# A FIRST COURSE IN

**ABSTRACT ALGEBRA** 

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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 $A^{\mathrm{H}}$ 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  $\mathcal{M}$ 

#### 8.3. Friday

#### 8.3.1. Polynomials

**Definition 8.13** [polynomial] Let k be a field, and  $f = \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i x^i$  be a polynomial in k[x]. An element  $a \in k$  is a root of f if

$$f(a) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i a^i = 0$$

in k

question: what is k[x]?

**Corollary 8.2** For all  $f \in k[x]$ ,  $a \in k$ , then there exists  $q \in k[x]$  such that

$$f = q(x - a) + f(a)$$

*Proof.* By division theorem, there exists  $q, r \in k[x]$  such that

$$f = q \cdot (x - a) + r$$
,  $\deg r < \deg(x - a) = 1$ 

which implies r is a constant. Evaluate both sides for x = a, we have

$$f(a) = r$$
.

**Proposition 8.18** — **root theorem**. Let k be a field, f a polynomial is k[x]. Then  $a \in k$  is a root of f iff (x - a) divides f in k[x].

*Proof.* For forward direction, there exists  $q \in k[x]$  such that

$$f = q(x-a) + f(a) = q(x-a) \Longrightarrow (x-a)|f$$

For the reverse direction, if f = q(x - a) for some  $q \in k[x]$ , then f(a) = q(a)(a - a) = 0,

i.e., a is a root of f.

**Theorem 8.6** Let k be a field, f a nonzero polynomial in k[x]

- 1. If f has some degree n, then it has at most n roots in k
- 2. If f has degree n and  $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in k$  are distinct roots of f, then

$$f = c \prod_{i=1}^{n} (x - a_i)$$

for some  $c \in k$ .

*Proof.* 1. We show the first part by induction. Suppose it holds for all nonzero polynomails with degree strictly less than n, and  $\deg f = n$ . If f has no roots in k, the proof is complete, otherwise suppose a root  $a \in k$ . There exists  $q \in k[x]$  such that

$$f = q(x - a)$$

For the any other root  $b \in k$ , we have

$$0 = q(b)(b - a)$$

Since k is a firld, it has no zero divisors, which implies q(b) = 0, since  $b - a \neq 0$ . Thus b is a root of q. Since  $\deg q < n$ , by induction we imply q has at most n - 1 roots, i.e., f has at most n - 1 roots that are different from a.

2. If n = 1, then  $f = c_0 + c_1 x$  for some  $c_i \in k$  with  $c_1 \neq 0$ , which implies

$$0 = f(a_1) = c_0 + c_1 a_1 \implies c_0 = -c_1 a_1 \implies f = -c_1 a_1 + c_1 x = c_1 (x - a_1)$$

Suppose n > 1, and the claim holds for all  $n' \in \mathbb{N}$  such that n' < n. By previous claim, there exists  $q \in k[x]$  such that

$$f = q(x - a_n)$$

Since  $\deg q = n - 1$ , and for  $1 \le i < n$ , we have

$$0 = f(a_i) = q(a_i)(a_i - a_n) \implies q(a_i = 0),$$

which implies  $a_1, ..., a_{n-1}$  are n-1 distinct roots of q as well. Thus there exists  $c \in k$  s.t.

$$q = c(x - a_1) \cdots (x - a_{n-1}),$$

which follows that

$$f = q(x - a_n) = c(x - a_1) \cdots (x - a_n)$$

**Corollary 8.3** Let k be a field. Let f,g be nonzero polynomails in k[x]. Let  $n=\max\{\deg f,\deg g\}$ . If f(a)=g(a) for n+1 distinct  $a\in k$ , then f=g.

*Proof.* Let h = f - g, then  $\deg h \le n$ . There are n + 1 distinct elements  $a \in k$  s.t. h(a) = 0. If  $h \ne 0$ , then it is a nonzero polynomial of degree  $\le n$  which has n + 1 distinct roots, which is a construction. h = 0 implies f = g.

**Definition 8.14** A polynomail in k[x] is called a **monic polynomial** if its leading coefficient is 1.

**Theorem 8.7** Let k be a field, then the ring k[x] is a PID.

**Corollary 8.4** Let k be a field, and f,g be nonzero polynomials in k[x]. There exists a unique monic polynomial  $d \in k[x]$  with the following properties:

- 1. (f,g) = (d)
- 2. d divides both f and g, i.e., there exists  $a,b \in k[x]$  s.t. f=ad,g=bd
- 3. There are polynomials  $p,q \in k[x]$  such that d = pf + qg
- 4. If  $h \in k[x]$  is a divisor of f, g, then h divides d.

This  $d \in k[x]$  is called the **greatest common divisor** (GCD) of f and g. We say f and g are **relatively prime** if their GCD is 1.

*Proof.* By the PID theorem, there exists  $d = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_i x^i \in k[x]$  such that (d) = (f,g). Replacing d with  $a_n^{-1}d$ , we assume d is a monic polynomial. It remains to show that d is unique.

Suppose (d) = (d'), there exists nonzero  $p, q \in k[x]$  such that

$$d' = pd$$
,  $d = qd'$ 

which follows that

$$\deg d' = \deg d + \deg p$$
,  $\deg d = \deg q + \deg d' = \deg q + \deg d + \deg p$ ,

i.e., deg p = deg q = 0. Thus deg d = deg d'. Comparing the leading coefficients of d' and pd, we have p = 1, i.e., d = d'.

The remaining part follows similarly.

**Definition 8.15** [Irreducible] Let R be a commutative ring. A non-zero element  $p \in R$  which is not a unit is said to be **irreducible** if p = ab implies that either a or b is a unit.

**Example 8.10** The set of irreducible elements in the ring  $\mathbb Z$  is

 $\{\pm p \mid p \text{ is a prime number}\}$ 

Let *k* be a field.

**Proposition 8.19** A polynomial  $f \in k[x]$  is a unit iff it is a **nonzero** constant polynomial.

**Proposition 8.20** A nonzero nonconstant polynoimial  $p \in k[x]$  is **irreducible** iff there is no  $f,g \in k[x]$  with deg f, deg  $g < \deg p$ , such that fg = p.

*Proof.* 1. Suppose p is irreducible, and p = fg for some  $f, g \in k[x]$  such that  $\deg f, \deg g < g$ 

deg p. Then p = fg implies that deg f, deg g are both positive. By previous lemma, both f, g are non-units, which is a contradiction.

2. Conversely, suppose p is a nonzero non-unit in k[x], which is not equal to fg for  $\forall f,g \in k[x]$  with  $\deg f,\deg g < \deg p$ . Then p=ab for  $a,b \in k[x]$  implies that either a or b must have the same degree as p, and the other factor must be a nonzero constant, i.e., a unit in k[x]. Thus p is irreducible.

**Proposition 8.21** — **Euclid's Lemma.** Let k be a field. Let f,g be polynomials in k[x]. Let p be an irreducible polynomial in k[x]. If p|fg in k[x], then p|f or p|g.

*Proof.* Suppose p not divides f, then any **common divisor** of p and f must have degree strictly less than degp. Since p is irreducible, this implies that any common divisor of p and f is a nonzero constant. Thus the GCD of p and f is 1. There exists  $a,b \in k[x]$  such that

$$ap + bf = 1 \implies apg + bfg = g$$

Since *p* divides the LHS, it also divides the RHS.

**Proposition 8.22** If  $f,g \in k[x]$  are relatively prime, and both divide  $h \in k[x]$ , then fg|h. question

**Theorem 8.8** — **Unique Factorization.** Let k be a field. Every non-constant polynomial  $f \in k[x]$  may be written as

$$f = c p_1 \cdots p_n$$

where c is a non-zero constant, and each  $p_i$  is a monic irreducible polynomials in k[x]. The factorization is **unique** up to the ordering of the factors.

*Proof.* Similar to the proof of unique factorization for  $\mathbb{Z}$ 

**Theorem 8.9** Let k be a field, p be a polynomial in k[x]. The following statements are equivalent:

- 1. k[x]/(p) is a field
- 2. k[x]/(p) is an integral domain
- 3. p is irreducible in k[x].
- *Proof.* 1. (2) implies (3): If p is not irreducible, then there exists  $f,g \in k[x]$  with degree strictly less than that of p, such that p = fg.

It's clear that p does not divide f or g in k[x]. The equivalence classes  $\bar{f}$  and  $\bar{g}$  of f and g, respectively, modulo (p) is not equal to zero in k[x]/(p). (question) On the other hand,  $\bar{f} \cdot \bar{g} = \bar{f}g = \bar{p} = 0$  in k[x]/(p), which implies that k[x]/(p) is not an integral domain, which is a contradction.

2. (3) implies (1): By definiton, the multiplicative identity 1 of a field is different from addictive identity 0. We first check that the equivalence lcass  $1 \in k[x]$  in k[x]/(p) is not zero. Since p is irreducible, we have  $\deg p > 0$ , and  $1 \notin (p)$ . Therefore  $1 + (p) \neq 0 + (p)$  in k[x]/(p).

Next, we need to show the existence of multiplicative inverse of any nonzero element in k[x]/(p). Given any  $f \in k[x]$  whose equivalence  $\bar{f}$  modulo (p) is nonzero in k[x]/(p), we want to construct  $\bar{f}^{-1}$ . Since  $\bar{f} \neq 0$  in k[x]/(p), we have  $f-0 \notin (p)$ , i.e., p does not divide f. Since p is irreducible, we have  $\gcd(p,f)=1$ . There exists  $g,h \in k[x]$  such that fg+hp=1. Thus  $\bar{f}^{-1}=\bar{g}$ . This is becasue fg-1=hp implies  $fg-1 \in (p)$ , i.e.,  $\bar{f}\bar{g}=\bar{f}g=1$  in k[x]/(p).

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