# Advanced Modern Algebra

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### 1 Group I

#### 1.1 Permutations

**Definition 1.1.** A **permutation** of a set *X* is a bijection from *X* to itself.

**Definition 1.2.** The family of all the permutations of a set X, denoted by  $S_X$  is called the **symmetric group** on X. When  $X = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ ,  $S_X$  is usually denoted by  $X_n$  and is called the **symmetric group on** n **letters** 

**Definition 1.3.** Let  $i_1, i_2, \dots, i_r$  be distinct integers in  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . If  $\alpha \in S_n$  fixes the other integers and if

$$\alpha(i_1) = i_2, \alpha(i_2) = i_3, \dots, \alpha(i_{r-1}) = i_r, \alpha(i_r) = i_1$$

then  $\alpha$  is called an textbf{r-cycle}.  $\alpha$  is a cycle of **length** r and denoted by

$$\alpha = (i_1 \ i_2 \ \dots \ i_r)$$

2-cycles are also called the **transpositions**.

**Definition 1.4.** Two permutations  $\alpha, \beta \in S_n$  are **disjoint** if every i moved by one is fixed by the other.

**Lemma 1.5.** Disjoint permutations  $\alpha, \beta \in S_n$  commute

**Proposition 1.6.** Every permutation  $\alpha \in S_n$  is either a cycle or a product of disjoint cycles.

*Proof.* Induction on the number k of points moved by  $\alpha$ 

**Definition 1.7.** A **complete factorization** of a permutation  $\alpha$  is a factorization of  $\alpha$  into disjoint cycles that contains exactly one 1-cycle (i) for every i fixed by  $\alpha$ 

**Theorem 1.8.** Let  $\alpha \in S_n$  and let  $\alpha = \beta_1 \dots \beta_t$  be a complete factorization into disjoint cycles. This factorization is unique except for the order in which the cycles occur

*Proof.* for all 
$$i$$
, if  $\beta_t(i) \neq i$ , then  $\beta_t^k(i) \neq \beta_t^{k-1}(i)$  for any  $k \geq 1$ 

**Lemma 1.9.** If  $\gamma, \alpha \in S_n$ , then  $\alpha \gamma \alpha^{-1}$  has the same cycle structure as  $\gamma$ . In more detail, if the complete factorization of  $\gamma$  is

$$\gamma = \beta_1 \beta_2 \dots (i_1 \ i_2 \dots) \dots \beta_t$$

then  $\alpha\gamma\alpha^{-1}$  is permutation that is obtained from  $\gamma$  by applying  $\alpha$  to the symbols in the cycles of  $\gamma$ 

Example. Suppose

$$\beta = (1\ 2\ 3)(4)(5)$$
  
 $\gamma = (5\ 2\ 4)(1)(3)$ 

then we can easily find the  $\alpha$ 

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

**Theorem 1.10.** Permutations  $\gamma$  and  $\sigma$  in  $S_n$  has the same cycle structure if and only if there exists  $\alpha \in S_n$  with  $\sigma = \alpha \gamma \alpha^{-1}$ 

**Proposition 1.11.** If  $n \ge 2$  then every  $\alpha \in S_n$  is a product of transositions

*Proof.* 
$$(1\ 2\ \dots\ r) = (1\ r)(1\ r-1)\dots(1\ 2)$$

**Definition 1.12.** A permutation  $\alpha \in S_n$  is **even** if it can be factored into a product of an even number of transpositions. Otherwise **odd** 

**Definition 1.13.** If  $\alpha \in S_n$  and  $\alpha = \beta_1 \dots \beta_t$  is a complete factorization, then **signum**  $\alpha$  is defined by

$$\operatorname{sgn}(\alpha) = (-1)^{n-t}$$

**Theorem 1.14.** For all  $\alpha, \beta \in S_n$ 

$$\operatorname{sgn}(\alpha\beta) = \operatorname{sgn}(\alpha)\operatorname{sgn}(\beta)$$

**Theorem 1.15.** 1. Let  $\alpha \in S_n$ ; if  $sgn(\alpha) = 1$  then  $\alpha$  is even. otherwise odd

2. A permutation  $\alpha$  is odd if and only if it's a product of an odd number of transpositions

**Corollary 1.16.** Let  $\alpha, \beta \in S_n$ . If  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  have the same parity, then  $\alpha\beta$  is even while if  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  have distinct parity,  $\alpha\beta$  is odd

### 1.2 Groups

**Definition 1.17.** A binary operation on a set *G* is a function

$$*: G \times G \to G$$

**Definition 1.18.** A **group** is a set *G* equipped with a binary operation \* s.t.

- 1. the associative law holds
- 2. identity
- 3. every  $x \in G$  has an **inverse**, there is a  $x' \in G$  with x \* x' = e = x' \* x

**Definition 1.19.** A group G is called **abelian** if it satisfies the **commutative** law

**Lemma 1.20.** Let G be a group

- 1. The **cancellation laws** holds: if either x \* a = x \* b or a \* x = b \* x, then a = b
- 2. e is unique
- 3. Each  $x \in G$  has a unique inverse
- 4.  $(x^{-1})^{-1} = x$

**Definition 1.21.** An expression  $a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$  needs no parentheses if all the ultimate products it yields are equal

**Theorem 1.22** (Generalized Associativity). If G is a group and  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in G$  then the expression  $a_1 a_2 \ldots a_n$  needs no parentheses

**Definition 1.23.** Let G be a group and let  $a \in G$ . If  $a^k = 1$  for some k > 1 then the smallest such exponent  $k \ge 1$  is called the **order** or a; if no such power exists, then one says that a has **infinite order** 

**Proposition 1.24.** If *G* is a finite group, then every  $x \in G$  has finite order

**Definition 1.25.** A **motion** is a distance preserving bijection  $\varphi: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ . If  $\pi$  is a polygon in the plane, then its **symmetry group**  $\Sigma(\pi)$  consists of all the motions  $\varphi$  for which  $\varphi(\pi) = \pi$ . The elements of  $\Sigma(\pi)$  are called the **symmetries** of  $\pi$ 

Let  $\pi_4$  be a square. Then the group  $\Sigma(\pi_4)$  is called the **dihedral group** with 8 elements, denoted by  $D_8$ 

**Definition 1.26.** If  $\pi_n$  is a regular polygon with n vertices  $v_1, \ldots, v_n$  and center O, then the symmetry group  $\Sigma(\pi_n)$  is called the {dihedral group} with 2n elements, and it's denoted by  $D_{2n}$ 

### 1.3 Lagrange's theorem

**Definition 1.27.** A subset H of a group G is a **subgroup** if

- 1.  $1 \in H$
- 2. if  $x, y \in H$ , then  $xy \in H$
- 3. if  $x \in H$ , then  $x^{-1} \in H$

If H is a subgroup of G, we write  $H \leq G$ . If H is a proper subgroup, then we write H<G

**Proposition 1.28.** A subset H of a group G is a subgroup if and only if H is nonempty and whenever  $x, y \in H$ ,  $xy^{-1} \in H$ 

**Proposition 1.29.** A nonempty subset H of a finite group G is a subgroup if and only if H is closed; that is, if  $a, b \in H$ , then  $ab \in H$ 

**Definition 1.30.** If G is a group and  $a \in G$ 

$$\langle a \rangle = \{a^n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{\text{all powers of } a\}$$

 $\langle a \rangle$  is called the **cyclic subgroup** of G **generated** by a. A group G is called **cyclic** if there exists  $a \in G$  s.t.  $G = \langle a \rangle$ , in which case a is called the **generator** 

**Definition 1.31.** The **integers mod** m, denoted by  $\mathbb{I}_m$  is the family of all congruence classes mod m

**Proposition 1.32.** Let  $m \geq 2$  be a fixed integer

- 1. If  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then [a] = [r] for some r with  $0 \le r < m$
- 2. If  $0 \le r' < r < m$ , then  $[r'] \ne [r]$
- 3.  $\mathbb{I}_m$  has exactly m elements

**Theorem 1.33.** 1. If  $G = \langle a \rangle$  is a cyclic group of order n, then  $a^k$  is a generator of G if and only if (k, n) = 1

2. If G is a cyclic group of order n and  $gen(G) = \{all generators of <math>G\}$ , then

$$\big|\mathrm{gen}(G)\big|=\phi(n)$$

where  $\phi$  is the Euler  $\phi$ -function

*Proof.* 1. there is  $t \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t.  $a^{kt} = a$  hence  $a^{kt-1} = 1$  and  $n \mid kt-1$ 

**Proposition 1.34.** Let G be a finite group and let  $a \in G$ . Then the order of a is  $|\langle a \rangle|$ .

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**Definition 1.35.** If G is a finite group, then the number of elements in G, denoted by |G| is called the **order** of G

**Proposition 1.36.** The intersection  $\bigcap_{i \in I} H_i$  of any family of subgroups of a group G is again a subgroup of G

**Corollary 1.37.** If X is a subset of a group G, then there is a subgroup  $\langle X \rangle$  of G containing X tHhat is **smallest** in the sense that  $\langle X \rangle \leq H$  for of G that contains X every subgroup \$\$

**Definition 1.38.** If X is a subset of a group G, then  $\langle X \rangle$  is called the {subgroup generated by} X

A word on X is an element  $g \in G$  of the form  $g = x_1^{e_1} \dots x_n^{e_n}$  where  $x_i \in X$  and  $e_i = \pm$  for all i

**Proposition 1.39.** If X is a nonempty subset of a group G, then  $\langle X \rangle$  is the set of all words on X

**Definition 1.40.** If  $H \leq G$  and  $a \in G$ , then the **coset** aH is the subset aH of G, where

$$aH = \{ah : h \in H\}$$

aH left coset, Ha right coset

**Lemma 1.41.**  $H \leq G, a, b \in G$ 

- 1. aH = bH if and only if  $b^{-1}a \in H$
- 2. if  $aH \cap bH \neq \emptyset$ , then aH = bH
- 3. |aH| = |H| for all  $a \in G$

*Proof.* define a relation  $a \equiv b$  if  $b^{-1}a \in H$ 

**Theorem 1.42** (Lagrange's Theorem). If H is a subgroup of a finite group G, then |H| is a divisor of |G|

*Proof.* Let  $\{a_1H, a_2H, \dots, a_tH\}$  be the family of all the distinct cosets of H in G. Then

$$G = a_1 H \cup a_2 H \cup \cdots \cup a_t H$$

hence

$$|G| = |a_1H| + \dots + |a_tH|$$

But 
$$|a_iH| = |H|$$
 for all i. Hence  $|G| = t|H|$ 

**Definition 1.43.** The **index** of a subgroup H in G denoted by [G:H], is the number of left cosets of H in G

Note that |G| = [G:H]|H|

**Corollary 1.44.** If G is a finite group and  $a \in G$ , then the order of a is a divisor of |G|

**Corollary 1.45.** If *G* is a finite group, then  $a^{|G|} = 1$  for all  $a \in G$ 

**Corollary 1.46.** If p is a prime, then every group G of order p is cyclic

**Proposition 1.47.** The set  $U(\mathbb{I}_m)$ , defined by

$$U(\mathbb{I}_m) = \{ [r] \in \mathbb{I}_m : (r, m) = 1 \}$$

is a multiplicative group of order  $\varphi(m)$ . If p is a prime, then  $U(\mathbb{I}_m) = \mathbb{I}_m^{\times}$ .

**Corollary 1.48** (Fermat). If p is a prime and  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then

$$a^p \equiv a \mod p$$

*Proof.* suffices to show  $[a^p] = [a]$  in  $\mathbb{I}_p$ . If [a] = [0], then  $[a^p] = [a]^p = [0]$ . Else, since  $\left|\mathbb{I}_p^{\times}\right| = p$ ,  $[a]^{p-1} = [1]$ 

**Theorem 1.49** (Euler). If (r, m) = 1, then

$$r^{\phi(m)} \equiv 1 \mod m$$

**Theorem 1.50** (Wilson's Theorem). An integer p is a prime if and only if

$$(p-1)! \equiv -1 \mod p$$