

# MATH 113: Abstract Algebra

Jad Damaj

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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

### 1.1 January 18

#### 1.1.1 What is Algebra?

High School Algebra: Solve equations (over real and complex numbers), precalculus material

Abstract Algebra: Study algebraic structures more general than the real or complex numbers

- The abstract encapsulation of our intuition for composition

Summary of first 6-7 years of math education:

- The notion of unity, eg. 1
- The natural numbers  $\mathbb{N} := \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$  with  $+, \times$
- the integers  $\mathbb{Z} := \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$  with  $+, \times$ , additive inverses exist
- the rational numbers  $\mathbb{Q} := \{\frac{a}{b} | a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \neq 0\}$  with  $+, \times$ , additive and multiplicative inverses exist
- $\mathbb{R}$ , real numbers
- $\mathbb{C}$ , complex numbers

Adding structure at each step:  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ - Group,  $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \times)$ -Ring,  $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \times)$ -Field

Goal of this class: define larger class of objects like this

#### 1.1.2 Set Theory

**Definition 1.1.1.** A set is a collection of elements  
Ex: Numbers, symbols shapes, turkeys

Notation:  $P, Q$  are two statements

- $P \rightarrow Q$  means if  $P$  is true then  $Q$  is true, “ $P$  implies  $Q$ ”
- $P \leftrightarrow Q$  “ $P$  is true if and only if  $Q$  is true”

- $\forall$  “for all”
- $\exists$  “there exists”,  $\exists!$  “there exists unique”

Let  $S$  and  $T$  be two sets

- if  $s$  is an object in  $S$  we say  $s$  is an element of  $S$  or a member of  $S$ . Write  $s \in S$  if  $s$  is in  $S$ ,  $s \notin S$  if  $s$  is not in  $S$
- If  $S$  has finitely many elements we say it is a finite set.  $|S| = \#$  of elements in  $S$  (cardinality)

Set notation:

- $S = \{\text{Notation for elements in } S \mid \text{properties specifying being in } S\}$   
Ex:  $\{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid 2 \text{ divides } x\}$ ,  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ ,  $\{1, 2, 3\}$
- If every object in  $S$  is also an object in  $T$  we say “ $S$  is contained in  $T$ ”,  $S \subset T$ . If  $S$  is not contained in  $T$ ,  $S \not\subset T$
- If  $S \subset T$  and  $T \subset S$ , then  $S = T$
- The set of objects contained in both  $S$  and  $T$  is called the intersection,  $S \cap T$
- The set of objects contained in either  $S$  or  $T$  is called the union,  $S \cup T$ . (If  $S$  and  $T$  are disjoint  $S \sqcup T$ )
- $S \times T = \{(a, b) \mid a \in S, b \in T\}$  - Cartesian product of  $S$  and  $T$
- The set that contains no objects is called the empty set,  $\emptyset$

### 1.1.3 Maps/Functions

- $f : A \rightarrow B$  or  $A \xrightarrow[f]{B}$  is a map or function. The value of  $f$  at  $a$  is denoted  $f(a)$
- If specifying a function on elements,  $f : a \mapsto b$  or  $a \mapsto b$
- $A$  is called the domain of  $f$ .  $B$  is called the codomain of  $f$ .  
Ex:  $S = \mathbb{N}, T = \mathbb{N} \quad f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \quad a \mapsto a^2$
- We say  $f$  is well defined if  $a_1 = a_2 \rightarrow f(a_1) = f(a_2) \quad \forall a_1, a_2 \in A$
- The set  $f(A) = \{b \in B \mid b = f(a) \text{ for some } a \in A\}$  is a subset of  $B$  called the range or image of  $f$
- The set  $f^{-1}(C) = \{a \in A \mid f(a) \in C\}$  is called the preimage of  $C$  under  $f$  ( $C \subset B$ )
- We say  $f$  is injective if  $f(x) = f(y) \rightarrow x = y \quad \forall x, y \in A$
- We say  $f$  is surjective if given  $b \in B \quad \exists a \in A$  such that  $f(a) = b$
- We say  $f$  is bijective if it is both injective and surjective
- We say that  $f$  is the identity map if  $A = B$  and  $f(a) = a \quad \forall a \in A$ . In this case we write  $f = \text{Id}_A$
- if  $f : A \rightarrow B$  and  $g : B \rightarrow C$ , the composite map  $fg : A \rightarrow C$  is defined by  $(gf)(a) = g(f(a))$

### 1.1.4 Equivalence Relations

Let  $A$  be a nonempty set. A binary relation on a set  $A$  is a subset  $R$  of  $A \times A$  and we write  $a \equiv b$  if  $(a, b) \in R$ .

We say  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation if  $\sim$  is:

- reflexive:  $a \sim a \ \forall a \in A$
- symmetric:  $a \sim b \rightarrow b \sim a \ \forall a, b \in A$
- transitive:  $a \sim b$  and  $b \sim c \rightarrow a \sim c \ \forall a, b, c \in A$

If  $\sim$  defines an equivalence relation on  $A$ , then the equivalence class of  $a \in A$  is defined to be  $[a] = \{x \in A \mid x \sim a\}$ .

**Example 1.1.2.** Consider the binary relation on  $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$  given by  $(x, y) \in R$  if  $2 \mid x - y$ . We will show  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation:

reflexiveness:  $x - x = 0$  so  $2 \mid 0 = x - x$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$

symmetricness: Suppose  $2 \mid x - y$ . Since  $(x - y) = -(y - x)$ ,  $2 \mid y - x$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$

transitivity: If  $2 \mid x - y$  and  $2 \mid y - z$  then  $2 \mid x - y + y - z$  so  $2 \mid x - z$

So  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation

**Remark 1.1.3.** The reflexive property, implies that  $x \in [x]$  so equivalence classes are nonempty and their union is  $A$

What are the equivalence classes for “ $x \sim y$  if and only if  $2 \mid x - y$ ”

$$[x] = \{y \in \mathbb{Z} \mid 2 \mid x - y\}$$

- If  $x$  is even,  $x = 2n$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  then  $2 \mid y - 2n \rightarrow y$  is even so  $y = 2m$  for some  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$
- If  $x$  is odd,  $x = 2n + 1$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  then  $2 \mid y - 2n - 1 \rightarrow y$  is odd so  $y = 2n + 1$  for some  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$

**Remark 1.1.4.** The symmetric and transitive properties imply that  $y \in [x]$  if and only if  $[y] = [x]$  so two equivalence classes are either equal or disjoint

### 1.1.5 Properties of the Integers ( $\mathbb{Z}$ )

- If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $a \neq 0$  we say  $a$  divides  $b$  if there is an element  $c \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $b = ac$ . Write  $a \mid b$  (if  $a$  does not divide  $b$ , write  $a \nmid b$ )
- If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$  there is a unique positive integer  $d$ , called the greatest common divisor  $\gcd(a, b)$ , satisfying:
  1.  $d \mid a$  and  $d \mid b$
  2. If  $e \mid a$  and  $e \mid b$ , then  $e \mid d$
- If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$  there is a unique positive integer  $l$ , called the least common divisor satisfying:
  1.  $a \mid l$  and  $b \mid l$
  2. If  $a \mid m$  and  $b \mid m$ , then  $l \mid m$

## 1.2 January 20

### 1.2.1 Properties of the Integers ( $\mathbb{Z}$ )

The division algorithm: If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $b \neq 0$  then there exists unique  $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $a = qb + r$  and  $0 \leq r < |b|$ .

- $q$  is the quotient,  $r$  is the remainder

**Example 1.2.1.** For  $a = 23, b = 7$   $23 = 7 * 3 + 2$ . Here  $q = 3, r = 2$

The Euclidean Algorithm: an important procedure which produces the greatest common divisor of two integers  $a$  and  $b$  by iterating the division algorithm.

If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ , we obtain  $a = q_0b + r_0$ ,  $b = q_1r_0 + r_1$ ,  $r_0 = q_2r_1 + r_2$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $r_{n-2} = q_nr_{n-1} + r_n$ ,  $r_{n-1} = q_{n+1}r_n$  where  $r_n$  is the last nonzero remainder,  $r_n = \gcd(a, b)$

Because of division algorithm,  $|b| > |r_0| > |r_1| > \dots > |r_n|$  is a decreasing sequence of strictly positive integers so this cannot continue indefinitely, so  $r_n$  exists.

Why is  $r_n = \gcd(a, b)$ ?

Claim:  $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r_0)$

*Proof.*  $r_0 = a - q_0b$  so if  $d|b$  and  $d|a$ ,  $d|a - q_0b = r_0$

Also  $r_0 + q_0b = a$  so if  $d|b$  and  $d|r_0$ ,  $d|r_0 + q_0b = a$

□

Iterate this to get  $r_n = \gcd(r_{n-1}, r_n) = \dots = \gcd(a, b)$

**Example 1.2.2.** Calculate  $\gcd(35, 20)$

$25 = 20 \cdot 1 + 5$ ,  $20 = 15 \cdot 1 + 5$ ,  $15 = 5 \cdot 3 + 0$  so  $\gcd(35, 20) = \gcd(15, 5) = 5$

**Theorem 1.2.3.** Given any  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\exists u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $au + bv = \gcd(a, b)$ .

**Proof.** Work backwards through Euclidean Algorithm

**Example 1.2.4.** Write  $\gcd$  from example 2 in terms of 20 and 35.

$20 = 15 \cdot 1 + 5$  so  $5 = 20 - 15 \cdot 1$

$15 = 35 - 20 \cdot 1$  so  $5 = 20 - (35 - 20)$  so  $5 = 20 \cdot 2 - 35 \cdot 1$

### 1.2.2 Primes

**Definition 1.2.5.** An integer  $p > 1$  is prime if its only positive divisors are 1 and  $p$  itself

**Lemma 1.2.6.** Euclid's Lemma  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, p$  is primes. If  $p|ab$  then  $p|a$  or  $p|b$ .

**Remark 1.2.7.** Primality is important.  $15|3 \cdot 5$  but  $15 \nmid 3, 15 \nmid 5$

**Proof.** If  $p \nmid a$  then  $\gcd(p, a) = 1$ , thus there exists  $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $au + pv = 1$  but then  $b = b(au + pv) = bau + bpv$ . By assumption  $p|ab$  so  $p|bau$  and  $p|p$  so  $p|bpv$  so  $p|bau + bpv$  so  $p|b$ .

The fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic: if  $n \in \mathbb{Z}, n > 1$  then  $n$  can be factored uniquely into the product of primes. In other words, there are distinct primes  $p_1, \dots, p_s$  and positive integers  $d_1, \dots, d_s$  such that  $n = p_1^{d_1} p_2^{d_2} \cdots p_s^{d_s}$ . Such a factorization is unique up to ordering.

**Theorem 1.2.8.** There are infinitely many primes

**Proof.** Suppose not, then there are finitely many primes,  $p_1, \dots, p_n$ . Consider  $p_1 \cdots p_n + 1$  by FTA there is a prime factorization so at least one prime divides it. Can't be  $p_1, \dots, p_n$  so must be prime not listed.

### 1.2.3 Congruences

Fix  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ , by division algorithm, for  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ , there exists unique  $q, r$  such that  $a = qm + r$  and  $0 \leq r < m$ . We call  $r$  the remainder of  $a$  modulo  $m$ .

This gives a natural equivalence relation on  $\mathbb{Z}$ :  $a \sim b \leftrightarrow a$  and  $b$  have the same remainder modulo  $m \leftrightarrow m|(a-b)$

**Definition 1.2.9.**  $a$  and  $b$  are congruent modulo  $m \leftrightarrow m|(a-b)$ . We write  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ .

**Remark 1.2.10.** The equivalence classes of  $\mathbb{Z}$  under this relation are indexed by the possible remainders modulo  $m$ . We call these residue classes:  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z} = \{[0], [1], \dots, [m-1]\}$

- We have a natural surjective map  $[\ ] : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z} \quad a \mapsto [a]$

**Definition 1.2.11.** We define addition and multiplication on  $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$  by  $[a] \times [b] = [a \times b] \forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $[a] + [b] = [a + b] \forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$

- This doesn't depend on choice of representatives for the class

*Proof.* Suppose  $a_1 \equiv b_1 \pmod{m}$ , then  $m|a_1 - b_1$  so  $a_1 = b_1 + sm$  for  $s \in \mathbb{Z}$

Also  $a_2 \equiv b_2 \pmod{m}$  so  $a_2 = b_2 + tm$  for  $t \in \mathbb{Z}$

$(a_1 + a_2) = b_1 + b_2 + (s+t)m$  so  $a_1 + a_2 \equiv b_1 + b_2 \pmod{m}$  also  $a_1 a_2 = (b_1 + sm)(b_2 + tm) = b_1 b_2 + (b_1 t + b_2 s + stm)m$  so  $a_1 a_2 \equiv b_1 b_2 \pmod{m}$   $\square$

- $[0] \in \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$  behaves like 0 in  $\mathbb{Z}$ :  $[0] + [a] = [a]$  for  $[a] \in \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$
- $[1] \in \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$  behaves like 1 in  $\mathbb{Z}$ :  $[1] \times [a] = [a]$  for  $[a] \in \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$   
but  $\underbrace{[1] + \cdots + [1]}_{m \text{ times}} = [0]$  and  $[r][s] = [rs] = [m] = [0]$  for some  $r, s$

**Proposition 1.2.12.** For every  $m \in \mathbb{N}, a \in \mathbb{Z}$  the congruence  $ax \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$  has a solution in  $\mathbb{Z}$  if and only if  $a$  and  $m$  are coprime.



**Proof.** If  $a$  and  $m$  are coprime,  $\gcd(a, m) = 1$  so  $\exists u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $au + mv = 1$  so  $au \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$

# Chapter 2

## Groups

### 2.1 January 20

#### 2.1.1 Groups

**Definition 2.1.1.** Let  $G$  be a set. A binary operation is a map of sets  $*$  :  $G \times G \rightarrow G$ . Write  $a * b$  for  $*(a, b)$  for  $a, b \in G$  or  $ab$  when  $*$  is clear.

**Definition 2.1.2.** A group is a set  $G$  with a binary operation  $*$  such that the following hold:

1. (Associativity):  $(a * b) * c = a * (b * c) \forall a, b, c \in G$
2. (Identity):  $\exists e \in G$  such that  $a * e = e * a = a \forall a \in G$
3. (Inverses): Given  $a \in G$ ,  $\exists b \in G$  such that  $a * b = b * a = e$

### 2.2 January 25

#### 2.2.1 Groups

**Example 2.2.1.**

- $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  under  $+$ ,  $e = 0, [0]$ , for  $a \in G$ ,  $a^{-1} = -a$
- $\mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}, \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ , under  $\times$ ,  $e = 1$ ,  $a^{-1} = \frac{1}{a}$

**Example 2.2.2** (Non-Example).

$(\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}, \times)$  not group since no inverses.

**Example 2.2.3.**  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}^\times :=$  elements in  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  that have inverses ( $[a]$  such that  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ ).  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}^\times$  is a group.

**Example 2.2.4.**

- If  $(A, *)$  and  $(B, \diamond)$  are groups. We can form the group  $(A \times B, (*, \diamond))$  where  $A \times B = \{(a, b) | a \in A, b \in B\}$  whose operation is defined componentwise  $(a_1, b_1)(*, \diamond)(a_2, b_2) = (a_1 * a_2, b_1 \diamond b_2)$

- The trivial group: a set with a single element  $e$ ,  $e * e = e$  is the definition of the binary operation. No choice but to be associative.  $e$  is the identity and its own inverse.

A set with a binary operation  $*$  is called a monoid if the first two properties of a group hold (no need for inverses.)

**Example 2.2.5.**  $(\mathbb{Z}, \times)$  is a monoid.

- All groups are monoids but not all monoids are groups.

**Definition 2.2.6.** A group  $(G, *)$  is called abelian if it satisfies

$$a * b = b * a \forall a, b \in G \text{ (commutative).}$$

**Example 2.2.7.**  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$  is an abelian group.

**Example 2.2.8.** Non Abelian group  $= GL_n(\mathbb{R}) := \{M \in M_n(\mathbb{R}) \mid \det(M) \neq 0\}$ .

A square matrix has a nonzero determinant iff it is invertible so every element has an inverse under matrix multiplication. Matrix multiplication is associative and we have  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  as the identity matrix. So  $\{GL_n(\mathbb{R}), \times\}$  is a group and for  $n \geq 2$  is non-abelian.

**Proposition 2.2.9.** If  $G$  is a group under  $*$  then,

- 1) The identity of  $G$  is unique.
- 2) For each  $a \in G$ ,  $a^{-1}$  is uniquely determined.
- 3)  $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$  for all  $a \in G$ .
- 4)  $(a * b)^{-1} = (b^{-1}) * (a^{-1})$ .

**Proof.** 1) If  $e_1, e_2$  are both identities, by axiom of identity  $e_1 * e_2 = e_1$ , but also  $e_1 * e_2 = e_2$  so  $e_1 = e_2$ .

2) Assume  $b$  and  $c$  are both inverses of  $a$ . Let  $e$  be the identity of  $G$ . By inverse axiom,  $a * b = e$ , and  $a * c = e$  so  $c = c * e$  by identity axiom so  $c = c * (a * b) = (c * a) * b$  by associativity axiom so  $c = e * b = b$  by identity axiom.

3) To show  $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$  we need to show that  $a$  is the inverse of  $a^{-1}$  (By (2) the inverse is unique.) Since  $a^{-1}$  is the inverse of  $a$ , we have  $a * a^{-1} = a^{-1} * a = e$  but this is the same as  $a^{-1} * a = a * a^{-1} = e$  so  $a$  is the inverse of  $a^{-1}$ .

4) Let  $c = (a * b)^{-1}$ , then  $(a * b) * c = e$ . By associativity,  $a * (b * c) = e$ . “multiply” by  $a^{-1}$  to get  $a^{-1} * (a * (b * c)) = a^{-1} * e$  so by the associativity and inverse axioms  $(a^{-1} * a) * (b * c) = a^{-1}$  so  $e * (b * c) = a^{-1}$  so  $b * c = a^{-1}$ . Now, “multiply” by  $b^{-1}$  to get  $b^{-1} * (b * c) = b^{-1} * a^{-1}$  so  $(b^{-1} * b) * c = b^{-1} * a^{-1}$  so  $e * c = b^{-1} * a^{-1}$  so  $c = b^{-1} * a^{-1}$ .

**Proposition 2.2.10.** Let  $G$  be a group and  $a, b \in G$ . The equality  $ax = b$  and  $ya = b$  have unique solutions for  $x, y \in G$ . In particular,

- (1) if  $au = av$  then  $u = v$

(2) if  $ub = vb$  then  $u = v$

**Proof.** Existence - multiply by inverses  
Uniqueness - because inverses are unique

**Definition 2.2.11.** For  $G$  a group and  $x \in G$ , the order of  $x$  is the smallest positive integer  $n$  such that  $x^n = 1$  ( $:= \underbrace{x * \cdots * x}_{n \text{ times}}$ ), where 1 is the identity of  $G$ . We denote this by  $|x|$  and  $x$  is said to be of order  $n$ . If no positive power of  $x$  is 1, then  $|x| = \infty$ .

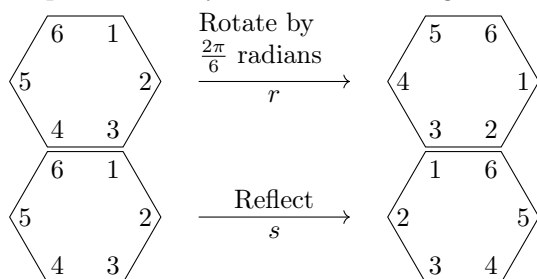
**Example 2.2.12.**

- Elements of  $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}$  (additive): All nonzero elements have order  $\infty$ .
- $(\mathbb{Z}/9\mathbb{Z}, +) = \{[0], \dots, [8]\}$ :  $[6] + [6] + [6] = [18] = 0$  so  $[6]$  has order 3 in  $\mathbb{Z}/9\mathbb{Z}$ .

## 2.2.2 Dihedral Groups

- The elements are symmetries of geometric objects
- Consider regular  $n$ -gons for  $n \geq 3$

**Example 2.2.13.** Symmetries of a hexagon:

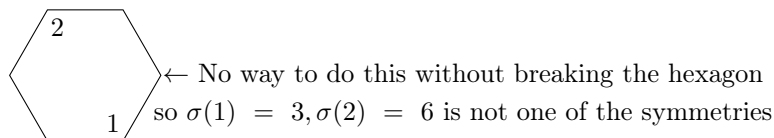


- We describe these symmetries by labeling the vertices

Observe: A symmetry of a hexagon gives you a function  $\{1, \dots, 6\} \rightarrow \{1, \dots, 6\}$ . if  $\sigma$  is a symmetry,  $\sigma(i) = j$  means  $\sigma$  sends  $i$  to the place where  $j$  used to be.

eg:  $r(1) = 2, s(3) = 5$

Note that not every such function gives you a symmetry



Let  $D_{2n}$  be the set of symmetries of the  $n$ -gon. Define  $t_1 t_2$  to be the symmetry reached by applying  $t_2$  then applying  $t_1$  for  $t_1, t_2$  symmetries of the  $n$ -gon ( $t_1, t_2 \in D_{2n}$ ). This operation is associative because composition of functions is associative. The identity symmetry is do nothing, denoted by 1. The inverse of a symmetry is to undo the symmetry. Under these operations,  $D_{2n}$  is the dihedral group of order  $2n$ .

Why is  $|D_{2n}| = 2n$ ?

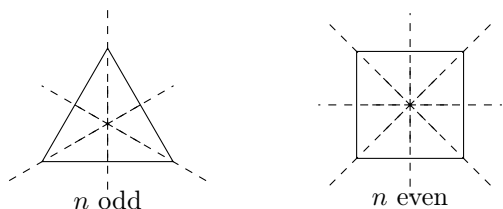
For any vertex  $i$ , there is a symmetry that sends 1 to the vertex  $i$ . The vertex 2 (next to 1) must go either to the vertex  $i+1$  or  $i-1$ . So you have  $n$  choices for where to send the vertex “1” and 2 choices for where to send to vertex “2”. So there are  $n \cdot 2$  choices for symmetries of an  $n$ -gon. So  $|D_{2n}| = 2n$ .

## 2.3 January 27

### 2.3.1 Dihedral Groups

Explicitly, what are these symmetries?

- $n$  rotations about the center through  $2\pi/n$  radians (clockwise)
- $n$  reflections through  $n$  lines of symmetry



- If  $n$  odd: symmetry lines pass through the vertex, midpoint of opposite side.
- if  $n$  even:  $n/2$  symmetry lines pass through opposite edges.  
 $n/2$  symmetry lines pass through opposite vertices.

Fix Notation:

- $r$ - rotation clockwise about the origin through  $2\pi/n$  radians
- $s$ - reflection (through 1 and the origin)

**Example 2.3.1.**  $D_{12}$   $2n = 12$  so  $n = 6$

$$(i) \ 1, r(\frac{2\pi}{6}), r^2(\frac{4\pi}{6}), r^3(\pi), r^4(\frac{8\pi}{6}), r^5(\frac{10\pi}{6}), r^6(2\pi) = 1$$

$$1, r, \dots, r^5 \text{ all distinct so } |r| = 6$$

$$(ii) \ s^2 = 1 \text{ so } |s| = 2$$

$$(iii) \ s \neq r^i \text{ for any } i$$

$$(iv) \ sr^i \neq sr^j \ 0 \leq i, j < 6$$

$$(v) \ r^i \neq sr^j \text{ for any } i, j$$

Thus,  $D_{12} = \{1, r, r^2, r^3, r^4, r^5, s, sr, sr^2, sr^3, sr^4, sr^5\}$  all distinct, and there are 12 so this is all the elements.  
 $D_{12} = \{r^i s^j | i = 0, \dots, n-1 \ j = 0, 1\}$  or equivalently  $D_{12} = \{r, s | r^n = s^2 = 1, rs = sr^{-1}\}$

### 2.3.2 Symmetric Groups

- Let  $\Omega$  be a nonempty set and let  $S_\Omega$  be the set of bijections from  $\Omega$  to itself (ie. permutations.)
- Let  $\sigma, \tau$  be elements of  $S_\Omega$ ,  $\sigma : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$ ,  $\tau : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$ , then  $\sigma \circ \tau$  is a bijection  $\Omega \rightarrow \Omega$ .
- The identity of  $S_\Omega$  is the permutation 1 defined by  $1(a) = a \forall a \in \Omega$ .
- Every permutation has an inverse  $\sigma^{-1} : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$  such that  $\sigma^{-1}\sigma = \sigma \circ \sigma^{-1} = 1$ .
- Composition of functions is associative so  $\circ$  is associative.
- Thus,  $(S_\Omega, \circ)$  is a group called the symmetric group of  $S_\Omega$
- Often we will use  $\Omega = \{1, \dots, n\}$ - will write  $S_n$  instead of  $S_\Omega$

**Example 2.3.2.**  $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3\}$

Let  $\sigma$  be in  $S_\Omega$  sending  $\sigma(1) = 2$ ,  $\sigma(2) = 3$ ,  $\sigma(3) = 1$ .

$\begin{pmatrix} \sigma : & 1 \rightarrow 2 \\ & 2 \rightarrow 3 \\ & 3 \rightarrow 1 \end{pmatrix}$  We write  $(1\ 2\ 3)$  to represent  $\sigma$ .

$\tau \in S_\Omega$  by  $\tau(1) = 2$ ,  $\tau(2) = 1$ ,  $\tau(3) = 3$

$\begin{pmatrix} \tau : & 1 \rightarrow 2 \\ & 2 \rightarrow 1 \\ & 3 \rightarrow 3 \end{pmatrix} = (1\ 2)(3)$ . Often we will leave out 1 element cycles and write  $(1\ 2)$

- A cycle is a string of integers representing an element of  $S_n$  which cyclically permutes the integers
- The length of a cycle is the number of integers that appear in it
- Two cycles are disjoint if they have no numbers in common

**Example 2.3.3.** The Group  $S_3$

$\sigma_1(1) = 1, \sigma_1(2) = 2, \sigma_1(3) = 3$	$1 = (1)(2)(3)$
$\sigma_2(1) = 1, \sigma_2(2) = 3, \sigma_2(3) = 2$	$(2\ 3)$
$\sigma_3(1) = 3, \sigma_3(2) = 2, \sigma_3(3) = 1$	$(1\ 3)$
$\sigma_4(1) = 2, \sigma_4(2) = 1, \sigma_4(3) = 3$	$(1\ 2)$
$\sigma_5(1) = 2, \sigma_5(2) = 3, \sigma_5(3) = 1$	$(1\ 2\ 3)$
$\sigma_6(1) = 3, \sigma_6(2) = 1, \sigma_6(3) = 2$	$(1\ 3\ 2)$

- For any  $\sigma \in S_n$  the cycle decomposition of  $\sigma^{-1}$  is obtained by writing the number sin each cycle of the decomposition of  $\sigma$  in reverse order.

**Example 2.3.4.**  $\sigma = (1\ 12\ 8\ 10\ 4)(2\ 13)(5\ 11\ 7)(6, 9) \in S_{13}$

$\sigma^{-1} = (4\ 10\ 8\ 12\ 1)(13\ 2)(7\ 11\ 5)(9, 6)$

**Remark 2.3.5.**  $(2\ 13) = (13\ 2)$  since they permute cyclically.

More generally,  $(a_1\ a_2\ a_3) = (a_3\ a_1\ a_2) = (a_2\ a_3\ a_1)$

By convention, we put the smallest number first.

### 2.3.3 Composing $\sigma \circ \tau$ in $S_n$

- Go from right to left

**Example 2.3.6.**  $(1\ 2\ 3) \circ (1\ 2)(3\ 4)$

$\tau : 1 \rightarrow 2$      $\sigma : 2 \rightarrow 1$  so  $\sigma \circ \tau : 1 \rightarrow 3$   
 $\tau : 3 \rightarrow 4$      $\sigma : 4 \rightarrow 4$  so  $\sigma \circ \tau : 4 \rightarrow 4$   
 $\tau : 4 \rightarrow 4$      $\sigma : 3 \rightarrow 1$  so  $\sigma \circ \tau : 4 \rightarrow 1$   
 $\tau : 2 \rightarrow 1$      $\sigma : 1 \rightarrow 2$  so  $\sigma \circ \tau : 2 \rightarrow 2$   
 so  $\sigma \circ \tau = (1\ 3\ 4)$

**Remark 2.3.7.**

- $S_n$  is non abelian for  $n \geq 3$   
 ex:  $(1\ 2) \circ (1\ 3) = (1\ 3\ 2)$  but  $(1\ 3) \circ (1\ 2) = (1\ 2\ 3)$
- The order of a permutation is the lcm of the lengths of the cycles in its decomposition
- A transposition is a cycle of length 2
- The order of  $S_n$  is  $n!$

## 2.4 February 1

### 2.4.1 “Maps” between groups

**Definition 2.4.1.** Let  $(G, *)$  and  $(H, \diamond)$  be groups. A map  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  such that

$$\varphi(x * y) = \varphi(x) \diamond \varphi(y),$$

is called a homomorphism.

**Remark 2.4.2.** When the group operations are not explicitly written

$$\underbrace{\varphi(xy)}_{\text{“multiplication” in } G} = \underbrace{\varphi(x)\varphi(y)}_{\text{“multiplication in” } H}$$

Think: a map of sets that respects the group structure (is compatible with the group operations.)

**Definition 2.4.3.** The map  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  is called an isomorphism ( $G, H$  are isomorphic, denoted  $G \cong H$ ) if:

- 1)  $\varphi(xy) = \varphi(x)\varphi(y) \quad \forall x, y \in G$
- 2)  $\varphi$  is a bijection

**Definition 2.4.4.** A homomorphism from a group to itself is called an endomorphism. Further, if an endomorphism is an isomorphism then it is called an automorphism.

**Example 2.4.5.**

- (1)  $\varphi : (\mathbb{Z}, +) \rightarrow (\mathbb{Q}, +)$  by  $x \mapsto x$  is a homomorphism since  $\varphi(x + y) = x + y = \varphi(x) + \varphi(y)$ . It is injective but not surjective so not an isomorphism.
- (2)  $\varphi : (\mathbb{Z}, +) \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}, +)$  by  $x \mapsto [x]$  is a homomorphism since  $\varphi(x + y) = [x + y] = [x] + [y] = \varphi(x) + \varphi(y)$ . It is surjective but not injective so not an isomorphism.
- (3) For any group  $G$ , the identity map  $\varphi : G \rightarrow G$  by  $x \mapsto x$  is an isomorphism (also an automorphism.)
- (4) Let  $\mathbb{R} := \{x \in \mathbb{R} | x > 0\}$ . The exponential map,  $\exp : (\mathbb{R}, +) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}^+, \times)$  by  $x \mapsto e^x$  is an isomorphism since  $\exp(x + y) = e^{x+y} = e^x e^y = \exp(x) \exp(y)$ . Also  $\log_e e^x = x$  is an inverse.
- (5) For any group  $G$  and any group  $H$ , the map  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  by  $g \mapsto e_H$  is called the trivial homomorphism since  $\varphi(g_1 g_2) = e_H = e_H e_H = \varphi(g_1) \varphi(g_2)$

**Proposition 2.4.6.** Let  $(G, *)$ ,  $(H, \circ)$ ,  $(M, \square)$  be three groups. Let  $f : G \rightarrow H$  and  $g : H \rightarrow M$  be homomorphisms. Then  $g \circ f : G \rightarrow M$  is a homomorphism.

**Proof.**  $g(f(x * y)) = g(f(x) \circ f(y)) = g(f(x)) \square g(f(y))$

**Proposition 2.4.7.** If  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  is an isomorphism,

- (1)  $|G| = |H|$
- (2)  $G$  is abelian iff  $H$  is abelian
- (3)  $\forall x \in G, |x| = |\varphi(x)|$

**Proof** (Proof of (1) and (2)).

- (1) This is true since a bijection between two sets means they have the same cardinality.
- (2)  $\rightarrow$ ) Assume  $G$  is abelian. Let  $x, y \in H$  be arbitrary. Since  $\varphi$  is an isomorphism, there exists  $x', y' \in G$  such that  $\varphi(x') = x$  and  $\varphi(y') = y$ . Then  $xy = \varphi(x')\varphi(y') = \varphi(x'y')$ . Since  $G$  is abelian  $x'y' = y'x'$  so  $xy = \varphi(y'x') = \varphi(y')\varphi(x') = yx$  so  $H$  is abelian.  
 $\leftarrow$ ) Assume  $H$  is abelian. Let  $x, y$  in  $G$  be arbitrary. Consider  $\varphi(xy) = \varphi(x)\varphi(y)$ . Since  $H$  is abelian,  $\varphi(xy) = \varphi(y)\varphi(x) = \varphi(yx)$ . Since  $\varphi$  is an isomorphism, it is injective so it follows that  $xy = yx$ . Thus,  $G$  is abelian.

**Lemma 2.4.8.** Let  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  be a homomorphism then  $\varphi(x^n) = \varphi(x)^n \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Proof.** To show this for all nonnegative integers we will proceed by induction.

Basis:  $\varphi(x^0) = \varphi(e_G) = e_H = \varphi(x)^0$ . We will show this below.

Induction: Assume  $\varphi(x^n) = \varphi(x)^n$ . Then,  $\varphi(x^{n+1}) = \varphi(x^n)\varphi(x) = \varphi(x)^n\varphi(x) = \varphi(x)^{n+1}$ .

To show this for negative integers we claim that  $\varphi(x^{-1}) = \varphi(x)^{-1}$ . To see this observe that

$$\varphi(x)\varphi(x^{-1}) = \varphi(xx^{-1}) = \varphi(e_G) = e_H = \varphi(e_G) = \varphi(x^{-1}x) = \varphi(x^{-1})\varphi(x)$$



Also note that  $(x^n)^{-1} = x^{-n}$  so by the above induction we have  $\varphi(x^{-n})\varphi(x)^n = \varphi(x^{-n}x^n) = e_H = \varphi(x^n x^{-n}) = \varphi(x)^n \varphi(x^{-n})$  so  $\varphi(x^{-n}) = (\varphi(x)^n)^{-1} = \varphi(x)^{-n}$ .

Fact: If  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  is an homomorphism,  $\varphi(e_G) = e_H$ .

*Proof.*  $e_G e_G = e_G$  so  $\varphi(e_G e_G) = \varphi(e_G)$  so  $\varphi(e_G)\varphi(e_G) = \varphi(e_G)$ . Multiplying both sides by  $\varphi(e_G)^{-1}$  yields  $\varphi(e_G)^{-1}\varphi(e_G)\varphi(e_G) = \varphi(e_G)^{-1}\varphi(e_G)$  so  $e_H\varphi(e_G) = e_H$  so  $\varphi(e_G) = e_H$ .  $\square$

**Proof** (Proof of (3)). Suppose  $|\varphi(x)| = \infty$ ,  $|x| = n < \infty$ , then  $\varphi(x)^n = \varphi(x^n) = \varphi(e_G) = e_H$  so  $|\varphi(x)| \leq n < \infty$  which is a contradiction.

Similarly if  $|x| = \infty$ ,  $|\varphi(x)| = n < \infty$ , then  $\varphi(x^n) = \varphi(x)^n = e_H = \varphi(e_G)$ . Since  $\varphi$  is an isomorphism,  $\varphi$  is injective so  $x^n = e_G$  so  $|x| \leq n < \infty$  which is a contradiction.

This implies that  $|x|$  and  $|\varphi(x)|$  must both be finite or infinite. If they are both infinite we are done so suppose  $|x| = n$ ,  $|\varphi(x)| = m$ .

Then  $\varphi(x)^n = \varphi(x^n) = \varphi(e_G) = e_H$  so  $m \leq n$ .

Also,  $\varphi(e_G) = e_H = \varphi(x)^m = \varphi(x^m)$  so  $e_H = x^m$  and  $m \leq n$ .

Thus  $m = n$

#### Example 2.4.9.

- Consider  $S_3$  and  $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ . These groups are not isomorphic since  $S_3$  is non-abelian and  $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$  is.
- $D_6 \cong S_3$ .  $D_5 = \{r, s, |r^3 = s^2 = 1, rs = sr^{-1}\}$  so sending  $a = (1\ 2\ 3) \mapsto r$  and  $b = (1\ 2) \mapsto s$ , we see that  $a^3 = b^2 = 1$  and  $ba = a^{-1}b$  so the group generated by  $a$  and  $b$  is isomorphic to  $D_6$ . Finally, since  $a$  and  $b$  generate  $S_3$ ,  $S_3 \cong D_6$ .

### 2.4.2 Subgroups

**Definition 2.4.10.** Let  $(G, *)$  be a group. A subgroup  $H$  of  $G$  is a subset  $H \subseteq G$  such that:

1.  $e \in H$
2. if  $x, y \in H$ ,  $x * y \in H$
3. if  $x \in H$ ,  $x^{-1} \in H$

Think: A subgroup  $H$  of  $(G, *)$  is a subset of  $G$  that is a group under the same operation.

#### Example 2.4.11.

- 1)  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$  is a subgroup of  $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$
- 2)  $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$  is a subgroup of  $(\mathbb{R}, +)$
- 3)  $(\mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}, \times)$  is a subgroup of  $(\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \times)$
- 4) If  $G$  is a group then  $H = G$  and  $H = \{e\}$  are both subgroups of  $G$ .
- 5) If  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ , the subset  $m\mathbb{Z} = \{ma | a \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  is a subgroup of  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$

## 2.5 February 3

### 2.5.1 Subgroups

**Example 2.5.1** (Non-Example).

- 1)  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$  is not a subgroup of  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ . For  $x \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $x \notin \mathbb{Z}^+$  no inverses. Also  $0 \notin \mathbb{Z}^+$  so no identity.
- 2)  $(\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}, \times)$  is not a subgroup of  $(\mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}, \times)$  since in general  $x \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$  but  $\frac{1}{x} \notin \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$  so inverses fail.

**Remark 2.5.2.** The relation “is a subgroup of” is transitive so if  $H \leq G$  and  $k \leq H$ , then  $k \leq G$ .

**Proposition 2.5.3.** Let  $H, K$  be subgroups of  $G$ , then  $H \cap K \leq G$ .

**Proof.**  $e \in H, e \in K$  so  $e \in H \cap K$ . If  $x \in H \cap K$ , then  $x^{-1} \in H, x^{-1} \in K$  so  $x^{-1} \in H \cap K$ . If  $x, y \in H \cap K$ , then  $xy \in H \cap K$ , then  $xy \in H, xy \in K$  so  $xy \in H \cap K$ .

**Proposition 2.5.4** (The Subgroup Criterion). A subset  $H$  of a group  $G$  is a subgroup if

1.  $H \neq \emptyset$
2. if  $x, y \in H$ , then  $xy^{-1} \in H$

**Proof.** If  $H$  is a subgroup then  $e \in H$  so  $H \neq \emptyset$  and if  $x, y \in H$ , then  $x, y^{-1} \in H$  so  $xy^{-1} \in H$  so (1) and (2) hold.

Now, suppose (1) and (2) hold. Let  $x \in H$  (we know there is such an  $x$  since  $H \neq \emptyset$ ). Apply (2) to  $x$  so  $xx^{-1} = e \in H$ . Apply (2) to  $e$  and  $x$  so  $ex^{-1} = x^{-1} \in H$ . If  $x, y \in H$ , apply (2) to  $x$  and  $y^{-1}$  so  $x(y^{-1})^{-1} = xy \in H$ . Thus  $H$  is a subgroup.

### 2.5.2 Centralizers, Normalizers, and Center

- An important Class of Subgroups
- Let  $A$  be a nonempty subset of  $G$

**Definition 2.5.5.**  $C_G(A) = \{g \in G \mid gag^{-1} = a \forall a \in A\}$ .  $C_G(A)$  is called the centralizer of  $A$ . It consists of the set of elements in  $G$  that commute with all elements of  $A$ .

- $C_G(A) \subseteq G$

**Proposition 2.5.6.**  $C_G(A)$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .

**Proof.**  $eae^{-1} = a \forall a \in A$  so  $e \in C_G(A)$ .

If  $x, y \in C_G(A)$ ,  $xax^{-1} = a$  and  $yay^{-1} = a \forall a \in A$

so  $y^{-1}yay^{-1}y = y^{-1}ay$  so  $a = y^{-1}ay$  so  $y^{-1} \in C_G(A)$ . Also,  $xya(xy)^{-1} = xyax^{-1}x^{-1} = x(yay^{-1})x^{-1} =$

$| \quad xax^{-1} = a \text{ so } xy \in C_G(A).$

**Definition 2.5.7.**  $Z(G) = \{g \in G | gx = xg \forall x \in G\}$  is called the center of  $G$  and is the set of elements commuting with all elements of  $G$ .

Note:  $Z(G) = C_G(G)$  so  $Z(G) \leq G$ .

**Definition 2.5.8.**  $gAg^{-1} = \{gag^{-1} | a \in A\}$

**Definition 2.5.9.**  $N_G(A) = \{g \in G | gAg^{-1} = A\}$  is the normalizer of  $A$  in  $G$ .

Note: If  $g \in C_G(A)$ ,  $g \in N_G(A)$ . Also  $C_G(A) \leq N_G(A)$  and  $N_G(A) \leq G$ .

**Example 2.5.10.** If  $G$  is abelian,  $Z(G) = C_G(A) = N_G(A) = G$  since  $gag^{-1} = gg^{-1}a = a \forall a \in A, g \in G$ .

**Example 2.5.11.** Let  $G = D_8 = \{1, r, r^2, r^3, s, sr, sr^2, sr^3\}$ . Let  $A = \{1, r, r^2, r^3\}$ .

Claim:  $C_{D_8}(A) = A$ .

*Proof.*  $r^i r^j = r^{i+j} = r^{j+i} = r^j r^i$  so  $A \subset C_{D_8}(A)$ .  $rs = sr^{-1} \neq sr$  so  $s \notin C_{D_8}(A)$ . Suppose that  $sr^i \in C_{D_8}(A)$  for  $i = 1, 2, 3$ . Since  $C_{D_8}(A)$  is a group and  $r^{-i} \in C_{D_8}(A)$  so  $sr^i sr^{-1} = s \in C_{D_8}(A)$  which is a contradiction.  $\square$

Claim:  $N_{D_8}(A) = D_8$

*Proof.* Note  $r^i = sr^{-1}$ . Since  $C_{D_8}(A) \subseteq N_{D_8}(A)$ ,  $A \subseteq N_{D_8}(A)$ .  $sAs^{-1} = \{s1s^{-1}, srs^{-1}, sr^2s^{-1}, sr^3s^{-1}\} = \{1, r^3, r^2, r\} = A$  so  $s \in N_{D_8}(A)$ . Since  $N_{D_8}(A)$  is a group,  $sr^i \in N_{D_8}(A)$  for  $i = 1, 2, 3$  so  $N_{D_8}(A) = D_8$ .  $\square$

Claim:  $Z(D_8) = \{1, r^2\}$

*Proof.*  $Z(D_8) \subset C_{D_8}(A) = A$  so we need to check if  $\{1, r, r^2, r^3\}$  are in  $Z(D_8)$ .  $1 \in Z(D_8)$ .  $rs = sr^{-1} \neq sr$  so  $r \notin Z(D_8)$ , also  $r^3s = sr^{-3} \neq sr^3$ .  $r^2s = sr^{-2} = sr^2$  so  $r^2$  and  $s$  commutes. Also  $r^2sr^i = sr^2r^i = sr^i r^2$  so  $r^2$  commutes with  $D_8$ . Thus  $Z(D_8) = \{1, r^2\}$ .  $\square$

## 2.6 February 8

### 2.6.1 Cyclic Groups

**Definition 2.6.1.** A group is cyclic if it is generated by one element.  $H = \langle x \rangle = \{x^n | n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ .  $x$  is called a generator for  $H$ .

**Example 2.6.2.**

- 1)  $\mathbb{Z}$  under addition:  $(\mathbb{Z}, +) = \langle 1 \rangle = \{n \cdot 1 | n \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \langle -1 \rangle = \{n \cdot -1 | n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$
- 2)  $(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}, +) = \langle [1] \rangle = \{[1], [2], \dots, [m-1], [0]\}$

**Remark 2.6.3.** Generators need not be unique.

Cyclic groups are abelian.

*Proof.* if  $a, b \in H = \langle x \rangle$ .  $a = x^\alpha, b = x^\beta$  for  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}$  so  $ab = x^\alpha x^\beta = x^{\alpha+\beta} = x^{\beta+\alpha} = x^\beta x^\alpha = ba$

$\square$

**Proposition 2.6.4.** Let  $H = \langle x \rangle$ , then  $|x| = |H|$ . (the order of a group is the same as the order of its generator)

**Proof.** If  $|x| = n$ ,  $\{1, x, \dots, x^{n-1}\}$  are all distinct so  $H$  has at least  $n$  elements. Suppose  $x^t \in H$ , then by the division algorithm  $t = nq + r$  for  $0 \leq r < n$ . So  $x^t = x^{nq+r} = (x^n)^q x^r = 1^q x^r = x^r \in \{1, x, \dots, x^{n-1}\}$ . If  $|x| = \infty$ , then there is no positive integer such that  $x^n = 1$ . If  $x^a = x^b$  for  $a < b$ , then  $x^{b-a} = 1$  which contradicts our assumption so all  $x^n$  must be distinct.

**Proposition 2.6.5.** If  $|x| = n$ ,  $x^a = 1$  iff  $n|a$ .

**Proof.** If  $x^a = 1$ , and  $n \nmid a$ , then  $\gcd(n, a) = d$  for some  $0 < d \leq n$ . By euclidean algorithm,  $\exists u, v$  such that  $nu + av = d$ .  $x^d = x^{nu} x^{av} = (x^n)^u (x^a)^v = 1^u 1^v$  so  $x^d = 1$ . Thus, by the minimality of  $n$  we must have  $d = n$  so  $n|a$ .

Suppose  $n|a$ , then  $a = bn$  for  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$  so  $x^a = x^{bn} = (x^n)^b = 1^b = 1$ .

**Theorem 2.6.6.** Let  $G$  be a cyclic group.

1. If  $G$  is infinite,  $G \cong (\mathbb{Z}, +)$
2. If  $G$  is finite and  $|G| = m$ ,  $G \cong (\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}, +)$

**Proof.**

- (1) Let  $G = \langle x \rangle$ ,  $\varphi : G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  by  $x^n \mapsto n$   
 Well defined:  $x^a = x^b \rightarrow a = b$  by previous proposition  
 Injective:  $a = b \rightarrow x^a = x^b$   
 Surjective: By def of  $G$ , it contains all integral powers of  $x$  so for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , take  $x^n$ .  
 Homomorphism:  $\varphi(x^a x^b) = \varphi(x^{a+b}) = a + b = \varphi(x^a) + \varphi(x^b)$
- (2) Let  $|G| = m$ ,  $G = \langle x \rangle$ ,  $\varphi : G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$  by  $x^n \mapsto [n]$   
 Homomorphism:  $\varphi(x^a x^b) = \varphi(x^{a+b}) = [a + b] = [a] + [b] = \varphi(x^a) + \varphi(x^b)$ . Well defined: WTS  $x^r = x^s \rightarrow \varphi(x^r) = \varphi(x^s)$  eg.  $[r] = [s]$   
 $x^{r-s} = 1$  so  $m|r-s$  so  $r-s = tm$   $t \in \mathbb{Z}$  so  $\varphi(x^r) = \varphi(x^{tm+s}) = [tm + s] = [s] = \varphi(x^s)$   
 Surjective:  $|G| = m$  so  $|x| = m$  so  $\{1, x, \dots, x^{m-1}\}$  are all distinct so  $G = \{1, x, \dots, x^{m-1}\}$  and  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z} = \{[0], [1], \dots, [m-1]\}$ . So each element in  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$  has a preimage.  
 Injective: WTS  $[a] = [b] \rightarrow x^a = x^b$ . Suppose  $x^a \neq x^b$ , then  $x^{a-b} \neq 1$  so  $m \nmid a-b$  so  $a \not\equiv b \pmod m$  so  $[a] \neq [b]$  which contradicts our assumption. Thus, they must be equal.

**Corollary 2.6.7.** Any two cyclic groups of the same order are isomorphic.

**Proposition 2.6.8.** Let  $G$  be a group  $x \in G$ ,  $a \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ . If  $|x| = n < \infty$ , then  $|x^a| = \frac{n}{\gcd(n, a)}$ .

**Proof.** Let  $y = x^a$ ,  $\gcd(a, n) = d$ ,  $n = db$ ,  $a = dc$ ,  $b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $\gcd(b, c) = 1$ . WTS  $|y| = b$  ( $|x|^a = \frac{n}{\gcd(a, b)} = \frac{db}{d} = b$ )  
 $y^b = x^{ab} = x^{dcb} = x^{nc} = (x^n)^c = 1^c = 1$  so  $|y| \mid b$ .  
 Let  $k = |y|$ , we have  $k \mid b$ , WTS  $b \mid k$ .  $x^{ak} = y^k = 1$  so  $n \mid ak$  so  $db \mid dck$  so  $b \mid ck$ . Since  $\gcd(b, c) = 1$ ,  $b \mid k$ .

$\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z} = \{[0], [1], \dots, [5]\}$  and  $|[0]| = 1$ ,  $|[1]| = |[5]| = 6$ ,  $|[2]| = |[4]| = 3$ ,  $|[3]| = 2$ .

Consider  $D_{16}$ . Let  $R = \{1, r, \dots, r^7\}$ . Observe  $\langle r \rangle = R$ . also  $\langle r^2 \rangle = \{r^2, r^4, r^6, 1\}$ ,  $\langle r^3 \rangle = \{r^3, r^6, r^4, r^7, r^2, r^5, 1\}$ .  
 More generally,  $R = \langle r \rangle = \langle r^3 \rangle = \langle r^5 \rangle = \langle r^7 \rangle$ .

## 2.7 February 10

### 2.7.1 Cyclic Groups

**Corollary 2.7.1.** Let  $H = \langle x \rangle$ . Assume  $|x| = n < \infty$ , then  $H = \langle x^a \rangle$  iff  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$

- # of generators of  $H$  is  $\varphi(n) = \#$  integers  $< n$  relatively prime to  $n$ .

**Example 2.7.2.**  $\mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z} = \{[0], [1], \dots, [11]\}$ .

$[1]$ - generator,  $[2] = [1] + [1] = "[1]^2"$ . For which  $a$  is  $\gcd(a, \mathbb{Z}) = 1$ ?

$\varphi(12) = 4$  so  $[1], [5], [7], [11]$  are generators of  $\mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Theorem 2.7.3.** If  $H = \langle x \rangle$  is a cyclic group

- Every subgroup of  $H$  is cyclic.
- If  $|H| = n < \infty$ , for each positive integer  $a$  dividing  $n$ , there is a unique subgroup of  $H$  of order  $a$ .

**Proof.**

- Let  $K = \langle x \rangle$ . If  $K = \{1\}$  we are done.  
 Otherwise, let  $a = \min\{k > 0 \text{ such that } x^k \in K\}$ . Claim:  $K = \langle x^a \rangle$   
 Suppose not (suppose  $\exists x^b \in K$  with  $a \nmid b$ ). The division algorithm gives us  $bq + r$  with  $0 < r < a$ .  
 Then since  $x^b, x^a \in K$ ,  $x^{b-aq} = x^r \in K$ . This contradicts the minimality of  $a$  so  $a \mid b \forall b$  with  $x^b \in K$ .
- $|H| = n < \infty$ ,  $a \mid n$ .  $x^{n/a}$  has order  $a$  so  $\langle x^{n/a} \rangle$  has order  $a$  since  $\gcd(n/a, n) = n/a$ . Suppose there is another  $k$  such that  $\gcd(k, n) = n/a$ , then there exists  $u, v$  such that  $ku + nv = n/a$  so  $x^{ku} = x^{ku+nv} = x^{n/a} \in \langle x^k \rangle$ . Since  $a/n$  is the smallest element with  $\gcd(b, n) = a/n$ ,  $\langle x^k \rangle = \langle x^{a/n} \rangle$ .

**Example 2.7.4.**  $\mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z} = \langle [1] \rangle = \langle [5] \rangle = \langle [7] \rangle = \langle [11] \rangle$  order 12

$\langle [2] \rangle = \langle [6] \rangle$  order 6,  $\langle [3] \rangle = \langle [9] \rangle$  order 4,  $\langle [4] \rangle = \langle [8] \rangle$  order 3,  $\langle [6] \rangle$  order 2,  $\langle [0] \rangle$  order 1.

Inclusion between subgroups:  $\langle [a] \rangle \subseteq \langle [b] \rangle$  iff  $\gcd(b, 12) \mid \gcd(a, 12)$ .

### 2.7.2 Subgroups Generated by Subsets of a Group

- Cyclic subgroups  $\{x\}$ , take one element, take all possible products (close under multiplication and taking inverses)

- This is the smallest subgroup of  $G$  containing  $x$
- Want to generalize this to the setting where your generating set has more than one element

**Proposition 2.7.5.** For any nonempty collection of subgroups of  $G$ , the intersection of all their members is also a subgroup of  $G$ .

**Definition 2.7.6.** If  $A$  is any subset of the group  $G$ ,

$$\langle A \rangle = \bigcap_{\substack{A \subseteq H \\ H \leq G}} H$$

called the subgroup of  $G$  generated by  $A$ . “intersection of all subgroups of  $G$  containing  $A$ ”

- $\langle A \rangle$  is the minimal subgroup of  $G$  containing  $A$
- Let’s see a more concrete definition

Another way to define  $\langle A \rangle$  is in terms of generators.

$$\overline{A} = \{a_1^{\varepsilon_1} a_2^{\varepsilon_2} \cdots a_n^{\varepsilon_n} \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \geq 0, \varepsilon_i = \pm 1\}$$

$$\overline{A} = \{1\} \text{ if } A = \emptyset$$

**Proposition 2.7.7.**  $\overline{A} = \langle A \rangle$

**Proof.** Using the subgroup criterion we will show  $\overline{A}$  is a subgroup.

$\overline{A} \neq \emptyset$  since  $A \neq \emptyset \rightarrow \overline{A} = \{1\}$ . If  $a, b \in \overline{A}$ .  $a = a_1^{\varepsilon_1} a_2^{\varepsilon_2} \cdots a_n^{\varepsilon_n}$ ,  $b = b_1^{\delta_1} b_2^{\delta_2} \cdots b_m^{\delta_m}$  then  $ab^{-1} = a_1^{\varepsilon_1} \cdots a_n^{\varepsilon_n} b_m^{-\delta_m} \cdots b_1^{-\delta_1}$  so  $ab^{-1}$  is of the form we wanted (elements of  $A$  raised to  $\pm 1$ ) so  $\overline{A} \leq G$ . Now, since  $a \in A$  can be written as  $a^1$ ,  $A \subseteq \overline{A}$  so  $\langle A \rangle \subseteq \overline{A}$  because  $\langle A \rangle$  was minimal among subgroups containing  $A$ .

Now,  $\langle A \rangle$  contains  $\overline{A}$  because it contains  $A$  and is closed under multiplication and taking inverses.

**Example 2.7.8.**  $\langle (12), (13)(24) \rangle \leq S_4$  is isomorphic to  $D_8$ .

### 2.7.3 Quotient Groups

**Definition 2.7.9.** If  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  is a homomorphism, the kernel of  $\varphi$  is the set  $\ker \varphi = \{g \in G : \varphi(g) = e_H\}$ . The image of  $\varphi$  is the set  $\text{im}(\varphi) = \{\varphi(x) \mid x \in G\}$

**Proposition 2.7.10.** Let  $H, G$  be groups,  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  a homomorphism, the kernel of  $\varphi$  is a subgroup of  $G$  and  $\text{im} \varphi$  is a subgroup of  $H$ .

**Proof ((Kernel)).** Since  $e_G$  is such that  $\varphi(e_G) = e_H$ ,  $e_G \in \ker \varphi$  so  $\ker \varphi \neq \emptyset$ .

Now, let  $x, y \in \ker \varphi$  so that  $\varphi(x) = \varphi(y) = e_H$ . Then  $\varphi(xy^{-1}) = \varphi(x)\varphi(y^{-1}) = \varphi(x)\varphi(y^{-1}) = \varphi(x)\varphi(y)^{-1} = e_H e_H^{-1} = e_H$  so  $xy^{-1} \in \ker \varphi$  so  $\ker \varphi \leq G$ .

**Proof** ((Image)).  $\varphi(e_G) = e_H \in \text{im} \varphi$  so  $\text{im} \varphi \neq \emptyset$ .

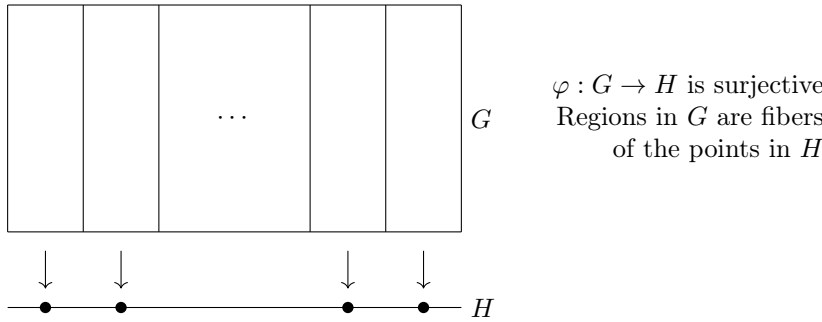
If  $x, y \in \text{im} \varphi$ , say  $x = \varphi(a)$ ,  $y = \varphi(b)$   $a, b \in G$  then  $y^{-1} = (\varphi(b))^{-1} = \varphi(b^{-1})$ , so  $xy^{-1} = \varphi(a)\varphi(b^{-1}) = \varphi(ab^{-1})$  so  $xy^{-1} \in \text{im} \varphi$  so  $\text{im} \varphi \leq H$ .

## 2.8 February 15

### 2.8.1 Quotient Groups

Another way to make a (smaller) group out of a given group.

Think:  $H \leq G$ ,  $H \hookrightarrow G$  (injective homomorphism), then the quotient group  $G \twoheadrightarrow H$  (surjective homomorphism).

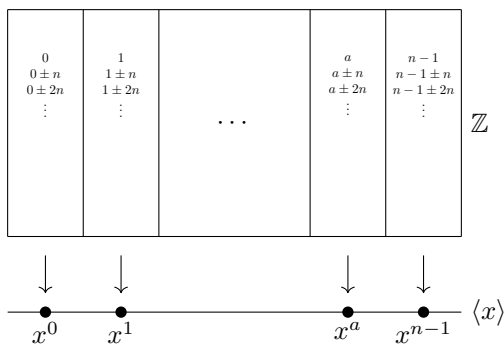


**Example 2.8.1.**  $G = \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $H = \langle x \rangle$ ,  $|x| = m$ .  $\varphi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \langle x \rangle$  by  $a \mapsto x^a$ .

$\varphi(a+b) = x^{a+b} = x^a x^b = \varphi(a)\varphi(b)$  so homomorphism.

Can see  $\varphi$  is surjective since  $\{n, 1, \dots, n-1\} \rightarrow \{1, x^1, \dots, x^{n-1}\}$

The fiber of  $\varphi$  over  $x^a$ :  $\varphi^{-1}(a) = \{m \in \mathbb{Z} | x^m = a\} = \{m \in \mathbb{Z} | x^{m-a} = 1\} = \{m \in \mathbb{Z} | n | m - a\} = \{m \in \mathbb{Z} | m \equiv a \pmod{n}\} = [a]$



Multiplication in  $\langle x \rangle$ :

$x^a x^b = x^{a+b}$ . Fibers over  $[a], [b], [a+b]$ . Operation should be  $[a] * [b] = [a+b]$ . So the group is  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, +)$ .

Identity of the group is  $[0]$  ( $0 + n\mathbb{Z}$ ).

The equivalence classes are  $a + n\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Definition 2.8.2.** Let  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  be a homomorphism with kernel  $K$ . Then the quotient group “ $G \bmod K$ ” is the group whose elements are the fibers of  $\varphi$ . The group operation is inherited from  $H$ .

**Remark 2.8.3.** This requires knowing the map explicitly.

**Proposition 2.8.4.** Let  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  be a homomorphism with kernel  $K$ , let  $X \in G/K$  be the fiber above  $a \in H$  ( $X = \varphi^{-1}(a)$ ). For any  $u \in X$ ,  $X = \{uk | k \in K\}$  ( $X = \{ku | k \in K\}$ ).

**Proof.** Let  $u \in X$  be such that  $\varphi(u) = a$ . Let  $uK = \{uk | k \in K\}$ . Want to show  $X = uK$ . First show  $uK \subseteq X$ .

For  $uk \in uK$ ,  $\varphi(uk) = \varphi(u)\varphi(k) = ae = a$  so  $uk \in X$ .

Want to show  $X \subseteq uK$ . Let  $g \in X$ , let  $k \in u^{-1}g$ .  $\varphi(k) = \varphi(u^{-1})\varphi(g) = \varphi(u)^{-1}a = a^{-1}a = e$  so  $k \in \ker \varphi$ . Since  $k = u^{-1}g$ ,  $g = uk \in uK$ .

**Definition 2.8.5.** For any  $N \leq G$  and  $g \in G$ ,  $gN = \{gn | n \in N\}$  is called the left coset of  $N$  in  $G$ . ( $Ng = \{ng | n \in N\}$  is called the right coset of  $N$  in  $G$ )

The proposition says the fibers of a homomorphism are cosets of the kernel.  $X \in G/K \rightarrow X = gK$ .

We can define multiplication by choosing coset representatives.

**Theorem 2.8.6.**  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  is a homomorphism with kernel  $K$ . The set of cosets of  $K$  in  $G$  ( $gK$ ) with the operation  $uKvK = uvK$  forms a group (the quotient group  $G/K$ ).

Multiplication does not depend on representative.

*Proof.* Let  $X, Y \in G/K$ ,  $Z = XY \in G/K$ .  $X = \varphi^{-1}(a), Y = \varphi^{-1}(b)$  for some  $a, b \in H$ . Then  $Z = \varphi^{-1}(ab)$ . Let  $u, v$  be representatives of  $X$  and  $Y$ . Want to show  $uv \in Z$ .  $\varphi(u) = a, \varphi(v) = b$ ,  $X = uK, Y = vK$  so  $uv \in Z \iff uv \in \varphi^{-1}(ab) \iff \varphi(uv) = ab \iff \varphi(u)\varphi(v) = ab$ . Last statement is true so  $uv \in Z$ ,  $Z = uvK$ .  $\square$

Question: Can you define a quotient group  $G/N$  for any subgroup  $N$  in this way?

A: No.

## 2.9 February 17

### 2.9.1 Quotient Groups

Two views of quotient groups:

- Fibers of homomorphism with group structure seen in target space
- Cosets of the kernel of  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$   $uK, vK$  with  $uKvK = uvK$

Can we generalize quotient groups to any subgroup  $N$ ?

Claim: If  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  is a homomorphism with kernel  $K$  then  $gKg^{-1} \subseteq K \forall g \in G$ .

*Proof.* WTS  $\varphi(gkg^{-1}) = e \forall k \in K, \forall g \in G$ .

Observe  $\varphi(gKg^{-1}) = \varphi(g)e\varphi(g^{-1}) = \varphi(g)e\varphi(g)^{-1} = e$   $\square$



If we have a subgroup  $N$  of  $G$  such that  $gNg^{-1} \subseteq N \forall g \in G$  then we can show multiplication of  $G/N$  is well defined (doesn't depend on representative)

eg. If  $x_1N = x_2N$ ,  $y_1N = y_2N$ , then  $x_1y_1N = x_2y_2N$

*Proof.* We know  $x_1^{-1}x_2, y_1^{-1}y_2 \in N$ . Let  $u = (x_1y_1)^{-1}(x_2y_2) = y_1^{-1}x_2^{-1}x_2y_2$ .  
 $uy_2^{-1}y_1 = y_1^{-1}x_1x_2y_1$  and since  $y_1 \in G$ ,  $gNg^{-1} \subseteq N$  then  $ux_1^{-1}x \in N$ . Since  $y_2^{-1}, y_1 \in N$ ,  $uy_2^{-1}y_1y_1^{-1}y_2 = u \in N$   
 so  $x_1y_1N = x_2y_2N$ .  $\square$

**Definition 2.9.1.** A subgroup  $N \leq G$  is called normal if for all  $g \in G$ ,  $gNg^{-1} = \{gng^{-1} | n \in N\} = N$ .  
 We write  $H \trianglelefteq G$ .

Claim: If  $gNg^{-1} \subseteq N \forall g \in G$ , then  $gNg^{-1} = N$

*Proof.* WTS:  $N \subseteq gNg^{-1}$ . Let  $n \in N$  be arbitrary. Since by assumption  $g^{-1}ng \in N$ , we see that  $g(g^{-1}ng)g^{-1} = n$  is an element of  $gNg^{-1}$ , as desired.  $\square$

**Remark 2.9.2.**

- (a) Same as saying every element of  $G$  normalizes  $N$ . ( $N_G(N) = G$ )
- (b) We are not saying  $gng^{-1} = n$ , just that  $gng^{-1} \in N$
- (c) If  $G$  is abelian, every subgroup of  $G$  is normal (because  $gng^{-1} = n \forall g, n \in G$ )

Claim from before implies that for  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ ,  $\ker(\varphi) \trianglelefteq G$ .

Any normal subgroup can be realized as the kernel of a homomorphism.

**Proposition 2.9.3.** For  $H \trianglelefteq G$ , the map  $\varphi : G \rightarrow G/H$  by  $x \mapsto xH$  is a homomorphism with  $\ker(\varphi) = H$ .

**Proof.**  $\varphi(xy) = xyH = xHyH = \varphi(x)\varphi(y)$  so  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism.  
 The identity of  $G/H$  is  $H$ . If  $x \in \ker(\varphi)$ ,  $\varphi(x) = xH = H \iff x \in H$  so  $\ker \varphi = H$ .

**Remark 2.9.4.** 3 perspectives on quotient groups:

- Groups of fibers of a homomorphism.
- Groups of cosets of a normal subgroup.
- Image of a surjective homomorphism (the image of the quotient map)

**Theorem 2.9.5** (Lagrange). If  $G$  is a finite group and  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . then  $|H| \mid |G|$  and the number of cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  is  $\frac{|G|}{|H|}$ .

**Proof.** Let  $|H| = n$ , let the number of cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  be  $k$ . The set of cosets partitions  $G$  and the map  $H \rightarrow gH$  by  $h \mapsto gh$  is a bijection so  $|H| = |gH| = n$ . Thus,  $|G| = nk$  so  $|H| \mid |G|$  and  $k = \frac{|G|}{n} = \frac{|G|}{|H|}$ .

**Definition 2.9.6.** The number of cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  is called the index of  $H$  in  $G$ ,  $[G : H]$ .

**Corollary 2.9.7.** If  $G$  is a finite group and  $x \in G$ , then  $|x| \mid |G|$  and  $x^{|G|} = 1$ .

**Proof.**  $|x| = |\langle x \rangle|$ . Since  $\langle x \rangle$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , by Lagrange,  $|\langle x \rangle| \mid |G|$  so  $|x| \mid |G|$ .  $x^{|G|} = 1$  since  $x^{|a|} = 1$  iff  $|x| \mid a$ .

**Corollary 2.9.8.** Every group of prime order is cyclic.

**Proof.** Let  $x \in G$ ,  $x \neq 1$ . Then  $|\langle x \rangle| = |x| > 1$  and  $|\langle x \rangle| \mid |G|$  so  $|\langle x \rangle| = p = |G|$  so  $G = \langle x \rangle$  so  $G$  is cyclic.

**Proposition 2.9.9.** Every subgroup of index 2 is normal. eg. If  $H \leq G$ ,  $[G : H] = 2$ , then  $H \trianglelefteq G$ .

**Proof.** Let  $g \in G \setminus H$ . The two left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  are  $gH$  and  $eH = H$ . Similarly, the right cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  are  $Hg$  and  $He = H$ . So  $gH = Hg$  so  $gHg^{-1} = H \forall g \in G$  so  $H$  is normal.

**Remark 2.9.10.** The full converse of Lagrange's theorem is false,  $n \mid |G|$  then  $G$  need not have a subgroup of order  $n$ .

Note: If  $p \mid |G|$  then  $G$  has an element of order  $p$ .

Sylow's Thm: If  $|G| = p^\alpha m$ ,  $p \nmid m$  then  $G$  has a subgroup of order  $p^\alpha$ .

## 2.10 February 22

### 2.10.1 The Isomorphism Theorems

Let  $G, H$  be groups with  $e_H, e_G \in H$ . Let  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  be a homomorphism,  $\ker \varphi \trianglelefteq G$ . It makes sense to form  $G / \ker \varphi = \{g \ker \varphi \mid g \in G\}$ , the quotient group.

Let  $x, y$  be in the same coset of  $\varphi$  then  $x \ker \varphi = y \ker \varphi \leftrightarrow x^{-1}y \ker \varphi \leftrightarrow e_H = \varphi(x^{-1})\varphi(y) \leftrightarrow \varphi(x^{-1})\varphi(y) \leftrightarrow \varphi(x)^{-1}\varphi(y) = e_H \leftrightarrow \varphi(y) = \varphi(x)$ , so  $\varphi$  is constant on cosets (of  $\ker \varphi$ ).

**Theorem 2.10.1** (First Isomorphism Theorem). Let  $G, H$  be groups,  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  a homomorphism, then  $G / \ker(\varphi) \cong \text{im} \varphi$ .

**Proof.** Consider  $\psi : G / \ker \varphi \rightarrow \text{im} \varphi$  by  $x \ker \varphi \mapsto \varphi(x)$ . WTS  $\psi$  is an isomorphism. By def of  $\text{im} \varphi$ ,  $\psi$  is surjective. Also, given  $x, y \in G$ ,  $\psi(x \ker \varphi) = \psi(y \ker \varphi) \leftrightarrow \varphi(x) = \varphi(y) \leftrightarrow x \ker \varphi = y \ker \varphi$  so  $\psi$  is injective.

Also  $\psi(x \ker \varphi y \ker \varphi) = \psi(xy \ker \varphi) = \varphi(xy) = \varphi(x)\varphi(y) = \psi(x \ker \varphi)\psi(y \ker \varphi)$  so  $\psi$  is a homomorphism.

**Example 2.10.2.**

- (a)  $(\mathbb{Z}, +) \hookrightarrow (\mathbb{Q}, +)$ ,  $\varphi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$  by  $x \mapsto x$ .  
 $\ker \varphi = 0 = e_{\mathbb{Z}}$ ,  $\text{im} \varphi = \mathbb{Z}$  so  $\mathbb{Z}/e_{\mathbb{Z}} \cong \mathbb{Z}$ .
- (b)  $(\mathbb{Z}, +) \twoheadrightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}, +)$ ,  $\varphi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$  by  $a \mapsto [a]$   
 $\ker \varphi = m\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\text{im} \varphi = \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$  so  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$ .
- (c)  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  by  $g \mapsto e_H$ .  $\ker \varphi = G$ ,  $\text{im} \varphi = e_H$  so  $G/G \cong e_H$ .

**Corollary 2.10.3.** If  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  is a homomorphism:

- (a)  $\varphi$  is injective iff  $\ker \varphi = e$   
 (b)  $[G : \ker \varphi] = |\text{im} \varphi|$

**Proof** (Proof of (2)).  $G/\ker \varphi \cong \text{im} \varphi$  so  $|G/\ker \varphi| = |\text{im} \varphi|$  so  $[G : \ker \varphi] = |\text{im} \varphi|$ .

**Proof** (Proof of (1) - Old Fashion Way).  $\rightarrow$  If  $\varphi$  injective, WTS  $\ker \varphi = e$ . Observe that  $\varphi(e_G) = e_H$ , also if  $g \in \ker \varphi$ ,  $\varphi(g) = e_H$  so  $\varphi(e_G) = \varphi(g)$ . Since  $\varphi$  is injective,  $g = e_G$  so  $\ker \varphi = e_G$ .  
 $\leftarrow$  If  $\ker \varphi = e$ , WTS  $\varphi$  is injective. Observe that  $\varphi(g_1) = \varphi(g_2) \leftrightarrow \varphi(g_1)\varphi(g_2)^{-1} = e \leftrightarrow \varphi(g_1)\varphi(g_2^{-1}) = e \leftrightarrow \varphi(g_1g_2^{-1}) = e \leftrightarrow g_1g_2^{-1} \in \ker \varphi$  so  $g_1g_2^{-1} = e$  so  $g_1 = g_2$ .

**Proof** (Proof of (1) - Using First Isomorphism Theorem.).  $\ker \varphi = e \leftrightarrow G/e \cong \varphi(G) \leftrightarrow G \cong \varphi(G) \leftrightarrow \varphi$  is injective.

**Theorem 2.10.4** (Third Isomorphism Theorem). Let  $G$  be a group,  $H, K$  normal subsets of  $G$ ,  $H \leq K$ . Then  $K/H \trianglelefteq G/H$  and  $G/H / K/H \cong G/K$ .

**Proof.**  $K/H \leq G/H$ :

Since  $K/H$  is a group, it suffices to show  $K/H \subseteq G/H$ . For  $kH \in K/H$ ,  $k \in K$  so  $k \in G$  so  $kH \in G/H$ , as desired.

$K/H \trianglelefteq G/H$ :

WTS  $gHkH(gH)^{-1} \in K/H \forall g \in H \in G/H$ . Observe that  $gHkHg^{-1}H = gkg^{-1}H$  and since  $K \trianglelefteq G$ ,  $gkg^{-1} \in K \forall g \in G$  so  $gkg^{-1} \in K/H \forall gH \in G/H$ .

Finally, consider  $\varphi : G/H \rightarrow G/K$  by  $gH \mapsto gK$ . Suppose  $g_1H = g_2H$ , then  $g_2^{-1}g_1 \in H$  so  $g_2^{-1}g_1 \in K$  so  $g_1K = g_2K$ . Thus  $\varphi(g_1H) = \varphi(g_2H)$  so  $\varphi$  is well defined. Also,  $\varphi$  is surjective since so  $\text{im} \varphi = G/K$ .

$\ker \varphi = \{gH \in G/H \mid \varphi(gH) = eK\} = \{gH \in G/H \mid gK = eK\} = \{gH \in G/H \mid g \in K\} = K/H$ . So by the first isomorphism theorem,  $G/H / K/H \cong G/K$ .

**Theorem 2.10.5** ("Third" Isomorphism / Fourth Isomorphism / Correspondence Theorem). Let  $G$  be a group,  $N \trianglelefteq G$ , then there is a bijection between the subgroups of  $G$  containing  $N$  and subgroups of  $G/N$ .

## 2.11 March 3

### 2.11.1 Group Actions

We'll let groups act on sets (and on themselves later)

Applications:

Cayley's Thm: Every group of order  $n$  is isomorphic to a subgroup of  $S_n$ .

Sylow's Thm: existence? Number of subgroups of a certain order.

**Definition 2.11.1.** A group of order  $G$  on a set  $A$  is a map  $G \times A \rightarrow A$  (we write  $g \cdot a$  for  $g \in G, a \in A$ ) satisfying:

- (1)  $g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot a) = g_1 g_2 \cdot a \quad \forall g_1, g_2 \in G, a \in A$
- (2)  $1 \cdot a = a \quad \forall a \in A$

For each  $g$  we can define the map  $\sigma_g : A \rightarrow A$  by  $a \mapsto g \cdot a$ .

**Lemma 2.11.2.** For each element  $g \in G$ ,  $\sigma_g$  is a permutation and  $\varphi : G \rightarrow S_A$  by  $g \mapsto \sigma_g$  is a homomorphism.

**Proof.**  $\sigma_g$  is a permutation from  $A \rightarrow A$ . We can show it is a bijection since there is an inverse for  $g \in G$  given by  $g^{-1} \in G$ .

$$\sigma_g \circ \sigma_{g^{-1}} = g \cdot (g^{-1} \cdot a) = (gg^{-1})(a) = 1 \cdot a = a, \text{ and}$$

$$\sigma_{g^{-1}} \circ \sigma_g = g^{-1} \cdot (g \cdot a) = (g^{-1}g)(a) = 1 \cdot a = a.$$

To show  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism, WTS  $\varphi(g_1 g_2) = \varphi(g_1) \circ \varphi(g_2)$ .

$$\varphi(g_1 g_2)(a) = \sigma_{g_1 g_2}(a) = g_1 g_2 \cdot a = g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot a) = \sigma_{g_1}(\sigma_{g_2}(a)) = (\varphi(g_1) \circ \varphi(g_2))(a)$$

**Definition 2.11.3.**  $\varphi$  is called the permutation representation.

We know  $\{\text{actions of } G \text{ on } A\} \leftrightarrow \{\text{homomorphism } G \rightarrow S_A\}$ .

We just showed “ $\rightarrow$ ”, the other direction works too.

Given  $\psi : G \rightarrow S_A$ , consider  $G \times A \rightarrow A$  by  $g \cdot a = \psi(g)(a)$ .

**Definition 2.11.4.** The stabilizer of  $a$  in  $G$  is the set  $G_a = \{g \in G \mid g \cdot a = a\}$  ( $G_a \leq G$ )

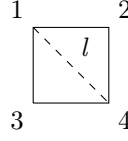
**Definition 2.11.5.** The kernel of the action of  $G$  on  $A$  is  $\{g \in G \mid g \cdot a = a \quad \forall a \in A\}$ .

**Remark 2.11.6.**  $\ker \varphi$  is the same as “the kernel of the action of  $G$  on  $A$ ”

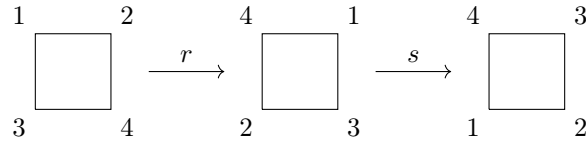
**Example 2.11.7.**

1. let  $g \cdot a = a \quad \forall g \in G \quad \forall a \in A$ .  $\sigma_g : A \rightarrow A$  is  $a \mapsto a$  so  $\varphi : G \rightarrow S_A$  is  $g \mapsto \text{id}$ .
2. For any nonempty set  $A$ ,  $S_A$  acts on  $A$  by  $\sigma \cdot a = \sigma(a)$  for all  $\sigma \in S_A, a \in A$ .  $\varphi : S_A \rightarrow S_A$  by  $\sigma \mapsto \sigma$ .

**Example 2.11.8.**  $G = D_8$   $A = \{1\ 2\ 3\ 4\}$   
 $r$  = rotation,  $s$  = reflection across  $l$ .



$\varphi : D_8 \rightarrow S_4$  by  $r \mapsto (1\ 2\ 3\ 4) = \sigma_r$ ,  $s \mapsto (2\ 4) = \sigma_s$ .  
 $\varphi(sr) = \sigma_{sr} = \sigma_s \circ \sigma_r = (2\ 4)(1\ 2\ 3\ 4) = (1\ 4)(2\ 3)$ .



Stabilizer of vertices 1,3:  $\{s, 1\} = \langle r \rangle$   
 Stabilizer of vertices 2,4:  $\{sr^2, 1\} = \langle sr^2 \rangle$   
 Kernel of action:  $\{1\}$

**Proposition 2.11.9.** Let  $G$  be a group acting on a nonempty set  $A$ , then the relation defined by  $a \sim b$  iff  $a = g \cdot b$  for some  $g \in G$  is an equivalence relation. For  $a \in A$  the number of elements in the equivalence class of  $a$  is equal to  $[G : G_a]$ .

**Proof.** Since  $1 \cdot a = a$ ,  $a \sim a$ .

If  $a \sim b$ ,  $a = g \cdot b$  for some  $g \in G$  so  $g^{-1} \cdot a = g^{-1} \cdot g \cdot b = g^{-1}g \cdot b = 1 \cdot b = b$  so  $b = g^{-1} \cdot a$ ,  $g^{-1} \in G$  so  $b \sim a$ . Finally, if  $a \sim b$ ,  $b \sim c$ ,  $a = g \cdot b$ ,  $b = h \cdot c$  for  $g, h \in G$ .  $a = g \cdot b = g \cdot h \cdot c = gh \cdot c$  so  $a = gh \cdot c$  for  $gh \in G$  so  $a \sim c$ .

Now, let  $C_a = \{g \cdot a | g \in G\}$  the equivalence class of  $a$ . We'll set up a bijection between the elements of  $C_a$  and the cosets of  $G_a$ .

Suppose  $b = g \cdot a \in C_a$ . Then  $gG_a$  is a coset of  $G_a$  in  $G$ . Define the map  $C_a \rightarrow \{\text{left cosets of } G_a \text{ in } G\}$  by  $b = g \cdot a \mapsto gG_a$ . The map is surjective because for  $g \in G$ ,  $g \cdot a \in C_a$ . Also injective because  $g \cdot a = h \cdot a \Leftrightarrow hg^{-1} \cdot a = a \Leftrightarrow h^{-1}g \in G_a \Leftrightarrow hG_a = gG_a$ .

## 2.12 March 8

### 2.12.1 Group Actions

**Definition 2.12.1.** Let  $G$  be a group acting on a set  $A$

- (1) The equivalence class  $\{g \cdot a | g \in G\} = \text{orb } a$  is called the orbit of  $a$  (orbit containing  $a$  in  $G$ )
- (2) The action of  $G$  on  $A$  is called transitive if there is only one orbit. (given  $a, b \in A \exists g$  such that  $a = g \cdot b$ )

**Example 2.12.2.**

- $D_8$  acts on  $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$  transitively.

- If  $G_A$  acts trivially on  $A$   $G_a = A \forall a \in A$  ( $g \cdot a = a$ ) the orbits are the elements of  $A$ . If  $|A| = 1$  the action is transitive, otherwise not.

### 2.12.2 Groups Acting on Themselves ( $G = A$ )

Let  $G$  be a group and consider the action of  $G$  on itself by left multiplication.

$$g \cdot a = ga \quad \forall a, g \in G$$

This is a group action.

Now, generalize a bit let  $G$  be a group  $H \leq G$ ,  $A = \{gH | g \in G\}$ . Define the action of  $G$  on  $A$  by left multiplication

$$g \cdot aH = gaH \quad \forall g \in G \quad \forall aH \in A$$

Suppose  $A$  has  $n$  elements  $a_1H_1, \dots, a_nH_n$  (labels)

Can define  $\sigma_g$  as  $\sigma_g(i) = j$  iff  $g \cdot a_iH = a_jH$ .

**Example 2.12.3.**  $G = D_8$ ,  $H = \langle s \rangle = \{1, s\}$ ,  $A = \{1H, rH, r^2H, r^3H\} \leftarrow \text{labels}$

Computing  $\sigma_s$ :

$$\begin{aligned} s \cdot 1H &= s1H = H = 1H & \sigma_s(4) &= 4 \\ s \cdot rH &= srH = r^{-1}sH = r^{-1}H = r^3H & \sigma_s(1) &= 3 \\ s \cdot r^2H &= sr^2H = r^{-2}sH = r^{-2}H = r^2H & \sigma_s(2) &= 2 \\ s \cdot r^3H &= sr^3H = r^{-3}sH = r^{-3}H = r^1H & \sigma_s(3) &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

so  $\sigma_s = (13)$ . Similarly,  $\sigma_r = (1234)$ .

**Theorem 2.12.4.** Let  $G$  be a group, let  $H \leq G$ , let  $A = \{gH | g \in G\}$ , let  $G$  act on  $A$  by left multiplication.

- (1) The action is transitive.
- (2) The stabilizer of  $1H = H$ .
- (3) The kernel of the action is  $\bigcap_{x \in G} xHx^{-1}$ .

**Proof.**

- (1) Let  $aH, bH \in A$ , let  $g = ba^{-1}$ .  $g \cdot aH = ba^{-1} \cdot aH = baa^{-1}H = bH$ . Since  $aH, bH$  were arbitrary and they are in the same orbit,  $G$  acts transitively on  $A$ .
- (2) The stabilizer of  $1H = G_{1H} = \{g \in G | g \cdot 1H = H\} = \{g \in G | gH = H\} = \{g \in G | g \in H\} = H$ .
- (3) The kernel of the action is  $\text{kernel} = \{g \in G | g \cdot xH = xH \forall x \in G\} = \{g \in G | xgx^{-1}H = H \forall x \in G\} = \{g \in G | x^{-1}gx \in H \forall x \in G\} = \{g \in G | g \in xHx^{-1} \forall x \in G\} = \bigcap_{x \in G} xHx^{-1}$ .

**Corollary 2.12.5** (Cayley's Theorem). Every group is isomorphic to a subgroup of some symmetric group. If  $|G| = n$ ,  $G$  is isomorphic to a subgroup of  $S_n$ .

**Proof.** Let  $H = 1$  and apply the above theorem. Take the permutation representation of  $\varphi : G \rightarrow S_n$ .  $\ker \varphi \leq H$ ,  $H$  is trivial so  $\ker \varphi = 1$ . By the first isomorphism theorem,  $G/\ker \varphi \cong \text{im} \varphi \leq S_G$  so

$$G/1 \cong G \cong \text{im}\varphi \leq S_G.$$

**Corollary 2.12.6.** If  $G$  is a finite group of order  $n$  and  $p$  is the smallest prime dividing  $|G|$  then any subgroup of order  $p$  is normal.

**Proof.**  $H \leq G$   $[G : H] = p$ . Consider the permutation representation of  $G$  acting by left multiplication on  $\{gH\}$ .  $\varphi : G \rightarrow S_p$ . Let  $K = \ker \varphi$   $[H : K] = k$ ,  $[G : H][H : K]$ .  $H$  has  $p$  cosets so  $G/K \cong$  subgroup  $S_p$  so  $|G/K| \mid p!$ .  $|G/K| = pk$  so  $pk \mid p!$  so  $k \mid (p-1)!$ . Since  $|G|$  has no prime divisors less than  $p$ ,  $|G/K|$  has no prime divisors less than  $p$ .  $(p-1)!$  has no prime divisors greater than or equal to  $p$  so  $k = 1$  so  $[H : K] = 1$  so  $H = K$ ,  $H \trianglelefteq G$ .

## 2.13 March 10

### 2.13.1 Groups Acting on Themselves by Conjugation

Let  $G$  be a group, let  $G = A$ , let  $G$  act via  $g \cdot a = gag^{-1} \forall a \in A, \forall g \in G$ . Check this is a group action:

- $g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot a) = g_1 \cdot (g_2 a g_2^{-1}) = g_1 g_2 a g_2^{-1} g_1^{-1} = (g_1 g_2) a (g_1 g_2)^{-1} = g_1 g_2 \cdot a$
- $1 \cdot a = 1a1^{-1} = a \forall a \in A$ .

**Definition 2.13.1.** Two elements  $a$  and  $b$  are said to be conjugate in  $G$  if  $\exists g \in G$  such that  $b = gag^{-1}$  ( $a$  and  $b$  are in the same orbit under the conjugation action)

Orbits under this action are called conjugacy classes.

**Remark 2.13.2.**

- If  $G$  is abelian, this action is trivial since  $gag^{-1} = a \forall g \in G$  ( $ga = ag \forall a, g \in G$ )
- If  $|G| > 1$ , this action is not transitive because  $geg^{-1} = e \forall g \in G$  so  $\text{orb}(e) = \{e\}$ . If  $a \in Z(G)$ ,  $gag^{-1} = a \forall a \in A$  so  $\text{orb}(a) = \{a\}$

Generalize this to subgroups of  $G$ .

$S \leq G$ ,  $gSg^{-1} = \{gsg^{-1} | s \in S\}$ .  $G$  acts on the set of subsets of  $G$  ( $P(G)$ ).  $g \cdot S = gSg^{-1}$  for any  $g \in G$ ,  $S \in P(G)$ .

**Definition 2.13.3.** Two subsets  $S$  and  $T$  are conjugate in  $G$  if  $\exists g \in G$  such that  $gSg^{-1} = T$ . The stabilizer of this action is  $G_S = \{g \in G | gSg^{-1} = S\} = N_G(S)$ .

**Proposition 2.13.4.** The number of conjugates of a subset  $S$  in a group is  $[G : G_S] = [G : N_G(S)]$ . In particular, the number of conjugates of a single element  $s \in G$  is  $[G : C_G(s)]$ .

**Theorem 2.13.5** (The Class Equation). Let  $G$  be a finite group.  $g_1, \dots, g_r$  representatives of non central conjugacy classes (classes not in  $Z(G)$ ). Then  $|G| = |Z(G)| + \sum_{i=1}^r [G : C_G(g_i)]$ .

**Proof.** Write  $Z(G) = \{1, z_2, \dots, z_m\}$ , let  $g_i$  be a representative of  $K_i$  with  $K_1, \dots, K_r$  list of all noncentral conjugacy classes (more than 1 element).

$\{1\}, \{z_2\}, \dots, \{z_m\}, K_1, \dots, K_r$  list of all conjugacy classes so they partition  $G$ .  $|G| = \sum_{i=1}^m 1 + \sum_{i=1}^r |K_i| = |Z(G)| + \sum_{i=1}^r [G : C_G(g_i)]$ .

**Example 2.13.6.**

(0) If  $G$  is abelian  $|G| = |Z(G)|$ .

(1)  $D_8 = \{1, r, r^2, r^3, s, sr, sr^2, sr^3\}$ .  
 $\text{orb}(r) = \text{orb}(r^3) = \{r, r^3\}$      $\text{orb}(sr) = \text{orb}(sr^3) = \{sr, sr^3\}$   
 $\text{orb}(s) = \text{orb}(sr^2) = \{s, sr^2\}$      $Z(D_8) = \{1, r^2\}$   
so  $|D_8| = |Z(D_8)| + \sum_{s, sr} [G : C_G(x)]$  so  $8 = 2 + \frac{8}{4} + \frac{8}{4} + \frac{8}{4}$ .

**Theorem 2.13.7.** If  $p$  is prime and  $G$  is a group of order  $p^a$   $a \geq 1$ ,  $G$  has a nontrivial center.

**Proof.** If  $a = 1$ ,  $|G| = p$ ,  $G$  has prime order so  $G$  is a cyclic group and hence abelian.

If  $a > 1$ ,  $|G| = |Z(G)| + \sum_{i=1}^r [G : C_G(g_i)]$  with  $r$  representatives of non central conjugacy classes.  
 $[G : C_G(g_i)] = \frac{|G|}{|C_G(g_i)|} = \frac{p^a}{p^n}$ .  $C_G(g_i) \neq G$  so  $n < a$  so  $p \mid [G : C_G(g_i)] \forall i$  so  $p \mid \sum_{i=1}^r [G : C_G(g_i)]$  and  $p \mid |G|$  so  $p \mid |Z(G)|$  so  $Z(G)$  is nontrivial.

**Corollary 2.13.8.** If  $|G| = p^2$  ( $p$  prime) then  $G$  is abelian. ( $G \cong \mathbb{Z}/p^2\mathbb{Z}$  or  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ )

## 2.13.2 Groups Acting on Themselves by Conjugation

**Proof.**  $|G| = p^2$  so by previous theorem  $|Z(G)| = p$  or  $p^2$ . If  $|Z(G)| = p^2$  then  $G = Z(G)$  so  $G$  is abelian. Otherwise,  $|G/Z(G)| = \frac{p^2}{p} = p$  so  $G/Z(G)$  is cyclic which implies  $G$  is abelian.

Let  $G$  be a group, let  $G = A$ , let  $G$  act via  $g \cdot a = gag^{-1} \forall a \in A, \forall g \in G$ .  
Check this is a group action:

- $g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot a) = g_1 \cdot (g_2 a g_2^{-1}) = g_1 g_2 a g_2^{-1} g_1^{-1} = (g_1 g_2) a (g_1 g_2)^{-1} = g_1 g_2 \cdot a$
- $1 \cdot a = 1a1^{-1} = a \forall a \in A$ .

**Definition 2.13.9.** Two elements  $a$  and  $b$  are said to be conjugate in  $G$  if  $\exists g \in G$  such that  $b = gag^{-1}$  ( $a$  and  $b$  are in the same orbit under the conjugation action)

Orbits under this action are called conjugacy classes.

**Remark 2.13.10.**

(a) If  $G$  is abelian, this action is trivial since  $gag^{-1} = a \forall g \in G$  ( $ga = ag \forall a, g \in G$ )



- (b) If  $|G| > 1$ , this action is not transitive because  $geg^{-1} = e \forall g \in G$  so  $\text{orb}(e) = \{e\}$ . If  $a \in Z(G)$ ,  $gag^{-1} = a \forall a \in A$  so  $\text{orb}(a) = \{a\}$

Generalize this to subgroups of  $G$ .

$S \leq G$ ,  $gSg^{-1} = \{gs g^{-1} | s \in S\}$ .  $G$  acts on the set of subsets of  $G$  ( $P(G)$ ).  $g \cdot S = gSg^{-1}$  for any  $g \in G$ ,  $S \in P(G)$ .

**Definition 2.13.11.** Two subsets  $S$  and  $T$  are conjugate in  $G$  if  $\exists g \in G$  such that  $gSg^{-1} = T$ . The stabilizer of this action is  $G_S = \{g \in G | gSg^{-1} = S\} = N_G(S)$ .

**Proposition 2.13.12.** The number of conjugates of a subset  $S$  in a group is  $[G : G_S] = [G : N_G(S)]$ . In particular, the number of conjugates of a single element  $s \in G$  is  $[G : C_G(s)]$ .

**Theorem 2.13.13** (The Class Equation). Let  $G$  be a finite group.  $g_1, \dots, g_r$  representatives of non central conjugacy classes (classes not in  $Z(G)$ ). Then  $|G| = |Z(G)| + \sum_{i=1}^r [G : C_G(g_i)]$ .

**Proof.** Write  $Z(G) = \{1, z_2, \dots, z_m\}$ , let  $g_i$  be a representative of  $K_i$  with  $K_1, \dots, K_r$  list of all noncentral conjugacy classes (more than 1 element).

$\{1\}, \{z_2\}, \dots, \{z_m\}, K_1, \dots, K_r$  list of all conjugacy classes so they partition  $G$ .  $|G| = \sum_{i=1}^m 1 + \sum_{i=1}^r |K_i| = |Z(G)| + \sum_{i=1}^r [G : C_G(g_i)]$ .

**Example 2.13.14.**

- (0) If  $G$  is abelian  $|G| = |Z(G)|$ .
- (1)  $D_8 = \{1, r, r^2, r^3, s, sr, sr^2, sr^3\}$ .  
 $\text{orb}(r) = \text{orb}(r^3) = \{r, r^3\}$      $\text{orb}(sr) = \text{orb}(sr^3) = \{sr, sr^3\}$   
 $\text{orb}(s) = \text{orb}(sr^2) = \{s, sr^2\}$      $Z(D_8) = \{1, r^2\}$   
 so  $|D_8| = |Z(D_8)| + \sum_{s, sr} [G : C_G(x)]$  so  $8 = 2 + \frac{8}{4} + \frac{8}{4} + \frac{8}{4}$ .

**Theorem 2.13.15.** If  $p$  is prime and  $G$  is a group of order  $p^a$   $a \geq 1$ ,  $G$  has a nontrivial center.

**Proof.** If  $a = 1$ ,  $|G| = p$ ,  $G$  has prime order so  $G$  is a cyclic group and hence abelian.

If  $a > 1$ ,  $|G| = |Z(G)| + \sum_{i=1}^r [G : C_G(g_i)]$  with  $r$  representatives of non central conjugacy classes.  $[G : C_G(g_i)] = \frac{|G|}{|C_G(g_i)|} = \frac{p^a}{p^n}$ .  $C_G(g_i) \neq G$  so  $n < a$  so  $p \mid [G : C_G(g_i)] \forall i$  so  $p \mid \sum_{i=1}^r [G : C_G(g_i)]$  and  $p \mid |G|$  so  $p \mid |Z(G)|$  so  $Z(G)$  is nontrivial.

**Corollary 2.13.16.** If  $|G| = p^2$  ( $p$  prime) then  $G$  is abelian. ( $G \cong \mathbb{Z}/p^2\mathbb{Z}$  or  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ )

**Proof.**  $|G| = p^2$  so by previous theorem  $|Z(G)| = p$  or  $p^2$ . If  $|Z(G)| = p^2$  then  $G = Z(G)$  so  $G$  is abelian. Otherwise,  $|G/Z(G)| = \frac{p^2}{p} = p$  so  $G/Z(G)$  is cyclic which implies  $G$  is abelian.

## 2.14 March 15

### 2.14.1 Sylow's Theorems

Recall Langrange's Theorem (subgroup order divides group order).

Full converse not true,  $|G| = n$ ,  $d|n \nrightarrow \exists$  subgroup of  $G$  of order  $d$ .

Sylow's Theorems come close to this

**Lemma 2.14.1** (Cauchy's Theorem for Abelian Groups). If  $G$  is a finite abelian group and  $p$  is a prime dividing  $|G|$  then  $|G|$  has an element of order  $p$ .

**Proof.** We will use induction on  $|G|$ . We know  $|G| > 1$  since  $p \mid |G|$  so  $x \in G$  such that  $x \neq 1$ . If  $|G| = p$ , then  $x$  has order  $p$ .

So assume  $|G| > p$  and let  $x \in G$ ,  $x \neq 1$

- Suppose  $p \mid |x|$ , then  $|x| = np$  for some  $n$ . Then  $|x^n| = \left(\frac{np}{\gcd(n, np)}\right) = \frac{np}{n} = p$  so  $|x^n| = p$ .
- Now, suppose  $p \nmid |x|$ . Let  $N = \langle x \rangle$ . Since  $G$  abelian  $N \trianglelefteq G$  so by Langrange's thm,  $|G/N| = \frac{|G|}{|N|}$ ,  $x \neq 1$  so  $|N| > 1$  so  $|G/N| < |G|$ . Since  $p \nmid |N|$ ,  $p \mid |G/N|$ . By IH,  $G/N$  (smaller than  $G$ ) contains an element of order  $p$ ,  $\bar{y} = yN$ .  $\bar{y} \neq \bar{1}$  so  $\bar{y} \notin N$ . Also,  $\bar{y}^p = \bar{1}$  so  $\bar{y}^p \in N$  so  $\langle y^p \rangle \neq \langle y \rangle$  so  $|y^p| < |y|$ . But  $|y^p| = \frac{|y|}{\gcd(p, |y|)} = \frac{|y|}{p}$  so  $p \mid |y|$ . We already now how to find an element of order  $p$  in this case.

**Definition 2.14.2.** Let  $G$  be a group, let  $p$  be prime.

- (1) A group of order  $p^\alpha$  for  $\alpha \geq 0$  is called a  $p$ -group. Subgroups of  $G$  that are also  $p$ -groups are called  $p$ -subgroups.
- (2) If  $G$  is a subgroup of order  $p^\alpha m$  where  $p \nmid m$  then a subgroup of order  $p^\alpha$  is called a Sylow  $p$ -subgroup of  $G$ .
- (3) The set of Sylow  $p$ -subgroups of  $G$  will be denoted  $Syl_p(G)$  and the number of Sylow  $p$ -subgroups will be denoted  $n_p(G)$ .

**Theorem 2.14.3** (Sylow 1). Let  $G$  be a group of order  $p^\alpha m$  where  $p$  is prime and does not divide  $m$ , then there exists a Sylow  $p$ -subgroup. ( $\exists$  a subgroup of order  $p^\alpha$ ,  $Syl_p(G) \neq \emptyset$ )

**Proof.** Proceed by induction on  $|G|$ . If  $|G| = 1$ , nothing to prove.

Assume that Sylow  $p$ -subgroups exist for all of order smaller than  $|G|$ .

- If  $p \mid |Z(G)|$  then by the lemma  $Z(G)$  has a subgroup of order  $p$ , call it  $N$ . Let  $\bar{G} = G/N$ ,  $|N| = p$  so  $|G/N| = p^{\alpha-1}m$  so by IH  $\bar{G}$  has a Sylow  $p$ -subgroup ( $\bar{P}$  of order  $p^{\alpha-1}$ ). Let  $P$  be the subgroup of  $G$  containing  $N$  such that  $P/N = \bar{P}$  (correspondence isomorphism theorem.)  $|P| = |P/N||N| = p^{\alpha-1}p = p^\alpha$  so  $P$  is a Sylow  $p$ -subgroup of  $G$ .
- Suppose  $p \nmid |Z(G)|$ . Let  $g_1, \dots, g_r$  be the representatives of the non central conjugacy classes in  $G$ . The class equation  $|G| = |Z(G)| + \sum_{i=1}^r [G : C_G(g_i)]$ . If  $p \nmid [G : C_G(g_i)] \forall i$  then  $p \nmid |Z(G)|$  contradicting

our assumption. So  $p \nmid [G : C_G(g_i)]$  for some  $i$ . Let  $H = C_G(g_i)$ ,  $|H| = p^\alpha k$ ,  $p \nmid k$ . Also  $|H| < |G|$  since  $g_i$  not in  $Z(G)$  so  $C_G(g_i) \neq G$ . By IH,  $H$  has a Sylow  $p$ -subgroup  $P$ ,  $|P| = p^\alpha$  so  $P$  is a Sylow  $p$ -subgroup of  $G$ .

**Theorem 2.14.4** (Sylow 2). If  $P$  is a Sylow  $p$ -subgroup of  $G$  and  $Q$  is a Sylow  $p$ -subgroup in  $G$   $\exists g$  such that  $Q \leq gPg^{-1}$ . (Any two Sylow  $p$ -subgroups are conjugate in  $G$ )

**Theorem 2.14.5** (Sylow 3). The number of Sylow  $p$ -subgroups of  $G$  is of the form  $1 + kp$  ie.  $n_p(G) \equiv 1 \pmod p$ ,  $n_p = [G : N_G(P)]$  for  $P$ , any Sylow  $p$ -subgroup  $n_p(G) \mid m$ .

**Example 2.14.6.**  $G = S_3$ .  $|S_3| = 2^1 \cdot 3^1$  so  $\exists$  a Sylow 2-subgroup and a Sylow 3-subgroup. The Sylow 2-subgroups have order 2 and the Sylow 3-subgroups have order 3.

$n_2 \equiv 1 \pmod 2$ ,  $n_2 \mid 3$  so  $n_2 = 1$  or  $3$ .  $Syl_2(S_3) = \{\langle (12) \rangle, \langle (23) \rangle, \langle (13) \rangle\}$   
 $n_3 \equiv 1 \pmod 3$ ,  $n_3 \mid 2$  so  $n_3 = 1$ .  $Syl_3(S_3) = \{\langle (123) \rangle\}$

## 2.15 March 17

### 2.15.1 Direct Products

$(G_1, *_1), \dots, (G_n, *_n)$  groups

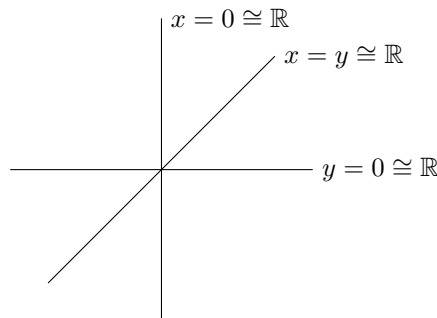
**Definition 2.15.1.** The direct product  $G_1 \times \dots \times G_n$  is the set of  $n$ -tuples  $(g_1, \dots, g_n)$ ,  $g_i \in G$  and the group operation is defined componentwise.

$$(g_1, \dots, g_n) * (h_1, \dots, h_n) = (g_1 *_1 h_1, \dots, g_n *_n h_n)$$

**Example 2.15.2.**  $G_1 = \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $G_2 = S_3$ ,  $G_3 = \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}$   
 $G = G_1 \times G_2 \times G_3$ ,  $(m, \sigma, w) * (n, \tau, v) = (m + n, \sigma \circ \tau, wv)$

**Proposition 2.15.3.** If  $G_1, \dots, G_n$  are groups, their direct product is a group of order  $|G_1| \times \dots \times |G_n|$ .

**Example 2.15.4.**  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$



Any line through the origin is a copy of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Proposition 2.15.5.** Let  $G_1, \dots, G_n$  be groups,  $G_1 \times \dots \times G_n$  their direct product

- (1) For each fixed  $i$ ,  $G_i \cong \{(1, \dots, 1, g_i, 1, \dots, 1) | g_i \in G_i\}$ . Identify  $G_i$  with this subgroup. Then  $G_i \trianglelefteq G$ ,  $G/G_i \cong G_1 \times \dots \times G_{i-1} \times G_{i+1} \times \dots \times G_n$ .
- (2) For each  $i$ ,  $\pi_i : G \rightarrow G_i$  is defined by  $(g_1, \dots, g_n) \mapsto g_i$ .  
 $\ker \pi_i = \{(g_1, \dots, g_{i-1}, 1, g_{i+1}, \dots, g_n) | g_j \in G_j\} \cong G_1 \times \dots \times G_{i-1} \times G_{i+1} \times \dots \times G_n$ .
- (3) If  $x \in G_i$ ,  $y \in G_j$ ,  $i \neq j$   $xy = yx$ .

**Proof.**

- (1)  $H = \{(1, \dots, 1, g_i, 1, \dots, 1) | g_i \in G_i\}$  can show its a subgroup.  
 Let  $\psi : G_i \rightarrow H$  by  $g_i \mapsto (1, \dots, 1, g_i, 1, \dots, 1)$  can be shown to be an isomorphism. Identify  $G_i$  with  $H$ .  
 $\varphi : G \rightarrow G_1 \times \dots \times G_{i-1} \times G_{i+1} \times \dots \times G_n$  by  $(g_1, \dots, g_n) \mapsto (g_1, \dots, g_{i-1}, g_{i+1}, \dots, g_n)$  can show  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism,  $\varphi$  is surjective so  $\text{im} \varphi = G_1 \times \dots \times G_{i-1} \times G_{i+1} \times \dots \times G_n$ .  $\ker \varphi = \{(g_1, \dots, g_n) | g_i = 1 \forall i \neq j\} = \{(1, \dots, 1, g_i, 1, \dots, 1)\} = G_i$  so  $G_i \trianglelefteq G$ , by 1st isomorphism theorem  $G/G_i \cong G_1 \times \dots \times G_{i-1} \times G_{i+1} \times \dots \times G_n$ .

**Example 2.15.6.**  $G = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $p$  primes  $\rightarrow G$  has exactly  $p + 1$  subgroups of order  $p$ .  
 $|G| = p^2$ , elements have order 1 or  $p$  so each nonidentity element has order  $p$ ,  $p^2 - 1$  of them. By Lagrange's theorem, distinct subgroups of order  $p$  have nontrivial intersection. Each subgroup has  $p - 1$  nonidentity elements so  $\frac{p^2 - 1}{p - 1} = p + 1$  subgroups.

## 2.15.2 Finitely Generated Abelian Groups

**Definition 2.15.7.** A group  $G$  is finitely generated if there is a finite subset  $A$  of  $G$  such that  $G = \langle A \rangle$ .

If  $G$  is finitely generated and abelian,  $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\} \in G$  such that  $x \in G$  can be written as  $x = a_1^{\lambda_1} * \dots * a_n^{\lambda_n}$ ,  $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Remark 2.15.8.** If the  $a_i$  all have infinite order, the representation is unique. We call  $G$  a free abelian group.

**Example 2.15.9.**  $\mathbb{Z}^R = \underbrace{\mathbb{Z} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}}_{r \text{ terms}}$

**Definition 2.15.10.**  $x \in G$  is called torsion if it is of finite order. Denote elements  $TG \leq G$ .

If  $TG = \{\text{id}\}$ ,  $G$  is torsion free.

If  $TG = G$ , we say  $G$  is torsion.

**Proposition 2.15.11.** Let  $G$  be a finitely generated abelian group,  $G/TG$  is torsion free.

**Proof.** WTS if  $xTG$  is torsion,  $x \in TG$ .  $TG \trianglelefteq G$  since  $G$  is abelian. Suppose  $xTG$  is torsion,  $(xTG)^n = TG$  so  $x^n TG = TG$  so  $x^n \in TG$  so  $\exists m$  such that  $(x^n)^m = \text{id}$ . So  $x^{nm} = \text{id}$  so  $x \in TG$  and  $xTG = TG$ .

**Theorem 2.15.12** (Fundamental Theorem of Finitely Generated Abelian Groups). Let  $G$  be a finitely generated abelian group

(1)  $G \cong \mathbb{Z}^r \times Z_{n_1} \times \cdots \times Z_{n_s}$  such that

- $r, n_i \in \mathbb{Z}, r \geq 0, n_i \geq 2 \forall i$
- $n_{i+1} | n_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq s-1$

(2) The expression is unique.

**Definition 2.15.13.**  $r$  is called the rank,  $n_i$  called the invariant factors of  $G$ .

**Remark 2.15.14.** Two finitely generated abelian groups, are isomorphic iff they have the same rank and list of invariant factors.

- A finitely generated abelian group is finite if  $r = 0$
- theorem gives us an effective way to list all finite abelian groups of a certain order.

Enumerate positive  $n_1, \dots, n_s$  such that

- (1)  $n_j \geq 2 \forall j \in \{1, \dots, s\}$
- (2)  $n_{i+1} | n_i \forall i \in \{1, \dots, s-1\}$
- (3)  $n_1 \dots n_s = n$

Note that  $n_1$  is the largest invariant factor, also  $n_i | n$ .

- If  $p | n$  then  $p | n_1$  since  $p | n_1 \dots n_s$  so  $p | n_i$  for some  $i$  si  $p | n_1$
- In particular if  $n$  is the product of distinct primes  $n = n_1$

**Corollary 2.15.15.** IF  $n$  is the product of distinct primes, up to isomorphism, the only abelian group of order  $n$  is  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ .

## 2.16 March 29

### 2.16.1 Finitely Generated Abelian Groups

**Example 2.16.1.** Suppose  $n = 180 = 2^2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5$

Possible  $n_1$  values:  $n_1 = 2^2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5, n_1 = 2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5, n_1 = 2^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5, n_1 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$

- (1)  $n_1 = 2^2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5 \quad G \cong \mathbb{Z}/180\mathbb{Z}$
- (2)  $n_1 = 2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5 \quad G \cong \mathbb{Z}/90\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/n_2\mathbb{Z} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}/n_s\mathbb{Z}$   
 $180 = 90n_2 \cdots n_s$  so  $2 = n_2 \cdots n_r$  so  $n_2 = 2$   
 $G \cong \mathbb{Z}/90\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$
- (3)  $n_1 = 2^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \quad G \cong \mathbb{Z}/60\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/n_2\mathbb{Z} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}/n_r\mathbb{Z}$   
 $180 = 60n_2 \cdots n_r$  so  $3 = n_2 \cdots n_r$  so  $n_2 = 3$   
 $G \cong \mathbb{Z}/60\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$

- (4)  $n_1 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$   $G \cong \mathbb{Z}/30\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/n_2\mathbb{Z} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}/n_w\mathbb{Z}$   
 $180 = 30n_2 \cdots n_w$  so  $6 = n_2 \cdots n_w$ . Suppose  $n_2 = 2$  (or  $n_2 = 3$ ). Then  $n_3 | n_2$  so  $n_3 = 2$  (or  $n_3 = 3$ ) but  $n_1 n_2 n_3$  will be divisible by  $2^3$  (or  $3^3$ ) but 180 is not so  $G \cong \mathbb{Z}/30\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ .

Classification of Groups of Order 180

Invariant Factors	Groups	Largest Order of Element
(180)	$\mathbb{Z}/180\mathbb{Z}$	180
(90, 2)	$\mathbb{Z}/90\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$	90
(60, 3)	$\mathbb{Z}/60\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$	60
(30, 6)	$\mathbb{Z}/30\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$	30

Another way is Elementary Divisors:

**Theorem 2.16.2.** If  $G$  is an abelian group of order  $n > 1$ , where  $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$ , then

- (1)  $G \cong A_1 \times \cdots \times A_k$   $|A_i| = p_i^{\alpha_i}$
- (2) For each  $A_i$ ,  $A_i \cong \mathbb{Z}/p_i^{\beta_1}\mathbb{Z} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}/p_i^{\beta_t}\mathbb{Z}$   
 $\beta_1 \geq \beta_2 \geq \cdots \geq 1$  and  $\beta_1 + \cdots + \beta_t = \alpha_i$ .

**Remark 2.16.3.**

- If  $G$  is abelian it is isomorphic to the product of its Sylow Subgroups.
- In general, the elementary divisors are not the invariant factors of  $G$ . They correspond to invariant factors of subgroups of  $G$ .

**Example 2.16.4.**  $|G| = 180 = 2^2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5$   
 $G = A_1 \times A_2 \times A_3$   $|A_1| = 2^2$ ,  $|A_2| = 3^2$ ,  $|A_3| = 5$   
 $A_1 \cong \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$  or  $A_1 \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$   
 $A_2 \cong \mathbb{Z}/9\mathbb{Z}$  or  $A_2 \cong \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$   
 $A_3 \cong \mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$   
 $G \cong \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/9\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}/180\mathbb{Z}$   
 $G \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/9\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}/90\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$   
 $G \cong \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}/60\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$   
 $G \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}/30\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$

# Chapter 3

## Rings

### 3.1 March 29

#### 3.1.1 Rings

Before: Groups  $\rightarrow$  set with one binary operation

Now: Rings  $\rightarrow$  set with two binary operations. One gives rise to an abelian group and the other is associative with identity. Want the two operations to be compatible

Rings(1870-1920's):

- Dedekind, Hilbert: Used without definition
- Fraenkel: Definition too strict
- Noether: Modern Definition

**Definition 3.1.1.** A ring  $R$  is a set with two binary operations  $+$  and  $\times$  such that

- (1)  $(R, +)$  is an (abelian) group
- (2)  $\times$  is associative  
 $(a \times b) \times c = a \times (b \times c) \quad \forall a, b, c \in R$
- (3) The distributive law holds  $\forall a, b, c \in R$   
 $(a + b) \times c = (a \times c) + (b \times c) \quad a \times (b + c) = (a \times b) + (a \times c)$
- (4) There is a multiplicative identity  $1$  such that  $a \times 1 = 1 \times a = a \quad \forall a \in R$

**Definition 3.1.2.** A ring is called commutative if multiplication is commutative.

**Remark 3.1.3.** There is debate as to whether rings have identity or not

- 1921: Def didn't include  $1$
- 1960's: People started using  $1$

Some people call it "ring with unit"

Note:  $1 \in R \rightarrow (R, +)$  is abelian.

$$(1+1) \times (a+b) = 1 \times (a+b) + 1 \times (a+b) = a+b+a+b$$

$$\text{or} \quad = (1+1) \times a + (1+1) \times b = a+a+b+b$$

**Definition 3.1.4.** A ring  $R$  is called a division ring if every nonzero  $a \in R$  has a multiplicative inverse. (ie.  $\exists b \in R$  such that  $ab = ba = 1$ )

**Definition 3.1.5.** A commutative division ring is called a field.

**Example 3.1.6.**

- (0) The zero ring  $R = \{0\}$ ,  $0 = 1$ , commutative
- (1)  $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \times)$  is a ring, commutative
- (2)  $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \times)$ ,  $(\mathbb{R}, +, \times)$ ,  $(\mathbb{C}, +, \times)$ , commutative
- (3)  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, +, \times)$ , commutative ring.

## 3.2 March 31

### 3.2.1 Rings

**Example 3.2.1.**  $M_n(R)$  with usual addition and multiplication, elements in  $R$  is a ring.

**Example 3.2.2** (Non-Example).

- $(2\mathbb{Z}, +, \times)$ : Doesn't have multiplicative identities
- $(\mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}, +, \times)$ : No additive identity

**Example 3.2.3.**

- (1)  $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \times)$  ring, not a field since no multiplicative inverses
- (2)  $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \times)$  ring, field iff  $n$  is prime  
 $[0] \neq [a]$ ,  $n$  prime.  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$  so  $\exists u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $ua + vn = 1$ .  
 $[u][a] + [0] = [1] \rightarrow [u][a] = [1] \quad (ua \equiv 1 \pmod{n})$

More Complex Examples: Let  $X$  be a nonempty set,  $A$  a ring. The set of functions  $f : X \rightarrow A$  is a ring with operations  $(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$ ,  $(fg)(x) = f(x)g(x)$ .

Ring axioms holds since they hold for  $A$ .  $1 \in R$  is given by  $f(x) = 1 \forall x \in X$ .

$R$  is commutative iff  $A$  is commutative.

**Lemma 3.2.4.** Let  $R$  be a ring.

- (1)  $0a = a0 = 0 \forall a \in R$
- (2)  $(-a)(b) = (a)(-b) = -(ab) \forall \in R$
- (3)  $(-a)(-b) = ab$



$$(4) -a = (-1)a$$

**Proof.**

- (1)  $0a = (0 + 0)a = 0a + 0a$  so  $0 = 0a$
- (2)  $ab + (-a)b = (a - a)b = 0b = 0$  so  $(-a)b = -(ab)$
- (3)  $(-a)(-b) + a(-b) = (-a + a)(-b) = 0$  so  $(-a)b = -(ab)$
- (4)  $(-a)(-b) + a(-b) = (-a + a)(-b) = 0$  so  $(-a)(-b) = -(a(-b)) = ab$
- (5)  $(-1)(a) + (1)(a) = (-1 + 1)a = 0$  so  $(-1)(a) = -a$

**Definition 3.2.5.** Let  $R$  be a ring.

1. A nonzero element  $a$  of  $R$  is called a 0-divisor (zero-divisor) if there is an element  $b \in R$  such that  $ab = 0$  or  $ba = 0$
2. A nonzero element of  $R$  is called a unit in  $R$  if there is some  $v$  in  $R$  such that  $uv = vu = 1$ . The set of units of  $R$  is denoted  $R^\times$

**Remark 3.2.6.** For a ring  $R$ ,  $R^\times$  forms a group under multiplication.

**Remark 3.2.7.** We can change the definition of a field to say  $F$  is a commutative ring with  $1 \neq 0$  such that every nonzero element is a unit.  $F^\times = F \setminus \{0\}$ .

**Lemma 3.2.8.** A unit cannot be a zero divisor.

**Proof.** Assume that  $a \in R$ ,  $a \in R^\times$  and  $\exists b \neq 0$  such that  $ab = 0$  and  $va = 1$  for some  $v \in R$ .  $0 = v(0) = v(ab) = (va)b = 1b = b$ , contradicting our assumption.

**Example 3.2.9.**

- (1) In  $\mathbb{Z}$  there are no 0-divisors the units are  $\pm 1$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}^\times = \{\pm 1\}$
- (2) In  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  every nonzero element is either a unit or a zero divisor.  
 $[0] \neq [1] \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  if  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$  then  $[a]$  is a unit. If  $\gcd(a, n) \neq 1$  then let  $b = \frac{n}{\gcd(n, a)}$  and set  $\gcd(n, a) > 1$ ,  $b < n \rightarrow [b] \neq [0]$  since  $[a][b] = [0]$ ,  $[a]$  is a zero divisor.

**Definition 3.2.10.** A commutative ring ( $1 \neq 0$ ) is called an integral domain if it has no zero divisors. (ex.  $\mathbb{Z}$ )

**Proposition 3.2.11.** Let  $R$  be a ring with no zero divisors. Let  $a, b, c \in R$ , then if  $ab = ac$  then  $a = 0$  or  $b = c$ .

**Proof.** If  $ab = ac$ ,  $ab - ac = 0$  so  $a(b - c) = 0$  so  $a = 0$  or  $b - c = 0 \rightarrow b = c$ .

**Corollary 3.2.12.** Any finite integral domain is a field.

**Proof.** Let  $a \neq 0, a \in R$ . Consider  $R \rightarrow R$  by  $x \mapsto ax$ . The map is injective since  $ax_1 = ax_2 \rightarrow x_1 = x_2$ . Since  $R$  is finite, it is also surjective so  $\exists b$  such that  $ab = 1$  so  $a$  is a unit. Since  $a$  was an arbitrary non zero element,  $R$  is a field.

**Definition 3.2.13.** A subset of a ring is an additive subgroup of  $R$  that is closed under multiplication and contains the multiplicative identity of  $R$ .

**Example 3.2.14.**

$$(1) \quad \mathbb{Z} \underset{\text{subring}}{\subset} \mathbb{Q} \underset{\text{subring}}{\subset} \mathbb{R}$$

(2) If  $R$  is a subring of a field  $F$  then  $R$  is an integral domain

*Proof.*  $a, b \in R, a, b \in F$  so  $ab = ba$  so  $R$  is commutative

to show  $R$  is an integral domain, if  $a \neq 0, a \in R \subset F, a$  is a unit so  $a$  is non a zero divisor.  $\square$

### 3.2.2 Polynomial Rings

**Definition 3.2.15.** Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with  $1 \neq 0$ , then  $R[x]$  “ $R$  adjoin  $x$ ” is the set of polynomials with coefficients with in  $R$ ,

$$R[x] = \{a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_nx^n \mid a^i \in R\}$$

Let  $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x^1 + \cdots + a_nx^n, a_n \neq 0$  (largest such  $n$ )

- We say  $\text{degree}(f) = n$
- $a_n = 1 \rightarrow f$  is monic
- operations:

$$(a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_nx^n) + (b_0 + b_1x + \cdots + b_nx^n) = (a_0 + b_0) + (a_1 + b_1)x + \cdots + (a_n + b_n)x^n$$

$$(a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_nx^n)(b_0 + b_1x + \cdots + b_nx^n) =$$

$$(a_0b_0) + (a_0b_1 + a_1b_0)x + (a_0b_2 + a_1b_1 + a_2b_0)x^2 + \cdots + a_nb_nx^{2n}$$

Coefficient of  $x^k$  is  $\sum_{i=1}^k a_ib_{k-i}$ .

$R[x]$  is a commutative ring,  $R$  is a subring

## 3.3 April 5

### 3.3.1 Polynomial Rings

**Example 3.3.1.**  $\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}[x]$ , coefficients 0, 1, 2.

$$p(x) = x^2 + 2x + 1, q(x) = x^3 + x + 2$$

$$p(x) + q(x) = x^3 + x^2 + 3x + 3 = x^3 + x^2$$

$$p(x)q(x) = x^5 + 2x^4 + 2x^3 + x^2 + 2x + 2$$

The coefficients in a ring make a difference

**Example 3.3.2.**  $x^2 + 1$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  cannot be factored.

in  $\mathbb{C}[x]$  can be factored:  $(x - i)(x + i) = x^2 + 1$

in  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}[x]$  forms a perfect square:  $(x + 1)^2 = (x + 1)(x + 1) = x^2 + 1$

$R[x]$  inherits properties from  $R$

**Proposition 3.3.3.** Let  $R$  be an integral domain. Let  $p(x), q(x)$  be nonzero elements of  $R[x]$ .

- 1)  $\deg(p(x)q(x)) = \deg(p(x)) + \deg(q(x))$
- 2)  $(R[x])^\times = R^\times$
- 3)  $R[x]$  is an integral domain.

**Proof.**

- (1)  $p(x) = a_n x^n + \cdots + a_0$ ,  $q(x) = b_m x^m + \cdots + b_0$ ,  $a_n, b_m \neq 0$ ,  $\deg(p(x)) = n$ ,  $\deg(q(x)) = m$ .  $p(x)q(x) = a_n b_m x^{m+n} + \cdots + a_0 b_0$ , since  $a_n, b_m \neq 0$   $a_n b_m \neq 0$  so  $\deg(p(x)q(x)) = m + n = \deg(p(x)) + \deg(q(x))$ .
- (3)  $p(x), q(x) \neq 0$ ,  $p(x)q(x) \neq 0$  (degrees are additive) so  $R$  is an integral domain.
- (2) if  $p(x)$  is a unit,  $p(x)q(x) = 1$  for some  $q(x) \in R[x]$ ,  $\deg(1) = 0$ ,  $\deg(p(x)q(x)) = \deg(p(x)) + \deg(q(x)) = \deg(1) = 0$  so  $\deg(p(x)) = \deg(q(x)) = 0$  so  $p(x), q(x) \in R$ ,  $p(x)q(x) = 1$  so  $p(x), q(x) \in R^\times$ .

We have shown  $(R[x])^\times \subset R^\times$ . Suppose  $a, b \in R^\times$ ,  $ab = 1$ . Viewing them as constant polynomials we see that  $a, b \in (R[x])^\times$ .

**Remark 3.3.4.**

- if  $R$  has 0 divisors, so does  $R[x]$
- If  $S$  is a subring of  $R$  then  $S[x]$  is a subring of  $R[x]$

### 3.3.2 Ring Homomorphisms

**Definition 3.3.5.** Let  $R$  and  $S$  be rings, a ring homomorphism is a map  $\varphi : R \rightarrow S$  such that

- (i)  $\varphi(a + b) = \varphi(a) + \varphi(b)$
- (ii)  $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b)$

**Definition 3.3.6.** The kernel of  $\varphi$  is  $\ker \varphi = \{r \in R \mid \varphi(r) = 0\}$   
(The kernel of the additive group homomorphism)

**Definition 3.3.7.** A bijective ring homomorphism is called a ring isomorphism.

**Example 3.3.8.**

- (1)  $\pi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  by  $a \mapsto [a]$

$$\begin{aligned}\pi(a+b) &= [a+b] = [a] + [b] = \pi(a) + \pi(b) \\ \pi(ab) &= [ab] = [a][b] = \pi(a)\pi(b)\end{aligned}$$

- (2)  $\varphi : \mathbb{Q}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$  by  $p(x) \mapsto p(0)$  (constant term)  
 $\varphi(p(x) + q(x)) = p(0) + q(0) = \varphi(p(x)) + \varphi(q(x))$   
 $\varphi(p(x)q(x)) = p(0)q(0) = \varphi(p(x))\varphi(q(x))$   
 $\ker \varphi = \{p(x) \mid p(0) = 0\} = \text{polynomials with constant term } 0$

$\ker \varphi$  is not necessarily a subring as it may not have identity.

**Example 3.3.9** (Non-Example). Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $M_n; \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  by  $x \mapsto nx$

Group homomorphism:  $M_n(x+y) = n(x+y) = nx + ny = M_n(x) + M_n(y)$

$M_n(xy) = nxy$  by  $M_n(x)M_n(y) = nxny = n^2xy$ . Not a ring homomorphism unless  $n = 0, 1$

Facts About Kernels

1.  $\ker \varphi$  is an additive subgroup of  $R$
2. If  $\alpha \in \ker \varphi$  then  $\alpha r$  and  $r\alpha$  are in  $\ker \varphi \forall r \in R$

*Proof.*

$$\varphi(\alpha r) = \varphi(\alpha)\varphi(r) = 0\varphi(r) = 0 \text{ so } \alpha r \in \ker \varphi$$

$$\varphi(r\alpha) = \varphi(r)\varphi(\alpha) = \varphi(r)0 = 0 \text{ so } r\alpha \in \ker \varphi$$

□

Recall Quotient Groups:

$\varphi : R \rightarrow S$  is a ring homomorphism with  $\ker \varphi = I$   $R/I \cong \text{im}(\varphi)$  by  $r + I \mapsto \varphi(r)$

**Definition 3.3.10.** Define operations on  $R/I$  by:

$$(r_1 + I) + (r_2 + I) = (r_1 + r_2) + I$$

$$(r_1 + I)(r_2 + I) = (r_1 r_2) + I$$

These operations turn  $R/I$  into a ring

$$\left. \begin{array}{ccc} (r_1 + I) + (r_2 + I) & \mapsto & \varphi(r_1) + \varphi(r_2) \\ \parallel & & \parallel \\ (r_1 + r_2) + I & \mapsto & \varphi(r_1 + r_2) \end{array} \right\} +$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{ccc} (r_1 + I)(r_2 + I) & \mapsto & \varphi(r_1)\varphi(r_2) \\ \parallel & & \parallel \\ (r_1 r_2) + I & \mapsto & \varphi(r_1 r_2) \end{array} \right\} \times$$

**Definition 3.3.11.** Let  $R$  be a ring, a subset  $I \subset R$  is called an ideal of  $R$  if

- (1)  $(I, +) \leq (R, +)$  (additive subgroup)
- (2)  $r \in R, i \in I \quad ri \in I$  (left ideal)  $ir \in I$  (right ideal)

**Remark 3.3.12.** If  $R$  is commutative left and right ideals coincide.

**Corollary 3.3.13.** A subset  $I \subset R$  is an ideal iff it is the kernel of some ring homomorphism.

Given an ideal we can form a quotient ring  $R/I$ .

As with groups we have isomorphism theorems.

**Theorem 3.3.14** (1st Ring Isomorphism Theorem). If  $\varphi : R \rightarrow S$  is an isomorphism, then  $R/\ker \varphi \cong \text{im}(\varphi)$ .

**Example 3.3.15.**

- (1) We saw  $n\mathbb{Z}$  was an ideal of  $\mathbb{Z}$
- (2)  $I = \{\sum_{i=0}^n a_i n_i \mid a_0 = a_1 = 0\}$ .  
 For two elements in  $I$ , their sum also has  $a_0 = a_1 = 0$ , in  $I$ . If  $f \in I$ ,  $-f \in I$ ,  $0 \in I$  so  $I$  is an additive subgroup.  
 If  $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ ,  $f(x)I \subset I$ ,  $If(x) \subset I$  since degrees are additive under multiplication. (ex:  $(x^2)(x+1) = x^3 + x^2$ )  
 Two polynomials are in the same coset of  $I$  if their difference is a polynomial with  $a_0 = a_1 = 0$ .  $p(x) + I = q(x) + I$  iff  $p(x) - q(x) \in I$ .  
 The complete set of representative of  $R/I$  is  $(ax + b) + I = \overline{(a + b)}$ .  
 $\bar{x} \cdot \bar{x} = \overline{x^2} = 0$  so  $R/I$  can have zero divisors even though  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  does not.

## 3.4 April 14

### 3.4.1 Operations with Ideals

**Definition 3.4.1.** Let  $I$  and  $J$  be ideals of  $R$ .

- (1) The sum of  $I$  and  $J$  is  $I + J = \{a + b \mid a \in I, b \in J\}$
- (2) The product of  $I$  and  $J$  is  $IJ = \{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i \mid a_i \in I, b_i \in J, n \geq 0\}$
- (3) For  $n \geq 1$ , define the  $n$ th power of  $I$  as finite terms of the form  $a_1 \cdots a_n$ .

**Remark 3.4.2.**

- 1)  $I + J$ ,  $IJ$  are ideals. In fact,  $I + J$  is the smallest ideal containing  $I$  and  $J$  and  $IJ \subset I \cap J$ .
- 2)  $\{ab \mid a \in I, b \in J\}$  may not be closed under addition.

**Example 3.4.3.**

- 1) In  $\mathbb{Z}$ , let  $I = 6\mathbb{Z}$  and  $J = 10\mathbb{Z}$ .  
 $I + J = \{6x + 10y \mid x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ . Everything in  $I + J$  is a multiple of 2 so  $I + J \subset 2\mathbb{Z}$  ( $\gcd(6, 10) = 2$ ). WTS  $I + J = 2\mathbb{Z}$  so enough to show  $2\mathbb{Z} \subset I + J$ .  $2 = 2 \cdot 6 + (-1) \cdot 10$  so  $2 \in I + J$  so  $2\mathbb{Z} \subset I + J$ . Thus,  $6\mathbb{Z} + 10\mathbb{Z} = 2\mathbb{Z}$ .  $IJ =$  sums of  $\sum 6x_i 10y_i = 60(\sum x_i y_i) = 60\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Remark 3.4.4.**  $m\mathbb{Z} + n\mathbb{Z} = \gcd(m, n)\mathbb{Z}$ , in general

- 2) Let  $I = \{\text{polynomials with even constant term}\} \subset \mathbb{Z}[x]$ .  $2$  and  $x \in I$ , so  $2 \cdot 2 = 4 \in I^2$  and  $x \cdot x = x^2 \in I$  so  $x^2 + 4 \in I^2$  but  $x^2 + 4$  can't be written as the product of two terms in  $I$ .

### 3.4.2 Properties of Ideals

- Let  $R$  be commutative

**Definition 3.4.5.** Let  $A \subset R$  be a subset

- 1)  $(A)$  is the ideal given by  $(A) = \bigcap_{I \supseteq A, I \text{ ideal of } R} I$  (smallest ideal containing  $A$ )
- 2) Ideals generated by a single element are called principal ideals.
- 3) An ideal generated by a finite set is called finitely generated. For  $A = \{a\}$  or  $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_r\}$  write  $(A) = (a)$  or  $(A) = (a_1, \dots, a_r)$ . Another way to interpret this:

$$(A) = \{r_1 a_1 + \dots + r_n a_n \mid r_i \in R, a_i \in A, n \in \mathbb{Z} > 0\}$$

**Example 3.4.6.**

- 1)  $(0) = 0$  (0 ideal),  $R = (1)$  (whole ring)
- 2) in  $\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $n\mathbb{Z} = (n)$  and every ideal in  $\mathbb{Z}$  is principal:  $(n, m) = (\gcd(n, m))$ . Also,  $m\mathbb{Z} \subset n\mathbb{Z}$  iff  $n \mid m$ .
- 3) in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ , the ideal  $(2, x)$  is not principal.  
 $(2, x) = \{2p(x) + xq(x) \mid p(x), q(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]\}$ . Note:  $(2, x) \neq \mathbb{Z}[x]$   
 Suppose  $(2, x) = (\alpha(x))$ ,  $2 \in (\alpha(x))$  so  $2 = \alpha(x)p(x)$  for some  $p(x)$  so  $\alpha(x), p(x)$  are both constants and  $\alpha(x), p(x) = \{\pm 1, \pm 2\}$ . Since  $(\alpha(x)) \neq \mathbb{Z}[x]$ ,  $\alpha(x) \neq \pm 1$ . If  $\alpha(x) = \pm 2$ ,  $x \in (2, x)$  so  $x = \pm 2q(x)$ , not possible since  $q(x)$  has integral coefficients.

**Proposition 3.4.7.**  $I$  an ideal of  $R$ .

- (1)  $I = R \leftrightarrow I$  contains a unit.
- (2) ( $R$  commutative)  $R$  is an ideal  $\leftrightarrow$  the only ideals of  $R$  are  $(0)$  and  $R$ .

**Proof.**

- (1)  $\rightarrow$   $I = R$ ,  $R$  contains 1 which is a unit  
 $\leftarrow$  If  $u$  is a unit in  $I$  with inverse  $v$ , for  $r \in R$ ,  $r = r \cdot 1 = r(vu) = (rv)u \in I$ .
- (2)  $\rightarrow$  If  $R$  is a field, every element is a unit so follows from (1).  
 $\leftarrow$  If  $(0)$  and  $(R)$  are the only ideals of  $R$ . If  $u \neq 0$ ,  $u \in R$   $(u) = R$  so  $1 \in (u)$  so  $\exists v \in R$  such that  $uv = 1$  so  $u$  is a unit. Hence,  $R$  is a field.

**Corollary 3.4.8.** IF  $R$  is a field, any nonzero homomorphism from  $R$  to another ring is injective.

**Proof.**  $R$  has ideals  $(0), R$ . If  $\varphi : R \rightarrow S$  is homomorphism, since  $\ker \varphi$  is an ideal, if  $\ker \varphi \neq R$  then  $\ker \varphi = 0$  so  $\varphi$  is injective.

An important class of Ideals: Those that are not contained in any other proper ideal.

**Definition 3.4.9.** An ideal  $M$  of  $R$  is maximal if  $M \neq R$  and the only ideals containing  $M$  are  $M$  and  $R$ . (ie. if  $M \subseteq I \subseteq R$ , and  $I$  is an ideal,  $I = M$  or  $M = R$ )

**Zorn's Lemma:** Let  $(A, \leq)$  be a partially ordered set. Then if every chain  $x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \dots$  has an upper bound in  $A$ , then  $A$  has a maximal element. (Equivalent to axiom of choice)

**Proposition 3.4.10.** Let  $R$  be a ring. Then every ideal  $I \neq R$  is contained in a maximal ideal of  $R$ .

**Proof.** Let  $R$  be a ring,  $I$  an proper ideal. Let  $S = \{K | K \text{ ideal}, I \subset K \subsetneq R\}$  ordered by inclusion  $\subseteq$ . Construct a chain  $C : J_1 \subset J_2 \subset J_3 \subset \dots$  in  $S$ . Let  $J = \bigcup_{J_i \in S} J_i$ , we see that  $J$  is an ideal,  $J$  contains  $I$ ,  $J \neq R$  otherwise  $J$  contains a unit so some  $J_i$  contains a unit so  $J_i = R$  (not possible) so  $J$  is an upper bound of the chain so by Zorn's Lemma,  $S$  has a maximal element which is the maximal ideal  $M$ .

**Proposition 3.4.11.** ( $R$  commutative)  $M$  is a maximal ideal of  $R \leftrightarrow R/M$  is a field.

**Proof.**  $M$  is a maximal ideal  $\leftrightarrow$  there is no ideal in  $I$  such that  $M \subsetneq I \subsetneq R$ . Also, the ideals of  $R$  containing  $M$  correspond to the ideals of  $R/M$  so  $M$  is maximal  $\leftrightarrow$  only ideals of  $R/M$  are  $(0)$  and  $R/M \leftrightarrow R/M$  is a field.

## 3.5 April 19

### 3.5.1 Maximal Ideals

**Example 3.5.1.**

- 1)  $n\mathbb{Z}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $n\mathbb{Z}$  maximal  $\leftrightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  is a field  $\leftrightarrow n$  is prime
- 2)  $(2, x)$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  maximal  
 $\mathbb{Z}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}[x]/(2, x) \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$  by  $p(x) \mapsto p(0) \pmod{2}$
- 3)  $(x)$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  is not maximal,  $\mathbb{Z}[x]/(x) \cong \mathbb{Z}$

**Definition 3.5.2.** Assume  $R$  is commutative an ideal  $P$  is called prime if  $ab \in P$  for  $a, b \in R$ , then  $a \in P$  or  $b \in P$ .

**Remark 3.5.3.** In  $\mathbb{Z}$ , the prime ideals are  $p\mathbb{Z} = (p)$  for  $p$  prime, and the zero ideal.

**Proposition 3.5.4.**  $P$  prime  $\leftrightarrow R/P$  is an integral domain.

**Proof.**  $P$  is a prime ideal,  $P \neq R$  and if  $ab \in P$ , then  $a \in P$  or  $b \in P$ . Let  $\bar{a} = a + P$ ,  $\bar{b} = b + P$ ,  $a \in P \rightarrow \bar{a} = 0$  in  $R/P$ . Then  $P$  is a prime ideal iff  $\bar{a}\bar{b} = 0 \rightarrow \bar{a} = 0$  or  $\bar{b} = 0$ , ie, iff  $R/P$  is an integral domain.

**Corollary 3.5.5.** Every maximal ideal is prime.

**Example 3.5.6.**

- 1) Ideals  $(p)$ , for  $p$  prime, in  $\mathbb{Z}$  are prime (they are also maximal)
- 2) The zero ideal in  $\mathbb{Z}$  is prime but not maximal
- 3)  $(x)$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  is prime,  $\mathbb{Z}[x]/(x) \cong \mathbb{Z}$  (not maximal)
- 4) The zero ideal in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  is prime (not maximal)

### 3.5.2 Euclidean Domains

Q: In which rings can we do the division algorithm?

**Definition 3.5.7.** Let  $R$  be an integral domain. Any function  $N : R \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^+ \cup \{0\}$  where  $N(0) = 0$  is called a norm. “measures of size in  $R$ ”

**Definition 3.5.8.**  $R$  is a euclidean domain if  $\exists$  a norm on  $R$  such that for any two  $a, b \in R$  when  $b \neq 0$   $\exists q, r \in R$  with  $r = 0$  or  $N(r) < N(b)$ .

Think: Euclidean Domains are integral domains where you can do the division algorithm.

**Example 3.5.9.**

0. Fields are Euclidean Domains.  
 $a, b \in F, b \neq 0, a = qb$  take  $q = ab^{-1}, r = 0$  (can let  $N(a) = 0 \forall a \in F$ )
1.  $\mathbb{Z}$  is a euclidean domain,  $N(a) = |a|$
2. if  $F$  is a field,  $F[x]$  is a euclidean domain,  $N(p(x)) = \deg(p(x))$
3.  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  is a euclidean domain,  $N(a + bi) = a^2 + b^2$

**Proposition 3.5.10.** In a Euclidean Domain every ideal is principal.

**Proof.** If  $I$  is the zero ideal, we are done.

So suppose  $I$  is not the zero ideal, let  $d$  be any nonzero element of minimal norm in  $I$ . Because  $d \in I$ ,  $(d) \subset I$ . WTS  $(d) = I$ . Let  $a \in I$ , by Euclidean algorithm,  $a = qd + r$  so  $r = a - qd$ .  $a \in I$ ,  $-qd \in I$ , so  $r \in I$ . So by the minimality of  $d$ ,  $r = 0$ .  $a = qd$  so  $a \in (d)$  so  $I \subseteq (d)$ . Thus  $I = (d)$ .

**Example 3.5.11.** in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  we saw  $(2, x)$  was not principal so  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  is not a euclidean domain.

**Definition 3.5.12.**  $R$  commutative,  $a, b \in R, b \neq 0$

- 1)  $a$  is a multiple of  $b$  if  $\exists x$  such that  $ax = b$ . We say  $b|a$ .  
 In terms of ideals:  $a \in (b) \leftrightarrow (a) \subseteq (b)$
- 2) The gcd of  $(a)$  and  $(b)$  is a nonzero element such that
  - a)  $d|a, d|b$
  - b) If  $d'|a$  and  $d'|b$ , then  $d'|d$

In terms of ideals:



- a)  $I = (a, b) \subseteq (d)$
- b) If  $(d') \supseteq I$ , then  $(d) \subseteq (d')$

**Definition 3.5.13.** A principal ideal domain (PID) is an integral domain in which every ideal is principal.

**Remark 3.5.14.** Every ED is a PID.

**Example 3.5.15.**

1. Every field is a PID.
2.  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  is not a PID.

Recall: Every maximal ideal is prime. Converse is not true but in a PID ...

**Proposition 3.5.16.** Every nonzero prime ideal is maximal in a PID.

**Proof.** Let  $(p)$  be a nonzero prime ideal, let  $(m)$  be an ideal such that  $(p) \subseteq (m)$ . WTS either  $(p) = (m)$  or  $(m) = R$ . Since  $p \in m$ ,  $p = rm$  so  $rm \in (p)$ . Since  $(p)$  is prime,  $r \in (p)$  or  $m \in (p)$ . If  $m \in (p)$ ,  $(m) \subseteq (p)$  so  $(m) = (p)$ . If  $r \in (p)$ , then  $r = ps$  for some  $s \in R$ . Then  $p = rm = ps m$  so  $p(1 - sm) = 0$ . Since  $p \neq 0$ , integral domain,  $1 = sm$  so  $1 \in (m)$  so  $(m) = R$ .

### 3.5.3 Unique Factorization Domains

**Definition 3.5.17.** Let  $R$  be an integral domain

1.  $r$  is irreducible if it is nonzero, not a unit, and when  $r = ab$ , either  $a$  is a unit or  $b$  is a unit. Otherwise,  $r$  is reducible.
2.  $0 \neq p \in R$ , the element  $p$  is called prime if  $(p)$  is a prime ideal.
3. Two elements  $a$  and  $b$  in  $R$  are called associates if  $a = bu$ ,  $u \in R^\times$

**Proposition 3.5.18.** In an integral domain, an element  $p \neq 0$  prime  $\rightarrow p$  is irreducible.

**Proof.** If  $p$  is prime,  $(p)$  is a prime ideal so let  $p = ab \in (p)$ , then  $a \in (p)$  or  $b \in (p)$ . If  $a \in (p)$ ,  $\exists r$  such that  $a = pr$  so  $p = ab = prb$  so  $b$  is a unit.