A classical introduction to modern number theory

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A simple notes template. Inspired by Tufte-LATEX class and beautiful notes by

https://github.com/abrandenberger/course-notes

Groups

Laws of Composition

Problem 1. Let $a, b \in S$, assume operation of S is associative, and its identity is e. If a is left inverse of b, does this imply that a is right inverse of b?

Proof. Suppose b has left inverse a and right inverse c: ab = e, bc = e but $a \neq c$. Then ae = a = a(bc) = (ab)c = c, which is a contradiction.

- 1. If la = e, ar = e (it imply that a has both left and right inverse), then l = r.
- 2. If *a* is invertible, its inverse is unique.
- 3. Inverse multipy in the opposite order: $(ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1}$
- 4. An element *a* may have a left inverse or a right inverse, though it is not invertible.

The last statement is unique and interesting.

Lemma 1.1. Every nonzero integer can be written as a product of primes.

Consider how to prove this lemma.

Lemma 1.2. If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and b > 0, there exist $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that a = qb + r with $0 \le r < b$.

Easy to prove.

Definition 1.1. Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetuer adipiscing elit. Ut purus elit, vestibulum ut, placerat ac, adipiscing vitae, felis.

We often see (a, b) = d, it means (a, b) = (d) in fact.

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Definition 1.2. Here's is the beautiful Schrödinger equation

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi(x,t) = \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V(x,t) \right] \Psi(x,t)$$

Groups and Subgroups

A group is a set G together with a law of composition that has the following properties:

- 1. associative, (ab)c = a(bc) for all $a, b, c \in G$
- 2. identity element e, ea = ae = a for all $a \in G$
- 3. for all $a \in G$, a has a inverse b, such that ab = ba = 1

An abeliangroup is a group whose law of composition is commutative. For example, the set of nonzero real numbers forms an abelian group under multiplication, and the set of all real numbers forms a abelian group under addition.

Proposition 1.1 (Cancellation Law). *Let a, b, c be elements of* a group G whose law of composition is written multiplicatively. If ab = ac or if ba = ca, then b = c. If ab = a or if ba = a, then b=1.

Proof. Multipy both sides of ab = ac on the left by a^{-1} to obtain b = c. The other proofs are analogous.

- 1. The $n \times n$ general linear group is the group of all invertible $n \times n$ matrices. It is denoted by $GL_n = n \times n$ invertible matrices A. $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$, $GL_n(\mathbb{C})$ indicate matrices units are real or complex number. If all matrices of the group have determinant 1, then it's called the special linear group, it's a subgroup of GL_n , it's denoted by SL_n .
- 2. S_n is the group of permutations of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, sometimes it's called the symmetric group. The symmetric group S_n is a finite group of order n!.

The permutations of a set a, b of two elements are the identity and the transposition. It's a group of order two. Notice the difference between this set and S_2 , especially definition of S_n .

Every group *G* has two obvious subgroups: the group *G* itself, and the trivial subgroup that consists of the identity element alone.

Subgroups of the Additive Group of Integers

Let a be an integer different from o. We denote the subset of \mathbb{Z} that consists of all multiples of a by $\mathbb{Z}a$:

$$\mathbb{Z}a = \{ n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid n = ka \text{ for some k in } \mathbb{Z} \}. \tag{1}$$

Let *S* be a subgroup of additive group \mathbb{Z}^+ Theroem 1.1. (or $(\mathbb{Z},+)$). Either *S* is the trivial subgroup 0, or else it has the form $\mathbb{Z}a$, where a is the smallest positive integer in S.

 $Za \cap Zb = Zm, m = \text{lcm}(a, b), \text{ and } Za + Zb = Za \cup Zb = Zn, n =$ gcd(a,b).

Cycle Groups

A group is called cyclic if there exists a $g \in G$ such that $G = \{g^k \mid k \in G\}$ \mathbb{Z}

 $\langle x \rangle$ is a cyclic subgroup of a group G,

Proposition 1.2. Let x be an element of finite order n in a group, and let *k* be an integer that is written as k = nq + r where *q* and *r* are integers and *r* is in the range $0 \le r < n$.

- 1. $x^k = x^r$.
- 2. $x^k = 1$ if and only if r = 0.
- 3. Let d = (k, n), the order of x^k is equal to n/d.

Notice the difference between order of x and x^k .

Homomorphisms

Let G and G' be groups, written with multiplicative notation. A **homomorphism** $\phi: G \to G'$ is a map from G to G' such that for all aand b in G

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

Intuitively, a homomorhisms is a map that is compatible with the laws of composition in the two groups, and it provides a way to relate different groups, in brief, it's a map from one algebra to another, such as from one group to another.

There are many homomorphism examples, such as the absolute value map $||: (\mathbb{C}, \times) \to (\mathbb{R}, \times)$, the determinant function det: $GL_n(\mathbb{R}) \to (\mathbb{R}, \times).$

Proposition 1.3. Let $\phi : G \to G'$ be a group homomorphism.

- 1. If $a_1, \dots, c_k \in G$, then $\phi(a_1 \dots a_k) = \phi(a_1) \dots \phi(a_k)$.
- 2. ϕ maps the identity to the identity: $\phi(e_G) = e_G$.
- 3. ϕ maps the inverse to inverse: $\phi(a^{-1}) = \phi(a)^{-1}$.

Definition 1.3. The image of homomorphism $\rho: G \to H$ is the set $\{\rho(g) \mid g \in G\} \subset H$, written as $\rho(G)$, the kernel of ρ is the set $\{g \mid rho(g) = e_H\}$, written as $\rho(g)^{-1}$.

So $\rho(g)^{-1}$ is the set of all $g \in G$ maped to identity of H. The $\rho(G)$ is a subgroup of H, and $\rho(e_H)^{-1}$ is a subgroup of G. Notice that the kernel of a homomorphism might contain multiple elements. The identity of *G* must be maped to the identity of *H*, but not only the identity of *G* is maped to the identity of *H*. Such as homomorphism $\rho: \mathbb{Z}_6 \to \mathbb{Z}_3$, $\rho(0, \dots, 5) = 0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2$, so image of ρ is \mathbb{Z}_3 , and kernel of *rho* is 0,3. Another example is $\rho : \mathbb{Z}_3 \to \mathbb{Z}_6$, $\rho(n) = 2n$, so the image is $\{0, 2, 4\}$, and again, the kernel is just o.

left coset: If *H* is a subgroup of group *G*, a is in *G*, then

$$aH = \{ah \mid h \in H\} \tag{2}$$

Proposition 1.4. Let ϕ : $G \rightarrow G'$ be a homomorphism of groups, and let $a, b \in G$. Let K be the kernel of ϕ . The following four statement are equivalent:

- 1. $\phi(a) = \phi(b)$
- 2. $a^{-1}b$ is in *K*
- 3. *b* is in the coset of *aK*.
- 4. The coset bK and aK are equal.

Corollary 1.1. A homomorphism $\phi: G \to G'$ is injective if and only if its kernel K is the trivial subgroup $\{1\}$ of G.

If a and g are elements of a group G, the element gag^{-1} is called the conjugate of a by g.

Definition 1.4. A subgroup *N* of a group *G* is a normal subgroup if for every a in N and every g in G, the conjugate gag^{-1} is in N.

Proposition 1.5. The kernel of a homomorphism is a normal subgroup.

Proof. If *a* is in the kernel of a homomorphism $\phi : G \to G'$ and if any element of *G*, then $\phi(gag^{-1}) = \phi(g)\phi(a)\phi(g^{-1}) = \phi(g)1\phi(g)^{-1} = 1$, therefore gag^{-1} is in the kernel too. So the kernel of a homomorphism is normal.

The center of a group G, which is often denoted by Z, is the set:

$$Z = \{ z \mid zx = zx, z \in G, \text{ for all } x \in G \}$$
 (3)

Headings

1.6

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Proposition 1.6. Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetuer adipiscing elit. Ut purus elit, vestibulum ut, placerat ac, adipiscing vitae, felis. Curabitur dictum gravida mauris.

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