

7202 Algebra 4: Groups and Rings Notes

Based on the 2011-2012 lectures by Prof F E A
Johnson

The Author has made every effort to copy down all the content on the board during lectures. The Author accepts no responsibility what so ever for mistakes on the notes or changes to the syllabus for the current year. The Author highly recommends that reader attends all lectures, making his/her own notes and to use this document as a reference only.

Algebra 4 : Remembers : Get to know examples.

10th Jan 2012

A group G consists of 3 things

$$G = (G, *, e)$$

- 1) G is a set
- 2) $e \in G$ ($G \neq \emptyset$)
- 3) $*$: $G \times G \rightarrow G$ is a mapping $*$ (g, h) = $g * h$ such that
- 4) $g * (h * k) = (g * h) * k$ Assoc
- 5) $g * e = e * g = g$ IDENTITY
- 6) $\forall g \in G \exists g^{-1} \in G$ st $g * g^{-1} = e = g^{-1} * g$ INVERSES.

$$(g * h)^{-1} = h^{-1} * g^{-1}$$

We ~~never~~ rarely use this notation.

TWO MAIN CONVENTIONS

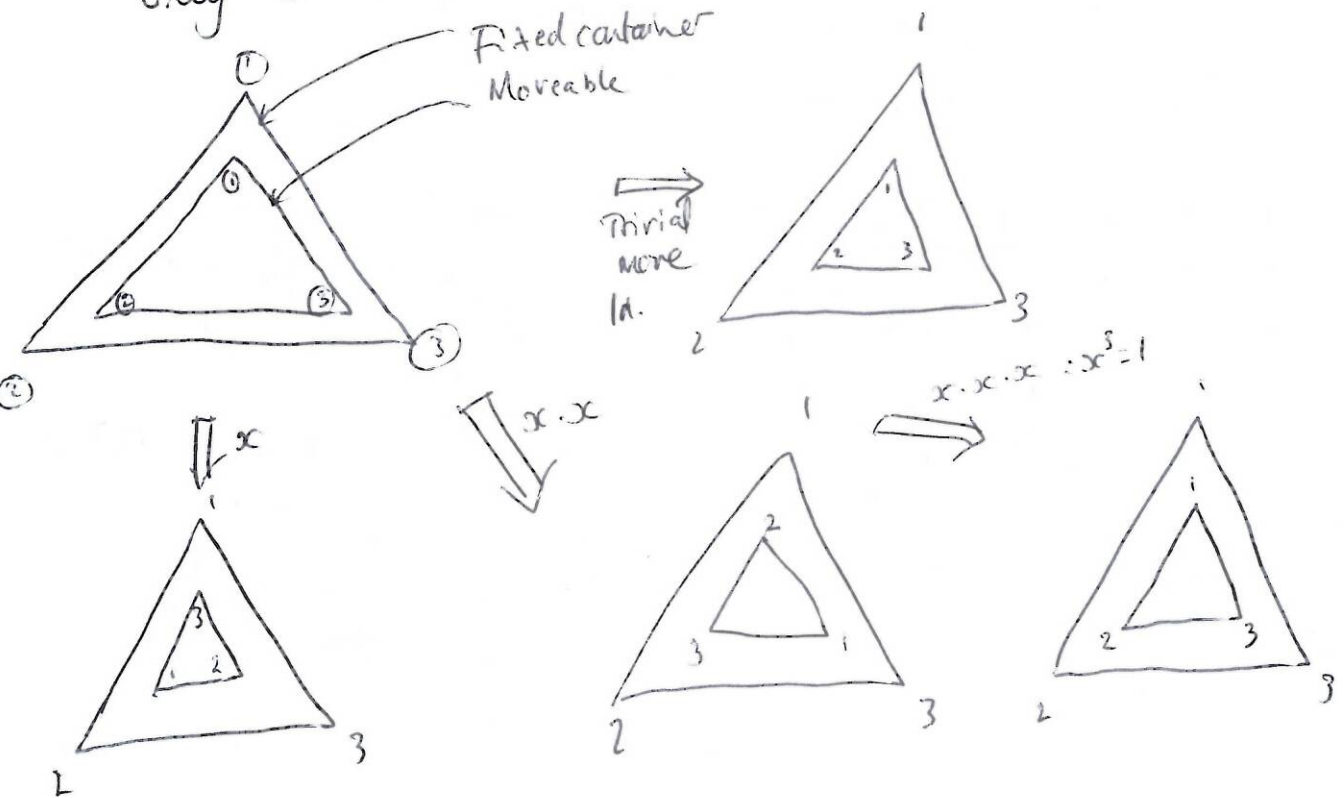
I) Multiplicative convention : \cdot instead of $*$, 1 instead of e

$$g \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot g = g \quad g \cdot g^{-1} = g^{-1} \cdot g = 1$$

II) Additive convention : $+$ instead of $*$, 0 instead of e , $-g$ instead of g^{-1}

$$g + 0 = 0 + g = g \quad \cancel{g + g^{-1} = g^{-1} + g = 0} = g + (-g) = (-g) + g$$

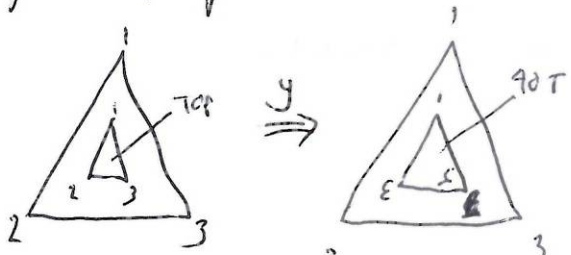
Only ever used when we also have $g + h = h + g \quad \forall g, h \in G$. (Commutative)



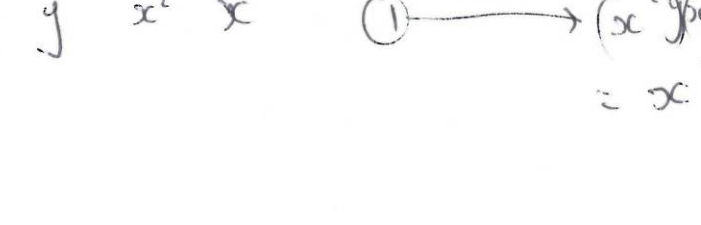
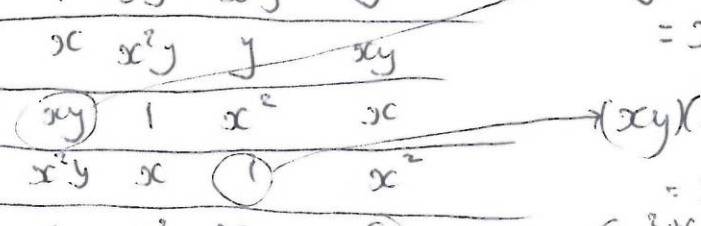
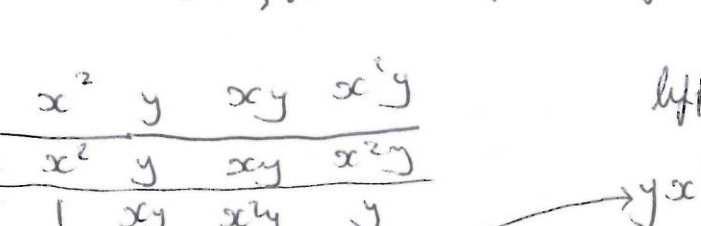
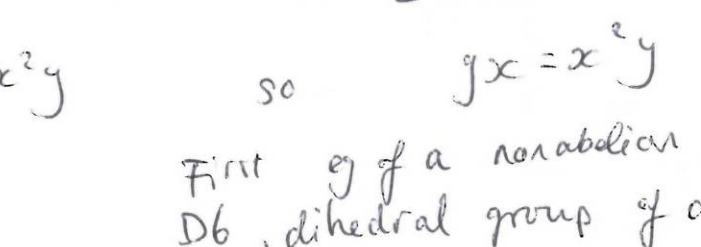
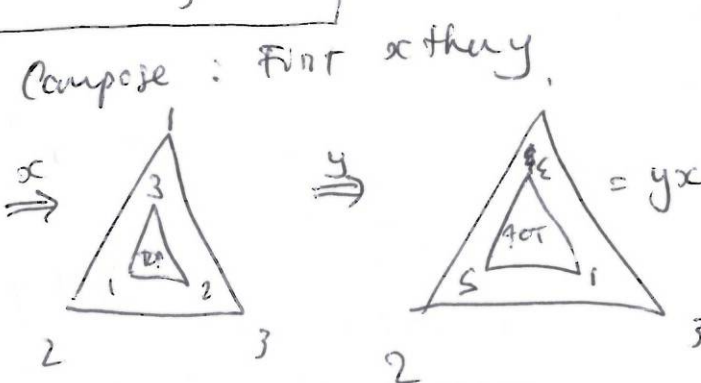
C_3 : Symmetry of 1-sided equilateral triangle.

\cdot	1	x	x^2
1	1	x	x^2
x	x	x^2	$x^3 = 1$
x^2	x^2	1	x

Symmetries of 2-sided equil Δ .



Compose in functional order
 $x \cdot y =$ first y then x



Compose : First x then y .

$yx \neq xy$

$yx = x^2y$

so First eg of a nonabelian group (non commutative)
 D_6 , dihedral group of order 6.

D_6

\cdot	1	x	x^2	y	xy	x^2y
1	1	x	x^2	y	xy	x^2y
x	x	x^2	1	xy	x^2y	y
x^2	x^2	1	x	x^2y	y	xy
y	y	x^2y	xy	1	x^2	x
xy	xy	y	x^2y	x	1	x^2
x^2y	x^2y	xy	y	x^2	x	1

left first.

$yx^2 = (x^2y)x = x^2(yx)$
 $= x^2(x^2y) = x^4y = xy$

$(xy)(xy) = x(yx)y = x(x^2y)y$
 $= x^3y^2 = 1 \cdot 1 = 1$

$(x^2y)(x^2y) = x^2(yx^2)y$
 $= x^2(x^2y)y = x^3y^2 = 1$

(ex) Q_8 quaternion group of order 8

$i^2 = -1$ and is 2 dimensional

Take $i^2 = -1$ $j^2 = -1$ $k^2 = -1$

$a + bi + cj + dk$ $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$.

$ij = k = -ji$

	1	-1	i	-i	j	-j	k	-k
1	1	-1	i	-i	j	-j	k	-k
-1	-1	1	-i	i	-j	j	-k	k
i	i	-i	-1	1	k	-k	<u>-j</u>	<u>j</u>
-i	-i	i	1	-1	-k	k	<u>j</u>	<u>-j</u>
j	j	-j	-k	k	-1	1	i	-i
-j	-j	j	k	-k	1	-1	-i	i
k	k	-k						
-k	-k	k						

$ik = i \cdot ij = i^2 j = -j$
 $j = -ik$
 $ji =$

... Finish off.

i
 k $\left. \begin{matrix} \curvearrowright \\ \curvearrowright \end{matrix} \right\} j$ $kj = +$ $ki = -$
 $ki = j$
 $ik = -j$

\Rightarrow Finished corner:

j	-j	-i	i	-1	1
-j	j	i	-i	1	-1

lec: 9 → 11 Tues Archaeology
 PC: 11 → 12 Bedford Way LG04 } Fri:
 lec 12 → 1 chem LT.

So far we know:

$$C_3 = \{1, x, x^2 \mid x^3 = 1\}$$

$$D_6 = \{1, x, x^2, y, xy, x^2y \mid x^3 = 1, y^2 = 1, yx = x^2y\}$$

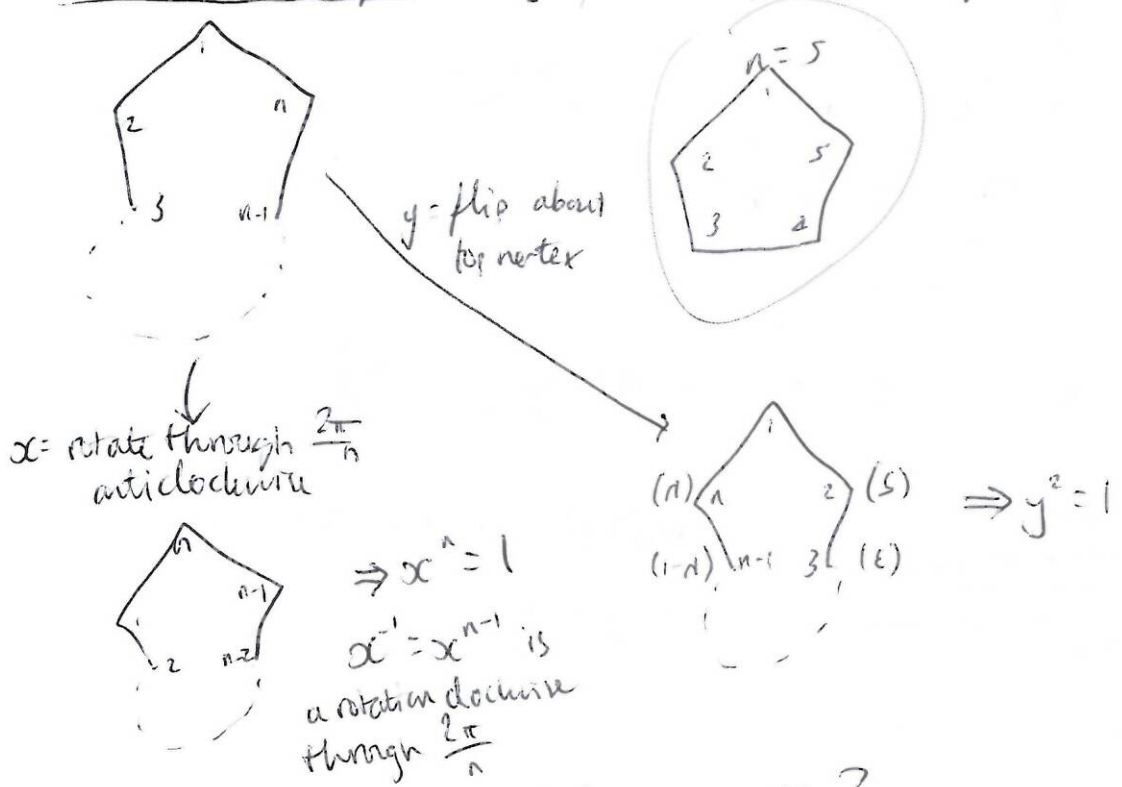
$$Q_8 = \{1, -1, i, -i, j, -j, k, -k \mid i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1, ij = k = -ji\}$$

It follows that $jk = -kj = i, ki = -ik = j$

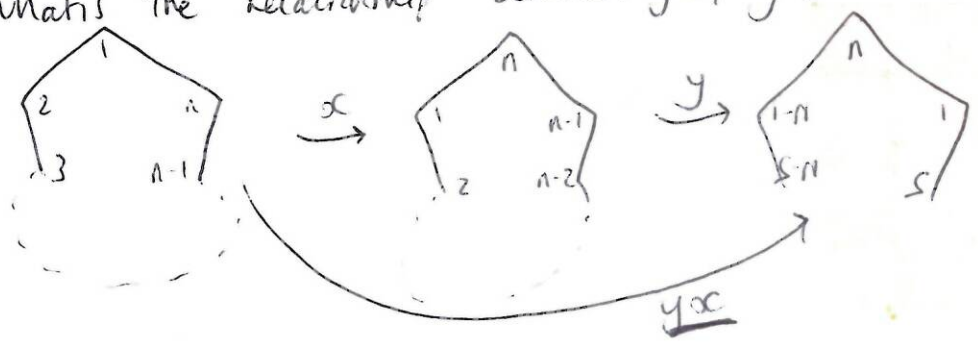
Generalisation of C_3 : C_n ; symmetries of 1-sided regular n -gon.

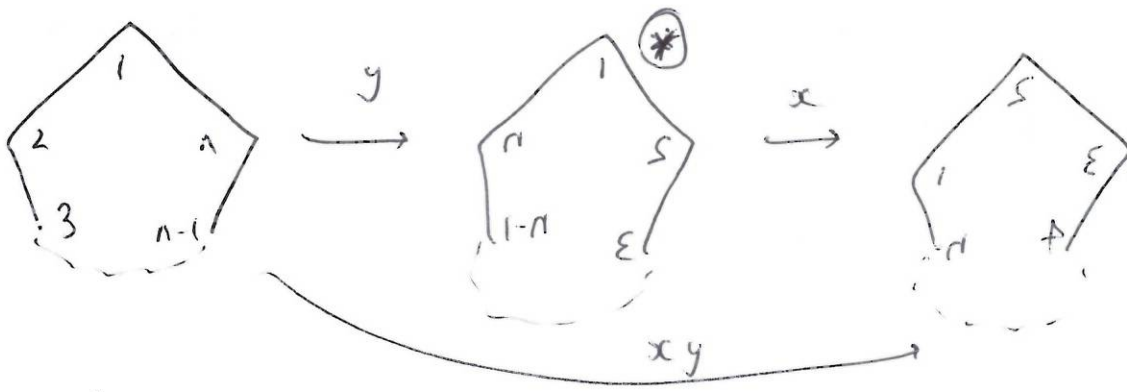
Algebraically; $C_n = \{1, x, \dots, x^{n-1} \mid x^n = 1\}$ Cyclic group of order n .

Generalisation of D_6 : D_{2n} ; the symmetries of 1-sided regular n -gon.

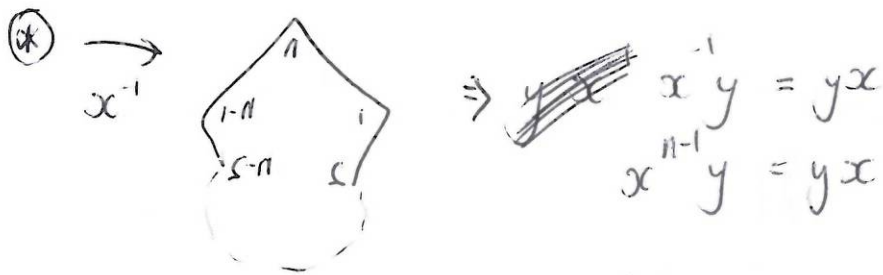


what is the relationship between yx, xy ?





clearly, $yx \neq xy$



Write D_{2n} algebraically as follows;

$$D_{2n} = \{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{n-1}, y, xy, x^2y, \dots, x^{n-1}y \mid x^n = 1, y^2 = 1,$$

$$yx = x^{n-1}y\}$$

Note: $yx^2 = ?$ $(yx)x = x^{n-1}yx = x^{n-1}x^{n-1}y = x^{2n-2}y$

$$= x^n x^{n-2}y = (x^n = 1) = x^{n-2}y$$

$$yx^2 = x^{n-2}y \quad yx^r = x^{n-r}y$$

Compare D_8 with Q_8 (both non abelian of order 8)

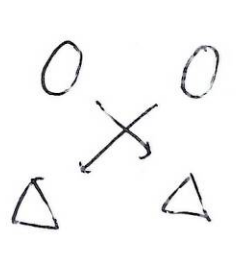
D_8	1	x	x^2	x^3	y	xy	x^2y	x^3y
1	1	x	x^2	x^3	y	xy	x^2y	x^3y
x	x	x^2	x^3	1	xy	x^2y	x^3y	y
x^2	x^2	x^3	1	x	x^2y	x^3y	y	xy
x^3	x^3	1	x	x^2	x^3y	y	xy	x^2y
y	y	x^3y	x^2y	xy	1	x^3	x^2	x
xy	xy	y	x^3y	x^2y		1		
x^2y	x^2y	xy	y	x^3y			1	
x^3y	x^3y	x^2y	xy	y				1

$$(xy)(xy) = x(yx)y = x(x^3y)y = x^4y^2 = 1$$

← fill in.

Q_8	1	-1	i	-i	j	-j	k	-k
1	1							
-1		1						
i			-1					
-i				-1				
j					-1			
-j						-1		
k							-1	
-k								-1

What does it mean for two groups to be "the same" or "different"?


 Say that two sets A, B are "essentially the same" when \exists a bijective mapping $\varphi: A \xrightarrow{\cong} B$

Defn: Let G, H be groups. By a group homomorphism $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$, I mean a mapping such that $\varphi(xy) = \varphi(x)\varphi(y) \quad \forall x, y \in G$ i.e. it takes a product to a product. H preserves multiplication.

We say that G is isomorphic to H when \exists bijective homomorphism $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$.

Formal consequences of defn:

Let $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$ be a homo; then

Prop: ~~$\varphi(1_G) = 1_H$~~ $\varphi(1_G) = 1_H$ i.e. φ preserves identities.

Proof: $1_G 1_G = 1_G$. Apply φ . $\varphi(1_G 1_G) = \varphi(1_G)$

$$\downarrow$$

$$\varphi(1_G) \varphi(1_G) = \varphi(1_G)$$

Multiply on the right by $\varphi(1_G)^{-1} (\in H)$

$$\varphi(1_G) [\varphi(1_G) \varphi(1_G)^{-1}] = \varphi(1_G) \varphi(1_G)^{-1} = 1_H$$

$$\varphi(1_G) 1_H = 1_H \implies \varphi(1_G) = 1_H \quad \text{QED.}$$

Prop: $\forall g \in G \quad \varphi(g^{-1}) = \varphi(g)^{-1}$

Proof: $g^{-1}g = 1_G$ so apply φ

$$\varphi(g^{-1})\varphi(g) = \varphi(1_G) = 1_H$$

Multiply on right by $\varphi(g)^{-1}$

$$\varphi(g^{-1})[\varphi(g)\varphi(g)^{-1}] = 1_H \varphi(g)^{-1}$$

$$\varphi(g^{-1}) = \varphi(g^{-1})1_H = \varphi(g)^{-1} \quad \underline{QED}$$

Group homos do occur in other parts of Mathematics

1st example:

$$\exp: (\mathbb{R}, +, 0) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}_+, \cdot, 1)$$

$$\exp(x+y) = \exp(x)\exp(y)$$

$$\exp(0) = 1$$

$$\exp(-x) = \exp(x)^{-1}$$

Inverse: Isomorphism is

$$\log: (\mathbb{R}_+, \cdot, 1) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, +, 0)$$

$$\log(x) = \int \frac{dx}{x}$$

$$\log(xy) = \log(x) + \log(y)$$

$$\log(1) = 0$$

$$\log\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = -\log(x)$$

We think of isomorphic groups as being "the same", and non isomorphic groups as being different.

$$(4) \quad C_2 = \{1, x\} \quad x^2 = 1$$

$$\mathbb{F}_2 = \{0, 1\} \quad 1+1=0$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \varphi(1) = 0 \\ \varphi(x) = 1 \end{array} \right\} \text{ like } \log$$

C_2	1	x
1	1	x
x	x	1

\mathbb{F}_2^+	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	0

Name proposition but "good enough" for now.

Prop: Let $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$ be a group isomorphism

i. $G \cong H$ or $G \xrightarrow{\varphi} H \leftarrow G$ isomorphic by φ to H .

Let $\mathcal{Z}(G) = \{x \in G; x^2 = 1\}$ $x^2 = 1 \Leftrightarrow x^{-1} = x$

Proof: $\mathcal{Z}(H) = \{y \in H; y^2 = 1\}$ Then $\varphi: \mathcal{Z}(G) \rightarrow \mathcal{Z}(H)$ is bijective

Since φ preserves products, $\varphi(x^2) = \varphi(x)^2$

If $x^2 = 1$ $\varphi(x^2) = \varphi(1) = 1$ so $\varphi(x)^2 = 1$

i.e. φ if $x \in \mathcal{Z}(G)$ then $\varphi(x) \in \mathcal{Z}(H)$

Because $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$ is injective. then

$\varphi: \mathcal{Z}(G) \rightarrow \mathcal{Z}(H)$ is also injective

Suppose $y \in \mathcal{Z}(H)$ $y^2 = 1$

Choose $x \in G$ $\varphi(x) = y$, φ surjective. claim $x^2 = 1$

$\varphi(x^2) = \varphi(x)^2 = y^2 = 1$

But also $\varphi(1) = 1$

But φ injective so $x^2 = 1$ so $\forall y \in \mathcal{Z}(H) \exists x \in \mathcal{Z}(G)$

st $\varphi(x) = y$

So $\varphi: \mathcal{Z}(G) \rightarrow \mathcal{Z}(H)$ is bijective as claimed. QED.

Corollary: $D_8 \not\cong Q_8$

Pf: Write out multiplication tables: We saw

$\mathcal{Z}(D_8) = \{1, x^2, y, x^2y\}$ has 4 elements only

$\mathcal{Z}(Q_8) = \{1, -1\}$ has 2 elements. QED.

General advice:

To show two groups are isomorphic, we need to construct a mapping $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$, bijective & homo.

To show two groups are NOT isomorphic we need to produce an invariant

(19) Permutation groups

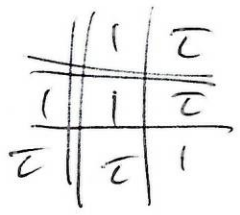
$\sigma_n = \{\sigma : \{1 \dots n\} \rightarrow \{1 \dots n\}\}$ σ is a bijective mapping

Define group operation to be composition $|\sigma_n| = n!$

$\sigma_2, \sigma_3, \sigma_4, \sigma_5 \dots$
 2 6 24 120 ...

$\sigma_2 = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ $\tau^2 = \text{Id}$ $\sigma_2 \cong C_2$

" τ



$\sigma_3 = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$

" " " τ

X X^2

$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

~~XY~~ ~~X^2Y~~

$X^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} \downarrow X \\ X^3 = 1 \end{matrix}$

$Y^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad Y^2 = 1$

~~XY~~ = $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} \downarrow X \\ \downarrow Y \end{matrix}$

$XY = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \downarrow Y$

So $YX = X^2Y$

So $\sigma_3 \cong D_6$ explicitly.

$1 \rightarrow 1$	$X^3 = 1$	$X^3 = 1$
$X \rightarrow X$	$Y^2 = 1$	$Y^2 = 1$
$X^2 \rightarrow X^2$		
$Y \rightarrow Y$		
$XY \rightarrow XY$	$YX = X^2Y$	$YX = X^2Y$
$X^2Y \rightarrow X^2Y$		

G group, $g \in G$

By convention.

$$\text{ord}(g) = \min \{ r \geq 1 : g^r = 1 \} \quad g^0 = 1$$

$$C_{12} = \{ 1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{11} \mid x^{12} = 1 \} \quad r \geq 1$$

$$\text{ord}(x) = 12 \quad (\text{ord}(1) = 1)$$

$$(x^2)^6 = 1 \quad x^2, x^4, x^6, x^8, x^{10}, x^{12}$$

$$\text{ord}(x^2) = 6$$

$$\text{ord}(x^3) = 4$$

$$x^4 = 3$$

$$x^5 = 12$$

$$x^6 = 12$$

$$x^7 = 12$$

$$x^8 = 3$$

$$x^9 = 4$$

$$x^{10} = 6$$

$$x^{11} = 12$$

Thm: In $C_n = \{ 1, x, \dots, x^{n-1} \}$

$$\text{ord}(x^a) = \frac{n}{\text{HCF}(n, a)}$$

Proof: In $C_n = \{ 1, x, \dots, x^{n-1} \}$ if $x^N = 1$ and $1 \leq N$
 then $N = nq$ for some q (i.e. N is a multiple of n)

Proof: Suppose $x^N = 1$ & $1 \leq N$

Either $1 \leq N < n$ (i) or $N = n$ (ii) or $n < N$ (iii)

(i) can't occur because it contradicts contradiction as n is $\min \{ r \geq 1, x^r = 1 \}$

(ii) Take $q=1$

(iii) Write $N = qn + r$, $0 \leq r < n-1$
 $1 = x^N = x^{qn+r} = (x^{qn})^q x^r$ But $x^n = 1$ so I get
 $x^r = 1$ in where $0 \leq r < n-1$. If $r \neq 0$ get x again so
 $r=0 \Rightarrow N = nq$ \square .

Thm: In $C_n = \{ 1, x, \dots, x^{n-1} \}$ $\text{ord}(x^a) = \frac{n}{\text{HCF}(n, a)}$ [$1 \leq a \leq n-1$]

Proof: Suppose $\text{ord}(x^a) = k \Rightarrow (x^a)^k = 1$ by def'n.
 So $x^{ak} = 1$. By previous result, ak is a multiple of n

ak is obviously a multiple of a . So ak is a common multiple of a, n . But $k = \min\{r \geq 1 : (x^a)^r = 1\}$ Since a is fixed $ak = \text{lowest common multiple of } a, n \Rightarrow k \text{ is minimal}$

$$ak = \text{LCM}(a, n) = \frac{an}{\text{HCF}(a, n)}$$

$$\Rightarrow k = \frac{n}{\text{HCF}(n, a)} \quad \square$$

Question: $C_n = \{1, x, \dots, x^{n-1} \mid x^n = 1\}$ When is $\text{ord}(x^a) = n$?

when a, n have no common factor except 1 (coprime)

Look at C_{12} again...

$$C_{12} = \{1, x, \dots, x^{11} \mid x^{12} = 1\} \quad x \text{ generates } C_{12}$$

Every other element is a power of x

x^2 doesn't generate $C_{12} \rightarrow 1, x^2, x^4, x^6, x^8, x^{10}, x^{12}, \dots$ no odds.

x^a generates C_{12} iff $\text{ord}(x^a) = 12$

so... x, x^5, x^7, x^{11} , all generate C_{12} .

no other elements generate C_{12}

Generalisation:

$$C_n = \{1, x, \dots, x^{n-1} \mid x^n = 1\}$$

x^a generates C_n iff $\text{ord}(x^a) = n$ iff a, n coprime

Homomorphisms $C_n \rightarrow C_n$:

$\varphi: C_n \rightarrow C_n$ such that $\varphi(gh) = \varphi(g)\varphi(h) \quad \forall g, h$

$\varphi(x^s x^t) = \varphi(x^s)\varphi(x^t)$ Homomorphism, $\varphi(x^s) = \varphi(x x^{s-1})$

$$= \varphi(x)\varphi(x^{s-1}) = \dots = \varphi(x)^s$$

Prop: A homomorphism $\varphi: C_n \rightarrow C_n$ is completely determined by $\varphi(x)$ where x is a generator of C_n .

Proof: $C_n = \{1, x, \dots, x^{n-1} \mid x^n = 1\}$ if I want to calculate $\varphi(x^s)$ then $\varphi(x^s) = \varphi(x)^s$ i.e. $\varphi(x)$ determines $\varphi(g) \quad \forall g \in C_n$. D.

$$m: C_n = \{1, x, \dots, x^{n-1} \mid x^n = 1\}$$

Let $0 \leq a \leq n-1$. Define $\varphi_a: C_n \rightarrow C_n$ by

$$\varphi_a(x) = x^a, \text{ so } \varphi_a(x^s) = x^{as} = (x^a)^s$$

φ_a is a homomorphism. Why?

$$\varphi_a(x^s x^t) = \varphi_a(x^{s+t}) = x^{a(s+t)} = x^{as} x^{at} = \varphi_a(x^s) \varphi_a(x^t)$$

Corollary: Every homomorphism $\varphi: C_n \rightarrow C_n$ is of form $\varphi = \varphi_a$ for some $a: \text{---}$ $0 \leq a \leq n-1$.

Proof: $\varphi(x) \in \{1, x, \dots, x^{n-1}\}$

$$\text{Suppose } \varphi(x) = x^a \quad \varphi(x^s) = (x^a)^s = x^{as} = \varphi_a(x^s)$$

$$\text{ie } \varphi = \varphi_a \quad \square$$

So there are exactly n homomorphisms, $C_n \rightarrow C_n$.

(eg) Homomorphisms $C_3 \rightarrow C_3$ $C_3 = \{1, x, x^2 \mid x^3 = 1\}$

$$\varphi_0: C_3 \rightarrow C_3 \quad \varphi_0(x) = x^0 = 1$$

$$\text{so } \varphi_0(1) = 1, \quad \varphi_0(x) = 1, \quad \varphi_0(x^2) = \varphi_0(x)^2 = 1^2 = 1$$

so φ_0 is very boring. $\varphi_0(x^a) = 1 \quad \forall a$. Trivial homo.

$$\varphi_1: C_3 \rightarrow C_3 \quad \varphi_1(x) = x$$

$$\varphi_1(x^2) = \varphi_1(x) \varphi_1(x) = x \cdot x = x^2, \quad \varphi_1(1) = 1 \quad (\text{homo})$$

$$\varphi_1(1) = 1, \quad \varphi_1(x) = x, \quad \varphi_1(x^2) = x^2 \text{ so } \varphi_1 = \text{Id homo.}$$

$$\varphi_2: C_3 \rightarrow C_3 \quad \varphi_2(x) = x^2$$

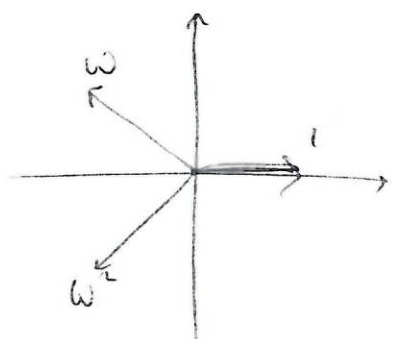
$$\varphi_2(x^2) = \varphi_2(x) \varphi_2(x) = x^2 x^2 = x^4 = x$$

$$\varphi_2(1) = \varphi_2(x \cdot x^2) = \varphi_2(x) \varphi_2(x^2) = x^2 \cdot x = x^3 = 1$$

because φ_1 is homo.

$$\varphi_2(1) = 1 \quad \varphi_2(x) = x^2 \quad \varphi_2(x^2) = x$$

This is familiar from complex analysis.



$$w = -\frac{1}{2} + i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

$$(1, w, w^2) \cong C_3$$

so $w \rightarrow w^2$
is complex conjugate

G, H groups, an isomorphism $\phi: G \rightarrow H$ is a bijective homo

Special case: $H = G$

A bijective homo $\phi: G \rightarrow G$ is called an automorphism of G . We'll determine all automorphisms of C_n

Let G be a group. Define:

$$\text{Aut}(G) = \{ \alpha: G \rightarrow G : \alpha \text{ is an automorphism} \}$$

α is bijective and a homo.

Prop: If $\alpha, \beta \in \text{Aut}(G)$ then $\alpha \circ \beta \in \text{Aut}(G)$

ie the composition of two autos is an auto.

Proof: $\alpha \circ \beta: G \rightarrow G$ is a homo because if $x, y \in G$

$$\text{Then } (\alpha \circ \beta)(xy) = \alpha(\beta(xy)) = \alpha(\beta(x)\beta(y))$$

$$= \alpha[\beta(x)] \alpha[\beta(y)] = (\alpha \circ \beta)(x)(\alpha \circ \beta)(y)$$

$\alpha \circ \beta$ is bijective because the composition of any two bijections is a bijection \square .

Got "operation"

$$\circ: \text{Aut}(G) \times \text{Aut}(G) \rightarrow \text{Aut}(G)$$

$$(\alpha \times \beta) \rightarrow \alpha \circ \beta$$

Prop: $\text{Aut}(G)$ is a group with respect to the above product.

Proof: Composition is always associative so no problem with associative axiom. Take $1 = \text{Id}_G: G \rightarrow G$

$$\text{Id}_G(x) = x \quad \forall x \in G. \quad \text{Clear that } \text{Id}_G \in \text{Aut}(G).$$

$$\text{Id}_G(\alpha y) = \alpha y = \text{Id}_G(\alpha x) \text{Id}_G(y).$$

$$\alpha \circ \text{Id}_G = \alpha = \text{Id}_G \circ \alpha \quad \text{so } \text{Id}_G \text{ is an IDENTITY in } \text{Aut}(G)$$

Inverses? Let $\alpha \in \text{Aut}(G)$. α is a bijective homo.

Because α is bijective, there is an inverse mapping.

$$\alpha^{-1}: G \rightarrow G \quad \alpha \circ \alpha^{-1} = \text{id}_G = \alpha^{-1} \circ \alpha$$

Need to show α^{-1} is a homo.

Compare $\alpha^{-1}(xy)$ with $\alpha^{-1}(x)\alpha^{-1}(y)$

Apply α to each. $\alpha \alpha^{-1}(xy) = xy$ (Defn of α^{-1})

$$\alpha [\alpha^{-1}(x)\alpha^{-1}(y)] = \alpha \alpha^{-1}(x) \alpha \alpha^{-1}(y) \text{ because } \alpha \text{ is homo.}$$

$$= xy \text{ again by defn of } \alpha^{-1}.$$

$$\text{So, } \alpha [\alpha^{-1}(xy)] = xy = \alpha [\alpha^{-1}(x)\alpha^{-1}(y)]$$

But α is injective so $\alpha^{-1}(xy) = \alpha^{-1}(x)\alpha^{-1}(y)$.

and α^{-1} is a homo \square .

So given a group G we've produced another group $\text{Aut}(G)$.

(19) $\text{Aut}(C_3)$ - Significant eg.

There are 3 homos: $C_3 \rightarrow C_3$

$$\phi_0(1) = 1$$

$$\phi_1(1) = 1$$

$$\phi_2(1) = 1$$

$$\phi_0(x) = x$$

$$\phi_1(x) = x$$

$$\phi_2(x) = x^2$$

$$\phi_0(x^2) = x^2$$

$$\phi_2(x^2) = x^2$$

$$\phi_2(x^2) = x$$

Of these three homos, only two are autos, namely $\phi_1 = \text{id}$ and $\phi_2 = \tau$

$\text{Aut}(C_3)$	1	τ
1	1	τ
τ	τ	1

$$C_3 = \{1, x, x^2\}$$

$$(\tau \circ \tau)(x) = \tau(\tau(x)) = \phi_2(\phi_2(x)) = \phi_2(x^2)$$

$$= \phi_2(x) = (x^2)^2 = x^4 = x \text{ so } \tau \circ \tau = 1$$

$$\text{Aut } C_3 \cong C_2$$

(20) $\text{Aut}(C_5)$ $C_5 = \{1, x, x^2, x^3, x^4 \mid x^5 = 1\}$

There are 5 homos: $\alpha: C_5 \rightarrow C_5$

$$\alpha \in \{\phi_0, \phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \phi_4\}$$

MATH IS FUN

$\phi_0(x^r) = 1$ isn't injective. $\phi_1 = \text{id}$.

$\phi_1(1) = 1$	$\phi_2(1) = 1$	$\phi_3(1) = 1$	$\phi_4(1) = 1$
$\phi_1(x) = x$	$\phi_2(x) = x^2$	$\phi_3(x) = x^3$	$\phi_4(x) = x^4$
$\phi_1(x^2) = x^2$	$\phi_2(x^2) = x^4$	$\phi_3(x^2) = x$	$\phi_4(x^2) = x^3$
$\phi_1(x^3) = x^3$	$\phi_2(x^3) = x$	$\phi_3(x^3) = x^4$	$\phi_4(x^3) = x^2$
$\phi_1(x^4) = x^4$	$\phi_2(x^4) = x^3$	$\phi_3(x^4) = x^2$	$\phi_4(x^4) = x$

all bijective. So $\text{Aut}(C_5) = \{\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \phi_4\}$ is a group of order 4

Put $\alpha = \phi_2$

- $\alpha^2(x) = \alpha(\alpha(x)) = \phi_2(\phi_2(x)) = \phi_2(x^2) = x^4$
- $\alpha^2(x) = x^4$ so $\alpha^2 = \phi_4$

- $\alpha^3(x) = \alpha(\alpha^2(x)) = \phi_2(x^4) = x^8 = x^3$
- $\alpha^3(x) = x^3$ so $\alpha^3 = \phi_3$

- $\alpha^4(x) = \alpha(\alpha^3(x)) = \phi_2(x^3) = x^6 = x$
- $\alpha^4(x) = \phi_1 = \text{id}$.

So $\text{Aut}(C_5) = \{1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \alpha^3 \mid \alpha^4 = 1\}$ where (in taking

$\alpha = \phi_2 : C_5 \rightarrow C_5, \alpha(x) = x^2$

$\text{Aut}(C_5) \cong C_4$

so far: $\text{Aut}(C_3) \cong C_2$

$\text{Aut}(C_5) \cong C_4$

Aut C_n First make a general observation

Thm: let $0 \leq a \leq n-1$ $\phi_a : C_n \rightarrow C_n$ is an auto iff a is coprime to n

$C_6 = \{1, x, x^2, x^3, x^4, x^5 \mid x^6 = 1\}$ look at $\phi_a : 0 \leq a \leq 5$

ϕ_0 is never injective so not an auto

$\phi_1 = \text{id}$ is always an auto

$\phi_2 = ? \dots$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \phi_2(1) &= 1 \\ \phi_2(x) &= x^2 \\ \phi_2(x^2) &= x^4 \\ \phi_2(x^3) &= x^6 = 1 \end{aligned} \right\} \text{so } \phi_2 \text{ not injective}$$

$$\phi_2(1) = \phi_2(x^3) \\ x^3 \neq 1$$

$$\phi_3(1) = \phi_3(x^2) \left\{ \begin{aligned} \phi_3(1) &= 1 \\ \phi_3(x) &= x^3 \\ \phi_3(x^2) &= 1 \end{aligned} \right. \\ 1 \neq x^2 \\ \text{not injective.}$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \phi_4(1) &= 1 \\ \phi_4(x) &= x^4 \\ \phi_4(x^2) &= x^4 \\ \phi_4(x^3) &= 1 \end{aligned} \right\} \text{no.}$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \phi_5(1) &= 1 \\ \phi_5(x) &= x^5 \\ \phi_5(x^2) &= x^4 \\ \phi_5(x^3) &= x^3 \\ \phi_5(x^4) &= x^2 \\ \phi_5(x^5) &= x \end{aligned} \right\}$$

ϕ_5 is bijective
 \Rightarrow auto.

~~Aut(C6)~~ $\text{Aut}(C_6) = \{1, \phi_5\} \quad \phi_5^2 = 1$

$$\text{Aut}(C_6) \cong C_2$$

Proof of Thm: Recall that if $f: A \rightarrow A$ (A finite set)

$$f \text{ bij} \iff f \text{ surj} \iff f \text{ inj.}$$

ϕ_a is an auto iff ϕ_a is surj iff ~~the~~ the powers of x^a exhaust the whole of C_n iff $\text{ord}(x^a) = n$ iff a coprime to n . \square

$$\text{Aut}(C_8) = \{\phi_1, \phi_3, \phi_5, \phi_7\} \text{ a coprime to } 8.$$

$\text{Aut}(C_8)$ has 4 elements. Try it and see which group you get.

$$\text{Aut}(C_9) = \{\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_4, \phi_5, \phi_7, \phi_8\} \text{ which group?}$$

(eg) $\text{Aut}(C_{12})$

$$C_{12} = \{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{11} \mid x^{12} = 1\}$$

$$\text{Aut}(C_{12}) = \{\varphi_1, \varphi_5, \varphi_7, \varphi_{11}\}$$

OK as a set, but we need the group structure

1, 5, 7, 11 are the only coprimes of 12 (residues mod 12) which are coprime to 12

	$\varphi_1 = 1$	φ_5	φ_7	φ_{11}
$\varphi_1 = 1$	φ_1	φ_5	φ_7	φ_{11}
φ_5	φ_5	1	φ_{11}	φ_7
φ_7	φ_7	φ_{11}	1	φ_5
φ_{11}	φ_{11}	φ_7	φ_5	1

$$(\varphi_5)^2? \varphi_5 \varphi_5(x) = \varphi_5(x^5) = (x^5)^5 = x^{25} = x$$

$$\varphi_5^2(x) = x \Rightarrow \varphi_5^2 = \text{Id}$$

$$\varphi_5 \varphi_7(x) = \varphi_5(x)^7 = (x^5)^7 = x^{35} = x^{11}$$

$$\varphi_5 \varphi_{11}(x) = x^{55} = x^7$$

$$\varphi_7 \varphi_5 = (x^7)^5 = x^{35} = x^{11}$$

$$\varphi_7 \varphi_7 = x^{49} = x = \text{Id}$$

Notice it's abelian because it can reflect in diagonal.
group of order 4.

$|\text{Aut}(C_{12})| = 4$. Which group have we got? C_4 or $C_2 \times C_2$?

It's $C_2 \times C_2$. $\text{Aut}(C_{12}) \cong C_2 \times C_2$. Why?

$$C_2 \times C_2 \quad C_2 = \langle 1, x \mid x^2 = 1 \rangle \text{ also } C_2 = \langle 1, y \mid y^2 = 1 \rangle$$

$$(x^a, y^b)(x^c, y^d) = (x^{a+c}, y^{b+d})$$

	$(1,1)$	$(x,1)$	$(1,y)$	(x,y)
$(1,1)$	$(1,1)$	$(x,1)$	$(1,y)$	(x,y)
$(x,1)$	$(x,1)$	$(1,1)$	(x,y)	$(1,y)$
$(1,y)$	$(1,y)$	(x,y)	$(1,1)$	$(x,1)$
(x,y)	(x,y)	$(1,y)$	$(x,1)$	$(1,1)$

$$(x,1)(x,1) = (x^2,1) = (1,1)$$

$$(1,1) \rightarrow 1 = \varphi_1$$

$$(x,1) \rightarrow \varphi_5$$

$$(1,y) \rightarrow \varphi_7$$

$$(x,y) \rightarrow \varphi_{11}$$

is a group

150

How to avoid so many brackets in $G \times H$.

$$C_2 \times C_2 = \{(x^a, y^b) \dots\}$$

Replace $(x,1)$ by X
and $(1,y)$ by Y

$$\text{Can describe } C_2 \times C_2 \text{ as } \{1, X, Y, XY \mid X^2 = 1, Y^2 = 1, YX = XY\}$$

So to describe $\text{Aut}(C_{12})$ simply put $X = \varphi_5, Y = \varphi_7, \varphi_{11} = XY$
 and I do have $X^2 = 1 = Y^2, YX = XY, \text{Aut}(C_{12}) \cong C_2 \times C_2$

(eg) $\text{Aut}(C_{20}) \quad C_{20} = \{1, z, \dots, z^{19} \mid z^{20} = 1\}$

As a set, $\text{Aut}(C_{20}) = \{\varphi_a : a \text{ coprime to } 20\}$
 $\{\varphi_1, \varphi_3, \varphi_7, \varphi_9, \varphi_{11}, \varphi_{13}, \varphi_{17}, \varphi_{19}\}$ group of order 8

We know $C_8, C_4 \times C_2, C_2 \times C_2 \times C_2, D_8, Q_8$ which ones $\text{Aut}(C_{20})$

$\varphi_3^2 = \varphi_9, \varphi_3^3 = \varphi_7, \varphi_{11}^4 = \text{id} = \varphi_1 \Rightarrow$ not $C_2 \times (C_2 \times C_2)$ because every element in that satisfies $x^2 = 1$.

Put $X = \varphi_3, Y = \varphi_{11}$
 $X^4 = 1, Y^2 = 1$

$XY = \varphi_3 \varphi_{11} = \varphi_{33} = \varphi_{13}$
 $X^2Y = \varphi_9 \varphi_{11} = \varphi_{99} = \varphi_{17}$
 $X^3Y = \varphi_7 \varphi_{11} = \varphi_{77} = \varphi_{17}$
 $YX = \varphi_{11} \varphi_3 = \varphi_{13} = XY$
 $\{1, X, X^2, X^3, Y, XY, X^2Y, X^3Y\}$
 $\{\varphi_1, \varphi_3, \varphi_7, \varphi_9, \varphi_{11}, \varphi_{13}, \varphi_{17}, \varphi_{19}\} \quad |\text{Aut}(C_{20})| = 8$

$\text{Aut}(C_{20}) = \{1, X, X^3, X^2, Y, XY, X^2Y, X^3Y \mid X^4 = 1, Y^2 = 1, YX = XY\}$
 $\cong C_4 \times C_2$

Prop: The automorphism group of a cyclic group is always abelian.
 Not true for non-cyclic groups

ff: $\text{Aut}(C_n) = \{\varphi_a : (a, n) = 1\}$ where $n = \{1, x, \dots, x^{n-1}\}$
 $\varphi_a \varphi_b(x) = \varphi_a(x^b) = \varphi_a(x)^b = (x^a)^b = x^{ab} = x^{ba} = (x^b)^a = \varphi_b(x^a) = \varphi_b \varphi_a(x)$
multiplication is commutative

$\Rightarrow \varphi_a \varphi_b(x) = \varphi_b \varphi_a(x)$

Subgroups:

Let $G = (G, \cdot, 1)$ be a group

Let $H \subseteq G$ be a subset

What conditions must H satisfy to be a group itself?

Need i) $1 \in H$

ii) $\forall x, y \in H \quad xy \in H$ - Closure (prop of subgroups, NOT groups)

iii) if $x \in H$ then $x^{-1} \in H$

Defn: Let $H \subseteq G$. G group. Say that H is a subgroup of G when

i) $1 \in H$

ii) $\forall x, y \in H \quad xy \in H$

iii) $\forall x \in H \quad x^{-1} \in H$.

(eg) $G = D_6 = \{1, x, x^2, y, xy, x^2y \mid x^3 = y^2 = 1, yx = x^2y\}$

Is $\{1, x\}$ a subgroup?

no, $x^2 \notin \{1, x\}$
 $x^{-1} = x^2$ doesn't belong to $\{1, x\}$

Is $\{1, x, x^2\}$ a subgroup? Yes.

Is $\{1, y\}$ a subgroup? Yes.

Is $\{1, x, y, xy\}$ a subgroup? No.

In fact the subgroups of D_6 are as follows.

$D_6, \{1\}$ obvious ones.

$\{1, x, x^2\}, \{1, y\}, \{1, xy\}, \{1, x^2y\}$

Orders: 6, 1, 3, 2, 2, 2

order of H

Thm - Lagrange's Thm (Done before but going over again)

Let G be a finite group, and $H \subseteq G$ a subgroup; then $|H|$ divides $|G|$ exactly

In order to prove the thm we need the notion of a COSET

Defn: Let H be a subgroup of G and let $z \in G$

Define $zH = \{zh : h \in H\}$

zH is called the left coset of H by z

Define $Hz = \{hz : h \in H\}$

Hz is called the right coset...

Normally we use left coset

29) $G = D_6 \rightarrow$

Take $H = \{1, y\}$, subgroup.

List the cosets:

$$1H = \{1 \cdot 1, 1 \cdot y\} = \{1, y\} = H$$

$$xH = \{x \cdot 1, x \cdot y\} = \{x, xy\}$$

$$x^2H = \{x^2, x^2y\}$$

$$yH = \{y, 1\} = \{1, y\} = H$$

$$xyH = \{xy, x\} = \{x, xy\}$$

$$x^2yH = \{x^2y, x^2\} = \{x^2, x^2y\}$$

so we have 3 distinct left cosets, each listed twice: $\{1, y\}, \{x, xy\}, \{x^2, x^2y\}$

Defn: H subgroup of G .

$$G/H = \{gH : g \in G\} \quad \text{set of left cosets.}$$

read $G/H : G \text{ mod } H$.

$$H \backslash G = \{Hg : g \in G\} \quad \text{set of right cosets.}$$

So... $H = \{1, y\} \subset D_6 = G$ then

$$G/H = \{\{1, y\}, \{x, xy\}, \{x^2, x^2y\}\}$$

29) $K = \{1, x, x^2\} \subset D_6$

$$1K = xK = x^2K = \{1, x, x^2\}$$

$$yK = xy \cdot K = x^2yK = \{y, xy, x^2y\}$$

check!

Basic Properties of Cosets (left)

Let H be a subgroup of G

Consider wH, zH , ($w, z \in G$)

i) Either $wH = zH$ OR $wH \cap zH = \emptyset$
(i.e. either they're the same or completely different)

Pf of i) enough to prove that if $wH \cap zH \neq \emptyset$ then $wH = zH$.

So suppose $\exists k \in wH \cap zH$

so $\exists h_1 \in H$ $k = wh_1$ and $\exists h_2 \in H$ $k = zh_2$

$$\text{so } w = zh_2h_1^{-1}$$

let $\eta \in wH$, $\eta = wh_3$, some $h_3 \in H$

$$\eta = wh_3 = z(h_2h_1^{-1}h_3) \quad \text{and } h_2h_1^{-1}h_3 \in H \quad \text{so}$$

$\exists z \in H$ i.e. $w \in zH$

By symmetry $z \in wH$

So we show that if $wH \cap zH \neq \emptyset$ then $wH = zH$ \square

ii) Rule of equality for cosets.

When is $g_1H = g_2H$?

Ans: $g_1H = g_2H \iff g_1^{-1}g_2 \in H$

Proof (\Rightarrow) Suppose $g_1H = g_2H$

$$g_2 \in g_2H \quad g_2 = g_2 \cdot 1$$

So $g_2 \in g_1H$ so $g_2 = g_1h$ for some $h \in H$.

$$\text{so } g_1^{-1}g_2 = h \in H \quad \square$$

(\Leftarrow) Suppose $g_1^{-1}g_2 \in H$

$$\text{so } g_1g_1^{-1}g_2 = g_1h \quad g_2 = g_1h \in g_1H$$

but $g_2 \in g_2H$ ($g_2 = g_2 \cdot 1$)

So $g_1H \cap g_2H \neq \emptyset$ so $g_1H = g_2H$ by (i) above. \square

iii) There is a bijective mapping

$$H \rightarrow gH \quad (\text{for any } g \in G)$$

Proof: $\lambda_g: H \rightarrow gH \quad \lambda_g(h) = gh$

λ_g is obviously surjective (by defn of gH)

λ_g is injective $\lambda_g(h_1) = \lambda_g(h_2) \Rightarrow gh_1 = gh_2 \Rightarrow g^{-1}gh_1 = g^{-1}gh_2$
 $\Rightarrow h_1 = h_2 \quad \square$

In numerical terms, (iii) is (iii)'. If H is finite then

$$|gH| = |H| \quad \forall g \in G$$

Corollary (Lagrange)

Let G be a finite group, $H \subset G$ a subgroup. Then $|H|$ divides $|G|$ exactly

Then $|H|$

Proof: Write out the distinct cosets of H : g_1H, g_2H, \dots, g_kH making sure that you don't write the same coset twice.

$\forall g \in G \exists i; g \in g_iH$ (otherwise you've missed a coset)

$$G = \bigcup_{i=1}^k g_i H \quad . \quad g_i H \cap g_j H = \emptyset \quad i \neq j$$

So no double counting.

$$\begin{aligned} |G| &= |g_1 H| + |g_2 H| + \dots + |g_k H| \\ &= |H| + |H| + \dots + |H| \quad k \text{ times.} \end{aligned}$$

$$|G| = k|H| \quad \square.$$

Notice in the above, $k = |G/H| = \text{no. of distinct cosets.}$

So get

Corollary: $|G| = |G/H| |H|$

or $\frac{|G|}{|H|} = |G/H|$

Lagrange's Thm:

Let G be a finite group and $H < G$ a subgroup. Then

- i) $|H|$ divides $|G|$ exactly
- ii) $\frac{|G|}{|H|} = \left| \frac{G}{H} \right| \rightarrow$ no. of distinct (left) cosets of H in G

Corollary: Let p be a prime and let G be a group. $|G| = p$

Then $G \cong C_p$

Pf: Let $x \in G, x \neq 1$. Let $H = \{x^a : a \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

H is a subgroup of $G, H \neq \{1\}, x \neq 1$

$|G| = p$, prime and $|H|$ divides $|G|$. Then $|H| = 1$ or

$|H| = p$. But $|H| \neq 1$ so $|H| = p$.

So $H = \{1, x, \dots, x^{p-1}\} \cong C_p \quad \square$.

n	$G: G = n$	complete?
1	$\{1\}$	✓
2	C_2	✓
3	C_3	✓
4	$C_4, C_2 \times C_2$?
5	C_5	✓
6	C_6, D_6	?
7	C_7	✓
8	$C_8, C_4 \times C_2, C_2 \times C_2 \times C_2, D_8, Q_8$?
9	$C_9, C_3 \times C_3$?
10	$C_{10} (\cong C_5 \times C_2), D_{10}$	
11	C_{11}	✓
12	$C_{12}, C_6 \times C_2, D_{12}, A_4, D_6^* \cong Q_{12}$?
13	C_{13}	✓
14	C_{14}, D_{14}	?

prime have only one group.

Prop $C_m \times C_n$ m, n coprime.

Then $\cong C_{mn}$

PR $\langle X, Y \mid X^m = 1, Y^n = 1, YX = XY \rangle$

Check that $\text{ord}(XY) = mn$.

Kernels and Images

Let $h: G \rightarrow H$ be a group homomorphism.

Define $\text{Ker}(h) = \{g \in G : h(g) = 1\}$ ← using multiplicative notation.

$\text{Im}(h) = \{y \in H : \exists x \in G : h(x) = y\}$

Prop: With the above notation, i) $\text{Ker}(h)$ is a subgroup of G ,
ii) $\text{Im}(h)$ is a subgroup of H .

Pf: i) $1 \in \text{Ker}(h)$ as $h(1) = 1$

If $x_1, x_2 \in \text{Ker}(h)$ $h(x_1) = 1, h(x_2) = 1$ then

$h(x_1 x_2) = h(x_1) h(x_2) = 1 \cdot 1 = 1$. So $x_1 x_2 \in \text{Ker}(h)$

$\Rightarrow x_1 x_2 \in \text{Ker}(h)$ [closed]

If $x \in \text{Ker}(h)$ $h(x) = 1$

$h(x^{-1}) = h(x)^{-1} = 1^{-1} = 1$ so $x^{-1} \in \text{Ker}(h)$ \square

ii) $1 \in \text{Im}(h)$ because $h(1) = 1$

If $y_1, y_2 \in \text{Im}(h)$ then write $h(x_1) = y_1, h(x_2) = y_2$
for some $x_1, x_2 \in G$. Then $h(x_1 x_2) = h(x_1) h(x_2) = y_1 y_2$ so

$y_1 y_2 \in \text{Im}(h)$ [closed].

Finally, $y \in \text{Im}(h)$. Write $y = h(x)$ then

$h(x^{-1}) = h(x)^{-1} = y^{-1}$ so $y^{-1} \in \text{Im}(h)$ $\square \Rightarrow \square$.

$h: G \rightarrow H$.

By Lagrange's Thm: $|\text{Im}(h)|$ divides $|H|$. Also, $|\text{Ker}(h)|$ divides $|G|$

We'll show that $|\text{Im}(h)|$ also divides $|G|$

We'll show:

Thm: Let $h: G \rightarrow H$ be a group homo. Then \exists a bijection:

$$\boxed{G / \text{Ker}(h) \rightarrow \text{Im}(h)}$$

In particular, $|\text{Im}(h)| = \frac{|G|}{|\text{Ker}(h)|}$

or $|\text{Im}(h)| |\text{Ker}(h)| = |G|$

equivalent of Kernel-Rank Thm.

Pf: Put $K = \text{Ker}(h)$ so K is a subgroup of G .

The elements of G/K ($G \text{ mod } K$) are sets of the form:

$xK = \{xk : k \in K\}$ where $x \in G$.

Recall... Rule of Equality

$$x_1 k = x_2 k \iff x_2^{-1} x_1 \in k$$

Define a mapping $h_*: G/k \rightarrow \text{Im}(h)$ as follows.

$h_*(xk) = h(x)$. To complete the proof, need to show

- h_* is well defined
- $h_*: G/k \rightarrow \text{Im}(h)$ injective
- $h_*: G/k \rightarrow \text{Im}(h)$ surj.

Proof: a) Suppose $x_1 k = x_2 k$. Need to show that $h(x_1) = h(x_2)$. If $x_1 k = x_2 k$ from Rule of Eq., we know $x_2^{-1} x_1 \in k = \ker(h)$. So apply h to $x_2^{-1} x_1$.

$h(x_2^{-1} x_1) = 1$ because it belongs in $\ker(h)$.

so $h(x_2^{-1}) h(x_1) = 1$ so $h(x_2)^{-1} h(x_1) = 1$

so $h(x_1) = h(x_2)$ \square .

b) Suppose $h_*(x_1 k) = h_*(x_2 k)$ then $h(x_1) = h(x_2)$ so $h(x_2)^{-1} h(x_1) = 1$ so $h(x_2^{-1} x_1) = 1$ so $x_2^{-1} x_1 \in k$

$\implies x_1 k = x_2 k$. \square

c) is obvious.

If $y \in \text{Im}(h)$ write $y = h(x)$ so $h_*(xk) = y$ $\square \implies \square$.

Corollary: if $h: G \rightarrow H$ is a group homo, then

$|\text{Im}(h)|$ divides both $|G|$ and $|H|$.

We'll apply this as follows. Suppose $n \geq 1$ and Γ some finite group. Want to be able to write down all homomorphisms $h: C_n \rightarrow \Gamma$

$$C_n = \{1, y, \dots, y^{n-1}\}$$

$$\text{Im}(h) = \{1, h(y), \dots, h(y)^{n-1}\} \text{ possibly with repetitions.}$$

Need $\text{ord}(h(y))$ to divide both $|\Gamma|$ (ok by Lagrange) and also n (by last result)

$$C_4 = \{1, y, y^2, y^3 \mid y^4 = 1\} \xrightarrow{h} C_6 = \{1, \dots, x^5 \mid x^6 = 1\}$$

i) $h(1) = 1$
 $h(y) = x$? No.
 $h(y^2) = h(y^2) = x^2$
 $h(y^3) = x^3$
 $h(y^4) = x^4$
 so $h(1) = x^4 \neq 1$

ii) $h(1) = 1$
 $h(y) = x^4$? No.
 $h(y^2) = x^8 = x^2$
 $h(y^3) = x^{12} = 1$
 $h(y^4) = x^4$
 ~~$h(y^5) = x^2$~~
 ~~$h(y^6) = 1$~~
 $y^4 = 1$ and $x^4 \neq 1$ so

iii) $h(1) = 1$
 $h(y) = x^3$? YES
 $h(y^2) = 1$
 $h(y^3) = x^3$
 $h(y^4) = 1$ ∇

$h(y^m) = x^{3m}$ gives a homo.

i) $\text{ord } y = 4$
 $\text{ord } x = 6$

6 doesn't divide 4.

ii) $\text{ord } x^4 = 3$, 3 doesn't divide 4.

Thm: Let Γ be a finite group, $\gamma \in \Gamma$. Then \exists homomorphism

$$h: C_n \rightarrow \Gamma \text{ st } h(y) = \gamma$$

$$\{1, y, \dots, y^{n-1}\} \text{ iff } \text{ord}(\gamma) \text{ divides } n.$$

Pf: Write $\text{ord}(\gamma) = m$. $\langle \gamma \rangle = \{1, \dots, \gamma^{m-1}\}$ is a subgroup of order m .

Suppose \exists homo $h: C_n \rightarrow \Gamma$ st $h(y) = \gamma$.

Then $\text{Im}(h) = \langle \gamma \rangle$ and we know $|\text{Im}(h)|$ divides n .

(last thm) so if $\exists h: C_n \rightarrow \Gamma$ such that $h(y) = \gamma$ then $\text{ord}(\gamma)$ must divide n . Conversely, if $\gamma \in \Gamma$ is such that

$\text{ord}(\gamma)$ divides n then define

$$h_\gamma: C_n \rightarrow \Gamma \text{ by } h_\gamma(y^r) = \gamma^{\lfloor r/n \rfloor}$$

Then h_γ is a homo.

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} h_\gamma(y^a) = \gamma^a \\ h_\gamma(y^b) = \gamma^b \end{array} \right\} h_\gamma(y^{a+b}) = \gamma^{a+b} = \gamma^a \gamma^b = h_\gamma(y^a) h_\gamma(y^b) \quad \square$$

$$yx = x^2y$$

$$yxy^{-1} = x^2$$

Operator homomorphism:

Suppose G is a group. $Q \subset G$ is a subgroup.

Consider $z \rightarrow qzq^{-1}$, $q \in Q$??

Define $c: Q \rightarrow \text{Aut}(G)$

$$c(q)(z) = qzq^{-1}$$

Prop: Let G be a group, $q \in G$. Then the mapping

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} G \rightarrow G \\ z \mapsto qzq^{-1} \end{array} \right\} \text{ is an automorphism of } G.$$

$$C_q(z) = qzq^{-1}, \quad C_q \in \text{Aut}(G)$$

Proof: • C_q is a homo.

$$C_q(z_1 z_2) = q(z_1 z_2)q^{-1} = (qz_1q^{-1})(qz_2q^{-1}) = C_q(z_1)C_q(z_2)$$

and C_q is a homo as claimed.

• C_q is injective $C_q(z_1) = C_q(z_2)$

$$qz_1q^{-1} = qz_2q^{-1} \quad : \text{ left multiply by } q^{-1}, \text{ right by } q$$

$$q^{-1}qz_1q^{-1}q = q^{-1}qz_2q^{-1}q \Rightarrow z_1 = z_2$$

$$C_q(z_1) = C_q(z_2) \Rightarrow z_1 = z_2.$$

• C_q is surj:

$$\text{if } z \in G \text{ write } w = q^{-1}zq$$

$$C_q(w) = qq^{-1}zqq^{-1} = z \text{ so } C_q: G \rightarrow G \text{ is an automorphism. } \square$$

Prop: Let G be a group, Q subgroup. $Q \subset G$.

Consider the mapping $c: Q \rightarrow \text{Aut}(G)$

$(c(q) = C_q)$ Then c is a homo.

composition.

Proof: Let $q_1, q_2 \in Q$. Need to show $c(q_1 q_2) = C_{q_1} \circ C_{q_2}$

$$C_{q_1 q_2}(z) = (q_1 q_2)(z)(q_1 q_2)^{-1} \quad \text{but } (q_1 q_2)^{-1} = q_2^{-1} q_1^{-1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{so } C_{q_1 q_2}(z) &= q_1(q_2 z q_2^{-1})q_1^{-1} = C_{q_1}(q_2 z q_2^{-1}) = C_{q_1}(C_{q_2}(z)) \\ &= (C_{q_1} \circ C_{q_2})(z) \quad \square. \end{aligned}$$

$$G = D_6 = \{1, x, x^2, y, xy, x^2y\}$$

$$Q = \{1, y\} = C_2$$

$$\text{Get } c: C_2 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(G)$$

$$\text{conjugation } c_y(g) = ygy^{-1} \quad \text{homomorphism}$$

Defn: A subgroup K of G is said to be normal in G ($K \triangleleft G$) when for each $g \in G$ each $k \in K$

$$gkg^{-1} \in K \quad \{1, x, x^2\} \triangleleft D_6.$$

Actually got $c: C_2 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_3) \quad y \mapsto \tau \quad \tau(x) = x^2$

$$c(y)(x) = yxy^{-1} = x^2$$

2) i) $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$ injective homo

$$\text{if } x^n = 1 \quad \varphi(x^n) = \varphi(x)^n$$

$$\varphi(1) = 1 \Rightarrow \varphi(x)^n = 1$$

$\text{ord } \varphi(x) \leq \text{ord}(x)$ because INJECTIVE

Suppose $1 \leq \text{ord } \varphi(x) < n$

$$\text{then } \exists r, 1 \leq r < n \quad \varphi(x)^r = 1 \quad \varphi(x^r) = 1^{(*)}$$

$$\text{but also } \varphi(1) = 1^{(**)}$$

$(*)$ and $(**)$ φ injective so $x^r = 1$ and $r < n$ contradicts defn of order(x)

vi) $C_3 \times C_4 \cong C_{12}$? Yes but why

Got to produce an explicit isomorphism

$$C_3 = \{1, x, x^2\} \quad C_4 = \{1, y, y^2, y^3\} \quad C_{12} = \{1, z, \dots, z^{11}\}$$

$$C_{12} \rightarrow C_3 \times C_4$$

Define	$\varphi(1) = (1, 1)$	$\varphi(z^6) = (1, y^2)$
	$\varphi(z) = (x, y)$	$\varphi(z^7) = (x, y^3)$
	$\varphi(z^2) = (x^2, y^2)$	$\varphi(z^8) = (x^2, 1)$
	$\varphi(z^3) = (1, y^3)$	$\varphi(z^9) = (1, y)$
	$\varphi(z^4) = (x, 1)$	$\varphi(z^{10}) = (x, y^2)$
	$\varphi(z^5) = (x^2, y)$	$\varphi(z^{11}) = (x^2, y^3)$

$$\varphi(z^a) = (x, y)^a$$

$$\varphi(z^a z^b) = \varphi(z^{a+b}) = (x, y)^{a+b} = (x, y)^a (x, y)^b = \varphi(z^a) \varphi(z^b)$$

so φ is a homo and bijective

Many people observed that if $G = C_{12}$ $H = C_3 \times C_4$
then $|G(n)| = |H(n)| \quad \forall n$.

In general it is false that if $|G(n)| = |H(n)| \forall n$ then $G \cong H$.

I'll show that if p is an odd prime and $|G| = 2p$ then either $G \cong C_{2p}$ or $G \cong D_{2p}$

Prop: let G be a group in which each element g satisfies $g^2 = 1$. Then G is abelian.

Pf: let $x, y \in G$. I have to show $yx = xy$. I know that $x^2 = 1$, so $x^{-1} = x$. Also $y^2 = 1$ so $y^{-1} = y$. Also $(xy)^2 = 1$ so $(xy)^{-1} = xy$. But $(xy)^{-1} = y^{-1}x^{-1}$ and in this case $y^{-1} = y, x^{-1} = x$ so $(xy)^{-1} = yx$. But $(xy)^{-1} = xy = yx$. \square

We can improve on this:

Better Result: let G be a finite group in which $\forall g \in G, g^2 = 1$

Then i) $G \cong \underbrace{C_2 \times C_2 \times \dots \times C_2}_n$ for some n .

so ii) $|G| = 2^n$

Pf: know that G is abelian so I will temporarily use additive notation.

$$g^2 = 1 \Rightarrow g + g = 0 \quad (= 2g)$$

So regard G as a vector space over field $\mathbb{F}_2 = \{0, 1\}$

Apply Basis Thm. Then as a vector space:

$$G \cong \underbrace{\mathbb{F}_2 \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{F}_2}_n \quad n = \dim_{\mathbb{F}_2} G$$

As groups $G \cong \underbrace{\mathbb{F}_2 \times \dots \times \mathbb{F}_2}_n$ so $|G| = |\underbrace{\mathbb{F}_2 \times \dots \times \mathbb{F}_2}_n| = 2^n$

$$\mathbb{F}_2 \cong \begin{matrix} C_2 \\ \text{additive} \quad \text{mult.} \end{matrix}$$

$$\text{So } G \cong \underbrace{C_2 \times \dots \times C_2}_n \quad \square$$

$$\{0, 1\} = \{1, 0\}$$

$$\begin{matrix} 0 & \rightarrow & 1 \\ 1 & \rightarrow & x \end{matrix}$$

Now let G be a finite group $|G| = 2p$ where p is odd prime.

claim (I) G has an element of order p

and (II) G has an element of order 2.

Proof I: If $z \in G$ known (by Lagrange)
 either $\text{ord}(z) = 1$ $z = 1$ or $\text{ord}(z) = 2$ or $\text{ord}(z) = p$ or $\text{ord}(z) = 2p$,
 non trivial

If $z \neq 1$ then
 It cannot be true that every $z \in G, z \neq 1$ has $\text{ord}(z) = 2$
 Otherwise $|G| = 2^n$ (by last result) so suppose $z \in G, z \neq 1, \text{ord}(z) \neq 2$.
 Either $\text{ord}(z) = p$ and we've proved I or $\text{ord}(z) = 2p$ then $\text{ord}(z^2) = p$. Either way, I is true \square .
 ($z^{2p} = 1, (z^2)^p = 1$)

Proof II: Let $z \in G, \text{ord}(z) = p$.

Put $K = \{1, z, \dots, z^{p-1}\} \cong C_p$ is a subgroup of G .

$|G/K| = 2, G = K \cup gK$ for some $g \in G, g \notin K$

(\cup : disjoint union: $G = K \cup gK, K \cap gK = \emptyset$)

Suppose $\gamma \in gK$. Then $\gamma^2 \in K$ (claim) ($\gamma K \neq K$)

Otherwise $\gamma^2 \in gK, \gamma^2 K = \gamma K$

and $\gamma^{-1} \gamma^2 K = \gamma^{-1} \gamma K$

$\gamma K = K$ \times .

So if $\gamma \notin K$ then $\gamma^2 \in K$, what are possibilities for γ^2 ?

$\{1, z, z^2, \dots, z^{p-1}\}$

If $\gamma^2 = 1$ then $\text{ord}(\gamma) = 2$. Finished

If $\gamma^2 = z^a, 1 \leq a \leq p-1, \text{ord}(\gamma^2) = p$

so $\text{ord}(\gamma) = 2p$ so $\text{ord}(\gamma^p) = 2$

either way, have an element of order 2 \square .

So we're trying to prove that if $|G| = 2p$ then $G \cong C_{2p}$ or $G \cong D_{2p}$ \square .

Shown G has an element $x, \text{ord}(x) = p$
 " " " " $y, \text{ord}(y) = 2$

Take $K = \{1, x, \dots, x^{p-1}\}$

$G = K \cup yK, y \notin K$

also $G = K \cup Ky$

so $yK = Ky$ \square

Get a map $h_y: K \rightarrow K$
 $x^a \mapsto yx^a y^{-1}$

$h_y = \text{Inn } y$

$$h_y(k) = yky^{-1}$$

h_y is an automorphism of K

$$h_y(k_1 k_2) = y(k_1 k_2) y^{-1} = (y k_1 y^{-1}) (y k_2 y^{-1}) = h_y(k_1) h_y(k_2)$$

homomorphism

$h_y^2 = \text{Id}$ so BIJECTIVE.

So $h_y \in \text{Aut}(K) \cong \text{Aut}(C_p)$ and $h_y^2 = \text{Id}$

Prop: let $\alpha: C_p \rightarrow C_p$ be an automorphism s.t. $\alpha^2 = \text{Id}$
 Then either $\alpha = \text{Id}$ or $\alpha(x) = x^{-1}$.

Proof: let $x \in C_p$ be generator.

Put $z = \alpha(x)x \in C_p$. Then $\text{ord}(z) = 1$ or $\text{ord}(z) = p$.

$\text{ord}(z) = 1$ means $z = 1$ i.e. $\alpha(x) = x^{-1}$

If $\text{ord}(z) = p$ then z generates C_p , and $\alpha(z) = \alpha(\alpha(x)x)$
 $= \alpha^2(x)\alpha(x) = x\alpha(x)$, $\alpha^2 = \text{Id}$, $= x\alpha(x)$

But C_p abelian so $x\alpha(x) = \alpha(x)x = z$ SO

$\alpha(z) = z$ Hence $\alpha = \text{Id}$ \square .

Thm: let p be an odd prime. ~~then~~ $|G| = 2p$.

Then either $G \cong D_{2p}$ or $G \cong C_{2p}$.

PF: let $x \in G$ have $\text{order}(x) = p$

$y \in G$. . . $\text{ord}(y) = 2$

Consider $\alpha = h_y: K \rightarrow K$ $K = \{1, x, \dots, x^{p-1}\}$

$\alpha^2 = \text{Id}$ so either

$\alpha(x) = x^{-1}$ or $\alpha(x) = x$

$\alpha = h_y$ $\alpha(x) = yxy^{-1}$ so either

$$yxy^{-1} = x^{-1}$$

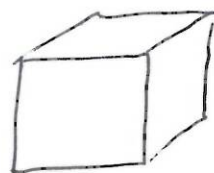
$$yxy^{-1} = x^{p-1}$$

$$G \cong D_{2p}$$

$$\text{or } yxy^{-1} = x$$

$$\Downarrow yx = xy$$

$$G \cong C_p \times C_2 \cong C_{2p}$$



n	G	COM PLETE?
1	1	✓
2	C_2	✓
3	C_3	✓
4	$C_4, C_2 \times C_2$?
5	C_5	✓
6	C_6, D_6	✓
7	C_7	✓
8	$C_8, C_4 \times C_2, C_2 \times C_2 \times C_2, Q_8, D_8$?
9	$C_9, C_3 \times C_3$?
10	C_{10}, D_{10}	✓
11	C_{11}	✓
12	-----	
13	C_{13}	✓
14	C_{14}, D_{14}	✓
15	C_{15}	?

To show $|G| = 2p \Rightarrow G \cong D_{2p}$ and $G \cong C_{2p}$

We constructed within G two subgroups $K = \{1, x, \dots, x^{p-1} \mid x^p = 1\}$

$Q = \{1, y \mid y^2 = 1\}$

The point at issue was

Defn $yx = ? = x^a y$

Semidirect product

$$K \rtimes_h Q$$

Data: (i) Groups K, Q

(ii) a homomorphism $h: Q \rightarrow \text{Aut}(K)$

auto acting on K

Try to define a multiplication on $K \times Q$ (cross)

$$K \rtimes_h Q$$

$$* : (K \times Q) \times (K \times Q) \rightarrow (K \times Q)$$

$h(q_1)(k_2)$

$$(k_1, q_1) * (k_2, q_2) = (k_1 \cdot h(q_1)(k_2), q_1 q_2)$$

standard mult

$h(q_1) \in \text{Aut}(K)$ so $h(q_1)$ acts on $k_2 \in K$ to give $h(q_1)(k_2) \in K$

Set as a lemma that $*$ is a group mult on the set $K \times Q$

Prop: $(1, 1)$ is the identity for $K \rtimes_h Q$

Pf: $(1, 1) * (k, q) = (1 \cdot h(1)(k), 1 \cdot q) = (k, q)$

$h: Q \rightarrow \text{Aut}(K)$ is a homo so $h(1) = \text{id}$. so $h(1)(k) = k$

so $(1, 1)$ is left identity

$(k, q) * (1, 1) = (k \cdot h(q)(1), q \cdot 1)$ But $h(q) \in \text{Aut}(K)$ so $h(q)(1) = 1$

$= (k \cdot 1, q \cdot 1) = (k, q) \Rightarrow (1, 1)$ is the right identity.

$k_1, k_2 \in K, q_1, q_2 \in Q$

There are 4 special products

(I) $(k_1, 1) * (k_2, 1)$

(II) $(k_1, 1) * (1, q_1)$

(III) $(1, q_1) * (k_1, 1) \leftarrow !!$

(IV) $(1, q_1) * (1, q_2)$

(I), (II) and (IV) cause no surprise.

(I) $(k, 1) * (k_2, 1) = (k, k_2, 1)$

Pf: $(k, 1) * (k_2, 1) = (k, h(1)(k_2), 1 \cdot 1) = (k, k_2, 1)$

$h(1) = \text{id} \in \text{Aut}(K)$ so $h(1)(k_2) = k_2$

(II) $(k, 1) * (1, q) = (k, q)$

Pf: $(k, 1) * (1, q) = (k, h(1)(1), 1 \cdot q) = (k, q)$

(IV) $(1, q_1) * (1, q_2) = (1, q_1 q_2)$

Pf: $(1 \cdot h(q_1)(1), q_1 \cdot q_2)$

$h(q_1)$ is an ~~auto~~ auto of K so $h(q_1)(1) = 1$.

$= (1, q_1 q_2) \square$

eg of a "crucial calculation" like III

$K = C_3 = \{1, x, x^2\}$ $Q = C_2 = \{1, y\}$

I know $\text{Aut}(K) = \text{Aut}(C_3) \cong C_2 = \{1, \tau\}$ where $\tau(x) = x^2$

Let $h: C_2 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_3)$ || h is nontrivial homomorphism.

$h(1) = 1$ $h(y) = \tau$

Form $C_3 \rtimes_h C_2$

Crucial calculation:

$(1, y) * (x, 1) = (1 \cdot h(y)(x), y \cdot 1) = (\tau(x), y) = (x^2, y)$

If I now write $X = (x, 1)$ $Y = (1, y)$

$Y * X = (x^2, y) = (x^2, 1) * (1, y) = X^2 * Y \Rightarrow Y * X = X^2 * Y = D_6$

Question: What happens if I take the trivial homo

$\eta: C_2 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_3)$ $\eta(1) = 1, \eta(y) = 1$

Form $C_3 \rtimes_\eta C_2$ and do crucial calc

$Y * X = (1, y) * (x, 1) = (1 \cdot \eta(y)(x), y \cdot 1) = (x, y)$ $(\eta(y) = \text{id} \Rightarrow \eta(y)(x) = x)$
 $= (x, y) = (x, 1) * (1, y) = X * Y$ $X^3 = 1 \quad Y^2 = 1$

With the trivial homo we get the direct product $C_3 \times C_2$

→ Always the case

Prp: If $h: Q \rightarrow \text{Aut}(K)$ is a trivial homo then $K \rtimes_h Q = K \times Q$

Direct product.

Pf: Do the crucial calc.

$$(1, q) * (k, 1) = (1 \cdot h(q)(k), q \cdot 1) = (k, q) = (k, 1) * (1, q) \quad \square.$$

Because $h(q) = \text{Id}$ (Trivial)

So now we can reconstruct some new groups.....

Nonabelian group of order 21

$$21 = 7 \cdot 3 \quad \text{Take } K = C_7, \quad Q = C_3$$

Now we need homos $h: C_3 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_7) \cong C_6$

In fact, $\text{Aut}(C_7) = \{ \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4, \alpha_5, \alpha_6 \}$

$$\text{Put } \alpha = \alpha_3 \quad \alpha^2 = \alpha_4 = \alpha_2 \pmod{7}$$

$$\alpha^3 = \alpha_6 \quad \alpha^4 = \alpha_5 \quad \alpha^5 = \alpha_1 \quad \alpha^6 = 1$$

$$\text{Aut}(C_7) = \{ \text{Id}, \alpha^2, \alpha, \alpha^4, \alpha^5, \alpha^3 \}$$

Now for homos $C_3 \rightarrow C_6 (= \text{Aut}(C_7))$

$$h_1: \begin{array}{l} 1 \rightarrow 1 \\ y \rightarrow \alpha^2 \\ y^2 \rightarrow \alpha^4 \end{array} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \alpha, \text{ order } 6 \nmid 3 \text{ no. so } y \rightarrow \alpha^2 \end{array} \right. \left. \vphantom{h_1} \right\} \text{non trivial}$$

$$h_2: \begin{array}{l} 1 \rightarrow 1 \\ y \rightarrow \alpha^4 \\ y^2 \rightarrow \alpha^2 \end{array} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \alpha^3 \text{ ord } 2 \nmid 3 \text{ ord } \alpha^4 = 3 \quad 3 \mid 3 \text{ so yes} \end{array} \right. \left. \vphantom{h_2} \right\}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} 1 \rightarrow 1 \\ y \rightarrow 1 \\ y^2 \rightarrow 1 \end{array} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{trivial} \end{array} \right.$$

So let's take $h_1: C_3 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_7)$ $h_1(y) = \alpha^2$

from $C_7 \rtimes_{h_1} C_3$ and do the crucial calc

$$(1, y) * (x, 1) = (1, h_1(y)(x), y \cdot 1) = (\alpha^2, y) = (\alpha^2, 1)(1, y)$$

$$h_1(y) = \alpha^2 \quad \alpha^2(x) = (\varphi_2(x)) = x^2$$

$$\Rightarrow YX = X^2Y$$

So we have a new group $G(21)$ with following generators X, Y and relations $X^7 = 1, Y^3 = 1, YX = X^2Y$

Question: What happens if we take

$$h_2: C_3 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_7)$$

We have three homos $C_3 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_7)$

• $h_0 =$ trivial homo

$$C_7 \rtimes_{h_0} C_3 \quad \text{generators } X, Y \quad X^7 = 1, Y^3 = 1, YX = XY$$

$$C_7 \times C_3 \cong C_{21} \quad \text{Abelian}$$

• $h_1: C_3 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_7)$ $h_1(y) = \varphi_2 (= \alpha^2)$ nonabelian

$$C_7 \rtimes_{h_1} C_3 \quad X^7 = Y^3 = 1 \quad \text{but now } YX = X^2Y$$

• $h_2: C_3 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_7)$ $h_2(y) = \varphi_4 (= \alpha^4)$ $h_2(y)(x) = x^4$

$$\text{Crucial calc gives } YX = X^4Y, \quad X^7 = Y^3 = 1. \quad \text{nonabelian}$$

APPARENTLY we get 3 semidirect products.

$$C_7 \times C_3, \quad \langle X, Y \mid X^7 = 1 = Y^3, YX = XY \rangle \quad C_7 \rtimes_{h_0} C_3$$

$$C_7 \rtimes_{h_1} C_3 \quad \langle X, Y \mid X^7 = Y^3 = 1, YX = X^2Y \rangle \quad G(21)$$

$$C_7 \rtimes_{h_2} C_3 \quad \langle X, Y \mid X^7 = Y^3 = 1, YX = X^4Y \rangle \quad G(21)'$$

In fact,

$$\text{Prop: } G(21)' \cong G(21)$$

Pf: $C_3 = \langle \cancel{y}, y^2 \rangle$ and I chose y
 $= \langle 1, z, z^2 \rangle$ where $z = y^2$ $(y^2)^2 = y$

For $h_1: C_3 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_7)$

$$h_1(y) = \varphi_2 \text{ so}$$

$$h_1(z) = \varphi_4 = \varphi_2^2$$

For $h_2: C_3 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_7)$

$$h_2(y) = \varphi_4$$

$$h_2(z) = \varphi_2 = \varphi_4^2$$

Let's redo crucial calc for $C_2 \times_{h_1} C_3$ using z instead of y .

$$(1, z) \times (x, 1) = (h_1(z)(x), z) = (\varphi_4(x), z) = (x^4, z)$$

$$\text{so I get } zx = x^4z.$$

I can also describe $C_7 \times_{h_1} C_3$ by generators

$$\langle X, Z ; X^7 = Z^3 = 1, ZX = X^4Z \rangle$$

so switching generator $y \leftrightarrow z$ in C_3 switches the descriptions $G(21) \leftrightarrow G(21)^2$

So ~~nevertheless~~ ^{enough} there are apparently 3 groups, there are only 2, up to isomorphism.

Recognition Criterion

"How can you tell whether G is a semidirect product?"

Thm: Let G be a finite group and suppose that G has subgroups K, Q with the following properties

i) K is normal in G ($K \triangleleft G$)

ii) $K \cap Q = \{1\}$

iii) $|K||Q| = |G|$

Then for some homo $h: Q \rightarrow \text{Aut}(K)$ it is true that

$$G \cong K \rtimes_h Q$$

Before the proof need to remind you about normal subgroups.

Normality There are a number of different ways of saying this:

$K \triangleleft G$ subgroup of G .

Defn: $\boxed{\forall g \in G \quad gK = Kg} \quad (I)$

In terms of elements this is equivalent to

$\boxed{\forall g \in G \quad \forall k \in K \quad gkg^{-1} \in K} \quad (II)$

Prop: $(I) \Leftrightarrow (II)$

Pf: Suppose (I) let $g \in G, k \in K$. Then $gk \in gK$.

But $gK = Kg$ so $gk = k_1g$ for some $k_1 \in K$.

$gk g^{-1} = k_1 \in K$ so $(I) \Rightarrow (II)$

Suppose (II) , and let $g \in G$ $gK = \{gk : k \in K\}$

$Kg = \{k'g : k' \in K\}$ If $gk \in gK$ consider $gk g^{-1}$

By hyp (II) , $gk g^{-1} \in K$ so $gk g^{-1} = k'$ for some k'

$gk = k'g \in Kg$ so $gK \subset Kg$

If $k'g \in Kg$ $g^{-1}k'g \in K$ by hypothesis

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

so $k'g \in gK$ $Kg \subset gK$ so $gK \subset Kg \subset gK$ $(gK = Kg)$

SO $(I) \Leftrightarrow (II)$

There is an even better way of thinking about normality

Suppose Q subgroup of G . Get homo: $c : Q \rightarrow \text{Aut}(G)$

$c(g)(x) = gxg^{-1}$. Taking $Q=G$, $c(g)(x) = gxg^{-1}$ ← conjugation by g .

Prop: $K \triangleleft G$ iff for every $g \in G$, $c(g)(K) = K$, normal subgroups are "stable" under conjugation.

Proof: $c(g)(K) = gKg^{-1}$

K is normal $\Leftrightarrow gK = Kg \Leftrightarrow gKg^{-1} = K \quad \square$.

In terms of elements,

$$\boxed{c(g)(k) \in k \quad \forall g \in G.}$$

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

so

Prop: If $\boxed{K \triangleleft G}$ and $Q \leq G$ is a subgroup
we get a homo.

$$c: Q \rightarrow \text{Aut}(K)$$

$$\boxed{c(g)(k) = gkg^{-1}}$$

$$D_{10} = \langle x, y \mid x^5 = y^2 = 1, yx = x^4y \rangle$$

$$H = \{1, y\} \quad K = \{1, x, x^2, x^3, x^4\}$$

$$H \triangleleft D_{10} \quad K \triangleleft D_{10}$$

There are more subgroups... $\{1\} \triangleleft D_{10}$ $D_{10} \triangleleft D_{10}$

$$\left\{ \{1, xy\}, \{1, x^2y\}, \{1, x^3y\}, \{1, x^4y\} \right\} \triangleleft D_{10}$$

↑
all isomorphic to C_2 .

$$x \{1, xy\} = \{x, x^2y\} \quad \text{not equal.}$$

$$\{1, xy\}x = \{x, y\}$$

$$\cancel{g} \in D_{10}, \quad \cancel{g} D_{10} = D_{10}$$

for any $g \in G, G \triangleleft G$.

~~G~~ $\text{Aut}(C_2 \times C_2)$

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &\rightarrow 1 \\ x &\rightarrow x \\ y &\rightarrow y \\ xy &\rightarrow xy \\ 1 &\rightarrow 1 \\ x &\rightarrow x \\ y &\rightarrow y \\ xy &\rightarrow xy \end{aligned}$$

$$y^2 = 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} &x \\ & \cdot \\ & \cdot \\ & \cdot \\ 1 & \quad 1 \\ x & \rightarrow x \\ y & \rightarrow y \\ xy & \rightarrow xy \end{aligned}$$

$$C_2 = \{1, x\} \quad C_2 = \{1, y\}$$

$$C_2 \times C_2 \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$x^3 = 1$$

$$yx = x^2y$$

~~\mathbb{Z}~~

~~Helena~~

$$(4) \text{Aut}(C_2 \times C_2) \cong D_6$$

City slickers method:

$$C_2 \times C_2 \cong \mathbb{F}_2 \oplus \mathbb{F}_2$$

\mathbb{F}_2 field with 2 elements 0,1.

$$\text{Aut}(C_2 \times C_2) \cong \text{Aut}(\mathbb{F}_2^2) = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{invertible } 2 \times 2 \text{ matrices } / \mathbb{F}_2 \\ GL_2(\mathbb{F}_2) \end{array} \right\}$$

16 2×2 matrices / \mathbb{F}_2

~~$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$~~

~~$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$~~ ~~$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$~~ ~~$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$~~ ~~$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$~~

~~$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$~~ ~~$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$~~ ~~$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$~~ ~~$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$~~

~~$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$~~ ~~$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$~~ ~~$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$~~ ~~$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$~~

~~$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$~~

Tick the invertible ones

$$|\text{Aut}(C_2 \times C_2)| = 6$$

Take $x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ $y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $y^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$x^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = x^2 \quad x^3 = 1$$

$$x^2 y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = y x \quad \text{so } \text{Aut}(C_2 \times C_2) = D_6$$

$$\text{Aut}(C_3 \times C_3) \cong GL_2(\mathbb{F}_3) = 2 \times 2 \text{ invertible } / \mathbb{F}_3$$

$$\text{Aut}(C_2 \times C_3 \times C_2) \cong \underbrace{GL_3(\mathbb{F}_2)}_{168 \text{ elements}} = 3 \times 3 \text{ invertible } / \mathbb{F}_2$$

~~Let $(G, \cdot) \cong D_n$
 City slickers~~

Recognition Criterion

Let G be a finite group and suppose that

- i) K, Q are subgroups of G
- ii) $K \triangleleft G$
- iii) $K \cap Q = \{1\}$
- iv) $|K||Q| = |G|$

Then $G \cong K \rtimes_h Q$ for some homo $h: Q \rightarrow \text{Aut}(K)$

Proof: Define $h: Q \rightarrow \text{Aut}(K)$ by $h(q)(k) = qkq^{-1}$

Because $K \triangleleft G$, this is well defined.

h is a homomorphism.

$$\begin{aligned} h(q_1 q_2)(k) &= (q_1 q_2) k (q_1 q_2)^{-1} = q_1 [q_2 k q_2^{-1}] q_1^{-1} \\ &= h(q_1)(q_2 k q_2^{-1}) = h(q_1)[h(q_2)(k)] = [h(q_1) \circ h(q_2)](k) \\ &\Rightarrow h(q_1 q_2)(k) = [h(q_1) \circ h(q_2)](k) \quad \text{so homo.} \end{aligned}$$

So $K \rtimes_h Q$ is now defined.

Define a mapping $\Phi: K \rtimes_h Q \rightarrow G$ $\Phi(k, q) = kq$ (product in G)

I claim that Φ is an isomorphism.

Got to show a) Φ is a homo b) Φ is inj c) Φ is surj

Consider $(k_1, q_1) * (k_2, q_2)$ product $K \rtimes_h Q$

"
 $(k_1, h(q_1)(k_2), q_1 q_2)$ and apply Φ

$$\Phi[(k_1, q_1) * (k_2, q_2)] = \Phi[k_1, h(q_1)(k_2), q_1 q_2] = k_1, h(q_1)(k_2) q_1 q_2$$

$$= k_1 (q_1 k_2 q_1^{-1}) q_1 q_2 = k_1 q_1 k_2 q_2 \Rightarrow \Phi[(k_1, q_1) * (k_2, q_2)] = k_1 q_1 k_2 q_2$$

But $\Phi(k_1, q_1) \Phi(k_2, q_2) = k_1 q_1 k_2 q_2$

so $\Phi[(k_1, q_1)(k_2, q_2)] = \Phi(k_1, q_1) \Phi(k_2, q_2)$

i.e. Φ is indeed a homo a.

b) Φ inj. Suppose $\Phi(k_1, q_1) = \Phi(k_2, q_2)$

Let's show $k_1 = k_2$ and $q_1 = q_2 \Rightarrow k_1 q_1 = k_2 q_2$

so... $k_2^{-1} k_1 = q_2 q_1^{-1}$ (= η say)

$\eta = k_2^{-1} k_1$ so $\eta \in K$ } K, Q subgroups
 and $\eta = q_2 q_1^{-1}$ so $\eta \in Q$ }

so $\eta \in K \cap Q$ But $K \cap Q = \{1\}$ so $\eta = 1$

$\Rightarrow k_2^{-1} k_1 = 1$ and $q_2 q_1^{-1} = 1 \Rightarrow k_1 = k_2 \quad q_1 = q_2$ b.

c) Φ surj

$\Phi: K \times_h Q \rightarrow G$ is inj.

But $|K \times_h G| = |K| |G| = |G|$ so Φ is an injective map
 between two finite sets of same cardinal, so Φ is automatically surj c.

To apply Recog Crt we need to be able to find subgroups

$K, Q \leq G$ s.t.

(eg) In classifications of groups of order $2p$ (p odd prime) we spent a lot of time showing

1) \exists subgroup of order $p = K$ } obs $K \cap Q = \{1\}$

2) \exists " " " " $2 = Q$ }

what I effectively showed was that $|G| = 2p$ then $G \cong C_p \times_h C_2$

so we come to

Sylow's Thm (pronounced "seal-off")

Let G be a finite group st $|G| = kp^n$

p is prime, k coprime to p , $p \nmid k$. Then

i) G has at least one subgroup of order p^n
ii) If $N_p =$ no of subgrps of order p^n then $N_p \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

iii) N_p divides $|G|$ exactly.

iv) If P is subgrp $|P| = p^n$, $P' = p^m$ $m < n$ then
 $\exists g \in G$ $gP'g^{-1} \subset P'$.

eg) Sylow counting $|G| = 15$.

$|G| = 15 = 5 \cdot 3$ go for large prime first

By Sylow, \exists subgrp K , $|K| = 5$

... Q , $|Q| = 3$.

$N_5 =$ no of subgrps of order 5, $N_5 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$

so $N_5 = 1$ or $N_5 \geq 6$

Suppose K_1, \dots, K_6 are subgrps $|K_i| = 5$. Each K_i has 4 elements of order 5. So G contains at least $4 \times 5 = 20$ elements. ~~X~~

So $N_5 = 1$. So K is unique subgrp of order 5. If $g \in G$, gKg^{-1} is also subgrp of order 5 so $gKg^{-1} = K$, so $K \triangleleft G$

$K \cap Q = \{1\}$ (3, 5 coprime)

$|G| = |K||Q|$ so

$G \cong C_5 \rtimes C_3$ for some $h: C_3 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_5) \cong C_4$

so h must be trivial homo so $G \cong C_5 \times C_3 \cong C_{15}$

so \exists unique group of order 15.

Sylow's Thm (repeated)

Suppose p prime, G finite group with $|G| = kp^n$ where $p \nmid k$

Then i) G has at least one subgroup of order p^n

ii) if $N_p =$ no. of subgroups of order p^n then $N_p \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

Application: Groups of order 15

G group, $|G| = 15 = 5 \times 3$

Practical Advice:

Always go for large prime first

Sylow says G has

a) a subgroup K of order 5

b) a subgroup Q of order 3

Also that $N_5 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$. So either

i) $N_5 = 1$ and \exists unique subgroup of order 5 or

ii) $N_5 \geq 6$

Suppose $N_5 \geq 6$ and let K_1, \dots, K_6 be distinct subgroups of order 5
(Each $K_i \cong C_5$) Each K_i has $4 = (5-1)$ elements of order 5

Also, $K_i \cap K_j = \{1\}$ otherwise $K_i K_j$ would have an element of order 5 which would generate both K_i and K_j so that $K_i = K_j$ ~~X~~ (distinct)

So then K_1, \dots, K_6 would contain $24 = 6 \times 4 (= 6 \times (5-1))$ elements of order 5 ~~X~~ as $|G| = 15 < 24$. So supposition false

\Rightarrow $N_5 = 1$ And K is unique subgroup of order 5

Notice that K must now be normal in G .

If $g \in G$, gKg^{-1} is also a subgroup of order 5 so $gKg^{-1} = K$ (by uniqueness)

So now we have subgroups K, Q in G .

$K \triangleleft G$ $K \cap Q = \{1\}$ because $|K|$ is coprime to $|Q|$
"5" "3"

and $|K||Q| = |G|$
 $5 \times 3 = 15$

By recognition criterion $G \cong K \rtimes_h Q$ for some homo $h: Q \rightarrow \text{Aut}(K)$
 $G \cong C_5 \rtimes_h C_3$ $h: C_3 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_5) \cong C_4$ As 3,4 are coprime h is trivial:

so $G \cong C_5 \times C_3 \cong C_{15}$

We arrive at

Thm.

if $|G| = 15$ then $G \cong C_{15}$
 i.e. \exists unique (up to isomorphism) group of order 15.

$g \in G$ and $K \subset G$ a subgroup
 $C_g: G \rightarrow G$ $C_g(x) = g x g^{-1}$ each C_g is an auto of G , so
 $C_g(\text{Any subgroup of } G) = \text{some 'other' subgroup.}$
 Also C_g bijective so $|C_g(K)| = |K|$ so $C_g(K)$ is a subgroup with same order as K . Now if K is the unique subgroup of that order then $C_g(K) = K \Rightarrow K \triangleleft G$

n	Groups	Complete?	n	Groups	com. etc.?
1	{1}	✓	17	C_{17}	✓
2	C_2	✓	18	slightly less messy	??
3	C_3	✓	19	C_{19}	✓
4	$C_4, C_2 \times C_2$	✓	20	$C_{20}, C_{10} \times C_2, D_{20}, D_{10}^*, G(20)$?
5	C_5	✓	21	$C_{21}, G(21)$	✓
6	C_6, D_6	✓	22	C_{22}, D_{22}	✓
7	C_7	✓	23	C_{23}	✓
8	$C_8, C_4 \times C_2, C_2 \times C_2 \times C_2, D_8, Q_8$? Yes but not proved	24	...	
9	$C_9, C_3 \times C_3$? "			
10	C_{10}, D_{10}	✓			
11	C_{11}	✓			
12	$C_{12}, C_6 \times C_2, D_{12}, A_4, D_6^*$?			
13	C_{13}	✓			
14	C_{14}, D_{14}	✓			
15	C_{15}	✓			
16	MESS	??			

Prop: There are exactly 2 groups of order 4, $C_4, C_2 \times C_2$

Pf: Suppose $|G| = 4$

Either i) G has an element of order 4, or
 ii) $\forall g \in G \quad g^2 = 1$

If i) $G \cong C_4$

If ii) $G \cong C_2 \times C_2$ (2 lectures ago) \square .

Groups of order 21

G . $|G| = 21 = 7 \cdot 3$

Sylow tells us that G has

- i) a subgroup of order 7 $\underline{K} \leftarrow$ Go for largest first
- ii) a subgroup of order 3 Q

$$N_7 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

So either i) $N_7 = 1$ and $K \triangleleft G$ or

$$ii) N_7 \geq 8$$

Suppose K_1, \dots, K_8 are distinct subgroups of order 7.
 Remove 1 from each K_i . Each K_i has $6 = (7-1)$ elements of order 7. So G has at least $8 \times 6 = 48$ elements of order 7. Contradiction as $21 < 48 \Rightarrow N_7 = 1$ and $K \triangleleft G$

Now: Reapply Recog Crit

$$K, Q \subset G \quad K \triangleleft G \quad K \cap Q = \{1\} \quad 7 \text{ coprime to } 3$$

$$|G| = |K||Q| \quad 21 = 7 \cdot 3$$

$$\text{So } G \cong K \rtimes_h Q = C_7 \rtimes_h C_3 \text{ for some } h.$$

Now we've seen there are only three homos $h: C_3 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_7)$

$$C_7 = \{1, x, \dots, x^6\} \quad \text{Aut}(C_7) = \{\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \varphi_3, \varphi_4, \varphi_5, \varphi_6\} \cong C_6$$

$$\text{Generators } \varphi_3. \quad \varphi_3^2 = \varphi_2 \quad \varphi_3^4 = \varphi_4$$

$$C_3 = \{1, y, y^2\} \quad \text{Possible homos } C_3 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_7) \quad h_0(y) = \text{Id} \quad h_1(y) = \varphi_2 \text{ order 3} \\ h_2(y) = \varphi_4$$

Apparently 3 semidirect prods.

$$h_0 : \langle X, Y \mid X^7 = Y^3 = 1 \quad YX = XY \rangle \cong C_7 \times C_3 \cong C_{21}$$

$$h_1 : \langle X, Y \mid X^7 = Y^3 = 1 \quad YX = X^2Y \rangle \cong G(21)$$

$$h_2 : \langle X, Y \mid X^7 = Y^3 = 1 \quad YX = X^4Y \rangle \cong G(21)$$

Switching $y \leftrightarrow y^2$ gives $G(21) \cong G'(21)$

\Rightarrow Only 2 groups of order 21.

Groups of ORDER 20

G finite group, $|G| = 20 = 5 \cdot 2^2$

i) G has a subgroup of order 5 K

ii) " " " 4 Q

Case I $Q = C_4$

Case II $Q = C_2 \times C_2$

However, in either case $K \triangleleft G$

$N_5 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$ so either

a) $N_5 = 1$ and $K \triangleleft G$ or

b) $N_5 \geq 6$ If so G has at least $6 \times (5-1) = 24$ elements contradiction

Contradiction: so $N_5 = 1$ & $K \triangleleft G$.

We now apply Recognition Crit to get

$$G \cong K \rtimes_h Q \cong C_5 \rtimes_h Q \quad \text{where } h: Q \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_5) \cong C_4$$

Case I: $Q = C_4$

$$C_5 = \{1, x, x^2, x^3, x^4\}$$

$$\text{Aut}(C_5) = \{Id, \rho_2, \rho_4, \rho_3\}$$

$$\rho_2(x) = x^3$$

$$\rho_3(x) = x^2$$

$$\rho_4(x) = x^4$$

$$\rho_2^2 = \rho_4$$

$$\rho_2^3 = \rho_3$$

order $\rho_2 = 4$ (=order ρ_3)

order $\rho_4 = 2$

$$C_4 = \{1, y, y^2, y^3\}$$

Therefore are 4 homos $C_4 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_5)$

$$h_0: C_4 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_5) \text{ trivial} \quad h_0(y) = \text{Id}$$

$$h_1: C_4 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_5) \quad h_1(y) = \varphi_2 \quad h_1(y)(x) = x^2$$

$$h_2: C_4 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_5) \quad h_2(y) = \varphi_4 \quad h_2(y)(x) = x^4 (= x^{-1})$$

$$h_3: C_4 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_5) \quad h_3(y) = \varphi_3 \quad h_3(y)(x) = x^3$$

$$h_0: \langle X, Y \mid X^5 = Y^4 = 1, YX = XY \rangle \cong C_5 \times C_4 \cong C_{20} \quad \textcircled{0}$$

$$C_5 \times C_4 \quad h_1: \langle \dots \dots \dots YX = X^2Y \rangle \quad G(20) \quad \textcircled{1}$$

$$C_5 \times C_4 \quad h_2: \langle \dots \dots \dots \begin{matrix} YX = X^4Y \\ \text{or } YXY^{-1} = X^{-1} \end{matrix} \rangle \quad D_{10}^* \quad \textcircled{2}$$

$$C_5 \times C_4 \quad h_3: \langle \dots \dots \dots YX = X^3Y \rangle \quad \textcircled{3}$$

Show $\textcircled{1} \cong \textcircled{3}$ By switching $y \leftrightarrow y^3$ generators of C_4

Binary Dihedral Groups

D_{2n}^* has $4n$ elements. Given by generators X, Y .

$$X^n = 1 \quad Y^4 = 1, \quad YXY^{-1} = X^{-1}$$

If we had $Y^2 = 1$ we'd have D_{2n} but here $Y^4 = 1$

In D_{2n}^* although Y has order 4, it acts as automorphism of order 2 on $\{1, X, \dots, X^{n-1}\}$

In $G(20)$ Y has order 4 and acts with order 4 on $\{1, X, \dots, X^4\}$

exercise: $D_{10}^* \not\cong G(20)$ [count orders of elements]

So CASE I gives three distinct groups: $C_{20}, D_{10}^*, G(20)$

Case II

$$Q = C_2 \times C_2$$

$G \cong C_5 \rtimes_h (C_2 \times C_2)$ for some homo $h: C_2 \times C_2 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_5)$

$$C_5 = \langle x, \dots, x^4 \rangle \quad \text{Aut}(C_5) = \{1, \varphi_2, \varphi_2^2, \varphi_2^3\}$$

" φ_4 " φ_3

$$C_2 \times C_2 = \langle 1, s, t, st \rangle \quad s^2 = t^2 = 1 \quad ts = st \quad (st)^2 = 1.$$

$$h: C_2 \times C_2 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_5)$$

Can't hit either φ_2 (generator) or $\varphi_2^3 = \varphi_3$ (order 4). So either $h(s) = 1$ or $h(s) = \varphi_4$ and likewise either $h(t) = 1$ or $h(t) = \varphi_4$.

Four possibilities

$$h_0(s) = 1 \quad h_0(t) = 1 \quad h_0(st) = 1 \quad [= h_0(s)h_0(t)] \quad \text{Trivial}$$

$$h_1(s) = \varphi_4 \quad h_1(t) = 1 \quad h_1(st) = \varphi_4 \quad [= h_1(s)h_1(t)]$$

$$h_2(s) = 1 \quad h_2(t) = \varphi_4 \quad h_2(st) = \varphi_4$$

$$h_3(s) = \varphi_4 \quad h_3(t) = \varphi_4 \quad h_3(st) = 1 \quad [= h_3(s)h_3(t)]$$

Now work out the relations for each h_i .

$$h_0: \langle x, s, t \mid x^5 = s^2 = t^2 = 1, ts = st, sx = xs, tx = xt \rangle$$

$$\cong C_5 \times C_2 \times C_2 \cong C_{10} \times C_2$$

$$h_1: \langle s, x, t \mid x^5 = s^2 = t^2 = 1, ts = st, sx = x^4s, tx = xt \rangle$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} h_1(s)x = \varphi_4(x) = x^4 \quad sx s^{-1} = x^4 \quad sx = x^4s \\ h_1(t)x = \text{id}(x) = x \quad tx = xt. \end{array} \right]$$

$$\cong D_{10} \times C_2 \quad D_{10} = \langle x, s \rangle \quad C_2 = \langle t \rangle$$

$$h_2: \langle x, s, t \mid x^5 = s^2 = t^2 = 1, ts = st, sx = xs, tx = x^4t \rangle$$

$$\cong D_{10} \times C_2 \quad D_{10} = \langle x, t \rangle \quad C_2 = \langle s \rangle$$

$$h_3: \langle x, st, t \mid x^5 = s^2 = t^2 = 1, ts = st, sx = x^4s, (st)x = x(st) \rangle$$

$$D_{10} \times C_2 \quad D_{10} = \langle x, st \rangle \quad C_2 = \langle st \rangle$$

In case II got 2 ^{distinct} ~~separate~~ groups

$$C_5 \times C_2 \times C_2 \cong C_{10} \times C_2$$

$$D_{10} \times C_2 \cong D_{20}$$

So we arrive at

Thm. There are precisely 5 groups of order 20;

$$\begin{array}{c} C_{20} \\ \text{"} \\ C_5 \times C_4 \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} C_{10} \times C_2 \\ \text{"} \\ C_5 \times C_2 \times C_2 \end{array} \right| \begin{array}{c} D_{20} \\ \text{"} \\ D_{10} \times D_2 \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} D_{10}^* \\ \end{array} \right| G(20) = \text{Aff}(\mathbb{F}_5)$$

$$\mathcal{O}_G = \{\text{bijective mapping } G \rightarrow G\}$$

$$\lambda_g : G \rightarrow G \quad \lambda_g(h) = gh$$

$$g \mapsto \lambda_g \text{ is a homomorphism } G \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_G$$

Using table:

$$\lambda_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 1 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_x^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 & 2 & 7 & 8 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_x^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 4 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 8 & 5 & 6 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 5 & 8 & 7 & 6 & 1 & 4 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

... etc. write out 8 permutations

~~$$\lambda_g$$~~ $|G| = n$

 $G \subset \mathcal{O}_n$ permutations on $\{1, \dots, n\}$

Groups acting on sets

G group, X set. By a left action of G on X we mean a mapping $*$: $G \times X \rightarrow X$ written

$$*(gx) = g * x$$

Such that i) $\forall g, h \in G \quad \forall x \in X$

$$\boxed{(gh) * x = g * (h * x)}$$

↑ product in G

ii) $\forall x \in X \quad \boxed{1 * x = x}$

A right action would be a mapping : $X \times G \rightarrow X$

$$\begin{cases} x * (gh) = (x * g) * h \\ x * 1 = x \end{cases}$$

eg (Left translation)

Take $X = G$ and take $*$ = group multiplication

Cayley's Thm

Let G be a group $|G| = n$. Then G is isomorphic to a subgroup of $\mathcal{O}_n = \{\text{permutations on } \{1, \dots, n\}\}$

Pf: let $\mathcal{O}_G = \{\text{permutations on } G\}$ $G \rightarrow G$ bijective

\mathcal{O}_G is a group under composition. I have a mapping

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda : G &\rightarrow \mathcal{O}_G \\ g &\mapsto \lambda_g \end{aligned} \quad \lambda_g(h) = gh \quad (\text{product in } G)$$

Each λ_g is a bijective mapping. In fact $\lambda_g^{-1} = \lambda_{g^{-1}}$

$$(\lambda_{g^{-1}} \circ \lambda_g)(x) = \lambda_{g^{-1}}(\lambda_g(x)) = \lambda_{g^{-1}}(gx) = g^{-1}(gx) = (g^{-1}g)x = x$$

$$\lambda_{g^{-1}} \circ \lambda_g = \text{id}.$$

Monomorphism: $g \mapsto \lambda_g$ is a homomorphism.

$$\lambda_{gh}(x) = (gh)x = g(hx) = \lambda_g(\lambda_h(x)) \quad \text{so} \quad \lambda_{gh} = \lambda_g \circ \lambda_h$$

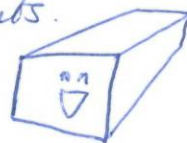
Finally: $g \mapsto \lambda_g$ is injective.

If $\lambda_g = \lambda_h$ then $\lambda_g(1) = \lambda_h(1) \Rightarrow g \cdot 1 = h \cdot 1 \Rightarrow g = h$
 So $\lambda_g : G \rightarrow \sigma_G$ is an injective homomorphism.

$$\lambda_g(G) \cong G \quad (\text{Im } \lambda_g \cong G)$$

To get statement as advertised count elements.

$\langle g_1, \dots, g_n \rangle$ and replace σ_G by σ_n



$$C_4$$

	1	x	x ²	x ³
1	1	x	x ²	x ³
x	x	x ²	x ³	1
x ²	x ²	x ³	1	x
x ³	x ³	1	x	x ²

λ_g top row = input
 ρ_g left column = input

Alternative way: Multiply on the right.

$$\rho_g(x) = xg \quad \text{Wrong.}$$

Difficulty here is you don't get a homomorphism.

$$\rho_{gh}(x) = x(gh) = (xg)h = \rho_g(x)h = \rho_h(\rho_g(x))$$

we get $\rho_{gh} = \rho_h \rho_g$

Correct Defn: $\rho_g(x) = xg^{-1}$

Then $\rho_{gh} = \rho_g \rho_h$ is a homomorphism

Better eg: Take $X = G$ $\ast : G \times X \rightarrow X$

$$\boxed{g \ast x = gxg^{-1}} \text{ conjugation.}$$

Get a new homomorphism $c : G \rightarrow \sigma_G (= \sigma_x)$, $\boxed{C_g(x) = gxg^{-1}}$

$$C_{gh}(x) = (gh)x(gh)^{-1} = g(hxh^{-1})g^{-1} = C_g(hxh^{-1}) = C_g \circ C_h(x)$$

$$\boxed{C_{gh} = C_g \circ C_h}$$

Alternative way of thinking about a group action:

$$* : G \times X \rightarrow X$$

$$(g, x) \mapsto g * x$$

Alternative ..

$$\pi : G \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_X = \{\text{permutations on } X\}$$

$$\pi(g)(x) = g * x$$

π is a homomorphism $\Leftrightarrow *$ is a left action.

Orbits under group action:

Suppose $* : G \times X \rightarrow X$ is a left action. Let $x \in X$

$$\text{Define } \langle x \rangle = \{g * x : g \in G\}$$

$\langle x \rangle$ is called the orbit of x under G .

(eg) $G = D_6$ acting on itself by conjugation

$$G = \{1, x, x^2, y, xy, x^2y\} \quad x^3 = y^2 = 1 \quad yx = x^2y$$

$$* : G \times G \rightarrow G \quad \boxed{g * h = ghg^{-1}}$$

Let's take each $h \in G$ in turn and find its orbit.

$$\langle 1 \rangle = \{1\} \quad g * 1 = g1g^{-1} = 1$$

$$\langle x \rangle = \{x, x^2\} \quad x^a x x^{-a} = x$$

$$y x y^{-1} = x^2 y y^{-1} = x^2$$

$$(x^a y) x (x^a y)^{-1} = x^2$$

$$\langle x^2 \rangle = \{x^2, x\}$$

$$= \{x, x^2\}$$

$$= \langle x \rangle$$

$$x^a x^2 x^{-a} = x^2$$

$$(x^a y) x^2 (x^a y)^{-1} = x$$

$$\langle y \rangle = \{y, xy, x^2y\} \quad y y y^{-1} = y$$

$$x y x^{-1} = x y x^2 = x x y = x^2 y$$

$$x^2 y x^{-2} = x y$$

$$\langle xy \rangle = \{y, xy, x^2y\}$$

$$\langle x^2y \rangle = \{y, xy, x^2y\}$$

Three distinct orbits.

$$\langle 1 \rangle = \{1\}$$

$$\langle x \rangle = \{x, x^2\}$$

$$\langle y \rangle = \{y, xy, x^2y\}$$

$1, x, y$ is a set of orbit representatives

General Observation

Let $*: G \times X \rightarrow X$ be a left action and let $x, x' \in X$

Then either i) $\langle x \rangle \cap \langle x' \rangle = \emptyset$

or ii) $\langle x \rangle = \langle x' \rangle$

Pf: It suffices to show that if $\langle x \rangle \cap \langle x' \rangle \neq \emptyset$ then $\langle x \rangle = \langle x' \rangle$

Suppose $\langle x \rangle \cap \langle x' \rangle \neq \emptyset$

ii) $\exists z \in \langle x \rangle \cap \langle x' \rangle$

$\{z \in \langle x \rangle\}$ means $z = g * x$ for some $g \in G$

$\{z \in \langle x' \rangle\}$ means $z = h * x'$ for some $h \in G$

So $g * x = h * x'$ for some $g, h \in G$ so...

$x = (g^{-1}h) * x'$ so for each $\gamma \in G$

$$\langle x \rangle \Rightarrow \gamma * x = (\gamma g^{-1}h) * x' \in \langle x' \rangle$$

Hence $\langle x \rangle = \{\gamma * x : \gamma \in G\}$ so $\langle x \rangle \subset \langle x' \rangle$

Reverse the argument $x' = (h^{-1}g) * x$ so for all $\gamma \in G$,

$$\gamma * x' = (\gamma h^{-1}g) * x \text{ in } \langle x \rangle \text{ so } \langle x' \rangle \subset \langle x \rangle$$

If $\langle x \rangle \cap \langle x' \rangle \neq \emptyset$ then $\langle x \rangle \subset \langle x' \rangle \subset \langle x \rangle$

so $\langle x \rangle = \langle x' \rangle$ \square .

Class Equation (Version I)

G acting finite set X .

Let $x_0, \dots, x_n \in X$ represent the distinct orbits.

$$X = \bigcup_{i=1}^m \langle x_i \rangle \quad \langle x_i \rangle \cap \langle x_j \rangle = \emptyset \quad (i \neq j)$$

No double counting.

$$|X| = \sum_{i=1}^m |\langle x_i \rangle|$$

eg) D_6 acting on itself by conjugation.

$$|D_6| = 6 \quad 1, x, y \text{ orbit reps.}$$

$$D_6 = \langle 1 \rangle \cup \langle x \rangle \cup \langle y \rangle$$

$$= \{1\} \cup \{x, y\} \cup \{y, xy, x^2y\}$$

$$|D_6| = |\langle 1 \rangle| + |\langle x \rangle| + |\langle y \rangle| = 1 + 2 + 3 = 6.$$

$\cdot : G \times X \rightarrow X$ (left) group action of G on X

If $x \in X$ the orbit $\langle x \rangle$ of x $\langle x \rangle = \{g \cdot x : g \in G\}$

I showed that if $x, y \in X$ either $\langle x \rangle = \langle y \rangle$ or $\langle x \rangle \cap \langle y \rangle = \emptyset$

Take elements x_1, \dots, x_m in X representing the distinct orbits (set of orbit representatives)

prototype: $X = \langle x_1 \rangle \sqcup \langle x_2 \rangle \sqcup \dots \sqcup \langle x_m \rangle$ ← SET THEORETIC CLASS EQN

\sqcup = disjoint union.

Take cardinals, get

$$|X| = \sum_{i=1}^m |\langle x_i \rangle|$$

← CLASS EQN MARK ONE

We need to improve on this.

Let $\cdot : G \times X \rightarrow X$ group action. Let $x \in X$ define

$$G_x = \{g \in G : g \cdot x = x\}$$

← The stability group of x

Prop: G_x is a subgroup of G

Proof: let $g, h \in G_x$ $g \cdot x = x$ $h \cdot x = x$ then

$$(g \cdot h) \cdot x = g(h \cdot x) = g \cdot x = x \Rightarrow gh \in G_x \text{ so } G_x \text{ is a closed set}$$

$$1 \cdot x = x \text{ so } 1 \in G_x$$

$$\text{If } g \in G_x \text{ then } g^{-1} \cdot x = g^{-1}(g \cdot x) = (g^{-1}g) \cdot x = 1 \cdot x = x \Rightarrow g^{-1} \in G_x$$

so G_x is a subgroup of G \square .

Prop: For each $x \in X$ i) \exists a bijective mapping $G/G_x \xrightarrow{\cong} \langle x \rangle$

ii) Hence $|\langle x \rangle| = |G|/|G_x|$

Proof $i \Rightarrow ii$ is clear, so ETP (suffices to prove) i.

First recall that

$$G/G_x = \{h \cdot G_x : h \in G\}$$

Recall Rule of Equality for Cosets.

$$h_1 \cdot Gx = h_2 \cdot Gx \iff h_2^{-1}h_1 \in Gx$$

Define $\varphi: \frac{G}{Gx} \rightarrow \langle x \rangle$ by $\varphi(h \cdot Gx) = hx$

Need to check that φ is well defined, i.e. suppose

$$h_1 \cdot Gx = h_2 \cdot Gx \cdot \text{Got to show } h_1x = h_2x$$

So suppose $h_1 \cdot Gx = h_2 \cdot Gx$ so $h_2^{-1}h_1 \in Gx$ so $(h_2^{-1}h_1)x = x$

So $h_2(h_2^{-1}h_1)x = h_2x$ so $h_1x = h_2x$ i.e. φ is well defined.

φ is obviously surjective.

If $hx \in \langle x \rangle$ then $hx = \varphi(h \cdot Gx)$

To conclude I need to show φ is injective.

Suppose $\varphi(h_1 \cdot Gx) = \varphi(h_2 \cdot Gx)$

$$\text{so } h_1x = h_2x$$

$$\text{so } h_2^{-1}h_1x = x \implies h_2^{-1}h_1 \in Gx$$

$$\text{so } h_1 \cdot Gx = h_2 \cdot Gx \quad \square \text{ (injective)} \implies \square$$

Numerical Class ~~eqn~~ Mark One

$$|X| = \sum_{i=1}^m |\langle x_i \rangle|$$

But $|\langle x_i \rangle| = \frac{|G|}{|Gx_i|}$ so substitute to get

Numerical Class eqn Mark Two.

$$|X| = \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{|G|}{|Gx_i|}$$

where x_1, \dots, x_m is a set of coset representations.

Fixed Point Sets

Let $\bullet: G \times X \rightarrow X$ be a group action.

$x \in X$ is said to be a fixed point when $\boxed{gx = x} \forall g \in G$

i.e. x is fixed $\iff Gx = G$

$$X^G = \{x \in X : \forall g \in G \quad g \cdot x = x\}$$

X^G is the fixed point set under action.

Thm: Let p be a prime and let P be a group of order p^n acting on a finite set X ; then $|X| \equiv |X^P| \pmod{p}$

Proof: ~~A fixed point~~ Let $x \in X$. x is a fixed point $\Leftrightarrow \langle x \rangle = \{x\}$
 let x_1, \dots, x_m be a collection of orbit representatives, chosen in such a way that the fixed points come first.

$$X^P = \{x_1, \dots, x_k\} \quad \text{Recurring orbits represented by } \{x_{k+1}, \dots, x_m\}$$

Write down the Class Eqn

$$|X| = \sum_{i=1}^k |\langle x_i \rangle| + \sum_{i=k+1}^m |\langle x_i \rangle|$$

$$|\langle x_i \rangle| = 1 \quad \text{for } 1 \leq i \leq k$$

$$|\langle x_i \rangle| = \frac{|P|}{|P_k|} > 1 \quad \text{for } k+1 \leq i \leq m$$

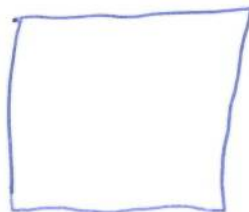
$$|X| = k + \sum_{i=k+1}^m \frac{|P|}{|P_k|} \quad k = |X^P|$$

$$|P| = p^n \quad |P_k| = p^{e_i} \quad \text{for some } e_i \quad e_i < n.$$

$$|X| = k + \sum_{i=k+1}^m p^{n-e_i} \quad n-e_i \geq 1$$

So p divides $\sum_{i=k+1}^m p^{n-e_i}$ So mod p .

$$|X| \equiv k \equiv |X^P| \pmod{p}$$



Corollary (Wilson's Thm)

Let p be a prime, and $k \geq 1$ an integer

$$\binom{kp^n}{p^n} \equiv k \pmod{p}$$

nomial
eff

Proof: Let P be some group of order p^n (It doesn't matter which one). Let $X = \overset{\text{times}}{P} \times \{1, \dots, k\}$. Define

$\bullet: P \times X \rightarrow X$ by $g \bullet (h, r) = (gh, r)$ left action.

Let $\mathcal{X} = \{A \subset X : |A| = p^n\}$ $|\mathcal{X}| = \binom{kp^n}{p^n}$

$|X| = kp^n$ taking subsets of order p^n so get $\binom{kp^n}{p^n}$ such subsets!

Let P act on \mathcal{X} as follows.

$$*: P \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$$

$$g * A = \{ga : a \in A\} = gA$$

so $|\mathcal{X}| \equiv |\mathcal{X}^P| \pmod{p}$ by above.

Need to find \mathcal{X}^P .

Let $A \subset P \times \{1, \dots, k\}$ be such that $gA = A \quad \forall g \in G$ and $|A| = p^n$.

Let $a \in A$. $a = (h, r)$

$$g \cdot a = (gh, r) \rightarrow \text{represents arbitrary element of } P.$$

so $P \times \{r\} \subset A$ but $|P \times \{r\}| = |A| = p^n$. So a fixed point of \mathcal{X} is precisely a set $P \times \{r\}$ $r = 1, \dots, k$. There are k such sets.

$$\text{So } |\mathcal{X}^P| = k$$

$$\text{Hence } |\mathcal{X}| \equiv k \pmod{p} \text{ so } \binom{kp^n}{p^n} \equiv k \pmod{p} \quad \square$$

Sylow's Thm (Part One)

Let G be a finite group. $|G| = kp^n$, p prime and $p \nmid k$.
Then G has at least one subgroup P with $|P| = p^n$.

Proof: By induction on k .

For $k=1$ there is nothing to prove. $P=G$.

Suppose proved for groups of order $k'p^n$ where $k' < k$,
and let $|G| = kp^n$. Let $A = \{A : A \text{ is a subset of } G \text{ and } |A| = p^n\}$

So $|A| = \binom{kp^n}{p^n}$ By A-level.

Consider the following action. $G \times A \rightarrow A$

$$g \cdot A = \{ga : a \in A\}$$

Take the class $gA \dots \dots$

$$|A| = \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \frac{|G|}{|G_{A_i}|} \quad \text{where } A_1, \dots, A_r \text{ is a set of orbit reps}$$

$$|G| = kp^n \quad |G_{A_i}| = k_i p^{e_i} \text{ for some } k_i \text{ dividing } k, e_i \leq n$$

By Lagrange \nearrow

$$|A| = \binom{kp^n}{p^n} \text{ so } \binom{kp^n}{p^n} = \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \binom{k}{k_i} p^{n-e_i}$$

We've shown that $\binom{kp^n}{p^n} \equiv k \pmod{p}$

So p ~~is~~ doesn't divide LHS, so p doesn't divide RHS.

However if each $e_i < n$ then p does divide RHS, so

for some i , $|G_{A_i}| = k_i p^n$

Claim that $k_i < k$, otherwise if $k_i = k$ then $G_{A_i} = G$ so A_i is fixed under the action. If $a \in A_i$ get an injective mapping

$G \rightarrow A_i \mid$ Contradiction as $|G| = kp^n$ but $|A_i| = p^n$
 $g \mapsto ga$ and $kp^n > p^n$.

So $k_i < k$, $|G_{A_i}| = k_i p^n$. By induction, G_{A_i} has a subgroup P , with $|P| = p^n$. So P is also a subgroup of G , and $|P| = p^n$. \square .

The full Sylow Thm says this:

- ① If $|G| = kp^n$ $p \nmid k$ then G has at least one subgroup P with $|P| = p^n$
- ② If $N_p = \text{no. of subgroups of order } p^n$ then $N_p \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ next lecture.
- ③ N_p divides $|G|$ (won't prove)
- ④ If P' is a subgroup of order p^m and $(m < n)$ then $\exists P$, a subgroup of order p^n ~~such~~ such that $P' \subset P$ (won't prove)

Quotient Groups

Suppose G group and K is a normal subgroup ($K \triangleleft G$).
 We'll show that the set G/K is naturally a group.

$$\overset{\text{sub}(K)}{G/K} = \{gk : g \in G\} \quad g_1 k = g_2 k \Leftrightarrow g_2^{-1} g_1 \in K$$

$$K \triangleleft G \text{ means } \forall g \in G \quad gkg^{-1} = k$$

Defn: Suppose $K \triangleleft G$. Define $*$: $G/K \times G/K \rightarrow G/K$

$$\text{by } (g \cdot k) * (h \cdot k) = (gh)k.$$

Prop: If $K \triangleleft G$ then $*$: $G/K \times G/K \rightarrow G/K$ is well defined and gives a group multiplication on G/K

Proof: Need to show that if $g_1 k = g_2 k$ and $h_1 k = h_2 k$
 then $(g_1, h_1) k = (g_2, h_2) k$ i.e. if $g_2^{-1} g_1 \in K$ and $h_2^{-1} h_1 \in K$
 then $(g_2 h_2)^{-1} (g_1, h_1) \in K$.

But $(g_2 h_2)^{-1} (g_1, h_1) = h_2^{-1} g_2^{-1} g_1, h_1 = \underbrace{[h_2^{-1} g_2^{-1} g_1, h_2]}_{\in K} (h_2^{-1} h_1)$

\Rightarrow Now $g_2^{-1} g_1 \in K$ so

$$h_2^{-1} (g_2^{-1} g_1) h_2 = (h_2^{-1}) (g_2^{-1} g_1) (h_2^{-1})^{-1} \quad K \triangleleft G$$

$\in K$

But $h_2^{-1} h_1 \in K$ so $[(h_2^{-1} (g_2^{-1} g_1) h_2)] [h_2^{-1} h_1] \in K$ (K subgroup)

so $g_1 k = g_2 k$ and $h_1 k = h_2 k \Rightarrow (g_1, h_1) k = (g_2, h_2) k$
 and product is well defined.

Assoc: Obvious

$$(g k) [(h k) (l k)] = (g k) (h l k) = g (h l) k = [(g h) l] k = (g h k) (l k) = [(g k) (h k)] (l k)$$

Identity: $1 \cdot k = k$

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

G group K normal subgroup of G . $K \triangleleft G$.

$$\boxed{\forall g \in G \quad \forall k \in K \quad gkg^{-1} \in K}$$

$$* : \frac{G}{K} \times \frac{G}{K} \longrightarrow \frac{G}{K}$$

$$(gk) * (hk) = ghk \quad \text{well defined (only because)}$$

This gives a group ~~structure~~ multiplication on $\frac{G}{K}$

Assoc: $(gk) * [(hk) * (lk)] = (gk) * (hkl) = g(hl)k = (gh)lk$
 $= (ghk) * (lk) = [(gk) * (hk)] * (lk)$

Identity: $1 \cdot k = k$ 1 is the id.

$$(1 \cdot k) * (gk) = (1 \cdot g)k = gk$$

$$(gk) * (1k) = (g \cdot 1)k = gk$$

Inverse $(gk) * (g^{-1}k) = (gg^{-1})k = 1 \cdot k = k$

$$(g^{-1}k) * (gk) = (g^{-1}g)k = 1 \cdot k = k.$$

So $\frac{G}{K}$ is a group when $K \triangleleft G$ □

(eg) $G = Q_8$

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

$$K = \{1, -1\} \triangleleft G \quad |K| = 2$$

Question: Which group is $\frac{G}{K}$?

$$\text{so } \left| \frac{G}{K} \right| = \frac{8}{2} = 4$$

Two possibilities: C_4 , $C_2 \times C_2$

$\Rightarrow \frac{Q_8}{\{1, -1\}} \cong C_2 \times C_2$ The elements of $Q_8 / \{1, -1\}$ are ... continued at end

Defn: Let H, Q be subgroups of G

Say that Q normalises H when $\boxed{\forall q \in Q \forall h \in H \quad qhq^{-1} \in H}$

Prop: If Q normalises H then $HQ = \{hq : h \in H, q \in Q\}$ is a subgroup of G , and $H \triangleleft HQ$

Proof: Need to show

i) HQ closed w.r.t multiplication

ii) $1 \in HQ$

iii) if $x \in HQ$ then $x^{-1} \in HQ$

i) Let $x, y \in HQ$ so $x = h_1 q_1, y = h_2 q_2$

$$\text{Then } xy = h_1 q_1 h_2 q_2 = (h_1 q_1 h_2 q_1^{-1}) (q_1 q_2)$$

But $q_1 h_2 q_1^{-1} \in H$ (Normalisation Condition)

so $h_1 q_1 h_2 q_1^{-1} \in H \quad q_1 q_2 \in Q \quad \text{so } xy \in HQ$

ii) $1 = 1 \cdot 1 \quad 1 \in H \quad 1 \in Q \quad \text{QED.}$

iii) Let $x \in HQ \quad x = hq \quad \text{Then } x^{-1} = (hq)^{-1} = q^{-1}h^{-1}$

$$q^{-1}h^{-1} = (q^{-1}h^{-1}q)q^{-1}$$

$$q^{-1}h^{-1}q \in H$$

$$q^{-1} \in Q \Rightarrow x^{-1} \in HQ.$$

So HQ is a subgroup of G .

Claim $H \triangleleft HQ$.

Let $h \in H \quad y \in HQ$ get to show $ghy^{-1} \in H$

Write $y = h_1 q_1$

$$y^{-1} = q_1^{-1} h_1^{-1}$$

$$ghy^{-1} = h(q_1 h_1 q_1^{-1}) h_1^{-1}$$

But $q_1 h_1 q_1^{-1} \in H$ so $h_1 (q_1 h_1 q_1^{-1}) h_1^{-1} \in H \quad \underline{\text{QED.}}$

Let H, Q be subgroups of G and Q normalises H . so $H \triangleleft HQ$

Question: What is HQ/H ?

E. Noethers 1st Isomorphism Thm

~~Noethers~~ Let H, Q be subgroups of G . Suppose Q normalises H .

Then
$$\boxed{\frac{HQ}{H} \cong \frac{Q}{H \cap Q}}$$

Proof: Define $\nu: Q \rightarrow \frac{HQ}{H}$ by $\nu(q) = qH (= 1 \cdot q \cdot H)$

ν is a homo.

$$\nu(q_1 q_2) = q_1 q_2 H = (q_1 H)(q_2 H) = \nu(q_1) \nu(q_2)$$

ν is surjective. Why?

An arbitrary element of $\frac{HQ}{H}$ looks like $hqH = q q^{-1} h q H$

But $q^{-1} h q \in H$ so $q^{-1} h q H = H$

so arbitrary element $hqH \in \frac{HQ}{H}$ is in fact $qH = \nu(q)$

s. ν is surjective.

$\nu: Q \rightarrow \frac{HQ}{H}$ is surjective. so $\text{Im}(\nu) = \frac{HQ}{H}$

ν_* induces a bijection.

$$\nu_*: \frac{Q}{\text{Ker}(\nu)} \rightarrow \text{Im}(\nu)$$

Question: What is $\text{Ker}(\nu)$? $\text{Ker}(\nu) = \{q \in Q : qH = H\}$

But $qH = H$ iff $q \in H$

so $\text{Ker}(\nu) = H \cap Q$ so we have a bijection.

$$\nu_*: \frac{Q}{H \cap Q} \rightarrow \frac{HQ}{H}$$

This is a group isomorphism \square

Noethers O^A Iso Thm

If $\alpha: G \rightarrow H$ homo

$\alpha_*: \frac{G}{\text{Ker}(\alpha)} \rightarrow \text{Im}(\alpha)$ is an iso

Sylow part II

Let G be a group $|G| = kp^n$, p prime, $p \nmid k$.

$N_p = \{\text{no of subgroups of order } p^n\}$ Then $N_p \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

Proof: Put $\mathcal{P} = \{P : P \text{ is a subgroup of } G \text{ } |P| = p^n\}$

Know $\mathcal{P} \neq \emptyset$ (Sylow part I)

Let $P \in \mathcal{P}$ be a specific subgroup $|P| = p^n$

Let P act on \mathcal{P}

*: $P \times \mathcal{P} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}$

$$g * H = gHg^{-1}$$

gHg^{-1} is also a subgroup of order p^n

$$\mathcal{P}^P = \{H \in \mathcal{P} : \forall g \in P \quad gHg^{-1} = H\}$$

= {subgroups in \mathcal{P} which are normalized by P }

Since $|P| = p^n$ I know

$$|P| = |\mathcal{P}^P| \pmod{p} \quad \text{so } |P| = N_p.$$

To complete proof I just need to ~~know~~ show that

$$|\mathcal{P}^P| \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \quad (N_p \equiv 1 \pmod{p})$$

Clearly P normalises itself so $P \in \mathcal{P}^P$

Suppose $H \in \mathcal{P}^P$ so P normalises H . So HP is a subgroup of G .

and $\frac{HP}{H} = \frac{P}{H \cap P}$ so $|HP| = \frac{|P|}{|H \cap P|} |H|$

$$|P| = p^n \quad \text{so } \frac{|P|}{|H \cap P|} = p^m \quad \text{for some } m \quad 0 \leq m \leq n.$$

$$|H| = p^n \quad \text{so } |HP| = p^{n+m} \quad HP \text{ is a subgroup of } G.$$

$$|G| = kp^n \quad p \nmid k$$

So p^{n+m} divides $k p^n$ $p \nmid k$ so $m=0$

and $|P/HnP| = 1$ i.e. $HnP = P$

so $|HP| = p^n$ Now $H \subset HP$ and $|H| = p^n$

so $H = HP$ But $P \subset HP$ $|P| = p^n$

so $P = HP = H$ and I've shown that

P is the element of P fixed under the action of P .

i.e. $|P^P| = 1$ and $N_p \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ \square

continued: $\frac{Q_8}{\{\pm 1\}} \cong C_2 \times C_2$

The elements of this are $\{1, -1\}$ $\{i, -i\}$ $\{j, -j\}$ $\{k, -k\}$
 k ik jk kk

$$(ik)^2 = i^2 k = (-1)k = k$$

$$(jk)^2 = j^2 k = (-1)k = k$$

$$(kk)^2 = (-1)k = k$$

$$\text{so } \forall g \in \frac{Q_8}{\{\pm 1\}} \quad g^2 = 1$$

$$\frac{Q_8}{\{\pm 1\}} \cong C_2 \times C_2$$

$*$: $X \times X \rightarrow X$ "multiplication"

Usually want $*$ to be associative.

A semigroup is a pair $(X, *)$, $*$ is associative.

Next need Id i.e. specific $e \in X$

$$e * x = x = x * e \quad \forall x \in X.$$

A monoid is triple $(X, *, e)$ $*$ is associative, e identity

Next we need inverses $\forall x \in X \exists x^{-1} \in X$ st $x * x^{-1} = e$
 $x^{-1} * x = e$

A group is a triple $(X, *, e)$ where $*$ assoc, e identity, inverses exist

Next stage involves taking two structures in some set.

RINGS

Defn : By a ring R we mean $R = (R, +, 0, \cdot, 1)$ (5-tuple)

where i) $(R, +, 0)$ is an abelian group, $x + y = y + x$

ii) $(R, \cdot, 1)$ is a monoid

iii) $0 \neq 1$

iv) $\forall x, y, z \in R$ $\begin{cases} x \cdot (y + z) = xy + xz \\ (y + z)x = yx + zx \end{cases}$ DISTRIBUTIVE LAWS

(Rings don't expect to have inverses)

A ring R is said to be commutative when

$$\forall x, y \in R \quad [x * y = y * x]$$

Usually we'll consider only commutative rings, however...

(egs) i) \mathbb{Z} is a commutative ring.

ii) \mathbb{Q} is a ring as well as a field

iii) \mathbb{R} " " " " "

iv) \mathbb{C} " " " " "

Defn A division ring D is a ring with an extra property.

$$\boxed{\forall x \in D, x \neq 0 \exists x^{-1} \in D ; xx^{-1} = 1 = x^{-1}x}$$

A commutative division ring is called a field.

\mathbb{H} = Hamiltonian quaternions.

\mathbb{H} is vector space over \mathbb{R} of dimension 4, $1, i, j, k$

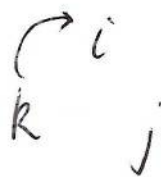
$$a_0 \cdot 1 + a_1 i + a_2 j + a_3 k \quad a_i \in \mathbb{R}$$

where $i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1$

$$ij = k = -ji$$

$$jk = i = -kj$$

$$ki = j = -ik$$



First ever noncommutative division ring.

f R ring, $M_n(R)$ = $n \times n$ matrices / R

$M_n(R)$ is a noncommutative ring when $n \geq 2$

\mathbb{Z} is a ring but not a field. Because $2^{-1} = \frac{1}{2} \notin \mathbb{Z}$

More examples

n integer $n > 1$ INFORMAL DEFN.

\mathbb{Z}/n ($\mathbb{Z} \text{ mod } n$) $\mathbb{Z}/n = \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ possible remainders mod n .

In \mathbb{Z}/n $n \neq 0$ so we add and multiply in the usual way but when we see n we write 0.

eg) $\mathbb{Z}/3 = \{0, 1, 2\}$

+	0	1	2
0	0	1	2
1	1	2	0
2	2	0	1

•	0	1	2
0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2
2	0	2	1

$\mathbb{Z}/3$ is a field because every non zero element has a mult inverse, so we write it as \mathbb{F}_3

(eg) $\mathbb{Z}/4 = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$

+	0	1	2	3
0	0	1	2	3
1	1	2	3	0
2	2	3	0	1
3	3	0	1	2

·	0	1	2	3
0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3
2	0	2	0	2
3	0	3	2	1

$\mathbb{Z}/4$ is not a field because $2 \neq 0$ but there is no mult inverse for 2 (no 1s) So $\mathbb{Z}/4$ is not written \mathbb{F}_4 .

We'll see that \mathbb{Z}/n is a field $\iff n$ is prime. So when p is prime we write \mathbb{F}_p rather than \mathbb{Z}/p

(eg) Take field \mathbb{F} . $\mathbb{F}(x) = \{\text{polys in } x \text{ with coeffs in } \mathbb{F}\}$

$$a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 \quad (a_i \in \mathbb{F})$$

So we can add, multiply in $\mathbb{F}(x)$ as you do at school.

General construction:

\mathbb{F} field. Let $a(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 \in \mathbb{F}(x)$

where $a_n \neq 0$ $\boxed{\text{deg } a = n}$

$\mathbb{F}(x)$ Add and multiply as usual but every time we see $a(x)$ we write $a(x) \equiv 0$.

(eg) \mathbb{F}_4 , the field with 4 elements. Start with $\mathbb{F}_2 = \{0, 1\}$ $1+1=0$

Next take $\mathbb{F}_2(x)$ = polynomials in x over \mathbb{F}_2

Take $a(x) = x^2 + x + 1$

Represent $\mathbb{F}_2(x)$ as the possible remainders I can get when I divide by $x^2 + x + 1 \sim \text{deg } 2$.

Possible remainders have $\text{deg} \leq 1$

So possible remainders are $0, 1, x, x+1$ (All polys of degree ≤ 1)

$+$	0	1	x	$x+1$
0	0	1	x	$x+1$
1	1	0	$x+1$	x
x	x	$x+1$	0	1
$x+1$	$x+1$	x	1	0

\cdot	0	1	x	$x+1$
0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	x	$x+1$
x	0	x	$x+1$	1
$x+1$	0	$x+1$	1	x

$$x^2? \quad x^2+x+1 \equiv 0 \quad x^2 \equiv -(x+1) \equiv x+1 \quad (-1 \equiv +1 \text{ in } \mathbb{F}_2)$$

$$x^2+x? \quad x^2+x \equiv -1 \equiv 1$$

$$x^2+2x+1 \quad x^2+1 \equiv -x \equiv x$$

$$\text{so } \mathbb{F}_4 = \frac{\mathbb{F}_2(x)}{x^2+x+1}$$

$$\text{First historical example: } \frac{\mathbb{Q}(x)}{x^2-2}$$

x^2-2 has no factorisation over \mathbb{Q}

$\frac{\mathbb{Q}(x)}{x^2-2}$ is a field. Elements are $at+bx$ $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$

$$x^2-2 \equiv 0 \quad x^2 \equiv 2 \quad \text{Usually write } x = \sqrt{2}$$

$$|G| = 55 = 5 \cdot 11$$

$N_{11} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$ If $N_{11} = 1$ then $N_{11} \geq 12$

Let K be a subgroup of order 11. $K \cong C_{11}$ =120

If $N_{11} \geq 12$ $K = K_1, K_2, \dots, K_{12}$ got at least $12 \times (11-1)$ elements of order 11. But $|G| = 55$ so $N_{11} = 1$ and K is the unique of order 11 $K \trianglelefteq G$.

Let Q be a subgroup of order 5. $K \cap Q = \{1\}$ $|K||Q| = |G|$

Apply recog $G \cong C_{11} \rtimes_h C_5$ $h: C_5 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_{11})$

$$\text{Aut}(C_{11}) = \{ \varphi_1, \varphi_2, \varphi_3, \varphi_4, \varphi_5, \varphi_6, \varphi_7, \varphi_8, \varphi_9, \varphi_{10} \} \cong C_{10}$$

$$\text{Id} \times \alpha^2 \times \alpha^3 \times \alpha^4 \times \alpha^5 \times \alpha^6 \times \alpha^7 \times \alpha^8 \times \alpha^9$$

$C_5 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_{11})$ must ~~have~~ hit elements of order 5 or 1

$$h_0: C_5 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_{11}) \quad C_5 = \{1, y, \dots, y^4\}$$

$$h_0(y) = \text{Id} \rightsquigarrow C_{11} \times C_5 \cong C_{55}$$

$h_1(y) = \alpha^2$	$YXY^{-1} = X^4$	All isomorphism: $Y^2XY^{-2} = YX^4Y^{-1} = (YXY^{-1})^4 = X^{16} = X^5$ $Y^3XY^{-3} = X^9$ $Y^4XY^{-4} = X^3$
$h_2(y) = \alpha^4$	$YXY^{-1} = X^5$	
$h_3(y) = \alpha^6$	$YXY^{-1} = X^9$	
$h_4(y) = \alpha^8$	$YXY^{-1} = X^3$	

So only 2 groups of order 55, $C_{11} \times C_5 \cong C_{55} = \langle X, Y \mid X^{11} = Y^5 = 1, YX = XY \rangle$

$$G(55) = \langle X, Y \mid X^{11} = Y^5 = 1, YXY^{-1} = X^4 \rangle$$

③ $|G| = 12 = 4 \cdot 3 = 2^2 \cdot 3$

Still go for larger prime : $p=3$ $q=2$.

\exists subgroup H : $|H|=3$

L : $|L|=4$

$N_3 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ $N_3 = 1$ or 4 or $N_7 \geq 7$

$N_7 \geq 7$ gives at least 4 elements of order 3 \times .

Suppose $N_3=4$. Then \exists exactly $4 \times (3-1) = 8$ elements of order 3.

Still $12-8=4$ elements unaccounted for, and L is a subgroup of order 4 so L accounts for missing elements when $N_3=4$.

ie if $N_3=4$ then $N_2=1$.

So either $N_3=1$ and $H \triangleleft G$ or $N_3=4$ and $N_2=1$ and $L \triangleleft G$

So now get either

- i) $C_3 \rtimes C_4$
 - ii) $C_3 \rtimes C_2 \times C_2$
- } when $H \triangleleft G$ L either C_4 or $C_2 \times C_2$

or

- iii) $C_4 \rtimes C_3$
 - iv) $(C_2 \times C_2) \rtimes C_3$
- { when $L \triangleleft G$ $L \cong C_4$ or $C_2 \times C_2$

$$(3) |G| = 8 \quad \boxed{\exists y \in G \text{ st } \text{ord}(y) = 4}$$

Take $H = \{1, y, y^2, y^3\}$ Take $x \in G - H$

i) Show $x^2 \in H$. Firstly, $xH \neq H$ (otherwise $x \in H$ which isn't true)

$$|G/H| = 2 \text{ so only two cosets } G = H \cup xH$$

look at x^2H . A priori $x^2H = \text{either } H \text{ or } xH$.

if $x^2H = xH$ then $x^{-1}x^2H = H$ so $xH = H$ \times .

so $x^2H = H$. By rule of equality $x^2 \cdot 1^{-1} \in H$ i.e. $x^2 \in H$ \square .

So a priori $P_1: x^2 = 1$

$$P_2: x^2 = y$$

$$P_3: x^2 = y^2$$

$$P_4: x^2 = y^3$$

H has index 2 in G so $H \triangleleft G$. so we know $xyx^{-1} \in H$
 But $\text{ord}(xyx^{-1}) = \text{ord}(y)$ because conjugation by x is an ^{auto}isomorphism
 so preserves order.

$$(xyx^{-1})^2 = xyx^{-1}xyx^{-1} = xy^2x^{-1}$$

$$(xyx^{-1})^3 = xy^2x^{-1}xyx^{-1} = xy^3x^{-1}$$

$$(xyx^{-1})^4 = xy^3x^{-1}xyx^{-1} = x/x^{-1} = 1$$

$$\text{ord}(1) = 1 \quad \text{ord}(y) = 4 \quad \text{ord}(y^2) = 2 \quad \text{ord}(y^3) = 4$$

$\text{ord}(xyx^{-1}) = 4$ so either

$$Q1: xyx^{-1} = y$$

$$Q2: xyx^{-1} = y^3$$

P1, Q1) $x^2=1 \quad xyx^{-1}=y \rightarrow C_2 \times C_4 \quad x \cdot y$

P1, Q2) $x^2=1 \quad xyx^{-1}=y^3 \rightarrow D_8 \quad \langle y, x \mid y^4=x^2=1, xyx^{-1}=y^3 \rangle$

2, Q1) $x^2=y \quad xyx^{-1}=y \rightarrow C_8 \quad \text{ord}(x)=8 \quad y=x^2$

2, Q2) $x^2=y \quad xyx^{-1}=y^3 \rightarrow$ subtle. $\text{ord}(x)=8 \quad y=x^2$ But $xy \neq yx$ so
 NO SUCH GROUP. $x(x^2) \neq (x^2)x$

3, Q1) $x^2=y^2 \quad xyx^{-1}=y \rightarrow C_2 \times C_4$ Put $z=xy, z^2=xyxy = xxyy = xy^2 = y^4=1$

3, Q2) $x^2=y^2 \quad xyx^{-1}=y^3 \rightarrow Q_8 \quad x=i \quad y=j \quad x^2=y^2=-1$
 $ij(-i) = -iji = i^2j = -j \quad xyx^{-1}=y^3$

4, Q1) $x^2=y^3 \quad xyx^{-1}=y \rightarrow C_8 \quad \text{ord}(x)=8 \quad \text{ord}(y^3)=4 \quad y=x^6$

4, Q2) $x^2=y^3 \quad xyx^{-1}=y^3 \rightarrow \text{ord}(x)=8$, should be C_8 but x doesn't commute
 with one of its powers x^3 . NO SUCH GROUP.

So if G has order 8 and $\exists y \in G \text{ ord}(y)=4$ then

$$G \cong C_8, C_2 \times C_4, D_8 \text{ or } Q_8$$

Remaining possibility $\forall g \in G \quad g^2=1. \quad G \cong C_2 \times C_2 \times C_2$

So there are exactly 5 groups of order 8.

GROUPS of ORDER 12

I) $G \cong C_3 \rtimes C_4$

Q_8 not a semidirect product.

II) $G \cong C_3 \rtimes (C_2 \times C_2)$

III) $G \cong C_4 \rtimes C_3$

IV) $G \cong (C_2 \times C_2) \rtimes C_3$

(I) $C_3 = \{1, x, x^2 \mid x^3 = 1\}$ $C_4 = \{1, y, y^2, y^3\}$

$YXY^{-1} = X$: Trivial homo $C_4 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_3)$ $C_3 \times C_4$

or $YXY^{-1} = X^2$: $Y^4 = 1$ $D_6^* = \langle X, Y \mid X^3 = Y^4 = 1, YXY^{-1} = X^2 \rangle$

(II) There are 4 homos. $C_2 \times C_2 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_3) = \{1, \tau\}$ $\tau(x) = x^2$

$h_0(s) = h_0(t) = h_0(st) = 1$: $C_3 \times C_2 \times C_2$

$h_1(s) = \tau$ $h_1(t) = 1$ $h_1(st) = \tau$ } $D_6 \times C_2$

$h_2(s) = 1$ $h_2(t) = \tau$ $h_2(st) = \tau$ }

$h_3(s) = \tau$ $h_3(t) = \tau$ $h_3(st) = 1$ }

$h_1 : \langle x, s \rangle, \langle t \rangle$
 $h_2 : \langle x, t \rangle, \langle s \rangle$
 $h_3 : \langle x, s \rangle, \langle st \rangle$
 generators \uparrow

(III) $C_3 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_4) = C_2$ necessarily trivial

$C_4 \times C_3 \cong C_{12}$

(IV) $C_2 \times (C_2 \times C_3)$ or A_4 (twice)

So exactly 5 groups of order 12.

$C_{12} = C_4 \times C_3$, $C_6 \times C_2$, $D_6 \times C_2$, D_6^* , A_4

Ideals and Quotient Rings

Let R be a (commutative) ring. By an ideal I in R we mean that

i) I is an additive subgroup of R , such that

ii) $\forall x \in I, \forall \lambda \in R, \lambda x \in I$ (technically a LEFT ideal)

If I is an ideal in R we write $\boxed{I \triangleleft R}$

eg) Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$

$$I = \{\text{even integers}\} = \{2n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

So I is an additive subgroup $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 2n+2m = 2(n+m) \\ 0 = 2 \cdot 0 \\ 2n+2(-n) = 0 \end{array} \right\}$

Also if $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}, 2n \in I, \lambda 2n = 2(\lambda n) \in I$ so I is an ideal in \mathbb{Z}

Generalisation: Take $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and take $I = (n) = \{\lambda n : \lambda \in \mathbb{Z}\}$
defn.

Then $(n) \triangleleft \mathbb{Z}$

Even greater generalisation

Let R be a commutative ring. Let $x \in R$. Define (x)
 $(x) = \{\lambda x : \lambda \in R\}$ Then (x) is an ideal in R .

Quotient Ring Construction

Let R be a commutative ring, and $I \triangleleft R$ an ideal.
Form R/I quotient group. Because I is an additive subgroup,
elements of R/I have form $\boxed{x+I, x \in R}$

RULE OF EQUALITY (for additive cosets)

$$\boxed{x+I = x'+I \iff x-x' \in I}$$

R/I is obviously an abelian group.

$$\boxed{(x+I) + (y+I) = (x+y) + I}$$

Zero element is $0+I = I$

Inverses: $\boxed{(-x)+I = -(x+I)}$

Proposition : Let R be a commutative ring, and $I \triangleleft R$ an ideal.

Then R/I has a natural ring structure.

Proof : Addition on R/I given above. Need to define result

$$\left[\bullet : \frac{R}{I} \times \frac{R}{I} \rightarrow \frac{R}{I} \right] \quad \left[(x+I) \bullet (y+I) \stackrel{\text{defn}}{=} xy+I \right]$$

Must show that \bullet is well defined, i.e. Suppose

$$x+I = x'+I, \quad y+I = y'+I$$

got to show that $\boxed{xy+I = x'y'+I}$

$$\text{i.e. } (x-x' \in I) \wedge (y-y' \in I) \Rightarrow xy - x'y' \in I.$$

Standard Trick:

$$xy - x'y' = xy - xy' + xy' - x'y' = x(y-y') + (x-x')y'$$

$$(R \text{ commutative}) \text{ so } x(y-y') = y'(x-x')$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} y-y' \in I \text{ so } x(y-y') \in I \\ x-x' \in I \text{ so } y'(x-x') \in I \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow xy - x'y' \in I$$

I additive subgroup.

So \bullet is well defined.

Need to check that $\frac{R}{I} = \left(\frac{R}{I}, +, 0, \bullet, 1 \right)$ is a ring

\uparrow
 $0+I$

\uparrow
 $1+I$

Multiplicative Identity is $1+I$

$$(x+I)(1+I) = x \cdot 1 + I = x+I$$

Multiplication is associative

$$(a+I) \cdot [(y+I) \cdot (z+I)] = (a+I)(yz+I) = x(yz)+I = (xy)z+I$$

$$= (xy+I)(z+I) = [(x+I)(y+I)](z+I)$$

you do the rest.

(eg) $R = \mathbb{Z}$ $I = \left(\frac{2}{1} \right) = \{\text{even integers}\}$

$\mathbb{Z}/(2)$ has exactly two elements.

Two cosets are (2) and $1+(2)$
 \uparrow \uparrow
"0" (2) "1" (2)
{even integers} {odd integers}

Multiplication in $\mathbb{Z}/(2)$

•	$0+(2)$	$1+(2)$	+	$0+(2)$	$1+(2)$
$0+(2)$	$0+(2)$	$0+(2)$	$0+(2)$	$0+(2)$	$1+(2)$
$1+(2)$	$0+(2)$	$1+(2)$	$1+(2)$	$1+(2)$	$0+(2)$

$\mathbb{Z}/2$ is simply \mathbb{F}_2 the field with two elements.

(eg) $R = \mathbb{Z}$ $I = (3)$ $\mathbb{Z}/(3)$ has 3 elements $0+(3), 1+(3), 2+(3)$

Prop: $R = \mathbb{Z}$ $I = (n)$ $n > 0$
Then $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$ has exactly n elements

$0+(n), 1+(n), \dots, n-1+(n)$

If $N \geq n$ divide $N = qn + r$ $N+(n) = r+(n)$, $0 \leq r < n-1$

and $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$ is what we have called \mathbb{Z}/n . We'll show \mathbb{Z}/n is a field $\iff n$ is prime. We need an intermediate concept.

Defn: Say that a (commutative) ring R is an INTEGRAL DOMAIN when if $a, b \in R$ and $ab = 0$ then either $a = 0$ or $b = 0$

- 1: \mathbb{Z} is an integral domain.
- 2: Any field is an integral domain. (but not every ^{integral} domain is a field)
- 3: $\mathbb{Z}/4$ is not an integral domain
Write $[x] = x+(4)$ $[2][2] = 0$ but $[2] \neq [0]$

Prop: A finite ~~(commutative)~~ ^{integral domain} A is a field (Assume commutative but not necessary)

Proof: A finite commutative ring satisfying " $ab = 0 \implies a = 0$ or $b = 0$ ".
Let $a \in A, a \neq 0$. Need to find $y \in A$ $ay = 1$
Consider $\lambda: A \rightarrow A, \lambda(x) = ax$. λ is a homo of additive groups
 $\lambda(x+y) = a(x+y) = ax + ay = \lambda(x) + \lambda(y)$
 λ is injective. Suppose $\lambda(x_1) = \lambda(x_2)$ then $ax_1 = ax_2$ so $a(x_1 - x_2) = 0$
because $a \neq 0$ must have $x_1 - x_2 = 0$ $x_1 = x_2$. An injective map $\lambda: (\text{finite}) \rightarrow (\text{finite})$
has to be surjective. So λ is surj. So $\exists y \in A$ $\lambda(y) = 1$ i.e. $\exists y \in A$ $ay = 1$ \square

\mathbb{Z}/n is obviously finite. Then we have n distinct elements
 $[0], [1], \dots, [n-1]$ ($[r] = \{r+n\mathbb{Z}\}$)

Prop: \mathbb{Z}/n is an integral domain $\Leftrightarrow n$ is prime.

Proof (\Rightarrow) Show the contrapositive i.e. n is not a prime $\Rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n$ not an integral domain. Suppose n not a prime. $n = pk$, p prime, $k \geq 2$.
 Then $[p][k] = [n] = 0$ in \mathbb{Z}/n . But $[p] \neq 0$, $[k] \neq 0$.
 $p < n$, $k < n$ so \mathbb{Z}/n not integral domain. \square

(\Leftarrow) Suppose n is prime. Suppose $[r], [s] \in \mathbb{Z}/n$. Satisfy $[r][s] = 0 \in \mathbb{Z}/n$
 i.e. $rs = \alpha n$ for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}$

Because n is prime, get either
 n divides r so $[r] = 0$

or n divides s so $[s] = 0$ so n is prime and

$[r][s] = 0 \Rightarrow [r] = 0$ or $[s] = 0$ i.e. \mathbb{Z}/n integral domain \square

Corollary: \mathbb{Z}/n is a field $\Leftrightarrow n$ is prime.

Pf: \mathbb{Z}/n is a finite ring. So \mathbb{Z}/n is a field $\Leftrightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n$ integral domain.
 $\Leftrightarrow n$ prime \square .

We now give a parallel case

Two typical rings:

$\mathbb{Z} \leftrightarrow \{\mathbb{F}[x] \text{ ring of polys in } x \text{ with coeffs in field } \mathbb{F}\}$
 Very similar properties

Instead of \mathbb{Z}/n we'll ~~look~~ look at $\mathbb{F}[x]/p(x)$ where $p(x)$ is some nonzero polynomial.

Question: How should we represent (practically) the elements of $\mathbb{F}[x]/p(x)$

Analogy: In \mathbb{Z}/n : $[N] = [r]$ when $N = qn + r$
 i.e. divide N by n and take remainder.

In $\mathbb{F}[x] / \langle p(x) \rangle$ $[a(x)] = [r(x)]$ where $a(x) = q(x)p(x) + r(x)$

i.e. divide $a(x)$ by $p(x)$ and take remainder.

Division Algorithm for Polynomials

Work in $\mathbb{F}[x]$. \mathbb{F} field. If $p(x)$ has degree n and $a(x)$ has degree $N \geq n$ can divide $a(x)$ by $p(x)$ to get

$$a(x) = q(x)p(x) + r(x) \text{ and } \boxed{\deg(r) < \deg(p) = n}$$

and note

$$a(x) - r(x) = q(x)p(x) \in \langle p(x) \rangle \text{ Ideal}$$

So if I write $\begin{cases} [a(x)] \text{ for } a(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle \\ [r(x)] \text{ for } r(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle \end{cases}$ then $[a(x)] = [r(x)]$

So we represent elements of $\left(\mathbb{F}[x] / \langle p(x) \rangle \right)$ by the possible remainders $r(x)$ $\deg r(x) < \deg p(x) = n$

Representation Connection: We represent elements of $\mathbb{F}[x] / \langle p(x) \rangle$ by polynomials $r(x) = r_{n-1}x^{n-1} + r_{n-2}x^{n-2} + \dots + r_1x + r_0$

$$r_0, \dots, r_{n-1} \in \mathbb{F}$$

Observe that

Prop: $\mathbb{F}[x] / \langle p(x) \rangle$ is a vector space over \mathbb{F} and $\dim_{\mathbb{F}} \left[\mathbb{F}[x] / \langle p(x) \rangle \right] = \deg(p(x))$

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Simple eg: } p(x) = x^3 + x^2 + 2x + 1 \\ \text{Possible remainders } (\deg p = 3) \quad r_2x^2 + r_1x + r_0 \quad \dim \frac{\mathbb{F}[x]}{\langle p(x) \rangle} = 3 \end{array} \right]$$

Pf: Have a basis

$1, x, \dots, x^{n-1}$ with n elements \square .

Theorem: Let A be a ring such that (commutative)

i) A contains a field \mathbb{F} as a subring

ii) $\dim_{\mathbb{F}}(A)$ is finite (finite dimensional)

Then A is an integral domain $\Leftrightarrow A$ is a field.

Proof (\Leftarrow) Trivial

(\Rightarrow) Suppose A integral domain, let $a \in A$ $a \neq 0$. I have to find $b \in A$ s.t. $ab=1$. Consider $\lambda_a: A \rightarrow A$
 $\lambda_a(y) = ay$.

λ_a is linear. $\lambda_a(y_1 + y_2) = a(y_1 + y_2) = ay_1 + ay_2 = \lambda_a(y_1) + \lambda_a(y_2)$

$\lambda_a(\xi y) = a(\xi y) = (a\xi)y = (\xi a)y = \xi(ay) = \xi \lambda_a(y) \Rightarrow \lambda_a$ linear

As $\dim A$ finite apply Kernel-Rank Thm

$$\dim \ker(\lambda_a) + \dim(\text{Im } \lambda_a) = \dim A$$

But $\ker \lambda_a = 0$ why?

$\lambda_a(y) = 0 \Rightarrow ay = 0$ and $a \neq 0$

so $y = 0$ (A integral domain)

so $\dim \text{Im } \lambda_a = \dim A$ so λ_a surjective.

so $\exists b \in A$ $\lambda_a(b) = 1$

$\exists b \in A$ $ab = 1$ and A is a field \square .

Beware Result is definitely false if $\dim A = +\infty$.

(eg) $A = \mathbb{F}[x]$. A is ∞ dim. has bases $1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n, x^{n+1}, \dots$

$\mathbb{F}[x]$ is an integral domain but $\mathbb{F}[x]$ is not a field.
 x has no inverse.

$\mathbb{F}[x]/(p(x))$ is finite dimensional $\neq \mathbb{F}$

Obvious Question: What is $\mathbb{F}[x]/(p(x))$ an integral domain?

Recall $p(x) \neq 0$

Defn: $p(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ is said to be irreducible over \mathbb{F} when $p(x) = a(x)b(x)$
 $\Rightarrow a(x)$ is a constant or $b(x)$ is a constant

Equivalently, $p(x)$ irred $\neq \mathbb{F}$ when $p(x) = a(x)b(x)$

$\Rightarrow \deg a(x) = 1$ and $\deg b(x) = \deg p(x)$ (or) $\deg(a(x)) = \deg p(x)$ and $\deg b(x) = 1$

So we'll prove

Thm: $\deg p(x) \geq 1$ $p(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x]$. Then $\frac{\mathbb{F}[x]}{p(x)}$ is an integral domain $\Leftrightarrow p(x)$ irred \mathbb{F} .

In $\mathbb{F}[x]$ every poly of $\deg \geq 2$ can be expressed uniquely
 $p(x) = C a_1(x) \dots a_m(x)$ where $C \in \mathbb{F}$
and $a_1(x) \dots a_m(x)$ irreducible and monic. (leading coeff = 1)
(Unique up to order)

Thm: $p(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ $\deg p(x) \geq 1$

$\frac{\mathbb{F}[x]}{p(x)}$ is an integral domain $\Leftrightarrow p(x)$ is irreducible over \mathbb{F} .

Pf: (\Rightarrow) Easier to look at contrapositive.

i.e. if $p(x)$ is not irreducible $\Rightarrow \frac{\mathbb{F}[x]}{p(x)}$ is not an integral domain.

If $p(x)$ is not irreducible then write $p(x) = a(x)b(x)$

$1 \leq \deg a < \deg p$ and $1 \leq \deg b < \deg p$

So now $[a(x)][b(x)] = [p(x)] = 0$ on $\frac{\mathbb{F}[x]}{p(x)}$

but $[a(x)] \neq 0$ and $[b(x)] \neq 0$ \Rightarrow

(\Leftarrow) Suppose $p(x)$ is irreducible and suppose $a(x), b(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x]$
such that $[a(x)][b(x)] = 0$ on $\frac{\mathbb{F}[x]}{p(x)}$

i.e. $a(x)b(x) = q(x)p(x)$ for some $q(x)$
Decompose $a(x), b(x)$ into products of irreducibles.

$a(x) = A \alpha_1(x) \dots \alpha_m(x)$ $b(x) = B \beta_1(x) \dots \beta_n(x)$ \parallel $\alpha_i(x), \beta_j(x)$ irreducible.

$a(x)b(x) = AB \alpha_1(x) \dots \alpha_m(x) \beta_1(x) \dots \beta_n(x) = q(x)p(x)$

By uniqueness of factorisation because $p(x)$ is irreducible on RHS
it must also be on LHS. So either $\alpha_i(x) = (\text{constant}) p(x)$ for some i (I)
or $\beta_j(x) = (\text{constant}) p(x)$ for some j (II)

If (I) then $p(x)$ divides $a(x)$ and $[a(x)] = 0$

If (II) then $p(x)$ divides $b(x)$ and $[b(x)] = 0$

Either way, $[a(x)][b(x)] = 0 \Rightarrow [a(x)] = 0$ or $[b(x)] = 0$ \square

Corollary: Let $\deg p(x) \geq 1$ $p(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ \mathbb{F} field.

Then following conditions are equivalent.

i) $\mathbb{F}[x]/p(x)$ is a field

ii) " " an integral domain

iii) $p(x)$ irreducible.

So this is a way of constructing new fields from old fields.
 \mathbb{F} field I have seen before.

$p(x)$ irreducible polynomial in $\mathbb{F}[x]$. $\mathbb{F}[x]/p(x)$ is then a new field

(egs) 1) $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ (Boring)

Let $p(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$. $\deg p(x) \geq 1$. When is $p(x)$ irreducible?

Only when $p(x) = A(x-\lambda)$ linear. Every poly in $\mathbb{C}[x]$ is a product of linear factors.

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \mathbb{C}[x]/x-\lambda \cong \mathbb{C} \quad \dim_{\mathbb{C}} \left(\mathbb{C}[x]/x-\lambda \right) = 1 \quad \text{and } \mathbb{C} \subset \mathbb{C}[x]/x-\lambda \\ \text{so } \mathbb{C}[x]/x-\lambda \cong \mathbb{C} \quad \text{gives nothing new} \end{array} \right]$$

2) Slightly more interesting. $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$.

$p(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ $\deg p(x) \geq 1$. When is $p(x)$ irreducible over \mathbb{R} ?

Irred polys over \mathbb{R} : one of two sorts.

i) $p(x) = A(x-\lambda)$ linear, $A, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

ii) $p(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$ $b^2 - 4ac < 0$

$$\frac{\mathbb{R}[x]}{x-\lambda} \cong \mathbb{R}$$

$$\frac{\mathbb{R}[x]}{ax^2+bx+c} \cong \mathbb{C} \quad (b^2-4ac < 0)$$

3) Much more interesting $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{Q}$ cont. ...

Isomorphism of Rings

Let R, S be rings. By a ring homomorphism $\varphi: R \rightarrow S$ I mean a mapping such that

$$i) \varphi(x+y) = \varphi(x) + \varphi(y)$$

$$ii) \varphi(xy) = \varphi(x)\varphi(y) \quad \forall x, y \in R.$$

$$iii) \varphi(1_R) = 1_S$$

By a ring isomorphism $\varphi: R \cong S$ I mean a bijective ^{homom}

Defn: Let R_1, R_2 be rings. By $R_1 \times R_2$ we mean the ring obtained thus:

$$(x_1, x_2) + (y_1, y_2) = (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2)$$

$$(x_1, x_2)(y_1, y_2) = (x_1 y_1, x_2 y_2)$$

$$1_{R_1 \times R_2} = (1_{R_1}, 1_{R_2})$$

$$1 = (1, 1)$$

that 3d) sheet 8

In $R_1 \times R_2$ you get elements $e_1 = (1, 0)$ $e_2 = (0, 1)$ $\{1 = e_1 + e_2$
 $e_1^2 = e_1$ $e_2^2 = e_2$ $e_1 e_2 = e_2 e_1\} \Leftrightarrow$ Idempotents

It ought to be clear that we get more types of irreducible \mathbb{Q}
than over \mathbb{R} .

eg) $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{C}$. Over \mathbb{R} can factorise $(x^2 - 2) = (x - \sqrt{2})(x + \sqrt{2})$
but it is not a factorisation over \mathbb{Q} : $x^2 - 2$ irred \mathbb{Q}

$$\mathbb{Q}[x] / \langle x^2 - 2 \rangle = \{a + bx : a, b \in \mathbb{Q} \mid x^2 - 2 = 0 \mid x^2 = 2\}$$

So we can think of x as $\sqrt{2}$ $\mathbb{Q}[x] / \langle x^2 - 2 \rangle = \{a + b\sqrt{2} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$

Kronecker c. 1860 AD.

Eisenstein's Criterion (c 1850)

Let p be prime.

$$a(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

where $a_n, \dots, a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ st

i) $a_n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$

ii) $a_r \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \quad 0 \leq r \leq n-1$

iii) $a_0 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}$

Then $a(x)$ is irred over \mathbb{Q}

(eg) $p = 7$. $x^{10} + 49x^5 + 14x^2 + 21$ irred over \mathbb{Q}
" 3.7

Eisenstein's Criterion

Let p be a prime with $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ (Integer polynomial) such that

$$a(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

- i) $a_n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$
- ii) $a_r \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \quad 0 \leq r \leq n-1$
- iii) $a_0 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}$

Then $a(x)$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Q}

(eg) $x^{100} + 43x^{57} + 86$

Irreducible ~~over~~ \mathbb{Q} $p=43$

(eg) $y^4 + 4y^3 + 6y^2 + 4y + 4 = (y+1)^4 + 3$

with $p=2$ this fails on the constant

$$4 \equiv 0 \pmod{2^2}$$

(eg) $a(y) = (y+1)^4 + 3$

if I put $x = y+1$ $x^4 + 3$

which passes Eisenstein with $p=3$

if $a(y) = a_1(y)a_2(y)$ $\deg a_i < 4$

I'd get a factorisation

$$x^4 + 3 = a_1(x-1)a_2(x-1)$$

But there is no such factorisation because $x^4 + 3$ is irred.

So can substitute $y = x+a$ $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and try again.

(eg) Let p be a prime -

Define $C_p(x) = x^{p-1} + x^{p-2} + \dots + x + 1$

So $x^p - 1 = (x-1)C_p(x)$

Cyclotomic polynomial

Prop: $C_p(x)$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Q}

Proof: $x^p - 1 = (x-1)C_p(x)$

$$\left(\frac{x^p - 1}{x-1}\right) = C_p(x) \quad \text{Put } y = x-1 \text{ or } x = y+1$$

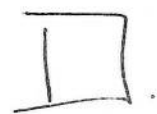
$$x^p = (y+1)^p = y^p + \sum_{r=1}^{p-1} \binom{p}{r} y^r + 1$$

$$\text{So } x^p - 1 = y^p + \sum_{r=1}^{p-1} \binom{p}{r} y^r$$

$$C_p(x) = \left(\frac{x^p - 1}{x-1}\right) = \frac{y^p + \sum_{r=1}^{p-1} \binom{p}{r} y^r}{y} = y^{p-1} + \sum_{r=1}^{p-1} \binom{p}{r} y^{r-1}$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Put } s=r-1 \\ r=s+1 \end{array} \right] = y^{p-1} + \sum_{s=0}^{p-2} \binom{p}{s+1} y^s = y^{p-1} + \sum_{s=1}^{p-2} \binom{p}{s+1} y^s + p$$

This satisfies Eisenstein so $C_p(x)$ is ~~irred~~ &



Defn: Say that a polynomial $a(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, $\deg(a) = n \geq 2$ has no proper factorisation over \mathbb{Z} when there is no factorisation $a(x) = b(x)c(x)$ where $b(x), c(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ and $\deg b(x) < n, \deg c(x) < n$ (not just irreducibility)

Thm: (Eisenstein over \mathbb{Z})

Let p be a prime. Let $a(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$ where $a_0, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ st.

i) $a_n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$

ii) $a_r \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \quad 0 \leq r \leq n-1$

iii) $a_0 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}$

\Rightarrow Then $a(x)$ has no proper factorisation over \mathbb{Z} .

Proof: Suppose you can write $a(x) = b(x)c(x)$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} b(x) &= b_k x^k + \dots + b_1 x + b_0 \\ c(x) &= c_l x^l + \dots + c_1 x + c_0 \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{aligned} b_k &\neq 0 \\ c_l &\neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

~~So that~~ with $k < n$, $l < n$ and $k+l = n$.

$$a(x) = a_n x^n + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

Look at constant terms

$$a_0 = b_0 c_0$$

a_0 is divisible by p , but not by p^2 . So either $p|b_0$ and $p \nmid c_0$ OR $p \nmid b_0$ and $p|c_0$ wlog assume

Next look at coeffs of x .

$$a_1 = b_0 c_1 + b_1 c_0$$

$a_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ so RHS divisible by p so RHS is divisible by p .
 c_0 is divisible by p so $b_0 c_1$ is divisible by p . $p \nmid b_0$ so c_1 is divisible by p . $S \neq 5$

We'll show by induction on s that each c_s is divisible by p .

True already for $s=0,1$. Suppose proved for $s < S$

and consider coeffs of x^s $s < n$

$$a_s = b_0 c_s + b_1 c_{s-1} + \dots + b_s c_0$$

$$a_s = b_0 c_s + \sum_{t=1}^s b_t c_{s-t}$$

By hypothesis $a_s \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ so RHS is divisible by p .

By induction hypothesis each c_{s-t} is divisible by p ($1 \leq t \leq s$)

So $b_0 c_s$ is divisible by p . But $p \nmid b_0$ so $p|c_s$

So by induction $c_s \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ for $0 \leq s < l$

Now look at coeffs of x^n $a_n = b_k c_l$

Shown $c_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ Hence \times

$$a_n \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

Hence no such factorisation exists \square .

Coeffs of x^2

$$a_2 = \underbrace{b_0 c_2}_{\substack{\text{ir by} \\ p}} + \cancel{b_1 c_1} + \cancel{b_2 c_0} \quad \checkmark \text{ divisible by } p$$

↑ induction shows its div by p

↑ must be div by p.

still need to show "Gauss' Lemma"

if $a(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ has no proper factorisation over \mathbb{Z} then $a(x)$ also has proper factorisation over \mathbb{Q}

If $a(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ has no proper factorisation of \mathbb{Z} then $a(x)$ has no proper factorisation over \mathbb{Q} .

Defn: Let $a(x) = a_n x^n + \dots + a_0$, $a_r \in \mathbb{Z} \forall r$

Define the content $C(a)$ to be $\text{HCF}(a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_0)$

can factorise $a(x) = C(a) a_0(x)$ where $a_0(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, $C(a_0) = 1$

Gauss' Lemma

$$[C(b) = 1] \wedge [C(c) = 1] \Rightarrow C[b(x)c(x)] = 1$$

Proof: Write $a(x) = b(x)c(x)$ $b(x) = b_m x^m + \dots + b_0$
 $c(x) = c_n x^n + \dots + c_0$

Suppose $C(b) = 1$, $C(c) = 1$ but $C(a) \neq 1$

Then for at least one prime p , p divides each a_r :

$$a(x) = a_{m+n} x^{m+n} + \dots + a_0$$

Put $k = \min \{r : p \nmid b_r\}$ $l = \min \{r : p \nmid c_r\}$

Then p divides b_r when $r < k$. p divides c_r when $r < l$

$$\text{Consider } a_{k+l} = b_k c_l + \sum_{r>1} b_{k-r} c_{l+r} + \sum_{r \neq 1} b_{k+r} c_{l-r}$$

$$\text{NB: } \sum_{r \neq 0} b_{k-r} c_{l+r} = 0 \pmod{p} \text{ so } a_{k+l} \equiv b_k c_l \pmod{p} \neq 0 \pmod{p}$$

Corollary: ~~let~~ $a(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ $a(x)$ has no proper factorisation over $\mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow a(x)$ has no proper factorisation over \mathbb{Q}

Proof: Suppose $\deg a(x) = n$ $a(x) = \beta(x)\delta(x)$, $\beta, \delta \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$

Multiply by LCM = M ^{all coeffs of $\beta(x)$} st $M\beta(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ and $N\delta(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$
 $N = \text{LCM of all coeffs of } \delta(x)$

$$\text{so } MN a(x) = [M\beta(x)][N\delta(x)] = b(x)c(x), \quad b = M\beta \quad c = N\delta$$

Let $A = C(a)$, $B = C(b)$, $C = C(c)$

$$a(x) = Aa_0(x), \quad b(x) = Bb_0(x), \quad c(x) = Cc_0(x)$$

$$MNAa_0(x) = BCb_0(x)Cc_0(x) \quad \text{By Gauss' lemma } C(b_0c_0) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow MNA = BC \Rightarrow a_0(x) = b_0(x)c_0(x)$$

$a(x) = Ab_0(x)c_0(x)$ This is a proper factorisation over $\mathbb{Z}[X]$.

so now Eisenstein (over \mathbb{Q})

f $a(x) = a_n x^n + \dots + a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ and for some prime p :

- i) $a_n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$
 - ii) $a_r \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \quad r < n$
 - iii) $a_0 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}$
- } Then $a(x)$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

Factorisation of Cyclotomic Polynomials

Solns to $x^n - 1 = 0$ over \mathbb{C} are $x = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i r}{n}\right)$ so $y^r = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i r}{n}\right)$ are roots.

forms a cyclic group generated by y .

$$x^n - 1 = \prod_{r=0}^{n-1} (x - y^r) \quad \text{NB: } \text{ord } y^r = d = \frac{n}{\text{lcm}(n, r)}$$

$$\text{write } C_d(x) = \prod_{\text{ord } y^r = d} (x - y^r)$$

$$\therefore x^n - 1 = \prod_{d \mid n} \left[\prod_{\text{ord } y^r = d} (x - y^r) \right] = \prod_{d \mid n} C_d(x)$$

(eg) $x - 1 = C_1(x)$

$$x^2 - 1 = C_1(x)C_2(x) = (x-1)C_2(x) = (x-1)(x+1) \Rightarrow C_2(x) = x+1$$

$$x^3 - 1 = C_1(x)C_3(x) = (x-1)(x^2+x+1)$$

NB: $C_p(x) = \frac{x^p - 1}{x - 1} = x^{p-1} + x^{p-2} + \dots + x + 1$ irreducible

$$x^4 - 1 = C_1(x) C_2(x) C_4(x) = (x^2 - 1) C_4(x) \Rightarrow C_4(x) = x^2 + 1$$

$$x^6 - 1 = C_1(x) C_2(x) C_3(x) C_6(x) = \cancel{(x^2 - 1)} \cancel{(x^2 + 1)} C_6(x)$$

$$(x^3 - 1)(x + 1) C_6(x) \Rightarrow x^3 + 1 = (x + 1) C_6(x) \Rightarrow C_6 = x^2 - x + 1$$

NB: $C_6(x) = C_3(-x)$ also $C_8 = x^4 + 1$

$$x^{24} - 1 = C_1(x) C_2(x) C_3(x) C_4(x) C_6(x) C_8(x) C_{12}(x) C_{24}(x)$$

first find C_{12}

$$x^{12} - 1 = (C_1 C_2 C_3 C_6) C_4 C_{12} = (x^6 - 1)(x^2 + 1) C_{12} \Rightarrow (x^6 + 1) = (x^2 + 1) C_{12}$$

$$C_{12} = x^4 - x^2 + 1$$

$$x^{24} - 1 = (x^{12} - 1) C_8 C_{24} \Rightarrow C_{24} = \frac{x^{12} + 1}{x^4 + 1} = x^8 - x^4 + 1 = C_3(-x^4)$$

Can also factorise $x^n + 1 = \frac{x^{2n} - 1}{x^n - 1}$

$$x^{15} - 1 = C_1 C_3 C_5 C_{15} = (x^5 - 1) C_3 C_{15}$$

$$x^8 - x^7 + x^5 - x^4 + x^3 - x + 1$$

$$\Rightarrow C_3 C_{15} = x^{10} + x^5 + 1 \Rightarrow C_{15} = x^2 + x + 1 \sqrt{x^{10} + x^5 + 1}$$

$$\frac{x^n + 1}{x^q + 1} = x^{n-q} - x^{n-2q} + x^{n-3q} - x^{n-4q} + \dots + 1$$

② $\frac{\mathbb{F}_5[x]}{x^2+2x+2} \xrightarrow{\cong} \frac{\mathbb{F}_5[x]}{4y^2+4y+2}$

01234

$\varphi(a+bx) = a+4by$ obviously linear so $x=4y$

$(4y)^2 + 4y + 2 = 16y^2 + 4y + 2 = y^2 + 4y + 2$

check φ preserves mult, i.e.

$\varphi[(a+bx)(c+dx)] = \varphi(a+bx) \varphi(c+dx)$ $x^2 = -x-2$

$\varphi(ac + (ad+bc)x + bdx^2) = \varphi(ac + (ad+bc)x - bdx - 2bd)$
 $= \varphi((ac - 2bd) + (ad+bc - bd)x)$

$\Rightarrow \varphi(a+bx)(c+dx) = ac - 2bd + 4(ad+bc - bd)y$

Other way

$\varphi(a+bx) \varphi(c+dx) = (a+4by)(c+4dy) = ac + 4bcy + 4ady + 16bdy^2$
 $= (ac - 2bd) + 4(ad+bc - bd)y$ $y^2 = -4y - 2$

NOT $\frac{\mathbb{F}_5[x]}{x^2+2x+2} = \mathbb{C}_{24}$ unless $\left(\frac{\mathbb{F}_5[x]}{x^2+2x+2}\right)^* = \mathbb{C}_{24}$

③ i) $\frac{\mathbb{F}[x]}{x^2-1} \cong \mathbb{F} \times \mathbb{F}$ provided $2 \neq 0$ in \mathbb{F} i.e. 2^{-1} exists in \mathbb{F} .

$e_1 = \frac{1+x}{2}, e_2 = \frac{1-x}{2} : e_1 + e_2 = 1, e_1 e_2 = 0, e_1^2 = \frac{1+2x+x^2}{4} = \frac{2+2x}{4} = \frac{1+x}{2}$

An element is idempotent when $e^2 = e$

Obvious idempotents in $\mathbb{F} \times \mathbb{F} : e_1 = (1,0), e_2 = (0,1), e_1^2 = e_1, e_2^2 = e_2$

$e_1 + e_2 = (1,1) = 1, e_1 e_2 = 0$

$$\varphi: \mathbb{F} \times \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \frac{\mathbb{F}[x]}{x^2-1}$$

$$(a, b) = a\epsilon_1 + b\epsilon_2$$

$$\varphi(a, b) = a\varphi(\epsilon_1) + b\varphi(\epsilon_2)$$

$$\epsilon_1 \rightarrow e_1$$

$$= \frac{a(1+x)}{2} + \frac{b(1-x)}{2}$$

$$\epsilon_2 \rightarrow e_2$$

$$= \left(\frac{a+b}{2}, \frac{a-b}{2} \right)$$

$$\text{ii) } \frac{\mathbb{R}[x]}{x^2+a} \cong \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \quad \text{when } a < 0$$

$$\text{Write } a = -b \quad b > 0$$

$$\text{Put } y = \frac{x}{\sqrt{b}} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{-a}}$$

$$\left| \begin{aligned} \frac{\mathbb{R}[x]}{x^2+a} &\cong \frac{\mathbb{R}[x]}{x^2-b} \cong \frac{\mathbb{R}[x]}{x^2-(\sqrt{b})^2} \\ &= \frac{\mathbb{R}[y]}{y^2-1} \cong \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \quad \text{by above.} \end{aligned} \right.$$

$$\frac{\mathbb{R}[x]}{x^2+a} \quad a > 0 \quad \text{Only nonzero idempotent is } 1$$

$$\text{Make a transformation } y = \frac{x}{\sqrt{a}}$$

$$\frac{\mathbb{R}[x]}{x^2+a} \cong \frac{\mathbb{R}[y]}{y^2+1} \cong \mathbb{C}$$

Finite Subgroups of \mathbb{F}^*

\mathbb{F} field. $\mathbb{F}^* = \{x \in \mathbb{F} : x \neq 0\}$ \mathbb{F}^* forms a group under mult.

Thm: If $G \subset \mathbb{F}^*$ is a finite subgroup then G is cyclic.

Prop: Let \mathbb{F} be a field, p a prime and $G \subset \mathbb{F}^*$ a subgroup with $|G| = p^n$. Then $G \cong C_{p^n}$.

Proof: Suppose $G \not\cong C_{p^n}$. If $x \in G$ then the only possibilities for $\text{ord}(x)$ are $1, p, p^2, \dots, p^{n-1}$ (by Lagrange)

Let $e = \max \{r : 0 \leq r \leq n-1 \text{ st } \exists x \in G \text{ ord}(x) = p^r\}$

so $\exists x \in G : \text{ord}(x) = p^e \quad e < n$. So every other element $y \in G$

satisfies $\boxed{y^{p^e} = 1}$ so $\forall y \in G$ y satisfies the eqn $\boxed{g^{p^e} = 1}$

Thus \exists a polynomial eqn $\overline{\mathbb{F}}$ of degree p^e so \exists at most p^e solutions and every element $g \in G$ is a solution

so $|G| \leq p^e$ But $|G| = p^n$ contradiction since $e < n$.

Hence G has an element of order p^n . Hence $G \cong C_{p^n}$ \square

Corollary: Let \mathbb{F} be a field $G \subset \mathbb{F}^*$ a finite subgroup

Then G is cyclic.

Proof: Write $|G| = p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \dots p_m^{n_m}$ where p_1, \dots, p_m are distinct primes. If $m=1$ shown that G is cyclic. Prove by induction on m that G is cyclic. Induction base is ok. So assume proved for $m-1$ and let $|G| = p_1^{n_1} \dots p_m^{n_m}$ as above.

By Sylow for each i \exists subgroup $G_i \in G$ with $|G_i| = p_i^{n_i}$

In particular each G_i is cyclic. If $i \neq j$ $G_i G_j = G_j G_i$,

so $G' = G_1 \cdot \dots \cdot G_{m-1}$ $|G'| = p_1^{n_1} \dots p_{m-1}^{n_{m-1}}$ By induction G' is cyclic.

$$G = G' \cdot G_m$$

$|G_m| = p_m^{n_m}$ is cyclic also (by induction base).

$$G' G_m = G_m G' \quad (\mathbb{F}^* \text{ is abelian})$$

$$G' \cap G_m = \{1\} \quad \text{coprime orders.}$$

$G \cong G' \times G_m$ Product of cyclic groups of coprime order
Hence cyclic. \square .

Corollary: Let p be a prime.

$$\text{Then } \text{Aut}(C_p) \cong C_{p-1}$$

$$\text{Proof: } C_p = \{1, x, \dots, x^{p-1}\} \quad x^p = 1$$

$$\text{Aut}(C_p) = \{ \varphi_r ; r \text{ coprime to } p \} = \{ \varphi_1, \varphi_2, \dots, \varphi_{p-1} \} \quad \text{because } p \text{ is prime.}$$

Let $\mathbb{F}_p = \text{field with } p \text{ elements.}$

$$\mathbb{F}_p^* = \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \mathbb{F}_p^* \longrightarrow \text{Aut}(C_p) \\ r \longmapsto \varphi_r \end{array} \right\} \text{ is a group isomorphism.}$$

But \mathbb{F}_p^* is finite so by above

$$\mathbb{F}_p^* \cong C_{p-1} \quad \text{Hence } \text{Aut}(C_p) \cong C_{p-1} \quad \square.$$

$$(\mathbb{Z}/n)^* ?$$

\mathbb{Z}/n is the ring of residues mod n .

$$(\mathbb{Z}/n)^* = \{ x \in \mathbb{Z}/n : \exists y \in \mathbb{Z}/n \text{ such that } xy = 1 \}$$

$(\mathbb{Z}/n)^*$ is the unit group of invertible elements in \mathbb{Z}/n

$$\text{When } n=p \text{ is prime } (\mathbb{Z}/p)^* \cong \mathbb{F}_p^* \cong C_{p-1}$$

What happens when n is composite?

Defn: Define $\Phi(n) = |(\mathbb{Z}/n)^*| = \text{no. of invertible residues mod } n$.

Euler's Phi Function.

How to compute $\Phi(n)$

Rule 1: If m, n are coprime then $\Phi(mn) = \Phi(m)\Phi(n)$

Proof: Consider the following mappings.

$$\mathcal{V}: \mathbb{Z}/mn \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/m \times \mathbb{Z}/n$$

$$\mathcal{V}([x]_{mn}) = ([x]_m, [x]_n)$$

\mathcal{V} is additive and multiplicative (easy!)
If m, n are coprime then \mathcal{V} is injective. Why?

Suppose $\mathcal{V}([x]_{mn}) = (0, 0)$

This means $x = km$ for some k

This 0 means $x = ln$ for some l .

$$km = ln$$

$km = ln$ because m, n are coprime so we must have

$$k = \lambda n, \quad l = \mu m$$

$$x = \lambda mn \quad \text{so } [x]_{mn} = 0$$

$$|\mathbb{Z}/mn| = mn \quad |\mathbb{Z}/m \times \mathbb{Z}/n| = mn$$

Because Φ is injective it is surjective.

$$\text{So } \mathbb{Z}/mn \cong \mathbb{Z}/m \times \mathbb{Z}/n \quad \text{so } (\mathbb{Z}/mn)^* \cong (\mathbb{Z}/m)^* \times (\mathbb{Z}/n)^*$$

so $\Phi(mn) = \Phi(m)\Phi(n)$ if m, n coprime \square . So

Rule 2: If $n = p_1^{e_1} \dots p_k^{e_k}$ where p_1, \dots, p_k distinct primes.

$$\text{then } \Phi(n) = \Phi(p_1^{e_1}) \dots \Phi(p_k^{e_k})$$

So it suffices to compute

$\Phi(p^m)$ when p is prime.

Rule 3: If p is prime $\Phi(p^m) = (p-1)p^{m-1}$

Proof: The non-invertible elements of \mathbb{Z}/p^m are the residues which are divisible by p . The invertible elements are those which are non-zero mod p .

$$\mathbb{Z}/p^m \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{Z}/p$$

$$[x]_{p^m} \mapsto [x]_p$$

Non invertible elements = $\ker \varphi$ $|\ker \varphi| = p^{m-1}$

Invertible elements belong to cosets

$$1 + \ker(\varphi), 2 + \ker(\varphi), \dots, (p-1) + \ker(\varphi)$$

Each coset has p^{m-1} elements so

$$\Phi(p^m) = (p-1)p^{m-1} \quad \square$$

$$\Phi(n) = |(\mathbb{Z}/n)^*| \quad \text{Euler Phi Function}$$

- i) Number of invertible elements in \mathbb{Z}/n
- ii) Number of generators of C_n
- iii) Order of $\text{Aut}(C_n)$

$$1) \Phi(mn) = \Phi(m)\Phi(n)$$

$$2) \text{ If } n = p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_k^{e_k} \quad \text{where } p_1, \dots, p_k \text{ distinct primes}$$

$$\Phi(n) = \prod_{i=1}^k \Phi(p_i^{e_i})$$

$$3) \Phi(p^m) = (p-1)p^{m-1} = \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)p^m$$

$$4) \Phi(n) = \left[\prod_{i=1}^k \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right) \right] n \quad \text{where } p_1, \dots, p_k \text{ are distinct primes dividing } n.$$

$$\boxed{\Phi(100) = 40} \quad 100 = 2^2 \cdot 5^2$$

$$\Phi(100) = \Phi(2^2)\Phi(5^2) \quad 2 \times 4 \times 5 = 40$$

$$\Phi(360) \quad 360 = 2^3 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5$$

$$\Phi(360) = \Phi(2^3)\Phi(3^2)\Phi(5) = 4 \times 6 \times 4 = 96.$$

n	G	Complete?
1	$\{1\}$	✓
2	C_2	✓
3	C_3	✓
4	$C_4, C_2 \times C_2$	✓
5	C_5	✓
6	C_6, D_6	✓
7	C_7	✓
8	$C_8, C_4 \times C_2, C_2 \times C_2 \times C_2, D_8, Q_8$	✓
9	$C_9, C_3 \times C_3$	✓
10	C_{10}, D_{10}	✓
11	C_{11}	✓
12	$C_{12}, C_6 \times C_2, D_{12}, D_6^*, A_4$	✓
13	C_{13}	✓
14	C_{14}, D_{14}	✓
15	C_{15}	✓
16	\ddot{a}	
17	C_{17}	✓
18	Involved	
19	C_{19}	✓
20	$C_{20}, C_2 \times C_{10}, D_{20}, D_{10}^*, G(20)$	
21	$C_{21}, G(21)$	✓
22	C_{22}, D_{22}	✓
23	C_{23}	✓
24	Involved	
25	$C_{25}, C_5 \times C_5$	✓

$C_{20}^* = C_4 \times C_5$
 $C_2 \times C_{10} = C_2 \times C_2 \times C_5$

Thm

If p is prime then there are exactly 2 distinct groups of order p^2 , namely C_{p^2} and $C_p \times C_p$.

Proof: For $p=2$ we already know this

First prove lemma 1: If $|G| = p^n$ (p prime) then

$Z(G)$ is non trivial. $Z(G) = \{x \in G : \forall y \in G, xy = yx\}$

proof: Let G act on itself by conjugation.

$$G \times G \rightarrow G.$$

$$g \cdot x = gxg^{-1}$$

The fixed point set under this action is precisely $Z(G)$

$gxg^{-1} = x \iff xg = gx$. If $gxg^{-1} = x \forall g$ then $x \in Z(G)$ & conversely.

So, $Z(G) = G^G$ so $|Z(G)| \equiv |G| \pmod{p}$

But $|G| \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ so $|Z(G)| \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.

If $Z(G) = \{1\}$ then would get $|Z(G)| \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, so $Z(G) \neq \{1\}$ \square

Lemma 2: If G is nonabelian then $G/Z(G)$ is not cyclic.
Proved as exercise.

$\star: G \times X \rightarrow X$ ASIDE

$X^G = \{x \in X : \forall g \in G, g \cdot x = x\}$ so G^G is defined

Corollary: If $|G| = p^2$ then G is abelian

Proof: If G is nonabelian $Z(G) \neq 1$ by lemma 1.

so $|Z(G)| = p$ (can't be p^2 otherwise $G = Z(G)$ is abelian)

Hence $|G/Z(G)| = p$ so $G/Z(G)$ is cyclic (contradicts lemma 2)

Hence G abelian \square .

Proof: $|G| = p^2 \Rightarrow G$ abelian.

If $G \cong C_p^2$ then every $g \in G$ satisfies $g^p = 1$

Method 1: Since G is abelian, write additively.

$$\forall g \in G \quad \underbrace{g + \dots + g}_p = 0 \quad p \cdot g = 0.$$

Got a vector space \mathbb{F}_p

Use basis thm $G \cong \mathbb{F}_p \oplus \mathbb{F}_p \cong C_p \times C_p$

Method 2: Let $x \in G$ $\text{ord}(x) = p$.

Let $y \in G - \{1, x, \dots, x^{p-1}\}$ so $\text{ord}(y) = p$

Put $K = \{1, x, \dots, x^{p-1}\}$ $Q = \{1, y, \dots, y^{p-1}\}$

$$K \cap Q = \{1\} \quad |K||Q| = |G|.$$

$K \triangleleft G$ because G abelian. so $G \cong K \rtimes_{\varphi} Q$

$$\varphi : Q \rightarrow \text{Aut}(K) = C_{p-1}$$

φ must be trivial

$$G \cong K \times Q \cong C_p \times C_p \quad \square.$$

Groups to \mathbb{F}_p vector spaces...

G abelian group written multiplicatively

$$g \cdot h = h \cdot g \quad 1 \cdot g = g$$

\hat{G} same elements except you write $g \rightarrow \hat{g} \quad \hat{1} = 0$

Instead of \cdot I write $+$.

$$\begin{aligned} g \cdot h &\rightarrow \hat{g} + \hat{h} \\ h \cdot g &\rightarrow \hat{h} + \hat{g} \end{aligned}$$

Assume in G that

$$g^p = 1 \text{ for all } g \in G.$$

$$\underbrace{\hat{g} + \hat{g} + \dots + \hat{g}}_p = 0$$

$$p\hat{g} = 0$$

This is exactly what it means to be a vector space \mathbb{F}_p .

$$|G| = 20, \quad G \cong C_5 \rtimes C_4 \text{ or } G \cong C_5 \rtimes (C_2 \times C_2)$$

There are 3 groups of type $C_5 \rtimes C_4$

$$C_5 = \{1, x, x^2, x^3, x^4\} \quad C_4 = \{1, y, y^2, y^3\}$$

$$\text{Aut}(C_5) \cong C_4 = \{1, \phi_2, \phi_2^2, \phi_2^3\}$$

" ϕ_4 " ϕ_3

Get 4 homos $C_4 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_5)$

$$h_0: h_0(y) = 1d \quad \leftrightarrow C_5 \times C_4$$

$$h_1: h_1(y) = \phi_2 \quad \leftrightarrow X^5 = Y^4 = 1, YXY^{-1} = X^2$$

$$h_2: h_2(y) = \phi_4 \quad \leftrightarrow D_{10}^* = \{X^5 = Y^4 = 1, YXY^{-1} = X^4 = X^{-1}\}$$

$$h_3: h_3(y) = \phi_3 \quad \leftrightarrow X^5 = Y^4 = 1, YXY^{-1} = X^3 \quad \swarrow \text{Swap } Y \leftrightarrow Y^3$$

Difficulties with groups of order 18

$$|G| = 18 = 2 \cdot 3^2$$

Usual Sylow counting gives a normal subgroup K with $|K| = 9$ and a subgroup Q with $|Q| = 2$

$$G \cong K \rtimes Q \quad \begin{cases} C_9 \rtimes_{\phi} C_2 \\ (C_3 \times C_3) \rtimes_{\phi} C_2 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Aut}(C_9) \cong C_6 = \{\alpha, \alpha^2, \alpha^4, \alpha^5, \alpha^7, \alpha^8\}$$

" α " α^2 " α^3 " α^4 " α^5 " $\alpha^6 = 1d$

$$C_2 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_9) \quad y \rightarrow 1 \leftrightarrow C_9 \times C_2$$

$$\{1, y\} \quad y \rightarrow \alpha^3 \leftrightarrow D_{18}$$

Problem arises in describing $\text{Aut}(C_3 \times C_3)$

Write C_3 additively. Then $\text{Aut}(C_3 \times C_3) \leftrightarrow \text{GL}_2(\mathbb{F}_3) =$ Invertible 2×2 matrices over \mathbb{F}_3

$$|\text{GL}_2(\mathbb{F}_3)| = 48 = 2^4 \cdot 3$$

To complete classification of groups of order 18 we need

- 1) Find all $A \in \text{GL}_2(\mathbb{F}_3)$ $A^2 = I$.
- 2) Each such A gives a homo $C_2 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_3 \times C_3)$
- 3) Decide which groups are then isomorphic.

$$\textcircled{\text{eg}} \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad A^2 = I$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad A^2 = I$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$C_3 \times C_3 \leftrightarrow \mathbb{F}_3 \oplus \mathbb{F}_3$$

$\alpha : C_3 \times C_3 \rightarrow C_3 \times C_3$ } $\alpha : \mathbb{F}_3 \oplus \mathbb{F}_3 \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_3 \oplus \mathbb{F}_3$
 preserves mult and } α preserves addition. Then α is
 is bijective } described by a matrix.

$$e_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad e_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{basis.}$$

$$\alpha(e_1) = ae_1 + ce_2$$

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \quad a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{F}_3$$

$$\alpha(e_2) = be_1 + de_2$$

$$\alpha \text{ bijective} \Leftrightarrow \det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \neq 0$$

$$\mathbb{Q}[x] \not\cong \mathbb{Q}[y]$$

$$\frac{\mathbb{Q}[x]}{x^2-2} \not\cong \frac{\mathbb{Q}[y]}{y^2+2}$$

can't just say $2 \neq -2$.

$$a+bx \quad x^2=2$$

$$a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$$

$$c+dy \quad y^2=-2$$

$$c, d \in \mathbb{Q}$$

$$\varphi : \frac{\mathbb{Q}[x]}{x^2-2} \longrightarrow \frac{\mathbb{Q}[y]}{y^2+2}$$

$$\varphi(1) = 1$$

$$\varphi(a+bx) = \varphi(a) + \varphi(b)\varphi(x) = a + b\varphi(x)$$

$$\varphi(x) = c+dy \quad \varphi(x)^2 = \varphi(x^2) = \varphi(2) = 2$$

$$(c+dy)^2 = 2 \quad (c^2 + d^2y^2) + 2cdy = 2$$

$$c^2 - 2d^2 = 2 \quad 2cd = 0 \quad \text{so either } c \text{ or } d$$

$$\text{either } c=0 \quad \text{when } -2d^2=2$$

$$d=0 \quad \text{when } c^2=2$$

contradiction or $c \in \mathbb{Q}$
contradiction

~~$$\varphi(x) = -2$$~~

4) $|G| = 56 = 7 \cdot 8 = 2^3 \cdot 7$

Show that either

- i) G has a normal subgroup of order 7
 - or ii) "
- \nwarrow prime first
 \leftarrow larger

N_7 = no. of subgroups of order 7.

$N_7 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$ $N_7 = 1, 8$ or ≥ 15

If $N_7 = 15$, \exists at least $15 \cdot 6 = 15 \cdot (7-1) = 90$ elements. X.

If $N_7 = 8$ we get exactly $8 \cdot 6 = 48$ elements of order 7.

$56 - 48 = 8$

Know \exists at least one subgroup of order 8 so there is exactly one
 So either $N_7 = 1$ and G has a unique (and \therefore normal) subgroup of order 7
 or $N_7 = 8$ and $N_2 = 1$ and G has a " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " "

1

3) Classify groups of order $1075 = 43 \cdot 25 = 43 \cdot 5^2$

$N_{43} \equiv 1 \pmod{43}$ so $N_{43} = 1$ or $N_{43} \geq 44$

If ≥ 44 get at least $44 \cdot 42$ elements

$N_{43} = 1$ Let K be the normal subgroup of order 43

Q be a subgroup of order $25 = 5^2$

Either $G \cong K \rtimes_{\varphi} Q$ (Recog crit)

$C_{43} \rtimes_{\varphi} C_{25}$ or $C_{43} \rtimes_{\varphi} (C_5 \times C_5)$ $\text{Aut}(C_{43}) = C_{42}$

$5 \nmid 42$ so only get trivial homos $\varphi \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_{43})$

So either $G \cong C_{43} \times C_{25} \cong C_{1075}$

or $G \cong C_{43} \times C_5 \times C_5 \cong C_{215} \times C_5$

5) $x^2 + 2x + 2$ irred / \mathbb{F}_3 $ax^2 + bx + c$ irred / \mathbb{F}

$4 - 8 = -4 = -1 = 2 \iff b^2 - 4ac$ not a square in \mathbb{F}

2 is not a square in \mathbb{F}_3 so $x^2 + 2x + 2$ is irred.

$\left| \frac{\mathbb{F}_3[x]}{x^2 + 2x + 2} \right| = 9$ $\left(\frac{\mathbb{F}_3[x]}{x^2 + 2x + 2} \right)^* = 8 = (9-1)$

Finite subgroup of a field so it must be C_8 .

x

$x^2 = -2x - 2 = x + 1$

$x^3 = x(x+1) = x^2 + x = -x - 2 = 2x + 1$

$x^4 = x(2x+1) = 2x^2 + x = -x^2 + x = 2x + 2 + x = 2$

$x^8 = 2^2 = 1$ x generates

6) $x^{18} - 2x^9 - 3 = (x^9 + 1)(x^9 - 3) = (x^9 - 3)(x^3 + 1)(x^6 - x^3 + 1)$

$= (x^9 - 3) \underbrace{(x+1)(x^2 - x + 1)(x^6 - x^3 + 1)}$

↑
irred by
Eisenstein

irred because
cyclotomic.

How not to apply Eisenstein

$x^{100} + 3x + 5$

$1 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{3}$

$3 \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$

$5 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{3^2}$

$5 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{3}$

$x^5 - 5x^4 + 10x^3 - 10x^2 + 5x - 1 - 3$

$(x-1)^5 - 3$ irred by Eisenstein $p=3$