

Math103A
Modern Algebra

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Chapter 1

Group and Subgroups

Lecture 2

1.1 Binary Operators

Definition 1.1.1. A binary operation $*$ on S is a function mapping every element in $S \times S$ into S

Exercise. Let $M(\mathbb{R}) =$ set of all square matrices in \mathbb{R} , is $+$ a binary operator on M ?

Answer. No, because different sized matrices cannot add together. ⊛

Exercise. Let $\mathbb{Z}^+ = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, then we define $a * b = c$ s.t. c is at least 5 more than $a + b$, is $*$ a binary operator ?

Answer. No, because the output isn't unique. $1 * 2 = \{8, 9, 10, \dots\}$. ⊛

Definition 1.1.2. If $(S, *)$ is a binary algebraic structure, then $H \subseteq S$ is closed under this operation iff $\forall a, b \in H, a * b \in H$

Note. If $M_2(\mathbb{R})$ are all 2×2 matrices over \mathbb{R} , then $(M_2(\mathbb{R}), +)$ is a proper algebraic structure.

Exercise. If $H \subseteq M_2(\mathbb{R})$, $H = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix} : a, b \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$, is H closed under $+$?

Answer. Yes ⊛

Proof. $\begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} c & -d \\ d & c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a+c & -(b+d) \\ b+d & a+c \end{bmatrix} \in H$ ■

Exercise. Let $\mathbb{C} = \{a + bi : a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$, is \mathbb{C} closed under addition and multiplication?

Answer. Yes, using Euler's formula we know that $a + bi = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}e^{i\theta}$, so it will stay complex under $+$ and \times . ⊛

Exercise. Let $H \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ and $H = \{a + bi : \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} = 1\}$, is H closed under addition / multiplication?

Answer. It is closed under multiplication but not addition. ⊛

Example. Let $(S, *)$ and $(S', *)$ be two algebraic structures, we want to show whether they are the same.

Answer. Need to consider basic properties: $*$ is commutative $\Leftrightarrow a * b = b * a$

Let \mathcal{F} = the set of functions $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we argue that $f \circ g$ is not commutative ⊗

Proof. \circ is not commutative on \mathcal{F} because lets say $h = \sin(x)$, $g = e^x$, then

$$h \circ g = h(g(x)) = \sin(e^x) \in \mathcal{F}$$

$$g \circ h = g(h(x)) = e^{\sin(x)} \in \mathcal{F}$$

but $\sin(e^x) \neq e^{\sin(x)}$, so back to the question, it may or may not be the same depending on what $*$ is. ■

Definition 1.1.3. If we have a structure (\mathcal{F}, \circ) , then \circ is associative, i.e. $f \circ (g \circ h) = (f \circ g) \circ h$

Proof. Computing them shows that they are equal

$$(f \circ (g \circ h))(x) = f((g \circ h)(x)) = f(g(h(x)))$$

$$((f \circ g) \circ h)(x) = (f \circ g)(h(x)) = f(g(h(x)))$$

■

Exercise. $\mathbb{Z}^+ = \{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$, ans define $a * b = 2^{a \cdot b}$, is $(\mathbb{Z}^+, *)$ 1. commutative, 2. associative ?

Answer.

1. Yes, $a * b = 2^{a \cdot b} = 2^{b \cdot a} = b * a$

2. No, $2 * (3 * 4) \neq (2 * 3) * 4$ ⊗

Exercise. Given $(S, *)$ where $*$ is commutative and associative. Given $H \subseteq S$ where $H = \{a \in S : a * a = a\}$, show that H is closed under $*$.

Proof. $a * a = a$ and $b * b = b$, we can show $[a * b] * [a * b] = [a * b]$ because by associativity and commutativity

$$[a * b] * [a * b] = a * b * a * b = a * a * b * b = a * b$$

■

Lecture 3

Definition 1.1.4. Let $(S, *)$ be an algebraic structure, and $e \in S$ s.t. $\forall a \in S, a * e = a = e * a$ Then e is called the identity element of S .

Example.

$(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ has identity element 0.

(\mathbb{Z}^+, \times) has identity element 1.

$(\mathbb{Z}^+, +)$ has no identity element.

Theorem 1.1.1. If $(S, *)$ has an identity element, it is unique.

Proof. For sake of contradiction, suppose e and e' are both identity elements of S . Then $e = e * e' = e'$. ■

Definition 1.1.5. Let $(S, *)$ be an algebraic structure, and $x \in S$. If $\exists x' \in S$ s.t. $x * x' = x' * x = e$, then x' is called the inverse of x .

Example.

- $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$, the inverse of a is $-a$.
- $(\mathbb{Z}^+, +)$, has no inverses
- (\mathbb{Z}, \times) , the inverse of a is $\frac{1}{a}$ if $a \neq 0$.

1.2 Groups

Definition 1.2.1. A group is an algebraic structure $(G, *)$ if:

1. $*$ is associative.
2. \exists an identity element $e \in G$.
3. $\forall a \in G, \exists$ an inverse $a' \in G$.

Example. $G = \{e, a, b\}$ where

$$e = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad a = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}, \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

(G, \times) where \times is standard matrix multiplication is a group.

$(G, +)$ where $+$ is standard matrix addition is not a group because it is not closed under addition.

Definition 1.2.2. A group $(G, *)$ is **abelian** if $\forall a, b \in G, a * b = b * a$.

Example. Consider $(\mathbb{Q}^+, *)$ where $*$ is defined by $a * b = \frac{ab}{2}$.

Associativity: For any $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Q}^+$,

$$(a * b) * c = \left(\frac{ab}{2}\right) * c = \frac{\left(\frac{ab}{2}\right)c}{2} = \frac{abc}{4} = a * (b * c)$$

Thus, $*$ is associative.

Identity element: We need $e \in \mathbb{Q}^+$ such that $\forall a \in \mathbb{Q}^+$,

$$a * e = \frac{ae}{2} = a \quad \text{and} \quad e * a = \frac{ea}{2} = a$$

Solving $\frac{ae}{2} = a$ gives $e = 2$. Thus, 2 is the identity element.

Inverses: For any $a \in \mathbb{Q}^+$, we need $a' \in \mathbb{Q}^+$ such that

$$a * a' = \frac{aa'}{2} = 2 \quad \text{and} \quad a' * a = \frac{a'a}{2} = 2$$

Solving $\frac{aa'}{2} = 2$ gives $a' = \frac{4}{a}$. Thus, every element has an inverse.

Therefore, $(\mathbb{Q}^+, *)$ is a group.

Commutativity: For any $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}^+$,

$$a * b = \frac{ab}{2} = \frac{ba}{2} = b * a$$

Thus, $(\mathbb{Q}^+, *)$ is an abelian group.

Theorem 1.2.1. Let $(G, *)$ be a group. Then

1. The identity element is unique ([Theorem 1.1.1](#)).
2. Every element has a unique inverse .

Proof. Let a, a', a'' be inverses of $a \in G$. Then $a' = a' * e = a' * (a * a'') = (a' * a) * a'' = e * a'' = a''$. ■

Corollary 1.2.1. Let $(G, *)$ be a group and $a, b \in G$. If $a * b \in G$, then the inverse of $(a * b)$ is $b' * a'$, where b' is the inverse of b and a' is the inverse of a .

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}(a * b) * (b' * a') &= a * (b * b') * a' = a * e * a' = a * a' = e \\ (b' * a') * (a * b) &= b' * (a' * a) * b = b' * e * b = b' * b = e\end{aligned}$$

■

Lecture 4

1.3 Abelian Groups

Example. $\mathbb{C} = \{a + bi \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is an abelian group under addition.

Example. Let $\mathbb{R}^2 = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} : a, b \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$, $(\mathbb{R}^2, +)$ is an abelian group.

Example. Let $\mathbb{P}_1 = \{ax + b : a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$. , $(\mathbb{P}_1, +)$ is an abelian group.

Definition 1.3.1. A **group isomorphism** is a bijective group homomorphism. Specifically, if $(G, *_1)$ and $(H, *_2)$ are groups, a function $\phi : G \rightarrow H$ is called a group isomorphism if:

1. ϕ is a homomorphism, i.e., $\forall a, b \in G, \phi(a *_1 b) = \phi(a) *_2 \phi(b)$.
2. ϕ is bijective, i.e., ϕ is both injective (one-to-one) and surjective (onto).

If such a function ϕ exists, we say that G and H are **isomorphic** and write $G \cong H$.

Exercise. Let $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ and $(2\mathbb{Z}, +)$ be groups under addition. Define the function $\phi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 2\mathbb{Z}$ by $\phi(n) = 2n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Do we have an isomorphism between $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ and $(2\mathbb{Z}, +)$?

1. ϕ is a homomorphism: For all $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$\phi(a + b) = 2(a + b) = 2a + 2b = \phi(a) + \phi(b).$$

2. ϕ is bijective:

- Injective: Suppose $\phi(a) = \phi(b)$. Then $2a = 2b$, which implies $a = b$. (For an output check if the input are the same)
- Surjective: For any $m \in 2\mathbb{Z}$, there exists $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $m = 2n$. Hence, $\phi(n) = m$.

Therefore, ϕ is an isomorphism, and $(\mathbb{Z}, +) \cong (2\mathbb{Z}, +)$.

Lecture 5

1.3.1 More Abelian Examples

Example. $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ where $+_n$ is addition modulo n . When $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_n$, $a+_nb = (a+b) \bmod n$.

- Many groups are isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}_n .

Remark (Fact). Any group of size 1 is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}_1 .

Example. If we have a group $\mathbb{Z}_2 = \{0, 1\}$ equipped with $(\mathbb{Z}_2, +)$ and an abstract group $G = \{e, a\}$. Do these groups have the same structure?

Answer. We can check its operation table.

$$\begin{array}{c|cc} + & 0 & 1 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \cong \begin{array}{c|cc} * & e & a \\ \hline e & e & a \\ a & a & e \end{array}$$

⊛

Remark (Fact). Any group of size 2 is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}_2 .

Example. Let $G = \{I, A, B\}$ where I is the identity matrix, $A = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$, and $B = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$. Is this group isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}_3 ?

Answer. This is also isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}_3 .
We can check it using the same method as above.

⊛

Remark (Fact). All groups on 3 elements is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}_3 .

Theorem 1.3.1. Let $(G, *)$ be a group. If we fix $a, b \in G$, then:

1. $a * x = b$ has a unique solution for x .
2. $y * a = b$ has a unique solution for y .

Example. $\mathbb{Z}_4 = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ and the Klein 4-group $V_4 = \{e, a, b, c\}$ with their operation tables:

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} + & 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{array} \not\cong \begin{array}{c|cccc} * & e & a & b & c \\ \hline e & e & a & b & c \\ a & a & e & c & b \\ b & b & c & e & a \\ c & c & b & a & e \end{array}$$

Proof. Check the diagonals and it is clear that they are not isomorphic. ■

Theorem 1.3.2. Every group on 4 elements is isomorphic to either $(\mathbb{Z}_4, +)$ or $(V, *)$.

Partial proof. Generate all possible tables and check if they are isomorphic to $(\mathbb{Z}_4, +)$ or $(V, *)$. Turns out they will only be isomorphic to one of these two groups. ■

Lecture 6

1.3.2 Circle Algebra

Example. Define $\mathbb{C} = \{a + bi \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$. Then $(\mathbb{C}, +)$ is an abelian group.

Remark. (\mathbb{C}, \times) is not abelian group because 0 does not have an inverse.

Note. So we come up with a notation $\mathbb{C}^* = \mathbb{C} - \{0\}$. (\mathbb{C}^*, \times) is an abelian group.

Note (Euler's Formula). $z \in \mathbb{C}^*$, $z = a + bi$. Then $z = |z|e^{i\theta}$, where $|z| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ and $\theta = \arctan\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)$.

Example. 1. Let $u = \{z \in \mathbb{C}^*, |z| = 1\}$. Then (u, \times) is an abelian group.

Example (Roots of Unity). Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $u_n = \{z \in \mathbb{C}^*, z^n = 1\}$.

1. $u_1 = \{1\}$.
2. $u_2 = \{1, -1\}$.
3. $u_3 = \{1, e^{\frac{2\pi i}{3}}, e^{\frac{4\pi i}{3}}\}$.
4. $u_4 = \{1, i, -1, -i\}$.
5. $u_n = \{e^{\frac{2\pi i k}{n}} \mid k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$.

Note. (u_n, \times) is an abelian group of order n . Also, $u_n \cong \mathbb{Z}_n$.

1.4 Non Abelian Groups

1.4.1 Permutation Groups

Note (Notation). From now on, if $(G, *)$ is a group, we will write $a*b$ as ab .

a^k means $a * a * \dots * a$ (k times).

a^{-k} means $a^{-1} * a^{-1} * \dots * a^{-1}$ (k times).

Operator should be clear from context so most of the time we will omit it.

Definition 1.4.1. The order of a group G is the number of elements in G .

Definition 1.4.2. Let A be a set. A permutation of A is a bijection $\phi : A \rightarrow A$.

Example. Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$

Let σ be a permutation of A . Then $\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 1 & 5 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$.

Definition 1.4.3. Let's define a composite operator on S_A . Let $\sigma, \tau \in S_A$. Then $\sigma \circ \tau$ is a permutation of A defined by $(\sigma \circ \tau)(x) = \sigma(\tau(x))$.

Theorem 1.4.1. A set (S_A, \circ) is a group.

Proof.

1. Associativity: Let $\sigma, \tau, \rho \in S_A$. Then $(\sigma \circ \tau) \circ \rho = \sigma \circ (\tau \circ \rho)$.
2. Identity: The identity element is the identity permutation $id(x) = x$.
3. Inverse: Let $\sigma \in S_A$. Then σ^{-1} is the inverse of σ . This reverse the mapping of σ .

■