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 $\sigma \in S_n$, σ 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 σ 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 σ in S_n splits into two conjugacy classes in A_n precisely if the type of σ consists of distinct odd numbers; or equivalently, the centralizer of σ 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_{θ} 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_{θ} .

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_{Ab}(\mathbb{Z}) $\cong \mathbb{Z}$, where End_{Ab}(G) = Hom_{Ab}(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 φ .

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 φ .

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

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

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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.

4.2. FREE MODULES 21

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 N be a submodule of M, where M is finitely generated, let $\langle m_1, \ldots, m_k \rangle$ be the elements whose cosets generate M/N, then

$$M = N + \langle m_1, \dots, m_k \rangle$$

Proof. This is the same proof that if N, M/N are finitely generated, then M is.

Proposition 5.2. 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 5.3 (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 5.4. 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.

5.1. UFD, PID, ED 23

Proposition 5.5. Let R be an integral domain, then

nonzero prime elements \Rightarrow irreducible

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

$$r = q_1 \dots q_n$$

Proposition 5.6. 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 5.7. Factorization exists in Noetherian rings.

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

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

Proposition 5.8. 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 5.9. Let R be 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 5.10. 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 5.11. 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 5.12. 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).

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

Proposition 5.13. 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].

5.3 Irreducibility

Proposition 5.14. 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 5.15. 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 5.16 (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 5.17. 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 5.18. 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 5.19. 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 5.20. 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 5.21 (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 $I_1 \dots I_k = I_1 \cap \dots \cap I_k$).

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Proposition 5.22 (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, excluding Section 4-5.

6.1 basis, free modules, IBN

Proposition 6.1 (Zorn's). Every module M has maximal linealry independent set. In other words, let $S \subset M$ be a linearly independent subset. Then there exists a maximal linealry independent subset of M containing S.

Definition 6.1 (basis). A subset $S \subset M$ is a basis if it is linearly independent and generates M. Every element in M can be written as

$$m = \sum_{s_i \in S} r_i s_i$$

where only finitely many terms are nonzero.

 $((2) \subset \mathbb{Z} \text{ is maximal but not a basis}).$

Proposition 6.2. Regarding basis,

- 1. An *R*-module *M* is free iff it admits a basis. (Any vector space is free as a *k*-module).
- 2. The converse holds when R=k: let B be a maximal linearly independent subset of M=V, then B is a basis.
- 3. When R = k, let S be a linearly independent subset, then there exists a basis B of V containing S. If B is a minimal generating set for V, then B is also a basis.

Proposition 6.3. Let R be an **integral domain**, and M a free R-module, let B be a maximal linearly independent subset of M. If S is any independent subset, then

$$|S| \leq |B|$$

Example 6.1. The basis $\mathbb{C}[x]$ over \mathbb{C} is $\{1, x, \dots\}$, hence an uncountable subset of $\mathbb{C}[x]$ is necessarily linearly dependent.

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Proposition 6.4. Let R be an **integral domain**, let m, n be nonnegative integers,

$$R^m \cong R^n \iff m = n$$

If R satisfies the above, we say it satisfies the invariant basis number property. (All commutative rings satisfy this)!

Definition 6.2 (rank of a module). Let R be an integral domain, the rank of a free module M is the size of the maximal linearly independent subset of M.

Proposition 6.5. Let R be an integral domain, and let M be a free R-module, assume that M is generated by S: $M = \langle S \rangle$, then S contains a maximal linearly independent subset of M.

6.2 Homomorphisms $R^n \to R^m$

Proposition 6.6. Let $\alpha: M \to N$ be a homomrophism of finitely generated modules, and let P be a matrix representing it wrt any basis of M, N, then with respect to any other choice of bases of M, N, α is of the form

$$N_1 \cdot P \cdot N_2$$

where N_1 , N_2 are invertible matrices.

Proposition 6.7. Two matrices $P,Q \in M_n(R)$ are equivalent if they are the same up to elementary operations, i.e., iff the same up to multiplications by elementary matrices. In other words, M,N are equivalent if there exists invertible P_1,P_2 such that

$$M = P_1 N P_2$$

Example 6.2. The matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0
\end{pmatrix}$$

interchanges the second and fourth row of a $4 \times n$ matrix. Multiplying on the right by

$$\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & c \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix}$$

adds to the third column of a $m \times 3$ matrix the c-multiple of the first column.

Proposition 6.8. Let k be a field, then $GL_n(k)$ is generated by elementary matrices!

Proposition 6.9. Over a field, every $m \times n$ matrix is equivalent to a matrix is equivalent to a matrix of the form:

$$\begin{pmatrix} I_r & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

In other words, up to multiplying some invertible matrix N_1 , N_2 on the left and right, every matrix is of the above form.

Definition 6.3 (adjoint matrix). Let M be an $n \times n$ matrix, the adjoint matrix adj(A) is such that

$$A \cdot \operatorname{adj}(A) = \operatorname{adj}(A)A = \det(A)I_n$$

Proposition 6.10 (Nakayama's lemma). (Different versions of the same lemma).

1. Let R be a commutative ring, M and R-module, and let $a \in R$ be a nilpotent element, then

$$M = 0 \iff aM = M$$

2. Let J be the Jacobson radical of R, where M is finitely generated R-module. If M = JM + N, then M = N. (A special case is when R is a local ring and $\mathfrak{m} = J$).

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 ε 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.

7.1. FINITE FIELDS 33

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_{\mathbb{F}_p}(\mathbb{F}_{p^d}) is cyclic, generated by the Frobenius isomorphism.

7.2 Cyclotomic

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

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

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 *n*th cyclotomic field.

Proposition 7.12. Aut_{\mathbb{Q}}($\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)$) 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 $Aut_E(F)$ is normal in 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 Δ is fixed by the Galois group G iff $G \subset A_n$)

7.2. CYCLOTOMIC 35

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-Hilbert's Nullstellensatz

This corresponds to Aluffi Chapter VII 2.2-2.3.

Proposition 9.1. For a field *K*, TFAE:

- 1. *K* is algebraically closed.
- 2. There is no algebraic extension over K except for the trivial one.
- 3. If $K \subset L$ is any extension, and $\alpha \in L$ is algebraic over K, then $\alpha \in K$.

Definition 9.1 (algebraic closure). An algebraic closure of a field k is the algebraic extension such that \bar{k} is algebraically closed.

Proposition 9.2 (Hilbert's Nullstellensatz). Recall that if K is algebraically closed, then every maximal ideal in K[x] is of the form $(x - \alpha), \alpha \in K$.

Proposition 9.3. Let K be algebraically closed, and $I \subset K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ be an ideal, then I is maximal iff

$$I = (x_1 - c_1, \dots, x_n - c_n)$$

for some $c_1, \ldots, c_n \in K$.

Proposition 9.4 (normal basis theorem). Let $k \subset K$ be a Galois extension of degree n, let $\{\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n\}$ be the elements of the Galois group, then there exists $w \in K$ such that

$$\{\sigma_1(w),\ldots,\sigma_n(w)\}$$

forms a basis of K over k.

Representation Theory of Finite Groups

Let *k* be a field and *G* be a finite group, a representation $\rho: G \to GL(V)$ 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