Math 250A, Fall 2015

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A group G acts on a set S:
$G \times S \to S$
$(g, s) \mapsto g \cdot s$
$e \cdot s = s$
$(gg') \cdot s = g \cdot (g' \cdot s)$
Alternatively,
$\phi : G \to Perm(S)$ 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: $g \in G_s \to g \cdot s = s \to g^{-1}gs = g^{-1}s \to s = g^{-1}s$
There exists a natural bijection $\alpha : G/G_s \to O(s)$, $gG_s \mapsto g \cdot s$
well-defined: $g_1 G_s = g_2 G_s \to \exists g \in G_s, g_1 = g_2 g$, $\alpha(g_1 G_s) = g_1 s = g_2 g s = g_2 s = \alpha(g_2 G_s)$
injective: $\alpha(g_1 G_s) = g_1 \cdot s = g_2 \cdot s = \alpha(g_2 G_s) \to g_2^{-1} g_1 \cdot s = s$, $g_2^{-1} g_1 \in G_s$, 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
$Z(G) = \{g \in G : xg = gx\ \forall x \in G\}$
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 $H \to gH$)
$\#S = \sum_{s \in \Sigma} \#O(s) = \sum_s (G : G_s)$
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"
Notation: S^G is the set of points in S fixed under the group action. ($gs = s \ \forall g \in G$)
Let G act on itself by conjugation ($S = G$). Then $S^G = Z(G)$.
For $s \in S(= G)$, G_s is a subgroup, and its order divides the order of the group, p^n.
Either $O(s)$ is trivial, and $s \in S^G = Z(G)$, otherwise $\#(O(s)) = p^k$ for $k > 0$
$\#S =$ sum of # of elements in the orbits $\equiv_{mod p}$ # of orbits of size $1 = \#(S^G)$.
$\#Z(G) \equiv_{mod p} \#(S^G) \equiv_{mod p} \#S = \#G = p^n \equiv_{mod p} 0$.
$Z(G)$ cannot be 1, since the identity of the group is in the center.
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 stabilizer of H, $G_H = \{x \in G | xH = H\}$, hence $G_H = H$.
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.
For each coset gH, K stabilizes that coset, hence K is the kernel of φ.
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 $s = e$), so an injection $\to$ 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 $GL(n,\mathbb{Z}) = \{\phi : V \to V\}$
Can think of this as an action on $\mathbb{Z}^n \cong V$, whose permutation group is simply $GL(n,\mathbb{Z})$.
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.
Yes: $L_{gg'}(\varphi(x)) = \varphi(xgg') = L_{g'}(\varphi(xg)) = L_{g'} \circ L_g(\varphi(x))$
$g \mapsto L_g$ 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.

If $|G| = p^k \cdot r$, $(p,r) = 1$, a p-Sylow subgroup of G is an $H \leq G$ such that $|H| = p^k$
$\mathbb{Z}_{12}$ has 2-sylow subgroup $\{0,3,6,9\}$ and 3-sylow subgroup $\{0,4,8\}$
D_6 generated by r, s subject to $rs = sr^{-1}$, $r^6 = e$, $s^2 = e$
$\#(D_6) = 12$ so has 3-sylow subgroup $\{1,r^2,r^4\}$
Also has 2-sylow subgroups $\{1,r^3,s,r^3s\}$, $\{1,r^3,rs,r^4s\}$, $\{1,r^3,r^2s,r^5s\}$
G = $GL_n(\mathbb{F}_p)$, $n \times n$ linear transformations in $\mathbb{F}_p$, equal to $Aut(\mathbb{F}_p^n)$
Approximating 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.
Will use this fact in the subsequent proof.
Theorem: (Sylow I) For $|H| = p^k \cdot r$, $(p,r) = 1$, H has a p-Sylow subgroup.
Proof Sketch:
Show $\exists G$, $H \leq G$, such that 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:
Cayley's theorem, can embed H (of order n) in S_n by acting on itself by translation.
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 the action $g \in H \mapsto$ automorphism taking $\varphi(x)$ to $\varphi(xg)$.

We know that $GL_n(\mathbb{F}_p)$ has p-Sylow subgroups. (from the lower triangular matrices)
Let P be a p-Sylow subgroup of $G = GL_n(\mathbb{F}_p)$. Let G act on the cosets of P.
Now, $G_{gP} = gPg^{-1}$. Similarly, when H acts on G/P, $G_{gP} = (gPg^{-1} \cap H)$
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, $|G/P| \not\equiv_{modp} 0$.
The sum of the orbits is $|G/P|$.
Hence there must be some orbit with size coprime to p.
The stabilizer of this orbit $gPg^{-1} \cap H$ is a p-Sylow subgroup H_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 $g \in G$.
A p-group can't contain a proper p-Sylow subgroup, so $J \cap gPg^{-1} = J$ and $J \subset gPg^{-1}$.

Corollary: (Sylow II) All p-Sylow groups are conjugate.
Let $H \leq G$ and $P \leq G$ be p-Sylow subgroups.
By the preceding corollary ($G \leq G$, $H \leq G$, $P \leq G$), $H \subset gPg^{-1}$ 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 ($N(P) =$ normalizer of P) $G/N(P) \leftrightarrow$ set of p-Sylows in G.
There are $(G : N(P))$ p-Sylows in total.

Lemma: If a finite p-group Γ acts on a set X, then $\#(X) \equiv_{modp} \#(X^\Gamma)$
(X^Γ the fixed points of X under Γ).
Proof:
Each $\frac{|\Gamma|}{|Stab(x_i)|} \equiv_{modp} 1$ if x_i fixed, else $\frac{|\Gamma|}{|Stab(x_i)|} \equiv_{modp} 0$.
Hence $\#X = \sum_i \#Orb(x_i) = \sum_i \frac{|\Gamma|}{|Stab(x_i)|} \equiv_{modp} \#X^\Gamma$.

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 $n_p \equiv_{modp} 1$. Further, $n_p | r$.
Proof:
Let P act on $Syl_p(G)$ by conjugation.
By the lemma, $\#Syl_p(G) = n_p \equiv_{modp} (Syl_p(G))^P$.
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 $(Syl_P(G))^P \equiv_{modp} 1$.
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 $n_p \equiv_{modp} 1$
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)

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 $\to$ done.
From divisibility $n_2 = 1, 3, 5, 15$.
Elminate 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."

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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, $\mathbb{Z}^S = \mathbb{Z}\langle S\rangle = \{\sum_{s \in S} n_s \cdot s | n_s \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.
Where all but finitely many of the n_s are 0.
$S = \{1, \cdots, n\}$, $\mathbb{Z}^S = \mathbb{Z}^n = \{(c_1, \cdots, c_n) | c_i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

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

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 $n \geq 0$ ($\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z}\langle \emptyset\rangle = 0$).
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.

9/15

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

$B_P \subset B$.

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

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

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

$\mathbb{Z}^n \approx F \xrightarrow{\varphi} A$ 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. ... $X = \bigoplus_{i \leq r} 0 \oplus a_1\mathbb{Z} \oplus a_2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \cdots \oplus a_{n-r}\mathbb{Z}$, $a_i \geq 1$

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

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

$i \leq j \leq k \leq l$, $i + j + k + l = 4$, $i, j, k, l, \geq 1$

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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 $X = a_1\mathbb{Z} \oplus a_2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \cdots \oplus a_m\mathbb{Z} \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus \cdots \oplus 0$.
$a_i \geq 1$, $a_1|a_2, a_2|a_3, \cdots a_{m-1}|a_m$.

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 $\mu \in Hom(\mathbb{Z}^n, \mathbb{Z})$
$gcd(a, b) = g = ra + sb$
$\tau := r\lambda + s\mu$, $\tau(x) = g$
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: $rs = 0 \to r = 0$ or $s = 0$
Ideals of R are principal $M \subset R \to M = R \cdot a$

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 $\to$ K-vector space
Action of t: $T : V \to V$ 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 $T : V \to V$ (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:
$0 \neq X \subset Y = \mathbb{Z}^n$, $\lambda : Y \to \mathbb{Z}$, $\lambda(X)$ 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 i^{th} 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.
$Y = \mathbb{Z} \cdot y \oplus ker(\lambda)$
$y = x/a = x$, $ker(\lambda) = \{(u,v) : u = v\} = \mathbb{Z} \cdot (1,1)$
$Y = \mathbb{Z} \cdot (2,3) \oplus \mathbb{Z} \cdot (1,1) = \mathbb{Z}^2$
$X = \mathbb{Z} \cdot (2,3) \oplus \mathbb{Z} \cdot (1,1) \cap (2\mathbb{Z} \oplus 3\mathbb{Z})$
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

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

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

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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