## Fall 2016 Notes

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## September 15, 2016

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# Probability

We will devote this chapter to the material that is covered in MA 51900 (discrete probability) as it was covered in DasGupta's class. We will, for the most part, reference Feller's *An introduction to probability theory and its applications, Volume 1* [4] (especially for the discrete noncalculus portion of the class) and DasGupta's own book *Fundamentals of Probability: A First Course* [2].

#### 1.1 Discrete Probability

The material in this chapter is mostly pulled from Sheldon Ross's A First Course in Probability Theory [8] with some examples from [2] and [4]. I find Ross's book to be better structured than the latter two.

#### Combinatorial Analysis

These are the main results from this section.

**Theorem 1.1** (The basic principle of counting). Suppose that two experiments are to be performed. Then if experiment 1 can result in any one of m possible outcomes and if, for each outcome of experiment 1, there are n possible outcomes of experiment 2, then together there are mn possible outcomes of the two experiments.

**Theorem 1.2** (The generalized principle of counting). If r experiments that are to be performed are such that the first one may result in any of  $n_1$  possible outcomes; and if, for each of these  $n_1$  possible outcomes, there are  $n_2$  possible outcomes for the second experiment; and if, for each of the possible outcomes of the first two experiments, there are  $n_3$  possible outcomes for the third experiment; etc. ..., then there is a total of  $n_1 n_2 \cdots n_r$  possible outcomes of the r experiments.

Using notation as in [4], the number

$$(n)_r = n(n-1)\cdots(n-r+1)$$

represents the number of different ways that a group of r items could be selected from n items when the order of selection is relevant, and as each group of r items will be counted r! times in this count,

it follows that the number of different groups of r items that could be formed from a set of n items is

$$\frac{(n)_r}{r!} = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!r!}$$

for which we reserve the notation

$$\binom{n}{r}$$

read n choose r. (This is called a binomial coefficient since it appears in the binomial expansion  $(a+b)^n$ .)

A useful combinatorial identity on binomial coefficients is the following

$$\binom{n}{r} = \binom{n-1}{r-1} + \binom{n-1}{r}$$

for  $1 \le r \le n$ .

**Theorem 1.3** (The binomial theorem).

$$(a+b)^n = \sum_{i=1}^n \binom{n}{i} x^i y^{n-i}.$$

PROOF. We provide a combinational proof of the theorem. Consider the product

$$(a_1+b_1)\cdots(a_n+b_n).$$

Its expansion consists of the sum of  $2^n$  terms, each term being the product of n factors. Furthermore, each of the  $2^n$  terms in the sum will contain as a factor either  $a_i$  or  $b_i$  for each  $1 \le i \le n$ . Now, how many of the  $2^n$  terms in the sum will have k of the  $a_i$  and n-k of the  $b_i$  as factors? As each term consisting of k of the  $a_i$  and n-k of the  $b_i$  correspond to a choice of a group of k from the values  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$ , there are  $\binom{n}{k}$  such terms. Thus, letting  $a_i = a$ ,  $b_i = b$ ,  $1 \le i \le n$ , we see that

$$(a+b)^n = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} x^i y^{n-i}.$$

# Introduction to Partial Differential Equations

Here we summarize some important points about PDEs. The material is mostly taken from Evans's Partial Differential Equations [3] with occasional detours to Strauss's Partial Differential Equations: An Introduction [9]. We will be following Dr. Petrosyan's Course Log which can be found here https://www.math.purdue.edu/~arshak/F16/MA523/courselog/, i.e., summarizing the appropriate chapters from [3].

#### 2.1 Introduction

#### Partial differential equations

**Definition 2.1.** An expression of the form

$$F(D^k u(x), D^{k-1} u(x), \dots, Du(x), u(x), x) = 0 \qquad (x \in U)$$
 (2.1)

is called a kth-order partial differential equation (PDE), where

$$F: \mathbf{R}^{n^k} \times \mathbf{R}^{n^{k-1}} \times \cdots \times \mathbf{R}^n \times U \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}$$

is given, and

$$u \colon U \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}$$

is the unknown.

Here are some more definitions,

#### Definition 2.2.

(i) The partial differential equation (2.1) is called *linear* if it has the form

$$\sum_{|\alpha| \le k} a_{\alpha}(x) D^{\alpha} u = f(x)$$

for given functions  $a_{\alpha}(|\alpha| \leq k)$ , f. This linear PDE is homogeneous if f = 0.

(ii) The PDE (2.1) is semilinear if it has the form

$$\sum_{|\alpha|=k} a_{\alpha} D^{\alpha} u + a_0 \left( D^{k-1} u, \dots, Du, u, x \right) = 0.$$

(iii) The PDE (2.1) is quasilinear if it has the form

$$\sum_{|\alpha|=k} a_{\alpha} (D^{k-1}u, \dots, Du, u, x) D^{\alpha}u + a_0 (D^{k-1}u, \dots, Du, u, x) = 0.$$

# Algebraic Geometry

A summary to a course on an introduction to sheaf cohomology. We will mostly reference Donu's notes available here https://www.math.purdue.edu/~dvb/classroom.html, but also cite Ravi Vakil's Fundamentals of Algebraic Geometry [10] available here https://math216.wordpress.com/.

#### 3.1 The statement of de Rham's theorem

These are almost verbatim Arapura's notes on the de Rham Complex and cohomology.

Before doing anything fancy, let's start at the beginning. Let  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$  be an open set. In calculus class, we learn about operations

$$\{ \text{ functions } \} \xrightarrow{\nabla} \{ \text{ vector fields } \} \xrightarrow{\nabla \times} \{ \text{ vector fields } \} \xrightarrow{\nabla} \{ \text{ functions } \}$$

such that  $(\nabla \times)(\nabla) = 0$  and  $(\nabla \cdot)(\nabla \times) = 0$ . This is a prototype for a *complex*. An obvious question: does  $\nabla \times v = 0$  imply that v is a gradient? Answer: sometimes yes (e.g. if  $U = \mathbf{R}^3$ ) and sometimes no (e.g. if  $U = \mathbf{R}^3$  minus a line).

# Algebraic Topology

From my meetings with Mark. We reference Hatcher's  $Algebraic\ Topology\ [6]$  freely available here https://www.math.cornell.edu/~hatcher/#ATI.

## 4.1 Cohomology

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