

Definition of Monoid

A monoid is a triple $(A, \otimes, \bar{1})$

1. \otimes is closed associative binary operator on the set A

2. $\bar{1}$ is identity element for \oplus

$\forall a, b, c \in A$

$$a \otimes b \otimes c = a \otimes (b \otimes c)$$

$$a \otimes \bar{1} = \bar{1} \otimes a = a$$

fə'netiks

Definition of Ring

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$

There are addition and multiplication operations and satisfy associative and distributive laws

$$a * b * c = a * (b * c) \text{ and } a * (b + c) = a * b + a * c$$

There are additive identity 0 and multiplicative identity 1

$$0 + a = a \text{ and } 1 * a = a$$

There exists additive inverse $-a$ such that $a + (-a) = 0$

Definition of Ring

let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$

There are two binary operations addition and multiplication and satisfy

Associative Law

$$a \times b \times c = a \times (b \times c)$$

Distributive Law

$$a \times (b + c) = a \times b + a \times c$$

Additive inverse

For all a in \mathbb{R} , there exists $-a$ such that

$$a + (-a) = 0$$

Multiplicative identity

For all a in \mathbb{R} , there exist 1 such that

$$1a = a$$

Group homomorphism(operation preserving)

Given group $(G1, +)$ and $(G2, *)$, for all $a_1, a_2 \in G1$ and $b_1, b_2 \in G2$,

if $\phi(a_1 + a_2) = \phi(b_1) * \phi(b_2)$, then ϕ is group homomorphism

Given $G(\mathbb{R}, +)$ and $(\mathbb{R}, *)$, then $\phi(x) = e^x$ is homomorphism

Let $a_1, b_1 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $a_2, b_2 \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\phi(a_1 + b_1) = e^{a_1+b_1} \text{ and } \phi(a_2) * \phi(b_2) = e^{a_2} * e^{b_2} = e^{a_2+b_2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(a_1 + b_1) = \phi(a_2) * \phi(b_2)$$

$\Rightarrow \phi(x) = e^x$ is homomorphism for $G(\mathbb{R}, +)$ and $G(\mathbb{R}, *)$

Normal Group

if N is subgroup of G , and if $gH = Hg \quad \forall g \in G$, then H is normal

Coset

if N is subgroup of G , and if $gH = \{gh : \forall g \in G\}$, then gH is left coset of H in G with respect to g .

Similarly, if $Hg = \{hg : \forall g \in G\}$, then Hg is right coset of H in G with respect to g .

$G(\mathbb{Z}/8, +)$

$H = \{0, 2, 4, 6\}$

Subgroup:

- $2+2=4$
- $2+4=6$
- $2+6=0$
- $4+4=0$
- $4+6=2$
- $6+6=4$

Cosets:

$\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$

\downarrow

$0 \quad 2 \quad 4 \quad 6$

G

Left Cosets:

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

Right Cosets:

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

Diagram:

A diagram showing a rectangle divided into two horizontal sections. The top section is labeled H and the bottom section is labeled H . Arrows point from the top section to the bottom section, indicating a mapping or relationship between the two sections.

Handwritten notes:

- $H \subseteq G$
- $g \in G$
- $h \in H$
- gH left coset
- Hg right coset

Ring homomorphism(operation preserving) Let ϕ is a function between two rings R , then ϕ is a *ring* homomorphism if for all $a \in R$ and $b \in R$

$$\phi(a + b) = \phi(a) + \phi(b)$$

$$\phi(ab) = \phi(a)\phi(b)$$

and

$$\phi(1) = 1$$

e.g. $G(\mathbb{N}, +)$ and $G(\mathbb{Z}/\mathbb{Z}_5, +)$

Let $\phi : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be the map send a complex number to its complex conjugate. Then ϕ is an automorphism of \mathbb{C} . ϕ is its own inverse.

$$\phi(z) = \bar{z}$$

$$\phi(z_1 + z_2) = \overline{z_1 + z_2}$$

$$\overline{z_1 + z_2} = \bar{z}_1 + \bar{z}_2$$

$$\phi(z_1 z_2) = \overline{z_1 z_2}$$

$$\overline{z_1 z_2} = \bar{z}_1 \cdot \bar{z}_2$$

$$\phi(\phi(z)) = z$$

Let $\phi : \mathbb{R}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}[x]$ be the map that send $f(x)$ to $f(x + 1)$. Then ϕ is an automorphism of $\mathbb{R}[x]$. The inverse map sends $f(x)$ to $f(x - 1)$

Ideal

Let R be a ring and let I is additive subgroup of R , then I is called an ideal of R and write $I \triangleleft R$ if $\forall a \in I$ and $\forall r \in R$, and $ar \in I$ and $ra \in I$

Example

$R = (\mathbb{N}, +)$ and $I = (2k, +) \quad k \in \mathbb{N}$

Let I be a kernal of ϕ , then I is an ideal of R

Let $a \in I$ and $r \in R$, then $\phi(ra) = \phi(r)\phi(a)$

I is kernal of $\phi \Rightarrow \phi(a) = 0 \therefore \phi(ra) = 0, \therefore ra \in I$

If $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ **and** $a|bc \Rightarrow a|c$

Proof

$$\gcd(a, b) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow ma + nb = 1 \quad m, n \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$\Rightarrow mac + nbc = c$$

$$a|bc \Rightarrow ak = bc \quad k \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$\Rightarrow mac + n(ak) = c \quad (ak = bc)$$

$$\Rightarrow a(mc + nk) = c$$

$$\Rightarrow a|c$$

If $\gcd(a, b) = 1 \Rightarrow ma + nb = 1 \quad m, n \in \mathbb{N}$

Proof

Prove there is infinite prime

Prove all the eigenvalues $\lambda \geq 0$ if the matrix is symmetric

If the determinant of matrix $\det A > 0 \iff$ the matrix is invertable

Efficient Algorithm to compute Fibonacci Number

Fibonacci Sequence $F_n = F_n + F_{n-1}$ with $F_0 = 0 \quad F_1 = 1$

(1) Naive algorithm with recursion in $O(2^n)$

(2) Use Dynamic Algorithm in $O(n)$

(3) Use matrix with repeated squaring to compute Fibonacci Sequence in $O(\log n)$

$$\begin{pmatrix} F_{n+1} & F_n \\ F_n & F_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}^n = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^n$$

Show the sum of odd number are square number

$$\begin{aligned}
 &1 \\
 &1 + 3 \\
 &1 + 3 + 5 \\
 &1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2k+1)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 S &= \sum_{k=1}^n (2k-1) \\
 S &= \sum_{k=1}^n 2k - \sum_{k=1}^n 1 \\
 S &= 2\left(\sum_{k=1}^n k\right) - n \\
 S &= 2\frac{(1+n)n}{2} - n \\
 S &= (1+n)n - n \\
 S &= n^2
 \end{aligned}$$

composition function

$$\begin{aligned}
 &g \circ f \circ h \\
 &g \circ f: A \rightarrow B
 \end{aligned}$$

Find the sum of sequence of squares

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{k=1}^n ((k+1)^3 - k^3) &= \sum_{k=1}^n (k^2 + 1 + 2k)(k+1) - k^3 \\
 \sum_{k=1}^n (k^3 + k + 2k^2 + k^2 + 1 + 2k) &- k^3 \\
 \sum_{k=1}^n (k^3 + 3k^2 + 3k + 1) &- k^3 \\
 \sum_{k=1}^n (3k^2 + 3k + 1)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{k=1}^n ((k+1)^3 - k^3) &= \sum_{k=1}^n (k+1)^3 - \sum_{k=1}^n k^3 \\
 \Rightarrow 2^3 + 3^3 + \dots + n^3 + (n+1)^3 - (1 + 2^3 + 3^3 + \dots + n^3) &= (n+1)^3 - 1 \\
 \Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^n (k+1)^3 - \sum_{k=1}^n k^3 &= (n+1)^3 - 1 \\
 \Rightarrow (n+1)^3 - 1 &= \sum_{k=1}^n (3k^2 + 3k + 1) \\
 \Rightarrow (n+1)^3 - 1 &= 3 \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 + 3 \sum_{k=1}^n k + n \\
 \Rightarrow (n+1)^3 - 1 &= 3 \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 + (n+1)n\frac{3}{2} + n \\
 \Rightarrow (n+1)^3 - 1 - (n+1)n\frac{3}{2} - n &= 3 \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 \\
 \Rightarrow (n+1)((n+1)^2 - n\frac{3}{2}) - (n+1) &= 3 \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 \\
 \Rightarrow (n+1)((n+1)^2 - n\frac{3}{2} - 1) &= 3 \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 \\
 \Rightarrow (n+1)(n^2 + 1 + 2n - n\frac{3}{2} - 1) &= 3 \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 \\
 \Rightarrow (n+1)(n^2 + \frac{1}{2}n) &= \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 \\
 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2}(n+1)(2n^2 + n) &= \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 \\
 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{6}n(n+1)(2n+1) &= \sum_{k=1}^n k^2
 \end{aligned}$$

Definition of Group

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{G}$

There is binary operation $*$ and satisfy

Closure Law

$$a * b \in \mathbb{G}$$

Associative Law

$$a * b * c = a * (b * c)$$

Identity

$$\exists e \in \mathbb{G} \text{ such that } e * a = a * e \in \mathbb{G}$$

Inverse

$$\text{If } a \in \mathbb{G}, \exists a^{-1} \in \mathbb{G} \text{ such that } a * a^{-1} = e$$

Definition of Vector Space

Let $\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in \vec{V}$ and scalars $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}$

Closure

$$\vec{u} + \vec{v} \text{ and } \in \vec{V}$$

Associative Law

$$\vec{u} + \vec{v} + \vec{w} = \vec{u} + (\vec{v} + \vec{w})$$

Commutative Law

$$\vec{u} + \vec{v} = \vec{v} + \vec{u}$$

Identity element of addition

$$\vec{0} \in \vec{V} \text{ such that } \vec{0} + \vec{u} = \vec{u}$$

Inverse element of addition

$$\exists -\vec{u} \text{ such that } \vec{u} + (-\vec{u}) = \vec{0}$$

Identity element of scalar multiplication

$$\exists 1 \in \mathbb{F} \text{ such that } 1\vec{u} = \vec{u}$$

Distributivity of scale multiplication with respect to vector addition

$$\alpha(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) = \alpha\vec{u} + \alpha\vec{v}$$

Distributivity of scale multiplication with respect to field addition

$$(\alpha + \beta)\vec{u} = \alpha\vec{u} + \beta\vec{u}$$

Definition of Affine Space

An affine space is a set of points that admits free transitive action of a vector space \vec{V} . That is, there is a map $X \times \vec{V} \rightarrow X : (x, \vec{v}) \mapsto x + \vec{v}$, called translation by a vector \vec{v} , such that

1. Addition of vectors corresponds to composition of translation, i.e., for all $x \in X$ and $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in \vec{V}$, $(x + \vec{u}) + \vec{v} = x + (\vec{u} + \vec{v})$
2. The zero vector $\vec{0}$ acts as the identity vector, i.e., for all $x \in X$, $x + \vec{0} = x$
3. The action is transitive, i.e., for all $x, y \in X$, exists $\vec{v} \in \vec{V}$ such that $y = x + \vec{v}$
4. The dimension of X is the dimension of vector space translations, \vec{V}

Or There is unique map

$X \times X \rightarrow \vec{V} : (x, y) \mapsto y - x$ such that $y = x + (y - x)$ for all $x, y \in X$. It furthermore satisfies

1. For all $x, y, z \in X$, $z - x = (z - y) + (y - x)$
2. For all $x, y \in X$ and $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in \vec{V}$, $(y + \vec{v}) - (x + \vec{u}) = (y - x) + (\vec{v} - \vec{u})$
3. For all $x \in X$, $x - x = \vec{0}$
4. For all $x, y \in X$, $y - x = -(x - y)$

Affine Space from linear system equation

Consider an $(m \times n)$ linear system equations

$$\sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}x_k = c_i, (1 \leq i \leq m) \quad (1)$$

where $d = n - \text{rank}(M)$, $c_i \neq \vec{0} \in \mathbb{R}^m$

When the system has at least one solution x_p then the full set of solution is a d -dimension affine space $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$

Since $x_p \in A$, we can declare point x_p as origin of A and then introduce A coordinates as follows: homogenous system

$$\sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}x_k = \vec{0} (1 \leq i \leq m)$$

$\Rightarrow \dim(\text{Ker}(M)) = d$ (Rank Theorem)

(1) has d -linear independent solution $\vec{b}_j \in \mathbb{R}^n$ $(1 \leq j \leq d)$

Affine Space A can be written as

$$A = \left\{ x_p + \sum_{j=1}^d \alpha_j \vec{b}_j \mid \alpha_j \in \mathbb{R} \quad (1 \leq j \leq d) \right\}$$

The α_j can be served as coordinates in A , so that A looks as it were a d -dimension coordinate space.

But note that addition(+) in the space refers to the chosen point x_p , and not to the origin of the base vector

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem 1

The image of transformation is spanned by the image of the any basis of its domain. For $T : \vec{V} \rightarrow \vec{W}$, if $\beta = \{\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}$ is a basis of \vec{V} , then $T(\beta) = \{T(\vec{b}_1), T(\vec{b}_2), \dots, T(\vec{b}_n)\}$ spans the image of T

Proof

For all $\vec{v} \in \vec{V}$, $\vec{v} = \alpha_1 \vec{b}_1 + \alpha_2 \vec{b}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \vec{b}_n$
 $\Rightarrow T(\vec{v}) = T(\alpha_1 \vec{b}_1 + \alpha_2 \vec{b}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \vec{b}_n)$
 $\Rightarrow T(\vec{v}) = \alpha_1 T(\vec{b}_1) + \alpha_2 T(\vec{b}_2) + \dots + \alpha_n T(\vec{b}_n)$
 $\Rightarrow \{T(\vec{b}_1), T(\vec{b}_2), \dots, T(\vec{b}_n)\}$ spans the image of T

Rank Theorem

If the domain is finite dimension, then the dimension of domain is the sum of rank and nullity of the transformation

Let $T : \vec{V} \rightarrow \vec{W}$ be a linear transformation, let n be the dimension of \vec{V} ,
let k be nullity of T and let r be the rank of T

Show $n = k + r$

Let $\beta = \{\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \dots, \vec{b}_k\}$ be the basis of kernel of T , the basis can be extended to $\gamma = \{\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \dots, \vec{b}_k, \vec{b}_{k+1}, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}$
let $\vec{v} \in \vec{V} \Rightarrow \vec{v} = \alpha_1 \vec{b}_1 + \alpha_2 \vec{b}_2 + \dots + \alpha_k \vec{b}_k + \alpha_{k+1} \vec{b}_{k+1} + \dots + \alpha_n \vec{b}_n$
Let $T(\vec{v}) = T(\alpha_1 \vec{b}_1 + \alpha_2 \vec{b}_2 + \dots + \alpha_k \vec{b}_k + \alpha_{k+1} \vec{b}_{k+1} + \dots + \alpha_n \vec{b}_n) = \vec{0}$
 $\Rightarrow \vec{v} = \alpha_1 \vec{b}_1 + \alpha_2 \vec{b}_2 + \dots + \alpha_k \vec{b}_k + \alpha_{k+1} \vec{b}_{k+1} + \dots + \alpha_n \vec{b}_n \in \ker(T)$ (1)
 $\therefore \vec{v} = \sigma_1 \vec{b}_1 + \sigma_2 \vec{b}_2 + \dots + \sigma_k \vec{b}_k \in \ker(T)$ (2)
(1)-(2) $\Rightarrow \vec{0} = (\alpha_1 - \sigma_1) \vec{b}_1 + (\alpha_2 - \sigma_2) \vec{b}_2 + \dots + (\alpha_k - \sigma_k) \vec{b}_k + \alpha_{k+1} \vec{b}_{k+1} + \dots + \alpha_n \vec{b}_n$
 $\therefore \vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \dots, \vec{b}_k, \vec{b}_{k+1}, \vec{b}_{k+2}, \dots, \vec{b}_n$ are linearly independent
 $\therefore \alpha_{k+1}, \alpha_{k+2}, \dots, \alpha_n$ are all zero (3)
 $T(\vec{v}) = T(\alpha_1 \vec{b}_1) + T(\alpha_2 \vec{b}_2) + \dots + T(\alpha_k \vec{b}_k) + T(\alpha_{k+1} \vec{b}_{k+1}) + \dots + T(\alpha_n \vec{b}_n) = \vec{0}$
 $T(\vec{v}) = \alpha_1 T(\vec{b}_1) + \alpha_2 T(\vec{b}_2) + \dots + \alpha_k T(\vec{b}_k) + \alpha_{k+1} T(\vec{b}_{k+1}) + \dots + \alpha_n T(\vec{b}_n) = \vec{0}$
 $\therefore \beta = \{\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \dots, \vec{b}_k\}$ is the basis of kernel of T
 $\therefore T(\vec{b}_1) = \vec{0}, \dots, T(\vec{b}_k) = \vec{0}$
 $\therefore T(\vec{v}) = \alpha_{k+1} T(\vec{b}_{k+1}) + \dots + \alpha_n T(\vec{b}_n) = \vec{0}$ (4)
(3) and (4) $\Rightarrow \{T(\vec{b}_{k+1}), T(\vec{b}_{k+2}), \dots, T(\vec{b}_n)\}$ are linearly independent
 $\Rightarrow \dim(\vec{V}) = \text{nullity}(T) + \text{rank}(T)$ or
 $\Rightarrow \dim(\vec{V}) = \dim(\ker(T)) + \dim(\text{img}(T))$
 $\Rightarrow n = k + r \quad \square$

Affine plane

Affine plane is a set, whose elements are called points, and a set of subset, called lines, satisfying the following three axioms:

1. Given two distinct points P and Q, there is one and only one containing both P and Q.
2. Given a line l, and a point P not in l, there is one and only one line m which is parallel to l and which passes through P.

3. There exists three non-collinear points.

A coordinate system in an affine space (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{V}) consists of a point $\mathbf{O} \in \mathbf{X}$ is called origin, and basis $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ for \vec{V} . Any point $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{X}$ can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{O} &= \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{O} \\ \Rightarrow \mathbf{x} &= \mathbf{O} + (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{O}) = \mathbf{O} + \sum_{k=1}^n x_k \vec{v}_k \end{aligned}$$

where the numbers x_1, \dots, x_n are the coordinates for vector $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{O}$ with respect to the basis $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n$. They are now also called the coordinates for \mathbf{x} with respect to the coordinate system $\mathbf{O}, \vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n$.

Projective plane

A projective plane \mathbb{S} is a set, whose elements are called points, and a set of subset, called lines, satisfying the following four axioms.

1. Two distinct points meets P, Q of \mathbb{S} lie on one and only one line.
2. Any two lines meet in at least one point.
3. There exist three non-collinear points
4. Every line contains at least three points.

Manifold

An subset \mathbf{S} of \mathbb{R}^m is called a manifold of dimension of d if every point p of \mathbf{S} has a neighbourhood in \mathbf{S} which is homeomorphic to an open set of \mathbb{R}^d .

Homeomorphism

Let S be a subset of \mathbb{R}^m and sp be the subset of \mathbb{R}^n . A map $f : \mathbb{R}^m \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$ is called homeomorphism if f is continuous and bijective and f^{-1} is continuous

Definition Open and Close Sets

1. \mathbf{S} is said to be open set if every point of \mathbf{S} is an interior of \mathbf{S}
2. \mathbf{S} is said to be closed set if $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbf{S}$ is open

Proposition

1. \mathbf{S} is open if there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $(s - \delta, s + \delta) \subseteq \mathbf{S}$
2. \mathbf{S} is open if any $s \in \mathbf{S}$ there exists a neighbourhood of s included in \mathbf{S}

Terminology

\mathcal{M} Set (ZFC) book

\mathcal{Q} topology =: set of open set

$(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{Q})$ topology space

$\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{Q} \iff$ all $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{M}$ and open set

$\mathcal{M} \setminus \mathcal{A} \iff$ all $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{M}$ closed set

open $\not\Rightarrow$ closed

open \Leftarrow closed

Definition of Inner Product Positivity

$$\langle \vec{v}, \vec{v} \rangle \geq 0$$

$$\langle \vec{v}, \vec{v} \rangle = \vec{0} \iff \vec{v} = \vec{0}$$

Bilinearity

$$\langle c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3 \rangle = c_1 \langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_3 \rangle + c_2 \langle \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3 \rangle$$

Conjugate Symmetric

$$\langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 \rangle = \overline{\langle \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_1 \rangle}$$

Proof Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality by picture

$$|a \cdot b| \leq \|a\| \|b\|$$

Calculate the Excel Sheet Row number algorithm Latex Environment has different mode

Math mode

Text mode

Command mode

Elliptic Curve and Group Structure Conic Curve

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y & z \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$ax^2 + ey^2 + iz^2 + (b+d)xy + (c+g)xz + (f+h)yz = 0$$

$$(x, y, z) = (x/z, y/z, 1)(z \neq 0)$$

$$\begin{aligned} ax^2 + ey^2 + (b+d)xy + (c+g)x + (f+h)y + i &= 0 \\ ax + by + c &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{sub (1) into (2)} \Rightarrow ax^2 + bx + c = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

Exponential backoff algorithm

$$\frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{i=1}^k i$$

For example, the expected backoff time for the third collision, one could calculate the maximum backoff time, N

$$N = 2^c - 1 (c = 3) \quad N = 7$$

Calculate the mean of backoff time for the third collision(c=3)

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{c}) = \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{i=0}^N i$$

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{c}) = \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{i=0}^N i \Rightarrow \frac{1}{N+1} \frac{N(N+1)}{2} = \frac{N}{2}$$

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{3}) = \frac{1}{7+1} \sum_{i=0}^7 i = \frac{1}{8} (0 + 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6 + 7) = \frac{28}{8}$$

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{3}) = 3.5$$

Prove Square root of two is irrational $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$

Assume $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$

let $n = \min\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n * \sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{N}\}$

$$\Rightarrow n * (\sqrt{2} - 1) * \sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$$

$$\because \sqrt{2} - 1 < 1$$

$$\Rightarrow n * (\sqrt{2} - 1) * \sqrt{2} < n * \sqrt{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow n * (\sqrt{2} - 1) < n \text{ such as } n * (\sqrt{2} - 1) * \sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{N}$$

\Rightarrow This contracts our assumption \square

Prove Square root of 2 is irrational [Geometric proof]

Assume $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$

$\Rightarrow \frac{a}{b} = \sqrt{2}$ $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\gcd(a, b) = 1, a > b$

given a right isosceles triangle

$AB = AC = AE$, FE tangents to arc at point E

$\Rightarrow AF = EF$

Let $AB = AC = 1$

$\Rightarrow BC = \sqrt{2}$

$\Rightarrow FB = 1 - EB = 1 - (\sqrt{2} - 1) = 2 - \sqrt{2}$

$\therefore \frac{AC}{CB} = \frac{EB}{FB} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2-\sqrt{2}}$

$\therefore \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{\frac{a}{b}} = \frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2-\sqrt{2}} = \frac{\frac{a}{b}-1}{2-\frac{a}{b}}$

$\therefore \frac{b}{a} = \frac{\frac{a-b}{b}}{\frac{2b-a}{b}} = \frac{a-b}{2b-a}$

$\therefore \sqrt{2} < \sqrt{4} = 2 \therefore a < 2b$

$\Rightarrow a - b < b$

$\therefore 2a > 2b$

$\Rightarrow 2b - a < a$

That contradicts our assumption $\gcd(a, b) = 1$

$\Rightarrow \frac{a}{b} \notin \mathbb{Q}$

Geometric proof: square root of two is irrational

Given an isosceles right triangle from above and let $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, from Pythagorean theorem

$$\Rightarrow a^2 = b^2 + b^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{2} = \frac{a}{b}$$

singular point on affine plane curve

If $p \in (x, y)$ and $\frac{df}{dx}, \frac{df}{dy}$ are undefined on $p \in (x, y)$, then $p \in (x, y)$ is singular point

Eisenstein series

$$L = [w_1, w_2] \in \mathbb{C}, G(L) = \sum_{w \in L \setminus \{0,0\}} \frac{1}{w^k}$$

Let lattices $L = [1, \tau]$ and parametrized by τ in the upper half plane $\mathbb{H} = \{z \in$

$\mathbb{C} : \Im(z) > 0\}$

$$G(L) = G([1, \tau]) = G(\tau) = \sum'_{m, n \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{(m+n\tau)^k}$$

$$\text{Show } G_k(\tau + 1) = G_k(\tau)$$

$$G_k(\tau + 1) = \sum'_{m, n \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{(m+n(\tau+1))^k} = \sum'_{m, n \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{(m+n+n\tau)^k} = \sum'_{m', n \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{(m'+n\tau)^k}$$

$$\Rightarrow G_k(\tau + 1) = G_k(\tau)$$

$$\text{Show } G_k(\tau) = \tau^{-k} G_k\left(\frac{-1}{\tau}\right)$$

$$\tau^{-k} G_k\left(\frac{-1}{\tau}\right) = \tau^{-k} \sum'_{(m, n \in \mathbb{Z})} \frac{1}{(m+\frac{n}{\tau})^k}$$

$$\tau^{-k} \sum'_{m, n \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{(m+\frac{n}{\tau})^k} = \tau^{-k} \sum'_{m, n \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{(\frac{m\tau}{\tau} + \frac{n}{\tau})^k} = \sum'_{m, n \in \mathbb{Z}} (\tau^{-k} \tau^k) (m\tau + n)^{-k}$$

$$\Rightarrow G_k(\tau) = \tau^{-k} G_k\left(\frac{-1}{\tau}\right)$$

$$\text{Show } G_k(\tau) = 0 \text{ if } k = (2j+1) \quad j \in \mathbb{Z}$$

For each $\omega = (m + n\tau) \in L$, there exists $-\omega = -(m + n\tau) \in L$

$$\because \omega^{-(2J+1)} + (-1)^{-(2J+1)} \omega^{-(2j+1)} = 0$$

$$\therefore \sum'_{m, n \in \mathbb{Z}} (m + n\tau)^{-k} = 0 \quad \text{for all } k \in (2j+1)$$

Show for any lattices L , the sum $\sum'_{\omega \in L} \frac{1}{\omega^k}$ converges absolutely for all $k > 2$

Proof:

$$\text{Show } \frac{1}{(1-x)^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+1)x^n \quad |x| < 1$$

Proof: For all $|x| < 1$, power series expansion

$$\left(\frac{1}{1-x}\right) = \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n\right)$$

Differentiate both sides

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{1}{1-x}\right)' &= \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n\right)' \\ \left(\frac{1}{1-x}\right)' &= (1-x)^{-2} \\ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nx^{n-1} &= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (i+1)x^i \quad (n-1=i) \\ \frac{1}{(1-x)^2} &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+1)x^n \quad \text{sub } (i=n) \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Weierstrass function \wp -function of lattice L is defined by

$$\wp(z) = \wp(z; L) = \frac{1}{z^2} + \sum'_{w \in L} \left[\frac{1}{(z-w)^2} + \frac{1}{w^2} \right]$$

Holomorphic

A function $f(z)$ defined on some open neighbourhood of a point $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ is said to be holomorphic at z_0 if the complex derivative

$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z_0 + h) - f(z_0)}{h}$$

exists. We said f is holomorphic on an open set Ω if it is holomorphic at every $z_0 \in \Omega$ and we said f is holomorphic in a closed set \mathbf{C} if it is holomorphic on some open set Ω containing \mathbf{C} . Functions are holomorphic on all of \mathbb{C} are said to be *entire*

Show $f(z) = z^2$ is holomorphic

$$\begin{aligned} f'(z) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(z+h)^2 - z^2}{h} \\ f'(z) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{z^2 + 2hz + h^2 - z^2}{h} \\ f'(z) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{2hz + h^2}{h} \\ f'(z) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} 2z + h \\ f'(z) &= 2z \end{aligned}$$

Differential

A function $f(x)$ is differential on $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ if

$$f'(x_0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h}$$

exists

Show $f(x) = x^2$ is differentiable for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + h) - f(x)}{h}$$

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + h^2 + 2xh - x^2}{h}$$

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h^2 + 2xh}{h}$$

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h + 2x$$

$$f'(x) = 2x \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{R}$$

Elliptic Curve

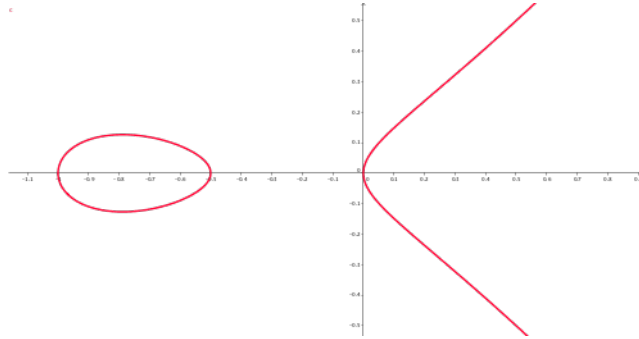
Find the formula for

$$s(n) = \sum_{k=1}^n k^2$$

$$s(n) = \frac{(2n+1)(n+1)n}{2 \times 3}$$

Let $y^2 = S(n)$ and $x = n$

$$y^2 = \frac{1}{6}x(x+1)(2x+1)$$



$(x, y) = (0, 0), (-1, 0), (-\frac{1}{2}, 0)$ are on the curve

$$y^2 = x^3 + bx^2 + cx + d$$

$$\because (x + \frac{b}{3})^3 = x^3 + 3x^2\frac{b}{3} + 3x(\frac{b}{3})^2 + (\frac{b}{3})^3$$

$$y^2 = (x + \frac{b}{3})^3 - 3x(\frac{b}{3})^2 - (\frac{b}{3})^3 + cx + d$$

$$y^2 = (x + \frac{b}{3})^3 - [3(\frac{b}{3})^2 - c]x + d$$

$$\text{let } x + \frac{b}{3} = x'$$

$$y^2 = x'^3 - [3(\frac{b}{3})^2 - c][x' - \frac{b}{3}] + d$$

$$y^2 = x'^3 - [3(\frac{b}{3})^2 - c]x' + 3(\frac{b}{3})^3 - \frac{b}{3}c + d$$

$$y^2 = x'^3 + [c - 3(\frac{b}{3})^2]x' + 3(\frac{b}{3})^3 - \frac{b}{3}c + d$$

For any lattice L , the sum of $\sum_{\omega_k \in L}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\omega_k}$ is converges absolutely for all $k > 2$

Definition of topology

Let \mathcal{M} be a set. A topology \mathcal{Q} is a subset $\mathcal{Q} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{M})$

Satisfy

1. $\emptyset \subseteq \mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{Q}$
2. $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{V} \subseteq \mathcal{Q} \implies \mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{V} \in \mathcal{Q}$
3. $\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{Q} \implies \bigcup_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}} \mathcal{U}_\alpha \in \mathcal{Q}$

Topological Space

a **topological space** is pair (X, τ) where X is a set and τ is subset of X satisfying certain axioms. τ is called **topology**

1. \emptyset and **space** X are both in τ
2. the union of any collection of set in τ is contained in τ
3. the intersection of any finitly many sets in τ is contained in τ