Learning Uni Maths

gispisquared

If only I had the theorems! Then I should find the proofs easily enough.

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Set Theory

Axiom 1 (Existence). There exists a set.

Remark 2. This is implied by the Axiom of Infinity; however, we include it here so that we may define the empty set.

DEFINITION 3. A sentence is made by combining assertions of belonging (eg $x \in A$) and/or assertions of equality (eg A = B) using the usual logical operators: and, or, not, implies, if and only if, there exists, for all.

DEFINITION 4. Let A and B be sets. If every element of A is an element of B, we say that A is a *subset* of B, denoted $A \subseteq B$.

PROPOSITION 5. If $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq C$ then $A \subseteq C$.

AXIOM 6 (Extensionality). A = B iff $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$.

AXIOM 7 (Specification). For every set A and every sentence S(x) there is a set B whose elements are exactly those elements x of A for which S(x) holds.

DEFINITION 8. We notate this set B by $\{x \in A : S(x)\}$.

Proposition 9. There exists a unique set X such that for any x, the sentence $x \in X$ is false.

DEFINITION 10. We call this set the *empty set*, notated \emptyset .

PROPOSITION 11. For every set A there is a set B such that $B \notin A$.

AXIOM 12 (Pairing). For any two sets A and B there is a set X with $A \in X$ and $B \in X$.

PROPOSITION 13. There is a unique set Y such that for any a, a is in Y iff a = A or a = B.

DEFINITION 14. This set is called the *unordered pair* formed by A and B, denoted $\{A, B\}$.

DEFINITION 15. The set $\{A, A\}$ is denoted $\{A\}$, and called the *singleton* of $\{A\}$.

AXIOM 16 (Union). For any set X of sets there exists a set Y such that for any A in X, and any a in A, a is in Y.

PROPOSITION 17. For a nonempty set X of sets there is a unique set Z such that a is in Z if and only if there exists an A in X such that a is in A.

Definition 18. This set is called the *union* of X, denoted $\bigcup X$.

For two sets A and B we define $A \cup B = \bigcup \{A, B\}$.

DEFINITION 19. Let A and B be sets. The *intersection* of A and B, notated $A \cap B$, is $\{x \in A : x \in B\}$.

If $A \cap B = \emptyset$ then A and B are called *disjoint*.

Proposition 20. We have

- $\bullet \ A \cup \emptyset = A,$
- $A \cup B = B \cup A$ (commutative),
- $A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$ (associative),
- $A \cup A = A$ (idempotent),
- $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$ (distributive),
- $A \subseteq B$ iff $A \cup B = B$,
- $A \cap \emptyset = A$,
- $A \cap B = B \cap A$ (commutative),
- $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$ (associative),
- $A \cap A = A$ (idempotent),
- $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$ (distributive),
- $A \subseteq B$ iff $A \cap B = A$.

PROPOSITION 21. For every nonempty set C of sets, there is a unique set Y such that $x \in Y$ iff $x \in X$ for each X in C.

DEFINITION 22. This set Y is called the *intersection* of C, denoted $\bigcap C$.

Axiom 23 (Powers). For each set X there is a set that contains all subsets of X.

PROPOSITION 24. There is a unique set Y such that $x \in Y$ iff $x \subseteq X$.

DEFINITION 25. This set Y is called the power set of X, denoted $\mathcal{P}(X)$.

DEFINITION 26. The ordered pair of a and b is the set defined as

$$(a,b) = \{\{a\}, \{a,b\}\}.$$

PROPOSITION 27. For any a, b, c, d, we have (a, b) = (c, d) iff a = c and b = d.

Definition 28. Let A and B be sets. The Cartesian product $A \times B$ is

$$\{(x,y): x \in A, y \in B\}.$$

Proposition 29. For any set R of ordered pairs there are sets A and B such that $R \subseteq A \times B$.

DEFINITION 30. A binary relation R over sets A and B is a subset of $A \times B$. If (a,b) is in R we write aRb.

If A = B then we call it a binary relation over A.

Definition 31. An equivalence relation is a binary relation \sim over A such that

- $a \sim a$ (reflexive),
- $a \sim b \iff b \sim a$ (symmetric), and
- if $a \sim b$ and $b \sim c$ then $a \sim c$ (transitive).

The equivalence class of a under \sim is

$$[a] = \{x \in A : x \sim a\}.$$

DEFINITION 32. A partition of a set A is a disjoint set of subsets of A whose union is A.

A partition X of A induces a relation \sim , where $a \sim b$ iff a and b belong to the same element of X.

Proposition 33. The set of equivalence classes of an equivalence relation exists and is a partition.

Definition 34. This partition is called the partition induced by the equivalence relation \sim .

Proposition 35. The equivalence relation induced by a partition induces that partition; the partition induced by an equivalence relation induces that relation.

DEFINITION 36. For any set X we define $X^+ = X \cup \{X\}$.

AXIOM 37 (Infinity). There exists a set S containing \emptyset and containing X^+ for every X in S.

Proposition 38. There exists a unique set ω which is a subset of all such sets S.

PROPOSITION 39. For any $a, b \in \omega$, exactly one of $a \in b$, a = b, $b \in a$ is true.

Proposition 40. For any $a \in \omega$ and any $b \in a$, $b \subseteq a$.

DEFINITION 41. A function $f: A \to B$ is a relation f over A and B such that for each $a \in A$ there is exactly one $b \in B$ such that afb. We usually write this as f(a) = b.

A function f is *injective* if for each b in B, there is at most one a in A such that f(a) = b. It is *surjective* if for each b in B there is at least one a in A such that f(a) = b. A function which is both injective and surjective is *bijective*.

THEOREM 42 (Recursion theorem). If a is an element of a set X, and if $f: X \to X$ is a function, then there is a function $g: \omega \to X$ such that u(0) = a and $u(n^+) = f(u(n))$ for all n in ω .

AXIOM 43 (Substitution). If S(a,b) is a sentence such that for each a in a set A there exists a set B_a such that $b \in B_a \iff S(a,b)$, then there exists a function F with domain A such that $F(a) = B_a$ for each a in A.

AXIOM 44 (Foundation). Every set X contains a set Y such that X and Y are disjoint.

AXIOM 45 (Choice). Let X be a set of sets whose members are all nonempty. Then there exists a function $f: X \to \bigcup X$ such that $f(Y) \in Y$ for all $Y \in X$.

DEFINITION 46. A partial order is a binary relation \leq on a set A such that

- $a \le a$ (reflexive),
- if $a \leq b$ and $b \leq a$ then a = b (antisymmetric), and
- if $a \leq b$ and $b \leq c$ then $a \leq c$ (transitive).

We define a < b if $a \le b$ and $a \ne b$.

If for all a and b we have $a \leq b$ or $b \leq a$ (strongly connected), then \leq is a total order.

A *chain* is a totally ordered subset of a partially ordered set.

DEFINITION 47. If X is a partially ordered set, and if $a \in X$, the set $s(a) = \{x \in X : x < a\}$ is called the *initial segment* determined by a.

DEFINITION 48. Two partially ordered sets X and Y are similar if there is a bijection $f: X \to Y$ such that $a \le b \iff f(a) \le f(b)$. This bijection is called a similarity.

DEFINITION 49. Let S be a subset of a partially ordered set A, and let a be an element of A. If $s \le a$ for every s in S, then we call a an upper bound of S. If $a \le s$ for every s in S, then we call a a lower bound of S. If a is an upper bound of S and a lower bound of the set of upper bounds of S, then we call a a least upper bound of S.

DEFINITION 50. A well-order on A is a total order \leq on A such that every nonempty subset S of A has an element a which is a lower bound for S. The set A together with the relation \leq is then called well-ordered.

Proposition 51. If two well-ordered sets are similar, then the similarity is unique.

Theorem 52. If X and Y are well-ordered, then either X and Y are similar, or one is similar to an initial segment of the other.

DEFINITION 53. An ordinal number is a well-ordered set α such that for any $\xi \in \alpha$ we have $s(\xi) = \xi$.

Proposition 54. ω is an ordinal number.

PROPOSITION 55. If α is an ordinal number then so is α^+ , and so is any element of α .

Theorem 56. If two ordinal numbers are similar, then they are equal. Otherwise, one is an element of the other.

Proposition 57. If a set α can be well-ordered such that it is an ordinal, then the ordering is unique.

Proposition 58. Every well-ordered set is similar to a unique ordinal number.

Proposition 59. There is no set of all ordinal numbers.

THEOREM 60 (Zorn's Lemma). Suppose a partially ordered set P has the property that every chain in P has an upper bound in P. Then there is an element $a \in P$ such that the only upper bound for $\{a\}$ is a.

Theorem 61 (Well-Ordering Theorem). Every set has a well-ordering.

DEFINITION 62. Two sets A and B are said to have the same *cardinality* (written |A| = |B|) if there is a bijection $f: A \to B$.

A set A has cardinality at most the cardinality of B ($|A| \leq |B|$) if there is an injection $f: A \to B$.

A set A has cardinality less than the cardinality of B (|A| < |B|) if $|A| \le |B|$ and $|A| \ne |B|$.

THEOREM 63. If $|A| \leq |B|$ and $|B| \leq |A|$ then |A| = |B|.

THEOREM 64. For any set A, $|\mathcal{P}(A)| > |A|$.

DEFINITION 65. A cardinal number is an ordinal number α such that for any ordinal number β with $|\alpha| = |\beta|$ we have $\alpha \subseteq \beta$.

Proposition 66. For any set S, there is a unique cardinal number α with $|\alpha| = |S|$.

DEFINITION 67. For these sets S and α we define $|S| = \alpha$.

DEFINITION 68. A set A is said to be *finite* if $|A| \in \omega$, and *infinite* otherwise.

Proposition 69. A set is infinite if and only if it has the same cardinality as some proper subset.

Definition 70. An infinite set A is said to be *countable* if $|A| = \omega$, and *uncountable* otherwise.

Proposition 71. A countable set does not have any uncountable subsets. An uncountable set has a countable subset.

Number Systems

DEFINITION 72. A binary operation on A is a function $\cdot: A \times A \to A$. We usually write $\cdot(a,b) = c$ as $a \cdot b = c$.

It is associative if $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ for any a, b, c in A.

It is *commutative* if $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$ for any a, b in A.

DEFINITION 73. A monoid is an ordered pair (A, \cdot) of a set A and an associative binary operation \cdot on A such that there exists an element 1, called the *identity*, such that $a \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot a = a$ for all a.

Remark 74. There are two main notations for monoid-type structures. These are

- Multiplicative notation, in which the operation is notated $a \cdot b$ or simply ab, and the identity element is 1; and
- Additive notation, in which the operation is notated a+b and the identity element is 0.

DEFINITION 75. A group is a monoid (A, \cdot) such that for each element a of A there is an element b of A such that ab = 1 = ba.

A group is *abelian* if the operation is commutative.

Proposition 76. If ab = ba = 1 and ac = 1 or ca = 1 then b = c.

DEFINITION 77. The element b of A such that ab = ba = 1 is called the *inverse* of a. In multiplicative notation, the inverse of a is notated a^{-1} . In additive notation, the inverse of a is notated -a.

Remark 78. We often define $\frac{a}{b} = ab^{-1}$ in multiplicative notation, and a - b = a + (-b) in additive notation.

DEFINITION 79. A ring is an ordered triple $(A, +, \cdot)$ such that (A, +) is an abelian group, $(A \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$ is a monoid, and the distributive laws hold:

$$a \cdot (b+c) = ab + ac$$
 and $(a+b) \cdot c = ac + bc$.

It is *commutative* if \cdot is commutative.

It is ordered if there is a total order \leq on A satisfying

- if $a \leq b$ then $a + c \leq b + c$, and
- if $0 \le a$ and $0 \le b$ then $0 \le ab$.

DEFINITION 80. A *field* is a commutative ring $(A, +, \cdot)$ such that $(A \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$ is a group.

An *ordered field* is a field that is also an ordered ring.

DEFINITION 81. In an ordered ring R, the absolute value |a| of an element a of R is a if $0 \le a$, otherwise -a.

Proposition 82. $|a+b| \le |a| + |b|$.

DEFINITION 83. Let X and Y be similar well-ordered sets, and let A and B be the least elements of X and Y respectively. Assume that all other elements of X and Y are operations on A and B respectively, and let f be the similarity between A and B.

A function $\varphi:A\to B$ is said to be a homomorphism if for every $a,b\in A$ and every $ext{$\cdot\in X\setminus\{A\}$}$ we have

$$\varphi(a \cdot b) = \varphi(a) f(\cdot) \varphi(b).$$

An *isomorphism* is a bijective homorphism.

If there exists an isomorphism from A to B, then we say A and B are isomorphic.

Proposition 84. The property of being isomorphic is reflexive, symmetric and transitive.

Remark 85. We don't say that isomorphism is an equivalence relation, since it would imply there exists a set of all well-ordered sets of this type.

Such a set does not exist because if it did it would contain (S, Id_S) for each set S. Then we could use specification to extract the set containing exactly those elements, and Proposition 29 to extract a set of all sets.

THEOREM 86. There exists a unique ordered ring \mathbb{Z} (up to isomorphism) such that $\{x \in \mathbb{Z} : x \geq 0\}$ is well-ordered.

 \mathbb{Z} is commutative.

DEFINITION 87. The integers, \mathbb{Z} , are a well-ordered ring. The non-negative integers $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ are $\{n \in \mathbb{Z} : n \geq 0\}$. The positive integers \mathbb{Z}^+ are $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \setminus \{0\}$.

Remark 88. We avoid use of the term $natural\ numbers$, and the symbol \mathbb{N} , since some use them to mean the positive integers and others use them to mean the nonnegative integers.

Proposition 89. $\mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ is similar to ω .

REMARK 90. Thus, we may identify ω with $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$. In particular, the cardinality of a finite set is a nonnegative integer.

Proposition 91. Every ordered ring contains a unique subring isomorphic to \mathbb{Z} .

Definition 92. In $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}^+$, we define the operations

$$(a,b) + (c,d) = (ad + bc, bd),$$
 $(a,b)(c,d) = (ac,bd).$

We also define an equivalence relation \sim where $(a, b) \sim (c, d) \iff ad = bc$.

We define the rational numbers \mathbb{Q} as the partition of $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}^+$ induced by this equivalence relation, with [(a,b)]+[(c,d)]=[(ad+bc,ac+bd)] and $[(a,b)]\cdot[(c,d)]=[(ac,bd)]$.

Proposition 93. The relation \sim is an equivalence relation. Moreover, the operations + and \cdot are uniquely defined. With these operations, \mathbb{Q} is a field.

Proposition 94. Every ordered field contains a unique subfield isomorphic to \mathbb{Q} .

DEFINITION 95. A totally ordered set S is *complete* if every nonempty subset that has an upper bound in S has a least upper bound in S.

Theorem 96. There exists a unique complete ordered field, up to isomorphism.

Definition 97. We call this field \mathbb{R} .

Definition 98. We define $\mathbb{Q}_{\geq 0}$, \mathbb{Q}^+ , $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$, \mathbb{R}^+ in an analogous way to $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ and \mathbb{Z}^+ .

DEFINITION 99. We define the *complex numbers* \mathbb{C} as \mathbb{R}^2 , with the operations $(a,b)+(c,d)=(a+c,b+d), \qquad (a,b)\cdot(c,d)=(ac-bd,ad+bc).$

We usually write (a,b) as a+bi. We define the *conjugate* of a+bi to be $\overline{a+bi}=a-bi$.

PROPOSITION 100. \mathbb{C} is a field under these operations.

PROPOSITION 101. There are unique homomorphisms $\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Q}$, $\mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{R}$ and $\mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{C}$. There is also a homomorphism $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}$.

Remark 102. Because of this, we usually take $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$.

Proposition 103. Let $a \in \mathbb{C}$. Then, $a\overline{a} \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$.

Proposition 104. Let $b \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$. There exists a unique $x \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ such that $x \cdot x = b$.

Definition 105. We call x the square root of b, denoted \sqrt{b} .

We call $\sqrt{a\overline{a}}$ the modulus of a, denoted |a|.

Proposition 106. $|a+b| \le |a| + |b|$.

Theorem 107. $|\mathbb{Z}^+| = |\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}| = |\mathbb{Z}| = |\mathbb{Q}| = \omega$, but $|\mathbb{R}| = |\mathbb{C}| = |\mathcal{P}(\omega)|$.

Linear Algebra

DEFINITION 108. Let \mathbb{F} be a field. A vector space over \mathbb{F} is an abelian group V (of vectors) together with a function $\cdot : \mathbb{F} \times V \to V$ (scalar multiplication) such that

- $a(b\mathbf{v}) = (ab)\mathbf{v}$ (compatible),
- $1\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$ (identity), and
- $a(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = a\mathbf{u} + a\mathbf{v}$ and $(a + b)\mathbf{v} = a\mathbf{v} + b\mathbf{v}$ (distributive).

DEFINITION 109. Let S be a subset of V. A linear combination of elements of S is a vector of the form

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \mathbf{s}_i,$$

where each s_i is a distinct element of S.

DEFINITION 110. A subspace W of V is a nonempty subset of V which is also a vector space over \mathbb{F} .

Proposition 111. A subset W of V is a subspace iff the following conditions hold:

- W is nonempty;
- $u, v \in W$ implies $u + v \in W$ (closed under addition); and
- if $a \in \mathbb{F}$ and $u \in W$ then $au \in W$ (closed under scalar multiplication).

DEFINITION 112. The span of a subset S of V is the intersection of all linear subspaces of V that contain S.

Proposition 113. The span of S is the set of linear combinations of elements of S. It is also the smallest subspace of V that contains S.

DEFINITION 114. A subset S of V is linearly independent if any linear combination of elements of S that produces $\mathbf{0}$ has all coefficients equal to 0. Otherwise, it is linearly dependent.

Definition 115. A subset S of V is a basis if it is linearly independent and its span is V.

Theorem 116. Let V be a vector space.

- V has a basis.
- Any two bases of V have the same cardinality.

DEFINITION 117. The dimension of V is the cardinality of a basis of V. If dim V is an integer, V is said to be finite-dimensional; otherwise, it is infinite-dimensional.

Proposition 118. Let V be finite-dimensional with dimension d. Let S be a set of vectors in V with |S| = d. Then S is linearly independent iff it spans V.

DEFINITION 119. An inner product space is a vector space V over a field \mathbb{F} which is either \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} , together with a function $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \to \mathbb{F}$ satisfying

- $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \overline{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}$ (conjugate symmetry)
- $\langle a\mathbf{x} + b\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle = a\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \rangle + b\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle$ (linearity in the first argument), and
- $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0 \implies \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}.$

DEFINITION 120. A normed vector space is a vector space V over \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} on which there is a norm: a function $\|\cdot\|:V\to\mathbb{C}$ satisfying

- $\|\mathbf{x}\| \ge 0$,
- $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 0$ implies $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$,
- $||a\mathbf{x}|| = |a|||\mathbf{x}||$, and
- $\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\| \le \|\mathbf{x}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|$ (the triangle inequality).

Proposition 121. If V is an inner product space, then $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle$ is real for all \mathbf{x} . Moreover, $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}$ is a norm on V.

Definition 122. Two vectors \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are orthogonal if $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$.

A set of vectors is *orthonormal* if each vector in the set has norm 1 and is orthogonal to all other vectors in the set.

Proposition 123. Any finite-dimensional vector space has an orthonormal basis.

Metric Spaces

Definition 124. A metric space is a nonempty set M together with a function $d: M \times M \to \mathbb{R}$ such that

- $\bullet \ d(x,y) = 0 \iff x = y,$
- d(x,y) = d(y,x) (symmetry), $d(x,z) \le d(x,y) + d(y,z)$ (triangle inequality).

APPENDIX A

Proofs