Algebra

September 19, 2017

# 1 Group theory

## 1.1 Week 1

**Def 1.** A non-empty set G with a binary function  $f: G \times G \to G, (a,b) \mapsto ab$  is a **group** if it satisfies

- 1. (ab)c = a(bc).
- 2.  $\exists 1 \in G \text{ s.t. } 1a = a1 = a, \forall a \in G.$
- 3.  $\exists a^{-1} \in G \text{ s.t. } aa^{-1} = a^{-1}a = 1.$

If only 1. holds, then G is called a **semigroup**. If only 1., 2. holds, then G is called a **monoid**.

**Def 2.** Let G be a group. Then G is said to be **abelian** if  $\forall a, b \in G, ab = ba$ .

**Ex 1.1.1.** Let G be a semigroup. Then TFAE (the following are equivalent)

- 1. G is a group.
- 2. For all  $a, b \in G$  and the equations bx = a, yb = a, each of them has a solution in G.
- 3.  $\exists e \in G \text{ s.t. } ae = a \ \forall \ a \in G \text{ and if we fix such } e, \text{ then } \forall \ b \in G \ \exists \ b' \in G \text{ s.t. } bb' = e.$

**Ex 1.1.2.** Let G be a group. Show that

- 1.  $\forall a \in G, a^2 = 1$ , then G is abelian.
- 2. G is abelian  $\iff \forall a, b \in G, (ab)^n = a^n b^n$  for three consecutive integer n.

**Def 3.** Let G be a group and  $H \subseteq G, H \neq \emptyset$ . Then H is said to be a subgroup of G, denoted by  $H \leq G$ , if

- 1.  $\forall a, b \in H, ab \in H$ .
- 2.  $1 \in H$ .
- 3.  $\forall a \in H, a^{-1} \in H$ .

useful criterion:  $H \leq G \iff \forall a, b \in H, ab^{-1} \in H$ .

Proof.

- $\Rightarrow$   $b \in H \implies b^{-1} \in H$ , and  $a \in H$ , so  $ab^{-1} \in H$ .
- $\Leftarrow$  1.  $H \neq \emptyset \implies \exists a \in H \implies aa^{-1} = 1 \in H$ .
  - 2.  $1, a \in H \implies 1a^{-1} = a^{-1} \in H$ .
  - 3.  $a, b^{-1} \in H \implies a(b^{-1})^{-1} = ab \in H$ .

**Eg 1.1.1.**  $(\mathbb{Z}, +, 0) \le (\mathbb{Q}, +, 0) \le (\mathbb{R}, +, 0) \le (\mathbb{C}, +, 0)$ ;  $(\mathbb{Q}^{\times}, \times, 1) \le (\mathbb{R}^{\times}, \times, 1) \le (\mathbb{C}^{\times}, \times, 1)$ 

Eg 1.1.2.

- Special linear group  $SL(n, \mathbb{F}) = \{ A \in GL(n, \mathbb{F}) \mid \det A = 1 \}$
- Orthogonal group  $O(n) = \{ A \in GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \mid A^t A = I_n \}$
- Unitary group  $U(n) = \{ A \in GL(n, \mathbb{C}) \mid A^*A = I_n \}$
- Special orthogonal group  $SO(n) = SL(n, \mathbb{R}) \cap O(n)$

• Special unitary group  $SU(n) = SL(n, \mathbb{C}) \cap U(n)$ 

**Def 4.** Let  $f: G_1 \to G_2$ . f is called an **isomorphism** if

- 1. f is 1-1 and onto.
- 2.  $\forall a, b \in G_1, f(ab) = f(a)f(b)$ . (homomorphism)

, denoted by  $G_1 \cong G_2$ .

Remark 1. (practice)

- 1. f(1) = 1.
- 2.  $f(a^{-1}) = f(a)^{-1}$ .
- 3. If f is an isomorphism, then  $\exists f^{-1}$  is also a homomorphism.

Eg 1.1.3.

- $U(1) = \{ z \in \mathbb{C}^{\times} \mid \bar{z}z = 1 \}, z = \cos \theta + \sin \theta i \}$
- $SO(2) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} : \theta \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$

notice that  $U(1) \cong SO(2)$ .  $S^1 = \{(a,b) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid a^2 + b^2 = 1\}$ , 可被賦予群的結構.

**Eg 1.1.4.** Let 
$$A \in SU(2) \implies A = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ -\bar{\beta} & \bar{\alpha} \end{pmatrix}, \alpha\bar{\alpha} + \beta\bar{\beta} = 1, \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}.$$

Quaternion(四元數):  $\mathbb{H} = \{ a + bi + cj + dk \mid a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R} \}$  with  $i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1, ij = k, jk = i, ki = j \implies ij = -ji \}$ .

Let x = a + bi + cj + dk,  $\bar{x} = a - bi - cj - dk$ , then  $N(x) = x\bar{x} = a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2$ , For  $x \neq 0, N(x) \neq 0, x^{-1} = \frac{1}{N(x)}\bar{x}$ 

Now, for x = a + bi + cj + dk = (a + bi) + (c + di)j. So SU(2)  $\cong \{x \in \mathbb{H}^{\times} \mid N(x) = 1\}$ .  $S^3 = \{(a, b, c, d) \in \mathbb{R}^4 \mid a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2 = 1\}$ , 可被賦予群的結構.

★ The only spheres with continuous group law are  $S^1, S^3$ .

**Ex 1.1.3.** Find a way to regard  $M_{n\times n}(\mathbb{H})$  as a subset of  $M_{2n\times 2n}(\mathbb{C})$ , which preserves addition and multiplication, and then there is a way to characterize  $GL(n, \mathbb{H})$ .

**Def 5** (symplectic group).  $\operatorname{Sp}(n,\mathbb{F}) = \{ A \in \operatorname{GL}(2n,\mathbb{F}) \mid A^{\operatorname{t}}JA = J \}$  where  $J = \begin{pmatrix} O & I_n \\ -I_n & O \end{pmatrix}$ .  $(A^{\operatorname{t}}JA = J \text{ preserving non-degenerate skew-symmetric forms})$   $\operatorname{Sp}(n) = \{ A \in \operatorname{GL}(n,\mathbb{H}) \mid A^*A = I_n \}.$ 

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**Ex 1.1.4.** Show  $\operatorname{Sp}(n) \cong \operatorname{U}(2n) \cap \operatorname{Sp}(n, \mathbb{C})$ .

Ques: Find the smallest subgroup of SU(2) containing  $\begin{pmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{pmatrix}$ .

#### 1.2 Week 2

#### 1.2.1 Permutation groups and Dihedral groups

**Def 6.** A permutation of a set B is a 1-1 and onto function from B to B.

Let  $S_B :=$  the set of permutations of B. Then  $(S_B, \cdot, \mathrm{Id}_B)$  forms a group.

If  $B = \{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$ , then  $S_B \cong S_{\{1,\ldots,n\}}$  and write  $S_n = S_{\{1,\ldots,n\}}$ , called the symmetric group of degree n.

**Theorem 1** (Cayley theorem). Any group is isomorphic to a subgroup of some permutation group.

(Hint): Let G be a group. Set B=G. Consider  $a\in G$  as  $\sigma_a:G\to G, x\mapsto ax$ . Then  $\sigma_a\in S_G\implies G\leq S_G$ .

**Fact 1.2.1.**  $S_n$  is a finite group of order n!, i.e.  $|S_n| = n!$ .

*Proof.* Obviously. Just count the possibilities of all permutations.

Cyclic notation: 
$$\sigma \in S_5$$
, say  $\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 4 & 3 & 5 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ . Write  $\sigma = (1\ 4)(2\ 3\ 5)$ .

⇒ Any permutation can be written as a product of disjoint cycles.

**Eg 1.2.1.** In 
$$S_7$$
,  $\sigma_1 = (1\ 2\ 3)(4\ 5\ 6)(7)$ ,  $\sigma_2 = (1\ 3\ 5\ 6)(2\ 4\ 7)$ .

Then  $\sigma_1 \sigma_2 = (2\ 5\ 4\ 7\ 3\ 6), \sigma_1^{-1} = (1\ 3\ 2)(4\ 6\ 5).$ 

**Def 7.** A 2 cycle is called a **transposition**.

**Eg 1.2.2.** 
$$(1\ 2\ 3) = (1\ 3)(1\ 2), (1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5) = (1\ 5)(1\ 4)(1\ 3)(1\ 2).$$

Any permutation is a product of 2 cycles.

Useful formula: 
$$\sigma \in S_n$$
,  $\sigma(j_1 \dots j_m)\sigma^{-1} = (\sigma(j_1) \dots \sigma(j_m))$ .

**Eg 1.2.3.** Let 
$$\sigma = (1\ 2\ 3)(4\ 5\ 6\ 7), \ \sigma(2\ 3\ 4)\sigma^{-1} = (3\ 1\ 5).$$

*Proof.* Note that both sides are functions. Let  $j_{m+1} = j_1$  for convenience. For  $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ ,

Case 1: 
$$\exists k \text{ s.t. } \sigma(j_k) = i, \ \sigma(j_1 \dots j_m)\sigma^{-1}(i) = \sigma(j_1 \dots j_m)(j_k) = \sigma(j_{k+1}). \ (\text{So } \sigma(j_k) \mapsto \sigma(j_{k+1}))$$

<u>Case 2</u>: Otherwise,  $\sigma(j_1 \ldots j_m)\sigma^{-1}(i) = \sigma\sigma^{-1}(i) = i$ .

Then we can conclude that 
$$\sigma(j_1 \ldots j_m)\sigma^{-1} = (\sigma(j_1) \ldots \sigma(j_m)).$$

Fact 1.2.2.  $S_n = \langle (1 \ 2), \dots, (1 \ n) \rangle$ .

*Proof.* 
$$(1 i)^{-1} = (1 i)$$
 and  $(i j) = (1 i)(1 j)(1 i)^{-1}$ .

**Def 8.** Let G be a group and  $S \subset G$ . The subgroup generated by S defined to be the smallest subgroup of G which contains S, denoted by  $\langle S \rangle$ .

Ex 1.2.1.

1.  $S_n = \langle (1\ 2), (2\ 3), \dots, (n-1\ n) \rangle, \quad n \geq 2.$ 

2. 
$$S_n = \langle (1 \ 2), (1 \ 2 \ \dots \ n) \rangle, \quad n \ge 2.$$

**Def 9.**  $A_n = \{\text{even permutations of } S_n\} \leq S_n, |A_n| = \frac{n!}{2}.$ 

#### Ex 1.2.2.

1.  $A_n = \langle (1 \ 2 \ 3), (1 \ 2 \ 4), \dots, (1 \ 2 \ n) \rangle, n \ge 3.$ 

2. 
$$A_n = \langle (1\ 2\ 3), (2\ 3\ 4), \dots, (n-2\ n-1\ n) \rangle, n \geq 3.$$

Remark 2. 
$$\langle S \rangle = \bigcap_{S \subseteq H < G} H = \{a_1 a_2 \dots a_k \mid k \in \mathbb{N}, a_i \in S \cup S^{-1}\} \cup \{1\}$$

The orthogonal transformations on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ : O(2).

Let 
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{O}(2)$$
.

略... (這邊討論旋轉和反射的矩陣)

<u>Case 1</u>:  $A = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix}$  is counterclockwise roration w.r.t.  $\alpha$ .

<u>Case 2</u>:  $A = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & \sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & -\cos \alpha \end{pmatrix}$  is the reflection.  $A^2 = I_2 \implies$  eigenvalues are  $\pm 1$ .

Easy to show that  $L_A(v) = v - 2\langle v, v_2 \rangle v_2$ .

 $O(2) = \{ \text{rotations} \} \cup \{ \text{reflections} \}.$ 

**Def 10.** The dihedral group  $D_n$  is the group of symmetries of a regular n-gon.

In general, 
$$D_n = \langle T, R \mid T^n = 1, R^2 = 1, TR = RT^{-1} \rangle \le O(2) \le S_n, |D_n| = 2n$$
.

**Def 11.** Let T be a linear transformation from  $\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ .

- T is called a rotation if  $\exists$  a T-invariant subspace  $W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  with dim W = 2 s.t.  $\begin{cases} T|_W \text{ is a rotation} \\ T|_{W^{\perp}} = \mathrm{id}_{W^{\perp}} \end{cases}$
- T is called a reflection if  $\exists$  a T-invariant subspace  $W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  with dim W = 1 s.t.  $\begin{cases} T|_W = -\mathrm{id}_W \\ T|_{W^{\perp}} = \mathrm{id}_{W^{\perp}} \end{cases}$

<u>Main result</u>: the group of orthogonal transformations =  $\langle \text{rotations}, \text{reflections} \rangle$ .

**Prop 1.2.1.** For  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\exists$  a T-invariant subspace  $W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $1 \leq \dim W \leq 2$ .

*Proof.* Let  $A = [T]_{\alpha} \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{C})$ . Consider  $\widetilde{L_A} : \mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{C}^n, v \mapsto Av$ .

Then  $\exists$  an eigenvalue  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  and an eigenvector  $v \in \mathbb{C}^n$  for  $\widetilde{L_A}$ . Let  $\lambda = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 i, v = v_1 + v_2 i$ . By definition, we have

$$Av = \widetilde{L_A}(v) = \lambda v = (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 i)(v_1 + v_2 i) \implies \begin{cases} Av_1 = \lambda_1 v_1 - \lambda_2 v_2 \\ Av_1 = \lambda_2 v_1 + \lambda_1 v_2 \end{cases},$$

so 
$$W = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$$
.

Ex 1.2.3.

- 1. If T is orthogonal, then  $W^{\perp}$  is also T-invariant.
- 2. Use induction on n to show the main result.

For 
$$n = 3, A \in \mathcal{O}(3)$$
, we have  $A \sim \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \\ & \pm 1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

# 1.2.2 Cyclic groups and internal direct product

**Def 12.** If  $G = \langle a \rangle = \{\dots, a^{-2}, a^{-1}, a, 1, a, a^2, \dots\} = \{a^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ , then G is a cyclic group generated by a.

Eg 1.2.4. 
$$\mathbb{Z} = \langle 1 \rangle = \langle -1 \rangle$$
.

Eg 1.2.5. Let 
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\frac{2\pi}{n} & -\sin\frac{2\pi}{n} \\ \sin\frac{2\pi}{n} & \cos\frac{2\pi}{n} \end{pmatrix} \in SO(2)$$
. Then  $\langle A \rangle = \{I_2, A, A^2, \dots, A^{n-1}\}$  and  $A^n = I_2, A^m = A^r$  where  $m \equiv r \pmod{n}$ .

Eg 1.2.6. 
$$\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} = {\overline{0}, \overline{1}, \dots, \overline{(n-1)}}$$
 with  $\overline{j} = {m \in \mathbb{Z} \mid m \equiv j \pmod{n}}$ .

Define 
$$\bar{i} + \bar{j} = \begin{cases} \overline{i+j} & \text{if } 0 \leq i+j \leq n \\ \overline{i+j-n} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \implies (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, +, \overline{0}) \text{ forms a group.}$$

Remark 3.  $\overline{i} \times \overline{j} = \overline{i \times j}$ .

- 略
- If  $gcd(j, n) = d, \exists h, k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } hj + kn = d.$

**Def 13.** 
$$(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times} = \{ j \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \mid \gcd(j,n) = 1 \} \implies ((\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}, \times, \overline{1}) \text{ forms a group.}$$

Eg 1.2.7. 略... 簡化剩餘系, 原根 (generator)  $(1,2,4,p^k,2p^k,p)$  is an odd prime)

#### Def 14.

- The **order** of a finite gorup G is the number of elements in G, denoted by |G|.
- Let  $a \in G$ , the order of a is defined to be the least positive integer n s.t.  $a^n = 1$ , denoted by ord(a) = n.
- If  $a^n \neq 1 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then we call "a has infinte order".

**Prop 1.2.2.** Let  $G = \langle a \rangle$  with ord(a) = n. Then

1. 
$$a^m = 1 \iff n \mid m$$
.

Proof.

$$\Leftarrow$$
: Let  $m = dn$ , then  $a^m = (a^n)^d = 1$ .

$$\Rightarrow$$
: Let  $m = qn + r, 0 \le r < n$ . If  $r \ne 0$ , then  $a^r = a^{m-qn} = (a^m)(a^n)^{-q} = 1$ . But  $r < n$ , which is a contradiction. Hence  $r = 0 \implies n \mid m$ .

2. 
$$\operatorname{ord}(a^r) = n/\gcd(r, n)$$
.

*Proof.* Let gcd(r, n) = d, n = dn', r = dr' with gcd(n', r') = 1. Plan to show "ord( $a^r$ ) = n'."

- $(a^r)^{n'} = a^{r'dn'} = (a^n)^{r'} = 1 \implies \operatorname{ord}(a^r) \mid n'.$
- $1 = (a^r)^{\operatorname{ord}(a^r)} = a^{r \operatorname{ord}(a^r)} \implies n \mid r \operatorname{ord}(a^r) \implies n' \mid r' \operatorname{ord}(a^r) \implies n' \mid \operatorname{ord}(a^r).$

**Prop 1.2.3.** Any subgroup of a cyclic group is cyclic.

*Proof.* Let  $G = \langle a \rangle$  and  $H \leq G$ . If  $H = \{1\}$ , then  $H = \langle 1 \rangle$ , done!

Otherwise,  $d = \min\{m \in \mathbb{N} \mid a^m \in H\}$ , by well-ordering axiom. Claim  $H = \langle a^d \rangle$ .

- $\supset: a^d \in H$  by the definition of d.
- $\subset$ :  $\forall a^m \in H$ , write  $m = qd + r, 0 \le r < d$ . If  $r \ne 0$ , then  $a^r = a^{m-qd} = a^m(a^d)^{-q} \in H$ , which is a contradiction. Hence  $r = 0 \implies d \mid m$ .

Ex 1.2.4.

- 1.  $\operatorname{ord}(a) = \operatorname{ord}(a^{-1}) = n$ .
- 2.  $\langle a^r \rangle = \langle a^{\gcd(n,r)} \rangle$ .
- 3.  $\langle a^{r_1} \rangle = \langle a^{r_2} \rangle \iff \gcd(n, r_1) = \gcd(n, r_2).$
- 4.  $\forall m \mid n, \exists ! H \leq \langle a \rangle$  s.t. |H| = m. Conversely, if  $H \leq \langle a \rangle$ , then  $|H| \mid n$ .

**Prop 1.2.4.** Let  $G = \langle a \rangle$ . Then

- 1.  $\operatorname{ord}(a) = n \implies G \cong \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$
- 2.  $\operatorname{ord}(a) = \infty \implies G \cong \mathbb{Z}$

**Ex 1.2.5.** Show Prop 1.2.4.

**Def 15.** Let  $G_1, G_2 \leq G$ . G is the internal direct product of  $G_1, G_2$  if  $G_1 \times G_2 \to G$ ,  $(g_1, g_2) \mapsto g_1g_2$  is an isom.

Remark 4. In this case, we find that

- $G = G_1G_2 = \{ g_1g_2 \mid g_1 \in G_1, g_2 \in G_2 \}.$
- $G_1 \cap G_2 = \{1\}$ . (consider  $a \neq 1 \in G_1 \cap G_2$ , then  $(1, a) \mapsto a, (a, 1) \mapsto a$ , but the function is 1-1, which is a contradiction.)
- If  $a \in G$  with  $a = g_1g_2 = g_1'g_2'$ , then  $(g_1')^{-1}g_1 = (g_2')g_2^{-1} \in G_1 \cap G_2 = \{1\} \implies \begin{cases} g_1 = g_1' \\ g_2 = g_2' \end{cases}$ .
- For  $g_1 \in G_1, g_2 \in G_2, (g_1, g_2) = (g_1, 1)(1, g_2) = (1, g_2)(g_1, 1) \implies g_1g_2 = g_2g_1.$

**Ex 1.2.6.** TFAE

- 1. G is the internal direct product of  $G_1, G_2$ .
- $2. \ \forall \, a \in G, \exists \, !g_1 \in G_1, g_2 \in G_2 \text{ s.t. } a = g_1g_2 \; ; \, \forall \, g_1 \in G_1, g_2 \in G_2, g_1g_2 = g_2g_1.$
- 3.  $G_1 \cap G_2 = \{1\}$ ;  $G = G_1G_2$ ;  $\forall g_1 \in G_1, g_2 \in G_2, g_1g_2 = g_2g_1$ .

Eg 1.2.8.

- 1.  $G = \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z} = {\overline{0}, \overline{1}, \overline{2}, \overline{3}, \overline{4}, \overline{5}}, G_1 = {\overline{0}, \overline{3}}, G_2 = {\overline{0}, \overline{2}, \overline{4}}.$  We have  $G \cong G_1 \times G_2$ .
- 2.  $G = S_3, G_1 = \langle (1\ 2) \rangle, G_2 = \langle (1\ 2\ 3) \rangle$ . We have  $G_1 \times G_2 \not\cong G$  since  $(1\ 2)(1\ 2\ 3) \neq (1\ 2\ 3)(1\ 2)$ .

**Eg 1.2.9.**  $G = S_3, G_1 = \langle (1 \ 2) \rangle, G_2 = \langle (2 \ 3) \rangle, G_1 G_2 = \{1, (1 \ 2), (2 \ 3), (1 \ 2 \ 3)\} \not\leq G$  since  $(1\ 3\ 2) = (1\ 2\ 3)^{-1} \notin G_1G_2.$ 

**Prop 1.2.5.** Let  $H, K \leq G$ . Then  $HK \leq G \iff HK = KH$ .

Proof.

$$\Rightarrow: \begin{cases} H \leq HK \\ K \leq HK \end{cases} \implies KH \subseteq HK \; ; \; \forall \; hk \in HK, \exists \; h'k' \in HK \; \text{s.t.} \; \; (hk)(h'k') = 1 \; \implies \; hk = \\ (k')^{-1}(h')^{-1} \in KH \; \implies \; HK \subseteq KH. \end{cases}$$

 $\Leftarrow$ : For  $h_1k_1, h_2k_2 \in HK$ ,  $(h_1k_1)(h_2k_2)^{-1} = h_1k_1k_2^{-1}h_2^{-1} = h_1h'k' \in HK$ .

#### 1.3 Week 3

# 1.3.1 Coset and Quotient Group

Let  $f: G_1 \to G_2$  be a group homo. Define Im  $f := f(G_1)$ .

Notice that Im  $f \leq G_2$ .

*Proof.* Let 
$$z_1 = f(a_1), z_2 = f(a_2)$$
, then  $z_1 z_2^{-1} = f(a_1) f(a_2)^{-1} = f(a_1) f(a_2^{-1}) = f(a_1 a_2^{-1}) \in \text{Im } f$ .

**Def 16.**  $\ker f := \{ x \in G_1 \mid f(x) = 1 \} \le G_1.$ 

#### Fact 1.3.1.

- 1.  $x \in (\ker f)a \iff f(x) = f(a)$ .
- 2.  $\ker f = \{1\} \iff f \text{ is 1-1.}$

**Def 17.** Let  $H \leq G$ ,  $\forall a \in G$ , Ha is called a **right coset** of H in G.

#### Fact 1.3.2.

- 1. For 2 right cosets Ha, Hb, either Ha = Hb or  $Ha \cap Hb = \emptyset$  must hold.
- 2.  $\{Ha : a \in G\}$  forms a partition of G.

**Theorem 2** (Lagrange). Let  $|G| < \infty$  and  $H \le G$ ,  $|H| \mid |G|$ .

Proof. Let  $r = |\{Ha : a \in G\}|$ . Since either Ha = Hb or  $Ha \cap Hb = \emptyset$  for any  $a, b \in G$ , we only need to show that |Ha| = |Hb| for any  $a, b \in G$ . Now define  $f : Ha \to Hb$  as  $f : ha \mapsto hb$  for all  $h \in H$ . f is clearly onto, and f is 1-1 since  $h_1b = h_2b \implies h_1 = h_2 \implies h_1a = h_2a$ . So f is bijective  $\implies |Ha| = |Hb|$ . We can conclude that  $r \cdot |H| = |G|$ .

**Remark 5.** r is called the **index** of H in G, denoted by [G:H]. (The concept of index can be extended to infinite G, H.)

**Ex 1.3.1.** no subgroup of  $A_4$  has order 6. (converse of Lagrange thm. is false.)

**Coro 1.3.1.** If |G| = p is a prime in  $\mathbb{Z}$ , then G is cyclic.

*Proof.* Since |G| = p > 1, we can pick  $a \in G$  s.t.  $a \neq 1$ . Consider  $H = \langle a \rangle \leq G$ , then  $|H| \mid |G|$  by Lagrange's Theorem. Since |G| = p is a prime, we have |H| = 1 or p. But  $a \neq 1$  and  $1, a \in H$  by the definition, we have  $|H| \geq 2$ . So  $|H| = p \implies H = G \implies G = \langle a \rangle$ .

Coro 1.3.2. If  $|G| < \infty, a \in G$ , then  $a^{|G|} = 1$ .

*Proof.* Let 
$$H = \langle a \rangle$$
, we have  $|H| \mid |G|$ . Write  $|G| = r|H|$ . Now  $a^{|H|} = 1$  by the definition of  $H$ . So  $a^{|G|} = (a^{|H|})^r = 1$ .

## Remark 6.

- 1. Let  $H \leq G, a \in G, aH$  is called a **left coset**.
- 2. {right cosets of H}  $\leftrightarrow$  {right cosets of H} by  $Ha \mapsto a^{-1}H$ .

Ques: How to make  $\{aH : a \in G\}$  to be a group? For aH, bH, we must have (aH)(bH) = abH. In general, (aH)(bH) = abH is not well-defined.

**Eg 1.3.1.** Let 
$$H = \langle (1\ 2) \rangle \leq S_3$$
.  $a_1 = (1\ 3), a_2 = (1\ 2\ 3), b_1 = (1\ 3\ 2), b_2 = (2\ 3)$ . 出慘點

If we hope  $a_1b_1H = a_2b_2H$ , then we need  $(a_1b_1)^{-1}a_2b_2 \in H$ .

$$b_1^{-1}a_1^{-1}a_2b_2 = b_1^{-1}b_2b_2^{-1}a_1^{-1}a_2b_2$$

Notice that  $b_1^{-1}b_2, a_1^{-1}a_2 \in H$ , so we need  $b_2^{-1}a_1^{-1}a_2b_2 \in H$ .

**Def 18.** Let  $H \leq G$ . H is said to be **normal subgroup** of G if  $\forall g \in G, h \in H, g^{-1}hg \in H$  (or  $g^{-1}Hg \subseteq H$ ), denoted by  $H \triangleleft G$ .

**Def 19.** Let  $H \triangleleft G$ . The set  $\{aH \mid a \in G\}$  forms a group under  $(aH)(bH) = abH, a, b \in G$ . We call it the **quotient group** of G by H, denoted by G/H.

(Note: The indentity is H = hH and  $(aH)^{-1} = a^{-1}H$ .)

**Remark 7.** Define  $q: G \to G/H, a \mapsto aH$ , called the quotient homomorphism.

**Ex 1.3.2.** Let  $H \leq G$ . Then TFAE

- (a)  $H \triangleleft G$ .
- (b)  $\forall x \in G, xHx^{-1} = H.$
- (c)  $\forall x \in G, xH = Hx$ .
- (d)  $\forall x, y \in G, (xH)(yH) = (xy)H.$

Ques: How to find a normal subgroup of G?

## Prop 1.3.1.

- 1. If G is abelian, then  $\forall H \leq G \leadsto H \triangleleft G$ . (done by (c))
- 2. If  $H \leq G$  with [G:H] = 2, then  $H \triangleleft G$ .

Eg 1.3.2. 
$$n \le 3, [S_n : A_n] = 2 \implies A_n \triangleleft S_n.$$

*Proof.* We can write  $G = H \cup Ha = H \cup aH \implies aH = Ha, \forall a \notin H.$ 

**Def 20.** Define the center of G to be  $Z_G = \{ a \in G \mid ax = xa, \forall x \in G \} \leq G$ .

# Prop 1.3.2.

- 1.  $Z_G \triangleleft G$ . (by (c) and def.)
- 2. If  $G/Z_G$  is cyclic, then G is abelian.

*Proof.* Let 
$$G/Z_G = \langle aZ_G \rangle$$
, (let  $\overline{a} := aZ_G$ ) for some  $a \in G$ . For  $x_1, x_2 \in G$ , let  $x_1 = a^{k_1}z_1, x_2 = a^{k_2}z_2$ , then  $x_1x_2 = a^{k_1+k_2}z_1z_2 = x_2x_1$ . ( $z_i$  可以各種交換)

**Def 21.** The commutator of G is define to be  $[G,G] = \langle xyx^{-1}y^{-1} \mid x,y \in G \rangle$ .

**Prop 1.3.3.**  $[G,G] \triangleleft G$ ;  $[G,G] = 1 \iff G$  is abelian.

*Proof.*  $\forall x \in G, a \in [G, G], xax^{-1} = xax^{-1}a^{-1}a \text{ and } xax^{-1}a^{-1}, a \in [G, G].$ 

Ex 1.3.3.

- 1. If  $H \leq S_n$  and  $\exists \sigma \in H$  is odd, then  $[H : H \cap A_n] = 2$ .
- 2. For  $n \ge 3$ ,  $[S_n, S_n] = A_n$ .

**Ex 1.3.4.** Let  $H \leq G$ . Then  $H \triangleleft G$  and G/H is abelian  $\iff [G,G] \leq H$ . (hint: G/[G,G] is "max" among all abelian quotient groups)

### 1.3.2 Isomorphism theorems & Factor theorem

**Theorem 3** (1st isomorphism theorem). Let  $f: G_1 \to G_2$  be a group homo. Then  $G_1/\ker f \cong \operatorname{Im} f$ .

*Proof.* Define  $\varphi : a \ker f \mapsto f(a)$ .

- well-defined:  $a \ker f = b \ker f \implies a^{-1}b \in \ker f \implies f(a^{-1}b) = 1 \implies f(a)^{-1}f(b) = 1 \implies f(a) = f(b)$ .
- group homo:  $\varphi((a \ker f)(b \ker f)) = \varphi(ab \ker f) = f(ab) = f(a)f(b) = \varphi(a \ker f)\varphi(b \ker f)$ .
- onto: by def. of  $\operatorname{Im} f$ .
- 1-1:  $f(a) = f(b) \implies a \ker f = b \ker f$  (easy).

**Theorem 4** (Factor theorem). Let  $f: G_1 \to G_2$  be a group homo. and  $H \triangleleft G_1, H \leq \ker f$ . Then  $\exists$  a group homo.  $\varphi: G/H \to G_2$  s.t.



**Eg 1.3.3.** Let  $G = \langle a \rangle$  with ord(a) = n. Then  $G \cong \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ . (1st isom. thm.)

**Eg 1.3.4.**  $\varphi: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, 4\mathbb{Z} \leq 2\mathbb{Z}$ , so by factor thm.,  $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ .

 $\mathbf{Eg}\ \mathbf{1.3.5.}\quad \det: \mathrm{GL}(n,\mathbb{F}) \to \mathbb{F}^{\times} \implies \mathrm{GL}(n,\mathbb{F})/\mathrm{SL}(n,\mathbb{F}) \cong \mathbb{F}^{\times}$ 

Eg 1.3.6.  $\operatorname{sgn}: S_n \to \{\pm 1\} \implies S_n/A_n \cong \{\pm 1\}$ 

**Theorem 5** (2nd isomorphism theorem). Let  $H \leq G, K \triangleleft G$ . Then  $HK/K \cong H/H \cap K$ .

$$\textit{Proof. } \text{First, } \begin{cases} H \leq G \\ K \lhd G \end{cases} \implies HK = KH \implies HK \leq G \text{ ; } K \lhd G \implies K \lhd HK.$$

Define  $\varphi: H \to HK/K, h \mapsto hK$ . which is a group homo.

- onto:  $\forall (hk)K, hkK = hK$ , so  $\varphi(h) = hK = hkK$ .
- Find  $\ker \varphi \colon a \in \ker \varphi \iff \begin{cases} a \in H \\ aK = K \end{cases} \iff a \in H \cap K$ , so  $\ker \varphi = H \cap K$ .

Then by 1st isom. thm.

Eg 1.3.7.  $G = GL(2,\mathbb{C}), H = SL(2,\mathbb{C}), K = \mathbb{C}^{\times}I_2 = Z_G \triangleleft G.$ By 2nd isom. thm.,  $G/K \cong H/\{\pm I_2\}.$   $(G = HK, \{\pm I_2\} = H \cap K)$ projective linear group:  $PGL(2,\mathbb{C}) = G/K.$ 

projective special linear group:  $PSL(2, \mathbb{C}) = H/H \cap K$ .

#### 齊次座標...OTL

#### Ex 1.3.5.

1. Let  $H_1 \triangleleft G_1, H_2 \triangleleft G_2$ . Then  $(H_1 \times H_2) \triangleleft (G_1 \times G_2)$  and  $G_1 \times G_2/H_1 \times H_2 \cong G_1/H_1 \times G_2/H_2$ .

2. Let  $H \triangleleft G, K \triangleleft G$  s.t. G = HK. Then  $G/H \cap K \cong G/H \times G/K$ .

**Ex 1.3.6.** Let  $H \triangleleft G$  with [G : H] = p, which is a prime in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $\forall K \leq G$ , either (1)  $K \leq H$  or (2) G = HK and  $[K : K \cap H] = p$ .

**Theorem 6** (3rd isomorphism theorem). Let  $K \triangleleft G$ .

1. There is a 1-1 correspondence between  $\{H \leq G \mid K \leq H\}$  and  $\{\text{subgroups of } G/K\}$ .  $(H \triangleleft G \dots \text{ normal})$ 

*Proof.* Define  $\varphi: H \mapsto H/K$ .  $(H/K \leq G/K)$ 

- 1-1: Assume  $H_1/K = H_2/K$ . For  $a \in H_1$ ,  $aK \in H_1/K = H_2/K$ . so  $\exists b \in H_2$  s.t.  $aK = bK \implies b^{-1}a \in K \leq H_2 \implies a \in bH_2 = H_2$ . So  $H_1 \leq H_2$ . By symmetry,  $H_2 \leq H_1$ , and thus  $H_1 = H_2$ .
- onto: Given a subgroup Q of G/K, consider  $H = q^{-1}(Q)$  where  $q: G \to G/K$ .
  - $H \leq G: \ \forall \ a,b \in H, q(a), q(b) \in Q \implies q(a)q(b)^{-1} \in Q \implies q(ab^{-1}) \in Q \implies ab^{-1} \in H \implies H \leq G.$
  - $-K \le H$ :  $\forall a \in K, q(a) = aK = K \in Q \implies a \in H \implies K \le H$ .
  - $-Q = H/K: \ \forall \ aK \in Q, aK = q(a) \implies a \in H \implies aK \in H/K \implies Q \subseteq H/K.$ And  $\forall \ aK \in H/K (a \in H), q(a) \in Q \implies H/K \subseteq Q.$  So Q = H/K.
- $H \triangleleft G, K \leq H \iff \forall g \in G, gHg^{-1} = H, K \leq H \iff \forall \overline{g} \in G/K, \overline{g}(H/K)\overline{g}^{-1} = H/K \iff H/K \triangleleft G/K.$
- 2. If  $H \triangleleft G$  with  $K \leq H$ , then  $(G/K)/(H/K) \cong G/H$ .

*Proof.* Define  $\varphi: G \to (G/K)/(H/K)$  with  $\varphi: a \mapsto aK(H/K)$ .

- $\bullet$  onto: ... easy.
- Find  $\ker \varphi \colon a \in \ker \varphi \iff aK(H/K) = H/K \iff aK \in H/K \iff a \in H.$

By 1st isom. thm.,  $(G/K)/(H/K) \cong G/H$ .

Eg 1.3.8.  $m\mathbb{Z} + n\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z} \cong n\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z} \cap n\mathbb{Z}$ .  $(m\mathbb{Z} + n\mathbb{Z} = \gcd(m, n)\mathbb{Z}, m\mathbb{Z} \cap n\mathbb{Z} = \operatorname{lcm}(m, n)\mathbb{Z})$ 

Ques:  $G/K \cong G'/K'$  and  $K \cong K' \implies G \cong G'$ .

Eg 1.3.9.  $Q_8$  and  $D_4$  交給陳力

Extension problem: given two groups A,B, how to find G and  $K \triangleleft G$ , s.t.  $K \cong A,G/K \cong B$ ?  $(1 \rightarrow H \rightarrow G \rightarrow G/H \rightarrow 1, \text{ short exact sequence})$  (e.g.  $G = A \times B, K = A \times \{1\}$ )

## 1.4 Week 4

### 1.4.1 Universal property and direct sum & product

In general, let  $f_1: G_1 \to G, f_2: G_2 \to G$  are group homo.  $f_1 \times f_2: G_1 \times G_2 \to G, (a,b) \mapsto f_1(a)f_2(b)$ . But we have (a,b)=(a,1)(1,b)=(1,b)(a,1), so  $f_1(a)f_2(b)=f_2(b)f_1(a) \Longrightarrow$  need G to be abelian.

So we intend to define the direct sum in the category of abelian group.

<u>Notation</u>: For abelian groups, we use "+" to denote the group operation and "0" to denote the identity.

**Def 22.** Given a non-empty family of abelian groups  $\{G_s \mid s \in \Lambda\}$ , a (external) direct sum of  $\{G_s \mid s \in \Lambda\}$  is an abelian group  $\bigoplus_{s \in \Lambda} G_s$  with the embedding mappings  $i_{s_0} : G_{s_0} \to \bigoplus_{s \in \Lambda} G_s, \forall s_0 \in \Lambda$  satisfying the universal property:

for any abelian group H and group homo.  $\varphi_s:G_s\to H \forall s\in\Lambda,\quad\exists\,!$  group homo.  $\varphi:\bigoplus_{s\in\Lambda}G_s\to H$  s.t. 又一個 z 圖

**Theorem 7.**  $\bigoplus_{s \in \Lambda} G_s$  exists and is unique up to isomorphisms.

*Proof.* Existence:  $\bigoplus_{s \in \Lambda} G_s = \{ (g_s)_{s \in \Lambda} \mid g_s \in G_s, \text{ almost all of the } g_s' \text{ are } 0 \}$  and

$$i_{s_0}: G_{s_0} \to \bigoplus_{s \in \Lambda} G_s, a_{s_0} \mapsto (g_{s_0})_{s \in \Lambda} \text{ with } g_{s_0} = a_{s_0}, g_s = 0, \forall s \neq s_0.$$

group operaion:  $(g_s)_{s\in\Lambda}+(g_s')_{s\in\Lambda}:=(g_s+g_s')_{s\in\Lambda}\in\bigoplus_{s\in\Lambda}G_s$ . 這邊也一個  $\tau$  圖

Uniqueness: Assume  $\exists$  another G satisfies the universal property, 一個大 $\tau$  圖  $(G, \bigoplus_{s \in \Lambda} G_s$  互相有唯一個映射可以 keep  $i_{s_0}, \varphi \circ \psi = \mathrm{id}_{G}, \psi \circ \varphi = \mathrm{id}_{\bigoplus_{s \in \Lambda} G_s}$ )

**Def 23.** Given a non-empty family of groups  $\{G_s \mid s \in \Lambda\}$ , a direct product of  $\{G_s \mid s \in \Lambda\}$  is a group  $\prod_{s \in \Lambda} G_s$  with projections  $p_{s_0} : \prod_{s \in \Lambda} G_s \to G_{s_0}, \forall s_0 \in \Lambda$  satisfying the following universal property:

for any group H with group homo.  $\varphi_s: H \to G_s, \forall s \in \Lambda, \exists ! \varphi: H \to \prod_{s \in \Lambda} G_s \text{ s.t. } 又一個 <math>\tau$  圖

**Theorem 8.**  $\prod_{s \in \Lambda} G_s$  exists and is unique up to isomorphisms.

*Proof.* Existence:  $\prod_{s \in \Lambda} G_s = \{ (g_s)_{s \in \Lambda} \mid g_s \in G_s \}$  and

$$p_{s_0}: \prod_{s\in\Lambda} G_s \to G_{s_0}, (g_{s_0})_{s\in\Lambda} \mapsto g_{s_0}, \forall s_0 \in \Lambda$$

- group operaion:  $(g_s)_{s \in \Lambda} \cdot (g'_s)_{s \in \Lambda} := (g_s g'_s)_{s \in \Lambda} \in \prod_{s \in \Lambda} G_s$ .
- Define  $\varphi$ : 這邊也一個で圖 which is uniquely defined.

Uniqueness: Assume  $\exists$  another G satisfies the universal property, 一個大 $\tau$  圖  $(G, \prod_{s \in \Lambda} G_s)$  互相有唯一個映射可以 keep  $i_{s_0}, \varphi \circ \psi = \mathrm{id}_{G}, \psi \circ \varphi = \mathrm{id}_{\prod_{s \in \Lambda} G_s}$ 

Ex 1.4.1. Google the definition of the direct limit and show the existence and uniqueness.

Ex 1.4.2. Google the definition of the inverse limit and show the existence and uniqueness.

Motivation:  $\zeta_m$  is called an *m*-th root of unity if  $\zeta_m^m = 1$ .

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{Z}/2^n \mathbb{Z} \cong \{ 2^n \text{-th roots of unity} : n \in \mathbb{N} \}$$

$$\varinjlim_{n} \mathbb{Z}/2^{n}\mathbb{Z} = (\bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{Z}/2^{n}\mathbb{Z})/\langle i_{k}(a) - i_{j}(f_{kj}(a)) \mid k \leq j, a \in \mathbb{Z}/2^{k}\mathbb{Z}\rangle$$

where  $f_{kj}: \mathbb{Z}/2^k\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/2^j\mathbb{Z}$ .

Inverse limit:

$$\underline{\lim} \, \mathbb{Z}/2^n \mathbb{Z} = \left\{ (n_1, n_2, \dots) \in \prod_n \mathbb{Z}/2^n \mathbb{Z} \middle| \forall i < j, n_i \equiv n_j \pmod{2}^{i+1} \right\}$$

## 1.4.2 Rings and fields

**Def 24.** A ring is sa non-empty set R with two operations  $R \times R \to R$ 

$$(a,b) \mapsto a+b$$
 and  $(a,b) \mapsto ab$ 

satisfying

- 1. (R, +, 0) is an abelian group.
- 2.  $(R,\cdot)$  is a semigroup. (if it is a monoid, then it is called "a ring with 1.")

3. (Distributive laws) 
$$\forall a,b,c \in \mathbb{R}, \begin{cases} a(b+c)=ab+ac\\ (b+c)a=ba+ca \end{cases}$$

Eg 1.4.1.  $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{F})$ 

Eg 1.4.2. Let G be an abelian group. Define (endomorphism, automorphism)

$$\operatorname{End}(G) := \{ \operatorname{group homo}. \ G \to G \} \quad \operatorname{Aut}(G) := \{ \operatorname{group isom}. \ G \to G \}$$

A natural ring structure on End(G) is:

$$\forall a \in G, \begin{cases} (f+g)(a) := f(a)g(a) \\ (f \cdot g)(a) := f(g(a)) \end{cases}$$

Eg 1.4.3. 
$$\mathbb{Z}\left[\sqrt{2}\right] = \left\{a + b\sqrt{2} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\right\} \subset \mathbb{R}$$
.

**Def 25.** Let R be a ring with 1.

- (a)  $\forall a \in R, a \neq 0$ , a in called a unit if  $\exists a^{-1} \in R$ .
- (b)  $(R^{\times} = \{\text{units in } R\}, \cdot, 1))$  forms a group.
- (c) R is called a division ring if  $R \setminus \{0\} = R^{\times}$ .
- (d) R is said to be commutative if  $ab = ba, \forall a, b \in R$ .
- (e) R is a field if R is a commutative division ring.
- (f)  $a \neq 0$  is called a left zero divisor if  $\exists b \in R, b \neq 0$  s.t. ab = 0.
- (g) a is called a zero divisor if a is either a left or right zero divisor.
- (h) R is called an integral domain if R is a commutative ring without zero divisors.

Fact:

- 1. fields  $\implies$  integral domains.
- 2. finite + integral domain  $\implies$  fields.

Proof. Let 
$$R = \{0, a_1, \dots, a_n\}$$
, for  $a \in R, a \neq 0$ ,  $aa_i = aa_j \implies a(a_i - a_j) = 0 \implies i = j$ .  
So  $\{0, aa_1, \dots, aa_n\} = R \implies \exists a_i \text{ s.t. } aa_i = 1$ .

#### **Prop 1.4.1.** TFAE

- 1.  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  is an integral domain.
- 2.  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  is a field.
- 3. n = p is a prime.

easy to prove.

Def 26.

- $f: R_1 \to R_2$  is called a ring homomorphism if  $\forall a, b \in R, \begin{cases} f(a+b) &= f(a) + f(b) \\ f(ab) &= f(a)f(b) \end{cases}$ .
- Im f is a subring of  $R_2$ .
- $\ker f = \{x \in R_1 \mid f(x) = 0\}$  is an additive group of  $R_1$  and  $\forall r \in R_1, x \in \ker f, f(rx) = f(r)f(x) = f(r)0 = 0 \implies rx \in \ker f, xr \in \ker f.$
- $R_1/\ker f$  is an additive group and  $R_1/\ker f \cong \operatorname{Im} f$  (additive isomorphism).

**Def 27.** Let I be an additive subgroup of R. I is called an ideal if  $\forall r \in R, x \in I, rx \in I, xr \in I$ .  $(R/I, +, \cdot)$  forms a quotient ring under

$$\forall r_1, r_2 \in R, (r_1 + I)(r_2 + I) = r_1r_2 + I$$

well-defined: easy to show.

Ex 1.4.3. State and show the isomorphism theorems and the factor theorem.

**Prop 1.4.2.** If R is a ring with 1, then  $\exists$ ! ring homo.  $\varphi: \mathbb{Z} \to R$  s.t.  $\varphi(1) = 1$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\varphi: \mathbb{Z} \to R$  is a ring homo. s.t.  $\varphi(1) = 1$ . Then  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}, \varphi(n) = \varphi(1) + \cdots + \varphi(1) = n1$ . Now  $\forall n, m \in \mathbb{Z}, \varphi(n)\varphi(m) = (n1)(m1) = n(m1) = (nm)1$  by the distributive law. So  $\varphi$  is well-defined and unique.

**Def 28.** In Prop 1.4.2,  $\ker \varphi = m\mathbb{Z}$  for some m > 0. We call m the characteristic of R, denoted by  $\operatorname{char} R = m$ .

## Prop 1.4.3.

- 1. If R is an integral domain, then char R = 0 or p, where p is a prime. (try to prove this)
- 2. In the case of char R = p,  $\forall a, b \in R$ ,  $(a + b)^p = a^p + b^p$ .

Proof.

$$(a+b)^p = a^p + \binom{p}{1}a^{p-1}b + \dots + b^p = a^p + b^p$$

because  $p \mid {p \choose 1} \implies {p \choose i} a^{p-i} b^i = 0$ .

### **Ex 1.4.4.** Let F be a field. Show that

- 1. if char F = 0, then  $\mathbb{Q} \hookrightarrow$  subfield of F.
- 2. if char F = p, then  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \text{subfield of } F$ .

**Theorem 9.** If F is a finite field, then  $|F| = p^n$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and p is a prime.

*Proof.* By Ex. 1.4.4, char F = p, p is a prime and  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow F$ .

We have  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \times F \to F$ ,  $(r, v) \mapsto rv$ . F can be rearded as a vector space over  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ .

Let 
$$\dim_{\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}} F = n$$
, then  $F \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^n \implies |F| = p^n$ .

**Theorem 10.** Let F be a field. Then any finite subgroup G of  $(F^{\times}, \cdot, 1)$  is cyclic.

*Proof.* Let |G| = n. Define h to be the max order of an element in G, say  $a^h = 1$ .

If 
$$h = n$$
, then  $|\langle a \rangle| = h = n = |G|$  and  $\langle a \rangle \subseteq G$ , so  $G = \langle a \rangle$ .

Otherwise, h < n. We know that  $x^h - 1$  has at most h roots. So  $\exists b \in G$  is not a root of  $x^h - 1$ . Let  $\operatorname{ord}(b) = h'$ , so  $h' \mid n$  and  $h' \nmid h$ . So  $\exists$  a prime p s.t.  $p^r \mid h'$  but  $p^r \nmid h$ .

Write  $h = mp^s$ , s < r and  $gcd(m, p) = 1 \implies ord(a^{p^s}) = m$ .

Write  $h' = qp^r \implies \operatorname{ord}(b^q) = p^r$ .

Since 
$$gcd(m, p^r) = 1$$
, ord  $(a^{p^s}b^q) = mp^r > mp^s = h$ , which is a contradiction.

#### Ex 1.4.5.

- 1. Let  $a, b \in G$  with ab = ba and ord(a) = m, ord(b) = n. If gcd(m, n) = 1, then ord(ab) = mn. In general, is the order of ab equal to lcm(m, n)?
- 2. Let G be a finite group and  $H, K \leq G$ . Then  $|HK| = \frac{|H||K|}{|H \cap K|}$ .

#### 1.5 Week 5

## 1.5.1 Group actions I

**Def 29.** A group G is said to act on a nonempty set X if  $\exists$  a map  $G \times X \to X$  with  $(g, x) \mapsto gx$  s.t.

- 1. 1x = x
- 2.  $(g_1g_2)x = g_1(g_2x) \quad \forall g_1, g_2 \in G$

**Prop 1.5.1.** {actions of G}  $\leftrightarrow$  {group homo.  $G \rightarrow S_X$ }

*Proof.* Given an action  $(g, x) \mapsto gx$ , consider  $\varphi : G \to S_X$  s.t.  $\varphi : g \mapsto (\tau_g : x \mapsto gx)$ .

- 1-1:  $gx = gy \implies g^{-1}(gx) = y \implies x = y$ .
- onto:  $\forall y \in X$ , let  $x = g^{-1}y$ , then y = gx.
- group homo.:  $\varphi(gg') = (\tau_{gg'} : x \mapsto gg'x) = \tau_g \circ \tau'_g = \varphi(g)\varphi(g')$ .

Conversely, given a group homo.  $\varphi: G \to S_X$ , consider  $(g, x) \mapsto \varphi(g)(x)$ .

- $1x = \varphi(1)(x) = \text{Id}(x) = x$ .
- $g_1g_2x = \varphi(g_1g_2)(x) = \varphi(g_1) \circ \varphi(g_2)(x) = g_1(g_2x).$

**Def 30.** A representation of G on a vector space V is a group action of G on V linearly. i.e.  $\exists$  group homo.  $\varphi: G \to \operatorname{GL}(V)$ .

Eg 1.5.1.

$$\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z} \to \mathrm{SO}(2), \quad \overline{k} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} \cos\frac{2k\pi}{m} & -\sin\frac{2k\pi}{m} \\ \sin\frac{2k\pi}{m} & \cos\frac{2k\pi}{m} \end{pmatrix}$$

Eg 1.5.2.

$$S_n \to \mathrm{GL}(n,\mathbb{R}), \quad \sigma \mapsto (\tau_\sigma : e_i \mapsto e_{\sigma(i)})$$

Remark 8.

- 1. An action  $G \times X \to X$  is said to be faithful if the corresponding group homo.  $\varphi : G \hookrightarrow S_X$ , denoted by  $G \curvearrowright X$ .
- 2. In general,  $\ker \varphi = \{ g \in G \mid gx = x \quad \forall x \in X \} = \bigcap_{x \in X} \{ g \mid gx = x \}.$ Define  $G_x = \{ g \mid gx = x \} \leq G$  is the isotropy subgroup of G at x. (the stabilizer of G at x)
- 3.  $\varphi: G \to S_X \implies G/\ker \varphi \hookrightarrow S_X$ . So  $G/\ker \varphi \times X \to X$  is faithful.
- 4. Let  $\mathcal{C}(X) = \{ f : X \to \mathbb{C} \}$ . If  $G \curvearrowright X$ , then  $G \curvearrowright \mathcal{C}(X)$  by  $G \times \mathcal{C}(X) \to \mathcal{C}(X)$  with  $(g, f) \mapsto gf(x) = f(g^{-1}x)$ .

The reason:  $(g_1g_2)f(x) = f((g_1g_2)^{-1}x) = f(g_2^{-1}g_1^{-1}x) = g_1(g_2f)(x)$ .

**Def 31.** Let  $G \curvearrowright X$  and  $x \in X$ .

- The **orbit** of x is defined to be  $Gx = \{gx \mid g \in G\}$ .
- $G \cap X$  is said to be transitive if  $\exists$  only one orbit. i.e.  $\forall x, y \in X, \exists g \in G$  s.t. y = gx.

The set of orbits forms a partition:  $x \sim y \iff \exists g \in G \text{ s.t. } y = gx.$ 

**Prop 1.5.2.** Let  $G \cap X$  and  $x \in X$ . Then  $|Gx| = [G : G_x]$ .

In particular,  $|G| < \infty \implies |G| = |Gx||G_x| \quad \forall x \in X$ .

*Proof.* Define  $\psi: Gx \to \{\text{left coset of } G_x\}$  as  $\psi: gx \mapsto gG_x$ .

- well-defined and 1-1:  $g_1x = g_2x \iff g_2^{-1}g_1x = x \iff g_2^{-1}g_1 \in G_x \iff g_2^{-1}g_1G_x = G_x \iff g_1G_x = g_2G_x.$
- onto:  $\forall g \in G, \psi(gx) = gG_x$ .

## 1.5.2 Action by left multiplication

- The action  $G \times G \to G$ ,  $(g, x) \mapsto gx$  is associated with  $\varphi : G \hookrightarrow S_G$ . It is faithful (Cayley theorem) and transitive.
- Let  $H \leq G$  and  $X := \{ \text{left coset of } H \}$ . The group action  $(g, xH) \mapsto gxH \leadsto \varphi : G \to S_X$ .

$$\ker \varphi = \bigcap_{x \in G} \underbrace{xHx^{-1}}_{\text{$x \in G$}} \leq H$$
 a conjugate of  $H$ 

which is the largest normal subgroup in G contained in H.

Proof. If 
$$\begin{cases} N \lhd G \\ N \leq H \end{cases}, \forall x \in G, xNx^{-1} \leq xHx^{-1} \implies N = N(xx^{-1}) = xNx^{-1} \leq xHx^{-1}.$$

**Prop 1.5.3.** Let  $H \leq G$  with [G:H] = p being the smallest prime dividing |G|. Then  $H \triangleleft G$ .

*Proof.* Let  $X = \{a_1H, \ldots, a_pH\}$  (all left coests of H) and  $\varphi : G \to S_p$  be the associated group homo. for the group action  $(g, a_iH) \mapsto ga_iH$ .

By the 1st isom. thm.,  $G/\ker \varphi \hookrightarrow S_p$ .

By Lagrange thm.  $|G/\ker\varphi| \mid |S_p| = p!$  and  $|G/\ker\varphi| \mid |G| \implies |G/\ker\varphi| \mid p$ .

So  $|G/\ker \varphi| = 1$  or p.

If  $|G/\ker \varphi| = 1 \implies G = \ker \varphi \le H \le G$ , which is a contradiction.

So  $|G/\ker \varphi| = p \implies [G : \ker \varphi] = p \implies [G : H][H : \ker \varphi] = p \implies [H : \ker \varphi] = 1 \implies H = \ker \varphi \lhd G.$ 

## 1.5.3 Action by conjugation

• The action  $G \times G \to G$   $(g,x) \mapsto gxg^{-1}$  is associated with the group homo.  $\varphi : G \to S_G$   $g \mapsto (\tau_g : x \mapsto gxg^{-1})$ .

$$\operatorname{Inn}(G) := \{ \tau_q \mid g \in G \}$$

Fact 1.5.1.  $\tau_g$  is an automorphism. (isom.  $G \to G$ )

So  $\varphi: G \to \operatorname{Inn}(G) \leq \operatorname{Aut}(G) \leq S_G$ .

$$\ker \varphi = \{ g \in G \mid gxg^{-1} = x \quad \forall x \in G \} = Z_G.$$

By the 1st isom. thm.,  $G/\ker \varphi \cong \operatorname{Inn}(G)$ .

- The conjugacy class:  $Gx = \{ gxg^{-1} \mid g \in G \} = \text{Cl}(x).$
- The centralizer of x in G:  $G_x = \{ g \in G \mid gxg^{-1} = x \} = Z_G(x)$ .

$$|Cl(x)| = [G : Z_G(x)], \text{ if } |G| < \infty, |G| = |Cl(x)||Z_G(x)|$$

• For  $H \lhd G$ , define  $G \times H \to H$   $(g,h) \mapsto ghg^{-1}$  with the group homo.  $\varphi : G \to \operatorname{Aut}(H)$ .

$$\ker \varphi = \{ g \in G \mid gxg^{-1} = x \quad \forall x \in H \} = Z_G(H) \implies G/Z_G(H) \le \operatorname{Aut}(H)$$

• The normalizer of H in G:  $N_G(H) = \{ g \in G \mid gHg^{-1} = H \}$ 

**Theorem 11** (Normalizer-Centralizer theorem). If  $H \leq G$  then  $N_G(H)/Z_G(H) \hookrightarrow \operatorname{Aut}(H)$ .

*Proof.* Define  $\varphi = g :: N_G(H) \mapsto (h \mapsto ghg^{-1}) :: \operatorname{Aut}(H)$ . Then  $\ker \varphi = Z_G(H)$ , so  $N_G(H)/Z_G(H) \cong \operatorname{Im} \varphi \leq \operatorname{Aut}(H)$ .

### 1.6 Week 6

### 1.6.1 Group actions II

**Def 32.** Let  $G \curvearrowright X$  and  $|X| < \infty$ . Write Fix  $G := \{ x \in X \mid gx = x \quad \forall g \in G \}$ .

- $x \in \operatorname{Fix} G$ ,  $Gx = \{x\}$ .
- $x \notin \operatorname{Fix} G$ ,  $|Gx| = [G : G_x]$ .

Let  $\{G_{x_1}, \ldots, G_{x_n}\}$  be the set of distinct orbits. After rearrangement, assume  $x_1, \ldots, x_r \in \operatorname{Fix} G, x_{r+1}, \ldots, x_n \notin \operatorname{Fix} G$ . Then

$$|X| = |\operatorname{Fix} G| + \sum_{i=r+1}^{n} [G: G_{x_i}]$$

**Theorem 12** (class equation). Let  $|G| < \infty$ . Then either  $G = Z_G$  or  $\exists a_1, \ldots, a_m \in G \setminus Z_G$  s.t.

$$|G| = |Z_G| + \sum_{i=1}^n [G:G_{a_i}]$$

*Proof.* Consider the action  $(g, x) \mapsto gxg^{-1}$ , then

$$\operatorname{Fix} G = \{ x \in G \mid gxg^{-1} = x \quad \forall g \in G \} = Z_G$$

It follows from the above argument.

**Def 33.** G is called a p-group if  $|G| = p^n$ , where p is a prime,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Prop 1.6.1.** If G is a p-group, then  $Z_G \neq \{1\}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $|G| = p^n$ . If  $G = Z_G$ , then done. Otherwise, by the class equation (use action by conjugation),  $|G| = |Z_G| + \sum_{i=1}^n [G:G_{a_i}], \quad a_i \notin Z_G$ .

$$G_{a_i} = Z_G(a_i)$$
, so  $a_i \notin Z_G \implies Z_G(a_i) \subsetneq G \implies p \mid [G : Z_G(a_i)] = \frac{|G|}{|Z_G(a_i)|}$ .  
So  $|Z_G| = |G| - \sum_{i=1}^n [G : Z_G(a_i)] \implies p \mid |Z_G| \implies Z_G \neq \{1\}$ .

**Prop 1.6.2.** If  $|G| = p^2$ , then G is abelian.  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})$  and  $\mathbb{Z}/p^2\mathbb{Z}$ )

*Proof.* Assume that G is not abelian. By prop 1.6.1,  $|Z_G| = p \implies |G/Z_G| = p \implies G/Z_G$  is cyclic  $\implies G$  is abelian. (contradiction)

**Prop 1.6.3.** If  $|G| = p^3$  and G is not abelian, then  $|Z_G| = p$ .

(Abelian:  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/p^2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/p^3\mathbb{Z}$ )

**Prop 1.6.4.** Let  $|G| = p^n$ . Then  $\forall 0 \le k \le n, \exists G_k \triangleleft G$  s.t.  $|G_k| = p^k$  and  $G_i \le G_{i+1}$ .

In general, for a finite group G,  $\exists \{1\} = G_r \triangleleft G_{r-1} \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft G_1 \triangleleft G_0 = G$  s.t.  $G_i/G_{i+1}$  is cyclic. we call G a solvable group.

*Proof.* By induction on n, n=1 is trivial. For n>1, assume that the statement a holds for n-1. By prop 1.6.1,  $Z_G \neq \{1\}$ .  $\exists \ a \in Z_G, a \neq 1$ . Let  $\operatorname{ord}(a) = p^l$ , then  $\operatorname{ord}(a^{p^{l-1}}) = p$ .  $\Longrightarrow$  in any case,  $\exists \ a \in Z_G$  with  $\operatorname{ord}(a) = p$ .

Now  $|G/\langle a \rangle| = p^{n-1}$ , so by induction hypothesis,  $\forall 0 \leq k \leq n-1, \exists \overline{G_k} \triangleleft G/\langle a \rangle$  s.t.  $|\overline{G_k}| = p^k, \overline{G_i} \leq \overline{G_{i+1}}$ .

By 3rd isom. thm.,  $\exists G_{k+1} \triangleleft G$  s.t.  $\overline{G_k} = G_{k+1}/\langle a \rangle, G_j \subsetneq G_{j+1}$  and  $|G_{k+1}| = p^{k+1}$ .

**Prop 1.6.5.** Let a *p*-group  $G \curvearrowright X$  with  $|X| < \infty$ . Then  $|X| \equiv |\operatorname{Fix} G| \pmod{p}$ .

**Theorem 13** (Cauchy theorem). Let  $p \mid |G|$ . Then  $\exists a \in G$  s.t.  $\operatorname{ord}(a) = p$ . Consider

$$X = \{ (a_1, \dots, a_p) \mid a_i \in G, a_1 a_2 \dots a_p = 1 \}$$

and the action  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \times X \to X$ :

$$(\overline{k},(a_1,\ldots,a_p))\mapsto (a_{k+1},\ldots,a_p,a_1,\ldots,a_k)$$

(This is well-defined since  $ab=1 \implies ba=1$  in a group.) We find that  $(a_1,\ldots,a_p) \in \operatorname{Fix} \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \iff a_1=a_2\ldots a_p$ . By prop 1.6.5,  $|\operatorname{Fix} \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}| \equiv |X| \pmod p$ . And  $|X|=|G|^{p-1}\equiv 0 \pmod p$ . Since  $(1,\ldots,1)\in\operatorname{Fix} \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}, |\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}|\neq 0 \implies |\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}|\geq p$ .

So  $\exists (a, ..., a) \in \operatorname{Fix} \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \implies a^p = 1$ .

Application: Let  $|G| = p^3$  and G be non-abelian (p is odd). By prop 1.6.3,  $|G/Z_G| = p^2$ . Since G is non-abelian, we have  $G/Z_G \cong \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ . That is,  $\forall a \in G, a^p \in Z_G$ .

$$\exists \varphi: G \to Z_G \cong C_p \text{ with } \varphi: a \mapsto a^p$$

Since  $G/Z_G$  is abelian,  $[G,G] \leq Z_G$ . And

$$\begin{cases} |[G,G]| \mid |Z_G| = p \\ G \text{ is non-abelian} \end{cases} \implies [G,G] = Z_G$$

**Def 34.**  $[x,y] = x^{-1}y^{-1}xy \in [G,G], [x,y]^p = 1$ 

So  $a^p b^p = a^p b^p [b, a]^p$  ... 換換換總共需要 p(p-1)/2

$$a^p b^p = (ab)^p [b, a]^{\frac{p(p-1)}{2}} = (ab)^p$$

So  $\varphi$  is a group homo.

So,

Now if  $\ker \varphi = G$  ( $\forall a \in G, a^p = 1$ ), i.e.  $\varphi$  is trivial, then  $\varphi$  is useless. Else,  $\exists a \in G$  s.t.  $\operatorname{ord}(a) = p^2$ , then  $H = \langle a \rangle \triangleleft G$ . ([G:H] = p is the smallest prime dividing |G|)

Also, in this case,  $\varphi: G \twoheadrightarrow Z_G \implies G/\ker \varphi \cong Z_G$ . Let  $E = \ker \varphi$ ,  $|E| = p^2$ . By the def. of  $\ker \varphi$ ,  $E \cong \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ .

We find that  $H \cap E = \langle a^p \rangle$ . Pick  $b \in E \setminus H$  and let  $K = \langle b \rangle \implies |K| = p, H \cap K = \{1\}, HK = G.$ 

## 1.6.2 Semidirect product

Fact 1.6.1.  $K \triangleleft G, H \triangleleft G, K \cap H = \{1\} \implies KH = K \times H$  $(\forall k \in K, h \in H, khk^{-1}h^{-1} \in H \cap K = \{1\}, \implies kh = hk)$ 

**Fact 1.6.2.** Let K, H be two groups, and  $G = K \times H \implies K \times \{1\} \triangleleft K \times H, \{1\} \times H \triangleleft K \times H$ 

Observation 1.  $K \leq G, H \triangleleft G, K \cap H = \{1\}$  (K 慘 H 好,簡稱慘好集)  $\Longrightarrow$  elements in KH has unique representation? 好事喔  $KH \iff K \times H$  1-1 corresp,  $(kh) \leftrightarrow (k,h)$ 

Group operation:  $\forall k_1, k_2 \in K, h_1, h_2 \in H, (k_1h_1)(k_2h_2) = k_1k_2(k_2^{-1}h_1k_2)h_2$ Let  $\tau: K \to \text{Aut}(H), k \mapsto (\tau(k): h \mapsto khk^{-1})$  (類似  $\in \text{Inn}(H)$ )

**Def 35** (Semi-Direct Product (慘好積)).  $K \times_{\tau} H = \{(k,h)|k \in K, h \in H\}$  with group operation :  $(k_1,h_1)(k_2,h_2) = (k_1k_2,\tau(k_2^{-1})(h_1)(h_2))$  where  $\tau: K \to \operatorname{Aut}(H)$  (need not to be inner homomorphism)

## Properties:

- Associativity: Good, ex
- The identity = (1, 1)
- Inverse:  $(k,h)^{-1} = (k^{-1}, \tau(k)(h^{-1}))$
- $K \cong K \times \{1\} \leq K \times_{\tau} H : (k_1, 1)(k_2, 1) = (k_1k_2, \tau(k_2^{-1})(1)1) = (k_1k_2, 1) \in K \times \{1\}$  $H \cong \{1\} \times H \leq K \times \tau H : (1, h + 1), (1, h_2) = (1, \tau(1^{-1})(h_1)h_2) = (1, h_1h_2) \in \{1\} \times K$
- $H \triangleleft K \times_t H : (k,h)(1,h')(k,h)^{-1} = (k,hh')(k^{-1},\tau(k)(h^{-1})) = (1,\tau(k)(hh')\tau(k)(h^{-1})) \in H$
- $\tau(k)(h) = khk^{-1} : (k,1)(1,h)(k^{-1},1) = (k,h)(k^{-1},1) = (1,\tau(k)(h))$
- If  $\tau$  is trivial  $\implies K \times_t H \cong K \times H$

**Remark 9.** Some definition swaps the order of H and K, i.e.  $(h_1, k_1)(h_2, k_2) = (h_1\phi(k_1)(h_2), k_1k_2)$ 

**Ex 1.6.1.** Show that  $H \rtimes_{\phi} K$  is a group and satisfies the above properties.

Eg 1.6.1. Construct a non-abelian group of order 21.

Fact 1.6.3.  $\operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}) \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^{\times} \cong C_{p-1}$ 

 $\begin{aligned} &\mathrm{Sol}: \ \phi_k: \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}, \ \bar{1} \mapsto \bar{k} \\ &\phi_{k_2} \circ \phi_{k_1}(1) = \phi_{k_2}(\bar{k}_1) = \phi_{k_2}(1+\cdots+1) = \overline{k_2} + \cdots \overline{k_2} = \overline{k_1 k_2} \\ &\mathrm{Let} \ K = C_3, H = C_7, \ \mathrm{define} \ \tau: C_3 \to \mathrm{Aut}(C_7) \cong C_6, a \mapsto \phi_2 \\ &\phi_k: b \mapsto b^k \\ &G = \langle a, b | a^3 = 1, b^7 = 1, aba^{-1} = b^2 \rangle \end{aligned}$ 

**Eg 1.6.2.** p : odd,  $|G| = p^3$ , G is non-abelian.

(sol)  $\phi: G \to Z(G), a \mapsto a^p$  non trivial case  $\exists a \in G$  with  $\operatorname{ord}(a) = p^2$ . Let  $H = \langle a \rangle$  here  $\phi$  is onto and  $E = \ker \phi \cong \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  And  $|H \cap E| = p$   $H \lhd G$  because [G:H] = p Pick  $b \in E \setminus H$  and let  $K = \langle b \rangle \implies |K| = p, K \cap H = \{1\}$  so  $|G| = |KH| = p^3$ 

Fact 1.6.4. Aut $(\mathbb{Z}/p^2\mathbb{Z}) \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p^2\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$ 

Sol:  $\phi_k: \mathbb{Z}/p^2\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/p^2\mathbb{Z}, \bar{1} \mapsto \bar{k}, \gcd(k, p) = 1$ 

Find a group homo  $\tau: K \implies \operatorname{Aut}(H)$  because  $(1+p)^p \equiv 1 \mod p^2$ ,  $\operatorname{ord}\left(\overline{1+p}\right) = p$ . Let  $P = \langle \overline{1+p} \rangle$  is the only subgroup of order p. (if  $\exists |Q| = p, P \neq Q$  then  $P \cap Q = 1, |PQ| = p^2$  but

|G|=p(p-1), miserable.) So let  $\tau:b\mapsto (\phi_{1+p}:a\mapsto a^{1+p})$  so  $G=\langle a,b|a^{p^2}=1,b^p=1,bab^{-1}=a^{1+p}\rangle$  is a non-abelian group of order  $p^3$ .

Eg 1.6.3. Isometry of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ 

**Def 36** (Isometry). An isometry of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a function  $h: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  that preserves the distance between vectors.

 $h = t \circ k$  where t is translation, k is an isometry fixing the origin, i.e.  $k \in O(n)$ . Let T be the group of translations on  $R^n$ ,  $T \cong (R^n, +, 0), t \mapsto t(0)$ .

Let 
$$\tau: O(n) \to \operatorname{Aut}(T), A \mapsto L_A: R^n \to R^n, v \mapsto Av$$
  
 $\Longrightarrow \operatorname{Isom}(R^n) = O(n) \times_{\tau} R^n$ 

**Eg 1.6.4.** Quaternium  $Q_8 = \{\pm 1, \pm i, \pm j, \pm k\}$  is not a semi-deriect product of any two proper subgroups.

pf: since  $\{\pm 1\}$  is contained in any non-trivial subgroups, can't find  $H \cap K = \{1\}$ .

**Eg 1.6.5.** 
$$A_4, V_4 = \{1, (12)(34), (14)(23), (13)(24)\} \triangleleft A_4, V_4 \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$$

Let 
$$H = \langle (123) \rangle \cong C_3$$
, define  $\tau : H \to \operatorname{Aut}(V_4) \cong GL_2(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})$  (123)  $\mapsto (\bar{0}\bar{1}; \bar{1}\bar{1})$  so  $A_4 \cong C_3 \times_{\tau} V_4$ .

**Ex 1.6.2.** Construct  $D_n$  as a semi-direct product of  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  and  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ .

#### Ex 1.6.3.

- 1. Show that  $S_4$  is a semi-direct product of  $V_4$  and  $H = \{ \sigma \in S_4 | \sigma(4) = 4 \} \sim S_3$ .
- 2. Show that  $S_n$  is a semi-direct product of  $A_n$  and  $H = \langle (12) \rangle$ .

## Remark 10.

- $\operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}) \cong GL_2(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})$  (regarded as a vector space over  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ )
- $\operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}) \cong \operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}) \times \operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}) \cong C_{p-1} \times C_{q-1}$

#### 1.7 Week 7

### 1.7.1 Composition series

Ques: How to simplify a finite group G?

## Strategy:

- If  $G = \{1\}$ , then done.
- Otherwise, check whether G has a nontrivial proper normal subgroup.
- If no, then G is said to be a simple group.
- Otherwise, find a normal subgroup  $G_1$  as large as possible s.t.  $G/G_1$  is simple.
- If  $G_1$  is simple, then done.
- Otherwse, repeat above on  $G_1$  and get  $G_2, \ldots, G_n$  s.t.

$$G_n = \{1\} \triangleleft G_1 \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft G_1 \triangleleft G_0 = G$$
  $G_i/G_{i+1}$  is simple composition factors

Say "it is a composition series" with length(G) = n.

Hence simple groups can be regarded as basic building blocks of groups.

The classification of all finite simple groups is given as follows:

- 1.  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ , p is a prime.
- 2.  $A_n, n \ge 5$ .
- 3. simple groups of Lie type.
- 4. 26 sporadic simple groups.

Eg 1.7.1. 
$$G = S_4, G_1 = A_4, G_2 = V_4, G_3 = \langle (1\ 2)(3\ 4) \rangle, G_4 = \{1\} \rightsquigarrow \text{length}(S_4) = 4.$$
 factors:  $C_2, C_3, C_2, C_2$ .

Eg 1.7.2. 
$$G = \mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z} = \langle \bar{1} \rangle$$
.

- $G_1 = \langle \bar{2} \rangle, G_2 = \langle \bar{4} \rangle, G_3 = \langle \bar{0} \rangle \rightsquigarrow \text{length}(3), \text{ factors: } C_2, C_2, C_3.$
- $G_1' = \langle \bar{0} \rangle, G_2' = \langle \bar{6} \rangle, G_3' = \langle \bar{0} \rangle \leadsto \text{length}(3), \text{ factors: } C_2, C_3, C_2.$
- $G_1'' = \langle \bar{3} \rangle, G_2'' = \langle \bar{6} \rangle, G_3'' = \langle \bar{0} \rangle \rightsquigarrow \text{length}(3), \text{ factors: } C_3, C_2, C_2.$

**Eg 1.7.3.** Let 
$$|G| = p^n$$
. We know  $\forall 0 \le k \le n$ ,  $\exists G_k \triangleleft G$  with  $|G_k| = p^k$  and  $G_i \subsetneq G_{i+1}$ . length $(G) = n$ , factors:  $C_p, \ldots, C_p$ .  $(n \text{ times})$ 

**Theorem 14** (Jorden-Hölder theorem). If G has a composition series, then any two composition series have the same length and the same factors up to permutation.

**Lemma 1** (Zassenhaus lemma). Let  $H' \triangleleft H \leq G, K' \triangleleft K \leq G$ . Then  $(H \cap K')H' \triangleleft (H \cap K)H', (H' \cap K)K' \triangleleft (H \cap K)K'$  and

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

**Theorem 15** (Schreier theorem). Any two normal series of G have equivalent refinements. refinements: inserting a finite number of subgroups into the normal series.

*Proof.* For two normal series:

$$\{1\} = H_r \triangleleft H_{r-1} \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft H_1 \triangleleft H_0 = G$$

$$\{1\} = K_s \triangleleft K_{r-1} \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft K_1 \triangleleft K_0 = G$$

We define

$$H_{ij} = (H_i \cap K_j)H_{i+1}$$
$$K_{ji} = (H_i \cap K_j)K_{j+1}.$$

Then we have

$$\{1\} = H_{(r-1)s} \triangleleft H_{(r-1)(s-1)} \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft H_{(r-1)0} = H_{r-1} = H_{(r-2)s} \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft H_{10} = H_1 = H_{0s} \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft H_{00} = G$$

$$\{1\} = K_{(s-1)r} \triangleleft K_{(s-1)(r-1)} \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft K_{(s-1)0} = K_{s-1} = K_{(s-2)r} \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft K_{10} = K_1 = K_{0r} \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft K_{00} = G_{00} = G$$

Both have size 
$$= rs$$
. By lemma,  $H_{ij}/H_{i(j+1)} \cong K_{ji}/K_{j(i+1)}$ . Note that if  $H_{ij} = H_{i(j+1)}$ , then  $K_{ji} = K_{j(i+1)}$ .

proof of Jorden-Hölder theorem. Let

$$\begin{cases}
\{1\} = G_n \lhd \cdots \lhd G_1 \lhd G_0 = G & (*) \\
\{1\} = G'_m \lhd \cdots \lhd G'_1 \lhd G'_0 = G & (**)
\end{cases}$$

be two composition series.

By Schreier theorem, we get two refined equivalent series (\*)', (\*\*)'. Since (\*), (\*\*) are already composition series, (\*) = (\*)', (\*\*) = (\*\*)' So (\*), (\*\*) are equivalent.

proof of lemma. First prove  $(H \cap K')H' \triangleleft (H \cap K)H'$ .

• 
$$\forall g \in H \cap K, gK'g^{-1} = K' \leadsto (gHg^{-1}) \cap (gK'g^{-1}) = H \cap K' \text{ and } gH'g^{-1} = H'.$$
 So 
$$g(H \cap K')H'g^{-1} = (H \cap K')H'$$

•  $\forall g \in H', ab \in (H \cap K')H',$ 

To prove

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

$$(H \cap K)H'/(H \cap K')H' \cong (H \cap K)(H \cap K')H'/(H \cap K')H'$$

$$\cong (H \cap K)/(H \cap K) \cap (H \cap K')H'$$

$$\cong (H \cap K)/K \cap (H \cap K')H'$$

$$\cong (H \cap K)/(H' \cap K)(H \cap K')$$

 $(K \cap (H \cap K')H' = (H' \cap K)(H \cap K')$ , tricky) By symmetry,

$$(H \cap K)K'/(H' \cap K')K' \cong (H \cap K)/(H' \cap K)(H \cap K')$$

**Prop 1.7.1.** Let  $|G| < \infty$ . Then G is solvable  $\iff$  all composition factors are cyclic of prime order.

*Proof.* " $\Leftarrow$ ": by def.

"\Rightarrow": If 
$$G_i/G_{i+1} \cong C_n$$
 with  $n = p_1^{m_1} p_2^{m_2} \dots p_r^{m_r}$ .

**Observation.** Let  $K \triangleleft G$ . 把 K, G/K 拆成兩個 composition series 的話, 就可以把兩串接起來,長度就是加起來。

**Ex 1.7.1.** Let  $\{1\} = G_n \triangleleft G_{n-1} \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft G_1 \triangleleft G_0 = G$  be a composition series of G and  $K \triangleleft G$ . Then after we eliminate equalities,

- 1.  $\{1\} = (K \cap G_n) \triangleleft (K \cap G_{n-1}) \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft (K \cap G_1) \triangleleft (K \cap G_0) = K$  is a composition series of K.
- 2.  $\{\bar{1}\} = KG_n/K \triangleleft KG_{n-1}/K \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft KG_1/K \triangleleft KG_0/K = G/K$  is a composition series of G/K.

**Ex 1.7.2.** Let  $\begin{cases} H \lhd G \\ K \lhd G \end{cases}$  with  $H \neq K$  s.t. G/H, G/K are simple. Then  $H/H \cap K, K/K \cap H$  are simple too.

**Ex 1.7.3.** Let  $\{1\} = G_n \triangleleft G_{n-1} \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft G_1 \triangleleft G_0 = G$  be a composition series of length n. Show by induction on n that for every composition series of G:

$$\{1\} = H_m \triangleleft H_{n-1} \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft H_1 \triangleleft H_0 = G,$$

we have m = n and

$$\{H_{n-1}/H_n,\ldots,H_0/H_1\}=\{G_{n-1}/G_n,\ldots,G_0/G_1\}$$

**Ex 1.7.4.** Exhibit all composition series for  $Q_8, D_4, \mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$  respectively.

### 1.7.2 Modules over a PID

**Def 37.** Let R be a ring with 1. A R-modulue is an abelian group M (written additively) on which R acts linearly.  $R \times M \to M$   $(r, x) \mapsto rx$ 

- 1. r(x+y) = rx + ry  $r \in R, x, y \in M$
- 2.  $(r_1 + r_2)x = r_1x + r_2x$   $r_1, r_2 \in R, x \in M$
- 3.  $(r_1r_2)x = r_1(r_2x)$   $r_1, r_2 \in R, x \in M$
- $4. \ 1x = x \quad x \in M$

**Eg 1.7.4.** A k-vector space is a k-module.

**Eg 1.7.5.** An abelian group G can be regarded as a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module.

$$\mathbb{Z} \times G \to G$$

$$(n,a) \mapsto na \quad \text{by} \quad na = \begin{cases} \underbrace{a + \dots + a}_{n \text{ times}} & \text{if } n \ge 0 \\ \underbrace{(-a) + \dots + (-a)}_{n \text{ times}} & \text{if } n < 0 \end{cases}$$

**Eg 1.7.6.** Let *I* be an ideal of *R*. Then *I* can be regarded as an *R*-module since  $\forall r \in R, a \in I$ ,  $ra \in I$ .

**Def 38.** A submodule N of M is an additive subgroup of M s.t.  $\forall r \in R, a \in N, ra \in N$ .

**Prop 1.7.2.** Let  $\phi \neq S \subseteq M$ . The submodule generated by S is defined to be

$$\langle S \rangle_R = \left\{ \sum_{\text{finite}} r_i x_i \middle| x_i \in S, r_i \in R \right\} = \text{the least submodule containg } S$$
 
$$= \bigcap_{S \subset N \subset M} N$$

**Def 39.** An R-module M is said to be finitely generated if  $\exists x_1, \ldots, x_n \in M$  s.t.  $M = \langle x_1, \ldots, x_n \rangle_R = Rx_1 + Rx_2 + \ldots Rx_n$ 

**Eg 1.7.7.** R is generated by 1 as an R-module.

**Def 40.** An additive group homo.  $\varphi: M_1 \to M_2$  is called an R-module homo. if

$$\varphi(rx) = r\varphi(x) \quad \forall r \in R, x \in M_1$$

**Def 41.** An integral domain R is called a principal ideal domain (PID) if  $\forall I$  ideal in R,  $\exists a \in R$  s.t.  $I = \langle a \rangle_R$ .

**Eg 1.7.8.**  $\mathbb{Z}$  is a PID.

For  $I \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ , I is an additive subgroup, so  $I = m\mathbb{Z} = \langle m \rangle_{\mathbb{Z}}$ .

**Def 42.** M is said to be a free module of rank n if  $M \cong R^n = R \oplus \cdots \oplus R$  (or  $R \times \cdots \times R$ )

**Theorem 16.** If R is a PID, then any submodule of  $R^n$  is free of rank  $\leq n$ .

*Proof.* By induction on n. If n=1, notice that any submodule is an ideal I by the closure of submodule. Then since R is a PID,  $\forall I \subseteq R, \exists a \in R \text{ s.t. } I = \langle a \rangle_R = Ra \cong R \text{ (as a } R\text{-module)}.$ 

Let n > 1 and N be a submodule of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Consider

$$\pi_1: \frac{R^n \to R}{(r_1, \dots, r_n) \mapsto r_1} \quad \text{and} \quad \pi = \pi_1 \Big|_N: N \to R$$

case 1: Im  $\pi = \{0\}$ . In this case,  $N \subseteq \ker \pi_1 \cong \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ . By induction hypothesis, N is free of rank  $\leq n-1 < n$ .

case 2:  $\operatorname{Im} \pi = \langle a \rangle$ , say  $\pi(x) = a$ . Claim:  $N = Rx \oplus \ker \pi, \ker \pi \subseteq \ker \pi_1 \cong R^{n-1}$ .

- $Rx \cap \ker \pi = \{0\}$ :  $rx \in Rx \cap \ker \pi \implies \pi(rx) = 0$ , then  $r\pi(x) = 0$ . But integral domain doesn't have zero divisors, so r = 0 and hence rx = 0.
- $N \supseteq Rx \oplus \ker \pi$ : Obvious since  $Rx, \ker \pi \subseteq N$ .
- $N \subseteq Rx \oplus \ker \pi$ :  $\forall y \in N, \pi(y) = r_0 a$  for some  $r_0 \in R$ ,  $\pi(y r_0 x) = 0 \implies y r_0 x \in \ker \pi$ . So  $N \subseteq Rx \oplus \ker \pi$ .

Recall that the elementary matrices are

- $D_i(u) = \text{diag}(1, ..., 1, u, 1, ..., 1)$ .  $D_i(u) \in GL(n, R)$  if u is a unit.
- $B_{ij}(a) = I_n + ae_{ij}, a \in R, i \neq j.$   $B_{ij}(a)^{-1} = B_{ij}(-a) \implies B_{ij}(a) \in GL(n, R).$
- $P_{ij} = I_n e_{ii} e_{jj} + e_{ij} + e_{ji}$ .

**Fact 1.7.1.** If R is a PID and  $\langle a,b\rangle_R = \langle d\rangle_R$ , then  $d = \gcd(a,b)$ .

Proof.

- $a \in \langle d \rangle_R \implies a = rd$  for some  $r \in R \implies d \mid a. \ v \in \langle d \rangle_R \implies d \mid b.$
- Let  $c \mid a, c \mid b$ , say  $a = k_1 c, b = k_2 c.$   $d \in \langle a, b \rangle_R \implies d = x_1 a + x_2 b$  for some  $x_1, x_2 \in R$ . So  $d = x_1 k_1 c + x_2 k_2 c = (x_1 k_1 + x_2 k_2)c \implies c \mid d$ .

**Theorem 17.** Let R be a PID and  $A \in M_{n \times m}(R)$ . Then  $\exists P \in GL_n(R)$  and  $Q \in GL_m(R)$  s.t.

$$PAQ = \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & & & & & & \\ & d_2 & & & & & \\ & & \ddots & & & & \\ & & & d_r & & & \\ & & & 0 & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ with } d_i \mid d_{i+1} \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, r-1$$

*Proof.* Define the length l(a) of  $a \neq 0$  to be r if  $a = p_1 p_2 \dots p_r$  where  $p_1, \dots, p_r$  are prime elements. prime elements:  $p \mid ab \implies p \mid a$  or  $p \mid b$ .

- 1. We may assume  $a_{11} \neq 0$  and  $l(a_{11}) \leq l(a_{ij}) \forall a_{ij} \neq 0$ . (換一換就上去了...XD)
- 2. We may assume  $\begin{cases} a_{11} \mid a_{1k} & \forall \, k=2,\ldots,m \\ a_{11} \mid a_{k1} & \forall \, k=2,\ldots,n \end{cases}$ . If  $a_{11} \nmid a_{1k}$ , then we can interchange 2nd and kth columns to assume  $a=a_{11} \nmid a_{12}=b$ .

Let 
$$d = \gcd(a, b) \implies \begin{cases} l(d) < l(a) \\ d = ax + by \text{ for some } x, y \in R \end{cases} \implies 1 = \frac{a}{d}x + \frac{b}{d}y$$
. Write  $b' = \frac{b}{d}, a' = -\frac{a}{d}$ . Then 
$$\begin{pmatrix} -a' & b' \\ y & -x \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x & b' \\ y & a' \end{pmatrix} = I_2$$

反正就是移一下減掉,length 會一直變小 ⇒ 這個操作會停.

3. 有這個  $\begin{cases} a_{11} \mid a_{1k} & \forall \, k=2,\ldots,m \\ a_{11} \mid a_{k1} & \forall \, k=2,\ldots,n \end{cases}$  就可以全部消掉變成

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & b_{n2} & \dots & b_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

4. May assume  $a_{11} \mid b_{kl} \quad \forall \, k, l$ . 不是的話就把該 row 往第一 row 加上去,重複前面的操作, $l(a_{11})$  總是變小,因此會停.

5. 遞迴下去...

最後就弄出想要的矩陣了.

#### 1.8 Week 8

## 1.8.1 Fundamental theorem of finitely generated abelian groups

**Theorem 18** (Structure theorem of finitely generated module over a PID). Let R be a PID and M be a finitely generated R-module. Then  $M \cong R/d_1R \oplus \cdots \oplus R/d_lR \oplus R^s, d_i \in R$  with  $d_i \mid d_{i+1} \quad \forall i = 1, \ldots, l-1$  for some  $s \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $M = \langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle_R$  and consider

$$\varphi: R^n \to M$$
$$e_i \to x_i$$

By 1st isom. thm.,  $R^n/\ker \varphi \cong M$ .

We know  $\ker \varphi \cong R^m \ (e'_i \mapsto f_i, e'_i \in R^m)$  for some  $m \leq n$  and  $\forall x \in \ker \varphi \quad \exists ! x_1, \dots, x_m \in R \text{ s.t.}$  $x = \sum_{i=1}^m x_i f_i.$ 

Note that  $\ker \varphi \subseteq R^n$ . So we can write  $f_i = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ji} e_j \quad \forall i = 1, ..., m$ . Then  $x = \sum x_i \sum a_{ji} e_j = \sum (\sum a_{ji} x_i) e_j$ .

 $R \text{ is a PID} \implies \exists P \in GL_n(R), Q \in GL_m(R) \text{ s.t.}$ 

$$PAQ = \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & d_r & \\ & & 0 & \\ & & & \ddots \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{with} \quad d_i \mid d_{i+1} \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, r-1$$

So consider  $[w_i] = Qe_i$ . Since P, Q invertible,  $R^n = \bigoplus Rw_i$ ,  $\ker \varphi = \bigoplus d_iRw_i$  Hence

$$M \simeq R/ker\varphi = \bigoplus Rw_i/\bigoplus d_iRw_i = \bigoplus R/d_iR$$

 $R \rightarrow Rw_i/Rd_i'w_i$ 

 $1 \rightarrow \overline{w_i}$ 

 $r \rightarrow \overline{rw_i}$ 

**Remark 11.** If R is commutative, then " $R^n \cong R^m \implies n = m$ ."

**Theorem 19.** Let G be a finitely generated abelian group. Then Then  $G \cong \mathbb{Z}/d_1\mathbb{Z} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}/d_l\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}^s, d_i \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $d_i \mid d_{i+1} \quad \forall i = 1, \ldots, l-1$  for some  $s \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0}$ .

Since G can be regarded as a f.g.  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module and  $\mathbb{Z}$  is a PID, it follows from the main theorem.

 $\operatorname{Tor}(G) = \mathbb{Z}/d_1\mathbb{Z} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}/d_l\mathbb{Z} \leq G \text{ and } G/\operatorname{Tor}(G) \cong \mathbb{Z}^s \text{ (free part of } G).$ 

Fact 1.8.1. If  $d = p_1^{m_1} p_2^{m_2} \dots p_s^{m_s}$ , then  $\mathbb{Z}/d\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}/p_1^{m_1} \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/p_2^{m_2} \mathbb{Z} \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{Z}/p_s^{m_s} \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Theorem 20** (Chinese Remainder theorem). Let R be a commutative ring with 1 and  $I_1, \ldots, I_n$  be ideals of R. Then

$$\varphi: R \to R/I_1 \times \cdots \times R/I_n$$
 is a ring homo.  
 $r \mapsto (\overline{r}, \dots, \overline{r})$ 

and

- (1) if  $I_i, I_j$  are coprime  $\forall i \neq j$ , then  $I_1 I_2 \dots I_n = I_1 \cap I_2 \cap \dots \cap I_n$ .
- (2)  $\varphi$  is surjective  $\iff I_i, I_j$  are coprime  $\forall i \neq j$ .
- (3)  $\varphi$  is injective  $\iff I_1 \cap I_2 \cap \cdots \cap I_n = \{0\}.$

So if  $I_i, I_j$  are coprime  $\forall i \neq j$ , then

$$R/I_1I_2\dots I_n\cong R/I_1\times\dots\times R/I_n.$$

 $I_i, I_j$  are coprime  $\iff I_i + I_j = R$ .

*Proof.* we only need to prove (1), (2).

(1) By induction on n. n = 2, need  $I_1 \cap I_2 \subseteq I_1 I_2$ . Indeed,  $I_1 \cap I_2 = (I_1 \cap I_2)R = (I_1 \cap I_2)(I_1 + I_2) \subseteq I_1 I_2$ .

For n > 2, since  $I_i + I_n = R \quad \forall i = 1, ..., n - 1, \ \exists \ x_i \in I_i, y_i \in I_n \ \text{s.t.} \ x_i + y_i = 1 \quad \forall i = 1, ..., n - 1.$ 

So  $x_1x_2...x_{n-1} = (1-y_1)(1-y_2)...(1-y_{n-1}) = 1-y, y \in I_n \implies I_1I_2...I_{n-1} + I_n = R.$ Now,  $I_1I_2...I_n = (I_1...I_{n-1})I_n = (I_1...I_{n-1}) \cap I_n = I_1 \cap \cdots \cap I_n.$ 

(2) " $\Rightarrow$ ": WLOG, we may let  $I_i = I_1, I_j = I_2$ . We have  $x \in R$  s.t.

$$\varphi(x) = (\overline{1}, \overline{0}, \dots, \overline{0})$$
 i.e.  $\overline{x} = \overline{1}$  in  $R/I_1$ 

Write  $x \equiv 1 \pmod{I_1}$ . Since  $1 - x \in I_1, x \in I_2$  and  $(1 - x) + x = 1, I_1 + I_2 = R$ .

" $\Leftarrow$ ":  $\forall y \in \text{RHS}, y = (\overline{r_1}, \dots, \overline{r_n})$ . If we may find that  $x_i \in R$  s.t.  $\varphi(x_i) = (\overline{0}, \dots, \overline{1}, \overline{0}, \dots, \overline{0})$ , then

$$\varphi\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i x_i\right) = y$$

It is enough to show, for example,  $\exists x \in R \text{ s.t. } \varphi(x) = (\overline{1}, \overline{0}, \dots, \overline{0}).$ 

Since  $I_1 + I_i = R \quad \forall i = 2, ..., n, \exists x_i \in I_1, y_i \in I_i \text{ s.t. } x_i + y_i = 1 \forall i = 2, ..., n.$ 

So let  $x = y_2 \dots y_n = (1 - x_2) \dots (1 - x_n)$ . We have  $x \in I_2, \dots, I_n$  and  $x \equiv 1 \pmod{I_1}$ .

**Eg 1.8.1.** |G| = 72 and G is abelian:

$$72 = 2 \times 36 = 3 \times 24 = 2 \times 2 \times 18 = 6 \times 12 = 2 \times 6 \times 6$$

Invariant factors

Elementary divisors

**Def 43.** The exponent of G with  $|G| < \infty$  is

$$\operatorname{Exp}(G) := \min \left\{ m \in \mathbb{N} | g^m = 1 \quad \forall g \in G \right\}$$

Ex 1.8.1.

- 1. Let G be abelian with |G| = n. Show that if  $d \mid n$ , then  $\exists H \leq G$  s.t. |H| = d.
- 2. If n = 540, d = 90, then construct all possible G and corresponding H.

**Ex 1.8.2.** Let G be abelian with  $|G| < \infty$ . Show that G is cyclic  $\iff \operatorname{Exp}(G) = |G|$ .

**Ex 1.8.3.** Let  $f_i(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ , i = 1, ..., k with deg  $f_i = d$  and  $p_1, ..., p_k$  be distinct primes. Show that  $\exists f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  with deg f = d s.t.  $\overline{f}(x) = \overline{f_i}(x)$  in  $\mathbb{Z}/p_i\mathbb{Z}[x]$   $\forall i = 1, ..., k$ .  $f(x) = a_d x^d + \cdots + a_0, \overline{f}(x) = \overline{a_d} x^d + \cdots + \overline{a_0}$ 

### 1.8.2 Sylow theorems

**Def 44.** Let  $|G| = p^{\alpha}r$  with  $p \nmid r$ .

- 1. If  $H \leq G$  with  $|H| = p^{\alpha}$ , then we call H a Sylow p-subgroup of G.
- 2.  $\operatorname{Syl}_{p}(G) = \operatorname{the set}$  of all Sylow p-subgroups of G.
- 3.  $n_p = |\operatorname{Syl}_p(G)|$ .

**Lemma 2** (Key lemma). Let  $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_p(G)$  and Q be a p-subgroup of G. Then  $Q \cap N_G(P) = Q \cap P$ .

*Proof.* By Lagrange theorem,  $H = Q \cap N_G(P)$  is also a p-subgroup of  $N_G(P)$  since  $|H| \mid |Q|$ .

Since 
$$\begin{cases} P \lhd N_G(P) \\ H \leq N_G(P) \end{cases} \implies HP \leq N_G(P), \text{ we have}$$

$$|HP| = \frac{|H||P|}{|H \cap P|} = p^{\alpha + k - s}$$

where  $|H \cap P| = p^s, s \leq k$ . Then  $p^{\alpha+k-s} \mid |N_G(P)| \mid |G| = p^{\alpha}r$ .

So 
$$k = s \implies H = H \cap P \implies H \le P \cap Q$$
.

**Theorem 21** (Sylow I).  $\forall 0 \le k \le \alpha, \exists H \le G \text{ s.t. } |H| = p^k. \text{ In particular, Syl}_n(G) \ne \emptyset.$ 

*Proof.* By induction on |G|. If |G| = 1, then k = 0,  $H = \{1\}$ .

Assume  $|G| > 1, k \ge 1, \alpha \ge 1$ .

case 1:  $p \mid |Z_G|$ . By Cauchy theorem,  $\exists a \in Z_G$  with  $\operatorname{ord}(a) = p$ . Then  $\langle a \rangle \triangleleft G$  and  $|G/\langle a \rangle| = p^{\alpha-1}r \leq |G|$ . If k = 1, then  $H = \langle a \rangle$ . Otherwise, we may assume that  $1 \leq k - 1 \leq \alpha - 1$ . By induction hypothesis,  $\exists H' = G/\langle a \rangle$  s.t.  $|H'| = p^{k-1}$ . By 3rd isom. thm., we can write  $H' = H/\langle a \rangle$  and thus  $|H| = p^k$ .

case 2:  $p \nmid |Z_G|$ . By the class equation,  $|G| = |Z_G| + \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{|G|}{|Z_G(a_i)|}, a_i \in Z_G$ .

In this cases,  $\exists a_j$  s.t.  $p \not \mid \frac{|G|}{|Z_G(a_j)|} \implies p^{\alpha} \mid |Z_G(a_j)|$ . And  $Z_G(a_j) \subsetneq G$  since  $a_j \notin Z_G$ . By induction hypothesis,  $\exists H \leq Z_G(a_j) \leq G$  s.t.  $|H| = p^k$ .

**Theorem 22** (Sylow II). Let  $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_p(G)$  and Q be a p-subgroup of G. Then  $\exists a \in G$  s.t.  $Q \leq aPa^{-1}$ . In particular,  $\forall P_1, P_2 \in \operatorname{Syl}_p(G), \exists a \in G$  s.t.  $P_2 = aP_1a^{-1}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $X = \{ \text{ left cosets of } P \}$  and consider  $Q \times X \to X$  $(a, xP) \mapsto axP$ .

Observe that  $xP \in \text{Fix } Q \iff axP = xP \quad \forall \, a \in Q \iff x^{-1}axP = P \quad \forall \, a \in Q \iff x^{-1}ax \in P \quad \forall \, a \in Q \iff a \in xPx^{-1} \quad \forall \, a \in Q.$ 

We know  $|\operatorname{Fix} Q| \equiv |X| \pmod{p}$  and  $p \nmid r \implies |\operatorname{Fix} Q| \neq 0 \iff \exists a \in G, Q \leq aPa^{-1}$ .

In particular, 
$$\begin{cases} P_2 \le aP_1a^{-1} \\ |P_2| = |aP_1a^{-1}| \end{cases} \implies P_2 = aP_1a^{-1}.$$

**Theorem 23** (Sylow III).  $n_p \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  and  $n_p \mid r$ .

$$Proof. \qquad \bullet \ \, \text{Consider} \ \, \begin{pmatrix} P \times \operatorname{Syl}_p(G) \to \operatorname{Syl}_p(G) \\ (a, Q) \mapsto aQa^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \text{ where } P \in \operatorname{Syl}_p(G).$$

$$P' \in \operatorname{Fix} P \iff aP'a^{-1} = P' \quad \forall \ a \in P \iff P \leq N_G(P') \cap P = P' \cap P \iff P' = P.$$

So Fix 
$$P = \{P\} \implies n_p \equiv |\operatorname{Fix} P| = 1 \pmod{p}$$
.

$$\bullet \ \ \text{Consider} \ \begin{array}{c} G \times \operatorname{Syl}_p(G) \to \operatorname{Syl}_p(G) \\ (a, \quad Q) \mapsto aQa^{-1} \end{array} \implies \text{There is only one orbit } \operatorname{Syl}_p(G).$$

We know 
$$|\operatorname{Syl}_p(G)| = \frac{|G|}{|G_Q|}$$
 and  $G_Q = N_G(Q)$ . Then  $n_p = \frac{|G|}{|G_Q|} \mid |G|$ . So  $n_p \mid p^{\alpha}r \implies n_p \mid r$ .

**Prop 1.8.1.** Let 
$$|G| = pq$$
 where  $p, q$  are primes with  $\begin{cases} p < q \\ q \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p} \end{cases}$ . Then  $G \cong C_{pq}$ .

*Proof.* 
$$n_p = 1 + kp \mid q \implies n_p = 1 \text{ i.e. } H \in \operatorname{Syl}_p(G) \implies H \triangleleft G.$$

$$n_q = 1 + kq \mid p \implies n_q = 1 \text{ i.e. } K \in \operatorname{Syl}_q(G) \implies K \lhd G.$$

Since 
$$gcd(p,q) = 1$$
,  $H \cap K = 1$ . Hence  $G = H \times K \cong C_p \times C_q \cong C_{pq}$ .

**Eg 1.8.2.** Consider  $|G| = 255 = 3 \times 5 \times 17$ .

- 1. 找兩個 normal subgroup (17, 5 or 3)
- 2. quot 掉後發現剩下的是 abelian  $\leadsto$  [G, G] 在裡面
- 3. [G, G] = 1
- 4. 唱 f.g. xxx thm. 得到  $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_5 \times \mathbb{Z}_{17}$ .
- 5. 中國剩飯定理  $G \cong C_{255}$ .

**Ex 1.8.4.** If  $|G| = 7 \times 11 \times 19$ , then *G* is abelian.

Eg 1.8.3. No group G of order  $48 = 2^4 \times 3$  is simple.

- 1.  $n_2 = 1 + 2k \mid 3 \leadsto n_2 = 1 \text{ or } 3.$
- 2.  $n_2 = 1$  then OK.
- 3. Assume  $n_2 = 3$ . Let  $P \in \text{Syl}_2(G), X = \{ \text{ left cosets of } P \} (|X| = 3)$ .
- 4. Consider  $(A, xP) \mapsto axP \rightsquigarrow \varphi : G \to S_3$ .
- 5. 考慮 ker φ.

**Ex 1.8.5.** No group G of order 36 is simple.

**Ex 1.8.6.** No group G of order 30 is simple.

**Ex 1.8.7.** Let |G| = 385. Show that  $\exists P \in \text{Syl}_7(G)$  s.t.  $P \leq Z_G$ .

#### 1.9 Week 9

#### 1.9.1 Classification

To classify groups of small orders:

- |G| = 1:  $G = \{1\}$
- |G|=2:  $G\cong C_2$
- |G| = 3:  $G \cong C_3$
- |G| = 4:  $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_4$  or  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$
- |G| = 5:  $G \cong C_5$
- |G|=6:  $n_3=1, n_2=1$  or 3. Let  $H\in \mathrm{Syl}_3(G)$  and  $H\triangleleft G$ . Let  $K\in \mathrm{Syl}_2(G)$ . Also  $H\cap K=\{1\}$  and HK=G then  $G\cong K\times_{\tau}H$ 
  - If  $\tau$  is trivial:  $G \cong K \times H \cong C_2 \times C_3 \cong C_6$
  - $-\tau:b\mapsto\phi_2:\langle a\rangle\to\langle a\rangle\colon G\cong K\times_\tau H\cong\langle a,b\mid a^3=1,b^2=1,bab^{-1}=a^2=a^{-1}\rangle\cong D_3$
- |G| = 7:  $G \cong C_7$
- |G| = 8:
  - If abelian:  $\mathbb{Z}_8$  or  $\mathbb{Z}_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$  or  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$
  - If non-abelian:
    - \*  $\not\exists a \in G \text{ with } \operatorname{ord}(a) = 8$
    - \* Not each  $a \in G$  with  $a^2 = 1$ , otherwise G is abelian.
    - \*  $\exists a \in G \text{ with } \operatorname{ord}(a) = 4$ : Let  $H = \langle a \rangle$  and  $H \triangleleft G \text{ since } [G : H] = 2$ . Pick  $b \in G \setminus H$  and  $K = \langle b \rangle$ 
      - · ord(b) = 2:  $H \cap K = \{1\}$  and HK = G then  $G \cong K \times_{\tau} H$ ,  $\tau : b \mapsto \phi : a \mapsto a^3 : G \cong K \times_{\tau} H \cong \langle a, b \mid a^4 = 1, b^2 = 1, bab^{-1} = a^3 = a^{-1} \rangle \cong D_4$
      - · ord(b) = 4:  $H \cap K = \langle a^2 = b^2 \rangle$ . Then consider  $bab^{-1} \in H \implies bab^{-1} = 1, a, a^2, a^3$ 
        - 1. 1, a obviously wrong.
        - 2.  $bab^{-1} = a^2$ :  $a = a^2aa^{-2} = b^2ab^{-2} = a^4 \implies a^3 = 1$  矛盾
        - 3. So  $bab^{-1} = a^3 = a^{-1}$ .

$$G \cong \langle a, b \mid a^4 = 1, b^4 = 1, a^2 = b^2, bab^{-1} = a^3 = a^{-1} \rangle \cong Q_8$$

- |G| = 9:  $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_9$  or  $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_3$
- |G| = 10:  $G \cong K \times H \cong C_2 \times C_5 \cong C_{10}$  or  $G \cong D_5$
- |G| = 11:  $G \cong C_{11}$
- |G|=12: Claim: If |G|=12, then either G has a normal Sylow 3-subgroup or  $G\cong A_4$ .

*Proof.* By Sylow 3,  $n_3 = 1 + 3k \mid 4 \implies n_3 = 1$  or 4.

- If  $n_3 = 1$ , then G has a normal Sylow 3-subgroup.
- Otherwise, let  $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_3(G)$  and  $X = \{ \text{left cosets of } P \}$ , |X| = 4. Consider  $G \times X \to X$  defined by  $(a, xP) \mapsto axP$  with  $\phi : G \to S_4$ . And  $\ker \phi \leq P$ , |P| = 3 and  $P \not \lhd G$  (since  $n_3 = 4$ ), so  $\ker \phi = \{1\}$ .

And since  $n_3=4$ , there are 8 elements of order 3 which corresponds to 8 3-sycles in  $A_4$ , thus  $|\operatorname{Im} \phi \cap A_4| \geq 8$ . But  $|\operatorname{Im} \phi \cap A_4| \mid |A_4| = 12 \implies \operatorname{Im} \phi = A_4$ 

Now, for the case where  $\exists H \in \mathrm{Syl}_3(G)$  and  $H \triangleleft G$ . Let  $K \in \mathrm{Syl}_2(G)$ , then  $K \cap H = \{1\}$  and  $KH = G \implies G \cong K \times_{\tau} H$  for some  $\tau : K \to \mathrm{Aut}(H) = \{\mathrm{id}, \phi_2\}$ 

- $-\tau$  is trivial:  $\mathbb{Z}_{12}$  or  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_6$ .
- $-\langle b \rangle = K \cong \mathbb{Z}_4: \ \tau(b) = \phi_2 \implies G = \langle a, b \mid a^3 = 1, b^4 = 1, bab^{-1} = a^{-1} \rangle \not\cong D_6, A_4$
- $-\langle b \rangle = K \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ : Let  $K = \langle b, c \mid b^2 = 1, c^2 = 1, bc = cb \rangle$ , then  $\tau : b \mapsto \phi_2$  and  $c \mapsto id$  (the other cases are equivalent to this one),  $G = \langle a, b, c \mid a^3 = 1, b^2 = 1, c^2 = 1, bc = cb, bab^{-1} = a^{-1}, cac^{-1} = a \rangle \cong \langle a, b \mid a^3 = 1, b^2 = 1, bab^{-1} = a^{-1} \rangle \times \langle c \rangle \cong D_3 \times C_2 \cong D_6$

Fact 1.9.1. For odd  $n, D_{2n} \cong D_n \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ .

Proof.

$$D_{2n} = \langle a, b \mid a^{2n} = 1, b^2 = 1, bab^{-1} = a^{-1} \rangle$$

$$H = \langle a^2, b \mid (a^2)^n = 1, b^2 = 1, b(a^2)b^{-1} = a^{-2} \rangle \cong D_n$$

$$K = \langle a^n \rangle \cong C_2$$

And n is odd, so  $H \cap K = \{1\}$  and  $D_{2n} \cong D_n \times C_2$ 

- |G| = 13:  $G \cong C_{13}$
- |G| = 14:  $G \cong C_{14}$  or  $D_7$
- |G| = 15:  $G \cong C_{15}$

**Ex 1.9.1.** Assume that K is cyclic and H is an arbitrary group. Let  $\tau_1: K \to \operatorname{Aut}(H)$ ,  $\tau_2: K \to \operatorname{Aut}(H)$  with  $\tau_1(K) \sim \tau_2(K)$  (conjugate). If  $|K| = \infty$ , then assume that  $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$  are injective. Show that  $K \times_{\tau_1} H \cong K \times_{\tau_2} H$ .

**Ex 1.9.2.** Classify G if  $|G| = p^3$  with p an odd prime and each nontrivial element of G has order p.

Ex 1.9.3. Classify groups of order 30.

# 1.9.2 Free groups

A free group generate by a non-empty set X is that there are no relations satisfied by any of elements in X.

**Def 45.** A free group on X is a group F with an inclusion map  $i: X \to F$  satisfying the following universal property: For any group G and any map  $f: X \to G$ , exists a unique group homo  $\varphi: F \to G$  that the following diagram commutes.



**Theorem 24.** F exists and is unique up to isomorphism. (Denote it as F(X) = F).

*Proof.* For X, we create a new disjoint set  $X^{-1} = \{x^{-1} : x \in X\}$  and an element  $1 \notin X \cup X^{-1}$ .

Define 
$$F(X) = \{1\} \cup \left\{ x_1^{\delta_1} x_2^{\delta_2} \cdots x_m^{\delta_m} : m \in \mathbb{N}, x_i \in X, \delta_i = \pm 1, x_{i+1}^{\delta_{i+1}} \neq \left( x_i^{\delta_i} \right)^{-1} \right\}$$
, and

$$x_1^{\delta_1} x_2^{\delta_2} \cdots x_m^{\delta_m} = y_1^{\epsilon_1} y_2^{\epsilon_2} \cdots y_m^{\epsilon_m} \iff n = m \text{ and } \delta_i = \epsilon_i \text{ and } x_i = y_i, \forall i$$

For each  $y \in X \cup X^{-1}$ , we define  $\sigma_y : F(X) \to F(X)$  by

$$\sigma_y(x_1^{\delta_1} x_2^{\delta_2} \cdots x_m^{\delta_m}) = \begin{cases} y x_1^{\delta_1} x_2^{\delta_2} \cdots x_m^{\delta_m} & \text{if } x_1^{\delta_1} \neq y^{-1} \\ x_1^{\delta_1} x_2^{\delta_2} \cdots x_m^{\delta_m} & (m \ge 2) \\ 1 & (m = 1) \end{cases} \quad \text{if } x_1^{\delta_1} = y^{-1}$$

Then  $\sigma_y$  is a permutation of F(X), since if  $\sigma_y(x_1^{\delta_1}x_2^{\delta_2}\cdots x_m^{\delta_m}) = \sigma_y(y_1^{\epsilon_1}y_2^{\epsilon_2}\cdots y_m^{\epsilon_m})$ .

 $\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{m}=\mathbf{n} \colon \text{ either } x_1^{\delta_1}=y_1^{\epsilon_1}=y^{-1} \text{ or not, then either } x_2^{\delta_1}x_3^{\delta_2}\cdots x_m^{\delta_m}=y_2^{\epsilon_1}y_3^{\epsilon_2}\cdots y_m^{\epsilon_m} \text{ or } yx_1^{\delta_1}x_2^{\delta_2}\cdots x_m^{\delta_m}=yy_1^{\epsilon_1}y_2^{\epsilon_2}\cdots y_m^{\epsilon_m}. \end{array}$ 

m = n+2: Omimi

Also  $\sigma_y$  is onto since omimi. And notice that  $\sigma_{y^{-1}} \circ \sigma_y = id_{F(X)}$ 

Define  $A = \langle \sigma_x : x \in X \rangle \leq S_{F(X)}$ . and define  $\phi : F(X) \to A$  by  $\phi(1) = id_{F(X)}$  and  $x_1^{\delta_1} \cdots x_m^{\delta_m} \mapsto \sigma_{x_1}^{\delta_1} \cdots \sigma_{x_m}^{\delta_m}$ . The it is omimi that  $\phi$  is a bijection. So we define  $x :: X \cdot y :: X = \phi^{-1}(\phi(x) \circ \phi(y))$ .

The  $\phi$  in the universal property could be defined as  $\phi(x_1^{\delta_1}x_2^{\delta_2}\cdots x_m^{\delta_m})=f(x_1)^{\delta_1}\cdots f(x_m)^{\delta_m}$ .  $\square$ 

**Prop 1.9.1.** Let  $G = \langle a_1, \ldots, a_n \rangle$  and  $X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_m\}$ . Then  $G \cong F(X)/K$  for some normal subgroup K. K is called the subgroup of relations connecting the generators.

Define  $f = x_i :: X_i \to a_i :: G$ . By universal property,  $\exists \phi = x_i :: F(X) \mapsto a_i :: G$ . Then  $F(x)/\ker \phi \cong G$ .

**Def 46.** Let  $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  and  $R \subset F(X)$ . Let N(R) be the smallest normal subgroup of F(X) containing R, Then G = F(X)/N(R) is written as  $\langle x_1, \dots, x_n |$  elements of  $R \rangle$ , which is called a presentation of G. If  $|R| < \infty$ , then G is said to be finitely presented.

## Eg 1.9.1.

$$D_n = \left\langle \begin{bmatrix} \cos\frac{2\pi}{n} & -\sin\frac{2\pi}{n} \\ \sin\frac{2\pi}{n} & \cos\frac{2\pi}{n} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \right\rangle$$

We find that  $x^n, y^2, xyxy \in \ker \phi$ . Then  $R = \{x^n, y^2, xyxy\} \subseteq \ker \phi \implies N(R) \le \ker \phi$ . By factor theorem,  $\exists \ \phi :: F(X)/N(R) \to D_n$ . But notice that

since  $xyxy=1 \implies xy=yx^{-1}$ , so every element could be turn into  $x^iy^j$ . Hence  $\bar{\phi}$  is an isomorphism.

**Prop 1.9.2.** Let  $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ . Then  $F(X)/[F(X), F(X)] \cong \mathbb{Z}^n$ .

Proof. Define  $f = x_i :: X \mapsto e_i :: \mathbb{Z}^n$ . Then  $\phi = x_i :: F(X) \mapsto e_i :: \mathbb{Z}^n$ . By 1st isomorphism theorem  $F(X)/\ker \phi \cong \mathbb{Z}^n$  which is abelian, so  $[F(X), F(X)] \leq \ker \phi$ . By factor theorem, 一個元圖.

Claim that  $\bar{\phi}$  is 1-1.

Proof. Since F(X)/[F(X),F(X)] is abelian,  $\forall a \in F(X)/[F(X),F(X)]$ , we can write  $a=\bar{x}_1^{n_1}\bar{x}_2^{n_2}\cdots\bar{x}_m^{n_m}$ . If  $\bar{\phi}(\bar{a})=(m_1,\cdots,m_n)=0$  in  $\mathbb{Z}^n$ , then  $m_i=0, \, \forall \, i \implies a=1$ 

# 2 Multilinear algebra

#### 2.1 Week 11

#### 2.1.1 Bilinear forms & Groups preserving bilinear forms

**Def 47.** Let V be a vector space over a field F.

• A function  $f: V \times V \to F$  is called a bilinear form if

$$\begin{cases} f(rx_1 + x_2, y) &= rf(x_1, y) + f(x_2, y) \\ f(x, ry_1 + y_2) &= rf(x, y_1) + f(x, y_2) \end{cases} \quad \forall x_1, x_2, x, y_1, y_2, y \in V, r \in F$$

•  $B_F(V,V) = \{ \text{ bilinear forms on } V \}$  can be regarded as a vector space over F.

**Theorem 25.** Let dim V = n and  $\beta = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  be a basis for V. Then  $\exists$  an isomorphism  $\psi_{\beta}: B_F(V, V) \to M_{n \times n}(F)$ .

*Proof.* For 
$$v, w \in V$$
, write  $v = \sum_i a_i v_i, w = \sum_j b_j v_j$ , i.e.  $[v]_\beta = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix}, [w]_\beta = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix}$ .

For 
$$f \in B_F(V, V)$$
,  $f(v, w) = \sum_i \sum_j a_i b_j f(v_i, v_j) = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & \dots & a_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} f(v_i, v_j) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix}$ .

Define  $\psi_{\beta}(f) = A$  with  $A_{ij} = f(v_i, v_j)$ .

- $\psi_{\beta}$  is a linear transformation.
- $\psi_{\beta}$  is 1-1.
- $\psi_{\beta}$  is onto:  $\forall A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$ , we define  $f(v, w) = [v]_{\beta}^t A[w]_{\beta}$ .

**Def 48.** Let  $f \in B_F(V, V)$ 

- f is said to be symmetric if  $f(v, w) = f(w, v) \quad \forall v, w \in V$ .
- f is said to be skew-symmetric if  $f(v, w) = -f(w, v) \quad \forall v, w \in V$ .
- f is said to be alternating if  $f(v, v) = 0 \quad \forall v \in V$ .

#### Remark 12.

- Alternating  $\implies$  skew-symmetric.
- If char  $F \neq 2$ , skew-symmetric  $\implies$  alternating.
- If char F = 2, symmetric = skew-symmetric.
- $\forall f \in B_F(V, V)$  with char  $F \neq 2$ ,

$$f_s(u, v) = \frac{1}{2} (f(u, v) + f(v, u))$$
$$f_a(u, v) = \frac{1}{2} (f(u, v) - f(v, u))$$

and  $f(u, v) = f_s(u, v) + f_a(u, v)$ .

So we only need to study "symmetric" & "alternating".

#### Ex 2.1.1.

1. If A and B are congruent  $(B = Q^t A Q)$  in  $M_{n \times n}(F)$ , then they define the same bilinear form.

2. 
$$f$$
 is  $\begin{cases} \text{symmetric} \\ \text{skew-symmetric} \end{cases} \iff \psi_{\beta}(f)$  is  $\begin{cases} \text{symmetric}(A^t = A) \\ \text{skew-symmetric}(A^t = -A) \end{cases}$ 

**Observation.** Let  $f \in B_F(V, V)$  and  $v_0 \in V$ .

$$L_f(v_0) = f(v_0,\cdot) \in V' = \operatorname{Hom}(V,F) : \text{the dual space of } V$$
 
$$R_f(v_0) = f(\cdot,v_0) \in V'$$

The left radical of  $f : \operatorname{lrad}(f) = N(L_f) = \{ v \in V \mid f(v, w) = 0 \quad \forall w \in V \}.$ 

The right radical of  $f: \operatorname{rrad}(f) = N(R_f) = \{ w \in V \mid f(v, w) = 0 \quad \forall v \in V \}.$ 

#### Ex 2.1.2.

- 1.  $\operatorname{rank}(\psi_{\beta}(f)) = \operatorname{rank}(R_f) = \operatorname{rank}(L_f)$ .
- 2. If dim V = n, then TFAE ( $\implies f$ : non degenerate)
  - (a) rank(f) = n.
  - (b)  $\forall v \in V, v \neq 0, \exists w \in V \text{ s.t. } f(v, w) \neq 0.$
  - (c)  $lrad(f) = \{0\}.$
  - (d)  $L_f: V \to V'$  is isom.

(also, right)

**Theorem 26** (Principal Axis theorem). Let  $\dim V = n$  and  $\operatorname{char} F \neq 2$ . If  $f \in B_F(V, V)$  is symmetric, then  $\exists \beta$  s.t.  $\psi_{\beta}(f)$  is diagonal.

*Proof.* It is sufficient to find  $\beta = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  s.t.  $f(v_i, v_j) = 0 \quad \forall i \neq j$ .

If f = 0, then done! Assume  $f \neq 0$ . By induction on n: If n = 1, done. Let n > 1.

Claim 1:  $\exists v_1 \in V \text{ s.t. } f(v_1, v_1) \neq 0.$  Assume that  $f(v, v) = 0 \quad \forall v \in V.$ 

$$f(v,w) = \frac{1}{2} (f(v+w,v+w) - f(v,v) - f(w,w)) = 0.$$

So f = 0, which is a contradiction.

Now let  $v_1 \in V$  with  $f(v_1, v_1) \neq 0$ . Let  $W = \langle v_1 \rangle_F$  and  $W^{\perp} = \{ w \in V \mid f(v_1, w) = 0 \} \subseteq V$ .

Claim 2:  $V = W \oplus W^{\perp}$ 

- $V = W + W^{\perp}$ : For all  $v \in V$ , let  $a = f(v, v_1)/f(v_1, v_1)$ , then  $v = av_1 + (v av_1) \triangleq w + w'$  where  $w \in W$  and  $f(w', v_1) = f(v av_1, v_1) = f(v, v_1) af(v_1, v_1) = 0$ . So  $w' \in W^{\perp}$  and thus  $V = W + W^{\perp}$ .
- $W \cap W^{\perp} = \{0\}$ : obviously since if  $av_1 \in W$ ,  $f(av_1, v_1) = 0 \iff a = 0 \iff av_1 = 0$ .

Since  $f\Big|_{W^{\perp}\times W^{\perp}}$  is a symmetric bilinear form on  $W^{\perp}$  and  $\dim W^{\perp} < \dim V$ . By induction hypothesis,  $\exists \{v_2, \dots, v_n\}$  a basis for  $W^{\perp}$  s.t.  $f(v_i, v_j) = 0 \quad \forall i \neq j$ . Then  $\beta = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The argument in class requires char  $F \geq 4$ , omimi...

**Theorem 27** (Sylvester's theorem). Let  $f \in B_{\mathbb{R}}(V, V)$  be symmetric with dim V = n. Then  $\exists \beta$ 

$$\text{s.t. } \psi_{\beta}(f) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & & & & \\ & & 1 & & & & & \\ & & & -1 & & & & \\ & & & & \ddots & & & \\ & & & & & 0 & & \\ & & & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The triple (# of 1, # of -1, # of 0) is well-defined. (called the signature of f)

*Proof.* Assume  $V^+ = \langle v_1, \dots, v_p \rangle_F, V^- = \langle v_{p+1}, \dots, v_r \rangle_R, V^\perp = \langle v_{r+1}, \dots, v_n \rangle_F.$   $(V = V^+ \oplus V^- \oplus V^\perp)$ 

Claim: If W is a subspace of V s.t. f is positive-definite on W, then  $W, V^-, V^{\perp}$  are independent. Let  $\langle w_1, w_2, \cdots, w_s \rangle$  be a basis of W. If

$$a_1w_1 + a_2w_2 + \dots + a_sw_s = b_{p+1}v_{p+1} + \dots + b_rv_r + c_{r+1}v_{r+1} + \dots + c_nv_n.$$

Let  $w \triangleq a_1w_1 + \cdots + a_sw_s, v \triangleq b_{p+1}v_{p+1} + \cdots + b_rv_r + c_{r+1}v_{r+1} + \cdots + c_nv_n$ . Since w = v, f(w,w) = f(v,v). but  $f(w,w) = \sum a_i^2 \geq 0$  and  $f(v,v) = -\sum b_i^2 \leq 0$ . Hence  $a_i = 0, b_i = 0$ . Since  $v_{r+1}, \cdots, v_n$  is linearly independent,  $c_i = 0$ . Therefor these vectors are linear independent.

**Ex 2.1.3.** Let  $f \in B_F(V, V)$  with char  $F \neq 2$ . If f is skew-symmetric, then  $\exists \beta$  s.t.

Ex 2.1.4. Study Hermitian form

 $T: V \xrightarrow{\sim} V, f \in B_F(V, V)$ . T preserves f if  $f(\mathsf{T}(v), \mathsf{T}(w)) = f(v, w) \quad \forall v, w \in V$ . In matrix form, let  $\beta$  be a basis for  $V, M = [\mathsf{T}]_{\beta}, A = \psi_{\beta}(f)$ , then  $A = M^t A M$ .

•  $f \in B_{\mathbb{R}}(V, V)$  symmetric, non-degenerate:  $\exists \beta$  s.t.  $\psi_{\beta}(f) = \begin{pmatrix} I_p \\ -I_q \end{pmatrix}$ .

Then  $\{\mathsf{T}: V \xrightarrow{\sim} V \text{ preserves } f\} \leftrightarrow \left\{M \in \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R}) \middle| M^t \begin{pmatrix} I_p \\ -I_q \end{pmatrix} M = \begin{pmatrix} I_p \\ -I_q \end{pmatrix}\right\} = \mathrm{O}(p,q)$ .

•  $f \in B_{\mathbb{R}}(V, V)$  skew-symmetric, non-degenerate: n = 2k,  $\exists \beta$  s.t.  $\psi_{\beta}(f) = J$ . Then  $\{ \mathsf{T} : V \xrightarrow{\sim} V \text{ preserves } f \} \leftrightarrow \{ M \in \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R}) | M^t J M = J \}$ , where

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & I_k \\ -I_k & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

#### 2.1.2 Tensor product

From now on, R is assumed to be commutative with 1.

**Def 49.** Let  $M_1, \ldots, M_n, L$  be R-modules.

A function  $F: M_1 \times \cdots \times M_n \to L$  is said to be *n*-multilinear if  $\forall i$ ,

$$f(x_1, ..., rx_i + x_i', ..., x_n) = rf(x_1, ..., x_i, ..., x_n) + f(x_1, ..., x_i', ..., x_n) \quad \forall r \in R, x_i, x_i' \in M_i$$

If n = 2, f is called a bilinear map.

**Def 50.** Let M, N be R-modules. A tensor product of M and N is an R-module  $M \otimes_R N$  with a bilinear map  $\rho: M \times N \to M \otimes_R N$  satisfying the following universal property:

for any R-module W and any bilinear map  $f: M \times N \to W, \exists ! R$ -module homomorphism  $\varphi: M \otimes_R N \to W,$ 

$$M \times N \xrightarrow{\rho} M \otimes_R N$$

$$\downarrow^{\varphi}$$

$$W$$

**Theorem 28** (Main theorem).  $M \otimes_R N$  exists and is unique up to isom.

*Proof.* Let  $X = M \times N$ . First we construct the free module  $V_1 = \bigoplus_{(x,y) \in X} R \cdot (x,y)$ .

Notice that in  $V_1$ ,

- $(x_1, y_1) + (x_2, y_2) \neq (x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2).$
- $r(x,y) \neq (rx,ry)$ .
- $r(r_1(x_1, y_1) + \cdots + r_n(x_n, y_n)) = rr_1(x_1, y_1) + \cdots + rr_n(x_n, y_n)$ .

Let 
$$V_0 = \left\langle \begin{array}{c} (x_1 + x_2, y) - (x_1, y) - (x_2, y), \\ (x, y_1 + y_2) - (x, y_1) - (x, y_2), \\ r(x, y) - (rx, y), r(x, y) - (x, ry) \end{array} \right| x_1, x_2, x \in M, y_1, y_2, y \in N, r \in R \right\rangle_R.$$

Define  $M \otimes_R N = V_1/V_0$  which is an R-module and  $\rho: M \times N \to M \otimes_R N$  which is R-bilinear. (check yourself)

Universal property:  $\forall (x,y) \in M \times N$ ,  $R(x,y) \to W$  $r(x,y) \mapsto rf(x,y)$ . So, by the universal property of  $\oplus$ ,  $\exists$ ! R-module homo.  $\varphi_1: V_1 \to W$ :

$$M \times N \xrightarrow{i} V_1$$

$$\downarrow^{\varphi_1}$$

$$W$$

Claim:  $V_0 \subseteq \ker \varphi_1$ . (check yourself) Then by factor theorem,

$$\exists ! \varphi : V_1/V_0 \longrightarrow W$$

$$M \times N$$

Eg 2.1.1.  $\mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} = 0$ .

Eg 2.1.2.  $\mathbb{R}[x,y] \cong \mathbb{R}[x] \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{R}[y]$ .

Proof. 
$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathbb{R}[x] \times \mathbb{R}[y] \to \mathbb{R}[x,y] \\ (f(x),g(y)) \mapsto f(x)g(y) \end{array} \text{ is bilinear } \leadsto \begin{array}{ll} \exists \: !\varphi : \mathbb{R}[x] \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{R}[y] \to \mathbb{R}[x,y] \\ f(x) \otimes g(y) \mapsto f(x)g(y) \end{array} .$$

Conversely, 
$$h(x,y) = \sum_{i,j} a_{ij} x^i y^j \mapsto \sum_{i,j} a_{ij} x_i \otimes y_j$$
.

**Prop 2.1.1.** If  $M = \langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle_R$  and  $N = \langle y_1, \dots, y_m \rangle_R$ . Then

$$M \otimes_R N = \langle x_i \otimes y_i \mid i = 1, \dots, n; j = 1, \dots, m \rangle_R$$
.

In particular, if R is a field F, then  $\dim_F M \otimes_F N = (\dim_F M)(\dim_F N)$ .

*Proof.* Note that 
$$M \otimes_R N = \langle x \otimes y \mid x \in M, y \in N \rangle$$
. Let  $x = \sum_i a_i x_i, y = \sum_j b_j y_j$ . Then  $x \otimes y = \sum_i \sum_j a_i b_j x_i \otimes y_j$ .

Some canonical isomorphisms:

•  $(M \otimes_R N) \otimes_R L \cong M \otimes_R (N \otimes_R L)$ .

*Proof.*  $\forall z \in L$ ,  $M \times N \to M \otimes_R (N \otimes_R L)$  is bilinear.  $\exists ! R$ -mod homo.  $\varphi_z : M \otimes_R N \to (x,y) \mapsto x \otimes (y \otimes z)$ 

 $M \otimes_R (N \otimes_R L)$ . Similarly,  $(M \otimes_R N) \times L \to M \otimes_R (N \otimes_R L)$  is bilinear. (The right is due to  $\varphi_z$  linear, and the left is because  $x \otimes (y \otimes (rz_1 + z_2)) = rx \otimes (y \otimes z_1) + x \otimes (y \otimes z_2)$ .) Hence exists unique R-mod homo.  $\varphi: (M \otimes_R N) \otimes_R L \to M \otimes_R (N \otimes_R L)$ . By the symmetric construction, we have  $\varphi^{-1}$  and  $\varphi^{-1} \circ \varphi = \varphi \circ \varphi^{-1} = 1$ , so the two are isomorphic.  $\square$ 

•  $(M \oplus M') \otimes_R N \cong (M \otimes_R N) \oplus (M' \otimes_R N)$ .

The mapping  $\psi :: (M \oplus M') \times N \to (M \otimes_R N) \oplus (M' \otimes_R N)$  by  $\psi = ((x, x'), y) \mapsto (x \otimes y, x' \otimes y)$  is biliear, hence exists R-mod homomorphism  $\varphi :: (M \oplus M') \otimes_R N \to (M \otimes_R N) \oplus (M' \otimes_R N)$ .

On the other hand, The mapping  $(x,y):: M \times N \mapsto (x,0) \otimes y:: (M \oplus M') \otimes_R N$  is bilinear. So exists  $\phi_1:: M \otimes N \to (M \oplus M') \otimes_R N$ , similarly there exists  $\phi_2:: M' \otimes N \to (M \oplus M') \otimes_R N$ . Now by the universal property of direct sum, there exists  $\phi:: (M \otimes_R N) \oplus (M' \otimes_R N) \to (M \oplus M') \otimes_R N$ . After a careful examine, we have

$$\varphi = (x, x') \otimes y \mapsto (x \otimes y, x' \otimes y), \phi = (x \otimes y, x' \otimes y) \mapsto (x, x') \otimes y$$

Thus  $\phi = \varphi^{-1}$  and hence the two are isomorphic.

#### Ex 2.1.5.

- 1.  $R \otimes_R M \cong M$ .
- 2.  $M \otimes_R N \cong N \otimes_R M$ .

- **Ex 2.1.6.**  $R/I \otimes_R N \cong N/IN$  where  $IN := \{ \sum a_i x_i \mid a_i \in I, x_i \in N \}.$
- $\mathbf{Ex}\ \mathbf{2.1.7.}\quad \mathrm{Compute}\ \dim_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}\otimes_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathbb{Q}), \dim_{\mathbb{R}}(\mathbb{R}\otimes_{\mathbb{R}}\mathbb{C}), \dim_{\mathbb{R}}(\mathbb{C}\otimes_{\mathbb{R}}\mathbb{C}), \dim_{\mathbb{C}}(\mathbb{C}\otimes_{\mathbb{R}}\mathbb{C})$

#### 2.2 Week 12

#### 2.2.1 Tensor product II

By universal property, we get  $\{R\text{-bilinear maps } M \times N \to L\} \leftrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_R(M \otimes_R N, L)$ . Similarly,

$$\operatorname{Hom}\left(\bigoplus_{s\in\Lambda}M_s,L\right)\cong\prod_{s\in\Lambda}\operatorname{Hom}\left(M_s,L\right)$$
 
$$\operatorname{Hom}\left(N,\prod_{s\in\Lambda}M_s\right)\cong\prod_{s\in\Lambda}\operatorname{Hom}\left(N,M_s\right)$$

Fact 2.2.1.  $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M'), g \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(N, N') \leadsto f \otimes g \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M \otimes N, M' \otimes N')$  by  $(f\otimes g)(x\otimes y)=f(x)\otimes g(y).$ 

Proof. Define 
$$h: M \times N \to M' \otimes_R N'$$
  
 $(x,y) \mapsto f(x) \otimes g(y)$ 

Restrition and extension of scalars.

Let  $f: R \to S$  be a ring homomorphism and R, S be commutative with 1. Then S can be regarded as an R-module.  $\begin{pmatrix} R \times S \to S \\ (r, x) \mapsto f(r)x \end{pmatrix}$ .

If M is a S-module, then M is also an R-module.  $\begin{pmatrix} R \times M \to M \\ (r,a) \mapsto f(r)a \end{pmatrix}.$  If N is an R-module, then  $S \otimes_R N$  an S-module.  $\begin{pmatrix} S \times (S \otimes_R N) \to S \otimes_R N \\ (r, x \otimes a) \mapsto rx \otimes a \end{pmatrix}.$ 

Eg 2.2.1 (Important example). Let V be a real vector space. The complexification of V is  $V^{\mathbb{C}} := \mathbb{C} \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} V$  which is a  $\mathbb{C}$ -vector space.

**Ex 2.2.1.** Let  $K \subseteq L$  be an inclusion of fields and let E be a vector space over K. Show that  $E^L := L \otimes_K E$  satisfies the following universal property: For any vector space U over L and any *K*-linear map  $f: E \to U, \exists ! L$ -linear map  $\varphi$ :

$$\varphi: 1 \otimes x :: E^L \xrightarrow{f} f(x) :: U$$

$$x :: E$$

**Ex 2.2.2.**  $E \to E^L$  is a covariant functor from the category of vector spaces over K to the category of vector spaces over L.

Eg 2.2.2. 
$$\mathbb{Z}^n \cong \mathbb{Z}^m \leadsto \mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}^n \cong \mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}^m \leadsto n = m$$
.

Eg 2.2.3. 
$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}/d_1\mathbb{Z} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}/d_l\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}^s, \mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G = \mathbb{Q}^s$$
.

Let M, N and U be R-module. Then

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M \otimes_{R} N, U) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, U))$$

Proof.

- For  $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M \otimes_R N, U)$  and  $a \in N$ , define  $f_a = x :: M \mapsto f(x \otimes a) :: U$ .
  - linear: easy.
  - $-\overline{f}: a \mapsto f_a$  is an R-mod homo.: easy.
  - $-\tau: f \mapsto \overline{f}$  is an R-mod homo.:  $\tau(rf+g)(a)(x) = (rf+g)_a(x) = (rf+g)(x \otimes a) = rf(x \otimes a) + g(x \otimes a) = \cdots = r\tau(f)(a)(x) + \tau(g)(a)(x)$

- For  $g \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(N, \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, U))$ , define  $g' = (x, a) :: M \times N \mapsto g(a)(x) :: U$ .
  - -g' is R-bilinear: easy.
  - $-\exists ! \tilde{g} : x \otimes a \mapsto g(a)(x).$
  - $-\sigma: g \mapsto \tilde{g}$  is an R-mod homo.: easy.
- $\sigma \tau = id, \tau \sigma = id$ : easy...

**Ex 2.2.3.** Hom<sub>R</sub> $(M, \cdot)$ ,  $M \otimes_R \cdot$  are covariant functors from the category of R-modules to itself. (is an adjoint pair)

Fact 2.2.2.  $\operatorname{Hom}_R(R,M) \cong M$ . By  $f \mapsto f(1)$ .

**Def 51.** An exact sequence  $A \xrightarrow{f_1} B \xrightarrow{f_2} \cdots$  is a sequence satisfying im  $f_k = \ker f_{k+1}$ .

- $0 \to \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{2} \mathbb{Z}$ .
- $\mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} \to 0$ .

Let V, W be vector spaces over F. Then  $V^* \otimes_F W \cong \operatorname{Hom}_F(V, W)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\alpha = \{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$  and  $\beta = \{f_1, \dots, f_m\}$  be bases for V and W respectively. Via  $\alpha, \beta$ ,  $\text{Hom}_F(V, W) \cong \left\langle E_{ij} \middle| i = 1, \dots, m \right\rangle_F$ .  $V^* \otimes W \cong \left\langle e_j^* \otimes f_i \middle| i = 1, \dots, m \right\rangle_F$ .  $\square$ 

#### 2.2.2 Tensor algebra

Def 52.

- Let R be a commutative ring with 1. An R-algebra is a ring A which is also an R-module s.t. the multiplication map  $A \times A \to A$  is R-bilinear. ( r(ab) = (ra)b = a(rb) )
- Let A be an R-algebra. A grading of A is a collection of R-submodules  $\{A_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  (n-th homogeneous part) s.t.

$$A = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n$$
 and  $A_n A_m \subseteq A_{n+m} \quad \forall n, m$ 

- A graded R-algebra is an R-algebra with a chosen grading.
- $\mathfrak{M}_R$  is the category of R-modules.
- $\mathfrak{Gr}_R$  is the category of graded R-algebras.  $(f:A\to A')$  with  $f(A_n)\subseteq A'_n$

**Eg 2.2.4.**  $A = R[x], A_n = \langle x^n \rangle_R$ . If  $I = \langle x+1 \rangle_A$ , I is not graded.  $I = \langle x^2 \rangle_A$  is graded.

**Def 53.** An ideal I is graded in a graded ring A if and only if  $I = \bigoplus I \cap A_n$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>This is not mentioned in class

#### **Ex 2.2.4.** TFAE

- (1) I is graded.
- (2)  $\forall a \in I$  write  $a = a_{k_1} + a_{k_2} + \dots + a_{k_m}, a_{k_i} \in A_{k_i} \implies a_{k_i} \in I$ .  $(a_{k_i} \text{ is the homogenuous component of } a)$
- (3) A/I is a graded ring with  $(A/I)_n = (A_n + I)/I \cong A_n/I \cap A_n$ .

#### Ex 2.2.5.

- (1) If I is a f.g. graded ideal, then I has a finite system of generators consisting of homogeneous elements alone.
- (2) I, J are graded  $\implies I + J, IJ, I \cap J$  are graded.

Observation: Let  $\{M_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  be a collection of R-modules.

- $M_1 \otimes_R M_2$  exists.
- $(M_1 \otimes_R M_2) \otimes_R M_3 \cong M_1 \otimes_R (M_2 \otimes_R M_3) \implies M_1 \otimes_R M_2 \otimes_R M_3$  is well-defined. Universal property: for any R-module L and a 3-multilinear map  $f: M_1 \times M_2 \times M_3 \to L$ . (拆括號囉)
- By induction,  $M_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes M_n$  is well-defined and satisfies the universal property. (n-multilinear map)

Goal: For a given R-module M, we intend to construct an graded R-algebra T(M) containing M that is "universal" w.r.t. R-algebras containing M.

That is, a tensor algebra is a pair (T(M), i) where T(M) is an R-algebra and  $i :: M \to T(M)$ , such that for any R-algebra A containing M, which is to say that exist a R-module homomorphism  $\varphi : M \to A$ , then  $\exists$  an R-algebra homomorphism  $\psi :: T(M) \to A$  such that  $\varphi = \psi \circ i$ .

#### Construction:

•  $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}, T^k(M) := \underbrace{M \otimes \cdots \otimes M}_{k \text{ times}}$ , each  $x_1 \otimes x_2 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_k \in T^k(M)$  is called a k-tensor.

$$T^0(M) := R$$
 and

$$T(M) := \bigoplus_{k=0}^{\infty} T^k(M) = R \oplus T^1(M) \oplus \dots$$

• define multiplication on T(M) by:

$$T^{i}(M) \times T^{j}(M) \longrightarrow T^{i+j}(M)$$
  
 $(x_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{i}, y_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes y_{i}) \longmapsto x_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{i} \otimes y_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes y_{i}$ 

Distribution law: easy.

Proving the universal property: For any R-algebra A containing M and an R-module homo.  $\varphi: M \to A. \ \forall \ k \geq 2$ , we define  $f_k: M \times \cdots \times M \to A$ 

$$f_k: M \times \cdots \times M \to A$$
  
 $(x_1, \dots, x_k) \mapsto \varphi(x_1) \dots \varphi(x_k)$ 

 $f_k$  is k-multilinear  $\rightsquigarrow$ 

$$\exists ! \tilde{f}_k : M \otimes \cdots \otimes M \to A$$
$$x_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_k \mapsto \varphi(x_1) \dots \varphi(x_k)$$

By the universal property of  $\bigoplus$ , exists a unique R-module homo.  $\tilde{\varphi}::T(M)\to A$  which make the following diagram commutes.

 $\tilde{\varphi}: T(M) \xrightarrow{f_k} A$   $T^k(M)$ 

 $\tilde{\varphi}$  is an R-algebra homomorphism.

**Def 54.** T(M) is called the tensor algebra of M.

**Ex 2.2.6.** T is a covariant functor from  $\mathfrak{M}_R$  to  $\mathfrak{Gr}_R$ .

**Prop 2.2.1.** Let V be a vector space over F with a basis  $\beta = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ . Then

$$\{v_{i_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes v_{i_k} \mid \forall j = 1, \dots, k, i_j = 1, \dots, n\}$$

forms a basis for  $T^k(V)$ .  $\dim_F T^k(V) = n^k$ .

T(V) can be regarded as a non-commutative polynomial algebra over F.

 $\odot$  Symmetrization (char F = 0)

$$V \times \cdots \times V \longrightarrow T^n(V)$$

$$(x_1,\ldots,x_n) \longmapsto \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\tau \in S_n} x_{\tau(1)} \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{\tau(n)}$$

is n-multilinear.

The symmetrizer operator  $\sigma: T^n(V) \to T^n(V), \ \tilde{S}^n(V) := \sigma(T^n(V)) \subseteq T^n(V).$ 

Claim:  $T^n(V) = \tilde{S}^n(V) \oplus C^n(V)$  where

$$C^n(V) = C(V) \cap T^n(V)$$
  $C(V) = \langle v \otimes w - w \otimes v \mid v, w \in V \rangle$ 

#### 2.3 Week 13

### 2.3.1 Symmetric and Exterior algebra

Symmetric algebra Define

$$S: \mathfrak{M}_R \to \mathfrak{Gr}_R$$

$$M \mapsto T(M)/C(M)$$

$$S(M) := T(M)/C(M)$$

where C(M) is the gradded two-sided ideal generated by  $u \otimes v - v \otimes u$  with  $u, v \in M$ .

•  $C^k(M) := C(M) \cap T^k(M)$  is the submodule of  $T^k(M)$  generated by all

$$x_1 \otimes \ldots \otimes x_k - x_{\sigma(1)} \otimes \ldots \otimes x_{\sigma(k)} \quad \forall x_i \in M, \sigma \in S_k.$$

" $\subseteq$ ":  $x_1 \otimes \ldots \otimes x_s \otimes (u \otimes v - v \otimes u) \otimes y_1 \otimes \ldots \otimes y_t \in C(M) \cap T^k(M)$  with s + 2 + t = k. " $\supset$ ": bubble sort

•  $k \geq 2, S^k(M) = T^k(M)/C^k(M) = \langle \overline{x}_1 \otimes \ldots \otimes \overline{x}_k \mid x_i \in M \rangle_R \text{ with } \overline{x}_1 \otimes \ldots \otimes \overline{x}_k = \overline{x}_{\sigma(1)} \otimes \ldots \otimes \overline{x}_{\sigma(k)} \quad \forall \sigma \in S_k$ 

Hence,  $S(M) = \bigoplus_{k=0}^{\infty} S^k(M)$  is a graded commutative R-algebra.

**Def 55.**  $f: M \times \cdots \times M \to L$  is a symmetric k-multilinear map if f is k-multilinear and

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_k) = f(x_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, x_{\sigma(k)}) \quad \forall \, \sigma \in S_k$$

- $k \geq 2$ ,  $S^k(M)$  is universal w.r.t. symmetric k-multilinear maps on M: By the universal property of  $T^k(M)$ ,  $\exists !$  R-module homo.  $\tilde{f}: T^k(M) \to L$ . Now  $C^k(M) \subseteq \ker \tilde{f} \implies \exists !$  R-module homo.  $\overline{f}: S^k(M) \to L$  by factor thm.
- S(M) satisfies the universal property for maps to a commutative R-algebra: given a commutative R-algebra A and  $f: M \to A$  R-module homo.,

$$M \xrightarrow{f} A$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \uparrow \qquad \uparrow$$

$$T(M) \xrightarrow{\exists !f'} \uparrow$$

•  $S: \mathfrak{M}_R \to \mathfrak{Gr}_R$  is a covariant functor.

$$-\varphi: M \to N$$
: R-module homo.  $\leadsto T(\varphi): T(M) \to T(N) \to T(N)/C(N) = S(N)$ 

**Ex 2.3.1.** Let E be a vector space over F with dim E = n.

- 1. Show that  $S(E) \cong F[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ .
- 2. Compute  $\dim_F S^k(E)$ .

Exterior algebra  $(\operatorname{char} R \neq 2)$ 

$$\Lambda: \mathfrak{M}_R \to \mathfrak{Gr}_R$$

$$M \mapsto \Lambda(M) = T(M)/A(M)$$

where A(M) is the two sided graded generated by  $v \otimes v \quad \forall v \in M$ .

•  $A^k(M) := A(M) \cap T^k(M)$  is the submodule of  $T^k(M)$  generated by all  $x_1 \otimes \ldots \otimes x_k$  with  $x_i = x_j$  for some  $i \neq j$ .

(Note: 
$$(x_1 + x_2) \otimes (x_1 + x_2) = x_1 \otimes x_1 + x_1 \otimes x_2 + x_2 \otimes x_1 + x_2 \otimes x_2 \rightsquigarrow x_1 \otimes x_2 + x_2 \otimes x_1 \in A(M)$$
)

•  $\Lambda^k(M) \cong T^k(M)/A^k(M) = \langle \overline{x_1 \otimes \ldots \otimes x_k} \mid x_i \in M \rangle$  with  $\overline{x_1 \otimes \ldots \otimes x_k} = \overline{0}$  if  $x_i = x_j$  for some  $i \neq j$ . We use  $x_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge x_k := \overline{x_1 \otimes \ldots \otimes x_k}$ .

Note:  $x_1 \wedge x_2 = -x_2 \wedge x_1$ .

**Def 56.**  $f: M \times \cdots \times M \to L$  is an alternating k-multilinear map if f is k-multilinear and  $f(x_1, \ldots, x_k) = 0$  when  $x_i = x_j$  for some  $i \neq j$ .

•  $k \geq 2$ ,  $\Lambda^k(M)$  is universal w.r.t. alternating k-multilinear maps on M:

•  $\Lambda(M)$  satisfies the universal property for maps to an R-algebra A with  $a^2=0 \quad \forall \ a \in A$ : given an R-algebra A and  $f:M\to A$  R-module homo.,

$$\begin{array}{c}
M \xrightarrow{f} A \\
\downarrow & \uparrow \\
T(M) \longrightarrow \Lambda(M)
\end{array}$$

•  $\Lambda: \mathfrak{M}_R \to \mathfrak{Gr}_R$  is a covariant functor.

$$-\varphi:M\to N$$
: R-module homo.  $\leadsto T(\varphi):T(M)\to T(N)\to T(N)/A(N)=\Lambda(N)$ 

**Ex 2.3.2.** Let V be a vector space over F with dim V = n and  $\varphi : V \to V$  be a linear transformation.

- (1) Compute  $\Lambda^k(V)$ .
- (2) Determine the map  $\Lambda^k(\varphi): \Lambda^k(V) \to \Lambda^k(V)$ .

#### Symmetrization and Skew-symmetrization

$$T^{k}(V) \xrightarrow{} T^{k}(V)$$

$$\operatorname{Sym} = \sigma : x_{1} \otimes \ldots \otimes x_{k} \longmapsto \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{\tau \in S_{k}} x_{\tau(1)} \otimes \ldots \otimes x_{\tau(k)}$$

$$\operatorname{Alt} = \sigma' : x_{1} \otimes \ldots \otimes x_{k} \longmapsto \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{\tau \in S_{k}} \operatorname{sgn}(\tau) x_{\tau(1)} \otimes \ldots \otimes x_{\tau(k)}$$

 $\tilde{S}^k(V) = \sigma(T^k(V)) \quad \tilde{\Lambda}^k(V) = \sigma'(T^k(V))$ 

- $\sigma^2 = \sigma$  easy  $\leadsto T^k(V) = \operatorname{Im} \sigma \oplus \ker \sigma = \tilde{S}^k(V) \oplus \ker \sigma$ .
- $\ker \sigma = C^k(V)$ .  $C^k(V) \subseteq \ker \sigma$  is obvious. Assume  $\supseteq$ , i.e.,  $\exists t \in \ker \sigma$  s.t.  $t \notin C^k(V)$ . Recall  $q: T^k(V) \twoheadrightarrow S^k(V)$ , since q is the quotient map. Also  $q|_{\tilde{S}^k(V)} \twoheadrightarrow S^k(V)$ , since if q(x) = y, then it could be easily checked that  $q(\sigma(x)) = y$ , so exists  $t' \in \tilde{S}^k(V)$  satisfies  $q(t') = q(t) \neq 0$ . But then  $q(t-t') = 0 \implies t-t' \in \ker q = C^k(V) \subseteq \ker \sigma$  and because of  $\sigma(t) = 0 \implies \sigma(t') = 0$ . Hence  $t' \in \ker \sigma$ . But then  $t' \in S^k(V) \subseteq \operatorname{Im} \sigma \implies t' \in \operatorname{Im} \sigma \cap \ker \sigma$ , which leads to an ontradiction since  $\sigma$  is a projection.

Ex 2.3.3. 
$$T^k(V) = \tilde{\Lambda}^k(V) \oplus A^k(V)$$
.

# 3 Introduction to the linear representation theory of finite groups

#### 3.1 Week 14

#### 3.1.1 Generallities on linear representations

#### Notation

- G: finite group
- V: vector space of finite dim over  $\mathbb C$
- GL(V): the group of all linear isom.  $V \to V$

**Def 57.** A group homo.  $\rho: G \to \operatorname{GL}(V)$  is called a linear representation of G. dim V is called the degree of  $\rho$ . (V is a representation space)

For a fixed basis  $\beta = \{e_i\},\$ 



(R is a matrix representation)

**Eg 3.1.1.** A representation of degree 1 of G is  $\rho: G \to \mathrm{GL}(\mathbb{C}) \cong \mathbb{C}^{\times}$ .

 $\operatorname{ord}(g)$  is finite  $\rightsquigarrow \rho(g)^m = 1$  for some  $m \in \mathbb{N} \rightsquigarrow \rho(g)$  is a root of unity, i.e.  $|\rho(g)| = 1$ .

Note: So,  $\rho:G\to S^1,\,S^1$  is the unit circle.

- 1.  $G = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}, \ \rho : \overline{1} :: G \mapsto \zeta_p :: S^1 \text{ with } \zeta_p^p = 1.$
- 2.  $G = S_3, V = \mathbb{C}e_1 \oplus \mathbb{C}e_2 \oplus \mathbb{C}e_3$ .

A permutation representation is  $\rho : \tau :: S_3 \mapsto (\rho(\tau) : e_i \mapsto e_{\tau(i)}) :: GL(V)$ .

3.  $G = S_3, V = \bigoplus_{\sigma \in S_3} \mathbb{C}e_{\sigma}$ . The regular representation is

$$\rho^{\text{reg}} : \tau :: G \mapsto (\rho^{\text{reg}}(\tau) : e_{\sigma} \mapsto e_{\tau\sigma}) :: GL(V).$$

For general G, with  $V = \bigoplus_{g \in G} \mathbb{C}e_g$ ,

$$\rho^{\text{reg}}: h :: G \mapsto (\rho^{\text{reg}}(h): e_q \mapsto e_{hq}) :: GL(V).$$

### Def 58.

- $\rho:g::G\mapsto \mathrm{id}::\mathrm{GL}(V)$ : trivial representation.
- $\rho: G \hookrightarrow \mathrm{GL}(V)$ : faithful representation.
- $\rho, \rho'$  are said to be equivalent if  $\exists$  a linear isom.  $\mathsf{T}: V \xrightarrow{\sim} V'$  s.t.

$$\begin{array}{c|c} V & \stackrel{\sim}{\longrightarrow} & V' \\ \rho(g) \!\!\! \downarrow & & \downarrow \!\!\! \rho'(g) \\ V & \stackrel{\sim}{\longrightarrow} & V' \end{array}$$

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**Remark 13.** When we choose two bases  $\beta$ ,  $\beta'$  for V,

$$G \xrightarrow{\rho} \operatorname{GL}(V) \qquad G \xrightarrow{\rho'} \operatorname{GL}(V)$$

$$R \xrightarrow{\beta \downarrow \emptyset} \operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{C}) \qquad \operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{C})$$

then  $\rho, \rho'$  are equivalent.

Let  $T: e_i :: V \mapsto e_i' :: V$ . For  $g \in G$ ,  $R(g) = (a_{ij})$ .

$$T\circ \rho(g)=\rho'(g)\circ T$$

**Def 59.** Let  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  be a positive definite Hermitian form on V.

Then  $T: V \to V$  is called a unitary operator if  $\langle T(x), T(y) \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle \quad \forall \, x, y \in V$ .

or  $\forall \beta$ : orthonormal basis,  $[T]^*_{\beta}[T]_{\beta} = [T]_{\beta}[T]^*_{\beta} = I_n$ .

**Theorem 29.**  $\forall \rho: G \to GL(V), \exists \text{ a matrix representation } R: G \to U_n.$ 

*Proof.* We only need to G-invariant positive definite Hermitian form on V.  $(\forall g \in G, \langle \rho(g)x, \rho(g)y \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle \quad \forall x, y \in V)$ 

We start with an arbitrary positive definite Hermitian form  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle'$  on V.

Define a new form  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  by

$$\langle x, y \rangle := \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \langle \rho(g)(x), \rho(g)(y) \rangle'$$

which is a positive definite Hermitian form, since

$$\langle \rho(g)x, \rho(g)y \rangle \triangleq \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{h \in G} \langle (\rho(h) \circ \rho(g))(x), (\rho(h) \circ \rho(g))(y) \rangle'$$
$$= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{gh \triangleq h' \in G} \langle (\rho(h'))(x), (\rho(h'))(y) \rangle' \triangleq \langle x, y \rangle$$

So with the basis of this hermitian form, every  $\rho(g)$  has a matrix representation R(g) which is unitary.

**Def 60.** Let  $\rho: G \to \operatorname{GL}(V)$ , For  $W \subset V$  (we use  $\subset$  to denote subspace), if  $\forall x \in W$ ,  $\rho(g)(x) \in W$ ,  $\forall g \in G$ , then W is said to be G-invariant and

$$\rho^W: G \to \operatorname{GL}(W)$$
$$g \mapsto \rho(g)|_W$$

is called a subrepresentation of  $\rho$ .

 $W \text{ is $G$-invariant} \leadsto \rho(g)\big|_W: W \xrightarrow{\sim} W.$ 

**Eg 3.1.2.** Let  $\rho$  be the regular rep. of  $S_3$ .

 $W^{\circ} = \{ \alpha_1 e_1 + \cdots + \alpha_6 e_6 \mid \alpha_1 + \cdots + \alpha_6 = 0 \}$  is G-invariant.

 $W^1 = \langle e_1 + \dots + e_6 \rangle_{\mathbb{C}}$  is G-invariant.

**Theorem 30.** Let  $\rho: G \to \operatorname{GL}(V)$  and  $W \subset V$  be G-invariant. Then  $\exists W^{\circ} \subset V$  is still G-invariant and  $V = W \oplus W^{\circ}$ .

*Proof.* We can pick an arbitrary W' with  $V = W \oplus W'$  and  $\pi_1 : V \to W$  is the projection to W. Then  $W' = \ker \pi_1$ .

Now we need  $\pi_1$  preserves the G action (G-equivariant). Define

$$\pi^{\circ} = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \rho(g)^{-1} \circ \pi_1 \circ \rho(g) : V \to W$$

- well-defined:  $\rho(g)(V) \subset V \leadsto \pi_1 \circ \rho(g)(V) \subset W \leadsto \rho(g)^{-1} \circ \pi_1 \circ \rho(g)(V) \subseteq W$ .
- surjective:  $\forall y \in W, (\rho(g)^{-1} \circ \pi_1 \circ \rho(g))(y) = (\rho(g)^{-1} \circ \rho(g))(y) = y \text{ since } \rho(g)(y) \in W. \text{ Also,}$  $\pi^{\circ}(y) = y, \forall y \in W \implies (\pi^{\circ})^2 = \pi^{\circ}. \text{ So } \pi^{\circ} \text{ is a projection and hence } V = \operatorname{Im} \pi^{\circ} \oplus \ker \pi^{\circ}.$
- G-equivariant:  $\forall g' \in G$ ,

$$\pi^{\circ} \circ \rho(g')(x) = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \rho(g)^{-1} \circ \pi_1 \circ \rho(g)(\rho(g')(x))$$
$$= \rho(g') \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{gg' \in G} \rho(gg')^{-1} \circ \pi_1 \circ \rho(gg')(x)$$
$$= (\rho(g') \circ \pi^{\circ})(x)$$

•  $W^{\circ} := \ker \pi^{\circ}$  is G-invariant:  $\forall x \in W^{\circ}$ ,  $\pi^{\circ}(\rho(g)(x)) = \rho(g)(\pi^{\circ}(x)) = \rho(g)(0) = 0$ . So  $\rho(g)(x) \in W^{\circ}$ .

$$V \xrightarrow{\pi^{\circ}} W$$

$$\rho(g) \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \rho(g)$$

$$V \xrightarrow{\pi^{\circ}} W$$

**Remark 14.** If  $W \subset V$  is G-invariant, then  $W^{\perp}$  is also G-invariant. (w.r.t. a G-invariant positive definite Hermitian form)

**Def 61.**  $\rho: G \to GL(V)$  is irreducible if  $\rho$  has no proper notrivial subrepresentations.

**Theorem 31.** Each  $\rho: G \to GL(V)$  is a direct sum of irreducible subrepresentations.

*Proof.* By induction on dim V. For dim V=1, then  $\rho$  is irreducible.

For dim V>1, if  $\rho$  is irreducible, then done. Otherwise,  $\exists W,W^{\circ}$  are G-invariant s.t.  $V=W\oplus W^{\circ}$  with dim  $W\geq 1$ , dim  $W^{\circ}\geq 1$ . By induction hypothesis,  $\rho^{W},\rho^{W^{\circ}}$  are the direct sum of irreducible subrepresentations, and  $\rho=\rho^{W}\oplus\rho^{W^{\circ}}$ , done.

**Remark 15.** Let  $\rho: G \to GL(V)$  and  $\rho': G \to GL(V')$ .

- $\rho \oplus \rho' : G \to \operatorname{GL}(V \oplus V')$ . 矩陣是左上右下
- $\rho \otimes \rho' : G \to GL(V \otimes V')$ . 矩陣是密密麻麻  $(\sum_{i,j} r_{ip}, r'_{iq}(e_i \otimes e'_j))$

#### 3.1.2 Character Theory I

Main goal: To determine all equivalence classes of irreducible representations of a finite group G.

Def 62.

$$G \xrightarrow{\rho} \operatorname{GL}(V)$$

$$\downarrow \downarrow^{\beta = \{e_i\}}$$

$$\operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{C})$$

The character  $\chi_{\rho}$  if  $\rho$  is the map  $\chi_{\rho}: G \to \mathbb{C}$  defined by  $\chi_{\rho}(g) = \operatorname{Tr}(R(g))$ .

#### Remark 16.

- 1.  $\chi_{\rho}$  is independent of the choice of  $\beta = \{e_i\}$  For another basis  $\beta' = \{e'_i\}$ . (Notice that  $\operatorname{Tr}(BA) = \operatorname{Tr}(AB)$ )
- 2.  $\rho \cong \rho' \rightsquigarrow \chi_{\rho} = \chi_{\rho'}$ . equivalent

#### Def 63.

- The degree of  $\chi_{\rho}$  is defined to the degree of  $\rho$  (= dim V).
- $\chi_{\rho}$  is an irreducible character if  $\rho$  is irreducible.

Basic facts:

- 1.  $\chi_{\rho}(1) = n$ .
- 2.  $\chi_{\rho}$  is a class function, i.e., it is constant on each conjugacy class.
- 3.  $\chi_{\rho}(g^{-1}) = \overline{\chi_{\rho}(g)}$ : Assume that the eigenvalues of R(g) are  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ . Then the eigenvalues of  $R(g^{-1})$  are  $\lambda_1^{-1}, \ldots, \lambda_n^{-1}$ .

$$0 = \det(\lambda I_n - A) = \det(\lambda I_n (A^{-1} - \lambda^{-1} I_n) A) = \det(\lambda I_n) \det(A^{-1} - \lambda^{-1} I_n) \det(A)$$

So 
$$\det(A^{-1} - \lambda^{-1}I_n) = 0$$
. Then  $g^m = 1 \Longrightarrow R(g)^m = I_n \Longrightarrow |\lambda_i| = 1 \Longrightarrow \lambda_i^{-1} = \overline{\lambda_i}$ . Thus  $\chi_{\rho}(g^{-1}) = \operatorname{Tr}(R(g)^{-1}) = \overline{\lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_n} = \overline{\chi_{\rho}(g)}$ .

- 4.  $\chi_{\rho \oplus \rho'} = \chi_{\rho} + \chi_{\rho'}$ .
- 5.  $\chi_{\rho\otimes\rho'}=\chi_{\rho}\chi_{\rho'}$ .

**Def 64.**  $\mathcal{C}(G,\mathbb{C})$  is the vector space of complex functions on G.

 $\chi_{\rho} \in \mathcal{C}(G) \subset \mathcal{C}(G,\mathbb{C})$  is the vector space of complex class functions of G.

**Remark 17.** Assume that  $\{C_1, \ldots, C_k\}$  is the set of distinct conjugacy classes in G. Then  $\{f_i(C_j) = \delta_{ij} \mid \forall i = 1, \ldots, k\}$  forms a basis for  $\mathcal{C}(G)$  over  $\mathbb{C}$ .

- $\forall f \in \mathcal{C}(G)$ , let  $f(C_i) = a_i$ , then  $f = \sum a_i f_i$ .
- $\sum a_i f_i = 0$ , pick  $x_j \in C_j$ , then  $(\sum a_i f_i)(x_j) = a_j = 0 \quad \forall j = 1, \dots k$ .

So dim C(G) = k.

**Def 65.**  $\phi, \psi \in \mathcal{C}(G, \mathbb{C})$ , then

$$\langle \phi, \psi \rangle := \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \phi(g) \overline{\psi(g)}$$

is a positive definite Hermitian form on  $\mathcal{C}(G,\mathbb{C})$ .

**Theorem 32** (Main theorem). The set of all irreducible characters of G forms an orthonormal basis for  $\mathcal{C}(G)$  over  $\mathbb{C}$ . So there are only k irreducible representations up to equivalent.

**Lemma 3** (Schur's lemma). Let  $\rho: G \to \operatorname{GL}(V)$  and  $\rho': G \to \operatorname{GL}(V')$  be two irr. rep. of G.

$$\begin{array}{c|c} V & \xrightarrow{\quad \quad } V' \\ \rho(g) \downarrow & & \downarrow \rho'(g) & (\mathsf{T}:G\text{-equivariant}) \\ V & \xrightarrow{\quad \quad } V' \end{array}$$

Then

- 1.  $\rho, \rho'$  are not equivalent  $\Longrightarrow T = 0$ .
- 2.  $V = V', \rho = \rho' \implies \mathsf{T} = \lambda 1_V \text{ for some } \lambda \in \mathbb{C}.$

Proof.

- Assume T ≠ 0. We only needs to prove that T is an isomorphism, and then ρ, ρ' would be isomorphic by definition. Since T is G-equivariant, ker T ≤ V and Im T ≤ V' are G-invariant. ρ is irreducible ⇒ ker T = 0 or V, but if ker T = V then T = 0, so ker T = 0.
   Similarly, ρ' is irreducible ⇒ Im T = 0 or V. And by the fact that T ≠ 0, Im T = V.
   Thus T is an isom, and consequently ρ, ρ' are equivalent.
- 2. Since the vector field is over  $\mathbb{C}$ , T has an eigenvalue. Let  $\lambda$  be an eigenvalue of T, say  $\mathsf{T}(v) = \lambda v$  with  $v \neq 0$  in V. Put  $\mathsf{T}' = \mathsf{T} \lambda 1_V$ . Then

$$\rho(g) \circ \mathsf{T}' = \rho(g) \circ (\mathsf{T} - \lambda 1_V) \stackrel{*}{=} \rho(g) \circ \mathsf{T} - \rho(g) \circ \lambda 1_V = \mathsf{T} \circ \rho(g) - \lambda 1_V \rho(g) = \mathsf{T}' \rho(g)$$

Which \* is due to the linearity of  $\rho(g)$ . Hence T' is also G-equivariant.

But  $v \in \ker \mathsf{T}'$ , i.e.,  $\mathsf{T}'$  is not 1-1. Similar as in 1.,  $\ker \mathsf{T}' = \{0\}$  or  $V \implies \ker \mathsf{T}' = V \implies \mathsf{T}' = 0 \implies T = \lambda 1_V$ .

Coro 3.1.1. Assume  $\rho, \rho'$  is the same as above. Let  $L: V \to V'$  be a linear transformation. Define

$$\mathsf{T} = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \rho'(g)^{-1} \mathsf{L} \rho(g).$$

One could easily checks that T is G-equivariant (i.e.,  $T \circ \rho(g) = \rho'(g) \circ T$ ). Then

- 1.  $\rho, \rho'$  are not equivalent  $\Longrightarrow T = 0$ .
- 2.  $V = V', \rho = \rho' \implies \mathsf{T} = \lambda 1_V, \ \lambda = \mathrm{Tr}(\mathsf{T})/\dim V = \mathrm{Tr}(\mathsf{L})/\dim V.$

**Remark 18.** Let  $\rho \to_{\beta} R : G \to GL_n(\mathbb{C})$  and  $R(g) = [r_{ij}(g)]$ 

$$\rho' \to_{\beta'} R' : G \to \mathrm{GL}_{n'}(\mathbb{C}) \text{ and } R'(g) = [r'_{ij}(g)]$$

and let the matrix representation of L is  $[L]_{\beta}^{\beta'} = [x_{\mu\nu}] \in M_{n'\times n}(\mathbb{C})$ 

Then consider the matrix representation of T, which is  $[\mathsf{T}]^{\beta'}_{\beta} = \left[x^{\circ}_{tl}\right]$  with

$$x_{tl}^{\circ} = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{\substack{g \in G \\ i=1,\dots,n \\ j=1,\dots,n'}} r'_{tj}(g^{-1}) x_{ji} r_{il}(g)$$

In case 1.,  $x_{tl}^{\circ} = 0, \forall t, l$ . Since it hold for every L, which is independent of  $\rho, \rho'$ , fixing i, j and setting  $x_{ij} = 1$  and 0 otherwise, we gets

$$\frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} r'_{tj}(g^{-1}) r_{il}(g) = 0, \quad \forall i, j, t, l$$

In case 2.,  $\mathsf{T} = \lambda 1_V$ , i.e.  $x_{tl}^{\circ} = \lambda \delta_{tl}$ .  $\lambda = \frac{\mathrm{Tr}(\mathsf{L})}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ii} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i,j} \delta_{ji} x_{ji}$ Hence,

$$\frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g,i,j} r'_{tj}(g^{-1}) x_{ji} r_{il}(g) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i,j} \delta_{ji} x_{ji} \delta_{tl}$$

But notice that this equality hold for any L, which is independent of  $\rho$ ,  $\rho'$ . So if we fix i, j and set  $x_{ji} = 1$ , and  $x_{j'i'} = 0$  otherwise, we get

$$\frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} r_{tj}(g^{-1}) r_{il}(g) = \frac{1}{n} \delta_{ji} \delta_{tl}$$

#### Prop 3.1.1.

- 1. If  $\chi_{\rho}$  is irreducible, then  $\langle \chi_{\rho}, \chi_{\rho} \rangle = 1$ .
- 2. If two irreducible representations  $\rho, \rho'$  are not equivalent, then  $\langle \chi_{\rho}, \chi_{\rho'} \rangle = 0$ .

Proof.

1. Let  $R(g) = [r_{ij}(g)]$  be the matrix representation of  $\rho(g)$ . Then

$$\langle \chi_{\rho}, \chi_{\rho} \rangle \triangleq \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g} \chi_{\rho}(g) \overline{\chi_{\rho}(g)} = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g} \chi_{\rho}(g) \chi_{\rho}(g^{-1})$$
$$= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g} \sum_{i,j} r_{ii}(g) r_{jj}(g^{-1}) = \sum_{i,j} \frac{1}{n} \delta_{ij} \delta_{ij} = 1$$

2. Let  $R(g) = [r_{ij}(g)], R'(g) = [r'_{ij}(g)]$  be the matrix representation of  $\rho(g), \rho'(g)$ . Then

$$\langle \chi_{\rho}, \chi_{\rho'} \rangle \triangleq \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g} \chi_{\rho}(g) \overline{\chi'_{\rho}(g)} = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g} \chi_{\rho}(g) \chi_{\rho}(g^{-1})$$
$$= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g} \sum_{i,j} r_{ii}(g) r'_{jj}(g^{-1}) = 0$$

**Remark 19.**  $\langle \chi_{\rho}, \chi_{\rho} \rangle = 1 \implies \rho$  is irr.

*Proof.* We write  $\rho = \rho_1^{\oplus m_1} \oplus \cdots \oplus \rho^{\oplus m_l}$  where  $\rho_1, \ldots, \rho_l$  are non-equivalent irr. rep.

$$\chi_{\rho} = \sum_{i=1}^{l} m_i \chi_{\rho_i}$$

$$1 = \langle \chi_{\rho}, \chi_{\rho} \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{l} m_i^2 \implies \exists m_i = 1 \text{ and } m_j = 0 \text{ for } j \neq i$$

So  $\rho \cong \rho_i$ .

#### 3.2 Week 15

#### 3.2.1 Character Theory II

**Prop 3.2.1.** Let  $\rho: G \to GL(V)$  and  $\rho = \rho^{W_1} \oplus \cdots \oplus \rho^{W_k}$  where  $\rho_i = \rho^{W_i}$  is irr.  $\forall i$ .  $(V \cong W_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus W_k)$ 

If  $\tilde{\rho}: G \to \mathrm{GL}(\tilde{W})$  is an irr. rep. then the number of  $\rho_i$  isomorphic to  $\tilde{\rho}$  is equal to  $\langle \chi_{\rho}, \chi_{\tilde{\rho}} \rangle$ .

*Proof.* We know  $\chi_{\rho} = \chi_{\rho_1} + \cdots + \chi_{\rho_k}$ , so

$$\langle \chi_{\rho}, \chi_{\tilde{\rho}} \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \langle \chi_{\rho_i}, \chi_{\tilde{\rho}} \rangle$$

Recall  $\rho_i \cong \tilde{\rho} \implies \langle \chi_{\rho_i}, \chi_{\tilde{\rho}} \rangle = 1$ , otherwise  $\langle \chi_{\rho_i}, \chi_{\tilde{\rho}} \rangle = 0$ .

#### Remark 20.

1. The number of  $W_i$  isomorphic to  $\tilde{W}$  does not depend on the chosen decomposition. (=  $\langle \chi_{\rho}, \chi_{\tilde{\rho}} \rangle$ )

- 2. If  $\chi_{\rho} = \chi_{\rho'}$ , then  $\rho \cong \rho'$ :  $\langle \chi_{\rho}, \chi_{\tilde{\rho}} \rangle = \langle \chi_{\rho'}, \chi_{\tilde{\rho}} \rangle$  The type of irr. subrep of  $\rho$  is the same as  $\rho'$ .
- 3. If  $\chi_1, \ldots, \chi_l$  are distinct irr. characters of G, then since  $x_1, \ldots, x_l$  are orthonormal w.r.t.  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  in  $\mathcal{C}(G), x_1, \ldots, x_l$  are linearly indep. over  $\mathbb{C}$  in  $\mathcal{C}(G)$ .

But dim C(G) = k = # of conjugacy classes in G. So  $l \leq k$  i.e. we conclude that there are at most k mutually non-equivalent irr. rep. of G, say  $\rho_1, \ldots, \rho_l, l \leq k$ .

For any  $\rho: G \to \mathrm{GL}(V)$ ,  $\rho \cong \rho_1^{\oplus m_1} \oplus \cdots \oplus \rho_l^{\oplus m_l}$  where  $m_i = \langle \chi_{\rho_i}, \chi_{\rho_i} \rangle \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0}$ .

**Theorem 33** (Orthogonality relations for  $\chi$ 's). The set of all irr. characters of G forms an orthonormal basis  $\mathcal{C}(G)$  over  $\mathbb{C}$ . In particular, the number of irr. rep. of G is equal to # of conjugacy classes in G. (up to equivalence)

*Proof.* Let  $\chi_i = \chi_{\rho_i}, i = 1, \dots, l$  be all irr. characters of G and  $\mathcal{D} = \langle \chi_1, \dots, \chi_l \rangle_{\mathbb{C}} \subseteq \mathcal{C}(G)$ . Then  $\mathcal{C}(G) = \mathcal{D} \oplus \mathcal{D}^{\perp}$ . Claim:  $\mathcal{D}^{\perp} = \{0\}$ .

Let  $\varphi \in \mathcal{D}^{\perp}$ , i.e.  $\langle \varphi, \chi_i \rangle = 0, \forall i = 1, \dots, l$ .

Write  $\rho^{\text{reg}} \cong \rho_1^{\oplus m_1} \oplus \cdots \oplus \rho_l^{\oplus m_l} \implies \chi^{\text{reg}} = m_1 \chi_1 + \cdots + m_k \chi_l$ . By assumption,  $\langle \varphi, \chi_{\rho} \rangle = 0$ .

For each i, define  $\mathsf{T}_{\rho_i} \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbb{C}}(V, V)$  by

$$\mathsf{T}_{\rho_i} \triangleq \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \overline{\varphi(g)} \rho_i(g)$$

Then we have

$$\operatorname{Tr}(\mathsf{T}_{\rho_i}) = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \overline{\varphi(g)} \chi_{\rho}(g) = \overline{\langle \varphi, \chi_{\rho} \rangle} = 0$$

Also, for all  $h \in G$ .

$$\rho_{i}(h)^{-1} \circ \mathsf{T}_{\rho_{i}} \circ \rho_{i}(h) = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \overline{\varphi(g)} \rho_{i}(h)^{-1} \circ \rho_{i}(g) \circ \rho_{i}(h)$$

$$\stackrel{*}{=} \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \overline{\varphi(h^{-1}gh)} \rho_{i}(h^{-1}gh)$$

$$= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \overline{\varphi(g)} \rho_{i}(g) = \mathsf{T}_{\rho_{i}}$$

Where \* is because  $\varphi$  is a class function. So  $\mathsf{T}_{\rho_i}$  is G-equivariant. By Schur's lemma,  $\mathsf{T}_{\rho_i} = \lambda_i 1_{W_i}$  where  $\rho_i : G \to \mathrm{GL}(W_i)$ .

But  $\operatorname{Tr} \mathsf{T}_{\rho_i} = 0 \implies \lambda_i = 0 \implies \mathsf{T}_{\rho_i} = 0.$ 

Also, because  $\rho \cong \rho_1^{\oplus m_1} \oplus \cdots \oplus \rho_l^{\oplus m_l}$ , if we define

$$\mathsf{T}_{\rho^{\mathrm{reg}}} \triangleq \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \overline{\varphi(g)} \rho^{\mathrm{reg}}(g) \implies \mathsf{T}_{\rho^{\mathrm{reg}}} = \mathsf{T}_{\rho_1}^{\oplus m_1} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathsf{T}_{\rho_k}^{\oplus m_k} = 0$$

Finally, let  $\rho = \rho^{\text{reg}} : G \to \text{GL}(V)$  with  $V = \bigoplus_{g \in G} \mathbb{C}e_g$ . Then  $\mathsf{T}_{\rho} = 0 \implies \mathsf{T}_{\rho}(e_1) = 0$  and

$$0 = \mathsf{T}_{\rho}(e_1) = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \overline{\varphi(g)} \rho(g)(e_1) = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \overline{\varphi(g)} e_g$$

Since  $\{e_g\}$  is a basis,  $\overline{\varphi(g)} = 0 \quad \forall g$ . That is,  $\varphi \equiv 0$ .

**Prop 3.2.2.** Each irr. rep.  $\rho_i: G \to \mathrm{GL}(W_i)$  is contained in  $\rho^{\mathrm{reg}}$  with multiplicity equal to  $\dim W_i = m_i, i = 1, \ldots, k$ .

In particular, 
$$\bigoplus_{g \in G} \mathbb{C}e_g \cong \underbrace{W_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus W_1}_{m_1 \text{times}} \oplus \cdots \oplus \underbrace{W_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus W_k}_{m_k \text{times}}$$
. So  $|G| = m_1^2 + \cdots + m_k^2$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\chi^{\text{reg}} := \chi_{\rho^{\text{reg}}}$  and  $\chi_i = \chi_{\rho_i}, i = 1, \dots, k$ . Then

$$\langle \chi^{\text{reg}}, \chi_i \rangle = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \chi^{\text{reg}}(g) \chi_i(g^{-1}) = \frac{1}{|G|} |G| \chi_i(1) = m_i$$

**Theorem 34** (Divisibility).  $\forall i = 1, ..., k, \quad \chi_i(1) = m_i \mid |G|$ .

*Proof.* First, we shall proof that for each  $\rho = \rho_i$ ,  $\chi = \chi_i$  and j, we have

$$\mathsf{T} \triangleq \sum_{g \in C_j} \rho(g) = \frac{|C_j| \chi(g_0)}{m_i} \mathsf{I}_{m_i}, \quad \text{for any } g_0 \in C_j$$

Observe that  $\forall h \in G$ ,

$$\rho(h)^{-1} \circ \mathsf{T} \circ \rho(h) = \sum_{g \in C_i} \rho(h^{-1}gh) = \sum_{g' \in C_i} \rho(g') = \mathsf{T}$$

So T is G-equivariant w.r.t.  $\rho$ .

By Schur's lemma,  $\mathsf{T} = \lambda \mathsf{I}_{m_i}$  for some  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ . And  $\lambda = \mathrm{Tr}(\mathsf{T})/m_i = \sum_{g \in C_j} \chi(g)/m_i = |C_j|\chi(g_0)/m_i$  for any  $g_0 \in C_j$ , thus  $\sum_{g \in C_j} \rho(g) = \frac{|C_j|\chi(g_0)}{m_j} \mathsf{I}$  for any  $g_0 \in C_j$ .

Define  $\lambda_{\mu}(C_i) \triangleq |C_i|\chi_{\mu}(g_i)/m_{\mu}$ . Now, for a  $g \in C_l$ , define  $a_{i,j,l} \triangleq \#\{(g_i,g_j) \in C_i \times C_j \mid g_ig_j = g\}$ , which is indep. of the choice of g.

We claim that  $\lambda_{\mu}(C_i)\lambda_{\mu}(C_j) = \sum_{l=1}^k a_{i,j,l}\lambda_{\mu}(C_j), \forall i,j,\mu$ . Then

$$\lambda_{\mu}(C_{i}) \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{\mu}(C_{1}) \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_{\mu}(C_{k}) \end{bmatrix} = A \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{\mu}(C_{1}) \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_{\mu}(C_{k}) \end{bmatrix}, \text{ where } A \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} a_{i,1,1} & \dots & a_{i,1,k} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{i,k,1} & \dots & a_{i,1,k} \end{bmatrix}$$

So  $\lambda_{\mu}(C_j)$  is an eigenvalue of A, i.e.,  $\lambda = \lambda_{\mu}(C_j)$  satisfies  $\det(\lambda I - A) = 0$ . And thus  $\lambda_{\mu}(C_i)$  is an algebraic integer.

We proof the claim by the following calculating.

$$\lambda_{\mu}(C_{i})\lambda_{\mu}(C_{j})I_{m_{\mu}} = \left(\lambda_{\mu}(C_{i})I_{m_{\mu}}\right)\left(\lambda_{\mu}(C_{j})I_{m_{\mu}}\right) = \left(\sum_{g \in C_{i}} \rho(g)\right)\left(\sum_{g' \in C_{j}} \rho(g')\right)$$

$$= \sum_{\substack{g \in C_{i} \\ g' \in C_{j}}} \rho(gg') = \sum_{l=1}^{k} \sum_{\bar{g} \in C_{l}} a_{i,j,l}\rho(\bar{g})$$

$$= \sum_{l=1}^{k} a_{i,j,l} \sum_{\bar{g} \in C_{l}} \rho(\bar{g})$$

$$= \sum_{l=1}^{k} a_{i,j,l}\lambda_{\mu}(C_{l})I_{m_{\mu}}$$

Finally,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{|G|}{m_i} &= \frac{|G|}{m_i} \langle \chi_i, \chi_i \rangle \\ &= \frac{|G|}{m_i} \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \chi_i(g) \chi_i(g^{-1}) \\ &= \sum_{g \in G} \frac{\chi_i(g)}{m_i} \chi_i(g^{-1}) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^k \sum_{g \in C_j} \frac{\chi_i(g)}{m_i} \chi_i(g^{-1}) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{|C_j| \chi_i(g_j)}{m_i} \chi_i(g_j^{-1}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i(C_j) \chi_i(g_j^{-1}) \end{aligned}$$

and thus is an algebraic integer.

Also,  $|G|/m_i \in \mathbb{Q}$ , so we conclude that  $|G|/m_i \in \mathbb{Z} \implies m_i \mid |G|$ .

#### Ex 3.2.1.

- 1. Show that if  $g \in G$  and  $g \neq 1$ , then  $\sum_{i=1}^k m_i \chi_i(g) = 0$ .
- 2. Show that each character  $\chi$  of G with  $\chi(g) = 0 \quad \forall g \neq 1$  is an integral multiple of  $\chi^{reg}$ .

#### Ex 3.2.2.

- 1. Let  $|G| < \infty$ . Then G is abelian  $\iff$  each irr. rep. of G is of degree 1.
- 2. {the deg 1 rep. of G} = {the irr. rep. of G/[G,G]}.

#### 3.2.2 Applications

1. 
$$G = S_3 = D_3$$
,  $6 = 1^2 + 1^2 + 2^2$ .

Classes
 1
 
$$(1\ 2)$$
 $(1\ 2\ 3)$ 

 size
 1
 3
 2

  $\chi_1$ 
 1
 1

  $\chi_2$ 
 1
 -1
 1

  $\chi_3$ 
 2
 0
 -1

The permutation representation

$$\deg 4 \colon \tilde{\rho} = \rho^W \otimes \rho^W \leadsto \chi_{\tilde{\rho}} = \chi_3 \cdot \chi_3 = (4, 0, 1).$$

By inner product with  $\chi_1, \chi_2, \chi_3$ , we can find  $\chi_{\tilde{\rho}} = \chi_1 + \chi_2 + \chi_3 \leadsto \tilde{\rho} = \rho_1 \oplus \rho_2 \oplus \rho_3$ .

2. 
$$G = D_4 = \langle x, y \mid x^4 = 1, y^2 = 1, yxy^{-1} = x^{-1} \rangle$$
.  $|G| = 8 = 1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2 + 2^2$ .

Classes	1	y	x	$x^2$	xy
size	1	2	2	1	2
$\chi_1$	1	1	1	1	1
$\chi_2$	1	-1	1	1	-1
$\chi_3$	1	1	-1	1	-1
$\chi_4$	1	-1	-1	1	1
$\chi_5$	2	0	0	-2	0

$$\chi^{\text{reg}} = (8, 0, 0, 0, 0) = \chi_1 + \chi_2 + \chi_3 + \chi_4 + 2\chi_5.$$

3. 
$$G = D_n$$
,  $(n \text{ even})$   $[G, G] = H = \langle x^2 \rangle$ 

4. 
$$G = D_n$$
,  $(n \text{ odd})$   $[G, G] = H = \langle x \rangle$ 

5. 
$$G = S_4$$
.

Classes	1	$(1\ 2)$	$(1\ 2\ 3)$	$(1\ 2\ 3\ 4)$	$(1\ 2)(3\ 4)$
size	1	6	8	6	3
$\chi_1$	1	1	1	1	1
$\chi_2$	1	-1	1	-1	1
$\chi_3$	2	0	-1	0	2
$\chi_4$	3	1	0	-1	-1
$\chi_5$	3	-1	0	1	-1

6. 
$$G = A_4$$
,  $[A_4, A_4] = V_4$ .

Classes	1	$(1\ 2\ 3)$	$(1\ 3\ 2)$	$(1\ 2)(3\ 4)$
size	1	4	4	3
$\chi_1$	1	1	1	1
$\chi_2$	1	$\omega$	$\omega^2$	1
$\chi_3$	1	$\omega^2$	$\omega$	1
$\chi_A$	3	0	0	-1

**Theorem 35** (Product of groups). For  $\rho: G \to \operatorname{GL}(V)$  and  $\rho': G' \to \operatorname{GL}(V')$ , write  $\rho \otimes \rho': G \times G' \to \operatorname{GL}(V \otimes V')$ . If  $\{\rho_i\}$  are irreducible representations of G,  $\{\rho'_j\}$  are irreducible representations of G', then  $\{\rho_i \otimes \rho'_j\}$  are exactly the irreducible representations of  $G \times G'$ .

*Proof.* It is evidence that  $\rho_i \otimes \rho'_j$  is a homomorphism, and hence a representation.

Notice that  $\chi_{\rho\otimes\rho'}=\chi_{\rho}\odot\chi_{\rho'}$  where  $\chi_{\rho}\odot\chi_{\rho'}(g,g')=\chi_{\rho}(g)\chi_{\rho'}(g')$ 

Now we calculate

$$\langle \chi_{\rho_1} \otimes \chi_{\rho'_1}, \chi_{\rho_2} \otimes \chi_{\rho'_2} \rangle = \frac{1}{|G||G'|} \sum_{g,g'} \chi_{\rho_1}(g) \chi_{\rho'_1}(g') \chi_{\rho_2}(g) \chi_{\rho'_2}(g')$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{|G|} \sum_g \chi_{\rho_1}(g) \chi_{\rho_2}(g)\right) \left(\frac{1}{|G'|} \sum_{g'} \chi_{\rho'_1}(g') \chi_{\rho'_2}(g')\right)$$

$$= \langle \chi_{\rho_1}, \chi_{\rho_2} \rangle \langle \chi_{\rho'_1}, \chi_{\rho'_2} \rangle$$

So  $\langle \chi_{\rho} \otimes \chi_{\rho'}, \chi_{\rho} \otimes \chi_{\rho'} \rangle = 1$  hence each  $\chi_{\rho} \otimes \chi_{\rho'}$  is irreducible. And  $\langle \chi_{\rho_1} \otimes \chi_{\rho'_1}, \chi_{\rho_2} \otimes \chi_{\rho'_2} \rangle = 0$  if  $\rho_1 \otimes \rho'_1 \neq \rho_2 \otimes \rho'_2$ , and thus these representations are not isomorphic.

Finally we proof that any irreducible representations of  $G \times G'$  is isomorphic to some  $\rho \otimes \rho'$ .

Let  $\{\rho_1, \ldots, \rho_k\}, \{\rho'_1, \ldots, \rho'_{k'}\}$  be the sets of irreducible representations of G, G' respectively. Write  $\chi_i = \chi_{\rho_i}, \chi'_i = \chi_{\rho'_i}$ .

Let  $\mathcal{D} \triangleq \mathcal{C}(G \times G') = \langle \chi_i, \chi'_j \mid i = 1, \dots, k, j = 1, \dots, k' \rangle_{\mathbb{C}} =$ . We claim that  $\mathcal{D}^{\perp} = \{0\}$ . Let  $f \in \mathcal{D}^{\perp}$ . Then

$$0 = \frac{1}{|G \times G'|} \sum_{(g,g') \in G \times G'} f(g,g') \overline{\chi_i(g) \chi_j'(g')}$$
$$= \frac{1}{|G'|} \sum_{g'} \left( \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_g f(g,g') \overline{\chi_i(g)} \right) \chi_j'(g')$$
$$= \left\langle \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_g f(g,\cdot) \overline{\chi_i(g)}, \chi_j' \right\rangle$$

Since  $\rho'_j$  are othonogal basis of  $\mathcal{C}(G')$ , we have  $\frac{1}{|G|}\sum_g f(g,g')\overline{\chi_i(g)}=0$  for all g'. Again,

$$0 = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g} f(g, g') \overline{\chi_i(g)} = \langle f(\cdot, g'), \chi_i \rangle$$

Hence f(g, g') = 0 for all g, g', which implies  $f \equiv 0$ .

**Ex 3.2.3.** Determine all irr. rep. of  $C_n$ .

**Ex 3.2.4.** Calculate the character table of  $Q_8$ .

**Ex 3.2.5.** Calculate the character table of  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times S_4$  and  $S_3 \times S_4$ .

To calculate  $S_5$ ,  $|S_5| = 120 = 1^2 + 1^2 + 4^2 + 4^2 + 5^2 + 5^2 + 6^2$ .

# 4 Extensions of Groups

#### 4.1 Week 16

#### 4.1.1 Extensions of abelian groups

**Def 66.** If a group E contains a normal subgroup N and  $E/N \cong G$ , then we call E an extension of N by G, denoted by  $1 \to N \to E \to G \to 1$ .

Ques: When N and G are given, how to obtain all extensions of N by G.

Now assume that N is abelian.

**Def 67.**  $1 \to N \to E \xrightarrow{p} G \to 1$ .  $l: G \to E$  is a lifting if  $p \circ l = \mathrm{id}_G$  and l(1) = 1.

**Remark 21.**  $G \cong E/N = \{xN \mid x \in E\}, p \circ l(\bar{x}) = \bar{x}, l(\bar{x}) \text{ is a representative of } xN = \bar{x}.$ 

#### Prop 4.1.1.

- 1.  $\forall \bar{x} \in G, \theta_{\bar{x}} : N \to N, a \mapsto l(\bar{x})al(\bar{x})^{-1}$ . is independent of the choice of l.
- 2.  $\theta: G \to \operatorname{Aut}(N), \bar{x} \mapsto \theta_{\bar{x}}$  is a group homomorphism.

Proof.

- 1. Suppose  $l': G \to E$  is another lifting. Then  $l(\bar{x})N = l'(\bar{x})N$ . So  $l'(\bar{x}) = l(\bar{x})b$  for some  $b \in N$ .  $\forall a \in N, l'(\bar{x})al'(\bar{x})^{-1} = l(\bar{x})bab^{-1}l(\bar{x})^{-1} = l(\bar{x})al(\bar{x})^{-1}$  since N is abelian.
- 2.  $\theta_{\bar{x}\bar{y}}(a) = l(\bar{x}\bar{y})al(\bar{x}\bar{y})^{-1}$ .

$$\begin{cases} p \circ l(\bar{x}\bar{y}) = \bar{x}\bar{y} \\ p \circ (l(\bar{x})l(\bar{y})) = \bar{x}\bar{y} \end{cases} \rightsquigarrow l(\bar{x}\bar{y}), l(\bar{x})l(\bar{y}) \text{ are liftings of } \bar{x}\bar{y} \qquad \Box$$

**Def 68.** An extension  $1 \to N \to E \to G \to 1$  splits if  $\exists$  a lifting  $l: G \to E$  is a group homo.

#### **Prop 4.1.2.** TFAE

- 1.  $1 \to N \to E \to G \to 1$  splits.
- $2. \ \exists \ \text{a subgroup} \ K \leq E \ \text{s.t.} \ K \cong G \ \text{and} \ \begin{cases} K \cap N = \{1\} \\ NK = E \end{cases} \\ \leadsto E \cong N \rtimes K (\cong N \rtimes G).$

*Proof.* (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2): Let K = Im l which is a subgroup since l is a group homo.

- l is an isomorphism from G to K: If  $l(\bar{x}) = l(\bar{y})$ , then  $p \circ l(\bar{x}) = p \circ l(\bar{y}) \leadsto \bar{x} = \bar{y}$ . So l is 1-1.
- E = NK:  $\forall x \in E, \bar{x} = p(x) \leadsto y = l(\bar{x}) \text{ and } p(x) = p(y) \leadsto \exists a \in N \text{ s.t. } x = ay.$
- $K \cap N = \{1\}$ :  $a = l(\bar{x}) \in K \cap N \leadsto 1 = p(a) = p(l(\bar{x})) = \bar{x} \leadsto a = l(1) = 1$ .

 $(2) \Rightarrow (1)$ :

- $\bullet \ \ p\big|_K: K \rightarrow G \text{ is an isom.: onto: } p(K) = p(NK) = p(E) = G, \text{ 1-1: } \ker(p\big|_K) = N \cap K = \{1\}.$
- $l = (p|_K)^{-1}$  is a group homo.

Observation: Let  $l: G \to E$  be a lifting. Then  $E = \bigcup_{\bar{x} \in G} Nl(\bar{x}), \forall x, y \in E$ , write  $x = al(\bar{x}), y = bl(\bar{y}), a, b \in N, \bar{x}, \bar{y} \in G$ .

$$xy = (al(\bar{x})bl(\bar{y})) = al(\bar{x})bl(\bar{x})^{-1}l(\bar{x})l(\bar{y}) = a\theta_{\bar{x}}(b)l(\bar{x})l(\bar{y})$$

Notice that  $l(\bar{x})l(\bar{y})$  and  $l(\bar{x}\bar{y})$  are liftings, so we can write  $l(\bar{x})l(\bar{y}) = f(\bar{x},\bar{y})l(\bar{x}\bar{y})$  for some  $f(\bar{x},\bar{y}) \in N$ .

Ex 4.1.1.  $B^2(G, N) \leq Z^2(G, N)$ .

**Ex 4.1.2.** Show that there are inequivalent extensions of N by G with isomorphic middle groups. (Hint:  $N = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  with p is odd,  $E = \mathbb{Z}/p^2\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $a :: N \mapsto x^p :: E$  and please give another morphism  $N \to E$  by yourself.)

**Def 69.** Given  $1 \to N \to E \xrightarrow{p} G \to 1$  and  $l: G \to E$ , a factor set is a function  $f: G \times G \to N$  s.t.  $\forall \bar{x}, \bar{y} \in G, l(\bar{x})l(\bar{y}) = f(\bar{x}, \bar{y})l(\bar{x}\bar{y})$ .

**Prop 4.1.3.** Let  $1 \to N \to E \xrightarrow{p} G \to 1$  and  $l: G \to E$ . If f is a factor set, then

- (1)  $f(x,1) = 1 = f(1,y) \quad \forall x, y \in G.$
- (2) (cocycle identity)  $\forall x, y, z \in G, f(x, y) f(xy, z) = \theta_x(f(y, z)) f(x, yz).$ (i.e. f(x, y) + f(xy, z) = x f(y, z) + f(x, yz))

Proof.

- (1) Trivial since  $l(x)l(1) = l(1 \cdot x)$ .
- (2) By associativity. (l(x)l(y))l(z) = l(x)(l(y)l(z)). (l(x)l(y))l(z) = f(x,y)l(xy)l(z) = f(x,y)f(xy,z)l(xyz), and  $l(x)(l(y)l(z)) = l(x)f(y,z)l(yz) = l(x)f(y,z)l^{-1}(x)l(x)l(yz) = \theta_x(f(y,z))f(x,yz)l(xyz)$ . Thus  $f(x,y)f(xy,z) = \theta_x(f(y,z))f(x,yz)$ .

**Theorem 36.** Let  $\sigma: G \to \operatorname{Aut}(N), x \mapsto \sigma_x$  be a group homo. and  $f: G \times G \to N$  satisfies (1),(2) in Prop. 4.1.3. Then  $\exists 1 \to N \to E \to G \to 1$  and  $l: G \to E$  s.t.  $\theta = \sigma$  and f is the corresponding factor set.

*Proof.* • Define  $E = N \times G$  equipped with the operation

$$(a, x)(b, y) = (a\sigma_x(b)f(x, y), xy)$$

- associativity:

$$\begin{aligned} \big((a,x)(b,y)\big)(c,z) &= (a\sigma_x(b)f(x,y),xy)(c,z) \\ &= (a\sigma_x(b)f(x,y)\sigma_{xy}(c)f(xy,z),xyz) \\ &= (a\sigma_x(b)\sigma_{xy}(c)f(x,y)f(xy,z),xyz) \quad (\because N \text{ abelian}) \end{aligned}$$

and

$$(a,x)((b,y)(c,z)) = (a,x)(b\sigma_y(c)f(y,z))$$

$$= (a\sigma_x(b\sigma_y(c)f(y,z))f(x,yz),xyz)$$

$$= (a\sigma_x(b)\sigma_{xy}(c)\sigma_x(f(y,z))f(x,yz),xyz)$$

$$= (a\sigma_x(b)\sigma_{xy}(c)f(x,y)f(xy,z),xyz)$$

- indentity: (1,1). - inverse:  $(a,x)^{-1} = (\sigma_{x^{-1}}(a^{-1}f(x,x^{-1})^{-1}),x^{-1})$ .

- $p: E \to G, (a, x) \mapsto x$  is a group homo by def.
- $i: N \to E, a \mapsto (a, 1)$  is a group homo.  $(a, 1)(b, 1) = (a\sigma_1(b)f(1, 1), 1) = (ab, 1)$ .
- $\ker p = \operatorname{Im} i$ .
- Fix  $l: G \to E, a \in N, x \in G$ , say l(x) = (b, x).

$$l(x)(a,1)l(x)^{-1} = (b,x)(a,1)(b,x)^{-1} = (b\sigma_x(a),x)\left(\sigma_{x^{-1}}(a^{-1}f(x,x^{-1})^{-1}),x^{-1}\right)$$
$$= (b\sigma_x(a)\cdot(\sigma_x\circ\sigma_{x^{-1}})\left(b^{-1}f(x,x^{-1})^{-1}\right)\cdot f(x,x^{-1}),1)$$
$$= (\sigma_x(a),1)$$

So  $\theta_x = \sigma_x$ .

• Let  $l: G \to E, x \mapsto (1, x)$ . Check  $l(x)l(y)l(xy)^{-1} = (f(x, y), 1)$ . Then f is the corresponding factor set.

**Prop 4.1.4.** Let  $1 \to N \to E \xrightarrow{p} G \to 1$  with two liftings  $l_1 : G \to E$ ,  $l_2 : G \to E$  with  $f_1 : G \times G \to N$ ,  $f_2 : G \times G \to N$  respectively.

Then  $\exists h : G \to N$  with h(1) = 1 and  $\forall x, y \in G, f_2(x, y) f_1(x, y)^{-1} = \theta_x(h(y)) h(xy)^{-1} h(x)$ .  $(f_2(x, y) - f_1(x, y) = xh(y) - h(xy) + h(x))$ 

*Proof.* For  $x \in G$ ,  $\exists h(x) \in N$  s.t.  $l_2(x) = h(x)l_1(x)$ . Since  $l_1(1) = l_2(1) = 1$ , h(1) = 1.

Now,  $l_2(x)l_2(y) = f_2(x,y)l_2(x,y) = f_2(x,y)h(xy)l_1(x,y)$ . and

$$l_2(x)l_2(y) = h(x)l_1(x)h(y)l_1(y) = h(x)l_1(x)h(y)l_1^{-1}(x)l_1(x)l_1(y)$$
  
=  $h(x)\theta_x(h(y))l_1(x)l_1(y) = f_1(x,y)h(x)\theta_x(h(y))l_1(x,y)$ 

So  $f_2(x,y)f_1(x,y)^{-1} = \theta_x(h(y))h(xy)^{-1}h(x)$ .

**Remark 22.** A map which has the form  $\tilde{h}: G \times G \to N, (x,y) \mapsto xh(y) - h(xy) + h(x)$  is called a coboundary map.

**Def 70.**  $Z^2(G, N) =$ the abelian group of all factor sets.

 $B^{2}(G, N) =$  the abelian group of all coboundary maps.

$$H^{2}(G, N) = Z^{2}(G, N)/B^{2}(G, N)$$

 $\textbf{Def 71.} \quad \text{Two extensions } \begin{cases} 1 \to N \to E \to G \to 1 \\ 1 \to N \to E' \to G \to 1 \end{cases} \quad \text{are equivalent if exists an isomorphism } \varphi:$ 

 $E \xrightarrow{\sim} E'$  which let the following diagram comutes.

$$1 \longrightarrow N \longrightarrow E \longrightarrow G \longrightarrow 1$$

$$\downarrow^{1_N} \qquad \varphi \downarrow \wr \qquad \downarrow^{1_G}$$

$$1 \longrightarrow N \longrightarrow E' \longrightarrow G \longrightarrow 1$$

**Theorem 37.** Two extensions  $\begin{cases} 1 \to N \to E \to G \to 1 \\ 1 \to N \to E' \to G \to 1 \end{cases}$  are equivalent  $\iff$ 

Exists mappings  $l: G \to E, l': G \to E'$  with two factor sets f, f' respectively satisfies  $f - f' \in B^2(G, N)$ .

*Proof.* " $\Rightarrow$ ": Choose  $l:G\to E$  which has a corresponding factor set  $f:G\times G\to N$ . Now define  $l':G\to E'$  by  $l'=\varphi\circ l$ . Since  $p'\circ l'=p'\circ\varphi\circ l=p\circ l=1$ , l' is a lifting. Let  $f':G\times G\to N$  be its factor set.

Since  $1_N = 1_N \circ \varphi$ ,  $\varphi|_N = 1_N$ . And

$$l(x)l(y) = f(x,y)l(xy)$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(l(x)l(y)) = \varphi(f(x,y)l(xy))$$

$$\Rightarrow l'(x)l'(y) = \varphi(f(x,y))l'(xy)$$

$$\Rightarrow f'(x,y) = \varphi(f(x,y))$$

But  $f(x,y) \in N$ ,  $\varphi(f(x,y)) = \varphi|_N(f(x,y)) = f(x,y)$ . So f(x,y) = f'(x,y), hence  $f - f' = 0 \in$  $B^2(G,N)$ .

#### Ex 4.1.3.

- (1) Show that  $f' f \in B^2(G, N)$ .
- (2) "←": Show all details of the following steps:

$$\bullet \quad \begin{cases} 1 \to N \to E \to G \to 1 \\ 1 \to N \to E(N,G,f,\theta) \to G \to 1 \end{cases} \quad \text{are equivalent.}$$

- $\begin{array}{l} \bullet & \begin{cases} 1 \to N \to E \to G \to 1 \\ 1 \to N \to E(N,G,f,\theta) \to G \to 1 \end{cases} & \text{are equivalent.} \\ \bullet & \text{Similarly } \begin{cases} 1 \to N \to E' \to G \to 1 \\ 1 \to N \to E(N,G,f',\theta') \to G \to 1 \end{cases} & \text{are equivalent.} \end{array}$

#### 4.1.2 1st and 2nd group cohomology

Let N be an abelian group and G be a group with a group homo  $\sigma: G \to \operatorname{Aut}(N)$   $(G \curvearrowright N)$ 

 $e(G, N) = \{ \text{equivalence classes of } N \text{ by } G \}$ 

$$Z^{2}(G, N) = \{ f : G \times G \to N \mid f(1, v) = f = f(u, 1), f(u, v) + f(uv, w) = uf(v, w) + f(u, vw) \quad u, v, w \in G \}$$

$$B^{2}(G, N) = \{ f : G \times G \to N \mid \exists h : G \to N \text{ with } h(1) = 1 \text{ s.t. } f(u, v) = uh(v) - h(uv) + h(u) \quad u, v \in G \}$$

$$H^{2}(G, N) = Z^{2}(G, N)/B^{2}(G, N)$$

Then  $e(G, N) \leftrightarrow H^2(G, N)$ .

#### Def 72.

•  $\varphi \in Aut(E)$  stabilizes  $1 \to N \to E \to G \to 1$  if

•  $\operatorname{Stab}_{E}(G, N) = \{\operatorname{stabilizing automorphisms}\} \leq \operatorname{Aut}(E)$ 

#### Def 73.

- A derivation is a function  $d: G \to N$  s.t.  $d(uv) = ud(v) + d(u) \quad \forall u, v \in G$ .
- $Der(G, N) = \{derivations : G \to N\}$  is an abelian group with pointwise addition.

**Theorem 38.** Let  $1 \to N \to E \to G \to 1$  with  $\theta = \sigma$ . Then  $\operatorname{Stab}_E(G, N) \cong \operatorname{Der}(G, N)$ . So  $\operatorname{Stab}_{E}(G,N)$  is abelian.

Proof.

• Let  $\varphi \in \text{LHS}$  and fix  $l: G \to E$ .

$$1 \longrightarrow N \longrightarrow E \longrightarrow G \longrightarrow 1$$

$$\downarrow_{1_N} \qquad \varphi \downarrow_{?} \qquad \downarrow_{1_G} \qquad \varphi(al(u)) = \varphi(a)\varphi(l(u)) = ad(u)l(u)$$

$$1 \longrightarrow N \longrightarrow E \longrightarrow G \longrightarrow 1$$

- For another  $l': G \to E$ , say l'(u) = g(u)l(u), where  $g(u) \in N$ , we have

$$d'(u) = \varphi(l'(u))(l'(u))^{-1} = \varphi(g(u)l(u))(g(u)l(u))^{-1}) = g(u)\varphi(l(u))l(u)^{-1}g(u)^{-1} = d(u).$$

 $-d \in RHS$ ,

$$\begin{split} d(uv) &= \varphi(l(uv))l(uv)^{-1} \\ &= \varphi(f(u,v)^{-1}l(u)l(v))l(v)^{-1}l(u)^{-1}f(u,v) \\ &= f(u,v)^{-1}d(u)l(u)d(v)l(v)l(v)^{-1}l(u)^{-1}f(u,v) \\ &= f(u,v)^{-1}d(u)\big(l(u)d(v)l(u)^{-1}\big)f(u,v) \\ &= \big(ud(v)\big)d(u) \end{split}$$

• Conversely,

**Ex 4.1.4.** proof it

• group homo:  $\varphi_2 \circ \varphi_1(al(u)) = \varphi_2(ad_1(u)l(u)) = ad_1(u)\varphi_2(l(u)) = ad_1(u)d_2(u)l(u)$ . That is,  $\varphi_2 \circ \varphi_1 \mapsto d_1d_2$ .

Def 74.

- $\operatorname{Inn}_E(G, N) = \{ \varphi \in \operatorname{Stab}_E(G, N) \mid \varphi : E \to E, x \mapsto a_0 x a_0^{-1} \text{ for some } a_0 \in N \}.$
- $PDer(G, N) = \{d \in Der(G, N) \mid d(u) = ua_1 a_1 \text{ for some } a_1 \in N\}.$

**Ex 4.1.5.** Show that  $\operatorname{Inn}_E(G, N) \cong \operatorname{PDer}(G, N)$ .

 $\operatorname{Stab}_{E}(G, N)/\operatorname{Inn}_{E}(G, N) \cong \operatorname{Der}(G, N)/\operatorname{PDer}(G, N) = H^{1}(G, N).$ 

**Ex 4.1.6.** Fix  $1 \to N \to E \to G \to 1$ . Show that if  $H^2(G, N) = 0, H^1(G, N) = 0$ , then for  $l: G \to E$  with K = l(G), we get that K and K' are conjugate. K' = l'(G)

**Def 75.** Let R be a commutative ring with 1 and G be a group. The group ring

$$R[G] = \left\{ \sum_{g \in G} r_g g \,\middle|\, \text{only finitely many } r_g\text{'s} \neq 0 \text{ in } R \right\}$$

forms an R-algebra via

$$\begin{split} \sum_{g \in G} r_g g + \sum_{g \in G} r_g' g &= \sum_{g \in G} (r_g + r_g') g \\ \left(\sum_{g \in G} r_g g\right) \left(\sum_{g' \in G} r_g' g'\right) &= \sum_{g, g' \in G} (r_g r_g') g g' \\ r\left(\sum_{g \in G} r_g g\right) &= \sum_{g \in G} (r r_g) g \end{split}$$

#### Remark 23.

- 1.  $\{\rho: G \to \mathrm{GL}(V)\} \leftrightarrow \{V: \mathbb{C}[G]\text{-module}\}.$ 
  - $\rho$ : irr  $\leftrightarrow V$ : simple  $\mathbb{C}[G]$ -module (i.e. no nontrivial proper submodule)
  - $W \subset V$ : G-invariant  $\leftrightarrow W : \mathbb{C}[G]$ -submodule.
- 2. N: abelian  $\leadsto N: \mathbb{Z}$ -module and  $G \curvearrowright N. \implies N: \mathbb{Z}[G]$ -module.

**Def 76.**  $G \curvearrowright \mathbb{Z}$  trivially. i.e.  $g \cdot n = n \quad \forall g \in G, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then  $\mathbb{Z} : \mathbb{Z}[G]$ -module.

- $B_0 = \mathbb{Z}[G][$  ]: the free  $\mathbb{Z}[G]$ -module on the symbol [ ].
- $B_1 = \bigoplus_{u \in G} \mathbb{Z}[G][u]$ : the free  $\mathbb{Z}[G]$ -module on the set G.
- $B_2 = \bigoplus_{u,v \in G} \mathbb{Z}[G][u|v]$ : the free  $\mathbb{Z}[G]$ -module on the set  $G \times G$ .
- $B_3 = \bigoplus_{u,v,w \in G} \mathbb{Z}[G][u|v|w]$ : the free  $\mathbb{Z}[G]$ -module on the set  $G \times G \times G$ .

. . .

Now apply  $\operatorname{Hom}(\cdot, N)$  to it:

...

**Theorem 39.**  $\operatorname{Ext}^1_{\mathbb{Z}[G]}(\mathbb{Z}, N) := \ker d_2^* / \ker d_1^* \cong \operatorname{Der}(G, N) / \operatorname{PDer}(G, N) = H^1(G, N).$ 

Proof.

- $g \in \ker d_2^* \subseteq \operatorname{Hom}(B_1, N) \implies g \circ d_2 = 0. \dots$
- ...
- Let  $t \in \text{Hom}(B_0, N)$ , say  $t([]) = a_0 \in N$ .

$$d_1^*(t)([u]) = t \circ d_1([u]) = t(u[] - []) = ut([]) - t([]) = ua_0 - a_0$$

Then  $d(u) := d_1^*(t)([u]) \implies d \in PDer(G, N)$ .

• ...

Remark 24.  $\operatorname{Ext}^2_{\mathbb{Z}[G]}(\mathbb{Z},N) \cong H^2(G,N).$ 

# 5 Fields

## 5.1 Algebraic extensions (week 1)

#### Def 77.

- L/K is called an **field extension** if L is a field and K is a subfield of L.
- $\alpha \in L$  is algebraic over K if exists  $f(x) \in K[x]$  satisfied  $f(\alpha) = 0$ .
- L/K is called an algebraic extension if  $\forall \alpha \in L, \exists f(x) \in K[x]$  such that  $f(\alpha) = 0$ .
- $K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n) \triangleq \{P(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)/Q(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) : P, Q \in K[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] \text{ and } Q \neq 0\}$

#### Theorem 40 (Eisenstein criterion).

Let  $f(x) = a_n x^n + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  with  $gcd(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n) = 1$ . Assume that there exists a prime p s.t.  $p \nmid a_n$  but  $p \mid a_i$  for other  $i \neq n$ , and  $p^2 \nmid a_0$ , then f is irreducible.

Proof. Since f is primitive, by Gauss lemma, we only need to prove that it is irreducible in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ . Consider  $\bar{f}(x)$ , by assumption,  $\bar{f}(x) = \bar{a}_n x^n$ . So if f(x) = g(x)h(x) with  $\deg g, \deg h \geq 1$ , let  $g(x) = b_r x^r + \dots + b_0, h(x) = c_{n-r} x^{n-r} + \dots + c_0$ , then  $\bar{g}(x) = \bar{b}_r x^r, \bar{h}(x) = \bar{c}_{n-r} x^{n-r}$  for some r. But then we would find out that  $\bar{b}_0 = \bar{c}_0 = 0$ , and thus  $p^2 \mid a_0$ , which is a contradiction, hence f is irreducible.

**Prop 5.1.1.** Given L/K and  $\alpha \in L$ , if  $\alpha$  is algebraic over K, then there exists a unique monic irreducible polynomial  $m_{\alpha,K}(x) \in K[x]$  of minimal degree s.t.  $m_{\alpha,K}(\alpha) = 0$  and for any other  $f(x) \in K[x]$  with  $f(\alpha) = 0$ , we have  $m_{\alpha,K} \mid f$ . We call  $m_{\alpha,K}$  the **minimal polynomial** of  $\alpha$  over K.

*Proof.* Let I be the set of all polynomials such that  $f(\alpha) = 0$ , since  $\alpha$  algebraic,  $I \neq \emptyset$ , so pick a monic polynomial g(x) of minimal degree in I. For any other  $f(x) \in I$ , write f(x) = g(x)q(x) + r(x) with deg  $r < \deg g$ . If  $r(x) \neq 0$ , then  $r(\alpha) = f(\alpha) - q(\alpha)g(\alpha)$ . But then  $r(\alpha) = f(\alpha) - q(\alpha)g(\alpha) = 0$  with deg  $r < \deg g$ , which contradicts the minimality of g, thus r = 0, and hence  $g \mid f$ .

Finally, if  $g(x) = h_1(x)h_2(x)$  with deg  $h_1$ , deg  $h_2 < \deg g$ , then one of them, say  $h_1(\alpha) = 0$  again contradicts the minimality of g, hence g is irreducible.

#### **Prop 5.1.2.** Let L/K be an extension and $\alpha \in L$ , the following are equivalent:

- (1)  $\alpha$  is algebraic over K.
- (2)  $K[\alpha] = K(\alpha)$ .
- (3)  $[K(\alpha):K]<\infty$ .

*Proof.* (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2): " $\subset$ " trivial.

"\(\text{"}:\) For all  $\beta \in K(\alpha), \beta = g(\alpha)/h(\alpha)$  with  $h(\alpha) \neq 0$ . So  $m_{\alpha,K} \nmid h$ . Since  $m_{\alpha,K}$  is irreducible,  $gcd(m_{\alpha,K},h) = 1$ , hence there exists  $a(x), b(x) \in K[x]$  such that  $1 = a(x)h(x) + b(x)m_{\alpha,K}(x)$  Substitute  $\alpha$  and we get  $1/h(\alpha) = a(\alpha)$ , hence  $\beta = g(\alpha)a(\alpha) \in K[\alpha]$ .

- (2)  $\Rightarrow$  (1): Since  $1/\alpha \in K[\alpha]$ , thus  $1/\alpha = f(\alpha)$  for some polynomial f, hence if we set g(x) = xf(x) 1,  $g(\alpha) = 0$  which implies  $\alpha$  is algebraic.
- (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (3): Assume that  $\deg m_{\alpha,K} = n$ , it is easy to see that  $K[\alpha] = \langle 1, \alpha, \dots, \alpha^{n-1} \rangle_K$ . Since (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2), we have  $[K(\alpha):K] = [K[\alpha],K] = n$ .

(3)  $\Rightarrow$  (1): Since  $[K(\alpha):K]=n$ , consider  $1,\alpha,\alpha^2,\ldots,\alpha^n$ . Some of these n+1 elements may be coincident, but nevertheless these elements are linearly dependent. Hence there exists  $a_0,\ldots,a_n$  not all zero in K s.t.  $a_0+a_1\alpha+\cdots+a_n\alpha^n=0 \implies \alpha$  is algebraic.

**Prop 5.1.3.** Given M/L and L/K, [M:K] = [M:L][L:K].

*Proof.* If  $[M:L]=m<\infty$  and  $[L:K]=n<\infty$ , then  $L\cong K^{\oplus n}, M\cong L^{\oplus m}$ . So  $M\cong (K^{\oplus n})^{\oplus m}\cong K^{\oplus mn}$ , thus [M:K]=mn.

Now if  $[M:K] = l < \infty$ , then there exists a basis  $\{z_1, z_2, \dots, z_l\}$  which is a basis for M over K. Then  $M = Kz_1 + \dots + Kz_l \subset Lz_1 + \dots + Lz_l \subset M \implies M = Lz_1 + \dots + Lz_l$ . Hence  $[M:L] < \infty$ . Also, since L is a K-linear subspace of M,  $[L:K] \leq l \implies [L:K] < \infty$ . Thus if  $[M:L] = \infty$  or  $[L:K] = \infty$ , then  $[M:K] = \infty$ .

**Prop 5.1.4.** Given L/K, define  $L^{\text{alg}} \triangleq \{\alpha \in L \mid \alpha \text{ is algebraic over } K\}$ , then  $L^{\text{alg}}$  is a subfield of L.

*Proof.* Notice that if  $\alpha, \beta \in L^{\text{alg}}$ , then  $\beta$  is algebraic over K implies that  $\beta$  is algebraic over  $K(\alpha)$ . Thus

$$[K(\alpha, \beta) : K] = [K(\alpha)(\beta) : K(\alpha)][K(\alpha) : K] < \infty$$

Also, since  $K(\alpha + \beta)$ ,  $K(\alpha - \beta)$ ,  $K(\alpha \beta)$ ,  $K(\alpha / \beta)$  are all contained in  $K(\alpha, \beta)$ , they are all algebraic over K, thus these elements are all algebraic, and hence  $L^{\text{alg}}$  is a subfield.

**Prop 5.1.5.**  $[L:K] < \infty$  if and only if  $L = K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n)$  with each  $\alpha_i$  algebraic over K. In this case, L/K is algebraic.

*Proof.* " $\Rightarrow$ ": Let [L:K] = n, so there is a basis  $\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n\}$  for L over K. It is easy to see that  $L = K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ . Also  $[K(\alpha_i):K] \leq [L:K] < \infty$ , thus  $\alpha_i$  is algebraic.

"\(\infty\)": Since  $\alpha_i$  is algebraic over  $K, \alpha_i$  is algebraic over  $K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{i-1})$ . Thus

$$[L:K] = [K(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) : K(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{n-1})][K(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{n-1}) : K(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{n-2})] \dots [K(\alpha_1) : K] < \infty$$

Moreover,  $\forall \alpha \in L, [K(\alpha):K] \leq [L:K] < \infty$ , so  $\alpha$  is algebraic over K.

**Coro 5.1.1.** Given L/K, and S a subset of L, if  $\forall \alpha \in S$ ,  $\alpha$  is algebraic over K, then K(S)/K is algebraic.

*Proof.* If  $\beta \in K(S)$ , by definition we know that there exists  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$  such that  $\beta \in K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ . Thus  $\beta$  is algebraic over K.

**Prop 5.1.6.** If M/L and L/K are algebraic, then M/K is algebraic.

*Proof.* For all  $\alpha \in M$ , since  $\alpha$  is algebraic over L, there exists  $a_{n-1}, \ldots, a_0$  so that  $\alpha^n + a_{n-1}\alpha^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0 = 0$ , that is,  $\alpha$  is algebraic over  $K(a_0, \ldots, a_{n-1})$ .

So  $[K(a_0, ..., a_{n-1}, \alpha) : K] = [K(a_0, ..., a_{n-1})(\alpha) : K(a_0, ..., a_{n-1})][K(a_0, ..., a_{n-1}) : K] < \infty$ , thus  $\alpha$  is algebraic over K.

**Def 78.** Given  $L/L_1$  and  $L/L_2$ ,  $L_1L_2$  is defined as the smallest subfield of L containing both  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ .

**Prop 5.1.7.** Let  $[L_1:K]=m$  and  $[L_2:K]=n$ .

- (1)  $[L_1L_2:K] \leq mn$ .
- (2) If gcd(m, n) = 1, then  $[L_1L_2 : K] = mn$ .

Proof. (1): Assume  $L_1 = K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m), L_2 = K(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n)$ . We could find that  $L_1L_2 = K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m, \beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n)$ . Notice that  $[K(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m)(\alpha_i) : K(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m)] \leq [K(\alpha_i) : K]$ , and thus  $[L_1L_2 : K] = [K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m, \beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n) : K(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n)][K(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m) : K] \leq [K(\alpha_i, \ldots, \alpha_n) : K][K(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n) : K] = [L_1 : K][L_2 : K]$ .

(2): Notice that  $[L_i:K] \mid [L_1L_2:K]$ , so  $mn \mid [L_1L_2:K]$ . By (1),  $[L_1L_2:K] \leq nm$ , hence  $[L_1L_2:K] = nm$ .

**Def 79.** Let R be a commutative ring with 1, and I be an ideal of R, then

- I is called a **maximal ideal** if for any ideal J satisfying  $I \subseteq J$  we have J = I or J = R.
- *I* is called a **prime ideal** if  $I \neq R$  and  $ab \in I \implies a \in I$  or  $b \in I$ .

#### **Prop 5.1.8.** Suppose R is a ring and $I \subseteq R$ is an ideal, then

- 1. I is maximal  $\iff R/I$  is a field.
- 2. I is a prime ideal  $\iff$  R/I is an integral domain.

Proof.

- 1. " $\Rightarrow$ ": For any  $\bar{r} \in R/I$  with  $\bar{r} \neq 0$ , then  $r \notin I$ . Consider  $\langle r \rangle + I$  which contains I and is not equal to I because  $r \notin I$ . Since I is maximal,  $\langle r \rangle + I = R$ , and thus  $\exists \, x \in R, y \in I$  such that xr + y = 1, so  $\bar{x}\bar{r} = \bar{1}$ . Hence every non-zero element has multiply inverse and R/I is a field. " $\Leftarrow$ ": If J is an ideal such that  $I \subsetneq J$ , pick  $x \in J \setminus I$ , then  $\bar{x} \neq 0$ , so  $\exists \, r \in J$  such that  $\bar{x}\bar{r} = 1$ . Then  $xr + I = 1 + I \implies \exists \, y \in I$  s.t. xr + y = 1. So  $1 \in J$ , and because J is an ideal, J = R.
- 2. By the fact that  $(ab \in I \implies a \in I \text{ or } b \in I) \iff (\bar{a}\bar{b} = 0 \implies \bar{a} = 0 \text{ or } \bar{b} = 0)$  the proof is complete.

**Prop 5.1.9.** If  $f(x) \in K[x]$  is irreducible, where K is a field, then  $\langle f(x) \rangle$  is maximal ideal.

*Proof.* We know that K[x] is a principal ideal domain, so if  $\langle f(x) \rangle \subseteq J$ , then J is generated by a element, say g(x). Since  $f(x) \in J$ , we could write f(x) = g(x)h(x). By the fact that f(x) is irreducible, either g(x) is an unit then J = R, or h(x) is an unit then  $J = \langle f(x) \rangle$ .

**Eg 5.1.1.**  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$  has roots  $\alpha = \pm \sqrt{-1}$ , so  $\mathbb{R}(\sqrt{-1}) \cong \mathbb{R}[x]/\langle x^2 + 1 \rangle$ .

**Theorem 41.** Let  $f(x) \in K[x]$  be monic, irreducible and of degree n. Then there exists L/K and  $\alpha \in L$  s.t.  $f(\alpha) = 0, L = K(\alpha)$  and [L : K] = n.

*Proof.* Since f(x) is irreducible, by prop. 5.1.9  $\langle f(x) \rangle$  is a maximal ideal. Then by prop. 5.1.8  $L = K[x]/\langle f(x) \rangle$  is a field, and K is a subfield of L by the inclusion map  $\alpha \mapsto \bar{\alpha}$ . The map is 1-1 since  $\bar{1} \neq 0$  and a field homomorphism is either a 1-1 map or a zero (全洪) map.

Notice that  $L \cong K[\bar{x}]$ , where  $\bar{x}$  is the coset  $x + \langle f(x) \rangle$ . Now let  $\alpha = \bar{x}$ , and it is easy to see that  $f(\alpha) = f(x) + \langle f(x) \rangle = 0$ . Also  $L \cong K[\bar{x}] \cong K(\alpha)$ . Finally,  $m_{\alpha,K} \mid f$  and by the fact that f is monic and irreducible,  $m_{\alpha,K} = f$  and thus  $[L : K] = \deg m_{\alpha,K} = \deg f = n$ .

**Theorem 42.** Let  $f(x) \in K[x]$  be of degree n > 0. Then there exists L/K s.t. f splits over L, that is,

$$f(x) = \lambda(x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2) \cdots (x - \alpha_n)$$
 with  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n \in L, \lambda \in K$ 

In fact, L can be chosen to be the smallest field over which f splits and in this case  $[L:K] \leq n!$ . L is called a splitting field for f over K.

*Proof.* By induction on n, n = 1 is trivial, simply pick L = K.

For n > 1, let p(x) be an monic irreducible factor of f(x). By theorem 41, there exists an extension  $K(\alpha_1)$  s.t.  $p(\alpha_1) = 0$ . By division algorithm,  $f(x) = (x - \alpha_1)f_1(x)$  where  $f_1(x) \in K(\alpha_1)[x]$  and deg  $f_1 = n - 1$ . Using the induction hypothesis, we know that there exists L, which is an extension of  $K(\alpha_1)$ , s.t.  $f_1$  splits over L. Hence  $\exists \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \ldots, \alpha_n \in L$  s.t.  $f_1(x) = \lambda(x - \alpha_2) \ldots (x - \alpha_n)$ , thus  $f(x) = \lambda(x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2) \ldots (x - \alpha_n)$ . Compare the coefficient of  $x^n$  we know that  $\lambda \in K$ .

More over, observe that  $K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$  is the smallest field containing K and  $\{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n\}$ . So if we choose  $L = K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ , then

$$[L:K] = [K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n) : K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_{n-1})] \cdots [K(\alpha_1) : K] \le n!$$

Since  $[K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k) : K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_{k-1})] = [K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_{k-1})(\alpha_k) : K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_{k-1})]$ and  $\alpha_k$  is a root of  $p(x) \in K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_{k-1})[x]$  where  $f(x) = (x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2) \cdots (x - \alpha_{k-1})p(x)$ .

**Eg 5.1.2.** Find a splitting field L for  $x^8 - 2$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  and determine  $[L : \mathbb{Q}]$ .

The roots are  $\alpha \zeta^k$  where  $\alpha = \sqrt[8]{2}$  and  $\zeta = e^{2\pi i/8}$ . But  $\zeta = \sqrt{2}(1+i)/2$  where  $\sqrt{2} = \alpha^4$ , so we know that  $L = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha, \zeta) = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha, i)$ . Thus  $[L : \mathbb{Q}] = [\mathbb{Q}(\alpha, i) : \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)][\mathbb{Q}(\alpha) : \mathbb{Q}] = 2 \cdot 8 = 16$ .

Remark 25.  $\mathbb{Q}[x]/\langle x^8 - 2 \rangle = \mathbb{Q}(\bar{x}) \cong \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[8]{2}) \cong \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[8]{2}\zeta)$ 

**Prop 5.1.10.** Let K, L be two fields and  $\tau : K \to L$  be a nontrivial homomorphism. We define  $\bar{\tau} : K[x] \to \tau(K)[x] \subseteq L[x]$  by

$$a_n x^n + \dots + a_0 \mapsto \bar{\tau}(f) \triangleq \tau(a_n) x^n + \dots + \tau(a_0)$$

which is an isomorphism. Also, f is irreducible implies  $\bar{\tau}(f)$  is irreducible in  $\tau(K)[x]$ .

**Lemma 4.** Let  $K(\alpha)/K$  be algebraic and  $\tau: K \to L$  be a nontrivial homo, then there exists an extension  $\sigma$  of  $\tau$  from  $K(\alpha)$  to L if and only if  $\exists \beta \in L$  s.t.  $\bar{\tau}(m_{\alpha,K})(\beta) = 0$ .

In this case  $m_{\beta,\tau(K)} = \bar{\tau}(m_{\alpha,K})$ .

*Proof.* "\(\Rightarrow\)": Let  $\beta = \sigma(\alpha)$  and  $m_{\alpha,K} = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$ . Then  $\bar{\tau}(m_{\alpha,K})(\beta) = \beta^n + \tau(a_{n-1})\beta^{n-1} + \dots + \tau(a_0) = \tau(\alpha^n + a_{n-1}\alpha^{n-1} + \dots + a_0) = 0$ 

" $\Leftarrow$ ": Observe that  $m_{\beta,\tau(K)} = \bar{\tau}(m_{\alpha,K})$  since  $\bar{\tau}(m_{\alpha,K})(\beta) = 0$  and  $\bar{\tau}(m_{\alpha,K})$  is monic and irreducible by prop 5.1.10.  $\sigma$  is then given by the following diagram.

$$K[x] \xrightarrow{\sim} \tau(K)[x]$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$K(\alpha) \iff K[x] / \langle m_{\alpha,K} \rangle \xrightarrow{\sim} \tau(K)[x] / \langle m_{\beta,\tau(K)} \rangle \iff \tau(K)(\beta) \subseteq L$$

**Coro 5.1.2.** Let  $K(\alpha)/K$  be an algebraic extension and  $\tau: K \hookrightarrow L$ . If  $\bar{\tau}(m_{\alpha,K})$  has r distinct roots in L, then there are exactly r extensions of  $\tau$ .

**Theorem 43.** Let  $\tau: K \to K'$  be an isomorphism of fields. If L is a splitting field for f over K and L' is a splitting field for  $\bar{\tau}(f)$  over K', then  $L \cong L'$ 

*Proof.* By induction on  $n = \deg f$ . When n = 1, L = K, L' = K', so  $L \cong L'$ .

Now if n > 1, assume  $f(\alpha) = 0$  for  $\alpha \in L$ . Then  $\bar{\tau}(m_{\alpha,K}) \mid \bar{\tau}(f)$  and by the fact that L' is a splitting field for  $\bar{\tau}(f)$ ,  $\exists \beta \in L'$  s.t.  $\bar{\tau}(m_{\alpha,K})(\beta) = 0$ . By lemma 4,  $\exists \tau_{\circ} : K(\alpha) \xrightarrow{\sim} K'(\beta)$  with  $\tau_{\circ}|_{K} = \tau$ .

Now, write  $f = (x - \alpha)f_{\circ}$ , then  $\bar{\tau}(f) = \bar{\tau}_{\circ}(f) = (x - \tau_{\circ}(\alpha))\bar{\tau}_{\circ}(f_{\circ}) = (x - \beta)\bar{\tau}_{\circ}(f_{\circ})$ . Then L and L' is a splitting field for  $f_{\circ}$  over  $K(\alpha)$  and  $\bar{\tau}_{\circ}(f_{\circ})$  over  $K(\beta)$  respectively. By induction hypothesis,  $L \cong L'$ .

**Coro 5.1.3.** Let  $\tau: K \xrightarrow{\sim} K'$  be an isomorphism of fields, and L is a splitting field of f over K, L' is a splitting field of  $\bar{\tau}(f)$  over K'. Then  $\tau$  could be extend to  $\sigma: L \xrightarrow{\sim} L'$  such that  $\sigma|_{K} = \tau$ .

#### 5.2 Finite field (week 2)

**Def 80.** A polynomial  $f(x) \in K[x]$  is said to be *separable* if its irreducible factors have no multiple roots in a splitting field L.

**Def 81.** If  $f(x) = a_n x^n + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$ , then define  $f'(x) \triangleq n a_n x^{n-1} + \dots + 2a_2 x + a_1$ .

**Theorem 44.** Let  $f(x) \in K[x]$  be monic, irreducible of positive degree, then all the roots of f(x) in a splitting field are simple if and only if gcd(f(x), f'(x)) = 1.

*Proof.* "\(\Rightarrow\)": We can write  $f(x) = (x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2) \cdots (x - \alpha_n)$  where  $\alpha_i$  are distinct roots of f. Then  $f'(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x)/(x - \alpha_i)$  and we have  $(x - \alpha_i) \nmid f(x)$  for all i.

"\(\infty\)": Assume  $f(x) = (x - \alpha)^k g(x)$  with  $k \ge 2$ . Then  $f'(x) = k(x - \alpha)^{k-1} g(x) + (x - \alpha)^k g'(x)$  which implies  $(x - \alpha) \mid f(x)$ . So  $(x - \alpha) \mid \gcd(f(x), f'(x))$  and thus  $\gcd(f(x), f'(x)) \ne 1$ .

#### Remark 26. The following are equivalent:

- 1.  $\alpha$  is a multiple root of f(x).
- 2.  $\alpha$  is a common root of f(x) and f'(x).
- 3.  $m_{\alpha,K} \mid f(x)$  and  $m_{\alpha,K} \mid f'(x)$ .

**Theorem 45.** There is a finite field K with  $|K| = q \iff q = p^n$  for some prime p and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . In this situation, K is unique up to isomorphism, denote by  $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$ .

*Proof.* " $\Rightarrow$ ": Let  $p = \operatorname{char} K$  and  $[K : \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}] = n$ , then  $|K| = p^n$ .

" $\Leftarrow$ ": Let K be a splitting field for  $f(x) = x^{p^n} - x$  over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ . We claim that the set of all roots of f(x) forms a field. Since if  $\alpha, \beta$  are two roots of f, obviously  $\alpha\beta, \alpha\beta^{-1}$  are also roots, and by  $(\alpha \pm \beta)^{p^n} = \alpha^{p^n} \pm \beta^{p^n} = \alpha \pm \beta$  because char K = p.  $\alpha \pm \beta$  are also roots, hence the roots form a field. By definition, K is the smallest field containing  $\mathbb{F}_p$  and roots of f(x), so K is exactly the set of roots of f(x).

Also, f'(x) = -1 has no root, so f(x) has no multiple root which implies  $|K| = p^n$ .

Moreover, if K' is another finite field with  $|K'| = p^n$ , then for all  $\alpha \in K'$ ,  $\alpha^{p^n} = \alpha$ , so  $\alpha$  is a root of f(x), which implies that K' is a splitting field for f(x) over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ . By theorem 43,  $K \cong K'$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 46.** Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{F}_q$  be a finite field. Then there exists a unique extension  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}/\mathbb{F}_q$  s.t.  $[\mathbb{F}_{q^n}:\mathbb{F}_q]=n$ , and Aut  $(\mathbb{F}_{q^n}/\mathbb{F}_q)=\langle \sigma_q \rangle$  with  $\sigma_q=\alpha::\mathbb{F}_{q^n}\mapsto \alpha^q::\mathbb{F}_{q^n}.$   $\sigma_q$  is called the Frobenius homomorphism.

*Proof.* By theorem 45,  $q = p^r$  for some prime p and  $r \in \mathbb{N}$ , so  $q^n = p^{nr}$  which is a power of a prime. Again by theorem 45,  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}$  is the splitting field for  $x^{p^{nr}} - x$  over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ . Since  $x^q - x \mid x^{q^n} - x$ ,  $\mathbb{F}_q \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{q^n}$  and thus  $[\mathbb{F}_{q^n} : \mathbb{F}_q] = n$ .

Then we proof that  $\sigma_q$  is indeed in Aut  $(\mathbb{F}_{q^n}/\mathbb{F}_q)$ . We check that

$$\sigma_q(\alpha + \beta) = (\alpha + \beta)^q = \alpha^q + \beta^q = \sigma_q(\alpha) + \sigma_q(\beta)$$
$$\sigma_q(\alpha\beta) = (\alpha\beta)^q = \alpha^q \beta^q = \sigma_q(\alpha)\sigma_q(\beta)$$

Now  $\sigma_q$  is nontrivial since  $\sigma_q$  send 1 to 1, so  $\sigma_q$  is 1-1 and hence an isomorphism since  $\mathbb{F}_q$  is finite. Also, for all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}_q$ ,  $\sigma_q(\alpha) = \alpha^q = \alpha$ , hence  $\sigma_q$  fixes  $\mathbb{F}_q$ . Finally we prove that the order of  $\sigma_q$  is n. Assume not, so  $\operatorname{ord}(\sigma_q) = m < n$ . Then  $\sigma_q^m = \operatorname{Id} \implies x^{q^m} - x = 0$  for each  $x \in \mathbb{F}_{q^n}$ . But  $x^{q^m} - x = 0$  has at most  $q^m < q^n$  roots, which leads to a contradiction.

**Remark 27.** By theorem 10, the multiplication group of  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}$  is cyclic, so  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}^{\times} = \langle \alpha \rangle \subseteq \mathbb{F}_q(\alpha) \setminus \{0\} \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{q^n} \setminus \{0\}$ , hence  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n} = \mathbb{F}_q(\alpha)$ .

**Lemma 5.** Every irreducible polynomial f(x) in  $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}[x]$  is separable.

*Proof.* Without lost of generality, assume f(x) is monic.

Since  $\sigma_p$  is an isomorphism,  $\mathbb{F}_{p^n} = \mathbb{F}_{p^n}^p = \{\alpha^p \mid \alpha \in \mathbb{F}_{p^n}\}$ . Now assume f(x) has a multiple root  $\alpha$ , then  $m_{\alpha,\mathbb{F}_p} = f(x)$  since f is irreducible. By theorem 44 we also have  $f(x) = m_{\alpha,\mathbb{F}_p} \mid f'(x)$ , but  $\deg f'(x) < \deg f(x)$  so we must have  $f'(x) \equiv 0$ .

Write  $f(x) = a_n x^n + \ldots + a_1 x + a_0$ , then  $f'(x) \equiv 0$  implies  $k a_k = 0_{\mathbb{F}_p}$  for each k, which means that if  $a_k \neq 0 \implies p \mid k$ . So

$$f(x) = a_{mp}x^{mp} + a_{(m-1)p}x^{(m-1)p} + \dots + a_px^p + a_0 = (a_{mp}x^m + \dots + a_px + a_0)^p.$$

But this implies f(x) is reducible, which is a contradiction.

**Theorem 47.**  $x^{p^n} - x$  equals the product of all monic irreducible polynomials in  $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$  of degree d where d runs through all divisors of n. i.e.

*Proof.* By lemma, each irreducible polynomial is separable, and if  $f(x), g(x) \in \text{RHS}$ , and  $f(\alpha) = g(\alpha) = 0$ , then  $f = m_{\alpha, \mathbb{F}_p} = g$ . Thus RHS is separable. LHS is separable since f' = 1, so we could prove the equality by checking that they have same roots.

LHS | RHS:  $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{F}_{p^n}$ ,  $[\mathbb{F}_p(\alpha) : \mathbb{F}_p] \mid [\mathbb{F}_{p^n} : \mathbb{F}_p] = n$ , thus  $\deg m_{\alpha,\mathbb{F}_p} \mid n$  and hence  $m_{\alpha,\mathbb{F}_p}$  appears in RHS.

RHS | LHS: Assume 
$$\deg m_{\alpha,\mathbb{F}_p} = d \mid n$$
, then  $[\mathbb{F}_p(\alpha) : \mathbb{F}_p] = d$ , so  $\alpha^{p^d} = \alpha$ , and hence  $\alpha = \alpha^{p^d} = \alpha^{p^{2d}} = \cdots = \alpha^{p^n}$ .

#### **Def 82.** The Möbius $\mu$ -function is defined as

$$\mu(n) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 1\\ 0, & \text{if } n \text{ has a square factor}\\ (-1)^r, & \text{if } n \text{ is a product of } r \text{ distinct primes} \end{cases}$$

**Theorem 48** (Möbius inversion formula). If  $f(n) = \sum_{d|n} g(d)$ , then  $g(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) f\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)$ .

**Remark 28.** Let  $\psi_q(d)$  denote the number of monic irreducible polynomials of degree d in  $\mathbb{F}_q$ , then  $q^n = \sum_{d|n} d\psi_q(d)$ .

Using the convolution notation, we have  $(n \mapsto q^n) = 1 * (n \mapsto n\psi_q(n))$ . Where  $1 \triangleq (n \mapsto 1)$ . It could be seen that  $1^{-1} = \mu$ . Thus  $n\psi_q(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d)q^{n/d}$ .

## 5.3 Algebra closure (week 3)

### Def 83.

- L is called an **algebraic closure** of K if L/K is algebraic and each polynomial  $f(x) \in K[x]$  splits over L.
- L is said to be algebraically closed if for each  $f(x) \in L[x]$ , f(x) has a root in L.

**Prop 5.3.1.** Given L/K, if L is algebraically closed, then  $L^{\text{alg}} \triangleq \{\alpha \in L \mid \alpha \text{ is algebraic over } K\}$  is an algebraic closure of K.

*Proof.* By prop 5.1.4,  $L^{\text{alg}}$  is a field, and by definition,  $L^{\text{alg}}/K$  is algebraic.

Now we show that for any  $f(x) \in K[x]$ , f(x) splits over L. Using induction,  $\deg f = 1$  is trivial. If  $\deg f > 1$ , then since  $f(x) \in K[x] \subseteq L[x]$ , f has a root in L, say  $\alpha$ . so we could write  $f(x) = (x - \alpha)g(x)$ . Then  $g(x) \in K(\alpha)[x] \subseteq L[x]$ . By induction, g(x) splits and hence f(x) splits. So for any  $f(x) \in K[x]$ , f splits over L. Write  $f(x) = (x - \alpha_1) \cdots (x - \alpha_n)$ , then each  $\alpha_i$  is algebraic over  $K \implies \alpha_i \in L^{\operatorname{alg}}$  and hence f(x) splits over  $L^{\operatorname{alg}}[x]$ .

Coro 5.3.1. If K is algebraically closed, then K is an algebraic closure of K itself.

**Prop 5.3.2.** If L is an algebraic closure of K, then L is algebraically closed.

*Proof.* For  $f(x) \in L[x]$ , let  $\alpha$  be a root of f(x). Since  $L(\alpha)/L$  and L/K is algebraic, by prop 5.1.6,  $L(\alpha)/K$  is algebraic. So  $\alpha$  must be in L, hence f(x) has a root in L.

# **Prop 5.3.3.** The following are equivalent.

- 1. K has no nontrivial algebraic extension.
- 2. For all irreducible polynomial in K[x] has degree 1.
- 3. Every polynomial of positive degree in K[x] has at least one root in K.
- 4. Every polynomial of positive degree in K[x] splits over K.

In below we would use the Zorn's lemma heavily.

**Lemma 6** (Zorn's lemma). Suppose a partially order set P has the property that every chain (i.e., a total order subset) has an upper bound in P, then the set P contains at least one maximal element.

**Lemma 7.** In a commutative ring R with 1, any proper ideal  $I \subseteq R$  is contained in a maximal ideal.

*Proof.* Consider  $S = \{J \subseteq R \mid I \subseteq J\} \neq \emptyset$  since  $I \in S$ . Define a partial order on S by  $J_1 \leq J_2 \iff J_1 \subseteq J_2$ .

Given a chain  $\{J_i \mid i \in \Lambda\}$ , let  $J = \bigcup_{i \in \Lambda} J_i$ . J is an ideal, since if  $x, y \in J$ , then  $x \in J_1, y \in J_2$ . Let  $\tilde{J} = \max(J_1, J_2)$ , then  $x, y \in \tilde{J}$  which implies  $x + y \in \tilde{J}$ , and it is easy to check that for any  $x \in R, y \in J$ ,  $xy \in J$ .

Also, J is proper since  $1 \notin J$ , or else  $1 \in J_i$  and thus  $J_i = R$  which leads to a contradiction.

By Zorn's lemma, there exists a maximal element in S, and thus it is a maximal ideal which contains I.

**Theorem 49.** If K is a field, then there exists an algebraic closure L of K.

*Proof.* Let  $S = \{x_f \mid f(x) \in K[x] \text{ with } \deg f \geq 1\}$  be the set of variables indexed by non-constant polynomial in K[x]. Consider the polynomial ring K[S] and  $I = \langle f(x_f) : f \in K[x] \text{ with } \deg f \geq 1 \rangle$ , which is an ideal in K[S].

We claim that  $I \neq K[S]$ . If not, then  $1 \in I \implies 1 = \sum_{i=1}^n g_i f_i(x_{f_i})$ . Write  $x_i \triangleq x_{f_i}$  for  $i=1,2,\cdots,n$ . Also, by definition  $g_i$  only involves a finite number of variable in S, so we could set  $g_i \in K[x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_m]$  with  $m \geq n$ . That is,  $1 = \sum_{i=1}^n g_i(x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_m) f_i(x_i)$ . Let  $\Sigma$  be a splitting field for  $f(x) = f_1(x) f_2(x) \cdots f_n(x)$  and define  $\alpha_i \in \Sigma$  which satisfies  $f_i(\alpha_i) = 0$  and  $a_i = 0$  for  $n+1 \leq i \leq m$ . Then  $1 = \sum_{i=1}^n g(\alpha_1,\alpha_2,\ldots,\alpha_m) f_i(\alpha_i) = 0$ , which leads to a contradiction.

By lemma 7, there exists a maximal ideal M s.t.  $I \subseteq M$ .

Consider  $K \hookrightarrow F_1 \triangleq K[S]/M$ , and then for all  $f \in K[x]$ ,  $f(\bar{x}_f) = \bar{0}$  in  $F_1$ . By induction,  $\exists F_1 \subseteq F_2 \subseteq F_3 \subseteq \cdots$  which satisfies  $f(x) \in F_n[x]$  has a root in  $F_{n+1}$  Let  $F = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} F_i$  which is algebraically closed since if  $f(x) \in F[x]$  then  $f(x) \in F_m[x]$  for some m and thus f(x) has a root in  $F_{m+1} \subseteq F$ .

Finally  $L \triangleq \{\alpha \in F \mid \alpha \text{ is algebraic over } K\}$  is an algebraic closure of K.

**Lemma 8.** If  $L_1/K$  is algebraic and  $\tau: K \to L_2$  is a non-zero homomorphism with  $L_2$  being algebraically closed, then  $\tau$  could be extend to  $\sigma: L_1 \to L_2$ .

*Proof.* Consider  $S = \{(M, \theta) \mid K \subset M \subset L_1, \ \theta : M \to L_2 \text{ with } \theta |_K = \tau \}$ , which is not an empty set since  $(K, \tau) \in S$ .

Define a partial order on S by  $(M_1, \theta_1) \leq (M_2, \theta_2) \iff M_1 \subseteq M_2 \wedge \theta_2|_{M_1} = \theta_1$ . Given any chain  $\{(M_i, \theta_i) : i \in \Lambda\}$ , let  $N = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} M_i$  and  $\theta = \alpha :: N \mapsto \theta_i(\alpha)$  if  $\alpha \in M_i$ . It could be check easily that this map is well defined, and  $(N, \theta)$  is a least upper bound in S for this chain. By Zorn's lemma, there exists a max element  $(M, \sigma)$  in S.

Now, if  $M \neq L_1$ , then pick  $\alpha \in L_1 \setminus M$ . Since  $L_1/K$  is algebraic, the minimal polynomial  $m_{\alpha,K}$  exists. Since  $L_2$  algebraically closed,  $\bar{\sigma}(m_{\alpha,K})$  has a root in  $L_2$ , and thus by lemma 4,  $\sigma$  could be extend to  $\sigma': M(\alpha) \to L_2$  which contradicts the maximality of  $(M, \sigma)$ . Thus  $M = L_1$ .

**Theorem 50.** Any two algebraic closures  $L_1, L_2$  of K are isomorphic.

*Proof.* Consider the inclusion map  $\mathrm{Id}_K:: K \hookrightarrow L_1$ . By Lemma 8,  $\mathrm{Id}_K$  could be extend to  $\sigma:: L_2 \to L_1$  such that  $\sigma|_K = \mathrm{Id}_K$ . Since  $\sigma \neq 0$ ,  $\sigma(L_2) \cong L_2$ . Also,  $L_2$  is algebraically closed implies  $\sigma(L_2)$  is algebraically closed. So for any  $\alpha \in L_1$ ,  $\alpha$  is algebraic over K and thus over  $\sigma(L_2)$ , which implies  $\alpha \in \sigma(L_2)$ , so  $\sigma$  is onto, hence  $\sigma$  is an isomorphism between  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ .

### **Eg 5.3.1.** Let p be a prime.

- Any finite field L with char L = p,  $L \cong \mathbb{F}_{p^n}$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- Gal  $(\mathbb{F}_{p^n}/\mathbb{F}_p) = \langle \sigma_p \rangle$  with  $p = \alpha :: \mathbb{F}_{p^n} \mapsto \alpha^p :: \mathbb{F}_{p^n}$ .
- A subfield L of  $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{F}_{p^m}$  with  $m \mid n$  since  $[\mathbb{F}_{p^n} : \mathbb{F}_{p^m}] = d \leadsto p^{md} = p^n$ .
- $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{F}_{p^n}$  is a field, and it is the algebraic closure of  $\mathbb{F}_p$ .

### 5.4 Separable extension

### Def 84.

•  $\alpha$  is separable over K if  $m_{\alpha,K}$  is separable over K.

• L/K is called a **separable extension** if  $\forall \alpha \in L$ ,  $\alpha$  is separable over K.

Eg 5.4.1. Let char K = p and  $K^p \subsetneq K$ . Pick  $b \in K \setminus K^p$  and consider L to be the splitting field of  $x^p - b$  over K, say  $\alpha \in L$  with  $\alpha^p = b$ . Notice that  $x^p - b = x^p - a^p = (x - a)^p$ , and  $x^p - b$  is irreducible in K, or else if  $x^p - b = g(x)h(x)$  in K[x], then write  $g(x) = (x - \alpha)^k$ ,  $h(x) = (x - \alpha)^{n-k}$ , but then expand g(x) and we would get  $\alpha^k \in K$ , since  $\alpha^p \in K$  and gcd(k, p) = 1 implies  $\alpha \in K$  which leads to a contradiction.

By above we know that  $x^p - b$  is inseparable.

**Def 85.** K is said to be *perfect* if either char K = 0 or "char K = p and  $K = K^p$ ".

**Eg 5.4.2.** If char K = p and  $K/\mathbb{F}_p$  is algebraic, then K is perfect.

Proof. Consider  $\sigma_p: K \to K$  which is a monomorphism which fixes  $\mathbb{F}_p$ . Since  $K/\mathbb{F}_p$  is algebraic, by the exercise problem,  $\sigma_p$  is an automorphism, so  $K = K^p$ .

**Fact 5.4.1.** K is perfect if and only if for any irreducible polynomial  $f(x) \in K[x]$ , f is separable. Also, we can find that an irreducible polynomial  $f(x) \in K[x]$  is not separable over K if and only if char K = p > 0 and  $f(x) = g(x^p)$  for some  $g(x) \in K[x]$ , where g(x) is irreducible and not all coefficients of g is in  $K^p$ .

Finally, if  $\operatorname{char} K = 0$ , then K is separable.

**Prop 5.4.1.** Give  $K(\alpha)/K$  with degree  $m_{\alpha,K} = d$  and  $\tau :: K \to L \neq 0$ . If  $\alpha$  is separable over K and  $\bar{\tau}(m_{\alpha,K})$  splits over L, then there are exactly d monomorphisms  $\sigma :: K(\alpha) \to L$  with  $\sigma|_{K} = \tau$ . Otherwise, if  $\alpha$  is not separable or  $\bar{\tau}(m_{\alpha,K})$  doesn't split over L, then there are r < d such monomorphisms.

*Proof.* Observe that  $m_{\alpha,K}$  is separable over K if and only if  $\bar{\tau}(m_{\alpha,K})$  is separable over  $\tau(K)$ . Extend K to  $\Sigma$ ,  $\tau(K)$  to  $\Sigma'$ , where  $\Sigma$ ,  $\Sigma'$  are the splitting field of  $m_{\alpha,K}$  and  $\bar{\tau}(m_{\alpha,K})$ , respectively. Since  $K \cong \tau(K)$ , by theorem 43,  $\Sigma \cong \Sigma'$ . Let  $\tau'$  be the isomorphism which is an extension of  $\tau$ .

If  $m_{\alpha,K} = (x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2) \cdots (x - \alpha_d)$ , then  $\bar{\tau}(m_{\alpha,K}) = (x - \tau'(\alpha_1))(x - \tau'(\alpha_2)) \cdots (x - \tau'(\alpha_n))$ . where  $\tau' :: \Sigma \xrightarrow{\sim} \Sigma'$  and  $\alpha_i \neq \alpha_j \iff \tau'(\alpha_i) \neq \tau'(\alpha_j)$ . Thus if  $\alpha$  is separable,  $\bar{\tau}(m_{\alpha,K})$  has d distinct roots in L. By corollary 5.1.2, there are exactly d monomorphisms  $\sigma$  with  $\sigma|_{K} = \tau$ .

Otherwise, there are r roots in L where r < d, and thus there are r < d such monomorphisms.  $\square$ 

**Prop 5.4.2.** Let [K':K] = d and  $\tau :: K \to L \neq 0$ . Then K'/K is separable and  $\forall \alpha \in K'$ ,  $\bar{\tau}(m_{\alpha,K})$  splits over L, if and only if there are exactly d monomorphisms  $\sigma :: K' \to L$  with  $\sigma|_k = \tau$ . Otherwise  $\exists r < d$  of such monomorphisms.

*Proof.* By induction on d, if d = 1 we could simply let  $\sigma = \tau$ .

For d > 1, consider  $\alpha \in K' \setminus K$ . By prop 5.4.1, there exists exactly  $[K(\alpha) : K]$  monomorphisms  $\tau_1 : K(\alpha) \to L$ .

Now, for any  $\beta \in K'/K(\alpha)$ ,  $m_{\beta,K(\alpha)} \mid m_{\beta,K}$  and thus  $m_{\beta,K(\alpha)}$  is separable and  $\bar{\tau}_1(m_{\beta,K(\alpha)})$  splits over L since  $\bar{\tau}(m_{\beta,K})$  splits. These imply that  $K'/K(\alpha)$  is separable and  $\forall \beta \in K'$ ,  $m_{\beta,K(\alpha)}$  splits over L. Thus,  $K(\alpha)$  satisfies the hypothesis, and by induction, there are exactly  $[K':K(\alpha)]$  monomorphisms  $\sigma :: K' \to L$  such that  $\sigma|_{K(\alpha)} = \tau_1$ , thus there are  $[K':K(\alpha)][K(\alpha):k] = [K':K]$  such monomorphisms.

Otherwise, we could choose  $\alpha \in K'$  such that  $\bar{\tau}(m_{\alpha,K})$  has fewer then  $[K(\alpha):K]$  roots in L, then there are  $r' < [K(\alpha):K]$  monomorphism  $\tau_1 :: K(\alpha) \to L$ . By induction, each  $\tau_1$  has r'' extensions  $\sigma :: K' \to L$  and  $r'' \le [K':K(\alpha)]$  Hence the number of monomorphism equals r'r'' < [K':K].  $\square$ 

**Lemma 9.** If  $K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., \alpha_n)/K$  is algebraic and L is a splitting field of  $f(x) = \prod_{i=1}^n m_{\alpha_i, K}$  over K, then for all  $\beta \in K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., \alpha_n)$ ,  $m_{\beta, K}$  also splits over L.

*Proof.* Let L = K(R) with R being the set of all roots of f(x). Pick any root  $\gamma$  of  $m_{\beta,K}$ . Observe the following diagram:

$$K(R) \xrightarrow{\sim} K(R, \gamma)$$

$$\uparrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow$$

$$K(\beta) \xrightarrow{\sim} K(\gamma)$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

Where (1) holds because these fields are both isomorphic to  $K[x]/\langle m_{\beta,K}\rangle$ .

(2) holds because  $\tau$  obviously fixes K, and hence K(R) is a splitting field of f and  $K(R, \gamma)$  is a splitting field of  $\bar{\tau}(f)$ . By theorem 43, K(R) and  $K(R, \gamma)$  are isomorphic.

Thus we have  $[K(R):K]=[K(R,\gamma):K]$  along with  $[K(R,\gamma):K]=[K(\gamma,R):K(R)][K(R):K]$ . This implies  $[K(\gamma,R):K(R)]=1$ , hence  $\gamma\in R$ .

**Theorem 51.** Given  $K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n)/K$ , if  $\alpha_i$  is separable over  $K_{i-1} \triangleq K(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{i-1})$ , then  $K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n)/K$  is separable.

*Proof.* Let L be a splitting field of  $f(x) = \prod m_{\alpha_i,K}$ .

We claim that there are  $[K_j:K]$  monomorphisms  $\tau_j::K_j\to L$  with  $\tau_j\big|_K=\mathrm{Id}_K$ . Use induction on j, if j=0, then there are only 1 such monomorphism, namely itself  $\mathrm{Id}_K$ .

For j > 0, observe that  $m_{\alpha_j,K_{i-1}} \mid m_{\alpha_j,K}$ , and since  $\bar{\tau}_{j-1}(m_{\alpha_j,K}) = m_{\alpha_j,K}$  splits over L,  $m_{\alpha_j,K_{i-1}}$  also splits over L. By hypothesis,  $\alpha_j$  is separable over  $K_{j-1}$ , so by prop 5.4.1, there are  $[K_j:K_{j-1}]$  such monomorphisms  $\tau_j::K_j \to L$  with  $\tau_j\big|_{K-1} = \tau_{j-1}$ . By induction, there are  $[K_{j-1}:K]$  monomorphisms  $\tau_{j-1}::K_{j-1} \to L$  with  $\tau_j\big|_{K} = \mathrm{Id}_K$ . Compose these monomorphisms, we know that there exist exactly  $[K_j:K_{j-1}][K_{j-1}:K] = [K_j:K]$  monomorphisms  $\tau_j::K_j \to L$  such that  $\tau_j\big|_{K} = \mathrm{Id}_K$ .

So there are exactly  $[K_n : K]$  monomorphisms  $\tau :: K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) \to L$  with  $\tau|_K = \mathrm{Id}_K$ . By prop 5.4.2,  $K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$  is separable.

**Theorem 52.** L/K is separable if and only if L/M, M/K are separable.

*Proof.* " $\Rightarrow$ ": If L/K is separable, then M/K is obviously separable. For any  $\beta \in L$ ,  $m_{\beta,M} \mid m_{\beta,K}$  so  $m_{\beta,M}$  is separable which implies L/M is separable.

" $\Leftarrow$ ": For any  $\alpha \in L$ , write  $m_{\alpha,M} = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1x + a_0$ . Then  $m_{\alpha,M}$  is separable implies  $\alpha$  is separable over  $K(a_0,\ldots,a_{n-1})$ . Note that  $a_0,\ldots,a_{n-1} \in M$  are separable over K. By theorem 51,  $K(a_0,a_1,\ldots,a_{n-1},\alpha)/K$  is separable, hence each  $\alpha$  is separable over K, thus L/K is separable.

Theorem 53 (Primitive element theorem).

- A finite extension is simple if and only if there are only finitely many intermediate fields.
- If L/K is finite and separable, then L/K is simple.

# 5.5 Normal extension (week 4)

**Def 86.** L/K is called a **normal extension** if  $\forall \alpha \in L$ ,  $m_{\alpha,K}$  splits over L.

**Theorem 54.** L is a splitting field of some polynomial f(x) over K if and only if L/K is finite and normal.

*Proof.* " $\Rightarrow$ ": Let  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n$  be the roots of f, so  $L = K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ , and L is also a splitting field of  $\prod m_{\alpha_i,K}$  since  $m_{\alpha_i,K} \mid f$ . By lemma 9, for any  $\beta$  in L,  $m_{\beta,K}$  splits, thus L/K is normal and also finite obviously.

" $\Leftarrow$ ": Since L/K is a finite extension, we could write  $L = K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ . Let  $f = \prod m_{\alpha_i, K}$ , then since L/K normal, each  $m_{\alpha_i, K}$  splits. It is also easy to see that L is the smallest field where f splits, thus L is a splitting field of f.

**Remark 29.** If L/K is normal, then for any M with  $K \subset M \subset L$ , we have L/M is normal, this is because  $\forall \alpha, m_{\alpha,M} \mid m_{\alpha,K}$ , and thus  $m_{\alpha,M}$  splits since  $m_{\alpha,K}$  splits.

But M/K need not to be normal. For example, Let  $K = \mathbb{Q}$ , L be the splitting field of  $x^3 - 2$ , by theorem 54 L/K is normal. Then  $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \omega)$  where  $\omega \triangleq \mathrm{e}^{2\pi\mathrm{i}/3}$ . Let  $M = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$  then  $m_{\sqrt[3]{2},K}$  doesn't split in M, so M/K is not normal.

**Prop 5.5.1.** Let L/K be a finite, normal extension and  $L \supset M \supset K$ , then the following are equivalent.

- (a) M/K is normal.
- (b)  $\forall \sigma \in \operatorname{Aut}(L/K), \sigma(M) \subset M$ .
- (c)  $\forall \sigma \in \text{Aut}(L/K), \sigma(M) = M$ .

*Proof.* (a)  $\Rightarrow$  (b):  $\forall \alpha \in M$ ,  $m_{\alpha,K}(\sigma(\alpha)) = \sigma(m_{\alpha,K}(\alpha)) = 0$ . So  $\sigma(\alpha)$  is a root of  $m_{\alpha,K}$ . Since M/K normal,  $m_{\alpha,K}$  splits in M and thus each root of  $m_{\alpha,K}$  is in M, hence  $\forall m, \sigma(m) \in M \implies \sigma(M) \subset M$ .

- (b)  $\Rightarrow$  (c): Since L/K is algebraic and  $\sigma$  is 1-1, by a homework problem,  $\sigma$  onto.
- (c)  $\Rightarrow$  (a): For any  $\alpha \in M$ , let  $\beta \in L$  be a root of  $m_{\alpha,K}$ . By theorem 54, we could assume L is a splitting field of f over K. Consider the following diagram,



Where isomorphism  $\tau$  with  $\tau(\alpha)=\beta$  exists since  $\alpha,\beta$  share the same minimal polynomial, and  $\sigma$  with  $\sigma|_K=\tau$  exists by theorem 43. Since  $\sigma\in \operatorname{Aut}(L/K),\ \beta=\sigma(\alpha)\in M$ , thus M/K normal.  $\square$ 

**Def 87.** Let L/K is called a *Galois* extension if L/K is finite, normal and separable. That is, L is a splitting field of some separable polynomial over K.

**Theorem 55.** If L/K is Galois, then  $|\operatorname{Aut}(L/K)| = [L:K]$ . Otherwise,  $|\operatorname{Aut}(L/K)| < [L:K]$ .

*Proof.* Since L/K is normal, for any  $\alpha$ ,  $m_{\alpha,K}$  splits over L. Since L/K is separable,  $m_{\alpha,K}$  has no multiple roots. So there are exactly [L:K] extensions  $\sigma::L\to L$  of  $\mathrm{Id}_K$ .

**Def 88.** Given a field L, define the fixed field of G by  $L^G \triangleq \{\alpha \in L \mid \sigma(\alpha) = \alpha, \forall \sigma \in G\}$ .

**Theorem 56.** If G is a subgroup of  $\operatorname{Aut}(L)$  with  $|G| < \infty$ , then  $|G| = [L:L^G]$ ,  $G = \operatorname{Aut}(L/L^G)$  and  $L/L^G$  is Galois.

*Proof.* First we prove that  $[L:L^G] \leq |G|$  by contradiction. Assume |G| < [L:G]. Let  $G = \{\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_n\}$  and  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_{n+1} \in L$  with  $\{\alpha_i\}$  are linearly independent over  $L^G$ .

Consider the equations

$$\begin{cases} \sigma_1(\alpha_1)x_1 + \dots + \sigma_1(\alpha_{n+1})x_{n+1} = 0 \\ \sigma_2(\alpha_1)x_1 + \dots + \sigma_2(\alpha_{n+1})x_{n+1} = 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \sigma_n(\alpha_1)x_1 + \dots + \sigma_n(\alpha_{n+1})x_{n+1} = 0 \end{cases}$$

Since the number of variables is more than the number of equations, there is a non-trivial solution. Choose one solution  $(a_1, \ldots, a_{n+1})$  having the least amount of nonzero element. By reordering, we could assume the solution is  $(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_m, 0, 0, \ldots, 0)$  and it is no harm to assume  $\sigma_1 = 1_G$ . If m = 1, then  $\sigma_1(\alpha_1)a_1 = \alpha_1a_1 = 0 \implies a_1 = 0$ , which is a contradiction.

So assume that m > 1, we have

$$\begin{cases} \sigma_1(\alpha_1)a_1 + \dots + \sigma_1(\alpha_m)a_m = 0 \\ \sigma_2(\alpha_1)a_1 + \dots + \sigma_2(\alpha_m)a_m = 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \sigma_n(\alpha_1)a_1 + \dots + \sigma_n(\alpha_m)a_m = 0 \end{cases}$$

By multipling  $a_m^{-1}$ , we could assume  $a_m = 1$ . The equation about  $\sigma_1$  gives  $\alpha_1 a_1 + \cdots + \alpha_m a_m = 0$ , since  $\alpha_i$  is linearly independent, one of  $\{a_i\}$ , say  $a_k$  is not in  $L^G$ , and thus there exists t such that  $\sigma_t(a_k) \neq a_k$ . Apply  $\sigma_t$  to each equation, we have

$$\sigma_t \sigma_i(\alpha_1) \sigma_t(a_1) + \dots + \sigma_t \sigma_i(\alpha_m) \sigma_t(a_m) = 0, \quad \forall \ 1 \le i \le n$$

But since  $\{\sigma_t\sigma_1,\ldots,\sigma_t\sigma_n\}=\{\sigma_1,\ldots,\sigma_n\}$ ,  $(\sigma_t(a_1),\sigma_t(a_2),\ldots,\sigma_t(a_m),0,\ldots,0)$  is a solution and thus  $(a_1-\sigma_t(a_1),\ldots,a_m-\sigma_t(a_m),0,\ldots)$  is also a solution of the equations. Since  $\sigma_t(a_k)\neq a_k$ , the solution is not trivial, and because  $a_m=1$ ,  $a_m-\sigma_t(a_m)=0$ . Hence this solution has m-1 nonzero element, which contradicts the minimality of the original solution. Thus  $[L:L^G]\leq \operatorname{Aut}(L/L^G)$ .

Finally,  $|\operatorname{Aut}(L/L^G)| \leq [L:L^G]$  by theorem 51, thus  $|G| \leq |\operatorname{Aut}(L/L^G)| \leq [L:L^G] \leq |G|$ , hence they are all equal.

**Def 89.** Let  $f(x) \in K[x]$  and L be a splitting field of f(x) over K. We use Gal(L/K) to denote Aut(L/K) and call it the **Galois group** of f(x).

**Prop 5.5.2.** Let  $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  be irreducible polynomial of degree p where p is a prime. If f(x) has exactly p-2 roots and 2 complex roots, then the Galois group of f(x) is  $S_p$ .

*Proof.* Let L be a splitting field of f over  $\mathbb{Q}$  and  $R = \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_p\}$  be the set of all roots of f(x). Since f(x) is irreducible,  $f(x)/a_p = m_{\alpha_i,\mathbb{Q}}, \forall i$ . By lemma 4, for any  $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/\mathbb{Q}), \sigma$  sends  $\alpha_i$  to another root  $\alpha_j$ . Also,  $\{\alpha_i\}$  generates L so  $G \triangleq \operatorname{Gal}(L/\mathbb{Q}) \leq S_p$ .

Now, we define an equivalence relation on R such that  $\alpha_i \sim \alpha_j \iff (\alpha_i \ \alpha_j) \in G$ , that is,  $\exists \ \sigma \in G$  such that  $\sigma(\alpha_i) = \alpha_j, \sigma(\alpha_j) = \alpha_i$  and  $\sigma(\alpha_t) = \alpha_t, \ \forall \ t \neq i, j$ .

We claim that each equivalence class has the same size. Let  $[\alpha_i], [\alpha_j]$  be two equivalence classes. Since  $\alpha_i, \alpha_j$  share the same minimal polynomial, by lemma 4,  $\exists \sigma, \sigma(\alpha_i) = \alpha_j$ , and  $\sigma$  sends  $[\alpha_i]$ 

to  $[\alpha_j]$ , since if  $\alpha_k \in [\alpha_i]$ ,  $(\alpha_i \ \alpha_k) \in G$  and thus  $\sigma(\alpha_i \ \alpha_k)\sigma^{-1} = (\alpha_j \ \sigma(\alpha_k)) \in G$ . Since  $\sigma$  is 1-1,  $|[\alpha_i]| \leq |[\alpha_j]|$ , and by symmetry we have  $|[\alpha_i]| = |[\alpha_j]|$ .

But then if  $[\alpha_i] = n$ ,  $p = |R| = \sum |[\alpha_j]| = kn$ , so either there are p equivalence classes with size of 1, which is impossible since the two complex root are equivalent by conjugation, or there are is one equivalence class, which means that every 2 cycle is in G, and thus  $G = S_p$ .

# 5.6 Fundamental theorem of Galois theory

**Theorem 57** (Main theorem). Let L/K be a Galois extension, where L be a splitting field of a separable polynomial f, and let G = Gal(L/K). Then:

(1) There is a 1-1 correspondence from the set of intermediate field to the set of subgroup:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \{M: K \subseteq M \subseteq L\} & \longleftrightarrow & \{H: H \leq G\} \\ M & \longmapsto & \operatorname{Gal}(L/M) \\ L^H & \longleftrightarrow & H \end{array}$$

*Proof.* We check these two mappings are the inverse of each other.

By theorem 56,  $Gal(L/L^H) = H$ .

Now we have  $M \subseteq L^{\operatorname{Gal}(L/M)}$ . Since L/M is galois,  $[L:M] = |\operatorname{Gal}(L/M)|$ . By theorem 56 again,  $|\operatorname{Gal}(L/M)| = [L:L^{\operatorname{Gal}(L/M)}]$ , thus  $[L:M] = [L:L^{\operatorname{Gal}(L/M)}] \implies M = L^{\operatorname{Gal}(L/M)}$ .

(2) If  $M_1 = L^{H_1}, M_2 = L^{H_2}$ , then  $M_1 \subseteq M_2 \iff H_2 \leq H_1$ .

Proof. Obvious.

(3) If  $M = L^H$ , then M/K is normal if and only if  $H \triangleleft G$ .

*Proof.* For any  $\sigma \in G$ ,

$$\tau \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/\sigma(M)) \iff \tau(\sigma(x)) = \sigma(x), \ \forall \ x \in M$$
 
$$\iff \sigma^{-1}\tau\sigma(x) = x, \ \forall \ x \in M$$
 
$$\iff \sigma^{-1}\tau\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/M)$$
 
$$\iff \tau \in \sigma \operatorname{Gal}(L/M)\sigma^{-1}$$

By prop 5.5.1, M/K is normal if and only if for all  $\sigma \in G$ ,  $\sigma(M) = M \iff \operatorname{Gal}(L/M) = \operatorname{Gal}(L/\sigma(M))$ . By the discussion above,  $\operatorname{Gal}(L/\sigma(M)) = \sigma \operatorname{Gal}(L/M)\sigma^{-1} = \sigma H\sigma^{-1}$ . Hence M/K is normal  $\iff H = \sigma H\sigma^{-1}$ ,  $\forall \sigma \in G \iff H \lhd G$ .

(4) If  $H \triangleleft G$ , then  $G/H \cong Gal(M/K)$ .

Proof. Since  $H \triangleleft G$ , by (3) we know that M/K is Galois. Define  $\varphi = \sigma$  ::  $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K) \mapsto \sigma|_{M}$  ::  $\operatorname{Gal}(M/K)$ . The mapping is well defined since  $\sigma(M) = M$  (by prop 5.5.1). Also, this map is onto since by corollary 43, each  $\tau \in \operatorname{Gal}(M/K)$  could be extended to  $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/K)$  because  $\bar{\tau}(f) = f$ . Finally, notice that  $\ker \varphi = H$ , thus by the first isomorphism theorem,  $G/H \cong \operatorname{Gal}(M/K)$ .

(5) If  $M_1 = L^{H_1}$ ,  $M_2 = L^{H_2}$ , then  $M_1 \cap M_2 = L^{\langle H_1, H_2 \rangle}$  and  $M_1 M_2 = L^{H_1 \cap H_2}$ .

**Theorem 58.** Let L/K be Galois, and N/K be any extension, then LN/N is galois and  $Gal(LN/N) \cong Gal(L/L \cap N)$  by the isomorphism  $\varphi : \sigma \mapsto \sigma|_{L}$ .

*Proof.* Let L be a splitting field of the separable polynomial f(x) over K, say  $L = K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ . Then  $LN = N(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ , which can be regarded as a splitting field of f(x) over N. Thus by theorem 54, LN/N is Galois.

Now we check that  $\varphi$  is well defined, notice that  $f(\sigma(\alpha_i)) = \sigma(f(\alpha_i)) = 0$  since  $\sigma$  fixes K, and thus f sends  $\alpha_i$  to some  $\alpha_j$ . Also,  $\{\alpha_i\}$  generate L over K, thus  $\sigma|_L(L) = L$ .

If  $\sigma|_{L} = \mathrm{Id}_{L}$ , then  $\sigma(\alpha_{i}) = \alpha_{i}$ ,  $\forall i$ . Since  $\{\alpha_{i}\}$  generate LN over N,  $\sigma = \mathrm{Id}_{LN}$ . Thus  $\varphi$  is 1-1.

Finally, let  $H = \operatorname{Im} \varphi$ , we claim that  $L^H = L \cap N$ , since

$$\begin{split} \alpha \in L^H &\iff \alpha \in L \text{ and } \forall \, \sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(LN/N), \, \sigma\big|_L(\alpha) = \alpha \\ &\iff \alpha \in L \text{ and } \forall \, \sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(LN/N), \, \sigma(\alpha) = \alpha \\ &\iff \alpha \in L \text{ and } \alpha \in (LN)^{\operatorname{Gal}(LN/N)} \\ &\iff \alpha \in L \text{ and } \alpha \in N \iff \alpha \in L \cap N \end{split}$$

**Remark 30.** If L/K is Galois and N/K is finite, then  $[LN:K] = [L:K][N:K]/[L \cap N:K]$ .

Proof.

$$[LN:K]/[N:K] = [LN:N] = \operatorname{Gal}(LN/N) = \operatorname{Gal}(L/L \cap N) = [L:L \cap N] = [L:K]/[L \cap N:K]$$
 and the proof is completed.  $\Box$ 

# 5.7 Abelian extension (week 5)

**Def 90.** L/K is called an abelian extension if L/K is Galois and Gal(L/K) is abelian.

**Eg 5.7.1.** For an extension  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}/\mathbb{F}_q$  of a finite field,  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}$  is a splitting field of  $x^{q^n} - x$  over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ , so  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}/\mathbb{F}_q$  is Galois by theorem 54. By theorem 46, we know that  $\operatorname{Gal}(F_{q^n}/F_q) = \langle \sigma_q \rangle$  is a cyclic group.

### Def 91.

- The cyclotomic field  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)$  is the splitting field of  $x^n 1$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .
- $\zeta$  is called an *n*th root of unity if  $\zeta^n = 1$ .  $\mathcal{U} = \langle \zeta \rangle$  is the multiplicative group of *n*th roots of unity.
- $\zeta_n$  is called a primitive *n*th root of unity if  $\zeta^n = 1$  but  $\zeta^m \neq 1, \forall 0 < m < n$ .
- The nth cyclotomic polynomial is defined as

$$\Phi_n \triangleq \prod_{\gcd(k,n)=1} (x - \zeta_n^k) \implies \deg \Phi_n = \varphi(n)$$

# Prop 5.7.1.

•  $x^n - 1 = \prod_{d|n} \Phi_d$ .

*Proof.* First, Both sides have no multiple root. Then since  $\alpha^n = 1 \iff \operatorname{ord}_{\times}(\alpha) \mid n$ , we know that two sides has equal roots.

•  $\Phi_n \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ .

*Proof.* By induction on n. n = 1 is trivial. Assume that the statement is true for all k < n, then since

$$x^{n} - 1 = \Phi_{n} \prod_{d|n,d < n} \Phi_{d} \triangleq \Phi_{n} \Phi_{< n}$$

But notice that  $\Phi_{< n}$  is monic, so by the long division algorithm, it is easy to see that  $\Phi_n = (x^n - 1)/\Phi_{< n}$  has all coefficients in  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

•  $\Phi_n$  is irreducible.

*Proof.* Suppose  $\Phi_n = f(x)g(x)$  with f irreducible, and both f, g are monic. By Gauss's lemma, we could assume  $f(x), g(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ . Let  $\zeta_n$  be a primitive nth root of unity which satisfied  $f(\zeta_n) = 0$  and p be a prime with  $p \nmid n$ .

Assume that  $g(\zeta_n^p) = 0$ ,  $m_{\zeta_n,\mathbb{Q}} = f \implies f \mid g(x^p)$ , say  $g(x^p) = f(x)h(x)$ . By the long division algorithm, we know that  $h(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ , since  $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  and monic.

In  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[x]$ , we have  $\bar{g}(x)^p = \bar{g}(x^p) = \bar{f}(x)\bar{h}(x)$ , which implies  $\bar{g}, \bar{f}$  has common root, thus  $\bar{\Phi}_n = \bar{f}\bar{g}$  and hence  $x^n - \bar{1}$  has a multiple root. But  $(x^n - \bar{1})' = nx^{n-1} \neq 0$ , and 0 is not a root of  $x^n - \bar{1}$ , which leads to a contradiction.

So we conclude that  $f(\zeta_n^p) = 0$  for any  $p \nmid n$ , which could be extended and show that  $f(\zeta_n^k) = 0$  for any gcd(k, n) = 1, thus  $f = \Phi_n$ .

- $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)/\mathbb{Q}$  is Galois with  $[\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n):\mathbb{Q}] = \deg \Phi_n = \varphi(n)$ .
- $\operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)/\mathbb{Q}) \cong (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$ .

Proof. Let  $\sigma_k = (\zeta_n \mapsto \zeta_n^k) \in \operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)/\mathbb{Q})$ . The isomorphism is given by  $\sigma_k \mapsto \bar{k}$ . Clearly, it is a homomorphism since  $\sigma_k \sigma_h = (\zeta_n \mapsto \zeta_n^{kh}) = \sigma_{kh}$ . Also  $\sigma_k = 1 \iff \bar{k} = 1$ . Finally,  $|\operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)/\mathbb{Q})| = |\mathbb{F}_n^{\times}| = \varphi(n)$ , so the map is onto.

• Suppose  $n = p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \cdots p_k^{n_k}$  with  $p_1, \ldots, p_k$  are distinct primes. Define  $L_i \triangleq \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_{p_i^{n_i}})$ . Obviously,  $L_i \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)$  hence  $L_1 L_2 \cdots L_k \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)$ , but  $\zeta_n = \zeta_{p_1^{n_1}} \zeta_{p_2^{n_2}} \cdots \zeta_{p_k^{n_k}}$ , so  $L_1 L_2 \cdots L_k \supseteq \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)$ . Thus we have  $L_1 L_2 \cdots L_k = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)$ .

# **Eg 5.7.2.** Let n = p be a prime.

- $\operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p)/\mathbb{Q}) = \mathbb{F}_p^{\times} = \mathbb{Z}/(p-1)\mathbb{Z}.$
- For  $H \leq \operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p)/\mathbb{Q})$ , we shall find  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p)^H$ . Let  $\alpha = \sum_{\tau \in H} \tau(\zeta_p)$ , then it is easy to see that  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p)^H$ . Also, since  $[\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p):\mathbb{Q}] = p-1$ ,  $\zeta_p, \zeta_p^2, \ldots, \zeta_p^{p-1}$  is linearly independent, so if some  $\sigma \in G$  satisfy  $\sigma(\alpha) = \alpha$ , then since both  $\sigma(\alpha), \alpha$  are a sum of linearly independent elements,  $\sigma$  must send  $\zeta_p$  to an element  $\tau(\zeta_p)$  for some  $\tau \in H$ , then  $\sigma = \tau \implies \sigma \in H$ . Thus  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p)^H = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ .

**Lemma 10.** If  $L_1/K$ ,  $L_2/K$  are Galois, then  $L_1 \cap L_2/K$ ,  $L_1L_2/K$  are Galois and

$$\operatorname{Gal}(L_1L_2/K) \cong \{(\sigma,\tau) \mid \sigma|_{L_1 \cap L_2} = \tau|_{L_1 \cap L_2} \} \leq \operatorname{Gal}(L_1/K) \times \operatorname{Gal}(L_2/K)$$

In particular, if  $L_1 \cap L_2 = K$ , then  $Gal(L_1L_2/K) \cong Gal(L_1/K) \times Gal(L_2/K)$ .

*Proof.* We know that  $L_1 \cap L_2/K$  is finite and separable. Also, for each  $\alpha \in L_1 \cap L_2$ ,  $m_{\alpha,K}$  splits in both  $L_1, L_2$  since they are normal, thus  $m_{\alpha,K}$  splits in  $L_1 \cap L_2$ , hence  $L_1 \cap L_2/K$  is galois.

Similary,  $L_1L_2$  is finite and separable. Let  $L_1$  be the splitting field of  $f_1$ , and  $L_2$  be the splitting field of  $f_2$ , then  $L_1L_2$  is the splitting field of the square-free part of  $f_1f_2$ , hence  $L_1L_2/K$  normal.

Define  $\varphi = \sigma :: \operatorname{Gal}(L_1L_2/K) \mapsto (\sigma|_{L_1}, \sigma|_{L_2}) :: \operatorname{Gal}(L_1/K) \times \operatorname{Gal}(L_2/K)$ . Since  $L_1, L_2$  are normal, by proposition 5.5.1,  $\sigma|_{L_1}(L_i) = L_i$  so they are well-defined. Also, it is clear that the map is 1-1.

Now we count the number of the pair  $(\sigma\big|_{L_1},\sigma\big|_{L_2})$ , There are  $[L_1:K]$  of  $\tau=\sigma\big|_{L_1}$ , and fixing one, each  $\sigma\big|_{L_2}$  is an extension of  $\tau\big|_{L_1\cap L_2}$ , so there are  $[L_2:L_1\cap L_2]$  of such. On the other hand, we have  $|\mathrm{Gal}(L_1L_2/K)|=[L_1L_2:K]=[L_1L_2:L_1][L_1:K]=[L_2:L_1\cap L_2][L_1:K]$ , thus  $\mathrm{Gal}(L_1L_2/K)$  and  $\{(\sigma\big|_{L_1},\sigma\big|_{L_2})\}$  has the same size, and hence the map is onto.

Back to our problem,  $[L_1L_2\cdots L_k:\mathbb{Q}]=[\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n):\mathbb{Q}]=\varphi(n)=\varphi(p_1^{n_1})\cdots\varphi(p_k^{n_k})=[L_1:\mathbb{Q}][L_2:\mathbb{Q}]\cdots[L_k:\mathbb{Q}]$ , thus

$$\operatorname{Gal}\left(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)/\mathbb{Q}\right) \cong \operatorname{Gal}\left(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_{p_1^{n_1}})/\mathbb{Q}\right) \times \operatorname{Gal}\left(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_{p_1^{n_2}})/\mathbb{Q}\right) \times \cdots \times \operatorname{Gal}\left(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_{p_1^{n_k}})/\mathbb{Q}\right)$$

**Theorem 59.** Let G be a finite abelian group. Then there exists a subfield L of a cyclotomic field satisfying  $Gal(L/\mathbb{Q}) \cong G$ .

*Proof.* By the FTFGAG,

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}/n_1\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/n_2\mathbb{Z} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}/n_k\mathbb{Z}$$

By dirichlet theorem, there are infinitely many prime p such that  $n \mid p-1$ . Let  $p_i$  be a prime such that  $n_i \mid p_i-1$  and all  $p_i$  are distinct. Then G is a subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}/(p_1-1)\mathbb{Z} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}/(p_k-1)\mathbb{Z} \cong \operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)/\mathbb{Q})$  where  $n = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_k$ .

### 5.7.1 Kummer extension

In this section, we assume that char  $K \nmid n$  and  $\zeta$  is a primitive nth root of unity.

### Def 92.

- L/K is called a kummer extension of exponent n if  $\zeta \in K$  and L is a splitting field of  $(x^n a_1)(x^n a_2) \cdots (x^n a_k)$  over K.
- Let  $|G| < \infty$ , the exponent e(G) of G is the least positive integer m satisfying  $g^m = 1$  for any  $g \in G$ .

**Theorem 60.** Let L be a splitting field of  $x^n - a$  over K, then  $Gal(L/K(\zeta))$  is cyclic of degree dividing n. More over  $x^n - a$  is irreducible over  $K(\zeta) \iff [L:K(\zeta)] = n$ .

*Proof.* If  $\alpha$  is a root of  $x^n - a$ , then  $\alpha, \alpha\zeta, \dots, \alpha\zeta^{n-1}$  are roots of  $x^n - a$ , so  $L = K(\alpha, \zeta) = K(\zeta)(\alpha)$ .

Consider  $\frac{\varphi: \operatorname{Gal}(L/K(\zeta)) \to \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}}{(\alpha \mapsto \alpha \zeta^k) \mapsto \bar{k}}$ . It is easy to see that  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism. Also, if  $\varphi(\sigma) = 0$ ,  $\sigma = (\alpha \mapsto \alpha) = \operatorname{Id}$ . Thus  $\varphi$  is 1-1 and  $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K(\zeta)) \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Def 93.** L/K is called a cyclic extension if L/K is Galois and Gal(L/K) is cyclic.

**Theorem 61.** If L/K is a cyclic extension of degree n and  $\zeta \in K$ , then L is a splitting field of some irreducible polynomial  $x^n - a$  over K.

*Proof.* Recall a result proved in HW problem: Distinct automorphisms of L are linearly independent over L

Let  $Gal(L/K) = \langle \sigma \rangle$  with  $ord(\sigma) = n$ . Then  $Id_L + \zeta \sigma + \zeta^2 \sigma^2 + \cdots + \zeta^{n-1} \sigma^{n-1} \neq 0$ 

$$\implies \exists c \in L, \text{ s.t. } \alpha = c + \zeta \sigma(c) + \zeta^2 \sigma^2(c) + \dots + \zeta^{n-1} \sigma^{n-1}(c) \neq 0$$

Observe that  $\sigma(\alpha) = \zeta^{-1}\alpha$ , so  $\alpha \notin K$ . Also  $\sigma(\alpha^n) = \sigma(\alpha)^n = \zeta^{-n}\alpha^n = \alpha^n$ , so  $\alpha^n$  is fixed by  $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K)$ , thus  $\alpha \triangleq \alpha^n \in K$ , and hence  $K(\alpha)$  is a splitting field of  $x^n - a$  over K.

Now  $\sigma(\alpha) = \zeta^{-1}\alpha \in K(\alpha)$ , so  $\sigma|_{K(\alpha)} \in \operatorname{Gal}(K(\alpha)/K)$ . Also  $\sigma^k(\alpha) = \zeta^{-k}\alpha \implies \operatorname{ord}(\sigma) = n$ . Thus

$$n = [L:K] \ge [K(\alpha):K] = \operatorname{Gal}(K(\alpha)/K) \ge n \implies L = K(\alpha)$$

**Theorem 62.** Let L/K be a Galois extension such that Gal(L/K) is abelian of exponent n and  $\zeta_n \in K$ , then L/K is a Kummer extension.

*Proof.* By induction on [L:K]. If [L:K]=1 then L=K and is trivial.

Assume [L:K] > 1, then by FTFGAG,  $G \triangleq \operatorname{Gal}(L/K) \cong \mathbb{Z}/d_1\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/d_2\mathbb{Z} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}/d_s\mathbb{Z}$  with  $d_i \mid d_{i+1}$ . If s = 1 then the theorem degenerates to theorem 61.

So assume s > 1. Let  $H = \mathbb{Z}/d_1\mathbb{Z} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}/d_{s-1}\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $N = \mathbb{Z}/d_s\mathbb{Z}$  be the corresponding subgroup in  $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K)$ . Set  $M = L^N$ , we have  $[M:K] \leq [L:K]$ . Since any subgroup of abelian group is normal, we have  $\operatorname{Gal}(M/K) \cong \operatorname{Gal}(L/K)/\operatorname{Gal}(L/M) = G/N = H$ .

Denote  $m = d_{s-1}, n = d_s$ , we have  $m \mid n$ . Then  $\zeta_n \in K \implies \zeta_m = \zeta_n^{n/m} \in K$ , thus we could pass down the induction, and assume M is a kummer extension which is a splitting field of  $g = (x^m - b_1)(x^m - b_2) \cdots (x^m - b_{k-1})$  over K with each  $b_i \in K$ . Let  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{k-1}$  be all the roots of g, then  $\alpha_i$  is also a root of  $(x^n - b_1^{n/m})$ . Thus if we define  $a_i \triangleq b_i^{n/m}$ , then M is also the splitting field of  $(x^n - a_1)(x^n - a_2) \cdots (x^n - a_{k-1})$  over K since  $\zeta_n \in K$ .

Now, if  $N = \langle \sigma \rangle$ , then  $G \cong H \times N = \{ \sigma^k \tau : 0 \le k < n, \tau \in H \}$ . Since automorphisms are linearly independent, exists  $c \in L$  satisfied

$$0 \neq \alpha = \sum_{\tau \in H} \tau(c) + \zeta \sum_{\tau \in H} \sigma \tau(c) + \dots + \zeta^{n-1} \sum_{\tau \in H} \sigma^{n-1} \tau(c)$$

Then  $\sigma(\alpha) = \zeta^{-1}\alpha$ , so  $\alpha \notin M$ . Also  $\sigma(\alpha^n) = \alpha^n$  and  $\tau(\alpha^n) = \tau(\alpha)^n = \alpha^n$ , so  $a_k \triangleq \alpha^n \in K$ . Thus  $M(\alpha)$  is a splitting field of  $(x^n - a_k)$  over M.

Finally,  $n = [L:M] \ge [M(\alpha):M] = |\operatorname{Gal}(M(\alpha)/M)| \ge n$ , thus  $L = M(\alpha)$ , and hence L is a splitting field of  $(x^n - a_1)(x^n - a_2) \cdots (x^n - a_k)$ .

**Theorem 63.** If L/K is a kummer extension of exponent n, then Gal(L/K) is abelian of exponent dividing n.

Proof. Let L be the splitting field of  $(x^n - a_1)(x^n - a_2) \cdots (x^n - a_k)$  with  $\alpha_i = \sqrt[n]{a_i}$ . If  $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/K)$ , then  $\sigma$  sends each  $\alpha_i$  to some  $\zeta^{k_{\sigma,i}}\alpha_i$ . So  $\sigma^n = \alpha_i \mapsto \zeta^{k_{\sigma,i}n}\alpha_i = \alpha_i \mapsto \alpha_i = \operatorname{Id}$  and  $\sigma \circ \tau = \alpha_i \mapsto \zeta^{k_{\sigma,i}+k_{\tau,i}}\alpha_i = \tau \circ \sigma$ . by the fact that  $\{\alpha_i\}$  is the generating set of L. Hence  $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K)$  is abelian and of exponent dividing n.

### 5.7.2 Cubic equations

**Lemma 11.** Let char  $K \neq 2$  and  $f(x) \in K[x]$  with deg f = n. Let  $L = K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$  be a splitting field of L over K.

Define 
$$\delta = \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} (\alpha_i - \alpha_j)$$
, then  $L^{\operatorname{Gal}(L/K) \cap A_n} = K(\delta)$ . (Here  $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K) \hookrightarrow S_n$ )

*Proof.* Notice that any transposition maps  $\delta$  to  $-\delta$ , so  $\forall \sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/K) \cap A_n$ ,  $\sigma(\delta) = \delta$ , thus  $K(\delta) \subseteq L^{\operatorname{Gal}(L/K) \cap A_n}$ .

Now,  $|\operatorname{Gal}(L/K)/\operatorname{Gal}(L/K)\cap A_n|$  is either 1 or 2. If it is 1, then  $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K) \leq A_n$ , thus  $\delta \in K$  and is trivial. Assume it is 2, then  $\delta$  is not fixed by all permutation, thus  $\delta \notin K$ . But  $D = \delta^2 \in K$  is the discriminant. So we have  $2 = [K(\delta) : K] \leq [L^{\operatorname{Gal}(L/K)\cap A_n} : K] = |\operatorname{Gal}(L^{\operatorname{Gal}(L/K)\cap A_n}/K)| = 2$ , thus  $K(\delta) = L^{\operatorname{Gal}(L/K)\cap A_n}$ .

**Prop 5.7.2.** Let  $f(x) = x^3 + px + q$  be irreducible in K[x] and L be a splitting field,

- If  $Gal(L/K) \cong S_3$  then  $\sqrt{D} \notin K$ .
- If  $Gal(L/K) \cong A_3$  then  $\sqrt{D} \in K$ .

**Def 94.**  $H \leq S_n$  is said to be transitive if for any i, j, there exists  $\sigma \in H$  such that  $\sigma(i) = j$ .

**Fact 5.7.1.** Let f(x) be a separable polynomial with degree n, then

f(x) is irreducible  $\iff$  The Galois group of f is transitive in  $S_n$ 

## 5.8 Solution by radicals (week 6)

Def 95.

- 1. Given L/K and  $\alpha \in L$ ,  $\alpha$  is called a radical over K if  $\alpha^n \in K$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- 2. L/K is called an extension by radicals if there exist  $L = L_n \supset L_{n-1} \supset \cdots \supset L_1 \supset L_0 = K$  s.t.  $\forall i = 1, \ldots, n, \quad L_i = L_{i-1}(\alpha_i)$  with  $\alpha_i$  a radical over  $L_{i-1}$ .
- 3.  $f(x) \in K[x]$  is solvable by radicals if there exists L/K, an extension by radicals, s.t. f splits over L.

**Def 96.** (Recall) Let G be a finite group. G is solvable if  $\exists \{1\} = G_m \triangleleft G_{m-1} \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft G_0 = G$  s.t.  $G_{i-1}/G_i$  is cyclic  $\forall i$ .

**Lemma 12.** Given a Galois extension L/K and  $M = L(\alpha)$  is an extension by a radical, where  $\alpha^n = a \in L$ . Assume that char  $K \nmid n$ . Then  $\exists N$  s.t. N/M is an extension by radicals and N/K is Galois and N contains  $\zeta_n$ .

*Proof.* We know that  $M(\zeta_n) = L(\zeta_n, \alpha)$  is a splitting field of  $x^n - a$  over L. If we set

$$f(x) = \prod_{\sigma \in Gal(L/K)} (x^n - \sigma(a)),$$

then the coefficients of f(x) are elementary symmetric polynomials in  $\{\sigma(a) \mid \sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/K)\}$ , which are fixed by  $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K)$ , so  $f(x) \in K[x]$ .

Let L be a splitting field of g(x) over K. (since L/K is Galois) Choose N as a splitting field of f(x)g(x) over K. By def., N/K is Galois. Let  $L = K(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_s)$  where  $\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_s$  are the roots of g(x), then

$$N = K(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_s, \zeta_n, \alpha_\sigma : \sigma \in Gal(L/K)), \qquad \alpha_\sigma^n = \sigma(a) \in L$$

So  $N = M(\zeta_n, \alpha_\sigma : \sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/K) \setminus \{\operatorname{Id}\}) \implies N/M$  is an extension by radicals.

**Lemma 13.** Let  $L = L_m \supset L_{m-1} \supset \cdots \supset L_0 = K$  s.t.  $L_i = L_{i-1}(\alpha_i)$  with  $\alpha^{n_i} = a_i \in L_{i-1}$ . If char  $K \nmid n_1 n_2 \cdots n_m$ , then there exists N/L s.t. N/K is a Galois extension by radicals and  $\zeta_{n_i} \in N, \forall i = 1, \ldots, m$ .

*Proof.* By induction on m. For m = 1,  $L_1 \supset L_0 = K$  and  $L_1 = L_0(\alpha_1) = K(\alpha_1)$  where  $\alpha_1^{n_1} \in K$  for some  $n_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ . Set  $N = L(\zeta_{n_1}) = K(\zeta_{n_1}, \alpha_1)$ , done.

For m > 1, by induction hypothesis,  $\exists N'/L_{m-1}$  s.t. N'/K is Galois extension by radicals and N' contains  $\zeta_{n_i}$ ,  $\forall i = 1, ..., m-1$ . By lemma 12,  $\exists N/N'(\alpha_m)$  is an extension by radicals s.t. N/K is Galois and N contains  $\zeta_{n_m}$ .

**Prop 5.8.1.** Let  $H \triangleleft G$ . Then G is solvable  $\iff H, G/H$  are solvable.

*Proof.* " $\Leftarrow$ ": Let  $q: G \to G/H$  be the quotient map, Q = G/H. The solvable series is given by

$$G = q^{-1}(Q) = q^{-1}(Q_0) \triangleright q^{-1}(Q_1) \triangleright \cdots \triangleright q^{-1}(Q_n) = H = H_0 \triangleright H_1 \triangleright \cdots \triangleright H_m = \{1\}$$

"⇒"

<u>Claim:</u> Define  $G^{(i)} = [G^{(i-1)}, G^{(i-1)}], i \in \mathbb{N}; G^{(0)} = G$ . Then G is solvable  $\iff G^{(n)} = \{1\}$  for some n.

*Proof.* "⇐": O.K.

"\(\Rightarrow\)": Given 
$$G = G_0 \triangleright G_1 \triangleright \cdots \triangleright G_m = \{1\}$$
 with  $G_{i-1}/G_i$  abelian. We have  $G^{(1)} \leq G_1 \rightsquigarrow G^{(2)} \leq [G_1, G_1] \leq G_2 \rightsquigarrow \cdots \rightsquigarrow G^{(n)} \leq G_n = \{1\} \rightsquigarrow G^{(n)} = \{1\}.$ 

By the claim above:

- $H^{(n)} \le G^{(n)} = \{1\} \leadsto H^{(n)} = \{1\} \implies H \text{ is solvable.}$
- $q([G,G]) = [q(G), q(G)] = [G/H, G/H] = (G/H)^{(1)} \leadsto \cdots \leadsto q(G^{(n)}) = (G/H)^{(n)} \Longrightarrow G/H \text{ is solvable.}$

**Theorem 64** (Main Theorem). Under some proper assumption on char K, a separable polynomial  $f(x) \in K[x]$  is solvable by radicals  $\iff$  the Galois group of f is solvable.

**Part A:** Let  $L = L_m \supset \cdots \supset L_0 = K$  s.t.  $L_i = L_{i-1}(\alpha_i)$  with  $\alpha^{n_i} = a_i \in L_{i-1}$  and char  $K \nmid n_1 \cdots n_m$ . If a separable poly.  $f(x) \in K[x]$  splits over L, then the Galois group of f over K is solvable.

*Proof.* By lemma 13, we can first extend the extension tower and thus assume that L/K is Galois with each  $\zeta_{n_i}$  in L. Then each  $L/L_i$  is Galois. If we set  $n = \text{lcm}(n_1, \ldots, n_m)$ , L also contains  $\zeta = \zeta_n = \zeta_{n_1}^{r_1} \cdots \zeta_{n_m}^{r_m}$ .

Consider  $L = L(\zeta) \supset L_{m-1}(\zeta) \supset \cdots \supset L_0(\zeta) = K(\zeta)$  (Note that  $K(\zeta) \supset K$  and L/K is Galois) and let  $G_i = \operatorname{Gal}(L/L_i(\zeta))$  for each  $i = 0, \ldots, m$ .

Define  $L_i' \triangleq L_i(\zeta)$  for all i. We can find that

- $G_m = \{1\}, G_0 = \text{Gal}(L/K(\zeta)).$
- Since  $\zeta_n \in L_{i-1}$ ,  $L_i/L_{i-1}$  is normal, so

$$G_{i-1}/G_i = \operatorname{Gal}(L/L'_{i-1})/\operatorname{Gal}(L/L'_i) \cong \operatorname{Gal}(L'_{i-1}/L'_i) = \operatorname{Gal}(L'_i(\alpha_i)/L'_i)$$

is cyclic.

So  $G_0$  is solvable. Moreover,  $K(\zeta)$  is a splitting field of  $x^n-1$  over K and  $\operatorname{Gal}(K(\zeta)/K) \leq (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$ , which is abelian, so it is solvable. Also,  $\operatorname{Gal}(K(\zeta)/K) \cong \operatorname{Gal}(L/K)/G_0$  is solvable.  $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K)$  is solvable. Let N be a splitting field of f over  $K \leadsto L \supset N \leadsto \operatorname{Gal}(N/K) \cong \operatorname{Gal}(L/K)/\operatorname{Gal}(L/N)$ .

By prop 5.8.1, Gal(N/K) is solvable.

**Part B:** Let  $f \in K[x]$  be separable and L be a splitting field of f over K. Assume char  $K \nmid |Gal(L/K)|$ . If Gal(L/K) is solvable, then f is solvable by radicals.

*Proof.* Let  $n = |\operatorname{Gal}(L/K)|$  and  $\zeta = \zeta_n$ . Let N be a splitting field of f over  $K(\zeta)$ , i.e.  $N = LK(\zeta)$ .  $\Longrightarrow \operatorname{Gal}(N/K(\zeta)) \cong \operatorname{Gal}(L/L \cap K(\zeta)) \leq \operatorname{Gal}(L/K)$ .

So  $\operatorname{Gal}(N/K(\zeta))$  is solvable, say  $\operatorname{Gal}(N/K(\zeta)) = G_0 \triangleright G_1 \triangleright \cdots \triangleright G_m = 1$ ,  $G_{i-1}/G_i$  is cyclic.

If we set  $N_j = N^{G_j}$ , then  $N = N_m \supset N_{m-1} \supset \cdots \supset N_0 = K(\zeta)$  and  $G_j = \operatorname{Gal}(N/N_j)$ ,  $G_{i-1}/G_i \cong \operatorname{Gal}(N_i/N_{i-1})$  is cyclic  $\Longrightarrow N_i = N_{i-1}(\alpha_i), \alpha_i^{n_i} \in N_{i-1}$ . (kummer extension)

Note that  $n_i = [L_i : L_{i-1}] = |G_{i-1}|/|G_i|$  dividing  $|G_0|$  and  $|G_0| \mid n$ , so  $\zeta_n$  generates  $\zeta_{n_i}$  and char  $K \nmid n_i$ .

 $\implies N/K(\zeta)$  is an extension by radicals  $\rightsquigarrow N/K$  is an extension by radicals.

**Remark 31.** In Part A of theorem 64,  $\operatorname{Gal}(K(\zeta)/K) \leq (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$  may be proper subgroup. We can check the if  $[K(\zeta):K] \stackrel{?}{=} 4 = \varphi(5)$ .

### 5.9 Ruffini-Abel theorem

**Theorem 65** (Main theorem). Assume char F=0. The general equation of the n-th degree is not solvable by radicals if  $n \geq 5$ . In fact, let  $f(x) = x^n - t_1 x^{n-1} + t_2 x^{n-2} - \cdots + (-1)^n t_n \in \underbrace{F(t_1,\ldots,t_n)}_{=K}[x]$  with  $t_1,\ldots,t_n$  variables and L be a splitting field of f over K. Then  $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K) \cong S_n$ .  $S_n$  is not solvable for  $n \geq 5$ .

**Lemma 14.** Let  $L = F(x_1, ..., x_n)$  and  $s_1, ..., s_n$  be the elementary symmetric polynomials in  $x_1, ..., x_n$ .

$$s_k = \sum_{1 \le j_1 < \dots < j_k \le n} \prod_{i=1}^k x_{j_i}$$

If  $K = F(s_1, \ldots, s_n) \subset L$ , then L/K is Galois and  $Gal(L/K) \cong S_n$ .

*Proof.* write  $f(x) = (x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_n) = x^n - s_1 x^{n-1} + s_2 x^{n-2} - \cdots + (-1)^n s_n \in K[x]$ . Clearly, L is a splitting field of f over  $K \leadsto L/K$  is Galois and  $Gal(L/K) \hookrightarrow S_n$ .

Now, for  $\sigma \in S_n$ ,  $\sigma$  can be regarded as an element in Gal(L/K):

$$\sigma: L \to L$$
$$x_i \mapsto x_{\sigma(i)}$$

Since  $\{\sigma(x_1), \dots, \sigma(x_n)\} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \leadsto \sigma(s_i) = s_i \quad \forall i \leadsto \sigma \big|_K = \mathrm{Id}_K \leadsto \sigma \in \mathrm{Gal}(L/K).$ 

Coro 5.9.1.  $L^{S_n} = K = F(s_1, ..., s_n)$ .  $L^{S_n} = \{ f(x_1, ..., x_n) \in L \mid f(x_{\sigma(1)}, ..., x_{\sigma(n)}) = f(x_1, ..., x_n) \quad \forall \, \sigma \in S_n \}$  is all symmetric poly.

**Coro 5.9.2.** For any finite group G, by Cayley thm,  $G \hookrightarrow S_n$  for some n. so  $Gal(L/L^G) \cong G$ .

Now we prove the Main theorem:

*Proof.* Let  $L = K(z_1, \ldots, z_n)$ . Since  $t_1, \ldots, t_n$  are the symmetric poly. w.r.t.  $z_1, \ldots, z_n$ ,  $L = F(z_1, \ldots, z_n)$ .

Let  $F(s_1, \ldots, s_n)$  and  $F(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  be given as in lemma 14.

since  $t_1, \ldots, t_n$  are variables,  $\exists \tau : F[t_1, \ldots, t_n] \twoheadrightarrow F[s_1, \ldots, s_n]$  with  $\tau : t_i \mapsto s_i$ . Also, Since  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  are variables,  $\exists \sigma : F[x_1, \ldots, x_n] \twoheadrightarrow F[z_1, \ldots, z_n]$  with  $\sigma : x_i \mapsto z_i$ .

now,  $\sigma \circ \tau(t_i) = \sigma(s_i) = \sigma\left(\sum x_{j_1} \cdots x_{j_i}\right) = \left(\sum z_{j_1} \cdots z_{j_i}\right) = t_i \implies \sigma \circ \tau = \operatorname{Id} \implies \tau$  is 1-1 and thus an isom. So there exists an extension  $\tau' : F(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \xrightarrow{\sim} F(s_1, \ldots, s_n)$ . Note  $\bar{\tau}' : f(x) \mapsto g(x) = x^n - s_1 x^{n-1} + \cdots + (-1)^n s_n$ .

Let  $F(z_1, \ldots, z_n)$  be a splitting field of f over  $F(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$  and  $F(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  be a splitting field of g over  $F(s_1, \ldots, s_n)$  where  $g = \overline{\tau}'(f)$ . There exists  $\sigma' : F(z_1, \ldots, z_n) \xrightarrow{\sim} F(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  with  $\sigma'|_{F(t_1, \ldots, t_n)} = \tau'$ . So  $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K) \cong S_n$  by lemma 14.

## Remark 32.

- Since  $S_n$  is transitive, f is irr.
- $\operatorname{char} F = 0 \leadsto f$  is separable.

## 5.10 Calculation of Galois groups (week 7)

Let f(x) be separable in K[x] and  $L = K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$  be a splitting field of f over K. The goal is to find Gal(L/K) which is in  $S_n$ .

Define  $\theta \triangleq y_1\alpha_1 + \dots + y_n\alpha_n$ . For each  $\sigma \in S_n$ , define  $\sigma_y(\theta) \triangleq y_{\sigma(1)}\alpha_1 + \dots + y_{\sigma(n)}\alpha_n$  and  $\sigma_\alpha(\theta) = y_1\alpha_{\sigma(1)} + \dots + y_n\alpha_{\sigma(n)}$ . It is easy to see that  $\sigma_y^{-1} = \sigma_\alpha$ .

In 
$$L(x, y_1, \dots, y_n)$$
, we consider  $F(x, y) = \prod_{\sigma \in S_n} (x - \sigma_y(\theta)) = \prod_{\sigma^{-1} \in S_n} (x - \sigma_\alpha(\theta)) = \prod_{\sigma \in S_n} (x - \sigma_\alpha(\theta))$ .  
Since each coefficient of  $F$  is a symmetric polynomial of  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ , by the fundamental theorem of

Since each coefficient of F is a symmetric polynomial of  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ , by the fundamental theorem of symmetric polynomials, these symmetric polynomials are polynomials of the elementary symmetric polynomials. Thus  $F(x,y) \in K[x,y_1,\ldots,y_n]$ .

Decompose F into irreducible factors in  $K[x, y_1, \ldots, y_n]$ , say  $F = F_1 F_2 \cdots F_r$ . Notice that for any  $\sigma \in S_n$ ,  $F = \sigma_y F = \sigma_y F_1 \cdot \sigma_y F_2 \cdots \sigma_y F_r$ . And each  $F_i$  is map to some  $F_j$ , thus  $\sigma$  induces a permutation of  $F_1, F_2, \ldots, F_r$ .

For convenience, assume  $(x - \theta) \mid F_1$ . We have the following lemma:

#### Lemma 15.

$$Q \triangleq \{\sigma : \sigma_y F_1 = F_1\} = \{\sigma : \sigma_y (x - \theta) \mid F_1\}$$

*Proof.* " $\subseteq$ ": Since  $x - \theta \mid F_1$ , so  $\sigma_y(x - \theta) \mid \sigma_y F_1 = F_1$ .

"\(\text{\text{\$}}": \sigma\_y(x-\theta) = x - \sigma\_y(\theta) \| \sigma\_y(F\_1), \text{ so } \sigma\_y(F\_1) \text{ and } F\_1 \text{ has a common factor. Since } F \text{ is separable,} \sigma\_y(F\_1) = F\_1.

**Prop 5.10.1.** Gal(L/K) = Q.

*Proof.* " $\subseteq$ ": For each  $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/K) \hookrightarrow S_n$ , extend  $\sigma$  to

$$\tilde{\sigma}: L(y_1, \dots, y_n) \to L(y_1, \dots, y_n)$$

$$\alpha \in L \quad \mapsto \quad \sigma(\alpha)$$

$$y_i \quad \mapsto \quad y_i$$

The automorphism fixes  $K(y_1,\ldots,y_n)$ , so  $\tilde{\sigma}(\theta)=\sigma_{\alpha}(\theta)$  and  $\theta$  share the same minimal polynomial over  $K(y_1,\ldots,y_n)$ . By Gauss's lemma,  $F_1$  is irreducible in  $K[y_1,\ldots,y_n][x] \Longrightarrow F_1$  is irreducible in  $K(y_1,\ldots,y_n)[x]$ , thus  $F_1=m_{\theta,K(y_1,\ldots,y_n)}=m_{\sigma_{\alpha}(\theta),K(y_1,\ldots,y_n)}$ , which implies  $(x-\sigma_{\alpha}(\theta))\mid F_1$ . So  $\sigma_y^{-1}F_1=F_1 \Longrightarrow \sigma^{-1}\in Q \Longrightarrow \sigma\in Q$ .

"\(\text{"}\)": For any  $\sigma \in Q$ ,  $F_1 = m_{\theta,K(y_1,...,y_n)} = m_{\sigma_{\alpha}^{-1}(\theta),K(y_1,...,y_n)}$ , so there exists  $\tau \in \operatorname{Aut}(L(\boldsymbol{y})/K(\boldsymbol{y}))$  satisfying  $\tau(\theta) = \sigma_{\alpha}^{-1}(\theta) = \sigma_y(\theta)$ . Since L/K normal,  $\tau(L) = L$  and thus  $\tau\big|_L \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/K)$  with  $\tau\big|_L(\alpha_i) = \alpha_{\sigma^{-1}(i)}$ , which implies that  $\sigma^{-1} \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/K) \implies \sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/K)$ .

**Theorem 66.** Let f(x) be monic, separable, in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ . Assume  $p \nmid D = \prod_{i < j} (\alpha_i - \alpha_j)^2$ , then the Galois group of  $\bar{f}(x)$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$  is a subgroup of the Galois group of f(x).

*Proof.* Since f is separable,  $D \neq 0$ . The discriminant could be calculate by  $D = (-1)^{n(n+1)/2}R(f, f')$  which only depends on the coefficients, so  $\bar{D} \neq 0$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p$  since  $p \nmid D$ . Thus f separable.

As above, let  $F = F_1 F_2 \cdots F_r$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ . Assume  $f(x) = x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0$ , then  $\bar{f}(x) = x^n + \bar{a}_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + \bar{a}_0$ . Let  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$  and  $\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n$  be their roots, respectively. Define  $\theta_p \triangleq y_1 \beta_1 + \cdots + y_n \beta_n$ . Since the coefficients of F are symmetric polynomials of  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ , which only depends on the coefficients of f, and so is  $F_p(x,y) = \prod_{\sigma \in S_n} (x - \sigma_y(\theta_p))$ , we know that  $F_p(x,y) = \bar{F}(x,y)$ .

Now 
$$\bar{F} = \bar{F}_1 \bar{F}_2 \cdots \bar{F}_r = (G_{1,1} \cdots G_{1,q_1})(G_{2,1} \cdots G_{2,q_2}) \cdots (G_{r,1} \cdots G_{r,q_r})$$

The Galois group of  $\bar{f}$  is

$$\{\sigma \in S_n : \sigma_y G_{1,j} = G_{1,j}, \, \forall \, j\} \subseteq \{\sigma \in S_n : \sigma_y \bar{F}_1 = \bar{F}_1\} = \{\sigma \in S_n : \sigma_y F_1 = F_1\}$$

Where the equality holds because  $\sigma_y \bar{F}_1 = \bar{F}_1 \iff (x - \sigma_y(\theta_p)) \mid \bar{F}_1 \iff (x - \sigma_y(\theta)) \mid F_1 \iff \sigma_y F_1 = F_1$ . Thus the galois group of  $\bar{f}$  is a subgroup of f.

### Fact 5.10.1.

- Every finite extension of  $\mathbb{F}_p$  is cyclic, so the Galois group of  $\bar{f}(x)$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$  is cyclic.
- If  $\bar{f}$  is irreducible, then the Galois group of  $\bar{f}$  is transitive on its roots, thus the only possibility is a cycle of length  $n = \deg \bar{f}$  in  $S_n$ .
- If  $\bar{f} = \bar{f}_1 \cdots \bar{f}_r$ , with each  $\bar{f}_i$  irreducible. Let the Galois group be  $\langle \sigma \rangle$ , then  $\sigma$  should be transitive on the roots of each  $\bar{f}_i$ . The only possibility of  $\sigma$  is a permutation composited by cycles of length  $\deg \bar{f}_1, \ldots, \deg \bar{f}_r$ . That is,  $\sigma = (\alpha_{1,1} \ldots \alpha_{1,m_1}) \cdots (\alpha_{r,1} \ldots \alpha_{r,m_r})$  where  $m_i \triangleq \deg \bar{f}_i$ .

# 5.11 Transcendental extensions (week 8)

**Def 97.** Let L/K be an extension and  $S \subset L$ .

- S is algebraically dependent over K if for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , exists  $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  satisfied  $f(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = 0$  for some distinct  $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in S$ .
- S is algebraically independent over K if S is not algebraically dependent.
- S is called a transcendence base for L/K if S is algebraically independent and L/K(S) is algebraic.

**Theorem 67.** Any two transcendence bases for L/K have the same cardinality.

*Proof.* Pick any transcendence base  $S = \{s_1, \ldots, s_n\}$  for L/K. Let T be another transcendence base for L/K. First we deal with the case which S is finite.

We claim that  $\exists t_1 \in T$  such that  $t_1$  is algebraically independent over  $K(s_2, \ldots, s_n)$ .

*Proof.* If not, then all elements of T is algebraically dependent over  $K(s_2, \ldots, s_n)$ . This implies  $K(s_2, \ldots, s_n)(T)/K(s_2, \ldots, s_n)$  is algebraic. And L/K(T) is algebraic implies  $L/K(T)(s_2, \ldots, s_n)$  is algebraic. Then  $L/K(s_2, \ldots, s_n)$  is algebraic, which is a contradiction  $(s_1 \text{ is not})$ .

By the claim,  $\{t_1, s_2, \ldots, s_n\}$  is algebraic indepedent. Also, there exists  $f \neq 0$  in  $K[x_1, \ldots, x_{n+1}]$  such that  $f(t_1, s_1, \ldots, s_n) = 0$  since  $t_1$  is algebraic over  $K(s_1, \ldots, s_n)$ . Since  $\{s_1, \ldots, s_n\}$  and  $\{t_1, s_2, \ldots, s_n\}$  are both algebraically indepedent,  $t_1, s_1$  must occur in  $f \implies s_1$  is algebraic over  $K(t_1, s_2, \ldots, s_n)$ . Then  $K(t_1, s_1, \ldots, s_n)/K(t_1, s_2, \ldots, s_n)$  is algebraic. Since  $L/K(t_1, s_1, \ldots, s_n)$  is algebraic.

Repeating this process, we get find  $t_1, \ldots, t_n \in T$  s.t.  $L/K(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$  is algebraic. But T is a transcendence base, so we must have  $T = \{t_1, \ldots, t_n\}$ .

Now assume S is infinite. For another transcendence base T, we have  $|T| = \infty$ . For  $s \in S$ , s is algebraic over K(T), and in fact is over  $K(T_s)$  such that  $T_s$  is finite, since algebraic relation involves. Let  $m_{s,K(T)} \in K(T_s)[x]$  for some finite set  $T_s \subset T$ . We claim that  $\bigcup_{s \in S} T_s = T$ .

*Proof.* Let  $U = \bigcup_{s \in S} T_s$ . Clearly  $U \subseteq T$ . And by def, K(U)(S)/K(U) is algebraic. Also, L/K(U)(S) is algebraic. So L/K(U) is algebraic  $\implies T = U$  since T is a transcendence base.

By well ordering principle, we can well-order S and denote its 1st element by  $s_1$ . Let

$$\begin{cases} T'_{s_1} = T_{s_1} \\ T'_{s} = T_{s} \setminus \bigcup_{l < s} T_l \end{cases} \Longrightarrow \{T'_{s}\}_{s \in S} \text{ are mutually disjoint}$$

For all  $T_s'$ , choose a fixed ordering of the elements in  $T_s'$ , says  $t_{s,1},\ldots,t_{s,k_s}$ . Define an injection  $\varphi:\bigcup_{s\in S}T_s'\to S\times\mathbb{N}$  with  $\varphi:t_{s,i}\mapsto(s,i)$ . So  $|T|=\left|\bigcup_{s\in S}T_s\right|\leq |S\times\mathbb{N}|=|S||\mathbb{N}|=|S|$  since  $|S|=\infty$ .

**Def 98.** Let S be a transcendence base of L/K, then we use  $\operatorname{tr} \operatorname{deg}_K L$  to denote |S|.

Remark 33. If  $S_1, S_2$  are two transcendence base for L/K, then it is **not necessarily true** that  $K(S_1) = K(S_2)$ .

**Def 99.** L/K is called purely transcendental if exists a transcendental base S such that L = K(S).

**Theorem 68** (Lüroth's theorem). If L is purely transcendental of degree 1 over K, then any proper intermediate field E is also purely transcendental of degree 1.

**Lemma 16.** Let L = K(t) with t being transcendental over K and  $u = f(t)/g(t) \in L \setminus K$  with gcd(f(t), g(t)) = 1. Assume  $n = \max(\deg f, \deg g)$ , then L/K(u) is algebraic and [L:K(u)] = n.

Proof. Write

$$f(t) = a_n t^n + \dots + a_1 t + a_0, \quad g(t) = b_n t^n + \dots + b_1 t + b_0$$

(note that either  $a_n \neq 0$  or  $b_n \neq 0$ ) Let  $F(x) = f(x) - ug(x) = (a_n - ub_n)x^n + \dots + (a_1 - ub_1)x + (a_0 - ub_0)$ . Since  $a_n - ub_n \neq 0$ ,  $F(x) \neq 0$  and  $\deg F(x) > 0$ . By def. of u, we have  $F(t) = 0 \implies t$  is algebraic over K(u) and  $[K(t):K(u)] \leq n$ . Now we prove that F(x) is irreducible over K(u). By Gauss's lemma, it suffices to show that F(x) is irreducible in K[u][x] = K[u,x]. Assume that F(x) = p(u,x)q(u,x) with  $\deg_u p = 1$  and  $q \in K[x]$ . Since F(x) = f(x) - ug(x), we have  $q \mid f, q \mid g \implies q \mid \gcd(f,g) = 1 \implies q \in K$ . So [K(t):K(u)] = n.

Now we prove the Lüroth's theorem:

*Proof.* For  $v \in E \setminus K$ , by lemma 16, t is algebraic over  $K(v) \leadsto t$  is algebraic over E.

Let  $m(x) = m_{t,E}$ , then there exists  $\beta(t) \in K(t)$  s.t.  $\beta(t)m(x) = a_n(t)x^n + \cdots + a_1(t)x + a_0(t)$  is primitive in K[t][x] = K[t,x]. Let  $F(t,x) = \beta(t)m(x)$ .

Since t is not algebraic over K, there exists some  $u = \frac{a_i(t)}{a_n(t)} \notin K$ . Write  $u = \frac{f(t)}{g(t)}$  with  $\gcd(f,g) = 1$ . (Note that  $u \in E$ )

By lemma 16,  $[K(t):K(u)]=r\geq n$ . Now we show that  $r\leq n$ , then  $r=n\implies E=K(u)$ .

Let l = f(t)g(x) - g(t)f(x), which is skew-symmetric in t and x. Notice that  $g(t)^{-1}l \in E[x]$  and has t as a zero. So  $m(x) \mid g(t)^{-1}l$  in  $E[x] \implies \beta(t)m(x) \mid \beta(t)g(t)^{-1}l$ . Since  $\beta(t)g(t)^{-1} \in K[t]$ ,  $F(t,x) \mid l$  in K(t)[x]. Since F(t,x) is primitive in K[t][x],  $F(t,x) \mid l$  in K[t][x].

Say l = Fq for some  $q(t,x) \in K[t][x]$ . Note that  $\deg_t l \leq r, \deg_t F \geq r \leadsto \deg_t l = \deg_t F = r, \deg_t q = 0$ . So  $q \in K[x] \leadsto q$  is primitive in K[t][x]. By Gauss's lemma, F, q are primitive, then l is also primitive in K[t][x]. Since l is skew-symmetric in t and x, l is also primitive in K[x][t]. But  $q \in K[x]$  and  $q \mid l$ , we have  $q \in K$ . Hence  $n = \deg_x F = \deg_x l = \deg_t l = \deg_t F \geq r$ .  $\square$ 

### 5.12 Hilbert theorem 90 and Normal basis

Let  $L = K(\alpha)$  with  $f = m_{\alpha,K} = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0$  being separable. We have known that exists exactly n monomorphisms  $\sigma_i :: L \to \overline{K}$  fixing K, and  $\{\sigma_1(\alpha), \ldots, \sigma_n(\alpha)\}$  consists of all roots of f. So

$$x^{n} + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_{0} = (x - \sigma_{1}(\alpha)) \cdots (x - \sigma_{n}(\alpha))$$

$$\implies -a_{n-1} = \sigma_{1}(\alpha) + \dots + \sigma_{n}(\alpha) \text{ and } (-1)^{n}a_{0} = \sigma_{1}(\alpha) \cdots \sigma_{n}(\alpha)$$

Consider the K-linear transformation:

$$T_{\alpha}: K(\alpha) \to K(\alpha)$$

$$v \mapsto \alpha v$$

Then

$$[T_{\alpha}]_{\gamma} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & -a_0 \\ 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & -a_1 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & -a_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & -a_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{where } \gamma = \{1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{n-1}\}$$

And  $Tr(T_{\alpha}) = -a_{n-1}, \det(T_{\alpha}) = (-1)^n a_0.$ 

**Def 100.** Let L/K be a Galois extension with  $G = \operatorname{Gal}(L/K)$ . for all  $\alpha \in L$ , define

$$N_{L/K}(\alpha) = \prod_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(\alpha)$$
  $N_{L/K} :: L^{\times} \to K^{\times}$  is multiplicative  $\mathrm{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha) = \sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(\alpha)$   $\mathrm{Tr}_{L/K} :: L \to K$  is additive

**Theorem 69** (Hilbert theorem 90). Let L/K is cyclic and  $G = \langle \sigma \rangle$  with  $\operatorname{ord}(\sigma) = n$ , then

- 1.  $\alpha \in L^{\times}$  and  $N_{L/K}(\alpha) = 1 \iff \exists \beta \in L^{\times}, \alpha = \beta/\sigma(\beta)$ .
- 2.  $\alpha \in L$  and  $\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha) = 0 \iff \exists \beta \in L, \alpha = \beta \sigma(\beta)$ .

Proof.

1. "\( "\):  $N_{L/K}(\alpha) = \prod_{k=0}^{n-1} \sigma^k(\beta/\sigma(\beta)) = 1$ .

" $\Rightarrow$ ": Since automorphisms are linearly independent, exists  $c \in L$  such that

$$0 \neq \beta = \mathrm{Id}(c) + \alpha \sigma(c) + \alpha \sigma(\alpha) \sigma^{2}(c) + \dots + \alpha \sigma(\alpha) \sigma^{2}(\alpha) \dots \sigma^{n-2}(\alpha) \sigma^{n-1}(c)$$

Since  $\alpha \sigma(\alpha \sigma(\alpha) \sigma^2(\alpha) \cdots \sigma^{n-2}(\alpha)) = N_{L/K}(\alpha) = 1$ , it is easy to check that  $\alpha \sigma(\beta) = \beta$ .

2. "\(\infty\)":  $\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha) = \operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\beta - \sigma(\beta)) = \sum_{k} (\sigma^k(\beta) - \sigma^{k+1}(\beta)) = 0.$ 

"\Rightarrow": Choose c such that  $\beta_1 = c + \sigma(c) + \cdots + \sigma^{n-1}(c) \neq 0$ , so  $\sigma(\beta_1) = \beta_1$ . Let

$$\beta_2 = \alpha \sigma(c) + (\alpha + \sigma(\alpha))\sigma^2(c) + \dots + (\alpha + \sigma(\alpha) + \dots + \sigma^{n-2}(\alpha))\sigma^{n-1}(c)$$

Then

$$\beta_2 - \sigma(\beta_2) = \alpha \sigma(c) + \alpha \sigma^2(c) + \dots + \alpha \sigma^{n-1}(c) + \alpha c = \alpha \beta_1.$$

So let  $\beta \triangleq \beta_2/\beta_1$ , we obtain  $\beta_2/\beta_1 - \sigma(\beta_2/\beta_1) = (\beta_2 - \sigma(\beta_2))/\beta_1 = \alpha$ .

**Coro 5.12.1.** Let char K = p and [L : K] = p, then L/K is Galois and cyclic  $\iff L = K(\alpha)$  where  $\alpha$  is a root of  $x^p - x - a$ .

*Proof.* " $\Rightarrow$ ": Let  $Gal(L/K) = \langle \sigma \rangle$  with  $ord(\sigma) = p$ . Then  $Tr_{L/K}(1) = p = 0$ . By theorem 69, exists  $\alpha$  satisfied  $1 = \sigma(\alpha) - \alpha$ . So  $\alpha \notin K$ . Then we have  $1 < [K(\alpha) : K] \mid [L : K] = p$ , so  $[K(\alpha) : K] = p \implies K(\alpha) = L$ .

Notice that  $\sigma^k(\alpha) = \alpha + k$ . Since  $\sigma^k(\alpha)$  iterates through all roots of  $m_{\alpha,K}$  and  $\sigma^k(\alpha) = \alpha + k$ ,  $\alpha, \alpha + 1, \ldots, \alpha + p - 1$  are all the roots of  $m_{\alpha,K}$ . We claim that  $m_{\alpha,K} = x^p - x - a$  where  $a \triangleq \alpha^p - \alpha$ . Since  $\sigma(a) = \sigma(\alpha)^p - \alpha = \alpha^p + p - \alpha = a$ , a is fixed by all automorphisms, so  $a \in K$ . Moreover,  $m_{\alpha,K}(\alpha + k) = \alpha^p + k^p - \alpha - k - a = 0$ , thus the proof is completed.

"\(\infty\)": Similarly, we know that all roots of  $x^p - x - a$  are  $\alpha, \alpha + 1, \ldots, \alpha + p - 1$ . Define  $\sigma(\alpha) = \alpha + 1$ , then  $\sigma^i(\alpha) = \alpha + i$ , and thus  $\operatorname{ord}(\sigma) = p$ . Hence  $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K) = \langle \sigma \rangle$ .

**Coro 5.12.2.** If  $x^2 + dy^2 = 1$  where -d is not a square, then  $L \triangleq \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-d})$  is a splitting field of  $x^2 + d$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ , so  $N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(a + b\sqrt{-d}) = a^2 + db^2$ . Since  $[L : \mathbb{Q}] = 2$ , the galois group is obviously cyclic and in fact is  $\langle \sigma \rangle$ , where  $\sigma = (a + b\sqrt{-d}) \mapsto (a - b\sqrt{-d})$ . By theorem 69,

$$x^{2} + dy^{2} = 1 \iff \exists a + b\sqrt{-d} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad x + y\sqrt{-d} = \frac{a + b\sqrt{-d}}{a - b\sqrt{-d}} = \frac{(a^{2} - db^{2}) + 2ab\sqrt{-d}}{a^{2} + db^{2}}$$

**Def 101.** Let L/K be Galois and  $Gal(L/K) = \{Id = \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n\}$ . A basis for L/K of the form  $\{\sigma_1(\alpha), \sigma_2(\alpha), \dots, \sigma_n(\alpha)\}$  with  $\alpha \in L$  is called a normal basis for L/K.

**Lemma 17.**  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in L$  form a basis for L/K if and only if

$$\begin{vmatrix} \sigma_1(\alpha_1) & \sigma_1(\alpha_2) & \cdots & \sigma_1(\alpha_n) \\ \sigma_2(\alpha_1) & \sigma_2(\alpha_2) & \cdots & \sigma_2(\alpha_n) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sigma_n(\alpha_1) & \sigma_n(\alpha_2) & \cdots & \sigma_n(\alpha_n) \end{vmatrix} \neq 0$$

*Proof.* " $\Rightarrow$ ": If not, then the determinant is 0. Then

$$\begin{cases} \sigma_1(\alpha_1)x_1 + \dots + \sigma_n(\alpha_1)x_n = 0 \\ \sigma_1(\alpha_2)x_1 + \dots + \sigma_n(\alpha_2)x_n = 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \sigma_1(\alpha_n)x_1 + \dots + \sigma_n(\alpha_n)x_n = 0 \end{cases}$$

has a non-zero solution  $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \dots, c_n) \in L^n$ . (i.e.,  $\sum c_j \sigma_j(\alpha_i) = 0$  for each i.) So  $(\sum_j c_j \sigma_j)(\alpha_i) = 0$  for each  $\alpha_i$ , but  $\alpha_i$  is a basis, so  $\sum_j c_j \sigma_j = 0$ , then these automorphisms are linearly dependent, which leads to a contradiction.

"\(\Rightarrow\)": If not, then exists  $\mathbf{0} \neq \mathbf{c} = (c_1, \dots, c_n)$  satisfied  $\sum c_i \alpha_i = 0$ . Then  $\sum_i c_i \sigma_j(\alpha_i) = 0$  for each j. Thus the determinant is 0 which leads to a contradiction.

**Lemma 18.** Let  $|K| = \infty$ . Then  $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n$  are algebraically independent over L.

*Proof.* Let  $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in L[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  such that  $f(\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n) = 0$ . Let  $\{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n\}$  be a basis for L/K. Then

$$0 = f(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n) \left( \sum_{i=1}^n r_i \alpha_i \right) = f \left( r_1 \sigma_1 \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \right), \dots, r_n \sigma_n \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \right) \right)$$

So let

$$g(x_1, \dots, x_n) \triangleq f\left(\sum_i \sigma_1(\alpha_i)x_1, \dots, \sum_i \sigma_n(\alpha_i)x_n\right)$$

and write  $g(x_1, ..., x_n) = \sum_j g_j(x_1, ..., x_n)\alpha_j$ . Then  $g_j(r_1, ..., r_n) = 0, \forall \mathbf{r} \in K^n$ . The only polynomial which has infinite zeros (without any relation) is the zero polynomial, thus  $g_j = 0$  for each j.

Now, by lemma 17,  $\det([\sigma_i(\alpha_j)]) \neq 0$ . So it is possible to solve  $\mathbf{x} = (x_i)$  satisfied  $\mathbf{y} = (y_j) = (\sum_i \sigma_j(\alpha_i)x_i)$ . Thus  $g = 0 \implies f = 0$ .

**Theorem 70.** Any Galois extension L/K has a normal basis.

*Proof.* Case 1: L/K is cyclic (so all finite field is included).

Let  $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K) = \langle \sigma \rangle$  with  $\operatorname{ord}(\sigma) = n$ .  $\sigma$  could be view as a linear transformation of L over K. Thus  $\sigma$  gives L a K[x]-module structure by  $(f(x), \alpha) \mapsto f(\sigma)(\alpha)$ . Since K[x] is a PID. By the structure theorem, we could write

$$L \cong K[x]/\langle d_1(x)\rangle \oplus \cdots \oplus K[x]/\langle d_s(x)\rangle$$
 with  $d_i \mid d_{i+1}$ 

Since  $\operatorname{Id}, \sigma, \ldots, \sigma^{n-1}$  are linearly independent over K,  $m_{\sigma,K}$  should have degree at least n, thus it is clear that  $x^n - 1$  is the minimal polynomial of  $\sigma$ , thus  $d_s(x) = x^n - 1$ . But the characteristic polynomial of  $\sigma$  has degree at most n, thus  $d_1(x) \cdots d_s(x) = x^n - 1$ . So  $L \cong K[x]/\langle x^n - 1 \rangle$ . Let  $\alpha \in L$  such that  $\operatorname{Ann}(\alpha) = \langle x^n - 1 \rangle$ , then  $L = K[x]\alpha$ . Hence  $L = \langle \alpha, \sigma(\alpha), \ldots, \sigma^{n-1}(\alpha) \rangle$ .

Case 2:  $|K| = \infty$ . Let  $Gal(L/K) = \{\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n\}$ . Define  $y_{i,j} = x_k$  so that  $\sigma_i \sigma_j = \sigma_k$ . Consider

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \begin{vmatrix} y_{1,1} & y_{1,2} & \cdots & y_{1,n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ y_{n,1} & y_{n,2} & \cdots & y_{n,n} \end{vmatrix}$$

This determinant is a non-zero polynomial in  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$ . Since if we fix  $\sigma_1$ , for each  $\sigma_i$ , exists unique j so that  $\sigma_i \sigma_j = \sigma_1$ . So the determinant has a  $x_1^n$  term and is not zero. Then  $f(\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n) \neq 0$  by lemma 18. Thus there exists  $\alpha \in L$  s.t.  $\det([\sigma_i \sigma_j(\alpha)]) = f(\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n)(\alpha) \neq 0$ . So by lemma 17,  $\{\sigma_i(\alpha)\}$  is a basis.

# 6 Commutative Algebra

# 6.1 ED, PID and UFD (week 9)

We shall consider R to be an integral domain below.

**Def 102.** A function  $N: R \to \mathbb{N}$  with N(0) = 0 is called a norm on R.

**Def 103.** R is called a Euclidean domain if exists a norm N on R satisfying

$$\forall a, b \in R, \exists q, r \in R \text{ s.t. } a = qb + r \text{ with } r = 0 \text{ or } N(r) < N(b)$$

### Eg 6.1.1.

- $\mathbb{Z}$  is a ED with N(n) = |n|.
- K[x] is a ED with  $N(f) = \deg f, \forall f \in K[x]$ .

**Def 104.**  $A_d$  is defined to be the ring of integers in the quadratic field  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$  with  $d \neq 1$  and d is square-free. That is,

$$A_d \triangleq \{\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d}) \mid \alpha \text{ is integral over } \mathbb{Z}\}\$$

### Theorem 71.

• If  $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , then

$$A_d = \left\{ a + b \frac{1 + \sqrt{d}}{2} : a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$$

• Else,  $d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$ , then

$$A_d = \{a + b\sqrt{d} : a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}\$$

Proof. Let  $\alpha = p + q\sqrt{d} \in A_d$  for  $p, q \in \mathbb{Q}$  with  $q \neq 0$ . We have  $\alpha - p = q\sqrt{d}$ , then  $(\alpha - p)^2 = q^2d$  and thus  $\alpha^2 - 2p\alpha + (p^2 - q^2d) = 0$ . Let  $g(x) \triangleq x^2 - 2px + (p^2 - q^2d)$ . Assume  $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  with f monic and  $f(\alpha) = 0$ , then we could write f(x) = q(x)g(x) + (ax + b). Since  $\alpha$  is not rational,  $a\alpha + b = 0 \implies a = b = 0$ , so f(x) = q(x)g(x) in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ . By gauss lemma,  $g(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ , so  $2p \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $p^2 - q^2d \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

If 2p is even, then  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ , and  $p^2 - q^2 d \in \mathbb{Z}$  implies q is also an integer since d is square free.

If 2p is odd, say 2p = 2m + 1, then  $(2p)^2 \equiv (2m + 1)^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ . Also,  $4(p^2 - q^2d) \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ , so  $4q^2d \equiv 4p^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ . Since d is square free, so  $4 \nmid d$ , thus q has to be of the form q = (2n + 1)/2. Plug in the equation we get  $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ . Thus in this case, p, q are half integer and  $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

**Theorem 72.**  $A_d$  is a ED if d = 2, 3, 5, -1, -2, -3, -7, -11. Hence  $A_d$  is also PID and UFD for these value.

*Proof.* Let  $N'(p+q\sqrt{d})=(p+q\sqrt{d})(p-q\sqrt{d})=p^2-q^2d$ . Define  $N(\alpha)\triangleq |N'(\alpha)|$  which is positive since  $p^2-q^2d=0\iff p=q=0$ . Notice also N is multiplicative.

Now, for  $\alpha, \beta \in A_d$ , write  $\alpha/\beta = x + y\sqrt{d}$ . If we could find  $\lambda = a + b\sqrt{d}$  such that  $|\alpha/\beta - \lambda| < 1$ , then  $\alpha = \beta\lambda + \gamma$  with  $N(\gamma) < N(\beta)$  which proves that  $A_d$  is an ED.

• d=2,3,-2,-1: Choose  $a,b\in\mathbb{Z}$  such that  $|x-a|,|y-b|\leq 1/2$ . Then  $N\triangleq N(\alpha/\beta-\lambda)=|(x-a)^2-(y-b)^2d|$ .

- If 
$$d = 2, 3$$
, then  $N \le \max(|(x - a)^2|, |(y - b)^2 d|) \le \max(1/4, d/4) < 1$ .  
- If  $d = -2, -1$ , then  $N < |(x - a)^2| + |(y - b)^2 d| < 1/4 + |d|/4 < 1$ .

• d=5,-3,-7,-11: Similarly, but now  $d\equiv 1\pmod 4$ , so we could choose  $\lambda=a+b(1+\sqrt{d})/2=(a+b/2)+b/2\sqrt{d}$ . Thus let b be the one such that  $|2y-b|\leq 1/2$ , and then choose a so that  $x-a-b/2\leq 1/2$ . We have  $N(\alpha/\beta-\lambda)=|(x-a-b/2)^2-d(y-b/2)^2|\leq 1/4+d/16<1$ .

**Eg 6.1.2.**  $A_{-5}$  is not a ED.

Proof. Consider  $6=2\cdot 3=(1+\sqrt{-5})(1-\sqrt{-5})$ . Notice that  $1+\sqrt{-5}$  is irreducible, since if  $1+\sqrt{-5}=\alpha\beta$ , then  $6=N(1+\sqrt{-5})=N(\alpha)N(\beta)$ . But this implies  $a^2+5b^2=2$  or 3 which has no integer solution. Also  $1+\sqrt{-5}\nmid 2,3$ . Since if  $(1+\sqrt{-5})\alpha=2$ , then  $N(1+\sqrt{-5})N(\alpha)=N(2)=4$ , but  $N(1+\sqrt{-5})=6$ . Similarly  $1+\sqrt{-5}\nmid 3$ . So  $A_{-5}$  is not an UFD thus not an ED.

**6.1.1**  $A_{-1}$  and  $A_{-3}$ 

**Def 105.** If p is odd and  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , then

- If  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$  is solvable, then define  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 1$ .
- Else  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$  is not solvable and define  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = -1$ .

Prop 6.1.1.

- $a \equiv b \pmod{p} \implies \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{p}\right)$ .
- $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = a^{(p-1)/2}$ :

*Proof.* Consider the sequence:

$$1 \longrightarrow (\mathbb{F}_p^{\times})^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{F}_p^{\times} \stackrel{\varphi}{\longrightarrow} \{\pm 1\} \longrightarrow 1$$
$$y^2 \longmapsto y^2 = x \longmapsto (-1)^{(p-1)/2} \longmapsto 1$$

which is exact since  $y^2 \mapsto y^2 \mapsto y^{2(p-1)/2} \equiv 1$ . And since  $\mathbb{F}_p^{\times}$  is cyclic with even elements,  $\left[\mathbb{F}_p^{\times}: (\mathbb{F}_p^{\times})^2\right] = 2$ , and  $(\mathbb{F}_p^{\times})^2 = \ker \varphi$ .

- $\left(\frac{ab}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \left(\frac{b}{p}\right)$ .
- Let  $t_k \equiv ka \pmod{p}$  with  $0 \le t_k < p$ , for  $1 \le k \le (p-1)/2$ . Assume that  $n = \#\{t_i \mid t_i > p/2\}$ , then  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = (-1)^n$ .

Proof. Define

$$|t_i| = \begin{cases} t_j & \text{If } 1 \le t_j < p/2 & (t_j \equiv |t_j|) \\ p - t_j & \text{If } p/2 < t_j < p & (t_j \equiv -|t_j|) \end{cases}$$

Notice that  $|t_i|$  takes value between 1 and (p-1)/2, and  $|ra| \equiv |sa| \pmod{p} \implies ra \equiv \pm sa \pmod{p} \implies r \equiv \pm s \pmod{p}$  since  $\gcd(a,p) = 1$ . So  $|t_k|$  would have distinct value for  $1 \le k \le (p-1)/2$ . Thus

$$\prod t_k \equiv \frac{p-1}{2}! a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv (-1)^n \frac{p-1}{2}! \implies a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv (-1)^n$$

• If p, q are odd primes, then we have:

$$\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\left(\sum_{k=1}^{(p-1)/2} \left\lfloor \frac{kq}{p} \right\rfloor\right)}$$

*Proof.* Write  $kq = g_k p + t_k$  with  $0 \le t_k < p$  consistent with the previous definition. Then we have  $\lfloor kq/p \rfloor = g_k$ , and

if 
$$|t_k| = t_k$$
  $\longrightarrow qk = g_k p + |t_k|$   $\longrightarrow k \equiv g_k + |t_k| \pmod{2}$   
if  $|t_k| = p - t_k$   $\longrightarrow qk = (g_k + 1)p - |t_k|$   $\longrightarrow k \equiv g_k + 1 + |t_k| \pmod{2}$ 

So

$$\sum_{i=1}^{(p-1)/2} k \equiv n + \sum_{i=1}^{(p-1)/2} \left\lfloor \frac{qk}{p} \right\rfloor + \sum_{k=1}^{(p-1)/2} |t_k| \pmod{2}$$

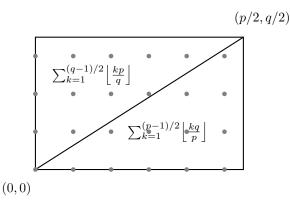
As in the previous proof,  $\sum k = \sum |t_k|$ , so  $n \equiv \sum \lfloor qk/p \rfloor \pmod 2$ , which proves the statement.

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)\left(\frac{q-1}{2}\right)}$$

By above,

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\left(\sum_{k=1}^{(p-1)/2} \left\lfloor \frac{kq}{p} \right\rfloor\right)} (-1)^{\left(\sum_{k=1}^{(q-1)/2} \left\lfloor \frac{kp}{q} \right\rfloor\right)}$$

Which is the number of integer points in the rectangle:



And we know that there are  $\frac{p-1}{2}\frac{q-1}{2}$  points in the rectangle.

## Prop 6.1.2.

•  $\alpha$  is a unit  $\iff N(\alpha) = 1$ .

Proof. "
$$\Rightarrow$$
": If  $\alpha\beta = 1$ ,  $N(\alpha)N(\beta) = 1$  so  $N(\alpha) = 1$ .
" $\Leftarrow$ ": Immediately by  $\alpha\bar{\alpha} = N(\alpha) = 1$ .

• If  $\alpha$  is a prime in  $A_d$ , then  $N(\alpha) = p$  or  $p^2$  for some prime integer p. Also  $N(\alpha) = p^2 \implies \alpha \sim p$ .

Proof.  $\alpha \bar{\alpha} = N(\alpha) = p_1 \cdots p_n$  where  $p_i$  are primes in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Continue using the fact that "If  $\alpha$  is a prime and  $\alpha \mid xy$ , then  $\alpha \mid x$  or  $\alpha \mid y$ ", we will get  $\alpha \mid p_i$  for an i. Say  $\alpha \beta = p_i$ , then  $\bar{\alpha} \bar{\beta} = \bar{p}_i = p_i$ , so  $N(\alpha)N(\beta) = p_i^2$  which means that  $N(\alpha) = p_i$  or  $p_i^2$ . Also, if  $N(\alpha) = p_i^2$ , then  $N(\beta) = 1 \implies \beta$  is a unit.

By the proposition above we identify the unit in  $A_{-1}$ ,  $A_{-3}$ .

- $A_{-1}$ :  $\pm 1, \pm i$ .
- $A_{-3}$ :  $\pm 1, \pm \omega, \pm \omega^2$ .

Now, notice that  $2 = (1 + \sqrt{-1})(1 - \sqrt{-1})$ ,  $3 = (1 - \omega)(1 - \omega^2)$ , so 2, 3 are not prime in  $A_{-1}$ ,  $A_{-3}$  respectively.

Let p be a prime in  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

• In  $A_{-1}$ :

$$p \text{ is a prime in } \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-1}]$$

$$\iff \langle p \rangle \text{ is maximal ideal}$$

$$\iff \frac{\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-1}]}{\langle p \rangle} \cong \frac{\mathbb{Z}[x]}{\langle p, x^2 + 1 \rangle} \cong \frac{\mathbb{Z}[x]/\langle p \rangle}{\langle p, x^2 + 1 \rangle/\langle p \rangle} \cong \frac{\mathbb{F}_p[x]}{\langle x^2 + 1 \rangle} \text{ is a field}$$

$$\iff x^2 + 1 \text{ irreducible in } \mathbb{F}_p[x]$$

$$\iff x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p} \text{ is not solvable}$$

$$\iff \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = (-1)^{(p-1)/2} \neq 1$$

$$\iff p \not\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$$

So p is **not** a prime in  $A_{-1} \iff p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

• In  $A_{-3}$ : If a prime  $p \neq 3$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$  is not a prime in  $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ , then it has a nontrivial factor  $\alpha \mid p$ . But  $N(p) = p^2$ , so we must have  $N(\alpha) = p$ , i.e.  $\alpha \bar{\alpha} = p$ . Let  $\alpha = a + b\omega$ , then  $p = \alpha \bar{\alpha} = a^2 + b^2 - ab \implies 4p = (2a - b)^2 + 3b^2$ , so  $p \equiv (2a - b)^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ .  $(p \not\equiv 0 \text{ since } p \neq 3)$ 

Conversely, if  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ , then

$$\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = (-1)^{(p-1)/2}\left(\frac{p}{3}\right)(-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}\cdot\frac{3-1}{2}} = \left(\frac{p}{3}\right) = \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = 1$$

So exists  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $a^2 \equiv -3 \pmod{p}$ , say  $pb = a^2 + 3 = (a + \sqrt{-3})(a - \sqrt{-3}) = (a + 1 + 2\omega)(a - 1 - 2\omega)$ .

If p is a prime in  $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ , then  $p \mid (a+1+2\omega)$  or  $p \mod (a-1-2\omega)$ , which implies that  $p \mid 2$  (since  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $p \mid a+b\omega \implies p \mid a,p \mid b$ ), which leads to a contradiction, thus p is not a prime.

Hence  $p \neq 3$  is not a prime in  $A_{-3} \iff p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ .

### 6.2 Primary decomposition

Def 106.

- The radical of an ideal I is defined by  $\sqrt{I} = \{a \in R \mid a^n \in I \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$
- I is radical if  $\sqrt{I} = I$ .

**Def 107.** The **nilradical** is defined as  $\sqrt{\langle 0 \rangle} \triangleq \{ a \in R \mid a^n = 0 \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{N} \}$ . Elements in it are called nilpotent.

**Prop 6.2.1.**  $\sqrt{\langle 0 \rangle} = \bigcap_{P \in \operatorname{Spec} R} P$ , where  $\operatorname{Spec} R$  is the set of prime ideals in R.

*Proof.* " $\subset$ ": Notice that  $a^n = 0 \in P$  for any prime ideal P. By the definition of prime ideal, either  $a \in P$  or  $a^{n-1} \in P$ . No matter which, eventually we would get  $a \in P$ .

" $\supset$ ": Let  $S \triangleq \{I : \text{ ideal in } R \mid a^n \notin I, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . By the routine argument of Zorn's lemma, exists maximal element Q in S. We claim that Q is a prime ideal.

For each  $x, y \notin Q$ , we have  $Q + Rx \supseteq Q$  and  $Q + Ry \supseteq Q$ . By the maximality of Q, these two ideals are not in S. So exists n, m such that  $a^n \in Q + Rx$ ,  $a^m \in Q + Ry$  which implies  $a^{n+m} \in Q + Rxy$ , so  $Q + Rxy \notin S$ , thus  $xy \notin Q$ , hence Q is prime.

### Coro 6.2.1.

$$\sqrt{I} = \bigcap_{\substack{P \supset I \\ P \in \operatorname{Spec} R}} P$$

*Proof.* Notice that Spec  $R/I = \{P \in \operatorname{Spec} R \mid R \subset I\}$ . By the proposition above,

$$\sqrt{\langle \bar{0} \rangle} = \bigcap_{\bar{P} \in \text{Spec } R/I} \bar{P} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \sqrt{I} = \bigcap_{\substack{P \supset I \\ P \in \text{Spec } R}} P \qquad \Box$$

**Def 108.** An ideal q of R is called primary if  $q \neq R$  and " $xy \in q$  and  $x \notin q$ " implies  $y^n \in q$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

### Prop 6.2.2.

- prime  $\implies$  primary.
- $\sqrt{\text{primary}} \implies \text{prime}$ . Also, if q is primary, then  $p = \sqrt{q}$  is the smallest prime ideal containing q, we say q is p-primary.

*Proof.* The first one is obvious.

If q is primary and  $\sqrt{q} = p$ . For any  $xy \in p$  and  $x \notin p$ , there exists n so that  $x^ny^n \in q$ , and for this  $n, x^n \notin q$ . Thus  $(y^n)^m \in q$  for some m, hence  $y \in p$ . We conclude that p is a prime ideal. Finally, by corollary 6.2.1,

$$p = \sqrt{q} = \bigcap_{\substack{P \supset q \\ P \in \operatorname{Spec} R}} P \subset P, \quad \forall \, P \text{ prime },$$

thus p is indeed the smallest.

**Eg 6.2.1.** The primary ideals in  $\mathbb{Z}$  are  $\langle 0 \rangle$  and  $\langle p^m \rangle$  where p is a prime.

*Proof.* If  $q = \langle a \rangle$  is primary, then  $\sqrt{q} = \langle p \rangle$  is prime, and  $p^n \in \langle a \rangle$ . So  $ab = p^n$  which implies  $a = p^m$  for some m.

**Def 109.** An ideal I is said to be **irreducible** if  $I = q_1 \cap q_2 \implies I = q_1 \vee I = q_2$ .

**Def 110.** Define  $(I : x) = \{a \in R \mid ax \in I\}.$ 

**Theorem 73.** In a Noetherian ring R, every irreducible ideal I is primary.

*Proof.* Let  $xy \in I$  and  $x \notin I$ . Consider  $(I:y) \subseteq (I:y^2) \subseteq \cdots$ . Since R is Noetherian, exists n such that  $(I:y^n) = (I:y^m)$  for any  $m \ge n$ .

We claim that  $I = (I + Ry^n) \cap (I + Rx)$ .

- "⊂": Obvious.
- " $\supset$ ": For any  $b \in (I + Ry^n) \cap (I + Rx)$ , write  $b = a_1 + r_1y^n = a_2 + r_2x$ . Then  $r_1y^{n+1} = a_2y a_1y + r_2xy \in I$  since  $a_1, a_2, xy \in I$ . So  $r_1 \in (I : y^{n+1}) = (I : y^n) \implies r_1y^n \in I$ . Thus  $b = a_1 + r_1y^n \in I$ .

Now by the fact that I is irreducible and  $I \neq I + Rx$  since  $x \notin I$ , thus  $I = I + Ry^n \implies y^n \in I$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 74.** In a Noetherian ring R, every ideal is a finite intersection of irreducible ideals.

Proof. If not, let  $\mathcal{I} \triangleq \{I : \text{ ideal in } R \mid I \text{ is not a finite intersection of irreducible ideals } \}$  and  $\mathcal{I}$  is not an empty set. Since R is Noetherian, the set has a maximal element  $I_0$ . Then  $I_0$  is not irreducible (or else it is an intersection of itself, which is irreducible). Write  $I_0 = I_1 \cap I_2$ , with  $I_1, I_2 \neq I_0$ . Then  $I_1, I_2 \notin \mathcal{I}$ , so these two ideals could be written as a finite intersection of irreducible ideals, implying that  $I_0$  could also be written as a finite intersection of irreducible ideals, which is a contradiction.

## **Prop 6.2.3.** Let q be a p-primary ideal and $x \in R$ .

1. If  $x \in q$ , then (q : x) = R.

*Proof.* In this case  $1 \in (q:x)$ , thus (q:x) = R.

2. If  $x \notin q$ , then (q:x) is p-primary.

*Proof.* For any  $y \in (q:x)$ ,  $xy \in q$  but  $x \notin q$ , thus  $y^n \in q \implies y \in p$ . Hence

$$q\subset (q:x)\subset p\implies p=\sqrt{q}\subset \sqrt{(q:x)}\subset \sqrt{p}=p$$

and thus (q:x) is p-primary.

For any y, z with  $yz \in (q:x)$  but  $y \notin (q:x)$ , which is equivalent to  $xyz \in q$  but  $xy \notin q$ . Since q primary,  $z^n \in q \subset (q:x)$ .

3. If  $x \notin p$ , then (q:x) = q.

Proof.

**Prop 6.2.4.** If each  $q_i$  are *p*-primary, then  $q \triangleq \bigcap_{i=1}^n q_i$  is *p*-primary.

*Proof.* We check that  $\sqrt{q} = \bigcap_{i=1}^n \sqrt{q_i} = \bigcap_{i=1}^n p = p$ .

Also, if  $xy \in q$  with  $x \notin q$ , then  $x \notin q_k$  for some k. But  $xy \in q_k$ , thus  $y^n \in q_k$ . But  $q_k \subseteq \sqrt{q_k} = p = \sqrt{q}$ , so  $(y^n)^{m'} = y^m \in q$ , thus q is p-primary.

**Def 111.** A primary decomposition of  $I = q_1 \cap \cdots \cap q_n$  is minimal if  $\sqrt{q_1}, \dots, \sqrt{q_n}$  are distinct and  $q_i \not\supseteq \bigcap_{j \neq i} q_j$ .

A minimal primary decomposition of an ideal always exists in Noetherian ring since by theorem 74, the ideal could be written as a finite intersection of irreducible ideals, and then by theorem 73, these ideals are primary. Now If  $\sqrt{q_i} = \sqrt{q_j}$  happen in these ideals, we could remove these two ideals and add  $q' = \sqrt{q_i} \cap \sqrt{q_j}$ . By proposition 6.2.4, q' is also primary. And if  $q_i \supseteq \bigcap_{j \neq i} q_j$ , we could simply remove  $q_i$ .

**Theorem 75** (Uniqueness of primary decomposition). Let  $I = \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} q_i$  be a minimal decomposition of I. If  $p_i = \sqrt{q_i}$ ,  $\forall i$ , then we have

$$\{p_i\} = \left\{\sqrt{(I:x)} \ \middle| \ x \in R \land \sqrt{(I:x)} \in \operatorname{Spec} R \right\}$$

which is independent of the decomposition.

*Proof.* "\( )": Let 
$$x \in R \setminus I$$
, then  $(I:x) = \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n q_i:x\right) = \bigcap_{i=1}^n (q_i:x)$ . By proposition 6.2.3, we have  $\sqrt{(I:x)} = \bigcap \sqrt{(q_i:x)} = \bigcap_{x \notin q_i} p_i$ .

Now, we have the following observation. "If  $p \in \operatorname{Spec} R$  with  $p = \bigcap_{i=1}^n J_i$ , then  $p = J_j$  for some j." If not, then  $J_i \not\subset p$  for all i, so we could pick  $x_i \in J_i \setminus p$ . But then  $x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n \in \cap J_i = p$  since  $J_i$  are ideals, which leads to a contradiction since p is prime.

So if  $\sqrt{(I:x)}$  is a prime, then it is equal to some  $p_i$ .

"C": By assumption, 
$$q_i \not\supseteq \bigcap_{j \neq i} q_j$$
 for each  $i$ , thus we could pick  $x \in \bigcap_{j \neq i} q_j \setminus q_i$ , then  $\sqrt{(I:x)} = \bigcap_i \sqrt{(q_i:x)} = \sqrt{(q_i:x)} = p_i$ .

**Def 112.** If  $\{p_i\}$  is the unique prime ideals from the minimal primary decomposition of I.

- $\{p_i\}$  is said to be associated with I or to belong to I.
- The minimal elements in  $\{p_i\}$  are called isolated primes.
- The other are called embedded primes.

**Eg 6.2.2.** Let R = k[x, y] and  $I = \langle x^2, xy \rangle$ . If  $P_1 = \langle x \rangle, P_2 = \langle x, y \rangle$ , then  $I = P_1 \cap P_2^2$ .  $P_1$  is isolated, while  $P_2$  is embedded.

# 6.3 The equivalence of algebra and geometry (week 10)

In the following, k will be an algebraically closed field.

**Def 113.** The category of affine algebraic sets  $\mathcal{G}$  and its objects and morphisms are defined as following:

**objects:** The objects are affine algebraic sets in  $k^n$ .

An **affine algebraic set** is the common zero set of  $\{F_i\}_{i\in\Lambda}\subset k[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$  in  $k^n$ . We denote it by  $V=\mathcal{V}(\{F_i\}_{i\in\Lambda})\subset k^n$ . (In fact,  $I=\langle F_i:i\in\Lambda\rangle$  is Noetherian, so  $I=\langle F_1,\ldots,F_n\rangle$  and  $V=\mathcal{V}(I)$ .) **morphisms:** The morphisms are the polynomial map from  $k^n$  to  $k^m$ .

A **polynomial map** is a mapping as following:

$$k^n \longrightarrow k^m$$
  
 $\alpha \longmapsto (F_1(\alpha), \dots, F_m(\alpha))$ 

where each  $F_i$  is a polynomial in  $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ .

Given two affine algebraic sets  $V \subset k^n$  and  $W \subset k^m$ , if a map  $F: V \to W$  is the restriction of a polynomial map from  $k^n$  to  $k^m$ , then F is a morphism from V to W.

Moreover, if  $F: V \to W$  and  $G: W \to V$  satisfy  $F \circ G = \mathrm{Id}$  and  $G \circ F = \mathrm{Id}$ , then we say  $V \cong W$ .

**Def 114.** The category of finitely generated reduced k-algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  and its objects and morphisms are defined as following:

**objects:** The objects are the reduced finitely generated k-algebra R.

A finitely generated k-algebra R is reduced if R has no non-zero nilpotent elements. **morphisms:** The morphisms are the k-algebra homomorphisms.

**Eg 6.3.1.** It is easy to see that  $\mathcal{V}(0) = k^n$  and  $\mathcal{V}(1) = \emptyset$ .

### 6.3.1 One-one correspondence between affine algebraic sets and radical ideals

**Def 115.** Define 
$$\mathcal{I}(V) = \{ f \in k[x_1, ..., x_n] \mid f(\alpha) = 0, \forall \alpha \in V \}.$$

The one-one correspondence is given by

{affine algebraic sets in 
$$\mathbb{A}^n_k$$
}  $\longleftrightarrow$  { radical ideals in  $k[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ }  $V \longmapsto \mathcal{I}(V)$   $\mathcal{V}(I) \longleftarrow I$ 

## Prop 6.3.1.

•  $\sqrt{\mathcal{I}(V)} = \mathcal{I}(V)$ .

*Proof.* For all 
$$f^n \in \mathcal{I}(V)$$
,  $f^n(\alpha) = 0, \forall \alpha \in V \implies f(\alpha) = 0, \forall \alpha \in V$ . Thus  $f \in \mathcal{I}(V)$ .

• If V is an affine set, then  $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{I}(V)) = V$ .

Proof. "\(\supset\)": 
$$\forall \alpha \in V, f \in \mathcal{I}(V), f(\alpha) = 0 \implies \alpha \in \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{I}(V)).$$
"\(\subset\)": Since  $V$  is an affine set,  $V = \mathcal{V}(I)$ , then  $I \subset \mathcal{I}(V)$ , so  $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{I}(V)) \subset \mathcal{V}(I) = V.$ 

**Lemma 19.** Given T/S/R, a tower of rings. If R is Noetherian, T/S is module finite and T/R is ring finite, then S/R is ring finite.

*Proof.* Let  $T = R[a_1, \ldots, a_n] = Sw_1 + \cdots + Sw_m$ . Then  $a_i = \sum r_{i,j,k}w_j$  for some  $r_{i,j}$  and  $w_iw_j = \sum t_{i,j,k}w_k$  for some  $t_{i,j,k}$ .

Let  $S' = R[\{r_{i,j}\}, \{t_{i,j,k}\}] \subseteq S$ , which is Noetherian by the Hilbert basis theorem (R Notherian  $\Longrightarrow R[x]$  Notherian). Thus  $T = S'\omega_1 + \cdots + S'\omega_m$  is a Noetherian S'-module by the fact that finitely generated module over a Noetherian ring is a Noetherian module.

Since  $S \subset T$ , S is a finitely generated S' submodule, so

$$S = S'v_1 + \dots + S'v_r = R[\{r_{i,k}\}, \{t_{i,j,k}\}, \{v_i\}].$$

**Lemma 20.** If  $S = k(z_1, \ldots, z_p)$ , p > 0 with each  $z_i$  transcendental, then S/k is not ring finite.

Proof. If not, say  $S = k[f_1, \ldots, f_n]$  with  $f_i = g_i/h_i$ ,  $g_i, h_i \in k[z_1, \ldots, z_p]$ . Then for any irreducible polynomial p such that  $p \nmid h_i$  for each  $h_i$  (This polynomial exists since for each  $h_i$  there are only finite degree 1 factors). Then  $1/p \notin k[f_1, \ldots, f_n]$  by checking the divisibility of the denominator under addition and multiplication, which leads to a contradiction.

**Lemma 21.** If A/k is an extension of fields and ring finite, then A/k is algebraic.

*Proof.* If A/k is transcendental and let  $\{z_1, \ldots, z_t\}$  be a transcendental base. Then  $A/k(z_1, \ldots, z_t)$  is algebraic, thus module finite (note that A/k is ring finite). By lemma 19,  $k(z_1, \ldots, z_t)$  is ring finite, which contradicts with lemma 20.

Theorem 76 (Weak form of Hilbert Nullstellensatz).

$$I \subseteq k[x_1, \dots, x_n] \implies \mathcal{V}(I) \neq \emptyset$$

*Proof.* Since I proper, by lemma 7, there exists a maximal ideal M such that  $I \subseteq M$ . Consider  $K \triangleq k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]/M = k[\bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_n]$ . By proposition 5.1.8, K is a field, and by lemma 21, K/k is algebraic. Since k is already algebraically closed, K = k and hence each  $\bar{x}_i \in k$ . Let  $\alpha \triangleq (\bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_n) \in A_k^n$ , then for any  $f \in M$ ,  $f(\alpha) = f(\bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_n) = \bar{f} = 0$ , thus  $\alpha \in \mathcal{V}(M) \subseteq \mathcal{V}(I)$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 77** (Strong form of Hilbert Nullstellensatz).  $\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I)) = \sqrt{I}$ 

*Proof.* "\to":  $f \in \sqrt{I} \implies f^n \in I$ , then  $f^n(\alpha) = 0, \forall \alpha \in \mathcal{V}(I) \implies f(\alpha) = 0, \forall \alpha \in \mathcal{V}(I)$ , thus  $f \in \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I))$ .

" $\subset$ ": If  $\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I)) = 0$ , then  $I \subseteq \sqrt{I} \subseteq \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I)) = 0$ , thus I = 0.

Otherwise, exists  $0 \neq f \in \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I))$ , Let  $J = \langle I, ft - 1 \rangle \subset k[x_1, \dots, x_n, t]$ . If  $(a_1, \dots, a_n, t_0)$  is a zero of J, then  $ft - 1 \in J \implies -1 = f(a_1, \dots, a_n)t_0 - 1 = 0$ , which is a contradiction, so by theorem f(t) = f(t), then f(t) = f(t) is a contradiction f(t) = f(t).

Write  $1 = \sum h_i f_i + s(ft-1)$ , where each  $f_i \in I$  and  $h_i, s \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n, t]$ . This is a equation of variables, so if we set t = 1/f, the equation still holds. Now each  $h_i$  would be the form  $\sum p_i/f^{k_i}$ , so we could multiply each side by a suitable  $f^{\rho}$  and get  $f^{\rho} = \sum c_i f_i$  with each  $c_i \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ . This implies  $f^{\rho} \in I$ , thus  $f \in \sqrt{I}$ .

**Def 116.** Let  $V \in \mathcal{G}$ , the coordinate ring of V is  $k[V] \triangleq k[x_1, \dots, x_n]/\mathcal{I}(V)$ .

# **6.3.2** Equivalence of $\mathcal{G}$ and $\mathcal{A}$

We define a functor F from  $\mathcal{G}$  to  $\mathcal{A}$  by

$$F: \quad \mathcal{G} \longrightarrow \mathcal{A}$$

$$V \longmapsto k[V]$$

And For a polynomial map  $f: V \to W$ , define

$$F(f) = f^*: \quad k[W] \longrightarrow k[V]$$
$$g \longmapsto g \circ f$$

Conversely, define a functor G by

$$G: \quad \mathcal{A} \longrightarrow \mathcal{G}$$

$$k[x_1, \dots, x_n]/I \longmapsto \mathcal{V}(I)$$

Then if

$$\varphi: \quad k[\ldots]/I \longrightarrow k[\ldots]/J$$

$$\bar{x}_i \longmapsto \bar{f}_i$$

Define

$$G(\varphi) = \psi:$$
  $\mathcal{V}(J) \longrightarrow \mathcal{V}(I)$   $\alpha = (a_1, \dots, a_m) \longmapsto (f_1(\alpha), \dots, f_n(\alpha))$ 

# 6.4 Gröbner basis (week 11)

## **6.4.1** Division algorithm in $K[X_1, ..., X_n]$

**Eg 6.4.1.**  $I = \langle xy - 1, y^2 - 1 \rangle \subseteq K[x, y], f_1 = xy - 1 \text{ and } f_2 = y^2 - 1 \ G = \{f_1, f_2\}.$  Does  $f = x^2y + xy^2 + y^2 \in I$ ?

- Choose a lexicographic monomial ordering: x > y
- The multidegree  $\partial(f) = (2,1), \ \partial(f_1) = (1,1), \ \partial(f_2) = (0,2)$
- The leading term  $LT(f) = x^2y$ ,  $LT(f_1) = xy$ ,  $LT(f_2) = y^2$
- LT(f) = xLT(f<sub>1</sub>)  $\Rightarrow$  f =  $xf_1 + xy^2 + y^2 + x \Rightarrow$  f =  $(x+y)f_1 + (1)f_2 + (x+y+1)$  or  $f = \underset{h_1}{x} f_1 + (x+1)f_2 + (2x+1)$ .

Note: Divisor  $h_1$ ,  $h_2$  and remainder  $\bar{f}^G$  are not unique!!

**Def 117.** Fix a monomial ordering and let I be an ideal of  $K[X_1, \ldots, X_n]$ . The ideal of leading terms in I is defined to be  $LT(I) = \langle LT(f) | f \in I \rangle$ .

**Remark 34.** Let  $I = \langle f_1, \dots, f_n \rangle$ . In general,  $\langle LT(f_1), \dots, LT(f_n) \rangle \subsetneq LT(I)$ .

**Eg 6.4.2.** Let  $f_1 = xy^2 + y$ ,  $f_2 = x^2y$ . And,  $xf_1 - yf_2 = xy \in \langle f_1, f_2 \rangle$  but  $xy \notin \langle xy^2, x^2y \rangle$ .

**Def 118.**  $G = \{g_1, \ldots, g_m\}$  is called a Gröbner basis of I if  $I = \langle g_1, \ldots, g_m \rangle$  and  $LT(I) = \langle LT(g_1), \ldots, LT(g_m) \rangle$ .

**Prop 6.4.1.** Let  $g_1, \ldots, g_m \in I$ , then  $LT(I) = \langle LT(g_1), \ldots, LT(g_m) \rangle \implies I = \langle g_1, \ldots, g_m \rangle$ .

Proof.  $\forall f \in I$ , do the division process. Then  $f = \sum_{i=1}^{m} h_i g_i + r$ , either r = 0 or  $\bigstar = \text{no term of } r$  is divisible by any of  $LT(g_1), \ldots, LT(g_m)$ . Assume  $r \neq 0$ , then  $r = f - \sum_{i=1}^{m} h_i g_i \in I \Rightarrow LT(r) \in LT(I) = \langle LT(g_1), \ldots, LT(g_m) \rangle$ , which is a contradiction. Hence, r = 0 (i.e.  $f \in \langle g_1, \ldots, g_m \rangle$ ).

**Theorem 78.** Each ideal *I* has a Gröbner basis.

*Proof.* By Hilbert basis thm,  $LT(I) = \langle f_1, \ldots, f_m \rangle$  for some  $f_i$ 's. Write  $f_i = \sum_{j=1}^{m_i} h_{ij} LT(g_{ij})$  with  $h_{ij} \in K[X_1, \ldots, X_n], g_{ij} \in I$ . Then  $LT(I) = \langle LT(g_{ij}) | i = 1, \ldots, m, j = 1, \ldots, m_i \rangle$ . By prop 6.4.1, This is Gröbner basis.

**Theorem 79.** Let  $G = \{g_1, \dots, g_m\}$  be a Gröbner basis of I, then

- $\forall f \in K[X_1, \dots, X_n], f = f_I + r$  where  $f_I \in I, r = \bigstar$  are unique.

  Proof. By division algorithm,  $f = f_I + r = f'_I + r'$ , then  $r r' = f_I f'_I$ . But if  $r r' \neq 0$ , then  $LT(r r') \in LT(I) = \langle LT(g_1), \dots, LT(g_m) \rangle$ , which is a contradiction. Hence,  $r r' = 0 \Rightarrow f_I = f'_I$ .
- $f \in I \iff r = 0$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $f \in I$ , then  $f = f_I + r$ , and if  $r \neq 0$ ,  $r = f - f_I \in I$ , which is a contradiction. Hence, r = 0. Conversly, if r = 0,  $f = f_I \in I$ .

### 6.4.2 Buchberger's algorithm

**Def 119.** Let  $f, g \in K[x_1, ..., x_n]$  and M be the monic least common multiple of LT(f) and LT(g).  $S(f,g) = \frac{M}{LT(f)}f - \frac{M}{LT(g)}g$  is called an S-polynomial of f,g.

Let  $I = \langle g_1, \ldots, g_m \rangle$  and  $G = \{g_1, \ldots, g_m\}$ . A Gröbner basis of I can be constructed by the following algorithm:

- 1. Initially let  $G_0 \leftarrow G$ .
- 2. Repeatly construct  $G_{i+1} \leftarrow G_i \cup (\{S(f,g) \mod G_i \mid f,g \in G_i\} \setminus \{0\})$ , until once  $G_{i+1} = G_i$ , then  $G_i$  is a Gröbner basis of I.

**Lemma 22.** Let  $f_1, \ldots, f_m \in K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  with  $a_1, \ldots, a_m \in K$  satisfying  $\partial(f_1) = \partial(f_2) = \cdots = \partial(f_m) = \alpha$  and  $h = \sum_{i=1}^m a_i f_i$  with  $\partial(h) < \alpha$ . Then  $h = \sum_{i=2}^m b_i S(f_{i-1}, f_i)$  for some  $b_i \in K$ .

*Proof.* Write  $f_i = c_i f'_i$  with  $c_i \in K$  and  $f'_i$  being monic of multidegree  $\alpha$ . Note:  $S(f_i, f_j) = f'_i - f'_j$  since all multidegree are equal. Then,

$$h = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (a_i c_i f_i')$$

$$= a_1 c_1 (f_1' - f_2') + (a_1 c_1 + a_2 c_2) (f_2' - f_3') + \dots + (a_1 c_1 + \dots + a_{m-1} c_{m-1}) (f_{m-1}' - f_m')$$

$$+ (a_1 c_1 + \dots + a_m c_m) f_m'$$

$$= \sum_{i=2}^{m} b_i S(f_{i-1}, f_i) + b_{m+1} f_m' \text{ with } b_i = \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_j c_j.$$

Also, in this equality,  $f'_m$  is the only term that has multidegree  $\alpha$  (other terms have multidegree less than  $\alpha$ ). So  $b_{m+1}=0$  must hold. Then, we have  $h=\sum_{i=2}^m b_i S(f_{i-1},f_i)$ .

**Theorem 80** (Buchberger's criterion). Assume  $I = \langle g_1, \ldots, g_m \rangle$ , then  $G = \{g_1, \ldots, g_m\}$  is a Gröbner basis of  $I \iff S(g_i, g_j) \equiv 0 \pmod{G}$  for each i, j.

Proof.

- Suppose G is a Gröbner basis of I.  $S(g_i, g_j) \in I \Rightarrow S(g_i, g_j) = 0$  by thm 79.
- Converely, suppose  $S(g_i, g_j) \equiv 0 \pmod{G} \forall i, j$ . For  $f \in I$ ,  $f = \sum_{not \ division} \sum_{i=1}^m h_i g_i$  for some  $h_i \in K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ . Define  $\alpha = \max\{\partial(h_1 g_1), \dots, \partial(h_m g_m)\}$ . We have  $\partial(f) \leq \alpha$  and we can select an expression  $f = \sum_{i=1}^m h_i g_i$  for f s.t  $\alpha$  is minimal.
- Claim:  $\partial(f) = \alpha$ .
- (pf) If not, we rewrite f

$$\begin{split} f &= \sum_{i=1}^m h_i g_i \\ &= \sum_{\partial (h_i g_i) = \alpha} h_i g_i + \sum_{\partial (h_i g_i) < \alpha} h_i g_i \qquad \text{(the first term } \neq 0 \text{ since } \alpha \text{ is minimal.)} \\ &= \sum_{\partial (h_i g_i) = \alpha} \operatorname{LT}(h_i) g_i + \sum_{\partial (h_i g_i) = \alpha} (h_i - \operatorname{LT}(h_i) g_i) + \sum_{\partial (h_i g_i) < \alpha} h_i g_i \end{split}$$

Let  $LT(h_i) = a_i h_i^0$  with  $h_i^0$  being a monic monomial. Comparing the multidegree on both side,  $\partial \left( \sum_{\partial (h_i g_i) = \alpha} a_i h_i^0 g_i \right) < \alpha$  By lemma 22,  $\sum_{\partial (h_i g_i) = \alpha} \left( a_i h_i^0 g_i \right) = c_{12} S(h_{i_1}^0 g_{i_1}, h_{i_2}^0 g_{i_2}) + \dots$  (finite)

where  $\partial(h_{i_1}g_{i_1}) = \partial(h_{i_2}g_{i_2}) = \cdots = \alpha$ . By def, if we set  $M_{st} = X_{st}^{\beta}$  = the monic LCM of  $LT(g_{i_s}), LT(g_{i_t})$ , then

$$\begin{split} S(h_{i_s}^0g_{i_s},h_{i_t}^0g_{i_t}) &= \frac{X^\alpha}{\mathrm{LT}(h_{i_s}^0g_{i_s})}h_{i_s}^0g_{i_s} - \frac{X^\alpha}{\mathrm{LT}(h_{i_t}g_{i_t})}h_{i_t}^0g_{i_t} \\ &= X^{\alpha-\beta_{st}}\left(\frac{X^{\beta_{st}}}{\sum_{k=1}^0\mathrm{LT}(g_{i_s})}h_{i_k}^0g_{i_s} - \frac{X^{\beta_{st}}}{\sum_{k=1}^0\mathrm{LT}(g_{i_t})}h_{i_k}^0g_{i_t}\right) \\ &= X^{\alpha-\beta_{st}}S\left(g_{i_s},g_{i_t}\right) \\ &= X^{\alpha-\beta_{st}}\sum_{j=1}^m l_jg_j \text{ (by division)} \end{split}$$

• Then,  $\partial(l_j g_j) < \beta_{st} \implies$  we found an expression with multidegree less than  $\alpha$ , which is a contradiction. Therefore,  $\partial(f) = \alpha \implies \operatorname{LT}(f) = \sum_{\partial(h_i g_i) = \alpha} \operatorname{LT}(h_i) \operatorname{LT}(g_i) \implies \operatorname{LT}(f) \in \langle \operatorname{LT}(g_1), \dots, \operatorname{LT}(g_m) \rangle$ .

**Theorem 81.** The Buchberger's algorithm will terminate

Proof. .

- $\langle LT(G_i) \rangle \subsetneq \langle LT(G_{i+1}) \rangle$  if  $G_i \neq G_{i+1}$  $G_i \neq G_{i+1} \implies \exists f, g \in G_i \text{ s.t. } S(f,g) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{G} \implies LT(S(s,g)) \notin \langle LT(G_i) \rangle$
- $\langle LT(G_0) \rangle \subsetneq \langle LT(G_1) \rangle \subsetneq \cdots$  is not possible since  $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  is a Noetherian ring. (Noetherian ACC condition).

# 6.5 Applications of Gröbner basis

**Def 120.** Let  $I \subseteq K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  and  $x_1 > x_2 > \cdots > x_n$ .  $I_i \triangleq I \cap K[x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n]$  is called the *i*-th elimination ideal of I.

**Theorem 82** (Elimination theorem). Let  $G = \{g_1, \ldots, g_m\}$  be a Gröbner basis of  $I \neq 0$  with ordering  $x_1 > \cdots > x_n$ . Then  $G_i \triangleq G \cap K[x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n]$  is a Gröbner basis of  $I_i$  (i.e.,  $\langle LT(G_i) \rangle = LT(I_i)$ ).

*Proof.* " $\subseteq$ ": Obvious.

"\[ \sum\_i : Let  $f \in I_i$ . Write

$$LT(f) = \sum h_i LT(g_i) = \sum a_k x^{\alpha_k} LT(g_{i_k})$$

Since LT(f) involves only the variables  $x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n$ , and each terms of  $x^{\alpha_k} LT(g_{i_k})$  which uses variables  $x_k$  with  $k \leq i$  must sum to zero. Remove those term we could write LT(f) as a combination of  $LT(g_i)$  with  $LT(g_i) \in K[x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n]$ . But by the definition of leading term and the ordering  $x_1 > \cdots > x_n$ , we have  $g_i \in K[x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n] \implies g_i \in G_i$ . Thus  $LT(f) \in \langle LT(G_i) \rangle$ .

**Eg 6.5.1.** Find  $V = \mathcal{V}(x + y - z, x^2 + y^2 - z^3, x^3 + y^3 - z^5)$ .

We compute a Gröbner basis of  $I = \langle f_1, \dots, f_3 \rangle$  with respect to the ordering x > y > z. The Gröbner basis is  $\{x + y - z, 2y^2 - 2yz - z^3 + z^2, 2z^5 - 3z^4 + z^3\}$ .

### Eg 6.5.2.

$$f: \quad \mathbb{A}^1 \longrightarrow \mathbb{A}^3$$
 
$$t \longmapsto (t^4, t^3, t^2)$$

We compute a Gröbner basis of  $I = \langle t^4 - x, t^3 - y, t^2 - z \rangle$  with respect to t > x > y > z. The Gröbner basis is  $\{-t^2 + z, ty - z^2, tz - y, x - z^2, y^2 - z^3\}$ .

### Eg 6.5.3.

$$f: V = \mathcal{V}(x^3 - x^2z - y^z) \longrightarrow \mathbb{A}^3$$
$$(x, y, z) \longmapsto (x^2z - y^2z, 2xyz, -z^3)$$

The ideal is  $\langle x^3 - x^2z - y^2z, u - x^2z + y^2z, v - 2xyz, w + z^3 \rangle$  has a Gröbner basis  $\langle \dots, u^2 + v^2 - w^2 \rangle$ .

**Theorem 83.** Let I, J be two ideals of  $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ , then  $I \cap J = (t\tilde{I} + (1-t)\tilde{J}) \cap K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ , where  $\tilde{I} \triangleq K[x_1, \ldots, x_n, t]I$ .

*Proof.* " $\subseteq$ ": If  $f \in I \cap J$ , then  $f = tf + (1-t)f \in RHS$ .

"\(\text{\text{"}}\)": If  $f \in \text{RHS}$ , then  $f = t\tilde{f}_1 + (1-t)\tilde{f}_2$ . with  $\tilde{f}_1 \in \tilde{I}$ ,  $\tilde{f}_2 \in \tilde{J}$ . Write

$$\tilde{f}_1 = \sum (h_i t + r_i) f_i, \quad \tilde{f}_2 = \sum (h'_j t + r'_j) f_j$$

with each  $r_i, r'_j \in K[x_1, ..., x_n], \ h_i, h'_j \in K[t, x_1, ..., x_n].$  Take  $t = 0, \ f = \sum r'_j f_j \in J$ . Then take  $t = 1, \ f = \sum (h_i(1, x_1, ..., x_n) + r_i) f_i \in I$ . Thus  $f \in I \cap J$ .

**Eg 6.5.4.**  $I = \langle y^2, x - yz \rangle$ ,  $J = \langle x, z \rangle$ . We shall find  $I \cap J$ .  $tI + (1-t)J = \langle tx - tyz, ty^2, (1-t)x, (1-t)z \rangle$  has a Gröbner basis  $\{f_1, f_2, f_3, f_4, xy, x - yz\}$ , so  $I \cap J = \langle xy, x - yz \rangle$ .

**Theorem 84.** Let  $I = \langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle \subsetneq K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ , then  $f \in \sqrt{I} \iff \langle f_1, \dots, f_s, 1 - tf \rangle = K[x_1, \dots, x_n, t]$ .

*Proof.* " $\Leftarrow$ ": By theorem 76,  $\langle f_1, \ldots, f_s, 1 - tf \rangle = K[x_1, \ldots, x_n, t]$  if and only if  $\mathcal{V}(f_1, \ldots, f_s, 1 - tf) = \varnothing$ . Notice that 1 - tf has no zero if f = 0, which means that If  $\boldsymbol{x}$  is a common zero of  $f_1, \ldots, f_s$ , then  $f(\boldsymbol{x}) = 0$ . So  $f \in \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I)) \implies f \in \sqrt{I}$  by theorem 77.

"\Rightarrow": 
$$f^m \in I \implies 1 = t^m f^m + 1 - t^m f^m = t^m f^m + (1 - tf)(1 + tf + \dots + t^{m-1} f^{m-1}) \in \langle f_1, \dots, f_s, 1 - tf \rangle.$$

**Eg 6.5.5.** Let  $I = \langle xy^2 + 2y^2, x^4 - 2x^2 + 1 \rangle$ , and we want to determine  $f = y - x^2 + 1$  is in  $\sqrt{I}$  or not.

**Prop 6.5.1.** An affine algebraic set V in  $\mathbb{A}^n_k$  has a unique minimal decomposition.  $V = V_1 \cup V_2 \cup \cdots \cup V_m$  with  $V_i$  irreducible and  $V_i \not\subset V_j$ .

Proof.

Existence: If not, then  $V = V_1 \cup V_1'$ , and one of  $V_1, V_1'$ , say  $V_1 = V_2 \cup V_2'$ , ... So we would find

$$V \supseteq V_1 \supseteq V_2 \subseteq \cdots \implies \mathcal{I}(V) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(V_1) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(V_2) \subseteq \text{ in } k[x_1, \dots, x_n],$$

which contradicts that  $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  is Noetherian.

• Uniqueness: If

$$V = V_1 \cup \cdots \cup V_m = V_1' \cup \cdots \cup V_m'$$

then  $V_i = (V_i \cap V_1') \cup \cdots \cup (V_i \cap V_m')$ . But  $V_i$  irreducible, so  $V_i = V_i \cap V_j' \implies V_i \subset V_j'$ . By symmetry we would find  $V_j' \subset V_k$ , then  $V_i \subset V_j' \subset V_k \implies V_i = V_k$ . Thus these two decompositions are equal.

**Theorem 85** (Decomposition). Assume  $\sqrt{I} = I$  and  $I \subset J$ , then  $\mathcal{V}(I:J) = \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I) \setminus \mathcal{V}(J)))$ . and  $\mathcal{V}(I) = \mathcal{V}(J) \cup \mathcal{V}(I:J)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $f \in \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I) \setminus \mathcal{V}(J))$  and  $g \in J$ , then  $fg = \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(I)) = \sqrt{I} = I$  since  $f(\alpha) = 0$  for each  $\alpha \in \mathcal{V}(I) \setminus \mathcal{I}(J)$  and  $g(\alpha) = 0$  for each  $\alpha \in \mathcal{V}(J)$ . Thus  $f \in (I:J)$ .

**Eg 6.5.6.** Let  $I = \langle xz - y^2, x^3 - yz \rangle$  and  $V = \mathcal{V}(I)$ .

Notice that  $\langle xz-y^2,x^3-yz\rangle\subseteq\langle x,y\rangle=J,$  so  $(I:J)=(I:\langle x\rangle)\cap(I:\langle y\rangle).$ 

First we calculate (I:x). Notice that we know how to calculate  $I \cap \langle x \rangle$  now. After a calculation,  $I \cap \langle x \rangle = \{x^2z - xy^2, x^4 - xyz, x^3y - xz^2\}$ , so  $(I:x) = \langle f_1/x, f_2/x, f_3/x \rangle = I + \langle x^2y - z^3 \rangle$ . Simarly one could find that (I:y) = (I:x), thus (I:J) = (I:x).

Hence  $V = \mathcal{V}(x, y) \cap \mathcal{V}(xz - y^2, x^3 - yz, x^2y - z^2)$ .

**Prop 6.5.2.** Let  $f: V \to W$ , then  $\overline{f(V)} = \mathcal{V}(\ker f^*)$  where  $f^*: k[W] \to k[V]$ .

*Proof.* We claim that ker  $f^* = \mathcal{I}(f(V))$ , since

$$\bar{g} \in \mathcal{I}(f(V)) \iff \bar{g}(f(\alpha)) = 0, \ \forall \ \alpha \in V \iff \bar{g} \circ f \in \mathcal{I}(V) \iff f^*(\bar{g}) = \overline{g \circ f} = \bar{0} \iff \bar{g} \in \ker f^*$$
  
Thus  $\mathcal{V}(\ker f^*) = \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{I}(f(V))) = \overline{f(V)}$ .

**Remark 35.** In general, if  $W \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n_k$  is an affine algebraic set defined by  $x_i = f_i(t_1, \dots, t_m)$ , then W is irreducible.

*Proof.*  $f: \mathbb{A}_k^m \to W$  is onto, so  $\overline{f(\mathbb{A}_k^m)} = W = \mathcal{V}(0)$ . By the previous proposition,  $\ker f^* = 0$ , thus  $f^*: K[W] \cong k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]/\mathcal{I}(W) \hookrightarrow k[t_1, \ldots, t_m]$ . But  $k[t_1, \ldots, t_m]$  is an integral domain, so  $\mathcal{I}(W)$  is a prime ideal, thus W is irreducible.

# 6.6 Local Rings (week 12)

From now on, R is a commutative ring with 1.

We list some facts about localization.

**Prop 6.6.1.** Let p be a prime ideal in R,  $R_p$  be the localization about p.

- Extension and contraction gives a bijective correspondence between { prime ideal  $q \subset p$ } and { prime ideal in  $R_p$  }.
- Extension and contraction gives a bijective correspondence between {primary ideal  $q \subset p$ } and { primary ideal in  $R_p$  }.
- Localization commutes with intersection.
- Localization preserves exact sequence.
- If R is Noetherian (Artinian), then  $R_p$  is Noetherian (Artinian).

**Def 121.** R is called a local ring if it has a unique maximal ideal.

# **Prop 6.6.2.** TFAE

- (1) R is a local ring.
- (2) The set of non-units forms an ideal.
- (3)  $\exists M \in \text{Max } R \text{ s.t. } 1+m \text{ is a unit } \forall m \in M.$

Proof.

- (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2): Let M be the unique maximal ideal of R. Then M couldn't contain any unit. For each non-unit x,  $\langle x \rangle \neq R$  and is contained in a maximal ideal by lemma 7, thus  $x \in M$ . Hence  $M = \{\text{non-units}\}$ .
- (2)  $\Rightarrow$  (3): This ideal must be a maximal ideal M since it can't be extended. Now,  $1 \notin M \rightsquigarrow 1 + m \notin M$ . So 1 + m is a unit.
- (3)  $\Rightarrow$  (1): If there exists another maximal ideal N, then M+N=R. Say  $m\in M, n\in N$  s.t. m+n=1, then n=1-m is a unit  $\implies N=R$ , which is a contradiction.

**Eg 6.6.1.** k[[x]] is a local ring with the unique maximal ideal  $\langle x \rangle$ .

*Proof.* For each  $f = \sum a_n x^n \in k[[x]]$ , one could see that f is an unit if and only if  $a_n \neq 0$ , and the leftovers form an ideal  $\langle x \rangle$ .

**Eg 6.6.2.** Let  $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ . If  $S = R \setminus P$ , then S is a multiplicatively closed set with  $1 \in S$  and  $R_P \triangleq R_S$  is a local ring.

*Proof.* S is a multiplicatively closed set simply follow from the definition of prime ideal. One could then easily see that  $P_P \triangleq \left\{ \frac{x}{s} \mid x \in P, s \in S \right\}$  contains all non-unit, thus  $R_P$  is local.

**Prop 6.6.3.** The following sets are correspondent (k is algebraically closed):

- (1)  $\mathbb{A}^n_k$
- (2)  $\text{Max } k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$
- (3)  $\operatorname{Hom}_{k}(k[x_{1},\ldots,x_{n}],k)$

*Proof.* (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2): For any  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in \mathbb{A}^n_k$ ,  $k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]/\langle x_1 - a_1, \ldots, x_n - a_n \rangle \cong k$  is a field, hence  $\langle x_1 - a_1, \ldots, x_n - a_n \rangle$  is a maximal ideal.

(2)  $\Rightarrow$  (1): Let  $M \in \text{Max } k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ , by theorem 76,  $\mathcal{V}(M) \neq \emptyset$ , so exists  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in \mathcal{V}(M)$ . Now  $M = \sqrt{M} = \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{V}(M)) \subseteq \mathcal{I}((a_1, \ldots, a_n)) = \langle \ldots, x_i - a_i, \ldots \rangle$  which is maximal, We conclude that  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  is the only element in  $\mathcal{V}(M)$  and  $M = \langle \ldots, x_i - a_i, \ldots \rangle$ .

(1)  $\Rightarrow$  (3): For each  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ , define  $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}_k(\cdots)$  by evaluation:

$$\varphi: \quad k[x_1, \dots, x_n] \longrightarrow k$$
$$x_i \longmapsto a_i$$

$$(3) \Rightarrow (1)$$
: Similarly, for each  $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}_k(\cdots)$ , recover  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  by  $(\varphi(x_1), \ldots, \varphi(x_n))$ .

Remark 36. Inspired by the correspondence,

**Def 122.** A property of an R-module M is said to be a local property if

M has this property  $\iff M_P$  (as an  $R_P$ -module) has this property  $\forall P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ 

## **Prop 6.6.4.** TFAE

- (1) M = 0
- (2)  $M_P = 0 \quad \forall P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$
- (3)  $M_Q = 0 \quad \forall Q \in \operatorname{Max} R$

*Proof.* (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2) and (2)  $\Rightarrow$  (3) are clear.

(3)  $\Rightarrow$  (1): If  $M \neq 0$ , let  $x \in M$  such that  $x \neq 0$ , then  $\operatorname{Ann}(x) \subseteq R$  since  $1 \notin \operatorname{Ann}(x)$ . Let  $\operatorname{Ann}(x) \subset Q \in \operatorname{Max} R$ . By assumption,  $M_Q = 0$  implies  $\frac{x}{1} = \frac{0}{1}$ . By the definition of equal in localization,  $\exists r \notin Q$  such that rx = 0, thus  $r \in \operatorname{Ann}(x)$  which leads to a contradiction.

**Coro 6.6.1.** Let  $N \subseteq M$ , TFAE (consider M/N)

- (1) N = M
- (2)  $N_P = M_P \quad \forall P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$
- (3)  $N_Q = M_Q \quad \forall Q \in \operatorname{Max} R$

# **Prop 6.6.5.** TFAE

- (1)  $0 \to M \xrightarrow{\phi} N \xrightarrow{\psi} L \to 0$  exact
- (2)  $0 \to M_P \xrightarrow{\phi_P} N_P \xrightarrow{\psi_P} L \to 0 \text{ exact } \forall P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$
- (3)  $0 \to M_Q \xrightarrow{\phi_Q} N_Q \xrightarrow{\psi_Q} L \to 0 \text{ exact } \forall Q \in \text{Max } R$

*Proof.* (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2): By the fact that localization preserves exact sequence.

- $(2) \Rightarrow (3)$ : Obvious.
- (3)  $\Rightarrow$  (1): Let  $K = \ker \phi$ , then  $0 \to K \to M \to N$  exact. Since we just proved (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (3),  $0 \to K_Q \to M_Q \to N_Q$  exact, but  $K_Q = 0$ , by proposition 6.6.4, K = 0.

We could prove the other half similarly by letting K to be the cokernel.

# Def 123.

- Let  $R \subseteq S$ .  $\bar{R} = \{x \in S \mid x \text{ is integral over } R\}$  is called the integral closure of R in S.
- R is integrally closed in S if  $R = \bar{R}$ .
- An integral domain R is called normal if R is integrally closed in its field of fractions.

## Theorem 86. UFD is normal.

*Proof.* Let R be a UFD and K be its field of fractions. If  $a \in K$  is integral over R and  $a^n + r_1a^{n-1} + \cdots + r_n = 0$ . Write a = u/s with gcd(u,s) = 1. Then  $u^n + r_1su^{n-1} + \cdots + r_ns^n = 0$ . Now if s is a non-unit, says  $p \mid s$  with p is a prime. Then  $p \mid u$  obviously  $\leadsto p \mid gcd(u,s) = 1$ , which is a contradiction. So s is a unit  $\implies a \in R$ .

## Prop 6.6.6.

• Let S/R is an integral extension and  $T \subset R$  be a m.c. set with  $1 \in T$ . Then  $S_T$  is also integral over  $R_T$ .

*Proof.* Let  $a/t \in S_T$  with  $a^n + r_1 a^{n-1} + \cdots + r_n = 0$ , then we have

$$\left(\frac{a}{t}\right)^n + \frac{r_1}{t} \left(\frac{a}{t}\right)^{n-1} + \dots + \frac{r_n}{t^n} = 0.$$

Thus a/t is integral over  $R_T$ .

• Let S/R be an arbitrary extension and  $T \subset R$  be m.c. with  $1 \in T$ . Then  $(\bar{R})_T = \overline{(R_T)}$  in  $S_T$ .

*Proof.* By 1.,  $(\overline{R})_T$  is integral over  $R_T$ . If  $a/t \in S_T$  is integral over  $R_T$ , say

$$\left(\frac{a}{t}\right)^n + \frac{r_1}{t_1} \left(\frac{a}{t}\right)^{n-1} + \dots + \frac{r_n}{t_n} = 0.$$

Then we let  $v = t_1 t_2 \cdots t_n$ , multiply the equation by  $(tv)^n$ , we get

$$(va)^n + (r_1tt_2\cdots t_n)(va)^{n-1} + \cdots = 0 \implies va \in \overline{R}$$

So  $a/t = va/(vt) \in \overline{R}_T$ .

**Prop 6.6.7.** "Being normal" is a local property. TFAE

- (1) R is normal
- (2)  $R_P$  is normal  $\forall P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$
- (3)  $R_Q$  is normal  $\forall Q \in \operatorname{Max} R$

*Proof.* The key is to realize that if K is the field of fraction of R, then K is also the field of fraction of any  $R_P$ . Then by lemma 6.6.5,

$$0 \to R \to \overline{R} \to 0 \iff 0 \to R_P \to (\overline{R})_P \to 0, \forall P$$

By the previous proposition,  $(\overline{R})_P = \overline{R_P}$  in  $S_P$ , this proves all.

**Def 124.** An R-module F is flat if the functor  $-\otimes_R M$  is exact (i.e., it preserves exact sequence).

**Prop 6.6.8.** Given an homomorphism  $R_1 \to R_2$ . If M is a flat  $R_1$ -module, then  $R_2 \otimes_{R_1} M$  is a flat  $R_2$  module.

*Proof.* Notice that  $N \otimes_{R_1} M \cong N \otimes_{R_2} (R_2 \otimes_{R_1} M)$ , so

$$\begin{array}{ll} 0 \to N \to N' \text{ exact} & \Longrightarrow & 0 \to N \otimes_{R_1} M \to N' \otimes_{R_1} M \text{ exact} \\ & \Longrightarrow & 0 \to N \otimes_{R_2} (R_2 \otimes_{R_1} M) \to N' \otimes_{R_2} (R_2 \otimes_{R_1} M) \text{ exact} \end{array}$$

Which is to say that  $R_2 \otimes_{R_1} M$  flat.

#### **Prop 6.6.9.** TFAE

- (1) M is a flat R-module
- (2)  $M_P$  is a flat R-module  $\forall P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$
- (3)  $M_Q$  is a flat R-module  $\forall Q \in \text{Max } R$

*Proof.* (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2): By the previous proposition combined with the property of localization,  $M_P \cong R_P \otimes_R M$  is a flat module.

- $(2) \Rightarrow (3)$ : Obvious.
- (3)  $\Rightarrow$  (1): If  $0 \to N \to N'$  exact, then by prop 6.6.5,  $0 \to N_Q \to N_Q'$  exact, so

$$0 \to N_Q \otimes_{R_Q} M_Q \to N_Q' \otimes_{R_Q} M_Q$$

is also exact. By the property of localization,  $N_Q \otimes_{R_Q} M_Q \cong (N \otimes_R M)_Q$ . Using prop 6.6.5,  $0 \to N \otimes_R M \to N' \otimes_R M$  exact.

# 6.7 Krull dimension

## Def 125.

- The Krull dimension of a topological space X is the supremum of the lengths n of all chains  $X_0 \subsetneq X_1 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq X_n$ , where  $X_i$  are closed irreducible subset of X.
- The Krull dimension of a commutative ring R with 1 is the supremum of the lengths n of all chains  $P_0 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq P_n$  where  $P_i \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ .

**Prop 6.7.1.** Let  $R \subseteq S$  be two integral domains and S/R be integral. Then S is a field if and only if R is a field.

*Proof.* " $\Rightarrow$ ": For each  $a \neq 0$  in R,  $a^{-1} \in S$ , so we could write

$$(a^{-1})^n + r_1(a^{-1})^{n-1} + \dots + r_n = 0, \ r_i \in R$$

Which implies

$$a^{-1} = -(r_1 + \dots + r_n a^{n-1}) \in R$$

"\( = \)": For each  $a \neq 0$  is S, write

$$a^n + r_1 a^{n-1} + \dots + r_n = 0, \ r_i \in R$$

Notice that we could assume  $r_n \neq 0$ , or else  $a(a^{n-1} + r_1 a^{n-2} + \cdots + r_{n-1}) = 0$  and hence  $a^{n-1} + r_1 a^{n-2} + \cdots + r_{n-1} = 0$  because R is an integral domain. Then

$$a^{-1} = -r_n^{-1}(a^{n-1} + r_1a^{n-2} + \dots + r_{n-2})$$

# **Prop 6.7.2.** Let S/R be integral.

1. If  $q \in \operatorname{Spec} S$  and  $p = q \cap R \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ , then  $q \in \operatorname{Max} S \iff p \in \operatorname{Max} R$ .

*Proof.* It is easy to see that S/q is integral over R/p by the identification

$$R/p \longleftrightarrow S/q$$
  
 $r+p \longmapsto r+q$ 

So

 $q \in \operatorname{Max} S \iff S/q \text{ is a field } \iff R/p \text{ is a field } \iff p \in \operatorname{Max} R$ 

2. If  $q, q' \in \operatorname{Spec} S$  with  $q \subseteq q'$  and  $q \cap R = p = q' \cap R$ . Then q = q'.

Proof. We know that  $S_p \triangleq S_{R \setminus p}$  is integral over  $R_p$ . Since  $q_p \subseteq q'_p$  and both  $q_p \cap R_p$  and  $q'_p \cap R_p$  equal  $p_p$  is maximal in  $R_p$ . Using 1.,  $q_p, q'_p$  are maximal in  $S_p$ , but  $q_p \subseteq q'_p \implies q_p = q'_p$ . By corollary 6.6.1, q = q'.

**Theorem 87** (Going-up theorem). Let S/R be integral, then

• If  $p \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ , then  $\exists q \in \operatorname{Spec} S$  such that  $q \cap R = p$ .

*Proof.* We have the diagram:

Pick  $q_p = N \in \operatorname{Max} S_p$ , then  $N \cap R_p \in \operatorname{Max} R_p = \{p_p\}$  by 1. of proposition 6.7.2, so  $N \cap R_p = p_p$ , and  $(q \cap R)_p = q_p \cap R_p = p_p$ , thus  $q \cap R = p$ .

• If  $p_1 \subset p_2$  in Spec R and  $q_1 \in \operatorname{Spec} S$  with  $q_1 \cap R = p_1$ , then  $\exists q_2 \in \operatorname{Spec} S$  with  $q_1 \subset q_2$  and  $q_2 \cap R = p_2$ .

*Proof.* Let  $R' = R/p_1$  and  $S' = S/q_1$ . Then again, S'/R' is integral. By the previous statement, exists  $q_2/q_1 \in \operatorname{Spec} S'$  so that  $q_2/q_1 \cap R' = p_2/p_1$ , thus  $q_2 \cap R = p_2$  and  $q_2 \supseteq q_1$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 88.** If S/R is integral, then dim  $S = \dim R$ .

*Proof.* For any chain  $q_0 \subsetneq q_1 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq q_n$  in Spec S, by prop 2.,  $q_0 \cap R \subsetneq q_1 \cap R \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq a_n \cap R$ . Conversely, given  $p_0 \subsetneq p_1 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq p_n$  in Spec R, there is  $q_0 \subsetneq q_1 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq q_n$  by the going up theorem (87).

**Prop 6.7.3.** Let S,R be integral domains and S/R be integral, assume R is normal with the field of fractions K. If  $a \in S$  is integral over  $I \subseteq R$ , then  $f = m_{\alpha,K} = x^n + r_1 x^{n-1} + \cdots + r_n$  with  $r_i \in \sqrt{I}$ .

Proof. Assume deg f = n and  $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in \overline{K}$  are the zeros of f. By assumption,  $a^m + t_1 a^{m-1} + \cdots + t_m = 0$  with  $t_i \in I \subset R \subset K$ . For each i, exists  $\varphi \in \operatorname{Aut}(\overline{K}/K)$  such that  $\varphi(a) = a_i$ . Then  $0 = \varphi(a^m + t_1 a^{m-1} + \cdots + t_m) = a_i^m + t_1 a_i^{m-1} + \cdots + t_m$ , so  $a_i$  is integral over I. Moveover, the coefficients of f are the elementary symmetry symmetric polynomial of  $a_i$ , hence they are integral over I and lie in  $\sqrt{IR} = \sqrt{IR} = \sqrt{I}$ .

**Theorem 89** (Going-down theorem). Let S, R be integral domains and S/R be integral, assume R is normal with the field of fractions K. If  $p_1 \supset p_2$  in Spec R and  $q_1 \in \operatorname{Spec} S$  with  $q_1 \cap R = p_1$ , then  $\exists q_2 \in \operatorname{Spec} S$  such that  $q_1 \supset q_2$  and  $q_2 \cap R = p_2$ .

*Proof.* First we claim that  $p_2S_{q_1} \cap R = p_2$ .

"⊃": Obvious.

" $\subseteq$ ": For  $b/t \in p_2S_{q_1} \cap R$ ,  $b \in p_2S \subset \sqrt{p_2S} = \sqrt{p_2\overline{R}}$ , which means that b is integral over  $p_2$  and  $t \in S \setminus q_1$ . By proposition 6.7.3, if  $m_{b,K} = x^l + r_1x^{l-1} + \cdots + r_l$ , then  $r_i \in \sqrt{p_2} = p_2$ .

Now,  $a = b/t \in R$ , so  $t = b/a \in S_{R \setminus \{0\}} = SK$ , so

$$\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{l} + \left(\frac{r_1}{a}\right)\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{l-1} + \dots + \left(\frac{r_l}{a^l}\right) \leftrightarrow b^l + r_1b^{l-1} + \dots + r_l = 0$$

is a correspondence. Thus we know that  $m_{t,K} = x^l + (r_1/a)x^{l-1} + \cdots + (r_l/a^l)$ .

Again by proposition 6.7.3, since t is integral over R,  $u_i \triangleq r_i/a^i \in R$ , and  $u_i a^i = r_i$  for each i.

If  $a \notin p_2$ , then  $u_i a^i = r_i \in p_2$ , so  $u_i \in p_2$ . But with  $m_{t,K}$  we will find that  $t^l \in p_2 S \subseteq p_1 S \subseteq q_1$ , so  $t \in q_1$ , which leads to a contradiction. Thus  $a \in p_2$ .

Now we've proved  $p_2S_{q_1}\cap R=p_2$ , by exercise 12.4,  $p_2=Q\cap R$  for some  $Q\in S_{q_1}$ . Letting  $q=Q\cap S$  and we're done.

**Theorem 90.** All maximal chain in Spec  $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  have the same length n, and thus

$$\dim K[x_1,\ldots,x_n]=n.$$

*Proof.* Let  $P_0 \subset P_1 \subset \cdots \subset P_m$  in Spec  $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  We shall use induction on n to prove m = n. n = 0: Then  $\langle 0 \rangle$  is a max chain in Spec K, so m = 0 = n.

n > 0: Let  $K[y_1, \ldots, y_n] \hookrightarrow K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  be a strong Noether normalization with  $P_1 \cap K[y_1, \ldots, y_n] = \langle y_{d+1}, \ldots, y_n \rangle$ , then  $h(P_1) = 1 \implies h(P_1 \cap K[y_1, \ldots, y_n]) = 1$  by the going down theorem (89). Then we can say  $P_1 \cap K[y_1, \ldots, y_n] = \langle y_n \rangle$ . Then we can consider  $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]/P_1$  and  $K[y_1, \ldots, y_n]/\langle y_n \rangle \cong K[y_1, \ldots, y_{n-1}]$ . By induction hypothesis, we can say m-1 = n-1. Done.  $\square$ 

# 6.8 Artinian rings and DVR (week 13)

# 6.8.1 Artinian rings

**Def 126.** R is called an Artinian ring if one of the followings holds:

- any non-empty set of ideals has a minimal element.
- any descending chain of ideals is stationary (DCC).

# Goal:

- 1.  $R \cong R_1 \times \cdots \times R_l$  where  $R_i$  is an Artinian local rings.
- 2. Artinian  $\iff$  Noetherian  $+ \dim = 0$ .

#### Prop 6.8.1.

$$\bullet \quad \sqrt{\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i} + \mathfrak{m}_j^{n_j}} = \sqrt{\sqrt{\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i}} + \sqrt{\mathfrak{m}_j^{n_j}}}$$

Proof.

" $\subseteq$ ": Obvious.

"⊇" 
$$\forall a \in \text{RHS}$$
, that is,  $a^n = b + c$  with  $b^k \in \mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i}$  and  $c^t \in \mathfrak{m}_j^{n_j}$ . Then  $(a^n)^{k+t} = (b+c)^{k+t} = b^{k+t} + \dots + {k+t \choose t} b^k c^t + \dots + c^{k+t}$ . Every term is in either  $\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i}$  or  $\mathfrak{m}_j^{n_j}$ , then  $(a^n)^{k+t} = c + d$  with  $c \in \mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i}$ ,  $d \in \mathfrak{m}_j^{n_j} \Rightarrow a \in \text{LHS}$ 

• If m is prime,  $\sqrt{m^n} = m$ 

Proof.

"
$$\subseteq$$
": If  $a \in LHS$ , then  $a^k \in m^n \subset m$  and m is prime.  $\Rightarrow a \in m$ .

" 
$$\supset$$
 ": If  $a \in \text{RHS}$ , then  $a^n \in m^n \implies a^n \in \text{LHS}$ .

• If  $m, m_i, i = 1, \dots, n$  are prime and  $m \supseteq m_1 \cap \dots \cap m_n$ , then  $m \supseteq m_i$  for some i.

Proof

Suppose not, then we pick 
$$a_i \in m_i \setminus m$$
. Then  $b \triangleq a_1 \cdots a_n \in m_i, \forall i$ . So  $b \in m_1 \cap \cdots \cap m_n \subseteq m$ . But  $m$  is prime, so exist  $a_i \in m$ , which is a contradiction.

## **Prop 6.8.2.** Let R be an Artinian ring

- (1) If  $I \subseteq R$ , then R/I is also Artinian.
- (2) If R is an integral domain, then R is a field.

*Proof.* 
$$\forall a \neq 0 \in R, \langle a \rangle \supseteq \langle a^2 \rangle \supseteq \cdots$$
 is a descending chain of ideals  $\implies \langle a^l \rangle = \langle a^{l+1} \rangle = \cdots$  for some  $l \in \mathbb{N} \implies a^l = ba^{l+1} \implies a^l(1-ab) = 0 \implies ab = 1$  since cancellation works in integral domain.

(3) Spec  $R = \operatorname{Max} R$ .  $(\Longrightarrow \dim R = 0)$ 

*Proof.* 
$$\forall p \in \operatorname{Spec} R, R/p$$
 is an integral domain  $\implies R/p$  is a field  $\implies p \in \operatorname{Max} R$ .

(4)  $|\operatorname{Max} R| < \infty$ .

*Proof.* Consider the set  $\left\{\bigcap_{\text{finite}} \mathfrak{m} \middle| \mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R\right\} \neq \emptyset$ . So there exists a minimal element in this set since R is Artinian, say  $\mathfrak{m}_1 \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{m}_k$ . Now, for  $\mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$ , we have  $\mathfrak{m} \cap \mathfrak{m}_1 \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{m}_k = \mathfrak{m}_1 \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{m}_k$  since the latter is minimal, so  $\mathfrak{m} \supseteq \mathfrak{m}_1 \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{m}_k \Longrightarrow \mathfrak{m} \supseteq \mathfrak{m}_i$  for some i, by 3. of proposition 6.8.1. Then  $\mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}_i$ , since  $\mathfrak{m}_i$  is max. So  $\operatorname{Max} R = \{\mathfrak{m}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{m}_k\}$ .

(5)  $\exists n_1, \dots, n_k \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \langle 0 \rangle = \mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1} \mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2} \cdots \mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k} = \mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1} \cap \mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2} \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k}.$ 

*Proof.* First we claim that  $\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2}\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k}=\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\cap\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2}\cap\cdots\cap\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k}$ . Recall that if  $I_i,I_j$  are coprime for  $i\neq j$ , then  $\prod_{i=1}^n I_i=\bigcap_{i=1}^n I_i$ . By Prop 6.8.1

$$\sqrt{\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i}+\mathfrak{m}_j^{n_j}}=\sqrt{\sqrt{\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i}}+\sqrt{\mathfrak{m}_j^{n_j}}}=\sqrt{\mathfrak{m}_i+\mathfrak{m}_j}=\sqrt{R}=R\implies \mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i}+\mathfrak{m}_j^{n_j}=R.$$

Now, let  $n_i$  be the one so that  $\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i} = \mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i+1}$ . We claim that  $\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2}\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k} = \langle 0 \rangle$ .

If not, let  $S = \{J \subseteq R \mid J\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2}\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k} \neq 0\} \neq \emptyset$  since  $\mathfrak{m}_i \in S$ . By the fact that R is Artinian, there exists a minimal element  $J_0 \in S$ . By definition of S,  $\exists x \in J_0$  so that  $x\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2}\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k} \neq 0$ . Then  $\langle x \rangle \in S \langle x \rangle \subseteq J_0$  which by the minimality we must have  $\langle x \rangle = J_0$ .

Also,  $x\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1+1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2+1}\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k+1}=x\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2}\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k}\neq\langle 0\rangle$ , so  $I=x\mathfrak{m}_1\ldots\mathfrak{m}_k\in\mathcal{S}$  and  $I\subseteq xR=J_0\Longrightarrow I=xR$ . Then we have  $\mathfrak{m}_1\mathfrak{m}_2\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k=\mathfrak{m}_1\cap\mathfrak{m}_2\cap\cdots\cap\mathfrak{m}_k=\operatorname{Jac} R$  with  $\operatorname{Jac} R(xR)=xR$  since  $\operatorname{Max} R=\operatorname{Spec} R$ . By Nakayama's lemma,  $xR=0\Longrightarrow x=0$  which leads to a contradiction.

(6) The nilradical  $\mathfrak{n}_R$  of R is nilpotent.

*Proof.* Again, 
$$\mathfrak{n}_R = \mathfrak{m}_1 \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{m}_k = \operatorname{Jac} R$$
. Let  $n = \max\{n_1, \ldots, n_k\}$  in (5), then  $\mathfrak{n}_R^n = (\mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_k)^n = 0$ .

**Theorem 91.** If R is an Artinian ring, then  $R \cong R_1 \times \cdots \times R_k$  where each  $R_i$  is Artinian local ring.

*Proof.* By Chinese Remainder theorem,

$$R \cong R/\langle 0 \rangle = R/\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1} \mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2} \cdots \mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k} \cong R/\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1} \times R/\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2} \times \cdots \times R/\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k}$$

Let  $R_i = R/\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i}$ , which is Artinian since it is the quotient of an Artinian ring. Since quotient preserves maximality,  $\bar{\mathfrak{m}} \in \operatorname{Max} R_i \iff \mathfrak{m} \in \operatorname{Max} R$ . But then  $\mathfrak{m} \supset \mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i} \implies \mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}_i$ . Since  $\mathfrak{m}_i = \sqrt{\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i}}$  is the smallest prime containing  $\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i}$  by proposition 6.2.2. So  $\operatorname{Max} R_i = \{\overline{\mathfrak{m}_i}\} \implies R_i$  is a local ring.

**Lemma 23.** Let V be a K-vector space, TFAE

- (1)  $\dim_K V < \infty$
- (2) V has DCC on subspaces.
- (3) V has ACC on subspaces.

Proof.

Fact: If  $V_1 \subseteq V_2$  is finite dimensional vector space over K, then  $V_1 = V_2 \iff \dim_K V_1 = \dim_K V_2$ . Otherwise,  $\dim_K V_1 < \dim_K V_2$ .

$$(1) \Leftrightarrow (3)$$

"  $\Rightarrow$  " Suppose there exists a chain in vector space V with strictly increasing and infinite length,

$$V_1 \subset V_2 \subset \cdots \subseteq V \Rightarrow \dim_K V_1 < \dim_K V_2 < \cdots \leq \dim_K V$$

Then,  $\dim_K V$  must be infinite.

"  $\Leftarrow$  " If  $\dim_K V$  is infinite, let  $S = \{b_1, b_2, \dots\}$  be basis of V.

$$\langle b_1 \rangle_K \subset \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle_K \subset \cdots$$

is a infinite ascending chain.

Similarly,  $(1) \Leftrightarrow (2)$ .

**Lemma 24.** If R is Northerian and dim R = 0, then there exist  $\mathfrak{m}_i, n_i$  so that  $\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1} \mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2} \cdots \mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k} = \langle 0 \rangle$ .

*Proof.* By primary decomposition,  $\langle 0 \rangle = \bigcap_{i=1}^k q_i$  for some primary ideals  $q_i$ . Let  $\mathfrak{m}_i = \sqrt{q_i}$ , since  $\mathfrak{m}_i$  finitely generated, say  $\mathfrak{m}_i = \langle x_1, \ldots, x_k \rangle$ . Since  $\mathfrak{m}_i = \sqrt{q_i}$ , for each  $x_i$ , exists  $r_i$  so that  $x_i^{r_i} \in q_i$ . Let  $n_i = \max\{r_i\}$  and one could easily see that  $\mathfrak{m}_i^{n_i} \subset q_i$ . Thus

$$\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2}\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k}=\mathfrak{m}_1^{n_1}\cap\mathfrak{m}_2^{n_2}\cap\cdots\cap\mathfrak{m}_k^{n_k}\subseteq q_1\cap q_2\cap\cdots\cap q_k=\langle 0\rangle$$

**Theorem 92.** R is Artinian  $\iff R$  is Noetherian with dimension 0.

*Proof.* In both case we could find maximal ideals  $\mathfrak{m}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{m}_n$  not necessarily different in R such that  $\mathfrak{m}_1\mathfrak{m}_2\cdots\mathfrak{m}_n=0$ . So we shall prove that this implies Artinian  $\iff$  Noetherian.

Observe that we have a chain of ideals in  $R: R \supset \mathfrak{m}_1 \supset \mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2 \supset \cdots \supset \mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_n = 0$ . Let  $M_i = \mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_{i-1}/\mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_i$  which could be see as an R-module. Moreover, notice that  $\mathfrak{m}_i M_i = 0$ , so we  $M_i$  could be regard as  $R/\mathfrak{m}_i$ -module. But  $R/\mathfrak{m}_i$  is a field, so  $M_i$  can be further regarded as a vector space. Hence we could use lemma 23 now:

 $M_i$  is Artinian  $\iff M_i$  is Noetherian.

By definition,

$$0 \to \mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_i \to \mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_{i-1} \to M_i \to 0$$

exact. By exercise, given  $0 \to K \to M \to L \to 0$  exact, then M Noetherian (Artinian)  $\iff K, L$  Noetherian (Artinian). Thus

$$\mathfrak{m}_0 = R \text{ Artinian } \iff \mathfrak{m}_1, M_1 \text{ Artinian } \\ \iff \mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2, M_1, M_2 \text{ Artinian } \\ \vdots \\ \iff \mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_n = \langle 0 \rangle, \ M_1, \ldots, M_n \text{ Artinian } \\ \iff \mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{m}_n = \langle 0 \rangle, \ M_1, \ldots, M_n \text{ Noetherian } \\ \vdots \\ \iff \mathfrak{m}_1 \mathfrak{m}_2, M_1, M_2 \text{ Noetherian } \\ \iff \mathfrak{m}_1, M_1 \text{ Noetherian } \iff \mathfrak{m}_0 = R \text{ Noetherian }$$

## 6.8.2 DVR (Discrete Valuation Ring)

#### Def 127.

- (1) Let K be a field. A discrete valuation of K is  $\nu: K^{\times} \to \mathbb{Z}$   $(\nu(0) = \infty)$  s.t.
  - $\nu(xy) = \nu(x) + \nu(y)$ .
  - $\nu(x \pm y) = \min{\{\nu(x), \nu(y)\}}.$
- (2) The valuation ring of  $\nu$  is  $R = \{x \in K \mid \nu(x) \ge 0\}$ , called a DVR.

# Prop 6.8.3.

1.  $\nu(1) = 0$ :

*Proof.* 
$$\nu(1) = \nu(1) + \nu(1) \implies \nu(1) = 0$$

2.  $\nu(x) = -\nu(x^{-1})$ :

Proof. 
$$0 = \nu(xx^{-1}) = \nu(x) + \nu(x^{-1})$$

3.  $\nu(x) = 0 \iff x \text{ is a unit, so } \mathfrak{m} = \{x \in R \mid \nu(x) > 0\} \text{ is the unique maximal ideal}$ 

Proof. "
$$\Rightarrow$$
":  $\nu(x) = 0 \implies \nu(x^{-1}) = 0 \implies x^{-1} \in R$  " $\Leftarrow$ ": Then  $\nu(x^{-1}), \nu(x) \ge 0$ , so  $\nu(x) = -\nu(x) \le 0 \implies \nu(x) = 0$ .

4. Let  $t \in R$  with  $\nu(t) = 1$ , then  $\mathfrak{m} = \langle t \rangle$ . More over, each element  $x \in \mathfrak{m}$  could be uniquely written as  $x = t^k u$  where u is a unit.

*Proof.* 
$$\forall x \in \mathfrak{m}, \nu(x) = k > 0$$
, so  $\nu(x(t^k)^{-1}) = \nu(x) - k\nu(t) = 0 \implies x = t^k u$ , where  $u$  is unit in  $R$ .

5. Let  $I \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$  and define  $m = \min\{l \in \mathbb{N} \mid x = t^l u, \forall x \in I\}$ . Then  $I = \langle t^m \rangle$ .

*Proof.* " $\subseteq$ ": Immediately by the previous statement. " $\supseteq$ ": Let  $x = t^m u$  be the one letting l = m, then  $t^m = xu'$  for some u' since where u is a unit.

**Prop 6.8.4.** R is a DVR  $\iff$  R is 1-dimensional normal, Noetherian local integral domain.

Proof.

$$\text{``$\Rightarrow$":} \ \ DVR \Longrightarrow PID \bigotimes^{} UFD \Longrightarrow normal \\ Noetherian$$

Where UFD  $\implies$  normal by theorem 86.

Now if P is a prime ideal in R, then by 5. of proposition 6.8.3,  $P = \langle t^k \rangle = \mathfrak{m}^k$  where  $\mathfrak{m}$  is the maximal ideal. Then  $P = \sqrt{P} = \sqrt{\mathfrak{m}^k} = \mathfrak{m}$  since  $\mathfrak{m}$  maximal. Thus the only prime ideals are  $\{0,\mathfrak{m}\}$  and thus R has dimension 1.

"  $\Leftarrow$  ": Let  $\mathfrak{m}$  be the unique maximal ideal. Then  $\operatorname{Spec} R = \{0, \mathfrak{m}\}$ . If  $\mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}^2$  then since  $\operatorname{Jac} R = \mathfrak{m}$ ,  $\mathfrak{m} = 0$  by Nakayama's lemma, so  $\mathfrak{m}^2 \neq \mathfrak{m}$ . Pick  $t \in \mathfrak{m} \setminus \mathfrak{m}^2$ . We claim that  $\langle t \rangle = \mathfrak{m}$ . If not, then  $M \triangleq \mathfrak{m}/\langle t \rangle \neq 0$ . See M as an R-module and consider  $S \triangleq \{\operatorname{Ann}(\bar{x}) \mid \bar{x} \neq 0 \in M\}$ . Since R Noetherian, there is a maximal element, say  $I = \operatorname{Ann}(\bar{x})$ .

We shall prove that I is prime. If not, then there are  $ab \in I$  but  $a, b \notin I$ , which is to say that  $ab\bar{x} = 0$  but  $b\bar{x} \neq 0$ . Notice the obvious fact  $\mathrm{Ann}(\bar{x}) \subseteq \mathrm{Ann}(b\bar{x})$ , but  $b\bar{x} \neq 0$  and by the maximality

of  $\operatorname{Ann}(\bar{x})$ ,  $\operatorname{Ann}(\bar{x}) = \operatorname{Ann}(b\bar{x})$ , then  $a \in \operatorname{Ann}(b\bar{x}) = \operatorname{Ann}(\bar{x}) \implies ax = 0$ , which is a contradiction, thus I is prime.

So, if  $M \neq 0$ , then we could pick  $\bar{x}$  such that  $\mathrm{Ann}(\bar{x})$  is a prime, and thus  $\mathrm{Ann}(\bar{x}) = \mathfrak{m}$ . Now,  $x\mathfrak{m} \subset \langle t \rangle = tR$ , so  $J \triangleq (x/t)\mathfrak{m} \subset R$  in the field of fractions.

- If J = R, then there exists  $y \in \mathfrak{m}$  so that  $xy/t = 1 \implies t = xy \in \mathfrak{m}^2$ , which is a contradiction to the definition of t.
- If  $J \neq R$ , then J is contained in the maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m}$ , so  $(x/t)\mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{m}$ . Since  $\mathfrak{m}$  is finitely generated,  $\mathfrak{m} = \langle y_1, \ldots, y_k \rangle$ . Then  $(x/t)y_i = \sum a_{i,j}y_j$ . Using the routine determinant trick,  $f(x/t)m = 0, \forall m \in \mathfrak{m} \implies f(x/t) = 0$  for some monic polynomial  $f \in R[x]$ . Then x/t is integral over R. But then  $x/t \in R$  since R normal, and thus  $x \in Rt$ , which contradicts how we picked x.

Thus  $\mathfrak{m} = \langle t \rangle$  is principal. Now, by the exercise problem,  $\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathfrak{m}^n = 0$ . So for each  $x \in R$ , there exists a unique k such that  $x \in \mathfrak{m}^k$  but  $x \notin \mathfrak{m}^{k+1}$ . Write  $x = t^k u$ , then  $u \notin \mathfrak{m}$  implies that u is a unit. One could easily see that this representation is actually unique.

Finally, define  $\nu(x) = k$ , one could easily check that this definition extends well to the field of fractions, so R is a DVR.

#### 6.8.3 Dedekind domains

**Def 128.** A Dedekind domain is a Noetherian normal domain of dim 1.

**Def 129.** Let R be an integral domain and  $K = \operatorname{Frac}(R)$ . A nonzero R-submodule I of K is called a fractional ideal of R if  $\exists 0 \neq a \in R$  s.t.  $aI \subset R$ .

**Eg 6.8.1.** If  $I = \langle f_1, \dots, f_n \rangle_R$ , a finitely generated R-module with  $f_i = \frac{a_i}{b_i} \in K$ , then  $a = b_1 b_2 \cdots b_n$  and  $aI \subset R \implies I$  is fractional.

In general, if R is a Noetherian, then every fractional ideal I of R is finitely generated.

**Def 130.** A fractional ideal I of R is invertible if  $\exists J$ : a fractional ideal of R s.t. IJ = R.

# Prop 6.8.5.

1. If I is invertible, then  $J = I^{-1}$  is unique and equal to  $J = (R : I) \triangleq \{a \in K \mid aI \subset R\}$ .

$$\textit{Proof. } J \subseteq (R:I) \subseteq (R:I) \\ R \subseteq (R:I) \\ IJ \subseteq R \\ J = J \implies J = (R:I) \\ \square$$

2. If I is invertible, then I is a finitely generated R-module.

Proof. If 
$$I(R:I) = R$$
 then  $1 = \sum_{i=0}^{k} x_i y_i$ , for some  $x_i \in I$  and  $y_i \in (R:I)$ . Then,  $\forall x \in I$ ,  $x = \sum_{i=0}^{k} \underbrace{(xy_i)}_{\in R} x_i$  Thus  $I = \langle x_0, \dots, x_k \rangle_R$ .

**Prop 6.8.6.** Let R be a local domain but not a field,  $K = \operatorname{Frac}(R)$ . Then R is a DVR  $\iff$  every nonzero fractional ideal I of R is invertible.

*Proof.* " $\Rightarrow$ ": Let I be fractional ideal of R, then  $\exists a \in R$  s.t.  $aI \subseteq R$ . Since R is a DVR which is not a field, the maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m} = \langle t \rangle$  for some  $t \neq 0$ . We know from proposition 6.8.3 that  $a = t^k u$  where u is a unit in R.

- If aI = R, then let  $J \triangleq \langle a \rangle_R$  and JI = R.
- If  $aI \neq R$ , then  $aI = \langle t^l \rangle$  again since R is DVR. Then  $I = \langle t^{l-k} \rangle$ , let  $J = \langle t^{k-l} \rangle$  and we have IJ = R.

"  $\Leftarrow$ ": First, for any  $I \subset R$ , which is obvious a fractional ideal, so I is invertible, and hence by proposition 6.8.5, I is finitely generated, thus R is Noetherian.

Let  $\mathfrak{m}$  be the unique maximal ideal, then if  $\mathfrak{m}^2 = \mathfrak{m}$ , since R Noetherian, by Nakayama's lemma,  $\mathfrak{m} = 0$ , which contradicts the fact that R is not a field.

Thus pick  $t \in \mathfrak{m} \setminus \mathfrak{m}^2$ . Consider  $t\mathfrak{m}^{-1}$  which is in R since  $t \in \mathfrak{m}$ . If  $t\mathfrak{m}^{-1} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$ , then  $t\mathfrak{m}^{-1}\mathfrak{m} = tR \subseteq \mathfrak{m}^2 \implies t \in \mathfrak{m}^2$ , which is a contradiction. So  $t\mathfrak{m}^{-1} = R \implies tR = \mathfrak{m}$ . Using the same construction  $\nu$  in proposition 6.8.4, R is a DVR.

## **Theorem 93.** Let R be an integral domain and $K = \operatorname{Frac}(R)$ . TFAE

- (a) R is a Dedekind domain.
- (b) R is Noetherian and  $R_P$  is a DVR for all  $P \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ .
- (c) Every nonzero fractional ideal of R is invertible.
- (d) Every nonzero proper ideal of R can be written (uniquely) as a product of powers of prime ideals.

Proof.

- (a) $\Leftrightarrow$ (b): Recall that R is a Dedekind domain if R is (1) Noetherian, (2) normal, (3) integral domain with (4) Dimension 1. And  $R_P$  is a DVR if it is a local Dedekind domain. All of these are guaranteed by proposition 6.6.1, where (4) is by the correspondence of prime ideals.
- (b) $\Leftrightarrow$ (c): We need a small lemma:

**Lemma 25.** If I is finitely generated, then  $(R_P:I_P)=(R:I)_P$ .

*Proof.* Notice that  $I_P$  is then a finitely generated  $R_P$ -module, and thus by example 6.8.1  $(R_P:I_P)$  is a fractional ideal. Then  $(R:I)_P=\{x\mid xI\subset R\}_P=\{x\mid xI_P\subset R_P\}=(R_P:I_P)$ .

By corollary 6.6.1, we have

$$\forall P \in \operatorname{Spec} R, \ R_P = I_P(R_P : I_P) = I_P(R : I)_P = (I(R : I))_P \iff I(R : I) = R.$$

Then use prop 6.8.6, done.

 $(a)(b)(c) \Rightarrow (d)$ :

**Existence:** Since R is Noetherian,  $I = q_1 \cap \cdots \cap q_n = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_n$ . Note that the intersection equals the product since if we let  $P_i \triangleq \sqrt{q_i}$ , then  $P_i \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ , and  $P_i \neq 0$  is always maximal, so  $P_i + P_j = R$ , which implies  $q_i + q_j = R$  (as in proposition 6.8.1).

Now, we shall prove that  $q_i = P_i^{k_i}$  for some  $k_i$ . By (b), each  $R_{P_i}$  is a DVR, which has primary ideals of the form  $\{\mathfrak{m}^k\}$ . By proposition 6.6.1, primary ideals are correspondent in localization, so  $(q_i)_{P_i} = \mathfrak{m}^k \iff q_i = P_i^k$ . Thus  $k_i = k$  is what we want. Then we could write  $I = P_1^{k_1} \cdots P_n^{k_n}$ .

**Uniqueness:** Actually, the factorization into product of invertible prime ideal is unique in any integral domain.

If  $P_1P_2\cdots P_k=Q_1Q_2\cdots Q_r$ , then  $P_1P_2\cdots P_k\subset Q_1$ , so there is one, say  $P_1\subset Q_1$ . Assume  $Q_1$  is the minimal among  $Q_i$ . Similarly we could find  $Q_i\subset P_1$ . But then  $Q_i\subseteq Q_1$ . Since

 $Q_i$  minimal,  $Q_i = Q_1$ . Now, since these ideals are invertible,  $P_2P_3\cdots P_k = Q_2Q_3\cdots Q_r$ . By induction, the proof is completed.

 $(d)\Rightarrow(c)$ :

**Lemma 26.** Let  $P_i$  be fractional ideals. If  $P_1P_2\cdots P_n=\langle a\rangle$  is principal, then  $P_i$  are invertible.

*Proof.* 
$$P_i^{-1}$$
 is actually  $a^{-1}P_1P_2\cdots P_{i-1}P_{i+1}\cdots P_n$ .

First we prove that p is maximal if p is prime and invertible.

<u>Claim</u>: For  $a \in R \setminus p$ , we have p + aR = R ( $\implies p$  is maximal).

If not, let  $p+aR=P_1\cdots P_k$  and  $p+a^2R=Q_1\cdots Q_r$  with  $a\notin p$ . Since  $P_i,Q_j\supset p$ , passing to the quotient R/p, we have  $\langle \bar{a}\rangle=\bar{P}_1\cdots\bar{P}_k,\, \langle \bar{a}^2\rangle=\bar{Q}_1\cdots\bar{Q}_r$ . Using the uniqueness of factorization, which only requires R/p to be an integral domain (which is the case) and  $\bar{P}_i,\bar{Q}_j$  be invertible (by lemma above), by  $\langle \bar{a}^2\rangle=\bar{P}_1^2\cdots\bar{P}_k^2=\bar{Q}_1\cdots\bar{Q}_r$ , we have 2k=r and we could assume  $Q_{2i-1}=Q_{2i}=P_i$ . This shows that  $p+a^2R=(p+aR)^2\subseteq p^2+aR$ . So  $p\subseteq p+a^2R\subseteq p^2+aR$ . Now, if  $x\in p,\,x=y+az$  for some  $y\in p^2,z\in R$ . Then  $az=x-y\in p$  but  $a\notin p$ , so  $z\in p$ . Thus we could refine the relation to  $p\subseteq p^2+ap$ . But then  $p\subseteq p(p+aR)$ , since p invertible,  $R\subseteq p+aR$  which implies that p+aR=R, which is a contradiction.

Now, we show that every prime ideal p is invertible. By the assumption, let  $a \in p$  and  $p \supseteq \langle a \rangle = P_1 \cdots P_k$ , by the lemma above, each  $P_i$  is invertible and thus maximal by the previous paragraph. Since  $P_1 \cdots P_k \subset p$ , we have  $P_i \subset p$  for some i, which implies  $P_i = p$  since  $P_i$  is maximal. Thus p is invertible.

Finally, since each ideal is the product of prime ideals, and we've just proved that prime ideals are invertible, any ideal are invertible. For a fractional ideal I,  $aI \subseteq R \implies \exists J$ ,  $aIJ = R \implies I(aJ) = R$ , which is to say that I is invertible.

# 7 Introduction to Homological Algebra

# 7.1 Projective, Injective and Flat modules (week 14)

Def 131.

- $M \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$  is **projective** if  $\mathrm{Hom}(M,\cdot)$  preserves the *right* exactness.
- $N \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$  is **injective** if  $\mathrm{Hom}(\cdot, N)$  preserves the *right* exactness.
- $M \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$  is flat if  $M \otimes \cdot$  preserves the *left* exactness.

# Fact 7.1.1.

 $\bullet \ \ M \ \text{is projective} \iff \underbrace{\begin{array}{c} \exists \ \tilde{f} \\ \downarrow f \\ M_2 \longrightarrow M_3 \longrightarrow 0 \\ 0 \longrightarrow M_1 \longrightarrow M_2 \\ \\ \bullet \ \ N \ \text{is injective} \iff \underbrace{\begin{array}{c} M \\ M_2 \longrightarrow M_3 \longrightarrow 0 \\ 0 \longrightarrow M_1 \longrightarrow M_2 \\ \\ g \downarrow \\ N \end{array}}_{\exists \ \tilde{g}}$ 

• free  $\implies$  projective: If  $X = \{x_i \mid i \in \Lambda\}$  and  $f : x_i \mapsto a_i$ . Since  $\beta$  onto, exists  $b_i$  so that  $\beta(b_i) = a_i$ . we can then set  $\tilde{f} : x_i \mapsto b_i$  by the universal property of free module.

$$F(X)$$

$$\downarrow^{\tilde{f}} \qquad \downarrow^{f}$$

$$M_2 \xrightarrow{\beta} M_3 \longrightarrow 0$$

• free  $\Longrightarrow$  flat: Let  $F \cong R^{\oplus \Lambda}$  be a free module, and  $M_1, M_2$  be two modules such that  $0 \to M_1 \to M_2$ . Since  $R \otimes_R M \cong M$ , we have

$$0 \to M_1 \to M_2 \qquad \text{exact}$$

$$\Longrightarrow 0 \to R \otimes M_1 \to R \otimes M_2 \qquad \text{exact}$$

$$\Longrightarrow 0 \to \bigoplus_{i \in \Lambda} R \otimes M_1 \to \bigoplus_{i \in \Lambda} R \otimes M_2 \qquad \text{exact}$$

$$\stackrel{\text{(a)}}{\Longrightarrow} 0 \to R^{\oplus \Lambda} \otimes M_1 \to R^{\oplus \Lambda} \otimes M_2 \qquad \text{exact}$$

$$\Longrightarrow 0 \to F \otimes M_1 \to F \otimes M_2 \qquad \text{exact}$$

Where (a) is by the fact that  $(A \oplus B) \otimes C \cong (A \otimes C) \oplus (B \otimes C)$ . Thus F flat.

• If S is a multiplication closed set in R with  $1 \in S$ , then

$$0 \to M \to N \to L \to 0 \implies 0 \to M_S \to N_S \to L_S \to 0.$$

We know that  $M_S \cong R_S \otimes_R M$ . So  $R_S$  is a flat R-module. e.g.  $\mathbb{Q}$  is a flat  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module.

For any  $M \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ , a projective module N such that  $N \to M \to 0$  could be easily found: Simply let N = F, a free module on the generating set of M.

Now we shall ask for any module M, does there exist  $N \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$  such that N is injective and  $0 \to M \to N$ ?

**Theorem 94** (Baer's criterion). N is injective  $\iff \forall I \subset R$ , and a homomorphism f, there exists a homomorphism h such that the following diagram commutes:

$$0 \longrightarrow I \longrightarrow R$$

$$f \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \\ N$$

*Proof.* " $\Rightarrow$ ": See I as an R module, then it is obvious by the definition of injective module.

"⇐: Consider the following diagram:

$$0 \longrightarrow M_1 \longrightarrow M_2$$

$$\downarrow^g$$

$$N$$

Let  $S \triangleq \{(M, \rho) \mid M_1 \subseteq M \subseteq M_2 \text{ and } \rho : M \to N \text{ extends } g\} \neq \emptyset \text{ since } (M_1, g) \in S.$ 

By the routinely proof using Zorn's lemma, exists a maximal element  $(M^*, \mu) \in S$ .

We claim that  $M^* = M_2$ . If not, pick  $a \in M_2 \setminus M^*$  and let  $M' \triangleq M^* + Ra \supseteq M^*$ ,  $I \triangleq \{r \in R \mid ra \in M^*\}$ . Define  $f: I \to N$  with  $r \mapsto \mu(ra)$ . Then we have an extension  $h: R \to N$  of f.

Now, let  $\mu': M' \to N = x + ra \mapsto \mu(x) + h(r)$ . We shall prove that this map is well-defined: If  $x_1 + r_1a = x_2 + r_2a$ , then  $(r_1 - r_2)a = x_2 - x_1 \in M \implies r_1 - r_2 \in I$ . So  $h(r_1) - h(r_2) = f(r_1 - r_2) = \mu((r_1 - r_2)a) = \mu(x_2) - \mu(x_1)$ , which prove  $\mu'$  is well defined, and the existence of  $\mu'$  contradicts the fact that  $(M^*, \mu)$  is maximal.

**Def 132.** M is **divisible** if  $\forall x \in M, r \in R \setminus \{0\}$ , there exists  $y \in M$  such that x = ry, i.e.  $rM = M \quad \forall r \in R \setminus \{0\}$ .

# Prop 7.1.1.

1. Every injective module N over an integral domain is divisible.

Proof. For any  $x_0 \in N$  and  $r_0 \in R \setminus \{0\}$ . Let  $I = \langle r_0 \rangle \subset R$ . As long as R is an integral domain,  $I \cong R$  as an R-module, so the R-module homomorphism  $f: I \to N = rr_0 \mapsto rx_0$  is well-defined. Since N is injective, this map extends to  $h: R \to N$ . Let  $y_0 \triangleq h(1)$ , then  $r_0y_0 = r_0h(1) = h(r_0) = x_0$ . Thus N is divisible.

2. Every divisible module N over an PID is injective.

*Proof.* For any  $I \subseteq R$  and a homomorphism  $f: I \to N$ , if I = 0 then  $h = x \mapsto 0$  is always an extension of f. So assume  $I \neq 0$ . Since R is a PID,  $I = \langle r_0 \rangle$  for some  $r_0 \neq 0 \in R$ . By the fact that N divisible, exists  $y_0 \in N$  such that  $r_0 y_0 = x_0 \triangleq f(r_0)$ .

Now we could define  $h: R \to N$  by  $1 \mapsto y_0$ . Then  $h(r_0) = r_0 h(1) = r_0 y_0 = x_0$ , thus h is an extension of f and N is injective.

3. If R is a PID, then any quotient N of an injective R-module M is injective.

*Proof.* By 2., rM=M for any  $r\neq 0$ , thus rN=N for any  $r\neq 0$ , and hence N is injective.

**Theorem 95.** For any  $M \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ , there exists an injective module N containing M.

Proof.

# Case 1: $R = \mathbb{Z}$ .

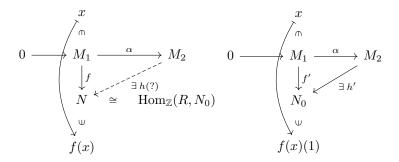
Let  $X = \{x_i\}_{i \in \Lambda}$  be a generating set for M and F is free on X. Let f be the natural map from F to M, then  $M \cong F/\ker f$ .

Define  $F' = \bigoplus_{i \in \Lambda} \mathbb{Q}e_i \supset F$ , which is obviously a divisible  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module. Then  $M \subseteq F' / \ker f \triangleq M'$ , where M' is injective by proposition 7.1.1.

## Case 2: R arbitrary.

We can regard any M as a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module, then there exists an injective module  $N_0 \supset M$ . Now, we have an R-module  $N \triangleq \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R, N_0)$  with multiplication  $rf \triangleq x \mapsto f(xr)$ .

We claim that N is injective. For any  $f: M_1 \to N$ , and a homomorphism  $\alpha: M_1 \to M_2$ , first we can regard  $\alpha$  as a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module homomorphism, then we define  $f': M_1 \to N_0$  as  $x \mapsto f(x)(1)$ . Since  $N_0$  injective (in  $\mathbf{Mod}_{\mathbb{Z}}$ ), there exists a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module homomorphism h' from  $M_2$  to  $N_0$ .



Now, define

$$h: M_2 \longrightarrow N$$

$$y \longmapsto h(y): R \longrightarrow N_0$$

$$1 \longmapsto h'(y)$$

$$r \longmapsto h'(ry)$$

We check that h is well-defined.

- $h(y) \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R, N_0)$  $h(y)(r_1 + r_2) = h'((r_1 + r_2)y) = h'(r_1y + r_2y) = h'(r_1y) + h'(r_2y) = h(y)(r_1) + h(y)(r_1)$
- $h \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M_2, N)$

$$h(r_1y_1 + y_2)(r) = h'(r(r_1y_1 + y_2)) = h'(rr_1y_1 + ry_2)$$

$$= h'(rr_1y_1) + h'(ry_2)$$

$$= h(y)(rr_1) + h(y_2)(r)$$

$$= (r_1h(y))(r) + h(y_2)(r)$$

• Show diagram commute  $f = h \circ \alpha$ . Fix  $y \in M_1$ , then  $\forall r \in R$ :

$$(h \circ \alpha)(y)(r) = h(\alpha(y))(r) = h'(r\alpha(y))$$
$$= h'(\alpha(ry)) = f'(ry)$$
$$= f(ry)(1) = rf(y)(1)$$
$$= f(y)(r)$$

Thus N injective.

Now, notice that  $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R,\cdot)$  is a left exact functor, so  $M \hookrightarrow N_0$  implies  $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R,M) \hookrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R,N_0)$ , thus  $M \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(R,M) \hookrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R,M) \hookrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R,N_0) = N$ .

# **Prop 7.1.2.** TFAE

- 1. M is projective.
- 2. Every exact sequence  $0 \to M_1 \to M_2 \to M \to 0$  split.

3.  $\exists M'$  s.t.  $M \oplus M' \cong F$ : free.

Proof.

 $(1) \Rightarrow (2)$ : Since M projective, the map  $\lambda$  with  $\beta \circ \lambda = \text{Id}$  exists in the following diagram:

$$M_2 \xrightarrow{\exists \lambda \qquad \qquad \downarrow \text{Id}} M \longrightarrow 0$$

Then  $\lambda$  is a lifting, so  $M_2 \cong M_1 \oplus M$  and  $0 \to M_1 \to M_2 \to M \to 0$  split.

(2)  $\Rightarrow$  (3): Let F be a free module on a generating set of M, and  $\beta$  ::  $F \to M$  be the natural map, then  $0 \to \ker \beta \to F \to M \to 0$  split, so  $F \cong \ker \beta \oplus M$ .

(3)  $\Rightarrow$  (1): For any  $M_2 \to M_3 \to 0$ , since  $M' \oplus M$  free and thus projective,  $\lambda'$  exists in the following diagram:

$$0 \longrightarrow M' \longrightarrow M' \oplus M \xrightarrow{\mu} M \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\exists \lambda'} \qquad \downarrow^{f}$$

$$M_{2} \xrightarrow{\beta} M_{3} \longrightarrow 0$$

Define  $\lambda = \lambda' \circ \mu$ . Then  $\beta \circ \lambda = \beta \circ \lambda' \circ \mu = f \circ \pi \circ \mu = f$ .

# **Prop 7.1.3.** TFAE

- 1. M is injective.
- 2. Each exact sequence  $0 \to M \to M_2 \to M_3 \to 0$  split.

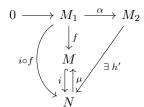
*Proof.* (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2): Similar to the projective case,  $\mu$  exists in the following diagram:

$$0 \longrightarrow M \xrightarrow{\alpha} M_2$$
 
$$\downarrow^{\operatorname{Id}}_{\mathbb{K}} \exists \mu$$
 
$$M$$

So  $M_2 = M \oplus M_3$ .

 $(2) \Rightarrow (1)$ : By theorem 95, there is an injective module N s.t.  $M \hookrightarrow N$ .

Consider  $0 \longrightarrow M \xrightarrow[\exists \mu]{i} N \longrightarrow \operatorname{coker} i \longrightarrow 0$  split exact and  $\mu \circ i = \operatorname{Id}_M$ . Since N injective, h' exists in the following diagram:



Let  $h = \mu \circ h'$ , then  $h \circ \alpha = \mu \circ h' \circ \alpha = \mu \circ i \circ f = f$ .

**Prop 7.1.4.** projective  $\implies$  flat.

*Proof.* Observe that  $\bigoplus_{i \in \Lambda} M_i$  is flat if and only if  $M_i$  is flat for each i, since if  $0 \to N_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha} N_2$  exact, then

$$0 \longrightarrow (\bigoplus M_i) \otimes N_1 \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \alpha} (\bigoplus M_i) \otimes N_2$$

$$\parallel \qquad \qquad \parallel$$

$$0 \longrightarrow \bigoplus (M_i \otimes N_1) \xrightarrow{\oplus (1 \otimes \alpha)} \bigoplus (M_i \otimes N_2)$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$0 \longrightarrow M_i \otimes N_1 \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \alpha} M_i \otimes N_2 \qquad \forall i \in \Lambda$$

If M is projective, then by proposition 7.1.2  $\exists M'$  such that  $M \oplus M' \cong F$  is free. Since free implies flat, by above, M is flat.

## Def 133.

• A chain complex  $C_{\bullet}$  of R-modules is a sequence and maps:

$$C_{\bullet}: \cdots \to C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} C_n \xrightarrow{d_n} C_{n-1} \to \cdots \to C_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} C_0 \to 0$$

with  $d_n \circ d_{n+1} = 0$ ,  $\forall n$ . (i.e.  $\operatorname{Im} d_{n+1} \subseteq \ker d_n$ )

Then define

- $-Z_n(C_{\bullet}) \triangleq \ker d_n$  is the *n*-cycle.
- $-B_n(C_{\bullet}) \triangleq \operatorname{Im} d_{n+1}$  is the *n*-boundary.
- $-H_n(C_{\bullet}) \triangleq Z_n(C_{\bullet})/B_n(C_{\bullet})$  is called the *n*-th homology.
- A cochain complex  $C^{\bullet}$  of R-modules is a sequence and maps:

$$C^{\bullet}: 0 \to C^0 \xrightarrow{d^1} C^1 \to \cdots \to C^{n-1} \xrightarrow{d^n} C^n \xrightarrow{d^{n+1}} C^{n+1} \to \cdots$$

with  $d^{n+1} \circ d^n = 0$ ,  $\forall n$ . (i.e. Im  $d^n \subseteq \ker d^{n+1}$ )

Then define

- $-Z^n(C^{\bullet}) \triangleq \ker d^{n+1}$  is the *n*-cocycle.
- $-B^n(C^{\bullet}) \triangleq \operatorname{Im} d^n$  is the *n*-coboundary.
- $-H^n(C^{\bullet}) \triangleq Z^n(C^{\bullet})/B^n(C^{\bullet})$  is called the *n*-th cohomology.
- $\varphi: C_{\bullet} \to \tilde{C}_{\bullet}$  is a chain map if the following diagram commutes:

$$\cdots \longrightarrow C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} C_n \xrightarrow{d_n} C_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots$$

$$\downarrow^{\varphi_{n+1}} \qquad \downarrow^{\varphi_n} \qquad \downarrow^{\varphi_{n-1}}$$

$$\cdots \longrightarrow \tilde{C}_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\tilde{d}_{n+1}} \tilde{C}_n \xrightarrow{\tilde{d}_n} \tilde{C}_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots$$

Observe that  $\varphi_n(\ker d_n) \subseteq \ker \tilde{d}_n$  and  $\varphi_n(\operatorname{Im} d_{n+1}) \subseteq \operatorname{Im} \tilde{d}_{n+1}$ . This will induce the following maps:

$$\varphi_*: H_n(C_{\bullet}) \to H_n(\tilde{C}_{\bullet})$$
  
 $x + B_n(C_{\bullet}) \mapsto \varphi_n(x) + B_n(\tilde{C}_{\bullet})$ 

•  $f: C_{\bullet} \to \tilde{C}_{\bullet}$  is null homotopic if  $\exists s_n: C_n \to \tilde{C}_{n+1}$  s.t.  $f_n = \tilde{d}_{n+1} \circ s_n + s_{n-1} \circ d_n, \quad \forall n$ .

$$\cdots \longrightarrow C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} C_n \xrightarrow{d_n} C_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots$$

$$\downarrow^{f_{n+1}} \searrow^{s_n} \downarrow^{f_n} \downarrow^{f_{n-1}} \downarrow^{f_{n-1}}$$

$$\cdots \longrightarrow \tilde{C}_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} \tilde{C}_n \xrightarrow{d_n} \tilde{C}_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots$$

**Prop 7.1.5.** If f is null homotopic, then  $f_* = 0$ .

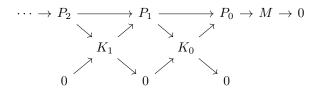
Proof. 
$$f_*(x) = \tilde{d}_{n+1}s_n(x) + s_{n-1}d_n(x) = \tilde{d}_{n+1}s_n(x) \in B_n(\tilde{C}_{\bullet}) \implies f_*(\bar{x}) = 0.$$

- Two chain map  $f, g: C_{\bullet} \to \tilde{C}_{\bullet}$  are homotopic if f-g is null homotopic.  $(f_* = g_*)$
- Let  $M \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ . A projection resolution of M is an exact sequence:

$$\cdots \to P_2 \xrightarrow{d_2} P_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} P_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \to 0$$

where  $P_i$  is projective for all i.

For any M, projection resolution always exists. Let  $P_0$  be a free module on the generators of M. We get  $P_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \to 0$ . Similarly, let  $P_1$  be free on  $\ker \alpha$ , then we could extend the map to  $P_1 \to P_0 \to M \to 0$ . Continue the process we would get a diagram as below, where  $K_i$  are the kernels:



**Theorem 96** (Comparison theorem). Given two chain as following:

$$\cdots \longrightarrow P_2 \xrightarrow{d_2} P_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} P_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \longrightarrow 0 \qquad \text{(projective resolution)}$$

$$\downarrow \exists f_2 \qquad \downarrow \exists f_1 \qquad \downarrow \exists f_0 \qquad \downarrow f$$

$$\cdots \longrightarrow \tilde{C}_2 \xrightarrow{d'_2} \tilde{C}_1 \xrightarrow{d'_1} \tilde{C}_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha'} N \longrightarrow 0 \qquad \text{(exact sequence)}$$

Then  $\exists f_i : P_i \to C_i$  s.t.  $\{f_i\}$  forms a chain map making the completed diagram commutes. And any two such chain maps are homotopic.

*Proof.* Using induction on n.

For n = 0, the existence of  $f_0$  is guaranteed by the definition of projective module.

$$P_0$$

$$\downarrow^{f \circ \alpha}$$

$$C_0 \longrightarrow N \longrightarrow 0$$

For n > 0, we claim that  $f_{n-1}d_n(P_n) \subseteq \operatorname{Im} d'_n$ , since  $d'_{n-1}f_{n-1}d_n(x) = f_{n-2}d_{n-1}d_n(x) = 0$  and by the fact that C is exact,  $f_{n-1}d_n(x) \in \ker d'_{n-1} = \operatorname{Im} d'_n$ . So using the diagram and again by the definition of projective module,  $f_n$  exists.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
P_n \\
\downarrow f_{n-1} \circ d_n \\
C_n & \longrightarrow \operatorname{Im} d'_n & \longrightarrow
\end{array}$$

Now, for another chain map  $\{g_i: P_i \to C_i\}$ , we shall construct suitable  $\{s_n\}$  to prove they are homotopic. For  $s_{-1}: M \to C_0$  we could simply pick the zero map. Again, if we could prove that  $\operatorname{Im}(g_n - f_n - s_{n-1}d_n) \subset \ker d'_n$ , then by the definition of projective module, we would obtain  $s_n$  with

$$d_{n+1}s_n = g_n - f_n - s_{n-1}d_n \implies g_n - f_n = d_{n+1}s_n + s_{n-1}d_n$$

immediately. For this we calculate  $d'_n(g_n - f_n - s_{n-1}d_n) = g_{n-1}d_n - f_{n-1}d_n - d'_ns_{n-1}d_n$ . Notice that  $d'_ns_{n-1} = g_{n-1} - f_{n-1} - s_{n-2}d_{n-1}$ , and with  $d_{n-1}d_n = 0$ , we get  $d'_n(g_n - f_n - s_{n-1}d_n) = 0$ .  $\square$ 

**Def 134.** Let  $M \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$  and  $\cdots \to P_2 \xrightarrow{d_2} P_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} P_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \to 0$  be a projective resolution of M. Fix  $N \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ . Applying  $\mathrm{Hom}_R(\cdot, N)$  will get a complex:

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N) \xrightarrow{\bar{\alpha}} \operatorname{Hom}_R(P_0,N) \xrightarrow{\bar{d}_1} \operatorname{Hom}_R(P_1,N) \to \cdots$$

Define

- $\operatorname{Ext}_R^0(M,N) = \ker \bar{d}_1 = \operatorname{Im} \bar{\alpha} \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N).$
- $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(M, N) = H^{n}(\operatorname{Hom}(P_{\bullet}, N)), \quad \forall n \geq 1.$

**Theorem 97** (Indenpedency of the choice of projective resolutions).  $\operatorname{Ext}^n(M,N)$  is independent of the choice of the projective resolution used.

*Proof.* First, consider two projective resolutions of  $M, \tilde{M}$ , and map  $f: M \to \tilde{M}$ , and two liftings  $\{f_i\}, \{g_i\}$ . Use  $\bar{\cdot}$  to denote the natural transformation from  $X \to Y$  to  $\text{Hom}(Y, N) \to \text{Hom}(X, N)$  by  $\bar{f} \triangleq g \mapsto g \circ f$ . Then we shall prove that  $\bar{f_{\bullet}}^* = \bar{g_{\bullet}}^*$ , which is to say  $\bar{f_{\bullet}}^*$  is independent of the lifting used.

By comparison theorem (96),  $\{f_i\}, \{g_i\}$  are homotopic, and we could write down the diagram below:

$$\cdots \longrightarrow P_2 \xrightarrow{d_2} P_1 \xrightarrow{d_1} P_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow f_2 \downarrow g_2 \qquad \downarrow f_1 \downarrow g_1 \qquad \downarrow f_0 \downarrow g_0 \qquad \downarrow f$$

$$\cdots \longrightarrow \tilde{P}_2 \xrightarrow{\tilde{d}_2} \tilde{P}_1 \xrightarrow{\tilde{d}_1} \tilde{P}_0 \xrightarrow{\tilde{\alpha}} \tilde{M} \longrightarrow 0$$

Notice that  $\bar{f}$  act linearly, that is,  $\overline{f+g}=\bar{f}+\bar{g}$ , and  $\overline{fg}=\bar{g}\bar{f}$ . So we have

$$g_n - f_n = s_{n-1}d_n + \tilde{d}_{n+1}s_n \implies \bar{g}_n - \bar{f}_n = \bar{d}_n\bar{s}_{n-1} + \bar{s}_n\bar{d}_{n+1}$$

and  $\bar{f}_n, \bar{g}_n$  are homotopic. Thus by proposition 7.1.5,  $\bar{f}_{\bullet}^* = \bar{g}_{\bullet}^*$ .

Now, let  $P_{\bullet}, P'_{\bullet}$  be two projective resolutions. Consider the diagram:

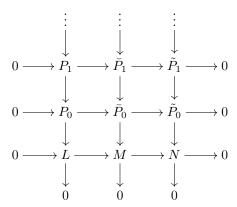
$$\begin{array}{cccc}
& \cdots \longrightarrow P_1 \longrightarrow P_0 \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0 \\
& & \operatorname{Id} \left\langle \downarrow f_1 & \operatorname{Id} \left\langle \downarrow f_0 & \downarrow \operatorname{Id} \right. \\
& \cdots \longrightarrow P'_1 \longrightarrow P'_0 \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0 \\
& & \downarrow g_0 & \downarrow \operatorname{Id} \\
& \cdots \longrightarrow P_1 \longrightarrow P_0 \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0
\end{array}$$

Then  $g_i \circ f_i$  and Id are two liftings, and thus by previous we have  $\bar{g}_i^* \circ \bar{f}_i^* = \text{Id}^*$ . By symmetry,  $\bar{f}_i^* \circ \bar{g}_i^* = \text{Id}^*$ , which means that the homology calculated using different resolution are isomorphic.

**Theorem 98** (Horseshoe Lemma). Given  $0 \to L \to M \to N \to 0$  and projective resolutions  $P_{\bullet} \to L \to 0$ ,  $\tilde{P}_{\bullet} \to N \to 0$ . Then there is a projective resolution for M such that the following

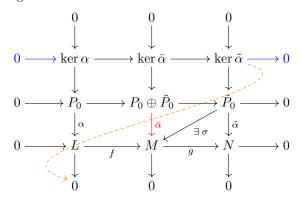
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diagram commutes:



*Proof.* Let  $\bar{P}_n \triangleq P_n \oplus \tilde{P}_n$ .  $\bar{P}_n$  is projective by the fact that direct sum of projective modules are projective. Also  $0 \to P_n \to P_n \oplus \tilde{P}_n \to \tilde{P}_n \to 0$  by injection and projection. It remains to show that the maps in the middle column exists.

Consider the following diagram:



 $\sigma$  exists because  $\tilde{P}_0$  is projective. Define

$$\bar{\alpha}: P_0 \oplus \tilde{P}_0 \longrightarrow M$$

$$(z,y) \longmapsto f \circ \alpha(z) + \sigma(y)$$

It easy to see that  $\bar{\alpha}$  let the diagram commutes. So we show that  $P_0 \oplus \tilde{P}_0 \xrightarrow{\bar{\alpha}} M \to 0$ :

For any  $x \in M$ , consider  $g(x) \in N$ . Since  $\tilde{P}_0 \xrightarrow{\tilde{\alpha}} N \to 0$ , there exists  $y \in \tilde{P}_0$  such that  $\tilde{\alpha}(y) = g(x) \implies g \circ \sigma(y) = g(x)$ . Then  $x - \sigma(y) = \ker g = \operatorname{Im} f$ , so there exists  $w \in L$  such that  $f(w) + \sigma(y) = x$ . Now, since  $P_0 \xrightarrow{\tilde{\alpha}} L \to 0$ , there exists  $z \in P_0$  such that  $\alpha(z) = w$ . Then we have  $\bar{\alpha}(z,y) = x$ . So  $P_0 \oplus \tilde{P}_0 \xrightarrow{\bar{\alpha}} M \to 0$ .

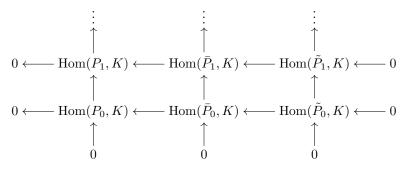
Now apply the snake lemma, we can obtain  $0 \to \ker \alpha \to \ker \bar{\alpha} \to \ker \bar{\alpha} \to 0$ .

Use  $d_{-1} \triangleq \alpha$  and so on, we can do induction on n by using  $\ker d_{n-1}$ ,  $\ker \bar{d}_{n-1}$ ,  $\ker \bar{d}_{n-1}$  to replace L, M, N. Then we are done.

**Theorem 99** (Long exact sequence for Ext). If  $0 \to L \to M \to N \to 0$  exact, then there is a long exact sequence:

$$\begin{split} 0 \to \operatorname{Hom}(N,K) &\to \operatorname{Hom}(M,K) \to \operatorname{Hom}(L,K) \\ &\to \operatorname{Ext}^1(N,K) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1(M,K) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1(L,K) \to \operatorname{Ext}^2(N,K) \to \dots \end{split}$$

*Proof.* Taking  $\operatorname{Hom}(-,K)$  in the diagram of Horseshoe lemma (98) and delete the first row, we get



Notice that  $\operatorname{Hom}(M \oplus N, K) \cong \operatorname{Hom}(M, K) \oplus \operatorname{Hom}(N, K)$ , so each row is indeed exact.

By exercise 14.7, the long exact sequence in the statement exists. (one can check the kernels of the first row are indeed Hom(N,K), Hom(M,K), Hom(L,K).)

# 7.2 Ext and Tor (week 15)

Given  $M, N \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ , there are two ways to define  $\mathrm{Ext}^n(M, N)$ :

Def 135 (Ext functor).

- Find any projective resolution  $P_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \to 0$ , and let  $P_M : P_{\bullet} \to 0$  (called a deleted resolution). We can define  $\operatorname{Ext}^n_{\operatorname{proj}}(M,N) = H^n(\operatorname{Hom}(P_M,N))$ .
- Find any injective resolution  $0 \xrightarrow{\alpha} N \to E^{\bullet}$ , and let  $E_N : 0 \to E^{\bullet}$ . We can define  $\operatorname{Ext}_{\operatorname{inj}}^n(M,N) = H^n(\operatorname{Hom}(M,E_N))$ .

**Prop 7.2.1.**  $\operatorname{Ext}^0_{\operatorname{proj}}(M,N) \cong \operatorname{Ext}^0_{\operatorname{inj}}(M,N) \cong \operatorname{Hom}(M,N).$ 

Proof.

$$\operatorname{Hom}(P_M,N): 0 \xrightarrow{\overline{d_0}} \operatorname{Hom}(P_0,N) \xrightarrow{\overline{d_1}} \operatorname{Hom}(P_1,N) \to \cdots$$
so  $\operatorname{Ext}^0_{\operatorname{proj}}(M,N) = \ker \overline{d_1} / \operatorname{im} \overline{d_0} = \ker \overline{d_1} = \operatorname{im} \alpha = \operatorname{Hom}(M,N).$ 

Similarly,  $\operatorname{Ext}_{\operatorname{inj}}^0(M, N) = \operatorname{Hom}(M, N)$ .

## Lemma 27.

- If M is projective, then  $\operatorname{Ext}_{\operatorname{proj}}^n(M,N)=0$  for all  $n>0, N\in\operatorname{\mathbf{Mod}}_R$ .
- If N is injective, then  $\operatorname{Ext}_{\operatorname{inj}}^n(M,N)=0$  for all  $n>0, M\in\operatorname{\mathbf{Mod}}_R.$

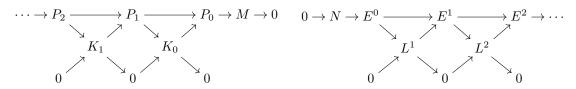
*Proof.* If M is projective, then  $0 \to M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{1}_M} M \to 0$  is a projective resolution of M. Its deleted resolution is then  $P_M: 0 \to M \to 0$ . Hence for n > 0,  $\operatorname{Ext}^n_{\operatorname{proj}}(M, N) = H^n(\operatorname{Hom}(P_M, N)) = 0$ .

The argument applies similarly to injective case.

Theorem 100 (Equivalence of Ext<sub>proj</sub> and Ext<sub>inj</sub>).

$$\operatorname{Ext}^n_{\operatorname{proj}}(M,N) \cong \operatorname{Ext}^n_{\operatorname{inj}}(M,N).$$

*Proof.* Let  $P_{\bullet} \to M \to 0$  and  $0 \to N \to E^{\bullet}$  be projective and injective resolutions, then we have  $0 \to K_0 \to P_0 \to M \to 0$  and  $0 \to N \to E^0 \to L^1 \to 0$  exact.



We can construct long exact sequences of homology of  $\operatorname{Hom}(\cdot, E_N)$ :

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}(M,N) \to \operatorname{Hom}(M,E^0) \to \operatorname{Hom}(M,L^1) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{inj}}(M,N) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{inj}}(M,E^0) = 0$$
 
$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}(P_0,N) \to \operatorname{Hom}(P_0,E^0) \to \operatorname{Hom}(P_0,L^1) \to 0$$
 
$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}(K_0,N) \to \operatorname{Hom}(K_0,E^0) \to \operatorname{Hom}(K_0,L^1) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{inj}}(K_0,N) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{inj}}(K_0,E^0) = 0$$

The second sequence is short because  $P_0$  is projective (so  $\text{Hom}(P_0,\cdot)$  preserves exactness). Similarly, for  $\text{Hom}(P_M,\cdot)$  we have:

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}(M,N) \to \operatorname{Hom}(P_0,N) \to \operatorname{Hom}(K_0,N) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{proj}}(M,N) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{proj}}(P_0,N) = 0$$

$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}(M, E^0) \to \operatorname{Hom}(P_0, E^0) \to \operatorname{Hom}(K_0, E^0) \to 0$$
$$0 \to \operatorname{Hom}(M, L^1) \to \operatorname{Hom}(P_0, L^1) \to \operatorname{Hom}(K_0, L^1) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{proj}}(M, L^1) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{proj}}(P_0, L^1) = 0$$

Combining these sequences together, we got the following 2D diagram:

By Snake lemma, there is an exact sequence

$$(\ker \alpha \to) \ker \beta \to \ker \gamma \to \operatorname{coker} \alpha \to \operatorname{coker} \beta (\to \operatorname{coker} \gamma)$$

and this reads

$$\operatorname{Hom}(M, E^0) \xrightarrow{\phi} \operatorname{Hom}(M, L^1) \to \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{proj}}(M, N) \to 0$$

Thus  $\operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{proj}}(M,N) \cong \operatorname{coker} \phi \cong \operatorname{Ext}^1_{\operatorname{inj}}(M,N)$ . (From now on, we don't need to distinguish proj/inj for  $\operatorname{Ext}^1$ !)

Since  $\sigma$  is onto, im  $\gamma = \operatorname{im}(\gamma \circ \sigma)$ . Similarly, im  $\tau = \operatorname{im}(\tau \circ \beta)$ .

By the commutativity of the diagram, im  $\gamma = \text{im } \tau$ , so

$$\operatorname{Ext}^1(K_0, N) \cong \operatorname{coker} \gamma = \operatorname{Hom}(K_0, L^1) / \operatorname{im} \gamma \cong \operatorname{coker} \tau \cong \operatorname{Ext}^1(M, L^1).$$

Write  $K_{-1} := M, L^0 := N$ , then  $\operatorname{Ext}^1(K_0, L^0) = \operatorname{Ext}^1(K_{-1}, L^1)$  (\*).

Similarly, from the exact sequences

$$0 \to K_i \to P_i \to K_{i-1} \to 0$$

$$0 \to L^i \to E^i \to L^{i+1} \to 0$$

, we can obtain  $\operatorname{Ext}^1(K_i, L^i) \cong \operatorname{Ext}^1(K_{i-1}, L^{i+1})$  for  $i, j \geq 0$ .

Now, observe that

$$0 \to L^{n-1} \to E^{n-1} \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}} E^n \xrightarrow{d_n} \cdots$$

is an injective resolution of  $L^{n-1}$ , and  $\operatorname{Ext}^1(M, L^{n-1}) \cong \ker \overline{d_n} / \operatorname{im} \overline{d_{n-1}} \cong \operatorname{Ext}^n_{\operatorname{inj}}(M, N)$ . Similarly, for projective resolution we have  $\operatorname{Ext}^1(K_{n-2}, N) \cong \operatorname{Ext}^n_{\operatorname{proj}}(M, N)$ . Finally, by  $(\star)$ ,

$$\operatorname{Ext}_{\operatorname{inj}}^n(M,N) \cong \operatorname{Ext}^1(K_{-1},L^{n-1}) \cong \operatorname{Ext}^1(K_0,L^{n-2}) \cong \cdots \cong \operatorname{Ext}^1(K_{n-2},L^0) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{\operatorname{proj}}^n(M,N).$$

**Def 136** (Tor functor). Let  $M, N \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ , and  $P_{\bullet} \to M \to 0$  be a projective resolution of M, similar to the Ext case, for  $n \ge 0$  we can define

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n(M,N) = H_n(P_M \otimes N).$$

**Fact 7.2.1.** By Horseshoe lemma, short exact sequence  $0 \to M_1 \to M_2 \to M_3 \to 0$  induces a long exact sequence:

$$\cdots \to \operatorname{Tor}_1(M_1,N) \to \operatorname{Tor}_1(M_2,N) \to \operatorname{Tor}_1(M_3,N) \to M_1 \otimes N \to M_2 \otimes N \to M_3 \otimes N \to 0$$

**Prop 7.2.2.** If M is flat, then  $Tor_n(M, N) = 0$  for  $n > 0, N \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ .

*Proof.* M is flat  $\Longrightarrow M \otimes \cdot$  is an exact functor. If  $Q_{\bullet} \to N \to 0$  is a projective resolution of N, then  $\cdots \to M \otimes Q_1 \to M \otimes Q_0 \to M \otimes N \to 0$  is also exact. By Exercise 15-1, we have

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n(M,N) \cong H_n(M \otimes Q_N) = 0.$$

**Theorem 101** (Tor for flat resolutions). Let  $U_{\bullet} \to M \to 0$  be a flat resolution of M, then for  $n \ge 0$ ,

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n(M,N) \cong H_n(U_M \otimes N).$$

Proof.

$$\cdots \to U_2 \xrightarrow{\qquad} U_1 \xrightarrow{\qquad} U_0 \to M \to 0$$

$$W_1 \xrightarrow{\qquad} W_0$$

$$0$$

$$H_{\bullet}(U_M \otimes N) : \cdots \to U_2 \otimes N \xrightarrow{d_2 \otimes \mathbf{1}} U_1 \otimes N \xrightarrow{d_1 \otimes \mathbf{1}} U_0 \otimes N \to 0$$

• n = 0: Since tensor is right exact,  $U_1 \otimes N \xrightarrow{d_1 \otimes 1} U_0 \otimes N \xrightarrow{\alpha \otimes 1} M \otimes N \to 0$  is exact. Hence

$$H_0(U_M \otimes N) = (U_0 \otimes N) / \operatorname{im}(d_1 \otimes \mathbf{1}) = (U_0 \otimes N) / \ker(\alpha \otimes \mathbf{1}) \cong M \otimes N$$

Any projective resolution also has this property, so  $Tor_0(M, N) = H_0(U_M \otimes N)$ .

• n=1:  $0 \to W_0 \to U_0 \to M \to 0$  induces a long exact sequence:

$$\cdots \to \operatorname{Tor}_1(W_0,N) \to 0 \to \operatorname{Tor}_1(M,N) \to W_0 \otimes N \xrightarrow{i \otimes 1} U_0 \otimes N \to M \otimes N \to 0$$

where  $\operatorname{Tor}_1(U_0, N) = 0$  because  $U_0$  is flat. We can see that  $\operatorname{Tor}_1(M, N) \cong \ker(i \otimes 1)$ .



Since  $\alpha' \otimes 1$  is onto,  $W_0 \otimes N \cong (U_1 \otimes N) / \ker(\alpha' \otimes 1)$ . Also,  $x \in \ker(d_1 \otimes 1) \iff (d_1 \otimes 1)(x) = 0 \iff (\alpha' \otimes 1)(x) \in \ker(i \otimes 1)$ , so  $\ker(i \otimes 1) = (\alpha' \otimes 1)(\ker(d_1 \otimes 1)) \cong \ker(d_1 \otimes 1) / \ker(\alpha' \otimes 1)$ .  $(\alpha' \otimes 1)$  can be considered a quotient map, then  $\ker(d_1 \otimes 1)$  descends to  $\ker(d_1 \otimes 1) / \ker(\alpha' \otimes 1)$ .

Now, in the diagram  $W_1 \otimes N \to U_1 \otimes N \to W_0 \otimes N \to 0$  exact, so  $\ker(\alpha' \otimes 1) = \operatorname{im}(j \otimes 1)$ . But  $\beta' \otimes 1$  is onto, thus  $\operatorname{im}(j \otimes 1) = \operatorname{im}(d_2 \otimes 1)$ .

Finally,

 $\operatorname{Tor}_1(M,N) \cong \ker(i \otimes 1) \cong \ker(d_1 \otimes 1) / \ker(\alpha' \otimes 1) = \ker(d_1 \otimes 1) / \operatorname{im}(d_2 \otimes 1) = H_1(U_M \otimes N).$ 

•  $n \ge 2$ :

Let's see further in the previous long exact sequences:

$$\cdots \to \operatorname{Tor}_2(W_0, N) \to 0 \to \operatorname{Tor}_2(M, N) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Tor}_1(W_0, N) \to 0 \to \operatorname{Tor}_1(M, N) \to \cdots$$

we can see that  $\operatorname{Tor}_n(M,N) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_{n-1}(W_0,N)$  for  $n \geq 2$ .

Now,

$$\cdots U_3 \xrightarrow{d_3} U_2 \xrightarrow{d_2} U_1 \to W_0 \to 0$$

is a flat resolution of  $W_0$ , and its homology is  $H_{n-1}(U_{W_0} \otimes N) = \ker(d_n \otimes 1)/\operatorname{im}(d_{n-1} \otimes 1) = H_n(U_M \otimes N)$ .

By induction, assume it's true for n-1, then

$$H_n(U_M \otimes N) = H_{n-1}(U_{W_0} \otimes N) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_{n-1}(W_0, N) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_n(M, N).$$

Eg 7.2.1.  $R = \mathbb{Z}, M = \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$  with  $m \geq 2$ . Then

$$P: 0 \to \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{m} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{/m\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z} \to 0$$

is a projective resolution of  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$ . So for any  $N \in \mathbf{Mod}_{\mathbb{Z}}$ ,

$$H^n(\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(P_{\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}},N)):0\to\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z},N)\xrightarrow{\overline{m}}\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z},N)\to 0,$$

$$\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{0}(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}, N) = \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}, N) \cong {}_{m}N := \{a \in N \mid ma = 0\}$$

$$\operatorname{Ext}^1_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}, N) \cong N/mN$$

$$\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{n}(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}, N) = 0 \text{ (for } n \geq 2)$$

**Eg 7.2.2.**  $\mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Z}_{(0)}$  is a localization, thus a flat  $\mathbb{Z}$  module. Then

$$U: 0 \to \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{i} \mathbb{O} \to \mathbb{O}/\mathbb{Z} \to 0$$

is a flat resolution of  $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$ . For  $G \in \mathbf{Mod}_{\mathbb{Z}}$  (i.e. an abelian group),

$$H_n(G \otimes U_{\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}}) : 0 \to G \otimes \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{1} \otimes i} G \otimes \mathbb{Q} \to 0$$

$$\operatorname{Tor}_0(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \cong G \otimes \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$$

$$\operatorname{Tor}_1(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = \ker(\mathbf{1} \otimes i) \cong t(G) := \{ a \in G \mid ma = 0 \text{ for some } m \in \mathbb{N} \}$$

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = 0 \text{ (for } n \ge 2)$$

**Def 137.** Let M be a left R-module, then define  $M^* := \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$  as a right R-module by

$$fr: M \to \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$$
  
 $x \mapsto f(rx)$ 

# Fact 7.2.2.

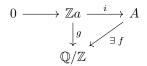
- 1.  $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$  is injective.
- 2.  $A = 0 \iff A^* = 0$ .
- 3.  $B \hookrightarrow C \iff C^* \twoheadrightarrow B^*$ .

#### Proof.

- 1. For  $m \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ ,  $m(\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$  by  $m(\frac{a}{mb} + \mathbb{Z}) \leftarrow \frac{a}{b} + \mathbb{Z}$ , so  $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$  is divisible. But  $\mathbb{Z}$  is a PID, so  $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$  is injective.
- 2.  $(\Rightarrow)$   $A^* = \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(0, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = 0$ .
  - $(\Leftarrow)$  If  $A \neq 0$ , then  $\exists a \in A, a \neq 0$ , so  $0 \to \mathbb{Z}a \xrightarrow{i} A$  is an inclusion.

Since  $\mathbb{Z}a$  is a cyclic abelian group, there is a nonzero  $g: \mathbb{Z}a \to \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$ . (If  $\mathbb{Z}a \cong \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$ , let  $g: a \mapsto \frac{1}{m}$ ; if  $\mathbb{Z}a \cong \mathbb{Z}$ , let  $g: a \mapsto \frac{1}{2}$ .)

But  $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$  is injective, so  $\exists f: A \to \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$  (i.e.  $f \in A^*$ ), and  $f \circ i = g \neq 0$  so  $f \neq 0$ , thus  $A^* \neq 0$ .



3. Since  $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$  is injective,  $\operatorname{Hom}(\cdot,\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$  is exact. Let  $0 \to \ker f \to B \xrightarrow{f} C$  exact, applying  $\operatorname{Hom}(\cdot,\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$  results in  $C^* \xrightarrow{f^*} B^* \to (\ker f)^* \to 0$  exact. Thus  $\operatorname{coker} f^* = (\ker f)^*$ .

By 2.,  $B \hookrightarrow C \iff \ker f = 0 \iff (\ker f)^* = 0 \iff \operatorname{coker} f^* = 0 \iff C^* \twoheadrightarrow B^*$ .

# **Prop 7.2.3.** Let M be an R-module, then TFAE

- 1. M is flat.
- 2.  $M^*$  is injective (as a R-module).
- 3.  $\operatorname{Tor}_1(R/I, M) = 0$  for all ideal  $I \subseteq R$ .
- 4.  $I \otimes_R M \cong IM$  for all ideal  $I \subseteq R$ .

# Proof.

• 3.  $\iff$  4.

For any ideal  $I \subseteq R$ ,  $0 \to I \xrightarrow{i} R \xrightarrow{q} R/I \to 0$  is exact. This induces a long exact sequence:

$$\operatorname{Tor}_1(R,M) \to \operatorname{Tor}_1(R/I,M) \to I \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{i \otimes \mathbf{1}} R \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{q \otimes \mathbf{1}} R/I \otimes_R M \to 0$$

- $Tor_1(R, M) = 0$  since R is a flat R-module.
- $-R\otimes_R M\cong M.$
- $-R/I \otimes_R M \cong M/IM$  by  $(r+I) \otimes a \mapsto (ra+IM)$ .

So we have

$$0 \to \operatorname{Tor}_1(R/I, M) \to I \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{i'} M \xrightarrow{q'} M/IM \to 0$$

exact, with  $q': M \to M/IM$  being exactly the quotient map (one can check that  $q \otimes \mathbf{1} \cong q'$ ).

Now it's clear that  $\operatorname{Tor}_1(R/I, M) = 0 \iff I \otimes_R M \cong \ker(q') \cong IM$ .

(The reverse direction requires  $I \otimes_R M \cong IM$  being the natural isomorphism  $r \otimes b \mapsto rb$ , so  $i': IM \to M$  can then be the natural inclusion.)

• 1.  $\iff$  2. Let  $0 \to N' \xrightarrow{f} N$ , then  $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, M^{*}) \xrightarrow{\overline{f}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N', M^{*})$ . By the adjoint relation,

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(N, M^*) = \operatorname{Hom}_R(N, \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(N \otimes_R M, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = (N \otimes_R M)^*,$$

we have another map  $(N \otimes_R M)^* \xrightarrow{(f \otimes 1)^*} (N' \otimes_R M)^*$  isomorphic to the previous one, with its unstarred map  $N' \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{f \otimes 1} N \otimes_R M$ .

Now,  $M^*$  is injective  $\iff \overline{f}$  is surjective  $\forall N, N' \iff (f \otimes \mathbf{1})^*$  is surjective  $\forall N, N' \iff f \otimes \mathbf{1}$  is injective  $\forall N, N' \iff M$  is flat.

• 2.  $\iff$  4. Similar to the previous section, by Baer's criterion,

$$\begin{array}{ll} M^* \text{ is injective} & \Longleftrightarrow & \operatorname{Hom}_R(R,M^*) \twoheadrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_R(I,M^*), \forall \ I \subseteq R \\ & \Longleftrightarrow & (R \otimes_R M)^* \twoheadrightarrow (I \otimes_R M)^*, \forall \ I \subseteq R \\ & \Longleftrightarrow & I \otimes_R M \hookrightarrow R \otimes_R M \cong M, \forall \ I \subseteq R \\ & \Longleftrightarrow & I \otimes_R M \cong IM, \forall \ I \subseteq R. \end{array}$$

Similarly, this requires the isomorphism of  $I \otimes_R M \cong IM$  be natural (the following f).

The map  $f: I \otimes_R M \to IM$  is always onto, but may not be 1-1. If it is,  $I \otimes_R M \cong IM$ .

**Prop 7.2.4.** For  $I, J \subseteq R$  being ideals, then  $Tor_1(R/I, R/J) \cong (I \cap J)/IJ$ .

*Proof.*  $0 \to I \xrightarrow{i} R \to R/I \to 0$  induces a long exact sequence

$$0 \to \operatorname{Tor}_1(R/I, R/J) \to I \otimes_R R/J \xrightarrow{i \otimes 1} R \otimes_R R/J \to R/I \otimes_R R/J \to 0,$$

where  $Tor_1(R, R/J) = 0$  since R is flat.

Also  $I \otimes_R R/J \cong I/IJ$ ,  $R \otimes_R R/J \cong R/J$ , so we have  $I/IJ \xrightarrow{i'} R/J$  with  $\operatorname{Tor}_1(R/I, R/J) \cong \ker(i \otimes 1) \cong \ker i'$ .

But  $i': I/IJ \to R/J \atop x+IJ \mapsto x+J$ , so  $\overline{x} \in \ker i' \iff x \in I \text{ and } x \in J \iff x \in I \cap J$ , hence  $\ker i' \cong (I \cap J)/IJ$ .

# 7.3 Koszul complex (week 16)

In this section, we assume that R is commutative with 1.

**Def 138.** Let  $L \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ , with  $f: L \to R$  an R-linear map, define

$$d_f: \quad \Lambda^n L \to \quad \Lambda^{n-1} L$$
$$x_1 \wedge \dots \wedge x_n \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i+1} f(x_i) x_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \hat{x}_i \wedge \dots \wedge x_n$$

where  $\Lambda^n L$  is the *n*-th exterior power of L, and  $\hat{x}_i$  means omitting  $x_i$ .

Then we can define a chain complex called **Koszul complex**:

$$K_{\bullet}(f): \cdots \to \Lambda^n L \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}_f} \Lambda^{n-1} L \to \cdots \to \Lambda^2 L \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}_f} L \xrightarrow{f} R$$

Also,  $d_f$  can be considered as a graded R-homomorphism of degree -1:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{d}_f : \; \Lambda L \; &\to \; \quad \Lambda L \\ x \wedge y &\mapsto \mathrm{d}_f(x) \wedge y + (-1)^{\deg x} \cdot x \wedge \mathrm{d}_f(y) \end{aligned}$$

where  $\Lambda L$  is the exterior algebra of L, and x, y are any homogeneous elements of  $\Lambda L$ .

**Def 139.** Let  $(C_{\bullet}, d), (C'_{\bullet}, d')$  be chain complexes of R-modules, define their tensor product to be a chain complex  $C_{\bullet} \otimes C'_{\bullet}$  with

$$(C_{\bullet} \otimes C'_{\bullet})_n = \bigoplus_{i=0}^n (C_i \otimes_R C'_{n-i})$$

with the boundary maps being

$$d \otimes d' : (C_{\bullet} \otimes C'_{\bullet})_{n} \to (C_{\bullet} \otimes C'_{\bullet})_{n-1}$$
$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} x_{i} \otimes y_{n-i} \mapsto \sum_{i=0}^{n} (d(x_{i}) \otimes y_{n-i} + (-1)^{i} \cdot x_{i} \otimes d'(y_{n-i}))$$

One can verify that

$$\begin{split} (d\otimes d')\circ (d\otimes d')(x\otimes y) &= (d\otimes d')(d(x)\otimes y + (-1)^{\deg x}\cdot x\otimes d'(y))\\ &= d\circ d(x)\otimes y + (-1)^{\deg x-1}\cdot d(x)\otimes d'(y)\\ &+ (-1)^{\deg x}\cdot d(x)\otimes d'(y) + x\otimes d'\circ d'(y)\\ &= 0 \end{split}$$

**Prop 7.3.1.** Let  $L_1, L_2 \in \mathbf{Mod}_R, f_1 \in \mathrm{Hom}_R(L_1, R), f_2 \in \mathrm{Hom}_R(L_2, R)$ . Define

$$f = f_1 + f_2 : L_1 \oplus L_2 \to R$$
  
 $(x, y) \mapsto f_1(x) + f_2(y),$ 

then

$$K_{\bullet}(f_1) \otimes K_{\bullet}(f_2) \cong K_{\bullet}(f)$$

$$\bigoplus_{i=0}^{n} \left( \Lambda^i L_1 \otimes_R \Lambda^{n-i} L_2 \right) \cong \Lambda^n(L_1 \oplus L_2)$$

with  $d_{f_1} \otimes d_{f_2} = d_f$ .

*Proof.* Exercise 16-1(2).

**Def 140.** Let  $L = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n Re_i$  be a free R-module, and  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  with  $x_i \in R$ , define

$$K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}) := K_{\bullet}(f), \text{ with } \begin{array}{c} f : L \to R \\ e_i \mapsto x_i. \end{array}$$

Coro 7.3.1.  $K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}) \cong K_{\bullet}(x_1) \otimes \cdots \otimes K_{\bullet}(x_n)$  with  $K_{\bullet}(x_i) : 0 \to R \xrightarrow{x_i} R$ .

**Prop 7.3.2.** Let  $x \in R$  and  $(C_{\bullet}, \partial)$  be a chain complex of R-modules, then there exist  $\rho, \pi$  s.t.

$$0 \to C_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\rho} C_{\bullet} \otimes K_{\bullet}(x) \xrightarrow{\pi} C_{\bullet}(-1) \to 0$$

is exact, where  $(C_{\bullet}(-1))_n = C_{n-1}$ .

*Proof.* Since  $K_{\bullet}(x): 0 \to R \xrightarrow{x} R$ , so

$$(C_{\bullet} \otimes K_{\bullet}(x))_n = (C_i \otimes_R R) \oplus (C_{i-1} \otimes_R R),$$

and the boundary map is

$$d: (C_i \otimes_R R) \oplus (C_{i-1} \otimes_R R) \to (C_{i-1} \otimes_R R) \oplus (C_{i-2} \otimes_R R) (z_1 \otimes r_1, z_2 \otimes r_2) \mapsto (\partial z_1 \otimes r_1 + (-1)^{i-1} z_2 \otimes xr_2, \partial z_2 \otimes r_2).$$

Under the isomorphism  $C_i \otimes_R R \cong C_i$ , the boundary map become

$$d: C_{i} \oplus C_{i-1} \to C_{i-1} \oplus C_{i-2}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} r_{1}z_{1} \\ r_{2}z_{2} \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} \partial & (-1)^{i-1}x \\ 0 & \partial \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} r_{1}z_{1} \\ r_{2}z_{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

Let

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \rho_i:C_i\to C_i\oplus C_{i-1} & \text{and} & \pi_i:C_i\oplus C_{i-1}\to C_{i-1}\\ z_1\mapsto & (z_1,0) & (z_1,z_2) & \mapsto & z_2 \end{array}$$

then

$$0 \longrightarrow C_{i} \xrightarrow{\rho_{i}} C_{i} \oplus C_{i-1} \xrightarrow{\pi_{i}} C_{i-1} \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow \partial \qquad \qquad \downarrow d \qquad \qquad \downarrow \partial$$

$$0 \longrightarrow C_{i-1} \xrightarrow{\rho_{i-1}} C_{i-1} \oplus C_{i-2} \xrightarrow{\pi_{i-1}} C_{i-2} \longrightarrow 0$$

commutes and exact:

- $d \circ \rho(z_1) = d(z_1, 0) = (\partial z_1, 0)$
- $\rho \circ \partial(z_1) = \rho(\partial z_1) = (\partial z_1, 0)$
- $\partial \circ \pi(z_1, z_2) = \partial(z_2) = \partial z_2$
- $\pi \circ d(z_1, z_2) = \pi(\partial z_1 + (-1)^{i-1}xz_2, \partial z_2) = \partial z_2$

Coro 7.3.2. This induces a long exact sequence

$$\cdots \to H_i(C_{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{\rho_*} H_i(C_{\bullet} \otimes K_{\bullet}(x)) \xrightarrow{\pi_*} H_i(C_{\bullet}(-1)) \xrightarrow{\pm x} H_{i-1}(C_{\bullet}) \to \cdots$$

*Proof.* We only need to show the connection homomorphism is indeed  $\pm x$ .

Given  $z \in C_{i-1}$  with  $\partial z = 0$ ,

$$z \xrightarrow{\pi^{-1}} (0, z) \xrightarrow{d} \left( (-1)^{i-1} xz, 0 \right) \xrightarrow{\rho^{-1}} (-1)^{i-1} xz.$$

**Def 141.** We call x to be  $C_{\bullet}$ -regular, if x is not a zero divisor of  $C_i$  and  $C_i/xC_i \neq 0$ , for all  $i \geq 0$ .

**Prop 7.3.3.** If x is  $C_{\bullet}$ -regular, then  $H_i(C_{\bullet} \otimes K_{\bullet}(x)) \cong H_i(C_{\bullet}/xC_{\bullet})$  for all  $i \geq 0$ .

Proof. Let

$$\phi_i: C_i \oplus C_{i-1} \to C_i/xC_i$$
$$(z_1, z_2) \mapsto \overline{z_1},$$

then

$$C_{i} \oplus C_{i-1} \xrightarrow{\phi_{i}} C_{i}/xC_{i}$$

$$\downarrow^{d_{i}} \qquad \downarrow_{\overline{\partial}_{i}}$$

$$C_{i-1} \oplus C_{i-2} \xrightarrow{\phi_{i-1}} C_{i-1}/xC_{i-1}$$

commutes.

- $\overline{\partial} \circ \phi_i(z_1, z_2) = \overline{\partial}(z_1) = \overline{\partial}z_1$ .
- $\phi_{i-1} \circ d(z_1, z_2) = \phi_{i-1}(\partial z_1 + (-1)^{i-1}xz_2, \partial z_2) = \overline{\partial z_1}$ , since  $xz_2 \in xC_{i-1}$ .

Now we need to show the induced maps

$$\phi_{*i} : \ker \underline{\mathbf{d}_i / \operatorname{im} \mathbf{d}_{i+1}} \to \ker \overline{\partial}_i / \operatorname{im} \overline{\partial}_{i+1}$$
$$(z_1, z_2) \mapsto \overline{\overline{z_1}} = \overline{z_1} + \operatorname{im} \overline{\partial}_{i+1}$$

are isomorphisms.

• Onto:

For  $\overline{z} \in \ker \overline{\partial}_i$  with  $\partial z = xz' \in xC_{i-1}$ ,  $z' \in C_{i-1}$ . Then  $\phi_i(z, (-1)^i z') = \overline{z}$ , and  $d(z, (-1)^i z') = (\partial z - xz', (-1)^i \partial z') = (0, 0)$ , so  $(z, (-1)^i z') \in \ker d_i$ . (Since  $x\partial z' = \partial(xz') = \partial^2 z = 0$ , and x is not a zero divisor of  $C_i$ , so  $\partial z' = 0$ .)

Now, 
$$\phi_{*i}\left(\overline{(z,(-1)^iz')}\right) = \overline{\overline{z}}$$
, so  $\phi_{*i}$  is onto.

• 1-1

Let  $(z, z') \in \ker d_i$  with  $\phi_i(z, z') = \overline{z} \in \operatorname{im} \overline{\partial}_{i+1}$ , i.e.  $\overline{z} = \partial \overline{z''}$  with  $z'' \in C_{i+1}$ . This means  $z - \partial z'' = xz'''$  with  $z''' \in C_i$ , so  $\partial (z - \partial z'') = \partial z = x \partial z'''$ .

On the other hand,  $d(z,z')=(\partial z+(-1)^{i-1}xz',\partial z')=(0,0),$  so  $\partial z=(-1)^ixz',\partial z'=0.$ 

So  $d(z'', (-1)^i z''') = (\partial z'' + (-1)^{2i} x z'''), (-1)^i \partial z''') = (z, z'), \text{ i.e. } (z, z') \in \text{im } d_{i+1}.$   $(\partial z = x \partial z''' = (-1)^i x z', \text{ since } x \text{ is not a zero divisor, so } \partial z''' = (-1)^i z'.)$ 

Hence,  $\phi_{*i}\left(\overline{(z_1,z_2)}\right) = \overline{0}$  implies  $\overline{(z_1,z_2)} = \overline{0}$ , so  $\phi_{*i}$  is 1-1.

**Def 142.** Let  $M \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ . A sequence  $\{a_1, \ldots, a_m\}, m \geq 0$  is said to be M-regular if

- $M/\langle a_1,\ldots,a_m\rangle M\neq 0.$
- $a_{i+1}$  is not a zero divisor of  $M/\langle a_1,\ldots,a_i\rangle M$  for  $0\leq i\leq m-1$ .

**Theorem 102.** If  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  is an R-regular sequence, then  $K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}) \to R/\langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle \to 0$  is a free resolution of  $R/\langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle$ .

*Proof.* Since its modules are  $K_i(\mathbf{x}) = \Lambda^i R^n \cong R^{\binom{n}{i}}$ , i.e. free *R*-modules, so we only need to show the exactness.

By induction on n,

• n = 1:  $K_{\bullet}(x_1) : 0 \to R \xrightarrow{x_1} R \to R/\langle x_1 \rangle \to 0$  exact.

• n > 1: Assume that  $\mathbf{x}' = (x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})$  and  $K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}') \to R/\langle x_1, \dots, x_{n-1} \rangle \to 0$  exact, i.e.  $H_i(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}')) = 0$  for i > 0.

Since we have  $K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}) \cong K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}') \otimes K_{\bullet}(x_n)$  and a long exact sequence

$$\cdots \to H_i(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}')) \to H_i(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x})) \to H_i(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}')(-1)) \xrightarrow{\pm x_n} H_{i-1}(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}')) \to \cdots$$

where  $H_i(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}')(-1)) = H_{i-1}(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}')).$ 

For i > 1, the sequence becomes

$$\cdots \to 0 \to H_i(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x})) \to 0 \xrightarrow{\pm x_n} \cdots$$

so  $H_i(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x})) = 0$ .

For i = 1, we have  $H_0(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}')) \cong R/\langle x_1, \dots, x_{n-1} \rangle$ , so

$$0 \to H_1(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x})) \to R/\langle x_1, \dots, x_{n-1} \rangle \xrightarrow{\pm x_n} R/\langle x_1, \dots, x_{n-1} \rangle$$

But  $x_n$  is not a zero divisor of  $R/\langle x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1} \rangle$ , so the map  $\pm x_n$  is 1-1, then  $H_1(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x})) \cong \ker(\pm x_n) = 0$ .

**Eg 7.3.1.** Let  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2)$ , then

$$K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}): 0 \to R \xrightarrow{\alpha} R^2 \xrightarrow{\beta} R \xrightarrow{q} R/\langle x_1, x_2 \rangle \to 0$$

with  $\alpha: r \mapsto (-x_2r, x_1r)$  and  $\beta: (r_1, r_2) \mapsto x_1r_1 + x_2r_2$ .

**Coro 7.3.3.** Let  $I = \langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle \subset R$  be an ideal with  $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  be R-regular, then R/I has projective dimension pd(R/I) = n, i.e. the shortest projective resolution of R/I has length n.

*Proof.*  $K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x})$  is already a projective resolution of length N, so we only need to show that there's no shorter ones.

The left side of  $K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x})$  reads

$$0 \to \Lambda^n R^n \xrightarrow{d_n} \Lambda^{n-1} R^n \to \cdots$$

But

$$\Lambda^n R^n = R(e_1 \wedge \dots \wedge e_n) \cong R, \quad \Lambda^{n-1} R^n = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n R(e_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \hat{e_i} \wedge \dots \wedge e^n) \cong R^n$$

 $\mathbf{so}$ 

$$d_n: R \to R^n$$
  
 $r \mapsto (x_1 r, -x_2 r, \dots, (-1)^{n-1} x_n r)$ 

Taking tensor with R/I, we get

$$0 \to R \otimes_R R/I \xrightarrow{d_n \otimes 1} R^n \otimes_R R/I \to \cdots$$

but  $R \otimes_R R/I \cong R/I, R^n \otimes_R R/I \cong (R/I)^n$ , so

$$d_n \otimes \mathbf{1}: R/I \to (R/I)^n$$
  
 $\overline{r} \mapsto (\overline{x_1 r}, \overline{-x_2 r}, \dots, \overline{(-1)^{n-1} x_n r})$ 

Now,

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n(R/I,R/I) = H_n(K_{\bullet}(\mathbf{x}) \otimes R/I) = \ker(d_n \otimes \mathbf{1}) = \operatorname{Ann}_{R/I} I = \{\overline{r} \in R/I \mid rI = I\} = R/I \neq 0.$$

 $(R/I \neq 0 \text{ is because } \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \text{ is } R\text{-regular.})$  Thus, any projective resolution can't have length shorter than n since that will imply  $\text{Tor}_n(R/I, R/I) = 0$ .

**Remark 37.** Let  $I = \langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle$  generated by R-regular sequence  $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ , then

- $\operatorname{Tor}_n(R/I, M) \cong \operatorname{Ann}_M I$ .
- $\operatorname{Ext}^n(R/I, M) \cong M/IM$ .

# 7.4 Derived category

# Def 143.

•  $\mathcal{C}$  is a pre-additive category if  $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X,Y)$  is an abelian group  $\forall X,Y\in\mathcal{C}$  s.t.

$$X \xrightarrow{u} Y \xrightarrow{f} Z \xrightarrow{v} T$$

with (f+g)u = fu + gu and v(f+g) = vf + vg.

- addivitve category: a pre-additive category  $\mathcal C$  s.t.
  - There exists a zero object 0 s.t.  $\forall X$ ,  $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(0,X) = \{0\} = \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X,0)$ .
  - Finite sum and finite products exist.

# Def 144.

- $f \in \text{Hom}(B,C)$  is called a monomorphism if  $\forall X \xrightarrow{g} B \xrightarrow{f} C$  with  $f \circ g = 0 \implies g = 0$ .
- $f \in \text{Hom}(B,C)$  is called a epimorphism if  $\forall B \xrightarrow{f} C \xrightarrow{h} D$  with  $h \circ f = 0 \implies h = 0$ .
- a kernel of  $f \in \text{Hom}(B,C)$  is a morphism  $i:A \to B$  s.t.  $f \circ i = 0$  and  $\forall g:X \to B$  with  $f \circ g = 0$ , we have

$$A \xrightarrow{i} B \xrightarrow{f} C$$

$$\exists ! \qquad X$$

• a cokernel of  $f \in \text{Hom}(B,C)$  is a morphism  $p:C \to D$  s.t.  $p \circ f = 0$  and  $\forall h:C \to Y$  with  $h \circ f = 0$ , we have

$$B \xrightarrow{f} C \xrightarrow{p} D$$

$$\downarrow h$$

$$Y$$

$$\downarrow h$$

$$\exists !$$

# Remark 38.

- If i is a kernel of f, then i is a monomorphism.
- If p is a cokernel of f, then p is a epimorphism.

**Remark 39.** An epimorphism may not be a cokernel. Consider  $\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\times 3} \mathbb{Z}$  which is an epimorphism in the category of f.g. free  $\mathbb{Z}$ -modules. If  $\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\times 3} \mathbb{Z}$  is the cokernel of  $G \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{Z}$ , then

$$G \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\times 3} \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\downarrow \\ \downarrow \\ \downarrow \\ \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\downarrow \\ \downarrow \\ \mathbb{Z}$$

This implies  $\tilde{f}: 1 \mapsto \frac{2}{3}$ , which is impossible.

**Def 145.**  $\mathcal{A}$  is an abelian category if it is an additive category s.t.

- kernels and cokernels always exist in A.
- every monomorphism is a kernel and every epimorphism is a cokernel.

# **Fact 7.4.1.** If A is an abelian category, then:

• every morphism is expressible as the composite of an epimorphism and a monomorphism. Given  $f: B \to C$ , we have

$$B \xrightarrow{f} C$$

$$\text{Im } f$$

where  $\operatorname{Im} f$  is unique up to isomorphism.

*Proof.* Consider the following diagram:

$$\ker f \xrightarrow{i} B \xrightarrow{f} C \xrightarrow{p} \operatorname{coker} f$$

$$\downarrow p' \qquad \downarrow i'$$

$$\operatorname{coker} i \xrightarrow{\exists ! \sigma} \ker p$$

where  $\mu, \nu$  exist because i', p' are kernel and cokernel. Now,  $i'\mu i = fi = 0$ , and since i' is a monomorphism,  $\mu i = 0$ . Moreover, since p' is the cokernel of i, there exists a unique  $\sigma$  letting the diagram commute.

By exercise,  $\sigma$  is both a monomorphism and epimorphism. In an abelian category, this implies that  $\sigma$  is actually an isomorphism (i.e.,  $\sigma^{-1}$  exists).

•  $0 \to A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \to 0$  is exact if f is monomorphism, g is epimorphism and  $\operatorname{Im} f = \ker g$ .

**Theorem 103** (Freyd-Mitchell theorem). A small abelian category is equivalent to a full subcategory of a category of R-modules.

#### Def 146.

- $I \in \text{Obj } A$  is injective if the functor Hom(-, I) is exact.
- An abelian category is said to be **enough injectives** if for any  $A \in \text{Obj } A$ , there exists an injective object I such that  $A \hookrightarrow I$ .

## **Def 147.** Given a functor $F: A \to B$ satisfy:

- 1. F is additive, which is to say F is a group homomorphism  $\operatorname{Hom}(A, A') \to \operatorname{Hom}(FA, FA')$ .
- 2. F is left exact. If  $0 \to A' \to A \to A'' \to 0$ , then  $0 \to FA' \to FA \to FA''$ .

Then the derived functor  $R^iF: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{B}$  is defined as

$$R^{i}F(A) = \begin{cases} F(A), & \text{if } i = 0\\ H^{i}(F(I^{\bullet})), & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

Our goal is to construct the derived category  $D^+(A)$  and  $D^+(B)$  letting RF be a exact functor.

**Def 148.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an abelian category.

• Kom(A) is the category of complexes over A.

•  $K(\mathcal{A})$  is the homotopy category of  $\mathcal{A}$ , defined by  $Obj(K(\mathcal{A})) = Obj(Kom(\mathcal{A}))$  and

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{K(\mathcal{A})}(A^{\bullet}, B^{\bullet}) = \operatorname{Hom}_{\operatorname{Kom}(\mathcal{A})}(A^{\bullet}, B^{\bullet}) / \sim,$$

where  $\sim$  indicates homotopy equivalences.

## Remark 40.

- $\operatorname{Hom}_{K(\mathcal{A})}(I_A^{\bullet}, I_B^{\bullet}) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(A, B)$  by comparison theorem (96).
- It could be shown that K(A) is additive but may not be abelian.

**Def 149.**  $f \in \text{Hom}_{K(\mathcal{A})}(A^{\bullet}, B^{\bullet})$  is called a quasi-isomorphism if  $H^n(f)$  is an isomorphism between  $H^n(A^{\bullet})$  and  $H^n(B^{\bullet})$  for each n.

**Eg 7.4.1.** • A quasi-isomorphism is often not invertible. For example:

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} \stackrel{\times 2}{\longrightarrow} \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \cdots$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$0 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \cdots$$

• Given  $0 \to A \to I^{\bullet}$ ,

$$0 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \cdots$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$0 \longrightarrow I^0 \longrightarrow I^1 \longrightarrow I^2 \longrightarrow \cdots$$

are two quasi-isomorphic complexes.

**Def 150.** Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a category. A class of morphism  $S \subset \text{Mor}(\mathcal{B})$  is said to be **localizing** if

- 1. S is closed under composition with  $Id_X \in S$  for each object X in  $\mathcal{B}$ .
- 2. Extension condition holds: For each  $f \in \text{Mor } \mathcal{B}$ ,  $s \in S$  as in the following diagram, exists  $g \in \text{Mor } \mathcal{B}$ ,  $t \in S$  such that ft = sg. The dual version should hold as well.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
A & \xrightarrow{g} & B \\
\downarrow^t & & \downarrow^s \\
C & \xrightarrow{f} & D
\end{array}$$

3. For any  $f, g \in \text{Hom}(X, Y)$ ,

$$\exists s \in S \text{ s.t. } sf = sg \iff \exists t \in S \text{ s.t. } ft = gt.$$

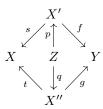
**Theorem 104.** If S is localizing, then there exists a category  $\mathcal{B}[S^{-1}]$  with a functor  $Q: \mathcal{B} \to \mathcal{B}[S^{-1}]$  such that

- 1. Q(s) is an isomorphism for each  $s \in S$ .
- 2. Given another functor  $F: \mathcal{B} \to \mathcal{B}'$  satisfy condition 1, there exists a unique functor  $G: \mathcal{B}[S^{-1}] \to \mathcal{B}'$  such that  $F = G \circ Q$ .

*Proof.* Define a roof to be a pair (s,t) with

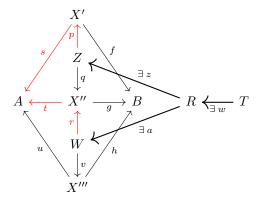
$$X \qquad Y \qquad X \qquad Y$$

Also, define  $(s, f) \sim (t, g)$  if there exists Z such that



with  $sp = tq \in S$  and fp = gq.

First we check that " $\sim$ " is indeed an equivalence relation.  $(s,f) \sim (s,f)$  and  $(s,f) \sim (t,g) \implies (t,g) \sim (s,f)$  are trivial. If  $(s,f) \sim (t,g)$  and  $(t,g) \sim (u,h)$ , then we have the following diagram:



Using definition 2. on  $tr \in S$  and sp, there are morphism z,a with  $z \in S$  and spz = tra. Moreover, tqz = spz = tra, if we let b = qz, c = ra, then by 3., morphism  $w \in S$  exists with bw = cw. Define x = pzw, y = vaw, we have sx = spzw = tqzw = tbw = tcw = traw = uvaw = uy and  $sx \in S$  since sx = spzw and sp, z, w are all in S. Similarly, fx = hy, thus  $(s, f) \sim (u, h)$ . Hence we've just proved that  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation.

Now we could construct the localized category as following: The objects are  $\mathrm{Obj}(\mathcal{B}[S^{-1}]) = \mathcal{B}$  and  $\mathrm{Mor}(\mathcal{B}[S^{-1}]) = \{$  equivalence classes under  $\sim \}$ .  $[(t,g)] \circ [(s,f)] = [(su,gh)]$  could be defined as in the following diagram:



Finally, define functor Q by Q(X) = X,  $\forall X \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{B})$  and  $Q(f) = [(\text{Id}_X, f)]$ . For the universal property, if F is another functor making every morphism in S be invertible, then the functor G exists uniquely by  $G([(s, f)]) = F(f)F(s)^{-1}$ .

**Def 151.** The mapping cone of a chain map f between two chain  $X^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{f} Y^{\bullet}$  is defined as a chain with cone $(f)^n = X^{n+1} \oplus Y^n$ , and the chain map is defined as

$$d_{\operatorname{cone}(f)} : \operatorname{cone}(f)^n = X^{n+1} \oplus Y^n \longrightarrow \operatorname{cone}(f)^{n+1} = X^{n+2} \oplus Y^{n+1}$$

$$(x_{n+1}, y_n) \xrightarrow{\begin{pmatrix} -d_X & 0 \\ f & d_Y \end{pmatrix}} \begin{pmatrix} -d_X(x^{n+1}), f(x^{n+1}) + d_Y(y_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

It is easy to see that  $d_{\text{cone}(f)}^2 = 0$ .

**Prop 7.4.1.** Suppose that  $f: X^{\bullet} \to Y^{\bullet}$  is a chain map, then there is a short exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow Y \longrightarrow \operatorname{cone}(f) \longrightarrow X[+1] \longrightarrow 0$$
$$y \longmapsto (0, y)$$
$$(x, y) \longmapsto x$$

*Proof.* It is easy to see that the rows are exact. Tracing the diagram shows that the diagram commutes.  $\Box$ 

**Coro 7.4.1.** There exists a long exact sequence of homology:

$$\cdots \to H^m(Y^{\bullet}) \to H^m(\operatorname{cone}(f)) \to H^{m+1}(X^{\bullet}) \xrightarrow{\delta} H^{m+1}(Y^{\bullet}) \to H^{m+1}(\operatorname{cone}(f)) \to \cdots$$

Where the connecting homomorphism  $\delta = f^*$ .

*Proof.* Tracing the diagram below as in the snake lemma,

$$X^m \oplus Y^{m-1} \longrightarrow X^m \\ \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \\ Y^m \longrightarrow X^{m+1} \oplus Y^m \longrightarrow X^{m+1}$$

Suppose  $\bar{x} \in H^m(X^{\bullet})$ , then  $d_X(x) = 0$ , so  $d(x,0) = (-d_X(x), f(x)) = (0, f(x))$ , which implies  $f(x) :: Y^m \mapsto d(x,0) :: X^{m+1} \oplus Y^m$ , then  $\delta(\bar{x}) = \overline{f(x)}$ , so  $\delta = f^*$ .

Coro 7.4.2. cone(f) acyclic (exact)  $\iff$  f quasi-isomorphic.

*Proof.* Directly by the exact sequence

$$H^{m-1}(\operatorname{cone}(f)) \to H^m(X^\bullet) \to H^m(Y^\bullet) \to H^m(\operatorname{cone}(f))$$

Notice that X[-k] is defined as  $X[-k]^n = X^{n-k}$  with  $d_{X[-k]} = (-1)^k d_X$  below.

**Theorem 105.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an abelian category and  $K(\mathcal{A})$  be the homotopy category. Then the class of quasi-isomorphisms are localizing.

*Proof.* We check that:

1. It is closed under composition: If f, g are quasi-isomorphic, then  $(fg)^* = f^*g^*$  is a isomorphism since both  $f^*, g^*$  are, thus fg is quasi-isomorphic.

2. The diagram could be completed:

$$\exists W^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{----} Z^{\bullet}$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow g: \text{ q-iso}$$

$$X^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{f} Y^{\bullet}$$

Consider the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
\operatorname{cone}(\pi f)[-1] & \xrightarrow{k} & X^{\bullet} & \xrightarrow{\pi f} & \operatorname{cone}(g) \\
(x_{n}, z_{n}, y_{n-1}) \mapsto z_{n} & & & & & & \\
\downarrow^{f} & & & & & & \\
Z^{\bullet} & \xrightarrow{k} & & & & & & \\
& & z_{n} \mapsto g(z_{n}) & & & & & & \\
\end{array}$$

Where cone $(\pi f)^n \cong X^{n+1} \oplus \text{cone}(g)^n \cong X^{n+1}Z^{n+1}Y^n$ 

We claim that  $fk \simeq gh[-1]$ . Since  $(fk - gh[-1])(x_n, z_n, y_{n-1}) = f(x_n) + g(z_n)$ . Define

$$\varphi : \operatorname{cone}(\pi f)[-1]^n = \operatorname{cone}(\pi f)^{n-1} \longrightarrow Y^{n-1}$$
$$(x_n, z_n, y_{n-1}) \longmapsto -y_{n-1}$$

Then

$$\begin{split} \varphi d_{C(\pi f)[-1]}(x_n,(z_n,y_{n-1})) &= \varphi(d(x_n),-\pi f(x_n)-d(z_n,y_{n-1})) \\ &= \varphi(d(x_n),-(0,f(x_n))-(d(z_n),g(z_n)+d(y_{n-1}))) \\ &= \varphi(d(x_n),-d(z_n),-f(x_n)-g(z_n)-d(y_{n-1})) \\ &= f(x_n)+g(z_n)+d(y_{n-1}) \end{split}$$

and  $d_Y \varphi(x_n, z_n, y_{n-1}) = -d(y_{n-1})$ , so  $\varphi d_{C(\pi f)[-1]} + d_Y \varphi = fk - gh[-1]$ , thus  $fk \simeq gh[-1]$ .

3. Let  $f: X^{\bullet} \to Y^{\bullet}$  in  $K(\mathcal{A})$ . We shall prove that

$$\exists\, s: Y^\bullet \to Z^\bullet \text{ s.t. } sf=0 \iff \exists\, t: W^\bullet \to X^\bullet \text{ s.t. } ft=0$$

Let  $h^i: X^i \to Z^{i-1}$  be a homotopy bewteen sf and 0. Consider the diagram:

$$\operatorname{cone}(s)[-1] \xleftarrow{g} X^{\bullet} \to \operatorname{E}^{\bullet} \quad \operatorname{be a homotopy bewteen } sf \text{ and } 0. \text{ Consider the diagram:}$$

$$\operatorname{cone}(s)[-1] \xleftarrow{g} X^{\bullet} \xleftarrow{t} \operatorname{cone}(g)[-1] = W^{\bullet}$$

$$\downarrow f$$

$$\operatorname{cone}(s)[-1] \xrightarrow{p[-1]} Y^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{s} Z^{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\pi} \operatorname{cone}(s)$$

One can easily check that g is a chain map, which congruent with the boundary map (because of  $h^i$ ). Now, we have ft = p[-1]gt, but  $gt \simeq 0$  by

$$k_n:$$
  $W^n = X^n \oplus Y^{n-1} \oplus Z^{n-2} \longrightarrow C(s)[-1]^{n-1} = Y^{n-1} \oplus Z^{n-2}$   $(x_n, y_{n-1}, z_{n-2}) \longmapsto (y_{n-1}, z_{n-2})$ 

since

$$kd(x_n, y_{n-1}, z_{n-2}) = k(-(dx_n, g(x_n) + d(y_{n-1}, z_{n-2})))$$

$$= k(-dx_n, -(f(x_n), -h(x_n)) + (-dy_{n-1}, g(y_{n-1}) + dz_{n-2}))$$

$$= (-f(x_n) - dy_{n-1}, h(x_n) + g(y_{n-1}) + dz_{n-2})$$

and 
$$dk(x_n, y_{n-1}, z_{n-2}) = d(y_{n-1}, z_{n-2}) = (dy_{n-1}, -g(y_{n-1}) - dz_{n-2})$$
. Thus  $dk + kd = -gt \implies gt \simeq 0$ .

Now, since s is quasi-isomorphic, by corollary 7.4.2, cone(s) is acyclic, and thus t is quasi-isomorphic. Hence we've find t so that  $ft \simeq 0$ .

We could then define the derived category as  $D(A) = K(A)[S^{-1}]$  now.

# **Prop 7.4.2.** The derived category is additive.

*Proof.* Let  $\varphi, \varphi': X \to Y$  in D(A) with  $\varphi = [(s, f)], \varphi' = [(s', f')]$ , that is, we have the following two diagram



using 2. in the definition of localizing, exists U so that

$$\exists \begin{array}{c} U \xrightarrow{r'} Z' \\ \downarrow^r & \downarrow^{s'} \\ Z \xrightarrow{s} X \end{array}$$

with one of r, r' is guaranteed to be quasi-isomorphic, say r. But then  $H^n(U) \cong H^n(Z) \cong H^n(X) \cong H^n(Z')$  since r, s, s' are all quasi-isomorphic. This implies r' is also quasi-isomorphic, so we'll have the new roof for  $\varphi$ 



Similarly, this applies to  $\varphi'$ . Since rs = r's', we could define  $\varphi + \varphi' = [(rs, g + g')]$ .

**Def 152.** Let  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$  be abelian categories,  $F : \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{B}$  be an additive functor.

- Define  $D^+(\mathcal{A})$  as a subcategory of  $D(\mathcal{A})$  consist of all the objects (chains)  $X^{\bullet}$  in  $D(\mathcal{A})$  such that  $X^i = 0$  for all  $i \leq i_0(X^{\bullet})$ .  $K^+(\mathcal{A})$  is defined similarly.
- Assume that F act on complexes component wise.  $K^+(F): K^+(A) \to K^+(B)$ .
- A triangle in  $K^+(\mathcal{A})$  is a diagram of the form  $\Delta: X^{\bullet} \to Y^{\bullet} \to Z^{\bullet} \to X^{\bullet}[1]$
- $\triangle$  is said to be distinguished if

In this case, we denote it as  $\triangle$ .

Recall that  $\bar{Y}^{\bullet} \to \text{cone}(\bar{f}) \to \bar{X}^{\bullet}$  induces a long exact sequence

$$\cdots \to H^i(\bar{Y}) \to H^i(\operatorname{cone}(\bar{f})) \to H^i(\bar{X}[1]) \to H^{i+1}(\bar{Y}) \to \cdots$$

**Prop 7.4.3.** Let  $F: A \to B$  be an exact functor, then

1. The exact functor  $D^+(F): D^+(A) \to D^+(B)$  exists.

2.  $D^+(F)$  preserves distinguished triangle, (i.e.,  $\triangle \mapsto \triangle$ .)

*Proof.* First, we have the following observation:

• F sends acyclic chain to acyclic chain: If  $X^{\bullet}$  acyclic, then  $X^{\bullet}$  could be decomposed to many short exact sequence:

$$0 \to \ker d_X^i \to X^i \to \ker d_X^{i+1} \to 0$$

Apply F we would then get

$$0 \to F(\ker d_X^i) \to F(X^i) \to \ker d_X^{i+1} \to 0$$

which we could connect them and get the desired exact sequence

$$\cdots \to F(X^{i-1}) \to F(X^i) \to F(X^{i+1}) \to \cdots$$

• If  $f: X^{\bullet} \to Y^{\bullet}$ , then  $F(f): F(X)^{\bullet} \to F(Y)^{\bullet}$ , and we have  $F(\operatorname{cone}(f)) \cong \operatorname{cone}(F(f))$ , since  $F(\operatorname{cone}(f))^n = F(X^{n+1} \oplus Y^n) \cong F(X^{n+1}) \oplus F(Y^n) = \operatorname{cone}(F(f))^n$  because F is additive. Moreover, the boundary map  $d_{\operatorname{cone}(F(f))}$  is

$$\begin{pmatrix} -F(d_X) & 0 \\ F(f) & F(d_Y) \end{pmatrix} = F \begin{pmatrix} d_X & 0 \\ f & d_Y \end{pmatrix} = d_{F(\text{cone}(f))}$$

Since F transform the object and morphisms consistently, thus  $F(\operatorname{cone}(f)) \cong \operatorname{cone}(F(f))$ . Similarly we have  $F(\operatorname{cyl}(f)) \cong \operatorname{cyl}(F(f))$ .

Now, return to our proof:

1. If f quasi-isomorphic, then cone(f) acyclic by corollary 7.4.2, and  $F(cone(f)) \cong cone(F(f))$  acyclic by the discussion above, and finally F(f) acyclic by the same corollary. Thus F preserves quasi-isomorphisms.

Moreover, we could complete the following diagram

$$K^{+}(\mathcal{A}) \xrightarrow{K^{+}(F)} K^{+}(\mathcal{B})$$

$$\downarrow^{Q_{A}} \qquad \downarrow^{Q_{B}}$$

$$K^{+}(\mathcal{A})[S_{A}^{-1}] \xrightarrow{\exists !D^{+}(F)} K^{+}(\mathcal{B})[S_{B}^{-1}]$$

since F send quasi-isomorphisms to quasi-isomorphism and by the universal property of the localized category. Thus  $D^+(f)$  exists.

2. Apply  $D^+(F)$  to the diagram

We get

Where the quasi-isomorphisms are preserved by the discussion above.

**Def 153.** A class R of objects in Obj A is said to be adapted to a left exact functor F if

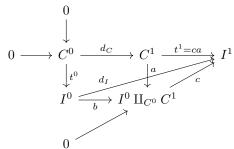
- 1. It is stable under finite direct sums
- 2. F sends acyclic chain in  $\text{Kom}^+(R)$  to acyclic chain (in  $\text{Kom}^+(\mathcal{B})$ ).
- 3. For each  $X \in \text{Obj } \mathcal{A}$ , exists  $I \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $0 \to X \to I$ .

**Theorem 106.** Let F be a left exact functor, R be a class of objects adpated to F. Define  $S_R$  to be the class of quasi-isomorphisms on  $K^+(R)$  which is localizing since it is stable with the construction of mapping cones. Then  $D^+(A) \cong K^+(R)[S_R^{-1}]$ .

*Proof.* First we claim that for all  $C^{\bullet} \in D^{+}(A)$  (which we assume  $C^{i} = 0, \forall i < 0$ ), There exists  $I^{\bullet} \in K^{+}(R)$  such that  $C^{\bullet} \cong I^{\bullet}$ .

We shall construct quasi-isomorphism  $t^n: C^n \to I^n$ . Using induction on n:

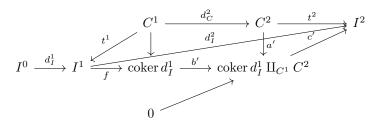
n=0: By the definition of adapting class we have  $0 \to C^0 \xrightarrow{t^0} I^0$  for some  $I^0$ . Consider the following diagram:



Where  $I^0 \coprod_{C^0} C^1 \triangleq (I^0 \oplus C^1) / \{(t^0(x), -d_C(x)) \mid x \in C^0\}.$ 

We shall prove that  $t^0$  is an isomorphism between  $H^0(C^{\bullet}) = \ker d_C^1$  and  $H^0(I^{\bullet}) = \ker d_I^1$ . It is obviously 1-1 since  $0 \to C^0 \xrightarrow{t^0} I^0$ , so we need to check it is onto. For any  $y \in \ker d_I^1 = \ker b$  since c is monomorphism. Then  $b(y) = 0 \implies (y,0) = (t^0(x), -d_C^1(x))$  for some  $x \in C^0$ . So  $y = t^0(x)$  with  $d_C^1(x) = 0 \implies x \in \ker d_C^1$ .

n = 1: Consider the diagram now:



Similarly, we shall prove that

$$H^1(t): \xrightarrow{\ker d_C^2} \xrightarrow{\sim} \xrightarrow{\ker d_I^2} \xrightarrow{\Gamma}$$

is an isomorphism.

- 1-1: Let  $t^1(x) \in \operatorname{Im} d_I^1$ . Since  $t^1 = ca$  and  $d_I^1 = cb$ , there is y such that ca(x) = cb(y). Since c 1-1,  $a(x) = b(y) \implies (0,x) = (y,0)$ . in the pushout, so  $(y,-x) = (t^0(z), -d_C^1(z))$  for some  $z \in C^0$ . Thus  $x = d_c^1(z) \in \operatorname{Im} d_C^1$ .
- onto: For each  $y \in \ker d^2_I = \ker b'p$  since c' 1-1. Then

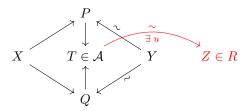
$$b'p(y) = 0 \implies (y + \operatorname{Im} d_I^1, 0) = (t'(x) + \operatorname{Im} d_I^1, -d_C^2(x))$$
 for some  $x \in C^1$ 

in the pushout, so we have  $y - t'(x) \in \operatorname{Im} d_I^1$  and  $x \in \ker d_C^2$  and thus  $H^1(t)(\bar{x}) = \bar{y}$ .

n > 1: Similar as n = 1.

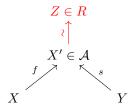
After proving this claim, we shall show that  $\operatorname{Hom}_{K^+(R)[S_R^{-1}]}(X^{\bullet},Y^{\bullet}) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{K^+(A)[S_A^{-1}]}(X^{\bullet},Y^{\bullet})$ . We will use right roofs instead of left roofs defined before here.

• 1-1: If  $(f, s) \cong (g, t)$  in  $K^+(A)[S_A^{-1}]$ , then



where u exists by the previous claim.

• onto: Given a roof in A



We could find a roof in R which is equivalent to it again by the previous claim.

Finally, if  $F: A \to \mathcal{B}$  is an additive left exact functor, then we will have  $K^+(F): K^+(A) \to K^+(\mathcal{B})$  which sends acyclic chain in  $K^+(R)$  to acyclic chain in  $K^+(\mathcal{B})$ . This implies that  $K^+(F)$  sends quasi-isomorphism in  $K^+(R)$  to quasi-isomorphism in  $K^+(\mathcal{B})$ . So we have the following diagram:

$$K^{+}(R) \xrightarrow{K^{+}(F)} K^{+}(\mathcal{B})$$

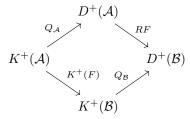
$$\downarrow^{Q_{R}} \qquad \downarrow^{Q_{\mathcal{B}}}$$

$$I^{\bullet} \in K^{+}(R)[S_{R}^{-1}] \xrightarrow{\exists ! F} D^{+}(\mathcal{B})$$

$$\downarrow^{Q_{R}}$$

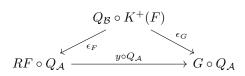
Where  $\bar{F}$  exists by the universal property of localization. Then the derived functor RF could be defined with  $R^iF(C^{\bullet}) = H^i(RF(C^{\bullet}))$ .

The universal property of RF is as following:  $RF: D^+(A) \to D^+(B)$  is exact and the diagram commutes:



with  $\epsilon_F: Q_{\mathcal{B}} \circ K^+(F) \to RF \circ Q_{\mathcal{A}}$  being a morphism of functors (???). Moreover, if  $G: D^+(\mathcal{A}) \to D^+(\mathcal{B})$  is another exact functor with  $\epsilon_G: Q_{\mathcal{B}} \circ K^+(F) \to G \circ Q_{\mathcal{A}}$ , then

there is an unique  $y: RF \to G$  such that



Now, one may ask that whether  $RG \circ RF \cong R(G \circ F)$ , the answer is no in generally, but there are spectral sequences so that ... Which is another story then...

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