# **Math 110.1 Lecture Notes**

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1.	1.1	Division Algorithm	
	Then	<b>nition 1.1.1.</b> (Division Algorithm) Let $\mathfrak{m},\mathfrak{n}\in\mathbb{Z}$ with $\mathfrak{n}>0$ . $\exists !\ \mathfrak{q},\mathfrak{r}\in\mathbb{Z}$ such that $\mathfrak{m}=\mathfrak{n}\mathfrak{q}+\mathfrak{r}$ where $0\leqslant\mathfrak{r}<\mathfrak{n}$ ( $\mathfrak{m}$ div $\mathfrak{n}=\mathfrak{q}$ $\mathfrak{m}$ mod $\mathfrak{n}=\mathfrak{r}$ )	
	Rema	ark 1.1.1. We call q the quotient and r the remainder.	
	Exerc	<b>ark 1.1.1.</b> We call q the <b>quotient</b> and r the <b>remainder</b> . <b>rise 1.1.1.</b> (Prove: Extended Division Algorithm) Let $\mathfrak{m}, \mathfrak{n} \in \mathbb{Z}$ $\mathfrak{n} \neq 0$ . Then $\exists ! \ \mathfrak{q}, \mathfrak{r} \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\mathfrak{m} = \mathfrak{n}\mathfrak{q} + \mathfrak{r}$ , where $0 \leqslant \mathfrak{r} <  \mathfrak{n} $ .	

If n>0, then |n|=n. Hence  $\exists !\ q,r\in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

Case 2: If n < 0

 $m=|n|q+r=nq+r, \text{ with } 0\leqslant r<|n|$ 

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If 
$$n < 0$$
, then  $|n| = -n$ . Hence  $\exists ! -q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$m = |n|q + r = -nq + r = n(-q) + r$$

Since  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$  and is uniquely determined, then so is -q.

**Definition 1.1.2.** Let  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $n \neq 0$ .

n divides  $m(notation: n \mid m) \Leftrightarrow m = nk$ 

for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

#### Remark 1.1.2.

- 1. For every nonzero integer a,  $a \mid 0$ , and for every integer b,  $1 \mid b$ .
- 2. For  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ , a and -a have the same divisors.

**Definition 1.1.3.** Let n be a fixed positive integer and  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

$$a \equiv b \pmod{n} \Leftrightarrow n \mid (a - b) \Leftrightarrow a \mod n = b \mod n$$

**Definition 1.1.4.** (Greatest Common Divisor) Let a, b be integers not both zero. A positive integer d is called the **greatest common divisor** (gcd(a, b) = d) of a and b if

- 1. d | a and d | b, that is, d is a common divisor of a and b
- 2.  $\forall c \in \mathbb{Z}$ , if  $c \mid a$  and  $c \mid b$ , then  $c \mid d$ .

**Definition 1.1.5.** (Least Common Multiple) Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and m be a positive integer. Then m is the **least common multiple** (lcm(a, b) = m) of a and b if m satisfies the following:

- 1.  $a \mid m$  and  $b \mid m$ , that is m is a multiple of both a and b;
- 2.  $\forall c \in \mathbb{Z}$ , if  $a \mid c$  and  $b \mid c$ , then  $m \mid c$ .

**Theorem 1.1.1.** (Bézout's Identity) Let a, b be integers, not both zero, and gcd(a, b) = d. Then  $\exists u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that d = au + bv.

**Theorem 1.1.2.** If  $a, b, u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ , where a and b are not both zero, such that au + bv = 1, then gcd(a, b) = 1.

**Exercise 1.1.2.** (Prove) If  $\alpha$  and b are relatively prime,  $c \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $\alpha \mid bc$ , then  $\alpha \mid c$ .

**Proof.** Since a and b are relatively prime, let  $gcd(a,b) = 1, c \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $a \mid bc$ . Thus, Theorem 1.1.2 implies that  $1 = au + bv \exists u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $bc = ak \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Therefore, multiplying by c, we get c = c(au + bv) = cau + bcv = cau + akv = a(cu + kv) where  $c, u, k, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Therefore,  $a \mid c$ .

**Theorem 1.1.3.** (Euclid's Lemma) Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . If p is a prime and  $p \mid ab$ , then either  $p \mid a$  or  $p \mid b$ .

**Exercise 1.1.3.** (Prove) Let a, b be nonzero integers and  $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Suppose  $a \mid c$  and  $b \mid c$  and gcd(a, b) = d. Then  $ac \mid cd$ .

**Proof.** Suppose  $c = ak_1 \wedge c = bk_2$  for some  $k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$  and d = au + bv for some  $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$  (by Bézout's identity). Thus, multiplying by  $c, cd = c(au + bv) = cau + cbv = (bk_2)qu + (ak_1)bv = ab\underbrace{(k_2u + k_1v)}_{\in \mathbb{Z}}$ 

where  $k_2u + k_1v \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Therefore,  $ab \mid cd$ .

**Theorem 1.1.4.** If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , then  $lcm(a, b) = \frac{ab}{gcd(a, b)}$ 

## 1.1.2 Equivalence Relation

**Definition 1.1.6.** (Relation) A **relation** R between sets A and B is any subset  $R \subseteq A \times B$ . A relation R on a set A is a subset of  $A \times A$ .

**Definition 1.1.7.** (Equivalence Relation) An **equivalence relation** E on a set A is a relation on A such that the following are satisfied for all  $x, y, z \in A$ :

- 1. (reflexive)  $(x, x) \in E$ ;
- 2. (symmetric)  $(x, y) \in E \Rightarrow (y, x) \in E$ ;
- 3. **(transitive)**  $(x,y) \in E$  and  $(y,z) \in E \Rightarrow (x,z) \in E$ .

**Definition 1.1.8.** (Equivalence Class) Let E be an equivalence relation on A and let  $\alpha \in A$ . Consider the set

$$[\mathfrak{a}]_{\mathsf{E}} = \{ x \in \mathsf{A} \mid (x, \mathfrak{a}) \in \mathsf{E} \}$$

The set  $[a]_E$  is called the **equivalence class** of a with respect to E and a is called a **representative** of this class. We often denote by A/E the set of the equivalence classes with respect to E.

#### Remark 1.1.3.

- 1. The relation congruence modulo n is an equivalence relation on the set of integers.
- 2. If  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  and  $c \equiv \pmod{n}$ , then
  - (a)  $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{n}$
  - (b)  $ac \equiv bd \pmod{n}$

#### **Exercise 1.1.4.** Consider the relation $\sim$ on $\mathbb{Z}$ defined as follows:

$$a \sim b \text{ iff } 5 \mid (a - b)$$

- a. Show that  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on  $\mathbb{Z}$ .
- b. Describe the equivalence classes of  $\mathbb{Z}$  with respect to  $\sim$ .

#### Solution.

- a. We show that  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on  $\mathbb{Z}$ .
  - i. (reflexive) Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$5 \mid 0 = (\alpha - \alpha) \Rightarrow \alpha \sim \alpha$$

ii. (**symmetric**) Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Suppose  $a \sim b \Leftrightarrow 5 \mid (a - b)$ . Then, there exists  $k \in Z$  such that a - b = 5k.

$$\Rightarrow -(b-a) = 5k \Rightarrow b-a = 5(-k) \text{ where } (-k) \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow 5 \mid (b-a) \Rightarrow b \sim a$$

- iii. (**transitive**) Let  $a,b,c\in\mathbb{Z}$ . Suppose  $a\sim b\wedge b\sim c$ . Thus  $5\mid (a-b)$  and  $5\mid (b-c)$ . These imply that  $a-b=5k_1$  and  $b-c=5k_2$  for some  $k_1,k_2\in\mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $(a-b)+(b-c)=5k_1+5k_2\Rightarrow a-c=5(k_1+k_2)$  where  $k_1+k_2\in\mathbb{Z}$ . Thus,  $5\mid (a-c)\Rightarrow a\sim c$ .
- b. Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then,

$$[a]_{\sim} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \sim a\} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid 5 \mid (x - a)\}$$

$$= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x - a = 5k \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x = a + 5k, \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

$$= \{a + 5k \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

$$\mathbb{Z}/_{\sim} = \{[0]_{\sim}, [1]_{\sim}, [2]_{\sim}, [3]_{\sim}, [4]_{\sim}\}$$

For the second part:

**Exercise 1.1.5.** Let  $A = \mathbb{R}$ . Consider the relation  $\sim$  on A defined as follows:

$$a \sim b \text{ iff } ab > 0$$

- 1. Show that  $\sim$  is not an equivalence relation on  $\mathbb R$
- 2. Is ~ an equivalence relation on  $\mathbb{R}/\{0\}$ ? Justify your answer.

#### Solution.

- 1. Note that  $0 \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $0 \cdot 0 = 0 \not > 0$   $(0 \not \sim 0)$ , so  $\sim$  is not reflexive. Since  $\sim$  is not reflexive, it is not an equivalence relation.
- 2. Second part:
  - i. (reflexive) Let  $a \in \mathbb{R}^*$ . We have  $a \cdot a = a^2 > 0$ . Therefore,  $a \sim a$ .
  - ii. (symmetric) Let  $a,b \in \mathbb{R}^*$  and  $a \sim b \Rightarrow ab > 0$ . Then ba = ab > 0. Therefore,  $b \sim a$ .
  - iii. (transitive) Let  $a,b,c \in \mathbb{R}^*$  and  $a \sim b \wedge b \sim c$ . Hence, ab>0 and bc>0. Therefore, their product is  $(ab)(bc)<0 \Rightarrow ab^2c>0 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{b^2}(ab^2c)>\frac{1}{b^2}\cdot 0 \Rightarrow ac>0 \Rightarrow a \sim c$

Therefore,

$$\begin{array}{lll} [1]_{\sim} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^* \mid x \sim 1\} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^* \mid x = x \cdot 1 > 0\} = (0, +\infty) \\ [-1]_{\sim} &= \{x \in \mathbb{R}^* \mid x \sim -1\} &= \{x \in \mathbb{R}^* \mid -x = x(-1) > 0\} &= \{x \in \mathbb{R}^* \mid x < 0\} = (-\infty, 0) \\ \mathbb{R}^*/_{\sim} = \{[1]_{\sim}, [-1]_{\sim}\} \end{array}$$

**Theorem 1.1.5.** Let n be a fixed positive integer and  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then a mod  $n = b \mod n$  if and only if  $a \equiv b \pmod n$ .

# 1.2 Friday, September 16: Binary Operations and Groups

## 1.2.1 Binary Operations

**Definition 1.2.1.** (Function) A **function** f from set A to set B (denoted by  $f: A \to B$ ) is a relation between A and B such that each  $a \in A$  appears as the first member of exactly one ordered pair  $(a,b) \in f$ , that is, f is a rule that assigns to each  $a \in A$  exactly one  $b \in B$ . The element a is called a **preimage** of b under f, and b is called the **image** of a under f or the value of the function f at a and is usually denoted by f(a).

**Remark 1.2.1.** Consider the function  $f : A \rightarrow B$ .

- 1. Then we have the following
  - (a) Dom f = A (domain of f)
  - (b) If  $x_1, x_2 \in A$  and  $x_1 = x_2$ , then  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ . In this case, f is **well-defined**

2. The set B is called the codomain of f. The range of f is the set  $f(A) = \{f(\alpha) \mid \alpha \in A\}$ . If B = A, we say f is a function on A

**Definition 1.2.2.** (Binary Operation) A **binary operation** \* on a nonempty set S is a function

$$*: S \times S \rightarrow S$$
  
 $(a, b) \mapsto a * b$ 

**Remark 1.2.2.** To verify that \* is a binary operation on  $S \neq \emptyset$ :

- 1. **closure property**:  $\forall (a, b) \in S \times S, a * b \in S$ .
- 2. uniqueness of the assigned element in  $S: \forall (a_1,b_1), (a_2,b_2) \in S \times S$ , if  $(a_1,b_1)=(a_2,b_2)$ . then  $a_1*b_1=a_2*b_2$ . This means that the operation \* is well-defined.

**Exercise 1.2.1.** Is \* defined by a \* b = ab - 1 a binary operation on  $\mathbb{Z}$ ? on  $\mathbb{Z}^*$ 

Solution.

- 1. On  $\mathbb{Z}$ ,
  - i. Let  $a,b\in\mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $a*b=ab-1\in\mathbb{Z}$ . Therefore,  $\mathbb{Z}$  is closed under \*.
  - ii. Let  $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Suppose a = c and b = d. Then, a \* b = ab 1 = cd 1 = c \* d. Hence, \* is well-defined.

Therefore, \* is a binary operation on  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

- 2. On  $\mathbb{Z}^*$ ,
  - i. Let  $a = b = 1 \in \mathbb{Z}^*$

$$a * b = 1 * 1 = 1 \cdot 1 - 1 = 0 \notin \mathbb{Z}^*$$

Therefore, \* is not a binary operation on  $\mathbb{Z}^*$ .

**Exercise 1.2.2.** Let  $R = \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 \mid |x| = |y|\}$ . Define the operation \* on  $\mathbb{Z}/R = \{[x]_R \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  by

$$[a] * [b] = [a + b]$$

where [a],  $[b] \in \mathbb{Z}/R$ . Show that \* is not well-defined.

**Proof.** Note that  $\mathbb{Z}/R = [\mathfrak{a}] = \{\mathfrak{a}, -\mathfrak{a}\} = [-\mathfrak{a}]$ . For instance, take [2] = [-2] and [3] = [3]. Then,

$$[2]*[3] = [2+3] = [5] \neq [1] = [-2+3] = [-2]*[3]$$

Therefore, \* is not well-defined. ■

# 1.2.2 Groups

**Definition 1.2.3.** (Algebraic Structure) An **algebraic system** or **algebraic structure** is a nonempty set S with one or more binary operations defined on S.

**Notation.**  $\langle S, * \rangle$  (a (binary) algebraic structure)

**Definition 1.2.4.** (Groups)  $\langle G, * \rangle$  is

- 1. a **semigroup** if \* is associative, i.e.,  $\forall a, b, c \in G$ , a \* (b \* c) = (a \* b) \* c.
- 2. a **monoid** if it is a semigroup and  $\exists e \in G$  such that  $\forall \alpha \in G$ ,  $\alpha * e = \alpha = e * \alpha$ .
- 3. a **group** if it is a monoid and  $\forall \alpha \in G$ ,  $\exists \alpha^{-1} \in G$  such that  $\alpha * \alpha^{-1} = e = \alpha^{-1} * \alpha$ .

#### **Remark 1.2.3.**

- 1.  $a, b, c \in \langle G, * \rangle$ , then a \* b \* c makes sense by (G1)
- 2. e is the **identity element** for \* and  $a^{-1}$  is the **inverse** of a
- 3. A group G is **abelian** if its binary operation \* is commutative
- 4. Order of a group G: |G|

**Exercise 1.2.3.**  $\langle 2\mathbb{Z}, \cdot \rangle$  Note:  $(\mathfrak{m}\mathbb{Z} \mid \mathfrak{m} \in \mathbb{Z})$ 

#### Solution.

- i.  $2\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$  and  $\cdot$  is associative in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Therefore,  $\cdot$  is associative in  $2\mathbb{Z}$ .
- ii. Note that 1 is an identity element in  $(\mathbb{Z}, \cdot)$ , but  $1 \notin 2\mathbb{Z}$ .

Thus,  $2\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$  is a semigroup.

Let  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ , consider  $m\mathbb{Z} = \{mx \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  under multiplication.

**Case 1:**  $m \notin \{-1,0,1\} \Rightarrow \langle m\mathbb{Z}, \cdot \rangle$  is a semigroup.

Case 2:  $\mathfrak{m} \in \{1, -1\} \Rightarrow \mathfrak{m} \mathbb{Z} = \mathsf{Z} : \langle \mathbb{Z}, \cdot \rangle$  is a monoid

**Case 3:**  $\mathfrak{m}=0\Rightarrow \mathfrak{m}\mathbb{Z}=\{0\}$  under  $\cdot$  is associative since  $0\cdot 0=0$  which implies  $e=0\in\{0\}$ . It also has an inverse since  $0*\mathfrak{a}^{-1}=e=0\Rightarrow \mathfrak{a}^{-1}=0$ . Moreover,  $\cdot$  is commutative. Thus,  $\langle\{0\},\cdot\rangle$  is an **abelian group**.

**Exercise 1.2.4.**  $\langle \mathbb{Z}, * \rangle$  where \* is defined by  $a * b = a + b + 2, \forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ 

**Solution**. Let  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ 

(G1) Note that

$$a*(b*c) = a*(b+c+2) = a+(b+c+2)+2 = a+b+c+4$$

and

$$(a * b)*c = (a + b + 2)*c = a+b+2+c+2 = a+b+c+4$$

Therefore, a \* (b \* c) = (a \* b) \* c

(G2)  $-2 \in \mathbb{Z}, \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{Z}$ 

$$a*-2 = a + (-2) + 2 = a = -2 + a + 2 = -2 * a$$

Therefore, e = -2

(G3)  $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,

$$a*(-4-a) = a+(-4-a)+2 = -2 = -4-a+a+2 = (-4-a)*a$$

Take 
$$a^{-1} = -4 - a \in \mathbb{Z}$$
.

Moreover, \* is commutative:  $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ 

$$a * b = a + b + 2 = b + a + 2 = b * a$$

Thus,  $\langle \mathbb{Z}, * \rangle$  is an abelian group.

**Exercise 1.2.5.** Let X be a non-empty set and  $G = \{f \mid f : X \to X\}$  (f is a function on X). Consider  $(G, \circ)$ , where  $\circ$  is function composition.

**Solution**. Let  $f_1, f_2 \in G$ . Then  $f_1 \circ f_2 : X \to X$  where  $x \mapsto f_1(f_2(x)) = (f_1 \circ f_2)(x)$ .

Let f, g,  $h \in G$ .

**(G1)** Let  $x \in X$ 

$$[f \circ (g \circ h)](x) = f((g \circ h)(x)) = f(g(h(x)))$$
$$= (f \circ g)(h(x))$$
$$= [(f \circ g) \circ h](x)$$

Therefore,  $f \circ (g \circ h) = (f \circ g) \circ h$ 

(G2)  $\forall x \in X$ ,

$$(\mathsf{f} \circ \, id(x)) = \mathsf{f}(id(x)) = \mathsf{f}(x) = \, id(\mathsf{f}(x)) = (id \circ \mathsf{f})(x)$$

Therefore,  $f \circ id = f = id \circ f$ 

(G3) f might not have an inverse unless f is bijective. Moreover,  $\circ$  is not always commutative. So  $\langle G, \circ \rangle$  is a monoid.

**Definition 1.2.5.** (Euler's phi function) Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . The **Euler's phi** function (or Euler's totient function)  $\phi(n)$  counts the positive intergers less than or equal to n that are relatively prime to n.

#### **Remark 1.2.4.**

- 1. Observe that  $\phi(1) = 1$  and  $|U(\mathbb{Z}_n)| = \phi(n)$
- 2. Let p be prime. Note that  $\phi(p) = p 1$ . Moreover, if  $k \ge 1$ , then  $\phi(p^k) = p^k p^{k-1}$
- 3. If  $gcd(\mathfrak{m},\mathfrak{n}) = 1$ , then  $\varphi(\mathfrak{m}\mathfrak{n}) = \varphi(\mathfrak{m})\varphi(\mathfrak{n})$
- 4. If  $a^{-1}$ ,  $b^{-1} \in G$  are inverses of  $a, b \in G$ , then
  - a.  $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$
  - b.  $(a * b)^{-1} = b^{-1} * a^{-1}$  (socks-shoes property)
- 5. The linear equations a\*x = b and y\*c = d have unique solutions x and y in G given respectively by  $x = a^{-1}*b$  and  $y = d*c^{-1}$

**Theorem 1.2.1.** Let (G, \*) be a group and  $a, b, c \in G$ .

- i. The identity element is unique
- ii. The left and right cancellation laws hold, that is, a \* b = a \* c implies b = c and b \* a = c \* a implies b = c
- iii. For each  $a \in G$ , the inverse of a is unique

# Multiplicative Notation Additive Notation operation: ab a+b identity: e or 1 0 inverse: $a^{-1}$ -a exponents: $a^n = \underbrace{a \cdot a \cdot \cdots a}_{n \text{ factors}}$ $na = \underbrace{a + a + \ldots a}_{n \text{ addends}}$ $(a^m)^n = a^{mn} = a^{nm}$ n(ma) = (nm)a = (mn)a $a^m \cdot a^n = a^{m+n}$ ma + na = (m+n)a $a^{-n} = (a^n)^{-1} = (a^{-1})^n$ (-n)a = -(na) = n(-a) $a^0 = e$ 0a = 0 $a^1 = a$ 1a = a

**Exercise 1.2.6.** Complete the following Cayley table for the group  $\langle \{e, a, b, c, d, * \rangle \}$ .

*	e	a	b	c	d
e	e				
a		b			e
b		С	d	e	
С		d		a	b
d					

Solution.

*	e	a	b	c	d
e	e	a	b	c	d
a	a	b	c	d	e
b	b	С	d	e	a
С	С	d	e	a	b
d	d	e	a	b	c

**Corollary 1.2.1.** In a Cayley table of a group, each element appears exactly one in each row and exactly once in each column.

**Theorem 1.2.2.** Let G be a group. Then G is abelian if and only if  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+, \forall a, b \in G, (ab)^n = a^n b^n$ 

#### Proof.

(⇒) By induction, Base case: If n = 1,

$$ab = (ab)^1 = a^1b^1 = ab$$

Assume that n=k such that  $(\alpha b)^k=\alpha^k b^k$ . This holds when  $k\in\mathbb{Z}^+$ . Then

$$(ab)^{k+1} = (ab)^k (ab) = a^k b^k ab = a^k ab^k b = a^{k+1} b^{k+1}$$

Therefore,  $(ab)^n = a^n b^n \, \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+, \forall a, b \in G$ .  $\blacksquare$   $(\Leftarrow)$  Suppose G is a group  $\land \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+, \forall a, b \in G, (ab)^n = a^n b^n$ . In particular, for n = 2,

$$(ab)^{2} = a^{2}b^{2}$$

$$(ab)(ab) = aabb$$

$$a(ba)b = aabb$$

$$ba = ab (by LCL and RCL)$$

**Definition 1.2.6.** (Order of an Element) The **order of an element** g in group G, denoted by |g| or ord(g), is the smallest positive integer n such that  $g^n = e$  (in additive notation, this would be ng = 0). If no such integer exists, we say that g has **infinite order** (that is,  $g^n \neq e, \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ).

Exercise 1.2.7. Find the order of the following elements of a group.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathsf{GL}(2, \mathbb{R})$$

Solution.

1. 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}^{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \neq \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I_{2}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}^{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I_{2} \Rightarrow$$

$$\operatorname{ord} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = 3$$

2. 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{2}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{3}$$

Claim:  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ 

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{n} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ n & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Proof: Base Case. If n = 1,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Assume that  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ k & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  is true for  $k \ge 1$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{k} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ k & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ k+1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ n & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . The order of  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  is infinite.

**Exercise 1.2.8.** Complete the order of the following elements.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \in M_{2 \times 3}(\mathbb{Z}_6)$$

**Solution**. In additive notation, find least  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ 

1. 
$$n \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} n2 & 0 & 0 \\ n4 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = 0_{2\times 3} \in M_{2\times 3}(\mathbb{Z}_6)$$
. Thus,  $n = 3$ .  
2.  $n \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & n & 0 \\ n2 & 0 & n3 \end{bmatrix} = 0_{2\times 3}$ . Thus,  $n = 6$ .

# 1.3 Friday, September 23: Isomorphic Binary Structures and Subgroups

# 1.3.1 Isomorphic Binary Structures

**Definition 1.3.1.** (Bijective Functions) Let  $f: X \to Y$ . We say that

- . f is **one-to-one** (or is an **injection**) iff  $(\forall x_1, x_2 \in X)(f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2)$ . Notation:  $f: X \stackrel{1-1}{\to} Y$
- 2. f is **onto** Y (or is a **surjection**) iff  $\{f(x) \mid x \in X\} = \text{Ranf} = Y$ , that is,  $(\forall y \in Y)(\exists x \in X)(f(x) = y)$ . Notation:  $f \stackrel{\text{onto}}{\rightarrow} Y$
- 3. f is **bijection** iff f is one-to-one and onto Y, that is,  $(\forall y \in Y)(\exists! x \in X)(f(x) = y)$

**Definition 1.3.2.** (Isomorphism) Let  $\langle S, * \rangle$  and  $\langle S', *' \rangle$  be binary algebraic structures. A function  $\varphi : S \to S'$  is an **isomorphism** of S with S' if

- 1.  $\phi$  is bijective and
- 2.  $\forall x, y \in S, \varphi(x * y) = \varphi(x) *' \varphi(y)$ . This is the homomorphism property

**Remark 1.3.1.** The concept of isomorphism introduces the relation of being isomorphic on a collection S of binary structures. This relation is an equivalence relation, that is,

- 1.  $\forall U \in S, U \cong U$
- 2.  $\forall U, V \in S \text{ if } U \cong V \text{, then } V \cong U$
- 3.  $\forall U, V, W \in S$ , if  $U \cong V$  and  $V \cong W$ , then  $U \cong W$

**Definition 1.3.3.** (Automorphism) An isomorphism of a group with itself is an automorphism of the group.

**Remark 1.3.2.** The set of all automorphisms of a group G, denoted by Aut(G), forms a group under function composition.

Note that if an isomorphism  $\phi$  exists, we say that S and S' are isomorphic

binary structures ( $S \cong S'$ ).

**Theorem 1.3.1.** (Isomorphism) Suppose  $\phi$  is an isomorphism of a group  $\langle G, * \rangle$  with  $\langle G', *' \rangle$ . Then,

- 1.  $\phi(e_G) = e_{G'}$  where  $e_G$  is the identity element of G and  $e_{G'}$  is the identity element of G'
- 2.  $\phi(g^{-1}) = [\phi(g)]^{-1}, \forall g \in G$
- 3. If G is abelian, then so is G'

**Exercise 1.3.1.** Let  $\langle G, * \rangle$  be a group and c be a fixed element of G. Show that  $\iota: G \to G$  given by  $\iota_c(g) = c * g * c^{-1}$  is an automorphism of G ( $\iota_c$  is called the inner automorphism of G induced by c)

**Solution**. Show that  $\iota_c$  is bijective.

First, we show that the function is one-to-one. Let  $g_1, g_2 \in G \land$  suppose  $\iota_c(g_1) = \iota_c(g_2)$ . Then

$$c * g_1 * c^{-1} = c * g_2 * c^{-1}$$
  
 $g_1 = g_2$  LCL and RCL

Then, we show that it is onto. Let  $g' \in G$ . Then,

$$\begin{split} \iota_c \big( c^{-1} * g' * c \big) &= c * \big( c^{-1} * g' * c \big) * c^{-1} \\ &= \big( c * c^{-1} \big) * g' * \big( c * c^{-1} \big) \\ &= g' \end{split}$$

We show the homomorphism property. Let  $g_1, g_2 \in G$ .

$$\iota_{c}(g_{1} * g_{2}) = c * (g_{1} * g_{2}) * c^{-1} 
= c * (g_{1} * e * g_{2}) * c^{-1} 
= c * (g_{1} * (c^{-1} * c) * g_{2}) * c^{-1} 
= (c * g_{1} * c^{-1}) * (c * g_{2} * c^{-1}) 
= \iota_{c}(g_{1}) * \iota_{c}(g_{2})$$

Therefore,  $\iota$  is an automorphism.

**Exercise 1.3.2.** Show that the conjugation mapping  $\phi: \mathbb{C}^* \to \mathbb{C}^*$  where  $\phi(z) = \bar{z}$  is an automorphism of  $\mathbb{C}^*$  (for  $z \in \mathbb{C}^*$ ,  $\bar{z} = a - bi$ , where z = a + bi)

**Solution**. Let x = a + bi,  $y = c + di \in \mathbb{C}^*$ . We show the homomorphism property.

$$\phi(x \cdot y) = \phi(\alpha c - bd + (bc + \alpha d)i) = (\alpha c - bd) - (bc + \alpha d)i$$

and

$$\phi(x) \cdot \phi(y) = (a - bi) \cdot (c - di) = (ac - bd) + (-bc - ad)i$$
$$= (ac - bd) - (bc + ad)i$$

Next, we show that  $\phi$  is both one-to-one and onto. For one-to-one, suppose  $\phi(\alpha+bi)=\phi(c+di)$ . Then,

$$a - bi = c - di \Rightarrow a = c \wedge b = d$$

Therefore,

$$a + bi = c + di$$

To show onto, let  $a + bi \in \mathbb{C}^*$  ( $a, b \in R$  not both zero). Then,

$$\varphi(a-bi)=a-(-b)i=a+bi$$

**Exercise 1.3.3.** Let  $S = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{-1\}$ 

- 1. Verify that \* defined by  $a*b=a+b+ab, \forall a,b\in S$  is a binary operation
- 2. Show that  $\langle S, * \rangle$  is an abelian group
- 3. Prove that  $S \cong \mathbb{R}^*$

Solution.

1. Closure: Let  $a, b \in S$ . Note that  $a * b = a + b + ab \in \mathbb{R}$  We will show that  $a * b \neq -1$ . Suppose, by contradiction, that a \* b = a + b + ab = -1. Then,

$$a + b + ab = -1$$

$$a + b(1 + a) = -1$$

$$b(1 + a) = -(1 + a)$$

$$b = -1$$

This is a contradiction since  $b \neq -1$ . Therefore,  $a * b \neq -1$ . So  $a * b \in \mathbb{R}/\{-1\} = S$ .

Well-defined: Let  $a, b, c, d \in S$ . Suppose  $a = c \land b = d$ . Then,

$$a * b = a + b + ab = c + d + cd = c * d$$

2. \* is commutative. Let  $a, b \in S = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{-1\}$ .

$$a * b = a + b + ab = b + a + ba = b * a$$

**(G1)** \* is associative: Let  $a, b, c \in S$ .

$$(a * b) * c = (a + b + ab) * c$$
  
=  $(a + b + ab) + c + (a + b + ab)c$ 

$$= a + b + ab + c + ac + bc + abc$$

$$a * (b * c) = a * (b + c + bc)$$

$$= a + (b + c + bc) + a(b + c + bc)$$

$$= a + b + c + bc + ab + ac + abc$$

$$= a + b + ab + c + ac + bc + abc$$

**(G2)** Pre-proof: Find e such that a \* e = a,  $\forall a \in S$ .

$$a = a * e = a + e + ae = a + (1 + a)e \Rightarrow e = 0$$
 
$$0 \in S = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{-1\}, \forall a \in S.$$
 
$$0 * a = a * 0 = a + 0 + 0 = a$$

 $0 * \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u} * 0 = \mathbf{u} + 0 + 0 =$ 

So, we take e = 0.

**(G3)** Inverse: Pre-proof: Let  $a \in S$ . Find b such that

$$0 = a * b = a + b + ab = b(1+a) + a \Rightarrow \frac{-a}{1+a} = b$$

Proof.  $\forall a \in S$ 

$$\frac{-a}{1+a} * a = a * \frac{-a}{1+a} = a + \frac{-a}{1+a} + \frac{a(-a)}{1+a}$$
$$= \frac{a(1+a) - a - a^2}{1+a}$$
$$= \frac{a + a^2 - a - a^2}{1+a} = 0$$

Show that  $\frac{-\alpha}{1+\alpha} \in S = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{-1\}.$ 

$$\frac{-\mathfrak{a}}{1+\mathfrak{a}} \in \mathbb{R} \quad (-\mathfrak{a} \in S, 1+\mathfrak{a} \neq 0)$$

We show  $\frac{-a}{1+a} \neq -1$ . By contradiction, suppose  $\frac{-a}{1+a} = -1$ . Then

$$\frac{-\alpha}{1+\alpha} = -1$$

$$-\alpha = -(1+\alpha)$$

$$-\alpha = -1 - \alpha$$

$$0 \neq -1 \text{ (a contradiction)}$$

3. If  $\phi: \mathbb{R}^* \to S$  is an isomorphism, then  $\phi(1)=0$   $(e_s=0 \land e_{\mathbb{R}^*}=1)$ . We define  $\phi: \mathbb{R}^* \to S$  which has a

map  $x \mapsto x - 1$ .

 $\phi(x) = x - 1 \neq -1$  since  $x \neq 0$ . So  $\phi(x) \in S$ .  $\phi$  is well-defined for  $x = y \in \mathbb{R}^*$ ,  $\phi(x) = x - 1 = y - 1 = \phi(y)$ .

We show that  $\phi$  is one-to-one:  $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^*$ , suppose  $\phi(x) = \phi(y)$ . Then,  $x - 1 = y - 1 \Leftrightarrow x = y$ .

We show that  $\phi$  is onto: Let  $y \in S = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{-1\}$ . Then,

$$\phi(\underbrace{y+1}_{\in \mathbb{R}^*}) = y+1-1 = y$$

To show homomorphism property, let  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^*$ . Then

$$\varphi(xy) = xy - 1$$

and

$$\phi(x) * \phi(y) = (x-1) * (y-1) = x-1+y-1+(x-1)(y-1)$$
  
= x + y - 2 + xy - x - y + 1 = xy - 1 = \phi(xy)

**Exercise 1.3.4.** Show:  $\langle 2\mathbb{Z}, + \rangle \ncong \langle 2\mathbb{Z}, \cdot \rangle$ 

**Proof.** Note that  $\langle 2\mathbb{Z}, + \rangle$  is an abelian group while  $\langle 2\mathbb{Z}, \cdot \rangle$  is only a semigroup. Thus,  $\langle 2\mathbb{Z}, \cdot \rangle$  does not have an identity element while  $\langle 2\mathbb{Z}, + \rangle$  has. Therefore,  $\langle 2\mathbb{Z}, + \rangle$ .

### 1.3.2 Subgroup

A goal of (finite) group theory is to enumerate all finite groups of order n (up to isomorphism). Note that there is only group (up to isomorphism) of orders 1, 2, and 3. On the other hand, there are two groups (up to isomorphism) of order four.

**Definition 1.3.4.** Let  $\langle G, * \rangle$  be a group and  $\emptyset \neq H \subseteq G$ . If  $\langle H, * \rangle$  is also a group, we say that H is a subgroup of G. Notation:  $H \leq G$ .

**Theorem 1.3.2.** (3-step Subgroup Test) Let G be a group and  $H \subseteq G$ . Then  $H \leqslant G$  iff

- 1.  $e \in H$  (e identity element of G)
- 2.  $\forall h_1, h_2 \in H, h_1 h_2 \in H$
- 3.  $\forall h \in H, h^{-1} \in H$

**Theorem 1.3.3.** (2-step Subgroup Test) Let G be a group and  $H \subseteq G$ . Then  $H \leqslant G$  iff

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

**Exercise 1.3.5.** Suppose  $G = \{e, y, u, v, w, x, y, z\}$  is the group defined by the table below.

Is G an abelian group? Compute  $C(\alpha) = \{g \in G \mid \alpha g = g\alpha\}$  (centralizer of  $\alpha$  in G), for every  $\alpha \in G$  and use this to find  $Z(G) = \bigcap_{\alpha \in G} C(\alpha)$  (center of G).

**Exercise 1.3.6.** Let G be an abelian group with identity *e*. Show that the following are subgroups of G.

- (a)  $H_1 = \{x^2 \mid x \in G\}$
- (b)  $H_2 = \{x \in G \mid x^3 = e\}$

**Proof.** Using 3-step subgroup test.

- Let e be the identity element of G. Then  $e = e^2 \in H_1$
- Let  $x^2, y^2 \in H_1$  where  $x, y \in G$ . Then,

$$x^2y^2=(xy)^2\quad (H_1\subseteq G \text{ is abelian})$$

Since  $xy \in G$  (G is a group),  $x^2y^2 \in H_1$ .

• Let  $x^2 \in H_1$ . Since  $x \in G$ ,  $x^{-1} \in G$  (G is a group). Note that  $(x^2)^{-1} = (x^{-1})^2 \in H_1$ .

Therefore,  $H_1 \leqslant G$ .

**Exercise 1.3.7.** Suppose  $\phi$  is an isomorphism of a group  $\langle G, * \rangle$  with  $\langle G', *' \rangle$ .

- 1. Show that if G is abelian, then so is G'
- 2. Suppose  $H \leqslant G$ . Show that  $\phi(H) = \{\phi(h) \mid h \in H\} \leqslant G'$

#### Solution.

(a) Let  $x', y' \in G'$ . Show x' \* y' = y' \* x'. Since  $\varphi$  is onto,  $\exists x, y \in G$  such that  $\varphi(x) = x' \land \varphi(y) = y'$ 

$$x' *' y' = \phi(x) *' \phi(y)$$
  
=  $\phi(x * y)$  ( $\phi$  is isomorphism)  
=  $\phi(y * x)$  ( $G$  is abelian)  
=  $\phi(y) *' \phi(x)$  ( $\phi$  is isomorphism)  
=  $y' * x'$ 

- (b) Note that  $\phi \subseteq G'$ . Using 2-step subgroup test,
  - Let e' be the identity element of G'. We know that  $\varphi(e) = e'$ , where e is the identity element of G. Since  $H \leqslant G$ ,  $e \in H$ . Hence,  $e' = \varphi(e) \in \varphi(H)$
  - Let  $\phi(x)$ ,  $\phi(y) \in \phi(H)$  with  $x, y \in H \leq G$ . We show that  $\phi(x) *' (\phi(y))^{-1} \in \phi(H)$

$$\phi(x) *' (\phi(y))^{-1} = \phi(x) *' \phi(y^{-1})$$
$$= \phi(x * y^{-1}) \quad (\phi \text{ is an isomorphism })$$

Therefore,  $\phi(x * y^{-1}) \in \phi(H)$ 

# 1.4 Friday, September 30: Cyclic Groups

We recall the definition of the order of an element g in group G.

**Theorem 1.4.1.** Let G be a group,  $a \in G$  and  $i \neq j$ , with  $i, j \in \mathbb{Z}$ . If  $a^i = a^j$ , then a has finite order.

**Remark 1.4.1.** Let G be a group,  $a \in G$  and  $i \neq j$ , with  $i, j \in \mathbb{Z}$ . If a has infinite order, then  $a^i \neq a^j$  (that is, the elements  $a^k$  where  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  are all distinct).

**Theorem 1.4.2.** Let G be a group and  $a \in G$ . Then  $\langle a \rangle = \{a^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  is a subgroup of G, and is the smallest subgroup of G that contains a.

**Definition 1.4.1.** (Cyclic Subgroup) Let G be a group and  $\alpha \in G$ . The subgroup  $\langle \alpha \rangle = \{\alpha^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  is called the cyclic subgroup of G generated by  $\alpha$ .

**Remark 1.4.2.** Let G be a group and  $a \in G$ .

1. 
$$\langle a \rangle = \langle a^{-1} \rangle$$

- 2. If G is an infinite group,  $\langle a \rangle$ , need not be infinite
- 3. Let  $a, b \in G$ . If  $a \in \langle b \rangle$ , then  $\langle a \rangle \subseteq \langle b \rangle$
- 4. The subgroup  $\langle a \rangle$  is abelian

**Definition 1.4.2.** (Cyclic Group) A group G is called a cyclic group if  $\exists \alpha \in G$  such that  $G = \langle \alpha \rangle$ . The element  $\alpha$  is said to generate G or  $\alpha$  is a generator of G.

**Remark 1.4.3.** Let  $G = \langle \alpha \rangle$  where  $\alpha \in G$ .

- G is an abelian group
- a is of infinite order  $\Rightarrow$  distinct powers of a are distinct elements and  $G\cong\mathbb{Z}$
- $|\mathfrak{a}| = \mathfrak{n} \Rightarrow G = \{e, \mathfrak{a}, \dots, \mathfrak{a}^{n-1}\}, \mathfrak{a}^{\mathfrak{i}} = \mathfrak{a}^{\mathfrak{j}} \text{ if and only if } \mathfrak{i} \equiv \mathfrak{j} \pmod{\mathfrak{n}} \text{ and } G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{\mathfrak{n}}$
- every subgroup of G is cyclic

**Exercise 1.4.1.** Suppose  $G = \{e, t, u, v, w, x, y, z\}$  is the group defined by the table below.

	i							
*	e	t	u	ν	w	χ	y	z
e	e	t	u	ν	w	χ	y	z
t	t	e	ν	u	y	z	w	χ
u	u	ν	e	t	$\boldsymbol{z}$	y	χ	w
ν	ν	u	t	e	χ	w	z	y
w	w	y	χ	z	t	ν	e	u
χ	χ	z w	w	y	u	e	ν	t
y	y	w	z	χ	e	u	t	ν
z	z	χ	y	w	ν	t	u	e

Find the elements of  $\langle x \rangle$  and  $\langle y \rangle$ 

**Solution**. We have the following

$$\langle \mathbf{x} \rangle = \{\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{x}\}$$

and

$$\langle y \rangle = \{e, y, t, w\}$$

**Exercise 1.4.2.** Determine whether the following are cyclic groups

- (a)  $U(\mathbb{Z}_{10}) = \{1, 3, 7, 9\}$
- (b)  $U(\mathbb{Z}_8) = \{1, 3, 5, 7\}$

Solution.

(a) We will see what element generates the group. We have

$$\langle 1 \rangle = \{1\}$$

$$\langle 3 \rangle = \{1, 3, 9, 7\}$$

Since there is a generator. Then it is a cyclic group. Furthermore, this is also isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_4$ 

(b) Similarly,

$$\langle 1 \rangle = \{1\}$$

$$\langle 3 \rangle = \{1, 3\}$$

$$\langle 5 \rangle = \{1, 5\}$$

$$\langle 7 \rangle = \{1, 7\}$$

Since there is no generator, then this is not cyclic group. However, this group is isomorphic to  $V_4$  (Klein-4 group)

**Theorem 1.4.3.** Let G be a group and  $a \in G$ . Suppose a has finite order n. Then,

i. 
$$\langle a \rangle = \{e, a, a^2, a^3, \dots, a^{n-1}\}$$

ii. For 
$$i, j \in \mathbb{Z}$$
,  $\alpha^i = \alpha^j$  if and only if  $i \equiv j \pmod{n}$ 

**Remark 1.4.4.** Let G be a group and  $a \in G$ .

- 1. Let  $\langle \alpha \rangle$  be a finite cyclic subgroup of G. Then  $|\alpha| = |\langle \alpha \rangle|$
- 2. Suppose |a| = n for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , and  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $a^k = e$  if and only if  $n \mid k$
- 3. If a is of infinite order, then

$$\langle \alpha \rangle = \{\ldots, \alpha^{-2}, \alpha^{-1}, e, \alpha^{1}, \alpha^{2}, \ldots \}$$

**Theorem 1.4.4.** Every subgoup of a cyclic group is cyclic.

**Theorem 1.4.5.** Let  $G = \langle a \rangle$  with  $|a| = n, k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and  $d = \gcd(n, k)$ . Then,

1. 
$$\langle a^k \rangle = \langle a^d \rangle$$
 and  
2.  $|a^k| = \frac{n}{d}$ 

$$2. \ \left| a^{k} \right| = \frac{n}{d}$$

**Corollary 1.4.1.** Let  $G = \langle a \rangle$  with |a| = n and  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Then  $a^m$  is a generator of G if and only if gcd(n, m) = 1

**Corollary 1.4.2.** Let  $G = \langle a \rangle$  with |a| = n. Then for every positive divisor d of n,  $\exists ! H \leq G$  with |H| = d.

**Remark 1.4.5.** The distinct subgroups of  $G = \langle a \rangle$  where |a| = n are those subgroups  $\langle a^d \rangle$  where d is a positive divisor of n.

**Exercise 1.4.3.** Sketch the subgroup lattice of  $\mathbb{Z}_{18}$ . Find all generators of each distinct subgroups.

**Solution**. Recall from Remark 14 that the distinct subgroups is generated by  $\langle a^d \rangle$  where d is a positive divisor of n. Note that the positive divisors of 18 are 1, 2, 3, 6, 9, 18. Then, we have the following Subgroup of order 18: (We'll use Corollary 2)

$$\mathbb{Z}_{18} = \langle 1 \rangle = \langle 5 \rangle = \langle 7 \rangle = \langle 11 \rangle = \langle 13 \rangle = \langle 17 \rangle$$

Subgorup of order 9: (From Corollary 2, gcd(9, k) = 1)

$$\left\langle \frac{18}{9} \cdot 1 \right\rangle = \left\langle 2 \right\rangle = \left\langle 4 \right\rangle = \left\langle 8 \right\rangle = \left\langle 10 \right\rangle = \left\langle 14 \right\rangle = \left\langle 16 \right\rangle = \left\{ 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16 \right\}$$

Subgroup of order 6:  $(\gcd(6, k) = 1)$ 

$$\left\langle \frac{18}{6} \cdot 1 \right\rangle = \langle 3 \rangle = \langle 15 \rangle = \{0, 3, 6, 9, 12, 15\}$$

Subgroup of order 3:  $(\gcd(3, k) = 1)$ 

$$\left\langle \frac{18}{3} \cdot 1 \right\rangle = \left\langle 6 \right\rangle = \left\langle 12 \right\rangle = \left\{ 0, 6, 12 \right\}$$

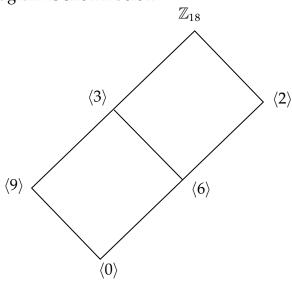
Subgorup of order 2: (gcd(2, k) = 1)

$$\left\langle \frac{18}{2} \cdot 1 \right\rangle = \langle 9 \rangle$$

Subgroup of order 1:

$$\langle 0 \rangle = \{0\}$$

The lattice diagram is shown below.



**Exercise 1.4.4.** If a is an element of a group where  $|a^4| = 12$ , what are the possibilities for |a|?

**Solution**. Since  $|a^4| = 12$ , then we have  $(a^4)^{12} = a^{48} = e$ . Thus, we have  $|\mathfrak{a}| \mid 48$ . So  $48 = |\mathfrak{a}| \cdot k$ ,  $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Since  $\langle \mathfrak{a}^4 \rangle \leqslant \langle \mathfrak{a} \rangle$ ,  $|\langle \mathfrak{a}^4 \rangle| \mid$  $\langle a \rangle = |a|$ , so 12 | |a| Therefore,  $|a| = 12 \cdot m$ ,  $\exists m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . This gives us  $48 = |a| \cdot k = 12 \cdot mk \Rightarrow mk = 4$  So the values of m could be 1, 2, 4. Therefore, we have  $|\alpha| = 12, 24, 48$ .

Case 1: If 
$$|a| = 12$$
, then  $|a^4| = \frac{12}{\gcd(12,4)} = \frac{12}{4} = 3$   
Case 2: If  $|a| = 24$ , then  $|a^4| = \frac{24}{\gcd(24,4)} = \frac{24}{4} = 6$ 

Case 2: If 
$$|a| = 24$$
, then  $|a^4| = \frac{24}{\gcd(24, 4)} = \frac{24}{4} = 6$ 

Case 3: If 
$$|\alpha| = 48$$
, then  $|\alpha^4| = \frac{48}{\gcd(48,4)} = \frac{48}{4} = 12$ 

The first two cases are contradictions. Therefore the order of |a| is 48.

**Exercise 1.4.5.** Let  $G = \langle a \rangle$ , with |a| = 72. Find

- (b) all generators of the subgroup of G of order 12

Solution.

(a) Note that  $a^{188} = a^{2 \cdot 72 + 44} = (a^{72})^2 \cdot a^{44} = a^{44}$ 

$$\left| a^{188} \right| = \left| a^{44} \right| = \frac{72}{\gcd(72,44)} = \frac{72}{4} = 18$$

(b) We need to find m such that gcd(m, 12) = 1 since  $12 = \left| a^{\frac{72}{12}} \right| =$  $\left|\left(\mathfrak{a}^{6}\right)^{\mathfrak{m}}\right|$  where  $\gcd(\mathfrak{m},12)=1$ . Therefore,  $\mathfrak{m}=1,5,7,11$ . Thus, the generators of a subgroup of order 12 are  $\alpha^6$ ,  $\alpha^{30}$ ,  $\alpha^{42}$ ,  $\alpha^{66}$ .

**Exercise 1.4.6.** Suppose a, b are elements of a finite group. Prove:

- If  $|a| = |a^2|$ , then |a| is odd
- $|a| = |b^{-1}ab|$

Solution.

- Note that  $\frac{|a|}{\gcd(|a|,2)}=\left|a^2\right|=|a|$  (group is finite). Therefore, gcd(|a|, 2) = 1. This implies that |a| is odd.
- Note that  $|b^{-1}ab| < \infty$ . Suppose |a| = m and  $|b^{-1}ab| = n$ where  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . This implies that

$$e = (b^{-1}ab)^{n} = (b^{-1}ab)(b^{-1}ab)\dots(b^{-1}ab)$$
$$= b^{-1}a^{n}b$$

Note that  $e = b \cdot e \cdot b^{-1}$ . Thus, we can use this to generate

$$e = b \cdot e \cdot b^{-1} = b(b^{-1}a^{n}b)b^{-1} = a^{n}$$

Therefore,  $m \mid n$ .

Now,  $e = a^m \Rightarrow e = b^{-1}eb = b^{-1}(a^m)b = (b^{-1}ab)^m$ . This implies that  $n \mid m$  where  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .

Since  $m \mid n$  and  $n \mid m$ , we get m = n.

**Exercise 1.4.7.** Prove that if a group G has no proper nontrivial subgroups, then G is a cyclic group.

**Proof.** Let  $g \in G$  with  $g \neq e$ . Then  $\langle g \rangle \leqslant G$  and  $\langle g \rangle \neq \{e\}$ . Since G has no proper nontrivial subgroup,  $\langle g \rangle = G$ . Hence, G is cyclic.

**Exercise 1.4.8.** Let G be an abelian group. Show that the elements of finite order in G form a subgroup. This subgroup is called the torsion subgroup of G.

**Proof.** Let  $T = \{a \in G \mid a^n = e \exists n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$ . We will show that  $T \leqslant G$  using 3-step subgroup test.

- We know that  $e^n = e$ ,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \Rightarrow e \in T$ .
- Let  $a,b\in T$ . Then  $a^{n_1}e\exists n_1\in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and  $b^{n_2}=e\exists n_2\in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . We have,

$$(\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b})^{n_1n_2}=\mathfrak{a}^{n_1n_2}\mathfrak{b}^{n_1n_2}=(\mathfrak{a}^{n_1})^{n_2}\cdot (\mathfrak{b}^{n_2})^{n_1}=e^{n_2}\cdot e^{n_1}=e \text{ and } n_1n_2\in \mathbb{Z}^+$$

• Let  $a \in T$ . Then  $a^n = e \exists n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Therefore,  $(a^{-1})^n = (a^n)^{-1} = e^{-1} = e$ 

# 1.5 Friday, October 7: Cosets and Theorem of Lagrange

#### 1.5.1 Cosets

**Theorem 1.5.1.** Let G be a group and suppose  $H \leqslant G$ . Let the relation  $\sim_L$  be defined on G by  $\mathfrak{a} \sim_L \mathfrak{b} \Leftrightarrow \mathfrak{a}^{-1}\mathfrak{b} \in H$  and let the relation  $\sim_R$  be defined on G by  $\mathfrak{a} \sim_R \mathfrak{b} \Leftrightarrow \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}^{-1} \in H$ . Then  $\sim_L$  and  $\sim_R$  are both equivalence relations on G.

**Definition 1.5.1.** Let G be a gorup and suppose  $H \leq G$ . The subset

$$Ha = \{ha \mid h \in H\}$$

of G is the **right coset of** H **containing** a whit the set

$$aH = \{ah \mid h \in H\}$$

of G is the **left coset of** H **containing**  $\alpha$ . In  $\alpha$ H or H $\alpha$ ,  $\alpha$  is called a **coset representative**. Any element of  $\alpha$ H or H $\alpha$  can be made a representative of the coset.

**Exercise 1.5.1.** Let  $Q_8 = \{1, i, j, k, -1, -i, -j, -k\}$  (quaternion group) with identity element 1 and noncummitative multiplication given by

$$(-1)^2 = 1, i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1$$
   
  $ij = -ji - k, jk = -kj = i, ki = -ik = j$    
  $-x = (-1)x = x(-1) \forall x \in Q_8$ 

- Find the center of this group
- Let  $H = \{1, j, -1, -j\}$ . Find the left and right cosets of subgroup H in  $Q_8$

**Solution**. • Note that we are looking for values in  $Q_8$  that commutes with every element. Thus,  $z(Q_8) = \{z \in Q_8 \mid xz = zx \, \forall x \in Q_8\} = \{1, -1\}.$ 

• The left cosets of subgroup H in  $Q_8$  are

$$H = (1)H = jH = (-1)H = (-j)H$$

and

$$kH = \{k, -i, -k, i\} = (-i)H = (-k)H = iH$$

So we have  $H \cup kH = Q_8$ .

The right cosets are

$$\mathsf{H}=\mathsf{H}(1)=\mathsf{H}\mathfrak{j}=\mathsf{H}(-1)=\mathsf{H}(-\mathfrak{j})$$

and

$$Hi = \{i, -k, -i, k\} = H(-k) = H(-i) = Hk$$

So we have,  $H \cup Hi = Q_8$ .

**Exercise 1.5.2.** Consider  $\langle U(\mathbb{Z}_{16}), \cdot_{16} \rangle$ . Find the left cosets of the subgroups  $\langle 7 \rangle$  and  $\langle 11 \rangle$  in  $U(\mathbb{Z}_{16})$ 

**Solution**. Note that  $U(Z_{16}) = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15\}.$ 

• For  $\langle 7 \rangle$ , we have

$$\langle 7 \rangle = \{1,7\} = 1 \langle 7 \rangle = 7 \langle 7 \rangle$$
$$3 \langle 7 \rangle = \{3,5\} = 5 \langle 7 \rangle$$
$$9 \langle 7 \rangle = \{9,15\} = 15 \langle 7 \rangle$$
$$11 \langle 7 \rangle = \{11,13\} = 13 \langle 7 \rangle$$

So we have 4 left cosets of  $\langle 7 \rangle$ . Note that the right cosets are the same since the group is abelian.

• For (11)

$$\langle 11 \rangle = \{1, 11, 9, 3\}$$
  
  $5\langle 11 \rangle = \{5, 7, 13, 15\}$ 

So we have 2 left cosets of  $\langle 11 \rangle$ .

**Remark 1.5.1.** Let G be a group and  $H \leq G$ .

- 1. If  $e \in G$  is the identity, eH = H = He
- 2. For any  $a \in G$ ,  $a \in aH$
- 3. Let  $a, b \in G$

$$a. \ \alpha H = bH \Leftrightarrow \alpha^{-1}b \in H$$

b. 
$$Ha = Hb \Leftrightarrow ab^{-1} \in H$$

4. Let  $a \in G$ 

(a) 
$$aH = H \Leftrightarrow a \in H$$

(b) 
$$Ha = H \Leftrightarrow a \in H$$

5. If G is abelian, then aH = Ha. The converse is not necessarily true. That is, there exist subgroups H for which aH = Ha, for all  $a \in G$ , even if G is not abelian.

# 1.5.2 Theorem of Lagrange

**Theorem 1.5.2.** Let G be a group and suppose  $H \leq G$ . Then for any  $a \in G$ , |H| = |aH| = |Ha|.

**Theorem 1.5.3.** (Lagrange) Let G be a finite group and suppose  $H \le G$ . Then |H| divides |G|.

**Corollary 1.5.1.** Let G be a finite group with |G| = n. Then, for any  $a \in G$ , |a| divides n and  $a^n = e$ .

**Exercise 1.5.3.** Consider the dihedral group  $D_{10}$  where  $a^{10} = b^2 = (ab)^2 = e$ . Find the order of the element  $ba^6b^{-1}a^{22}b^6$ 

**Solution**. Note that  $|D_{10}|=2\cdot 10=20$  and  $D_{10}=\langle \alpha\rangle\cup\{\alpha^k b\mid k=0,1,\ldots,9\}$ . Moreover,  $b\alpha^k=\alpha^{10-k}b, k\in\mathbb{Z}^+$ . Note that

$$ba^{6}b^{-1}a^{22}b^{6} = a^{4}bba^{2} = a^{4}a^{2} = a^{6}$$

Therefore, 
$$\left| b a^6 b^{-1} a^{22} b^6 \right| = \left| a^6 \right| = \frac{10}{\gcd(10,6)} = \frac{10}{2} = 5$$

**Corollary 1.5.2.** Every group of prime order is cyclic.

**Definition 1.5.2.** The number of distinct left cosets of H in G is called the **index of** H **in** G and is denoted by [G : H].

**Remark 1.5.2.** A subgroup with index 1 is the whole group.

**Corollary 1.5.3.** If G is a finite group and  $K \le H \le G$ , then  $[G : K] = [G : H] \cdot [H : K]$ 

**Theorem 1.5.4.** Let  $H \leq G$ . Then the number of left cosets of H is equal to the number of right cosets of H in G.

**Exercise 1.5.4.** If H and K are subgroups of G and  $g \in G$ , show that  $g(H \cap K) = gH \cap gK$ 

#### Proof.

 $(\subseteq)$  Let  $gx \in g(H \cap K)$ .

$$\Rightarrow x \in H \cap K$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in H \wedge x \in K$$

$$\Rightarrow gx \in gH \wedge gx \in gK$$

$$\Rightarrow gx \in gH \cap gK$$

(⊇) Let  $gy \in gH \cap gK$ .

$$\Rightarrow gy \in gH \land gy \in gK$$
$$\Rightarrow y \in H \land y \in K$$
$$\Rightarrow y \in H \cap K$$
$$\Rightarrow gy \in g(G \cap K)$$

**Exercise 1.5.5.** Suppose G is a finite group with |G| = n and gcd(k, n) = 1. If  $g \in G$  and  $g^k = e$ , show that g = e.

**Proof.** Note that  $|g| \mid n = |G|$ . Since  $g^k = e$ ,  $|g| \mid k$ . This means that |g| is a common divisor of  $n \land k$ . Therefore, |g| = 1 since gcd(k, n) = 1. Therefore g = e.

**Exercise 1.5.6.** Suppose that K is a proper subgroup of H and H is a proper subgroup of G. If |K| = 40 and |G| = 600, what are the possible orders of H?

**Solution**. By the theorem of Lagrange, we have  $|K| \mid |H|$  and  $|H| \mid |G|$ . This implies that  $40 \mid |H|$  and  $|H| \mid 600$ . Thus, there exists  $k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $|H| = 40k_1$  and  $600 = |H|k_2$ . Therefore,  $600 = |H|k_2 = 40k_1k_2 \Rightarrow k_1k_2 = 15$ .

**Case 1:** If  $k_1 = 1$  and  $k_2 = 15$ ,  $|H| = 40k_1 = 40 \cdot 1 = 40 = |K|$ . This is not possible since K is a proper subgroup of H.

**Case 2:** If  $k_1 = 15$  and  $k_2 = 1$ ,  $|H| = 40k_1 = 40 \cdot 15 = 400 = |G|$ . This is not possible since H < G.

**Case 3:** If  $k_1 = 5$  and  $k_2 = 3$ ,  $|H| = 40k_1 = 40 \cdot 3 = 120$ .

**Case 4:** If  $k_1 = 3$  and  $k_2 = 5$ ,  $|H| = 40k_1 = 40 \cdot 5 = 200$ .

Therefore, |H| = 120 or 200.

#### **Exercise 1.5.7.** Determine up to isomorphism all groups of order four.

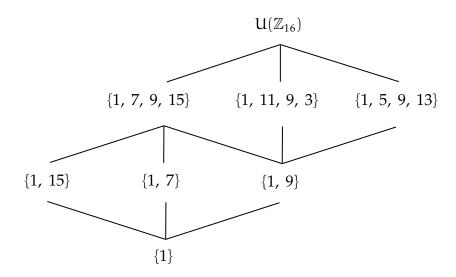
**Solution**. Let G be a group with |G| = 4.

**Case 1:** G is cyclic:  $G = \langle \alpha \rangle = \{e, \alpha, \alpha^2, \alpha^3\} \cong \mathbb{Z}_4, \exists \alpha \in G.$ 

**Case 2:** G is not cyclic. Therefore G has no elements of order 4. Thus,  $\forall x \in G, x \neq e, |x| \mid |G| = 4$ , but  $|x| \neq 4$ . So we only have |x| = 2. Remember that this is isomorphic to  $V_4$  (Klein-4). Up to isomorphism, there are only two groups of order 4.

#### **Exercise 1.5.8.** Sketch the lattice diagram of $U(\mathbb{Z}_{16})$

**Solution**. Since  $|U(\mathbb{Z}_{16})|=8$ . If  $H\leqslant U(\mathbb{Z}_{16})$ , then |H|=1,2,4, or 8 by Lagrange theorem. We will see the subgroups generated by each element. Note that  $\langle 1\rangle = \{1\}$ ,  $\langle 7\rangle = \{1,7\}$ ,  $\langle 11\rangle = \{1,11,9,3\} = \langle 3\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_4$ ,  $\langle 5\rangle = \{1,5,9,13\} = \langle 13\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_4$ ,  $\langle 15\rangle = \{1,15\}$ ,  $\langle 9\rangle = \{1,9\}$ . The lattice diagram is shown below,



# 1.6 Friday, October 14: Group of Permutations, Orbits, Cycles and the Alternating Groups

## 1.6.1 Group of Permutations

**Definition 1.6.1.** Let A be a nonempty set. A **permutation** of the set A is a bijection from A to A.

#### Remark 1.6.1.

- 1. Let |A| = n. There are n! permutations of the set A.
- 2. If  $\sigma$  and  $\tau$  arre permutations of A, then  $\sigma \circ \tau$  is also a permutation of A.
- 3. It is known that composition of functions is associative.
- 4. The identity map  $i : A \rightarrow A$  such that  $i(x) = x, \forall x \in A$  is a permutation.
- 5. If  $\sigma$  is a permutation of A, then  $\sigma^{-1}$  is also a permutation of A.

**Theorem 1.6.1.** Let A be a nonempty set. Then the set  $S_A$  of all permutations of A is a group under composition.

#### **Remark 1.6.2.**

- 1. Consider the group  $\langle S_A, \circ \rangle$  and let  $\sigma, \tau \in S_A$ . We will use notation  $\sigma \tau$  for  $\sigma \circ \tau$ .
- 2. The action of  $\sigma\tau$  on A is read in right-to-left order, that is, first

apply  $\tau$  and then  $\sigma$ . Therefore, we have  $(\sigma\tau)(\alpha) = (\sigma(\tau(\alpha)))$ .

3. If sets A and B have the same cardinality, then  $S_A \cong S_B$ .

**Exercise 1.6.1.** Show that if sets A and B have the same cardinality, then  $S_A \cong S_B$ .

**Proof.** Since |A| = |B|, there should exist a function from A to B where the function is bijective. In other words,  $\exists f : A \to B$ .

$$\varphi: S_A \to S_B$$
 
$$\sigma \mapsto f \circ \sigma \circ f^{-1}$$

Note that  $f \circ \sigma \circ f^{-1}: B \to B$  and  $f, f^{-1}, \sigma$  are bijective maps. It is known that composition of bijective maps gives a bijective map. so  $f \circ \sigma \circ f^{-1} \in S_B$ .

We will show that the function is one-to-one. Let  $\sigma_1,\sigma_2\in S_A$  and suppose  $\varphi(\sigma_1)=\varphi(\sigma_2).$  We have

$$\begin{split} f \circ \sigma_1 \circ f^{-1} &= f \circ \sigma_2 \circ f^{-1} \\ f^{-1} \big( f \circ \sigma_1 \circ f^{-1} \big) \circ f &= f^{-1} \big( f \circ \sigma_2 \circ f^{-1} \big) \circ f \\ \big( f^{-1} \circ f \big) \circ \sigma_1 \circ \big( f^{-1} \circ f \big) &= \big( f^{-1} \circ f \big) \circ \sigma_2 \circ \big( f^{-1} \circ f \big) \\ id_A \circ \sigma \circ id_A &= id_A \circ \sigma_2 \circ id_A \\ \sigma_1 &= \sigma_2 \end{split}$$

We show that the function is onto. Let  $\sigma' \in S_B$ . Then  $f^{-1} \circ \sigma' \circ f \in S_A$ . Observe that

$$\begin{split} \varphi(f^{-1} \circ \sigma' \circ f) &= f \circ \left( f^{-1} \circ \sigma' \circ f \right) \circ f^{-1} \\ &= \left( f \circ f^{-1} \right) \circ \sigma' \circ \left( f \circ f^{-1} \right) \\ &= id_B \circ \sigma' \circ id_B \\ &= \sigma' \end{split}$$

To show the homomorphism property, we let  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2 \in S_A$ .

$$\begin{split} \varphi(\sigma_1 \circ \sigma_2) &= f \circ (\sigma_1 \circ \sigma_2) \circ f^{-1} \\ &= f \circ (\sigma_1 \circ id_A \circ \sigma_2) \circ f^{-1} \\ &= f \circ (\sigma_1 \circ (f^{-1} \circ f) \circ \sigma_2) \circ f \\ &= (f \circ \sigma_1 \circ f^{-1}) \circ (f \circ \sigma_2 \circ f^{-1}) \\ &= \varphi(\sigma_1) \circ \varphi(\sigma_2) \end{split}$$

Therefore  $S_A \cong S_B$ .

**Definition 1.6.2.** Let  $A = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ . The group of all permutations of A is called the **symmetric group of** n **letters and is denoted by**  $S_n$ .

Exercise 1.6.2. Let 
$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 \\ 5 & 9 & 8 & 6 & 3 & 4 & 2 & 1 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$$
,  $\beta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 \\ 8 & 2 & 1 & 7 & 6 & 5 & 9 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \in S_9$ . Find  $\alpha\beta$ .

Solution.

$$\alpha\beta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 \\ 1 & 9 & 5 & 2 & 4 & 3 & 7 & 8 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$
 and  $\beta\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 \\ 6 & 4 & 3 & 5 & 1 & 7 & 2 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$ 

**Definition 1.6.3.** Let A be a nonempty set. A **permutation group of** A is a set of permutations of A that forms a group under composition. A permutation group of A is a subgroup of  $S_A$ .

**Theorem 1.6.2.** (Cayley's Theorem) Every group is isomorphic to a group of permutations.

**Exercise 1.6.3.** Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and  $G \leqslant S_n$ . If  $i \in \{1,2,\ldots,n\}$ , the stabilizer in G is

$$stab_G(\mathfrak{i}) = \{\alpha \in G \mid \alpha(\mathfrak{i}) = \mathfrak{i}\}$$

Show that  $\operatorname{stab}_{G}(i) \leqslant G$ 

**Proof.** We will use the 2-step subgroup test.

- By definition of subgroup, the identity map  $id \in G \leqslant S_n$  fixes i. In other words,  $id (i) = i \ \forall i$ . Therefore,  $id \in stab_G$
- Let  $\alpha\beta\in stab_G(i)$ . Note that  $\beta(i)=i$  and  $\beta$  is bijective, so  $\beta^{-1}(i)=i$ . We have

$$\big(\alpha\beta^{-1}\big)(\mathfrak{i})=\alpha\big(\beta^{-1}(\mathfrak{i})\big)=\alpha(\mathfrak{i})=\mathfrak{i}$$

Therefore,  $\alpha \beta^{-1} \in \operatorname{stab}_{G}(\mathfrak{i})$ .

Thus,  $\operatorname{stab}_{G}(\mathfrak{i}) \leqslant G$ .

**Theorem 1.6.3.** Let  $\sigma \in S_n$ . Then the relation  $\sim$  on  $A = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  defined by  $x \sim y$  if and only if  $y = \sigma^k(x)$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  is an equivalence relation on A.

#### 1.6.2 Orbits

**Definition 1.6.4.** Let  $\sigma \in S_n$ ,  $A = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  and  $a \in A$ . The **orbit of**  $\sigma$  **containing** a **is**  $\{\sigma^k(a) \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ .

**Definition 1.6.5.** A permutation  $\sigma \in S_n$  is a **cycle** if it has at most one orbit containing more than one element. The **length** of a cycle is the number of elements in its largest orbit.

**Remark 1.6.3.** If  $\sigma \in S_n$  is a cyckle, consider the largest orbit  $\{\alpha, \sigma(\alpha), \sigma^2(\alpha), \dots, \sigma^{k-1}(\alpha)\}$ . We write the permutation  $\sigma$  as

$$(\alpha \sigma(\alpha) \sigma^2(\alpha) \dots \sigma^{k-1}(\alpha))$$
 or  $(\alpha, \sigma(\alpha), \sigma^2(\alpha), \dots, \sigma^{k-1}(\alpha))$ 

where  $\sigma^k(a) = a$  (a cycle of length k or k-cycle).

**Remark 1.6.4.** Strictly speaking, cycle notation is ambiguous since for example, (3 6 1) might denote a permutation in  $S_6$ , in  $S_7$ , or in any  $S_n$ ,  $n \ge 6$ . In context, however, this won't cause any problem because it will always be made clear which  $S_n$  is under discussion.

# 1.6.3 Cycles and Alternating Groups

**Definition 1.6.6.** (Disjoint Cycles) Two cycles are said to be **disjoint** if they have no number in common, that is, if  $\sigma = (a_1 a_2 \dots a_k)$ ,  $\tau = (b_1 b_2 \dots b_1) \in S_n$  we have  $a_i \neq b_j$  for all i and j.

**Theorem 1.6.4.** The product of disjoint cycles commute.

**Remark 1.6.5.** Every permutation  $\sigma \in S_n$  can be written as a cycle or as a product of disjoint cycles.

**Theorem 1.6.5.** Let  $\sigma \in S_n$  be written as a product of disjoint cycles. Then the order of  $\sigma$  is the least common multiple of the lengths of its cycles.

Exercise 1.6.4. Let 
$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 \\ 5 & 9 & 8 & 6 & 3 & 4 & 2 & 1 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$$
,  $\beta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 \\ 8 & 2 & 1 & 7 & 6 & 5 & 9 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \in S_9$ . Write  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  in cycle notation. Find  $\beta \alpha \beta^{-1}$  and  $|\beta \alpha \beta^{-1}|$ .

**Solution**. We have  $\alpha = (1538)(297)(46)$  and  $\beta = (183)(479)(56)$ . Note that  $\beta^{-1} = (381)(974)(56)$ . Therefore

$$\beta \alpha \beta^{-1} = (1386)(249)(57)$$

and

$$\left|\beta\alpha\beta^{-1}\right| = LCM(4,3,2) = 12$$

**Remark 1.6.6.** If  $\sigma$  is an m-cycle, then  $|\sigma| = m$ 

**Definition 1.6.7.** A cycle of length 2 is called a transposition.

#### Remark 1.6.7.

- 1. A transposition leaves all elements but two fixed, and maps each of these onto the other.
- 2. Let  $n \ge 2$ . Every permutation in  $S_n$  is a product of transpositions. This implies that any rearrangement of n objects can be achieved by successively interchanging of them.
- 3. If  $\tau_1, \tau_2, \dots, \tau_m$  are transpositions, then

$$(\tau_1 \tau_2 \cdots \tau_n)^{-1} =$$

4. If  $\sigma \in S_n$  and  $n \ge 2$ , then

$$\sigma = \tau_1 \tau_2 \cdot \tau_m$$

**Theorem 1.6.6.** No permutation in  $S_n$  can be expressed as a product of an even number of transpositions and as a product of an odd number of transpositions.

**Definition 1.6.8.** A permutation of finite set is **even (odd)** if it is a product of even (odd) number of transpositions.

**Exercise 1.6.5.** Let b = (123)(145). Write  $b^{49}$  in cycle form. Is  $b^{49}$  an even permutation?

**Solution**. Note that b = (123)(145) = (14523). This implies that |b| = 5. Then,

$$(b^5)^9 \cdot b^4 = b^4 = b^{-1} = (32541)$$

 $b^{49}=b^{-1}$  is an odd length. Therefore,  $b^{49}$  is an even permutation. That is,  $b^{-1}=(32)(25)(54)(41)$  that has even number of transpositions.

**Exercise 1.6.6.** If  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are distinct transpositions, what are the possibilities for  $|\alpha\beta|$ ?

Solution.

**Case 1:** If  $\alpha = (\alpha b)$ ,  $\beta = (cd)$ ,  $\alpha$ , b, c, d are distinct and  $\alpha \beta = (\alpha b)(cd)$ . So  $|\alpha \beta| = lcm(2,2) = 2$ 

**Case 2:** If  $\alpha = (ab)$ ,  $\beta = (bc)$ ,  $\alpha$ , b, c are distinct and  $\alpha\beta = (ab)(bc) = (bc\alpha)$ . So  $|\alpha\beta| = 3$ .

**Exercise 1.6.7.** Give a cyclic subgroup of  $A_8$  order 4 and a noncyclic subgroup of  $A_8$  of order 4.

**Solution**. Let  $\alpha = (1234)(78) = (12)(23)(34)(78) \in A_8$ . Note that  $\langle \alpha \rangle = \{(1), (1234)(78), (13)(24), (4321)(87)\}.$ 

Next we need to find non-cyclic. So this is isomorphic to Klein-4. This is given by  $\{(1), (12)(34), (56)(78), (12)(34)(56)(78)\}$ .

**Exercise 1.6.8.** Find three permutations  $\sigma$  in  $S_9$  such that  $\sigma^3 = (157)(283)(469)$ .

**Solution**. Note that  $|\sigma^3| = \text{lcm}(3,3,3) = 3$ . This implies that  $(\sigma^3)^3 = \sigma^9 = (1)$ . From a theorem in the last discussion, we have  $|\sigma| | 9 \Rightarrow |\sigma| = 1,3,9$ . Since  $\sigma^3 \neq (1), |\sigma| \neq 1,3$ , we have  $|\sigma| = 9$ . We have

$$\sigma = (124586739)$$
  
$$\sigma = (142568793)$$

 $\sigma = (139524786)$ 

**Remark 1.6.8.** 

- 1. (1) (identity permutation) is even (we define it to be even for n = 1)
- 2. A cycle of odd length is even and a cycle of even length is odd

**Theorem 1.6.7.** Let  $n \ge 2$ . Then the number of even permutations in  $S_n$  is the same as the number of odd permutations in  $S_n$ .

**Definition 1.6.9.** The set  $A_n$  of all even permutations in  $S_n$  is called the **alternating group of** n **letters**. Also,  $|A_n| = \frac{n!}{2}$ 

**Theorem 1.6.8.**  $A_n \leq S_n$ 

# 1.7 Friday, October 21: Direct Product, Subgroups Generated by a Subset, and Finitely Generated Abelian Groups

#### 1.7.1 Direct Product

**Definition 1.7.1.** Let  $\langle G_1, \cdot \rangle$  and  $\langle G_2, \cdot \rangle$  be groups. The (external) direct product of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  is the group  $G_1 \times G_2 = \{(g_1, g_2) \mid g_1 \in G_1, g_2 \in G_2\}$  with binary operation \* defined by

$$(a_1, a_2) * (b_1, b_2) = (a_1 \cdot b_1, a_2 \cdot' b_2)$$

for every  $(\alpha_1,\alpha_2), (b_1,b_2) \in G_1 \times G_2$ 

#### Remark 1.7.1.

- 1.  $e_G$  identity element of group G,  $e_{G_1 \times G_2} = q(e_{G_1}, e_{G_2}), \forall (g_1, g_2) \in G_1 \times G_2, (g_1, g_2)^{-1} = (g_1^{-1}, \{g_2\}^{-1})$
- 2. In general, if  $G_1, G_2, \ldots, G_n$  are groups, then  $\Pi_{i=1}^n G_i$  is a group with binary operation \* defined by

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) * (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) = (a_1b_1, a_2b_2, \dots a_nb_n)$$

for every  $(a_1,a_2,\ldots,a_n)$ ,  $(b_1,b_2,\ldots,b_n)\in\Pi_{i=1}^nG_i$ . Moreover, if  $G_1,G_2,\ldots,G_n$  are abelian groups, then  $\Pi_{i=1}^nG_i$  is also abelian

3. If  $|G_i|<\infty$ , for each  $i\in\{1,2,\ldots,n\}$ , then  $|\Pi_{i=1}^nG_i|=\Pi_{i=1}^n|G_i|<\infty$ 

**Recall 1.** (Least Common Multiple) Let a, b be nonzero integers and m be a positive integer. Then m is the least common multiple of a and b if m satisfies the following:

- 1.  $a \mid m$  and  $b \mid m$ , that is m is a multiple of both a and b;
- 2.  $\forall c \in \mathbb{Z}$ , if  $a \mid c$  and  $b \mid c$ , then  $m \mid c$ .

**Theorem 1.7.1.** Let  $G_1$ ,  $G_2$  be finite groups. If  $(a,b) \in G_1 \times G_2$ , then |(a,b)| = lcm(|a|,|b|)

**Remark 1.7.2.** In general, if  $G_1, G_2, ..., G_n$  are finite groups and  $(g_1, g_2, ..., g_n) \in \Pi_{i=1}^n G_i$ , then  $|(g_1, g_2, ..., g_n)| = lcm(|g_1|, |g_2|, ..., |g_n|)$ 

**Example 1.** How many elements of order 10 are in  $\mathbb{Z}_{25} \times \mathbb{Z}_{100}$ ?

**Solution**. Let  $(a,b) \in \mathbb{Z}_{25} \times \mathbb{Z}_{100}$  such that |(a,b)| = lcm(|a|,|b|) = 10. Note that the elements of the order of  $\mathbb{Z}_{25}$  is  $\{1,5,25\}$  and the order of elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_{100}$  is  $\{1,2,4,5,10,20,25,50,100\}$ .

Case 1:  $|\mathfrak{a}|=1$  and  $|\mathfrak{b}|=10$ So we have  $\mathfrak{a}=0$  and  $\mathfrak{b}\in\{10,30,70,90\}$ . Therefore, there are 4 elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_{25}\times\mathbb{Z}_{100}$  with order 10.

Case 2: |a| = 5 and |b| = 2So we have  $a \in \{5, 10, 15, 20\}$  and b = 50. Therefore, there are 4 elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_{25} \times \mathbb{Z}_{100}$  with order 10 for this case.

Case 3:  $|\mathfrak{a}|=5$  and  $|\mathfrak{b}|=10$ So we have  $\mathfrak{a}\in\{5,10,15,20\}$  and  $\mathfrak{b}\in\{10,30,70,90\}$ . Therefore, there are 16 elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_{25}\times\mathbb{Z}_{100}$  with order 10 for this case.

Hence, there are 24 elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_{25} \times \mathbb{Z}_{100}$  with order 10.

**Exercise 1.7.1.** Find |(9, -i, (62547)(3612))| where  $(9, -i, (62547)(3612)) \in \mathbb{Z}_{13}^* \times U_4 \times S_8$ 

**Solution**. For |9|, note that  $\langle 2 \rangle = \mathbb{Z}_{13}^*$  and  $\langle 3 \rangle = \{1, 3, 9\} \Rightarrow |\langle 3 \rangle| = 3$ . Thus

$$|9| = |3^2| = \frac{3}{\gcd(3,2)} = 3$$

For -i, note that  $\langle -i \rangle = \{-i, -1, i, 1\}$ . So |-i| = 4. For (62547)(3612), this is equal to (15476)(23). Therefore, |(15476)(23)| = lcm(5, 2) = 10. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} |(9,-i,(62547)(3612))| &= lcm(|9|,|-i|,|(62547)(3612)|) \\ &= lcm(3,4,10) \\ &= 60 \end{aligned}$$

#### Remark 1.7.3.

- 1. Let  $G_1$ ,  $G_2$  be groups. Then  $G_1 \times G_2 \cong G_2 \times G_1$
- 2. Suppose that  $\Pi_{i=1}^n G_i$  is the direct product of groups  $G_i$ ,
  - (a) Observe that direct products  $\Pi_{i=1}^n H_i$  where  $H_i \leqslant G_i$ , are subgroups of  $\Pi_{i=1}^n G_i$
  - (b) The subsets

$$\overline{G_i} = \{(e_1, \dots, e_{i-1}, g_i, e_{i+1}, \dots, e_n) \mid g_i \in G_i\}$$

where  $e_i \in G_i$  is the identity element of  $G_i$ , are subgroups of  $\Pi_{i=1}^n G_i$ . Moreover, it can be shown that  $\overline{G_i} \cong G_i$ 

**Recall 2.** If 
$$a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$$
, then  $lcm(a, b) = \frac{ab}{gcd(a, b)}$ 

**Theorem 1.7.2.**  $\mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n \cong \mathbb{Z}_{mn}$  if and only if gcd(m, n) = 1

**Corollary 1.7.1.**  $\mathbb{Z}_{\mathfrak{m}_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{\mathfrak{m}_2} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{\mathfrak{m}_k} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{\mathfrak{m}_1\mathfrak{m}_2\cdots\mathfrak{m}_k}$  if and only if  $gcd(\mathfrak{m}_i,\mathfrak{m}_j) = 1$  for  $i \neq j$ .

# 1.7.2 Subgroups Generated by a Subset

**Recall 3.** Let G be a group

- 1. Suppose  $\alpha \in G$ . Then  $\langle \alpha \rangle$  is the smallest subgroup of G that contains  $\alpha$
- 2. Let  $\{H_i\}_{i\in I}$  be a family of subgroups of G. Then  $\bigcap_{i\in I} H_i$  is also a subgroup of G.

**Remark 1.7.4.** Let G be a group and let  $S = \{a_i \in G \mid i \in I\}$ , where I is some index set.

- 1. Then the smallest subgroup of G containing all of the  $\alpha_i's$  is the subgroup of  $\langle S \rangle$  of G generated by S. In particular,  $\langle \{\alpha\} \rangle = \langle \alpha \rangle$ , for  $\alpha \in G$
- 2. If  $\langle S \rangle = G$ , we say that S generates G or G is generated by S. We call S a generating set for G and the elements of S are said to be generators of G. If S is finite, then G is said to be finitely generated.
- 3. Observe that the subgroup  $\langle S \rangle$  is the set of all possible products, in every order, of elements of S and their inverses. That is

$$\langle S \rangle = \left\{ \alpha_{i_1}{}^{m_1}, \alpha_{i_2}{}^{m_2} \cdots \alpha_{i_n}{}^{m_n} \mid n = 1, 2, \dots, \alpha_{ij} \in S, m_j \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$$

where  $\alpha_{ij}s$  are not necessarily distinct. In particular,  $\langle\alpha\rangle=\{\alpha^n\in G\mid n\in\mathbb{Z}\}$ 

**Remark 1.7.5.** If  $G_1, G_2, \ldots, G_n$  are cyclic groups, then  $\prod_{i=1}^n G_i$  is finitely generated with generating set

$$\{(a_1,e_2,\ldots,e_n),(e_1,a_2,e_3,\ldots,e_n),\ldots,(e_1,e_2,e_3,\ldots,e_{n-1},a_n)\}$$

where  $e_i \in G_i$  is the identity element of  $G_i$  and  $G_i = \langle \alpha_i \rangle$ 

# 1.7.3 Finitely Generated Abelian Groups

**Theorem 1.7.3.** (Fundamental Theorem of Finitely Generated Abelian Group (FTFGAG) (Kronecker, 1858)) Every finitely generated abelian group G is isomorphic to a direct product of cyclic groups in the form

$$\mathbb{Z}_{\mathfrak{p}_1}{}^{r_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{\mathfrak{p}_2}{}^{r_2} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{\mathfrak{p}_n}{}^{r_n} \times \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}$$

where  $p_i$  are primes, not necessarily distinct, and  $r_i \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . The direct product is unique except for possible rearrangement of factors. The number of factors  $\mathbb{Z}$  (Betti number of G or (free) rank of G) is unique

## Remark 1.7.6.

- 1. If G in Theorem 1.7.3 is finite, then its rank is equal to 0
- 2. To identify all abelian groups of order n up to isomorphism, determine the prime factorization of n

**Exercise 1.7.2.** Enumerate all abelian groups of given order of 1350, up to isomorphism

**Solution**. Note that  $1350 = 2^1 \cdot 3^3 \cdot 5^2$ . Thus we have 6 possible combinations listed below:

$$1350 = 2^{1} \cdot 3^{3} \cdot 5^{2}$$

$$= 2^{1} \cdot 3^{3} \cdot 5^{1} \cdot 5^{1}$$

$$= 2^{1} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 3^{1} \cdot 5^{2}$$

$$= 2^{1} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 3^{1} \cdot 5^{1} \cdot 5^{1}$$

$$= 2^{1} \cdot 3^{1} \cdot 3^{1} \cdot 3^{1} \cdot 5^{2}$$

$$= 2^{1} \cdot 3^{1} \cdot 3^{1} \cdot 3^{1} \cdot 5^{1} \cdot 5^{1}$$

Therefore, the possible combinations are

$$\mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{27} \times \mathbb{Z}_{25} 
\mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{27} \times \mathbb{Z}_{5} \times \mathbb{Z}_{5} 
\mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{9} \times \mathbb{Z}_{3} \times \mathbb{Z}_{25} 
\mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{9} \times \mathbb{Z}_{3} \times \mathbb{Z}_{5} \times \mathbb{Z}_{5} 
\mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{3} \times \mathbb{Z}_{3} \times \mathbb{Z}_{3} \times \mathbb{Z}_{25} 
\mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{3} \times \mathbb{Z}_{3} \times \mathbb{Z}_{3} \times \mathbb{Z}_{5} \times \mathbb{Z}_{5}$$

**Remark 1.7.7.** Let G be a finite group abelian group. If m divides |G|, then  $\exists H \leq G$  such that |H| = m

**Exercise 1.7.3.** Find a subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}_8 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_{25}$  of order 150

**Solution**. Note that  $150 = 2^1 \cdot 2^0 \cdot 3^1 \cdot 5^2$ . Thus, we have a subgroup H<sub>2</sub> that is defined by

$$\begin{split} H_2 &= \langle 2^{3-1} \rangle \times \langle 2^{1-0} \rangle \times \langle 3^{1-1} \rangle \times \langle 5^{2-2} \rangle \\ &= \langle 4 \rangle \times \langle 0 \rangle \times \langle 1 \rangle \times \langle 1 \rangle \\ &\cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_{25} \end{split}$$

# Second Half Semester

# 2.1 Friday, November 4: Normal Subgroups and Factor Groups

#### Normal Subgroups 2.1.1

**Definition 2.1.1.** Let G be a group. A subgroup N of G is said to be **normal** (or **invariant**) subgroup of G, denoted by  $N \subseteq G$ , if gN = $Ng, \forall g \in G.$ 

#### **Remark 2.1.1.**

- 1. The condition gN = Ng in the definition does not mean that gn =ng,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ , rather,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ , gn = n'g, for some  $n' \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- 2. if [G : H] = 2, then  $H \subseteq G$ .

**Definition 2.1.2.** Let G be a group,  $H \leq G$ , and  $g \in G$ ,  $h \in H$ .

- 1. The element  $ghg^{-1}$  is called the **conjugate of** h by g.
- 2. The set  $gHg^{-1}$  is called the **conjugate of** H by g

**Remark 2.1.2.** It can be shown that  $gHg^{-1} \leqslant G$  and  $H \cong gHg^{-1}$ 

**Theorem 2.1.1.** Let G be a group and  $N \leq G$ . The following are equivalent:

- 1.  $gN = Ng, \forall g \in G$
- 2.  $gNg^{-1} = N, \forall g \in G$ 3.  $gNg^{-1} \subseteq N, \forall g \in G$

**Exercise 2.1.1.** Let H, K  $\unlhd$  G. Show that H  $\cap$  K  $\unlhd$  G.

**Solution**. Let G be a group and H, K are normal subgroups of G. Then  $H \leq G$  and  $K \leq G$ . Hence  $H \cap K \leq G$ . Let  $n \in H \cap K$ ,  $q \in G$ . So,

$$\Rightarrow n \in H \land n \in K$$
$$gng^{-1} \in H \land gng^{-1} \in K$$
$$gng^{-1} \in H \cap K$$

Therefore,  $H \wedge K \subseteq G$ .

**Exercise 2.1.2.** Is  $\langle (134) \rangle$  a normal subgroup of A<sub>4</sub>?

**Solution**. Note that  $A_4$  is the set of all even permutations in  $S_4$  and

$$A_4 = \{(1), (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23), (123)(132), (124), (142), (134), (143), (234), (243)\}$$

We see that  $\langle (134) \rangle = \{(1), (134), (143)\} \leqslant A_4$ . Hence,

$$(12)(34)\langle (134)\rangle = \{(12)(34), (142), (132)\}$$

$$\neq \{(12)(34), (123), (124)\}$$

$$= \langle (134)\rangle (12)(34)\rangle$$

So  $\langle (134) \rangle$  is not a subgroup of  $A_4$ .

**Exercise 2.1.3.** Let  $K, N \leq G$ . If  $N \subseteq G$ , show that  $K \cap N \subseteq K$ 

**Proof.** Since N and K are subgroups of G,  $K \cap N \leq G$ . In particular, since  $K \cap N \subseteq K$ , and K is also a group,  $K \cap N \subseteq K$ . Let  $g \in K$  and  $x \in K \cap N$ . Then  $x \in K$  and  $x \in N$ . We have  $gxg^{-1} \in N(N \subseteq G)$ . Note that  $gxg^{-1} \in K$ . Therefore,  $gxg^{-1} \in K \cap N$ , so  $K \cap N \subseteq K$ .

**Exercise 2.1.4.** Let H, K  $\unlhd$  G. Define the set HK = {hk | h  $\in$  H, k  $\in$  K}. Show that HK  $\unlhd$  G.

**Proof.** We show first that  $HK \leq G$  using 2-step subgroup test. Since  $H, K \leq G, \forall h \in H, \forall k \in K, hk \in G$ , so  $HK \subseteq G$ . Since  $H, K \leq G, e_G = e_G \cdot e_G = e_H \cdot e_K \in HK \neq \emptyset$ .

Let  $h_1k_1, h_2k_2 \in HK$ . Then

$$\begin{split} (h_1k_1)(h_2k_2)^{-1} &= h_1k_1k_2^{-1}h_2^{-1} \\ &= h_1k'h_2^{-1} \quad (\text{where } k_1k_2^{-1} = k'\exists k' \in K) \\ &= h_1h_2^{-1}k'' \quad (K \unlhd G, \exists k'' \in K, h_2^{-1} \in H \leqslant G) \end{split}$$

Hence,  $HK \leq G$ . To show the normal subgroup, let  $g \in G$ ,  $hk \in G$  $HK(h \in H, k \in K)$ . Then

$$g(hk)g^{-1} = (gh)e_G(kg^{-1}) = (gh)(g^{-1}g)(kg^{-1}) = (ghg^{-1})(gkg^{-1})$$

Therefore,  $HK \subseteq G$ .

**Theorem 2.1.2.** Let G be a group and  $N \subseteq G$ . Denote the set of all left cosets  $\{gN \mid g \in G\}$  by G/N (read as G modulo N) and define \* on

$$(g_1N) * (g_2N) = (g_1g_2)N$$

 $(g_1N)*(g_2N)=(g_1g_2)N,$   $\forall g_1N,g_2N\in G/N. \text{ Then } \langle G/N,*\rangle \text{ is a group}$ 

Note: You need first to establish normal subgroup before proving factor group.

**Definition 2.1.3.** (Factor Group) Let G be a group and  $N \subseteq G$ . The group G/N is called the **quotient group** or **factor group of** G **modulo** 

**Theorem 2.1.3.** Let G be a group and  $H \leq G$ .

- 1. If G is abelian, then so is G/H.
- 2. If G is cyclic, then so is G/H.

**Exercise 2.1.5.** It was shown that  $\{1, -1\}$  is a normal subgroup of  $Q_8$ . To which known group is  $Q_8/\{1, -1\}$  isomorphic to?

**Solution**. Note that  $|Q_8/\{1,-1\}|=\frac{8}{2}=4$ . Let  $N=\{1,-1\}$ . Moreover,  $Q_8/\{1,-1\}=\{N,iN,jN,kN\}$  since  $iN=\{i,-i\},jN=\{i,-i\}$  $\{j, -j\}, kN = \{k, -k\}.$  So

So  $Q_8/\{1,-1\} \cong V_4$ .

Exercise 2.1.6. Let H be a normal subgroup of G and K a subgroup of G that contains H.

- (a) Verify:  $H \subseteq K$ .
- (b) Show that K is a normal in G if and only if K/H is normal in G/H.

## Solution.

- (a) Verify that  $H \subseteq K$ . Let  $h \in H$ ,  $k \in K$ . Show that  $khk^{-1} \in H$ . Note that  $k^{-1} \in K \subseteq G$ . Since  $H \subseteq G$ ,  $khk^{-1} \in H$ .
- (b) Show that K is normal in G iff K/H is normal in G/H.  $(\Rightarrow)$  Suppose K  $\trianglelefteq$  G. Show that K/H  $\leqslant$  G/H. K/H =  $\{kH \mid k \in K\}$ .
  - Observe that since  $K \subseteq G$ ,  $K/H \subseteq G/H$ . Moreover,  $e_kH = H \in K/H \land H \in G/H$  (H is identity element of G/H).
  - Let  $k_1H$ ,  $k_2H \in K/H$ , where  $k_1, k_2 \in K \subseteq G$ .

$$(k_1H)*(k_2H)^{-1}=k_1H*k_2^{-1}H=(k_1k_2^{-1})H\in K/H$$

Therefore,  $K/H \le G/H$ . Let  $gH \in G/H$ ,  $kH \in K/H$ , where  $g \in G$ ,  $k \in K$ .

$$(gH) * (kH) * (gH)^{-1} = (gH) * (kH) * (g^{-1}H)$$
  
=  $gkg^{-1}H \in K/H$ 

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose K/H  $\unlhd$  G/H. Show K  $\unlhd$  G. Note that K  $\leqslant$  G. Let k ∈ K, g ∈ G. Show that gkg<sup>-1</sup> ∈ K.

$$(gkg^{-1})H = (gH) * (kH) * (gH)^{-1} \in K/H \le G/H$$

Therefore,  $gkg^{-1} \in K$ , so  $K \subseteq G$ .

# 2.2 Friday, November 11: Homomorphism of Groups

**Definition 2.2.1.** (Homomorphism) A **homomorphism**  $\varphi$  from a group  $\langle G, \cdot \rangle$  to a group  $\langle G', \cdot' \rangle$  is a function  $\varphi : G \to G'$  that peserves the group operations, that is  $\forall a, b \in G$ ,

$$\varphi(\alpha \cdot b) = \varphi(\alpha) \cdot' \varphi(b)$$

If G = G', then the homomorphism  $\varphi$  is an **endomorphism**. A homomorphism  $\varphi$  is called an **epimorphism** if  $\varphi$  is onto and a **monomorphism** if  $\varphi$  is one-to-one. If  $\varphi$  is an epimorphism, G' is called a **homomorphic image of** G. A bijective homomorphism is an **isomorphism**.

**Theorem 2.2.1.** (Properties of Homomorphism) Let  $\phi : G \to G'$  be a homomorphism of groups.

1.  $\phi(e) = e'$  where e is the identity element in G and e' is the iden-

tity element in G'

- 2.  $(\phi(g))^{-1} = \phi(g^{-1}), \forall g \in G$
- 3. If  $H \leq G$ , then  $\phi(H) \leq G'$ . If  $H' \leq G'$ , then  $\phi^{-1}(H) \leq G$
- 4. Let  $H \leqslant G$ . If H is abelian, then  $\varphi(H)$  is abelian. If H is cyclic, then  $\varphi(H)$  is cyclic
- 5. If  $H \subseteq G$ , then  $\phi(H) \subseteq \phi(G)$ . If  $H' \subseteq G'$ , then  $\phi^{-1}(H') \subseteq G$
- 6. If  $g \in G$  such that  $|g| = n < \infty$  then  $|\phi(g)| | n$

**Definition 2.2.2.** (Kernel) Let  $\phi : G \to G'$  be a homomorphism of groups and e' is the identity element of G'. Then **kernel** of  $\phi$ , denoted by Ker $\phi$  is the set

$$Ker \phi = \{g \in G \mid \phi(g) = e'\} = \phi^{-1}(\{e'\})$$

**Remark 2.2.1.** Let  $\phi : G \to G'$  be a homomorphism of groups

- 1. Ker $\phi \triangleleft G$
- 2.  $\forall a, b \in G, \phi(a) = \phi(b) \Leftrightarrow aKer\phi = bKer\phi$
- 3. Let  $g \in G$ ,  $g' \in G'$ . If  $\phi(g) = g'$ , then

$$\varphi^{-1}(\{g'\}) = \{x \in G \mid \varphi(x) = g'\} = gKer\varphi$$

4. If  $|Ker \phi| = n < \infty$ , then  $\phi$  is an n - to - 1 mapping from G onto  $\phi(G)$ .

**Exercise 2.2.1.** Let  $\alpha: G \to G'$  and  $\beta: G' \to G''$  be group homomorphisms. Show that the composition  $\beta \circ \alpha: G \to G''$  is also a homomorphism.

**Proof.** Let  $\alpha: G \to G'$  and  $\beta: G' \to G''$  be group homomorphisms and let  $x_1, x_2 \in G$ . We have,

$$(\beta \circ \alpha)(x_1 \cdot x_2) = \beta(\alpha(x_1 \cdot x_2))$$

$$= \beta(\alpha(x_1) \cdot \alpha(x_2))$$

$$= \beta(\alpha(x_1)) \cdot \beta(\alpha(x_2))$$

$$= (\beta \circ \alpha)(x_1) \cdot (\beta \circ \alpha)(x_2)$$

Therefore, the composition  $\beta \circ \alpha : G \to G''$  is a homomorphism.  $\blacksquare$ 

**Exercise 2.2.2.** Let  $\phi: G \to G'$  be a homomorphism of groups. Show that if  $H' \leq G'$ , then  $\phi^{-1}(H') \leq G$   $(\phi^{-1}(H') = \{g \in G \mid \phi(g) \in H'\})$ 

## Proof.

• Let e be the identity element of G and e' be the identity element

of G'. Since  $\phi$  is a homomorphism,

$$\phi(e) = e' \in H \leqslant G', e \in G$$

Hence,  $e \in \varphi^{-1}(H') \neq \emptyset$ .

• Let  $g_1,g_2\in \dot{\varphi}^{-1}(H')$ . Therefore,  $\varphi(g_1),\varphi(g_2)\in H'$ . We need to show that  $g_1g_2^{-1}\in \varphi^{-1}(H')$ . Then

$$\begin{split} \varphi(g_1 \cdot g_2^{-1}) &= \varphi(g_1) \cdot ' \varphi(g_2^{-1}) \\ &= \varphi(g_1) \cdot ' \left( \varphi(g_2) \right)^{-1} \in \mathsf{H}' \leqslant \mathsf{G}' \end{split}$$

Therefore  $g_1 \cdot g_2^{-1} \in \phi^{-1}(H')$ .

**Exercise 2.2.3.** Let  $\phi: \mathbb{Z}_{50} \to \mathbb{Z}_{15}$  be a group homomorphism such that  $\phi(7) = 6$ . Compute  $\phi(1)$ , Ker $\phi$ , and  $\phi(\mathbb{Z}_{50})$ .

#### Solution.

Note that

$$6 = \varphi(7) = \varphi(1 +_{50} 1 +_{50} 1 +_{50} \ldots +_{50} 1) = \varphi(1) +_{15} \varphi(1) +_{15} \ldots +_{15} \varphi(1)$$

Then,  $7\phi(1) = 6 \Rightarrow \phi(1) = 3$ .

• Note that the Kernel is given by  $\text{Ker} \varphi = \{g \in \mathbb{Z}_{50} \mid \varphi(g) = 0\}$ . Let  $g \in \text{Ker} \varphi$ . Moreover, note that  $5\varphi(1) = 0$ . Therefore,

$$Ker \varphi = \{0, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40, 45\} = \langle 5 \rangle$$

• We have

**Exercise 2.2.4.** Show that the group G is abelian if and only if the function  $\alpha : G \to G$  such that  $\alpha(g) = g^{-1}$  where  $g \in G$  is a homomorphism.

#### Proof.

(⇒) Suppose G is abelian. Let  $g_1, g_2 ∈ G$ 

$$\begin{split} \alpha(g_1g_2) &= (g_1g_2)^{-1} \\ &= g_2^{-1}g_1^{-1} \\ &= g_1^{-1}g_2^{-1} \\ &= \alpha(g_1)\alpha(g_2) \end{split}$$

Therefore,  $\alpha$  is a homomorphism.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose  $\alpha$  is a homomorphism. Let  $\alpha$ , b ∈ G. We need to show that  $\alpha b = b\alpha$ .

$$ab = [(ab)^{-1}]^{-1} = [\alpha(ab)]^{-1}$$

$$= \alpha((ab)^{-1})$$

$$= \alpha(b^{-1})\alpha(a^{-1})$$

$$= (\alpha(b))^{-1}(\alpha(a))^{-1}$$

$$= (b^{-1})^{-1}(a^{-1})^{-1}$$

$$= ba$$

Since G is a group with commutative opperation, G is an abelian group. ■

**Theorem 2.2.2.** Let  $\phi: G \to G'$  be a homomorphism and e is the identity element of G. Then  $\phi$  is one-to-one if and only if  $Ker\phi = \{e\}$ 

**Theorem 2.2.3.** Let G be a group and  $N \subseteq G$ . Then  $\delta : G \to G/N$  given by  $\delta(g) = gN, \forall g \in G$ , is a group epimorphism with Ker $\delta = N$ . The mapping  $\delta$  is called the **canonical** or **natural homomorphism** 

**Theorem 2.2.4.** Let  $\phi: G \to G'$  be a homomorphism of groups with  $Ker \phi = N$ , and  $\delta$  is the canonical homomorphism from  $G \to G/N$ . Then there exists a unique homomorphism  $\mu: G/N \to G'$  such that  $\phi = \mu \circ \delta$ 

**Theorem 2.2.5.** (First Isomorphism Theorem) Let  $\phi : G \to G'$  be a homomorphism of groups. Then  $G/Ker\phi \cong \phi(G)$ .

**Exercise 2.2.5.** Let  $G = \langle a \rangle$  with |a| = 20 and consider the group homomorphism  $f: G \to G$  such that  $f(g) = g^4$ , for every  $g \in G$ 

- (a) Find the elements of Kerf and f(G)
- (b) Using FIT, to what known group is G/Kerf and f(G) both isomorphic to?
- (c) Give the elements of G/Kerf and write its group table

**Solution**. Note that  $g = a^k$ ,  $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}$  since  $G = \langle a \rangle$ 

(a) We have

$$\begin{split} \text{Kerf} &= \{g \in G \mid f(g) = e\} \\ &= \left\{g \in G \mid g^4 = e\right\} \\ &= \left\{\alpha^k \in G \mid \alpha^{4k} = \left(\alpha^k\right)^4 = e, \, \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}\right\} \end{split}$$

$$=\left\{ e,lpha^{5},lpha^{10},lpha^{15}
ight\} =\left\langle lpha^{5}
ight
angle \cong\mathbb{Z}_{4}$$

(b) We have

$$\begin{split} f(G) = & \{ f(g) \mid g \in G \} = \left\{ g^4 \mid g \in G \right\} \\ &= \left\{ (\alpha^k)^4 \mid k \in \mathbb{Z} \right\} \\ &= \left\{ (\alpha^4)^k \mid k \in \mathbb{Z} \right\} \\ &= \left\{ e, \alpha^4, \alpha^8, \alpha^{12}, \alpha^{16} \right\} \end{split}$$

(c) By FIT,  $G/Kerf \cong f(G) \cong \mathbb{Z}_5$ 

•	Kerf	aKerf	$a^2$ Kerf	$a^3$ Kerf	a <sup>4</sup> Kerf
	Kerf				
aKerf	aKerf	$a^2$ Kerf	$a^3$ Kerf	$a^4$ Kerf	Kerf
$a^2$ Kerf	a <sup>2</sup> Kerf	$a^3$ Kerf	$\mathfrak{a}^4 Kerf$	Kerf	aKerf
$\mathfrak{a}^3$ Kerf	a <sup>3</sup> Kerf	$\mathfrak{a}^4 Kerf$	Kerf	aKerf	$a^2$ Kerf
a <sup>4</sup> Kerf	a <sup>4</sup> Kerf	Kerf	aKerf	$a^2$ Kerf	a <sup>3</sup> Kerf

# 2.3 Friday, November 18: Rings: Definition and Basic Properties

**Definition 2.3.1.** (Ring) A **ring**  $\langle R, +, \cdot \rangle$  is a nonempty set R together with two binary operations addition (+) and multiplication  $(\cdot)$ , such that the following axioms are satisfied

- **(R1)**  $\langle R, + \rangle$  is an abelian group
- (R2) Multiplication is associative
- (R3) For all  $a, b, c \in R$ , the **left distributive law**,  $a \cdot (b + c) = (a \cdot b) + (a \cdot c)$  and the **right distributive law**,  $(a + b) \cdot c = (a \cdot c) + (b \cdot c)$  hold

**Remark 2.3.1.** Let  $\langle R, +, \cdot \rangle$  be a ring.

- 1. If the binary operation + and  $\cdot$  are clear from context, we simply denote the ring  $\langle R, +, \cdot \rangle$  by R
- 2. We denote by  $0_R$  the additive identity (zero element) of R. The additive inverse of  $\alpha \in R$  is  $-\alpha$
- 3. We write a b for a + (-b)
- 4. Multiplication in R is usually by juxtaposition, that is, we write ab for  $a \cdot b$ . Multiplication is assumed to be performed before addition in the absence of parenthesis

**Theorem 2.3.1.** Let R be a ring with additive identity  $0_R$ , and  $a, b, c \in R$ . Then

- 1.  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{0}_{\mathsf{R}} = \mathbf{0}_{\mathsf{R}} = \mathbf{0}_{\mathsf{R}} \cdot \mathbf{a}$
- 2.  $a \cdot (-b) = (-a) \cdot b = -(a \cdot b)$
- 3.  $(-a) \cdot (-b) = a \cdot b$
- 4.  $a \cdot (b-c) = a \cdot b a \cdot c$  and  $(a-b) \cdot c = a \cdot c b \cdot c$

# **Definition 2.3.2.** Let R be a ring

- 1. If multiplication in R is commutative, then R is said to be a **commutative ring**
- 2. If R contains an element  $1_R$  such that  $\forall \alpha \in R, 1_R \cdot \alpha = \alpha = 1_R \cdot \alpha$ , then we call  $1_R$  the **multiplicative identity** or **unity** of R. If R has a multiplicative identity, then R is said to be a **ring with unity**
- 3. If R is a ring with unity  $1_R$ , an element  $a \in R$  is called a **unit** if it has a **multiplicative inverse**, that is,  $\exists b \in R$  such that  $a \cdot b = 1_R = b \cdot a$ . We denote the element b by  $a^{-1}$

**Theorem 2.3.2.** The units of a ring R with unity, denoted by U(R), form a group under multiplication

**Definition 2.3.3.** (Direct Product) Let  $R_1, R_2, ..., R_n$  be rings and

$$R = \prod_{i=1}^{n} R_{i} = \{(r_{1}, r_{2}, \dots, r_{n}) \mid r_{i} \in R, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n\},\$$

addition + and multiplication ·

$$(r_1, r_2, ..., r_n) + (s_1, s_2, ..., s_n) = (r_1 + s_1, r_2 + s_2, ..., r_n + s_n)$$
  
 $(r_1, r_2, ..., r_n) \cdot (s_1, s_2, ..., s_n) = (r_1 \cdot s_1, r_2 \cdot s_2, ..., r_n \cdot s_n)$ 

$$(r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n), (s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n) \in \prod_{i=1}^n R_i$$
. Then  $\langle R, +, \cdot \rangle$  is a ring called **di-**

**rect product of**  $R_1, R_2, \ldots, R_n$ . Observe that R is commutative or has unity if and only if each of  $R_i, 1 \le i \le n$  is commutative or has unity

**Remark 2.3.2.** Let R be a ring with additive identity  $0_R$ .

- 1. Let  $a, b, c \in R$ . If  $a \neq 0_R$  and ab = ac, then it does not imply that b = c
- 2. If R is a ring with unity  $1_R$ , then for each  $a \in R$ ,  $(-1_R) \cdot a = -a = 1_R(-a)$
- 3. Suppose R is a ring with unity. Then the unity is unique. Moreover, if  $\alpha \in R$  is a unit, then  $\alpha^{-1}$  is also unique
- 4. If  $R \neq \{0_R\}$  and R is a ring with unity  $1_R$ , then  $1_R \neq 0_R$

**Exercise 2.3.1.** Determine whether the indicated operations on the set give a ring structure. If a ring is not formed, tell why this is the case. If a ring is formed, determine whether the ring is commutative and whether it has a unity.

- 1.  $R = \left\{ a + b\sqrt[3]{3} \mid a,b \in \mathbb{Q} \right\}$  under the usual addition and multiplication
- 2.  $\mathbb{Z}^+$  under the usual addition and multiplication
- 3.  $2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$  under the addition and multiplication by components
- 4.  $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Z}$  under addition and multiplication by components

#### Solution.

1. Let  $a_1 + b_1\sqrt[3]{3}$ ,  $a_2 + b_2\sqrt[3]{3} \in R$  where  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$ ,  $b_1$ ,  $b_2 \in \mathbb{Q}$ . We have

$$\begin{split} \left(\alpha_1 + b_1\sqrt[3]{3}\right) \! \left(\alpha_2 + b_2\sqrt[3]{3}\right) &= \alpha_1\alpha_2 + \alpha_1b_2\sqrt[3]{3} + b_1\alpha_2\sqrt[3]{3} + b_1b_2\sqrt[3]{3^2} \\ &= \alpha_1\alpha_2 + \left(\alpha_1b_2 + b_1\alpha_2 + b_1b_2\sqrt[3]{3}\right)\sqrt[3]{3} \end{split}$$

Note that  $a_1a_2 \in \mathbb{Q}$  but  $a_1b_2 + b_1a_2 + b_1b_2\sqrt[3]{3} \notin \mathbb{Q}$  where  $b_1 \neq b_2 \neq 0$ . Therefore, R is not a ring.

- 2.  $\langle \mathbb{Z}^+, + \rangle$  is not an abelian group since it does not have the additive identity. That is,  $0 \notin \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Therefore,  $\langle \mathbb{Z}^+, + \rangle$  is not a ring.
- 3. Note that  $\langle 2\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot \rangle$  is a commutative ring and  $\langle \mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot \rangle$  is a commutative ring with unity. Therefore,  $\langle 2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot \rangle$  is a commutative ring.
- 4. Note that  $\langle \mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot \rangle$ ,  $\langle \mathbb{Q}, +, \cdot \rangle$  are commutative ring with unity. Therefore,  $\langle \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot \rangle$  is also a commutative ring with unity. The unity is given by  $1_{\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Z}} = (1, 1, 1) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Definition 2.3.4.** (Subring) Let  $S \neq \emptyset$  be a subset of a ring R. Then S is said to be a **subring** of R if S is also a ring under the same binary operations in R ( $S \leq R$ )

**Theorem 2.3.3.** (Subring Test) Let R be a ring and  $\emptyset \neq S \subseteq R$ . If  $\forall a, b \in S, a - b \in S$  and  $ab \in S$ , then S is a subring of R

**Exercise 2.3.2.** Show that 
$$S = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ a & b \end{bmatrix} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R} \right\} \leqslant M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{R})$$

**Proof.** Note that  $S\subseteq M_{2\times 2}(\mathbb{R})$  and  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0\\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}\in S\neq\varnothing$  where  $a=b=0\in\mathbb{R}.$ 

Let 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ a_1 & b_1 \end{bmatrix}$$
,  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix} \in S$ ,  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$ ,  $b_1$ ,  $b_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then we have,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ a_1 & b_1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ a_1 - a_2 & b_1 - b_2 \end{bmatrix} \in S \quad \text{(where } a_1 - a_2, b_1 - b_2 \in R\text{)}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ a_1 & b_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ b_1 a_2 & b_1 b_2 \end{bmatrix} \in S \quad \text{(where } b_1 a_2, b_1 b_2 \in R\text{)}$$

**Exercise 2.3.3.** Prove: Let R be a ring and  $S_1, S_2 \leqslant R$ . Then  $S_1 \cap S_2 \leqslant R$ 

**Proof.** Since  $S_1, S_2 \leq R$ ,  $S_1 \cap S_2 \subseteq R$ . Note that  $0_R \in S_1$  and  $0_R \in S_2$ . Therefore,  $0_R \in S_1 \cap S_2 \neq \emptyset$ .

Let  $a, b \in S_1 \cap S_2$ . Then  $a, b \in S_1$  and  $a, b \in S_2$ . We have,

$$a - b \in S_1 \leqslant R \land a - b \in S_2 \leqslant R$$
$$ab \in S_1 \leqslant R \land ab \in S_2 \leqslant R$$

Therefore,  $a - b \in S_1 \cap S_2$  and  $ab \in S_1 \cap S_2$ . Hence,  $S_1 \cap S_2 \leqslant R$ .

**Exercise 2.3.4.** Prove: Let R be a ring. The **center** of R is the set  $S = \{a \in R \mid ax = xa, \forall x \in R\} \le R$ 

**Proof.** Note that  $\forall x \in R, 0_R \cdot x = 0_R = x \cdot 0_R$ . So  $0_R \in S \neq \emptyset$ . Moreover,  $S \subseteq R$ .

Let  $a_1, a_2 \in S, x \in R$ . Then,

$$(a_1 - a_2)x = a_1x - a_2x = xa_1 - xa_2 = x(a_1 - a_2)$$

Hence,  $a_1 - a_2 \in S$ . Moreover,

$$(a_1a_2)x = a_1(a_2x) = a_1(xa_2) = (a_1x)a_2 = (xa_1)a_2 = x(a_1a_2)$$

Hence,  $a_1a_2 \in S$ . Therefore, the set  $S = \{a \in R \mid ax = xa, \forall x \in R\} \leqslant R$ .  $\blacksquare$ 

# 2.4 Friday, November 25: Fields and Integral Domains

# 2.4.1 Fields

**Definition 2.4.1.** (Fields) Let R be a ring with unity  $1_R \neq 0_R$ . If every nonzero element of R is a unit, then R is called a **division ring** or a **skew field**. If R is a commutative division ring, then R is said to be a **field**. A noncommutative division ring is called a **strictly skew field**.

**Remark 2.4.1.** The ring R is a division ring if and only if  $R^* = R \setminus \{0_R\}$  is a group under multiplication. The ring R is a field if and only if  $R^* = R \setminus \{0_R\}$  is an abelian group under multiplication.

**Exercise 2.4.1.** Let  $2\mathbb{Z}_{10} = \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8\}$  under addition and multiplication modulo 10. Prove that R is a field

**Solution**. By the Cayley tables, we have

$+_{10}$	0	2	4	6	8	•10	0	2	4	6	8
0	0	2	4	6	8	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	2	4	6	8	0	2	0	4	8	2	6
4	4	6	8	0	2	4	0	8	6	4	2
6	6	8	0	2	4	6	0	2	4	6	8
8	8	0	2	4	6	8	0	6	2	8	4

Note that  $\langle \mathbb{Z}_n, +_n, \cdot_n \rangle$  is a commutative ring with unity, so  $+_n$  and  $\cdot_n$  are well-defined, associative, commutative, and satisfies distributive laws. Note that  $2\mathbb{Z}_{10} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{10}$ .

Caylet table shows that  $2\mathbb{Z}_{10}$  is closed under  $+_{10}$  and  $\cdot_{10}$ . So  $+_{10}$  and  $\cdot_{10}$  are binary operations on  $2\mathbb{Z}_{10}$ . The additive identity under addition is given by  $0_{2\mathbb{Z}_{10}}=0$  and for each element, -0=0, -2=8, -4=6, -6=4, -8=2. Thus, the additive inverses are also in  $2\mathbb{Z}_{10}$ . Therefore,  $\langle 2\mathbb{Z}_{10}, +_{10}, \cdot_{10} \rangle$  is a commutative ring.

Note that the identity element under multiplication is  $1_{2\mathbb{Z}_{10}}=6$ . And for each element,  $2^{-1}=8,4^{-1}=4,6^{-1}=6,8^{-1}=2$ . Since  $\langle 2\mathbb{Z}_{10},+_{10},\cdot_{10}\rangle$  is a commutative ring with unity and all nonzero elements are units,  $\langle 2\mathbb{Z}_{10},+_{10},\cdot_{10}\rangle$  is a field.  $\blacksquare$ 

**Remark 2.4.2.** The quaternions  $\mathbb{H}$  of Sir Williman Rowan Hamilton, (1805 - 1865) are the standard example of a strictly skew field or noncommutative division ring.

**Definition 2.4.2.** A nonzero element a in a ring R is a **divisor of zero** or **zero divisor** if there exists a nonzero element b in R such that  $ab = 0_R$  or  $ba = 0_R$ .

**Theorem 2.4.1.** The cancellation laws for multilication hold in a ring R if and only if R has no zero divisors.

**Remark 2.4.3.** Suppose R be a ring without zero divisors. Let  $a, b \in R$  with  $a \neq 0_R$ .

- 1. Then ax = b, has at most one solution in R.
- 2. If R is a ring with unity and a is a unit, then ax = b has a unique solution  $x = a^{-1}b$ . In the case that R is a commutative, in particular if R is a field, it is customary to write  $a^{-1}b = ba^{-1}by\frac{b}{a}$ . This quotient notation must **not be used if** R **is not commutative**, for then we do not know whether  $\frac{b}{a}$  denotes  $a^{-1}b$  or  $ba^{-1}$ .

# 2.4.2 Integral Domain

**Definition 2.4.3.** (Integral Domain) A commutative ring with unity D with  $1_D \neq 0_D$  is said to be an **integral domain** if it has no zero divisors.

**Remark 2.4.4.** In an integral domain D,  $\forall a, b \in D$ , if  $ab = 0_D$ , then  $a = 0_D$  or  $b = 0_D$ .

**Theorem 2.4.2.** Every field is an integral domain.

**Theorem 2.4.3.** Every finite integral domain is a field.

**Definition 2.4.4.** A subring S of a field R is said to be a **subfield** of R if S is also a field under the same binary operations in R. A subring S of an integral domain R is said to be a **subdomain** of R if S is also an integral domain under the same binary operations in R.

**Theorem 2.4.4.** (Subfield Test) Let F be a field and  $K \subseteq F$  with at least two elements. If  $\forall a, b \ (b \neq 0_F) \in K$ ,  $a - b \in K$  and  $ab^{-1} \in K$ , then K is a subfield of F.

**Exercise 2.4.2.** Consider the set  $2\mathbb{Z}$  under the usual addition. Define a multilication \* by a\*b=(ab)/2, for all  $a,b\in 2\mathbb{Z}$ .

- 1. Show that  $2\mathbb{Z}$  with the defined operations is a commutative ring with unity
- 2. Is  $\langle 2\mathbb{Z}, +, * \rangle$  an integral domain? Justify your answer
- 3. Is  $\langle 2\mathbb{Z}, +, * \rangle$  a field? Justify your answer

#### Solution.

1. Note that  $\langle m\mathbb{Z}, + \rangle$  is an abelian group,  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ . We will show that  $2\mathbb{Z}$  is closed under \*. Let  $2k_1, 2k_2 \in 2\mathbb{Z}$  where  $k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then

$$(2k_1)*(2k_2) = \frac{(2k_1)(2k_2)}{2} = 2(k_1k_2) \in 2\mathbb{Z} \quad (\text{where } k_1k_2 \in \mathbb{Z})$$

Next,we will show that \* is well-defined on  $2\mathbb{Z}$ . Let  $\mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{b},\mathfrak{c},\mathfrak{d}\in 2\mathbb{Z}$  where  $\mathfrak{a}=\mathfrak{b}$  and  $\mathfrak{c}=\mathfrak{d}$ . Then, we have

$$a*c = \frac{ac}{2} = \frac{bd}{2} = b*d$$

Therefore, \* is a binary operation on  $2\mathbb{Z}$ . We prove its associativity,  $\forall \alpha, b, c \in 2\mathbb{Z}$ ,

$$(a*b)*c = \frac{ab}{2}*c = \frac{\frac{ab}{2}c}{2} = \frac{(ab)c}{2 \cdot 2} = \frac{a(bc)}{2} = \frac{a\frac{bc}{2}}{2} = \frac{a(b*c)}{2} = a*(b*c)$$

We verify its RDL and LDL,  $\forall a, b, c \in 2\mathbb{Z}$ ,

$$(a+b)*c = \frac{(a+b)c}{2} = \frac{ac+bc}{2} = \frac{ac}{2} + \frac{bc}{2} = (a*c) + (b*c)$$

and

$$a*(b+c) = \frac{a(b+c)}{2} = \frac{ab+ac}{2} = \frac{ab}{2} + \frac{ac}{2} = (a*b) + (a*c)$$

So, LDL and RDL holds. Lastly, let  $\alpha \in 2\mathbb{Z}.$  Then,

$$2*\alpha = \alpha*2 = \frac{\alpha\cdot 2}{2} = \alpha$$

So we take,  $1_{2\mathbb{Z}}=2\in 2\mathbb{Z}$ . Therefore,  $\langle 2\mathbb{Z},+,*\rangle$  is a commutative ring with unity.

2. Let  $a, b \in 2\mathbb{Z}$  and suppose  $a * b = 0_{2\mathbb{Z}}$ . Then

$$\frac{ab}{2} = a * b = 0_{2\mathbb{Z}} = 0$$

So ab = 0. This implies that a = 0 or b = 0. Therefore,  $\langle 2\mathbb{Z}, +, * \rangle$  is an integral domain.

3. Let  $a = 4 \in 2\mathbb{Z}^*$ , then

$$1*4 = 4*1 = \frac{4\cdot 1}{2} = 2 = 1_{2\mathbb{Z}}$$

but  $1 \notin 2\mathbb{Z}^*$ . Therefore,  $\langle 2\mathbb{Z}^*, * \rangle$  is not an abelian group. So it is not a field.

**Definition 2.4.5.** (Characteristic) Let R be a ring. If there is a positive integer n such that  $n \cdot a = 0_R$ , for every  $a \in R$ , where  $n \cdot a = a + a + \cdots + a$  (n addends), then the smallest such n is called the **characteristic** of R. If no such positive integer exists, we say that R has **characteristic 0**. Notation: charR = n.

**Theorem 2.4.5.** Let R be a ring with unity  $1_R$ . If  $1_R$  has finite order n, then charR = n. If  $n \cdot 1_R \neq 0_R$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  ( $1_R$  has infinite order), then R has characteristic 0.

**Theorem 2.4.6.** The characteristic of an integral domain is either zero or a prime integer.

**Exercise 2.4.3.** Compute the characteristic of the following rings.

a. 
$$X = \emptyset, \langle \mathscr{P}(X), \overline{\triangle}, \cap \rangle$$

b.  $\mathbb{Z}_5 \times 5\mathbb{Z}$ 

Solution.

1. Note that  $0_{\mathscr{P}(X)} = \varnothing$ . Then,  $\forall A \in \mathscr{P}(X)$ ,

$$2A = A \triangle A = (A \cup A)/(A \cap A) = A/A = \emptyset$$

Therefore, char  $\mathcal{P}(X) = 2$ .

2. Note that  $0_{\mathbb{Z}_5 \times 5\mathbb{Z}} = (0,0)$ . Also, char $\mathbb{Z}_5 = 5$  but char $5\mathbb{Z} = 0$ . Therefore, char $(\mathbb{Z}_5 \times 5\mathbb{Z}) = 0$ .

**Exercise 2.4.4.** A ring element  $\alpha$  is called an **idempotent** if  $\alpha^2 = \alpha$ . In a commutative ring of characteristic 2, prove that the idempotents form a subring.

**Proof.** Let R be a commutative ring,  $S = \{a \in R \mid a^2 = a\}$ , and char R = 2. Then,  $\forall a \in S, a^2 = a \cdot a$  and  $\forall x \in R, 2x = x + x = 0_R \Rightarrow x = -x$ . Note that

$$0_R^2 = 0_R \cdot 0_R \Rightarrow 0_R \in S \neq \varnothing$$

Let  $a, b \in S$ . Then

$$(a - b)^{2} = (a - b)(a - b) = a^{2} + a(-b) + (-b)a + (-b)(-b)$$

$$= a^{2} - ab - ba + b^{2}$$

$$= a^{2} - ab - ab + b^{2}$$

$$= a^{2} + 2(-ab) + b^{2}$$

$$= a^{2} + b^{2}$$

$$= a + b$$

$$= a + (-b)$$
$$= a - b$$

Therefore,  $a - b \in S$ . Moreover,

$$(ab)^2 = a^2b^2 = ab$$

So,  $ab \in S$ . Therefore,  $S \leq R$ .

# 2.5 Friday, December 9: Ideals, Factor Rings and Ring Homomorphisms

# 2.5.1 Ideals

**Definition 2.5.1.** (Ideals) Let R be a ring and I be a subring of R.

- 1. I is called a **left ideal** of R if  $\forall \alpha \in I$  and  $\forall r \in R, r\alpha \in I$
- 2. I is called a **right ideal** of R if  $\forall \alpha \in I$  and  $\forall r \in R$ ,  $\alpha r \in I$
- 3. I is called a (**two-sided**) **ideal** of R if I is both a left and right ideal of R

**Theorem 2.5.1.** (Ideal Test) A nonempty subset I of a ring R is an ideal of R if

- 1.  $\forall a, b \in I, a b \in I$
- 2.  $\forall \alpha \in I \text{ and } \forall r \in R, r\alpha \in I \text{ and } \alpha r \in I$

**Definition 2.5.2.** (Principal Ideal) Let R be a commutative ring with unity and  $a \in R$ . The ideal  $I = \{ar \mid r \in R\}$  of R, denoted by  $\langle a \rangle$  is called the **principal ideal generated by** a. An ideal I of R is a **principal ideal** if  $I = \langle a \rangle$ , for some  $a \in R$ .

**Definition 2.5.3.** (Proper Ideal) If R is a ring then  $\{0_R\}$  (**trivial ideal**) and R (**improper ideal**) are ideals. An ideal  $I \neq R$  of R is referred to as a proper ideal.

**Exercise 2.5.1.** Consider the ring  $M_{2\times 2}(\mathbb{Z})$ . Verify whether the following subset are ideal of  $M_{2\times 2}(\mathbb{Z})$ :

(a) 
$$I = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha \end{bmatrix} \mid \alpha \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$$

(b)  $J = \dot{M}_{2\times 2}(2\mathbb{Z})$ 

# Solution.

(a) Note that 
$$I \subseteq M_{2\times 2}(\mathbb{Z})$$
 and  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \in I$  where  $\mathfrak{a} = 0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ . So  $I \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix} \in I$ . Then, 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha - b \end{bmatrix} \in I$$

where  $a - b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Let 
$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & w \end{bmatrix} \in M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{Z}), \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} \in I$$
. Then, we have 
$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & w \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & ya \\ 0 & wa \end{bmatrix} \notin I \text{ when } ay \neq 0$$

and

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ az & aw \end{bmatrix} \notin I \text{ when } az \neq 0$$

Therefore, I is not an ideal of  $M_{2\times 2}(\mathbb{Z})$ .

(b) Note that 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 J. Let  $\begin{bmatrix} 2k_1 & 2k_2 \\ 2k_3 & 2k_4 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{bmatrix} 2m_1 & 2m_2 \\ 2m_3 & 2m_4 \end{bmatrix} \in M_{2\times 2}(2\mathbb{Z})$ . Then, we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2k_1 & 2k_2 \\ 2k_3 & 2k_4 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 2m_1 & 2m_2 \\ 2m_3 & 2m_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2(k_1-m_1) & 2(k_2-m_2) \\ 2(k_3-m_3) & 2(k_4-m_4) \end{bmatrix} \in M_{2\times 2}(2\mathbb{Z})$$

where  $k_i - m_i \in \mathbb{Z} \forall i = 1, 2, 3, 4$ .

Let 
$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & w \end{bmatrix} \in M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{Z})$$
,  $\begin{bmatrix} 2k_1 & 2k_2 \\ 2k_3 & 2k_4 \end{bmatrix} \in M_{2 \times 2}(2\mathbb{Z})$ . Then, we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & w \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2k_1 & 2k_2 \\ 2k_3 & 2k_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x2k_1 + y2k_3 & x2k_2 + y2k_4 \\ z2k_1 + w2k_3 & z2k_2 + w2k_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2(xk_1 + yk_3) & 2(xk_2 + yk_4) \\ 2(zk_1 + wk_3) & 2(zk_2 + wk_4) \end{bmatrix} \in M_{2\times 2}(2\mathbb{Z})$$

where  $(xk_1 + yk_3), (xk_2 + yk_4), (zk_1 + wk_3), (zk_2 + wk_4) \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Moreover,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2k_1 & 2k_2 \\ 2k_3 & 2k_4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2k_1x + 2k_2z & 2k_1y + 2k_2w \\ 2k_3x + 2k_4z & 2k_3y + 2k_4w \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2(k_1x + k_2z) & 2(k_1y + k_2w) \\ 2(k_3x + k_4z) & 2(k_3y + k_4w) \end{bmatrix} \in M_{2\times 2}(2\mathbb{Z})$$

where  $(k_1x + k_2z)$ ,  $(k_1y + k_2w)$ ,  $(k_3x + k_4z)$ ,  $(k_3y + k_4w) \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Therefore,  $M_{2\times 2}(2\mathbb{Z})$  is an ideal of  $M_{2\times 2}(\mathbb{Z})$ .

**Exercise 2.5.2.** Give an example to show that if  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  are ideals of a ring R, then  $I_1 \cup I_2$  may not be an ideal.

**Solution**. Note that  $2\mathbb{Z}$  and  $5\mathbb{Z}$  are ideals of  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Consider the elements  $2 \in 2\mathbb{Z}$  and  $5 \in 5\mathbb{Z}$ . Note that 2-5=-3 but  $-3 \notin 2\mathbb{Z} \cup 5\mathbb{Z}$ . Therefore, it is not an ideal.

# 2.5.2 Factor Rings

**Theorem 2.5.2.** Let R be a ring and I an ideal of R. Then the collection of additive cosets R/I of I is a ring with binary operations

$$\begin{cases} (a+I) + (b+I) &= (a+b) + I \\ (a+I)(b+I) &= ab+I \end{cases}$$

for every a + I,  $b + I \in R/I$ .

#### **Remark 2.5.1.**

- 1. We call the ring R/I described in Theorem 2.5.2 the **factor ring** or **quotient ring** of R modulo I.
- 2. a+I=b+I iff  $a\in b+I$  iff  $b\in a+I$  iff  $b-a\in I$  iff  $a-b\in I$
- 3. Let I be an ideal of a ring R
  - (a) If R is a commutative ring, then so is R/I
  - (b) If R has unity, then R/I also has unity

# **Exercise 2.5.3.** Let I be an ideal of a ring R

- (a) Prove that the associative law for multiplication and the distribute laws hold in R/I
- (b) Prove that if R is a commutative ring, then so is R/I
- (c) Prove that if R has a unity, then R/I also has unity

## Solution.

1. Let a + I, b + 1,  $c + I \in R/I$  where a, b,  $c \in R$ . Then,

$$(a + I)[(b + I)(c + I)] = (a + I)(bc + I)$$
  
=  $abc + I$   
=  $(ab + I)(c + I)$ 

$$= [(a + I)(b + I)](c + I)$$

and for LDL and RDL,

$$(a + I)[(b + I) + (c + I)] = (a + I)(b + c + I)$$

$$= a(b + c) + I$$

$$= ab + ac + I$$

$$= ab + I + ac + I$$

$$= (a + I)(b + I) + (a + I)(c + I)$$

and

$$[(a+I) + (b+I)] (c+I) = (a+b+I)(c+I)$$

$$= (a+b)c+I$$

$$= ac+bc+I$$

$$= ac+I+bc+I$$

$$= (a+I)(c+I) + (b+I)(c+I)$$

2. Suppose R is a commutative ring. Let a + I,  $b + I \in R/I$ . Then,

$$(a + I)(b + I) = ab + I = ba + I = (b + I)(a + I)$$

Therefore, R/I is also a commutative ring.

3. Suppose  $1_R \in R$ . Let  $a + I \in R/I$ . Then,

$$(a+I)(1_R+I) = a \cdot 1_R + I = a + I = 1_R \cdot a + I = (1_R+I)(a+I)$$

Therefore,  $1_R + I$  is the identity element under multiplication. By Cayley tables,

Since  $2\mathbb{Z}$  is a commutative ring,  $2\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$  is also a commutative ring. Moreover, the Cayley tables shows that  $1_{2\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}} = 4 + 6\mathbb{Z}$  and  $(2 + 6\mathbb{Z})^{-1} = 2 + 6\mathbb{Z}$  and  $(4 + 6\mathbb{Z})^{-1} = 4 + 6\mathbb{Z}$ . Therefore,  $2\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$  is a field.

**Exercise 2.5.4.** Show that  $6\mathbb{Z}$  is an ideal of  $2\mathbb{Z}$  and  $2\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$  is a field.

**Proof.** Note that  $6\mathbb{Z} \subseteq 2\mathbb{Z}$  and  $0 = 6 \cdot 0 \in 6\mathbb{Z} \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $6m, 6k \in 6\mathbb{Z}$   $(m, k \in \mathbb{Z})$ . Then,

$$6a - 6b = 6(a - b) \in 6\mathbb{Z}$$
 where  $a - b \in \mathbb{Z}$ 

Let  $2n \in 2\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $6m \in 6\mathbb{Z}$   $(n, m \in \mathbb{Z})$ . Then,

$$2n \cdot 6m = 6m \cdot 2n = 6(2mn) \in 6\mathbb{Z}$$

where  $2mn \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Therefore,  $6\mathbb{Z}$  is an ideal of  $2\mathbb{Z}$ . We need to show that  $2\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$  is a field.

Since  $6\mathbb{Z}$  is an ideal of  $2\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $2\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$  is a ring with the following addition and multiplication tables.

# 2.5.3 Ring Homomorphisms

**Definition 2.5.4.** A **ring homomorphism** of a ring  $\langle R', +', \cdot \rangle$  into a ring  $\langle R', +', \cdot' \rangle$  is a function  $f : R \to R'$  such that  $\forall a, b \in R$ ,

$$f(a+b) = f(a) +' f(b)$$

and

$$f(\alpha \cdot b) = f(\alpha) \cdot' f(b)$$

**Remark 2.5.2.** Let  $f: R \to R'$  be a ring homomorphism

- 1. If f is onto, then f is called a **ring epimorphism**
- 2. If f is one-to-one, then f is called a **ring monomorphism**
- 3. If f is bijective, then f is called a **ring isomorphism**. If R = R', we also call f a **ring automorphism**

**Definition 2.5.5.** (Isomorphic Rings) Two rings R and R' are said to be **isomorphic** written  $R \cong R'$  if there exists a (ring) isomorphism of a ring R with a ring R'.

#### Remark 2.5.3.

- 1. Isomorphism between rings define an equivalence relation on any collection of rings.
- 2. If  $f: R \to R'$  is a ring homomorphism, then  $f: \langle R, + \rangle \to \langle R', +' \rangle$  is a group homomorphism. Hence, all results from group homomorphism still hold:
  - (a)  $f(0_R) = 0_{R'}$
  - (b) If  $a \in R$ , then f(-a) = -f(a)
  - (c) For any  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ , f(ma) = mf(a)

**Exercise 2.5.5.** Show that  $f: \mathbb{C} \to M_{2\times 2}(\mathbb{R})$  given by

$$f(a+bi) = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix}$$

for  $a,b \in \mathbb{R}$  is a ring homomorphism

**Proof.** Let a + bi,  $c + di \in \mathbb{C}$ . Then,

$$f((a+bi) + (c+di)) = f(a+c+(b+d)i)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a+c & b+d \\ -(b+d) & a+c \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a+c & b+d \\ -b-d & a+c \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} c & d \\ -d & c \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= f(a+bi) + f(c+di)$$

and

$$f((a+bi)(c+di)) = f((ac-bd) + (ad+bc)i)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} ac-bd & ad+bc \\ -(ad+bc) & ac-bd \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} ac-bd & ad+bc \\ -ad-bc & ac-bd \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c & d \\ -d & c \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= f(a+bi)f(c+di)$$

Therefore f is a ring homomorphism. ■

**Exercise 2.5.6.** Determine all ring homomorphisms from  $\mathbb{Z}_4 \to \mathbb{Z}_{12}$ 

**Proof.** Suppose  $\phi: \mathbb{Z}_4 \to \mathbb{Z}_{12}$  is a ring homomorphism. Then, we have

$$\varphi: \mathbb{Z}_4 \to \mathbb{Z}_{12}$$
 
$$q \mapsto q \varphi(1)$$

For the group homomorphisms, note that  $|\phi(1)| = |1| = 4 \Rightarrow$ 

$$|\phi(1)| = 1,2,4$$
 and  $|\phi(1)| | |\mathbb{Z}_{12}| = 12 \Rightarrow |\phi(1)| = 1,2,3,4,6,12$ . So,  $|\phi(1)| = 1,2,4$ . Therefore,  $\phi(1) = 0,6,3,9$ .

For the ring homomorphism, to preserve multiplication, note that  $1 \cdot 1 = 1 \in \mathbb{Z}_4$ , so

$$\phi(1 \cdot 1) = \phi(1)\phi(1) = \phi(1) \Rightarrow (\phi(1))^2 = \phi(1)$$

Note that  $0^2 = 0, 6^2 = 0 \neq 6, 3^2 = 9 \neq 3, 9^2 = 9$ . Hence  $\phi(1) = 0, 9$ .

**Theorem 2.5.3.** Let  $f : R \to R'$  be a ring homomorphism

- 1. If S is a subring of R, then  $f(S) = \{f(\alpha) \mid \alpha \in S\}$  is a subring of R'
- 2. If S' is a subring of R', then  $f^{-1}(S') = \{a \in R \mid f(a) \in S'\}$  is a subring of R
- 3. If R is a commutative ring, then f(R) is also a commutative ring
- 4. Let R be a ring with unity  $1_R$  and  $R' \neq \{0_{R'}\}$ 
  - (a) Then f(R) has unity  $f(1_R)$
  - (b) If  $a \in R$  is a unit, then f(a) is a unit in f(R) with  $(f(a))^{-1} = f(a^{-1})$
  - (c) If  $a \in R$  and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , then  $f(a^n) = (f(a))^n$

**Definition 2.5.6.** Let  $f: R \to R'$  be a ring homomorphism. The **Kernel** of f is the set

Kerf = 
$$\{x \in R \mid f(x) = 0_{R'}\} = f^{-1}(\{0_{R'}\})$$

**Remark 2.5.4.** Let  $f : R \to R'$  be a ring homomorphism.

- 1. Then f is an isomorphism if and only if f is onto and  $Kerf = \{0_R\}$
- 2. If  $g \in R$ ,  $g' \in R'$  and f(g) = g', then

$$f^{-1}(\{g'\}) = \{x \in R \mid f(x) = g'\} = g + Kerf$$

- 3. If I is an ideal of R, then f(I) is an ideal of f(R)
- 4. If I' is an ideal of R', then  $f^{-1}(I')$  is an ideal of R

**Theorem 2.5.4.** Let  $f: R \to R'$  be a ring homomorphism. Then Kerf is an ideal of R

**Theorem 2.5.5.** Let I be an ideal in a ring R. Then the map  $\pi : R \to R/I$  given by  $\pi(r) = r + I$  is a ring epimorphism with  $Ker\pi = I$ .

**Remark 2.5.5.** The mapping  $\pi$  is called the **natural homomorphism** from  $R \to R/I$ 

**Theorem 2.5.6.** (First Isomorphism Theorem for Rings) Let  $f: R \to R'$  be a ring homomorphism. Then  $R/Kerf \cong f(R)$ 

# 2.6 Friday, December 16: Prime and Maximal Ideals, and The Field of Quotients of an Integral Domain

**Theorem 2.6.1.** If R is a ring with unity, and I is an ideal of R containing a unit, then I = R

Corollary 2.6.1. A field contains no proper nontrivial ideals

**Definition 2.6.1.** (Maximal Ideal) An ideal  $M \neq R$  of a ring R is said to be **maximal** if there is no proper ideal I in R with  $M \subsetneq I$ . That is, whenever J is an ideal of R such that  $M \subseteq J \subseteq R$ , then J = M or J = R

**Remark 2.6.1.** The only ideal that properly contains a maximal ideal is the entire ring

**Theorem 2.6.2.** Let R be a commutative ring with unity and  $I \neq R$  an ideal of R. Then R/I is a field if and only if I is a maximal ideal of R.

**Corollary 2.6.2.** A commutative ring with unity is a field if and only if it has no proper nontrivial ideals.

**Definition 2.6.2.** Let R be a commutative ring. An ideal  $P \neq R$  of R is said to be **prime** if  $a, b \in R$  and  $ab \in P$ , then  $a \in P$  or  $b \in P$ .

**Theorem 2.6.3.** Let R be a commutative ring with unity and  $I \neq R$  an ideal of R. Then R/I is an integral domain if and only if I is a prime ideal of R.

**Corollary 2.6.3.** Every maximal ideal of a commutative ring with unity is a prime ideal.

## **Remark 2.6.2.**

- 1. The converse of Corollary 2.6.3 is not true, that is, a prime ideal of a commutative ring with unity need not be maximal.
- 2. In Corollary 2.6.3, ring R must have unity.

**Theorem 2.6.4.** Let D be an integral domain. Then there exists a field F that contains a subring isomorphic to D.

#### **Remark 2.6.3.**

- 1. We call F in Theorem 2.6.4 the **field of quotients** of D.
- 2. Let  $\bar{D} = \{[\alpha, 1] \mid \alpha \in D\}$ . Then F is a field which D is embedded. Note that

$$[a,1] \odot [b,1]^{-1} = [a,1] \odot [1,b] = [a,b]$$

We may therefore say that every element  $[a,b] \in F$  is the product of  $[a,1] \in \bar{D}$  and the inverse of  $[b,1] \in \bar{D}$ . This product is called quotient of [a,1] and [b,1] and is denoted by  $\frac{[a,1]}{[b,1]}$ . This explains why we choose to call F the field of quotients.

3. Thus, we can now say that any integral domain D can be enlarged (or embedded in) to a field F such that every element of F can be expressed as a quotient of two elements of D.

**Theorem 2.6.5.** Let F be a field of quotients of an integral domain D. If L is a field containing D, then L contains a subfield K such that  $D \subseteq K \subseteq L$  with K isomorphic to F.

**Theorem 2.6.6.** Let R be a ring with unity  $1_R$ . The mapping  $\phi : \mathbb{Z} \to R$  given by  $\phi(n) = n \cdot 1_R$  is a ring homomorphism.

**Corollary 2.6.4.** Let R be a ring with unity.

- 1. If R is of characteristic n > 1, then R contains a subring isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ .
- 2. If R is of characteristic 0, then R contains a subring isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Corollary 2.6.5.** Let F be a field and p be prime.

- 1. If F is of characteristic p, then F contains a subfield isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ .
- 2. If F is of characteristic 0, then F contains a subfield isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

**Definition 2.6.3.** (Prime Field) A field F is called a **prime field** if it has no proper subfields.