Mathematics

Robin Adams

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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)".

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.

Definition 1.3.3 (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

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

Axiom 1.3.4 (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 1.3.5 (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 1.3.6 (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 1.3.7 (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 1.3.8 (Universe). There exists a set E, a set U and a function $el: E \to U$ such that the following holds.

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

• N is small.

1.3. AXIOMS 9

- 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.
- 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 Φ such that $\Phi(f)(c)(b) = f(b,c)$ is a bijection. \square

Proposition 2.1.13. Let A and B be sets. If there exists an injective function $f: A \to B$, and A is nonempty, then there exists a surjective function $B \to A$.

PROOF: Pick $a_0 \in A$. Define $g: B \to A$ by: g(b) is the unique element in A such that f(a) = b if there is such an a, otherwise $g(b) = a_0$. \square

Theorem 2.1.14 (Schroeder-Bernstein). Let A and B be sets. If there exist injections $A \to B$ and $B \to A$, then $A \approx B$.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: B \rightarrow A$ be injections.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Define the subsets A_n of A by

$$A_0 := A - q(B)$$

$$A_{n+1} := g(f(A_n))$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Define $h: A \to B$ by

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } \exists n. x \in A_n \\ g^{-1}(x) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. h is injective.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x, y \in A$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Assume: h(x) = h(y)
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Case: $x \in A_m$ and $y \in A_n$.

```
PROOF: Then f(x) = f(y) so x = y since f is injective.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. Case: x \in A_m and there is no y such that y \in A_n.
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. \ f(x) = g^{-1}(y)
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. \ y = g(f(x))
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ y \in A_{m+1}
      \langle 3 \rangle 4. Q.E.D.
         PROOF: This is a contradiction.
   \langle 2 \rangle5. Case: y \in A_n and there is no m such that x \in A_m.
      Proof: Similar.
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. Case: There is no m such that x \in A_m and there is no n such that
      PROOF: Then g^{-1}(x) = g^{-1}(y) and so x = y.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. h is surjective.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: y \in B
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Case: g(y) \in A_n
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. \ n \neq 0
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. PICK x \in A_{n-1} such that g(y) = g(f(x))
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ y = f(x)
      \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ y = h(x)
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Case: There is no n such that g(y) \in A_n.
      PROOF: Then h(g(y)) = y.
```

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 : \operatorname{El}(A) \mid \bot \} with injection i : S \to A PROOF: Axiom of Separation. \langle 1 \rangle 3. S has no elements. \Box
```

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 : El(E), if F(x) = F(y) then x = y.

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

PROOF: Vacuously, for all y : El(E), there exists x : 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).

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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 $j(\phi(s)) = a$. \square

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. $(q \circ f)^{-1}(S) = f^{-1}(q^{-1}(S))$

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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 $x,y:\mathrm{El}(X)$, we have $x\sim y$ if and only if $\pi(x)=\pi(y)$.

Further, if $p: X \to Q$ is another quotient with respect to \sim , then there exists a unique bijection $\phi: X/\sim Q$ 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. \text{ Let: } A+B := \{ p \in \mathcal{P}A \times \mathcal{P}B : \exists a \in A.p = (\{a\}, \varnothing) \vee \exists b \in B.p = (\varnothing, \{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 Natural Numbers

Theorem 2.9.1 (Principle of Recursive Definition). Let A be a set. Let F be the set of all functions $\{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\} \to A$ for some n. Let $\rho : F \to A$. Then there exists a unique $g : \mathbb{N} \to A$ such that, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$g(n) = \rho(g \upharpoonright \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\}) .$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Given a subset $B \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, let us say that a function $g: B \to A$ is acceptable iff, for all $n \in B$, we have

$$\forall m < n.m \in B$$

and

$$g(n) = \rho(g \upharpoonright \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\}) .$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists an acceptable function $\{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\} \to A$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Let: P[n] be the property: There exists an acceptable function $\{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\} \to A$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. P[0]

PROOF: The unique function $\emptyset \to A$ is acceptable.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. For any natural number n, if P[n] then P[n+1].
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Assume: P[n]
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. PICK an acceptable $f: \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\} \to A$.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. Let: $g: \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n+1\} \to A$ be the function

$$g(m) = \begin{cases} f(m) & \text{if } m < n \\ \rho(f) & \text{if } m = n \end{cases}$$

- $\langle 3 \rangle 4$. g is acceptable.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. If $g: B \to A$ and $h: C \to A$ are acceptable, then g and h agree on $B \cap C$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 4. Define $g : \mathbb{N} \to A$ by: g(n) = a iff there exists an acceptable $h : \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n+1\}$ such that h(n) = a.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. q is acceptable.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 6. If $g' : \mathbb{N} \to A$ is acceptable then g' = g.

2.10 Finite and Infinite Sets

Definition 2.10.1 (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 2.10.2. 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 2.10.3. 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]

Corollary 2.10.3.1. If A is finite then there is no bijection between A and a proper subset of A.

Corollary 2.10.3.2. \mathbb{N} is infinite.

Corollary 2.10.3.3. The cardinality of a finite set is unique.

Corollary 2.10.3.4. A subset of a finite set is finite.

Corollary 2.10.3.5. If A is finite and B is a proper subset of A then |B| < |A|.

Corollary 2.10.3.6. 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 2.10.3.7. A finite union of finite sets is finite.

Corollary 2.10.3.8. A finite Cartesian product of finite sets is finite.

Theorem 2.10.4. Let A be a set. The following are equivalent:

- 1. There exists an injective function $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow A$.
- 2. There exists a bijection between A and a proper subset of A.
- 3. A is infinite.

Proof:

```
\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 1 \Rightarrow 2 \\ \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \text{Let:} \ f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrowtail A \ \text{be injective.} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 2. \ \text{Let:} \ s: \mathbb{N} \approx \mathbb{N} - \{0\} \ \text{be the function} \ s(n) = n+1. \\ \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ f \circ s \circ f^{-1}: A \approx A - \{f(0)\} \end{array}
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ 2 \Rightarrow 3
PROOF: Corollary 2.10.3.1.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 3 \Rightarrow 1
PROOF: Choose a function f: \mathbb{N} \to A such that f(n) \in A - \{f(m): m < n\} for all n.
```

2.11 Countable Sets

Definition 2.11.1 (Countable). A set A is countably infinite iff $A \approx \mathbb{N}$.

Proposition 2.11.2. $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ 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 2.11.3. 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: $c \in C$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3.$ $c \leq h(c)$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. 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 2.11.4 (Countable). A set is *countable* iff it is either finite or countably infinite; otherwise it is *uncountable*.

Proposition 2.11.5. 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(q(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.
Corollary 2.11.5.1. A subset of a countable set is countable.
Corollary 2.11.5.2. \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} is countably infinite.
PROOF: The function that maps (m,n) to 2^m3^n is injective. \square
Corollary 2.11.5.3. The Cartesian product of two countable sets is countable.
Theorem 2.11.6. A countable union of countable sets is countable.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: A be a set.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: \mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{P}A be a countable set of countable sets such that \bigcup \mathcal{B} = A
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Pick a surjection B : \mathbb{N} \to \mathcal{B}
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Assume: w.l.o.g. each B(n) is nonempty.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. For n \in \mathbb{N}, PICK a surjective function g_n : \mathbb{N} \to B(n)
\langle 1 \rangle 6. Let: h: \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \to A be the function h(m,n) = g_m(n)
\langle 1 \rangle 7. h is surjective.
Theorem 2.11.7. 2^{\mathbb{N}} is uncountable.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: f: \mathbb{N} \to 2^{\mathbb{N}}
        PROVE: f is not surjective.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Define g : \mathbb{N} \to 2 by g(n) = 1 - f(n)(n).
\langle 1 \rangle 3. For all n \in \mathbb{N} we have g(n) \neq f(n)(n).
\langle 1 \rangle 4. For all n \in \mathbb{N} we have g \neq f(n).
```

Theorem 2.11.8. For any set A, there is no surjective function $A \to \mathcal{P}A$.

Corollary 2.11.8.1. For any set A, there is no injective function $\mathcal{P}A \to A$.

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,

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

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

3.2 Well Orders

Definition 3.2.1 (Well Ordered Set). A *well ordered set* is a linearly ordered set such that every nonempty subset has a least element.

Proposition 3.2.2. Any subset of a well ordered set is well ordered.

Proposition 3.2.3. The product of two well ordered sets is well ordered under the dictionary order.

Theorem 3.2.4 (Well Ordering Theorem). Every set has a well ordering.

Proposition 3.2.5. There exists a well-ordered set with a largest element Ω such that $(-\infty, \Omega)$ is uncountable but, for all $\alpha < \Omega$, we have $(-\infty, \alpha)$ is countable.

PROOF:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. PICK an uncountable well ordered set B.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $C = 2 \times B$ under the dictionary order.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: Ω be the least element of C such that $(-\infty, \Omega)$ is uncountable.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Let: $A = (-\infty, \Omega]$

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. A is a well ordered set with largest element Ω such that $(-\infty, \Omega)$ is uncountable but, for all $\alpha < \Omega$, we have $(-\infty, \alpha)$ is countable.

Proposition 3.2.6. Every well ordered set has the least upper bound property.

PROOF: For any subset that is bounded above, the set of upper bounds is nonempty, hence has a least element. \Box

Proposition 3.2.7. In a well ordered set, every element that is not greatest has a successor.

PROOF: If a is not greatest, then $\{x: x > a\}$ is nonempty, hence has a least element. \square

Chapter 4

Category Theory

4.1 Categories

Definition 4.1.1. A category C consists of:

- a set Ob(C) of *objects*. We write $A \in C$ for $A \in Ob(C)$.
- 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.

Proposition 4.1.4. Any finite linearly ordered set is isomorphic to $\{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\}$ for some n.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Every finite nonempty linearly ordered set has a greatest element.

- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Let: P[n] be the property: for any linearly ordered set A, if there exists a bijection $A \approx \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\}$ and A is nonempty then A has a greatest element.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. P[0]

Proof: Vacuous.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. P[n] \Rightarrow P[n+1]$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $n \in \mathbb{N}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. Assume: P[n]
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. Let: A be a nonempty linearly ordered set.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$. Let: $f: A \approx \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n+1\}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 5$. Let: $a = f^{-1}(n)$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 6. \ f \upharpoonright (A \{a\}) : A \{a\} \approx \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle$ 7. Assume: w.l.o.g. a is not greatest in A.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 8$. Let: b be greatest in $A \{a\}$ Proof: $\langle 3 \rangle 2$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 9$. b is greatest in A.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: P[n] be the property: for any linearly ordered set A, if there exists a bijection $A \approx \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\}$ then there exists an isomorphism in **LPos** $A \cong \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\}$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. P[0]$

PROOF: If there exists a bijection $A \approx \emptyset$ then A is empty and so the unique function $A \to \emptyset$ is an order isomorphism.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. 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 linearly ordered set.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Assume: A has n+1 elements.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Let: a be the greatest element in A.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 6. Let: $f: A \{a\} \cong \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n\}$ be an order isomorphism. Proof: $\langle 2 \rangle$ 2
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 7$. Define $g: A \to \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m < n+1\}$ by

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } x \neq a \\ n & \text{if } x = a \end{cases}$$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 8$. g is an order isomorphism.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}.P[n]$

Corollary 4.1.4.1. Any finite linearly ordered set is well ordered.

Theorem 4.1.5. There exists a well ordered set, unique up to order isomorphism, that is uncountable but such that every section is countable.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. There exists a well ordered set that is uncountable but such that every section is countable.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. PICK a well ordered set A with an element $\Omega \in A$ such that $(-\infty, \Omega)$ is uncountable but $\forall \alpha < \Omega. (-\infty, \alpha)$ is countable.

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 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $(-\infty, Omega)$ is uncountable but every section is countable.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If A and B are uncountable well ordered sets such that every section is countable, then $A \cong B$.

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PROOF: Since it cannot be that one of A and B is isomorphic to a section of the other.

Definition 4.1.6 (Minimal Uncountable Well Ordered Set). The *minimal uncountable well ordered set* Ω is the well ordered set that is uncountable but such that every section is countable.

We write $\overline{\Omega}$ for the well ordered set $\Omega \cup \{\Omega\}$ where Ω is greatest.

Proposition 4.1.7. Every countable subset of Ω is bounded above.

Proof:

П

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: A be a countable subset of \Omega.
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For all $a \in A$ we have $(-\infty, a)$ is countable.

$$\langle 1 \rangle 3$$
. $\bigcup_{a \in A} (-\infty, a)$ is countable.

$$\langle 1 \rangle 4. \bigcup_{a \in A} (-\infty, a) \neq \Omega$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 5$$
. Pick $x \in \Omega - \bigcup_{a \in A} (-\infty, a)$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. x is an upper bound for A.

Definition 4.1.8. 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 4.1.9. A category is a poset iff, for any two objects, there exists at most one morphism between them.

Proposition 4.1.10. The identity morphism on an object is unique.

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: \mathcal{C} be a category.
```

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

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $i, j : A \to A$ be identity morphisms on A.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. i = j

Proof:

$$i = i \circ j$$
 (j is an identity on A)
= j (i is an identity on A)

Definition 4.1.11. Given $f: A \to B$ and an object C, define the function $f^*: \mathcal{C}[B,C] \to \mathcal{C}[A,C]$ by $f^*(g) = g \circ f$.

Definition 4.1.12. 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 4.1.13 (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 4.1.14 (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 4.1.15 (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 $rs = \mathrm{id}_B$.

Proposition 4.1.16. 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:

$$r = r i d_B$$
 (Unit Law)
 $= r f s$ (s is a section of f)
 $= i d_A s$ (r is a retraction of f)
 $= s$ (Unit Law)

Proposition 4.1.17. Every section is monic.

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 4.1.18. Every retraction is epic.

Proof: Dual.

4.1.4 Isomorphisms

Definition 4.1.19 (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 4.1.20. The inverse of an isomorphism is unique.

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Proof: From Proposition 4.1.16. \Box

Proposition 4.1.21. *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 4.1.22. 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 4.1.23.

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

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

4.1.5 Initial Objects

Definition 4.1.24 (Initial Object). An object I is *initial* iff, for any object X, there exists exactly one morphism $I \to X$.

Proposition 4.1.25. 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 4.1.26. 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 $I' \to I'$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ i^{-1}i = id_I$

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

4.1.6 Terminal Objects

Definition 4.1.27 (Terminal Object). An object T is terminal iff, for any object X, there exists exactly one morphism $X \to T$.

Proposition 4.1.28. 1 is terminal in Set.

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

Proposition 4.1.29. If T and T' are terminal objects, then there exists a unique isomorphism $T \cong T'$.

Proof: Dual to Proposition 4.1.26. \square

4.1.7 Zero Objects

Definition 4.1.30 (Zero Object). An object Z is a zero object iff it is an initial object and a terminal object.

Definition 4.1.31 (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 4.1.32. There is no zero object in Set.

Proof: Since $\emptyset \approx 1$. \square

4.1.8 Triads

Definition 4.1.33 (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.

4.1.9 Cotriads

Definition 4.1.34 (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 4.1.35 (Pullback). A diagram

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

$$\downarrow \alpha$$

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

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 η is the *pullback* of β along α .

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Proposition 4.1.36. 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 α and β , 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 $\xi' \phi = \xi$.

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

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \phi \phi^{-1} = \mathrm{id}_{W'}$

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 4.1.37. 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.

Proposition 4.1.38. The pullback of an isomorphism is an isomorphism.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let:

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

be a pullback diagram.

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

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 3. Let: ξ^{-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 $\eta x = \eta$.

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Proposition 4.1.39. Let $\beta:(Y,y)\to (M,m)$ and $\alpha:(X,x)\to (M,m)$ in $\mathcal{C}\backslash A$. Let

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

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

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

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 β and α 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. $h: (Z, z) \rightarrow (W, w)$

Proposition 4.1.40. Let $\beta:(Y,y)\to (M,m)$ and $\alpha:(X,x)\to (M,m)$ in \mathcal{C}/A . Let

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

$$\downarrow \alpha$$

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

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 α and β in C/A.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \eta : (W, w) \to (Y, y)$ 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 4.1.41. 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 ξ and η form the pullback of α and β .

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)).

П

Pullback lemma

4.1.11 Pushouts

Definition 4.1.42 (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 β is the *pushout* of ξ along η .

Proposition 4.1.43. 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 ξ and η , then there exists a unique isomorphism $\phi: M \cong M'$ such that $\phi\alpha = \alpha'$ and $\phi\beta = \beta'$.

PROOF: Dual to Proposition 4.1.36.

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Proposition 4.1.44. 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 4.1.37.

Proposition 4.1.45. The diagram (4.1) is a pushout in C iff it is a pullback in C^{op} .

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

Proposition 4.1.46. The pushout of an isomorphism is an isomorphism.

Proof: Dual to Proposition 4.1.38. \square

Proposition 4.1.47. 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 ξ and η in $C \setminus A$.

PROOF: Dual to Proposition 4.1.40. \square

Proposition 4.1.48. Let $\xi:(W,w)\to (X,x)$ and $\eta:(W,w)\to (Y,y)$ in \mathcal{C}/A . Let

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

$$\downarrow \alpha$$

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

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 ξ and η in $C \setminus A$.

Proof: Dual to Proposition 4.1.39. \square

Proposition 4.1.49. 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: $f \xi = g \eta$

(1)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 $k = \overline{h}$.

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 4.1.50. 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

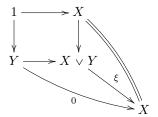
$$\begin{array}{ccc}
A & \longrightarrow & 1 \\
\downarrow u & & \downarrow \\
X & \longrightarrow & X/(A, u)
\end{array}$$

Proposition 4.1.51. In **Set***, any two morphisms $1 \to X$ and $1 \to Y$ have a pushout.

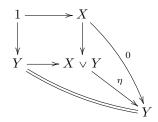
PROOF: The pushout of $a:(1,*)\to (X,x)$ and $b:(1,*)\to (Y,y)$ is $(X+Y/\sim,x)$ where \sim is the equivalence relation generated by $x\sim y$. \square

Definition 4.1.52 (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 4.1.53 (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 ζ .

Pushout lemma

4.1.12 Subcategories

Definition 4.1.54 (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 $A, B \in \mathrm{Ob}(\mathcal{C}')$, we have $\mathcal{C}'[A, B] = \mathcal{C}[A, B]$.

4.1.13 Opposite Category

Definition 4.1.55 (Opposite Category). For any category C, the *opposite* category C^{op} is the category with

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

Proposition 4.1.56. An object is initial in C iff it is terminal in C^{op} .

PROOF: Immediate from definitions. \Box

Proposition 4.1.57. An object is terminal in C iff it is initial in C^{op} .

Proof: Immediate from definitions. \Box

Corollary 4.1.57.1. If T and T' are terminal objects in C then there exists a unique isomorphism $T \cong T'$.

4.1.14 Groupoids

Definition 4.1.58 (Groupoid). A *groupoid* is a category in which every morphism is an isomorphism.

4.1.15 Concrete Categories

Definition 4.1.59 (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 4.1.60. Let $\mathcal C$ be a category and J a set. The category $\mathcal C^J$ is the category with:

- \bullet 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 4.1.61 (Arrow Category). Let \mathcal{C} be a category. The arrow category $\mathcal{C}^{\rightarrow}$ 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 4.1.62 (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 (id_A, u) .

Proposition 4.1.63. 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 C.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. rg = f

PROOF: rg = rsf = f.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ r: (C,g) \to (B,f) \text{ in } \mathcal{C} \backslash A$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. $rs = id_{(B,f)}$

PROOF: Because composition is inherited from C.

Proposition 4.1.64. id_A is the initial object in $C \setminus A$.

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 4.1.65. 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 4.1.66 (Pointed Sets). The category of pointed sets is $\mathbf{Set} \setminus 1$.

Definition 4.1.67. 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.

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Proposition 4.1.68. 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 4.1.63. \square

Proposition 4.1.69. id_A is terminal in C/A.

PROOF: Dual to Proposition 4.1.64.

Proposition 4.1.70. If A is initial in C then id_A is the zero object in C/A.

PROOF: Dual to Proposition 4.1.65.

Definition 4.1.71. 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 4.1.72. (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 4.1.73 (Fibre Collapsing). Let B be a set. Let $u:(A,a)\to (X,x)$ in \mathbf{Set}/B . Form the pushout

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

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 $X/_B(A, u)$.

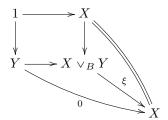
Definition 4.1.74 (Fibre Wedge). Let B be a small set. Let $(X, u_X, p_X), (Y, u_Y, p_Y) \in \mathbf{Set}_B^B$. The fibre wedge of X and Y is the pushout of u_X and u_Y :

$$B \xrightarrow{u_X} X$$

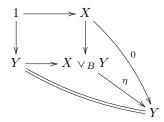
$$\downarrow^{u_Y} \qquad \downarrow$$

$$Y \longrightarrow X \vee_B Y$$

Definition 4.1.75 (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 ζ .

Proposition 4.1.76. Set has products and coproducts.

Proposition 4.1.77. 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 4.1.78. 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

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

Proposition 4.1.79. A product in C constitutes a product in $C \setminus A$.

Proposition 4.1.80. 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 $F: \mathrm{Ob}(\mathcal{C}) \to \mathrm{Ob}(\mathcal{D})$

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• for every morphism $f:A\to B$ in $\mathcal C$, a morphism $Ff:FA\to FB$ in $\mathcal D$ 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

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

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

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Define $G : \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{C} \backslash A$ by

 $GB = (B, !_B)$ where $!_B$ 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* $C/A \cong C$.

Proof: Dual.

Proposition 4.2.10.

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

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)

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

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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:

$$UA = |A|$$

$$Uf = f$$

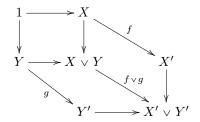
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Definition 4.2.12 (Switching Functor). For any category C, define the *switching functor* $T: C \times C \to C \times C$ by

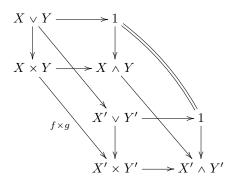
$$T(A, B) = (B, A)$$
$$T(f, g) = (g, f)$$

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

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 Φ_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 $Gf \circ \tau_X = \tau_Y \circ Ff$.

$$FX \xrightarrow{Ff} FY$$

$$\downarrow^{\tau_X} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\tau_Y}$$

$$GX \xrightarrow{Gf} GY$$

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 $X \in \mathcal{C}$, τ_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 Y 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 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:
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. ϕ 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:

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

$$= \tau_Y(f)$$

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

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

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

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. ϕ is natural in F.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $\alpha : F \Rightarrow G : \mathcal{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \to \mathbf{Set}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. 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 ϕ_{XF} is injective.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $\sigma, \tau : \mathcal{C}[-, X] \Rightarrow F$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Assume: $\phi(\sigma) = \phi(\tau)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: $f: Y \to X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ \sigma_Y(f) = \tau_Y(f)$

Proof:

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

$$= Ff(\sigma_X(\mathrm{id}_X)) \qquad (\sigma \text{ is natural})$$

$$= Ff(\tau_X(\mathrm{id}_X)) \qquad (\langle 2 \rangle 2)$$

$$= \tau_Y(\mathrm{id}_X \circ f) \qquad (\tau \text{ is natural})$$

$$= \tau_Y(f)$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Each ϕ_{XF} is surjective.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $X \in \mathcal{C}$ and $F : \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $a \in FX$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: $\tau : \mathcal{C}[-,X] \Rightarrow F$ be given by $\tau_Y(g) = Fg(a)$ for $g:Y \to X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. τ is natural.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $h: Y \to Z: \mathcal{C}$

PROVE:
$$Fh \circ \tau_Z = \tau_Y \circ \mathcal{C}[h, \mathrm{id}_X]$$

- $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. Let: $g: Z \to X$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. $Fh(\tau_Z(g)) = \tau_Y(g \circ h)$

Proof:

$$\tau_Y(g \circ h) = F(g \circ h)(a)$$
$$= Fh(Fg(a))$$
$$= Fh(\tau_Z(g))$$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ \phi(\tau) = a$$

4.5. FUNCTOR CATEGORIES

Proof:

$$\phi_X(\tau) = \tau_X(\mathrm{id}_X)$$

$$= F\mathrm{id}_X(a)$$

$$= a$$

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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 $C[-,A] \cong C[-,B]$.

Chapter 5

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) (Definition of 0) = xx

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

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

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: $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$

= 1

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

(Definition of $1/x, \langle 1 \rangle 2$)

П

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 $x \cdot 1/x = 1 \neq 0$.

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.

Theorem 5.0.28. 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.
Theorem 5.0.29. For any real numbers x , y and z , if $x > y$ and $z < 0$ then $xz < yz$.
PROOF: (1)1. Let: x , y and z be real numbers. (1)2. Assume: $x > y$ (1)3. Assume: $z < 0$ (1)4. $-z > 0$ PROOF: Theorem 5.0.27, $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. (1)5. $x(-z) > y(-z)$ PROOF: $\langle 1 \rangle 2$, $\langle 1 \rangle 4$, Monotonicity of Multiplication. (1)6. $-(xz) > -(yz)$ PROOF: Theorem 5.0.8, $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. (1)7. $xz < yz$ PROOF: Theorem 5.0.27, $\langle 1 \rangle 6$.
Theorem 5.0.30. 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.
Γheorem 5.0.31.
0 < 1
PROOF: By Theorem 5.0.30 since $1 = 1 \cdot 1$. \square
Definition 5.0.32 (Positive). A real number x is positive iff $x > 0$. We write \mathbb{R}_+ for the set of positive reals.
Theorem 5.0.33. 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
```

Theorem 5.0.38. The set of real numbers is uncountable.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 8. \ b = c$

Chapter 6

Integers and Rationals

6.1 Positive Integers

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. \square

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.

PROOF:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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 $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}. \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_+.a^na^m = a^{n+m}$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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.

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

6.2. INTEGERS 65

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

PROOF:

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

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

$$= a^{nm+n}$$
 (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,

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+1PROOF: 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 $(1)8. \ 4k^2 = 2n^2$ $\langle 1 \rangle 9. \ n^2 = 2k^2$ $\langle 1 \rangle 10$. n^2 is even. $\langle 1 \rangle 11$. *n* is even. PROOF: Theorem 6.2.9.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 12$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: $\langle 1 \rangle 3$, $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ and $\langle 1 \rangle 11$ form a contradiction.

Theorem 6.3.3. \mathbb{Q} is countably infinite.

PROOF: The function $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Q}$ that maps (m,n) to m/(n+1) is a surjection.

Algebraic Numbers 6.4

Definition 6.4.1 (Algebraic Number). A real number r is algebraic iff there exists a natural number n and rational numbers $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1}$ such that

$$r^{n} + a_{n-1}r^{n-1} + \dots + a_{1}r + a_{0} = 0$$

Otherwise, r is transcendental.

Proposition 6.4.2. The set of algebraic numbers is countably infinite.

PROOF: There are countably many finite sequences of rational numbers, and each corresponding polynomial has only finitely many roots.

Corollary 6.4.2.1. The set of transcendental numbers is uncountable.

Chapter 7

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

Chapter 8

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

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:
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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 $n \in S(a_3,b_3) \subseteq S(a_1,b_1) \cap S(a_2,b_2)$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $d = \operatorname{lcm}(a_1, a_2)$ 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

$$\langle 3 \rangle 6. \ n \in S(a, b)$$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 7. \ Q.E.D.$

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° , 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_{α} is open in X_{α} .

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_{α} open in X_{α} .
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. For all $\alpha \in A$, we have $\kappa_{\alpha}^{-1}(\coprod_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha})$ is open in X_{α} .

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_{α} .
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $U = \coprod_{\alpha \in A} \kappa_{\alpha}^{-1}(U) \in \mathcal{T}_c$

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_{α}
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 4.$ $f^{-1}(U) = \coprod_{\alpha \in A} \kappa_{\alpha}^{-1}(f^{-1}(U))$ $\langle 3 \rangle 5.$ $f^{-1}(U)$ 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}
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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_{λ} 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_{α} 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}.
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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_{α} open in X_{α} such that $U_{\alpha} = X_{\alpha}$ for all α except $\alpha = \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$.
- $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. For all α 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 α 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_{$\prod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$} is continuous.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. For all α we have π_{α} 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 π_{α} 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 ι_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_{λ} is indiscrete. If Λ 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_{λ} open in X_{λ} 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 Φ 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 α : $[0,1] \to X$ 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 ϕ 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 π 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 π 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 π is a *quotient map* iff π is surjective and the topology on S is the quotient topology induced by π .

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 π .
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. 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 π 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 π 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: $U_n = \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{R} : n - 1/4 < x < n + 1/4 \text{ and } ((y > x + c_n - n \text{ and } y > -x + c_n + n)) \text{ or } (y < x + c_n - n \text{ and } y < -x + c_n + n))\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. 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.

12.8 Hausdorff Spaces

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.

Proposition 12.8.3. 1. Every subspace of a Hausdorff space is Hausdorff.

- 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 $\lim_{n\to\infty} f(x_n)$. \square

12.9 Separable 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.

12.11 Compactness

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 ϕ 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.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. ϕ is a bijection.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. ϕ 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 .

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 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.

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.

$$\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \Phi_e(D^n) = \overline{e}$$

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.

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 $\| \| : E \to \mathbb{R}$ 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 Λ be a set of seminorms on E. The topology generated by Λ 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 : 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_{∞} 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_{∞} .

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.