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Some Basic Notation.

(a) Numbers.

N natural numbers (also N₀): odd/even numbers prime numbers; prime factor; decomposition in prime factors zero, one, two, three, ...
0, 1, 2, 3, ..., 9: digits, numerals, ciphers, figures zero = null = naught = "oh" = love q divides p; divisor; n! = n · (n − 1) · · · · 2 · 1 "n-factorial" (ⁿ_k) = ^{n!}/_{k!(n-k)!} "n choose k" n², n³, n^k: "n-square",
ℤ integer numbers:

positive and negative numbers; absolute value

• \mathbb{Q} rational numbers:

fraction p/q with $p \in \mathbb{Z}, q \in \mathbb{N}$. "p over q"

• \mathbb{R} real numbers:

decimal places, ...

square root of x for $x \ge 0$.

binary representation of numbers

C complex numbers:
i imaginary unit
z = x + iy, real and imaginary part,
conjugate of z: z̄ = x - iy, "z-bar"
absolute value of z, |z| = √zz̄, "modulus of z", "mod z"
polar representation z = re^{iθ}
Q, R, and C are *fields*.
x + y, x², x³, x⁴ "x to the 4-th," or "x to the power 4."

Prime Number Theorem. [W. Rudin, Functional Analysis]

For any positive number x, let $\pi(x)$ denote the number of primes p that satisfy $p \leq x$. Then

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\pi(x) \log x}{x} = 1$$

Loosely speaking, this means that $\pi(x)$ behaves asymptotically like $\frac{x}{\log x}$. In this form, the Prime Number Theorem was first proved (independently) by Hadamard and de la Vallée-Poussin in 1896.

It is considerably simpler to show that there are infinitely many primes. This was already known to the Greeks.

(b) Sets.

Let X be a set.

 $x \in X$: "x element of X," or "x in X;"

 $x \notin X$: "x not an element of X."

 $\forall x \in X$: "for all $x \in X$...", "for any $x \in X$..."

 $\exists x \in X$: "there exists $x \in X$ such that ..."

 $A \subset X$: "A subset of X" or "A is contained in X."

For $A, B \subset X$ we define

$$A \setminus B := \{ x \in A; x \notin B \}.$$

 $\{\ldots\}$: curly brackets, braces

The set of ordered pairs (x, y) with $x \in X, y \in Y$ is called the *Cartesian product* and denoted as

$$X \times Y := \{(x, y); x \in X, y \in Y\};$$

here we may define the pair (x, y) as $\{x, \{y\}\}$ or as $\{x, \{x, y\}\}$, etc.

• Now let X be a topological space (e.g., a metric space). We then have

$$M \subset X$$
 closed $\iff X \setminus M$ open.

For an arbitrary subset $M \subset X$ we define \overline{M} , the closure of M, as the smallest closed subset of X containing M, i.e.,

$$\overline{M} = \bigcap_{\substack{X \supset N \supset M \\ X \setminus N \text{ open}}} N.$$

• (c) Functions.

Let X, Y be sets. We write

 $f: X \to Y,$

$$x \mapsto f(x)$$

to denote a function (or a mapping) from X to Y. (The function f associates to each $x \in X$ precisely one value $y = f(x) \in Y$.) For $A \subset X$ we write

$$f(A) := \{f(x); x \in A\} \subset Y,$$

and for $B \subset Y$,

$$f^{-1}(B) := \{x \in X; f(x) \in B\} \subset X;$$

f(X) is called the *range* or the *image* of f,

$$\operatorname{Ran}(f) = \{f(x); x \in X\} = f(X) \subset Y.$$

f is called *surjective* or *onto* $:\iff f(X) = Y;$ f is called *injective* or *one-to-one* $:\iff (f(x) = f(y) \Leftrightarrow x = y);$ f is called *bijective* $:\iff f$ injective and surjective. The *restriction* of $f: X \to Y$ to $A \subset X$ is denoted as $f \upharpoonright_A$. Let $A \subset X$. Then χ_A denotes the *characteristic function of* A,

$$\chi_A(x) := \begin{cases} 1, & x \in A \\ 0, & x \notin A. \end{cases}$$

Let X, Y be topological spaces. A mapping $f : X \to Y$ is called *continuous*, if it enjoys the following property:

 $V \subset Y$ offen $\Rightarrow f^{-1}(V) \subset X$ offen.

• (d) Relations.

Definition. Let X be a set. A relation of X is a subset \mathcal{R} of $X \times X$. For $(x, y) \in \mathcal{R}$ we say that x is in \mathcal{R} -relation to y and write $x\mathcal{R}y$.

Definition. A relation $\mathcal{R} \subset X \times X$ is called an *equivalence relation*, provided it has the following properties:

- (i) \mathcal{R} is reflexive (i.e., $\forall x \in X : x\mathcal{R}x$);
- (ii) \mathcal{R} is symmetric (i.e., $x\mathcal{R}y$ implies $y\mathcal{R}x$);
- (iii) \mathcal{R} is transitive (i.e., $x\mathcal{R}y$ and $y\mathcal{R}z$ implies $x\mathcal{R}z$).

For $x \in X$ and \mathcal{R} an equivalence relation the set of all $y \in X$ satisfying $y\mathcal{R}x$ is called the *equivalence class of* x,

$$[x] := \{ y \in X; y\mathcal{R}x \}.$$

[...] square brackets

or

Theorem. Let X be a set and let \mathcal{R} be an equivalence relation on X. We then have: Any $x \in X$ belongs to precisely one equivalence class; in other words: \mathcal{R} leads to a decomposition of X into pairwise disjoint equivalence classes.

Instead of \mathcal{R} one frequently uses the notation \sim . The set of equivalence classes is written X/\mathcal{R} .

0.4. Examples.

(1) Let $X := \mathbb{Z}$ and define

 $x\mathcal{R}y :\iff x-y \in 3\mathbb{Z}.$

Then X is decomposed into the three equivalence classes

$$[0] = \{\dots, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots\}, [1] = \{\dots, -5, -2, 1, 4, 7, \dots\}, [2] = \{\dots, -4, -1, 2, 5, 8, \dots\}$$

(2) The real projective line.

Let $X := \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \setminus \{(0,0)\}$. We define a relation \mathcal{R} on X by

$$x\mathcal{R}y :\iff \exists \alpha \in \mathbb{R} : x = \alpha y,$$

where $x = (x_1, x_2)$ and $y = (y_1, y_2)$. The corresponding equivalence classes can be visualized as straight lines through the origin (0, 0) vorstellen (omitting the point (0, 0)).

(3) Cauchy sequences of rational numbers.

A sequence $(\alpha_n) \subset \mathbb{Q}$ is called a *Cauchy sequence* if the following holds:

 $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \ \exists N_{\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{N}, \ \forall n, m \ge N_{\varepsilon} : \ |\alpha_n - \alpha_m| < \varepsilon.$

Let us denote the set of all Cauchy sequences in \mathbb{Q} by $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{Q})$. We introduce a relation \mathcal{R} on $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{Q})$ in the following way:

$$a\mathcal{R}b :\iff \lim_{n \to \infty} (\alpha_n - \beta_n) = 0,$$

where $a = (\alpha_n)$ and $b = (\beta_n)$.

Lemma. \mathcal{R} is an equivalence relation. (easy to prove)

Remark. The set of equivalence classes in $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{Q})$ is nothing else but the set of real numbers (including the distance metric of \mathbb{R}),

$$\mathbb{R} := \mathcal{C}(\mathbb{Q})/\mathcal{R}.$$

Elementary Geometric Notation.

point; line or straight line; line segment; circle; ellipse; hyperbola;

intersection of ...;

curve (but: line integral); arc, path; arcwise connected set; path integral (Brownian path)

sphere; ball;

ellipsoid; paraboloid; hyperboloid;

• Triangles: angles, sides, vertices; right angle; area; circumference; hypotenuse; equilateral triangle; isosceles triangle; right triangle; (?) perpendicular to; parallel lines; distance; Pythagorean Theorem;

• Euclid's Axioms; parallel axiom: two lines intersect unless they are parallel.

Some basic notions in numerical analysis.

absolute error accelerated steepest descent adaptive scheme algorithm approximation band matrix base basis B spline Cauchy-Schwarz inequality convex function definite integral dice problem differential equation discretization method divided differences

dot product double precision elimination error exponential series extrapolation fixed point fractional part fundamental theorem of calculus Gaussian quadrature formulas geometric series gradient vector Hessian matrix implicit method indefinite integrals integer part interpolation inverse interative methods knots least squares level sets linearization locating roots of an equation loss of precision machine number mantissa minimization of functions Monte Carlo methods multiplicity of zeros natural cubic spline Newton algorithm for polynomial interpolation nonlinear problems numerical differentiation/integration odd function (even function) ordering order of convergence orthogonal

partial differential equation partition periodic function pivoting point of attraction positive definite matrix quadrature random number generator recurrence relation relative error remainder roots of an equation saddlepoint secant shooting method simplex method simple zero single precision smoothing of data to solve, solution sparse system splines spurious zeros stability standard deviation stationary point steepest descent stiff differential equation support of a function tables Taylor series three-term recurrence relation trapezoid rule transpose (of a matrix) truncation error unconstrained minimization uniform spacing upper triangular matrix

variable variance vertex vibrating string weight function Notice, note that recall that we emphasize that it is important/crucial to note that we make the following observation our proof uses the following basic idea we extend the above result to a more general context we are mostly concerned with the following problem More precisely roughly speaking Let $\varepsilon > 0$ Suppose we are given a continuous function Assume for a contradiction We then have ... Then the following holds: Then the following properties are equivalent shortly: in Kürze, bald (auf die Zeit bezogen) in short, briefly, in brief: kurz, zusammengefaßt combining eqns. (*) and (**) we obtain now it follows from eqn. (*) that we conclude from eqn. (*) and Lemma xy that Since A enjoys the property xy, we may assume that we may now simplify the integral on the RHS Let us consider the following ... we may deduce xxx from yyy we may infer from xxx that yyy is true this leads to a contradiction since this concludes the proof this gives the desired result let H_0 denote the associated ... the relevant equations are given by we study the properties of so that the result of xxx can be applied in the present situation

• In a proof, there is quite a number of possibilities to express that something is the logical consequence of the preceding line or equation: thus; hence; therefore; so that; from which we deduce; whence; this implies that; it now follows that; we therefore see that; from which we obtain ... we conclude that we finally obtain that which is proved by using (1.10) and (1.11)Since ... we see that ... If ... we deduce that ... • In a proof, we may have to define new objects: If we set; we put; we let; let • we have; we observe; the following holds; we also have; in addition, we have ... the statement follows from the fact that ...

 \land wedge \oplus direct sum \otimes tensor product ∫ integral \bar{g} "g-bar" \hat{g} "g-hat" \tilde{g} "g-tilda", "g-twiddle" (Brit.) \vec{a} vector a # sharp f^* "f-star" f * g "convol'ution product" Δ Laplacian ∇ gradient $\nabla \cdot$ divergence $\nabla \times$ curl (Rotation) \circ circle † dagger \exists there exists \forall for all \hbar h-bar, Plancksches Wirkungsquantum \aleph, \aleph_0 Aleph, Aleph-naught \rightarrow arrow \iff if and only if ∞ inifinity \wedge, \vee, \neg logical and, logical or, negation \mapsto maps to \pm plus-minus \notin not in ∂ partial \perp perpendicular f' f-prime, f'' f-double-prime $\sqrt[5]{1+x^2}$ 5-th root of ... $\sqrt{2}$ square root of 2 # \sim similar sin, sinh sine, hyperbolic sine * star, asterisque \triangle triangle, symmetric difference

 \uparrow,\downarrow up-arrow, down-arrow

• Let $(x_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence and let A be a proposition.

We say "the statement $A(x_k)$ is *frequently* true iff for any $K \in \mathbb{N}$ there is some k > K such that $A(x_k)$ is true.

We say "the statement $A(x_k)$ is *eventually* true iff there exists $K \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $A(x_k)$ is true for all $k \geq K$.

Achtung: "eventually" heißt auf Deutsch nicht "eventuell" oder "gelegentlich", sondern schließlich.

 x_0 x-naught