

# Abstract Algebra

Mark Sullivan

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# 1 Properties of $\mathbb{Z}$

## 1.1 Dictionary of terms and notations

**Definition 1.1** Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $a \neq 0$ . We say that  $a$  divides  $b$ , that  $a$  is a factor of  $b$ , that  $a$  is a divisor of  $b$ , or that  $b$  is a multiple of  $a$  provided that  $\exists q \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $b = qa$ .

**Notation** We denote the statement “ $a$  divides  $b$ ” by “ $a|b$ .”

**Definition 1.2** Let  $p \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . We say that the number  $p$  is a prime number provided that  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , if  $n|p$ , then  $n = 1$  or  $n = p$ .

**Definition 1.3** Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ . The greatest common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$  is the greatest element of the set  $\{d \in \mathbb{Z} \mid d|a \text{ and } d|b\}$ .

**Notation** Given  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ , we denote the greatest common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$  by “ $\gcd(a, b)$ .”

**Definition 1.4** Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ . We say that  $a$  and  $b$  are relatively prime provided that  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ .

**Definition 1.5** Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ . The least common multiple of  $a$  and  $b$  is the least element of the set  $\{m \in \mathbb{Z} \mid a|m \text{ and } b|m\}$ .

**Definition 1.6** Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Given  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we say that  $a$  is congruent to  $b$  modulo  $n$  provided that  $n|a - b$ .

**Notation** Given  $a, b, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $n > 0$ , we denote the statement “ $a$  is congruent to  $b$  modulo  $n$ ” by “ $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ .”

### 1.1.1 Important theorems

The following is known as the well-ordering principle.

**Theorem 1.7** *Given  $S \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^+$ , if  $S \neq \emptyset$ , then  $\exists t \in S$  such that  $\forall x \in S, t \leq x$ .*

The following is known as the division algorithm.

**Theorem 1.8** *Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $b > 0$ . There exist unique  $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $a = bq + r$  and  $0 \leq r < b$ .*

The following is known as Bézout's lemma or Bézout's identity.

**Theorem 1.9** *Given  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ ,  $\exists s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $as + bt = \gcd(a, b)$ .*

The following is known as Euclid's lemma.

**Theorem 1.10** *Let  $a, b, p \in \mathbb{Z}$ . If  $p$  is a prime number and  $p|ab$ , then  $p|a$  or  $p|b$ .*

The following is known as the fundamental theorem of arithmetic.

**Theorem 1.11** *Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $n > 1$ . The following statements are true.*

- (i) *There exist prime numbers  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_r \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $n = p_1 p_2 \dots p_r$ .*
- (ii) *If  $q_1, q_2, \dots, q_s \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  are prime numbers such that  $n = q_1 q_2 \dots q_s$ , then for each  $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, s\}$ ,  $\exists i \in \{1, 2, \dots, r\}$  such that  $q_j = p_i$ .*

The following is known as the principle of mathematical induction.

**Theorem 1.12** *Let  $S \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $S \neq \emptyset$ . If  $1 \in S$  and  $\forall n \in S, n + 1 \in S$ , then  $S = \mathbb{Z}^+$ .*

## 2 Group theory

### 2.1 Dictionary of terms and notations

**Definition 2.1** Let  $S$  be a set. A binary operation on  $S$  is a function  $* : S \times S \rightarrow S$ .

**Notation** Given a binary operation  $*$  on a set  $S$  and  $x, y \in S$ , we will often denote  $*(x, y)$  as “ $x * y$ ” or simply “ $xy$ .”

**Definition 2.2** Let  $S$  be a set, and let  $*$  be a binary operation on  $S$ . We say that  $*$  is an associative binary operation provided that  $\forall x, y, z \in S$ ,

$$x * (y * z) = (x * y) * z. \quad (1)$$

**Definition 2.3** Let  $G$  be a nonempty set, and let  $*$  be a binary operation on  $G$ . We say that  $(G, *)$  is a group provided that the following statements are true.

(i)  $*$  is associative.

(ii)  $\exists e \in G$  such that  $\forall a \in G, a * e = e * a = a$ .

(iii)  $\forall a \in G, \exists b \in G$  such that  $a * b = b * a = e$ .

**Notation** We will often write the statement “ $(G, *)$  is a group” as “ $G$  is a group under  $*$ ,” or simply “ $G$  is a group.”

**Definition 2.4** Let  $G$  be a group. An identity element of  $G$  is an element  $e \in G$  such that  $\forall a \in G, a * e = e * a = a$ .

**Definition 2.5** Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $e \in G$  be the identity element of  $G$ . Given  $a \in G$ , an inverse element of  $a$  in  $G$  is an element  $b \in G$  such that  $a * b = b * a = e$ .

**Notation** Given a group  $G$  and  $a \in G$ , will often denote the inverse element of  $a$  by “ $a^{-1}$ .”

**Definition 2.6** Let  $G$  be a group. We say that  $G$  is a trivial group provided that  $|G| = 1$ .

**Definition 2.7** Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . The dihedral group of order  $2n$  is the group of isometries of a regular polygon with  $n$  sides.

**Notation** We denote the dihedral group of order  $2n$  by “ $D_n$ .”

**Definition 2.8** Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Define an equivalence relation  $\equiv$  on  $\mathbb{Z}$  such that  $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $a \equiv b$  if and only if  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ . The group of integers modulo  $n$  is the quotient set  $\mathbb{Z}/\equiv$  under the binary operation defined via the relationship  $[a] + [b] = [a + b]$ .

**Notation** Given  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , we denote the group of integers modulo  $n$  by “ $\mathbb{Z}/n$ ,” “ $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ ,” or “ $\mathbb{Z}_n$ .”

**Definition 2.9** Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . The group of units modulo  $n$  is the set

$$U(n) = \left\{ [a] \in \mathbb{Z}/n \mid \gcd(a, n) = 1 \right\} \quad (2)$$

under the binary operation defined via the relationship  $[a] \cdot [b] = [ab]$ .

**Definition 2.10** Let  $\Omega$  be a set. A permutation of  $\Omega$  is a bijection  $\sigma : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$ .

**Definition 2.11** Let  $\Omega$  be a nonempty set. The symmetric group based on  $\Omega$  is the group  $(S_\Omega, \circ)$ , where

$$S_\Omega = \left\{ \sigma : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega \mid \sigma \text{ is a bijection} \right\}. \quad (3)$$

**Notation** Given  $\sigma \in S_\Omega$ , we define  $\sigma^1 = \sigma$  and for each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $\sigma^{n+1} = \sigma \circ \sigma^n$ .

**Definition 2.12** Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . The symmetric group of degree  $n$  is the symmetric group  $S_X$ , where  $X = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ .

**Notation** We denote the symmetric group of degree  $n$  by “ $S_n$ .”

**Definition 2.13** Let  $\Omega$  be a set. A cycle in  $S_\Omega$  is a permutation  $\sigma \in S_\Omega$  such that  $\forall a, b \in \Omega$ , if  $\sigma(a) \neq a$  and  $\sigma(b) \neq b$ , then  $\exists r \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $\sigma^r(a) = b$ .

**Definition 2.14** Let  $\Omega$  be a set, and let  $\sigma \in S_\Omega$  be a cycle. The length of  $\sigma$  is the cardinality  $\left| \{x \in \Omega \mid \sigma(x) \neq x\} \right|$ .

**Definition 2.15** Let  $\Omega$  be a set. Given a cycle  $\sigma \in S_\Omega$  and  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , we say that  $\sigma$  is a  $k$ -cycle in  $S_\Omega$  provided that the length of  $\sigma$  is  $k$ .

**Notation** Given a  $k$ -cycle  $\sigma \in S_\Omega$  and  $a \in \Omega$  such that  $\sigma(a) \neq a$ , we will often write

$$\sigma = \left( a \ \sigma(a) \ \sigma^2(a) \ \dots \ \sigma^{k-1}(a) \right). \quad (4)$$

**Definition 2.16** Let  $\Omega$  be a set. Given cycles  $\sigma, \tau \in S_\Omega$ , we say that  $\sigma$  and  $\tau$  are disjoint cycles provided that  $\{x \in \Omega \mid \sigma(x) \neq x\} \cap \{x \in \Omega \mid \tau(x) \neq x\} = \emptyset$ .

**Definition 2.17** Let  $\Omega$  be a set. A transposition in  $S_\Omega$  is a 2-cycle in  $S_\Omega$ .

**Definition 2.18** The group of unit quaternions is the group  $(Q_8, \cdot)$ , where

$$Q_8 = \{1, -1, i, -i, j, -j, k, -k\}, \quad (5)$$

and  $\cdot$  is defined so that  $i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1$ ,  $ij = k$ ,  $jk = i$ , and  $ki = j$ .

**Definition 2.19** Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , and let  $K$  be a field. The general linear group of degree  $n$  over  $K$  is the group  $\text{GL}_n(K)$  of  $n \times n$  invertible matrices with entries in  $K$ , under matrix multiplication.

**Definition 2.20** Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , and let  $K$  be a field. The special linear group of degree  $n$  over  $K$  is the group  $\text{SL}_n(K)$  of  $n \times n$  matrices with entries in  $K$  and determinant 1, under matrix multiplication.

**Definition 2.21** Let  $G$  be a group. We say that  $G$  is a cyclic group provided that  $\exists a \in G$  such that  $\forall b \in G, b = a^n$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Definition 2.22** Let  $S$  be a set, and let  $*$  be a binary operation on  $S$ . We say that  $*$  is a commutative binary operation provided that  $\forall x, y \in S, x * y = y * x$ .

**Definition 2.23** Let  $(G, *)$  be a group. We say that  $G$  is an Abelian group provided that  $*$  is a commutative binary operation.

**Definition 2.24** Let  $G$  be a group. The order of  $G$  is the cardinality  $|G|$ .

**Definition 2.25** Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $a \in G$ . We say that  $a$  has finite order in  $G$  provided that  $\exists n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $a^n = e$ , where  $e \in G$  is the identity element of  $G$ .

**Definition 2.26** Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $a \in G$ . We say that  $a$  has infinite order in  $G$  provided that  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $a^n$  is not the identity element of  $G$ .

**Definition 2.27** Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $a \in G$  have finite order in  $G$ . Suppose that  $e \in G$  is the identity element of  $G$ . The order of  $a$  is the least element  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $a^n = e$ .

**Notation** Given a group  $G$  and  $a \in G$ , we denote the order of  $a$  by “ $|a|$ .”

**Definition 2.28** Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a function, and let  $S \subseteq X$ . The restriction map of  $f$  to  $S$  is the function  $f|_S : S \rightarrow Y$  via  $f|_S(x) = f(x)$ .

**Definition 2.29** Let  $(G, *)$  be a group. Given a nonempty  $H \subseteq G$ , we say that  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$  [with respect to  $*$ ] provided that  $H$  is a group under  $*$  $|_{H \times H}$ .

**Notation** We will sometimes denote the statement “ $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ ” by “ $H \leq G$ .”

**Definition 2.30** Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $a \in G$ . The cyclic group generated by  $a$  is the group  $\langle a \rangle = \{a^n | n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ .

**Definition 2.31** Let  $G$  be a group. The center of  $G$  is the subset

$$Z(G) = \{a \in G | \forall x \in G, ax = xa\}. \quad (6)$$

**Definition 2.32** Let  $G$  be a group. Given  $a \in G$ , the centralizer of  $a$  in  $G$  is the set

$$C(a) = \{x \in G | ax = xa\}. \quad (7)$$

**Definition 2.33** Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $H$  be a subgroup of  $G$ . Given  $a \in G$ , the left coset of  $G$  by  $H$  containing  $a$  is the set

$$a * H = \{a * h \in G | h \in H\}. \quad (8)$$



**Definition 2.34** Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $H$  be a subgroup of  $G$ . Given  $a \in G$ , the right coset of  $G$  by  $H$  containing  $a$  is the set

$$H * a = \{h * a \in G \mid h \in H\}. \quad (9)$$

**Notation** We will often denote a coset  $a * N$  by “ $aN$ ,” and  $N * a$  by “ $Na$ .”

**Definition 2.35** Let  $G$  be a group. Given a subgroup  $N$  of  $G$ , we say that  $N$  is a normal subgroup of  $G$  provided that  $\forall a \in G, aN = Na$ .

**Notation** We will often denote the statement “ $N$  is a normal subgroup of  $G$ ” as “ $N \triangleleft G$ .”

**Definition 2.36** Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $H$  be a subgroup of  $G$ . The quotient space of  $G$  by  $H$  is the set

$$G / H = \{aH \mid a \in G\}. \quad (10)$$

**Definition 2.37** Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $H$  be a subgroup of  $G$ . The coset multiplication in  $G / H$  is the binary operation  $*$  on  $G / H$  defined via  $aH * bH = abH$ .

**Definition 2.38** Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $N \triangleleft G$ . The quotient group of  $G$  by  $N$  is the group  $G / N$  under coset multiplication.

**Definition 2.39** Let  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  be groups, and let  $\varphi : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  be a function. We say that  $\varphi$  is a [group] homomorphism provided that  $\forall a, b \in G_1$ ,

$$\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a) \varphi(b). \quad (11)$$

**Definition 2.40** Let  $\varphi : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  be a homomorphism. Suppose that  $e_2 \in G_2$  is the identity element of  $G_2$ . The kernel of  $\varphi$  is the set

$$\ker \varphi = \{a \in G_1 \mid \varphi(a) = e_2\} \quad (12)$$

**Definition 2.41** Let  $\varphi : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  be a homomorphism. The image or range of  $\varphi$  is the set

$$\text{Im } \varphi = \{\varphi(a) \in G_2 \mid a \in G_1\}. \quad (13)$$

**Definition 2.42** Let  $\varphi : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  be a homomorphism. We say that  $\varphi$  is a monomorphism provided that  $\varphi$  is injective.

**Definition 2.43** Let  $\varphi : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  be a homomorphism. We say that  $\varphi$  is an epimorphism provided that  $\varphi$  is surjective.

**Definition 2.44** Let  $\varphi : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  be a group homomorphism. We say that  $\varphi$  is a group isomorphism provided that there exists a group homomorphism  $\psi : G_2 \rightarrow G_1$  such that  $\psi \circ \varphi = \text{id}_{G_1}$  and  $\varphi \circ \psi = \text{id}_{G_2}$ .

**Definition 2.45** Let  $\varphi : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  be a group homomorphism. We say that  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are isomorphic [as groups] provided that there exists a group isomorphism  $\varphi : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ .

**Notation** We may denote the statement “ $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are isomorphic groups” by “ $G_1 \simeq G_2$ .”

## 2.2 Examples

**Example 2.46** *The following are examples of groups.*

- (i)  $\mathbb{Z}$  under addition.
- (ii)  $\mathbb{Q}$  under addition.
- (iii)  $\mathbb{R}$  under addition.
- (iv)  $\mathbb{C}$  under addition.
- (v)  $\mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}$  under multiplication.
- (vi)  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$  under multiplication.
- (vii)  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$  under multiplication.
- (viii)  $\{0\}$  under addition (or multiplication). This is a trivial group.
- (ix) Given  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and  $a \in \mathbb{C}$  such that  $a^n = 1$ , the set

$$G = \{1, a, a^2, a^3, \dots, a^{n-1}\} \quad (14)$$

*is a group under multiplication. This is a cyclic group.*

- (x) Any vector space is a group.
- (xi) All of the groups above are abelian groups. Given  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , the symmetric group  $S_n$  is a non-abelian group. The dihedral group  $D_{2n}$ , the group of unit quaternions  $Q_8$ , the general linear group  $GL_n(\mathbb{C})$ , and the special linear group  $SL_n(\mathbb{C})$  are also non-abelian groups.

**Example 2.47** *The following are examples of subgroups.*

- (i)  $\mathbb{Z}$  is a subgroup of  $\mathbb{Q}$ .
- (ii)  $\mathbb{Q}$  is a subgroup of  $\mathbb{R}$ .
- (iii)  $\mathbb{R}$  is a subgroup of  $\mathbb{C}$ .
- (iv)  $SL_n(K)$  is a subgroup of  $GL_n(K)$ .
- (v) Every group contains a trivial subgroup.
- (vi) Every group is a subgroup of itself.

## 2.3 Propositions

**Proposition 2.48** *Let  $G$  be a group. Given  $e_1, e_2 \in G$ , if  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  are both identity elements of  $G$ , then  $e_1 = e_2$ .*

**Proof** Since  $e_2$  is an identity element of  $G$ , we can say that  $e_1e_2 = e_1$ . At the same time, since  $e_1$  is an identity element of  $G$ , we have that  $e_1e_2 = e_2$ . Thus,  $e_1 = e_1e_2 = e_2$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 2.49** *Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $e \in G$  be the identity element of  $G$ . If  $\forall a, b \in G, ab = e$ , then  $G = \{e\}$ .*

**Proof** Let  $a \in G$ . We know that  $ae = a$ , and by assumption,  $ae = e$ . Thus,  $a = ae = e$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 2.50** *Let  $G$  be a group. Given  $a, b, c \in G$ , if  $ac = bc$ , then  $a = b$ . Similarly, if  $ca = cb$ , then  $a = b$ .*

**Proof** Suppose that  $ac = bc$ . Since  $G$  is a group,  $\exists c^{-1} \in G$  such that  $cc^{-1} = e$ , where  $e \in G$  is the identity element of  $G$ . Thus,

$$a = ae = acc^{-1} = bcc^{-1} = be = b. \quad (15)$$

The proof for  $ca = cb$  is similar.  $\square$

**Proposition 2.51** *Let  $G$  be a group. Given  $a, b \in G$ ,  $(ab)^2 = a^2b^2$  if and only if  $ab = ba$ .*

**Proof** ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Assume that  $(ab)^2 = a^2b^2$ . This means that  $abab = aabb$ . Since  $G$  is a group,  $\exists b^{-1} \in G$  such that  $bb^{-1} = e$ , where  $e \in G$  is the identity element of  $G$ . At the same time,  $\exists a^{-1} \in G$  such that  $a^{-1}a = e$ . Therefore,

$$ba = ebae = a^{-1}ababb^{-1} = a^{-1}aabb^{-1} = eabe = ab. \quad (16)$$

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Assume that  $ab = ba$ . In that case,  $aab = aba$ , and so  $aabb = abab$ , hence  $a^2b^2 = (ab)^2$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 2.52** *Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $e \in G$  be the identity element of  $G$ . Given  $a, b, c \in G$ , if  $ab = ba = e$  and  $ac = ca = e$ , then  $b = c$ .*

**Proof** Suppose that  $ab = ba = e$  and  $ac = ca = e$ . This means that  $ab = ac$ . By Proposition 2.50, we deduce that  $b = c$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 2.53** *Let  $G$  be a group. Given  $a \in G$ ,  $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$ .*

**Proof** Define  $b = a^{-1}$ . We know that  $ab = e$ . Therefore,

$$a = ae = abb^{-1} = eb^{-1} = b^{-1} = (a^{-1})^{-1}. \quad (17)$$

$\square$

**Proposition 2.54** *Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $e \in G$  be the identity element of  $G$ . Given  $a \in G$ , if  $a^{-1} = e$ , then  $a = e$ .*

**Proof** Suppose that  $a^{-1} = e$ . This implies that

$$e = aa^{-1} = ae = a. \quad (18)$$

$\square$

**Proposition 2.55** *Let  $G$  be a group. Given  $a, b \in G$ ,  $(ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1}$ .*

**Proof** We notice that

$$(ab)(b^{-1}a^{-1}) = a(bb^{-1})a^{-1} = aea^{-1} = aa^{-1} = e, \quad (19)$$

and

$$(b^{-1}a^{-1})(ab) = b^{-1}(a^{-1}a)b = b^{-1}eb = b^{-1}b = e. \quad (20)$$

Thus,  $b^{-1}a^{-1}$  is the inverse element of  $ab$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 2.56** *Let  $G$  be a group. Given  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in G$ ,*

$$(a_1a_2\dots a_n)^{-1} = a_n^{-1}\dots a_2^{-1}a_1^{-1}. \quad (21)$$

**Proof** We proceed by mathematical induction on  $n$ . First,  $(a_1)^{-1} = a_1^{-1}$ , trivially. This establishes a basis for induction. Assume, as the induction hypothesis, that for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $(a_1a_2\dots a_k)^{-1} = a_k^{-1}\dots a_2^{-1}a_1^{-1}$ . Proposition 2.55 indicates that

$$(a_1a_2\dots a_k a_{k+1})^{-1} = ((a_1a_2\dots a_k) a_{k+1})^{-1} = a_{k+1}^{-1}(a_1a_2\dots a_k)^{-1}. \quad (22)$$

Therefore,

$$(a_1a_2\dots a_k a_{k+1})^{-1} = a_{k+1}^{-1}(a_k^{-1}\dots a_2^{-1}a_1^{-1}) = a_{k+1}^{-1}a_k^{-1}\dots a_2^{-1}a_1^{-1}. \quad (23)$$

This completes the induction.  $\square$

**Proposition 2.57** *Let  $G$  be a group. Given a nonempty  $H \subseteq G$ ,  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$  if and only if  $\forall a, b \in H$ ,  $ab^{-1} \in H$ .*

**Proof** Let  $(G, *)$  be a group, and let  $H \subseteq G$  be nonempty.

( $\Rightarrow$ ) Assume that  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . Let  $a, b \in H$ . In that case,  $b^{-1} \in H$ , since  $H$  is a group. Therefore,  $a * b^{-1} \in H$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Assume that  $\forall a, b \in H$ ,  $a * b^{-1} \in H$ . We will show that  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . First, we know that  $*$   $\Big|_{H \times H}$  is associative, since  $*$  is associative. As  $H \neq \emptyset$ , we know that  $\exists a \in H$ . By assumption,  $e = a * a^{-1} \in H$ , where  $e \in G$  is the identity element of  $G$ . Now,  $\forall b \in G$ ,  $b * e = e * b = b$ , so in particular,  $\forall b \in H$ ,  $b * e = e * b = b$ . This shows that  $H$  contains an identity element. Given  $a \in H$ , we know that  $a^{-1} = e * a^{-1} \in H$  by assumption. This shows that for each element

of  $H$ , an inverse element exists in  $H$ .

We claim that  $*$  $_{H \times H}$  is a binary operation on  $H$  (or in other words, that  $H$  is closed under  $*$ ). Given  $a, b \in H$ , we know that  $b^{-1} \in H$ . Therefore, by assumption,  $a * (b^{-1})^{-1} \in H$ . By Proposition 2.53, this implies that  $a * b \in H$ .

As  $H$  satisfies the conditions of a group, we deduce that  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 2.58** *Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $a \in G$ . Given a subgroup  $H$  of  $G$ , if  $a \in H$ , then  $\langle a \rangle \subseteq H$ .*

**Proof** Let  $H$  be a subgroup of  $G$ . Let  $a \in H$ . We claim that  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+, a^n \in H$ . We proceed by mathematical induction on  $n$ . First, we note that  $a^1 = a \in H$ . This establishes a basis for induction. Assume, as the induction hypothesis, that  $a^k \in H$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Now  $a^{k+1} = a^k a \in H$ , since  $H$  is a group. This completes the induction.

We know that  $e \in H$ , since  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . Thus,  $a^0 \in H$ . Further, for each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $a^{-n} \in H$ , since  $a^{-n} = (a^n)^{-1}$ , and  $H$  is a group. Therefore,  $\langle a \rangle = \{a^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\} \subseteq H$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 2.59** *Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $a \in G$ . Suppose that  $e \in G$  is the identity element of  $G$ . Given  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $a^n = e$  if and only if  $|a|$  divides  $n$ .*

**Proof** Let  $a \in G$ , and let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Define  $k = |a|$ .

( $\Rightarrow$ ) Assume that  $a^n = e$ . We know from Theorem 1.8 that  $\exists q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $n = kq + r$  and  $0 \leq r < k$ . Therefore,

$$e = a^n = a^{kq+r} = a^{kq} a^r = (a^k)^q a^r = e^q a^r = a^r. \quad (24)$$

Since  $r < k$ , and  $k$  is the least element of  $\mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $a^k = e$ , we must have that  $r \notin \mathbb{Z}^+$ ;  $r = 0$ . Thus,  $n = kq$ , and so  $k|n$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Assume that  $k|n$ . In that case,  $\exists q \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $n = kq$ . Thus,

$$a^n = a^{kq} = (a^k)^q = e^q = e. \quad (25)$$

□

**Proposition 2.60** *Let  $G$  be a group. Given  $a \in G$ ,  $|a^{-1}| = |a|$ .*

**Proof** Let  $a \in G$ , and define  $|a| = k$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Define  $l = |a^{-1}|$ . Assume, with the expectation of a contradiction, that  $l \neq k$ . We notice that

$$e = e^k = (aa^{-1})^k = a^k(a^{-1})^k = e(a^{-1})^k = (a^{-1})^k, \quad (26)$$

where  $e \in G$  is the identity element of  $G$ . This shows that  $l \leq k$ , so  $l < k$ . Now, we notice that  $a^l \neq e$ , so

$$e = e^l = (a^{-1}a)^l = (a^{-1})^l a^l = ea^l = a^l \neq e. \quad (27)$$

This contradiction leads us to conclude that our assumption that  $l \neq k$  is false;  $l = k$ . □

**Proposition 2.61** *Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $a \in G$ . If  $a$  has finite order in  $G$ , then  $|a| = |\langle a \rangle|$ . If  $a$  has infinite order in  $G$ , then  $\langle a \rangle$  is an infinite set.*

**Proof** Let  $a \in G$ , and suppose that  $a$  has finite order in  $G$ . Define  $k = |a|$ . Let  $S = \{a, a^2, \dots, a^k\}$ .

We claim that  $S = \langle a \rangle$ . First, it is clear that  $S \subseteq \langle a \rangle$ , by definition. Now, suppose that  $x \in \langle a \rangle$ . In that case,  $x = a^n$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . We note that  $n \equiv m \pmod{k}$  for some  $m \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ , since congruence modulo  $k$  is an equivalence relation. In that case,  $k|n - m$ . We deduce that  $a^{n-m} = e$ , by Proposition 2.59. Ergo,  $x = a^n = a^m \in S$ .

Since  $\langle a \rangle = S$ , and  $|S| = k$ ,  $|\langle a \rangle| = k = |a|$ . □

**Proposition 2.62** *Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $a \in G$ . Suppose that  $|a| = k$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Given  $l \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $\langle a^l \rangle = \langle a^{\gcd(k,l)} \rangle$ .*



**Proof** Define  $d = \gcd(k, l)$ , and let  $l = qd$  for some  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

( $\subseteq$ ) Let  $x \in \langle a^l \rangle$ . In that case,  $x = (a^l)^r$  for some  $r \in \mathbb{Z}$ . We deduce that

$$x = (a^{qd})^r = (a^d)^{qr} \in \langle a^d \rangle. \quad (28)$$

This shows that  $\langle a^l \rangle \subseteq \langle a^d \rangle$ .

( $\supseteq$ ) Let  $x \in \langle a^d \rangle$ . This means that  $x = (a^d)^r$  for some  $r \in \mathbb{Z}$ . By Bézout's lemma (Theorem 1.9),  $\exists s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $ks + lt = d$ . We deduce that

$$x = (a^d)^r = (a^{ks+lt})^r = (a^{ks}a^{lt})^r = \left( (a^k)^s (a^l)^t \right)^r. \quad (29)$$

However,  $a^k = e$ , where  $e \in G$  is the identity element of  $G$ , since  $k = |a|$ . Thus,

$$x = \left( (a^k)^s (a^l)^t \right)^r = \left( e^s (a^l)^t \right)^r = (a^l)^{tr} \in \langle a^l \rangle. \quad (30)$$

This shows that  $\langle a^d \rangle \subseteq \langle a^l \rangle$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 2.63** *Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $a \in G$ . Suppose that  $|a| = k$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Given  $l \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $|a^l| = \frac{k}{\gcd(k, l)}$ .*

**Proof** Define  $d = \gcd(k, l)$ , and let  $k = qd$  for some  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

We claim that  $|a^d| = q$ . First, we notice that

$$(a^d)^q = a^{qd} = a^k = e, \quad (31)$$

where  $e \in G$  is the identity element of  $G$ . Therefore,  $|a^d| \leq q$ . Further, if  $r \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $r < q$ , then  $a^{rd} \neq e$ , since  $rd < qd = k = |a|$ . Thus,  $|a^d| = q$ .

By Proposition 2.61, we know that  $|a^l| = |\langle a^l \rangle|$ . Now, by Proposition 2.62,  $\langle a^l \rangle = \langle a^d \rangle$ . Thus,  $|a^l| = |\langle a^d \rangle| = |a^d| = q$ , due to the claim.  $\square$

**Proposition 2.64** *Let  $G$  be a group. If  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$  and  $K$  is a subgroup of  $H$ , then  $K$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .*

**Proof** Let  $H \leq G$  and  $K \leq H$ . We will show that  $K \leq G$ . Let  $a, b \in K$ . In that case, since  $K$  is a group,  $b^{-1} \in K$ . Further,  $ab^{-1} \in K$ . Thus, by Proposition 2.57,  $K \leq G$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 2.65** *Let  $G$  be a group. The center  $Z(G)$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .*

**Proof** Let  $a, b \in Z(G)$ . Given  $x \in G$ , we notice that  $bx = xb$ . Thus,  $bx b^{-1} = x$ , and so  $x b^{-1} = b^{-1}x$ . Further,

$$x(ab^{-1}) = axb^{-1} = ab^{-1}x = (ab^{-1})x. \quad (32)$$

Now, by Proposition 2.57, we find that  $Z(G)$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 2.66** *Let  $G$  be a group. Given  $a \in G$ , the centralizer  $C(a)$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .*

**Proof** Let  $a \in G$ . We will show that  $C(a)$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . Let  $x, y \in C(a)$ . In that case,  $ax = xa$ . Now, since  $ay = ya$ , we deduce that  $y^{-1}ay = a$ , and so  $y^{-1}a = ay^{-1}$ . Thus,

$$axy^{-1} = xay^{-1} = xy^{-1}a, \quad (33)$$

which shows that  $xy^{-1} \in C(a)$ . By Proposition 2.57, this shows that  $C(a)$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 2.67** *Let  $\sigma, \tau \in S_\Omega$ . If  $\sigma$  and  $\tau$  are disjoint cycles, then  $\sigma \circ \tau = \tau \circ \sigma$ .*

**Proof** Let  $a \in \Omega$ . Define  $S = \{a \in \Omega \mid \sigma(a) \neq a\}$  and  $T = \{a \in \Omega \mid \tau(a) \neq a\}$ . As  $\sigma$  and  $\tau$  are disjoint, we know that  $S \cap T = \emptyset$ . We consider three cases:  $a \in S$ ,  $a \in T$ , or  $a \notin S \cup T$ .

Consider the case that  $a \in S$ . Suppose that  $\sigma(a) = b$ . We know that  $a \neq b$ , so since  $\sigma$  is bijective,  $\sigma(b) \neq \sigma(a) = b$ . Thus,  $b \in S$ . We deduce that  $b \notin T$ , so  $\tau(b) = b$ . Thus,

$$\tau\sigma(a) = \tau(b) = b = \sigma(a) = \sigma\tau(a). \quad (34)$$

Consider the case that  $a \in T$ . Suppose that  $\tau(a) = c$ . We know that  $a \neq c$ , so since  $\tau$  is bijective,  $\tau(c) \neq \tau(a) = c$ . Thus,  $c \in T$ . We deduce that  $c \notin S$ , so  $\sigma(c) = c$ . Thus,

$$\tau\sigma(a) = \tau(a) = c = \sigma(c) = \sigma\tau(a). \quad (35)$$

Consider the case that  $a \notin S \cup T$ . This means that  $\sigma(a) = a$  and  $\tau(a) = a$ . Therefore,

$$\tau\sigma(a) = \tau(a) = a = \sigma(a) = \sigma\tau(a). \quad (36)$$

Whatever the case, we see that  $\tau\sigma(a) = \sigma\tau(a)$ , and so  $\tau\sigma = \sigma\tau$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 2.68** *Let  $\sigma \in S_n$  be a permutation. Suppose that  $\sigma = \alpha_r \circ \dots \circ \alpha_2 \circ \alpha_1$ , where  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_r \in S_n$  are disjoint cycles and for each  $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, r\}$ , the length of cycle  $\alpha_i$  is  $k_i$ . In that case,  $|\sigma| = \text{lcm}(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_r)$ .*

**Proof**

**Proposition 2.69** *Let  $G$  be a group. The quotient space  $G/H$  is a group under coset multiplication if and only if  $H \triangleleft G$ .*

**Proof**

**Proposition 2.70** *Let  $\varphi : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  be a homomorphism. Suppose that  $e_1 \in G_1$  is the identity element of  $G_1$  and  $e_2 \in G_2$  is the identity element of  $G_2$ . In that case,  $\varphi(e_1) = e_2$ .*

**Proof**

**Proposition 2.71** *Let  $\varphi : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  be a homomorphism. Given any element  $a \in G_1$ ,  $\varphi(a^{-1}) = \varphi(a)^{-1}$ .*

**Proof**

**Proposition 2.72** *Let  $\varphi : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  be a homomorphism. The map  $\varphi$  is a monomorphism if and only if  $\ker \varphi = \{e_1\}$ , where  $e_1 \in G_1$  is the identity element of  $G_1$ .*

**Proof**

**Proposition 2.73** *Let  $\varphi : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  be a group homomorphism. If  $\varphi$  is bijective, then  $\varphi^{-1}$  is also a group homomorphism.*

**Proof**

**Proposition 2.74** *Let  $\varphi : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  be a homomorphism. In that case,  $\ker \varphi \triangleleft G_1$ .*

**Proof**

**Proposition 2.75** *Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $N \triangleleft G$ . There exists a homomorphism  $\varphi : G \rightarrow G/N$  such that  $\ker \varphi = N$ .*

**Proof**

### 2.3.1 Important theorems

**Theorem 2.76** *Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $H$  be a subgroup of  $G$ . If  $G$  is cyclic, then  $H$  is cyclic.*

**Proof** Let  $G$  be a cyclic group, and let  $H \leq G$ . In that case,  $\exists a \in G$  such that  $G = \langle a \rangle$ . If  $H = \{e\}$ , where  $e \in G$  is the identity element of  $G$ , then  $H$  is cyclic. Assume, therefore, that  $H \neq \{e\}$ . We define

$$S = \{n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \mid a^n \in H\}. \quad (37)$$

We claim that  $S \neq \emptyset$ . Since  $H \neq \{e\}$ ,  $\exists b \in H$  such that  $b \neq e$ . Now, since  $H \subseteq G$ ,  $b = a^t$  for some  $t \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ . If  $t > 0$ , then  $b \in S$ . If  $t < 0$ , then we notice that  $a^{-t} = b^{-1} \in H$ , since  $H$  is a group. In that case,  $b^{-1} \in S$ . Either way,  $S \neq \emptyset$ .

By the well-ordering principle (Theorem 1.7), our claim implies that  $S$  contains a least element. Let  $m \in S$  be the least element of  $S$ . In that case,  $a^m \in H$ , which indicates that  $\langle a^m \rangle \subseteq H$ .

We claim that  $H \subseteq \langle a^m \rangle$ . Let  $b \in H$ . Since  $H \subseteq G$ ,  $b = a^k$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Now, by the division algorithm (Theorem 1.8),  $\exists q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $k = qm + r$  and  $0 \leq r < m$ . We notice that

$$b = a^k = a^{qm+r} = a^{qm}a^r. \quad (38)$$

We deduce that  $a^r = a^{-qm}b \in H$ . However,  $m$  is the least positive integer such that  $a^m \in H$ , so if  $a^r \in H$ , then  $r$  cannot be a positive integer;  $r = 0$ . Thus,  $b = a^{qm} = (a^m)^q \in \langle a^m \rangle$ .

Our claim implies that  $H = \langle a^m \rangle$ , and so  $H$  is a cyclic group.  $\square$

**Theorem 2.77** *Let  $\sigma \in S_n$ . There exist disjoint cycles  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_r \in S_n$  such that  $\sigma = \alpha_r \circ \dots \circ \alpha_2 \circ \alpha_1$ .*

**Proof**

**Theorem 2.78** *Let  $\sigma \in S_n$ . If  $n > 1$ , then there exist 2-cycles  $\tau_1, \tau_2, \dots, \tau_s \in S_n$  such that  $\sigma = \tau_s \circ \dots \circ \tau_2 \circ \tau_1$ .*

**Proof**

**Theorem 2.79** *Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $n > 1$ . Given  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_r, \beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_s \in S_n$  which are transpositions, if  $\prod_{i=1}^r \alpha_i = \prod_{j=1}^s \beta_j$ , then  $r \equiv s \pmod{2}$ .*

**Proof**

The following is known as Lagrange's theorem.

**Theorem 2.80** *Let  $G$  be a finite group. If  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , then the order of  $H$  divides the order of  $G$ .*

**Proof**

The following is known as Cauchy's theorem.

**Theorem 2.81** *Let  $G$  be a finite group. If  $p \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  is a prime number and  $p$  divides the order  $|G|$ , then  $\exists a \in G$  such that the order of  $a$  is  $p$ .*

**Proof**

The following is known as Cayley's theorem.

**Theorem 2.82** *Let  $G$  be a group. There exists a subgroup  $H$  of the symmetric group  $S_G$  such that  $G \simeq H$ .*

**Proof**

## 3 Ring theory

### 3.1 Dictionary of terms and notations

**Definition 3.1** Let  $R$  be a nonempty set, and let  $+$  and  $\cdot$  be binary operations on  $R$ . We say that  $(R, +, \cdot)$  is a ring provided that the following statements are true.

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

(ii)  $\cdot$  is associative.

(iii)  $\forall a, b, c \in R$ ,

$$a \cdot (b + c) = (a \cdot b) + (a \cdot c) \quad (39)$$

and

$$(a + b) \cdot c = (a \cdot c) + (b \cdot c). \quad (40)$$

**Notation** Given a ring  $R$  and  $a, b \in R$ , we will often denote  $a \cdot b$  by “ $ab$ .”

**Definition 3.2** Let  $(R, +, \cdot)$  be a ring. The zero, or additive identity of  $R$  is the element  $0 \in R$  such that  $\forall a \in R, a + 0 = 0 + a = a$ .

**Definition 3.3** Let  $(R, +, \cdot)$  be a ring. We say that  $R$  is a commutative ring provided that  $\cdot$  is commutative.

**Definition 3.4** Let  $(R, +, \cdot)$  be a ring. A one, or multiplicative identity of  $R$  is an element  $1 \in R$  such that  $\forall a \in R, 1a = a1 = a$ .

**Definition 3.5** Let  $R$  be a ring. We say that  $R$  is a ring with unity provided that there exists a multiplicative identity of  $R$ .

**Definition 3.6** Let  $R$  be a ring with unity. Given  $a, b \in R$ , we say that  $b$  is a multiplicative inverse of  $a$  provided that  $ab = ba = 1$ .

**Definition 3.7** Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with unity. A polynomial with coefficients in  $R$  is a sequence  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  satisfying the following condition:  $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\forall m \in \mathbb{N}$ , if  $m > n$ , then  $a_m = 0$ .

**Definition 3.8** Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with unity, and let  $f = (a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be a nonzero polynomial with coefficients in  $R$ . The degree of  $f$  is the non-negative number  $\deg f = \max \{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid a_n \neq 0\}$ .

**Definition 3.9** Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with unity, and let  $f = (a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be a polynomial with coefficients in  $R$ . The leading coefficient of  $f$  is the element  $a_{\deg f}$ .

**Definition 3.10** Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with unity, and let  $f = (a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be a polynomial with coefficients in  $R$ . We say that  $f$  is monic provided that the leading coefficient of  $f$  is 1.

**Definition 3.11** Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with unity, and let  $f = (a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a polynomial with coefficients in  $R$ . We say that  $f$  is a constant polynomial provided that  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+, a_n = 0$ .

**Definition 3.12** Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with unity. The ring of polynomials with coefficients in  $R$  is the ring  $R[X]$  whose elements are the polynomials with coefficients in  $R$  and with  $+$  defined via

$$(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty} + (b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty} = (a_n + b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$$

and with  $\cdot$  defined via

$$(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty} \cdot (b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty} = \left( \sum_{i+j=n} a_i b_j \right)_{n=0}^{\infty}.$$

**Notation** Given a commutative ring  $R$  with unity, we will often refer to the subring  $\{(r, 0, 0, \dots) \in R[X] \mid r \in R\}$  of  $R[X]$  as  $R$ .

**Definition 3.13** Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with unity. The indeterminate over  $R$  is the polynomial  $X = (0, 1, 0, 0, \dots)$ .

**Notation** Given a polynomial  $f = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n, 0, 0, \dots)$ , we will often write  $f$  as a linear combination of powers of the indeterminate:  $a_n X^n + \dots + a_1 X + a_0$ . When doing so, we will write  $f(X)$  instead of  $f$ .



**Definition 3.14** Let  $R$  be a commutative ring. Given  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , the matrix ring of degree  $n$  over  $R$  is the ring of  $n \times n$  matrices over  $R$ .

**Definition 3.15** Let  $D$  be a commutative ring with unity. We say that the ring  $D$  is an integral domain provided that  $\forall a, b \in D$ , if  $ab = 0$ , then  $a = 0$  or  $b = 0$ .

**Definition 3.16** Let  $D$  be an integral domain. Given  $a, b \in D$ , we say that  $a$  divides  $b$ , that  $a$  is a factor of  $b$ , or that  $b$  is divisible by  $a$  in  $D$  provided that  $\exists q \in D$  such that  $b = qa$ .

**Definition 3.17** Let  $(R, +, \cdot)$  be a ring. Given a nonempty  $S \subseteq R$ , we say that  $S$  is a subring of  $R$  provided that  $\forall a, b \in S$ ,  $a + b, ab \in S$  and  $S$  is a ring under  $+\big|_{S \times S}$  and  $\cdot\big|_{S \times S}$ .

**Definition 3.18** Let  $R$  be a ring. Given a subring  $I$  of  $R$ , we say that  $I$  is a left ideal of  $R$  provided that  $\forall r \in R$  and  $\forall a \in I$ ,  $ra \in I$ .

**Definition 3.19** Let  $R$  be a ring. Given a subring  $I$  of  $R$ , we say that  $I$  is a right ideal of  $R$  provided that  $\forall r \in R$  and  $\forall a \in I$ ,  $ar \in I$ .

**Definition 3.20** Let  $R$  be a ring. Given a subring  $I$  of  $R$ , we say that  $I$  is a two-sided ideal of  $R$  provided that  $\forall r \in R$  and  $\forall a \in I$ ,  $ra, ar \in I$ .

**Notation** If  $R$  is a commutative ring, then we will often write the statement “ $I$  is an ideal of  $R$ ” as “ $I \triangleleft R$ .”

**Definition 3.21** Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with unity. Given an ideal  $P$  of  $R$ , we say that  $P$  is a prime ideal of  $R$  provided that  $\forall a, b \in R$ , if  $ab \in P$ , then either  $a \in P$  or  $b \in P$ .

**Definition 3.22** Let  $R$  be a commutative ring. Given an ideal  $M$  of  $R$ , we say that  $M$  is a maximal ideal of  $R$  provided that  $\forall I \triangleleft R$ , if  $M \subseteq I \subseteq R$ , then  $M = I$  or  $I = R$ .

**Definition 3.23** Let  $R$  be a commutative ring, and let  $S \subseteq R$  be a nonempty set. The ideal generated by  $S$  in  $R$  is the ideal  $I \triangleleft R$  such that  $S \subseteq I$  and,  $\forall J \triangleleft R$ , if  $S \subseteq J$ , then  $I \subseteq J$ .

**Notation** Given a ring  $R$  and a nonempty  $S \subseteq R$ ,

1. We will often denote the ideal generated by  $S$  by “ $(S)$ .”
2. When  $S = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$ , we may denote the ideal generated by  $S$  by “ $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$ .”

**Definition 3.24** *Let  $R$  be a commutative ring, and let  $I$  be an ideal of  $R$ . We say that  $I$  is a principal ideal provided that  $\exists a \in R$  such that  $I = (a)$ .*

## 3.2 Examples

**Example 3.25** *The following are examples of rings.*

(i)  $\mathbb{Z}$ , with its usual addition and multiplication.

(ii)  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}$ , and  $\mathbb{C}$ , with their usual additions and multiplications, are all rings.

(iii)  $\{0\}$  is a trivial ring.

(iv) The rings above are all commutative. Given a ring  $R$  and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $n \geq 2$ , the matrix ring  $M_n(R)$  is a non-commutative ring.

### 3.3 Propositions, and their proofs

**Proposition 3.26** *Let  $R$  be a ring. Given  $a \in R$ ,  $a0 = 0a = 0$ .*

**Proof**

**Proposition 3.27** *Let  $R$  be a ring with unity. Given  $a, b \in R$ , if  $a$  and  $b$  are both multiplicative identities of  $R$ , then  $a = b$ .*

**Proof**

**Proposition 3.28** *Let  $R$  be a ring. Given  $a, b, c \in R$ , if  $ab = 1$  and  $ac = 1$ , then  $b = c$ .*

**Proof**

**Proposition 3.29** *Let  $R$  be a commutative ring. The ring  $R$  is an integral domain if and only if the following condition is true:  $\forall a, b, c \in R$ , if  $ab = ac$ , then  $b = c$ .*

**Proof**

### 3.3.1 Important theorems

## 4 Field theory

### 4.1 Dictionary of terms and notations

**Definition 4.1** *Let  $K$  be a commutative ring with unity. We say that  $K$  is a field provided that  $\forall a \in K, \exists b \in K$  such that  $ab = 1$ .*

## 4.2 Examples

### **4.3 Propositions, and their proofs**



### 4.3.1 Important theorems