Course 1

0.0 Coordinates

• Structure:

Chapter 1: Groups.

Chapter 2: Rings.

• Selective bibliography:

- 1. S. Crivei, Basic Abstract Algebra, Ed. Casa Cărții de Știință, Cluj-Napoca, 2002, 2003.
- 2. J. Gilbert, L. Gilbert, Elements of Modern Algebra, PWS-Kent, 1992.
- 3. W.J. Gilbert, W.K. Nicholson, Modern algebra with applications, John Wiley, 2004.
- 4. I.D. Ion, N. Radu, Algebră (ed. 4), Ed. Didactică și Pedagogică, București, 1991.
- 5. R. Lidl, G. Pilz, Applied Abstract Algebra, Springer, 1998.
- 6. I. Purdea, C. Pelea, Probleme de algebră, Ed. EIKON, Cluj-Napoca, 2008.
- 7. I. Purdea, I. Pop, Algebră, Ed. GIL, Zalău, 2003.

• Seminar:

Minimum attendance: 75% for seminar classes in order to be allowed to participate in the final exam.

Problems for the next week will be posted after the course in the Files section of the team Algebra 2 - English (2023-2024) from MS Teams (code: i85bpxk).

Students may get up to 0.5 extra points to the final grade: 5 problems solved during different seminars, each for 0.1 points (details about the system will be given during seminar classes).

• Course:

Courses will be posted in the Files section of the team Algebra~2 - English~(2023-2024) from MS Teams

Students may solve some Bonus projects, each for 0.2 extra points.

• Exam:

There will be a midterm written exam (from Group Theory) in Week 8 (Monday, April 15, 2024, 14:00–16:00, Room C335).

There will be a final written exam (from Ring Theory).

You cannot pass the course unless you participate in the final exam!

If you participate in the final exam, then the final grade F is computed as follows:

$$F = 1 + M(4.5p) + F(4.5p) + E,$$

where M is the number of points for the midterm exam, F is the number of points for the final exam, and E consists of the extra points from seminar and course.

Otherwise, you will be considered absent at the exam.

Chapter 1 GROUPS

1.1 Operations

Definition 1.1.1 By an operation (or composition law) on a set A we understand a function

$$\varphi: A \times A \to A$$
,

where $A \times A = \{(a_1, a_2) \mid a_1, a_2 \in A\}.$

Usually, we denote operations by symbols like \cdot , +, *, so that $\varphi(x,y)$ is denoted by $x \cdot y$, x + y, x * y, $\forall (x,y) \in A \times A$.

Example 1.1.2 The usual addition and multiplication are operations on \mathbb{N} , \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} and the usual subtraction is an operation on \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} , but not on \mathbb{N} . The usual division is not an operation on either of the five numerical sets, because of the element zero.

Definition 1.1.3 Let " \cdot " be an operation on an arbitrary set A. Define the following laws:

- (1) Associative law: $(x \cdot y) \cdot z = x \cdot (y \cdot z), \quad \forall x, y, z \in A$
- (2) Commutative law: $x \cdot y = y \cdot x$, $\forall x, y \in A$
- (3) Identity law: $\exists e \in A$: $a \cdot e = e \cdot a = a$, $\forall a \in A$ (e is called an identity element)
- (4) Inverses law: $\forall a \in A, \exists a' \in A: a \cdot a' = a' \cdot a = e$ (e is the identity element, a' is called an inverse element for a)

Lemma 1.1.4 Let " \cdot " be an operation on a set A.

- (i) If there exists an identity element in A, then it is unique.
- (ii) Assume further that the operation " \cdot " is associative and has identity element e and let $a \in A$. If an inverse element for a does exist, then it is unique.
- *Proof.* (i) Assume that $e_1, e_2 \in A$ are identity elements in A. Then by computing their product in two ways, we have $e_1 \cdot e_2 = e_1 = e_2$.
- (ii) Suppose that a has $a_1, a_2 \in A$ as inverses. Then by the associative law, we may compute the product $a_1 \cdot a \cdot a_2$ in two ways as

$$a_1 \cdot (a \cdot a_2) = a_1 \cdot e = a_1$$
, and $(a_1 \cdot a) \cdot a_2 = e \cdot a_2 = a_2$

and we obtain $a_1 = a_2$.

Let us now discuss some special subsets of sets endowed with an operation.

Definition 1.1.5 Consider an operation $\varphi: A \times A \to A$ on a set A and let $B \subseteq A$. Then B is called a stable subset of A with respect to φ if

$$\forall x, y \in B$$
, $\varphi(x, y) \in B$.

In this case, we may consider the operation $\varphi': B \times B \to B$ on B defined by

$$\varphi'(x,y) = \varphi(x,y), \quad \forall (x,y) \in B \times B,$$

that is called the operation induced by φ in the stable subset B of A.

When using a symbol "." for the operation φ , we will simply say that B is a stable subset of (A, \cdot) .

Example 1.1.6 (a) The set $2\mathbb{Z} = \{2k \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ of even integers is stable in $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$, but the set of odd integers is not stable in $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$.

(b) The interval [0,1] is stable in (\mathbb{R},\cdot) , but the interval [-1,0] is not stable in (\mathbb{R},\cdot) .

Remark 1.1.7 Notice that the associative and the commutative laws still hold in a stable subset (endowed with the induced operation), since they are true for every element in the initial set (only the universal quantifier \forall appears in their definition). But the identity element and the inverse element do not transfer (their definition uses the existential quantifier \exists as well).

1.2 Groups

Definition 1.2.1 Let A be a set. Then (A, \cdot) is called a:

- (1) groupoid if " \cdot " is an operation on A.
- (2) semigroup if " \cdot " is an operation on A and the associative law holds.
- (3) monoid if it is a semigroup with identity element.
- (4) group if it is a monoid in which every element has an inverse.

If the operation is commutative as well, then the structure is called *commutative*. A commutative group is also called an *abelian group* (after the name of N.H. Abel).

Example 1.2.2 (a) $(\mathbb{Z}, -)$ is a grupoid, but not a semigroup.

- (b) $(\mathbb{N}^*, +)$ is a semigroup, but not a monoid.
- (c) $(\mathbb{N},+)$, (\mathbb{N},\cdot) , (\mathbb{Z},\cdot) , (\mathbb{Q},\cdot) , (\mathbb{R},\cdot) , (\mathbb{C},\cdot) are monoids, but not groups.
- (d) $(\mathbb{Z},+), (\mathbb{Q},+), (\mathbb{R},+), (\mathbb{C},+), (\mathbb{Q}^*,\cdot), (\mathbb{R}^*,\cdot)$ and (\mathbb{C}^*,\cdot) are groups.

Remark 1.2.3 We denote by 1 the identity element of a group (G, \cdot) and by x^{-1} the inverse of an $x \in G$. We denote by 0 the identity element of a group (G, +) and by -x the symmetric of an $x \in G$.

Definition 1.2.4 Let (G, \cdot) be a semigroup, let $x \in G$ and let $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$. Then we may use the associative law and define

$$x^n = \underbrace{x \cdot x \cdot \dots \cdot x}_{n \text{ times}}.$$

If (G,\cdot) is a monoid, then we may also define $x^0=1$. If (G,\cdot) is a group, then we may also define

$$x^{-n} = (x^{-1})^n = \underbrace{x^{-1} \cdot x^{-1} \cdot \dots \cdot x^{-1}}_{n \text{ times}}.$$

Remark 1.2.5 If the operation is denoted by "+", then we replace the notation x^n by nx.

Lemma 1.2.6 Let (G,\cdot) be a group, let $x \in G$ and let $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then:

(i)
$$x^m \cdot x^n = x^{m+n}$$
;
(ii) $(x^m)^n = x^{mn}$.

Proof. By induction on n for positive values, and then by using the definition. Homework. \Box

Lemma 1.2.7 *Let* (G, \cdot) *be a group and let* $a, x, y \in G$ *. Then:*

(i)
$$a \cdot x = a \cdot y \Longrightarrow x = y$$
,
 $x \cdot a = y \cdot a \Longrightarrow x = y$ (cancellation laws);
(ii) $(x^{-1})^{-1} = x$;
(iii) $(x \cdot y)^{-1} = y^{-1} \cdot x^{-1}$.

Proof. Homework.

Remark 1.2.8 A finite group may be defined by its operation table, that specifies the result of any multiplication of two elements of the group. The operation table of a group has the property that every element appears exactly once on each row and each column.

Let us now see some other important examples.

Example 1.2.9 (a) Let X be a non-empty set. By a word on X of length n we understand a string of n elements from X for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. The word of length 0 is called the void word and is denoted by e. On the set X^* of words on X consider the operation " \cdot " given by concatenation. Then (X^*, \cdot) is a monoid with identity element e, called the *free monoid* on the set X.

(b) Let $\{e\}$ be a single element set and let "·" be the only operation on $\{e\}$, defined by $e \cdot e = e$. Then $(\{e\}, \cdot)$ is an abelian group, called the *trivial group*.

- (c) Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n \geq 2$. Denote by $M_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$ the set of $m \times n$ -matrices with entries in \mathbb{R} and by $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ the set of $n \times n$ -matrices with entries in \mathbb{R} . Then $(M_{m,n}(\mathbb{R}), +)$ is an abelian group and $(M_n(\mathbb{R}), \cdot)$ is a monoid.
- (d) Let $GL_n(\mathbb{R}) = \{A \in M_n(\mathbb{R}) \mid \det(A) \neq 0\}$ $(n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq 2)$ be the set of invertible $n \times n$ -matrices with real entries. Then $(GL_n(\mathbb{R}), \cdot)$ is a group, called the *general linear group of rank* n.
- (e) Let M be a set and let $S_M = \{f : M \to M \mid f \text{ is bijective}\}$. Then (S_M, \circ) is a group, called the symmetric group of M. The identity element is the identity map 1_M and the inverse of an element f (which is a bijection) is f^{-1} .
- If |M| = n, then S_M is denoted by S_n and the group (S_n, \circ) is in fact the *permutation group* of n elements.
- (f) Let $U_n = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid z^n = 1\}$ $(n \in \mathbb{N}^*)$. Then (U_n, \cdot) is an abelian group, called the *group of n-th roots of unity*.
 - (g) Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and define on \mathbb{Z} the relation ρ_n by

$$x \rho_n y \iff n|(x-y).$$

If $n \neq 0$, then $x \rho_n y \iff x$ and y give the same remainder when divided by n. Then ρ_n is an equivalence relation on \mathbb{Z} and we denote its corresponding partition by

$$\mathbb{Z}_n = \mathbb{Z}/\rho_n = \{x + n\mathbb{Z} \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{\widehat{x} \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

For n = 0 and n = 1, we have $\mathbb{Z}_0 = \{\{x\} \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ and $\mathbb{Z}_1 = \{\mathbb{Z}\}$.

For $n \geq 2$, we have $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{\widehat{0}, \dots, \widehat{n-1}\}.$

We define an addition by

$$\widehat{x} + \widehat{y} = \widehat{x + y}, \quad \forall \widehat{x}, \widehat{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_n.$$

Then $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$ is an abelian group, called the group of residue classes modulo n.

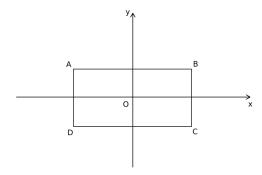
(h) Let $K = \{e, a, b, c\}$ and define an operation " \cdot " on K by the following table:

	e	a	b	c
e	e	a	b	c
a	a	e	c	b
b	b	c	e	a
c	c	b	a	e

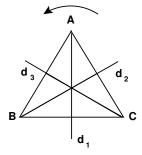
Note that e is the identity element, $a^2 = b^2 = c^2 = e$, $a \cdot b = b \cdot a = c$ etc. Then (K, \cdot) is an abelian group, called *Klein's group*. It comes from Geometry, and it may be viewed as the group of geometric transformations of a rectangle:

- e is the identical transformation,
- a is the symmetry with respect to the horizontal symmetry axis of the rectangle,
- b is the symmetry with respect to the vertical symmetry axis of the rectangle,
- c is the symmetry with respect to the center of the circumscribed circle of the rectangle.

The product $x \cdot y$ of two transformations x and y of K is defined by performing first y and then x.



- (i) Let ABC be an equilateral triangle and consider the following geometric transformations, that transform the vertices A, B and C into themselves:
 - e is the identical transformation (or the rotation counterclockwise of 0^0 or 360^0),
 - α is the rotation counterclockwise of 120⁰,
 - β is the rotation counterclockwise through 240°,
 - a is the symmetry with respect to the axis d_1 , passing through A and perpendicular to BC,
 - b is the symmetry with respect to the axis d_2 , passing through B and perpendicular to AC,
 - c is the symmetry with respect to the axis d_3 , passing through C and perpendicular to AB.



Denote $D_3 = \{e, \alpha, \beta, a, b, c\}$. Define the product $x \cdot y$ of two transformations x and y of D_3 by performing first y and then x. Then (D_3, \cdot) is a group, called the 3^{rd} dihedral group.

Generalizing, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n \geq 3$, we can define the n^{th} dihedral group D_n of rotations and symmetries of a regular n-gon, consisting of n rotations and n symmetries. For instance, D_4 is the group of rotations and symmetries of a square, and it has 4 rotations (of angles 0^0 , 90^0 , 180^0 and 270^0) and 4 symmetries (with respect to the two diagonals of the square and the two perpendicular lines passing through the middle of the edges of the square).

- (j) Consider a set $Q = \{\pm 1, \pm i, \pm j, \pm k\}$ and define an operation " \cdot " on Q by the following rules:
- 1 is the identity element,

•
$$i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1$$
,

•
$$i \cdot j = k$$
, $j \cdot k = i$, $k \cdot i = j$,

•
$$j \cdot i = -k$$
, $k \cdot j = -i$, $i \cdot k = -j$,



• The signs rule holds.

Then (Q, \cdot) is a non-commutative group, called the quaternion group.

Theorem 1.2.10 Let (A, \cdot) be a monoid. Denote

$$U(A,\cdot) = \{x \in A \mid \exists x^{-1} : x \cdot x^{-1} = x^{-1} \cdot x = 1\},\,$$

that is, the set of invertible elements of A. Then $U(A,\cdot)$ is a stable subset of (A,\cdot) and $U(A,\cdot)$ is a group with respect to the induced operation.

Proof. Let $x, y \in U(A, \cdot)$. Then $\exists x^{-1}, y^{-1} \in A$. Since there exists $(x \cdot y)^{-1} = y^{-1} \cdot x^{-1} \in A$, it follows that $x \cdot y \in U(A, \cdot)$. Hence $U(A, \cdot)$ is a stable subset of (A, \cdot) .

Then clearly "·" satisfies the associative law. Since $1 \in U(A, \cdot)$, 1 is the identity element in $(U(A, \cdot), \cdot)$. Now let $x \in U(A, \cdot)$. Then $\exists x^{-1} \in A$. Since there exists $(x^{-1})^{-1} = x \in A$, it follows that $x^{-1} \in U(A, \cdot)$. Hence every element in $(U(A, \cdot), \cdot)$ has an inverse.

Consequently,
$$(U(A, \cdot), \cdot)$$
 is a group.

Example 1.2.11
$$U(\mathbb{Z},\cdot) = \{-1,1\}, U(\mathbb{R},\cdot) = \mathbb{R}^*, U(M_n(\mathbb{R}),\cdot) = GL_n(\mathbb{R}).$$