

Math 417: Abstract Algebra

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1 Algebraic Themes

1.1 Symmetry

Definition 1.1.1 (Symmetry) A ***symmetry*** is an undetectable motion. An object is symmetric if it has symmetries.

1.2 Multiplication Table

Example of Multiplication Table Example of rectangle

	e	r	r^2	r^3	a	b	c	d
e	e	r	r^2	r^3	a	b	c	d
r	r	r^2	r^3	e	d	c	a	b
r^2	r^2	r^3	e	r	b	a	d	c
r^3	r^3	e	r	r^2	c	d	b	a
a	a	c	b	d	e	r^2	r	r^3
b	b	d	a	c	r^2	e	r^3	r
c	c	b	d	a	r^3	r	e	r^2
d	d	a	c	b	r	r^3	r^2	e

Table 1: Table of Multiplication for Rectangle

Property of Symmetry

1. The product of symmetries is independent of how they are associated,

$$s(tu) = (st)u$$

2. The *nonmotion* e compose with any other symmetry (in either order) is the second symmetry,

$$eu = ue = u$$

3. For each symmetry there is an inverse, such that the composition of the symmetry with its inverse (in either order) is the *nonmotion* e ,

$$uu^{-1} = u^{-1}u = e$$

1.3 Symmetries and Matrices

Definition 1.3.1 (Isometry) A transformation $\tau : R \rightarrow R$ is called an **isometry** if for all points $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in R$, we have $d(\tau(\mathbf{a}), \tau(\mathbf{b})) = d(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$, where d denotes the usual Euclidean distance function.

Proposition 1.3.1 Let R denote a polygon or a polyhedron in three-dimensional space, locate with its centroid at the origin of coordinates. Then every symmetry of R is the restriction to R of a linear isometry of \mathbb{R}^3 .

1.4 Permutations

Definition 1.4.1 (Permutation) The symmetries of a configuration of identical objects are called **permutations**. There are $n!$ permutations for n objects. The set of all the permutations is denoted by $\text{Sym}(X) = S_n$.

qq

1. The multiplication of permutation is associative.
2. There is an identity permutation e , which leaves each object in its original position.
3. For each permutation σ , there is an inverse permutation σ^{-1} .

Definition 1.4.2 (Cycle) A permutation that permutes several numbers cyclically and leave all other numbers fixed is call a **cycle**.

Definition 1.4.3 (Disjoint) Two cycles are **disjoint** if each leaves the fixed numbers moved by each other.

Definition 1.4.4 (Order) A permutation π is said to have **order** k if k^{th} power of π is the identity and no lower power of π is the identity. A **k -cycle** has order k .

Theorem 1.4.1 Every permutation of a finite set can be written uniquely as a product of disjoint cycles.

1.5 Divisibility in the Integers

Definition 1.5.1 (Integer) We denote the set of **integers** $\{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots\}$ by \mathbb{Z} .

Definition 1.5.2 (Natural Number) We denote the set of natural numbers $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ by \mathbb{N} .

Proposition 1.5.1 : *Addition and Multiplication*

1. Addition on \mathbb{Z} is commutative and associative.
2. 0 is an identity element for addition; $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 + a = a$.
3. Every element a of \mathbb{Z} has an additive inverse $-a$ that $a + (-a) = 0$.
4. Multiplication on \mathbb{Z} is commutative and associative.
5. 1 is an identity element for multiplication; $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, 1a = a$.
6. The distribute law holds; $a(b + c) = ab + ac$.
7. \mathbb{N} is closed under addition and multiplication.
8. The product of non-zero integers is non-zero.

Definition 1.5.3 (Divisibility) We say that an interger a **divides** b , (or that b is divisible by a), if there is an interger q such that $aq = b$; we write $a|b$ for "a divides b"

Proposition 1.5.2 *Properties of Divisibility:*

Let a, b, c, u , and v denote integers.

1. If $uv = 1$, then $u = v = 1$ or $u = v = -1$.
2. If $a|b$ and $b|a$, then $a = \pm b$.
3. Divisibility is transitive; if $a|b$, $b|c$, then $a|c$.
4. If $a|b$ and $a|c$, then $a|(sb + tc)$, where s and t are integers.

Definition 1.5.4 (Prime) A natural number is **prime** if it is greater than 1 and not divisible by any natural number other than 1 and itself.

Proposition 1.5.3 Any natural number other than 1 can be written as a product of prime numbers.

Theorem 1.5.1 There are infinitely many prime numbers.

Proposition 1.5.4 Given integers a and b , with $d \geq 1$, there exist unique integers q and r ¹ such $a = qd + r$ and $0 \leq r < d$.

Definition 1.5.5 (Greatest Common Divisor) A natural number d is the greatest common divisor of nonzero integers m and n if

1. $d|m$ and $d|n$;
2. whenever $x \in \mathbb{N}$ divides m and n , then x also divides d .

Proposition 1.5.5 For integers m and n , let

$$I(m, n) = \{am + bn : a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}. \quad (1)$$

1. For $x, y \in I(m, n)$, $x + y \in I(m, n)$ and $-x \in I(m, n)$.
2. $\forall x \in \mathbb{Z}, xI(m, n) \subseteq I(m, n)$
3. If $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ divides m and n , then b divides all elements of $I(m, n)$.

Lemma 1.5.1 Let m and n be nonzero integers. If a natural number d is a common divisor of m and n and an element of $I(m, n)$, then d is the greatest common divisor of m and n .

Proposition 1.5.6 Let $m, n, n_1, \dots, n_k, \dots, q_1, q_2, \dots, q_k \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$m = q_1n + n_1 \quad (2)$$

$$n = q_2n_1 + n_2 \quad (3)$$

¹The q is called **quotient** and the r is called **remainder**.

...

$$n_{k-2} = q_k n_{k-1} + n_k \quad (4)$$

...

$$n_{r-1} = q_{r+1} n_r \quad (5)$$

The natural number n_r is the greatest common divisor of m and n , and furthermore $n_r \in I(m, n)$.

Corollary 1.5.1 Let m and n be nonzero integers, and write $d = \text{g.c.d.}(m, n)$

1. d is the least element of $\mathbb{N} \cap I(m, n)$.
2. $I(m, n) = \mathbb{Z}d$, the set of all integer multiples of d .

Definition 1.5.6 (Relatively Prime) Nonzero integers m and n are **relatively prime** if $\text{g.c.d.}(m, n) = 1$.

Corollary 1.5.2 Two nonzero integers m and n are relatively prime if and only if there exist integers s and t such that $1 = sm + tn$.

Corollary 1.5.3 Suppose that a and b are relatively prime natural numbers, that x is an integer, and that both a and b divide x . Then ab divides x .

Proposition 1.5.7 If p is a prime number and a is any nonzero integer, then either p divides a or p and a are relatively prime.

Proposition 1.5.8 Let p be a prime number, and a and b nonzero integers. If $p|ab$, then $p|a$ or $p|b$.

Corollary 1.5.4 Suppose that a prime number $p|a_1 a_2 \dots a_r$, which for $r \in [1, r]$, $a_n \neq 0$, then p divides one of the factors.

Theorem 1.5.2 The prime factorization of a natural number is unique.

Definition 1.5.7 Greatest common Divisor of Several Numbers A natural number d is the greatest common divisor of nonzero integers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n , if

1. d divides each a_i and

2. whenever $x \in \mathbb{N}$ divides each a_i , then x also divides d .

Lemma 1.5.2 *Given nonzero integers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n ($n \leq 2$), there is a natural number d and an n -by- n integer matrix Q such that Q is invertible, Q^{-1} also has integer entries, and*

$$(d, 0, \dots, 0) = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)Q \quad (6)$$

Proposition 1.5.9 *The greatest common divisor of nonzero integers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n exists, and is an integer linear combination of a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n .*

Definition 1.5.8 (Relatively Prime) *We say that nonzero integers a_1, \dots, a_n are **relatively prime** if their greatest common divisor is 1. We say that they are **pairwise relatively prime** if a_i and a_j are relatively prime whenever $i \neq j$.*

1.6 Modular Arithmetic

Definition 1.6.1 (Congruence) *Given integers a and b , and a natural number n , we say that " a is congruent to b modulo n " and we write $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ if $n \mid (a - b)$.*

Lemma 1.6.1 *Properties of Mod*

1. $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, a \equiv a \pmod{n}$ (Reflexive)
2. $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, if $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ if and only if $b \equiv a \pmod{n}$. (Symmetric)
3. $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, if $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ and $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$, then $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$. (Transitive)

Lemma 1.6.2 *For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, the following are equivalent:*

- $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$.
- $[a] = [b]$.²
- $\text{rem}_n(a) = \text{rem}_n(b)$.³

²The set a is called the residue class or congruence class of a modulo n .

³Denote by $\text{rem}_n(a)$ the unique number r such that $0 \leq r < n$ and $a - r$ is divisible by n .

- $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$

Corollary 1.6.1 *There exist exactly n distinct residue classes modulo n , namely $[0], [1], \dots, [n-1]$. These classes are mutually disjoint.*

Lemma 1.6.3 *Let a, a', b, b' be integers with $a \equiv a' \pmod{n}$ and $b \equiv b' \pmod{n}$. Then $a + b \equiv a' + b' \pmod{n}$ and $ab \equiv a'b' \pmod{n}$.*

Proposition 1.6.1 *Properties of Modulo Congruence:*

1. *Addition on \mathbb{Z}_n is commutative and associative, $\forall [a], [b], [c] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$*

$$[a] + [b] = [b] + [a] \quad (7)$$

and,

$$[a] + [b] + [c] = [a] + ([b] + [c]) \quad (8)$$

- 0 *is an identity element for addition, $\forall [a] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$,*

$$[0] + [a] = [a] \quad (9)$$

2. *Every element $[a]$ of \mathbb{Z}_n has an additive inverse $[-a]$, that*

$$[a] + [-a] = [0] \quad (10)$$

3. *Multiplication on \mathbb{Z}_n is commutative and associative; $\forall [a], [b], [c] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$,*

$$[a][b] = [b][a] \quad (11)$$

,and

$$[a][b][c] = [a]([b][c]) \quad (12)$$

4. *$[1]$ is an identity for multiplication; $\forall [a] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$,*

$$[1][a] = [a][1] \quad (13)$$

5. *The distributive law hold; $\forall [a], [b], [z] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$,*

$$[a]([b] + [c]) = [a][b] + [a][c] \quad (14)$$

Proposition 1.6.2 (Chinese Remainder Theorem) *Suppose a and b are relatively prime natural numbers, and α and β are integers. There exists an integer x such that $x \equiv \alpha \pmod{a}$ and $x \equiv \beta \pmod{b}$. Moreover, x is unique up to congruence modulo ab .*

1.7 Polynomials

Denotation Denote set of rational numbers by \mathbb{Q} , and denote set of real numbers by \mathbb{R} and denote set of complex numbers by \mathbb{C} .

Addition and Multiplication

$$\left(\sum_j a_j x^j\right) + \left(\sum_j b_j x^j\right) = \sum_j (a_j + b_j) x^j \quad (15)$$

and,

$$\left(\sum_i a_i x^i\right) \left(\sum_j b_j x^j\right) = \sum_i \sum_j (a_i b_j) x^{i+j} \quad (16)$$

$$= \sum_k \left(\sum_{i,j:i+j=k} a_i b_j\right) x^k = \sum_k \left(\sum_i a_i b_{k-i}\right) x^k \quad (17)$$

Proposition 1.7.1 *Basic Properties:*

1. Addition in $K[x]$ is commutative and associative; $f + g = g + f$ and $\forall f, g, h \in K[x], f + g + h = f + (g + h)$.
2. 0 is an identity element for addition; $0 + f = f$.
3. Every element f of $K[x]$ has an additive inverse $-f$; $f + (-f) = 0$.
4. Multiplication in $K[x]$ is commutative and associative; that is, for all $f, g, h \in K[x]$, $fg = gf$, and $f(gh) = (fg)h$.
5. 1 is an identity for multiplication; $\forall f \in K[x], 1f = f$.
6. The distributed law holds; $\forall f, g, h \in K[x], f(g + h) = fg + fh$.

Definition 1.7.1 (Degree) The **degree** of a polynomial $\sum_k a_k x^k$ is the largest k that $a_k \neq 0$. If $p = \sum_j a_j x^j$ is a nonzero polynomial of degree k , denoted $\deg(p)$, the **leading coefficient** of p is a_k and leading term of p is $a_k x^k$. A polynomial is said to be **monic** if its leading coefficient is 1.

Proposition 1.7.2 Let $f, g \in K[x]$.

1. $\deg(fg) = \deg(f) + \deg(g)$; in particular, if f and g are both nonzero, then $fg \neq 0$.

$$2. \deg(f + g) \leq \max\{\deg(f), \deg(g)\}$$

Proposition 1.7.3 *Let f, g, h, u, v denote polynomials like in $K[x]$.*

1. *If $uv = 1$, then $u, v \in K$.*
2. *If $f|g$ and $g|f$, then there is a $k \in K$ such that $g = kf$.*
3. *Divisibility is transitive*
4. *If $f|g$ and $f|h$, then $\forall s, t \in K[x], f|(sg + th)$.*

Definition 1.7.2 (Irreducible) *We say that a polynomial in $K[x]$ is **irreducible** if its degree is positive and it cannot be written as a product of two polynomials each of strictly smaller (positive) degree.*

Proposition 1.7.4 *Any polynomial in $K[x]$ of positive degree can be written as a product of irreducible polynomials.*

Proposition 1.7.5 *$K[x]$ contains infinitely many irreducible polynomials.*

Lemma 1.7.1 *Let p and d be elements of $K[x]$, with $\deg(p) \geq \deg(d) \geq 0$. Then there is a monomial $m = bx^k \in K[x]$ and a polynomial $p' \in K[x]$ such that $p = md + p'$, and $\deg(p') < \deg(p)$.*

Proposition 1.7.6 *Let $p, d \in K[x]$, with $\deg(d) \geq 0$. Then there exist polynomials q and r in $K[x]$ such that $p = dq + r$ and $\deg(r) < \deg(d)$.*

Definition 1.7.3 (Great Common Divisor of Polynomials) *A polynomial $f \in K[x]$ is a greatest common divisor of nonzero polynomials $p, q \in K[x]$ if*

1. *$f|p$ and $f|q$ in $K[x]$ and*
2. *whenever $g \in K[x]$ divides p and q , then g also divides f .*

Proposition 1.7.7 *For polynomials $f, g \in K[x]$, let*

$$I(f, g) = \{af + bg : a, b \in K[x]\} \tag{18}$$

1. *$\forall p, q \in I(f, g), p + q \in I(f, g)$ and $-p \in I(f, g)$*

2. $\forall p \in K[x], pI(f, g) \subseteq I(f, g)$.
3. If $p \in K[x]$ divides f and g , then p divides all elements in $I(f, g)$.

Theorem 1.7.1 Any two nonzero polynomials $f, g \in K[x]$ have a greatest common divisor $\in I(f, g)$.

Definition 1.7.4 (Relatively Prime) Two polynomials $f, g \in K[x]$ are **relatively prime** if $\text{g.c.d.}(f, g) = 1$.

Proposition 1.7.8 Two polynomials $f, g \in K[x]$ are relatively prime if and only if $1 \in I(f, g)$.

Proposition 1.7.9 Properties of irreducible polynomial

1. Let p be an irreducible polynomial in $K[x]$ and $f, g \in K[x]$ nonzero polynomials. If $p|fg$, then $p|f$ or $p|g$.
2. Suppose that irreducible polynomial $p \in K[x]$ divides a product $f_1 f_2 \dots f_s$ of nonzero polynomials. Then p divides one of the factors.

Theorem 1.7.2 The factorization of a polynomial in $K[x]$ into irreducible factors is essentially unique.

Proposition 1.7.10 Let $p \in K[x]$ and $a \in K$. Then there is a polynomial q such that $p(x) = q(x)(x - a) + p(a)$. Consequently, $p(a) = 0$ if and only if $(x - a)|p$.

Definition 1.7.5 (Root) An element $\alpha \in K$ is a **root** of a polynomial $p \in K[x]$ if $p(\alpha) = 0$. The **multiplication of the root** α is k if $x - \alpha$ appears exactly k times in the irreducible pfactorization of p .

Corollary 1.7.1 A polynomial $p \in K[x]$ of degree n has at most n roots in K , counting with multiplicities.

1.8 Counting

Proposition 1.8.1 A set with n elements has 2^n subsets.

Proof:

$$N = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} = 2^n$$

Proposition 1.8.2 *Let n be a natural number and let k be an integer in $[0, n]$. Let $\binom{n}{k}$ denote the number of the number of k -element subsets of a set with n elements. Then*

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \quad (19)$$

If $k < 0$ or $k > n$,

$$\binom{n}{k} = 0 \quad (20)$$

and,

$$\binom{0}{0} = 1 \quad (21)$$

$$\binom{0}{k} = 0 \quad (22)$$

if $k \neq 0$

Lemma 1.8.1 *Let n be a natural number and $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.*

1. $\binom{n}{k}$ is a nonnegative integer.
2. $\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k}$.
3. $\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k} + \binom{n-1}{k-1}$

Proposition 1.8.3 (Binomial Theorem) *Let x and y be numbers. For $n \geq 0$, we have*

$$(x+y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k} \quad (23)$$

Corollary 1.8.1 *Basic Properties:*

1.

$$2^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \quad (24)$$

2.

$$0 = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} \quad (25)$$

3.

$$2^{n-1} = \sum_{k=0, k \text{ odd}}^n \binom{n}{k} = \sum_{k=0, k \text{ even}}^n \binom{n}{k} \quad (26)$$

Lemma 1.8.2 *Let p be a prime number.*

1. *If $0 < k < p$, then $\binom{p}{k}$ is divisible by p .*
2. *$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, (a+b)^p \equiv a^p + b^p \pmod{p}$.*

Proposition 1.8.4 .

1. *Let $n \geq 2$ be a natural number. An element $[a] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ has a multiplicative inverse if and only if a is relatively prime to n .*
2. *If p is a prime, then every nonzero element of \mathbb{Z}_p is invertible.*

Proposition 1.8.5 (Fermat's Little Theorem) *Let p be a prime number.*

1. *$\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$.*
2. *If $p \nmid a, a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.*

Definition 1.8.1 (Characteristic Function of X) *Let U be any set, for a subset $X \subseteq U$, the **characteristic function** of X is the function $\mathbf{1}_X : U \rightarrow 0, 1$ defined by*

$$\mathbf{1}_X(u) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } u \in X \\ 0 & \text{if } u \notin X \end{cases} \quad (27)$$

Denotation Denote The relative copplement of a subset $X \subseteq U$ by X' .

Proposition 1.8.6 Let $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n \subseteq U$, then

1.

$$\mathbf{1}_{A'_1 \cap A'_2 \cap \dots \cap A'_n} = 1 - \sum_i \mathbf{1}_{A_i} + \sum_{i < j} \mathbf{1}_{A_i \cap A_j} - \sum_{i < j < k} \mathbf{1}_{A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k} + \dots + (-1)^n \mathbf{1}_{A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n} \quad (28)$$

2.

$$\mathbf{1}_{A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n} = \sum_i \mathbf{1}_{A_i} - \sum_{i < j} \mathbf{1}_{A_i \cap A_j} + \sum_{i < j < k} \mathbf{1}_{A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k} - \dots + (-1)^n \mathbf{1}_{A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n} \quad (29)$$

Corollary 1.8.2 Suppose that U is a finite set and that A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are subsets of U . Then

1.

$$|A'_1 \cap A'_2 \cap \dots \cap A'_n| = |U| - \sum_i |A_i| + \sum_{i < j} |A_i \cap A_j| - \sum_{i < j < k} |A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k| + \dots + (-1)^n |A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n| \quad (30)$$

2.

$$|A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n| = \sum_i |A_i| - \sum_{i < j} |A_i \cap A_j| + \sum_{i < j < k} |A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k| - \dots + (-1)^n |A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n| \quad (31)$$

Definition 1.8.2 (Cardinality) For each natural number n , $\varphi(n)$ is defined to be the cardinality of the set of natural numbers $k < n$ such that k is relatively prime to n .

Lemma 1.8.3 Let $k, n \in \mathbb{N}$, with $k|n$. The number of natural numbers $j \leq n$ such that $k|j$ is n/k .

Corollary 1.8.3 If p is a prime, then $\forall k \geq 1$, $\varphi(p^k) = p^{k-1}(p-1)$.

Proposition 1.8.7 *Let n be a natural number with prime factorization $n = p_1^{k_1} \dots p_s^{k_s}$. Then,*

1.

$$\varphi(n) = n \prod_{i=1}^s \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right) \quad (32)$$

2.

$$\varphi(n) = \prod_{i=1}^s \varphi(p_i^{k_i}) \quad (33)$$

Corollary 1.8.4 *If m, n are relatively prime, then $\varphi(mn) = \varphi(m)\varphi(n)$.*

Theorem 1.8.1 (Euler's Theorem) *Fix a natural number n . If $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ is relatively prime to n , then*

$$a^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}. \quad (34)$$

1.9 Groups

Operation An *operation* or a *product* on a set G is a function from $G \times G$ to G .

Definition 1.9.1 (Group) A **group** is a nonempty set G with a product, denoted by juxtaposition, satisfying:

1. *Associativity:* The product is associative: $\forall a, b, c \in G, (ab)c = a(bc)$.
2. *Identity element:* There is an identity element $e \in G, a \in G, ea = ae = a$.
3. *Inverse element:* For each $a \in G$, there is $a^{-1} \in G, aa^{-1} = a^{-1}a = e$.
4. *Closure:* For any $a, b \in G, ab \in G$.

Isomorphic Groups G and H is said to be **isomorphic** if there is a biject map $\varphi : H \rightarrow G$ between them that makes the multiplication table match up, namely, $\forall g_1, g_2 \in G, \varphi(g_1g_2) = \varphi(g_1)\varphi(g_2)$.⁴

⁴Denote as $H \cong G$

Subgroup If $G \subseteq H$, G is said to be the **subgroup** of H .

Homomorphism A map $f : H \rightarrow G$ is said to be **homomorphism** if f take products to products, identity to identity, and inverses to inverses, $f(a \cdot b) = f(a) \cdot f(b)$.

Lemma 1.9.1 *The set $\Phi(n)$ of elements in \mathbb{Z}_n possessing a multiplicative inverse forms a group (of cardinality $\varphi(n)$) under multiplication, with identity element $[1]$.*

1.10 Rings and Fields

Definition 1.10.1 A **ring** is a nonempty set R with two operations: addition, denoted by $+$ and multiplication, denoted by juxtaposition that satisfy:

1. Under addition, R is an **Abelian group**.⁵
2. Multiplication is associative.
3. Multiplication distributes over addition. $\forall a, b, c \in R, a(b + c) = ab + ac$ and $(b + c)a = ba + ca$ ⁶

Subring If $G \subseteq H$, G is said to be the **subring** of H .

Proposition 1.10.1 (Chinese Remainder Theorem) *Let a and b be relatively prime natural numbers, each then there is an isomorphism of rings*

$$\mathbb{Z}_{ab} \cong \mathbb{Z}_a \oplus \mathbb{Z}_b \quad (35)$$

defined by $[x]_{ab} \mapsto ([x]_a, [x]_b)$.

Definition 1.10.2 A **field** is a commutative ring with multiplicative identity element $1 \neq 0$ which every nonzero element is a unit.⁷

⁵Abelian group is a group that holds communitative law; For $a, b \in R$, $ab = ba$.

⁶If multiplication is commutative, the ring is called a **commutative ring**.

⁷Unit in ring means the multiplicatively invertible elements

1.11 An application to cryptology

Lemma 1.11.1 *For all integers a and h , if $h \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$, then $a^h \equiv a \pmod{n}$.*

Lemma 1.11.2 $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}$, if $b \equiv a^r \pmod{n}$, then $b^s \equiv a \pmod{n}$.

2 Basic Theory of Groups

2.1 First Results

Proposition 2.1.1 (Uniqueness of the identity) *Let G be a group and suppose e and e' are both identity elements in G , then $e = e'$.*

Proposition 2.1.2 (Uniqueness of the inverse) *Let G be a group and $h, g \in G$. If $hg = e$, then $h = g^{-1}$, and if $gh = e$, then $h = g^{-1}$.*

Corollary 2.1.1 *Let $g \in G$, then $g = (g^{-1})^{-1}$.*

Proposition 2.1.3 *Let G be a group and $a, b \in G$. Then $(ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1}$.*

Proposition 2.1.4 *Let G be a group and $a \in G$, The map $L_a : G \rightarrow G$ defined by $L_a(x) = ax$ is a bijection. Similarly $R_a(x) = xa$ is a bijection.*

Corollary 2.1.2 *Let G be a group and $a, b \in G$. The equation $ax = b$ has a unique solution x in G , and likewise the equation $xa = b$ has a unique solution in G .*

Corollary 2.1.3 (Cancellation) *Suppose $a, x, y \in G$. If $ax = ay$, then $x = y$. If $xa = ya$, then $x = y$.*

Corollary 2.1.4 *If G is a finite group, each row and each column of the multiplication table of G contains each element of G exactly once.*

Definition 2.1.1 (Order) *The **order** of a group is its size or cardinality, denote by $|G|$.*

Definition 2.1.2 (Isomorphic) *We say that two groups G and H are **isomorphic** if there is a bijection $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ such that for all $g_1, g_2 \in G$, $\varphi(g_1g_2) = \varphi(g_1)\varphi(g_2)$. The map is called an **isomorphism**.*

Definition 2.1.3 (Abelian) A group G is called **abelian (or commutative)** if for all elements $a, b \in G$, the products in the two orders are equal: $ab = ba$.

Proposition 2.1.5 *Properties of isomorphism:*

1. Up to isomorphism, \mathbb{Z}_1 is the unique group of order 1.
2. Up to isomorphism, \mathbb{Z}_2 is the unique group of order 2.
3. Up to isomorphism, \mathbb{Z}_3 is the unique group of order 3.
4. Up to isomorphism, there are exactly two groups of order 4, namely \mathbb{Z}_4 , and the group of rotational symmetries of the rectangular card.
5. Up to isomorphism, \mathbb{Z}_5 is the unique group of order 5.
6. All groups of order no more than 5 are abelian.
7. There are at least two nonisomorphic groups of order 6, one abelian and one nonabelian.

Proposition 2.1.6 (General associative law) Let M be a set with an associative operation, $M \times M \rightarrow M$, denoted by juxtaposition. For every $n \geq 1$, there is a unique product $M^n \rightarrow M$,

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \mapsto a_1 a_2 \dots a_n,$$

such that

1. The product of one element is that element (a) = a .
2. The product of two elements agrees with the given operation (ab) = ab
3. $a_1 a_2 \dots a_n = (a_1 \dots a_k)(a_{k+1} \dots a_n)$.

2.2 Subgroup and Cyclic Groups

Definition 2.2.1 (Subgroup) A nonempty subset H of a group G is called a subgroup if H is itself a group with the group operation inherited from G . We write $H \leq G$ to indicate that H is a subgroup of G .

Proposition 2.2.1 *Let G be a group and let H_1, H_2, \dots, H_n be subgroups of G . Then $H_1 \cap H_2 \cap \dots \cap H_n$ is a subgroup of G . More generally, if $\{H_\alpha\}$ is any collection of subgroups, then $\cap_\alpha H_\alpha$ is a subgroup.*

Proposition 2.2.2 *Let a be an element of a group G . The subgroup $\langle a \rangle$ generated by a is $\{a^k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ ⁸*

Definition 2.2.2 (Cyclic Group) *Let a be an element of a group G . The set $\langle a \rangle = \{a^k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ of powers of a is called the cyclic subgroup generated by a . If there is an element $a \in G$ such that $\langle a \rangle = G$, we say that G is a cyclic group. We say that a is a generator of the cyclic group.*

Definition 2.2.3 (Order) *The order of the cyclic subgroup generated by a is called the order of a . We denote the order of a by $o(a)$.*

Proposition 2.2.3 *If G is a cyclic group and $g \in G$, $o(g) = |G|/g.c.d(g, |G|)$*

Proof In \mathbb{Z}_n , $g \in \mathbb{Z}_n$, $kg \equiv 0 \pmod n \Leftrightarrow kg = ln = \text{lcm}(g, n)$.

Since $g.c.d(g, n) \cdot l.c.m(g, n) = gn$, $o(g) = n = |G|/g.c.d(g, |G|)$. ■

Proposition 2.2.4 *If the order of a is finite, then it is the least positive integer n such that $a^n = e$. Furthermore, $\langle a \rangle = \{a^k : 0 \leq k < o(a)\}$.*

Proposition 2.2.5 *Let H be a subgroup of \mathbb{Z} . Then either $H = 0$, or there is a unique $d \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $H = \langle d \rangle = d\mathbb{Z}$.*

Proposition 2.2.6 *If $d \in \mathbb{N}$, then $d\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}$.*

Proposition 2.2.7 *If $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$, then $a\mathbb{Z} \subseteq b\mathbb{Z}$ if and only if $b|a$.*

Corollary 2.2.1 *Every subgroup of \mathbb{Z} other than 0 is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z} .*

Lemma 2.2.1 *Let $n \geq 2$ and let d be a positive divisor of n . The cyclic subgroup $\langle [d] \rangle$ generated by $[d]$ in \mathbb{Z}_n has cardinality $|\langle [d] \rangle| = n/d$*

Proposition 2.2.8 *Let H be a subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_n .*

1. *Either $H = [0]$, or there is a $d > 0$ such that $H = \langle [d] \rangle$.*

⁸For any group G and any subset $S \subseteq G$, there is a smallest subgroup of G that contains S , which is called the subgroup generated by S .

2. If d is the smallest of positive integers s such that $H = \langle [s] \rangle$, then $d|H| = n$.

Corollary 2.2.2 Fix a natural number $n \geq 2$.

1. Any subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_n is cyclic.
2. Any subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_n has cardinality dividing n .

Corollary 2.2.3 Fix a natural number $n \geq 2$.

1. For any positive divisor q of n , there is a unique subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_n of cardinality q , namely $\langle [n/q] \rangle$.
2. For any two subgroups H and H' of \mathbb{Z}_n , we have $H \subseteq H' \Leftrightarrow |H|$ divides $|H'|$.

Proposition 2.2.9 Every subgroup of a cyclic group is cyclic.

Proposition 2.2.10 Let a be an element of finite order n in a group. Then $\langle a^k \rangle = \langle a \rangle$, if and only if k is relatively prime to n . The number of generators of $\langle a \rangle$ is $\varphi(n)$.

Proposition 2.2.11 Let a be an element of finite order n in a group. For each positive integer q dividing n , $\langle a \rangle$ has a unique subgroup of order q .

Proposition 2.2.12 Let a be an element of finite order n in a group. For each nonzero integer s , a has order $n = \text{g.c.d.}(n, s)$.

2.3 The Dihedral Groups

Definition 2.3.1 (Dihedral Group) Group consists of n rotational symmetries and n reflection symmetries is a **dihedral group**, denoted by D_n .

Proposition 2.3.1 $D_n = \langle r, a \mid r^n = e, a^2 = e, ra = ar^{-1} \rangle$

Properties:

1. $jr_t = r_{-t}j$ and $j_t = r_{2t}j = jr_{-2t}$.
2. All products in D can be computed using these relations.
3. The symmetry group D of the disk consists of the rotations r_t for $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and the flips $j_t = r_{2t}j$. Writing $N = \{r_t : t \in \mathbb{R}\}$, we have $D = N \cup Nj$.
4. The subgroup N of D satisfies $aNa^{-1} = N$ for all $a \in D$.

2.4 Homomorphisms and Isomorphisms

Definition 2.4.1 (Homomorphism) A map between groups $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ is called a **homomorphism** if it preserves group multiplication, $\varphi(g_1g_2) = \varphi(g_1)\varphi(g_2)$ for all $g_1, g_2 \in G$. And An endomorphism of G is a homomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow G$.

Proposition 2.4.1 If $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ and $\psi : H \rightarrow K$ are both group hom, then $\varphi \circ \psi : H \rightarrow K$ is a group hom.

Proposition 2.4.2 If $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ be a homomorphism of groups.

- $\varphi(e_G) = e_H$
- $\forall g \in G, \varphi(g^{-1}) = (\varphi(g))^{-1}$

Proposition 2.4.3 Let $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ be a homomorphism of groups.

1. For each subgroup $A \subseteq G$, $\varphi(A) \subseteq H$. (Image of A)
2. For each subgroup $B \subseteq H$,

$$\varphi^{-1}(B) = \{g \in G : \varphi(g) \in B\}$$

is a subgroup of G . (Inverse image of B)

2.4.1 The Kernel of a Homomorphism

Definition 2.4.2 (Normal) A subgroup N of a group G is said to be **normal** if $\forall g \in G, gNg^{-1} = N$. Here gNg^{-1} means $gng^{-1} : n \in N$.⁹¹⁰

Corollary 2.4.1

$$A_n \trianglelefteq S_n$$

Proposition 2.4.4 If a subgroup N of a group G is its **normal subgroup**, then $\forall g \in G, gN = Ng$.

Proposition 2.4.5 Any subgroup of Abelian group is normal.

Definition 2.4.3 (Kernel) Let $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ be a homomorphism of groups. The **kernel** of the homomorphism φ , denoted $\ker(\varphi)$, is $\varphi^{-1}(e_H) = \{g \in G : \varphi(g) = e_H\}$.¹¹

⁹ gng^{-1} is called conjugate if n by g

¹⁰Denote as $N \trianglelefteq G$

¹¹ e_H is the identity of group H .

e.g.1 $\varphi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2$,

$$\ker(\varphi) = \{a \in \mathbb{Z} \mid [a] = [0]\}$$

e.g.2 $\det : GL(\alpha, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^*$

$$\ker(\det) = SL(\alpha, \mathbb{R})$$

Proposition 2.4.6 *A homomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ is injective if and only if $\ker(\varphi) = e_G$.*

Proposition 2.4.7 *Let $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ be a homomorphism of groups. Then $\ker(\varphi)$ is a normal subgroup of G .*

2.4.2 Parity of Permutations

Definition 2.4.4 (Sign, Parity) *The homomorphism ϵ is called the **sign** (or **parity**) homomorphism. A permutation π is said to be even if $\epsilon(\pi) = 1$, that is, if π is in the kernel of the sign homomorphism. Otherwise, π is said to be odd. The subgroup of even permutations (that is, the kernel of ϵ) is generally denoted A_n . This subgroup is also referred to as the alternating group.¹²*

Proposition 2.4.8 *A permutation π is even if and only if π can be written as a product of an even number of 2-cycles.*

Corollary 2.4.2 *The set of odd permutations in S_n is $(12)A_n$, where A_n denotes the subgroup of even permutations.*

Corollary 2.4.3 *A k -cycle is even if k is odd and odd if k is even.*

2.5 Cosets and Lagranges Theorem

Definition 2.5.1 (Coset) *Let H be subgroup of a group G . A subset of the form gH , where $g \in G$, is called a left coset of H in G . A subset of the form Hg , where $g \in G$, is called a right coset of H in G .*

¹² $(a_1 a_2 \cdots a_{l-1} a_l) = \prod_{i=0}^{l-2} (a_1 a_{l-i})$

2.5.1 Properties of Cosets

Proposition 2.5.1 *Let H be a subgroup of a group G , and let a and b be elements of G . The following conditions are equivalent:*

1. $a \in bH$.
2. $b \in aH$
3. $aH = bH$.
4. $b^{-1}a \in H$.
5. $a^{-1}b \in H$.

Proposition 2.5.2 *Let H be a subgroup of a group G .*

1. *Let a and b be elements of G . Either $aH = bH$ or $aH \cap bH = \emptyset$.*
2. *Each left coset aH is nonempty and the union of left cosets is G .*
3. *All cosets have the same size.*¹³

Theorem 2.5.1 (Lagrange's Theorem) *Let G be a finite group and H a subgroup. Then $|H|$ divides $|G|$ and $\frac{|G|}{|H|}$ is the number of left cosets of H in G .*

Definition 2.5.2 (Index) *For a subgroup H of a group G , the index of H in G is the number of left cosets of H in G . The index is denoted $[G : H]$.*

Corollary 2.5.1 *Let p be a prime number and suppose G is a group of order p . Then:*

1. *G has no subgroups other than G and e .*
2. *G is cyclic, and in fact, for any nonidentity element $a \in G$, $G = \langle a \rangle$.*
3. *Every homomorphism from G into another group is either trivial (i.e., every element of G is sent to the identity) or injective.*

Corollary 2.5.2 *Let G be any finite group, and let $a \in G$. Then the order $o(a)$ divides the order of G .*

¹³Coset is a partition of G

Proposition 2.5.3 Suppose $K \subseteq H \subseteq G$ are subgroups, then

$$[G : K] = [G : H][H : K].$$

Definition 2.5.3 (Center) For any group G , the **center** $Z(G)$ of G is the set of elements that commute with all elements of G ,

$$Z(G) = \{a \in G : ag = ga, \forall g \in G\}$$

2.6 Equivalence Relations and Set Partitions

Definition 2.6.1 (Equivalence) An equivalence relation \sim on a set X is a binary relation with the properties:

1. Reflexivity: For each $x \in X$, $x \sim x$.
2. Symmetry: For $x, y \in X$, $x \sim y \Leftrightarrow y \sim x$.
3. Transitivity: For $x, y, z \in X$, if $x \sim y$ and $y \sim z$, then $x \sim z$.

Definition 2.6.2 (Partition) A **partition** of a set X is a collection of mutually disjoint nonempty subsets whose union is X .

Definition 2.6.3 (Equivalence class) If \sim is an equivalence relation on X , then for each $x \in X$, the **equivalence class** of x is the set

$$[x] = \{y \in X : x \sim y\}$$

Proposition 2.6.1 Let \sim be an equivalence relation on X . For $x, y \in X$, $x \sim y$ if, and only if $[x] = [y]$.

Corollary 2.6.1 Let \sim be an equivalence relation on X . Either $[x] \cap [y] = \emptyset$ or $[x] = [y]$.

Proposition 2.6.2 Let X be any set. There is a one to one correspondence between equivalence relations on X and set partitions of X .

2.6.1 Equivalence Relations and Surjective Maps

Proposition 2.6.3 *Let \sim be an equivalence relation on X . Then there exists a set Y and a surjective map $\pi : X \rightarrow Y$ such that \sim is equal to the equivalence relation \sim_π .*

Definition 2.6.4 (Similar) *Two surjective maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $f' : X \rightarrow Y'$ are similar if there exists a bijection $s : Y \rightarrow Y'$ such that $f' = s \circ f$.*

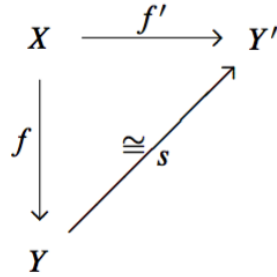


Figure 1: Similar two surjective maps

Proposition 2.6.4 *Two surjective maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $f' : X \rightarrow Y'$ determine the same equivalence relation on X if and only if f and f' are similar.*

Definition 2.6.5 (Canonical projection) *The set of left cosets of H in G is denoted G/H . The surjective map $\pi : G \rightarrow G/H$ defined by $\pi(a) = aH$ is called the **canonical projection** or **quotient map** of G onto G/H .*

Proposition 2.6.5 *The fibers of the canonical projection $\pi : G \rightarrow G/H$ are the left cosets of H in G . The equivalence relation \sim_π on G determined by π is the equivalence relation \sim_H .*

2.6.2 Conjugacy

Definition 2.6.6 (Conjugate) *Let a and b be elements of a group G . We say that b is conjugate to a if there is a $g \in G$ such that $b = gag^{-1}$.*

Definition 2.6.7 (Conjugacy classes) *The equivalence classes for conjugacy are called conjugacy classes.*

2.7 Quotient Groups and Homomorphism Theorems

Theorem 2.7.1 *Let N be a normal subgroup of a group G . The set of cosets G/N has a unique product that makes G/N a group and that makes the quotient map $\pi : G \rightarrow G/N$ a group homomorphism, $\ker(\pi) = N$.*

Proposition 2.7.1 *Let $a, b, c \in G$ and $N \trianglelefteq G$, we have:*

- *Closure:* $aNbN = abN$
- *Associativity:* $aN(bNcN) = aNbNcN$
- *Identity:* $aN(N) = (N)aN = aN$
- *Inverse:* $(a^{-1}N)(aN) = (aN)(a^{-1}N) = N$

2.7.1 Homomorphism Theorems

Theorem 2.7.2 (Homomorphism theorem) *Let $\varphi : G \rightarrow \bar{G}$ be a surjective homomorphism with kernel N . Let $\pi : G \rightarrow G/N$ be the quotient homomorphism. There is a group isomorphism $\tilde{\varphi} : G/N \rightarrow \bar{G}$ satisfying $\tilde{\varphi} \circ \pi = \varphi$.*

$$G/\ker(\phi) \cong \phi(G)$$

Theorem 2.7.3 (Correspondence Theorem) *Let $\varphi : G \rightarrow \bar{G}$ be a homomorphism of G and \bar{G} , and let N denote the kernel of φ .*

1. *The map $\bar{B} \mapsto \varphi^{-1}(\bar{B})$ is a bijection between subgroups of \bar{G} and subgroups of G containing N .*
2. *Under this bijection, normal subgroups of \bar{G} correspond to normal subgroups of G .*

Proposition 2.7.2 (Third Isomorphism Theorem) *Let $\varphi : G \rightarrow \bar{G}$ be a surjective homomorphism with kernel N . Let \bar{K} be a normal subgroup of \bar{G} and let $K = \varphi^{-1}(\bar{K})$. Then $G/K \cong \bar{G}/\bar{K}$. Equivalently, $G/K \cong (G/N)/(K/N)$.*

Theorem 2.7.4 (Factorization Theorem) *Let $\varphi : G \rightarrow \bar{G}$ be a surjective homomorphism of groups with kernel K . Let $N \subseteq K$ be a subgroup that is normal in G , and let $\pi : G \rightarrow G/N$ denote the quotient map. Then there is a surjective homomorphism $\tilde{\varphi} : G/N \rightarrow \bar{G}$ such that $\tilde{\varphi} \circ \pi = \varphi$. The kernel of $\tilde{\varphi}$ is $K/N \subseteq G/N$.*

Corollary 2.7.1 *Let $N \subseteq K \subseteq G$ be subgroups with both N and K normal in G . Then $xN \mapsto xK$ defines a homomorphism of G/N onto G/K with kernel K/N .*

Theorem 2.7.5 (Second Isomorphism Theorem(Diamond)) *Let $\varphi : G \rightarrow \bar{G}$ be a surjective homomorphism with kernel N . Let A be a subgroup of G . Then*

1. $\varphi^{-1}(\varphi(A)) = AN = \{an : a \in A \text{ and } n \in N\}$,
2. AN is a subgroup of G containing N .
3. $AN/N \cong \varphi(A) \cong A/(A \cap N)$.

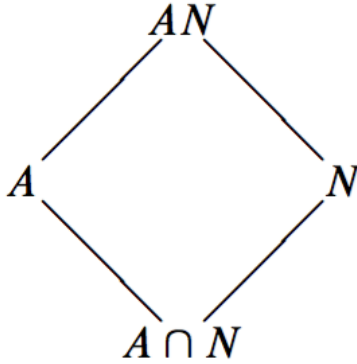


Figure 2: Diamond Isomorphism Theorem

Corollary 2.7.2

$$\gcd(m, n)\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \cong m\mathbb{Z}/\text{lcm}(m, n)\mathbb{Z}$$

Proposition 2.7.3 (Fourth Isomorphism Theorem(Lattice)) *Let $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ be a surjective group homomorphism, $N = \ker(\varphi)$ we have*

1. *There is a bijection*

$$\{\text{subgroups of } G \text{ containing } N\} \leftrightarrow \{\text{subgroups of } H \cong G/N\}$$

2. *Normalness is preserved by this bijection*

Proposition 2.7.4 *If $H \subseteq G$ and $|G|/|H| = 2$, $H \trianglelefteq G$.*

3 Products of Groups

3.1 Direct Products

Definition 3.1.1 (Direct Product) $A \times B$, with this group structure, is called the *direct product* of A and B .

Proposition 3.1.1 Properties:

1. Suppose M and N are normal subgroups of G , and $M \cap N = \{e\}$. Then for all $m \in M$ and $n \in N$, $mn = nm$.
2. $MN = \{mn : m \in M, n \in N\}$ is a subgroup and $(m, n) \mapsto mn$ is an isomorphism of $M \times N$ onto MN .
3. If $MN = G$, then $G \cong M \times N$.

Definition 3.1.2 (Direct Product) $A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n$, with the coordinate-by-coordinate multiplication, is called the **direct product** of A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n .

Proposition 3.1.2 Suppose N_1, N_2, \dots, N_r are normal subgroups of a group G such that for all i ,

$$N_i \cap (N_1 \cdots N_{i-1} N_{i+1} \cdots N_r) = e.$$

Then $N_1 N_2 \cdots N_r$ is a subgroup of G and $(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r) \mapsto n_1 n_2 \cdots n_r$ is a subgroup of $P = N_1 \times N_2 \times \cdots \times N_n$ onto $N_1 N_2 \cdots N_r$. In particular, if $N_1 N_2 \cdots N_r = G$, then $G \cong N_1 \times N_2 \times \cdots \times N_n$.

Corollary 3.1.1 Let N_1, N_2, \dots, N_r be normal subgroups of a group G such that $N_1 N_2 \cdots N_r = G$. Then G is the **internal direct product** of N_1, N_2, \dots, N_r if and only if whenever $x_i \in N_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq r$ and $x_1 x_2 \cdots x_r = e$, then $x_1 = x_2 = \cdots = x_r = e$.

Definition 3.1.3 (Direct Sum) The **direct sum** of several rings R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n is the Cartesian product $R_1 \times R_2 \times \cdots \times R_n$, endowed with the coordinate-by-coordinate operations

$$(r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n) + (r'_1, r'_2, \dots, r'_n) = (r_1 + r'_1, r_2 + r'_2, \dots, r_n + r'_n)$$

and

$$(r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n)(r'_1, r'_2, \dots, r'_n) = (r_1 r'_1, r_2 r'_2, \dots, r_n r'_n).$$

The direct sum of R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n is denoted $R_1 \oplus R_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus R_n$.

Proposition 3.1.3 *If $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\text{g.c.d.}(m, n) = 1$, then*

$$\mathbb{Z}_{mn} \cong \mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n.$$

Proposition 3.1.4 (Chinese Remainder Theorem) *Let $n \geq 2$ and let a_1, \dots, a_n be pairwise relatively prime natural numbers. Write $a = a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$. Then*

$$[x]_a \mapsto ([x]_{a_1}, [x]_{a_2}, \dots, [x]_{a_n})$$

defines a ring isomorphism

$$\mathbb{Z}_a \cong \mathbb{Z}_{a_1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{a_2} \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{a_n}.$$

Proposition 3.1.5 (Chinese Remainder Theorem) *Let $n \geq 2$ and let a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n be pairwise relatively prime natural numbers. Write $a = a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$. For any integers x_1, x_2, \dots, x_s , there exists an integer x such that*

$$x \equiv x_i \pmod{a_i}, \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq n.$$

Moreover, x is unique up to congruence mod a .

3.2 Semidirect Products

Definition 3.2.1 (Semidirect Product) *If we have groups N and A , and we have a homomorphism $\alpha : a \mapsto \alpha_a$ from A into the automorphism group $\text{Aut}(N)$ of N , we can build from these data a new group $N \rtimes_\alpha A$, called the **semidirect product** of A and N . The semidirect product $N \rtimes_\alpha A$ has the following features: It contains (isomorphic copies of) A and N as subgroups, with N normal; the intersection of these subgroups is the identity, and the product of these subgroups is $N \rtimes_\alpha A$; and we have the commutation relation $an = \alpha_a(n)a$ for $a \in A$ and $n \in N$.*

Proposition 3.2.1 *Let N and A be groups, and $\alpha : A \rightarrow \text{Aut}(N)$ a homomorphism of A into the automorphism group of N . The Cartesian product $N \times A$ is a group under the multiplication $(n, a)(n', a') = (n\alpha_a(n'), aa')$. This group is denoted $N \rtimes_\alpha A$. This group is denoted $N \rtimes_\alpha A$. $\tilde{N} = \{(n, e) : n \in N\}$ and $\tilde{A} = \{(e, a) : a \in A\}$ are subgroups of $N \rtimes_\alpha A$, with $\tilde{N} \cong N$ and $\tilde{A} \cong A$, and \tilde{N} is normal in $N \rtimes_\alpha A$. We have $(e, a)(n, e) = (\alpha_a(n), e) = (\alpha_a(n), a)$ for all $n \in N$ and $a \in A$.*

Corollary 3.2.1 *Suppose G is a group, N and A are subgroups with N normal, $G = NA = AN$, and $A \cap N = e$. Then there is a homomorphism $\alpha : A \rightarrow \text{Aut}(N)$ such that G is isomorphic to the semidirect product $N \rtimes_\alpha A$.*

3.3 Vector Spaces

Definition 3.3.1 (Vector Space) A **vector space** V over a field K is an abelian group with a product $K \times V \rightarrow V$, $(\alpha, v) \mapsto \alpha v$ satisfying the following conditions:

1. $\forall v \in V, 1v = v$.
2. $\forall \alpha, \beta \in K, v \in V, (\alpha\beta)v = \alpha(\beta v)$.
3. $\forall \alpha \in K, v, w \in V, \alpha(v + w) = \alpha v + \alpha w$.
4. $\forall \alpha, \beta \in K, v \in V, (\alpha + \beta)v = \alpha v + \beta v$.

Lemma 3.3.1 Let V be a vector space over the field K , then $\forall \alpha \in K, v \in V$,

1. $0v = \alpha 0 = 0$.
2. $\alpha(-v) = -(\alpha v) = (-\alpha)v$.
3. $(-1)v = -v$.
4. If $\alpha \neq 0$ and $v \neq 0$, then $\alpha v \neq 0$.

Definition 3.3.2 (Linear Transformation) Let V and W be vector spaces over K . A map $T : V \rightarrow W$ is called a **linear transformation** or **linear map** if $\forall x, y \in V, T(x + y) = T(x) + T(y)$ and $\forall \alpha \in K$ and $x \in V, T(\alpha x) = \alpha T(x)$. An endomorphism of a vector space V is a linear transformation $T : V \rightarrow V$.

Definition 3.3.3 (Subspace) A subspace of a vector space V is a (nonempty) subset that is a vector space with the operations inherited from V .

Proposition 3.3.1 For a nonempty subset of a vector space to be a subspace, it suffices that the subset be closed under addition and under scalar multiplication.

Proposition 3.3.2 Let $T : V \rightarrow W$ be a linear map between vector spaces. Then the range of T is a subspace of W and the kernel of T is a subspace of V .

3.3.1 Quotients and homomorphism theorems

Theorem 3.3.1 (Homomorphism theorem for vector spaces) *If W is subspace of a vector space V over K , then V/W has the structure of a vector space, and the quotient map $\pi : v \mapsto v + W$ is a surjective linear map from V to V/W with kernel equal to W .*

Proposition 3.3.3 (Correspondence theorem for vector spaces) *Let $T : V \rightarrow \bar{V}$ be a surjective linear map, with kernel N . Then $\bar{M} \mapsto T^{-1}(\bar{M})$ is a bijection between subspaces of V and subspaces of \bar{V} containing N .*

Proposition 3.3.4 *Let $T : V \rightarrow \bar{V}$ be a surjective linear transformation with kernel N . Let \bar{M} be a subspace of \bar{V} and let $M = T^{-1}(\bar{M})$. Then $x + M \mapsto T(x) + \bar{M}$ defines a linear isomorphism of V/M to \bar{V}/\bar{M} . Equivalently,*

$$(V/N)/(M/N) \cong V/M,$$

as vector spaces.

Proposition 3.3.5 (Factorization Theorem for Vector Spaces) *Let V and \bar{V} be vector spaces over a field K , and let $T : V \rightarrow \bar{V}$ be a surjective linear map with kernel M . Let $N \subseteq M$ be a vector subspace and let $\pi : V \rightarrow V/N$ denote the quotient map. Then there is a surjective homomorphism $\tilde{T} : V/N \rightarrow \bar{V}$ such that $\tilde{T} \circ \pi = T$. The kernel is $M/N \subseteq V/N$.*

Proposition 3.3.6 (Diamond Isomorphism Theory for Vector Spaces) *Let A and N be subgroups of a vector space V . Let π denote the quotient map $\pi : V \rightarrow V/N$. Then $\pi^{-1}(\pi(A)) = A + N$ is a subspace of V containing both A and N . Furthermore, $(A + N)/N \cong \pi(A) \cong A/(A \cap N)$.*

3.4 Finitely Generated Abelian Groups

Definition 3.4.1 *S generates G if $\mathbb{Z}S = G$.*

Definition 3.4.2 *G is **finitely generated** if there is a finite set $S \subseteq G$ so that $\mathbb{Z}S = G$.*

Definition 3.4.3 *G is **finitely generated** if there is $S \subseteq G$ that is finite and $\mathbb{Z}S = G$.*

Definition 3.4.4 If S generates G and is linearly independent, say S is a **basis** of G .

Definition 3.4.5 If G has a basis, then call G a free group.

Proposition 3.4.1 Let G be an abelian group and let x_1, \dots, x_n be distinct nonzero elements of G , the set $B = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ is a basis of G if and only if $G \cong \mathbb{Z}^n$.

Theorem 3.4.1 (Fundamental Theorem of Finitely Generated Abelian Groups)
Let G be a finitely generated abelian group.

1. G is a direct product of cyclic groups,

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{a_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{a_2} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{a_s} \times \mathbb{Z}^k$$

Definition 3.4.6 Let $g \in G$, if there is $n \neq 0$ so that $ng = 0$, call g a torsion element.

Proposition 3.4.2 If $x + G_{\text{tor}} \in G/G_{\text{tor}}$, $G/G_{\text{tor}} = 0 + G_{\text{tor}}$

4 Group Actions

Definition 4.0.1 An action of a group G on a set X , a group action is a map $G \times X \rightarrow X$, denote as $gx_1 = x_2$

- $(g_1g_2) \cdot x = g_1(g_2x)$
- $ex = x$
- $x(g_1g_2) = xg_1g_2$
- $xe = x$

Definition 4.0.2 Let G act on $X, x \in X$. The orbit of x denoted $G \cdot x$ or $\mathcal{O}(x)$, is the set $\{g \cdot x | g \in G\}$.

Definition 4.0.3 $x \sim y \Leftrightarrow y = g \cdot x$ for some $g \in G$. \sim is an equivalent relation.

Eg 1. G acts on itself by left multiplication: $g \cdot a = ga$.

Definition 4.0.4 If $G \curvearrowright X$ is one orbit, the action is called transitive.

Eg 2. $G \curvearrowright G/H$ by left translation $g \cdot (aH) = (ga)H$

Eg 3.1. $H \subseteq G$. H acts on G by right multiplication $g \cdot h = gh$ with orbits are left cosets.

Eg 3.2. H can also act on the left, with orbits to be the right cosets.

Eg 4. G acts on itself by conjugation. $g \cdot a = gag^{-1}$ with orbits to be conjugacy classes.

Definition 4.0.5 (Stablizer) Let G acts on X . The stablizer $Stab_G(X) = \{g \in G | gx = x\}$.

Proposition 4.0.1 $Stab_G(X) \subseteq G$

Theorem 4.0.1 Let G acts on X , $x \in X$. There is a natural bijection $\phi : G/Stab_G(x) \rightarrow G \cdot x$

Theorem 4.0.2 (Orbit-Stablizer Theorem)

$$|\mathcal{O}(x)| = \frac{|G|}{|Stab(x)|}$$

Definition 4.0.6 (Normalizer) Consider the action of a group G on its subgroups by conjugation. The stabilizer of a subgroup H is called the normalizer of H in G and denoted $N_G(H)$.

Definition 4.0.7 (Centralizer) Consider the action of a group G on its subgroups by conjugation. The stabilizer of an element $g \in G$ is called the centralizer of g in G and denoted $Cent_G(g)$.

4.1 Group Actions and counting

Definition 4.1.1 For $g \in G$, let $\text{Fix}(g) = \{x \in X : gx = xg\}$

Proposition 4.1.1 Let a finite group G act on a finite set X . Then the number of orbits of the action is

$$\# \text{ of orbits} = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} |\text{Fix}(g)|$$

4.2 Group Automorphisms

Definition 4.2.1 If G is a group, then automorphism $\text{Aut}(G) = \{\varphi : G \rightarrow G \mid \varphi \text{ is isomorphism}\}$.

Definition 4.2.2 $\text{Int}(G) = \{c_g \mid g \in G\}$ for each $g \in G, c_g : G \rightarrow G$ and $c_g(x) = gxg^{-1}$.

Proposition 4.2.1 $\text{Int}(G) \subseteq \text{Aut}(G)$

Proposition 4.2.2 If G is abelian, then $\text{Int}(G) = \{1\}$

Proposition 4.2.3 $\text{Int}(G) \cong G/Z(G)$

Proposition 4.2.4 $\text{Int}(G) \trianglelefteq \text{Aut}(G)$

Proposition 4.2.5 $\text{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$. If p is a prime, $\text{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}_p) = \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}$

4.3 Sylow Theorem

Proposition 4.3.1 Suppose p is a prime, $|G| = p^n$. Then $Z(G)$ contains nonidentity elements.

Corollary 4.3.1 Suppose p is prime and $|G| = p^2$, then $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p^2}$ or $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_p$.

Definition 4.3.1 $|G| = p^n$, then there is a normal subgroup $N \trianglelefteq G, \{e\} \subsetneq N \subsetneq G$, such that all subgroups of N are normal.

Corollary 4.3.2 $|G| = p^n$, p is prime, then there exists subgroups $\{e\} = G_0 \subseteq G_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq G_n = G$ such that $|G_k| = p^k$ and each $G_k \trianglelefteq G$.

Theorem 4.3.1 (Cauchy's Theorem) Suppose p is prime and $p \mid |G|$, then G has an element of order p .

Definition 4.3.2 G is a finite group, p is prime. If p^n is the largest power of p dividing $|G|$ then a subgroup of size p^n is a **p -Sylow subgroup** of G .

Theorem 4.3.2 (1st Sylow Theorem) If $p^n \mid |G|$ then G has a subgroup of size p^n .

Theorem 4.3.3 (2nd Sylow Theorem) Let P, Q be 2 p -Sylow subgroups. Then P and Q are conjugate subgroups. ($g \in G, gPg^{-1} = Q$)

Corollary 4.3.3 There is exactly 1 p -Sylow subgroup if and only if the subgroup is normal.

Theorem 4.3.4 (3rd Sylow Theorem) If p^n is the order of a p -Sylow subgroup of G , the number of p -Sylow subgroups of G satisfies

- $\# \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
- $\#$ divides $\frac{|G|}{p^n}$

5 Ring

5.1 Basics

Definition 5.1.1 (Ring) A **ring** with two operations $+, \cdot$, if

1. $R, +$ is an abelian group with identity: 0 and inverses $-a$,
2. R, \cdot is closed and associative
3. $R, +, \cdot$ is distributive.

5.2 Homomorphism and Ideal

Definition 5.2.1 (Ring homomorphism) A **ring homomorphism** $\varphi : R \rightarrow S$ is a map which preserves addition and multiplication.

Let $a, b \in R$, we have:

1. $\varphi(a + b) = \varphi(a) + \varphi(b)$

2. $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b)$

φ is an **isomorphism** if it is also bijection.

Definition 5.2.2 An element of a ring with multiplicative inverse is called a **unit**.

Definition 5.2.3 A left(right) **ideal** of a ring R , is a subset $I \subseteq R$ that

1. $I \subseteq R$

2. If $r \in R$, $a \in I$, then $ra \in I$ ($ar \in I$)

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Proposition 5.2.1 If $\varphi : R \rightarrow S$ is a ring homomorphism, then $\text{Ker}(\varphi)$ is a (left and right) ideal of R .

Proposition 5.2.2 If an ideal contains a unit, then it contains the whole ring.

Proposition 5.2.3 If a ring is a field, then its ideal is either $\{0\}$ or the whole ring.

Proposition 5.2.4 • If $\{I_\alpha\}$ is ideals of R , then $\bigcap I_\alpha$ is an ideal.

• If $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \cdots$ are ideals of R , then $\bigcup I_i$ is an ideal.

5.2.1 Ideals generated by sets

Definition 5.2.4 Let $S \subseteq R$ and $S \neq \emptyset$, then the **ideal generated by S** ((S)), the smallest ideal of R containing S .

If $S = \{a\}$, $(S) = (a)$ is called a **Principal ideal**.

¹⁴Check if $I \subseteq R$ is an ideal:

1. $I \neq \emptyset$

2. If $a, b \in I$, $ar - b \in I$

5.3 Quotient Ring

Proposition 5.3.1 *Let I is an ideal of R , $R/I = \{r + I | r \in R\}$ is a ring.*

Definition 5.3.1 *Say a is a zero-divisor, if $\exists b$ that $ab = 0$.*

5.3.1 Four Isomorphism Theorem for Ring

Theorem 5.3.1 (First) *If $\varphi : R \rightarrow S$ surjective ring hom with kernel I , then $R/I \cong S$.*

Ex. $ev_0 : \mathbb{Z}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow \mathbb{Z}[x]/(x) = \mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 5.3.2 (Second) *If I is an ideal of R and A is a subring, then $(A + I)/I \cong A/A \cap I$.*

Theorem 5.3.3 (Third) *If $J \subseteq I$ are ideals of R , then $(R/J)/(I/J) \cong R/I$.*

Theorem 5.3.4 (Fourth) *Let $I \subseteq R$ be an ideal, then there is one-to-one correspondence $\{\text{ideals of } R/I\} \leftrightarrow \{\text{ideals of } R \text{ containing } I\}$*

Definition 5.3.2 *An ideal M of R is **maximal** if whenever an ideal $M \subseteq I \subseteq R$ then $I = M$ or $I = R$.*

Ex. $2\mathbb{Z}$ is a maximal ideal of \mathbb{Z} .

Proposition 5.3.2 *Let R be commutative with multiplicative identity 1. Then M is a max ideal $\Leftrightarrow R/M$ is a field.*