A FIRST COURSE IN

ABSTRACT ALGEBRA

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IN

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MAT3004 Notebook

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Notations and Conventions

 \mathbb{R}^n *n*-dimensional real space \mathbb{C}^n *n*-dimensional complex space $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ set of all $m \times n$ real-valued matrices $\mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ set of all $m \times n$ complex-valued matrices *i*th entry of column vector \boldsymbol{x} x_i (i,j)th entry of matrix \boldsymbol{A} a_{ij} *i*th column of matrix *A* \boldsymbol{a}_i $\boldsymbol{a}_{i}^{\mathrm{T}}$ *i*th row of matrix **A** set of all $n \times n$ real symmetric matrices, i.e., $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$ \mathbb{S}^n for all *i*, *j* \mathbb{H}^n set of all $n \times n$ complex Hermitian matrices, i.e., $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ and $\bar{a}_{ij} = a_{ji}$ for all i, j $\boldsymbol{A}^{\mathrm{T}}$ transpose of \boldsymbol{A} , i.e, $\boldsymbol{B} = \boldsymbol{A}^{\mathrm{T}}$ means $b_{ji} = a_{ij}$ for all i,jHermitian transpose of \boldsymbol{A} , i.e, $\boldsymbol{B} = \boldsymbol{A}^{H}$ means $b_{ji} = \bar{a}_{ij}$ for all i,j A^{H} trace(A)sum of diagonal entries of square matrix A1 A vector with all 1 entries 0 either a vector of all zeros, or a matrix of all zeros a unit vector with the nonzero element at the *i*th entry e_i C(A)the column space of \boldsymbol{A} $\mathcal{R}(\boldsymbol{A})$ the row space of \boldsymbol{A} $\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{A})$ the null space of \boldsymbol{A}

 $\operatorname{Proj}_{\mathcal{M}}(\mathbf{A})$ the projection of \mathbf{A} onto the set \mathcal{M}

Chapter 7

Week6

7.1. Ring

Definition 7.1 [Ring] A ring R = (R, +, *) is a set equipped with two binary operations:

$$+,*:R\times R\rightarrow R,$$

- 1. (R,+) is an abelian group with an additive identity 0
- 2. The multiplication * is associative, i.e.,

$$(a*b)*c = a*(b*c), \forall a,b,c \in R$$

3. R satisfies the **distributive laws**: for $\forall a,b,c \in R$, we have

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

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

Moreover, if R has a multiplicative identity $1 \in R$ such that

$$1*a = a*1 = a, \forall a \in R,$$

then R is called a unital ring.

Question for ring: Does the ring contain the additive inverse?

- 1. $\mathbb{Z},\mathbb{Q},\mathbb{R},\mathbb{C}$ are unital rings; $2\mathbb{Z}$ is a ring but not unital: since $1\notin 2\mathbb{Z}$

- 1. We write ab for a * b
- 2. The additive identity 0 for *R* is **unique**
- 3. The additive inverse for any $r \in R$ is **unique** (we pre-assume its existence)
- 4. Commutativity is required for addition but not necessarily for multiplication
- 5. Each element in *R* has an additive inverse, but not necessarily a multiplicative inverse, i.e., $\exists a \in R$ such that $ab \neq 1$ for $\forall b \in R$.

Proposition 7.1 Each unital ring R contains a unique additive identity and a unique multiplicative identity

Proof. It suffices to show the uniqueness of multiplicative identity. Suppose r_1, r_2 are two multiplicative identity of R, then $r_1 = r_1 r_2 = r_2$.

Proposition 7.2 If $r \in R$ has a multiplicative inverse r^{-1} , then r^{-1} is unique.

Proof. Suppose r_1^{-1} , r_2^{-1} are two multiplicative inverse of r, then $rr_1^{-1} = rr_2^{-1} = 1$, which follows that

$$r_1^{-1} = r_1^{-1}(rr_2^{-1}) = (r_1^{-1}r)r_2^{-1} = r_2^{-1}$$

Proposition 7.3 For each $r \in R$, we have 0r = r0 = 0.

Proof. By distributive laws,

$$0r = (0+0)r = 0r + 0r$$

which follows that

$$0 = (0r + 0r) + (-0r) = 0r + (0r + (-0r)) = 0r + 0 = 0r.$$

Question: Why not left-adding the term 0r?

Similarly, we have r0 = 0.

Proposition 7.4 For each $r \in R$, we have (-1)(-r) = (-r)(-1) = r.

Proof. Consider the equation

$$0 = 0(-r) = (1 + (-1))(-r) = -r + (-1)(-r),$$

which follows that (-1)(-r) = r.

Similarly,
$$(-r)(-1) = r$$
.

Proposition 7.5 For each $r \in R$, we have (-1)r = r(-1) = -r.

Proof. Consider the equation

$$0 = 0r = (1 + (-1))r = r + (-1)r$$

which follows that -r = (-1)r

Proposition 7.6 If a ring R contains only a single element, then $R = \{0\}$. We call such R a **zero** ring.

Proposition 7.7 Let R be a set with binary operations + and * such that (R,+) is a group; (R,*) is a monoid (i.e., associative and identity); (R,+,*) satisfies the distributive laws. Then + is commutative.

Proof. Note that

$$(1+1)(x+y) = (x+y) + (x+y) = x+y+x+y$$
$$= (1+1)x + (1+1)y = x+x+y+y$$

Definition 7.2 [Commutative] A ring R is **commutative** if its multiplication is **commu**-

$$ab = ba, \forall ab \in R$$

- Example 7.2 1. \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} are commutative rings, and so are $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, $\mathbb{R}[x]$, $\mathbb{C}[x]$. 2. The ring $\mathbf{M}_n(\mathbb{Z})$ is not commutative for n > 2 (Question: is n = 2 ok?)

7.1.1. Modular Arithmetic

Definition 7.3 [Congruent modulo] Let $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Then for $\forall a,b \in \mathbb{Z}$, we say they are congruent modulo m if $m \mid (a - b)$, i.e., $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

This modular congruent defines an equivalence relation on \mathbb{Z} .



1. Consider the set $\mathbb{Z}_m = \{0,1,2,\ldots,m-1\}$. For each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, let \bar{n} denote the remainder of n divided by m, and therefore $\bar{n} \in \mathbb{Z}_m$. Here \mathbb{Z}_m can be viewed as a collection of equivalence class representatives, i.e., for $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}$, it congruent modulo m to unique one element in \mathbb{Z}_m

2. Define the operations

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

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

We can verify these operations are well-defined. Note that $(\mathbb{Z}_m, +)$ is a group; but $(\mathbb{Z}_m, *)$ is not necessarily a group, since the inverse of some element does not exist.

- 3. Unless otherwise mentioned,
 - $(\mathbb{Z}_m,+)$ denotes a group
 - $(\mathbb{Z}_m, +, *)$ denotes a ring.
- 4. The modular congruence classes corresponds to the **cosets** of $m\mathbb{Z}$ of \mathbb{Z} , and therefore $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}_m$.

Proposition 7.8 (\mathbb{Z}_m , +, *) is a unital commutative ring.

Proof. We have shown $(\mathbb{Z}_m,+)$ is a group. It suffices to show $(\mathbb{Z}_m,*)$ is a commutative monoid, and the distributive laws:

1. The associativity of multiplication is clear; the multiplication is commutative is easy to verify; the multiplicative identity is 1

2.

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

The commutativity gives another distributive law.

Proposition 7.9 Let $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, suppose $a \equiv c \pmod{m}$ and $b \equiv d \pmod{m}$, then

$$a + b \equiv c + d \pmod{m}$$
, $ab \equiv cd \pmod{m}$

Proof. Since $x \equiv x' \pmod{m}$ iff $\bar{x} = \bar{x'}$; immediately we have

$$\overline{a+h} = \overline{a} + \overline{h} = \overline{c} + \overline{d} = \overline{c+d}$$

7.1.2. Rings of Polynomials

Definition 7.4 [polynomial over rings] Let R be a **commutative** ring. A **polynomial** (in a variable x) over R is a formal sum

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i x^i$$

with $a_i \in R$ and n = 0 or the leading coefficient $a_n \neq 0$.

- 1. Here the degree of f(x) is $\deg(f) = n$
- 2. R[x] denotes the set of all polynomials over R.
- 3. The addition and multiplication for any two elements $f:=\sum_{i=0}^m a_i x^i, g:=\sum_{i=1}^n b_i x^i$ in R is given by:

$$f + g := \sum_{i=0}^{\max\{m,n\}} (a_i + b_i) x^i$$
$$fg := \sum_{i=0}^{m+n} (\sum_{j+k=i} a_j b_k) x^i$$

Proposition 7.10 With *R* defined above, (R[x], +, *) is a commutative ring.

Proof. Note that (R[x], +) forms an abelian group.

- 1. The multiplication is associative
- 2. (R[x],*) has an identity element f := 1
- 3. The multiplication is commutative
- 4. The distributive laws are satisfied

 ${\Bbb R}$ A polynomial f defines a function $f:R\to R$ by $a\mapsto f(a)$, but f may not be

determined by $f: R \to R$, e.g.,

$$f(x) = 1 + x + x^2, g(x) = 1,$$

with the argument defined on \mathbb{Z}_2 .

Proposition 7.11 Find a nonzero function $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_6[x]$ such that $f(x) \equiv 0$, i.e., f(x) = 0 for all $x \in \mathbb{Z}_6$.

Proof.

$$f(x) = x(x-1)(x-2)(x-3)(x-4)(x-5)$$

Question: abuse of notation for $\mathbb{Z}_6[x]$.

7.1.3. Integral Domains and Fields

Definition 7.5 [Integral Domain] Let D be a ring. A nonzero $r \in D$ is called a zero divisor if there exists a non-zero $s \in D$ such that rs = 0 or sr = 0. If D has no zero divisors, then D is called a **domain**. A **domain** that is a **commutative ring** is an **integral domain**.

- **Example 7.3** 1. $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ are all integral domains, and so are $\mathbb{Z}[x], \mathbb{Q}[x], \mathbb{R}[x], \mathbb{C}[x]$ R is an integral domain iff R[x] is an integral domain.
 - 2. \mathbb{Z}_6 is **not** an integral domain since $2*3 \equiv 0 \pmod{6}$. Thus \mathbb{Z}_m is an integral domain iff m is a prime.
 - 3. Let R = C[-1,1], then R is not a integral domain. Consider piecewise function.

Proposition 7.12 Let *D* be a commutative ring, then the followings are equivalent:

- 1. *D* is an integral domain
- 2. For \forall nonzero $a, b \in D$, we have $ab \neq 0$

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3. *D* satisfies the **cancellation law**:

$$ca = cb, c \neq 0 \implies a = b$$

Proof. It is clear that (1) is equivalent to (2);

For (1) implies (3): If ca = cb, then by distributive laws:

$$c[a + (-b)] = ca + c(-b) = cb + c(-b) = c[b + (-b)] = 0,$$

which implies c = 0 or a + (-b) = 0 by applying the definition of integral domain, which implies a = b.

For (3) implies (1): suppose there exists nonzero $a,b \in D$ such that ab = 0. Note that 0 = a0, which implies

$$ab = a0 \implies b = 0$$
,

which is a contradiction.

R The proposition above can be generalized into non-commutative rings. Question.

Definition 7.6 Let R be a ring, then an element $a \in R$ is called a **unit** if it has a multiplicative inverse $a^{-1} \in R$ such that $aa^{-1} = a^{-1}a = 1$.

Question: Does such a ring unital?

- **Example 7.4** 1. The only units of \mathbb{Z} are ± 1
 - 2. Let $R:=\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{R})$, then a function $f\in R$ is a unit iff

$$f(x) \neq 0, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

3. Let $R := \mathcal{C}(\mathbb{R})$, then $f \in R$ is a unit iff it is either strictly positive or strictly negative.

Proposition 7.13 The only units of Q[x] are **nonzero constants**.

Proof. Take $f \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ with $\deg(f) \ge 1$, aruge that f cannot be unit. Then argue f = 0 can not. For nonzero constant f, construct g = 1/f to be the inverse.

Definition 7.7 [Division Ring] A **division ring** R is a ring that all its nonzero elements are units; furthermore, if R is also commutative, then R is a field.

- **Example 7.5** 1. $\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ are fields, but \mathbb{Z} is not
 - 2. $\mathbb{Q}[x], \mathbb{R}[x], \mathbb{C}[x]$ are not division rings.
 - 3. The quaternions

$$\mathbb{H} := \{ a + bi + cj + dk \mid a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}, i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = ijk = -1 \}$$

is a division ring with the usual addition and multiplication, but not a field.

Proposition 7.14 A field is an integral domain.

Proof. Assume not, then rs = 0 implies $r^{-1}rss^{-1} = 0$, which is a contradiction.

Proposition 7.15 Let $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, $k \in \mathbb{Z}_m^{\#} := \mathbb{Z}_m \setminus \{0\}$. Let $d = \gcd(k, m)$

- 1. If d = 1, then k is a unit.
- 2. If d > 1, then k is a zero divisor.

Proof. 1. If d = 1, there exists $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$ak + bm = 1 \implies \bar{a} \cdot k = 1 \implies k$$
 is a unit

If d > 1, then k = hd for some $h \in \mathbb{Z}_m$, which implies

$$k \cdot (m/d) = hm = 0,$$

where $m/d \in \mathbb{Z}_m$

The results are summarized as follows:

{zero divisors in
$$\mathbb{Z}_m$$
} = { $k \in \mathbb{Z}_m^{\#} \mid \gcd(k, m) > 1$ }
{units in \mathbb{Z}_m } := $\mathbb{Z}_m^{*} = \{k \in \mathbb{Z}_m^{\#} \mid \gcd(k, m) = 1\}$

Proposition 7.16 (\mathbb{Z}_m^* , ·) forms a group, called the group of units in \mathbb{Z}_m .

Corollary 7.1 \mathbb{Z}_m is a field iff m is prime.

For each prime p, the field \mathbb{Z}_p can be written as \mathbb{F}_q

Definition 7.8 [Euler's phi function] $\phi(n) := |\mathbb{Z}_n^*|$ is called the Euler's phi function, which denotes the number of units in the ring \mathbb{Z}_m .

Theorem 7.1 — **Euler's Theorem.** Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ be such that $\gcd(a,n) = 1$. Then $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

Proof. It's clear that $\bar{a} \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$. Suppose $\mathbb{Z}_n^* = \{u_1, \dots, u_{\phi(n)}\}$, and therefore

$$u_1\bar{a}\cdots u_{\phi(n)}\bar{a}\equiv u_1\cdots u_{\phi(n)}(\bmod n),$$

which implies $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv (u_1 \cdots u_{\phi(n)})^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

Proposition 7.17 Let $F = \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}] = \{a + b\sqrt{2} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$, then F is a field.

Question: A field *F* can be equivalent to:

- 1. closed addition and multiplication
- 2. Identity and inverse for addition and multiplication
- 3. Associativity of *
- 4. Distributive law

Proof. For the multiplicative inverse,

$$(a+b\sqrt{2}) = \frac{a}{a^2 - 2b^2} - \frac{b}{a^2 - 2b^2}\sqrt{2}$$

Proposition 7.18 Every finite integral domain D with 1_D is a field

Proof. Consider $aa_i = aa_j$ iff i = j by applying the distributive law

Proposition 7.19 Every finite integral domain D contains a multiplicative identity 1_D *Proof.*

$$xa^n = xa^m \implies xa^{n-m} = x$$

Definition 7.9 [Characteristic] Let R be a ring. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $a \in R$, define

$$n \circ a = \underbrace{a + \dots + a}_{n \text{ terms}}, \quad 0 \circ a = 0_R$$

then n is called the **characteristic** of the ring R; if such n does not exist, then R is of characteristic 0. The characteristic of R is denoted as char(R). If R = F is a field, then char(F) is the **characteristic** of the field F.

■ Example 7.6

$$char(\mathbb{Z}_n) = n$$

$$\mathsf{char}(\mathbb{Z}) = \mathsf{char}(\mathbb{Q}) = \mathsf{char}(\mathbb{R}) = \mathsf{char}(\mathbb{C}) = 0$$

Proposition 7.20 The characteristic of an integral domain is either 0 or a prime,

Proof. Consider

$$(m \circ a) * (n \circ a) = (m * n) \circ a = 0$$

which implies $k \circ a = 0$ or $l \circ a = 0$.

Question: multiplication?

Theorem 7.2 Let R be a **unital** ring. If there exists a smallest $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that $n \circ 1 = 0$, then char(R) = 0, otherwise char(R) = 0

Proof. Suppose there exists, then $char(R) \ge n$.

$$n \circ a = a(1 + \dots + 1) = a * (n \circ 1) = 0$$

thus $char(R) \le n$.

7.1.4. Field of fractions

To make up a integral domain to be a field, we need to add some extra elements.

Equivalence relation. Let *R* be an integral domain and $S := \{(a,b) \mid a,b \in R, b \neq 0\}$

$$(a,b) \sim (c,d)$$
 iff $ad = bc$

Define

$$(a,b) + (c,d) = (ad + bc,bd); (a,b) * (c,d) = (ac,bd)$$

Proposition 7.21 Suppose $(a,b) \sim (a',b')$ and $(c,d) \sim (c',d')$, then

$$(a,b) + (c,d) \sim (a',b') + (c',d'), \qquad (a,b) * (c,d) \sim (a',b') * (c',d')$$

Definition 7.10 [Quotient set] Equipped with (S, \sim) , we define **quotient** set S/\sim to be the set of all equivalence classes of S w.r.t. \sim

■ Example 7.7 For \sim on $\mathbb Z$ s.t. $a \sim b$ iff $a \equiv b \pmod{2}$, we have

$$\mathbb{Z}/\sim=\{2\mathbb{Z},2\mathbb{Z}+1\}$$

Definition 7.11 [Fraction field] Equipped with (S, \sim) , where $S = \{(a, b) \mid a, b \in R, b \neq 0\}$, we define **fraction field** of R to be the set $Frac(R) := S/\sim$, with the operation

$$[(a,b)] + [(c,d)] = [(ad + bc,bd)]$$
$$[(a,b)] * [(c,d)] = [(ac,bd)]$$

Proposition 7.22 Let R be an integral domain, then Frac(R) forms a field with additive identity 0 = [(0,1)] and the multiplicative identity 1 = [(1,1)]. The multiplicative inverse of a non-zero element $[(a,b)] \in Frac(R)$ is [(b,a)]

When $R = \mathbb{Z}$, we find $[(a,b)] \in \operatorname{Frac}(\mathbb{Z})$ since $a/b \in \mathbb{Q}$, and therefore $\operatorname{Frac}(\mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Q}$