# Chapter 1

# **Basics**

# 1.1 Set Theory

**Set** is a collection of points which satisfies ZFC-axioms. And the points are the elements of  $A, x \in A$ .

**Definitions 1.1.** Cardinality |A| is the number of elements of the set A.

**Definitions 1.2.** A set B is a **subset** of a set A,  $B \subset A$  if  $x \in B \implies x \in A$ .

**Definitions 1.3.** The **power set**  $\mathcal{P}(A)$  of a set A is the family of all subsets of A.

**Definitions 1.4.** Two sets A, B are **equal**, A = B if  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ .

**Definitions 1.5.** The union of two sets A, B is the set  $A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$ .

**Definitions 1.6.** The intersection of two sets A, B is the set  $A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}.$ 

**Definitions 1.7.** The **complement** of a set A with respect to a set B is the set  $A - B = \{x \in A : x \notin B\}$ .

**Definitions 1.8.** The **symmetric difference** of two sets A, B is the set  $A\Delta B = (A - B) \cup (B - A)$ .

#### 1.1.1 Relation

**Definitions 1.9.** The cartesian **product** of A and B,  $A \times B = \{(a, b) : a \in A, b \in B\}$ .

**Definitions 1.10.** A relation from A to B is a subset of  $A \times B$ . And  $xRy \implies (x,y) \in R \subset A \times B$ . A relation on A is  $R \subset A \times A$ .

**Definitions 1.11.** A reflexive relation R on A satisfies xRx,  $\forall x \in A$ .

**Definitions 1.12.** A symmetric relation R on A satisfies  $xRy \iff yRx$ .

**Definitions 1.13.** An antisymmetric relation R on A satisfies  $(x, y) \in R \implies (y, x) \notin R$ .

**Definitions 1.14.** A transitive relation R on A satisfies xRy,  $yRz \implies xRz$ ,  $\forall x, y, z \in A$ .

**Definitions 1.15.** An equivalence relation R on A is a reflexive, symmetric, and trasitive relation.

**Definitions 1.16.** Let  $x \in A$ . An equivalence class of a set A containing x is the subset  $\hat{x} = \{y \in A : xRy\}$ .

**Definitions 1.17.** A partition  $\{\hat{x}, \hat{y}, ...\}$  of A is a family of subsets  $\hat{x}$  of A which satisfies

- 1.  $x \in \hat{x}, \ \forall x \in A$ .
- 2.  $\hat{x} \cap \hat{y} \iff \hat{x} = \hat{y}$ .
- 3.  $A = \bigcup \{\hat{x} : x \in A\}.$

**Definitions 1.18.** A total relation R on A satisfies either xRy or yRx,  $\forall x, y \in A$ ,  $(x \neq y)$ .

**Definitions 1.19.** A function from A to B is relation which has a unique element (a, b) for every  $a \in A$ .

**Definitions 1.20.** An injection  $f: A \to B$  satisfies  $f(x) = f(y) \implies x = y$ .

**Definitions 1.21.** A surjection  $f: A \to B$  satisfies  $y = f(x), \ \forall y \in B$ .

**Definitions 1.22.** A bijection  $f: A \to B$  is both injective and surjective.

There exists a bijection from the set of all equivalence relations on A to the set of all partitions of A.

**Definitions 1.23.** A set A is **finite** if there exists a natural number N and a bijection  $f: A \to \{1, 2, ..., N\}$ .

A is finite if and only if there does not exists a bijection from A into any proper subset of A.

**Definitions 1.24.** A set A is **countably infinite** if there exists a bijection  $f: A \to \mathbb{N}$ .

1. Let  $f: X \to Y$ ,  $g: Y \to X$  and  $g \circ f = id_X$ . Then  $f \circ g$  is idempotent.

# Part I Mathematics 1

# Chapter 2

# Analysis

# 2.1 Sequence

**Definitions 2.1.** Sequence  $x_n$  in a set X is a function  $x : \mathbb{N} \to X$  where  $x_n = x(n)$ .

**Definitions 2.2.** Subsequence  $x_{n_k}$  of a sequence  $x_n$  is a function  $x \circ n$  where  $n : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ ,  $n_k = n(k)$  is a strictly increasing sequence.

#### 2.1.1 Convergence

**Definitions 2.3** (norm). A sequence  $x_n$  converges to x if there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\forall n > N, ||x_n - x|| < \varepsilon$ .

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \ \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \ \forall n > N, \ \|x_n, x\| < \varepsilon$$
 (2.1)

**Remark** (subsequence). A sequence  $x_n$  converges to x if and only if every subsequence has a convergent subsequence.

#### 2.1.2 Limit Point

**Definitions 2.4.** x is a limit point of sequence  $x_n$  if  $x_n$  converges to x.

**Definitions 2.5.** x is a cluster point of sequence  $x_n$ , there exists a subsequence  $x_{n_k}$  converging to x.

#### 2.1.3 Cauchy Criterion

**Definitions 2.6** (norm). A sequence  $x_n$  is Cauchy if there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\forall n, m > N$ ,  $||x_n - x_m|| < \varepsilon$ .

#### 2.1.4 Complete Space

**Definitions 2.7** (complete). A space is complete if every Cauchy sequence in it converges.

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#### Properties of Convergent Sequences

1. The limit of a convergent real sequence is unique.

2.

$$x_n \to x, \ y_n \to y \implies x_n \pm y_n \to x \pm y$$

$$x_n \to x, \ y_n \to y \implies x_n y_n \to xy$$

$$x_n \to x, \ y_n \to y, \ y_n \neq 0, \ y \neq 0 \implies x_n/y_n \to x/y$$

3.

$$x_n \to x, \ y_n \to y, \ x_n \le y_n \implies x \le y$$
  
Squeeze:  $x_n \le y_n \le z_n, \ x_n \to l, \ z_n \to l \implies y_n \to l$ 

4.

$$|x_n| \to |x| \implies x_n \to x$$
  
 $x_n y_n \to xy, \ x_n \to x \implies y_n \to y$ 

5. Every convergent sequence is absolute convergent.

$$x_n \to x \implies |x_n| \to |x|$$

6. Sequences converging to 0

$$|x_n| \to 0 \iff x_n \to 0$$

7. Continuity of  $\sqrt{\ }$ 

$$x_n \to x \implies \sqrt{x_n} \to \sqrt{x}, \quad (x_n > 0)$$

#### Properties of Numbers

1. Greatest integer function

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \quad x - 1 < |x| < x$$

2. Arithmetic vs Geometric mean

$$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \frac{a+b}{2} \ge \sqrt{ab}$$

3. Exponential function

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{x}{n} \right)^n = e^x$$

4. Archimedian Property

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \ \exists n \in \mathbb{N} : x < n$$

5. Dense Subset

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, \ \exists r \in \mathbb{Q} : x < r < y \quad (x < y)$$

6.

$$||a| - |b|| < |a - b|$$

## 2.1.5 Important Notions

- 1. If space X is  $T_2$ , then limit of convergent sequence in X is unique.
- 2. Derived Set  $A' = \{x \in X : \forall N \in \mathcal{N}_x, N \{x\} \cap A \neq \emptyset\}.$

$$\bar{A} = A \cup A'$$

3. Every function on  $\mathbb{N}$  is continuous.

#### 2.1.6 Techniques

1. Ratio

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n} = l$$

If l < 1,  $x_n \to 0$  and l > 1,  $x_n \to \infty$ .

2. Root

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (x_n)^{\frac{1}{n}} = l$$

If l < 1,  $x_n \to 0$  and l > 1,  $x_n \to \infty$ 

3. Stolz Theorem

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n}{y_1 + y_2 + \dots + y_n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{x_n - x_{n-1}}{y_n - y_{n-1}} \qquad (y_n \uparrow^{\infty})$$

4. Riemann Sum

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f(k/n) = \int_0^1 f(x) \ dx$$

# 2.2 Limit Superior/Inferior

Definitions 2.8.

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n = \inf_{n \ge 0} \sup_{m > n} x_n$$

Definitions 2.9.

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} x_n = \sup_{n \ge 0} \inf_{m \ge n} x_n$$

**Remark.**  $\liminf x_n = I$ ,  $\limsup x_n = S$  are the bounds for cluster points of  $x_n$ . Thus, there are at most finitely many terms outside  $(I - \varepsilon, S + \varepsilon)$ . However, [I, S] may not contain any term of  $x_n$ . For example,  $x_n = (-1)^n (1 + \frac{1}{n})$ .

# 2.2.1 Properties of limit superior/inferior

$$\inf x_n \le \liminf x_n \le \limsup x_n \le \sup x_n$$

 $\liminf a_n + \liminf b_n \le \liminf (a_n + b_n) \le \limsup (a_n + b_n) \le \limsup a_n + \limsup b_n$  $\liminf a_n \liminf b_n \le \liminf (a_n b_n) \le \limsup (a_n b_n) \le \limsup a_n \limsup b_n$ 

Theorem 2.10 (Stolz-Cesaro).

$$\liminf_{n\to\infty}\frac{a_{n+1}-a_n}{b_{n+1}-b_n}\leq \liminf_{n\to\infty}\frac{a_n}{b_n}\leq \limsup_{n\to\infty}\frac{a_n}{b_n}\leq \limsup_{n\to\infty}\frac{a_{n+1}-a_n}{b_{n+1}-b_n}$$

#### 2.3 Limit of a function

**Definitions 2.11** (limit). If  $f(x_n) \to L$  as  $x_n \to a$ , then  $\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = L$ .

**Definitions 2.12** (continuity). A function  $f: X \to Y$  is continuous at  $a \in X$ , if  $\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = f(\lim_{x \to a} x) = f(a).$ 

Theorem 2.13. Limit is algebraic.

Suppose  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x)$ ,  $\lim_{x\to a} g(x)$  exists, then

$$\lim_{x \to a} cf(x) = c \lim_{x \to a} f(x) \tag{2.2}$$

$$\lim_{x \to a} cf(x) = c \lim_{x \to a} f(x)$$

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) \pm g(x) = \lim_{x \to a} f(x) \pm \lim_{x \to a} g(x)$$

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x)g(x) = \lim_{x \to a} f(x) \lim_{x \to a} g(x)$$

$$(2.2)$$

$$(2.3)$$

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x)g(x) = \lim_{x \to a} f(x) \lim_{x \to a} g(x) \tag{2.4}$$

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \to a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \to a} g(x)}$$
(2.5)

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x)^{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to a} f(x)^{x \to a} g(x)$$
(2.6)

Remark (exceptions).

$$\frac{0}{0}, \frac{\pm \infty}{+\infty}, 0 \pm \infty, \infty - \infty, 0^0, \infty^0, 1^{\pm \infty}$$

Theorem 2.14 (L'Hospital/Bernouli).

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

Remark (application).

$$\lim_{x \to 0} (2+x)^{\frac{1}{x}} = \lim_{x \to 0} e^{\frac{1}{x}\log(1+x)} = e^{\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\log(2+x)}{x}} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1}{2+x} = \sqrt{e}$$

**Squeeze theorem** Suppose  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  for each x in an open interval containing a (except a). If  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = \lim_{x\to a} h(x) = L$ , then

$$\lim_{x \to a} g(x) = L \tag{2.7}$$

**Theorem 2.15** (chain rule). Suppose  $\lim_{x\to a} g(x) = b$  and f is continuous at b, then

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(g(x)) = f(\lim_{x \to a} g(x)) = f(b) = c \tag{2.8}$$

**Remark.** The existence of limit  $\lim_{y\to b} f(y) = c$  does not imply f(b) = c. If g assumes value b in some neighbourhood of a, then

$$\lim_{x \to a} g(x) = b, \ \lim_{y \to b} f(x) = c \Longrightarrow \lim_{x \to a} f \circ g(x) = c$$

# 2.4 Limit Inferior/Superior of Functions

Definitions 2.16 (metric).

$$\limsup_{x\to a} f = \lim_{\varepsilon\to 0} \sup_{x\in B(a,\varepsilon)^*} \{f(x)\} = \inf_{\varepsilon>0} \sup_{x\in B(a,\varepsilon)^*} \{f(x)\}$$

$$\liminf_{x\to a}f=\lim_{\varepsilon\to 0}\inf_{x\in B(a,\varepsilon)^*}\{f(x)\}=\sup_{\varepsilon>0}\inf_{x\in B(a,\varepsilon)^*}\{f(x)\}$$

# 2.5 Sequence of Functions

#### 2.5.1 Notions of Convergence

**Definitions 2.17** (pointwise). Sequence of functions are pointwise convergent if for each  $x_0 \in X$ , the sequence  $f_n(x_0)$  converges to  $f(x_0)$ .

(metric) 
$$\forall x \in X, \ \forall \varepsilon > 0, \ \exists N_{x,\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{N}, \ \forall n > N_{x,\varepsilon}, \ d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \varepsilon$$
 (2.9)

(norm) 
$$\forall x \in X, \ \forall \varepsilon > 0, \ \exists N_{x,\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{N}, \ \forall n > N_{x,\varepsilon}, \ \|f_n(x), f(x)\| < \varepsilon$$
 (2.10)

$$(nbd) \quad \forall x \in X, \ \forall U \in \mathcal{N}_{f(x)}, \ \exists N_{x,U} \in \mathbb{N}, \ \forall n > N_{x,U}, \ f_n(x) \in U$$
 (2.11)

**Definitions 2.18** (uniform). Sequence of functions are uniformly convergent if for each  $x \in X$ , all the sequences  $f_n(x)$  converges to f(x) uniformly.

(metric) 
$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \ \exists N_{\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{N}, \ \forall x \in X, \ \forall n > N_{\varepsilon}, \ d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \varepsilon$$
 (2.12)

(norm) 
$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \ \exists N_{\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{N}, \ \forall x \in X, \ \forall n > N_{\varepsilon}, \ \|f_n(x), f(x)\| < \varepsilon$$
 (2.13)

$$(nbd) ?? (2.14)$$

#### 2.5.2 Notions of Boundedness

**Definitions 2.19** (pointwise). Sequence of functions is pointwise bounded if for each  $x_0 \in X$ , the sequence  $f_n(x_0)$  is bounded.

$$\forall x \in X, \ \exists M_x \in \mathbb{R}, \ |f_n(x)| < M_x \tag{2.15}$$

**Definitions 2.20** (uniform). Sequence of functions if uniformly bounded if the pointwise bounds are uniform.

$$\exists M \in \mathbb{R}, \ \forall x \in X, \ |f_n(x)| < M$$
 (2.16)

## 2.6 Limit of a Set

Definitions 2.21.

$$\liminf X = \inf\{limit \ points\}$$

$$\limsup X = \sup \{ limit \ points \}$$

# 2.7 Sequence of Sets

Definitions 2.22.

$$\lim \inf X_n = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{m=n}^{\infty} X_n$$
$$\lim \sup X_n = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{m=n}^{\infty} X_n$$

# Chapter 3

# Linear Algebra

# 3.1 Vector Space

**Definitions 3.1** (vector space). A vector space V(F) or  $\langle V, F, +, \cdot \rangle$  satisfies

- 1. F is a field
- 2.  $\langle V, + \rangle$  is an abelian group.
- 3.  $1\alpha = \alpha, \ \forall v \in V$
- 4.  $(c_1c_2)\alpha = c_1(c_2\alpha), \ \forall c_1, c_2 \in F, \alpha \in V.$
- 5. Scalar multiplication  $\cdot$  is left as well as right distributive over vector addition +.

**Definitions 3.2** (subspace). Let V(F) be a vector space with  $\langle V, F, +, \cdot \rangle$  and  $W \subset V$ . Then W(F) is a subspace of V(F) if  $\langle W, F, +, \cdot \rangle$  is a vector space. ie,  $W \leq V$ .

## 3.1.1 Important Notions

1. 
$$c0 = 0$$
,  $0\alpha = 0$ ,  $(-1)\alpha = -\alpha$ 

#### 3.1.2 Basis

**Definitions 3.3** (linearly independent). A set of vectors  $W \subset V$  is linearly independent if W has a non-trivial linear combination representation of the zero vector.

Note. Linear combinations are of finite length (if not mentioned otherwise).

**Definitions 3.4** (basis). A basis of a vector space V(F) is a linear independent, spanning subset of the set of vectors V.

**Definitions 3.5** (dimension). Any two basis of a vector space V(F) are of the same cardinality. The cardinality of basis of V(F) is the dimension of V(F).

**Note.** The linear combinations of a set of vectors  $W \subset V$  generates a subspace of V(F). The zero vector always has the trivial linear combination representation for any subset W of V.

**Note.** Even infinite dimensional vector spaces demands an infinite basis with a finite linear combination representation for each of its vectors.

**Definitions 3.6** (change of basis). Let  $B_1, B_2$  be two bases for V(F). The change of basis matrix  $P = [B_1, B_2]$  satisfies  $[\alpha]_{B_2} = [B_1, B_2] \cdot [\alpha]_{B_1}$  where  $[\alpha]_B$  is the co-ordinate of  $\alpha \in V$  with respect to a basis B of V(F) and  $[B_1, B_2]$  is the change of basis from  $B_1$  to  $B_2$ .

# 3.2 System of Equations

#### 3.2.1 Row reduced echelon matrix

**Definitions 3.7** (equivalent). Two system of equations are equivalent if they have the same solution space. And, two matrices are equivalent if the respective systems of equations are equivalent.

**Definitions 3.8** (row operations). A row operation is a function  $f: F^{n \times m} \to F^{n \times m}$  that preserves equivalence. There are three elementary row operations,

- 1. multiplication of a row by a scalar
- 2. addition of a row to another
- 3. interchanging two rows

**Definitions 3.9** (elementary matrix). Matrix corresponding to an elementary row operation.

**Note.** Any row operation can be performed by the multiplication of a matrix which is a finite product of elementary matrices.

**Note.** Every matrix has a unique row reduced echelon form. A matrix A is invertible if and only if its row reduced echelon form is the identity matrix.

Note. Gauss Elimination method with augmented matrix to solve system of equations.

## 3.3 Matrices

**Definitions 3.10** (matrix). A matrix  $A_{m \times n}$  over the field F is a function  $A : \mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n \to F$ .

**Definitions 3.11** (square). A square matrix of order n is matrix  $A_{n\times n}$ . And  $M_n(F)$  is the set of all square matrices of order n over the field F. ie,  $A_{n\times n} \in M_n(F)$ .

**Note.** The entries of  $A_{m \times n}$  are represented by  $a_{ij}$  where  $a_{ij} = A(i,j)$ .

**Definitions 3.12** (identity). The identity matrix of order n,  $I_{n \times n}$  is given by  $I(i, j) = \delta_{i, j}$ .

**Definitions 3.13** (diagonals). The **diagonal** entries are  $a_{ij}$  with i = j. The **super-diagonal** entries are  $a_{ij}$  with i = j + 1. The **subdiagonal** entries are  $a_{ij}$  with i = j - 1.

**Definitions 3.14** (diagonal). A diagonal matrix all its entries zero except for the diagonal entries.

**Definitions 3.15** (Jordan normal). A Jordan normal matrix has all entries zero except for diagonal and superdiagonal entries. All its non-zero superdiagonal entries are 1.

**Definitions 3.16** (submatrix). A(i|j) is the submatrix obtained from the matrix A by deleting ith row and jth column.

**Definitions 3.17** (normal). A complex matrix A is normal if it commutes with its conjugate transpose. ie,  $AA^* = A^*A$ .

#### 3.3.1 Operations

**Definitions 3.18** (trace). The trace of a square matrix is the sum of its diagonal entries.

$$tr: M_n(F) \to F, \ tr(A) = \sum_{k=1}^n A(k,k)$$
 (3.1)

**Definitions 3.19** (n-linear). A function  $f: M_n(F) \to F$  is n-linear iff is linear function of the ith row when other rows are fixed.

**Definitions 3.20** (alternating). A function  $f: M_n(F) \to F$  is alternating if

- 1. f(A) = 0 if two rows are equal.
- 2. f(A') = -f(A)

**Definitions 3.21** (determinant). The determinant of a square matrix  $det : M_n(F) \to F$  is an n-linear, alternating function with D(I) = 1.

**Note.** Matrix A with det(A) = 0 is singular.

**Definitions 3.22** (scalar multiplication). Let  $k \in F$  and  $A_{m \times n}$  over the field F. The scalar product  $k \cdot A_{m \times n}$  is kA given by  $kA(i,j) = k \cdot A(i,j)$ .

**Definitions 3.23** (transposition). The **transpose** of a matrix  $A_{m \times n}$  is the matrix  $A'_{n \times m}$  given by  $A' : n \times m \to F$ , A'(i, j) = A(j, i).

**Definitions 3.24** (complex conjugation). The **complex conjugate** of a matrix  $A_{m \times n}$  is the matrix  $\bar{A}_{n \times m}$  given by  $\bar{A}: n \times m \to F$ ,  $\bar{A}(i,j) = \overline{A(j,i)}$ .

**Note.** Conjugates and Complex Conjugate are different notions.

**Definitions 3.25** (addition). Two matrices A, B are compatible for addition if they are of the same size. The sum of two matrices A, B is the matrix C of the same size with entries  $c_{ij} = a_{ij} + b_{ij}$ .

**Definitions 3.26** (mulitplication). Two matrices A, B are compatible for multiplication if the number of columns of the first matrix and the number of rows of the second matrix are the same. The product of two matrices  $A_{m \times n}, B_{n \times p}$  is the matrix  $C_{m \times p}$  with entries

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{kj}$$

**Note.** Matrix multiplication is associative and non-commutative. Every non-singular matrix has a multiplicative inverse.

3.3. MATRICES

#### **3.3.2** Types

**Definitions 3.27** (idempotent). A idempotent matrix A is a square matrix  $A_{n\times n}$  which satisfies  $A^2 = A$ .

**Definitions 3.28** (involutary). A involutary matrix A is a square matrix  $A_{n\times n}$  which satisfies  $A^2 = I$ .

**Definitions 3.29** (scalar). A scalar matrix A is a square matrix  $A_{n\times n}$  which satisfies  $a_{ij} = k \cdot \delta_{i,j}$ . ie,  $A_{n\times n} = k \cdot I_{n\times n}$ 

**Definitions 3.30** (nilpotent). A square matrix is nilpotent of index p if  $A^p = 0$  and  $A^k \neq 0$ ,  $\forall k < p$ .

**Definitions 3.31** (periodic). A square matrix is nilpotent of period p if  $A^p = I$  and  $A^k \neq I$ ,  $\forall k < p$ .

**Definitions 3.32** (symmetric). A symmetric matrix  $A_{n\times n}$  satisfies  $a_{ij}=a_{ji}$ . ie, A'=A. A skew-symmetric matrix satisfies  $a_{ij}=-a_{ji}$ . ie, A'=-A.

**Definitions 3.33** (hermitian). A hermitian matrix  $A_{n\times n}$  satisfies  $\overline{a_{ij}} = a_{ji}$ . ie,  $A^* = A$ ,  $A^* = \overline{A}'$ . A skew-hermitian matrix satisfies  $\overline{a_{ij}} = -a_{ji}$ . ie,  $A^* = -A$ .

**Note.** Every matrix A has a decomposition A = P + Q where  $P = \frac{A + A'}{2}$  is symmetric and  $Q = \frac{A - A'}{2}$  is skew-symmetric. And A has a decomposition A = P + Q where  $P = \frac{A + A^*}{2}$  is hermitian and  $Q = \frac{A - A^*}{2}$  is skew-hermitian.

**Definitions 3.34** (orthogonal). An orthogonal matrix A satisfies  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$  and AA' = I.

**Definitions 3.35** (unitary). A unitary matrix A satisfies  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$  and  $AA^* = I$ .

#### 3.3.3 Important Notions

Let  $A_{m \times n} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ .

- 1.  $tr(AA') = 0 \iff A = 0$ .
- 1. Let D be a diagonal matrix. Then  $AD = DA \iff A$  is a block diagonal matrix.

#### 3.3.4 Invariants

**Definitions 3.36** (conjugation). Two square matrices A, B are **conjugates** if there exists an invertible matrix P such that  $A = PBP^{-1}$ .

**Theorem 3.37.** If  $A_{m \times n}$ , then Rank(A) + Nullity(A) = n

**Theorem 3.38** (Cayley-Hamilton). Every matrix  $A \in M_n(F)$  satisfies its characteristic equation  $det(A - xI) \in F[x]$ .

**Definitions 3.39** (minimal polynomial). The minimal polynomial of a square matrix A is the unique, monic polynomial p of least degree satisfied by A. ie, p(A) = 0.

**Note.** For every square matrix A has a conjugate matrix of the Jordan normal form which unique upto block permutations.

**Definitions 3.40** (diagonalisable). A diagonalisable matrix has a diagonal matrix as its Jordan normal form.

**Note.** Jordan normal form determines the minimal polynomial. The set of all polynomials that annihilate A form a principal ideal domain in  $\mathbb{C}[x]$  with minimal polynomial as its generator.

**Definitions 3.41** (multiplicity). Algebraic multiplicity of an eigenvalue  $\alpha$  of  $A \in M_n(F)$  is the degree of  $(\lambda - \alpha)$  in its characteristic equation. Geometric multiplicity of  $\alpha$  is the number of blocks in Jordan normal form with diagonal entry  $\alpha$ .

## 3.3.5 Important Notions

- 1. If  $A \in M_n(F)$  with Jordan normal form  $J = P^{-1}AP$ , then  $A^n = PJ^nP^{-1}$ .
- 2. Eigenvalues, their algebraic and geometric multiplicities, characteristic polynomial, minimal polynomial, trace, determinant, rank and nullity are invaint under conjugation.
- 3. A matrix is normal if and only if its diagonalisable by a unitary matrix. Thus, real symmetric matrices are diagonalisable over  $\mathbb{R}$ . And hermitian, skew-hermitian matrices are diagonalisable over  $\mathbb{C}$ .
- 4. real skew-symmetric matrices are not diagonalisable over  $\mathbb{R}$ .
- 5. Rotation matrices are non-diagonalisable over  $\mathbb{R}$  but diagonalisable over  $\mathbb{C}$ .
- 6. Non-zero nilpotent matrices are non-diagonalisable over any field F.
- 7. Sum of diagonalisable matrices need not be diagonalisable.

# 3.4 Quadratic Forms

**Theorem 3.42** (QR decomposition). Every matrix  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$  has a QR-decomposition. ie, A = QR where Q is unitary and R is upper triangular.

Note. QR-decomposition unique if R has positive diagonal entries.

**Definitions 3.43** (definite). Symmetric matrix  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$  is positive definite if all its eigenvalues are positive. A is positive semidefinite if if all its eigenvalues are non-negative.

**Definitions 3.44** (definite). Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$  be a hermitian matrix. The matrix A is **positive definite** matrix if it satisfies x'Ax > 0,  $\forall x \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times 1}$ . A is **positive semidefinite** matrix if it satisfies  $x'Ax \geq 0$ ,  $\forall x \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times 1}$ . A is **negative definite** matrix if it satisfies x'Ax < 0,  $\forall x \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times 1}$ .

# Part II Mathematics 2

# Chapter 4

# Algebra

# 4.1 Number Theory

**Lemma 4.1** (Euclid). Let p be a prime. If p divides ab, then either p divides a or p divides b.

#### **Greatest Common Divisor**

- 1. Bézout's Identity: If gcd(n, m) = d, then  $\exists s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that d = sn + tm.
- 2. Euclid's Division Algorithm : If b > 0, then  $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\exists q \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $\exists r \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that a = qb + r where 0 < r < b.
- 3. Euclid's Algorithm :  $gcd(a, b) = gcd(b, r) = \cdots = gcd(d, 1)$  where a = bq + r.
- 4. The linear equation ax + by = c has integer solutions if gcd(a, b) divides c. If (x, y) is a solution, then (x b/d, y a/d) is also a solution.
- 5. Chinese Remainder Theorem : Let  $x \cong a_j \pmod{n_j}$  be a system of congruences where  $\gcd(n_j, n_k) = 1, \ (j \neq k)$ . Then there exists a solution. If  $x_1, x_2$  is are two solutions, then  $x_1 \cong x_2 \pmod{N}$  where  $N = \prod n_j$ .

$$x \cong \sum a_j M_j N_j \pmod{N}$$
 where  $N_j = \frac{N}{n_j}$  and  $M_j \cong N_j^{-1} \pmod{n_j}$ 

#### Congruences

**Definitions 4.2.** The congruence is a relation on  $\mathbb{Z}$  defined by

$$a \cong b \pmod{n} \iff n|(a-b)$$

- 1. The relation  $\cong$  is an equivalence relation.
- 2.  $a \cong b \pmod{n} \implies \forall k, \ a^k \cong b^k \pmod{n}$ .
- 3. If gcd(a, n) = 1, then  $a^{-1} \pmod{n}$  exists.
- 4. Linear congruence equation  $ax \cong b \pmod{n}$  has a solution if  $\gcd(a,n)$  divides b.

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**Euler's phi function** The function  $\phi : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  is defined as  $\phi(n) =$  the cardinality of the set  $\{k \in \mathbb{N} : k \leq n, \gcd(n, k) = 1\}$ .

- 1.  $\phi$  is multiplicative. That is,  $\phi(mn) = \phi(m)\phi(n)$ ,  $\gcd(m,n) = 1$ .
- 2.  $\phi(p^n) = p^n p^{n-1}$  where p is a prime.
- 3.  $\phi(n)$  is even for n > 2.
- 4. The sum of  $\phi(d)$  for all divisors of n is n.
- 5. The sum of all natural numbers  $k \leq n$  that are relatively prime to n is  $n\phi(n)/2$ .

**Theorem 4.3** (Fermat).  $a^p \cong a \pmod{p}$ 

**Definitions 4.4.** A number x such that  $a^x \cong a \pmod{x}$  is a (fermat) **pseudoprime** for base a where gcd(a, x) = 1.

Number 341 is the smallest pseudoprime for base 2.

**Definitions 4.5.** A number x is a **Carmichael** number if  $a^x \cong a \pmod x$  whenever  $\gcd(a,x)=1$ .

#### 4.1.1 Arithmetical Functions

**Definitions 4.6.** A function  $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{C}$  is an **arithmetical** (number theoretic) function.

**Definitions 4.7.** An arithmetical function f is multiplicative iff f(mn) = f(m)f(n) whenever gcd(m, n) = 1. And completely multiplicative iff f(mn) = f(m)f(n) always.

Definitions 4.8. The Dirichlet convolution

$$f * g = \sum_{d|n} f(d)g\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)$$

Clearly, Dirichlet convolution is commutative and associative.

And Dirichlet convolution of multiplicative functions in multiplicative. However, Dirichlet convolution of completely multiplicative functions is not completely multiplicative.

**Definitions 4.9.** Every artithmetical function f with  $f(1) \neq 0$  has a unique **Dirichlet** inverse  $f^{-1}$ .

$$f^{-1}(n) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{f(1)} & n = 1\\ \frac{-1}{f(1)} \sum_{\substack{d \mid n \\ d < n}} f(n/d) f^{-1}(d) & n > 1 \end{cases}$$

Clearly,  $(f * g)^{-1} = g^{-1} * f^{-1}$  provided  $f^{-1}$  and  $g^{-1}$  exists.

**Theorem 4.10.** Let f be multiplicative. Then f is completely multiplicative iff  $f^{-1} = \mu f$ .

#### Arithmetical Functions and their Dirichlet products

- 1. **Identity function**,  $I(n) = \left[\frac{1}{n}\right]$  vanishes everywhere except at n = 1, I(1) = 1. Clearly, I is completely multiplicative.
- 2. **Möbius function**,  $\mu(n)$  gives the parity of the number of prime factors of a square free number and vanishes for numbers which are contains a square. For example,  $\mu(1) = 1$ ,  $\mu(30) = -1$ ,  $\mu(12) = 0$ . Clearly,  $\mu$  is multiplicative.
- 3. Riemann Zeta function,  $\zeta(n) = 1$  is completely multiplicative. Thus  $\zeta^{-1} = \mu \zeta = \mu$ .
- 4. **Power function**,  $N^{\alpha}(n) = n^{\alpha}$  is completely multiplicative. Thus,  $(N^{\alpha})^{-1} = \mu N^{\alpha}$ . And  $N^{0} = \zeta$ .
- 5. Characteristic function,  $\chi_S$  is the membership indicator function.

$$\chi_S(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & n \in S \\ 0 & n \notin S \end{cases}$$

 $\chi_S$  is not multiplicative.

- 6. **Euler totient function**,  $\phi(n)$  gives the number of positive integers less than n which are relatively prime to n. And  $\phi = \mu * N$ . Thus,  $\phi^{-1} = \zeta * \mu N$ .
- 7. **Liouville function**  $\lambda(n)$  gives the parity of sum of prime powers of n. For example,  $\lambda(1) = 0$ ,  $\lambda(30) = -1$ ,  $\lambda(12) = -1$ . Clearly,  $\lambda$  is completely multiplicative and  $\lambda^{-1} = \mu \lambda$ . And  $\lambda = \mu * \chi_{Sq}$  where Sq is the set of all squares.
- 8. Divisor function  $\sigma_{\alpha}(n)$  is the sum of  $\alpha$ th powers of divisors of n. Clearly,  $\sigma_{\alpha} = \zeta * N^{\alpha}$ . And  $\sigma_{\alpha}^{-1} = \mu * \mu N^{\alpha}$ .
- 9.  $\tau(n)$  gives the number of divisors of n. Clearly,  $\tau = \sigma_0 = \zeta * \zeta$ .

We have, 
$$\sigma * \phi = \zeta * N * \mu * N = N * N = N\tau$$
 since,

$$N * N(n) = \sum_{d|n} N(d)N(n/d) = \sum_{d|n} n = N(n)\tau(n)$$

and 
$$\tau * \phi = \zeta * \zeta * \mu * N = \zeta * N = \sigma$$

- 10.  $\omega(n)$  gives the number of distinct prime factors of n. Clearly  $\omega = \zeta * \chi_{\mathbb{P}}$  where  $\mathbb{P}$  is the set of all primes.
- 11.  $\Omega(n)$  gives the number of prime factors of n. Clearly,  $\Omega = \zeta * \chi_{\mathcal{P}}$  where  $\mathcal{P}$  is the set of all prime powers

#### **Strange Functions**

1.  $\sin : \mathbb{N} \to [-1, 1]$  is an injection since  $\sin(x) = \sin(y) \implies 2\pi |(x - y)|$ .

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# 4.2 Group Theory

**Definitions 4.11.** An **algebra** is  $\langle S, \mathcal{F} \rangle$  where S is a collection of sets and  $\mathcal{F}$  is a collection of functions/relations defined on them.

**Definitions 4.12.** A binary relation on a set A is a relation between  $A \times A$  and A.

**Definitions 4.13.** An associative binary relation \* on A satisfies

$$(x*y), (y*z) \in A \implies (x*y)*z, x*(y*z) \in A, (x*y)*z = x*(y*z)$$
 (4.1)

**Definitions 4.14.** A commutative binary relation \* on A satisfies

$$x * y \in A \implies y * x \in A, \ x * y = y * x \tag{4.2}$$

A commutative algebra is also called abelian.

**Definitions 4.15.** A binary operation on A is a function  $*: A \times A \rightarrow A$ .

**Definitions 4.16.** An associative binary operation \* on A satisfies

$$(x * y) * z = x * (y * z)$$
(4.3)

**Definitions 4.17.** A commutative binary operation \* on A satisfies

$$x * y = y * x \tag{4.4}$$

**Definitions 4.18.** A binary **algebra**  $\langle A, * \rangle$  is an algebra with a set A together with a binary operation \* on A.

**Definitions 4.19.** A magma is a binary algebra  $\langle A, * \rangle$  where \* is a binary operation on A. By the definition of binary operation, \* is well-defined(closed) on  $A \times A$ .

**Definitions 4.20.** A semigroup is a magma  $\langle A, * \rangle$  where \* is associative.

**Definitions 4.21.** A left identity e' of an algebra  $\langle A, * \rangle$  satisfies e' \* x = x,  $\forall x \in A$ . And right identity e' satisfies x \* e' = x,  $\forall x \in A$ . An identity element e of  $\langle A, * \rangle$  satisfies both.

A binary algebra has at most one identity element. Homomorphisms map identity elements into identity elements.

**Definitions 4.22.** A monoid is a semigroup  $\langle A, * \rangle$  where \* has an identity  $e \in A$ .

**Definitions 4.23.** Let  $x \in A$ . An **inverse**  $x^{-1}$  of x in an algebra  $\langle A, * \rangle$  satisfies  $xx^{-1} = x^{-1}x$ . Let e be the identity of a monoid  $\langle A, * \rangle$ . Then,  $x^{-1}$  satisfies  $xx^{-1} = x^{-1}x = e$ .

**Definitions 4.24.** A group is a monoid  $\langle A, * \rangle$  where every element  $x \in A$  has an inverse  $x^{-1}$ .

**Definitions 4.25.** An algebra  $\langle R, +, \times \rangle$  is a **ring** if

- 1.  $\langle R, + \rangle$  is an abelian group.
- 2.  $\langle R, \times \rangle$  is a semigroup.

 $3. \times is \ distributive \ over +.$ 

**Definitions 4.26.** A commutative ring with unity  $\langle D, +, \times \rangle$  is an **integral domain** if

- 1.  $\langle D^*, \times \rangle$  has no zero divisors.
- $2. \times is distributive over +.$

**Definitions 4.27.** An integral domain  $\langle F, +, \times \rangle$  is a **field** if

- 1.  $\langle F^*, \times \rangle$  is an abelian group.
- $2. \times is distributive over +.$

**Definitions 4.28.** An algebra  $\langle V, F, +, \times \rangle$  is a linear algebra if

- 1.  $\langle F \rangle$  is a field.
- 2.  $\langle V, + \rangle$  is an abelian group.
- 3.  $\langle V, \times \rangle$  is a semigroup.
- 4.  $\times$  is distributive over +.

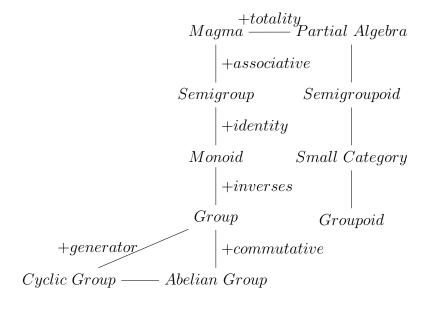


Figure 4.1: Binary Algebraic Structures

**Definitions 4.29.** The **sum** of two subsets A and B of a magma  $\langle X, + \rangle$  is

$$A + B = \{a + b : a \in A, b \in B\}$$

**Definitions 4.30.** Let  $\langle R, +, \cdot \rangle$ ,  $\langle R', +', \cdot' \rangle$  be two commutative rings with identity. A function  $f: R \to R'$  is **linear** if  $f(k \cdot x + y) = k \cdot' f(x) +' f(y)$ .

**Definitions 4.31.** A function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}'$  is n-linear if for  $1 \le k \le n$ ,

$$f(a_1, a_2, \dots, ka_i + a_i', \dots, a_n) = kf(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_i, \dots, a_n) + f(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_i', \dots, a_n)$$

**Definitions 4.32.** Let  $\langle G, *_1, *_2, \dots, *_r \rangle$  and  $\langle H, \star_1, \star_2, \dots, \star_r \rangle$  be two algebraic structures. A function  $f: G \to H$  is a **homomorphism** if  $\forall *_k, f(x *_k y) = f(x) \star_k f(y)$ .

**Definitions 4.33.** An **isomorphism** is a bijective, homomorphism.

- 1. Number of relations on  $A = 2^{n^2}$ .
- 2. Number of reflexive relations on  $A = 2^{n^2-n}$ .
- 3. Number of symmetric relatons on  $A = 2^{\frac{n(n+1)}{2}}$ .
- 4. Number of equivalence relations on A = B(n),  $n^{th}$  Bell number<sup>1</sup>
- 5. Number of total relations on  $A = 2^n 3^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}}$ .

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 0 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 0 & 9 \\ 10 & 11 & 12 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 & 7 \\ \overline{2} & 3 & 5 & 8 \\ \overline{4} & \overline{5} & 6 & 9 \\ \overline{7} & \overline{8} & \overline{9} & 10 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ \overline{1} & 2 & 4 & 5 \\ \overline{2} & \overline{4} & 3 & 6 \\ \overline{3} & \overline{4} & \overline{6} & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Figure 4.2: Enumerating Relations - Reflexive, Symmetric, and Total

- 6. Let |A| = m, |B| = n. Number of functions  $f: A \to B = n^m$ .
- 7. Number of injections  $f: A \to B = {}^{n}P_{m}$   $(n \ge m)$ .

8. Number of surjections 
$$f: A \to B = \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} (-1)^r \binom{n}{r} (n-r)^m$$
  $(n \le m)$ 

9. Number of bijections  $f: A \to B = n!$  (n = m)

Figure 4.3: Bell Triangle

10. Number of binary operations on  $A = n^{n^2}$  where |A| = n.

 $<sup>\</sup>overline{{}^{1}B(n)} = \sum S(n,k)$  where S(n,k) are Stirling numbers of second kind.

## 4.2.1 Groups and Subgroups

**Definitions 4.34.** A group is a binary algebraic structure  $\langle G, * \rangle$  which satisfies

- 1. \* is closed,  $\forall x, y \in G, x * y \in G$
- 2. \* is associative,  $\forall x, y, z \in G$ , (x \* y) \* z = x \* (y \* z).
- 3. \* has an identity element,  $\exists e \in G, \ \forall x \in G, \ e * x = x = x * e$ .
- 4. \* has inverses for every element of G,  $\forall x \in G, \exists x^{-1} \in G, x * x^{-1} = e = x^{-1} * x$

**Definitions 4.35.** The **order** of a group is the number of elements in it. The **order** of an element  $g \in G$  is the order of the smallest subgroup of G containing g.

**Definitions 4.36.** An element  $g \in G$  is a **generator** if the smallest subgroup of G containing g is G itself. A group G is **cyclic** if it has a generator.

#### Important Notions

#### Strange Groups

- 1. Smallest non-abelian group is  $S_3$ . Smallest non-cyclic group is the Klein 4-group,  $K_4 \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ . Smallest non-abelian simple group is  $A_5$ . Thus,  $A_5$  is the smallest perfect group.
- 2.  $D_p, D_4, Q_8, A_4$  are non-abelian groups with every proper subgroup abelian.
- 3.  $\mathbb{C}^*$  is a multiplicative group with identity 1. Unit circle is a subgroup of  $\mathbb{C}^*$ . Unit circle has a unique cyclic subgroup for any order. The *n*th roots of unity is the cyclic subgroup of unit circle with order n.
- 4.  $\left\langle \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & a \\ a & a \end{bmatrix} : a \neq 0 \right\}, \times \right\rangle$  is a group with identity  $\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$ .
- 5.  $\left\langle \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} : a \neq 0 \right\}, \times \right\rangle$  is a group with identity  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .
- 6.  $\langle \mathbb{Q}^+, a*b = \frac{ab}{5}, \times \rangle$  is a group with idenity 5.
- 7.  $\langle \{5, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35\}, \times_{40} \rangle$  is a group with identity 25.
- 8. Convergent sequences under addition is a group.
- 9. Group of rigid motions(rotations) of the cube is a group of order  $\binom{8}{1}\binom{3}{1} = 24$  under permutation multiplication.

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#### **Group Representations**

- 1. The function  $\phi: G \to S_G$ ,  $\phi(x) = \lambda_x$ ,  $\lambda_x(g) = xg$  is the **left regular representation** of G.
- 2. Let G be a finite group with a generating set S. The **Cayley digraph** of G has elements of G as its vertices and generators from S as its arcs. The Cayley digraph for an abelian graph is symmetric.
- 3. A **permutation matrix** is obtained by reordering rows of an identity matrix. The permutation matrices  $P_{n\times n}$  under matrix multiplication forms a group which is isomorphic to  $S_n$ . By Cayley's theorem, every group G is isomorphic to a group of permutation matrices where left regular representation corresponds to left multiplication.
- 4. The set theoretic group representation using generators and their relations. The dihedral group with generators  $y = R_{2\pi/n}$ , rotation by  $2\pi/n$  radians and  $x = \mu$ , reflection (about the line through the center and a fixed vertex) of a regular n-gon.

$$D_n = \{x^i y^j : x^2 = y^n = 1, (xy)^2 = 1\}$$

The symmetric group with generators x = (1, 2) and y = (1, 2, ..., n).

$$S_n = \{x^i y^j : x^2 = y^n = 1, (yx)^{n-1} = 1\}$$

The alternating group with the set of all three cycles of the form  $x_j = (1, 2, j)$  as generating set S.

$$A_n = \left\{ \prod_{j=3}^n x_j^{n_j} : x_j^3 = 1, \ (x_i x_j)^2 = 1 \right\}$$

#### Counter Examples

- 1.  $\langle \mathbb{R}^*, * \rangle$  where a \* b = a/b is not associative.
- 2.  $\langle \mathbb{C}, * \rangle$  where a \* b = |ab| has no identity element.
- 3.  $\langle C[0,1]-\{0\},\times\rangle$  is a not closed. There exists a pair of functions with product 0.

#### **Group Homomorphisms**

- 1.  $\phi: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$  where  $\phi(n) = 2n$  with  $\ker(\phi) = 0$  and  $\phi[\mathbb{Z}] = 2\mathbb{Z}$ .
- 2.  $\phi: \mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{Q}$  where  $\phi(x) = 2x$  with  $\ker(\phi) = 0$  and  $\phi[\mathbb{Q}] = \mathbb{Q}$ .
- 3.  $\phi: \mathbb{R} \to \langle \mathbb{R}^+, \times \rangle$  where  $\phi(x) = 0.5^x$  with  $\ker(\phi) = 0$  and  $\phi[\mathbb{R}] = \mathbb{R}^+$ .
- 4.  $\phi: \mathbb{Z} \to \langle \mathbb{Z}, * \rangle$  where m\*n = m+n-1 is a group with  $\ker(\phi) = 0$  and  $\phi[\mathbb{Z}] = \mathbb{Z}$ . (hint:  $\phi(n) = n+1$ ,  $\phi(0) = 1$ ,  $x^{-1} = -x-2$ )
- 5.  $\phi: \mathbb{Q} \to \langle \mathbb{Q}, * \rangle$  where x \* y = x + y + 1 is a group with  $\ker(\phi) = 0$  and  $\phi[\mathbb{Q}] = \mathbb{Q}$ . (hint:  $\phi(x) = 3x 1$ ,  $\phi(0) = -1$ ,  $x^{-1} = -x 2$ )

- 6.  $\phi: \mathbb{Q}^* \to \langle \mathbb{Q} \{-1\}, * \rangle$  where  $x * y = \frac{(x+1)(y+1)}{3} 1$  is a group with  $\ker(\phi) = 1$  and  $\phi[\mathbb{Q}^*] = \mathbb{Q} \{-1\}$ . (hint :  $\phi(x) = 3x 1$ ,  $\phi(1) = 2$ ,  $x^{-1} = \frac{8-x}{x+1}$ )
- 7. The field  $\left\langle \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix} : a, b \in \mathbb{R} \right\}, +, \times \right\rangle \cong \mathbb{C}$  where  $\phi \left( \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix} \right) = a + ib$ .

#### Cyclic Groups

1. Every cyclic group is abelian.

Proof. 
$$G = \langle g \rangle \implies \forall a, b \in G, \ ab = g^n g^m = g^m g^n = ba.$$

2. Subgroup of cyclic group is cyclic. Let G be a cyclic group of order n. The order of the subgroup generated by  $g^m$  is  $n/\gcd(n,m)$ . For each divisor d of n, there exists unique cyclic subgroup of order n/d.

The multiplicative group  $\mathbb{Z}_{25}^{\times} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{20}$  has generator 3. We have  $\gcd(20,5) = \gcd(20,15)$ . Clearly,  $3^5 \cong 18 \pmod{25}$  and  $3^{15} \cong 7 \pmod{25}$ . Thus,  $\langle 7 \rangle \cong \langle 18 \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_4$ .

- 3. Every proper subgroup of the Klein 4-group,  $K_4 \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}$  is cyclic. However,  $K_4$  is not cyclic.
- 4. For any natural number n, there exists a cyclic group of order n. Two cyclic group of same order are isomorphic.

*Proof.* The finite group  $\langle \mathbb{Z}_n, +_n \rangle$  is cyclic with order  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and the infinite group  $\mathbb{Z}$  is cyclic. Let G, H be cyclic groups of the same order with generators g, h respectively. Then  $\phi: G \to H$ ,  $g \xrightarrow{\phi} h$  is an isomorphism.

- 5. An automorphism of a cyclic group is well defined by the image of a generator. Clearly,  $\mathbb{Z}_{12}$  has  $\phi(12) = 4$  generators and there are four distinct automorphisms.
- 6. For finite cyclic group  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ , a generator is an element with the same order as the group. However, this is not the case for inifinite cyclic group  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

$$o(g) = o(G) \implies \langle g \rangle \cong G$$

- 7. Every finite cyclic group,  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  has  $\phi(n)$  generators which are relatively prime to n. Clearly,  $\mathbb{Z}_{20}$  has a non-prime generator, say 9.
- 8. The equation  $x^m = e$  has m solutions in any finite cyclic group  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  where m|n.
- 9. Let G be an abelian group and H, K are cyclic subgroups of G with generators h, k respectively. Then  $\langle hk \rangle$  is a cyclic subgroup of order lcm(r, s).
- 10.  $\mathbb{Q}^*$  is not cyclic.

*Proof.* Suppose  $\mathbb{Q}^*$  is cyclic. Then  $\mathbb{Q}^* \cong \mathbb{Z}$ . But, o(-1) = 2 and  $\mathbb{Z}$  don't have any element of order two.

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11.  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}$  are not cyclic.

*Proof.* Suppose  $\mathbb{Q} \cong \langle p/q \rangle$ . Then  $p/2q \notin \langle p/q \rangle$ . Thus,  $\mathbb{Q}$  is not cyclic. Since  $\mathbb{Q} \geq \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}$  is not cyclic.

- 12. The subgroup generated by nth primite root of unity is a cyclic subgroup of  $\mathbb{C}^*$  isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ . Clearly,  $\langle (1+i)/\sqrt{2} \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_8$ .
- 13. The subgroup generated by any complex number which is a non-root of unity is a cyclic subgroup of  $\mathbb{C}^*$  isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Clearly  $\langle 1+i\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}$ .

#### **Number Groups**

- 1.  $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, n\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}_n, \mathbb{Q}_c, \mathbb{R}_c, \mathbb{Q}^+, \mathbb{R}^+, \mathbb{Q}^*, \mathbb{R}^*, \mathbb{C}^*, \mathbb{Z}_n^{\times}$  are groups with a suitable arithmetic operators from  $\{+, \times, +_c, \times_c, +_n, \times_n\}$ .
- 2. Any nontrivial subgroup of  $\mathbb{Q}$  is an infinite cyclic group.
- 3.  $\mathbb{R} \{-1\}, *\}$  where a \* b = a + b + ab is a group with identity 0 and o(-2) = 2.
- 4. The cyclic group,  $\mathbb{Z}_n \cong \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} = \{g^n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ .  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  has  $\phi(d)$  elements of order d for every divisor d of n.

$$a^{-1}b \in Z_n \iff \gcd(a,n)|b|$$

5. Group  $\mathbb{Z}_n^{\times}$  is the multiplicative group of natural numbers less than n that are relatively prime to n. Thus  $|\mathbb{Z}_n^{\times}| = \phi(n)$ . Clearly,  $\mathbb{Z}_n^{\times}$  are abelian.

#### **Linear Groups**

- 1.  $M_{m \times n}(F)$  is the additive group of all matrices of order  $m \times n$  with entries from the field F. When m = n, we may write  $M_n(F)$ .  $Z(M_n(F)) = \{aI : a \in F\}$ .
- 2. General Linear Group, GL(n, F) is the multiplicative group of all invertible matrices of order n with entries from field F.

$$|GL(n, F_q)| = \prod_{r=0}^{n-1} (q^n - q^r)$$

$$Z(GL(n, F)) = \{aI : a \in F, a \neq 0\}.$$

- 3. Special Linear Group, SL(n, F) is the multiplicative group of all matrices of order n and determinant 1 with entries from field F.  $Z(SL(n, F)) = \{aI : a \in F, a^n = 1\}$ .
- 4. The determinant,  $det: GL(n,F) \to F^*$  is a homomorphism with  $\ker(det) = SL(n,F)$ .

$$|SL(n, F_q)| = \frac{|GL(n, F_q)|}{q - 1}$$
 since  $GL(n, F_q)/SL(n, F_q) \cong F_q^*$ 

5. The trace,  $Tr: M(n,F) \to F$ . Then  $\ker(Tr)$  is  $n^2 - 1$  dimensional over F.

#### 4.2.2 Permutations, Cosets & Direct Products

**Definitions 4.37.** The **symmetric group**  $S_n$  is the set of all permutation on a set  $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$  together with the function composition operation.

The cycle  $f:(1,2,3) \in S_5$  maps  $1 \to 2 \to 3 \to 1$  and fixes 4,5. And cycle  $g:(1,2,5) \in S_5$  maps  $1 \to 2 \to 5 \to 1$  and fixes 3,4. For example f(g(1)) = f(2) = 3, and f(g(3)) = f(3) = 5.. Thus by function composition  $f \circ g:(1,2,3)(1,2,5) = (1,3)(2,5)$ .

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 4 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 & 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 4 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 1 & 5 & 3 & 4 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

**Theorem 4.38** (Cayley). Every group is isomorphic to a subgroup of a symmetric group.

*Proof.* The function  $\phi: G \to S_G$  defined by  $\phi(x) = \lambda_x$  where  $g \xrightarrow{\lambda_x} xg$  is an homomorphism.

**Definitions 4.39.** Let  $\sigma$  be a bijection/permutation on a set A. The **orbits** of the permutation  $\sigma$  are the equivalent classes of the relation

$$a \sim_{\sigma} b \iff \exists n \in \mathbb{N}, \ a = \sigma^n(b)$$

**Definitions 4.40.** A permutation  $\sigma$  is a **cycle** if it has at most one orbit containing more than one element. The **length** of a cycle  $\sigma$  is the number of elements in its largest orbit.

The multiplication of disjoint cycles is commutative.

**Theorem 4.41.** Every permutation of a finite set has a unique cycle decomposition.

*Proof.* construct cycles corresponding to each orbit under the permutation

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 3 & 5 & 2 & 4 & 1 & 7 & 6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 5 \\ 3 & 5 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 6 & 7 \\ 7 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

In short, we may write (1,3,2,5)(6,7) ignoring those which are left fixed by the permutation. And (1,3,2,5)(6,7) = (1,5)(1,2)(1,3)(6,7) is an even permutation.

**Definitions 4.42.** The alternating group  $A_n$  is the subgroup of all even permutations in the symmetric group  $S_n$ .

**Definitions 4.43.** Let H be a subgroup of group G. The **left coset**, gH of H containing  $g \in G$  is the set of all element of the form gh where  $h \in H$ . The **right coset** Hg of H containing  $g \in G$  is the set of all element of the form hg where  $h \in H$ .

**Theorem 4.44** (Lagrange). The order of a subgroup H of a finite group G divides the order of G.

*Proof.* The left cosets of H in G are disjoint and covers G. Thus |H| must divide |G|.  $\square$ 

**Definitions 4.45.** Index of H in G, (G : H) is the number of left cosets of H in G.

**Theorem 4.46.** The number right cosets of H in G is same as the number of left cosets of H in G.

Proof.  $aH = bH \iff ah_1 = bh_2 \iff (ah_1)^{-1} = (bh_2)^{-1} \iff h_1^{-1}a^{-1} = h_2^{-1}b^{-1} \iff Ha^{-1} = Hb^{-1}$ . Thus,  $aH \stackrel{\phi}{\to} Ha^{-1}$  is bijective.

**Theorem 4.47.** Let  $K \leq H \leq G$ . Then (G : K) = (G : H)(H : K).

**Definitions 4.48.** Let G, H be two groups. The **direct product**  $G \times H$  is defined as the group  $\langle G \times H, * \rangle$  where  $*: (G \times H) \times (G \times H) \rightarrow (G \times H)$  such that  $(g_1, h_1) * (g_2, h_2) = (g_1g_2, h_1h_2)$ .

**Theorem 4.49.** Let G be a finitely generated group. Then  $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p_1^{r_1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_2^{r_2}} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_k^{r_k}} \times \mathbb{Z} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}$  where the number of  $\mathbb{Z}$  is its Betti number.

Theorem 4.50.  $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m \cong \mathbb{Z}_{n \times m} \iff \gcd(m, n) = 1$ .

*Proof.*  $(1,1) \in \mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$  has order mn. Thus,  $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$  is cyclic.

**Theorem 4.51.** Let  $(a_1, ..., a_n) \in G_1 \times ... G_n$  and  $o(a_i) = r_i$ . Then  $o((a_1, ..., a_n)) = lcm(r_1, ..., r_n)$ .

**Definitions 4.52.** The **center** of a group G is the set of all elements that commutes with every element in G.

**Theorem 4.53.** Center Z(G) is a subgroup of G.

**Definitions 4.54.** A subgroup H of group G is **normal** if gH = Hg for every element  $g \in G$ .

**Definitions 4.55.** Let N be a normal subgroup of G. The **quotient group** G/N is the set of all left cosets of N with binary operation  $g_1N * g_2N = (g_1g_2)N$ .

**Definitions 4.56.** An element  $g \in G$  is a **commutator** if  $g = aba^{-1}b^{-1}$  for some  $a, b \in G$ .

**Theorem 4.57.** Let G be a group. Then the set C of all commutators in G is the smallest normal subgroup of G such that G/C is abelian.

#### Isomorphism Theorems

**Theorem 4.58.** Let  $g \in G$ . The function  $i_g : G \to G$  defined by  $i_g(x) = gxg^{-1}$  is an automorphism of the group G.

**Definitions 4.59.** The automorphism  $x \to gxg^{-1}$  is the **inner automorphism** of G by g.

**Definitions 4.60.** The **conjugacy class** of x,  $Cl(x) = \{gxg^{-1} : g \in G\}$ .

**Definitions 4.61.** Let G be a group and H, K be subgroups of G. Subgroup H is a **conjugate** of K if  $H = i_g[K]$  for some  $g \in G$ .

Conjugacy is an equivalence relation on the set of all subgroups of G.

**Theorem 4.62.** Let G be group and N be a normal subgroup of G. Then  $g \stackrel{\phi}{\to} gN$  is a group homomorphism.

**Theorem 4.63.** Let  $\phi: G \to G'$  be a group homomorphism. Then  $\ker(\phi)$  is a normal subgroup of G. And  $\phi[G] \cong G/\ker(\phi)$ .

#### Important Notions

#### Consequences of Lagrange's theorem

- 1. By Lagrange's theorem, every group of prime order is cyclic.
- 2. If |G| = pq, then every proper subgroup of G is cyclic.
- 3. The quotient group  $\mathbb{Z}_n/\langle g\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_d$  where d=n/o(g).

Order of Elements in a product of Cyclic groups Let  $(g_1, g_2, \ldots, g_k) \in G_1 \times G_2 \times \cdots \times G_k$ . Then  $o(g_1, g_2, \ldots, g_k) = lcm(o(g_1), o(g_2), \ldots, o(g_k))$ . And element  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  has order  $\frac{n}{\gcd(n,k)}$ .

For example, an element of (g, h) of  $\mathbb{Z}_{12} \times \mathbb{Z}_{10}$  has order 4 only if o(g) = 4 and o(h) is either 1 or 2. Clearly, an element  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{12}$  is of order 4 iff  $\frac{12}{\gcd(12,k)} = 4$ . For  $\gcd(12,k) = 3$ , we have k = 3 or 9. For  $\gcd(10,k) = 5$ , we have k = 5. For  $\gcd(10,k) = 10$ , we have k = 0. Thus, the elements are (3,0),(3,5),(9,0) and (9,5).

In other words,  $\phi(4)\phi(2) + \phi(4)\phi(1) = 4$  elements of order four in  $\mathbb{Z}_{12} \times \mathbb{Z}_{10}$ .

To enumerate elements of order 9 in  $\mathbb{Z}_{12} \times \mathbb{Z}_{18} \times \mathbb{Z}_{27}$ , being cyclic there are  $\phi(1), \phi(3), \phi(9)$  elements of order 1, 3, 9 (if any). There are  $3 \times 9 \times 9$  elements out of which precisely  $3 \times 3 \times 3$  of them are of order less than 9. Thus 216 elements of order 9.

$$\mathbb{Z}_n^{\times}$$
  $\mathbb{Z}_{10}^{\times} = \{1, 3, 7, 9\}$  and  $\phi(10) = \phi(2)\phi(5) = 4$ . And  $\mathbb{Z}_{10}^{\times} \cong \mathbb{Z}_4$  as  $\langle 3 \rangle = \mathbb{Z}_{10}^{\times}$ . 
$$\mathbb{Z}_{st}^{\times} \cong \mathbb{Z}_s^{\times} \times \mathbb{Z}_t^{\times} \iff \gcd(st) = 1$$
$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \ \mathbb{Z}_{2^{n+2}}^{\times} \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_{2^n}$$
$$\forall p > 2, \ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \ \mathbb{Z}_{p^n}^{\times} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p^n - p^{n-1}}$$

Thus,  $\mathbb{Z}_4^{\times} = \mathbb{Z}_2$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}_8^{\times} = \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}_{16}^{\times} \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4$ , ... Clearly,  $\phi(40) = \phi(8)\phi(5)$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_{40}^{\times} \cong (\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2) \times \mathbb{Z}_4$ . And  $\mathbb{Z}_{1000}^{\times} \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_{100}$ .

Order of an element in a direct product What is the order of  $(\mathbb{Z}_{12} \times \mathbb{Z}_{30})/\langle (g,h) \rangle$  where o(g) = 6 and o(h) = 10?

 $\mathbb{Z}_{12} \times \mathbb{Z}_{30} \cong (\mathbb{Z}_{2^2} \times \mathbb{Z}_3) \times (\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_5)$  and  $g = (g_1, g_2)$  where  $o(g_1) = 2$  and  $o(g_2) = 3$ . Similarly,  $h = (h_1, h_2, h_3)$  where  $o(h_1) = 2$ ,  $o(h_2) = 1$  and  $o(h_3) = 5$ .

$$(\mathbb{Z}_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_3) \times (\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_5) / \langle (g_1, g_2, h_1, h_2, h_3) \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_1 \times \mathbb{Z}_1 \times \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_1 \cong \mathbb{Z}_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_3$$
  
since  $(\mathbb{Z}_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_2) / \langle (g_1, h_1) \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_4$ .

#### Finitely Generated Groups

1. The dihedral group  $D_n$  has  $\phi(d)$  elements of order d for every divisor d of n, except d=2. There are either n or n+1 elements of order two. The center of the dihedral group  $Z(D_n)$  is trivial when n is odd.  $Z(D_n) = \{0, R_{180}\} \cong Z_2$  if n is even. The number of subgroup of  $D_n = \tau(n) + \sigma(n)$ .

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- 2. The center of a symmetric group  $Z(S_n)$  is trivial for  $n \geq 3$ .
- 3. The center of an alternating group  $Z(A_n)$  is trivial for  $n \geq 4$ .

**Definitions 4.64.** The **structure** of a permuation  $\sigma \in S_n$  is  $1^{n_1}2^{n_2} \dots r^{n_r}$  where  $n_j$  is the number of cycles of length j.

The number of permutations of the structure  $1^{n_1}2^{n_2}\dots r^{n_r}$  in  $S_n$  is

$$\frac{n!}{\prod_{k=1}^r n_k! \ k^{n_k}}$$

There are  $\frac{10!}{3! \ 2! \ 1! \ 2^2 \ 3}$  elements of the structure  $1^3 2^2 3^1$ .

**Non-abelian Groups** There are a few classes of non-abelian groups which has every proper subgroup abelian: 1) every nonabelian group of order pq where p|q, and 2) two non-abelian groups of order  $p^3$ .

1.  $o(a) = o(a^{-1})$ 

*Proof.* 
$$a^n = e \iff (a^{-1})^n a^n = (a^{-1})^n \iff e = (a^{-1})^n$$

2.  $o(xax^{-1}) = o(a) = o(x^{-1}ax)$ 

Proof. 
$$(xax^{-1})^n = e \iff xa^nx^{-1} = e \iff a^n = x^{-1}x \iff a^n = e$$

3. o(ab) = o(ba)

Proof. 
$$(ab)^n = e \iff b(ab)^n b^{-1} = e \iff (ba)^n = e$$

1.  $\forall a \in G, \ a^{-1} = a \implies G$  is abelian.

Proof. 
$$ab = a^{-1}b^{-1} = (ba)^{-1} = ba$$

2.  $\forall a, b \in G$ ,  $(ab)^2 = a^2b^2 \iff G$  is abelian.

Proof. 
$$abab = aabb \iff bab = abb \iff ba = ab$$

3.  $\forall a,b \in G, (ab)^{-1} = a^{-1}b^{-1} \iff G$  is abelian

Proof. 
$$(ab)^{-1} = a^{-1}b^{-1} \iff (ab)^{-1} = (ba)^{-1} \iff ab = ba$$

4. Group G has precisely one element g of order two, then g commutes with every element of G.

*Proof.* Let 
$$x \in G$$
.  $o(xgx^{-1}) = o(g) = 2 \implies xgx^{-1} = g \implies xg = gx$ 

#### **Additional Structures**

**Definitions 4.65.** The set of all elements of an abelian group G of finite order forms a normal subgroup called **torsion** subgroup of G.

**Definitions 4.66.** A torsion free group has only one element of finite order in it.

- 1. The torsion subgroup of  $\mathbb{C}^*$  is the set of all roots of unity. The cyclic group generated by z where  $|z| \neq 1$  is a torsion free subgroup of  $\mathbb{C}^*$ . The cyclic group generated by  $e^{2\pi ix}$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R} \mathbb{Q}$  is a torsion free subgroup of the unit circle.
- 2. Any finite group is a torsion group. The subgroups and quotient groups of any torsion group is also a torsion group.
- 3. Every infinite group has a nontrivial torsion free subgroup. The subgroups of a torsion free group is always torsion free.
- 4. Let T be the torsion subgroup of an abelian group G. Then the quotient group G/T is torsion free.

The group  $\mathbb{Q}^*$  has only two elements of finite order, say 1 and -1. The torsion subgroup of  $\mathbb{Q}^* \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$ . Thus  $\mathbb{Q}^+ \cong \mathbb{Q}^*/\{1,-1\}$  is torsion free. Similarly,  $\mathbb{R}^+$  is torsion free.

- 5. Suppose normal subgroup H contains the torsion subgroup of a group G. Then G/H is torsion free. Thus  $\mathbb{C}^*/U \cong \mathbb{R}^+$  is torsion free.
- 6. There is no bound for the order of elements in this torsion group. The quotient group  $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Q}_1$  is a torsion group since every rational number  $0 \leq p/q < 1$  is of the finite order q. And  $\mathbb{Q}_{\pi}$  is torsion free.

#### Semidirect Product

**Definitions 4.67.** Let  $\phi: H \to Aut(N)$  be a group homomorphism where N, H are two group. Then the **semidirect product**  $N \rtimes H$  is defined as the group  $\langle N \rtimes H, * \rangle$  where  $*: (N \times H) \times (N \times H) \to (N \times H)$  such that  $(n_1, h_1) * (n_2, h_2) = (n_1\phi_{h_1}(n_2), h_1h_2)$ .

The dihedral group,  $D_n \cong \mathbb{Z}_n \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_2$ .

Let G be a group with nontrivial subgroups N, H such that N, H are normal and  $N \cap H = \{1\}$ . Then  $G \cong N \times H$ .

We can extend the notion direct product as follows. Let G be a group with nontrivial subgroups N, H such that N is normal and  $N \cap H = \{1\}$ . Then  $G \cong N \rtimes H$  except for  $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_4$  and  $Q_8$ .

No simple group G can be expressed as a semidirect product as G does not have a normal subgroup.

**Definitions 4.68.** The fundamental group of a topological space is the group of equivalent classes under homotopy of the loops contained in the space.

The fundamental group of the Klein bottle is  $\mathbb{Z} \rtimes \mathbb{Z}$ .

The converse of Lagrange's theorem Finite group G not necessarity have subgroups for each divisor of its order. For example, the alternating group  $A_5$  of order 12 does not have a subgroup of order 6.

**Theorem 4.69.** If G/Z(G) is cyclic, then G is abelian.

*Proof.* Let gZ(G) be a generator of G/Z(G). Let  $g_1, g_2 \in G$ . Then  $g_1 = g^{n_1}z_1$  and  $g_2 = g^{n_2}z_2$  where  $z_1, z_2 \in Z(G)$ . Thus,  $g_1g_2 = g_2g_1$ . Therefore, G is abelian.

- 1. If G is non-abelian, then G/Z(G) is not cyclic.
- 2. If G is non-abelian, finite group then  $|Z(G)| \leq \frac{1}{4}|G|$ . Otherwise G/Z(G) is a group of order 1, 2 or 3. And groups of order 1, 2, 3 are cyclic.
- 3. If G is non-abelian, then Z(G) is not a maximal subgroup of G.

*Proof.* Suppose Z(G) is a maximal subgroup of G. Then G/Z(G) has no nontrivial subgroups. That is, G/Z(G) is of prime order and thus cyclic which is not possible as G is non-abelian.

For  $A_5, S_3, \ldots$ , the group G/Z(G) is non-abelian. Number of abelian groups of order  $n = p_1^{r_1} p_2^{r_2} \ldots p_k^{r_k}$  is  $\prod_k B(r_k)$ .

- 1. By Burnside's theorem, p-Groups have non-trivial center. And  $Q_8$  is the smallest non-abelian p-group.
- 2. Every group G of order p is cyclic and  $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_p$ . The number of generators is  $\phi(n)$ .
- 3. Every group G of order  $p^2$  is abelian. There are two groups  $Z_{p^2}$  and  $Z_p \times Z_p$ .
- 4. There are exactly five groups of order  $p^3$ .

*Proof.* Three abelian groups  $-Z_{p^3}$ ,  $Z_{p^2} \times Z_p$ , and  $Z_p \times Z_p \times Z_p$  and two non-abelian groups  $-(Z_p \times Z_p) \rtimes Z_p$ , and  $Z_{p^2} \rtimes Z_p$  except for p=2. For p=2,  $Z_4 \rtimes Z_2 \cong (Z_2 \times Z_2) \rtimes Z_2 \cong D_4$ . However we have  $Q_8$ , which is another nonabelian group of order 8.

5. No group G of order  $p^3$  is simple.

*Proof.* Every group of order  $p^3$  is a semidirect product except  $\mathbb{Z}_4$  and  $Q_8$ . However,  $\mathbb{Z}_4$  is abelian and has normal subgroups isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_2$ . And  $Q_8$  has normal subgroups isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_4$ .

- 6. Every non-abelian group G of order  $p^3$  has center Z(G) of order p. Since G is a p-group, G has non trivial center. Suppose  $|Z(G)| = p^2$ , then G/Z(G) is a cyclic group of order p. But G is non-abelian.
- 7. Every non-abelian group G of order  $p^3$  has  $p^2 + p 1$  distinct conjugacy classes.

- 8. Every group G of order pq has precisely four subgroups of order 1, p, q, pq (by first Sylow theorem). Suppose p < q. Then subgroup H of order p is normal. If p does not divide q 1, then subgroup K of order q is normal. Clearly,  $|H \cap K| = 1$  and  $G \cong HK = \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_q$ . Thus G is cyclic since gcd(p,q) = 1.
- 9. Every non-abelian group G of order pq has trivial center. Suppose nonabelian group G has a nontrivial center of order p (wlog), then G/Z(G) is a cyclic group of order q. But G is non-abelian. Thus Z(G) is trivial.
- 10. Every group of square free order is supersolvable. And thus solvable.

*Proof.* Suppose 
$$|G| = p_1 p_2 \dots p_k$$
 where  $p_1 > p_2 > \dots p_k$ . Then there exists a normal series  $G_1 \triangleleft G_2 \triangleleft \dots \triangleleft G_k \triangleleft G$  such that  $|G_1| = p_1$ ,  $|G_2| = p_1 p_2$  and  $|G_k| = p_1 p_2 \dots p_k$ .  $\square$ 

- 11. Every group G of order pqr is
- 12. Every group G of order  $p^2q$  is
- 13. Every group G of order  $p^3q$  is

$$K \triangleleft H \triangleleft G \Longrightarrow K \triangleleft G \text{ hint } G = D_4$$

#### Simple Groups

**Theorem 4.70.** M is maximal normal subgroup of G iff G/M is simple.

**Theorem 4.71.** Let N be a normal subgroup of G. G/N is abelian iff C < N.

#### **Group Action**

**Definitions 4.72.** An action of group G on a set X is a function  $*: G \times X \to X$  such that

- 1.  $\forall x \in X, \ ex = x$
- 2.  $\forall x \in X, \ \forall g_1, g_2 \in G, \ (g_1g_2)x = g_1(g_2x)$

**Theorem 4.73.** Let X be a G-set. Then  $\phi: G \to S_X$  defined by  $\phi(g) = \sigma_g$  where  $x \xrightarrow{\sigma_g} gx$ .

**Definitions 4.74.** Let X be a G-set and  $x \in X$ . The **isotropy** subgroup  $G_x$  is the subgroup of G containing all elements that fix x.

The set  $X_q$  is the subset of X fixed by  $g \in G$ .

**Theorem 4.75.** Let X be a G-set and  $g \in G$ . Then the relation  $x_1 \sim_g x_2 \iff gx_1 = x_2$  is an equivalence relation on X.

**Definitions 4.76.** The equivalence class of  $\sim_g$  containing x is the **orbit** of x, say Gx.

Theorem 4.77.  $|Gx| = (G:G_x)$ 

Theorem 4.78 (Burside's Formula).  $r|G| = \sum_{g \in G} |X_g|$ 

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# 4.3 Ring Theory

**Lemma 4.79** (Bézout). Let gcd(a,b) = d. Then there exists integers x, y such that ax + by = d. And integers of the form as + bt are exactly the multiples of d.

The integers x, y are the Bézout coefficients for (a, b). Bézout coefficients are not unique. Bézout identity implies Euclid's lemma, and chinese remainder theorem.

**Lemma 4.80** (Euclid). Let p be a prime. If p divides ab, then p divides either a or b.

*Proof.* By Bézout's identity or By induction using Euclidean algorithm.  $\Box$ 

**Theorem 4.81** (chinese remainder theorem).

**Definitions 4.82** (Bézout Domain). A Bézout Domain is an integral domain which satisfyies Bézout's identity.

Every PID is a Bézout Domain.

**Definitions 4.83** (Gaussian Integers). Gaussian integers,  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  are complex numbers of the form a + ib,  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Let x, y are Gaussian integers. x divides y if there exists a Gaussian integer z such that y = xz. The Gaussian integers not divisible by any non-unit Gaussian integer is a Gaussian prime.

#### **Properties**

- 1.  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  is a subring of  $\mathbb{C}$
- 2.  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  is an integral domain.
- 3.  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  is a principal ideal domain (PID).
- 4.  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  is a Unique factorisation domain (UFD).
- 5.  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  with norm  $N(a+ib)=a^2+b^2$  is a Euclidean Domain.
- 6.  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  is a Bézout Domain.

## 4.3.1 Important Notions

- 1. Every PID is a UFD.
- 2. If D is a UFD, then D[x] is a UFD.

**Definitions 4.84** (Eisenstein Integers). Eisenstein Integers,  $\mathbb{Z}[w]$  are complex numbers of the form a + wb,  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $w = e^{i2\pi/3}$ .

The units in  $\mathbb{Z}[w]$  are  $\pm 1, \pm w, \pm w^2$ .

## 4.4 Fields

#### 4.4.1 Finite Fields

**Definitions 4.85.** For every prime power  $p^n$ , there exists a unique Galois field  $GF(p^n)$  of order  $p^n$ .

#### 4.4.2 Field Extensions

**Theorem 4.86** (Kronecker). Let F be a field and f(x) be a nonconstant polynomial in F[x]. Then there exists an extension field E of F and an  $\alpha \in E$  such that  $f(\alpha) = 0$ .

**Definitions 4.87.** A field E is an extension field of field F if F is containined in E.

**Definitions 4.88.** A field E is a simple extension of field F if there exists some  $\alpha \in E$  such that E is the minimal extension field of F containing  $\alpha$ .

**Definitions 4.89.** Let field E be an extension of field F. A number  $\alpha \in E$  is algebraic over F if there exists  $f(x) \in F[x]$  such that  $f(\alpha) = 0$ .

Then  $\alpha$  is algebraic over the field F. Otherwise  $\alpha$  is transcendental over the field F. If  $F = \mathbb{Q}$ , then  $\alpha$  is an algebraic number.

**Definitions 4.90.** An extension E of a field F is **algebraic** if  $E \cong F(\alpha)$  for some  $\alpha$  algebraic over F.

The field  $\mathbb{Q}(\pi)$  is a simple, transcendental extension of  $\mathbb{Q}$ . And  $\mathbb{Q}(i)$  is a simple, algebraic extension of  $\mathbb{Q}$  as f(x):  $x^2 + 1 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  and f(i) = 0.

**Definitions 4.91.** Let field E be an n-dimensional vector space over field F. Then E is a finite extension of F. And [E:F]=n.

**Theorem 4.92** (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra). The field  $\mathbb{C}$  is algebraically closed.

*Proof.* Every non-constant polynomial has a linear factorisation. Let f(z) be a non-constant polynomial which has no zero in  $\mathbb{C}$ . Then 1/f(z) is entire. Clearly  $f(z) \to \infty$  as  $z \to \infty$ . Thus,  $1/f(z) \to 0$  as  $z \to \infty$ . Therefore, f is bounded. However, by Liouville's theorem, the bounded, entire function 1/f(z) is constant.

Field  $\mathbb{C}$  does not have any algebraic extensions. However, the field of all rational functions  $\mathbb{C}(x)$  is a transcendental extension of  $\mathbb{C}$ .

# 4.4.3 Important Notions

The binary algebra,  $\langle \mathbb{Z}_n, +_n, \times_n \rangle$  is a commutative ring with unity.

**Theorem 4.93.**  $\langle \mathbb{Z}_n, +_n, \times_n \rangle$  is a field iff n is a prime.

*Proof.* A number  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  is not a zero divisor(and has an inverse) iff gcd(a, n) = 1.

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Simple Extensions of  $\mathbb{Q}$  Let  $\alpha$  be an algebraic number. Then there exists a polynomial  $f(x) \in F[x]$  such that  $f(\alpha) = 0$ . From f(x), we may obtain a monic polynomial  $p(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  such that  $p(\alpha) = 0$ . By division algorithm, such monic irreducible polynomials are unique. Thus, we may refer  $p(x) = irr(\alpha, \mathbb{Q})$ . By Kronecker's theorem, field  $\mathbb{Q}$  has an algebraic extension  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ .

**Definitions 4.94** (cyclotomic field). The nth cyclotomic field is  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$  where  $\alpha$  is a primitive nth root of unity.

**Definitions 4.95** (cyclotomic polynomial). The nth cyclotomic polynomial  $\Phi_n(x)$  is the monic irreducible polynomial with primitive nth roots of unity as its zeroes.

$$\Phi_n(x) = \prod_{\substack{1 \le k \le n \\ \gcd(k,n)=1}} (x - \zeta_k)$$

The *n*th cyclotomic polynomial has degree  $\phi(n)$ .

#### Constructible Numbers

**Definitions 4.96.** A number  $\alpha$  is constructible if you can draw a line of  $\alpha$  length in a finite number of steps using a straightedge and a compass (given a line of unit length).

The constructible numbers form a field. And a number  $\alpha$  is constructible iff the degree of the monic, irreducible polynomial of  $\alpha$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  is a power of the prime 2. The classical problems like trisecting an angle, squaring a circle and doubling a cube are thus impossible.

The constructible numbers fields is an infinite extension of  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

- 1. [E:F]
- 2.  $\{E : F\}$
- 3. (E:F)

## 4.4.4 Galois Theory

# 4.5 Topology

# 4.5.1 Metric Space

**Definitions 4.97** (distance function). A distance function  $d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}^+$  on a set X is a function which satisfies

- 1.  $d(x,y) \ge 0$ ,  $\forall x, y \in X$
- $2. \ d(x,y) = 0 \iff x = y$
- 3. d(x,y) = d(y,x)
- 4.  $d(x,y) \le d(x,z) + d(z,y), \quad x, y, z \in X$

#### 4.5.2 Convergence

**Definitions 4.98** (metric). A sequence  $x_n$  converges to x if there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\forall n > N, \ d(x_n, x) < \varepsilon$ .

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \ \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \ \forall n > N, \ d(x_n, x) < \varepsilon$$
 (4.5)

#### 4.5.3 Cauchy Criterion

**Definitions 4.99** (metric). A sequence  $x_n$  is Cauchy if there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\forall n, m > N, \ d(x_n, x_m) < \varepsilon$ .

## 4.5.4 Topological Space

**Definitions 4.100** (topological space). A topological space  $\langle X, \mathcal{T} \rangle$  where  $\mathcal{T} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$  satisfies

- 1.  $\phi, X \in \mathcal{T}$ .
- 2.  $\mathcal{T}$  is closed under finite intersections.
- 3.  $\mathcal{T}$  is closed under arbitrary unions.

Let  $G \in \mathcal{T}$ . Then G is an open set in  $\langle X, \mathcal{T} \rangle$ . And X - G is a closed set.

**Definitions 4.101** (clopen). A clopen set is both open and closed.

**Definitions 4.102** (dense). A dense set A intersects every non-trivial open set in  $(X, \mathcal{T})$ .

**Note.** A dense set has no proper closure. If A is dense in X, then  $\bar{A} = X$ . If A is dense in X and  $x \in X$ , then every neighbourhood of x has an element of A.

**Definitions 4.103** (neighbourhood). A neighbourhood N of a point  $x \in X$  contains an open set containing x. Then x is an interior point of N.

**Definitions 4.104** (neighbourhood system). The neighbourhood system of x,  $\mathcal{N}_x$  is the family of all neighbourhoods of x.

**Definitions 4.105** (interior). The set of all interior points of N is the **interior** of N,  $N^{\circ}$ .

**Definitions 4.106** (exterior). The interior of X - N is the **exterior** of N.

**Definitions 4.107** (boundary). The **boundary** of N,  $\partial N$  is the set of all points which are neither in its interior or exterior.

**Definitions 4.108** (derived set). A limit point x of a set A has every deleted neighbourhood  $N - \{x\}$  intersecting A. The **derived set** A' is the set of all limit points of A.

**Note.** A point x is a limit point of A if and oney if there exists a non-eventual sequence in A converging to x.

**Definitions 4.109** (closure). The closure of A,  $\bar{A} = A \cup A'$ .

**Note.** The closure of A,  $\bar{A}$  is the smallest closed set containing A. If A is closed, then  $\bar{A} \subset A$ . If C is closed and  $A \subset C$ , then  $\bar{A} \subset C$ .

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### 4.5.5 Convergence

**Definitions 4.110** (neighbourhood). A sequence  $\{x_n\}$  converges to x if any neighbourhood N of x contains all except finitely many  $x_n$ 's. Then x is a **limit** of sequence  $\{x_n\}$ .

**Note.** Let  $x_n \to x$  in  $\langle X, \mathcal{T} \rangle$ . Then  $x_n$  is eventually in every neighbourhood of x.

$$\forall U \in \mathcal{N}_x, \ \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \ \forall n > N, \ x_n \in U$$
 (4.6)

**Note.** Sequences  $\{\frac{1}{n}\}$ ,  $\{\frac{1}{2^n}\}$  are eventually in every neighbourhood of 0.

# 4.5.6 Important Notions

**Definitions 4.111** (Euler Characteristic).  $\chi = V - E + F$ 

**Remark.** Every convex polyhedron has Euler characteristic,  $\chi = 2$ .