

# Non-standard Analysis: Calculus of Infinitesimals

Matthew Bond, <http://bondmatt.wordpress.com>

Michigan State University

April 3, 2011

# Brief history of Calculus

Leibniz and Newton used infinitesimals. (17th century)

# Brief history of Calculus

Leibniz and Newton used infinitesimals. (17th century)  
It worked.

# Brief history of Calculus

Leibniz and Newton used infinitesimals. (17th century)  
It worked... even though they (unfortunately) had no idea what they were talking about.

# Brief history of Calculus

Leibniz and Newton used infinitesimals. (17th century)

It worked... even though they (unfortunately) had no idea what they were talking about. George Berkeley pushes this latter point strongly.

# Brief history of Calculus

Leibniz and Newton used infinitesimals. (17th century)

It worked... even though they (unfortunately) had no idea what they were talking about. George Berkeley pushes this latter point strongly. “Ghosts of departed quantities”?

# Brief history of Calculus

Leibniz and Newton used infinitesimals. (17th century)

It worked... even though they (unfortunately) had no idea what they were talking about. George Berkeley pushes this latter point strongly. “Ghosts of departed quantities”?

Cauchy (vaguely) and then Weierstrass (concretely) established  $\varepsilon - \delta$  methods (19th century).

# Brief history of Calculus

Leibniz and Newton used infinitesimals. (17th century)

It worked... even though they (unfortunately) had no idea what they were talking about. George Berkeley pushes this latter point strongly. “Ghosts of departed quantities”?

Cauchy (vaguely) and then Weierstrass (concretely) established  $\varepsilon - \delta$  methods (19th century).

Infinitesimals fall into disrepute.

# Brief history of Calculus

Leibniz and Newton used infinitesimals. (17th century)

It worked... even though they (unfortunately) had no idea what they were talking about. George Berkeley pushes this latter point strongly. “Ghosts of departed quantities”?

Cauchy (vaguely) and then Weierstrass (concretely) established  $\varepsilon - \delta$  methods (19th century).

Infinitesimals fall into disrepute.

The end.

# Brief history of Calculus

Leibniz and Newton used infinitesimals. (17th century)

It worked... even though they (unfortunately) had no idea what they were talking about. George Berkeley pushes this latter point strongly. “Ghosts of departed quantities”?

Cauchy (vaguely) and then Weierstrass (concretely) established  $\varepsilon - \delta$  methods (19th century).

Infinitesimals fall into disrepute.

~~The end.~~ Abraham Robinson rigorously invents extended real number line including infinitesimals and infinities in 1960.

# How do we make numbers into more numbers?

# How do we make numbers into more numbers?

Use equivalence classes!

# How do we make numbers into more numbers?

Use equivalence classes!

**Exercise in Rudin:** Consider the rational numbers,  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

# How do we make numbers into more numbers?

Use equivalence classes!

**Exercise in Rudin:** Consider the rational numbers,  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Let  $\hat{\mathbb{Q}}$  be the set of Cauchy sequences  $(q_1, q_2, \dots)$ ,  $q_i \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

# How do we make numbers into more numbers?

Use equivalence classes!

**Exercise in Rudin:** Consider the rational numbers,  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Let  $\hat{\mathbb{Q}}$  be the set of Cauchy sequences  $(q_1, q_2, \dots)$ ,  $q_i \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

$\mathbf{q, r} \in \hat{\mathbb{Q}}$ , let  $\mathbf{q} \sim \mathbf{r}$  iff  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $|q_i - r_i| < \varepsilon$  for all  $i > N$  large enough.

# How do we make numbers into more numbers?

Use equivalence classes!

**Exercise in Rudin:** Consider the rational numbers,  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Let  $\hat{\mathbb{Q}}$  be the set of Cauchy sequences  $(q_1, q_2, \dots)$ ,  $q_i \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

$\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{r} \in \hat{\mathbb{Q}}$ , let  $\mathbf{q} \sim \mathbf{r}$  iff  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $|q_i - r_i| < \varepsilon$  for all  $i > N$  large enough.

$\mathbb{R} = \hat{\mathbb{Q}} / \sim$  is the unique complete ordered field.

# How do we make numbers into more numbers?

Use equivalence classes!

**Exercise in Rudin:** Consider the rational numbers,  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Let  $\hat{\mathbb{Q}}$  be the set of Cauchy sequences  $(q_1, q_2, \dots)$ ,  $q_i \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

$\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{r} \in \hat{\mathbb{Q}}$ , let  $\mathbf{q} \sim \mathbf{r}$  iff  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $|q_i - r_i| < \varepsilon$  for all  $i > N$  large enough.

$\mathbb{R} = \hat{\mathbb{Q}} / \sim$  is the unique complete ordered field.  $q \rightarrow (q, q, q, q, \dots)$  is an (isometric) injection  $\mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

# How do we make numbers into more numbers?

Use equivalence classes!

**Foundation of non-standard analysis:** Consider the **real** numbers,  $\mathbb{R}$ . Let  $\hat{\mathbb{R}}$  be the set of **Cauchy all** sequences  $(r_1, r_2, \dots)$ ,  $r_i \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Define some other equivalence relation  $\sim$ .

$\mathcal{R} = \hat{\mathbb{R}} / \sim$  is ~~the unique complete ordered field~~  $\mathcal{R}$  the field of so-called **hyperreal numbers**.  $x \rightarrow (x, x, x, x, \dots)$  is an (isometric\*) injection  $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ .

\*:  $\mathcal{R}$  isn't a metric space in the sense of there being a **real-valued** metric on it.

# What kind of equivalence relation?

Natural operations on  $\hat{\mathbb{R}}$  :

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) \cdot (y_1, y_2, y_3, \dots) = (x_1 y_1, x_2 y_2, x_3 y_3, \dots)$$

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) + (y_1, y_2, y_3, \dots) = (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, x_3 + y_3, \dots)$$

We want  $\mathcal{R}$  to be a field. Consider:

$$(0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, \dots) \cdot (1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0) = \mathbf{0}.$$

One of the left-hand terms must be  $\sim \mathbf{0}$ .

# Filter axioms - “large subsets” of $\mathbb{N}$

$\mathbf{x} \sim \mathbf{y}$  iff  $\{n \in \mathbb{N} : x_n = y_n\} \in \mathcal{F}$ , where  $\mathcal{F}$  is a special “filter” on  $\mathbb{N}$ .

Let  $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$  be a **filter** on  $X$  if:

- 1)  $\emptyset \notin \mathcal{F}$
- 2)  $A, B \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathcal{F}$
- 3)  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $B \supseteq A \Rightarrow B \in \mathcal{F}$
- 4)  $\mathcal{F}$  is **free** if  $\mathcal{F} \neq \{A : x_0 \in A\}$
- 5)  $\mathcal{F}$  is an **ultrafilter** if  $\forall A \in \mathcal{P}(X), A \in \mathcal{F}$  or  $A^c \in \mathcal{F}$ .

# Filter axioms - “large subsets” of $\mathbb{N}$

$\mathbf{x} \sim \mathbf{y}$  iff  $\{n \in \mathbb{N} : x_n = y_n \in \mathcal{F}\}$ , where  $\mathcal{F}$  is a special “filter” on  $\mathbb{N}$ .

Let  $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$  be a **filter** on  $X$  if:

1)  $\emptyset \notin \mathcal{F}$

2)  $A, B \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathcal{F}$

3)  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $B \supseteq A \Rightarrow B \in \mathcal{F}$  **1-3 define an equivalence relation on  $\hat{\mathbb{R}}$ .**

4)  $\mathcal{F}$  is **free** if  $\mathcal{F} \neq \{A : x_0 \in A\}$  **Implies that  $\mathcal{R} \neq \mathbb{R}$**

5)  $\mathcal{F}$  is an **ultrafilter** if  $\forall A \in \mathcal{P}(X), A \in \mathcal{F}$  or  $A^c \in \mathcal{F}$ . **Implies that  $<, >, =$  trichotomy extends naturally to  $\mathcal{R}$ .**

# Free ultrafilters - they exist?

Fréchet filter:  $\mathcal{F}_r := \{A : A^c \text{ is finite}\}$  (NOT an ultrafilter;  $\mathcal{R}$  won't have trichotomy)

# Free ultrafilters - they exist?

Fréchet filter:  $\mathcal{F}_r := \{A : A^c \text{ is finite}\}$  (NOT an ultrafilter;  $\mathcal{R}$  won't have trichotomy)

Principal filter:  $\mathcal{F}_{x_0} := \{A : x_0 \in A\}$  (Trivial; get  $\mathcal{R} = \mathbb{R}$ ).

# Free ultrafilters - they exist?

Fréchet filter:  $\mathcal{F}_r := \{A : A^c \text{ is finite}\}$  (NOT an ultrafilter;  $\mathcal{R}$  won't have trichotomy)

Principal filter:  $\mathcal{F}_{x_0} := \{A : x_0 \in A\}$  (Trivial; get  $\mathcal{R} = \mathbb{R}$ ).

**Free ultrafilter**  $\mathcal{F}$ : Exists via Zorn's Lemma construction.

# Free ultrafilters - they exist?

Fréchet filter:  $\mathcal{F}_r := \{A : A^c \text{ is finite}\}$  (NOT an ultrafilter;  $\mathcal{R}$  won't have trichotomy)

Principal filter:  $\mathcal{F}_{x_0} := \{A : x_0 \in A\}$  (Trivial; get  $\mathcal{R} = \mathbb{R}$ ).

**Free ultrafilter**  $\mathcal{F}$ : Exists via Zorn's Lemma construction.  $\mathcal{F} \supset \mathcal{F}_r$ .

# Free ultrafilters - they exist?

Fréchet filter:  $\mathcal{F}_r := \{A : A^c \text{ is finite}\}$  (NOT an ultrafilter;  $\mathcal{R}$  won't have trichotomy)

Principal filter:  $\mathcal{F}_{x_0} := \{A : x_0 \in A\}$  (Trivial; get  $\mathcal{R} = \mathbb{R}$ ).

**Free ultrafilter**  $\mathcal{F}$ : Exists via Zorn's Lemma construction.  $\mathcal{F} \supset \mathcal{F}_r$ . Maximize  $\mathcal{F}$ .

PSYCHIC ON THE LONDON CHARIVARI—OCTOBER 8, 1936.

*Why settle for STANDARD?*

*When the Choice is mine, I go with  
Robinson Free Ultrafilters.*



Analysts agree...  
*More robust than  
Fréchet Filters*

# Now we're in business!

For example,  $\omega = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots)/ \sim = [n]_{\mathcal{F}}$  is an “infinite number” while  $1/\omega := (1, 1/2, 1/3, 1/4, \dots) = [1/n]_{\mathcal{F}} = \varepsilon$  is an “infinitesimal.”  $\omega \cdot \varepsilon = (1, 1, 1, 1, \dots) = [1]_{\mathcal{F}}$ .

# Now we're in business!

For example,  $\omega = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots)/ \sim = [n]_{\mathcal{F}}$  is an “infinite number” while  $1/\omega := (1, 1/2, 1/3, 1/4, \dots) = [1/n]_{\mathcal{F}} = \varepsilon$  is an “infinitesimal.”  $\omega \cdot \varepsilon = (1, 1, 1, 1, \dots) = [1]_{\mathcal{F}}$ .

For  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $*x := (x, x, x, x, x, \dots)/ \sim = [x]_{\mathcal{F}}$ .  $\mathbb{R}_* := \{ *x : x \in \mathbb{R} \}$

# Now we're in business!

For example,  $\omega = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots)/ \sim = [n]_{\mathcal{F}}$  is an “infinite number” while  $1/\omega := (1, 1/2, 1/3, 1/4, \dots) = [1/n]_{\mathcal{F}} = \varepsilon$  is an “infinitesimal.”  $\omega \cdot \varepsilon = (1, 1, 1, 1, \dots) = [1]_{\mathcal{F}}$ .

For  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  ${}^*x := (x, x, x, x, x, \dots)/ \sim = [x]_{\mathcal{F}}$ .  $\mathbb{R}_* := \{{}^*x : x \in \mathbb{R}\}$   
 $\omega > x$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}_*$ .  $\varepsilon < |x| \forall x \neq 0 \in \mathbb{R}_*$ .

# Now we're in business!

For example,  $\omega = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots)/ \sim = [n]_{\mathcal{F}}$  is an “infinite number” while  $1/\omega := (1, 1/2, 1/3, 1/4, \dots) = [1/n]_{\mathcal{F}} = \varepsilon$  is an “infinitesimal.”  $\omega \cdot \varepsilon = (1, 1, 1, 1, \dots) = [1]_{\mathcal{F}}$ .

For  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $*x := (x, x, x, x, x, \dots)/ \sim = [x]_{\mathcal{F}}$ .  $\mathbb{R}_* := \{ *x : x \in \mathbb{R} \}$   
 $\omega > x$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}_*$ .  $\varepsilon < |x| \forall x \neq 0 \in \mathbb{R}_*$ .

These properties define “infinite” and “infinitesimal.”

# Extended functions and such

For  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $*f : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  is defined by  
 $*f(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) := (f(x_1), f(x_2), f(x_3), \dots)$ .

# Extended functions and such

For  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $*f : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  is defined by

$$*f(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) := (f(x_1), f(x_2), f(x_3), \dots).$$

Let  $I$  be the set of infinitesimals. Say  $x \equiv y$  iff  $x - y \in I$ .

# Extended functions and such

For  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $*f : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  is defined by

$$*f(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) := (f(x_1), f(x_2), f(x_3), \dots).$$

Let  $I$  be the set of infinitesimals. Say  $x \equiv y$  iff  $x - y \in I$ .

If  $[(x, x, x, x, x, \dots)] \equiv y$ , call  $x$  the **standard part** of  $y$ ,  $st(y)$ .

# Extended functions and such

For  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $*f : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  is defined by

$$*f(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) := (f(x_1), f(x_2), f(x_3), \dots).$$

Let  $I$  be the set of infinitesimals. Say  $x \equiv y$  iff  $x - y \in I$ .

If  $[(x, x, x, x, x, \dots)] \equiv y$ , call  $x$  the **standard part** of  $y$ ,  $st(y)$ .

e.g.,  $st(1, 1/2, 1/3, 1/4, 1/5, \dots) = 0$ .

# Get out your NSA decoder ring!



# Get out your NSA decoder ring!



Our favorite notions from undergraduate analysis have equivalent  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  formulations.

Our favorite notions from undergraduate analysis have equivalent  $\ast f$  formulations.

Assume  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

Our favorite notions from undergraduate analysis have equivalent  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  formulations.

Assume  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  **iff**  $\forall \epsilon \in I \setminus \{0\}, \epsilon f(a + \delta) \equiv L$ .

# Our favorite notions from undergraduate analysis have equivalent $\ast f$ formulations.

Assume  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  **iff**  $\forall \delta \in I \setminus \{0\}, \ast f(\ast a + \delta) \equiv L$ .

$f$  is continuous at  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  **iff**  $\forall \delta \in I, \ast f(\ast x + \delta) \equiv \ast f(x)$ .

# Our favorite notions from undergraduate analysis have equivalent $\ast f$ formulations.

Assume  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  **iff**  $\forall \delta \in I \setminus \{0\}, \ast f(\ast a + \delta) \equiv L$ .

$f$  is continuous at  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  **iff**  $\forall \delta \in I, \ast f(\ast x + \delta) \equiv \ast f(x)$ .

$f$  is differentiable at  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  with derivative  $f'(x)$  **iff**  $\forall \delta \in I \setminus \{0\},$   
 $\frac{\ast f(\ast x + \delta) - \ast f(x)}{\delta} \equiv \ast f'(x)$ .

# Our favorite notions from undergraduate analysis have equivalent $\ast f$ formulations.

Assume  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  **iff**  $\forall \delta \in I \setminus \{0\}$ ,  $\ast f(\ast a + \delta) \equiv L$ .

$f$  is continuous at  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  **iff**  $\forall \delta \in I$ ,  $\ast f(\ast x + \delta) \equiv \ast f(x)$ .

$f$  is differentiable at  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  with derivative  $f'(x)$  **iff**  $\forall \delta \in I \setminus \{0\}$ ,  
 $\frac{\ast f(\ast x + \delta) - \ast f(x)}{\delta} \equiv \ast f'(x)$ .

Consider “superpartitions” of  $[a, b]$ . That is,  $\hat{P} = (P_1, P_2, P_3, \dots)$ , where  $P_j$  are partitions of  $P$ .

# Riemann integration

Consider “superpartitions” of  $[a, b]$ . That is,  $\hat{P} = (P_1, P_2, P_3, \dots)$ , where  $P_j$  are partitions of  $P$ .

The (non-standard) norm of  $P$ ,  $\|P\|$ , is

$$\|P\| = [\|P_1\|, \|P_2\|, \|P_3\|, \dots]_{\mathcal{F}}$$

# Riemann integration

Consider “superpartitions” of  $[a, b]$ . That is,  $\hat{P} = (P_1, P_2, P_3, \dots)$ , where  $P_j$  are partitions of  $P$ .

The (non-standard) norm of  $P$ ,  $\|P\|$ , is

$$\|P\| = [\|P_1\|, \|P_2\|, \|P_3\|, \dots]_{\mathcal{F}}$$

The (non-standard) upper and lower sums are

$$U_P = [U_{1,P}, U_{2,P}, \dots]_{\mathcal{F}} \text{ and } L_P = [L_{1,P}, L_{2,P}, \dots]_{\mathcal{F}}.$$

# Riemann integration

Consider “superpartitions” of  $[a, b]$ . That is,  $\hat{P} = (P_1, P_2, P_3, \dots)$ , where  $P_j$  are partitions of  $P$ .

The (non-standard) norm of  $P$ ,  $\|P\|$ , is

$$\|P\| = [\|P_1\|, \|P_2\|, \|P_3\|, \dots]_{\mathcal{F}}$$

The (non-standard) upper and lower sums are

$$U_P = [U_{1,P}, U_{2,P}, \dots]_{\mathcal{F}} \text{ and } L_P = [L_{1,P}, L_{2,P}, \dots]_{\mathcal{F}}.$$

If  $\|P\| \in I$ , then for  $f$  Riemann integrable,  $U_P \equiv L_P \equiv \int_a^b f(x) dx$

# Riemann integration

Consider “superpartitions” of  $[a, b]$ . That is,  $\hat{P} = (P_1, P_2, P_3, \dots)$ , where  $P_j$  are partitions of  $P$ .

The (non-standard) norm of  $P$ ,  $\|P\|$ , is

$$\|P\| = [\|P_1\|, \|P_2\|, \|P_3\|, \dots]_{\mathcal{F}}$$

The (non-standard) upper and lower sums are

$$U_P = [U_{1,P}, U_{2,P}, \dots]_{\mathcal{F}} \text{ and } L_P = [L_{1,P}, L_{2,P}, \dots]_{\mathcal{F}}.$$

If  $\|P\| \in I$ , then for  $f$  Riemann integrable,  $U_P \equiv L_P \equiv \int_a^b f(x)dx$

Ok, that's kind of dumb.

Halmos was kind of annoyed that he had to referee one of Robinson's papers.

# Historical interlude

Halmos was kind of annoyed that he had to referee one of Robinson's papers. Robinson proved something using NSA, and Halmos was able to translate it into a standard proof.

# Historical interlude

Halmos was kind of annoyed that he had to referee one of Robinson's papers. Robinson proved something using NSA, and Halmos was able to translate it into a standard proof... eventually.

# Best example I could find - Tychonoff product theorem

NSA is logically equivalent to standard analysis.

# Best example I could find - Tychonoff product theorem

NSA is logically equivalent to standard analysis.

NSA has Axiom of Choice built into it, so AC-dependent things might be easier to prove with NSA.

# Best example I could find - Tychonoff product theorem

NSA is logically equivalent to standard analysis.

NSA has Axiom of Choice built into it, so AC-dependent things might be easier to prove with NSA.

## Theorem

*Tychonoff product theorem: Let  $X_j, j \in J$ , be compact topological spaces. Then  $\prod_{j \in J} X_j$  is compact in the product topology.*

# Necessary background - superstructures

Let  $X$  be a set. (We will assume  $\mathbb{N} \subseteq X$ )  
 $V$  is the superstructure on  $X$  if:  
 $V_0 := X$ ,  $V_{n+1} := \mathcal{P}(V_n)$ ,  $V := \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} V_n$ .

# Necessary background - superstructures

Let  $X$  be a set. (We will assume  $\mathbb{N} \subseteq X$ )

$V$  is the superstructure on  $X$  if:

$$V_0 := X, V_{n+1} := \mathcal{P}(V_n), V := \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} V_n.$$

Can regard countable sets as ordered sets if we want via formal set theory garbage, e.g.,  $\langle a, b \rangle = \{\{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$ .

# Necessary background - superstructures

Let  $X$  be a set. (We will assume  $\mathbb{N} \subseteq X$ )

$V$  is the superstructure on  $X$  if:

$$V_0 := X, V_{n+1} := \mathcal{P}(V_n), V := \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} V_n.$$

Can regard countable sets as ordered sets if we want via formal set theory garbage, e.g.,  $\langle a, b \rangle = \{\{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$ .

Functions are sets of ordered pairs, or for more general domain/range dimensions, ordered  $n \times m$ -tuples.

# Necessary background - superstructures

Let  $X$  be a set. (We will assume  $\mathbb{N} \subseteq X$ )

$V$  is the superstructure on  $X$  if:

$$V_0 := X, V_{n+1} := \mathcal{P}(V_n), V := \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} V_n.$$

Can regard countable sets as ordered sets if we want via formal set theory garbage, e.g.,  $\langle a, b \rangle = \{\{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$ .

Functions are sets of ordered pairs, or for more general domain/range dimensions, ordered  $n \times m$ -tuples.(whatever)

# Necessary background - superstructures

Let  $X$  be a set. (We will assume  $\mathbb{N} \subseteq X$ )

$V$  is the superstructure on  $X$  if:

$$V_0 := X, V_{n+1} := \mathcal{P}(V_n), V := \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} V_n.$$

Can regard countable sets as ordered sets if we want via formal set theory garbage, e.g.,  $\langle a, b \rangle = \{\{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$ .

Functions are sets of ordered pairs, or for more general domain/range dimensions, ordered  $n \times m$ -tuples. (whatever)

$\langle a, b, c, d, e \rangle \in F$  means  $F\langle a, b, c \rangle = \langle d, e \rangle$

Want: \*-transform,  $* : V(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow V(\mathcal{R})$ .

# Necessary background - superstructures

Let  $X$  be a set. (We will assume  $\mathbb{N} \subseteq X$ )

$V$  is the superstructure on  $X$  if:

$$V_0 := X, V_{n+1} := \mathcal{P}(V_n), V := \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} V_n.$$

Can regard countable sets as ordered sets if we want via formal set theory garbage, e.g.,  $\langle a, b \rangle = \{\{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$ .

Functions are sets of ordered pairs, or for more general domain/range dimensions, ordered  $n \times m$ -tuples. (whatever)

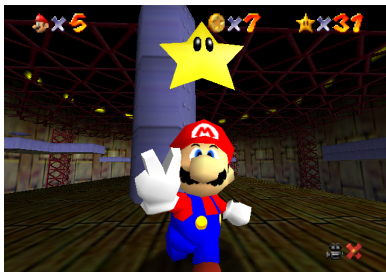
$\langle a, b, c, d, e \rangle \in F$  means  $F\langle a, b, c \rangle = \langle d, e \rangle$

Want: \*-transform,  $* : V(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow V(\mathcal{R})$ .

Will define for  $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  and  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{R})$  here.

# star transforms

# star transforms - here we go!



$$*a := [a]_{\mathcal{F}}$$

$$*a := [a]_{\mathcal{F}}$$

$$*A := \{[a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots]_{\mathcal{F}} : a_j \in A\}.$$

$$*a := [a]_{\mathcal{F}}$$

$$*A := \{[a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots]_{\mathcal{F}} : a_j \in A\}.$$

$$*\{a, b, c, d\} = \{*a, *b, *c, *d\} = \\ \{[a, a, a, \dots]_{\mathcal{F}}, [b, b, \dots]_{\mathcal{F}}, [c, c, c, \dots]_{\mathcal{F}}\}$$

$$*a := [a]_{\mathcal{F}}$$

$$*A := \{[a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots]_{\mathcal{F}} : a_j \in A\}.$$

$$*\{a, b, c, d\} = \{*a, *b, *c, *d\} = \\ \{[a, a, a, \dots]_{\mathcal{F}}, [b, b, \dots]_{\mathcal{F}}, [c, c, c, \dots]_{\mathcal{F}}\}$$

$$*\mathbb{R} = \mathcal{R} \supsetneq \mathbb{R}_*$$

$$A \subset B \Rightarrow *A \subset *B$$

$$a \in A \Rightarrow *a \in *A$$

$$*(A \cap B) = *A \cap *B$$

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

Generalizations have  $*(A \times B) = *A \times *B$ .

# Transfer Principle

A logical sentence about  $V(X)$  is equivalent to the same sentence where you replace each  $S \in V(X)$  by  $*S$ .

# Transfer Principle

A logical sentence about  $V(X)$  is equivalent to the same sentence where you replace each  $S \in V(X)$  by  $*S$ .

Standard Archimedean principle:  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R} \exists n \in \mathbb{N} : n > x$ .

# Transfer Principle

A logical sentence about  $V(X)$  is equivalent to the same sentence where you replace each  $S \in V(X)$  by  $*S$ .

Standard Archimedean principle:  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R} \exists n \in \mathbb{N} : n > x$ .

Non-standard Archimedean principle:  $\forall x \in *\mathbb{R} \exists n \in *\mathbb{N} : n > x$ .

# Transfer Principle

A logical sentence about  $V(X)$  is equivalent to the same sentence where you replace each  $S \in V(X)$  by  $*S$ .

Standard Archimedean principle:  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R} \exists n \in \mathbb{N} : n > x$ .

Non-standard Archimedean principle:  $\forall x \in * \mathbb{R} \exists n \in * \mathbb{N} : n > x$ .

NOT:  $\forall x \in * \mathbb{R} \exists n \in \mathbb{N} : n > x$ . This is FALSE.

For a topological space  $X$  and  $x \in X$ , let  $m(x)$ , the monad of  $x$ , be defined by

$$m(x) := \bigcap_U \{ *U : U \ni x, U \text{ is open} \}.$$

For a topological space  $X$  and  $x \in X$ , let  $m(x)$ , the monad of  $x$ , be defined by

$$m(x) := \bigcap_U \{ *U : U \ni x, U \text{ is open} \}.$$

$$\text{For } x \in \mathbb{R}, m(x) = \{ y \in \mathbb{R} : y \equiv x \} = \{ y \in \mathbb{R} : x - y \in I \}.$$

For a topological space  $X$  and  $x \in X$ , let  $m(x)$ , the monad of  $x$ , be defined by

$$m(x) := \bigcap_U \{ *U : U \ni x, U \text{ is open} \}.$$

$$\text{For } x \in \mathbb{R}, m(x) = \{ y \in \mathbb{R} : y \equiv x \} = \{ y \in \mathbb{R} : x - y \in I \}.$$

## More equivalence...

$A \subseteq X$  is open **iff**  $m(x) \subseteq *A$  for all  $x \in A$

# More equivalence...

$A \subseteq X$  is open **iff**  $m(x) \subseteq *A$  for all  $x \in A$

$A \subseteq X$  is closed **iff**  $m(x) \cap *A = \emptyset$  for all  $x \in X \setminus *A$ .

$A \subseteq X$  is open **iff**  $m(x) \subseteq *A$  for all  $x \in A$

$A \subseteq X$  is closed **iff**  $m(x) \cap *A = \emptyset$  for all  $x \in X \setminus *A$ .

## Theorem

*Robinson's theorem*  $C$  is compact **iff** each  $y \in *A$  belongs to  $m(x)$  for some  $x \in A$ .

$A \subseteq X$  is open **iff**  $m(x) \subseteq *A$  for all  $x \in A$

$A \subseteq X$  is closed **iff**  $m(x) \cap *A = \emptyset$  for all  $x \in X \setminus *A$ .

## Theorem

*Robinson's theorem*  $C$  is compact **iff** each  $y \in *A$  belongs to  $m(x)$  for some  $x \in A$ .

Morally: each sequence  $(y_{j_1}, y_{j_2}, \dots)$  has a converging subsequence  $(x_{j_1}, x_{j_2}, \dots)$ .

$A \subseteq X$  is open **iff**  $m(x) \subseteq *A$  for all  $x \in A$

$A \subseteq X$  is closed **iff**  $m(x) \cap *A = \emptyset$  for all  $x \in X \setminus *A$ .

## Theorem

*Robinson's theorem  $C$  is compact iff each  $y \in *A$  belongs to  $m(x)$  for some  $x \in A$ .*

Morally: each sequence  $(y_{j_1}, y_{j_2}, \dots)$  has a converging subsequence  $(x_{j_1}, x_{j_2}, \dots)$ .

Robinson's Theorem does not depend on metrizability!

# Tychonoff's Theorem

## Theorem

*Tychonoff product theorem: Let  $X_j, j \in J$ , be compact topological spaces. Then  $X := \prod_{j \in J} X_j$  is compact in the product topology.*

## Proof.

*Let  $y \in *A$ . There exist  $x_j \in X_j$  such that  $y_j \equiv x_j$ , i.e.,  $y_j \in m(x_j)$ . It follows that  $y \in m(x)$ . Thus  $X$  is compact.*



The end.



Figure: [bondmatt.wordpress.com](http://bondmatt.wordpress.com)