

PMATH347S18 - Groups & Rings

Johnson Ng

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Foreword

Usage

- Notes are presented in two columns: main notes on the left, and sidenotes on the right. Main notes will have a larger margin.
- The following is the color code for the notes:

Blue	Definitions
Red	Important points
Yellow	Points to watch out for / comment for incompleteness
Green	External definitions, theorems, etc.
Light Blue	Regular highlighting
Brown	Secondary highlighting
- The following is the color code for boxes, that begin and end with a line of the same color:

Blue	Definitions
Red	Warning
Yellow	Notes, remarks, etc.
Brown	Proofs
Magenta	Theorems, Propositions, Lemmas, etc.
- Hyperlinks are underlined in magenta. If your PDF reader supports it, you can follow the links to either be redirected to an external website, or a theorem, definition, etc., in the same document. Note that this is only reliable if you have the full set of notes as a single document, which you can find on:
https://japorized.github.io/TeX_notes

1 Lecture 1 May 02nd 2018

1.1 Introduction

1.1.1 Numbers

The following are some of the number sets that we are already familiar with:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{N} &= \{1, 2, 3, \dots\} & \mathbb{Z} &= \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\} \\ \mathbb{Q} &= \left\{ \frac{a}{b} : a \in \mathbb{Z}, b \in \mathbb{N} \right\} & \mathbb{R} &= \text{set of real numbers} \\ \mathbb{C} &= \{a + bi : a, b \in \mathbb{R}, i = \sqrt{-1}\} = \text{set of complex numbers}\end{aligned}$$

For $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, let \mathbb{Z}_n denote the set of integers modulo n , i.e.

$$\mathbb{Z}_n = \{[0], [1], \dots, [n-1]\}$$

where the $[r]$, $0 \leq r \leq n-1$, are the congruence classes, i.e.

$$[r] = \{z \in \mathbb{Z} : z \equiv r \pmod{n}\}$$

These sets share some common properties, e.g. $+$ and \times . Let's try to break that down to make further observation.

NOTE THAT for $R = \mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$, or \mathbb{Z}_n , R has 2 operations, i.e. addition and multiplication.

Addition If $r_1, r_2, r_3 \in R$, then

- (**closure**) $r_1 + r_2 \in R$
- (**associativity**) $r_1 + (r_2 + r_3) = (r_1 + r_2) + r_3$

Also, if $R \neq \mathbb{N}$, then $\exists 0 \in R$ (the **additive identity**) such that

$$\forall r \in R \quad r + 0 = r = 0 + r.$$

Also, $\forall r \in R, \exists (-r) \in R$ such that

$$r + (-r) = 0 = (-r) + r.$$

Multiplication For $r_1, r_2, r_3 \in R$, we have

- (**closure**) $r_1 r_2 \in R$
- (**associativity**) $r_1(r_2 r_3) = (r_1 r_2)r_3$

Also, $\exists 1 \in R$ (a.k.a the **multiplicative identity**), such that

$$\forall r \in R \quad r \cdot 1 = r = 1 \cdot r.$$

Finally, for $R = \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}$, or \mathbb{C} , $\forall r \in R, \exists r^{-1} \in R$ such that

$$r \cdot r^{-1} = 1 = r^{-1} \cdot r.$$

Note that for $R = \mathbb{Z}_n$, where $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, not all $[r] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ have a multiplicative inverse. For example, for $[2] \in \mathbb{Z}_4$, there is no $[x] \in \mathbb{Z}_4$ such that $[2][x] = [1]$.¹

¹ This is best proven using techniques introduced in MATH135/145.

1.1.2 Matrices

For $n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{1\}$, an $n \times n$ matrix over \mathbb{R} ² is an $n \times n$ array that can be expressed as follows:

$$A = [a_{ij}] = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

where for $1 \leq i, j \leq n, a_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$. We denote $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ as the set of all $n \times n$ matrices over \mathbb{R} .

As in Section 1.1.1, we can perform **addition and multiplication** on $M_n(\mathbb{R})$.

² \mathbb{R} can be replaced by \mathbb{Q} or \mathbb{C} .

Matrix Addition Given $A = [a_{ij}], B = [b_{ij}], C = [c_{ij}] \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$, we define matrix addition as

$$A + B = [a_{ij} + b_{ij}],$$

which immediately gives the **closure property**, since $a_{ij} + b_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$ and hence $A + B \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$. Also, by this definition, we also immediately obtain the **associativity property**, i.e.

$$A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C.$$

We define the zero matrix as

$$0 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then we have that 0 is the **additive identity**, i.e.

$$A + 0 = A = 0 + A.$$

Finally, $\forall A \in M_n(\mathbb{R}), \exists (-A) \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ (the **additive inverse**) such that

$$A + (-A) = 0 = (-A) + A.$$

Note that in this case, we also have that the operation is **commutative**, i.e.

$$A + B = B + A.$$

Matrix Multiplication Given $A = [a_{ij}], B = [b_{ij}], C = [c_{ij}] \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$, we define the matrix multiplication as

$$AB = [d_{ij}] \text{ where } d_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}b_{kj} \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Clearly, $AB \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$, i.e. it is **closed under matrix multiplication**. Also, we have that, under such a definition, matrix multiplication is **associative**, i.e.

$$A(BC) = (AB)C.$$

Define the identity matrix, $I \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$, as follows:

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then we have that I is the **multiplicative identity**, since

$$AI = A = IA.$$

However, contrary to matrix addition, $\forall A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$, it is not always true that $\exists A^{-1} \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ such that

$$AA^{-1} = I = A^{-1}A.$$

This is especially true if the **determinant** of A is 0.

Also, we can always find some $A, B \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ such that

$$AB \neq BA,$$

i.e. matrix multiplication is not always commutative.

THE COMMON PROPERTIES of the operations from above: **closure, associativity, and existence of an inverse**, are not unique to just addition and multiplication. We shall see in the next lecture that there are other operations where these properties will continue to hold, e.g. **permutations**.

2 Lecture 2 May 04th 2018

2.1 Introduction (Continued)

2.1.1 Permutations

Definition 1 (Injectivity)

Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a function. We say that f is *injective* (or *one-to-one*) if $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ implies $x_1 = x_2$.

Definition 2 (Surjectivity)

Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a function. We say that f is *surjective* (or *onto*) if $\forall y \in Y \exists x \in X f(x) = y$.

Definition 3 (Bijectivity)

Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a function. We say that f is *bijective* if it is both *injective* and *surjective*.

Definition 4 (Permutations)

Given a non-empty set L , a permutation of L is a bijection from L to L . The set of all permutations of L is denoted by S_L .

Example 2.1.1

Consider the set $L = \{1, 2, 3\}$, which has the following 6 different permutations:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Note

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

indicates the bijection $\sigma : \{1, 2, 3\} \rightarrow \{1, 2, 3\}$ with $\sigma(1) = 1$, $\sigma(2) = 3$ and $\sigma(3) = 2$.

For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we denote $S_n := S_{\{1, 2, \dots, n\}}$, the set of all permutations of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. Example 2.1.1 shows the elements of the set S_3 .

Definition 5 (Order)

The **order** of a set A , denoted by $|A|$, is the cardinality of the set.

Example 2.1.2

We have seen that the order of S_3 , $|S_3|$ is $6 = 3!$.

Proposition 1

$$|S_n| = n!$$

Proof

$\forall \sigma \in S_n$, there are n choices for $\sigma(1)$, $n - 1$ choices for $\sigma(2)$, ..., 2 choices for $\sigma(n - 1)$, and finally 1 choice for $\sigma(n)$. \square

Do elements of S_n share the same properties as what we've seen in the numbers? Given $\sigma, \tau \in S_n$, we can **compose** the 2 together to get a third element in S_n , namely $\sigma\tau$ (wlog), where $\sigma\tau : \{1, \dots, n\} \rightarrow \{1, \dots, n\}$ is given by $\forall x \in \{1, \dots, n\}, x \mapsto \sigma(\tau(x))$.

It is important to note that $\because \sigma, \tau$ are **both bijective**, $\sigma\tau$ is also bijective. Thus, together with the fact that $\sigma\tau : \{1, \dots, n\} \rightarrow \{1, \dots, n\}$, we have that $\sigma\tau \in S_n$ by definition of S_n .

$\therefore \forall \sigma, \tau \in S_n, \sigma\tau, \tau\sigma \in S_n$, but $\sigma\tau \neq \tau\sigma$ in general. The following is an example of the stated case:

Example 2.1.3

Let

$$\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ and } \tau = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Compute $\sigma\tau$ and $\tau\sigma$ to show that they are not equal.

Solution

$$\sigma\tau = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \text{ but } \tau\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

Perhaps what is interesting is the question of: **when does commutativity occur?** One such case is when σ and τ have support sets that are disjoint¹.

¹ This is proven in A1

On the other hand, the associative property holds², i.e.

²

$$\forall \sigma, \tau, \mu \in S_n \quad \sigma(\tau\mu) = (\sigma\tau)\mu$$

Exercise 2.1.1

Prove this as an exercise.

The set S_n also has an identity element³, namely

³

$$\varepsilon = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \dots & n \\ 1 & 2 & \dots & n \end{pmatrix}$$

Exercise 2.1.2

Verify that the given identity element is indeed the identity, i.e.

$$\forall \sigma \in S_n \quad \sigma\varepsilon = \sigma = \varepsilon\sigma.$$

Finally, $\forall \sigma \in S_n$, since σ is a bijection, we have that its inverse function, σ^{-1} is also a bijection, and thus satisfies the requirements to be in S_n . We call $\sigma^{-1} \in S_n$ to be the **inverse permutation** of σ , such that

$$\forall x, y \in \{1, \dots, n\} \quad \sigma^{-1}(x) = y \iff \sigma(y) = x.$$

It follows, immediately, that

$$\sigma(\sigma^{-1}(x)) = x \wedge \sigma^{-1}(\sigma(y)) = y.$$

\therefore We have that

$$\sigma\sigma^{-1} = \varepsilon = \sigma^{-1}\sigma.$$

Example 2.1.4

Find the inverse of

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

Solution

By rearranging the image in ascending order, using them now as the object and their respective objects as their image, construct

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

It can easily (although perhaps not so prettily) be shown that

$$\sigma\tau = \varepsilon = \tau\sigma.$$

With all the above, we have for ourselves the following proposition:

Proposition 2 (Properties of S_n)

We have⁴

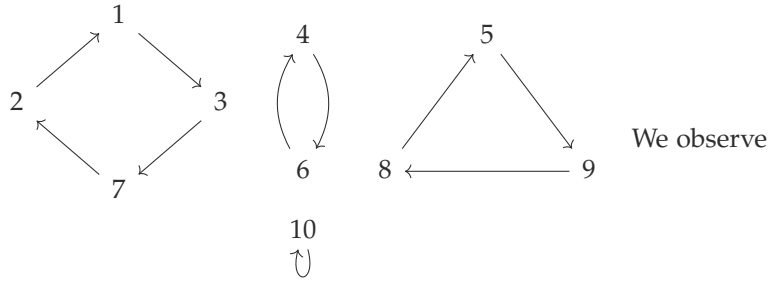
⁴ These properties show that S_n is a group, which will be defined later.

1. $\forall \sigma, \tau \in S_n \quad \sigma\tau, \tau\sigma \in S_n.$
 2. $\forall \sigma, \tau, \mu \in S_n \quad \sigma(\tau\mu) = (\sigma\tau)\mu.$
 3. $\exists \varepsilon \in S_n \quad \forall \sigma \in S_n \quad \sigma\varepsilon = \sigma = \varepsilon\sigma.$
 4. $\forall \sigma \in S_n \quad \exists! \sigma^{-1} \in S_n \quad \sigma\sigma^{-1} = \varepsilon = \sigma^{-1}\sigma.$
-

CONSIDER

$$\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 \\ 3 & 1 & 7 & 6 & 9 & 4 & 2 & 5 & 8 & 10 \end{pmatrix} \in S_{10}$$

If we represent the action of σ geometrically, we get



that σ can be **decomposed** into one 4-cycle, $(1 \ 3 \ 7 \ 2)$, one 2-cycle, $(4 \ 6)$, one 3-cycle, $(5 \ 9 \ 8)$, and one 1-cycle, (10) .

Note that these cycles are (pairwise) **disjoint**, and we can write⁵

$$\sigma = (1 \ 3 \ 7 \ 2) (4 \ 6) (5 \ 9 \ 8)$$

Note that we may also write

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma &= (4 \ 6) (5 \ 9 \ 8) (1 \ 3 \ 7 \ 2) \\ &= (6 \ 4) (9 \ 8 \ 5) (7 \ 2 \ 1 \ 3) \end{aligned}$$

It is interesting to note that the cycles can rotate their “elements” in a **cyclic** manner, i.e.

$$(1 \ 3 \ 7 \ 2) = (7 \ 2 \ 1 \ 3) \neq (1 \ 2 \ 7 \ 3).$$

Although the decomposition of the cycle notation is not unique (i.e. you may rearrange them), each individual cycle is unique, and is proven below⁶.

⁵ We generally do not include the 1-cycle and assume that by excluding them, it is known that any number that is supposed to appear loops back to themselves.

⁶ See bonus question of A1. Proof will be included in the notes once the assignment is over.

Theorem 3 (Cycle Decomposition Theorem)

If $\sigma \in S_n$, $\sigma \neq \varepsilon$, then σ is a product of (one or more) disjoint cycles of length at least 2. This factorization is unique up to the order of the factors.

Note (Convention)

Every permutation in S_n can be regarded as a permutation of S_{n+1} by fixing the permutation of $n+1$. Therefore, we have that

$$S_1 \subseteq S_2 \subseteq \dots \subseteq S_n \subseteq S_{n+1} \subseteq \dots$$

3 Lecture 3 May 07th 2018

3.1 Groups

3.1.1 Groups

Definition 6 (Groups)

Let G be a set and $*$ an operation on $G \times G$. We say that $G = (G, *)$ is a **group** if it satisfies¹

1. **Closure**: $\forall a, b \in G \quad a * b \in G$
2. **Associativity**: $\forall a, b, c \in G \quad a * (b * c) = (a * b) * c$
3. **Identity**: $\exists e \in G \quad \forall a \in G \quad a * e = a = e * a$
4. **Inverse**: $\forall a \in G \quad \exists b \in G \quad a * b = e = b * a$

¹ If you wonder why the uniqueness is not specified for **Identity** and **Inverse**, see Proposition 4.

Definition 7 (Abelian Group)

A group G is said to be abelian if $\forall a, b \in G$, we have $a * b = b * a$.

Proposition 4 (Group Identity and Group Element Inverse)

Let G be a group and $a \in G$.

1. The identity of G is unique.
2. The inverse of a is unique.

Proof

1. If $e_1, e_2 \in G$ are both identities of G , then we have

$$e_1 \stackrel{(1)}{=} e_1 * e_2 \stackrel{(2)}{=} e_2$$

where (1) is because e_2 is an identity and (2) is because e_1 is an identity.

2. Let $a \in G$. If $b_1, b_2 \in G$ are both the inverses of a , then we have

$$b_1 = b_1 * e = b_1 * (a * b_2) \stackrel{(1)}{=} e * b_2 = b_2$$

where (1) is by associativity.

Example 3.1.1

The sets $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$, $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$, $(\mathbb{R}, +)$, and $(\mathbb{C}, +)$ are all abelian, where the additive identity is 0, and the additive inverse of an element r is $(-r)$.

Note

$(\mathbb{N}, +)$ is not a group for neither does it have an identity nor an inverse for any of its elements.

Example 3.1.2

The sets (\mathbb{Q}, \cdot) , (\mathbb{R}, \cdot) and (\mathbb{C}, \cdot) are **not** groups, since 0 has no multiplicative inverse in \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} .

We may define that for a set S , let $S^* \subseteq S$ contain all the elements of S that has a multiplicative inverse. For example, $\mathbb{Q}^* = \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}$. Then, (\mathbb{Q}, \cdot) , (\mathbb{R}, \cdot) and (\mathbb{C}, \cdot) are groups and are in fact abelian, where the multiplicative identity is 1 and the multiplicative of an element r is $\frac{1}{r}$.

Example 3.1.3

The set $(M_n(\mathbb{R}), +)$ is an abelian group, where the additive identity is the zero matrix, $0 \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$, and the additive inverse of an element $M =$

$[a_{ij}] \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ is $-M = [-a_{ij}] \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$.

CONSIDER the set $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ under the matrix multiplication operation that we have introduced in Lecture 1 May 02nd 2018. We found that the identity matrix is

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \in M_n(\mathbb{R}).$$

But since not all elements of $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ have a multiplicative inverse², $(M_n(\mathbb{R}), \cdot)$ is not a group.

² The multiplicative inverse of a matrix does not exist if its determinant is 0.

WE CAN TRY to do something similar as to what we did before: by excluding the elements that do not have an inverse. In this case, we exclude elements whose determinant is 0. We define the following set

Definition 8 (General Linear Group)

The *general linear group of degree n over \mathbb{R}* is defined as

$$GL_n(\mathbb{R}) := \{M \in M_n(\mathbb{R}) : \det M \neq 0\}$$

Note that $\because \det I = 1 \neq 0$, we have that $I \in GL_n(\mathbb{R})$.

Also, $\forall A, B \in GL_n(\mathbb{R})$, we have that $\because \det A \neq 0 \wedge \det B \neq 0$,

$$\det AB = \det A \det B \neq 0,$$

and therefore $AB \in GL_n(\mathbb{R})$. Finally, $\forall M \in GL_n(\mathbb{R})$, $\exists M^{-1} \in GL_n(\mathbb{R})$ such that

$$MM^{-1} = I = M^{-1}M$$

since $\det M \neq 0$. $\therefore (GL_n(\mathbb{R}), \cdot)$ is a group.

SINCE we have introduced permutations in Lecture 2 May 04th 2018, we shall formalize the purpose of its introduction below.

Example 3.1.4

Consider S_n , the set of all permutations on $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. By Proposition 2, we know that S_n is a group. We call S_n the **symmetry group of degree n** . For $n \geq 3$, the group S_n is not abelian³.

³ Let us make this an exercise.

Exercise 3.1.1

For $n \geq 3$, prove that the group S_n is not abelian.

NOW THAT we have a fairly good idea of the basic concept of a group, we will now proceed to look into handling multiple groups. One such operation is known as the **direct product**.

Example 3.1.5

Let G and H be groups. Their direct product is the set $G \times H$ with the component-wise operation defined by

$$(g_1, h_1) * (g_2, h_2) = (g_1 *_G g_2, h_1 *_H h_2)$$

where $g_1, g_2 \in G$, $h_1, h_2 \in H$, $*_G$ is the operation on G , and $*_H$ is the operation on H .

The **closure** and **associativity** property follow immediately from the definition of the operation. The identity is $(1_G, 1_H)$ where 1_G is the identity of G and 1_H is the identity of H . The inverse of an element $(g_1, h_1) \in G \times H$ is (g_1^{-1}, h_1^{-1}) .

By induction, we can show that if G_1, G_2, \dots, G_n are groups, then so is $G_1 \times G_2 \times \dots \times G_n$.

To facilitate our writing, we shall use the following notations:

Notation

Given a group G and $g_1, g_2 \in G$, we often denote its identity by 1 , and write $g_1 *_G g_2 = g_1 g_2$. Also, we denote the unique inverse of an element $g \in G$ as g^{-1} .

We will write $g^0 = 1$. Also, for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we define

$$g^n = \underbrace{g * g * \dots * g}_{n \text{ times}}$$

and

$$g^{-n} = (g^{-1})^n$$

With the above notations,

Proposition 5

Let G be a group and $g, h \in G$. We have

1. $(g^{-1})^{-1} = g$
2. $(gh)^{-1} = h^{-1}g^{-1}$
3. $g^n g^m = g^{n+m}$ for all $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$
4. $(g^n)^m = g^{nm}$ for all $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$

Exercise 3.1.2

Prove Proposition 5 as an exercise.

Warning

In general, it is not true that if $g, h \in G$, then $(gh)^n = g^n h^n$. For example,

$$(gh)^2 = ghgh \quad \text{but} \quad g^2 h^2 = gghh.$$

The two are only equal if and only if G is abelian.

4 Lecture 4 May 09 2018

4.1 Groups (Continued)

4.1.1 Groups (Continued)

Proposition 6 (Cancellation Laws)

Let G be a group and $g, h, f \in G$. Then

1. (a) (**Right Cancellation**) $gh = gf \implies h = f$
(b) (**Left Cancellation**) $hg = fg \implies h = f$
2. The equation $ax = b$ and $ya = b$ have unique solution for $x, y \in G$.

Proof

1. (a) By left multiplication and associativity,

$$gh = gf \iff g^{-1}gh = g^{-1}gf \iff h = f$$

- (b) By right multiplication and associativity,

$$hg = fg \iff hgg^{-1} = fgg^{-1} \iff h = f$$

2. Let $x = a^{-1}b$. Then

$$ax = a(a^{-1}b) = (aa^{-1})b = b.$$

If $\exists u \in G$ that is another solution, then

$$au = b = ax \implies u = x$$

by Left Cancellation. The proof for $ya = b$ is similar by letting $y = ba^{-1}$.

□

4.1.2 Cayley Tables

For a finite group, defining its operation by means of a table is sometimes convenient.

Definition 9 (Cayley Table)

Let G be a group. Given $x, y \in G$, let the product xy be an entry of a table in the row corresponding to x and column corresponding to y . Such a table is called a **Cayley Table**.

Note

By Cycle Decomposition Theorem 6, the entries in each row (and respectively, column) of a Cayley Table are all distinct.

Example 4.1.1

Consider the group $(\mathbb{Z}_2, +)$. Its Cayley Table is

\mathbb{Z}_2	[0]	[1]
[0]	[0]	[1]
[1]	[1]	[0]

where note that we must have $[1] + [1] = [0]$; otherwise if $[1] + [1] = [1]$ then $[1]$ does not have its additive inverse, which contradicts the fact that it is in the group.

Example 4.1.2

Consider the group $\mathbb{Z}^* = \{1, -1\}$. Its Cayley Table (under multiplication) is

If we replace 1 by [0] and -1 by [1], the Cayley Tables of \mathbb{Z}_2 and \mathbb{Z}^* are the same. In this case, we say that \mathbb{Z}_2 and \mathbb{Z}^* are **isomorphic**, which we denote by $\mathbb{Z}_2 \cong \mathbb{Z}^*$.

\mathbb{Z}^*	1	-1
1	1	-1
-1	-1	1

Example 4.1.3

Given $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the **Cyclic Group** of order n is defined by

$$C_n = \{1, a, a^2, \dots, a^{n-1}\} \quad \text{with } a^n = 1.$$

We write $C_n = \langle a : a^n = 1 \rangle$ and a is called a generator of C_n . The Cayley Table of C_n is

C_n	1	a	a^2	\dots	a^{n-2}	a^{n-1}
1	1	a	a^2	\dots	a^{n-2}	a^{n-1}
a	a	a^2	a^3	\dots	a^{n-1}	1
a^2	a^2	a^3	a^4	\dots	1	a
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots		\vdots	\vdots
a^{n-2}	a^{n-2}	a^{n-1}	1	\dots	a^{n-4}	a^{n-3}
a^{n-1}	a^{n-1}	1	a	\dots	a^{n-3}	a^{n-2}

Proposition 7

Let G be a group. Up to isomorphism, we have

1. if $|G| = 1$, then $G \cong \{1\}$.
2. if $|G| = 2$, then $G \cong C_2$.
3. if $|G| = 3$, then $G \cong C_3$.
4. if $|G| = 4$, then either $G \cong C_4$ or $G \cong K_4 \cong C_2 \times C_2$.

K_n is known as the **Klein n-group**

Proof

1. If $|G| = 1$, then it can only be $G = \{1\}$ where 1 is the identity element.
2. $|G| = 2 \implies G = \{1, g\}$ with $g \neq 1$. The Cayley Table of G is thus

G	1	g
1	1	g
g	g	1

where we note that $g^2 = 1$; otherwise if $g^2 = g$, then we would have

$g \neq 1$ by Cycle Decomposition Theorem 6, which contradicts the fact that $g \neq 1$. Comparing the above Cayley Table with that of C_2 , we see that $G = \langle g : g^2 = 1 \rangle \cong C_2$.

3. $|G| = 3 \implies G = \{1, g, h\}$ with $g \neq 1 \neq h$ and $g \neq h$. We can then start with the following Cayley Table:

G	1	g	h
1	1	g	h
g	g		
h	h		

We know that by Cycle Decomposition Theorem 6, $gh \neq g$ and $gh \neq h$. Thus $gh = 1$. Similarly, we get that $hg = 1$.

Claim: Entries in a row (or column) must be distinct. Suppose not. Then say $g^2 = 1$. But since $gh = 1$, by Cycle Decomposition Theorem 6, we have that $h = g$, which is a contradiction.

With that, we can proceed to fill in the rest of the entries: with $g^2 = h$ and $h^2 = g$. Therefore,

G	1	g	h
1	1	g	h
g	g	h	1
h	h	1	g

Recall that the Cayley Table for C_3 is:

C_3	1	a	a^2
1	1	a	a^2
a	a	a^2	1
a^2	a^2	1	a

$\therefore G \cong C_3$ (by identifying $g = a$ and $h = a^2$).

4. **Proof will be added once assignment 1 is over**

4.2 Subgroups

4.2.1 Subgroups

Definition 10 (Subgroup)

Let G be a group and $H \subseteq G$. If H itself is a group, then we say that H is a subgroup of G

5 Lecture 5 May 11th 2018

5.1 Subgroups (Continued)

5.1.1 Subgroups (Continued)

Note (Recall: definition of a subgroup)

Let G be a group and $H \subseteq G$. If H itself is a group, then we say that H is a subgroup of G .

Note

Since G is a group, $\forall h_1, h_2, h_3 \in H \subseteq G$, we have $h_1(h_2h_3) = (h_1h_2)h_3$. So H is a subgroup of G if it satisfies the following conditions, which we shall hereafter refer to as the Subgroup Test.

Subgroup Test

1. $h_1h_2 \in H$
2. $1_G \in H$
3. $\exists h_1^{-1} \in H$ such that $h_1h_1^{-1} = 1_G$

Note that the identity in H must also be the identity in G . This is because if $h_1, h_1^{-1} \in H$, then $h_1h_1^{-1} = 1_H$, but $h_1, h_1^{-1} \in G$ as well, and so $h_1h_1^{-1} = 1_G$. Thus $1_H = 1_G$.

Example 5.1.1

Given a group G , it is clear that $\{1\}$ and G are both subgroups of G .

Example 5.1.2

We have the following chain of groups:

$$(\mathbb{Z}, +) \subseteq (\mathbb{Q}, +) \subseteq (\mathbb{R}, +) \subseteq (\mathbb{C}, +)$$

Recall that the general linear group is defined as:

$$GL_n(\mathbb{R}) = (GL_n(\mathbb{R}), \cdot) = \{A \in M_n(\mathbb{R}) : \det A \neq 0\}$$

Definition 11 (Special Linear Group)

The *special linear group* of order n of \mathbb{R} is defined as

$$SL_n(\mathbb{R}) = (SL_n(\mathbb{R}), \cdot) = \{A \in M_n(\mathbb{R}) : \det A = 1\}$$

Example 5.1.3

Clearly, $SL_n(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq GL_n(\mathbb{R})$. Note that the identity matrix I must be in $SL_n(\mathbb{R})$ since $\det I = 1$. Also, $\forall A, B \in SL_n(\mathbb{R})$, we have that

$$\det AB = \det A \det B = 1$$

$\therefore AB \in SL_n(\mathbb{R})$. Also, since $\det A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} = 1$, we also have that $A^{-1} \in SL_n(\mathbb{R})$. We see that $SL_n(\mathbb{R})$ satisfies the *Subgroup Test*, and hence it is a subgroup of $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$.

Definition 12 (Center of a Group)

Given a group G , the *center of a group* G is defined as

$$Z(G) = \{z \in G : \forall g \in G \quad zg = gz\}$$

Example 5.1.4

For a group G , $Z(G)$ is an abelian subgroup of G .

Proof

Clearly, $1_G \in Z(G)$. Let $y, z \in G$. $\forall g \in G$, we have that

$$(yz)g = y(zg) = y(gz) = (yg)z = (gy)z = g(yz)$$

Therefore $yz \in Z(G)$ and so $Z(G)$ is closed under its operation. Also, $\forall h \in G$, we can write $h = (h^{-1})^{-1} = g^{-1}$. Since $z \in Z(G)$, we have

that $\forall g \in G$,

$$\begin{aligned} zg = gz &\iff (zg)^{-1} = (gz)^{-1} \iff g^{-1}z^{-1} = z^{-1}g^{-1} \\ &\iff hz^{-1} = z^{-1}h \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $z^{-1} \in Z(G)$. By the [Subgroup Test](#), it follows that $Z(G)$ is a subgroup of G .

Finally, since $Z(G) \subseteq G$, by its definition, we have that $\forall x, y \in Z(G)$, $x, y \in G$ as well, and we have that $xy = yx$. Therefore, $Z(G)$ is abelian.

□

Proposition 8 (Intersection of Subgroups is a Subgroup)

Let H and K be subgroups of a group G . Then their intersection

$$H \cap K = \{g \in G : g \in H \wedge g \in K\}$$

is also a subgroup of G .

Proof

Since H and K are subgroups, we have that $1 \in H$ and $1 \in K$ and hence $1 \in H \cap K$. Let $a, b \in H \cap K$. Since H and K are subgroups, we have that $ab \in H$ and $ab \in K$. Therefore, $ab \in H \cap K$. Similarly, since $a^{-1} \in H$ and $a^{-1} \in K$, $a^{-1} \in H \cap K$. By the [Subgroup Test](#), $H \cap K$ is a subgroup of G . □

Proposition 9 (Finite Subgroup Test)

If H is a finite nonempty subset of a group G , then H is a subgroup if and only if H is closed under its operation.

This result says that if H is a finite nonempty subset, then we only need to prove that it is closed under its operation to prove that it is a subgroup. The other two conditions in the [Subgroup Test](#) are automatically implied.

Proof

The forward direction of the proof is trivially true, since H must satisfy the closure property for it to be a subgroup.

For the converse, since $H \neq \emptyset$, let $h \in H$. Since H is closed under its operation, we have that

$$h, h^2, h^3, \dots$$

are all in H . Since H is finite, not all of the h^n 's are distinct. Then, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, there must $\exists m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $h^n = h^{n+m}$. Then by Cancellation Laws, $h^m = 1$ and so $1 \in H$. Also, because $1 = h^{m-1}h$, we have that $h^{-1} = h^{m-1}$, and thus the inverse of h is also in H . Therefore, H is a subgroup of G as required. \square

6 Lecture 6 May 14th 2018

6.1 Subgroups (Continued 2)

6.1.1 Alternating Groups

Recall that $\forall \sigma \in S_n$, with $\sigma \neq \varepsilon$, σ can be uniquely decomposed (up to the order) as disjoint cycles of length at least 2. We will now present a related concept.

Definition 13 (Transposition)

A **transposition** $\sigma \in S_n$ is a cycle of length 2, i.e. $\sigma = (a \ b)$, where $a, b \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ and $a \neq b$.

Example 6.1.1

We have that¹

$$(1 \ 2 \ 4 \ 5) = (1 \ 2)(2 \ 4)(4 \ 5)$$

Also, we can show that²

$$(1 \ 2 \ 4 \ 5) = (2 \ 3)(1 \ 2)(2 \ 5)(1 \ 3)(2 \ 4) \quad (6.1)$$

Observe that the factorization into transpositions are **not unique or disjoint**. However, the following property is true.

Theorem 10 (Parity Theorem)

¹ If we apply the permutations on the right hand side, we have that

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & & & & \\ & & & & \downarrow & & & & \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 5 & 4 & & & & \\ & & & & \downarrow & & & & \\ 1 & 4 & 3 & 5 & 2 & & & & \\ & & & & \downarrow & & & & \\ 2 & 4 & 3 & 5 & 1 & & & & \end{array}$$

²

Exercise 6.1.1

Show that Equation 6.1 is true.

Exercise 6.1.2

Play around with the same idea and create a few of your own transpositions. Note that you will only be able to get an odd number of transpositions (why?).

If a permutations σ has 2 factorizations

$$\sigma = \gamma_1 \gamma_2 \dots \gamma_r = \mu_1 \mu_2 \dots \mu_s,$$

where each γ_i and μ_j are transpositions, then $r \equiv s \pmod{2}$.

Proof

This is the bonus question in A2. Proof shall be included after the end of the assignment.

Definition 14 (Odd and Even Permutations)

A permutation σ is even (or odd) if it can be written as a product of an even (or odd) number of transpositions. By Parity Theorem 10, a permutation must either be even or odd, but not both.

Theorem 11 (Alternating Group)

For $n \geq 2$, let A_n denote the set of all even permutations in S_n . Then

1. $\varepsilon \in A_n$
2. $\forall \sigma, \tau \in A_n \quad \sigma\tau \in A_n$ and $\exists \sigma^{-1} \in A_n$ such that $\sigma\sigma^{-1} = \varepsilon = \sigma^{-1}\sigma$
3. $|A_n| = \frac{1}{2}n!$

Note

From items 1 and 2, we know that A_n is a subgroup of S_n . A_n is called the **alternating subgroup of degree n** .

Proof

1. We have that $\varepsilon = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$. Thus ε is even and so $\varepsilon \in A_n$.

2. $\forall \sigma, \tau \in A_n$, we may write

$$\sigma = \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \dots \sigma_r \quad \text{and}$$

$$\tau = \tau_1 \tau_2 \dots \tau_s,$$

where σ_i, τ_j are transpositions, and r, s are even integers. Then

$$\sigma\tau = \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \dots \sigma_r \tau_1 \tau_2 \dots \tau_s$$

is a product of $(r + s)$ transpositions, and thus $\sigma\tau$ is even. Thus $\sigma\tau \in A_n$.

For the inverse, note that since σ_i is a transposition, we have that $\sigma_i^2 = \varepsilon$ and thus $\sigma_i^{-1} = \sigma_i$. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma^{-1} &= (\sigma_1 \sigma_2 \dots \sigma_r)^{-1} \\ &= \sigma_r^{-1} \sigma_{r-1}^{-1} \dots \sigma_2^{-1} \sigma_1^{-1} \\ &= \sigma_r \sigma_{r-1} \dots \sigma_2 \sigma_1 \end{aligned}$$

which is an even permutation and

$$\sigma\sigma^{-1} = \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \dots \sigma_r \sigma_r \dots \sigma_2 \sigma_1 = \varepsilon.$$

Thus $\exists \sigma^{-1} \in A_n$ such that it is the inverse of σ .

3. Let O_n denote the set of odd permutations in S_n . Then we have $S_n = A_n \cup O_n$, and by the Parity Theorem, we have that $A_n \cap O_n = \emptyset$. Since $|S_n| = n!$, to prove that $|A_n| = \frac{1}{2}n!$, it suffices to show that $|A_n| = |O_n|$.

Let $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ and $f : A_n \rightarrow O_n$ such that $f(\sigma) = \gamma\sigma$. Since σ is even, $\gamma\sigma$ is odd, and so f is well-defined.

Also, if $\gamma\sigma_1 = \gamma\sigma_2$, then by Cancellation Laws, $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2$, and hence f is injective.

Finally, $\forall \tau \in O_n$, we have that $\gamma\tau = \sigma \in A_n$. Note that

$$f(\sigma) = \gamma\sigma = \gamma\gamma\tau = \tau.$$

Therefore, f is surjective.

It follows that $|A_n| = |O_n|$. □

For the proof of 3, we know that $|S_n| = n!$, which is twice of the suggested order of A_n . Since we took out the even permutations of S_n , we just need to make the rest of the permutations, the odd permutations, into a set and prove that A_n and this new set has the same size. One way to show this is by creating a bijection between the two.

Also, note that the set of all odd permutations of S_n is not a group, since

- there is no identity element in this set; and
- this set is not closed under map composition.

We have shown that ε is an even permutation, and so by the Parity Theorem, it cannot be an odd permutation, and there is only one identity in S_n . The set is not closed under map composition since if we compose two odd permutations, we would get an even permutation, which does not belong to this set.

6.1.2 Order of Elements

Notation

If G is a group and $g \in G$, we denote

$$\langle g \rangle = \{g^k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

Note that $1 = g^0 \in \langle g \rangle$.

If $x = g^m, y = g^n \in \langle g \rangle$ where $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$, then

$$xy = g^m g^n = g^{m+n} \in \langle g \rangle$$

and we have $\exists x^{-1} = g^{-m} \in \langle g \rangle$ such that

$$xx^{-1} = g^m g^{-m} = g^0 = 1.$$

Along with the **Subgroup Test**, we have the following proposition:

Proposition 12 (Cyclic Group as A Subgroup)

If G is a group and $g \in G$, then $\langle g \rangle$ is a subgroup of G .

Definition 15 (Cyclic Groups)

Let G be a group and $g \in G$. Then we call $\langle g \rangle$ the **cyclic subgroup** of G generated by g . If $G = \langle g \rangle$ for some $g \in G$, then we say that G is a **cyclic group**, and g is a **generator** of G .

7 Lecture 7 May 16th 2018

7.1 Subgroups (Continued 3)

7.1.1 Order of Elements (Continued)

Example 7.1.1

Consider $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$. Note that $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}$, we can write $k = k \cdot 1 = \underbrace{1 + 1 + \dots + 1}_{k \text{ times}}$.

So we have that $(\mathbb{Z}, +) = \langle 1 \rangle$. Similarly, we would have $(\mathbb{Z}, +) = \langle -1 \rangle$.

However, observe that $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $n \neq \pm 1$, there is no $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $k \cdot n = 1$. Therefore, ± 1 are the only **generators** of \mathbb{Z} .

Let G be a group and $g \in G$. Suppose $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $k \neq 0$ such that $g^k = 1$. Then $g^{-k} = (g^k)^{-1} = 1$. Thus wlog, we can assume that $k \geq 1$. By the **Well Ordering Principle**, $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that n is the smallest, such that $g^n = 1$.

With that, we may have the following definition:

Definition 16 (Order of an Element)

Let G be a group and $g \in G$. If n is the smallest positive integer such that $g^n = 1$, we say that the order of g is n , denoted by $o(g) = n$.

If no such n exists, then we say that g has infinite order and write $o(g) = \infty$.

Proposition 13 (Properties of Elements of Finite Order)

Let G be a group with $g \in G$ where $o(g) = n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then

1. $g^k = 1 \iff n|k$;
2. $g^k = g^m \iff k \equiv m \pmod n$; and
3. $\langle g \rangle = \{1, g, g^2, \dots, g^{n-1}\}$ where each g^i is distinct from others.¹

¹ This also means that the order of the group is the same as the order of the generator.

Proof

1. (\Leftarrow) If $n|k$, then $k = nq$ for some $q \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then

$$g^k = g^{nq} = (g^n)^q = 1^q = 1$$

(\Rightarrow) Suppose $g^k = 1$. Since $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, the **Division Algorithm**, we can write $k = nq + r$ with $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $0 \leq r < n$. Note $g^n = 1$.

Thus

$$g^r = g^{k-nq} = g^k (g^n)^{-q} = 1 \cdot 1 = 1.$$

Since $0 \leq r < n$, we must have that $r = 0$. Thus $n|k$.

2. (\Rightarrow) $g^k = g^m \implies g^{k-m} = 1 \xrightarrow{\text{by 1}} n|(k-m) \iff k \equiv m \pmod n$

(\Leftarrow) $k \equiv m \pmod n \implies \exists q \in \mathbb{Z} \ k = qn + m$. The result follows from 1.

3. (\supseteq) is clear by definition of $\langle g \rangle = \{g^k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.

To prove (\subseteq), let $x = g^k \in \langle g \rangle$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. By the **Division Algorithm**, $k = nq + r$ for some $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $0 \leq r < n$. Then

$$x = g^k = g^{nq+r} = g^{nq} g^r \stackrel{\text{by 1}}{=} g^r.$$

Since $0 \leq r < n$, we have that $x \in \{1, g, g^2, \dots, g^{n-1}\}$. Thus $\langle g \rangle = \{1, g, g^2, \dots, g^{n-1}\}$.

It remains to show that all the elements in $\langle g \rangle$ are distinct. Suppose $g^k = g^m$ for some $k, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $0 \leq k, m < n$. By 2, we have that $k \equiv m \pmod n$. Therefore, $k = m$.

We can also use 1 by the fact that $g^{k-m} = 1$ from assumption to complete the uniqueness proof.

□

Proposition 14 (Property of Elements of Infinite Order)

Let G be a group, and $g \in G$ such that $o(g) = \infty$. Then

1. $g^k = 1 \iff k = 0$;
 2. $g^k = g^r \iff k = r$;
 3. $\langle g \rangle = \{\dots, g^{-2}, g^{-1}, 1, g, g^2, \dots\}$ where each g^i is distinct from others.
-

Proof

It suffices to prove 1, since 2 easily becomes true with 1, and $2 \implies 3$.

1. $(\iff) g^0 = 1$

(\implies) Suppose for contradiction that $g^k = 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ $k \neq 0$. Then $g^{-k} = (g^k)^{-1} = 1$. Then we can assume that $k \geq 1$. This, however, implies that $o(g)$ is finite, which contradicts our assumption. Thus $k = 0$.

- 2.

$$g^k = g^m \iff g^{k-m} = 1 \xrightarrow{\text{by 1}} k - m = 0 \iff k = m$$

□

Proposition 15 (Orders of Powers of the Element)

Let G be a group, and $g \in G$ with $o(g) = n \in \mathbb{N}$. We have that

$$\forall d \in \mathbb{N} \quad d \mid n \implies o(g^d) = \frac{n}{d}$$

Proof

Let $k = \frac{n}{d}$. Note that $(g^d)^k = g^n = 1$. It remains to show that k is the smallest such positive integer. Suppose $\exists r \in \mathbb{N} \quad (g^d)^r = 1$. Since $o(g) = n$, then $n \mid dr$. Then $\exists q \in \mathbb{Z} \quad dr = nq$ by definition of divisibility. $\therefore n = dk$ and $d \neq 0$, we have

$$dr = dkq \xrightarrow{d \neq 0} r = kq \implies r > k \quad \because r, k \in \mathbb{N} \implies q \in \mathbb{N}$$

□

7.1.2 Cyclic Groups

Recall the definition of a cyclic groups.

Definition 17 (Cyclic Groups)

Let G be a group and $g \in G$. Then we call $\langle g \rangle$ the **cyclic subgroup** of G generated by g . If $G = \langle g \rangle$ for some $g \in G$, then we say that G is a **cyclic group**, and g is a **generator** of G .

Proposition 16 (Cyclic Groups are Abelian)

All cyclic groups are abelian.

Proof

Note that a cyclic group G is of the form $G = \langle g \rangle$. So

$$\begin{aligned} \forall a, b \in G \quad \exists m, n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad a &= g^m \wedge b = g^n \\ a \cdot b &= g^m g^n = g^{m+n} = g^{n+m} = g^n g^m = b \cdot a \end{aligned}$$

□

8 Lecture 8 May 18th 2018

8.1 Subgroups (Continued 4)

8.1.1 Cyclic Groups (Continued)

Note

Consider the converse of Proposition 16: Are abelian groups cyclic? **No!**
For example, $K_4 \cong C_2 \times C_2$ is abelian but not cyclic, since no one element can generate the entire group.

Proposition 17 (Subgroups of Cyclic Groups are Cyclic)

Every subgroup of a cyclic group is cyclic.

Proof

Let $G = \langle g \rangle$ and H be a subgroup of G .

$$\begin{aligned} H = \{1\} &\implies H = \langle 1 \rangle \\ H \neq \{1\} &\implies \exists k \neq 0 \in \mathbb{Z} \quad g^k \in H \\ &\implies g^{-k} \in H \quad (\because H \text{ is a group}) \end{aligned}$$

We may assume that $k \in \mathbb{N}$. By the **Well Ordering Principle**, let $m \in \mathbb{N}$ be the smallest positive integer such that $g^m \in H$. We will now show that $H = \langle g^m \rangle$.

$$g^m \in H \implies \langle g^m \rangle \subseteq H$$

$$\because H \subseteq G = \langle g \rangle \quad \forall h \in H \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \ h = g^k$$

Division Algorithm : $\exists q, r \in \mathbb{Z} \ 0 \leq r < m \quad k = mq + r$

$$h = g^k \implies g^r = g^{k-mq} = g^k (g^m)^{-q} \in H$$

$$r \neq 0 \implies \exists 0 < r < m \quad g^r \in H \quad \nexists \quad m \text{ is the smallest +ve integer}$$

$$\implies g^k \in \langle g^m \rangle \implies H \subseteq \langle g^m \rangle$$

Finally,

$$\langle g^m \rangle \subseteq H \wedge H \subseteq \langle g^m \rangle \implies H = \langle g^m \rangle$$

□

Proposition 18 (Other generators in the same group)

Let $G = \langle g \rangle$ with $o(g) = n \in \mathbb{N}$. We have

$$G = \langle g^k \rangle \iff \gcd(k, n) = 1$$

If we have k such that $g^k \in G$, and k and n are coprimes, then g^k is also a generator of G .

Proof

For (\implies) ,

$$\begin{aligned} G = \langle g^k \rangle &\implies g \in \langle g^k \rangle \implies \exists x \in \mathbb{Z} \quad g = g^{kx} \\ &\implies 1 = g^{kx-1} \implies n \mid (kx-1) \quad (\because \text{Proposition 13}) \\ &\implies \exists y \in \mathbb{Z} \quad kx-1 = ny \quad (\because \text{Division Algorithm}) \\ &\implies 1 = kx + ny \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} &\because 1 \mid kx \wedge 1 \mid ny \wedge 1 = kx + ny \\ \gcd(k, n) &= 1 \quad (\because \text{gcd Characterization}) \end{aligned}$$

For (\impliedby) , note that $g \in G \implies \langle g^k \rangle \subseteq G$. It suffices to show that

$G \subseteq \langle g^k \rangle$, i.e. $g \in \langle g^k \rangle$.

$$\begin{aligned} \gcd(k, n) = 1 &\implies \exists x, y \in \mathbb{Z} \quad 1 = kx + ny \quad (\because \text{Bezout's Lemma}) \\ &\implies g = g^1 = g^{kx+ny} = (g^k)^x (g^n)^y = (g^k)^x \in \langle g^k \rangle \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 19 (Fundamental Theorem of Finite Cyclic Groups)

Let $G = \langle g \rangle$ with $o(g) = n \in \mathbb{N}$.

1. H is a subgroup of $G \implies \exists d \in \mathbb{N} \quad d \mid n \quad H = \langle g^d \rangle \implies |H| \mid n$.
2. $k \mid n \implies \langle g^{\frac{n}{k}} \rangle$ is the unique subgroup of G of order k .

This is a significant result that classifies the structure of a cyclic group (hence its name). The theorem tells us that for a group with finite order, it has only finitely many subgroups, and the order of each of these subgroups are multiples of n . Inversely, there are no subgroups of G where its order is some integer that does not divide n .

Note: It is clear that $d \in \mathbb{N}$ and $d \leq n$.

In a sense, this theorem is more powerful than Proposition 17.

Proof

1. Note

$$\text{Proposition 17} \implies \exists m \in \mathbb{N} \quad H = \langle g^m \rangle$$

Let $d = \gcd(m, n)$. Want to show that $H = \langle g^d \rangle$.

$$\begin{aligned} d = \gcd(m, n) &\implies d \mid m \implies \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \quad m = dk \\ &\implies g^m = g^{dk} = (g^d)^k \in \langle g^d \rangle \implies H \subseteq \langle g^d \rangle \\ d = \gcd(m, n) &\implies \exists x, y \in \mathbb{Z} \quad d = mx + ny \quad (\because \text{Bezout's Lemma}) \\ &\implies g^d = g^{mx+ny} = (g^m)^x (g^n)^y = (g^m)^x (1) \in H \\ &\implies \langle g^d \rangle \subseteq H \\ &\therefore H = \langle g^d \rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Note: } d = \gcd(m, n) \implies d \mid n \implies |H| = o(g^d) = \frac{n}{d}$$

\therefore Proposition 15. Thus $|H| \mid n$.

2. Let K be a subgroup of G with order k such that $k \mid n$. By 1, we have $K = \langle g^d \rangle$ with $d \mid n$. Note that

$$k = |K| \stackrel{(1)}{=} o(g^d) \stackrel{(2)}{=} \frac{n}{d}$$

where (1) is by Proposition 13 and (2) is by Proposition 15. Thus

$$d = \frac{n}{k} \text{ and } K = \langle g^{\frac{n}{k}} \rangle$$

□

9 Lecture 9 May 22nd 2018

9.1 Subgroups (Continued 5)

9.1.1 Examples of Non-Cyclic Groups

Example 9.1.1

The Klein 4-group is

$$K_4 = \{1, a, b, c\} \text{ where } a^2 = b^2 = c^2 = 1 \text{ and } ab = c.$$

We may also write

$$K_4 = \langle a, b : a^2 = 1 = b^2, ab = ba \rangle.$$

Note that we can replace (a, b) by (a, c) or (b, c) .

Example 9.1.2

The symmetric group of degree 3 is

$$S_3 = \{\varepsilon, \sigma, \sigma^2, \tau, \tau\sigma, \tau\sigma^2\}$$

where $\sigma^3 = \varepsilon = \tau^2$ and $\sigma\tau = \tau\sigma^2$. We may also express S_3 as

$$S_3 = \langle \sigma, \tau : \sigma^3 = \varepsilon = \tau^2, \sigma\tau = \tau\sigma^2 \rangle$$

Definition 18 (Dihedral Group)

For $n \geq 2$, the *dihedral group* of order $2n$ is

$$D_{2n} = \{1, a, \dots, a^{n-1}, b, ba, \dots, b^{n-1}\}$$

Recall from Assignment 1 that the dihedral group is a set of rigid motions for transforming a regular polygon back to its original position while changing the index of its vertices.

where $a^n = 1 = b^2$ and $aba = b$. Note that a represents a rotation of $\frac{2\pi}{n}$ radians, and b represents a reflection through the x -axis

Example 9.1.3

We may write the dihedral group as

$$D_{2n} = \langle a, b : a^n = 1 = b^2, aba = b \rangle$$

Exercise 9.1.1

Prove the following:

1. $D_4 \cong K_4$
2. $D_6 \cong S_3$

9.2 Normal Subgroup

9.2.1 Homomorphism and Isomorphism

Definition 19 (Homomorphism)

Let G, H be groups. A mapping

$$\alpha : G \rightarrow H$$

is called a **homomorphism** if $\forall a, b \in G$,¹

$$\alpha(ab) = \alpha(a)\alpha(b).$$

¹ Note that ab uses the operation of G while $\alpha(a)\alpha(b)$ uses the operation of H .

Example 9.2.1 (A classical example)

Consider the determinant map:

$$\det : GL_n(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^* \text{ given by } A \rightarrow \det A$$

Since

$$\det AB = \det A \det B$$

we have that the determinant map is a homomorphism.

Note that \mathbb{R}^* is the set of real numbers that has a multiplicative inverse.

This is a classical example to show a homomorphism, especially since the group $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$ uses **matrix multiplication** while \mathbb{R}^* uses regular **arithmetic multiplication**.

Proposition 20 (Properties of Homomorphism)

Let $\alpha : G \rightarrow H$ be a group homomorphism. Then

1. $\alpha(1_G) = 1_H$
 2. $\forall g \in G \quad \alpha(g^{-1}) = \alpha(g)^{-1}$
 3. $\forall g \in G \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \alpha(g^k) = \alpha(g)^k$
-

Proof

1. Note that

$$\alpha(1_G)\alpha(g) = \alpha(1_G \cdot g) = \alpha(g) = \alpha(g \cdot 1_G) = \alpha(g)\alpha(1_G)$$

Thus it must be that $\alpha(1_G) = 1_H$ for only the identity of H satisfies this equation.

2. Since H is a group, we know that

$$1_H = \alpha(g)\alpha(g)^{-1}.$$

Now with part 1, we have that

$$\alpha(g)\alpha(g^{-1}) = \alpha(gg^{-1}) = \alpha(1_G) = 1_H = \alpha(g)\alpha(g)^{-1}.$$

By Proposition 6, we have that $\alpha(g^{-1}) = \alpha(g)^{-1}$.

3. This is simply a result of applying the definition repeatedly, which we can then perform an induction procedure to complete the proof. \square
-

Definition 20 (Isomorphism)

Let G, H be groups. Consider a mapping

$$\alpha : G \rightarrow H$$

We say that α is an **isomorphism** if it is a homomorphism and bijective.

If α is an isomorphism, we say that G is **isomorphic to** H , or that G and H are **isomorphic**, and denote that by $G \cong H$.

Proposition 21 (Isomorphism as an Equivalence Relation)

1. **(Reflexive)** The identity map $G \rightarrow G$ is an isomorphism.
 2. **(Symmetric)** If $\sigma : G \rightarrow H$ is an isomorphism, then the inverse map $\sigma^{-1} : H \rightarrow G$ is also an isomorphism.
 3. **(Transitive)** If $\sigma : G \rightarrow H$ and $\tau : H \rightarrow K$, then the composition map $\tau\sigma : G \rightarrow K$ is also an isomorphism.
-

Proof

1. The identity map is clearly bijective. For all $g_1, g_2 \in G$, we have that

$$\alpha(g_1g_2) = g_1g_2 = \alpha(g_1)\alpha(g_2).$$

Thus the identity map is a homomorphism, and hence an isomorphism.

2. Since σ is a bijective map, its inverse σ^{-1} exists and is also a bijective map. Since σ is bijective, we have that

$$\forall h_1, h_2 \in H \quad \exists! g_1, g_2 \in G \quad \sigma(g_1) = h_1, \sigma(g_2) = h_2.$$

Note that since σ has a bijective inverse, we also have

$$g_1 = \sigma^{-1}(h_1) \text{ and } g_2 = \sigma^{-1}(h_2).$$

Then since σ is a homomorphism,

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma^{-1}(h_1h_2) &= \sigma^{-1}(\sigma(g_1)\sigma(g_2)) = \sigma^{-1}(\sigma(g_1g_2)) \\ &= g_1g_2 = \sigma^{-1}(h_1)\sigma^{-1}(h_2). \end{aligned}$$

3. We know that the composition map of two bijective map is bijective. Let $g_1, g_2 \in G$, then since both τ and σ are homomorphisms

$$\tau\sigma(g_1g_2) = \tau(\sigma(g_1)\sigma(g_2)) = \tau\sigma(g_1)\tau\sigma(g_2),$$

where we note that $\sigma(g_1), \sigma(g_2) \in H$.

□

Example 9.2.2

Let $\mathbb{R}^+ = \{r \in \mathbb{R} : r \geq 0\}$. Show that $(\mathbb{R}, +) \cong (\mathbb{R}^+, \cdot)$.

Solution

Consider the map

$$\alpha : (\mathbb{R}, +) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}^+, \cdot) \quad r \mapsto e^r,$$

where e is the natural exponent. Note that the exponential map from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R}^+ is bijective². Also, $\forall r, s \in \mathbb{R}$ we have that

$$\alpha(r + s) = e^{r+s} = e^r e^s = \alpha(r)\alpha(s).$$

² The image of the map covers all positive real numbers while taking all real numbers, which is the perfect candidate as a map here.

Therefore, α is an isomorphism and $(\mathbb{R}, +) \cong (\mathbb{R}^+, \cdot)$. □

Example 9.2.3

Show that $(\mathbb{Q}, +) \not\cong (\mathbb{Q}^*, \cdot)$.

Solution

Suppose, for contradiction, that $\tau : (\mathbb{Q}, +) \rightarrow (\mathbb{Q}^*, \cdot)$ is an isomorphism.

In particular, we have that τ is onto. Then $\exists q \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $\tau(q) = 2$. Let $\tau(\frac{q}{2}) = \alpha$. Since τ is an isomorphism, we have

$$\alpha^2 = \tau(\frac{q}{2})\tau(\frac{q}{2}) = \tau(\frac{q}{2} + \frac{q}{2}) = \tau(q) = 2.$$

But that implies that $\alpha = \sqrt{2}$, which is clearly not rational. Thus, we know that there is no such τ and

$$(\mathbb{Q}, +) \not\cong (\mathbb{Q}^*, \cdot)$$

as required. □

9.2.2 Cosets and Lagrange's Theorem

Definition 21 (Coset)

Let H be a subgroup of a group G .

$\forall a \in G \quad Ha = \{ha : h \in H\}$ is the right coset of H generated by a

and

$\forall a \in G \quad aH = \{ah : h \in H\}$ is the left coset of H generated by a

Note

Note that $1H = H = H1$. Also, since $a1 = a$ and $1 \in H$, we have that $a \in aH$, and similarly so for $a \in Ha$.

In general, aH and Ha are not subgroups of G . For example, we know that A_n is a subgroup of S_n . But if σ is an odd permutation, then σA_n and $A_n \sigma$ are sets of odd permutations since A_n is the set of even permutations. As proven before, O_n , the set of odd permutations is not a subgroup of S_n .

Also, in general, $aH \neq Ha$, since not all groups are abelian.

Proposition 22 (Properties of Cosets)

Let H be a subgroup of G , and let $a, b \in G$. Then

1. $Ha = Hb \iff ab^{-1} \in H$. In particular, $Ha = H \iff a \in H$.
2. $a \in Hb \implies Ha = Hb$.
3. $Ha = Hb \vee Ha \cap Hb = \emptyset$.³ Then the distinct right cosets of H forms a partition of G .⁴

We can create an analogued version of this proposition for the left cosets.

³ $\vee \equiv \text{XOR}$

⁴ Note that this is true because by definition, we iterate over all elements of G to construct the cosets of the subgroup H . The earlier part of this statement implies that cosets must be distinct (otherwise, they are the same set), and so if we take the union of these cosets, by iterating through all elements of G , we get that

$$\bigcup_{a \in G} Ha = G.$$

Summarizing the above argument, we observe that the distinct cosets partitions G .

Proof

1. For (\implies) ,

$$\begin{aligned} Ha = Hb &\implies a = 1a \in Ha = Hb \\ &\implies \exists h \in H \ a = hb \\ &\implies ab^{-1} = h \in H. \end{aligned}$$

For (\Leftarrow),

$$\begin{aligned}
 ab^{-1} \in H &\implies \forall h \in H \quad ha = h(ab^{-1})b \in Hb \\
 &\implies Ha \subseteq Hb \\
 ab^{-1} \in H &\implies (ab^{-1})^{-1} = ba^{-1} \in H \\
 &\implies \forall h \in H \quad hb = h(ba^{-1})a \in Ha \\
 &\implies Hb \subseteq Ha
 \end{aligned}$$

Let $b = 1$. Then

$$Ha = H \iff a \in H \quad \because 1^{-1} = 1$$

2. Note

$$a \in Hb \implies \exists h \in H \quad a = hb \implies ab^{-1} \in H \xrightarrow{\text{by 1}} Ha = Hb$$

3. Trivially, if $Ha \cap Hb = \emptyset$, we are done.

$$\begin{aligned}
 Ha \cap Hb &\neq \emptyset \\
 &\implies \exists x \in Ha \cap Hb \\
 &\implies (x \in Ha \xrightarrow{\text{by 1}} Hx = Hb) \wedge (x \in Hb \xrightarrow{\text{by 1}} Hx = Hb) \\
 &\implies Ha = Hb
 \end{aligned}$$

□

By Proposition 22, we have that G can be written as a disjoint union of cosets of a subgroup H . We now define the following terminology that we shall use for the upcoming content.

Definition 22 (Index)

Let H be a subgroup of a group G . We call the number of disjoint cosets of H in G as the **index** of H in G , and denote this number by $[G : H]$.

10 Lecture 10 May 23rd 2018

10.1 Normal Subgroup (Continued)

10.1.1 Cosets and Lagrange's Theorem (Continued)

Theorem 23 (Lagrange's Theorem)

Let H be a subgroup of a **finite** group G . Then

$$|H| \mid |G| \text{ and } [G : H] = \frac{|G|}{|H|}$$

Proof

Since G is finite, there can only be finitely many cosets of H . Let $k = [G : H]$ and Ha_1, Ha_2, \dots, Ha_k be the distinct right cosets of H in G . By Proposition 22, we have that these cosets partition G , i.e.

$$G = \bigcup_{i=1}^k Ha_i.$$

Note that by the definition of a right coset, the map

$$H \rightarrow Ha_i \text{ defined by } h \mapsto ha_i$$

is a surjection from H to Ha_i . By Cancellation Laws, the map is injective, since if $hb_1 = hb_2$, then $b_1 = b_2$. Therefore, for $i = 1, \dots, k$,

$$|H| = |Ha_i|.$$

Then we have

$$|G| = k |H| \implies |H| \mid |G| \wedge [G : H] = k = \frac{|G|}{|H|}$$

□

Corollary 24

1. If G is a finite group and $g \in G$, then $o(g) \mid |G|$.
2. If G is a finite group and $|G| = n$, then $g^n = 1$.

Proof

1. Let $H = \langle g \rangle$. Then by Lagrange's Theorem 23, $o(g) = |H| \mid |G|$.
2. For some $g \in G$, let $o(g) = m \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$. Then by 1, $m \mid n$ and so $g^n = (g^m)^{\frac{n}{m}} = 1$.

□

Note

Let $n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{1\}$. **Euler's Totient Function**, or more generally written as **Euler's ϕ -function** is defined as

$$\phi(n) \equiv \left| \{k \in \{1, \dots, n-1\} : \gcd(k, n) = 1\} \right|. \quad (10.1)$$

Note that the set \mathbb{Z}_n^* under multiplication has a similar definition to the set on the RHS, since the only numbers from 1 to n that has an inverse are those that are coprime with n . Thus $\phi(n) = |\mathbb{Z}_n^*|$.

With Corollary 24, we have **Euler's Theorem** that states that

$$\forall a \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \gcd(a, n) = 1 \implies a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}. \quad (10.2)$$

If $n = p$ where p is some prime number, then Euler's Theorem implies **Fermat's Little Theorem**, i.e. $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

Corollary 25

If p is prime, then every group G of order p is cyclic. In fact, $G = \langle g \rangle$ for $g \neq 1 \in G$. Hence, the only subgroups of G are $\{1\}$ and G itself.

Proof

Let $g \in G$ such that $g \neq 1$. By Corollary 24, $o(g) \mid p$. Since $g \neq 1$ and p is prime, by **uniqueness of prime factorization**, it must be that $o(g) = p$. Thus we can write $G = \langle g \rangle$. If H is a subgroup of G , then by Lagrange's Theorem, we have $|H| \mid p$. Since p is prime, we either have $|H| = 1$ or p . In other words, we either have that $H = \{1\}$ or $H = G$, respectively. \square

Corollary 26

Let H and K be finite subgroups of G . If $\gcd(|H|, |K|) = 1$, then $H \cap K = \{1\}$.

Proof

Since $H \cap K$ is a subgroup of H and of K , by Lagrange's Theorem 23, $|H \cap K| \mid |H| \wedge |H \cap K| \mid |K|$. By assumption that $\gcd(|H|, |K|) = 1$, we have¹ that $|H \cap K| = 1$, and hence $H \cap K = \{1\}$. \square

¹ $|H \cap K|$ is a common divisor for $|H|$ and $|K|$. But $\gcd(|H|, |K|) = 1$

10.1.2 Normal Subgroup

We have seen that given H is a subgroup of a group G and $g \in G$, gH and Hg are generally not the same.

Definition 23 (Normal Subgroup)

Let H be a subgroup of a group G . If $\forall g \in G$, we have $Hg = gH$, then we say that H is a **normal subgroup** of G , and write

$$H \triangleleft G$$

Example 10.1.1

$\{1\} \triangleleft G$ and $G \triangleleft G$.

Example 10.1.2

The center, $Z(G)$, of a group G is an abelian group. By Definition 23,

$$Z(G) \triangleleft G.$$

Example 10.1.3

If G is abelian, then every subgroup of G is normal in G .

Proposition (Normality Test)

Let H be a subgroup of G . The following are equivalent:

1. $H \triangleleft G$;
2. $\forall g \in G \quad gHg^{-1} \subseteq H$;
3. $\forall g \in G \quad gHg^{-1} = H$ ²

² This means that

$H \triangleleft G \iff H$ is the only conjugate of H

11 Lecture 11 May 25th 2018

The following theorem is useful for A2. The proof is not provided in this lecture, but expect the corollary to be restated and proven in a later lecture.

Corollary

Let G be a finite group and $H, K \triangleleft G$, $H \cap K = \{1\}$ and $|H| |K| = |G|$. Then $G \cong H \times K$.

11.1 Normal Subgroup (Continued 2)

11.1.1 Normal Subgroup (Continued)

Note (Recall)

Recall the definition of a normal subgroup as in Definition 23. Let H be a subgroup of G . If $gH = Hg$ for all $g \in G$, then $H \triangleleft G$.

Proposition 27 (Normality Test)

Let H be a subgroup of a group G . The following are equivalent:

1. $H \triangleleft G$
2. $\forall g \in G \quad gHg^{-1} \subseteq H$
3. $\forall g \in G \quad gHg^{-1} = H$

Note

Note that item 3 is indeed a stronger statement than item 2. But since the statements are equivalent, while using the [Normality Test](#), if we can show that item 2 is true, item 3 is automatically true.

Proof(1) \implies (2):

$$\begin{aligned}
x \in gHg^{-1} &\implies \exists h \in H \ x = ghg^{-1} \\
&\implies \exists h_1 \in H \ gh = h_1g \quad \because gh \in gH = Hg \\
&\implies x = ghg^{-1} = h_1gg^{-1} = h_1 \in H \\
&\implies gHg^{-1} \subseteq H
\end{aligned}$$

(2) \implies (3):

$$\begin{aligned}
(2) &\implies \forall g \in G \ gHg^{-1} \subseteq H \\
&\implies \exists g^{-1} \in G \ g^{-1}Hg \subseteq H \\
&\implies H \subseteq gHg^{-1} \\
&\stackrel{(2)}{\implies} gHg^{-1} = H
\end{aligned}$$

(3) \implies (1):

$$\begin{aligned}
(3) &\implies \forall g \in G \ gHg^{-1} = H \\
&\implies \forall x \in gH \ xg^{-1} \in gHg^{-1} = H \\
&\implies x \in Hg \quad \because gg^{-1} = 1 \\
&\implies gH \subseteq Hg
\end{aligned}$$

Using a similar argument, we would have $Hg \subseteq gH$. And so $gH = Hg$ as required. \square

Example 11.1.1

Let $G = GL_n(\mathbb{R})$ and $H = SL_n(\mathbb{R})$.¹ For $A \in G$ and $B \in H$ we have

$$\det ABA^{-1} = \det A \det B \det A^{-1} = \det A(1) \frac{1}{\det A} = 1.$$

Thus $\forall A \in G, ABA^{-1} \in H$. By Proposition 27, $H \triangleleft G$, i.e. $SL_n(\mathbb{R}) \triangleleft GL_n(\mathbb{R})$.²

¹ Recall Definition 8 and Definition 11.

²

Note

The normality is true for any field, not just \mathbb{R} .

Proposition 28 (Subgroup of Index 2 is Normal)

$$\forall H \text{ subgroup of } G \wedge [G : H] = 2 \implies H \triangleleft G$$

Proof

Let $a \in G$.

$$a \in H \implies aH = H = Ha$$

$$a \notin H \implies G = H \cup Ha \implies Ha = G \setminus H \quad \because \text{Proposition 22}$$

$$a \notin H \implies G = H \cup aH \implies aH = G \setminus H \quad \because \text{Proposition 22}$$

That implies that $aH = Ha$ for any $a \in G$. Hence, by Proposition 27, $H \triangleleft G$. \square

Example 11.1.2

Let A_n be the **Alternating Group** contained by S_n .³ By Proposition 28, since $[S_n : A_n] = 2$ because $S_n = A_n \cup O_n$ and O_n is a coset of A_n , we have that

$$A_n \triangleleft S_n.$$

³ Recall the definition of alternating group from Theorem 11 and S_n from Definition 4

Example 11.1.3

Let

$$D_{2n} = \{1, a, a^2, \dots, a^{n-1}, b, ba, ba^2, \dots, ba^{n-1}\}$$

be the **Dihedral Group** of order $2n$. Since $[D_{2n} : \langle a \rangle] = 2$,⁴ we have that

$$\langle a \rangle \triangleleft D_{2n} \quad \because \text{Proposition 27.}$$

⁴ The coset of $\langle a \rangle$ is $b\langle a \rangle$.

Let H and K be subgroups of a group G . Recall an earlier discussion: $H \cap K$ is the largest subgroup contained in both H and K .

What is the “smallest” subgroup that contains both H and K ? Since $H \cap K$ is the largest, it makes sense to think about $H \cup K$. However,

$$H \cup K \text{ is a subgroup of } G \iff H \subseteq K \vee K \subseteq H$$

While we know that $H \cup K$ can indeed be such a subgroup, the price of the restriction is too high, since it is overly restrictive.

A more “useful” construction turns out to be the **product** of the

subgroups.

Definition 24 (Product of Groups)

$$HK := \{hk : h \in H, k \in K\}$$

However, HK is not necessarily a subgroup. For example, for $h_1k_1, h_2k_2 \in HK$, it is not necessary that $h_1k_1h_2k_2 \in HK$, since k_1h_2 is not necessarily equal to h_2k_1 .

Lemma 29 (Product of Groups as a Subgroup)

Let H and K be subgroups of G . The following are equivalent:

1. HK is a subgroup of G
2. $HK = KH$ ⁵
3. KH is a subgroup of G

⁵ If one of H or K is normal, then the lemma immediately kicks in.

Proof

It suffices to prove (1) \iff (2), since (1) \iff (3) simply through exchanging H and K .

(1) \implies (2): Let $kh \in KH$ such that $k \in K$ and $h \in H$. Their inverses are $k^{-1} \in K$ and $h^{-1} \in H$, since K and H are groups. Note that

$$kh = (h^{-1}k^{-1})^{-1} \in HK \quad \therefore HK \text{ is a subgroup of } G.$$

Therefore $kh \in HK$, which implies $KH \subseteq HK$. By a similar argument, we can arrive at $HK \subseteq KH$ and so $HK = KH$.

(2) \implies (1): Note that $1 = 1 \cdot 1 \in HK$. $\forall hk \in HK$, $(hk)^{-1} = k^{-1}h^{-1} \in KH = HK$. For $h_1k_1, h_2k_2 \in HK$, note that $k_1h_2 \in KH = HK$, so there exists $hk \in HK$ such that $k_1h_2 = hk$. Therefore,

$$h_1k_1h_2k_2 = h_1hkk_2 \in HK.$$

By the [Subgroup Test](#), HK is a subgroup of G . □

Proposition 30 (Product of Normal Subgroups is Normal)

Let H and K be subgroups of G .

1. $H \triangleleft G \vee K \triangleleft G \implies HK = KH$ is a subgroup of G
 2. $H, K \triangleleft G \implies HK = KH \triangleleft G$
-
-

Proof

1. Without loss of generality, suppose $H \triangleleft G$. Then

$$HK = \bigcup_{k \in K} Hk = \bigcup_{k \in K} kH = KH \quad (11.1)$$

By Lemma 29, $HK = KH$ is a subgroup of G .

2. Suppose $H, K \triangleleft G$. Then

$$\forall g \in G \quad \forall hk \in HK \quad g^{-1}(hk)g = (g^{-1}hg)(g^{-1}kg) \in HK$$

Thus $gHKg^{-1} \subseteq HK$. Thus by Proposition 27, we have that $HK \triangleleft G$.

□

Note

Note that Equation (11.1) is a weaker statement than the regular normality that we have defined, since it only requires all elements of K to work instead of the entire G .

With that, we define the following notion:

Definition 25 (Normalizer)

Let H be a subgroup of G . The **normalizer of H** , denoted by $N_G(H)$, is defined to be

$$N_G(H) := \{g \in G : gH = Hg\}$$

Note

By the above definition, we immediately see that $H \triangleleft G \iff N_G(H) = G$ by Equation (11.1). Observe that since we only needed $kH = Hk$ in Equation (11.1) for all $k \in K$, we have that $k \in N_G(H)$.

Corollary 31

Let H and K be subgroups of a group G .

$$K \subseteq N_G(H) \vee H \subseteq N_G(K) \implies HK = KH \text{ is a subgroup of } G$$

The proof of Corollary 31 is embedded in the proof of Proposition 30 while using the definition of a **normalizer**.

12 Lecture 12 May 28th 2018

12.1 Normal Subgroup (Continued 3)

12.1.1 Normal Subgroup (Continued 2)

Theorem 32

If $H \triangleleft G$ and $K \triangleleft G$ satisfy $H \cap K = \{1\}$, then

$$HK \cong H \times K$$

Proof

Claim 1:

$$H \triangleleft G \wedge K \triangleleft G \wedge H \cap K = \{1\} \implies \forall h \in H \forall k \in K \quad hk = kh$$

Consider $x = hkh^{-1}k^{-1}$. Note that since $H \triangleleft G$, by Proposition 27, we have that $\forall g \in G, gHg^{-1} = H$. Then $khk^{-1} \in kHk^{-1} = H$. Thus $x = h(kh^{-1}k^{-1}) \in H$. Using a similar argument, we can get that $x \in K$. Since $x \in H \cap K = \{1\}$, we have that $hkh^{-1}k^{-1} = 1$, we have that $hk = kh$ as claimed.

Note that since $H \triangleleft G$, by Proposition 30, we have that HK is a subgroup of G .¹ Define $\sigma : H \times K \rightarrow HK$ by

$$\forall h \in H \forall k \in K \quad \sigma((h, k)) = hk$$

Claim 2: σ is an isomorphism.

¹ We do not need the more powerful statement that says that HK is a normal subgroup.

Let $(h, k), (h_1, k_1) \in H \times K$. By Claim 1, note that $h_1k = kh_1$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma((h, k) \cdot (h_1, k_1)) &= \sigma((hh_1, kk_1)) = hh_1kk_1 \\ &= hkh_1k_1 = \sigma((h, k))\sigma((h_1, k_1))\end{aligned}$$

Thus we see that σ is a group homomorphism. Note that by the definition of HK , σ is a surjection. Also, if $\sigma((h, k)) = \sigma((h_1, k_1))$, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}hk = h_1k_1 &\implies h_1^{-1}h = k_1k^{-1} \in H \cap K = \{1\} \\ &\implies h_1^{-1}h = 1 = k_1k^{-1} \implies h_1 = h \wedge k_1 = k.\end{aligned}$$

Thus σ is an injection, and hence σ is bijective. Therefore, σ is an isomorphism. This proves that $HK \cong H \times K$. \square

An immediate result is the corollary that we were given in the last class but not proven.

Corollary 33

Let G be a finite group, $H, K \triangleleft G$ such that $H \cap K = \{1\}$ and $|H| |K| = |G|$. Then $G \cong H \times K$.

Example 12.1.1

Let $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $\gcd(m, n) = 1$. Let G be a cyclic group of order mn . Write $G = \langle a \rangle$ with $o(a) = mn$. Let $H = \langle a^n \rangle$ and $K = \langle a^m \rangle$. Then we have

$$|H| = o(a^n) = m \wedge |K| = o(a^m) = n.$$

It follows that $|H| |K| = mn = |G|$. Note that $H \cong C_m$ and $K \cong C_n$. Since $\gcd(m, n) = 1$, by Corollary 26, we have that $H \cap K = \{1\}$.

Also, since G is cyclic and thus abelian, we have that $H, K \triangleleft G$. Then by Corollary 33, we have that $G \cong C_{mn} \cong C_m \times C_n$.

12.2.1 Quotient Groups

Let G be a group and K a subgroup of G . Given a set

$$\{Ka : a \in G\},$$

how can we create a group out of it?

A “natural” way to define an operation on the set of right cosets above is

$$\forall a, b \in G \quad Ka * Kb = Kab. \quad (\dagger)$$

Note that it is entirely possible that for $a_1 \neq a$ and $b_1 \neq b$, we have $Ka = Ka_1$ and $Kb = Kb_1$. In order for Equation (\dagger) to make sense as an operation, it is necessary that

$$Ka = Ka_1 \wedge Kb = Kb_1 \implies Kab = Ka_1b_1.$$

If the condition is satisfied, we say that the “multiplication” $KaKb$ is well-defined.

Lemma 34 (Multiplication of Cosets of Normal Subgroups)

Let K be a subset of G . The following are equivalent:

1. $K \triangleleft G$;
 2. $\forall a, b \in G \quad KaKb = Kab$ is well-defined.
-

Proof

(1) \implies (2) Suppose $K \triangleleft G$. Suppose $Ka = Ka_1$ and $Kb = Kb_1$. Then $aa_1^{-1} \in K$ and $bb_1^{-1} \in K$. To show that $Kab = Ka_1b_1$, it suffices to show that $(ab)(a_1b_1)^{-1} \in K$. Note that since $K \triangleleft G$, we have that $aKa^{-1} = K$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} ab(a_1b_1)^{-1} &= ab(b_1^{-1}a_1^{-1}) = a(bb_1^{-1})a_1^{-1} \\ &= (a(bb_1^{-1})a^{-1})(aa_1^{-1}) \in K. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $Kab = Ka_1b_1$ as required.

(2) \implies (1) If $a \in G$, we need to show that $\forall k \in K, aka^{-1} \in K$. Since $Ka = Ka$ and $Kk = K(1)$ ², by (2), we have that $Kak = Ka(1)$, i.e.

² This is cause 1 is in the same coset.

$Kak = Ka$. Thus $aka^{-1} = 1 \in K$, implying that $aKa^{-1} \subseteq K$ and hence $K \triangleleft G$. \square

13 Lecture 13 May 30 2018

13.1 Isomorphism Theorems (Continued)

13.1.1 Quotient Groups (Continued)

Proposition 35

Let $K \triangleleft G$ and write $G/K = \{Ka : a \in G\}$ for the set of cosets of K .

1. G/K is a group under the operation $KaKb = Kab$.
2. The mapping $\phi : G \rightarrow G/K$ given by $\phi(a) = Ka$ is a surjective homomorphism.¹
3. If $[G : K]$ is finite, then $|G/K| = [G : K]$. In particular, if $|G|$ is finite, then $|G/K| = \frac{|G|}{|K|}$.

1

Exercise 13.1.1

Is ϕ injective?

Solution

We know that we cannot uniquely express a coset, since for $a, b \in Ka$ such that $a \neq b$, we have that $Ka = Kb$.

Proof

1. By Lemma 34, the operation is well-defined, and G/K is closed under the operation. The identity of G/K is $K = K(1)$ since $\forall Ka \in G/K$,

$$KaK(1) = Ka = K(1)Ka.$$

Also, since

$$KaKa^{-1} = K(1) = Ka^{-1}Ka,$$

the inverse of Ka is Ka^{-1} . Finally, by associativity of G , we have that

$$Ka(KbKc) = Kabc = (KaKb)Kc.$$

It follows that G/K is a group.

2. Clearly, ϕ is surjective. For $a, b \in G$,

$$\phi(ab) = Kab = KaKb = \phi(a)\phi(b).$$

Thus ϕ is a surjective homomorphism.

3. If $[G : K]$ is finite, then by definition of the index $[G : K]$, we have that $[G : K] = |G/K|$. Also, if $|G|$ is finite, then by Theorem 23,

$$|G/K| = [G : K] = \frac{|G|}{|K|}.$$

□

Definition 26 (Quotient Group)

Let $K \triangleleft G$. The group G/K of all cosets of K in G is called the **quotient group** of G by K . Also, the mapping

$$\phi : G \rightarrow G/K \text{ defined by } a \mapsto Ka$$

is called the **coset** (or **quotient**) **map**.

13.1.2 Isomorphism Theorems

Definition 27 (Kernel and Image)

Let $\alpha : G \rightarrow H$ be a group homomorphism. The **kernel** of α is defined by

$$\ker \alpha := \{g \in G : \alpha(g) = 1_H\} \subseteq G$$

and the **image** of α is defined by

$$\operatorname{im} \alpha := \alpha(G) = \{\alpha(g) : g \in G\} \subseteq H.$$

Proposition 36

Let $\alpha : G \rightarrow H$ be a group homomorphism.

1. $\text{im } \alpha$ is a subgroup of H
2. $\ker \alpha \triangleleft G$

Proof

1. Note that $1_H = \alpha(1_G) \in \alpha(G)$ (i.e. the identity is in $\text{im } \alpha$). Also, for $h_1 = \alpha(g_1)$ and $h_2 = \alpha(g_2)$ in $\alpha(G)$ and $h_1, h_2 \in H$, we have

$$h_1 h_2 = \alpha(g_1) \alpha(g_2) = \alpha(g_1 g_2) \in \alpha(G).$$

(i.e. $\text{im } \alpha$ is closed under its operation). By Proposition 20, $\alpha(g)^{-1} = \alpha(g^{-1}) \in \alpha(G)$ (i.e. the inverse of an element is also in $\text{im } \alpha$). Thus by the **Subgroup Test**, we have that $\text{im } \alpha$ is a subgroup of H .

2. For $\ker \alpha$, $\alpha(1_G) = 1_H$. For $k_1, k_2 \in \ker \alpha$, we have

$$\alpha(k_1 k_2) = \alpha(k_1) \alpha(k_2) = 1 \cdot 1 = 1.$$

Also,

$$\alpha(k_1^{-1}) = \alpha(k_1)^{-1} = 1^{-1} = 1.$$

By the **Subgroup Test**, $\ker \alpha$ is a subgroup of G .

If $g \in G$ and $k \in \ker \alpha$, then

$$\alpha(g k g^{-1}) = \alpha(g) \alpha(k) \alpha(g^{-1}) = \alpha(g) \alpha(g^{-1}) = 1.$$

Thus by Proposition 27, $\ker \alpha \triangleleft G$.

□

Example 13.1.1

Consider the determinant map

$$\det : GL_n(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^* \text{ defined by } A \mapsto \det A.$$

Then $\ker \det = SL_n(\mathbb{R})$. Then $SL_n(\mathbb{R}) \triangleleft GL_n(\mathbb{R})$, as proven before.

Example 13.1.2

Define the *sign of a permutation* $\sigma \in S_n$ by

$$\text{sgn}(\sigma) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \sigma \text{ is even;} \\ -1 & \text{if } \sigma \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

Then the sign mapping, $\text{sgn} : S_n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$ defined by $\sigma \mapsto \text{sgn}(\sigma)$ is a homomorphism.² Also, $\ker \text{sgn} = A_n$. Thus, we have $A_n \triangleleft S_n$, as proven before.

² Think about why. It's quite straightforward using the definition.

Proposition 37 (Normal Subgroup as the Kernel)

If $K \triangleleft G$, then $K = \ker \phi$ where $\phi : G \rightarrow G/K$ is the coset map.

Proof

Recall that $\phi : G \rightarrow G/K$ is defined by $g \mapsto Kg, \forall g \in G$, and is a group homomorphism. By Proposition 22, we have

$$Kg = K = K1 \iff g \in K.$$

Thus $K = \ker \phi$. □

Theorem 38 (First Isomorphism Theorem)

Let $\alpha : G \rightarrow H$ be a group homomorphism. We have

$$G/\ker \alpha \cong \text{im } \alpha$$

Proof

Let $K = \ker \alpha$. Since $K \triangleleft G$ (by Proposition 36), G/K is a group. Let³

$$\bar{\alpha} : G/K \rightarrow \text{im } \alpha \text{ be defined by } Kg \mapsto \alpha(g)$$

Note that

$$Kg = Kg_1 \iff gg_1^{-1} \in K \iff \alpha(gg_1^{-1}) = 1 \iff \alpha(g) = \alpha(g_1).$$

Thus $\bar{\alpha}$ is well-defined and injective. Clearly, $\bar{\alpha}$ is surjective. It remains to

³ We must check that the function is well-defined, since cosets are not uniquely represented and so it is likely that a constructed mapping is not well-defined.

show that $\bar{\alpha}$ is a group homomorphism. $\forall g, h \in G$, we have

$$\bar{\alpha}(KgKh) = \bar{\alpha}(Kgh) = \alpha(gh) = \alpha(g)\alpha(h) = \bar{\alpha}(Kg)\bar{\alpha}(Kh).$$

Therefore, we have that $\bar{\alpha}$ is an isomorphism and hence $G/\ker \alpha \cong \text{im } \alpha$ as desired. \square

14 Lecture 14 Jun 01 2018

14.1 Isomorphism Theorems (Continued 2)

14.1.1 Isomorphism Theorems (Continued)

Note (Recall)

In First Isomorphism Theorem 38, we had that for a group homomorphism $\alpha : G \rightarrow H$ where G and H are groups,

$$G/\ker \alpha \cong \operatorname{im} \alpha$$

Now let $\alpha : G \rightarrow H$ be a group homomorphism, $K = \ker \alpha$, $\phi : G \rightarrow G/K$ be the coset map, and $\bar{\alpha}$ be as defined in the proof of First Isomorphism Theorem 38. We then have the following commutative diagram to illustrate the relationship between the three groups.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} G & \xrightarrow{\alpha} & H \\ \downarrow \phi & \nearrow \bar{\alpha} & \\ G/K & & \end{array}$$

A natural question to ask after seeing the relationship is: Is $\bar{\alpha}\phi = \alpha$? If it is, is the definition of $\bar{\alpha}$ unique? The answer is: **YES!** on both accounts.

Proof

Let $g \in G$. Then

$$\bar{\alpha}\phi(g) = \bar{\alpha}(\phi(g)) = \bar{\alpha}(Kg) = \alpha(g)$$

Suppose $\alpha = \beta\phi$ where $\beta : G/K \rightarrow H$. Then

$$\beta(Kg) \stackrel{(1)}{=} \beta(\phi(g)) = \beta\phi(g) = \alpha(g) = \bar{\alpha}(Kg)$$

where (1) is because ϕ is surjective by Proposition 35. Therefore, we observe that $\beta = \bar{\alpha}$ for any $Kg \in G/K$. This proves that $\bar{\alpha}$ is the unique homomorphism such that $G/K \rightarrow H$ satisfying $\alpha = \bar{\alpha}\phi$. \square

With that, we have the following proposition.

Proposition 39

Let $\alpha : G \rightarrow H$ be a group homomorphism, where G and H are groups. Let $K = \ker \alpha$. Then α factors uniquely as $\alpha = \bar{\alpha}\phi$ where $\phi : G \rightarrow G/K$ is the coset map and $\bar{\alpha} : G/K \rightarrow H$ is defined by

$$\bar{\alpha}(Kg) = \alpha(g).$$

Note that ϕ is surjective and $\bar{\alpha}$ is injective.

In such a scenario, we also say that α **factors through** ϕ .¹

¹ Reference for the terminology:
<https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/68941/terminology-a-homomorphism-factors>.

Example 14.1.1

Let $G = \langle g \rangle$ be a cyclic group. Consider $\alpha : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow G$, defined as

$$\forall k \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \alpha(k) = g^k,$$

which is a group homomorphism. By definition, α is surjective. Note that

$$\ker \alpha = \{k \in \mathbb{Z} : g^k = 1\}.$$

We have, therefore, two cases to consider.

- G is an infinite group
 This would imply that $\ker \alpha = \{0\}$ since only $g^0 = 1$. Then by First Isomorphism Theorem 38, we have that

$$\mathbb{Z}/\ker \alpha \cong G$$

Note that²

² We are assuming that the group \mathbb{Z} here works under the operation of addition, otherwise, if we employ multiplication, then \mathbb{Z} would not be a group and α would not be a group homomorphism.

$$\mathbb{Z}/\ker \alpha = \{(\ker \alpha)k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{0 + k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \mathbb{Z}.$$

Therefore

$$\mathbb{Z} \cong G$$

- G is a finite group

Suppose that $|G| = o(g) = n \in \mathbb{N}$, which is valid by Corollary 24. Then

$$\ker \alpha = n\mathbb{Z}$$

Then by the First Isomorphism Theorem 38, we have

$$\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \cong G.$$

Observe that

$$\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} = \{n\mathbb{Z} + k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \mathbb{Z}_n$$

since the set in the middle is the definition of the set of integers modulo n .³ Therefore,

$$\mathbb{Z}_n \cong G$$

Therefore, we have that

$$\mathbb{Z} \cong G \text{ or } \mathbb{Z}_{o(g)} \cong G$$

³ This is why we often see texts from various authors using $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ to represent the set of integers modulo n .

Theorem 40 (Second Isomorphism Theorem)

Let H and K be the subgroups of a group G with $K \triangleleft G$. Then

- HK is a subgroup of G ;
- $K \triangleleft HK$;
- $H \cap K \triangleleft H$; and
- $HK/K \cong H/H \cap K$.

Proof

Since $K \triangleleft G$, by Lemma 29 and Proposition 30, we have that $HK = KH$ is a subgroup of G . Consequently, we have $K \triangleleft HK$, since K is clearly a subgroup of HK and $K \triangleleft G$, and so $\forall x \in HK \subseteq G$ we have that $gK = Kg$.

Consider $\alpha : H \rightarrow HK/K$, defined by⁴

$$\alpha(h) = Kh$$

⁴Note that $Kh \in HK/K$ since $h \in H \subseteq HK$.

Now if $x = kh \in KH = HK$, then

$$Kx = K(kh) = Kh = \alpha(h).$$

Therefore, we have that α is surjective. Now by Proposition 22, observe that

$$\ker \alpha = \{h \in H : Kh = K\} = \{h \in H : h \in K\} = H \cap K.$$

Then by the First Isomorphism Theorem, we have that

$$HK/K \cong H/(H \cap K).$$

Since we have that $\ker \alpha = H \cap K$ and $\ker \alpha \triangleleft H$, we have that $H \cap K \triangleleft H$. □

Theorem 41 (Third Isomorphism Theorem)

Let $K \subseteq H \subseteq G$ be groups, with $K \triangleleft G$ and $H \triangleleft G$. Then

$$H/K \triangleleft G/K \text{ and } (G/K) / (H/K) \cong G/H$$

Proof

Define $\alpha : G/K \rightarrow G/H$ by $\alpha(Kg) = Hg$ for all $g \in G$. Clearly, α is surjective. Now if $Kg = Kg_1$, for any $g, g_1 \in G$, then $gg_1^{-1} \in K \subseteq H$. Therefore, $Hg = Hg_1$. Thus α is well-defined. Now

$$\ker \alpha = \{Kg : Hg = H\} = \{Kg : g \in H\} = H/K.$$

Then

$$H/K = \ker \alpha \triangleleft G/K.$$

By the First Isomorphism Theorem, we have

$$(G/K) / (H/K)$$

as required. □

ONE REASON that we are interested in the symmetric group is that they contain all finite groups.

Theorem (Cayley's Theorem)

If G is a finite group of order n , then G is isomorphic to a subgroup of S_n .

15 Lecture 15 Jun 04 2018

15.1 Group Action

15.1.1 Cayley's Theorem

Theorem 42 (Cayley's Theorem)

If G is a finite group of order n , then G is isomorphic to a subgroup of S_n .

Proof

Since G is finite, let $G = \{g_1, g_2, \dots, g_n\}$ and let S_G be the permutation group of G . By identifying g_i with i , where $1 \leq i \leq n$, we see that $S_G \cong S_n$ ¹. Therefore, it suffices to find an injective homomorphism² $\sigma : G \rightarrow S_G$.

Consider the function $\mu_a : G \rightarrow G$, where $a \in G$, such that $\mu_a(g) = ag$ for all $g \in G$. Clearly, μ_a is surjective. Suppose $\mu_a = \mu_b$, where $b \in G$. Then $a = \mu_a(1) = \mu_b(1) = b$. Thus μ_a is also injective. It follows that $\mu_a \in S_G$ by definition.

Now define the function $\sigma : G \rightarrow S_G$ such that $\sigma(a) = \mu_a$. Clearly, σ is injective, since $\sigma(a) = \sigma(b) \implies \mu_a = \mu_b$. Observe that $\sigma(ab) = \mu_{ab} = ab = \mu_a \mu_b$. Thus σ is a group homomorphism. Note that $\ker \sigma = \{1\}$, the trivial group. It follows from the First Isomorphism Theorem that $G \cong \text{Im } \sigma \leq S_G \cong S_n$.^{3 4} □

¹ S_G is the permutation group of G . We can think of S_G as a group of permutations that permutes the index of the elements of G . Since there are n indices, there are $n!$ ways to permute the indices, and so $|S_G| = n! = |S_n|$. Then we can certainly find some isomorphism from S_G to S_n , and so $S_G \cong S_n$.

² **Why do we need injectivity?** We need homomorphicity in order to invoke the First Isomorphism Theorem so that we can get $G \cong \text{Im } \sigma \leq S_G \cong S_n$.

³ We shall use $H \leq G$ to denote that H is a subgroup of G from here on.

⁴ This is a result from Proposition 36

Cayley's Theorem is, however, too strong at times. We can certainly find a smaller integer m such that G is contained in S_m . Con-

sider the following example.

Example 15.1.1

Let $H \leq G$ with $[G : H] = m < \infty$. Let $X = \{g_1H, g_2H, \dots, g_mH\}$ be the set of all distinct left cosets of H in G ⁵. For $a \in G$, define $\lambda_a : X \rightarrow X$ by $\lambda_a(gH) = agH, gH \in X$.

⁵ This is simply a consequence of $[G : H] = m$.

Note that λ_a is a bijection⁶, and so $\lambda_a \in S_X$, the permutation group of X . Consider the mapping $\tau : G \rightarrow S_X$ defined by $\tau(a) = \lambda_a$ for $a \in G$. Note that $\forall a, b \in G, \lambda_{ab} = \lambda_a \lambda_b$. Thus τ is a homomorphism. Note that if $a \in \ker \tau$, then $aH = H$ which implies $a \in H$ by Proposition 2.2. Thus $\ker \tau \subseteq H$.

⁶ This is true as shown in the proof above, but it can also serve as a tiny exercise.

From the example above, if we apply the First Isomorphism Theorem, then

$$G/\ker \tau \cong \text{im } \tau \leq S_X \cong S_m \leq S_n.$$

This is the result that we desired.

Theorem 43 (Extended Cayley's Theorem)

Let $H \leq G$ with $[G : H] = m < \infty$. If G has no normal subgroup contained in H except for the trivial subgroup $\{1\}$, then G is isomorphic to a subgroup of S_m .

Proof

By our assumption, let X be the set of all distinct left cosets of H in G . Then we have that $|X| = m$ and so $S_X \cong S_m$ ⁷. From Example 15.1.1, we have that there exists a group homomorphism $\tau : G \rightarrow S_X$ with $K := \ker \tau \subseteq H$. So by the First Isomorphism Theorem, we have that

$$G/K \cong \text{im } \tau.$$

Since $K \subseteq H$ and $K \triangleleft G$, we have, by assumption, that $K = \{1\}$. It follows that

$$G \cong \text{im } \tau \leq S_X \cong S_m.$$

⁷ This is as argued in the proof of Cayley's Theorem.

□

Corollary 44

Let $|G| = m \in \mathbb{N}$ and p the smallest prime such that $p|m$. If $H \leq G$ with $[G : H] = p$, then $H \triangleleft G$.

Proof

Let X be the set of all distinct left cosets of H in G . We have $|X| = p$ and so $S_X \cong S_p$. Let $\tau : G \rightarrow S_X \cong S_p$ be as defined in Example 15.1.1, with $K := \ker \tau \subseteq H$. By the First Isomorphism Theorem, we have that

$$G/K \cong \text{im } \tau \leq S_X \cong S_p,$$

i.e. G/K is isomorphic to a subgroup of S_p . Therefore, by Lagrange's Theorem, we have that $|G/K| \mid p!$.

Also, since $K \subseteq H$, if $[H : K] = k \in \mathbb{N}$, then

$$|G/K| \stackrel{(1)}{=} \frac{|G|}{|K|} = \frac{|G|}{|H|} \cdot \frac{|H|}{|K|} = pk,$$

where (1) is by Proposition 35. Therefore we have that $pk \mid p!$ and so $k \mid (p-1)!$.

Note that $k \mid |H|$ ⁸, which divides $|G|$, and p is the smallest prime dividing $|G|$. Thus every prime divisor of k must be $\geq p$.⁹ Thus $k = 1$, which implies that $K = H$. Therefore, $H \triangleleft G$ as desired. \square

⁸ This is clear since $|H| = k|K|$.

⁹ By the **Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic**, and since k is finite, let $k = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \dots p_m^{a_m}$, where p_i 's are distinct primes and $a_i \in \mathbb{N}$ are the multiplicities of the i^{th} , and by the **Well-Ordering Principle**, let $p_i < p_{i+1}$. Then we have, for some $b = b_1^{c_1} b_2^{c_2} \dots b_j^{c_j} \in \mathbb{N}$ where the b_i 's are distinct primes, $b_i < b_{i+1}$, and $c_i \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$,

$$m = kb = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \dots p_m^{a_m} b_1^{c_1} b_2^{c_2} \dots b_j^{c_j}.$$

Since p is the smallest prime that divides m , we have

$$\begin{aligned} p &= \min\{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_m, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_j\} \\ &= \min\{p_1, b_1\} \end{aligned}$$

15.1.2 Group Action**Definition 28 (Group Action)**

Let G be a group, X a non-empty set. A **group action** of G on X is a mapping $G \times X \rightarrow X$ denoted as $(a, x) \rightarrow ax$ such that

1. $1 \cdot x = x, x \in X$
2. $a \cdot (b \cdot x) = (ab) \cdot x, a, b \in G, x \in X$

In this case, we say G **acts on** X .

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16.1 Group Action (Continued)

16.1.1 Group Action (Continued)

Remark

Let G be a group acting on a set X . For $a, b \in G$, and $x, y \in X$, we have that

$$a \cdot x = b \cdot y \iff (b^{-1}a) \cdot x = y.$$

In particular, we have

$$a \cdot x = a \cdot y \iff x = y.$$

For $a \in G$, define $\sigma_a : X \rightarrow X$ by $\sigma_a(x) = a \cdot x$ for all $x \in X$. In A3, we will be showing that¹:

1. $\sigma_a \in S_X$, the permutation group of X ; and
2. The function $\Theta : G \rightarrow S_X$ given by $\Theta(a) = \sigma_a$ is a group homomorphism with

$$\ker \Theta = \{a \in G : a \cdot x = x, x \in X\}.$$

Note that the group homomorphism $\Theta : G \rightarrow S_X$ gives an **equivalent definition** of a **Group Action** of G on X . If $X = G$, $|G| = n$ and $\ker \Theta = \{1\}$ ², then the map $\Theta : G \rightarrow S_G \cong S_n$ shows that G is isomorphic to a subgroup of S_n ³, which is the equivalent statement of Cayley's Theorem.

Example 16.1.1

If G is a group, let G act on itself by $a \cdot x = a \cdot x \cdot a^{-1}$, for all $a, x \in G$. Note that the axioms of a group action is satisfied:

¹ This will be added after the assignment.

² This is also called a **faithful group action**.

³

Exercise 16.1.1

Verify that G is indeed isomorphic to a subgroup of S_n using the given information and the equivalent definition of a group action.

1. $1 \cdot x = 1 \cdot x \cdot 1^{-1} = x$; and
2. $a \cdot (b \cdot x) = a \cdot (b \cdot x \cdot b^{-1}) \cdot a = ab \cdot x \cdot (ab)^{-1} = (ab) \cdot x$.

In this case, we say that G **acts on itself by conjugation**.

Definition 29 (Orbit & Stabilizer)

Let G be a group acting on a set X , and $x \in X$. We denote by

$$G \cdot x = \{g \cdot x : \forall g \in G\}$$

the **orbit** of x and

$$S(x) = \{g \in G : g \cdot x = x\} \subseteq G$$

the **stabilizer** of x .

There is no standardized way of expressing the orbit and the stabilizer, i.e. the notation for orbit and stabilizers will be different across many references.

Proposition 45

Let G be a group acting on a set X and $x \in X$. Let $G \cdot x$ and $S(x)$ be the orbit and stabilizer of x respectively. Then

1. $S(x) \leq G$
2. there is a bijection from $G \cdot x$ to $\{gS(x) : g \in G\}$ and thus $|G \cdot x| = [G : S(x)]$.

Proof

1. Since $1 \cdot x = x$, we have $1 \in S(x)$. If $g, h \in S(x)$, then

$$gh \cdot x = g \cdot (h \cdot x) = g \cdot x = x$$

i.e. $S(x)$ is closed under "composition of group action". Also note that

$$g^{-1} \cdot x = g^{-1} \cdot (g \cdot x) = (g^{-1}g) \cdot x = 1 \cdot x = x.$$

Thus the inverse of each element is also in $S(x)$. Therefore, by the **Subgroup Test**, $S(x) \leq G$.

2. For the sake of simplicity, let us write $S = S(x)$. Consider the map

$$\phi : G \cdot x \rightarrow \{gS(x) : g \in G\}$$

defined by $\phi(g \cdot x) = gS$ ⁴. To verify that the map is well-defined, note that

⁴ We go with the most simplistic and rather naive kind of function here.

$$\begin{aligned} g \cdot x = h \cdot x &\iff (h^{-1}g) \cdot x = x = 1 \cdot x \\ &\iff \phi(h^{-1}g \cdot x) = \phi(1 \cdot x) \\ &\iff h^{-1}gS = 1 \cdot S = S \\ &\iff gS = hS \end{aligned}$$

We also observe that ϕ is injective. It is also clear that ϕ is onto, and therefore we have that ϕ is a bijection. It follows that

$$|G \cdot x| = |\{gS : g \in G\}| = [G : S]$$

□

Theorem 46 (Orbit Decomposition Theorem)

Let G be a group acting on a non-empty finite set X . Let

$$X_f = \{x \in X : a \cdot x = x, \forall a \in G\}$$

(Note that $x \in X_f \iff |G \cdot x| = 1$)⁵

⁵ Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} x \in X_f &\iff \forall a \in G \ a \cdot x = x \\ &\iff \forall g \cdot x \in G \cdot x \ g \cdot x = x \\ &\iff |G \cdot x| = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Let $G \cdot x_1, G \cdot x_2, \dots, G \cdot x_n$ denote the distinct nonsingleton orbits (i.e. $|G \cdot x_i| > 1$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$). Then

$$|X| = |X_f| + \sum_{i=1}^n [G : S(x_i)].$$

Proof

Note that for $a, b \in G$ and $x, y \in X$,

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot x = b \cdot y &\stackrel{\text{WLOG}}{\iff} (b^{-1}a) \cdot x = y \\ &\iff y \in G \cdot x \\ &\stackrel{(1)}{\iff} G \cdot x = G \cdot y \end{aligned}$$

where (1) is the conclusion after consider the other case where $(a^{-1}b) \cdot y = x$.

Thus, we see that the two orbits are either disjoint or the same, but not both. It follows that the orbits form a disjoint union of X . Since $x \in X_f \iff |G \cdot x| = 1$, the set $X \setminus X_f$ contains all nonsingleton orbits, which are disjoint. It follows that

$$|X| = |X_f| + \sum_{i=1}^n |G \cdot x_i| \stackrel{(2)}{=} |X_f| + \sum_{i=1}^n [G : S(x_i)]$$

where (2) is by Proposition 45. □

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17.1 Group Action (Continued 2)

17.1.1 Group Action (Continued 2)

Note (Recall Theorem 46)

Let G act on a finite set $X \neq \emptyset$. Let¹

$$X_f = \{x \in X : a \cdot x = x, a \in G\}$$

Let $G \cdot x_1, G \cdot x_2, \dots, G \cdot x_n$ be distinct nonsingleton orbits (ie. $|G \cdot x_i| > 1$). Then

$$|X| = |X_f| + \sum_{i=1}^n [G : S(x_i)].$$

¹ X_f is also called the set of elements of X that are fixed by the action of G .

Example 17.1.1 (Conjugacy Class & Centralizer)

Let G be a finite group acting on itself by **conjugation**. In the context of Theorem 46, we have that

$$X = G$$

$$\begin{aligned} G_f &= \{x \in G : gxg^{-1} = x, g \in G\} \\ &= \{x \in G : gx = xg, g \in G\} = Z(G), \end{aligned}$$

where we recall that $Z(G)$ is the center of G . Now for any $x \in G$, we have

$$G \cdot x = \{gxg^{-1} : g \in G\},$$

which is known as the **conjugacy class** of x . We also have

$$S(x) = \{g \in G : gxg^{-1} = x\} = \{g \in G : gx = xg\} = C_G(x),$$

which is called the **centralizer** of x .

Putting the above example with Theorem 46, we have the following corollary.

Corollary 47 (Class Equation)

Let G be a finite group and $\{gx_1g^{-1} : g \in G\}, \dots, \{gx_ng^{-1} : g \in G\}$ denote the distinct nonsingleton conjugacy classes. Then

$$|G| = |Z(G)| + \sum_{i=1}^n [G : C_G(x_i)].$$

Lemma 48

Let G be a group of order o^m , where p prime and $m \in \mathbb{N}$, which acts on a finite set X . Let

$$X_f = \{x \in X : a \cdot x = x, a \in G\}.$$

Then we have

$$|X| \equiv |X_f| \pmod{p}$$

Proof

By the Orbit Decomposition Theorem, we have that

$$|X| = |X_f| + \sum_{i=1}^n [G : S(x_i)],$$

where $[G : S(x_i)] > 1$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. For any x_i , by Lagrange's Theorem, $[G : S(x_i)] \mid |G| = p^m$. Since $[G : S(x_i)] > 1$, we have, by the **Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic**, that $[G : S(x_i)]$ must be a multiple of p , i.e. p divides $[G : S(x_i)]$, for all i . Therefore, $p \mid (|X| - |X_f|)$, i.e.

$$|X| \equiv |X_f| \pmod{p},$$

as required. □

RECALL Lagrange's Theorem: If G is finite and $g \in G$, then

$$o(g) \mid |G|.$$

An interesting question to ask here is: Is the converse true? I.e., given a group G with an integer m such that $m \mid |G|$, does G contain an element of order m ?

Consider K_4 , the Klein 4-group. Note that all elements of K_4 have order at most 2, but $4 \mid |K_4| = 4$.

Now if m is some prime, is the converse still true?

Theorem 49 (Cauchy's Theorem)

Let p be a prime, G be a finite group. If $p \mid |G|$, then G contains an element of order p .

Proof (McKay)

Let $|G| = n$. Suppose $p \mid n$. Let

$$X = \{(a_1, \dots, a_p) : a_i \in G, a_1 \dots a_p = 1\}.$$

Note that $X \neq \emptyset$, since $(1, \dots, 1) \in X$ (so the proof is not vacuous). Take any $a_1, \dots, a_{p-1} \in G$, then a_p is uniquely determined, i.e.

$$a_p = (a_1 \dots a_{p-1})^{-1}.$$

Now for each a_i , we have n choices, thus $|X| = n^{p-1}$.²

² Convince yourself why this is true.

Let $\mathbb{Z}_p = (\mathbb{Z}_p, +)$ act on X by "cycling", i.e. $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}_p$,

$$k \cdot (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_p) = (a_{k+1}, a_{k+2}, \dots, a_p, a_1, \dots, a_k).$$

³ Note that

³ We want to use Theorem 46 from here.

$(a_1, \dots, a_p) \in X_f \iff$ every cycled shift of (a_1, \dots, a_p) is itself i.e. all
 $\iff a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_p$ and $a_1 a_2 \dots a_p = 1$
 of the components of the p -tuple are the same. Now if (a_1, \dots, a_p) has at least 2 distinct components, then its orbits must have p elements. In other words, for some $r \in \mathbb{N}$, for each $1 \leq i \leq r$, we have that $[G : S(x_i)] = p$.

Then, by the Orbit Decomposition Theorem,

$$n^{p-1} = |X| = |X_f| + \sum_{i=1}^r [G : S(x_i)]$$

$$|X_f| = n^{p-1} - rp.$$

We observe that $|X_f|$ is indeed divisible by p and is non-zero, since $(1, \dots, 1) \in X_f$. Therefore, there exists some $a \neq 1 \in G$, such that $(a, \dots, a) \in X_f$, i.e. $a^p = 1$. We know that p is the smallest power by construction, and therefore $\text{o}(a) = p$ as required. \square

18 Lecture 18 Jun 13th 2018

18.1 Finite Abelian Groups

18.1.1 Primary Decomposition

Note (Notation)

Let G be an abelian group and $m \in \mathbb{Z}$. We define

$$G^{(m)} := \{g \in G : g^m = 1\}$$

Proposition 50 (Group of Elements of the Same Order is a Subgroup)

Let G be an abelian group. Then $G^{(m)} \leq G$.

Proof

Note that $1^m = 1 \in G^{(m)}$. $\forall g, h \in G^{(m)}$, since G is abelian, we have that¹

$$(gh)^m = g^m h^m = 1 \cdot 1 = 1.$$

Therefore $gh \in G^{(m)}$. Also, for $g \in G^{(m)}$, we have

$$(g^{-1})^m = (g^m)^{-1} = 1.$$

Thus $g^{-1} \in G^{(m)}$. By the **Subgroup Test**, we have that $G^{(m)} \leq G$. \square

¹ Pay attention that this is only true if G is abelian.

Proposition 51 (Decomposition of a Finite Abelian Group)

Let G be a finite abelian group with $|G| = mk$ such that $\gcd(m, k) = 1$.
Then

1. $G \cong G^{(m)} \times G^{(k)}$; and
2. $|G^{(m)}| = m$ and $|G^{(k)}| = k$.

Proof

1. Since G is abelian, $G^{(m)} \triangleleft G$ and $G^{(k)} \triangleleft G$.

Claim 1: $G^{(m)} \cap G^{(k)} = \{1\}$

Proof of Claim 1: $\forall g \in G^{(m)} \cap G^{(k)}, g^m = 1 = g^k$

$\because \gcd(m, k) = 1$, by **Bezout's Lemma**, $\exists x, y \in \mathbb{Z} \quad 1 = mx + ky$

$$\implies g = g^1 = g^{mx+ky} = (g^m)^x (g^k)^y = 1 \cdot 1 = 1$$

$\implies G^{(m)} \cap G^{(k)} = \{1\}$ as claimed.

Claim 2: $G = G^{(m)} G^{(k)}$ ²

² Recall that this is the Product

$$\forall g \in G \quad \because o(g) = mk \quad 1 = g^{mk} = (g^k)^m = (g^m)^k$$

It follows that $g^k \in G^{(m)}$ and $g^m \in G^{(k)}$. From **Claim 1** and by abelianness, we have that

$$g = g^{mx+ky} = (g^k)^y (g^m)^x \in G^{(m)} G^{(k)}$$

Thus $G \subseteq G^{(m)} G^{(k)}$. On the other hand, since $G^{(m)} \triangleleft G$ and $G^{(k)} \triangleleft G$, by Lemma 29, we have that $G^{(m)} G^{(k)} \leq G$ and hence $G^{(m)} G^{(k)} \subseteq G$.

Thus $G = G^{(m)} G^{(k)}$ as claimed.

From **Claims 1 and 2**, we can conclude by Corollary 33³, that $G \cong G^{(m)} \times G^{(k)}$ as required.

³ Should this not be Theorem 32?

2. Write $|G^{(m)}| = m'$ and $|G^{(k)}| = k'$. By part (1), we have that $mk = |G| = m'k'$.

Claim 3: $\gcd(m, k') = 1$

Suppose not

$$\implies \exists p \text{ prime} \quad p \mid m \text{ and } p \mid k'$$

$$\implies \exists g \in G^{(k)} \quad o(g) = p \quad \because \text{Cauchy's Theorem}$$

$$\text{Now } p \mid m \implies \exists q \in \mathbb{Z} \quad m = pq$$

$$\implies g^m = g^{pq} = 1 \quad \because o(g) = p$$

$$\implies g \in G^{(m)}.$$

By part (1), we have that $g \in G^{(m)} \cap G^{(k)} = \{1\} \implies g = 1$, which

contradicts the fact that $o(g) = p$. Thus $\gcd(m, k') = 1$ as claimed. Similarly, we can get that $\gcd(m', k) = 1$.

Notice that $mk = m'k' \implies m \mid m'k'$
 $\implies m \mid m' \quad \because \gcd(m, k') = 1$ and similarly $k \mid k'$. But then $mk = m'k'$ would imply that $m' = m$ and $k' = k$.

□

As a direct consequence of Proposition 51, we have the following:

Theorem 52 (Primary Decomposition)

Let G be a finite abelian group with $|G| = p_1^{n_1} \cdots p_k^{n_k}$, where p_1, \dots, p_k are distinct primes, and $n_1, \dots, n_k \in \mathbb{N}$. Then

1. $G \cong G^{(p_1^{n_1})} \times \cdots \times G^{(p_k^{n_k})}$; and
 2. $\forall i \ 1 \leq i \leq k \quad \left| G^{(p_i^{n_i})} \right| = p_i^{n_i}$.
-

18.1.2 p -Groups

On a related note of the groups $G^{(p_i^{n_i})}$, we define the following:

Definition 30 (p-Group)

Let p be a prime. A **p -group** is a group in which every element has an order that is a non-negative power of p .

Proposition 53 (p-Groups are Finite)

A finite group G is a p -group $\iff |G|$ is a power of p (including p^0).

Proof

(\Leftarrow) If $|G| = p^\alpha$ for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ and $g \in G$, by Corollary 24, $o(g) \mid p^\alpha$

$\implies G$ is a p -group.

(\implies) Consider the contrapositive and let $|G| = p^n p_2^{n_2} \dots p_k^{n_k}$ where p, p_2, \dots, p_k are distinct primes, $n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$, and $n_2, \dots, n_k \in \mathbb{N}$. For $k \geq 2$, by Cauchy's Theorem, $p_2 \mid |G|$

$\implies \exists g_1 \in G \quad o(g_1) = p_2$

$\implies G$ is not a p -group.

Therefore, our desired result follows. \square

OUR END GOAL here is to prove to ourselves that all finite abelian groups can be written as cross products of cyclic groups, i.e. if G is an abelian group, then

$$G \cong C_1 \times C_2 \times \dots \times C_n.$$

With Theorem 52, we have that

$$G \cong G_1 \times G_2 \times \dots \times G_n.$$

The following proposition will enable us to get to our goal from our current position:

Proposition (Finite Abelian p -Groups of order p are Cyclic)

If G is a finite abelian p -group that contains only one subgroup of order p , where p is prime, then G is cyclic. In other words, if a finite abelian p -group is not cyclic, then it must have at least 2 subgroups of order p .

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19.1 Finite Abelian Groups (Continued)

19.1.1 p -Groups (Continued)

Note (Recall)

Recall the definition of a p -group:

G is a p -group if the order of all of its elements is a non-negative power of $p \iff |G| = p^k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$.

We shall now proceed to prove the proposition mentioned by the end of last class.

Proposition 54 (Finite Abelian p -Groups of Order p are Cyclic)

If G is a finite abelian p -group that contains only 1 subgroup of order p , then G is cyclic. In other words, if a finite abelian p -group is not cyclic, then G has at least 2 subgroups of order p .

Proof

Since G is finite, let $y \in G$ have maximal order.

Claim: $G = \langle y \rangle$

Proof of Claim: Suppose not. Since $\langle y \rangle \triangleleft G$ ¹, consider the quotient group $G/\langle y \rangle$, which is, therefore, a nontrivial p -group, since $|\langle y \rangle| = p$.

By Cauchy's Theorem, we know that $\exists z \in G/\langle y \rangle$ such that $o(z) = p$ ². In particular, we have that $z \neq 1$ ³. Consider the coset map

¹ We have $\langle y \rangle \leq G$ and G is abelian.

² Note that we have $G/\langle y \rangle$ is a p -group $\iff |G/\langle y \rangle| = p^k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$. The existence of our chosen z follows from there by Cauchy's Theorem.

³ If $z = 1$, then its order would not be p .

$$\pi : G \rightarrow G/\langle y \rangle.$$

Let $x \in G$ such that $\pi(x) = z$ ⁴. Since

$$\pi(x^p) = \pi(x)^p = z^p = 1,$$

we have that x^p gets mapped to 1 by π , i.e. $x^p \in \langle y \rangle$.

$\implies \exists m \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x^p = y^m$. We shall consider two cases:

Case 1: $p \nmid m$.

$\because p \nmid m$, we have that $\gcd(m, |\langle y \rangle|) = 1$, and hence by Proposition 18⁵, we have that $o(y^m) = o(y)$. Because y has maximal order, we have

$$o(x^p) \stackrel{(1)}{<} o(x) \leq o(y) = o(y^m) = o(x^p)$$

where note that (1) is true because x would need to take more powers of p than x^p to get back to 1. We observe that we have arrived at a contradiction.

Case 2: $p \mid m$.

$$p \mid m \implies \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \ m = pk \implies x^p = y^m = y^{pk}$$

$$\because G \text{ is abelian, we have that } (xy^{-k})^p = 1.$$

By assumption, there is only one subgroup of G of order p , call it H . Thus $xy^k \in H$. On the other hand, by the Fundamental Theorem of Finite Cyclic Groups⁶, $\langle y \rangle$ has only one subgroup of order p , which must be H . Therefore, in particular, we have $xy^{-k} \in \langle y \rangle$ which implies $x \in \langle y \rangle$. It follows that $z = \pi(x) = 1$ since $\langle y \rangle$ is the identity in the quotient group $G/\langle y \rangle$, which contradicts our choice of $z \neq 1$.

Therefore, by combining the two cases, we have that $G = \langle y \rangle$. □

⁴ Recall that π is surjective by Proposition 35.

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Proposition (Proposition 18)

Let $G = \langle g \rangle$ with $o(g) = n \in \mathbb{N}$. We have

$$G = \langle g^k \rangle \iff \gcd(k, n) = 1$$

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Theorem (Theorem 19)

Let $G = \langle g \rangle$ with $o(g) = n \in \mathbb{N}$.

1. H is a subgroup of $G \implies \exists d \in \mathbb{N} \ d \mid n \ H = \langle g^d \rangle \implies |H| \mid n$.
2. $k \mid n \implies \langle g^{\frac{k}{n}} \rangle$ is the unique subgroup of G of order k .

Proposition 55

Let $G \neq \{1\}$ be a finite abelian p -group that contains one subgroup of order p . Let C be the cyclic subgroup of G of maximal order. Then $\exists B \leq G$ such that $G = CB$ and $C \cap B = \{1\}$. By Corollary 33, we have $G \cong C \times B$.

Proof

We shall prove this result by induction. If $|G| = p$, then $C = G$ by definition and we can choose $B = \{1\}$. The result follows from there.

Suppose that the result holds for all groups of order p^{n-1} with $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n \geq 2$. Consider the case for $|G| = p^n$. There are two cases to consider from here.

Case 1: If $C = G$, then we can pick $B = \{1\}$ so that the result follows.

Case 2: If $C \neq G$, then G is not cyclic. By Proposition 54, there exists at least 2 subgroups of G that are of order p . Since C is cyclic, by the Fundamental Theorem for Finite Cyclic Groups, we have that C contains exactly one subgroup of order p . Then $\exists D \leq G$ such that $|D| = p$ and $D \not\subseteq C$, and consequently $C \cap D = \{1\}$. Now since G is abelian, $D \triangleleft G$ and hence we may consider its coset map:

$$\pi : G \rightarrow G/D.$$

If we consider $\pi|_C$, called the **restriction** of π on C ⁷, then $\ker \pi|_C = C \cap D = \{1\}$. Then by the First Isomorphism Theorem, we have

$$C \cong \pi(C).$$

Now let y be the generator of the cyclic group C . Then since $\pi(C) \cong C$, we have $\pi(C) = \langle \pi(y) \rangle$. By assumption on C , $\pi(C)$ is the cyclic subgroup of G/D of maximal order⁸. Since $|G/D| = p^{n-1}$ by Lagrange's Theorem, by the induction hypothesis, G/D has a subgroup E such that $\pi(C)E = G/D$ and $\pi(C) \cap E = \{1\}$.

Therefore, choose $B = \pi^{-1}(E)$, i.e. $\pi(B) = E$.

Claim 1: $G = CB$

Note that $D \subseteq B$ ⁹. If $x \in G$, $\therefore \pi(x) \in \pi(C)\pi(B) = \pi(C)E = G/D$, we have that $\exists u \in C, \exists v \in B$ such that

$$\pi(x) = \pi(u)\pi(v).$$

By homomorphism, we have $\pi(xu^{-1}v^{-1}) = 1$ which implies $xu^{-1}v^{-1} \in D \subseteq B$. Then because $v \in B$, we have that $xu^{-1} \in B$ since B is a group. Then since G is abelian, we have

$$x = uxu^{-1} \in CB.$$

Claim 2: $C \cap B = \{1\}$.

Let $x \in C \cap B$. Then $\pi(x) \in \pi(C) \cap \pi(B) = \pi(C) \cap E = \{1\}$. Then, $\therefore \pi(x) = 1 \in C/D$ ¹⁰, we have that $x \in D$. Therefore, $x \in C \cap D = \{1\}$ which then $x = 1$.

⁷ The restriction of π on C simply means that we restrict the domain of π to work solely for the subset C . In plain words, we are only considering the case where π is applied onto elements of C .

⁸ I need to get some clarification from the professor on this.

⁹ This needs clarification as well.

¹⁰ I need to double check this to make sure that it is indeed C and not G , because it does not make sense with C being the one that D is onto.

Since *Claims 1 & 2* hold, the result follows by induction.

□



20 Lecture 20 Jun 18th 2018

20.1 Finite Abelian Groups (Continued 2)

20.1.1 p -Groups (Continued 2)

Recall that we had the following subgroup of a group G .

$$G^{(m)} = \{g \in G : g^m = 1\}.$$

We discussed about the Primary Decomposition, Theorem 52, and then arrived at Proposition 55. With these, we can have the following theorem:

Theorem 56 (Finite Abelian Groups are Isomorphic to a Direct Product of Cyclic Groups)

Let $G \neq \{1\}$ be a finite abelian p -group. Then G is isomorphic to a direct product of cyclic groups.

Proof

By Proposition 55, there is a cyclic group C_1 and a subgroup B_1 of G , such that $G \cong C_1 \times B_1$. Since $B_1 \leq G$, we have that $|B_1| \mid |G|$, and so by Theorem 23, B_1 is also a p -group. If $B_1 \neq \{1\}$, then by Proposition 55, there exists a cyclic group C_2 and a $B_2 \leq B_1$ such that $B_1 \cong C_2 \times B_2$.

By continuing this line of argument, we can get C_1, C_2, \dots until we get to some C_k with $B_k = \{1\}$, for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Then

$$G \cong C_1 \times C_2 \times \dots \times C_k$$

as required. □

Remark

We can verify that the decomposition of a finite abelian p -group into a direct product of cyclic groups is in fact unique up to their orders.¹

¹ This is the bonus question on A4. It will be included once the assignment is over.

Combining the above remark, Theorem 52 and Theorem 56, we have the following theorem.

Theorem 57 (Finite Abelian Group Structure)

If G is a finite abelian group, then

$$G \cong C_{p_1^{n_1}} \times \dots \times C_{p_k^{n_k}}$$

where $C_{p_i^{n_i}}$ is a cyclic group of order $p_i^{n_i}$, where $1 \leq i \leq k$. The numbers $p_i^{n_i}$ are uniquely determined up to their order.²

² Note that the p_i 's do not have to be unique.

Remark

Note that if p_1 and p_2 are distinct primes, then

$$C_{p_1^{n_1}} \times C_{p_2^{n_2}} \cong C_{p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2}},$$

the cyclic group of order $p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2}$. Thus, by combining suitable prime factors together, for a finite abelian group G , we can also write

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{m_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{m_2} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{m_r},$$

where $m_i \in \mathbb{N}$, $i \leq 1 \leq r$, $m_1 > 1$ and

$$m_1 \mid m_2 \mid \dots \mid m_r$$

Example 20.1.1

Consider an abelian group G with order 48. Since $48 = 2^4 \cdot 3$, an abelian group of order 48 is isomorphic to $H \times \mathbb{Z}_3$, where H is an abelian group of order 2^4 . The options for H are:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{Z}_{2^4} & \mathbb{Z}_{2^3} \times \mathbb{Z}_2 & \mathbb{Z}_{2^2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2^2} \\ \mathbb{Z}_{2^2} \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 & \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 & \end{array}$$

Therefore, we have the following possible decompositions of G :

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2^4} \times \mathbb{Z}_3 \cong \mathbb{Z}_{48}$$

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2^3} \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3 = \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_{24}$$

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2^2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2^2} \times \mathbb{Z}_3 = \mathbb{Z}_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_{12}$$

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2^2} \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3 = \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_{12}$$

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3 = \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_6$$

20.2 Rings

20.2.1 Rings

Definition 31 (Ring)

A set R is a ring if $\forall a, b, c \in R$,

1. $a + b \in R$
2. $a + b = b + a$
3. $a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c$
4. $\exists 0 \in R \ a + 0 = a = 0 + a$
5. $\exists (-a) \in R \ a + (-a) = 0 = (-a) + a$
6. $ab \in R$
7. $a(bc) = (ab)c$
8. $\exists 1 \in R \ 1 \cdot a = a = a \cdot 1$
9. $a(b + c) = ab + ac$ and $(b + c)a = ba + ca$

We call 1 as the **Unity** of R , 0 as the **Zero** of R , and $-a$ as the **negative** of a .

The ring R is called a **Commutative Ring** if it also satisfies the following:

10. $ab = ba$.

As daunting as this definition seems, it is much easier to remember if we think of R being an **abelian group under addition**, “almost” a group under **multiplication**, save the fact that the **multiplicative inverse of an element does not necessarily exist**, and with the **distributive law**.

Example 20.2.1

$\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}$ and \mathbb{C} are commutative rings with the zero being 0, and unity being 1.

Example 20.2.2

For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n \geq 2$, \mathbb{Z}_n is a commutative ring with the zero being $[0]$, and unity being $[1]$.

Example 20.2.3

The set $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ is a ring using matrix addition and matrix multiplication, with zero being the zero matrix 0 , and unity being the identity matrix I . We also know that $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ is not commutative.

Warning

Note that since (R, \cdot) is not a group, we no longer have the liberty of using Proposition 6, i.e. we do not have left or right cancellation. For example, in \mathbb{Z} , $0 \cdot x = 0 \cdot y \not\Rightarrow x = y$.

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21.1 Rings (Continued)

21.1.1 Rings (Continued)

Note (Notation)

Given a ring R , to distinguish the difference between multiples in addition and in multiplication, for $n \in \mathbb{N} \wedge a \in R$, we write

$$na = \underbrace{a + a + \dots + a}_{n \text{ times}}$$

and

$$a^n = \underbrace{a \cdot a \cdot \dots \cdot a}_{n \text{ times}}$$

respectively. Also, we will define

$$(-n)a = \underbrace{(-a) + (-a) + \dots + (-a)}_{n \text{ times}}$$

and

$$a^{-n} = \left(a^{-1}\right)^n$$

if a^{-1} exists.

Note

Recall that for a group G and $g \in G$, we have $g^0 = 1$, $g^1 = g$, and

$(g^{-1})^{-1} = g$. Thus for addition, we have

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \text{integer} \\
 \uparrow \\
 0 \cdot a = 0 \quad 1 \cdot a = a \\
 \downarrow \\
 \text{zero in } R \\
 -(-a) = a
 \end{array}$$

Also, by Proposition 5, if $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 m \cdot a + n \cdot a &= (m + n) \cdot a \\
 n(ma) &= (nm)a \\
 n(a + b) &= na + nb
 \end{aligned}$$

Proposition 58 (More Properties of Rings)

Let R be a ring and $r, s \in R$.

1. If 0 is the zero of R , then $0 \cdot r = 0 = r \cdot 0$;¹
2. $-r(s) = -(rs) = r(-s)$;
3. $(-r)(-s) = rs$;
4. $\forall m, n \in \mathbb{Z}, (mr)(ns) = (mn)(rs)$.

This is a problem in A4.

¹ i.e. all the 0 's are zeros of R .

Definition 32 (Trivial Ring)

A **trivial ring** is a ring of only one element. In this case, we have $1 = 0$, i.e. the unity is the zero and vice versa.

Remark

If R is a ring with $R \neq \{0\}$, since $r = r \cdot 1$ for all $r \in R$, we have $1 \neq 0$. Otherwise, if $1 = 0$, then $r = r \cdot 1 = r \cdot 0 = 0$, i.e. $R = \{0\}$.

Example 21.1.1

Let R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n be rings. We define component-wise operation on the

product

$$R_1 \times R_2 \times \dots \times R_n$$

as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} (r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n) + (s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n) &= (r_1 + s_1, r_2 + s_2, \dots, r_n + s_n) \\ (r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n)(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n) &= (r_1 s_1, r_2 s_2, \dots, r_n s_n) \end{aligned}$$

We can check that $R_1 \times R_2 \times \dots \times R_n$ is a ring with the zero being $(0, 0, \dots, 0)$ and the unity being $(1, 1, \dots, 1)$. This set

$$R_1 \times R_2 \times \dots \times R_n$$

is called the **direct product** of R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n .

Definition 33 (Characteristic of a Ring)

If R is a ring, we define the **characteristic** of R , denoted by $\text{ch}(R)$, in terms of the order of 1_R in the additive group $(R, +)$, by

$$\text{ch}(R) = \begin{cases} n & \text{if } o(1_R) = n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ in } (R, +) \\ 0 & \text{if } o(1_R) = \infty \text{ in } (R, +) \end{cases}$$

For $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, we write $kR = 0$ to mean that $\forall r \in R, kr = 0$.

By Proposition 58, we have

$$kr = k(1_R \cdot r) = (k1_R) \cdot r$$

and so $kR = 0$ if and only if $k1_R = 0$. Then, since $(R, +)$ is a group, by Proposition 13 and Proposition 14, it follows that:

Proposition 59 (Implications of the Characteristic)

Let R be a ring and $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.²

1. $\text{ch}(R) = n \in \mathbb{N} \implies (kR = 0 \iff n \mid k)$
2. $\text{ch}(R) = 0 \implies (kR = 0 \iff k = 0)$

² This is why we defined $\text{ch}(R) = 0$ if $o(1_R) = \infty$

Example 21.1.2

Each of $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}$ and \mathbb{C} has characteristic 0. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n \geq 2$, the ring \mathbb{Z}_n has characteristic n .

21.1.2 Subring

Definition 34 (Subring)

A subset S of a ring R is a subring if S is a ring itself (under the same operations: addition and multiplication).

Note that properties (2), (3), (7) and (9) from Definition 31 are automatically satisfied. Thus, to show that S is a subring, it suffices to show the following:

Subring Test

1. $0, 1 \in S$ ³
2. $s, t \in S \implies (s - t), st \in S$

Example 21.1.3

We have the following chain of commutative rings:

$$\mathbb{Z} \leq_r \mathbb{Q} \leq_r \mathbb{R} \leq_r \mathbb{C}$$

Example 21.1.4

If R is a ring, the *center* $Z(R)$ of R is defined as

$$Z(R) = \{z \in R : zr = rz, r \in R\}.$$

Note that $0, 1 \in Z(R)$. Also, if $s, t \in Z(R)$, then $\forall r \in R$,

$$(s - t)r = sr - tr = rs - rt = r(s - t)$$

and so $(s - t) \in Z(R)$. Also,

$$(st)r = s(tr) = s(rt) = (sr)t = (rs)t = r(st)$$

and so $st \in Z(R)$. By the *Subring Test*, $Z(R) \leq_r R$.

Example 21.1.5

Unlike subgroups, since there is no proper suggestion of a symbolic representation, I shall use $S \leq_r R$ to denote that S is a subring of R , in comparison to \leq for subgroups, which has no subscript. Note that this is purely for keeping my writing succinct, and so the subscript r is used simply to indicate that the \leq symbol is for denoting a subring and should not be confused with other r 's that may be used in a proof. This notation is also not used in class, and should be avoided during materials outside of this set of notes.

³ The $0 \in S$ is certainly not necessary to be shown, since from part (2) we would have $s \in S \implies 0 \in (s - s) \in S$.

Let

$$\mathbb{Z}[c] = \{a + bi : a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, i^2 = -1\} \subseteq \mathbb{C}.$$

It can be shown that $\mathbb{Z}[i] \leq_r \mathbb{C}$, and is called the ring of *Gaussian integers*.⁴

⁴ Proof that the Gaussian integers is a subring is in A4, which shall be included after the assignment is over.

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22.1 Ring (Continued 2)

22.1.1 Ideals

Let R be a ring and A an additive subgroup of R . Since $(R, +)$ is abelian, we have that $A \triangleleft R$. Thus, we can talk about the additive quotient group

$$\begin{aligned} R/A &= \{r + a : r \in R\} \text{ with} \\ r + A &= \{r + a : a \in A\} \end{aligned}$$

Using the properties that we know about cosets and quotient groups, we have the following proposition.

Proposition 60 (Properties of the Additive Quotient Group)

Let R be a ring and A an additive subgroup of R . For $r, s \in R$, we have

1. $r + A = s + A \iff (r - s) \in A$
2. $(r + A) + (s + A) = (r + s) + A$
3. $0 + A = A$ is the additive identity of R/A
4. $-(r + A) = (-r) + A$ is the additive inverse of $r + A$
5. $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z} \quad k(r + A) = kr + A$

This is just a translation of the properties of cosets and quotient groups, that we are familiar with, into the language of addition. You can (read: should) prove this as an exercise for yourself (read: myself).

Since R is a ring, it is natural to ask if we could make R/A into a ring¹. A natural way to define “multiplication” in R/A is

¹ Ideally (see what I did there?), we would want R/A as a ring, just as we had R/A as a group.

$$(r + A)(s + A) = rs + A \quad \forall r, s \in R \quad (\dagger)$$

Note, however, that we would have

$$r + A = r_1 + A \quad s + A = s_1 + A$$

with $r \neq r_1$ and $s \neq s_1$. In order for (\dagger) to make sense, it is necessary that

$$r + A = r_1 + A \wedge s + A = s_1 + A \implies rs + A = r_1s_1 + A$$

so that this “multiplication” is **well-defined**.

Proposition 61

Let A be an additive subgroup of a ring R . Then $\forall a \in A$, define

$$Ra = \{ra : r \in R\} \quad aR = \{ar : r \in R\}.$$

The following are equivalent (TFAE):

1. $Ra \subseteq A$ and $aR \subseteq A, \forall a \in A$;
2. $\forall r, s \in R, (r + A)(s + A) = rs + A$ is well-defined in R/A .

Proof

(1) \implies (2): If $r + A = r_1 + A$ and $s + A = s_1 + A$, for $r, r_1, s, s_1 \in R$, we need to show that

$$rs + A = r_1s_1 + A.$$

By Proposition 60, we have that $(r - r_1), (s - s_1) \in A$, and so by (1), we have

$$\begin{aligned} rs - r_1s_1 &= rs - r_1s + r_1s - r_1s_1 \\ &= (r - r_1)s + r_1(s - s_1) \\ &\in (r - r_1)R + R(s - s_1) \subseteq A \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, by Proposition 60 again, we have $rs + A = r_1s_1 + A$.

(2) \implies (1): Let $r \in R$ and $a \in A$. We have that

$$\begin{aligned}
 ra + A &= (r + A)(a + A) \quad \because (2) \\
 &= (r + A)(0 + A) \quad \because a, 0 \in A \\
 &\quad \downarrow \\
 &\quad \text{zero of } R \\
 &= (r \cdot 0) + A \quad \because (2) \\
 &= 0 + A \quad \because \text{Proposition 58} \\
 &= A \quad \because \text{Proposition 60}
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus $ra \in A$ and so $Ra \subseteq A$. Similarly, we can show that $aR \subseteq A$. \square

Definition 35 (Ideal)

An additive subgroup A of a ring R is called an **ideal** of R if $Ra, aR \subseteq A, \forall a \in A$.

Example 22.1.1

If R is a ring, $\{0\}$ and R are both ideals of R .

Proposition 62 (The Only Ideal with the Multiplicative Identity is the Ring Itself)

Let A be an ideal of a ring R . If $1 \in A$, then $A = R$.

This also shows that if we want a non-trivial ideal, then the ideal should not have 1.

Proof

$\forall r \in R, \because A$ is an ideal and $1 \in A$, we have $r = r \cdot 1 \in A$. It follows that $R \subseteq A \subseteq R$ and so $R = A$. \square

Proposition 63 (Construction of the Quotient Ring)

Let A be an ideal of a ring R . Then the additive quotient group R/A is a ring with the multiplication $(r + A)(s + A) = rs + A, \forall r, s \in R$. The unity of R/A is $1 + A$.

Proof

$\because A$ is an additive subgroup of a ring R , R/A is an additive abelian group. By Proposition 61, the multiplication on R/A is well-defined. The multiplication is associative, since $\forall r, s, q \in R$,

$$\begin{aligned}(r + A)((s + A)(q + A)) &= (r + A)(sq + A) = (rsq + A) \\ &= (rs + A)(q + A) \\ &= ((r + A)(s + A))(q + A).\end{aligned}$$

We also have

$$(r + A)(1 + A) = r + A = (1 + A)(r + A)$$

and so the unity of R/A is $1 + A$. The distributive property is inherited from R . \square

Definition 36 (Quotient Ring)

Let A be an ideal of a ring R . Then the ring R/A is called the **quotient ring** of R by A .

Definition 37 (Principal Ideal)

Let R be a commutative ring and A an ideal of R . If $A = aR = \{ar : r \in R\} = Ra$ for some $a \in A$, we say that A is a **principal ideal** generated by a , and denote $A = \langle a \rangle$.

Example 22.1.2

If $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $\langle n \rangle = n\mathbb{Z}$ is a(n) (principal) ideal of \mathbb{Z} , since \mathbb{Z} is commutative.

Proposition (Ideals of \mathbb{Z} are Principal Ideals)

All ideals of \mathbb{Z} are of the form $\langle a \rangle$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

We shall prove this in the next lecture.

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24 List of Symbols

$M_n(\mathbb{R})$	set of $n \times n$ matrices over \mathbb{R}
\mathbb{Z}_n^*	set of integers modulo n ; each element has its multiplicative inverse
S_n	symmetry group of degree n
D_{2n}	dihedral group of degree n ; a subset of S_n
K_n	Klein n -group
A_n	alternating group of degree n ; a subset of S_n
$ D_{2n} $	order of the dihedral group; the size of the dihedral group
$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \dots & n \end{pmatrix}$	An n -cycle
$\det A$	determinant of matrix A
$GL_n(\mathbb{R})$	general linear group of degree n ; the set that contains elements of $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ with non-zero determinant
$SL_n(\mathbb{R})$	special linear group of order n ; the set that contains elements of $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$ with determinant of 1
$Z(G)$	center of group G
$\langle g \rangle$	cyclic group with generator g ; principal ideal with generator g
$n \mid d$	n divides d
$H \leq G$	H is a subgroup of G (used sparsely in this notebook)
$H \triangleleft G$	H is a normal subgroup of G
G/H	quotient group of G by $H \triangleleft G$
$\ker \alpha$	kernel of α
$\text{im } \alpha$	image of α
$G^{(m)}$	group of elements of G with order m
$\text{ch}(R)$	characteristic of the ring R