

# Chapter 1

## Groups

### 1.1 Definitions and Examples

**Definition 1.1.1.** A **group** is a set  $G$  together with a binary operation  $*$  :  $G \times G \rightarrow G$  which satisfies the following axioms:

- (i)  $(x * y) * z = x * (y * z)$  for all  $x, y, z$  in  $G$ ,
- (ii)  $\exists e \in G$  such that  $e * x = x = x * e$  for all  $x$  in  $G$ ,
- (iii) for each  $x$  in  $G$ ,  $\exists y \in G$  such that  $y * x = e = x * y$ .

**Definition 1.1.2.** Let  $G$  be a group. If  $G$  is finite, then the **order** of  $G$ , denoted  $|G|$ , is the number of elements of  $G$ . If  $G$  is infinite,  $G$  is said to have an **infinite order**.

**Definition 1.1.3.** Let  $G$  be a group and  $x \in G$ . Then  $x$  is said to be of **infinite order** if there is no positive power of  $x$  equals the identity. If  $x^n = e$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , the smallest such  $n$  is called the **order of  $x$** , denoted  $o(x)$ .

**Theorem 1.1.4.** Let  $G$  be a semigroup. Then TFAE:

- (i)  $G$  is a group.
- (ii)  $\exists e \in G$  such that  $ae = a$  for all  $a \in G$ ; and for each  $a \in G$  there is an  $a' \in G$  such that  $aa' = e$ . ( $e$  and  $a'$  multiply on the right.)

- (iii)  $\exists e \in G$  such that  $ea = a$  for all  $a \in G$ ; and for each  $a \in G$  there is an  $a' \in G$  such that  $a'a = e$ . ( $e$  and  $a'$  multiply on the left.)

**Definition 1.1.5.** A group  $G$  is **abelian** if  $xy = yx$  for all  $x, y \in G$ . In this case, one can choose to write additively, that is:

- (i) the binary operation is “+” ( $x + y := x * y$ ), and  
(ii) 0 is the unit element, and  $-x$  denotes the inverse of  $x$ .

**Definition 1.1.6.** A nonempty subset  $H$  of a group  $G$  is called a **subgroup** of  $G$  if  $H$  is a group under the group operation inherited from  $G$ . If  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , we write  $H \leq G$ .

**Theorem 1.1.7.** Let  $G$  be a group and let  $\emptyset \neq H \subseteq G$ . Then TFAE:

- (i)  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .  
(ii)  $a, b \in H \Rightarrow ab \in H$ , and  $a \in H \Rightarrow a^{-1} \in H$ .  
(iii)  $a, b \in H \Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in H$ .

## 1.2 Homomorphisms

**Definition 1.2.1.** Let  $(G, \circ)$  and  $(G', *)$  be groups. A mapping  $\psi : G \rightarrow G'$  is called a **homomorphism** (of groups) if

$$\psi(a \circ b) = \psi(a) * \psi(b) \quad \text{for all } a, b \in G.$$

A homomorphism is called an **isomorphism** if it is bijective (1–1 and onto).  $G$  and  $G'$  are said to be **isomorphic**, denoted  $G \cong G'$ , if there exists an isomorphism from  $G$  onto  $G'$ .

**Definition 1.2.2.** Let  $\psi$  be a homomorphism from  $G$  to  $G'$ . The **kernel** of  $\psi$ ,  $\ker \psi$ , is defined to be

$$\ker \psi = \{g \in G \mid \psi(g) = e'\}$$

where  $e'$  is the identity of  $G'$ .

**Theorem 1.2.3.** *Let  $\psi : G \rightarrow G'$  be a homomorphism. Then*

- (i)  $\psi(e) = e'$  where  $e$  and  $e'$  are identities in  $G$  and  $G'$ , respectively;
- (ii)  $\psi(x^{-1}) = (\psi(x))^{-1}$  for all  $x \in G$ ;
- (iii)  $\psi(x_1x_2 \dots x_n) = \psi(x_1)\psi(x_2) \dots \psi(x_n)$  for all  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in G$ ;
- (iv)  $\psi(x^n) = (\psi(x))^n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ;
- (v)  $\ker \psi$  is a subgroup of  $G$ ;
- (vi)  $\ker \psi = \{e\}$  if and only if  $\psi$  is 1-1;
- (vii)  $\text{Im } \psi$  is a subgroup of  $G'$ .

### 1.3 Cyclic Groups and Generators

**Theorem 1.3.1.** *Let  $G$  be a group and  $a \in G$ . Then  $\{a^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  is a subgroup of  $G$  and it is the smallest subgroup of  $G$  containing  $a$ .*

**Definition 1.3.2.** The subgroup  $\{a^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  of a group  $G$  is called the **cyclic subgroup** of  $G$  **generated by  $a$**  and will be denoted by  $\langle a \rangle$ .

**Definition 1.3.3.** A group  $G$  is called a **cyclic group** if  $G = \langle a \rangle$  for some  $a \in G$ .  $a$  is then called a **generator** of  $G$  and we say that  $a$  **generates**  $G$ .

**Theorem 1.3.4.** *Every cyclic group is abelian.*

**Theorem 1.3.5.** *A subgroup of cyclic group is cyclic.*

**Theorem 1.3.6.** *Let  $G$  be a cyclic group of order  $n$  generated by  $a$ . Let  $b = a^s$  for some  $s < n$ . Then  $b$  generates a cyclic subgroup of  $G$  containing  $\frac{n}{d}$  elements, where  $d = \gcd(n, s)$ .*

**Corollary 1.3.7.** *If  $a$  is a generator of a finite cyclic group  $G$  of order  $n$ , then the set of all generators of  $G$  is  $\{a^r \mid \gcd(n, r) = 1\}$ .*

**Theorem 1.3.8.** (i)  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$  is the only infinite cyclic group (up to isomorphism).

(ii)  $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$  is the only cyclic group of order  $n$  (up to isomorphism).

**Corollary 1.3.9.** *The subgroups of  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$  are the groups  $n\mathbb{Z}$  for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .*

**Definition 1.3.10.** Let  $X$  be a nonempty subset of a group  $G$ . The smallest subgroup of  $G$  containing  $X$ , denoted  $\langle X \rangle$ , is called the **subgroup of  $G$  generated by  $X$** . We say that  $X$  **generates**  $\langle X \rangle$ .

If  $X$  is finite, say  $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ , we shall simply write  $\langle x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \rangle$  for  $\langle X \rangle$ . If  $\langle X \rangle = G$ , we say that  $X$  is a set of **generators** of  $G$ . If  $X$  is finite and  $\langle X \rangle = G$ , then  $G$  is said to be **finitely generated**.

**Theorem 1.3.11.** *Let  $G$  be a group and  $X \subseteq G$ . Then*

$$(i) \langle \emptyset \rangle = \{e\},$$

$$(ii) \langle X \rangle = \{x_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n} \mid x_i \text{ are } n \text{ distinct elements of } X, \alpha_i \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

*Moreover, if  $G$  is finite, then  $\langle X \rangle$  is the set of all products of elements of  $X$  (i.e. each  $\alpha_i$  is a positive integer).*

**Theorem 1.3.12.** *A group  $G$  is isomorphic to  $D_n$  if and only if it is generated by two elements  $a, b$  such that  $a^n = 1 = b^2$  and  $bab = a^{-1}$ .*

## 1.4 Group Actions

**Definition 1.4.1.** Let  $G$  be a group and  $X$  be a set. We say that the group  $G$  **acts on** the set  $X$  or  $X$  is a  **$G$ -set** if there is a mapping  $G \times X \rightarrow X$ ,  $(g, x) \mapsto g \cdot x$  (or  $gx$ ), which satisfies

$$(i) 1 \cdot x = x \text{ for all } x \in X, \text{ where } 1 \text{ is the identity element of } G; \text{ and}$$

$$(ii) g \cdot (h \cdot x) = (gh) \cdot x \text{ for all } g, h \in G \text{ and all } x \in X.$$

**Definition 1.4.2.** Let  $G$  act on  $X$ . If  $g = 1$  is the only element of  $G$  which fulfills the identity  $g \cdot x = x$  for all  $x \in X$ , then we say that  $G$  **acts faithfully** on  $X$ .

For each  $x \in X$ ,  $G \cdot x = \{g \cdot x \mid g \in G\}$  is called the **orbit** of  $x$  and is also denoted by  $\text{orb}(x)$ . If  $G \cdot x = X$  for some  $x \in X$ , then  $G$  is said to **act transitively** on  $X$ . For each  $Y \subseteq X$ , the set  $\{g \in G \mid g \cdot Y = Y\}$  is called the **stabilizer** of  $Y$ , denoted  $\text{Stab}(Y)$ , or  $\text{Stab}(x)$  in case  $Y = \{x\}$ .

**Theorem 1.4.3.** *Let  $G$  act on  $X$ . Then for each  $g \in G$  the function  $\sigma_g : X \rightarrow X$  defined by  $\sigma_g(x) = g \cdot x$  is a permutation of  $X$ . Furthermore, the map  $\phi : G \rightarrow S(X)$  defined by  $\phi(g) = \sigma_g$  is a homomorphism with the property that  $(\phi(g))(x) = g \cdot x$ . The homomorphism  $\phi$  is called the **permutation representation** associated to the given action. The kernel of this homomorphism is the set  $\{g \in G \mid g \cdot x = x \ \forall x \in X\}$ .*

**Theorem 1.4.4 (Cayley's Theorem).** *Every group is isomorphic to a subgroup of a permutation group. If a group is of order  $n$ , then it is isomorphic to a subgroup of  $S_n$ .*

**Theorem 1.4.5.** *Let  $G$  be a group. Suppose that  $G$  acts on a set  $X$ . Define a relation  $\sim$  on  $X$  by*

$$x \sim y \text{ if and only if } y = g \cdot x \text{ for some } g \in G.$$

*Then*

- (i)  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on  $X$ , and
- (ii) the **orbit** of  $x \in X$ ,  $G \cdot x$ , is its equivalence class w.r.t. the relation  $\sim$ .

*Thus  $X$  is the disjoint union of all distinct orbits under the action of  $G$ .*

**Definition 1.4.6.** If  $H \leq G$  and  $x \in G$ ,  $Hx = \{hx \mid h \in H\}$  is called a **right coset** of  $H$  in  $G$ , and  $xH = \{xh \mid h \in H\}$  is called a **left coset** of  $H$  in  $G$ .

**Definition 1.4.7.** Let  $H$  be a subgroup of a group  $G$ . Then the number of disjoint right (or left) cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  is called the **index** of  $H$  in  $G$ , denoted  $[G : H]$ . (i.e.  $[G : H] = |\Lambda|$  where  $\Lambda$  is the index set of  $\{x_\alpha \mid \alpha \in \Lambda\}$ , the right transversal of  $H$  in  $G$ .)

**Theorem 1.4.8 (Lagrange's Theorem).** *Let  $G$  be a finite group and  $H \leq G$ . Then  $|H|$  divides  $|G|$ . In particular  $o(g) \mid |G|$  for all  $g \in G$ .*

**Corollary 1.4.9.** *Let  $G$  be a finite group and  $H \leq G$ . Then*

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

**Theorem 1.4.10.** *Let  $G$  be a group which acts on a set  $X$  and  $x \in X$ . Then  $\text{Stab}(x)$ , the stabilizer of  $\{x\}$ , is a subgroup of  $G$ , and*

$$[G : \text{Stab}(x)] = |G \cdot x|.$$

**Theorem 1.4.11 (The Orbit-Stabilizer Theorem).** *Let  $G$  be a finite group which acts on a set  $X$ . Then for each  $x \in X$ ,*

$$|G| = |G \cdot x| \cdot |\text{Stab}(x)|.$$

**Definition 1.4.12.** Let  $G$  be a group and  $A$  be a nonempty subset of  $G$ . The **centralizer** of  $A$  in  $G$ ,  $C_G(A)$ , and the **normalizer** of  $A$  in  $G$ ,  $N_G(A)$ , are defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} C_G(A) &= \{g \in G \mid gag^{-1} = a \text{ for all } a \in A\}, \\ N_G(A) &= \{g \in G \mid gAg^{-1} = A\}, \end{aligned}$$

In particular,  $Z(G) = C_G(G)$  is called the **center** of  $G$

**Theorem 1.4.13.** *Let  $G$  be a group and  $\emptyset \neq A \subseteq G$ . Then  $C_G(A)$  and  $N_G(A)$  are subgroups of  $G$ . Moreover  $C_G(A)$  is a subgroup of  $N_G(A)$ .*

**Theorem 1.4.14.** *Let  $G$  be a finite group and  $x \in G$ . Then the number of conjugates of  $x$  is  $[G : C_G(x)]$ . In particular, the number of conjugates of  $x$  divides the group order.*

**Theorem 1.4.15 (The Class Equation).** *Let  $G$  be a finite group. Then*

$$|G| = |Z(G)| + \sum_{i=1}^t [G : C_G(x_i)]$$

where  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_t$  are representatives from all orbits of size greater than one.

**Theorem 1.4.16.** *Let  $G$  be a finite group and  $Y \subseteq G$ . Then the number of conjugates of  $Y$  is  $[G : N_G(Y)]$ . In particular, the number of conjugates of  $Y$  divides the group order.*

**Theorem 1.4.17 (Cauchy's Theorem).** *If  $G$  is a finite group and  $p$  is a prime divisor of  $|G|$ , then the number of solutions of  $g^p = 1$  in  $G$  is a multiple of  $p$ . Hence  $G$  contains an element of order  $p$ .*

**Theorem 1.4.18 (Burnside's Theorem).** *Let  $G$  be a finite group acting on a finite set  $X$ . For each  $g \in G$ , let*

$$\tau(g) = \text{the number of points in } X \text{ fixed by } g.$$

*Then the number of orbits in  $X$  is*

$$N = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \tau(g).$$

## 1.5 Quotient Groups and Isomorphism Theorems

**Definition 1.5.1.** Let  $N$  be a subgroup of a group  $G$ . Then  $N$  is said to be a **normal subgroup** of  $G$ , and write  $N \triangleleft G$ , if  $gNg^{-1} \subseteq N$  for all  $g \in G$ .

**Theorem 1.5.2.** *Let  $N$  be a subgroup of a group  $G$ . Then TFAE:*

- (i)  $N$  is a normal subgroup of  $G$ .
- (ii)  $gNg^{-1} = N$  for all  $g \in G$ .
- (iii)  $gN = Ng$  for all  $g \in G$ .
- (iv)  $(Na)(Nb) = Nab$  for all  $a, b \in G$ .
- (v)  $(aN)(bN) = abN$  for all  $a, b \in G$ .

**Theorem 1.5.3.** *Let  $N$  be a normal subgroup of a group  $G$ . Then  $G/N = \{Na \mid a \in G\}$  is a group under the multiplication defined by*

$$Na \cdot Nb = Nab, \quad (a, b \in G).$$

*The group  $G/N$  is called the **quotient group** or the **factor group** of  $G$  by  $N$ .*

*The map  $\theta : G \rightarrow G/N$  defined by  $\theta(a) = Na$  is a group homomorphism whose kernel is  $N$ .*

**Definition 1.5.4.** Let  $G \xrightarrow{\theta} H \xrightarrow{\phi} K$  be a sequence of group homomorphisms. We say that it is **exact** at  $H$  if  $\text{Im } \theta = \ker \phi$ . A **short exact sequence** of groups is a sequence of group homomorphisms

$$1 \longrightarrow G \xrightarrow{\theta} H \xrightarrow{\phi} K \longrightarrow 1,$$

which is exact at  $G, H$  and  $K$ .

**Theorem 1.5.5 (The First Isomorphism Theorem).** *If  $\phi : G \rightarrow H$  is a group homomorphism, then  $\ker \phi$  is a normal subgroup of  $G$  and  $G/\ker \phi \cong \text{Im } \phi$ .*

**Theorem 1.5.6.** *If  $H$  and  $K$  are finite subgroups of a group,  $|HK| = \frac{|H||K|}{|H \cap K|}$ .*

**Theorem 1.5.7.** *If  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups of a group  $G$ , then  $HK$  is a subgroup if and only if  $HK = KH$ .*

**Corollary 1.5.8.** *If  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups of a group  $G$  and  $H \leq N_G(K)$ , then  $HK$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . In particular, if  $K$  is normal in  $G$ , then  $HK$  is a subgroup of  $G$  for any subgroup  $H$  of  $G$ .*

**Theorem 1.5.9 (The Second Isomorphism Theorem).** *Let  $H$  and  $N$  be subgroups of a group  $G$  with  $N$  normal. Then  $H \cap N$  is normal in  $H$  and  $H/(H \cap N) \cong HN/N$ .*

**Theorem 1.5.10 (The Third Isomorphism Theorem).** *Let  $N$  be a normal subgroup of a group  $G$ . Then the map  $H \mapsto H/N$  gives a 1-1 correspondence between the set of subgroups of  $G$  containing  $N$  and the set of subgroups of  $G/N$ . Moreover this correspondence carries normal subgroups to normal subgroups. If  $H \triangleleft G$ , and  $N \subseteq H \subseteq G$ , then*

$$G/H \cong (G/N)/(H/N).$$



## 1.6 Direct Products and Abelian Groups

**Definition 1.6.1.** Let  $\{A_\alpha \mid \alpha \in \Lambda\}$  be a family of groups. The set  $\prod_{\alpha \in \Lambda} A_\alpha$  is a group under the coordinatewise operation. It is called the (**strong**) **direct product** of the groups  $A_\alpha$ . The subgroup  $\{(a_\alpha) \in \prod_{\alpha \in \Lambda} A_\alpha \mid \text{all but finitely many } a_\alpha = 1_\alpha\}$  is called the **weak direct product** (or **direct sum**) of the groups  $A_\alpha$ , and is denoted  $\bigoplus\{A_\alpha \mid \alpha \in \Lambda\}$  or  $\sum_{\alpha \in \Lambda} A_\alpha$ .

**Theorem 1.6.2.** *If  $A$  and  $B$  are subgroups of  $G$  such that*

- (i)  $A \cap B = \{e\}$ ,
- (ii)  $AB = G$ , and
- (iii)  $ab = ba \quad \forall a \in A \forall b \in B$ ,

*then  $G \cong A \times B$ . We say that  $G$  is the (**internal**) **direct product** of  $A$  and  $B$ . Note that the condition (iii) can be replaced by that  $A$  and  $B$  are normal subgroups of  $G$ .*

**Theorem 1.6.3 (Chinese Remainder Theorem).** *Let  $m_1, \dots, m_k, n_1, \dots, n_k$  be integers. If  $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k$  are pairwise relatively prime, then there exists an integer  $n$  such that*

$$n \equiv n_i \pmod{m_i} \quad \text{for all } i = 1, \dots, k.$$

**Theorem 1.6.4.** *Let  $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k$  be pairwise relatively prime integers and  $m = m_1 m_2 \cdots m_k$ . If  $g$  is an element in  $G$  satisfying  $g^m = 1$ , then there exist unique  $g_1, g_2, \dots, g_k \in G$  such that*

- (i)  $g_i^{m_i} = 1 \quad \text{for all } i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ ,
- (ii)  $g_1, g_2, \dots, g_k$  are pairwise commutative, and
- (iii)  $g = g_1 g_2 \cdots g_k$ .

**Definition 1.6.5.** Let  $g$  be an element of a group  $G$ . If  $g$  has order  $m = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$  where  $p_i$ 's are distinct primes, then  $p_i$  is called the  **$p_i$ -primary part** of  $g$ .

**Theorem 1.6.6.** Let  $A$  be a finite abelian group of order  $m = m_1 m_2 \cdots m_k$  where the  $m_i$ 's are pairwise relatively prime. Let  $A_i = \{g \in A \mid g^{m_i} = 1\}$ . Then  $A \cong A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_k$ . Moreover  $|A_i| = m_i$ .

**Theorem 1.6.7.** Let  $A$  be an abelian group of order  $p^\alpha$ , where  $p$  is a prime. If  $A$  has exponent  $p$  (i.e.  $a^p = 1$  for all  $a \in A$ ), then

$$A \cong \underbrace{\mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_p \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_p}_{\alpha \text{ times}} = (\mathbb{Z}_p)^\alpha.$$

**Definition 1.6.8.** A group  $G$  is called a  **$p$ -group**, where  $p$  is a prime, if every element of  $G$  has the order as a (finite) power of  $p$ .

**Definition 1.6.9.** A positive integer  $n$  is said to be an **exponent** of a group  $G$ , if  $g^n = 1$  for each  $g \in G$ . In this case  $G$  is said to have **finite exponent**, and the least such positive integer  $n$  is called **the exponent** of  $G$ .

**Theorem 1.6.10 (Burnside Basis Theorem for Abelian  $p$ -Group).** Let  $A$  be an abelian group of exponent  $p^\alpha$  where  $p$  is a prime. If  $H$  is a subgroup of  $A$  and  $HA^p = A$ , then  $H = A$ . (Equivalence: If the cosets  $A^p a_1, \dots, A^p a_k$  of  $A/A^p$  generate  $A/A^p$ , then  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k$  generate  $A$ .)

**Theorem 1.6.11.** If  $A$  is a finite abelian group of exponent  $p$ , where  $p$  is a prime, then for any  $H \leq A$ , there exists a subgroup  $K$  of  $A$  such that  $A \cong H \times K$ . (Equivalence: If  $V$  is a finite dimensional vector space over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  and  $U$  is a subspace of  $V$ , then there is a subspace  $W$  of  $V$  such that  $V = U \oplus W$ .)

**Theorem 1.6.12.** Every finite abelian  $p$ -group is a direct product of cyclic groups.

**Theorem 1.6.13.** Let  $A = (\mathbb{Z}_p)^{u_1} \times (\mathbb{Z}_{p^2})^{u_2} \times \cdots \times (\mathbb{Z}_{p^m})^{u_m}$ , and

$$B = (\mathbb{Z}_p)^{v_1} \times (\mathbb{Z}_{p^2})^{v_2} \times \cdots \times (\mathbb{Z}_{p^m})^{v_m} \text{ where } u_i \geq 0, v_j \geq 0.$$

If  $A \cong B$ , then  $u_i = v_i$  for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ .

**Definition 1.6.14.** A *partition of a positive integer*  $n$  is a sequence  $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k\}$  of positive integers where  $a_{i+1} \geq a_i$  and  $a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_k = n$ . The number of partition of  $n$  is denoted  $\Pi(n)$ .

**Theorem 1.6.15.** Let  $p$  be a prime and  $n$  a positive integer. Then

$$\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k\} \mapsto \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_2}} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha_k}}$$

defines a 1-1 correspondence between partitions of  $n$  and isomorphism classes of abelian groups of order  $p^n$ . In particular, the number of isomorphism classes of abelian groups of order  $p^n$  is  $\Pi(n)$ .

**Theorem 1.6.16.** A finite abelian group is (isomorphic to) a direct product of cyclic group.

**Theorem 1.6.17.** Let  $A$  be a finite abelian group. Then there exist integers  $n_1, \dots, n_t > 1$  such that  $n_1 \mid n_2, n_2 \mid n_3, \dots, n_{t-1} \mid n_t$  and

$$A \cong \mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{n_2} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{n_t}.$$

Moreover, the integers are uniquely defined by  $A$ ; more precisely if  $m_1, \dots, m_s$  are integers  $> 1$  such that  $m_1 \mid m_2, m_2 \mid m_3, \dots, m_{s-1} \mid m_s$ , and  $A \cong \mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{n_2} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{n_t} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{m_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{m_2} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{m_s}$ , then  $t = s$ , and  $n_1 = m_1, \dots, n_t = m_t$ .

## 1.7 The Sylow Theorem and Applications

**Definition 1.7.1.** Let  $G$  be a finite group of order  $p_1^{a_1} \cdots p_k^{a_k}$  where  $p_i$ 's are distinct primes. A subgroup of  $G$  of order  $p_i^{a_i}$  is called a **Sylow  $p_i$ -subgroup** of  $G$ .

**Theorem 1.7.2 (The second proof of Cauchy's Theorem).** If  $G$  is finite and  $p \mid |G|$  is a positive prime number, then  $G$  has an element of order  $p$ .

**Theorem 1.7.3.** Let  $P$  be a sylow  $p$ -subgroup of  $G$ ,  $Q$  a  $p$ -subgroup of  $G$ . If  $Q \subseteq N_G(P)$ , then  $Q \leq P$ .

**Theorem 1.7.4 (The Sylow Theorem).** *Let  $G$  be a group of order  $p^\alpha m$  where  $p$  is a prime,  $\alpha > 0$ , and  $p \nmid m$ . Then*

- (i)  $G$  contains a Sylow  $p$ -subgroup.
- (ii) The number of Sylow  $p$ -subgroups is  $\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .
- (iii) If  $H$  is a  $p$ -subgroup of  $G$  and  $P$  is a Sylow  $p$ -subgroup of  $G$ , then some conjugate of  $P$  contains  $H$ . In particular,
- (iv) All Sylow  $p$ -subgroups of  $G$  are conjugated.

**Corollary 1.7.5.** *The number of Sylow  $p$ -subgroup of  $G$  divides  $|G|$ . (In particular it divides  $m$  if  $|G| = p^\alpha m$ ,  $p \nmid m$ ).*

**Corollary 1.7.6.** *Let  $G$  be a finite group and  $S$  a Sylow  $p$ -subgroup of  $G$ . Then  $S$  is the only Sylow  $p$ -subgroup of  $G$  if and only if  $S \triangleleft G$ .*

**Theorem 1.7.7.** *Let  $n = p^\alpha m$  where  $p$  is a prime and  $p \nmid m$ . Then  $\binom{n}{p^\alpha} \equiv m \pmod{p}$ .*

**Theorem 1.7.8 (Combinatorial Proof of The Sylow's Theorem ).** *Let  $|G| = p^\alpha m$ , where  $p$  is a prime and  $p \nmid m$ . Then  $G$  has a subgroup of order  $p^\alpha$ .*

**Theorem 1.7.9.** *Let  $G$  be a finite group and  $P$  a Sylow  $p$ -subgroup of  $G$ . Then*

- (i)  $N(P)$  is equal to its own normalizer, i.e.  $N(N(P)) = N(P)$ .
- (ii) If  $N(P) \leq T \leq G$ , then  $T$  is equal to its own normalizer, i.e.  $N(T) = T$ .

**Theorem 1.7.10.** *Let  $G$  be a group and  $|G| = p^\alpha m$  where  $p$  is a prime and  $p \nmid m$ . Then  $G$  has a subgroup of order  $p^\beta$  for each  $\beta$  where  $1 \leq \beta \leq \alpha$ . Moreover, every subgroup  $H$  of  $G$  of order  $p^\beta$  is normal in a subgroup of order  $p^{\beta+1}$  for  $1 \leq \beta \leq \alpha$ .*

**Definition 1.7.11.** An automorphism of a group  $G$  is an isomorphism  $\phi : G \rightarrow G$ . The set of all automorphism of a group  $G$  is denoted  $\text{Aut}(G)$ .

**Theorem 1.7.12.** (i) *With group operation the composition of functions,  $\text{Aut}(G)$  is a group.*

- (ii) Each  $g \in G$  determines an automorphism on  $G$ ,  $\phi_g : G \rightarrow G$  defined by  $\phi(g)(h) = ghg^{-1}$ .  $\phi_g$  is called an **inner automorphism**. The subgroup of  $\text{Aut}(G)$  consisting of all such  $\phi_g$ ,  $\{\phi_g \mid g \in G\}$  is called the **inner automorphism group** of  $G$  and is denoted  $\text{Inn}(G)$ .
- (iii) The map  $g \mapsto \phi_g$  is a group homomorphism  $G \xrightarrow{\phi} \text{Aut}(G)$ .
- (iv) The kernel of  $\phi$  is  $Z(G)$ , i.e. the center of  $G$ . The image of  $\phi$  is  $\text{Inn}(G)$ .

**Definition 1.7.13.** A subgroup  $H$  of a group  $G$  is a **characteristic subgroup** if  $\phi(H) = H$  for each  $\phi \in \text{Aut}(G)$ .

**Definition 1.7.14.** A group is **simple** if it has no nontrivial normal subgroups.

# Chapter 2

## Rings

### 2.1 Basic Definitions and Examples

**Definition 2.1.1.** A *ring*  $R$  is a set with two binary operations, called addition “+” and multiplication “ $\cdot$ ”, satisfying the following axioms:

- (i)  $(R, +)$  is an abelian group, ( $0$  denotes the neutral element),
- (ii)  $(R, \cdot)$  is a semigroup, and
- (iii)  $\forall a, b, c \in R, a(b + c) = ab + ac$  and  $(b + c)a = ba + ca$ .

**Definition 2.1.2.** A ring  $R$  is said to be a *ring with identity* if there is  $1 \in R$  such that  $1 \cdot a = a = a \cdot 1$  for all  $a \in R$ . A ring  $R$  is *commutative* if  $xy = yx$  for all  $x, y$  in  $R$ .

**Definition 2.1.3.** Let  $R$  be a ring and  $x \in R \setminus \{0\}$ .  $x$  is called a *left (right) zero divisor* if there is an element  $y \neq 0$  in  $R$  such that  $xy = 0$  ( $yx = 0$ ).  $x$  is called a *zero divisor* if  $x$  is either a left or a right zero divisor.

**Definition 2.1.4.** A ring  $R$  with identity is *entire* if  $R$  has no zero divisor. A commutative entire ring is called an *integral domain*.

**Definition 2.1.5.** Let  $R$  be a ring with identity. An element  $x$  in  $R$  is said to be *invertible* if there exists  $y \in R$  such that  $xy = yx = 1$ . In this case  $y$  is called the *inverse* of  $x$ .

**Definition 2.1.6.** A ring  $D$  with identity is a **division ring** (or **skew field**) if every nonzero element in  $D$  is invertible.

**Definition 2.1.7.** A commutative division ring is called a **field**.

**Theorem 2.1.8.** *Every field is an integral domain.*

**Theorem 2.1.9.** *Every finite integral domain is a field.*

**Definition 2.1.10.** A subset  $S \subseteq R$  is a **subring** of a ring  $R$  if  $S$  is a ring with respect to  $+$  and  $\cdot$  in  $R$ .

**Theorem 2.1.11.** *Let  $S$  be a nonempty subset of a ring  $R$ . Then  $S$  is a subring of  $R$  if and only if  $a - b$  and  $ab \in S$  for all  $a, b \in S$ .*

## 2.2 Ring Homomorphisms and Quotient Rings.

**Definition 2.2.1.** Let  $R$  and  $S$  be rings.  $\phi : R \rightarrow S$  is called a (**ring**) **homomorphism** if

$$\phi(x + y) = \phi(x) + \phi(y) \quad \text{and} \quad \phi(xy) = \phi(x)\phi(y) \quad \forall x, y \in R.$$

The **kernel of**  $\phi$ , denoted  $\ker \phi$  is the set  $\{x \in R \mid \phi(x) = 0\}$ . An **isomorphism** is a bijective homomorphism.

**Definition 2.2.2.** Let  $A$  be a subring of a ring  $R$ . Then  $A$  is called a **left (right) ideal** of  $R$  if  $RA \subseteq A$  ( $AR \subseteq A$ ).  $A$  is an **ideal** of  $R$  if  $A$  is both a left and right ideal of  $R$ .

**Theorem 2.2.3.** *Let  $R$  be a ring and  $I$  an ideal of  $R$ . Then  $R/I$  is a ring under the operations*

$$\begin{aligned} (r + I) + (s + I) &= (r + s) + I \\ (r + I)(s + I) &= rs + I. \end{aligned}$$

*It is called the **quotient** (or **factor**) ring of  $R$  by  $I$ .*

*The map  $\psi : R \rightarrow R/I$  defined by  $\psi(r) = r + I$  is a ring homomorphism which is surjective and has the kernel  $I$ .  $\psi$  is called the **canonical** (or **natural**) projection of  $R$  onto  $R/I$ .*

**Theorem 2.2.4.** *Let  $\varphi : R \rightarrow S$  be a ring homomorphism. Then*

- (i)  $\text{Im } \varphi$  is a subring of  $S$ ,
- (ii)  $\ker \varphi$  is an ideal of  $R$ , and
- (iii)  $R/\ker \varphi \cong \text{Im } \varphi$ .

**Theorem 2.2.5 (The Second Isomorphism Theorem).** *Let  $S$  be a subring of  $R$  and let  $I$  be an ideal of  $R$ . Then*

- (i)  $S + I$  is a subring of  $R$ ,
- (ii)  $S \cap I$  is an ideal of  $S$ , and
- (iii)  $(S + I)/I \cong S/(S \cap I)$ .

**Theorem 2.2.6 (The Third Isomorphism Theorem).** *Let  $I$  be an ideal of  $R$  and  $A$  be an ideal of  $R$  containing  $I$ . Then  $A/I$  is an ideal of  $R/I$  and  $(R/I)/(A/I) \cong R/A$ .*

**Theorem 2.2.7.** *Let  $I$  be an ideal of  $R$ . The correspondence  $A \leftrightarrow A/I$  is an inclusion preserving bijection between the set of subrings  $A$  of  $R$  containing  $I$  and the set of subrings of  $R/I$ . Furthermore, a subring  $A$  containing  $I$  is an ideal of  $R$  if and only if  $A/I$  is an ideal of  $R/I$ .*

**Theorem 2.2.8.** *A ring  $R$  with  $1$  is a division ring if and only if  $0$  and  $R$  are the only left (right) ideals of  $R$ .*

**Corollary 2.2.9.** *Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with  $1$ . Then  $R$  is a field if and only if its only ideals are  $0$  and  $R$ .*

**Corollary 2.2.10.** *If  $R$  is a field then any nonzero ring homomorphism from  $R$  into another ring is an injection.*



## 2.3 Properties of Ideals.

From now on  $R$  is a ring *with identity*  $1 \neq 0$ .

**Definition 2.3.1.** Let  $A$  be a nonempty subset of a ring  $R$ . The *ideal generated* by  $A$ , denoted  $(A)$  is the smallest ideal of  $R$  containing  $A$ . An ideal generated by a single element set,  $\{a\}$ , is called a *principal ideal*, it will be denoted  $(a)$ .

If  $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$ , the ideal generated by  $A$  is called a *finitely generated ideal* and denoted  $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$ .

$$RA = \{r_1a_1 + r_2a_2 + \dots + r_na_n \mid r_i \in R, a_i \in A, n \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

is the left ideal generated by  $A$ .

$$AR = \{a_1r_1 + a_2r_2 + \dots + a_nr_n \mid r_i \in R, a_i \in A, n \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

is the right ideal generated by  $A$ .

$$RAR = \{r_1a_1s_1 + r_2a_2s_2 + \dots + r_na_ns_n \mid r_i, s_i \in R, a_i \in A, n \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

is the ideal generated by  $A$ .

**Definition 2.3.2.** An ideal  $M$  of a ring  $R$  is called a *maximal ideal* if  $M \neq R$  and the only ideals containing  $M$  are  $M$  and  $R$ .

**Theorem 2.3.3.** *Every proper ideal in a ring with identity  $1 \neq 0$  is contained in a maximal ideal.*

**Theorem 2.3.4.** *Let  $R$  be a commutative ring and  $M$  an ideal of  $R$ . Then  $M$  is an maximal ideal if and only if  $R/M$  is a field.*

**Definition 2.3.5.** Let  $R$  be a ring and  $P$  an ideal of  $R$  with  $P \neq R$ .  $P$  is called a *prime ideal* if whenever  $A$  and  $B$  are ideals of  $R$  and  $AB \subseteq P$ , then  $A \subseteq P$  or  $B \subseteq P$ . If, in addition,  $R$  is commutative, then this notion becomes the notion of prime in  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Lemma 2.3.6.** *An ideal  $P$  of a ring  $R$  is prime if and only if for any  $a$  and  $b$  in  $R$ ,  $aRb \subseteq P$  implies  $a \in P$  or  $b \in P$ .*

**Theorem 2.3.7.** *Let  $R$  be a commutative ring and  $P$  an ideal of  $R$  with  $P \neq R$ . Then  $P$  is prime if and only if  $ab \in P$  implies  $a \in P$  or  $b \in P$  for any  $a, b \in R$ .*

**Theorem 2.3.8.** *Let  $P$  be an ideal of a commutative ring  $R$ . Then  $P$  is a prime ideal if and only if  $R/P$  is an integral domain.*

**Corollary 2.3.9.** *Every maximal ideal of a commutative ring is a prime ideal.*

**Definition 2.3.10.** Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with 1 and  $x, y \in R$ . We say that  $x$  **divides**  $y$ , denoted  $x \mid y$  if there exists  $q \in R$  such that  $y = xq$  (i.e.  $Ry \subseteq Rx$  or  $(y) \subseteq (x)$ ).

**Definition 2.3.11.** Let  $R$  be an integral domain and  $a, b \in R$ . We say that  $a$  and  $b$  are **associated** if  $a \mid b$  and  $b \mid a$ .

**Theorem 2.3.12.** *Let  $R$  be an integral domain,  $a, b \in R$ . Then TFAE:*

- (i)  $a$  and  $b$  are associated,
- (ii)  $Ra = Rb$ , and
- (iii)  $a = ub$  for some  $u \in U(R)$ .

**Definition 2.3.13.** Let  $R$  be an integral domain and  $a, b \in R$ . A **greatest common divisor** of  $a$  and  $b$  is an element  $d$  which satisfies:

- (i)  $d \mid a$  and  $d \mid b$ , and
- (ii) if  $d_1 \mid a$  and  $d_1 \mid b$ , then  $d_1 \mid d$ .

A **least common multiple** of  $a$  and  $b$  is an element  $m$  which satisfies:

- (i)  $a \mid m$  and  $b \mid m$ , and
- (ii) if  $a \mid m_1$  and  $b \mid m_1$ , then  $m \mid m_1$ .

**Theorem 2.3.14.** *Let  $R$  be an integral domain and  $a, b \in R$ .*

- (i) *If  $d$  and  $d_1$  are gcd's of  $a$  and  $b$ , then  $d$  and  $d_1$  are associated.*

(ii) If  $m$  and  $m_1$  are lcm's of  $a$  and  $b$ , then  $m$  and  $m_1$  are associated.

**Theorem 2.3.15.** Let  $R$  be an integral domain. If  $Ra + Rb = Rc$ , then  $c = \gcd(a, b)$ .

**Definition 2.3.16.** Let  $R$  be an integral domain. A nonzero element  $p$  is called a **prime** in  $R$  if  $Rp$  is a prime ideal.

**Definition 2.3.17.** Let  $R$  be an integral domain. An element  $a$  in  $R$  is called an **irreducible element** (atom) if

- (i)  $a \neq 0$  and  $a \notin U(R)$ , and
- (ii)  $a$  cannot be expressed as a product  $a = bc$  where  $b \notin U(R), c \notin U(R)$ .

**Theorem 2.3.18.** Every prime element in an integral domain is irreducible.

## 2.4 Euclidean Domains

**Definition 2.4.1.** A function  $\mathcal{N} : R \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} = \mathbb{N}_0$  is called a **norm** on an integral domain  $R$  if  $\mathcal{N}(0) = 0$ .

A norm  $\mathcal{N}$  is said to be **multiplicative** if it satisfies the following conditions:

- (i)  $\mathcal{N}(a) = 0$  if and only if  $a = 0$ .
- (ii)  $\mathcal{N}(ab) = \mathcal{N}(a)\mathcal{N}(b)$  for all  $a, b \in R$ .

**Proposition 2.4.2.** Let  $R$  be an integral domain with a multiplicative norm  $\mathcal{N}$  on  $R$ . Then

- (i)  $\mathcal{N}(u) = 1$  for every unit  $u$  in  $R$ .
- (ii) If in addition  $\mathcal{N}$  has a property that every  $x$  such that  $\mathcal{N}(x) = 1$  is a unit in  $R$ , then an element  $\pi$  in  $R$ , with  $\mathcal{N}(\pi) = p$  for some prime  $p$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$ , is an irreducible element of  $R$ .

**Definition 2.4.3.** Let  $R$  be an integral domain.  $R$  is said to be a **Euclidean Domain** if there is a function  $\mathcal{N}$  from  $R \setminus \{0\}$  to  $\mathbb{N}$  satisfying

- (i)  $\mathcal{N}(ab) \geq \mathcal{N}(a)$  for all nonzero elements  $a$  and  $b$  in  $R$ .
- (ii) If  $a, b \in R$  and  $b \neq 0$ , then there exist  $q, r \in R$  such that  $a = bq + r$  with  $r = 0$  or  $r \neq 0$  and  $\mathcal{N}(r) < \mathcal{N}(b)$ .

**Proposition 2.4.4.** *Let  $R$  be a Euclidean Domain with norm  $\mathcal{N}$ . Then*

- (i)  $\mathcal{N}(1)$  is minimal among  $\mathcal{N}(a)$  for all nonzero  $a \in R$ .
- (ii)  $U(R) = \{u \in R \mid \mathcal{N}(u) = 1\}$ .

**Theorem 2.4.5.**  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  is a Euclidean Domain. (with respect to the norm  $\mathcal{N}(a + bi) = a^2 + b^2$ .)

**Theorem 2.4.6.** *Every ideal of a Euclidean domain is a principal ideal.*

**Theorem 2.4.7 (Euclidean Algorithm).** *Let  $R$  be a Euclidean domain and let  $a$  and  $b$  be elements in  $R$ . Then*

$$Ra + Rb = Rc$$

*for some  $c \in R$ . Furthermore,  $c$  can be explicitly constructed and  $\gcd(a, b) = c$  so  $\gcd(a, b)$  always exists.*

## 2.5 Principal Ideal Domains

**Definition 2.5.1.** A *Principal Ideal Domain (PID)* is an integral domain in which every ideal is principal.

**Theorem 2.5.2.** *Every nonzero prime ideal in a PID is a maximal ideal.*

**Theorem 2.5.3.** *In a PID,  $(p)$  is a maximal ideal if and only if  $p$  is irreducible.*

**Corollary 2.5.4.** *Let  $R$  be a PID and  $p \in R$ . Then  $p$  is irreducible if and only if  $(p)$  is a prime ideal.*

**Theorem 2.5.5.** *In a PID, a nonzero element is a prime if and only if it is irreducible.*

**Theorem 2.5.6 (ACC for ideals in a PID).** *Let  $D$  be a PID. If  $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \dots$  is a monotonic ascending chain of ideals, then there exists  $r$  such that  $I_s = I_r$  for all  $s \geq r$ . (Ascending chain condition (ACC) holds for ideals in a PID.)*

**Theorem 2.5.7.** *Every Euclidean Domain is a PID.*

## 2.6 Unique factorization Domains

**Definition 2.6.1.** A *Unique Factorization Domain* (UFD) is an integral domain  $R$  in which every nonzero nonunit element  $a \in R$  has the following factorization property:

- (i)  $a$  is a (finite) product of irreducible elements of  $R$ , and
- (ii) the decomposition of (i) is unique up to associates, namely if  $a = p_1 p_2 \dots p_m = q_1 q_2 \dots q_n$  where  $p_i, q_i$  are irreducible, then  $m = n$  and there is a reordering  $q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_m}$  of  $q_1, \dots, q_m$  such that  $p_j$  and  $q_{i_j}$  are associated.

**Theorem 2.6.2.** *Let  $R$  be an integral domain. Then  $R$  is a UFD if and only if*

- (i) *Every nonzero nonunit element of  $R$  is a product of irreducible elements.*
- (ii) *Every irreducible element is a prime.*

**Definition 2.6.3.** Let  $R$  be an integral domain. Define an equivalence relation on the set of irreducible elements of  $R$  by

$$a \sim b \iff a \text{ and } b \text{ are associated.}$$

Then a *set of representative irreducible elements* of  $R$  is a set which contains exactly one irreducible element from each equivalence class.

**Theorem 2.6.4.** *Let  $R$  be an integral domain and  $P$  be a set of representative irreducible element of  $R$ . Then TFAE:*

- (i)  *$R$  is a UFD.*

- (ii) Every nonzero nonunit element of  $R$  can be expressed uniquely (up to ordering) as  $a = up_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$ , where  $u$  is a unit  $k \geq 0, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k > 0$  and  $p_1, \dots, p_k$  are distinct elements of  $P$ .

**Theorem 2.6.5.** Let  $R$  be a UFD and  $a, b \in R$ . Then

- (i)  $a$  and  $b$  have a gcd.  
(ii)  $a$  and  $b$  have an lcm.  
(iii) If  $P$  is a set of representative irreducible elements for  $R$ , then among the gcd of  $a$  and  $b$ , there is exactly one which is a product of elements of  $P$ . The same is true for lcm.  
(iv) If  $a$  and  $b$  are nonzero,  $\gcd(a, b) = d$  and  $\text{lcm}(a, b) = m$  then  $ab$  and  $dm$  are associated.

**Theorem 2.6.6.** Every PID is a UFD. In particular, every Euclidean domain is a UFD.

## 2.7 Fields of Fractions

**Theorem 2.7.1.** Let  $R$  be an integral domain. Define a relation  $\sim$  on  $S = R \times (R \setminus \{0\})$  by

$$(r_1, s_1) \sim (r_2, s_2) \iff r_1 s_2 = r_2 s_1.$$

Then

- (i)  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on  $S$ .  
(ii)  $Q(R) = S / \sim$  is a field under the following addition and multiplication:

$$[(r_1, s_1)] + [(r_2, s_2)] = [(r_1 s_2 + r_2 s_1, s_1 s_2)],$$

$$[(r_1, s_1)] \cdot [(r_2, s_2)] = [(r_1 r_2, s_1 s_2)].$$

- (iii)  $Q(R)$  is the smallest field containing  $R$  in the sense that any field containing an isomorphic copy of  $R$  in which all nonzero elements of  $R$  are units must contain an isomorphic copy of  $Q(R)$ .

**Definition 2.7.2.** The field in Theorem 2.7.1 is called *the field of fractions* or *quotient field* of  $R$ .

## 2.8 Polynomial Rings

**Definition 2.8.1.** The *polynomial ring*  $R[x]$  in the indeterminate  $x$  with coefficient from  $R$  is the set of formal sums of the form

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0,$$

where  $n \geq 0$ ,  $a_0, \dots, a_n \in R$  with  $a_n \neq 0$ . The integer  $n$  is called the *degree* of  $f$ . The degree of “0” is defined to be  $-\infty$ . The polynomial  $f$  is called monic if  $a_n = 1$ .

Define the addition and the multiplication on  $R[x]$  as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \left( \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i \right) + \left( \sum_{i=0}^n b_i x^i \right) &= \sum_{i=0}^n (a_i + b_i) x^i \\ \left( \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i \right) \cdot \left( \sum_{i=0}^n b_i x^i \right) &= \sum_{k=0}^{m+n} \left( \sum_{i=0}^k a_i b_{k-i} \right) x^k, \end{aligned}$$

where some leading terms  $a_i$  or  $b_j$  are allowed to be zero.

Then  $R[x]$  is a ring with identity 1. If  $R$  is commutative then so is  $R[x]$ . Note that  $R$  can be considered as a subring of  $R[x]$ .

**Theorem 2.8.2.** *Let  $R$  be an integral domain (entire ring) and  $f(x), g(x) \in R[x]$ . Then*

- (i)  $\deg(f(x) + g(x)) \leq \max\{\deg f(x), \deg g(x)\}$  (note that the hypothesis that  $R$  is an integral domain is unnecessary).
- (ii)  $\deg(f(x)g(x)) = \deg f(x) + \deg g(x)$ .
- (iii)  $U(R[x]) = U(R)$ .
- (iv)  $R[x]$  is an integral domain. (entire ring).

**Theorem 2.8.3.** *Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with 1 and  $i : R \rightarrow R[x]$  the inclusion map. Let  $S$  be a commutative ring with 1 and  $\phi : R \rightarrow S$  a ring homomorphism. Then there exists a unique homomorphism  $\hat{\phi} : R[x] \rightarrow S$  such that  $\hat{\phi}(x) = a$  where  $a \in S$  and  $\phi = \hat{\phi} \circ i$ . In particular, if  $R = S$ , then  $\hat{\phi} : R[x] \rightarrow R$  is given by  $\hat{\phi}(f(x)) = f(a)$  and  $\ker \hat{\phi} = R[x](x - a)$ , the ideal of  $R[x]$  generated by  $x - a$ .*

**Definition 2.8.4.** The polynomial ring in the variables  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  with coefficients in  $R$  is denoted by  $R[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  and defined inductively by  $R[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}][x_n]$ .

**Theorem 2.8.5 (Division Algorithm).** *Let  $R$  be a ring with 1 (not necessarily commutative). Let  $f(x)$  be a **monic** polynomial of degree  $n$  in  $R[x]$ . Then for any  $g(x) \in R[x]$ , there exist unique polynomials  $q(x)$  and  $r(x)$  in  $R[x]$  satisfying*

$$(i) \quad g(x) = f(x)q(x) + r(x).$$

$$(ii) \quad \deg r(x) < n.$$

**Theorem 2.8.6.** *Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with 1,  $a \in R$  and  $f(x) \in R[x]$ . Then*

$$(i) \quad \exists g(x) \in R[x], \quad f(x) = (x - a)g(x) + f(a).$$

$$(ii) \quad (x - a) \mid f(x) \iff f(a) = 0.$$

**Definition 2.8.7.** Let  $f(x) \in R[x]$  and  $a \in R$ . Then  $a$  is called a *root* of  $f(x)$  if  $f(a) = 0$ .

**Theorem 2.8.8.** *Let  $R$  be an integral domain and  $f(x) \in R[x] \setminus \{0\}$ . If  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k$  are distinct roots of  $f(x)$ , then  $(x - a_1)(x - a_2) \cdots (x - a_k) \mid f(x)$ .*

**Theorem 2.8.9.** *If  $F$  is field, then  $F[x]$  is a Euclidean Domain.*

**Theorem 2.8.10.** *Let  $F$  be a field.*

$$(i) \quad \text{If } f(x) \in F[x] \text{ and } \deg f = n, \text{ then } f(x) \text{ has at most } n \text{ distinct roots.}$$



- (ii) If  $f(x), g(x) \in F[x]$  and  $\deg f, \deg g \leq n$ , and  $f(\alpha_i) = g(\alpha_i)$  for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n+1$  where  $\alpha_i$ 's are distinct elements in  $F$ , then  $f(x) = g(x)$ .

**Definition 2.8.11.** Let  $f(x) \in R$  and  $a$  a root of  $f(x)$ . If  $f(x)$  is divisible by  $(x - a)^m$  but not by  $(x - a)^{m+1}$  for some positive integer  $m$ , then  $a$  is said to be a root of **multiplicity**  $m$ .

**Corollary 2.8.12.** If  $F$  is a field,  $f(x) \in F[x]$ , and  $\deg f(x) = n$ , then  $f(x)$  has at most  $n$  roots.

**Theorem 2.8.13.** Let  $F$  be a field with  $q$  elements. Then

- (i)  $F^* = F \setminus \{0\}$  is a cyclic group (under multiplication) of order  $q - 1$ .
- (ii) If  $F^* = \{a_1, \dots, a_{q-1}\}$ , then  $(x - a_1)(x - a_2) \cdots (x - a_{q-1}) = x^{q-1} - 1$ .
- (iii) If  $F = \{0, a_1, \dots, a_{q-1}\}$ , then  $x(x - a_1)(x - a_2) \cdots (x - a_{q-1}) = x^q - x$ .

**Theorem 2.8.14.** Let  $F$  be a field. Then

- (i) Linear polynomials (polynomial of degree 1) are irreducible in  $F[x]$ .
- (ii) Linear polynomials are the only irreducible elements in  $F[x]$  iff each polynomial of positive degree has a root in  $F$ .

**Definition 2.8.15.** Let  $R$  be a UFD and  $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 + a_0$  is a nonzero polynomial over  $R$ . The **content** of  $f(x)$  is the greatest common divisor of  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n$ . We say that  $f(x)$  is **primitive** if  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n$  have no common divisor except units.

**Theorem 2.8.16.** Let  $R$  be a UFD and  $f(x), g(x) \in R[x]$ . If  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are primitive, then so is  $f(x)g(x)$ .

**Theorem 2.8.17.** Let  $R$  be a UFD and  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are nonzero polynomials of  $F[x]$ . Then

- (i)  $f(x)$  is primitive iff the content of  $f(x)$  is 1.
- (ii) If  $a$  is the content of  $f$ , then  $f(x) = a f_1(x)$  where  $f_1(x)$  is primitive.

- (iii) If  $f(x) = af_1(x)$  where  $f_1(x)$  is primitive, then  $a$  is a content of  $f$ .
- (iv) If  $a$  is the content of  $f(x)$  and  $b$  is the content of  $g(x)$ , then  $ab$  is the content of  $fg$ .

**Theorem 2.8.18.** Let  $R$  be a UFD and  $F = \mathbb{Q}(R)$  be its field of fraction. If  $f(x)$  is an irreducible polynomial in  $R[x]$ , then  $f(x)$ , considered as a polynomial in  $F[x]$  is irreducible in  $F[x]$ . In particular, if  $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  is irreducible in  $\mathbb{Z}$ , then  $f(x)$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

**Theorem 2.8.19.** Let  $R$  be a UFD and  $F$  its field of quotient. Let  $f(x) = a_nx^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1x + a_0 \in R[x]$ . If  $\frac{r}{s} \in F$  is a root of  $f(x)$ , where  $r$  and  $s$  are relatively prime, then  $(sx - r) | f(x)$  in  $R[x]$  and so  $s | a_n$  and  $r | a_0$  if  $r \neq 0$ .

**Corollary** Let  $R$  be a UFD and  $F$  its field of fractions. Let  $f(x) \in R[x]$  be primitive. Then  $f(x)$  is irreducible in  $R[x]$  iff  $f(x)$  is irreducible in  $F[x]$ .

**Theorem 2.8.20 (Eisenstein's Criterion).** Let  $P$  be a prime ideal of the integral domain  $R$  and let  $f(x) = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1x + a_0$  be a polynomial in  $R[x]$  ( $n \geq 1$ ). Assume that  $a_{n-1}, a_{n-2}, \dots, a_1, a_0$  are all in  $P$  and  $a_0$  is not in  $P^2$ . Then  $f(x)$  is irreducible in  $R[x]$ .

**Corollary (Eisenstein's Criterion for  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ )** Let  $p$  be a prime in  $\mathbb{Z}$  and let  $f(x) = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1x + a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  ( $n \geq 1$ ). If  $p | a_i$  for all  $i$  but  $p^2 \nmid a_0$ , then  $f(x)$  is irreducible in both  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  and  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ .

**Theorem 2.8.21.** Let  $R$  be UFD and  $F$  its field of fractions. Let  $f(x) \in R[x]$ . Then  $f(x)$  is irreducible in  $R[x]$  iff either

- (i)  $f(x) \in R$  and  $f(x)$  is irreducible in  $R$ , or
- (ii)  $f(x)$  is a primitive polynomial of degree  $n \geq 1$  and  $f(x)$  is irreducible in  $F[x]$ .

**Theorem 2.8.22.** Let  $R$  be a UFD and  $f(x) \in R[x]$ . If  $f(x)$  is irreducible in  $R[x]$ , then  $(f(x))$  is a prime ideal, i.e.  $f(x)$  is a prime.

**Theorem 2.8.23.** *If  $R$  is a UFD, then  $R[x]$  is a UFD.*

**Corollary** If  $R$  is a UFD then a polynomial ring in an arbitrary number of variables with coefficient in  $R$  is also a UFD.

# Chapter 3

## Fields

### 3.1 The Characteristic Fields

**Definition 3.1.1.** The **characteristic** of a field  $F$ , denoted  $\text{char}(F)$ , is the smallest positive integer  $m$  with the property that  $m \cdot 1 = 0$  provided such a  $m$  exists, otherwise, it is defined to be 0.

**Proposition 3.1.2.** *For any field  $F$ ,  $\text{char}(F)$  is either 0 or a prime  $p$ .*

### 3.2 Extension Fields and Degrees of Extensions

**Definition 3.2.1.** A field  $K$  is said to be an **extension field** of a field  $F$  and is denoted  $K|_F$ , if  $K \supseteq F$ . The dimension of  $K$  as a vector space over  $F$  is called the **degree of a field extension**  $K|_F$ , denoted  $[K : F]$ . The extension is said to be finite if  $[K : F]$  is **finite** and it is said to be **infinite** otherwise.

**Theorem 3.2.2.** *If  $K|_E$  and  $E|_F$  are finite field extensions, then  $K|_F$  is also a finite field extension and*

$$[K : F] = [K : E][E : F]$$

**Theorem 3.2.3.** *Let  $F$  be a field and  $p(x) \in F[x]$  be an irreducible polynomial. Then there is an extension field  $E$  of  $F$  in which  $p(x)$  has a root and  $[E : F] = \deg p(x)$ . Moreover*

$$E = \{b_{n-1}\theta^{n-1} + b_{n-2}\theta^{n-2} + \cdots + b_1\theta + b_0 \mid b_{n-1}, b_{n-2}, \dots, b_1, b_0 \in F\} \text{ where } \theta = x + (p(x)).$$

**Definition 3.2.4.** Let  $K|_F$  be a field extension of a field  $F$  and  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n \in K$ . The intersection of all subfields of  $K$  containing  $F$  and  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ , is called the **field generated by  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$  over  $F$**  and is denoted  $F(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n)$ .

It is the smallest subfield with the above property. In particular, for each  $\alpha \in K$ ,  $F(\alpha)$  is the smallest subfields of  $K$  containing  $F$  and  $\alpha$ .

**Lemma 3.2.5.** *Let  $K|_F$  be a field extension of a field  $F$ . Let  $\alpha, \beta \in K$ . Then*

$$F(\alpha, \beta) = (F(\alpha))(\beta).$$

Moreover, if  $[F(\alpha) : F] = m$  and  $[F(\alpha)(\beta) : F(\alpha)] = n$ , then  $[F(\alpha, \beta)] = mn$  and any element of  $F(\alpha, \beta)$  has the form  $\sum_{\substack{i=1,2,\dots,m \\ j=1,2,\dots,n}} a_{ij}\alpha^i\beta^j$ .

**Definition 3.2.6.** Let  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  be subfields of  $E$ . Then the **composite field** of  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ , denoted  $E_1E_2$ , is the smallest subfield of  $E$  containing both  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ . In general, the composite of any collection of subfields of  $E$  is the smallest subfield of  $E$  containing all the subfields.

**Theorem 3.2.7.** *Let  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  be two finite field extensions of a field  $F$  both contained in  $E$ . Then  $[E_1E_2 : F] \leq [E_1 : F][E_2 : F]$ .*

**Corollary** *Let  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  be two finite field extensions of a field  $F$  both contained in  $E$ . Assume  $[E_1 : F] = m$  and  $[E_2 : F] = n$  where  $(m, n) = 1$ . Then  $[E_1E_2 : F] = [E_1 : F][E_2 : F] = mn$*

**Theorem 3.2.8.** *Let  $p(x)$  be an irreducible polynomial of  $F[x]$ . Let  $K$  be an extension field of  $F$  containing a root  $\alpha$  of  $p(x)$ . Then*

(i)  $F(\alpha) \cong F[x]/(p(x))$ .

(ii) If  $\deg p(x) = n$ , then  $F(\alpha) = \{a_0 + a_1\alpha + \cdots + a_{n-1}\alpha^{n-1} \mid a_i \in F\}$ .

**Theorem 3.2.9.** Let  $\varphi : F \rightarrow F'$  be a field isomorphism. Then  $\varphi$  induces a ring isomorphism  $\varphi^*F[x] \rightarrow F'[x]$  with the property that  $\varphi^*(a) = \varphi(a)$  for all  $a \in F$ , and  $\varphi^*$  maps a irreducible polynomial to the a irreducible polynomial. Moreover, if  $\alpha$  is a root of an irreducible polynomial  $p(x)$  and  $\beta$  is a root of  $\varphi^*(p(x))$ , then there exists an isomorphism  $\sigma : F(\alpha) \rightarrow F'(\beta)$  mapping  $\alpha$  to  $\beta$  and extending  $\varphi$ .

### 3.3 Algebraic Extensions

**Definition 3.3.1.** Let  $E|_F$  be a field extension.  $\alpha \in E$  is said to be **algebraic over**  $F$  if  $\alpha$  is a root of some polynomial  $f(x) \in F[x]$ . If  $\alpha$  is not algebraic over  $F$ , then  $\alpha$  is said to be **transcendental over**  $F$ .  $E|_F$  is said to be **algebraic** if every element of  $E$  is algebraic over  $F$ , and  $E$  is called an **algebraic extension** of  $F$ .

**Theorem 3.3.2.** Let  $E|_F$  be an extension and assume that  $\alpha \in E$  is algebraic over  $F$ . Then

- (i)  $\exists!$  monic irreducible polynomial, denoted  $m_F(\alpha)$ , which has  $\alpha$  as a root.
- (ii)  $f(x) \in F[x]$  has  $\alpha$  as a root iff  $m_F(\alpha)$  divides  $f(x)$  in  $F[x]$  (i.e. if  $I = \{f(x) \in F[x] \mid f(\alpha) = 0\}$ , then  $I$  is the ideal generated by  $m_F(\alpha)$ ).
- (iii)  $F(\alpha) \cong F[x]/(m_F(\alpha))$  and  $[F(\alpha) : F] = \deg m_F(\alpha)$ .
- (iv)  $F[\alpha] = F(\alpha)$ .

**Definition 3.3.3.** The unique monic irreducible polynomial  $m_F(\alpha)$  in theorem 3.3.2 is called the **minimal polynomial** for  $\alpha$  over  $F$ . The degree of  $m_F(\alpha)$  is called the **degree** of  $\alpha$  over  $F$ , denoted  $\deg(\alpha, F)$

**Theorem 3.3.4.** Let  $E|_F$  be an extension and  $\alpha \in E$ . Then  $\alpha$  is algebraic over  $F$  iff  $F[\alpha]$  is the field  $F(\alpha)$ , where  $F[\alpha] = \{f(\alpha) \mid f(x) \in F[x]\}$ .

**Theorem 3.3.5.** Let  $E|_F$  be an extension. If  $[E : F] < \infty$ , then  $E$  is algebraic over  $F$ .

**Theorem 3.3.6.** *Let  $K|_F$  be an extension. Then  $[K : F]$  is finite if and only if  $K = F(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k)$  for some algebraic elements  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k$  over  $F$ . Moreover if, for each  $i$ ,  $[F(\alpha_i) : F] = n_i$ , then  $[K : F] \leq n_1 n_2 \cdots n_k$ .*

**Corollary** *Let  $K|_F$  be an extension. Then the set of elements of  $K$  that are algebraic over  $F$  forms a subfield of  $K$ .*

**Theorem 3.3.7.** *If  $K|_E$  and  $E|_F$  are algebraic extensions, then so is  $K|_F$ .*

## 3.4 Finite Fields

**Theorem 3.4.1.** *Every finite field must have prime power order.*

**Corollary 3.4.2.** *Every element of a finite field with characteristic  $p$  is algebraic over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ .*

**Definition 3.4.3.** The extension field  $K$  of  $F$  is called a **splitting field** for the polynomial  $f(x) \in F[x]$  if  $f(x)$  factors completely into linear factors (or splits completely) in  $K[x]$  and  $f(x)$  does not factor completely into linear factors over any proper subfield of  $K$  containing  $F$ .

**Theorem 3.4.4.** *For any field  $F$ , if  $f(x) \in F[x]$ , then there exists an extension  $K$  of  $F$  which is a splitting field for  $f(x)$ .*

**Theorem 3.4.5.** *Let  $\varphi : F \rightarrow F'$  be an isomorphism of fields. Let  $f(x) \in F[x]$  and let  $f'(x) \in F'[x]$  be the polynomial obtained by applying  $\varphi$  to the coefficients of  $f(x)$ . Let  $E$  be a splitting field for  $f(x)$  over  $F$  and let  $E'$  be a splitting field for  $f'(x)$  over  $F'$ . Then the isomorphism  $\varphi$  extends to an isomorphism  $\sigma : E \rightarrow E'$ .*

**Theorem 3.4.6.** *(Uniqueness of Splitting Fields) Any two splitting fields for a polynomial  $f(x) \in F[x]$  over a field  $F$  are isomorphic.*

**Theorem 3.4.7.** *For each prime  $p$  and each positive integer  $n$ , there is (up to isomorphism) a unique finite field of order  $p^n$ .*

## 3.5 Simple Extensions

**Definition 3.5.1.** Let  $K|_F$  be a field extension.  $K$  is called a **simple extension** of  $F$  if  $K = F(\alpha)$  for some  $\alpha \in K$  and this  $\alpha$  is called a primitive element for the extension.

**Theorem 3.5.2 (Artin).** Let  $E|_F$  be a finite degree field extension. Then  $E = F(\alpha)$  for some  $\alpha \in E$  if and only if there are only finitely many field  $K$  with  $F \subseteq K \subseteq E$ .

**Corollary 3.5.3.** Let  $K|_F$  be a field extension. Assume that  $K = F(\alpha)$  for some  $\alpha$  which is algebraic over  $F$ . Then  $E$  is a simple extension for any field  $E$  such that  $F \subseteq E \subseteq K$ .

**Theorem 3.5.4.** If  $F$  is a field of characteristic 0 and if  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are algebraic over  $F$ , then there is  $\gamma \in F(\alpha, \beta)$  such that  $F(\alpha, \beta) = F(\gamma)$ .