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A group G acts on a set S:

$G \times S \rightarrow S$

$(g,s) \mapsto g \cdot s$

$e \cdot s = s$

$(gg') \cdot s = g \cdot (g' \cdot s)$

Alternatively,

$\phi : G \rightarrow Perm(S)$ is a homomorphism

$(\phi(g))(s) = g \cdot s$

Examples

trivial action: $(\forall g)\ g \mapsto e_{Perm(S)}$

G acting on self by left/right translation, conjugation

G acting on the set of subgroups of G by conjugation: $g \cdot H = gHg^{-1} = \{ghg^{-1} | h \in H\}$

normal subgroup $N \trianglelefteq G$: all $g \in G$ fix N under conjugation

V vector space over a field K, GL(V) acts on V by $L \cdot v = L(v)$

The orbit of s, $O(s) := \{g \cdot s | g \in G\}$

constitutes an equivalence relation on S

The stabilizer (isotropy group) of $s \in S$, $G_s := \{g \in G | g \cdot s = s\}$

G_s is closed under inverses: $g \in G_s \rightarrow g \cdot s = s \rightarrow g^{-1}gs = g^{-1}s \rightarrow s = g^{-1}s$

There exists a natural bijection $\alpha : G/G_s \rightarrow O(s), gG_s \mapsto g \cdot s$

well-defined: $g_1 G_s = g_2 G_s \rightarrow \exists g \in G_s, g_1 = g_2 g, \alpha(g_1 G_s) = g_1 s = g_2 g s = g_2 s = \alpha(g_2 G_s)$

injective: $\alpha(g_1 G_s) = g_1 \cdot s = g_2 \cdot s = \alpha(g_2 G_s) \rightarrow g_2^{-1} g_1 \cdot s = s, g_2^{-1} g_1 \in G_s,$ so $g_1 G_s = g_2 G_s$

Action under conjugation:

the conjugacy classes of a set are the orbits of the action

$O(g) = \{g\} \leftrightarrow g \in Z(G)$ the center of the group

in a permutation group, $\sigma(a_1, a_2, a_3, ... a_k)\sigma^{-1} = (\sigma a_1, \sigma a_2, \sigma a_3, ... \sigma a_k)$

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Let Σ be a set of representative elements of the orbits of S.

The index of a subgroup H is $(G : H) = \#(G/H)$

For finite G, $(G : H) = \frac{\#G}{\#H}$ ($g \notin H, \exists$ natural bijection $H \rightarrow gH$ (check text))

$\#S = \sum_{s \in \Sigma} \#O(s) = \sum_s (G : G_s)$

defines a 'mass formula' $\#S = (\sum_s \frac{1}{\#(G_s)})(\#G)$

Let G act on a subgroup H by left translation.

$\#H_s = \#H$ and from the above $\#G = (G : H) \cdot \#H$.

this is a statement of Lagrange's Theorem, $(G : H) = \frac{\#G}{\#H}$.

The kernel of the action $K = \bigcap_{s \in S} G_s$, which is just the kernel of $G \xrightarrow{\phi} Perm(S)$.
We can relate the stabilizers of points in the same orbit.

    Let $s' = gs$.

    Assume $x \in G_s$.

    Since $x \in G_s$, $(gxg^{-1})gs = g(xs) = gs$.

    Hence $gxg^{-1} \in G_{gs}$, so $gG_sg^{-1} \subset G_{gs}$.

    Apply this relation with $g \to g^{-1}$ and $s \to gs$:

    Assume $x \in G_{gs}$.

    Then $(g^{-1}xg)(s) = (g^{-1})(xgs) = (g^{-1}gs) = s$.

    So $g^{-1}G_{gs}g \subset G_s \to G_{gs} \subset gG_sg^{-1}$

Thus, $gG_sg^{-1} = G_{gs} = G_{s'}$.

    The stabilizer of $s' = gs$ is a conjugate of the stabilizer of s.

p : prime
p-group: a finite group G, $\#G = p^n, n \geq 1$

"A p-group has a non-trivial center"

    Recall: the center $Z(G) = Z = \{g \in G | gs = sg \forall s \in G\}$.

    Since $gs = sg \to s = gsg^{-1}$, will be useful to consider action on self by conjugation.

G a p-group, S a finite set. Then $\#O(s) = \frac{\#G}{\#G_s} = \frac{p^n}{p^k}$.

Two cases:

    1) $\#O(s) = 1$, s is fixed by G, $s \in S^G$ (set of fixed points of S)

    2) $(k < n)$, thus $\#O(s)$ is divisible by p.

$\#S = $ sum of # of elements in the orbits $\equiv_{mod p}$ # of orbits of size $1 = \#(S^G)$.

    Take S = G, with action $g : s \mapsto gsg^{-1}$. Then $S^G = Z(G)$.

    $\#Z(G) \equiv_{mod p} \#(S^G) \equiv_{mod p} \#S = \#G = p^n \equiv_{mod p} 0$.

    Thus, the order of the center is divisible by p, and must be non-trivial.

$H \leq G$ a finite group, $(G : H) = p$, the smallest prime dividing $\#G \to H \trianglelefteq G$

    Let $S = G/H$; $\#(S) = (G : H) = p$, and let G act on S by left translation.

    This induces $\varphi : G \to S_P$; recall $\#S_p = p!$

    The stabillizer of H, $G_H = \{x \in G | xH = H\} = H$.

    By inspection, we can see that $G_{gH} = gHg^{-1}$.

    Let $K = \bigcap_{g \in G} gHg^{-1}$, the largest normal subgroup contained in H.

    Note that $K = ker(\varphi)$ induced above; by the First Isomorphism Theorem $\varphi(G) \leq S_p$.

    $(G : K) = \#(G/K) = \#(\varphi(G))$, which divides $\#(S_p) = p!$

    Further, since $K \leq H \leq G$, $(G : K) = (G : H)(H : K)$.

    Since $(G : K)$ divides $p!$ and $(G : H)$ divides p, $(H : K)$ divides $(p - 1)!$.

    But p is the smallest prime dividing $\#G$, so $(H : K) = 1$, $K = H$ and H is normal.

A familiar embedding of a group into a larger group; "Cauchy's Theorem"

    $G \hookrightarrow Perm(G)$ by letting G act on itself by left-translation.

    Its kernel $K = \{g \in G | gs = s \forall s\} = \{e\}$ (consider $s = e$), hence is an injection.

Since an injection, an embedding.

Recall $S_n \subset$ group of $n \times n$ invertible matrices. $\sigma \mapsto M(\sigma)$ a permutation matrix.

    Need to be careful in the construction to ensure $M(\sigma\tau) = M(\sigma)M(\tau)$!

    E.g. $\sigma = (132)$ does $M(\sigma)$ have 1 in the 1st column, 3rd row?

    Or in the 1st row, 3rd column? One of these yields $M(\sigma\tau) = M(\tau)M(\sigma)$.

G finite of order n; V the vector space of functions $G \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{Z}$; note $V \cong \mathbb{Z}^n$

    Linear maps $V \to V$ correspond to $n \times n$ matrices over $\mathbb{Z}$: $GL(V) \approx GL(n,\mathbb{Z})$.

    Similarly, invertible linear maps correspond to $n \times n$ invertible matrices over $\mathbb{Z}$.

    We can embed G in $GL(n,\mathbb{Z})$ by using a left action of G on $GL(n,\mathbb{Z}) = \{\phi : V \to V\}$

    Recall that $V = \{f : G \to \mathbb{Z}\}$.

    This left action takes the form $L_g \mapsto \phi$ where $\phi(f(x)) = f(xg)$

    $L_{gg'} = L_{g'} \circ L_g$ as desired? Verify for yourself.

    Check this over.

    $L_{gg'}(\varphi(x)) = \varphi(xgg') = L_{g'}(\varphi(xg)) = L_{g'} \circ L_g(\varphi(x))$

    $g \mapsto L_g$ is a homomorphism $G \to GL(V)$

    Using $\mathbb{F}_p$ instead of $\mathbb{Z}$, get $G \hookrightarrow GL(n,\mathbb{F}_p)$, an embedding into a finite group.

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Sylow Theorems

Lagrange: If $H \leq G$ then $\#(H)|\#(G)$.

    A_4 with $n = 6$ gives the counterexample to the converse.

Salvaging the converse: the case where $n = p^k$, p prime.

(Sylow I): If $|G| = p^k \cdot r$, $(p,r) = 1$

    $\exists H \leq G$ such that $|H| = p^k$

    Such an H is called a p-Sylow subgroup of G

    Generally assuming $k \neq 0$

Example : $\mathbb{Z}_{12}$

    has 2-sylow subgroup $\{0,3,6,9\}$ and 3-sylow subgroup $\{0,4,8\}$

Example: D_6 generated by r, s subject to $rs = sr^{-1}$, $r^6 = e$, $s^2 = e$, has order 12

    $\#(D_6) = 12$ so has 3-sylow subgroup $\{1,r^2,r^4\}$

    Also has 2-sylow subgroups $\{1,r^3,s,r^3s\}$, $\{1,r^3,rs,r^4s\}$, $\{1,r^3,r^2s,r^5s\}$

Example: $G = GL_n(\mathbb{F}_p)$, $n \times n$ linear transformations in $\mathbb{F}_p$, equal to $Aut(\mathbb{F}_p^n)$

The order of $|G|$:

    Asserting linear independence in each vector of an $n \times n$ matrix

    $|G| = (p^n - 1)(p^n - p)(p^n - p^2) \cdots (p^n - p^{n-1}) = p^{1+2+3+\cdots+n-1} \cdot r = p^{\frac{n^2-n}{2}} \cdot r$

    $(p,r) = 1$

    Consider P the set of $n \times n$ upper triangular matrices with 1's on the diagonal.

    Then $|P| = p^{1+2+3+\cdots+n-1} = p^{\frac{n^2-n}{2}}$, and P is a p-Sylow subgroup.

Theorem: (Sylow I) p-Sylow subgroups always exist.

Proof Sketch:

    Suppose $|H| = p^k \cdot r$, $(p,r) = 1$, $k > 0$

Show $\exists G$, $H \leq G$, where G has a p-Sylow subgroup

Show that if G has a p-Sylow subgroup and $H \leq G$, then H has a p-Sylow subgroup

Proof:

By Cayley's theorem, if $|H| = n$, then $H \leq S_n$.

(H acts on itself by left translates. This yields an embedding into S_n.)

Additionally $S_n \leq GL_n(\mathbb{F}_p)$ mapping to permutation matrices.

Alternatively, consider $V \cong \mathbb{F}_p^n$, the vector space of functions $\varphi : G \to \mathbb{F}_p$.

Embed H into $GL(V)$ by this action: $g \in H \mapsto$ automorphism taking $\varphi(x)$ to $\varphi(xg)$.

(Recall end of previous lecture).

We know that $GL_n(\mathbb{F}_p)$ has p-Sylow subgroups. (from the lower triangular matrices)

Let $G = GL_n(\mathbb{F}_p)$.

Let P be a p-Sylow subgroup of G. Consider G acting on the set of cosets of P.

Now, $Stab(gP) = gPg^{-1}$. (guest lecturer notation for stabilizer)

Similarly, letting H act on G/P, $Stab(gP) = (gPg^{-1} \cap H)$

This intersection is a p-group.

Want to choose $g \in G$ such that $gPg^{-1} \cap H$ is a p-Sylow subgroup.

If $(H : (gPg^{-1} \cap H))$ is coprime to p, then $gPg^{-1} \cap H$ is a p-Sylow subgroup.

By Orbit-Stabilizer, $(H : (gPg^{-1} \cap H)) = O(gP)$.

Note this is an orbit of G/P induced by the action of the group H.

Since P is a p-Sylow subgroup of G, $|G/P| \not\equiv_{mod p} 0$.

The sum of the orbits is $|G/P|$.

Hence there must be some orbit with size coprime to p.

Corollary: All p-subgroups of H are contained in a conjugate of P.

Let $J \leq H$ be a p-subgroup. Then $J \cap gPg^{-1}$ is a p-Sylow subgroup of J for some $g \in G$.

So since J is a p-group $J \cap gPg^{-1} = J$, i.e. $J \subset gPg^{-1}$.

(since a p-group can't contain a proper p-Sylow subgroup by definition)

Corollary: (Sylow II) All p-Sylow groups are conjugate.

Proof:

Let $H \leq G$ and $P \leq G$ be p-Sylow subgroups.

By the preceding corollary, $H \subset gPg^{-1}$ for some $g \in G$.

Since $|H| = |P| = |gPg^{-1}|$, $H \cap gPg^{-1} = H$.

Corollary: Every p-subgroup of G is contained in a p-Sylow of G.

By the above, each is contained in a conjugate of P, said conjugate being a p-Sylow.

The p-Sylow subgroups in G are all conjugate, so that:

If P is a p-Sylow of G then $G/N(P)$ is the set of p-Sylows in G.

Where $N(P)$ is the normalizer of P.

So there are $(G : N(P))$ p-Sylows in total.

Lemma: If a finite p-group Γ acts on a set X, then $\#(X) \equiv_{mod p} \#(X^\Gamma)$

(X^Γ the fixed points of X under Γ).

Proof:

$\#X = \sum_i \#Orb(x_i) = \sum_i \frac{|\Gamma|}{|Stab(x_i)|} \equiv_{mod p} \#X^\Gamma$

Each $\frac{|\Gamma|}{|Stab(x_i)|} \equiv_{mod p} 1$ if x_i fixed, else $\frac{|\Gamma|}{|Stab(x_i)|} \equiv_{mod p} 0$.

Let $Syl_p(G)$ describe the p-Sylow subgroups of G and n_p denote its cardinality.
Theorem: (Sylow III) If $|G| = p^k \cdot r, k > 0$ then $n_p \equiv_{mod p} 1$. Further, $n_p | r$.
Proof:

Let P act on $Syl_p(G)$ by conjugation.
By the lemma, $\#Syl_p(G) = n_p \equiv_{mod p} (Syl_p(G))^P$.
Suppose Q is fixed under the group action. Then $pQp^{-1} = Q \; \forall p \in P$.
Then $P \leq N(Q)$; similarly $Q \leq N(Q)$.
P, Q are p-Sylow subgroups of N(Q); therefore P, Q are conjugate in N(Q).
However, $Q \trianglelefteq N(Q)$ so that Q is equal to all its conjugates in N(Q), and $P = Q$.
Hence P is the only fixed Sylow-p subgroup so $(Syl_P(G))^P \equiv_{mod p} 1$.
G acts on $Syl_p(G)$ as only one orbit since all p-Sylows in G are conjugate.
$(G : P) = n_p, n_p = |G| = p^k \cdot r, n_p | p^k \cdot r$, but $n_p \nmid p$, so $n_p | r$.

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Review of Sylow Theorems

Prove existence by showing existence in a larger known subgroup.

And then that contained subgroups must have their own Sylow p-subgroups.
$O(s) = S = \{\text{p-Sylows}\}$
$O(s) = G/G_s = G/N(P)$
The number of p-Sylows is notated $n_p = (G : N(P))$
P, Q p-Sylows and $P \subset N(Q)$ then $P = Q$

reason: $PQ \leq G$ a subgroup of G
HK not necessarily a group, but will be if one normalizes the other
ie $H \subset N(K)$
Theorem $n_p \equiv_{mod p} 1$

Consider the action of P on S by conjugation
Take $x \in P$ and $x : Q \mapsto xQx^{-1}$
The number of fixed points is 1, since P fixes only itself
A simple group has

more than one element
no non-trivial proper normal subgroups
(kind of like a prime number)
G finite abelian

G simple $\leftrightarrow$ G cyclic of prime order (simple easy exercise)

5

continuing...

non-sporadic finite simple groups

 $A_n (n \leq 5)$

 recall the alternating groups A_n are the even permutations on $\{1, \cdots, n\}$

 Lie groups over finite fields, e.g. $\{\pm \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}\} \subset SL(2, \mathbb{Z}|p\mathbb{Z})$

 P = projective; $PSL(2, \mathbb{Z}|p\mathbb{Z}) = SL(2, \mathbb{Z}|p\mathbb{Z})$

Simple groups of order ≤ 60.

 (a) There are no non-abelian simple groups of order < 60

 (b) If G is simple of order 60, then $G \cong A_5$.

 ($\# A_n = \frac{n!}{2}$)

G simple of order 60.

 $H < G$ simple (finite), H proper, $(G : H) = n \geq 2$

 G acts on G/H by left translation.

 The action is transitive (for each pair xH, yH, $\exists$ permutation taking one to the other)

 Therefore, this action is non-trivial.

 $\pi : G \to Perm(G/H) = S_n$

 $ker(\pi) \neq G$ and is a normal subgroup $\to$ the kernel is trivial.

 $\pi : G \hookrightarrow S_n$ and in fact $\pi : G \hookrightarrow A_n$ (if $\#G > 2$)

Why? because $G \cap A_n \trianglelefteq G$

 If $G \subset S_n$.

 Then $G \to S_n / A_n = \{\pm 1\}$ by the sign map, kernel is $G \cap A_n$.

 Recall $sgn : S_n \to \{\pm 1\}$ $sgn(\sigma) = (-1)^t$ given t, num of transpositions

 $G/(G \cap A_n) \hookrightarrow S_n / A_n = \{\pm 1\}$

 $(G : G \cap A_n) = 1$ or 2.

 If G is simple then this cannot be 2 (would be normal subgroup), so =1.

 And $G \hookrightarrow A_n$ for that A_n.

G simple, order 60.

 H a proper subgroup of G, index n. (consider small values of n)

 If $n = 2$ then H is normal in G, a contradiction.

 (smallest prime dividing the order of a group)

 If $n = 3$ or $n = 4$: $G \hookrightarrow A_3, A_4$ but their orders are too small (3, 12)

 If $n = 5$: $G \hookrightarrow A_5$ and they are equal in cardinality $\to$ done.

 Remaining case: $n = 15$.

 What is n_5, the number of 5-Sylow subgroups.

 $n_5 | 60/5 = 12$, $n_5 = (G : N(P))$ n_5 divides the index

 Also, $n_5 \equiv_{mod 5} 1$.

 Thus $n_5 = 1$ or $n_5 = 6$.

 If $n_5 = 1$ then only one 5-Sylow subgroup of G, must be normal.

 This is impossible since G is simple.

 Then $n_5 = 6$: tells you there are lots of elements of order 5 in G.

 There is no overlap (excepting at the identity) between 5-Sylows.

 Hence the number of elements of order 5 is $6 \cdot 4 = 24$

 Elements of order 5 in A_5 are 5-cycles (a b c d e).

Need to take all strings of length 5: 120, and divide out by rotations 5.

Thus we get $120/5 = 24$ (check).

Consider n_2 the number of 2-Sylow subgroups.

Then n_2 divides $60/4 = 15$, and $n_2 \neq 1$ because of simplicity.

Also, $n_2 = (G : N(P_2))$, and this can't be 3 since G has no subgroup of index 3.

If $n_2 = 5$ then $N(P_2)$ is the desired index-5 subgroup $\rightarrow$ done.

From divisibility $n_2 = 1, 3, 5, 15$.

Eliminate 1 by simplicity, 3 since the index is too small, 5 works, consider 15.

Considering the situation where there are 15 2-Sylow subgroups (of order 4).

These are groups like the Klein 4-group (no elements of order 4).

There are 2 2-Sylow subgroups P and Q where $P \cap Q$ has order 2.

Prove by counting.

Taking intersection, must be proper else they would be the same.

Hence $P \cap Q$ has order 1 or 2.

If there is utterly no overlap, there are $15 \cdot 3 + 1 = 46$ elt's of 2-Sylows.

And these do not have order 5. But there are 24 elements of order 5. Too many.

Now we know that some of these 2-Sylow subgroups have non-trivial overlap.

Consider $N(P \cap Q)$ for some such intersection, will be a subgroup of G.

Cannot be all of G, G is simple. (would make $P \cap Q$ normal)

$N(P \cap Q)$ contains P and Q since both are abelian.

Each are normal subgroups of $N(P \cap Q)$, so its order is divisible by 4.

Hence could have order 12, 20, or 60 (divisible by 4, divides 60).

Its index cannot be 1 (G is simple) cannot be 3 (A_n too small), = 5.

QED (**revisit why**).

Jordan-Hölder theorem

Website reference.

G finite non-trivial. Is G simple? $\{e\} \subset G$, $G/\{e\}$ simple.

Not simple $G \supset G_1 \supset (e)$, $G_1 \trianglelefteq G$, G_1, G/G_1 smaller than G.

Keep going until 'end', using principle of string induction.c

Proposition: $\exists G = G_0 \supset G_1 \supset G_2 \supset \cdots \supset G_n$, $G_{i+1} \trianglelefteq G_i$, G_i/G_{i+1} simple.

A *normal tower* or *composition series*, the simple quotients are the *constituents*.

Obtain a successive extension of simple groups.

Main point.

$N = p_1 \cdots p_n$

$\{p_1, p_2, \cdots, p_n\}$ a set where order doesn't count but multiplicity does.

Gauss's theorem: (FTA) each prime decomposition of N yields the same set.

Similarly, given G and $G_i/G_{i+1} = Q_i$ and $\{Q_0, \cdots, Q_{n-1}\}$.

Order not mattering, multiplicity matters, up to isomorphism.

Theorem: Each composition yields the same multiset.

Theorem of "Camille Jordan and some guy named Hölder."

Jordan-Hölder Theorem.

$G = G_0 \supset G_1 \supset G_2 \supset \cdots \supset G_n$
 $G_{i+1} \trianglelefteq G_i$, $G_i/G_{i+1} = Q_i$ simple.
Statement of the theorem:
 The "set" (multiplicity matters) $\{Q_0, \cdots, Q_{n-1}\}$ is independent of the filtration.
 Order doesn't count, Q_i up to isomorphism.
Proof strategy: by induction.
 If G has a filtration with n quotients, then all filtrations have n quotients.
 And all filters have the same set of quotients.
Question, can two different groups have the same reduction?
 Answer: yes. $S_3 \supset A_3 \supset \{e\}$. Quotients $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$.
 Also $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z} \supset 3\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z} \supset 6\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$, same quotients but radically different structure.
 "Knowing the building blocks does not confer knowledge of the building".
Demonstrating the existence of such a filtration for a group $G \neq \{e\}$.
 Similar to the proof of prime decompositions.
 If it is simple, then the filtration is $G \supset \{e\}$, done.
 If G is not simple, $G \supset N \supset \{e\}$, and $G/N, N$ smaller than G.
 Strong induction. $\overline{G} = G/N$, then $\overline{G} \supset \overline{G_1} \supset \cdots$ and similarly for $N \supset H_1 \supset \cdots$
 Note there is a correspondence b/t subgroups of G con't N and subgroups of G/N
 $G \supset L \supset N$, $L/N \subset G/N$ and $\pi: G \to G/N$, $\pi^{-1}(K) \subset G$ and $K \subset G/N$.
Base case $n = 1$, $G \supset \{e\}$, $G/\{e\}$ simple and G simple.
Supposing $G \supset G_1 \supset \cdots \supset G_n \supset \{e\} = G_{n+1}$ and $G \supset G_1' \supset \cdots \supset G_m' \supset \{e\} = G_{m+1}'$.
 ? $m = n$, $\{G_i/G_{i+1}\} = \{G_j'/G_{j+1}'\}$ ... If $G_1' = G_1$, then done by induction.
 Assume G_1, G_1' are distinct. Then $G_1 \cap G_1'$ is smaller than G_1 or G_1'.
 Also, $G_1 G_1'$ is a subgroup since its factors are normal by hypothesis.
 Indeed, it is also a normal subgroup since G_1 and G_1' are invariant under conjugation.
 Additionally, $G_1 G_1'$ is of size larger than G_1 and G_1'. Thus it must be equal to G.
 Can map $G_1'/(G_1 \cap G_1') \to G_1 G_1'/G_1$. Kernel is exactly $G_1 \cap G_1'$, hence injection.
 This defines $G_1'/(G_1 \cap G_1') \hookrightarrow G/G_1$. Symmetrically, $G_1/(G_1 \cap G_1') = G/G_1'$.
 Have $G_1 \supset \cdots \supset G_n \supset \{e\} = G_{n+1}$.
 Take $G_1 \supset G_1 \cap G_1' = H \supset H_1 \supset H_2 \supset \cdots \supset H_k \supset \{e\}$, a Jordan-Hölder filtration of G_1.
 Obtained by induction.
 Note $G_1/H = G/G_1'$ is the first quotient of this filtration.
 By induction, these two filtrations have the same length.
 The constituents of G_1 are the constituents of H, with $G_1/H = G/G_1'$ appended.
 Constituents: G/G_1 + constituents of $G_1 = G/G_1 + G/G_1'$ + constituents of H.
 Have $G \supset G_1' \supset H \supset H_1 \supset \cdots \supset H_k = \{e\}$, same length as $G_1' \supset G_2' \supset \cdots \supset G_m' = \{e\}$.
 Have related two different filtrations that have are unrelated, by a common filtration,
 which depends on the intersection of these two filtrations.

Free Groups

S a set, define the free abelian group on S, $\mathbb{Z}^S = \mathbb{Z}\langle S \rangle = \{\sum_{s \in S} n_s \cdot s \mid n_s \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.

Where all but finitely many of the n_s are 0.

$S = \{1, \cdots, n\}$, $\mathbb{Z}^S = \mathbb{Z}^n = \{(c_1, \cdots, c_n) \mid c_i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} n_i x^i = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} n_i \cdot i \in \mathbb{Z}\langle S \rangle$$

where $n_i = 0$ for $i >> 0$.

"To map $\mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle$ to A in the world of abelian groups is to map S to A in the world of sets."

$S \to \mathbb{Z}\langle S \rangle$ a set map, $s \in S \mapsto 1 \cdot s$.

Given $f : \mathbb{Z}\langle S \rangle A$ homomorphism.

And in fact, $F : Hom(\mathbb{Z}\langle X \rangle, A) \to Maps(S, A)$, F is a bijection.

These elements of the free abelian group are "formal sums".

That is, an $f : S \to \mathbb{Z}$.

Let $f : \mathbb{Z}\langle S \rangle \to A$, $f(\sum n_s s) = \sum_{s \in S} n_s f(s)$

An abelian group A is free of finite rank if $A \cong \mathbb{Z}^n$ for some $n \geq 0$ ($\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z}\langle \varnothing \rangle = 0$).

Define $rank(A) = n$. If $\mathbb{Z}^m \cong A \cong \mathbb{Z}^n$ then n = m.

Why? Take positive integer > 1, e.g. 2. Then $\mathbb{Z}^n / 2\mathbb{Z}^n \cong \mathbb{Z}^m / 2\mathbb{Z}^m$.

LHS has 2^n elts and RHS has 2^m elts so $n = m$.

A subgroup of a free abelian group of rank n is a free abelian group of rank $\leq n$.

Proof: by induction on n.

$n = 0$: $A = (0) = B$.

$n = 1$: $A = \mathbb{Z} \supset B$. What are the subgroups of $\mathbb{Z}$? $(0), (t) = t\mathbb{Z}, t \geq 1$.

Proof by division algorithm: $\mathbb{Z} \supset B \neq 0$, $t =$ smallest positive integer in B.

Division algorithm ensures that all elements are multiples of t.

$B \subset \mathbb{Z}^n \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{Z}$.

$\pi : (c_1, \cdots, c_n) \mapsto c_n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Cases:

(1) $\pi(B) = (0), B \subset \mathbb{Z}^{n-1}$, free of rank $\leq n - 1$

(2) $\pi(B) = t\mathbb{Z}, t \geq 1$

$B \xrightarrow{\pi|_B} t\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{surj.} 0$

$ker(\pi)|_B = C$ free of rank $\leq n - 1$.

Choose $b \in B$ such that $\pi(b) = t$.

$C \subset \mathbb{Z}^{n-1} : C = ker(\pi)|_B$, free of rank $\leq n - 1$.

$C = B \cap \mathbb{Z}^{n-1}$

$C \subset B, \mathbb{Z} \cdot b \subset B$

Missing (pf in Lang)

Simple linear algebra.

$a_1, \cdots, a_n \in A$ corresponds to a homomorphism $\mathbb{Z}^n \to A$, $(c_1, \cdots, c_n) \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i a_i$.

These are linearly independent if f is 1-to-1, and these span/generate A if f is onto.

A is finitely generated if A is spanned by $a_1, \cdots, a_n$ for some $n \geq 0$, $a_i \in A$

A is finitely generated iff A is a quotient of $\mathbb{Z}^n$ for some n.

Corollary: a subgroup of a finitely generated abelian group is again finitely generated.

$\mathbb{Z}^n \xrightarrow{f} A$ finitely generated, have $B \subset A$, $f^{-1}(B) \leq \mathbb{Z}^n$, and $f^{-1}(B) \cong \mathbb{Z}^k$, $k \leq n$.

A finitely generated, torsion-free.

I.e. given $a \in A$ and $n \cdot a = 0$, $n \geq 1$, then $a = 0$.

Statement: A is free and of finite rank.

Proof: Take a finite set of generators S in which take T lin indep and large as possible.

take $T = a_1, \cdots, a_k$ and $S = a_1, \cdots, a_k, \cdots, a_m$

$\sum_1^{k+1} c_k a_k = 0$, $c_{k+1} \neq 0$

$B = span\{a_1, \cdots, a_k\} \cong \mathbb{Z}^k$.

$a_{k+1}, \cdots, a_m$: some multiple lies on B.

$N \geq 1$; $N \cdot A \subset B$.

Th: NA free, $N : A \to NA$ A torsion free.

Multiplication on A by a positive integer is injective.

A is isomorphic to NA by the mutliplication by n, since NA is free, A is free.

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Abelian group, finitely generated.

Last week:

free group has to do with some correspondence to a $\mathbb{Z}^n$

subgroups of free finitely generated abelian groups are free and finitely generated

subgroups of finitely generated abelian groups are finitely generated

finitely generated, torsion free abelian group is a free abelian group

recall torsion free: for all $n \geq 1$, mult by n, $n \cdot A$ is injective

opposite A torsion: for all $a \in A$, $\exists n \geq 1$ such that $n \times a = 0$

Example of a torsion abelian group: $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$

element $p/q \mod \mathbb{Z}$, $q \geq 1$, $p \in \mathbb{Z}$; $q \times \frac{p}{q} = 0$ in $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$

finitely generated abelian groups up to isomorphism

A is a direct sum of a free part $\mathbb{Z}^r$ and a torsion part (a direct sum of cyclic groups)

Direct product of sets A_i indexed by S:

$$\bigoplus_{i \in S} A_i = \{f : S \to \cup_{i \in S} A_i : f(i) \in A_i\}$$

where for all but finitely many i, $f(i) = 0$

this is equivalent to the direct product when S is finite

Image 1: a map from a $\bigoplus_{i \in S} A_i$ to B is determined by the mappings from the A_i

The direct sum is a coproduct.

Image 2: a map into a $\prod_{i \in S} A_i$ is determined by the mappings into the A_i

The direct product is a product (in the categorical sense).

S countably infinite, $A_i = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$

$\bigoplus_{i \in S} A_i$ is countable, but $\prod_{i \in S} A_i$ is not

Categories: products, coproducts, morphisms

$Mor(?,B) = \prod Mor(A_i, B)$? = co-product

The coproduct of sets is disjoint union.

Abelian group A and subgroups X and Y

we have inclusions from each into A

$X \times Y = X \oplus Y \xrightarrow{h} A$, $(x,y) \mapsto x + y$

h is injective if every $a \in A$ is of the form $x + y$

h is one-to-one $\leftrightarrow$ you can't write $x + y = x' + y'$ unless $x = x'$, $y = y'$

If true, say A is the direct sum of its submodules X and Y.

Suppose A, $X \subset A$, A/X is free (f.g. free): then X has a complement Y in A, $A \cong X \oplus A/X$

$A \xrightarrow{\pi} A/X$

$Y \subset A$, $\pi|_Y$ is an isom $Y \to A/X$.

$\pi|_Y$ inj $\leftrightarrow Y \cap X = (0)$.

$\pi|_Y$ surjective: given $a + X \in A/X$ we can find $y \in Y$ s.t. $y + X = a + X$

$x = y \cdot a \in X$

$a = y \cdot x, x \in X, y \in Y$

A/X free, say $\cong \mathbb{Z}^r$

To map A/X to A is to choose images in A of the generators of A/X corresponding to the unit vectors of $\mathbb{Z}^r$.

There is a unique homomorphism $s : A/X \to A$ so that $s(q_i) = a_i$ for $i = 1, \cdots, r$

$(\pi \cdot s)(q_i) = \pi(a_i) = q_i$

$\pi \circ s = id_{A/X}$

$Y =$ image of $S \subset A$.

$\pi|_Y$ surjective. $\pi(s(q)) = q$ for all $q \in A/X$

$\pi|_Y$ is 1-1. $/pi(s(q_0)) = 0$ but $s(q_0) = q_0$ so equals 0.

A a finitely generated abelian group

$X = A_{tors} = \{a \in A | na = 0 \text{ for some } n \geq 1\}$.

X f.g., tors $\to$ X finite abelian group.

A/X torsion free, f.g. $\to A$ free $\approx \mathbb{Z}^r$

$A \approx \mathbb{Z}^r \oplus A_{tors}$. $A_{tors} =$???

it is a finite abelian group, let $B = A_{tors}$

p prime, $B_p = \{b \in B | p^t \cdot b = 0 \text{ for some } t \geq 0\}$.

$B_P \subset B$.

$\oplus_p B_p \xrightarrow{\iota} B$

Proposition: ι is an isomorphism. (formal proof in Lang's book)

Proof essence:

suppose $60 \cdot b = 0$, $60 = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 = 12 \cdot 5$

$(12,5) = 1$

$1 = r5 + s12 = 25 - 24$

$b = r \cdot 5 \cdot b + s \cdot 12 \cdot b$

$12x = 0, 5y = 0$

Every element can be written as a sum of terms killed by a power of a prime

$A = \mathbb{Z}^r \oplus (\oplus_p B_p)$

$\mathbb{Z}^n \approx F \xrightarrow{\varphi} A$ A finitely generated (by n elements)

$Ker(\varphi) = X \subset F$.

? understand A ! understand X inside F.

Elementary division theorem

There exists a basis of $F \approx \mathbb{Z}^n$ s.t. ... $X = \bigoplus_{i \le r} 0 \oplus a_1 \mathbb{Z} \oplus a_2 \mathbb{Z} \oplus \cdots \oplus a_{n-r}\mathbb{Z}, a_i \ge 1$

$X \subset \mathbb{Z}^n$

$a_1 | a_2 | a_3 | \cdots | a_{n-r}$, increasing multiplicatively

$A = F/X = \mathbb{Z}^r \oplus \mathbb{Z}/a_1\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/a_2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \cdots, a_i | a_{i+1}$

A a finite abelian group $\to$ A is a direct sum of cyclic groups

p prime, $\#A = p^4 = a_1 a_2 a_3 \cdots$

A is direct sum of cyclic groups of p-power order.

$A \approx \mathbb{Z}|p^i \oplus \mathbb{Z}|p^j \oplus \mathbb{Z}|p^k \oplus \mathbb{Z}|p^l$ at most

$i \le j \le k \le l, i + j + k + l = 4, i,j,k,l, \ge 1$

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A arbitrary finitely generated group that we want to understand

Pick some generators $g_1, \cdots, g_n$

Get a map from $Y = \mathbb{Z}^n$ to A, has some kernel

Considering $A = Y/X$, and how X lies in Y gives indication of structure of A

Can think of X, Y, as lattices

Theorem: $Y \cong \mathbb{Z}^n$ exists $v_1, \cdots, v_n$ basis of Y

such that in that basis $X = a_1 \mathbb{Z} \oplus a_2 \mathbb{Z} \oplus \cdots \oplus a_m \mathbb{Z} \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus \cdots \oplus 0$.

$a_i \ge 1, a_1 | a_2, a_2 | a_3, \cdots a_{m-1} | a_m$.

Example: $A = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$

$Y = \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}$

$Y \supset X = 2\mathbb{Z} \oplus 3\mathbb{Z}$

Not at all true that the integers divide each other.

Puzzle. Not the case as in the theorem.

Need to prove to self that in some new basis, $Y = \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}$,

and $X = \mathbb{Z} \oplus 6/\mathbb{Z}, Y/X = \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$.

$a_1 = 1$, and $a_2 = 6$.

$X \subset \mathbb{Z}^n$. Ask whether $X = (0)$ the zero submodule. If so, simple. So can assume nonzero.

Consider linear forms, homomorphisms $\mathbb{Z}^n \to \mathbb{Z}$.

For each λ have $\lambda(X) \subset \mathbb{Z}$. e.g., $\lambda(X) = 3\mathbb{Z}$. Some λs are nonzero since X is nonzero.

Choose λ so that $\lambda(X)$ is maximal.

Example: $X = 2\mathbb{Z} \oplus 3\mathbb{Z}$. The first coordinate fn yields $2\mathbb{Z}$,

the second coordinate fn yields $3\mathbb{Z}$.

But with $\lambda(u,v) = v - u$ we can get all of $\mathbb{Z}$.

possible to get λs yielding images $2\mathbb{Z}$, $3\mathbb{Z}$, but not to get λ, $\lambda(X)$ containing both?

In any case, take a maximal λ, fix that λ.

$\lambda(X) = a\mathbb{Z}$ maximal

Pick $x \in X$ so that $\lambda(x) = a$.

Claim: $\mu(x) = b$ is divisible by a for all $\mu \in Hom(\mathbb{Z}^n, \mathbb{Z})$

$gcd(a,b) = g = ra + sb$

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$\tau := r\lambda + s\mu$, $\tau(x) = g$

Now $\tau(X) \supset \mathbb{Z}g \supset \mathbb{Z}a$

So $\tau(x) = \lambda(x)$, $\mathbb{Z}g = \mathbb{Z}a$

$a|b$ for this reason of maximality

"Executive session"

R a commutative ring

R-module: M

1) abelian group

2) endowed with a scalar multiplication $r \in R$, $m \in M$, $rm \in M$

same as a vector space definition except R is not assumed to be a field

The context in which this elementary divisor theorem works.

A a finitely generated abelian group replaced by a finitely generated R-module

And there are 2 conditions on R.

R is an integral domain: $rs = 0 \rightarrow r = 0$ or $s = 0$

Ideals of R are principal $M \subset R \rightarrow M = R \cdot a$

Digression: motivation. Killer example.

K a field, and R = K[t]. (very much like $\mathbb{Z}$, can do Euclidean division by remainders)

Have V and action of $K[t]$: (action of K and action of t)

V + action of K $\rightarrow$ K-vector space

Action of t: $T : V \rightarrow V$ multiplication by t, $v \mapsto t \cdot v$, $T(v) = t \cdot v$

Conversely, can form the corresponding polynomial in the linear transformation

Principal Ideal domain. Element of smallest degree, Euclidean algorithm.

Suppose we have an R-module V. This is a K-vector space V with action of t

Multiplication by t gives a linear operator $T : V \rightarrow V$ (t commutes with K)

Remark: if V is of finite dimension over K, then it is finitely generated as a K-module

In particular, it's finitely generated over the ring $R = K[t]$

A an abelian group. If A is torsion, we are especially interested.

Suppose we start with a linear operator on a finite-dimension vector space.

There is a characteristic polynomial h such that $h(T) = 0$.

Cayley-Hamilton theorem.

$h(t) \in R = K[t]$. So $h(t) \cdot v = 0$.

V is a torsion module because $h(t)$ annihilates V.

Summary of what we have so far:

$0 \neq X \subset Y = \mathbb{Z}^n$, $\lambda : Y \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$, $\lambda(X)$ is maximal among $\mu(X)$s, $\lambda(X) = a\mathbb{Z}$.

Have shown that $a = \lambda(x)$, then $\mu(x)$ is divisible by a for all μ.

Take μ to be the ith coordinate function, $x = (x_1, \cdots, x_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^n$, $a|x_i$ for all $i = 1, \cdots, n$,

$x = a \cdot y$, $y \in \mathbb{Z}^n$, $\lambda(y) = \lambda(x)/a = 1$

Think of Y: contains two submodules (subgroups)

$Y \supset ker(\lambda)$, $Y \supset \mathbb{Z} \cdot y$.

Claim: $Y = ker(\lambda) \oplus \mathbb{Z}y$

1) each $z \in Y$ is: e.g. $(z - \lambda(z) \cdot y) + \lambda(z)y$

2) if my is in $ker(\lambda)$ then $0 = \lambda(my) = m\lambda(y) = m$ so $m = 0$, $my = 0$, intersection is 0

The corresponding statement for X is that $X = (ker(\lambda|_X)) \oplus \mathbb{Z}_X$

Kind of obvious that the intersection is 0.

Each component is a submodule of the corresp. one in Y.

$z \in X, \lambda(z) = m\lambda(x) = ma\lambda(y)$.

$z = z - \lambda(z)y + \lambda(z)y$

$\lambda(z)y = m \cdot a \cdot y = mx$

$(z - \lambda(z)y) \in ker(\lambda) \cap X = ker(\lambda|_X)$

$\mathbb{Z}^n = Y = ker(\lambda) \oplus \mathbb{Z}y$

$Y \supset X = ker(\lambda|_X) \oplus \mathbb{Z}ay$

Apply inductively to portion of lower rank, having pulled off $\mathbb{Z}a$

$X = a_1\mathbb{Z} \oplus a_2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \cdots \oplus a_m\mathbb{Z} \oplus 0\cdots 0 \subset Y = \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}$

need to have some kind of divisibility among these a, need to be explained

$a_1 | a_2, \cdots$

$Y = \mathbb{Z} \oplus Y'$ and $X = a\mathbb{Z} + X'$, working rightward

start thinking of various linear maps $\lambda' : Y' \to \mathbb{Z}$, and how they restrict to X

taking a maximal one, etc., etc.

need to understand somehow that if we take this $\lambda'(X') = a'\mathbb{Z}$

we want $a|a'$, meaning $a'\mathbb{Z} \subset a\mathbb{Z}$, do this with some greatest common divisor argument

Introduce $g = gcd(a, a')$ which we want to be a, write in form $ra + sa'$

Need to find some interesting linear map from Y to Z

Have a map $Y' \xrightarrow{\lambda'} \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$ the identity

Both of these are linear maps that give linear maps $Y \to \mathbb{Z}$.

Choose $x' \in X'$ so that $\lambda'(x') = a'$

Have $(a, 0)$ in X so that the second linear map (just taking the first coordinate)...

...applied to $(a, 0)$ gives a

Take $Y = \mathbb{Z} \oplus Y'$

$\mathbb{Z} \oplus Y' \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{Z}$

$\mathbb{Z} \oplus Y' \to Y' \to Y' \xrightarrow{\lambda'} \mathbb{Z}$, the composition of which call g

$Y = \mathbb{Z} \oplus Y' \ni (a, x') \in X$

$f(a, x') = a$

$g(a, x') = \lambda(x') = a'$

$(rf + sg)(a, x') = G, rf + sg = \mu$

$\mu(X) \supset \mathbb{Z} \cdot G \supset \mathbb{Z}a$

Maximality $\to G = a$.

Tells us that a really divides a' by maximality.

The Y and the X really divide off into two separate worlds.

$Y = \mathbb{Z} \oplus Y'$ and $X = a\mathbb{Z} \oplus X'$

The world which we have already considered, and the trailing-off world of Y' and X'

New map μ defined on all of Y and X, by leaving the first coordinate alone.

Go back to the original example of the 2 and the 3. $Y = \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \supset X = 2\mathbb{Z} \oplus 3\mathbb{Z}$

$\lambda(u, v) = v - u$

$x = (2, 3), \lambda(x) = 1$

$a = 1, \lambda(X) = \mathbb{Z}$, need to see how that line splits off in $\mathbb{Z}$ and in X.

$Y = \mathbb{Z} \cdot y \oplus ker(\lambda)$

$y = x/a = x, ker(\lambda) = \{(u, v) : u = v\} = \mathbb{Z} \cdot (1, 1)$

$Y = \mathbb{Z} \cdot (2, 3) \oplus \mathbb{Z} \cdot (1, 1) = \mathbb{Z}^2$

$X = \mathbb{Z} \cdot (2, 3) \oplus \mathbb{Z} \cdot (1, 1) \cap (2\mathbb{Z} \oplus 3\mathbb{Z})$

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so $X = \mathbb{Z} \cdot (2,3) \oplus 6 \cdot \mathbb{Z}(1,1)$
$Y/X = \mathbb{Z}/\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$.

9/22

Rings R, A (= 'anneau')
    definition: whether or not $1 \in R$ is can vary
    Lang: $1 \in R$, Hungerford: $1 \notin R$
    In the former, $2\mathbb{Z}$ is not a ring, in the latter, it is
    gold standard of a ring, the ring of integers $\mathbb{Z}$
Ring: has an addition and a multiplication, modeled off of the integers
    under +, ring is an abelian group with distinguished element 0
    associative product (not necessarily commutative) with distinguished element 1
    distributive laws $(x + y)z = \cdots$ and $z(x + y) = zx + zy$
Example, given A an abelian group, the ring of endomorphisms
    $R = End(A) = Hom(A, A)$, $(f + g)(a) = f(a) + g(a)$, $fg = f \circ g$
    End(A) can be viewed as a ring of matrices under matrix multiplication if $A = \mathbb{Z}^n$
Example, any field e.g. $\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}(i) = \{a + bi | a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$
    Fields are commutative, and non-zero elements have multiplicative inverses
To be explored: X a set, $R = P(X)$, $r + s =$ symmetric difference, $r \cdot s =$ intersection
Hamilton quaternions over $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{Q}$, $a + bi + cj + dk$ a "skew field"
    An inverse is $\frac{a - bi - cj - dk}{a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2}$
G a group (written multiplicitavely), take $\mathbb{Z}[G] = \mathbb{Z}\langle G \rangle$ the free abelian group on G
    elements $\sum n_g \cdot g, n_g \in \mathbb{Z}$ the sum finite
    can multiply

$$\left(\sum n_g \cdot g\right)\left(\sum m_h \cdot h\right) = \sum_{x \in G} \left(\sum_{g,h,gh=x} n_g m_h\right)x$$

$$c_x = \sum_g n_g m_{g^{-1}x}$$

    a convolution product
$G = \{x^i | i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$, $x^i x^j = x^{i+j}$
    typical element finite $\sum_i n_i x^i$, $n_i \in \mathbb{Z}$
    e.g. $x^{-3} + 2x^{-2} + 7x^{-1} + 9x^{100}$ a polynomial in x, x^{-1}

Ring Homomorphisms
    is a homomorphism of abelian groups, and respects the multiplication operation
    $\varphi(xy) = \varphi(x)\varphi(y)$, note $\varphi(1) \neq 1$ is possible
    $ker(\varphi) = \{r \in R | \varphi(r) = 0\}$
    Satisfies the property for being an ideal: $x \in R, r \in ker(\varphi) \to xr, rx \in ker(\varphi)$
Ideals
    $xI \subset I$ left-sided , $Ix \subset I$ right-sided, 2-sided (bilateral)
    exact analogues of normal subgroups

two-sided ideal: well-defined quotient multiplication

$(r + I) \cdot (s + I) := rs + I$

$(r + I)(s + I) = r(s + i) + I = rs + ri + I$ and similarly

$(r + I)(s + I) = (r + i)s + I = rs + is + I$

ideals are kernels of ring homomorphisms

Principal Ideal $I = R \cdot a$ for some $a \in R$

the Ideal that a generates, (a) (minimal ideal containing a)

is exactly all multiples of a in R

for subset X, intersection of all ideals containing X (intersections of ideals are ideals)

if $X = \{a_1, \cdots, a_t\}$, the ideal is $(a_1, \cdots, a_t)$

the ideals of $\mathbb{Z}$ are the additive subgroups of $\mathbb{Z}$, $a\mathbb{Z}$, $a \geq 0 = (a)$

an ideal of R is an additive subgroup with ideal property

K field, $R = K[x]$

euclidean division

all ideals of R are principal

$R = K[x, y]$ polynomials in x and y

$R \xrightarrow{\varphi} K$, $f(x, y) \mapsto f(0, 0) \in K$ (the constant term of the polynomial)

$(x, y) = ker(\varphi) = \{$polynomials with 0 constant term$\}$.

this is *not* principal

elements look like $0 + ax + by + cx^2 + \cdots$

Prime ideal $P \subset R$ shall be:

proper

if $rs \in P$ then $r \in P$ or $s \in P$

If P divides rs then P divides r or s

Prime ideals of $\mathbb{Z}$

(0), $(p) = p\mathbb{Z}$, p prime.

If $\varphi : R \to S$ is a ring homomorphism and S contains a prime ideal P

then $\varphi^{-1}(P)$ is a prime ideal of R

Proof:

Let $x, y \in R$ and suppose $xy \in \varphi^{-1}(P) = P'$

then $\varphi(x)\varphi(y) = \varphi(xy) \in P \to \varphi(x) \in P$ or $\varphi(y) \in P \square$

Corollary: Suppose $\varphi : R \to S$ a non-trivial homomorphism of rings and (0) is prime in S

Then the kernel of φ is prime.

S is called an integral domain if

$(0) \neq S$

if $xy = 0$ then $x = 0$ or $y = 0$

Proposition: $P \subset R$ is a prime ideal $\leftrightarrow R/P$ is an integral domain

Maximal ideal $M \subset R$ if $M \neq R$ and $M \subset M'$ a proper ideal, $M = M'$

Proposition: M is maximal $\leftrightarrow R/M$ is a field

Example: $\mathbb{Z} \supset a\mathbb{Z}$ maximal $\leftrightarrow a$ is prime

Corollary: Maximal ideals are prime

Pf: Fields are integral domains.

9/24: Midterm

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