Algebra
Lecture Notes for MTH 818/819
Fall 12/Spring 13

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Preface

These are the lecture notes for the classes MTH 818 in Fall 2012 and MTH 819 in Spring 2013. The notes were originally based on Hungerford's Algebra [Hun], but by now the content and proofs have diverged from Hungerford.

The lecture notes will be updated frequently.

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Chapter 1

Group Theory

1.1 Latin Squares

[**ls**]

Definition 1.1.1. [**def:matrix**] *Let I, J be sets $\mathcal{C}$ a class. An $I \times J$ matrix in $\mathcal{C}$ is a function $M : I \times J \to \mathcal{C}$.. We will write M_{ij} for the image of (i, j) under M. M_{ij} is called the ij-coefficient of M. We denote M by $\left[M_{ij}\right]_{\substack{i\in I\\ j\in J}}$.*

Definition 1.1.2. [**binaryop**] *Let G be a set and ϕ a function such that $G \times G$ is contained in the domain of G.*

(a) [**a**] *If $a, b \in G$ we write ab or $a\phi b$ for $\phi(a, b)$. ϕ is called a* binary operation *on G (or closed on G, if $ab \in G$ for all $a, b \in G$. In this case the pair (G, ϕ) is called a* magma*.*

(b) [**b**] *$1 \in G$ is called an* identity element *if $1a = a1 = a$ for all $a \in G$.*

(c) [**c**] *We say that (G, ϕ) is a* Latin square *if for all a, b in G there exist unique elements x, y in G so that*

$$ax = b \text{ and } ya = b$$

(d) [**d**] *The* multiplication table *of (G, ϕ) is the matrix $G \times G$-matrix $\left[ab\right]_{\substack{a\in G\\ b\in G}}$.*

(e) [**e**] *The* order *of (G, ϕ) is the cardinality $|G|$ of G.*

We remark that (G, ϕ) is a latin square if and only if each $a \in G$ appears exactly once in each row and in each column of the multiplication table.

If there is no confusion about the binary operation in mind, we will just write G for (G, ϕ) and call G a magma.

If (G, ϕ) is a magma, we can restrict ϕ to a function

$$\tilde{\phi} : G \times G \to G, (a, b) \to ab$$

Then $(G, \tilde{\phi})$ is also a magma

Definition 1.1.3. [**def:hom**] *Let G and H be magma and $\alpha : G \to H$ a function.*

(a) [**a**] *α is called a (magma)* homomorphism *if $\alpha(ab) = \alpha(a)\alpha(b)$, for all $a, b \in G$.*

(b) [**b**] *α is called an* isomorphism *if α is a homomorphism and there exists a homomorphism $\beta : H \to G$ with $\alpha \circ \beta = \mathrm{id}_H$ and $\beta \circ \alpha = \mathrm{id}_G$.*

(c) [**c**] *α is an* automorphism *if $G = H$ and α is an isomorphism.*

(d) [**d**] *If G and H are monoid, α is called a monoid-homomorphism if α is magma-homomorphism and $\alpha(1_G) = 1_H$.*

(e) [**e**] *If G and H are groups, , α is called a group -homomorphism if α is magma-homomorphism.*

Definition 1.1.4. [**def:opposite pregroup**] *Let G and H be magmas.*

(a) [**a**] *The* opposite *magma G^{op} is defined by $G^{\mathrm{op}} = G$ as a set and*

$$g \cdot_{\mathrm{op}} h = hg.$$

(b) [**b**] *An magma* anti homomorphism*$\alpha : G \to H$ is a magma homomorphism $\alpha : G \to H^{\mathrm{op}}$. So $\alpha(ab) = \alpha(b)\alpha(a)$.*

Lemma 1.1.5. [**basicbinary**]

(a) [**a**] *Let G be a magma. Then G has at most one identity.*

(b) [**b**] *Let $\alpha : G \to H$ be a magma homomorphism. Then α is an isomorphism if and only if α is a bijection.*

Proof. (a) Let 1 and 1^* be identities. Then

$$1 = 11^* = 1^*.$$

(b) Clearly any isomorphism is a bijection. Conversely, assume α is a bijection and let β be its inverse map. We need to show that β is a homomorphism. For this let $a, b \in H$. Then as α is a homomorphism

$$\alpha(\beta(a)\beta(b)) = \alpha(\beta(a))\alpha(\beta(b)) = ab = \alpha(\beta(ab)).$$

Since α is 1-1 (or by applying β) we get

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

So β is an homomorphism. □

1.1.6 (Latin Squares of small order)**.** [**small latin**] Below we list (up to isomorphism) all Latin square of order at most 5 which have an identity element 1. It is fairly straightforward to obtain this list, although the case $|G| = 5$ is rather tedious). We leave the details to the reader, but indicate a case division which leads to the various Latin squares.

Order 1,2 and 3:

	1
1	1

	1	a
1	1	a
a	a	1

	1	a	b
1	1	a	b
a	a	b	1
b	b	1	a

Order 4: Here we get two non-isomorphic Latin squares. One for the case that $a^2 \neq 1$ for some $a \in G$ and one for the case that $a^2 = 1$ for all $a \in G$.

(1)

	1	a	b	c
1	1	a	b	c
a	a	b	c	1
b	b	c	1	a
c	c	1	a	b

(2)

	1	a	b	c
1	1	a	b	c
a	a	1	c	b
b	b	c	1	a
c	c	b	a	1

Order 5: This time we get lots of cases:

Case 1: There exists $1 \neq a \neq b$ with $a^2 = 1 = b^2$.

Case 2 There exists $1 \neq a$ with $a^2 \neq 1$, $aa^2 = 1$ and $(a^2a)^2 = 1$.

Case 3 There exists $1 \neq a$ with $a^2 \neq 1$, $aa^2 = 1$ and $(a^2a)^2 \neq 1$

Case 4 There exists $1 \neq a$ with $a^2 \neq 1$, $a^2a = 1$ and $(aa^2)^2 = 1$.

This Latin square is anti-isomorphic but not isomorphic to the one in case 2. Anti-isomorphic means that is there exists bijection α with $\alpha(ab) = \alpha(b)\alpha(a))$.

Case 5 There exists $1 \neq a$ with $a^2 \neq 1$, $a^2a = 1$ and $(aa^2)^2 \neq 1$.

This Latin square is isomorphic and anti-isomorphic to the one in case 3.

Case 6 There exists $1 \neq a$ with $a^2 \neq 1$, $a^2a = aa^2 \neq 1$

Case 7 There exists $1 \neq a$ with $a^2 \neq 1 = (a^2)^2$.

Case 8 There exists $1 \neq a$ with $(a^2)^2 \neq 1$ and $1 \neq a^2a \neq aa^2 \neq 1$.

In this case put $c = aa^2$. Then $c^2 \neq 1$ and either $cc^2 = 1$ or $c^2c = 1$. Moreover $(c^2c)^2 \neq 1$ respectively $(cc^2)^2 \neq 1$ and the latin square is isomorphic to the one in Case 3.

(1)

	1	a	b	c	d
1	1	a	b	c	d
a	a	1	c	d	b
b	b	d	1	a	c
c	c	b	d	1	a
d	d	c	a	b	e

(2)

	1	a	b	c	d
1	1	a	b	c	d
a	a	b	1	d	c
b	b	c	d	a	1
c	c	d	a	1	b
d	d	1	c	b	a

(3)

	1	a	b	c	d
1	1	a	b	c	d
a	a	b	1	d	c
b	b	c	d	1	a
c	c	d	a	b	1
d	d	1	c	a	b

(4)

	1	a	b	c	d
1	1	a	b	c	d
a	a	b	c	d	1
b	b	1	d	a	c
c	c	d	a	1	b
d	d	c	1	b	a

(5)

	1	a	b	c	d
1	1	a	b	c	d
a	a	b	c	d	1
b	b	1	d	a	c
c	c	d	1	b	a
d	d	c	a	1	b

(6)

	1	a	b	c	d
1	1	a	b	c	d
a	a	b	c	d	1
b	b	c	d	1	a
c	c	d	1	a	b
d	d	1	a	b	c

(7)

	1	a	b	c	d
1	1	a	b	c	d
a	a	b	c	d	1
b	b	d	1	a	c
c	c	1	d	b	a
d	d	c	a	1	b

(8)

	1	a	b	c	d
1	1	a	b	c	d
a	a	b	c	d	1
b	b	d	a	1	c
c	c	1	d	x	y
d	d	c	1	y	x

$\{x, y\} = \{a, b\}$

1.2 Semigroups, monoids and groups

[smg]

Definition 1.2.1. [**def:group**] *Let G be a magma.*

(a) [**a**] *The binary operation on G is called* associative *if*

$$(ab)c = a(bc)$$

for all $a, b, c \in G$. If this is the case we call G a semigroup.

(b) [**b**] *G is a* monoid *if it is a semigroup and has an identity.*

(c) [**c**] *Suppose G is a monoid and let $a, b \in G$ with $ab = 1$. Then a is called a left inverse of b and b is called a right inverse of a.*

(d) [**f**] *Suppose that G is a monoid. Then $a \in G$ is called* invertible *if there exists $a^{-1} \in G$ with*

$$aa^{-1} = 1 = a^{-1}a.$$

Such an a^{-1} is called an inverse *of a.*

(e) [**d**] *A* group *is a monoid in which every element is invertible.*

(f) [**e**] *G is called* abelian *(or* commutative*) if*

$$ab = ba$$

for all $a, b \in G$.

Example 1.2.2. [**ex:groups**] Let $\mathbb{Z}^+$ denote the positive integers and $\mathbb{N}$ the non-negative integers. Then $(\mathbb{Z}^+, +)$ is a semigroup, $(\mathbb{N}, +)$ is a monoid and $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is a group. $(\mathbb{Z}, \cdot)$ and $(\mathbb{R}, \cdot)$ are monoids. Let $\mathbb{R}^* = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$. Then $(\mathbb{R}^*, \cdot)$ is a group. The integers modulo n under addition is another example. We denote this group by $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, +)$. All the examples so far have been abelian.

Note that in a group $a^{-1}b$ is the unique solution of $ax = b$ and ba^{-1} is the unique solution of $ya = b$. So every group is a Latin square with identity. But the converse is not true. Indeed of the Latin squares listed in section 1.1 all the once of order less than five are groups. But of Latin squares of order five only the one labeled (6) is a group.

Let $\mathbb{K}$ be a field and V a vector space over $\mathbb{K}$. Let $\mathrm{End}_{\mathbb{K}}(V)$ the set of all $\mathbb{K}$-linear maps from V to V. Then $\mathrm{End}_{\mathbb{K}}(V)$ is a monoid under compositions. Let $\mathrm{GL}_{\mathbb{K}}(V)$ be the set of $\mathbb{K}$-linear bijection from V to V. Then $\mathrm{GL}_{\mathbb{K}}(V)$ is a group under composition, called the general linear group of V. It is easy to verify that $GL_{\mathbb{K}}(V)$ is not abelian unless V has dimension 0 or 1.

Let I be a set. Then the set $\mathrm{Sym}(I)$ of all bijection from I to I is a group under composition, called the symmetric group on I. If $I = \{1, \ldots, n\}$ we also write $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$ for $\mathrm{Sym}(I)$. $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$ is called the symmetric group of degree n. $\mathrm{Sym}(I)$ is not abelian as long as I has at least three elements.

Above we obtained various examples of groups by starting with a monoid and then considered only the invertible elements. This works in general:

Lemma 1.2.3. [**basicmonoid**] *Let G be a monoid.*

(a) [**a**] *Suppose that* $a, b, c \in G$*, a is a left inverse of b and c is right inverse of b. Then* $a = c$ *and a is an inverse.*

(b) [**b**] *An element in G has an inverse if and only if it has a left inverse and a right inverse.*

(c) [**c**] *Each element in G has at most one inverse.*

(d) [**d**] *If x and y are invertible, then* x^{-1} *and xy are invertible. Namely x is an inverse of* x^{-1} *and* $y^{-1}x^{-1}$ *is an inverse of xy.*

(e) [**e**] *Let* $\mathrm{U}(G)$ *be the set of invertible elements in G, then* $\mathrm{U}(G)$ *is a group.*

Proof. (a)

$$a = a1 = a(bc) = (ab)c = 1c = c$$

(b) and (c) follow immediately from (a).
(d) Clearly x is an inverse of x^{-1}. Also

$$(y^{-1}x^{-1})(xy) = y^{-1}(x^{-1}(xy)) = y^{-1}((x^{-1}x)y) = y^{-1}(1y) = y^{-1}y = e$$

Similarly $(xy)(y^{-1}x^{-1}) = 1$ and so $y^{-1}x^{-1}$ is indeed an inverse for xy.

(e) By (d) $\mathrm{U}(G)$ is closed under multiplication. Since the multiplication is associative on G, its also associative on $\mathrm{U}(G)$. Since $1 \in \mathrm{U}(G)$, $\mathrm{U}(G)$ is a monoid. By (d) $x^{-1} \in \mathrm{U}(G)$ for all $x \in \mathrm{U}(G)$ ad so x has an inverse in $\mathrm{U}(G)$. Hence $\mathrm{U}(G)$ is a group. □

Corollary 1.2.4. [**opposite group**] *Let G be a group. Then G is isomorphic to its opposite group G^{op}, in fact the map $x \to x^{-1}$ is an anti-automorphism of G and an isomorphism $G \to G^{\mathrm{op}}$.*

Proof. This follows from 1.2.3(d). □

Definition 1.2.5. [**def:magma product**] *Let G be a magma, n a positive integer and $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in G$. Let $z \in G$. Inductively, z is called a product of $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ if either*

(a) [**a**] *$n = 1$ and $z = a_1$; or*

(b) [**b**] *$n > 1$ and there exist an integer k with $1 \le k < n$, a product x of $(a_1 \ldots, a_k)$ and a product y of $(a_{k+1} \ldots, a_n)$ such that $z = xy$.*

Also z is called the standard product of $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ if either

(a) [**c**] *$n = 1$ and $z = a_1$; or*

(b) [**d**] *$n > 1$ and $z = sa_n$ where s is the standard product of $(a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1})$.*

If G has an identity e, then e is called the product and the standard product of the empty tuple $()$.

Example 1.2.6. [**ex:product**] *Products of tuple of length less or equal to four.*

Let G be magma and $a, b, c, d \in G$.
The only product of (a) is a.
The only product of (a, b) is ab,
The products of (a, b, c) are $a(bc)$ and $(ab)c$.
The products of (a, b, c, d) are $a\big(b(cd)\big)$, $a\big((bc)d\big)$, $(ab)(cd)$, $\big(a(bc)\big)d$ and $\big((ab)c\big)d$.

Theorem 1.2.7 (General Associativity Law)**.** [**general ass**] *Let G be a semigroup and $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in G$. Then any product of $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ is equal to the standard product.*

Proof. The proof is by complete induction on n. For $n = 1$ the only product of (a_1) is a_1, which is also the standard product.

So suppose $n \ge 2$ and that any product of a tuple of length less than n is equal to its standard product. Let z be any product of $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$. Then by definition of 'product' there exist an integer $1 \le m < n$, a product x of $(a_1, \ldots, a_m)$ and a product y of $(a_{m+1}, \ldots, a_n)$ such that $z = xy$.

Suppose first that $m = n - 1$. By induction x is the standard product of $(a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1})$. Also $z = xa_n$ and so by definition z is the standard product of $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$.

Suppose next that $m < n-1$. Again by induction y is the standard product of $(a_{m+1}, \ldots, a_n)$ and so $y = sa_n$, where s is the standard product of $(a_{m+1} \ldots, a_{n-1})$. Hence

$$z = xy = x(sa_n) = (xs)a_n$$

As xs is a product of $(a_1, \ldots a_{n-1})$, we are done by the $m = n-1$ case. □

1.3 The projective plane of order 2

In this section we will look at the automorphism group of the projective plane of order two.

Definition 1.3.1. [**def:projective plane**] *Let $\mathcal{E} = (\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}, \mathcal{R})$ be a triple such that $\mathcal{P}$ and $\mathcal{L}$ are non-empty disjoint sets and $\mathcal{R} \subseteq \mathcal{P} \times \mathcal{L}$. The elements of $\mathcal{P}$ are called points, the elements of $\mathcal{L}$ are called lines and we say a point P and a line l are incident if $(P, l) \in \mathcal{R}$. $\mathcal{E}$ is called a projective plane if it has the following three properties*

(PP1) [**PP0**] *Any point is incident with at least* 3 *lines and any line is incident with at least three points.*

(PP2) [**PP1**] *Any two distinct points are incident with a unique common line.*

(PP3) [**PP2**] *Any two distinct lines are incident with a unique common point.*

If P and Q are distinct points in a projective plane, then PQ denotes the unique line incident with P and Q. And if l and k are distinct lines lk denotes the unique point incident with l and k.

Lemma 1.3.2. [**dual plane**] *Let $\mathcal{E} = (\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}, \mathcal{R})$ be a projective plane. Define*

$$\mathcal{R}^* = \{(l, P) \mid (P, l) \in \mathcal{R}\} \text{ and } \mathcal{E}^* = (\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{R}^*).$$

Then $\mathcal{E}^*$ is a projective plane, called the dual plane of $\mathcal{E}$.

Proof. (PP0) for $\mathcal{E}$ implies (PP0) for $\mathcal{E}^*$, (PP1) for $\mathcal{E}$ implies (PP2) for $\mathcal{E}^*$ and (PP2) for $\mathcal{E}$ implies (PP1) for $\mathcal{E}^*$. □

Lemma 1.3.3. [**order of a plane**] *Let $\mathcal{E}$ be a projective plane.*

(a) [**a**] *For each point P there exists a line l not incident with P,*

(b) [**b**] *For each line l there exists a point P not incident with l.*

(c) [**c**] *There exists three non-collinear points, that is three points which are not incident with a common line.*

(d) [**d**] *Let P and Q be points. Then there exists a line l which is neither incident with P nor with Q.*

(e) [**e**] *There exists a cardinality q such that each point is incident with exactly $q+1$ lines and each line is incident with exactly $q+1$ points. q is called the order of $\mathcal{E}$.*

Proof. (a) By (PP0) there exists a line r incident with P. By (PP0) there exist a point Q incident with r and distinct from P. By (PP0) there exists a line l incident with Q and distinct from r. Suppose that P is incident with l. Then P and Q are both incident with l and with r. But then (PP1) shows that $l = r$, a contradiction. So l is not incident with P.

(b) Follows from (a) applied to the dual plane of $\mathcal{E}$.

(c) Since $\mathcal{L}$ is not empty, there exists a line l. By (PP0) there exists distinct points P and Q incident with l. By (b) there exists a point R not incident with l. Suppose that k is a line incident with P, Q and R. Then both Q and R are incident with r and with l. Hence $r = l$ and P is incident with l, a contradiction. Thus P, Q and R are non-collinear.

(d) If $P = Q$, this is (a). So suppose $P \neq Q$ and let $k = PQ$. By (b) there exists a point R not incident with k. By (PP0), R is incident with at least three lines and so the exists a line l incident with R and distinct from PR and QR. Since R is incident with l we conclude that neither P nor Q is incident with l,

(e) For a point P let $\Delta(P)$ be the set of lines incident with P. For a line l $\Delta(l)$ be the set of points incident with l. We will first show that

1°. [**1**] *Let P be a point and l a line not incident with P. Then $|\Delta(P)|| = |\Delta(l)|$.*

Let $Q \in \Delta(l)$. Since P is not incident with l, $P \neq Q$ and so PQ is a line incident with P. Hence we obtain a function

$$\alpha : \Delta(l) \to \Delta(P), Q \to QP$$

Applying this result to the dual plane we get a function

$$\beta : \Delta(P) \to \Delta(l), k \to kl$$

Note that Q is a point incident with QP and l and so $Q = (QP)l$. Thus $\beta(\alpha(Q)) = Q$ and $\beta \circ \alpha = \mathrm{id}_{\Delta(l)}$. Thus result applied to the dual plane gives $\alpha \circ \beta = \mathrm{id}_{\Delta(P)}$ and so α is a bijection with inverse β. Thus (1°) holds.

2°. [**2**] *Let P and Q be points. Then $|\Delta(P)| = |\Delta(Q)|$.*

By (d) there exist a line l neither incident with P nor with Q. Thus using (1°) twice $|\Delta(P)| = |\Delta(l)| = |\Delta(Q)|$.

Now let P be a point and put $c = |\Delta(P)|$. If Q is any point, then (2°) shows $\Delta(Q)| = c$. If l is any line, we can choose a point R not incident with l and so by (1°), $|\Delta(l) = |\Delta(R)| = c$. Thus (e) holds with $q = c - 1$. □

Lemma 1.3.4. [**number of points in a plane**] *Let $\mathcal{E}$ be a projective plane of order q. Then $\mathcal{E}$ has exactly $q^2 + q + 1$ points and $q^2 + q + 1$ lines.*

Proof. Let P be a point. Any other point lies on exactly one of the $q+1$ lines incident with P. Each of whose $q+1$ lines has q points distinct from P and so the number points is $1+(q+1)\cdot q = q^2+q+1$ points. Note that also the dual of $\mathcal{E}$ is a projective plane of order q. So the dual has q^2+q+1 points, i.e $\mathcal{E}$ has q^2+q+1 lines. □

1.3.5 (Projective planes of order 2)**.** [**plane of order 2**]

Let $\mathcal{E} = (\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}, \mathcal{R})$ be a projective plane of order plane. Let A, B, C be any three points which are not collinear. We will show that the whole projective plane can be uniquely described in terms of the tuple (A, B, C). Let P and Q be distinct points. Then PQ is incident with exactly three points and so there exits a unique point incident with PQ distinct from P and Q. We denote this unique point by $P + Q$.

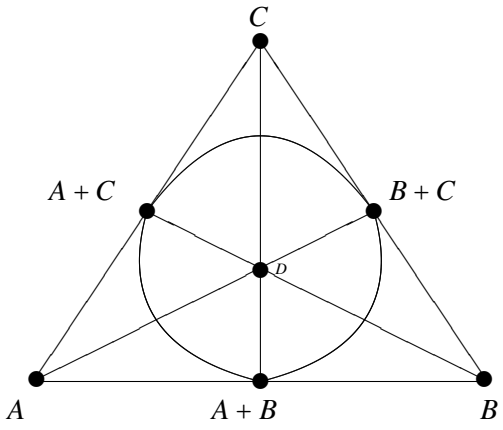
Since A, B and C are non-collinear, AB, BC and AC are three distinct lines. Since two distinct lines have exactly on point in common

$$A, B, C, A+B, A+C, B+C \text{ are six distinct points.}$$

Moreover, these are exactly the points which are incident to of the lines AB, BC and AC. Since $\mathcal{E}$ has seven points there exists exactly one more point D and D is not incident with any of the lines AB, BC and AC. Thus AD is distinct from AB, AC and BC. So none of B and C is incident with AD. Also neither A nor D is incident with BC. So $B + C$ is the only point on BC which can be incident with AD, and $A + D$ is the only point on AD which can be incident with BC. So $A + D = B + C$ and the points incident with AD are A, D and $B + C$. By symmetry the points incident with BD are B, D and $A + C$ and with CD are C, D and $C + D$. In particular,

$$AB, BC, AC, AD, BD, CD \text{ are six distinct lines.}$$

So there exists one more line d. Note that each of A, B, C and D is incident with three of the six lines distinct from d and so cannot be incident with d. Thus the three points incident with d must be $A + B, A + C$ and $B + C$. So we determined all points, all lines and their incidence:



Definition 1.3.6. [**deg:aut plane**] *Let $\mathcal{E} = (\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}, \mathcal{R})$ be a projective plane.*

(a) [**a**] *An automorphism of $\mathcal{E}$ is a bijection $\alpha : \mathcal{P} \cup \mathcal{L} \to \mathcal{P} \cup \mathcal{L}$ such that*

- *(i)* [**aut:i**] *If P is a point, then $\alpha(P)$ is point.*
- *(ii)* [**aut:ii**] *If l is a line, then $\alpha(l)$ is a line.*
- *(iii)* [**aut:iii**] *Let P be a point and l a line. Then P is incident to l if and only if $\alpha(P)$ is incident to $\alpha(l)$.*

(b) [**b**] $\mathrm{Aut}(\mathcal{E})$ *is the set of automorphisms of $\mathcal{E}$ together with the binary operation defined by composition.*

Note that an automorphism α of $\mathcal{E}$ is uniquely determined by its effect on the points. Namely, if $l = PQ$ is a line, then $\alpha(l)$ is incident with $\alpha(P)$ and $\alpha(Q)$. So $\alpha(l) = \alpha(P)\alpha(Q)$.

If $\alpha, \beta \in \mathrm{Aut}(\mathcal{E})$, then it is easy to see that also $\alpha \circ \beta$ and α^{-1} are also automorphism of $\mathcal{E}$. Moreover, $\mathrm{id}_{\mathcal{P}\cup\mathcal{L}} \in \mathrm{Aut}(\mathcal{E})$ and composition of function is associative. Hence $(\mathrm{Aut}(\mathcal{E}), \circ)$ is a group.

Lemma 1.3.7. [**auts for p22**] *Let $\mathcal{E}$ be a projective plane of order two and (A, B, C) and $(\tilde{A}, \tilde{B}, \tilde{C})$ be triples of non-collinear points. Then there exists a unique automorphism α of $\mathcal{E}$ with*

$$\alpha(A) = \tilde{A},\ \alpha(B) = \tilde{B} \text{ and } \alpha(C) = \tilde{C}$$

Proof. It is readily verified that the unique automorphism $\alpha : \mathcal{P} \cup \mathcal{L} \to \mathcal{P} \cap \mathcal{L}$ is given by

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} A \to \tilde{A} & & B \to \tilde{B} & & C \to \tilde{C} & A+B \to \tilde{A}+\tilde{B} & B+C \to \tilde{B}+\tilde{C} \\ A+C \to \tilde{A}+\tilde{C} & & D \to \tilde{D} & & & AB \to \tilde{A}\tilde{B} & BC \to \tilde{B}\tilde{C} \\ AC \to \tilde{A}\tilde{C} & AD \to \tilde{A}\tilde{D} & BD \to \tilde{B}\tilde{D} & & CD \to \tilde{C}\tilde{D} & d \to \tilde{d} & \end{array} .$$

Here D is the point not incident with any of lines AB, AC, BC. d is the line not incident with any of the points A, B and C. $\tilde{D}$ and $\tilde{d}$ are defined similarly (replacing each symbol X by $\tilde{X}$.) □

Corollary 1.3.8. [**order l32**] *Let $\mathcal{E}$ be a projective plane of order two. Then* $|\mathrm{Aut}(\mathcal{E})| = 168$.

Proof. Fix a triple (A, B, C) of non-collinear points. 1.3.7 show that there exists a bijection between $|\mathrm{Aut}(\mathcal{E})$ and the set of triples $(\tilde{A}, \tilde{B}, \tilde{C})$ of non-collinear points.

Now $\tilde{A}$ can be any one of the seven points, $\tilde{B}$ is any of the six points different from $\tilde{A}$, and $\tilde{C}$ is any of the four points not incident to $\tilde{A}\tilde{B}$. So there are $7 \cdot 6 \cdot 4 = 168$ triples of non-collinear points. Hence

$$|\mathrm{Aut}(\mathcal{E})| = 7 \cdot 6 \cdot 4 = 168.$$

□

1.3.9 (The group associated to the projective plane of order 2)**.** [**group for pp2**]

Let $\mathcal{E} = (\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}, \mathcal{R})$ be a projective plane of order 2. We will construct a group of order 8 associated to $\mathcal{E}$. Let $G = \{0\} \cup \mathcal{P}$, where 0 is an arbitrary element not in $\mathcal{P}$. Define a binary operation + on G as follows:

- [**a**] $0 + g = g = g + 0$ if $g \in G$.
- [**b**] $P + P = e$ if P is a point
- [**c**] $P + Q$ is the third point on PQ if P and Q are distinct points.

Then G is an abelian group. Indeed, 0 is the identity, each elements is its own inverse and the operation is clearly commutative. Checking that the operation is associative takes a little bit of effort: Let $P, Q, R \in G$.

If one of P, Q, R is equal to 0, then $P + (Q + R)$ and $(P + Q) + R$ both are equal to the sum of the other two.

So suppose that P, Q and R are points. If two of the points are equal, we will show that both $(P + Q) + R$ and $P + (Q + R)$ are equal to third point. So let S and T be points. Then

$$T + (S + S) = (S + S) + T = 0 + T = T$$

Also

$$S + (S + T) = S + (T + S) = (T + S) + S = (S + T) + S$$

If $S = T$, this is equal to S and so to T as required. So suppose $S \neq T$. Note $(S + T)T = ST$ and T is the point on ST distinct from S and $S + T$. Thus again $(S + T) + S = T$.

It remains to consider the case where P, Q and R are three distinct points.

If P, Q, R are collinear, then $P + Q = R$ and so $(P + Q) + R = R + R = 0$. Similarly $P + (Q + R) = P + P = 0$.

Suppose that P, Q, R are non-collinear. Then $(P + Q) + R$ and $P + (Q + R)$ both are equal to the unique point not incident with any of the lines PQ, PR and QR.

1.4 Subgroups, cosets and counting

Definition 1.4.1. [**defsubgroup**] *Let $(G, *)$ and $(H, \cdot)$ be groups. Then $(H, \cdot)$ is called a* subgroup *of $(G, *)$ provided that:*

(i) [**i**] $H \subseteq G$.

(ii) [**ii**] $a * b = a \cdot b$ *for all* $a, b \in H$.

Note that, if $(H, \cdot)$ is a subgroup of $(G, *)$, then also $(H, *)$ is a subgroup of $(G, *)$.

Lemma 1.4.2. [**properties subgroup**] *Let $(G, *)$ be a group and $(H, \cdot)$ a subgroup of $(G, *)$. Then*

(a) [**a**] $1_H = 1_G$ *where 1_H is the identity of H with respect to $\cdot$ and 1_G is the identity of G with respect to $*$. In particular, $1_G \in H$.*

(b) [**b**] $a * b \in H$ *for all* $a, b \in H$.

(c) [**c**] *Let $a \in H$. Then the inverse of a in H with respect to $\cdot$ is the same as the inverse of a in G with respect to $*$. In particular, $a^{-1} \in H$.*

Proof. (a)

$$1_H * 1_H = 1_H \cdot 1_H = 1_H = 1_H * 1_G$$

Multiplying with the inverse of 1_H in G from the left gives that $1_H = 1_G$.

(b) Let $a, b \in H$. Then by definition of a subgroup $a * b = a \cdot b$. Since $*$ is a binary operation of H, $a \cdot b \in G$ and $a * b \in H$.

(c) Let b be the inverse of a in H with respect to $\cdot$ and c the inverse of a in G with respect to $*$. Then

$$a * b = a \cdot b = 1_H = 1_G = a * c$$

Multiplying with the inverse of a in G from the left gives $b = c$. □

Lemma 1.4.3. [**char subgroup**] *Let $(G, *)$ be a group and $H \subseteq G$. Then $(H, *)$ is a subgroup of $(G, *)$ if and only if*

(i) [**a**] $1_G \in H$;

(ii) [**b**] *H is closed under multiplication, that is for all $a, b \in H$, $ab \in H$; and*

(iii) [**c**] *H is closed under inverses, that is for all $a \in H$, $a^{-1} \in H$.*

Proof. Suppose first that (i), (ii) and (iii) hold. We will first verify that $(H, *)$ is a group.

By (ii), $*$ is a binary operation on H. Since $*$ is associative on G, it associative on H. Since $1_G \in H$ and 1_G is an identity for $*$ on G, its also an identity for $*$ on H.

Let $h \in H$. Then by (iii), $h^{-1} \in H$ and so h^{-1} is an inverse for h with respect to $*$ in H.

So $(H, *)$ is a group. Since $H \subseteq G$ and the same operation is used for H and G, conditions (i) and (ii) of a subgroup are fulfilled. So indeed, $(H, *)$ is a subgroup of $(G, *)$.

Suppose now that $(H, *)$ is a subgroup of $(G, *)$. Then 1.4.2 shows that (i), (ii) and (iii) hold. □

Let $(G, *)$ be a group and $(H, \cdot)$ a subgroup of G. Slightly abusing notation we will often just say that H is a subgroup of G. We also write $H \leq G$ if H is a subgroup of G.

Lemma 1.4.4. [**leftcosets**] *Let G be a group and H a subset of G. Define the relation $\sim_H$ on G by*

$$a \sim_H b \quad \text{if and only if } a^{-1}b \in H$$

Then

(a) [**a**] *$e \in H$ if and only $\sim_H$ is reflexive.*

(b) [**b**] *H is closed under inverses if and only if $\sim_H$ is symmetric.*

(c) [**c**] *H is closed under multiplication if and only if $\sim_H$ is transitive.*

In particular, H is a subgroup of G if and only $\sim_H$ is an equivalence relation.

Proof. (a) Suppose that $e \in H$. Let $a \in G$. Then $a^{-1}a = e \in H$. So $a \sim_H a$ and $\sim$ is reflexive.

Suppose $\sim_H$ is reflexive. Then $e \sim_H e$ and so $e = e^{-1}e \in H$.

(b) Suppose H is closed under inverses. Let $a, b \in G$ with $a \sim_H b$. Then $a^{-1}b \in H$ and so also $b^{-1}a = (a^{-1}b)^{-1} \in H$. Thus $b \sim_H a$. Hence $\sim_H$ is symmetric.

Suppose that $\sim_H$ is symmetric. Let $h \in H$. Then $e^{-1}h = h \in H$ and so $e \sim_H h$. Since $\sim H$ is symmetric, $h \sim_H e$ and so $h^{-1} = h^{-1}e \in H$.

(c) Suppose H is closed under multiplication. Let $a, b, c \in G$ with $a \sim_H b$ and $b \sim_H c$. Then $a^{-1}b \in H$ and $b^{-1}c \in H$ and so, since H is closed under multiplication,

$$a^{-1}c = (a^{-1}b)(b^{-1}c) \in H$$

Thus $a \sim_H c$ and $\sim_H$ is transitive.

Suppose $\sim H$ is transitive. Let $a, b \in H$. Then $(a^{-1})^{-1}e = ae = a \in H$ and $e^{-1}b = b \in H$. So $a^{-1} \sim_H e$ and $e \sim_H b$. Since $\sim_H$ is transitive, this gives $a^{-1} \sim_H b$. Thus $ab = (a^{-1})^{-1}b \in H$ and H is closed under multiplication □

Lemma 1.4.5. [**equiv rel**] *Let $\sim$ be a equivalence relation on the set I. For $a \in I$ put $[a] := \{b \in I \mid a \sim b\}$. $[a]$ is called the* equivalence class *of $\sim$ associated to a. Let $I/\sim$ be the set of equivalence classes of I.*

(a) [**a**] *Each $i \in I$ lies in a unique equivalence class of $\sim$, namely $[i]$.*

(b) [**b**] $|I| = \sum_{C \in I/\sim} |C|$.

Proof. (a) Let $a \in I$. Since $\sim$ is reflexive, $a \sim a$. So $a \in [a]$ and a is contained in an equivalence class of I. Now let C be any equivalence class of $\sim$ with $a \in C$. We need to show that $C = [a]$. By definition of an equivalence class, $C = [b]$ for some $b \in I$. Since $a \in C = [b]$ we have $b \sim a$

Let $c \in [a]$. Then $a \sim c$. Since $\sim$ is transitive, $b \sim c$ and so $c \in [b]$. Hence $[a] \subseteq [b]$.

We proved that if $a \in [b]$ then $[a] \subseteq [b]$. Since $b \sim a$ and $\sim$ is symmetric we have $a \sim b$ and $b \in [a]$. Thus $[b] \subseteq [a]$.

Hence $[b] = [a]$ and (a) holds.

(b) follows immediately from (a). □

Definition 1.4.6. [**def:coset**] *Let G be a magma, $g \in G$ and $A, B \subseteq G$.*

(a) [**a**] $gA = \{ga \mid a \mid a \in A \text{ and } Ag = \{ag \mid a \in A\}$.

(b) [**b**] $B/A = \{bA \mid b \in B\}$.

(c) [**c**] *Suppose G is a group and A a subgroup of G. Then*

- *(a)* [**a**] *gA is called the (left)* coset *of A in G containing g.*
- *(b)* [**b**] *Ag is called a right coset of A in G.*
- *(c)* [**c**] *$|G/A|$ is called the* index *of A in G.*

Proposition 1.4.7. [**prep lagrange**] *Let H be a subgroup of G and $g \in G$.*

(a) [**a**] *gH is the equivalence class of $\sim_H$ containing g.*

(b) [**b**] *g lies in a unique coset of H in G, namely in gH.*

(c) [**c**] $|gH| = |H|$.

Proof. (a) We have

$$\begin{aligned} a \in gH &\iff a = gh \text{ for some } h \in H \iff g^{-1}a = h \text{ for some } h \in H \\ &\iff g^{-1}a \in H \iff g \sim_H a \iff a \in [g] \end{aligned}$$

So $gH = [g]$.

(b) This follows from (a) and 1.4.5.

(c) Define $f : H \to gH, h \to gh$. Then by definition of gH, f is onto. If $gh = gh'$ for some h, h', then $h = h'$. Hence f is 1-1. This gives (c). □

Theorem 1.4.8 (Lagrange)**.** [**lagrange**] *Let H be a subgroup of G. Then $|G| = |G/H| \cdot |H|$. In particular if G is finite, the order of H divides the order of G.*

Proof.

$$|G| \overset{1.4.5(b)}{=} \sum_{C \in G/\sim_H} |C| \overset{1.4.7(c)}{=} \sum_{C \in G/H} |C| \overset{1.4.7(c)}{=} \sum_{C \in G/H} |H| = |G/H| \cdot |H|$$

□

1.4.9 (Cycle Notation)**.** [**not:cycle**] We will often use cycle notation to denoted elements of $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$:

For $1 \le j \le l$ and $1 \le i \le k_j$ let $1 \le a_{i,j} \le n$ such that for each $1 \le m \le n$ there exists a unique $1 \le j \le l$ and $1 \le i \le k_l$ with $m = a_{i,j}$. Then

$$(a_{1,1}, a_{2,1}, a_{3,1}, \dots a_{k_1,1})(a_{1,2}, a_{2,2} \dots a_{k_2,2}) \dots (a_{1,l}, a_{2,l} \dots a_{k_l,l})$$

denotes the element $\pi \in \mathrm{Sym}(n)$ with

$$\pi(a_{i,j}) = a_{i+1,j} \text{ and } \pi(a_{k_j,j}) = a_{1,j}$$

for all $1 \le i < k_j$ and $1 \le j \le l$.

$(a_{1,j}, a_{2,j}, \dots, a_{k_j,j})$ is called a cycle of length k_j of π. If n is understood, we will not bother to list the cycles of length 1. Also we will often drop the separating comas in the cycle. For example in $\mathrm{Sym}(9)$,

$$(2975)(13)(48)$$

denotes the permutation with

$$1 \to 3, 2 \to 9, 3 \to 1, 4 \to 8, 5 \to 2, 6 \to 6, 7 \to 5, 8 \to 4, 9 \to 7$$

Example 1.4.10. [**ex:lagrange**] Let $G = \mathrm{Sym}(3)$ and $H = \{(1), (12)\}$. Then

$$(1) \circ H = H = \{(1), (12)\} = (12) \circ H$$
$$(123) \circ H = \{(123) \circ (1), (123) \circ (12)\} = \{(123), (13)\} = (13) \circ H$$
$$(132) \circ H = \{((132) \circ (1), (132) \circ (12)\} = \{(132), (23)\} = (23) \circ H$$

Hence

$$|G| = 6, |G/H| = 3 \text{ and } |H| = 2$$

So by Lagrange's

$$6 = 3 \cdot 2$$

Definition 1.4.11. [**def:power set**]

(a) [**a**] *Let I be set, then $\mathcal{P}(I)$ denotes the* power set *of G, that is the set of subsets of I.*

(b) [**b**] *Let G be a magma. For $H, K \subseteq G$ put*

$$HK = \{hk \mid h \in H, k \in K\}.$$

(c) [**c**] *Let G be a group. For $H \subseteq G$ define $H^{-1} = \{h^{-1} \mid h \in H\}$.*

Lemma 1.4.12. [**power monoid**] *Let G be a magma.*

(a) [**a**] *$\mathcal{P}(G)$ is magma under the operation $(A, B) \to AB$.*

(b) [**b**] *If G is associative, so is $\mathcal{P}(G)$.*

(c) [**c**] *If e is an identity for G, then $\{e\}$ is an identity for $\mathcal{P}(G)$.*

(d) [**d**] *If G is a monoid, so is $\mathcal{P}(G)$.*

(e) [**e**] *If G is a group and $A, B \subseteq G$, then $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$.*

Proof. Let $A, B, C \subseteq G$.

(a) By definition, AB is a subset if G and so the $\mathcal{P}(G)$ is closed under the operation $(A, B) \to (A, B)$.

(b) We have

$$(AB)C = \{(ab)c \mid a \in A, b \in B, c \in C\} = \{a(bc) \mid a \in A, b \in B, c \in C\} = A(BC)$$

(c) Obvious.

(d) follows from (a), (b), (c)

(e) $(AB)^{-1} = \{(ab)^{-1} \mid a \in A, b \in B\} = \{b^{-1}a^{-1} \mid b \in B, a \in A\} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$. □

Lemma 1.4.13. [**order**] *Let G be a group, H a subset of G and K a subgroup of G.*

(a) [**e**] $(gk)K = gK$ *for all* $g \in G, k \in K$.

(b) [**f**] $KK = K$ *and* $K^{-1} = K$.

(c) [**d**] $H/K = HK/K$

(d) [**a**] *The map* $\alpha : H/H \cap K \to H/K, h(H \cap K) \to hK$ *is a well defined bijection. Moreover,* $\alpha(C) = CK$ *for all* $C \in H/H \cap K$.

(e) [**b**] $|HK| = |HK/K| \cdot |K| = |H/H \cap K| \cdot |K|$.

(f) [**c**] *If G is finite and H is a subgroup of K, then* $|HK| = \frac{|H||K|}{|H \cap K|}$

Proof. (a) Since K is closed under multiplication $kK \subseteq K$. Let $l \in K$. Then $l = k(k^{-1}l) \in kK$ and so $K \subseteq kK$. Thus $K = kK$ and so also $(gk)K = g(kK) = gK$.

(b) By (a), $kK = K$ for all $k \in K$ and so $KK = K$. Since K is closed under inverse $K^{-1} \subseteq K$. Since $k = (k^{-1})^{-1}$ and $k^{-1} \in K$, $K \subseteq K^{-1}$. Hence $K = K^{-1}$.

(c) Since $e \in K$, $H \subset HK$ and so $H/K \subseteq HK/K$. Let $h \in H$ and $k \in K$. Then by (d) $(hk)K = hK \in H/K$ and so $HK/K \subseteq H/K$.

(d) Let $C \in H/H \cap K$. Then $C = h(H \cap K)$ for some $h \in H$. We compute

$$CK = \big(h(H \cap K)\big)K = h\big((H \cap K)K\big) = hK$$

so $\alpha(C) = CK$ and the definition of α is independent of the choice of h. Clearly α is onto.

Finally if $hK = jK$ for some $h, j \in H$, then $h^{-1}jK = K$, $h^{-1}j \in K$ and so $h^{-1}j \in H \cap K$ and $h(H \cap K) = j(H \cap K)$. Thus α is 1-1.

(e) Note that $HK = \bigcup_{h \in H} hK$. Hence

$$|HK| = \sum_{C \in H/K} |C| = |H/K| \cdot |K| \overset{(d)}{=} |H/H \cap K| \cdot |K|.$$

(f) By Lagrange's $|H| = |H/H \cap K| \cdot |H \cap K|$. So if G is finite, $|H/H \cap K| = \frac{|H|}{|H \cap K|}$ and thus (f) follows from (e). □

1.5 Equivalence Relations

Definition 1.5.1. [**def:simf**] *Let $\sim$ be a relation on the set J and let $f : I \to J$ be a function. Then $\sim_f$ is the relation on I defined by*

$$i \sim_f k \iff fi \sim fk$$

for all $i, k \in I$.

Lemma 1.5.2. [**basic simf**] *Let $\sim$ be a relation on the set J and let $f : I \to J$ be a function.*

(a) [**a**] *If $\sim$ is reflexive, so is $\sim_f$.*

(b) [**b**] *If $\sim$ is symmetric, so is $\sim_f$.*

(c) [**c**] *If $\sim$ is transitive, so is $\sim_f$.*

(d) [**d**] *If $\sim$ is equivalence relation so is $\sim_f$.*

Proof. (c) Suppose $\sim$ is transitive and le $a, b, c \in I$ with $a \sim_f b$ and $b \sim_f c$. Then $fa \sim fb$ and $fb \sim fa$. Since $\sim$ is transitive, $fa \sim fc$ and so $a \sim_f c$. Thus $\sim_f$ is transitive.

The proofs for (a) and (b) are similar and somewhat easier. (d) follows from (a)-(c). □

Lemma 1.5.3. [**finest equiv**] *Let I be a set and $\sim$ a relation on I. Define*

$$\approx = \bigcap \{ \lessapprox \mid \lessapprox \text{ an equivalence relation on } I \text{ with } \sim \subseteq \lessapprox \}$$

Then

(a) [**a**] *$\approx$ is an equivalence relation on I, called the* equivalence relation *generated by $\sim$.*

(b) [**b**] *Let $a, b \in I$. Then $a \approx b$ if and only if there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and a sequence of elements $(x_0, x_1, \ldots x_n)$ in I such that $x_0 = a$, $x_n = b$ and for each $1 \leq i \leq n$ either $x_{i-1} \sim x_i$ or $x_i \sim x_{i-1}$.*

Proof. Straightforward. □

Definition 1.5.4. [**tilde invariant function**] *Let $f : I \to J$ be a function, $\sim$ a relation on I and $\lessapprox$ a relation J.*

(a) [**a**] *f is called $(\sim, \lessapprox)$-equivariant if for all $a, b \in I$:*

$$a \sim b \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad f(a) \lessapprox f(b)$$

(b) [**b**] *f is called $\sim$-invariant if f is $(\sim, =)$-equivariant, that is for all $a, b \in I$:*

$$a \sim b \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad f(a) \lessapprox f(b)$$

Lemma 1.5.5. [**simf and finest**] *Let $\sim$ a relation on the set I and $\approx$ the equivalence relation generated by $\sim$. Let $\lessapprox$ a relation on set J and $f : I \to J$ a function.*

(a) [**a**] *If f is $(\sim, \lessapprox)$-equivariant, it is also $(\approx, \lessapprox)$-equivariant.*

(b) [**b**] *If f is $\sim$-invariant, it is also $\approx$-invariant.*

Proof. (a) Let $a, b \in I$ with $a \sim b$. Then $fa \lessapprox fb$ and so $a \lessapprox_f b$. Thus $\sim \subseteq \lessapprox_f$. By 1.5.2 $\lessapprox_f$ is an equivalence relation on I and so by definition of $\approx$, $\approx \subseteq \lessapprox_f$. Thus $a \approx b$ implies $a \lessapprox_f b$, that is $fa \lessapprox fb$.

(b) Just apply (a) with $\lessapprox$ the equality relation. □

Lemma 1.5.6. [**simf equivariant**] *Let $f : I \to J$ be a function, $\sim$ a relation on f and $\lessapprox$ a relation on J.*

(a) [**a**] *f is $(\sim, \approxeq)$- equivariant if and only $\sim \subseteq \approxeq_f$.*

(b) [**b**] *f is $(\approxeq_f, \approxeq)$-equivariant.*

(c) [**c**] *f is $\sim$-invariant if and only if $\sim \subseteq =_f$.*

(d) [**d**] *f is $=_f$-invariant.*

Proof. (a) f is $(\sim, \approxeq)$- equivariant if and only if

$$a \sim b \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad f(a) \approxeq f(b)$$

and so if and only if

$$a \sim b \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad a \approxeq_f b$$

(b) follows from (a).
(c) and (d): Just apply (a) and (b) with $\approxeq$ the equality relation. □

Lemma 1.5.7. [**simf classes**] *Let $f : I \to J$ be a $(\sim, \approxeq)$-equivariant function. Then*

(a) [**a**] *$f\big([a]_\sim\big) \subseteq [fa]_\approxeq$ for all $a \in I$.*

(b) [**b**] *Suppose $I \subseteq \mathrm{Dom}(\sim)$ and $\approxeq$ is an equivalence relation on J. Then*

$$\overline{f} : I/\sim \to \ J/\approxeq, \ [a]_\sim \to [fa]_\approxeq$$

is a well-defined.

Proof. (a) Let $x \in f\left([a]_\sim\right)$. Then $x = fb$ for some $b \in I$ with $b \sim a$. Thus $fb \approxeq fa$ and $x = fb \in [fa]_\sim$. (b) Let $a, b \in I$ with $[a]_\sim = [b]_\sim$. Since $I \subseteq \mathrm{Dom}(\sim)$, there exists $c \in I$ with $a \sim c$. Then also $b \sim c$. Hence $fa \approxeq fc$ and $fb \approxeq fc$. Since $\approxeq$ is an equivalence relation, this gives $fa \approxeq fb$ and $[fa]_\approxeq = [fb]_\approxeq$. □

Lemma 1.5.8 (Isomorphism Theorem for Sets)**.** [**iso sets**] *Let $f : I \to J$ be a function. Then the function*

$$\overline{f} : I/=_f \to \ \mathrm{Im}\, f, \ [a]_{=_f} \to fa$$

is a well-defined bijection.

Proof. Let $a, b \in I$. Then

$$f(a) = f(b) \Longleftrightarrow a =_f b \Longleftrightarrow [a]_{=_f} = [b]_{=_f}$$

and so $\overline{f}$ is well-defined and 1-1. $\overline{f}$ is clearly onto and so the lemme holds. □

1.6 Normal subgroups and the isomorphism theorem

Example 1.6.1. [**ex:left right**] Let $G = \mathrm{Sym}(3)$ and $H = \{(1), (12)\}$. Then

$$(23) \circ H = \{(23), (132)\} \text{ and } H \circ (23) = \{(23), (123)\}$$

So $(23) \circ H \neq H \circ (23)$.

Note that $gH = Hg$ if and only if $gHg^{-1} = H$. We therefore introduce the following notation:

Definition 1.6.2. [**def:conjugation**] *Let G be a group, $a, b \in G$ and $D \subseteq G$.*

(a) [**a**] ${}^a b = aba^{-1}$. ${}^a b$ *is called the conjugate of b under a.*

(b) [**b**] ${}^a D = aDa^{-1} = \{ada^{-1} \mid d \in D\} = \{{}^a d \mid d \in D\}$.

(c) [**c**] *The function* $\mathrm{i}_a : G \to G, g \to {}^a g$ *is called the* inner automorphism *of G induced by a.* i_a *is also called* conjugation *by a*

Lemma 1.6.3. [**basicnormal**] *Let $N \leq G$. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

(a) [**a**] ${}^g N = N$ *for all $g \in G$.*

(b) [**b**] $gN = Ng$ *for all $g \in G$.*

(c) [**c**] *Every left coset is a right coset.*

(d) [**d**] *Every left coset is contained in a right coset.*

(e) [**e**] ${}^g N \subseteq N$ *for all $g \in G$.*

(f) [**z**] ${}^g n \in N$ *for all $g \in G$, $n \in N$.*

Proof. Suppose (a) holds. Then $gNg^{-1} = N$ for all $g \in G$. Multiplying with g from the right we get $gN = Ng$.

Suppose (b) holds. Then the left cosets gN equals the right coset Ng. so (c) holds.

Clearly (c) implies (d)

Suppose that (d) holds. Let $g \in G$. Then $gN \subseteq Nh$ for some $h \in G$. Since $g \in gN$ we conclude $g \in Nh$. By 1.4.7(b), Ng is the unique right coset of N containing g and so and $Ng = Nh$ Thus $gN \subseteq Ng$. Multiplying with g^{-1} from the right we get $gNg^{-1} \subseteq N$. Thus (e) holds.

Clearly (e) implies (f).

Finally suppose that (f) holds. Then $gNg^{-1} \subseteq N$ for all $g \in G$. This statement applied to g^{-1} in place of g gives $g^{-1}Ng \subseteq N$. Multiplying with g from the left and g^{-1} from the right we obtain $N \subseteq gNg^{-1}$. Hence $N \subseteq {}^g N$ and ${}^g N \subseteq N$. So $N = {}^g N$ and (a) holds. □

Definition 1.6.4. [**def:normal**] *Let G be a group and $N \leq G$. We say that N is* normal *in G and write $N \trianglelefteq G$ if N fulfills one (and so all) of the equivalent conditions in 1.6.3.*

Example 1.6.5. [**ex:normal**]

1. [**1**] From 1.6.1 we have $(2,3)\mathrm{Sym}(2) \neq \mathrm{Sym}(2)(2,3)$ and so $\mathrm{Sym}(2)$ is not a normal subgroup of $\mathrm{Sym}(3)$.

2. [**2**] Let $H = \{(1),(123),(132)\}$. Then H is a subgroup of $\mathrm{Sym}(3)$. By Lagrange's

$$|\mathrm{Sym}(3)/H| = \frac{|\mathrm{Sym}(3)|}{|H|} = \frac{6}{3} = 2$$

   Hence H has exactly two cosets in H. One of them is

$$H = \{(1),(123),(132)\}$$

   Since each element of $\mathrm{Sym}(3)$ lies in a unique coset of H, the other coset must be

$$\mathrm{Sym}(3) \setminus H = \{(12),(13),(23)\}$$

   The same argument shows that H and $\mathrm{Sym}(3) \setminus H$ are the only right cosets of $\mathrm{Sym}(3)$. Thus every coset is a right coset and so H is normal in $\mathrm{Sym}(3)$.

Lemma 1.6.6. [**hom and one**] *Let G and H be monoid and $\phi : G \to H$ a magma-homomorphism. Then the following are equivalent.*

(a) [**a**] *$\phi(1) = 1$, that is ϕ is a monoid-homomorphism.*

(b) [**b**] *$\phi(1)$ is (left,right,) invertible*

(c) [**c**] *There exists g in G such that $\phi(g)$ is (left,right,) invertible.*

Proof. (a) $\Longrightarrow$ (b): Suppose that $\phi(1) = 1$. Then $\phi(1)\phi(1) = \phi(1 \cdot 1) = \phi(1) = 1$ and $\phi(1)$ is invertible.

(b) $\Longrightarrow$ (c): Obvious.

(c) $\Longrightarrow$ (a): Suppose $g \in G$ such that $\phi(g)$ is left-invertible in H and choose $h \in H$ with $h\phi(g) = 1$. Then

$$\phi(1) = 1\phi(1) = (h\phi(g))\phi(1) = h(\phi(g)\phi(1)) = h\phi(g) = 1$$

□

Lemma 1.6.7. [**hom and monoid**] *Let $\phi : G \to H$ be a monoid homomorphism. Suppose $g \in G$ and g' is (left,right,) inverse of g in G. Then $\phi(g')$ is a (left,right,) inverse of $\phi(g)$ in G.*

Proof. By symmetry it suffices to tread the case where g' is left inverse of g. Then

$$\phi(g')\phi(g) = \phi(g'g) = \phi(1) = 1$$

□

We will now start to establish a connection between normal subgroups and homomorphism.

Lemma 1.6.8. [**basichom**] *Let $\phi : G \to H$ be a group homomorphism.*

(a) [**a**] *$\phi(1_G) = 1_H$, that is ϕ is a monoid-homomorphism.*

(b) [**b**] *$\phi(a^{-1}) = \phi(a)^{-1}$.*

(c) [**c**] *$\phi({}^g a) = {}^{\phi(g)}\phi(a)$.*

(d) [**d**] *If $A \leq G$ then $\phi(A) \leq H$.*

(e) [**e**] *If $B \leq H$ then $\phi^{-1}(B) \leq G$.*

(f) [**f**] *Put $\ker\phi := \{g \in G \mid \phi(g) = 1_H\}$. Then $\ker\phi$ is a normal subgroup of G.*

(g) [**h**] *If $N \trianglelefteq G$, and ϕ is onto, $\phi(N) \trianglelefteq H$.*

(h) [**i**] *If $M \trianglelefteq H$, $\phi^{-1}(M) \trianglelefteq G$.*

Proof. See Homework 2 □

Lemma 1.6.9. [**char 1-1**] *Let $\phi : G \to H$ be a homomorphism of groups.*

(a) [**a**] *Let $a, b \in G$. Then $\phi(a) = \phi(b)$ if and only if $a\ker\phi = b\ker\phi$.*

(b) [**b**] *The relations $=_\phi$ on G is the same as the relation $\sim_{\ker\phi}$.*

(c) [**c**] *ϕ is 1-1 if and only if $\ker\phi = \{1_G\}$.*

Proof. Let $a, b \in G$. Then

$$\begin{array}{lccc} & a & =_\phi & b \\ \iff & \phi(a) & = & \phi(b) \\ \iff & \phi(a)^{-1}\phi(b) & = & 1_H \\ \iff & \phi(a^{-1}b) & = & 1_H \\ \iff & a^{-1}b & \in & \ker\phi \\ \iff & a & \sim_{\ker\phi} & b \\ \iff & g\ker\phi & = & k\ker\phi \end{array}$$

Thus (a) and (b) hold.

(c) By (a) ϕ is 1-1 if and only if $\{a\} = a\{\ker\phi\}$ for all $a \in A$ and so if and only f ker *phi* = $\{1_G\}$. □

Lemma 1.6.10. [**basicG/N**] *Let G be a group and $N \trianglelefteq G$. Let $T, S \in G/N$ and $a, b \in G$ with $T = aN$ and $S = bN$.*

(a) [**a**] $TS \in G/N$, *namely* $(aN)(bN) = (ab)N$.

(b) [**b**] $T^{-1} \in G/N$, *namely* $(aN)^{-1} = a^{-1}N$.

(c) [**e**] $TN = T = NT$.

(d) [**f**] $TT^{-1} = N = T^{-1}T$.

(e) [**c**] G/N *is a group under the binary operation* $G/N \times G/N \to G/N, (T, S) \to TS$.

(f) [**d**] *The map* $\pi_N : G \to G/N, \quad g \to gN$ *is an onto homomorphism with kernel* N.

Proof. (a) $(aN)(bN) = a(Nb)N = a(bN)N = abNN = abN$.

(b) $(aN)^{-1} = N^{-1}a^{-1} = Na^{-1} = a^{-1}N$.

(c) We have $N = eN$ and so by (a) $TN = (aN)(eN) = (ae)N = aN = T$. Similarly $NT = T$.

(d) By (a) and (b) $TT^{-1} = (aN)(a^{-1})N = (aa^{-1})N = eN = N$. Similarly $T^{-1}T = N$.

(f) By (a) the map $G/N \times G/N \to G/N, (T, S) \to TS$ is a well-defined binary operation on G/N. By 1.4.12 multiplication of subsets is associative. By (c) N is an identity element and by (f), T^{-1} is an inverse of T. Thus (e) holds.

(f) We have

$$\pi_N(ab) = abN = (aN)(bN) = \pi_N(a)\pi_N(b)$$

So π_N is a homomorphism. Clearly π_N is onto. We have

$$\ker \pi_N = \{a \in G \mid \pi_N(a) = 1_{G/N}\} = \{a \in G \mid aN = N\} = \{a \in G \mid a \in N\} = N$$

□

Theorem 1.6.11 (The Isomorphism Theorem)**.** [**IT**] *Let* $\phi : G \to H$ *be a homomorphism of groups. The map*

$$\overline{\phi} : G/\ker\phi \to \phi(H), \quad g\ker\phi \to \phi(g)$$

is a well-defined isomorphism. Moreover, $\phi = \overline{\phi} \circ \pi_{\ker\phi}$.

Proof. Since $a\ker\phi = b\ker\phi$ if and only of $a =_\phi b$, 1.5.8 shows that $\overline{\phi}$ is a well-defined bijection.

We have

$$\overline{\phi}\big(((g\ker\phi)(k\ker\phi)\big) = \overline{\phi}\big(gk\ker\phi\big) = \phi(gk) = \phi(g)\phi(k) = \overline{\phi}\big(g\ker\phi\big)\overline{\phi}\big(k\ker\phi\big)$$

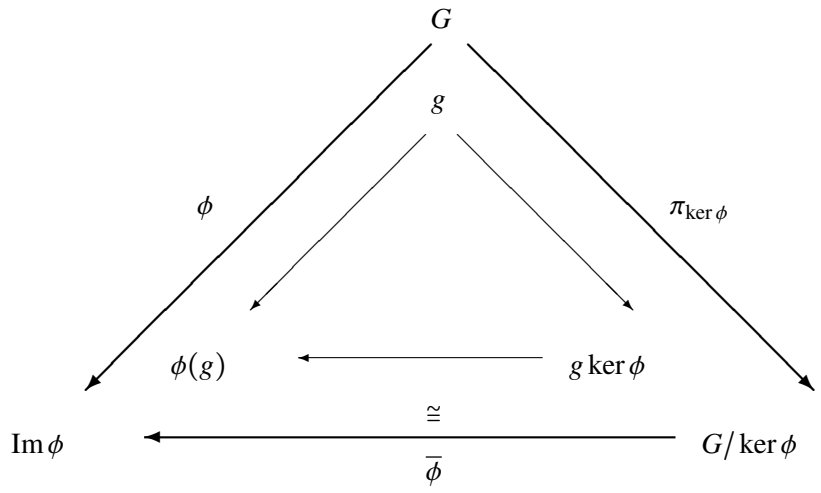
and so $\overline{\phi}$ is a homomorphism.

Also

$$(\phi \circ \pi_{\ker\phi})(g) = \overline{\phi}\big(\pi_{\ker\phi}(g)\big) = \overline{\phi}\big(g\ker\phi\big) = \phi(a)$$

and so $\phi = \overline{\phi} \circ \pi_{\ker\phi}$ □

The Isomomorphism Theorem can be summarized in the following diagram:



1.7 Group Actions

Definition 1.7.1. [**def:magma action**] *Let $(G,\cdot)$ be a magma and S a set. Let $*$ be a function such that $G \times S$ is contained in the domain of $*$. For $g \in G$ and $s \in S$, write $g * s$ for $*(g,s)$. $*$ is called an magma* action *of G on S if*

(A0) [**a0**] *$g * s \in S$ for all $g \in G, s \in S$.*

(A1) [**a1**] *$(a \cdot b) * s = a * (b * s)$ for all $a, b \in G$, $s \in S$.*

*A G-*set *is a set S together with a magma-action of G on S.*

Definition 1.7.2. [**def:magma action**] *Let $(G,\cdot)$ be a monoid and S a set. A magma action $*$ of $(G,\cdot)$ on S is called a monoid-action if*

(A2) [**a2**] *$1_G * s = s$ for all $s \in S$.*

In the case that $(G,\cdot)$ is group, a monoid-action of $(G, cdot)$ is also called a group-action.

We will often just write as for $a * s$. The three axioms of a monoid action then read $as \in S$, $1s = s$ and $(ab)s = a(bs)$.

Example 1.7.3. [**ex:action**] Let $(G,\cdot)$ be a group,

1. [**1**] Note the similarity between the definition of a group action and the definition of a group. In particular, we see that the operation $\cdot$ of group G defines an action of G on G, called the action by *left multiplication.* Indeed, since $\cdot$ is a closed operation (A0)- holds. Since 1_G is an identity, (A2) holds and since $\cdot$ is associative (A1) holds.

2. [**2**] The function
$$\cdot_{\mathrm{op}} : G \times G \to G, (a, s) \to s \cdot a$$
is not an action (unless G is abelian). Indeed
$$(a \cdot b) \cdot_{\mathrm{op}} s = s \cdot (a \cdot b) = (s \cdot a) \cdot b = b \cdot_{\mathrm{op}} (a \cdot_{\mathrm{op}} s)$$
But observe that $\cdot_{\mathrm{op}}$ is an action of G^{op} on G.
To obtain an action of G on G define
$$\cdot_{\mathrm{r}} : \quad G \times G, (a, s) \to sa^{-1}.$$
Then $(ab) \cdot_{\mathrm{r}} s = s(ab)^{-1} = sb^{-1}a^{-1} = a \cdot_{\mathrm{r}} (b \cdot_{\mathrm{r}} s)$ and $\cdot_{\mathrm{r}}$ is indeed an action. This action is called the action of G on G by *right multiplication*.

3. [**5**] G acts on G via conjugation:
$$\mathrm{c} : G \times G \to G, (a, g) \to {}^a g$$
Indeed ${}^1 g = g$ and ${}^{(ab)} g = {}^a({}^b g)$.

4. [**4**] Let $*$ be an action of G on the set I and let $H \leq G$. Then $*$ is also an action of H on I. In particular, we obtain actions of H on G by left multiplication, right multiplication and by conjugation.

5. [**6**] Let I be a set. Then $\mathrm{Sym}(I)$ acts on I via
$$\mathrm{Sym}(I) \times I \to I, (\pi, i) \to \pi(i)$$
Indeed, $\mathrm{id}_I(i) = i$ for all i in I and $\alpha(\beta(i)) = (\alpha\beta)(i)$ for all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathrm{Sym}(I), i \in I$.

Notation 1.7.4. [**equality of actions**] *Let $*$ and $\diamond$ be actions of the magma G on the set S. We will write $* \equiv \diamond$ if $g * s = g \diamond s$ for all g and $s \in S$.*

Note that $* \equiv \diamond$ if and only if the restrictions of $*$ and $\diamond$ to $G \times S, S$ are equal. Often we will be sloppy and consider two action with $* \equiv \diamond$ to be equal.

We will now show that an action of magma G on S can also by thought of as an homomorphism from G to $Fun(S, S)$.

Definition 1.7.5. [**def:operation to function**] *Let A, B be sets.*

(a) [**a**] $\mathrm{Fun}(A)$ *is the class of function with domain A.* $\mathrm{Fun}(A, B)$ *is the set of function from A to B.*

(b) [**b**] *Let $f \in \mathrm{Fun}(A \times B)$. For $a \in A$ define $f_a \in \mathrm{Fun}(B)$ by*

$$f_a(b) = f(a,b)$$

for all $b \in B$. Define $f_A : A \to \mathrm{Fun}(B), a \to f_a$. f_A is called the function on A associated to f.

Then we view f as binary operation and use the notion $a * b$ for $f(a,b)$, we will use the notation a^* for f_a, so $a^*(b) = a * b$.

(c) [**c**] *Let $g : A \to \mathrm{Fun}(B)$ a function. Define $g_{A\times B} \in \mathrm{Fun}(A \times B)$ by*

$$g_{A\times B}(a,b) \to g(a)(b)$$

for all $(a,b) \in A \times B$. $g_{A\times B}$ is called the function on $A \times B$ associated to g.

Lemma 1.7.6. [**operation to function**] *Let A, B be sets.*

(a) [**a**] *Let $f \in \mathrm{Fun}(A \times B)$, Then $(f_A)_{A\times B} = f$.*

(b) [**b**] *Let $g : A \to \mathrm{Fun}(B)$ be a function. Then $(g_{A\times B})_A = f$.*

Proof. Let $a \in A$ and $b \in B$.
(a)

$$(f_A)_{A\times B}(a,b) = f_A(a)(b) = f_a(b) = f(a,b)$$

and so $(f_A)_{A\times B} = f$.
(b)

$$(g_{A\times B})_A(a)(b) = (g_{A\times B})_a(b) = g_{A\times B}(a,b) = g(a)(b)$$

and so $(g_{A\times B})_A = g$. □

Lemma 1.7.7. [**action=hom**] *Let G be a magma, S a set, $* \in Fun(G \times S)$ and $*_G : G \to \mathrm{Fun}(S)$ the function on G associated to $*$.*

(a) [**a**] *$*$ is an magma-action of G on S if and only if Φ is a magma-homomorphism from G to $\mathrm{Fun}(S,S)$.*

(b) [**b**] *Suppose G is monoid. Then $*$ is a monoid-action if and only if Φ is a monoid-homomorphism from G to $\mathrm{Fun}(S,S)$.*

(c) [**c**] *Suppose G is a group. Then $*$ is a group-action if and only if Φ is a homomorphism from G to $\mathrm{Sym}(S)$.*

Proof. Let $g, h \in G$ and $s \in S$.
(a) Since $g^*(s) = g * s$, (A0) holds if and only if g^* is a function from S to S for all $g \in G$ and if and only if $*_G$ is a function from G to $\mathrm{Fun}(S,S)$.
So we may assume that:

1°. [**0**] *(A0) holds and $*_G$ is a function from G to $\mathrm{Fun}(S,S)$.*

Since

$$(g^* \circ h^*)(s) = g * (h * s) \text{and } (gh)^*(s) = (gh) * s$$

we see that (A1) holds if and only if $*_G$ is a homomorphism from G to $\mathrm{Fun}(S,S)$. Thus (a) holds.

(b) Suppose G is a monoid. Since $1^*(s) = 1 * s$, (A2) holds if and only if $*_G(1) = \mathrm{id}_S$. Together with (a) this gives (b).

(c) Suppose that now that G is a group. Recall that a group-action for G is the same as monoid action for G.

Assume first that $*$ is an monoid-action of G on S. Then by (b) $*_G$ is a monoid- homomorphism from G to $\mathrm{Fun}(S,S)$. Since each element in G is invertible, 1.6.7 shows that $*_G(g)$ is invertible for all $g \in G$. Thus $*_G(g) \in \mathrm{Sym}(S)$ and $*_G$ is homomorphism from G to $\mathrm{Sym}(S)$.

Assume next that $*_G$ is a homomorphism from $G \to \mathrm{Sym}(G)$. Then by 1.6.8(a) $*_G$ is a monoid-homomorphism and so (b) $*$ is an monoid-action of G on S.

□

Example 1.7.8. [**ex:action ii**]

1. [**1**] Let $(G,\cdot)$ be a group. For $a \in G$, define $g^{\cdot} : G \to G, g \to ag$. Then by 1.7.3(1) and 1.7.7 the map
$$\Phi : \ G \to \mathrm{Sym}(G), \ g \to g^{\cdot}$$
is a homomorphism. If $\Phi(a) = \mathrm{id}_G$, then $a = a1 = \Phi(a)(1) = \mathrm{id}_G(1) = 1$ and so Φ is 1-1. Thus $G \cong \Phi(G)$. In particular, G is isomorphic to a subgroup of a symmetric group. This is known as *Cayley's Theorem*.

2. [**2**] Let G be group. Recall that for $g \in G$, i_g is the map
$$\mathrm{i}_g : G \to G, a \to {}^g a$$
By 1.7.3(1) G acts G by conjugation, the corresponding homomorphism is
$$\mathrm{i}_G : G \to \mathrm{Sym}(G), g \to \mathrm{i}_g$$

3. [**3**] The homomorphism corresponding to the action of $\mathrm{Sym}(I)$ on I is $\mathrm{id}_{\mathrm{Sym}(I)}$. Indeed $*_\pi(i) = \pi * i = \pi(i)$ and so $*_\pi = \pi$ for all $\pi \in \mathrm{Sym}(I)$.

Definition 1.7.9. [**def:stabilizer**] *Let $*$ by an action of the group G on the set S, $H \subseteq G, g \in G$, $s \in S$ and $T \subseteq S$. Then*

(a) [**a**] $\mathrm{Stab}^*_H(T) = \{h \in H \mid g * t = t \text{ for all } t \in T\}$ *and* $\mathrm{Stab}^*_H(s) = \{h \in H \mid h * s = s\}$. $\mathrm{Stab}^*_H(T)$ *is called the* stabilizer *of T in H.*

(b) [**b**] $\mathrm{Fix}^*_T(H) = \{t \in T \mid h * t = t \text{ for all } t \in T\}$ *and* $\mathrm{Fix}_T(g)) = \{t \in T \mid g * t = t\}$. *The elements of* $\mathrm{Fix}_T(H)$ *are called the fixed-points of H in T.*

(c) [**c**] $g * T = \{g * t \mid t \in T\}$, $H * s = \{h * s \mid h \in H\}$, $H * T = \{h * t \mid h \in H, t \in T$

(d) [**d**] $*$ *is called a* faithful action *of* G *on* S *if* $\mathrm{Stab}^*_G(S) = \{e\}$. *In this case we also say that* S *is a faithful* G*-set.*

(e) [**e**] T *is called* H-invariant *with respect to* $*$ *if* $h * T = T$ *for all* $h \in H$. T *is called* g*-invariant if* $g * T = T$.

(f) [**f**] $\mathrm{N}^*_H(T) = \{h \in H \mid hT = T\}$. $\mathrm{N}^*_H(T)$ *is called the* normalizer *of* T *in* H *with respect to* $*$.

(g) [**g**] $H^{*S} = \{h^* \mid h \in H\}$. *Note that* $G^{*S} = \mathrm{Im}\, *_G$.

We will often just write $\mathrm{Stab}_H(S)$ in place of $\mathrm{Stab}^*_H(S)$, but of course only if its clear from the context what the underlying action $*$ is. We will also sometimes use H^S or H^* for H^{*S}.

Lemma 1.7.10. [**basic action**] *Let* $*$ *be an action of the group on the set* S.

(a) [**a**] $\mathrm{Stab}_G(S) = \ker *_G \trianglelefteq G$.

(b) [**b**] $G/\mathrm{Stab}_G(S) \cong G^{*S} \leq \mathrm{Sym}(S)$.

(c) [**c**] S *is a faithful* G*-set if and only if* Φ_* *is 1-1. So if* S *is faithful,* G *is isomorphic to the subgroup* G^{*S} *of* $\mathrm{Sym}(S)$.

(d) [**d**] *Let* $H \leq G$ *and* T *an* H*-invariant subset of* S, $*$ *is also an action of* H *on* T.

(e) [**e**] *The map*

$$*_{\mathcal{P}} : G \times \mathcal{P}(S) \to \mathcal{P}(S), (g, T) \to g * T$$

is an action of H *on* $\mathcal{P}(S)$.

(f) [**f**] *If* $g \in G$ *and* $T \subseteq S$, *then* $\mathrm{Stab}_G(g * T) = {}^g\mathrm{Stab}_G(T)$.

(g) [**g**] *If* $g \in G$ *and* $s \in S$, *then* $\mathrm{Stab}_G(g * s) = {}^g\mathrm{Stab}_G(s)$.

(h) [**h**] *If* $T \subseteq S$, *then* $\mathrm{Stab}_G(T)^{*S} = \mathrm{Stab}_{G^{*S}}(T)$.

(i) [**i**] *If* $s \in S$, *then* $\mathrm{Stab}_G(T)^{*S} = \mathrm{Stab}_{G^{*S}}(T)$.

Proof. (a) Let $g \in G$, then

$$\begin{aligned}
& g \in \mathrm{Stab}_G(S) \\
\iff \quad & gs = s \text{ for all } g \in G \\
\iff \quad & g^*(s) = s \text{ for all } g \in G \\
\iff \quad & g^* = \mathrm{id}_S \\
\iff \quad & \Phi^*(g) = \mathrm{id}_S \\
\iff \quad & g \in \ker \Phi^*
\end{aligned}$$

(b) Since $G^* = \operatorname{Im}\Phi^*$, this follows from (a) and the First Isomorphism Theorem.
(c) - (e) are readily verified.
To prove (f) let $h \in G$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} & h \in \operatorname{Stab}_G(g * T) \\ \iff \quad & h * (g * t) = g * t \text{ for all } t \in T \\ \iff \quad & g^{-1} * (h * (g * t)) = g^{-1} * (g * t) \text{ for all } t \in T \\ \iff \quad & (g^{-1}hg) * t = t \text{ for all } t \in T \\ \iff \quad & g^{-1}hg \in \operatorname{Stab}_G(T) \\ \iff \quad & h \in {}^g\operatorname{Stab}_G(T) \end{aligned}$$

(g) follows from (f) applied with $T = \{s\}$.
(h) Let $g \in G$ and $t \in T$ then $g * t = t$ if and only if $g^*(t) = t$. So (h) holds.
(i) follows from (h) applied with $T = \{s\}$.

□

Lemma 1.7.11. [**stabilizers are subgroups**] *Let G be a group acting on the set S. Let $s \in S$ and $T \subseteq S$.*

(a) [**a**] $\operatorname{Stab}_G(T)$ *is a subgroup of G.*

(b) [**b**] $\operatorname{Stab}_G(s)$ *is a subgroup of G.*

(c) [**c**] $\operatorname{N}_G(T)$ *is a subgroup of G.*

Proof. (a) $1t = t$ for all $t \in T$ and so $1 \in \operatorname{Stab}_G(T)$. Let $g, h \in \operatorname{Stab}_G(T)$. Then $gt = t$ and $ht = t$ for all $t \in T$. Thus

$$(gh)t \overset{(\text{GA2}}{=} g(ht) = gt = t$$

and so $gh \in \operatorname{Stab}_G(T)$.

From $gt = t$ we get $g^{-1}(gt) = g^{-1}t$. So by (GA2), $(g^{-1}g)t = g^{-1}t$ and $et = g^{-1}t$. Thus by (GA1), $t = g^{-1}t$. Hence $g^{-1} \in \operatorname{Stab}_G(T)$. 1.4.3 now implies that $\operatorname{Stab}_G(T)$ is a subgroup of G.

[**b**] Note that $\operatorname{Stab}_G(s) = \operatorname{Stab}_G(\{s\})$. Thus (b) follows from (c).
(c) We have

$$\operatorname{N}_G^*(T) = \{g \in G \mid gT = T\} = \operatorname{Stab}_G^{*\mathcal{P}}(T).$$

(Note that on the left hand side T is treated as a subset of the G-set S, and in the right hand side, T is treated as an element of the G-set $\mathcal{P}(S)$.) Thus (c) follows from (b). □

Example 1.7.12. [**ex:stabilizer**] Consider the action c of a group G on itself. be conjugation and let $A \subseteq G$. Let $g \in G$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} & g \in \mathrm{Stab}^{\mathrm{c}}_G(A) \\ \iff \quad & g \,\mathrm{c}\, a = a \text{ for all } a \in A \\ \iff \quad & {}^g a = a \text{ for all } a \in A \\ \iff \quad & gag^{-1} = a \text{ for all } a \in A \\ \iff \quad & ga = ag \text{ for all } a \in A \end{aligned}$$

Define

$$C_G(A) := \{g \in G \mid ga = ag \text{ for all } a \in A\}$$

Then we proved $C_G(A) = \mathrm{Stab}^*(A)$ and so by 1.7.11(a), $C_G(A) \leq G$.

The center $\mathrm{Z}(G)$ if G is defined as

$$\{g \in G \mid ga = ga \text{ for all } a \in A\}$$

So

$$\mathrm{Z}(G) = C_G(G) = \mathrm{Stab}^{\mathrm{c}}_G(G)$$

and so by 1.7.10(a)

$$\mathrm{Z}(G) \trianglelefteq G \quad \text{ and } G/\mathrm{Z}(G) \cong G^{\mathrm{c}} \leq \mathrm{Sym}(G)$$

Definition 1.7.13. [**def:orbits**] *Let $* : G \times S \to S$ be a magma actions.*

(a) [**d**] *$\sim_*$ is the equivalence relation generated by $\{(s, gs) \mid s \in, g \in G\}$.*

(b) [**a**] *The equivalence classes of $\sim_*$ are called the* orbits *of G on S with respect to $*$.*

(c) [**b**] *The set of orbits of G on S is denoted by $S/^*G$.*

(d) [**c**] *We say that G acts* transitively *on S if G has exactly one orbit on S.*

Lemma 1.7.14. [**orbits**] *Let $*$ be an magma-action of the non-empty magma G on the set S. Let $s, t \in S$.*

(a) [**a**] *Suppose $*$ is a group-action. Then*

$$s \sim_* t \qquad \iff \qquad gs = t \text{ for some } g \in G$$

(b) [**b**] *Suppose G is abelian. Then*

$$s \sim_* t \qquad \iff \qquad gs = ht \text{ for some } g, h \in G$$

Proof. Le $\sim$ be the relation $\{(s, gs) \mid s \in, g \in G\}$ on G. By definition $\sim_*$ is the equivalence relation generated by $\sim$.

(a) Suppose $*$ is a group action. We just need need to show that $\sim$ is an equivalence relation.

Since $s = es$, $s \sim s$ and $\sim$ is reflexive.

If $t = as$, then

$$a^{-1}t = a^{-1}(as) = (a^{-1}a)s = es = s$$

Thus $s \sim t$ implies $t \sim s$ and $\sim$ is symmetric.

Finally if $s = at$ and $t = br$ then $s = at = a(br) = (ab)r$. Thus $s \sim t$ and $t \sim r$ implies $s \sim r$ and $\sim$ is reflexive.

(b) Define the relation $\approx$ on S by

$$s \approx t \qquad \text{if} \qquad gs = ht \text{ for some } g, h \in G$$

Suppose $gs = ht$ for some $g, h \in G$. Since $s \sim gs$ and $t \sim ht = gs$ we conclude that $s \sim_* t$ and so $\approx \subseteq *_t$. So we just need to show $\approx$ is an equivalence relation. Let $s \in S$. Since G is not-empty there exists $g \in G$ and so $gs = gs$ and $s \approx s$. $\approx$ is clearly symmetric. Suppose that $r, s, t \in G$ with $r \approx s$ and $s \approx t$. Then $gr = hs$ and $ks = lt$ for some $g, h, k, l \in H$. Thus

$$(kg)r = k(gr) = k(hs) = (kh)s = (hk)s = h(ks) = h(lt) = (hl)t$$

and so $r \approx t$.

□

Lemma 1.7.15. [**char orbits**] *Let G be a group acting on the non-empty set S. Let $s \in S$. Then the orbit of G on S containing s is $Gs = \{gs \mid g \in G\}$.*

Proof. Let O be the orbit of G on T containing s and let $t \in S$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} & t \in O \\ \iff \quad & t \sim_* s \\ \iff \quad & t = gs \text{ for some } g \in G \\ \iff \quad & t \in Gs \end{aligned}$$

□

Lemma 1.7.16. [**char transitive**] *Let G be a group acting on the non-empty set S. Then following are equivalent:*

(a) [**a**] *For each $s, t \in S$ there exists $g \in G$ with $t = gs$.*

(b) [**b**] *There exists $s \in S$ with $S = Gs$.*

(c) [**d**] *S is an orbit for G on S.*

(d) [**c**] *G acts transitively on S.*

Proof. (a) $\Longrightarrow$ (b): Suppose (a) holds. Since S is not empty there exists $s \in S$. Let $t \in T$. By (a) there exists $g \in G$ with $t = gs$. So $t \in Gs$ and $S = Gs$.

(b) $\Longrightarrow$ (c): By 1.7.15 Gs is an orbit for G on S. So if $S = Gs$, S is an orbit for G on S.

(c) $\Longrightarrow$ (d): Suppose S is an orbit for G on S. Since distinct orbits are disjoint we conclude that S is the only orbit for G on S. Thus G acts transitively on S.

(d) $\Longrightarrow$ (a): Suppose that G acts transitively on S and let $s, t \in G$. By 1.7.15 Gs is an orbit for G in S and since G acts transitively, Gs is the only orbit. Since t lies is some orbit, this means that $t \in Gs$ and so $t = gs$ for some $g \in G$. □

Example 1.7.17. [**ex:orbits**] Let G be group and $H \leq G$.

1. [**1**] The right cosets of H are the orbits for the action of H on G by left multiplication. So H acts transitively on G by left multiplication if and only if H is the only coset of H in G and so if and only if $G = H$.

2. [**2**] The left cosets of H are the orbits for the action of H on G by the right multiplication. (Note here that since $H = H^{-1}$, $gH^{-1} = gH$.) Again this action is transitive if and only if $G = H$.

3. [**3**] The orbit of G on G containing h with respect to the action by conjugation $\mathrm{id}\ {}^G h = \{cgh \mid g \in H\}$. This orbit is called the conjugacy class of G containing h. Note that ${}^G e = \{e\}$ and so the action by conjugation is transitive if and only if $G = \{e\}$.

4. [**4**] Let I be a non-empty set. Then $\mathrm{Sym}(I)$ acts transitively on I.

5. [**5**]
$$*_{G/H} : G \times G/H \to G/H, (g, T) \to gT$$
is a well -defined transitive action of G on G/H.

   Indeed, if $T = tH$, then $g(tH) = (gT) \in G/H$. So $*_{G/H}$ is well-defined. Its straightforward to verify that $*_{G/H}$ is indeed an action. Also
$$G *_{G/H} H = \{gH \mid g \in G\} = G/H,$$
and so G acts transitively on G/H. This action is called the action of G on G/H by left multiplication.

We will show that any transitive action of G is isomorphic to the action on the coset of a suitable subgroup. But first we need to define isomorphism for G-sets.

Definition 1.7.18. [**def:g-equi**] *Let G be a group, $*$ an action of G on the set S, $\triangle$ an action of G on the set T and $\alpha : S \to T$ a function.*

(a) [**a**] *α is called* G-equivariant *with respect to $*$ and $\triangle$ if*
$$\alpha(g * s) = g \triangle \alpha(s)$$
for all $g \in G$ and $s \in S$.

(b) [**b**] *α is called a G-*isomorphism *from $(S,*)$ to $(T,\triangle)$ if α is a bijection and α is G-equivariant with respect to $*$ and $\triangle$.*

(c) [**c**] *We say that $(S,*)$ and $(T,\triangle)$ are G-isomorphic and write*

$$(S,*) \cong (T,\triangle), \quad \text{or } S \cong_G T$$

*if there exists a G-*isomorphism *from $(S,*)$ to $(T,\triangle)$.*

Lemma 1.7.19. [**transorbits**] *Let S be a G-set, $s \in S$ and put $H = \mathrm{Stab}_G(s)$.*

(a) [**a**] *The map*

$$\alpha : G/H \to S,\ aH \to as$$

is well defined, G-equivariant and one 1-1

(b) [**b**] *α is an G-isomorphism if and only if G acts transitively on S*

(c) [**d**] $|Gs| = |G/\mathrm{Stab}_G(s)|$.

Proof. (a) Let $a, b \in G$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} & aH = bH \\ \iff \quad & a^{-1}b \in H \\ \iff \quad & a^{-1}b \in \mathrm{Stab}_G(s) \\ \iff \quad & (a^{-1}b)s = s \\ \iff \quad & a\big((a^{-1}b)s\big) = as \\ \iff \quad & bs = as \end{aligned}$$

The forward direct shows that α is well-defined and the backward direction shows that α is 1-1. Also

$$\alpha(a(bH)) = \alpha((ab)H) = (ab)s = a(bs) = a\alpha(bH)$$

So α is G-equivariant.

(b) By (a) α is a G-isomorphism if and only if α is onto. We have

$$\mathrm{Im}\,\alpha = \{\alpha(gH) \mid g \in G\} = \{gs \mid g \in G\} = Gs$$

So α is onto if and only if $S = Gs$ and so if and only if G is transitive on S.

(c) Since α is 1-1, $|G/H| = |\mathrm{Im}\,\alpha| = |Gs|$. □

Lemma 1.7.20. [**char g-sets**] *Suppose that G acts transitively on the sets S and T. Let $s \in S$ and $t \in T$. Then S and T are G-isomorphic if only if $\mathrm{Stab}_G(s)$ and $\mathrm{Stab}_G(t)$ are conjugate in G.*

Proof. Suppose first that $\alpha : S \to T$ is a G-isomorphism. Let $g \in G$. Since α is 1-1 and G-equivariant:

$$gs = s \iff \alpha(gs) = \alpha(s) \iff g\alpha(s) = \alpha(s)$$

So $\mathrm{Stab}_G(s) = \mathrm{Stab}_G(\alpha(s))$. Since G is transitive on T, there exists $g \in G$ with $g\alpha(s) = t$. Thus

$$\mathrm{Stab}_G(t) = \mathrm{Stab}_G(g\alpha(s)) = {}^g\mathrm{Stab}_G(\alpha(s)) = {}^g\mathrm{Stab}_G(s).$$

Conversely suppose that ${}^g\mathrm{Stab}_G(s) = \mathrm{Stab}_G(t)$ for some $g \in G$. Then $\mathrm{Stab}_G(gs) = {}^g\mathrm{Stab}_G(s) = \mathrm{Stab}_G(t)$ and so by 1.7.19(b) applied to S and to T:

$$S \cong_G G/\mathrm{Stab}_G(gs) = G/\mathrm{Stab}_G(t) \cong_G T.$$

□

Definition 1.7.21. [**def:rep**] *Let G be a group and S a G-set. A subset $R \subseteq S$ is called a set of* representatives *for the orbits of G on S, provided that R contains exactly one element from each G-orbit. In other words if the map $R \to S/G, r \to Gr$ is a bijection.*

An orbit O of G on S is called trivial *if $|O| = 1$.*

Let R be an set of representatives for the orbits of G on S and any trivial orbit $\{s\}$. Then s must be in R. Thus $\mathrm{Fix}_S(G) \subseteq R$ and $R \setminus \mathrm{Fix}_G(R)$ is a set of representatives for the non-trivial G-orbits.

Proposition 1.7.22 (Orbit Equation)**.** [**orbiteq**] *Let G be a group acting on the set S and let $R \subseteq S$ be a set of representatives for S/G. Then*

$$|S| = \sum_{r\in R} |G/\mathrm{Stab}_G(r)| = |\mathrm{Fix}_S(G)| + \sum_{r\in R\setminus \mathrm{Fix}_S(G)} |G/\mathrm{Stab}_G(r)|.$$

Proof. Since the orbits are the equivalemce classes of an equivalence relation S is the disjoint union of its orbit. Thus

$$|S| = \sum_{O\in S/G} |O| = \sum_{r\in R} |Gr|$$

By 1.7.19d, $|Gr| = |G/\mathrm{Stab}_G(r)|$ and so

$$|S| = \sum_{r\in R} |G/\mathrm{Stab}_G(r)|$$

Also

$$S = \sum_{r\in \mathrm{Fix}_S(G)} |Gr| + \sum_{r\in R\setminus \mathrm{Fix}_S(G)} |Gr| = |\mathrm{Fix}_S(G)| + \sum_{r\in R\setminus \mathrm{Fix}_S(G)} |G/\mathrm{Stab}_G(r)|$$

□

Corollary 1.7.23 (Class Equation)**.** [**classeq**] *Let G be a group and R be a set of representatives for the conjugacy classes of G. Then*

$$G = \sum_{r\in R} |G/\mathrm{C}_G(r)| = |\mathrm{Z}(G))| + \sum_{r\in R\setminus \mathrm{Z}(G)} |G/\mathrm{C}_G(r)|$$

Proof. Let c be the action of G on G be conjugation. Then

$$\mathrm{Fix}^{\mathrm{c}}_G(G) = \{g \in G \mid {}^h g = g \text{ for all } h \in G\} = \{g \in G \mid hg = gh \text{ for all } h \in G\} = \mathrm{Z}(G)$$

and by 1.7.12 $\mathrm{Stab}^{\mathrm{c}}_G(a) = \mathrm{C}_G(a)$. So the Class Equation follows from the orbit equation. □

To illustrate the class equation we will determine the conjugacy classes in $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$.

Definition 1.7.24. [**def:cycle type**] *Let $\pi \in \mathrm{Sym}(n)$. For $i \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ let λ_i be the number of cycle of length i of π. Then the* cycle type *of π to be sequence $(\lambda_i)_{i=1}^{\infty}$. Alternatively we will write the cycle type as $1^{\lambda_1}2^{\lambda_2}3^{\lambda_3}\ldots$ and often will not list terms i^{λ_i} for which $\lambda_i = 0$.*

For example the cycle type of

$$(1,7,3)(2,6)(4)(5,8,10)(9,13,16)(11)(14,15)(16,17)$$

in $\mathrm{Sym}(17)$ is $(2,3,3,0,0,\ldots) = 1^2 2^3 3^3$.

Proposition 1.7.25. [**classes in symn**]

(a) [**a**] *Let $\mu, \pi \in \mathrm{Sym}(n)$ and suppose that μ has cycle notation*

$$(a_{11}, a_{12}, \ldots, a_{1k_1})(a_{21}, a_{22}, \ldots, a_{2k_2})\ldots(a_{l1}, a_{l2}, \ldots, a_{lk_l})$$

Then the cycle notation for ${}^{\pi}\mu$ is

$$(\pi(a_{11}), \pi(a_{12}), \ldots, \pi(a_{1k_1}))(\pi(a_{21}), \pi(a_{22}), \ldots, \pi(a_{2k_2}))\ldots(\pi(a_{l1}), \pi(a_{l2}), \ldots \pi(a_{lk_l}))$$

(b) [**b**] *Two elements in $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$ are conjugate if and only if they have the same cycle type.*

Proof. (a) We have

$$\left({}^{\pi}\mu\right)\left(\pi(a_{ij})\right) = \left(\pi \circ \mu \circ \pi^{-1}\right)\left(\pi(a_{ij})\right) = \pi(\mu(a_{ij})) = \begin{cases} \pi((a_{i,j+1})) & \text{if } j \neq k_i \\ \pi(a_{i,1}) & \text{if } j = k_i \end{cases}$$

So (a) holds.

(b) By (a) μ and ${}^{\pi}\mu$ have the same cycle type. Conversely suppose that μ and σ in $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$ have the same cycle type. Then σ has cycle notation

$$\sigma = (b_{11}, b_{12}, \ldots b_{1k_1})(b_{21}, b_{22}, \ldots b_{2k_2})\ldots(b_{l1}, b_{l2}, \ldots b_{lk_l})$$

Note that for each $1 \leq k \leq n$ there exist unique i, j with $k = a_{i,j}$ and unique s, t with $k = b_{s,t}$. So we can define $\pi \in \mathrm{Sym}(n)$ by $\pi(a_{ij}) = b_{ij}$. Then by (a) ${}^{\pi}\mu = \sigma$ and so elements of the same cycle type are conjugate. □

Example 1.7.26. [**ex:conjugation**]

1. [**1**] ${}^{(1,3,5)(2,7)}(1,4,3)(2,6,7)(5,8) = (3,4,5)(7,6,2)(1,8)$
2. [**2**] Let $\mu = (1,3)(2)(4,7)(5,6,8)$ and $\sigma = (3,5)(8)(1,7)(2,4,6)$
   Define $\pi \in \mathrm{Sym}(8)$ by

$$\pi(1) = 3, \pi(3) = 5, \pi(2) = 8, \pi(4) = 1, \pi(7) = 7, \pi(5) = 2, \pi(6) = 4 \text{ and } \pi(8) = 6$$

   Then ${}^{\pi}\mu = \sigma$.

Example 1.7.27. [**ex:class equation sym4**] *The conjugacy classes of* $\mathrm{Sym}(4)$ *are:*

Cycle type	*elements*	*number of elements*
1^4	(1)	1
$1^2 2^1$	$(12), (13), (14), (23), (24), (34)$	6
$1^1 3^1$	$(123), (132), (124), (142), (134), (143), (234), (243)$	8
2^2	$(12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23)$	3
4^1	$(1234), (1243), (1324), (1342), (1423), (1432)$	6

A set of representatives for the conjugacy classes

$$\{(1), (12), (123), (12)(34), (1234)\}$$

and their centralizers:

r	$C_{\mathrm{Sym}(4)}(r)$	$\lvert C_{\mathrm{Sym}(4)}(r)\rvert$
(1)	$\mathrm{Sym}(4)$	24
(12)	$(1), (12), (34), (12)(34)$	4
(123)	$(1)(123), (132)$	3
$(12)(34)$	$(1), (12), (34), (12)(34), (1324), (13)(24), (1423), (14)(23)$	8
(1234)	$(1), (1234), (13)(24), (1432))$	4

So the orbit equation says

$$24 = \frac{24}{24} + \frac{24}{4} + \frac{24}{3} + \frac{24}{8} + \frac{24}{4}$$

and so

$$24 = 1 + 6 + 8 + 3 + 6$$

The Orbit Equations become particular powerful if G is a finite *p-group*:

Definition 1.7.28. [**def:p-group**] *Let G be finite group and p a prime. Then G is called a* p-group *provided that that is $|G| = p^k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$.*

Proposition 1.7.29 (Fixed-Point Equation)**.** [**Smodp**] *Let p be a prime and P a p-group acting on a finite set S. Then*

$$|S| \equiv |\mathrm{Fix}_S(P)| \pmod{p}.$$

Proof. Let R be a set of representatives for S/P and let $r \in R \setminus \mathrm{Fix}_S(P)$. Then $\mathrm{Stab}_P(r) \not\leq P$. By Lagrange's Theorem $|P/\mathrm{Stab}_P(r)|$ divides $|P|$. Since $|P|$ is a power of p and $|P/\mathrm{Stab}_P(r)| \neq 1$ we get

$$|P/\mathrm{Stab}_P(r)| \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

So by the Orbit Equation 1.7.22

$$|S| = |\mathrm{Fix}_S(P)| + \sum_{r \in R \setminus \mathrm{Fix}_S(P)} |P/\mathrm{Stab}_P(r)| \equiv |\mathrm{Fix}_S(P)| \pmod{p}$$

□

Corollary 1.7.30. [**find fixed-points**] *Let P be a prime and P a finite p-group acting on finite set S.*

(a) [**a**] *If p does not divide S, then $\mathrm{Fix}_S(P) \neq \emptyset$.*

(b) [**b**] *If p divides $|S|$ and P has at least one fixed-point on S, than P has more than one fixed point on S.*

Proof. This follows immediately from $|S| \equiv \mathrm{Fix}_S(P) \pmod{p}$. □

Example 1.7.31. [**elements of order 2**] Let G be a finite group and let $H = \{e, h\}$ be any group of order 2. Define an action of H on the set G by

$$e * g = g \quad h * g = g^{-1}$$

Since $h * (h * g) = (g^{-1})^{-1} = g = e * g$, this is indeed an action. Note that

$$\mathrm{Fix}_G(H) = \{g \in G \mid g = g^{-1}\} = \{g \in G \mid g^2 = 1_G\}$$

Let t be the number of elements of order 2 in G. Then $|\mathrm{Fix}_G(H)| = t + 1$. By the Fixed-Point Equation

$$|\mathrm{Fix}_G(H)| \equiv |G| \pmod{2}$$

and so

$$t \not\equiv |G| \pmod{2}$$

So a group of even order has an odd number of elements of order 2. In particular it has an element of order 2.

Example 1.7.32. [**ex:fixed-point**] Let $\mathcal{E} = (\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}, \mathcal{R})$ be a projective plane of order. and T a 2-subgroup of $\mathrm{Aut}(\mathcal{E})$.

Since the number of points is odd, 1.7.30 implies that T fixes a point P. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be the set of lines incident with P. Since T fixes P, T acts on $\mathcal{A}$. Since $|\mathcal{A}| = 3$ is odd we conclude that $\mathrm{Fix}_{\mathcal{A}}(T) \neq \emptyset$. Hence T fixes a line l incident with P. Thus

$$T \leq \mathrm{Stab}_{\mathrm{Aut}(\mathcal{E})}(\{P, l\})$$

By Homework 2#6 $\mathrm{Stab}_{\mathrm{Aut}(\mathcal{E})}(\{P, l\})$ has order eight, and so is a 2-group. We conclude that the 2-subgroups of $\mathrm{Aut}(\mathcal{E})$ are exactly the subgroups fixing a point and a line, which are incident.

Definition 1.7.33. [**def:weak normalizer**] *Let G be a group and $H \subseteq G$. Then*

$$\mathrm{N}_G(H) = \mathrm{N}^{\mathrm{c}}(H) = \{g \in G \mid {}^gH = H\}$$

$\mathrm{WN}_G(H) = \{a \in G \mid H \subseteq {}^aH\}$. $\mathrm{N}_G(H)$ *is called the normalizer of H in G and* $\mathrm{WN}_G(H)$ *the weak normalizer of H in G.*

Lemma 1.7.34. [**finite weak normalizer**] *Let G be a group and H a finite subset of G. Then* $\mathrm{N}_G(H) = \mathrm{WN}_G(H)$.

Proof. Let $g \in G$. As conjugation is an bijection, $|H| = |{}^gH|$. So for finite H, $H \subseteq {}^gH$ if and only if $H = {}^gH$. □

Lemma 1.7.35. [**HfixG**] *Let G be a group, $H \leq G$ and $a \in G$. With respect to the action of G on G/H be left multiplication:*

$$\mathrm{Stab}_G(aH) = {}^aH \quad \textit{and} \quad \mathrm{Fix}_{G/H}(H) = \mathrm{WN}_G(H)/H.$$

Proof. Let $g \in G$. Then $gH = H$ if and only if $g \in H$. Hence $\mathrm{Stab}^*_G(H) = H$ and so by 1.7.10(g)

$$\mathrm{Stab}_G(aH) = {}^a\mathrm{Stab}^*_G(H) = {}^aH.$$

Note that H fixes aH if and only if $H \subseteq \mathrm{Stab}^*_G(aH)$. That is if and only if $H \leq {}^aH$ and if and only if $a \in \mathrm{WN}_G(H)$. So also the second statement holds. □

Lemma 1.7.36. [**CenterP**] *Let P be a non-trivial finite p-group.*

(a) [**a**] $\mathrm{Z}(P)$ *is non-trivial.*

(b) [**b**] *If $H \not\leq P$ then $H \not\leq \mathrm{N}_P(H)$.*

Proof. (a) Consider first the action of P on P by conjugation. Then $\mathrm{Fix}_P(P) = opZ(P)$ and by1.7.29

$$0 \equiv |P| \equiv |\mathrm{Z}(P)| \pmod{p}..$$

Thus $|\mathrm{Z}(P)| \neq 1$.

(b) Consider the action of H on P/H be left multiplication. By 1.7.35, 1.7.29 and 1.7.34

$$0 \equiv |P/H| \equiv |\mathrm{Fix}_{P/H}(H)| = |\mathrm{N}_P^*(H)/H)| = |\mathrm{N}_P(H)/H \pmod{p}.$$

So $|\mathrm{N}_P(H)/H| \neq 1$. □

As a further example how actions an set can be used we give a second proof that $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$ has normal subgroup of index two. For this we first establish the following lemma.

Lemma 1.7.37. [**equivrep**] *Let Δ be a finite set and $\sim$ a equivalence relation on Δ such that each equivalence class has size at most 2. Put*

$$\Omega = \{R \subseteq \Delta \mid R \text{ contains exactly one element from each equivalence class of } \sim\}.$$

Define the relation $\approx$ on Ω by $R \approx S$ if and only if $|R \setminus S|$ is even. Then $\approx$ is an equivalence relation. If $\sim$ is not the equality relation, $\approx$ has exactly two equivalence classes.

Proof. For $d \in \Delta$ let $\tilde{d}$ be the equivalence class of $\sim$ containing d and let $\tilde{\Delta}$ be the set of equivalence classes. For $A \in \Omega$ and $X \in \tilde{\Delta}$, let X_A be the unique element of X contained in A. $A, B \in \Omega$ and define

$$\tilde{\Delta}_{AB} = \{X \in \tilde{\Delta} \mid X_A \neq X_B\}.$$

Let $d \in A$. Then $d = \tilde{d}_A$ and $d \in B$ if and only if $d = \tilde{d}_B$. Hence $\tilde{d}_A = \tilde{d}_B$ if and only if $d \in B$. Thus

$$(*) \qquad \tilde{d} \in \tilde{\Delta}_{AB} \Longleftrightarrow \tilde{d}_A \neq \tilde{d}_B \Longleftrightarrow d \in B$$

By definition of Ω, the map

$$A \setminus \Delta d \to \tilde{d}$$

is a bijection. By (*) the image of $A \setminus B$ under this map is Δ_{AB}. Thus $|A \setminus B| = |\tilde{\Delta}_{AB}|$ and so

$$A \approx B \Longleftrightarrow \tilde{\Delta}_{AB} \text{ is even.}$$

Observe that $\tilde{\Delta}_{AB} = \tilde{\Delta}_{BA}$ and so $\approx$ is symmetric. Since $|A \setminus A| = 0$ is even, $\approx$ is reflexive.

Let $R, S, T \in \Omega$ and $X \in \tilde{\Delta}$. If $X_R \neq X_S$, then $X = \{X_R, X_S\}$ and so X_T is either equal to X_R or to X_S, but not both. Hence $X_R \neq X_S$ exactly if $X_R = X_T \neq X_S$ or $X_R \neq X_T = X_S$. Hence

Thus

$$\tilde{\Delta}_{RT} = (\tilde{\Delta}_{RS} \setminus \tilde{\Delta}_{ST}) \cup (\tilde{\Delta}_{ST} \setminus \tilde{\Delta}_{RS})$$

and so

$$(*) \qquad |\tilde{\Delta}_{RT}| = |\tilde{\Delta}_{RS}| + |\tilde{\Delta}_{ST}| - 2|\tilde{\Delta}_{RS} \cap \tilde{\Delta}_{ST}|.$$

If $R \approx S$ and $S \approx T$, the right side of $(*)$ is an even number. So also the left side is even and $R \approx T$. Thus $\approx$ is transitive and so an equivalence relation.

Suppose now that $\sim$ is not the equality relation. Then there exists $r, t \in \Delta$ with $r \sim t$ and $r \neq t$. Let $R \in \Omega$ with $r \in R$. Put $T = (R \cup \{t\}) \setminus \{r\}$. Then $T \in \Omega$ and $|T \setminus R| = 1$. Thus R and T are not related under $\approx$. Let $S \in \Omega$. Then the left side of $(*)$ is odd and so exactly one of $|\tilde{\Delta}_{RS}|$ and $|\tilde{\Delta}_{ST}|$ is even. Hence $S \approx R$ or $S \approx T$. Thus $\approx$ has exactly two equivalence classes and all the parts of the lemma are proved. □

Lemma 1.7.38. [**action on pairs**] *Let G be a group acting on the sets I and J. Also let $\sim$ be a relation on I, $g \in G$ and define $g^* : I \to I, i \to gi$.*

(a) [**a**] *G acts on $I \times J$ via $g(i, j) = (gi, gj)$.*

(b) [**b**] *G acts on $\mathcal{P}(I \times J)$ via $gR = \{(gi, gj) \mid (i, j) \in R\}$ for all $R \subseteq I \times J$.*

(c) [**c**] *$g \sim = \sim_{g^{*-1}}$, that is for all $i, j \in I$*

$$i(g\sim)j \iff (g^{-1}i) \sim (g^{-1}j).$$

(d) [**d**] *$\sim = (g\sim)_{g^*}$, that is for all $i, j \in I$*

$$i \sim j \iff (gi)(g\sim)(gj).$$

Proof. (a) is readily verified and (b) follows from (a).

(c) $(i, j) \in g\sim$ if and only if $i = gi'$ and $j = gj'$ for some $(i', j') \in \sim$. So if and only if $(g^{-1}i, g^{-1}j)) \in \sim$.

(d) follows from (c). □

Recall that a relation on set I is a subset of $I \times I$. Also if $\sim$ and $\approx$ are relations on I then $\sim \subseteq \approx$ if and only if $a \approx b$ for all $a, b \in I$ with $a \sim b$.

Lemma 1.7.39. [**action on classes**] *Let G be a group acting on the set I. Let $\sim$ be an equivalence relation on S. Let $a \in I$ and $g \in G$. Then*

(a) [**a**] *$g[a]_\sim = [ga]_{g\sim}$.*

(b) [**b**] *Suppose that $\sim$ is G-invariant. Then $g[a]_\sim = [ga]_\sim$ and so $I/\sim$ is a G-invariant subsets of $\mathcal{P}(I)$ and G acts on $I/\sim$.*

Proof. (a) By 1.7.38(c) $g \sim = \sim_{g^{*-1}}$ and so by 1.5.7

$$g^{-1}[ga]_{g\sim} \subset [g^{-1}ga]_\sim = [a]_\sim$$

and multiplying with g gives

$$[ga]_{g\sim} \subseteq g[a]_\sim$$

By 1.7.38(d) $\sim = (g\sim)_{g^*}$ and so by 1.5.7

$$g[a]_\sim \subseteq [ga]_{g\sim}$$

So (a) holds.

(b) If $\sim$ is G-invariant $g \sim = \sim$ and so (a) implies (b). □

Proposition 1.7.40. [**def of altn**] *Let $n \geq 2$ be an integer. Define*

$$\Delta = \{(i,j) \mid 1 \leq i,j \leq n, i \neq j\}$$

Define the relation $\sim$ on Δ by

$$(i,j) \sim (k,l) \text{ if } (k,l) = (i,j) \text{ or } (k,l) = (j,i)$$

Then $\sim$ is an equivalence relation on Δ such that each equivalence classes has size 2. Define

$$\Omega = \{R \subseteq \Omega \mid |R \cap X| = 1 \text{ for all } X \in \Delta/\sim\}$$

Define the relation $\approx$ on

$$A \approx B \text{ if } |A \smallsetminus B| \text{ is even}$$

Then $\approx$ is an equivalence relation on Ω with exactly two equivalence classes. Moreover,

(a) [**a**] $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$ *acts on* Δ, $\Delta/\sim$, Ω *and* $\Omega/\approx$.

(b) [**b**] *Define* $\mathrm{Alt}(n) = \mathrm{Stab}_{\mathrm{Sym}(n)}(\Omega/\approx)$. *and let* $\pi \in \mathrm{Sym}(n)$. *Then* $\pi \in \mathrm{Alt}(n)$ *if and only if the set*

$$\{(i,j) \mid 1 \leq i < j \leq n, \pi(i) > \pi(j)\}$$

has even size.

(c) [**c**] $(1,2) \notin \mathrm{Alt}(n)$.

(d) [**d**] $\mathrm{Alt}(n)$ *is a normal subgroup of index two in* $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$.

Proof. (a) Let $\pi \in \mathrm{Sym}(n)$ and $(i,j) \in \Delta$, then $\pi(i) \neq \pi(j)$ and so $\pi(i) \neq \pi(j)$. Thus Δ is a $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$-invariant subset of $S \times S$ and so $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$ act on Δ. If $(i,j) = (k,l)$ or $(i,j) = (l,k)$, then then also $(\pi(i),\pi(j)) = (\pi(k),\pi(l))$ or $((\pi(i),\pi(j)) = (\pi(l),\pi(k))$. So $\sim$ is $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$-invariant and $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$ acts on $\Delta/\sim$.

Let $R \in \Omega$ and $X \in \Delta/\sim$. Then $Y = \pi^{-1}(X) \in \Delta/\sim$ and so

$$|\pi R \cap X| = |\pi R \cap \pi Y| = |\pi(R \cap Y)| = |R \cap Y| = 1$$

So $\pi(R) \in \Omega$ and $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$ acts on Ω. If $A, B \in \Omega$ with $A \approx B$, then $|\pi(A) \smallsetminus \pi(B)| = |\pi(A \smallsetminus B| = |A \smallsetminus B|$ is even and so $\pi A \approx \pi B$. Thus $\approx$ is $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$-invariant and so $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$ acts $\Omega/\approx$.

(b) Put $R = \{(i,j)\ 1 \leq i < j \leq n\}$ and observe that $R \in \Omega$. If $\pi(R) \approx R$, then π fixes $[R]_\approx$ and since $\approx$ has only two equivalence classes, π also has to fix the other class. Hence $\pi \in \mathrm{Alt}(n)$. If $\pi(R) \not\approx R$, then π does not fix $[R]_\approx$ and so $\pi \notin \mathrm{Alt}(n)$. Thus

$$\pi \in \mathrm{Alt}(n) \iff |\pi R \smallsetminus R| \text{ is even}$$

We have

$$|\pi R \setminus R| = |\{\pi r \mid r \in R, \pi r \notin R\}| = |\{r \mid r \in R, |\ \pi r \notin R\}| = |\{(i,j) \mid 1 \leq i < j \leq n, \pi(i) > \pi(j)\}|$$

and so (b) holds.

(c) Let $1 \leq i < j \leq n$. If $i > 2$, then $(1,2)(i) = i < j = (1,2)(j)$. If $i = 2$, then $(1,2)i = 1 < j = (1,2)(j)$. If $i = 1$ and $j > 2$, then $(1,2)(i) = 2 < j = (1,2)j$. If $i = 1$ and $j = 2$, then $(1,2)(i) = 2 > 1 = (1,2)2$. So $(1,2)(i) > (1,2)(j)$ if and only if $(i,j) = (1,2)$. So by (b), $(1,2) \notin \mathrm{Alt}(n)$.

(d) By 1.7.10

$$\mathrm{Alt}(n) = \mathrm{Stab}_{\mathrm{Sym}(n)}(\Omega/\approx) \trianglelefteq \mathrm{Sym}(n) \text{ and } \mathrm{Sym}(n)/\mathrm{Alt}(n) \cong \mathrm{Sym}(n)^{\Omega/\approx} \leq \mathrm{Sym}(\Omega/\approx)$$

Since $|\Omega/\approx\ | = 2$ also $|\mathrm{Sym}(\Omega/\approx)| = 2$. Thus $|\mathrm{Sym}(n)/\mathrm{Alt}(n)| \leq 2$. By (c), $(1,2) \notin \mathrm{Alt}(n)$. So $\mathrm{Sym}(n) \neq \mathrm{Alt}(n)$ and $|\mathrm{Sym}(n)/\mathrm{Alt}(n)| = 2$. □

1.8 Generation of subgroups

Definition 1.8.1. [**def:tuple**] *Let $\mathcal{D}$ be a class and I set.*

(a) [**c**] $\mathrm{Fun}(I)$ *is the class of all functions with domain I.* $\mathrm{Fun}(I, \mathcal{D})$ *is the set of all functions from I to $\mathcal{D}$.*

(b) [**a**] *An I-tuple is function with domain I. An I-tuple in $\mathcal{D}$ is a function from I to $\mathcal{D}$.*

(c) [**b**] *A $\mathcal{D}$-family is an I-tuple in $\mathcal{D}$ for some set I.*

Notation 1.8.2. [**not:tuple**] *Let f be an I-tuple. Then we denote f by $(f_i)_{i\in I}$, where f_i is the image of i under f.*

Lemma 1.8.3. [**capg**] *Let G be a group and $(G_i)_{i\in I}$ a family of subgroups of G. Then $\bigcap_{i\in I} G_i$ is a subgroup. If each G_i, $i \in I$ is normal in G, so is $\bigcap_{i\in I} G_i$.*

Proof. Since $e \in G_i$ for all i, $e \in \bigcap_{i\in I} G_i$. Let $a, b \in \bigcap_{i\in I} G_i$. Then $ab \in G_i$ and $a^{-1} \in G_i$ for all $i \in I$. Hence $ab \in \bigcap_{i\in I} G_i$ and $a^{-1} \in \bigcap_{i\in I} G_i$. Thus $\bigcap_{i\in I} G_i$ is a subgroup of G.

Suppose in addition that each G_i is normal in G and let $g \in G$ and $a \in \bigcap_{i\in I} G_i$. Then ${}^g a \in G_i$ and so ${}^g a \in \bigcap_{i\in I} G_i$. Thus $\bigcap_{i\in I} G_i$ is normal in G. □

Definition 1.8.4. [**generated**] *Let G be a group and $J \subseteq G$.*

(a) [**a**] *The subgroup $\langle J\rangle$ of G* generated *by J is defined by*

$$\langle J\rangle = \bigcap_{J\subseteq H\leq G} H$$

(b) [**b**] *The normal subgroup* $\langle {}^G J\rangle$ *of* G *generated by* J *is defined by*

$$\langle {}^G\rangle = \bigcap_{J\subseteq H\trianglelefteq G} H$$

(c) [**c**] *If* $(J_i, i\in I)$ *is a family of subsets write* $\langle J_i \mid i\in I\rangle$ *for* $\langle \bigcup_{i\in I} J\rangle$.

(d) [**d**] $J\subseteq G$ *is called normal if* ${}^g J = J$ *for all* $g\in G$.

Lemma 1.8.5. [**basicgen**] *Let* I *be a subset of* G.

(a) [**a**] *Let* $\alpha : G\to H$ *be a group homomorphism. Then* $\alpha(\langle I\rangle) = \langle \alpha(I)\rangle$.

(b) [**b**] *Let* $g\in G$. *Then* ${}^g\langle I\rangle = \langle {}^g I\rangle$.

(c) [**c**] *If* I *is normal in* G, *so is* $\langle I\rangle$.

(d) [**f**] $\langle I\rangle = \langle I^{-1}\rangle$.

(e) [**d**] $\langle I\rangle$ *consists of all products of elements in* $I\cup I^{-1}$.

(f) [**e**] $\langle {}^G I\rangle = \langle {}^g I \mid g\in G\rangle$ *and consists of all products of elements in* $\bigcup_{g\in G} {}^g(I\cup I^{-1})$.

Proof. (a) Let $A = \langle I\rangle$ and $B = \langle \alpha(I)\rangle$. As $\alpha(A)$ is a subgroup of H and contains $\alpha(I)$ we have $B\le \alpha(A)$. Also $\alpha^{-1}(B)$ is a subgroup of G and contains I. Thus $A\le \alpha^{-1}(B)$ and so $\alpha(A)\le B$. Hence $B = \alpha(A)$.

(b) Apply (a) to the homomorphism $i_g : G\to G, x\to {}^g x$.

(c) Follows from (b).

(d) Let H be a subgroup of G. Then H is closed under inverses and so $I\subseteq H$ if and only of $I^{-1}\subseteq H$. Thus (f) follows from the definition of $\langle I\rangle$.

(e) Let H be the subset of G consists of all products of elements in $I\cup I^{-1}$, that is all elements of the form $a_1a_2\dots a_n$, with $n\ge 0$ and $a_i\in I\cup I^{-1}$ for all $1\le i\le n$. Here if $n = 0$ we define $a_1\dots a_n$ to be e. Clearly H is contained in any subgroup of G containing I. Thus $H\subseteq \langle I\rangle$. Now it is readily verified that H is also a subgroup containing I and so $\langle I\rangle\le H$.

(f) Note that $\bigcup_{g\in G} {}^g I$ is a normal subset of G. Hence by (c) $H := \langle {}^g I \mid g\in G\rangle$ is normal subgroup of G. So $\langle {}^G I\rangle\le H$. If $I\subseteq K\trianglelefteq G$, then ${}^g I\subseteq K$ for all $g\in G$. Thus also $H\le K$ and so $H\le \langle {}^G I\rangle$. It is also contained in every normal subgroup containing I and we get $\langle {}^G I\rangle = H$. The second statement now follows from (e). □

Lemma 1.8.6. [**normalize**] *Let* G *be a group.*

(a) [**a**] *Let* A, B *be subgroups of* G. *Then* AB *is a subgroup of* G *if and only if* $AB = BA$.

(b) [**c**] *If* $K, H\le G$ *and* $K\le N_G(H)$, *then* KH *is a subgroup of* G *and* $\langle K, H\rangle = KH$.

(c) [**d**] *Let* $K_i, i\in I$ *be a family of subsets of* G. *If each* $K_i\le N_G(H)$ *for each* $i\in I$, *then* $\langle K_i \mid i\in I\rangle\le N_G(H)$.

Proof. (a) Note that

$$(*) \qquad (AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1} = BA.$$

If AB is a subgroup of G, then $AB = (AB)^{-1}$ and (*) shows that $AB = BA$.

Conversely suppose that $AB = BA$. Then (*) shows that AB is closed under inverses. Also $e = ee \in AB$ and

$$(AB)(AB) = A(BA)B = A(AB)B = A^2B^2 \subseteq AB.$$

So AB is closed under multiplication.

(b) Let $k \in K$. Then ${}^kH = H$, $kHk^{-1} = H$, $kH = Hk$ and so $HK = KH$. So by (a) HK is a subgroup of G. Hence $\langle H, K\rangle \leq HK \leq \langle H, K\rangle$ and (b) holds.

(c) Since $K_i \subseteq N_G(H)$ for all $i \in I$ and $N_G(H)$ is subgroup of G we have $\langle K_i \mid i \in I\rangle \leq N_G(H)$ and (c) holds. □

Definition 1.8.7. [**def:commutator**] *Let G be a group and $a, b \in G$ and $A, B \subseteq G$.*

(a) [**a**] $[a,b] := aba^{-1}b^{-1}$. $[a,b]$ *is called the* commutator *of a and b*

(b) [**b**] $[A,B] = \langle [a,b] \mid a \in A, b \in B\rangle$. $[A,B]$ *is called the* commutator group *of A and B.*

(c) [**c**] ${}^{-a}b = ({}^ab)^{-1} = {}^a(b^{-1})$

Lemma 1.8.8. [**easy commutator**] *Let G be a group and $a, b \in G$.*

(a) [**a**] $[a,b] = e$ *if and only if $ab = ba$.*

(b) [**b**] $[a,b] = {}^abb^{-1} = a \cdot {}^{-b}a$

(c) [**c**] $[a,b]^{-1} = [b,a]$.

(d) [**d**] $[A,B] = [B,A]$ *for any $A, B \subseteq G$.*

Proof. (a): $[a,b] = e \iff aba^{-1}b^{-1} = e$. Multipliying with ba from the right the latter equation is equivalent to $ab = ba$.

(b) $[a,b] = (aba^{-1}b^{-1} = {}^abb^{-1}$ and $[a,b] = a(ba^{-1}b^{-1}) = a({}^{-b}a)$.

(c) $[a,b]^{-1} = (aba^{-1}b^{-1})^{-1} = (b^{-1})^{-1}(a^{-1})^{-1}b^{-1}a^{-1} = bab^{-1}a^{-1} = [b,a]$.

(d) Using (c) and 1.8.5(d)

$$[A,B] = \langle [a,b] \mid a \in A, b \in B\rangle = \langle [a,b]^{-1} \mid a \in A, b \in B\rangle = \langle [b,a] \mid a \in A, b \in B\rangle = [B,A].$$

□

Lemma 1.8.9. [**comnormal**] *Let G be a group.*

(a) [**a**] *Let $N \leq G$. Then $N \trianglelefteq G$ if and only if $[G,N] \leq N$.*

(b) [**b**] *Let $A, B \trianglelefteq G$. Then $[A,B] \leq A \cap B$.*

(c) [**c**] *Let $A, B \trianglelefteq G$ with $A \cap B = \{e\}$. Then $[A, B] = \{e\}$ and $ab = ba$ for all $a \in A, b \in B$.*

Proof. (a) ${}^g n \in N \iff {}^g n n^{-1} \in N \iff [g, n] \in N$. Thus (a) holds.

(b) By (a) $[A, G] = [G, A] \leq A$ and $[G, B] \leq B$. Thus

$$[A, B] \leq [A, G] \cap [G, B] \leq A \cap B$$

(c) By (b), $[A, B] \leq A \cap B = \{e\}$. Thus for all $a \in A, b \in B$, $[a, b] = e$ and so by 1.8.8(a) we have $ab = ba$. □

1.9 Direct products and direct sums

[**dpds**]

Definition 1.9.1. [**def:cross**] *Let $(S_i)_{i \in I}$ be a family of sets. Then $\bigtimes_{i \in I} S_i$ is the set of all I-tuples f with $f(i) \in S_i$ for all $i \in I$. For $i \in I$ define*

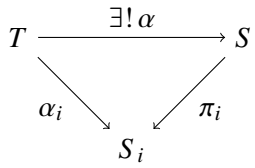
$$\pi_i : \bigtimes_{i \in I} S_i \to S_i, \quad f \mapsto f(i)$$

Then π_i is called the projection of $\bigtimes_{i \in I} S_i$ onto S_i.

Definition 1.9.2. [**def:direct product of sets**] *Let $(S_i)_{i \in I}$ be a family of sets. A* direct product *of $(S_i)_{i \in I}$ is pair $\left(S, (\pi_i)_{i \in I}\right)$, where S is a set and $(\pi)_{i \in I}$ is a family of functions $\pi_i : S \to S_i$, with the following property:*

Whenever T is a set and $(\alpha_i : T \to S)_{i \in I}$ is family of functions, then there exists a unique function $\alpha : T \to S$ such that $\alpha_i = \pi_i \circ \alpha$ for all $i \in I$.

Note that $\alpha_i = \pi_i \circ \alpha$ means that the diagram



commutes for all $i \in I$.

Lemma 1.9.3. [**direct product of sets**] *Any family of sets $(S_i)_{i \in I}$ has a direct product $(S, (\pi_i : S \to G_i)_{i \in I})$. Moreover, if $(T, (\alpha_i : T \to S_i)_{i \in I})$ is also direct product of $(S_i)_{i \in I}$, then there exists a bijection $\alpha : T \to S$ with $\alpha_i = \pi_i \circ \alpha$ for all $i \in I$.*

Proof. We will first show the existence. Let $S = \bigtimes_{i \in I} S_i$ and for $i \in I$ let π_i be the projection of S onto S_i. We will show that $\left(S, (\pi_i)_{i \in I}\right)$ is a direct product of $(S_i)_{i \in I}$.

For this let T a set and $(\alpha_i : T \to S_i)_{i \in I}$ a family of functions. Let $\alpha : T \to S$ be a function. Then

$$\begin{aligned} & \pi_i \circ \alpha = \alpha_i && \text{for all } i \in I \\ \iff & \pi_i(\alpha(t)) = \alpha_i(t) && \text{for all } i \in I, t \in T \\ \iff & \alpha(t)(i) = \alpha_i(t) && \text{for all } i \in I, t \in T \\ \iff & \alpha(t) = (\alpha_i(t))_{i\in I} && \text{for all } t \in T \end{aligned}$$

So $\alpha : T \to S, (\alpha_i(t))_{i\in I}$ is the unique function from $T \to S$ with $\alpha \circ \pi_i$ for all $i \in I$. Thus $(\pi_i)_{i\in I}$ is indeed a direct product of $(S_i)_{i\in I}$.

To prove the uniqueness assertion let $\big(T, (\alpha_i : T \to S_i)_{i\in I}\big)$ also be direct product of $(S_i)_{i\in I}$. Since $\big(S, (\pi_i)_{i\in I}\big)$ is a direct product. there exists a function $\alpha : T \to S$ with $\alpha_i = \pi_i \circ \alpha$ for all $i \in I$. We need to show that α is bijection.

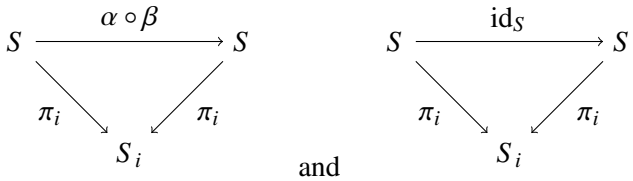
Since $\big(T, (\alpha_i)_{i\in I}\big)$ is a direct product there exists a function $\beta : S \to T$ with $\pi_i = \alpha_i \circ \beta$ for all $i \in I$. Consider the composition $\alpha \circ \beta : S \to S$. We have

$$\pi_i \circ (\alpha \circ \beta) = (\pi_i \circ \alpha) \circ \beta = \alpha_i \circ \beta = \pi_i$$

also

$$\pi_i \circ \mathrm{id}_S = \pi_i$$

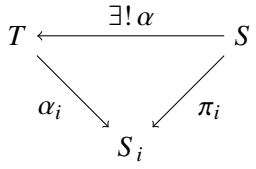
Hence the diagrams



commute. So by the uniqueness assertion in the definition of a direct product we conclude that $\alpha \circ \beta = \mathrm{id}_S$. By symmetry also $\beta \circ \alpha = \mathrm{id}_T$. Thus α is a bijection. □

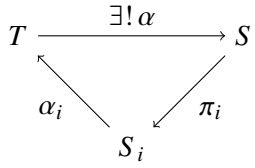
1.9.4 (Further Products of Sets)**.** [**further products**] Let $(S_i)_{i\in I}$. We will investigate what happens to Definition 1.9.2 in we reverse some or all of the arrows:

(1)



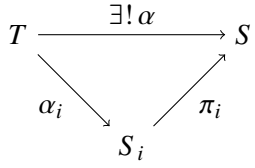
Here we can just choose $S = \varnothing$ and so also $\pi_i = \varnothing$ and $\alpha = \varnothing$.

(2)



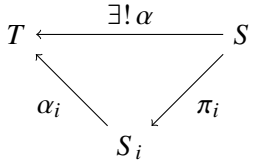
This diagram makes no sense, since the composition of any two functions which can be composed is in the reverse direction of the third.

(3)



Here we can choose $S = \{s\}$ and define π_i and α by $\pi_i(s_i) = s = \alpha(t)$ for all $s_i \in S_i, t \in T$.

(4)



As in (1) choose $S = \pi_i = \alpha = \varnothing$.

(5)

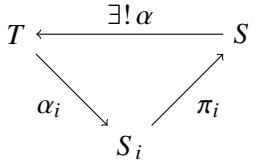
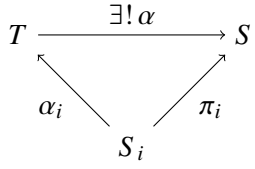


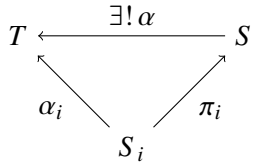
Diagram makes no sense (just as (2)).

(6)



As in (3) choose $S = \{s\}$ and define π_i and α by $\pi_i(s_i) = s = \alpha(t)$ for all $s_i \in S_i, t \in T$.

(7)



This is the only interesting case (other than the direct product). Let $S = \biguplus_{i\in I} S_i$, the disjoint union of the $S_i, i \in I$. So

$$S = \{(i, s) \mid i \in I, s \in S_i\}.$$

Define

$$\pi_i : S_i \to S, s \to (i, s)$$

and for a given family $\alpha_i : S_i \to T$,

$$\alpha : S \to T, \quad (i, s) \mapsto \alpha_i(s)$$

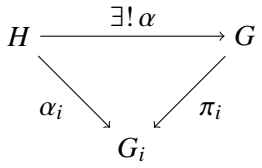
$(S, (\pi)_{i\in S})$ is called the coproduct of the family $(S_i)_{i\in I}$.

We now will look at the direct product of groups and in section 1.11 at the coproduct of groups.

Definition 1.9.5. [**def:direct product**] *Let $(G_i)_{i\in I}$ be a family of groups. A* direct product *of the $(G_i)_{i\in I}$ is a pair $\left(G, (\pi_i)_{i\in I}\right)$ where G is a group and $(\pi_i)_{i\in I}$ is a family of group homomorphism $\pi_i : G \to G_i$ with the following property:*

Whenever H is a group and $(\alpha_i : H \to G_i)_{i\in I}$ is family of group homomorphism, then there exists a unique homomorphism $\alpha : H \to G$ such that $\alpha_i = \pi_i \circ \alpha$ for all $i \in I$.

Just as for sets, the definition can be summarized in the following commutative diagram



Lemma 1.9.6. [**direct product**] *Any family of groups $(G_i)_{i\in I}$ has a direct product $\left(G, (\pi_i : G \to G_i)_{i\in I}\right)$. Moreover, if $\left(H, (\alpha_i : H \to G_i)_{i\in I}\right)$ is also a direct product of $(G_i)_{i\in I}$, then there exists an isomorphism $\alpha : H \to G$ with $\alpha_i = \pi_i \circ \alpha$ for all $i \in I$.*

Proof. We will first show the existence. As a set let $G = \bigtimes_{i\in I} G_i$ and for $i \in I$ let π_i be the projection of G onto G_i. Define a binary operation on G by

$$(fg)(i) = f(i)g(i) \tag{$*$}$$

for all $f, g \in I$. It is a routine exercise to verify that G is a group under this operation.

By definition of π_i (*) can be rewritten as

$$\pi_i(fg) = \pi_i(f)\pi_i(g)$$

and so π_i is a homomorphism.

Let H a group and $(\alpha_i : H \to G_i)_{i\in I}$ a family of a family of group homomorphism. Since $(\pi_i)_{i\in I}$ is the set-theoretic direct product of $(G_i)_{i\in I}$ there exist a unique function $\alpha : H \to G$ with $\alpha_i = \pi_i \circ \alpha$, namely $\alpha(h) = (\alpha_i(h))_{i\in I}$ for all $i \in I$. Then for all $h, k \in H$:

$$\alpha(hk) = (\alpha_i(hk))_{i\in I} = (\alpha_i(h)\alpha_i(k))_{i\in I} = (\alpha_i(h))_{i\in I}(\alpha_i(k))_{i\in I} = \alpha(h)\alpha(k)$$

and so α is a homomorphism.

The proof of the uniqueness statement is the same is for sets. Essentially one just need to replace "function" by "homomorphism" everywhere in the proof. □

Definition 1.9.7. [**def:direct sum**] *Let $(G_i)_{i\in I}$ be a family of groups.*

(a) [**b**] *For $g \in \times_{i\in I} G_i$ define*

$$\mathrm{Supp}(g) := \{i \in I \mid g(i) \neq 1_{G_i}\}$$

g is called almost trivial *if* $\mathrm{Supp}(g)$ *is finite.*

(b) [**c**] *$\oplus_{i\in I} G_i$ is the set of all almost trivial elements in $\times_{i\in I} G_i$. $\oplus_{i\in I} G_i$ is called the* direct sum *of $(G_i)_{i\in I}$.*

Definition 1.9.8. [**product of elements**] *Let G be a group.*

(a) [**a**] *A family $(a_i)_{i\in I}$ of elements in G is called commuting if $a_i a_j = a_j a_i$ for all $i, j \in I$.*

(b) [**b**] *Let $(a_i)_{i\in I}$ be an almost trivial, commuting family of elements in G. Then*

$$\prod_{i\in I} a_i = a_{i_1} a_{i_2} \dots a_{i_k}$$

where $i_1, i_2 \dots i_k$ are the pairwise distinct elemenst of I with $a_{i_j} \neq 1$. Note that since $a_i a_j = a_j a_i$, this definition does not dependent on the order the $i_1, \dots i_k$ are chosen.

Lemma 1.9.9. [**direct sum**] *Let $(G_i)_{i\in I}$ be a family of groups. For $j \in I$ define $\rho_j : G_j \to \oplus_{i\in I} G_i$ by*

$$\rho_j(g)(i) = \begin{cases} g & \text{if } i = j \\ 1_{G_i} & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

for all $g \in G_i$.

(a) [**a**] *$\oplus_{i\in I} G_i$ is a subgroup of $\times_{i\in I} G_i$.*

(b) [**b**] *For all $j \in I$, ρ_j is a 1-1 homomorphism.*

(c) [**c**] $[\rho_i(G_i), \rho_j(G_j)] = 1$ *for all* $i \neq j \in I$.

(d) [**d**] *Let* $g \in \bigoplus_{i\in I} G_i$. *Then there exist a uniquely determined almost trivial family* $(h_i)_{i\in I} \in \bigtimes_{i\in I} G_i$ *with* $g = \prod_{i\in I} \rho_i(h_i)$. *Namely* $h = g$.

(e) [**e**] $\bigoplus_{i\in I} G_i = \langle \rho_i(G_i) \mid i \in I \} \rangle$

Proof. (a) This follows since $\mathrm{Supp}(a^{-1}) = \mathrm{Supp}(a)$ and $\mathrm{Supp}(ab) \subseteq \mathrm{Supp}(a) \cup \mathrm{Supp}(b)$.
(b) This is readily verified.
(c) Let $j \neq k \in I$, $g_j \in G_j$ and $g_k \in G_k$. Then

$$(\rho(g_j)\rho(g_k))(i) = \begin{cases} g_j & \text{if } i = j \\ g_k & \text{if } i = k \\ 1 & \text{if } j \neq i \neq k \end{cases} = (\rho(g_k)\rho(g_j))(i)$$

Thus $\rho_j(g_j)\rho_k(g_k) = \rho_k(g_k)\rho_j(g_j)$ and (c) holds.
(d) Just observe that by the definition of $\rho_j(h_j)$

$$\left(\prod_{i\in I} \rho_i(h_i)\right)_j = h_j.$$

(e) By (d) $g = \prod_{i\in I} \rho_i(g_i) \in \langle \rho_i(G_i) \mid i \in I \rangle$. Thus (e) holds. □

Lemma 1.9.10. [**universal oplus**] *Let* $(G_i)_{i\in I}$ *be family of groups,* H *a group and* $(\alpha_i : G_i \to H)_{i\in I}$ *a family of homomorphism such that*

$$(*) \qquad \alpha_i(g_i)\alpha_j(g_j) = \alpha_j(g_j)\alpha_i(g_i)$$

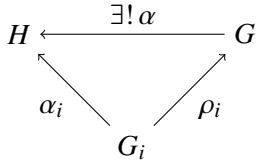
for all $i \neq j \in I$, $g_i \in G_i$ *and* $g_j \in G_j$. *Then there exists a unique homomorphism*

$$\alpha : \bigoplus_{i\in I} G_i \to H \qquad \textit{with} \qquad \alpha_i = \alpha \circ \rho_i \qquad \textit{for all } i \in I$$

Moreover,

$$\alpha\big((g_i)_{i\in I}\big) = \prod_{i\in I} \alpha_i(g_i)$$

for all $\big((g_i)_{i\in I}\big) \in \bigoplus_{i\in I} G_i$.



Proof. Let $(g_i)_{i\in I} \in \bigoplus_{i\in I} G_i$. If $g_i = 1_{G_i}$, then $\alpha(g_i) = 1_H$ and so $(\alpha_i(g_i))_{i\in I}$ is almost trivial. By (*) this family is commuting and so we obtain a function

$$\alpha : \bigoplus_{i\in I} G_i \to H, \quad (g_i)_{i\in I} \to \prod_{i\in I} \alpha_i(g_i)$$

Let $(g_i')_{i\in I} \in \bigoplus_{i\in I} G_i$. By (*) $\alpha_i(g_i)\alpha_j(g_j') = \alpha_j(g_j')\alpha_i(g_i)$ for all $i \neq j \in J$ and so an straightforward induction arguments shows

$$\big(\prod_{i\in I} \alpha_i(g_i')\big)\big(\prod_{i\in I} \alpha_i(g_i)\big) = \prod_{i\in I} \big(\alpha_i(g_i)\alpha_i(g_i')\big)$$

Since α_i is a homomorphism, $\alpha_i(g_i)\alpha_i(g_i') = \alpha_i(g_i g_i')$ and we conclude that α is a homomorphism.

Let $i \in I$ and $g \in G$. Then $\rho_i(g)_j = 1_{G_j}$ for all $i \neq j \in J$. So $\alpha_j(\rho_i(g)_j) = 1_H$ and thus $\alpha(\rho_i(g)) = \alpha_i(g)$. Hence $\alpha_i = \alpha \circ \rho_i$.

To show uniqueness let $\beta : \bigoplus_{i\in I} G_i \to G$ be a homomorphism with $\alpha_i = \beta \circ \rho_i$ for all $i \in I$. Then

$$\beta\big((g_i)_{i\in I}\big) = \beta\big(\prod_{i\in I} \rho_i(g_i)\big) = \prod_{i\in I} \beta\big(\rho_i(g_i)\big) = \prod_{i\in I} \alpha_i(g_i) = \alpha\big((g_i)_{i\in I}\big)$$

and so α is unique. □

Definition 1.9.11. [**def:internal sum**] *Let G be a group and $(G_i)_{i\in I}$ a family of subgroups of G. We say that G is the* internal direct sum *of $(G_i)_{i\in I}$ and write*

$$G = \overset{\text{int}}{\bigoplus_{i\in I}} G_i$$

provided that

(i) [**i**] $G_i \trianglelefteq G$ *for all* $i \in I$.

(ii) [**ii**] $G = \langle G_i \mid i \in I\rangle$.

(iii) [**iii**] *For each i,* $G_i \cap \langle G_j \mid i \neq j \in I\rangle = 1$.

Proposition 1.9.12. [**internal sum**] *Let G be a group and $(G_i)_{i\in I}$ a family of subgroups of G. Suppose that G is the internal direct sum of $(G_i)_{i\in I}$.*

Then the map

$$\alpha : \bigoplus_{i\in I} G_i \to G, \quad (g_i)_{i\in I} \to \prod_{i\in I} g_i$$

is a well-defined isomorphism.

Proof. For $i \in I$ put $G^i := \langle G_j \mid i \neq j \in I\rangle$. Let $g \in G$. Since $G_j \trianglelefteq G$ we have ${}^gG_j = G_j$ and so using 1.8.5(b) we compute

$$ {}^gG^i = \langle {}^gG_j \mid i \neq j \in I\rangle = \langle G_j \mid i \neq j \in I\rangle = G^i $$

Thus $G^i \trianglelefteq G$. By 1.9.11(iii), $G_i \cap G^i = \{e\}$ and so by 1.8.9(c) $ab = ba$ for all $a \in G_i, b \in G^i$. If $j \neq i \in I$ then $G_j \leq G^i$ and so $g_ig_j = g_jg_i$ for all $g_i \in G_i$ and $g_j \in G_j$. So by 1.9.10 α is a well-defined homomorphism and $\alpha(\rho_i(g_i)) = g_i$. Thus $G_i \leq \operatorname{Im}\alpha$. Since $\operatorname{Im}\alpha$ is a subgroup of G we conclude $\langle G_i \mid i \in I\rangle \leq \operatorname{Im}\alpha$. Hence 1.9.11(ii), $\operatorname{Im}\alpha = G$ and so α is onto.

Suppose that

$$ \prod_{i\in I} g_i = \prod_{i\in I} a_i $$

for some $(g_i)_{\in I}, (a_i)_{i\in I} \in \bigoplus_{i\in I}$. Then

$$ a_ig_i^{-1} = \prod_{i\neq j\in I} a_j^{-1}g_j $$

Note that the left side is in G_i and the right side in G^i. Since $G_i \cap G^i = \{e\}$ we conclude that $a_ig_i^{-1} = e$ and so $a_i = g_i$. Thus α is 1-1 and the lemma is proved. □

Note that the preceeding lemma implies that if $G = \bigoplus_{i\in I}^{\text{int}} G_i$ then G is canonically isomorphic to $\bigoplus_{i\in I} G_i$. For this reason we will often abuse language and write $G = \bigoplus_{i\in I} G_i$ to indicated that G is the internal direct sum of $(G_i)_{i\in I}$.

Example 1.9.13. [**ex:direct sum**] Let $G = \{(1), (1,2)(3,4), (1,3)(2,4), (1,4)(2,3)\} \leq \operatorname{Sym}(4)$. Let $G_1 = \{(1), (1,2)(3,4)\}$ and $G_2 = \{(1), (1,3)(2,4)\}$. Since G is abelian, G_1 and G_2 are normal subgroup of G. Since $(1,2)(3,4) \circ (1,3)(2,4) = (1,4)(2,3)$, $\langle G_1, G_2\rangle = G$. Moreover, $G_1 \cap G_2 = \{(1)\}$ and so G is the internal direct sum of G_1 and G_2. Thus

$$ G = G_1 \oplus G_2 $$

1.10 Sylow p-subgroup

Hypothesis 1.10.1. [**hyp:sylow**] *Throughout this section G is a finite group and p a prime.*

Definition 1.10.2. [**def:sylow**]

(a) [**a**] *A* p-subgroup *of G is a subgroup $P \leq G$ which is a p-group.*

(b) [**b**] *A* Sylow p-subgroup *S of G is a maximal p-subgroup of G. That is S is a p-subgroup of G and if $S \leq Q$ for some p-subgroup Q, then $S = Q$.*

(c) [**c**] $\operatorname{Syl}_p(G)$ *is the the set of all Sylow p-subgroups of G.*

Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and $n = p^k m$ with $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and $p \nmid m$, then $n_p = p^k$. n_p is called the p-part of n. Often a Sylow p-subgroup is defined to be a subgroup of order $|G|_p$. This turns out to be equivalent to our definition (see 1.10.3(b) and 1.10.9(c)), but I prefer the above definition for two reason: 1. It is easy to see that Sylow p-subgroups exists (see the next lemma). 2. The given definition also makes sense for infinite groups (allthough infinite groups may not have a Sylow p-subgroup).

Lemma 1.10.3. [**easy sylow**]

(a) [**a**] *Any p-subgroup of G is contained in a Sylow p-subgroup of G. In particular, $\mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$ is not empty.*

(b) [**b**] *Let $S \leq G$ with $|S| = |G|_p$. Then S is a Sylow p-subgroup of G.*

Proof. (a) Let P be a p-sugroups and let S be a p-subgroup of G such that $|S|$ is maximal with respect to $P \leq S$. We claim that $S \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$. For this let Q be a p-subgroup of G with $S \leq Q$. Then also $P \leq Q$ and so by maxiality of $|S|$, $|Q| \leq |S|$. Since $S \leq Q$ this gives $S = Q$ and so $S \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$.

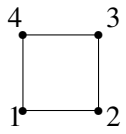
In particular, $\{e\}$ is contained in a Sylow p-subgroup of G and so $\mathrm{Syl}_p(G) \neq \emptyset$.

(b) Let Q be a p-subgroup of G with $S \leq Q$. By Lagrange's, $|Q|$ divides $|G$. Since $|Q|$ is a power of p, $|Q|$ divides $|G|_p = |S|$. Thuse $|Q| \leq |S|$ and $S = Q$. So $S \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$. □

Example 1.10.4. [**ex:sylow**]

1. [**1**] Let $G = \mathrm{Sym}(5)$. Then $|G| = 5! = 120 = 2^3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$. Thus by 1.10.3(b),

$$\langle (123) \rangle \in \mathrm{Syl}_3(G)$$
$$\langle (12345) \rangle \in \mathrm{Syl}_5(G)$$
$$\mathrm{Dih}_8 \in \mathrm{Syl}_2(G)$$

Here $\mathrm{Dih}_8 = \langle (14)(23), (13) \rangle$ is the automorphism groups of the square 

2. [**2**] $\mathcal{E}$ be a projective plane of order two and $G = \mathrm{Aut}(\mathcal{E})$. Then $|G| = 168 = 2^3 \cdot 3 \cdot 7$. Let P be a point incident to the line l. Then $\mathrm{Stab}_G(\{P, l\})$ is a Sylow 2-subgroups of G.

Lemma 1.10.5. [**char syl**] *Let G be a finite group, p a prime and S a p-subgroup of G. Then $S \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$ if and only if $N_G(S)/S$ has a non-trivial p-subgroup.*

Proof. We will prove the contrapositive.

Suppose first that $S \notin \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$. Then there exists a p-subgroup T of G with $S \not\leq T$. Then by 1.7.36, $S \not\leq N_T(S)$. Thus $N_T(S)/S$ is a non-trivial p-subgroup of $N_G(S)/S$.

Suppose A is a non-trivial p-subgroup of $N_G(S)$. Let T be the inverse image of A under the natural homomorphism from $N_G(S) \to N_G(S)/S$. Then T is a subgroup of G and $|T| = |T/S||S| = |A||S|$. Thus T is a p-subgroup of G with $S \neq T$. Hence S is not a Sylow p-subgroup. □

Lemma 1.10.6. [**sym i on ji**] *Let I and J be sets. Then* $\mathrm{Sym}(I)$ *acts on* J^I *via* $\pi * f = f \circ \pi^{-1}$ *for all* $\pi \in \mathrm{Sym}(I)$ *and* $f \in J^I$.

Proof. Readily verified. □

Proposition 1.10.7 (Cauchy)**.** [**Cauchy**] *If p divides $|G|$, then G has an element of order p*

Proof. Let $x = (1, 2, \ldots, p) \in \mathrm{Sym}(p)$ and $X = \langle x \rangle$. Then X is a subgroup order p of $\mathrm{Sym}(p)$. By 1.10.6 $\mathrm{Sym}(p)$ acts on G^p and so also X acts on G^p. Observe that

$$x * (a_1, \ldots, a_p) = (a_p, a_1 \ldots, a_{p-1})$$

Consider the subset

$$T = \{(a_1, \ldots, a_p) \in G^p \mid a_1 a_2 \ldots a_p = e\}.$$

of G^p Note that we can choose the first $p-1$ coordinates freely and then the last one is uniquely determined. So $|T| = |G|^{p-1}$.

We claim that T is X-invariant. For this note that

$$a_p a_1 \ldots a_{p-1} = {}^{a_p}(a_1 \ldots a_p)$$

Si if $a_1 \ldots a_p = e$ also $a_p a_1 \ldots a_{p-1} = e$. Thus $x \in N_X(S)$ and so also $X \leq N_G(S)$. Hence T is indeed X-invariant and so X acts on T.

From 1.7.29 we have

$$|T| \equiv |\mathrm{Fix}_T(X)| \pmod{p}$$

As p divides $|G|$, it divides $|T|$ and so also $|\mathrm{Fix}_T(X)|$. Hence there exists some $(a_1, a_2, \ldots a_p) \in \mathrm{Fix}_S(X)$ distinct from $(e, e, \ldots, e)$. But being in $\mathrm{Fix}_S(X)$ just means $a_1 = a_2 = \ldots a_p$. Being in S implies $a_1^p = a_1 a_2 \ldots a_p = e$. Therefore a_1 has order p. □

The following easy lemma is crucial for our approach to the theory of Sylow p-subgroups.

Lemma 1.10.8. [**action on syl**] *Let $P \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$ and $\alpha \in \mathrm{Aut}(G)$. Then $\alpha(P) \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$. In particular, G acts on $\mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$ by conjugation.*

Proof. Since α is an bijection, $|P| = |\alpha(P)|$ and so $\alpha(P)$ is a p-group. Let Qbe a p-subgroup of G with $\alpha(P) \leq Q$. Then $\alpha^{-1}(Q)$ is a p-subgroup of G with $P \leq \alpha^{-1}(Q)$ and the maximality of P implies $P = \alpha^{-1}(Q)$. Thus $\alpha(P) = Q$ and $\alpha(P)$ is indeed a maximal p-subgroup of G.

Let $g \in G$. Then ${}^gP = \mathrm{i}_g(P) \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$. Thus $\mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$ is subset of $\mathcal{P}(G)$ invariant under the action by conjugation. Therefore G acts on $\mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$ be conjugation. □

Theorem 1.10.9 (Sylow's Theorem)**.** [**sylow**] *Let G be a finite group, p a prime and $P \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$.*

(a) [**a**] *All Sylow p-subgroups are conjugate in G.*

(b) [**b**] $|\mathrm{Syl}_p(G)| = |G/\mathrm{N}_G(P)| \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

(c) **[c]** $|P| = |G|_p$.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{S} = {}^G P := \{{}^g P \mid g \in G\}$. So $\mathcal{S}$ is the set of Sylow p-subgroups conjugate to P. First we show

1°. **[1]** *P has a unique fixed-point on $\mathcal{S}$ and on $\mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$, namely P itself*

Indeed, suppose that P fixes $Q \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$. Then $P \leq \mathrm{N}_G(Q)$ and PQ is a subgroup of G. Now $|PQ| = \frac{|P||Q|}{|P \cap Q|}$ and so PQ is a p-group. Hence by maximality of P and Q, $P = PQ = Q$.

2°. **[2]** $\mathcal{S} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

By (1°) $\mathrm{Fix}_{\mathcal{S}}(P) = 1$ and by Fixed-Point Formula 1.7.29 $|\mathcal{S}| \equiv |\mathrm{Fix}_{\mathcal{S}}(G)| \pmod{p}$. So (2°) holds.

3°. **[3]** *$\mathrm{Syl}_p(G) = \mathcal{S}$ and so (a) holds*

Let $Q \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$. Then $|\mathrm{Fix}_{\mathcal{S}}(Q)| \equiv |\mathcal{S}| \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Hence Q has a fixed-point $T \in \mathcal{S}$. By (2°) applied to Q, this fixed-point is Q. So $Q = T \in \mathcal{S}$.

4°. **[3.5]** *(b) holds.*

By (2°) and (5°) $|\mathrm{Syl}_p(G)| = |\mathcal{S}| \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Note that $\mathrm{N}\, N_G(P)$ is the stabilizer of P in G with respect to conjugation. As G is transitive on $\mathcal{S}$ we conclude from 1.7.19(c) that $|\mathcal{S}| = |G/\mathrm{N}_G(P)|$. Thus (b) holds.

5°. **[4]** *p does not divides $|\mathrm{N}_G(P)/P|$.*

By 1.10.5 $\mathrm{N}_G(P)/P$ has no non-trivial p-subgroup and so by Cauchy's theorem $|\mathrm{N}_G(P)/P$ is not divisible by p.

By (b) and (5°), p divides neither $|G/\mathrm{N}_G(P)|$ nor $|\mathrm{N}_G(P)/P|$. Since

$$|G| = |G/\mathrm{N}_G(P)| \cdot |\mathrm{N}_G(P)/P| \cdot |P|$$

we get that p does not divide $|G/P|$. Hence $|G|_p$ divides $|P|$. By Lagrange's $|P|$ divides $|G|$ and so also $|G|_p$. Thus $|P| = |G|_p$. and (c) holds. □

Corollary 1.10.10. **[cor syl]** *Let G be a finite group, p a prime and $P \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$*

(a) **[c]** *Let Q be a p-subgroup of G. Then $Q \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$ if and only if $|Q| = |G|_p$ and if and only if p does not divide $|G/Q|$.*

(b) **[d]** *Let $R \leq H \leq G$ with $p \nmid |G/H|$. Then $R \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(H)$ if and only if $R \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$.*

(c) **[a]** *$P \trianglelefteq G$ if and only if P is the unique Sylow p-subgroup of G.*

(d) **[e]** *Let $s_p := |\mathrm{Syl}_p(G)|$. Then s_p divides $\frac{|G|}{|G|_p}$, $s_p \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and $s_p|G_p|$ divides $|G|$.*

Proof. (a) Since $|Q|$ is a power of p, $|Q| = |G|_p$ if and only if p does not divide $\frac{|G|}{|Q|}$. If $|Q| = |G|_p$ then by 1.10.3(b), $Q \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$ and if $Q \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$ then by 1.10.9(c), $|Q| = |G|_p$.

(b) Note that $|H|_p = |G|_p$ and so (b) follows from (c).

(c) Since all Sylow p-subgroups are conjugate, $\mathrm{Syl}_p(G) = \{{}^gP \mid g \in G\}$. Hence $\mathrm{Syl}_p(G) = \{P\}$ if and only if $P = {}^gP$ for all $g \in G$.

(d) By 1.10.9(b), $s_p = |G/\mathrm{N}_G(P)| \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Also

$$\frac{|G|}{|G|_p} = \frac{|G|}{|P|} = \frac{|G|}{|\mathrm{N}_G(P)|}\frac{|\mathrm{N}_G(P)|}{|P|} = s_p \cdot \frac{|\mathrm{N}_G(P)|}{|P|}$$

So s_p divides $\frac{|G|}{|G|_p}$. □

Lemma 1.10.11. [**sylow and normal**] *Let G be a finite group, p a prime $M \trianglelefteq G$.*

(a) [**a**] *Let $H \leq G$. Then $H \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$ if and only if $HM/M \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$ and $H \cap M \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$.*

(b) [**b**] *Let $\pi : G \to M, g \to gM$ be the natural homomorphism and for $R \leq G$ let $\hat{R} = \pi^{-1}(R)$. Put*

$$\mathcal{A} = \{(R, Q) \mid R \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G/M), Q \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(\hat{R})\}.$$

Then

$$\alpha : \mathrm{Syl}_p(G) \to \mathcal{A}, \quad P \to (PM/M, P)$$

is a well-defined bijection.

(c) [**c**] *Let $P \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$. Then $|\mathrm{Syl}_p(G)| = |\mathrm{Syl}_p(G/M)| \cdot |\mathrm{Syl}_p(PM)|$*

Proof. (a) Note that $|H| = |H/H \cap M||H \cap M| = |HM/M||H \cap M|$ and $|G|_p = |G/M|_p|M|_p$. It follows that $|H|_p = |G|_p$ if and only if $|HM/M|_p = |G/M|_p$ and $|H \cap M|_p = |M_p|$. So (a) holds.

(b) By (a) $PM/M \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G/M)$ also $P \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(PM)$ and so α is well defined. Clearly α is 1-1. Let $R \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G/M)$ and $Q \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(\hat{R})$. Since $|\hat{R}| = |R||M|$,

$$|Q| = |\hat{R}|_p = |R|_p|M|_p = |G/M|_p|M|_p = |G|_p$$

So $Q \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(M)$. By (a) $QM/M \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(\hat{R}/M) = R$ and since R is a p-group, $QM/M = R$. Thus $\alpha(Q) = (QM/M, Q) = (R, Q)$ and α is onto.

[**c**] By (b) $|\mathrm{Syl}_p(G)| = |\mathcal{A}|$. Let $R, T \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G/M)$. Then $R = {}^aT$ for some $a \in G/M$. Let $a = gM$ with $g \in G$. Then $\hat{R} = {}^g\hat{T}$ and since conjugation is an automorphism, $|\mathrm{Syl}_p(\hat{R})| = |\mathrm{Syl}_p(\hat{T})| = |\mathrm{Syl}_p(PM)|$.

Thus

$$|\mathrm{Syl}_p(G)| = |\mathcal{A}| = \sum_{R \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G/M)} |\mathrm{Syl}_p(\hat{R})| = \sum_{R \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G/M)} |\mathrm{Syl}_p(PM)| = |\mathrm{Syl}_p(G/M)| \cdot |Syl_p(PM)|$$

□

Lemma 1.10.12. [**sylow and stab**] *Let G be a finite group, p a prime, $P \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$ and $M \trianglelefteq G$. Then the following statements are equivalent*

(a) [**a**] $M \leq \mathrm{Stab}_G(\mathrm{Syl}_p(G))$

(b) [**b**] $P \trianglelefteq PM$.

(c) [**c**] *P is the unique Sylow p-subgroup of PM.*

(d) [**d**] $|\mathrm{Syl}_p(G)| = |\mathrm{Syl}_p(G/M)|$

(e) [**e**] *The map*

$$\beta : \mathrm{Syl}_p(G) \to \mathrm{Syl}_p(G/M) \quad Q \to QM/M$$

is a bijection.

Proof. (a) $\Longrightarrow$ (b): If $M \leq \mathrm{Stab}_G(\mathrm{Syl}_p(G))$, then $M \leq \mathrm{N}_G(P)$. Since also $P \leq \mathrm{N}_G(P)$ we conclude that $PN \leq \mathrm{N})G(P)$ and so $P \trianglelefteq PN$.

(b) $\Longrightarrow$ (c): If $P \trianglelefteq PM$, 1.10.10(c) shows that P is the unique Sylow p-subgroup of G.

(c) $\Longrightarrow$ (d): If P is the unique Sylpw p-subgroup of PM, then $|Syl_p(PM)| = 1$ and so by 1.10.11(c)

$$|\mathrm{Syl}_p(G)| = |\mathrm{Syl}_p(G/M)| \cdot |\mathrm{Syl}_p(PM)| = |\mathrm{Syl}_p(G/M)|$$

(d) $\Longrightarrow$ (e): Since the map α in 1.10.11(c) is a bijection, β is onto. So if $|\mathrm{Syl}_p(G)| = |\mathrm{Syl}_p(G/M)|$, β is a bijection.

(e) $\Longrightarrow$ (a): Suppose β is a bijection. Let $m \in M$. Then $P^m M = PM$ and since β is 1-1, $P^m = P$. So M fixes all $P \in n\mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$, that is $M \leq \mathrm{Stab}_G(\mathrm{Syl}_p(G))$. □

Lemma 1.10.13. [**p cap m**] *Let G be a finite group, p a prime, $P \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$ and $M \trianglelefteq G$ with $M \leq \mathrm{Stab}_G(\mathrm{Syl}_p(G))$. Then*

(a) [**a**] $P \cap M \trianglelefteq G$.

(b) [**b**] *$PM \trianglelefteq G$ if and only of $P \trianglelefteq G$ and if and only if $P \leq \mathrm{Stab}_G(\mathrm{Syl}_p(G))$.*

Proof. (a) By 1.10.12 $P \trianglelefteq MP$. Since $M \trianglelefteq G$ this gives $M \cap P \trianglelefteq M$. By 1.10.11 $P \cap M \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(M)$ and so by So by 1.10.10(c), $M \cap P$ is the only Sylow p-subgroup of N. Let $g \in G$. Then by 1.10.8 ${}^gN \cap P$ is a Sylow p-subgroup of M and so equal to $M \cap P$. Thus $M \cap P \trianglelefteq G$.

(b) Suppose that $PM \trianglelefteq G$. By 1.10.12 P is the only Sylow p-subgroup of PM and so $P \trianglelefteq G$. Suppose that $P \trianglelefteq G$. The $\mathrm{Syl}_p(G) = \{P\}$ and so $P \leq G = \mathrm{Stab}_G(\mathrm{Syl}_p(G))$. Put $\tilde{M} = \mathrm{Stab}_G(\mathrm{Syl}_p(G))$. If $P \leq \tilde{M}$, then $P\tilde{M} = \tilde{M} \trianglelefteq G$ and so $P \trianglelefteq G$. □

Lemma 1.10.14. [**2odd**] *Let G be a finite group of order $2n$ with n odd. Then G index a normal subgroup of index 2.*

Proof. By Cayley's Theorem 1.7.8(1), G is isomorphic to $G^{\cdot}$, (the image of G in $\mathrm{Sym}(G)$ under the homomorphism $\Phi^{\cdot}$ corresponding the action $\cdot$ of G and G by left multiplication. Let $t \in G$ be an element of order 2. Since $tg \neq g$ for all $g \in G$, t and so also $t^{\cdot} = \Phi^{\cdot}(t)$ has no fixed-points on G. Hence $t^{\cdot}$ has n-cycles of length 2 and so $t^{\cdot}$ is an odd permutation. Thus $G^{\cdot} \not\leq \mathrm{Alt}(G)$ and $G^{\cdot} \cap \mathrm{Alt}(G)$ is normal subgroup of index 2 in $G^{\cdot}$. □

Lemma 1.10.15. [**order 60**] *Let G be a group of order at most 60. Then one of the following holds.*

(a) [**a**] *G has a unique Sylow 5-subgroup.*

(b) [**b**] *$|G| = 55$ and G has a unique Sylow 11-subgroup.*

(c) [**c**] *$|G| = 60$, $|\mathrm{Syl}_5(G)| = 6$, $G = \langle \mathrm{Syl}_5(G) \rangle$, G acts faithfully on $\mathrm{Syl}_5(G)$ and G is simple. In particular, G is isomorphic to a subgroup of $\mathrm{Alt}(6)$.*

Proof. If $s_5 = 1$, (a) holds. So suppose $s_5 > 1$. Then 5 does divide $|G|$ and so $s_5 \equiv 1 \pmod 5$ and s_5 divides $\frac{|G|}{|G|_5} \leq \frac{60}{5} = 12$. Thus $s_5 = 6$ or 11.

Suppose $s_5 = 11$. Then $55 = 5 \cdot 11$ divides $|G|$ and since $|G| leq 60$, $|G| = 55$. Thus s_{11} divides 5 and so $s_{11} = 1$ and (a) holds.

Suppose next that $s_5 = 6$. Then G is divisible by $30 = 5 \cdot 6$ and so $|G| = 30$ or $G = 60$. If $|G| = 30$, then 1.10.14 G has a normal subgroup M of order 15. Then H unique Sylow 5-subgroup P. Since $H \trianglelefteq G$ it follows that $P \trianglelefteq H$ and so P is the unique Sylow 5-subgroup of G, contrary to $s_5 = 6$. Thus $|G| = 60$. Let $H = \langle \mathrm{Syl}_5(G) \rangle$. Then $|Syl_5(H) = |\mathrm{Syl}_5(G)| = 6$ and $|H| = 60$. Thus $H = G$. Let $N = \mathrm{Stab}_G(\mathrm{Syl}_5(G))$. By 1.10.12(d), G/N has the same number of Sylow 5-subgroup as G, that is six. Hence $|G/N| = 60$ and $N = 1$. Thus G acts faithfully on $\mathrm{Syl}_5(G)$ and so G is isomorphic to a subgroup $\tilde{G}$ of $\mathrm{Sym}(6)$. Note that any subgroup of order five in $\mathrm{Sym}(6)$ is contained in $\mathrm{Alt}(6)$. Since $G = \langle \mathrm{Syl}_5(G) \rangle$ this shows $\tilde{G} \leq \mathrm{Alt}(6)$.

It remains to show that G is simple. Suppose there exists $M \trianglelefteq G$ with $1 \neq M \not\leq G$. Let $P \in \mathrm{Syl}_5(G)$. By 1.10.11(c)

$$6 = |\mathrm{Syl}_5(G)| = |\mathrm{Syl}_5(G/M)| \cdot |\mathrm{Syl}_5(MP)|$$

Since $|G/M| < 60$ and G/M divides 60 we have $|G/M| < 55$ and so $|\mathrm{Syl}_5(G/M)| = 1$. Hence $|\mathrm{Syl}_5(MP)| = 6$. Thus $|MP| = 60$ and $MP = G$ In particular, $P \not\leq M$ and so $P \cap M \not\leq P$. Since $|P| = 5$ this gives $P \cap M = 1$ and so $60 = |G| = |PM| = \frac{|P||M|}{|P \cap M|} = 5 \cdot |M|$. Thus $|M| = 12$. It follows that $|\mathrm{Syl}_3(M)| \leq \frac{12}{12_3} = 4 < 5$. Since

$$|\mathrm{Fix}_{\mathrm{Syl}_3(M)}(P)| \cong |\mathrm{Syl}_3(M)| \pmod 5$$

we conclude that P fixes all $T \in \mathrm{Syl}_3(P)$. Thus $P \leq \mathrm{N}_G(T)$ and P acts on T by conjugation. Since $|T| = 3 < 5$ and

$$\mathrm{Fix}_T(P) \cong |T| \mod 5$$

it follows that P fixes all elements of T. So $T \leq \mathbb{C}_G(T) \leq \mathrm{N}_G(P)$. But $G/\mathrm{N}_G(P)| = s_5 = 6$ and so $|N_G(P)| = 10$. Since 3 does not divide 10, this contradicts Lagrange's theorem.

So G is simple.

□

We will now show that $\mathrm{Alt}(n)$ is the only subgroup of index 2 in $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$:

Lemma 1.10.16. [**index 2 and order 2**] *Let G be a group, $\mathcal{T}$ a conjugacy class of elements of order two in G and put $H = \langle \mathcal{T} \rangle$. Put $D = \langle \mathcal{T}^2 \rangle = \langle st \mid s,t \in \mathcal{T} \rangle$. Then one of following holds:*

(a) [**a**] *$H = D$ and there does not exists a normal subgroup B of G with $B \leq D$ and $D/B| = 2$.*

(b) [**b**] *$|H/D| = 2$ and D is the unique normal subgroup of G with $D \leq H$ and $H/D| = 2$. H.*

Proof. (a) Note that $\mathcal{T}$ and $\mathcal{T}^2$ are normal subsets of G and so D is a normal subgroup of G. Let $s,t \in \mathcal{T}$. Then $s^{-1}t = st \in D$ and so $sD = tD$. Also $s^{-1}D = sD$ and so $D \cup sD$ is a subgroup of G containing $\mathcal{T}$. Since $H = \langle \mathcal{T} \rangle$, this gives $H = D \cup sD$ and so $|H/D|leq2$.

Let $B \trianglelefteq G$ with $B \leq H$ and $|H/D| = 2$. Suppose that $s \in B$. Since $B \trianglelefteq G$ we get $\mathcal{T} = {}^G s \subseteq B$ and so $H \leq B$, a contradiction to $|H/B| = 2$. Thus $s \notin B$ for all $s \in \mathcal{T}$ and since $|H/B| = 2$, we get $sB = tB$ and so $st = s^{-1}t \in B$. Hence $D \leq B$ and since $|H/B| = |H/D| = 2$, $D = B$.

If $H = D$, (a) holds and if $H \neq D$, (b) holds.

□

Corollary 1.10.17. [**index two in sym n**] *Let $n \geq 2$. then $\mathrm{Alt}(n)$ is the unique subgroup of index two in $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$.*

Proof. Let $\mathcal{T} = \{(i,j) \mid 1 \leq i < j \leq n\}$ be the set of two cycles in $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$. Note that $\mathcal{T}$ is conjugacy class of $\mathrm{Sym}(n)$ and by a homework problem, $\mathrm{Sym}(n) = \langle \mathcal{T} \rangle$. So the Corollary follows from 1.10.16(b). □

The following lemma is an example how the actions on a subgroup can be used to identify the subgroup.

Lemma 1.10.18. [**sym(n-1)**] *Let n be an integer with $n \geq 3$. Let $G = \mathrm{Sym}(n)$ or $\mathrm{Alt}(n)$ and suppose $*$ is a faithful action of G in the set I with $|I| \leq n$. Then*

(a) [**a**] *If $G = \mathrm{Sym}(n)$, then $G^* = \mathrm{Sym}(I)$ and $\mathrm{Stab}_G(i) \cong \mathrm{Stab}_G(i)^* = \mathrm{Stab}_{\mathrm{Sym}(I)}(i) \cong \mathrm{Sym}(n-1)$ for all $i \in I$.*

(b) [**b**] *If $G = \mathrm{Alt}(n)$, then $G^* = \mathrm{Alt}(I)$ and $\mathrm{Stab}_G(i) \cong \mathrm{Stab}_G(i)^* = \mathrm{Stab}_{\mathrm{Alt}(I)}(i) \cong \mathrm{Alt}(n-1)$ for all $i \in I$.*

Proof. By assumption, G acts faithfully on I and so G is isomorphic to the subgroup G^* of $\mathrm{Sym}(I)$. In particular, $|G^*| = |G|$ and so

$$|I|! = |\mathrm{Sym}(I)| \geq |G^*| = |G| \geq \frac{n!}{2}.$$

Since $|I| \leq n$ and $n \geq 3$ this gives $|I| = n$ and $|\mathrm{Sym}(I)| = |\mathrm{Sym}(n)|$.

Hence $|\mathrm{Sym}(I)/G^*| = |\mathrm{Sym}(n)/G| \leq 2$. By 1.10.17 $\mathrm{Alt}(I)$ is the unique subgroup of index two in $\mathrm{Sym}(I)$. Thus either $G = \mathrm{Sym}(n)$ and $G^* = \mathrm{Sym}(I)$ or $G = \mathrm{Alt}(n)$ and $G^* = \mathrm{Alt}(I)$. Let $i \in I$. Suppose $G = \mathrm{Alt}(n)$. Then

$$\mathrm{Stab}_G(i) \overset{\Phi_*\ 1\text{-}1}{\cong} \mathrm{Stab}_G(i)^* \overset{1.7.10(\mathrm{i})}{=} \mathrm{Stab}_{G^*}(i) = \mathrm{Stab}_{\mathrm{Alt}(I)}(i) \cong \mathrm{Alt}(I \smallsetminus \{i\}) \cong \mathrm{Alt}(n-1)$$

and similar statement with Alt replaced by Sym. So (a) and (b) holds. □

Corollary 1.10.19. [**char 60**] *Let H be a finite group of order* 60 *with exactly six Sylow* 5*-subgroups. Then $H \cong \mathrm{Alt}(5)$.*

Proof. By 1.10.15 we may assume that H is a subgroup of $G = \mathrm{Alt}(6)$. Let $I = G/H$ and $i = H \in I$. Note that G acts on I be left multiplication and $H = \mathrm{Stab}_G(i)$. Put $M = \mathrm{Stab}_G(I)$. Then $M \leq \mathrm{Stab}_G(i) = H$. By 1.10.15 H is simple and so $M = 1$ or $M = H$.

If $M = H$, then $H \trianglelefteq G$ and since $5 \nmid G/H$, $\mathrm{Syl}_5(G) = \mathrm{Syl}_5(H)$. But $\mathrm{Alt}(6)$ has $\frac{6\cdot5\cdot4\cdot3\cdot2}{5} = 36 \cdot 4$ 5-cycles and so $\frac{36\cdot4}{5-1} = 36$ Sylow 5 subgroups, a contradiction since H has only 6 Sylow 5-subgroups.

Thus $M = 1$. Hence G acts faithfully on I and since $|I| = \frac{|G|}{|H|} = 6$, 1.10.18 shows that $H = \mathrm{Stab}_G(i) \cong \mathrm{Alt}(5)$. □

1.11 Coproducts and free groups

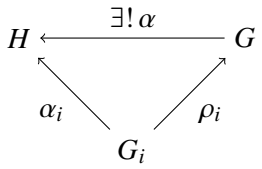
[**sec:coproduct**]

Having looked at the direct product and direct sum of groups we now define the coproduct of a family of groups:

Definition 1.11.1. [**def:coproduct**] *Let $(G_i)_{i\in I}$ be a family of groups. A* coproduct *of $(G_i)_{i\in I}$ is a pair $\big(G, (\rho_i)_{i\in I}\big)$, where G is a group and each ρ_i, $i \in I$, is homomorphism from G_i to G, with the following property:*

Whenever H is a group and $(\alpha_i : G_i \to H)_{i\in I}$ a family of homomorphisms, then there exists a unique homomorphism $\alpha : G \to H$ with $\alpha_i = \alpha \circ \rho_i$ for all $i \in I$.

As usual we summarize the definition in a commutative diagram:



On an intuitive level this group is the largest group which contains the G_i's and is generated by them. Notice also that the defintion of the coproduct is nearly identical to the defintion of the direct product. The difference is that all the arrows are reversed, that is a map fro A to B is replaced by a map from B to A. But it turns out the the coproduct is much harder to construct. We will proceed in three steps:

Step 1 [**cosets**] Construction of coproduct X set-theoretic coproduct of $(G_i)_{i\in I}$.

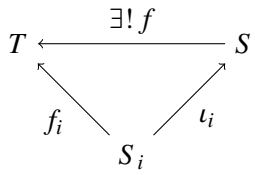
Step 2 [**freemon**] Construction of the free monoid W for X.

Step 3 [**wapprox**] Definition of an equivalence relation $\approx$ on W.

The coproduct then will defined as $W/\approx$.

Definition 1.11.2. [**def: coproduct sets**] *Let $(S_i)_{i\in I}$ be a family of sets. A (set-theoretic) coproduct of $(S_i)_{i\in I}$ of $(S_i)_{i\in I}$ is pair $\left(S,(\iota_i)_{i\in I}\right)$ where S is a set and each $\iota_i, i\in I$ is function $\iota_i : S_i \to S$, with the following property:*

Whenever T is a set and $(f_i : S_i \to T)_{i\in I}$ is a family of functions, then there exists a unique function $f : S \to T$ with $f_i = f \circ \iota_i$ for all $i \in I$.



Lemma 1.11.3. [**uniqueness set coproduct**] *Let $(S_i)_{i\in I}$ be a family of sets. Let $\left(S,(\iota_i)_{i\in I}\right)$ be a coproduct of $(S_i)_{i\in I}$, T a set and $(f_i : S_i \to T)$ a family of function. Let $f : S \to T$ be the unique function with $f_i = f \circ \iota_i$ for all $i \in I$. Then f is bijection, if and only if $(T,(f_i)_{i\in I})$ is a coproduct of $(S_i)_{i\in I}$.*

Proof. Let R be a set, $(g_i : S_i \to R)_{i\in I}$ a family of functions and $g : T \to R$ a function. Then

$$(*) \qquad g_i = g \circ f_i \text{ for all } i \in I$$

if and only if $g_i = (g \circ f) \circ \iota_i$ for all $i \in I$ and so if and only if

$$(**) \qquad g \circ f = h$$

where $h : S \to R$ is the unique function with $g = h \circ \iota_i$ for all $i \in I$.

If ι is a bijection, then $g = h^\circ f^{-1}$ is the unique function fulfilling (**) and so $(T,(f_i)_{i\in I})$ is a coproduct of $(S_i)_{i\in I}$.

Suppose now that $(T,(f_i)_{i\in I})$ is a coproduct of $(S_i)_{i\in I}$. Then there exists a unique function $g : T \to S$ with $\iota_i = g \circ f_i$ for all $i \in I$. The unique function $h : S \to S$ with $\iota_i = h \circ \iota_i$ is $h = \mathrm{id}_S$. Since (*) is equivalent to (**) this shows that $g \circ f = \mathrm{id}_S$. By symmetry $f \circ g = \mathrm{id}_T$ and so f is a bijection. □

Definition 1.11.4. [**def:disjoint**] *Let $(S_i)_{i\in I}$ be a family of sets.*

(a) [**a**]

$$\bigcup_{i\in I}^{\cdot} S_i = \{(s,i) \mid i \in I, s \in S_i\}$$

$\bigcup^{\cdot}_{i\in I} S_i$ *is called the disjoint union of* $(S_i)_{i\in I}$..

(b) [**b**] *We say that* $(S_i)_{i\in I}$ *is pairwise disjoint if* $S_i \cap S_j = \varnothing$ *for all* $i, j \in I$ *with* $i \neq j$.

(c) [**c**] *Let* S *be a set. We say that* S *is the internal disjoint union of* $(S_i)_{i\in I}$ *and write*

$$S = \overset{\text{int}}{\bigcup_{i\in I}^{\cdot}} S_i$$

if $S = \bigcup_{i\in I} S_i$ *and* $(S_i)_{i\in I}$ *is pairwise disjoint.*

Lemma 1.11.5. [**coproduct sets**] *Let* $(S_i)_{i\in I}$ *be a set. Put* $S = \bigcup^{\cdot}_{i\in I} S_i$ *and for* $i \in I$ *define* $\iota_i : S_i \to S, s \to (s,i)$. *Then* $\left(S, (\iota_i)_{i\in I}\right)$ *is a set-theoretic coproduct of* $(S_i)_{i\in I}$.

Proof. Let T be a set and $(f_i : S_i \to T)$ be a family of function. Let $f : S \to T$ be a function. Then the following are equivalent:

$$\begin{array}{lcr} & f_i = f \circ \iota_i & \text{for all } i \in I \\ \iff & f_i(s) = f(\iota_i(s)) & \text{for all } i \in I, s \in S_i \\ \iff & f_i(s) = f(i,s) & \text{for all } (i,s) \in S \end{array}$$

Thus the function

$$f : S \to T, \quad (i,s) \to f_i(s)$$

is the unique function from S to I with $f_i = f \circ \iota_i$ for all $i \in I$. So $(S, (\iota_i)_{i\in I}$ is indeed a coproduct of $(S_i)_{i\in I}$. □

Lemma 1.11.6. [**internal disjoint**] *Let* $(S_i)_{i\in I}$ *be a family of subset of the set* S. *Define*

$$\iota : \bigcup_{i\in i}^{\cdot} S_i \to S, \quad (s,i) \to s$$

Then the following statements are equivalent

(a) [**a**] *For each* $s \in S$ *there exist a unique* $i \in I$ *with* $s \in S_i$.

(b) [**b**] $S = \bigcup^{\text{int}}_{i\in I} S_i$.

(c) [**c**] ι *is a bijection.*

(d) [**d**] $\left(S, (\mathrm{id}_{S_i})_{i\in I}\right)$ *is a coproduct of* $(S_i)_{i\in I}$.

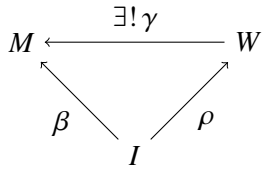
Proof. (a) $\iff$ (b) : The existence statement in (a) holds if and only if $S = \bigcup_{i\in I} S_i$. The uniqueness statement holds holds if and only if $S_i \cap S_j \neq \varnothing$ implies $i = j$, that is if and only if $(S_i)_{i\in I}$ is pairwise disjoint.

(b) $\iff$ (c) : Let $s \in S$. Then $s = \iota(r,i)$ for some $(r,i) \in \dot\bigcup_{i\in I} S_i$ if and only if $s = r$ and $s \in S_i$ for some $i \in R$. Thus $\iota^{-1}(s) = \{(s,i) \mid i \in I, s \in S_i\}$. Hence ι is onto if and only if $S = \bigcup_{i\in I} S_i$ and ι is $1-1$ if and only if $S_i \cap S_j \neq \varnothing$ implies $i = j$.

(c) $\iff$ (d) : By 1.11.3 (c) and (d) are equivalent. □

Definition 1.11.7. [**def:free monoid**] *Let I be a set. A free monoid for I is pair (W,ρ), where W is a monoid and $\rho : I \to W$ is a function, with the following property*

Whenever M is monoid and $\beta : I \to M$ is a function then there exists a unique homomorphism of monoids $\gamma : W \to M$ with $\beta = \gamma \circ \rho$.



Proposition 1.11.8. [**free monoid**] *Let I be a set and let M_I be the set of all tuples $(i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_n)$, where $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $i_j \in I$ for all $1 \leq j \leq n$. For $i = (i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_n)$ and $j = (j_1, \ldots j_m)$ in M_I define*

$$ij = (i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_n, j_1, \ldots j_m)$$

Then

(a) [**a**] *M_I is a monoid.*

(b) [**b**] *The map $\rho : I \to M_I, i \to (i)$ is 1-1.*

(c) [**c**] *(M_I, ρ) is a free monoid for I.*

Proof. (a) The binary operation is clearly associative and $()$ is an identity element.

(b) Obvious.

(c) Let M be a monoid and $\beta : I \to M$ a function. Define $\gamma((i_1, \ldots, i_n)) = \beta(i_1)\beta(i_2)\ldots\beta(i_n))$ where as usually the empty product is defined to be 1_M. This is clearly a homomorphism and $\beta = \gamma \circ \rho$.

Conversely if $\delta : M_I \to M$ is a homomorphism with $\beta = \delta \circ \rho$. Then

$$\delta\big((i_1, i_2, \ldots i_n)\big) = \delta\big(\rho(i_1)\rho(i_2)\ldots\rho(i_n)\big) = \delta\big(\rho(i_1)\big)\delta\big(\rho(i_2)\big)\ldots\delta\big(\rho(i_n)\big) = \beta(i_1)\ldots\beta(i_n)$$

So γ is a unique. Thus (M_I, ρ) is indeed a free monoid on I. □

Remark 1.11.9. [**rm:free monoid**] *Let I be a set. By 1.11.8 there exists a free monoid (M_I, ρ) and ρ is 1-1. So we can identify $i \in I$ with $\rho(i)$ and obtain a free monoid of the form (M_I, id_I). Then each element $w \in M_I$ can be uniquely written as*

$$w = i_1 i_2 \dots i_n$$

with $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $i_1, \dots, i_n \in I$. n is called the length of w and is denoted by $l(w)$. Moreover, the multiplication is given by

$$(i_1 \dots i_n)(j_1 \dots j_m) = i_1 \dots i_n j_1 \dots j_m$$

Lemma 1.11.10. [**G mod approx**] *Let $(G, \cdot)$ be a magma, $\sim$ a relation on G and $\approx$ the equivalence relation on G generated by $\sim$. Suppose that $ab \approx ac$ and $ba \approx ca$ for all $a, b, c \in G$ with $b \sim c$.*

(a) [**a**] *The map $* : G/\!\approx \times G/\!\approx \to G/\!\approx$, $([a],[b]) \to [ab]$ is a well-defined binary operation.*

(b) [**b**] *If $\cdot$ is associative, then $*$ is associative.*

(c) [**c**] *If 1 is an identity in G, then $[1]$ is an identity in $G/\!\approx$.*

(d) [**d**] *Suppose G is a monoid and H is a subset of G such*

- *(i)* [**i**] *G is generated by H as a monoid.*
- *(ii)* [**ii**] *For each $h \in H$ there exists $h' \in G$ with $hh' \approx 1 \approx hh'$.*

Then $G/\!\approx$ is a group.

Proof. (a) Let $a, b, c, d \in G$ with $a \approx c$ and $b \approx d$. Define $f : G \to G, x \to xb$. Since $x \sim y$ implies $xb \sim yb$, 1.5.5 shows that $a \approx c$ implies $ab \approx cb$. Choosing $f : G \to G, x \to cx$ instead, shows that $b \approx d$ implies $cb \approx cd$. Since $\approx$ is transitive this gives $ab \approx cd$ and so $*$ is well-defined.

(b) and (c) follows easily from the definition of $*$.

(d) Let $h \in H$. Then $[hh'] = [1] = [hh']$ and so $[h]$ is invertible in $G/\!\approx$. Put

$$K := \{g \in G \mid [g] \text{ is invertible in } G/\!\approx\}$$

Then $H \subseteq K$ and $e \in K$. let $a, b \in K$. Then by 1.2.3(d), $[ab] = [a][b]$ is invertible. Hence $ab \in K$ and K is a submonoid of G. Thus (d:i) implies $K = G$. Hence every $[g]$ for $g \in G$ is invertible. Together with (b) and (c) we conclude that $G/\!\approx$ is a group. □

Theorem 1.11.11. [**CoGr**] *Let $(G_i)_{i\in I}$ be a family of groups. Let $\left(X, (\iota_i)_{i\in I}\right)$ be coproduct of the family of sets $(G_i)_{i\in I}$ and put $G_i^\bullet = \iota_i(G_i)$. (So $X = \dot\bigcup_{i\in I} G_i = \dot\bigcup_{i\in I}^{\mathrm{int}} G_i^\bullet$). Let $1_i = \iota_i\left(1_{G_i}\right)$. Let (W, id_X) be a free monoid on X. We denote the binary operation on W by $*$ and the binary operation on $G_i^\bullet$ (for $i \in I$) by $\cdot$. Define the relation $\sim$ on W by $v \sim w$ if one of the following holds:*

- *(i)* [**i**] *There exist $x, y \in W$, $i \in I$ and $a, b \in G_i^\bullet$ with $w = x * a * b * y$ and $v = x * (a \cdot b) * y$*
- *(ii)* [**ii**] *There exists $x, y \in W$ and $i \in I$ with $w = x * 1_i * y$ and $v = x * y$.*

Let $\approx$ be the equivalence relation on W generated by $\sim$. Then $W/\approx$ is a group under the well-defined operation

$$W/\approx \times W/\approx \to W/\approx, \quad [v][w] \to [vw].$$

Moreover,

$$\rho_i : G_i \to W/\approx, \quad g \to [\iota_i(g)]$$

is a group homomorphism and

$$\big(W/\approx, (\rho_i)_{i\in I}\big)$$

is a coproduct of the family of groups $(G_i)_{i\in I}$.

Proof. To simplify notation we assume without loss that the G_i's are pairwise disjoint. So $\iota_i = \mathrm{id}_{G_i}$ and $X = \dot\bigcup_{i\in I}^{\mathrm{int}} G_i$.

Note that the defintion of $\sim$ implies that if $u, v, w \in W$ with $v \sim w$, then also $u * v \sim u * w$ and $v * u \sim w * u$. Thus by 1.11.10 $W/\approx$ is a monoid with identity $[()]$.

Let $i \in I$ and $a, b \in G_i$. We will apply (i) and (ii) with $x = y = ()$. By (i)

(1) $$a * b \sim a \cdot b \text{ and so } [a] * [b] = [a \cdot b]$$

By (ii)

$$1_i \sim () \text{ and so } [1_i] = [()]$$

If follows that $a * a^{-1} \approx a \cdot a^{-1} = 1_i \approx ()$. Thus by 1.11.10(d) $W/\approx$ is a group.

Define $\rho_i : G_i \to W/\approx, g \to [g]$. Then by (1), ρ_i is a homomorphism.

Now let H be a group and $(\alpha_i : G_i \to H)_{i\in I}$ a family of homomorphism. Define $\beta : X \to H$ by $\beta(x) = \alpha_i(w)$ if $i \in I$ with $x \in G_i$. Note here that i is uniquely determined since the G_i's are pairwise disjoint. By 1.11.8(c) there exists a unique homomorphism $\gamma : W \to H$ with $\gamma(x) = \beta(x)$ for all $x \in X$ and so $\gamma(a) = \alpha_i(a)$ for all $a \in G_i$.

We claim that $\gamma(v) = \gamma(w)$ whenever $v \approx w$. By 1.5.5 applied with $f = \gamma$ and $\approx$==, it suffices to show that $\gamma(v) = \gamma(w)$ whenever $v \sim w$.

Suppose first that (i) holds. Then $w = x * a * b * y$ and $v = x * (a \cdot b) * y$ for some $x, y \in W$, $i \in I$ and $a, b \in G_i$ Hence

$$\gamma(w) = \gamma(x)\gamma(a)\gamma(b)\gamma(y) = \gamma(x)\big(\alpha_i(a)\alpha_i(b)\big)\gamma(y) =$$
$$\gamma(x)\alpha_i(a \cdot b)\gamma(y) = \gamma(x)\gamma(a \cdot b)\gamma(y) = \gamma(v).$$

Suppose next that (ii) holds. Then $w = x * 1_i * y$ and $v = x * y$ for some $x, y \in W$ and $i \in I$ Hence

$$\gamma(w) = \gamma(x)\gamma(1_i)\gamma(y) = \gamma(x)\alpha_i(1_i)\gamma(y) = \gamma(x)1_H\gamma(y) = \gamma(x)\gamma(y) = \gamma(v).$$

By the claim we get a well defined map $\alpha : W/\approx \to H, [w] \to \gamma(w)$. Also as γ is a homomorphism, α is, too.

Suppose now that $\delta : W/\approx H$ is a homomorphism with $\alpha_i = \delta \circ \rho_i$ for all $i \in I$. Define $\delta^* : W \to H$ be $\delta^*(w) = \delta([w])$. Let $x \in X$. Then $x \in G_i$ for some $i \in I$. We have $\delta^*(x) = \delta(\rho_i(x)) = \alpha_i(x) = \beta(x) = \gamma(x)$ and since W is the free monoid on X, $\delta^* = \gamma$. Thus for all $w \in W$, $\delta([w]) = \delta^*(w) = \gamma(w) = \alpha([w])$, and so α is unique. □

Lemma 1.11.12. [**rhoi 1-1**] *Let $\left(G, (\rho_i)_{i\in I}\right)$ be a coproduct of the family of groups $(G_i)_{i\in I}$.*

(a) [**a**] *Each ρ_j, $j \in I$, is 1-1.*

(b) [**b**] $G = \langle \rho_i(G_i) \mid i \in I \rangle$.

Proof. (a) Fix $j \in I$. For $i \in I$ we will define homomorphism $G_i \to G_j$ as follows:

If $i = j$ put $\alpha_i = \mathrm{id}_{G_i}$.

If $i \neq j$ define α_i by $\alpha_i(g) = 1_{G_j}$ for all $g \in G_i$.

Then by definition of the coproduct there exists a homomorphism $\alpha : G \to G_j$ with $\alpha_i = \alpha \circ \rho_i$ for all $i \in I$. For $i = j$ we conclude,

$$\mathrm{id}_{G_j} = \alpha \circ \rho_j$$

Note that this implies that ρ_j is 1-1.

(b) Let $H = \langle \rho_i(G_i) \mid i \in I \rangle$. Then $(\rho_i)_{i\in I}$ is also a family of homomorphism $\rho_i : G_i \to H$. Thus there exists a homomorphism $\alpha : G \to H$ with $\rho_i = \alpha \circ \rho_i$ for all $i \in I$. Note that α is also a homomorphism from G to G, and that id_G is a homomorphism from G to G with $\rho_i = \mathrm{id}_G \circ \rho_i$ for all $i \in I$. So by the uniqueness assertion in the definition of a coproduct, $\alpha = \mathrm{id}_G$. Hence

$$G = \mathrm{Im}\,\mathrm{id}_G = \mathrm{Im}\,\alpha \leq H \leq G$$

So indeed $G = H = \langle \rho_i(G_i) \mid i \in I \rangle$. □

Proposition 1.11.13. [**reduced words**] *Let $(G_i)_{i\in I}$ be a pairwise disjoint family of groups. Let 1_i be the identity in G_i. Let $X = \bigcup_{i\in I} G_i$ and let (W, id_X) be a free monoid for X. Let $\approx$ be the equivalence relation introduced in 1.11.11. Let $w \in W$ and let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $i_k \in I$ and $x_k \in G_{i_k}$ with $w = x_1 \dots x_n$. Call w reduced if*

(i) [**a**] *$x_k \neq 1_{i_k}$ for all $1 \leq k \neq n$.*

(ii) [**b**] *$i_{k-1} \neq i_k$ for all $2 \leq k \leq n$.*

Then for each $w \in W$ there exists a unique reduced $w_r \in W$ with $w \approx w_r$. So if W_r is the set of reduced elements, the function

$$W_r \to W/\approx, \quad u \to [u]$$

is a bijection with well-defined inverse

$$W/\approx \to\ W_r, \quad [w] \to w_r$$

Proof.

1°. [**0**] *Let $w \in W$. Then w is reduced if and only if there does not exists $v \in W$ with $v \sim w$.*

Indeed, let $w = x_1 \dots x_n$ with $x_k \in X$. Then definition of $\sim$ shows that there exists $v \in W$ with $v \sim w$ if and only if either $x_k = 1_{i_k}$ for some $1 \leq k \leq n$ or $i_{k-1} = i_k$ for some $2 \leq k \leq n$. Note that this just means that w is not reduced.

Define the relation $\leq$ on W by $v \leq w$ if there exists $m \in N$ and an m-tuple $(v_0, v_1, \dots, v_m)$ in W such that

$$v_0 = v, v_m = w \text{ and } v_{k-1} \sim v_k \text{ for all } 1 \leq k \leq m$$

The following assertion follow immediately from the definitions:

2°. [**0.5**]

(a) [**0.5a**] *$\leq$ is reflexive and transitive.*

(b) [**0.5b**] *If $v \leq w$, then $l(v) \leq l(w)$, with equality if and only if $v = w$.*

(c) [**0.5c**] *$v \leq w$ implies $v \approx w$.*

Next we prove:

3°. [**1**] *For each $w \in W$ there exists a reduced word $v \in W$ with $v \leq w$.*

Choose $v \in V$ with $v \leq w$ and $l(v)$ minimal. If v is not reduced, then by (1°), $u \sim v$ for some $u \in W$. But then $l(u) = l(v) - 1 < l(v)$ and $u \leq w$, a contradiction to the choice of v.

4°. [**2.5**] *Let $v_1, v_2, w \in W$ with $v_1 \sim W$ and $v_2 \sim w$. Then there exists $v \in W$ with $v \leq v_1$ and $v \leq v_2$.*

Let $l \in \{1, 2\}$. Since $v_l \sim w$, one of the following holds:

(li) [**li**] There exist $d_l, e_l \in W$, $j_l \in J$ and $a_l, b_l \in G_{j_l}$ with $w = d_l * a_l * b_l * e_l$ and $v_l = d_l * (a_l \cdot b_l) * e_l$.

(lii) [**lii**] There exist $d_l, e_l \in W$, $j_l \in J$ with $w = d_l * 1_{j_l} * e_l$ and $v_l = d_l * e_l$.

Since we have two cases for $l = 1$ and $l = 2$ each, we will have two consider four different cases:

Case 1. [**1i2i**] *$(1i)$ and $(2i)$ holds, that is*

$$w = d_1 * a_1 * b_1 * e_1 \qquad v_1 = d_1 * (a_1 \cdot b_1) * e_1$$
$$w = d_2 * a_2 * b_2 * e_2 \qquad v_2 = d_2 * (a_2 \cdot b_2) * e_2$$

We may assume without loss that $l(d_2) \geq l(d_1)$.
Suppose first that $l(d_2) \geq l(d_1) + 2$. Then $d_2 = d_1 * a_1 * b_1 * d$ for some $d \in W$. Thus

$$w = d_1 * a_1 * b_1 * d * a_2 * b_2 * e_2, v_1 = d_1 * (a_1 \cdot b_1) * d * a_2 * b_2 * e_2, v_2 = d_1 * a_1 * b_1 * d * (a_2 \cdot b_2) * e_2$$

Put

$$v = d_1 * (a_1 \cdot b_1) * d * (a_2 \cdot b_2) * e_2.$$

Then $v \sim v_1$ and $v \sim v_2$ and so (4°) hold.
Suppose that $l(d_2) = l(d_1) + 1$. Then $d_2 = d_1 * a_1$ and $b_1 = a_2$. Thus

$$w = d_1 * a_1 * b_1 * b_2 * e_2, v_1 = d_1 * (a_1 \cdot b_1) * b_2 * e_2, v_2 = d_1 * a_1 * (b_1 \cdot b_2) * e_2$$

Choose $v = d_1 * (a_1 \cdot b_1 * b_2) * e_2$. Then $v \sim v_1$ and $v \sim v_2$ and (4°) holds.
Suppose that $l(d_2) = l(d_1)$. Then $d_1 = d_2$, $v_1 = v_2$ and we can choose $v = v_1 = v_2$.

Case 2. [**1i2ii**] $(1i)$ *and* $(2ii)$ *holds, that is*

$$w = d_1 * a_1 * b_1 * e_1 \qquad v_1 = d_1 * (a_1 \cdot b_1) * e_1$$
$$w = d_2 * 1_{j_2} * e_2 \qquad v_2 = d_2 * e_2$$

Suppose first that $l(d_1) > l(d_2)$. Then $d_1 = d_2 * 1_{j_2} * d$ for some $d \in W$. Thus

$$w = d_2 * 1_{j_2} * d * a_1 * b_1 * e_1, v_1 = d_2 * 1_{j_2} * d * (a_1 \cdot b_1) * e_1, v_2 = d_2 * d * a_1 * b_1 * e_1$$

Put $v = d_2 * d * (a_1 \cdot b_1) * e_1$. Then $v \sim v_1$ and $v \sim v_2$. So (4°) holds.
Suppose that $l(d_1) = l(d_2)$. Then $d_1 = d_2$, $j_1 = j_2$ and $a_1 = 1_{j_1} = 1_{j_2}$.
Thus

$$w = d_1 * 1_{j_1} * b_1 * e_2, \quad v_1 = d_1 * (1_{j_1} \cdot b_1) * e_2 \quad v_2 = d_1 * b_1 * e_2$$

Thus $v_1 = v_2$ and we can choose $v_1 = v_2$.
If $l(d_1) + 1 = l(d_2)$ we have $1_{j_2} = b_1$ and similar argument as in case $l(d_1) = l(d_2)$ shows that $v_1 = v_2$ (In fact fact we could apply the $l(d_1) = l(d_2)$ result to opposite groups of W and G_i to treat this case.)

The case $l(d_1) + 2 \geq l(d_2)$ is similar to $l(d_1) < l(d_2)$ case. and can also by deduced from that case by looking at the opposite groups.

Case 3. [**1ii2i**] $(1ii)$ *and* $(2i)$ *holds*

Follows from the previous case with the roles of v_1 and v_2 interchanged.

Case 4. [**1ii2ii**] $(1ii)$ *and* $(2i)$ *holds, that is*

$$w = d_1 * 1_{j_1} * e_1 \qquad v_1 = d_1 * e_1$$
$$w = d_2 * 1_{j_2} * e_2 \qquad v_2 = d_2 * e_2$$

We may assume that $l(d_2) \geq l(d_1)$.
Suppose that $l(d_1) = l(d_2)$, then $d_1 = d_2$ and $v_1 = v_2$. So we can choose $v = v_1 = v_2$.
So suppose $l(d_2) > l(d_1)$. Then $d_2 = d_1 1_{j_1} d$ for some $d \in W$ and so

$$w = d_1 * 1_{j_1} * d * 1_{j_2} * e_2, \quad v_1 = d_1 * d * 1_{j_2} * e_2 \quad v_2 = d_1 * 1_{j_1} * d * e_2$$

Put $v = d_1 * d * e_2$. Then $v \sim v_1$ and $v \sim v_2$ and so $(4°)$ also holds in this last sub case.

5°. [**2**] *For each $w \in W$ there exists a unique reduced word $w_r \in W$ with $w_r \leq w$.*

The existence has been established in $(3°)$. For the uniqueness let z_1 and z_2 be reduced with $z_i \leq w$.

If $z_1 = w$ then w is reduced. So there does not exist $y \in W$ with $y \sim w$ and so $z_2 \leq w$ implies $z_2 = w = z_1$. So we may assume that $z_1 \neq w \neq z_2$.

By definition of $\leq$ there exist $v_i \in W$ with $z_i \leq v_i \sim w$.

By $(4°)$ there exists $v \in W$ with $v \leq v_1$ and $v \leq v_2$. By $(3°)$ there exist a reduced $z \in W$ with $z \leq v$. Since $\leq$ is transitive, $z \leq v_l$ for $l = 1, 2$. Since also z_l is reduced with $z_i \leq v_i$ and since v_i has length less than w, we conclude by induction that $z = z_l$. Thus $z_1 = z = z_2$ and $(5°)$ is proved.

6°. [**3**] *Let $v, w \in W$. Then $v \approx w$ if and only $v_r = w_r$.*

If $v_r = w_r$, then $v \approx v_r = w_r \approx w$ and so $v \approx w$.

Suppose that $v \sim w$. Since $v_r \leq v$ and $\leq$ is transitive, $v_r \leq w$. Since v_r is reduced, $(5°)$ gives that $v_r = v_w$. We have shows that $v \sim w$ implies $v_r \sim w_r$. By 1.5.5 applies with $f : W \to W, w \to w_r$ and $\approx$== we conclude that also $v \approx w$ implies $v_r = w_r$.

7°. [**4**] *Let $w \in W$ then w_r is the unique reduced word with $w \approx w_r$.*

Let $v \in W$ be reduced. Then $v_r = v$ and so by $(6°)$, $v \approx w$ if and only if $v = w_r$. □

1.11.14 (Products of reduced elements)**.** [**wrwr**] Note that W_r is usually not closed under multiplication (unless all G_i but one of the G_i's are trivial. But it is not difficult to figure out what the reduction of the product is. Indeed let $x = x_1 x_1 \dots x_n$ and $y = y_0 y_1 \dots y_m$ be reduced words. Let $0 \leq s \leq \min(n, m+1)$ be maximal with $y_t^{-1} = x_{n-t}$ for all $0 \leq t < s$. Then

$$xy \approx x_1 x_2 \dots x_{n-s} y_s y_{s+1} \dots y_m$$

If $s = n$, $s = m + 1$ or x_{n-s} and y_s are not contained in a common G_i this is the reduction of xy.
On the other hand if x_{n-s} and y_s both are contained in G_i, then

$$xy \approx x_1, \dots x_{n-s-1}(x_{n-s} \cdot y_s) y_{s+1} \dots y_m$$

By maximality of s, $x_{n-s} \cdot y_s \neq 1_i$ and it is easy to seen that the element on the right hand side of the last equation is reduced, and so is the reduction of xy.

Remark 1.11.15. [**rm:coproducts monoid**] *Coproducts also exists for semigroups and for monoids. Indeed, everything we did for groups carries over with one exception though. In case of semigroups we do not include the empty tuple in the sets of words and omit 1.11.11(ii) in the definition of $v \sim w$.*

Example 1.11.16. [**ex:coproduct**] Let $A \cong B \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$. We will compute $D = A \coprod B$. To simply notation we identify $x \in A \cup B$ with its image in D. In particular $1 := 1_G = 1_A = 1_B$, $\rho_A = \mathrm{id}_A$ and $\rho_B = \mathrm{id}_B$. Let $1 \neq a \in A$ and $1 \neq b \in B$. Then every elements in D has one of the following forms:

$$1$$
$$\underbrace{(ab)(ab)\dots(ab)}_{n \text{ times}}$$
$$\underbrace{(ba)(ba)\dots(ba)}_{n \text{ times}}$$
$$b\underbrace{(ab)(ab)\dots(ab)}_{n \text{ times}}$$
$$a\underbrace{(ba)(ba)\dots(ba)}_{n \text{ times}}$$

Put $z = ab$. Then $z^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1} = ba$. So the above list now reads

$$z^0, z^n, z^{-n}, bz^n, \text{ and } az^{-n}.$$

Note that

$$bz^n = b(ab)^n = (aa)b(ab)^n = a(ab) = (ab)^{n+1} = az^{n+1}$$

and so

$$D = \{z^n, az^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

It is also easy to compute the product of two elements in D: Observe that

$$z^n a = a(ba)^{n-1}ba = az^{-n}$$

and so

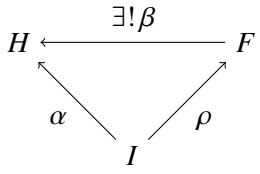
$$z^n * z^m = z^{n+m}, \quad z^n * az^m = az^{m-n}, \quad az^n * z^m = az^{n+m}, \quad az^n * az^m = aaz^{-n}z^m = z^{m-n}$$

This can be combined in one formula: Define $\epsilon(0) = 1$ and $\epsilon(1) = -1$. Then for $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $i, j \in \{0, 1\}$:

$$(a^i z^n) * (a^j z^m) = a^{i+j} z^{\epsilon(j)n+m}$$

Definition 1.11.17. [**def:free group**] *Let I be a set. A free group generated by I is pair (F, ρ), where F is group and $\rho : I \to F_I$ is a function, with the following property:*

Whenever H is a group and $\alpha : I \to H$ is a function, then there exists a unique homomorphism $\beta : F \to H$ with $\alpha = \beta \circ \rho$.



Lemma 1.11.18. [**free product**] *Let I be a set. Then there exists a free group generated by I.*

Proof. For $i \in I$ let $G_i = (\mathbb{Z}, +)$ and let $\left(F, (\rho_i)_{i \in I}\right)$ be a coproduct of $(G_i)_{i \in I}$. Define $\rho : I \to F$, $i \to \rho_i(1)$. Now let H be a group and $\alpha : I \to H$ be function. Define

$$\alpha_i : G_i \to H, m \to \alpha(i)^m.$$

Since $h^{n+m} = h^n h^m$ for all $h \in H, n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$, α_i is a homomorphism. So by definition of the coproduct of $(G_i)_{i \in I}$ there exists a unique homomorphism $\beta : F_I \to H$, with $\alpha_i = \beta \circ \rho_i$. Then

$$\alpha(i) = \alpha_i(1) = \beta(\rho_i(1)) = \beta(\rho(i))$$

and so $\alpha = \beta \circ \rho$. Suppose also $\gamma : F \to H$ fulfills $\alpha = \gamma \circ \rho$. Then for all $m \in G_i$,

$$\alpha_i(m) = \alpha(i)^m = \gamma(\rho(i))^m = \gamma(\rho_i(1)^m) = \gamma(\rho_i(m))$$

Hence $\alpha_i = \gamma \circ \rho_i$ and so by the uniqueness assertion in the definition of the coproduct $\beta = \gamma$. □

Lemma 1.11.19. [**rho 1-1 in f**] *Let (F, ρ) be a free group generated by I. Then ρ is 1-1.*

Proof. Let H be any non-trivial group and $1 \neq h \in H$. Let $j \in J$ and define $\alpha : I \to H$ by

$$\alpha(j) = \begin{cases} h & \text{if } i = j \\ 1 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

Then there exists a homomorphism $\beta : F \to H$ with $\alpha = \beta \circ \rho$. Then for $i \in I$ with $i \neq j$.

$$\beta(\left(\rho(i)\right) = \alpha(i) = 1 \neq h = \alpha(j)\beta(\left(\rho(i)\right)$$

and so $\rho(i) \neq \rho(j)$. □

In view of the preceding lemma we can identify $i \in I$ with $\rho(i)$ in F. This gives rise to the following

Notation 1.11.20. [**not:free**] *Let I be a set. Then F_I is a group with $I \subseteq F_I$ such that (F_I, id_I) is a free group generated by I.*

1.11.21 (Reduced words in free groups)**.** [**free reduced**] Let I be a set and $G_i = \langle i \rangle = \{i^m \mid m \in \mathbb{Z}\}$, the subgroup of F_I generated by I. Then by proof of 1.11.18 $G_i \cong \mathbb{Z}$ and F_I is the co-product of the $(G_i)_{i\in I}$. So by 1.11.13 each element in F_I can be uniquely written as $g_1 g_2 \dots g_k$ where $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $g_j \in G_{i_j}$, $g_j \neq 1_{G_{i_j}}$ for all $1 \leq j \leq k$ and $i_{j-1} \neq i_j$ for all $2 \leq j < k$. Since $G_{i_j} = \langle i_j \rangle$ we have $g_j = i_j^{m_j}$ for some $0 \neq n_j \in \mathbb{Z}$. Thus every element w in F_I can be uniquely written as

$$(*) \qquad w = i_1^{n_1} i_2^{n_2} \dots i_n^{n_k}$$

where $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $i_j \in I, 0 \neq n_j \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $i_{j-1} \neq i_j$. (*) is called

is called the *reduced form* of w. G be group and $g = (g_i)_{i\in I}$ a family of elements of G. Then by definition of the free group there exists a unique homomorphism $\beta : F_I \to G$ with $g = \beta \circ \mathrm{id}_I$. Note that $g = \beta \circ \mathrm{id}_I$ just means $\beta(i) = g_i$ for all $i \in I$. Thus

$$\beta(i_1^{n_1} i_2^{n_2} \dots i_k^{n_k}) = g_{i_1}^{n_1} g_{i_2}^{n_2} \dots g_{i_k}^{n_k}$$

Definition 1.11.22. [**def:group relation**] *Let I be a set.*

(a) [**a**] *A* group relation *is an ordered pair (v, w) with $v, w \in F_I$. We will usually denoted such an ordered pair by $v \equiv w$.*

(b) [**b**] *Let G be a group and $(g_i)_{i\in I}$ a family of elements in G. We say that $(g_i)_{i\in I}$ fulfills the relation $v \equiv w$ provided that $\beta(v) = \beta(w)$, where β is the unique homomorphism from F_I to G with $\beta(i) = g_i$ for all $i \in I$.*

Let $v, w \in F_I$ with $v = i_1^{n_1} \dots i_k^{n_k}$ and $w = j_1^{m_1} \dots j_l^{m_l}$. Then $(g_i)_{i\in I}$ fulfills the relation

$$i_1^{n_1} \dots i_k^{n_k} \equiv j_1^{m_1} \dots j_l^{m_l}$$

if and only if

$$g_{i_1}^{n_1} \dots g_{i_k}^{n_k} = g_{j_1}^{m_1} \dots g_{j_l}^{m_l}$$

Example 1.11.23. [**ex:relation**] Let $I = \{a, b\}$, $G = \mathrm{Sym}(3)$ and consider the relation $aba^{-1} \equiv b^{-1}$.

Do $g_a = (12)$ and $g_b = (123)$ fulfill the relation? In other words is

$$(12) \circ (123) \circ (12)^{-1} \stackrel{?}{=} (123)^{-1}$$

The left hand side is (213) and the right hand side is (321), both of which are equal to (132). So the answer is yes.

Do $h_a = (12)$ and $h_b = (23)$ fulfill the relation?

$$(12) \circ (23) \circ (12)^{-1} \stackrel{?}{=} (23)^{-1}$$

The left side is (13) the right side is (23), so this time the answer is no.

Definition 1.11.24. [**def:gens and rels**] *Let I be a set and $\mathcal{R}$ a set of group relations on I. Then a group with generators I and relations $\mathcal{R}$ is a pair $\big(G, (g_i)_{i\in I}\big)$, where G i a group, and t $(g_i)_{i\in I}$ is a family of elements of G such that*

(a) [**i**] *$(g_i)_{i\in I}$ fulfills all the relations in $\mathcal{R}$.*

(b) [**ii**] *Whenever H is a group and $(h_i)_{i\in I}$ is a family of elements of H fulfilling all the relations in $\mathcal{R}$, then there exists a unique homomorphism $\delta : G \to H$ with $\delta(g_i) = h_i$ for all $i \in I$.*

Lemma 1.11.25. [**generators and relation**] *Let I be a set and $\mathcal{R}$ a set of group relations on I. Then there exists a group G with generators I and relations $\mathcal{R}$.*

Proof. Note that the relation $v \equiv w$ is fulfilled if and only if the relation $vw^{-1} \equiv 1$ is fulfilled. So we may assume that $\mathcal{R} = \{r \equiv 1 \mid r \in R\}$ for some subset R of F_I. Put

$$N := \langle {}^{F_I}R \rangle,$$

so N is the intersection of all the normal subgroup of F_I containing R. Put $G = F_I/N$ and let $g_i = iN$ for $i \in N$. Note that

$$\pi_N : F_I \to G, w \to wN$$

is the unique homomorphism from F_I to G with $\pi_N(i) = g_i = iN$. Also

$$\pi_N(r) = rN = N = 1_G$$

for all $r \in R$ and so $(g_i)_{i\in I}$ fulfills all the relation in $\mathcal{R}$.

Now let H be a group and $(h_i)_{i\in I}$ a family of elements of H fulfilling all the relations in $\mathcal{R}$. Let $\beta : F_I \to H$ be the unique homomorphism with $\beta(i) = h_i$ for all $i \in I$. Let $r \in R$. Since $(h_i)_{i\in I}$ fulfills the relation $r \equiv 1$, we have $\beta(r) = 1$. Hence $r \in \ker\beta$ and $R \subseteq \ker\beta$. Since $\ker\beta \trianglelefteq F_I$ and $N = \langle {}^{F_I}R \rangle$, $N \leq \ker'$. It follows that the map

$$\delta : G \to H, wN \to \beta(w)$$

is a well-defined homomorphism. Also $\delta(g_i) = \delta(iN) = \beta(i) = h_i$.

It remains to show that uniqueness δ. So let $\alpha : G \to H$ be a homomorphism with $\alpha(g_i) = h_i$. Then $(\alpha \circ \pi_N)(i) = \alpha(g_i) = h_i$ and so $\alpha \circ \pi_N = \beta$ by uniqueness of β. Hence for all $w \in F_I$, $\alpha(wN) = (\alpha \circ \pi_N)(w) = \beta(w)$ and so $\alpha = \delta$. □

Remark 1.11.26. [**rem:really generated**] *Let $(G, (g_i)_{i\in I})$ be a group with generators I and relations $\mathcal{R}$. Then $G = \langle g_i \mid i \in I \rangle$.*

Proof. This follows from the construction above but can also be proven directly from the definition:

Let $H = \langle g_i \mid i \in I \rangle$. Since $(g_i)_{i\in I}$ is a family of elements in H fulfilling the relations $\mathcal{R}$, there exists a homomorphism $\alpha : G \to H$ with $\alpha(g_i) = g_i$ for all $i \in I$. Note that α is also a homomorphism from G to G, and that id_G is a homomorphism from G to G with $\mathrm{id}_G(g_i) = g_i$ for all $i \in I$. It follows that $\mathrm{id}_G = \alpha$ and so

$$G = \operatorname{Im} \mathrm{id}_G = \operatorname{Im} \alpha \leq H \leq G$$

So indeed $G = H = \langle g_i \mid i \in I \rangle$. □

1.11.27 (Notation in groups with generators and relation)**.** [**not:gens and rels**] Let I be a set and $\mathcal{R}$ a set of group relations on I. Then

$$G = \langle I \mid \mathcal{R} \rangle$$

means that G is a group and there exists a family of elements $(g_i)_{i\in I}$ in G such that $\big(G, (g_i)_{i\in I}\big)$ is group with generators I and relations $\mathcal{R}$. So if

$$(*) \qquad i_1^{n_1} \dots i_k^{n_k} \equiv j_1^{m_1} \dots j_l^{m_l}$$

is one of the relation in $\mathcal{R}$ then

$$(**) \qquad g_{i_1}^{n_1} \dots g_{i_k}^{n_k} = g_{j_1}^{m_1} \dots g_{j_l}^{m_l}.$$

In practical computation is often quite cumbersome to work with elements with subscripts. We therefore often just write a for the element g_a in G. This should be only done if this is clearly from the context that the computation are done in G and that a no longer stands for the element a in F_I. Note also that this is not an identification, since the map $I \to G, a \to g_a$ is (in general) not 1-1. The advantage of this convention is that, replacing all g_a by a, the equation (**) now turns into the easier

$$(***) \qquad i_1^{n_1} \dots i_k^{n_k} = j_1^{m_1} \dots j_l^{m_l}.$$

So the group relation (*) in F_I turns into the actual equality (***) in G.

Example 1.11.28. [**ex:gens and rels**]

1. [**3**] We will show that

$$G := \langle a, b, c \mid ab \equiv c, ab \equiv ba, c^2 \equiv= a, c^3 \equiv= b, c^5 \equiv 1 \rangle$$

is the trivial group.

We will follow the conventions of 1.11.27 and just write a for g_a, b for g_b and c for g_c, that is we treat a, b, c as elements of G, rather than elements of $F_{\{a,b,c\}}$. Then the relations defining G become actual equalities and so $c = ab = c^2c^3 = c^5 = e$. Hence also $a = c^2 = e$ and $b = c^2 = e$. Thus $G = 1$.

2. [**0**] Let G be any group. Let $*$ be the multiplication on F_G and $\cdot$ the multiplication on G. We will show that

$$\langle G \mid a * b \equiv a \cdot b, a, b \in G \rangle$$

is $(G, (g)_{g \in G})$ Indeed if $(H, \diamond)$ is a group and $h = (h_g)_{g \in G}$ is family of elements in H, then h fulfills the relation $a * b \equiv a \cdot b$ if and only if $h_a \diamond h_b = h_{a \cdot b}$ for all $a, b \in H$. In this case

$$\alpha : G \to H, a \to h_a$$

is the unique homomorphism with $\alpha(a) = h_a$ for all $a \in G$.

3. [**4**]

$$G := \langle a, b \mid a^3 \equiv 1, b^3 \equiv 1, (ab)^2 \equiv 1 \rangle$$

To determine G let $z = ab$. Then $z^2 = 1$. We compute

$${}^{a^2}z \cdot {}^{a}z \cdot z = a^2(ab)a^{-2} \cdot a(ab)a^{-1} \cdot ab = a^3b(a^{-2}a^2)b(a^{-1}a)b = a^3b^3 = 1.$$

Since $z^2 = 1$ this implies

$${}^{a^2}z = {}^{a}z \cdot z = z \cdot {}^{a}z, \quad z = {}^{a^2}z \cdot {}^{a}z = {}^{a}z \cdot {}^{a^2}z \quad \text{and} \quad {}^{a}z = {}^{a^2}z \cdot z = z \cdot {}^{a^2}z$$

Thus

$$K := \{1, z, {}^{a}z, {}^{a^2}z\}$$

is a subgroup of G. Now

$${}^{a}({}^{a^2}z) = {}^{a^3}z = {}^{1}z = z.$$

and so $a \in \mathrm{N}_G(K)$. Put $A = \langle a \rangle$. Then $A \leq \mathrm{N}_G(K)$ and so AK is a subgroup of G. It contains a and $z = ab$ and so also $b = a^{-1}z$. Thus $G = \langle a, b \rangle = AB$. Since $a^3 = 1$, $|A| leq 3$. Also $|K| \leq 4$ and so $|G| \leq |A||K| \leq 12$.

Put

$$H = \mathrm{Alt}(4), \quad h_a = (123) \quad h_b = (124)$$

Then $h_a^3 = 1, h_b^3 = 1$, $h_a h_b = (123)(124) = (13)(24)$ and $(h_a h_b)^2 = 1$. So (h_a, h_b) fulfills the relations and so there exists a homomorphism

$$\alpha : G \to \mathrm{Alt}(4) \text{ with } a \to (123), b \to (124)$$

Put $L = \langle 123, (124) \rangle$. Then L has more than one Sylow 3-subgroup and so has at least four Sylow 3 subgroup. Hence $|L| \geq 12$ and $L = \mathrm{Alt}(4)$. Since $L \leq \mathrm{Im}\,\alpha$, α is onto. Since $|G| \leq 12 = |\mathrm{Alt}(4)|$ we conclude that α is a isomorphism. Thus

$$G \cong \mathrm{Alt}(4)$$

4. [**a**] Let $(G_i)_{i\in I}$ be a pairwise disjoint family of groups. Then

$$\langle \bigcup_{i\in I} G_i \mid a * b \equiv a \cdot b \text{ for all } i \in I, a, b \in G_i, a * b = b * a \text{ for all } i, j \in I, i \neq j, a \in G_i, b \in G_j \rangle$$

is $\bigoplus_{i\in I} G_i$

5. [**b**] Let I be a set, then

$$\langle I \mid ij \equiv ji \text{ for all } i, j \in I \rangle$$

is $\bigoplus_{i\in I} \mathbb{Z}$ and is denote by $\mathbb{Z}_I$. This group is called the free abelian group on the set I. Using additive notation, each elements of $\mathbb{Z}_I$ can be uniquely written as

$$\sum_{i\in I} n_i i$$

where $(n_i)_{i\in I}$ is an almost zero sequence of integers and

$$\sum_{i\in I} n_i i + \sum_{i\in I} m_i i = \sum_{i\in I} (n_i + m_i) i$$

1.12 Balanced products

Lemma 1.12.1. [**semigroup to group**] *Let X be a non-empty abelian semigroup and $*$ a magma action of X on set S. Let $\sim$ be the relation on $X \times S$ defined by*

$$(x, s) \sim (zx, zs) \quad \text{for all } x, z \in X, s \in S$$

Let $\approx$ be the relation on $X \times S$ defined by

$$(x, s) \approx (y, t) \quad \text{if there exists } z \in X \text{ with } \quad zxt = zys$$

Then $\approx$ is the equivalence relation on $X \times S$ generated by $\sim$. For $x \in X$ and $s \in S$ put $\frac{s}{x} = [(x, s)]_\approx$ and $X^{-1}S = (X \times S)/\approx = \{\frac{s}{x} \mid s \in S, x \in X\}$. Then

(a) [**a**] *$\alpha : X \times X^{-1}S \to X^{-1}S,\ (y, \frac{s}{x}) \to \frac{ys}{x}$ is well-defined action of X on $X^{-1}S$.*

(b) [**b**] *$\beta : X \times X^{-1}S \to X^{-1}S,\ (y, \frac{s}{x}) \to \frac{s}{yx}$ is well-defined action of X on $X^{-1}S$.*

(c) [**c**] *For all $y \in X$, the function $y^\alpha : X^{-1}S \to X^{-1}S, \frac{s}{x} \to \frac{ys}{x}$ is inverse to the function $y^\beta : X^{-1}S \to X^{-1}S, \frac{s}{x} \to \frac{s}{yx}$.*

(d) [**d**] *Let $x \in X$. Then map $\tau : S \to X^{-1}S, s \to \frac{xs}{x}$ is a X-equivariant and independent of the choice of $x \in X$.*

(e) [**e**] *$\tau(s) = \tau(t)$ if and only if $zs = zt$ for some $z \in X$.*

(f) [**f**] *τ is 1-1 if and only if z^* is 1-1 for all $z \in X$.*

(g) [**g**] *$\frac{s}{x} = x^{\beta}(\tau(s))$ for all $x \in X, s \in S/$*

(h) [**h**] *Suppose $\diamond$ is an action of X on the set $\tilde{S}$, $\rho : S \to \tilde{S}$ is X-equivariant and $x^{\diamond}$ is invertible for each $x \in X$. Then*

$$\gamma : S^{-1}X \to \tilde{S}, \frac{g}{s} \to (x^{\diamond})^{-1}\rho(s)$$

is well-defined and is the unique X-equivariant map from $S^{-1}X$ to $\tilde{S}$ with $\rho = \gamma \circ \tau$.

Proof. Let $\approxeq$ by the equivalence relation generated by $\sim$.

1°. [**1**] *$(x, s) \approx (y, t)$ for all $x, y \in X$ and $s, t \in S$ with $xt = ys$.*

Indeed $xt = ys$ implies $xxt = xys$.

2°. [**2**] *$\sim \subset \approx$ and $\approx \subseteq \approxeq$.*

We have $x(zs) = (xz)s = z(xs) = (zx)s$ and so by $(1°)$ $(x, s) \approx (zx, zs)$ for all $x, z \in X$, $s \in S$. Thus $\sim \subseteq \approx$.

We will write $a \sim^{\text{op}} b$ for $b \sim a$. Suppose $(x, s) \approx (y, t)$. Then $zxt = zys$ for some $z \in X$. Thus

$$(x, s) \sim ((zy)x, (zy)s) = ((zx)y, (zx)t) \sim^{\text{op}} (y, t)$$

and so $(x, s) \approxeq (y, t)$.

3°. [**3**] *$\approx$ is an equivalence relation.*

Let $x \in X$ and $s \in S$. Then $xs = xs$ and so by $(1°)$ $(x, s) \approx (x, s)$ and $\approx$ is reflexive.

$\approx$ is clearly symmetric.

Suppose $(w, r) \approx (x, s))$ and $(x, s) \approx (y, t)$. Then $zws = zxr$ and $z'xt = z'ys$ for some $z, z' \in X$. Thus

$$(zz'x)(wt) = (zw))(z'xt) = (zw)(z'ys) = (z'y)(zws) = (z'y)(zxr) = (zz'x)(yr)$$

and since S is closed under multiplication $zz'x \in S$.Thus $(w, r) \approx (y, t)$ and $\approx$ is indeed an equivalence relation.

4°. [**4**] $\approx = \approxeq$.

This follows from (2°) and (3°).

Now let $w, x, y \in X$ and $r, s, t \in S$.

(a) Suppose that

Let $(g, s), (h, t) \in G \times S$ and u in U.

$$(g, s)(h, t) = (gh, st) \sim (ghu, stu) = (gu, su)(h, t)$$

Since G is commutative, **??** now shows that (a) holds.

(b) $\frac{h}{t} = \frac{hs}{ts} = \frac{h}{t}\frac{s}{s}$.

(c) By (b), $\frac{s}{t}\frac{t}{s} = \frac{st}{ts} = \frac{st}{st}$ is the identity elements.

(d) $\frac{gs}{s}\frac{hs}{s} = \frac{ghss}{ss} = \frac{ghs}{s}$ and so τ is a homomorphism. $(gs)t = (gt)s$ and so $\frac{gs}{s} = \frac{gt}{t}$, and so τ is independent of s.

(e) Suppose $gu = hu$ for some u in S. Then $\tau(g) = \frac{gu}{u} = \frac{hu}{u} = \tau(h)$. Suppose next that $\tau g = \tau h$. Then $\frac{gs}{s} = \frac{hs}{s}$ and so $gssv = hssv$ for some $v \in S$. Thus $gu = hu$ with $u = ssv$.

(f) follows immediately from (e).

(g) $\frac{g}{s} = \frac{gss}{sss} = \frac{gs}{s}\frac{s}{ss} = \frac{gs}{s}\frac{ss}{s}^{-1} = \tau(g)\tau(s)^{-1}$.

(h) Let $g, h \in G$ and $s, t \in S$. We have

$(**)$

$$\alpha(gh)\alpha(st)^{-1} = \alpha(g)\alpha(h)(\alpha(s)\alpha(t))^{-1} = \alpha(g)\alpha(h)\alpha(s)^{-1}\alpha(t)^{-1} = \alpha(g)\alpha(s)^{-1}\alpha(h)\alpha(t)^{-1}$$

For $s = t = u$ this gives $\alpha(gu)\alpha(su) = \alpha(g)\alpha(s)^{-1}\alpha(u)\alpha(u)^{-1} = \alpha(g)\alpha(s)^{-1}$ and 1.5.5 now shows that β is well defined.

Note that (**) implies

$$\beta\left(\frac{g}{s}\frac{h}{t}\right) = \beta\left(\frac{g}{s}\right)\beta\left(\frac{h}{t}\right)$$

and so β is a homomorphism.

Suppose next that δ is homomorphism such that $\alpha = \delta \circ \tau$. Then by (g)

$$\delta\left(\frac{g}{s}\right) = \delta\left(\tau(g)\tau(s)^{-1}\right) = \delta(\tau(g))\delta(\tau(s))^{-1} = \alpha(g)\alpha(s)^{-1}$$

and so $\delta = \beta$. □

Lemma 1.12.2. [**semigroup to group**] *Let G be a non-empty semigroup, and S a non-empty sub-semigroup of G. Let*

$$\sim = \left\{\left((g, s), (gu, su)\right) \;\middle|\; g \in G, s, u \in S\right\}$$

and note that $\sim$ is a relation on $G \times S$. Let $\approx$ be the relation on $G \times S$ defined by

$$(a,s) \approx (a',s') \quad \textit{if there exists } u \in S \textit{ with } as'u = a'su$$

Then $\approx$ is the equivalence relation generated by $\sim$. For $a \in G$ and $s \in S$ put $\frac{a}{s} = [(a,s)]_{\approx}$ and $S^{-1}G = (G \times S)/\approx$. Then

(a) [**a**]

$$S^{-1}G \times S^{-1}G \to S^{-1}G, \quad \left(\frac{a}{s}, \frac{b}{t}\right) \to \frac{as}{bt}$$

is a well defined associative binary operation on $S^{-1}G$.

(b) [**b**] *For each $s \in S$, $\frac{s}{s}$ is an identity in $S^{-1}G$.*

(c) [**c**] *For each $s,t \in S$, $\frac{s}{t}$ is an inverse of $\frac{t}{s}$.*

(d) [**d**] *Let $s \in S$. Then map $\tau : G \to S^{-1}G, g \to \frac{gs}{s}$ is a homomorphism and independent of the choice of $s \in S$.*

(e) [**e**] *$\tau(g) = \tau(h)$ if and only if $gu = hu$ for some $u \in S$.*

(f) [**f**] *τ is 1-1 if and only if the Cancellation Law holds for elements in S.*

(g) [**g**] *For all $g \in G$, $s \in S$, $\frac{a}{s} = \tau(a)\tau(s)^{-1}$.*

(h) [**h**] *Let H be a commutative monoid and $\alpha : G \to H$ be a homomorphism such that each $\alpha(s)$, $s \in S$ is invertible in H. Then*

$$\beta : S^{-1}G \to H, \frac{g}{s} \to \alpha(g)\alpha(s)^{-1}$$

is well-defined and is the unique homomorphism from $S^{-1}H$ to G with $\alpha = \beta \circ \tau$.

Proof. Let $\approxeq$ by the equivalence relation generated by $\sim$.

1°. [**1**] $(g,s) \approx (g',s')$ *for all $g,g' \in G$ and $s,s' \in S$ with $gs' = g's$.*

Indeed $gs' = g's$ implies $gs's = g'ss$.

2°. [**2**] $\sim \subset \approx \subseteq \approxeq$.

We have $g(su) = (gu)s$ and so by (1°) $(g,s) \approx (gu,su)$ for all $g \in G$, $u,s \in S$. So $\sim \subseteq \approx$.
We will write $a \sim^* b$ for $b \sim a$. Suppose $(g,s) \approx (g',s')$ Then $gs'u = g'su$ for some $u \in S$. Then

$$(g,s) \sim (gs'u, ss'u) = (g'su, s'su) \sim^* (g',s')$$

and so $(g,s) \approxeq (g',s')$.

3°. [**3**] *$\approx$ is an equivalence relation.*

Let $g \in G$ and $s \in S$. Then $gs = gs$ and so by (1°) $(g,s) \approx (g,s)$ and $\approx$ is reflexive.

$\approx$ is clearly symmetric.

Suppose $(g,s) \approx (g',s')$ and $(g',s') \approx (g'',s'')$. Then $gs'u = g'su$ and $g's''u' = g''s'u'$ for some $u, u' \in S$. Thus

$$(gs'')(s'uu') = (gs'u)(s''u') = g'sus''u' = (g's''u')su = (g''s'u')(su) = (g''s)(s'uu')$$

and since S is closed under multiplication $s'uu' \in S$. Thus $(g,s) \approx (g'',s'')$ and $\approx$ is indeed an equivalence relation.

4°. [4] $\approx = \approxeq$.

This follows from (2°) and (3°).

Let $(g,s),(h,t) \in G \times S$ and u in U.

$$(g,s)(h,t) = (gh,st) \sim (ghu,stu) = (gu,su)(h,t)$$

Since G is commutative, **??** now shows that (a) holds.

(b) $\frac{h}{t} = \frac{hs}{ts} = \frac{h}{t}\frac{s}{s}$.

(c) By (b), $\frac{s}{t}\frac{t}{s} = \frac{st}{ts} = \frac{st}{st}$ is the identity elements.

(d) $\frac{gs}{s}\frac{hs}{s} = \frac{ghss}{ss} = \frac{ghs}{s}$ and so τ is a homomorphism. $(gs)t = (gt)s$ and so $\frac{gs}{s} = \frac{gt}{t}$, and so τ is independent of s.

(e) Suppose $gu = hu$ for some u in S. Then $\tau(g) = \frac{gu}{u} = \frac{hu}{u} = \tau(h)$. Suppose next that $\tau g = \tau h$. Then $\frac{gs}{s} = \frac{hs}{s}$ and so $gssv = hssv$ for some $v \in S$. Thus $gu = hu$ with $u = ssv$.

(f) follows immediately from (e).

(g) $\frac{g}{s} = \frac{gss}{sss} = \frac{gs}{s}\frac{s}{ss} = \frac{gs}{s}\frac{ss}{s}^{-1} = \tau(g)\tau(s)^{-1}$.

(h) Let $g,h \in G$ and $s,t \in S$. We have

$(**)$

$$\alpha(gh)\alpha(st)^{-1} = \alpha(g)\alpha(h)(\alpha(s)\alpha(t))^{-1} = \alpha(g)\alpha(h)\alpha(s)^{-1}\alpha(t)^{-1} = \alpha(g)\alpha(s)^{-1}\alpha(h)\alpha(t)^{-1}$$

For $s = t = u$ this gives $\alpha(gu)\alpha(su) = \alpha(g)\alpha(s)^{-1}\alpha(u)\alpha(u)^{-1} = \alpha(g)\alpha(s)^{-1}$ and 1.5.5 now shows that β is well defined.

Note that (**) implies

$$\beta\left(\frac{g}{s}\frac{h}{t}\right) = \beta\left(\frac{g}{s}\right)\beta\left(\frac{h}{t}\right)$$

and so β is a homomorphism.

Suppose next that δ is homomorphism such that $\alpha = \delta \circ \tau$. Then by (g)

$$\delta\left(\frac{g}{s}\right) = \delta\left(\tau(g)\tau(s)^{-1}\right) = \delta(\tau(g))\delta(\tau(s))^{-1} = \alpha(g)\alpha(s)^{-1}$$

and so $\delta = \beta$. □

Chapter 2

Rings

2.1 Rings

Definition 2.1.1. [**def:ring**] *A* ring *is a tuple* $(R, +, \cdot)$ *such that*

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

(b) [**b**] $(R, \cdot)$ *is a semigroup.*

(c) [**c**] *For each* $r \in R$ *both left and right multiplication by* r *are homomorphisms of* $(R, +)$

Definition 2.1.2. [**ringhom**] *Let* R *and* S *be rings.*

(a) [**a**] *A* ring homomorphism *is a function* $\phi : R \to S$ *such that*

$$\phi : (R, +) \to (S, +) \quad \text{and} \quad \phi : (R, \cdot) \to (S, \cdot)$$

are homomorphism of semigroups

(b) [**b**] *A ring homomorphism* $\phi : R \to S$ *is called an isomorphism if there exists a ring homomorphism* $\psi : S \to T$ *with* $\phi \circ \psi = \mathrm{id}_S$ *and* $\psi \circ \phi = \mathrm{id}_R$.

(c) [**c**] R *and* S *are called* isomorphic *and we write* $R \cong S$ *if there exists a ring isomorphism from* R *to* S.

Note that $\phi : R \to S$ is an homomorphism if and only if $\phi(r + s) = \phi(r) + \phi(s)$ and $\phi(rs) = \phi(r)\phi(s)$ for all $r, s \in R$.

Definition 2.1.3. [**def:ring identity**] *Let* $(R, +\cdot)$ *be a ring.*

(a) [**a**] *An* identity *in* R *is an element* 1_R *which is an identity for* $\cdot$*, what is* $1_R r = r = r 1_R$ *for all* $r \in R$*. If there exists an identity in* R *we say that* R *is a ring with identity.*

(b) [**b**] R *is called* commutative *if* $\cdot$ *is commutative, that is* $rs = sr$ *for all* $r, s \in R$.

In the following lemma we collect a few elementary properties of rings.

Lemma 2.1.4. [**elementaryring**] *Let R be a ring.*

(a) [**a**] $0a = a0 = 0$ *for all* $a \in R$

(b) [**b**] $(-a)b = a(-b) = -(ab)$ *for all* $a, b \in R$.

(c) [**c**] $(-a)(-b) = ab$ *for all* $a, b \in R$.

(d) [**d**] $(na)b = a(nb) = n(ab)$ *for all* $a, b \in R, n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

(e) [**e**] $(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i)(\sum_{j=1}^{m} b_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} a_i b_j$

Proof. This holds since since right and left multiplication by elements in R are homomorphisms of $(R, +)$. For example any homomorphism sends 0 to 0. So (a) holds. We leave the details to the reader. □

Example 2.1.5. [**ex:rings**]

1. [**1**] $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ and $(\mathbb{C}, +, \cdot)$ are rings
2. [**7**] Let $(A, +)$ be any abelian group. Define $\cdot_0 : A \to A, (a, b) \to 0_R$. Then $(A, +, \cdot_0)$ is a ring, called the ring on A with zero-multiplication.
3. [**1.5**] Let $(A, +)$ be an abelian group and $\mathrm{End}(A)$ the set of endomorphisms of A, (that is the homomorphisms from A to A). Define

$$(\alpha + \beta)(a) = \alpha(a) + \beta(a) \text{ and } (\alpha \circ \beta)(a) = \alpha(\beta(a))$$

We will show that $(\mathrm{End}(A), +, \circ)$ is a ring (called the *endomorphism ring* of A.)

Let $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in \mathrm{End}(A)$ and $a, b \in A$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} (\alpha + \beta)(a + b) &= \alpha(a + b) + \beta(a + b) & &= \big(\alpha(a) + \alpha(b)\big) + \big(\beta(a) + \beta(b)\big) \\ &= \big(\alpha(a) + \beta(a)\big) + \big(\alpha(b) + \beta(b)\big) & &= (\alpha + \beta)(a) + (\alpha + \beta)(b) \end{aligned}$$

and so $\alpha + \beta \in \mathrm{End}(A)$

Composition of homomorphisms are homomorphisms and so $\alpha \circ \beta \in \mathrm{End}(a)$. The addition in $\mathrm{End}(A)$ is associative, since the addition on A is associative. The map $A \to A, a \to 0$, is the identity elements. Since A is abelian, the map $-\mathrm{id}_A : a \to -a$ is homomorphism. The $(-\mathrm{id}_A) \circ \alpha : A \to A, a \to -\alpha(a)$ is the additive inverse of α. Composition is always associative.

We compute

$$\begin{aligned} \big((\alpha + b) \circ \gamma\big) &= \big(\alpha + \beta\big)\big(\gamma(a)\big) & &= \alpha\big(\gamma(a)\big) + \beta\big(\gamma(a)\big) \\ &= (\alpha \circ \gamma)(a) + (\alpha \circ \gamma)(a) & &= (\alpha \circ \gamma + \beta \circ \gamma)(a) \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\big(\gamma\circ(\alpha+b)\big)a &= \gamma\big((\alpha+\beta)a\big) && = \gamma(\alpha a+\beta a)\\ &= \gamma(\alpha a)+\gamma(\beta a) && = (\gamma\circ\alpha)a+(\gamma\circ\beta)a\\ &= (\gamma\circ\alpha+\gamma\circ\beta)a\end{aligned}$$

So $\mathrm{End}(A)$ is indeed a ring.

4. [**3**] Up to isomorphism there is unique ring with one element:

$+$	0
0	0

$\cdot$	0
0	0

5. [**4**] Up to isomorphism there are two rings of order two :

$+$	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	0

$\cdot$	0	1
0	0	0
1	0	n

.

Here $n\in\{0,1\}$. For $n=0$ this is a ring with zero-multiplication. For $n=1$ this is $(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z},+,\cdot)$.

6. [**5**] Rings of order 3 up to isomorphism:

$+$	0	1	-1
0	0	1	-1
1	1	-1	0
-1	-1	0	1

$\cdot$	0	1	-1
0	0	0	0
1	0	n	$-n$
-1	0	$-n$	n

Indeed if we define $n=1\cdot 1$, then $(-1)\cdot 1=-(1\cdot 1)=-n$. Here $n\in\{0,1,-1\}$. For $n=0$ this is a ring with zero multiplication. For $n=1$ this is $(\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z},+,\cdot)$. For $n=-1$ we see that -1 is an identity and the ring for $n=-1$ is isomorphic to the ring with $n=1$ case under the bijection $0\leftrightarrow 0$, $1\leftrightarrow -1$.

7. [**6**] Direct products and direct sums of rings are rings. Indeed, let $(R_i, i\in I)$ be a family of rings. For $f,g\in\bigtimes_{i\in I}R_i$ define $f+g$ and fg by

$$(f+g)(i)=f(i)+g(i)\quad\text{ and }\quad(fg)(i)=f(i)g(i).$$

With this definition both $\times_{i\in I} R_i$ and $\oplus_{i\in I} R_i$ are rings.

If a is an identity in $\times_{i\in I} R_i$ or $\oplus_{i\in I} R_i$, then for all $i \in I$, a_i is identity in R_i

If each R_i has an identity 1_i, then $(1_i)_{i\in I}$ is an identity of $\times_{i\in I} R_i$.

If $1_i \neq 0_i$ for infinitely many $i \in I$, then $(1_i)_{i\in I}$ is not in $\oplus_{i\in I} R_i$ and $\oplus_{i\in I} R_i$ does not have an identity.

If each R_i is commutative then both $\times_{i\in I} R_i$ and $\oplus_{i\in I} R_i$ are commutative.

2.2 Group Rings

Definition 2.2.1. [**def:group ring**] *Let R be a ring and G a semigroup. The* semigroup ring $R[G]$ *of G over R is defined as follows:*

As an abelian group we put $R[G] = \oplus_{g\in G} R$. For elements $r = (r_g)_{g\in G}$ and $s = (s_g)_{g\in G}$ of $R[G]$ define $rs \in R[G]$ by

$$(rs)_g = \sum_{\substack{(k,l)\in G\times G \\ kl=g}} r_k s_l$$

for all $g \in G$.

Note that since the $\mathrm{Supp}(r)$ *and* $\mathrm{Supp}(s)$ *are finite, these sums are defined. Also* $\mathrm{Supp}(rs) \subseteq \mathrm{Supp}(r)\mathrm{Supp}(s)$ *and so* $\mathrm{Supp}(rs)$ *is finite and $rs \in R[G]$.*

For $r \in R$ and $g \in G$ we denote the element $\rho_g(r)$[1] in $R[G]$ by rg so

$$(rg)_g = r \text{ and } (rg)_h = 0_R \text{ for } h \neq g$$

Lemma 2.2.2. [**group ring**] *Let R be a ring and G a semigroup.*

(a) [**a**] *$(R[G], +, \cdot)$ is a ring.*

(b) [**b**] *For each $a \in RG$ there exist uniquely determined $r_g \in R$, $g \in G$ with $r_g = 0_R$ for almost all $g \in G$ and*

$$a = \sum_{g\in G} r_g g$$

(c) [**c**] $\sum_{g\in G} r_g g + \sum_{g\in G} s_g g = \sum_{g\in G} (r_g + s_g) g$.

(d) [**d**] $\sum_{k\in G} r_k k \cdot \sum_{l\in G} s_l l = \sum_{k\in G, l\in G} (r_k s_l) kl$.

(e) [**e**] *If R and G have identities, then $1_R 1_G$ is an identity in $R[G]$.*

(f) [**f**] *If R and G are commutative, $R[G]$ is too.*

Proof. This is Homework 5#1. □

[1] see 1.9.9

Definition 2.2.3. [**def: sequiring**] *A sesquiring is a triple $(R, G, \cdot)$ where R is a ring, G is a semigroup and $\cdot$ is the binary operation on $R \times G$ defined by*

$$(a, g) \cdot (a', g') = (aa', gg').$$

for all $a, a' \in R$ and $g, g' \in G$.

So $(R \times G, \cdot)$ is the direct product of the semigroups $(R, \cdot)$ and G.

Definition 2.2.4. [**def:hom ring group**] *Let (R, G) be a sesquiring and S a ring. A function*

$$f : R \times G \to S$$

is called a sesquihomomorphism if

(i) [**i**] *f is a multiplicative homomorphism, that is*

$$f(aa', gg') = f(a, g)f(a', g')$$

for all $a, a' \in R, g, g' \in G$.

(ii) [**ii**] *f is an additive homomorphism in the first coordinate. This means that for for each $g \in G$, the function $f_g : R \to S, a \to f(a, g)$ is an additive homomorphism, that is*

$$f(a + a', g) = f(a, g) + f(a', g)$$

for all $a, a' \in R$, $g \in G$.

Lemma 2.2.5. [**comp of sesqui**] *Let R, S, T be rings and G and H semigroups.*

(a) [**a**] *The map $\iota : R \times G \to R[G], (r, g) \to r$ is a sesquihomomorphism.*

(b) [**b**] *The map $\rho = \rho_{R,G} : R \times G \to R[G], (r, g) \to rg$ is a sesquihomomorphism.*

(c) [**c**] *Let $\phi : S \times H \to T$ be a sesquihomomorphism, $\delta : R \to S$ a ring homomorphism and $\epsilon : G \to H$ a semigroup homomorphism. Then*

$$\phi \circ (\delta \times \epsilon) : R \times G \to S, (r, g) \to \phi(\delta(r), \epsilon(g))$$

is a sesquihomomorphism.

(d) [**d**] *Let $\phi : R \times G \to S$ be a sesquihomomorphism and $\delta : S \to T$ be a ring homomorphism. Then*

$$\delta \circ \phi : R \times S \to T, (r, g) \to \delta(\phi(r, g))$$

is a sesquihomomorphism.

(e) [**e**] *Suppose*

$$\tau : R \times G \to S, \quad \sigma : S \times H \to T$$

are sesquihomomorphisms. Define

$$\phi : R \times (G \times H) \to T, (r, g, h) \to \sigma\big(\tau(r, g), h\big)$$

Then ϕ is a sesquihomomorphism.

Proof. (a) ι is clearly a multiplicative homomorphism. (cf. 1.9.6). Also $\iota_g = \mathrm{id}_R$ for all $g \in G$ and so ι_g is an additive homomorphism.

(b) By 2.2.2 $(ag)(a'g') = (aa')(gg')$ and $ag + a'g = (a + a')g$. So ρ is a sesquihomomorphism.

(c) Note that both δ and $\delta \circ \epsilon : R \times G \to S \times H, (r, g) \to (\delta(r), \epsilon(g))$ are multiplicative homomorphisms. So also $\alpha := \phi \circ (\delta \times epsilon)$ is a multiplicative homomorphism. Note that for $g \in G$, $\alpha_g = \delta \circ \phi_{\epsilon(g)}$. Since both δ and $\phi_{\epsilon(g)}$ are additive homomorphism, so is α_g.

(d) $\beta := \delta \circ \phi$ is the composition of two multiplicative homomorphisms and so a multiplicative homomorphism. $\beta_g = \delta \circ \phi_g$ and so β_g is an additive homomorphism.

(e) Note that

$$\delta : R \times (G \times H) \to R \times G, (r, g, h) \to (r, g) \quad \text{and} \quad \epsilon : R \times (G \times H) \to H (r, g, h) \to h.$$

are multiplicative homomorphisms. Hence also the composition $\tau \circ \delta$ and the direct product $(\tau \circ \delta) \times \epsilon$ are multiplicative homomorphism. Thus also

$$\phi = \sigma \circ \big((\tau \circ \delta) \times \epsilon\big)$$

is a multiplicative homomorphism.

Also

$$\phi_{(g,h)}(r) = \sigma\big(\tau(r, g), h\big) = \sigma_h(\tau(r, g)) = \sigma_h(\tau_g(r))$$

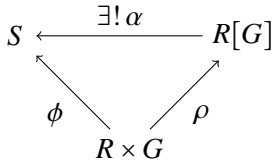
and so $\phi_{(g,h)} = \sigma_h \circ \tau_g$ is the composition of two additive homomorphisms and so a homomorphism. □

Lemma 2.2.6. [**char semigroup ring**] *Let (R, G) be a sesquiring.*

(a) [**b**] *Whenever S is a ring and $\phi : R \times G \to S$ is a sesquihomomorphism, then*

$$\alpha : R[G] \to S, \quad \sum_{g \in G} r_g g \ \to \ \sum_{g \in G} \phi(r_g, g)$$

is the unique ring homomorphism from $R[G]$ to S with $\phi = \alpha \circ \rho$.



(b) **[c]** *Let $\alpha : R[G] \times S$ be a ring homomorphism. Then $\phi = \alpha \circ \rho$ is a sesquihomomorphism from $R \times G$ to S.*

Proof. (a) Suppose first $\alpha : R[G] \to S$ is a ring homomorphism with $\phi = \alpha \circ \rho$. Then $\alpha(rg) = \alpha(\rho(r,g)) = \phi(r,g)$ for all $r \in R$, $g \in G$ and so

$$(*) \qquad \alpha\Big(\sum_{g\in G} r_g g\Big) = \sum_{g\in G} \alpha(r_g g) = \sum_{g\in G} \phi(r,g)$$

Thus α is unique. It remains to verify the function

$$\alpha : R[G] \to S,\ \sum_{g\in G} r_g g \to \sum_{g\in G} \phi(r,g)$$

is homomorphism.

We compute

$$\begin{aligned}
\alpha\Big(\sum_{g\in G} r_g g + \sum_{g\in G} s_g g\Big) &= \alpha\Big(\sum_{g\in G} (r_g + s_g) g\Big) & &= \sum_{g\in G} \phi(r_g + s_g, g) \\
&= \sum_{g\in G} \big(\phi(r_g, g) + \phi(s_g, g)\big) & &= \sum_{g\in G} \phi(r_g, g) + \sum_{g\in G} \phi(s_g, g) \\
&= \alpha\Big(\sum_{g\in G} r_g g\Big) + \alpha\Big(\sum_{g\in G} s_g g\Big)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\alpha\Big(\sum_{k\in G} r_k k \cdot \sum_{l\in G} s_l l\Big) &= \alpha\Big(\sum_{g\in G} \Big(\sum_{\substack{(k,l)\in G\times G \\ kl=g}} r_k s_l\Big) g\Big) & &= \sum_{g\in G} \phi\left(\sum_{\substack{(k,l)\in G\times G \\ kl=g}} r_k s_l, g\right) \\
&= \sum_{g\in G} \left(\sum_{\substack{(k,l)\in G\times G \\ kl=g}} \phi(r_k s_l, g)\right) & &= \sum_{g\in G} \left(\sum_{\substack{(k,l)\in G\times G \\ kl=g}} \phi(r_k s_l, kl)\right) \\
&= \sum_{(k,l)\in G\times G} \phi(r_k s_l, kl) & &= \sum_{(k,l)\in G\times G} \phi(r_k, k)\phi(s_l, l) \\
&= \sum_{k\in G} \phi(r_k, k) \cdot \sum_{l\in G} \phi(s_l, l) & &= \alpha\Big(\sum_{k\in G} r_k k\Big) \cdot \alpha\Big(\sum_{l\in G} s_l l\Big)
\end{aligned}$$

(b) By 2.2.5(a) is a sesquihomomorphism. Since α is a homomorphism, 2.2.5(d) shows that $\alpha \circ \rho$ is a sesquihomomorphism.

□

Example 2.2.7. [**ex: sesquihomomorphism**] *Let (R, G) be a sesquiring. Then*

$$\alpha : R[G] \to R, \ \sum_{g \in G} r_g g \to \sum_{g \in G} r_g$$

is a ring homomorphism. If $G \neq \emptyset$, α is onto.

By 2.2.5(a) $\phi : R \times G \to R, \ (r, g) \to r$ is a sesquihomomorphism. Thus 2.2.6 implies that α is a homomorphism.

Lemma 2.2.8. [**easy sesquihomomorphism**] *Let (R, G) be a sesquiring and S a ring. Let $\beta : R \to S$ be a ring homomorphism and $\gamma : G \to S$ a multiplicative homomorphism such that*

$$\beta(r)\gamma(g) = \gamma(g)\beta(r)$$

for all $r \in R$, $g \in G$. Define

$$\phi : R \times G \to S, (r, g) \to \beta(r)\gamma(g)$$

Then ϕ is a sesquihomomorphism. Moreover

$$\alpha : R[G] \to S, \ \sum_{g \in G} r_g g \to \sum_{g \in G} \beta(r)\gamma(g)$$

is the unique ring homomorphism with $\alpha(rg) = \beta(r)\gamma(g)$ for all $r \in R$, $g \in G$.

Proof.

$$\beta(ab)\gamma(gh) = \big(\beta(a)\beta(b)\big)\big(\gamma(g)\gamma(h)\big) = \big(\beta(b)\gamma(g)\big)\big(\beta(b)\gamma(h)\big)$$

and

$$\beta(a)\gamma(g) + \beta(b)\gamma(g) = \big(\beta(a) + \beta(b)\big)\gamma(g) = \beta(a + b)\gamma(g)$$

So ϕ is a sesquihomomorphism. The second statement now follows from 2.2.6 □

Lemma 2.2.9. [**sesquihom and identities**] *Let (R, G) be sesquiring and S ring. Suppose R and G have identities and $\phi : R \times G \to S$ is a sesquihomomorphism. Define*

$$\beta : R \to S, r \to \phi(r, 1_G) \quad \text{and } \gamma : G \to S, g \to \phi(1_R, g)$$

Then

(a) [**a**] *β is a ring homomorphism.*

(b) [**b**] *γ is a multiplicative homomorphism.*

(c) [**c**] *$\beta(1_R) = \gamma(1_G)$.*

(d) [**d**] $\beta(r)\gamma(g) = \phi(r,g) = \gamma(g)\beta(r)$ *for all* $r \in R$, $g \in G$

Proof. Since ϕ is a multiplication homomorphism and $1 \cdot 1 = 1$, both β and γ are multiplicative homomorphism. Since ϕ is an additive homomorphism in the first coordinate, β is a additive homomorphism. So (a) and (d) hold.

(c): $\beta(1_R) = \phi(1_R, 1_G) = \gamma(1_G)$.

(d):

$$\beta(r)\gamma(g) = \phi(r,1)\phi(1,g) = \phi(r1,1g) = \phi(r,g) = \phi(1r,g1) = \phi(1,g)\phi(r,1) = \gamma(g)\beta(r)$$

□

Example 2.2.10. [**ex:sequihom**] *Let R and S be rings with zero homomorphism. Let G be semigroup and $(\alpha_g)_{g\in G}$ a family of additive homomorphism from R to S. Define*

$$\alpha : R \times G \to S, (r,g) \to \alpha_g(r)$$

Then α is a sesquihomomorphism.

Since each α_g is an additive homomorphism, α is an additive homomorphism in the first coordinate. Note that $\alpha_g(0_R) = 0_S$ for all $g \in G$ and so

$$\alpha(ab, gh) = \alpha(0, gh) = \alpha_{gh}(0) = 0 = \alpha(a,g)\alpha(b,h)$$

for all $a, b \in R$, $g, h \in R$.

Corollary 2.2.11. [**hom group ring to group ring**] *Let (R,G) and (S,H) be sesquirings, $\beta : R \to S$ a ring homomorphism and $\gamma : G \to H$ a semigroup homomorphism. Then*

$$R[G] \to S[H], \quad \sum_{g\in G} r_g g \to \sum_{g\in G} \beta(r)\gamma(g)$$

is the unique ring homomorphism $\alpha : R[G] \to S[H]$ with $\alpha(rg) = \beta(r)\gamma(g)$ for all $r \in R$, $g \in G$.

Proof. Define $\phi : R \times G \to S[H](r,g) \to \beta(r)\gamma(g)$. Note that $\phi = \rho_{S,H} \circ (\beta \times \gamma)$ and so by 2.2.5 ϕ is a sesquihomomorphism. So the Corollary follows from 2.2.6. □

2.2.12 (Identities in Group Rings)**.** [**id in rg**] If $R[G]$ has an identity and $G \neq \emptyset$, then $\alpha : R[G] \to R, \sum_{g\in G} r_g g \to \sum_{g\in G} r_g$ is an onto homomorphism and so $\alpha(1_{R[G]})$ is an identity in R. But G does not have to have an identity:

Let R be any ring with an identity: Let $G = \{a, b, i\}$ as a set. Define a multiplication by

$$xy = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x = y \\ i & \text{if } x \neq y \end{cases}$$

Then

$$(xy)z = (xy)z = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x = y = z \\ i & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Hence the binary operation is associative and G is a semigroup. Put $r = a + b - i \in R[G]$. We claim that r is an identity. We compute $ar = ra = aa+ab-ai = i+a-i = a$, $br = rb = ba+bb-bi = i+b-i = b$ and $ir = ri = ia + ib - ii = i + i - i = i$. Since right multiplication by r is a additive homomorphism, $\{t \in R[g] \mid tr = t\}$ is a additive subgroup of $R[G]$ and so equal to $R[G]$. Hence r is a right identity. By symmetry, r is also a left identity.

Since $ab = i$ neither a nor b is an identity in G. Since $ai = i$, i is not an identity. So G has no identity.

2.2.13 (Commutative Group Rings)**.** [**rg commutative**]

Suppose $R[G]$ is commutative and $G \neq \varnothing$. Then there exists an onto homomorphism from $R[G]$ to R and so R is commutative. Let $r, s \in R$ and $g, h \in G$. Then

$$(rs)(gh) = (rg)(sh) = (sh)(rg) = (sr)(hg) = (rs)(hg).$$

So if $rs \neq 0$ for some $r, s \in R$ we get $gh = hg$ and G is commutative.

But if $rs = 0$ for all $r, s \in R$ then also $xy = 0$ for all $x, y \in R[G]$. So $R[G]$ is commutative, regardless whether G is or not.

Notation 2.2.14. [**sn**] *Let T be a semigroup, $t = (t_i)_{i\in I}$ a commuting family of elements in T, $u \in T$ and $n = (n_i)_{i\in I}$ an almost zero family of non-negative integers. Let $J = \mathrm{Supp}(n) = \{i \in I \mid n_i \neq 0\}$. If $n \neq 0$ (that is $J \neq 0$), define*

$$t^n = \prod_{j\in J} t_j^{n_j}$$

If $n = 0$, define

$$ut^n = u \quad \text{and } t^n u = u$$

If T has an identity and $n = 0$ define $t^n = 1_T$.

Notation 2.2.15. [**not: exp notation**]

(a) [**a**] *Let G be monoid and I a set. Then $G_I = \bigoplus_{i\in I} G$.*

(b) [**b**] (X_I, id_I) *is a free abelian monoid on I.*

Remark 2.2.16. [**rem ni**] *Let I be set and put $x = \mathrm{id}_I = (i)_{i\in I}$. Then x is a commuting family in X_I and the function*

$$(\mathbb{N}_I, +) \to (X_I, \cdot), n \to x^n$$

is isomorphism.

Definition 2.2.17. [**ex:polynomial ring**] Let R be a ring. Let I be a set. Then the semigroup ring $R[X_I]$ is called the polynomial ring of R in the variables I.

2.2.18 (elements in polynomial rings)**.** [**elements in rx**] Let R be a ring and I a set. Put $x = \mathrm{id}_I = (i)_{i\in I}$ and let $f \in R[X_I]$. Then

$$f = \sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}_I} f_n x^n$$

for a unique almost zero family $(f_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}_I}$ in R.

If $I = \{x_1, \ldots, x_m\}$ this becomes

$$f = \sum_{(n_1,\ldots,n_m)\in\mathbb{N}^m} f_{n_1\ldots n_m} x_1^{n_1} \ldots x_m^{n_m}$$

Lemma 2.2.19. [**evaluation**] *Let R, S be rings and $s = (s_i)_{i\in I}$ a commuting family of elements in S. Let $\beta : R \to S$ be a ring homomorphism and suppose that*

$$\beta(r)s_i = s_i\beta(r)$$

for all $r \in R$, $i \in I$.

(a) [**a**]

$$\phi : R \times \mathbb{N}_I, (r, n) \to \beta(r)s^n$$

is a sesquihomomorphism.

(b) [**b**]

$$\beta_s : R[X_I] \to S, \quad \sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}^I} r_n x^n \to \sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}_I} \beta(r_n)s^n$$

is the unique homomorphism from $R[X_I] \to S$ with $\beta_s(ri) = \beta(r)s_i$ for all $r \in R$, $i \in I$.

Proof. (a) Since $(s_i)_{i\in I}$ is commuting,

$$\gamma : \mathbb{N}_I^\sharp \to S, n \to s^n$$

is a homomorphism. Applying 2.2.8 we see that the restriction of γ to $R \times \mathbb{N}_I^\sharp$ is a sesquihomomorphism.

Since $\phi(a, 0) = \beta(a)$ is an additive homomorphism, ϕ is a additive homomorphism in the first coordinate.

$$\phi(a,n)\phi(b,0) = \beta(a)s^n\beta(b) = \beta(a)\beta(b)s^n = \beta(ab)s^n = \beta(ab)s^{n+0} = \phi(ab, n+0)$$

and similarly $\phi(a,0)\phi(b,n) = \phi(ab, 0+n)$. Finally

$$\phi(a,0)\phi(b,0) = \beta(a)\beta(b) = \beta(ab) = \phi(ab, 0+0)$$

and so ϕ is a multiplicative homomorphism.

(b) follows from (a) and 2.2.6(a). □

Notation 2.2.20. [**not:fs**] *With the notation and assumption from 2.2.19:*

If $f \in R[X_I]$ we write $f_\beta(s)$ for $\beta_s(f)$. In the special case $R \subseteq S$ and $\beta = \mathrm{id}_R$, we write $f(s)$ for $\beta_{\mathrm{id}_R}(f)$.

Remark 2.2.21. [**rm:f=fx**]

(a) [**a**] *With the notation and assumption from 2.2.20:*

$$(f+g)_\beta(s) = f_\beta(s) + g_\beta(s) \text{ and } (fg)_\beta(s) = f_\beta(s)g_\beta(s)$$

for all $f, g \in R[X_I]$.

(b) [**b**] *Suppose R is a ring with identity and I is set. View R is a subset of r by identifying r with $r1$ and view I is a subset of $R[X_I]$ by identifying i with $1i$. Note that $x = (i)_{i\in I}$ is a commuting family in $R[X_I]$ and $ri = ri$ for all $r \in R$. Then $f(x) = f$ for all $f \in R[X_I]$.*

Proof. (a) holds since β_s is a homomorphism.

(b) Put $\beta = \mathrm{id}_R$. By definition β_x is the unique homomorphism from $R[X_I] \to R[X_I]$ with $\beta_x(ri) = \beta(r)x_i$, that is with $\beta_x(ri) = ri$. Hence $\beta_x = \mathrm{id}_{R[X_I]}$ and so $f(x) = \beta_x(f) = f$. □

Lemma 2.2.22. [**converse evaluation**] *Let R and S be rings and I a set. Suppose R has an identity and $\phi : R \times \mathbb{N}_I \to S$ is a sesquihomomorphism. Define*

$$\beta : R \to S, r \to \phi(r,0) \quad \text{and} \quad \text{for } i \in I,\ s_i = \phi(1,i)$$

Then

(a) [**a**] *β is a homomorphism of rings.*

(b) [**b**] *$(s_i)_{i\in I}$ is commuting family of elements in S.*

(c) [**c**] *$\beta(r)s_i = s_i\beta(r)$ for all $r \in R$, $i \in I$.*

(d) [**d**] *$\phi(r,n) = \beta(r)s^n$ for all $r \in R$, $n \in \mathbb{N}_I$.*

Proof. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ define $\gamma(n) = \phi(1,n)$. By 2.2.9 β is a ring homomorphism, $\gamma : (N_I, +) \to (S, \cdot)$ is a homomorphism and

$$\beta(r)\gamma(n) = \phi(r,n) = \gamma(n)\beta(n)$$

for all $r \in R$, $n \in N$. In particular, (a) holds.

Note that $\gamma(i) = s_i$ and so also (c) holds.

Since $i + j = j + i$, $s_i s_j = \gamma(i+j) = \gamma(j+i) = s_j s_i$ and (b) is proved.

Since γ is a homomorphism, $\gamma(n) = \gamma\big(\sum_{i\in I} n_i i\big) = \prod_{i\in I} \gamma(i)^{n_i} = s^n$ and so (d) holds. □

2.3 Elementary Properties of Rings

Definition 2.3.1. [**def:zero divisor**] *Let R be a ring and $a \in R$.*

(a) [**e**] $R^{\#} = R \setminus \{0\}$.

(b) [**a**] *a is left (right)* zero divisor *if $a \neq 0_R$ and there there exists $b \in R^{\#}$ with $ab = 0$ (resp. $ba = 0$). a is a zero divisor if a is a left or a right zero divisor.*

Suppose now that R has an identity.

(c) [**b**] *a is called (left,right,) invertible if it is (left,right,) invertible in $(R, \cdot)$. An invertible element is also called a unit.*

(d) [**f**] $\mathrm{U}(R)$ *is the set of units in R.*

(e) [**c**] *R is called an* integral domain *if R is commutative, $1_R \neq 0_R$ and R has no zero-divisors.*

(f) [**d**] *R is called a* division ring *if $1_R \neq 0_R$ and all it non-zero elements are invertible. A* field *is a commutative division ring.*

Note that a ring with identity is a zero ring (that is $R = \{0_R\}$ if and only if $1_R = 0_R$. So in (e) and (f) the condition $1_R \neq 0_R$ can be replaced by $R \neq \{0_R\}$.

Lemma 2.3.2. [**cancel rings**] *Let R be a ring. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

(a) [**a**] *R has no right zero-divisors.*

(b) [**b**] *If $a, b \in R$ with $ab = 0_R$, then $a = 0_R$ or $b = 0_R$.*

(c) [**c**] *R has no left zero-divisors.*

(d) [**d**] *The* Right Cancellation Law *holds, that is*

$a = b$ for all $a, b, c \in R$ with $c \neq 0$ and $ac = bc$

(e) [**e**] *The* Left Cancellation Law *holds, that is*

$a = b$ for all $a, b, c \in R$ with $c \neq 0$ and $ca = cb$

Clearly (a) and (b) are equivalent and similarly (b) and (c) are equivalent.
Suppose that R has no left zero-divisors and $a, b, c \in R$ with $c \neq 0_R$ and $ab = ac$. Then

$$0_R = ac - bc = (a - b)c$$

Since R has no left zero-divisors this implies $a - b = 0_R$ and so $a = b$. Thus the Right Cancellation Law holds.

Suppose the Right Cancellation Law holds and let $a, b \in R$ with $b \neq 0_R$ and $ab = 0_R$. Then $ab = 0_R = 0_R \cdot b$ and so by the Right Cancellation Law, $a = 0_R$. So R has no left zero-divisors. Thus (c) and (d) are equivalent. Similarly (a) and (e) are equivalent.

Example 2.3.3. [**ex:zero-divisors**]

1. [**a**] $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{Q}$ and $\mathbb{C}$ are fields. $\mathbb{Z}$ is an integral domain.

2. [**b**] Let R is be an integral domain and G an abelian monoid. Is $R[G]$ an integral domain?

   We will first show:

   1°. [**1**] *Suppose there exists $a, b, c \in G$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ with $a \neq b$ and $a^n c = b^n c$. Then c or $a - b$ is a zero divisor. In particular, $R[G]$ is not an integral domain.*

   Assume first that $a^n \neq b^n$. Then $a^n - b^n \neq 0$ in $R[G]$ and

   $$(a^n - b^n)c = a^n c - b^n c = 0$$

   so c is a zero divisor.

   Assume next that $a^n = b^n$ and choose k minimal with $a^k = b^k$. Let $0 \leq m < k$ and define

   $$\tau(m) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} a^i b^{m-i}$$

   Then

   $$(a-b)\tau(m) = (a-b)\sum_{i=0}^{m} a^i b^{m-i} = \ a^{m+1} - b^{m+1}$$

   and so

   $$(a-b)\tau(k-1) = 0$$

   If $\tau(k-1) \neq 0$, $a - b$ is a zero divisor.

   So suppose that $\tau(k-1) = 0$. Then we choose $l \in \mathbb{N}$ minimal with $a^j \tau(l) = 0$ for some $j \in \mathbb{N}$. Looking at the coefficients of a^{j+l} in $a^j \tau(l)$ we see that $a^{j+l} = a^{j+l-i} b^i$ for some $1 \leq i \leq l$. Hence $a^{j+l-i} a^i = a^{j+l-i} b^i$. Put $t = j + l - i$. Then $a^t a^i = a^t b^i$ and so and

   $$0 = a^t a^i - a^l b^i = a^t (a^i - b^i) = a^t \tau(i-1)(a-b)$$

   Note that $i - 1 < i \leq l$ and so by minimality of l, $a^t \tau(i-1) \neq 0$. Thus $a - b$ is a zero divisor.

   2°. [**2**] *Suppose that*

   $$(*) \qquad a^n c \neq b^n c$$

   for all $a, b, c \in G$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ with $a \neq b$. Then $R[G]$ is an integral domain.

We will only outline a proof (and use a couple of result proven later).

The special case $n = 1$ in (*) shows that the cancellation law holds in G. So by 2.7.1 there G can be embedded an abelian group H such that $H = \{ab^{-1} \mid a, b \in G\}$. H is a group. If $(ab^{-1})^n = 1$ for some $a, b \in G$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, then $a^n = b^n$, and (*) applied with $c = 1$, gives $a = b$ and $ab^{-1} = 1$. Thus H has no-nontrivial elements of finite order and since H is a group we conclude that (*) holds for H. So we may assume from now on that G is a group.

Let $r, s \in R[G]$ with $r \neq 0$ and $s \neq 0$. We need to show that $rs \neq 0$. Let $F = \langle g, h \in G \mid r_g \neq 0, s_h \neq 0\rangle$. Replacing G by F we may assume that G is finitely generated. Since G has no non-trivial elements of finite order a theorem proved sometime later will show that $G \cong \mathbb{Z}^m$ for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$. So we may assume that $G = \mathbb{Z}^m$. Since $\mathbb{Z}^{m+1} = \mathbb{Z}^m \times \mathbb{Z}$, $R[\mathbb{Z}^{m+1}] \cong R[\mathbb{Z}^m][\mathbb{Z}]$ (see Homework 5) and so by induction we may assume that $m = 1$. Let $x = 1 \in G$. Then $r = \sum_{i=k}^{n} r_i x^i$ for some $k \leq n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r_i \in R$ with $r_n \neq 0_R$ and $s = \sum_{j=l}^{m} s_j x^j$ for some $l \leq m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $s_j \in R$ with $s_m \neq 0_R$. Then the coefficient of x^{n+m} in rs is $r_n s_m$ and since R is an integral domain $r_n s_m \neq 0$ and so also $xy \neq 0$.

Definition 2.3.4. [**def:exponent**]

(a) [**a**] *Let G be a group We say that G has finite* exponent *of there exists $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ with $g^n = e$ for n for all $g \in G$. If G has finite exponent then exponent* $\exp(G)$ *of G is the smallest positive integer m with $g^m = 1$ for all $g \in G$, otherwise* $\exp(G) = \infty$.

(b) [**b**] *Let R be a ring. If $(R, +)$ is has finite exponent then the* characteristic $\operatorname{char} R$ *of R is the exponent of $(R, +)$. If $(R, +)$ has infinite exponent then* $\operatorname{char} R = 0$.

Lemma 2.3.5. [**char char**] *Let R be a ring with identity.*

(a) [**a**] *Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $n1_R = 0_R$ if and only if $nr = 0_R$ for all $r \in R$.*

(b) [**b**] *Suppose $1_R \neq 0_R$ and that R has no zero-divisors. Then* $\operatorname{char} R$ *is 0 or a prime.*

Proof. (a) If $nr = 0_R$ then clearly $n1_R = 0_R$. So suppose $n1_R = 0_R$. Then for all $r \in R$

$$nr = n(1_R r) = (n1_R)r = 0_R r = 0_R$$

(b) Suppose $n := \operatorname{char} R \neq 0$. If $n = 1$, then $0_R = 1 \cdot 1_R = 1_R$, contrary to the assumptions. So $n > 1$. Let $n = st$ with $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Then

$$0_R = n1_R = (st)1_R = st1_R1_R = (s1_R)(t1_R)$$

Since R has no zero divisors we conclude that $s1_R = 0_R$ or $t1_R = 0_R$. The minimality n implies $s = n$ or $t = n$. Hence n is a prime. □

2.4 Ideals and homomorphisms

Definition 2.4.1. [**def:subring**] *Let $(R,+,\cdot)$ be ring.*

(a) [**a**] *A subring of R is a ring $(S,\triangle,\square)$ such that $S \subseteq R$, and*

$$s\triangle t = s+t \quad \text{and} \quad s\square r = s\cdot t$$

for all $s,t \in S$

(b) [**b**] *A left (right)* ideal *in R is a subring I of R so that $rI \subseteq I$ ($Ir \subseteq I$) for all $r \in R$.*

(c) [**c**] *An ideal in R is a subring of R which is left and right ideal in R.*

Lemma 2.4.2. [**subring**] *Let $(R,+,\cdot)$ be a ring and $S \subseteq R$. The $(S,+,\cdot)$ is a subring of R if and only if*

(i) [**i**] $0_R \in S$.

(ii) [**ii**] $a+b \in S$ *for all* $a,b \in S$.

(iii) [**iii**] $-a \in S$ *for all* $a \in S$.

(iv) [**iv**] $ab \in S$ *for all* $a,b \in S$.

Proof. Straightforward and we leave the few details to the reader. □

Lemma 2.4.3. [**basicring hom**] *Let $\phi : R \to S$ be a ring homomorphism.*

(a) [**a**] *If T is a subring of R, $\phi(T)$ is a subring of S.*

(b) [**b**] *If T is a subring of S then $\phi^{-1}(T)$ is a subring of R.*

(c) [**c**] $\ker\phi$ *an ideal in R.*

(d) [**d**] *If I is an (left,right) ideal in R and ϕ is onto, $\phi(I)$ is a (left,right) ideal in S.*

(e) [**e**] *If J is a (left,right) ideal in S, then $\phi^{-1}(J)$ is an (left,right) ideal on R.*

Proof. Straight forward. □

Example 2.4.4. [**ex:ideal**] Let (R,G) be a sesquiring with $G \neq \varnothing$.

(a) [**a**] By Example 2.2.7

$$\alpha : R[G] \to R, \sum r_g g \to \sum r_g.$$

is an onto ring homomorphism. The kernel of α is

$$R^\circ[G] := \left\{ \sum r_g g \mid \sum r_g = 0 \right\}$$

$R^\circ[G]$ is called the *augmentation ideal* of $R[G]$.

(b) [**b**]

Let $\beta : R \to S$ be a ring homomorphism and $\gamma : G \to H$ a semigroup homomorphism. Then by 2.2.8

$$\alpha : R[G] \to S[H], \quad \sum_{g\in G} r_g g \to \sum_{g\in G} \beta(r_g)\gamma(g)$$

is a ring homomorphism. What is the image and the kernel of γ? Clearly $\alpha(R[G]) = \beta(R)[\gamma(G)]$. Let $I = \ker\beta$. To compute $\ker\alpha$ note that

$$\alpha\left(\sum_{g\in G} r_g g\right) = \sum_{h\in H} \beta\left(\sum_{g\in\gamma^{-1}(h)} r_g\right) h$$

and so

$$\sum_{g\in G} r_g g \in \ker\alpha \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \qquad \sum_{g\in\gamma^{-1}(h)} r_g \in I \quad \text{for all } h \in \gamma(G).$$

If γ is a group homomorphism we can describe $\ker\alpha$ just in terms of $I = \ker\beta$ and $N := \ker\gamma$. Indeed the $\gamma^{-1}(h)$'s ($h \in \gamma(G)$) are just the cosets of N and so

$$\sum_{g\in G} r_g g \in \ker g \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \qquad \sum_{g\in T} r_g \in I \quad \text{for all } T \in G/N.$$

Definition 2.4.5. [**def:a+b**] *Let R be a ring and $A, B \subseteq R$. Then*

(a) [**b**] $\langle A\rangle$ *is subgroup of* $(R,+)$ *generated by A.*

(b) [**d**]

$$[\![A]\!] = \bigcap\{I \mid I \text{ is an ideal in } R, A \subseteq I\}$$
$$(\![A) = \bigcap\{I \mid I \text{ is a left ideal in } R, A \subseteq I\}$$
$$(A]\!] = \bigcap\{I \mid I \text{ is right ideal in } R, A \subseteq I\}$$

$[\![A]\!]$, $(\![A)$, $\langle A]\!]$ *are called the ideal, left ideal and right ideal, respectively, in R generated by A.*

Lemma 2.4.6. [**easy ideal**] *Let R be a ring, $A, B, C \subseteq R$ and $r \in R$.*

(a) [**C**] $\langle A, B\rangle = \langle A\rangle + \langle B\rangle$.

(b) [**A**] $r\langle A\rangle = \langle rA\rangle$ *and* $\langle A\rangle r = \langle Ar\rangle$.

(c) [**B**] $\langle AB\rangle = \big\langle A\langle B\rangle\big\rangle = \big\langle\langle A\rangle\langle B\rangle\big\rangle = \big\langle\langle A\rangle B\big\rangle$.

(d) [**a**] *If A is a left ideal, then $\langle AB\rangle$ is a left ideal.*

(e) [**b**] *If B is a right ideal, then $\langle AB\rangle$ is a right ideal.*

(f) [**c**] *If A is a left ideal in R and B is right ideal, then $\langle AB\rangle$ is an ideal in R.*

(g) [**d**] *If $(A_i)_{i\in I}$ be a family of (left,right,) ideals of R, then $\langle A_i, i \in I\rangle$ is a (left,right,) ideal.*

(h) [**e**] *Let $(A_i)_{i\in I}$ be a family of (left,right,) ideals of R, then $\bigcap_{i\in I} A_i$ is a (left,right) ideal.*

(i) [**g**] *$(\!|A)$ is a left ideal in R, $(\!|A) = \langle RA, A\rangle$ and if R has a left identity then $(\!|A) = \langle RA\rangle$.*

(j) [**h**] *$(A|\!)$ is a right ideal in R, $(A|\!) = \langle AR, A\rangle$ and if R has a right identity then $(A|\!) = \langle AR\rangle$.*

(k) [**i**] *$(\!|A|\!)$ is an ideal in R, $(\!|A|\!) = \langle RAR, RA, AR, A\rangle$ and R has an identity, then $(\!|A|\!) = \langle RAR\rangle$.*

(l) [**j**] *If R is commutative $\big\langle (\!|A)(B|\!)\big\rangle = (\!|AB|\!)$.*

Proof. Let $r \in R, a \in A$ and $b \in B$.

(a) Since $+$ is commutative, $\langle A\rangle + \langle B\rangle$ is an additive subgroup of R and so (a) holds.

(b) Since left and right multiplication by r are additive homomorphism, (d) follow from conclude from 1.8.5(c).

(c) By (b) $a\langle B\rangle = \langle aB\rangle \leq \langle AB\rangle$ and so

$$(*) \qquad \big\langle A\langle B\rangle\big\rangle = \langle AB\rangle$$

(*) applied to opposite ring gives $\big\langle \langle A\rangle B\big\rangle = \langle AB\rangle$.

(*) applied to $\langle A\rangle$ in place of A yields $\big\langle \langle A\rangle\langle B\rangle\big\rangle = \langle \langle A\rangle B\rangle$ and so (c) holds.

(d) Since A is a left ideal $RA \subseteq A$. So using (c)

$$R\langle AB\rangle \subseteq \langle RAB\rangle \subseteq \langle AB\rangle$$

and so $\langle AB\rangle$ is left ideal.

(e) Apply (d) to the opposite ring.

(f) Follows from (d) and (e).

(g) Suppose $(A_i)_{i\in I}$ is a family of left ideal in R. Then by (c)

$$R\langle A_i, i \in I\rangle \subseteq \langle RA_i, i \in I\rangle \subseteq \langle A_i, i \in I\rangle$$

and so $\langle A_i, i \in I\rangle$ is a left ideal. Applying this statement to the opposite ring completes the proof of (g).

(h) Suppose each A_i is an left ideal. By 1.8.3 $\bigcap_{i\in I} A_i$ is subgroup of $(R, +)$. Let $a \in \bigcap_{i\in I} A_i$. Then $a \in A_i$ and so $ra_i \in A_i$ for all $i \in I$. Thus $ra_i \in \bigcap_{i\in I} A_i$ and so $\bigcap_{i\in I} A_i$ is a left ideal. Applying this statement also to the opposite ring completes the proof of (g).

(i) Clearly $\langle RA, A\rangle$ is contained in every left ideal containing A, and so also $(\!|A)$. So it suffices to show that $\langle RA, A\rangle$ is left ideal. We have

$$R(RA \cup A) = RRA \cup RA = RA$$

and so by (c), $R\langle RA, A\rangle \subseteq \langle RA\rangle \subseteq \langle RA, A\rangle$.

If R has an left identity l, , then $A = lA \subseteq RA$ and so $\langle RA, A\rangle = \langle RA\rangle$

(j) Apply (i) to the opposite ring.

(k) By definition $[\![A]\!]$ is an intersection of ideals and so by (h), is an ideal.

$$(**) \qquad \langle RAR, AR, RA, A\rangle = \langle R(AR \cup A), (AR \cup A)\rangle$$

and so by (i) $\langle RAR, AR, RA, A\rangle$ is a left ideal and so (after applying this to the opposite ring) is an ideal in R. $\langle RAR, AR, RA, A\rangle$ is contained in any ideal containing A and the first statement in (k) holds.

If R has an identity, $A \cup AR \cup A \cup RAR = 1A1 \cup 1AR \cup 1A1 \cup RAR = RAR$ and also the second statement holds.

(l) Since R is commutative $[\![A]\!] = \langle A, RA\rangle$ and so using (c)

$$\big\langle [\![A]\!][\![B]\!]\big\rangle = \big\langle \langle A, RA\rangle\langle B, RB\rangle\big\rangle = \langle AB, RAB, ARB, RARB\rangle = \langle AB, RAB, RRAB\rangle = \langle AB, RAB\rangle = [\![AB]\!]$$

□

Lemma 2.4.7. [**RmodI**] *Let I be an ideal in the ring R.*

(a) [**a**] *The binary operations*

$$\begin{aligned} +_{R/I} \quad &: \quad R/I \times R/I \to R/I, \qquad (a+I, b+I) \quad \to \quad (a+b)+I \quad \textit{and} \\ \cdot_{R/I} \quad &: \quad R/I \times R/I \to R/I, \qquad (a+I, b+I) \quad \to \quad ab+I \end{aligned}$$

are well-defined.

(b) [**b**] $(R/I, +_{R/I}, \cdot_{R/I})$ *is a ring.*

(c) [**c**] *The map*

$$\pi : R \to R/I, \quad r \to r+I$$

is a ring homomorphism with kernel I.

Proof. (a) That $+_{R/I}$ is well-defined follows from 1.6.10. $i, j \in I$. Then $(a+i)(b+j) = ab+ib+aj+ij$. As I is an ideal, $ib + aj + ij \in I$ and so $(a+i)(b+j) + I = ab + I$. Thus also $\cdot_{R/N}$ is well-defined.

(b) By 1.6.10 $(R/I, +)$ is a group. The remaining axiom of a ring are readily verified.

(c) By 1.6.10 is a well-defined homomorphism of abelian groups with $\ker\pi = I$. Since

$$\phi(ab) = ab + I = (a+I) \cdot_{R/I} (b+I) = \pi(a) \cdot_{R/I} \pi(b)$$

and so π is ring homomorphism. □

Remark 2.4.8. [**rm:dot to versus**]

(a) [**a**] *Let $A, B \in R/I$. Note that A, B is are subsets of R and so $A \cdot B = \{a \cdot b \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$. In general, $A \cdot_{R/I} B$ is not equal to $A \cdot B$.*

(b) [**b**] *If a, b are elements of R/I denoted by lower case letters, then ab is understood to mean $a \cdot_{R/I} b$ and not $a \cdot b$.*

Consider for example $R = \mathbb{Z}$ and $A = B = I = 2\mathbb{Z}$. Then

$$2\mathbb{Z} \cdot 2\mathbb{Z} = 4\mathbb{Z} \text{ and } 2\mathbb{Z} \cdot_{Z/2\mathbb{Z}} 2\mathbb{Z} = (0 + 2\mathbb{Z}) \cdot_{\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}} (0 + 2\mathbb{Z}) = 0 + 2\mathbb{Z} = 2\mathbb{Z}$$

Theorem 2.4.9 (The Isomomorphism Theorem for Rings)**.** [**itr**] *Let $\phi : R \to S$ be a ring homomorphism. Then the map*

$$\overline{\phi} : R/\ker\phi \to \phi(R), \quad r + \ker\phi \to \phi(r)$$

is a well-defined isomorphism of rings.

Proof. By the Isomorphism Theorem for groups 1.6.11, this is a well-defined isomorphism for the additive groups. We have

$$\overline{\phi}((a + \ker\phi)(b + \ker\phi)) = \overline{\phi}(ab + \ker\phi) = \phi(ab) = \phi(a)\phi(b) = \overline{\phi}(a + \ker\phi)\overline{\phi}(b + \ker\phi)$$

and $\overline{\phi}$ is a ring isomorphism. □

Definition 2.4.10. [**dprime**] *Let I be an ideal in the ring R with $I \neq R$.*

(a) [**a**] *I is* prime ideal *if for all ideals A, B in R*

$$AB \subseteq I \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad A \leq I \text{ or } B \leq I$$

(b) [**b**] *I is a* maximal ideal *if for each ideal A of R.*

$$I \subseteq A \subseteq R \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad A = I \quad \text{or} \quad A = R.$$

Example 2.4.11. [**ex:prime ideal**] Let I be an ideal in $\mathbb{Z}$ with $I \neq \mathbb{Z}$. Then I is a subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}$ and so $I = n\mathbb{Z}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n \neq 1$. Let $A = a\mathbb{Z}$ and $B = b\mathbb{Z}$ with $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $AB = ab\mathbb{Z}$ and so $AB \leq I$ if and only if $n \mid ab$. Also $n\mathbb{Z} \leq a\mathbb{Z}$ if and only if $n \mid a$. Thus I is a prime ideal if and only if

$$n \mid ab \Longrightarrow n \mid a \text{ or } n \mid a$$

This is this is case if and only if $n = 0$ or n is a prime. So the prime ideals in $\mathbb{Z}$ are $\{0\}$ and $p\mathbb{Z}$, p a prime.

I is a maximal ideal if and only if $n\mathbb{Z} \leq a\mathbb{Z}$ implies $n\mathbb{Z} = a\mathbb{Z}$ or $a\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z}$. So if and only if $a \mid n$ implies $n = a$ or $n = 1$. This is the case if and only if n is a prime. So the maximal ideals in $\mathbb{Z}$ are $p\mathbb{Z}$, p a prime.

Lemma 2.4.12. [**basicprime**] *Let P be an ideal in the ring R with $P \neq R$. Suppose that for all $a, b \in R$,*

$$ab \in P \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad a \in P \quad or \quad b \in P$$

then P is a prime ideal

Proof. Let A and B are ideals in R with $AB \leq P$. We need to show that $A \leq P$ or $B \leq P$. So suppose $A \nleq P$ and pick $a \in A \setminus P$. Since $ab \in P$ for all $b \in B$ we conclude $b \in P$ and $B \leq P$. □

Lemma 2.4.13. [**prime ideal for commutative**] *Let P be an ideal in the commutative ring R with $P \neq R$. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

(a) [**a**] *R is a prime ideal.*

(b) [**b**] *For all $a, b \in R$,*

$$ab \in P \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad a \in P \quad or \quad b \in P$$

(c) [**c**] *R/P has no zero divisors.*

Proof. (a) $\Longrightarrow$ (b): Suppose that P is prime ideal and let $a, b \in R$ with $ab \in P$. By 2.4.6(l)

$$\langle (\!|a|\!)(\!|b|\!) \rangle = (\!|ab|\!) \subseteq P$$

As P is prime ideal, $(\!|a|\!) \subseteq P$ or $(\!|b|\!) \subseteq P$. Hence $a \in P$ or $b \in P$.

By 2.4.12 (b) implies (a).
Since (b) and (c) are clearly equivalent, the lemma is proved. □

Lemma 2.4.14. [**primeintegral**] *Let R be a non-zero commutative ring with identity and P an ideal in R. Then P is prime ideal if and only if R/P is an integral domain.*

Proof. If P is a prime ideal or if R/P is an integral domain we have that $R \neq P$. So the lemma follows from 2.4.12c. □

Lemma 2.4.15. [**union of chain of ideal**] *Let R be a ring and $\mathcal{M}$ be chain of ideal in R. (So $\mathcal{M}$ is a set of ideal and if $A, B \in \mathcal{M}$, then $A \subseteq B$ or $B \subseteq A$). Then $\bigcup \mathcal{M}$ is an ideal in R.*

Proof. Put $M = \bigcup \mathcal{M}$. Since $\mathcal{M} \neq \varnothing$, there exists $C \in \mathcal{M}$. Hence $0 \in C \subseteq M$. Let $a, b \in M$. Then there exist $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$ with $a \in A$ and $B \in \mathcal{C}$. Since $\mathcal{C}$ is chain, $A \subseteq B$ or $B \subseteq A$. Say $A \subseteq B$. Then both a and b are contained in B and so $a + b \in B \subseteq M$. Also if $r \in R$, then $-a, ra$ and ar all are in A and so in M. Thus M is an ideal in R. □

Remark 2.4.16. [**rm:union chain**] *A similar argument show that the union of a chain of subgroups is a subgroup and the union of a chain of subrings is a subring. See A.5.6 in the appendix for a common proof of these facts.*

Theorem 2.4.17. [**basicmaximal**] *Let R be a ring with identity and I an ideal in R with $I \neq R$. Then I is contained in a maximal ideal. In particular, every non-zero ring with identity has a maximal ideal.*

Proof. The second statement follows from the first applied to the zero ideal.

To prove the first statement we apply Zorn's lemma A.2.8. For this let $\mathcal{M}$ be the set of ideals J of R with $I \subseteq J \subsetneq R$. Order $\mathcal{M}$ by inclusion and let $\mathcal{C}$ be a nonempty chain in $\mathcal{M}$. So $\varnothing \neq \mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{M}$ and if $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$, then $A \subseteq B$ or $B \subseteq A$. Let $M = \bigcup \mathcal{C}$. By 2.4.15 M is an ideal

Since $\mathcal{C} \neq \varnothing$ we can choose $C \in \mathcal{C}$. Since $I \subseteq C$, $I \subseteq M$. Since $(\!|1|\!) = R$, $1 \notin C$ for all $C \in \mathcal{C}$ and so $1 \notin M$. Hence $M \neq R$ and $M \in \mathcal{M}$. Since $C \subseteq M$ for all $C \in \mathcal{M}$, M is an upper bound for $\mathcal{M}$. Thus by Zorn's Lemma $\mathcal{M}$ has a maximal element J. If $J \subseteq A$ for some ideal $A \neq R$, then $I \subseteq A$, $A \in \mathcal{M}$ and so by maximality of M in $\mathcal{M}$, $A = J$. Thus J is a maximal ideal of R containing I. □

Theorem 2.4.18. [**maximalprime**] *Let M be a maximal ideal in the ring R. Then M is a prime ideal if and only $R^2 \nsubseteq M$. In particular if R is a ring with $\langle R^2 \rangle = R$ or a ring with identity then every maximal ideal is a prime ideal.*

Proof. We will show that $R^2 \subseteq M$ if and only if M is not a prime ideal.

Suppose $R^2 = RR \subseteq M$. Since R is an ideal in R and $R \nsubseteq M$, we conclude that M is not a prime ideal.

Suppose that M is not a prime ideal. Then $AB \subseteq M$ for some ideals A and B with $A \nsubseteq M$ and $B \nsubseteq M$. By 2.4.6(g), $A + M$ and $B + M$ are ideals in R. So the maximality of M implies $R = A + M = B + M$. Thus $R^2 = (A + M)(B + M) \subseteq AB + M \subseteq M$.

If R has an identity, then $\langle R^2 \rangle = R$ and if $\langle R^2 \rangle = R$, then $R^2 \nsubseteq M$. So the second statement follows from the first. □

Definition 2.4.19. [**def:simple ring**] *Let R be a ring.*

(a) [**a**] *A subring of S of R is called proper, if $S \neq 0$ and $S \neq R$.*

(b) [**b**] *R is called* simple *if $R^2 \neq 0$ and R has no proper ideals.*

Lemma 2.4.20. [**basicsimplerings**]

(a) [**a**] *Let R be a division ring. Then R has no proper left or right ideals. In particular, R is simple.*

(b) [**b**] *Let R be commutative ring. Then R is simple if and only if R is a field.*

Proof. (a) Let I be an non-zero left ideal in R and pick $0 \neq i \in I$. Then $1 = i^{-1}i \in Ri \subseteq R$ and so $R = R1 \subseteq I$. Similarly R has no proper right ideals. Since $0 \neq 1 = 1^2 \in R^2$, $R^2 \neq 0$ and so R is simple.

(b) Let R be simple commutative ring. Then $R^2 \neq 0$ and we can choose $a \in R$ with $Ra \neq 0$. Since R is commutative, Ra is an ideal in R and so $R = Ra$. Hence any $r \in R$ there exists $r_a \in R$ with $r = r_a a$. Then $ra_a = (r_a a)(a_a) = r_a(aa_a) = r_a a = r$ and so $1 = a_a$ is an identity in R. Note that 1_a is an inverse of a and so a is invertible. We proved that any element in $a \in R$ with $Ra \neq 0$ is a unit. Since $1b = b \neq 0$ for all $0 \neq b \in R$, this shows that all non-zero elements are units. Since $R \neq 0$, $1 \neq 0$ and so R is a field.

If R is a field, then by (a), R is simple. □

Lemma 2.4.21. [**max=simple**] *Let R be a ring and M an ideal in R. Then R/M is simple if and only if M is a maximal ideal with $R^2 \nsubseteq M$.*

Proof. In both cases $M \neq R$ and so we may assume $M \neq R$. We have $(R/M)^2 \neq 0_{R/M}$ if and only if $R^2 \nsubseteq M$. R/M has no proper ideals if and only if there does not exist an ideal J with $I \subsetneq J \subsetneq R$ and so if and only if M is a maximal ideal. □

2.5 Factorizations in commutative rings

Definition 2.5.1. [**def:divide**] *Let R be a commutative ring and $a, b \in R$.*

(a) [**a**] *We say that a* divides *b and write $a \mid b$, if $(\!(b)\!) \subseteq (\!(a)\!)$.*

(b) [**b**] *We say that a and b are* associate *and write $a \sim b$, if $(\!(a)\!) = (\!(b)\!)$*

(c) [**c**] *We say that a is proper if $0 \neq (\!(a)\!) \neq R$.*

(d) [**d**] *a is a generator (of R) if $(\!(a)\!) = R$.*

Lemma 2.5.2. [**easy divide**] *Let R be a commutative ring and $a, b \in R$.*

(a) [**a**] *$a \sim b \iff a \mid b$ and $b \mid a$.*

(b) [**b**] *The relation $\mid$ on R is reflexive and transitive.*

(c) [**c**] *The relation $\sim$ on R is an equivalence relation.*

(d) [**d**] *$a \mid b$ if and only if $b \in (\!(a)\!)$.*

(e) [**e**] *If a is a generator of R, then b is a generator if and only if $a \sim b$,*

(f) [**f**] *If R has an identity, then $a \mid b$ if and only if $b = ra$ for some $r \in R$.*

Proof. Obvious. □

Lemma 2.5.3. [**basic generator**] *Let R be a commutative ring and $u \in R$. The following are equivalent*

(a) [**a**] *$u \mid r$ for all $r \in R$.*

(b) [**b**] *u is a generator of R.*

(c) [**c**] *$u \mid r$ for some generator r of R.*

Proof. (a) $\iff$ (b) : u is a generator if and only if $(\!(u)\!) = R$ if and only if $r \in (\!(u)\!)$ for all $r \in R$ and if only if $r \mid u$ for all $r \in R$.

(b) $\implies$ (c): Just observe that $u \sim u$.

(c) $\implies$ (b): If $u \mid r$ for some generator r, then $R = (\!(r)\!) \subseteq (\!(u)\!)$ and so $R = (\!(u)\!)$. □

Lemma 2.5.4. [**basic unit**] *Let R be a commutative ring with identity. Let $u \in R$. Then the following statements are equivalent*

(a) [**a**] *u is a generator.*

(b) [**b**] $Ru = R$.

(c) [**c**] *u is unit.*

(d) [**d**] $ur \mid r$ *for all* $r \in R$.

(e) [**e**] $ur \sim r$ *for all* $r \in R$.

(f) [**f**] *u is not contained in any maximal ideals of R.*

Proof. (a) $\Longleftrightarrow$ (b) : Since R is a commutative ring with identity, $(\!|u|\!) = Ru$. So u is a generator if and only $Ru = R$.

(b) $\Longrightarrow$ (c): Since $Ru = R$, $1 = ru$ for some $r \in R$. Since R is commutative, $ur = 1$ and so u is a unit.

(c) $\Longrightarrow$ (d): Since R is a unit, $su = 1$ for some $s \in R$. Hence $r = 1r = (su)r = s(ur)$ and so $ur \mid r$.

(d) $\Longrightarrow$ (e): Note that $r \mid ur$ and so $ur \mid r$ implies $ur \sim r$.

(e) $\Longrightarrow$ (f): Using $r = 1$ in (e) we get $u \sim 1$. Thus $(\!|u|\!) = (\!|1|\!) = R$ and so u is not contained in any maximal ideal of R.

(f) $\Longrightarrow$ (a): If $(\!|u|\!) \neq R$, 2.4.17 shows that $(\!|u|\!)$ is contained in a maximal ideal, contrary the assumption. So $(\!|u|\!) = R$ and u is a generator. □

Lemma 2.5.5. [**r*orbits**] *Let R be a commutative ring with identity and $a, b \in R^\sharp$. Suppose b is not a zero-divisor.*

(a) [**a**] *Let $b = ua$. Then $a \sim b$ if and only if u is a unit.*

(b) [**b**] *Let $a, b \in R$. Then $a \sim b$ if and only if $b = ua$ for a unit u in R.*

Proof. (a) The "if" part follows from 2.5.4(d).

So suppose that $b \sim a$. Then $a = vb$ for some $v \in R$. Thus $1b = b = ua = u(vb) = (uv)b$ and so $(1 - uv)b = 0$. Since b is not a zero-divisor, $uv = 1$. So u is a unit.

(b) Suppose $a \sim b$. Then $a \mid b$ and so $b = ua$ for some $u \in R$. Thus (a) shows $a \sim b$.

The converse follows directly from (a). □

Corollary 2.5.6. [**r***] *Let R be an integral domain. The equivalence classes of $\sim$ are the orbits of $\mathrm{U}(R)$ on R with respect to action by left multiplication.*

Proof. Note first that by 1.2.3(e), $(\mathrm{U}(R), \cdot)$ is a group and since $(R, \cdot)$ is associative $\mathrm{U}(R)$ acts on R by left multiplication. The corollary now follows from 2.5.5(b). □

Definition 2.5.7. [**dpid**] *Let R be a ring.*

(a) [**a**] *An ideal I is called a* principal ideal *if its generated by one element, that is $I = (\!|r|\!)$ for some $r \in R$.*

(b) [**b**] *R is called a* principal ideal ring *if every ideal is a principal ideal.*

(c) [**c**] *R is* principal ideal domain *(*PID*), if R is an integral domain and a principal ideal ring.*

(d) [**d**] *An ideal I in R s called finitely generated if* $I = (\!|F|\!)$ *for some finite subset F of R.*

Definition 2.5.8. [**def:prime**] *Let R be a commutative ring and c a proper element. c is called a* prime *if for all* $a, b \in R$

$$c \mid ab \quad \Longrightarrow \quad c \mid a \quad or \quad c \mid b.$$

Lemma 2.5.9. [**prime-ideal**] *Let p be proper element in the commutative ring R. Then following are equivalent:*

(a) [**1**] *p is a prime*

(b) [**2**] $(\!|p|\!)$ *is a prime ideal*

(c) [**3**] $R/(\!|p|\!)$ *has no zero-divisor.*

Proof. Let $d \in R$. Then $p \mid d$ if and only if $(\!|d|\!) \subseteq (\!|p|\!)$ and so if and only if $d \in (\!|p|\!)$. Thus for all $a, b \in R$

$$p \mid ab \quad \Longrightarrow \quad p \mid a \quad \text{or} \quad p \mid b$$

if and only if

$$ab \in (\!|p|\!) \quad \Longrightarrow \quad a \in (\!|p|\!) \quad \text{or} \quad b \in (\!|p|\!)$$

Thus the lemma follows from 2.4.13 □

Definition 2.5.10. [**def:irreducible**] *Let R be a commutative ring and c a proper element in R.*

(a) [**a**] *c is called* irreducible *if for all* $a, b \in R$

$$c \sim ab \quad \Longrightarrow \quad a \text{ is a generator} \quad or \quad b \text{ is a generator}$$

(b) [**b**] *c is called* weakly irreducible *if for all* $a, b \in R$

$$c \sim ab \quad \Longrightarrow \quad a \sim c \quad or \quad b \sim c$$

(c) [**c**] *c is called* divisor simple *if for all a in R*

$$a \mid c \quad \Longrightarrow \quad a \sim c \quad or \quad a \text{ is a generator}$$

Remark 2.5.11. [**rm:divisor simple**] *Let R be a commutative ring and* $c \in R$. *Then c is divisor simple if and only if* $(\!|c|\!)$ *is a maximal element in the set of proper principal ideal of R.*

Proof. Both statement just say that if $a \in R$ then

$$(\!|c|\!) \subseteq (\!|a|\!) \quad \Longrightarrow \quad (\!|c|\!) = (\!|a|\!) \quad \text{or} \quad (\!|a|\!) = R.$$

□

Remark 2.5.12. [**rm:associate and prime**] *Let R be a commutative ring and a, b associate elements in R. Then a is a prime (irreducible,weakly irreducible,divisor-simple, proper) if and only if b is.*

Proof. A glance at the definitions of these terms show that they only depended on $(\!|a|\!)$. □

Example 2.5.13. [**irreducible inn zxz**] For any proper $(a, b) \in \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}$ determine whether a is a prime, irreducible, weakly irreducible and/or divisor simple.

(a, b)	irreducible	divisor-simple	weakly irreducible	prime
$(1, p)$	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
$(0, 1)$	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
$(1, 0)$	No	No	Yes	Yes
otherwise	No	No	No	No

here p is a prime integer.

Lemma 2.5.14. [**irreducible**] *Let c be a proper element in the commutative ring R*

(a) [**a**] *If c is divisor-simple, then c is irreducible or $c \sim c^2$.*

(b) [**b**] *If c is divisor simple, then c is weakly irreducible or R has a generator and $(\!|c|\!) = \langle R^2 \rangle \neq R$.*

(c) [**c**] *If c is a prime, then c is weakly irreducible.*

Proof. (a) Suppose c is divisor simple and c is not irreducible. Then there exists $a, b \in R$ such that $c \sim ab$ and neither a nor b is a generator. Note that $a \mid c$ and $b \mid c$. Since c is divisor simple and neither a and b are generators, $a \sim c$ and $b \sim c$. Thus $(\!|a|\!) = (\!|c|\!) = (\!|b|\!)$ and so

$$(\!|c|\!) = (\!|ab|\!) = \langle (\!|a|\!)(\!|b|\!) \rangle = \langle (\!|c|\!)(\!|c|\!) \rangle = (\!|c^2|\!)$$

So indeed $c \sim c^2$.

(b) Suppose c is divisor simple and c is not weakly irreducible. Then there exists $a, b \in R$ such that $c \sim ab$ and neither a nor b is associated to c. Note that $a \mid c$ and $b \mid c$. Since c is divisor simple and neither a and b are associated to c, a and b are generators. Thus $(\!|a|\!) = R = (\!|b|\!)$ and so

$$(\!|c|\!) = (\!|ab|\!) = \langle (\!|a|\!)(\!|b|\!) \rangle = \langle R^2 \rangle$$

Since c is proper, $(\!|c|\!) \neq R$ and so (b) is proved

(c) Let $a, b \in R$ with $p \sim ab$. Since $p \mid p = ab$ and p is a prime, $p \mid a$ or $p \mid b$. Since $a \mid p$ and $b \mid p$, $p \sim a$ or $p \sim b$. So p is weakly irreducible. □

Lemma 2.5.15. [**irreducible with identity**] *Let c be a proper element in the commutative ring R with identity.*

(a) [**a**] *c is irreducible if and only if c is divisor-simple and $c \nsim c^2$.*

(b) [**b**] *If c is divisor simple, then c is weakly irreducible.*

(c) [**c**] *If c is weakly irreducible and not a zero-divisor, then c is irreducible.*

Proof. (a) Suppose c is irreducible Let $a \in R$ with $a \mid c$. Then $c = ab$ for some $a, b \in R$ Since c is irreducible a or b is a generator. If b is a generator, then by 2.5.4, $c = ab \sim a$. So $a \sim c$ or a is a generator. Thus c is divisor simple.

Suppose that $c \sim c^2$. Since c is irreducible, c is a generator, a contradiction since c is proper.

Thus $c \nsim c^2$ and the forward direction of (a) is proved. The backwards direction follows from 2.5.14(a).

(b) Since R has an identity, $R = R^2$ and so (b) follows from 2.5.14(a).

(c) Suppose c is weakly irreducible and not a zero-divisor. Let $a, b \in R$ with $c \sim ab$. Since c is weakly irreducible, $c \sim a$ or $c \sim b$. Say, $c \sim b$. Then $b = rc$ and $c = sab$ for some $r, s \in R$. So $1c = sab = sarc = (sra)c$. Since c is not a zero divisor, $sra = 1$ and so a is a unit and thus a generator. Hence c is irreducible.

□

Lemma 2.5.16. [**primes are irreducible**] *Let R be commutative ring with identity and $c \in R$ a proper non-zero divisor.*

(a) [**c**] *c is irreducible if and only if c is divisor-simple, if and only if c is weakly irreducible and if and only if $(\!|p|\!)$ is a maximal proper principal ideal.*

(b) [**a**] *If c is a prime, c is irreducible.*

Proof. (a) Since c is not a zero-divisor and not a unit 2.5.5 shows that $c \nsim c^2$. So (a) follows from 2.5.15 and 2.5.11

(b) By 2.5.14 the prime c is weakly irreducible and so by (b) c is irreducible. □

Lemma 2.5.17. [**prime and principal**] *Let R be principal ideal domain. Then the following are equivalent*

(a) [**1**] *p is a prime*

(b) [**2**] *p is irreducible.*

(c) [**3**] *$(\!|p|\!)$ is a maximal ideal.*

(d) [**4**] *$R/(\!|p|\!)$ is a field.*

Proof. (a) $\Longrightarrow$ (b): This is 2.5.16(b)

(b) $\Longrightarrow$ (c): By 2.5.16(a) $(\!|p|\!)$ is a maximal proper principal ideal. Since every ideal in a PID is a principal ideal, $(\!|p|\!)$ is a maximal ideal. So (c) holds.

(c) $\Longrightarrow$ (d): This follows from 2.4.21.

(d) $\Longrightarrow$ (a): By 2.4.18, $(\!|p|\!)$ is a prime ideal. So by 2.5.9 p is a prime. □

Proposition 2.5.18. [**uniquefactor**] *Let R be an commutative ring with identity and $a \in R$. Suppose that*

$$a = p_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot p_m \quad \text{and} \quad a = q_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot q_n$$

where $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, p_i is a non-zero-dividing prime for $1 \le i \le m$ and q_j is divisor-simple for $1 \le j \le n$. Then $n = m$ and there exists $\pi \in \mathrm{Sym}(m)$ with $p_i \sim q_{\pi(i)}$ for all $1 \le i \le m$.

Proof. Note that $p_m \mid a$. Since p_m is a prime, $p_m \mid q_j$ for some $1 \le j \le n$. Since q_j is divisor-simple and p_m is not a unit, $q_j \sim p_m$ and so $uq_j = p_m$ for some unit $u \in R$. Without loss, $j = n$.

Suppose $n = 1$. If $m = 1$ we are done. So suppose for a contradiction that $m > 1$. Then

$$(p_1 \dots p_{m-1})p_m = a = q_m \sim p_m.$$

Thus by 2.5.5(a), $p_1 \dots p_{m-1}$ is a unit and so divides 1. Hence also p_1 divides 1 and so p_1 is a unit, a contradiction.

Suppose $n > 1$. Then $p_{m-1}p_m = p_{m-1}(uq_n) = (up_{m-1})q_n$. By 2.5.5(a) $up_{m-1} \sim p_{m-1}$. Also $q_n \sim p_m$ and so by 2.5.16, up_{m-1} and q_n are non-zero-dividing primes. So replacing p_m by q_n and p_{m-1} by up_{m-1} we may assume that $q_n = p_m$.

Put $b = p_1 \dots p_{m-1}$ if $m > 1$ and $b = 1$ if $m = 1$. Then

$$(q_1 \dots q_{n-1})p_m = (q_1 \dots q_{n-1})q_n = a = (p_1 \dots p_{m-1})p_m = bp_m.$$

Since p_m is not a zero-divisor this implies

$$q_1 \dots q_{n-1} = b$$

Suppose that $m = 1$. Then $b = 1$ and so q_1 is a unit, a contradiction.

Thus $m > 1$ and

$$q_1 \dots q_{n-1} = p_1 \dots p_{m-1}$$

So by induction on n, $n-1 = m-1$ and there exists $\mu \in \mathrm{Sym}(m-1)$ with $p_i \sim q_{\mu(i)}$ for all $1 \le i \le m-1$. Defining $\pi \in \mathrm{Sym}(m)$ by $\pi(m) = m$ and $\pi(i) = \mu(i)$ for $1 \le i \le m-1$ we see that the lemma holds. □

Definition 2.5.19. [**def:ufd**] *A* unique factorization domain *(*UFD*) is an integral domain in which every proper element is a product of primes.*

Lemma 2.5.20. [**easy ufd**] *Let R be a UFD and $r \in R$. Then r is a prime if and only if r is irreducible.*

Proof. By 2.5.16 each prime in R is irreducible. Now let r be irreducible. Then by definition of a UFD, $r = p_1 \dots p_n$ where each p_i is a prime. Then by 2.5.18 $n = 1$ and so $r = p_1$ is a prime. □

Our next goals is to show that every PID is a UFD. For this we need a couple of preparatory lemmas.

Lemma 2.5.21. [**chainideal**] *Let $\mathcal{I}$ be chain of ideals in the ring R. If $\bigcup \mathcal{I}$ is finitely generated as an ideal, then $\bigcup \mathcal{I} \in \mathcal{I}$.*

Proof. Suppose that $\bigcup \mathcal{I} = (\!(F)\!)$ for some finite $F \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{I}$. For each $f \in F$ there exists $I_f \in \mathcal{I}$ with $f \in I_f$. Since $\mathcal{I}$ is totally ordered, the finite set $\{I_f \mid f \in F\}$ has a maximal element I. Then $I \in \mathcal{I}$, $F \subseteq I$ and so

$$\bigcup \mathcal{I} = (\!(F)\!) \subseteq I \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{I}.$$

Thus $\bigcup \mathcal{I} = I \in \mathcal{I}$. □

Lemma 2.5.22. [**minchain**] *Let R be an integral domain and $\mathcal{I}$ a non-empty set of principal ideals. Then one of the following holds:*

1. [**1**] $\bigcap \mathcal{I} = 0$ *and there exists a family $(I_k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ in $\mathcal{I}$ such that*

$$I_0 \supsetneq I_1 \supsetneq \ldots \supsetneq I_k \supsetneq I_{k+1} \supsetneq \ldots$$

   with $\bigcap_{k\in\mathbb{N}} I_k = 0$.

2. [**2**] *$\mathcal{I}$ has a minimal element.*

3. [**3**] *There exists a family $(J_k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ of principal ideal in R such that*

$$J_0 \subsetneq J_1 \subseteq \ldots \subsetneq J_k \subsetneq J_{k+1} \subsetneq \ldots$$

   and $\bigcup_{k\in\mathbb{N}} J_k$ is not finitely generated.

Proof. Assume that (2) does not hold. Then by A.3.9 (applied to the ordering on $\mathcal{I}$ by reverse inclusion) there exists a family $(I_k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ in $\mathcal{I}$ such that

$$I_0 \supsetneq I_1 \supseteq \ldots \supsetneq I_k \supsetneq I_{k+1} \supsetneq \ldots$$

If $\bigcap_{k\in\mathbb{N}} I_k = 0$, also $\bigcap \mathcal{I} = 0$ and so (1) holds. So we may assume that there exists $0 \neq a \in \bigcap_{k\in\mathbb{N}} I_k$. Since each I_n is a principal ideal, $I_n = (\!(a_n)\!)$ for some $a_n \in R$. Since $a \in I_n$, $a = r_n a_n$ for some $r_n \in R$. Since

$$(\!(a_{n+1})\!) = I_{n+1} \subsetneq I_n = (\!(a_n)\!)),$$

$a_{n+1} = s_n a_n$ for some non-unit s_n in R. Thus

$$r_n a_n = a = r_{n+1} a_{n+1} = r_{n+1} s_n a_n = r_{n+1} s_n a_n$$

Since R is an integral domain,

$$r_n = r_{n+1} s_n$$

Since s_n is not a unit, this gives

$$(\!(r_n)\!) \subsetneq (\!(r_{n+1})\!)$$

Put $J_n = (\!(r_n)\!)$. Then $J_n \subsetneq J_{n+1}$ and 2.5.21 shows that $\bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}} J_n$ is not finitely generated. So (3) holds. □

Lemma 2.5.23. [**maxmin**] *Let R be a ring in which every ideal is finitely generated.*

(a) [**a**] *Any nonempty set of ideals in R has a maximal member.*

(b) [**b**] *Suppose in addition that R is an integral domain. Then every non-empty set of principal ideals with nonzero intersection has a minimal member.*

Proof. (a) Otherwise A.3.9 implies that there exists an infinite strictly ascending chain of ideals

$$J_0 \subsetneq J_1 \subseteq \ldots \subsetneq J_k \subsetneq J_{k+1} \subsetneq \ldots$$

in R. But then 2.5.21 shows that $\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} J_k$ is not finitely generated, a contradiction.

(b) Let $\mathcal{I}$ be a non-empty set principal ideal in R with $\bigcap \mathcal{I} \neq 0$. By 2.5.22, $\bigcap \mathcal{I} = 0$, $\mathcal{I}$ has a minimal element or 2.5.22 as an infinite ascending chain of ideals. By assumption the first possibility does not holds. By (a), the last possibility does not holds and so $\mathcal{I}$ has a minimal element. □

Lemma 2.5.24. [**PIDUFD**] *Every principal ideal domain is a unique factorization domain.*

Proof. Let S be the set of proper elements in R which can be written as a product of primes. Let a be proper in R. We will first show

1°. [**1**] *a is divisible by a prime.*

By 2.5.23(a) there exists a maximal ideal I with with $(\!|a|\!) \subset I$. Since R is a PID, $I = (\!|s|\!)$ for some $s \in R$. Then by 2.5.17 s is a prime. Since $(\!|a|\!) \subseteq (\!|s|\!)$, $s \mid a$ and (1°) holds.

2°. [**2**] *Put $\mathcal{S} = \{(\!|s|\!) \mid s \in S, s \mid a\}$. Then $\mathcal{S} \neq \varnothing$ and $(\!|a|\!) \subseteq \bigcap \mathcal{S} \neq 0$.*

By (1°) there exists a prime s with $s \mid a$. Then $s \in S$ and so (2°) holds.

By (2°) and 2.5.23b, $\mathcal{S}$ has a minimal member, say $(\!|b|\!)$ with $b \in S$. Since $b \mid a$, $a = ub$ for some $u \in R$.

Suppose that u is not a unit. Then by (1°) applied to u, there exists a prime p dividing a. Then pb divides a and $pb \in S$. Thus $(\!|pb|\!) \in \mathcal{S}$ and since p is not a unit $(\!|pb|\!) \subsetneq (\!|b|\!)$, a contradiction to the minimal choice of $(\!|b|\!)$

Thus u is a unit and $a \sim b$. Since b is a product of primes and any associate of a prime is a prime, we conclude that a is a product of primes. □

2.6 Euclidean Rings

Definition 2.6.1. [**def:pre-euclidean**] *Let R be a ring.*

(a) [**a**] *A* pre-Euclidean *function on R is a function $d : R \to \Lambda$, where Λ is a well-ordered set* [2]*, such that for all $a, b \in R$ with $b \neq 0$*

(i) [**a**] *$d(0) < d(b)$ and*

(ii) [**b**] *if $d(b) \leq d(a)$, then there exists $t \in (\!|b|\!)$ with $d(a - t) < d(a)$*

(b) [**b**] *R is called an* Euclidean domain *if R is an integral domain and there exists an pre-Euclidean function on R.*

Example 2.6.2. [**ex:euclidean**]

[2] see A.2.9 in the appendix for the definition of a well ordered set

1. [**1**] Let $d : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{N}, m \to |m|$ be the absolute value function. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $0 < |b| \leq |a|$. If a and b are both positive or both negative, then $|a - b| < |a|$. If one of a, b is positive and the other negative, then $|a + b| > |a|$. So d is a pre-Euclidean function. Thus $\mathbb{Z}$ is an Euclidean domain.

2. [**2**] Let $\mathbb{F}$ be any field, $\Lambda = \{-\infty\} \cup \mathbb{N}$. Let $0 \neq f, g \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ of degree n and m respectively. Suppose that $n < m$. Let a and b be the leading coefficients of f and g, respectively. $ba^{-1}x^{m-n}f$ is a polynomial of degree m and leading coefficient b. Thus $g - ba^{-1}x^{m-n}f$ has degree less than g and so d is a pre-Euclidean function.

   Note also that fg is a polynomial of degree x^{n+m} with leading coefficient ab. Thus $fg \neq 0$ and so $\mathbb{F}[x]$ is an integral domain. Hence $\mathbb{F}[x]$ is a Euclidean domain.

Lemma 2.6.3. [**division algorithm**] *Let $d : R \to \Lambda$ be a pre-Euclidean function on a ring R. Let $a, b \in R$ with $b \neq 0$. Then there exist $s \in (\!(b)\!)$ and $r \in R$ and*

$$a = s + r \text{ and } d(r) < d(b).$$

Proof. Since Λ is well-ordered we can choose $s \in (\!(b)\!)$ with

$$(*) \qquad d(a - s) = \min\{d(a - t) \mid t \in (\!(b)\!)\}$$

Put $r = a - s$ and suppose that $d(r) \geq d(b)$. Then $r \neq 0$ and by the definition of a pre-Euclidean function there exists $t \in (\!(b)\!)$ such that $d(r - t) < d(r)$. But $r - t = (a - s) - t = a - (s + t)$. Since $s + t \in (\!(b)\!)$ and we obtain a contradiction (*). Hence $d(r) < d(b)$ and the lemma is proved. □

Definition 2.6.4. [**def:euclidean**] *Let R be an ring, Λ a well-ordered set and $d : R \to \Lambda$ a function such that for all $a, b \in R$ with $b \neq 0$:*

(i) [**c**] $d(0) < d(b)$.

(ii) [**a**] *If $0 \neq a \in (\!(b)\!)$, then $d(b) \leq d(a)$.*

(iii) [**b**] *There exist $s \in (\!(b)\!)$ and $r \in R$ with*

$$a = s + r \text{ and } d(r) < d(b).$$

Then d is called a Euclidean function

Lemma 2.6.5. [**pre-euclidean gives euclidean**] *Let R be a ring and d a pre-Euclidean function on R. Let $b \in R$. If $b = 0$ define $d^*(b) = d(b)$, otherwise put*

$$d^*(b) = \min\{d(s) \mid 0 \neq s \in (\!(b)\!)\}.$$

Then d^* is a Euclidean function.

Proof. We need to verify the conditions (i)- (iii) in the definition of an Euclidean function.

Let $a \in R$. Since $a \in (\!(a)$:

$$d^*(a) \leq d(a) \tag{1}$$

For any $x \in R$, choose $x^* \in (\!(x)$ with $x^* \neq 0$ and

$$d^*(x) = d(x^*) \tag{2}$$

Note that $x^* = 0$ if and only if $x = 0$. Let $0 \neq b \in R$.

(i): By definition of a pre-Euclidean function $d(0) < d(b^*)$ and so $d^*(0) < d^*(b)$.

(ii): Let $0 \neq a \in (\!(b)$. Then $a^* \in (\!(a) \subseteq (\!(b)$ and so by definition of d^*,

$$d^*(a) = d(a^*) \geq d(b^*) = d^*(b).$$

(iii): By 2.6.3 there exists $s \in (\!(b^*)$ and $r \in R$ with

$$a = s + r \text{ and } d(r) < d(b^*).$$

Since $b^* \in (\!(b)$, $s \in (\!(b^*) \subseteq (\!(b)$.

$$d^*(r) \leq d(r) < d(b^*) = d^*(b)$$

and so d^* is indeed an Euclidean function. □

Theorem 2.6.6. [**Euclidean implies PID**] *Let d be a pre-Euclidean function on the ring R and I a non-zero left ideal in R. Let $0 \neq b \in I$ with $d(b)$ minimal, then $I = (\!(b)$. In particular every Euclidean domain is a PID.*

Proof. Let $0 \neq b \in I$ with $d(b)$ minimal. Let $a \in I$. By 2.6.3 there exist $s \in (\!(b)$ and $r \in R$ such that $a = s + r$ and

$$d(r) < d(b)$$

Since $r = a - s$ and both a, s are in I we get $r \in I$. So the minimal choice of $d(b)$ implies $r = 0$. Thus $a = s \in (\!(b)$ and so $I = (\!(b)$. □

Definition 2.6.7. [**def:gcd**] *Let R be a commutative ring, $r \in R$ and $A \subseteq R$.*

(a) [**a**] *We say that r is a* common divisor *of A and write $r \mid A$ if $r \mid a$ for all $a \in A$.*

(b) [**b**] *We say that r is a* greatest common divisor *and write $r \sim \gcd A$ if r is common divisor of A and $s \mid r$ for all common divisor s of A.*

We remark that in a general commutative ring a given set of elements might not have a greatest common divisor.

Lemma 2.6.8. [**easy gcd**] *Let R be a commutative ring, $r \in R$ and $A \subseteq R$.*

(a) [**a**] *$r \mid A$ if and only if $(\!|A|\!) \subseteq (\!|r|\!)$.*

(b) [**c**] *r is a gcd of A if and only if for all $s \in R$*

$$s \mid A \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad s \mid r.$$

Proof. (a) By definition of dividing, $r \mid a$ if and only if $(\!|a|\!) \subseteq (\!|r|\!)$. Since $(\!|r|\!)$ is an ideal, $(\!|a|\!) \subseteq (\!|r|\!)$ for all $a \in A$ if and only if $(\!|A|\!) \subseteq (\!|r|\!)$. Thus (a) holds.

(b) Suppose r is a gcd. If $s \mid A$, then $s \mid r$ by definition of a gcd. If $s \mid r$, then since $r \mid A$ also $s \mid A$.

Suppose for all $s \in R$ we have $s \mid A \Longleftrightarrow s \mid r$. Since $r \mid r$ we get $r \mid A$. Also $s \mid r$ for all s with $s \mid A$ and so r is a gcd of A. □

Lemma 2.6.9. [**gcd and principal**] *Let R be a commutative ring and $A \subseteq R$*

(a) [**a**] *A has a common divisor in R if and only if A is contained in a principal ideal of R.*

(b) [**b**] *Suppose that A has a common divisor in R and let I be the intersection of the principal ideal containing A. Then A has a greatest common divisor if and only if I is principal ideal. In the case the greatest common divisor are exactly the generators of I. In particular, greatest common divisors are unique up to associates.*

Proof. Let $r \in R$.

(a) This holds since r is a common divisor of A if and only if $A \subseteq (\!|r|\!)$.

(b) Let $\mathcal{K}$ be the set of principal ideal containing A. r is a greatest common divisors of A if and only if $A \subseteq (\!|r|\!)$ and $(\!|r|\!) \subseteq (\!|s|\!)$ for all common divisor s of A. So r is a greatest common divisor if and only if $(\!|r|\!) \in \mathcal{K}$ and $(\!|r|\!) \subseteq K$ for all $K \in \mathcal{K}$. Thus if and only if $\langle r \rangle = I$. □

Lemma 2.6.10. [**gcd and pid**] *Let R be a commutative ring, $A \subseteq R$ and $r \in (\!|A|\!)$. Then the following are equivalent.*

(a) [**a**] *r is a common divisor of A.*

(b) [**b**] *$(\!|A|\!) = (\!|r|\!)$.*

(c) [**c**] *r is a greatest common divisor of A.*

Proof. (a) $\Longrightarrow$ (b): Suppose r is a common divisor of A. Then $(\!|A|\!) \subseteq (\!|r|\!)$. Since $r \in (\!|A|\!)$ we have $(\!|r|\!) \subseteq (\!|A|\!)$ and $(\!|r|\!) = (\!|A|\!)$.

(b) $\Longrightarrow$ (c): If $(\!|A|\!) = (\!|r|\!)$, $(\!|A|\!)$ is the intersection of the principal ideal containing $(\!|A|\!)$ and (c) follows from 2.6.9

(c) $\Longrightarrow$ (a): is obvious. □

Lemma 2.6.11. [**char ufd**] *Let R be an integral domain Let $\mathcal{P}$ a set of representatives for the primes in R, that is $\mathcal{P}$ is a set of primes and each prime in R is associate to exactly one element in $\mathcal{P}$. Put $\mathbb{p} = (p)_{p\in\mathcal{P}}$. Recall that*

$$\mathbb{N}_{\mathcal{P}} = \bigoplus_{p\in\mathcal{P}} \mathbb{N} \quad \textit{and} \quad \mathbb{p}^n = \prod_{p\in\mathcal{P}} p^{n_p},$$

where $n = (n_p)_{p\in\mathcal{P}} \in \mathbb{N}_{\mathcal{P}}$. The function

$$\mathrm{U}(R) \times \mathbb{N}_I \to R^\sharp,\ (u,n) \to u\mathbb{p}^n$$

is 1-1 homomorphism from the semigroup $(\mathrm{U}(R),\cdot)\times(\mathbb{N}_I,+)$ to the semigroup $(R^\sharp,\cdot)$. The function is onto if and only if R is a UFD.

Proof. The function is clearly a homomorphism. If $u\mathbb{p}^n = v\mathbb{p}^m$, the uniqueness of prime factorization shows that $n = m$. So $\mathbb{p}^n = \mathbb{p}^m$ and since R is an integral domain, $u = v$. So the map is 1-1.

If the function is onto each proper element is associated to a product or primes and so is a product of primes.

Suppose R is a UFD and let $a \in \mathbb{R}^\sharp$. If a is a unit, $a = a\mathbb{p}^0$. Suppose a is not a unit. Since R is a UFD, $a = q_1 \dots q_m$ for some primes $q_1, \dots, q_m$. Choose $p_i \in \mathcal{P}$ with $p_i \sim q_i$. Then $q_i = u_i p_i$ for some unite u_i. Put $u = \prod_{i=1}^m u_i$ and for $p \in \mathcal{P}$ let $n_p = \{1 \le i \le m \mid p_i = p\}$ and $n = (n_p)_{p\in\mathcal{P}}$. Then $a = u\mathbb{p}^n$ and so the map is onto. □

Lemma 2.6.12. [**gcd in ufds**] *Let R be a UFD and P a set of representatives for the primes in R, that is P is a set of primes and each prime in R is associate to exactly one element in P. Put $\mathbb{p} = (p)_{p\in P}$. Let $a, b \in R^\sharp$ and $B \subset R^\sharp$ with $B \neq \varnothing$. Let $\big(u(a), n(a)\big) \in U(R) \times \mathbb{N}_P$ be defined by*

$$a = u(a)\mathbb{p}^{n(a)}.$$

For $n, m \in \mathbb{N}_I$ define

$$n \le m \qquad \textit{if} \quad n_p \le m_p \quad \textit{for all } p \in P$$

Define

$$n(B) = \inf_{b\in B} n(b) \qquad \textit{that is} \qquad n_p(B) = \inf_{b\in B} n_p(b) \quad \textit{for all } p \in P.$$

(a) [**a**] *$a \mid b$ if and only if $n(a) \le n(b)$.*

(b) [**b**] *$a \mid B$ if and only if $n(a) \le n(B)$.*

(c) [**c**] *Let $p \in P$. Then*

$$n_p(b) = \max\{k \in \mathbb{N} \,\big|\, p^k \mid b\} \quad \textit{and } n_p(B) = \max\{k \in \mathbb{N} \,\big|\, p^k \mid B\}$$

(d) [**d**] $\mathbb{p}^{n(B)} \sim \gcd(B)$.

Proof. (a) a divides b if and only if $b = ad$ for some $d \in R$. Since $b \neq 0$, $d \neq 0$ and so $d = v\mathbb{p}^m$ for some $v \in \mathrm{U}(R)$ and $m \in \mathbb{N}_I$. Thus $a \mid b$ if and only if there exist $v \in \mathrm{U}(R)$ and $m \in \mathbb{N}_I$ with $u(b) = u(a)v$ and $n(b) = n(a) + m$. Since $u(b)$ and $u(a)$ are units, there exists a unique $v \in \mathrm{U}(R)$ with $u(b) = u(a)v$, namely $v = u(b)^{-1}u(a)$. There exists $m \in \mathbb{N}_I$ with $n(b) = n(a) + m$ if and only if $n(b) - n(a) \in \mathbb{N}_I$, that is $n(a) \leq n(b)$.

(b) $a \mid B$ if and only if $a \mid b$ for all $b \in B$. By (a) this holds if and only if $n(a) \leq n(b)$ for all $b \in B$ and so if and only if $n(a) \leq n(B)$.

(c) Let $q \in P$. Then $n_q(p^k) = 0$ for $q \neq p$ and $n_p(p^k) = k$. Thus by (a) and (b), $p^k \mid b$ if only if $k \leq n_p(b)$ and $p^k \mid B$ if and only if $k \leq n_p(B)$. Thus (c) holds.

(d) Note that $n\left(\mathbb{p}^{n(B)}\right) = n(B)$. Thus by (a) and (b) $a \mid \mathbb{p}^{n(B)}$ if and only if $n(a) \leq n(B)$ and if and only if $a \mid B$. So (d) follows from 2.6.8(b).

□

2.7 Localization

Let R be a commutative ring and $\varnothing \neq S \subseteq R$.In this section we will answer the following question:

Does there exists a commutative ring with identity R' so that R is a subring of R' and all elements in S are invertible in R ?

Clearly this is not possible if $0 \in S$ or S contains zero divisors. It turns out that this condition is also sufficient. Note that if all elements in S are invertible in R', also all elements in the subsemigroup of $(R, \cdot)$ generated by S are invertible in R'. So we may assume that S is closed under multiplication.

Lemma 2.7.1. [**fractions and group ring**] *Let X be non-empty multiplicatively closed subset of the commutative ring R. For $r \in R$ and $x \in S$ denote the element $rx \in R[X]$ by ${}^{r}\!/_{x}$. Put*

$$I = \left\langle\!\left\langle\ {}^{rz}\!/_{xz} - {}^{r}\!/_{x} \;\middle|\; r \in R, x, z \in X \right\rangle\!\right\rangle$$

Let $r, s \in R$ and $x, y \in X$. Put

$$X^{-1}R = R[X]/I \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{r}{x} = {}^{r}\!/_{x} + I.$$

(a) [**a**] $\frac{r}{x}\frac{s}{y} = \frac{rs}{xy}$.

(b) [**b**] $\frac{r}{x} + \frac{s}{y} = \frac{ry+sx}{xy}$.

(c) [**c**] $X^{-1}R = \left\{\frac{r}{x} \mid r \in R, x \in X\right\}$.

(d) [**f**] $\frac{x}{x}$ *is an identity in* $X^{-1}R$.

(e) [**g**] $\frac{y}{x}$ *is an inverse of* $\frac{x}{y}$ *in* $X^{-1}R$.

(f) [**h**] *The map* $\phi = \phi_X^R : R \to X^{-1}R$, $r \to \frac{rx}{x}$ *is a ring homomorphism and independent of* x.

(g) [**i**] $\frac{r}{x} = \phi(x)^{-1}\phi(r)$.

(h) [**e**] *Let S be a commutative ring with identity and $\beta : R \to S$ a ring homomorphism such that $\beta(x)$ is invertible for all $x \in X$. Then*

$$\beta_X : X^{-1}S \to S,\ \frac{a}{x} \to \beta(x)^{-1}\beta(a)$$

is a well defined function and is the unique homomorphism from $X^{-1}R$ to S with $\beta = \beta_X \circ \phi$.

(i) [**d**] $\frac{r}{x} = \frac{s}{y}$ *if and only if there exists $z \in X$ with $ryz = sxz$.*

(j) [**j**] $\ker\phi = \{r \in R \mid rx = 0 \text{ for some } x \in X\}$. *In particular, if $R \neq 0$, ϕ is 1-1 if and only if no element of X is zero or a zero-divisor.*

Proof. Let $r, s \in R$ and $x, y, z \in X$. By definition of $R[X]$,

$$r/x\, s/y = rs/xy \quad \text{and} \quad r/x + s/x = r+s/x$$

and so also

$$\frac{r}{x}\frac{s}{y} = \frac{rs}{xy} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{r}{x} + \frac{s}{x} = \frac{r+s}{x}$$

In particular (a) holds. By definition of $\frac{r}{x}$ and I,

$$\frac{rz}{xz} = \frac{r}{x}.$$

Thus

$$\frac{r}{x} + \frac{s}{y} = \frac{ry}{xy} + \frac{sx}{yx} = \frac{ry}{xy} + \frac{sx}{xy} = \frac{ry+sx}{xy}$$

and (b) is proved.

(c) Put

$$W = \{r/x \mid r \in R, x \in X\} \quad \text{and} \quad T = \{w + I \mid w \in W\} = \left\{\frac{r}{x} \;\middle|\; r \in R, x \in X\right\}.$$

Note that $R[X] = \langle W \rangle$ and so $X^{-1}R = \langle T \rangle$. By (c), T is closed under addition. It also closed under negatives and so $X^{-1}R = T$.

(d) $\frac{b}{y}\frac{x}{x} = \frac{bx}{yx} = \frac{b}{y}$.

(e) $\frac{x}{y}\frac{y}{x} = \frac{xy}{xy}$, which by (d) is an identity in $X^{-1}R$.

(f) $\frac{rx}{x} = \frac{rxy}{xy} = \frac{ry}{y}$ and so ϕ is independent of the choice of r. ϕ is the composition of the additive homomorphisms $r \to rx$, $s \to s/x$ and $a \to a + I$. Thus ϕ is an additive homomorphism.

$$\phi(r)\phi(s) = \frac{rx}{x}\frac{sx}{x} = \frac{rsxx}{xx} = \phi(rs)$$

and so ϕ is also a multiplicative homomorphism.

(g)

$$\frac{r}{x} = \frac{rxx}{xxx} = \frac{rx}{x}\frac{x}{x^2} = \phi(r)\phi(x)^{-1}$$

(h) Define $\gamma : X \to S, x \to \beta(x)^{-1}$. Then γ is multiplicative homomorphism and so 2.2.8 there exits a unique homomorphism $\delta : R[X] \to S$ with

$$\delta\left({}^{r}/_{x}\right) = \beta(r)\gamma(x) = \beta(r)\beta(x)^{-1}$$

Note that

$$\delta\left({}^{ry}/_{xy}\right) = \beta(ry)\beta(xy)^{-1} = \beta(r)\beta(y)\big(\beta(x)\beta(y)\big)^{-1} = \beta(r)\beta(y)\beta(y)^{-1}\beta(x)^{-1} = \beta(r)\beta(x)^{-1} = \delta\left({}^{r}/_{x}\right)$$

and so ${}^{ry}/_{xy} - {}^{r}/_{x} \in \ker\delta$. Since $\ker\delta$ is an ideal in R this gives $I \subseteq \ker\delta$. Defining $\alpha(a+I) = \delta(a)$ we see that α is well-defined homomorphism. Moreover

$$\alpha(\phi(r)) = \alpha\left({}^{rx}/_{x}\right) = \beta(rx)\beta(x)^{-1} = \beta(r)\beta(x)\beta(x)^{-1} = \beta(r)$$

and so $\beta = \alpha \circ \phi$.

Conversely suppose that $\rho : X^{-1}R \to S$ is a homomorphism from $X^{-1}R$ with $\beta = \rho \circ \phi$. Define $\mu = \rho \circ \pi_I$. So $\mu(a) = \rho * a + I)$. Since $\phi(x)$ and $\rho(\phi(x)) = \beta(x)$ are invertible, 1.6.7 shows that

$$\rho(\phi(x)^{-1}) = (\rho(\phi(x))^{-1} = \beta(x)^{-1}$$

Thus

$$\mu\left({}^{r}/_{x}\right) = \rho\left(\pi_I\left({}^{r}/_{x}\right)\right) = \rho\left(\frac{r}{x}\right) = \rho\left(\phi(r)\phi(x)^{-1}\right) = \rho\big(\phi(r)\big)\rho\big(\phi(x)\big)^{-1} = \beta(r)\beta(x)^{-1}$$

So $\mu = \delta$. Hence $\rho(a+I) = \mu(a) = \delta(a) = \alpha(a+I)$ and thus $\rho = \alpha$.

(i) Suppose first that there exist $z \in X$ with $ryz = sxz$. Then

$$\frac{r}{x} = \frac{r(yz)}{x(yz)} = \frac{sxz}{xyz} = \frac{s(xz)}{y(xz)} = \frac{s}{y}$$

For the converse we will first determine exactly when an element of $R[X]$ is contained in I.
Let J consists of all $a \in R[X]$ such that there exists $d \in X$ and $n = (n_x)_{x\in X} \in X^X$ with

(i) [**i'**] $xn_x = d$ for all $x \in X$ with $a_x \neq 0$, and

(ii) [**ii**] $\sum_{x\in X} a_x n_x = 0$.

Let $a, a' \in J$ and choose d, d' and n, n' according the definition of J.
Then

$$a + I = \left(\sum_{x\in X} {}^{a_x}/_{x}\right) + I = \sum_{a\in X}\frac{a_x}{x} = \sum_{x\in X}\frac{a_x n_x}{xn_s x} = \sum_{x\in X}\frac{a_x n_x}{d} = \frac{\sum_{x\in X} a_x n_x}{d} = \frac{0}{d} = I$$

and so $a \in I$. Thus $J \subseteq I$.

Define

$$m_x = \begin{cases} n_x d' & \text{if } a_x \neq 0 \\ n'_x d & \text{if } a_x = 0 \end{cases}$$

If $a_x \neq 0$ and $a'_x \neq 0$, then $n_x d' = n_x x n'_x = n'_x d$. In particular, the setup is symmetric in a and a'.

If $a_x \neq 0$, then $xm_x = xn_x d' = dd'$. By symmetry, $xm_x = dd'$ if $a'_x \neq 0$ and so $xm_x = dd'$, whenever $a_x + a'_x \neq 0$. We compute

$$\sum_{x\in X}(a_x + a'_x)m_x = \sum_{\substack{x\in X \\ a_x\neq 0}} a_x m_x + \sum_{\substack{x\in X \\ a'_x\neq 0}} a'_x m_x = \left(\sum_{x\in X} a_x n_x\right) d' + \left(\sum_{x\in X} a'_x n_x\right) d = 0d' + 0d = 0$$

and so $a + a' \in J$.

Put $V = \{{}^{rz}/_{xz} - {}^{r}/_{x} \mid r \in R, x, z \in X\}$. We will show that $V \subseteq J$.

If $x \neq xz$, choose $d = xxz$, $n_x = xz$ and $n_{xz} = x$. Then $xn_x = d = xzn_{xz}$ and

$$rzn_{xz} - rn_x = rzx - rxz = 0$$

and so ${}^{rz}/_{xz} - {}^{r}/_{x} \in J$.

If $x = xz$, then ${}^{rz}/_{xz} - {}^{r}/_{x} = {}^{rz}/_{x} - {}^{r}/_{x} = {}^{rz-r}/_{x}$. Put $n_x = x$ and $d = x^2 = n_x x$. Then

$$(rz - r)x = rzx - rx = rx - rx = 0$$

and so again ${}^{rz}/_{xz} - {}^{r}/_{x} \in J$. Thus $V \subseteq J$. Note that

$${}^{s}/_{y}\left({}^{rz}/_{xz} - {}^{r}/_{x}\right) = {}^{rsz}/_{xyz} - {}^{rs}/_{xy}$$

and so $WV \subseteq V \subseteq J$. Using that J is an additive subgroup of $R[X]$ we get

$$I = \langle R[X]V, V\rangle = \langle\langle W\rangle V, V\rangle = \langle WV, V\rangle = \langle V\rangle \leq J$$

Since $J \subseteq I$, this proves $J = I$.

Now suppose that $\frac{r}{x} = \frac{s}{y}$. Then $\frac{r}{x} - \frac{s}{y} = 0$, $\frac{rx-sy}{xy} = 0$ and ${}^{rx-sy}/_{xy} \in I = J$. Thus there exists $n_{xy} \in X$ with $(rx - sy)n_{xy} = 0$ and so $rxn_{xy} = syn_{xy}$. Thus (i) holds.

(g) If $rx = 0$ for some $r \in X$, then $\phi(r) = \frac{rx}{x} = 0$. If $r \in \ker\phi$ then $\frac{r}{x}x = 0$ and so $rxy = 0$ for some $y \in X$. Since $xy \in X$, this gives shows

$$\ker\phi = \{r \in R \mid rx = 0 \text{ for some } x \in X\}$$

ϕ is not 1-1 if and only if there exists $0 \neq r \in R$ with $r \in \ker\phi$ and so if and only if there exists $0 \neq r \in R$ and $x \in X$ with $rx = 0$. This holds if and only if $0 \in X$ or X contains a zero divisor.

□

Corollary 2.7.2. [**fraction and semigroup**] *Let G be a commutative semigroup and X a non-empty semisubgroup of G. Let R be a commutative ring with identity $1 \neq 0$. Identify $g \in G$ with $1g \in R[G]$.*

(a) [**a**] *Put*

$$X^{-1}G = \left\{ \frac{g}{x} \;\middle|\; g \in G, x \in X \right\} \subseteq X^{-1}(R[G])$$

Then $X^{-1}G$ is multiplicatively closed subgroup of $X^{-1}(R[G])$ and so a semigroup. This semigroup is (up to isomorphism) independent of the ring R.

(b) [**b**] *There exists a homomorphism*

$$\alpha : R[X^{-1}G] \to X^{-1}(R[G]) \quad \textit{with} \quad \alpha\left(r\frac{g}{x}\right) = \frac{rg}{x}$$

for all $r \in R, g \in G$ and $x \in X$.

(c) [**c**] *There exists a homomorphism*

$$\beta : X^{-1}(R[G]) \to R[X^{-1}G] \quad \textit{with} \quad \beta\left(\frac{rg}{x}\right) = r\frac{g}{x}$$

for all $r \in R, g \in G$ and $x \in X$.

(d) [**d**] *α and β are inverse to each other and so are isomorphism.*

Proof. (a) $\frac{g}{x}\frac{h}{y} = \frac{gh}{xy}$ for all $g, h \in G$, $x, y \in X$. So $X^{-1}G$ is multiplicatively closed and the multiplication on $X^{-1}G$ is completely determined by the multiplication of G and independent of R. . Since $\frac{g}{x} = \frac{h}{y}$ if and only if $gyz = hxz$ for some $z \in X$, also the set $X^{-1}G$ is independent of R.

(b) Fix $x \in X$ and define

$$\rho : R \to X^{-1}(R[G]), \quad r \to \frac{rx}{x}$$

Then

$$\rho(r+s) = \frac{(r+s)x}{x} = \frac{rx+sx}{x} = \frac{rx}{x} + \frac{sx}{x} = \rho(r) + \rho(s)$$

and

$$\rho(rs) = \frac{(rs)x}{x} = \frac{(rs)xx}{xx} = \frac{(rx)(sx)}{xx} = \frac{rx}{x}\frac{sx}{s} = \rho(r)\rho(s)$$

and ρ is ring homomorphism. $\mathrm{id}_{X^{-1}G}$ is a multiplicative homomorphism from $X^{-1}G$ to $X^{-1}(R[G])$ and so by 2.2.8 there exist a ring homomorphism

$$\alpha : R[X^{-1}G] \to X^{-1}(R[G]), \quad \text{with} \quad \alpha(ru) = \rho(r)u$$

for all $r \in R$, $u \in X^{-1}G$. Thus

Note that $\frac{rx}{x} = \frac{rxy}{xy} = \frac{ry}{y}$ for $y \in R$ and so ρ is independent of x. We have

$$\alpha\left(r\frac{g}{x}\right) = \rho(r)\frac{g}{x} = \frac{rx}{x}\frac{g}{x} = \frac{rgx}{xx} = \frac{rg}{x}$$

and so (b) holds.

(c) $\phi_{|}G$ is a homomorphism for G to $X^{-1}G$. id_R is a homomorphism from R to R and so by 2.2.11 thee exists a unique homomorphism

$$\gamma : R[G] \to R[X^{-1}G] \text{ with } \gamma(rg) = r\phi(g)$$

Since $\gamma(x) = \gamma(1x) = 1\phi(x) = \phi(x)$ is invertible in $R[X^{-1}G]$ we conclude that there exists a unique homomorphism

$$\beta : X^{-1}(R[G]) \to R[X^{-1}G]$$

with $\beta(\phi(a)) = \gamma(a)$ for all $a \in R[G]$. Moreover, $\beta\left(\frac{a}{x}\right) = \gamma(a)\gamma(x)^{-1}$. So

$$\beta(\left(\frac{rg}{x}\right) = \gamma(rg)\gamma(x)^{-1} = r\phi(g)\phi(x)^{-1} = r\frac{g}{x}$$

and (c) holds.

(d) Note that $(\alpha \circ \beta)\left(\frac{rg}{x}\right) = \frac{rg}{x}$ and since $X^{-1}(R[G])$ is generated by these elements $\alpha \circ \beta$ is the identity function in $X^{-1}(R[G]$. Similarly $\beta \circ \alpha$ is the identity function on $R[X^{-1}G]$. □

Definition 2.7.3. [**def:left cancel**] *Let G be a magma. We say that the left cancellation law holds for $g \in G$ if for all $a, b \in G$:*

$$ga = gb \Longrightarrow a = b$$

Note that if R is a ring and $0 \neq r \in R$ then the left cancellation holds for r if and only if r is not a left zero divisor.

Lemma 2.7.4. [**largest fraction**] *Let G be semigroup and let S be the set of elements in G for which the left cancellation law holds. Then S is a subsemigroup of G.*

Proof. Let $s, t \in S$. Define $l_s : G \to G, g \to sg$. Then l_s and l_t are 1-1. Since G is associative $l_s \circ l_t = l_{st}$. Since compositions of 1-1 functions are 1-1, $st \in S$.

□

Definition 2.7.5. [**def:ring of fraction**] *Let R be a commutative ring.*

(a) [**a**] *$\check{R}$ is the set of all non-zero, non zero divisors.*

(b) [**b**] *Suppose that $\check{R} \neq \varnothing$. $\check{R}^{-1}R$ is called the* complete ring of fraction *of R*[3].

(c) [**c**] *If R has no zero divisors, then $R^{\sharp\,-1}R$ is called the* field of fraction *of R and is denoted by $\mathbb{F}_R$.*

Example 2.7.6. [**ex:field of fraction**]

(a) [**a**] $\mathbb{F}_{\mathbb{Z}} = \mathbb{Q}$.

(b) [**b**] *Let $0 \neq n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $\mathbb{F}_{n\mathbb{Z}} = \mathbb{Q}$.*

[3]Note that by 2.7.4 $\check{R}$ is a multiplicatively closed

(c) [**c**] *Let $\mathbb{F}$ be a field. Let I be a set and let (X_I, id_I) be a free abelian monoid. Then the field of fraction of $\mathbb{F}[X_I]$ is denoted by $\mathbb{F}(X_I)$. So*

$$\mathbb{F}(X_I) = \left\{ \frac{f}{g} \;\middle|\; f, g \in \mathbb{F}[X_I], g \neq 0 \right\}$$

If R is a commutative ring without zero divisors, then $\mathbb{F}_R(X_I)$ is the field of fractions of $R[X_I]$.

Definition 2.7.7. [**def:a/y**]*Let R be a commutative ring, X a multiplicatively closed subset of R and I be an ideal in R.*

(a) [**a**] *$A \subseteq R$ and $Y \subseteq X$. Then $\frac{A}{Y} = \{\frac{a}{y} \mid a \in A, y \in Y\} \subseteq X^{-1}R$.*

(b) [**b**]

$$\{r \in R \mid rx \in I \text{ for some } x \in X\}$$

is called the X^{-1}-closure of I

(c) [**c**] *I is called X^{-1}-closed if $r \in I$ for all $r \in R$ with $rX \cap I \neq \varnothing$.*

Note that $rx \in I$ for some $x \in X$ if and only if $rX \cap I \neq \varnothing$. So I is X^{-1} closed if and only if I is equal to the X^{-1}-closure of I.

Proposition 2.7.8. [**ideal frac**] *Let X be a multiplicative subset of the commutative ring R and $\phi = \phi_X^R$. Let I be an ideal in R and J an ideal in $X^{-1}R$.*

(a) [**a**] *$\frac{I}{X}$ is an ideal in $X^{-1}R$*

(b) [**b**] *Put $K = \phi^{-1}(J)$. Then K is an ideal in R with $J = \frac{K}{X}$. Moreover, for $r \in R$ and $x \in X$,*

$$r \in K \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \qquad \frac{r}{x} \in J$$

(c) [**c**] *$\phi^{-1}\left(\frac{I}{X}\right)$ is the X^{-1}-closure of I.*

(d) [**d**] *$\phi^{-1}(J)$ is X^{-1}-closed.*

(e) [**e**] *The X^{-1}-closure of X is X^{-1}-closed.*

(f) [**f**] *The map*

$$I \to \frac{I}{X}$$

is a bijection from the set of X^{-1}-closed ideals in I to the set of ideals to $X^{-1}R$. The inverse is given by

$$J \to \phi^{-1}(J)$$

(g) [**g**] *If $I \neq R$ and I is X^{-1}-closed then $I \cap X = \varnothing$.*

(h) **[h]** *If I is a prime ideal, then is X^{-1}-closed if an only if $I \cap X = \varnothing$.*

(i) **[i]** *$I \to \frac{I}{X}$ is a bijection between the prime ideals I of R with $I \cap X = \varnothing$ and the prime ideals in $X^{-1}R$.*

Proof. (a) Let $i, j \in I$, $x, y \in X$ and $r \in R$. Then $0 = \frac{0}{x} \in \frac{I}{X}$. $\frac{i}{x} + \frac{j}{y} = \frac{iy+jx}{xy} \in \frac{I}{X}$ and $\frac{r}{x}\frac{i}{y} = \frac{ri}{xy} \in \frac{I}{X}$.

(b) Inverse images of ideals under homomorphism are ideal and so K is ideal.

Since $\phi(r)$ is associated to $\phi(r)\phi(x)^{-1}$ in $X^{-1}R$,

$$\phi(r) \in J \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \qquad \phi(r)\phi(x)^{-1} \in J$$

and so

$$r \in K \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \qquad \frac{r}{x} \in J$$

In particular, $J = \frac{K}{X}$ and (b) holds.

(c) Put $E = \phi^{-1}\left(\frac{I}{X}\right)$. Let $x \in X$. By (b) $r \in E$ if and only if $\frac{r}{x} \in \frac{I}{X}$ and so if and only if $\frac{r}{x} = \frac{i}{y}$ for some $i \in I$, $y \in X$. This holds if and only if $ryz = ixz$ for some $i \in I, y, z \in X$.

If $rxz = iyz$ for some $i \in I, y, z \in X$, then $xz \in X$ and $iyz \in I$. Hence $r(xz) \in I$ and so r is in the X^{-1}-closure of I.

Conversely, if $rx = i$ for some $x \in X$ and $i \in I$, then $rxxx = ixx$. Choose $y = xx$ and $z = x$ we see that $r \in E$.

(d) By (b) $\frac{K}{X} = \frac{I}{X}$ and so $\phi^{-1}\left(\frac{K}{X}\right) = K$. So by (c) K is equal to its X^{-1}-closure.

(e) Follows from (c) and (d)

(f) Follows from (a) to (e).

(g) Since $I \neq R$ and $I \to \frac{I}{X}$ is a bijection, $\frac{I}{X} \neq R^{-1}X$. Thus $\frac{I}{X}$ contains no units and so $I \cap X = \varnothing$.

(h) The forward direction follows from (g). So suppose $I \cap X = \varnothing$ and suppose $r \in R$ and $x \in X$ with $rx \in I$. Since $I \cap X = \varnothing$, $x \notin I$ and since I is a prime ideal we conclude that $r \in I$. Thus I is X^{-1}-closed.

(i) By (h) we can replace the conditions $I \cap X = \varnothing$ by I is X^{-1}-closed. Let I be an X^{-1}-closed ideal in R. Since $I \to \frac{I}{X}$ is a bijection, $I = R$ if and only if $\frac{I}{X} = X^{-1}R$. Let $r, s \in R$ and $x, y \in X$. Since I is X^{-1}-closed, we can apply (b) with $K = I$ and $J = \frac{I}{X}$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} r \in I \qquad &\Longleftrightarrow \qquad \frac{r}{x} \in \frac{I}{X} \\ s \in I \qquad &\Longleftrightarrow \qquad \frac{s}{y} \in \frac{I}{X} \\ sr \in I \qquad &\Longleftrightarrow \qquad \frac{rs}{xy} \in \frac{I}{X} \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$rs \in I \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad r \in I \quad \text{or} \quad s \in I$$

if and only if

$$\frac{r}{x}\frac{s}{y} \in \frac{X}{I} \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad \frac{r}{x} \in \frac{I}{X} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{s}{y} \in \frac{I}{X}$$

Hence I is a prime ideal in R if and only if $\frac{I}{X}$ is a prime ideal in $X^{-1}R$.

□

Definition 2.7.9. [**def:localization**] *Let R be a commutative ring and P a prime ideal in R. The ring*

$$(R \setminus P)^{-1}R$$

is called is called the localization *of R at the prime P and is denoted by R_P. For $A \subseteq R$ we write A_P for $\frac{A}{P}$.*

Note here that by 2.4.12 $R \setminus P$ is a multiplicatively closed. So $(R \setminus P)^{-1}R$ is defined.

Recall that R_P also denotes $\bigoplus_{p \in P} R$. But hopefully it will always be clear from the context what is meant.

If S is a subring of R with $P \subsetneq S$, then P is also a prime ideal in S. Then $S_P = \frac{S}{P} \subseteq R_P$ should not be confused with $S_P = (S \setminus P)^{-1}S$.

Theorem 2.7.10. [**localprimes**] *Let P be a prime ideal in the commutative ring.*

(a) [**a**] *The map $Q \to Q_P$ is a bijection between the prime ideals of R contained in P and the prime ideals in R_P.*

(b) [**b**] *P_P is the unique maximal ideal in R_P.*

Proof. (a) Put $X = R \setminus P$ and let Q a prime ideal in R. Then $Q \cap X = \varnothing$ if and only if $Q \subseteq P$. Thus (a) follows from 2.7.8(i).

(b) Let I be a maximal ideal in R_P. Since R_P has an identity, 2.4.18 I is prime ideal. Thus by (a) $I = Q_P$ for some $Q \subseteq P$. Since $I \subseteq P_P$ and I is maximal we get $I = P_P$. □

Definition 2.7.11. [**def:local ring**] *A* local ring *is a commutative ring with identity and an ideal $M \neq R$ such that $I \subseteq M$ for all proper ideals I of M.*

Remark 2.7.12. [**rm:local ring**] *A commutative ring with identity is a local ring if and only if its has a unique maximal ideal M.*

Proof. Suppose R is a local ring. Then the ideal M is the definition of a local ring is the unique maximal ideal of R.

Suppose R has a unique maximal ideal M. Let I be a proper ideal in R. Then by 2.4.17 I is contained in a maximal ideal of R and so $I \subseteq M$. □

Lemma 2.7.13. [**chlocal**] *Let R be a commutative ring and M an ideal in R with $M \neq R$. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

(a) [**a**] *$I \subseteq M$ for all ideal I of R with $I \neq R$.*

(b) [**b**] *M contains all proper elements.*

(c) [**c**] *M is the set of non-generators.*

Proof. (a) $\Longrightarrow$ (b): Let $r \in R$ be proper. Then $(\!|r|\!) \neq R$ and so $(\!|r|\!) \subseteq M$.

(b) $\Longrightarrow$ (c): The elements in $R \setminus M$ are neither proper nor zero and so are generators. Since $M \neq R$, M does not contain any generators and so M is the set of non-units in R.

(c) $\Longrightarrow$ (a): Let I be an ideal in R with $I \neq R$. Let $i \in I$. Then $(\!|i|\!) \subseteq I$ and so i is not a generator. Hence $i \in M$ and $I \subseteq M$. □

Example 2.7.14. [**ex:localization**] *Let R be a UFD and p a prime in R. Determine the ideals in $R_{(\!|p|\!)}$.*

Let $X = R \setminus (\!|p|\!)$. Then for $r \in R$, $r \in X$ if and only if $p \nmid r$. Thus
Then

$$R_{(\!|p|\!)} = \left\{ \frac{r}{x} \in \mathbb{F}_R \;\middle|\; r, x \in \mathbb{R}, p \nmid x \right\}$$

Let I be a non-zero ideal in R. Put $n = n_p(I)$, so $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ is maximal with $p^n \in I$. We claim that I is X^{-1}-closed if and only if $I = (\!|p^n|\!)$.

Suppose first that I is X^{-1}-closed and choose $0 \neq i \in I$ with $n_p(i) = n$. Then $i = ap^n$ for some $a \in R$ with $p \nmid a$. Then $a \in X$ and $ap^n \in I$ and since I is X^{-1} closed, $p^n \in I$. So also $(\!|p^n|\!) \subseteq I$. Since $p^n \mid I$, $I \subseteq (\!|p^n|\!)$ and thus $I = (\!|p^n|\!)$.

Suppose next that $I = (\!|p^n|\!)$. So $r \in I$ if and only if $p^n \mid i$. Let $x \in X$ and $r \in R$ with $xr \in I$. Then $p^n \mid xr$ and since $p \nmid x$, $p^n \mid r$. Thus $r \in I$ and I is X^{-1}-closed.

So the non-zero ideal in $R_{(\!|p|\!)}$ are $(\!|p^n|\!)_{(\!|p|\!)}$, $n \in n\mathbb{N}$. Note that this is just the ideal in $R_{(\!|p|\!)}$ generate by $\frac{p^n}{1}$. Thus $R_{(\!|p|\!)}$ is a PID with a unique prime $\frac{p}{1}$.

Chapter 3

Modules

3.1 Modules and Homomorphism

In this section we introduce modules over a ring. It corresponds to the concept of group action in the theory of groups.

Definition 3.1.1. [**def:module**] *Let* $(R, +, \cdot)$ *be a ring and* $(M, +)$ *an abelian group. A* ring action *of R on M is a function* $*$ *with* $R \times M \subseteq \mathrm{Dom}(*)$ *such that such that for all* $r, s \in R$ *and* $a, b \in M$*:*

(M0) [**M0**] $r * a \in M$.

(M1) [**M1**] $r * (a + b) = ra + rb$.

(M2) [**M2**] $(r + s) * a = ra + sa$.

(M3) [**M3**] $r * (s * a) = (r \cdot s)a$.

In this case $(M, +, *)$ *is called an* R-module.

Abusing notation we will call M an R-module and write ra for $r * a$.

Lemma 3.1.2. [**ring action=hom**] *Let R be a ring, M an abelian group,* $* \in \mathrm{Fun}(R \times M)$ *and* $*_R : R \to \mathrm{Fun}(M)$ *the associated function on R. Then* $*$ *is ring action of R on M if and only if* $*_R$ *is ring homomorphism from R to* $\mathrm{End}(M)$.

Proof. (M0) holds if and only if r^* is a function from M to M for all $r \in R$, that is if and only if $*_R$ is a function from R to $\mathrm{Fun}(M.M)$.

Assuming that (M0) holds:

(M1) holds if and only if r^* is a homomorphism for all $r \in R$, that is if and only if $*_R$ is a function from R to $\mathrm{End}(M)$.

Suppose now that (M0) and (M1) hold:

(M2) holds if and only if $(r + s)^* = r^* + s^*$ and (M3) holds if and only if $(rs)^* = r^* \circ s^*$ for all $r, s \in R$. So (M2) and (M3) holds if and only of $*_R$ is ring homomorphism from R to $\mathrm{End}(M)$.

□

Example 3.1.3. [**ex:module**] Let R be a ring and A an abelian group.

1. [**1**] A is a $\mathbb{Z}$-module via $n * a = na$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $a \in A$.

2. [**2**] A is an $\mathrm{End}(A)$-module via $\phi m = \phi(m)$ for all $\phi \in \Phi$, $m \in M$.

3. [**6**] A is an R-module via, $ra = 0_R$ for all $r \in R$, $a \in A$.

4. [**3**] R is an R-module via left multiplication.

5. [**4**] Let $(M_i)_{i\in I}$ be a family of R-modules. Then $\bigtimes_{i\in I} M_i$ and $\bigoplus_{i\in I} M_i$ are R-modules via

$$r * (m_i)_{i\in I} = (r *_i m_i)_{i\in I}$$

Definition 3.1.4. [**sesquimodule**] *Let (R, G) be a sesquiring. An (R, G)-sesquimodule is triple $(M, +, *)$, where $(M, +)$ is an abelian group and $*$ is a function with $R \times G \times M \subseteq \mathrm{Dom}(*)$, such that the following holds for all $a, a' \in R, g, g' \in G$ and $m, m' \in M$:*

(SM 0) [**0**] $a * g * m \in M$.

(SM 1) [**i**] $a * g * (m + m') = a * g * m + a * g * m'$.

(SM 2) [**ii**] $a * g * (a' * g' * m) = (aa') * (gg') * m$.

(SM 3) [**iii**] $(a + a') * g * m = a * g * m + a' * g * m$,

Lemma 3.1.5. [**sesquimodule and hom**] *Let (R, G) be a sesquiring and M an abelian group.*

(a) [**a**] *Let $* \in \mathrm{Fun}(R \times G \times M)$ and $*_{R\times G} : R \times G \to \mathrm{Fun}(M)$ the associated function on $R \times G$. Then $(M, *)$ is an (R, G)-sesquimodule if and only if $*_{R\times G}$ is a sesquihomomorphism from $R \times G$ to $\mathrm{End}(M)$.*

(b) [**b**] *There exist natural 1-1 correspondences between the class of (R, G)-sesquimodules, the class of sesquihomomorphisms from (R, G) to endomorphism rings of abelian groups, the class of homomorphisms from $R[G]$ to endomorphism rings of abelian groups and the class $R[G]$-modules.*

Proof. (a) Observe that (SM0) holds if and only if $*_{R\times G}$ is function from $R \times G$ to $\mathrm{Fun}(M, M)$.

Assume that (SM0) holds.

Note that (SM1) holds if and only if each $(a, g)^*$ is an homomorphism, that is if and only if $*_{R\times G}$ is a function from $R \times G$ to $\mathrm{End}(M, M)$.

Assume that (SM0) and (SM1) holds.

(SM2) holds if and only if $(aa', gg')^* = (a, g)^* \circ (a', g')^*$ and so if and only if $*_{R\times G}$ is a multiplicative homomorphism.

(SM3) holds if and only if $(a + a', g)^* = (a, g)^* + (a', g)^*$, that is $*_{R\times G}$ is an additive homomorphism in the first coordinate.

(b) (a) provides a 1-1 correspondence between the class of (R,G)-sesquimodules and the class of sesquihomomorphisms from (R,G) to endomorphismrings of abelian groups.

2.2.6 provides a 1-1 correspondence between class of sesquihomomorphisms from (R,G) to endomorphism rings of abelian groups and the class of homomorphisms from $R[G]$ to endomorphism rings of abelian groups.

3.1.2 provides a 1-1 correspondence between class of homomorphisms from $R[G]$ to endomorphism rings of abelian groups and the class $R[G]$-modules.

□

Example 3.1.6. [**ex:sesquimodule**] *Let R be a ring, M an R-module and G a group acting on the set Ω. Define*

$$* : R \times G \times M^{\Omega} \to M^{\Omega}$$

by

$$(r * g * f)(\omega) = r \cdot f(g^{-1}\omega)$$

for all $r \in R, g \in G, f \in M^{\omega}$. Then $(M,*)$ is an (R,G) sesquimodule. So M is also an $R[G]$ module via

$$\Big(\big(\sum_{g\in G} r_g g\big) f\Big)(\omega) = \sum_{g\in G} r_g \cdot f(g^{-1}\omega)$$

Definition 3.1.7. [**def:matrices**] *Let $\mathcal{C}$ be class, R a ring and I and J sets.*

(a) [**a**] *An $I \times J$-matrix is an $I \times J$-tuple. An $I \times J$-matrix in $\mathcal{C}$ is an $I \times J$-tuple in $\mathcal{C}$. $\mathrm{M}^{IJ}(\mathcal{C})$ is the class of all $I \times J$ matrix in $\mathcal{C}$.*

(b) [**b**] *Let $i \in I$, $j \in J$ and A an $I \times J$-matrix. Then $A_{i,j} = A(i,j)$. $A_{i,}$ is the J-tuple $(A_{i,j})_{j\in J}$. $A_{i,}$ is called Row i of A. $A_{,j}$ is the I-tuple $(A_{i,j})_{j\in J}$. $A_{,j}$ is called Column j of A. We will also write A_{ij} for $A_{i,j}$ and A_i for $A_{i,}$.*

(c) [**c**] *Let A be an $I \times J$-matrix. We will use any of the following to denote A:*

$$[A_{ij}]_{i\in I, j\in J} \qquad [A_{ij}]_{\substack{i\in I\\ j\in J}} \qquad [A_{ij}]_{i,j} \qquad [A_{ij}] \qquad [A_{i,}]_{i\in I} \qquad [A_{,j}]_{,j\in J}$$

Definition 3.1.8. [**def:matrix multiplication**] *Let R be a ring, I, J, K sets, A an $I \times J$-matrix in R, B an $J \times K$-matrix in R, $x, y \in R^J$ and $r \in R$.*

(a) [**a**] *We say that A has almost trivial rows A, if $A_i \in R_J$ for all $i \in I$. A has almost trivial columns if $A_{,j} \in R_I$ for all $j \in J$. $M^I{}_J(R)$ is the set of $I \times J$-matrices in R with almost trivial row. $M_I{}^J(R)$ is the set of $I \times J$-matrices in R with almost trivial columns, M_{IJ} is the set of $I \times J$-matrices in R with almost trivial rows and almost trivial columns.*

(b) [**b**] *$rx := (rx_j)_{j\in J}$, $xr := (x_j r)_{j\in J}$, $rA = [rA_{ij}]_{\substack{i\in I\\ j\in J}}$ and $Ar = [A_{ij}r]_{\substack{i\in I\\ j\in J}}$.*

(c) [**c**] *If $x \in R_J$ or $y \in R_J$, then $x \bullet y := \sum_{j\in J} x_j y_j$ and so $x \cdot y \in R$,*

(d) [**d**] *If $A \in M^I{}_J(R)$ or $x \in R_J$, then $Ax := (A_i \bullet x)_{i\in I}$ and so $Ax \in R^I$.*

(e) [**e**] *If $x \in R^J$ or $B \in M_J{}^K(R)$ then $xB := (x \bullet B_{,k})_{k\in K}$ and so $xB \in R^K$.*

(f) [**f**] *If $A \in M^I{}_J(R)$ or $B \in M_J{}^K(R)$ then $AB := \left[A_i \bullet B_{,k}\right]_{\substack{i\in I\\ k\in K}}$ and so $AB \in \mathrm{M}^{IK}(R)$*

Lemma 3.1.9. [**basic matrix multiplication**] *Let R be a ring, I, J, K sets, A an $I \times J$-matrix in R, B an $J \times K$-matrix in R and $x \in R_J$.*

(a) [**a**] *$Ax = \sum_{j\in J} A_{,j}x_j$. In particular if $A \in \mathrm{M}_I{}^J(R)$, then $Ax \in R_I$.*

(b) [**b**] *$xB = \sum_{j\in J} x_j B_j$. In particular, if $B \in \mathrm{M}^J{}_K(R)$ then $xB \in R_K$.*

(c) [**c**] *Suppose that $A \in M^I{}_J(R)$ or $B \in M_J{}^K(R)$. Then $AB = \left[AB_{,k}\right]_{,k\in K}$ and $AB = \left[A_i B\right]_{i\in I}$.*

(d) [**d**] *Suppose $A \in \mathrm{M}_I{}^J(R)$ and $B \in \mathrm{M}_J{}^K(R)$. Then $AB \in \mathrm{M}_I{}^K(R)$.*

(e) [**e**] *Suppose $A \in \mathrm{M}^I{}_J(R)$ and $B \in \mathrm{M}^J{}_K(R)$. Then $AB \in \mathrm{M}^I{}_K(R)$*

Proof. Readily verified. □

Remark 3.1.10. [**warning column trivial**] *If $A \in \mathrm{M}_{IJ}(R)$ and $B \in \mathrm{M}^J{}_K$, then AB does not have to be in $\mathrm{M}_I{}^K$. Consider for example the case $I = J$, R has an identity, $A = [\delta_{ij}]$ is the $I \times I$ identity matrix and $B \in \mathrm{M}^J{}_K(R) \setminus \mathrm{M}^{JK}(R)$. Then $AB = B \notin \mathrm{M}_I{}^K(R)$.*

Definition 3.1.11. [**def:homomorphism**] *Let V and W be R-modules and $f : V \to W$ be a function. Then f is called R-linear if f is an $(R, \cdot)$-equivariant homomorphism, that is*

$$f(a + b) = f(a) + f(b) \text{ and } f(ra) = rf(a).$$

for all $a, b \in V$ and $r \in R$.

Definition 3.1.12. [**def:unitary**] *Let R be a ring with identity and M an R-modules.*

(a) [**a**] *M is a* unitary *R-module provide that*

$$1_R m = m$$

for all $m \in M$.

(b) [**b**] *If R is a division ring and M is unitary then M is called a vector space over R.*

Definition 3.1.13. [**def: hom**] *Let R be a ring and V and W R-modules.*

(a) [**a**] $\mathrm{Hom}_R(V, W)$ *denotes the set of R-linear maps from V to W.*

(b) [**b**] $\mathrm{End}_R(V) = \mathrm{Hom}_R(V, V)$.

Lemma 3.1.14. [**basic linear**] *Let R be a ring.*

(a) [**a**] *Let $f : U \to V$ and $g : V \to W$ be R-linear. Then $g \circ f$ is R-linear.*

(b) [**b**] *Let $f : V \to W$ and $g : V \to W$ be R-linear. Then $f + g$ is R-linear.*

(c) [**c**] *Let $f : V \to W$ be R-linear. Then $-f : V \to V, v \to -(f(v))$ is R-linear.*

(d) [**d**] $\mathrm{Hom}_R(V, W)$ *a subgroup of* $\mathrm{Hom}(V, W)$.

(e) [**e**] *Let V be an R-module. Then* $\mathrm{End}_R(V)$ *is a subring of* $\mathrm{End}(V)$.

Proof. (a) Composition of homomorphism are homomorphism and composition of equivariant functions are equivariant.

(b) Sums of homomorphisms are homomorphism. Also

$$(f+g)(rv) = f(rv) + g(rv) = rf(v) + r(g(v) = r(f(v) + g(v)) = r(f+g)(v)$$

(c) Negatives of homomorphisms are homomorphism. Also

$$(-f)(rv) = -(f(rv)) = -(r(f(v))) = r(-(f(v))) = r((-f)(v))$$

(d) and (e) follow from (a), (b) and (c). □

Lemma 3.1.15. [**hom ri**] *Let R be a ring with identity and I and J sets.*

(a) [**a**] *For $A \in \mathrm{M}^I{}_J(R)$, define*

$$\alpha_A : R_I \to R_K, x \to xA$$

Then

$$\Phi : \mathrm{M}^I{}_J(R) \to \mathrm{Hom}_R(R_I, R_J), A \to \alpha_A$$

is well-defined isomorphism of abelian groups.

(b) [**b**] $\Phi : \mathrm{M}^I{}_I(R) \to \mathrm{End}_R(R_I), A \to \alpha_A$ *is an anti-isomorphism of rings.*

(c) [**c**] *For $A = [A_{ij}]_{\substack{i\in I\\ j\in J}} \in \mathrm{M}^{IJ}(R)$ define $A^{\mathrm{T}} \in \mathrm{M}^{JI}(R)$ by $\left(A^{\mathrm{T}}\right)_{ji} = A_{ij}$ for all $i \in I$, $j \in J$. Then*

$$A^{\mathrm{T}} = [A_{ij}]_{\substack{j\in J\\ i\in I}} = [A_i]_{,i\in I} = [A_{,j}]_{j\in J} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \left(A^{\mathrm{T}}\right)^{\mathrm{T}} = A$$

Moreover,

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{T}^{IJ} :&\quad \mathrm{M}^{IJ}(R) \to \mathrm{M}^{JI}(R), \quad A \to A^{\mathrm{T}}\\
\mathrm{T}^I{}_J :&\quad \mathrm{M}^I{}_J(R) \to \mathrm{M}_J{}^I(R), \quad A \to A^{\mathrm{T}}\\
\mathrm{T}_I{}^J :&\quad \mathrm{M}_I{}^J(R) \to \mathrm{M}^J{}_I(R), \quad A \to A^{\mathrm{T}}
\end{aligned}$$

are well-defined isomorphisms of abelian groups.

(d) [**d**] *Let K be a set, $A \in \mathrm{M}^{IJ}(R)$ and $B \in \mathrm{M}^{JK}(R)$. If $A \in \mathrm{M}^{I}{}_{J}$ or $B \in \mathrm{M}_{J}{}^{K}$, then*

$$(AB)^{\mathrm{T}} = B^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot_{R^{\mathrm{op}}} A^{\mathrm{T}}$$

where $\cdot_{R^{\mathrm{op}}}$ denotes the multiplication of matrices with coefficients in R^{op}.

(e) [**e**] $\mathrm{T}^{I}{}_{J} : \mathrm{M}^{I}{}_{J}(R) \to \mathrm{M}_{J}{}^{I}(R^{\mathrm{op}})$, $A \to A^{\mathrm{T}}$ *is an anti-isomorphism of rings.*

Proof. It is readily verified that α_A is R-linear and Φ is a homomorphism of abelian group. To show that Φ is a bijection we find an inverse. For $k \in I$ define $e_k = (\delta_{ik})_{i\in I} \in R_I$. Let $\alpha \in \mathrm{End}_R(R_I, R_J)$ and define

$$A_\alpha := [\alpha(e_i)]_{i\in I}$$

Since $\alpha(e_i) \in R_J$, $A_\alpha \in \mathrm{M}^{I}{}_{J}$. Also for $x \in R_I$

$$xA_\alpha = x[\alpha(e_i)]_{i\in I} = \sum_{i\in I} x_i\alpha(e_i) = \alpha\Big(\sum_{i\in I} x_i e_i\Big) = \alpha(x)$$

and so $\Phi(A_\alpha) = \alpha$.

Conversely if $A \in \mathrm{M}^{I}{}_{J}(R)$, then

$$[\alpha_A(e_i)]_{i\in I} = [e_i A]_{i\in I} = [\sum_{k\in K} \delta_{ik}A_k]_{i\in I} = [A_i]_{i\in I} = A$$

So the function

$$\Psi : \mathrm{Hom}(R_I, R_J) \to \mathrm{M}^{I}{}_{J}(R), \alpha \to A_\alpha$$

is inverse to Φ.

(b) Let $A, B \in \mathrm{M}^{I}{}_{I}(R)$ and $x \in R_I$. Then

$$(\alpha_A \circ \alpha_B)(x) = \alpha_A(\alpha_B(x)) = (xB)A = x(BA) = \alpha_{BA}(x)$$

(b) now follows from (a).

(c) Note that $(A^{\mathrm{T}})^{\mathrm{T}} = A$. So all of the functions are bijections. They are clearly additive homomorphism. Note that Column i of A^{T} is row i of A. So if A has almost trivial rows, A^{T} has almost trivial columns. Thus the functions are well-defined.

(d)

$$(AB)^{\mathrm{T}} = \Big([A_i \bullet B_{,k}]_{\substack{i\in I\\ k\in K}}\Big)^{\mathrm{T}} = [A_i \bullet B_{,k}]_{\substack{k\in K\\ i\in I}} = [B_{,k} \bullet_{R^{\mathrm{op}}} A_i]_{\substack{k\in K\\ i\in I}} = \Big[\big(B^{\mathrm{T}}\big)_k \bullet_{R^{\mathrm{op}}} \big(A^{\mathrm{T}}\big)_{,i}\Big]_{\substack{k\in K\\ i\in I}} = B^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot_{R^{\mathrm{op}}} A^{\mathrm{T}}$$

(e) Follows from (c) and (d)

□

Lemma 3.1.16. [**r-linear action**] *Let R be a ring and V an R-module. Let G be a semigroup acting R-linearly on V, that is for all $r \in R, g, h \in G, a, b \in V$:*

$$(gh)v = g(hv), \quad g(v+w) = gv + gw, \quad \text{and} \quad g(rv) = r(gm)$$

Then V is an $R \times G$-sesquimodule via

$$R \times G \times V \to V, (r, g, v) \to r(gv)$$

Proof. Let $*_R$ and $*_G$ be the homomorphism from R and G to $\mathrm{End}(V)$ obtained from the action of R and G on V. Note that $r(gv) = g(rv)$ means

$$*_R(r) \circ *_G(g) = *_G(g) \circ *_R(r)$$

So by 2.2.8 shows that map

$$R \times G \to \mathrm{End}(V), (r, g) \to *_R(r) \circ *_G(g)$$

is a sesquihomomorphism. So the lemma follows from 3.1.5 □

Definition 3.1.17. [**def:submodule**] *Let R be a ring and $(V, +, *)$ an R-module. An R-submodule of $(V, +, *)$ is a R-module $(W, \triangle, \square)$ such that*

(i) [**i**] $W \subseteq V$.

(ii) [**ii**] $a \triangle b = a + b$ *for all* $a, b \in W$.

(iii) [**iii**] $r \square a = r * a$ *for all* $r \in R$, $a \in W$.

Note that if $(W, \triangle, \square)$ is a submodule of V, then $(W, \triangle, \square) \equiv (W, +, *)$.

Lemma 3.1.18. [**factor module**] *Let R be a ring, V an R-module and W an R-submodule of W. Then*

$$*_{V/W} : R \times V/W \to V/W, (r, v + W) \to rv + W$$

is a well-defined ring action of R on $(V/W, +_{V/W})$. Moreover the map

$$\pi : V \to V/W, v \to v + W$$

is an onto R-homomorphism with $\ker \pi = W$.

Proof. Let $v, v' \in V$ with $v + W = v' + W$. Then $v - v' \in W$ and so also

$$rv - rv' = r(v - v') \in W$$

Thus $rv + W = rv' + W$. So $*_{V/W}$ is well-defined. Straight forward calculations show that $*_{V/W}$ is a ring action.

By 1.6.10(f), π is a well-defined onto homomorphism of abelian groups with $\ker\pi = W$. We have

$$\pi(rv) = rv + W = r(v + W) = r\pi(v)$$

and so π is R-linear. □

Lemma 3.1.19. [**linear and submodules**] *Let R be a ring and $f : V \to W$ be R-linear,*

(a) [**a**] *Let X be an R-submodule of V. Then $f(X)$ is an R-submodule of W.*

(b) [**b**] *Let Y be an R-submodule of W. Then $f^{-1}(Y)$ is an R-submodule of V.*

(c) [**c**] $\operatorname{Im} f$ *is R-submodule of W.*

(d) [**d**] $\ker f$ *is an R-submodule of V.*

Proof. (a) Since f an homomorphism of abelian groups, $f(X)$ is a subgroup of W. Also if $r \in R$ and $x \in X$, then $rx \in X$ and so $rf(x) = f(rx) \in f(X)$

(b) $f^{-1}(Y)$ is an additive subgroup of V. If $x \in f^{-1}(Y)$, then $f(rx) = r(f(x)) \in rY \subseteq Y$. So $rx \in f^{-1}(Y)$.

(c) and (d) follow from (a) and (b) applies to $X = V$ and $Y = \{0\}$. □

Theorem 3.1.20 (Isomorphism Theorem for Modules)**.** [**itm**] *Let R be a ring and $f : V \to W$ an R-linear map. Then*

$$\overline{f} : V/\ker f \to f(W), v + \ker f \to f(v)$$

is a well-defined R-linear isomorphism.

Proof. By the isomorphism theorem for groups 1.6.11, this is a well defined isomorphism of abelian groups. We just need to check that it is R-linear. So let r and $v \in V$. Then

$$\overline{f}(r(v + \ker f)) = \overline{f}(rv + W) = f(rv) = rf(v) = r\overline{f}(v + \ker f).$$

□

Definition 3.1.21. [**def:generate**] *Let R be a ring, M an R-module, $S \subseteq R$ and $X \subset M$.*

(a) [**e**] $\langle X\rangle$ *is the subgroup of $(M, +)$ generated X.*

(b) [**a**] $SX = \{sx \mid s \in S, x \in X\}$

(c) [**b**] $\operatorname{Ann}_S(X) = \{s \in S \mid sx = 0_M$ *for all* $x \in X\}$. $\operatorname{Ann}_S(X)$ *is called the* annihilator *of X in S*

(d) [**c**] $\operatorname{Ann}_X(S) = \{x \in X \mid sx = 0_M$ *for alls* $\in S\}$. $\operatorname{Ann}_X(S)$ *is called the* annihilator *of X in S.*

(e) [**d**] $\langle X\rangle_R := \bigcap\{W \mid W$ *is an R submodule of $M, X \subseteq M\}$.* $\langle X\rangle_R$ *is called R-submodule of M* generated *by X.*

(f) [**f**] *M is called* finitely generated *if* $M = \langle I \rangle_R$ *for some finite subset I of R.*

Lemma 3.1.22. [**new easy product**] *Let R be a ring, M an R-module,* $S, T \subseteq R$, $X, Y \subseteq M$, $r \in R$ *and* $m \in M$.

(a) [**a**] $S(TX) = (ST)X$ *and we will just write* STX *for* $S(TX)$.

(b) [**b**] $r\langle X \rangle = \langle rX \rangle$ *and* $\langle S \rangle x = \langle Sx \rangle$.

(c) [**c**] $\langle SX \rangle = \big\langle S\langle X \rangle \big\rangle = \big\langle \langle S \rangle \langle X \rangle \big\rangle = \big\langle \langle S \rangle X \big\rangle$.

(d) [**d**] *If S is a left ideal in R, then* $\langle SX \rangle$ *is a R-submodule.*

(e) [**e**] *Let* $(X_i)_{i \in I}$ *be a family of R-submodules of M. Then* $\langle X_i, i \in I \rangle$ *is an R-submodule of M.*

(f) [**f**] *Let* $(X_i)_{i \in I}$ *be a family of R-submodules of M. Then* $\bigcap_{i \in I} X_i$ *is a R-submodule of M.*

(g) [**g**] $\langle X \rangle_R$ *is R-submodule of M,* $\langle X \rangle_R = \langle RX, X \rangle$ *and if M is unitary,* $\langle X \rangle_R = \langle RX \rangle$.

(h) [**h**] *If S is an additive subgroup of R and* $X = \langle x_i \mid i \in I \rangle$ *for family* $(x_i)_{i \in I}$ *in X then*

$$\langle SX \rangle = \Big\{ \sum_{i \in I} s_i x_i \;\Big|\; s \in S_I \Big\}$$

(i) [**i**] *If* $(X_i)_{i \in I}$ *is a family of subsets of M, then* $\langle X_i, i \in I \rangle_R = \langle \bigcup_{i \in I} X_i \rangle_R$.

Proof. (a)

$$S(TX) = \{ s(tx) \mid s \in S, t \in T, x \in X \} = \{ (st)x \mid s \in S, t \in T, x \in X \} = (ST)X.$$

(b) Since left multiplication by r and right multiplication by x are additive homomorphism, (b) follows from 1.8.5(c).

(c) Let $s \in S$ and $x \in X$ By (b) $s\langle X \rangle = \langle sX \rangle \leq \langle SX \rangle$ and so

$$(*) \qquad \big\langle S\langle X \rangle \big\rangle = \langle SX \rangle$$

By (b) $\langle S \rangle x = \langle Sx \rangle \leq \langle SX \rangle$ and so $\big\langle \langle S \rangle X \big\rangle = \langle SX \rangle$.
(*) applied to $\langle S \rangle$ in place of S yields $\big\langle \langle S \rangle \langle X \rangle \big\rangle = \langle \langle S \rangle X \rangle$ and so (c) holds.

(d) Since S is a left ideal, $RS \subseteq S$. So

$$R\langle SX \rangle \subseteq \langle R(SX) \rangle = \langle (RS)X \rangle \subseteq \langle SX \rangle$$

and so $\langle SX \rangle$ is an R-submodule.

(e) $R\langle X_i, i \in I \rangle \subseteq \langle RX_i, i \in I \rangle \subseteq \langle X_i, i \in I \rangle$.

(f) Suppose each X_i is an R-submodule. By 1.8.3 $\bigcap_{i \in I} X_i$ is subgroup of $(R, +)$. Let $x \in \bigcap_{i \in I} X_i$. Then $x \in X_i$ and so $rx \in A_i$ for all $i \in I$. Thus $rx \in \bigcap_{i \in I} X_i$ and so $\bigcap_{i \in I} X_i$ is an R-submodule.

(g) By (f), $\langle X\rangle_R$ is an R-submodule. Clearly $\langle RX, X\rangle$ is contained in any R-submodule containing X. So $\langle RX, X\rangle \leq \langle X\rangle_R$. We have

$$R\langle RX, X\rangle \subseteq \langle R(RX), RX >\subseteq \langle RX\rangle \subseteq \langle RX, X\rangle$$

and so $\langle RX, X\rangle$ is an R-submodule containing X. Hence $\langle RX, X\rangle = \langle X\rangle_R$.

If M is unitary $X = 1X \subseteq RX$ and so $\langle RX, X\rangle = \langle RX\rangle$

(h) Note that

$$\langle S\,X\rangle = \left\langle S\,\langle x_i \mid i \in I\rangle\right\rangle = \langle S\,x_i \mid i \in I\rangle.$$

and by (b), $S\,x_i$ is a subgroup of M. Hence (h) holds. □

Lemma 3.1.23. [**ideal in R**] *Let R be a ring and A an additive subgroup of R. Put*

$$\mathrm{I}_R(A) = \langle J \subseteq A \mid J \text{ is an ideal in } R\rangle$$

Then $\mathrm{I}_R(A)$ is an ideal of R contained in A, called the largest ideal of R contained in A.

Proof. By 2.4.6(g) $\mathrm{I}_R(A)$ is an ideal in R. Since A is an additive subgroup of R, $\mathrm{I}_R(A) \subseteq A$. □

Lemma 3.1.24. [**new bann**] *Let R be ring, M an R-module, $S \subseteq R$ and $X \subseteq M$. Then*

(a) [**a**] $S \subseteq \mathrm{Ann}_R(X)$ *if and only if* $X \subseteq \mathrm{Ann}_M(X)$.

(b) [**b**] *Let $m \in M$. Then the map*

$$R/\mathrm{Ann}_R(m) \to Rm,\ r + \mathrm{Ann}_R(m) \to rm$$

is a well-defined isomorphism of R-modules.

(c) [**c**] $\mathrm{Ann}_R(X)$ *is a left ideal in R.*

(d) [**d**] *Let I be a right ideal in R. Then* $\mathrm{Ann}_M(I)$ *is R-submodule in M.*

(e) [**e**] *If X is a R-submodule of M, then* $\mathrm{Ann}_R(X)$ *is an ideal in R*

(f) [**f**] $\mathrm{Ann}_R(\langle X\rangle_R) = \mathrm{I}_R(\mathrm{Ann}_R(X))$.

(g) [**g**] *Suppose that one of the following holds:*

1. [**1**] *R is commutative.*
2. [**2**] *All left ideals in R are also right ideals.*
3. [**3**] $\mathrm{Ann}_R(X)$ *is a right ideal.*

Then $\mathrm{Ann}_R(X) = \mathrm{Ann}_R(\langle X\rangle_R)$.

Proof. (a) Both statements are equivalent to $SX = \{0\}$.

(b) and (c) Consider the map

$$f : R \to M, \quad r \to rm.$$

Let $r, s \in R$. Then $f(r+s) = (r+s)m = rm + sm = f(r) + f(s)$. Also for $r, s \in R$

$$f(rs) = (rs)m = r(sm) = rf(s)$$

So f is R-linear. Since $\mathrm{Ann}_R(m) = \ker f$, (d) follows from the Isomorphism Theorem 3.1.20.

In particular, $\mathrm{Ann}_R(m)$ is a left R-submodule of R and so a left in R. Hence also $\mathrm{Ann}_R(X) = \bigcap_{x\in X} \mathrm{Ann}_R(x)$ is a left ideal in R and (c) holds.

(d) Since left multiplication by $r \in R$ is additive homomorphism, $\mathrm{Ann}_M(r)$ is an additive subgroup of R. Hence also $\mathrm{Ann}_M(I) = \bigcup_{i\in I} \mathrm{Ann}_M(i)$ is an additive subgroup. Since

$$I\big(R\mathrm{Ann}_M(I)\big) = (IR)\mathrm{Ann}_M(I) = I\mathrm{Ann}_M(I) = 0.$$

$R\mathrm{Ann}_M(I) \subseteq \mathrm{Ann}_M(I)$ and so $\mathrm{Ann}_M(I)$ is R-submodule of M.

(e) By (b) $\mathrm{Ann}_R(X)$ is left ideal. We have

$$\big(\mathrm{Ann}_R(X)R\big)X = \mathrm{Ann}_R(X)(RX) \subseteq \mathrm{Ann}_R(X)X = 0$$

and so $\mathrm{Ann}_R(X)R \subseteq \mathrm{Ann}_R(X)$.

(f) Put $I = \mathrm{I}_R(\mathrm{Ann}_R(X))$. Then I is an ideal of R and $I \subseteq \mathrm{Ann}_R(X)$ and so $X \subseteq \mathrm{Ann}_M(I)$. By (d), $\mathrm{Ann}_M(I)$ is a submodule of M and so $\langle X\rangle_R \leq \mathrm{Ann}_R(I)$. Thus $I \subseteq \mathrm{Ann}_R(\langle X\rangle_R)$.

Since $\langle X\rangle_R$ is an R-submodule of M, (e) show that $\mathrm{Ann}_R(\langle X\rangle_R)$ is an ideal in R. Since $X \subseteq \langle X\rangle_R$, $\mathrm{Ann}_R(\langle X\rangle) \subseteq \mathrm{Ann}_R(X)$ and so the definition of I implies $\mathrm{Ann}_R(\langle X\rangle_R) \subseteq I$.

(g) Recall that by (b) $\mathrm{Ann}_R(X)$ is an left ideal in R.

Note that (g:1) implies (g:2), and (g:2) implies (g:3) So in any case $\mathrm{Ann}_R(X)$ is a right ideal and thus also ideal in $\mathrm{Ann}_R(X)$. Thus $\mathrm{Ann}_R(X) = \mathrm{I}_R(\mathrm{Ann}_R(X))$ and (g) follows from (f). □

Example 3.1.25. [**ex:ann**] Let I be non-empty set, K a ring with identity, $R = {M_I}^I(K)$ and $M = K_I$. Then M is an R-module by left multiplication. Let $e_j = (\delta_{ij})_{i\in I} \in K_I$ and $A \in R$. Then $Ae_j = A_{,j}$, the j'th column of A. So $\mathrm{Ann}_R(e_j)$ consists of all matrices in R whose j'th column is 0. Let $k \in K_I$ and pick $A \in R$ with $A_{,j} = k$. Then $k = Ae_j \in \langle e_j\rangle_R$ and we conclude that $Re_j = \langle e_j\rangle_R = K_I$. Hence $\mathrm{Ann}_R\big(\langle e_j\rangle_R\big) = \mathrm{Ann}_R(K_I) = 0$. So if $|I| \geq 2$ and $K \neq 0$,

$$\mathrm{Ann}_R\big(\langle e_j\rangle)_R\big) \neq \mathrm{Ann}_R(e_j)$$

Note also that by 3.1.24(d),

$$R/\mathrm{Ann}_R(e_j) \cong Re_j = K_I$$

as an R-module.

Lemma 3.1.26. [**ex:ann ri**] *Let R be a ring and J a left ideal in R. View R/J is an R-module by left multiplication.*

(a) [**a**] $\mathrm{Ann}_R(R/J) = \{a \in R \mid aR \subseteq J\}$.

(b) [**b**] *Suppose that R has an identity. Then*

$$\mathrm{Ann}_R(1+J) = J \qquad \textit{and } \mathrm{Ann}_R(R/J) = \mathrm{I}_R(J)$$

Proof. Let $a, b \in R$. Then $a \in \mathrm{Ann}_R(b+J)$ if and only if $ab + J = J$ and so if and only if $ab \in J$. This gives (a) and the first statement in (b). Since $R/J = \langle 1 + J\rangle_R$, the last assertion in (b) follows from the first and 3.1.24(f). □

3.2 Free modules and torsion modules

Definition 3.2.1. [**def: free**] *Let V be an R-module and $v = (v_i)_{i\in I}$ a family of elements in V*

(a) [**a**] *V is called free R-module with respect to v if V is unitary and for all unitary R-modules W and all family of elements $(w_i)_{i\in I}$ in W there exists a unique R-linear map $f : V \to W$ with $f(v_i) = w_i$ for all $i \in I$.*

(b) [**b**] *v is called R-linearly independent, if for all $r \in R_I$,*

$$\sum_{i\in I} r_i v_i = 0 \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad r = 0$$

(c) [**c**] *v is called a R-spanning family for all $u \in V$ there exists $r \in R_I$ with $u = \sum_{i\in I} r_i v_i$.*

(d) [**d**] *v is called an R-basis for V if v is an R-linearly independent R-spanning family.*

(e) [**e**] *Let c be a cardinality. Then we say that V is free of rank c if V is a free R-module with respect to w for some set J and some $w \in V^J$ with $|J| = c$.*

Lemma 3.2.2. [**ri to v**] *Let R be a ring, V an R-module and $v = (v_i)_{i\in I}$ a family of elements in V. Define*

$$f_v : R_I \to V, r \to \sum_{i\in I} r_i v_i$$

(a) [**a**] *f_v is R-linear.*

(b) [**b**] *f_v is 1-1 if and only if v is R-linearly independent.*

(c) [**c**] *f_v is onto if and only if v spans V.*

Proof. (a) Let $i \in I$. Observe that the functions $R_I \to R, r \to r_i$ and $R \to V$, $r \to rv_i$ are R-linear. Hence also the composition $f_i : R_I \to V, r \to r_i v_i$ and the sum $f = \sum_{i\in I} f_i$ are R-linear.

(b) v is linearly independent if and only if $\ker f_v = 0$ and so if and only if f_v is 1-1.

(c) Follows directly from the definition of a spanning. □

Lemma 3.2.3. [**free module**] *Let V be a unitary R-module and $v = (v_i)_{i\in I}$ a family of elements in V. Then the following statements are equivalent.*

(a) [**a**] *v is a basis for V.*

(b) [**b**] *The map $f_v : R_I \to V, r \to \sum_{i\in I} r_i v_i$ is an R-isomorphism.*

(c) [**c**] *For each $u \in V$ there exists a uniquely determined $r \in R_I$ with $u = \sum_{i\in I} r_i v_i$.*

(d) [**d**] *V is free R-module with respect to v*

Proof. (a) $\iff$ (b) : Follows from 3.2.2.

(b) $\iff$ (c) : Since f_v is F-linear, f is an R-isomorphism if and only if f is a bijection. So (c) and (b) are equivalent.

(b) $\implies$ (d): Suppose f_v is isomorphism and let W be an unitary R-module and $w = (w_i)_{i\in I}$ a family in W. Define $f_w : R_I \to W$, $r \to \sum_{i\in I} r_i w_i$. Then by 3.2.2 f_w and so also $g := \circ f_v^{-1}$ is R-linear. Let $e_i = (\delta_{ij})_{j\in J}$. Since V and W are unitary, $f_v(e_i) = 1v_i = v_i$ and $f_w(e_i) = w_i$. Hence and $g(v_i) = w_i$. If $\tilde{g} : V \to W$ is linear with $\tilde{g}(v_i) = w_i$ for all $i \in I$, then $v_i \in \ker(g - \tilde{g})$. Since $\ker(g - \tilde{g})$ is an R-submodule of V and v spans V, $\ker(g - \tilde{g}) = V$ and so $g = \tilde{g}$.

(d) $\implies$ (a): Let $r \in R_I$ with $\sum_{i\in I} r_i v_i = 0_V$. Fix $j \in I$. Then $(\delta_{ij})_{i\in I}$ is a family of elements in R and since V is free with respect to v there exists an R-linear map $f_j : V \to R$ with $f_j(v_i) = \delta_{ij}$ for all $i \in I$. Then

$$0_R = f_j(0_V) = f_j\Big(\sum_{i\in I} r_i v_i\Big) = \sum_{i\in I} r_i f_j(v_i) = \sum_{i\in I} r_i \delta_{ij} = r_j$$

So v is linearly independent. Let $W = \langle v_i \mid i \in I\rangle_R$. Then v is a family of elements in W and since V is free with respect to v, there exists an R-linear $h : V \to W$ with $h(v_i) = v_i$ for all $i \in I$. Thus h and id_V are R-linear functions from V to V with $h(v_i) = v_i = \mathrm{id}_V(v_i)$ for all $i \in I$. Thus by the uniqueness statement in the definition of free module, $h = \mathrm{id}_V$. Thus $V = \mathrm{Im}\,\mathrm{id}_V = \mathrm{Im}\,h \leq W$ and $W = V$. So v spans V and v is a basis. □

We will now investigate when all submodules of free R-modules are free. First an example.

Example 3.2.4. [**ex:non-free**] Let $R = \mathbb{Z}_n$ with $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, n not a prime. Let $V = \mathbb{Z}_n$, viewed as an $\mathbb{Z}_n$-module by left multiplication. Let $n = pq$ with $1 < q < n$. Then $q\mathbb{Z}_n$ is a proper submodule of $\mathbb{Z}_n$, but since $p(q\mathbb{Z}_n) = 0$ and $p \not\equiv 0 \pmod{n}$, $q\mathbb{Z}_n$ is not a free R-module.

An obvious necessary condition for all submodules of all free modules for a ring R to be free is that all submodules of R itself are free. The next theorem shows that this condition is also sufficient.

Theorem 3.2.5. [**subfree**] *Let R be a ring with identity.*

(a) [**a**] *Suppose that all left ideals in R are free as R-modules. Then all R-submodule of all free R-modules are free.*

(b) [**b**] *Suppose R is a PID and V is a free R-module of rank r. Then every R-submodule of V is free of rank less or equal to r.*

Proof. Let $B \subseteq V$. We say that B is an R-basis for V if $(b)_{b\in B}$ is basis for V.

(a) Let M be a free R- module with basis $B \subseteq M$ and A an R-submodule in M. According to the well ordering principal (A.2.11) we can choose a well ordering $\leq$ on B. For $b \in B$ define

$$M_b^* = \langle e \in B \mid e < b\rangle_R \qquad \text{and} \qquad M_b = \langle e \in B \mid e \leq b\rangle_R$$

Note that $M_b = M_b^* \oplus Rb$. Put $A_b = M_b \cap A$ and $A_b^* = M_b^* \cap A$. Then

$$A_b/A_b^* = A_b/A_b \cap M_b^* \cong A_b + M_b^*/M_b^* \leq M_b/M_b^* \cong Rb \cong R.$$

By assumption every submodule of R is free and so A_b/A_b^* is free. Let $E_b \subseteq A_b$ such that $(e+A_b^*)_{e\in E_b}$ is a basis for A_b/A_b^*. Let $E = \bigcup_{b\in B} E_b$. We claim that E is a basis for A.

Let $0 \neq m \in M$. Then $m = \sum_{b\in B} r_b b$ for some $0 \neq r \in R_B$. Choose $b_m \in B$ maximal with respect $r_{b_m} \neq 0$. Then $m \in M_{b_m}$ and $m \notin M_{b_m}^*$. So b_m is minimal in B with $m \in M_{b_m}$. If $b \in B$ and $e \in E_b$, then $b_e = b$.

Now suppose that $\sum_{e\in E} s_e e = 0$ for some $0 \neq s \in R_E$. Define

$$b = \max\left\{b_e \;\middle|\; e \in E, s_e \neq 0\right\}$$

Let $e \in E$ with $s_e \neq 0$. If $b_e = b$, then $e \in E_b$. If $b_e \neq b$, then $b_e < b$ and so $e \in A_b^*$ Thus

$$0 + A_b^* = \Big(\sum_{e\in E} s_e e\Big) + A_b^* = \sum_{e\in E_b} s_e\big(e + A_b^*\big).$$

Since $s_e \neq 0$ for at least one $e \in E_b$, this contradicts the linear independence of the $(e + A_b^*)_{e\in E_b}$.

Hence E is linear independent. Let $b \in B$ we will show by induction on b, that $A_b \leq \langle E\rangle_R$. Suppose inductively that $A_c \leq \langle E\rangle_R$ for all $c < b$. If $v \in A_b^*$, then $b_v < b$ and so $c \in \langle E\rangle_R$ be the induction assumption. Hence $A_b^* \leq \langle E\rangle_R$. Let $w \in A_b$. Since $(e + A_b^*)_{e\in E_b}$ spans A_b/A_b^*, there exists $t \in R_{E_b}$ with

$$w + A_b^* = \sum_{e\in E_b} t_e e + A_b^*.$$

Put $u = \sum_{e\in E_b} t_e e$. Then $u \in \langle E\rangle_R$ and $w - u \in A_b^* \subseteq \langle E\rangle_R$. Hence also $w = (w - u) + u \in \langle E\rangle_R$. Thus $A_b \subseteq \langle E\rangle_R$.

If $0 \neq a \in A$, then $a \in A_{b_a} \subseteq \langle E\rangle_R$. So E spans A and E is a basis for A.

(b) Let I be a left ideal in R. Then $I = Ri$ for some $i \in R$. Since R is an integral domain, $\mathrm{Ann}_R(i) = \{0_R\}$ and so by 3.1.24(b), $R \cong R/\mathrm{Ann}_R(i) \cong Ri$. Then I is free of rank at most 1. Hence $|E_b| \leq 1$ for all $b \in \mathcal{B}$. Thus $|E| \leq |B|$ and (b) holds. □

The proof of the previous theorem is abstract in the sense that it shows the existence of basis, but does not provide an method to compute the basis. Using the proof to find a basis for a submodule A of the free module M with basis B one has to be able to:

(i) [**well-order**] Find a well-ordering on B; and

(ii) [**basic**] For each $b \in B$ find basis $(e + A_b^*)_{e\in E_b}$ for A_b/A_b^*.

If B happens to be finite, (i) is no problem and if R is Euclidean domain, one can use the Euclidean Algorithm to carry out (ii).

Example 3.2.6. [**ex:basis over z**] Find a $\mathbb{Z}$-basis for the $\mathbb{Z}$-submodule A of $\mathbb{Z}^3$ spanned by

$$a = \big((6,15,4),(9,10,3),(15,10,1)\big)$$

We choose the basis (e_1, e_2, e_3) for $\mathbb{Z}^3$ and the ordering $e_3 < e_2 < e_1$. Then $M_3^* = 0$, $M_3 = M_2^* = 0 \times 0 \times \mathbb{Z}$, $M_2 = M_1^* = 0 \times \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ and $M_1 = \mathbb{Z}^3$. Then $A_1/A_3^1 = A/A_1^*$ is isomorphic the (left) ideal $[\![6,10,15]\!] = [\![\gcd(6,10,15)]\!] = [\![3]\!]$ of $\mathbb{Z}$. Note that $(9,10,3) - (6,15,4) = (3,-5,-1)$ maps to 3 under this isomorphism So we can choose $E_3 = \{d_3\}$ where $d_1 = (3,-5,-1)$. Note also that (a_1, d_1, a_3) spans A.

By construction 3 divides first coordinate of each elements of the spanning family of A . So we can subtract multiple of d_1 from a_1 and a_3 to obtain the following spanning family for A_2

$$b = \big((0,25,6),(0,35,6)\big)$$

Thus A_2/A_2^* is isomorphic to the ideal $[\![25,40]\!] = [\![\gcd(25,35)]\!] = [\![5]\!]$ of $\mathbb{Z}$. To obtain a spanning set for A_2 with a element whose second coordinate is 5 we imitate the Euclidean algorithm. Subtract the first element from the second to obtain the spanning set

$$\big((0,25,6),(0,10,0)\big)$$

Then subtract to twice the second element from the first

$$\big((0,5,0),(0,10,6)\big)$$

So we can choose $d_2 = (0,5,6)$ and then $d_3 = (0,10,0) - 2(0,5,6) = (0,0,-12)$. So the basis for A is

$$\big((0,0,-12),(0,5,6),(3,-5,-1)\big)$$

It should now be apparent that for a Euclidean domain R we obtain a Gaussian elimination process to compute a basis for any submodule of R^n giving by a spanning family. View your spanning family as rows of matrix. Starting at the first column use the Euclidean algorithm and row operation to obtain a leading entry in a column which divides all of entries of the column. Move the row of with the leading entry to the first row. Use further row operation to make all other entries in that column zero. Ignore the first row from now on and proceed with the column to the left.

Row operations one can use: Interchange any two columns, add a multiply of a row to another row, and multiply a row by a *unit*.

In matrix form the above example looks like this

$$\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 15 & 4 \\ 9 & 10 & 3 \\ 15 & 10 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{-R1+R2\to R2} \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 15 & 4 \\ 3 & -5 & -1 \\ 15 & 10 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R1\leftrightarrow R2} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -5 & -1 \\ 6 & 15 & 4 \\ 15 & 10 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow[-5R1+R3\to R3]{-2R1+R2\to R2} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -5 & -1 \\ 0 & 25 & 6 \\ 0 & 35 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{-R2+R3\to R3} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -5 & -1 \\ 0 & 25 & 6 \\ 0 & 10 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{-2R3+R2\to R2} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -5 & -1 \\ 0 & 5 & 6 \\ 0 & 10 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{-2R2+R3\to R3} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -5 & -1 \\ 0 & 5 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & -12 \end{bmatrix}$$

Remark 3.2.7. [**rm:commutative free**] *Let R be a commutative ring with identity and suppose that every (left) ideal in R is a free R-module. Then R is a PID.*

Proof. Let $a, b \in R^{\#}$. Then $ba - ab = 0$ and so (a, b) is linearly dependent. Hence every non-zero ideal in R is free of rank 1 and so a principal ideal. Let $a, b \in R^{\sharp}$ and (v) a basis for Rb. Then $0 \neq av \in aRb = Rab$ and so $ab \neq 0$. Thus R is also an integral domain and so a PID. □

Corollary 3.2.8. [**subfingen**] *Let R be a PID and M a unitary R-module and W an R-submodule of M. If $M = \langle I \rangle_R$ for some $I \subseteq M$, then $W = \langle J \rangle$ for some $J \subseteq W$ with $|J| \leq |I|$. In particular, if M is finitely generated as an R-module, so is M.*

Proof. Let $m = (i)_{i\in I}$. Then m spans M and $f_m : R_I \to M, r \to \sum_{i\in I} r_i i$ is onto. Let $A = f_m^{-1}(W)$. By 3.2.5 A has a basis $(a_k)_{k\in K}$ with $|K| \leq |I|$. Since f_m is onto, $f_m(A) = M$. Thus

$$M = f_m(A) = f_m(\langle a_k \mid k \in K \rangle_R) = \langle f_m(a_k) \mid k \in K \rangle_R$$

and the corollary holds with $J = f_m(K)$. □

Definition 3.2.9. [**dtorsion**] *Let M be an R-module and $m \in M$.*

(a) [**a**] *$m \in M$ is called a* torsion element *if $Rm = 0$ or $\mathrm{Ann}_R(m) \neq 0$, that is $rm = 0$ for some $r \in R^{\sharp}$*

(b) [**b**] *M is called a* torsion module *if all elements are torsion elements.*

(c) [**c**] *M is called* torsion free *if 0_M is the only torsion element.*

(d) [**d**] *M is called a faithful R-module if $\mathrm{Ann}_R(M) = 0$, that is if the canonical homomorphism from R to $\mathrm{End}(M)$ is 1-1.*

(e) [**e**] *M is a bounded R-module if R is not-faithful, that is $rM = 0$ for some $r \in R^{\sharp}$.*

Note that m is not a torsion element if and only if $Rm \neq 0$ and (m) is linearly independent.

Example 3.2.10. [**ex:torsion**] Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$.

1. [**1**] Consider $M = \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_3$. Since $2(1,0) = (2,0) = (0,0)$, $(1,0)$ is a torsion element. Also $3(0,1) = (0,3) = (0,0)$ and so $(0,1)$ is a torsion element. In fact $6(a,b) = (2(3a), 3(2b)) = (0,0)$ for all $(a,b) \in M$ and so M is bounded.

2. [**2**] Consider $\mathbb{Z}^I$. If $rz = 0$ for some $0 \neq r \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $z \in \mathbb{Z}^I$, then $rz_i = 0$ for all $i \in I$ and so $z_i = 0$ and $z = 0$. Hence $\mathbb{Z}^I$ is torsion-free.

3. [**3**] Consider $M = \bigoplus_{i\in\mathbb{Z}^+} \mathbb{Z}_i$. Let $m = (m_i)_{i\in\mathbb{Z}^+} \in M$. By definition of the direct sum there exists $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ with $m_i = 0$ for all $i > k$. We claim that $k!m = 0_M$. Indeed of $i \leq k$, then $i \mid k!$ and so $k!m_i = 0$ in $\mathbb{Z}_i$. And if $i > k$, then $m_i = 0$ and again $k!m_i = 0$. Thus M is a torsion module.

   But M is not bounded, indeed suppose that $r \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ with $rm = 0_M$ for all $m \in M$. Let $i \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and pick $m \in M$ with $m_i = 1$. From $rm = 0$ we get $0 = rm_i = r1 = r$ in $\mathbb{Z}_i$ and so $i \mid r$. Hence $|r| \geq i$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, a contradiction.

Lemma 3.2.11. [**intersection integral**] *Let R be an integral domain and $\mathcal{F}$ a finite set of non-zero ideals in R. Then $\bigcap \mathcal{F} \neq 0$.*

Proof. Since R is an integral domain, $\prod_{F\in\mathcal{F}} F \neq 0$. Since $\prod_{F\in c\alpha} F \subseteq \bigcap \mathcal{F}$ the lemma holds. □

Lemma 3.2.12. [**torsion**] *Let M be a module for the integral domain R.*

(a) [**b**] *Let I be a finite set of torsion elements in M. Then $\langle I\rangle_R$ is a bounded R-submodule of M.*

(b) [**a**] *Let $\mathrm{T}(M)$ be the set of torsion elements in M. Then $\mathrm{T}(M)$ is R-submodule of M.*

(c) [**c**] *$M/\mathrm{T}(M)$ is torsion free.*

Proof. (a) Since each $i \in i$ is a torsion element, $\mathrm{Ann}_R(i) \neq 0$ for all $i \in I$. Thus by 3.2.11

$$\mathrm{Ann}_R(I) = \bigcap_{i\in I} \mathrm{Ann}_R(i) \neq 0$$

By 3.1.24(g) $\mathrm{Ann}_R(\langle I\rangle_R) = \mathrm{Ann}_R(I)$. and so $\mathrm{Ann}_R(\langle I\rangle_R) \neq 0$.

(b) Since $R0_M = 0_M$, $0_M \in \mathrm{T}(M)$. If $x, y \in \mathrm{T}(M)$ and $r \in R$, then by (a), $x+y \in \mathrm{T}(M)$, $-x \in \mathrm{T}(M)$ and $rx \in \mathrm{T}(M)$. Thus $\mathrm{T}(M)$.

(c) Let $x \in M/\mathrm{T}(M)$ be a torsion element. Pick $m \in M$ with $x = m + \mathrm{T}(M)$ and $r \in R^\sharp$ with $rx = 0_{M/\mathrm{T}(M)}$. Then $rm \in \mathrm{T}(M)$ and so $s(rm) = 0_M$ for some $s \in R^\sharp$. Hence $(sr)m = 0_M$ and as R is an integral domain, $sr \neq 0_R$. So $m \in T(M)$, $x = m + \mathrm{T}(M) = 0_{M/\mathrm{T}(M)}$ and $M/\mathrm{T}(M)$ is torsion free. □

Theorem 3.2.13. [**freetorsion**] *Let R be a ring and M an R-module.*

(a) [**a**] *Any linearly independent subset of M lies in a maximal linear independent subset.*

(b) [**b**] *Let L be a maximal linear independent subset of M. Then $M/\langle RL\rangle$ is a torsion module, and if M is unitary, $\langle RL\rangle$ is free R-module with basis L.*

Proof. (a) Let E be a linearly independent subset of M. Let $\mathcal{L}$ be the set of linearly independent subsets of M containing E. Since $E \in \mathcal{L}$, $\mathcal{L} \neq \varnothing$. Order $\mathcal{L}$ by inclusion. Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a non-empty chain in $\mathcal{L}$ and put $D = \bigcup \mathcal{C}$.

We will show that D is linearly independent. For this let $r \in R_D$ with $\sum_{d\in D} r_d d = 0_V$. Let $F = \{d \in D \mid r_d \neq 0\}$ and note that F is finite. Let $f \in F$. Since $f \in D = \bigcup \mathcal{C}$, there exists $C_f \in \mathcal{C}$ with $f \in C_i$. Since $\{C_f \mid f \in F\}$ is a finite it has maximal element C. Then $f \in C_f \subseteq C$ for all $f \in F$. Then

$$0 = \sum_{d\in D} r_d d = \sum_{d\in F} r_d d = \sum_{d\in C} r_d d$$

and since C is linearly independent, $r_d = 0$ for all $d \in D$. Hence also $r_f = 0$ for all $f \in F$. So $F = \varnothing$ and $r = 0$. Thus D is linearly independent, $D \in \mathcal{L}$ and D is an upper bound for $\mathcal{C}$.

Thus the assumptions of Zorn's Lemma A.2.8 are fulfilled and we conclude that $\mathcal{L}$ contains a maximal element L. Then L is a maximal linearly independent subset of M containing E.

(b) Put $W = \langle RL\rangle$. Let $v \in V$. We need to show that $v + W$ is a torsion element. If $v \in L$, then $Rv \subseteq W$ and so $R(v + W) = 0_{v/W}$ and $v + W$ is a torsion element. So suppose $v \notin L$. By maximality of L $\{v\} \cup L$ is linearly dependent. Hence there exist $s \in R$ and $r \in R_L$ such that

$$sv + \sum_{l\in L} r_l l = 0$$

and at least one of s and r is not zero.

If $s = 0$, then since L is linearly independent, $r = 0$, a contradiction. Thus $s \neq 0$ and $sv = -\sum_{l\in L} r_l l \in \langle RL\rangle$. Hence $s(v + W) = 0_{V/W}$ and V/W is a torsion module.

If V is unitary, then $W = \langle L\rangle_R$ and so L is basis for W. □

We remark that if L is a maximal linear independent subset of the unitary R-module M, then $\langle L\rangle$ does not have to be a maximal free submodule. Indeed the following example shows that M does not even have to have a maximal free submodule. (Zorn's lemma does not apply as the union of a chain of free submodules might not be free)

Example 3.2.14. [**ex:no max free**] Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$ and $M = \mathbb{Q}$ with $\mathbb{Z}$ acting on $\mathbb{Q}$ by left multiplication. As $\mathbb{Q}$ has no zero divisors, $\mathbb{Q}$ is torsion free. In particular, every non-zero element a is linearly independent. We claim $\{a\}$ is a maximal linearly independent subset. Indeed, let $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}^\sharp$. Then $a = \frac{n}{m}$ and $b = \frac{p}{q}$ with $n, p \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $m, q \in \mathbb{Z}^\sharp$. Then

$$(mp)a + (-nq)b = mp\frac{n}{m} - nq\frac{p}{q} = pn - np = 0$$

and (a, b) is linearly dependent.

We conclude that every non-zero free submodule of $\mathbb{Q}$ is of the form $\mathbb{Z}a, a \in \mathbb{Q}^\sharp$. Since $\mathbb{Z}a \not\leq \mathbb{Z}\frac{a}{2}$ we see that $\mathbb{Q}$ has no maximal free $\mathbb{Z}$-submodule. In particular, $\mathbb{Q}$ is not free $\mathbb{Z}$-module.

$\mathbb{Q}$ as a $\mathbb{Z}$ module has another interesting property: every finitely generated submodules is cyclic Indeed, if A is generated by $\frac{n_i}{m_i}, 1 \leq i \leq k$, put $m = \operatorname{lcm}_{1\leq i\leq k} m_i$. Then $mA \cong A$ and $mA \leq \mathbb{Z}$. So mA and A are cyclic.

Corollary 3.2.15. [**vectorspace**] *Let D be a division ring and V a unitary D-module.*

(a) [**a**] *V is torsion free.*

(b) [**d**] *If V is a torsion module, then $V = 0$.*

(c) [**b**] *Every linear independent subset of V is contained in a basis of V.*

(d) [**c**] *V has a basis and so is a free D-module.*

Proof. (a) Let $d \in D^\sharp$ and $v \in V$ with $dv = 0_V$. Since D is a division ring $ed = 1_D$ for some $e \in D$. Thus $v = 1_D v = edv = e0_V = 0_V$ and so V is torsion free.

(b) This follows from (a).

(c) Let L be linearly dependent subset of V. By 3.2.13 L is contained in a maximal linearly dependent subset B. Also by 3.2.13, $V/\langle RB\rangle$ is a torsion module. So (b) applied to $V/\langle RB\rangle$ is a zero-module and so $V = \langle RB\rangle$ and B is a basis for V.

(d) By (c) applied to $L = \varnothing$, V has a basis and so by 3.2.3 V is free. □

Lemma 3.2.16. [**splitting frattini**] *Let $f : A \to B$ be group homomorphism and $D \leq B$. Put $F = \ker f$. Then*

(a) [**a**] *If $f\mid_D : D \to B$ is onto then $A = FD$.*

(b) [**b**] *If $f\mid_D$ is 1-1, then $F \cap D = 1$.*

(c) [**c**] *If $f\mid_D : D \to B$ is bijection, then $A = FD$ and $F \cap D = 1$.*

Proof. (a) Let $a \in A$. Then $f(a) = f(d)$ for some $d \in D$. Thus $ad^{-1} \in \ker f = F$ and $a = ad^{-1}d \in FD$.

(b) is obvious and (c) follows from (a) and (b). □

Lemma 3.2.17. [**free splits**] *Let R be a ring, V a unitary R-module and W an R-submodule of V. If V/W is a free R-module, then there exists an R-submodule F of V with $V = F \oplus W$. Moreover, $F \cong V/W$ and so F is a free R-module.*

Proof. Let V/W be free with respect to the family $(x_i)_{i\in I}$ in V/W. By the axiom of choice there exists a family $(v_i)_{i\in I}$ with $v_i \in x_i$ for all $i \in I$. Then $x_i = v_i + W$ for all $i \in I$. The definition of a free module implies that there exists an R-linear map$f : V/W \to V$ with $f(x)i) = v_i$ for all $i \in I$. Define $g : V/W \to V/W, x \to f(x) + W$. Then $g(x_i) = v_i + W = x_i$ for all $i \in I$ and so by the uniqueness assertion in the definition of a free module, $g = \mathrm{id}_{V/W}$. Define $h : V \to V, v \to f(v + W)$. Then for $v \in V$,

$$h(v) + W = f(v + W) + W = g(v + W) = v + W$$

Finally define $k = \mathrm{id}_W - h$. Then $k(v) = v - h(v) \in W$ for all $v \in V$ and so k is function from V to W. If $w \in W$, then $h(w) = f(w + W) = f(0_{V/W} = 0$ and so

$$k|_W = \mathrm{id}_W - h|_W = \mathrm{id}_W$$

3.2.16 now shows that $V = F \oplus W$ for the R-submodule $F = \ker k$ of V. The second isomorphism theorem gives $V/W = (F \oplus W)/W \cong F/F \cap W = F/0 \cong F$ and the lemma is proved. □

Lemma 3.2.18. [**vector spaces split**] *Let D be a division ring, V a D-module and W a D-submodule. Then there exists a D-submodule K of V with $V = K \oplus W$.*

Proof. By 3.2.15(b), V/W is a free D-module and so the lemma follows from 3.2.17. □

Lemma 3.2.19. [**idsubfree**] *Let M be a torsion free R-module for the integral domain R. Suppose that one of the following holds:*

1. [**1**] *M is finitely generated.*

2. [**2**] *If N is a submodule of M such that M/N is a torsion module, then M/N is bounded.*

Then there exists a free R-submodule W such that M is isomorphic to a submodule W. In particular, M is isomorphic to a submodule of free R-module.

Proof. Suppose (1) holds and let N be an R-submodule of M such that M/N is a torsion module. Then M/N is a finitely generated torsion module and 3.2.12 implies that M/N is bounded. Hence condition (1) implies condition (2).

So we may assume that (2) holds. By 3.2.13 there exists a free submodule W of V such that M/W is torsion. By (2) there exists $r \in R^\sharp$ with $rx = 0_{M/W}$. Hence $rM \leq W$.

Consider the map

$$\alpha : M \to W, m \to rm.$$

Since R is commutative, α is a R-linear. As M is torsion free, α is 1-1. Thus $M \cong \alpha(M) = rM \leq W$. □

3.3 Modules over PIDs

Definition 3.3.1. [**def:r order**] *Let R be a PID, M an R-module, $X \subseteq_\in M$ and $r \in R$. Then we say that X has R-exponent r and write $r \sim \exp_R(X)$ if $\mathrm{Ann}_R(X) = (\!|r|\!)$.*

Example 3.3.2. [**ex:r exp**] *Let A be abelian group. Then A is a $\mathbb{Z}$-module and $\exp_{\mathbb{Z}}(X) \sim \exp(X)$ for all $X \leq A$. Moreover, $\exp_{\mathbb{Z}}(a) \sim |a|$ for all $a \in A$.*

Lemma 3.3.3. [**exp and generator**] *Let R be PID, M an R-module and $X \subseteq M$. Then*

$$\exp_R(\langle X\rangle_R) = \exp_R(X) = \operatorname*{lcm}_{x\in X} \exp_R(x)$$

Proof.

$$\mathrm{Ann}_R(\langle X\rangle_R) = \mathrm{Ann}_R(X) = \bigcap_{x\in X} \mathrm{Ann}_R(x) = \bigcap_{x\in X} (\!|(\exp_R(x))|\!) = (\!|\operatorname*{lcm}_{x\in X} \exp_R(x)|\!)$$

□

Lemma 3.3.4. [**exponent of element**] *Let R be PID, M an R-module, $m \in M$ and $e \in R$ with $e \sim \exp_R(m)$. Then*

(a) [**a**] *$Rm \cong R/(\!|e|\!)$ as an R-module.*

(b) [**b**] *Let $r \in R$. Then $e \mid r$ if and only if $rm = 0$.*

(c) [**c**] *Suppose M is unitary, $m \neq 0$ and $e = p^l$ for some prime p and some $l \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $p \mid r$ for all $r \in \mathrm{Ann}_R(M)$.*

Proof. (a) By 3.1.24(b), $Rm \cong R/\mathrm{Ann}_R(m)$. Since $\mathrm{Ann}_R(m) = (\!|e|\!)$, (a) holds.

(b) Follows from $\mathrm{Ann}_R(m) = (\!|e|\!)$.

(c) Since M is unitary, $1m \neq 0$ and so $\mathrm{Ann}_R(m) \neq R$ and $l \geq 1$. Thus $p \mid e$ and(c) follows from (b). □

Theorem 3.3.5. [**bounded for pid**] *Let R be a PID and $p \in R$ a prime. Suppose that M is a unitary R-module with $p^k M = \{0_M\}$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Then M is a direct sum of non-zero cyclic submodules of M.*

Proof. The proof is by induction on k. If $k = 0$, then, since M is unitary, $M = \{0\}$ and the theorem holds.

So suppose $k > 0$. Since $p^{k-1}(pM) = p^k M = \{0_M\}$ we conclude by induction on k that there exist non-zero cyclic submodules $A_i, i \in I$ of pM with $M = \bigoplus_{i\in I} A_i$. Since A_i is cyclic $A_i = \langle a_i\rangle_R = Ra_i$ for some $a_i \in A_i$. Thus

1°. [**1**] $pM = \bigoplus_{i\in I} Ra_i$

Since A_i is non-zero, $a_i \neq 0$. Since $a_i \in pM$ there exists $b_i \in B$ with $a_i = pb_i$. Put

$$B = \langle b_i \mid i \in I\rangle_R = \sum_{i\in I} Rb_i.$$

We will show

2°. [**2**] $B = \bigoplus_{i\in I} Rb_i$

For this let $r \in R_I$ with

$$(*) \qquad \sum_{i\in I} r_i b_i = 0_M.$$

We need to show that $r_i b_i = 0_M$ for all $i \in I$. From (*) we have

$$\sum_{i\in I} r_i a_i = \sum_{i\in I} r_i p b_i = p \sum_{i\in I} r_i b_i = p0_M = 0_M.$$

Thus (1°) implies that $r_i a_i = 0_M$ for all $i \in I$. By 3.3.4(c), $p \mid r_i$ and so $r_i = t_i p$ for some $t_i \in R$. Then $r_i b_i = t_i p b_i = t_i a_i$ and

$$(**) \qquad r_i b_i = t_i a_i.$$

Substitution into (*) gives:

$$\sum_{i\in I} t_i a_i = 0_M.$$

Thus by (1°), $t_i a_i = 0_M$ and by (**) $r_i b_i = 0_M$. Hence (2°) holds.

3°. [**3**] $M = \mathrm{Ann}_M(p) + B$.

We have $pB = p\sum_{i\in I} Rb_i = \sum_{i\in I} Rpb_i = \sum_{i\in I} Ra_i = pM$. Define $\alpha : M \to pM, m \to pm$. Then α is R-linear and $\alpha(B) = pM$. Thus by 3.2.16(a) $M = \ker\alpha + B = \mathrm{Ann}_M(p) + B$.

4°. [**4**] *R/Rp is a field and $\mathrm{Ann}_M(p)$ is module for R/Rp.*

Since p is a prime, R/Rp is a field by 2.5.17. Since $Rp \le \mathrm{Ann}_R(\mathrm{Ann}_M(p))$, $\mathrm{Ann}_M(p)$ is an R/Rp module via $(r + Rp)m = rm$.

5°. [**5**] *There exists an R-submodule D of $\mathrm{Ann}_M(p)$ with $\mathrm{Ann}_M(p) = D \oplus \mathrm{Ann}_B(p)$ and $M = D \oplus B$.*

Since R/Rp is a field we conclude from 3.2.18 that $\mathrm{Ann}_M(p) = D \oplus \mathrm{Ann}_B(p)$ for some R/Rp submodule D of $\mathrm{Ann}_M(p)$. Then D is also an R-submodule of $\mathrm{Ann}_M(p)$. We have

$$M = \mathrm{Ann}_M(p) + B = D + \mathrm{Ann}_B(p) + B = D + B$$

and

$$D \cap B = D \cap \mathrm{Ann}_M(p) \cap B = D \cap \mathrm{Ann}_B(p) = \{0_M\}.$$

So $M = D \oplus B$.

We now can complete the proof of the theorem. By 3.2.15(b), the R/Rp-module D has a basis $(d_j)_{j\in J}$. Then

$$D = \bigoplus_{j\in J} R/pR \cdot d_j = \bigoplus_{j\in J} Rd_j.$$

Together with (2°) and (5°) we get

$$M = D \oplus B = \bigoplus_{j\in J} Rd_j \oplus \bigoplus_{i\in I} Rb_i$$

□

Theorem 3.3.6. [**torfree**] *Let M be a finitely generated module for the PID R. Then there exists a free submodule $F \le M$ with $M = F \oplus \mathrm{T}(M)$.*

Proof. By 3.2.12, $M/\mathrm{T}(M)$ is torsion free, so by 3.2.19 $M/\mathrm{T}(M)$ is isomorphic to a submodule of a free module. Hence by 3.2.5 $M/\mathrm{T}(M)$ is free. Thus by 3.2.17 $M = F \oplus \mathrm{T}(M)$ for a free R-submodule F of M. □

Definition 3.3.7. [**q-elements**] *Let R be a PID, P a set of representatives for the associate classes of primes in R and $Q \subseteq P$.*

(a) [**a**] *Let $0 \neq r \in R$. Then r is called a Q-elements if $r \sim \prod_{q\in Q} q^{n_q}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}_Q$. (Here we interpret the empty product as 1, so a $\varnothing$-element is a unit.)*

(b) [**b**] *Let M be an R-module. Then $m \in M$ is called an Q-element if $\exp_R(m)$ is a Q-elements. M_Q is the set of Q-elements in M.*

Theorem 3.3.8. [**decprim**] *Let R be a PID, M a unitary torsion R module R, P a set of representatives for the associated classes of primes in R and $Q, T \subseteq P$. Put $Q' = P \setminus Q$. Then*

(a) [**a**] *Let $m \in M$. Then m is a Q-elements if and only if $rm = 0$ for some Q-elements $r \in R$.*

(b) [**b**] *M_Q is an R-submodule of M.*

(c) [**c**] *M/M_Q has no-nonzero Q-elements and all elements of M/M_Q are Q'-elements.*

(d) [**d**] *$M_Q \cap M_R = M_{Q\cap R}$.*

(e) [**e**] *$M_\varnothing = 0$ and so $M_Q \cap M_{Q'} = 0$.*

(f) [**f**] *$M_Q = \bigoplus_{q\in Q} M_q$.*

(g) [**g**] *$M = \bigoplus_{p\in P} M_p$.*

Proof. (a) This holds since $\exp_R(m)|r$ for all $r \in R$ with $rm = 0$.

(b) Let x, y be Q-elements. Then $\exp_R(\langle x, y\rangle_R) = \operatorname{lcm}\big(\exp_R(x), \exp_R(y)\big)$ is a Q-element in R. Hence (a) shows that all elements in $\langle x, y\rangle_R$ are Q-elements. Hence $\langle x, y\rangle_R \subseteq M_Q$ and M_Q is an R-submodule of M.

(c) Let $m + M_Q$ be a Q-elements. Then $em \in M_Q$ for some Q-elements $e \in R$. So em is a Q-element and $f(em) = 0$ for some Q-elements f in R. Then fe is a Q-element in R and $(fe)m = 0$. So $m \in M_Q$ and $m + M_Q = 0_{M/M_Q}$.

Now let w be any elements of M/M_Q and $d \sim \exp_R(w)$. Then $d \sim ef$ for some Q-element e and Q'-element f. Then $e(fw) = 0$, fw is a Q-element and $fw = 0$ and w is a Q'-element.

(d) By the uniqueness of prime factorization $r \in R$ is a $Q \cap T$ element if and only if r is a Q and a T-elements. So (d) holds.

(e) If m is $\varnothing$-element in M, then $um = 0$ for some unit u. Then also $1m = u^{-1}um = 0$ and since M is unitary, $m = 0$.

(f) Let $W = \sum_{q\in Q} M_Q$. Let $q \in Q$. By (c) all elements in M/M_q are q'-elements. Thus also all elements in M/W are q' elements and so Q'-elements. Thus all elements of M_Q/W are Q and Q'-elements. Hence (e) applied to M/W shows that $M_Q/W = 0$ and so $W = M_Q$. Thus $M_Q = \sum_{q\in Q} M_Q$. Now

$$M_q \cap \sum_{\substack{t\in Q\\ t\neq q}} M_t \subseteq M_q \cap M_{q'} = 0$$

and so $M_Q = \sum_{q\in Q} M_q$.

(g) Since M is a torsion-module, $M = M_P$. So (g) follows from (f) applied with $P = Q$. □

Lemma 3.3.9. [**direct sum and fg**] *Let R be a ring, and $(M_i)_{i\in I}$ a family of non-zero R-modules. If $\bigoplus_{i\in I} M_i$ is finitely generated, then I is finite.*

Proof. Let A be a finite subset of $M := \bigoplus_{i\in I} M_i$ with $M = \langle A\rangle_R$. By definition of "direct sum" each m is a tuple $(m_i)_{i\in I}$ with almost all m_i zero. So for $a \in A$ we can choose a finite subset J_a of I with $a_k = 0$ for all $k \in I \setminus J_a$. Put $J = \bigcup_{a\in A} J_a$. Then J is finite. We will show that $J = I$. For this let $i \in I$ and put $W = \{m \in M \mid m_i = 0\}$. Then W is a R-submodule of M and since $M_i \neq 0$, $W \neq M$. Since $M = \langle A\rangle_R$ we get $A \nsubseteq W$ and so $a_i \neq 0$ for some $a \in A$. Thus $i \in J_a \subseteq J$, $I = J$ and I is finite. □

Theorem 3.3.10. [**pidmod**] *Let M be a finitely generated module for the PID R. Then M is direct sum of finitely many cyclic R-modules. Moreover, each of the summand can be chosen be isomorphic to R or R/p^kR for some prime ideal $p \in R$ and some $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. In other words,*

$$M \cong \underbrace{R \oplus R \oplus \ldots \oplus R}_{k\text{-times}} \oplus R/p_1^{k_1}R \oplus R/p_2^{k_2}R \oplus \ldots \oplus R/p_n^{k_n}R$$

for some $k, n \in \mathbb{N}$, $k_1, k_2 \ldots, k_n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and primes $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n \in R$.

Proof. By 3.3.6, $M = F \oplus T(M)$, where F is a free R-module. So F is a direct sum of copies of R. Also by 3.3.8 $T(M) = \bigoplus_{p\in P} M_p$, where P is set of representatives for the associate classes of primes in R. Let $p \in P$. Since M is finitely generated and M_P is a homomorphic image of M, M_p is finite generated. Thus $M_p = \langle I\rangle_R$ for some finite subset I of M_P. For $i \in I$ pick $l_i \in \mathbb{N}$ with $p^{l_i} i = \{0_M\}$ and put $l = \max_{i\in I} l_i$. Then $p^l M_p = \{0_M\}$. Thus by 3.3.5 M_p is the direct sum of non-zero cyclic submodules. By 3.3.4 each of these cyclic submodules is isomorphic to R/p^kR for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

It follows that M is a direct sum modules of the form R or R/p^kR, $p \in P$, $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Since M is finitely generated, 3.3.9 this direct sum is a finite direct sum. □

Corollary 3.3.11. [**fg abelian**]

(a) [**a**] *Let A be a finitely generated abelian group. Then A is the direct sum of cyclic groups.*

(b) [**b**] *Let A be an* elementary abelian *p-group for some prime p. (That is A is abelian and $pA = 0$). Then A is the direct sum of copies of $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.*

Proof. Note that an abelian group is nothing else as a module over $\mathbb{Z}$. So (a) follows from 3.3.10 and (b) follows from 3.3.5 and 3.3.4

(b) can also by proved by observing that A is also a module over the field $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ and so has a basis. □

Appendix A

Set Theory

A.1 Relations and Function

Definition A.1.1. [**def:ordered pair**] *Let x and y be objects. Then $(x,y) = \{\{x\},\{x,y\}\}$. (x,y) is called the ordered pair of x and y.*

Lemma A.1.2. [**ordered pairs**] *Let a,b,c,d be objects. Then $(a,b) = (c,d)$ if and only of $a = c$ and $b = d$.*

Proof. We first show

1°. [**1**] *Let $\tilde{a},\tilde{b},\tilde{c}$ and $\tilde{d}$ be objects with $\tilde{a} = \tilde{c}$ and $\{\tilde{a},\tilde{b}\} = \{\tilde{c},\tilde{d}\}$. Then $\tilde{b} = \tilde{d}$.*

Since $\tilde{b} \in \{\tilde{a},\tilde{b}\}$ and $\{\tilde{a},\tilde{b}\} = \{\tilde{c},\tilde{d}\}$, we have $\tilde{b} \in \{\tilde{c},\tilde{d}\}$. So $\tilde{b} = \tilde{c}$ or $\tilde{b} = \tilde{d}$. In the second case (1°) holds. Thus we may assume $\tilde{b} = \tilde{c}$. Since $\tilde{a} = \tilde{c}$ this gives $\tilde{b} = \tilde{a}$. Since $\tilde{d} \in \{\tilde{c},\tilde{d}\}$ and $\{\tilde{c},\tilde{d}\} = \{\tilde{a},\tilde{b}\}$, $\tilde{d} \in \{\tilde{a},\tilde{b}\}$ and so $\tilde{d} = \tilde{a}$ or $\tilde{d} = \tilde{b}$. Since $\tilde{b} = \tilde{a}$ either case gives $\tilde{d} = \tilde{b}$ and so also $\tilde{b} = \tilde{d}$. Thus (1°) is proved.

Suppose now that that $(a,b) = (c,d)$. By the definition of an ordered pair, $(a,b) = \{\{a\},\{a,b\}\}$ and $(c,d) = \{\{c\},\{c,d\}\}$. Thus

$$(*) \qquad \{\{a\},\{a,b\}\} = \{\{c\},\{c,d\}\}.$$

Since $\{a\} \in \{\{a\},\{a,b\}\}$, (*) implies $\{a\} \in \{\{c\},\{c,d\}$ and so $\{a\} = \{c\}$ or $\{a\} = \{c,d\}$. Since $c \in \{c\}$ and $c \in \{c,d\}$ either case gives $c \in \{a\}$. Thus

$$(**) \qquad c = a.$$

Hence also $\{a\} = \{c\}$ and so (*) shows that the assumptions of (1°) are fulfilled for $\tilde{a} = \{a\}$, $\tilde{b} = \{a,b\}$, $\tilde{c} = \{c\}$ and $\tilde{d} = \{c,d\}$. Thus (1°) implies $\{a,b\} = \{c,d\}$. Since $a = c$, another application of (1°) gives $b = d$. □

Definition A.1.3. [**def:relation**]

(a) [**a**] *A relation R is a class all of whose members are ordered pairs.*

(b) [**b**] *Let R be a class. Then*

$$\mathrm{Dom}(R) = \{x \mid (x,y) \in R \text{ for some } y\}$$

$\mathrm{Dom}(F)$ *is called the domain of F.*

$$\mathrm{Im}(R) = \{y \mid (x,y) \in R \text{ for some } x\}$$

$\mathrm{Im}\, R$ *is called the image of R.*

(c) [**c**] *Let R be a relation and x, y objects. Then we say that x is in R-relation to y and write xRy if $(x,y) \in R$.*

(d) [**d**] *A function is a relation F such that for all x, y, z, $(x,y) \in F$ and $(x,z) \in F$ implies $y = z$.*

(e) [**e**] *Let F be a function and $x \in \mathrm{Dom}(F)$. Then Fx denotes the unique object such that $(x, Fx) \in F$. We will also use the notations $F(x)$ and F_x for Fx.*

(f) [**f**] *Let A and B be classes. We says that F is a function from A to B and write $F : A \to B$, if F is a function, $A = \mathrm{Dom}(F)$ and $\mathrm{Im}(F) \subseteq B$.*

Example A.1.4. [**inclusion**]

(a) [**a**] *Let A be any class. Then $\mathrm{id}_A = \{(a,a) \mid a \in A\}$ is a function from A to A, called the identity function on A.*

(b) [**b**] *Let A and B be classes with $A \subseteq B$. Then id_A is a function from A to B.*

A.2 Zorn's Lemma

This chapter is devoted to prove Zorn's lemma: Let M be a nonempty partially ordered set in which every chain has an upper bound. Then M has a maximal element.

To be able to do this we assume throughout this lecture notes that the *axiom of choice* holds:

Hypothesis A.2.1 (Axiom of choice)**.** [**axiom of choice**] *Let I be a non-empty set and $(A_i)_{i \in I}$ a family of non-empty sets. Then*

$$\bigtimes_{i \in I} A_i \neq \varnothing$$

Note that this means that there exists a function f with domain I and $f(i) \in A_i$ for all $i \in I$. Naively this just means that we can pick an element from each of the sets A_i.

Definition A.2.2. [**def:poset**] *A* partially ordered set *is a set M together with a reflexive, anti-symmetric and transitive relation "$\leq$". That is for all $a, b, c \in M$*

(a) [**a**] $a \leq a$ *(*reflexive*)*

(b) [**b**] $a \leq b$ *and* $b \leq a \Longrightarrow a = a$ *(*anti-symmetric*)*

(c) [**c**] $a \leq b$ *and* $b \leq c \Longrightarrow a \leq c$ *(*transitive*)*

Definition A.2.3. [**def:bounds**] *Let $(M, \leq)$ be a partially ordered set, $a, b \in M$ and $C \subseteq M$.*

(a) [**a**] *a are called* comparable *if $a \leq b$ or $b \leq a$.*

(b) [**b**] $(M, \leq)$ *is called* totally ordered *if any two elements are comparable.*

(c) [**c**] *C is called a* chain *if any two elements in C are comparable.*

(d) [**d**] *An* upper bound *m for C is an element m in M such that that $c \leq m$ for all $c \in C$.*

(e) [**f**] *An element $m \in M$ is called a* smallest element *(or a least element) of C if $m \in C$ and $m \leq c$ for all $c \in C$.*

(f) [**g**] *An element $m \in C$ is called a* largest element *(or a greatest) elements of C if $m \in C$ and $c \leq m$ for all $c \in C$.*

(g) [**f**] *An element $m \in C$ is called a* maximal element *of C if $c = m$ for all $c \in C$ with $m \leq c$.*

(h) [**g**] *An element $m \in C$ is called a* minimal element *of C if $c = m$ for all $c \in C$ with $c \leq m$.*

(i) [**h**] *A function $f : M \to M$ is called increasing if $a \leq f(a)$ for all $a \in M$.*

Lemma A.2.4. [**unique upper bound**] *Let M be partially ordered set and $A \subseteq M$. Then A has at most one least element.*

Proof. Let a and b be least elements of A. Since $a \in A$ and b a least element of A, $b \leq a$. By symmetry $b \leq a$. Since $\leq$ is anti-symmetric, $a = b$. □

As the main step toward our proof of Zorn's lemma we show:

Lemma A.2.5. [**fixedpoint**] *Let M be a non-empty partially ordered set in which every non-empty chain has a least upper bound. Let $f : M \to M$ be an increasing function. Then $f(m_0) = m_0$ for some $m_0 \in M$.*

Proof. Since $M \neq \varnothing$ we can choose $a \in M$. Let $B := \{m \in M \mid a \leq m\}$. If $b \in B$, then $a \leq b$ and $b \leq f(b)$. So $a \leq f(b)$ and $f(b) \in B$. Note also that the least upper bound of any non-empty chain in B is contained in B. So replacing M by B we may assume that

1°. [**-1**] $a \leq m$ *for all* $m \in M$.

Define a subset A of M to be closed if:

(Cl i) [**a**] $a \in A$

(Cl ii) [**b**] $f(b) \in A$ for all $b \in A$.

(Cl iii) [**c**] If C is a non-empty chain in A then its least upper bound is in A.

Since M is closed, there exists at least one closed subset of M.

2°. [**0**] *Let D be chain in M and suppose D is closed. Then D has a least upper bound d in M and $f(d) = d$.*

By (i), D is not empty and so D has a least upper bound d. By (iii), $d \in D$ and by (ii), $f(d) \in D$. Since d is a upper bound for D, $f(d) \leq d$ and since f is increasing, $d \leq f(d)$. Since $\leq$ is antisymmetric $f(d) = d$.

In view of(2°) we just have to find a closed chain in M. For this let A be the intersection of all the closed subsets of M and observe that A itself is closed.

$e \in A$ is called extreme if

(Ex) $$f(b) \leq e \text{ for all } b \in A \text{ with } b < e$$

Note that a is extreme, so the set E of extreme elements in A is not empty.

3°. [**1**] *Let e be extreme and $b \in A$. Then $b \leq e$ or $f(e) \leq b$. In particular, e and b are comparable.*

To prove (3°) put

$$A_e = \{b \in A \mid b \leq e \text{ or } f(e) \leq b\}$$

We need to show that $A_e = A$. Since A is the unique minimal closed set this amounts to proving that A_e is closed.

Clearly $a \in A_e$. Let $b \in A_e$. If $b < e$, then as e is extreme, $f(b) \leq e$ and so $f(b) \in A_e$. If $b = e$, then $f(e) = f(b) \leq f(b)$ and again $f(b) \in A_e$. If $f(e) \leq b$, then $f(e) \leq b \leq f(b)$ and $f(e) \leq f(b)$ by transitivity. So in all cases $f(b) \in A_e$.

Let D be a non-empty chain in A_e and m its least upper bound. If $d \leq e$ for all d in D, then e is an upper bound for D and so $m \leq e$ and $m \in A_e$. So suppose that $d \not\leq e$ for some $d \in D$. As $d \in A_e$, $f(e) \leq d \leq m$ and again $m \in A_e$.

We proved that A_e is closed. Thus $A_e = A$ and (3°) holds.

4°. [**2**] *E is closed*

As already mentioned, $a \in E$. Let $e \in E$. To show that $f(e)$ is extreme let $b \in A$ with $b < f(e)$. By (3°) $b \leq e$ or $f(e) \leq b$. In the latter case is $b < b$, a contradiction. If $b < e$, then since e is extreme, $f(b) \leq e \leq f(e)$. If $e = b$, then $f(b) = f(e) \leq f(e)$. So $f(e)$ is extreme.

Let D be a non-empty chain in E and m its least upper bound. We need to show that m is extreme. Let $b \in A$ with $b < m$. As m is a least upper bound of D, b is not an upper bound and there exists $e \in D$ with $e \not\leq b$. By (3°), e and b are comparable and so $b < e$. As e is extreme, $f(b) \leq e \leq m$ and so m is extreme. Thus E is closed.

As E is closed and $E \subseteq A$, $A = E$. Hence by (4°) , any two elements in A are comparable. So A is a closed chain and by (2°), the lemma holds. □

As an immediate consequence we get:

Corollary A.2.6. [**weakzorn**] *Let M be a non-empty partially ordered set in which every non-empty chain has a least upper bound. Then M has a maximal element.*

Proof. Suppose not. For $m \in M$ let $U_m = \{u \in M \mid m < u\}$. Then U_m is not empty and so by the Axiom of choice there exists

$$f \in \bigtimes_{m \in M} U_m$$

Then f is a function from M to M and $m < f(m)$ for all $m \in M$. But this contradicts A.2.5. □

Lemma A.2.7. [**maxchain**] *Let M be any partial ordered set. Order the set of chains in M by inclusion. Then M has a maximal chain.*

Proof. Let $\mathcal{M}$ be the set of chains in M. The union of a chain in $\mathcal{M}$ is clearly a chain in M and is a least upper bound for the chain. Thus by A.2.6 $\mathcal{M}$ has a maximal element. □

Theorem A.2.8 (Zorn's Lemma)**.** [**Zorn**] *Let M be a nonempty partially ordered set in which every chain has an upper bound. Then M has a maximal element.*

Proof. By A.2.7 there exists a maximal chain C in M. By assumption C has an upper bound m. Let $l \in M$ with $m \leq l$. Then $C \cup \{m, l\}$ is a chain in M and the maximality of C implies $l \in C$. Thus $l \leq m$, $m = l$ and m is maximal element. □

As an application of Zorn's lemma we prove the Well-Ordering Principal.

Definition A.2.9. [**def:wellordered**]

(a) [**a**] *A totally ordered set M is called* well-ordered *if every non-empty subset of M has a minimal element.*

(b) [**b**] *We say that a set T can be* well-ordered *if there exists a relation $\leq$ on T such that $(T, \leq)$ is a well ordered set.*

Example A.2.10. [**ex:well-ordered**] Let J be a non-empty well-ordered set and let $(I_j)_{j \in J}$ a family of non-empty well -ordered sets. Let m_j be the minimal element of I_j. For $a, b \in \bigtimes_{j \in J} I_j$ define

$$\mathrm{Supp}(a) = \{j \in J \mid a_j \neq m_j\} \quad J(a,b) = \{j \in J \mid a_j \neq b_j\}.$$

Put

$$K = \Big\{a \in \bigtimes_{j \in J} I_j \;\Big|\; |\mathrm{Supp}(a)| \text{ is finite}\Big\}.$$

Note that $J(a,b) \subseteq \mathrm{Supp}(a) \cup \mathrm{Supp}(b)$ and so $J(a,b)$ is finite for all $a \neq b \in K$ and we can define $j(a,b) \in J = \max J(a,b)$. Define an ordering on K by

$$a < b \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \qquad a \neq b \text{ and } a_j < b_j \text{ where } j = j(a,b)$$

We claim that this is a well ordering on K.

Suppose $a < b$ and $b < c$ and let $j = j(a,b)$ and $k = j(b,c)$. If $j \leq k$, then $a_l = b_l = c_l$ for all $l > k$ and $a_k \leq b_k < c_k$ so $a < c$. And if $j > k$, then $a_l = b_l = c_l$ for all $l > j$ and $a_j < b_j = c_j$ and again $a < c$. So K is totally ordered.

Let A be a non-empty subset of K. Suppose A has no minimal element. Note that if $b, a \in A$ with $b < a$ and $j = j(a,b)$, then $b_j < a_j$. So $a_j \neq m_j$ and $j(a,b) \in \mathrm{Supp}(a)$. Thus we can define

$$j(a) = \max_{\substack{b \in A \\ b<a}} j(a,b) \qquad \text{and} \qquad j = \min_{a \in A} j(a)$$

Under all $a \in A$ with $j(a) = j$ pick one with a_j minimal Let $b < a$. Then $j(a,b) \leq j(a)$ and so $a_k = b_k$ for all $k > j = j(a)$. Let $c < b$. Then $c < a$ and so also $a_k = c_k$ and an thus $j(b,c) \leq j$. Thus $j(b) \leq j$ and by minimality of j, $j(b) = j$. The minimality of a_j implies $b_j = a_j$. Since also $c < a$, we get $c_j = b_j$ and so $j(c,b) < j$. Thus implies $j(b) < j$, a contradiction.

Theorem A.2.11 (Well-ordering principal)**.** [**wellorder**] *Every set M can be well ordered.*

Proof. Let W be the set of well orderings $\alpha = (M_\alpha, \leq_\alpha)$ with $M_\alpha \subseteq M$. As the empty set can be well ordered, W is not empty. For $\alpha, \beta \in W$ define $\alpha \leq \beta$ if

< 1 [**1**] $M_\alpha \subseteq M_\beta$

< 2 [**2**] $\leq_\beta|_{M_\alpha} = \leq_\alpha$.

< 3 [**3**] $a \leq_\beta b$ for all $a \in M_\alpha, b \in M_\beta \setminus M_\alpha$

It is easy to see that $\leq$ is a partial ordering on W. We would like to apply Zorn's lemma to obtain a member in W. For this let $\mathcal{A}$ be a chain in W. Put $M_* = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}} M_\alpha$ and for $a, b \in M_*$ define $a \leq_* b$ if there exists $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}$ with $a, b \in M_\alpha$ and $a \leq_\alpha b$. Again it is readily verified that $\leq_*$ is a well-defined partial ordering on M_*. To show that $\leq_*$ is a well-ordering, let I be any non-empty subset of M^* and pick $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}$ so that $I \cap M_\alpha \neq \emptyset$. Let m be the least element of $I \cap M_\alpha$ with respect to $\leq_\alpha$. We claim that m is also the least element of I with respect to $\leq_*$. Indeed let $i \in I$. If $i \in M_\alpha$, then $m \leq_\alpha i$ by choice of m. So also $m \leq_* i$. If $i \notin M_\alpha$, pick $\beta \in \mathcal{A}$ with $i \in M_\beta$. As $\mathcal{A}$ is a chain, α and β are comparable. As $i \in M_\beta \setminus M_\alpha$ we get $\alpha < \beta$ and (< 3) implies $m \leq_\beta i$. Again $m \leq_* i$ and we conclude that $(M_*, \leq_*)$ is a well-ordered set and so an element of W. Observe that $(M_*, \leq_*)$ is an upper bound for $\mathcal{A}$ in W.

So by Zorn's Lemma there exists a maximal element $\alpha \in W$. Suppose that $M_\alpha \neq M$ and pick $m \in M \setminus M_\alpha$. Define the partially ordered set $(M_*, \leq_*)$ by $M_* = M_\alpha \cup \{m\}$, $\leq_*|_{M_\alpha \times M_\alpha} = \leq_\alpha$ and $i <_* m$ for all $i \in M_\alpha$. Then $(M_*, \leq_*)$ is contained in W and $\alpha < (M_*, \leq_*)$, a contradiction to the maximality of α.

Thus $M_\alpha = M$ and $\leq_\alpha$ is a well-ordering on M. □

Remark A.2.12 (Induction)**.** [**induction**] *The well ordering principal allows to prove statement about the elements in an arbitrary set by induction.*

This works as follows. Suppose we like to show that a statement $P(m)$ is true for all elements m in a set M. Endow M with a well ordering $\leq$ and suppose that we can show

$$P(a) \text{ is true for all } a < m \quad \Longrightarrow \quad P(m) \text{ is true}$$

then the statement is to true for all $m \in M$.

Indeed suppose not and put $I = \{ i \in M \mid P(i) \text{ is false } \}$. Then I has a least element m. Put then $P(a)$ is true for all $a < i$ and so $P(i)$ is true by the induction conclusion.

A.3 Ordinals

Definition A.3.1. [**def ineq**] *Let a, b be sets. Then $a \subseteq b$ means $a \in b$ or $a = b$.*

Definition A.3.2. [**def:ordinal**] *An ordinal is a set S such that*

(i) [**i**] *Each element of S is a subset of S.*

(ii) [**ii**] *$\subseteq$ is a well-ordering on S.*

Example A.3.3. [**ex:ordinals**] *The following sets are ordinals:*

$$\varnothing, \{\varnothing\}, \{\varnothing, \{\varnothing\}\}, \{\varnothing, \{\varnothing\}, \{\varnothing, \{\varnothing\}\}\}, \ldots$$

If we denote $\varnothing$ by 0, $\{\varnothing\}$ by 1, $\{\varnothing, \{\varnothing\}\}$ by 2 and so on, then

$$n + 1 = n \cup \{n\} = \{0, 1, 2, \ldots, n\}.$$

Lemma A.3.4. [**basic ordinal**] *Let α, β and γ be a ordinal.*

(a) [**a**] *Define $\alpha + 1 = \alpha \cup \{\alpha\}$. Then $\alpha + 1$ is an ordinal.*

(b) [**b**] *Every element of ordinal is an ordinal.*

(c) [**c**] *Exactly one of $\beta \in \alpha, \alpha = \beta$ and $\beta \in \alpha$ holds.*

(d) [**d**] *If $\alpha \in \beta$ and $\beta \in \gamma$. Then $\alpha \in \gamma$.*

(e) [**e**] *$\alpha \in \beta$ if and only if $\alpha \subsetneq \beta$ and if and only if $\alpha + 1 \subseteq \beta$.*

(f) [**h**] *$\alpha \subseteq b$ if and only if $\alpha \subseteq \beta$ and if and only if $\alpha \in \beta + 1$.*

(g) [**f**] *Let A be a non-empty set of ordinals, then $\bigcap A$ is an ordinal. Moreover, $\bigcap A \in A$ and so $\bigcap A$ is the minimal element of A.*

(h) [**g**] *Let A be a set of ordinals. Then $\bigcup A$ is an ordinal.*

Proof. (a) Let $x \in \alpha + 1$. Then $x \in \alpha$ or $x = \alpha$. If $x \subseteq \alpha$ and so also $x \subseteq \alpha + 1$. Then $x = \alpha$, then again $x \subseteq \alpha$. So every element of $\alpha + 1$ is a subset of α. Now let y by any non-empty subset of $\alpha + 1$. If $y = \{\alpha\}$, then α is a minimal element of y. If $y \neq \{\alpha\}$, then $y \setminus \{\alpha\}$ is a subset of α and so has minimal element m with respect to $\in$. Then $m \in \alpha$ and so m is also a minimal element of y. Since $z \in \alpha$ for all $z \in \alpha + 1$ with $z \neq \alpha$ it is readily verified that '$\in$' is a total ordering on $\alpha + 1$.

(b) Let $\beta \in \alpha$ and $\gamma \in \beta$. Since β is subset of α, γ is an element and so also a subset of α. If $\delta \in \gamma$, we conclude that $\delta \in \alpha$. Since $\delta \in \gamma$ and $\gamma \in \beta$ and '$\in$' is a transitive relation on α have that $\delta \in \beta$. Thus γ is a subset of β. Since '$\in$' is a well-ordering on α and β is a subset of α, '$\in$' is also a well-ordering on α.

(c) Let $\gamma \in \alpha$. By induction (on the elements of $\alpha + 1$) we may assume that $\gamma \in \beta$, $\gamma = \beta$ or $\beta \in \gamma$. If $\gamma = \beta$, then $\beta \in \alpha$. If $\beta \in \gamma$ then $\beta \in \alpha$, since γ is a subset of α. So we may assume that $\gamma \in \beta$ for all $\gamma \in \alpha$. Thus $\alpha \subseteq \beta$. We also may assume that $\alpha \neq \beta$ and so there exist δ minimal in β with $\delta \notin \alpha$. Let $\eta \in \delta$. Then $\eta \in \beta$ and so $\eta \in \alpha$ by minimality of δ. Thus $\delta \subseteq \alpha$. Since $\delta \notin \alpha$ and γ is both and element of α and a subset of α, $\delta \neq \gamma$ and $\delta \notin \gamma$. As both δ and γ are in β and '$\in$' is an ordering on β we conclude that $\gamma \in \delta$. Thus $\alpha \subseteq \delta$ and so $\alpha = \delta \in \beta$.

(d) This follows since β is a subset of γ

(e) and (f): If $\alpha \in \beta$, then since β is an ordinal. $\alpha \subseteq \beta$. Also no set is an element of itself and so $\alpha \neq \beta$ and

Suppose now that $\alpha \subsetneq \beta$. Then $\alpha \neq \beta$. Note also that $\beta \notin \beta$ and so $\beta \notin \alpha$. Thus (c) implies $\alpha \in \beta$ and so $\alpha + 1 = \alpha \cup \{\alpha\} \subseteq \beta$.

Thus

$$\alpha \in \beta \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \qquad \alpha \subsetneq \beta$$

and so also

$$\alpha \subseteq \beta \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \qquad \alpha \subseteq \beta$$

Thus

$$\alpha + 1 \subseteq \beta \iff \alpha + 1 \subseteq \beta \iff \alpha \subseteq \beta \text{ and } \alpha \in \beta \iff \alpha \subseteq \beta \text{ and } \alpha \subsetneq \beta \iff \alpha \subsetneq \beta$$

and

$$\alpha \in \beta + 1 \iff \alpha \in \beta \text{ or } \alpha = \beta \iff \alpha \subseteq \beta$$

So (e) and (f) are proved.

(g) Any subset of a well-ordered set is well-ordered. So $\bigcap A$ is well-ordered with respect to '$\in$. Let $x \in \bigcap A$. Then $x \in a$ for all $a \in A$ and so $x \subseteq a$ for all $a \in A$. Hence $x \subseteq \bigcup A$. Thus $\bigcup A$ is an ordinal. If $\bigcap A \neq a$ for all $a \in A$, then $\bigcap A \subsetneq a$ and by (e), $\bigcap A \in a$ for all $a \in A$. Hence $\bigcap A \in \bigcap A$, a contradiction to (e).

(h) Let $x_1, x_2, x_3 \in \bigcup A$. Then $x_i \in a_i$ for some $a_i \in A$. Then $x_i \subseteq a_i$ and so $x_i \subseteq A$. By (c) and (d) there exists $a \in \{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$ with $a_i \leq a$ for all a. Thus $x_1, x_2, x_3 \in a$. Since '$\in$' is an ordering on a we conclude that '$\in$' is also an ordering on $\bigcup A$. Let d be a non-empty subset of $\bigcup A$ and define $B = \{a \in A \mid d \cap a \neq \emptyset\}t$. By (g), B has a minimal element b. Then $b \cap d$ has a minimal element m and m is also a minimal element of d. Thus '$\in$' is a well-ordering on $\bigcup A$. □

Definition A.3.5. [**def: cardinality**]

(a) [**a**] *Let A be a set. $|A|$ is the smallest ordinal such that there exist a bijection from A to $|A|$. $|A|$ is called the cardinality of A.*

(b) [**b**] *A cardinal is the cardinality of some set.*

(c) [**c**] *$\aleph_0$ is the smallest ordinal such that $\alpha + 1 \in \aleph_0$ for all $\alpha \in \aleph_0$.*

(d) [**d**] *An ordinal α is called finite of $\alpha \in \aleph_0$.*

(e) [**e**] *A set A is called finite if $|A|$ is finite, otherwise its called infinite. A is called countable infinite if $|A| = \aleph_0$. A is called countable if its finite or countable infinite. A is called uncountable if is not countable, that is $\aleph_0 \in |A|$.*

(f) [**f**] *ω_1 is the smallest uncountable cardinal, that is ω_1 is the smallest cardinal with $\aleph_0 \in \omega_1$.*

Lemma A.3.6. [**countable upperbound**]

(a) [**a**] *ω_1 has non maximal element.*

(b) [**b**] *Any countable subset of ω_1 has an upper bound in ω_1.*

Proof. Note first that by minimal choice of ω_1, all elements of ω_1 are countable.

(a) Let $\alpha \in \omega_1$. Since α is countable, also $\alpha + 1$ is countable. So $\alpha + 1 \neq \omega_1$. Note that $\omega_1 \notin \alpha + 1$ and so by A.3.4(c) , $\alpha + 1 \in \omega_1$. So α is not maximal in ω_1 and so ω_1 has no maximal elements.

(b) Let A be a countable subset of ω_1 and put $\alpha = \bigcup A$. By A.3.4 α is an ordinal. Also all elements of ω_1 are subsets of ω_1 and so α is a subset of ω_1. Since countable unions of countable sets are countable, α is countable. The minimal choice of ω_1 shows that $\alpha \in \omega_1$ Let $b \in A$. Then $\beta \subseteq \alpha$ and so by A.3.4(f) $\beta \leqq \alpha$. Thus α is an upper bound for A. □

Definition A.3.7. [**def:defining function**] *Let G be a function and α an ordinal.*

(a) [**a**] *Let $f \in \mathrm{Fun}(\alpha)$. Then f is called G-defined if for all $\beta \in \alpha$, $f|_\beta \in \mathrm{Dom}(G)$ and $f(\beta) = G(f|_\beta)$.*

(b) [**b**] *G is called an α-defining function if $f \in \mathrm{Dom}(G)$ for all $\beta \in \alpha$ and all G-defined $f \in \mathrm{Fun}(\beta)$.*

Lemma A.3.8. [**g defined**] *Let α be an ordinal and G an α-defining function. Then there exists a unique G-defined function $f \in \mathrm{Fun}(\alpha)$.*

Proof. Put

$$I = \{\gamma \leqq \alpha \mid \text{ there exists a unique } G\text{-defined } g_\gamma \in \mathrm{Fun}(\gamma)\}$$

Let $\beta \leqq \alpha$ with $\beta \subseteq I$. We will show that $\beta \in I$. Define $f \in \mathrm{Fun}(\beta)$ by $f(\gamma) = G(g_\gamma)$ for all $\gamma \in \beta$. Note here that $\gamma \in I$. Also $g_\gamma \in \mathrm{Dom}(G)$ since g_γ is G-defined and G is an α-defining function.

1°. [**2**] *Suppose $\gamma \leqq \beta$ and $h \in F(\gamma)$ is G-defined. Then $h = f|_\gamma$.*

Let $\delta \in \gamma$. Then $h|_\delta$ is G-defined and since $\delta \in \beta \subseteq I$, $h|_\delta = g_\delta$. Since h is G-defined

$$h(\delta) = G(h|_\delta) = G(g_\delta) = f(\delta).$$

2°. [3] *f is G-defined.*

Let $\gamma \in \beta$. Then g_γ is G-defined and (1°) implies $f|_\gamma = g_\gamma$ and so

$$f|_\gamma \in \mathrm{Dom}(G) \qquad \text{and} \qquad f(\gamma) = G(g_\gamma) = G(f|_\gamma)$$

Thus f is G-defined.

Conversely let $h \in \mathrm{Fun}(\beta)$ be G-defined. Then by (1°) $h = f$. So f is the unique G-defined function on β .

We proved that $\beta \in I$ for all $\beta \leqq \alpha$ with $\beta \subseteq I$. Thus $\alpha \in I$ and the theorem is proved. □

Corollary A.3.9. [**no infinite ascending chain**] *Let $(M, \leq)$ be a non-empty partially ordered set and suppose there does not exist a strictly increasing function $h : \aleph_0 \to M$. Then M has a maximal element.*

Proof. Suppose not. Then for each $m \in M$, $M_m = \{n \in M \mid m < n\}$ is not empty. By the axiom of choice there exists $g \in \times_{m \in M} M_m$. So $g : M \to M$ is a strictly increasing function. Pick $m_0 \in M$. Let $D = \bigcup_{n \in \alpha_0} \mathrm{Fun}(n, M)$. Let $n \in \alpha_0$ and $f \in \mathrm{Fun}(n, M)$. If $n \neq 0$ define $G(f) = g(f(n-1))$ and if $n = 0$, define $G(f) = m_0$. So G is a function from D to M. If $n \in \alpha_0$ and $f \in \mathrm{Fun}(n)$ is G-defined then $f \in \mathrm{Fun}(n, M)$ and so $f \in \mathrm{Dom}(G)$. So by A.3.8 there exists a unique G-defined $h \in \mathrm{Fun}(\alpha_0)$. Then for all $n \in \alpha_0$, $h(n+1) = G(h|_{n+1}) = g(h(n)) > h(n)$ and so h is strictly increasing, a contradiction to the assumption. □

A.4 Cantor-Bernstein

Lemma A.4.1. [**cantor-bernstein**] *Let A and B be sets and suppose there exists 1-1 function $f : A \to B$ and $g : B \to A$ are 1-1. Then there exists a bijection $h : A \to B$.*

Proof. Put $C = g(B)$, $D = g(f(A))$ and $\alpha = g \circ f$. Then α is 1-1, $D = \alpha(A)$, $D \subseteq C \subseteq A$. Since g is a bijection from B to C, its suffices to construct a bijection from A to C.

Let $E = \{\alpha^k(a) \mid a \in A \setminus C, k \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Define

$$\beta : A \to A,\ a \to \begin{cases} \alpha(a) & \text{if } a \in E \\ a & \text{of } a \in A \setminus E \end{cases}$$

Let $e \in E$. Then by definition of β, $\beta(e) = \alpha(e)$. By definition of E, $e = \alpha^k(x)$ for some $x \in A \setminus C$ and some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Thus $\beta(e) = \alpha(e) = \alpha^{k+1}(b) \in E$.

Let $a, b \in A$ with $\beta(a) = \beta(b)$. Suppose first that $a \notin E$. Then $\beta(b) = \beta(a) = a \notin E$. Since $\beta(e) \in E$ for all $e \in E$, this gives $b \notin E$ and so $a = \beta(b) = b$. Suppose that $a \in E$. Then also $b \in E$ and so $\alpha(a) = \beta(a) = \beta(b) = \alpha(b)$. Since α is 1-1, this gives $a = b$.

So β is 1-1. If $a \in E$, then $\beta(a) = \alpha(a) \in D \subseteq C$. Suppose $a \in A \setminus E$. If $x \in A \setminus C$, then $x = \alpha^0(x) \in E$. Thus $a \in C$ and so $\beta(a) = a \in C$. Hence $\beta(A) \subseteq C$.

Now let $c \in C$. If $c \in E$, then $c = \alpha^k(b)$ for some $b \in A \setminus C$ and $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Since $c \in C$, $c \neq b = \alpha^0(b)$ and so $k > 0$. Then $x = \alpha^{k-1}(b) \in E$ and $\beta(x) = \alpha(x) = \alpha^k(b) = c$. So $c \in \beta(A)$.

Suppose that $c \notin E$. Then $\beta(c) = c$ and again ${}^{\in}\beta(A)$. Thus $C \subseteq \beta(A)$. So $\beta(A) = C$ and β is a bijection from A to C. □

A.5 Algebraic Structure

Definition A.5.1. [**def:star**] *Let $(S_i)_{i\in I}$ be a family of set. Define*

$$\bigoplus_{i\in I} S_i = \bigtimes_{\substack{i\in I \\ S_i\neq\varnothing}} S_i$$

Definition A.5.2 (Structures)**.** [**def:structures**] *Let S be set.*

(a) [**a**] *Let I and K be sets. An I-ary operation on S with constants K is a function f such that $S^I \circledast K$ is contained in the domain of S.*

Such an operation is called closed on S if

$$f(x) \in S$$

for all $x \in S^I \circledast K$.

(b) [**b**] *An operation on S is an I-ary operation on S with constants K for some set I and K.*

(c) [**c**] *A structure $\mathcal{G}$ on S is set of triple (I, K, f) such that f is closed I-ary operation with constants K on S.*

(d) [**d**] *Let $\mathcal{G}$ be a structure on S. A subset T of S is called $\mathcal{G}$-closed if $\mathcal{G}$ is a structure on T, that is*

$$f(x) \in T$$

for all $(I, K, f) \in \mathcal{G}$ and $x \in T^I \circledast K$.

A $\mathcal{G}$-closed subsets of S is also called a $\mathcal{G}$-subset of S.

Example A.5.3. [**ex:structure**]

(a) [**a**] Let G be a group. Let $\mathcal{G}$ be the structure in G consisting of

$$\begin{aligned}
f_1 &: \quad G \times G \circledast \varnothing \quad \to G \quad (a,b) \to ab \\
f_2 &: \quad\quad G \circledast \varnothing \quad \to G \quad\quad a \to a^{-1} \\
f_3 &: \quad\quad \varnothing \circledast \{0\} \to G \quad\quad 0 \to e_G \\
f_4 &: \quad\quad G \circledast G \quad \to G \quad (a,b) \to {}^b a
\end{aligned}$$

Here the set on the right side of $\circledast$ is the set of constants.

Then $T \subseteq G$ is $\mathcal{G}$-closed if and only if

$$\begin{array}{rcll} ab & = & f_1(a,b) & \in T \quad \text{for all } a,b \in T \\ a^{-1} & = & f_2(a) & \in T \quad \text{for all } a \in T \\ e_G & = & f_3(0) & \in T \\ {}^b a & = & f_4(a,b) & \in T \quad \text{for all } a \in T, b \in G \end{array}$$

So the $\mathcal{G}$-closed subsets of G are the normal subgroups of G. If we remove the function f_4 from $\mathcal{G}$, the $\mathcal{G}$-closed subsets of G is would be subgroups of G.

(b) [**2**] Consider a group G acting on a set S. Let $\mathcal{G}$ be the structure on S given by

$$f_1 : \quad S \circledast G \to S, (s,g) \to gs$$

Let $T \subseteq S$. Then T is $\mathcal{G}$-closed if and only if

$$gt = f_1(t,g) \in T \text{ for all } t \in T, g \in G$$

So T is $\mathcal{G}$-closed if and only if T is G-invariant.

(c) [**3**] Consider a ring R. Let $\mathcal{G}$ be the structure on R given by

$$\begin{array}{rrcl} f_1 : & R \times R \circledast \varnothing & \to R & (a,b) \to a+b \\ f_2 : & R \circledast \varnothing & \to R & a \to -a \\ f_3 : & \varnothing \circledast \{0\} & \to R & 0 \to 0_R \\ f_4 : & R \circledast R & \to R & (a,b) \to ba \end{array}$$

Let $I \subseteq R$. Then I is $\mathcal{G}$-closed if and only if

$$\begin{array}{rcll} a+b & = & f_1(a,b) & \in T \quad \text{for all } a,b \in T \\ -a & = & f_2(a) & \in T \quad \text{for all } a \in T \\ 0_R & = & f_3(0) & \in T \\ ba & = & f_4(a,b) & \in T \quad \text{for all } a \in T, b \in R \end{array}$$

So the $\mathcal{G}$- subsets of R are just the left ideals in R.

If we replace f_4 by

$$f_5 : \quad R \times R \circledast \varnothing \to R, \quad (a,b) \to ab$$

the closed subsets will be the subrings.

If we replace f_4 by

$$f_6 : \quad R \circledast R \to R, \quad (a,b) \to ab$$

the $\mathcal{G}$-subsets will be the right ideals in R. If we use f_4 and f_6, the $\mathcal{G}$-closed subsets will be the ideals

Proposition A.5.4. [**intersection of g-sets**] *$\mathcal{G}$ be a structure on the set S and $(T_q)_{q\in Q}$ a non-empty family of $\mathcal{G}$-closed subsets of S. Then $\bigcap_{q\in Q} T_q$ is $\mathcal{G}$-closed.*

Proof. Put $T = \bigcap_{q\in Q} T_q$. Let $(I,K,f) \in \mathcal{G}$ and $x = (y,k) \in T^I \circledast K$. Let $q \in Q$ and note that $y_i \in T_q$ for all $i \in I$. Thus $x \in T_q^I \circledast K$ and since T_q is $\mathcal{G}$-closed we get $f(x) \in T_q$. Since this holds for all $q \in Q$, $f(x) \in T$. Thus T is $\mathcal{G}$-closed. □

Definition A.5.5. [**def:directed**] *A family $(T_q)_{q\in Q}$ of sets is called directed if for each $q, p \in Q$ there exists $r \in Q$ with $T_q \cup T_p \subseteq T_r$.*

Proposition A.5.6. [**union of g-sets**] *Let $\mathcal{G}$ be a structure on the set S and $(T_q)_{q\in Q}$ a non-empty family of $\mathcal{G}$-closed subsets of S. Suppose that*

(i) [**a**] *$(T_q)_{q\in Q}$ is directed.*

(ii) [**b**] *I is finite for all $(I,K,f) \in \mathcal{G}$.*

Then $\bigcup_{q\in Q} T_q$ is $\mathcal{G}$-subset of S.

Proof. Put $T = \bigcup_{q\in Q} T_q$. Fix $(I,K,f) \in \mathcal{G}$ and let $x = (y,k) \in T^I \circledast K$. Then for each $i \in I$ there exists $q_i \in Q$ with $y_i \in T_{q_i}$. Since I is finite and $(T_q)_{q\in Q}$ is directed we can choose $q \in Q$ with $T_{q_i} \subseteq T_q$ for all $i \in I$. Thus $y_i \in T_q$ for all $i \in I$ and so $x \in T_q^I \circledast K$. Since T_q is $\mathcal{G}$-closed we get $f(x) \in T_q \subseteq T$. Thus T is $\mathcal{G}$-closed . □

Corollary A.5.7. [**intersection of groups**]

(a) [**a**] *Let G be a group and $(G_q)_{q\in Q}$ a non-empty family of (normal,) subgroups of G. Then $\bigcap_{q\in Q} T_q$ is a (normal,)subgroup of G.*

(b) [**b**] *Let G be a group and $(G_q)_{q\in Q}$ a non-empty directed family of (normal,)subgroups of G. Then $\bigcup_{q\in Q} T_q$ is a (normal,) subgroup of G.*

(c) [**c**] *Let R be a ring and $(I_q)_{q\in Q}$ a non-empty family of (left,right,) ideals in R. Then $\bigcap_{q\in Q} I_q$ is an (left,right,) ideal in R.*

(d) [**d**] *Let R be a ring and $(I_q)_{q\in Q}$ a non-empty direct family of (left,right,) ideals in R. Then $\bigcup_{q\in Q} I_q$ is an (left,right,)ideal in R.*

Definition A.5.8. [**def:closure or structure**] *Let $\mathcal{G}$-be a structure of the set S and T a subset of G. The set*

$$\langle T\rangle_{\mathcal{G}} := \bigcap\{H \mid T \subseteq H \subseteq S, H \text{ is } \mathcal{G}\text{-closed}\}$$

is called the $\mathcal{G}$-subset generated by T, or the $\mathcal{G}$-closure of T.

Appendix B

Categories

B.1 Definition and Examples

In this chapter we give a brief introduction to categories.

Definition B.1.1. [**category**] *A* category Cat *is a triple of* $(\mathcal{C}, \mathrm{Hom}, \mathrm{Com})$ *such that*

(i) [**i**] $\mathcal{C}$ *is class;*

(ii) [**ii**] Hom *is a function from* $\mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}$ *to the class of sets;*

(iii) [**iii**] Com *is a function with domain* $\mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}$ *such that for each* $A, B, C \in \mathcal{C}$, $\mathrm{Com}(A, B, C)$ *is a function*

$$\mathrm{Com}(A, B, C) : \mathrm{Hom}(B, C) \times \mathrm{Hom}(A, B) \to \mathrm{Hom}(A, C)$$

(iv) [**iv**] *the elements of* $\mathcal{C}$ *are called the objects of* Cat.

(v) [**v**] *If A and B are objects and* $f \in \mathrm{Hom}(A, B)$ *are then the triple* (f, A, B) *id called a morphism from A to B and is denoted by* $f : A \to B$. *(Note here that* f *does not have to be a function from A to B.*

(vi) [**vi**] *For objects* A, B, C *and morphisms* $f : A \to B$ *and* $g : B \to C$ *we denote* $\mathrm{Com}(A, B, C)(g, f)$ *by* $g \circ f$. *(Note that this is a bit ambiguous, since* $g \circ f$ *also depends on* A, B *and* C, *but this should not lead to confusion).* $g \circ f$ *is called the composition of g and* f. *If* $\mathbb{f} = (f, A, B)$ *and* $\mathbb{g} = (g, B, C)$ *we write* $\mathbb{g} \circ \mathbb{f}$ *for* $(g \circ f, A, C)$. *Note that the notation* $\mathbb{g} \circ \mathbb{f}$ *is unambiguous.*

(vii) [**vii**] *If* $f : A \to B$, $g : B \to C$ *and* $h : C \to D$ *are morphisms then*

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

(viii) [**viii**] *For each object A there exists a morphism from A to A, denoted by* id_A, *such that for all morphism* $f : A \to B$ *and* $g : B \to A$

$$f \circ \mathrm{id}_A = f \qquad \textit{and} \qquad \mathrm{id}_A \circ g = g$$

Definition B.1.2. [**def:equivalence**] *Let* Cat *be a category..*

(a) [**a**] *A morphism $f : A \to B$ is called an* equivalence *if there exists a morphism $g : B \to A$ with*

$$f \circ g = \mathrm{id}_B \qquad \textit{and} \qquad g \circ f = id_A$$

(b) [**b**] *Two objects A and B are called* equivalent *if there exists an equivalence $f : A \to B$.*

Remark B.1.3. [**rm:comp of equivalence**] *Let* Cat *be a category.*

(a) [**a**] *The composition of two equivalences in a category is an equivalence.*

(b) [**b**] *Let A be an object. Then $(\mathrm{Hom}(A,A), \mathrm{Com}(A,A,A))$ is a monoid. $f : A \to A$ is an equivalence if an only if f is invertible in $\mathrm{Hom}(A,A)$. So the set of equivalences from A to A form a group.*

Proof. Straightforward. □

Example B.1.4. [**ex:cat**]

1. [**1**] *Let $\mathcal{S}$ be the class of all sets. Let $\mathrm{Hom}(A,B) = \mathrm{Fun}(A,B)$ be the set of all functions from $A \to B$. Let $\mathrm{Com}(A,B,C)$ be regular composition. Then $(\mathcal{S}, \mathrm{Hom}, \mathrm{Com})$ is a category called the category of sets. A morphism in this category is an equivalence if an only if it is a bijection.*

2. [**2**] *The class of all groups with morphisms the group homomorphisms and the regular composition is a category called the category of groups.*

3. [**3**] *By Remark B.1.3 a category with one objects is essentially the same think as a monoid.*

4. [**4**] *Let G be a monoid. Let $\mathcal{C} = G$. For $a, b \in G$ define $\mathrm{Hom}(a,b) = \{x \mid xa = b\}$. So $x : a \to b$ means $xa = b$. Define composition by multiplication. If $x : a \to b$ and $y : b \to c$ are morphisms then*

$$(yx)a = y(xa) = yb = c$$

and so yx is indeed morphism from a to c. Note that e_G is the identity in $\mathrm{Hom}(a,a)$ for all $a \in G$. So $(\mathcal{C}, \mathrm{Hom}, \mathrm{Com})$ is category.

5. [**5**] *The class of all partially ordered sets with morphisms the increasing functions and regular composition is category.*

6. [**6**] *Let $(I, \leq)$ be a partially ordered set. Let $a, b \in I$. If $a > b$ define $\mathrm{Hom}(a,b) = \emptyset$. If $a \leq b$ let $\mathrm{Hom}(a,b)$ have a single element, which we denote by "$a \to b$". Define composition by*

$$(b \to c) \circ (a \to b) = (a \to c).$$

this is well defined as partial orderings are transitive. Associativity is obvious. Since $\leq$ q is reflexive $a \to a$ is an identity for A. So (I, Hom, Com) is a category.

Conversely, suppose Cat *is a category such that $\mathcal{C}$ is a set and $|\mathrm{Hom}(A,B)| \leq 1$ for all $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$. Define $A \leq B$ if $|\mathrm{Hom}(A,B)| = 1$. Then $(\mathcal{C}, \leq)$ is a partially ordered set.*

7. [**7**] *Let* Cat *be any category. Let $\mathcal{D}$ be the class of morphisms in* Cat. *Given morphisms $f : A \to B$ and $g : C \to D$ in $\mathcal{C}$ define* $\mathrm{Hom}(\mathbb{f}, \mathbb{g})$ *to be the sets of all pairs $(\mathbb{a}, \mathbb{b})$ where $a : A \to C$ and $b : B \to D$ are morphism such that $g \circ a = b \circ f$, that is the diagram:*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{a} & C \\ {\scriptstyle f}\downarrow & & \downarrow{\scriptstyle g} \\ B & \xrightarrow{b} & D \end{array}$$

commutes.

If $h : E \to F$ is a further morphism and $(\mathbb{c}, \mathbb{d}) \in \mathrm{Hom}(\mathbb{g}, \mathbb{h})$ define $(\mathbb{a}, \mathbb{b}) \circ (\mathbb{c}, \mathbb{d}) = (\mathbb{a} \circ \mathbb{c}, \mathbb{b} \circ \mathbb{d})$. Then $(\mathbb{a}, \mathbb{b}) \circ (\mathbb{c}, \mathbb{d}) \in \mathrm{Hom}(\mathbb{f}, \mathbb{h})$:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} A & \xrightarrow{a} & C & \xrightarrow{c} & E \\ {\scriptstyle f}\downarrow & & \downarrow{\scriptstyle g} & & \downarrow{\scriptstyle h} \\ B & \xrightarrow{b} & D & \xrightarrow{d} & F \end{array}$$

The resulting category is called the category of morphisms for Cat.

8. [**8**] *Let* Cat *be a category. The* opposite *category* $\mathrm{Cat}^{\mathrm{op}}$ *is defined as follows: The objects of* $\mathrm{Cat}^{\mathrm{op}}$ *are the objects of* Cat.

$\mathrm{Hom}^{\mathrm{op}}(A, B) = \mathrm{Hom}(B, A)$ *for all objects A, B.*

$f \in \mathrm{Hom}^{\mathrm{op}}(A, B)$ *will be denoted by*

$$f : A \overset{op}{\to} B \quad or \quad f : A \leftarrow B.$$

$$f \overset{op}{\circ} g = g \circ f.$$

The opposite category is often also called the dual *or* arrow reversing *category. Note that two objects are equivalent in $\mathcal{C}$ if and only if they are equivalent in $\mathcal{C}^{\mathrm{op}}$.*

B.2 Universal Objects and Products

Definition B.2.1. [**def:universal**]

(a) [**a**] *An object I in a category is called* universal *(or* initial*) if for each object C of $\mathcal{C}$ there exists a unique morphism $I \to C$.*

(b) [**b**] *An object I in a category is called* couniversal *(or* terminal*) if for each object C of $\mathcal{C}$ there exists a unique morphism $C \to I$.*

Note that I is initial in $\mathcal{C}$ if and only if its terminal in $\mathcal{C}^{\mathrm{op}}$.

The initial and the terminal objects in the category of groups are the trivial groups.

Let I be a partially ordered set. A object in $\mathcal{C}_I$ is initial if an only if its a least element. Its terminal if and only if its a greatest element.

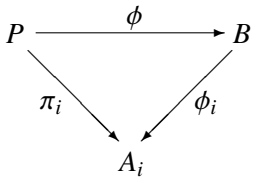
Let G be a monoid and consider the category $\mathcal{C}(G)$. Since $g : e \to g$ is the unique morphism form e to G, e is a initial object. e is a terminal object if and only if G is a group.

Theorem B.2.2. [**uniuni**] *Any two initial (resp. terminal) objects in a category I are equivalent.*

Proof. Let A and B be initial objects. In particular, there exists $f : A \to B$ and $g : B \to A$. Then id_A and $g \circ f$ both are morphisms $A \to A$. So by the uniqueness claim in the definition of an initial object, $\mathrm{id}_A = g \circ f$, by symmetry $\mathrm{id}_B = f \circ g$.

Let A and B be terminal objects. Then A and B are initial objects in $\mathcal{C}^{\mathrm{op}}$ and so equivalent in $\mathcal{C}^{\mathrm{op}}$. Hence also in $\mathcal{C}$. □

Definition B.2.3. [**def:cat product**] *Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a category and $(A_i, i \in I)$ a family of objects in $\mathcal{C}$. A* product *for $(A_i, i \in I)$ is an object P in $\mathcal{C}$ together with a family of morphisms $\pi_i : P \to A_i$ such that any object B and family of homomorphisms $(\phi_i : B \to A_i, i \in I)$ there exists a unique morphism $\phi : B \to P$ so that $\pi_i \circ \phi = \phi_i$ for all $i \in I$. That is the diagram commutes:*



commutes for all $i \in I$.

Any two products of $(G_i, i \in I)$ are equivalent in $\mathcal{C}$. Indeed they are the terminal object in the following category $\mathcal{E}$

The objects in $\mathcal{E}$ are pairs $(B, (\phi_i, i \in I))$ there B is an object and $(\phi_i : B \to A_i, i \in I)$ is a family of morphism. A morphism in $\mathcal{E}$ from $(B, (\phi_i, i \in I))$ to $(D, (\psi_i, i \in I)$ is a morphism $\phi : B \to D$ with $\phi_i = \psi_i \circ \phi$ for all $i \in I$.

A *coproduct* of a family of objects $(G_i, i \in I)$ in a category $\mathcal{C}$ is its product in $\mathcal{C}^{\mathrm{op}}$. So it is an initial object in the category $\mathcal{E}$. This spells out to:

Definition B.2.4. [**def:coproduct category**] *Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a category and $(A_i, i \in I)$ a family of objects in $\mathcal{C}$. A* coproduct *for $(A_i, i \in I)$ is an object P in $\mathcal{C}$ together with a family of morphisms $\pi_i : A_i \to B$ such that for any object B and family of homomorphisms $(\phi_i : A_i \to B, i \in I)$ there exists a unique morphism $\phi : P \to B$ so that $\phi \circ \pi_i = \phi_i$ for all $i \in I$.*

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