Encyclopaedia of Mathematics and Physics

Robin Adams

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## Set Theory

**Proposition 1.1.** Every infinite subset of a countably infinite set is countable.

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Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: i: A \hookrightarrow \mathbb{N} be an infinite subset of \mathbb{N}.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Define j : \mathbb{N} \to A by: j(k) is the element such that i(j(k)) is least such
        that i(j(k)) \notin \{i(j(0)), \dots, i(j(k-1))\}.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. j is a bijection.
Proposition 1.2. A countable union of countable sets is countable.
```

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: (A_n) be a sequence of countable sets.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. For n \in \mathbb{N}, PICK an enumeration (e_{nm})_m of A_n.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: (p_k) be the following enumeration of \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}:
```

 $(0,0),(1,0),(0,1),(2,0),(1,1),(0,2),\ldots$  $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $(e_{\pi_1(p_k)\pi_2(p_k)})_k$  is an enumeration of  $\bigcup_n A_n$ .

### Theorem 1.3. $2^{\mathbb{N}}$ is uncountable.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $f : \mathbb{N} \approx 2^{\mathbb{N}}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $S = \{ n \in \mathbb{N} : n \notin f(n) \}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For all n, we have  $n \in S \Leftrightarrow n \notin f(n)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For all n we have  $S \neq f(n)$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts  $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .

## Relations

**Definition 2.1** (Antisymmetric). A relation R on a set A is antisymmetric iff, whenever xRy and yRx, then x = y.

**Definition 2.2** (Transitive). A relation R on a type A is *transitive* iff, whenever xRy and yRz, then xRz.

## Order Theory

**Definition 3.1** (Linear Order). A *linear order* on a set A is a binary relation  $\leq$  on A that is transitive, antisymmetric and:

$$\forall x, y \in A.x \le y \lor y \le x$$
.

A linearly ordered set is a pair  $(A, \leq)$  where A is a set and  $\leq$  is a binary relation on A.

We write x < y for  $x \le y$  and  $x \ne y$ .

**Definition 3.2** (Upper Bound). Let S be a linearly ordered set,  $u \in S$  and  $E \subseteq S$ . Then u is an *upper bound* in E iff  $\forall x \in E.x \leq u$ . We say E is *bounded above* iff it has an upper bound.

The *up-set* of E, denoted  $E \uparrow$ , is the set of upper bounds of E.

**Definition 3.3** (Lower Bound). Let S be a linearly ordered set,  $l \in S$  and  $E \subseteq S$ . Then u is an *lower bound* in E iff  $\forall x \in E.l \leq x$ . We say E is *bounded below* iff it has a lower bound.

The down-set of E, denoted  $E \downarrow$ , is the set of lower bounds of E.

**Definition 3.4** (Supremum). Let S be a linearly ordered set,  $u \in S$  and  $E \subseteq S$ . Then u is the *least upper bound* or *supremum* of E iff u is an upper bound for E and, for any upper bound u' for E, we have  $u \le u'$ .

**Definition 3.5** (Infimum). Let S be a linearly ordered set,  $l \in S$  and  $E \subseteq S$ . Then l is the *greatest lower bound* or *infimum* of E iff l is a lower bound for E and, for any lower bound l' for E, we have  $l' \leq l$ .

**Definition 3.6** (Least Upper Bound Property). A linearly ordered set S has the *least upper bound property* iff every nonempty subset of S that is bounded above has a least upper bound.

**Proposition 3.7.** Let S be a linearly ordered set and  $E \subseteq S$ .

1. If  $E \downarrow has$  a supremum l, then l is the infimum of E.

2. If  $E \uparrow has$  an infimum u, then U is the supremum of E.

PROOF

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If  $E \downarrow$  has a supremum l, then l is the infimum of E.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . l is a lower bound for E.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in E$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . x is an upper bound for  $E \downarrow$ .

PROOF: For all  $y \in E \downarrow$  we have  $y \leq x$ .

- $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ l \leq x$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For any lower bound l' for E, we have  $l' \leq l$ .

PROOF: Since l is an upper bound for  $E \downarrow$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. If  $E \uparrow$  has an infimum u, then u is the supremum of E. PROOF: Dual.

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**Corollary 3.7.1.** A linearly ordered set has the least upper bound property if and only if every nonempty set bounded below has an infimum.

**Definition 3.8** (Closed Downwards). Let S be a linearly ordered set and  $E \subseteq S$ . Then E is closed downwards iff, whenever  $x \in E$  and y < x, then  $y \in E$ .

**Definition 3.9** (Closed Upwards). Let S be a linearly ordered set and  $E \subseteq S$ . Then E is *closed upwards* iff, whenever  $x \in E$  and x < y, then  $y \in E$ .

**Definition 3.10** (Greatest). Let S be a linearly ordered set and  $u \in S$ . Then u is greatest in S iff  $\forall x \in S.x \leq u$ .

**Definition 3.11** (Least). Let S be a linearly ordered set and  $l \in S$ . Then l is least in S iff  $\forall x \in S.l \leq x$ .

**Proposition 3.12.** Let  $\leq$  be a linear order on a set S and  $E \subseteq S$ . Then  $\leq \cap E^2$  is a linear order on E.

Proof: Easy.  $\sqcup$ 

Given a linearly ordered set  $(S, \leq)$  and  $E \subseteq S$ , we write just E for the linearly ordered set  $(E, \leq \cap E^2)$ .

**Definition 3.13** (Lexicographic Order). Let A and B be linearly ordered sets. The *lexicographic order* or *dictionary order* on  $A \times B$  is the order defined by

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

Proposition 3.14. The lexicographic order is a linear order.

## Field Theory

**Definition 4.1** (Field). A *field* F consists of a set F, two operations  $+, \cdot : F^2 \to F$  and an element  $0 \in F$  such that:

- $\bullet$  + is commutative.
- $\bullet$  + is associative.
- $\bullet \ \forall x \in F.x + 0 = x$
- $\forall x \in F. \exists y \in F. x + y = 0$
- $\bullet$  · is commutative.
- $\bullet$  · is associative.
- There exists  $1 \in F$  such that  $1 \neq 0$  and  $\forall x \in F.x1 = x$  and  $\forall x \in F.x \neq 0 \Rightarrow \exists y \in F.xy = 1$
- Distributive Law  $\forall x, y, z \in F.x(y+z) = xy + xz$

**Proposition 4.2.** In any field F, the element 0 is the unique element such that  $\forall x \in F.x + 0 = x$ .

PROOF: If 0 and 0' both have this property then 0 = 0 + 0' = 0'.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 4.3.** In any field F, given  $x \in F$ , there is a unique  $y \in F$  such that x + y = 0.

PROOF: If 
$$x + y = x + y' = 0$$
 then 
$$y = y + 0$$
$$= y + x + y'$$
$$= 0 + y'$$
$$= y'$$

**Definition 4.4.** Let F be a field. Let  $x \in F$ . We denote by -x the unique element of F such that x + (-x) = 0.

Given  $x, y \in F$ , we write x - y for x + (-y).

**Proposition 4.5.** In any field F, if x + y = x + z then y = z.

PROOF: If x+y=x+z we have -x+x+y=-x+x+z  $\therefore 0+y=0+z$   $\therefore y=z$ 

**Proposition 4.6.** In any field F, we have -(-x) = x.

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

**Proposition 4.7.** In any field F, the element 1 such that  $\forall x \in F.x1 = x$  is unique.

PROOF: If 1 and 1' both have this property then  $1 = 1 \cdot 1' = 1'$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 4.8.** In any field F, given  $x \in F$  with  $x \neq 0$ , the element y such that xy = 1 is unique.

PROOF: If y and y' both have this property then we have

$$y = y1$$

$$= yxy'$$

$$= 1y'$$

$$= y'$$

**Definition 4.9.** In any field F, if  $x \neq 0$ , we write  $x^{-1}$  for the unique element such that  $xx^{-1} = 1$ .

We write x/y for  $xy^{-1}$ .

**Proposition 4.10.** In any field F, if xy = xz and  $x \neq 0$  then y = z.

Proof:

$$y = 1y$$

$$= x^{-1}xy$$

$$= x^{-1}xz$$

$$= 1z$$

$$= z$$

**Proposition 4.11.** In any field F, if  $x \neq 0$  then  $x^{-1} \neq 0$  and  $(x^{-1})^{-1} = x$ .

PROOF: Since  $xx^{-1} = 1$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 4.12.** In any field F, we have x0 = 0.

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Proof:

$$x0 + 0 = x0$$

$$= x(0 + 0)$$

$$= x0 + x0$$

$$\therefore 0 = x0$$

**Proposition 4.13.** In any field F, if xy = 0 then x = 0 or y = 0.

PROOF: If xy = 0 and  $x \neq 0$  then we have  $y = x^{-1}xy = x^{-1}0 = 0$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 4.14.** In any field F, we have (-x)y = -(xy).

Proof:

$$xy + (-x)y = (x + (-x))y$$

$$= 0y$$

$$= 0 (Proposition 4.12) \square$$

Corollary 4.14.1. In any field F, we have (-x)(-y) = xy.

Proof:

$$(-x)(-y) = -(x(-y))$$

$$= -(-(xy))$$

$$= xy (Proposition 4.6) \Box$$

**Proposition 4.15.** Let K be a field. Let  $a, b \in K$ . If  $a^2 = b^2$  then a = b or a = -b.

Proof:

$$a^2 - b^2 = 0$$
$$\therefore (a - b)(a + b) = 0$$

Hence either a - b = 0 or a + b = 0, and the conclusion follows.  $\square$ 

### 4.1 Ordered Fields

**Definition 4.16** (Ordered Field). An ordered field F consists of a field F and a linear order  $\leq$  on F such that:

- For all  $x, y, z \in F$ , if y < z then x + y < x + z
- For all  $x, y \in F$ , if x > 0 and y > 0 then xy > 0.

We call x positive iff x > 0 and negative iff x < 0.

**Example 4.17.**  $\mathbb{Q}$  is an ordered field.

**Proposition 4.18.** In any ordered field, if x is positive then -x is negative.

PROOF: If 
$$x > 0$$
 then  $0 = x + (-x) > 0 = (-x) = -x$ .  $\Box$ 

**Proposition 4.19.** In any ordered field, if y < z and x is positive then xy < xz.

PROOF: If y < z then we have

$$0 < z - y$$

$$0 < x(z - y)$$

$$= xz - xy$$

$$xy < xz$$

**Proposition 4.20.** In any ordered field, if y < z and x is negative then xy > xz.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . -x is positive.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . (-x)y < (-x)z
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. -(xy) < -(xz)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . xz < xy

**Proposition 4.21.** In any ordered field, if  $x \neq 0$  then  $x^2 > 0$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If x > 0 then  $x^2 > 0$ .

PROOF: Proposition 4.19.

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

Proof: Proposition 4.20.

Corollary 4.21.1. In any ordered field, we have 1 > 0.

**Proposition 4.22.** In any ordered field, if x is positive then  $x^{-1}$  is positive.

PROOF: If  $x^{-1} < 0$  then we would have  $1 = xx^{-1} < x0 = 0$  contradicting Corollary 4.21.1.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 4.23.** In any ordered field, if 0 < x < y then  $y^{-1} < x^{-1}$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: 0 < x < y
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $x^{-1}$  and  $y^{-1}$  are positive.

Proof: Proposition 4.22.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ xy^{-1} < yy^{-1} = 1$  $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ y^{-1} = x^{-1}xy^{-1} < x^{-1}1 = x^{-1}$

**Lemma 4.24.** Let K be an ordered field. Let  $b \in K$  with b > 1. Let n be a positive integer. Then

$$b^n - 1 \ge n(b - 1)$$

Proof:

$$b^{n} - 1 = (b-1)(b^{n-1} + b^{n-2} + \dots + 1)$$

$$\geq (b-1)(1+1+\dots+1)$$

$$= n(b-1)$$

## Real Analysis

### 5.1 Construction of the Real Numbers

**Definition 5.1** (Cut). A *cut* is a subset  $\alpha$  of  $\mathbb{Q}$  such that:

- $\emptyset \neq \alpha \neq \mathbb{Q}$
- $\alpha$  is closed downwards.
- $\alpha$  has no greatest element.

In this section, we write R for the set of all cuts.

**Proposition 5.2.** R is linearly ordered by  $\subseteq$ .

```
PROOF: The only difficult part is to prove that, for any cuts \alpha and \beta, either \alpha \subseteq \beta or \beta \subseteq \alpha. 
(1)1. Assume: \alpha \nsubseteq \beta Prove: \beta \subseteq \alpha
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK  $q \in \alpha$  such that  $q \notin \beta$   $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $r \in \beta$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ q \not< r$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ r < q$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ r \in \alpha$ 

**Proposition 5.3.** R has the least upper bound property.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $E \subseteq R$  be nonempty and bounded above.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $s = \bigcup E$ 

Prove: s is a cut.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \emptyset \neq s$ 

PROOF: Since E is nonempty and every element of E is nonempty.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ s \neq \mathbb{Q}$ 

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . PICK an upper bound u for E.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $q \notin u$ Prove:  $q \notin s$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \forall \alpha \in E.\alpha \subseteq u$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ s \subseteq u$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ q \notin s$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . s is closed downwards.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $q \in s$  and r < q.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $\alpha \in E$  such that  $q \in \alpha$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ r \in \alpha$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ r \in s$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . s has no greatest element.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $q \in s$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . PICK  $\alpha \in E$  such that  $q \in \alpha$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $r \in \alpha$  such that q < r.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ r \in s$

**Definition 5.4** (Addition). Given cuts  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , we define

$$\alpha + \beta = \{q + r : q \in \alpha, r \in \beta\} .$$

**Proposition 5.5.** Given cuts  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , we have  $\alpha + \beta$  is a cut.

### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $\alpha + \beta$  is nonempty.

PROOF: Since  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are nonempty.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \alpha + \beta \neq \mathbb{Q}$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Pick  $q \in \mathbb{Q} \alpha$  and  $r \in \mathbb{Q} \beta$ . Prove:  $q + r \notin \alpha + \beta$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $q + r \in \alpha + \beta$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $x \in \alpha$  and  $y \in \beta$  such that q + r = x + y
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . x < q
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . y < r
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . x + y < q + r
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This is a contradiction.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\alpha + \beta$  is closed downwards.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $q \in \alpha$ ,  $r \in \beta$  and x < q + r
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . x q < r
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ x q \in \beta$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \in \alpha + \beta$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $\alpha + \beta$  has no greatest element.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $q \in \alpha$  and  $r \in \beta$ .

PROVE: q + r is not greatest in  $\alpha + \beta$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $q' \in \alpha$  with q < q' and  $r' \in \beta$  with r < r'.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ q + r < q' + r' \in \alpha + \beta$

**Proposition 5.6.** Addition is commutative and associative on R.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions and the fact that addition is commutative and associative on  $\mathbb{Q}$ .  $\square$ 

**Definition 5.7.** For any  $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ , let  $q^* = \{r \in \mathbb{Q} : r < q\}$ .

**Proposition 5.8.** For any  $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ , we have  $q^*$  is a cut.

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ q^* \neq \emptyset
   PROOF: Since q - 1 \in q^*.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ q^* \neq \mathbb{Q}
   PROOF: Since q \notin q^*.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. q^* is closed downwards.
   PROOF: Immediate from definition.
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $q^*$  has no greatest element.

PROOF: For all  $r \in q^*$  we have  $r < (q+r)/2 \in q^*$ .

**Proposition 5.9.** For any cut  $\alpha$  we have  $\alpha + 0^* = \alpha$ .

### Proof:

$$\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \alpha + 0^* \subseteq \alpha \\ \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \text{Let:} \ q \in \alpha \ \text{and} \ r \in 0^* \\ \text{Prove:} \ q + r \in \alpha \\ \langle 2 \rangle 2. \ r < 0 \\ \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ q + r < q \\ \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ q + r \in \alpha \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \alpha \subseteq \alpha + 0^* \\ \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \text{Let:} \ q \in \alpha \\ \langle 2 \rangle 2. \ \text{Pick} \ r \in \alpha \ \text{such that} \ q < r \\ \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ q = r + (q - r) \in \alpha + 0^* \end{array}$$

**Proposition 5.10.** For any cut  $\alpha$ , there exists a cut  $\beta$  such that  $\alpha + \beta = 0$ .

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: \beta = \{ p \in \mathbb{Q} : \exists r > 0. - p - r \notin \alpha \}
\langle 1 \rangle 2. \beta is a cut.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \beta \neq \emptyset
         \langle 3 \rangle 1. Pick q \notin \alpha
         \langle 3 \rangle 2. -q - 1 \in \beta
     \langle 2 \rangle 2. \ \beta \neq \mathbb{Q}
         \langle 3 \rangle 1. Pick q \in \alpha
                      Prove: -q \notin \beta
         \langle 3 \rangle 2. Assume: for a contradiction -q \in \beta
```

```
\langle 3 \rangle 3. Pick r > 0 such that q - r \notin \alpha
         \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ q - r < q
         \langle 3 \rangle 5. Q.E.D.
            PROOF: This contradicts the fact that \alpha is closed downwards.
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. \beta is closed downwards.
         \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: p \in \beta and q < p.
         \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick r > 0 such that -p - r \notin \alpha
         \langle 3 \rangle 3. -p-r < -q-r
         \langle 3 \rangle 4. -q - r \notin \alpha
         \langle 3 \rangle 5. \ q \in \beta
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. \beta has no greatest element.
         \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: p \in \beta
         \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick r > 0 such that -p - r \notin \alpha
         \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ -(p+r/2) - r/2 \notin \alpha
         \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ p + r/2 \in \beta
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \alpha + \beta \subseteq 0^*
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: p \in \alpha and q \in \beta.
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Pick r > 0 such that -q - r \notin \alpha.
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. p < -q - r
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. p+q < -r
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. p+q < 0
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ p+q \in 0^*
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ 0^* \subseteq \alpha + \beta
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: v \in 0^*
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: w = -v/2
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ w > 0
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. PICK an integer n such that nw \in \alpha and (n+1)w \notin \alpha.
    \langle 2 \rangle5. Let: p = -(n+2)w
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ p \in \beta
    \langle 2 \rangle 7. \ v = nw + p
    \langle 2 \rangle 8. \ v \in \alpha + \beta
```

**Proposition 5.11.** Given  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in R$ , if  $\beta < \gamma$ , then  $\alpha + \beta < \alpha + \gamma$ .

```
PROOF:  \begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \alpha + \beta \subseteq \alpha + \gamma \\ \text{PROOF: Immediate from definitions.} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \alpha + \beta \neq \alpha + \gamma \\ \text{PROOF: If } \alpha + \beta = \alpha + \gamma \text{ then } \beta = \gamma \text{ by cancellation.} \\ \end{array}
```

**Definition 5.12.** Given cuts  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , define  $\alpha\beta$  by:

$$\alpha\beta = \begin{cases} \{p \in \mathbb{Q} : \exists r \in \alpha. \exists s \in \beta (p \le rs \land r > 0 \land s > 0\} & \text{if } \alpha > 0^* \text{ and } \beta > 0^* \\ (-\alpha)(-\beta) & \text{if } \alpha < 0^* \text{ and } \beta < 0^* \\ -((-\alpha)\beta) & \text{if } \alpha < 0^* \text{ and } \beta < 0^* \\ -(\alpha(-\beta)) & \text{if } \alpha > 0^* \text{ and } \beta < 0^* \\ 0^* & \text{if } \alpha > 0^* \text{ and } \beta < 0^* \end{cases}$$

**Proposition 5.13.** For any cuts  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , we have  $\alpha\beta$  is a cut.

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. If \alpha > 0^* and \beta > 0^* then \alpha \beta is a cut.
```

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \alpha \beta \neq \emptyset$ 
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Pick  $q \in \alpha$  and  $r \in \beta$  such that  $q, r \notin 0^*$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Assume: w.l.o.g. 0 < q and 0 < r.

PROOF: Since  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  have no greatest element.

- $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ qr \in \alpha \beta$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $\alpha \beta \neq \mathbb{Q}$ 
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . PICK  $r \notin \alpha$  and  $s \notin \beta$ PROVE:  $rs \notin \alpha \beta$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $rs \in \alpha \beta$ .
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $r' \in \alpha$  and  $s' \in \beta$  such that  $rs \leq r's'$  and r' > 0 and s' > 0.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . r' < r and s' < s
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ . r's' < rs
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 6$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This is a contradiction.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $\alpha \beta$  is closed downwards.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $p \in \alpha \beta$  and p' < p
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $r \in \alpha$  and  $s \in \beta$  such that  $p \leq rs$ , r > 0 and s > 0
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ p' \leq rs$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ p' \in \alpha \beta$

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- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $\alpha \beta$  has no greatest element.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $p \in \alpha \beta$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $r \in \alpha$  and  $s \in \beta$  such that  $p \leq rs$ , r > 0 and s > 0.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $r' \in \alpha$  and  $s' \in \beta$  with r < r' and s < s'.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ p < r's' \in \alpha \beta$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For any cuts  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , we have  $\alpha \beta$  is a cut.

PROOF: Since if  $\alpha$  is a cut then  $-\alpha$  is a cut.

**Proposition 5.14.** For any cuts  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  we have  $\alpha\beta = \beta\alpha$ .

PROOF: Easy from the definitions.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 5.15.** For any cuts  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  we have

$$\alpha(\beta\gamma) = (\alpha\beta)\gamma$$
.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Case:  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  are all positive.

PROOF: In this case  $\alpha(\beta\gamma) = (\alpha\beta)\gamma = \{p \in \mathbb{Q} : \exists r \in \alpha. \exists s \in \beta. \exists t \in \gamma. (p \leq rst \land r > 0 \land s > 0 \land t > 0)\}.$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Case: One of  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  or  $\gamma$  is  $0^*$ .

PROOF: Then  $\alpha(\beta\gamma) = (\alpha\beta)\gamma = 0^*$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3.$  Case:  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are positive,  $\gamma$  is negative. Proof:

$$\alpha(\beta\gamma) = \alpha(-(\beta(-\gamma)))$$

$$= -(\alpha(\beta(-\gamma)))$$

$$= -((\alpha\beta)(-\gamma))$$

$$= (\alpha\beta)\gamma$$
(\langle 1\rangle 1)

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4.$  Case:  $\alpha$  is positive,  $\beta$  is negative,  $\gamma$  is positive. Proof:

$$\alpha(\beta\gamma) = \alpha(-((-\beta)\gamma))$$

$$= -(\alpha((-\beta)\gamma))$$

$$= -((\alpha(-\beta))\gamma)$$

$$= (-(\alpha(-\beta)))\gamma$$

$$= (\alpha\beta)\gamma$$

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

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5.$  Case:  $\alpha$  is positive,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  are negative. Proof:

$$\alpha(\beta\gamma) = \alpha((-\beta)(-\gamma))$$

$$= (\alpha(-\beta))(-\gamma)$$

$$= (-(\alpha\beta))(-\gamma)$$

$$= (\alpha\beta)\gamma$$

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

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 6. Case:  $\alpha$  is negative,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  are positive. Proof: Similar to  $\langle 1 \rangle$ 3.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7.$  Case:  $\alpha$  is negative,  $\beta$  is positive,  $\gamma$  is negative. Proof:

$$\alpha(\beta\gamma) = \alpha(-(\beta(-\gamma)))$$

$$= (-\alpha)(\beta(-\gamma))$$

$$= ((-\alpha)\beta)(-\gamma)$$

$$= (-(\alpha\beta))(-\gamma)$$

$$= (\alpha\beta)\gamma$$

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

 $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . Case:  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are negative,  $\gamma$  is positive. Proof: Similar to  $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 9$ . Case:  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  are all negative.

$$\alpha(\beta\gamma) = \alpha(-(-\beta)(-\gamma))$$

$$= -((-\alpha)((-\beta)(-\gamma)))$$

$$= -(((-\alpha)(-\beta))(-\gamma))$$

$$= -((\alpha\beta)(-\gamma))$$

$$= (\alpha\beta)\gamma$$

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

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**Proposition 5.16.** For any cut  $\alpha$  we have  $\alpha 1^* = \alpha$ .

Proof:

```
\begin{array}{ll} \langle 1 \rangle 1. \  \, \text{Case:} \  \, \alpha \  \, \text{is positive.} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 1. \  \, \alpha 1^* \subseteq \alpha \\ \langle 2 \rangle 2. \  \, \alpha \subseteq \alpha 1^* \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \  \, \text{Case:} \  \, \alpha = 0^* \\ \underline{\langle 1 \rangle} 3. \  \, \text{Case:} \  \, \alpha \  \, \text{is negative.} \end{array}
```

**Theorem 5.17.** There exists an ordered field with the least upper bound property.

**Proposition 5.18.** There is no rational p such that  $p^2 = 2$ .

PROOF:

```
PROOF: \langle 1 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction p^2 = 2. \langle 1 \rangle 2. PICK integers m, n not both even such that p = m/n. \langle 1 \rangle 3. m^2 = 2n^2 \langle 1 \rangle 4. m is even. \langle 1 \rangle 5. PICK an integer k such that m = 2k. \langle 1 \rangle 6. 4k^2 = 2n^2 \langle 1 \rangle 7. 2k^2 = n^2 \langle 1 \rangle 8. n is even. \langle 1 \rangle 9. Q.E.D. PROOF: \langle 1 \rangle 2, \langle 1 \rangle 4 and \langle 1 \rangle 8 form a contradiction.
```

**Theorem 5.19.** Any two complete ordered fields are isomorphic.

**Definition 5.20.** Let  $\mathbb{R}$  be the complete ordered field. We call its elements *real numbers*.

### 5.2 Properties of the Real Numbers

**Theorem 5.21.**  $\mathbb{Q}$  is a subfield of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Theorem 5.22** (Archimedean Property). Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  with x > 0. There exists a positive integer n such that nx > y.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $A = \{ nx : n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume: for a contradiction there is no positive integer n such that nx > y.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . y is an upper bound for A.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $\alpha = \sup A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ .  $\alpha x$  is not an upper bound for A.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Pick a positive integer m such that  $\alpha x < mx$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ .  $\alpha < (m+1)x \in A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts  $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .

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### **Theorem 5.23.** $\mathbb{Q}$ is dense in $\mathbb{R}$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  with x < y
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK a positive integer n such that

$$n(y-x) > 1 .$$

PROOF: Archimedean property.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . PICK a positive integer  $m_1$  such that  $m_1 > nx$ 

Proof: Archimedean property.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . PICK a positive integer  $m_2$  such that  $m_2 > -nx$  PROOF: Archimedean property.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ .  $-m_2 < nx < m_1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Let: m be the integer such that

$$m-1 \le nx < m$$
.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ .  $nx < m \le 1 + nx < ny$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8. \ x < m/n < y$

**Theorem 5.24.** For every real number x > 0 and positive integer n, there exists a unique positive real number y such that  $y^n = x$ .

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . There exists a real y > 0 such that  $y^n = x$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $E = \{ t \in \mathbb{R}^+ : t^n < x \}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $y = \sup E$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1. \ E \neq \emptyset$ 
      - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$ . Let: t = x/(x+1)
      - $\langle 4 \rangle 2. \ 0 < t < 1$
      - $\langle 4 \rangle 3. \ t^n < t < x$
      - $\langle 4 \rangle 4. \ t \in E$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . x+1 is an upper bound for E.
      - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$ . Let: t > x + 1
      - $\langle 4 \rangle 2$ .  $t^n > t > x$
      - $\langle 4 \rangle 3. \ t \notin E$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ y^n = x$$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 1. \ y^n \not< x$ 

 $\langle 4 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $y^n < x$ .

 $\langle 4 \rangle 2$ . Pick h such that 0 < h < 1 and

$$h < \frac{x - y^n}{n(y+1)^{n-1}}$$
.

$$\langle 4 \rangle 3. \ (y+h)^n - y^n < x - y^n$$

Proof:

$$(y+h)^n - y^n = ((y+h) - y) \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (y+h)^{n-1-i} y^i$$

$$= h \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (y+h)^{n-1-i} y^i$$

$$\leq hn(y+h)^{n-1}$$

$$\leq hn(y+1)^{n-1}$$

$$< x - y^n$$

$$\langle 4 \rangle 4$$
.  $(y+h)^n < x$ 

$$\langle 4 \rangle 5. \ y + h \in E$$

 $\langle 4 \rangle 6$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts the fact that y is an upper bound for E.

$$\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ y^n \not> x$$

 $\langle 4 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $y^n > x$ 

 $\langle 4 \rangle 2$ . Let:

$$k = \frac{y^n - x}{ny^{n-1}}$$

 $\langle 4 \rangle 3$ . 0 < k < y

 $\langle 4 \rangle 4$ . y - k is an upper bound for E.

$$\langle 5 \rangle 1$$
. Let:  $t \geq y - k$ 

$$\langle 5 \rangle 2$$
.  $y^n - t^n \le y^n - x$ 

Proof:

$$\begin{split} y^n - t^n &\leq y^n - (y - k)^n \\ &= (y - (y - k)) \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} y^{n-i} (y - k)^i \\ &= k \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} y^{n-i} (y - k)^i \\ &\leq k n y^{n-1} \\ &= y^n - x \end{split}$$

$$\langle 5 \rangle 3. \ t^n \ge x$$

$$\langle 5 \rangle 4. \ t \notin E$$

 $\langle 4 \rangle 5$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts the fact that y is the least upper bound of E.  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If y and y' are positive reals with  $y^n = y'^n$  then y = y'.

Proof: Since the function that sends y to  $y^n$  is strictly monotone.  $\square$ 

**Definition 5.25** (*n*th Root). Given any real number x > 0 and positive integer n, the nth root of x, denoted  $x^{1/n}$ , is the unique positive real such that

$$(x^{1/n})^n = x .$$

We write  $\sqrt{x}$  for  $x^{1/2}$ .

**Proposition 5.26.** Let a and b be positive real numbers and n a positive integer. Then

$$(ab)^{1/n} = a^{1/n}b^{1/n}$$
.

PROOF: Since  $(a^{1/n}b^{1/n})^n = ab$ .  $\square$ 

**Lemma 5.27.** Let b be a real number with b > 1. Let n be a positive integer. Then

$$b-1 \ge n(b^{1/n}-1)$$
.

Proof: From Lemma 4.24.  $\Box$ 

**Lemma 5.28.** Let b and t be real numbers with b > 1 and t > 1. For any positive integer n, if  $n > \frac{b-1}{t-1}$  then  $b^{1/n} < t$ .

Proof:

$$b-1 \ge n(b^{1/n}-1)$$

$$\therefore \frac{b-1}{n} \ge b^{1/n}-1$$

$$\therefore t-1 > b^{1/n}-1$$

$$\therefore t > b^{1/n}$$

**Lemma 5.29.** Let b be a real number with b > 0. Let m, n, p, q be integers with n > 0 and q > 0. Assume m/n = p/q. Then

$$(b^m)^{1/n} = (b^p)^{1/q}$$
.

Proof:

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ (b^m)^{1/n} = (b^{1/n})^m$$

Proof:

$$((b^{1/n})^m)^n = ((b^{1/n})^n)^m$$
  
=  $b^m$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ ((b^m)^{1/n})^q = b^p$$

Proof:

$$((b^m)^{1/n})^q = (b^{1/n})^{mq}$$
$$= (b^{1/n})^{np}$$
$$= b^p$$

**Definition 5.30.** For a a positive real and q a rational number, we may therefore define  $a^q$  by

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

for m and n integers with n > 0.

**Proposition 5.31.** Let a be a positive real and r, s rational numbers. Then

$$a^{r+s} = a^r a^s$$
.

Proof:

$$a^{m/n+p/q} = a^{(mq+np)/nq}$$

$$= (a^{mq+np})^{1/nq}$$

$$= (a^{mq})^{1/nq} (a^{np})^{1/nq}$$

$$= a^{m/n} a^{p/q}$$

**Proposition 5.32.** Let b > 1 be a real number and q a rational number. Then

$$b^q = \sup\{b^t : t \in \mathbb{Q}, t \le q\}$$

PROOF: It is the greatest element of this set.  $\square$ 

**Definition 5.33.** Let b > 1 be a real number and x a real number. Then

$$b^x = \sup\{b^t : t \in \mathbb{Q}, t \le x\} .$$

**Lemma 5.34.** Let b, w and y be real numbers with b > 1. Assume  $b^w < y$ . Then there exists a positive integer n such that  $b^{w+1/n} < y$ .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $t = yb^{-w}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK a positive integer n such that  $n > \frac{b-1}{t-1}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ b^{1/n} < t$

PROOF: Lemma 5.28.

PROOF: Lemma 
$$\langle 1 \rangle 4$$
.  $b^{w+1/n} < y$ 

**Lemma 5.35.** Let b, w and y be real numbers with b > 1. Assume  $b^w > y$ . Then there exists a positive integer n such that  $b^{w-1/n} < y$ .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $t = b^w/y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK a positive integer n such that  $n > \frac{b-1}{t-1}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ b^{1/n} < t$

Proof: Lemma 5.28.

$$\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ y < b^{w-1/n}$$

**Proposition 5.36.** For b and x real numbers with b > 1 we have

$$b^x = \sup\{b^t : t \in \mathbb{Q}, t < x\} .$$

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $b^x$  is an upper bound for  $\{b^t : t \in \mathbb{Q}, t < x\}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let: u be any upper bound for  $\{b^t : t \in \mathbb{Q}, t < x\}$ . Prove:  $b^x \leq u$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3.$  Let: q be a rational number with  $q \leq x.$  Prove:  $b^q \leq u$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $b^q > u$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. PICK a positive integer n such that  $b^{q-1/n} > u$ .

PROOF: Lemma 5.35.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ b^{q-1/n} \le u$ PROOF:  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ 

PROOF:  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$   $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts  $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .

**Lemma 5.37.** Let A be a set of positive real numbers with supremum a > 0 and B a set of positive real numbers with supremum b > 0. Then ab is the supremum of  $\{xy : x \in A, y \in B\}$ .

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For all  $x \in A$  and  $y \in B$  we have  $xy \leq ab$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If u is any upper bound for  $\{xy : x \in A, y \in B\}$  then  $ab \leq u$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: u be an upper bound for  $\{xy : x \in A, y \in B\}$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For all  $x \in A$  we have u/x is an upper bound for B.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . For all  $x \in A$  we have  $b \leq u/x$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . For all  $x \in A$  we have  $x \leq u/b$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .  $a \leq u/b$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ ab \leq u$

**Proposition 5.38.** *Let*  $b, x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  *with* b > 1. *Then* 

$$b^{x+y} = b^x b^y .$$

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For any rational number q < x + y, there exist rational numbers r < x and s < y such that q = r + s.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1. \ q x < y$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick a rational t such that q x < t < y
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . q = t + (q t) and t < y, q t < x
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $b^x b^y = b^{x+y}$

$$\begin{split} b^x b^y &= \sup\{b^q b^r : q, r \in \mathbb{Q}, q < x, r < y\} \\ &= \sup\{b^{q+r} : q, r \in \mathbb{Q}, q < x, r < y\} \\ &= \sup\{b^q : q \in \mathbb{Q}, q < x + y\} \\ &= b^{x+y} \end{split}$$

### 5.2.1 Logarithms

**Proposition 5.39.** Let b and y be real numbers with b > 1 and y > 0. There exists a unique real x such that  $b^x = y$ .

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: x = \sup\{w : b^w < y\}
        PROVE: b^x = y
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \{ w : b^w < y \} \neq \emptyset
      Proof: It contains 0.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. \{w : b^w < y\} is bounded above.
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: n be the least integer such that
         Proof: Archimedean property.
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. Let: w be a real number with b^w < y
              Prove: w < n
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ b^w < n(b-1)+1
      \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ b^w < b^n
      \langle 3 \rangle 5. \ w < n
\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ b^x \leq y
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction b^x > y
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. PICK a positive integer n such that b^{x-1/n} > y
      Proof: Lemma 5.35.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Pick w such that x - 1/n < w and b^w < y
      PROOF: Since x - 1/n is not an upper bound for \{w : b^w < y\}.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ b^{x-1/n} < y
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. Q.E.D.
     PROOF: This contradicts \langle 2 \rangle 2.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ b^x \geq y
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction b^x < y.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Pick a positive integer n such that b^{x+1/n} < y.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ x + 1/n \le x
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. Q.E.D.
      PROOF: This is a contradiction.
```

**Definition 5.40** (Logarithm). Let b and y be real numbers with b > 1 and y > 0. The *logarithm* of y to *base* b, denoted  $\log_b y$ , is the unique real number

such that

$$b^{\log_b y} = y .$$

#### 5.2.2Intervals

**Definition 5.41** (Intervals). Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ .

The open interval (a, b) is  $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x < b\}$ .

The closed interval [a, b] is  $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \le x \le b\}$ .

The half-open intervals [a, b) and (a, b] are defined by

$$[a,b) := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \le x < b\}$$
$$(a,b] := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \le b\}$$

**Proposition 5.42.** Let  $(I_n)$  be a sequence of closed intervals with  $I_0 \supseteq I_1 \supseteq \cdots$ . Then  $\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} I_n$  is nonempty.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $I_n = [a_n, b_n]$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x = \sup_n a_n$

PROOF:  $\{a_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is bounded above by  $b_0$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3.$   $x \in \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} I_n$ PROOF: For all n we have  $a_n \leq x \leq b_n$  since  $b_n$  is an upper bound for  $\{a_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$ П

**Definition 5.43** (k-cell). Let k be a positive integer. A k-cell is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^k$  of the form

$$\{\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^k : \forall i = 1, \dots, k.a_i \le x_i \le b_i\}$$

for some real numbers  $a_1, \ldots, a_k, b_1, \ldots, b_k$  with  $a_i \leq b_i$  for each i.

**Proposition 5.44.** Let  $(I_n)$  be a sequence of k-cells such that  $I_0 \supseteq I_1 \supseteq \cdots$ . Then  $\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} I_n \neq \emptyset$ .

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $I_n = J_{n1} \times \cdots \times J_{nk}$  where each  $J_{ni}$  is a closed interval.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For  $i = 1, \ldots, k$ , PICK  $a_i \in \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} J_{ni}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ (a_1, \ldots, a_k) \in \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} I_n$

#### The Cantor Set 5.2.3

**Definition 5.45** (Cantor Set). Define a sequence  $E_n$  of unions of intervals as follows:

- $E_0 = [0, 1]$
- $E_{n+1}$  is formed from  $E_n$  by replacing every interval [a, b] with [a, (2a+b)/3]and [(a+2b)/3, b].

The Cantor set is  $\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} E_n$ .

### 5.3 The Extended Real Number System

**Definition 5.46** (Extended Real Number System). The *extended real number* system is the set  $\mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty, -\infty\}$ .

We extend the ordering  $\leq$  to the extended reals by defining

$$-\infty < x < +\infty$$

for every  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

We extend +,  $\cdot$  and / to partial operations on the extended real by defining:

$$x + (+\infty) = +\infty \qquad (x \in \mathbb{R})$$

$$x + (-\infty) = -\infty \qquad (x \in \mathbb{R})$$

$$(+\infty) + x = +\infty \qquad (x \in \mathbb{R})$$

$$(+\infty) + (+\infty) \text{ is undefined}$$

$$(+\infty) + (-\infty) \text{ is undefined}$$

$$(-\infty) + x = -\infty \qquad (x \in \mathbb{R})$$

$$(-\infty) + (+\infty) \text{ is undefined}$$

$$x \cdot (+\infty) = +\infty \qquad (x \in \mathbb{R})$$

$$x \cdot (-\infty) = -\infty \qquad (x \in \mathbb{R})$$

$$x \cdot (-\infty) = -\infty \qquad (x \in \mathbb{R})$$

$$(+\infty) \cdot x = +\infty \qquad (x \in \mathbb{R})$$

$$(+\infty) \cdot (+\infty) \text{ is undefined}$$

$$(+\infty) \cdot (-\infty) \text{ is undefined}$$

$$(-\infty) \cdot (+\infty) \text{ is undefined}$$

$$(-\infty) \cdot (+\infty) \text{ is undefined}$$

$$x/(+\infty) = 0 \qquad (x \in \mathbb{R})$$

$$(x \in \mathbb{R})$$

 $(-\infty)/x$  is undefined

 $(-\infty)/(+\infty)$  is undefined  $(-\infty)/(-\infty)$  is undefined

 $(x \in \mathbb{R})$ 

## Complex Analysis

**Definition 6.1** (Complex Numbers). A *complex number* is a pair of real numbers. We write  $\mathbb{C}$  for the set of complex numbers.

Define + and  $\cdot$  on  $\mathbb{C}$  by:

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

**Theorem 6.2.** The complex numbers form a field.

**Theorem 6.3.** The function that maps a to (a,0) is an embedding of  $\mathbb{R}$  in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

Definition 6.4.

$$i = (0, 1)$$

Lemma 6.5.

$$(a,b) = a + ib$$

PROOF: Since (a, 0) + (0, 1)(b, 0) = (a, b).

Lemma 6.6.

$$i^2 = -1$$

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.  $\square$ 

**Corollary 6.6.1.** There is no linear order on  $\mathbb C$  that makes  $\mathbb C$  into an ordered field.

**Definition 6.7** (Complex Conjugate). For any complex number z, the complex conjugate  $\overline{z}$  is defined by

$$\overline{a+ib} = a-ib \qquad (a,b \in \mathbb{R}) .$$

**Definition 6.8** (Real Part). For any complex number z, the *real part* of z, denoted Re(z), is defined by

$$\operatorname{Re}(a+ib) = a \qquad (a, b \in \mathbb{R}) .$$

**Definition 6.9** (Imaginary Part). For any complex number z, the *imaginar* part of z, denoted Im(z), is defined by

$$\operatorname{Im}(a+ib) = b \qquad (a, b \in \mathbb{R}) .$$

**Theorem 6.10.** For all  $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$  we have

$$\overline{z+w} = \overline{z} + \overline{w} .$$

Proof:

$$\overline{(a+ib)+(c+id)} = \overline{(a+c)+i(b+d)}$$

$$= (a+c)-i(b+d)$$

$$= (a-ib)+(c-id)$$

$$= \overline{a+ib}+\overline{c+id}$$

**Theorem 6.11.** For all  $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$  we have

$$\overline{zw} = \overline{z} \cdot \overline{w} \ .$$

Proof:

$$\overline{(a+ib)(c+id)} = \overline{(ac-bd) + i(ad+bc)}$$

$$= (ac-bd) - i(ad+bc)$$

$$= (a-ib)(c-id)$$

$$= \overline{a+ib} \cdot \overline{c+id}$$

**Theorem 6.12.** For all  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  we have

$$\operatorname{Re}(z) = \frac{1}{2}(z + \overline{z})$$
.

Proof:

$$(a+ib) + \overline{a+ib} = (a+ib) + (a-ib)$$

$$= 2a$$

$$= 2\operatorname{Re}(a+ib)$$

**Theorem 6.13.** For all  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  we have

$$\operatorname{Im}(z) = \frac{1}{2i}(z - \overline{z}) .$$

Proof:

$$(a+ib) - \overline{a+ib} = (a+ib) - (a-ib)$$

$$= 2ib$$

$$= 2i\operatorname{Im}(a+ib)$$

**Theorem 6.14.** For all  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  we have  $z\overline{z}$  is a non-negative real.

$$(a+ib)(\overline{a+ib}) = (a+ib)(a-ib)$$
$$= a^2 + b^2$$

**Theorem 6.15.** For any  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ , if  $z\overline{z} = 0$  then z = 0.

PROOF: Let z = a + ib. Then  $z\overline{z} = a^2 + b^2 = 0$  iff a = b = 0.  $\square$ 

**Definition 6.16** (Absolute Value). For  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ , the absolute value of z is

$$|z|=(z\overline{z})^{1/2}$$
.

**Proposition 6.17.** For x a non-negative real we have |x| = x.

PROOF: Since  $|x| = \sqrt{x^2} = x$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 6.18.** For x a negative real we have |x| = -x.

Proof: Since  $|x| = \sqrt{x^2} = -x$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 6.19.** For any complex number z we have  $|z| \ge 0$ .

PROOF: Immediate from definition.  $\Box$ 

**Theorem 6.20.** For any complex number z, if |z| = 0 then z = 0.

PROOF: From Theorem 6.15.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 6.21.** For any complex number z we have

$$|\overline{z}| = |z|$$
.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 6.22.** For any complex numbers z and w we have

$$|zw| = |z||w|$$
.

Proof:

$$|zw| = \sqrt{zw\overline{z}w}$$
  
 $= \sqrt{z\overline{z}}\sqrt{w\overline{w}}$  (Proposition 5.26)  
 $= |z||w|$ 

**Theorem 6.23.** For any complex number z we have

$$|\operatorname{Re} z| \le |z|$$

PROOF: Let z = a + ib. Then

$$|\operatorname{Re} z| = \sqrt{a^2} \le \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$
.

**Theorem 6.24.** For any complex numbers z and w we have

$$|z+w| \le |z| + |w| .$$

$$|z+w|^2 = (z+w)(\overline{z}+\overline{w})$$

$$= z\overline{z} + z\overline{w} + \overline{z}w + w\overline{w}$$

$$= |z|^2 + 2\operatorname{Re}(z\overline{w}) + |w|^2 \qquad \text{(Theorem 6.12)}$$

$$\leq |z|^2 + 2|z\overline{w}| + |w|^2 \qquad \text{(Theorem 6.23)}$$

$$= |z|^2 + 2|z||w| + |w|^2 \qquad \text{(Theorem 6.22)}$$

$$= (|z| + |w|)^2 \qquad \Box$$

**Theorem 6.25** (Schwarz Inequality). Let  $a_1, \ldots, a_n, b_1, \ldots, b_n$  be complex numbers. Then

$$\left| \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j \overline{b_j} \right|^2 \le \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_j|^2 \sum_{j=1}^{n} |b_j|^2.$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $A = \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_j|^2$   $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $B = \sum_{j=1}^{n} |b_j|^2$   $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $C = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j \overline{b_j}$   $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Assume: w.l.o.g. B > 0

PROOF: If B=0 then  $b_1=\cdots=b_n=0$  and both sides of the inequality are

$$\langle 1 \rangle$$
5.  $\sum_{j=1}^{n} |Ba_j - Cb_j|^2 = B(AB - |C|^2)$ 

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} |Ba_{j} - Cb_{j}|^{2} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (Ba_{j} - Cb_{j})(B\overline{a_{j}} - \overline{Cb_{j}})$$

$$= B^{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{j}|^{2} - B\overline{C} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{j}\overline{b_{j}} - BC \sum_{j=1}^{n} \overline{a_{j}}b_{j} + |C|^{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |b_{j}|^{2}$$

$$= B^{2}A - 2B|C|^{2} + B|C|^{2}$$

$$= B(AB - |C|^{2})$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ B(AB - |C|^{2}) \ge 0$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ AB \ge |C|^{2}$$

Proposition 6.26. For any non-zero complex number w, there are exactly two complex numbers z such that  $z^2 = w$ .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . There are at most two complex numbers z such that  $z^2 = w$ . Proof: Proposition 4.15.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . There are at least two complex numbers z such that  $z^2 = w$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: w = u + iv

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $a = \sqrt{\frac{|w| + u}{2}}$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $b = \sqrt{\frac{|w|-u}{2}}$ 

$$\begin{array}{lll} \langle 2 \rangle 4. & {\rm Case:} \ v \geq 0 \\ \langle 3 \rangle 1. & {\rm Let:} \ z = a + ib \\ \langle 3 \rangle 2. & z^2 = w \\ & {\rm Proof:} \end{array}$$
 
$$z^2 = (a + ib)^2 \\ & = a^2 - b^2 + 2iab \\ & = u + i\sqrt{|w|^2 - u^2} \\ & = u + iv \\ & = w \end{array}$$
 
$$\langle 3 \rangle 3. & (-z)^2 = w \\ \langle 2 \rangle 5. & {\rm Case:} \ v \leq 0 \\ \langle 3 \rangle 1. & {\rm Let:} \ z = a - ib \\ \langle 3 \rangle 2. & z^2 = w \\ & {\rm Proof:} \end{array}$$
 
$$z^2 = (a - ib)^2 \\ & = a^2 - b^2 - 2iab \\ & = u - i\sqrt{|w|^2 - u^2} \\ & = u - i|v| \\ & = w \end{array}$$

### 6.1 Algebraic Numbers

**Definition 6.27** (Algebraic). A complex number z is algebraic iff there exist integers  $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n$  not all zero such that

$$a_0 z^n + a_1 z^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} z + a_n = 0$$
;

otherwise, it is transcendental.

**Proposition 6.28.** The set of algebraic numbers is countable.

PROOF: There are countably many finite sequences of integers  $(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ , and for each one, there are only finitely many complex numbers z such that  $a_0z^n + a_1z^{n-1} + \cdots + a_n = 0$ .  $\square$ 

# Part I Linear Algebra

# **Vector Spaces**

#### 7.1 Convex Sets

**Definition 7.1** (Convex). Let  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ . Then E is *convex* iff, for all  $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in E$  and  $\lambda \in (0,1)$ ,

$$\lambda \vec{x} + (1 - \lambda) \vec{y} \in E .$$

**Proposition 7.2.** Every k-cell is convex.

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: C = \{ \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^k : \forall i.a_i \leq x_i \leq b_i \} be a k-cell.
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in C$  and  $\lambda \in (0, 1)$ .

PROVE:  $\lambda \vec{x} + (1 - \lambda) \vec{y} \in C$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For each i we have  $a_i \leq \lambda x_i + (1 - \lambda)y_i \leq b_i$ 

PROOF: Since  $\lambda a_1 + (1 - \lambda)a_i \le \lambda x_i + (1 - \lambda)y_i \le \lambda b_i + (1 - \lambda)b_i$ .

# Real Inner Product Spaces

**Definition 8.1** (Inner Product). Given  $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ , define the inner product  $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$  by

$$(x_1, \ldots, x_k) \cdot (y_1, \ldots, y_k) = x_1 y_1 + \cdots + x_k y_k$$
.

**Definition 8.2** (Norm). Define the *norm* of a vector  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^k$  by

$$\|\vec{x}\| = \sqrt{\vec{x} \cdot \vec{x}} .$$

Proposition 8.3.

$$\|\vec{x}\| \ge 0$$

PROOF: Immediate from the definition.  $\Box$ 

**Proposition 8.4.** *If*  $||\vec{x}|| = 0$  *then*  $\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ .

PROOF: If  $\|\vec{x}\| = 0$  then  $x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2 = 0$  so  $x_1 = \cdots = x_n = 0$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 8.5.** For  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ ,

$$\|\alpha \vec{x}\| = |\alpha| \|\vec{x}\| .$$

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 8.6.** For  $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ , we have

$$||\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}|| \le ||\vec{x}|| ||\vec{y}||$$
.

PROOF: By the Schwarz inequality.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 8.7.** For  $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^k$  we have

$$\|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\| \le \|\vec{x}\| + \|\vec{y}\|$$
.

Proof:

$$\|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\|^{2} = (\vec{x} + \vec{y}) \cdot (\vec{x} + \vec{y})$$

$$= \vec{x} \cdot \vec{x} + 2\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + \vec{y} \cdot \vec{y}$$

$$\leq \|\vec{x}\|^{2} + 2\|\vec{x}\| \|\vec{y}\| + \|\vec{y}\|^{2} \qquad (Proposition 8.6)$$

$$= (\|\vec{x}\| + \|\vec{y}\|)^{2}$$

Corollary 8.7.1. For  $\vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{z} \in \mathbb{R}^k$  we have

$$\|\vec{x} - \vec{z}\| \le \|\vec{x} - \vec{y}\| + \|\vec{y} - \vec{z}\|$$
.

### 8.1 Balls

**Definition 8.8** (Closed Ball). Let  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^k$  and r > 0. The *closed ball* with *centre*  $\vec{x}$  and *radius* r is

$$\{y \in \mathbb{R}^k : \|y - x\| \le r\} .$$

Proposition 8.9. Every closed ball is convex.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: B be the closed ball with center  $\vec{a}$  and radius r.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in B$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\lambda \in (0,1)$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $\lambda \vec{x} + (1 - \lambda) \vec{y} \in B$ 

Proof:

$$\begin{split} \|\lambda \vec{x} + (1 - \lambda)\vec{y} - \vec{a}\| &= \|\lambda (\vec{x} - \vec{a}) + (1 - \lambda)(\vec{y} - \vec{a})\| \\ &= \lambda \|\vec{x} - \vec{a}\| + (1 - \lambda)\|\vec{y} - \vec{a}\| \\ &\leq \lambda r + (1 - \lambda)r \\ &= r \end{split}$$

# Complex Inner Product Spaces

**Definition 9.1** (Inner Product). Let V be a complex vector space. An *inner product* on V is a function  $\langle \ , \ \rangle : V^2 \to \mathbb{C}$  such that, for all  $x,y,z \in V$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ :

- $\langle y, x \rangle = \overline{\langle x, y \rangle}$
- $\langle x + y, z \rangle = \langle x, z \rangle + \langle y, z \rangle$
- $\bullet \ \langle \alpha x, y \rangle = \overline{\alpha} \langle x, y \rangle$
- $\langle x, x \rangle \ge 0$
- If  $\langle x, x \rangle = 0$  then x = 0.

An inner product space consists of a complex vector space V and an inner product on V.

**Definition 9.2** (Norm). Let V be an inner product space and  $x \in V$ . The norm of x is

$$||x|| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$$
.

Proposition 9.3. An inner product space is a metric space under

$$d(x,y) = ||x - y||.$$

**Definition 9.4** (Bounded). Let  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  be inner product spaces and  $T:V_1 \to V_2$  a linear transformation. Then T is bounded iff  $\{\|T(x)\|: \|x\|=1\}$  is bounded above.

**Proposition 9.5.** Every linear transformation between finite dimensional inner product spaces is bounded.

**Definition 9.6** (Outer Product). Let V be an inner product space and  $|\psi\rangle$ ,  $|\phi\rangle \in V$ . The *outer product* of  $|\psi\rangle$  and  $|\phi\rangle$  is

$$|\psi\rangle\langle\phi|:V\to V$$
.

#### **Hilbert Spaces** 9.1

Definition 9.7 (Hilbert Space). A Hilbert space is a complete inner product space.

**Theorem 9.8** (Completeness Relation). Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space. Let  $\{|e_n\rangle\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a countable orthonormal basis for H. Then

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |e_n\rangle \langle e_n| = I .$$

Proof:

 $\begin{array}{l} \text{(1)} & \text{(1)} & \text{(1)} & \text{(1)} & \text{(1)} & \text{(1)} & \text{(2)} & \text{(2)$ 

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \langle e_n | \phi \rangle | e_n \rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \alpha_m \langle e_n | e_m \rangle | e_n \rangle$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha_n | e_n \rangle$$
$$= | \psi \rangle$$

**Definition 9.9** (Separable). A Hilbert space is *separable* iff it has a countable dense orthonormal basis.

## Lie Algebras

**Definition 10.1** (Lie Algebra). Let K be a field. A Lie algebra  $\mathcal{L}$  over K consists of a vector space  $\mathcal{L}$  over K and an operation

$$[\ ,\ ]:\mathcal{L}^2 \to \mathcal{L}\ ,$$

the *Lie bracket* or *commutator*, such that, for all  $x, y, z \in \mathcal{L}$  and  $\alpha \in K$ :

$$[x+y,z] = [x,z] + [y,z]$$
 
$$[x,y+z] = [x,y] + [x,z]$$
 
$$[\alpha x,y] = \alpha [x,y]$$
 
$$[x,x] = 0$$
 
$$[x,[y,z]] + [y,[z,x]] + [z,[x,y]] = 0$$
 (Jacobi identity)

**Lemma 10.2.** If K has characteristic 0 then the condition [x, x] = 0 can be replaced with [x, y] = -[y, x].

**Proposition 10.3.** The commutator is determind by its values on any basis for  $\mathcal{L}$ .

**Example 10.4.**  $\mathbb{R}^3$  with the cross product is a real Lie algebra.

**Example 10.5.** For any  $n \geq 0$ , we have GL(n, K) is a Lie algebra over K under

$$[A, B] = AB - BA .$$

**Definition 10.6** (Linear Lie Algebra). A *linear Lie algebra* over K is a Lie algebra over K that is a subalgebra of GL(n, K) for some n.

**Example 10.7** (Special Linear Algebra). The special Linear algebra  $SL(n, \mathbb{R}) = \{A \in GL(n, \mathbb{R}) : \text{tr} = 0\}$  is a real linear Lie algebra.

**Example 10.8** (Orthogonal Lie Algebra). The *orthogonal Lie algebra*  $SO(n, \mathbb{R}) = \{A \in GL(n, \mathbb{R}) : A \text{ is skew-symmetric} \}$  is a real linear Lie algebra.

**Example 10.9.** Let u(n) be the set of all skew-Hermitian  $n \times n$ -matrices as a real Lie algebra.

Let  $su(n) = u(n) \cap SL(n, \mathbb{R})$ .

**Proposition 10.10.** SU(2) is spanned by the Pauli matrices

$$\sigma_x = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \sigma_y = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \sigma_z = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{pmatrix}$$

which satisfy

$$[\sigma_x, \sigma_y] = \sigma_z$$
$$[\sigma_y, \sigma_z] = \sigma_x$$
$$[\sigma_z, \sigma_x] = \sigma_y$$

## 10.1 Lie Algebar Homomorphisms

**Definition 10.11** (Homomorphism). Let  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  be Lie algebras over the same field. A *Lie algebra homomorphism*  $\phi: L_1 \to L_2$  is a linear transformation such that

$$\phi([x,y]) = [\phi(x), \phi(y)]$$

for all  $x, y \in L_1$ .

Lemma 10.12. Every bijective Lie algebra homomorphism is an isomorphism.

**Definition 10.13** (Representation). Let L be a real (complex) Lie algebra. A representation of L is a Lie algebra homomorphism  $L \to GL(n, \mathbb{R})$  ( $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ ) for some n.

**Example 10.14.** The linear transformation  $\mathbb{R}^3 \to su(2)$  defined by

$$i \mapsto \sigma_x, j \mapsto \sigma_y, k \mapsto \sigma_z$$

is a representation of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

# Part II Topology

## Metric Spaces

**Definition 11.1** (Metric). A *metric* on a set X is a function  $d: X^2 \to \mathbb{R}$  such that, for all  $x, y, z \in X$ :

- $d(x,y) \geq 0$
- d(x,y) = 0 iff x = y
- $\bullet \ d(x,y) = d(y,x)$
- Triangle Inequality  $d(x,z) \le d(x,y) + d(y,z)$

A  $metric\ space\ X$  consists of a set X and a metric on X.

**Example 11.2.**  $\mathbb{R}^k$  is a metric space under  $d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = ||\vec{x} - \vec{y}||$ . The triangle inequality is Corollary 8.7.1.

**Example 11.3.** For any set X, the discrete metric on X is defined by

$$d(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \neq y \\ 0 & \text{if } x = y \end{cases}$$

**Proposition 11.4.** Let (X,d) be a metric space and Y a subset of X. Then  $d \upharpoonright Y^2$  is a metric on Y.

Proof: Easy.

### 11.1 Balls

**Definition 11.5** (Open Ball). Let  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^k$  and r > 0. The open ball with centre  $\vec{x}$  and radius r is

$$\{ y \in \mathbb{R}^k : ||y - x|| < r \}$$
.

**Proposition 11.6.** Every open ball in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  is convex.

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: B be the open ball with center \vec{a} and radius r.
```

$$\langle 1 \rangle 2$$
. Let:  $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in B$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 3$$
. Let:  $\lambda \in (0,1)$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 4$$
.  $\lambda \vec{x} + (1 - \lambda) \vec{y} \in B$ 

Proof:

$$\begin{split} \|\lambda \vec{x} + (1 - \lambda)\vec{y} - \vec{a}\| &= \|\lambda (\vec{x} - \vec{a}) + (1 - \lambda)(\vec{y} - \vec{a})\| \\ &= \lambda \|\vec{x} - \vec{a}\| + (1 - \lambda)\|\vec{y} - \vec{a}\| \\ &< \lambda r + (1 - \lambda)r \\ &= r \end{split}$$

#### 11.2 Limit Points

**Definition 11.7** (Limit Point). Let X be a metric space. Let  $E \subseteq X$  and  $p \in X$ . Then p is a *limit point* of E iff every open ball with centre p contains a point of E other than p.

**Proposition 11.8.** Let X be a metric space. Let  $E \subseteq X$ . Let p be a limit point of E. Then every neighbourhood of p contains infinitely many points of E.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction N is a neighbourhood of p that contains only finitely many points  $q_1, \ldots, q_n$  of  $E \{p\}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $r = \min(q_1, \ldots, q_n)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let: B be the open ball with centre p and radius r.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . B is a neighbourhood of p that contains no points of E other than p.

Corollary 11.8.1. A finite set has no limit points.

**Definition 11.9** (Isolated Point). Let X be a metric space. Let  $E \subseteq X$  and  $p \in X$ . Then p is an *isolated point* of E iff  $p \in E$  and p is not a limit point of E.

### 11.3 Closed Sets

**Definition 11.10** (Closed Set). Let X be a metric space. Let  $E \subseteq X$ . Then E is *closed* iff every limit point of E is a member of E.

#### 11.4 Interior Points

**Definition 11.11** (Interior Point). Let X be a metric space. Let  $E \subseteq X$  and  $p \in X$ . Then p is an *interior point* of E iff there exists an open ball E with centre E such that E is E.

11.5. OPEN SETS

**Definition 11.12** (Interior). The *interior* of a set E, denoted  $E^{\circ}$ , is the set of all its interior points.

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**Proposition 11.13.** The interior of E is the largest open set that is included in E.

```
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: I be the interior of E.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. I is open.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: p \in I
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. PICK an open ball B with centre p such that B \subseteq E.
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ B \subset I
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: q \in B
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. There exists an open ball B' with centre q such that B' \subseteq B.
       \langle 3 \rangle 3. There exists an open ball B' with centre q such that B' \subseteq E.
       \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ q \in I
\langle 1 \rangle 3. If J is any open set and J \subseteq E then J \subseteq I.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: J be an open set.
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: J \subseteq E
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. For all p \in J, there exists an open ball B with centre p such that B \subseteq J.
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. For all p \in J, there exists an open ball B with centre p such that B \subseteq E.
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ p \in I
П
```

## 11.5 Open Sets

**Definition 11.14** (Open Sets). Let X be a metric space. Let  $E \subseteq X$ . Then E is *open* iff every point in E is an interior point of E.

Proposition 11.15. Every open ball is open.

```
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: B be an open ball with centre c and radius r.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: x \in B
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: \epsilon = r - d(x, c)
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Let: B' be the open ball with centre x and radius \epsilon.
        Prove: B' \subseteq B
\langle 1 \rangle 5. Let: y \in B'
\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ d(y,c) < r
   Proof:
                  d(y,c) \le d(y,x) + d(x,c)
                                                                      (Triangle Inequality)
                             < \epsilon + d(x,c)
                                                                                            (\langle 1 \rangle 5)
                                                                                            (\langle 1 \rangle 3)
                             = r
```

Proposition 11.16. A set is open if and only if its complement is closed.

```
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: E \subseteq X
\langle 1 \rangle 2. If E is open then X - E is closed.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: E is open.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: p be a limit point of X - E.
           PROVE: p \in X - E
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Assume: for a contradiction p \in E.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. PICK an open ball B with centre p such that B \subseteq E.
   \langle 2 \rangle5. B contains a point of X - E.
      Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 2
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. Q.E.D.
      PROOF: This contradicts \langle 2 \rangle 4.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. If X - E is closed then E is open.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: X - E is closed.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: p \in E
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Assume: for a contradiction no open ball with centre p is a subset of
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. Every open ball with centre p intersects X - E.
   \langle 2 \rangle5. p is a limit point of X - E.
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ p \in X - E
      Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 1
   \langle 2 \rangle 7. Q.E.D.
      Proof: This contradicts \langle 2 \rangle 2.
Corollary 11.16.1. A set is closed if and only if its complement is open.
Proposition 11.17. The union of a set of open sets is open.
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: \mathcal{U} be a set of open sets.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: p \in \bigcup \mathcal{U}
\langle 1 \rangle 3. PICK U \in \mathcal{U} such that p \in U.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. PICK an open ball B with centre p such that B \subseteq U.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ B \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{U}
Corollary 11.17.1. The intersection of a set of closed sets is closed.
Proposition 11.18. The intersection of two open sets is open.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: U and V be open.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: p \in U \cap V
\langle 1 \rangle 3. PICK open balls B_1 and B_2 with centre p such that B_1 \subseteq U and B_2 \subseteq V.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Assume: w.l.o.g. the radius of B_1 is \leq the radius of B_2.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ B_1 \subseteq U \cap V
```

Corollary 11.18.1. The union of two closed sets is closed.

**Example 11.19.** The intersection of a set of open sets is not necessarily open.

For every positive integer n, we have (-1/n, 1/n) is open in  $\mathbb{R}$ , but  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1/n, 1/n) =$  $\{0\}$  is not open.

**Theorem 11.20.** Let X be a metric space. Let  $Y \subseteq X$  and  $E \subseteq Y$ . Then E is open in Y if and only if there exists an open subset G of X such that  $E = G \cap Y$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If E is open in Y then there exists an open subset G of X such that  $E = G \cap Y$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: E is open in Y.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For  $p \in E$ , Pick  $r_p > 0$  such that the open ball in Y with centre p and radius  $r_p$  is included in E.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . For  $p \in E$ ,

Let:  $V_p$  be the open ball in X with centre p and radius  $r_p$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $G = \bigcup_{p \in E} V_p$  $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . G is open in Y.

Proof: Proposition 11.17.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ .  $E = G \cap Y$ 
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1. \ E \subseteq G \cap Y$ 
    - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $p \in E$
    - $\langle 4 \rangle 2. \ p \in V_p$
    - $\langle 4 \rangle 3. \ p \in G$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ .  $G \cap Y \subseteq E$ 
    - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in G \cap Y$
    - $\langle 4 \rangle 2$ . PICK  $p \in E$  such that  $x \in V_p$
    - $\langle 4 \rangle 3. \ d(x,p) < r_p$
    - $\langle 4 \rangle 4. \ x \in E$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For any open subset G of X, we have  $G \cap Y$  is open in Y.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: G be an open subset of X.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $p \in G \cap Y$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . PICK r > 0 such that the open ball in X with centre p and radius r is included in G.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . The open ball in Y with centre p and radius r is included in  $G \cap Y$ .

#### Perfect Sets 11.6

**Definition 11.21** (Perfect Set). Let X be a metric space. Let  $E \subseteq X$ . Then E is perfect iff E is closed and every point in E is a limit point of E.

#### 11.7 Bounded Sets

**Definition 11.22** (Bounded Set). Let X be a metric space. Let  $E \subseteq X$ . Then E is bounded iff there exists a real number M and  $q \in X$  such that, for all  $p \in E$ , we have d(p,q) < M.

### 11.8 Dense Sets

**Definition 11.23** (Dense Set). Let X be a metric space. Let  $E \subseteq X$ . Then E is *dense* iff every point of X is either a limit point of E or a point of E, or both.

#### 11.9 Closure

**Definition 11.24** (Closure). Let X be a metric space. Let  $E \subseteq X$ . Then the *closure* of E, denoted  $\overline{E}$ , is the union of E and the set of limit points of E.

**Proposition 11.25.**  $\overline{E}$  is the smallest closed set that includes E.

```
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \overline{E} is closed.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: p be a limit point of \overline{E}.
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: p \notin E
             PROVE: p is a limit point of E.
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. Let: B be the open ball with centre p and radius r.
             Prove: B intersects E.
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. Pick a point q \in B \cap \overline{E}.
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. PICK an open ball B' with centre q such that B' \subseteq B.
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. Pick a point r \in E \cap B'
    \langle 2 \rangle 7. \ r \in E \cap B
\langle 1 \rangle 2. If C is closed and E \subseteq C then \overline{E} \subseteq C.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: C is closed.
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: E \subseteq C
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. Let: p \in \overline{E}
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. Assume: for a contradiction p \notin C
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. p is a limit point of C.
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: B be an open ball with centre p.
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. B intersects E.
       \langle 3 \rangle 3. B intersects C.
       \langle 3 \rangle 4. B intersects C in a point other than p.
           Proof: \langle 2 \rangle 3
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. Q.E.D.
       Proof: This contradicts \langle 2 \rangle 1.
```

Corollary 11.25.1. E is closed if and only if  $E = \overline{E}$ .

**Theorem 11.26.** Let E be a nonempty set of real numbers bounded above. Then  $\sup E \in \overline{E}$ .

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $\sup E \notin E$ 

PROVE:  $\sup E$  is a limit point of E.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let: B be an open ball with centre sup E and radius r.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . There exists  $x \in E$  such that  $x > \sup E r$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . E intersects B in a point other than p.

#### Proposition 11.27.

$$\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$  is a closed set that includes  $A \cup B$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. If C is a closed set that includes  $A \cup B$  then  $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \subseteq C$ .

**Example 11.28.** It is not true in general. that  $\overline{\bigcup A} = \bigcup_{A \in A} \overline{A}$ . In  $\mathbb{R}$ , let  $A = \{\{1/n\} : n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$ . Then

$$\overline{\bigcup \mathcal{A}} = \{1/n : n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\} \cup \{0\}$$
$$\bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} \overline{A} = \{1/n : n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$$

Proposition 11.29.

$$X - E^{\circ} = \overline{X - E}$$

Proof:

$$p \in X - E^{\circ} \Leftrightarrow p \notin E^{\circ}$$
  
 $\Leftrightarrow \forall B \text{ an open ball with centre } p.B \not\subseteq E$   
 $\Leftrightarrow \forall B \text{ an open ball with centre } p.B \text{ intersects} X - E$   
 $\Leftrightarrow p \in \overline{X - E}$ 

## 11.10 Compact Sets

**Definition 11.30** (Open Cover). Let X be a metric space. Let  $E \subseteq X$ . An open cover of E is a set  $\mathcal{U}$  of open sets such that  $E \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{U}$ .

**Definition 11.31** (Compact Set). Let X be a metric space. Let  $K \subseteq X$ . Then K is *compact* iff every open cover of K includes a finite subcover.

**Proposition 11.32.** Every finite set is compact.

Proof: Easy.

**Theorem 11.33.** Let X be a metric space. Let  $Y \subseteq X$  and  $K \subseteq Y$ . Then K is compact in Y if and only if K is compact in X.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If K is compact in Y then K is compact in X.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: K is compact in Y.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\mathcal{U}$  be an open cover of K in X.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $\{ U \cap Y : U \in \mathcal{U} \}$  is an open cover of K in Y.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Pick a finite subcover  $\{U_1 \cap Y, \dots, U_n \cap Y\}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .  $\{U_1, \ldots, U_n\}$  is a finite subset of  $\mathcal{U}$  that is an open cover of K is X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If K is compact in X then K is compact in Y.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: K is compact in X.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\mathcal{U}$  be an open cover of K in Y.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $\{ U \text{ open in } X : U \cap Y \in \mathcal{U} \}$  is an open cover of K in X.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . PICK a finite subcover  $\{U_1, \ldots, U_n\}$ .
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5.  $\{U_1 \cap Y, \dots, U_n \cap Y\}$  is a subset of  $\mathcal{U}$  that is an open cover of E in Y.

#### Proposition 11.34. Every compact set is closed.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: E be compact.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $p \in X E$

PROVE: There exists an open ball with centre p that is a subset of X-E.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For all  $q \in E$ , there exist disjoint open balls B with centre q and B' with centre p.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . The set of open balls B such that there exists a disjoint open ball B' with centre p is an open cover of E.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. PICK a finite subcover  $\{B_1, \ldots, B_n\}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . For i = 1, ..., n, PICK an open ball  $B'_i$  with centre p such that  $B_i \cap B'_i = \emptyset$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ .  $B'_1 \cap \cdots \cap B'_n$  is an open ball with centre p that is a subset of X E.

#### **Proposition 11.35.** Every closed subset of a compact set is compact.

#### PROOF

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: E be compact and  $C \subseteq E$  be closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\mathcal{U}$  be an open cover of C.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\mathcal{U} \cup \{X C\}$  is an open cover of E.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . PICK a finite subcover  $\{U_1, \ldots, U_n\}$  or  $\{U_1, \ldots, U_n, X C\}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \{U_1, \ldots, U_n\} \text{ covers } C.$

Corollary 11.35.1. The intersection of a compact set and a closed set is compact.

**Proposition 11.36.** Let K be a nonempty set of compact sets. If every nonempty finite subset of K has nonempty intersection, then  $\bigcap K$  is nonempty.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Pick  $K \in \mathcal{K}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $\bigcap \mathcal{K} = \emptyset$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\{X K' : K' \in \mathcal{K}\}$  is an open cover of K.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . PICK a finite subcover  $\{X K_1, \dots, X K_n\}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . There exists  $p \in K \cap K_1 \cap \cdots \cap K_n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF:  $\langle 1 \rangle 4$  and  $\langle 1 \rangle 5$  form a contradiction.

Corollary 11.36.1. Let  $(K_n)$  be a sequence of nonempty compact sets such that  $K_0 \supseteq K_1 \supseteq \cdots$ . Then  $\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} K_n \neq \emptyset$ .

**Theorem 11.37.** Let X be a metric space and  $E \subseteq X$ . Then E is compact if and only if every infinite subset of E has a limit point in E.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If E is compact then every infinite subset of E has a limit point in E.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: E is compact.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $A \subseteq E$  be infinite.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Assume: for a contradiction E has no limit point in K.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . For all  $p \in K$ , there exists an open ball B with centre p such that B does not intersect E outside p.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . The set of open balls that intersect E in at most one point is an open cover for K.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Pick a finite subcover  $B_1, \ldots, B_n$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ . E has at most n points.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 8$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts the fact that E is finite.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If every infinite subset of K has a limit point in K then K is compact.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: Every infinite subset of K has a limit point in K.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\mathcal{U}$  be an open cover of K.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Assume: w.l.o.g.  $\mathcal{U}$  is countable.

PROOF: We may replace  $\mathcal{U}$  with the set of all open balls B with centres in  $\mathbb{Q}^2$  and rational radius such that there exists  $U \in \mathcal{U}$  such that  $B \subseteq U$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Pick an enumeration  $\mathcal{U} = \{G_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

Let: 
$$F_n = \bigcup_{i=0}^n G_n$$

Let:  $F_n = \bigcup_{i=0}^n G_n$ .  $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . For all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have  $K - F_n \neq \emptyset$ .

PROOF: Since  $\{G_0, \ldots, G_n\}$  does not cover K.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} F_n = \emptyset$ 

PROOF: Since  $\{G_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  covers K.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 8$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , Pick  $a_n \in K F_n$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 9$ . Let:  $E = \{a_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 10$ . E is infinite.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $n \in \mathbb{N}$

PROVE: there exists m such that  $a_m \notin \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ .

```
\langle 3 \rangle 2. For i = 0, \ldots, n, PICK k_i such that a_i \in G_{k_i}.
   \langle 3 \rangle 3. Let: m = \max(k_0, \dots, k_n)
   \langle 3 \rangle 4. Assume: for a contradiction a_m = a_i for some i = 0, \ldots, n
   \langle 3 \rangle 5. \ a_i \in G_{k_i}
   \langle 3 \rangle 6. \ a_i \notin F_m
   \langle 3 \rangle7. Q.E.D.
      PROOF: This is a contradiction since k_i \leq m.
\langle 2 \rangle 11. PICK a limit point l for E in K.
   PROOF: From \langle 2 \rangle 1.
\langle 2 \rangle 12. PICK n such that l \in G_n.
\langle 2 \rangle 13. Pick an open ball B with centre l such that B \subseteq G_n
\langle 2 \rangle 14. B \cap E is infinite.
   Proof: Proposition 11.8.
\langle 2 \rangle 15. Pick m \geq n such that a_m \in B.
\langle 2 \rangle 16. \ a_m \in G_n
\langle 2 \rangle 17. Q.E.D.
   PROOF: This is a contradiction since a_m \notin F_m.
```

**Theorem 11.38** (Heine-Borel). Let  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ . Then E is compact if and only if it is closed and bounded.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If E is compact then E is closed.

Proof: Proposition 11.34.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If E is compact then E is bounded.

PROOF: Otherwise  $\{(-N,N)^k : N \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$  would be an open cover of E with no finite subcover.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . If E is closed and bounded then E is compact.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: E is closed and bounded.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $\vec{c}$  and M such that  $\forall \vec{x} \in E. ||\vec{x} \vec{c}|| < M$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ E \subseteq \prod_{i=1}^{k} [c_i M, c_i + M]$  $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ E \text{ is compact.}$

Proof: Proposition 11.35.

Corollary 11.38.1 (Weierstrass's Theorem). Every bounded infinite subset of  $\mathbb{R}^k$  has a limit point.

PROOF: It is a bounded infinite subset of some k-cell and therefore has a limit point in that k-cell.  $\square$ 

**Example 11.39.** It is not true that, in any metric space, a set is compact if and only if it is closed and bounded.

In  $\mathbb{Q}$ , the set  $\{p \in \mathbb{Q} : 2 < p^2 < 3\}$  is closed and bounded but not compact.

**Theorem 11.40.** Every nonempty perfect set in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  is uncountable.

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: P be a nonempty perfect set in \mathbb{R}^k.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. P is infinite.
   Proof: Corollary 11.8.1.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Assume: for a contradiction P is countable.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. PICK an enumeration P = \{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}.
\langle 1 \rangle5. Pick a sequence (V_n) of open balls such that, for all n, we have \overline{V_{n+1}} \subseteq V_n
         and x_n \notin \overline{V_{n+1}} and V_n \cap P \neq \emptyset
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: as induction hypothesis we have picked V_0, \ldots, V_{n-1} that
                            satisfy these conditions.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Pick p \in P \cap V_n such that p \neq x_n
      PROOF: We cannot have P \cap V_n = \{x_n\} because then V_n would be a
       neighbourhood of x_n that only intersects P at x_n.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. PICK an open ball B with centre p such that B \subseteq V_n \cap P - \{x_n\}
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. Let: V_{n+1} be the open ball with centre p and half the radius of B.
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ \overline{V_{n+1}} \subseteq V_n
       PROOF: Since \overline{V_{n+1}} \subseteq B \subseteq V_n.
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ x_n \notin \overline{V_{n+1}}
      PROOF: Since \overline{V_{n+1}} \subseteq B \subseteq P - \{x_n\}.
   \langle 2 \rangle 7. \ V_{n+1} \cap P \neq \emptyset
       PROOF: Since p \in V_{n+1} \cap P.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. For n \in \mathbb{N},
        Let: K_n = \overline{V_n} \cap P.
\langle 1 \rangle 7. For all n \in \mathbb{N}, K_n is compact.
   PROOF: By the Heine-Borel Theorem.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} K_n \cap P = \emptyset
   PROOF: Since for each n we have x_n \notin K_{n+1}.
\langle 1 \rangle 9. \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} K_n = \emptyset
PROOF: Since \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} K_n \subseteq P.
\langle 1 \rangle 10. Q.E.D.
   Proof: This contradicts Proposition 11.36.
```

**Corollary 11.40.1.** For any  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  with a < b, the closed interval [a, b] is uncountable.

Corollary 11.40.2.  $\mathbb{R}$  is uncountable.

Corollary 11.40.3. The set of transcendental numbers is uncountable.

PROOF: Since the set of algebraic numbers is countable.

**Example 11.41.** The Cantor set is a perfect set in  $\mathbb{R}$  that does not include any open interval.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $(E_n)$  be the sequence of unions of closed intervals from the definition of the Cantor set, and C be the Cantor set.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ C \neq \emptyset$ 

```
PROOF: Since 0 \in C.
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . C is closed.

PROOF: Each  $E_n$  is closed and C is their intersection.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Every point of C is a limit point of C.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $p \in C$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: B be an open ball with centre p and radius r.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Pick n such that each of the intervals that make up  $E_n$  has length < r/2.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Let: I be the interval in  $E_n$  that contains p.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ I \subseteq B$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . The endpoint of I that is not p is in  $P \cap B$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . C does not include any open interval.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $(\alpha, \beta)$  be any open interval.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick m such that  $3^{-m} < (\beta \alpha)/6$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. PICK k such that  $\left(\frac{3k+1}{3^m}, \frac{3k+2}{3^m}\right) \subseteq (\alpha, \beta)$

  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \quad \left(\frac{3k+1}{3^m}, \frac{3k+2}{3^m}\right) \subseteq P$   $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \quad \left(\frac{3k+1}{3^m}, \frac{3k+2}{3^m}\right) \cap E_m = \emptyset$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This is a contradiction.

Corollary 11.41.1. The Cantor set is uncountable.

#### Connected Sets 11.11

**Definition 11.42** (Separated). Let X be a metric space. Let  $A, B \subseteq X$ . Then A and B are separated iff  $\overline{A} \cap B = A \cap \overline{B} = \emptyset$ .

**Proposition 11.43.** Any two disjoint open sets are separated.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: A and B be disjoint open sets.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $p \in \overline{A} \cap B$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . B is a neighbourhood of p.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . B intersects A.

**Definition 11.44** (Connected). Let X be a metric space. Let  $E \subseteq X$ . Then E is connected iff E is not the union of two nonempty separated sets.

**Theorem 11.45.** A subset E of the real line is connected if and only if it is convex.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If E is connected then E is convex.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: E is connected.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x, y \in E$

```
\langle 2 \rangle 3. Let: z \in (x,y)
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ z \in E
       PROOF: Otherwise E \cap (-\infty, z) and E \cap (z, +\infty) would be a separation of
\langle 1 \rangle 2. If E is convex then E is connected.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: E is convex.
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: for a contradiction E = A \cup B where A and B are nonempty
                             and separated.
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. Pick a \in A and b \in B.
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. Assume: w.l.o.g. a < b
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. Let: z = \sup(A \cap [a, b])
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ z \in \overline{A}
    \langle 2 \rangle 7. \ z \notin B
    \langle 2 \rangle 8. \ z < b
    \langle 2 \rangle 9. Case: z \in A
        \langle 3 \rangle 1. \ z \notin \overline{B}
        \langle 3 \rangle 2. PICK z_1 \in (z, b) such that z_1 \notin B
        \langle 3 \rangle 3. a < z_1 < b
        \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ z_1 \notin E
           PROOF: We have z_1 \notin A from \langle 2 \rangle 5 since z_1 \in [a,b] and z_1 > z, and
           z_1 \notin B \text{ from } \langle 3 \rangle 2.
        \langle 3 \rangle 5. Q.E.D.
           PROOF: This contradicts \langle 2 \rangle 1.
    \langle 2 \rangle 10. Case: z \notin A
        PROOF: Then a < z < b and z \notin E contradicting \langle 2 \rangle 1.
```

Proposition 11.46. Every connected metric space with more than one point is uncountable.

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: X be a connected metric space with more than one points.
```

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Pick distinct points  $p, q \in X$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\epsilon = d(p,q)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For every  $r \in (0, \epsilon)$ , there exists a point  $x \in X$  such that d(p, x) = r. PROOF: Otherwise  $\{x \in X : d(p,x) < r\}$  and  $\{x \in X : d(p,x) > r\}$  would form a separation of X.

**Proposition 11.47.** The closure of a connected set is connected.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X be a metric space.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let: E be a connected subspace of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Assume: for a contradiction A and B form a separation of  $\overline{E}$ PROVE:  $A \cap E$  and  $B \cap E$  form a separation of E.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $A \cap E \neq \emptyset$

```
 \begin{array}{l} \langle 2 \rangle 1. \  \, \text{Assume: for a contradiction } A \cap E = \emptyset \\ \langle 2 \rangle 2. \  \, E \subseteq B \\ \langle 2 \rangle 3. \  \, \overline{E} \subseteq \overline{B} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 4. \  \, A \subseteq \overline{B} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 5. \  \, A \cap \overline{B} = A \neq \emptyset \\ \langle 2 \rangle 6. \  \, \text{Q.E.D.} \\ \text{PROOF: This contradicts } \langle 1 \rangle 3. \\ \langle 1 \rangle 5. \  \, B \cap E \neq \emptyset \\ \text{PROOF: Similar.} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 6. \  \, \overline{A \cap E} \cap B \cap E = \emptyset \\ \text{PROOF: Since } \overline{A \cap E} \cap B \cap E \subseteq \overline{A} \cap B. \\ \langle 1 \rangle 7. \  \, A \cap E \cap \overline{B} \cap \overline{E} = \emptyset \\ \text{PROOF: Similar.} \\ \end{array}
```

**Example 11.48.** The interior of a connected set is not necessarily connected. Two touching discs in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  form a connected set but the interior is disconnected.

**Proposition 11.49.** Every convex set in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  is connected.

```
PROOF: \langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: E be a convex set in \mathbb{R}^k. \langle 1 \rangle 2. Assume: for a contradiction A and B form a separation of E. \langle 1 \rangle 3. Pick \vec{a} \in A and \vec{b} \in B. \langle 1 \rangle 4. Define p:[0,1] \to \mathbb{R}^k by p(t)=(1-t)\vec{a}+t\vec{b}. \langle 1 \rangle 5. p^{-1}(A) and p^{-1}(B) are separated sets in \mathbb{R}. \langle 1 \rangle 6. Pick x \in [0,1] such that x \notin p^{-1}(A) and x \notin p^{-1}(B). Proof: There exists such an x since [0,1] is connected. \langle 1 \rangle 7. p(x) \in E Proof: Since E is convex. \langle 1 \rangle 8. p(x) \notin A \cup B \langle 1 \rangle 9. Q.E.D. Proof: This contradicts \langle 1 \rangle 2.
```

## 11.12 Separable Spaces

**Definition 11.50** (Separable). A metric space is *separable* iff it has a countable dense subset.

**Example 11.51.**  $\mathbb{R}^k$  is separable since  $\mathbb{Q}^k$  is dense.

Proposition 11.52. Every compact metric space is separable.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X be a compact metric space.

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\langle 1 \rangle 2. For n \in \mathbb{Z}^+, pick finitely many points a_{n1}, \ldots, a_{nr_n} such that \{B(a_{ni}, 1/n) :
          1 \le i \le r_n covers X.
    PROOF: Since \{B(x, 1/n) : x \in X\} covers X.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \{a_{ni} : n \in \mathbb{Z}^+, 1 \leq i \leq r_n\} is dense.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: U be an open set and p \in U.
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Pick \epsilon > 0 such that B(p, \epsilon) \subseteq U.
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. PICK n such that 1/n < \epsilon.
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. PICK i such that p \in B(a_{ni}, 1/n)
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ a_{ni} \in U
```

#### 11.13 Bases

**Definition 11.53** (Basis). A basis for a metric space X is a set  $\mathcal{B}$  of open sets such that, for every open set U and point  $p \in U$ , there exists  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $p \in B \subseteq U$ .

Proposition 11.54. Every separable metric space has a countable basis.

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: X be a separable metric space.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. PICK a countable dense set D in X.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: \mathcal{B} = \{ B(p, \epsilon) : p \in D, \epsilon \in \mathbb{Q}^+ \}
         Prove: \mathcal{B} is a basis.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Let: U be an open set in X and p \in U
\langle 1 \rangle 5. Pick \epsilon > 0 such that B(p, \epsilon) \subseteq U
\langle 1 \rangle 6. Pick q \in B(p, \epsilon) \cap D
\langle 1 \rangle 7. PICK a rational \delta such that d(p,q) < \delta < \epsilon.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. \ B(q, \delta) \in \mathcal{B} \text{ and } B(q, \delta) \subseteq U.
```

#### 11.14**Condensation Points**

**Definition 11.55** (Condensation Point). Let X be a metric space,  $p \in X$  and  $E\subseteq X$ . Then p is a condensation point of E iff every neighbourhood of p contains uncountably many points in E.

**Proposition 11.56.** Let X be a metric space. Let  $E \subseteq X$ . Let P be the set of condensation points of E. Then P is perfect.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . P is closed.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $p \in X P$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . PICK a neighbourhood U of p that contains only countably many points
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . For every  $x \in U$ , we have that U is a neighbourhood of x that contains only countably many points of E.

```
\langle 2 \rangle 4. p \in U \subseteq X - P
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Every point in P is a limit point of P.
PROOF: Immediate from definitions.
```

**Proposition 11.57.** Let X be a metric space with a countable basis. Let  $E \subseteq X$  be uncountable. Let P be the set of condensation points of E. Then E - P is countable.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . PICK a countable basis  $\mathcal{B}$  for X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $W = \bigcup \{ B \in \mathcal{B} : E \cap B \text{ is countable} \}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ P = X W$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1. \ P \subseteq X W$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $p \in P \cap W$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . PICK  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $p \in B$  and  $E \cap B$  is countable.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ .  $E \cap B$  is uncountable.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This is a contradiction.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $X W \subseteq P$ 
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $p \in X W$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Let: *U* be a neighbourhood of *p*.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $p \in B \subseteq U$ .
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ .  $E \cap B$  is uncountable.

PROOF: Since  $p \notin W$ .

 $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ .  $E \cap W$  is uncountable.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $E P = E \cap W$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . E P is countable.

Corollary 11.57.1. Every closed subset of a metric space with a countable basis is the union of a perfect set and a countable set.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X be a metric space with a countable basis.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let: E be a closed subset of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let: P be the set of condensation points of E.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . E P is countable.

Proof: Proposition 11.57.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ .  $P \cap E$  is perfect.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ .  $P \cap E$  is closed.

Proof: Proposition 11.56.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Every point in  $P \cap E$  is a limit point of  $P \cap E$ .
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $l \in P \cap E$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Let: U be a neighbourhood of l.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $x \in P \cap U$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . *U* is a neighbourhood of *x*.

- $\langle 3 \rangle$ 5. U contains uncountably many points of E.
- $\langle 3 \rangle 6$ . *U* intersects  $P \cap E$

PROOF: It cannot be that every point in U and E is not in P since E-P is countable.

Corollary 11.57.2. Let X be a metric space with a countable basis. Then every countable set in X has an isolated point.

## Convergence

**Definition 12.1** (Converge). Let X be a metric space. Let  $(p_n)$  be a sequence in X and  $l \in X$ . Then we say  $(p_n)$  converges to the *limit* l, and write

$$p_n \to l \text{ as } n \to \infty$$
,

iff for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an integer N such that, for all  $n \geq N$ , we have  $d(p_n, l) < \epsilon$ .

We say  $(p_n)$  diverges iff it does not converge to any limit.

Proposition 12.2. A sequence has at most one limit.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $p_n \to l$  and  $p_n \to m$  as  $n \to \infty$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $l \neq m$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\epsilon = d(l,m)/2$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . There exists N such that  $\forall n \geq N. d(p_n, l) < \epsilon$  and  $d(p_n, m) < \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ d(l,m) < 2\epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This is a contradiction.

Proposition 12.3. Every convergent sequence is bounded.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $p_n \to l$  as  $n \to \infty$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK N such that  $\forall n \geq N.d(p_n, l) < 1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $M = \max(d(p_0, l), \dots, d(p_{N-1}, l), 1)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For all n, we have  $d(p_n, l) \leq M$ .

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**Proposition 12.4.** If l is a limit point of E, then there exists a sequence in E that converges to l.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , PICK a point  $a_n \in E$  such that  $d(a_n, l) < 1/n$ . PROOF: Since B(l, 1/n) intersects E.

$$\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ a_n \to l \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

**Proposition 12.5.** Assume  $s_n \to s$  and  $t_n \to t$  in  $\mathbb{C}$ . Then  $s_n + t_n \to s + t$ .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK N such that, for all  $n \geq N$ , we have  $d(s_n, s) < \epsilon/2$  and  $d(t_n, t) < \epsilon/2$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For all  $n \geq N$  we have  $d(s_n + t_n, s + t) < \epsilon$ .

**Lemma 12.6.** If  $s_n \to s$  as  $n \to \infty$  in  $\mathbb{C}$ , and  $c \in \mathbb{C}$ , then  $cs_n \to cs$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume: w.l.o.g.  $c \neq 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . PICK N such that  $\forall n \geq N . |s_n s| < \epsilon / |c|$ .

$$\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \forall n \geq N. |cs_n - cs| < \epsilon$$

**Proposition 12.7.** If  $s_n \to s$  and  $t_n \to t$  in  $\mathbb{C}$  then  $s_n t_n \to st$ .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $(s_n s)(t_n t) \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . PICK N such that, for all  $n \geq N$ , we have  $|s_n s| < \sqrt{\epsilon}$  and  $|t_n t| < \sqrt{\epsilon}$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . For all  $n \geq N$  we have  $|(s_n s)(t_n t)| < \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $s_n t_n st \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$

Proof:

$$s_n t_n - st = (s_n - s)(t_n - t) + s(t_n - t) + t(s_n - s)$$

$$\to 0 \qquad \text{as } n \to \infty$$

**Proposition 12.8.** If  $s_n \to s$  as  $n \to \infty$  in  $\mathbb{C}$ , and every  $s_n$  and s is nonzero, then  $1/s_n \to 1/s$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

PROOF

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . PICK m such that, for all  $n \geq m$ , we have  $|s_n s| < \frac{1}{2}|s|$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\forall n \geq m . |s_n| > \frac{1}{2} |s|$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 4. PICK N > m such that, for all  $n \geq N$ , we have

$$|s_n - s| < \frac{1}{2}|s|^2 \epsilon .$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . For all  $n \geq N$ , we have

$$\left| \frac{1}{s_n} - \frac{1}{s} \right| < \epsilon \ .$$

Proof:

$$\left| \frac{1}{s_n} - \frac{1}{s} \right| = \frac{|s_n - s|}{|s_n||s|}$$

$$< \frac{|s|^2 \epsilon}{2|s_n||s|}$$

$$= \frac{|s|\epsilon}{2|s_n|}$$

$$< \epsilon$$

**Theorem 12.9.** Let  $(\vec{x_n})$  be a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  and  $\vec{l} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ . Then  $\vec{x_n} \to \vec{l}$  as  $n \to \infty$  iff, for i = 1, ..., k, we have  $\pi_i(\vec{x_n}) \to \pi_i(\vec{l})$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If  $\vec{x_n} \to \vec{l}$  then  $\pi_i(\vec{x_n}) \to \pi_i(l)$ .

$$\langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \|\vec{x_n} - \vec{l}\| \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 2. \quad \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{k} (\pi_i(\vec{x_n}) - \pi_i(l))^2} \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 3. \quad \sum_{i=1}^{k} (\pi_i(\vec{x_n}) - \pi_i(l))^2 \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 4. \quad (\pi_i(\vec{x_n}) - \pi_i(l))^2 \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 3. \sum_{i=1}^{k} (\pi_i(\vec{x_n}) - \pi_i(l))^2 \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ (\pi_i(\vec{x_n}) - \pi_i(l))^2 \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

$$\langle 2 \rangle 5$$
.  $\pi_i(\vec{x_n}) - \pi_i(l) \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

$$\langle 1 \rangle 2$$
. If  $\pi_i(\vec{x_n}) \to \pi_i(\vec{l})$  for every  $i$  then  $\vec{x_n} \to l$ .

$$\langle 2 \rangle 1$$
. Assume:  $\pi_i(\vec{x_n}) \to \pi_i(\vec{l})$  for every  $i$ .

$$\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ \vec{x_n} \rightarrow \vec{l}$$

Proof:

$$\|\vec{x_n} - \vec{l}\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k (\pi_i(\vec{x_n}) - \pi_i(\vec{l}))^2$$

$$\to 0$$

Corollary 12.9.1. If  $\vec{x_n} \to \vec{x}$  and  $\vec{y_n} \to \vec{y}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , then  $\vec{x_n} + \vec{y_n} \to \vec{x} + \vec{y}$ .

**Proposition 12.10.** If  $\vec{x_n} \to \vec{x}$  and  $\vec{y_n} \to \vec{y}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , then  $\vec{x_n} \cdot \vec{y_n} \to \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$ .

$$\vec{x_n} \cdot \vec{y_n} = \sum_{i=1}^k \pi_i(\vec{x_n}) \pi_i(\vec{y_n})$$

$$\to \sum_{i=1}^k \pi_i(\vec{x}) \pi_i(\vec{y})$$

$$= \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$$

# Part III More Algebra

# Lie Groups

**Definition 13.1** (Lie Group). A *Lie group* G is a group G that is also an analytic differentiable manifold such that the group operation and inverse operation are analytic.

A  $homomorphism\ of\ Lie\ groups$  is a group homomorphism that is an analytic function.

Lemma 13.2. Every bijective Lie group homomorphism is an isomorphism.

**Definition 13.3** (Unitary Group). The *unitary group* U(n) is the Lie group of all  $n \times n$  unitary matrices.

**Definition 13.4** (Special Unitary Group). The *special unitary group* SU(n) is the Lie group of all  $n \times n$  unitary matrices with determinant 1.

**Definition 13.5** (Lie Subgroup). Let G be a Lie group. A *Lie subgroup* of G is a subgroup that is also an analytic submanifold of G.

**Example 13.6.** U(n) and SU(n) are Lie subgroups of  $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ .