Lectures Notes from Pure Maths by Steve Warner

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Introduction

This book is an introduction to undergraduate pure mathematics. This books contains 16 chapters with exercices ranging from different levels:

- 1. Lesson 1 Logic: Statements and Truth
- 2. Lesson 2 Set Theory: Sets and Subsets
- 3. Lesson 3 Abstract Algebra: Semigroups, Monoids and Groups
- 4. Lesson 4 Number Theory: The Ting of Integers
- 5. Lesson 5 Real Analysis: The Complete Ordered Field of Reals
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- 7. Lesson 7 Complex Analysis: The Field of Complex Numbers
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- 13. Lesson 13 Real Analysis: Limits and Continuity
- 14. Lesson 14 Topology: Spaces and Homeomorphisms
- 15. Lesson 15 Complex Analysis: Complex Valued Functions
- 16. Lesson 16 Linear Algebra: Linear Transformations

1 Lesson 1 - Logic: Statements and Truth

1.1 Overview

This section introduces the notion of statements and truth tables, which is the foundation of proofs.

1.2 Statements with words

The goal of this section is to determine wether a sentence is a statement or not.

A statement or proposition is a sentence that can be true or false, but not both simultaneously. If it expresses a single idea, we say it is an atomic statement. If we want to create a statement with more than one idea, we need to connect the atomic statement using logical connectives.

1.3 Statements with symbols

In mathematics, we want to express mathematical statement in symbols since they actract away the unecessary clutter and help us focus on the form of the statement. Consequently, we need to define a set of symbol used to define the common logical connectives. The most common are:

- 1. Conjunction
- 2. Disjunction
- 3. Negation
- 4. Implication
- 5. Biconditional

1.4 Truth Table

Each logical connective is associated to a truth table, which tell us the truth value of a compound statement based on the truth value of the propositional variables. Here is the truth table for the common logical connectives:

We can also use truth table to determine if two statement are equivalent. To do so, we compare their truth table.

- 1.5 Problem Set
- 1.5.1 Level 1
- 1.5.2 Level 2
- 1.5.3 Level 3
- 1.5.4 Level 4
- 1.5.5 Level 5

2 Lesson 2 - Set Theory: Sets and Subsets

2.1 Overview

This section introduce the notion of sets, subsets, union and intersection.

2.2 Why do we care about sets

Having a good intuition on sets allows us to regroup similar element and compare them together. We can show that set contains some properties so that the elements all share those properties.

2.3 Describing Sets

Definition 2.3.1 (Set). A set is a collection of objects. The set can either be finite or infinite. We can describe the set based on a common characteristic among the elements of the set using the set builder notation. We write $\{x|P(x)\}$, where P(x) is the common characteristic.

Definition 2.3.2 (Axiom of Extensionality). Two sets are equivalent if they contain the same element, we write:

$$\forall x (x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$$

Definition 2.3.3 (Cardinality). The cardinality of an element is the number of different element in the set. For example, the set S=1,2,3 has the same cardinality as the set T=1,2,2,3

Theorem 2.3.1 (Fence-Post Formula). To count the number of integers in a set, we use the fence-post formula

$$n - m + 1$$

2.4 Subsets

Definition 2.4.1 (Subset). We say that A is a subset of B if every element of A is an element of B. We write $A \subseteq B$

$$\forall x (x \in A \to x \in B)$$

Theorem 2.4.1. Every set A is a subset of itself

$$\forall x (x \in A \to x \in A)$$

Theorem 2.4.2. The empty set is a subset of every set

$$\forall x (x \in \emptyset \to x \in A)$$

Theorem 2.4.3 (Transitivity of sets). Let A, B, C be sets such that

$$A \subseteq B, B \subseteq C.Then, A \subseteq C$$

Theorem 2.4.4. There are 2^n subsets in a set

2.5 Unions and Intersections

Definition 2.5.1 (Union). The union of the sets A and B, written $A \cup B$, is the set of elements that are in A or B (or both).

$$\forall x (x | x \in A \lor x \in B)$$

Definition 2.5.2 (Intersection). The intersection of the sets A and B, written $A \cap B$, is the set of elements that are in A and B simultaneously.

$$\forall x (x | x \in A \land x \in B)$$

Theorem 2.5.1. If A and B are sets, then $A \subseteq A \cup B$

Theorem 2.5.2. $B \subseteq A \iff A \cup B = A$

Theorem 2.5.3. $B \subseteq A \iff A \cap B = B$

Definition 2.5.3 (Reflexive). A relation R is reflexive if $\forall x(xRx)$

Definition 2.5.4 (Symmetric). A relation R is symmetric if

$$\forall x \forall y (xRy \rightarrow yRx)$$

2.6 Problem Set

- 2.6.1 Level 1
- 2.6.2 Level 2
- 2.6.3 Level 3
- 2.6.4 Level 4
- 2.6.5 Level 5

3 Lesson 3 - Abstract Algebra: Semigroups, Monoids and Groups

3.1 Overview

This section focus on the properties of semigroups, monoids and groups. It gives us an intuition on why some set behave a certain way while other don't.

To determine wether a set has certain properties, we often use a multiplication table.

3.2 Binary Operations and Closure

Definition 3.2.1 (Binary Operation). A binary operation on a set is a rule that combines two elements of the set to produce another element of the set

Definition 3.2.2 (Closed). We say that the set S is closed under the partiel binary operation * if whenever $a, b \in S$, we have $a * b \in S$

3.3 Semigroups and Associativity

Definition 3.3.1 (Associativity). Let * be a binary operation on a set. We say that * is associative in S if for all x, y, z in S, we have

$$x * (y * z) = (x * y) * z$$

Definition 3.3.2 (Semigroup). A semigroup is a pair (S, *), where S is a set and * is an associative binary operation on S

Corollary 3.3.1. If the binary operator * is not associative in S, then the pair (S, *) is not a semigroup

Definition 3.3.3 (Abelian or Commutative). Let * be a binary operation on a set. We say that * is abelian (or commutative) in S if for all x, y, z in S, we have

$$x * y = y * x$$

Definition 3.3.4 (Abelian Semigroup). An abelian semigroup is a semigroup that is commutative. Therefore, it has the following properties:

- 1. Closed
- 2. Associative
- 3. Commutative

3.4 Monoids and Identity

Definition 3.4.1 (Identity). Let (S, *) be a semigroup. An element e of S is called an identity with respect of the binary operation * if for all $a \in S$, we have a * e = e * a = a

Definition 3.4.2 (Monoid). A monoid is a semigroup with an identity. In other word, a monoid is

- 1. Closed
- 2. Associative
- 3. Identity

Theorem 3.4.1 (Unique Identity). Let (M, *) be a monoid with identity e. The identity element is unique

3.5 Groups and Inverses

Definition 3.5.1 (Inverse). Let (M, *) be a monoid with identity e. An element a of M is called invertible if there is an element $b \in M$ such that a*b = b*a = e

Definition 3.5.2 (Group). A group is a monoid in which every element is invertible. Therefore, a group follows the following properties

- 1. Closed
- 2. Associative
- 3. Identity
- 4. Inversible

Theorem 3.5.1 (Unique Inverse). Let (G, *) be a group. Each element in G has a unique inverse

3.6 Problem Set

- 3.6.1 Level 1
- 3.6.2 Level 2
- 3.6.3 Level 3
- 3.6.4 Level 4
- 3.6.5 Level 5

4 Lesson 4 - Number Theory: The Ring of Integers

4.1 Overview

The goal of this section is to familiarise ourselves with induction proofs. However, the proofs we have to prove utilize integers properties, so we have to define ring properties first.

The notion of ring utilize the concepts of closure, associativity, abelian, identity and inverses which we saw in the previous section.

We want to understand the properties of the common set \mathbb{N} , \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , as it will allow us to use those properties to work with more complex objects such as vectors or complex numbers.

4.2 Ring and Distributivity

Definition 4.2.1 (Commutative Group). A commutative group is a group that follows the following properties:

- 1. Closure
- 2. Associative
- 3. Commutative
- 4. Identity
- 5. Inverse

Lemma 4.2.1. $(\mathbb{Z},+)$ is a commutative group

Definition 4.2.2 (Commutative Monoid). A commutative monoid is a monoid that follows the following properties:

- 1. Closure
- 2. Associative
- 3. Commutative
- 4. Identity

Lemma 4.2.2. (\mathbb{Z},\cdot) is a commutative monoid

Definition 4.2.3 (Ring). A ring is a triple $(R, +, \cdot)$ where R is a set, + and \cdot are binary operations on R that satisfies:

- 1. (R, +) is commutative group
- 2. (R, \cdot) is a commutative monoid

3. Multiplication is distributive over addition in R. That is, for all $x,y,z \in R$, we have

$$x \cdot (y+z) = x \cdot y + x \cdot z$$
 and $(y+z) \cdot x = y \cdot x + z \cdot x$

It should be noted that the properties that define a ring are called the ring axioms

Lemma 4.2.3. $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ is a commutative ring

Lemma 4.2.4. $(\mathbb{N}, +, \cdot)$ is a ring because $(\mathbb{N}, +)$ is not a group. We say it is a semiring

4.3 Divisibility

Definition 4.3.1 (Even). An integer a is called even if there is another integer b such that a = 2b

Definition 4.3.2 (Odd). An integer a is called odd if there is another integer b such that a = 2b + 1

Definition 4.3.3 (Sum). We define the sum of integers a and b to be a + b

Definition 4.3.4 (Product). We define the product of integers a and b to be a \cdot b

Theorem 4.3.1. The sum of two even integer is even

Theorem 4.3.2. The product of two integers that are each divisible by k is also divisible by k

4.4 Induction

Definition 4.4.1 (Well Ordering Principle). The Well Ordering Principle says that every nonempty subset of natural numbers has a least element

Theorem 4.4.1 (Principle of Mathematical Induction). Let S be a set of natural numbers such that

- 1. $0 \in S$
- 2. for all $k \in \mathbb{N}, k \in S \to k+1$. Then, $S = \mathbb{N}$

Lemma 4.4.2 (Standard Advanced Calculus Trick). We can add and substract the same quantities without changing the result

- 4.5 Problem Set
- 4.5.1 Level 1
- 4.5.2 Level 2
- 4.5.3 Level 3
- 4.5.4 Level 4
- 4.5.5 Level 5

5 Lesson 5 - Real Analysis: The Complete Ordered Field of Reals

5.1 Overview

The goal of this section is to define the set of numbers. We are introduced $(Q, +, \cdot)$ which is an ordered field, but we are shown that we can't generate all the numbers with that set. We need the irrational numbers.

5.2 Field

Definition 5.2.1 (Field). A field is a triple $(F, +, \cdot)$, where F is a set and + and \cdot are binary operations on F satisfying:

- 1. (F, +) is a commutative group
- 2. (F, \cdot) is a commutative group
- 3. Multiplication is distributive over addition in F. That is, for all $x,y,z \in F$, we have

$$x \cdot (y+z) = x \cdot y + x \cdot z$$
 and $(y+z) \cdot x = y \cdot x + z \cdot x$

4. $0 \neq 1$

The properties that define a field are called the field axioms

Lemma 5.2.1 (Set of Natural Numbers). The set \mathbb{N} is the set of natural numbers and the structure $(\mathbb{N}, +, \cdot)$ is a semiring

Lemma 5.2.2 (Set of Integers). The set $\mathbb Z$ is the set of integers and the structure $(\mathbb Z\ ,\ +,\ \cdot)$ is a ring

Lemma 5.2.3 (Set of Rational Numbers). The set \mathbb{Q} is the set of rational numbers and the structure $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \cdot)$ is a field

Definition 5.2.2 (Substraction). If $a,b \in F$, we define the substraction a-b=a+(-b)

Definition 5.2.3 (Division). If $a,b \in F$ and $b \neq 0$, we define the division $a/b = ab^-1$

5.3 Ordered Rings and Fields

Definition 5.3.1 (Positive and Negative Elements). If $a \in P$, we say that a is positive and if $-a \in P$, we say that a is negative

Definition 5.3.2 (Ordered Ring). We say that a ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is ordered if there is a nonempty subset P of R, called the set of positive elements of R satisfying the following properties

- 1. if $a,b \in P$, then $a + b \in P$
- 2. if $a,b \in P$, then $ab \in P$
- 3. if $a \in P$, then exactly one of the following holds:

$$a \in P, a = 0, or - a \in P$$

Theorem 5.3.1. $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \cdot)$ is an ordered field

Theorem 5.3.2. Let (F, \leq) be an ordered field. Then, for all $x \in F^*$, $x \cdot x > 0$

Theorem 5.3.3. Every ordered field (F, \leq) contains a copy of the natural numbers.

Theorem 5.3.4. Let (F, \leq) be an ordered field and let $x \in F$ with x > 0. Then, $\frac{1}{x} > 0$

5.4 Why Isn't \mathbb{Q} Enough?

Theorem 5.4.1 (Pythagorean Theorem). In a right triangle with legs of length a and b, and a hypotenuse of length c

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2$$

Theorem 5.4.2. There does not exist a rational number a such that $a^2 = 2$

Remark. Proving a number is irrational is done by assuming the rational can be expressed as a irreductible fraction gcd(p,q)=1 and showing that the smallest divisor is not 1

5.5 Completeness

Definition 5.5.1 (Upper Bound). Let (F, \leq) be an ordered field and let S be a nonempty subset of F. We say that S is bounded above if there is $M \in F$ such that for all $s \in S$, $s \leq M$. Each number M is called an upper bound of S

Definition 5.5.2 (Lower Bound). Let (F, \leq) be an ordered field and let S be a nonempty subset of F. We say that S is bounded below if there is $K \in F$ such that for all $s \in S$, $K \leq s$. Each number K is called an lower bound of S

Definition 5.5.3 (Bounded Set). We say that S is bounded if it is bounded above and bounded below. Otherwise, we say that S is unbounded.

Definition 5.5.4 (Supremum). A least upper bound of a set S is an upper bound that is smaller than any other upper bound of S

Definition 5.5.5 (Infimum). A greatest lower bound of S is a lower bound that is larger than any other other lower bound of S

Remark. To show that the number n is a supremum/infimum, we need to show that

- 1. The set S has a upper bound/lower bound
- 2. There is no greater lower bound / lower upper bound by contradiction. We use the fact that $S ; S' \dot{\varepsilon} S' = S + \varepsilon$, where $\varepsilon ; \delta$, which contradict the fact that S' is a upper/lower bound

Definition 5.5.6 (Completeness Property). An ordered field (F, \leq) has the Completeness Property if every nonempty subset of F that is bounded above has a least upper upper bound in F. In this case, we cay that (F, \leq) is a complete ordered field.

Remark. The proof is done by contradiction. We assume that the naturals are bounded (we know that they are not because \mathbb{N} is not an ordered field?) and we prove that there is a least upper bound that is not a upper bound using the compleness property.

Corollary 5.5.1. Every nonempty set of real numbers that is bounded below has a greatest lower bound (infimum)

Theorem 5.5.1. There is exactly one complete ordered field

Theorem 5.5.2 (Archimedian Property of \mathbb{R}). For every $x \in \mathbb{R}$, thereisn $\in \mathbb{N}$ such that n > x

Corollary 5.5.2. Let x < y. There exist $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that nx > y

Remark. The Archimedian property tell us that the set of natural numbers is infinite. Therefore, if we choose any arbitrary natural, we can find another natural that can be smaller or greater than it.

Theorem 5.5.3 (Density Theorem). If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ with x < y then there is $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ with x < q < y

Remark. The Density theorem tells us that we can find a rational number between any two real numbers. Intuitively, we can think that is because there is infintly many numbers in the interval, so there must be a rational number in it.

Remark. To prove the density theorem, we want to construct a rational number with the Archimedian and the Well Ordering Principle. TODO

Corollary 5.5.3. There is a real number that is not rational between any two real numbers.

- 5.6 Problem Set
- 5.6.1 Level 1
- 5.6.2 Level 2
- 5.6.3 Level 3
- 5.6.4 Level 4
- 5.6.5 Level 5

6 Lesson 6 - Topology: The Topology of R

6.1 Overview

6.2 Intervals of Real Numbers

Definition 6.2.1 (Interval). A set I of real numbers is called an interval id any real number that lies between two numbers in I is also in I. We write:

 $\forall x, y \in I, \forall z \in \mathbb{R}, if \ x \ is \ less \ than \ z \ and \ z \ is \ less \ than \ y, \ the \ z \ is \ in \ I$

Here is a list of the other types of intervals:

- 1. Open Interval
- 2. Closed Interval
- 3. Half-open Interval
- 4. Infinite Open Interval
- 5. Infinit Closed Interval

Theorem 6.2.1. If an interval I is bounded, the there are $a,b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that one of the following holds:

$$I = (a, b), I = (a, b], or I = [a, b)$$

6.3 Operations on Sets

Definition 6.3.1 (Union). The union of the sets A and B, written $A \cup B$, is the set of elements that are in A or B (or both).

$$\forall x (x | x \in A \lor x \in B)$$

Definition 6.3.2 (Intersection). The intersection of the sets A and B, written $A \cap B$, is the set of elements that are in A and B simultaneously.

$$\forall x (x | x \in A \land x \in B)$$

Definition 6.3.3 (Difference). The difference A B is the set of elements that are in A and not in B

$$A B = x | x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B$$

Definition 6.3.4 (Symmetric Difference). The symmetric difference $A \triangle B$ is the set of elements that are in A or B, but not both

$$A\triangle B = (A \ B) \cup (B \ A)$$

Theorem 6.3.1. The operation of forming unions is associative

6.4 Open and Closed Sets

Definition 6.4.1 (Open Set). A subset X of \mathbb{R} is open if for every real number $x \in \mathbb{R}$, there is an open interval (a,b) with $x \in (a,b)$ and $(a,b) \subseteq X$

Definition 6.4.2 (Closed Set).

Theorem 6.4.1. Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ The infinite interval (a, ∞) is an open set

Theorem 6.4.2. \emptyset and \mathbb{R} are both open sets

Theorem 6.4.3. A subset X of \mathbb{R} is open if and only if for every real number $x \in X$, there is a positive real number c such that $(x - c, x + c) \subseteq X$

Theorem 6.4.4. The union of two open sets in \mathbb{R} is an open set in \mathbb{R}

Theorem 6.4.5. Let X be a set of open subsets of \mathbb{R} . Then UX is open

Theorem 6.4.6. Every open set in \mathbb{R} can be expressed as a union of bounded open intervals

Theorem 6.4.7. The intersection of two open sets in \mathbb{R} is an open set in \mathbb{R}

Theorem 6.4.8. The intersection of two closed sets in \mathbb{R} is a closed set in \mathbb{R}

6.5 Problem Set

- 6.5.1 Level 1
- 6.5.2 Level 2
- 6.5.3 Level 3
- 6.5.4 Level 4
- 6.5.5 Level 5

7 Lesson 7 - Complex Analysis: The Field of Complex Numbers

7.1 Overview

We should alway keep in mind wether we are in a field or ring when working with linear and quadratic equation.

7.2 A Limitation of the Reals

Definition 7.2.1 (Linear Equation). A linear equation has the form ax+b=0.

Definition 7.2.2 (Quadratic Equation). A quadratic equation has the form $a^2 + bx + c = 0$, where $a \neq 0$

7.3 The Complex Field

Definition 7.3.1 (Standard From of a Complex Number). The standard form of a complex number is a + bi, where a and b are real numbers. The set of complex number is $\mathbb{C} = a + bi|a, b \in \mathbb{R}$

Definition 7.3.2 (The Complex Plane). We can visualize a complex number as a point in the Complex Plane, which has a real axis (in x) and an imaginary axis (in y). The point (0,0) is called the origin

The Complex plane allow us to visualize a complex number as a vector. If z is a complex number such as z=a+bi, we call a the real part of z and b the imaginary part of z. We write $a=Re\ z$ and $b=Im\ z$

Definition 7.3.3 (Equality). Two complex numbers are equal if and only if they have the same real and imaginary part.

Definition 7.3.4 (Addition). We can add two complex numbers by adding their real and imaginary parts.

$$(a+bi) + (c+di) = (a+c) + (b+d)i$$

Definition 7.3.5 (Substraction). We can find the difference of two complex numbers by substracting their real and imaginary parts.

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

Definition 7.3.6 (Division). Let z and w be complex numbers such that $z \in \mathbb{C}$ and $w \in \mathbb{C}*$. We define the quotient $\frac{z}{w}$ by

Definition 7.3.7 (Conjugate). The conjugate of the complex number z=a+bi is the complex number $\overline{z}=a-bi$

Definition 7.3.8 (Real Number). Let z be a complex number such that z=a+bi. If b=0, then we call z a real number.

Definition 7.3.9 (Pure Imaginary Number). Let z be a complex number such that z=a+bi. If a=0, then we call z a pure imaginary number

Theorem 7.3.1. $i^2 = -1$

Theorem 7.3.2. $(\mathbb{C},+,\cdot)$ is a field

Corollary 7.3.1. $(\mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$ is a subfield of $(\mathbb{C}, +, \cdot)$

Theorem 7.3.3. The field of complex numbers cannot be ordered

7.4 Absolute Value and Distance

Definition 7.4.1 (Square Root). If x and y are real or complex numbers such that $y = x^2$, the we call x a square root of y. If x is a positive real number, then we say that x is the positive square root of y and we write $x = \sqrt{y}$

Definition 7.4.2 (Modulus of a Complex Number). The absolute value or the modulus of the complex number z=a+bi is the nonnegative real number

$$|z| = \sqrt{(a^2 + b^2)} = \sqrt{((Rez)^2 + (Imz)^2)}$$

Definition 7.4.3 (Distance between Complex Numbers). The distance between the complex numbers z=a+bi and w=c+di is

$$d(z, w) = |z - w| = \sqrt{((c - a)^2 + (d - b)^2)}$$

Theorem 7.4.1 (The Triangle Inequality). For all $z, w \in \mathbb{C}, |z+w| \leq |z| + |w|$

7.5 Basic Topology of \mathbb{C}

Definition 7.5.1 (Circle). A circle in the Complex Plane is the set of all points that are at a fixed distance from a fixed point. The fixed distance is called the radius of the circle and the fixed point is called the center of the circle

If a circle has radius of $r_{\dot{c}}0$ and center c=a+bi, then any point z=x+yi on the circle must satisfy |z-c|=r, or equivalently, $(x-a)^2+(y-b)^2=r^2$

Definition 7.5.2 (Open Disk). An open disk in \mathbb{C} consists of all the points in the interior of a circle. If a is the center of the open disk and r is the radius of the open disk, then any point z inside the disk satisfies |z-a| < r

Definition 7.5.3 (r-neighborhood of a). $N_r(a) = z \in \mathbb{C}||z-a| < r$ is also called the r-neighborhood of a.

Definition 7.5.4 (Diameter). In \mathbb{R} , an r-neighborhood of a is the open interval $N_r(a) = (a - r, a + r)$ The diameter of this interval is 2r

Definition 7.5.5 (Closed Disk). A closed disk is the interior of a circle together with the circle itself (boundary included). If a is the center of the closed disk and r is the radius of the closed disk, the any point z inside the closed disk satisfies $|z-a| \leq r$

Definition 7.5.6 (Punctured Open Disk). A punctured open sidk consists of all the points in the interior of a circle except for the center of the circle. If a is the center of the punctured open disk and r is the radius of the open disk, then any point z inside the punctured disk satisfies |z - a| < r and $z \ne a$

Since $z \neq a$ is equivalent to $z - a \neq 0$, then it is also equivalent to $|z - a| \neq 0$. Since -z-a— must be nonnegative, then |z - a| > 0 or 0 < |z - a|.

Therfore, a puncture open disk with center a and radius r consists of all points z that satisfy 0; -z-a-jr

Definition 7.5.7 (Deleted r-neighborhood of a). $N_r^{\odot}(a) = \{z | 0 < |z - a| < r\}$ is also called a deleted r-neighborhood of a

Definition 7.5.8 (Open Subset). A subset X of \mathbb{C} is said to be open if for every complex number $z \in X$, there is an open disk D with $z \in D$ and $D \subseteq X$

Theorem 7.5.1. A subset X of \mathbb{C} is open if and only if for every complex number $w \in X$, there is a positive real number d such that $N_d(w) \subseteq X$

Theorem 7.5.2 (Closed Subset). A subset X of \mathbb{C} is said to be closed if the complement of $X \in \mathbb{C}$, noted \mathbb{C} X, is open

The complement concist of all complex numbers not in X

7.6 Problem Set

- 7.6.1 Level 1
- 7.6.2 Level 2
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8 Lesson 8 - Linear Algebra: Vector Spaces

8.1 Overview

In the previous section, we looked at three structure called fields:

- 1. \mathbb{Q} : field of rational numbers
- 2. \mathbb{R} : field of real numbers
- 3. \mathbb{C} : field of complex numbers

And we also saw that \mathbb{Q} is a subfield of \mathbb{R} , which is also a subset of \mathbb{C} . This means that every rational number is a real number and every real number is a complex number.

Understanding that \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} are fields is pretty neat, since they have two operations (addition and substraction) that satisifes closure, associativity, commutativity, identity, inverse, and distributive, which allows us to perform high school algebra on its elements.

Consequently, since vectors are also in these fields, we can apply the field properties on vectors.

8.2 Vector Spaces Over Fields

Definition 8.2.1 (Vector Space). A vector space over a field \mathbb{F} is a set V with a binary operation + on V (called addition) and an operation called scalar multiplication satisfying:

- 1. (V,+) is a commutative group
- 2. (Closure under scalar multiplication) for all $k \in \mathbb{F}$, $kv \in V$
- 3. (Scalar multiplication Identity) If 1 is the multiplicative identity \mathbb{F} and $v \in V$, then 1v=v
- 4. (Associativity of scalar multiplication) For all $j,k \in \mathbb{F}$ and $v \in V$, (jk)v=j(kv)
- 5. (Distributivity of 1 scalar over 2 vectors) For all $k \in \mathbb{F}$ and $v, w \in V$, k(v+w)=kv+kw
- 6. (Distributivity of 2 scalars over 1 vector) For all $j,k \in \mathbb{F}$ and $v \in V$, (j+k)v = jv + kv

8.3 Subspaces

Definition 8.3.1 (Subspace). Let V be a vector space over a field \mathbb{F} . A subset U of V is called subspace of V, written $U \leq V$, if it is also a vector space with respect to the same operations of addition and scalar multiplication as they were defined in V.

Theorem 8.3.1. Let V be a vector space over a field \mathbb{F} and let $U \subseteq V$. Then $U \leq V$ if and only if:

- 1. $0 \in U$
- 2. for all $v, w \in U, v + w \in U$
- 3. for all $v \in U$ and $k \in \mathbb{F}$, $kv \in U$

Theorem 8.3.2. Let V be a vector space over a field \mathbb{F} and let U and W be subspaces of V. Then $U \cap W$ is a subspace of V

8.4 Bases

Definition 8.4.1 (Linear Combination). Let V be a vector space over a field \mathbb{F} , let $v, w \in V$ and $j, k \in \mathbb{F}$. The expression jv+kw is called a linear combination of vectors v and w. We call the scalars j and k weights

Definition 8.4.2 (Span). If $v, w \in V$, where V is a vector space over a field \mathbb{F} , then the set of all linear combinations of v and w is called the span of v and w. Symbolically, we have span $v, w = jv + kw|j, k \in \mathbb{F}$

Theorem 8.4.1. Let $V = \mathbb{R}^2 = (a,b)|a,b \in \mathbb{R}$ be the vector space over \mathbb{R} with the usual definitions of addition and scalar multiplication. Then $span(1,0),(0,1) = V = \mathbb{R}^2$

Definition 8.4.3 (Linear Independence). If $v, w \in V$, where V is a vector space over a field \mathbb{F} , then we say that v and w are linearly independent if neither vector is a scalar multiple of the other one. Otherwise, we say that v and w are linearly dependent.

Theorem 8.4.2. Let V be a vector space over a field \mathbb{F} and let $v, w \in V$. Then v and w are linearly dependent if and only if there are $j, k \in \mathbb{F}$, not both 0, such that jv+kw=0

Theorem 8.4.3. Let $V = \mathbb{R}^n = \{(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n) \mid k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n \in \mathbb{R}\}$ be the vector space over \mathbb{R} with the usual definitions of addition and scalar multiplication. Then

$$span\{(1,0,0,\ldots,0),(0,1,0,\ldots,0),\ldots,(0,0,0,\ldots,1)\} = \mathbb{R}^n$$

- 8.5 Problem Set
- 8.5.1 Level 1
- 8.5.2 Level 2
- 8.5.3 Level 3
- 8.5.4 Level 4
- 8.5.5 Level 5

9 Lesson 9 - Logic: Logical Arguments

- 9.1 Overview
- 9.2 Statements and Substatements
- 9.3 Logical Equivalence

Theorem 9.3.1.

Theorem 9.3.2.

Theorem 9.3.3.

- 9.4 Validity in Sentential Logic
- 9.5 Problem Set
- 9.5.1 Level 1
- 9.5.2 Level 2
- 9.5.3 Level 3
- 9.5.4 Level 4
- 9.5.5 Level 5

10 Lesson 10 - Set Theory: Relations and Functions

- 10.1 Overview
- 10.2 Relations
- 10.3 Equivalence Relations and Partitions
- 10.4 Orderings
- 10.5 Functions
- 10.6 Equinumerosity
- 10.7 Problem Set
- 10.7.1 Level 1
- $10.7.2\quad Level\ 2$
- 10.7.3 Level 3
- 10.7.4 Level 4
- 10.7.5 Level 5

11 Lesson 11 - Abstract Algebra: Strucutres and Homomorphisms

- 11.1 Overview
- 11.2 Problem Set
- 11.3 Structures and Substructures
- 11.4 Homomorphisms
- 11.5 Images and Kernels
- 11.6 Normal Subgroups and Ring Ideals
- 11.6.1 Level 1
- 11.6.2 Level 2
- 11.6.3 Level 3
- 11.6.4 Level 4
- 11.6.5 Level 5

12 Lesson 12 - Number Theory: Primes, GCD, and LCM

- 12.1 Overview
- 12.2 Prime Numbers
- 12.3 The Division Algorithm
- 12.4 GCD and LCM
- 12.5 Problem Set
- 12.5.1 Level 1
- 12.5.2 Level 2
- 12.5.3 Level 3
- 12.5.4 Level 4
- 12.5.5 Level 5

13 Lesson 13 - Real Analysis: Limits and Continuity

- 13.1 Overview
- 13.2 Strips and Rectangles
- 13.3 Limits and Continuity
- 13.4 Equivalent Definitions of Limits and Continuity
- 13.5 Basic Examples
- 13.6 Limit and Continuity Theorems
- 13.7 Limits Involving Infinity
- 13.8 One-Sided Limits
- 13.9 Problem Set
- 13.9.1 Level 1
- 13.9.2 Level 2
- 13.9.3 Level 3
- 13.9.4 Level 4
- 13.9.5 Level 5

14 Lesson 14 - Topology: Spaces and Homeomorphisms

- 14.1 Overview
- 14.2 Topological Spaces
- 14.3 Bases
- 14.4 Types of Topological Spaces
- 14.5 Continuous Functions and Homeomorphisms
- 14.6 Problem Set
- 14.6.1 Level 1
- 14.6.2 Level 2
- 14.6.3 Level 3
- 14.6.4 Level 4
- 14.6.5 Level 5

15 Lesson 15 - Complex Analysis: Complex Valued Functions

- 15.1 Overview
- 15.2 The Unit Circle
- 15.3 Exponential Form of a Complex Number
- 15.4 Functions of a Complex Variable
- 15.5 Limits and Continuity
- 15.6 The Reimann Sphere
- 15.7 Problem Set
- 15.7.1 Level 1
- 15.7.2 Level 2
- 15.7.3 Level 3
- 15.7.4 Level 4
- 15.7.5 Level 5

16 Lesson 16 - Linear Algebra: Linear Transformations

- 16.1 Overview
- 16.2 Linear Transformations
- 16.3 Matrices
- 16.4 The Matric of a Linear Transformation
- 16.5 Images and Kernels
- 16.6 Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors
- 16.7 Problem Set
- 16.7.1 Level 1
- 16.7.2 Level 2
- 16.7.3 Level 3
- 16.7.4 Level 4
- 16.7.5 Level 5