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INFINITE ABELIAN GROUPS

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Joaquin Pascual

A report submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

in

Mathematics

Plan B

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Joaquin Pascual

NOTATION

Z : Set of integers

Q : Set of rationals

Zp : Group of integer modulo p

 $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$: Set whose elements are a_1, \dots, a_n

 $[a_1, \ldots, a_n]$: Subgroup generated by a_1, \ldots, a_n

 $\sigma(m)$: Cyclic group of order m

 $\sigma(p^{^\infty}\!)$: p-primary component of rationals modulo one

tG : Torsion subgroup of G

dG : Maximal divisible subgroup of G

 $G[p] : \{x \in G : px = 0\}$

 $nG : \{nx : x \in G\}$

 ΣA_{L} * Direct sum of the groups A_{L} (almost all coordinates are 0)

 $k \in K$

 MA_{k} : Direct product of the groups A_{k}

 $k \in K$

To Amelia

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INTRODUCTION

When the theory of groups was first introduced, the attention was on finite groups. Now, the infinite abelian groups have come into their own. The results obtained in infinite abelian groups are very interesting and penetrating in other branches of Mathematics. For example, every theorem that is stated in this paper may be generalized for modules over principal ideal domains and applied to the study of linear transformations.

This paper presents the most important results in infinite abelian groups following the exposition given by J. Rotman in his book, Theory of Groups: An Introduction. Also, some of the exercises given by J. Rotman are presented in this paper. In order to facilitate our study, two classifications of infinite abelian groups are used. The first reduces the study of abelian groups to the study of torsion groups, torsion-free groups and an extension problem. The second classification reduces to the study of divisible and reduced groups. Following this is a study of free abelian groups that are, in a certain sense, dual to the divisible groups; the basis and fundamental theorems of finitely generated abelian groups are proved. Finally, torsion groups and torsion-free groups of rank 1 are studied.

It is assumed that the reader is familiar with elementary group theory and finite abelian groups. Zorn's lemma is applied several times as well as some results of vector spaces.

PRELIMINARY RESULTS

The following results will be used in the support of this paper, but are not directly a part of it.

- 1. If K and S are groups, an extension of K by S is a group $\ensuremath{\mathsf{G}}$ such that
 - a. G contains K as a normal subgroup.
 - b. $G/K \simeq S$.
- 2. Every finite abelian group ${\tt G}$ is a direct sum of p-primary group.
- 3. Every finite abelian group G is a direct sum of primary cyclic groups.
- 4. If $G = {n \atop \Sigma} H_i$, then i=1

$$mG = \Sigma mH$$
 $i=1$

where m is a positive integer.

5. If $G = \sum_{i=1}^{n} H_i$, then

$$G[p] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (H_{i}[p])$$

- 6. Every vector space has a basis.
- 7. Two bases for a vector space V have the same number of elements.

INFINITE ABELIAN GROUPS

All groups under consideration are abelian and are written additively. The trivial group is the one having one element and is denoted by 0.

Definition

In the following diagram, capital letters denote groups and the arrows denote homomorphisms.



We say that the diagram commutes if $\beta\alpha = \alpha'\beta'$.

The following is one example of a commuting diagram

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc}
 & \alpha & & & Z & 12 \\
 & \beta' & & & & & \beta \\
 & \sigma(24) & & & & & Z & 36
\end{array}$$

where Z_6 , Z_{12} , and Z_{36} are the groups modulo 6, 12 and 36 respectively and $\sigma(24)$ is a cyclic group of order 24.

$$\sigma : Z_{\overline{6}} \longrightarrow Z_{12}$$

$$n \longrightarrow 2n$$

$$\beta : Z_{12} \longrightarrow Z_{36}$$

$$m \longrightarrow 3_{m}$$

$$\beta' : Z_{6} \longrightarrow \sigma(24)$$

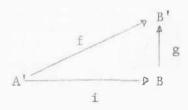
$$n \longrightarrow a^{3n}$$

where a is the generator of $\sigma(24)$.

Consider now $\beta\alpha(n)=\beta(\alpha n)=\beta(2n)=6n$. $\alpha'\beta'(n)=\alpha'(\beta'n)=\alpha'(a^{3n})=6n$. Then the above diagram commutes.

Definition

A triangular diagram of the following type is a special type of commuting diagram



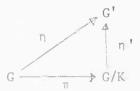
where i is an identity homomorphism and commutes if gi = f; we also say that g extends f.

Example

Let G' equal the image of the group G by the homomorphism η . Because of the fundamental theorem of the homomorphism for groups, it is possible to find a factorization of η .

 $\eta = \pi \eta'$ where π is the natural homomorphism from G to G/K (K is the kernel of η) and η' is a homomorphism from G/K to G' such that

$$(aK)n' = an$$



Consequently, this triangular diagram commutes.

If we have a large diagram composed of squares and triangles, we say that the diagram commutes if each component diagram commutes.

Definition

Let

be a sequence of groups and homomorphisms. This sequence is exact in case the image of each map is equal to the kernel of the next map.

Suppose A and B are isomorphic groups by f. Then,

is an exact sequence.

Theorem 1

If $0 \longrightarrow A \stackrel{g}{\longrightarrow} B \stackrel{f}{\longrightarrow} C \longrightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence, then B is an extension of A by C.

Proof

The image of $0 \longrightarrow A$ is the kernel of g, but this image is 0; thus, the kernel of g is 0 and consequently, g is one-to-one. In the homomorphism $C \longrightarrow 0$ all elements of C are mapped onto 0. Therefore, the kernel is all of the set C and by definition, C is the image of f. Therefore, f is onto.

Now, A is isomorphic to A', where A' is a normal subgroup of B and the image of A by g.

f is onto and its kernel is A', thus, by the fundamental theorem of the homomorphism

$$B/A' \simeq C.$$

This proves that B is the extension of A by C.

Theorem 2

In the exact sequence

 \boldsymbol{f}_{k+2} is onto if and only if \boldsymbol{f}_k is one-to-one.

Proof

Suppose f_{k+2} is onto, then the image of f_{k+2} is A_{k+1} . Then the kernel of f_{k+1} is A_{k+1} . Consequently, the image of f_{k+1} is 0 and is also the kernel of f_{k+2} . Therefore, f_k is one-to-one.

Suppose now that f_k is one-to-one, thus the kernel of f_k is 0 and this kernel is the image of f_{k+1} , so the kernel of f_{k+1} is A_{k+1} and A_{k+1} is the image of f_{k+2} . Therefore, f_{k+2} is onto.

Definition

The torsion subgroup of an abelian group G denoted tG is the set of all elements in G of finite order.

Since G is abelian, the set of all elements of finite order is a subgroup of G.

A group G is torsion in the case tG=G; G is a torsion-free group in the case tG=0.

Theorem 3

Every abelian group G is an extension of a torsion group by a torsion-free group.

Proof

We need to prove that there exists a normal subgroup of G that is a torsion group and the quotient group of G by this torsion group is a torsion-free group.

By definition, tG is a torsion group and tG is normal in G. We shall now prove that G/tG is a torsion-free group.

Suppose $n\bar{x} = \bar{0}$ for some $\bar{x} \in G/tG$ and some integer $n \neq 0$.

 $\bar{x} = x + tG$ with $x \in G$, $\bar{0} = n\bar{x} = nx + tG$, then $nx \in tG$; hence there is an integer $m \neq 0$ such that m(nx) = (mn)x = 0. Thus x has finite order, x is in tG and $\bar{x} = \bar{0}$. This proves the theorem.

Let K be a non-empty set and for each k \in K, let there be given a group A_k . The set K is called an index set.

Definition

The direct product of the \mathbf{A}_k , denoted \mathbf{IIA}_k is the group consisting keK

of all elements ${}^{<}a_k^{}>$ in the cartesian product of the ${}^{A}_k^{}$ under the binary operation,

$$\langle a_{k} \rangle + \langle a'_{k} \rangle = \langle a_{k} + a'_{k} \rangle$$

i.e., componentwise addition. We do not require that $A_k \neq A_r$ if $k \neq r$ for k, $r \in K$; thus the same group can be counted many times.

The subgroup of $\Pi \mathbf{A}_k$ consisting of all elements ${}^{<\mathbf{a}}_k{}^{>}$ such that $\mathbf{k}\epsilon\,\mathbf{K}$

only finitely many \mathbf{a}_k are nonzero is denoted $\Sigma \mathbf{A}_k$ and called $\mathbf{k}_{\varepsilon} \mathbf{K}$

direct sum of the Ak.

If the index set K is finite, then

Theorem 4

Let $\{\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{k}}\}$ be a family of abelian groups, then

$$\mathsf{t}(\mathrm{IIA}_k) \subset \mathrm{II}\,\mathsf{tA}_k$$

$$t(\Sigma A_k) = \Sigma t A_k$$
.

Proof

Let y be any element of $t(\Pi A_k)$, so my = 0 for some integer m \neq 0; that is,

$$y = \langle a_k \rangle$$

$$my = \langle ma_k \rangle = \langle 0 \rangle = 0$$

then, ma_k = 0 for all k ϵ K and any a_k has finite order. Hence, $y = \langle a_k \rangle$ is one element of $\Pi t A_k$. Therefore, $t(\Pi A_k) \subset \Pi t A_k$.

In order to prove that $t(\Sigma A_k) = \Sigma t A_k$, it suffices to show that $\Sigma t A_k \subset t(\Sigma A_k) \text{ because } t(\Sigma A_k) \subset \Sigma t A_k \text{ is a finite case of the first part of the theorem.}$

Consider any element $\langle a_k \rangle$ in $\Sigma t A_k$. Then any a_k has a finite order. Let m be the least common multiple of the order of the a_k 's. Since $ma_k = 0$, for all a_k , then also $\langle ma_k \rangle = 0$, so $\langle a_k \rangle$ belongs to $t(\Sigma A_k)$. This completes the proof.

Now we give an example that shows the inclusion $t(\Pi A_{\mbox{$k$}}) \subset \Pi t A_{\mbox{k}}$ is proper.

Suppose that $t(\Pi A_k) = \Pi t A_k$. Let $x = \langle b_k \rangle \in \Pi t A_k$ such that b_k is the generator of the $\sigma(p^k)$ for each $k \in K$. The element x has infinite order since, for each m there exists p^k such that $m < p^k$. But x also is in $t(\Pi A_k)$. Then x cannot have infinite order because this would be a contradiction. Therefore, the inclusion

$$t(\Pi A_k) \subset \Pi t A_k$$

is proper.

Definition

The function pi defined by pi : $\prod A_k \rightarrow A_i$, pi $(\langle a_k \rangle) = a_i$ $k \in K$

is called the ith projection.

Theorem 5

Let $\{A_k^{}\}$ be a family of subgroups of G, then $G \approx \Sigma A_k^{}$ if and only if every nonzero element g has a unique expression of the form $g = a_k^{} + \cdot \cdot \cdot + a_k^{}$ where $a_k^{} \in A_k^{}$, the $k_i^{}$ are distinct and each $a_k^{} \neq 0$.

Proof

Assume that $G \cong \Sigma A_k$. Let $\langle a_k \rangle$ be any element in ΣA_k . Almost all coordinates of $\langle a_k \rangle$ are zero. Let a_{k_1} , a_{k_2} , ..., a_{k_n} be the coordinates of $\langle a_k \rangle$ different from zero with $a_{k_1} \in A_k$. Consider the elements in $\Sigma A_k \langle a_{k_1} \rangle$, $\langle a_{k_2} \rangle$, ..., $\langle a_{k_n} \rangle$, where $\langle a_{k_1} \rangle$ has all the coordinates zero except in the k_1 th place that has a_{k_1} . Hence, $\langle a_{k_1} \rangle = \langle a_{k_1} \rangle + \langle a_{k_2} \rangle + \ldots + \langle a_{k_n} \rangle$. Let f be the isomorphism from f onto f and let f and f and let f consider that f is a constant of f and f are f and f and f and f and f are f and f and f are f and f are f and f are f are f are f and f are f are f and f are f

In order to finish the proof, we must show that $f^{-1} < a_{k_2} > \in A_{k_2}$. Consider the subgroup $A'_{k} \subset \Sigma A_{k}$, where $A'_{k} = \{\langle a_{k} \rangle\}$ and $\langle a_{k} \rangle$ has all the coordinates 0 except the k th that is $a_{k} \in A$. It is obvious that A_{k_1} is isomorphic to A'_{k_2} under the map $a_{k_2} \rightarrow a_{k_2}$. Since f^{-1} is an isomorphism, then $f^{-1}(A'_{k_*}) \cong A'_{k_*}$ and consequently, $f^{-1}(A'_{k_i}) \simeq A_{k_i}$. Therefore, $f^{-1}(\langle a_{k_i} \rangle)$ is in A_{k_i} and any element $g \in G$ has a unique expression of the form $g = a_{k_1} + \dots + a_{k_n}$.

Conversely, suppose that the last statement is true. We define the function n from G into ΣA_k by $\eta(g) = \langle a_k \rangle$ if $g = a_{k_1} + \ldots + a_{k_n}$, where $a_{k,j} \in A_{k,j}$. The function η is well defined because if g has two images then by the uniqueness of the representation of g, both images are equals. n is also one-to-one. Suppose that the elements $g_1 = a_{k_1} + \dots + a_{k_n}, g_2 = b_{k_1} + \dots + b_{k_m}$ are different and have the same image $\langle c_k \rangle$, then $\langle c_k \rangle = \langle b_k \rangle = \langle a_k \rangle$ but by hypothesis $a_{k,j} \neq b_{k,j}$ for some k_{i} ; hence, η is one-to-one. Let $\langle a_{k} \rangle$ be any element in ΣA_k , hence $a_{k_1} + \ldots + a_{k_m}$ represent some unique g in G, then ${\langle a_k \rangle}$ is the image of g by η and so η is onto.

If g_1 and g_2 have the representation given above, then

$$\eta(g_1) = \langle a_k \rangle \eta(g_2) = \langle b_k \rangle$$

Therefore, η is an isomorphism of G into $\Sigma A_{\mbox{$k$}}.$ This completes the proof.

Theorem 6

Let $\{A_k\}$ be a family of subgroup of G.. Then $G \cong \Sigma A_k$ if and only if $G = [\bigcup_k A_k]$, and for every i, $A_i \cap [\bigcup_{k \neq i} A_k] = 0$.

Proof

Suppose $G \cong \Sigma A_k$, then by theorem 5 anyy element g in G has a unique expression of the form $g = a_{k_1} + \dots + a_{k_n}$, where $a_k \in A_k$ and $a_{k_1} \neq 0$. But $a_{k_1} + \dots + a_{k_n} \in [\bigcup A_k]$, so $G \subset [\bigcup A_k]$ and obviously $G \subset [\bigcup A_k]$. Then $G = [\bigcup A_k]$. Let g be ome element of $A_i \cap [\bigcup A_k]$, then $a_i = a_{k_1} + \dots + a_{k_n}$, but g has a unique representation, so $a_i = a_{k_1} + \dots + a_{k_n}$. This proves the first part of the theorem.

Suppose now that $G = [\bigcup A_k]$ and $A_i \cap [[\bigcup A_k]] = 0$ for every i. Let g be any element of G, i. e., $g \in [\bigcup A_k]$, then we claim that $g = a_{k_1} + \dots + a_k \quad \text{is a unique representation of } g \text{ where } a_k \in A_k \quad \text{i}$ and $a_{k_i} \neq 0$.

Suppose that g has other representation, $g = b_{k_1} + \cdots + b_{k_m}$, $g - g = (a_{k_1} - b_{k_1}) + \cdots + (a_{k_n} - b_{k_n}) = 0$ but $A_i \cap [\bigcup_{k \neq i} A_k] = 0$. Then, $a_{k_1} - b_{k_1} = \cdots = a_{k_n} - b_{k_n} = 0$. So, $a_{k_1} = b_{k_1}, \cdots, a_{k_n} = b_{k_n}$. Therefore, any element in G has a unique representation and by theorem 5, $G = \Sigma A_k$.

Remark 1

It is easy to see that if $G = A \oplus B$, then the direct summand B is isomorphic to the factor group G/A.

Theorem 7

A subgroup A of G is a direct summand of G if and only if there is a homomorphism p : $G \longrightarrow A$ such that p(a) = G for every $a \in A$.

Proof

Suppose that A is a direct summand of G. Then, the projection p defined as before is a homomorphism of G onto A and p(a) = a for every $a \in A$.

Conversely, if there is a homomorphism $p:G \longrightarrow A$, with the property p(a)=a for every $a \in A$, then we claim that the kernel K of p is such that $G=K \oplus A$. First of all, we will show that $K \cap A=0$. Let b be an element in $K \cap A$, then p(b)=0 because $b \in K$ and p(b)=b because $b \in A$. Then b=0.

Also, we must show that $[A \cup K] = G$. It is evident that $[A \cup K] \subset G$. Let b be any element in G, then p(b) = b if $b \in A$. Suppose, f(b) = c and $b \in G - A$, so f(b) - c = 0, f(b - c) = 0, or $b - c \in K$. Therefore, b-c=a; b=a+c where $a \in K$ and $c \in A$ so any element $b \in G$ is also in $[A \cup K]$. Therefore, $G=[K \cup A]$ and by theorem 6, $G=A \oplus K$.

Definition

Let $x \in G$ and let n be an integer. x is divisible by n if there is an element of $y \in G$ with ny $\equiv x$.

Lemma 1

Let $x \in G$ have order n. If (m, n) = 1, then x is divisible by m.

Proof

If $x \notin G$ has order n and (m, n) = 1, then there exists integers p and q such that mp + nq = 1. Hence, x(mp + nq) = x, (xm)p + (xn)q = x. Since xn = 0 and (xm)p = (xp)m, if we let y = xp, then my = x and thus, x is divisible by m.

Theorem 8

There exists an abelian group G whose torsion subgroup is not a direct summand.

Proof

Let P be the set of all primes and let G = Mo(p) . We claim $p_{\mathfrak{E}}P$ that tG is not a direct summand.

Assume tG is a direct summand; then, by Remark 1, $G \simeq (G/tG \oplus tG)$. Now, we shall prove that $tG = \Sigma \sigma(p)$. Evidently, $\Sigma \sigma(p) \subset tG$. Suppose $x = \langle x \rangle \in G$ and mx = 0, for some integer $m \neq 0$, then mx = 0 for each p. Since $x \in \sigma(p)$ and by the fact that the order of the element divides the order of the group, then $m \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ for

every p and $x_p \neq 0$. There are only finitely many coordinates x_p different from zero, otherwise, m is divisible by infinitely many distinct primes and this is impossible. Hence, $tG \subset \Sigma\sigma(p)$ and so $tG = \Sigma\sigma(p)$.

Our next step is to prove that G/tG has an element different from zero and divisible by every prime p. Consider the element $a_p + tG$ in G/tG where a_p is the generator of $\sigma(p)$ for every prime p. If q is a prime, then by lemma 1, for each prime $p \neq q$ there exists $x_p \in \sigma(p)$ with $qx_p = a_p$. Let $\langle x_q \rangle \in G$ be such that any component has the above property except $x_q = 0$. Thus

$$q < x_p > = < a_p > - < y >$$

where $\langle y \rangle$ has 0 in each coordinate save the qth where it has a q. Therefore, $\langle y \rangle \in tG$ and

$$q(\langle x_p \rangle + tG) = q\langle x_p \rangle + tG =$$
 $\langle a_p \rangle - \langle y_p \rangle + tG =$
 $\langle a_p \rangle + tG.$

Since G/tG is a direct summand of G, then G/tG is isomorphic to some subgroup of G. Therefore, G needs to have some element divisible by every prime. Suppose that this is the case. Assume that the nonzero element $\langle x_q \rangle \in G$ is divisible by every prime p, then $p \langle y_q \rangle = \langle x_q \rangle$ for some $\langle y_q \rangle \in G$. Hence, $\langle py_q \rangle = \langle x_q \rangle$ i. e., $py_q = x_q$ for every prime q. In particular, if q = p, then $py_p = x_p = 0$. Therefore, if $\langle x_q \rangle$ is divisible by every prime, then each component of $\langle x_q \rangle$ is Q

and $\langle x \rangle = 0$. This is a contradiction. Therefore, our assumption that tG is a direct summand of G is false.

Definition

Let p be a prime. A group G is p-primary (or is p-group) in case every element in G has order of a power of P.

Theorem 9

Every torsion group G is the direct sum of p-primary groups.

Proof

Let Gp be the p-primary subgroup of G, i. e., Gp is the set of elements of G that have order of a power of p. We want to prove that $G = \Sigma Gp$. Let $x \in G$, $x \neq 0$, and let the order of x be n. By the fundamental theorem of the arithmetic, $n = p_{k_1}^{e_1} \cdot \cdot \cdot p_{k_h}^{e_h}$ where the p_k are distinct primes and the exponents $e_i \stackrel{?}{=} 1$. Let $n_{k_1} = \frac{n}{p_{k_1}^{e_1}}$ and consider the greatest common divisor of the n_k 's.

It is easy to see that

$$(n_{k_{1}}, \dots, n_{k_{h}}) = 1.$$

Therefore, there exists integers m such that $\sum_{i=1}^{h} m_i n_i = 1$ and hence, $\sum_{i=1}^{m} n_i n_i = 1$.

Now
$$p_{k_i}^e(m_i n_{k_i} x) = m_i(p_{k_i}^e n_{k_i} x) = m_i(nx) = 0$$
. Therefore, the

element $m_i n_k x \in Gp_k$. Also $m_i n_k x \neq 0$ for otherwise $m_i n_k = sn$ or $m_i = sp_k$ and this contradicts the fact that

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
h & & \\
\Sigma & m & n_{k} & = 1. \\
i = 1 & i & i
\end{array}$$

We claim that any x in G can be written as unique form $x = xp_{k_1} + \dots + xp_{k_h}$, where $xp_{k_i} \in Gp_{k_i}$, the p_{k_i} are distinct and each $xp_{k_i} \neq 0$. We proved above that $xp_{k_i} = m_i n_k x$; that is, $x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_i n_k x$. Suppose that x has another representation, $x = y_{k_i} + \dots + y_{k_n}$. Thus,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{h} \sum_{i=1}^{n} n_{k_{i}} x = y_{k_{i}} + \dots + y_{k_{n}}.$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} n \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} = n y_{k_{i}} + \dots + n y_{k_{n}} = 0.$$

Then, $ny_{k_1} = ny_{k_2} = \dots = ny_{k_n} = 0$ so that the order of the y_{k_i} 's divides n and the divisors of n are the p_{k_i} 's. Therefore, $y_{k_i} \in Gp_{k_i}$ for $i = 1, \dots$, h and $y_{k_i} = x_{k_i}$. By theorem 5, $G = \Sigma Gp_{k_i}$.

Theorem 10

Let G and H be a torsion group. G \simeq H if and only if Gp \simeq Hp for every prime p.

Proof

Let f be an isomorphism of G onto H and f^{-1} be the inverse of f. Let $x \in Gp$, and p^{α} be the order of x. Then $p^{\alpha}f(x) = f(p^{\alpha}x) = f(0) = 0$. Therefore, $f(Gp) \subseteq Hp$ and by symmetry, $f^{-1}(Hp) \supset Gp$. This means f(Gp) = Hp; thus, f|Gp is an isomorphism from Gp onto Hp so we have $Gp \cong Hp$.

Conversely, if f_p is an isomorphism of Gp onto Hp, for every p, then the function $f: G \longrightarrow H$ defined by $f < x_p > = < f_p(x_p) >$ is an isomorphism. In fact, let x, $y \in G$, then

$$f(x + y) = f < x_p + y_p > = < f_p(x_p + y_p) > =$$

$$< f_p(x_p) + f_p(y_p) > = < f_p(x_p) > + < f_p(y_p) > =$$

$$f(x) + f(y).$$

f is one-to-one. Let x, $y \in G$,

$$y = y_{p_i} + \dots + y_{p_n}$$

$$x = x_{p_i} + \dots + y_{p_n}.$$

Suppose $x \neq y$ and f(x) = f(y), then

$$f_{p_{i}}(y_{p_{i}}) + \dots + f_{p_{n}}(y_{p_{n}}) = f_{p_{i}}(x_{p_{i}}) + \dots + f_{p_{m}}(x_{p_{m}})$$

but the f_{p_i} 's are isomorphisms, then

$$f_{p_i}(x_{p_i}) = f_{p_i}(y_{p_i})$$

for all i, so that x = y contradicting our hypothesis that $x \neq y$. Therefore f is one-to-one. Let $y \in H$, $y = y_{p_i} + \dots + y_{p_k} = f_{p_i}(x_i) + \dots + f_{p_k}(x_k) = f(x_i + \dots + x_k) = f(x)$. Then, f is onto. Therefore, f is an isomorphism of G onto H.

Up here we have studied arbitrary abelian groups and are making some important reductions. Theorem 3 reduces the study of arbitrary abelian groups to the study of torsion groups and torsion-free groups. Theorems 8 and 9 reduce the study of torsion groups to the study of p-primary groups. We will now study a generalization of the groups of rationals and the group of reals, called the divisible groups.

Definition

A group G is divisible if each $x \in G$ is divisible by every integer n > 0.

Example

The addition group of the rational numbers, denoted by Q, is divisible. Given any rational a and any integer n>0, there exists $a'=\frac{a}{n}\in Q$ such that na'=a. Also the following groups are divisible: the additive group of reals, the additive group of complex, and the multiplicative group of the reals.

Theorem 11

A quotient of a divisible group is divisible.

Proof

Let G be a divisible group and H a subgroup of G. For any integer n > 0 and a given $a + H \in G/H$ we assert that there exists $b + H \in G/H$ such that n(b + H) = a + H. In fact, it is always possible to find n and b such that nb = a and therefore the element $b + H \in G/H$ has the property that n(b + H) = n(b + H) = a + H. Since this is always possible, G/H is divisible.

The converse of this theorem is not true and the following is an example.

In theorem 8, we constructed the group $G=\pi\sigma(p)$ and also we $p\varepsilon\,P$ proved that G is not divisible. However, we will prove that G/tG is divisible.

Let $\langle \mathbf{x}_p \rangle + tG \in G/tG$ and n any non-prime integer greater than 0. Since $\mathbf{x}_p \in \sigma(p)$, it is divisible by any n < p, by lemma 1, and also if n > p, because n = r (mod. p) where r < p. Thus $\langle \mathbf{x}_p \rangle + tG$ is divisible by any non-prime integer. We will now prove that $\langle \mathbf{x}_p \rangle + tG$ is divisible by every prime. Let q be any prime, then the above result holds except for $\mathbf{x}_q \in \sigma(q)$. We know that for any $\mathbf{y}_q \in \sigma(q)$, $q\mathbf{y}_q = 0$. Let $\langle \mathbf{y}_q \rangle \in tG$, where all the coordinates of $\langle \mathbf{y}_q \rangle$ are zero except the qth that is $\mathbf{x}_q \in \sigma(q)$. Of course, $\langle \mathbf{y}_q \rangle \in tG$. Let $\langle \mathbf{x}_p \rangle + tG \in G/tG$, then there exists $\langle \mathbf{z}_p \rangle + tG$ such that

$$q(\langle Z_p \rangle + G) = (\langle x_p \rangle - \langle y_q \rangle) + tG =$$

$$\langle x_p \rangle + tG.$$

Therefore, G/tG is divisible.

Remark 2

It is clear that a direct sum (direct product) of groups is divisible if, and only if, each summand (factor) is divisible.

Lemma 2

A torsion-free divisible group is a vector space over Q.

Proof

Let G be a torsion-free divisible group. We define the scalar multiplication as follows: for any $\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q}$ and $x \notin G$, $\frac{a}{b}x = ay$, where $y \notin G$ and by = x. This scalar multiplication is well defined because of the uniqueness of the number y, i. e., for a given integer n and $x \notin G$, ny = x, y is unique. Suppose there exists y_1 such that $ny_1 = x$. Then $n(y - y_1) = 0$. This means $y - y_1$ is either 0 or an element of finite order; since G is torsion-free, $y - y_1 = 0$. Therefore $y = y_1$. Now, we shall show that this scalar multiplication satisfies the axioms of a vector space.

1. For any $\frac{a}{b}$, $\frac{c}{d} \in \mathbb{Q}$, $x \in \mathbb{G}$, $\frac{a}{b}x = ay_1$ with $by_1 = x$, $\frac{c}{d}x = cy_2$ with $dy_2 = x$, $(\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d})x = \frac{ad + cb}{bd}x = (ad + cb)y_3$ where $bdy_3 = x$.

Now, $\frac{a}{b}x + \frac{c}{d}x = ay_1 + cy_2$, but $x = by_1 = dy_2 = dby_3$; thus, $ay_1 + cy_2 = ady_3 + cby_3 = (\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d})x$. Therefore, $(\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d})x = \frac{a}{b}x + \frac{c}{d}x$.

2. $\frac{a}{b}(x + y) = ay_1$ with $by_1 = x + y$ and $\frac{a}{b}x = ay_2$ with $by_2 = x$ and $\frac{a}{b}y = ay_3$ with $ay_3 = y$. Then, $ay_1 + yy_2 = ay_3$ and $ay_1 + ay_3 = ay_3$ with $ay_3 = yy_3 = ay_1 = \frac{a}{b}(x + y)$ so the scalar multiplication is distributive over addition.

3. (a)
$$(\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d})x = acy_1$$
, with $bdy_1 = x$.

(b)
$$\frac{a}{b}(\frac{c}{d}x) = \frac{a}{b}(cy_2) = ay_3$$
, where $dy_2 = x$, $by_3 = cy_2$.

Since by $_1 = y_2$ and $y_3 = cy_1$, then (a) and (b) are equal.

4. 1.x = x for any $x \in G$. Therefore, the group G over Q is a vector space.

Corollary 1

Let V be a vector space over F. Considering V as an abelian group, V is the direct sum of copies of F.

Proof

Let B = $\{x_k : k \in K\}$ be a basis of V and let F_k denote the one-dimensional vector space generated by x_k .

Let f be the function from F_k onto F such that for any $ax_k \in F_k$ $f(ax_k) = a$. It is clear that f is one-to-one, onto and also $f(bx_k + ax_k) = f(a+b)x_k = a+b$. Therefore, F_k is isomorphic to the additive group of F.

We claim that the additive group V is isomorphic to Σ F_k . Any vector x in V has a unique expression $\mathbf{x} = \Sigma \mathbf{r_k} \mathbf{x_k}$, where the $\mathbf{r_k} \neq 0$ and all the $\mathbf{x_k}$ are distinct; furthermore, each $\mathbf{r_k} \mathbf{x_k} \neq \mathbf{r_k}$. By theorem 5, $\mathbf{V} \simeq \Sigma \mathbf{F_k}$.

Lemma 3

An abelian group with pG = 0 is a vector space over Zp.

Proof

Let \bar{k} denote the residue class of the integer k in Zp. Define a scalar multiplication on G by $\bar{k}x$ = kx, where $x \in G$.

This operation is well defined for if $\overline{k}=\overline{k}'$, then k-k'=mp for some integer m so that (k-k')x=mpx=0; hence, $\overline{k}x=\overline{k}'x$. It is easy to verify the axioms of a vector space in this case.

Corollary 2

- Every torsion-free divisible group G is a direct sum of copies of Q.
- 2. An abelian group G in which any nonzero element has prime order p is a direct sum of copies of $\sigma(p)$.

Proof

- 1. By lemma 2, G is vector space over Q. Therefore, by corollary 1, G is the direct sum of copies of Q.
- 2. By lemma 3, G is a vector space over Zp and by corollary 1, G is the direct sum of copies of Zp but Zp $\simeq \sigma(p)$, then by theorem 10, $\Sigma Zp \simeq \Sigma \sigma(p)$. Therefore, $G \simeq \Sigma \sigma(p)$.

Theorem 12

Let V and W be vector spaces over F, then V and W are isomorphic if and only if V and W have the same dimension.

Proof

Let $B_1 = \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n, \dots\}$ be a basis of V and $B_2 = \{\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n, \dots\}$ be the image of B_1 by the isomorphism f, i. e.,

$$f(\alpha_1) = \beta_1$$

$$f(\alpha_2) = \beta_2$$

$$f(\alpha_n) = \beta_n$$

Let x be any element of V, then x has a unique expression of the form $x = a_{k_1} \alpha_{k_1} + \dots + a_{k_n} \alpha_{k_n}$ with $a_{k_i} \in F$ and $\alpha_{k_i} \in B_1$.

$$y = f(x) = a_{k_1}^{\beta} \beta_{k_1} + \dots + a_{k_n}^{\beta} \beta_n$$

Since any y in W is a linear combination of the β_1 's, then β_2 spans W. Suppose that β_2 is a linear dependent; that is, there is a subset $\{\beta_{k_1}, \dots, \beta_{k_n}\}$ of β_2 such that $\beta_1 + \dots + \beta_n + \beta_n = 0$ where the $\beta_1 + \dots + \beta_n + \beta_n + \beta_n = 0$ where the $\beta_1 + \dots + \beta_n + \beta_n$

Conversely, suppose now that V and W have the same dimension, then if $B_1 = \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n, \dots \}$ is a basis of V and $B_2 = \{\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n, \dots \}$ is a basis of W and the mapping

$$f(\alpha_1) = \beta_1$$

$$f(\alpha_2) = \beta_2$$

. . .

$$f(\alpha_n) = \beta_n$$

is one-to-one. Now, we extend the mapping f as follows: if $x \in V$ and $x = a_{k_1}^{\alpha} a_{k_1} + \dots + a_{k_n}^{\alpha} a_{k_n}$, then $f(x) = a_{k_1}^{\beta} a_{k_1} + \dots + a_{k_n}^{\beta} a_{k_n}$.

It is clear that f is well defined and one-to-one.

Let $y \in W$, then $y = a_{k_1}^{\beta_1} + \dots + a_{k_m}^{\beta_m}$ and $y = f(a_{k_1}^{\alpha_k} \alpha_{k_1} + \dots + a_{k_m}^{\beta_m}) = f(y)$. So, f is onto. It is clear, f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y), for every $x, y \in V$. Therefore, $V \cong W$ as a vector space.

Corollary 3

Let V and W be vector spaces over F. As abelian groups, V \simeq W, if and only if, V and W have the same dimension.

Proof

By theorem 12, $V \cong W$ as a vector space. Let f be an isomorphism from V to W. Then f maps V as abelian group onto the abelian group W and one-to-one. Let x, y \in V, then f(x + y) = v(x) + f(y). Therefore, $V \cong W$ as abelian groups.

Lemma 4

The group Q/Z is a torsion and divisible group.

Proof

Let $\frac{a}{b} + Z \in \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$, the order of $\frac{a}{b} + Z$ is b. Given any integer n and $\frac{a}{b} + Z$, then the element $y = \frac{a}{nb} + Z \in \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$ is such that $ny = \frac{a}{b} + Z.$ Therefore, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} is a torsion and divisible group.

The p-primary component of \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} is a subgroup and consequently it is also a divisible group.

Definition

If p is a prime, $\sigma(p^{\infty})$ denotes the p-primary component of Q/Z. Let $A^{(p)}$ denote the set of all rationals between 0 and 1 of the form m/p^n , where m, $n \stackrel{>}{=} 0$. We define on $A^{(p)}$ the binary operation "addition modulo 1" as usual. For example, if p = 3, then $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{2}{3} = 0$, $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{8}{9} = \frac{2}{9}$, etc.

Theorem 13

 $A^{(p)}$ is a p-primary group and Q/Z $\simeq \Sigma A^{(p)}$.

Proof

First of all, the operation "addition modulo 1" is well defined and it is associative and commutative; 0 is the identity and $-\frac{m}{p}$ is the inverse of $\frac{m}{p}$. The order of $\frac{m}{p}$ is p^n , therefore, $A^{(p)}$ is a p-primary group.

Let $x \in \sigma(p^{\infty})$, thus x has order of a power of p, say p^n , $x = \frac{a}{b} + Z$ with (a, b) = 1. So, $p^n x = \frac{ap^n}{b} + Z = \overline{0}$. Then $\frac{ap^n}{b} = h \in Z$ or $hb = ap^n$; since (b, a) = 1, then $b = rp^n$ for some integer r that means $x = \frac{a}{rp^n} + Z$, but this element does not have order p^n so r = 1 and the element x of order p^n has the form $\frac{a}{rp^n} + Z$.

Consider now the mapping f from $\sigma(p^{\infty})$ into $A^{(p)}$ defined by $f(\frac{m}{p^r} + Z) = \frac{m}{p^r}. \text{ Let } (\frac{m_1}{r_1} + Z) \neq (\frac{m_2}{r_2} + Z) \text{ be elements of } \sigma(p^{\infty})$ and suppose $f(\frac{m_1}{r_1} + Z) = f(\frac{m_2}{r_2} + Z)$, thus $\frac{m_1}{r_1} = \frac{m_2}{r_2}$ (mod. 1).

So,
$$\frac{m_1}{r_1} - \frac{m_2}{r_2} = k$$
 for some integer k. This means $\frac{m_1}{r_1} - \frac{m_2}{r_2} + Z = \overline{0}$.

$$\frac{m_1}{r_1} + Z = \frac{m_2}{r_2} + Z$$
. Therefore, f is one-to-one and onto because for p

any
$$\frac{m}{p^r} \in A^{(p)}$$
, $f(\frac{m}{p^r} + Z) = \frac{m}{p^r}$. Also, $f(\frac{m_1}{r_1} + Z + \frac{m_2}{r_2} + Z) = \frac{m}{p^r}$

$$f(\frac{m}{r_1} + \frac{m}{r_2} + Z) = \frac{m}{r_1} + \frac{m}{r_2} = f(\frac{m}{r} + Z) + f(\frac{m}{r_2} + Z).$$
 So, f is

an isomorphism and $A^{(p)} \simeq \sigma(p^{\infty})$.

We know by theorem 9, $Q/Z \simeq \Sigma \sigma(p^{\infty})$ and by theorem 10, $\Sigma \sigma(p^{\infty}) \simeq \Sigma A^{(p)}$; therefore, $Q/Z \simeq \Sigma A^{(p)}$.

Theorem 14

Let a_1 , a_2 , ..., a_n , ..., be nonzero elements of $\sigma(p^{\infty})$ such that $pa_1=0$, $pa_2=a_1$, ..., $pa_{n+1}=a_n$, ... If $[a_n]$ is the cyclic subgroup of $\sigma(p^{\infty})$ generated by a_n , then $[a_n] \simeq \sigma(p^n)$, $[a_n] \subset [a_{n+1}]$ for all n, and $\sigma(p^{\infty}) = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} [a_n]$.

Proof

Consider $p^n a_n$. We know $a_1 = pa_2$, $a_2 = pa_3$, ..., $a_{n-1} = pa_n$ then $p^n a_n = p^{n-1}(pa_n) = p^{n-2}pa_{n-1} = \ldots = pa_1 = 0$. Therefore, the order of $[a_n]$ is p^n and by the well known theorem that two cyclic groups of the same order are isomorphic, $[a_n] \cong \sigma(p^n)$. Let b be any element of $[a_n]$. Thus, $b = ra_n$, where r is some integer less than p^n . But $a_n = pa_{n+1}$, then $b = rpa_{n+1}$; therefore, $b \in [a_{n+1}]$ and $[a_n] \subset [a_{n+1}]$.

It is obvious that $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} [a_n] \subset \sigma(p^{\infty})$. Consider now $x \in \sigma(p^{\infty})$ of order p^r , so $x = \frac{a}{p^r} + Z$. We claim that $x \in [a_n]$. Let $a_n = \frac{b}{p^r} + C$

- Z. We consider two cases.
 - 1. Suppose b divides a, so a = qb, therefore $qa_n = \frac{bq}{p} + Z =$

$$\frac{a}{r} + Z = x.$$

2. Neither b divides a nor a divides b. Since b < p^r, a < p^r, then there exists some integer h such that hb = a (mod. pⁿ). Therefore, ha_n = $\frac{hb}{p}$ + Z = $\frac{a}{p^r}$ + Z = x that imply x $\in \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} [a_n]$ so that $\sigma(p^{\infty})$ = $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} [a_n]$.

Corrollary 4

Every proper subgroup of $\sigma(p^\infty)$ is finite and the set of subgroups is well ordered by inclusion.

Proof

Suppose there exists an infinite group G properly contained in $\sigma(p^{\infty})$. We will show that this is impossible. Let $x \in G$, since also $x \in \sigma(p^{\infty})$, x has finite order, say p^n , so $x = \frac{a}{p^n} + Z$ and since the order of x is the same as the order of a_n , then $[x] = [a_n]$. The order of the elements of G are either bounded or not. Suppose p^r is a bound of the order of the elements of G. Then, by theorem 14, $G \subset [a_{r+1}]$ that contradicts our hypothesis that G is infinite. If the order of the elements of G are unbounded, then there exists $y_i \in G$ such that $y_i \in [a_i]$ for every i. But $[y_i] = [a_i]$, and

 $U[y] = \sigma(p^{\infty})$. This contradicts the hypothesis that G is a proper in Subgroup of $\sigma(p^{\infty})$. Therefore, G is finite.

Now we will prove that the set M of subgroups of $\sigma(p^{\infty})$ is well ordered by inclusion. Since $\sigma(p^{\infty}) = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} [a_n]$ and all proper subgroups are finite, then, for any two subgroups G_1 , G_2 , either $G_1 \subset G_2$ or $G_2 \subset G_1$. Hence, the elements of any subset S of M are contained in some $[a_n]$. Therefore, S has a first element.

Corollary 5

 $\sigma(p^{^\infty})$ has the descending chain conditions (DCC) but not the ascending chain condition (ACC).

F'roof

By theorem 14, given a subgroup G of $\sigma(p^{\infty})$, G is finite and $[a_n]\subset G\subset [a_{n+1}] \text{ for some n. But } [a_n]\supset [a_{n-1}]\supset \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \supset [a_1]\supset 0.$ Therefore, $\sigma(p^{\infty})$ has the DCC.

By theorem 14 $\sigma(p^{\infty}) = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} [a_n]$ with $[a_n] = [a_{n+1}]$; therefore, any ascending chain cannot stop after a finite number of steps.

Theorem 15

Let G be an ascending union of infinite cyclic groups C_n such that $C_n = [c_n]$ and $(n+1)c_{n+1} = c_n$, for $n=1, 2, \cdots$. Then G is isomorphic to the additive group of rationals.

P'roof

Let
$$Q_n = [\frac{1}{n!}]$$
, $n = 1, 2, \ldots$ Clearly, $Q_n \subset Q_{n+1}$ and $Q = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} Q_n$.

Define the map θ : $G \rightarrow Q$ by $\theta(mc_n) = \frac{m}{n!}$, where m is an integer.

We must prove that θ is well defined, i. e., if $m_1c_n = m_2c_r$, where m_1 , m_2 and n, r are integers, then $\theta(m_1c_n) = \theta(m_2c_r)$. Suppose $n \le r$. Since $nc_n = c_{n-1}$, $(n-1)c_{n-1} = c_{n-2}$, . . . , $(r+1)c_{r+1} = c_r$, then, $c_n = \frac{r!}{n!}c_r$. Hence, $m_1c_n = m_1(\frac{r!}{n!})c_r = m_2c_r$. Since C_r is an infinite

cyclic group, $m_1(\frac{r!}{n!}) = m_2 c_r$ implies that $m_1(\frac{r!}{n!}) = m_2$ and so that $\frac{m_1}{n!} = \frac{m_2}{r!}$ which means $\theta(m_1 c_n) = \theta(m_2 c_r)$. Consequently, θ is well defined.

Since $\theta(c_n) = \frac{1}{n!}$, $\theta(C_n) = Q_n$, it follows that θ is onto. Let $a, b \in G$. We may suppose $a, b \in C_n$ for some n. Hence, $a = m_1 c_n$, $b = m_2 c_n$ and $a + b = (m_1 + m_2) c_n$; $\theta(a + b) = (m_1 + m_2) \frac{1}{n!} = \frac{m_1}{n!} + \frac{m_2}{n!} = \theta(a) + \theta(b)$. Thus θ is a homomorphism.

Consider now the kernel of θ . Suppose that $\theta(a)=0$ for some $a\in G$. We have $a\in C_n$, $a=mc_n$. Then, $\theta(a)=\frac{m}{n!}=0$ and this is true only if m=0. Hence, a=0. Therefore the kernel is 0 and θ is an isomorphism.

Definition

Let A be a subgroup of B, and let $f: A \rightarrow D$ be a homomorphism. We say that D has the injective property in case f can be extended to a homomorphism $F: B \rightarrow D$; in other words, an F exists making the adjoined diagram commute.

$$0 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow B$$

Theorem 16

A group D is divisible if, and only if, D has the injective property.

Proof

Suppose D is divisible and there exists a homomorphism f from A into D where A is a subgroup of B. We will prove that there is an $F: B \longrightarrow D$ that extends f.

Consider the set S* of all pairs (S, H), where S is a subgroup of B containing A and h is a homomorphism from S to D that extends f. S* is not empty, for (A, f) \in S*. We partially order S* by (A₁, h₁) $\stackrel{<}{=}$ (S₂, h₂) in case S₁ \subset S₂ and h₂ extends h₁. Let $\{(S_{\alpha}, h_{\alpha})\}$ be a simply ordered subset of S* and define (S₀, h₀) as follows: S₀ = \bigcup_{α} S_{\alpha}; if $s \in$ S₀, then $s \in$ S_{\alpha} for some \alpha, thus defining h₀(s) = h_{\alpha}(s). We claim that (S₀, h₀) \in S* and it is an upper bound of $\{(S_{\alpha}, h_{\alpha})\}$. S₀ = \bigcup_{α} S_{\alpha}. Then S₀ contains A and h₀ extends f because the h_{\alpha}'s are extensions of f; so, (S₀, h₀) \in S*. Suppose now that (S₀, h₀) is not an upper bound of $\{(S_{\alpha}, h_{\alpha})\}$, then there is (S₁, h₁) such that S₀ \subset S₁ and h₁ extends h₀. But this is impossible because S₀ = \bigcup_{α} S_{\alpha} and S₁ \subset \bigcup_{α} S_{\alpha}. By Zorn's lemma, there exists a maximal pair,

(M, h). We shall prove that M = B.

Suppose there is an element b \in B that is not in M. Let $M_1 = M + [b]$. It is clear that M is a proper subgroup of M_1 , so it suffices to extend h to M_1 to reach a contradiction.

Case 1. $M \cap [b] = 0$. Then $M_1 = M \oplus [b]$. Define g : $[b] \rightarrow D$

to be the zero map. There is a map $F: M_1 \rightarrow D$ extending h and g. In fact, any element a in M_1 has a unique expression $a = a_1 + b_1$, where $a_1 \in M$ and $b_1 \in [b]$. Define $F(a) = h(a) + g(b_1) = h(a)$. Clearly, F is a homomorphism and F is an extension of h.

Case 2. $M \cap [b] \neq 0$. Let k be the smallest positive integer for which $kb \in M$; then, every element y in M_1 has the unique expression y = m + tb, where t > k. Let c = kb. Since $c \in M$, h(c) is well defined and, by the divisibility of D, there is an element $x \in D$ with kx = h(c). Define $F: M_1 \longrightarrow D$ by F(m + tb) = h(m) + tx. It is clear that F is well defined and for any $y_1 = m_1 + t_1b$, $y_2 = m_2 + t_2b$ in M_1

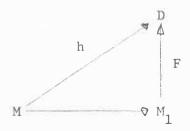
$$F(y_1 + y_2) = F[(m_1 + m_2) + (t_1 + t_2)b] =$$

$$h(m_1 + m_2) + (t_1 + t_2)x =$$

$$h(m_1) + t_1x + h(m_2) + t_2x =$$

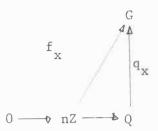
$$F(y_1) + F(y_2).$$

Hence, F is a homomorphism and the following diagram commutes



This contradicts the fact that M is maximal. Therefore, M = B. Conversely, assume now that the group G has the injective property. Let $x \in G$ and define $f_x : nZ \to G$ by $f_x(np) = px$. It is clear that $f_x(np) = px$.

iis a homomorphism since $f_x(nq + np) = f_xn(q + p) = (q + p)x = qx + px = f_x(nq) + f_x(np)$. Since G has the injective property and nZ iis a subgroup of Q, the following diagram commutes



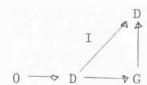
Therefore, for any x G there exists a homomorphism f_x and its extension g_x . Consider the set B of all homomorphisms g_x . Now, let y be any element in G and let m be any integer. Then there exists some homomorphism $g_x \in B$ such that $g_x(r) = y$, where r is some rational different from zero. Since r is divisible by m, then $f_x(r) = y$ which implies $f_x(r) = y$. Set $f_x(r) = y' \in G$, thus, $f_x(r) = y'$. Therefore, any nonzero element in G is divisible by every iinteger. Consequently, G is divisible.

Corollary 6

Let ${\tt D}$ be a subgroup of ${\tt G}$ where ${\tt D}$ is divisible. Then ${\tt D}$ is a direct summand of ${\tt G}$.

Proof

Consider the diagram



where I is the identity map. By theorem 16, there is a homomorphism $p:G \rightarrow D$ such that p(d)=d for every $d \in D$. By theorem 7, D is a direct summand of G.

Theorem 17

A group G is divisible if and only if pG = G for every prime p.

Proof

If G is divisible for any integer n, nG = G; in particular, for every prime p, pG = G.

Conversely, suppose now that for every prime p, pG = G. We have to prove that any $x \in G$ is divisible for every integer n. By hypothesis, any element $x \in G$ is divisible by every prime p.

Our first step will be to show that every $x \in G$ is divisible by every power of any prime, i. e., x is divisible by p^r .

By hypothesis, x is divisible by p. Thus, there is some $y \in G$ such that py = x, but y is also divisible by p. Then there is some $y_1 \in G$, $py_1 = y$. But y_1 also is divisible by p. Then $py_2 = y_1$ for some $y_2 \in G$. Repeating this process r times we will find $py_{r-1} = y_{r-2}$ and, putting all this together, $p^ry_{r-1} = x$. Therefore, any x in G is divisible by any power of any integer.

$$p_2^{r_2}z_2 = z_1$$

$$p_3^{r_3}z_3 = z_2$$

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
 & r & & \\
 & p & z & = z & \\
 & n-1 & & \end{array}$$

Thus, $p_1^r p_2^r p_2^r \dots p_n^r p_n^r p_n^r = x$, or $nz_n^r = x$. Therefore, x is divisible by n.

Theorem 18

A p-primary group G is divisible if and only if G = pG.

Proof

If G is divisible, any element $x \in G$ is divisible by every illusteger; in particular, by any prime p. Then pG = G for every prime p).

Conversely, suppose pG = G. We claim that G is divisible by exvery prime; then, by theorem 17, the theorem follows.

First of all, we prove that G is divisible by any power of p. Left $x \in G$, since pG = G, then there is $y_1 \in G$ such that $py_1 = x$; allso, y_1 is divisible by p_1 , then for some $y_2 \in G$, $py_2 = y_1$. If we respeat this process n times and put together all the equalities, we get $p^n y_n = x$. Therefore, x is divisible by any power of p. Let q be any prime and $x \in G$ of order p^m . Since $(p^m, q) = 1$, there exxists integer h and r such that $hp^m + rq = 1$. Hence,

$$x(hp^{m} + rq) = x$$

$$xp^{m}h + qrx = x$$

q(rx) = x

qy = x.

Therefore, x is divisible by any prime q.

|De:finition

If G is an abelian group, dG is the subgroup of G generated by all divisible subgroups of G.

1Lemma 5

dG is a divisible subgroup of G.

Proof

Let n > 0 and let $x \in dG$; then, $x = x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n$ where x_i is in a divisible subgroup D_i of G. Since D_i is divisible, there is am element $y_i \in D_i$ with $my_i = x_i$ for a given integer m and every m. Hence, m is m if m

Definition

An abelian group G is reduced if dG = 0.

Theorem 19

Every abelian group $G = dG \oplus R$ where R is reduced.

Proof

By corollary 6, dG is a direct summand of G. So, $G = dG \oplus R$ for some subgroup R. If R contains a divisible group M, then $dG \cap R$ is not empty, but $dG \cap R = 0$ by hypothesis. Then, M = 0 and R is reduced.

Theorem 20

The abelian groups G, H are isomorphic if and only if dG \simeq dH amd G/dH \simeq H/dH.

Piroof

Suppose $G \cong H$, then by theorem 19, $G = dG \oplus R$ and $H = dH \oplus R_2$. Let $f : G \to H$ be an isomorphism and consider the restriction of f to dG. Let $x \in dG$ and f(x) = y. Now, $ny_1 = x$ and $f(ny_1) = nf(y_1) = y$, so that $y \in dH$, $f(dG) \subset dH$. Let $y \in dH$ and n any integer, then $y = y_1 n$. Since f is one-to-one there exists f(x) = g and $f(x_1) = f(x_1) = f(x_1) = nf(x_1) = nf(x_1) = nf(x_1)$ and since f is one-to-one, so $f(x_1) = x_1 = x$

Conversely, suppose dH \simeq dG and G/dG \simeq H/dH. By theorem 19, $G = dH \oplus R_1 \text{ and } H = dH \oplus R_2, \text{ where } R_1, R_2 \text{ are reduced.} \text{ But we know } G_1/dG \simeq R_1, H/dH \simeq R_2.$ Therefore $G \simeq H$.

Leemma 6

Let G and H be divisible p-primary groups. Then, G \simeq H if and only if G[p] \simeq H[p].

Proof

Let f be an isomorphism from G onto H. The image of G[p] by f is a subgroup of H. Let $x \in G[p]$, then px = 0 and f(px) = 0; pf(x) = 0, so $f(x) \in H[p]$. If $y \in H[p]$, then py = 0 and y = f(x) for some $x \in G$; so that pf(x) = 0, f(px) = 0 and since f is an isomorphism, p:x = 0. Therefore, $G[p] \cong H[p]$.

Now we will prove the sufficient conditions. Let $f:G[p] \rightarrow H[p]$ an isomorphism. We may consider f as a mapping $G[p] \rightarrow H$. Then, by theorem 16, H and G have the injective property; that is, there exists a homomorphism $F:G \rightarrow H$ extending f. We claim that F is an isomorphism.

Let $x \in G$ with order p^n . We know $p^{n-1}x \in G[p]$ and $f(p^{n-1}x) = y \in H[p]$ but H is divisible; then there is $y_1 \in H$ such that $p^{n-1}y_1 = y_1$. We define $F(x) = y_1$. Because of the uniqueness of y_1 , F is well defined. Let x_1 , x_2 be in G with order p^r , p^n respectively, $x_1 \neq x_2$ and suppose $F(x_1) = F(x_2)$. This implies $y_1 = y_2$, where $f(p^{r-1}x_1) = p^{r-1}y_1$ and $f(p^{n-1}x_2) = p^{n-1}y_2$. Suppose n > f, $p^ny_1 = 0$, $p^ry_1 = 0$, then $p^{n-1}y_1 = p^{n-1}y_2 = 0$ but $p^{n-1}x_2 \neq 0$, so $f(p^{n-1}x_2) \neq 0$. Therefore If is one-to-one.

Let $y \in H$ with order p^n . $p^{n-1}y \in H[p]$ and for some $x_1 \in G[p]$, $f((x_1) = p^{n-1}y. \text{ Hence, G is divisible. There is } x \in G \text{ with } p^{n-1}x = x_1$ $f((x_1) = f(p^{n-1}x) = p^{n-1}y, \text{ then } F(x) = y. \text{ Consequently, F is onto}$ and an isomorphism.

Theorem 21

Every divisible group D is the direct sum of copies of Q and off copies of $\sigma(p^\infty)$ for various prime p.

Proof

D is divisible. Then any subgroup of D is also divisible; in particular tD so that, D \simeq tD \oplus D/tD. It was shown earlier in theorem 11 that D/tD is a torsion-free divisible group. Thus it is a direct sum of copies of Q by corollary 2.

It is the direct sum of p-primary groups by theorem 9. Let \mathbb{R} be the p-primary component of tD; \mathbb{R} is divisible and $\mathbb{R}[p]$ is a vector space over $\mathbb{Z}p$ by lemma 3. Let \mathbb{R}^p be the dimension of this vector space and \mathbb{R}^p be the direct sum of \mathbb{R}^p . Since the direct sum of p-primary divisible groups is p-primary divisible group, so \mathbb{R}^p is p-primary divisible group. The dimension of \mathbb{R}^p is 1 and $\mathbb{R}[p] = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{R}^p$ in $\mathbb{R}[p]$. Hence, $\mathbb{R}[p]$ has dimension \mathbb{R}^p . Therefore,

 $\operatorname{IH} \mathbb{I}[p] \simeq \operatorname{G}[p]$ because both are vector spaces over Zp and have the same dimension and by lemma 6, $\operatorname{G} \simeq \operatorname{H}$. This proves the theorem.

Montation

Let D be a divisible group. Then $D^{\infty} = D/tD$ and Dp = (tD)[p].

Theorem 22

If D and D' are divisible groups, then D \simeq D' if and only if (1) $D^{\infty} \simeq D^{1} \infty$; (2) for each p, $Dp \simeq D^{1} p$.

Proof

We know that $D = tD \oplus D^{\infty}$ and $D' = tD' \oplus D'^{\infty}$. Suppose $f : D \rightarrow D'$ is an isomorphism. Consider now the image of tD by f. If $x \notin tD$ and x has order n, then nx = 0, f(nx) = nf(x) = 0, so $f(x) \notin tD'$. Let $y \in tD'$ with order m. There is $x \in D$ such that f(x) = y and mf(x) = 0, f(nx) = 0, then nx = 0 and $x \notin tD$. Since f is one-to-one and the restriction of f to tD is onto tD', it implies $tD \cong tD'$ and $tD \cong tD'$. By theorem $tD \cong tD$, $tD' \cong tD'$. Since $tD \cong tD'$ by theorem $tD \cong tD'$ and by lemma $tD \cong tD$. Since $tD \cong tD'$ by theorem $tD \cong tD'$ and $tD \cong tD'$ and $tD \cong tD'$.

Suppose now (1) $D\infty \simeq D'\infty$ (2) $Dp \simeq D'p$ for each p. By lemma 6, $D_{\overline{1}p} \simeq D'p$ implies that $tD \simeq tD'$. Since $D \simeq tD \oplus D^{\infty}$, $D' \simeq tD' \oplus D' \infty$ tihen $D \simeq D'$.

The above theorem can be stated as follows: If D and D' are drivisible groups, then D \simeq D' if, and only if, (1) D ∞ and D' ∞ have the same dimension; (2) Dp and D'p have the same dimension for each p. Note that D ∞ is a vector space over Q and Dp is a vector space over Z₁p.

Theorem 23

If G and H are torsion-free divisible groups, each of which is isomorphic to a subgroup of the order, then G \simeq H.

Pircof

By lemma 2, G and H are vector spaces over Q. Since G is isomorphic to a subgroup H_1 of H, then the dimension of G is the same as the dimension of H_1 . Also, H is isomorphic to a subgroup G_1 of G so that the dimension of H is the same as the dimension of G_1 . By Cantor-Schroder-Bernstein's theorem, the dimension of H is the same to the dimension of G_1 , and by theorem 12, H \cong G.

Theorem 26

Let G, H be torsion-free divisible groups and G \oplus G \simeq H \oplus H, then G \simeq H.

Piroof

By theorem 12, G \oplus G and H \oplus H have the same dimension as a vector space over Q. We will consider two cases. (1) When the

dimension of G \oplus G is finite; (2) when the dimension of G \oplus G is infinite.

- (1) If the dimension of G is n, then the dimension of G \oplus G is 2n and also H \oplus H has dimension 2n, so that, H has dimension n. Therefore, H \simeq G.
- (2) If $G \oplus G$ has infinite dimension, then the dimension of G is the same as the dimension of $G \oplus G$ since the cross product of two infinite sets of the same cardinal has the same cardinal as each set.

Therefore, the dimension of $G \oplus G$ is equal to the dimension of G and to the dimension of H. By theorem 12, $H \simeq G$.

Definition

F is a free abelian group on $\{x_k^{}\}$ in case F is a direct sum of infinite cyclic groups $Z_k^{}$ where $Z_k^{}=[x_k^{}]$.

Theorem 27

If F is free on $\{x_k^{}\}$, every nonzero element $x\in F$ has the unique expression

$$x = m_{k_1} x_{k_1} + \dots + m_{k_n} x_{k_n}$$

where the $m_{k_{_{\dot{1}}}}$ are nonzero integers and the $k_{_{\dot{1}}}$ are distinct.

Proof

By theorem 5 any element $x \in \Sigma Z_k$ has a unique expression

$$x = m_{k_1} x_{k_1} + \dots + m_{k_n} x_{k_n}$$

where the \mathbf{m}_{k} are nonzero integers and the k are distinct. This proves the theorem.

Theorem 28

Let $F = \sum_{i \in I} Z_i$ and $G = \sum_{i \in J} Z_i$ be free abelian groups. Then, $i \in I$

 $F \simeq G$ if, and only if, J and I have the same number of elements.

Proof

Suppose $F \cong G$ and F is free on $\{x_i\}$, G is free on $\{y_i\}$. Let p be prime. Then F/pF and G/pG are vector spaces over Zp by lemma 3. We claim that the $\{x_i + pF\}$ is a basis for F/pF. Let $\{x_{k_1} + pF\}$, ..., $x_{k_n} + pF\}$ be any subset of $\{x_i + pF\}$ and suppose

$$\bar{m}_1(x_{k_1} + pF) + \dots + \bar{m}_n(x_{k_n} + pF) = \bar{0}$$

where $\bar{m}_{i} \in Zp$. Hence, we have

$$\bar{m}_1 x_{k_1} + \bar{m}_2 x_{k_2} + \dots + \bar{m}_n x_{k_n} + pF = \bar{0}$$

or

$$m_1 x_{k_1} + m_2 x_{k_1} + \dots + m_n x_{k_n} = 0.$$

But, by theorem 24, it implies $m_1 = m_2 = \dots = m_n = 0$, so that $\{x_i + pF\}$ is a linearly independent set and also is maximal since there is no y + pF such that $B = \{x_i + pF\} \cup \{y + pF\}$ is linearly independent because $y = m_1 x_{k_1} + \dots + m_h x_{k_h}$ and y + pZ cannot

be linearly independent with $\{x_1 + pF\}$. Therefore $\{x_1 + pF\}$ is a basis for F/pF. Proceeding as above, we get that $\{y_1 + pG\}$ is also a basis for G/pG. Since $F \cong G$, pF is isomorphic to pG. Therefore, $F/pF \cong G/pG$. By the well known theorem, the cardinal of $\{x_1 + pF\}$ is the same as the cardinal of $\{y_1 + pG\}$ that implies I and J have the same number of elements.

Conversely, if I and J have the same number of elements, $F = \sum_{i \in I} Z_i \text{ and } G = \sum_{j \in J} Z_j \text{ have the same number of direct summands in } I$ with $Z_j = Z_i$, then, F = G.

Definition

Let F be free on $\{x_i : i \in I\}$. The rank of F is the cardinal of I. If I is finite, we say that F has finite rank.

Theorem 25 states that the necessary and sufficient condition in order that two groups be isomorphic is that they have the same rank. As in vector spaces, if I is finite and has n elements, we say that F has rank n. Also, the above theorem gives the duality between the rank of a free abelian group and the dimension of a vector space. In order to stress this analogy, we make the following definition.

<u>Definition.</u> A basis of a free abelian group F is a free set of generators of F.

Theorem 29

Let F be free with basis $\{x_k\}$, G and arbitrary abelian group and $f: \{x_k\} \longrightarrow G$ any function. There is a unique homomorphism $g: F \multimap G$ such that

$$g(x_k) = f(x_k)$$

for all k.

Proof

Let $Z_k = [x_k]$. We define $g : F \rightarrow G$ by $g(x) = g(m_1 x_k, + \dots +$ $m_n x_k = m_1 f(x_{k_1}) + \dots + m_n f(x_{k_n}).$

The mapping g is well defined since any element $x \in Z_k$ has a unique expression as a linear combination of the x, and the function of f is single-valued. Let $x = m_1 x_1 + \dots + m_n x_n$ and y = $n_1 x_{k_1} + \dots + n_1 x_{h_1}$, then $g(x + y) = g(m_1 x_{k_1} + \dots + m_n x_{k_n} + \dots + m_n x_{k_n})$ $n_1 x_{k_1} + \dots + n_1 x_{h_1} = m_1 f(x_{k_1}) + \dots + m_n f(x_{k_n}) + n_1 f(x_{h_1}) + \dots$ $n_1 + n_1 f(x_{h_1}) = g(x) + g(y)$. Then g is a homomorphism. Suppose now that there is another homomorphism g' such that $g'(x_i) = f(x_i)$. If $x = n_1 x_{k_1} + \dots + n_r x_{k_r}$, $g(x) = n_1 f(x_{k_1}) + \dots + n_r f(x_{k_1})$ and $g'(x) = n_1 g'(x_{k_1}) + ... + n_r g'(x_{k_1})$ but $g'(x_{k_1}) = f(x_{k_1})$.

Hence, g' coincides with the mapping that we have defined.

Corollary 7

Every abelian group G is a quotient of a free abelian group.

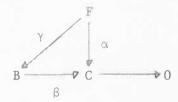
Proof

We first state that if X is any set, then there exists a free abelian group F have X a basis. If X contains just one element,

x, then an infinite cyclic group Zx can be constructed that has x as a generator. Let $Zx = \{nx : n \in Z\}$ and define the addition of two elements by nx + mx = (m + n)x. It is clear that this operation is well defined and associative. The element ox is the identity and -nx is the inverse of nx. Therefore, Zx is an infinite cyclic group. For the general case, set $F = \sum Zx$. In order to prove the corollary, $x \in X$ set $F = \sum Zx$. By theorem 26, the identity mapping $I : G \multimap G$, $x \in G$ I(x) = x can be extended to a homomorphism $g : F \multimap G$. Since I is the identity, g is onto and by the fundamental theorem of homomorphism, $F/K \cong G$, where K is the kernel of G. Therefore, G is the quotient group of a free abelian group.

Definition

Let β : $B \multimap C$ be a homomorphism of B onto C. We say that F has the projective property in case that if α : $F \multimap C$ is a homomorphism, then there is a homomorphism γ : $F \multimap B$ with $\beta \gamma = \alpha$, i. e., there is an α making the following diagram commute.



Theorem 30

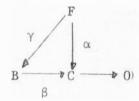
An abelian group F is free if, and only if, it has the projective property.

Proof

Suppose F is free and on the above diagram is given β and α .

Let $\{x_k^{}\}$ be a basis for F. For each k there is an element $b_k^{} \in B$ such that $\beta(b_k^{}) = \alpha(x_k^{})$ because β is omto. Define the function $f(x_k^{}) = b_k^{}$ into B. By theorem 26, there is a unique homomorphism γ such that $\gamma(x_k^{}) = b_k^{}$ for all $x_k^{} \in \{x_k^{}\}$. In order to finish the proof of the theorem, we have to show that $\gamma(\beta) = \alpha$ and for this purpose it suffices to evaluate each on the set of generators of F. But $\beta\gamma(x_k^{}) = \beta(b_k^{}) = \alpha(x_k^{})$ as required.

Conversely, suppose F has the projective property, i. e., the following diagram commutes.



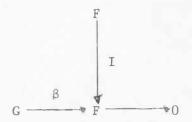
Since every abelian group is the quotient of a free abelian group, (corrollary 7), let B be a free abelian group such that B/B' \simeq F. Set C = F and β the natural homomorphism from B onto F, α = I. By hypothesis, the diagram commutes, $\gamma\beta$ = I; since β is onto and $\gamma\beta$ is the identity mapping, then β is also one-to-one and consequently an isomorphism of B onto F. Therefore, F is free.

Corcollary 8

Let G be an abelian group and let β : $G \longrightarrow F$ be a homomorphism onto, where F is free. Then, $G = B \oplus S$, where $S \cong F$ and B is the kermel of β .

Proof

Consider the diagram



where I is the identity map. By hypothesis, F is free. Then F has the projective property. That is, there exists a homomorphism $\gamma: F \longrightarrow G$ with $\beta \gamma = I$. But γ is one-to-one because, if not, $\beta \gamma$ cannot be one-to-one and $\beta \gamma$ is the identity mapping. Then, the image S of F by γ is isomorphic to F. We claim that $G = B \oplus S$.

Let $x \in B \cap S$. Hence, $\beta(x) = 0$ because $x \in B$ and $x = \gamma(y)$ where $y \in F$, so that $\beta\gamma(y) = 0$ which implies y = 0. Therefore, x = 0 and $B \cap S = 0$. Consider now $[B \cup S]$. It is obvious that $[B \cup S] \subset G$. Let $x \in G$ and $x \neq 0$. Then either $x \in S$ or not. If $x \in S$, then $x \in [B \cup S]$. If $x \notin S$, then $\beta(x) = y$. If y = 0, then $x \in B$ and so $x \in [B \cup S]$. Suppose $\beta(x) = y \neq 0$. Since $\beta\gamma = I$, then $\beta\gamma(y) = y$. Let $\gamma(y) = x'$, so $\beta(x') = y = \beta(x)$ or $\beta(x - x') = 0$ which implies $x - x' \in B$. That is, x - x' = b where $b \in B$. Therefore, x = b + x', but $b + x' \in [B \cup S]$. So, $[B \cup S] = G$. By theorem 6, we then have $G = kernel \beta \oplus S$.

Theorem 31

Every subgroup H of a free abelian group F is free. Moreover, rank H $\stackrel{<}{=}$ F.

Proof

Let $\{x_k : k \in K\}$ be a basis of F. Define $F(I) = \sum_{k \in I} [x_k]$

where I is a subset of the index set K. Consider now the set S* of all pairs (B, I) where $I \subset K$ and $H \cap F(I)$ is free with a basis B such that the cardinality of B is less or equal to the cardinal of I. Such pairs do exist, i. e., (ϕ, ϕ) .

The relation defined on S* by (B, I) $\stackrel{<}{=}$ (B', I) where B \subset B' and I \subset I' is a partial order relation. Let (M, J) be such that $M = \{\bigcup B_i \text{ and } J = \bigcup J_i. \text{ It is trivial that (M, J) contains the (B_i, I_i), if } \}$

but we must verify that $(M, J) \in S^*$ in order that it be an upper bound. Since M is the union of ascending independent sets, then M is also independent. Also, $J \subset K$ and since $F(J) = \bigcup_i F(I_i)$, then the cardinal i

of M is less or equal to the cardinal of J. Also, M is a basis for H \cap [\bigcup_i F(I_i)] since H \cap [\bigcup_i F(I_i)] = \bigcup_i [H \cap F(I_i)] and M contains

the B_i that are the basis for the H \cap F(I_i). Hence, \bigcup_i B_i = M is a basis for \bigcup [H \bigcap F(I_i)]. Therefore, (M, J) \in S*. Then, Zorn's theorem

can be applied so there exists a maximal pair (Bo, Io). We claim that Io = K which will complete the proof. Since F(K) = F and $F \cap H = H$, Bo will be a basis for H.

Suppose Io \neq K, i. e., there is an index k $\not\in$ Io; set Io* = {Io, k}. Then, F (Io) \subset F(Io*) and

$$\frac{F(\text{Io*}) \ \cap \ H}{F(\text{Io}) \ \cap \ H} = \frac{F(\text{Io*}) \ \cap \ H}{F(\text{Io*}) \ \cap \ H \ \cap \ F(\text{Io})}$$

$$\approx \frac{(F(Io^*) \cap H) + F(Io)}{F(Io)} \in \frac{F(Io^*)}{F(Io)}$$

by the second isomorphic theorem. Since Io* and Io are different by one element, then $F(Io*)/F(Io) \cong Z$ so that the original quotient is 0 or Z (every non-trivial subgroup of Z is cyclic and ilsomorphic to Z). If the quotient is 0, then $F(Io*) \cap H = F(Io) \cap H$. Therefore, (Bo, Io*) \in S* and is larger than the maximal pair ((Bo, Io) which is a contradiction. Suppose now that the quotient is ilsomorphic to Z. Then, by corollary 8, $F(Io*) \cap H = F(Io) \cap H \oplus L$, where $L \cong Z$. The pair (Bo*, Io*) \in S* and is larger than (Bo, Io), as contradiction. Therefore, Io = K as we claimed.

Theorem 32

An abelian group G is finitely generated if, and only if, it is at quotient of a free abelian group of finite rank.

P'roof

Let
$$G = [a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n]$$
 and $F = \sum_{\substack{a_i \in G \\ a_i}} Z$ where Z_{a_i}

dlenotes the infinite cyclic group generated by a_i . Consider the frunction $f: F \multimap G$ defined by $f(a_i) = a_i$. By theorem 27 there exists as unique homomorphism $g: F \multimap G$ that extends f. Since F has rank n, G is the quotient group of a free abelian group of finite rank.

Suppose now G is the quotient group of a free abelian group F cof finite rank. Then $F/K \cong G$, where K is a subgroup of F. By theorem 28, K is also free and rank $K \stackrel{\leq}{=} \operatorname{rank} F$. Let $y + K \in F/K$. Since $y \in F$, then $y = m_1 x_{k_1} + \cdots + m_n x_{k_n}$, where the x_{k_1} are in the basis $\{x_i\}$ of F. Hence

$$y + K = m_1 x_{k_1} + \dots + m_n x_{k_n} + K =$$

$$(m_1 x_{k_1} + K) + (m_2 x_{k_2} + K) + \dots + (m_n x_{k_n} + K).$$

This means that $y + K \in [x_1 + K, \dots, x_n + K]$. Then, $F/K \subset [[x_1 + K, + \dots, x_n + K]$.

Consider any element of $y \in [x_1 + K_1, \dots, x_n + K]$. Then $y = (m_{k_1} x_{k_1} + K) + (m_{k_2} x_{k_2} + K) + \dots + (m_{k_r} x_{k_r} + K) = m_{k_1} x_{k_1} + \dots + m_{k_r} x_{k_r} + K$. So that $y \in F/K$. Therefore, F/K iis: If initely generated.

(Corrollary 9

A direct summand B of a finitely generated abelian group G is pprox al.s. of initely generated.

Prioof

Let B be a direct summand of G. Since G is finitely generated, there exists a free abelian group F of finite rank such that $F/H \simeq G$. B is a direct summand of G. Then there exists a direct summand of F/H isomorphic to B. By the correspondent theorem, there exists a subgroup M containing H such that $M/H \simeq B$. By theorem 28, M is free abelian. Then, B is finitely generated.

(Corcollary 10

Every subgroup H of a finitely generated abelian group G is it:self finitely generated.

Proof

Let $F/A \cong G$ where F is free abelian of finite rank and A is a subgroup of F. Since $F/A \cong G$ and H is a subgroup of G, then there exists a subgroup $H' \subseteq F/A$ such that $H' \cong H$. By the correspondent theorem there exists a subgroup F' of F containing A such that $F''/A \cong H'$. Therefore, H is isomorphic to F'/A which is the quotient coff a free abelian group of finite rank and by theorem 29, H is finitely generated.

Theorem 33

Every abelian group G can be imbedded in a divisible group.

IPmoof

By corollary 7, there is a free abelian group F with $G \simeq F/R$ ifor some subgroup R of F. Let $F = \sum_{i \in K} Z_i$ since the infinite cyclic field Z_i is isomorphic to the additive group of integers, it ifollows that $F \subset \Sigma Q$ since each Z_i can be imbedded in a copy of Q. Therefore, $G \simeq F/R \subset (\Sigma Q)/R_1$ and this group is divisible being a quotient of a divisible group.

(Corollary 11

An abelian group G is divisible if, and only if, it is a direct summand of every group containing it.

Prroof

We know by corollary 6 that if G is a divisible subgroup of D then G is a direct summand. This proves the sufficiency.

In order to prove the necessity, we imbedded G in a divisible group D that is always possible by Theorem 30. G is a direct summand of D which is divisible; therefore, G is also divisible.

Theorem 34

Every finitely generated subgroup A of Q is cyclic.

Proof

Suppose A has generators $\frac{a_1}{b_1}$, $\frac{a_2}{b_2}$, ..., $\frac{a_n}{b_n}$. Let $b = \prod_{i=1}^n b_i$

and consider the function $f: A \longrightarrow Z$ defined by f(x) = bx for every $x \in A$. First of all, we must show that f is well defined. For any $x \in A$, the expression

$$x = m_{1} \frac{a_{1}}{b_{1}} + \dots + m_{n} \frac{a_{n}}{b_{n}} = \frac{\prod_{\substack{i=1 \\ j=1 \\ j=1}}^{n} \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j\neq 1}}^{n} b_{j} a_{i}}{\prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j=1 \\ j=1 \\ i=1}}^{n}}$$

is unique. Then, f(x) = $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \prod_{j=1}^{n} i_{j}$ which is always well defined. i=1 i=

Now, if $x \neq y$, then f(x) = bx and f(y) = by, which are not equal nunless x = y; f is one-to-one. We will prove now that f is a homomorphism with kernel 0 which will complete the proof.

For any x, $y \in A$,

$$f(x + Y) = b(x + y) = bx + by = f(x) + f(y)$$

f is a homomorphism.

If f(x) = 0, then bx = 0 so that x = 0. Therefore, the kernel of f is 0.

|Definition

Let G be a torsion-free group and x € G define

 $\langle x \rangle = \{ y \in G : my \in [x] \text{ for some } m \in Z, m \neq 0 \}.$

lLemma 7

The group $\langle x \rangle$ is isomorphic to a subgroup of Q.

lProof

If $y \in \langle x \rangle$, then my = nx where m and n are integers and $m \neq 0$. Define the function $f: \langle x \rangle \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ by $f(y) = \frac{n}{m}$, where m, n are such that my = nx. Since the numbers m, n are uniquely determined, then the function f is well defined. Let $y, z \in \langle x \rangle$, then there exists m_1 , m_2 , and m_2 such that $m_1y = n_1x$ and $m_2F = n_2x$. Suppose $z \neq y$, thus, fif $m_1 = m_2$, it implies $m_1y = m_2z$ and $m_1 \neq m_2$. Otherwise y = z which contradicts our hypothesis. This proves that if $x \neq y$, then $\frac{n_1}{m_1} \neq \frac{n_2}{m_2}$ which means that $f(x) \neq f(y)$. Therefore, f is one-to-one. Now, if we prove that f is a homomorphism, the theorem will be proved. Let $y_1, y_2 \in \langle x \rangle$ and $m_1y_1 = n_1x$, $m_2y_2 = n_2x$. Hence, $m_1m_2y_1 = m_2n_1x$, $m_1m_2y_2 = m_1n_2x$ and $m_1m_2(y_1 + y_2) = (m_2n_1 + m_1n_2)x$, so that $f(y_1 + y_2) = \frac{m_2n_1 + m_1n_2}{m_1m_2} = f(y_1) + f(y_2)$. Therefore, f is a homomorphism as

we claimed.

lLemma 8

If G is torsion-free and $x \in G$, then $G/\langle x \rangle$ is also torsion-free.

Proof

Suppose $\overline{y} \in G/\langle x \rangle$ has finite order n, then $n(y + \langle x \rangle) = \overline{0}$. That means ny $\in \langle x \rangle$, but this cannot be the case because $\overline{y} \neq 0$. Therefore, $G/\langle x \rangle$ is torsion-free.

Theorem 35 (Basis Theorem)

Every finitely generated abelian group G is the direct sum of cyclic groups.

Proof

Let $G = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$. We prove the theorem by induction on n. If n = 1, then G is cyclic and we are done. Suppose n > 1. We will consider two cases where, in the first case, G is torsion-free and the second case is general.

<u>Case 1.</u> G is torsion-free. By lemma 8, $G/<x_n>$ is torsion-free and it is generated by n-1 elements. We know by induction hypothesis that $G/<x_n>$ is free abelian and that there exists a homomorphism of G onto $G/<x_n>$. Then, by corollary 8, $G=<x_n> \oplus F$, where F is free abelian. Since $<x_n>$ is the direct summand of a finitely generated group, by corollary 9, $<x_n>$ is also finitely generated. By lemma 7, $<x_n>$ is isomorphic to a subgroup of Q and we proved in theorem 31 that a finitely generated subgroup of Q is cyclic. Therefore, $<x_n>$ is cyclic and G is free abelian which means a direct sum of cyclic groups.

<u>Case 2.</u> This is a general case. We already know that G/tG is torsion-free and since G is finitely generated, by theorem 29, G/tG is finitely generated. Therefore, by case 1, G/tG is free

Now, we give the fundamental theorem of finitely generated abelian groups.

Theorem 36

Every finitely generated abelian group G is the direct sum of primary and infinite cyclic groups and the number of summands of each kind depend only on G.

Proof

We proved earlier that $G \simeq tG \oplus (G/tG)$. The fundamental theorem for finite groups given us has the uniqueness of the decomposition of tG into direct sum of cyclic groups. By theorem 25, G/tG has a unique number of cyclic summands.

Definition

A subgroup S of G is pure in G in case $nG \cap S = nS$ for every integer n.

An alternative definition of a pure subgroup is the following. A subgroup S of G is pure if for any element $h \in S$, h = ny for any integer n and $y \in G$ which implies $h = nh_1$ with $h_1 \in S$.

It is clear that both definitions are equivalent. Both

say that if an element of S is divisible by n in G, it is also divisible by n in S.

One of the simplest examples of a non-pure subgroup is the following. Let G be the additive group of integer module 4. $G = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ and $S = \{0, 2\}$. Then, 2 is a multiple of 2 in G but not in S, so S is not pure.

The following are some of the most simple properties of the pure groups. We omit the proof of most of them.

1. Any direct summand of G is pure in G.

<u>Proof.</u> Let $G = H \oplus S$. We know $nG = nH \oplus nS$. Therefore, $nG \cap S = nS$.

2. If G/S is torsion-free, then S is pure in G.

<u>Proof.</u> Let $y \in S$ and y = nx, where $x \in G$. Consider x + S. Then $n(x + S) = nx + S = y + S = \overline{0}$. If $nx \in S$, $x \in S$, since G/S is a torsion group, so that nG = nS.

- 3. Since G/tG is torsion-free, then tG is pure. Furthermore, we gave an example in theorem 8 that tG is not a direct summand of G. Therefore, a pure subgroup need not be a direct summand.
- 4. If G is torsion-free, a subgroup S of G is pure if and only if G/S is torsion-free.

<u>Proof.</u> Sufficiency is property 3. Suppose now that S is pure in G and consider $y + S \neq \overline{0}$. Then, if $n(y + S) = \overline{0}$, $ny = ny_1$ where $y_1 \in S$ so that $n(y - y_1) = 0$. But, by hypothesis, G is torsion-free. Therefore, $n(y - y_1) = 0$ implies $y - y_1 = 0$.

5. Purity is transitive, i. e., if K is pure in H and H is pure in G, then K is pure in G.

- 6. Any intersection of pure subgroups of a torsion-free group G is pure.
 - 7. A pure subgroup of a divisible group is divisible.
 - 8. The ascending union of pure subgroups is pure.
- 9. Let S be pure in G and let $\bar{y} \in G/S$. Then y can be lifted to $x \in G$, where x and \bar{y} have the same order.

<u>Proof.</u> Let $y = (y_1 + S) \in G/S$ and let n be the order of y. Then, ny $\in S$ and there is some $z \in S$ such that $ny_1 = nz$. Let $x = z - y_2$. Then $nx = nz - ny_1 = 0$ as we desired. If y has infinite order, then the element y_1 has the required property.

Lemma 9

Let T be pure in G. If T \subset S \subset G and S/T is pure in G/T, then S is pure in G.

Proof

Suppose ng = s, where $s \in T$ and $g \in G$. Then ng = s, where \overline{s} denotes the coset of s in S/T. By the purity of S/T, there exists an element $s' \in S/T$ with $n\overline{s}_1 = \overline{s}$. Rewriting this equation in G we get

$$ns' - s = t$$

for some $t \in T$. Hence ns' - ng = t but T is pure. Then there is $t' \in T$ such that n(s' - g) = nt' or ns' - ng = nt'. Thus, s = n(s' - t') and $s' - t' \in S$. Therefore S is pure in G.

Lemma 10

A p-primary group G which is not divisible contains a pure cyclic subgroup.

Proof

Suppose there is an $x \in G[p]$ which is divisible by p^k but not by p^{k+1} . Let $p^ky = x$. We claim that this element exists and [y] is pure in G.

By lemma 1, in a p-primary group every element is divisible by any integer prime to p. From this lemma we need to check only the divisibility by powers of p in order to prove that [y] is pure. Suppose $y_1 = p^r y$ and y_1 is divisible by p^h in G, i. e., $p^r y = p^h z$, $z \in G$. If h > r, we have $x = p^{k-r} p^r y = p^{k-r} p^h z$, or $x = p^{k+1}(p^{h-r-1}z)$ contradicting the hypothesis that x is not divisible by p^{k+1} .

Now, we will prove that our assumption that there is an $x \in G[p]$ which is divisible by p^k but not by p^{k+1} is true. Suppose that each $x \in G[p]$ is divisible by every power of p. If this is the case, we will prove that pG = G, so that G is divisible by theorem 18 contradicting our hypothesis. Let $y \in G$ and p^k equal its order. Then $p^{k-1}y = x$ with $x \in G[p]$. Since x is divisible by every power of p, so $x = p^k z_1$. Then $p^{k-1}y = p^k z_1$, $p^{k-1}(y - pz_1) = 0$. This implies $p^{k-2}(y - pz_1) \in G[p]$. Therefore $p^{k-2}(y - pz_1)$ is divisible by p^{k-1} , i. e., $p^{k-2}(y - pz_1) = p^{k-1}z_2$ o which implies that $p^{k-3}(y - pz_1 - pz_2) \in G[p]$. Repeating this process k times we get

$$y - pz_1 - pz_2 - \dots - pz_k = 0$$

 $y = p(z_1 + \dots + z_k).$

That is, every y in G is in pG. Therefore, G = pG.

Definition

A subset X of nonzero elements of a group G is independent in case $\Sigma m_{\alpha \alpha} = 0$ which implies each $m_{\alpha \alpha} = 0$, where $m_{\alpha \alpha} \in X$ and $m_{\alpha \alpha} \in X$.

Lemma 11

A set of nonzero elements of G is independent if, and only if,

$$[X] = \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in X} [\mathbf{x}].$$

Proof

Suppose X is independent. Let $x_0 \in X$ and let $y \in [x_0]$ $[X - \{x_0\}].$ Then $y = mx_0$ and $y = \sum m_\alpha x_\alpha$, where each $x_\alpha \neq x_0$. Therefore,

$$-mx_0 + \sum_{\alpha} x_{\alpha} = 0$$

so that, by the independence of X, each term is 0. Hence, $0 = mx_0 = y.$ By theorem 6, $[X] = \sum_{x \in X} [x].$

Conversely, suppose [X] = Σ [x]. By theorem 5, every x $\pmb{\epsilon}$ [X] $\mathbf{x} \pmb{\epsilon} \mathbf{X}$ has a unique expression

$$x = m_1 x_1 + \dots + m_n x_n$$

Then, if $0 = \sum_{\alpha=0}^{\infty} x_{\alpha}$, each term is 0. Otherwise, we have distinct representation for 0.

Definition

A subset X of G is pure independent if X is independent and [X] is a pure subgroup of G.

Lemma 12

Let G be a p-primary group. If X is maximal pure independent, (i. e., X is contained in no larger pure independent), then G/[X] is divisible.

Proof

Suppose G/[X] is not divisible. Then, by lemma 10, it contains a pure cyclic subgroup $[\bar{y}]$. By property 9 of pure subgroups, \bar{y} may be lifted to an element $y \in G$, where y and \bar{y} have the same order. We claim that $X^* = X \cup \{y\}$ is pure independent, which will contradict the maximality of X. First of all

$[X] \subset [X^*] \subset G$

and $[X^*]/[X] = [\bar{y}]$ which is pure in G/[X]. Therefore, by lemma 9, $[X^*]$ is pure in G. Secondly, X^* is independent. Suppose, $my + \sum_{\alpha} x_{\alpha} = 0$, $x_{\alpha} \in X$, $m_{\alpha} \in Z$. In G/[X], this equation becomes $m\bar{y} = 0$ which means that the order of \bar{y} is m and since y and \bar{y} have the same order, then my = 0. Hence $\sum_{\alpha} x_{\alpha} = 0$ and by the independence of X, each $m_{\alpha} x_{\alpha} = 0$. Therefore, X^* is independent and so it is pure independent.

Definition

Let G be a torsion group. A subgroup B of G is a basic subgroup of G in the following cases.

- 1. B is a direct sum of cyclic groups.
- 2. B is pure in G.
- 3. G/B is divisible.

Theorem 37

Every torsion group G contains a basic subgroup.

Proof

By theorem 9 every torsion group has a decomposition as a direct sum of p-primary group. Then, if we show that every p-primary group has a basic subgroup, the theorem follows.

Assume, therefore, that G is p-primary.

If G is divisible, then G is isomorphic to $\sigma(p^{\infty})$. Then B = 0 is a basic subgroup. If G is not divisible, then G does contain pure independent subsets by lemma 10.

Let Y be the set of all pure independent subsets of G. Partially order Y by ordinary inclusion. Let $\{Y_{\alpha}\}$ be a simply ordered subset of Y, i. e., the Y_{α} are pure independent subsets of G and given any two of them, one contains the other. Let Y_1 be the union of these Y_{α} . But by property 8, the ascending union of pure subgroups is pure, so Y_1 is pure. Consider now $\sum_{\alpha} x_{\alpha} = 0$ where $x_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $x_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{Y}_{\alpha}$. Since the Y_{α} are partially ordered by inclusion, then $x_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{Y}_{\alpha}$ and there exists some x_{α} such that $x_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{Y}_{\alpha}$, for every x_{α} . Hence $x_{\alpha} = 0$ implies $x_{\alpha} = 0$ for each x_{α} . Therefore, $x_{\alpha} = 0$ independent. The set Y satisfies the hypothesis of Zorn's lemma. Therefore, there is a maximal pure independent subset X of G. The previous two lemmas show that $x_{\alpha} = 0$ is a basic subgroup.

Corollary 12

Every torsion group is an extension of a direct sum of cyclic groups by a divisible group.

Proof

The theorem follows from the previous theorem and the definitions of extension and basic groups.

Corollary 13 (Prüfer)

Let G be a subgroup of bounded order, i. e., nG = 0 for some integer n > 0. Then G is a direct sum of cyclic groups.

Proof

Since G is of bounded order, G is torsion and by theorem 34, G contains a basis B. Let $y + B \in G/B$. Since G/B is divisible, y + B is divisible by n. So $y + B = n(x + B) = \overline{0}$. Therefore, G/B = 0 and, consequently, G = B.

Theorem 38

Let G be an abelian group and H a pure subgroup such that G/H is a direct sum of cyclic groups. Then, H is a direct summand of G.

Proof

For each cyclic summand of G/H, pick a generator y_i , i. e., $G/H = \Sigma \sigma(y_i)$. By property 9 of pure subgroup, we can select elements $x_i \in G$ such that the x_i and y_i have the same order. Let $K = \Sigma \sigma(x_i)$. We claim that $G = H \oplus K$.

If we prove that [H + K] = G and $H \cap K = 0$, then by theorem 6, the theorem follows.

1. [H + K] = G. Let t be any element in G and \bar{t} equal the image of t by the natural homomorphism η from G into G/H.

Hence $\bar{t} = \Sigma m_i y_i$, where $m_i \in Z$. Now, $\eta(t - \Sigma m_i x_i) = \eta(t) - \eta(\Sigma m_i x_i) = \eta(t) - \Sigma m_i y(x_i) = \bar{t} - \Sigma m_i y_i = \bar{0}$, then $t - \Sigma m_i y_i \in H$. Since $\Sigma m_i x_i \in K$, we have $t \in [H + K]$.

2. H \cap K = 0. Let w \in H \cap K, then w \in K, so that w = $\sum m_i x_i$ and $n(w) = \sum m_i y_i = \overline{0}$ because w is also in H. If y_i has infinite order then $m_i = 0$. If y_i has finite order n_i , then m_i must be a multiple of n_i . In either case, since x_i and y_i have the same order, $a_i x_i = 0$ for every i so that w = 0.

Theorem 39

Let S be a pure subgroup of G with nS = 0 for some n > 0. Then, S is a direct summand of G.

Proof

Let $f: G \longrightarrow G/(S + nG)$ be the natural map. It is obvious that this quotient is of bounded order since $n(G/(S + nG) = \overline{0}$. Also, G/(S + nG) is the direct sum of cyclic groups by corollary 13. Let $G/(S + nG) = \Sigma \sigma(r_{\alpha})$ where \overline{x}_{α} is a generator of $\sigma(r_{\alpha})$. For each, \overline{x}_{α} is raised to $x_{\alpha} \notin G$. Then $r_{\alpha} x_{\alpha} \notin S + nG$ since the order of x_{α} mod. (S + nG) is r_{α} and so

$$r_{\alpha}x_{\alpha} = s_{\alpha} + nh_{\alpha}$$

where $\mathbf{s}_{\alpha} \in$ S and $\mathbf{h}_{\alpha} \in$ G with \mathbf{r}_{α} dividing n. Thus, we have

$$s_{\alpha} = r_{\alpha}(x_{\alpha} - \frac{h}{r_{\alpha}}h_{\alpha}).$$

Since S is pure, there is $s_{\alpha}' \in S$ with $s_{\alpha} = r_{\alpha} s_{\alpha}'$. Therefore, $r_{\alpha} y_{\alpha} = nh_{\alpha}$ and $f(y_{\alpha}) = \bar{x}_{\alpha}$.

Let $K = [nG \ U \ \{y_{\alpha}\}]$. We claim that $G = S \oplus K$. We must prove that $S \cap K = 0$ and S + K = G.

1. S \cap K = 0. Let $x \in S \cap K$. Since $x \in K$, $x = \sum m_{\alpha} y_{\alpha} + nh$. Also $x \in S$, then $f(x) = \overline{0}$ so that $\overline{0} = \sum m_{\alpha} \overline{x}_{\alpha}$. Hence, r_{α} divides m_{α} for each α . But we know $r_{\alpha} y_{\alpha} \in nG$ so that $m_{\alpha} y_{\alpha} \in nG$. Therefore, $x = \sum m_{\alpha} y_{\alpha} + ny \in nG$. But $S \cap nG = 0$ since for any element $y \in nG$. The foreign $x = \sum m_{\alpha} y_{\alpha} + ny \in nG$. But $x \in S$ in $x = \sum m_{\alpha} y_{\alpha} + ny \in nG$. But $x \in S$ in $x = \sum m_{\alpha} y_{\alpha} + ny \in nG$. Consequently, x = 0.

2. S + K = G. Let $x \in G$. Then $f(x) = \sum m_{\alpha} \bar{x}_{\alpha} = f(\sum m_{\alpha} y_{\alpha})$ so $f(x - \sum m_{\alpha} y_{\alpha}) = \bar{0}$, or $x - \sum m_{\alpha} y_{\alpha} = s + nh$ S + nG. Therefore, $x = s + (nh + \sum m_{\alpha} y_{\alpha})$ S + K.

Corollary 14

If tG is of bounded order, then tG is a direct summand of G. In particular, tG is a direct summand if tG is finite.

Proof

By property 3, tG is pure in G. Then, if tG is of bounded order, by the above theorem, tG is a direct summand of G. And, of course, if tG is finite, tG is of bounded order.

Definition

A group G is indecomposable if G \neq 0 and if G \simeq H \oplus K. Then, either H or K is 0.

Corollary 15

An indecomposable abelian group G is either torsion or torsion-free.

Proof

Suppose that G is an indecomposable group that is neither torsion nor torsion-free. Otherwise, we do not have anything to prove. Hence, tG is a proper subgroup of G. If tG is divisible, then, by corollary 6, tG is a direct summand of G which contradicts our hypothesis so that tG is not divisible. By theorem 9, tG is the direct sum of p-primary groups so, by lemma 10, tG contains a cyclic and pure group $\sigma(p)$. It follows from theorem 36, that $\sigma(p)$ is a direct summand of G, a contradiction.

Theorem 40

A torsion group G is indecomposable if and only if G is primary and cyclic or G \simeq $\sigma(p^{\infty})$ for some prime p.

Proof

The sufficiency condition is obvious. Suppose G is torsion and indecomposable. By theorem 9, G is the direct sum of p-primary groups so that G is p-primary for some prime p. If G is of bounded order, then, by corollary 10, G is the direct sum of cyclic groups and G is indecomposable so that G is cyclic.

Suppose now that G is not of bounded order. If G is not divisible, it follows from lemma 10 that G has a pure cyclic subgroup $\sigma(p)$ and by theorem 36 $\sigma(p)$ is a direct summand of G, a contradiction. Therefore, G is divisible and by theorem 21, it is a direct sum of copies of Q and $\sigma(p^{\infty})$ for distinct p. Since G is torsion, we cannot have the case that G has as a direct summand copies of Q, and, because G is indecomposable, $G \simeq \sigma(p^{\infty})$.

Theorem 41

Let G be an infinite abelian group with every proper subgroup finite; then $G \simeq \sigma(p^{\infty})$ for some p.

Proof

Since every proper subgroup of G is finite, then G is torsion. By theorem 9, G is the direct sum of p-primary group. Suppose that G has infinite summand, then there exists a subgroup of G that is not finite. Since the finite direct sum of finite summand is finite, G cannot be decomposed as a direct sum of proper subgroups. Therefore, G is indecomposable and, by theorem 37, it follows that $G \cong \sigma(p^{\infty})$ because G cannot be cyclic.

Theorem 42

If an infinite abelian group G is isomorphic to every proper subgroup, then G \simeq Z.

Proof

Let $x \in G$ and $x \neq 0$. Consider the cyclic group generated by x, [x] = D. By hypothesis, $G \cong D$ and since D is infinite cyclic group, it follows that $G \cong Z$.

Now we will study a restricted class of torsion-free groups-those of rank 1.

Definition

The rank of a torsion-free group G is the number of elements in a maximal independent subset G.

Since a free abelian group is torsion-free, then our two notions of rank coincide for these groups. Below, we give some theorems and notation for this type of group.

Theorem 43

Every torsion-free group G can be imbedded in a vector space V over Q.

Proof

By theorem 30 the group G can be imbedded into a division group G. Consider the natural map $f: D \longrightarrow D/tD$. Since G is torsion-free, any element in G is not in tD, so if $x \in G$, $f(x) \neq 0$ and, consequently, $f(G) \subset D/tD$. By theorem 11, D/tD is torsion-free divisible group and by lemma 2, D/tD is a vector space over Q. Therefore, G is imbedded in the vector space D/tD.

Theorem 44

A torsion-free group G has rank at most r if, and only if, G can be imbedded in an r-dimensional vector space over Q.

Proof

If the rank of the torsion-free group G is less or equal to r, then, by the theorem above, D/tD is a vector space over Q containing G. Suppose now that D/tD has dimension q less than r. Let $\{x_1,\ldots,x_r\}$ be a maximal linearly independent set in G. Hence, $\{\bar{x}_1,\ldots,\bar{x}_r\}$ is linearly independent set in D/tD,

where $f(x_i) = \bar{x_i}$. But this is a contradiction of our hypothesis since the dimension of D/tD is q. Therefore, dimension of D/tD $\stackrel{>}{=}$ r.

Conversely, if G can be imbedded in a vector space V over Q of dimension at most r, then any subspace of V has dimension at most r. Let \overline{G} be the subspace of V such that $G \cong \overline{G}$ and let $\{\overline{x}_1,\ldots,\overline{x}_s\}$ be a basis of \overline{G} . Then the corresponding set in G, $\{x_1,\ldots,x_s\}$, is maximal linearly independent. Hence, the rank of G is s with s = r. Because of this theorem, the rank of a torsion-free group is well defined by the above definition. Thus, any two maximal linearly independent sets of G will be a basis of the vector space \overline{G} over Q.

Theorem 45

Let

be an exact sequence of torsion-free groups. Then, rank A + rank C = rank B.

Proof

We know by theorem 1 that B is an extension of A by C. Let $\{x_1,\ldots,x_r\}$ be a maximal independent set in A so the rank of A is r. Since the groups A and B are torsion-free, we can identify the rank of groups with the dimension of the subspace over Q in which they are imbedded. Hence, we can extend the set $\{x_1,\ldots,x_r\}$ to a maximal independent set in B,

 $\{x_1$, ..., x_r , x_{r+1} , ..., $x_n\}$, since $A \subset B$. Also, $C \simeq B/A$ and rank $C = \mathrm{rank}\ B/A$. But A and B are torsion-free. Then, rank B/A = n - r. Therefore, rank $A + \mathrm{rank}\ C = \mathrm{rank}\ B$.

Corollary 16

Any torsion-free group of rank 1 is indecomposable.

Proof

Suppose $G = G_1 \oplus G_2$. But $0 \xrightarrow{f} G \xrightarrow{g} G_2 \xrightarrow{g} 0$

Corollary 17

Any torsion-free group ${\tt G}$ of rank 1 is an isomorphic subgroup of ${\tt Q}.$

Proof

By theorem 43, G can be imbedded in 1-dimensional vector space V over Q. Since $V \simeq Q$ and G is imbedded in V, G is isomorphic to some subgroup of Q.

The following subgroups of Q are non-isomorphic.

 ${\bf G}_1$: All rationals whose denominator is square-free.

 G_2 : All dyadic rationals, i. e., all rationals of the form $\frac{m}{2}k$.

 $\mathbf{G}_{\mathbf{q}}$: All rationals whose decimal expansion is finite.

Let p_1 , p_2 , p_3 , . . . , p_n , . . . be the sequence of primes.

Definition

A characteristic is a sequence

$$(K_1, K_2, ..., K_n, ...)$$

where each K_n is a non-negative integer or the symbol ∞ .

If G is a subgroup of Q and x ϵ G is nonzero, then x determines a characteristic in the following way. We put $K_n=0$ if py = x has no solution in G, $K_n=K$ if $p_n^ky=x$ has solution but $p_n^{k+1}y=n$ has no solution. $K_n=\infty$ if all the equations $p_n^iy=x$ have solutions for every i.

It is useful to write each nonzero integer m as a formal infinite product, $m = \pi p_1^{\alpha_1}$, where the p_1 range over all the primes and $\alpha_1 \stackrel{>}{=} 0$. If the element a is replaced by ma, where m is a nonzero integer, then there is no change in K_n if it is ∞ , but it is finite and equal to $K \stackrel{>}{=} 0$ and $m = c_n^C m'$ with $(p_n, m') = 1$. Then, after the change, it will be $K_n = K + c$.

Let $m = \Pi p_i^{\alpha_i}$ and $n = \Pi p_i^{\beta_i}$ be given integers. If $a \in G$ has the characteristic (K_1, K_2, K_3, \dots) , then by the definition of characteristic, there is an $x \in G$ such that mx = na and only if $\alpha_i \stackrel{\leq}{=} K_i + \beta_i$ for every i (we use by convention $\infty + \beta_i = \infty$).

The groups 2, Q, G_1 , G_2 , G_3 (the last three defined as above) are of rank 1 and all contain x = 1.

The characteristic of x = 1 in each group is

 $Z:(0,0,0,\ldots)$

Q:
$$(\infty, \infty, \infty, \infty, \dots)$$

G₁: $(1, 1, 1, \dots)$

G₂: $(\infty, 0, 0, \dots)$

$$G_3$$
: $(\infty, 0, \infty, \dots)$.

Distinct nonzero elements of the same group may have distinct characteristics. For example, in Z the characteristic of 6 is

$$(0, 1, 1, 0, 0, \ldots),$$

while the characteristic of 1 is

Definition

Two characteristics are equivalent if (1) they have ∞ in the same coordinates and (2) they differ in, at most, a finite number of coordinates.

It is obvious that this is an equivalence relation. An equivalence class of characteristics is called type.

Lemma 13

Let G be a subgroup of Q, and let x and x' be nonzero elements of G. Then, the characteristics of x and x' are equivalent.

Proof

Suppose first that x' = mx for some integer m. Then, the characteristics of x and x' are equivalent because the characteristic of x differs from the characteristics of x in a finite

number of coordinates as we remarked above. Now, since G is a subgroup of Q, there are integers m and n such that

$$mx = nx^{\dagger}$$
.

The characteristic of x is equivalent to that mx and this one to nx' which is equivalent to that of x'.

As a result of this lemma, if G is a torsion-free group of rank 1 (a subgroup of Q), we may define the type of G, $\Gamma(G)$, as the type of any nonzero element of G.

Theorem 46

Let G and G' be a torsion-free group of rank 1. Then, $G \simeq G'$ if and only if $\Gamma(G) = \Gamma(G')$.

Proof

Suppose $f: G \longrightarrow G'$ is an isomorphism. If $x \in G$ is nonzero, then if $p_1^n y = x$, $f(p_1^n y) = p_1^n f(y) = f(x)$; that is, x and f(x) are divisible by the same powers of p_1 for every i. Hence, x and f(x) have equivalent characteristics. Therefore, $\Gamma(G) = \Gamma(G')$.

Assume that $\Gamma(G) = \Gamma(G')$ and that G and G' are subgroups of Q. If a and a' are two elements in G and G', respectively, then their characteristics (K_1, K_2, K_3, \ldots) and $(K_1', K_2', K_3', \ldots)$ differ in only a finite number of places. If we agree that the notation $\infty - \infty$ means 0, then we may define a ration number λ by

$$\lambda = \Pi p_{i}^{K} i^{-K} i'.$$

It follows from the definition of equivalence and our convention concerning $^{\infty}$ that almost all the K $_{i}$ - K' = 0.

Define $f: G \rightarrow Q$ by f(x) = ux, where $u = \lambda \frac{a'}{a}$. Since, by distributivity, f(x + y) = u(x + y) = ux + uy = f(x) + f(y); thus, f is a homomorphism. Now, a rational number x is in G if and only if there are integers $m = \Pi p_1^{\alpha}i$ and $n = \Pi p_1^{\beta}i$ with mx = na and $\alpha_i \leq \beta_i + K_i$ for all i. A rational y is in G' if, and only if, there are integers m and n with mx = na and m if mx = na and m

Theorem 47

If Γ is a type, then there exists a group of G of rank 1 with $\Gamma(G)$ = Γ .

Proof

Let (K_1, K_2, K_3, \dots) be a characteristic of Γ . We define the group G as the subgroup of G generated by all rationals of the form $\frac{1}{m}$ where for all n, p_n^t divides m if and only if $t \stackrel{\leq}{=} K_n$. We must prove that the rank of G is one. Let

 $\frac{1}{m_1}$ and $\frac{1}{m_2}$ be elements of G. We will prove that they are not independent. Suppose that there exists integers h_1 and h_2 such that

$$h_1 \frac{1}{m_1} + h_2 \frac{1}{m_2} = 0.$$

If $(H_1, h_2) \neq 1$, we can simplify the above equation. Thus, suppose that $(h_1, h_2) = 1$. Hence

$$h_1^{m_2} + h_2^{m_1} = 0$$

$$h_1^{m_2} = -h_2^{m_1}$$

which implies that m₁ and m₂ have equivalent characteristics and the elements $\frac{1}{m_1}$ and $\frac{1}{m_2}$ are dependent. Therefore, the rank of G is 1.

Also, we must prove that the element 1 has the given characteristic which is equivalent to proving that the equation

$$p_n^r x = 1$$

always has a solution in G for every n if and only if $r = K_n$. Since x belongs to G, then $x = \frac{h}{m}$, where m is divisible by p_n^t for all n if, and only if, $t = K_n$. Consequently, the above equation always has solutions and 1 has the given characteristic.

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