Learning Uni Maths

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If only I had the theorems! Then I should find the proofs easily enough.

Bernhard Riemann

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CHAPTER 1

Undergraduate

1. Set Theory

DEFINITION 1. We define a *set*, or *collection*, as an object which has a notion of *elements* — for any set A and any object B, either B is an element of A or it isn't.

Axiom 2 (Existence). There exists a set.

DEFINITION 3. Let A and B be sets. If every element of A is an element of B, we say that A is a *subset* of B, denoted $A \subseteq B$.

PROPOSITION 4. If $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq C$ then $A \subseteq C$.

AXIOM 5 (Extensionality). Let A and B be sets. We have $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$ iff A = B.

DEFINITION 6. A sentence is made by combining assertions of belonging (eg $x \in A$) and/or assertions of equality (eg A = B) using the usual logical operators: and, or, not, implies, if and only if, there exists, for all.

AXIOM 7 (Specification). For every set A, every set p and every sentence S(x,p) there is a set B whose elements are exactly those elements x of A for which S(x,p) holds.

DEFINITION 8. We notate this set B by $\{x \in A : S(x,p)\}$.

PROPOSITION 9. There exists a unique set X such that for any x, the sentence $x \in X$ is false.

DEFINITION 10. We call this set the *empty set*, notated \emptyset .

PROPOSITION 11. For every set A there is a set B such that $B \notin A$.

AXIOM 12 (Pairing). For any two sets A and B there is a set X with $A \in X$ and $B \in X$.

PROPOSITION 13. There is a unique set Y such that for any a, a is in Y iff a = A or a = B.

DEFINITION 14. This set is called the *unordered pair* formed by A and B, denoted $\{A,B\}$.

DEFINITION 15. The set $\{A, A\}$ is denoted $\{A\}$, and called the *singleton* of A.

AXIOM 16 (Union). For any collection X of sets there exists a set Y such that for any A in X, and any a in A, a is in Y.

PROPOSITION 17. For a nonempty collection X of sets there is a unique set Z such that a is in Z if and only if there exists an A in X such that a is in A.

DEFINITION 18. This set is called the *union* of X, denoted $\bigcup X$. For two sets A and B we define $A \cup B = \bigcup \{A, B\}$.

PROPOSITION 19. For every nonempty collection C of sets, there is a unique set Y such that $x \in Y$ iff $x \in X$ for each X in C.

Definition 20. This set Y is called the *intersection* of C, denoted $\bigcap C$.

DEFINITION 21. Let A and B be sets. The *intersection* of A and B, notated $A \cap B$, is $\bigcap \{A, B\}$.

If $A \cap B = \emptyset$ then A and B are called disjoint.

AXIOM 22 (Powers). For each set X there is a collection that contains all subsets of X.

PROPOSITION 23. There is a unique collection Y such that $x \in Y$ iff $x \subseteq X$.

DEFINITION 24. This set Y is called the *power set* of X, denoted $\mathcal{P}(X)$.

DEFINITION 25. The ordered pair of a and b is the set defined as

$$(a,b) = \{\{a\}, \{a,b\}\}.$$

PROPOSITION 26. For any a, b, c, d, we have (a, b) = (c, d) iff a = c and b = d.

PROPOSITION 27. For any sets A and B, the set

$$\{(x,y): x \in A, y \in B\}$$

exists.

Definition 28. This set is called the Cartesian product of A and B, denoted $A \times B$.

PROPOSITION 29. For any set R of ordered pairs there are sets A and B such that $R \subseteq A \times B$.

DEFINITION 30. A binary relation R from A to B is a subset of $A \times B$. If (a, b) is in R we write aRb.

If A = B then we call it a binary relation over A.

Definition 31. An equivalence relation is a binary relation \sim over A such that

- $a \sim a$ (reflexive),
- $a \sim b \iff b \sim a$ (symmetric), and
- if $a \sim b$ and $b \sim c$ then $a \sim c$ (transitive).

The equivalence class of a under \sim is

$$[a] = \{x \in A : x \sim a\}.$$

Definition 32. A partition of a set A is a disjoint collection of nonempty subsets of A whose union is A.

A partition X of A induces a relation A/X, where a A/X b iff a and b belong to the same element of X.

Proposition 33. The collection of equivalence classes of an equivalence relation exists and is a partition.

DEFINITION 34. This partition is called the partition induced by the equivalence relation \sim , denoted X/\sim .

Proposition 35. The equivalence relation induced by a partition induces that partition; the partition induced by an equivalence relation induces that relation.

Definition 36. The natural projection $\pi: X \to X/\sim$ sends every element to its equivalence class.

DEFINITION 37. For a relation R from X to Y we define the *inverse* relation $R^{-1}: Y \to X$ by $xRy \iff yR^{-1}x$.

DEFINITION 38. A function $f:A\to B$ is a relation f over A and B such that for each $a\in A$ there is exactly one $b\in B$ such that afb. We usually write this as f(a)=b.

Proposition 39. The set of functions from A to B exists.

DEFINITION 40. We denote it by B^A .

PROPOSITION 41. Let $F: X \to Y$ be a function and let \sim be an equivalence relation on X. There is a function $G: X/\sim \to Y$ such that $F=G\pi$ iff the image of every equivalence class is a singleton.

Definition 42. In this case G is the function induced on X/\sim by F.

DEFINITION 43. The *identity* function $I_A:A\to A$ is defined by $I_A(a)=a$ for each $a\in A$.

DEFINITION 44. Let $f:A\to B$ and $g:B\to A$ be functions. If $f\circ g=I_A$, then f is a left inverse of g and g is a right inverse of g. If both $f\circ g=I_B$ and $g\circ f=I_B$, then f is called the two-sided inverse or simply inverse of g.

DEFINITION 45. For a set $E \subseteq A$, we define the *image* of E under f as $f(E) = \{f(x) : x \in E\}$. For a set $E \subseteq B$, we define the *inverse image* of E under F as $f^{-1}(E) = \{x \in A : f(x) \in E\}$.

DEFINITION 46. A function f is *injective* if for each b in B, there is at most one a in A such that f(a) = b. It is *surjective* if for each b in B there is at least one a in A such that f(a) = b. A function which is both injective and surjective is *bijective*.

Proposition 47. A function whose domain is nonempty is injective iff it has a left inverse.

Proposition 48. A function is bijective iff it has an inverse, which equals any left- or right-inverse of the function.

DEFINITION 49. If $A \subseteq B$ and $f: B \to C$, the restriction of f to A is $f|_A: A \to C$, $f|_A(x) = f(x)$.

DEFINITION 50. For functions $f: W \to X$ and $g: Y \to Z$, where $Y \subseteq X$, we define the *composite* $f \circ g: W \to Z$ as $(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x))$ for all x.

DEFINITION 51. A function x from a set I (the *index set*) to a set X is called an *indexed family* of X, and its range is an *indexed set*. We notate the indexed set by $\{x_i\}_{i\in I}$.

DEFINITION 52. For any set X we define $X^+ = X \cup \{X\}$.

Axiom 53 (Infinity). There exists a set S containing \emptyset and containing X^+ for every X in S.

Proposition 54 (Peano Axioms). There exists a unique set ω satisfying

- $\emptyset \in \omega$.
- If $n \in \omega$ then $n^+ \in \omega$.
- If $S \subseteq \omega$ such that $\emptyset \in S$ and $n \in S \implies n^+ \in S$ then $S = \omega$.
- $n^+ \neq 0$ for all $n \in \omega$.
- If n and m are in ω , and if $n^+ = m^+$, then n = m.

THEOREM 55 (Recursion). If a is an element of a set X, and if $f: X \to X$ is a function, then there is a function $g: \omega \to X$ such that u(0) = a and $u(n^+) = f(u(n))$ for all n in ω .

PROPOSITION 56. The set S^n , defined by $S^1 = S$ and $S^{n+1} = S^n \times S$, exists for each $n \in \omega \setminus \{\emptyset\}$.

Definition 57. A partial order is a binary relation \leq on a set A such that

- $a \le a$ (reflexive),
- if $a \le b$ and $b \le a$ then a = b (antisymmetric), and
- if $a \leq b$ and $b \leq c$ then $a \leq c$ (transitive).

We define a < b if $a \le b$ and $a \ne b$.

If for all a and b we have $a \leq b$ or $b \leq a$ (strongly connected), then \leq is a *total order*.

A *chain* is a totally ordered subset of a partially ordered set.

DEFINITION 58. If X is a partially ordered set, and if $a \in X$, the set $s(a) = \{x \in X : x < a\}$ is called the *initial segment* determined by a.

DEFINITION 59. Two partially ordered sets X and Y are similar if there is a bijection $f: X \to Y$ such that $a \le b \iff f(a) \le f(b)$. This bijection is called a similarity.

DEFINITION 60. Let S be a subset of a partially ordered set A, and let a be an element of A. If $s \leq a$ for every s in S, then we call a an upper bound of S. If $a \leq s$ for every s in S, then we call a a lower bound of S. If a is an upper bound of S and a lower bound of the set of upper bounds of S, then we call a a least upper bound of S.

DEFINITION 61. A well-order on A is a total order \leq on A such that every nonempty subset S of A has an element a which is a lower bound for S. The set A together with the relation \leq is then called well-ordered.

THEOREM 62 (Transfinite Induction). Let S be a subset of a well-ordered set A such that for any $x \in A$, if $s(x) \subseteq S$ then $x \in S$. Then S = A.

DEFINITION 63. If a is an element of a well-ordered set A, and X is an arbitrary set, then a sequence of type a is an family of X indexed by s(a).

A sequence function of type A is a function whose domain consists of all sequences of type a for each $a \in A$, and whose codomain is A.

PROPOSITION 64 (Transfinite Recursion). If A is a well-ordered set, and if f is a sequence function of type A in X, then there is a unique function $U: A \to X$ such that U(a) = f(U|s(a)) for each a in W.

Proposition 65. If two well-ordered sets are similar, then the similarity is unique.

Theorem 66. If X and Y are well-ordered, then either X and Y are similar, or one is similar to an initial segment of the other.

DEFINITION 67. An ordinal number is a well-ordered set α such that for any $\xi \in \alpha$ we have $s(\xi) = \xi$.

We define the ordinals $0 = \emptyset$ and $1 = 0^+$.

Proposition 68. There is no set of all ordinal numbers.

Proposition 69. ω is an ordinal number.

PROPOSITION 70. If α is an ordinal number then so is α^+ , and so is any element of α .

PROPOSITION 71. If α is an ordinal number, then either $\alpha = (\bigcup \alpha)^+$ or $\alpha = \bigcup \alpha$.

DEFINITION 72. In the first case, α is a *successor ordinal*; in the second, it is a *limit ordinal*.

THEOREM 73. If two ordinal numbers are similar, then they are equal. Otherwise, one is an element of the other.

AXIOM 74 (Substitution). If p is a set and S(a, b, p) is a sentence such that for each a in a set A there exists a set B_a such that $b \in B_a \iff S(a, b, p)$, then there exists a function F with domain A such that $F(a) = B_a$ for each a in A.

AXIOM 75 (Foundation). Every set X contains a set Y such that X and Y are disjoint.

AXIOM 76 (Choice). Let X be a collection of sets whose members are all nonempty. Then there exists a function $f: X \to \bigcup X$ such that $f(Y) \in Y$ for all $Y \in X$.

Proposition 77. Every relation includes a function with the same domain.

THEOREM 78 (Zorn's Lemma). Suppose a partially ordered set P has the property that every chain in P has an upper bound in P. Then there is an element $a \in P$ such that the only upper bound for $\{a\}$ is a.

THEOREM 79 (Well-Ordering Theorem). Every set has a well-ordering.

Proposition 80. Every well-ordered set is similar to a unique ordinal number.

PROPOSITION 81. If S is an ordinal and A is a family of ordinals indexed by A, consider the set T of ordered pairs (s, a) such that $s \in S$ and $a \in A_s$. We define the relation $(s_1, a_1) \leq (s_2, a_2)$ if $s_1 < s_2$ or $s_1 = s_2$ and $a_1 \leq a_2$. This relation well-orders T.

DEFINITION 82. The ordinal corresponding to T under this well-ordering is the ordinal sum of A, denoted $\sum A$.

PROPOSITION 83. For any pair of ordinals (a,b) with $a \leq b$ there is an ordinal c such that a+c=b.

COROLLARY 84. If a < b then for any c we have c + a < c + b and $a + c \le b + c$.

PROPOSITION 85. If A and B are ordinals, the ordering on $A \times B$ where $(a, b) \le (c, d)$ iff b < d or both b = d and $a \le c$ is a well-ordering on $A \times B$.

DEFINITION 86. The ordinal corresponding to $A \times B$ under this well-ordering is the *ordinal product* of A and B, denoted AB or $A \cdot B$.

PROPOSITION 87. If a < b then for any c we have ca < cb and $ac \le bc$.

PROPOSITION 88. For every family $\{a_i\}$ of ordinals indexed by an ordinal b, there exists an ordinal c and a unique function $f: b^+ \to c$ such that $f(\emptyset) = 1$ and

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} f(\bigcup x)a_x & \bigcup x \neq x \\ \bigcup_{y \in x} f(y) & \bigcup x = x \end{cases}.$$

The graph of f is the same no matter which ordinal c is used.

DEFINITION 89. We define $\prod a_i = f(I)$. If all a_i equal a, then we define $a^b = f(b)$.

PROPOSITION 90. If $a \leq b$, then for any c we have $a^c \leq b^c$. If additionally c > 1, then $c^a \leq c^b$.

Proposition 91. With ordinal sums, products and exponents as defined,

$$a + 0 = 0 + a = a$$

$$a + 1 = a^{+}$$

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

$$a(bc) = (ab)c$$

$$a \sum_{i} B_{i} = \sum_{i} aB_{i}$$

$$a^{\sum_{i} B_{i}} = \prod_{i} a^{B_{i}}$$

$$a^{bc} = (a^{b})^{c}.$$

However, ordinal addition and multiplication are not commutative and not right-distributive. Also, $(ab)^c$ is generally distinct from a^cb^c .

PROPOSITION 92. For c > 1 and $a \ge 1$, we have $c^a \ge a$.

DEFINITION 93. Two sets A and B are said to have the same *cardinality* (written |A| = |B|) if there is a bijection $f: A \to B$.

A set A has cardinality at most the cardinality of B ($|A| \leq |B|$) if there is an injection $f: A \to B$.

A set A has cardinality less than the cardinality of B (|A| < |B|) if $|A| \le |B|$ and $|A| \ne |B|$.

A set A is enumerable if $|A| = |\omega|$, countable if it is finite or enumerable, and uncountable otherwise.

PROPOSITION 94. If there exists a surjection $f: A \to B$ then $|B| \leq |A|$.

THEOREM 95 (Schröder-Bernstein). If $|A| \leq |B|$ and $|B| \leq |A|$ then |A| = |B|.

THEOREM 96 (Cantor). For any set A, $|\mathcal{P}(A)| > |A|$.

DEFINITION 97. A set S is dense if for any $a \in S$, the least upper bound of s(a) is a. It is unbordered if it has no least upper bound or greatest lower bound.

Proposition 98. All enumerable unbordered dense totally ordered sets are similar.

PROPOSITION 99. If A and B are collections of disjoint sets and $f:A\to B$ is a bijection such that |f(a)|=|a| for each $a\in A$, then $|\bigcup A|=|\bigcup B|$, and $|\prod A|=|\prod B|$.

Proposition 100. For any set C and any indexed family of sets A we have

$$\left| \prod C^{A_i} \right| = \left| C^{\bigcup A} \right|.$$

Definition 101. We define $\sum |A_i| = |\bigcup A_i|$, $\prod |A_i| = |\prod A_i|$, and $|A|^{|B|} = |A^B|$.

Proposition 102. For every set of cardinal numbers there is a cardinal number strictly greater than all of them.

THEOREM 103 (König). Let $\{A_i\}$ and $\{B_i\}$ be indexed families of disjoint sets, such that for each i we have $|A_i| < |B_i|$. Then, $|\bigcup A_i| < |\bigcup B_i|$.

DEFINITION 104. A cardinal number is an ordinal number α such that for any ordinal number β with $|\alpha| = |\beta|$ we have $\alpha \subseteq \beta$.

PROPOSITION 105. If a and b are ordinals, then |a+b| = |a| + |b|, |ab| = |a||b| and $|a^b| = |a|^{|b|}$. Here, ordinal operations are used on the left side and cardinal operations are used on the right.

Proposition 106. Every element of ω , as well as ω itself, is a cardinal number.

PROPOSITION 107. For any set S, there is a unique cardinal number α with $|\alpha| = |S|$.

DEFINITION 108. For these sets S and α we define $|S| = \alpha$.

DEFINITION 109. A set A is said to be *finite* if $|A| \in \omega$, and *infinite* otherwise.

Proposition 110. A set is infinite if and only if it has the same cardinality as some proper subset.

Proposition 111. A countable set does not have any uncountable subsets. An uncountable set has a subset with cardinality equal to ω .

Proposition 112. A union of countably many countable sets is countable.

PROPOSITION 113. If a and b are cardinal numbers such that $a \ge \omega$ and $a \ge b$, then $a+b=a\times b=a$. If b is finite we also have $a^b=a$.

COROLLARY 114. If b is infinite and $a = c^b$ for some c, then $a^b = a$.

PROPOSITION 115. Let $\beta > 1$ be an arbitrary ordinal. Every ordinal can be represented uniquely as a finite sum $\sum_i \beta^{\alpha_i} \gamma_i$, where all α_i are distinct and each γ_i is smaller than β .

DEFINITION 116. For each infinite cardinal a, consider the set c(a) of all infinite cardinals strictly smaller than a. Since c(a) is well-ordered, it is similar to some ordinal α ; we write $a = \aleph_{\alpha}$.

PROPOSITION 117. The set of ordinals with cardinality \aleph_{α} has cardinality $\aleph_{\alpha+1}$.

References.

- Halmos, Naive Set Theory
- Kamke, Theory of Sets

2. Number Systems

DEFINITION 118. A binary operation on A is a function $\cdot : A \times A \to A$. We usually write $\cdot (a,b) = c$ as $a \cdot b = c$.

It is associative if $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ for any a, b, c in A.

It is *commutative* if $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$ for any a, b in A.

DEFINITION 119. An algebraic structure is an ordered pair (S, O) where S is a set and O is an indexed set of binary operations on S.

Definition 120. A *semigroup* is a set A together with an associative binary operation on A.

Definition 121. A partial order \leq and a binary operation \cdot are said to be compatible if $x \leq y$ implies $ax \leq ay$ and $xa \leq ya$.

DEFINITION 122. An element $e \in A$ is called an *identity* for \cdot if for each x we have $x \cdot e = e \cdot x = x$.

Remark 123. There are two main notations for semigroups. These are

- Multiplicative notation, in which the operation is notated $a \cdot b$ or simply ab, and the identity element (if it exists) is 1; and
- Additive notation, in which the operation is notated a+b and the identity element (if it exists) is 0.

DEFINITION 124. A monoid is a semigroup with an identity.

DEFINITION 125. Let X be a monoid. The sets $X_{\geq 0}$ and $X_{>0} = X^+$ are defined as $\{x \in X : x \geq 0\}$ and $X_{\geq 0} \setminus \{0\}$.

DEFINITION 126. A group is a monoid A such that for each element a of A there is an element b of A such that ab = 1 = ba.

A group is abelian if the operation is commutative.

DEFINITION 127. A ring is set A together with two operations + and \cdot such that (A, +) is an abelian group, (A, \cdot) is a semigroup, and the distributive laws hold:

$$a \cdot (b+c) = ab + ac$$
 and $(a+b) \cdot c = ac + bc$.

It is *commutative* if \cdot is commutative.

It is ordered if there is an order \leq on A compatible with + such that if $0 \leq a$ and $0 \leq b$ then $0 \leq ab$.

It is a ring with unity if \cdot has an identity.

DEFINITION 128. Let (A, X) and (B, Y) be algebraic structures such that X and Y are indexed by the same set.

A function $\varphi: A \to B$ is said to be a homomorphism, or morphism, with respect to these operations if for every $a, b \in A$ and every i we have

$$\varphi(aX_ib) = \varphi(a)Y_i\varphi(b).$$

DEFINITION 129. An *isomorphism* is a bijective homomorphism. An isomorphism from a set to itself is an *automorphism*.

If there exists an isomorphism from A to B, then we say A and B are isomorphic, denoted $A \cong B$.

Proposition 130. The property of being isomorphic is reflexive, symmetric and transitive.

Remark 131. We don't say that isomorphism is an equivalence relation, since this would imply the existence of a set of all sets. (Consider the union of all sets isomorphic to the trivial group.)

DEFINITION 132. Let A be a [group, ring, etc] and let S be a subset of A. If S is also a [group, ring, etc], then S is called a sub[group, ring, etc] of A. Conversely, A is a [group, ring, etc] extension of S.

Proposition 133. The intersection of any collection of sub[group ring etc]s of G is again a sub[group, ring, etc] of G.

DEFINITION 134. The *direct product* of an indexed set G_i of algebraic structures is the set of sequences g_i such that each g_i is in G_i , with operations defined componentwise.

PROPOSITION 135. The direct product of a set of [groups, rings, etc]¹ is again a [group, ring, etc].

PROPOSITION 136. Let R be a commutative ring with unity and let $x \notin R$. There exists a unique ring extension R[x] of R up to isomorphism such that for every ring extension S of R and every element y of S, there is a unique ring homomorphism $f_y: R[x] \to S$ which fixes R and sends x to y.

DEFINITION 137. This ring is called the *polynomial ring* over R; if $p \in R[x]$, we define p to be a function on S by $f_y(p) = p(y)$.

DEFINITION 138. An equivalence relation \sim and a binary operation \cdot , both over A, are said to be *compatible* if $a_1 \sim a_2$ and $b_1 \sim b_2$ imply $a_1 \cdot b_1 \sim a_2 \cdot b_2$. In this case, we may define the operation \cdot induced on A/\sim by \cdot as $[a] \cdot [b] = [a \cdot b]$.

Proposition 139. If A is a [monoid, group, etc] and \sim is a nontrivial equivalence relation compatible with all of its operations, then A/\sim is a [monoid, group, etc] under the operations induced on it.

DEFINITION 140. A field is a ring $(A, +, \cdot)$ such that $(A \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$ is an abelian group.

An ordered field is a field that is also an ordered ring.

DEFINITION 141. A partially ordered set S is *complete* if every nonempty subset that has an upper bound in S has a least upper bound in S.

PROPOSITION 142. Let S be a complete partially ordered set. Every nonempty subset that has a lower bound in S has a greatest lower bound in S.

THEOREM 143. There are structures $\omega = \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ satisfying the following properties:

- If M is a monoid and $a \in M$, there is a unique homomorphism $f: \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \to M$ such that f(1) = a.
- If R is a ring with unity, there is a unique homomorphism $f: \mathbb{Z} \to R$.
- If F is a field containing \mathbb{Z} , there is a unique homomorphism $f: \mathbb{Q} \to F$.
- \mathbb{R} is a complete totally ordered field.

Moreover, each of these properties defines the corresponding structure up to unique isomorphism.

¹except for fields

DEFINITION 144. The structures thus defined are the nonnegative integers, integers, rational numbers and real numbers respectively.

Remark 145. We avoid the symbol \mathbb{N} and the term *natural numbers*, since some sources take it to mean $\mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ and others take it to mean $\mathbb{Z}_{>0}$.

DEFINITION 146. We define the *complex numbers* \mathbb{C} as $\mathbb{R}[x]/\sim$, where \sim is the equivalence relation given by $a \sim b \iff \exists c : a = b + c(x^2 + 1)$.

Proposition 147. There is a unique nontrivial automorphism of \mathbb{C} fixing \mathbb{R} .

DEFINITION 148. This automorphism is called *complex conjugation*; the image of a is denoted \overline{a} .

PROPOSITION 149. If $a \in \mathbb{C}$, then $a\overline{a} \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$.

PROPOSITION 150. Let $b \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$. There exists a unique $x \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ such that $x \cdot x = b$.

DEFINITION 151. We call x the square root of b, denoted \sqrt{b} .

DEFINITION 152. We call $\sqrt{a\overline{a}}$ the modulus of a, denoted |a|.

PROPOSITION 153 (Triangle Inequality). If a and b are complex numbers, then $|a+b| \leq |a| + |b|$.

THEOREM 154 (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra). For all $P \in \mathbb{C}[x] \setminus \mathbb{C}$, there is a complex number z such that P(z) = 0.

Remark 155. We assume this theorem for now, and prove it in the section on complex analysis.

THEOREM 156. $|\mathbb{Z}^+| = |\mathbb{Z}_{>0}| = |\mathbb{Z}| = |\mathbb{Q}| = \omega$, but $|\mathbb{R}| = |\mathbb{C}| = |\mathcal{P}(\omega)|$.

Proposition 157. $|\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{Z}}| = |\mathbb{Z}^{\mathbb{Z}}|$.

3. Linear Algebra

DEFINITION 158. Let \mathbb{F} be a field. A vector space over \mathbb{F} is an abelian group V (of vectors) together with a function $\cdot : \mathbb{F} \times V \to V$ (scalar multiplication) such that

- a(bv) = (ab)v (compatible),
- 1v = v (identity), and
- a(u+v) = au + av and (a+b)v = av + bv (distributive).

DEFINITION 159. Let S be a subset of V. A linear combination of elements of S is a vector of the form

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i s_i,$$

where each s_i is a distinct element of S.

A basis of a vector space V is a set $S \subseteq V$ such that each element of V can be uniquely represented as a linear combination of elements of S.

Remark 160. For an infinite-dimensional vector space, there are multiple different notions of a basis. This one is usually called a *Hamel basis*.

Theorem 161. Let V be a vector space.

- V has a Hamel basis.
- Any two Hamel bases of V have the same cardinality.

DEFINITION 162. The dimension of V is the cardinality of a basis of V. If dim V is an integer, V is said to be finite-dimensional; otherwise, it is infinite-dimensional.

DEFINITION 163. A subspace W of V is a nonempty subset of V which is also a vector space over \mathbb{F} .

Proposition 164. A subset W of V is a subspace iff the following conditions hold:

- \bullet W is nonempty;
- $u, v \in W$ implies $u + v \in W$ (closed under addition); and
- if $a \in \mathbb{F}$ and $u \in W$ then $au \in W$ (closed under scalar multiplication).

Proposition 165. The intersection of any collection of subspaces of V is again a subspace of V.

DEFINITION 166. The span of a subset S of V is the intersection of all subspaces of V which contain S.

PROPOSITION 167. The span of S is the set of all linear combinations of S.

DEFINITION 168. Given two subspaces X and Y of V, their $sum\ X+Y$ is the intersection of all subspaces of V which contain both X and Y.

If X + Y = V and $X \cap Y = \{0\}$ then X is said to be a *complement* of Y.

Proposition 169. $X + Y = \{x + y : x \in X, y \in Y\}.$

DEFINITION 170. A subset S of V is linearly independent if any linear combination of elements of S that produces 0 has all coefficients equal to 0. Otherwise, it is linearly dependent.

Proposition 171. A subset S of V is a basis iff it is linearly independent and its span is V.

PROPOSITION 172. Let V be finite-dimensional with dimension d. Let S be a set of vectors in V with |S| = d. Then S is linearly independent iff it spans V.

DEFINITION 173. A linear map, or linear transformation, from V to W is a group homomorphism $T:V\to W$ such that $T(\lambda v)=\lambda T(v)$ for all $\lambda\in\mathbb{F}$. A linear map from a vector space to itself is an operator.

The product of linear maps S and T is $ST = S \circ T$.

PROPOSITION 174. The set $\mathcal{L}(V,W)$ of linear maps from V to W is a vector space. Right-multiplication by a linear map $T:U\to V$ defines a linear map from $\mathcal{L}(V,W)$ to $\mathcal{L}(U,W)$. Left-multiplication by T defines a linear map from $\mathcal{L}(W,U)$ to $\mathcal{L}(W,V)$.

DEFINITION 175. An *algebra* is a set A over a field K with operations of addition, multiplication and scalar multiplication which is both a vector space and a ring, such that multiplication is bilinear.

Proposition 176. The set of operators from a vector space to itself is an algebra.

DEFINITION 177. The *null space* of a linear map T is the subset of its domain that T maps to 0.

Proposition 178. The null space and image of a linear map are both vector spaces.

PROPOSITION 179. The null space of a linear map is {0} iff the map is injective.

Proposition 180. If a linear map is injective, then its left inverse is linear. If a linear map is surjective, then it has a linear right inverse.

PROPOSITION 181. Let V be finite-dimensional. A linear map $T:V\to V$ is injective iff it is surjective.

DEFINITION 182. The *product* of vector spaces is the Cartesian product, where addition and scalar multiplication are defined componentwise.

PROPOSITION 183. The product of a collection S of vector spaces is a vector space whose dimension is the sum of the dimensions of the elements of S.

COROLLARY 184. The product $\mathbb{F}^n = \mathbb{F} \times \mathbb{F} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{F}$ is a vector space over \mathbb{F} .

PROPOSITION 185. Suppose U is a subspace of V. Define the relation $a \sim b \iff b-a \in V$. Then \sim is an equivalence relation compatible with addition and scalar multiplication. The partition induced by this relation is a vector space. If V is finite-dimensional, this vector space has dimension dim V – dim U.

Definition 186. This vector space is called the *quotient space* of V over U, denoted V/U.

PROPOSITION 187. Suppose T is a linear transformation with domain V, and let U be the null space of T. Then T induces an isomorphism from V/U to the image of T.

COROLLARY 188 (Rank-Nullity). Let V be finite-dimensional, and let $T:V\to W$ be a linear transformation. Then the null space of T is a subspace of V, the image of T is a subspace of W, and the sum of the dimensions of these two subspaces equals $\dim V$.

DEFINITION 189. A linear functional on V is a linear map from V to \mathbb{F} . The space of linear functionals on V is the dual space of V, denoted V'.

PROPOSITION 190. If V is infinite-dimensional, $\dim V' > \dim V$.

PROPOSITION 191. If v_1, \ldots, v_n is a finite basis of V, then there exists a basis of n elements φ_j of V', where $\varphi_j v_k$ is 1 if j = k and 0 otherwise.

DEFINITION 192. This basis is called the *dual basis* of v_1, \ldots, v_n .

PROPOSITION 193. If V is finite-dimensional, then for every $z \in (V')'$ there is an $x \in V$ such that for every $y \in V'$ we have z(y) = y(x). The correspondence $x \to z$ is an isomorphism.

Remark 194. Thus, (V')' and V are often identified for finite-dimensional vector spaces.

Definition 195. For $U \subseteq V$, the annihilator of U is

$$U^0 = \{ \varphi \in V' : \varphi(u) = 0 \ \forall u \in U \}.$$

Proposition 196. $\dim U + \dim U^0 = \dim V$.

Proposition 197. $(U^0)^0 = U$.

PROPOSITION 198. If M and N are complementary subspaces of V, then M^0 and N^0 are complementary subspaces of V'. The restriction $|_M$ is an isomorphism between N^0 and M'.

DEFINITION 199. The dual map of T is the linear map $T': W' \to V'$ defined by $T'\varphi = \varphi T$ for each $\varphi \in W'$.

PROPOSITION 200. The image of T' is the annihilator of the null space of T. The null space of T' is the annihilator of the image of T.

DEFINITION 201. Suppose V and W have finite bases $\{v_i\}_1^m$ and $\{w_i\}_1^n$ respectively. The matrix A of T with respect to these bases is defined by

$$Tv_k = \sum_{i=1}^n A_{i,k} w_i.$$

We also identify $1 \times n$ and $n \times 1$ matrices with elements of \mathbb{F}^n .

PROPOSITION 202. This defines a bijection between the space of $m \times n$ matrices and $\mathcal{L}(\mathbb{F}^n, \mathbb{F}^m)$.

DEFINITION 203. Thus, we identify the two, and can therefore talk of the image, null space, etc of a matrix. Matrix addition and multiplication are defined in the same way as addition and multiplication of linear transformations.

DEFINITION 204. The rank of a matrix is the dimension of its image.

The transpose of a matrix is the matrix obtained by swapping rows and columns: $A_{i,k}^T = A_{k,j}$.

PROPOSITION 205. Let $T: V \to W$ be a linear transformation, where V and W are finite-dimensional. Pick bases $\{v_i\}$ and $\{w_i\}$ of V and W. The matrix of T' with respect to the dual bases of $\{w_i\}$ and $\{v_i\}$ is the transpose of the matrix of T with respect to $\{v_i\}$ and $\{w_i\}$.

PROPOSITION 206. The image of A equals the image of AA^{T} .

COROLLARY 207. The ranks of the matrices A, A^T, AA^T and A^TA are equal.

DEFINITION 208. Let $A:U\to W$ and $B:V\to W$ be linear maps. We augment A with B to get the linear map

$$(A|B): U \times V \to W, (A|B)(x,y) = Ax + By.$$

PROPOSITION 209. For any $x:V\to U$ we have $Ax=B\iff (A|B)(x,-I)=0.$

REMARK 210. Thus, to solve the linear system Ax = B it suffices to find the null space of (A|B). Notice also that the matrix of (A|B) is simply the matrix formed by concatenating the matrices of A and B.

PROPOSITION 211. Let T and S be linear maps from V to W. The following are equivalent:

- \bullet The null spaces of T and S are the same.
- The images of T' and S' are the same.

• There is an invertible linear map $A: V \to V$ such that AT = S.

DEFINITION 212. Such linear maps are called equivalent.

DEFINITION 213. A linear transformation $T:V\to V$ is a projection onto U if U is its image and Tu=u for each $u\in U$.

Proposition 214. Every linear transformation is equivalent to a projection.

COROLLARY 215. Every linear transformation T is a sum of r transformations of rank one, where r is the rank of T.

Definition 216. A pivot is the first nonzero entry in a row of a matrix.

A matrix is in row echelon form (REF) if all rows consisting of only zeroes are at the bottom and the pivot of a nonzero row is strictly to the right of the pivot of the row above it.

A matrix is in *reduced row echelon form* (RREF) if it is in REF, all pivots are 1, and each column containing a pivot has zeroes everywhere else in the column.

Proposition 217. Every matrix is equivalent to a unique matrix in RREF.

PROPOSITION 218 (LU Factorisation). If a matrix A is square, then there are a permutation matrix P, an invertible lower-triangular matrix L and a matrix U in REF such that PA = LU.

REMARK 219. The null space of a matrix in REF is easy to find by *back-substitution*. Thus, to find the null space of a matrix, we factorise it into into $P^{-1}LU$ and find the null space of U. This process is known as *Gaussian elimination*.

PROPOSITION 220. Let T be a matrix which is equivalent to a matrix S in REF. Then,

- The rows of S with pivots form a basis for the span of the rows of T.
- Consider the columns of S with pivots. The corresponding columns of T form a basis for the span of the columns of T.

DEFINITION 221. Let $T: V \to V$ be a linear transformation. A subspace U of V is called *invariant* under T if $u \in U \implies Tu \in U$.

DEFINITION 222. A nonzero vector $v \in V$ is called an *eigenvector* of T if there is some $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$ such that $Tv = \lambda v$. We call λ an *eigenvalue* of T.

PROPOSITION 223. λ is an eigenvalue of T if and only if $T - \lambda I$ is not invertible.

Proposition 224. Any set of eigenvectors of T with distinct eigenvalues is linearly independent.

PROPOSITION 225. Suppose $T:V\to V$ is linear, U is a subspace of V invariant under T, and $\pi:V\to V/U$ is the natural projection. There is a linear map $T/U:V/U\to V/U$ such that $T/U\circ\pi=\pi\circ T$.

Definition 226. This map is the quotient map T/U.

Definition 227. Suppose $T: V \to V$ is a linear transformation and

$$p(z) = \sum a_i z^i,$$

where each $a_i \in \mathbb{F}$. Then $p(T) = \sum a_i T^i$.

Theorem 228. Every operator on a finite-dimensional nonzero complex vector space has an eigenvalue.

Definition 229. In defining the matrix of an operator, we choose the same basis for the domain and codomain.

Proposition 230. Suppose V is a finite-dimensional vector space and $T:V\to V$ is an operator. Then T has an upper-triangular matrix with respect to some basis of V.

PROPOSITION 231. Suppose $T:V\to V$ has an upper-triangular matrix with respect to some basis of V. Then the eigenvalues of T are precisely the entries on the diagonal of that matrix.

DEFINITION 232. An operator is *diagonalisable* if it has a diagonal matrix with respect to some basis of the space.

PROPOSITION 233. Let $T:V\to V$ be an operator over a finite-dimensional vector space. Then T is diagonalisable iff V has a basis consisting of eigenvectors of T.

DEFINITION 234. An inner product space is a vector space V over a field \mathbb{F} which is either \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} , together with a function $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \to \mathbb{F}$ satisfying

- $\langle x, y \rangle = \overline{\langle y, x \rangle}$ (conjugate symmetry)
- $\langle ax + by, z \rangle = a \langle x, z \rangle + b \langle y, z \rangle$ (linearity in the first argument), and
- $\langle x, x \rangle = 0 \implies x = 0.$

Proposition 235. The dot product, defined by

$$(a_1,\ldots,a_n)\cdot(b_1,\ldots,b_n)=\sum a_i\overline{b_i},$$

is an inner product over both \mathbb{R}^n and \mathbb{C}^n .

Proposition 236 (Cauchy-Schwarz). $|\langle u, v \rangle| \leq ||u|| ||v||$.

DEFINITION 237. A normed vector space is a vector space V over \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} on which there is a norm: a function $\|\cdot\|: V \to \mathbb{R}$ satisfying

- $||x|| \ge 0$, with $||x|| = 0 \iff x = 0$,
- ||ax|| = |a|||x||, and
- $||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y||$ (the triangle inequality).

PROPOSITION 238. If V is an inner product space, then $\langle x, x \rangle$ is real for all x. Moreover, $||x|| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$ is a norm on V.

DEFINITION 239. Two vectors x and y are orthogonal if $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$.

A set of vectors is *orthonormal* if each vector in the set has norm 1 and is orthogonal to all other vectors in the set.

Proposition 240 (Gram-Schmidt). Suppose V is finite-dimensional. Then every orthonormal list of vectors in V can be extended to an orthonormal basis of V

Remark 241. Thus, we may identify a finite-dimensional inner product space over \mathbb{F} with \mathbb{F}^n under the usual dot product.

Theorem 242 (Schur). An operator over a finite-dimensional inner product space has an upper-triangular matrix with respect to an orthonormal basis of the space.

Theorem 243 (Riesz Representation). Any linear functional f on a finite-dimensional inner product space can be written as $f(x) = \langle x, v \rangle$ for some fixed vector v.

REMARK 244. Thus, on a finite-dimensional inner product space we may canonically identify the dual space with the space itself.

PROPOSITION 245. Let $T:V\to W$ be linear. There exists a unique function $T^*:W\to V$ such that

$$\langle Tv, w \rangle = \langle v, T^*w \rangle$$

for every $v \in V$ and every $w \in W$. The function T^* is linear, and we have $(T^*)^* = T$.

Definition 246. We call T^* the adjoint of T.

PROPOSITION 247. The images of T and TT^* are the same; the images of T^* and T^*T are the same.

COROLLARY 248. The ranks of T and T^* are the same.

PROPOSITION 249. Let $T: V \to W$ be linear, where V and W are real or complex vector spaces. Let $\{v_i\}$ be an orthonormal basis for V, and let $\{w_i\}$ be an orthonormal basis for W. Then, the matrix of T^* with respect to $\{w_i\}$ and $\{v_i\}$ is the conjugate transpose of the matrix of T with respect to $\{v_i\}$ and $\{w_i\}$.

DEFINITION 250. Let T be an operator. If $T^* = T$, then T is self-adjoint. If $TT^* = T^*T$, then T is normal.

Proposition 251. Every eigenvalue of a self-adjoint operator is real.

Theorem 252 (Spectral). Let $T:V\to V$ be normal, where V is finite-dimensional. Then T has a diagonal matrix with respect to some orthonormal basis of V.

Remark 253. Thus, we may write $T=UBU^*$, where $UU^*=U^*U=I$ and B is diagonal.

PROPOSITION 254. If A is normal, then B commutes with A iff B commutes with A^* .

DEFINITION 255. Let U and V be vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . A function $w: U \times V \to \mathbb{F}$ is called a *bilinear form* if $w(u, v_0)$ and $w(u_0, v)$ are linear for fixed u_0 and v_0 .

Proposition 256. The dimension of the space of bilinear forms on $U \times V$ is the product of the dimensions of U and V.

PROPOSITION 257. For any two vector spaces V and W there is a unique (up to isomorphism) vector space $V \otimes W$ and a map $\otimes : V \times W \to V \otimes W$ such that for any bilinear function $h: V \times W \to Z$ there is a linear function $\bar{h}: V \otimes W \to Z$ such that $h(v,w) = \bar{h}(v \otimes w)$.

DEFINITION 258. The space $U \otimes V$ is the tensor product of U and V, and for $u \in U$ and $v \in V$ we call $u \otimes v$ the tensor product of u and v.

PROPOSITION 259. If X and Y are bases in U and V, then the set $\{x \otimes y : x \in X, y \in Y\}$ is a basis in $U \otimes V$.

PROPOSITION 260. Let U and V be finite-dimensional vector spaces. There is an isomorphism $f: \mathcal{L}(U) \otimes \mathcal{L}(V) \to \mathcal{L}(U \otimes V)$ satisfying

$$f(A \otimes B)(u \otimes v) = Au \otimes Bv.$$

DEFINITION 261. Thus, we identify these two spaces and speak of the *tensor* product of two operators as an operator on the tensor product of the underlying spaces.

PROPOSITION 262. For each bilinear form f on a finite-dimensional inner product space there is a unique linear map A such that $Q(x,y) = \langle Ax,y \rangle$ for all $x,y \in V$. The form f is conjugate symmetric — that is, $f(x,y) = \overline{f(y,x)}$ — iff A is self-adjoint.

DEFINITION 263. A quadratic form Q on V is defined by Q(x) = f(x, x), where $f: V \times V \to \mathbb{F}$ is bilinear.

PROPOSITION 264. If Q is a quadratic form on a complex vector space such that its image is contained in \mathbb{R} , then there exists a unique conjugate symmetric bilinear form f such that Q(x) = f(x, x).

DEFINITION 265. Two self-adjoint linear maps X and Y are congruent if there is some invertible linear map S such that $X = SYS^*$.

PROPOSITION 266. If $Q = \langle Ax, x \rangle$ and $R(y) = \langle By, y \rangle$ are two quadratic forms on V, then there is an invertible linear map L such that Q(Lx) = R(x) iff A and B are congruent.

Proposition 267 (Sylvester's Law of Inertia). If two diagonal matrices are congruent, the numbers of positive, negative, and zero entries are equal in each.

DEFINITION 268. A quadratic form Q(x) = f(x, x) on an inner product space, where f is conjugate symmetric, is called

- Positive definite if Q(x) > 0 for all $x \neq 0$;
- Positive semidefinite if $Q(x) \ge 0$ for all x;
- Negative definite if Q(x) < 0 for all $x \neq 0$;
- Negative semidefinite if $Q(x) \leq 0$ for all x; and
- *Indefinite* otherwise.

A self-adjoint linear map A is called *positive definite* (etc) if the corresponding quadratic form $\langle Ax, x \rangle$ is positive definite (etc).

PROPOSITION 269. T is positive semidefinite iff there exists an operator R such that $T = R^*R$. The matrix R may be taken to be upper triangular, and is invertible iff T is positive definite.

DEFINITION 270. An operator F is a square root of an operator T if $R^2 = T$.

Proposition 271. Every positive semidefinite operator has a unique positive semidefinite square root.

DEFINITION 272. If T is a positive semidefinite operator, then \sqrt{T} denotes the unique positive semidefinite square root of T.

DEFINITION 273. Let U be a finite-dimensional subspace of V. The *orthogonal* projection of V onto U is the operator $P_U: V \to V$ defined by $P_Uv = u$ where $u \in U$ and $\langle v - u, x \rangle = 0 \ \forall x \in U$.

Proposition 274. The orthogonal projection is well defined, and satisfies

$$||P_u v|| \le ||v||.$$

For any $u \in U$, we have

$$||v - P_U v|| \le ||v - u||.$$

PROPOSITION 275. Let A be injective. Then A^*A is invertible, and the projection onto the image of A is $A(A^*A)^{-1}A^*$.

COROLLARY 276 (Least Squares Regression). For any vector b, the vector x that minimises ||b - Ax|| is $(A^*A)^{-1}A^*b$.

DEFINITION 277. A linear transformation is an *isometry* if it preserves norms. An operator which is also an isometry is *unitary*.

Proposition 278. An linear map T is an isometry iff $T^*T = I$.

THEOREM 279 (QR Decomposition). Let $A:V\to W$ be linear, and pick orthonormal bases on V and W. There There exists a unitary operator Q and an upper triangular matrix R such that A=QR.

PROPOSITION 280. If A = QR as above and A is injective, then $(A^*A)x = A^*b$ implies $Rx = Q^*b$.

THEOREM 281 (Polar Decomposition). For each operator T, there exists a unitary operator S such that $T = S\sqrt{T^*T}$.

DEFINITION 282. The *singular values* of T are the eigenvalues of $\sqrt{T^*T}$, where each eigenvalue λ is counted the same number of times as the dimension of its eigenspace.

Proposition 283. The nonzero singular values of T and of T^* coincide.

THEOREM 284 (Singular Value Decomposition). Suppose $T:V\to W$ has singular values s_1,\ldots,s_n . Then there exist orthonormal bases e_1,\ldots,e_n of V and f_1,\ldots,f_n of W such that

$$Tv = \sum_{i} s_i \langle v, e_i \rangle f_i$$

for all $v \in V$.

PROPOSITION 285. Let $T:V\to W$ be a linear transformation. There exists a unique linear transformation $T^+:W\to V$ such that

- $TT^{+}T = T$;
- $T^+TT^+ = T^+$;
- TT^+ and T^+T are self-adjoint.

DEFINITION 286. This transformation T^+ is known as the *pseudoinverse* of T.

PROPOSITION 287. If T is injective, then $T^+T=I$. If T is surjective, then $TT^+=I$.

Proposition 288. The perpendicular projection onto the image of T is TT^+ .

DEFINITION 289. A vector v is called a generalised eigenvector of T corresponding to an eigenvalue λ if $v \neq 0$ and $(T - \lambda I)^j v = 0$ for some positive integer j.

The generalised eigenspace of T corresponding to λ is the set of all generalised eigenvectors of T corresponding to λ , along with the 0 vector.

PROPOSITION 290. For finite-dimensional V, v is a generalised eigenvector of T iff $(T - \lambda I)^{\dim V} v = 0$.

Proposition 291. Generalised eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues are linearly independent.

PROPOSITION 292. Suppose V is a finite-dimensional complex vector space, and T is an operator on V. Then there is a basis of V consisting of generalised eigenvectors of T.

DEFINITION 293. The *multiplicity* of an eigenvalue λ of T is the dimension of the corresponding generalised eigenspace.

PROPOSITION 294. If T is diagonalisable, then the multiplicity of λ equals the number of times that λ appears in the diagonal matrix of T with respect to any basis.

Proposition 295. Every operator on a nonzero finite-dimensional real vector space has an invariant subspace of dimension 1 or 2.

DEFINITION 296. A linear transformation T is nilpotent if $T^q = 0$ for some positive integer q. The least positive integer q such that this is true is called the index of T.

DEFINITION 297. If X is a complement of Y, and X and Y are both invariant under T, then T is said to be decomposed by X and Y.

PROPOSITION 298. For every linear transformation A on a finite-dimensional vector space V, there are unique subspaces X and Y on V such that A is decomposed by X and Y, $A|_X$ is nilpotent, and $A|_Y$ is invertible.

PROPOSITION 299. If A is nilpotent with index q on a finite-dimensional vector space V, then there exist positive integers $r, q = q_1 \ge \cdots \ge q_r$ and vectors x_1, \ldots, x_r such that $\{A^j x_i : 1 \le i \le r, j < q_r\}$ is a basis for V and $A^{q_i} x_i = 0$ for all i.

Definition 300. A block diagonal matrix is a square matrix of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & A_m \end{pmatrix},$$

where each A_i is a square matrix lying along the diagonal and all other entries of the matrix are 0.

Theorem 301 (Jordan Form). If T is an operator on a finite-dimensional complex vector space, then there is a basis such that the matrix of T with respect

to this basis is block diagonal with blocks of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_i & 1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & & & \lambda_i \end{pmatrix},$$

where each λ_i is a distinct eigenvalue of T.

DEFINITION 302. The trace of a square matrix A is the sum of the diagonal entries of A.

PROPOSITION 303. If T is an operator over a finite-dimensional vector space V, and $\{a_i\}$ and $\{b_i\}$ are two bases for V, then the trace of the matrix of T with respect to $\{a_i\}$ equals the trace of the matrix of T with respect to $\{b_i\}$.

Definition 304. We call this quantity the trace of T.

PROPOSITION 305. The trace is additive; further, the traces of AB + kI and of BA + kI are equal.

Proposition 306. If V is complex, then the trace of T equals the sum of the eigenvalues of T counted according to multiplicity.

DEFINITION 307. Let $\{V_i\}_1^k$ be vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . A k-linear form is a function $f: \prod_1^k V_i \to \mathbb{F}$ such that, if all except for one argument is kept fixed, then the function is linear in the remaining argument. If all V_i are equal to V, then f is a k-linear form on V.

DEFINITION 308. A k-linear form f on V is alternating if $f(x_1, \ldots, x_k) = 0$ whenever two of the x_i s are equal.

PROPOSITION 309. If x_1, \ldots, x_k are linearly dependent vectors and w is an alternating k-linear form, then $w(x_1, \ldots, x_k) = 0$.

PROPOSITION 310. If V is an n-dimensional vector space for n > 0, then the vector space of alternating n-linear forms on V is one-dimensional.

PROPOSITION 311. Let A be an operator on V. To each nonzero alternating n-linear form w on V we associate the form $\bar{A}w$ defined by $(\bar{A}w)(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=w(Ax_1,\ldots,Ax_n)$. Then there exists a scalar $|A| \in \mathbb{F}$ such that $\bar{A}w=|A|w$.

Definition 312. We call this scalar |A| the determinant of A, also denoted det A.

Proposition 313. The determinant is multiplicative.

COROLLARY 314. A is invertible iff det $A \neq 0$.

Proposition 315. $\det A = \det A'$.

PROPOSITION 316. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^3$. There exists a unique vector $a \times b$ such that for for any vector c, $(a \times b) \cdot c$ is the determinant of the operator which sends the standard basis to a, b, c.

DEFINITION 317. This vector is the *cross product* of a and b.

Proposition 318. We have the following identities:

- $a \times b + b \times a = 0$
- $a \times (b \times c) + b \times (c \times a) + c \times (a \times b) = 0$.

DEFINITION 319. If π is a permutation of $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$, the sign of π is -1^k , where $k = |\{(a, b) \in \{1, 2, ..., n\} : a < b, \pi(a) > \pi(b)\}|$.

PROPOSITION 320. Let A be $n \times n$. The determinant of the linear transformation defined by A equals

$$\sum_{\pi} \operatorname{sign}(\pi) \prod_{i=1}^{n} A_{\pi(i),i},$$

where the sum is taken over all permutations π of $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$.

DEFINITION 321. For an $n \times n$ matrix A, let $A_{j,k}$ denote the $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrix obtained from A by crossing out row number j and column number k. The numbers $C_{j,k} = (-1)^{j+k} \det A_{j,k}$ are the cofactors of A. Let C be the matrix whose entries are the cofactors of a given matrix A.

Theorem 322 (Cofactor expansion). $AC^T = (\det A)I$.

COROLLARY 323 (Cramer's rule). For an invertible matrix A, the entry number k of the solution of the equation Ax = b is given by

$$x_k = \frac{\det B_k}{\det A},$$

where the matrix B_k is obtained from A by replacing column number k of A by B.

Proposition 324. If V is a complex vector space, then the determinant of T equals the product of the eigenvalues of T counted according to multiplicity.

DEFINITION 325. Let T be an operator on a finite-dimensional vector space. The *characteristic polynomial* p of T is defined by

$$p(\lambda) = \det(T - \lambda I).$$

Theorem 326 (Cayley-Hamilton). Let p be the characteristic polynomial of T. Then p(T)=0.

Proposition 327. If T is an operator on a finite-dimensional complex vector space, then the characteristic polynomial p of T satisfies

$$p(z) = \prod (\lambda_i - z),$$

where λ_i are the eigenvalues of T counted according to multiplicity.

COROLLARY 328. All eigenvalues of A are positive iff A is positive definite.

PROPOSITION 329 (Sylvester's Criterion). Let A be self-adjoint. Then A is positive definite iff for each k, the determinant of the top-left $k \times k$ submatrix of A is positive.

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4. Analysis

DEFINITION 330. A topology on a set X is a collection T of open sets in X such that $\emptyset, X \in T$, and T is closed under arbitrary unions and finite intersections. A set for which a topology has been specified is a topological space. Given $x \in X$, a neighbourhood of x is an element $U \in T$ such that $x \in U$.

DEFINITION 331. If X is a set, a basis for a topology on X is a collection B of subsets of X such that $\bigcup B = X$, and if $B_1, B_2 \in B$ have nonempty intersection then there is a $B_3 \in B$ contained in their intersection.

Proposition 332. If B is a basis for a topology on X, the collection of all unions of elements of B defines a topology on X.

Definition 333. This is the topology generated by B.

PROPOSITION 334. Let X be a topological space with topology T. If Y is a subset of X, the collection $T_Y = \{Y \cap U : U \in T\}$ is a topology on Y.

Definition 335. This is the subspace topology.

DEFINITION 336. Let E be a subset of a topological space M.

- A point p is a *limit point* of E if neighbourhood of p contains a point $q \neq p$ such that $q \in E$.
- A point p is a condensation point of E if every neighbourhood of p contains uncountably many points of E.
- A point p is an *interior point* of E if there is a neighbourhood of p which is a subset of E.
- E is closed if every limit point of E is a point of E.
- E is open if every point of E is an interior point of E.
- E is perfect if E is closed and every point of E is a limit point of E.
- The complement E^c of a set E is the set $M \setminus E$.
- The *interior* of E is the set of interior points of E.
- The boundary ∂E of E is the set of points of M that are limit points of both E and E^c .
- The closure of E is the set $\overline{E} = E \cup \partial E$.

Proposition 337. The interior and boundary of E are disjoint, and their union is E.

Proposition 338. The following are equivalent:

- \bullet E is its own interior.
- $E \cap \partial E = \emptyset$.
- E^c contains its limit points.
- $\partial E \subseteq E^c$.

Proposition 339. The closure of E is closed; the interior of E is open.

Any closed set which contains E contains the closure of E. Any open set which is contained in E is contained in the interior of E.

DEFINITION 340. A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is *convergent* if there is a point L such that every neighbourhood of L contains all but finitely many a_n . We write $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$, or $a_n \to L$ as $n \to \infty$.

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DEFINITION 341. A set E is connected if the only subsets of E that are both open and closed in E are the empty set and E itself; otherwise, it is disconnected

Proposition 342. A topological space is disconnected iff it is the union of two disjoint nonempty open sets.

DEFINITION 343. We say that f is *continuous* at p if for each neighbourhood B of f(p), there is a neighbourhood A of p such that $f(A) \subseteq B$.

We say that f is *continuous* on X, or simply *continuous*, if it is continuous at every point in X.

Proposition 344. A function is continuous iff the inverse image of every open set is open.

Proposition 345. A continuous image of a connected set is connected.

Proposition 346. A monotonic function $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$ has at most countably many discontinuities.

Definition 347. An open cover of a topological space E is a set of open sets whose union contains E.

DEFINITION 348. A set E is said to be *compact* if every open cover of E contains a finite subcover.

PROPOSITION 349. Suppose $X \subseteq M$. A subset E of X is compact relative to X (under the subspace topology) iff E is compact relative to M.

PROPOSITION 350. If S is a collection of closed subsets of a compact space such that any finite intersection of elements of S is nonempty, then $\bigcap S$ is nonempty.

Proposition 351. A continuous image of a compact set is compact.

DEFINITION 352. A topological space is Hausdorff if for every pair (a, b) of distinct points, there are disjoint neighbourhoods A of a and B of b.

PROPOSITION 353. If $f:X\to Y$ is a continuous bijection, X is compact, and Y is Hausdorff, then f^{-1} is continuous.

DEFINITION 354. A metric space is a nonempty set M together with a function $d: M \times M \to \mathbb{R}$ (the metric) such that

- $d(x,y) = 0 \iff x = y$,
- d(x,y) = d(y,x) (symmetry),
- $d(x, z) \le d(x, y) + d(y, z)$ (triangle inequality).

DEFINITION 355. In a metric space, the open ball $B_r(x)$ with centre x and radius r is the set of all points y with d(x,y) < r.

The closed ball $\overline{B_r(x)}$ with centre x and radius r is the set of all points y with $d(x,y) \leq r$.

Proposition 356. In a normed vector space, the function d(x,y) = ||x-y|| is a metric.

Definition 357. We call this the *induced metric*.

Proposition 358. The set of open balls on a metric space is a basis for a topology.

PROPOSITION 359. Suppose $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ are sequences of complex numbers which converge to a and b respectively. Then the sequences $\{a_n+b_n\}, \{a_nb_n\}, \{\frac{a_n}{b_n}\}$ converge to $a+b, ab, \frac{a}{b}$ respectively (where in the last one we require $b_n \neq 0$ for each n, and $b \neq 0$).

Definition 360. Let E be a subset of a metric space X.

- E is bounded if it is contained in some open ball.
- E is totally bounded if for any $\varepsilon > 0$ there are a finite number of open balls of radius ε which cover E.

Theorem 361 (Monotone Convergence). A monotonic sequence in \mathbb{R} converges iff it is bounded.

DEFINITION 362. A sequence $\{p_n\}$ in a metric space is Cauchy if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there is an integer N such that $d(p_n, p_m) < \varepsilon$ if $m, n \ge N$.

A metric space is *complete* if every Cauchy sequence converges.

Proposition 363. Every convergent sequence is Cauchy.

Proposition 364. A sequence in \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n converges iff it converges coordinatewise.

COROLLARY 365. \mathbb{R}^n and \mathbb{C}^n are complete.

Proposition 366. Let M be a metric space. The following are equivalent:

- *M* is compact.
- M is complete and totally bounded.
- \bullet Every infinite set in M contains a limit point.
- Every sequence of open sets $S_1 \subseteq S_2 \subseteq \cdots$ fails to cover M.

COROLLARY 367 (Weierstrass). Every bounded infinite subset of \mathbb{R}^n has a limit point.

COROLLARY 368 (Extreme Value Theorem). If the domain of f is compact and the codomain of f is \mathbb{R} , then the image of f is closed and bounded. In particular, f attains its minimum and maximum.

PROPOSITION 369. Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. The following are equivalent:

- \bullet S is connected.
- If $a, b \in S$ and a < c < b then $c \in S$.
- There are real numbers a, b such that S contains all elements c with a < c < b and no elements with a > c or b < c.

Definition 370. Such a set is called an *interval*.

COROLLARY 371 (Intermediate Value Theorem). If the domain of f is connected and the codomain of f is \mathbb{R} , then the image of f is an interval.

PROPOSITION 372. For every uncountable subset A of \mathbb{R}^n , the set A' of its condensation points is nonempty and perfect. Further, $A \setminus A'$ is at most countable.

PROPOSITION 373. There exists a perfect set in \mathbb{R} which contains no segment.

PROPOSITION 374. Every nonempty perfect set in \mathbb{R}^n has cardinality $|\mathbb{R}|$.

THEOREM 375 (Baire). To each countable ordinal α , assign a closed set $S_{\alpha} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, such that if $\alpha < \beta$ then $S_{\beta} \subseteq S_{\alpha}$. The intersection of all sets thus defined equals S_{γ} for some countable ordinal γ .

COROLLARY 376 (Cantor-Bendixson). Let S be a closed set, and define $S^{(\alpha)}$ for every ordinal α such that

- $S^{(0)} = S$
- $S^{(\alpha+1)}$ is the set of limit points of $S^{(\alpha)}$
- $S^{(\alpha)}$ is the intersection of all $S^{(\beta)}$ for $\beta < \alpha$, if α is a limit ordinal.

Then there is an ordinal γ which is at most countable such that $S^{(\gamma)}$ is the set of condensation points of S.

DEFINITION 377. A function f is uniformly continuous if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that if $d(a,b) < \delta$ then $d(f(a),f(b)) < \varepsilon$.

Theorem 378. Every continuous function on a compact metric space is uniformly continuous.

DEFINITION 379. Let $f: X \to X$ be a function such that for some c < 1 and all $x, y \in X$ we have $d(f(x), f(y)) \le cd(x, y)$. Then, f is said to be a *contraction* of X into X.

Proposition 380 (Contraction Principle). A contraction on a complete metric space has a unique fixed point.

DEFINITION 381. Let $\{a_i\}$ be a sequence in A, where A is a normed vector space. If the limit on the right exists,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i.$$

Otherwise, the series diverges.

Proposition 382. If $\sum a_n$ converges, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$.

PROPOSITION 383. The series $\sum x^n$ converges iff |x| < 1, in which case its value is $\frac{1}{1-x}$.

PROPOSITION 384 (Comparison test). If $||a_n|| \le c_n$ for all sufficiently large n, and $\sum c_n$ converges, then so does $\sum a_n$.

COROLLARY 385. If $\sum ||a_n||$ converges then so does $\sum a_n$.

DEFINITION 386. Such a sequence is said to converge absolutely.

PROPOSITION 387 (Cauchy condensation test). If $\{a_n\}$ is nonincreasing, then $\sum a_n$ converges iff $\sum 2^n a_{2^n}$ converges.

COROLLARY 388. $\sum n^{-s}$ converges iff s > 1.

Proposition 389. $\sum \frac{1}{n!} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n$.

Definition 390. We let this limit be e.

DEFINITION 391. We define the extended real number system as $\mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty, \infty\}$ and extend the operations by $x + \infty = \infty, x - \infty = -\infty, \frac{x}{\infty} = 0$ and for x > 0, $x = \infty, x(-\infty) = -\infty$.

If $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is unbounded above, then $\sup S = \infty$. If it is unbounded below, then $\inf S = -\infty$.

We may regard the set $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x > a\}$ as an open ball around ∞ , and $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x < -a\}$ as an open ball around $-\infty$. Clearly, the set of open balls still forms a basis for a topological vector space.

Definition 392. We define

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} s_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sup_{m \ge n} s_m.$$

We define $\liminf_{n\to\infty} s_n$ similarly.

PROPOSITION 393 (Root test). Let $\alpha = \limsup_{n \to \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|}$. If $\alpha < 1$ then $\sum a_n$ converges; if α_1 then $\sum a_n$ diverges.

PROPOSITION 394. If $\{a_i\}$ is a sequence of positive reals,

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \le \liminf_{n \to \infty} \sqrt[n]{a_n}$$

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \ge \limsup_{n \to \infty} \sqrt[n]{a_n}.$$

COROLLARY 395 (Ratio test). Let $b_n = \frac{\|a_{n+1}\|}{\|a_n\|}$. If $\limsup_{n\to\infty} b_n < 1$, then $\sum a_n$ converges. If $\sum a_n$ converges, then $b_n < 1$ for infinitely many n.

DEFINITION 396. Given a sequence $\{c_n\}$ of complex numbers, the series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$$

is a power series in a complex number z.

PROPOSITION 397. Let $\alpha=\limsup_{n\to\infty} \sqrt[n]{|c_n|}$. Then $\sum c_n z^n$ converges if $|z|<\frac{1}{\alpha}$ and diverges if $|z|>\frac{1}{\alpha}$.

DEFINITION 398. We call α the radius of convergence for $\sum c_n z^n$.

PROPOSITION 399. Suppose the partial sums of $\sum a_n$ are bounded, $\{b_n\}$ is decreasing, and $\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = 0$. Then $\sum a_n b_n$ converges.

COROLLARY 400. If $\{c_i\}$ is decreasing and converges to 0, $\sum c_n z^n$ has radius of convergence r, and $|z| = r \neq z$, then $\sum c_n z^n$ converges.

PROPOSITION 401. If $\sum a_n$ converges absolutely and $\sum b_n$ converges, then

$$\sum_{n} \sum_{k} a_{k} b_{n-k} = \left(\sum_{n} a_{n}\right) \left(\sum_{n} b_{n}\right).$$

PROPOSITION 402. If $\sum a_n$ converges absolutely then so does $\sum b_n$, where $\{b_n\}$ is any permutation of $\{a_n\}$.

PROPOSITION 403. If $\{a_n\}$ are real and $\sum a_n$ converges but does not converge absolutely, then $\sum b_n$ can be made to diverge or converge to any value, where $\{b_n\}$ is a permutation of a_n .

DEFINITION 404. Let L be a linear transformation on an inner product space V. We say that L is bounded if there is some real K such that $||Lx|| \le K||x||$ for all $x \in V$. The greatest lower bound of all such K is denoted ||L||.

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PROPOSITION 405. Let V be a finite-dimensional inner product space. The function $\|\cdot\|: \mathcal{L}(V,V) \to \mathbb{R}$ is a norm on $\mathcal{L}(V,V)$.

PROPOSITION 406. Let A be a self-adjoint linear map on an inner product space V, and let $S = \{\langle Ax, x \rangle : ||x|| = 1\}$. Then, $||A|| = \max\{|\inf S|, |\sup S|\}$.

PROPOSITION 407 (Min-Max Theorem). Let A be a self-adjoint linear map on an n-dimensional inner product space V. Let $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_n$ be the eigenvalues of A according to multiplicity. Then for each k we have

$$\lambda_k = \inf\{\|A|_U\| : \dim U = n - k + 1\}.$$

Theorem 408 (Ergodic Theorem). If U is an isometry on a finite-dimensional inner product space, and if M is the subspace of all solutions of Ux = x, then the sequence

$$\frac{1}{n}(1+U+\cdots+U^{n-1})$$

converges to P_M .

Proposition 409. Let $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ be a power series with radius of convergence r. If A is such that ||A|| < r, then f(A) exists.

Proposition 410. Let A be an operator on a finite-dimensional inner product space. Then, $(1-A)\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}A^n=I$.

DEFINITION 411. Let X and Y be metric spaces. We define Y^X as the space of functions $f: X \to Y$, and give it the uniform metric $||f|| = \sup_x \max(1, f(x))$.

PROPOSITION 412. Under this definition, Y^X is a normed vector space.

PROPOSITION 413. If Y is complete, then so is Y^X .

DEFINITION 414. Suppose $\{f_n\}$ is a sequence in Y^X such that $\{f_n(x)\}$ converges for every x. We then say that $\{f_n\}$ converges pointwise to the function $f(x) = \lim f_n(x)$.

If $f = \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n$, we say the sequence converges uniformly to f.

DEFINITION 415. Let $f:X\to Y$ be a function, where X and Y are metric spaces. Let p be a limit point of X. We say that

$$\lim_{x \to p} f(x) = q$$

if for every sequence $\{x_n\}$ which converges to p but does not contain p, $f(x_n)$ converges to q.

PROPOSITION 416. Assume $\{f_n\}$ converges uniformly and $\lim_{t\to x} f_n(t)$ is defined for all n. Then, $\lim_{t\to x} \lim_{n\to\infty} f_n(x) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \lim_{t\to x} f_n(x)$.

PROPOSITION 417. If X and Y are compact, then every sequence in Y^X has a subsequence that converges pointwise.

COROLLARY 418. The limit of a uniformly convergent sequence of continuous functions is continuous.

DEFINITION 419. A sequence $\{f_n\} \in Y^X$ is said to be *equicontinuous* if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that if $d(a,b) < \delta$ then $d(f_n(a), f_n(b)) < \varepsilon$ for all n.

PROPOSITION 420. If X is compact and $\{f_n\}$ converges uniformly, then $\{f_n\}$ is equicontinuous.

PROPOSITION 421. If X and Y are compact, then every equicontinuous sequence in Y^X has a convergent subsequence.

DEFINITION 422. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^K$ be an algebra. If for each $x_1, x_2 \in K$ there is a function $f \in A$ such that $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$, then A is said to separate points. If for each $x \in K$ there is an $f \in A$ such that $f(x) \neq 0$, then A is said to vanish at no point.

Theorem 423 (Stone-Weierstrass). Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^K$ be an algebra of continuous functions on a compact set K which separates points and vanishes at no point. Then the closure of A is the set of real continuous functions on K.

COROLLARY 424. Let A be an algebra of complex continuous functions on a compact set K, such that A separates points and vanishes at no point. If A is closed under complex conjugation, the closure of A is the set of complex continuous functions on K.

COROLLARY 425 (Weierstrass). Every continuous function $f: D \to \mathbb{C}$, where D is a compact subset of \mathbb{R} , is a limit of a sequence of polynomials.

Definition 426. An analytic function is a function of the form

$$f(x) = \sum c_n (x - a)^n,$$

where the radius of convergence is positive (and possibly infinite).

PROPOSITION 427. If $\varepsilon > 0$ and f is analytic with radius of convergence R, then $\sum c_n(x-a)^n$ converges uniformly for $x \in B_{R-\varepsilon}(a)$.

Theorem 428 (Abel). An analytic function is continuous.

COROLLARY 429. Assuming all three sums converge,

$$\sum_{n} \sum_{k} a_k b_{n-k} = \left(\sum a_n\right) \left(\sum b_n\right).$$

THEOREM 430 (Taylor). If f is analytic with radius R around 0, and a < R, then f is analytic with radius at least |R| - |a| around a.

Proposition 431. If two analytic functions are equal on a set S which has a limit point, then they are equal.

Definition 432. If A is a complete normed commutative algebra over \mathbb{R} , we define the exponential

$$\exp(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!}.$$

PROPOSITION 433. We have $\exp(z+w) = \exp(z) \exp(w)$ and $\exp(a/b) = \sqrt[b]{e^a}$ for any integer a and positive integer b.

THEOREM 434 (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra). For all $P \in \mathbb{C}[x] \setminus \mathbb{C}$, there is a complex number z such that P(z) = 0.

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Proposition 435. Let A be an operator on a complex finite-dimensional inner product space. The eigenvalues of exp A, together with their multiplicities, are equal to the exponentials of the eigenvalues of A.

PROPOSITION 436. Let A and B be operators on a finite-dimensional inner product space such that AB = BA. Then, $\exp(A + B) = \exp A \exp B$.

PROPOSITION 437. The function $\exp |_{\mathbb{R}}$ has image \mathbb{R}^+ and is strictly increasing.

DEFINITION 438. We define the natural logarithm $\ln : \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{R}$ as the left-inverse of $\exp |_{\mathbb{R}}$.

Proposition 439. The function $\exp(ix)|_{\mathbb{R}}$ attains exactly the values on the unit circle.

DEFINITION 440. We let π be the smallest positive real such that $\exp(i\pi) = -1$. We let $\cos(x) = \frac{\exp(ix) + \exp(-ix)}{2}$, $\sin(x) = \frac{\exp(ix) - \exp(-ix)}{2i}$, and $\tan(x) = \frac{\sin(x)}{\cos(x)}$.

PROPOSITION 441. The functions sin and cos have image [-1,1]; the function tan has image \mathbb{R} . The functions $\sin|_{[-\pi/2,\pi/2]}, \cos|_{[0,\pi]}$ and $\tan|_{(-\pi/4,\pi/4)}$ have the same images and are injective.

Definition 442. The left-inverses of these three functions are denoted arcsin, arccos and arctan.

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- Burkhill, A First Course in Mathematical Analysis
- Hardy, Pure Mathematics
- Rudin, Principles of Mathematical Analysis

5. Calculus

DEFINITION 443. Let $f:E\to Y$ be a function. If there exists a linear map $A:X\to Y$ such that

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\|f(x+h) - f(x) - Ah\|}{\|h\|} = 0,$$

then f is said to be differentiable at x, A is said to be the derivative of f at x, and we write f'(x) = A. If f is differentiable at every $x \in E$, we say that f is differentiable.

PROPOSITION 444. If f is differentiable at x, then f'(x) is uniquely defined.

PROPOSITION 445. If A is linear and f(x) = Ax, then f'(x) = A

PROPOSITION 446 (Chain Rule). Let $f: E \to F$ and $g: F \to G$ be such that f is differentiable at x and g is differentiable at f(x). Then

$$(g \circ f)'(x) = g'(f(x))f'(x).$$

PROPOSITION 447. Suppose $\{f'_n\}$ converges uniformly and $\{f_n(x_0)\}$ converges. Then

$$\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n\right)' = \lim_{n\to\infty} f_n'.$$

PROPOSITION 448. Let $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$ be differentiable. Then the image of f' contains [f'(a),f'(b)].

DEFINITION 449. The directional derivative $D_u f$ is defined as

$$D_u f(x) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(x + tu) - f(x)}{t}.$$

PROPOSITION 450 (Mean Value Theorem). Let $f: X \to \mathbb{F}$, and let $x, y \in X$ such that the line segment joining x and y lies in X and $D_{y-x}f$ exists everywhere on that line. Then there exists a point c on this line segment such that $D_{y-x}(c) =$

PROPOSITION 451. Suppose X is convex and $||f'(x)|| \leq M$ for all $x \in X$. Then, for $a, b \in E$ we have $||f(b) - f(a)|| \le M||b - a||$.

Proposition 452 (Sum Rule). (f+g)' = f' + g'.

Proposition 453. If A is bilinear, then

$$A(f(x), g(x))'(x)h = A(f'(x)h, g(x)) + A(f(x), g'(x)h).$$

COROLLARY 454 (Product and Quotient Rule). If the codomain of g is \mathbb{R} , then

- (fg)' = f'g + fg'. $(f/g)' = \frac{f'g fg'}{g^2}$ (if $g \neq 0$).

Proposition 455. We have:

- $\exp' = \exp$
- $\ln'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$
- $\sin' = \cos$
- $\cos' = -\sin$
- $\tan'(x) = 1 + \tan^2(x)$
- $\arcsin'(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$ $\arccos'(x) = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$ $\arctan'(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$

Definition 456. A continuous function is C^0 . If the derivative of a function exists and is C^n , then the function is C^{n+1} .

PROPOSITION 457. If f and g are C^n , then so are f+g, $f \cdot g$ and f/g (assuming the codomains match).

PROPOSITION 458. The function f is C^1 iff $D_u f$ exists and is continuous for

Proposition 459. If $D_v f$, $D_u f$ and $D_v D_u f$ exist in an open ball containing x, and if $D_v D_u f$ is continuous at x, then $D_u D_v f(x) = D_v D_u f(x)$.

COROLLARY 460. If f is C^2 , then $D_u D_v f = D_v D_u f$.

THEOREM 461 (Taylor). Let f be n-times differentiable and defined on an open convex set. There exists a unique polynomial P_n of degree n such that the first n derivatives of f at a equal the first n derivatives of P at a. Let $R_{n+1}(x) =$ $f(x) - P_n(x)$; then we have

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{R_{n+1}(x)}{\|x - a\|^n} = 0.$$

Further, if f is (n+1)-times differentiable and its codomain is \mathbb{R} , let $\gamma(t) =$ a + (x - a)t. We have the following expressions for the remainder:

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- There is a $t \in [0,1]$ such that $R(x) = P_{n+1}(\gamma(t)) P_n(\gamma(t))$.
- If $g(t) = f(\gamma(t))$, then

$$R(x) = \frac{1}{n!} \int_0^1 (1-t)^n g^{(n+1)}(t) dt.$$

PROPOSITION 462 (Second derivative test). Let $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ be C^2 , where $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$. Let a be a point of f such that f'(a) = 0. We define the Hessian matrix $H_f(a)$ to be the matrix representation of f''(a) using the standard bases for \mathbb{R}^n and its dual space.

- If $H_f(a)$ is positive (resp. negative) definite, then f has a local minimum (resp. maximum) at a.
- If f has a local minimum (resp. maximum) at a, then $H_f(a)$ is positive (resp. negative) semidefinite.

DEFINITION 463. A k-cell S is a product of k closed intervals. Its volume is v(S), the product of the lengths of the intervals.

DEFINITION 464. A partition of a closed interval [a,b] is a sequence t_0, \ldots, t_k , where $a=t_0 \leq t_1 \ldots t_k = b$.

A partition of a k-cell is a sequence of k partitions $\{P_i\}$, where each P_i is a partition of the corresponding $[a_i, b_i]$. This partition divides the k-cell into a collection of subcells.

DEFINITION 465. For a partition P and a bounded function f we define the lower and upper sums as

$$L(f,P) = \sum_{S} \left(v(S) \inf_{x \in S} f(S) \right), \ U(f,P) = \sum_{S} \left(v(S) \sup_{x \in S} f(S) \right).$$

PROPOSITION 466. If P_1 and P_2 are two partitions of the same k-cell, then $L(f, P_1) \leq U(f, P_2)$.

DEFINITION 467. Let A be a k-cell. A function $f: A \to \mathbb{R}$ is called *integrable* over A if f is bounded and $\sup\{L(f,P)\}=\inf\{U(f,P)\}$. In that case, their common value is the *integral* of f over A, denoted

$$\int_{A} f dV.$$

PROPOSITION 468. A bounded function f is integrable over A iff for all $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a partition P of A such that $U(f,P) - L(f,P) \le \varepsilon$.

DEFINITION 469. A subset A of \mathbb{R}^k has measure 0 if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a cover of A by k-cells with total volume less than ε .

Theorem 470 (Sard). Let $g:A\to\mathbb{R}^n$ be continuously differentiable, where A is open. Then the subset of A on which det g'=0 has measure 0.

Theorem 471. A bounded function is integrable over a k-cell iff its set of discontinuities in the k-cell has measure 0.

DEFINITION 472. The *support* of a function f is the closure of the set of points at which f is nonzero.

PROPOSITION 473. If f has compact support and is integrable over some k-cell containing its support, then for any k-cells A and B which contain its support we have $\int_A f(x) dV = \int_B f(x) dV$.

DEFINITION 474. We define the *characteristic function* $\chi_C(x)$ to be 1 for any $x \in C$, and 0 elsewhere.

COROLLARY 475. If A is a k-cell containing C, and if $\int_A \chi_C(x) f(x) dV$ exists, then $\int_B \chi_C(x) f(x) dV$ exists and equals this value for any k-cell B containing C.

DEFINITION 476. We define $\int_C f(x) dV$, to be this value, if it exists. In the case where C is an interval [a,b], we also write this as $\int_a^b f(x) dV$.

PROPOSITION 477. If f is integrable over a k-cell A, C is a subset of A and the boundary of C has measure 0, then f is integrable over C.

PROPOSITION 478. Suppose $\{f_n\}$ converges uniformly and each f_n is integrable over C. Then,

$$\int_{C} \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x) dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{C} f_n(x) dx.$$

THEOREM 479 (Fubini). Let A and B be k-cells, and let $f: A \times B \to \mathbb{R}$ be such that f(x,b) is integrable for each $b \in B$ and f(a,x) is integrable for each $a \in A$. Then, f is integrable over $A \times B$ and

$$\int_{A\times B} f\mathrm{d}V = \int_A \left(\int_B f\mathrm{d}V\right)\mathrm{d}V = \int_B \left(\int_A f\mathrm{d}V\right)\mathrm{d}V.$$

THEOREM 480 (Change of Variables). Let A be open in \mathbb{R}^n , and let $g: A \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be C^1 and bijective. If $f: g(A) \to \mathbb{R}$ is integrable, then

$$\int_{g(A)} f dV = \int_{A} (f \circ g) |\det g'|.$$

THEOREM 481 (Differentiation under the Integral). Let $f:[a,b]\times[c,d]$ be such that $f(\cdot,t)$ is integrable for all t, and $D_{(0,1)}f$ is continuous. Then,

$$f'(s) = \int_a^b D_{(0,1)} f(x,s) dx$$

for each $s \in (c, d)$.

Theorem 482 (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus). If $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$ is integrable, define

$$F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt.$$

If f is continuous at $c \in [a, b]$, then F is differentiable at c, and F'(c) = f(c).

If $F:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$ is differentiable, define f(x)=F'(x). If f is integrable on [a,b], then

$$F(x) = F(a) + \int_{a}^{x} f(t)dt.$$

THEOREM 483 (Integration by Parts). Let F and G be differentiable on [a,b] such that F'=f and G'=g are integrable. Then,

$$\int_a^b F(x)g(x)\mathrm{d}x = F(b)G(b) - F(a)G(a) - \int_a^b f(x)G(x)\mathrm{d}x.$$

Proposition 484. We have:

- $\ln(1+x) = \sum (-1)^{i} \frac{x^{i+1}}{i+1}$ for $-1 < x \le 1$ $\frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{1+x}{1-x} \right) = \sum \frac{x^{2i+1}}{2i+1}$ for -1 < x < 1• $\arctan(x) = \sum \frac{(-1)^{i} x^{2i+1}}{2i+1}$ for $-1 \le x \le 1$

Definition 485. Let V be a normed vector space over \mathbb{R} . A curve is a map $f:[a,b]\to V$. We associate to each partition $P=\{x_i\}$ of [a,b] the number $L(P)=\{x_i\}$ $\sum \|\gamma(x_i) - \gamma(x_{i-1})\|$. If these numbers have a supremum, then this supremum is the length of γ and γ is rectifiable. We say that γ is piecewise smooth if its domain can be divided into a finite number of intervals such that γ is C^1 on each interval.

Proposition 486. If γ is piecewise smooth, then γ is rectifiable. For each $x \in [a, b]$, the length of $\gamma([a, x])$ is

$$s(x) = \int_a^x \|\gamma'(t)\| \mathrm{d}t.$$

PROPOSITION 487. There is a function F such that $\gamma(x) = F(s(x))$ for each x. If F is differentiable, then ||F'|| = 1 everywhere.

DEFINITION 488. The vector F'(s) is called the unit tangent vector to γ .

DEFINITION 489. Let D be an open subset of an inner product space V, and let $F:D\to V$ be continuous. Let $C:[a,b]\to D$ be piecewise smooth. The line integral of F along C is

$$\int_{C} F \cdot ds = \int_{c}^{d} F(C(t)) \cdot C'(t) dt.$$

Proposition 490. The line integral of a curve is independent of parametrisation.

PROPOSITION 491. Let D be an open subset of V, where V is an inner product space over \mathbb{R} . If $f:D\to\mathbb{R}$ is differentiable, then for each x there is a vector $\nabla f(x)$ such that $f'(x)(y) = \nabla f \cdot y$ for all y.

DEFINITION 492. This vector ∇f is called the *gradient* of f.

PROPOSITION 493. Let E be open in X, and let $G: E \to Y$ be C^1 . Let $A = G^{-1}(0)$. Assume G'(a) is surjective for all $a \in A$. If $f: E \to \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable and the maximum of f on A occurs at a, then there is a functional $l \in Y^*$ such that f'(a) = lG'(a).

COROLLARY 494 (Lagrange Multipliers). If the codomain of G is \mathbb{R} , then for some λ we have $\nabla f = \lambda \nabla g$.

THEOREM 495 (Fundamental Theorem of Line Integrals). Let $f: D \to \mathbb{R}$ be C^1 , and let $\gamma:[a,b]\to D$ be a piecewise smooth curve such that $\gamma(a)=X_0$ and $\gamma(b) = X_1$. Then,

$$\int_C \nabla f \cdot \mathrm{d}s = f(X_1) - f(X_0).$$

Definition 496. A vector field $F: D \to V$ is conservative if $\int_C F \cdot ds = 0$ whenever C is a closed curve.

COROLLARY 497. A vector field over a connected open set is conservative iff it is the gradient of some function.

DEFINITION 498. An *n*-dimensional patch is a subset S of an vector space V such that there are vector spaces X and Y, an isomorphism $\phi: V \to X \times Y$, an open subset E of X, and a function $f: E \to Y$ such that X is n-dimensional and the graph of f is $\phi(S)$. It is smooth if f is C^1 .

An *n*-dimensional manifold is a subset S of a vector space V such that for each $x \in S$, there is an open set E containing x such $S \cap E$ is an n-dimensional patch. If all these patches are smooth, then S is smooth.

DEFINITION 499. A collection $\{g_i: M \to [0,1]\}$ of C^{∞} functions is a partition of unity if

- each g_i has compact support,
- each $x \in M$ has a neighbourhood V_x such that all but finitely many g_i are 0 on V_x , and
- $\sum g_i = 1$ everywhere on M.

A partition of unity $\{g_i\}$ is *subordinate* to an open cover $\{U_i\}$ of m if for every j the support of g_j is contained in some U_i .

THEOREM 500. Let $\{U_i\}$ be an open covering of M. There exists a partition of unity $\{g_i\}$ subordinate to $\{U_i\}$.

THEOREM 501 (Inverse Function). Let $f: X \to X$, and let a be such that f is C^1 in an open ball containing a and f'(a) is invertible. Then there is an open ball E containing a and such that f is injective on E, F(E) is open, and $(F|_E)^{-1}$ is C^1 .

COROLLARY 502. If $f: X \to X$ is C^1 , then it sends open sets to open sets.

THEOREM 503 (Implicit Function). Let $\phi: X \times Y \to Y$ be C^1 in an open set containing (x,y), and assume $\phi(x,y)=0$. Let $\phi'(x,y)=A(x)+B(y)$, and assume B is invertible. Then there is an open set E containing x and an open set E containing y such that for each $e \in E$ there is a unique $f \in F$ such that $\phi(e,f)=0$. The function $e\mapsto f$ is differentiable.

THEOREM 504 (Rank Theorem). Let A be an open set in V, let $r < \dim W$ be an integer, and let $F: A \to W$ be C^1 such that the rank of F' is r at every point in A. Then for each point $a \in A$ there is an open set B containing a such that F(B) is an r-dimensional manifold in W.

Definition 505. Let $f: V \to V$. The divergence of f is $\nabla \cdot f = \operatorname{tr} f'$.

PROPOSITION 506. Let $F: V \to V$ be C^1 , where $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$. At each point (t, F(t)) there exists a unique vector $\nabla \times f$ such that for all y we have

$$(F'(X) - F'(X)^T)y = (\nabla \times f) \times y.$$

DEFINITION 507. This vector $\nabla \times F$ is the *curl* of F.

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8. Algebra

Proposition 508. If G is a group, then

- The identity element of G is unique.
 - Every $a \in G$ has a unique inverse in G.
 - For every $a \in G$, $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$.
 - For every $a, b \in G$, $(ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1}$.
 - For any $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in G$ the value of $a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n$ is independent of how the expression is bracketed.

PROPOSITION 509. A nonempty subset H of G is a subgroup of G iff it is closed under multiplication and inverses.

PROPOSITION 510. If H is a nonempty finite subset of G which is closed under multiplication, then H is a subgroup of G.

PROPOSITION 511. Let $\phi: G \to H$ be a homomorphism, and let H' be a subgroup of G. Then $\phi(G)$ and $\phi^{-1}(H')$ are subgroups of H and G respectively.

Definition 512. The kernel of a homomorphism is the inverse image of the identity.

DEFINITION 513. The order of a group G is |G|.

DEFINITION 514. Let H be a subgroup of G. For any $g \in G$, we let $gH = \{gh : h \in H\}$ and $Hg = \{hg : h \in H\}$, respectively called a *left coset* and *right coset* of H.

Proposition 515. The sets of left and right cosets of H form partitions of G with equal cardinality.

DEFINITION 516. This cardinality is the *index* of H in G, denoted [G:H].

Proposition 517. Every left (resp. right) coset of H has the same cardinality as H.

COROLLARY 518 (Lagrange's Theorem). |G| = [G:H]|H|. In particular, if |G| is finite then $|H| \mid |G|$.

COROLLARY 519. If G is a finite group, for any $x \in G$ we have $x^{|G|} = 1$.

PROPOSITION 520. Let $K \subseteq H \subseteq G$ be groups. Then, [G:H][H:K] = [G:K].

DEFINITION 521. If H and K are subsets of G, let $HK = \bigcup \{hK : h \in H\}$.

PROPOSITION 522. If H and K are subgroups of G, then HK is a subgroup of G iff HK = KH.

PROPOSITION 523. If H and K are finite subgroups of G, then

$$|HK| = \frac{|H||K|}{|H \cap K|}.$$

Proposition 524. The set of permutations of a set X is a group under composition.

DEFINITION 525. This group is denoted S_X , and any subgroup of it is a *permutation group*.

If |X| = n, then $S_n = A(\{1, 2, ..., n\})$ is called the *symmetric group* of degree n.

DEFINITION 526. A cycle is a nontrivial permutation φ of a set S such that for any two elements $a,b \in S$ such that $\varphi(a) \neq a$ and $\varphi(b) \neq b$, there is some k for which $\varphi^k(a) = b$.

Proposition 527. Disjoint cycles commute.

Proposition 528. Every permutation can be uniquely expressed as a product of disjoint cycles.

PROPOSITION 529. The function sign : $S_n \to \{1, -1\}$ is a homomorphism; further, the sign of any 2-cycle is -1.

DEFINITION 530. The kernel of this homomorphism is A_n , the alternating group of degree n.

DEFINITION 531. A group action of a group G on a set A is a map from $G \times A$ to A, written as $g \cdot a$, such that $g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot a) = (g_1g_2) \cdot a$ and $1 \cdot a = a$.

DEFINITION 532. A permutation representation of G is a homomorphism of G into S_X for some X.

PROPOSITION 533. For each g, the map $\sigma_g(a) = g \cdot a$ is a permutation on A. The map $g \mapsto \sigma_g$ from G to S_A is a homomorphism.

Definition 534. This homomorphism is the permutation representation induced by this group action.

PROPOSITION 535. There is a bijection between the actions of G on A and the homomorphisms of G into S_A .

DEFINITION 536. If G is a group acting on S and s is a fixed element of S, the stabiliser of s is the set $G_s = \{g \in G : gs = s\}$.

Proposition 537. The stabiliser of an element is a subgroup of G.

DEFINITION 538. Let G act on $\mathcal{P}(G)$ by *conjugation*: that is, $g \cdot A = gAg^{-1}$. The *normaliser* $N_G(A)$ is the stabiliser of A under this action.

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PROPOSITION 539. If $H \subseteq N_G(K)$, $K \subseteq N_G(H)$, and $H \cap K = \{1\}$, then $HK \cong H \times K$.

DEFINITION 540. In this case we call HK the internal direct product of H and K.

DEFINITION 541. Let $N_G(A)$ act on A by conjugation. The centraliser $C_G(A)$ is the kernel of this action.

Definition 542. The centre of G is $Z(G) = C_G(G)$.

Definition 543. A subgroup N of G is normal if the normaliser of N is G.

PROPOSITION 544. If K is a subgroup of G, then H is normal in K iff $K \subseteq N_G(H)$.

PROPOSITION 545. The subgroup N of G is normal iff the set of left cosets of N equals the set of right cosets.

PROPOSITION 546. Let G be a group, let H be a subgroup of G and let G act by left multiplication on the set A of left cosets of H in G. Then, G acts transitively on A, the stabiliser of 1H is H, and the kernel of the action is the largest normal subgroup of G contained in H.

COROLLARY 547 (Cayley). Every group is isomorphic to a permutation group.

PROPOSITION 548. If G is a finite group and p is the smallest prime dividing |G|, then any subgroup of index p is normal.

Proposition 549. If N is normal in G, the set of cosets of N forms a group under multiplication.

Definition 550. This group is called the *quotient group* of G over N, denoted G/N.

PROPOSITION 551. The mapping π from G to G/N defined by $\pi(x) = Nx$ is a surjective homomorphism with kernel N.

Definition 552. This mapping is called the *natural projection* of G onto G/N.

DEFINITION 553. Let A, B, C be groups, and let $f: A \to B$ be a homomorphism. Then, we say that $g: A \to C$ factors through f if there exists some $h: B \to C$ such that g = hf.

PROPOSITION 554. Let H be a subset of G, let ϕ be a homomorphism such that its kernel contains H, and let N be the intersection of all normal subgroups containing H. Then, ϕ factors uniquely through the natural projection of G onto G/N.

THEOREM 555 (Isomorphism Theorems). In the following statements, all quotients are well-defined.

- (1) If $\phi: G \to H$ is a homomorphism, then the image of ϕ is isomorphic to $\phi/\ker\phi$.
- (2) Let G be a group and let A and B be subgroups of G such that $A \subseteq N_G(B)$. Then $AB/B \cong A/A \cap B$.
- (3) Let G be a group and let H and K be normal subgroups of G with $H \subseteq K$. Then $(G/H)/(K/H) \cong G/K$.

(4) Let N be normal in A. Then the natural projection defines a bijection from the set of subgroups of G which contain N to the set of subgroups of G/N.

LEMMA 556 (Butterfly). Let G be a group with subgroups A, B, C, D such that B is a normal subgroup of A and D is a normal subgroup of C. Then we have

$$\frac{(A \cap C)B}{(A \cap D)B} \cong \frac{(A \cap C)D}{(B \cap C)D}.$$

PROPOSITION 557. For any set S there exists a group F(S) containing S such that for any group G, any map $\varphi: S \to G$ can be extended to a unique homomorphism. This group is unique up to isomorphism.

DEFINITION 558. This group is the free group on S.

THEOREM 559 (Schreier). Subgroups of a free group are free.

DEFINITION 560. Let S be a subset of a group G. The subgroup of G generated by S, denoted $\langle S \rangle$, is the image of the homomorphism $F(S) \to G$ that fixes S.

DEFINITION 561. Let S be a subset of a group G that generates G. A presentation for G is a pair (S,R) such that the smallest normal subgroup containing R in F(S) equals the kernel of the homomorphism $F(S) \to G$ that fixes S. The elements of S are called generators and those of R are called relations of G.

PROPOSITION 562. Let G and H be groups, let S be a set of generators for G, and let $\phi: F(S) \to G$ be the induced homomorphism. A set H is a homomorphic image of G iff there is a homomorphism $\pi: F(S) \to H$ such that $\ker \pi \subseteq \ker \phi$.

DEFINITION 563. A group G is *finitely generated* if there is a presentation (S,R) such that S is finite, and *finitely presented* if there is a presentation (S,R) such that both S and R are finite.

Proposition 564. Every finite group is finitely presented.

Definition 565. A group is *cyclic* if it is generated by a single element.

PROPOSITION 566. A group is cyclic iff it is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z} or to $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

Proposition 567. Every group of prime order is cyclic.

Theorem 568 (Cauchy). If p is a prime dividing |G|, then G has a subgroup of order p.

DEFINITION 569. Let G be a group acting on A. The set $Ga = \{g \cdot a : g \in G\}$ is called the *orbit* of a under G.

If there is only one orbit, then the action of G on A is called *transitive*.

Proposition 570. The set of orbits of G partitions A.

Proposition 571. $|Gs| = [G:G_s]$.

COROLLARY 572. The number of conjugates of a subset S in G is $[G: N_G(S)]$. In particular, the number of conjugates of an element S of G is $[G: C_G(S)]$.

COROLLARY 573 (Orbit decomposition formula). Let $\{s_i\}$ be a set containing one element from each of the orbits of G. If S is finite, then we have $|S| = \sum [G:G_{s_i}]$.

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COROLLARY 574 (Class equation). Let $\{g_i\}$ be a set containing one element from each conjugacy class which is not in the centre of G. Then, $|G| = |Z(G)| + \sum [G: C_G(g_i)]$.

COROLLARY 575. A group of prime power order must have a nontrivial centre.

COROLLARY 576. If $|G|=p^2$ for some prime P, then either $p\cong \mathbb{Z}/p^2\mathbb{Z}$ or $p\cong (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^2$.

Definition 577. A partition of n is a set of positive integers whose sum is n.

PROPOSITION 578. The number of conjugacy classes of S_n equals the number of partitions of n.

Definition 579. A group G is called *simple* if |G| > 1 and the only normal subgroups of G are 1 and itself.

Proposition 580. The alternating group A_n is simple for $n \geq 5$.

Proposition 581. If G is a group, the set of automorphisms of G is also a group.

DEFINITION 582. We denote this group by Aut(G).

PROPOSITION 583. Let H be a normal subgroup of G. The permutation representation of the action of G on H by conjugation is a homomorphism of G into Aut(H) with kernel $C_G(H)$.

COROLLARY 584. The permutation representation of the action of G on itself by conjugation is a homomorphism of G into Aut(G) with kernel Z(G).

DEFINITION 585. The image of this homomorphism is called the group of *inner* automorphisms of G, denoted Inn(G).

DEFINITION 586. A subgroup H of a group G is *characteristic* in G if every automorphism of G maps H to itself.

PROPOSITION 587. If K is characteristic in H and H is normal in G, then K is normal in G.

Proposition 588. $\operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}) \cong (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$.

PROPOSITION 589. For all $n \neq 6$ we have $\operatorname{Aut}(S_n) \cong S_n$.

DEFINITION 590. A group of order p^{α} for some $\alpha \geq 1$ is called a p-group. If G is a group of order $p^{\alpha}m$, where $p \nmid m$, then a subgroup of order p^{α} is called a Sylow p-subgroup of G.

Theorem 591 (Sylow). Let $p^{\alpha} ||G|$.

- (1) Sylow p-subgroups of G exist.
- (2) Any p-subgroup of G is contained in a conjugate of any Sylow p-subgroup of G.
- (3) The number of Sylow p-subgroups is 1 (mod p) and divides |G|.

PROPOSITION 592 (Frattini's Argument). Let G be a finite group, let H be a normal subgroup of G and let P be a Sylow p-subgroup of H. Then $G = HN_G(P)$ and $[G:H] \mid |N_G(P)|$.

PROPOSITION 593. In a finite group G, if the number of Sylow p-subgroups is not 1 (mod p^2), then there are distinct Sylow p-subgroups P and R of G such that $P \cap R$ is of index p in both P and R.

PROPOSITION 594. Every proper subgroup of a p-group is a proper subgroup of its normaliser. Every maximal subgroup of a p-group is of index p and is normal.

COROLLARY 595. If H is a normal subgroup of G with order divisible by p^k , then H has a subgroup of order p^k that is normal in G.

THEOREM 596 (Fundamental Theorem of Finite Abelian Groups). Every finite abelian group is uniquely isomorphic to the direct product of cyclic groups, each of which has prime power order.

DEFINITION 597. In a group G, a sequence of subgroups

$$1 = N_0 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq N_k = G$$

is called a *composition series* if each N_i is normal in N_{i+1} and N_{i+1}/N_i is a simple group for all i. The quotient groups N_{i+1}/N_i are called *composition factors* of G.

Theorem 598 (Jordan—Hölder). Let G be a nontrivial finite group. Then, G has a composition series and the composition factors are unique up to permutation and isomorphism.

Definition 599. A group is solvable if its composition factors are abelian.

Theorem 600 (Burnside). If $|G|=p^aq^b$ for some primes p and q, then G is solvable.

THEOREM 601 (Hall). If for all primes p, G has a subgroup whose index equals the order of a Sylow p-subgroup, then G is solvable.

DEFINITION 602. The upper central series of G is a sequence of subgroups of G such that $Z_0(G) = 1$ and $Z_{i+1}(G)$ is the preimage in G of the centre of $G/Z_i(G)$ under the natural projection. A group is nilpotent of class n if n is minimal such that $Z_n(G) = G$.

Proposition 603. $Z_i(G)$ is characteristic in G for all i.

Proposition 604. Every nilpotent group is solvable.

Theorem 605. If G is finite, then the following are equivalent.

- G is nilpotent:
- Every proper subgroup of G is a proper subgroup of its normaliser in G;
- Every Sylow subgroup is normal in G;
- G the direct product of its Sylow subgroups;
- Every maximal proper subgroup is normal.

DEFINITION 606. Let R be a ring. A nonzero element $a \in R$ is called a zero divisor if there is a nonzero element $b \in R$ such that ab = 0 or ba = 0.

DEFINITION 607. Let R be a ring with unity. An element u of R is called a unit in R if there is some $v \in R$ such that uv = vu = 1. The set of units of R is denoted R^{\times} .

Definition 608. A commutative ring with unity is called an *integral domain* if it has no zero divisors.

Proposition 609. A finite integral domain is a field.

DEFINITION 610. A ring with unity is called a *division ring* if every nonzero element is a unit.

Proposition 611. A finite division ring is a field.

DEFINITION 612. The *characteristic* of a ring with unity is the order of the subgroup generated by 1, and 0 if this subgroup is infinite.

DEFINITION 613. A nonempty subset U or R is an *ideal* of R if U is a subgroup under addition, and UR = RU = U.

PROPOSITION 614. If U is an ideal of R, then U is normal in the additive and multiplicative groups of R.

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16. Theory of Computation

DEFINITION 615. A deterministic finite automaton (DFA) is a 5-tuple

$$(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F),$$

where Q is a finite set called the *states*, Σ is a finite set called the *alphabet*, $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \to Q$ is the *transition function*, $q_0 \in Q$ is the *start state*, and $F \subseteq Q$ is the set of *accept states*. We say that machine M accepts string $s = s_0 s_1 \cdots s_n$ if $\delta(\delta(\cdots \delta(\delta(q_0, s_0), s_1) \cdots, s_{n-1}), s_n)$ is an accept state. The set A of all strings that machine M accepts is the *language of machine* M, notated L(M). We also say that M recognises A.

DEFINITION 616. A language is a *regular language* if it is recognised by some finite automaton.

DEFINITION 617. Let A and B be languages. We define the regular operations

- Union: $A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \lor x \in B\}.$
- Concatenation: $A \circ B = \{xy : x \in A \land y \in B\}.$
- Star: $A^* = \{x_1 x_2 \cdots x_k : k \ge 0 \land \forall i, x_i \in A\}.$

Definition 618. The *empty string* is notated ε .

Definition 619. Let Σ be an alphabet. An atomic regular expression is one of

- $a \ (a \in \Sigma),$
- ε , and
- Ø.

Regular expressions are obtained by combining simpler regular expressions with the operations \cup , \circ , *.

A regular expression R describes a language L(R) obtained by replacing each instance of a and ε with $\{a\}$ and $\{\varepsilon\}$, respectively, and then applying the regular operations.

Theorem 620. A language is regular iff some regular expression describes it.

PROPOSITION 621 (Pumping Lemma). If A is a regular language, then there is a positive integer p such that if s is any string in A of length at least p, then s may be divided into three pieces, s=xyz, where y is nonempty, $|xy|\leq p$ and $x\circ y^*\circ z\subseteq A$.

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APPENDIX A

${\bf Proofs-Undergraduate}$