MATH 1530: Abstract Algebra

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Notes for Abstract Algebra

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1 Introduction

1.1 Preliminary definitions

Definition 1.1.1: A **set** is "a collection of elements," e.g., the integers $\mathbb{Z} = \{\ldots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$, the real numbers \mathbb{R} , and the rational numbers \mathbb{Q} (fractions). Note that we use $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} = \{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$ to refer to the nonnegative integers.

Definition 1.1.2: If A, B are sets, define the Cartesian product as

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$$

We can abbreviate $A^2 = A \times A$. Similarly, if A_1, \ldots, A_n are sets, then

$$A_1 \times \cdots \times A_n = \{(a_1, \dots, a_n) \mid a_1 \in A_1, \dots, a_n \in A_n\}$$

Let $A^n = A \times \cdots \times A$ (n times).

Definition 1.1.3: A function $f: A \to B$, or a map, is an association of an element $f(a) \in B$ to every element $a \in A$. We call A the **domain** of f, and B the **codomain** of f. Furthermore, the **range** or **image** of f is

$$\{f(a): a \in A\}$$

Example 1: Let $f: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$ be given by $x \mapsto 2x$. The codomain and domain are both \mathbb{Z} , while the image is

$$\{b \in \mathbb{Z} : b = 2a \text{ for some } a \in \mathbb{Z}\}\$$

which is the set of even numbers.

Definition 1.1.4: A binary operation on a given set G is a function $*: G \times G \to G$. For example, integer addition $(+: \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z})$ is a binary operation.

 $^{^{1}}$ The symbol \mapsto means "maps to."

1.2 What is a group?

Definition 1.2.1: A **group** is a set G together with a binary operation $*: G \times G \to G$ such that the following hold:

- (1) "Associativity": for $a, b, c \in G$, (a * b) * c = a * (b * c).
- (2) "Existence of the identity": there is an element $e \in G$ such that for all $g \in G$, e * g = g and g * e = g.
- (3) "Existence of inverses": for every $g \in G$, there is an element that we'll call $g^{-1} \in G$ such that $g * g^{-1} = g^{-1} * g = e$, where e is an identity element of G.

Theorem 1.2.2

 $(\mathbb{Z},+)$ forms a group.^a

 a We write the ordered pair $(\mathbb{Z},+)$ to represent the integers along with the binary operation of addition.

Proof. Indeed, we check that $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ satisfies the three axioms of being a group:

- (1) For associativity, we note that (a+b)+c=a+(b+c) for all $a,b,c\in\mathbb{Z}$.
- (2) For existence of the identity, $0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ satisfies 0 + a = a + 0 = a for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- (3) For existence of inverses, consider some $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then assert that $-a \in \mathbb{Z}$ satisfies a + (-a) = (-a) + a = 0.

Thus, we have shown that $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is a group.

Definition 1.2.3: Let (G,*) be a group. Then G is a **commutative** or **abelian** group if a*b=b*a for all $a,b\in G$.

For example, \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{R} , and \mathbb{Q} with addition are all **commutative groups**. However, below is an example of a non-commutative group.

Example 2: Not all groups are commutative. Let G be the symmetries of a can (cylinder) C which are physically possible, i.e., the rigid motions preserving the can. These are called the orientation-preserving isometries of \mathbb{R}^3 . More precisely, we can define the set of symmetries

$$\operatorname{Sym}(C) = \{ A : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} : \det(A) = 1, A(C) = C \}$$

where A is an linear transformation which is an isometry. Put this together with the binary operation of composition \circ , and this forms a group.

However, these motions are not commutative. That is, flipping the can and then rotating it is distinct from rotating the can and then flipping it.

Theorem 1.2.4

Every group has a unique identity element.

1.3 The group $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$

Definition 1.3.1: Let A be a nonempty set. Then a **relation** on A is a subset $R \subseteq A \times A$, which is written $a \sim b$ if and only if $(a,b) \in R$.

Definition 1.3.2: A relation R is an **equivalence relation** if it satisfies the following three properties:

- (1) "Reflexivity": $a \sim a$ for all $a \in A$.
- (2) "Symmetry": if $a \sim b$, then $b \sim a$ for all $a, b \in A$.
- (3) "Transitivity": if $a \sim b$ and $b \sim c$, then $a \sim c$ for all $a, b, c \in A$.

Let $f: A \to D$ be a function. Given $a, b \in A$, we'll say $a \sim b$ if and only if f(a) = f(b). This is an equivalence relation; moreover, all equivalence relations can be written in this form.

Example 3: Consider the set $A = \{$ students in Math 1530 $\}$. For any two students $a, b \in A$, say $a \sim b$ if and only if a has the same birthday as b. This is an equivalence relation, so we can relate this to the above form as follows. Let $D = \{$ Jan 1, . . . , Dec 31 $\}$ be the set of possible birthdays, and $f: A \to D$ be a function mapping students to their birthdays.

Definition 1.3.3: Let \sim be an equivalence relation on A. Then we say

$$\overline{a} = \{b \in A : a \sim b\}$$

is an equivalence class of a. The equivalence classes of A partition it into non-overlapping groups covering all of A.

Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Say $n \mid a$ (pronounced "n divides a") if a = kn for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Now define a relation \equiv_n on \mathbb{Z} by $a \equiv_n b$ if $n \mid (a - b)$. We call this relation "congruent modulo n." To prove that \equiv_n is an equivalence relation on \mathbb{Z} , we must show the following:

- (1) $a \equiv_n a$ for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- (2) $a \equiv_n b$ implies $b \equiv_n a$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- (3) $a \equiv_n b$ and $b \equiv_n c$ implies $a \equiv_n c$ for all $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. Indeed, we will show that \equiv_n satisfies the three axioms of equivalence relations:

- (1) For reflexivity, a a = 0 and $n \mid 0$.
- (2) For symmetry, $a \equiv_n b \implies n \mid (a b) \implies a b = kn$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. We want to show that $b \equiv_n a$, i.e., b a = ln for some $l \in \mathbb{Z}$. We may take l = (-k).
- (3) For transitivity, there exists $k, l \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that a b = kn and b c = ln. Then, adding these equations gives a c = (k + l)n. Since $(k + l) \in \mathbb{Z}$, we conclude $n \mid (a c) \implies a \equiv_n c$.

Definition 1.3.4: $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is the set of equivalence classes modulo n, i.e., equivalence classes with respect to the equivalence relation \equiv_n .

For example, $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z} = \{\overline{0}, \overline{1}, \overline{2}, \overline{3}, \overline{4}\}$. The choice of "captains" is not important, so we could alternatively write this as $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z} = \{\overline{10}, -\overline{4}, \overline{2}, \overline{8}, \overline{24}\}$.

Definition 1.3.5: We define the binary operation of addition $+: \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ as follows: $\overline{a} + \overline{b} = \overline{a+b}$ for all $\overline{a}, \overline{b} \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$.

Lemma 1.3.6

Addition on $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is well-defined, as stated above.

Proof. Given $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\overline{a}_1 = \overline{a}_2$ and $b_1, b_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\overline{b}_1 = \overline{b}_2$, we want to show that $\overline{a}_1 + \overline{b}_1 = \overline{a}_2 + \overline{b}_2$. Indeed, $a_1 - a_2 = kn$ and $b_1 - b_2 = ln$ for $k, l \in \mathbb{Z}$. Adding these equations gives

$$(a_1 + b_1) - (a_2 + b_2) = (k+l)n$$

so that $\overline{a_1 + b_1} = \overline{a_2 + b_2}$ since $(k + l) \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 1.3.7

 $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z},+)$ is a group.

Proof. Again, we check the three group axioms:

(1) We have

$$\overline{a} + (\overline{b} + \overline{c}) = \overline{a} + \overline{b + c}$$

$$= \overline{a + (b + c)}$$

$$= \overline{(a + b) + c}$$

$$= \overline{a + b} + \overline{c}$$

$$= (\overline{a} + \overline{b}) + \overline{c}$$

by associativity of addition.

- (2) We have $\overline{0} + \overline{a} = \overline{a} + \overline{0} = \overline{a}$ for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$.
- (3) We have $-\overline{a} + \overline{a} = \overline{a} + (-\overline{a}) = \overline{0}$ for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$.

Definition 1.3.8: We define the binary operation of multiplication $\cdot : \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ as follows: $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b} = \overline{ab}$ for all $\overline{a}, \overline{b} \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 1.3.9

Multiplication on $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is well-defined, as defined above.

1.3.1 The multiplicative group $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$

However, $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, \cdot)$ is not a group unless n = 1, as inverses may not exist. Indeed, $\bar{1}$ is an identity, but $\bar{0} \cdot a = \bar{1}$ has no solution, i.e., there is no multiplicative inverse for $\bar{0}$. Now, let:

$$(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times} = \{\bar{a} \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} : \bar{a} \cdot \bar{c} = \bar{1} \text{ for some } \bar{c} \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \}$$

We call this set "the multiplicative units of $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$."

Example 4: Given n = 4, we say $(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})^{\times} = \{\bar{1}, \bar{3}\}$. In particular, $\bar{1} \cdot \bar{1} = \bar{1}$ and $\bar{3} \cdot \bar{3} = \bar{1}$.

Theorem 1.3.10 $((\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}, \cdot)$ is a group.

Proof. Given $\bar{a}, \bar{c} \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$, we must show that $\bar{a} \cdot \bar{c} \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$. First, we will show that \cdot defines a binary operation on $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$, i.e., $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$ is closed under multiplication. Indeed, $\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} = \bar{1}$ and $\bar{c} \cdot \bar{d} = \bar{1}$ for some $\bar{b}, \bar{d} \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. Multiplying these equations gives:

$$\bar{1} = (\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b})(\bar{c} \cdot \bar{d})$$
$$= (\bar{a} \cdot \bar{c})(\bar{b} \cdot \bar{d})$$

In addition, associativity holds as in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. There is an identity element, namely $\bar{1}$, and inverses exist as in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ based on the definition of $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$.

Theorem 1.3.11
$$(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times} = \{\bar{a} : a \in \mathbb{Z}, (a, n) = 1\}$$

1.3.2 Applications of arithmetic in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$

Example 5: What is the last digit of 2^{50} ? To calculate this, work in $\mathbb{Z}/10\mathbb{Z}$:

$$\begin{split} \bar{2} \cdot \bar{2} &= \bar{4} \\ \bar{2} \cdot \bar{2} \cdot \bar{2} &= \bar{8} \\ \bar{2} \cdot \bar{2} \cdot \bar{2} \cdot \bar{2} &= \bar{6} \\ \bar{2} \cdot \bar{2} \cdot \bar{2} \cdot \bar{2} &= \bar{2} \end{split}$$

and so on. Hence this cycles through $(\bar{2}, \bar{4}, \bar{8}, \bar{6})$ as demonstrated above. We can use this pattern to see the last digit is [4]. Alternatively, since $\bar{2}^{\bar{5}} = \bar{2}$:

$$\overline{2^{50}} = \overline{(2^5)^{10}}$$

$$= \overline{2^{10}}$$

$$= \overline{2^5} \cdot \overline{2^5}$$

$$= \overline{2} \cdot \overline{2} = \overline{4}$$

1.4 Some general theorems about groups

Lemma 1.4.1

Let (G,*) be a group. Then G has a unique identity element.

Proof. Let $e, f \in G$ be identity elements. Then:

$$e = e * f$$
 (since f is an identity element)
 $e * f = f$ (since e is an identity element)

Therefore e = f and there is exactly one identity element.

Lemma 1.4.2

Let (G,*) be a group. Then G has a unique inverse.

Proof. Given $a \in G$, suppose that $b, c \in G$ are inverses of a. Then:

$$e = a * b$$
 (since b inverse of a)
 $c * e = c * a * b$
 $c = b$ (since c inverse of a)

Since b = c, every element of a group must have a unique inverse.

Lemma 1.4.3

Let (G,*) be a group. Then $(a*b)^{-1} = (b^{-1})*(a^{-1})$ for all $a,b \in G$.

Proof. We need to check that $(a * b) * ((b^{-1}) * (a^{-1})) = e$ is the identity element. This is left as an exercise to the reader.

Lemma 1.4.4

Let (G,*) be a group. For any $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in G$, $a_1 * \cdots * a_n$ has a well-defined value, i.e., is independent of bracketing.

Theorem 1.4.5

Given (G,*) a group and $a,b \in G$, the equation ax = b has a unique solution.

1.5 The order of a group

Definition 1.5.1: Let (G, *) be a group. The **order of a group** G denoted |G| is the number of elements. If G is infinite, say $|G| = \infty$.

Definition 1.5.2: Let (G,*) be a group. The **order of an element** $a \in G$ is the smallest $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ such that $a^n = e$.

Example 6: The symmetries of a can Sym(C) has order $|Sym(C)| = \infty$, but it has elements of finite order. For instance, the identity has order |e| = 1. A rotation by 180° has order 2, a rotation by 120° has order 3, and so on. In fact, for any order $n \in \mathbb{Q}$, a rotation by $(\frac{360}{n})^{\circ}$ has order n.

1.6 A brief interlude on functions

Definition 1.6.1: Let $f: A \to C$ be a function on sets. Then f is **injective** (one-to-one) if given any two elements $a, b \in A$, then $f(a) = f(b) \implies a = b$.

^aThe contrapositive, $a \neq b \implies f(a) \neq f(b)$ is equivalent.

Definition 1.6.2: Let $f: A \to C$ be a function on sets. The f is **surjective** (onto) if for all $c \in C$, there exists $a \in A$ with f(a) = c.

Definition 1.6.3: A function is **bijective** if it is both injective and surjective.

Given a function $f: A \to C$ between finite sets A and C, then we write |A| to denote the number of elements (i.e., the **cardinality**) of A. Then, we can say:

- 1. f injective $\Longrightarrow |A| \leq |C|$
- 2. f surjective $\Longrightarrow |A| \ge |C|$
- 3. f bijective $\Longrightarrow |A| = |C|$

2 Some important groups

2.1 Dihedral groups

Definition 2.1.1: The **dihedral group**, denoted D_{2n} , is the group of rigid motions of a regular n-gon. The group operation is composition.

The 2n subscript in the name for the dihedral group refers to the order of the group. We can rotate the n-gon by integer multiples of $2\pi/n$, and we can "flip" the n-gon in \mathbb{R}^3 . These combinations of rotations and flips are specifically the 2n elements of the dihedral group.

More rigorously, we can label the vertices of an n-gon $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ in clockwise order. A rigid motion of the n-gon can be recorded as a bijection

$$\sigma:\{1,\ldots,n\}\to\{1,\ldots,n\}$$

i.e., a permutation of $\{1,\ldots,n\}$. Therefore, $\sigma(j)$ records the new position of vertex j. We claim that the map of sets

$$D_{2n} \to \{\text{bijections from } \{1,\ldots,n\} \to \{1,\ldots,n\}\}$$

is injective. Indeed, note that D_{2n} has at least 2n elements (as shown above). The intuition here is that the rigid motions of the n-gon are a subset of the possible permutations.

Theorem 2.1.2

 $|D_{2n}| = 2n$ (i.e., D_{2n} is the dihedral group of order 2n)

Proof. We know that $|D_{2n}| \geq 2n$, so we want to show $|D_{2n}| \leq 2n$. Define a map:

$$D_{2n} \to \{(1,2),\ldots,(n-1,n),(n,1),(2,1),\ldots,(n,n-1),(1,n)\}\$$

 $\sigma \mapsto (\sigma(1),\sigma(2))$

where the target has cardinality 2n. This map is injective, since any two adjacent elements uniquely define a rigid motion of the n-gon. Thus, $|D_{2n}| \leq 2n$.

2.1.1 Explicit description of D_{2n}

Label an n-gon $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ on its vertices. Let r be clockwise rotation by $2\pi/n$, and let s be a reflection about the central line bisecting the angle at vertex 1. Note that:

- $1, \ldots, r^{n-1} \in D_{2n}$ are distinct rotations.
- s is distinct from $1, \ldots, r^{n-1}$.
- $s, sr, sr^2, \ldots, sr^{n-1} \in D_{2n}$ are all distinct.

Theorem 2.1.3

$$D_{2n} = \{1, \dots, r^{n-1}, s, \dots, sr^{n-1}\}$$

Proof. We need only show that

$$r^i \neq sr^j$$
 for any $i, j \in \{1, \dots, n-1\}$

Indeed, $r^{i-j} \neq s$

• $rs = sr^{-1}$, i.e., rotating and reflecting is the same as reflecting and rotation backwards.

Given these observations, we now know how to multiply in D_{2n} . For example, we can multiply the rigid motions (sr^6) and (sr^9) on an arbitrary regular n-gon:

$$(sr^{6})(sr^{9}) = s(r^{6}s)r^{9}$$

$$= s(r^{5}sr^{-1})r^{9}$$

$$= s(sr^{-6})r^{9}$$

$$= r^{3}$$

Furthermore, we can define D_{2n} in terms of generators and relations as follows:

$$D_{2n} = \langle r, s \mid r^n = 1, s^2 = 1, rs = sr^{-1} \rangle$$

In particular, any relation on elements of D_{2n} can be obtained from the given relations.

2.2 Symmetric groups

Definition 2.2.1: Let X be a non-empty set, and let S_X be the permutations of X. When $X = [n] := \{1, ..., n\}$, we write $S_n = S_{\{1,...,n\}}$. Then S_X is a group under composition, where $f * g = g \circ f$.

Example 7: $S_3 = \{\{1, 2, 3\}, \{1, 3, 2\}, \{2, 1, 3\}, \{2, 3, 1\}, \{3, 1, 2\}, \{3, 2, 1\}\}.$

Lemma 2.2.2

A map $f: A \to C$ is a bijection if and only if there exists a function $g: C \to A$ such that $f \circ g = \mathrm{id}_C$ and $g \circ f = \mathrm{id}_C$.