MAT 311 Abstract Algebra

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Contents

1	Sets and Relations 3						
		1.0.1	Def. What is Abstract Algebra				
	1.1	Sets					
		1.1.1	Def. Set				
		1.1.2	Def. Subset				
		1.1.3	Def. Proper Subset				
		1.1.4	Def. Cartesian Product				
	1.2	Relati	ons				
		1.2.1	Def. Relation				
		1.2.2	Def. Function				
		1.2.3	Def. One-to-One				
		1.2.4	Def. Onto				
		1.2.5	Def. One-to-One Correspondence				
	1.3	Partit	ions and Equivalence Relations				
		1.3.1	Def. Partition				
		1.3.2	Def. Equivalence Relation				
		1.3.3	Def. Equivalence Class				
			1				
2	Binary Operations 6						
		2.0.1	Def. Binary Operation				
		2.0.2	Def. Commutative				
		2.0.3	Def. Associative				
	2.1	Finite	Sets				
3	Isomorphic Binary Structures 8						
		3.0.1	Def. Binary Algebraic Structure				
		3.0.2	Def. Isomorphism				
		3.0.3	Def. Identity Element				
		3.0.4	Thm. Identity Uniqueness				
		3.0.5	Thm. Isomorphism and Identity				
	~						
4	Gro	_	$\frac{10}{10}$				
		4.0.1	Def. Group				
		4.0.2	Def. Abelian Group				
		4.0.3	Thm. Cancellation Laws				
		4.0.4	Thm. Unique Solutions				
		4.0.5	Thm. Unique Identity and Inverse				
		4.0.6	Thm. Inverse of Two Elements				
	4.1	Finite	Groups and Group Tables				

CONTENTS

	Subgroups					
	5.1	1 Notation				
		5.1.1	Def. Order	13		
		5.1.2	Def. Subgroup	13		
		5.1.3	Def. Improper and Proper Subgroups	1;		
		5.1.4	Thm. Proving that a Subset of a Group is a Subgroup	1:		
		5.1.5	Thm. Cyclic Subgroups	14		

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:

$$a*b=a*c$$

$$\overline{a}*a*b=\overline{a}*a*c$$
 \mathfrak{G}_3
$$e*b=e*c$$

$$\mathfrak{G}_3$$

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 $\langle a \rangle$.