Abstract Algebra

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Contents

1 Background

Definition 1.1 (Injective/surjective/bijective)**.** Suppose $f : A \to B$, $a_1, a_2 \in A$ and $f(a_1) = b_2, f(a_2) = b_2$. f is injective iff $a_1 \neq a_2$ implies $b_1 \neq b_2$. f is surjective iff $\forall b \in B$, $\exists a \in A$, $f(a) = b$. f is bijective iff f is surjective and injective

Definition 1.2 (Left/right inverse)**.** Let $f : A \to B$. f has a left inverse if there is a function $g : B \to A$ such that $g \circ f : A \to A$ is the identity map on A. f has a right inverse if there is a function $h : B \to A$ such that $f \circ h : B \to B$ is the identity map on B.

Proposition 1.3. Let $f : A \to B$. The map f is injective iff it has a left inverse. The map f is surjective iff it has a right inverse.

Proof: Suppose f has a left inverse. If f is not injective, there exists $a_1, a_2 \in A$ with $a_1 \neq a_2$ such that $f(a_1) = f(a_2)$. But then $g \circ f(a_1) = g \circ f(a_2)$ a contradiction. Suppose f is injective, and $b_1 \in f(A)$ with $b_1 \neq b_2$. Then for each b_1 there exists a unique $f^{-1}(b_1) \in A$ such that $f(f^{-1}(b_1)) = b_1$. Define $g : B \to A$ by $b_1 \mapsto f^{-1}(b_1)$. Then $g \circ f : A \to A$ is the identity function on A.

Suppose f has a right inverse g, and suppose to the contrary that f is not surjective. Then $f(A)$ is a proper subset of B. Because $g(B) \subseteq A$, then $f(g(B))$ is a proper subset of B, a contradiction. Suppose f is surjective. Then for all $b \in B$ there exists an $a \in A$ such that $f(a = b)$. Define $g : B \to A$ by $b \mapsto a$. Then $f \circ g(b) = b$ for all $b \in B$.

□

Definition 1.4 (Permutation)**.** A permutation of a set A is a bijection from A to A.

Definition 1.5 (Relation)**.** Suppose A and B are sets. A subset $R \subseteq A \times B$ is a relation from A to B.

Definition 1.6. Suppose R a relation on A. Then:

(a) R is reflexive on A if $\forall x \in A$, xRx

(b) R is symmetric on A if $\forall a, b \in A$, $aRb \Rightarrow bRa$

(c) R is antisymmetric on A if $\forall a, b \in A$, $aRb \wedge bRa \Rightarrow a = b$

(d) R is transitive on A if $\forall a, b, c \in A$, $aRb \wedge bRc \Rightarrow aRc$

Definition 1.7 (Equivalence relation)**.** Suppose R a relation on A. R is an equivalence relation if R is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.

Definition 1.8 (Well ordering of $\mathbb{Z}$)**.** If A is any nonempty subset of $\mathbb{Z}^+$,

$$\exists m \in A \, \forall a \in A, \, m \leq a$$

Definition 1.9 (Divisibility)**.** If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \neq 0$, we say a divides b (denoted $a|b$) is there is an element $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $b = ac$.

Definition 1.10 (GCD)**.** If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$, there is a unique positive integer d, called the greatest common divisor of a and b, satisfying:

(a) $d|a$ and $d|b$

(b) if $e|a$ and $e|b$, then $e|d$

If the GCD of a and b is 1, then we say a and b are relatively prime.

Definition 1.11 (LCM)**.** If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$, there is a unique positive integer l called the least common multiple of a and b satisfying:

(a) $a|l$ and $b|l$

(b) if $a|m$ and $b|m$, then $l|m$

Remark. The relationship between the GCD d and the LCM l is $dl = ab$. For intuition, think of a and b seperated into their prime factors, LCM by necessity is the product of the union of prime factors from a and b. The product of intersection of prime factors is the GCD.

Definition 1.12 (Division algorithm)**.** If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$, then there exist unique $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$a = qb + r \text{ and } 0 \leq r < |b|,$$

where q is the quotient and r the remainder.

Lemma 1.13. If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ and using the division algorithm

$$a = qb + r,$$

it follows that if $r > 0$, the GCD of b and r is equal to the GCD of a and b. If $r = 0$, the GCD of a and b is b.

Proof: In the case that $r > 0$, suppose g_{ab} is the GCD of a and b, and that g_{br} is the GCD of b and r. $g_{ab}|b$ and $g_{ab}|qb + r$ so $g_{ab}|r$. Thus $g_{ab}|g_{br}$ and $g_{ab} \leq g_{br}$. Clearly $g_{br}|qb + r$ so $g_{br}|a$ and $g_{br}|g_{ab}$ so $g_{ab} \geq g_b r$. Therefore $g_{br} = g_{ab}$.

In the case that $r = 0$, $b|qb$ so $b|a$ and $b|b$. Clearly condition two of the definition of GCD is satisfied by b, so b is the GCD of a and b. □

Definition 1.14 (Euclidean algorithm)**.** This procedure produces a GCD of two integers a and b by iterating the division algorithm. If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$, inductively define the sequence $\{r_n\}_{n=0}^{k}$ as follows:

$$\begin{cases} n = 0, \quad r_0 = b \\ n = 1, r_1 > 0 \quad ? \quad a = q_1 r_0 + r_1 \quad : \quad k = n - 1 \qquad \# \text{ return} \\ n > 1, r_{n-1} > 0 \quad ? \quad r_{n-2} = q_n r_{n-1} + r_n \quad : \quad k = n - 1 \end{cases}$$

The last element in the sequence is the GCD of a and b.

Proof: Following lemma 1.13, the last element of r_k of $\{r_n\}$ is the GCD of its pair r_{k-1}, r_k because $r_{k+1} = 0$, and thus is the GCD of each pair in the sequence. □

Definition 1.15 (Prime)**.** An element $p \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ is called a prime if $p > 1$ and the only positive divisors of p are 1 and p.

Theorem 1.16 (Fundamental theorem of arithmetic)**.** *If $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $n > 1$, then n can be factored uniquely into the product of primes.*

Definition 1.17 (Partition)**.** Suppose A is a set and $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(A)$. $\mathcal{F}$ is called a partition of A if it has the following properties:

(a) $\bigcup \mathcal{F} = A$

(b) $\mathcal{F}$ is pairwise disjoint.

(c) $\forall X \in \mathcal{F}$, $X \neq \emptyset$

2 Group theory

2.1 Binary operators, groups and subgroups

Definition 2.1 (Binary operation)**.** A binary operation $*$ on a set S is a function

$$* : (S \times S) \to S$$

Definition 2.2 (Group)**.** A group $(G, \cdot)$ is a set G with the operation $\cdot$ defined

$$\cdot : G \times G \to G$$

that satisfies the following properties:

(a) $\forall a, b, c \in G$, $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$. (associativity)

(b) $\exists e \in G \, \forall a \in G$, $e \cdot a = a = a \cdot e$. (identity element)

(c) $\forall a \, \exists a'$, $a' \cdot a = e = a \cdot a'$. (inverse element)

Commutivity of the inverse and identity elements is a consequence of

Theorem 2.3 (Identity of a group is unique)**.**

Proof: Suppose e and $\overline{e}$ identity elements of a group. Then

$$e \cdot \overline{e} = e = \overline{e}.$$

□

Lemma 2.4. If $(G, \cdot)$ is a group, then for all $a, b, c \in G$,

$$a \cdot b = a \cdot c \Rightarrow b = c,$$
$$b \cdot a = c \cdot a \Rightarrow b = c,$$

Proof: This proof utilizes all three group axioms, and shows group elements are duck-typed. First we prove left cancellation. Suppose $a \cdot b = a \cdot c$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} a' \cdot (a \cdot b) &= a' \cdot (a \cdot c) \\ (a' \cdot a) \cdot b &= (a' \cdot a) \cdot c \\ e \cdot b &= e \cdot c \\ b &= c \end{aligned}$$

Next, we prove right cancellation. Suppose $b \cdot a = c \cdot a$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} (b \cdot a) \cdot a' &= (c \cdot a) \cdot a' \\ b \cdot (a \cdot a') &= c \cdot (a \cdot a') \\ b \cdot e &= c \cdot e \\ b &= c \end{aligned}$$

□

Corollary 2.5. For elements $a, c \in (G, \cdot)$ the element $b \in G$ such that $a \cdot b = c$, is unique.

Definition 2.6 (Abelian)**.** An abelian group is one for which it's group operator is commutative.

Remark (Multiplicative and additive groups)**.** The use of $+$ or $\cdot$ as the group operator is notational preference, however additive groups usually refer to an abelian group. By default, when we say that G is a group, we mean that $(G, \cdot)$ is a multiplicative group, and utilize notation accordingly.

Definition 2.7 (Subgroup)**.** We say that H is a subgroup of G, denoted $H \leq G$, if G, H are groups with the same group operation and $G \subseteq H$.

Theorem 2.8 (Subgroup test)**.** *Let G be a group. Then $H \leq G$ iff*

(a) $\emptyset \neq H \subseteq G$

(b) $a, b \in H \Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in H$

Proof: We must prove that the $\cdot$ operation on H is defined on $H \times H$, and that group axioms hold on H. Suppose G a group, and H meets the above criteria. If $a \in H$ then $aa^{-1} = e \in H$. It follows that $ea^{-1} = a^{-1} \in H$, and thus every element in H has an inverse in H. Therefore for any $b, c \in H$, $c^{-1} \in H$ so $bc \in H$ and H is closed under the group operation on G. The group operation on H is associative by definition, so H is a subgroup. The right implication is trivial. □

Definition 2.9 (Modulo and equivalence classes)**.** If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, *a modulo b*, denoted $a \bmod b$ is the remainder of $a|b$. Suppose $\sim$ is an equivalence relation on a set A, and $x \in A$. Then the *equivalence class* of x with respect to $\sim$ is the set

$$[x] = \{y \in A \mid y \sim x\}.$$

The set of all equivalence classes of elements A is called A *modulo* $\sim$ and denoted $A/\sim$. The equivalence class mod n of a is the set of all integers which differ from a by some integer multiple of n. The integers modulo n, denoted $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$, is the set of equivalence classes mod n of all integers.

Proposition 2.10. If $a = a_n 10^n + \ldots + a_1 10 + a_0$ is any positive integer then $a \equiv a_n + a_{n-1} + \ldots + a_0$.

Proof: 10 is equivalent to 1(mod 9), therefore a is equivalent to $a_n(\text{mod } 9) + \ldots + a_0(\text{mod } 9)$ which is equivalent to $a_n + a_{n-1} + \ldots + a_0$. □

Remark. This fact is why an integer is divisible by 9 iff the sum of its digits are divisible by 9.

Theorem 2.11. *Suppose $\sim$ is an equivalence relation on $A \neq \emptyset$. Then $A/\sim$ is a partition of A.*

Proof: $A/\sim$ contains $[x]$ for each $x \in A$. Because $\sim$ is reflexive, $x \in [x]$, so $A \subseteq \bigcup A/\sim$. Because $\sim$ a relation on A, $\bigcup A/\sim \subseteq A$, and thus $\bigcup A/\sim = A$. Suppose $[a], [b] \in A/\sim$ with $[a] \neq [b]$, and suppose to the contrary there exists $c \in A$ such that $c \in [a] \cap [b]$. Because aRc and cRb we have aRb and bRa. Then if $x \in [a]$ and $y \in [b]$, by transitivity we have xRb and yRa, so $[a] = [b]$, a contradiction. Therefore $[a] \cap [b] = \emptyset$. Each $[a] \in A$ contains $a \in A$ because $\sim$ reflexive, so $[a] \neq \emptyset$. □

2.2 Cosets, normal subgroups, cyclic groups

Definition 2.12. Let $H \leq G$. define the relation $\sim$ on G by $a \sim b$ if $b^{-1}a \in H$.

Remark. For the remainder of discussion of groups within these notes, $\sim$ represents the above relation.

Theorem 2.13. *$\sim$ is an equivalence relation on G.*

Proof:

(a) For any $a \in G$, $a^{-1}a = e \in H$, so $\sim$ is reflexive.

(b) Suppose $a, b \in G$ and $a \sim b$. Then $b^{-1}a \in H$, so $a^{-1}b \in H$ and $\sim$ is symmetric.

(c) Suppose $a, b, c \in G$ and $a \sim b$ as well as $b \sim c$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} & b^{-1}a \in H \wedge c^{-1}b \in H \\ & a^{-1}b \in H \wedge b^{-1}c \in H \\ & a^{-1}c \in H \\ & c^{-1}a \in H \\ & \Rightarrow aRc \end{aligned}$$

so $\sim$ is transitive.

□

Lemma 2.14. If $a \notin H$, then $e \notin [a]$

Proof: If $e \in [a]$, then $a^{-1}e \in H$ and thus $a \in H$. □

Lemma 2.15. $a \in H$ and $b \in [a]$ iff $b \in H$.

Proof: Following lemma 2.14, eRa. Because $\sim$ is transitive and symmetric,

$$bRa \Rightarrow aRb \Rightarrow eRb \Rightarrow b^{-1}e \in H \Rightarrow b \in H.$$

If $a, b \in H$, $ab \in H$. □

Definition 2.16 (Left coset)**.** Let $H \leq G$ and $a \in G$. We say that

$$aH = \{ah \,|\, h \in H\} = [a]$$

is the left coset of H containing a.

Remark. For additive groups, we would write the left coset of H containing a as

$$a + H.$$

Remark. Let $H \leq G$. Set

$$G//H = \{aH \,|\, a \in G\}$$

Theorem 2.17 (Lagrange's theorem)**.** *Let $|G| < \infty$ and $H \leq G$. Then $|H|$ divides $|G|$.*

Proof: We know from lemma 2.28 that for all a, $|aH| = |H|$. Following lemma 2.11, $G//H$ is a partition of G, so $|G| = |G//H|\,|H|$. □

Definition 2.18 (Index)**.** Let $H \leq G$. define the index $[G : H]$ of H in G by

$$[G : H] = |G//H|$$

Remark. Lagrange's theorem implies that

$$[G : H] = |G|/|H|.$$

Definition 2.19. Let $H \leq G$. We say that H is a normal subgroup of G, written $H \trianglelefteq G$, if $aH = Ha$ for all $a \in G$.

Lemma 2.20. Let $H \leq G$. Then $H \trianglelefteq G$ iff $aHa^{-1} = H$ for all $a \in G$.

Lemma 2.21. If G is an abelian group and $H \leq G$, then $H \trianglelefteq G$.

Proof: Because G is abelian,

$$aH = \{ah \,|\, h \in H\} = \{ha \,|\, h \in G\} = Ha.$$

□

Theorem 2.22. *Let $H \leq G$. Then left coset multiplication is well defined by the equation*

$$(aH)(bH) = (ab)H$$

iff $H \trianglelefteq G$.

Proof: To prove the right implication, suppose $aHbH = abH$ is well defined and $H \leq G$. Then for $h_1, h_2 \in H$ and $a, b \in G$, $ah_1Hbh_2H = ah_1bh_2H = abH$. We can then choose $h_3, h_4 \in H$ such that

$$ah_1bh_2 = abh_3 = ab(h_4h_2)$$

It follows from lemma 2.28 that for any h_4 there exists h_1, and for any h_1 there exists h_4, such that the equation above is satisfied. Therefore for arbitrary h_1 or arbitrary h_4,

$$\begin{aligned} ah_1b &= abh_4 \\ h_1b &= bh_4 \end{aligned}$$

Thus $bH \subseteq Hb$ and $Hb \subseteq bH$, so $bH = Hb$ and $H \trianglelefteq G$. To prove the left implication, suppose $H \trianglelefteq G$, $a_1, b_1, a_2, b_2 \in G$, $a_1H = a_2H$ and $b_1H = b_2H$. It follows that for some $h_1, h_2, h_3 \in H$,

$$\begin{aligned} a_2b_2H &= a_1h_1b_1h_2H \\ &= h_3a_1b_1h_2H \\ &= h_3^{-1}h_3a_1b_1h_2h_2^{-1}H \\ &= a_1b_1H \end{aligned}$$

□

Remark. Let $H \trianglelefteq G$. Then

$$G//H = \{aH \,|\, a \in G\}$$

is a group under the binary operation $(aH)(bH) = (ab)H$. The notation G/H will be used instead of $G//H$ from now on.

Definition 2.23 (Homomorphism)**.** Let $\phi : G \to G'$ be a map of groups. We say that ϕ is a group homomorphism if

$$\forall a, b \in G,\ \phi(ab) = \phi(a)\phi(b).$$

A group homomorphism ϕ is called a group isomorphism if ϕ is bijective. We then say G and G' are isomorphic, and write $G \cong G'$.

Definition 2.24 (Exponentials)**.** Let G be a group, $a \in G$, and $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. We define

$$a^n := a \cdot a \cdot \ldots \cdot a.$$

for n a's.

Definition 2.25 (Order)**.** Let G be a group. define the order of G, denoted by $|G|$, to be the cardinality of G.

Definition 2.26 (Cyclic group)**.** Let G be a group and $a \in G$. Then the subgroup $\langle a \rangle := \{a^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ of G is called the cyclic subgroup of G generated by a. In this case we say a is a generator of G.

Lemma 2.27. Let G be a group and $a \in G$. If $a^m = 1$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$, then

$$\langle a \rangle = \{a^k \mid k = 0, 1, \ldots, |m| - 1\}$$

Proof: Suppose $b \in \langle a \rangle$. Then $b = a^n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Because $n = qm + r$ for some $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $0 \leq r < |m|$, and because $a^{qm} = e^q = e$, then $a^n = a^{qm+r} = ea^r = a^r = b$. Trivially $a^r \in \langle a \rangle$. □

Lemma 2.28. Let $H \leq G$. Then for $a \in G$, $|aH| = |H|$.

Proof: By lemma 2.4, if $h_1, h_2 \in H$ with $ah_1 = ah_2$, then $h_1 = h_2$. Therefore the function

$$\phi : aH \to H, \quad ah \to h$$

is injective. ϕ is clearly surjective. □

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

$$|a| = \begin{cases} \min\{m \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \mid a^m = 1\} \\ \infty \end{cases}$$

Lemma 2.29. If G is finite and $a \in G$, then $\langle a \rangle$ is a finite group.

Proof: Suppose $a \in G$, and suppose to the contrary that $\forall n, m \in \mathbb{N}$, $n \neq m \Rightarrow a^n \neq a^m$. Then $|\langle a \rangle|$ is infinite, a contradiction. Therefore for all $a \in G$ there exists $l, r \in \mathbb{N}$ with $l < r$ such that $a^l = a^r$. But then $a^r = a^l a^{r-l}$ so $a^{2(r-l)} = e$. Therefore $aa^{2(r-l)-1} = e$, and a has an inverse element in $\langle a \rangle$. Obviously $e \in \langle a \rangle$, and associativity is inherited from G. □

Lemma 2.30. For $1 \leq n \leq |a|$, a^n is unique.

Proof: Suppose $1 \leq n, m \leq |a|$ and $a^n = a^m$. If $n \neq m$, then wlog $n < m$, and $a^n = a^{n+(m-n)} = a^n a^{m-n} \Rightarrow a^{m-n} = 1$, a contradiction. □

Lemma 2.31. If $\langle a \rangle$ is finite, then $|a| = |\langle a \rangle|$.

Proof: Suppose $n = |a|$. If $m > a$ then by the division algorithm $m = qn + r$ and $a^m = a^{qn} a^r = a^r$. Because $0 \leq r < n$ then by lemma 2.30, $|\langle a \rangle| = |a|$. □

2.3 Direct product

Definition 2.32. Let $G_1, \cdots, G_n$ be groups. We use $\prod_{i=1}^n G_i$ to denote the cartesian product $G_1 \times \cdot \times G_n$.

Theorem 2.33 (Direct product)**.** *Let $G_1, \cdots, G_n$ be groups. Then $\prod_{i=1}^n G_i$ is a group under componentwise multiplication. It is called the direct product of these groups.*

Lemma 2.34. Let $G_1, \cdots, G_n$ be groups. Then

$$\left| \prod_{i=1}^n G_i \right| = \prod_{i=1}^n |G_i|.$$

Proof: This follows directly from properties of the cartesian product. □

Definition 2.35. Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Let $Z_n = \{0, 1, \ldots, n-1\}$. define an operation $+_n : Z_n \times Z_n \to Z_n$ by

$$a +_n b = \begin{cases} a + b & 0 \leq a + b \leq n - 1 \\ a + b - n & n \leq a + b \leq 2(n-1). \end{cases}$$

then Z_n is a group under the operation $+_n$. We use Z_n to denote the cyclic group of order n.

Remark. By theorem 2.17 we have $Z_n \cong \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 2.36 (The first group isomorphism theorem)**.** *Let $\phi : G \to G'$ be a group homomorphism with*

$$Ker(\phi) := \phi^{-1}(1') = \{a \in G \,|\, \phi(a) = 1'\}.$$

Then we have a natural group isomorphism

$$\mu : G/Ker(\phi) \to \phi(G)$$
$$[a] \to \phi(a).$$

2.4 Permutations and dihedral groups

Definition 2.37 (Permutation)**.** A permutation of A is a bijective function $\phi : A \to A$. define the set S_A by

$$S_A := \{\sigma \,|\, \sigma \text{ is a permutation of } A\}.$$

Remark. $(S_A, \circ)$ is a group.

Definition 2.38 (Symmetric group)**.** S_A is called the symmetric group on A. In particular, when $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and $A = \{1, \ldots, n\}$, the symmetric group on A is denoted S_n, and is called the symmetric group of degree n.

Lemma 2.39. Let G be a group of $|G| = p$, where p is prime. Then $G \cong Z_p$.

Lemma 2.40. If G is a group with $|G| \leq 5$, then G is abelian.

2.5 Group actions and counting

Definition 2.41 (Action)**.** Let X be a set and G be a group. An action of G on X is a function $\cdot : G \times X \to X$ such that

(a) $\forall x \in X,\ 1 \cdot x = x$

(b) $\forall g_1, g_2 \in G \forall x \in X,\ g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot x) = (g_1 \cdot g_2) \cdot x$

Under these conditions, we say that X is a G-set.

Definition 2.42. Let X be a G-set. We define a relation $\sim$ on X as follows: for $x_1, x_2 \in X$, we say $x_1 \sim x_2$ if there exists $g \in G$ such that $g \cdot x_1 = x_2$.

Remark. For the remainder of the section $\sim$ refers to the above relation when working in X.

Theorem 2.43. *Let X be a G-set. Then $\sim$ is an equivalence relation.*
Proof:

(a) Reflexivity: It follows from the properties of an action that $1x = x$ for all $x \in X$, so $x \sim x$.

(b) Symmetry: Suppose $x, y \in X$ and $x \sim y$. Then there exists $g \in G$ such that $gx = y$. But then $g^{-1}y = x$, so $y \sim x$.

(c) Transitivity: Suppose $x, y, z \in X$, $x \sim y$ and $y \sim z$. Then for $g_1, g_2 \in G$, $y = g_1 x$ and $z = g_2 y$. Therefore $z = g_2 g_1 x$, and because $g_2 g_1 \in G$, $x \sim z$.

□

Definition 2.44 (Orbit)**.** Let X be a G-set. For $x \in X$, the equivalence class $[x]$ is called the orbit of x.

Remark. Let X be a G-set. Then for each $x \in X$,

$$[x] = G \cdot x := \{g \cdot x \,|\, g \in G\}.$$

2.6 Finitely generated abelian groups

Theorem 2.45. *The group $Z_m \times Z_n \cong Z_{mn}$ iff $gcd(m, n) = 1$.*

2.7 Quotient group computations and simple groups

Definition 2.46. pass

3 Ring theory

3.1 Rings and fields

Definition 3.1 (Ring)**.** A ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a set R together with the two operations $+$ and $\cdot$ such that the following axioms are satisfied:

(a) $(R, +)$ is an abelian group.

(b) $\cdot$ is closed and associative.

(c) $\forall a, b, c \in R$, the left distributive law $a \cdot (b+c) = (a \cdot b) + (a \cdot c)$ and the right distributive law $(a + b) \cdot c = (a \cdot c) + (b \cdot c)$ hold.

Definition 3.2 (Direct product)**.** Let $R_1, \ldots, R_n$ be rings. The direct product $R_1 \times \cdots \times T_n$ of rings R_i is a ring under addition and multiplication by components.

Theorem 3.3. *If R is a ring, then for any $a, b \in R$ we have*

(a) $0a=a0=0$.

(b) $a(-b)=-(ab)=(-a)b$.

(c) $(-a)(-b)=ab$

Proof: We shall prove these in order.

(a) Wlog, because $a(0 + b) = a0 + ab = ab$ then $a0 = 0 = 0a$.

(b) Because $a(b - b) = ab + a(-b) = 0$, we have $a(-b) = -ab$. Similarly, $(a - a)b = ab + (-a)b = 0$ so $(-a)b = -ab$.

(c) Because $-a(b - b) = (-a)b + (-a)(-b) = 0$ we have $(-a)(-b) = -((-a)b) = ab$.

□

Definition 3.4 (Ring homomorphism)**.** For rings R and R', a map $\phi : R \to R'$ is a ring homomorphism if the following two conditions are satisfied for all $a, b \in R$:

(a) $\phi(a + b) = \phi(a) + \phi(b)$.

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

Definition 3.5 (Ring isomorphism)**.** A ring isomorphism $\phi : R \to R'$ is a ring homomorphism that is bijective. The rings R and R' are the isomorphic.

Definition 3.6 (Commutative ring)**.** A ring in which multiplication is commutative is a commutative ring.

Definition 3.7 (Unity)**.** An element 1 is called the multiplicative identity or unity if $1a = a = a1$ for all $a \in R$.

Lemma 3.8. If a ring R has a unity, then it is unique.
Proof: Suppose $1, 1'$ are both unities of ring R. Then $1 \cdot 1' = 1' = 1' \cdot 1 = 1$. □

Remark. Let R be a ring with unity 1. Then $1 = 0$ iff R is a zero ring. This follows from the fact that if $1+1 = 0+0 = 0$ then $R = \{0\}$. $\{0\}$ is obviously closed under multiplication.

Definition 3.9 (Unit)**.** Let R be a ring with unity $1 \neq 0$. An element $u \in R$ is a unit of R if there exists $v \in R$ such that $vu = 1 = uv$, where we call v the multiplicative inverse of u, denoted by u^{-1}. Let $R^\times$ be the set of units in R, i.e.

$$R^\times := \{u \in R \,|\, u \text{ is a unit}\}.$$

In other words, $R^\times$ is the set of elements in R that have a multiplicative inverse.

Remark. Let R be a ring with unity $1 \neq 0$, then $0 \notin R^\times$.

Proof: By theorem 3.3, for any $a \in R$, $a0 = 0a = 0$. □

Lemma 3.10. Let R be a ring with unity $1 \neq 0$. If $u \in R^\times$, then its multiplicative inverse is unique.

Proof: Let $u \in R$ and $a, b \in R$ be multiplicative inverses of u. Then

$$a = a(ub) = (au)b = b.$$

□

Definition 3.11 (Division ring)**.** A ring with unity $1 \neq 0$ is called a division ring if $R^\times = R \setminus \{0\}$. A noncommutative division ring is called a skew field. A commutative division ring is called a field.

Definition 3.12 (Subring)**.** A subring of a ring is a subset of the ring that is a ring under induced operations from the whole ring.

3.2 Integral domains

Remark. Let R be a ring in this section.

Definition 3.13 (0-divisor)**.** An element $a \in R \setminus \{0\}$ is called a 0-divisor if $ab = 0$ or $ba = 0$ for some $b \in R \setminus \{0\}$. Let $ZD(R)$ be the set of 0-divisors of R. An element $a \in R \setminus \{0\}$ is called a non-0-divisior if it is not a 0-divisor. Let $NZD(R)$ be the set of non-0-divisors of R.

Remark. $a \in NZD(R)$ iff $ab = ba = 0 \Rightarrow b = 0$.

Remark. The zero ring has no 0-divisors.

Lemma 3.14. $ZD(R) = \emptyset$ for any division ring R.

Proof: Let $a \in R$ with $a \neq 0$ and $b \in ZD(R)$ with b^{-1} the multiplicative inverse of b. Then

$$abb^{-1} = 0b^{-1} = 0 = a1 = a.$$

It follows a is not a unit of R, a contradiction. □

Definition 3.15 (Cancellation laws)**.** The cancellation laws hold in R if $ab = ac$ with $a \neq 0$ implies $b = c$, and $ba = ca$ with $a \neq 0$ implies $b = c$.

Theorem 3.16. *The cancellation laws hold in a ring R iff $ZD(R) = \emptyset$.*

Proof: To prove the left implication, suppose $ab = ac$ with $b \neq c$ and $a \neq 0$. Then $b = (c + g)$ for some $g \in R$ with $g \neq 0$. It follows that $ac + ag = ac$ and thus $ag = 0$, so a is a zero divisor. To prove the right implication, suppose $ZD(R) \neq \emptyset$. Suppose $a, c \in R$ and $g \in ZD(R)$ with $ag = 0$. Then $ac + ag = ac$ and $a(c + g) = ac$. But $c + g \neq c$, so cancellation laws do not hold. □

Definition 3.17 (Integral domain)**.** An integral domain D is a commutative ring with unity $1 \neq 0$ and $ZD(R) = \emptyset$.

Remark. Every field is an integral domain.

Theorem 3.18. *Every finite integral domain is a field.*

Proof: Cancellation laws imply the function δ_a with $a \in R$ and $a \neq 0$ defined by

$$\delta_a : R \to R$$
$$x \to ax$$

is onto. Because $|R| < \infty$, δ_a is surjective. Thus for every element of $a \neq 0$, there exists an element $b \in R$ such that $ab = ba = 1$. □

Theorem 3.19. *Let R be a ring and $R^\times$ the set of units in R. Then $(R^\times, \cdot)$ is a group.*

Proof: Every element clearly has an inverse, and 1 is the identity element. Because R is a ring we know that $\cdot$ is associative. □

Lemma 3.20. $Z_n^\times = \{a \in Z_n \,|\, \text{gcd(a,n)} = 1\}$.

Proof: Suppose $a \in Z_n$ is a unit. Then under integer multiplication $ab \equiv 1(\text{mod } n)$, and $ab = qn + 1$ for some $q \in \mathbb{Z}$. $\gcd(qn + 1, n) = 1$ so ab and n are relatively prime, thus a and b are relatively prime with n. If $a \in Z_n$ and a, n are relatively prime, then by lemma 3.24, a has a multiplicative inverse and is thus a unit. □

Definition 3.21. For $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, define

$$G_n := Z_n^\times = \{a \in Z_n \,|\, \gcd(a, n) = 1\}.$$

Definition 3.22 (Euler phi-function)**.** The Euler phi-function $\varphi : Z^+ \to Z^+$ is defined

$$\varphi(n) = |\{a \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \,|\, \text{gcd(a,n)=1}\}|.$$

Lemma 3.23. For $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$,

$$\varphi(n) = |Z_n^\times|.$$

Lemma 3.24. If $a \in Z_n$, then $a^{|Z_n|} = 1$.

Proof: This follows from lemma 2.29 and theorem 2.17. □

Theorem 3.25 (Euler's Theorem)**.** *Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Then $a^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1(mod\ n)$ for any $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $gcd(a, n) = 1$.*

Proof: Let $a, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, with $gcd(a, n) = 1$. If $n = 1$, clearly $a^{\varphi(n)} = a^1 = a$, and $a \equiv a(\text{mod } n)$. If $n > 1$, because n and a are relatively prime we know that for $q, r \in \mathbb{N}$ with $0 < r < n$ that $a = qn + r$, and that $gcd(r, n) = 1$. Therefore $r \in Z_n^\times$, and by Lagranges theorem $r^{\varphi(n)} = r^{|Z_n^\times|} = r^{|r| \cdot |Z_n^\times / \langle r \rangle|} \equiv 1(mod\ n)$. Therefore $a^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1(mod\ n)$. □

Theorem 3.26 (Fermat's little theorem)**.** *Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and p be a prime. If p does not divide a, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1(mod\ p)$.*

Definition 3.27 (Mersenne primes)**.** Primes of the form $2^p - 1$ where p is prime are known as Mersenne primes.

Theorem 3.28. *Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Let $a, b \in Z_n$. The equation $ax = b$ has a unique solution in Z_n iff $gcd(a, n) = 1$.*

3.3 The quotient field of an integral domain

Remark. In this section, let D be an integral domain and

$$S := \{(a, b) \,|\, a, b \in D \text{ and } b \neq 0\} = D \times (D \setminus \{0\}) = D \times NZD().$$

Definition 3.29. define a relation $\sim$ on S as follows: for $(a, b), (c, d) \in S$ we say $(a, b) \sim (c, d)$ if $ad = bc$.

Remark. $\sim$ is an equivalence relation.

Definition 3.30. In this section, let F be the set of equivalence classes with respect to $\sim$,

$$F := S/\sim = \{[(a, b)] \,|\, (a, b) \in S\}.$$

Definition 3.31. For $[(a, b)], [(c, d)] \in F$, the equations

$$[(a, b)] + [(c, d)] = [(ad + bc, bd)]$$

and

$$[(a, b)][(c, d)] = [(ac, bd)]$$

Give well-defined operations of addition and multiplication on F.

Theorem 3.32. $(F, +, \cdot)$ *is a field.*

Lemma 3.33. We have an injective ring homomorphism

$$i : D \to Fa \to [(a, 1)].$$

Thus, D can be regarded as a subring of F.

Theorem 3.34. *Any integral domain D can be embedded in a field F such that every element of F can be expressed as a quotient of two elements of D. Such a field F is a quotient field of D, and denoted by $Q(D)$.*

3.4 Ideals and quotient rings

Definition 3.35 (Kernel)**.** Let $\phi : R \to R'$ be a ring homomorphism. The subring

$$\mathrm{Ker}(\phi) := \phi^{-1}(0') = \{a \in R \,|\, \phi(a) = 0'\}$$

is the kernel of ϕ.

Theorem 3.36. *Let $\phi : R \to R'$ be a ring homomorphism with $Ker(\phi) := H$. Let $a \in R$. Then*

$$\phi^{-1}(\{\phi(a)\}) = a + H = H + a.$$

Definition 3.37 (Ideal)**.** An additive subgroup N of a ring R satisfying the properties $aN \subseteq N$ and $Nb \subseteq N$ for alll $a, b \in R$ is called an ideal, denoted by $N \leq R$.

Remark. If $R \neq \{0\}$, then aN is not a coset, because 0 has no multiplicative inverse.

Lemma 3.38. If R is a ring and $N \leq R$, then N is a subring of R.

Theorem 3.39. *Let H be a subring of R. Multiplication of additive cosets of H is well-defined by the equation*

$$(r + H)(s + H) = rs + H$$

iff $H \leq R$.

Proof: To prove the right implication, suppose that $H \leq R$. Then for $h_1, h_2 \in H$, $(r+H)(s+H) = (r+h_1+H)(s+h_2+H) = (r+h_1)(s+h_2)+H$. Because $H \leq R$, we know that $rh_2 + sh_1 + h_1h_2 \in H$, therefore $rs + rh_2 + sh_1 + h_2h_1 + H = rs + H$. To prove the left implication, suppose this operation is well-defined. The left implication will be proven later by me :) □

Corollary 3.40. Let N be an ideal of a ring R. Then $R/N, +, \cdot$ forms a ring. This is called the factor ring (or quotient ring) of R and N. This follows from the fact $H \trianglelefteq R$, thus H/R is an abelian group, and that H/R is well-defined under the operation given above.

Theorem 3.41. *Let $\phi : R \to R'$ be a ring homomorphism. If $H \subseteq R$ is a subring, then as subrings $\phi(H) \subseteq \phi(R) \subseteq R'$. Also, if $H' \subseteq R'$ is a subring, then $\phi^{-1}(H') \subseteq R$ is a subring.*

Theorem 3.42. *Let $\phi : R \to R'$ be a ring homomorphism. If $I \leq R$, then $\phi(I) \leq \phi(R)$. Also, if $I' \leq R'$, then $\phi^{-1}(I') \leq R$.*

Theorem 3.43 (1st ring isomorphism theorem)**.** *Let $\phi : R \to R'$ be a ring homomorphism with $Ker(\phi) =: N$. Then $N \leq R$ and there is a ring isomorphism*

$$\mu : R/N \to \phi(R)$$
$$a + N \to \phi(a).$$

Theorem 3.44 (4th ring isomorphism theorem)**.** *Let R be a ring, $I \leq R$, and $\pi : R \to R/I$ the natural projection. Then there is a bijection:*

$$\{S | S \subseteq R/I \text{ is a subring}\} \leftrightarrow \{J | I \subseteq J \subseteq R \text{ are subrings}\}.$$

Proof:

□

Definition 3.45 (Proper ideal)**.** A proper ideal is any ideal that is a strict subset of the ring.

Definition 3.46 (Maximal ideal)**.** Let R be a ring. A proper ideal $m \leq R$ if for all $J \leq R$ we have

$$m \subseteq J \Rightarrow J = m \vee J = R.$$

Theorem 3.47. *Let R be a commutative ring with unity $1 \neq 0$. Then $m \leq R$ is a maximal ideal iff R/m is a field.*

Definition 3.48. Let R be a commutative ring. We say that a proper ideal $p \leq R$ is a prime ideal if $ab \in p$ for $a, b \in R$ then $a \in p$ or $b \in p$, i.e. $ab \in R \setminus p$ for any $a, b \in R \setminus p$.

Definition 3.49. Let R be an integral domain.

(a) An element $r \in R \setminus \{R^\times \cup \{0\}\}$ is irriducible in R if $r = ab$ with $a, b \in R$ implies $a \in R^\times$ or $b \in R^\times$. Otherwise, r is said to be reducible.

(b) An element $p \in R \setminus \{R^\times \cup \{0\}\}$ is prime in R if $pR \leq R$ is a prime ideal.

Remark. In an integer domain R, a prime, $p \in R$ is allways irreducible.

Lemma 3.50. Let R be a commutative ring with unity $1 \neq 0$. Then $p \leq R$ is a prime ideal iff R/p is an integral domain.

Definition 3.51. An integral domain R is a PID if every ideal I of R can be written in the form xR for some $x \in R$.

Remark. $\mathbb{Z}$ is a PID.

Definition 3.52. Let R be a ring and $I, J \leq R$.

(a) The sum $I + J$ of I and J is defined by

$$I + J = \{a + b \,|\, a \in I \text{ and } b \in J\}.$$

(b) The product IJ of I and J is defined by

$$IJ = \left\{ \sum_i^{\text{finite}} \,\middle|\, a_i \in I \text{ and } b_i \in J \right\}.$$

Remark. $I + J, IJ \leq R$.

Theorem 3.53. $\mathbb{R}[x]$ *is a PID.*

Lemma 3.54. Let R be a PID. $p \leq R$ is a prime idea iff it is a maximal ideal.

Lemma 3.55. In a PID R, $p \in R \setminus \{R^\times \cup \{0\}\}$ is prime iff it is irreducible.