# Mathematics

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# Part I Category Theory

# **Foundations**

This is a placeholder — I am not sure what foundation I want to use for this project yet. I will try to work in a way which is foundation-independent. What I do could be formalized in ZFC, ETCS, or some other system. I will assume the usual set theoretic constructions as needed. Sets will be defined up to bijection only.

# Categories

**Definition 2.1** (Category). A category C consists of:

- A class  $|\mathcal{C}|$  of *objects*. We write  $A \in \mathcal{C}$  for  $A \in |\mathcal{C}|$ .
- For any objects A, B, a set C[A, B] of morphisms from A to B. We write  $f: A \to B$  for  $f \in C[A, B]$ .
- For any object A, a morphism  $id_A : A \to A$ , the *identity* morphism on A.
- For any morphisms  $f: A \to B$  and  $g: B \to C$ , a morphism  $g \circ f: A \to C$ , the *composite* of f and g.

such that:

**Associativity** Given  $f: A \to B$ ,  $g: B \to C$  and  $h: C \to D$ , we have  $h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f$ 

**Left Unit Law** For any morphism  $f: A \to B$ , we have  $id_B \circ f = f$ .

**Right Unit Law** For any morphism  $f: A \to B$ , we have  $f \circ id_A = f$ .

**Proposition 2.2.** The identity morphism on an object is unique.

PROOF: If i and j are identity morphisms on A then  $i = i \circ j = j$ .  $\square$ 

**Example 2.3** (Category of Sets). The *category of sets* **Set** has objects all sets and morphisms all functions.

**Definition 2.4** (Endomorphism). In a category  $\mathcal{C}$ , an *endomorphism* on an object A is a morphism  $A \to A$ . We write  $\operatorname{End}_{\mathcal{C}}(A)$  for  $\mathcal{C}[A, A]$ .

**Definition 2.5** (Opposite Category). For any category C, the *opposite* category  $C^{op}$  is the category with the same objects as C and

$$\mathcal{C}^{\mathrm{op}}[A,B] = \mathcal{C}[B,A]$$

### 2.1 Preorders

**Definition 2.6** (Preorder). A preorder on a set A is a relation  $\leq$  on A that is reflexive and transitive.

A preordered set is a pair  $(A, \leq)$  such that  $\leq$  is a preorder on A. We usually write A for the preordered set  $(A, \leq)$ .

We identify any preordered set A with the category whose objects are the elements of A, with one morphism  $a \to b$  iff  $a \le b$ , and no morphism  $a \to b$  otherwise.

**Example 2.7.** For any ordinal  $\alpha$ , let  $\alpha$  be the preorder  $\{\beta : \beta < \alpha\}$  under  $\leq$ .

**Definition 2.8** (Discrete Preorder). We identify any set A with the *discrete* preorder (A, =).

### 2.2 Monomorphisms and Epimorphisms

**Definition 2.9** (Monomorphism). In a category, let  $f: A \to B$ . Then f is a monomorphism or monic iff, for every object X and morphism  $x, y: X \to A$ , if fx = fy then x = y.

**Definition 2.10** (Epimorphism). In a category, let  $f: A \to B$ . Then f is a *epimorphism* or *epi* iff, for every object X and morphism  $x, y: B \to X$ , if xf = yf then x = y.

**Proposition 2.11.** The composite of two monomorphism is monic.

```
Proof:
```

```
\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \ \text{Let:} \ \ f: A \rightarrowtail B \ \text{and} \ \ g: B \rightarrowtail C \ \text{be monic.} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \ \text{Let:} \ \ x,y: X \to A \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \ \text{Assume:} \ \ g \circ f \circ x = g \circ f \circ y \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \ f \circ x = f \circ y \\ \langle 1 \rangle 5. \ \ x = y \\ \hline \\ \end{array}
```

**Proposition 2.12.** The composite of two epimorphisms is epi.

Proof: Dual.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.13.** Let  $f: A \to B$  and  $g: B \to C$ . If  $g \circ f$  is monic then f is monic.

PROOF: If  $f \circ x = f \circ y$  then gfx = gfy and so x = y.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.14.** Let  $f: A \to B$  and  $g: B \to C$ . If  $g \circ f$  is epi then g is epi.

Proof: Dual.

**Proposition 2.15.** A function is a monomorphism in **Set** iff it is injective.

```
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: f: A \to B
\langle 1 \rangle 2. If f is monic then f is injective.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: f is monic.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: x, y \in A
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Assume: f(x) = f(y)
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. Let: \overline{x}, \overline{y}: 1 \to A be the functions such that \overline{x}(*) = x and \overline{y}(*) = y
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ f \circ \overline{x} = f \circ \overline{y}
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ \overline{x} = \overline{y}
       Proof: By \langle 2 \rangle 1.
   \langle 2 \rangle 7. x = y
\langle 1 \rangle 3. If f is injective then f is monic.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: f is injective.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: X be a set and x, y : X \to A.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Assume: f \circ x = f \circ y
            Prove: x = y
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. Let: t \in X
            PROVE: x(t) = y(t)
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. f(x(t)) = f(y(t))
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ x(t) = y(t)
       Proof: By \langle 2 \rangle 1.
Proposition 2.16. A function is an epimorphism in Set iff it is surjective.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: f: A \to B
\langle 1 \rangle 2. If f is an epimorphism then f is surjective.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: f is an epimorphism.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: b \in B
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Let: x,y:B\to 2 be defined by x(b)=1 and x(t)=0 for all other
                     t \in B, y(t) = 0 for all t \in B.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \neq y
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. x \circ f \neq y \circ f
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. There exists a \in A such that f(a) = b.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. If f is surjective then f is an epimorphism.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: f is surjective.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: x, y : B \to X
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Assume: x \circ f = y \circ f
            PROVE: x = y
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. Let: b \in B
            PROVE: x(b) = y(b)
   \langle 2 \rangle5. PICK a \in A such that f(a) = b
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ x(f(a)) = y(f(a))
   \langle 2 \rangle 7. \ x(b) = y(b)
```

**Proposition 2.17.** In a preorder, every morphism is monic and epi.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.  $\square$ 

### 2.3 Sections and Retractions

**Definition 2.18** (Section, Retraction). In a category, let  $r:A\to B$  and  $s:B\to A$ . Then r is a retraction of s, and s is a section of r, iff  $r\circ s=\mathrm{id}_B$ .

**Proposition 2.19.** Every identity morphism is a section and retraction of itself.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

**Proposition 2.20.** Let  $r, r': A \to B$  and  $s: B \to A$ . If r is a retraction of s and r' is a section of s then r = r'.

Proof:

$$r = r \circ id_A$$
  
 $= r \circ s \circ r'$   
 $= id_B \circ r'$   
 $= r'$ 

**Proposition 2.21.** Let  $r_1: A \to B$ ,  $r_2: B \to C$ ,  $s_1: B \to A$  and  $s_2: C \to B$ . If  $r_1$  is a retraction of  $s_1$  and  $r_2$  is a retraction of  $s_2$  then  $r_2 \circ r_1$  is a retraction of  $s_1 \circ s_2$ .

Proof:

$$r_2 \circ r_1 \circ s_1 \circ s_2 = r_2 \circ \mathrm{id}_B \circ s_2$$
  
=  $r_2 \circ s_2$   
=  $\mathrm{id}_C$ 

Proposition 2.22. Every section is monic.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $s: A \to B$  be a section of  $r: B \to A$ .  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x, y: X \to A$  satisfy sx = sy.  $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . rsx = rsy $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . x = y

Proposition 2.23. Every retraction is epi.

Proof: Dual.

Proposition 2.24. In Set, every epimorphism has a retraction.

PROOF: By the Axiom of Choice.  $\square$ 

**Example 2.25.** It is not true in general that every monomorphism in any category has a section. nor that every epimorphism in any category has a retraction.

In the category 2, the morphism  $0 \le 1$  is monic and epi but has no retraction or section.

#### 2.4 **Isomorphisms**

**Definition 2.26** (Isomorphism). In a category C, a morphism  $f: A \to B$  is an isomorphism, denoted  $f: A \cong B$ , iff there exists a morphism  $f^{-1}: B \to A$ , the inverse of f, such that  $f^{-1} \circ f = \mathrm{id}_A$  and  $f \circ f^{-1} = \mathrm{id}_B$ .

An automorphism on an object A is an isomorphism between A and itself. We write  $Aut_{\mathcal{C}}(A)$  for the set of all automorphisms on A.

Objects A and B are isomorphic,  $A \cong B$ , iff there exists an isomorphism between them.

**Proposition 2.27.** The inverse of an isomorphism is unique.

Proof: Proposition 2.20.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.28.** For any object A we have  $id_A : A \cong A$  and  $id_A^{-1} = id_A$ .

PROOF: Since  $id_A \circ id_A = id_A$  by the Unit Laws.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 2.29.** If  $f : A \cong B$  then  $f^{-1} : B \cong A$  and  $(f^{-1})^{-1} = f$ .

Proof: Immediate from definitions.

**Proposition 2.30.** If  $f:A\cong B$  and  $g:B\cong C$  then  $g\circ f:A\cong C$  and  $(g \circ f)^{-1} = f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}$ .

Proof: From Proposition 2.21.  $\square$ 

**Definition 2.31** (Groupoid). A *groupoid* is a category in which every morphism is an isomorphism.

### 2.5 **Initial and Terminal Objects**

**Definition 2.32** (Initial Object). An object I in a category is *initial* iff, for any object X, there is exactly one morphism  $I \to X$ .

**Example 2.33.** The empty set is the initial object in **Set**.

**Definition 2.34** (Terminal Object). An object T in a category is terminal iff, for any object X, there is exactly one morphism  $X \to T$ .

**Example 2.35.** Every singleton is terminal in **Set**.

**Proposition 2.36.** If I and J are initial in a category, then there exists a unique isomorphism  $I \cong J$ .

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: i be the unique morphism  $I \to J$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $i^{-1}$  be the unique morphism  $J \to I$ .  $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $i \circ i^{-1} = \operatorname{id}_J$

PROOF: Since there is only one morphism  $J \to J$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $i^{-1} \circ i = \mathrm{id}_I$ 

Proof: Since there is only one morphism $I \to I$ .
<b>Proposition 2.37.</b> If $S$ and $T$ are terminal in a category, then there exists a unique isomorphism $S \cong T$ .
Proof: Dual.

# **Functors**

**Definition 3.1** (Functor). Let  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $\mathcal{D}$  be categories. A functor  $F:\mathcal{C}\to\mathcal{D}$  consists of:

- for every object  $A \in \mathcal{C}$ , an object  $FA \in \mathcal{D}$
- for any morphism  $f: A \to B: \mathcal{C}$ , a morphism  $Ff: FA \to FB: \mathcal{D}$

such that:

- $Fid_A = id_{FA}$
- $F(g \circ f) = Fg \circ Ff$

**Definition 3.2** (Identity Functor). For any category C, the *identity functor*  $1_C: C \to C$  is defined by

$$1_{\mathcal{C}}A = A$$
$$1_{\mathcal{C}}f = f$$

**Definition 3.3** (Constant Functor). Given categories  $\mathcal{C}$ ,  $\mathcal{D}$  and an object  $D \in \mathcal{D}$ , the constant functor  $K^{\mathcal{C}}D : \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$  is the functor defined by

$$K^{\mathcal{C}}DC = D$$
$$K^{\mathcal{C}}Df = \mathrm{id}_{D}$$

### 3.1 Comma Categories

**Definition 3.4** (Comma Category). Let  $F: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{E}$  and  $G: \mathcal{D} \to \mathcal{E}$  be functors. The *comma category*  $F \downarrow G$  is the category with:

• objects all pairs (C, D, f) where  $C \in \mathcal{C}, D \in \mathcal{D}$  and  $f : FC \to GD : \mathcal{E}$ 

• morphisms  $(u,v):(C,D,f)\to (C',D',g)$  all pairs  $u:C\to C':\mathcal{C}$  and  $v:D\to D':\mathcal{D}$  such that the following diagram commutes:

$$FC \xrightarrow{f} GD$$

$$\downarrow_{Fu} \qquad \downarrow_{Gv}$$

$$FC' \xrightarrow{g} GD'$$

**Definition 3.5** (Slice Category). Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a category and  $A \in \mathcal{C}$ . The *slice category* over A, denoted  $\mathcal{C}/A$ , is the comma category  $1_{\mathcal{C}} \downarrow K^{\mathbf{1}}A$ .

**Definition 3.6** (Coslice Category). Let C be a category and  $A \in C$ . The *coslice category* over A, denoted  $C \setminus A$ , is the comma category  $K^1A \downarrow 1_C$ .

**Definition 3.7** (Pointed Sets). The *category of pointed sets*  $\mathbf{Set}_*$  is the coslice category  $\mathbf{Set} \setminus 1$ .

# Part II Group Theory

# Semigroups

**Definition 4.1** (Semigroup). A *semigroup* consists of a set S and an associative binary operation  $\cdot$  on S.

# Monoids

**Definition 5.1** (Monoid). A *monoid* consists of a semigroup M such that there exists  $e \in M$ , the *unit*, such that, for all  $x \in M$ , we have xe = ex = x.

We identify a monoid M with the category with one object whose morphisms are the elements of M, with composition given by  $\cdot$ .

Proposition 5.2. The identity in a group is unique.

Proof: Proposition 2.2.

# Groups

**Definition 6.1** (Group). Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a category with finite products. A *group* (object) in  $\mathcal{C}$  consists of an object  $G \in \mathcal{C}$  and morphisms

$$m: G^2 \to G, e: 1 \to G, i: G \to G$$

such that the following diagrams commute.

$$G^{3} \xrightarrow{m \times \operatorname{id}_{G}} G^{2}$$

$$\downarrow \operatorname{id}_{G} \times m \qquad \downarrow m$$

$$G^{2} \xrightarrow{m} G$$

$$1 \times G \xrightarrow{e \times \operatorname{id}_{G}} G^{2} \qquad G \times 1 \xrightarrow{\operatorname{id}_{G} \times e} G^{2}$$

$$\stackrel{\cong}{\longrightarrow} \downarrow m \qquad \stackrel{\cong}{\longrightarrow} G$$

$$G \xrightarrow{\Delta} G^{2} \xrightarrow{\operatorname{id}_{G} \times i} G^{2} \qquad G \xrightarrow{\Delta} G^{2} \xrightarrow{i \times \operatorname{id}_{G}} G^{2}$$

$$\downarrow m \qquad \downarrow \qquad \downarrow m$$

$$1 \xrightarrow{e} G \qquad 1 \xrightarrow{e} G$$

**Definition 6.2** (Group). We write just 'group' for 'group in **Set**. Thus, a group G consists of a set G and a binary operation  $\cdot: G^2 \to G$  such that  $\cdot$  is associative, and there exists  $e \in G$ , the *identity* element of the group, such that:

- For all  $x \in G$  we have xe = ex = x
- For all  $x \in G$ , there exists  $x^{-1} \in G$ , the *inverse* of x, such that  $xx^{-1} = x^{-1}x = e$ .

The *order* of a group G, denoted |G|, is the number of elements in G if G is finite; otherwise we write  $|G| = \infty$ .

**Proposition 6.3.** The inverse of an element is unique.

PROOF: If i and j are inverses of x then i = ixj = j.  $\square$ 

**Example 6.4.** • The *trivial* group is  $\{e\}$  under ee = e.

- $\mathbb{Z}$  is a group under addition
- $\bullet \ \mathbb{Q}$  is a group under addition
- $\mathbb{Q} \{0\}$  is a group under multiplication
- $\mathbb{R}$  is a group under addition
- $\mathbb{R} \{0\}$  is a group under multiplication
- $\mathbb{C}$  is a group under addition
- $\mathbb{C} \{0\}$  is a group under multiplication
- $\{-1,1\}$  is a group under multiplication
- For any category  $\mathcal{C}$  and object  $A \in \mathcal{C}$ , we have  $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathcal{C}}(A)$  is a group under  $gf = f \circ g$ .

For A a set, we call  $S_A = \operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbf{Set}}(A)$  the symmetric group or group of permutations of A.

- For  $n \geq 3$ , the dihedral group  $D_{2n}$  consists of the set of rigid motions that map the regular n-gon onto itself under composition.
- Let  $SL_2(\mathbb{Z})=\left\{\left(\begin{array}{cc}a&b\\c&d\end{array}\right):a,b,c,d\in\mathbb{Z},ad-bc=1\right\}$  under matrix multiplication.
- The quaternionic group  $Q_8$  is the group

$$\{1, -1, i, -i, j, -j, k, -k\}$$

with multiplication table

**Example 6.5.** • The only group of order 1 is the trivial group.

• The only group of order 2 is  $\mathbb{Z}_2$ .

- The only group of order 3 is  $\mathbb{Z}_3$ .
- There are exactly two groups of order 4:  $\mathbb{Z}_4$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$  under (a, b)(c, d) = (ac, bd).

**Proposition 6.6** (Cancellation). Let G be a group. Let  $a, g, h \in G$ . If ag = ah or ga = ha then g = h.

PROOF: If ag = ah then  $g = a^{-1}ag = a^{-1}ah = h$ . Similarly if ga = ha.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 6.7.** Let G be a group and  $g, h \in G$ . Then  $(gh)^{-1} = h^{-1}g^{-1}$ .

PROOF: Since  $qhh^{-1}q^{-1} = e$ .  $\square$ 

**Definition 6.8.** Let G be a group. Let  $g \in G$ . We define  $g^n \in G$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  as follows:

$$g^{0} = e$$
  
 $g^{n+1} = g^{n}g$   $(n \ge 0)$   
 $g^{-n} = (g^{-1})^{n}$   $(n > 0)$ 

**Proposition 6.9.** Let G be a group. Let  $g \in G$  and  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then

$$g^{m+n} = g^m g^n \ .$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For all  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  we have  $g^{k+1} = g^k g$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . For all  $k \ge 0$  we have  $g^{k+1} = g^k g$ 

PROOF: Immediate from definition.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $g^{-1+1} = g^{-1}g$ 

PROOF: Both are equal to e.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . For all k > 1 we have  $g^{-k+1} = g^{-k}g$ 

Proof:

$$g^{-k+1} = (g^{-1})^{k-1}$$

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

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

$$= g^{-k}g$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  we have  $g^{k-1} = g^k g^{-1}$ 

PROOF: Substitute k = k - 1 above and multiply by  $g^{-1}$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3.$   $g^{m+0} = g^m g^0$ 

PROOF: Since  $g^m g^0 = g^m e = g^m$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . If  $g^{m+n} = g^m g^n$  then  $g^{m+n+1} = g^m g^{n+1}$ 

Proof:

$$\begin{split} g^{m+n+1} &= g^{m+n}g \\ &= g^m g^n g \\ &= g^m g^{n+1} \end{split} \tag{$\langle 1 \rangle 1$)}$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 5. \text{ If } g^{m+n} = g^m g^n \text{ then } g^{m+n-1} = g^m g^{n-1}$$
 Proof: 
$$g^{m+n-1} g = g^{m+n} \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 1)$$
 
$$= g^m g^n$$
 
$$\therefore g^{m+n-1} = g^m g^n g^{-1}$$
 
$$= g^m g^{n-1} \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 2)$$

**Proposition 6.10.** Let G be a group. Let  $g \in G$  and  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then

$$(g^m)^n = g^{mn} .$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ (g^m)^0 = g^0$ 

PROOF: Both sides are equal to e.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If  $(g^m)^n = g^{mn}$  then  $(g^m)^{n+1} = g^{m(n+1)}$ .

Proof:

$$(g^m)^{n+1} = (g^m)^n g^m$$
 (Proposition 6.9)  
=  $g^{mn} g^m$   
=  $g^{mn+m}$  (Proposition 6.9)

 $=g^{mn+m}$   $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . If  $(g^m)^n=g^{mn}$  then  $(g^m)^{n-1}=g^{m(n-1)}$ .

Proof:

$$(g^{m})^{n} = g^{mn}$$

$$\therefore (g^{m})^{n-1}g^{m} = g^{mn-m}g^{m}$$
 (Proposition 6.9)
$$\therefore (g^{m})^{n-1} = g^{mn-m}$$
 (Cancellation)

**Definition 6.11** (Commute). Let G be a group and  $g, h \in G$ . We say g and h commute iff gh = hg.

**Definition 6.12.** Let G be a group. Given  $g \in G$  and  $A \subseteq G$ , we define

$$gA = \{ga : a \in A\}, \qquad Ag = \{ag : a \in A\}.$$

Given sets  $A, B \subseteq G$ , we define

$$AB = \{ab : a \in A, b \in B\}$$
.

### 6.1 Order of an Element

**Definition 6.13** (Order). Let G be a group. Let  $g \in G$ . Then g has finite order iff there exists a positive integer n such that  $g^n = e$ . In this case, the order of g, denoted |g|, is the least positive integer n such that  $g^n = e$ .

If g does not have finite order, we write  $|g| = \infty$ .

**Proposition 6.14.** Let G be a group. Let  $g \in G$  and n be a positive integer. If  $g^n = e$  then |g| | n.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: n = q|g| + d where  $0 \le d < |g|$ 

PROOF: Division Algorithm.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $g^d = e$ 

Proof:

$$\begin{split} e &= g^n \\ &= g^{q|g|+d} \\ &= (g^{|g|})^q g^d \\ &= e^q g^d \\ &= g^d \end{split} \tag{Propositions 6.9, 6.10}$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3.$  d=0

PROOF: By minimality of |g|.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ n = q|g|$ 

**Corollary 6.14.1.** Let G be a group. Let  $g \in G$  have finite order and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $g^n = e$  if and only if |g| | n.

**Proposition 6.15.** Let G be a group and  $g \in G$ . Then  $|g| \leq |G|$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: w.l.o.g. G is finite.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Pick i, j with  $0 \le i < j \le |G|$  such that  $g^i = g^j$ .

PROOF: Otherwise  $g^{\overline{0}}$ ,  $g^1$ , ...,  $g^{|G|}$  would be |G|+1 distinct elements of G.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ g^{j-i} = e$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . g has finite order and  $|g| \leq |G|$ 

PROOF: Since  $|g| \le j - i \le j \le |G|$ .

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**Proposition 6.16.** Let G be a group. Let  $g \in G$  have finite order. Let  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then

$$|g^m| = \frac{\operatorname{lcm}(m,|g|)}{m} = \frac{|g|}{\gcd(m,|g|)}$$

Proof: Since for any integer d we have

$$g^{md} = e \Leftrightarrow |g| \mid md$$
 (Corollary 6.14.1)  
$$\Leftrightarrow \operatorname{lcm}(m, |g|) \mid md$$
  
$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{\operatorname{lcm}(m, |g|)}{m} \mid d$$

and so  $|g^m| = \frac{\text{lcm}(m,|g|)}{m}$  by Corollary 6.14.1.  $\square$ 

Corollary 6.16.1. If g has odd order then  $|g^2| = |g|$ .

**Proposition 6.17.** Let G be a group. Let  $g, h \in G$  have finite order. Assume gh = hg. Then |gh| has finite order and

$$|gh| \mid \operatorname{lcm}(|g|, |h|)$$

PROOF: Since  $(qh)^{\operatorname{lcm}(|g|,|h|)} = q^{\operatorname{lcm}(|g|,|h|)}h^{\operatorname{lcm}(|g|,|h|)} = e$ .  $\square$ 

Example 6.18. This example shows that we cannot remove the hypothesis that gh = hg.

In  $GL_2(\mathbb{R})$ , take

$$g = \left( \begin{array}{cc} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array} \right), \qquad h = \left( \begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{array} \right) \ .$$

Then |g| = 4, |h| = 3 and  $|gh| = \infty$ .

**Proposition 6.19.** Let G be a group and  $g, h \in G$  have finite order. If gh = hgand gcd(|g|, |h|) = 1 then |gh| = |g||h|.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: N = |gh| $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $g^N = (h^{-1})^N$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ q^N = (h^{-1})^N$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ q^{N|g|} = e$ 

 $\begin{array}{ll} \langle 1 \rangle 4. & |g^N| \mid |g| \\ \langle 1 \rangle 5. & h^{-N|h|} = e \end{array}$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6. |g^N| |h|$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ .  $|g^N| = 1$ 

PROOF: Since gcd(|g|, |h|) = 1.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 8. \ g^N = e$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 9$ . |g| | N

 $\langle 1 \rangle 10. \ h^{-N} = e$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 11. |h| |N$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 12$ . N = |g||h|

Proof: Using Proposition 6.17.

**Proposition 6.20.** Let G be a finite group. Assume there is exactly one element  $f \in G$  of order 2. Then the product of all the elements of G is f.

PROOF: Let the elements of G be  $g_1, g_2, \ldots, g_n$ . Apart from e and f, every element and its inverse are distinct elements of the list. Hence the product of the list is ef = f.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 6.21.** Let G be a finite group of order n. Let m be the number of elements of G of order 2. Then n-m is odd.

PROOF: In the list of all elements that are not of order 2, every element and its inverse are distinct except for e. Hence the list has odd length.  $\square$ 

Corollary 6.21.1. If a finite group has even order, then it contains an element of order 2.

**Proposition 6.22.** Let G be a group and  $a, g \in G$ . Then  $|aga^{-1}| = |g|$ .

PROOF: Since

$$(aga^{-1})^n = e \Leftrightarrow ag^n a^{-1} = e$$
$$\Leftrightarrow g^n = e \qquad \Box$$

**Proposition 6.23.** Let G be a group and  $g, h \in G$ . Then |gh| = |hg|.

PROOF: Since  $|gh| = |ghgg^{-1}| = |hg|$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 6.24.** Let G be a group of order n. Let k be relatively prime to n. Then every element in G has the form  $x^k$  for some x.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . PICK integers a and b such that an + bk = 1.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $g \in G$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3.$   $g = (g^b)^k$

Proof:

$$g = g \cdot (g^n)^{-a} \qquad (g^n = e)$$
$$= g^{1-an}$$
$$= g^{bk}$$

### 6.2 Generators

**Definition 6.25** (Generator). Let G be a group and  $a \in G$ . We say a generates the group iff, for all  $x \in G$ , there exists an integer n such that  $x^n = a$ .

**Example 6.26.**  $SL_2(\mathbb{Z})$  is generated by

$$s = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array}\right), \qquad t = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array}\right)$$

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $H = \langle s, t \rangle$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$  we have  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & q \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in H$ .

PROOF: It is  $t^q$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For all  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$  we have  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ q & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in H$ .

Proof:

$$st^{-q}s^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -q \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -q \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ q & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 4$$
.

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc} a & b \\ c & d \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & q \\ 0 & 1 \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} a & qa+b \\ c & qc+d \end{array}\right)$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ .

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc} a & b \\ c & d \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \\ q & 1 \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} a+qb & b \\ c+qd & d \end{array}\right)$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 6. For any  $M = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ , if c and d are both nonzero, then there exists  $N \in H$  such that the bottom row of MN has one entry the same as M and one entry with smaller absolute value.

PROOF: From  $\langle 1 \rangle 4$  and  $\langle 1 \rangle 5$  taking q = -1.

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 7. For any  $M \in \mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ , there exists  $N \in H$  such that MN has a zero on the bottom row.

PROOF: Apply  $\langle 1 \rangle 6$  repeatedly.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . Any matrix in  $SL_2(\mathbb{Z})$  with a zero on the bottom row is in H.

$$\langle 2 \rangle 1. \begin{pmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in H$$

Proof:  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 2. \left( \begin{array}{cc} -1 & b \\ 0 & -1 \end{array} \right) \in H$$

PROOF: It is  $s^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  since  $s^2 = -I$ .

$$\langle 2 \rangle 3. \left( \begin{array}{cc} a & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{array} \right) \in H$$

PROOF: It is  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -a \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} s$ .

$$\langle 2 \rangle 4. \left( \begin{array}{cc} a & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array} \right) \in H$$

PROOF: It is  $s^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} s$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 9. Every matrix in  $\operatorname{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$  is in H.

### 6.3 p-groups

**Definition 6.27** (p-group). Let p be a prime. A p-group is a finite group whose order is a power of p.

# Group Homomorphisms

**Definition 7.1** (Homomorphism). Let G and H be groups. A (group) homomorphism  $\phi: G \to H$  is a function such that, for all  $x, y \in G$ ,

$$\phi(xy) = \phi(x)\phi(y) .$$

**Proposition 7.2.** Let G and H be groups with identities  $e_G$  and  $e_H$ . Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a group homomorphism. Then  $\phi(e_G) = e_H$ .

PROOF: Since  $\phi(e_G) = \phi(e_G e_G) = \phi(e_G) \phi(e_G)$  and so  $\phi(e_G) = e_H$  by Cancellation.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.3.** Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a group homomorphism. For all  $x \in G$  we have  $\phi(x^{-1}) = \phi(x)^{-1}$ .

PROOF: Since  $\phi(x)\phi(x^{-1}) = \phi(xx^{-1}) = \phi(e_G) = e_H$ .

**Proposition 7.4.** Let G, H and K be groups. If  $\phi: G \to H$  and  $\psi: H \to K$  are homomorphisms then  $\psi \circ \phi: G \to K$  is a homomorphism.

PROOF: For  $x, y \in G$  we have  $\psi(\phi(xy)) = \psi(\phi(x)\phi(y)) = \psi(\phi(x))\psi(\phi(y)) \ .$ 

**Proposition 7.5.** Let G be a group. Then  $id_G : G \to G$  is a group homomorphism.

PROOF: For  $x, y \in G$  we have  $id_G(xy) = xy = id_G(x)id_G(y)$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.6.** Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a group homomorphism. Let  $g \in G$  have finite order. Then  $|\phi(g)|$  divides |g|.

PROOF: Since  $\phi(g)^{|g|} = \phi(g^{|g|}) = e$ .  $\square$ 

**Definition 7.7** (Category of Groups). Let **Grp** be the category of groups and group homomorphisms.

**Example 7.8.** There are 49487365402 groups of order 1024 up to isomorphism.

**Proposition 7.9.** A group homomorphism  $\phi: G \to H$  is an isomorphism in **Grp** if and only if it is bijective.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $\phi$  is bijective.

PROVE:  $\phi^{-1}$  is a group homomorphism.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $h, h' \in H$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \phi(\phi^{-1}(hh')) = \phi(\phi^{-1}(h)\phi^{-1}(h'))$$

PROOF: Both are equal to hh'.

$$\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \phi^{-1}(hh') = \phi^{-1}(h)\phi^{-1}(h')$$

### Corollary 7.9.1.

$$D_6 \cong C_3$$

PROOF: The canonical homomorphism  $D_6 \to C_3$  is bijective.  $\square$ 

Corollary 7.9.2.

$$(\mathbb{R}, +) \cong (\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x > 0\}, \cdot)$$

PROOF: The function that maps x to  $e^x$  is a bijective homomorphism.  $\square$ 

Proposition 7.10. The trivial group is the zero object in Grp.

PROOF: For any group G, the unique function  $G \to \{e\}$  is a group homomorphism, and the only group homomorphism  $\{e\} \to G$  maps e to  $e_G$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.11.** For any groups G and H, the set  $G \times H$  under (g,h)(g',h') = (gg',hh') is the product of G and H in **Grp**.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $G \times H$  is a group.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . The multiplication is associative.

PROOF: Since  $(g_1, h_1)((g_2, h_2)(g_3, h_3)) = ((g_1, h_1)(g_2, h_2))(g_3, h_3) = (g_1g_2g_3, h_1h_2h_3).$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $(e_G, e_H)$  is the identity.

PROOF: Since  $(g, h)(e_G, e_H) = (e_G, e_H)(g, h) = (g, h)$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . The inverse of (g,h) is  $(g^{-1},h^{-1})$ .

PROOF: Since  $(g,h)(g^{-1},h^{-1})=(g^{-1},h^{-1})(g,h)=(e_G,e_H).$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\pi_1 : G \times H \to G$  is a group homomorphism.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\pi_2 : G \times H \to H$  is a group homomorphism.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For any group homomorphism  $\phi : K \to G$  and  $\psi : K \to H$ , the function  $\langle \phi, \psi \rangle : K \to G \times H$  where  $\langle \phi, \psi \rangle (k) = (\phi(k), \psi(k))$  is a group homomorphism.

Proof:

$$\langle \phi, \psi \rangle (kk') = (\phi(kk'), \psi(kk'))$$

$$= (\phi(k)\phi(k'), \psi(k)\psi(k'))$$

$$= (\phi(k), \psi(k))(\phi(k'), \psi(k'))$$

$$= \langle \phi, \psi \rangle (k) \langle \phi, \psi \rangle (k')$$

7.1. SUBGROUPS 35

### 7.1 Subgroups

**Definition 7.12** (Subgroup). Let  $(G, \cdot)$  and (H, \*) be groups such that H is a subset of G. Then H is a subgroup of G iff the inclusion  $i: H \hookrightarrow G$  is a group homomorphism.

**Proposition 7.13.** *If* (H, \*) *is a subgroup of*  $(G, \cdot)$  *then* \* *is the restriction of*  $\cdot$  *to* H.

PROOF: Given  $x, y \in H$  we have  $x * y = i(x * y) = i(x) \cdot i(y) = x \cdot y$ .

**Example 7.14.** For any group G we have  $\{e\}$  is a subgroup of G.

**Proposition 7.15.** Let G be a group. Let H be a subset of G. Then H is a subgroup of G iff H is nonempty and, for all  $x, y \in H$ , we have  $xy^{-1} \in H$ .

### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If H is a subgroup of G then H is nonempty.

PROOF: Since every group has an identity element and so is nonempty.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If H is a subgroup of G then, for all  $x, y \in H$ , we have  $xy^{-1} \in H$ . PROOF: Easy.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . If H is nonempty and, for all  $x, y \in H$ , we have  $xy^{-1} \in H$ , then H is a subgroup of G.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: *H* is nonempty.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $\forall x, y \in H.xy^{-1} \in H$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ e \in H$

PROOF: Pick  $x \in H$ . We have  $e = xx^{-1} \in H$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ \forall x \in H.x^{-1} \in H$ 

PROOF: Given  $x \in H$  we have  $x^{-1} = ex^{-1} \in H$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. H is closed under the restriction of  $\cdot$ 

PROOF: Given  $x, y \in H$  we have  $xy = x(y^{-1})^{-1} \in H$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . H is a group under the restriction of  $\cdot$ 

PROOF: Associativity is inherited from G and the existence of an identity element and inverses follows from  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$  and  $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ . The inclusion  $H \hookrightarrow G$  is a group homomorphism.

PROOF: For  $x, y \in H$  we have i(xy) = i(x)i(y) = xy.

Corollary 7.15.1. The intersection of a set of subgroups of G is a subgroup of G.

**Corollary 7.15.2.** Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a group homomorphism. Let K be a subgroup of H. Then  $\phi^{-1}(K)$  is a subgroup of G.

### Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \phi^{-1}(K) is nonempty.
```

PROOF: Since  $e \in \phi^{-1}(K)$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x, y \in \phi^{-1}(K)$ 

$$\begin{array}{ll} \langle 1 \rangle 3. & \phi(x), \phi(y) \in K \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. & \phi(x)\phi(y)^{-1} \in K \\ \langle 1 \rangle 5. & \phi(xy^{-1}) \in K \\ \langle 1 \rangle 6. & xy^{-1} \in \phi^{-1}(K) \\ \sqcap \end{array}$$

**Corollary 7.15.3.** Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a group homomorphism. Let K be a subgroup of G. Then  $\phi(K)$  is a subgroup of H.

Proof:

```
\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \ \mathrm{Let:} \ \ x,y \in \phi(K) \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \ \mathrm{Pick} \ \ a,b \in K \ \ \mathrm{such \ that} \ \ x = \phi(a) \ \ \mathrm{and} \ \ y = \phi(b) \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \ xy^{-1} = \phi(ab^{-1}) \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \ xy^{-1} \in \phi(K) \end{array}
```

**Proposition 7.16.** Let G be a subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Then there exists  $d \geq 0$  such that  $G = d\mathbb{Z}$ .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: w.l.o.g.  $G \neq \{0\}$ Proof: Since  $\{0\} = 0\mathbb{Z}$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let: d be the least positive element of G.

Prove:  $G = d\mathbb{Z}$ 

PROOF: If  $n \in G$  then  $-n \in G$  so G must contain a positive element.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ G \subseteq d\mathbb{Z}$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $n \in G$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: q and r be the integers such that n = qd + r and  $0 \le r < d$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ r \in G$ 

PROOF: Since r = n - qd.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ r = 0$ 

Proof: By minimality of d.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ n = qd \in d\mathbb{Z}$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ d\mathbb{Z} \subseteq G$ 

### 7.2 Kernel

**Definition 7.17** (Kernel). Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a group homomorphism. The *kernel* of  $\phi$  is

$$\ker \phi = \{ g \in G : \phi(g) = e \} .$$

**Proposition 7.18.** Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a group homomorphism. Then  $\ker \phi$  is a subgroup of G.

Proof: Corollary 7.15.2.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.19.** Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a group homomorphism. Then the inclusion  $i : \ker \phi \hookrightarrow G$  is terminal in the category of pairs  $(K, \alpha : K \to G)$  such that  $\phi \circ \alpha = 0$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \phi \circ i = 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For any group K and homomorphism  $\alpha : K \to G$  such that  $\phi \circ \alpha = 0$ , there exists a unique homomorphism  $\beta: K \to \ker \phi$  such that  $i \circ \beta = \alpha$ .

**Proposition 7.20.** Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a group homomorphism. Then the following are equivalent:

- 1.  $\phi$  is monic.
- 2.  $\ker \phi = \{e\}$
- 3.  $\phi$  is injective.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 1 \Rightarrow 2$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $\phi$  is monic.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $i : \ker \phi \hookrightarrow G, j : \{e\} \hookrightarrow \ker \phi \hookrightarrow G$  be the inclusions.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \phi \circ i = \phi \circ j$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ i = j$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ 2 \Rightarrow 3$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $\ker \phi = \{e\}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x, y \in G$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Assume:  $\phi(x) = \phi(y)$

  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \quad \phi(xy^{-1}) = e$  $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \quad xy^{-1} \in \ker \phi$  $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \quad xy^{-1} = e$

  - $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ x = y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 3 \Rightarrow 1$

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 7.21.** A group homomorphism is an epimorphism if and only if it is surjective.

#### Inner Automorphisms 7.3

**Proposition 7.22.** Let G be a group and  $g \in G$ . The function  $\gamma_g : G \to G$ defined by  $\gamma_g(a) = gag^{-1}$  is an automorphism on G.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $\gamma_q$  is a homomorphism.

Proof:

$$\gamma_g(ab) = gabg^{-1}$$

$$= gag^{-1}gbg^{-1}$$

$$= \gamma_g(a)\gamma_g(b)$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\gamma_q$  is injective.

PROOF: By Cancellation.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\gamma_q$  is surjective.

PROOF: Given  $b \in G$ , we have  $\gamma_g(g^{-1}bg) = b$ .

**Definition 7.23** (Inner Automorphism). Let G be a group. An *inner automorphism* on G is a function of the form  $\gamma_g(a) = gag^{-1}$  for some  $g \in G$ . We write Inn(G) for the set of inner automorphisms of G.

**Proposition 7.24.** Let G be a group. The function  $\gamma: G \to \operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbf{Grp}}(G)$  that maps g to  $\gamma_g$  is a group homomorphism.

PROOF: Since 
$$\gamma_{qh}(a) = ghah^{-1}g^{-1} = \gamma_q(\gamma_h(a))$$
.  $\square$ 

Corollary 7.24.1. Inn(G) is a subgroup of  $Aut_{Grp}(G)$ .

## 7.4 Direct Products

**Definition 7.25** (Direct Product). The *direct product* of groups G and H is their product in Grp.

# 7.5 Free Groups

**Proposition 7.26.** Let A be a set. Let  $\mathcal{F}^A$  be the category whose objects are pairs (G,j) where G is a group and j is a function  $A \to G$ , with morphisms  $f:(G,j)\to (H,k)$  the group homomorphisms  $f:G\to H$  such that  $f\circ j=k$ . Then  $\mathcal{F}^A$  has an initial object.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: W(A) be the set of words in the alphabet whose elements are the elements of A together with  $\{a^{-1}: a \in A\}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. Let:  $r: W(A) \to W(A)$  be the function that, given a word w, removes the first pair of letters of the form  $aa^{-1}$  or  $a^{-1}a$ ; if there is no such pair, then r(w) = w.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let us say that a word w is a reduced word iff r(w) = w.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For any word w of length n, we have  $r^{\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil}(w)$  is a reduced word. PROOF: Since we cannot remove more than n/2 pairs of letters from w.

(1)5. Let:  $R:W(A) \to W(A)$  be the function  $R(w) = r^{\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil}(w)$ , where n is the length of w.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Let: F(A) be the set of reduced words.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . Define  $\cdot : F(A)^2 \to F(A)$  by  $w \cdot w' = R(ww')$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . · is associative.

PROOF: Both  $w_1 \cdot (w_2 \cdot w_3)$  and  $(w_1 \cdot w_2) \cdot w_3$  are equal to  $R(w_1 w_2 w_3)$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 9$ . The empty word is the identity element in F(A)
- $\langle 1 \rangle 10$ . The inverse of  $a_1^{\pm 1} a_2^{\pm 1} \cdots a_n^{\pm 1}$  is  $a_n^{\mp 1} \cdots a_2^{\mp 1} a_1^{\mp 1}$ .  $\langle 1 \rangle 11$ . Let:  $j: A \to F(A)$  be the function that maps a to the word a of length
- $\langle 1 \rangle 12$ . Let: G be any group and  $k: A \to G$  any function.
- (1)13. The only morphism  $f: (F(A), j) \to (G, k)$  in  $\mathcal{F}^A$  is  $f(a_1^{\pm 1} a_2^{\pm 1} \cdots a_n^{\pm 1}) = k(a_1)^{\pm 1} k(a_2)^{\pm 1} \cdots k(a_n)^{\pm 1}$ .

**Definition 7.27** (Free Group). For any set A, the free group on A is the initial object (F(A), i) in  $\mathcal{F}^A$ .

**Proposition 7.28.**  $i: A \to F(A)$  is injective.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x, y \in A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $x \neq y$

PROVE:  $i(x) \neq i(y)$ 

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $f: A \to C_2$  be the function that maps x to 0 and all other elements
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $\phi : F(A) \to C_2$  be the group homomorphism such that  $f = \phi \circ i$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ f(x) \neq f(y)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ \phi(i(x)) \neq \phi(i(y))$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ i(x) \neq i(y)$

Proposition 7.29.

$$F(0) \cong \{e\}$$

PROOF: For any set A, the unique group homomorphism  $\{e\} \to A$  makes the following diagram commute.



**Proposition 7.30.** The free group on 1 is  $\mathbb{Z}$  with the injection mapping 0 to 1.

PROOF: Given any group G and function  $a:1\to G$ , the required unique homomorphism  $\phi: \mathbb{Z} \to G$  is defined by  $\phi(n) = a(0)^n$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.31.** For any sets A and B, we have that F(A + B) is the coproduct of F(A) and F(B) in **Grp**.



Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $i_A: A \to F(A), i_B: B \to F(B), j: A+B \to F(A+B)$  be the canonical injections.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. Let:  $\kappa_1$ ,  $\kappa_2$  be the unique group homomorphisms that make the diagram above commute.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3.$  Let: G be any group and  $f: F(A) \to G, \ g: F(B) \to G$  any group homomorphisms.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $h: A+B \to G$  be the unique function such that  $h \circ k_1 = f \circ i_A$  and  $h \circ k_2 = g \circ i_B$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle$  5. Let:  $k: F(A+B) \to G$  be the unique group homomorphism such that  $k \circ j = h.$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 6. k is the unique group homomorphism such that  $k \circ \kappa_1 \circ i_A = f \circ i_A$  and  $k \circ \kappa_2 \circ i_B = g \circ i_B$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . k is the unique group homomorphism such that  $k \circ \kappa_1 = f$  and  $k \circ \kappa_2 = g$ .

**Definition 7.32** (Subgroup Generated by a Group). Let G be a group and A a subset of G. Let  $\phi: F(A) \to G$  be the unique group homomorphism such that  $\phi(a) = a$  for all  $a \in A$ . The subgroup *generated* by A is

$$\langle A \rangle := \operatorname{im} \phi$$



**Proposition 7.33.** Let G be a group and A a subset of G. Then  $\langle A \rangle$  is the set of all elements of the form  $a_1^{\pm 1} a_2^{\pm 1} \cdots a_n^{\pm 1}$  (where  $n \geq 0$ ) such that  $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in A$ .

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

Corollary 7.33.1. Let G be a group and  $g \in G$ . Then

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

**Proposition 7.34.** Let G be a group and A a subset of G. Then  $\langle A \rangle$  is the intersection of all the subgroups of G that include A.

Proof: Easy.

**Definition 7.35** (Finitely Generated). Let G be a group. Then G is *finitely generated* iff there exists a finite subset A of G such that  $G = \langle A \rangle$ .

**Proposition 7.36.** Every subgroup of a finitely generated free group is free.

PROOF: TODO.

**Proposition 7.37.** F(2) includes subgroups isomorphic to the free group on arbitrarily many generators.

PROOF: TODO

Proposition 7.38.

$$[F(2), F(2)] \cong F(\mathbb{Z})$$

PROOF: TODO

## 7.6 Normal Subgroups

**Definition 7.39** (Normal Subgroup). A subgroup N of G is *normal* iff, for all  $g \in G$  and  $n \in N$ , we have  $gng^{-1} \in N$ .

**Example 7.40.** Every subgroup of  $Q_8$  is normal.

**Proposition 7.41.** Let G be a group and N a subgroup of G. Then the following are equivalent.

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

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $1 \Leftrightarrow 2$ 

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $2 \Rightarrow 3$ 

PROOF: If 2 holds then we have  $gNg^{-1} \subseteq N$  and  $g^{-1}Ng \subseteq N$  hence  $N = gNg^{-1}$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 3 \Rightarrow 2$ 

PROOF: Trivial.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $2 \Leftrightarrow 4$ 

Proof: Easy.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ .  $3 \Leftrightarrow 5$ 

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 7.42.** Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a group homomorphism. Then  $\ker \phi$  is a normal subgroup of G.

PROOF: Given  $g \in G$  and  $n \in \ker \phi$  we have

$$\phi(gng^{-1}) = \phi(g)\phi(n)\phi(g)^{-1} = \phi(g)\phi(g)^{-1} = e$$

and so  $gng^{-1} \in \ker \phi$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.43.** If H and K are normal subgroups of a group G then HK is normal in G.

PROOF: For  $g \in G$ ,  $h \in H$  and  $k \in K$  we have  $ghkg^{-1} = (ghg^{-1})(gkg^{-1}) \in HK$ .

## 7.7 Quotient Groups

**Definition 7.44.** Let G be a group. Let  $\sim$  be an equivalence relation on G. Then we say that  $\sim$  is *compatible* with the group operation on G iff, for all  $a, a', g \in G$ , if  $a \sim a'$  then  $ga \sim ga'$  and  $ag \sim a'g$ .

**Proposition 7.45.** Let G be a group. Let  $\sim$  be an equivalence relation on G. Then there exists an operation  $\cdot : (G/\sim)^2 \to G/\sin$  such that

$$\forall a,b \in G.[a][b] = [ab]$$

iff  $\sim$  is compatible with the group operation on G. In this case,  $G/\sim$  is a group under  $\cdot$  and the canonical function  $\pi: G \to G/\sim$  is a group homomorphism, and is universal with respect to group homomorphisms  $\phi: G \to G'$  such that if  $a \sim a'$  then  $\phi(a) = \phi(a')$ .

Proof: Easy.

**Definition 7.46** (Quotient Group). Let G be a group. Let  $\sim$  be an equivalence relation on G that is compatible with the group operation on G. Then  $G/\sim$  is the quotient group of G by  $\sim$  under [a][b]=[ab].

**Proposition 7.47.** Let G be a group and H a subgroup of G. Then H is normal if and only if there exists a group K and homomorphism  $\phi: G \to K$  such that  $H = \ker \phi$ .

PROOF: One direction is given by Proposition 7.42. For the other direction, take K = G/H and  $\phi$  to be the canonical map  $G \to G/H$ .  $\square$ 

**Definition 7.48** (Modular Group). The modular group  $PSL_2(\mathbb{Z})$  is  $SL_2(\mathbb{Z})/\{I, -I\}$ .

**Proposition 7.49.** 
$$\operatorname{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$$
 is generated by  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ .

PROOF: By Example 6.26.

**Proposition 7.50** (Roger Alperin).  $PSL_2(\mathbb{Z})$  is presented by  $(x, y|x^2, y^3)$ .

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1$$
. Let:  $x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$   
 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle$$
3. Define an action of  $\operatorname{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$  on  $\mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}$  by 
$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} r = \frac{ar+b}{cr+d} .$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Given  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$  and r irrational we have  $\frac{ar+b}{cr+d}$  is irrational.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $\frac{ar+b}{cr+d} = \frac{p}{q}$  where p and q are integers with q > 0.

$$\langle 3 \rangle 2$$
.  $aqr + bq = cpr + dp$ 

$$\langle 3 \rangle 3$$
.  $(aq - cp)r = dp - bq$ 

$$\langle 3 \rangle 4$$
.  $aq = cp = dp - bq = 0$ 

$$\langle 3 \rangle 5$$
.  $adq - cdp = 0$ 

$$\langle 3 \rangle 6$$
.  $cdp - cbq = 0$ 

$$\langle 3 \rangle 7$$
.  $(ad - cb)q = 0$ 

PROOF: Since ad - cb = 1.

$$\langle 3 \rangle 8. \ q = 0$$

$$\langle 3 \rangle 9$$
. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts  $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ .

$$\langle 2 \rangle 2$$
.  $-Ir = r$ 

PROOF: Since  $-Ir = \frac{-r}{-1} = r$ .  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Given  $A, B \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$  we have A(Br) = (AB)r.

Proof:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{pmatrix} r \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \frac{er + f}{gr + h}$$

$$= \frac{a \frac{er + f}{gr + h} + b}{c \frac{er + f}{gr + h} + d}$$

$$= \frac{a(er + f) + b(gr + h)}{c(er + f) + d(gr + h)}$$

$$= \frac{(ae + bg)r + (af + bh)}{(ce + dg)r + (cf + dh)}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} ae + bg & af + bh \\ ce + dg & cf + dh \end{pmatrix} r$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} r$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .

$$yr = 1 - \frac{1}{r}$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 5$$
.

PROOF: Since 
$$y^{-1}=\frac{1}{1-r}$$
 PROOF: Since  $y^{-1}=\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$   $yxr=1+r$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ .

PROOF: Since 
$$yx = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ .

$$y^{-1}xr = \frac{r}{1+r}$$

PROOF: Since  $y^{-1}x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . If r > -1 is positive then yxr is positive.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 9$ . If r is positive then  $y^{-1}xr$  is positive.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 10$ . If r < -1 then  $y^{-1}xr$  is positive.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 11$ . If r is negative then yr is positive.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 12$ . If r is negative then  $y^{-1}r$  is positive.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 13$ . No product of the form

$$(y^{\pm 1}x)(y^{\pm 1}x)\cdots(y^{\pm 1}x)$$

with one or more factors can equal the identity.

PROOF: If the last factor is (yx), then the product maps numbers in (-1,0) to positive numbers. If the last factor is  $(y^{-1}x)$ , then the product maps numbers < -1 to positive numbers.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 14$ . No product of the form

$$(y^{\pm 1}x)(y^{\pm 1}x)\cdots(y^{\pm 1}x)y^{\pm 1}$$

with one or more factors can equal the identity.

Proof: The product maps negative numbers to positive numbers.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 15$ . PSL<sub>2</sub>( $\mathbb{Z}$ ) is presented by  $(x, y | x^2, y^3)$ .

Corollary 7.50.1.  $PSL_2(\mathbb{Z})$  is the coproduct of  $C_2$  and  $C_3$  in Grp.

**Theorem 7.51.** Every group homomorphism  $\phi: G \to H$  may be decomposed

$$G \longrightarrow G/\ker \phi \stackrel{\cong}{\longrightarrow} \operatorname{im} \phi \longrightarrow H$$

Proof: Easy.

Corollary 7.51.1 (First Isomorphism Theorem). Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a surjective group homomorphism. Then  $H \cong G/\ker \phi$ .

**Proposition 7.52.** Let  $H_1$  be a normal subgroup of  $G_1$  and  $H_2$  a normal subgroup of  $G_2$ . Then  $H_1 \times H_2$  is a normal subgroup of  $G_1 \times G_2$ , and

$$\frac{G_1 \times G_2}{H_1 \times H_2} \cong \frac{G_1}{H_1} \times \frac{G_2}{H_2} \ .$$

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PROOF:  $\pi \times \pi : G_1 \times G_2 \twoheadrightarrow G_1/H_1 \times G_2/H_2$  is a surjective homomorphism with kernel  $H_1 \times H_2$ .  $\square$ 

#### Example 7.53.

$$\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z} \cong S^1$$

PROOF: Map a real number r to  $(\cos r, \sin r)$ . The result is a surjective group homomorphism with kernel  $\mathbb{Z}$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.54.** Let H be a normal subgroup of a group G. For every subgroup K of G that includes H, we have H is a normal subgroup of K, and K/H is a subgroup of G/H. The mapping

 $u: \{subgroups \ of \ G \ including \ H\} \rightarrow \{subgroups \ of \ G/H\}$ 

with u(K) = K/H is a poset isomorphism.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If K is a subgroup of G that includes H then H is normal in K.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If K is a subgroup of G that includes H then K/H is a subgroup of G/H.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . If  $H \subseteq K_1 \subseteq K_2$  then  $K_1/H \subseteq K_2/H$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . If  $K_1/H = K_2/H$  then  $K_1 = K_2$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $K_1/H = K_2/H$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $K_1 \subseteq K_2$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $k \in K_1$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ kH \in K_2/H$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $k' \in K_2$  such that kH = k'H
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ kk'^{-1} \in H$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 5. kk'^{-1} \in K_2$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 6. \ k \in K_2$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ K_2 \subseteq K_1$

PROOF: Similar.

- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. For any subgroup L of G/H, there exists a subgroup K of G that includes H such that L = K/H.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: L be a subgroup of G/H.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $K = \{k \in G : kH \in L\}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . K is a subgroup of G.

PROOF: Given  $k, k' \in K$  we have  $kH, k'H \in L$  hence  $kk'^{-1}H \in L$  and so  $kk'^{-1} \in K$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $H \subseteq K$ 

PROOF: For all  $h \in H$  we have  $hH = H \in L$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . L = K/H

PROOF: By definition.

**Proposition 7.55** (Third Isomorphism Theorem). Let H be a normal subgroup of a group G. Let N be a subgroup of G that includes H. Then N/H is normal

in G/H if and only if N is normal in G, in which case

$$\frac{G/H}{N/H}\cong \frac{G}{N}$$

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If N/H is normal in G/H then N is normal in G.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: N/H is normal in G/H.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $g \in G$  and  $n \in N$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ gng^{-1}H \in N/H$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Pick  $n' \in N$  such that  $gng^{-1}H = n'H$

  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5.  $gng^{-1}n'^{-1} \in H$  $\langle 2 \rangle$ 6.  $gng^{-1}n'^{-1} \in N$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ gng^{-1} \in N$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If N is normal in G then N/H is normal in G/H and  $(G/H)/(N/H) \cong$ G/N.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: N is normal in G.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\phi: G/H \to G/N$  be the homomorphism  $\phi(gH) = gN$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . If gH = g'H then gN = g'N

PROOF: If  $gg'^{-1} \in H$  then  $gg'^{-1} \in N$ .

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ \phi((gH)(g'H)) = \phi(gH)\phi(g'H)$ 

PROOF: Both are gg'N.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $\phi$  is surjective.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . ker  $\phi = N/H$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5. (G/H)/(N/H) \cong G/N$

PROOF: By the First Isomorphism Theorem.

**Proposition 7.56** (Second Isomorphism Theorem). Let H and K be subgroups of a group G. Assume that H is normal in G. Then:

- 1. HK is a subgroup of G, and H is normal in HK.
- 2.  $H \cap K$  is normal in K, and

$$\frac{HK}{H} \cong \frac{K}{H \cap K} \ .$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . HK is a subgroup of G.

PROOF: Since  $hkh'k' = hh'(h'^{-1}kh')k' \in HK$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . H is normal in HK.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $H \cap K$  is normal in K and  $HK/H \cong K/(H \cap K)$

PROOF: The function that maps k to kH is a surjective homomorphism K oHK/H with kernel  $H \cap K$ . Surjectivity follows because  $hkH = hkh^{-1}H$ . 

See also Proposition 7.71 for a result that holds even if H is not normal.

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### 7.8 Cosets

**Proposition 7.57.** Let G be a group. Let  $\sim$  be an equivalence relation on G such that, for all  $a, b, g \in G$ , if  $a \sim b$  then  $ga \sim gb$ . Let  $H = \{h \in G : h \sim e\}$ . Then H is a subgroup of G and, for all  $a, b \in G$ , we have

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

```
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ e \in H
\langle 1 \rangle 2. For all x, y \in H we have xy^{-1} \in H.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: x \sim e and y \sim e.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. e \sim y^{-1}
       PROOF: Since yy^{-1} \sim ey^{-1}.
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. xy^{-1} \sim e
       PROOF: Since xy^{-1} \sim ey^{-1} \sim e.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. If a \sim b then a^{-1}b \in H.
   PROOF: If a \sim b then a^{-1}b \sim a^{-1}a = e.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. If a^{-1}b \in H then aH = bH.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: a^{-1}b \in H
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. bH \subseteq aH
       PROOF: For any h \in H we have bh = aa^{-1}bh \in aH.
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. aH \subseteq bH
       PROOF: Similar since b^{-1}a \in H.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. If aH = bH then a \sim b.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: aH = bH
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Pick h \in H such that a = bh.
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ b^{-1}a = h
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ b^{-1}a \in H
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ b^{-1}a \sim e
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. a \sim b
       PROOF: a = bb^{-1}a \sim be = b.
```

**Definition 7.58** (Coset). Let G be a group and H a subgroup of G. A *left coset* of H is a set of the form aH for  $a \in G$ . A *right coset* of H is a set of the form Ha for some  $a \in G$ .

We write G/H for the set of all left cosets of H, and  $G\backslash H$  for the set of all right cosets of H.

#### Proposition 7.59.

$$G/H \cong G \backslash H$$

PROOF: The function that maps aH to  $Ha^{-1}$  is a bijection.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.60.** Let G be a group and H a subgroup of G. Define  $\sim_H$  on G by:  $a \sim b$  iff  $a^{-1}b \in H$ . This defines a one-to-one correspondence between the subgroups of G and the equivalence relations  $\sim$  on G such that, for all  $a,b,g \in G$ , if  $a \sim b$ , then  $ga \sim gb$ . The equivalence class of a is aH.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For any subgroup H, we have  $\sim_H$  is an equivalence relation on G.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ .  $\sim$  is reflexive.

PROOF: For any  $a \in G$  we have  $a^{-1}a = e \in H$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $\sim$  is symmetric.

PROOF: If  $a^{-1}b \in H$  then  $b^{-1}a \in H$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $\sim$  is transitive.

PROOF: If  $a^{-1}b \in H$  and  $b^{-1}c \in H$  then  $a^{-1}c = (a^{-1}b)(b^{-1}c) \in H$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If  $a \sim_H b$  then  $ga \sim_H gb$ .

PROOF: If  $a^{-1}b \in H$  then  $(ga)^{-1}(gb) = a^{-1}g^{-1}gb = a^{-1}b \in H$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For any equivalence relation  $\sim$  on G such that, whenever  $a \sim b$ , then  $ga \sim gb$ , there exists a subgroup H such that  $\sim = \sim_H$ .

Proof: Proposition 7.57.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . The  $\sim_H$ -equivalence class of a is aH.

Proof:

$$a \sim b \Leftrightarrow a^{-1}b \in H$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \exists h \in H.a^{-1}b = h$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \exists h \in H.b = aH$$
$$\Leftrightarrow b \in aH$$

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**Proposition 7.61.** Let G be a group and H a subgroup of G. Define  $\sim_H$  on G by:  $a \sim b$  iff  $ab^{-1} \in H$ . This defines a one-to-one correspondence between the subgroups of G and the equivalence relations  $\sim$  on G such that, for all  $a,b,g \in G$ , if  $a \sim b$ , then  $ag \sim bg$ . The equivalence class of a is Ha.

Proof: Similar.

**Proposition 7.62.** Let G be a group and H be a subgroup of G. Define  $\sim_L$  and  $\sim_R$  on G by:

$$a \sim_L b \Leftrightarrow a^{-1}b \in H, \qquad a \sim_R b \Leftrightarrow ab^{-1} \in H.$$

Then  $\sim_L = \sim_R$  if and only if H is normal.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If  $\sim_L = \sim_R$  then H is normal.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $\sim_L = \sim_R$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $h \in H$  and  $g \in G$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3.$   $g \sim_L gh^{-1}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ g \sim_R gh^{-1}h$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ ghg^{-1} \in H$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If H is normal then  $\sim_L = \sim_R$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: *H* is normal.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . If  $a \sim_L b$  then  $a \sim_R b$ .
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $a \sim_L b$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ a^{-1}b \in H$

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- $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ .  $aa^{-1}ba^{-1} \in H$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ ba^{-1} \in H$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ .  $a \sim_R b$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . If  $a \sim_R b$  then  $a \sim_L b$ .

PROOF: Similar.

**Corollary 7.62.1.** Let G be a group and H be a normal subgroup of G. Define  $\sim$  on G by  $a \sim b$  iff  $a^{-1}b \in H$ . Then  $G/\sim$  is a group under [a][b]=[ab].

**Definition 7.63** (Quotient Group). Let G be a group and H be a normal subgroup of G. The quotient group G/H is  $G/\sim$  where  $a\sim b$  iff  $a^{-1}b\in H$ , under [a][b]=[ab] or (aH)(bH)=abH.

**Corollary 7.63.1.** Let H be a normal subgroup of a group G. For every group homomorphism  $\phi: G \to G'$  such that  $H \subseteq \ker \phi$ , there exists a unique group homomorphism  $\overline{\phi}: G/H \to G'$  such that the following diagram commutes.



**Proposition 7.64.**  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  has exactly n elements.

PROOF: Every integer is congruent to one of  $0, 1, \ldots, n-1$  by the division algorithm, and no two of them are conguent to one another, since if  $0 \le i < j < n$  then 0 < j - i < n.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.65.** Let m and n be integers with n > 0. The order of m in  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  is  $\frac{n}{\gcd(m,n)}$ .

PROOF: By Proposition 6.16 since the order of 1 is n.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.66.** The integer m generates  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  if and only if gcd(m,n)=1.

PROOF: By Proposition 7.65.

**Corollary 7.66.1.** If p is prime then every non-zero element in  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  is a generator.

Proposition 7.67.

$$\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbf{Grp}}(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}\times\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})\cong S_3$$

PROOF: Every permutation of  $\{(1,0),(0,1),(1,1)\}$  gives an automorphism of  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}\times\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ .  $\square$ 

Example 7.68. Not all monomorphisms split in Grp.

Define  $\phi: \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} \to S_3$  by

$$\phi(0) = id_3, \qquad \phi(1) = (1 \ 3 \ 2), \qquad \phi(2) = (1 \ 2 \ 3) \ .$$

Then  $\phi$  is monic but has no retraction.

For if  $r: S_3 \to \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$  is a retraction, then we would have

$$r(1\ 2) + r(2\ 3) = 1,$$
  $r(2\ 3) + r(1\ 2) = 2$ 

which is impossible.

**Proposition 7.69.** Let G be a group, H a subgroup of G, and  $g \in G$ . The function that maps h to gh is a bijection  $H \cong gH$ .

Proof: By Cancellation.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.70.** Let G be a group, H a subgroup of G, and  $g \in G$ . The function that maps h to hg is a bijection  $H \cong Hg$ .

PROOF: By Cancellation.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.71.** Let H and K be finite subgroups of a group G. Then

$$|HK| = \frac{|H||K|}{|H \cap K|} .$$

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $f : \{ hK : h \in H \} \to H/(H \cap K)$  be the function  $f(hK) = h(H \cap K)$ Proof: This is well-defined because if hK = h'K then  $h^{-1}h' \in H \cap K$  so  $h(H \cap K) = h'(H \cap K)$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . f is injective.

PROOF: If  $h(H \cap K) = h'(H \cap K)$  then hK = h'K.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . f is surjective.

PROOF: Clear.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .

$$\frac{|HK|}{|K|} = \frac{|H|}{|H \cap K|}$$

# 7.9 Congruence

**Definition 7.72** (Congruence). Given integers a, b, n with n positive, we say a is congruent to b modulo n, and write  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ , iff  $a + n\mathbb{Z} = b + n\mathbb{Z}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Proposition 7.73.** Given integers a, b, n with n positive, we have  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  iff  $n \mid a - b$ .

Proof: By Proposition 7.57.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.74.** *If*  $a \equiv a' \mod n$  *and*  $b \equiv b' \mod n$  *then*  $a + b \equiv a' + b' \mod n$ .

PROOF: If  $n \mid a' - a$  and  $n \mid b' - b$  then  $n \mid (a' + b') - (a + b)$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.75.** If  $a \equiv a' \mod n$  and  $b \equiv b' \mod n$  then  $ab \equiv a'b' \mod n$ .

PROOF: If  $n \mid a' - a$  and  $n \mid b' - b$  then  $n \mid a'b' - ab = a'(b' - b) + (a' - a)b$ .  $\square$ 

## 7.10 Cyclic Groups

**Definition 7.76** (Cyclic Group). The *cyclic* groups are  $\mathbb{Z}$  and  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  for positive integers n.

**Proposition 7.77.** If m and n are positive integers with gcd(m, n) = 1 then  $C_{mn} \cong C_m \times C_n$ .

PROOF: The function that maps x to  $(x \mod m, x \mod n)$  is an isomorphism.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.78.** Let G be a group and  $g \in G$ . Then  $\langle g \rangle$  is cyclic.

PROOF: If g has finite order then  $\langle g \rangle \cong C_{|g|}$ , otherwise  $\langle g \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.79.** Every finitely generated subgroup of  $\mathbb{Q}$  is cyclic.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $G = \langle a_1/b, \ldots, a_n/b \rangle$  where  $a_1, \ldots, a_n, b$  are integers with b > 0  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $a = \gcd(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ G = \langle a/b \rangle$ 

Corollary 7.79.1.  $\mathbb{Q}$  is not finitely generated.

## 7.11 Commutator Subgroup

**Definition 7.80** (Commutator). Let G be a group and  $g, h \in G$ . The *commutator* of g and h is

$$[g,h] = ghg^{-1}h^{-1}$$
.

**Definition 7.81** (Commutator Subgroup). Let G be a group. The *commutator subgroup*, denoted [G, G] or G', is the subgroup generated by the elements of the form  $aba^{-1}b^{-1}$ .

We write  $G^{(i)}$  for the result of taking the commutator subgroup i times starting with G.

**Lemma 7.82.** Let  $\phi: G_1 \to G_2$  be a group homomorphism. Then, for all  $g, h \in G_1$ , we have

$$\phi([g,h]) = [\phi(g), \phi(h)]$$

and so  $\phi(G_1) \subseteq G_2'$ .

Proof: Easy.

## 7.12 Presentations

**Definition 7.83** (Presentation). A presentation of a group G is a pair (A, R) where A is a set and  $R \subseteq F(A)$  is a set of words such that

$$G \cong F(A)/N(R)$$

where N(R) is the smallest normal subgroup of F(A) that includes R.

**Example 7.84.** • The free group on a set A is presented by  $(A, \emptyset)$ .

- $S_3$  is presented by  $(x, y|x^2, y^3, xyxy)$ .
- $(a, b \mid a^2, b^2, (ab)^n)$  is a presentation of  $D_{2n}$ .
- $(x,y \mid x^2y^{-2}, y^4, xyx^{-1}y)$  is a presentation of  $Q_8$ .

**Proposition 7.85** (Word Problem). Let (A, R) be a presentation of the group G. Let  $w_1, w_2 \in F(A)$  be two words. Then it is undecidable in general if  $w_1N(R) = w_2N(R)$  in G.

**Definition 7.86** (Finitely Presented). A group is *finitely presented* iff it has a presentation (A, R) where both A and R are finite.

**Proposition 7.87.** Let (A|R) be a presentation of G and (A'|R') a presentation of H. Assume w.l.o.g. A and A' are disjoint. Then the group G\*G' presented by  $(A \cup A'|R \cup R')$  is the coproduct of G and G' in  $\mathbf{Grp}$ .



Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\kappa_1 : G \to G * G'$  and  $\kappa_2 : G' \to G * G'$  be the unique homomorphisms that make the diagram above commute.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\phi: G \to H$  and  $\psi: G' \to H$  be any homomorphisms.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $[\phi, \psi]: F(A \cup A') \to H$  be the unique homomorphism such that ...
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ R \cup R' \subseteq \ker[\phi, \psi]$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5.  $[\phi, \psi]$  factors uniquely through the morphism  $F(A \cup A') \to G * G'$

# 7.13 Index of a Subgroup

**Definition 7.88** (Index). Let G be a group and H a subgroup of G. The *index* of H in G, denoted |G:H|, is the number of left cosets of H in G if this is finite, otherwise  $\infty$ .

**Theorem 7.89** (Lagrange's Theorem). Let G be a finite group and H a subgroup of G. Then

$$|G| = |G:H||H|.$$

PROOF: G/H is a partition of G into |G:H| subsets, each of size |H|.  $\square$ 

Corollary 7.89.1. For p a prime number, the only group of order p is  $C_p$ .

PROOF: Let G be a group of order p and  $g \in G$  with  $g \neq e$ . Then  $|\langle g \rangle|$  divides p and is not 1, hence is p, that is,  $G = \langle g \rangle$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 7.90** (Cauchy's Theorem). Let G be a finite group. If p is prime and  $p \mid |G|$  then the number of cyclic subgroups of order p is congruent to 1 modulo p. In particular, there exists an element of order p.

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: S = \{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_p) \in G^p : a_1 a_2 \cdots a_p = e\}
\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ |S| = |G|^{p-1}
   PROOF: Given any a_1, \ldots, a_{p-1} \in G, there exists a unique a_p such that
   (a_1, \ldots, a_p) \in S, namely a_p = (a_1 \cdots a_{p-1})^{-1}.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. p \mid |S|
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Define an action of \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} on S by
                      m \cdot (a_1, \ldots, a_p) = (a_m, a_{m+1}, \ldots, a_p, a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{m-1}).
   PROOF: If (a_1, ..., a_p) \in S then (a_2, a_3, ..., a_p, a_1) \in S since a_1 = (a_2 ... a_p)^{-1}.
\langle 1 \rangle5. Let: Z be the set of fixed points of this action.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. |Z| \equiv 0 \pmod{p}
   Proof: Corollary 9.18.1, \langle 1 \rangle 3.
\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ Z = \{(a, a, \dots, a) : a^p = e\}
\langle 1 \rangle 8. \ Z \neq \emptyset
   PROOF: Since (e, e, \dots, e) \in Z.
\langle 1 \rangle 9. An element a has order p iff (a, a, \ldots, a) \in Z and a \neq e.
\langle 1 \rangle 10. Let: N be the number of cyclic subgroups of order p.
\langle 1 \rangle 11. The number of elements of order p is N(p-1)
\langle 1 \rangle 12. \ |Z| = N(p-1) + 1
\langle 1 \rangle 13. -N+1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}
   Proof: From \langle 1 \rangle 6.
\langle 1 \rangle 14. N \equiv 1 \pmod{p}
```

**Proposition 7.91.** Let G be a group. Let K be a subgroup of G and H a subgroup of K. If |G:H|, |G:K| and |K:H| are all finite then

$$|G:H| = |G:K||K:H|$$
.

```
Proof:
```

```
(1)1. Let: G/K = \{g_1K, g_2K, \dots, g_mK\}

(1)2. Let: K/H = \{k_1H, k_2H, \dots, k_nH\}

(1)3. G/H = \{g_ik_jH : 1 \le i \le m, 1 \le j \le n\}

(2)1. Let: g \in G

(2)2. Pick i such that gK = g_iK

(2)3. g^{-1}g_i \in K

(2)4. Pick j such that g^{-1}g_iH = k_jH

(2)5. g^{-1}g_ik_j \in H

(2)6. gH = g_ik_jH

(1)4. If g_ik_jH = g_{i'}k_{j'}H then i = i' and j = j'.
```

```
\langle 2 \rangle1. Assume: g_i k_j H = g_{i'} k_{j'} H

\langle 2 \rangle2. g_i K = g_{i'} K

\langle 2 \rangle3. i = i'

\langle 2 \rangle4. k_j H = k_{j'} H

\langle 2 \rangle5. j = j'
```

## 7.14 Cokernels

**Proposition 7.92.** Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a homomorphism between groups. Then there exists a group K and homomorphism  $\pi: H \to K$  that is initial with respect to all homomorphism  $\alpha: H \to L$  such that  $\alpha \circ \phi = 0$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$  Let: N be the intersection of all the normal subgroups of H that include im  $\phi.$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let: K = H/N and  $\pi$  be the canonical homomorphism.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\pi \circ \phi = 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $\alpha: H \to L$  satisfy  $\alpha \circ \phi = 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . im  $\phi \subseteq \ker \alpha$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ N \subseteq \ker \alpha$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . There exists a unique  $\overline{\alpha}: H/\operatorname{im} \phi \to L$  such that  $\overline{\alpha} \circ \pi = \alpha$

**Definition 7.93** (Cokernel). For any homomorphism  $\phi: G \to H$  in **Grp**, the *cokernel* of  $\phi$  is the group coker  $\phi$  and homomorphism  $\pi: H \to \operatorname{coker} \phi$  that is initial among homomorphisms  $\alpha: H \to L$  such that  $\alpha \circ \phi = 0$ .

**Example 7.94.** It is not true that a homomorphism with trivial cokernel is epi. The inclusion  $\langle (1\ 2) \rangle \hookrightarrow S_3$  has trivial cokernel but is not epi.

# 7.15 Cayley Graphs

**Definition 7.95** (Cayley Graph). Let G be a finitely generated group. Let A be a finite set of generators for G. The Cayley graph of G with respect to A is the directed graph whose vertices are the elements of G, with an edge  $g_1 \to g_2$  labelled by  $a \in A$  iff  $g_2 = g_1 a$ .

**Proposition 7.96.** G is the free group on A iff the Cayley graph with respect to A is a tree.

PROOF: Both are equivalent to saying that the product of two different strings of elements of A and/or their inverses are not equal.  $\square$ 

## 7.16 Characteristic Subgroups

**Definition 7.97** (Characteristic Subgroup). Let G be a group. Let H be a subgroup of G. Then H is a *characteristic* subgroup of G iff, for every automorphism  $\phi$  of G, we have  $\phi(H) \subseteq H$ .

Proposition 7.98. Characteristic subgroups are normal.

PROOF: Take  $\phi$  to be conjugation with respect to an arbitrary element.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.99.** Let G be a group. Let K be a normal subgroup of G and H a characteristic subgroup of K. Then H is normal in G.

PROOF: For any  $a \in G$  we have conjugation by a is an automorphism on K, hence H is closed under it.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.100.** Let G be a group. Let H be a subgroup of G. Suppose there is no other subgroup of G isomorphic to H. Then H is characteristic, hence normal.

PROOF: For any automorphism  $\phi$  on G, we have  $\phi(H)$  is isomorphic to H, hence  $\phi(H) = H$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.101.** Let G be a finite group. Let K be a normal subgroup of G. Assume |K| and |G/K| are relatively prime. Then K is characteristic.

PROOF:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: K' be a subgroup of G isomorphic to K. Prove: K' = K  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $|K'/(K \cap K')|$  divides both |K'| = |K| and |G/K|  $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $|K'/(K \cap K')| = 1$   $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $K' = K \cap K'$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ K' = K$ 

**Proposition 7.102.** The commutator subgroup of a group is characteristic.

Proof: Lemma 7.82.

# 7.17 Simple Groups

**Definition 7.103** (Simple Group). A group G is *simple* iff its only normal subgroups are  $\{e\}$  and G.

**Proposition 7.104.** Let G be a group. Then G is simple if and only if the only homomorphic images of G are 1 and G.

PROOF: Both are equivalent to saying that, for any surjective homomorphism  $\phi: G \to G'$ , either  $\phi$  has kernel  $\{e\}$  (in which case it is an isomorphism) or  $\phi$  has kernel G (in which case G' = 1.)  $\square$ 

## 7.18 Sylow Subgroups

**Definition 7.105** (Sylow Subgroup). Let p be a prime number. Let G be a finite group. A p-Sylow subgroup of G is a subgroup of order  $p^r$ , where r is the largest integer such that  $p^r$  divides |G|.

**Proposition 7.106.** Let p be prime. Let G be a finite group. Let P be a p-Sylow subgroup of G. If P is normal then P is characteristic.

Proof: Proposition 7.101.  $\square$ 

**Corollary 7.106.1.** Let p be prime. Let G be a finite group. Let P be a p-Sylow subgroup of G. Let H be a subgroup of G that includes P. If P is normal in H and H is normal in G then P is normal in G.

## 7.19 Series of Subgroups

**Definition 7.107** (Series of Subgroups). Let G be a group. A *series* of subgroups of G is a sequence  $(G_n)$  of subgroups of G such that

$$G = G_0 \supseteq G_1 \supseteq G_2 \supseteq \cdots$$

It is a *normal* series iff  $G_{n+1}$  is normal in  $G_n$  for all n.

**Proposition 7.108.** The maximal length of a normal series in G is 0 iff G is trivial.

PROOF: Since 1 is normal in G for every G.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 7.109.** The maximal length of a normal series in G is 1 iff G is non-trivial and simple.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

**Example 7.110.**  $\mathbb{Z}$  has normal series of arbitrary length.

PROOF: We have  $\mathbb{Z} \supseteq 2\mathbb{Z} \supseteq 4\mathbb{Z} \supseteq \cdots$ .

**Example 7.111.** The maximal length of a normal series in  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  is the number of primes in the prime factorization of n.

PROOF: Let  $n = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_k$ . A normal series of maximal length is  $\mathbb{Z}/p_1 p_2 \cdots p_k \mathbb{Z} \supsetneq \mathbb{Z}/p_1 p_2 \cdots p_{k-1} \mathbb{Z} \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq \mathbb{Z}/p_1 \mathbb{Z} \supsetneq \{e\}$ .

**Definition 7.112** (Equivalent Normal Series). Let

$$G = G_0 \supsetneq G_1 \supsetneq G_2 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq G_n = \{e\}$$

$$G = G'_0 \supsetneq G'_1 \supsetneq G'_2 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq G'_m = \{e\}$$

be two normal series in a group G. Then the two series are *equivalent* iff m=n and there exists a permutation  $\sigma \in S_n$  such that, for all i, we have  $G_i/G_{i+1} \cong G'_{\sigma(i)}/G'_{\sigma(i)+1}$ .

**Definition 7.113** (Composition Series). Let G be a group. A *composition series* for G is a series of subgroups in G

$$G = G_0 \supsetneq G_1 \supsetneq G_2 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq G_n = \{e\}$$

such that, for all i, we have  $G_i/G_{i+1}$  is simple.

**Proposition 7.114.** A normal series of maximal length in a group is a composition series.

Proof: Easy.

Corollary 7.114.1. Every finite group has a composition series.

Corollary 7.114.2. If a group has a composition series then every normal subgroup has a composition series.

**Definition 7.115** (Refinement). A series of subgroups  $S_1$  is a *refinement* of the series  $S_2$  iff every subgroup in  $S_2$  appears in  $S_1$ .

**Lemma 7.116.** Let G be a group. Let Q, N and L be subgroups of G. Assume L is a normal subgroup of Q and qN = Nq for all  $q \in Q$ . Then

$$\frac{QN}{LN} \cong \frac{Q}{L(Q \cap N)} \ .$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . QN is a subgroup of G.

PROOF: Since QN = NQ.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . LN is a subgroup of G.

PROOF: Since LN = NL.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . LN is normal in QN.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Let:  $l \in L$ ,  $q \in Q$ , and  $n, n' \in N$ . Prove:  $qnln'n^{-1}q^{-1} \in LN$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $n_1 \in N$  such that  $nl = ln_1$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . PICK  $n_2 \in N$  such that  $n_1 n' n^{-1} q^{-1} = q^{-1} n_2$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ qnln'n^{-1}q^{-1} = qlq^{-1}n_2 \in LN$

PROOF: Since L is normal in Q.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4.$  The function  $f:Q \to QN/LN$  that maps q to qLN is a surjective homomorphism.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . ker  $f = L(Q \cap N)$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . ker  $f \subseteq L(Q \cap N)$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in \ker f$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ x \in LN$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $l \in L$  and  $n \in N$  such that x = ln
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ .  $n = l^{-1}x \in Q \cap N$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 5. \ x \in L(Q \cap N)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $L(Q \cap N) \subseteq \ker f$

PROOF: Since  $L(Q \cap N) \subseteq Q$  and  $L(Q \cap N) \subseteq LN$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Q.E.D.

 ${\bf PROOF: \ First \ Isomorphism \ Theorem.}$ 

L

**Theorem 7.117** (Schreier). Any two normal series in a group have equivalent refinements.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: G be a group.

(1)2. Let:  $S_1: G = G_0 \supseteq G_1 \supseteq G_2 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq G_m = \{e\}$  and  $S_2: G = H_0 \supseteq H_1 \supseteq H_2 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq H_n = \{e\}$  be two normal series in G.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For each i, we have

$$G_i = G_i \cap H_0 \supseteq G_i \cap H_1 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq G_i \cap H_n = \{e\}$$

is a series of subgroups in  $G_i$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For each *i*, we have

$$G_i = (G_i \cap H_0)G_{i+1} \supseteq (G_i \cap H_1)G_{i+1} \supseteq \cdots \supseteq (G_i \cap H_n)G_{i+1} = G_{i+1}$$
 is a normal series in  $G_i$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $0 \le i < m$  and  $0 \le j < n$ 

PROVE:  $(G_i \cap H_{j+1})G_{i+1}$  is normal in  $(G_i \cap H_j)G_{i+1}$ 

(2)2. Let:  $x \in G_i \cap H_{j+1}, y \in G_{i+1}, a \in G_i \cap H_j \text{ and } b \in G_{i+1}$ Prove:  $abxyb^{-1}a^{-1} \in (G_i \cap H_{j+1})G_{i+1}$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $axa^{-1} \in G_i \cap H_{j+1}$ 

PROOF: Since  $a, x \in G_i$  and  $H_{j+1}$  is normal in  $H_j$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $ax^{-1}bxa^{-1} \in G_{i+1}$ 

PROOF: Since  $G_{i+1}$  is normal in  $G_i$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ yb^{-1} \in G_{i+1}$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ ayb^{-1}a^{-1} \in G_{i+1}$ 

PROOF: Since  $G_{i+1}$  is normal in  $G_i$ .

$$\langle 2 \rangle 7$$
.  $abxyb^{-1}a^{-1} = (axa^{-1})(ax^{-1}bxa^{-1}ayb^{-1}a^{-1}) \in (G_i \cap H_{i+1})G_{i+1}$ 

- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Let S be the series obtained by concatenating the series  $\langle 1 \rangle$ 4 for  $G_0$  to  $G_1, G_1$  to  $G_2, \ldots, G_{m-1}$  to  $G_m$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . S is a refinement of  $S_1$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . S is normal.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . Let: T be the similarly constructed normal refinement of  $S_2$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 9$ . For all i, j we have

$$\frac{(G_i\cap H_j)G_{i+1}}{(G_i\cap H_{j+1})G_{i+1}}\cong \frac{G_i\cap H_j}{(G_i\cap H_{j+1})(G_{i+1}\cap H_j)}$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ .  $G_i \cap H_{j+1}$  is normal in  $G_i \cap H_j$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For all  $q \in G_i \cap H_j$  we have  $qG_{i+1} = G_{i+1}q$ 

PROOF: Since for all  $q \in G_i$  we have  $qG_{i+1} = G_{i+1}q$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Q.E.D.

Proof: Lemma 7.116

 $\langle 1 \rangle 10$ . For all i, j we have

$$\frac{(G_i\cap H_j)H_{j+1}}{(G_{i+1}\cap H_j)H_{j+1}}\cong \frac{G_i\cap H_j}{(G_{i+1}\cap H_j)(G_i\cap H_{j+1})}$$

Proof: Lemma 7.116

 $\langle 1 \rangle 11$ . For all i, j we have

$$\begin{array}{c} \langle 1 \rangle 11. \text{ For all } i, \ j \text{ we have} \\ \frac{(G_i \cap H_j)G_{i+1}}{(G_i \cap H_{j+1})G_{i+1}} \cong \frac{(G_i \cap H_j)H_{j+1}}{(G_{i+1} \cap H_j)H_{j+1}} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 12. \ S \text{ and } T \text{ are equivalent.} \end{array}$$

Corollary 7.117.1 (Jordan-Hölder). Any two composition series for a group are equivalent.

**Definition 7.118** (Composition Factors). Let G be a group that has a composition series. The multiset of composition factors of G is the multiset of quotients of any composition series.

Example 7.119. Non-isomorphic groups can have the same composition factors. For example,  $C_2 \times C_2$  and  $C_4$  both have composition factors  $\{|C_2, C_2|\}$ .

**Proposition 7.120.** Let G be a group. Let N be a normal subgroup of G. Then G has a composition series if and only if N and G/N both have composition series, in which case the composition factors of G are the union of the composition factors of N and the composition factors of G/N.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If G has a composition series then N and G/N have composition series.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $G = G_0 \supseteq G_1 \supseteq G_2 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq G_n = \{e\}$  be a composition series for G.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . N has a composition series.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . For all i, we have  $\frac{G_i \cap N}{G_{i+1} \cap N}$  is either trivial or isomorphic to  $G_i/G_{i+1}$ .
      - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$ . The homomorphism  $G_i \cap N \hookrightarrow G_i \twoheadrightarrow G_i/G_{i+1}$  has kernel  $G_{i+1} \cap N$ .
      - $\langle 4 \rangle 2$ . There is an injective homomorphism  $(G_i \cap N)/(G_{i+1} \cap N) \to G_i/G_{i+1}$ . Proof: First Isomorphism Theorem.
      - $\langle 4 \rangle 3$ .  $(G_i \cap N)/(G_{i+1} \cap N)$  is either trivial or isomorphic to  $G_i/G_{i+1}$ . PROOF: Since  $G_i/G_{i+1}$  is simple.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Eliminating all duplicates from the series  $N = G_0 \cap N \supseteq G_1 \cap N \supseteq$  $G_2 \cap N \supseteq \cdots \supseteq G_n \cap N = \{e\}$  gives a composition series for N.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . G/N has a composition series.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . For all i we have  $\frac{(G_i N)/N}{(G_{i+1} N)/N}$  is either trivial or isomorphic to  $G_i/G_{i+1}$ .

      - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $0 \le i < n$   $\langle 4 \rangle 2$ .  $\frac{(G_i N)/N}{(G_{i+1} N)N} \cong G_i N/G_{i+1} N$

PROOF: Third Isomorphism Theorem.

$$\frac{G_i}{G_{i+1}} \twoheadrightarrow \frac{G_i N}{G_{i+1} N}$$

- $\langle 4 \rangle 3. \text{ There exists a surjective homomorphism} \\ \frac{G_i}{G_{i+1}} \twoheadrightarrow \frac{G_i N}{G_{i+1} N} \ .$   $\langle 5 \rangle 1. \text{ Let: } f \text{ be the homomorphism } G_i \hookrightarrow G_i N \twoheadrightarrow G_i N/G_{i+1} N$ 
  - $\langle 5 \rangle 2$ . f is surjective.
  - $\langle 5 \rangle 3. \ f(G_{i+1}) = \{e\}$
  - $\langle 5 \rangle 4$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: By the universal property of quotient groups.

- $\langle 4 \rangle 4$ .  $G_i N/G_{i+1} N$  is either trivial or isomorphic to  $G_i/G_{i+1}$ . PROOF: Proposition 7.104.
- $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Eliminating all duplicates from the series  $G/N = G_0 N/N \supseteq G_1 N/N \supseteq G_2 N/N \supseteq \cdots \supseteq G_n N/N = \{e\}$  gives a composition series for G/N.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If N and G/N have composition series, then G has a composition series, and the composition factors of G are the union of the composition factors of N and the composition factors of G/N.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $N = N_0 \supseteq N_1 \supseteq N_2 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq N_n = \{e\}$  be a composition series for N.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $G/N = H_0 \supseteq H_1 \supseteq H_2 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq H_m = \{e\}$  be a composition series for G/N.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3.$   $G = \pi^{-1}(H_0) \supseteq \pi^{-1}(H_1) \supseteq \cdots \pi^{-1}(H_m) = N_0 \supseteq N_1 \supseteq N_2 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq N_n$  is a composition series for G.

**Proposition 7.121.** Let  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  be groups. Then  $G_1 \times G_2$  has a composition series if and only if  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  both have composition series.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If  $G_1 \times G_2$  has a composition series then  $G_1$  has a composition series.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $G_1 \times G_2 = A_0 \supsetneq A_1 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq A_n = \{e\}$  be a composition series.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For each i, we have  $\pi_1(A_i)/\pi_1(A_{i+1})$  is either isomorphic to  $A_i/A_{i+1}$  or trivial.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. Eliminating duplicates from  $G_1 = \pi_1(A_0) \supseteq \pi_1(A_1) \supseteq \cdots \supseteq \pi_1(A_n) = \{e\}$  gives a composition series for  $G_1$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. If  $G_1 \times G_2$  has a composition series then  $G_2$  has a composition series. PROOF: Similar.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . If  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  have composition series then  $G_1 \times G_2$  has a composition series.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $G_1 = H_0 \supseteq H_1 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq H_m = \{e\}$  be a composition series for  $G_1$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $G_2 = K_0 \supsetneq K_1 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq K_n = \{e\}$  be a composition series for  $G_2$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3.$   $G_1 \times G_2 = H_0 \times K_0 \supsetneq H_1 \times K_0 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq H_m \times K_0 \supsetneq H_m \times K_1 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq H_m \times K_n = \{e\}$  is a composition series for  $G_1 \times G_2$ .

**Definition 7.122** (Cyclic Series). A normal series of subgroups is *cyclic* iff every quotient is cyclic.

### 7.20 Derived Series

**Definition 7.123** (Derived Series). Let G be a group. The *derived series* of G is the series of subgroups

$$G\supset G'\supset G''\supset G'''\supset\cdots$$

# 7.21 Solvable Groups

**Definition 7.124** (Solvable). A group is solvable iff its derived series terminates in  $\{e\}$ .

Theorem 7.125 (Feit-Thompson). Every finite group of odd order is solvable.

# Chapter 8

# Abelian Groups

**Definition 8.1** (Abelian Group). A group is *Abelian* iff any two elements commute.

In an Abelian group G, we often denote the group operation by +, the identity element by 0 and the inverse of an element g by -g. We write ng for  $g^n$  ( $g \in G$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ).

**Example 8.2.** Every group of order  $\leq 4$  is Abelian.

**Example 8.3.** For any positive integer n, we have  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  is an Abelian group under addition.

**Example 8.4.**  $S_n$  is not Abelian for  $n \geq 3$ . If  $x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$  then  $xy = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $yx = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$ .

Example 8.5. There are 42 Abelian groups of order 1024 up to isomorphism.

**Proposition 8.6.** Let G be a group. If  $g^2 = e$  for all  $g \in G$  then G is Abelian.

PROOF: For any  $g, h \in G$  we have

$$ghgh = e$$

$$\therefore hgh = g \qquad \text{(multiplying on the left by } g\text{)}$$

$$\therefore hg = gh \qquad \text{(multiplying on the right by } h\text{)}\square$$

**Proposition 8.7.** Let G be a group. Then G is Abelian if and only if the function that maps g to  $g^{-1}$  is a group homomorphism.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$  If G is Abelian then the function that maps g to  $g^{-1}$  is a group homomorphism.

PROOF: Since  $(gh)^{-1} = h^{-1}g^{-1} = g^{-1}h^{-1}$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If the function that maps g to  $g^{-1}$  is a group homomorphism then G is Abelian.

PROOF: Since  $gh = (g^{-1})^{-1}(h^{-1})^{-1} = (g^{-1}h^{-1})^{-1} = hg$ .

**Proposition 8.8.** Let G be a group. Then G is Abelian if and only if the function that maps g to  $g^2$  is a group homomorphism.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$  If G is Abelian then the function that maps g to  $g^2$  is a group homomorphism.

PROOF: Since  $(gh)^2 = g^2h^2$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If the function that maps g to  $g^2$  is a group homomorphism then G is Abelian.

Proof: Since we have  $(gh)^2 = ghgh = g^2h^2$  and so hg = gh.

**Proposition 8.9.** Let G be a group. Then G is Abelian if and only if the homomorphism  $\gamma: G \to \operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbf{Grp}}(G)$  is the trivial homomorphism.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If G is Abelian then  $\gamma$  is trivial.

PROOF: Since  $\gamma_q(a) = gag^{-1} = a$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If  $\gamma$  is trivial then G is Abelian.

PROOF: If  $\gamma_g(a) = gag^{-1} = a$  for all g and a then ga = ag for all g, a.

**Proposition 8.10.** Let G be an Abelian group. Let  $g, h \in G$ . If g has maximal finite order in G, and h has finite order, then |h| |g|.

#### PROOF.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $|h| \nmid |g|$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Pick a prime p such that  $|g| = p^m r$ ,  $|h| = p^n s$  where  $p \nmid r$ ,  $p \nmid s$  and m < n.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. |g^{p^m} h^s| = p^n r$

Proof: Proposition 6.19.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. |g| < |g^{p^m} h^s|$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts the maximality of |g|.

**Proposition 8.11.** Given a set A and an Abelian group H, the set  $H^A$  is an Abelian group under

$$(\phi + \psi)(a) = \phi(a) + \psi(a) \qquad (\phi, \psi \in H^A, a \in A) .$$

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \phi + (\psi + \chi) = (\phi + \psi) + \chi$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \phi + \psi = \psi + \phi$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $0: A \to H$  be the function 0(a) = 0.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \phi + 0 = 0 + \phi = \phi$

$$\langle 1 \rangle$$
5. Given  $\phi : A \to H$ , define  $-\phi : A \to H$  by  $(-\phi)(a) = -(\phi(a))$ .  $\langle 1 \rangle$ 6.  $\phi + (-\phi) = (-\phi) + \phi = 0$ 

**Proposition 8.12.** Given a group G and an Abelian group H, the set Grp[G, H]is a subgroup of  $H^G$ .

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Given  $\phi, \psi : G \to H$  group homomorphisms, we have  $\phi - \psi$  is a group homomorphism.

Proof:

$$(\phi - \psi)(g + g') = \phi(g + g') - \psi(g + g')$$

$$= \phi(g) + \phi(g') - \psi(g) - \psi(g')$$

$$= \phi(g) - \psi(g) + \phi(g') - \psi(g')$$

$$= (\phi - \psi)(g) + (\phi - \psi)(g')$$

**Proposition 8.13.** Let G be a group. The following are equivalent.

- 1. Inn(G) is cyclic.
- 2. Inn(G) is trivial.
- 3. G is Abelian.

#### PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 1 \Rightarrow 2$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $Inn(G) = \langle \gamma_g \rangle$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . g commutes with every element of G
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in G$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . PICK  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $\gamma_x = \gamma_g^n \langle 3 \rangle 3$ .  $\forall y \in G.xyx^{-1} = g^nyg^{-n}$

    - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ .  $xgx^{-1} = g$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \gamma_g = \mathrm{id}_G$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $2 \Rightarrow 3$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $\forall g \in G. \gamma_q = \mathrm{id}_G$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x, y \in G$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \gamma_x(y) = y$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $xyx^{-1} = y$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . xy = yx
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 3 \Rightarrow 2$

PROOF: If xy = yx for all x, y then  $\gamma_x(y) = y$  for all x, y.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ 2 \Rightarrow 1$ 

Proof: Easy.

Corollary 8.13.1. If  $Aut_{Grp}(G)$  is cyclic then G is Abelian.

**Proposition 8.14.** Every subgroup of an Abelian group is normal.

PROOF: Let G be an Abelian group and N a subgroup of G. Given  $g \in G$  and  $n \in N$  we have  $gng^{-1} = n \in N$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 8.15.** For any group G, the group G/[G,G] is Abelian.

Proof: For any  $g, h \in G$  we have

$$gh(hg)^{-1} \in [G, G]$$
$$\therefore gh[G, G] = hg[G, G]$$

**Proposition 8.16.** Let G be a finite Abelian group. Let p be a prime divisor of |G|. Then G has an element of order p.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: as induction hypothesis the result holds for all groups smaller than G.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $g \in G \{0\}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . PICK an element  $h \in \langle g \rangle$  with prime order q.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Case: q = p

PROOF: h is the required element.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Case:  $q \neq p$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Pick  $r \in G$  such that  $r + \langle h \rangle$  has order p in  $G/\langle h \rangle$ .

PROOF: By induction hypothesis since  $|G/\langle h \rangle| = |G|/q$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ pr \in \langle h \rangle$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Pick k such that pr = kh
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . pqr = e
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. qr has order p.

Corollary 8.16.1. For n an odd integer, any Abelian group of order 2n has exactly one element of order 2.

PROOF: If x and y are distinct elements of order 2 then  $\langle x,y\rangle=\{e,x,y,xy\}$  has size 4 and so 4 | 2n which is a contradiction.  $\square$ 

**Example 8.17.** It is not true that, if G is a finite group and  $d \mid |G|$ , then G has an element of order d. The quaternionic group has no element of order d.

**Proposition 8.18.** If G is a finite Abelian group and  $d \mid |G|$  then G has a subgroup of size d.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: as induction hypothesis the result is true for all d' < d.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume: w.l.o.g.  $d \neq 1$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . PICK a prime p such that  $p \mid d$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Pick an element  $g \in G$  of order p.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ d/p \mid |G/\langle g \rangle|$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Pick a subgrop H of  $G/\langle g \rangle$  of size d/p.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ .  $\pi^{-1}(H)$  is a subgroup of G of size d.

**Proposition 8.19.** Let  $(G, \cdot)$  be a group. Let  $\circ : G^2 \to G$  be a group homomorphism such that  $(G, \circ)$  is a group. Then  $\circ$  and  $\cdot$  coincide, and G is Abelian.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For all  $g_1, g_2, h_1, h_2 \in G$  we have

$$(g_1g_2)\circ(h_1h_2)=(g_1\circ h_1)(g_2\circ h_2)$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $e \circ e = e$ 

Proof:

$$e \circ e = (ee) \circ (ee)$$
  
=  $(e \circ e)(e \circ e)$ 

Hence  $e \circ e = e$  by Cancellation.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . e is the identity of  $(G, \circ)$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For all  $g, h \in G$  we have

$$g \circ h = gh$$

Proof:

$$g \circ h = (ge) \circ (eh)$$
  
=  $(g \circ e)(e \circ h)$   
=  $ah$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . For all  $g, h \in G$  we have gh = hg.

Proof:

$$gh = (e \circ g)(h \circ e)$$
$$= (eh) \circ (ge)$$
$$= h \circ g$$
$$= hg$$

П

**Corollary 8.19.1.** If  $(G, m : G^2 \to G, e : 1 \to G, i : G \to G)$  is a group object in **Grp** then m is the multiplication of G, e(\*) is the identity of G,  $i(g) = g^{-1}$ , and G is Abelian.

Conversely, if (G, m) is any Abelian group, then (G, m, e, i) is a group object in **Grp** where e(\*) = e and  $i(g) = g^{-1}$ .

**Proposition 8.20.** Let G be a group. If every element of G has order  $\leq 2$  then G is Abelian.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x, y \in G$ 

Prove: xy = yx

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume: w.l.o.g.  $x \neq e \neq y$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ x^2 = e = y^2$ 

 $(1)4. \ x^{-1} = x \text{ and } y^{-1} = y.$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Case: xy = e

PROOF: Then  $y = x^{-1}$  and so xy = yx = e.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Case:  $xy \neq e$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 1$$
.  $(xy)^2 = e$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 2$$
.  $xyxy = e$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ xy = y^{-1}x^{-1}$$
  
 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ xy = yx$ 

Proposition 8.21. Every Abelian group is solvable.

PROOF: If G is Abelian then  $G' = \{e\}$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 8.22.** The only non-trivial simple finite Abelian groups are  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  for p a prime.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: G be a non-trivial simple finite Abelian group.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK a prime p that divides |G|.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . PICK an element  $a \in G$  of order p. PROOF: Cauchy's Theorem.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \langle a \rangle = G$

## 8.1 The Category of Abelian Groups

**Definition 8.23** (Category of Abelian Groups). Let **Ab** be the full subcategory of **Grp** whose objects are the Abelian groups.

**Proposition 8.24.** If  $(G, m: G^2 \to G, e: 1 \to G, i: G \to G)$  is a group object in **Ab** then m is the multiplication of G, e(\*) is the identity of G,  $i(g) = g^{-1}$ , and G is Abelian.

Conversely, if (G, m) is any Abelian group, then (G, m, e, i) is a group object in **Ab** where e(\*) = e and  $i(g) = g^{-1}$ .

PROOF: Immediate from Corollary 8.19.1.

**Definition 8.25** (Direct Sum). Given Abelian groups G and H, we also call the direct product of G and H the direct sum and denote it  $G \oplus H$ .

**Proposition 8.26.** Given Abelian groups G and H, the direct sum  $G \oplus H$  is the coproduct of G and H in  $\mathbf{Ab}$ .

#### PROOF

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\kappa_1 : G \to G \oplus H$  be the group homomorphism  $\kappa_1(g) = (g, e_H)$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\kappa_2 : H \to G \oplus H$  be the group homomorphism  $\kappa_2(h) = (e_G, h)$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 3. Given group homomorphism  $\phi : G \to K$  and  $\psi : H \to K$ , define  $[\phi, \psi] : G \oplus H \to K$  by  $[\phi, \psi](g, h) = \phi(g) + \psi(h)$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $[\phi, \psi]$  is a group homomorphism.

### Proof:

$$\begin{split} [\phi, \psi]((g, h) + (g', h')) &= [\phi, \psi](g + g', h + h') \\ &= \phi(g + g') + \psi(h + h') \\ &= \phi(g) + \phi(g') + \psi(h) + \psi(h') \\ &= \phi(g) + \psi(h) + \phi(g') + \psi(h') \\ &= [\phi, \psi](g, h) + [\phi, \psi](g', h') \end{split}$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5.  $[\phi, \psi] \circ \kappa_1 = \phi$ PROOF:

$$[\phi, \psi](\kappa_1(g)) = [\phi, \psi](g, e_h)$$
$$= \phi(g) + \psi(e_H)$$
$$= \phi(g) + e_K$$
$$= \phi(g)$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ [\phi, \psi] \circ \kappa_2 = \psi$ 

PROOF: Similar.

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 7. If  $f: G \oplus H \to K$  is a group homomorphism with  $f \circ \kappa_1 = \phi$  and  $f \circ \kappa_2 = \psi$  then  $f = [\phi, \psi]$ .

Proof:

$$f(g,h) = f((g,e_H) + (e_G,h))$$
  
=  $f(\kappa_1(g)) + f(\kappa_2(h))$   
=  $\phi(g) + \psi(h)$ 

**Theorem 8.27.** Every finitely generated Abelian group is a direct sum of cyclic groups.

PROOF: TODO

# 8.2 Free Abelian Groups

**Proposition 8.28.** Let A be a set. Let  $\mathcal{F}^A$  be the category whose objects are pairs (G,j) where G is an Abelian group and j is a function  $A \to G$ , with morphisms  $f:(G,j)\to(H,k)$  the group homomorphisms  $f:G\to H$  such that  $f\circ j=k$ . Then  $\mathcal{F}^A$  has an initial object.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\mathbb{Z}^{\oplus A}$  be the subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}^A$  consisting of all functions  $\alpha : A \to \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $\alpha(a) = 0$  for only finitely many  $a \in A$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $i: A \to \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus A}$  be the function such that i(a)(b) = 1 if a = b and 0 if  $a \neq b$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let: G be any Abelian group and  $j: A \to G$  any function.
- (1)4. The unique homomorphism  $\phi: \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus A} \to G$  required is defined by  $\phi(\alpha) = \sum_{a \in A} \alpha(a) j(a)$

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**Definition 8.29** (Free Abelian Group). For any set A, the *free Abelian group* on A is the initial object  $(F^{ab}(A), i)$  in  $\mathcal{F}^A$ .

**Proposition 8.30.** For any sets A and B, we have that  $F^{ab}(A+B)$  is the coproduct of  $F^{ab}(A)$  and  $F^{ab}(B)$  in **Grp**.



Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $i_A: A \to F^{ab}(A), i_B: B \to F^{ab}(B), j: A+B \to F^{ab}(A+B)$  be the canonical injections.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. Let:  $\kappa_1$ ,  $\kappa_2$  be the unique group homomorphisms that make the diagram above commute.
- (1)3. Let: G be any group and  $f: F^{ab}(A) \to G, g: F^{ab}(B) \to G$  any group homomorphisms.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $h: A+B \to G$  be the unique function such that  $h \circ k_1 = f \circ i_A$  and  $h \circ k_2 = g \circ i_B$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Let:  $k: F^{ab}(A+B) \to G$  be the unique group homomorphism such that  $k \circ j = h$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 6. k is the unique group homomorphism such that  $k \circ \kappa_1 \circ i_A = f \circ i_A$  and  $k \circ \kappa_2 \circ i_B = g \circ i_B$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 7. k is the unique group homomorphism such that  $k \circ \kappa_1 = f$  and  $k \circ \kappa_2 = g$ .

**Proposition 8.31.** For A and B finite sets, if  $F^{ab}(A) \cong F^{ab}(B)$  then  $A \cong B$ .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For any set C, define  $\sim$  on  $F^{ab}(C)$  by:  $f \sim f'$  iff there exists  $g \in F^{ab}(C)$  such that f f' = 2g.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For any set C,  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on  $F^{ab}(C)$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 3. For any set C, we have  $F^{ab}(C) / \sim$  is finite if and only if C is finite, in which case  $|F^{ab}(C)| / \sim |=2^{|C|}$ .

PROOF: There is a bijection between  $F^{ab}(C) / \sim$  and the finite subsets of C, which maps f to  $\{c \in C : f(c) \text{ is odd}\}.$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . If  $F^{ab}(A) \cong F^{ab}(B)$  then  $A \cong B$ .

PROOF: If  $|F^{ab}(A)/\sim|=|F^{ab}(B)/\sim|$  then  $2^{|A|}=2^{|B|}$  and so |A|=|B|.

**Proposition 8.32.** Let G be an Abelian group. Then G is finitely generated if and only if there exists a surjective homomorphism  $\mathbb{Z}^{\oplus n} \twoheadrightarrow G$  for some n.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If G is finitely generated then there exists a surjective homomorphism  $\mathbb{Z}^{\oplus n} \twoheadrightarrow G$  for some n.

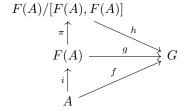
PROOF: Let  $G = \langle a_1, \dots, a_n \rangle$ . Define  $\phi : \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus n} \twoheadrightarrow G$  by  $\phi(i_1, \dots, i_n) = i_1 \cdot a_1 + \dots + i_n \cdot a_n$ .

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 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If there exists a surjective homomorphism  $\phi: \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus n} \twoheadrightarrow G$  for some n then G is finitely generated.

PROOF: G is generated by  $\phi(1,0,\ldots,0),\,\phi(0,1,0,\ldots,0),\,\ldots,\,\phi(0,\ldots,0,1).$ 

**Proposition 8.33.** Let A be a set. Let  $i: A \hookrightarrow F(A)$  be the free group on A. Then  $\pi \circ i: A \to F(A)/[F(A), F(A)]$  is the free Abelian group on A.



Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: G be an Abelian group and  $f: A \to G$  a function.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2.$  Let:  $g: F(A) \to G$  be the unique group homomorphism such that  $g \circ i = f.$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ [F(A), F(A)] \subseteq \ker g$

PROOF: For all  $x, y \in F(A)$  we have  $g(xyx^{-1}y^{-1}) = g(x) + g(y) - g(x) - g(y) = 0$ 

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let: h: F(A)/[F(A),F(A)] be the unique group homomorphism such that  $h \circ \pi = g$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. h is the unique group homomorphism such that  $h \circ \pi \circ i = f$ .

**Corollary 8.33.1.** Let A and B be sets. Let F(A) and F(B) be the free groups on A and B respectively. If  $F(A) \cong F(B)$  then  $A \cong B$ .

Proof: Proposition 8.31.  $\square$ 

## 8.3 Cokernels

**Proposition 8.34.** Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a homomorphism between Abelian groups. Then there exists an Abelian group K and homomorphism  $\pi: H \to K$  that is initial with respect to all homomorphism  $\alpha: H \to L$  such that  $\alpha \circ \phi = 0$ .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $K = H/\operatorname{im} \phi$  and  $\pi$  be the canonical homomorphism.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\pi \circ \phi = 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\alpha: H \to L$  satisfy  $\alpha \circ \phi = 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . im  $\phi \subseteq \ker \alpha$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. There exists a unique  $\overline{\alpha}: H/\operatorname{im} \phi \to L$  such that  $\overline{\alpha} \circ \pi = \alpha$

**Definition 8.35** (Cokernel). For any homomorphism  $\phi: G \to H$  in **Ab**, the cokernel of  $\phi$  is the Abelian group coker  $\phi$  and homomorphism  $\pi: H \to \operatorname{coker} \phi$  that is initial among homomorphisms  $\alpha: H \to L$  such that  $\alpha \circ \phi = 0$ .

**Proposition 8.36.**  $\pi: H \to \operatorname{coker} \phi$  is initial among functions  $f: H \to X$  such that, for all  $x, y \in H$ , if  $x + \operatorname{im} \phi = y + \operatorname{im} \phi$  then f(x) = f(y).

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 8.37.** Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a homomorphism of Abelian groups. Then the following are equivalent.

- $\phi$  is an epimorphism.
- $\operatorname{coker} \phi$  is trivial.
- $\phi$  is surjective.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 1 \Rightarrow 2$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $\phi$  is epi.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\pi: H \to \operatorname{coker} \phi$  be the canonical homomorphism.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $\pi \circ \phi = 0 \circ \phi$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $\pi = 0$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. coker  $\phi = \text{im } \pi$  is trivial.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ 2 \Rightarrow 3$

PROOF: If coker  $\phi = H/\operatorname{im} \phi$  is trivial then  $\operatorname{im} \phi = H$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 3 \Rightarrow 1$ 

PROOF: If it is surjective then it is epi in **Set**.

# 8.4 Commutator Subgroups

**Proposition 8.38.** Let G be a group. Let G' be the commutator subgroup of G. Then G/G' is Abelian.

PROOF: Since  $ghg^{-1}h^{-1}G' = G'$  so ghG' = hgG'.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 8.39.** Let G be a group and A an Abelian group. Let  $\alpha: G \to A$  be a homomorphism. Then  $G' \subseteq \ker \alpha$ .

Proof: Since  $\phi([g,h]) = \phi(g)\phi(h)\phi(g)^{-1}\phi(h)^{-1} = e$ .  $\square$ 

**Corollary 8.39.1.** Let G be a group. The canonical projection G woheadrightarrow G/G' is initial in the category of homomorphisms from G to an Abelian group.

**Definition 8.40** (Abelian Series). A normal series of subgroups is *Abelian* iff every quotient is Abelian.

**Lemma 8.41.** Let G be a group. Let H be a normal subgroup of G. If G/H is Abelian then  $G' \subseteq G/H$ .

Proof: Given  $g, h \in G$  we have

$$ghH = hgH$$
$$\therefore ghg^{-1}h^{-1} \in H$$

**Proposition 8.42.** Let G be a finite group. The following are equivalent.

- 1. All composition factors of G are cyclic.
- 2. G has a cyclic series of subgroups ending in  $\{e\}$ .
- 3. G has an Abelian series of subgroups ending in  $\{e\}$ .
- 4. G is solvable.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 1 \Rightarrow 2$ 

PROOF: Trivial.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ 2 \Rightarrow 3$ 

PROOF: Trivial.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 3 \Rightarrow 4$ 

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $G = G_0 \supseteq G_1 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq G_n = \{e\}$  be an Abelian series of subgroups.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For all i we have  $G^{(i)} \subseteq G_i$ .

Proof: Lemma 8.41.

$$\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ G^{(n)} = \{e\}$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ 4 \Rightarrow 1$ 

PROOF: Extend the derived series of G to a composition series, using the fact that every simple Abelian group is cyclic.

Corollary 8.42.1. All p-groups are solvable.

PROOF: Their composition factors are simple p-groups, hence cyclic.  $\sqcup$ 

**Corollary 8.42.2.** Let G be a group and N a normal subgroup. Then G is solvable if and only if both N and G/N are solvable.

Proof: By Proposition 7.120.  $\square$ 

**Corollary 8.42.3.** Let G be a finite solvable group. Then the composition factors of G are exactly  $C_p$  for p a prime factor of G (with the same multiplicities).

PROOF: Since each composition factor is simple and cyclic hence removes one prime factor in |G|.  $\square$ 

# Chapter 9

# Group Actions

## 9.1 Group Actions

**Definition 9.1** (Action). Let G be a group. Let A be an object of a category C. A (left) action of G on A is a group homomorphism  $G \to \operatorname{Aut}_{C}(A)$ . It is faithful or effective iff it is injective.

**Proposition 9.2.** Let A be a set. An action of the group G on the set A is given by a function  $\cdot : G \times A \to A$  such that

- $\forall a \in A.ea = a$
- $\forall g, h \in G. \forall a \in A. (gh)a = g(ha)$

Proof: Just unfolding definitions.

**Example 9.3.** Left multiplication defines a faithful action of any group on its own underlying set.

In fact, for any subgroup H of a group G, left multiplication defines an action of G on G/H.

Corollary 9.3.1 (Cayley's Theorem). Every group G is a subgroup of a symmetric group, namely  $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbf{Set}}(G)$ .

**Example 9.4.** Conjugation  $g * h = ghg^{-1}$  is an action of any group on its own underlying set.

**Definition 9.5** (Transitive). An action of a group G on a set A is *transitive* iff, for all  $a, b \in A$ , there exists  $g \in G$  such that ga = b.

**Example 9.6.** Left multiplication of a group G is a transitive action of G on G.

**Definition 9.7** (Orbit). Given an action of a group G on a set A and  $a \in A$ , the *orbit* of a is

$$\mathcal{O}_G(a) := \{ ga : g \in G \} .$$

**Proposition 9.8.** Given an action of a group G on a set A, the orbits form a partition of A.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Every element of A is in some orbit.

PROOF: Since  $a \in O_G(a)$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Distinct orbits are disjoint.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $a \in \mathcal{O}_G(b) \cap \mathcal{O}_G(c)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $g, h \in G$  such that a = gb = hc.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $O_G(b) \subseteq O_G(c)$

PROOF: For all  $k \in G$  we have  $kb = kg^{-1}hc$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $O_G(c) \subseteq O_G(b)$ PROOF: Similar.

**Proposition 9.9.** Given an action of a group G on a set A and  $a \in A$ , the action is transitive on  $O_G(a)$ .

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . The restriction of the action is an action on  $O_G(a)$ .

PROOF: Since g(ha) = (gh)a, the action maps  $O_G(a)$  to itself.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . The restricted action is transitive.

PROOF: Given  $ga, ha \in O_G(a)$ , we have  $ha = (hg^{-1})(ga)$ .

**Definition 9.10** (Stabilizer Subgroup). Given an action of a group G on a set A and  $a \in A$ , the *stabilizer subgroup* of a is

$$\operatorname{Stab}_{G}(a) := \{ g \in G : ga = a \}$$
.

Proposition 9.11. Stabilizer subgroups are subgroups.

PROOF: If  $g, h \in \operatorname{Stab}_G(a)$  then  $gh^{-1}a = a$  so  $gh^{-1} \in \operatorname{Stab}_G(a)$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 9.12.** Let G act on a set A. Let  $a \in A$  and  $g \in G$ . Then

$$\operatorname{Stab}_{G}(ga) = g\operatorname{Stab}_{G}(a)g^{-1}$$
.

Proof:

$$h \in \operatorname{Stab}_G(ga) \Leftrightarrow hga = ga$$
  
 $\Leftrightarrow g^{-1}hga = a$   
 $\Leftrightarrow g^{-1}hg \in \operatorname{Stab}_G(a)$   
 $\Leftrightarrow h \in g\operatorname{Stab}_G(a)g^{-1}$ 

**Corollary 9.12.1.** Let G be an action on a set A and  $a \in A$ . If  $Stab_G(a)$  is normal in G, then for any  $b \in O_G(a)$  we have  $Stab_G(a) = Stab_G(b)$ .

**Definition 9.13** (Free). An action of a group G on a set A is *free* iff, whenever ga = a, then g = e.

**Example 9.14.** The action of left multiplication is free.

**Proposition 9.15.** Let G be a group. Let H be a subgroup of G of finite index n. Then H includes a subgroup K that is normal in G and such that |G:K| divides gcd(|G|, n!).

```
PROOF:  \langle 1 \rangle 1. \text{ Let: } \sigma: G \to \operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbf{Set}} (G/H) \text{ be the action of left multiplication.}   \langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ Let: } K = \ker \sigma   \langle 1 \rangle 3. K \subseteq H   \langle 2 \rangle 1. \text{ Let: } g \in K   \langle 2 \rangle 2. \sigma(g)(H) = H   \langle 2 \rangle 3. gH = H   \langle 2 \rangle 4. g \in H   \langle 1 \rangle 4. K \text{ is normal in } G.  PROOF: Proposition 7.42.  \langle 1 \rangle 5. |G:K| |G|  PROOF: Lagrange's Theorem.  \langle 1 \rangle 6. |G:K| |n!  PROOF: Since G/K is a subgroup of \operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbf{Set}} (G/H).  \Box
```

**Corollary 9.15.1.** Let G be a finite group. Let H be a subgroup of G of index p where p is the smallest prime that divides |G|. Then H is normal in G.

#### Proof:

```
\begin{array}{ll} \langle 1 \rangle 1. & \text{PICK a subgroup } K \text{ of } H \text{ normal in } G \text{ such that } |G:K| \text{ divides } \gcd(|G|,p!). \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. & |G:K| \text{ divides } p. \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. & |G:H||H:K| \text{ divides } p. \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. & |H:K|=1 \\ \langle 1 \rangle 5. & H=K \\ \langle 1 \rangle 6. & H \text{ is normal.} \end{array}
```

Corollary 9.15.2. Any subgroup of index 2 is normal.

**Proposition 9.16.** Let G be a group with finite set of generators A. Then left multiplication defines a free action of G on its Cayley graph.

PROOF: Easy since if  $g_2 = g_1 a$  then  $hg_2 = hg_1 a$ .  $\square$ 

Corollary 9.16.1. A free group acts freely on a tree.

**Theorem 9.17.** If a group G acts freely on a tree then G is free.

Corollary 9.17.1. Every subgroup of the free group on a finite set is free.

PROOF: If H is a subgroup of F(A) then left multiplication defines a free action of H on the Cayley graph of F(A), which is a tree.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 9.18.** Let S be a finite set. Let G be a group acting on S. Let Z be the set of fixed points of the action:

$$Z = \{a \in S : \forall g \in G. ga = a\} .$$

Let A be a set of representatives for the nontrivial orbits of the action. Then

$$|S| = |Z| + \sum_{a \in A} [G : \operatorname{Stab}_G(a)]$$
.

PROOF: Immediate from the fact that the orbits partition S.  $\square$ 

**Corollary 9.18.1.** Let p be a prime. Let S be a finite set. Let G be a p-group acting on S. Let Z be the set of fixed points of the action. Then  $|Z| \cong |S| \pmod{p}$ .

**Corollary 9.18.2.** Let p be a prime. Let S be a finite set. Let G be a p-group acting on S. If p does not divide |S| then the action has a fixed point.

## 9.2 Category of G-Sets

**Definition 9.19.** Given a group G, let  $G - \mathbf{Set}$  be the category with:

- objects all pairs  $(A, \rho)$  such that A is a set and  $\rho : G \times A \to A$  is an action of G on A;
- morphisms  $f:(A,\rho)\to (B,\sigma)$  are functions  $f:A\to B$  that are (G-)equivariant, i.e.

$$\forall g \in G. \forall a \in A. f(\rho(g, a)) = \sigma(g, f(a))$$
.

**Proposition 9.20.** A G-equivariant function  $f: A \to B$  is an isomorphism in G – **Set** if and only if it is bijective.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $f: A \to B$  be G-equivariant and bijective. Prove:  $f^{-1}$  is G-equivariant.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $g \in G$  and  $b \in B$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ f^{-1}(gb) = gf^{-1}(b)$ 

Proof:

$$f(f^{-1}(gb)) = gb$$
  
=  $gf(f^{-1}(b))$   
=  $f(gf^{-1}(b))$ 

**Proposition 9.21.** Let G be a group and A a transitive G-set. Let  $a \in A$ . Then A is isomorphic to  $G/\operatorname{Stab}_G(a)$  under left multiplication.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $f: G/\operatorname{Stab}_G(a) \to A$  be the function  $f(g\operatorname{Stab}_G(a)) = ga$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $g\operatorname{Stab}_G(a) = h\operatorname{Stab}_G(a)$ 

PROVE: ga = ha

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ g^{-1}h \in \operatorname{Stab}_G(a)$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3.$   $g^{-1}ha = a$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . ha = ga

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . f is G-equivariant.

PROOF: Since  $f(gh\operatorname{Stab}_{G}(a)) = gha = gf(h\operatorname{Stab}_{G}(a))$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . f is injective.

PROOF: If ga = ha then  $g^{-1}h \in \operatorname{Stab}_G(a)$  so  $g\operatorname{Stab}_G(a) = h\operatorname{Stab}_G(a)$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . f is surjective.

PROOF: Since for all  $b \in A$  there exists  $g \in G$  such that ga = b.

**Corollary 9.21.1.** If O is an orbit of the action of a finite group G on a set A, then O is finite and |O| divides |G|.

**Corollary 9.21.2.** Let H be a subgroup of G and  $g \in G$ . Then

$$G/H \cong G/(gHg^{-1})$$

in  $G - \mathbf{Set}$ .

PROOF: Taking A = G/H and a = gH.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 9.22.** Given a family of G-sets  $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$ , we have  $\prod_{i\in I} A_i$  is their product in G – Set under

$$g\{a_i\}_{i\in I} = \{ga_i\}_{i\in I}$$
.

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 9.23.** Given a family of G-sets  $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$ , we have  $\coprod_{i\in I} A_i$  is their product in G – **Set** under

$$q(i, a_i) = (i, qa_i)$$
.

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 9.24.** Every finite G-set is a coproduct of G-sets of the form G/H.

PROOF: If  $O(a_1), \ldots, O(a_n)$  are the orbits of the G-set A, then G is the coproduct of  $G/\operatorname{Stab}_G(a_1), \ldots, G/\operatorname{Stab}_G(a_n)$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 9.25.** For any group G we have  $G \cong \operatorname{Aut}_{G-\mathbf{Set}}(G)$  (considering G as a G-set under left multiplication).

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Define  $\phi : G \to \operatorname{Aut}_{G-\mathbf{Set}}(G)$  by  $\phi(g)(g') = g'g^{-1}$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $g \in G$ PROVE:  $\lambda g' \in G.g'g^{-1}$  is an automorphism of G in  $G - \mathbf{Set}$ .  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $\phi(g)$  is G-equivariant. PROOF: Since  $\phi(g)(h_1h_2) = h_1h_2g^{-1} = h_1\phi(g)(h_2)$ .  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $\phi(g)$  is injective. PROOF: By Cancellation.  $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $\phi(g)$  is surjective. PROOF: For any  $h \in G$  we ahev  $h = \phi(g)(hg)$ .  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\phi$  is a group homomorphism. PROOF:  $\phi(g_1g_2)(h) = hg_2^{-1}g_1^{-1} = \phi(g_1)(\phi(g_2)(h)).$  $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\phi$  is injective. PROOF: If  $\phi(g) = \phi(g')$  then  $g = \phi(g)(e) = \phi(g')(e) = g'$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $\phi$  is surjective.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\sigma \in \operatorname{Aut}_{G-\mathbf{Set}}(G)$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $g = \sigma(e)$ PROVE:  $\sigma = \phi(g^{-1})$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \sigma(h) = hg$ PROOF:  $\sigma(h) = \sigma(he) = h\sigma(e) = hg$ .

#### 9.3 Center

**Definition 9.26** (Center). The *center* of a group G, Z(G), is the kernel of the conjugation action  $\sigma: G \to S_G$ .

**Proposition 9.27.** The center of a group G is

$$Z(G) = \{ g \in G : \forall a \in G.ag = ga \} .$$

Proof: Immediate from definitions.  $\square$ 

**Lemma 9.28.** Let G be a finite group. Assume G/Z(G) is cyclic. Then G is Abelian and so G/Z(G) is trivial.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Pick  $q \in G$  such that qZ(G) generates G/Z(G).
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $a, b \in G$
- (1)3. PICK  $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $aZ(G) = g^r Z(G)$  and  $bZ(G) = g^s Z(G)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $z = g^{-r}a \in Z(G)$  and  $w = g^{-s}b \in Z(G)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ .  $a = g^r z$  and  $b = g^s w$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . ab = ba

Proof:

$$ab = g^r z g^s w$$

$$= g^{r+s} z w$$

$$= g^s w g^r z$$

$$= ba$$

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**Proposition 9.29.** Let G be a group. Let N be a subgroup of Z(G). Then N is normal in G.

PROOF: For all  $n \in N$  and  $g \in G$  we have  $gng^{-1} = ngg^{-1} = n \in N$  since  $n \in Z(G)$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 9.30.** For any group G we have  $G/Z(G) \cong \text{Inn}(G)$ .

PROOF: The homomorphism  $g \mapsto \gamma_g$  is a surjective homomorphism with kernel Z(G).  $\square$ 

**Proposition 9.31.** Let p and q be prime integers. Let G be a group of order pq. Then either G is Abelian or the center of G is trivial.

PROOF: Otherwise we would have |Z(G)| = p say and so  $|\operatorname{Inn}(G)| = q$ , meaning  $\operatorname{Inn}(G)$  is cyclic, hence trivial, which is a contradiction.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 9.32** (First Sylow Theorem). Let p be a prime and  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let G be a finite group. If  $p^k$  divides |G| then G has a subgroup of order  $p^k$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: as induction hypothesis the statement is true for all groups smaller than G.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume: w.l.o.g.  $k \neq 0$  and  $|G| \neq p$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Case: There exists a proper subgroup H of G such that p does not divide [G:H].

PROOF: Then H has a subgroup of order  $p^k$  by induction hypothesis  $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Case: For every proper subgroup H of G we have p divides [G:H].
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . p divides |Z(G)|.

PROOF: By the Class Formula.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $a \in Z(G)$  that has order p.

PROOF: Cauchy's Theorem.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $N = \langle a \rangle$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . N is normal.

Proof: Proposition 9.29.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 5.$   $p^{k-1}$  divides |G/N|.
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 6. PICK a subgroup Q of G/N of order  $p^{k-1}$ .

PROOF: Induction hypothesis  $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ . Let:  $P = \pi^{-1}(Q)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 8. |P| = p^k$

**Theorem 9.33** (Second Sylow Theorem). Let G be a finite group. Let p be a prime. Let P be a p-Sylow subgroup of G. Let P be a subgroup of P that is a p-group. Then P is a subgroup of a conjugate of P.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . PICK a fixed point gP for the action of H on the set of left cosets of P by left multiplication.

PROOF: Corollary 9.18.2.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $h \in H$  we have hgP = gP
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ H \subseteq gPg^{-1}$

#### 9.4 Centralizer

**Definition 9.34** (Centralizer). Let G be a group. Let  $a \in G$ . The *centralizer* or *normalizer* of a, denoted  $Z_G(a)$ , is the stabilizer of a under the action of conjugation.

Proposition 9.35.

$$Z_G(a) = \{ g \in G : ga = ag \}$$

Proof: Immediate from definitions.  $\Box$ 

## 9.5 Conjugacy Class

**Definition 9.36** (Conjugacy Class). Let G be a group. Let  $a \in G$ . The *conjugacy class* of a, denoted [a], is the orbit of a under the action of conjugation.

**Proposition 9.37** (Class Formula). Let G be a finite group. Let A be a set of representatives of the non-trivial conjugacy classes. Then

$$|G| = |Z(G)| + \sum_{a \in A} [G : Z(a)]$$
.

Proof: Proposition 9.18.

**Corollary 9.37.1.** Let p be a prime. Let G be a p-group and H a nontrivial normal subgroup of G. Then  $H \cap Z(G) \neq \{e\}$ .

PROOF: Let A be a set of representatives of the non-trivial conjugacy classes. Let  $A \cap H = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ . Then

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

Since  $p \mid |H|$  and  $p \mid [G : Z(a_i)]$  for all i, we have  $p \mid |H \cap Z(G)|$ .  $\square$ 

Corollary 9.37.2. Let p be a prime. Every p-group has a non-trivial center.

Corollary 9.37.3. Let p be a prime. Every group G of order  $p^2$  is Abelian.

Proof: By Proposition 9.31.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 9.38.** Let p be a prime and r a non-negative integer. Let G be a group of order  $p^r$ . Then, for k = 0, 1, ..., r, we have G has a normal subgroup of order  $p^k$ .

```
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Assume: as induction hypothesis the result holds for r' < r.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Assume: w.l.o.g. k > 0
  PROOF: Since \{e\} is a normal subgroup of order p^0.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Pick a subgroup N of Z(G) of order p.
  \langle 2 \rangle 1. p \mid |Z(G)|
     Proof: From Corollary 9.37.2.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Z(G) has a subgroup of order p.
     PROOF: Cauchy's Theorem.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. N is normal.
  Proof: Proposition 9.29.
\langle 1 \rangle5. PICK a normal subgroup M of G/N of order p^{k-1}.
  PROOF: From the induction hypothesis \langle 1 \rangle 1.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. \pi^{-1}(M) is a normal subgroup of G of order p^k.
Example 9.39. The only non-Abelian group of order 6 is S_3.
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: G be a non-Adelian group of order 6.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Z(G) = \{e\}
  PROOF: Otherwise Z(G) has order 2 or 3 and is cyclic, contradicting Lemma
\langle 1 \rangle 3. G has three conjugacy classes: Z(G), a class of size 2 and a class of size
  PROOF: By the Class Formula since the only way to make 5 using non-trivial
  factors of 6 is 2+3.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Pick an element y \in G of order 3.
  PROOF: It cannot be that every element is of order \leq 2 by Proposition 8.20.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. \langle y \rangle is normal in G.
  PROOF: Since it has index 2.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. The conjugacy class y is \{y, y^2\}.
  PROOF: Since \langle y \rangle must be a union of conjugacy classes.
\langle 1 \rangle 7. The conjugacy class of size 2 is \{y, y^2\}.
  PROOF: Since y^2 has order 3 and so its conjugacy class is of size 2 similarly,
  and there is only one conjugacy class of size 2.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. Pick x \in G such that yx = xy^2.
  PROOF: y^2 is conjugate to y so there exists x such that x^{-1}yx = y^2.
\langle 1 \rangle 9. x has order 2.
  PROOF: x is not in the conjugacy class of size 2 so its order cannot be 3.
\langle 1 \rangle 10. x and y generate G.
  PROOF: Since e, y, y^2, x, xy, xy^2 are all distinct.
\langle 1 \rangle 11. G \cong S_3
   PROOF: We now know the entire multiplication table of G.
```

**Proposition 9.40.** Let G be a finite group. Let H be a subgroup of G of order 2. Let  $a \in H$ . Let  $[a]_H$  be the conjugacy class of a in H, and  $[a]_G$  the conjugacy

class of a in G. If  $Z_G(a) \subseteq H$  then  $[a]_H$  is half the size of  $[a]_G$ ; otherwise,  $[a]_H = [a]_G$ .

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . *H* is normal in *G*.

PROOF: Corollary 9.15.2.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $HZ_G(a)$  is a subgroup of G.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . H is normal in  $HZ_G(a)$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $H \cap Z_G(a)$  is normal in  $Z_G(a)$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ .

$$\frac{HZ_G(a)}{H} \cong \frac{Z_G(a)}{H \cap Z_G(a)}$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . If  $Z_G(a) \subseteq H$  then  $|[a]_H| = |[a]_G|/2$ .

PROOF: In this case we have  $Z_H(a) = Z_G(a)$  and so  $|[a]_H| = |H|/|Z_H(a)| = (|G|/2)/|Z_G(a)| = |[a]_G|/2$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . If  $Z_G(a) \nsubseteq H$  then  $[a]_H = [a]_G$ .

PROOF:

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Pick  $b \in Z_G(a) H$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $Hb^{-1} = G H$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ G = HZ_G(a)$

PROOF: For  $x \in H$  we have x = xe and for  $x \notin H$  we have  $x \in Hb^{-1}$  hence  $xb \in H$  and x = (xb)b.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ |[a]_H| = |[a]_G|$ 

Proof:

$$|[a]_{H}| = \frac{|H|}{|Z_{H}(a)|}$$

$$= \frac{|H|}{|H \cap Z_{G}(a)|}$$

$$= \frac{|Z_{G}(a)||H|}{|Z_{G}(a)||H \cap Z_{G}(a)|}$$

$$= \frac{|HZ_{G}(a)|}{|Z_{G}(a)|}$$

$$= \frac{|G|}{|Z_{G}(a)|}$$

$$= |[a]_{G}|$$

### 

# 9.6 Conjugation on Sets

**Definition 9.41** (Conjugation). Let G be a group. Define an action of G on  $\mathcal{P}G$  called *conjugation* that takes g and A to

$$gAg^{-1} = \{gag^{-1} : a \in A\}$$
.

**Proposition 9.42.** The conjugate of a subgroup is a subgroup.

PROOF: Let *H* be a subgroup of *G*. Given  $gh_1g^{-1}, gh_2g^{-1} \in gHg^{-1}$ , we have  $(gh_1g^{-1})(gh_2g^{-1})^{-1} = gh_1h_2^{-1}g^{-1} \in gHg^{-1}$ .

**Definition 9.43** (Normalizer). Let G be a group and  $A \subseteq G$ . The *normalizer* of A, denoted  $N_G(A)$ , is its stabilizer under conjugation.

**Proposition 9.44.** Let G be a group,  $g \in G$  and A a finite subset of G. If  $gAg^{-1} \subseteq A$  then  $gAg^{-1} = A$  and so  $g \in N_G(A)$ .

PROOF: Conjugation by g is an injection from A into A, hence a bijection.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 9.45.** Let G be a group and H a subgroup of G. Then  $N_G(H)$  is the largest subgroup of G that includes H such that H is normal in  $N_G(H)$ .

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $N_G(H)$  is a subgroup of G.

PROOF: If  $a, b \in N_G(H)$  then  $ab^{-1}Hba^{-1} = aHa^{-1} = H$  so  $ab^{-1} \in N_G(H)$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $H \subseteq N_G(H)$ 

PROOF: Easy.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . H is normal in  $N_G(H)$ .

PROOF: If  $a \in N_G(H)$  then  $aHa^{-1} = H$  by definition.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4.$  For any subgroup K of G, if  $H \subseteq K$  and H is normal in K then  $K \subseteq N_G(H).$ 

PROOF: H is normal in K means that, for all  $a \in K$ , we have  $aHa^{-1} = H$  and so  $a \in N_G(H)$ .

**Corollary 9.45.1.** Let G be a group and H a subgroup of G. Then H is normal if and only if  $H = N_G(H)$ .

**Proposition 9.46.** Let G be a group and H a subgroup of G. If  $[G : N_G(H)]$  is finite, then it is the number of subgroups conjugate to H.

PROOF: By the Orbit-Stabilizer Theorem.  $\square$ 

**Corollary 9.46.1.** Let G be a group and H a subgroup of G. If [G:H] is finite, the the number of subgroups conjugate to H is finite and divides [G:H].

**Lemma 9.47.** Let H be a p-group that is a subgroup of a finite group G. Then

$$[N_G(H):H] \equiv [G:H] \pmod{p} .$$

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: w.l.o.g. H is non-trivial.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . gH is a fixed point of the action of H on the set of left cosets of H by left multiplication if and only if  $g \in N_G(H)$ .

Proof:

$$gH$$
 is a fixed point  $\Leftrightarrow \forall h \in H.hgH = gH$   
 $\Leftrightarrow H \subseteq gHg^{-1}$   
 $\Leftrightarrow H = gHg^{-1}$   $(|gHg^{-1}| = |H|)$   
 $\Leftrightarrow g \in N_G(H)$ 

```
\langle 1 \rangle 3. The number of fixed points in [N_G(H):H].
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Q.E.D.
  Proof: Corollary 9.18.1.
```

**Proposition 9.48.** Let H be a p-subgroup of a finite group G that is not a p-Sylow subgroup. Then there exists a p-subgroup H' of G such that H is a normal subgroup of H' and [H':H]=p.

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. p divides [N_G(H):H].
  PROOF: Lemma 9.47.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. PICK gH \in N_G(H)/H of order p.
  PROOF: Cauchy's Theorem.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: H' = \pi^{-1}(\langle gH \rangle)
\langle 1 \rangle 4. H is a normal subgroup of H'.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ [H':H] = p
```

Corollary 9.48.1. No p-group of order  $> p^2$  is simple.

**Lemma 9.49.** Let p be a prime. Let G be a finite group. Let P be a p-Sylow subgroup of G. Every p-subgroup of  $N_G(P)$  is a subgroup of P.

#### Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: H be a p-subgroup of N_G(P).
\langle 1 \rangle 2. P is normal in N_G(P).
  Proof: Proposition 9.45.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. PH is a subgroup of N_G(P).
  PROOF: Second Isomorphism Theorem.
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $|PH/P| = |H/(P \cap H)|$ 

Proof: Second Isomorphism Theorem.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . PH is a p-group.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction q is prime,  $q \mid |PH|$  and  $q \neq p$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $q \mid |PH/P|$  $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ q \mid |H/(P \cap H)|$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $q \mid |H|$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts the fact that H is a p-group,  $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6. PH = P$ 

PROOF: By maximality of P.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ .  $H \subseteq P$ 

Lemma 9.50. Let p be a prime. Let G be a finite group. Let P be a p-Sylow subgroup of G. Let P act by conjugation on the set of p-Sylow subgroups of G. Then P is the unique fixed point of this action.

Proof:

Proof: Corollary 9.18.1.

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. P is a fixed point of this action.
   PROOF: For any x \in P we have xPx^{-1} = P.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. If Q is any fixed point of the action then Q = P.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: Q be a fixed point of the action.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. For all x \in P we have xQx^{-1} = Q.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ P \subseteq N_G(Q)
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. P \subseteq Q
     PROOF: Lemma 9.49.
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ P = Q
     PROOF: Since |P| = |Q|.
Theorem 9.51 (Third Sylow Theorem). Let p be a prime. Let G be a finite
group of order p^rm where p does not divide m. Then the number of p-Sylow
subgroups of G divides m and is congruent to 1 modulo p.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: N_p be the number of p-Sylow subgroups of G.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Pick a p-Sylow subgroup P.
   PROOF: One exists by the First Sylow Theorem.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. The p-Sylow subgroups of G are exactly the conjugates of P.
   PROOF: Second Sylow Theorem
\langle 1 \rangle 4. m = N_p[N_G(P):P]
   PROOF: Since N_p = [G : N_G(P)] by Proposition 9.46.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. N_p divides m.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ mN_p \equiv m \pmod{p}
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. m \equiv [N_G(P) : P] \pmod{p}
     Proof: Lemma 9.47.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. mN_p \equiv m \pmod{p}
     Proof: By \langle 1 \rangle 4.
\langle 1 \rangle 7. N_p \equiv 1 \pmod{p}
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: N_p be the number of p-Sylow subgroups of G.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Pick a p-Sylow subgroup P of G.
   PROOF: First Sylow Theorem.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. N_p is the number of conjugates of P.
   Proof: Second Sylow Theorem.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. N_p \mid m
   Proof: Corollary 9.46.1.
\langle 1 \rangle5. P acts on the set of conjugates of P with one fixed point.
   Proof: Lemma 9.50.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ N_p \equiv 1 \pmod{p}
```

**Corollary 9.51.1.** Let G be a finite group. Let p be a prime number. If  $|G| = mp^r$  and the only divisor d of m such that  $d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  is d = 1, then G is not simple.

PROOF: There must be 1 p-Sylow subgroup, which has order  $p^r$  and is normal.  $\sqcap$ 

**Corollary 9.51.2.** Let G be a finite group. Let p be a prime number. If  $|G| = mp^r$  where 1 < m < p then G is not simple.

**Proposition 9.52.** Let p and q be prime numbers with p < q. Let G be a group of order pq with a normal subgroup H of order p. Then G is cyclic.

#### PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\gamma : G \to \operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbf{Grp}}(H)$  be the action of conjugation.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . H is cyclic of order p.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $|\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbf{Grp}}(H)| = p 1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $|\operatorname{im} \gamma| | pq$

PROOF: Since im  $\gamma$  is a quotient group of G.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ .  $|\operatorname{im} \gamma| |p-1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ .  $|\operatorname{im} \gamma| = 1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ \gamma = 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8. \ H \subseteq Z(G)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 9$ . G is Abelian.

Proof: Lemma 9.28.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 10$ . Pick an element g of order p.

PROOF: Cauchy's Theorem.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 11$ . Pick an element g of order q.

PROOF: Cauchy's Theorem.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 12$ . |gh| = pq

Proof: Proposition 6.19.

**Corollary 9.52.1.** Let p and q be prime numbers with p < q and  $q \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . Then the only group of order pq is the cyclic group.

PROOF: By the Third Sylow Theorem, such a group must have exactly one p-Sylow subgroup, which is therefore normal.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 9.53.** Let p be prime. Let G be a finite group. Let P be a p-Sylow subgroup of G. Then

$$N_G(N_G(P)) = N_G(P)$$
.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . P is normal in  $N_G(P)$ .

Proof: Proposition 9.45.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $N_G(P)$  is normal in  $N_G(N_G(P))$ .

Proof: Proposition 9.45.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . P is normal in  $N_G(N_G(P))$ .

PROOF: Corollary 7.106.1.  $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $N_G(N_G(P)) \subseteq N_G(P)$ PROOF: Proposition 9.45.  $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ .  $N_G(N_G(P)) = N_G(P)$ 

**Proposition 9.54.** Let p, q and r be three distinct prime numbers. Then there is no simple group of order pqr.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: G be a group of order pqr.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume: w.l.o.g. p < q < r
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Assume: for a contradiction G is simple.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . The number of subgroups of order p is at least p+1.

PROOF: Third Sylow Theorem

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . The number of subgroups of order q is at least q+1.

PROOF: Third Sylow Theorem

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . The number of subgroups of order r is pq.

PROOF: By the Third Sylow Theorem, the number divides pq, and it cannot be 1 (lest that subgroup be normal) or p or q (as these are less than r hence not congruent to 1 modulo r).

- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . There are at least  $p^2 1$  elements of order p.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . There are at least  $q^2 1$  elements of order q.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 9$ . There are at least pqr pq elements of order r.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 10$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This is a contradiction as the total number of elements of order 1, p, q and r is

$$1 + (p^{2} - 1) + (q^{2} - 1) + (pqr - pq) = p^{2} + q^{2} + pqr - pq - 1$$

$$> pqr + p^{2} - 1$$

$$> pqr$$

**Proposition 9.55.** Let G be a finite simple group. Let H be a subgroup of G of index N > 1. Then |G| divides N!.

#### PROOF

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . PICK a subgroup K of H that is normal in G such that [G:K] divides  $\gcd(|G|,N!)$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $K = \{e\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . [G:K] = |G|
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . |G| divides N!

**Corollary 9.55.1.** Let G be a finite simple group. Let p be a prime factor of |G|. Let  $N_p$  be the number of p-Sylow subgroups of G. Then |G| divides  $N_p!$ .

PROOF: Since  $N_p = [G:N_G(P)]$  and  $N_p > 1$  since G is simple.  $\square$ 

**Definition 9.56** (Centralizer). Let G be a group and  $A \subseteq G$ . The *centralizer* of A is

$$Z_G(A) := \{ g \in G : \forall a \in A. gag^{-1} = a \} .$$

**Proposition 9.57.** Let H and K be subgroups of G with  $H \subseteq N_G(K)$ . Then the function  $\gamma: H \to \operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbf{Grp}}(K)$  defined by conjugation

$$\gamma_h(k) = hkh^{-1}$$

is a homomorphism of groups with  $\ker \gamma = H \cap Z_G(K)$ .

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For all  $g, h \in H$  we have  $\gamma_{gh} = \gamma_g \circ \gamma_h$ . PROOF: Since  $\gamma_{gh}(k) = \gamma_g(\gamma_h(k)) = ghkh^{-1}g^{-1}$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $h \in H$  we have  $\gamma_h = \mathrm{id}_K$  iff  $h \in Z_G(K)$ .

PROOF: Both are equivalent to  $\forall k \in K.hkh^{-1} = k$ , i.e.  $\forall k \in K.hk = kh$ .

## 9.7 Nilpotent Groups

**Definition 9.58** (Nilpotent). Let G be a group. Define inductively a sequence  $(Z_n)$  of subgroups of G by  $Z_0 = \{e\}$ , and  $Z_{i+1}$  is the inverse image under  $\pi$  of the center of  $G/Z_i$ .

Then G is nilpotent iff  $Z_n = G$  for some n.

We prove this is well-defined by proving that, for all i, we have  $Z_i$  is normal in G.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: as induction hypothesis  $Z_i$  is normal in G.

PROVE:  $Z_{i+1}$  is normal in G.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x \in Z_{i+1}$  and  $g \in G$ 

PROVE:  $gxg^{-1} \in Z_{i+1}$ 

PROVE: For all  $h \in G$  we have  $gxg^{-1}hZ_i = hgxg^{-1}Z_i$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $h \in G$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $gxg^{-1}hZ_i = hgxg^{-1}Z_i$ 

Proof:

$$gxg^{-1}hZ_i = gg^{-1}hxZ_i$$
$$= hxZ_i$$
$$= hgg^{-1}xZ_i$$
$$= hgxg^{-1}Z_i$$

**Proposition 9.59.** Every Abelian group is nilpotent.

PROOF: Let G be an Abelian group. The center of  $G/Z_0$  is  $G/Z_0$ , hence  $Z_1 = G$ .

**Proposition 9.60.** Let G be a group. Then G is nilpotent if and only if G/Z(G) is nilpotent.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $(Z_n)$  be the sequence of subgroups of G where  $Z_0 = \{e\}$  and  $Z_{n+1}$  is the inverse image of the center of  $G/Z_n$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $G/Z_0 \cong G$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ Z_1 = Z(G)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . The corresponding sequence of subgroups for G/Z(G) is G/Z(G),  $Z_2/Z(G)$ ,  $Z_3/Z(G)$ , . . .
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. G is nilpotent iff G/Z(G) is nilpotent.

PROOF: Both are equivalent to  $\exists n. Z_n = g$  and to  $\exists n. Z_n / Z(G) = G / Z(G)$ .

**Proposition 9.61.** Every p-group is nilpotent.

PROOF: Each  $Z_n$  is a p-group and so has non-trivial center, hence each  $Z_{n+1}$  is larger than  $Z_n$  and so the sequence must terminate.  $\square$ 

Proposition 9.62. Every nilpotent group is solvable.

PROOF: Let  $(Z_n)$  be the defining sequence of subgroups. Then  $Z_{n+1}/Z_n = Z(G/Z_n)$  is Abelian for all n, hence the group is solvable by Proposition 8.42.

**Example 9.63.** The converse is not true —  $S_3$  is solvable but not nilpotent.

**Proposition 9.64.** Let G be a nilpotent group. Then every nontrivial normal subgroup of G intersects Z(G) non-trivially.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: H be a nontrivial normal subgroup of G.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $(Z_n)$  be the sequence of subgroups with  $Z_0 = \{e\}$  and  $Z_{n+1}$  the inverse image of  $Z(G/Z_n)$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let: r be least such that  $H \cap Z_r \neq \{e\}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Pick  $h \in H \cap Z_r$  with  $h \neq e$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ hZ_{r-1} \in Z(G/Z_{r-1})$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . For all  $g \in G$  we have  $ghZ_{r-1} = hgZ_{r-1}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . For all  $g \in G$  we have  $ghg^{-1}h^{-1} \in Z_{r-1}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 8. For all  $g \in G$  we have  $ghg^{-1}h^{-1} = e$

PROOF: Since  $ghg^{-1}h^{-1} \in H$  and  $H \cap Z_{r-1} = \{e\}$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 9$ . For all  $g \in G$  we have gh = hg
- $\langle 1 \rangle 10. \ h \in H \cap Z(G)$

# Chapter 10

# Classification of Groups

**Example 10.1.** • The only group of order 1 is the trivial group.

- The only group of order 2 is  $C_2$ .
- The only group of order 3 is  $C_3$ .
- There are two groups of order 4:  $C_4$  and  $C_2 \times C_2$ .
- The only group of order 5 is  $C_5$ .
- There are two groups of order 6:  $C_6$  and  $S_3$ .
- The only group of order 7 is  $C_7$ .
- There are two groups of order 9:  $C_9$  and  $C_3 \times C_3$ .
- There are two groups of order 10:  $C_{10}$  and  $D_{10}$ .
- The only group of order 11 is  $C_{11}$ .
- The only group of order 13 is  $C_{13}$ .
- There are two groups of order 14:  $C_{14}$  and  $D_{14}$ .
- The only group of order 15 is  $C_{15}$ .

**Proposition 10.2.** The only non-Abelian groups of order 8 are  $D_8$  and  $Q_8$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$  Let: G be a non-Abelian group of order 8.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . G has no element of order 8.

PROOF: If it does then it is  $C_8$  and hence Abelian.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . PICK an element y of order 4.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Pick an element a of order 2.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $G/\langle a \rangle$  is isomorphic to  $C_4$  or  $C_2 \times C_2$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Pick an element  $y \langle a \rangle$  of order 2 in  $G/\langle a \rangle$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ y^2 \in \langle a \rangle$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . Case:

$$y^2 = a$$

PROOF: In this case y is of order 4.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Case:

$$y^2=e$$

PROOF: In this case  $G \cong C_2^3$  which is Abelian.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . PICK  $x \notin \langle y \rangle$  such that  $x^2 = e$  or  $x^2 = y^2$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1. \ G/\langle y \rangle \cong C_2$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $x \langle y \rangle \in G/\langle y \rangle$  of order 2.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ x^2 \in \langle y \rangle$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $x^2 \neq y$  and  $x^2 \neq y^3$  $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .  $x^2 = e$  or  $x^2 = y^2$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ xy = y^3 x$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ .  $xy \neq e$

PROOF: Since  $y^{-1} = y^3 \neq x$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $xy \neq y$ 

PROOF: xy = y implies x = e.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ xy \neq y^2$ 

PROOF:  $xy = y^2$  implies x = y.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $xy \neq y^3$ 

PROOF:  $xy = y^3$  implies  $x = y^2$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .  $xy \neq x$ 

PROOF: xy = x implies y = e.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ xy \neq yx$ 

PROOF: xy = yx implies G is Abelian.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ .  $xy \neq y^2 x$ 
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $xy = y^2x$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ .  $xy^2 = x$

Proof:

$$xy^2 = y^2xy$$
$$= y^4x$$
$$= x$$

$$\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ y^2 = e$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . The multiplication table of G is one of the following.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ .  $G \cong D_8$  or  $G \cong Q_8$ .

**Proposition 10.3.** Let q be an odd prime. Then  $D_{2q}$  is the only non-Abelian group of order 2q.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: G be a non-Abelian group of order 2q.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $y \in G$  of order q.

PROOF: Cauchy's Theorem

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\langle y \rangle$  is the only subgroup of order q.

PROOF: Third Sylow Theorem

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $\langle y \rangle$  is normal.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Pick  $x \in G - \langle y \rangle - \{e\}$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . |x| = 2

PROOF: We cannot have |x|=2q since G is not cyclic, and  $|x|\neq q$  since  $\langle x\rangle$  is not the subgroup of order q.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ xyx^{-1} \in \langle y \rangle$ 

PROOF: Since  $x\langle y\rangle x^{-1} = \langle y\rangle$  by  $\langle 1\rangle 3$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . PICK r such that  $0 \le r < q$  and  $xyx^{-1} = y^r$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 9. \ y^{r^2} = y$ 

Proof:

$$y^{r^{2}} = (xyx^{-1})^{r} \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 8)$$

$$= xy^{r}x^{-1}$$

$$= x^{2}yx^{-2} \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 8)$$

$$= y \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 6)$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 10. \ q \mid (r-1)(r+1)$ 

PROOF: Since  $y^{(r-1)(r+1)} = e$  and |y| = q by  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 11$ . r = 1 or r = q - 1

PROOF: Since  $0 \le r < q$  by  $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 12. \ r \neq 1$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction r = 1.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . xy = yx

Proof:  $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . |xy| = 2q

Proof: Proposition 6.19

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . G is cyclic.

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Q.E.D.

```
PROOF: This contradicts \langle 1 \rangle 1. \langle 1 \rangle 13. x^2 = e and y^q = e and yx = xy^{q-1} \langle 1 \rangle 14. G \cong D_{2q}
```

**Corollary 10.3.1.** For q an odd prime, the only groups of order 2q are  $C_{2q}$  and  $D_{2q}$ .

**Proposition 10.4.** There is no non-Abelian simple group of order less than 60.

PROOF: We rule out the other sizes as follows:

- 1 Only group is the trivial group.
- 2 Prime therefore cyclic
- 3 Prime therefore cyclic
- 4 Corollary 9.48.1
- 5 Prime therefore cyclic
- 6 Corollary 9.51.2
- 7 Prime therefore cyclic
- 8 Corollary 9.48.1
- 9 Corollary 9.48.1
- 10 Corollary 9.51.2
- 11 Prime therefore cyclic
- 12
  - $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . There is no simple non-Abelian group of order 12.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle 1.$  Assume: for a contradiction G is a simple non-Abelian group of order 12.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . G has 4 3-Sylow subgroups.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . G has 8 elements of order 3.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . G has 3 elements of order 2 or 4.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. G has one 2-Sylow subgroup.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 6. The 2-Sylow subgroup of G is normal.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ .

- 13 Prime therefore cyclic
- 14 Corollary 9.51.2
- 15 Corollary 9.51.2

- 16 Corollary 9.48.1
- 17 Prime therefore cyclic
- 18 Corollary 9.51.2
- 19 Prime therefore cyclic
- 20 Corollary 9.51.2
- 21 Corollary 9.51.2
- 22 Corollary 9.51.2
- 23 Prime therefore cyclic
- 24
  - $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . There is no simple non-Abelian group of order 24.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle 1.$  Assume: for a contradiction G is a simple non-Abelian group of order 24.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . G has 3 2-Sylow subgroups.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\gamma: G \to S_3$  be the action of conjugation of G on the set of 2-Sylow subgroups.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $\ker \gamma \neq \{e\}$

PROOF:  $\gamma$  cannot be injective since  $|G| > |S_3|$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .  $\ker \gamma \neq G$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . ker  $\gamma$  is a proper non-trivial normal subgroup of G.
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ .

- 25 Corollary 9.48.1
- 26 Corollary 9.51.2
- 27 Corollary 9.48.1
- 28 Corollary 9.51.2
- 29 Prime therefore cyclic
- 30 Proposition 9.54
- 31 Prime therefore cyclic
- 32 Corollary 9.48.1
- 33 Corollary 9.51.2
- 34 Corollary 9.51.2
- 35 Corollary 9.51.2

- 36
  - $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . There is no simple non-Abelian group of order 36.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle 1.$  Assume: for a contradiction G is a simple non-Abelian group of order 36.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . G has 4 3-Sylow subgroups.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. Let:  $\gamma: G \to S_4$  be the action of conjugation of G on the set of 2-Sylow subgroups.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $\ker \gamma \neq \{e\}$

PROOF:  $\gamma$  cannot be injective since  $|G| > |S_4|$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . ker  $\gamma \neq G$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . ker  $\gamma$  is a proper non-trivial normal subgroup of G.
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ .

- 37 Prime therefore cyclic
- 38 Corollary 9.51.2
- 39 Corollary 9.51.2
- 40 There can be only 1 5-Sylow subgroup.
- 41 Prime therefore cyclic
- 42 Proposition 9.54
- 43 Prime therefore cyclic
- 44 Corollary 9.51.2
- 45 There can be only 1 5-Sylow subgroup.
- 46 Corollary 9.51.2
- 47 Prime therefore cyclic
- 48
  - $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . There is no simple non-Abelian group of order 48.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle 1.$  Assume: for a contradiction G is a simple non-Abelian group of order 48.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . G has 3 2-Sylow subgroups.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. Let:  $\gamma: G \to S_3$  be the action of conjugation of G on the set of 2-Sylow subgroups.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $\ker \gamma \neq \{e\}$

PROOF:  $\gamma$  cannot be injective since  $|G| > |S_3|$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. ker  $\gamma \neq G$
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 6. ker  $\gamma$  is a proper non-trivial normal subgroup of G.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ .

- 49 Corollary 9.48.1
- 50 Corollary 9.51.2
- 51 Corollary 9.51.2
- 52 Corollary 9.51.2
- 53 Prime therefore cyclic
- 54 Corollary 9.51.2
- 55 Corollary 9.51.2
- 56 Corollary 9.51.2
- 57 Corollary 9.51.2
- 58 Corollary 9.51.2
- 59 Prime therefore cyclic

**Proposition 10.5.** Every simple group of order 60 has a subgroup of index 5.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: G be a simple group of order 60.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . The number of 2-Sylow subgroups of G is either 5 or 15.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: n be the number of 2-Sylow subgroups.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . 60|n!

Proof: Corollary 9.55.1.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ n \geq 5$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $n \mid 15$

PROOF: Third Sylow Theorem

- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . n = 5 or n = 15
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Assume: w.l.o.g. G has 15 2-Sylow subgroups.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . G has 4 or 10 3-Sylow subgroups.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. G has 10 3-Sylow subgroups.

Proof: Corollary 9.55.1.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . G has exactly 6 5-Sylow subgroups.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . The number of elements of order 3 is 20.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . The number of elements of order 5 is 24.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 9$ . The number of elements of order 2 or 4 is 15.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 10$ . PICK two 2-Sylow subgroups  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  with non-trivial intersection.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 11$ . Let:  $g \in G$  be such that  $H_1 \cap H_2 = \{e, g\}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 12$ . Let:  $K = Z_G(H_1 \cap H_2)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 13$ . |K| = 12 or |K| = 20

PROOF: We have  $4 \mid |K|$  since  $H_1 \leq K$ , and  $|K| \geq 6$  since  $H_1 \cup H_2 \subseteq K$ . We also have  $|K| \mid 60$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 14. \ [G:K] \neq 3$ 

PROOF: There cannot be an embedding of G in  $S_3$ .

$$\langle 1 \rangle 15. \ [G:K] = 5$$

**Proposition 10.6.** There is no non-Abelian simple group of order between 60 and 168.

PROOF: We rule out the other sizes as follows:

- 61 prime therefore cyclic
- 62 Corollary 9.51.2
- 63 Corollary 9.51.1
- 64 Corollary 9.48.1
- 65 Corollary 9.51.2
- 66 Corollary 9.51.2
- 67 prime therefore cyclic
- 68 Corollary 9.51.2
- 69 Corollary 9.51.2
- 70 Proposition 9.54
- 71 prime therefore cyclic
- 72
  - $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . There is no simple non-Abelian group of order 72

#### Proof:

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction G is a simple non-Abelian group of order 72.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . G has 4 3-Sylow subgroups.
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. Let:  $\gamma: G \to S_4$  be the action of conjugation on the set of 3-Sylow subgroups.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $\ker \gamma \neq 1$

PROOF: Since  $|G| > |S_4|$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. ker  $\gamma$  is a non-trivial proper subgroup of G.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This is a contradiction.

- 73 prime therefore cyclic
- 74 Corollary 9.51.2
- 75 Corollary 9.51.2
- 76 Corollary 9.51.2

- 77 Corollary 9.51.2
- 78 Corollary 9.51.2
- 79 prime therefore cyclic
- 80
  - $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . There is no simple non-Abelian group of order 80.

#### PROOF

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1.$  Assume: for a contradiction G is a simple non-Abelian group of order 80.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . G has 5 2-Sylow subgroups.
- $\langle 2\rangle 3.$  Let:  $\gamma:G\to S_5$  be the action of conjugation on the set of 2-Sylow subgroups.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $\ker \gamma \neq 1$

PROOF: Otherwise im  $\gamma$  would be a subgroup of  $S_5$  of order 80, contradicting Lagrange's Theorem.

- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. ker  $\gamma$  is a non-trivial normal subgroup of G.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This is a contradiction.

- 81 Corollary 9.48.1
- $\bullet~82$  Corollary 9.51.2
- 83 prime therefore cyclic
- 84 Corollary 9.51.1
- 85 Corollary 9.51.2
- 86 Corollary 9.51.2
- $\bullet~87$  Corollary 9.51.2
- 88 Corollary 9.51.2
- 89 prime therefore cyclic
- 90 Corollary 9.51.1
- 91 Corollary 9.51.2
- 92 Corollary 9.51.2
- $\bullet$  93 Corollary 9.51.2
- 94 Corollary 9.51.2
- 95 Corollary 9.51.2

- 96 There are 3 2-Sylow subgroups. The kernel of the action of conjugation  $G \to S_3$  is a non-trivial normal subgroup of G.
- 97 prime therefore cyclic
- 98 Corollary 9.51.2
- 99 Corollary 9.51.2
- 100 Corollary 9.51.2
- 101 prime therefore cyclic
- 102 Proposition 9.54
- 103 prime therefore cyclic
- 104 Corollary 9.51.2
- 105 Proposition 9.54
- 106 Corollary 9.51.2
- 107 prime therefore cyclic
- 108 There are 4 3-Sylow subgroups. The kernel of the action of conjugation  $G \to S_4$  is a non-trivial normal subgroup of G.
- 109 prime therefore cyclic
- 110 Proposition 9.54
- 111 Corollary 9.51.2
- 112
  - $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . There is no simple non-Abelian group of order 112.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction G is a simple non-Abelian group of order 112.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . G has exactly 7 2-Sylow subgroups.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. Let:  $\gamma: G \to A_7$  be the action of conjugation of G on the set of 2-Sylow subgroups.

PROOF:  $\gamma(g)$  is always an even permutation since G has no subgroup of index 2.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $\ker \gamma \neq 1$ 

PROOF: Since |G| does not divide  $|A_7| = 7!/2$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. ker  $\gamma$  is a non-trivial normal subgroup of G.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Q.E.D.
- 113 prime therefore cyclic
- 114 Proposition 9.54

- 115 Corollary 9.51.2
- 116 Corollary 9.51.2
- 117 Corollary 9.51.2
- 118 Corollary 9.51.2
- 119 Corollary 9.51.2
- 120
  - $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . There is no simple non-Abelian group of order 120.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1.$  Assume: for a contradiction G is a simple non-Abelian group of order 120.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . There are exactly 6 5-Sylow subgroups.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\gamma: G \to A_6$  be the action of conjugation on the set of 5-Sylow subgroups.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . im  $\gamma$  is a subgroup of  $A_6$  of order 120.
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This is a contradiction by inspection of the list of subgroups of  $A_6$ .

- 121 Corollary 9.48.1
- 122 Corollary 9.51.2
- 123 Corollary 9.51.2
- 124 Corollary 9.51.2
- 125 Corollary 9.48.1
- 126 Corollary 9.51.1
- 127 prime therefore cyclic
- 128 Corollary 9.48.1
- 129 Corollary 9.51.2
- 130 Proposition 9.54
- 131 prime therefore cyclic
- 132
  - $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. There is no simple non-Abelian group of order 132.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle 1.$  Assume: for a contradiction G is a simple non-Abelian group of order 132.
    - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . There are at least 4 3-Sylow subgroups.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . There are at least 8 elements of order 3.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . There are exactly 12 11-Sylow subgroups.
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. There are exactly 120 elements of order 11.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . There are exactly 3 elements of order 2.
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. There is a unique 2-Sylow subgroups.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 8$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This is a contradiction.

- 133 Corollary 9.51.2
- 134 Corollary 9.51.2
- 135 Corollary 9.51.1
- 136 Corollary 9.51.2
- 137 prime therefore cyclic
- 138 Proposition 9.54
- 139 prime therefore cyclic
- 140 Corollary 9.51.1
- 141 Corollary 9.51.2
- 142 Corollary 9.51.2
- 143 Corollary 9.51.2
- 144 Burnside's Theorem
- 145 Burnside's Theorem
- 146 Burnside's Theorem
- 147 Burnside's Theorem
- 148 Burnside's Theorem
- 149 prime therefore cyclic
- 150 There are exactly 6 5-Sylow subgroups. The kernel of the action of conjugation G → A<sub>5</sub> is a non-trivial normal subgroup since 150 does not divide |A<sub>5</sub>| = 60.
- 151 prime therefore cyclic
- 152 Burnside's Theorem
- 153 Burnside's Theorem
- 154 Proposition 9.54

- $\bullet~155$  Burnside's Theorem
- 156 Corollary 9.51.2
- 157 prime therefore cyclic
- $\bullet~158$  Burnside's Theorem
- 159 Burnside's Theorem
- $\bullet~160$  Burnside's Theorem
- 161 Burnside's Theorem
- 162 Burnside's Theorem
- 163 prime therefore cyclic
- 164 Burnside's Theorem
- $\bullet$  165 Proposition 9.54
- $\bullet~166$  Burnside's Theorem
- $\bullet~167$  prime therefore cyclic

# Part III Ring Theory

# Rngs

**Definition 11.1** (Ring). A rng consists of a set R and binary operations  $+, \cdot : R^2 \to R$  such that:

- (R, +) is an Abelian group
- $\bullet$  · is associative.
- The distributive properties hold: for all  $r, s, t \in R$  we have

$$(r+s)t = rt + st,$$
  $r(s+t) = rs + rt.$ 

**Example 11.2.** • The zero rng is  $\{0\}$ .

- $\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{C}$  are rngs.
- $2\mathbb{Z}$  is a rng.
- Given a rng R and natural number n, then the set  $\mathfrak{gl}_n(R)$  of all  $n \times n$  matrices with entries in R is a rng under matrix addition and matrix multiplication.
- For any set S, the power set  $\mathcal{P}S$  is a rng under  $A+B=(A\cup B)-(A\cap B)$  and  $AB=A\cap B$ .
- Given a rng R and a set S, then  $R^S$  is a rng under (f+g)(s)=f(s)+g(s) and (fg)(s)=f(s)g(s) for all  $f,g\in R^S$  and  $s\in S$ .
- The set  $\mathfrak{sl}_n(\mathbb{R}) = \{ M \in \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{R}) : \operatorname{tr} M = 0 \}$  is a rng.
- The set  $\mathfrak{sl}_n(\mathbb{C}) = \{ M \in \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{C}) : \operatorname{tr} M = 0 \}$  is a rng.
- $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  is a rng.

• The ring  $\mathbb{H}$  of quaternions is  $\mathbb{R}^4$  under the following operations, where we write (a, b, c, d) as a + bi + cj + dk:

$$(a+bi+cj+dk) + (a'+b'i+c'j+d'k) = (a+a') + (b+b')i$$

$$+ (c+c')j + (d+d')k$$

$$(a+bi+cj+dk)(a'+b'i+c'j+d'k) = (aa'-bb'-cc'-dd')$$

$$+ (ab'+ba'+cd'-dc')i$$

$$+ (ac'-bd'+ca'+db')j$$

$$+ (ad'+bc'-cb'+da')k$$

• For any Abelian group G, the set  $\operatorname{End}_{\mathbf{Ab}}(G)$  is a ring under pointwise addition and composition.

**Proposition 11.3.** In any rng R we have

$$\forall x \in R.x0 = 0x = 0$$
.

Proof:

$$x0 = x(0+0)$$
$$= x0 + x0$$

and so x0 = 0 by Cancellation. Similarly 0x = 0.  $\square$ 

**Definition 11.4** (Zero Divisor). Let R be a rng and  $a \in R$ .

Then a is a left-zero-divisor iff there exists  $b \in R - \{0\}$  such that ab = 0. The element a is a right-zero-divisor iff there exists  $b \in R - \{0\}$  such that

The element a is a right-zero-divisor iff there exists  $b \in R - \{0\}$  such that ba = 0.

**Example 11.5.** 0 is a left- and right-zero-divisor in every non-zero rng. The zero rng is the only ring with no zero-divisors.

**Proposition 11.6.** Let R be a rng and  $a \in R$ . Then a is not a left-zero-divisor if and only if left multiplication by a is an injective function  $R \to R$ .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If a is not a left-zero-divisor then left multiplication by a is injective.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: a is not a left-zero-divisor.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: ab = ac
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . a(b-c)=0
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . b-c=0
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5.$  b = c
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If a is a left-zero-divisor then left multiplication by a is not injective.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Pick  $b \neq 0$  such that ab = 0.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . ab = a0 but  $b \neq 0$

### 11.1 Commutative Rngs

**Definition 11.7** (Commutative). A rng R is commutative iff  $\forall x, y \in R.xy = yx$ .

**Example 11.8.** • The zero rng is commutative.

- $\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{C}$  are commutative.
- $2\mathbb{Z}$  is commutative.
- $\mathfrak{gl}_2(\mathbb{R})$  is not commutative.
- For any set S, the rng  $\mathcal{P}S$  is commutative.
- If R is commutative then  $R^S$  is commutative.

### 11.2 Rng Homomorphisms

**Definition 11.9.** Let R and S be rngs. A rng homomorphism  $\phi: R \to S$  is a function such that, for all  $x, y \in R$ , we have

$$\phi(x+y) = \phi(x) + \phi(y)$$
$$\phi(xy) = \phi(x)\phi(y)$$

Let **Rng** be the category of rngs and rng homomorphisms.

## 11.3 Quaternions

**Definition 11.10** (Norm). The *norm* of a quaternion is defined by

$$N(a+bi+cj+dk) = a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2$$
.

# Rings

**Definition 12.1** (Ring). A ring R is a rng such that there exists  $1 \in R$ , the multiplicative identity, such that

$$\forall x \in R.x1 = 1x = x$$
.

**Example 12.2.** • The zero rng is a ring with 1 = 0.

- $\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{C}$  are rngs.
- $2\mathbb{Z}$  is not a ring.
- If R is a ring then  $\mathfrak{gl}_n(R)$  is a ring.
- For any set S, the rng PS is a ring with 1 = S.
- If R is a ring then  $R^S$  is a ring.
- $\mathfrak{sl}_n(\mathbb{R})$  is not a ring for n > 0.
- $\mathfrak{sl}_n(\mathbb{C})$  is not a ring for n > 0.
- $\mathfrak{so}_n(\mathbb{R}) = \{ M \in \mathfrak{sl}_n(\mathbb{R}) : M + M^T = 0 \}$  is not a ring.
- $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  is a ring.

**Proposition 12.3.** In any ring R, if 0 = 1 then R is the zero ring.

PROOF: For any  $x \in R$  we have x = 1x = 0x = 0.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 12.4.** In any ring we have (-1)x = -x.

PROOF: Since

$$x + (-1)x = 1x + (-1)x$$
  
=  $(1 + (-1))x$   
=  $0x$   
=  $0$ 

### 12.1 Units

**Definition 12.5** (Left-Unit, Right-Unit). Let R be a ring and  $a \in R$ . Then a is a *left-unit* iff there exists  $b \in R$  such that ab = 1. The element a is a *right-unit* iff there exists  $b \in R$  such that ba = 1.

An element is a *unit* iff it is a left-unit and a right-unit.

**Proposition 12.6.** Let R be a ring and  $a \in R$ . Then a is a left-unit iff left multiplication by a is a surjective function  $R \to R$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If a is a left-unit then left multiplication by a is surjective.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Pick  $b \in R$  such that ab = 1.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For all  $c \in R$  we have c = a(bc).
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2.$  If left multiplication by a is surjective then a is a left-unit.

PROOF: Immediate.

**Proposition 12.7.** Let R be a ring and  $a \in R$ . Then a is a right-unit iff right multiplication by a is a surjective function  $R \to R$ .

Proof: Similar.

Proposition 12.8. No left-unit is a right-zero-divisor.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction ab = 1 and ca = 0 where  $c \neq 0$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2.$  c=0

PROOF:

$$0 = 0b$$

$$= cab$$

$$= c1$$

$$= c$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This is a contradiction.

**Proposition 12.9.** No right-unit is a left-zero-divisor.

Proof: Similar.

**Proposition 12.10.** The inverse of a unit is unique.

PROOF: If ba = 1 and ac = 1 then b = bac = c.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 12.11.** The units of a ring form a group under multiplication.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If a and b are units then ab is a unit.

PROOF: We have  $b^{-1}a^{-1}ab = 1$  and  $abb^{-1}a^{-1} = 1$ .

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```
\langle 1 \rangle 2. 1 is a unit.

PROOF: Since 1 \cdot 1 = 1.

\langle 1 \rangle 3. If a is a unit then its inverse is a unit.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.
```

**Definition 12.12** (Group of Units). For any ring R, we write  $R^*$  for the group of the units of R under multiplication.

**Example 12.13.** The quaternionic group is a subgroup of  $\mathbb{H}^*$ .

**Example 12.14.** The norm is a group homomorphism  $\mathbb{H}^* \to \mathbb{R}^+$  where  $\mathbb{R}^+$  is the group of positive real numbers under multiplication with kernel isomorphic to  $\mathrm{SU}_2(\mathbb{C})$ . The isomorphism maps a quaternion a+bi+cj+dk to  $\begin{pmatrix} a+bi & c+di \\ -c+di & a-bi \end{pmatrix}$ .

**Theorem 12.15** (Fermat's Little Theorem). Let p be a prime number and a any integer. Then  $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$ .

PROOF: If  $p \mid a$  then  $a^p \equiv a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . Otherwise, we have  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  by applying Lagrange's Theorem to  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$ .  $\square$ 

**Example 12.16.** It is not true that, if  $n \mid |G|$ , then G has a subgroup of order n. The group  $A_4$  has order 12 but no subgroup of order 6.

**Proposition 12.17.** If p is prime then  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$  is cyclic.

```
Proof:
```

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: g be an element of maximal order in  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $h \in (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$  we have  $h^{|g|} = 1$ .

Proof: Proposition 8.10.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . There are at most |g| elements x such that  $x^{|g|} = 1$  in  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $p-1 \leq |g|$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . |g| = p 1
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . g generates  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$ .

**Example 12.18.**  $(\mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z})^*$  is not cyclic. Its elements are 1, 5, 7 and 11 with orders 1, 2, 2 and 2.

**Theorem 12.19** (Wilson's Theorem). A positive integer p is prime if and only if  $(p-1)! \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If p is prime then  $(p-1)! \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: p is prime.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . (p-1)! is the product of all the elements of  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . The only element of  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$  with order 2 is -1.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$

Proof: Proposition 6.20.

```
⟨1⟩2. If (p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p} then p is prime. ⟨2⟩1. Assume: ( (p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}) ⟨2⟩2. Let: d be a proper divisor of p. Prove: d=1 ⟨2⟩3. d \mid (p-1)! ⟨2⟩4. d \mid 1 Proof: Since d \mid p \mid (p-1)! + 1. ⟨2⟩5. d=1
```

**Proposition 12.20.** If p and q are distinct odd primes then  $(\mathbb{Z}/pq\mathbb{Z})^*$  is not cyclic.

```
Proof:
```

```
 \begin{array}{ll} \langle 1 \rangle 1. \ | (\mathbb{Z}/pq\mathbb{Z})^* | = (p-1)(q-1) \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \text{Let:} \ g \in (\mathbb{Z}/pq\mathbb{Z})^* \\ & \text{Prove:} \ g \ \text{does not have order} \ (p-1)(q-1) \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. \ g^{(p-1)(q-1)/2} \equiv 1 (\bmod p) \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. \ g^{(p-1)(q-1)/2} \equiv 1 (\bmod q) \\ \langle 1 \rangle 5. \ pq \mid g^{(p-1)(q-1)/2} - 1 \\ \langle 1 \rangle 6. \ g^{(p-1)(q-1)/2} \equiv 1 (\bmod pq) \\ \langle 1 \rangle 7. \ |g| \mid (p-1)(q-1)/2 \\ \square \end{array}
```

**Proposition 12.21.** For any prime p, we have  $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbf{Grp}}(C_p) \cong C_{p-1}$ .

```
Proof:
```

```
\begin{split} &\langle 1 \rangle 1. \text{ Let: } \phi: \operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbf{Grp}}(C_p) \to (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^* \text{ be the function } \phi(\alpha) = \alpha(1). \\ &\operatorname{PROOF: } \alpha(1) \text{ has order } p \text{ in } C_p \text{ and so is coprime with } p. \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \phi \text{ is a homomorphism.} \\ &\operatorname{PROOF: } \phi(\alpha \circ \beta) = \alpha(\beta(1)) = \alpha(\beta(1)1) = \beta(1)\alpha(1) = \phi(\alpha)\phi(\beta) \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \phi \text{ is injective.} \\ &\operatorname{PROOF: } \operatorname{If } \phi(\alpha) = \phi(\beta) \text{ then for any } n \text{ we have } \alpha(n) = n\alpha(1) = n\phi(\alpha) = n\phi(\beta) = n\beta(1) = \beta(n). \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \phi \text{ is surjective.} \\ &\operatorname{PROOF: } \operatorname{For any } r \in (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^* \text{ we have } r = \phi(\alpha) \text{ where } \alpha(n) = nr \operatorname{mod} p. \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^* \cong C_{p-1} \end{split}
```

### 12.2 Euler's $\phi$ -function

**Proposition 12.22.** For n a positive integer, we have  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^* = \{m \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} : \gcd(m,n)=1\}.$ 

Proof:

$$m \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^* \Leftrightarrow \exists a.am \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$
  
 $\Leftrightarrow \exists a, b.am + bn = 1$   
 $\Leftrightarrow \gcd(m, n) = 1$ 

**Definition 12.23** (Euler's Totient Function). For n a positive integer, let  $\phi(n) = |(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*|$ .

**Proposition 12.24.** If n is an odd positive integer then  $\phi(2n) = \phi(n)$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: n be an odd positive integer.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. For any integer m, if gcd(m, n) = 1 then gcd(2m + n, 2n) = 1PROOF: For p a prime, if  $p \mid 2m + n$  and  $p \mid 2n$  then  $p \neq 2$  (since 2m + n is odd) so  $p \mid n$  and hence  $p \mid m$ , which is a contradiction.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For any integer r, if  $\gcd(r,2n)=1$  then  $\gcd(\frac{r+n}{2},n)=1$

PROOF: If  $p \mid n$  and  $p \mid \frac{r+n}{2}$  then  $p \mid r+n$  so  $p \mid r$  which is a contradiction.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . The function that maps m to 2m+n is a bijection between  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$  and  $(\mathbb{Z}/2n\mathbb{Z})^*$ .

**Theorem 12.25.** For any positive integer n we have

$$\sum_{m>0,m|n}\phi(m)=n .$$

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Define  $\chi : \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\} \to \{(m, d) : m > 0, m \mid n, d \text{ generates } \langle n/m \rangle \}$  by:  $\chi(x) = (\gcd(x, n), x)$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\chi$  is injective.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\chi$  is surjective.

PROOF: Given (m, d) such that d generates  $\langle n/m \rangle$  we have  $\chi(d) = (m, d)$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $n = \sum_{m>0, m|n} \phi(m)$ 

PROOF: Since  $\langle n/m \rangle \cong C_m$  and so has  $\phi(m)$  generators.

**Proposition 12.26.** For any positive integers a and n, we have  $n \mid \phi(a^n - 1)$ .

PROOF: Since the order of a is n in  $(\mathbb{Z}/(a^n-1)\mathbb{Z})^*$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 12.27** (Euler's Theorem). For any coprime integers a and n we have  $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv a \pmod{n}$ .

PROOF: Immediate from Lagrange's Theorem.

Proposition 12.28.

$$|\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbf{Grp}}(C_n)| = \phi(n)$$

PROOF: An automorphism  $\alpha$  is determined by  $\alpha(1)$  which is any element of order n, and g has order n iff  $\gcd(g,n)=1$ .  $\square$ 

Example 12.29.

$$\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbf{Grp}}(\mathbb{Z}) \cong C_2$$

PROOF: The only automorphisms are the identity and multiplication by -1.  $\Box$ 

### 12.3 Nilpotent Elements

**Definition 12.30** (Nilpotent). Let R be a ring and  $a \in R$ . Then a is nilpotent iff there exists n such that  $a^n = 0$ .

**Proposition 12.31.** Let R be a ring and  $a, b \in R$ . If a and b are nilpotent and ab = ba then a + b is nilpotent.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . PICK m and n such that  $a^m = b^n = 0$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $(a+b)^{m+n} = 0$ 

PROOF: Since  $(a+b)^{m+n} = \sum_{k} \binom{m+n}{k} a^k b^{m+n-k}$  and every term in this sum is 0 since, for every k, either  $k \ge m$  or  $m+n-k \ge n$ .

**Proposition 12.32.** m is nilpotent in  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  if and only if m is divisible by all the prime factors of n.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If m is nilpotent then m is divisible by all the prime factors of n.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $m^a \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For every prime p, if  $p \mid n$  then  $p \mid m^a$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . For every prime p, if  $p \mid n$  then  $p \mid m$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If m is divisible by all the prime factors of n then m is nilpotent in  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: m is divisible by all the prime factors of n.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: a be the largest number such that  $p^a \mid n$  for some prime p.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . For every prime p that divides n we have  $p^a \mid m^a$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $n \mid m^a$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .  $m^a \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . m is nilpotent in  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ .

# Ring Homomorphisms

**Definition 13.1** (Ring Homomorphism). Let R and S be rings. A *ring homomorphism*  $\phi: R \to S$  is a rng homomorphism such that  $\phi(1) = 1$ .

Proposition 13.2. The zero-ring is terminal in Ring.

Proof: Easy.

Proposition 13.3. The ring  $\mathbb{Z}$  is initial in Ring.

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 13.4.** Let R and S be rings and  $\phi: R \to S$  be a rng homomorphism. If  $\phi$  is surjective, then  $\phi$  is a ring homomorphism.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Pick  $a \in R$  such that  $\phi(a) = 1$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \phi(1) = 1$$

Proof:

$$\phi(1) = \phi(1)\phi(a)$$

$$= \phi(1a)$$

$$= \phi(a)$$

$$= 1$$

П

**Example 13.5.** For any set S we have  $\mathcal{P}S\cong (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^S$  in **Ring** with the isomorphism

$$\phi: \mathcal{P}S \cong (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^S$$

$$\phi(A)(s) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } s \in A \\ 0 & \text{if } s \notin A \end{cases}$$

**Example 13.6.** The function  $\mathbb{H} \to \mathfrak{gl}_4(\mathbb{R})$  that maps a + bi + cj + dk to

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

is a monomorphism in **Ring**, as is the function  $\mathbb{H} \to \mathfrak{sl}_2(\mathbb{C})$  that maps a + bi + cj + dk to

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a+bi & c+di \\
-c+di & a-bi
\end{array}\right) .$$

**Proposition 13.7.** Ring homomorphisms preserve units.

PROOF: If uv = 1 then  $\phi(u)\phi(v) = 1$ .

**Proposition 13.8.** Let  $\phi: R \to S$  be a ring homomorphism. Then the following are equivalent.

- 1.  $\phi$  is a monomorphism.
- 2.  $\ker \phi = \{0\}$
- 3.  $\phi$  is injective.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 1 \Rightarrow 2$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $\phi$  is a monomorphism.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $r \in \ker \phi$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\operatorname{ev}_r : \mathbb{Z}[x] \to R$  be the unique ring homomorphism such that  $\operatorname{ev}_r(x) = r$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 4. Let: ev<sub>0</sub> :  $\mathbb{Z}[x] \to R$  be the unique ring homomorphism such that ev<sub>0</sub>(x) = 0.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ \phi \circ \text{ev}_r = \phi \circ \text{ev}_0$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ .  $ev_r = ev_0$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ r = 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ 2 \Rightarrow 3$

Proof: Proposition 7.20.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 3 \Rightarrow 1$ 

Proof: Easy.

П

**Example 13.9.** It is not true that every epimorphism in **Ring** is surjective. The inclusion  $\mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Q}$  is an epimorphism but not surjective.

The same example shows that a ring homomorphism may be a monomorphism and an epimorphism but not be an isomorphism.

#### Example 13.10.

$$\operatorname{End}_{\mathbf{Ab}}\left(\mathbb{Z}\right)\cong\mathbb{Z}$$

The isomorphism maps any group endomorphism  $\phi : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$  to  $\phi(1)$ .

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**Example 13.11.** The group of units of  $\mathrm{End}_{\mathbf{Ab}}\left(G\right)$  is  $\mathrm{Aut}_{\mathbf{Ab}}\left(G\right).$ 

**Example 13.12.** Let R be a ring. Then the function  $\lambda:R\to\operatorname{End}_{\mathbf{Ab}}(R)$  defined by

$$\lambda(a)(b) = ab$$

is a ring monomorphism.

Proof: Easy.

### 13.1 Products

**Proposition 13.13.** Let R and S be rings. Then  $R \times S$  is a ring under componentwise addition and multiplication, and this ring is the product of R and S in Ring.

Proof: Easy.

# Subrings

**Definition 14.1** (Subring). Let S be a ring. A *subring* of S is a ring R such that R is a subset of S and the inclusion  $R \hookrightarrow S$  is a ring homomorphism.

**Proposition 14.2.** Let R and S be rings. Then R is a subring of S if and only if R is a subset of S, the unit 1 of S is an element of R, and the operations of R are the restrictions of the operations of S to R.

Proof: Easy.

Corollary 14.2.1. The zero ring is not a subring of any non-zero ring.

**Proposition 14.3.** Let  $\phi: R \to S$  be a ring homomorphism. Then  $\phi(R)$  is a subring of S.

Proof: Easy.

### 14.1 Centralizer

**Definition 14.4** (Centralizer). Let R be a ring and  $a \in R$ . The *centralizer* of a is  $\{r \in R : ar = ra\}$ .

**Proposition 14.5.** The centralizer of a is a subring of R.

Proof: Easy.

#### 14.2 Center

**Definition 14.6** (Center). The *center* of a ring R is  $\{x \in R : \forall y \in R.xy = yx\}$ .

**Proposition 14.7.** The center of a ring is a subring.

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 14.8.** Let R be a ring. The center of  $\operatorname{End}_{\mathbf{Ab}}(R)$  is isomorphic to the center of R.

```
Proof:
```

**Corollary 14.8.1.** If R is a commutative ring then R is isomorphic to the center of  $\operatorname{End}_{\mathbf{Ab}}(R)$ .

**Example 14.9.** For n a positive integer we have  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \cong \operatorname{End}_{\mathbf{Ab}}(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})$ . Since, for any  $\phi \in \operatorname{End}_{\mathbf{Ab}}(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})$  we have  $\phi(m) = m\phi(1)$  and so the whole of  $\operatorname{End}_{\mathbf{Ab}}(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})$  is the image of  $\lambda$ .

# Monoid Rings

**Definition 15.1** (Monoid Ring). Let R be a ring and M a monoid. Define R[M] to be the ring whose elements are the families  $\{a_m\}_{m\in M}$  such that  $a_m=0$  for all but finitely many  $m\in M$ , written

$$\sum_{m \in M} a_m m ,$$

under

$$\sum_{m} a_m m + \sum_{m} b_m m = \sum_{m} (a_m + b_m) m$$

$$\left(\sum_{m} a_m m\right) \left(\sum_{m} b_m m\right) = \sum_{m \in M} \sum_{m_1 m_2 = m} a_{m_1} b_{m_2} m$$

**Example 15.2.** Ring homomorphisms do not necessarily preserve zero-divisors. The canonical homomorphism  $\pi: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$  maps the non-zero-divisor 2 to a zero-divisor.

## 15.1 Polynomials

**Definition 15.3** (Polynomial). Let R be a ring. The ring of polynomials R[x] is  $R[\mathbb{N}]$ . We write

$$\sum_{n} a_n x^n \text{ for } \sum_{n} a_n n .$$

Concretely, a polynomial in R is a sequence  $(a_n)$  in R such that there exists N such that  $\forall n \geq N.a_n = 0$ . We write the polynomial as

$$\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} a_n x^n = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots + a_{N-1} x^{N-1} .$$

We write R[x] for the set of all polynomials in R.

Define addition and multiplication on R[x] by

$$\sum_{n} a_n x^n + \sum_{n} b_n x^n = \sum_{n} (a_n + b_n) x^n$$
$$\left(\sum_{n} a_n x^n\right) \left(\sum_{n} b_n x^n\right) = \sum_{n} \sum_{i+j=n} a_i b_j x^n$$

A constant is a polynomial of the form  $a + 0x + 0x^2 + \cdots$  for some  $a \in R$ . We write  $R[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  for  $R[x_1][x_2] \cdots [x_n]$ .

**Proposition 15.4.** For any ring R, the set of polynomials R[x] is a ring.

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Definition 15.5** (Degree). The *degree* of a polynomial  $\sum_n a_n x^n$  is the largest integer d such that  $a_d \neq 0$ . We take the degree of the zero polynomial to be  $-\infty$ .

**Proposition 15.6.** Let R be a ring and  $f,g \in R[x]$  be nonzero polynomials. Then

$$deg(f+g) \le max(deg f, deg g)$$
.

PROOF: If  $a_n + b_n \neq 0$  then  $a_n \neq 0$  or  $b_n \neq 0$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 15.7.** The function  $i: n \to \mathbb{Z}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  that maps k to  $x_k$  is initial in the category with:

- objects all pairs  $j: n \to R$  where R is a commutative ring and j a function
- morphisms  $\phi:(j_1,R_1)\to (j_2,R_2)$  are ring homomorphisms  $\phi:R_1\to R_2$  such that  $\phi\circ j_1=j_2$ .

PROOF: The unique morphism  $(i, \mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_n]) \to (j, R)$  maps a polynomial p to  $p(j(0), j(1), \dots, j(n-1))$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 15.8.** Let  $\alpha: R \to S$  be a ring homomorphism. Let  $s \in S$  commute with  $\alpha(r)$  for all  $r \in R$ . Then there exists a unique ring homomorphism  $\overline{\alpha}: R[x] \to S$  such that  $\overline{\alpha}(x) = s$  and the following diagram commutes:

PROOF: The map  $\overline{\alpha}$  is given by  $\overline{\alpha}(a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n) = \alpha(a_0) + \alpha(a_1)s + \alpha(a_2)s^2 + \dots + \alpha(a_n)s^n.$ 

**Definition 15.9.** Let R be a commutative ring. Given a polynomial  $p \in R[x]$ , the polynomial function  $p: R \to R$  is the function given by:  $p(r) = \alpha_r(p)$ , where  $\alpha_r: R[x] \to R$  is the unique ring homomorphism such that the following diagram commutes.

$$R[x] \xrightarrow{\alpha_r} R$$

$$x \uparrow \qquad r \downarrow$$

**Proposition 15.10.**  $\mathbb{Z}[x,y]$  is the coproduct of  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  and  $\mathbb{Z}[y]$  in the category of commutative rings.

PROOF: Given ring homomorphisms  $f: \mathbb{Z}[x] \to R$  and  $g: \mathbb{Z}[y] \to R$ , the required morphism  $\mathbb{Z}[x,y] \to R$  maps p(x,y) to p(f(x),g(y)).  $\sqcup$ 

**Example 15.11.**  $\mathbb{Z}[x,y]$  is not the coproduct of  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  and  $\mathbb{Z}[y]$  in Ring. Given  $f: \mathbb{Z}[x] \to R$  and  $g: \mathbb{Z}[y] \to R$  with  $f(x) \neq g(y)$ , the mediating morphism  $\mathbb{Z}[x,y] \to R$  cannot exist since it must map xy to both f(x)g(y) and g(y)f(x).

**Definition 15.12.** A polynomial is *monic* iff its last non-zero coefficient is 1.

**Proposition 15.13.** A monic polynomial is not a left- or right-zero-divisor.

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 15.14.** Let R be a ring. Let  $f, g \in R[x]$  with f monic. Then there exist unique polynomials  $q, r \in R[x]$  with deg  $r < \deg f$  such that

$$g = qf + r$$
.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $d = \deg f$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $a \in R$  and n > d, there exists  $h \in R[x]$  with  $\deg h < n$  such that  $ax^n = ax^{n-d}f + h$  .

PROOF: Take  $h = ax^n - ax^{n-d}f$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For all  $a \in R$  and n > d, there exists  $q, h \in R[x]$  with deg  $h \leq d$  such that  $ax^n = qf + h$ .

PROOF: Repeating  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$  by induction.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $g = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i x^i$   $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . For i > d, Pick  $q_i h_i \in R[x]$  with  $\deg h < \deg f$  such that  $a_i x^i = q_i f + h_i$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6.$   $g = \left(\sum_{i=d+1}^{n} q_i\right) f + \sum_{i=d+1}^{n} h_i$  $\langle 1 \rangle 7.$  q and r are unique.

PROOF: If  $q_1f + r_1 = q_2f + r_2$  then  $r_1 - r_2 = (q_2 - q_1)f$  and so  $r_1 - r_2 =$  $(q_2 - q_1)f = 0$  since  $\deg(r_1 - r_2) < \deg f$ .

#### Laurent Polynomials 15.2

**Definition 15.15** (Laurent Polynomial). Let R be a ring. The ring of Laurent polynomials is the group ring  $R[\mathbb{Z}]$ . We write  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{Z}} a_n x^n$  for  $\sum_n a_n n$ .

#### 15.3 Power Series

**Definition 15.16** (Power Series). Let R be a ring. A power series in R is a sequence  $(a_n)$  in R. We write the power series as

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \cdots .$$

We write R[[x]] for the set of all power series in R. Define addition and multiplication on R[[x]] by

$$\sum_{n} a_n x^n + \sum_{n} b_n x^n = \sum_{n} (a_n + b_n) x^n$$
$$\left(\sum_{n} a_n x^n\right) \left(\sum_{n} b_n x^n\right) = \sum_{n} \sum_{i+j=n} a_i b_j x^n$$

**Proposition 15.17.** For any ring R, the set of power series R[[x]] is a ring.

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 15.18.** A power series  $\sum_n a_n x^n$  is a unit in R[[x]] if and only if  $a_0$  is a unit in R.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If  $\sum_n a_n x^n$  is a unit then  $a_0$  is a unit.  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\sum_n b_n x^n$  be the inverse of  $\sum_n a_n x^n$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $a_0 b_0 = b_0 a_0 = 1$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If  $a_0$  is a unit then  $\sum_n a_n x^n$  is a unit. PROOF: Define the sequence  $(b_n)$  in R by

$$b_n = -a_0^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_{n-i}$$

 $b_n = -{a_0}^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_{n-i}$  Then  $\sum_n b_n x^n$  is the inverse of  $\sum_n a_n x^n$ .

## **Ideals**

**Definition 16.1** (Left-Ideal). Let R be a ring.

A subgroup I of R is a *left-ideal* iff, for all  $r \in R$ , we have  $rI \subseteq I$ .

A subgroup I of R is a right-ideal iff, for all  $r \in R$ , we have  $Ir \subseteq I$ .

A subgroup I of R is a (two-sided) ideal iff it is a left-ideal and a right-ideal.

**Example 16.2.** Let R be a ring and  $a \in R$ . Then Ra is a left-ideal and aR is a right-ideal.

In particular, {0} is always a two-sided ideal.

**Example 16.3.** Let S be a set and  $T \subseteq S$ . Then  $\{X \in \mathcal{P}S : X \subseteq T\}$  is an ideal in  $\mathcal{P}S$ .

**Proposition 16.4.** Let S be a finite set. Then every ideal in  $\mathcal{P}S$  is of the form  $\{X \in \mathcal{P}S : X \subseteq T\}$  for some  $T \subseteq S$ .

#### Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: I be an ideal in \mathcal{P}S.
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $T = \bigcup I$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For all  $i \in T$  we have  $\{i\} \in I$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $i \in T$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $X \in I$  such that  $i \in X$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \{i\} = \{i\} \cap X \in I$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For all  $X \subseteq T$  we have  $X \in I$ .

PROOF: If  $X = \{x_1, ..., x_n\}$  then  $X = \{x_1\} + \cdots + \{x_n\} \in I$ .

**Example 16.5.** If S is an infinite set, then there is always an ideal in  $\mathcal{P}S$  that is not of the form  $\{X \in \mathcal{P}S : X \subseteq T\}$  for some  $T \subseteq S$ , namely the set of all finite subsets of S.

**Proposition 16.6.** Let  $\phi: R \twoheadrightarrow S$  be a surjective ring homomorphism. Let J be an ideal in R. Then  $\phi(J)$  is an ideal in S.

Proof:

- $\begin{array}{ll} \langle 1 \rangle 1. & \text{Let: } j \in J \text{ and } s \in S \\ & \text{Prove: } s\phi(j), \phi(j)s \in \phi(J) \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. & \text{Pick } r \in R \text{ such that } \phi(r) = s \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. & rj, jr \in J \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. & s\phi(j), \phi(j)s \in \phi(J) \\ & \square \end{array}$
- **Example 16.7.** We cannot remove the hypothesis that  $\phi$  is surjective. Let  $i: \mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Q}$  be the inclusion. Then  $i(2\mathbb{Z}) = 2\mathbb{Z}$  is not an ideal in  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

**Proposition 16.8.** Let  $\phi: R \to S$  be a ring homomorphism and I a (left-right-)ideal in S. Then  $\phi^{-1}I$  is a (left-, right-)ideal in R.

Proof: Easy.

**Corollary 16.8.1.** Let  $\phi: R \to S$  be a ring homomorphism. Then  $\ker \phi$  is an ideal in R.

**Definition 16.9** (Quotient Ring). Let I be an ideal in R. The quotient ring R/I is the quotient group R/I under

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

This is well-defined as, if a + I = a' + I and b + I = b' + I then

$$a - a' \in I$$

$$b - b' \in I$$

$$\therefore ab - a'b \in I$$

$$a'b - a'b' \in I$$

$$\therefore ab - a'b' \in I$$

**Proposition 16.10.** Let I be an ideal in R. Then the canonical group homomorphism  $\pi: R \to R/I$  is a ring homomorphism.

Proof: By construction.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 16.11.** Let I be an ideal in a ring R. For every ring homomorphism  $\phi: R \to S$  such that  $I \subseteq \ker \phi$ , there exists a unique ring homomorphism  $\overline{\phi}: R/I \to S$  such that the following diagram commutes.



Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

Corollary 16.11.1. Every ring homomorphism  $\phi: R \to S$  decomposes as follows.



Corollary 16.11.2 (First Isomorphism Theorem). Let  $\phi: R \twoheadrightarrow S$  be a surjective ring homomorphism. Then

$$S \cong R/\ker \phi$$
.

**Theorem 16.12** (Third Isomorphism Theorem). Let I and J be ideals in R with  $I \subseteq J$ . Then J/I is an ideal in R/I, and

$$\frac{R/I}{J/I} \cong R/J$$

PROOF: Since the function  $R/I \to R/J$  that maps r+I to r+J is a surjective ring homomorphism with kernel J/I.  $\square$ 

Corollary 16.12.1. Let  $\phi: R \twoheadrightarrow S$  be a surjective ring homomorphism. Let J be an ideal in R. Then

$$\frac{S}{\phi(J)} \cong \frac{R}{\ker S + J}$$

**Proposition 16.13.** Let R be a ring and J an ideal in  $\mathfrak{gl}_n(R)$ . Let  $A \in \mathfrak{gl}_n(R)$ . Then  $A \in J$  if and only if the matrices obtained by placing any entry of A in any position and zeros elsewhere all belong to J.

PROOF: Each such matrix can be obtained by pre- and post-multiplying A by matrices which have a single 1 and 0s elsewhere. Conversely, A is a sum of such matrices.  $\square$ 

Corollary 16.13.1. Let R be a ring. Let J be an ideal in  $\mathfrak{gl}_n(R)$ . Let I be the set of all entries of elements of J. Then I is an ideal in R, and J is the set of all matrices whose entries are in I.

**Proposition 16.14.** Let R be a ring. Let  $\{I_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in A}$  be a family of ideals in R. Let

$$\sum_{\alpha \in A} I_\alpha = \{ \sum_{\alpha \in A} r_\alpha : \forall \alpha. r_\alpha \in I_\alpha, r_\alpha = 0 \text{ for all but finitely many } \alpha \in A \} \ .$$

Then  $\sum_{\alpha \in A} I_{\alpha}$  is an ideal, and is the smallest ideal that includes every  $I_{\alpha}$ .

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

Proposition 16.15. The intersection of a set of ideals is an ideal.

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

### 16.1 Characteristic

**Definition 16.16** (Characteristic). The *characteristic* of a ring R is the non-negative integer n such that  $n\mathbb{Z}$  is the kernel of the unique ring homomorphism  $\mathbb{Z} \to R$ .

**Proposition 16.17.** Let R be a ring. If the unit 1 has finite order in R, then its order is the characteristic of R; otherwise, the characteristic of R is 0.

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Example 16.18.** The zero ring is the only ring with characteristic 1.

### 16.2 Nilradical

**Definition 16.19** (Nilradical). Let R be a commutative ring. The *nilradical* of R is the set of all nilpotent elements.

**Proposition 16.20.** Let R be a commutative ring. The nilradical of R is an ideal in R.

PROOF: If  $a^n = 0$  then for any b we have  $(ba)^n = 0$ .  $\square$ 

**Example 16.21.** We cannot remove the assumption that R is commutative. In  $\mathfrak{gl}_2(\mathbb{R})$  we have that  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  is nilpotent but  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  is not.

## 16.3 Principal Ideals

**Definition 16.22** (Principal Ideal). Let R be a commutative ring and  $a \in R$ . The *principal ideal* generated by a is (a) = Ra = aR.

**Example 16.23.**  $\{0\} = (0)$  and  $R = \{1\}$  are principal ideals.

**Definition 16.24.** Let R be a commutative ring and  $\{a_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in A}$  be a family of elements of R. The *ideal generated by the elements*  $a_{\alpha}$  is

$$(a_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in A} := \sum_{\alpha \in A} (a_{\alpha})$$
.

An ideal is *finitely generated* iff it is generated by a finite family of elements.

**Definition 16.25.** Let R be a commutative ring and I, J be ideals in R. Then IJ is the ideal generated by  $\{ij\}_{i\in I, j\in J}$ .

Proposition 16.26.

$$IJ \subseteq I \cap J$$

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 16.27.** Let R be a commutative ring. Let I and J be ideals in R. If I + J = R then  $IJ = I \cap J$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $r \in I \cap J$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK  $i \in I$  and  $j \in J$  such that i + j = 1.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ ri, rj \in IJ$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ r = ri + rj \in IJ$

**Proposition 16.28.** Let R be a commutative ring. Let  $f \in R[x]$  be a monic polynomial of degree d. Then the function

$$\phi: R[x] \to R^{\oplus d}$$

that sends a polynomial g to the remainder of the division of g by f induces an isomorphism of Abelian groups

$$\frac{R[x]}{(f(x))} \cong R^{\oplus d} \ .$$

PROOF: It is clearly a group homomorphism; it is surjective since it maps any polynomial of degree < d to itself, and its kernel is (f(x)) since these are the polynomials with remainder 0.  $\square$ 

**Corollary 16.28.1.** Let R be a commutative ring and  $a \in R$ . Then we have

$$\frac{R[x]}{(x-a)} \cong R$$

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\phi : R[x] \to R$  be evaluation at a.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\phi(g)$  is the remainder when dividing g by x a.

PROOF: If g = (x - a)q + r then g(a) = (a - a)q(a) + r = r.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\phi$  induces a group isomorphism  $R[x]/(x-a) \cong R$ 

PROOF: By the theorem.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . This isomorphism is a ring isomorphism.

PROOF: Since evaluation at a is a ring homomorphism.

Example 16.29. We have

$$\frac{\mathbb{R}[x]}{(x^2+1)} \cong \mathbb{C}$$

as rings.

### 16.4 Maximal Ideals

**Definition 16.30** (Maximal Ideal). Let R be a ring and I an ideal in R. Then I is a maximal ideal iff  $I \neq R$  and, whenever J is an ideal with  $I \subseteq J$ , then either I = J or J = R.

# Integral Domains

**Definition 17.1** (Integral Domain). An integral domain is a non-trivial commutative ring with no nonzero zero-divisors.

**Example 17.2.**  $\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{C}$  are integral domains.

**Proposition 17.3.**  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  is an integral domain if and only if n is prime.

#### Proof:

$$n$$
 is prime  $\Leftrightarrow \forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}(n \mid ab \Rightarrow n \mid a \lor n \mid b)$   
 $\Leftrightarrow \forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}(ab \cong 0 \pmod{n}) \Rightarrow a \cong 0 \pmod{n} \lor b \cong 0 \pmod{n})$   
 $\Leftrightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  is an integral domain

**Proposition 17.4.** In an integral domain, if  $x^2 = 1$  then  $x = \pm 1$ .

PROOF: We have 
$$x^2 - 1 = (x - 1)(x + 1) = 0$$
 so  $x - 1 = 0$  or  $x + 1 = 0$ .  $\Box$ 

**Proposition 17.5.** Let R be an integral domain and  $f, g \in R[x]$ . Then

$$\deg(fg) = \deg f + \deg g$$

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$  Let:  $f = \sum_n a_n x^n$  and  $g = \sum_n b_n x^n.$   $\langle 1 \rangle 2.$  Let:  $d = \deg f$  and  $e = \deg g.$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . The d + eth term of fg is

$$a_d b_e x^{d+e}$$

which is non-zero.

$$\langle 1 \rangle 4$$
. For  $n > d + e$  the *n*th term of  $fg$  is 0.

Corollary 17.5.1. Let R be a ring. Then R[x] is an integral domain if and only if R is an integral domain.

**Proposition 17.6.** Let R be a ring. Then R[[x]] is an integral domain if and only if R is an integral domain.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If R[[x]] is an integral domain then R is an integral domain. Proof: Easy.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If R is an integral domain then R[[x]] is an integral domain.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: R is an integral domain.

$$\langle 2 \rangle 2$$
. Let:  $(\sum_n a_n x^n) (\sum_n b_n x^n) = 0$   
 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $a_0 b_0 = 0$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $a_0 = 0$  or  $b_0 = 0$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Assume: w.l.o.g.  $b_0 \neq 0$ PROVE: For all n we have  $a_n = 0$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Assume: as induction hypothesis  $a_0 = a_1 = \cdots = a_{n-1} = 0$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i b_{n-i} = 0$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 8. \ \overrightarrow{a_n b_0} = 0$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 9. \ a_n = 0$ 

**Proposition 17.7.** Let R be a ring and S an integral domain. Every rng homomorphism  $\phi: R \to S$  is a ring homomorphism.

Proof:

$$\phi(1) = \phi(1 \cdot 1)$$
$$= \phi(1)\phi(1)$$

and so  $\phi(1) = 1$  by Cancellation.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 17.8.** The characteristic of an integral domain is either 0 or a prime number.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: D be an integral domain.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let: n be the characteristic of D

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Assume:  $n \neq 0$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Assume: n = ab

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . ab = 0 in D

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . a = 0 or b = 0 in D

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ .  $n \mid a \text{ or } n \mid b$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . One of a, b is 1 and the other is n.

#### Prime Ideals 17.1

**Definition 17.9** (Prime Ideal). Let I be an ideal in a commutative ring R. Then I is a prime ideal iff R/I is an integral domain.

**Example 17.10.** Let R be a commutative ring and  $a \in R$ . Then (x - a) is a prime ideal in R iff R is an integral domain.

**Proposition 17.11.** Let R be a commutative ring and I a proper ideal in R. Then I is prime iff, whenever  $ab \in I$ , then  $a \in I$  or  $b \in I$ .

PROOF: The condition is the same as saying that, if (a+I)(b+I)=I, then a+I=I or b+I=I.  $\square$ 

**Definition 17.12** (Spectrum). The *spectrum* of a commutative ring R, Spec R, is the set of prime ideals.

**Proposition 17.13.** Let  $\phi: R \to S$  be a ring homomorphism. If I is a prime ideal in S then  $\phi^{-1}(I)$  is a prime ideal in R.

PROOF:If  $ab \in \phi^{-1}(I)$  then  $\phi(a)\phi(b) \in I$  so either  $\phi(a) \in I$  or  $\phi(b) \in I$ , i.e. either  $a \in \phi^{-1}(I)$  or  $b \in \phi^{-1}(I)$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 17.14.** Let R be a commutative ring. Suppose there exists a prime ideal P in R such that the only zero-divisor in P is 0. Then R is an integral domain.

#### Proof:

```
\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 1. \text{ Assume: } ab = 0 \text{ in } R \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \ ab \in P \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. \ a \in P \text{ or } b \in P \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. \ a = 0 \text{ or } b = 0 \\ \end{array}
```

**Proposition 17.15.** Let R be a commutative ring. The nilradical of R is included in every prime ideal of R.

PROOF: Let P be a prime ideal. If  $a^n = 0$  then  $a^n \in P$  hence  $a \in P$ .  $\square$ 

**Definition 17.16** (Krull Dimension). The (Krull) dimension of a commutative ring R is the length of the longest chain of prime ideals in R.

**Example 17.17.**  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  has Krull dimension 2.

# Unique Factorization Domains

Example 18.1.  $\mathbb{Z}$  is a UFD.

# Noetherian Rings

**Definition 19.1** (Noetherian Ring). A commutative ring is *Noetherian* iff every ideal is finitely generated.

**Proposition 19.2.** The homomorphic image of a Noetherian ring is Noetherian.

#### Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: R be a Noetherian ring, S be a commutative ring, and \phi: R \to S a surjective ring homomorphism.
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: I be an ideal in S. \langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: \phi^{-1}(I) = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \langle 1 \rangle 4. I = (\phi(a_1), \dots, \phi(a_n))
```

# Principal Ideal Domains

**Definition 20.1** (Principal Ideal Domain). A commutative ring is a *principal ideal domain (PID)* iff every ideal is principal.

**Example 20.2.**  $\mathbb{Z}$  is a PID by Proposition 7.16.

**Example 20.3.**  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  is not a PID. The ideal (2, x) is not principal.

Proposition 20.4. Every PID is Noetherian.

Proof: Trivial.

Proposition 20.5. Every nonzero prime ideal in a PID is maximal.

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: R be a PID.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: I be a nonzero prime ideal in R.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Pick a \in R such that I = (a).
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Let: J be an ideal such that I \subseteq J
\langle 1 \rangle5. Pick b \in R such that J = (b).
\langle 1 \rangle 6. Pick t \in R such that a = bt.
\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ b \in I \text{ or } t \in I
\langle 1 \rangle 8. Case: b \in I
   PROOF: Then J \subseteq I so I = J.
\langle 1 \rangle 9. Case: t \in I
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Pick s \in R such that t = as.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. a = ast
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ st = 1
       PROOF: Since R is an integral domain.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. 1 \in I
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ I = R
```

Corollary 20.5.1. Any PID has Krull dimension 1.

# **Euclidean Domains**

**Example 21.1.**  $\mathbb{Z}$  is a Euclidean domain.

# **Division Rings**

**Definition 22.1** (Division Ring). A division ring is a ring in which every nonzero element is a two-sided unit.

**Example 22.2.** The quaternions form a division ring, with the inverse of a non-zero element a + bi + cj + dk being

$$\frac{1}{a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2}(a - bi - cj - dk) .$$

**Example 22.3.** For any ring R, the ring of polynomials R[x] is not a division ring, since x has no inverse.

**Proposition 22.4.** Every centralizer in a division ring is a division ring.

PROOF: If ar = ra then  $ra^{-1} = a^{-1}r$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 22.5.** A non-trivial ring R is a division ring if and only if its only left-ideals and right-ideals are  $\{0\}$  and R.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$  If R is a division ring then the only left-ideals and right-ideals are  $\{0\}$  and R
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: R is a division ring.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . The only left-ideals are  $\{0\}$  and R.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let: I be a left-ideal that is not  $\{0\}$ . Prove: I = R
      - THOVE. I = It
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $a \in I \{0\}$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . PICK a left inverse b for a
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ 1 \in I$

PROOF: Since 1 = ba.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 5. I = R$ 

PROOF: For any  $r \in R$  we have  $r = r1 \in I$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . The only right-ideals are  $\{0\}$  and R.

PROOF: Similar.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2.$  If the only left-ideals and right-ideals are  $\{0\}$  and R then R is a division ring.  $\Box$ 

**Proposition 22.6.** Let K be a division ring and R a non-trivial ring. Every ring homomorphism  $K \to R$  is injective.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$  Let:  $\phi: K \to R$  be a ring homomorphism.
  - Prove:  $\ker \phi = \{0\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x \in \ker \phi$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $x \neq 0$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \phi(xx^{-1}) = 1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ 0 = 1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts the assumption that R is non-trivial.

# Simple Rings

**Definition 23.1** (Simple Ring). A non-trivial ring is R simple iff its only two-sided ideals are  $\{0\}$  and R.

**Example 23.2.** For any simple ring R we have  $\mathfrak{gl}_n(R)$  is simple, by Corollary 16.13.1.

**Proposition 23.3.** Let R be a ring and I an ideal in R. Then I is maximal iff R/I is simple.

### Proof:

```
R/I is simple \Leftrightarrow the only ideals in R/I are \{I\} and R/I \Leftrightarrow the only ideals in R that include I are I and R \Leftrightarrow I is maximal
```

# Reduced Rings

**Definition 24.1** (Reduced Ring). A ring is *reduced* iff it has no non-zero nilpotent elements.

**Proposition 24.2.** Let R be a commutative ring. Let N be its nilradical. Then R/N is reduced.

### Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: r+N be nilpotent. \langle 1 \rangle 2. Pick n such that (r+N)^n=N \langle 1 \rangle 3. r^n \in N \langle 1 \rangle 4. Pick k such that (r^n)^k=0 \langle 1 \rangle 5. r^{nk}=0 \langle 1 \rangle 6. r \in N \langle 1 \rangle 7. r+N=N
```

**Proposition 24.3.** Let R be a commutative ring. Let I and J be ideals in R. If R/IJ is reduced then  $IJ = I \cap J$ .

```
\begin{split} \langle 1 \rangle 1. & \text{ Let: } r \in I \cap J \\ & \text{ Prove: } r \in IJ \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. & r^2 \in IJ \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. & (r+IJ)^2 = IJ \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. & r+IJ = IJ \\ & \text{ Proof: Since } R/IJ \text{ is reduced.} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 5. & r \in IJ \\ & \Box \end{split}
```

# Boolean Rings

**Definition 25.1** (Boolean). A ring is *Boolean* iff  $a^2 = a$  for every element a.

**Example 25.2.** For any set S, the ring PS is Boolean.

**Proposition 25.3.** Every non-trivial Boolean ring has characteristic 2.

PROOF: We have 4 = 2 and so 2 = 0.  $\square$ 

Proposition 25.4. Every Boolean ring is commutative.

Proof:

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

$$\therefore a^2 + ab + ba + b^2 = a+b$$

$$\therefore a + ab + ba + b = a+b$$

$$\therefore ab + ba = 0$$

$$\therefore ab = -ba$$

$$= ba$$
(Proposition 25.3)

**Example 25.5.** The only Boolean integral domain is  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ . For, if D is a Boolean integral domain and  $x \in D$ , we have  $x^2 = x$ , so  $x^2 - x = x(x - 1) = 0$  and so x = 0 or x = 1, i.e.  $D = \{0, 1\}$ .

**Proposition 25.6.** Every Boolean ring has Krull dimension 0.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: R be a Boolean ring.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let: I be a prime ideal in R. Prove: I is maximal.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let: J be an ideal with  $I \subseteq J$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Pick  $a \in J$  with  $a \notin I$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ .  $a^2 a = 0 \in I$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ a(a-1) \in I$

$$\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 7. \ a-1 \in I \\ \langle 1 \rangle 8. \ a-1 \in J \\ \langle 1 \rangle 9. \ 1 \in J \\ \langle 1 \rangle 10. \ J=R \\ \Box \end{array}$$

## Modules

**Definition 26.1** (Left Module). Let R be a ring and M an Abelian group. A left-action of R on M is a ring homomorphism

$$R \to \operatorname{End}_{\mathbf{Ab}}(M)$$
.

A left R-module consists of an Abelian group M and a left-action of R on M.

**Proposition 26.2.** Let R be a ring and M an Abelian group. Let  $\cdot : R \times M \to M$ . Then  $\cdot$  defines a left-action of R on M if and only if, for all  $r, s \in R$  and  $m, n \in M$ :

- r(m+n) = rm + rn
- (r+s)m = rm + sm
- (rs)m = r(sm)
- 1m = m

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

**Proposition 26.3.** In any R-module M we have 0m = 0 for all  $m \in M$ .

PROOF: Since 0m = (0+0)m = 0m + 0m and so 0m = 0 by cancellation in M.

**Proposition 26.4.** In any R-module M we have (-1)m = -m for all  $m \in M$ .

PROOF: Since m + (-1)m = 1m + (-1)m = (1 + (-1))m = 0m = 0.

**Proposition 26.5.** Every Abelian group is a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module in exactly one way.

Proof: Since  $\mathbb{Z}$  is initial in Ring.  $\square$ 

**Definition 26.6** (Right Module). Let R be a ring. A right R-module consists of an Abelian group M and a function  $\cdot: M \times R \to M$  such that, for all  $r, s \in R$  and  $m, n \in M$ :

- (m+n)r = mr + nr
- m(r+s) = mr + ms
- m(rs) = (mr)s
- m1 = m

### 26.1 Homomorphisms

**Definition 26.7** (Homomorphism of Left-Modules). Let R be a ring. Let M and N be left-R-modules. A homomorphism of left-R-modules  $\phi: M \to N$  is a group homomorphism such that, for all  $r \in R$  and  $m \in M$ , we have  $\phi(rm) = r\phi(m)$ .

Let  $R-\mathbf{Mod}$  be the category of left-R-modules and left-R-module homomorphisms.

Example 26.8.

$$\mathbb{Z}-\mathbf{Mod}\cong\mathbf{Ab}$$

**Example 26.9.** The trivial group 0 is the zero object in  $R - \mathbf{Mod}$ .

**Proposition 26.10.** Every bijective R-module homomorphism is an isomorphism.

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 26.11.** Let R be a ring. Let M be an R-module. Then

$$M \cong R - \mathbf{Mod}[R, M]$$

as R-modules.

PROOF: The isomorphism maps m to the function  $\lambda r.rm$ . Its inverse maps an R-module homomorphism  $\alpha$  to  $\alpha(1)$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 26.12.** Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Then there is a bijection between the set of R[x]-module structures on M that extend the given R-module structure and  $\operatorname{End}_{R-\operatorname{Mod}}(M)$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\alpha : R \to \operatorname{End}_{\mathbf{Ab}}(M)$  be the given R-module structure on M.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. An R[x]-module structure on M that extends  $\alpha$  is a ring homomorphism  $\beta: R[x] \to \operatorname{End}_{\mathbf{Ab}}(M)$  such that  $\beta \circ i = \alpha$ , where i is the inclusion  $R \to R[x]$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 3. There is a bijection between the R[x]-module structures on M that extend  $\alpha$  and the elements  $s \in \operatorname{End}_{\mathbf{Ab}}(M)$  that commute with  $\alpha(r)$  for all  $r \in R$ . PROOF: By the universal property for polynomials.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . There is a bijection between the R[x]-module structures on M that extend  $\alpha$  and the R-module homomorphisms  $(M, \alpha) \to (M, \alpha)$ .

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**Proposition 26.13.** Let R be a commutative ring. Let M and N be R-modules. Then  $R - \mathbf{Mod}[M, N]$  is an R-module under

$$(\phi + \psi)(m) = \phi(m) + \psi(m)$$
$$(r\phi)(m) = r\phi(m)$$

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 26.14.** *Let* R *be an integral domain. Let* I *be a nonzero principal ideal of* R. Then  $I \cong R$  in  $R - \mathbf{Mod}$ .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . PICK  $a \in R$  such that I = (a).
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\phi : R \to I$  be the map  $\phi(r) = ra$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\phi$  is an R-module homomorphism.

PROOF: Since (r+s)a = ra + sa and (rs)a = r(sa).

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $\phi$  is surjective.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ .  $\phi$  is injective.

PROOF: If ra = sa then (r - s)a = 0 so r - s = 0 and r = s.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ \phi : R \cong I$ 

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### 26.2 Submodules

**Definition 26.15** (Submodule). Let M be a left-R-module and  $N \subseteq M$ . Then N is a *submodule* of M iff N is a subgroup of M and  $\forall r \in R. \forall n \in N. rn \in N$ .

**Proposition 26.16.** Let R be a ring and  $I \subseteq R$ . Then I is a left-ideal in R iff I is a submodule of R as an R-module.

Proof: Immediate from definitions.

**Proposition 26.17.** Let R be a ring. Let M and N be left-R-modules and  $\phi: M \to N$  an R-module homomorphism. Then  $\ker \phi$  is a submodule of M and  $\operatorname{im} \phi$  is a submodule of N.

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 26.18.** Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be a left-R-module. Let  $r \in R$ . Then  $rM = \{rm : m \in M\}$  is a submodule of M.

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 26.19.** Let R be a ring. Let M be a left-R-module. Let I be a left-ideal in R. Then  $IM = \{rm : r \in I, m \in M\}$  is a submodule of M.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . IM is a subgroup of M.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Let:  $r, s \in I$  and  $m, n \in M$ . Prove:  $rm + sn \in IM$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . rm + sn = r(m-n) + (s-r)n
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. For all  $r \in R$  and  $x \in IM$  we have  $rx \in IM$ .

### 26.3 Quotient Modules

**Definition 26.20** (Quotient Module). Let R be a ring. Let M be a left-R-module. Let N be a submodule of M. Then the quotient module M/N is the quotient group M/N under

$$r(m+N) = rm + N .$$

**Proposition 26.21.** Let R be a ring. Let M and P be left-R-modules. Let N be a submodule of M. Let  $\phi: M \to P$  be an R-module homomorphism. If  $N \subseteq \ker \phi$ , then there exists a unique R-module homomorphism  $\overline{\phi}: M/N \to P$  such that the following diagram commutes.



Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 26.22.** Every R-module homomorphism  $\phi: M \to M'$  may be decomposed as:

$$M \longrightarrow M/\ker \phi \stackrel{\cong}{\longrightarrow} \operatorname{im} \phi \longrightarrow N$$

Proof: Easy.

Corollary 26.22.1 (First Isomorphism Theorem). Let  $\phi: M \to M'$  be a surjective R-module homomorphism. Then

$$M' \cong \frac{M}{\ker \phi}$$
.

**Proposition 26.23** (Second Isomorphism Theorem). Let R be a ring. Let M be a left-R-module. Let N and P be submodules of M. Then N+P is a submodule of M,  $N \cap P$  is a submodule of P, and

$$\frac{N+P}{N} \cong \frac{P}{N \cap P}$$

PROOF: The function that maps P to p+N is a surjective homomorphism  $P \to (N+P)/N$  with kernel  $N \cap P$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 26.24** (Third Isomorphism Theorem). Let R be a ring. Let M be a left-R-module. Let N be a submodule of M and P a submodule of N. Then N/P is a submodule of M/P and

$$\frac{M/P}{N/P} \cong \frac{M}{N}$$

PROOF: The canonical map  $M \to M/N$  induces a surjective homomorphism  $M/P \to M/N$  which has kernel N/P.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 26.25.** Let R be a ring. Let M be a left-R-module. The sum and intersection of a family of submodules of M are submodules of M.

Proof: Easy.

### 26.4 Products

**Proposition 26.26.** R-Mod has products.

PROOF: Given a family  $\{M_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in A}$  of left-R-modules, we make  $\prod_{{\alpha}\in A} M_{\alpha}$  into a left-R-module by

$$(f+g)(\alpha) = f(\alpha) + g(\alpha)$$
$$(rf)(\alpha) = rf(\alpha)$$

## 26.5 Coproducts

**Proposition 26.27.**  $R-\mathbf{Mod}$  has coproducts.

PROOF: Given a family  $\{M_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha\in A}$  of left-R-modules, take  $\bigoplus_{\alpha\in A}M_{\alpha}$  to be  $\{f\in\prod_{\alpha\in A}M_{\alpha}:f(\alpha)=0\text{ for all but finitely many }\alpha\in A\}$ .  $\square$ 

### 26.6 Direct Sum

**Definition 26.28** (Direct Sum). Let R be a ring. Let M and N be left-R-modules. Then the direct sum  $M \oplus N$  is an R-module under

$$r(m,n) = (rm,rn)$$
.

**Proposition 26.29.**  $M \oplus N$  is the biproduct of M and N in  $R - \mathbf{Mod}$ .

Proof: Easy.

**Example 26.30.** Infinite products and coproducts are in general different. We have  $\mathbb{Z}^{\mathbb{N}} \ncong \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus \mathbb{N}}$  since  $\mathbb{Z}^{\mathbb{N}}$  is uncountable but  $\mathbb{Z}^{\oplus \mathbb{N}}$  is countable.

### 26.7 Kernels and Cokernels

**Proposition 26.31.** Let R be a ring. Let  $\phi: M \to N$  be a left-R-module homomorphism. Then  $\ker \phi \hookrightarrow M$  is terminal in the category of left-R-module homomorphisms  $\alpha: P \to M$  such that  $\phi \circ \alpha = 0$ .

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 26.32.** Let R be a ring. Let  $\phi: M \to N$  be a left-R-module homomorphism. Then  $N \to \operatorname{coker} \phi$  is initial in the category of left-R-module homomorphisms  $\alpha: N \to P$  such that  $\alpha \circ \phi = 0$ .

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 26.33.** Let R be a ring. Let  $\phi: M \to N$  be a left-R-module homomorphism. Then the following are equivalent.

- $\phi$  is a monomorphism.
- $\ker \phi$  is trivial.
- $\phi$  is injective.

Proof: Easy.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 26.34.** Let R be a ring. Let  $\phi: M \to N$  be a left-R-module homomorphism. Then the following are equivalent.

- $\phi$  is an epimorphism.
- $\operatorname{coker} \phi$  is trivial.
- $\phi$  is surjective.

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 26.35.** Every monomorphism in  $R-\mathbf{Mod}$  is the kernel of some homomorphism.

PROOF: If  $\phi: M \to N$  is a monomorphism then it is the kernel of  $N \twoheadrightarrow N/\operatorname{im} \phi$ .  $\sqcap$ 

**Proposition 26.36.** Every epimorphism in  $R-\mathbf{Mod}$  is the cokernel of some homomorphism.

PROOF: If  $\phi: M \to N$  is epi then it is the cokernel of  $\ker \phi \hookrightarrow M$ .  $\square$ 

**Example 26.37.** Monomorphisms do not split in  $R-\mathbf{Mod}$ . Multiplication by 2 is a monomorphism  $\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$  but has no left inverse.

**Example 26.38.** Epimorphisms do not split in  $R-\mathbf{Mod}$ . The canonical map  $\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$  is an epimorphism without a right inverse.

#### 26.8 Free Modules

**Proposition 26.39.** Let R be a ring and A a set. Then there exists a left-Rmodule  $F^R(A)$  and function  $j: A \to F^R(A)$  such that, for any left-R-module M and function  $f: A \to M$ , there exists a unique left-R-module homomorphism  $\overline{f}: F^R(A) \to M$  such that the following diagram commutes.



Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $R^{\oplus A} = \{ \alpha : A \to R : \alpha(a) = 0 \text{ for all but finitely many } a \in A \}$ under the operations

$$(\alpha + \beta)(a) = \alpha(a) + \beta(a)$$
$$(r\alpha)(a) = r\alpha(a)$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $R^{\oplus A}$  is a left-R-module.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $j: A \to R^{\oplus A}$  be the function

$$j(a)(a') = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a = a' \\ 0 & \text{if } a \neq a' \end{cases}$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4.$  Let: M be any left-R -module.

$$\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 4. \text{ Let: } M \text{ be any left-}R\text{-module.} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 5. \text{ Let: } \underline{f}: A \to M \text{ be a function.} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 6. \text{ Let: } \overline{f}: R^{\oplus A} \to M \text{ be the function} \\ \overline{f}(\alpha) = \sum_{a \in A, \alpha(a) \neq 0} \alpha(a) f(a) \\ \langle 1 \rangle 7. \ \overline{f} \text{ is a left-}R\text{-module homomorphism.} \end{array}$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ .  $\overline{f}$  is a left-R-module homomorphism.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8. \ \overline{f} \circ j = f$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 9$ .  $\overline{f}$  is unique.

**Definition 26.40.** We call  $j: A \to F^R(A)$  the free left-R-module over A.

Proposition 26.41. *j* is injective.

PROOF: By the proof of the previous proposition.

**Proposition 26.42.** Let R be a ring. Let F be a non-zero free left-R-module. Let  $\phi: M \to N$  be a left-R-module homomorphism. Then  $\phi$  is onto if and only if, for every left-R-module homomorphism  $\alpha: F \to N$ , there exists a left-Rmodule homomorphism  $\beta: F \to M$  such that the diagram below commutes.



- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: F be the free left-R-module over A with injection  $j: A \to F$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If  $\phi$  is onto then, for every homomorphism  $\alpha : F \to N$ , there exists a homomorphism  $\beta : F \to M$  such that  $\phi \circ \beta = \alpha$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $\phi$  is onto.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\alpha : F \to N$  be a homomorphism.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . For  $a \in A$ , PICK  $f(a) \in M$  such that  $\phi(f(a)) = \alpha(j(a))$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $\beta: F \to M$  be the unique homomorphism such that  $\beta \circ j = f$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ \phi \circ \beta = \alpha$

PROOF: Each is the unique homomorphism such that  $\alpha \circ j = \phi \circ f$ .



- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 3. If, for every homomorphism  $\alpha : F \to N$ , there exists a homomorphism  $\beta : F \to M$  such that  $\phi \circ \beta = \alpha$ , then  $\phi$  is onto.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Assume: For every homomorphism  $\alpha: F \to N$  there exists a homomorphism  $\beta: F \to M$  such that  $\phi \circ \alpha = \beta$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $n \in N$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3.$  Let:  $\alpha: F \to N$  be the unique homomorphism such that, for all  $a \in A,$  we have  $\alpha(j(a)) = n$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . PICK a homomorphism  $\beta : F \to M$  such that  $\phi \circ \beta = \alpha$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Pick  $a \in A$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ \phi(\beta(j(a))) = n$

### 26.9 Generators

**Definition 26.43** (Submodule Generated by a Set). Let R be a ring. Let M be a left-R-module. Let A be a subset of M. Let  $\phi_A : F^R(A) \to M$  be the unique left-R-module homomorphism such that the following diagram commutes.



The submodule of M generated by A, denoted  $\langle A \rangle$ , is defined to be im  $\phi_A$ .

**Definition 26.44** (Finitely Generated). Let R be a ring. Let M be a left-R-module. Then M is *finitely generated* iff there exists a finite set  $A \subseteq M$  such that  $M = \langle A \rangle$ .

**Example 26.45.** A submodule of a finitely generated module is not necessarily finitely generated.

Let  $R = \mathbb{Z}[x_1, x_2, \ldots]$ . Then R is finitely generated as an R-module, but  $(x_1, x_2, \ldots)$  is not.

**Proposition 26.46.** The homomorphic image of a finitely generated module is finitely generated.

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 26.47.** Let R be a ring. Let M be a left-R-module. Let N be a submodule of M. If N and M/N are finitely generated then M is finitely generated.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . PICK  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$  that generate N.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK  $b_1, \ldots, b_m$  such that  $b_1 + N, \ldots, b_m + N$  generate M/N. PROVE:  $a_1, \ldots, a_n, b_1, \ldots, b_m$  generate M.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $m \in M$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . PICK  $r_1, \ldots, r_m \in R$  such that  $m + N = r_1 b_1 + \cdots + r_m b_m + N$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ m r_1 b_1 \dots r_m b_m \in N$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Pick  $s_1, \ldots, s_n \in R$  such that  $m r_1 b_1 \cdots r_m b_m = s_1 a_1 + \cdots + s_n a_n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ m = r_1 b_1 + \dots + r_m b_m + s_1 a_1 + \dots + s_n a_n$

## 26.10 Projections

**Definition 26.48** (Projection). Let R be a ring. Let M be a left-R-module. Let  $p: M \to M$  be a left-R-module homomorphism. Then p is a projection iff  $p^2 = p$ .

**Proposition 26.49.** Let R be a ring. Let M be a left-R-module. Let  $p: M \to M$  be a projection. Then

$$M \cong \ker p \oplus \operatorname{im} p$$
.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\phi: M \to \ker p \oplus \operatorname{im} p$  be the map  $\phi(m) = (m p(m), p(m))$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\phi$  is a left-R-module homomorphism.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\phi$  is injective.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $\phi$  is surjective.

### 26.11 Pullbacks

**Proposition 26.50.** R-Mod has pullbacks.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\mu: M \to Z$ ,  $\nu: N \to Z$  be left-R-module homomorphisms.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2.$  Let:  $M \times_Z N = \{(m,n) \in M \times N : \mu(m) = \nu(n)\}$  under (m,n) + (m',n') = (m+m',n+n')

$$r(m,n) = (rm,rn)$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3.$   $M \times_Z N$  is the pullback of M and N.

## 26.12 Pushouts

Proposition 26.51. R-Mod has pushouts.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$  Let:  $\mu: A \to M$  and  $\nu: A \to N$  be left-R-module homomorphisms.

# Cyclic Modules

**Definition 27.1** (Cyclic Module). Let R be a ring. Let M be a left-R-module. Then M is cyclic iff there exists  $m \in M$  such that  $M = \langle m \rangle$ .

**Proposition 27.2.** Let R be a ring. Let M be a left-R-module. Then M is cyclic if and only if there exists a left-ideal I in R such that  $M \cong R/I$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If M is cyclic then there exists a left-ideal I in R such that  $M \cong R/I$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: M is cyclic.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $m \in M$  such that  $M = \langle m \rangle$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\phi: R \to M$  be the left-R-module homomorphism  $\phi(r) = rm$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $\phi$  is surjective.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .  $M \cong R / \ker \phi$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For every left-ideal I in R, we have that R/I is cyclic.

PROOF: R/I is generated by 1+I.

**Proposition 27.3.** A quotient of a cyclic module is cyclic.

PROOF: If M is generated by m then M/N is generated by m+N.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 27.4.** Let R be a ring. For any left-ideal I in R and any left-R-module N, we have

$$R - \mathbf{Mod}[R/I, N] \cong \{n \in N : \forall a \in I.an = 0\}$$
.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\Phi : R - \mathbf{Mod}[R/I, N] \to \{n \in N : \forall a \in I.an = 0\}$  be the function  $\Phi(\alpha) = \alpha(1+I)$ 

PROOF: For all  $a \in I$  we have  $a\alpha(1+I) = \alpha(a+I) = \alpha(I) = 0$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\Phi$  is injective.

PROOF: If  $\alpha(1+I) = \beta(1+I)$  then  $\alpha(r+I) = r\alpha(1+I) = r\beta(1+I) = \beta(r+I)$  for all  $r \in R$ , hence  $\alpha = \beta$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\Phi$  is surjective.

PROOF: Given  $n \in N$  such that  $\forall a \in I.an = 0$ , define  $\alpha : R/I \to N$  by  $\alpha(r+I) = rn$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4.$  If R is commutative then  $\Phi$  is an R-module homomorphism.  $\sqcap$ 

Corollary 27.4.1. For all  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  we have  $\mathbf{Ab}[\mathbb{Z}/a\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/b\mathbb{Z}] \cong \mathbb{Z}/\gcd(a, b)\mathbb{Z}$ .

$$\mathbf{Ab}[\mathbb{Z}/a\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/b\mathbb{Z}] \cong \mathbb{Z} - \mathbf{Mod}[\mathbb{Z}/a\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/b\mathbb{Z}]$$

$$\cong \{ n \in \mathbb{Z}/b\mathbb{Z} : \forall x \in a\mathbb{Z}.xn \cong 0 (\text{mod } b) \}$$

$$\cong \{ n \in \mathbb{Z}/b\mathbb{Z} : \forall x \in \mathbb{Z}.b \mid xan \}$$

$$= \{ n \in \mathbb{Z}/b\mathbb{Z} : b \mid an \}$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $\phi \neq 0$   $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\ker \phi = 0$ 

# Simple Modules

**Definition 28.1** (Simple Module). Let R be a ring. An R-module M is simple or irreducible iff its only submodules are  $\{0\}$  and M.

**Proposition 28.2** (Schur's Lemma). Let R be a ring. Let M and N be simple R-modules. Let  $\phi: M \to N$  be an R-module homomorphism. Then either  $\phi = 0$  or  $\phi$  is an isomorphism.

```
\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \ \mathrm{im} \ \phi = N \\ \ \ \ \mathrm{PROOF: Since im} \ \phi \ \mathrm{is \ a \ submodule \ of} \ N \ \mathrm{that \ is \ not} \ \{0\}. \end{array} \square \mathbf{Proposition \ 28.3.} \ \ Every \ simple \ module \ is \ cyclic. \mathrm{PROOF:} \ \langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \ \mathrm{Let:} \ M \ \mathrm{be \ a \ simple \ module.} \langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \ \mathrm{Assume:} \ \ \mathrm{w.l.o.g.} \ \ M \neq \{0\} \\ \ \ \mathrm{PROOF:} \ \{0\} = \langle 0 \rangle \ \mathrm{is \ cyclic.} \langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \ \mathrm{PICK} \ m \in M \ \mathrm{with} \ m \neq 0 \langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \ \langle m \rangle = M \\ \ \ \mathrm{PROOF:} \ \mathrm{Since} \ \langle m \rangle \ \mathrm{is \ a \ submodule \ of} \ M \ \mathrm{that \ is \ not} \ \{0\}.
```

PROOF: Since  $\ker \phi$  is a submodule of M that is not M.

## Noetherian Modules

**Definition 29.1** (Noetherian Module). Let R be a ring. A left-R-module is *Noetherian* iff every submodule is finitely generated.

**Proposition 29.2.** Let R be a ring. Let M be a left-R-module and N a submodule of M. Then M is Noetherian if and only if N and M/N are Noetherian.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If M is Noetherian then N is Noetherian.

PROOF: Every submodule of N is a submodule of M, hence finitely generated.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If M is Noetherian then M/N is Noetherian.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: M is Noetherian.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\pi: M \twoheadrightarrow M/N$  be the canonical epimorphism.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let: P be a submodule of M/N.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . PICK  $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in M$  that generate  $\pi^{-1}(P)$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .  $a_1 + N, \ldots, a_n + N$  generate P.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . If N and M/N are Noetherian then M is Noetherian.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: N and M/N are Noetherian.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: P be a submodule of M.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . PICK  $a_1, \ldots, a_m \in P$  such that  $a_1 + N, \ldots, a_m + N$  generate  $\pi(P)$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Pick  $b_1, \ldots, b_n \in M$  that generated  $P \cap N$ . Prove:  $a_1, \ldots, a_m, b_1, \ldots, b_n$  generate P.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $p \in P$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Pick  $r_1, \ldots, r_m \in R$  such that  $p + N = r_1 a_1 + \cdots + r_m a_m + N$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ p r_1 a_1 \dots r_m a_m \in P \cap N$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 8$ . PICK  $s_1, \ldots, s_n \in R$  such that  $p r_1 a_1 \cdots r_m a_m = s_1 b_1 + \cdots + s_n b_n$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 9. \ p = r_1 a_1 + \dots + r_m a_m + s_1 b_1 + \dots + s_n b_n$

Corollary 29.2.1. If R is a Noetherian ring then  $R^{\oplus n}$  is a Noetherian left-R-module.

PROOF: The proof is by induction on n. The case n=1 is immediate. The induction step holds since  $R^{\oplus (n+1)}/R^{\oplus n} \cong R$ .  $\square$ 

Corollary 29.2.2. If R is a Noetherian ring and M is a finitely generated left-R-module then M is Noetherian.

PROOF: There is a surjective homomorphism  $R^{\oplus n} \twoheadrightarrow M$  for some n, so M is a quotient of  $R^{\oplus n}$ .  $\square$ 

# Algebras

**Definition 30.1** (Algebra). Let R be a commutative ring. An R-algebra consists of a ring S and a ring homomorphism  $\alpha: R \to S$  such that  $\alpha(R)$  is included in the center of S. We write rs for  $\alpha(r)s$ .

**Proposition 30.2.** Let R be a commutative ring and S a ring. Let  $\cdot : R \times S \rightarrow S$ . Then there exists  $\alpha : R \rightarrow S$  that makes S into an R-algebra such that

$$rs = \alpha(r)s$$
  $(r \in R, s \in S)$ 

iff S is an R-module under  $\cdot$  and, for all  $r_1, r_2 \in R$  and  $s_1, s_2 \in S$ ,

$$(r_1s_1)(r_2s_2) = (r_1r_2)(s_1s_2)$$
.

Proof: Immediate from definitions.

**Example 30.3.** Let R be a commutative ring. Then R is an R-algebra under multiplication.

**Example 30.4.** Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal in R. Then R/I is an R-algebra.

**Example 30.5.** Let R be a commutative ring and M an R-module. Then  $\operatorname{End}_{R-\operatorname{Mod}}(M)$  is an R-algebra under composition.

**Example 30.6.** Let R be a commutative ring. Then  $\mathfrak{gl}_n(R)$  is an R-algebra under matrix multiplication.

**Definition 30.7** (Algebra Homomorphism). Let R be a commutative ring. Let S and T be R-algebras. An R-algebra homomorphism  $\phi: S \to T$  is a ring homomorphism such that, for all  $r \in R$  and  $s \in S$ , we have  $\phi(rs) = r\phi(s)$ .

Let  $R - \mathbf{Alg}$  be the category of R-algebras and R-algebra homomorphisms.

Example 30.8.

$$\mathbb{Z}-\mathbf{Alg}\cong\mathbf{Ring}$$

**Example 30.9.** Let R be a commutative ring. Then  $R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ , and any quotient ring of  $R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ , is a commutative R-algebra.

**Example 30.10.** R is the initial object in  $R - \mathbf{Alg}$ .

#### Rees Algebra 30.1

**Definition 30.11** (Rees Algebra). Let R be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal in R. The Rees algebra is the direct sum

$$\operatorname{Rees}_R(I) = \bigoplus_{j \ge 0} I^j$$

under the multiplication

$$(r_0, r_1, r_2, r_3, \ldots)(s_0, s_1, s_2, \ldots) = (r_0 s_0, r_1 s_0 + r_0 s_1, r_0 s_2 + r_1 s_1 + r_2 s_0, \ldots)$$
  
 $r(r_0, r_1, r_2, \ldots) = (rr_0, rr_1, rr_2, \ldots)$ 

**Proposition 30.12.** Let R be a commutative ring. Let  $a \in R$  be a non-zerodivisor. Then R[x] is the Rees algebra of (a).

#### Proof:

- (1)1. Let:  $\phi: R[x] \to \operatorname{Rees}_R((a))$  be the function  $\phi(r_0 + r_1x + r_2x^2 + \cdots) =$  $(r_0, r_1 a, r_2 a^2, \ldots).$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\phi$  is an R-algebra homomorphism.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\phi$  is injective.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\phi(r_0 + r_1 x + r_2 x^2 + \cdots) = \phi(s_0 + s_1 x + s_2 x^2 + \cdots)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For all n we have  $r_n a^n = s_n a^n$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ (r_n s_n)a^n = 0$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $r_n s_n = 0$

PROOF: Since a is not a zero-divisor.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .  $r_n = s_n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $\phi$  is surjective.

**Proposition 30.13.** Let R be a commutative ring. Let  $a \in R$  be a non-zerodivisor. Let I be an ideal of R. Then  $\operatorname{Rees}_R(I) \cong \operatorname{Rees}_R(aI)$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\phi : \operatorname{Rees}_R(I) \to \operatorname{Rees}_R(aI)$  be the function  $\phi(r_0, r_1, r_2, \ldots) = (r_0, ar_1, a^2r_2, \ldots)$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\phi$  is an R-algebra homomorphism.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\phi$  is injective.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $\phi$  is surjective.

#### Free Algebras 30.2

**Proposition 30.14.** Let R be a ring. Then  $R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  is the free commutative R-algebra on  $\{1,\ldots,n\}$ .

Proof: Easy.

**Proposition 30.15.** Let R be a ring and A a set. Let  $A^*$  be the free monoid on A. Then the monoid ring  $R[A^*]$  is the free R-algebra on A.

Proof:	Easy.	
i itooi.	Law, y.	-

**Proposition 30.16.** Let R be a commutative ring and S a commutative R-algebra. Then S is finitely generated as an R-algebra if and only if S is finitely generated as a commutative R-algebra.

PROOF: Since a subalgebra of a commutative subalgebra is commutative, so the smallest algebra that contains  $\{a_1,\ldots,a_n\}$  is the smallest commutative subalgebra that contains  $\{a_1,\ldots,a_n\}$ .  $\square$ 

# Algebras of Finite Type

**Definition 31.1** (Algebra of Finite Type). Let R be a ring. Let S be an R-algebra. Then R is of *finite type* iff S is a finitely generated R-algebra.

**Proposition 31.2.** Let R be a Noetherian ring. Let S be a finite-type R-algebra. Then S is a Noetherian ring.

# Finite Algebras

**Definition 32.1** (Finite Algebra). Let R be a ring. Let S be an R-algebra. Then S is a *finite* R-algebra iff it is a finitely generated left-R-module.

**Proposition 32.2.** Let R be a ring. Every finite R-algebra is of finite type.

PROOF: If S is generated by  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$  as an R-module, then it is generated by  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$  as an R-algebra.  $\square$ 

**Example 32.3.** The converse does not hold. R[x] is of finite type but is not finite.

# Division Algebras

**Definition 33.1** (Division Algebra). Let R be a commutative ring. A *division* R-algebra is an R-algebra that is a division ring.

**Example 33.2.** Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be a simple R-algebra. Then  $\operatorname{End}_{R-\mathbf{Mod}}(M)$  is a division algebra. For if  $\phi \circ \psi = 0$  then  $\phi$  and  $\psi$  cannot both be isomorphisms, hence  $\phi = 0$  or  $\psi = 0$  by Schur's Lemma.

## Chain Complexes

**Definition 34.1** (Chain Complex). Let R be a ring. A chain complex of left-R-modules  $M_{\bullet} = (M_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet})$  consists of a family of left-R-modules  $\{M_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$  and a family of left-R-module homomorphisms  $\{d_i : M_i \to M_{i-1}\}_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$  such that, for all i,

$$d_i \circ d_{i+1} = 0 .$$

We call each  $d_i$  a differential and the family  $\{d_i\}_i$  the boundary of the chain complex.

**Definition 34.2** (Exact). A chain complex  $M_{\bullet}$  is *exact* at  $M_i$  iff im  $d_{i+1} = \ker d_i$ .

It is exact or an exact sequence iff it is exact at  $M_i$  for all i.

Proposition 34.3. A complex

$$\cdots \to 0 \to L \stackrel{\alpha}{\to} M \to \cdots$$

is exact at L iff  $\alpha$  is a monomorphism.

PROOF: Since both are equivalent to ker  $\alpha = 0$ .  $\square$ 

Proposition 34.4. A complex

$$\cdots \to M \stackrel{\beta}{\to} N \to 0 \to \cdots$$

is exact at N iff  $\beta$  is a epimorphism.

PROOF: Since both are equivalent to im  $\beta = N$ .  $\square$ 

**Definition 34.5** (Short Exact Sequence). A *short exact sequence* is an exact complex of the form

$$0 \to L \overset{\alpha}{\to} M \overset{\beta}{\to} N \to 0 \ .$$

Proposition 34.6 (Four-Lemma). If

$$A_{1} \xrightarrow{f_{1}} B_{1} \xrightarrow{g_{1}} C_{1} \xrightarrow{h_{1}} D_{1}$$

$$\downarrow^{\alpha} \qquad \downarrow^{\beta} \qquad \downarrow^{\gamma} \qquad \downarrow^{\delta}$$

$$A_{2} \xrightarrow{f_{2}} B_{2} \xrightarrow{g_{2}} C_{2} \xrightarrow{h_{2}} D_{2}$$

is a commutative diagram of left-R-modules with exact rows,  $\alpha$  is an epimorphism, and  $\beta$  and  $\delta$  are monomorphisms, then  $\gamma$  is an monomorphism.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x, y \in C_1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $\gamma(x) = \gamma(y)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \delta(h_1(x)) = \delta(h_1(y))$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ h_1(x) = h_1(y)$

PROOF:  $\delta$  is injective.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ .  $x y \in \ker h_1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ x y \in \operatorname{im} g_1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . PICK  $b \in B_1$  such that  $g_1(b) = x y$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8.$   $g_2(\beta(b)) = 0$

PROOF:  $g_2(\beta(b)) = \gamma(g_1(b)) = \gamma(x - y) = 0$ 

- $\langle 1 \rangle 9. \ \beta(b) \in \ker g_2$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 10. \ \beta(b) \in \operatorname{im} f_2$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 11$ . PICK  $a' \in A_2$  such that  $f_2(a') = \beta(b)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 12$ . PICK  $a \in A_1$  such that  $\alpha(a) = a'$

PROOF:  $\alpha$  is surjective.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 13. \ \beta(f_1(a)) = \beta(b)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 14. \ f_1(a) = b$

PROOF:  $\beta$  is injective.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 15. \ 0 = g_1(b)$ 

PROOF: Since  $g_1(b) = g_1(f_1(a)) = 0$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 16. \ x = y$ PROOF:  $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ 

Proposition 34.7 (Four-Lemma). If

is a commutative diagram of left-R-modules with exact rows,  $\beta$  and  $\delta$  are epimorphisms, and  $\epsilon$  is a monomorphism, then  $\gamma$  is an epimorphism.

## Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $b_2 \in B_2$ 

```
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Pick c_1 \in C_1 such that \delta(c_1) = g_2(b_2)
    Proof: \delta is surjective.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \epsilon(h_1(c_1)) = 0
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ h_1(c_1) = 0
    PROOF: \epsilon is injective.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. c_1 \in \ker h_1
\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ c_1 \in \operatorname{im} g_1
\langle 1 \rangle 7. PICK b_1 \in B_1 such that g_1(b_1) = c_1
\langle 1 \rangle 8. \ g_2(\gamma(b_1)) = g_2(b_2)
\langle 1 \rangle 9. \ \gamma(b_1) - b_2 \in \ker g_2
\langle 1 \rangle 10. \ \gamma(b_1) - b_2 \in \operatorname{im} f_2
\langle 1 \rangle 11. PICK a_2 \in A_2 such that f_2(a_2) = \gamma(b_1) - b_2.
\langle 1 \rangle 12. PICK a_1 \in A_1 such that \beta(a_1) = a_2.
    PROOF: \beta is surjective.
\langle 1 \rangle 13. \ \gamma(f_1(a_1)) = \gamma(b_1) - b_2
\langle 1 \rangle 14. \ b_2 = \gamma(b_1 - f_1(a_1))
```

**Theorem 34.8** (Snake Lemma). Suppose we have R-modules and homomorphisms

$$0 \longrightarrow L_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} M_1 \xrightarrow{\beta_1} N_1 \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\lambda} \qquad \downarrow^{\mu} \qquad \downarrow^{\nu}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow L_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha_0} M_0 \xrightarrow{\beta_0} N_0 \longrightarrow 0$$

such that the diagram commutes and the two rows are short exact sequences. Then there exists a homomorphism  $\delta : \ker \nu \to \operatorname{coker} \lambda$  such that the following is an exact sequence.

$$0 \to \ker \lambda \overset{\alpha_1}{\to} \ker \mu \overset{\beta_1}{\to} \ker \nu \overset{\delta}{\to} \operatorname{coker} \lambda \overset{\alpha_0}{\to} \operatorname{coker} \mu \overset{\beta_0}{\to} \operatorname{coker} \nu \to 0 \ .$$

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Define  $\delta : \ker \nu \to \operatorname{coker} \lambda$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $a \in \ker \nu$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $c \in M_1$  such that  $\beta_1(c) = a$ .

PROOF: Since  $\beta_1$  is surjective.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $d = \mu(c)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $d \in \ker \beta_0 = \operatorname{im} \alpha_0$

PROOF: Since  $\beta_0(d) = \beta_0(\mu(c)) = \nu(a) = 0$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $e \in L_0$  be the element such that  $\alpha_0(e) = d$ .
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Let:  $\delta(a) = e + \operatorname{im} \lambda$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\delta$  is a left-R-module homomorphism.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . For  $a, a' \in \ker \nu$  we have  $\delta(a + a') = \delta(a) + \delta(a')$ .
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $a, a' \in \ker \nu$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $c, c', c'' \in M_1$  and  $e, e', e'' \in L_0$  be the elements such that

$$\beta_1(c) = a$$

$$\beta_1(c') = a'$$

$$\beta_1(c'') = a + a'$$

$$\alpha_0(e) = \mu(c)$$

$$\alpha_0(e') = \mu(c')$$

$$\alpha_0(e'') = \mu(c'')$$

$$\delta(a) = e + \operatorname{im} \lambda$$

$$\delta(a') = e' + \operatorname{im} \lambda$$

$$\delta(a + a') = e'' + \operatorname{im} \lambda$$

- $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ c'' c c' \in \ker \beta_1 = \operatorname{im} \alpha_1$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . Pick  $g \in L_1$  such that  $\alpha_1(g) = c'' c c'$ .
- $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ .  $\alpha_0(\lambda(g)) = \alpha_0(e'' e e')$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 6$ .  $\lambda(g) = e'' e e'$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 7. \ e'' e e' \in \operatorname{im} \lambda$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 8. \ e'' + \operatorname{im} \lambda = e + e' + \operatorname{im} \lambda$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 9. \ \delta(a+a') = \delta(a) + \delta(a')$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . For  $r \in R$  and  $a \in \ker \nu$  we have  $\delta(ra) = r\delta(a)$ .
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $r \in R$  and  $a \in \ker \nu$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $c, c' \in M_1$  and  $e, e' \in L_0$  be the elements such that

$$\beta_1(c) = a$$

$$\beta_1(c') = ra$$

$$\alpha_0(e) = \mu(c)$$

$$\alpha_0(e') = \mu(c')$$

$$\delta(a) = e + \operatorname{im} \lambda$$

$$\delta(ra) = e' + \operatorname{im} \lambda$$

- $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ .  $rc c' \in \ker \beta_1 = \operatorname{im} \alpha_1$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . PICK  $g \in L_1$  such that  $\alpha_1(g) = rc c'$ .
- $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ .  $\alpha_0(\lambda(g)) = \alpha_0(re e')$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 6$ .  $\lambda(g) = re e'$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 7$ .  $re e' \in \operatorname{im} \lambda$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 8. \ re + \operatorname{im} \lambda = e' + \operatorname{im} \lambda$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 9. \ r\delta(a) = \delta(ra)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . The sequence is exact at ker  $\lambda$ .

PROOF: Since  $\alpha_1$  is injective.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . The sequence is exact at ker  $\mu$ .

PROOF: Since im  $\alpha_1 = \ker \beta_1$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. The sequence is exact at ker  $\nu$ , i.e.  $beta_1(\ker \mu) = \ker \delta$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $a \in \ker \nu$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 2. Let:  $c \in M_1$  and  $e \in L_0$  be the elements such that  $\beta_1(c) = a$ ,  $\alpha_0(e) = \mu(c)$ , and  $\delta(a) = e + \operatorname{im} \lambda$ .

```
\langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: \delta(a) = \operatorname{im} \lambda
         \langle 3 \rangle 2. \ e \in \operatorname{im} \lambda
        \langle 3 \rangle 3. Pick g \in L_1 such that \lambda(g) = e
        \langle 3 \rangle 4. \mu(\alpha_1(g)) = \mu(c)
         \langle 3 \rangle 5. \ c - \alpha_1(g) \in \ker \mu
         \langle 3 \rangle 6. a = \beta_1(c - \alpha_1(g))
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. If a \in \beta_1(\ker \mu) then \delta(a) = \operatorname{im} \lambda
         \langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: c' \in \ker \mu and a = \beta_1(c')
         \langle 3 \rangle 2. c - c' \in \ker \beta_1 = \operatorname{im} \alpha_1
         \langle 3 \rangle 3. Pick g \in L_1 such that \alpha_1(g) = c - c'
         \langle 3 \rangle 4. \alpha_0(\lambda(g)) = \mu(c) - \mu(c') = \alpha_0(e) - 0 = \alpha_0(e)
         \langle 3 \rangle 5. \lambda(g) = e
         \langle 3 \rangle 6. \ e \in \operatorname{im} \lambda
         \langle 3 \rangle 7. \ \delta(a) = \operatorname{im} \lambda
\langle 1 \rangle 6. THe sequence is exact at coker \lambda.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: e \in L_0
                PROVE: e + \operatorname{im} \lambda \in \operatorname{im} \delta \text{ iff } \alpha_0(e) \in \operatorname{im} \mu.
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. For all a \in \ker \nu, if \delta(a) = e + \operatorname{im} \lambda then \alpha_0(e) \in \operatorname{im} \mu
        PROOF: From \langle 1 \rangle 1 and the fact that \alpha_0 is injective hence e is unique given
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. For all e \in L_0, if \alpha_0(e) \in \operatorname{im} \mu then e + \operatorname{im} \lambda \in \operatorname{im} \delta.
         \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: e \in L_0
         \langle 3 \rangle 2. Assume: \alpha_0(e) \in \operatorname{im} \mu
        \langle 3 \rangle 3. Pick c \in M_1 such that \mu(c) = \alpha_0(e).
                    PROVE: e + \operatorname{im} \lambda = \delta(\beta_1(c))
        \langle 3 \rangle 4. PICK c' \in M_1 and e' \in L_0 such that \beta_1(c') = \beta_1(c), \alpha_0(e') = \mu(c')
                    and \delta(\beta_1(c)) = e' + \operatorname{im} \lambda
         \langle 3 \rangle 5. c - c' \in \ker \beta_1 = \operatorname{im} \alpha_1
         \langle 3 \rangle 6. Pick g \in L_1 such that \alpha_1(g) = c - c'.
        \langle 3 \rangle 7. \alpha_0(\lambda(g)) = \alpha_0(e - e')
         \langle 3 \rangle 8. \ \lambda(g) = e - e'
        \langle 3 \rangle 9. e + \operatorname{im} \lambda = e' + \operatorname{im} \lambda = \delta(\beta_1(c))
\langle 1 \rangle 7. The sequence is exact at coker \mu.
    PROOF: Since im \alpha_0 = \ker \beta_0.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. The sequence is exact at coker \nu.
    PROOF: Since \beta_0 is surjective.
```

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . If  $\delta(a) = \operatorname{im} \lambda$  then  $a \in \beta_1(\ker \mu)$ 

Corollary 34.8.1. Suppose we have R-modules and homomorphisms

such that the diagram commutes and the two rows are short exact sequences.

Suppose  $\mu$  is surjective and  $\nu$  is injective. Then  $\lambda$  is surjective and  $\nu$  is an isomorphism.

PROOF: We have  $\ker \nu = \operatorname{coker} \mu = 0$  and so  $0 \xrightarrow{\delta} \operatorname{coker} \lambda \xrightarrow{\alpha_0} 0$  is an exact sequence, hence  $\operatorname{coker} \lambda = 0$  and so  $\lambda$  is surjective.

Since coker  $\mu = 0$  we have  $0 \to \operatorname{coker} \nu \to 0$  is an exact sequence and so coker  $\nu = 0$ , hence  $\nu$  is surjective, hence  $\nu$  is an isomorphism.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 34.9** (Short Five-Lemma). Suppose we have R-modules and homomorphisms

$$0 \longrightarrow L_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} M_1 \xrightarrow{\beta_1} N_1 \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\lambda} \qquad \downarrow^{\mu} \qquad \downarrow^{\nu}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow L_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha_0} M_0 \xrightarrow{\beta_0} N_0 \longrightarrow 0$$

such that the diagram commutes and the two rows are short exact sequences. If  $\lambda$  and  $\nu$  are isomorphisms then  $\mu$  is an isomorphism.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . There exists a homomorphism  $\delta: 0 \to L_0$  such that the following is an exact sequence.

$$0 \to 0 \to \ker \mu \to 0 \xrightarrow{\delta} L_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha_0} \operatorname{coker} \mu \xrightarrow{\beta_0} N_0 \to 0$$
.

Proof: Snake Lemma

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\ker \mu = 0$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . coker  $\mu = M_0$ 

**Proposition 34.10.** If  $L \stackrel{\alpha}{\to} M \stackrel{\beta}{\to} N$  is an exact sequence and L and N are Noetherian then M is Noetherian.

## Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: P be a submodule of M.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK  $a_1, \ldots, a_m$  generate  $\alpha^{-1}(P)$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . PICK  $c_1, \ldots, c_n$  that generate  $\beta(P)$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For i = 1, ..., n, PICK  $b_i$  such that  $\beta(b_i) = c_i$ . PROVE:  $\alpha(a_1), ..., \alpha(a_m), b_1, ..., b_n$  generate P.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $p \in P$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . PICK  $r_1, \ldots, r_n \in R$  such that  $r_1 c_1 + \cdots + r_n c_n = \beta(p)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ r_1 b_1 + \dots + r_n b_n p \in \ker \beta = \operatorname{im} \alpha$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . PICK  $s_1, \ldots, s_m \in R$  such that  $\alpha(s_1 a_1 + \cdots + s_m a_m) = r_1 b_1 + \cdots + r_n b_n p$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 9. \ p = s_1 \alpha(a_1) + \dots + s_m \alpha(a_m) + r_1 b_1 + \dots + r_n b_n$

**Proposition 34.11.** Let R be a ring. Let

$$0 \to M \overset{\alpha}{\to} N \overset{\beta}{\to} P \to 0$$

be a short exact sequence of left-R-modules. Let L be an R-module. Then the following is an exact sequence:

$$0 \to R - \mathbf{Mod}[P, L] \overset{R - \mathbf{Mod}[\beta, \mathrm{id}_L]}{\longrightarrow} R - \mathbf{Mod}[N, L] \overset{R - \mathbf{Mod}[\alpha, \mathrm{id}_L]}{\longrightarrow} R - \mathbf{Mod}[M, L] \ .$$

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $R - \mathbf{Mod}[\beta, \mathrm{id}_L]$  is injective.

PROOF: Since  $\beta$  is epi.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . im  $R \mathbf{Mod}[\beta, \mathrm{id}_L] = \ker R \mathbf{Mod}[\alpha, \mathrm{id}_L]$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . im  $R \mathbf{Mod}[\beta, \mathrm{id}_L] \subseteq \ker R \mathbf{Mod}[\alpha, \mathrm{id}_L]$

PROOF: For any  $\gamma \in R - \mathbf{Mod}[P, L]$  we have  $\gamma \circ \beta \circ \alpha = 0$  because  $\beta \circ \alpha = 0$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . ker  $R \mathbf{Mod}[\alpha, \mathrm{id}_L] \subseteq \mathrm{im} R \mathbf{Mod}[\beta, \mathrm{id}_L]$ 
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\gamma \in \ker R \mathbf{Mod}[\alpha, \mathrm{id}_L]$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ .  $\gamma \circ \alpha = 0$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . PICK  $\delta: P \to L$  by: for all  $p \in P$ , we have  $\delta(p) = \gamma(n)$  where  $n \in N$  is an element such that  $\beta(n) = p$ .

Prove:  $\delta \circ \beta = \gamma$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $n \in N$ 

Prove:  $\delta(\beta(n)) = \gamma(n)$ 

- $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ . PICK  $n' \in N$  such that  $\delta(\beta(n)) = \gamma(n')$  and  $\beta(n') = \beta(n)$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 6$ .  $n n' \in \ker \beta = \operatorname{im} \alpha$
- $\langle 3 \rangle$ 7. Pick  $m \in M$  such that  $\alpha(m) = n n'$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 8. \ 0 = \gamma(\alpha(m)) = \gamma(n) \gamma(n')$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 9. \ \gamma(n) = \gamma(n') = \delta(\beta(n))$

**Theorem 34.12** (Nine-Lemma). Let the following be a commuting diagram of left-R-modules.



If the rows are exact and the two rightmost columns are exact then the left column is exact.

#### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $(L_2, f_2)$  is the kernel of  $g_2$ ,  $(L_1, f_1)$  is the kernel of  $g_1$  and  $(L_0, f_0)$  is the kernel of  $g_0$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 0 is the cokernel of  $g_2$ ,  $g_1$  and  $g_0$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 3. PICK a homomomorphism  $\delta: L_0 \to 0$  such that the following is an exact sequence:

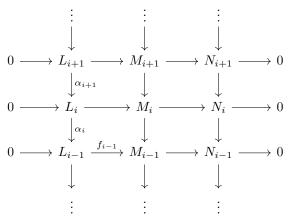
$$L_2 \stackrel{\beta_1 \upharpoonright L_2}{\to} L_1 \stackrel{\beta_0 \upharpoonright L_1}{\to} L_0 \stackrel{\delta}{\to} 0 \to 0 \to 0$$

Proof: Snake Lemma.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \beta_1 \upharpoonright L_2 = \alpha_1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ \beta_0 \upharpoonright L_1 = \alpha_0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . The following is an exact sequence:

$$0 \to L_2 \stackrel{\alpha_1}{\to} L_1 \stackrel{\alpha_0}{\to} L_0 \to 0$$

**Theorem 34.13.** Let the following be a commuting diagram of left-R-modules.



Assume the central column is a complex and every row is an exact complex. Then the left and right columns are complexes. Further, if any two of the columns are exact, then so is the third.

## Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . The left column is a complex.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in L_{i+1}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $f_{i-1}(\alpha_i(\alpha_{i+1}(x))) = 0$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \alpha_i(\alpha_{i+1}(x)) = 0$

PROOF:  $f_{i-1}$  is injective.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . The right column is a complex.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in N_{i+1}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $y \in N_{i+1}$  such that  $g_{i+1}(y) = x$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \gamma_i(\gamma_{i+1}(x)) = 0$

Proof:

$$\gamma_i(\gamma_{i+1}(x)) = \gamma_i(\gamma_{i+1}(g_{i+1}(y))) 
= g_{i-1}(\beta_i(\beta_{i+1}(y))) 
= g_{i-1}(0) 
= 0$$

```
\langle 1 \rangle3. If the left and center columns are exact then the right column is exact.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: n_i \in \ker \gamma_{i-1}
               PROVE: n_i \in \operatorname{im} \gamma_i
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Pick m_i \in M_i such that g_i(m_i) = n_i
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ g_{i-1}(\beta_i(m_i)) = 0
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. \beta_i(m_i) \in \ker g_{i-1} = \operatorname{im} f_{i-1}
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. Pick l_{i-1} \in L_{i-1} such that f_{i-1}(l_{i-1}) = \beta_i(m_i)
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ \beta_{i-1}(f_{i-1}(l_{i-1})) = 0
    \langle 2 \rangle 7. \ f_{i-2}(\alpha_{i-1}(l_{i-1})) = 0
    \langle 2 \rangle 8. \ \alpha_{i-1}(l_{i-1}) = 0
    \langle 2 \rangle 9. \ l_{i-1} \in \ker \alpha_{i-1} = \operatorname{im} \alpha_i
    \langle 2 \rangle 10. Pick l_i \in L_i such that \alpha_i(l_i) = l_{i-1}
    \langle 2 \rangle 11. \ \beta_i(f_i(l_i)) = \beta_i(m_i)
    \langle 2 \rangle 12. f_i(l_i) - m_i \in \ker \beta_i = \operatorname{im} \beta_{i+1}
    \langle 2 \rangle 13. PICK m_{i+1} \in M_{i+1} such that \beta_{i+1}(m_{i+1}) = f_i(l_i) - m_i
    \langle 2 \rangle 14. \ \gamma_{i+1}(-g_{i+1}(m_{i+1})) = n_i
\langle 1 \rangle 4. If the left and right columns are exact then the center column is exact.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: x \in \ker \beta_i
               PROVE: x \in \operatorname{im} \beta_{i+1}
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. g_{i-1}(\beta_i(x)) = 0
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \gamma_i(g_i(x)) = 0
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ g_i(x) \in \ker \gamma_i = \operatorname{im} \gamma_{i+1}
    \langle 2 \rangle5. PICK n_{i+1} \in N_{i+1} such that \gamma_{i+1}(n_{i+1}) = g_i(x)
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. Pick m_{i+1} \in M_{i+1} such that g_{i+1}(m_{i+1}) = n_{i+1}
    \langle 2 \rangle 7. \ g_i(\beta_{i+1}(m_{i+1})) = g_i(x)
    \langle 2 \rangle 8. \ \beta_{i+1}(m_{i+1}) - x \in \ker g_i = \operatorname{im} f_i
    \langle 2 \rangle 9. Pick l_i \in L_i such that f_i(l_i) = \beta_{i+1}(m_{i+1}) - x
    \langle 2 \rangle 10. \ \beta_i(f_i(l_i)) = 0
    \langle 2 \rangle 11. \ f_{i-1}(\alpha_i(l_i)) = 0
    \langle 2 \rangle 12. \alpha_i(l_i) = 0
    \langle 2 \rangle 13. \ l_i \in \ker \alpha_i = \operatorname{im} \alpha_{i+1}
    \langle 2 \rangle 14. PICK l_{i+1} \in L_{i+1} such that \alpha_{i+1}(l_{i+1}) = l_i
    \langle 2 \rangle 15. \ \beta_{i+1}(f_{i+1}(l_{i+1})) = \beta_{i+1}(m_{i+1}) - x
    \langle 2 \rangle 16. \ \ x = \beta_{i+1} (m_{i+1} - f_{i+1}(l_{i+1}))
\langle 1 \rangle5. If the center and right columns are exact then the left column is exact.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: l_i \in \ker \alpha_i
              PROVE: l_i \in \operatorname{im} \alpha_{i+1}
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. \beta_i(f_i(l_i)) = 0
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. f_i(l_i) \in \ker \beta_i = \operatorname{im} \beta_{i+1}
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. Pick m_{i+1} \in M_{i+1} such that \beta_{i+1}(m_{i+1}) = f_i(l_i)
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ \gamma_{i+1}(g_{i+1}(m_{i+1})) = 0
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ g_{i+1}(m_{i+1}) \in \ker \gamma_{i+1} = \operatorname{im} \gamma_{i+2}
    \langle 2 \rangle 7. PICK n_{i+2} \in N_{i+2} such that \gamma_{i+2}(n_{i+2}) = g_{i+1}(m_{i+1})
    \langle 2 \rangle 8. Pick m_{i+2} \in M_{i+2} such that g_{i+2}(m_{i+2}) = n_{i+2}
    \langle 2 \rangle 9. \ g_{i+1}(\beta_{i+2}(n_{i+2})) = g_{i+1}(m_{i+1})
```

 $\langle 2 \rangle 10. \ \beta_{i+2}(n_{i+2}) - m_{i+1} \in \ker g_{i+1} = \operatorname{im} f_{i+1}$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 11$$
. PICK  $l_{i+1} \in L_{i+1}$  such that  $f_{i+1}(l_{i+1}) = \beta_{i+2}(n_{i+2}) - m_{i+1}$   
 $\langle 2 \rangle 12$ .  $f_i(\alpha_{i+1}(l_{i+1})) = -f_i(l_i)$   
 $\langle 2 \rangle 13$ .  $l_i = \alpha_{i+1}(-l_{i+1})$ 

**Corollary 34.13.1** (Nine-Lemma). Let the following be a commuting diagram of left-R-modules.

$$0 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow 0$$

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

$$0 \longrightarrow L_2 \xrightarrow{f_2} M_2 \xrightarrow{g_2} N_2 \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\alpha_1} \qquad \downarrow^{\beta_1} \qquad \downarrow^{\gamma_1}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow L_1 \xrightarrow{f_1} M_1 \xrightarrow{g_1} N_1 \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\alpha_0} \qquad \downarrow^{\beta_0} \qquad \downarrow^{\gamma_0}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow L_0 \xrightarrow{f_0} M_0 \xrightarrow{g_0} N_0 \longrightarrow 0$$

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

$$0 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow 0$$

If the rows are exact and the two leftmost columns are exact then the right column is exact.

**Proposition 34.14.** Let the following be a commuting diagram of left-R-modules.



If the rows are exact and the left and right columns are exact then  $\beta_1$  is monic.

PROOF: By the Snake Lemma, the following is an exact sequence

$$0 \to \ker \alpha_1 \to \ker \beta_1 \to \ker \gamma_1$$

But  $\ker \alpha_1 = \ker \gamma_1 = 0$  so  $\ker \beta_1 = 0$ .  $\square$ 

**Proposition 34.15.** Let the following be a commuting diagram of left-R-modules.

$$0 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow 0$$

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

$$0 \longrightarrow L_2 \xrightarrow{f_2} M_2 \xrightarrow{g_2} N_2 \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\alpha_1} \qquad \downarrow^{\beta_1} \qquad \downarrow^{\gamma_1}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow L_1 \xrightarrow{f_1} M_1 \xrightarrow{g_1} N_1 \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\alpha_0} \qquad \downarrow^{\beta_0} \qquad \downarrow^{\gamma_0}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow L_0 \xrightarrow{f_0} M_0 \xrightarrow{g_0} N_0 \longrightarrow 0$$

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

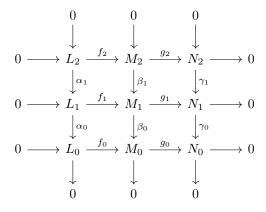
$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$0 \qquad 0 \qquad 0$$

If the rows are exact and the left and right columns are exact then  $\beta_0$  is epi.

PROOF: Similar.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 34.16.** Let the following be a commuting diagram of left-R-modules.



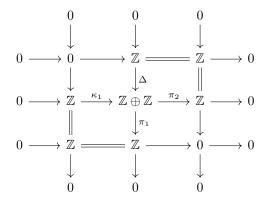
If the rows are exact, the left and right columns are exact, and the central column is a complex, then the central column is exact.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in \ker \beta_0$ Prove:  $x \in \operatorname{im} \beta_1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \gamma_0(g_1(x)) = 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ g_1(x) \in \ker \gamma_0 = \operatorname{im} \gamma_1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . PICK  $n_2 \in N_2$  such that  $\gamma_1(n_2) = g_1(x)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Pick  $m_2 \in M_2$  such that  $g_2(m_2) = n_2$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ g_1(\beta_1(m_2)) = g_1(x)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ .  $\beta_1(m_2) x \in \ker g_1 = \operatorname{im} f_1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . PICK  $l_1 \in L_1$  such that  $f_1(l) = \beta_1(m_2) x$ .

```
\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 9. \ f_0(\alpha_0(l_1)) = 0 \\ \langle 1 \rangle 10. \ \alpha_0(l_1) = 0 \\ \langle 1 \rangle 11. \ l_1 \in \ker \alpha_0 = \operatorname{im} \alpha_1 \\ \langle 1 \rangle 12. \ \operatorname{PICK} \ l_2 \in L_2 \ \operatorname{such \ that} \ \alpha_1(l_2) = l_1. \\ \langle 1 \rangle 13. \ \beta_1(f_2(l_2)) = \beta_1(m_2) - x \\ \langle 1 \rangle 14. \ x = \beta_1(m_2 - f_2(l_2)) \end{array}
```

**Example 34.17.** We cannot remove the hypothesis that the central column is a complex. Consider the situation



This diagram commutes, the rows are exact, the left and right columns are exact, but the central column is not a complex and im  $\Delta \neq \ker \pi_1$ .

## 34.1 Split Exact Sequences

**Definition 34.18** (Split Sequence). Let  $0 \to M_1 \stackrel{\alpha}{\to} N \stackrel{\beta}{\to} M_2 \to 0$  be a short exact sequence. Then this sequence *splits* iff there exists an isomorphism

$$\phi: N \cong M_1 \oplus M_2$$

such that  $\phi \circ \alpha = \kappa_1 : M_1 \to M_1 \oplus M_2$  and  $\beta \circ \phi^{-1} = \pi_2 : M_1 \oplus M_2 \to M_2$ .

**Proposition 34.19.** Let  $\phi: M \to N$  be a left-R-module homomorphism. Then  $\phi$  has a left-inverse if and only if the sequence

$$0 \to M \stackrel{\phi}{\to} N \to \operatorname{coker} \phi \to 0$$

splits.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If  $\phi$  has a left-inverse then the sequence splits.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $\phi$  has a left-inverse  $\psi : N \to M$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Define  $i: N \to M \oplus \operatorname{coker} \phi$  by  $i(n) = (\psi(n), n + \operatorname{im} \phi)$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Define  $i^{-1}: M \oplus \operatorname{coker} \phi$  by  $i^{-1}(m, x + \operatorname{im} \phi) = \phi(m) + x - \phi(\psi(x))$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $i \circ i^{-1} = \mathrm{id}_{M \oplus \mathrm{coker} \, \phi}$ 

Proof:

$$\psi(\phi(m) + x - \phi(\psi(x))) = m + \psi(x) - \psi(x)$$

$$- m$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ i^{-1} \circ i = \mathrm{id}_N$ 

Proof:

$$i^{-1}(\psi(n), n + \operatorname{im} \phi) = \phi(\psi(n)) + n - \phi(\psi(n))$$
$$= n$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ i \circ \phi = \kappa_1 : M \to M \oplus \operatorname{coker} \phi$ 

Proof:

$$i(\phi(m)) = (\psi(\phi(m)), \phi(m) + \operatorname{im} \phi)$$
$$= (m, \operatorname{im} \phi)$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ .  $\pi \circ i^{-1} = \pi_2 : M \oplus \operatorname{coker} \phi \to \operatorname{coker} \phi$ 

Proof:

$$i^{-1}(\psi(n), n + \operatorname{im} \phi) + \operatorname{im} \phi = \phi(\psi(n)) + n - \phi(\psi(n)) + \operatorname{im} \phi$$
$$= n + \operatorname{im} \phi$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If the sequence splits then  $\phi$  has a left-inverse.

PROOF: Since  $\kappa_1: M \to M \oplus \operatorname{coker} \phi$  has left inverse  $\pi_1$ .

**Proposition 34.20.** Let  $\phi: M \to N$  be a left-R-module homomorphism. Then  $\phi$  has a right-inverse if and only if the sequence

$$0 \to \ker \phi \to M \stackrel{\phi}{\to} N \to 0$$

splits.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If  $\phi$  has a right-inverse then the sequence splits.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\psi : N \to M$  be a right inverse to  $\phi$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $i: M \to \ker \phi \oplus N$  be the function  $i(m) = (m \psi(\phi(m)), \phi(m))$ . Proof:  $m \psi(\phi(m)) \in \ker \phi$  since  $\phi(m \psi(\phi(m))) = \phi(m) \phi(m) = 0$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $i^{-1}$ :  $\ker \phi \oplus N \to M$  be the function  $i^{-1}(x,n) = x + \psi(n)$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ i \circ i^{-1} = \mathrm{id}_{\ker \phi \oplus N}$

Proof:

$$i(i^{-1}(x,n)) = i(x + \psi(n))$$

$$= (x + \psi(n) - \psi(\phi(x)) - \psi(\phi(\psi(n))), \phi(x) + \phi(\psi(n)))$$

$$= (x + \psi(n) - \psi(n), n)$$

$$= (x, n)$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ i^{-1} \circ i = \mathrm{id}_M$ 

Proof:

$$i^{-1}(i(m)) = m - \psi(\phi(m)) + \psi(\phi(m))$$
$$= m$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ i \circ \iota = \kappa_1$ 

PROOF: For  $m \in \ker \phi$  we have  $i(m) = (m - \psi(\phi(m)), \phi(m)) = (m, 0)$ .  $\langle 2 \rangle_{-}^{7}$ .  $\phi \circ i^{-1} = \pi_2$ 

Proof:

$$\phi(i^{-1}(x,n)) = \phi(x) + \phi(\psi(n))$$
$$= 0 + n$$
$$= n$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2.$  If the sequence splits then  $\phi$  has a right-inverse.

PROOF: Since  $\kappa_2: N \to M \oplus N$  is a right-inverse to  $\pi_2$ .

## Proposition 34.21. Let

$$0 \to M \xrightarrow{\alpha} N \xrightarrow{\beta} F \to 0$$

be a short exact sequence where F is free. Then the sequence splits.

## Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $F = R^{\oplus A}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK  $\gamma : F \to N$  such that  $\mathrm{id}_F = \beta \circ \gamma$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $i: M \oplus F \to N$  be the homomorphism  $i(m, f) = \alpha(m) + \gamma(f)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . *i* is injective.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: i(m, f) = i(m', f')
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $\alpha(m) + \gamma(f) = \alpha(m') + \gamma(f')$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $\alpha(m-m') = \gamma(f-f')$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . f f' = 0

PROOF: Applying  $\beta$  to both sides of  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 5.$  f = f'
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ .  $\alpha(m-m')=0$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ . m = m'

PROOF: Since  $\alpha$  is injective.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . *i* is surjective.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $n \in N$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $n \gamma(\beta(n)) \in \ker \beta = \operatorname{im} \alpha$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $m \in M$  such that  $\alpha(m) = n \gamma(\beta(n))$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $n = i(m, \beta(n))$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ \alpha = i \circ \kappa_1$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ \beta \circ i = \pi_2$

# Homology

**Definition 35.1** (Homology). Let  $(M_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet})$  be a chain complex. The *ith homology* of the complex is the R-module

$$H_i(M_{\bullet}) := \frac{\ker d_i}{\operatorname{im} d_{i+1}}$$
.

**Proposition 35.2.** Consider the complex

$$0 \to M_1 \stackrel{\phi}{\to} M_0 \to 0$$
.

The 1st homology is  $\ker \phi$ , and the 0th homology is  $\operatorname{coker} \phi$ .

# Part IV Field Theory

**Example 36.2.**  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{C}$  are fields.

# Fields

Proposition 36.3. Every field is an integral domain.
Proof: By Propositions 12.8 and 12.9. $\square$
<b>Example 36.4.</b> The converse does not hold: $\mathbb Z$ is an integral domain but not a field.
Proposition 36.5. Every finite integral domain is a field.
Proof: In a finite integral domain, multiplication by any non-zero element is injective, hence surjective. $\Box$
Corollary 36.5.1. For any positive integer n, the following are equivalent:
• n is prime.
$ullet$ $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is an integral domain.
• $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is a field.
<b>Theorem 36.6</b> (Wedderburn's Little Theorem). Every finite division ring is a field.
Proposition 36.7. Every subring of a field is an integral domain.
Proof: Easy. $\square$
Proposition 36.8. The center of a division ring is a field.
PROOF: $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: $R$ be a division ring. $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let: $Z$ be the center of $R$ . $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . $Z$ is non-trivial.

**Definition 36.1** (Field). A *field* is a non-trivial commutative division ring.

```
PROOF: Since 1 \in Z. \langle 1 \rangle 4. Z is commutative. \langle 1 \rangle 5. Z is a division ring. \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: a \in Z \langle 2 \rangle 2. a^{-1} \in Z \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: x \in R \langle 3 \rangle 2. ax = xa \langle 3 \rangle 3. xa^{-1} = a^{-1}x
```

**Definition 36.9.** For any prime p and positive integer r, define a multiplication on  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^r$  that makes this group into a field by:

**Proposition 36.10.** A commutative ring is a field if and only if it is simple.

Proof: Proposition 22.5.

Corollary 36.10.1. Every field has Krull dimension 0.

**Proposition 36.11.** Let K be a field. Then K[x] is a PID, and every non-zero ideal in K[x] is generated by a unique monic polynomial.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: I be a non-zero ideal in K[x]
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK a monic polynomial  $f \in K[x]$  of minimal degree.

Prove: I = (f)

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $g \in I$
- (1)4. PICK polynomials q, r with deg  $r < \deg f$  such that g = qf + r
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ r \in I$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ r = 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ g \in (f)$

**Proposition 36.12.** Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal in R. Then I is maximal iff R/I is a field.

PROOF: From Proposition 23.3.

**Example 36.13.** Let R be a commutative ring and  $a \in R$ . Then (x - a) is a maximal ideal in R[x] iff R is a field, since  $R[x]/(x - a) \cong R$ .

**Example 36.14.** The ideal (2, x) is a maximal ideal in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ , since  $\mathbb{Z}[x]/(2, x) \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Proposition 36.15.** Every maximal ideal in a commutative ring is a prime ideal.

PROOF: Since every field is an integral domain.

**Proposition 36.16.** Let R be a commutative ring and I an ideal in R. If I is a prime ideal and R/I is finite then I is a maximal ideal.

Proof: Since every finite integral domain is a field.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 36.17.** Let R be a commutative ring and I a proper ideal in R. Then I is maximal iff, whenever J is an ideal and  $I \subseteq J$ , then I = J or J = R.

**Example 36.18.** The inverse image of a maximal ideal under a homomorphism is not necessarily maximal.

Let  $i: \mathbb{Z}[x] \to \mathbb{Q}[x]$  be the inclusion. Then (x) is maximal in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$  but its inverse image (x) is not maximal in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ .

**Definition 36.19** (Maximal Spectrum). Let R be a commutative ring. The *maximal spectrum* of R is the set of all maximal ideals in R.

**Proposition 36.20.** Let K be a field. The Krull dimension of  $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$  is n.

**Theorem 36.21** (Hilbert's Nullstellensatz). Let K be a field and L a subfield of K. If K is an L-algebra of finite type, then K is a finite L-algebra.

**Proposition 36.22.** Let K be a subfield of L. Then L is a K-algebra under multiplication.

Proof: Easy.

## Algebraically Closed Fields

**Definition 37.1** (Algebraically Closed). A field K is algebraically closed iff, for every  $f \in K[x]$  that is not constant, there exists  $r \in K$  such that f(r) = 0.

**Theorem 37.2.**  $\mathbb{C}$  is algebraically closed.

**Proposition 37.3.** Let K be an algebraically closed field. Let I be an ideal in K[x]. Then I is maximal if and only if I = (x - c) for some  $c \in K$ .

#### Proof:

```
\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 1. \text{ If } I \text{ is maximal then there exists } c \in K \text{ such that } I = (x-c). \\ \langle 2 \rangle 1. \text{ Assume: } I \text{ is maximal.} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 2. \text{ PICK } f \text{ monic of minimal degree such that } f \in I. \\ \langle 2 \rangle 3. f \text{ is not constant.} \\ \text{PROOF: Otherwise } f = 1 \text{ and } I = K[x]. \\ \langle 2 \rangle 4. \text{ PICK } c \in K \text{ such that } f(c) = 0 \\ \langle 2 \rangle 5. x - c \mid f \\ \langle 2 \rangle 6. I \subseteq (x-c) \\ \langle 2 \rangle 7. I = (x-c) \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ For all } c \in K \text{ we have } (x-c) \text{ is maximal.} \\ \text{PROOF: Example 36.13.} \\ \Box
```

# Part V Linear Algebra

## Vector Spaces

**Definition 38.1** (Vector Space). Let K be a field. A K-vector space is a K-module. A linear map is a homomorphism of K-modules. We write  $K - \mathbf{Vect}$  for  $K - \mathbf{Mod}$ .

**Definition 38.2.** Let  $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$  be the group of invertible  $n \times n$  real matrices.  $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$  acts on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  by matrix multiplication.

**Definition 38.3.** Let  $GL_n(\mathbb{C})$  be the group of invertible  $n \times n$  complex matrices.  $GL_n(\mathbb{C})$  acts on  $\mathbb{C}^n$  by matrix multiplication.

**Definition 38.4.** Let  $SL_n(\mathbb{R}) = \{ M \in GL_n(\mathbb{R}) : \det M = 1 \}.$ 

**Proposition 38.5.**  $\mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbb{R})$  is a normal subgroup of  $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ .

PROOF: If det M = 1 then det $(AMA^{-1}) = (\det A)(\det M)(\det A)^{-1} = 1$ .

Proposition 38.6.

$$\operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})/\operatorname{SL}_n(\mathbb{R}) \cong \mathbb{R}^*$$

**Definition 38.7.** Let  $\mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbb{C}) = \{ M \in \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{C}) : \det M = 1 \}.$ 

**Definition 38.8.** Let  $O_n(\mathbb{R}) = \{ M \in GL_n(\mathbb{R}) : MM^T = M^TM = I_n \}.$ 

**Proposition 38.9.** The action of  $O_n(\mathbb{R})$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  preserves lengths and angles.

**Definition 38.10.** Let  $SO_n(\mathbb{R}) = \{ M \in O_n(\mathbb{R}) : \det M = 1 \}.$ 

**Definition 38.11.** Let  $U_n(\mathbb{C}) = \{ M \in GL_n(\mathbb{C}) : MM^{\dagger} = M^{\dagger}M = I_n \}.$ 

**Definition 38.12.** Let  $SU_n(\mathbb{C}) = \{M \in U_n(\mathbb{C}) : \det M = 1\}.$ 

**Proposition 38.13.** Every matrix in  $SU_2(\mathbb{C})$  can be written in the form

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
a+bi & c+di \\
-c+di & a-bi
\end{array}\right)$$

for some  $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2 = 1$ .

PROOF:  

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1$$
. LET:  $M = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} \in SU_2(\mathbb{C})$   
 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $M^{-1} = M^{\dagger}$   
 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\begin{pmatrix} \delta & -\beta \\ -\gamma & \alpha \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \overline{\alpha} & \overline{\gamma} \\ \overline{\beta} & \overline{\delta} \end{pmatrix}$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ M^{-1} = M^{-1}$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 3. \begin{pmatrix} \delta & -\beta \\ -\gamma & \alpha \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \overline{\alpha} & \overline{\gamma} \\ \overline{\beta} & \overline{\delta} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 4$$
. Let:  $\alpha = a + bi$  and  $\beta = c + di$ .

$$\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ \delta = \overline{\alpha} = a - bi$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ \gamma = -\overline{\beta} = -c + di$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 6. \quad \gamma = -\overline{\beta} = -c + di$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 7. \quad \det M = a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2 = 1$$

Corollary 38.13.1.  $SU_2(\mathbb{C})$  is simply connected.

Corollary 38.13.2.

$$SO_3(\mathbb{R}) \cong SU_2(\mathbb{C})/\{I, -I\}$$

PROOF: The function that maps  $\begin{pmatrix} a+bi & c+di \\ -c+di & a-bi \end{pmatrix}$  to  $\begin{pmatrix} a^2+b^2-c^2-d^2 & 2(bc-ad) & 2(ad+bc) & a^2-b^2+c^2-d^2 & 2(ad+bc) & 2(ad+bc) & a^2-b^2+c^2-d^2 & a^2-b^2-d^2 & a^$ 

is a surjective homomorphism with kernel  $\{I, -I\}$ .  $\square$ 

Corollary 38.13.3. The fundamental group of  $SO_3(\mathbb{R})$  is  $C_2$ .