## MATH403: Abstract Algebra

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These are my notes for UMD's MATH403: Abstract Algebra. These notes are taken live in class ("live-T<sub>E</sub>X"-ed). This course is taught by Professor Qendrim Gashi, qgashi@umd.edu. The textbook for the class is *Contemporary Abstract Algebra* by Joseph A. Gallian. 10th Edition.

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## §1 Preliminaries

**Definition 1.1** (Well-Ordering Principle). If  $\emptyset \neq S \subseteq \mathbb{N} \implies S$  has a smallest element,

#### **Theorem 1.2** (Division Algorithm)

Suppose  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , s.t.  $a < b \implies \exists ! \ q, r \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 \le r < b \text{ such that } a = bq + r.$ 

Proof.

Define a set  $\{a - bk \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}, a - bk \ge 0\} \ne \emptyset$ . By the Well-Ordering Principle, it has a smallest element which we will denote by r, and  $r = a - bq \ \forall \ q \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Assume  $r \ge b$ . Therefore,

$$0 \le r - b = a * bq - b = a - b(q + 1) \in S$$

which is a contradiction since r is the smallest element. If there exists q!, r! of the same type of q, r then

$$bq + r = bq! + r! \implies b(q - q!) = r! - r$$

We can assume that r! > r, so  $b \mid r! - r$ , therefore r! = r! and q! = q!.

#### Lemma 1.3 (Bezout's Lemma)

Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$  then  $\exists s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that GCD(a, b) = as + bt and GCD(a, b) is the least (positive) integer expressed in such a linear combination.

Proof.

Define the set  $S = \{am + bn \mid m, n \in \mathbb{Z}, am + bn > 0\} \neq \emptyset$ . By the Well-Ordering Principle, let  $d = \min S$ , which by definition of the set, must have a form d = as + bt for some  $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Now we have to prove that d is a divisior of a, b and that it is the greatest divisior.

Claim 1: d is a divisor of a, b. By the Division Algorithm, a = qd + r for some  $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 \le r < d$ . If r > 0, then

$$r = a - qd = a - q(as + bt) = a(1 - qs) + b(-qt) \in S$$

which is a contradiction because  $r \in S$  but r < d and d is the smallest element in the set, so r cannot be in the set.

Claim 2: Any common divisor of a and b divides d. Assume d is such a divisor. Therefore, we write a = d'h, b = d'k. Therefore,

$$d = as + bt = s(d'h) + t(d'k) = d'(hs + kt)$$

and so we get that  $d' \leq d$  and so d = GCD(a, b).

#### Corollary 1.4

If a, b are relatively prime  $\iff \exists s, t \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } as + bt = 1$ 

**Note 1.5.** Define the GCD operator GCD(a,b) = (a,b) for two integers  $a,b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

#### Example 1.6

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and consider  $(n^2 + n + 1, n + 1)$ . Note that

$$(n^2 + n + 1) + (n + 1)(-n) = 1 \stackrel{\text{Corollary}}{\Longrightarrow} (n^2 + n + 1, n + 1) = 1$$

#### **Theorem 1.7** (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic)

Given  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\exists ! p_i$  primes and  $t_i \in \mathbb{N}, i, \ldots, k$  such that

$$n = \prod_{i=1}^{k} p_i^{t_i}$$

where  $p_i \neq p_j$  and uniqueness is up to reordering.

*Proof.* Base case: for n=2 this is true. Inductive hypothesis: assume this is true for  $n \leq m$ . Inductive case: now consider n=m+1. If this number is prime, then we are done. If it is not a prime, then by definition of not prime, then  $m+1=m_1\cdot m_n, m_1, m_2\in\mathbb{N}$  such that  $1< m_1, m_2< m+1$ . By assumption in our inductive hypothesis,

$$m_1 = \prod_{i=1}^{k_1} p_i^{t_i}$$
  $m_2 = \prod_{i=1}^{k_2} (p_i')^{k_i'} \implies m_1 m_2 = \left(\prod_{i=1}^{k_1} p_i^{t_i}\right) \left(\prod_{i=1}^{k_2} (p_i')^{k_i'}\right)$ 

and thus we have proved existence. To prove uniqueness, we will use Euclid's Lemma

#### Lemma 1.8 (Euclid's Lemma)

If you p prime,  $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$  then  $p|(ab) \implies p|a \vee p|b$ 

Suppose there are two expressions where  $p_i, q_j$  are prime and distinct

$$n = p_1^{t_1} p_2^{t_2} \cdots p_k^{t_k} = q_1^{s_1} q_2^{s_2} \cdots q_c^{s_c}$$

Since  $p_1 \mid (q_1^{s_1}, \dots, q_c^{s_c}) \implies \exists j, p_i \mid q_j \implies p_i = q_j$ . By repeating this process, k = c, and  $p_i$ 's are just reordering of  $q_j$ 's and the powers agree.

#### §1.1 Relations

**Definition 1.9** (Relation). Suppose  $A, B \neq \emptyset$ , define  $R \subset A \times B$ , so R is a **relation** between A and B. If A = B, they say R is a relation on  $A \implies R \subset A \times A$ .

**Note 1.10** (Functions are Relations). Suppose  $f: A \times B$ , then  $f \subset A \times B = \{(fa, f(a)) : a \in A\}$ . Similarly, for a  $m \times n$  matrix that is a linear transformation, then  $f: [m] \times [n] \to \mathbb{R}, m = \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$  and  $n = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ .

**Definition 1.11** (Equivalence Relations). Suppose  $R \subset A \times A$  then it must satisfy three properties

- 1. R is reflexive, which means that  $(a, a) \in \mathbb{R} \ \forall \ a \in A$ .
- 2. R is symmetric, which means  $(a,b) \in \mathbb{R} \implies (b,a) \in \mathbb{R} \ \forall \ a,b \in \mathbb{R}$
- 3. R is transitive, which means  $(a,b) \in R \land (a,c) \in R \implies (a,c) \in R$

**Note 1.12.** Instead of writing  $(a, b) \in R$ , let us write aRb.

#### Example 1.13

Let  $R \subset \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ , and so  $a = a \ \forall \ a \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $a = b \implies b = a \ \forall \ a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $(a = b \land b = c) \implies a = c \ \forall \ a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ 

**Definition 1.14** (Equivalence Class). Let  $R \subset A \times A$  be an equivalence relation, then for any  $x \in A$  we call  $C_x := \{a \in A \mid xRa\}$ 

**Note 1.15.** Note that  $x \in C_x$  by reflexivity and so  $C_x \neq \emptyset$ 

**Note 1.16.** If  $x, y \in A$  then  $C_x = C_y$  or  $C_x \cap C_y = \emptyset$  and this naturally leads to the ideas of partitions, since  $A = \bigcup_{x \in A} C_x$  where all of the  $C_x$ 's are disjoint of equal.

**Definition 1.17** (Modular Arithmetic). Fix  $m \in N$ , usually m > 1. Consider residues when dividing any integer by m = 3.

$$\begin{pmatrix}
6 & 7 & 8 \\
3 & 4 & 5 \\
0 & 1 & 2 \\
-3 & -2 & -1 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots
\end{pmatrix}$$

where the columns of this matrix are equivalence classes  $C_0, C_1, C_2$ . Denote  $\{\overline{0}, \overline{1}, \dots, \overline{n-1}\} = \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$  where each of these are the equivalence classes corresponding to these integers. In this way (lol), 1+2=0 where addition does not depend on the equivalence class; this just means we don't have to stay in the same row when performing the addition.

**Note 1.18.** Let  $[n] = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  and denote by  $S_n$  the set of all bijective maps  $[n] \to [n]$ . If  $f, g \in S_n$  then  $f \circ g \in S_n$ , and so  $(S_n, \circ)$  is known as the **permutation group**. This composition of maps is the first algebraic operation that gives way to groups.

# §2 Groups