MAT 311 Abstract Algebra

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1 Sets and Relations

1.0.1 Def. What is Abstract Algebra

- Algebra: procedures for performing operations, i.e. $+, -, \times, \div$, and methods for solving equations. It uses bldspecific operations on **specific** objects.
- Abstract Algebra: discuss **general** structures and the relationships between the elements of these structures.

1.1 Sets

1.1.1 Def. Set

A set is a collection of objects. These objects are called "elements". A set is typically uppercase, and elements are typically lowercase.

Set Notation

1. List Notation:

$$B = \{\text{John}, \text{Paul}, \text{Ringo}, \text{George}\}$$

$$\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

2. Set-builder Notation:

$$B = \{b : b \text{ is a Beatle}\}\$$

Well-Defined Sets

Sets must be **well-defined**. That is, given set S and any element x, either $x \in S$ or $x \notin S$.

1.1.2 Def. Subset

A set A is a subset of set B, written as $A \subseteq B$, if every element of A is also in B. Note: every non-empty set has at least two subsets:

- The set itself
- Ø

1.1.3 Def. Proper Subset

If $A \subseteq B$ but $A \neq B$, then A is a **proper subset** of B, written $A \subset B$ or $A \subsetneq B$. Note: A set B is an *improper subset* of itself.

1.1.4 Def. Cartesian Product

Let A and B be sets. The set $A \times B = \{(a,b) : a \in A \text{ and } b \in B\}$ is the cartesian product of A and B. Note: $A \times B = B \times A \iff A = B$, or $A \times B = \emptyset$.

Example

Let $A = \{c : c \text{ is a primary color}\}\$ and let $B = \{\epsilon, \delta\}$. Find:

1.
$$B \times B = \{(\epsilon, \epsilon), (\epsilon, \delta), (\delta, \epsilon), (\delta, \delta)\}$$

2.
$$A \times \emptyset = \emptyset$$

1.2 Relations

1.2.1 Def. Relation

A **relation** between sets A and B is a subset \mathcal{R} of $A \times B$. It is a collection of ordered pairs. Note: $(a,b) \in \mathcal{R} \equiv a\mathcal{R}b$ means "a is related to b".

1.2.2 Def. Function

A **function** is a relation in which no two of the ordered pairs have the same first term. Note: if $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a function, then is passes the vertical-line test.

1.2.3 Def. One-to-One

A function is **one-to-one**, or **injective**, if no two ordered pairs have the same <u>second</u> term.

To prove f is one-to-one, first assume that $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$, then show that $x_1 = x_2$.

1.2.4 Def. Onto

A function $f: X \to Y$ is **onto**, or **surjective**, if the codomain is equal to the range, meaning every element $y \in Y$ has some $x \in X$ such that f(x) = y.

1.2.5 Def. One-to-One Correspondence

A function $f: X \to Y$ is a **one-to-one correspondence**, or a **bijection**, if it is both one-to-one and onto.

1.3 Partitions and Equivalence Relations

1.3.1 Def. Partition

A partition of a set S is a collection of non-empty subsets of S such that:

- 1. The union of these subsets is S.
- 2. These subsets are pairwise disjoint.

Note: these subsets are called **cells** of the partition.

1.3.2 Def. Equivalence Relation

An equivalence relation \mathcal{R} on a set S must be:

- 1. Reflexive, meaning $x\mathcal{R}x \quad \forall x \in S$.
- 2. Symmetric, meaning if $x\mathcal{R}y$, then $y\mathcal{R}x$.
- 3. Transitive, meaning if $x\mathcal{R}y$ and $y\mathcal{R}z$, then $x\mathcal{R}z$.

1.3.3 Def. Equivalence Class

 $\overline{x} = \{y \in S : x \mathcal{R} y\}$ is the equivalence class of x

Example

Let $S = \mathbb{R}$. Define $x\mathcal{R}y$ iff $x \geq y$. Is \mathcal{R} an equivalence relation on S?

- 1. Is \mathcal{R} reflexive? $\forall x \in S, x\mathcal{R}x$, so YES.
- 2. Is \mathcal{R} symmetric? Consider 5 and 1: $5 \ge 1$ but $1 \not\ge 5$, so NO.
- 3. Is \mathcal{R} transitive? If $x \geq y$ and $y \geq z$ then $x \geq z$, so YES.

Since \mathcal{R} is not symmetric, it is not an equivalence relation on S.

Note on Partition Cells and Equivalence Classes

Partitions give rise to equivalence relations and vice versa. The *cells* of the partition are analogous to the *equivalence classes* of the equivalence relation.

2 Binary Operations

2.0.1 Def. Binary Operation

A binary operation * on a set S is a function from $S \times S$ into $S, *: S \times S \to S$. That is, * is a rule which assigns to each ordered pair $(a,b) \in S \times S$ exactly one element $a*b \in S$.

Condition 1: Uniquely Defined

For all $a, b \in S \times S$, a * b must be **uniquely defined**. This means that * cannot be undefined for any a * b, and each a * b must have exactly one result, not two or more.

Condition 2: Closed under *

S must be **closed** under *. That is,

$$\forall a, b \in S, \qquad a * b \in S.$$

2.0.2 Def. Commutative

A binary operation * on a set S is commutative if

$$\forall a, b \in S, \qquad a * b = b * a.$$

2.0.3 Def. Associative

A binary operation * on a set S is associative if

$$\forall a, b, c \in S, \qquad a * (b * c) = (a * b) * c.$$

2.1 Finite Sets

Example

Let $S = \{a, b, c, d\}$. Define a binary operation * on S using the following table. Complete the table so that * is commutative.

Note: * is commutative iff the table is symmetric along the main diagonal. Is * associative? Why or why not? **No**,

$$a * (b * c) = a * c = a$$

 $(a * b) * c) = d * c = b$

Example

Suppose that * is associative and commutative operation on a set S. Show that $H = \{a \in S : a * a = a\}$ is closed under *. Note that the elements of H are called **idenmptents** of the binary operation *.

Proof. Let $a, b \in H$. Show $a * b \in H$.

We know a * a = a and b * b = b. Show (a * b) * (a * b) = a * b.

$$LHS = (a*b)*(a*b)$$

$$= a*(b*a)*b$$

$$= a*(a*b)*b$$

$$= (a*a)*(b*b)$$

$$= a*b$$

$$= RHS$$
since * is associative
since * is associative

Thus, H is closed under *.

3 Isomorphic Binary Structures

3.0.1 Def. Binary Algebraic Structure

A binary algebraic structure $\langle S, * \rangle$ is a set S together with a binary operation *.

3.0.2 Def. Isomorphism

Let $\langle S, * \rangle$ and $\langle S', *' \rangle$ be binary structures. An **isomorphism** of S with S' is a *one-to-one* function $\phi : S \mapsto S'$ such that

$$\forall x, y \in S, \qquad \phi(x * y) = \phi(x) *' \phi(y).$$

Notation: $\langle S, * \rangle \simeq \langle S', *' \rangle$

Example 1

Prove that $\langle \mathbb{R}, + \rangle \simeq \langle \mathbb{R}^+, \cdot \rangle$.

Proof. Consider $\phi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^+$, where $\phi(x) = e^x$.

1. One-to-one: Assume $\phi(x_1) = \phi(x_2)$ for some $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$\phi(x_1) = \phi(x_2)$$

$$e^{x_1} = e^{x_2}$$

$$\ln e^{x_1} = \ln e^{x_2}$$

$$x_1 = x_2$$

Thus ϕ is one-to-one.

2. Onto: Let $y \in \mathbb{R}^+$. Let us find $x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $y = \phi(x)$.

$$y = \phi(x) = e^x$$
$$\ln y = \ln e^x = x$$

Choose $x = \ln y$. Thus ϕ is onto.

3. Operation Preserving: Need to show that $\phi(x+y) = \phi(x) \cdot \phi(y)$.

$$\phi(x+y) = e^{x+y}$$

$$= e^x \cdot e^y$$

$$= \phi(x) \cdot \phi(y)$$

Thus ϕ is operation preserving.

Since ϕ is one-to-one, onto, and operation preserving, thus ϕ is an isomorphism of $\langle \mathbb{R}, + \rangle$ and $\langle \mathbb{R}^+, \cdot \rangle$, and $\langle \mathbb{R}, + \rangle \simeq \langle \mathbb{R}^+, \cdot \rangle$.

3.0.3 Def. Identity Element

Let $\langle S, * \rangle$ be an algebraic structure. An element $e \in S$ is the identity element **id** for * if for all $s \in S$:

left **id** right **id**

$$\underbrace{e * s}_{\text{two-sided id}} = s$$

3.0.4 Thm. Identity Uniqueness

A binary structure $\langle S, * \rangle$ has at most one identity element.

Proof. Assume e_1 and e_2 are both identity elements for $\langle S, * \rangle$. Thus,

$$e_1 * e_2 = e_1$$
 since e_1 is **id** $e_1 * e_2 = e_2$ since e_2 is **id**

Since binary operations are uniquely defined, $e_1 = e_2$ must be true. $\therefore \langle S, * \rangle$ has at most one identity element.

3.0.5 Thm. Isomorphism and Identity

Suppose $\langle S, * \rangle$ has identity element e. If $\phi : S \mapsto S'$ is an isomorphism of $\langle S, * \rangle$ with $\langle S', *' \rangle$, then $\phi(e)$ is the identity element for $\langle S', *' \rangle$.

Proof. Assume $\langle S, * \rangle$ has identity e and $\phi : S \mapsto S'$ is an isomorphism. Let $s' \in S'$.

$$\phi(e)*'s' = \phi(e)*'\phi(s)$$

$$= \phi(e*s)$$
 since ϕ is operation preserving
$$= \phi(s) = s'$$

Thus $\phi(e) *' s' = s'$.

$$s'*'\phi(e) = \phi(s)*'\phi(e)$$

$$= \phi(s*e)$$
 since ϕ is operation preserving
$$= \phi(s) = s'$$

Thus $s' *' \phi(e) = s'$. So $\phi(e) *' s' = s' *' \phi(e) = s'$. Thus $\phi(e)$ is the identity of $\langle S', *' \rangle$.

Showing Two Binary Structure are not Isomorphic

To show that two binary structures are *not* isomorphic, you need to show that one binary structure has some property that other does not, meaning they are structurally distinct.

Example

Is $\langle \mathbb{Z}, + \rangle \simeq \langle \mathbb{R}, \cdot \rangle$? **No**, because \mathbb{Z} is countably infinite, whereas \mathbb{R} are uncountably infinite. These two sets have different cardinalities.

4 Groups

4.0.1 Def. Group

A group (G, *) is a set G closed under the binary operation *, such that the following axioms are satisfied:

 \mathfrak{G}_1 : For all $a, c, b \in G$, we have

$$(a*b)*c = a*(b*c).$$
 associativity of *

 \mathfrak{G}_2 : There is an element e in G such that for all $x \in G$,

$$e * x = x * e = x$$
. identity element e for *

 \mathfrak{G}_3 : Corresponding to each $a \in G$, there is an element a' in G such that

$$a * a' = a' * a = e$$
. inverse a' of a

Note: G does not *need* to be commutative.

4.0.2 Def. Abelian Group

A group G is **Abelian** if its binary operation is **commutative**.

4.0.3 Thm. Cancellation Laws

If $\langle G, * \rangle$ is a group, then the left and right cancellation laws hold in G.

• Left:

if
$$a * b = a * c$$
 then $b = c$

• Right:

if
$$b*a = c*a$$
 then $b = c$

Proof for Left. Assume $\langle G, * \rangle$ is a group and a * b = a * c:

$$a*b=a*c$$

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

$$e*b=e*c$$

$$b=c$$
 \mathfrak{G}_3

The proof for right cancellation follows the same structure.

4.0.4 Thm. Unique Solutions

If $\langle G, * \rangle$ is a group and if $a, b \in G$, then a * x = b and y * a = b have unique solutions x and y in G.

Proof. Assume $\langle G, * \rangle$ is a group and consider a * x = b for $a, b \in G$.

$$a*x = b$$

$$\overline{a}*(a*x) = \overline{a}*b$$

$$(\overline{a}*a)*x = \overline{a}*b$$

$$e*x = \overline{a}*b$$

$$x = \overline{a}*b$$
 \mathfrak{G}_{3}

Assume x_1 and x_2 are both solutions to the above equation.

$$a * x_1 = b$$
 and $a * x_2 = b$

Thus $a * x_1 = a * x_2$. By left cancellation,

$$x_1 = x_2$$

Thus the solution is unique.

The y * a = b proof follows the same structure.

4.0.5 Thm. Unique Identity and Inverse

If $\langle G, * \rangle$ is a group, then the identity element and the inverse of each element are unique.

4.0.6 Thm. Inverse of Two Elements

Let $\langle G, * \rangle$ be a group. Then for all $a, b \in G$, we have (a * b)' = a' * b'.

Proof.

$$(a*b)*(a*b)' = e$$
 by definition of \mathfrak{G}_3
 $a*b*(a*b)' = e$ \mathfrak{G}_1 , associativity
 $(a'*a)*b*(a*b)' = a'*e$ \mathfrak{G}_3
 $b*(a*b)' = b'*a'*e$ \mathfrak{G}_3

4.1 Finite Groups and Group Tables

Cayley Tables

Let $\langle G, * \rangle$ be a finite group.

1. If ||G|| = 1, then $G = \{e\}$, where e is the identity.

$$\begin{array}{c|c} * & e \\ \hline e & e \end{array}$$

This is known as the **trivial group**.

2. If ||G|| = 2, then $G = \{e, a\}$.

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} * & e & a \\ \hline e & e & a \\ a & a & e \end{array}$$

Note: by \mathfrak{G}_3 , e must appear in every row and column of a group table, and exactly once.

3. If ||G|| = 3, then $G = \{e, a, b\}$

Claim: No row or column of a Cayley Table may contain the same element twice.

Proof. Let $a, x, y \in G$ for (G, *), where $x \neq y$. Consider the Cayley Table:

Suppose a row can have the same element twice, say a*x=a*y. By left cancellation x=y, a contradiction. Thus no row or column can have the same element twice.

By the pigeon-hole principle, each element of a group must be represented in each row and column exactly once.

5 Subgroups

5.1 Notation

- 1. Usually we will not use * to denote a binary operation and instead will use *juxtaposition*. That is, we write ab instead of a*b. If the binary operation is commutative, a+b is often used.
- 2. 0 is often used to represent the identity for the operation + and 1 to represent the identity for \cdot . We will also continue to use e, and personally I will often use id.
- 3. Instead of a' to represent a's inverse, we will use the more common a^{-1} when the operation is \cdot and -a when the operation is +.
- 4. Exponentiation:

$$a^n = aaa \cdots a$$
 (*n* copies)
 $a^{-n} = a^{-1}a^{-1} \cdots a^{-1}$ (*n* copies)
 $a^0 = e$

5.1.1 Def. Order

If G is a group, then the **order** of G, denoted as |G|, is the number of elements in G.

5.1.2 Def. Subgroup

Let H be a subset of a group G. H is a **subgroup** of G if H itself is a group under the operation of G. Notation: $H \leq G$.

5.1.3 Def. Improper and Proper Subgroups

G is an **improper** subgroup of itself. All other subgroups of G are **proper** subgroups, denoted as H < G. Fact: All groups have a trivial subgroup $\{e\}$.

5.1.4 Thm. Proving that a Subset of a Group is a Subgroup

Let H be a subset of a group G. If:

- 1. H is closed with respect to the operation of G and,
- 2. H is closed with respect to inverses,

then H is a subgroup of G.

Proof. Let $H \subseteq G$ and assume (1) and (2).

- 1. By (1), H is closed under the operation of G.
- 2. Associativity: Let $a, b, c \in H$. Note that $a, b, c \in G$, since $H \subseteq G$. Since G is a group, a(bc) = (ab)c. Thus associativity is "inherited" from G.
- 3. Identity: Let $a \in H$. By (2), $a^{-1} \in H$. By (1), $aa^{-1} = e \in H$.
- 4. Inverse: Let $a \in H$. By (2), $a^{-1} \in H$.

Thus H is a group, and thus also a subgroup of G.

5.1 Notation 5 SUBGROUPS

Example

Prove that $\langle E, + \rangle \leq \langle \mathbb{Z}, + \rangle$.

Proof. Check: Is $E \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$? \checkmark

1. Is E closed w.r.t. +? Let $a,b \in E$. By definition, $\exists \ k,j \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that a=2k and b=2j. So, $a+b=2k+2j=2(k+j)\in E$. Thus, E is closed w.r.t. E.

2. is E closed w.r.t. inverses? Let $a \in E$. By definition, $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that a = 2k. Multiplying both sides by -1 gives $-a = -2k = 2(-k) \in E$.

$$\therefore E \leq \mathbb{Z} \text{ under } +.$$

5.1.5 Thm. Cyclic Subgroups

Let G be a group and let $a \in G$. Then $H = \{a^n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a subgroup of G. This subgroup H is called the **cyclic subgroup** of G generated by a and is denoted $\langle a \rangle$.

5.1.6 Def. Cyclic Group and Generator of a Cylic Group

Let G be a group and let $a \in G$. Then G is **cyclic** if

$$G = \{a^n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \langle a \rangle.$$

'a' is called the **generator** of the cyclic group.