- 1. **Ultrafilters, Ultrapowers,** $*\mathbb{R}$. A definition of an ultrafilter, and the proof that one exists on \mathbb{N} . The ultrapower construction of $*\mathbb{R}$, including the extension of any function or relation. The definition of internal sets and functions.
- 2. First-Order Logic & Transfer. A definition of our language on \mathbb{R} , including set symbols (sort of new). The proof of the alteration of Los' theorem (also sort of new).
- 3. Structure of *R. Introduction of basic terms such as infinitesimal, appreciable, and unbounded. Standard parts and infinite closeness. Density of the hyperrationals, archimedian property, things like that. Maybe saturation (intuitive explanation). Likely light on proofs, since I don't have any new work here.
- 4. **Differentiation**. One of the motivations of nonstandard analysis is its intuitiveness, and that is demonstrated here. Proof of the chain rule, because it's short. Maybe some thoughts on partial derivatives and the care you have to take there, restricting the derivative to the reals and re-extending it.
- 5. **Hyperfinite Sums**. A treatment of series, including the proof of the ratio test. exp as a hyperfinite sum, and the proof that it is its own derivative. Lots of new stuff, but I'm not sure if it's any good.
- 6. **Integration**. Integrals as hyperfinite sums. Maybe some of the technical worries about the ends of partitions worked out (which would be new), although that sounds a bit dull and like it would take more space than it really should.
- 7. **Topology**. Questionable inclusion. Maybe some proofs that the topologies Goldblatt defines are *actually* topologies, if possible.
- 1 Ultrafilters, Ultrapowers, ${}^*\mathbb{R}$
- 2 First Order Logic & Transfer
- 3 Structure of ${}^*\mathbb{R}$
- 4 Differentiation

4.1 Definition

One of the primary motivations for infinitesimal calculus is that it allows use to access the more intuitive, less roundabout conceptualizations of derivatives and integrals. Unlike integrals, which still take some work to define nonstandardly, the nonstandard derivative is almost exactly what we would first guess it to be.

Let Δx be a nonzero infinitesimal, and let $\Delta f(x, \Delta x) = f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)$. Intuitively, Δx is an infinitesimal change in x, and Δf is the corresponding change in f caused by "moving" Δx along the x-axis. Then we have:

$$f'(x) = \frac{\Delta f(x, \Delta x)}{\Delta x}$$

One small problem: we'd like f' to be a real-valued function on the reals. Luckily, we have a tool to do that:

$$f'(x) = \operatorname{st}\left(\frac{\Delta f(x, \Delta x)}{\Delta x}\right)$$

And we have our definition. Well, this might also not be well-defined: we get around that problem by definition. We only consider f'(x) to exist when st $\left(\frac{\Delta f(x,\Delta x)}{\Delta x}\right)$ is the same for any nonzero infinitesimal Δx . In this case, we say that f is differentiable at x. Note that this definition of differentiability and the derivative is equivalent to the standard definition: see Thm 8.1.1 in [1].

Definition. Given a function $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ and a real number x, we say that f is differentiable at x if there is some constant f'(x) such that, for any nonzero infinitesimal Δx ,

$$f'(x) = \operatorname{st}\left(\frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x}\right)$$

4.2 Simple Proofs Using Infinitesimals

A number of proofs of basic calculus results can be easily accomplished by infinitesimals. Perhaps most striking is the chain rule.

Theorem 4.1 (Chain Rule). Given differentiable functions $f, g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$,

$$(f \circ g)'(x) = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$$

Proof by Goldblatt. Let Δx be any nonzero infinitesimal, and let $\Delta g = g(x + \Delta x) - g(x)$. If $\Delta g = 0$, then $g(x + \Delta x) = g(x)$, so $(f \circ g)'(x) = \operatorname{st}\left(\frac{f(g(x + \Delta x)) - f(g(x))}{\Delta x}\right) = 0$ and clearly $g'(x) = \operatorname{st}\left(\Delta g/\Delta x\right) = 0$, so we are done. If $\Delta g \neq 0$, then since $g'(x) = \operatorname{st}\left(\Delta g/\Delta x\right)$ is defined, we conclude $\Delta g/\Delta x$ is bounded and (since Δx is infinitesimal) that Δg is infinitesimal. Thus

$$(f \circ g)'(x) = \operatorname{st}\left(\frac{f(g(x + \Delta x)) - f(g(x))}{\Delta x}\right)$$

$$= \operatorname{st}\left(\frac{f(g(x) + \Delta g) - f(g(x))}{\Delta g} \cdot \frac{\Delta g}{\Delta x}\right)$$

$$= \operatorname{st}\left(\frac{f(g(x) + \Delta g) - f(g(x))}{\Delta g}\right) \cdot \operatorname{st}\left(\frac{\Delta g}{\Delta x}\right)$$

$$= f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$$

4.3 Partial Derivatives

This section is all individual work without the guidance of any texts.

Definition. If $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, then we define

$$f_{x_k}(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) = \operatorname{st}\left(\frac{f(b_1, \dots, b_k + \Delta x, \dots, b_n) - f(b_1, \dots, b_k, \dots, b_n)}{\Delta x}\right)$$

for any infinitesimal Δx . This is only defined when it doesn't depend on our choice of Δx .

This gets complicated when we want to deal with repeated partial derivatives. Say $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to reals$, and denote the inputs of f by f(x,y). Then we might want to write

$$f_{yx}(a,b) = \operatorname{st}\left(\frac{f_y(a+\Delta x,b) - f_y(a,b)}{\Delta x}\right)$$
$$= \operatorname{st}\left(\frac{\operatorname{st}\left(\frac{f(a+\Delta x,b+\Delta y) - f(a+\Delta x,b)}{\Delta y}\right) - \operatorname{st}\left(\frac{f(a,b+\Delta y) - f(a,b)}{\Delta y}\right)}{\Delta x}\right)$$

which would allow us to easily get $f_{yx}(a,b) = f_{xy}(a,b)$. However, this isn't right. Firstly, the numerator is the difference of two real numbers, and so is real, which would mean $f_{yx}(a,b)$ is either 0 or undefined (as a real divided by an infinitesimal is either 0 or unbounded). The mistake here is that $f_y(a + \Delta x, b) \neq \operatorname{st}\left(\frac{f(a + \Delta x, b + \Delta y) - f(a + \Delta x)}{\Delta y}\right)$. Since in this case f_y is taking a nonreal input, we have to use the extension $f_y(a + \Delta x, b)$. If $f_y(a + \Delta x, b) = \left[\operatorname{st}\left(\frac{f(a + \Delta x_n, b + \Delta y) - f(a + \Delta x_n, b)}{\Delta y}\right)\right]$. This is the equivalence class of a sequence of real numbers, but it needn't be a real number itself.

Theorem 4.2. Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$. Let \hat{f}_{x_k} denote the standard definition of the partial derivative, namely

$$\hat{f}_{x_k}(b_1, \dots, b_n) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(b_1, \dots, b_k + h, \dots, b_n) - f(b_1, \dots, b_k, \dots, b_n)}{h}$$

Then $\hat{f}_{x_k}(b_1,\ldots,b_n)$ exists iff $f_{x_k}(b_1,\ldots,b_n)$ does, and if they both exist $\hat{f}_{x_k}(b_1,\ldots,b_n)=f_{x_k}(b_1,\ldots,b_n)$.

Proof. Let $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ be defined by $g(x) = f(b_1, \dots, b_{k-1}, x, b_{k+1}, \dots, b_n)$. Let $\hat{g}'(x)$ denote the standard derivative of g and g'(x) denote the nonstandard derivative of g. Clearly $\hat{g}'(x) = \hat{f}_{x_k}(x)$ and $g'(x) = f_{x_k}(x)$, and by Thm 8.1.1 in [1] we have $\hat{g}'(b_k)$ is defined iff $g'(b_k)$, and $\hat{g}'(b_k) = g'(b_k)$ if both exist, so we are done.

4.4 Series NOTE TO FUTURE SELF: TALK ABOUT CAUCHY CRITERION

The definitions in this section are thanks to Goldblatt, and most of the results are exercises. Let $a_n : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$. We can define $s_n : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$ by

$$s_n = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i$$

Now, for any unbounded $N \in {}^*\mathbb{N}$, we can define

$$\sum_{i=0}^{N} a_i = *s_N$$

Finally, if for any unbounded $N, M \in {}^*\mathbb{N}$ we have $\sum_{i=0}^N a_i \simeq \sum_{i=0}^M a_i$, then we say $\sum_{i=0}^\infty a_i$ converges and define

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i = \operatorname{st}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{N} a_i\right)$$

When n > m, we write $\sum_{i=m}^{n} a_i$ to mean $\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i - \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_i$. This gives the expected result when using finite naturals, but also extends to unbounded hypernaturals. Then $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i$ converges when $\sum_{i=M+1}^{N} a_i \simeq 0$ for any unbounded $N, M \in {}^*\mathbb{N}$ such that N > M.

Theorem 4.3 (Geometric Series). Let 0 < r < 1. Then

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} r^i = \frac{1}{1-r}$$

Proof (exercise 6.7 in [1]). By difference of powers, we know that $1 - r^{n+1} = (1 + r + r^2 + \dots + r^n)(1 - r)$. So, we conclude that $\sum_{i=0}^{n} r^i = \frac{1-r^{n+1}}{1-r}$. Hence, by transfer, for any unbounded $N \in {}^*\mathbb{N}$ we have $\sum_{i=0}^{N} r^i = \frac{1-r^{N+1}}{1-r}$. Consider r^N . If st $(r^N) > 0$, then as 0 < r < 1, we have $r^{N+1} = r \cdot r^N \simeq r \cdot \text{st}(r^N) < \text{st}(r^N)$. Hence, in

Consider r^N . If st $(r^N) > 0$, then as 0 < r < 1, we have $r^{N+1} = r \cdot r^N \simeq r \cdot \text{st}(r^N) < \text{st}(r^N)$. Hence, in ${}^*\mathbb{R}$, $(\exists M \in {}^*\mathbb{N})(r^M < \text{st}(r^N))$. By transfer, $(\exists m \in \mathbb{N})(r^m < \text{st}(r^N))$. But r^m is real, so $r^m < r^N$, even though 0 < r < 1 and m < N. This is a contradiction, so we find st $(r^N) \le 0$, and since 0 < r < 1 we conclude st $(r^N) = 0$. Hence,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} r^i = \operatorname{st}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{N} r^i\right) = \operatorname{st}\left(\frac{1 - r^{N+1}}{1 - r}\right) = \frac{1}{1 - r}$$

Theorem 4.4 (Absolute Convergence Implies Convergence). If $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} |a_i|$ converges, then $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i$ converges.

Proof. Take any two unbounded $N, M \in {}^*\mathbb{N}$, say N > M. In \mathbb{R} , the triangle inequality implies

$$(\forall n \in \mathbb{N})(\forall m \in \mathbb{N}) \left(n > m \to \left|\sum_{i=m+1}^{n} a_i\right| \le \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} |a_i|\right)$$

and so this is true in ${}^*\mathbb{R}$ too. So, we have

$$0 < \left| \sum_{i=M+1}^{N} a_i \right| \le \sum_{i=M+1}^{N} |a_i| \ge 0$$

since $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} |a_i|$ converges. This implies $\sum_{i=M+1}^{N} a_i \simeq 0$, so $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i$ converges.

Theorem 4.5 (Ratio Test). Let $a_i : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$ be a sequence. If for every unbounded $M \in {}^*\mathbb{N}$ we have $\left| \operatorname{st} \left(\frac{a_{M+1}}{a_M} \right) \right| = L$ for some L < 1, then $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i$ converges.

Proof (exercise 6.8 in [1]). Assume that $a_i \ge 0$ —if not, apply the theorem to $|a_i|$ and use 4.4. Now, take $r \in \mathbb{R}$ such that L < r < 1, so that $\left|\frac{a_{M+1}}{a_M}\right| < r < 1$ for any unbounded hypernatural M.

Take any unbounded $N \in {}^*\mathbb{N}$. For any $M \in {}^*\mathbb{N}$, if $N \leq M$, then M is also unbounded, and so $\frac{a_{M+1}}{a_M} < r$. So we have the sentence

$$(\exists k \in {}^*\mathbb{N})(\forall m \in {}^*\mathbb{N})\left(n \le m \to \frac{a_{m+1}}{a_m} < r\right)$$

If we transfer this to the reals, we find a $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for any $m \ge k$ we have $\frac{a_{m+1}}{a_m} < r$. We will show that for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $a_{k+n} \le r^n a_k$. As our base case, $a_k = r^0 a_k$. Next, if $a_{k+n} \le r^n a_k$, then since $k+n \ge k$ we know $\frac{a_{k+n+1}}{a_{k+n}} < r$ and so $a_{k+n+1} < r \cdot r^n a_k = r^{n+1} a_k$.

Now, in the reals, for any $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n \geq m$, we have

$$\sum_{i=k+m}^{k+n} a_i \leq \sum_{i=k+m}^{k+n} r^{i-k} a_k = \left(\sum_{i=m}^n r^i\right) a_k$$

Transferring this to the hyperreals, if we have two unbounded $N, M \in {}^*\mathbb{N}$ with N > M, we get

$$\sum_{i=M+1}^{N} a_i = \sum_{i=k+(M+1-k)}^{k+(N-k)} a_i \le \left(\sum_{i=M+1-k}^{N-k} r^i\right) a_k$$

Note that M=1-k and N-k are both unboudned hyperreals, and so $\sum_{i=M+1-k}^{N-k} r^i$ is infinitesimal by 4.3 (as $\sum_{i=0}^{N-k} r^i \simeq \sum_{i=0}^{M+1-k} \simeq \frac{1}{1-r}$). Since a_k is appreciable, this means the product is infinitesimal, hence $\sum_{i=0}^{N} a_i$ is infinitesimal, hence $\sum_{i=0}^{N} a_i$ converges.

4.5 The exp function

This entire section is individual work without the guidance of any texts. We define the exponential function

$$\exp(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^i}{i!}$$

For convenience, we will write $e_k(x) = \sum_{i=0}^k \frac{x^i}{i!}$, and we will write $\operatorname{inx}(x)$ to denote the internal function $[e_k](x)$. Note that if let N denote the unbounded hyperreal N = [n], we have

$$\operatorname{st}(\operatorname{inx}(x)) = \operatorname{st}([e_k](x)) = \operatorname{st}([e_k(x)]) = \operatorname{st}\left(\left[\sum_{i=0}^k \frac{x^i}{i!}\right]\right) = \operatorname{st}\left(\sum_{i=0}^N \frac{x^i}{i!}\right) = \exp(x)$$

Theorem 4.6. For any real x, $\exp(x)$ exists.

Proof. We use the ratio test (4.5) to prove that $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^i}{i!}$ converges. Let M be an unbounded hypernatural. Then

$$\frac{x^{M+1}}{(M+1)!} \ / \ \frac{x^M}{M!} = \frac{x^{M+1}M!}{x^M(M+1)!} = \frac{x}{M+1}$$

Since x is real and M+1 is unbounded, $\frac{x}{M+1}$ is infinitesimal, and hence has standard part 0. Since 0 < 1, and since this holds for any unbounded hypernnatural, the conditions of 4.5 are met and we are done.

We now want to prove that $\exp'(x) = \exp(x)$. This will involve the following lemma.

Lemma 4.7. Let $R_k = e(x+d,k) - e(x,k) - d \cdot e(x,k-1)$ for some $x,d \in \mathbb{R}$ with |d| < 1 and $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Then

$$|R_k| < \frac{|d|^2}{1 - |d|} \cdot \exp(|x|)$$

Proof. First, we will find a more explicit formula for R_k . We have

$$e(x+d,k) = 1 + x + d + \frac{x^2 + 2xd + d^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{x^k + kx^{k-1}d + \dots + d^k}{k!}$$

and so

$$\begin{split} e(x+d,k) - e(x,k) &= d + \frac{2xd+d^2}{2!} + \frac{3x^2d+3xd^2+d^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{kx^{k-1}d+\dots+d^k}{k!} \\ &= d\left(1 + \frac{2x}{2!} + \frac{3x^2}{3!} + \dots + \frac{kx^{k-1}}{k!}\right) + \frac{d^2}{2!} + \frac{3xd^2+d^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{\binom{k}{2}x^{k-2}d^2+\dots+d^k}{k!} \\ &= d \cdot e(x,k-1) + \frac{d^2}{2!} + \frac{3xd^2+d^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{\binom{k}{2}x^{k-2}d^2+\dots+d^k}{k!} \end{split}$$

So we find that

$$R_k = \frac{d^2}{2!} + \frac{3xd^2 + d^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{\binom{k}{2}x^{k-2}d^2 + \dots + d^k}{k!} = \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{q=0}^{i-2} \binom{i}{q} \frac{x^q d^{(i-q)}}{i!}$$

Using the fact that $\binom{i}{q} = \frac{i!}{q!(i-q!)}$, we have

$$R_k = \sum_{i=2}^k \sum_{q=0}^{i-2} \binom{i}{q} \frac{x^q d^{(i-q)}}{i!}$$

$$= \sum_{i=2}^k \sum_{q=0}^{i-2} \frac{x^q d^{(i-q)}}{(i-q)! q!}$$

$$= \sum_{q=0}^{k-2} \sum_{i=q+2}^k \frac{x^q d^{(i-q)}}{(i-q)! q!}$$

So

$$|R_k| = \sum_{q=0}^{k-2} \sum_{i=q+2}^k \frac{|x|^q \cdot |d|^{(i-q)}}{(i-q)!q!}$$

Now, $i-q \ge 2$ in every term, and so $(i-q)! \ge 2! \ge 1$ and so $\frac{|x|^q \cdot |d|^{(i-q)}}{(i-q)!q!} \le \frac{|x|^q \cdot |d|^{(i-q)}}{q!}$. Combining this move with a change of index, setting p=i-q, we get

$$|R_k| \le \sum_{q=0}^{k-2} \sum_{i=q+2}^k \frac{|x|^q \cdot |d|^{(i-q)}}{q!} = \sum_{q=0}^{k-2} \sum_{p=2}^{k-q} \frac{|x|^q \cdot |d|^p}{q!} = \sum_{q=0}^{k-2} \left(\frac{|x|^q}{q!} \cdot \sum_{p=2}^{k-q} |d|^p \right)$$

Since |d| < 1, 4.3 tells us that for any unbounded hypernatural N, $\sum_{p=0}^{N} |d|^p \simeq \frac{1}{1-|d|}$. Since each term of $|d|^p$ is positive, we have

$$\sum_{p=2}^{k-q} |d|^p = \sum_{p=0}^{k-q} |d|^p - \sum_{p=0}^1 |d|^p \le \frac{1}{1-|d|} - (1+|d|) = \frac{1-1(1-|d|)-|d|(1-|d|)}{1-|d|} = \frac{1-1+|d|-|d|+|d|^2}{1-|d|} = \frac{|d|^2}{1-|d|}$$

Then

$$|R_k| \le \sum_{q=0}^{k-2} \left(\frac{|x|^q}{q!} \cdot \frac{|d|^2}{1 - |d|} \right) = \frac{|d|^2}{1 - |d|} \cdot \sum_{q=0}^{k-2} \frac{|x|^q}{q!} \le \frac{|d|^2}{1 - |d|} \cdot \exp(|x|)$$

Theorem 4.8. For any real x, $\exp'(x) = \exp(x)$.

Proof. By 4.7, we have that for any $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $x, d \in \mathbb{R}$ with |d| < 1, we have

$$|e(x+d,k) - e(x,k) - d \cdot e(x,k-1)| \le \frac{|d|^2}{1-|d|} \cdot \exp(|x|)$$

and so

$$(\forall k \in \mathbb{N}) \left(\left| \frac{e(x+d,k) - e(x,k)}{d} - e(x,k-1) \right| \le \frac{|d|}{1 - |d|} \cdot \exp(|x|) \right)$$

We then transfer this statement to ${}^*\mathbb{R}$, pick an unbounded $N \in {}^*\mathbb{N}$ to plug in for k, and we get

$$\left|\frac{e(x+d,N)-e(x,N)}{d}-e(x,N-1)\right| \leq \frac{|d|}{1-|d|} \cdot \exp(|x|)$$

Taking the standard part of both sides (which does nothing to the right side since it's real), we get

$$\operatorname{st}\left(\left|\frac{e(x+d,N)-e(x,N)}{d}-e(x,N-1)\right|\right) = \left|\frac{\operatorname{st}\left(e(x+d,N)\right)-\operatorname{st}\left(e(x,N)\right)}{d}-\operatorname{st}\left(e(x,N-1)\right)\right|$$
$$= \left|\frac{\exp(x+d)-\exp(x)}{d}-\exp(x)\right| \le \frac{|d|}{1-|d|} \cdot \exp(|x|)$$

So we know the following sentence is true in \mathbb{R}

$$(\forall d \in \mathbb{R}) \left(\left(|d| < 1 \land d \neq 0 \right) \to \left| \frac{\exp(x+d) - \exp(x)}{d} - \exp(x) \right| \le \frac{|d|}{1 - |d|} \cdot \exp(|x|) \right)$$

Now, transfer this to the hyperreals and plug in any nonzero infinitesimal δ in place of d. Now we know

$$\left| \frac{\exp(x+\delta) - \exp(x)}{\delta} - \exp(x) \right| \le \frac{|\delta|}{1 - |\delta|} \cdot \exp(|x|)$$

The right side of this is infinitesimal, since $|\delta|$ is infinitesimal while $1 - |\delta|$ and $\exp(|x|)$ are appreciable (the latter by 4.6). Hence $\left|\frac{\exp(x+\delta)-\exp(x)}{\delta} - \exp(x)\right|$ is infinitesimal. Hence $\frac{\exp(x+\delta)-\exp(x)}{\delta} \simeq \exp(x)$. Since $\exp(x)$ is real, this implies

$$\operatorname{st}\left(\frac{\exp(x+\delta) - \exp(x)}{\delta}\right) = \exp'(x) = \exp(x)$$

5 Integration

5.1 Hyperfinite Sets

Definition. An internal set $A = [A_n]$ is hyperfinite if every A_n is finite.

The hyperfinite sets are "internally finite." They share a lot of properties with finite sets.

Theorem 5.1. If $\varphi(A)$ holds for every finite $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, then $\varphi(X)$ holds for every hyperfinite $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. Say
$$X = [A_n]$$
, with each A_n finite. Then $[[\varphi(A_n)]] = \mathbb{N}$, and so by transfer $\varphi(X)$.

This lets us easily get a lot of nice properties about hyperfinite sets. For instance, $(\exists x \in A)(\forall y \in A)(x \geq y)$ ensures that every hyperfinite set has a maximum element.

5.2 Hyperfinite Sums

For any finite set A_n and function $f_n : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, we can easily define the sum $\sum_{x \in A_n} f(x)$. This is, after all, just a sum of a finite collection of numbers. Using this, however, we can easily extend our summation to hyperfinite sets:

Definition. If $A = [A_n]$ is a hyperfinite set, and $f = [f_n]$ is an internal function, we define the hyperfinite sum

$$\sum_{x \in [A_n]} f(x) = \left[\sum_{x \in A_n} f_n(x) \right]$$

We'll see this general form used later for integration, but for now we will focus on the type of hyperfinite sums that corresponds to series in standard calculus. Fist, some notation. Let $\{0...n\}$ denote $\{0,1,2,...,n\}$ for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then, let $\mathbb{N} = [\langle 0,1,2,... \rangle]$, and let $\{0...\mathbb{N}\}$ denote $[\{0...n\}]$.

For a sequence $a_i : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$, we have $\sum_{i \in \{0...n\}} a_i = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i$. So we denote $\sum_{i \in \{0...N\}} a_i = \sum_{i=0}^N a_i = [\sum_{i=0}^n a_i]$.

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- [2] James M. Henle and Eugene M. Kleinberg. *Infinitesimal Calculus*. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press, 1979. 135 pp. ISBN: 978-0-262-08097-2.