such that, for every topological space Z and function  $f: S \to Z$ , we have f is continuous if and only if  $f \circ \pi$  is continuous.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If S is given the quotient topology, then for every topological space Z and function  $f: S \to Z$ , we have f is continuous if and only if  $f \circ \pi$  is continuous.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Give S the quotient topology.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: Z be a topological space.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $f: S \to Z$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . If f is continuous then  $f \circ \pi$  is continuous.

Proof: The composite of two continuous functions is continuous.

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. If  $f \circ \pi$  is continuous then f is continuous.

- $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $f \circ \pi$  is continuous.
- $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Let: *U* be open in *Z*.
- $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ .  $\pi^{-1}(f^{-1}(U))$  is open in X.
- $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ .  $f^{-1}(U)$  is open in S.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If S is given a topology such that, for every topological space Z and function  $f: S \to Z$ , we have f is continuous if and only if  $f \circ \pi$  is continuous, then that topology is the quotient topology.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Give S a topology such that, for every topological space Z and function  $f: S \to Z$ , we have f is continuous if and only if  $f \circ \pi$  is continuous.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $U \subseteq S$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . If  $\pi^{-1}(U)$  is open in X then U is open in S.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let: Z be S under the quotient topology induced by  $\pi$ .
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $f: S \to Z$  be the identity function.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ .  $f \circ \pi$  is continuous.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . f is continuous.

Proof:  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ 

- $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ . *U* is open in *Z*.
- $\langle 3 \rangle 6$ . *U* is open in *X*.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . If U is open in S then  $\pi^{-1}(U)$  is open in X.

PROOF: Since  $\pi$  is continuous (taking Z = S and  $f = \mathrm{id}_S$  in  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ ).

**Corollary 12.6.4.1.** Let  $\pi: X \to S$  be a quotient map. Let Z be a topological space. Let  $f: X \to Z$  be continuous. Then there exists a continuous map  $g: S \to Z$  such that  $f = g \circ \pi$  if and only if, for all  $s \in S$ , we have f is constant on  $\pi^{-1}(s)$ .

**Proposition 12.6.5.** Let Z be a topological space. Define  $\pi:[0,1] \to S^1$  by  $\pi(t) = (\cos 2\pi t, \sin 2\pi t)$ . Given any continuous function  $f: S^1 \to Z$ , we have  $f \circ \pi$  is a loop in Z. This defines a bijection between  $\mathbf{Top}[S^1, Z]$  and the set of loops in Z.

PROOF: Since  $\pi$  is a quotient map.  $\sqcup$ 

**Definition 12.6.6** (Projective Space). The *projective space*  $\mathbb{RP}^n$  is the quotient of  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1} - \{0\}$  by  $\sim$  where  $x \sim \lambda x$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} - \{0\}$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Definition 12.6.7** (Torus). The torus T is the quotient of  $[0,1]^2$  by  $\sim$  where  $(x,0)\sim(x,1)$  and  $(0,y)\sim(1,y)$ .

**Definition 12.6.8** (Möbius Band). The *Möbius band* is the quotient of  $[0,1]^2$  by  $\sim$  where  $(0,y) \sim (1,1-y)$ .

**Definition 12.6.9** (Klein Bottle). The *Klein bottle* is the quotient of  $[0,1]^2$  by  $\sim$  where  $(x,0)\sim(x,1)$  and  $(0,y)\sim(1,1-y)$ .

**Proposition 12.6.10.**  $\mathbb{RP}^2$  is the quotient of  $[0,1]^2$  by  $\sim$  where  $(x,0) \sim (1-x,1)$  and  $(0,y) \sim (1,1-y)$ .

PROOF: TODO

**Example 12.6.11.** Let  $\{X_i\}_{i\in I}$  be a family of topological spaces and  $\{Y_i\}_{i\in I}$  a family of sets. Let  $q_i: X_i \twoheadrightarrow Y_i$  be a surjective function for all  $i \in I$ . Give each  $Y_i$  the quotient topology. It is not true in general that the product topology on  $\prod_{i\in I} Y_i$  is the same as the quotient topology induced by  $\prod_{i\in I} q_i: \prod_{i\in I} X_i \twoheadrightarrow \prod_{i\in I} Y_i$ .

## Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . LET:  $X^* = \mathbb{R} \mathbb{Z}_+ + \{b\}$  be the quotient space obtained from  $\mathbb{R}$  by identifying the subset  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  to the point b.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $p : \mathbb{R} \to X^*$  be the quotient map. Prove:  $p \times \mathrm{id}_{\mathbb{Q}} : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{Q} \to X^* \times \mathbb{Q}$  is not a quotient map.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , LET:  $c_n = \sqrt{2}/n$
- ⟨1⟩4. For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , LET:  $U_n = \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{R} : n - 1/4 < x < n + 1/4 \text{ and } ((y > x + c_n - n \text{ and } y > -x + c_n + n)) \}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . For all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ ,  $U_n$  is open in  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{Q}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . For all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  we have  $\{n\} \times \mathbb{Q} \subseteq U_n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . Let:  $U = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} U_n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . *U* is open in  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{Q}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 9$ . *U* is saturated with respect to  $p \times id_{\mathbb{Q}}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 10$ . Let:  $U' = (p \times id_{\mathbb{O}})(U)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 11$ . Assume: for a contradiction U' is open in  $X^* \times \mathbb{Q}$ .

## 12.7 Connected Spaces

**Definition 12.7.1** (Connected). A topological space is *connected* iff it is not the union of two nonempty open disjoint subsets.

**Proposition 12.7.2.** The continuous image of a connected space is connected.

**Proposition 12.7.3.** Let X be a topological space and  $A, B \subseteq X$ . If  $X = A \cup B$ ,  $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$ , and A and B are connected, then X is connected.

**Proposition 12.7.4.** If X and Y are nonempty topological spaces, then  $X \times Y$  is connected if and only if X and Y are connected.

**Definition 12.7.5** (Path-connected). A topological space X is path-connected iff, for any points  $a, b \in X$ , there exists a continuous function  $\alpha : [0,1] \to X$ , called a path, such that  $\alpha(0) = a$  and  $\alpha(1) = b$ .

**Proposition 12.7.6.** The continuous image of a path connected space is path connected.

**Proposition 12.7.7.** Let X be a topological space and  $A, B \subseteq X$ . If  $X = A \cup B$ ,  $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$ , and A and B are path connected, then X is path connected.

**Proposition 12.7.8.** If X and Y are nonempty topological spaces, then  $X \times Y$  is path connected if and only if X and Y are path connected.

#### **Hausdorff Spaces** 12.8

**Definition 12.8.1** (Hausdorff). A topological space is a *Hausdorff* space or a  $T_2$  space iff any two distinct points have disjoint neighbourhoods.

Proposition 12.8.2. In a Hausdorff space, a sequence has at most one limit.

1. Every subspace of a Hausdorff space is Hausdorff. Proposition 12.8.3.

- 2. The disjoint union of two Hausdorff spaces is Hausdorff.
- 3. The product of two Hausdorff spaces is Hausdorff.

**Proposition 12.8.4.** Let A be a topological space and B a Hausdorff space. Let  $f,g:A\to B$  be continuous. Let  $X\subseteq A$  be dense. If f and g agree on X, then f = g.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $a \in A$  and  $f(a) \neq g(a)$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK disjoint neighbourhoods U and V of f(a) and g(a) respectively.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $x \in f^{-1}(U) \cap g^{-1}(V)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ f(x) = g(x) \in U \cap V$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This is a contradiction.

**Proposition 12.8.5.** Let X and Y be metric spaces. Let  $f: X \to Y$  be uniformly continuous. Let  $\hat{X}$  and  $\hat{Y}$  be the completions of X and Y. Then f extends uniquely to a continuous map  $\hat{X} \to \hat{Y}$ .

PROOF: The extension maps  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n$  to  $\lim_{n\to\infty} f(x_n)$ .

#### 12.9Separable Spaces

**Definition 12.9.1** (Separable). A topological space is *separable* iff it has a countable dense subset.

Every second countable space is separable.

#### 12.10 Sequential Compactness

**Definition 12.10.1** (Sequentially Compact). A topological space is *sequentially* compact iff every sequence has a convergent subsequence.

#### 12.11Compactness

**Definition 12.11.1** (Compact). A topological space is *compact* iff every open cover has a finite subcover.

**Proposition 12.11.2.** Let X be a compact topological space. Let P be a set of open sets such that, for all  $U, V \in P$ , we have  $U \cup V \in P$ . Assume that every point has an open neighbourhood in P. Then  $X \in P$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . P is an open cover of X
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Pick a finite subcover  $U_1, \ldots, U_n \in P$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ X = U_1 \cup \cdots \cup U_n \in P$

**Corollary 12.11.2.1.** Let f be a compact space and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  be locally bounded. Then f is bounded.

PROOF: Take  $P = \{U \text{ open in } X : f \text{ is bounded on } U\}$ .  $\square$ 

Proposition 12.11.3. The continuous image of a compact space is compact.

**Proposition 12.11.4.** A closed subspace of a compact space is compact.

**Proposition 12.11.5.** Let X and Y be nonempty spaces. Then the following are equivalent.

- 1. X and Y are compact.
- 2. X + Y is compact.
- 3.  $X \times Y$  is compact.

**Proposition 12.11.6.** A compact subspace of a Hausdorff space is closed.

**Proposition 12.11.7.** A continuous bijection from a compact space to a Hausdorff space is a homeomorphism.

**Proposition 12.11.8.** A first countable compact space is sequentially compact.

## 12.12 Quotient Spaces

**Definition 12.12.1** (Quotient Space). Let X be a topological space and  $\sim$  an equivalence relation on X. The *quotient topology* on  $X/\sim$  is defined by:  $U: \text{El}(\mathcal{P}X)$  is open in  $X/\sim$  if and only if  $\pi^{-1}(U)$  is open in X.

**Proposition 12.12.2.** Let X and Y be topological spaces. Let  $\sim$  be an equivalence relation on X. Let  $f: X/\sim \to Y$ . Then f is continuous if and only if  $f\circ \pi$  is continuous.

**Proposition 12.12.3.** Let X and Y be topological spaces. Let  $\sim$  be an equivalence relation on X. Let  $\phi: Y \to X/\sim$ .

Assume that, for all  $y \in Y$ , there exists a neighbourhood U of y and a continuous function  $\Phi: U \to X$  such that  $\pi \circ \Phi = \phi \upharpoonright U$ . Then  $\phi$  is continuous.

**Proposition 12.12.4.** A quotient of a connected space is connected.

**Proposition 12.12.5.** A quotient of a path connected space is path connected.

**Proposition 12.12.6.** Let X be a topological space and  $\sim$  an equivalence relation on X. If  $X/\sim$  is Hausdorff then every equivalence class of  $\sim$  is closed in X.

**Definition 12.12.7.** Let X be a topological space and  $A_1, \ldots, A_r \subseteq X$ . Then  $X/A_1, \ldots, A_r$  is the quotient space of X with respect to  $\sim$  where  $x \sim y$  iff x = y or  $\exists i (x \in A_i \land y \in A_i)$ .

**Definition 12.12.8** (Cone). Let X be a topological space. The *cone over* X is the space  $(X \times [0,1])/(X \times \{1\})$ .

**Definition 12.12.9** (Suspension). Let X be a topological space. The *suspension* of X is the space

$$\Sigma X := (X \times [-1,1])/(X \times \{-1\}), (X \times \{1\})$$

**Definition 12.12.10** (Wedge Product). Let  $x_0 \in X$  and  $y_0 \in Y$ . The wedge product  $X \vee Y$  is  $(X \times \{y_0\}) \cup (\{x_0\} \times Y)$  as a subspace of  $X \times Y$ .

**Definition 12.12.11** (Smash Product). Let  $x_0 \in X$  and  $y_0 \in Y$ . The *smash* product  $X \wedge Y$  is  $(X \times Y)/(X \vee Y)$ .

Example 12.12.12.  $D^n/S^{n-1} \cong S^n$ 

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\phi: D^n/S^{n-1} \to S^n$  be the function induced by the map  $D^n \to S^n$  that maps the radii of  $D^n$  onto the meridians of  $S^n$  from the north to the south pole.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\phi$  is a bijection.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\phi$  is a homeomorphism.

PROOF: Since  $D^n/S^{n-1}$  is compact and  $S^n$  is Hausdorff.

## 12.13 Gluing

**Definition 12.13.1** (Gluing). Let X and Y be topological spaces,  $X_0 \subseteq X$  and  $\phi: X_0 \to Y$  a continuous map. Then  $Y \cup_{\phi} X$  is the quotient space  $(X+Y)/\sim$ , where  $\sim$  is the equivalence relation generated by  $x \sim \phi(x)$  for all  $x : \operatorname{El}(X)$ .

**Proposition 12.13.2.** *Y* is a subspace of  $Y \cup_{\phi} X$ .

**Definition 12.13.3.** Let X be a topological space and  $\alpha: X \cong X$  a homeomorphism. Then  $(X \times [0,1])/\alpha$  is the quotient space of  $X \times [0,1]$  by the equivalence relation generated by  $(x,0) \sim (\alpha(x),1)$  for all  $x: \operatorname{El}(X)$ .

**Definition 12.13.4** (Möbius Strip). The *Möbius strip* is  $([-1,1] \times [0,1])/\alpha$  where  $\alpha(x) = -x$ .

**Definition 12.13.5** (Klein Bottle). The *Klein bottle* is  $(S^1 \times [0,1])/\alpha$  where  $\alpha(z) = \overline{z}$ .

**Proposition 12.13.6.** Let M be the Möbius strip and K the Klein bottle. Then  $M \cup_{\mathrm{id}_{\partial M}} M \cong K$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . LET:  $f: ([-1,1] \times [0,1]) + ([-1,1] \times [0,1]) \to S^1 \times [0,1]$  be the function that maps  $\kappa_1(\theta,t)$  to  $(e^{\pi i \theta/2},t)$  and  $\kappa_2(\theta,t)$  to  $(-e^{-\pi i \theta/2},t)$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . f induces a bijection  $M \cup_{\mathrm{id}_{\partial M}} M \approx K$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . f is a homeomorphism.

## 12.14 Metric Spaces

**Definition 12.14.1** (Metric Space). Let X be a set and  $d: X^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ . We say (X, d) is a *metric space* iff:

- For all  $x, y \in X$  we have  $d(x, y) \ge 0$
- For all  $x, y \in X$  we have d(x, y) = 0 iff x = y
- For all  $x, y \in X$  we have d(x, y) = d(y, x)
- (Triangle Inequality) For all  $x, y, z \in X$  we have  $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$

We call d the *metric* of the metric space (X, d). We often write X for the metric space (X, d).

**Definition 12.14.2** (Ball). Let X be a metric space. Let  $x \in X$  and r > 0. The *ball* with *centre* x and *radius* r is

$$B(x,r) = \{ y \in X \mid d(x,y) < r \} .$$

**Definition 12.14.3** (Metric Topology). Let (X, d) be a metric space. The *metric topology* on X is the topology generated by the basis consisting of the balls.

**Definition 12.14.4** (Metrizable). A topological space is *metrizable* iff there exists a metric that induces its topology.

Proposition 12.14.5. Every metrizable space is Hausdorff.

Every metrizable space is first countable.

A metric space is compact if and only if it is sequentially compact.

A metric space is separable if and only if it is second countable.

### 12.14.1 **Products**

**Definition 12.14.6** (Euclidean Metric). Let X and Y be metric spaces. The *Euclidean metric* on  $X \times Y$  is

$$d((x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)) = \sqrt{d(x_1, x_2)^2 + d(y_1, y_2)^2}$$
.

We write  $X \times Y$  for the set  $X \times Y$  under this metric.

We prove this is a metric.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ d((x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)) \ge 0$ 

PROOF: Immediate from definition.

$$\langle 1 \rangle 2$$
.  $d((x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)) = 0$  iff  $(x_1, y_1) = (x_2, y_2)$   
PROOF:  $\sqrt{d(x_1, x_2)^2 + d(y_1, y_2)^2} = 0$  iff  $d(x_1, x_2) = d(y_1, y_2) = 0$  iff  $x_1 = x_2$  and  $y_1 = y_2$ .

$$\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ d((x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)) = d((x_2, y_2), (x_1, y_1))$$
  
PROOF: Since  $\sqrt{d(x_1, x_2)^2 + d(y_1, y_2)^2} = \sqrt{d(x_2, x_1)^2 + d(y_2, y_1)^2}$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . The triangle inequality holds.

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} &(d((x_1,y_1),(x_2,y_2)) + d((x_2,y_2),(x_3,y_3)))^2 \\ &= d((x_1,y_1),(x_2,y_2))^2 + 2d((x_1,y_1),(x_2,y_2))d((x_2,y_2),(x_3,y_3)) + d((x_2,y_2),(x_3,y_3))^2 \\ &= d(x_1,x_2)^2 + d(y_1,y_2)^2 + 2\sqrt{(d(x_1,x_2)^2 + d(y_1,y_2)^2)(d(x_2,x_3)^2 + d(y_2,y_3)^2)} + d(x_2,x_3)^2 + d(y_2,y_3)^2 \\ &\geqslant d(x_1,x_2)^2 + d(x_2,x_3)^2 + d(y_1,y_2)^2 + d(y_2,y_3)^2 + 2(d(x_1,x_2)d(x_2,x_3) + d(y_1,y_2)d(y_2,y_3)) \\ &\quad \text{(Cauchy-Schwarz)} \\ &= (d(x_1,x_2) + d(x_2,x_3))^2 + (d(y_1,y_2) + d(y_2,y_3))^2 \\ &\geqslant d(x_1,x_3)^2 + d(y_1,y_3)^2 \\ &= d((x_1,y_1),(x_3,y_3))^2 \end{aligned}$$

**Proposition 12.14.7.** Let X and Y be metric spaces. The Euclidean metric on  $X \times Y$  induces the product topology on  $X \times Y$ .

## Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Every open ball is open in the product topology.

```
\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ d((x', y'), (a, b)) < \epsilon
       Proof:
       d((x',y'),(a,b)) \leq d((x',y'),(x,y)) + d((x,y),(a,b)) (Triangle Inequality)
\langle 1 \rangle 2. If U is open in X and V is open in Y then U \times V is open under the
         Euclidean metric.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: (x,y) \in U \times V
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. PICK \delta, \epsilon > 0 such that B(x, \delta) \subseteq U and B(y, \epsilon) \subseteq V
             PROVE: (B((x,y), \min(\delta, \epsilon)) \subseteq U \times V
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Let: (x', y') \in B((x, y), \min(\delta, \epsilon))
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ d(x',x) < \delta
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. d((x', y'), (x, y)) < \min(\delta, \epsilon)
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. d(x',x)^2 + d(y',y)^2 < \delta^2
       \langle 3 \rangle 3. d(x',x)^2 < \delta^2
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. d(y',y) < \epsilon
       PROOF: Similar.
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ (x', y') \in U \times V
```

## 12.15 Complete Metric Spaces

**Definition 12.15.1** (Complete). A metric space is *complete* iff every Cauchy sequence converges.

**Example 12.15.2.**  $\mathbb{R}$  is complete.

**Proposition 12.15.3.** The product of two complete metric spaces is complete.

Proposition 12.15.4. Every compact metric space is complete.

**Proposition 12.15.5.** Let X be a complete metric space and  $A \subseteq X$ . Then A is complete if and only if A is closed.

**Definition 12.15.6** (Completion). Let X be a metric space. A *completion* of X is a complete metric space  $\hat{X}$  and injection  $i: X \rightarrowtail \hat{X}$  such that:

- The metric on X is the restriction of the metric on  $\hat{X}$
- X is dense in  $\hat{X}$ .

**Proposition 12.15.7.** Let  $i_1: X \to Y_1$  and  $i_2: X \to Y_2$  be completions of X. Then there exists a unique isometry  $\phi: Y_1 \cong Y_2$  such that  $\phi \circ i_1 = i_2$ .

PROOF: Define  $\phi(\lim_{n\to\infty} i_1(x_n)) = \lim_{n\to\infty} i_2(x_n)$ .  $\square$ 

Theorem 12.15.8. Every metric space has a completion.

PROOF: Let  $\hat{X}$  be the set of Cauchy sequences in X quotiented by  $\sim$  where  $(x_n) \sim (y_n)$  if and only if  $d(x_n, y_n) \to 0$ .  $\square$ 

## 12.16 Manifolds

**Definition 12.16.1** (Manifold). An *n-dimensional manifold* is a second countable Hausdorff space locally homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

# Chapter 13

# Homotopy Theory

## 13.1 Homotopies

**Definition 13.1.1** (Homotopy). Let X and Y be topological spaces. Let  $f, g: X \to Y$  be continuous. A *homotopy* between f and g is a continuous function  $h: X \times [0,1] \to Y$  such that

- $\forall x : \text{El}(X) . h(x, 0) = f(x)$
- $\forall x : \text{El}(X) . h(x, 1) = g(x)$

We say f and g are *homotopic*,  $f \simeq g$ , iff there exists a homotopy between them. Let [X,Y] be the set of all homotopy classes of functions  $X \to Y$ .

**Proposition 13.1.2.** Let  $f, f': X \to Y$  and  $g, g': Y \to Z$  be continuous. If  $f \simeq f'$  and  $g \simeq g'$  then  $g \circ f \simeq g' \circ f'$ .

**Definition 13.1.3.** Let **HTop** be the category whose objects are the small topological spaces and whose morphisms are the homotopy classes of continuous functions.

A homotopy functor is a functor  $\mathbf{Top} \to \mathcal{C}$  that factors through the canonical functor  $\mathbf{Top} \to \mathbf{HTop}$ .

**Definition 13.1.4.** A functor  $F : \mathbf{Top} \to \mathcal{C}$  is homotopy invariant iff, for any topological spaces X, Y and continuous functions  $f, g : X \to Y$ , if  $f \simeq g$  then Hf = Hg.

Basepoint-preserving homotopy.

## 13.2 Homotopy Equivalence

**Definition 13.2.1** (Homotopy Equivalence). Let X and Y be topological spaces. A homotopy equivalence between X and Y,  $f: X \simeq Y$ , is a continuous function  $f: X \to Y$  such that there exists a continuous function  $g: Y \to X$ , the homotopy inverse to f, such that  $g \circ f \simeq \operatorname{id}_X$  and  $f \circ g \simeq \operatorname{id}_Y$ .

**Definition 13.2.2** (Contractible). A topological space X is *contractible* iff  $X \simeq 1$ .

**Example 13.2.3.**  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is contractible.

Example 13.2.4.  $D^n$  is contractible.

**Definition 13.2.5** (Deformation Retract). Let X be a topological space and A a subspace of X. A retraction  $\rho: X \to A$  is a deformation retraction iff  $i \circ \rho \simeq \mathrm{id}_X$ , where i is the inclusion  $A \mapsto X$ . We say A is a deformation retract of X iff there exists a deformation retraction.

**Definition 13.2.6** (Strong Deformation Retract). Let X be a topological space and A a subspace of X. A strong deformation retraction  $\rho: X \to A$  is a continuous function such that there exists a homotopy  $h: X \times [0,1] \to X$  between  $i \circ \rho$  and  $\mathrm{id}_X$  such that, for all  $a: \mathrm{El}(X)$  and  $t: \mathrm{El}([0,1])$ , we have h(a,t)=a.

We say A is a strong deformation retract of X iff a strong deformation retraction exists.

**Example 13.2.7.**  $\{0\}$  is a strong deformation retract of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and of  $D^n$ .

**Example 13.2.8.**  $S^1$  is a strong deformation retract of the torus  $S^1 \times D^2$ .

**Example 13.2.9.**  $S^{n-1}$  is a strong deformation retract of  $D^n - \{0\}$ .

**Example 13.2.10.** For any topological space X, the singleton consisting of the vertex is a strong deformation retract of the cone over X.

# Chapter 14

# Simplicial Complexes

**Definition 14.0.1** (Simplex). A k-dimensional simplex or k-simplex in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is the convex hull  $s(x_0, \ldots, x_k)$  of k+1 points in general position.

**Definition 14.0.2** (Face). A *sub-simplex* or *face* of  $s(x_0, ..., x_k)$  is the convex hull of a subset of  $\{x_0, ..., x_k\}$ .

**Definition 14.0.3** (Simplicial Complex). A *simplicial complex* in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a set K of simplices such that:

- for every simplex s in K, every face of s is in K.
- The intersection of two simplices  $s_1, s_2 \in K$  is either empty or is a face of both  $s_1$  and  $s_2$ .
- K is locally finite, i.e. every point of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  has a neighbourhood that only intersects finitely many elements of K.

The topological space underlying K is  $|K| = \bigcup K$  as a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

## 14.1 Cell Decompositions

**Definition 14.1.1** (*n*-cell). An *n*-cell is a topological space homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Definition 14.1.2** (Cell Decomposition). Let X be a topological space. A *cell decomposition* of X is a partition of X into subspaces that are n-cells.

**Definition 14.1.3** (*n*-skeleton). Given a cell decomposition of X, the *n*-skeleton  $X^n$  is the union of all the cells of dimension  $\leq n$ .

## 14.2 CW-complexes

**Definition 14.2.1** (CW-Complex). A CW-complex consists of a topological space X and a cell decomposition  $\mathcal{E}$  of X such that:

- 1. Characteristic Maps For every n-cell  $e \in \mathcal{E}$ , there exists a continuous map  $\Phi_e: D^n \to X$  such that  $\Phi((D^n)^\circ) = e$ , the corestriction  $\Phi_e: (D^n)^\circ \approx e$  is a homeomorphism, and  $\Phi_e(S^n)$  is the union of all the cells in  $\mathcal{E}$  of dimension < n.
- 2. Closure Finiteness For all  $e \in \mathcal{E}$ , we have  $\overline{e}$  intersects only finitely many other cells in  $\mathcal{E}$ .
- 3. Weak Topology Given  $A\subseteq X$ , we have A is closed iff for all  $e\in\mathcal{E},\ A\cap\overline{e}$  is closed.

**Proposition 14.2.2.** If a cell decomposition  $\mathcal{E}$  satisfies the Characteristic Maps axiom, then for every n-cell  $e \in \mathcal{E}$  we have  $\overline{e} = \Phi_e(D^n)$ . Therefore  $\overline{e}$  is compact and  $\overline{e} - e = \Phi_e(S^{n-1}) \subseteq X^{n-1}$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ e \subseteq \Phi_e(D^n) \subseteq \overline{e}$ 

Proof:

$$e = \Phi_e((D^n)^\circ)$$

$$\subseteq \Phi_e(D^n)$$

$$= \Phi_e(\overline{(D^n)^\circ})$$

$$\subseteq \overline{\Phi_e((D^n)^\circ)}$$

$$= \overline{e}$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\Phi_e(D^n)$  is compact.

PROOF: Because  $D^n$  is compact.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\Phi_e(D^n)$  is closed.

$$\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \Phi_e(D^n) = \overline{e}$$

# Chapter 15

# Topological Groups

**Definition 15.0.1** (Topological Group). A topological group is a group G with a topology such that the function  $G^2 \to G$  that maps (x, y) to  $xy^{-1}$  is continuous.

**Example 15.0.2.**  $GL(n,\mathbb{R})$  and  $GL(n,\mathbb{C})$  are topological groups.

**Proposition 15.0.3.** Any subgroup of a topological group is a topological group under the subspace topology.

**Definition 15.0.4** (Homogeneous Space). A homogeneous space is a topological space of the form G/H, where G is a topological group and H is a normal subgroup of G, under the quotient topology.

**Proposition 15.0.5.** Let G be a topological group and H a normal subgroup of G. Then G/H is Hausdorff if and only if H is closed.

Proof: See Bourbaki, N., General Topology. III.12

## 15.1 Continuous Actions

**Definition 15.1.1** (Continuous Action). Let G be a topological group and X a topological space. A *continuous action* of G on X is a continuous function  $\cdot: G \times X \to X$  such that:

- $\forall x : \text{El}(X) . ex = x$
- $\forall g, h : \text{El}(G) . \forall x : \text{El}(X) . g(hx) = (gh)x$

A G-space consists of a topological space X and a continuous action of G on X.

**Definition 15.1.2** (Orbit). Let X be a G-space and  $x \in X$ . The *orbit* of x is  $\{gx : g \in G\}$ .

The *orbit space* X/G is the set of all orbits under the quotient topology.

**Proposition 15.1.3.** Define an action of SO(2) on  $S^2$  by

$$g(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (g(x_1, x_2), x_3)$$
.

Then  $S^2/SO(2) \cong [-1, 1]$ .

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $f_3: S^2/SO(2) \to [-1,1]$  be the function induced by  $\pi_3: S^2 \to [-1,1]$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $f_3$  is bijective.  $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $S^2/SO(2)$  is compact.

PROOF: It is the continuous image of  $S^2$  which is compact.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . [-1,1] is Hausdorff.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ .  $f_3$  is a homeomorphism.

**Definition 15.1.4** (Stabilizer). Let X be a G-space and  $x \in X$ . The stabilizer of x is  $G_x := \{g : \text{El}(G) \mid gx = x\}.$ 

**Proposition 15.1.5.** The function that maps  $gG_x$  to gx is a continuous bijection from  $G/G_x$  to Gx.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If  $gG_x = hG_x$  then gx = hx.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $gG_x = hG_x$

  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ g^{-1}h \in G_x$  $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ g^{-1}hx = x$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . gx = hx
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If gx = hx then  $gG_x = hG_x$ .

Proof: Similar.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . The function is continuous.

Proof: Proposition 12.12.2.

# Chapter 16

# Topological Vector Spaces

**Definition 16.0.1** (Topological Vector Space). Let K be either  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ . A topological vector space over K consists of a vector space E over K and a topology on E such that:

- Substraction is a continuous function  $E^2 \to E$
- Multiplication is a continuous function  $K \times E \to E$

**Proposition 16.0.2.** Every topological vector space is a topological group under addition.

PROOF: Immediate from the definition.  $\Box$ 

**Theorem 16.0.3.** The usual topology on a finite dimensional vector space over K is the only one that makes it into a Hausdorff topological vector space.

PROOF: See Bourbaki. Elements de Mathematique, Livre V: Espaces Vectoriels Topologiques, Th. 2, p. 18  $\square$ 

**Proposition 16.0.4.** Let E be a topological vector space and  $E_0$  a subspace of E. Then  $\overline{E_0}$  is a subspace of E.

**Definition 16.0.5.** Let E be a topological vector space. The topological space associated with E is  $E/\{0\}$ .

## 16.1 Cauchy Sequences

**Definition 16.1.1** (Cauchy Sequence). Let E be a topological vector space. A sequence  $(x_n)$  in E is a *Cauchy sequence* iff, for every neighbourhood U of 0, there exists  $n_0$  such that  $\forall m, n \ge n_0.x_n - x_m \in U$ .

**Definition 16.1.2** (Complete Topological Vector Space). A topological vector space is *complete* iff every Cauchy sequence converges.

## 16.2 Seminorms

**Definition 16.2.1** (Seminorm). Let E be a vector space over K. A *seminorm* on E is a function  $\| \cdot \| : E \to \mathbb{R}$  such that:

- 1.  $\forall x : \text{El}(E) . ||x|| \ge 0$
- 2.  $\forall \alpha : \text{El}(K) . \forall x : \text{El}(E) . ||\alpha x|| = |\alpha||x||$
- 3. Triangle Inequality  $\forall x, y : \text{El}(E) . ||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y||$

**Example 16.2.2.** The function that maps  $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  to  $|x_i|$  is a seminorm on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Definition 16.2.3.** Let E be a vector space over K. Let  $\Lambda$  be a set of seminorms on E. The topology generated by  $\Lambda$  is the topology generated by the subbasis consisting of all sets of the form  $B_{\epsilon}^{\lambda}(x) = \{y \in E : \lambda(y-x) < \epsilon\}$  for  $\epsilon > 0, \lambda \in \Lambda$  and  $x : \mathrm{El}(E)$ .

**Proposition 16.2.4.** *E* is a topological vector space under this topology. It is Hausdorff iff, for all x : El(E), if  $\forall \lambda \in \Lambda. \lambda(x) = 0$  then x = 0.

## 16.3 Fréchet Spaces

**Definition 16.3.1** (Pre-Fréchet Space). A *pre-Fréchet space* is a Hausdorff topological vector space whose topology is generated by a countable set of seminorms.

**Proposition 16.3.2.** Let E be a pre-Fréchet space whose topology is generated by the family of seminorms  $\{\| \|_n : n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \}$ . Then

$$d(x,y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} \frac{\|x - y\|_n}{1 + \|x - y\|_n}$$

is a metric that induces the same topology. The two definitions of Cauchy sequence agree.

**Definition 16.3.3** (Fréchet Space). A *Fréchet space* is a complete pre-Fréchet space.

## 16.4 Normed Spaces

**Definition 16.4.1** (Normed Space). Let E be a vector space over K. A norm on E is a function  $\| \ \| : E \to \mathbb{R}$  is a seminorm such that,  $\forall x \in E. \|x\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$ . A normed space consists of a vector space with a norm.

**Proposition 16.4.2.** If E is a normed space then d(x,y) = ||x-y|| is a metric on E that makes E into a topological vector space. The two definitions of Cauchy sequence agree on E.

**Definition 16.4.3** (*p*-norm). For any  $p \ge 1$ , the *p-norm* on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is defined by

$$\|\vec{x}\|_p := \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$
.

We prove this is a norm.

### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For all  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  we have  $\|\vec{x}\|_p \geqslant 0$ 

PROOF: Immediate from definition.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  we have  $\|\alpha \vec{x}\|_p = |\alpha| \|\vec{x}\|_p$ Proof:

$$\|\alpha(x_1, \dots, x_n)\| = \|(\alpha x_1, \dots, \alpha x_n)\|$$

$$= \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha x_i)^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$= \left(|\alpha|^p \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$= |\alpha| \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$= |\alpha| \|\vec{x}\|_p$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . The triangle inequality holds.

Proof:

$$\begin{split} \|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\|_{p}^{p} &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_{i} + y_{i}|^{p} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_{i} + y_{i}| |x_{i} + y_{i}|^{p-1} \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} (|x_{i}| + |y_{i}|) |x_{i} + y_{i}|^{p-1} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_{i}| |x_{i} + y_{i}|^{p-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_{i}| |x_{i} + y_{i}|^{p-1} \\ &\leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_{i}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_{i} + y_{i}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{p-1}{p}} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_{i}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_{i} + y_{i}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{p-1}{p}} \end{split}$$
 (Hölder's Inequality) 
$$= (\|\vec{x}\|_{p} + \|\vec{y}\|_{p}) \|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\|^{p-1}$$

Assuming w.l.o.g.  $\|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\|^{p-1} \neq 0$  (using ??) we have  $\|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\|_p \leq \|\vec{x}\|_p + \|\vec{y}\|_p$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For any  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have  $\|\vec{x}\| = 0$  iff  $\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ . PROOF:  $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^p = 0$  iff  $x_1 = \cdots = x_n = 0$ .

**Definition 16.4.4** (Sup-norm). The *sup-norm* on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is defined by

$$||(x_1,\ldots,x_n)||_{\infty} := \max(|x_1|,\ldots,|x_n|)$$
.

**Proposition 16.4.5.** The 2-norm on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  induces the standard metric.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.  $\Box$ 

**Definition 16.4.6.** For  $p \ge 1$ , the normed space  $l_p$  is the set of all sequences  $(x_n)$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n^p$  converges, under

$$\|(x_n)\|_p := \left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |x_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$
.

**Proposition 16.4.7.** The spaces  $l_p$  for  $p \ge 1$  are all homeomorphic.

PROOF: See Kadets, Mikhail Iosifovich. 1967. Proof of the topological equivalence of all separable infinite-dimensional banach spaces. Functional Analysis and Its Applications 1 (1): 53–62. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/BF01075865.

**Definition 16.4.8.** Let  $l_{\infty}$  be the set of all bounded sequences in  $\mathbb{R}$  under

$$\|(x_n)\| := \sup_n |x_n|$$

**Proposition 16.4.9.** For all  $p \ge 1$  we have  $l_p$  is not homeomorphic to  $l_{\infty}$ .

**Proposition 16.4.10.** Let  $\| \|$  be a seminorm on the vector space E. Then  $\| \|$  defines a norm on  $E/\{0\}$ .

**Proposition 16.4.11.** Let E and F be normed spaces. Any continuous linear map  $E \to F$  is uniformly continuous.

**Definition 16.4.12.** For  $p \ge 1$ . let  $\mathcal{L}^p(\mathbb{R}^n)$  be the vector space of all Lebesgue-measurable functions  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  such that  $|f|^p$  is Lebesgue-integrable. Then

$$||f||_p := \sqrt{p} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(x)|^p dx$$

defines a seminorm on  $\mathcal{L}^p(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . Let

$$L^p(\mathbb{R}^n) := \mathcal{L}^p(\mathbb{R}^n)/\overline{\{0\}}$$
.

# 16.5 Inner Product Spaces

**Proposition 16.5.1.** If E is an inner product space then  $||x|| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$  is a norm on E.

## 16.6 Banach Spaces

**Definition 16.6.1** (Banach Space). A *Banach space* is a complete normed space.

**Example 16.6.2.** For any topological space X, the set C(X) of bounded continuous functions  $X \to \mathbb{R}$  is a Banach space under  $||f|| = \sup_{x \in X} |f(x)|$ .

**Proposition 16.6.3.** The completion of a normed space is a Banach space.

**Proposition 16.6.4.** Let E and F be normed spaces. Let  $f: E \to F$  be a continuous linear map. Then the extension to the completions  $\hat{E} \to \hat{F}$  is linear.

**Proposition 16.6.5.**  $L^p(\mathbb{R}^n)$  is a Banach space.

**Proposition 16.6.6.**  $C(\mathbb{R})$  is first countable but not second countable.

PROOF: For every sequence of 0s and 1s  $s = (s_n)$ , let  $f_s$  be a continuous bounded function whose value at n is  $s_n$ . Then the set of all  $f_s$  is an uncountable discrete set in  $C(\mathbb{R})$ . Hence  $C(\mathbb{R})$  is not second countable. It is first countable because it is metrizable.  $\square$ 

## 16.7 Hilbert Spaces

**Definition 16.7.1** (Hilbert Space). A *Hilbert space* is a complete inner product space.

**Example 16.7.2.** The set of square-integrable functions is the set of Lebesgue integrable functions  $[-\pi, \pi] \to \mathbb{R}$  quotiented by:  $f \sim g$  iff  $\{x \in [-\pi, \pi] : f(x) \neq g(x)\}$  has measure 0. This is a Hilbert space under

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi} \pi f(x) g(x) dx$$
.

**Proposition 16.7.3.** The completion of an inner product space is a Hilbert space.

An infinite dimensional Hilbert space with the weak topology is not first countable.

## 16.8 Locally Convex Spaces

**Definition 16.8.1** (Locally Convex Space). A topological vector space is *locally convex* iff every neighbourhood of 0 includes a convex neighbourhood of 0.

**Proposition 16.8.2.** A topological vector space is locally convex if and only if its topology is generated by a set of seminorms.

PROOF: See Köthe, G. Topological Vector Spaces 1. Section 18.

**Proposition 16.8.3.** A locally convex topological vector space is a pre-Fréchet space if and only if it is metrizable.

PROOF: See Köthe, G. Topological Vector Spaces 1. Section 18.

**Example 16.8.4.** Let E be an infinite dimensional Hilbert space. Let E' be the same vector space under the *weak topology*, the coarsest topology such that every continuous linear map  $E \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous as a map  $E' \to \mathbb{R}$ . Then E is locally convex Hausdorff but not metrizable.

Proof: See Dieudonne, J. A., Treatise on Analysis, Vol. II, New York and London: Academic Press, 1970, p. 76.

**Definition 16.8.5** (Thom Space). Let E be a vector bundle with a Riemannian metric,  $DE = \{x : \text{El}(E) \mid ||x|| \le 1\}$  its disc bundle and  $SE := \{v : \text{El}(E) \mid ||v|| = 1\}$  its sphere bundle. The *Thom space* of E is the quotient space DE/SE.