## MATH 301

## INTRODUCTION TO PROOFS

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## Relevant sections of the textbook

- Chapter 3
- Chapter 5


## Associated directed graph of a relation

Suppose a set $A$ comes equipped with a relation $R$. We can associate a directed graph (aka a digraph) with vertex set $A$ and with an ordered pair $(a, b) \in A \times A$ being an edge precisely when $a R b$.

## Exercise

Express the conditions of reflexivity, transitivity, symmetry, antisymmetry, and totality in terms of familiar connectivity conditions on the associated graph.

## Exercise

If the following graphs are the associated graphs of certain relations, what facts about those relations can we infer?


## Exercise (Partial order on a power

 set)There is a partial order on a power $\operatorname{set} \mathcal{P}(X)$ of a set $X$ given by the subset relation: Check that all the axioms of partial order are satisfied.
Show that this partial order is not total.


In fact we can recover the partial order of $\mathcal{P}(X)$ simply from the intersection (or equivalently the union) operation.
For subsets $A, B$ of $X$, define

$$
A \leqslant B \Longleftrightarrow A \cap B=A
$$

## Exercise

Show that $\leqslant$ is a partial order relation, and it agrees with the subset relation.

## Definition

A non-empty partially ordered set $(S, \leqslant)$ is filtered (or is said to be a filtered set) if for each $a, b \in S$, there is a element $c$ such that $a \leqslant c$ and $b \leqslant c$.

## Remark

Every total order is a filtered.

## Example

The powerset $\mathcal{P}(X)$ with the subset relation is filtered.

## Exercise

Show that for a poset $P$ the set of filtered subsets of $P$ is again filtered.

## Minimum and maximum

## Definition

We say an element a of a poset $P$ is a minimum (aka a least element) for $P$ if it is less than or equal to any other element, that is

$$
\forall x \in P(a \leqslant x)
$$

Dually, we say an element a of a poset $P$ is a maximum (aka a greatest element) for $P$ if it is greater than or equal to any other element, that is

$$
\forall x \in P(x \leqslant a)
$$

## Example

- $\operatorname{In}(\mathbb{N}, \leqslant), 0$ is a minimum; there is no maximum.
- Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n>0$. Then $\underline{0}$ is a least element of $(\underline{n}, \leqslant)$, and $\underline{n-1}$ is a greatest element.
- $(\mathbb{Z}, \leqslant)$ has no maximum or minimum.
- The interval $((0,1], \leqslant)$ has a maximum but not a minimum.


## Definition

We say that an element is minimal for a partial order if no element is less than it. Dually, we say that an element is maximal for a partial order if no element is greater than it.

## Example

Recall for a set $X$, we formed the set of all inhabited subsets of $X$ as follows

$$
\mathcal{P}^{+}(X)==_{\text {def }} \mathcal{P}(X) \backslash\{\emptyset\}
$$

$\left(\mathcal{P}^{+}(X), \subseteq\right)$ is again a poset where the order is given by given by the subset relation. In this poset, every singleton is minimal but not a minimum if $X$ has more than one element. The maximal element $X$ is also a maximum.

Proposition
In every poset any maximum (resp. minimum) is a maximal (resp. minimal) element.

## Our logical idea of function

A function $f$ from a set $X$ to a set $Y$ is a specification of a unique element $f(x) \in Y$ for each $x \in X$. We write $f: X \rightarrow Y$ to denote the assertion that $f$ is a function with domain $X$ and codomain $Y$.

To describe a particular function, one must specify

- its domain,
- its codomain, and
- the effect of function upon a typical ("variable") element of its domain.

For instance the "squaring" function on the set of real numbers is specified in either of the following ways:
(1) $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ where $f(x)=x^{2}$ for every real number $x$, or
(2) $x \mapsto x^{2}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,
(3) $\lambda(x: \mathbb{R}) \cdot x^{2}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

## How to define a function? (I)

The simplest way to define a function is to give its value at every $x$ with an explicit well-defined expression.

## Example

- Let $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be the function defined by $f=\lambda(n: \mathbb{N}) . n+1$.
- Let $g: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the function defined by $g(x, y)=x^{2}+y^{2}$.
- Let $p: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be the function defined by $p(n)=$ the largest prime number less than or equal to $n$.
- The assignment to each real number the greatest integer less than or equal to it. We call this function the floor function. We denote this function by $\lfloor-\rfloor: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$.
- The assignment to each real number the least integer greater than or equal to it. We call this function the ceiling function. We denote this function by $\lceil-\rceil: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$.


## Some functions on power sets

## Example

- $\lambda(x: X) .\{x\}: X \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(X)$. We sometimes denote this function by $\{-\}$.
- $\lambda(A: \mathcal{P} \mathcal{P}(X)) . \bigcup_{a \in A} a: \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(X)) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(X)$.


## How to define a function? (II)

It is sometimes convenient to define a function using different specifications for different elements of the domain.

## Example

The absolute value function $|-|: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, defined for $x \in \mathbb{R}$

$$
|x|= \begin{cases}x & \text { if } x \geqslant 0 \\ -x & \text { if } x \leqslant 0\end{cases}
$$

When specifying a function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ by cases, it is important that the conditions be:

- exhaustive: given $x \in X$, at least one of the conditions on $X$ must hold; and
- compatible: if any $x \in X$ satisfies more than one condition, the specified value must be the same no matter which condition is picked.


## Characteristic functions

## Definition

Let $X$ be a set and let $U \subseteq X$. The characteristic function of $U$ in $X$ is the function $\chi_{\cup}: X \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ defined by

$$
\chi_{U}(a)= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } a \in U \\ 0 & \text { if } a \notin U\end{cases}
$$

## Example

$\chi_{E}: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ is the function defined by

$$
\chi_{E}(n)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
0 & \text { if } n \text { is even } \\
1 & \text { if } n \text { is odd. }
\end{array} \quad \chi_{\mathbb{Q}}(x)= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } x \text { is rational } \\
1 & \text { if } x \text { is irrational. }\end{cases}\right.
$$

$\chi_{\mathbb{Q}}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ is the function defined by

Try to draw the graph of the second function, or at least try to imagine it in your mind.

## Exercise

Show that
(1) $\chi_{U \cap V}=\chi_{U} \chi_{V}$
(2) $\chi_{U \cap V}=\chi_{U}+\chi_{V}-\chi_{U} \chi_{V}$
(3) $\chi_{U^{c}}=1-\chi_{U}$

## Our mechanistic idea of function



Functions as machines
We might think of a function as a machine which, when given an input, produces an output. This "machine" is defined by saying what the possible inputs and outputs are, and then providing a list of instructions (an algorithm) for the machine to follow, which on any input produces an output-and, moreover, if fed the same input, the machine always produces the same

## Warning

Our algorithmic idea of function implies that functions are computable in some sense. Note that this idea is at odds with a view of functions as well-formed logical expressions.
For example, concerning the characteristic function $\chi_{\mathbb{Q}}$, it is not at all clear what it means to be presented with a real number as input, let alone whether it is possible to determine, algorithmically, whether such a number is rational or not.

It is much harder to make formal what is meant by an "algorithm". This was first done by Alan Turing and Alonzo Church.


## Equality of functions

## Definition (function extensionality)

Functions $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: X \rightarrow Y$ are equal if and only if the sentence

$$
\forall x \in X(f(x)=g(x))
$$

is true.

## Exercise

Show that for any set $A$ there is a unique function $\emptyset \rightarrow A$.

## Compositionality of functions

For any set $X$, we can define a function id: $X \rightarrow X$ by letting id $(x)$ to be the same as $x$. This function is called the identity function on $X$.

More interestingly, let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ be functions. We can define a new function $k: X \rightarrow Z$ by letting

$$
k(x)=\text { def } g(f(x))
$$

The function $k$ is called the composition of $f$ and $g$ which we also call " $f$ composed with $g$ " (or " $g$ after $f$ ") and which we denote by $g \circ f$.


## The order of composition

The order of composition is somewhat confusing; the syntactic order does not match the diagrammatic order. In the diagram above, $f$ appears to the left of $g$ while in the syntactic expression of composition $g \circ f$, the function $f$ appears appears on the right.
Nevertheless, they both mean the same thing: in order to evaluate the expression $g(f(x))$ you first evaluate $f$ on input $x$, and then evaluate $g$. The function $g$ waits for the the result $f(x)$ of application of $f$ to the input $x$ and once that is available, $g$ applies to the value $f(x)$.


$$
\lambda y \cdot g(y) \circ \lambda x \cdot f(x)=\lambda x \cdot g[f(x) / y]
$$

$\lambda y \cdot \log _{2} y \circ \lambda x \cdot 2^{x}=\lambda x \cdot \log _{2} y\left[2^{x} / y\right]=\log _{2} 2^{x}=x$

The composition of function introduced above has two important properties:
unitality for any function $f: X \rightarrow Y$, we have $f \circ \mathrm{id}_{X}=f$ and $\mathrm{id}_{Y} \circ f=f$. associativity for any functions $f: W \rightarrow X, g: X \rightarrow Y$ and $h: Y \rightarrow Z$, we have

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

## Constant functions

## Definition

We say a function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is constant if for all $x, x^{\prime} \in X$ we have $f(x)=f\left(x^{\prime}\right)$.

## Exercise

Show that the identity function id : $\emptyset \rightarrow \emptyset$ is constant.

## Exercise

Suppose $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ are functions. Show that if either $f$ or $g$ is constant then the composition $g \circ f$ is constant.

## Commuting diagrams of functions

We say a square

of sets and functions commutes if

$$
g \circ f \circ h=k
$$

## Commuting diagrams of functions

We say a square

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
A \xrightarrow{t} & B \\
h \downarrow & \\
& \\
C & \\
C & \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

of sets and functions commutes if

$$
g \circ f=k \circ h
$$

## Functions and relations

Functions can be seen as a special kind of relations.

## Definition

$A$ binary relation $R(x, y)$ on $A$ and $B$ is functional if for every $x$ in $A$ there exists a unique $y$ in $B$ such that $R(x, y)$. We can express this formally by the following sentence

$$
(\forall x \exists y R(x, y)) \wedge(\forall x \forall y \forall z(R(x, y) \wedge R(x, z) \Rightarrow y=z))
$$

If $R$ is a functional relation, we can define a function $f_{R}: X \rightarrow Y$ by setting $f_{R}(x)$ to be equal to the unique $y$ in $B$ such that $R(x, y)$. Conversely, it is not hard to see that if $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is any function, the relation $R_{f}(x, y)$ defined by $f(x)=y$ is a functional relation.

For any function $f: X \rightarrow Y$, we define as subset of $X \times Y$ known as the graph of $f$.

$$
\operatorname{Gr}(f)=\{(x, y) \mid f(x)=y\}
$$

Define functions $h, i$, and $p$ as follows:

$$
\begin{array}{r}
h=\lambda x \cdot(x, f(x)) \\
i=\lambda(x, y) \cdot(x, y) \\
p=\lambda(x, y) \cdot y \tag{3}
\end{array}
$$

## Exercise

Show that the functions $f, h, i$, and $p$ fit into the following square of sets and functions commutes:


## Composition of relations

Given a relation $R$ on $X$ and $Y$ and a relation $S$ on $Y$ and $Z$ we can compose them to get a relation $S \circ R$ on $X$ and $Z$ defined as follows:

$$
x(S \circ R) z \Longleftrightarrow \exists y \in Y(x R y \wedge y R z)
$$

## Exercise

Let $B$ be the "brothership" relation (xBy means $x$ is a brother of $y$ ) and $S$ be the "sistership" relation. Show that the composite relation $S \circ B$ is not equivalent to $B$.

## Exercise

- Prove that if both $R$ and $S$ are partial orders then $S \circ R$ is a partial order.
- Prove that if both $R$ and $S$ are equivalence relations then $S \circ R$ is an equivalence relation.


## Exercise

Show that for any equivalence relation $R$ on a set $X$ we have
(1) $R \circ R=R$.
(2) $R \circ R \circ \ldots \circ R=R$

## Composition of functions from compositions of relations

## Theorem

Suppose $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ are functions. Consider the corresponding relations $R_{f}$ and $R_{g}$. The relation corresponding to the composite function $g \circ f$ is equivalent to the composite relations $R_{g} \circ R_{f}$, that is,

$$
\forall x \in X \forall z \in Z\left(x R_{g \circ f} z \Longleftrightarrow x\left(R_{g} \circ R_{f}\right) z\right)
$$

## Isomorphisms of sets

## Definition

An isomorphism between two sets $X$ and $Y$ is a pair of function

$$
f: X \rightarrow Y \text { and } g: Y \rightarrow X
$$

such that $g \circ f=\mathrm{id}_{X}$, and $f \circ g=\mathrm{id}_{Y}$.
We can think of functions $f$ and $g$ above as no data-loss "processes", e.g. conversion of files to different format without data being lost.

## Definition

The sets $X$ and $Y$ are said to be isomorphic in case there exists an isomorphism between them. In this case, we use the notation $X \cong Y$.

## Exercise

Show that for any set $A$, it is isomorphic to $\emptyset$ if and only if $A$ does not have any elements. Can you prove this without the LEM?

Previously, we defined the cartesian product $A \times B$ of two sets $A$ and $B$ to consists of all the pairs $(a, b)$ where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$. Now, we show that if we have more two sets the order of forming products does not matter.

## Exercise

(1) For all sets $A, B, C$ we have

$$
(A \times B) \times C \cong(A \times B) \times C
$$

For this reason, we use $A \times B \times C$ to denote either sets.

## Exercise

Show that two finite sets are isomorphic if and only if they have the same number of elements.

## Exercise

Show that for any function $f: X \rightarrow Y$, we have

$$
\operatorname{Gr}(f) \cong X
$$

## A remark on disjoint unions

We introduced the operation of taking disjoint union of two sets as follows:

$$
A \sqcup B=\{\operatorname{inl}(x) \mid x \in A\} \cup\{\operatorname{inr}(x) \mid x \in B\}
$$

## Exercise

Show that

$$
A \sqcup B \cong(\{0\} \times A) \cup(\{1\} \times B)
$$

Inspired by this fact we define the disjoint union of a family $\left\{A_{i} \mid i \in I\right\}$ of sets to be

$$
\bigsqcup_{i \in I} A_{i}=\bigcup_{i \in I}\{i\} \times A_{i} .
$$

An element of $\bigsqcup_{i \in I} A_{i}$ is a pair $(i, a)$ where $i \in I$ and $a \in A_{i}$.

## Inverse of a relation

We can always define an inverse to a relation:

## Definition

For a relation $R$ on $X$ and $Y$ we define the inverse of $R$ to be a relation $R^{-1}$ on $Y$ and $X$ defined by

$$
y R^{-1} x \Leftrightarrow x R y
$$

## Exercise

Show that if a relation $R$ is functional then it is not necessarily the case that $R^{-1}$ is functional.

## Arithmetic of sets

We define the operation of addition on sets as follows: For sets $X$ and $Y$ let the sum $X+Y$ be defined by their disjoint union $X \sqcup Y$.

## Exercise

(1) Show that the addition operation on sets is both commutative and associative.
(2) Show that the empty set is the unit (aka neutral element) of addition of sets.

## Exercise

Show that $\underline{m}+\underline{n} \cong m+n$ for all natural numbers $m$ and $n$.

## Exercise

(1) Show that if $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ are isomorphic, then for all sets $X$, we have $X+S \cong X+S^{\prime}$.
(2) Prove that for any singleton $S$, we have $\mathbb{N}+S \cong \mathbb{N}$.

Sometimes, when the context precludes risk of confusion, we use the notation 1 for any singleton set. Therefore, we can simplify the last statement in above to

$$
\mathbb{N}+1 \cong \mathbb{N}
$$

## Definition

- $A$ retract (aka left inverse) of function $f: A \rightarrow B$ is a morphism $r: B \rightarrow A$ such that $r \circ f=\mathrm{id}_{A}$. In this case we also say $A$ is a retract of $B$.
- $A$ section (aka right inverse) of function $f: A \rightarrow B$ is a morphism $s: B \rightarrow A$ such that $f \circ s=\mathrm{id}_{B}$.



## Example

- The circle is a retract of punctured disk.
- The maps from the infinite helix to the circle has a section, but no continuous section.


## Injections

## Definition

A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is injective (or one-to-one) if

$$
\forall a, b \in X, f(a)=f(b) \Rightarrow a=b
$$

An injective function is said to be an injection.

## Surjections

## Definition

A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is surjective (aka onto) if

$$
\forall y \in Y, \exists x \in X, f(x)=y
$$

holds. A surjective function is said to be a surjection.

## Proposition

(1) A function with a retract is injective.
(2) A function with a section is surjective.

Injection and retracts

Does every injection have a retract?

Injection and retracts

No. Consider the function $\emptyset \rightarrow \mathbf{1}$.

## Injection and retracts

## Proposition

Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a function. If $f$ is injective and $X$ is inhabited, then $f$ has a retract.

## Injection and retracts

## Proof.

Suppose that $f$ is injective and $X$ is inhabited. Since $X$ is inhabited, we get always fix an element of it, say $x_{0} \in X$. Now, define $r: Y \rightarrow X$ as follows.

$$
r(y)= \begin{cases}x & \text { if } y=f(x) \text { for some } x \in X \\ x_{0} & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Note that $r$ is well-defined since if for some $y$, the there are elements $x$ and $x^{\prime}$ such that $y=f(x)=f\left(x^{\prime}\right)$, then, by injectivity of $f$, we have $x=x^{\prime}$, and therefore, the value of $r$ is uniquely determined.
To see that $r$ is a retract of $f$, let $x \in X$. Letting $y=f(x)$, we see that $y$ falls into the first case in the specification of $r$, so that $r(f(x))=g(y)=$ a for some $a \in X$ for which $y=f(a)$. But, $f(x)=y=f(a)$, and by injectivity of $f$ we have $x=a$. Therefore, for every $x \in X$,

Injection and retracts

Was this proof constructive?

A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ induces a function

$$
f_{*}: \mathcal{P}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Y)
$$

defined by

$$
f_{*}(U)=\{y \in Y \mid \exists x \in U(y=f(x))\}
$$

for any subset $U$ of $X$. The subset $f_{*}(S)$ is called the image of $U$ under $f$. Note that

$$
i d_{*}=i d_{\mathcal{P}(X)}
$$

## Proposition

Show that a function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is surjective if and only if $f_{*}(X)=Y$.
We sometimes denote the set $f_{*}(X)$ by $\operatorname{Im}(f)$.

Suppose $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ are functions. We prove that

$$
g_{*} \circ f_{*}=(g \circ f)_{*} .
$$

Recall that in order to prove equality of functions we need to use function extensionality.
Suppose $T$ is a subset of $Z$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(g_{*} \circ f_{*}\right) U & =g_{*}\{y \in Y \mid \exists x \in U(y=f(x))\} \\
& =\{z \in Z \mid \exists y \in Y \exists x \in U(y=f(x) \wedge z=g(y)\} \\
& =\{z \in Z \mid \exists x \in U(z=g(f(x)))\} \\
& =(g \circ f)_{*} U
\end{aligned}
$$

## Pre-images

A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ induces a function

$$
f^{-1}: \mathcal{P}(Y) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(X)
$$

defined by

$$
f^{-1}(S)=\{x \in X \mid f(x) \in S\}
$$

for any subset $S$ of $Y$.
The subset $f^{-1}(S)$ is called the pre-image of $S$ under $f$.
Note that

$$
\mathrm{id}_{x}^{-1}=\mathrm{id}_{\mathcal{P}(X)}
$$

Injections and subsingletons

## Definition

$A$ set $U$ is said to be a subsingleton if it is a subset of the one-element set $\mathbf{1}$.

## Proposition

A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is injective if and only if for every $y \in Y$ the fibres $f^{-1}(y)$ are all subsingletons.

## Example of isomorphism: infinite binary number

We define an infinite binary number to be an infinite sequence of binary digits (each 0 or 1).
Consider the set $\mathbb{B}_{\infty}$ of infinite binary numbers.
Define a function

$$
\alpha: \mathbb{B}_{\infty} \rightarrow[0,1]
$$

by

$$
\alpha\left(x_{0} x_{1} \ldots x_{i} \ldots\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_{i} 2^{-(i+1)}
$$

## Exercise

(1) Show that this function is not injective by considering the fibre $\alpha^{-1}(1 / 2)$.
(2) What is the fibre $\alpha^{-1}(1 / 3)$ ?
$\mathbb{B}_{\infty}$ has an interesting subset $\mathbb{B}_{\infty}^{+}$consisting of all monotone infinite binary numbers, that is the sequences $x=x_{0} x_{1} \ldots$ with the property that

$$
\forall i \in \mathbb{N}\left(\exists j \in \mathbb{N}\left(j \leqslant i \wedge x_{j}=1\right) \Rightarrow x_{i}=1\right)
$$

## Proposition

Show that the set $\mathbb{B}_{\infty}^{+}$is isomorphic to the set $\mathbb{N}_{\infty}=\{0,1,2, \ldots, \infty\}$ of extended natural numbers.

## Proof.

Assign to every sequence the least $i$ where $x_{i}=1$, and $\infty$ is such $i$ does not exist (i.e. when the sequence consists only of $0 s$ ). Clearly this assignment is well-defined and therefore defines a function $f: \mathbb{B}_{\infty}^{+} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_{\infty}$. Assign to a natural number $n$ the sequence consisting of $n$ copies of 0 followed by 1 s , and assign to $\infty$ the sequence consisting only of 0 s. Clearly this assignment is well-defined and therefore defines a function $g: \mathbb{N}_{\infty} \rightarrow \mathbb{B}_{\infty}^{+}$. We now show that $f$ and $g$ are inverses of each other: Let $n$ be a natural number. $f(g(n))=n$ since $n$ is the earliest place where 1 appears in the sequence $g(n)$. Also, for a monotone $x_{0} x_{1} \ldots x_{n} \ldots$, suppose $f\left(x_{0} x_{1} \ldots x_{n} \ldots\right)=i$. Hence, $x_{0} x_{1} \ldots x_{i-1} x_{i} x_{i+1} \ldots=00 \ldots 011 \ldots$ where the first 1 appears at digit $i$. Therefore $g\left(f\left(x_{0} x_{1} \ldots x_{n} \ldots\right)\right)=g(i)=00 \ldots 011 \ldots=x_{0} x_{1} \ldots x_{i} \ldots$. Additionally, $f(g(\infty))=\infty$ and $g(f(00 \ldots 0 \ldots))=00 \ldots 0 \ldots$. Therefore, $f$ and $g$ are inverse of each other and together they establish an isomorphism $\mathbb{B}_{\infty}^{+} \cong \mathbb{N}$.

Suppose $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ are functions. We prove that

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

Recall that in order to prove equality of functions we need to use function extensionality.
Suppose $T$ is a subset of $Z$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}\right) T & =f^{-1}\{y \in Y \mid g(y) \in T\} \\
& =\{x \in X \mid f(x) \in\{y \in Y \mid g(y) \in T\}\} \\
& =\{x \in X \mid g(f(x)) \in T\} \\
& =(g \circ f)^{-1} T
\end{aligned}
$$

## Fibres

## Definition

For a function $f: X \rightarrow Y$, and an element $y \in Y$, the subset

$$
f^{-1}(y)=\{x \in X \mid f(x)=y\}
$$

of $X$ is called the fibre of $f$ at $y$ and also the pre-image of $y$ under $f$. Although, technically incorrect, people write $f^{-1}(y)$ instead of $f^{-1}(\{y\})$.

## Example

Consider the function $\lfloor-\rfloor: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ which takes a real number to the greatest integer less than it. What are the fibres

- $\lfloor-\rfloor^{-1}(0)$ ?
- $\lfloor-\rfloor^{-1}(\lfloor\pi\rfloor)$ ?

The operation of taking fibres of a function is itself a function. More specifically, given a function $f$, taking fibres of $f$ at different elements $y \in Y$ as a function is equal to the composite

$$
Y \xrightarrow{\{-\}} \mathcal{P}(Y) \xrightarrow{f-1} \mathcal{P}(X),
$$

that is for all $y \in Y$,

$$
f^{-1}(y)=f^{-1}\{y\}
$$

## Exercise

Consider the family $\left\{f^{-1}(y) \mid y \in Y\right\}$. Show that all members of this family are mutually disjoint, and that their union is fact $X$.

$$
\bigsqcup_{y \in Y} f^{-1}(y) \cong \bigcup_{y \in Y} f^{-1}(y)=X
$$

As the last exercise suggests, we can associate to every function a family of sets given by fibres of that function at different elements of the codomain.

Interestingly, we also have the converse association: to a family $\left\{Y_{x} \mid x \in X\right\}$ we associate a function as follows: let the domain to be the disjoint union $\bigsqcup Y_{X}$ and let the codomain be $X$. The associated function $x \in X$
$p:\left\{Y_{X} \mid x \in X\right\} \rightarrow X$ takes an element $\operatorname{in}(x) \in \bigsqcup_{x \in X} Y_{X}$ to $x \in X$.

functions

$\overleftarrow{\mathbf{U}_{\text {def }} \text { taking union }}$

families of sets

## The set of functions

Suppose $X$ and $Y$ are sets. We can define a new set consisting of all the functions from $X$ to $Y$. We denote this set by $Y^{X}$. Explicitly,

$$
Y^{X}=\{f: X \rightarrow Y\} \cong\{R \subset X \times Y \mid R \text { is a functional relation }\}
$$

## Exercise

Suppose $X$ is a finite set with $m$ elements and Suppose $Y$ is a finite set with $n$ elements. Then the set $Y^{X}$ has $n^{m}$ elements.

## The set of functions behaves like exponentials

## Proposition

Suppose $X, Y, Z$ are sets. We have

- $X^{\emptyset} \cong 1$
- $\emptyset^{X} \cong 1$ if and only if $X=\emptyset$. In particular $\emptyset^{\emptyset} \cong 1$.
- $\left(X^{Y}\right)^{Z} \cong X^{Y \times Z}$.
- $X^{Y+Z} \cong X^{Y} \times X^{Z}$

Let $\Omega$ be a set with two elements, for instance $\{\top, \perp\}$. We show that

$$
\Omega^{X} \cong \mathcal{P}(X)
$$

that is the power set of $X$ is isomorphic to the set of functions from $X$ to $\Omega$.
To this end we construct two functions $f$ and $g$ and prove that they are inverse of each other. The function $f: \Omega^{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(X)$ is defined as $\lambda\left(\varphi: \Omega^{X}\right) .\{x \in X \mid \varphi(x)=\top\}$.
The function $g: \mathcal{P}(X) \rightarrow \Omega^{X}$ is defined as $\lambda(S: \mathcal{P}(X))$. $\chi s$ where we recall that $\chi_{S}$ is the characteristic function of $S \subseteq X$.

## Dependent product of sets

Let $\left\{X_{i} \mid i \in I\right\}$ be a family of sets.
Define the set $\prod_{i \in 1} X_{i}$ to be

$$
\left\{h: I \rightarrow \bigcup_{i \in I} X_{i} \mid \forall i\left(h(i) \in X_{i}\right)\right\}
$$

Note that if $I$ is a finite set, say $I=\{1,2, \cdots, n\}$ then

$$
\prod_{i \in I} X_{i} \cong X_{1} \times X_{2} \times \cdots \times X_{n}
$$

In case where $/$ is a finite set, if each $X_{i}$ is inhabited then the cartesian product $\prod_{i \in I} X_{i}$ is also inhabited. But we cannot prove this for a general $I$.

## Axiom of choice

Axiom of Choice (AC) asserts that the set $\prod_{i \in I} X_{i}$ is inhabited for any indexing set $I$ and any family $\left(X_{i} \mid i \in I\right)$ of inhabited sets.

## Warning

The axiom of choice is highly non-constructive: if a proof of a result that does not use the axiom of choice is available, it usually provides more information than a proof of the same result that does use the axiom of choice.

## Logical incarnation of Axiom of Choice

## Proposition

The axiom of choice is equivalent to the statement that for any sets $X$ and $Y$ and any formula $p(x, y)$ with free variables $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$, the sentence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall x \in X \exists y \in Y p(x, y) \Rightarrow \exists(f: X \rightarrow Y) \forall x \in X, p(x, f(x)) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds.

Proof. Assume axiom of choice. Let $X$ and $Y$ be arbitrary sets and $p(x, y)$ any formula with free variables $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$. For each $x \in X$, define $Y_{x}=\{y \in Y \mid p(x, y)\}$. Note that $Y_{x}$ is inhabited for each $x \in X$ by the assumption $\forall x \in X, \exists y \in Y, p(x, y)$. By the axiom of choice there exists a function $h: X \rightarrow \bigcup_{x \in X} Y_{X}$ such that $h(x) \in Y_{X}$ for all $x \in X$. We compose the function $h$ with the inclusion $\cup_{x \in X} Y_{X} \hookrightarrow Y$, which we get from the fact that $Y_{x} \subseteq Y$ for each $x \in X$, to obtain a function $f: X \rightarrow Y$. But then $p(x, f(x))=p(x, h(x))$ is true for each $x \in X$ by definition of the sets $Y_{x}$.

Conversely, suppose that we have a family ( $X_{i} \mid i \in I$ ) of inhabited sets. Consider the cartesian product $\prod_{i \in I} X_{i}$. We want to show that this product is inhabited. Define

$$
p(i, x)==_{\operatorname{def}}\left(x \in X_{i}\right)
$$

Now, we apply the sentence (4) to the sets $I, \bigcup_{i \in I} X_{i}$ and the formula $p(i, x)$ just defined: we find a function $f: I \rightarrow \bigcup_{i \in I} X_{i}$ such that $p(i, f(i))$ for all $i \in I$. But, by definition of $p(i, x)$, we conclude that $f(i) \in X_{i}$ for all $i \in I$. Hence, $f$ is a member of $\prod_{i \in I} X_{i}$. $\square$

## Axiom of Choice and surjections

Given a function $p: Y \rightarrow X$, consider the associated family $\left\{Y_{X} \mid x \in X\right\}$ of sets obtained by taking fibres of $p$ at different elements of $x$.

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A maps $p: Y \rightarrow X$ is surjective if and only if the fibres $Y_{X}$ are inhabited for all $x \in X$.

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Lemma
A maps $p: Y \rightarrow X$ is surjective if and only if the fibres $Y_{X}$ are inhabited for all $x \in X$.

Lemma
An element of $\prod_{x \in X} Y_{x}$ is the same thing as a section of $p: Y \rightarrow X$.

## Axiom of Choice and surjections

## Proposition

Axiom of choice is equivalent to the statement that every surjection has a section.

## Proof.

Assume AC. Let $p: Y \rightarrow X$ be a surjection. Therefore all the fibres $Y_{x}$ are inhabited. By AC, the product $\prod_{x \in X} Y_{X}$ is inhabited. Hence, by the last lemma above, $p$ has a section.

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Axiom of choice is equivalent to the statement that every surjection has a section.

## Proof.

Assume AC. Let $p: Y \rightarrow X$ be a surjection. Therefore all the fibres $Y_{x}$ are inhabited. By AC, the product $\prod_{x \in X} Y_{X}$ is inhabited. Hence, by the last lemma above, $p$ has a section. Conversely, suppose that every surjection has a section. Let $\left\{Y_{X} \mid x \in X\right\}$ be family of sets where the set $Y_{X}$ is inhabited for every $x \in X$. Consider the associated function $\sqcup_{x \in X} Y_{X} \rightarrow X$. Note that this map is surjective by our assumption and the first lemma above. Hence, it has a section which is the same thing as an element of $\prod_{x \in X} Y_{x}$. Therefore AC holds.

Suppose $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: Y \rightarrow X$ are functions. We say that $f$ is (left) orthogonal to $g$ (and, equivalently, $g$ is right orthogonal to $f$ ) if for any two function that make the square

commute (i.e. $p \circ y=x \circ f$ ), there is a function $d: B \rightarrow Y$ which makes both triangles commute

i.e.

$$
p \circ d=x \text { and } d \circ f=y
$$

Proposition

- Any map right orthogonal to $\mathbf{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{1}$ is injective.
- Any map right orthogonal to $\emptyset \rightarrow \mathbf{1}$ is surjective.


## Cantors' theorem: $A<P(A)$

## Lemma

If a function $\sigma: A \rightarrow B^{A}$ is surjective then every function $f: B \rightarrow B$ has a fixed point.

## Proof.

Because $\sigma$ is a surjection, there is $a \in A$ such that $\sigma(a)=\lambda x: A \cdot f(\sigma(x)(x))$, but then $\sigma(a)(a)=f(\sigma(a)(a)$.

## Corollary

There is no surjection $A \rightarrow P(A)$.

Let's associate to each finite set $X$ a number $\operatorname{card}(X)$, called the "cardinality" of $X$, which measures how many (distinct) elements the set $X$ has. We then have

- $\operatorname{card}(X+Y)=\operatorname{card}(X)+\operatorname{card}(Y)$ and
- $\operatorname{card}(X \times Y)=\operatorname{card}(X) \times \operatorname{card}(Y)$.

More generally, for any finite set I and a family of finite sets $\left\{X_{i} \mid i \in I\right\}$, we have

- $\operatorname{card}\left(\bigsqcup_{i \in I} X_{i}\right)=\sum_{i \in I} \operatorname{card}\left(X_{i}\right)$ and
- $\operatorname{card}\left(\prod_{i \in I} X_{i}\right)=\prod_{i \in I} \operatorname{card}\left(X_{i}\right)$


## Questions

