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## Lecture 1: Theory of Groups and Rings

**Definition 1.** *Fibre of  $f$  over  $b$ :* For a function  $f : A \rightarrow B$ , the pre-image of  $b \in B$  is called the fibre of  $f$  over  $b$ .

**Definition 2.** *Equivalence class of  $a \in A$  is defined to be  $\{x \mid xRa\}$ . The elements of equivalence class of  $a \in A$  are said to be equivalent to  $a$  and any element of this class is called the representative of this class. They are denoted by  $[a]$ .*

**Lemma 1.** *Any two equivalence classes are either disjoint or equal.*

*Proof.* Suppose, we have two equivalence classes  $[a]$  and  $[b]$  such that  $[a] \neq [b]$ . We need to prove that  $[a] \cap [b] = \phi$ . Suppose for contradiction that  $\exists x$  such that  $x \in [a] \cap [b]$ . This means that  $xRa$  and  $xRb$ . Using symmetry of equivalence relation, we have  $aRx$  and  $xRb$  and by transitivity we can say  $aRb$ . Hence,  $[a] = [b]$  which is a contradiction.

We have proved that if they are not equal then they are disjoint. Other way can be proved with similar argument.  $\square$

**Definition 3.** *Partition of  $A$ :* A partition of  $A$  is any collection  $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$  of non-empty subsets of  $A$  such that it follows:

1.  $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i = A$ , and
2.  $A_i \cap A_j = \phi \quad \forall i, j \in I \text{ and } i \neq j$ .

**Remark.** *The notion of an equivalence relation on  $A$  and a partition of  $A$  are the same.*

For a set  $A$ , every equivalence relation on  $A$  induces the partition on set  $A$  using equivalence classes. In other words, every equivalence class associated with an equivalence relation forms a partition of  $A$ .

If  $R$  is the equivalence relation on  $A$  then the induced partition  $P$  will be

$$P = \{\{b \mid bRa, \forall b \in A\} \mid a \in A\}$$

Also, with the given partition  $P$ , we can define relation  $R$  as

$$R = \{bRa \mid \exists p_i \in P \text{ such that } a, b \in p_i \quad \forall i \in I\}$$

We can say a partition  $P$  is made up of equivalence classes  $p_i$ .

**Proposition 1.** *Let  $A$  be a nonempty set.*

1. *If  $R$  defines an equivalence relation on  $A$  then the set of equivalence classes of  $R$  forms a partition of  $A$ .*
2. *If  $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$  is a partition of  $A$  then there is an equivalence relation on  $A$  whose equivalence classes are sets  $A_i, i \in I$ .*

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*Proof.* 1. Suppose  $P$  is a set of equivalence classes of  $R$ , defined as

$$P = \{\{b \mid bRa, b \in A\} \mid a \in A\}$$

We need to prove that  $P$  defines partition of  $A$ . For some  $p_i \in P$ , it will be nonempty since it will have atleast  $a$  which is related to itself. Now, using lemma 1, we can say that  $p_i \cap p_j = \phi$  for some  $p_i, p_j \in P$  and  $i, j \in \mathbb{N}$  given that  $i \neq j$ .

Also, we know that every point of set  $A$  will be in some equivalence class (reflexivity so atleast in the equivalence of itself). If we take union of all those classes we will get  $A$  as each point has a atleast a equivalence class.

2. Given the collection of sets,  $Q = \{A_i \mid i \in I\}$  as a partition of  $A$ , we need to show that there exists an equivalence relation on  $A$  with equivalence classes as sets  $A_i, i \in I$ .

We can define relation  $R$  as

$$R = \{(a, b) \mid bRa \text{ and } \exists A_i \in Q \text{ such that } a, b \in A_i\}$$

It is reflexive (obvious), symmetric (obvious) and transitive ( $aRb$  such that  $a, b \in A_i$  and  $bRc$  such that  $b, c \in A_i \implies aRc$  such that  $a, c \in A_i$ ). Hence, it is a equivalence relation and the corresponding equivalence class for some  $i$  will be

$$q_i = \{b \mid bRa_i, \forall b \in A \text{ \& } a_i \in A\}$$

Since with the same arguments given in proof of part (1) that  $q_i, i \in I$  is nonempty, disjoint and exhausts the set  $A$ , we can say it forms the partition of  $A$  and since every equivalence relation induces a unique partition, we can also say that  $q_i, i \in I$  are precisely the sets  $A_i, i \in I$ . □

## Properties of Integers

**Definition 4.** *Well Ordering of  $\mathbb{Z}$ : If  $A$  is any nonempty subset of  $\mathbb{Z}^+$ , there is some element  $m \in A$  such that  $m \leq a, \forall a \in A$ .  $m$  is called the minimum element of  $A$ .*

**Definition 5.**  $a \mid b = a$  divides  $b$ .  $b = ac$  for some  $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Definition 6.** For some  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , denote  $d = \gcd(a, b)$  and  $l = \text{lcm}(a, b)$  then  $dl = ab$ .

**Definition 7.** *The Division Algorithm: If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ , then there exists a unique  $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $a = bq + r$  where  $0 \leq r \leq |b|$ . And  $q$  is called quotient and  $r$  is called remainder.*

**Definition 8.** *The Euclidean Algorithm: Suppose  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ , we can use this*

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algorithm to find the gcd of these two number in the following way:

$$\begin{aligned}
a &= q_0b + r_0 \\
b &= q_1r_0 + r_1 \\
r_0 &= q_2r_1 + r_2 \\
&\vdots \\
r_{n-2} &= q_{n+1}r_{n-1} + r_n \\
r_{n-1} &= q_{n+2}r_n
\end{aligned}$$

where  $r_n$  is the gcd of  $(a, b)$ . Such an  $r_n$  exists because  $|b| > |r_0| > |r_1| \dots$  is a decreasing sequence of strictly positive integers hence it cannot go on to infinite elements.

$\mathbb{Z}$ -linear combination of  $a$  and  $b$ : For  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ , we have  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that we can write  $\gcd(a, b)$  as linear combination of  $x, y$

$$\gcd(a, b) = ax + by$$

**Theorem 1.** *Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic: If  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $n > 1$ , then  $n$  can be factored uniquely into the product of primes, i.e. there are distinct primes  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_s$  and positive integers  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_s$ , such that*

$$n = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_s^{\alpha_s}$$

*This factorization is unique in the sense that the set of  $p_i$ 's is unique and no other set of primes and the exponent can generate the same number.*

*Proof.* We will use induction to prove the first part that every  $n > 1$  can be written as the product of primes.

For  $n = 2$  it is true as  $2 = 2^1$ . Suppose for all the numbers less than  $n$  can be written as the product of primes. Now, for  $n$  we can have two cases:

**Case: 1** If  $n$  is prime then it is obvious that it's true.

**Case: 2** If  $n$  is composite then  $n$  can be written as  $n = ab$  where  $0 < a, b < n$  by definition of composite numbers. And by our assumption for induction it is true that  $a, b$  can be written as product of primes as they are less than  $n$ . Hence,  $n = ab$  can also be a product of primes.

Now, about the uniqueness of the primes factors. Let's assume that there exists some primes  $q_i$ 's and the exponents  $\beta_i$ 's such that

$$n = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_s^{\alpha_s} = q_1^{\beta_1} q_2^{\beta_2} \dots q_s^{\beta_s}$$

Since  $p_1$  divides the left side, it should also divide the right side. Hence,  $p_1 | q_i$  for some  $i$ . But  $p_1$  and  $q_i$  are primes  $\implies p_1 = q_i$ . WLOG, we can choose  $i = 1 \implies p_1 = q_1$ .

$$p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_s^{\alpha_s} = p_1^{\beta_1} q_2^{\beta_2} \dots q_s^{\beta_s}$$

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Now, we can have  $\alpha_1 > \beta_1$  and we can cancel  $p_1^{\beta_1}$  from both sides.

$$p_1^{\alpha_1 - \beta_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_s^{\alpha_s} = q_2^{\beta_2} \dots q_s^{\beta_s}$$

But observe that now  $p_1$  divides left side but not the right side. Hence  $\alpha_1 \not\geq \beta_1$ . Similar argument for  $\alpha_1 < \beta_1$ . Therefore,  $\alpha_1 = \beta_1$ .

Using induction we can show that both sides are equivalent. Hence, primes and their coefficients are unique.  $\square$

We can also define lcm and gcd using fundamental theorem of arithmetic as:

$$\begin{aligned} \gcd(a, b) &= p_1^{\min(\alpha_1, \beta_1)} p_2^{\min(\alpha_2, \beta_2)} \dots \\ \text{lcm}(a, b) &= p_1^{\max(\alpha_1, \beta_1)} p_2^{\max(\alpha_2, \beta_2)} \dots \end{aligned}$$

**Definition 9.** Euler  $\phi$ - function: For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  let  $\phi(n)$  be the number of positive integers  $a \leq n$  with  $(a, n) = 1$ . For primes  $p$ ,  $\phi(p) = p - 1$ , and more generally,  $\forall a \geq 1$  we have

$$\phi(p^a) = p^a - p^{a-1} = p^{a-1}(p - 1)$$

The function  $\phi$  is multiplicative in the sense that  $\phi(ab) = \phi(a)\phi(b)$  if  $(a, b) = 1$ . So for some  $n = p_1 \alpha_1 p_2 \alpha_2 \dots p_s \alpha_s$  we can write

$$\phi(n) = \phi(p_1 \alpha_1 p_2 \alpha_2 \dots p_s \alpha_s) = \phi(p_1 \alpha_1) \phi(p_2 \alpha_2) \dots \phi(p_s \alpha_s)$$

**Theorem 2.** If  $n$  is composite then there are integers  $a$  and  $b$  such that  $n \mid ab$  but  $n \nmid a$  or  $n \nmid b$ .

*Proof.* Since  $n$  is composite then  $n = x_1^{n_1} x_2^{n_2} \dots y_1^{n'_1} y_2^{n'_2} \dots$  where  $x, y$  are primes  $\in (0, n)$  and  $n'_i \geq 1 \forall i \in \mathbb{N}$ . We have to prove the existence of the integers  $a, b$  such that  $n \mid ab$  but  $n \nmid a$  or  $n \nmid b$ .

We can construct such integers given the prime factorization of  $n$ . If we define  $a = x_1^{n_1} x_2^{n_2} \dots$  and  $b = y_1^{n'_1} y_2^{n'_2} \dots$  then we have satisfied the needed conditions.  $\square$