## Algebra Definition Theorem List

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# **Category Theory**

**Definition 1.1** (initial, final). Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a category, then object I is initial if for every object A, there exists a unique morphism  $I \to A$ . We say F is final if for every A, there exists a unique morphism  $A \to F$ .

### **Group Theory I**

This corresponds to Aluffi Chapter II.

**Proposition 2.1.** Let G be a group, for all  $a, g, h \in G$ , if

$$ga = ha$$

then g = h.

**Proposition 2.2.** Let  $g \in G$  have order n, then

$$n \mid |G|$$

**Corollary 2.1.** If g is an element of finite order, and let  $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then

$$g^N = e \iff N \text{ is a multiple of } |g|$$

**Proposition 2.3.** Let  $g \in G$  be of finite order, then  $g^m$  also has finite order, for all  $m \ge 0$ , and

$$|g^m| = \frac{\operatorname{lcm}(m, |g|)}{m} = \frac{|g|}{\gcd(m, |g|)}$$

**Proposition 2.4.** If gh = hg, then |gh| divides lcm(|g|, |h|).

**Definition 2.1** (Dihedral Group). Let  $D_{2n}$  denote the group of symmetries of a n-sided polynomial, consisting of n rotations and n reflections about lines trhough the origin and a vertex or a midpoint of a side.

**Proposition 2.5.** Let  $m \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ , then

$$|m| = \frac{n}{\gcd(n, m)}$$

Corollary 2.2. The element  $m \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  generates  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  if and only if gcd(m, n) = 1.

**Definition 2.2** (Multiplicative  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$ ). The multiplicative group of  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  is

$$(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times} = \{ m \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} : \gcd(m, n) = 1 \}$$

**Proposition 2.6.** Let  $\varphi: G \to H$  be a homomorphism, and let  $g \in G$  be an element of finite order, then  $|\varphi(g)|$  divides |g|.

For example, there is no nontrivial homomorphism from  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  to  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Proposition 2.7.** There is an isomorphism between  $D_6$  and  $S_3$ .

**Proposition 2.8.** Let  $\varphi: G \to H$  be an isomorphism, for all  $g \in G$ ,  $|\varphi(g)| = |g|$ , and G is commutative if and only if H is commutative.

**Proposition 2.9.** If H is commutative, then Hom(G, H) is a group.

**Definition 2.3.** Let  $A = \{1, ..., n\}$ , then the free abelian group on A is

$$\mathbb{Z}\oplus\cdots\oplus\mathbb{Z}=\mathbb{Z}^{\oplus n}$$

**Proposition 2.10.** Let  $\{H_{\alpha}\}$  be any family of subgroups of G, then

$$\bigcap_{\alpha} H_{\alpha}$$

is a subgroup of G.

**Proposition 2.11.** If  $\varphi: G_1 \to G_2$  is a group homomorphism, then if  $H_2 \subset G_2$  is a subgroup, then

$$\varphi^{-1}(H_2)$$

is a subgroup of  $G_1$ .

**Proposition 2.12.** Let  $H \subset \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  be a subgroup, then H is generated by some m where m divides n.

**Proposition 2.13.** If  $\varphi: G_1 \to G_2$  is a homomorphism, then  $\ker(\varphi)$  is a normal subgroup.

**Theorem 2.1.** Let  $\varphi: G_1 \to G_2$  be a surjective homomorphism, then

$$G_2 \cong \frac{G_1}{\ker \varphi}$$

**Proposition 2.14.** Let  $H_1, H_2$  be normal subgroups of  $G_1, G_2$ , then  $H_1 \times H_2$  are normal subgroups of  $G_1 \times G_2$ , then

$$\frac{G_1 \times G_2}{H_1 \times H_1} \cong \frac{G_1}{H_1} \times \frac{G_2}{H_2}$$

For example,

$$\frac{Z/6\mathbb{Z}}{\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}} = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$$

**Proposition 2.15.** Let H be a normal subgroup of G, then every subgroup K containing H, K/H can be identified with a subgroup of G/H.

**Proposition 2.16.** Let H be a normal subgroup of G, and N be a subgroup of G containing H, then N/H is normal in G/H if and only if N is normal in G, in this case

$$\frac{G/H}{N/H} = \frac{G}{N}$$

**Proposition 2.17.** Let H, K be subgroups of G, and if H is normal, then HK is a subgroup of G and H is normal in HK. Moreover,  $H \cap K$  is normal in K, and

$$\frac{HK}{H}\cong \frac{K}{H\cap K}$$

**Proposition 2.18.** Let *H* be a subgroup of *G*, then for all  $g \in G$ , the function  $H \to gH$  such that

$$h \mapsto gh$$

is a bijection.

**Theorem 2.2** (Lagrange). If G is a fintie group, and  $H \subset G$  is a subgroup, then

$$|G| = [G:H] \cdot |H|$$

In particular, |H| divides |G|.

Theorem 2.3 (Fermat's Little Theorem). Let *p* be a prime integer, and *a* be any integer, then

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

**Proposition 2.19.** Any group G acts on itself by left/right multiplications, and acts on the costs G/H:

$$\varphi:g\mapsto (aH\mapsto gaH)$$

**Definition 2.4** (orbit). The orbit of  $a \in A$  of a group action by G is

$$O(a) = \{g \cdot a : g \in G\}$$

The stabilizer of a is the following

$$Stab_G(a) = \{ g \in G : g \cdot a = a \}$$

**Proposition 2.20.** The orbits of an action form a partition on the set *A*, and *G* acts transitively on each orbit.

**Definition 2.5** (transitive action, faithful action). An action of G on A is transitive if for all  $a, b \in G$ , there exists  $g \in G$  such that

$$g \cdot a = b$$

In other words, the orbit of any element  $a \in A$  is the entire set.

An action is faithful if for any  $g \in G$ ,

$$g \cdot a = a$$
 for all  $a$ 

implies that g = e.

**Proposition 2.21.** Every transitive action of G on a set A is isomorphic to multiplication of G on G/H, where  $H = \operatorname{Stab}(a)$  for any  $a \in A$ .

**Proposition 2.22.** If O(a) is an orbit of the action of a finite group G, then O(a) is a finite and |O| divides |G|. Moreover,

$$|G| = |O(a)| \cdot |\operatorname{Stab}_G(a)|$$

For example, there is no transitive action of  $S_3$  on the set of 5 elements.

### **Group Theory II**

This corresponds to Aluffi Chapter IV.

**Proposition 3.1.** Every **transitive** action of a group G on a set S is isomorphic to the left multiplication on the cosets G/H. Here, H can be taken to be the stabilizer of any element  $a \in S$ .

Moreover, suppose G is finite, then

$$|G| = |O_a| \cdot |\operatorname{Stab}(a)|$$

for any  $a \in S$ . (The size of the orbit must divide |G|.)

**Proposition 3.2** (class formula). Let *S* be a finite set, and *G* act on *S*, then

$$|S| = |Z| + \sum_{a \in A} [G : \mathsf{Stab}(a)] = |Z| + \sum_{a \in A} |O_a|$$

where  $Z = \{a \in S : g \cdot a = a \text{ for all } g\}$ , i.e., the fixed elements, and  $A \subset S$  contains exactly one element from each nontrivial orbit of the action.

In other words, |S| is the sum of the number of trivial orbits and each nontrivial orbit.

**Proposition 3.3.** Let G be a p-group that acts on a finite set S, then let Z be fixed elements of this acion, then

$$|S| \equiv |Z| \mod p$$



**Warning 3.1.** The important takeaway is that each summand on the right,  $|O_a|$  divides |G|.

#### 3.1 Conjugation Action

**Definition 3.1** (fixed points, centralizer, conjugacy class). The fixed points under the conjugation action is the center of G. The centralizer  $Z_G(g)$  where  $g \in G$  is its stabilizer under conjugation:

$$Z_G(g) = \{ h \in G : hgh^{-1} = g \}$$

The conjugacy class of  $g \in G$  is the orbit [g]. (In other words, centralizer is the set of elements that commute with g.)

For arbitrary  $a \in G$ , we have

$$Z(G) \subset Z_G(a)$$

Moroever, a is the only element in [a] iff  $a \in Z(G)$ .

**Proposition 3.4.** The center is the set of fixed points of *G* under the conjugation action, the conjugacy classes are the orbits.

**Theorem 3.2.** Let G be finite, and if G/Z(G) is cyclic, then G is abelian.

*Proof.* One can show that every element  $a \in G$  can be written as

$$a = g^r z$$

for some  $z \in Z(G)$ , then compute ab = ba.

**Proposition 3.5** (Class formula). Let *G* be finite, then

$$\begin{split} |G| = & |Z(G)| + \sum_{[a] \in A} |[a]| \\ = & |Z(G)| + \sum_{a} [G:Z_G(a)] \end{split}$$

where A contains one representative for each nontrivial conjugacy class.



**Warning 3.3.** There are many consequences of the class formula, showing center is nontrivial, etc. Mainly using the summand divides |G|!

Theorem 3.4. Let G be a nontrivial p-group, then G has a nontrivial center.

**Proposition 3.6.** Let G be a group of  $p^2$  elements, where p is prime, then G is commutative.

**Proposition 3.7.** The only possibility for the class formula of a nonabelian group of order 6 is

$$6 = 1 + 2 + 3$$

The center must be trivial if *G* is nonabelian.

**Proposition 3.8.** Normal subgroups are unions of conjugacy classes. Thus, a noncommutative group of order 6 cannot have a normal subgroup of order 2.

It contains the identity, and there is no other conjugacy class of size 1.

**Definition 3.2** (normalizer). Let  $A \subset G$  be a subset. The normalizer  $N_G(A)$  of A is

$$\operatorname{Stab}_G(A) = \left\{ g : gAg^{-1} = A \right\}$$

If H is subgroup of G, every conjugate  $gHg^{-1}$  is also a subgroup of G, and all conjugate groups have the same order.

The centralizer of *A* is the subgroup  $Z_G(A) \subset N_G(A)$  fixing each  $a \in A$ :

$$Z_G(A) = \left\{ g : gag^{-1} = a \text{ for all } a \in A \right\}$$

**Proposition 3.9** (\*). H is a normal in G if and only if  $N_G(H) = G$ . More generally, the normalizer  $N_G(H)$  for any subgroup H is the largest subgroup such that H is normal in  $N_G(H)$ .

**Proposition 3.10** (\*). Let  $H \subset G$  be a subgroup, then the number of subgroups conjugate to H is the size of the orbit=index of the stabilizer, which is  $[G:N_G(H)]$ .

Corollary 3.1. If [G:H] is finite, then the number of subgroups conjugate to H is finite, and

$$[G:H] = [G:N_G(H)] \cdot [N_G(H):H]$$

In other words, the number of subgroups conjugate to H divides the index [G:H].

#### 3.2 Sylow

**Theorem 3.5** (Cauchy's Theorem). Let G be a finite group, and let p be a prime divisor of |G|, then G contains an element of order p.

Moreover, let N be the number of cyclic subgroups of order p, then

$$N\equiv 1\mod p$$

**Definition 3.3** (simple). A group is simple if it is nontrivial and its only normal subgroups are  $\{e\}$  and G (has no nontrivial proper subgroup).

**Definition 3.4** (*p*-Sylow subgroups). Let p be prime, a p-Sylow subgroup of a finite group G is a subgroup of order  $p^r$ , where  $|G| = p^r m$ , gcd(p, m) = 1.

**Theorem 3.6** (Sylow I). Every finite group contains a p-Sylow subgroup for all prime p. If  $p^k$  divides |G|, then G has a subgroup of order  $p^k$ .

**Theorem 3.7** (Sylow II). Let G be finite, and P is a p-Sylow subgroup, let  $H \subset G$  be a p-group, then H is contained in a conjugate of P. If  $P_1, P_2$  are both p-Sylow subgroups, then they are conjugates to each other.

**Theorem 3.8** (Sylow III). Let  $|G| = p^r m$ , and gcd(p, m) = 1, then the number of *p*-Sylow subgroups is

$$n_p \mid m$$

and

$$n_p \equiv 1 \mod p$$

**Proposition 3.11.** Let G be a finite group, let P be a p-Sylow subgroup, the number of p-Sylow subgroup  $n_p$  is

$$n_p = [G: N_G(P)]$$

by definition.

**Proposition 3.12.** Let G be a group of order  $mp^r$ , where p is prime and 1 < m < p, then G is not simple.

**Proposition 3.13** (\*). Let p < q be primes, let G has order pq, if  $p \nmid (q-1)$ , then G is cyclic.

*Proof.* If G is abelian, use elements of orders p,q. If G not necessarily abelian, then use the conjugation action.

**Proposition 3.14** (\*). Let q be an odd prime, and G be a noncommutative group of order 2q, then

$$G \cong D_{2q}$$

#### 3.3 Series and Solvability

**Definition 3.5** (composition series). A comp series for *G* is a normal series

$$\{e\} = G_0 \subset G_1 \subset \cdots \subset G_n = G$$

such that  $G_{i+1}/G_i$  is simple.

**Definition 3.6** (commutator subgroup). Let G be a group, the commutator subgroup of G is the subgroup **generated** by all elements

$$ghg^{-1}h^{-1}$$

**Proposition 3.15.** Let [G,G] be the commutator subgroup of G, then [G,G] is normal in G, and the quotient, also called the abelianization of G,

$$G^{\rm ab} = \frac{G}{[G,G]}$$

is commutative.

If  $\varphi: G \to H$ , where H is commutative, then

$$[G,G]\subset \ker(\varphi)$$

**Definition 3.7.** A group *G* is solvable, if ther exists a sequence such that

$$\{e\} = G_0 \subset \cdots \subset G_k = G$$

where  $G_i$  is normal in  $G_{i+1}$ , and  $G_{i+1}/G_i$  is abelian, or equivalently, cyclic.

**Proposition 3.16.** All *p*-groups are solvable!

**Proposition 3.17.** Let N be normal in G, then G is solvable if and only if N, G/N are solvable.

#### 3.4 $S_n$ and $A_n$

**Proposition 3.18.** Disjoint cycles commute. For every  $\sigma \in S_n$ ,  $\sigma$  can be written as disjoint nontrivial cycles, unique up to rearranging.

**Proposition 3.19.** Two elements in  $S_n$  are conjugate in  $S_n$  if and only if they have the same type. Hence the number of conjugacy classes is the number of partitions of n as a sum.

**Proposition 3.20.** Let  $\sigma \in S_n$ , and  $(a_1 \dots a_n)$  is a cycle in  $S_n$ , then

$$\sigma(a_1 \dots a_n) \sigma^{-1} = (\sigma(a_1) \dots \sigma(a_n))$$

Proof: try  $\varphi(a_1)$  on the left hand side.



Warning 3.9. Very useful!

Example 3.1. In  $S_4$ , we have

$$(1234)(12)(1234)^{-1} = (23)$$

**Definition 3.8** (Even permutation). Let  $\sigma \in S_n$ , then  $\sigma$  is even if

$$\prod_{i < j} (x_i - x_j) = \prod_{i < j} (x_{\sigma(i)} - x_{\sigma(j)})$$

**Proposition 3.21.**  $A_n$  is always normal in  $S_n$ , because it is the kernel of the  $\varepsilon: S_n \to \{\pm 1\}$  (determining parity).

**Proposition 3.22.** Let  $\sigma \in A_n$ , where  $n \ge 2$ , then the conjugacy class of  $\sigma$  in  $S_n$  splits into two conjugacy classes in  $A_n$  precisely if the type of  $\sigma$  consists of distinct odd numbers; or equivalently, the centralizer of  $\sigma$  is contained  $A_n$ . Otherwise, the conjugacy class stays the same.

**Example 3.2.**  $S_5$  has even permutations 5, 3, 2+2, 1, and only 5-cycle of  $S_5$  splits into 2 conjugacy classes in  $A_5$ .

**Proposition 3.23.** The group  $A_5$  is a simple noncommutative group of order 60.

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Proposition 3.24. Every simple group of order < 60 is commutative,  $A_5$  is the smallest simple group that is not commutative.

*Proof.* Any nontrivial normal subgroup consists of nontrivial conjugacy classes and  $\{e\}$ , the conjugacy classes of  $A_5$  has the following size:

Thus any subgroup of G, i.e., order that divides 60 cannot be written as a sum of the numbers above. 

**Proposition 3.25.** The alternating group is generated by 3-cycles.

**Proposition 3.26.** Let  $n \ge 5$ , if a normal subgroup of  $A_n$  contains a 3-cycle, then it contains all 3-cycles.

*Proof.* It suffices to note that the 3 cycles form a conjugacy class that doesn't split from  $S_n$  to  $A_n$ . 

**Proposition 3.27.** The alternating group  $A_n$  is simple for  $n \ge 5$ . As a result,  $S_n$  is not solvable for  $n \ge 5$ .

#### **Product of Groups** 3.5

**Proposition 3.28.** Let N, H be normal subgroups of G, let [N, H] be the commutator of N, H, then

$$[N,H] \subset N \cap H$$

Thus if  $N \cap H = \{e\}$ , then N, H commute with each other.

A stronger statement is the following:

**Theorem 3.10.** Let N, H be normal subgroups of G, such that  $N \cap H = \{e\}$ , then

$$NH \cong N \times H$$

**Definition 3.9** (Split Short exact sequence). A short exact sequence of groups is a sequence:

$$1 \longrightarrow N \stackrel{\varphi}{\longrightarrow} G \stackrel{\psi}{\longrightarrow} H \longrightarrow 1$$

splits if *H* is identified with a subgroup of *G* such that

$$N \cap H = \{e\}$$

**Definition 3.10** (semidirect product). Let N be a normal subgroup, and let  $\theta: H \to \operatorname{Aut}(N)$ , then define an operator  $\cdot_{\theta}$  on  $N \times H$  as

$$(n_1, h_1) \cdot_{\theta} (n_2, h_2) = (n_1 \theta(h_1)(n_2), h_1 h_2)$$

The semidirect product of  $N \rtimes_{\theta} H$  is the group  $N \times H$  with operation  $\cdot_{\theta}$ .

**Proposition 3.29.** Let N, H be subgroups, and N is normal, suppose that  $N \cap H = \{e\}$ , and G = NH, then let  $\theta : H \to \operatorname{Aut}(N)$  be  $\theta \mapsto \theta_h$ , and

$$\theta_h(n) = nhn^{-1}$$

Then

$$G \cong N \rtimes_{\theta} H$$

(Recall that the operation defined on  $N \otimes_{\theta} H$  is  $(n_1, h_1) \cdot (n_2, h_2) = (n_1 \theta_{h_1}(n_2), h_1 h_2)$ ).

**Proposition 3.30.** Let G be a noncommutative group of order pq, then there is exactly one group up to isomorphism.

#### 3.6 Classification of Finite Abelian Groups

**Proposition 3.31.** Let G be abelian, let H, K be subgroups such that |H|, |N| are relatively prime, then

$$H+K\cong H\oplus K$$

*Proof.* Lagrange:  $N \cap H = \{e\}$ .

Proposition 3.32. Every finite abelian group is a direct sum of its nontrivial Sylow subgroups.

**Theorem 3.11.** If G is finite and abelian, then G is a direct sum of cyclic p-groups.

**Theorem 3.12.** Let G be finite nontrivial abelian group, then there exists prime integers  $p_1, \ldots, p_r$ , and positive integers  $n_{i(j)}$  such that

$$G = \bigoplus_{i,j} \frac{\mathbb{Z}}{p_i^{n_{i(j)}} \mathbb{Z}}$$

There exists positive integers  $1 < d_1 \mid \cdots \mid d_s$  such that  $|G| = d_1 \dots d_s$ , and

$$G\cong rac{\mathbb{Z}}{d_1\mathbb{Z}}\oplus\cdots\oplusrac{\mathbb{Z}}{d_s\mathbb{Z}}$$

Example 3.3. Finite abelian group of order 360 has 6 isomorphism classes.

**Theorem 3.13.** Let F be a field, and G be a finite subgroup of the multiplicative group  $(F^{\times}, \cdot)$ , then G is cyclic.

Proof. Hard proof. Don't torture yourself.

### **Ring Theory**

This corresponds to Aluffi Chapter III.

**Definition 4.1** (free action). An action by G is free if there exists  $x \in X$  such that qx = x then q = e.

**Definition 4.2** (faithful action). An action by G is faithful if gx = x for all  $x \in X$  implies that g = e.

**Definition 4.3** (zero-divisor). An element  $a \in R$  is a (left) zero-divisor if there exists  $b \neq 0$  such that

$$ab = 0$$

**Proposition 4.1.** In a ring R,  $a \in R$  is not a left zero-divisor if and only if the left multiplication by a is injective.

**Definition 4.4** (integral domain). An ID is a nonzero commutative ring such that for all  $a, b \in R$ ,

$$ab = 0$$

implies a=0 or b=0. In other words, IDs are commutative rings without zero divisors. Equivalently, if  $a,b\neq 0$ , then  $ab\neq 0$ .

#### **Proposition 4.2.** In a ring R:

- 1. u is left unit iff the left multiplication by u is surjective.
- 2. If *u* is a left unit, then the right multiplication by *u* is injective, i.e., *u* is not a right zero-divisor.

Notice that in a commutative ring, this means u is a unit iff multiplication by u is bijective.

**Definition 4.5** (division ring, field). A division ring is a ring in which every nonzero element is a unit. A field is a nonzero commutative ring in which every nonzero element is a unit.

**Proposition 4.3.** The group of units in  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  is exactly the group  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$ .

*Proof.* m is a unit iff multiplication by m is surjective, iff m generates  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ , iff  $m \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$ .

Definition 4.6 (Power Series Ring). The power series ring

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i x^i$$

is denoted by R[[x]].

**Definition 4.7** (Monoid Ring). Given a monoid *M* and a ring *R*, the elements

$$\sum_{m \in M} a_m \cdot m$$

where  $a_m \in R$  and  $a_m \neq 0$  for finitely many terms, forms a ring denoted as R[M].

**Proposition 4.4.** Assume R is a finite commutative ring, then R is an integral domain if and only if R is a field.

**Proposition 4.5.** End<sub>Ab</sub>( $\mathbb{Z}$ )  $\cong \mathbb{Z}$ , where End<sub>Ab</sub>(G) = Hom<sub>Ab</sub>(G, G) where G is abelian.

*Proof.*  $\varphi \mapsto \varphi(1)$ .

**Theorem 4.1.** Let I be a two-sided ideal of a ring R. Then for every ring homomorphism  $\varphi:R\to S$  such that  $I\subset\ker\varphi$  there exists a unique ring homomorphism  $\tilde\varphi:R/I\to S$  so that the diagram commutes:

**Theorem 4.2.** Let  $\varphi: R \to S$  be a surjective ring homomorphism, then

$$S \cong \frac{R}{\ker(\varphi)}$$

**Proposition 4.6.** Let I be an ideal of a ring R, and let J be an ideal of R containing I, then J/I is an ideal of R/I, and

$$\frac{R/I}{J/I} = \frac{R}{J}$$

**Definition 4.8** (Noetherian). A commutative ring R is Noetherian if every ideal of R is finitely generated. An ideal I is finitely generated if  $I = (a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ , i.e., every element in I can be written as

$$r_1a_1 + \cdots + r_na_n$$

for some  $r_1, \ldots, r_n \in R$ .

**Proposition 4.7.** Let  $\bar{b}$  be the class of b in R/(a), then

$$\frac{R/(a)}{(\bar{b})}\cong\frac{R}{(a,b)}$$

**Proposition 4.8.**  $\mathbb{Z}$  is a PID by taking the smallest positive element d in each ideal, obtaining (d).

**Definition 4.9.** *I* is a prime ideal if R/I is an integral domain, and is a maximal ideal if R/I is a field.

**Definition 4.10.** Let I, J be ideals of R, then IJ is the ideal **generated** by elements  $ij, i \in I, j \in J$ . Note that  $IJ \subset I \cap J$ .

Example 4.1. In  $\mathbb{Z}$ :

 $(4) \cap (3) = (12)$ 

and

 $(4) \cap (6) = (12)$ 

**Definition 4.11** (Long division). Let  $f(x) \in R[x]$  be monic, if  $g(x) \in R[x]$  be another polynomial, then there exists unique  $q, r \in R[x]$ , where  $\deg(r) < \deg(f)$ , such that

$$g(x) = f(x)q(x) + r(x)$$

Moreover,

$$g(x) + (f(x)) = r(x) + (f(x))$$

as cosets of (f(x)).

**Proposition 4.9.** Let I be an ideal of commutative R, if R/I is finite, then I is prime if and only if maximal.

**Proposition 4.10.** Let R be a PID, a nonzero ideal I is prime if and only if it is maximal.

Proof. Is simple proof, you just do it.

**Theorem 4.3.** Let R be commutative, let  $f(x) \in R[x]$  be a monic polynomial of degree d, then

$$\varphi: R[x] \to R^{\oplus d}$$

where

$$\varphi: g(x) \mapsto r(x)$$

where r(x) is the remainder g(x) = f(x)q(x) + r(x) induces an isomorphism of **groups**:

$$\frac{R[x]}{(f(x))} \cong R^{\oplus d}$$

**Ring Structure**: can be induced by the map  $\varphi$ .

**Example 4.2.** Let f(x) = x - a for some  $a \in R$ , then

$$\frac{R[x]}{(x-a)} \cong R$$

**Example 4.3.** Let  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ , then there is isomorphism of groups:

$$R \oplus R \cong \frac{R[x]}{(x^2+1)}$$

note that elements on the right are of the form  $a_0 + a_1x$ . One can give a ring structure on  $R \oplus R$  by  $\varphi$ .

**Example 4.4.** The ideal (2, x) is maximal in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ .

**Example 4.5.** The maximal ideals in  $\mathbb{C}[x]$  are precisely

$$(x-a)$$

where  $a \in \mathbb{C}$ .

**Definition 4.12** (Krull dimension). Let R be commutative, the Krull dimension is the length of the longest chain of prime ideals in R. For example, PIDs but not fields have Krull dimension 1.

$$(0) \subset (d)$$

has length 1.

Moreover,  $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  have Kruell dimension n:

$$(0) \subset (x_1) \subset (x_1, x_2) \subset \dots (x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

#### 4.1 Modules

**Definition 4.13** (module). A *R*-module *M* is an abelian group with a ring action, satisfying:

- 1. r(m+n) = rm + rn
- 2. (r+s)m = rm + sm
- 3. (rs)m = r(sm)
- 4. 1m = m.

A **submodule** *N* of *M* is an abelian group such that for all  $r \in R$ ,  $n \in N$ ,

$$rn \in N$$

A **homomorphism** of R-modules  $\varphi: M \to M'$  is such that

$$\begin{cases} \varphi(m+n) = \varphi(m) + \varphi(n) \\ \varphi(rm) = r\varphi(m) \end{cases}$$

4.2. FREE MODULES 19

Let R = k be a field, then R-modules are called vector spaces over k.

**Definition 4.14.** Let  $r \in M$  be in the center of M, then

$$rM = \{rm : m \in M\}$$

is a submodule of M. If I is an ideal of R, then

$$IM = \{ \sum_{i} r_i m_i : r \in I, m \in M \}$$

i.e., generated by  $rm, r \in I$  is a submodule.

**Example 4.6.** If R is not commutative, then R/I is not a ring, where I is a left ideal, but is defined as a left-module. The multiplication given by r(a + I) = ra + I.

**Definition 4.15.** An *R*-algebra is a ring with a ring *R* action.

**Theorem 4.4.** Suppose  $\varphi: M \to M'$  be a surjective R-module homomorphism, then

$$M' \cong \frac{M}{\ker \varphi}$$

**Proposition 4.11.** Let N be a submodule of an R-module M, and let P be a submodule of M containing N. Then P/N is a submodule of M/N, and

$$\frac{M/N}{P/N} \cong \frac{M}{P}$$

**Proposition 4.12.** Let N, P be submodules, then N+P is a submodule of M, and  $N\cap P$  is a submodule of P, and

$$\frac{N+P}{N}\cong \frac{P}{N\cap P}$$

#### 4.2 Free Modules

**Definition 4.16.** Let *A* be a set, then

$$F^R(A) \cong R^{\oplus A}$$

where  $F^R(A)$  denotes the free modules over A. Every element is written as

$$\sum_{a \in A} r_a a$$

(always a finite sum). We say a module  $M = \langle A \rangle$  is finitely generated if A is finite.

**Example 4.7.** Let  $R = \mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ , when R viewed as a R-module over itself, it is finitely generated (by 1), by the ideal

$$(x_1,x_2,\dots)$$

as an *R*-module, is not finitely generated.

**Definition 4.17** (Noetherian Modules). An R-module is Noetherian if every submodule of M is finitely generated as an R-module.

**Proposition 4.13.** Let M be an R-module, N be a submodule, then M is Noetherian iff N, M/N are both Noetherian.

**Definition 4.18** (finite, finite-type R-algebra). Let S be an R-algebra, it is called **finite** if it is finitely generated as an R-module; equivalently,

$$S \cong \frac{R^{\oplus n}}{M}$$

for some submodule M.

An *R*-algebra *S* is called **finite-type** if it is finitely generated as an *R*-algebra, i.e.,

$$S \cong \frac{R[x_1, \dots, x_n]}{I}$$

for some ideal I.

Elements in finite *R*-algebra is of the form:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i s_i$$

where  $S = \langle s_1, \dots, s_n \rangle$ . Elements in finite-type R-algebra is of the form:

$$r_{11}s_1 + r_{12}s_1^2 + \cdots + r_{21}s_2 + r_{22}s_2^2 + \cdots + r_{nk}s_n^k$$

**Proposition 4.14.** The polynomial ring R[x] is finite-type, not finite.

**Proposition 4.15.** Let R be a PID, and F be a finitely generated free module over R, and let  $M \subset F$  be a submodule, then M is free.

**Definition 4.19** (???). Let R be an integral domain, the rank of M is the maximal number of linearly independent elements of M.

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Definition 4.20 (SES, split). A sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow A \stackrel{f}{\longrightarrow} B \stackrel{g}{\longrightarrow} C \longrightarrow 0$$

is short exact iff f is injective, g is surjective, and

$$\ker(g) = \operatorname{im}(f)$$

A SES is said to **split** if it is isomorphic in a sense that the following diagram commutes:

### **Ring Theory II**

This corresponds to Aluffi Chapter V.

**Proposition 5.1.** Let R be commutative, and M be an R-module, then TFAE:

- 1. M is Noetherian.
- 2. *M* satisfies the **ascending chain condition**. (sequence of submodules.)
- 3. Every nonempty family of submodules has a maximal element with respect to inclusion.

*Proof.* Noetherian implies acc: given  $N_1 \subset N_2 \subset \ldots$ , then  $N = \bigcup_i N_i$  is finitely generated.

**Proposition 5.2** (Hilbert's basis theorem). Let R be a Noetherian ring, then  $R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  is Noetherian. This is the same as If R is Noetherian, then R[x] is also Noetherian.

**Proposition 5.3.** Let  $a, b \in R$ , then (a) = (b) iff a = ub for some unit u.

**Definition 5.1** (prime, irreducible elements). Let *R* be commutatie

- 1. Let R be an integral domain, an element  $a \in R$  is **prime** if the ideal (a) is prime.
- 2. An element  $a \in R$  is **irreducible** if a is not a unit and

$$a = bc$$

implies b is a unit or c is a unit. Equivalently, a is irreducible if  $(a) \subset (b)$  implies (b) = (a) or (b) = (1) = R, i.e., (a) is maximal in principal ideals.

Proposition 5.4. Let R be an integral domain, then

nonzero prime elements ⇒ irreducible

**Definition 5.2** (factorization).  $r \in R$  has a factorization if there exists **finite** irreducibles  $q_1, \ldots, q_n$  such that

$$r = q_1 \dots q_n$$

5.1. UFD, PID, ED 23

**Proposition 5.5.** Let R be an integral domain, and let r be a nonzero, nonunit element of R. Assume that every ascedning chain of principal ideals,

$$(r) \subset (r_1) \subset (r_2) \dots$$

stabilizes. Then r has a factorization into irreducibles.

Of course if a ring is ACC, then factorizations exist.

**Proposition 5.6.** Factorization exists in Noetherian rings.

**Example 5.1.** A non-Noetherian ring but factorization still exists:

$$\mathbb{Z}[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$$

**Proposition 5.7.** Let R be Noetherian and I be an ideal, then R/I is also Noetherian.

#### 5.1 UFD, PID, ED

**Definition 5.3** (gcd). Let  $a, b \in R$ , then the gcd of a, b is d such that (d) is the smallest principal ideal such that

$$(a,b)\subset (d)$$

**Proposition 5.8.** Let R ba UFD, and  $a, b, c \in R$  be nonzero, then

$$(a) \subset (b) \iff m(b) \subset m(a)$$

where m(a) is the multiset of irreducible factors of a. Moreover, the irreducible factors of bc are the collection of irreducible factors of b and c.

**Proposition 5.9.** Let R be a UFD, then gcd of any a, b exsits.

**Example 5.2.** There exists Noetherian rings that are not UFD.

$$\frac{\mathbb{C}[x,y,z,w]}{(xw-yz)}$$

since r = xw = yz.

**Proposition 5.10.** In UFD, *a* is irreducible implies *a* is prime.

*Proof.* Assume  $bc \in (a)$ , then  $(bc) \subset (a)$ , hence the multiset of irreducible factors of a is contained in the multiset of b, c, but a is irreducible implies that a must be among the factors of b or c.

Theorem 5.1. An integral domain R is a UFD if and only if

- 1. The acc holds for principal ideals in R.
- 2. Every irreducible element of R is prime.

**Proposition 5.11.** If R is a PID, and  $a, b \in R$ , then  $d = \gcd(a, b)$  iff (a, b) = (d). In other words, there exists  $r, s \in R$ , such that

$$d = ra + sb$$

Example 5.3. UFD but not PID:

$$\mathbb{Z}[x]$$

**Definition 5.4** (Euclidean domain). A Euclidean valuation on an integral domain R is an valuation: for all  $a \in R$ , and all nonzero  $b \in R$ , there exists q, r such that

$$a = qb + r$$

with either r = 0 or v(r) < v(b). An integral domain is a ED if it admits a Euclidean valuation.

#### 5.2 R(x) and Field of Fractions

**Theorem 5.2.** Let R be a UFD, then R[x] is also a UFD.

**Example 5.4.**  $\mathbb{Z}[x], \mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  are UFD.

**Definition 5.5** (Field of fractions). Let *R* be an integral domain, then the field of fractions is

$$\operatorname{Frac}(R) = \left\{ \frac{a}{r} : a, r \in R, r \neq 0 \right\}$$

where  $\frac{a}{r}$  is the equivalence given by  $\frac{a}{r} \sim \frac{b}{s} \iff as = br$ .

**Definition 5.6.** The field of fractions R[x] is the field of rational functions with coefficients in R: elements are of the form

$$\frac{p(x)}{q(x)}, q(x) \neq 0$$

denoted as R(x).

**Definition 5.7** (primitive). Let R be a UFD, f is primitive if and only if  $gcd(a_0, \ldots, a_d) = 1$ .

**Proposition 5.12.** Let R be a UFD, and K be its field of fractions, let  $f \in R[x]$  be a nonconstant, irreducible polynomial, then f is irreducible in K[x].

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#### 5.3 Irreducibility

**Proposition 5.13.** Let R be an ID, then  $f \in R[x]$  of degree d can have at most d roots.

This is not true for non-ID, for example,  $x^2 + 2$  over  $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Proposition 5.14.** Let k be a field, then  $f \in k[x]$  of degree 2 or 3 is irreducible iff it has no root in k.

**Example 5.5.**  $t^2 + t + 1$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{F}_2$  (therefore over  $\mathbb{Q}$ ).

**Proposition 5.15** (rational root theorem). Let R be a UFD, and K be its field of fractions, let

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n \in R[x]$$

if  $\frac{p}{q} \in K$  is a root,  $(\gcd(p,q) = 1)$ , then

p divides  $a_0, q$  divides  $a_n$ 

**Proposition 5.16.** Let k be a field, and  $f(t) \in k[t]$  be a nonzero irreducible polynomial. Then

$$F = \frac{k[t]}{(f(t))}$$

is a field, where k embeds into F. Moreover,  $f(x) \in k[x]$  has a root in F, which is

$$t + (f(t))$$

Proposition 5.17. A field is algebraically closed

k is algebraically closed  $\iff$  all irreducible polynomials in k[x] have degree 1

 $\iff$  every nonconstant polynoimal f factors completely into linear factors

 $\iff$  every nonconstant f has a root in k

**Proposition 5.18.** Finite fields are not algebraically closed. In other words, if a field k is algebraically closed, then it is infinite.

**Example 5.6.** The nonconstant irreducible polynomials of  $\mathbb{R}[x]$  are precisely those of degree 1 and quadratic  $f = ax^2 + bx + c$  where  $b^2 - 4ac < 0$ .

**Proposition 5.19.** Let  $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  be such that  $\gcd(a_0, \ldots, a_n) = 1$ , and let p be prime. If  $f \mod p$  has the same degree as f, and is irreducible over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ , then f is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Z}$ .



**Warning 5.3.** This is important! We can show a polynomial is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Z}$  by showing it is irreducible over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  for some p.

**Example 5.7.** There exists reducible polynomial over  $\mathbb{Z}$  but irreducible over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  for every prime p:  $x^4 + 1$ . (Hint: Legendre symbol).

**Proposition 5.20** (Generalized Eisenstein). Let R be a commutative ring, let p be a prime ideal in R, let  $f \in R[x]$ , assume that

- 1.  $a_n \notin p$ .
- $a_i \in p$ .
- 3.  $a_0 \notin p^2$

then f is not the product of polynomials with degree strictly less than deg(f).



Warning 5.4. Generalized Eisenstein works for commutative rings! Some examples:

$$\mathbb{C}[x,y], \frac{\mathbb{C}[x_1,x_2,x_3,x_4]}{(x_1x_2-x_3x_4)}$$

**Example 5.8.** For all n and all primes p, the polynomial  $x^n - p$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Example 5.9.** Let p be a prime, then the cyclotomic polynomial  $\Phi_p(x)$  is irreducible.

$$1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^{p-1}$$

Proof.

$$f(x) = \frac{x^p - 1}{x - 1}f(x + 1) = \frac{(x+1)^p - 1}{x}$$

We see that coefficients are now

$$\binom{p}{k}, k = 1, \dots, p - 1$$

hence p divides all but leading coefficient.

#### 5.4 CRT

**Theorem 5.5** (CRT). Let  $I_1, \ldots, I_k$  be ideals of R such that  $I_i + I_j = (1)$  for all  $i \neq j$ . Then

$$\frac{R}{I_1 \cap \dots \cap I_k} = \frac{R}{I_1 I_2 \dots I_k} \cong \frac{R}{I_1} \times \dots \times \frac{R}{I_k}$$

(It uses if  $I_i + I_j = (1)$ , then  $I_1 \dots I_k = I_1 \cap \dots \cap I_k$ ).

**Proposition 5.21** (CRT in PID). Let R be a PID, and let  $a_1, \ldots, a_k$  be elemnts such that  $gcd(a_i, g_j) = 1$ , let  $a = a_1 \ldots a_k$ , then

$$\frac{R}{(a)} \cong \frac{R}{(a_1)} \times \dots \times \frac{R}{(a_k)}$$

# Linear Algebra I

This corresponds to Aluffi Chapter VI.

### Field Theory

Aluffi Chapter VII.

**Proposition 7.1.** Any ring homomorphism from a field to a nonzero ring is injective.

**Definition 7.1** (finite field extension). A field extension  $k \subset F$  is finite, of degree n, if F has finite dimension  $\dim F = n$  as a vector space over k.

**Definition 7.2** (simple extension). A field extension  $k \subset F$  is simple if there exists an element  $\alpha \in F$  such that  $F = k(\alpha)$ .

For example, the extension  $\frac{K[t]}{(f(t))} = K(\alpha)$  for some  $f(\alpha) = 0$ .

**Proposition 7.2.** Let  $k \subset k(\alpha)$  be a simple extension, then consider the evaluation map

$$\varepsilon: f(t) \mapsto f(\alpha)$$

Then  $\varepsilon$  is not injective iff  $k(\alpha)$  is a finite extension, i.e., there exists a monic irreducible polynomial p such that

$$k(\alpha) = \frac{k[t]}{(p(t))}$$

**Definition 7.3.** Let  $k \subset F$  be an extension, then the group of automorphisms of this extension, denoted  $\operatorname{Aut}_k(F)$  is the group of automorphisms  $\varphi : F \to F$  that fixes k.

Corollary 7.1. Let  $k \subset k(\alpha)$ , and p(x) be the minimal polynomial over k, then

$$|\operatorname{Aut}_k(k(\alpha))| = \operatorname{number} \operatorname{of} \operatorname{distinct} \operatorname{roots} \operatorname{of} p \operatorname{in} k(\alpha)$$

and

$$|\operatorname{Aut}_k(k(\alpha))| \leq [k(\alpha):k]$$

with equality if and only if p(x) factors over  $k(\alpha)$  as a product of distinct linear factors.

**Proposition 7.3.** Let  $k \subset F$  be finite, then it is also an algebraic extension, where for any  $\alpha \in F$ ,

$$[k(\alpha):k] \leq [F:k]$$

**Proposition 7.4.** Let  $k \subset E \subset F$  be field extensions, then  $k \subset F$  is finite iff both E/k and F/E are finite, in this case

$$[F:k] = [F:E][E:k]$$

**Corollary 7.2.** Let  $k \subset F$  be finite, and E be an intermediate field, then both [E:k], [F:E] divide [F:k].

**Definition 7.4.** A field ext  $k \subset F$  is finitely generated if there exists  $\{\alpha_i\} \subset F$  such that

$$F = k(\alpha_1) \dots (\alpha_n)$$

**Proposition 7.5.** Let  $k \subset k(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$  be finitely generated, then  $k \subset F$  is algebraic implies that  $k \subset F$  is finite.

Corollary 7.3. Let  $k \subset F$  be a field extension, then

$$E = \{ \alpha \in F : \alpha \text{ is algebraic over } k \}$$

is a field extension over k.

Corollary 7.4. Let  $k \subset E \subset F$ , then  $k \subset F$  is algebraic iff both  $k \subset E$  and  $E \subset F$  are algebraic.

**Definition 7.5.** Let  $f(x) \in k[x]$  be a polynomial of degree d, the splitting field of f over k

$$F = k(\alpha_1) \dots (\alpha_d)$$

generated by all roots of f, i.e., such that f splits into linear factors over F.

**Proposition 7.6.** Splitting field of f is unique up to isomorphisms, and

$$[F:k] \leq (\deg(f))!$$

**Definition 7.6.** A field extension  $k \subset F$  is normal if every irred polynomial f has a root in F iff f splits into product of linear factors over F.

**Proposition 7.7** (normal). A field extension  $k \subset F$  is **finite and normal** iff F is the splitting feild of some polynomial  $f \in k[x]$ .

**Definition 7.7.** Let k be a field,  $f \in k[x]$  is separable if it has no multiple factors over its splitting field.

**Proposition 7.8.** Let  $f \in k[x]$ , then f is separable iff f, f' are relatively prime. If it is inseparable, then f' = 0.

**Definition 7.8.** Let k be a field of characteristic p, the map from  $k \to k$  such that  $x \mapsto x^p$  is a homomrophism (Frobenius).

A field is perfect if char(k) = 0 or the Frobenius map is surjective.

**Proposition 7.9.** k is perfect iff irred polynomial in k[x] are separable.

Corollary 7.5. Finite fields are perfect, i.e., irred polynomials are separable.

#### 7.1 Finite fields

**Definition 7.9.** Let F be a finite field of characteristic p, then F is an extension of  $\mathbb{F}_p$ , i.e.,

$$F = \mathbb{F}_{p^d}$$

for some  $d \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .

Theorem 7.1. The polynomial

$$x^{p^d} - x$$

is separable over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ , and the splitting field of  $x^{q^d}-x$  over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  is a field with  $q^d$  elements. Conversely, let F be a field with  $p^d$  elements, then F is the splitting field of

$$x^{q^d} - x$$

over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ .

Corollary 7.6. For every  $p^d$  for some d, ther exists only one finite field of order  $p^d$  up to isomorphisms. This is the Galois field of order  $p^d$ .

Corollary 7.7.  $\mathbb{F}_{p^d} \subset \mathbb{F}_{p^e}$  iff  $d \mid e$ .

Corollary 7.8. Let  $F = \mathbb{F}_q$ , then

$$x^{q^n} - n$$

factors over  $\mathbb{F}_q$  as irreducible polynomials of degree d, where d ranges over all divisors of n. These polynomials factor completely over  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}$ .

**Theorem 7.2.** Aut<sub> $\mathbb{F}_p$ </sub>( $\mathbb{F}_{p^d}$ ) is cyclic, generated by the Frobenius isomorphism.

#### 7.2 Cyclotomic

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**Definition 7.10.** Polynomial

$$\Phi_n(x) = \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (x - \xi_n^i)$$

is called the nth cyclotomic polynomial.

**Proposition 7.10.** If n = p is prime, then

$$\Phi_p(x) = x^{p-1} + \dots + x + 1 = \frac{x^p - 1}{x - 1}$$

For all positive integers n, we have

$$x^n - 1 = \pi_{1 < d|n} \Phi_d(x)$$

**Proposition 7.11.** For all positive n,  $\Phi_n(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

**Definition 7.11.** The splitting field  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)$  for  $x^n - 1 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  is the nth cyclotomic field.

**Proposition 7.12.** Aut<sub> $\mathbb{Q}$ </sub>( $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)$ ) is isomorphic to the group  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$ 

**Proposition 7.13.** An algebraic extension  $k \subset F$  is simple iff the number of distinct intermediate fields  $k \subset E \subset F$  is finite.

**Theorem 7.3.** Every finite separable is simple.

One should draw diagrams

$$k - E - F$$

and

$$\operatorname{Aut}_k(F) - \operatorname{Aut}_E(F) - \{e\}$$

each extension (reversely) corresponds to a subgroup that fixes that extension in the Galois group Gal(F/k).

Theorem 7.4. Let  $k \subset F$  be Galois, then  $k \subset E \subset F$ ,  $k \subset E$  is Galois iff  $\operatorname{Aut}_E(F)$  is normal in  $\operatorname{Gal}(F/k)$ , in this case,

$$\operatorname{Gal}(E/k) \cong \frac{\operatorname{Gal}(F/k)}{\operatorname{Gal}(F/E)}$$

**Definition 7.12** (discriminant). The discriminant of f, separable, irreducible is

$$D(f) = \Delta^2 f = \prod_{1 \le i < j \le n} (\alpha_i - \alpha_j)^2$$

**Proposition 7.14.** Let k be field of char not equal to 2, and f is separable, with discriminant D. Then the Galois group of f is contained in  $A_n$  iff D is a square in k.

(We note that  $\Delta$  is fixed by the Galois group G iff  $G \subset A_n$ )

**Proposition 7.15.** Let  $f \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  be irred of degree p, assume that f has p-2 real roots and p-2 real roots are real roots.

**Theorem 7.5.** Every finite abelian group is the Galois group of some extension F over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

More specifically, every finite abelian group G is the group of some intermediate field of the extension  $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{Q}(\xi_n)$  in a cyclotomic field.

*Proof.* Classification:

$$G \cong \frac{\mathbb{Z}}{n_1 \mathbb{Z}} \times \dots \times \frac{\mathbb{Z}}{n_r \mathbb{Z}}$$

Choose distinct  $p_i$  such that  $p_i \equiv 1 \mod n_i$ . Let  $n = p_1 \dots p_r$ , by CRT

$$(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times} \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p_1\mathbb{Z})^{\times} \times \cdots \times (\mathbb{Z}/p_r\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$$

Then  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$  has a subgroup H such that

$$G \cong \frac{\left(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}\right)^{\times}}{H}$$

Since  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times} \cong \operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n))$ , H corresponds to an intermediate field F, where

$$\mathbb{Q} \subset F \subset \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)$$

H is automatically normal, hence  $Q \subset F$  is Galois and

$$Gal(F/\mathbb{Q}) = G$$

# Linear Algebra II

This corresponds to Aluffi Chapter VIII.

# **Field Theory**

This corresponds to Aluffi Chapter VII.

## **Representation Theory of Finite Groups**

Let k be a field and G be a finite group, a representation  $\rho:G\to \mathrm{GL}(V)$  is such that

$$\rho(g_1g_2) = \rho(g_1) \circ \rho(g_2)$$

And V is a k[G]-module, i.e., elements in k[G] are of the form

$$\sum_{g \in G} a_g g$$

and they act on V by

$$\left(\sum_{g \in G} a_g g\right) \cdot v = \sum_{g \in G} a_g \left(\rho(g)(v)\right)$$

# Semisimple Algebra