

(f) Normal Subgroup

(M.U. 2002, 05, 07, 10, 13)

Definition : A subgroup H of G is said to be normal if for every $a \in G$ we have $aH = H$.
A subgroup of an Abelian group is normal.

Example 1 : Prove that "congruence modulo H " is an equivalence relation.

Sol. : By definition of "Congruence modulo H " $a R b$ means $a * b^{-1} \in H$.

(i) R is reflexive

$$\because a * a^{-1} = e \text{ and } e \in H \quad \therefore R \text{ is reflexive.}$$

(ii) R is symmetric

$$\because a R b \quad \therefore a * b^{-1} \in H$$

$$\text{Since, } (a * b^{-1}) \in H, (a * b^{-1})^{-1} \in H$$

$$\therefore b * a^{-1} \in H \quad \therefore R \text{ is symmetric.}$$

(iii) R is transitive

If $a R b$ then $a * b^{-1} \in H$

If $b R c$ then $b * c^{-1} \in H$

$$\therefore (a * b^{-1}) * (b * c^{-1}) \in H$$

$$\therefore a * (b^{-1} * b) * c^{-1} \in H$$

$$\therefore a * e * c^{-1} \in H$$

$$\therefore a * c^{-1} \in H \quad \therefore a R c \quad \therefore R \text{ is transitive.}$$

Hence, R is an equivalence relation.

Example 2 : Find all cosets of the sub-group $H = 3 \cdot Z$ of the group $(Z, +)$.

Sol. : We have $Z = \{ \dots, -4, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots \}$

$$\text{and } H = 3 \cdot Z = \{-7, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots\}$$

$$\text{Now, } H + 0 = \{ \dots, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots \} = H$$

$$H + 1 = \{ \dots, -5, -2, 1, 4, 7, \dots \} = H_1$$

$$H + 2 = \{ \dots, -4, -1, 2, 5, 8, \dots \} = H_2$$

$$H + 3 = \{ \dots, -3, 0, 3, 6, 9, \dots \}$$

$$\text{But } H + 3 = H + 0.$$

Hence, $H, H + 1, H + 2$ are the only three distinct right cosets of H in Z .

Further all these cosets partition the set Z into three disjoint subsets such that

$$H \cup H_1 \cup H_2 = Z.$$

Further, since G is abelian, H is abelian and $ah = ha$. Hence, every right coset is equal to the left coset.

$$\therefore H + 1 = 1 + H, \quad H + 2 = 2 + H.$$

Example 3 : Find all the cosets of the sub-group $H = 2 \cdot Z$ of the sub-group $(Z, +)$ in Z .

Sol. : Left to you.

Example 4 : Let $G = Z_6$. Find the left and right cosets of $H = \{[0], [3]\}$.

Is H a normal subgroup of the group Z_6 .

The table of Z_6 (Here + stands for $+_6$)

$+_6$	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	1	2	3	4	5
1	1	2	3	4	5	0
2	2	3	4	5	0	1
3	3	4	5	0	1	2
4	4	5	0	1	2	3
5	5	0	1	2	3	4

The group Z_6 is abelian because $a + b = b + a$ for $a, b \in Z_6$
e.g., $1 + 2 = 3$ and $2 + 1 = 3$.

Now, left coset of $H = \{[0], [3]\}$ with respect to a in the set Z_6 is
 $aH = \{a * b \mid h \in H\}$

$$\begin{aligned} 0H &= \{0 + 0, 0 + 3\} = \{0, 3\}, & 1H &= \{1 + 0, 1 + 3\} = \{1, 4\}, \\ 2H &= \{2 + 0, 2 + 3\} = \{2, 5\}, & 3H &= \{3 + 0, 3 + 3\} = \{3, 0\}, \\ 4H &= \{4 + 0, 4 + 3\} = \{4, 1\}, & 5H &= \{5 + 0, 5 + 3\} = \{5, 2\}. \end{aligned}$$

Now, the right coset of $H = \{[0]_6, [3]_6\}$ with respect to a in the set is
 $Ha = \{h * a \mid h \in H\}$

$$\begin{aligned} 0H &= \{0 + 0, 3 + 0\} = \{0, 3\}, & H1 &= \{0 + 1, 3 + 1\} = \{1, 4\}, \\ H2 &= \{0 + 2, 3 + 2\} = \{2, 5\}, & H3 &= \{0 + 3, 3 + 3\} = \{3, 0\}, \\ H4 &= \{0 + 4, 3 + 4\} = \{4, 1\}, & H5 &= \{0 + 5, 3 + 5\} = \{5, 2\}. \end{aligned}$$

Clearly, we have

$$0H = H0, 1H = H1, 2H = H2, 3H = H3, 4H = H4, 5H = H5.$$

$\therefore H$ is a normal subgroup of Z_6 .

Example 5 : Let $G = Z_8$. Determine the left cosets of $H = \{[0], [4]\}$ in G .

(M.U. 2005)

Sol. :

The table of Z_8 (Here + stands for $+_8$)

$+_8$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
2	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	1
3	3	4	5	6	7	0	1	2
4	4	5	6	7	0	1	2	3
5	5	6	7	0	1	2	3	4
6	6	7	0	1	2	3	4	5
7	7	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Now, left coset of $H = \{[0], [4]\}$ with respect to a in the Z_8 is

$$\begin{aligned} aH &= \{a * h \mid h \in H\} & 1H &= \{1 + 0, 1 + 4\} = \{1, 5\}, \\ \therefore 0H &= \{0 + 0, 0 + 4\} = \{0, 4\}, & 3H &= \{3 + 0, 3 + 4\} = \{3, 7\}, \\ 2H &= \{2 + 0, 2 + 4\} = \{2, 6\}, & 5H &= \{5 + 0, 5 + 4\} = \{5, 1\}, \\ 4H &= \{4 + 0, 4 + 4\} = \{4, 0\}, & 7H &= \{7 + 0, 7 + 4\} = \{7, 3\}. \\ 6H &= \{6 + 0, 6 + 4\} = \{6, 2\}, \end{aligned}$$

Example 6 : Let $G = \mathbb{Z}_8$. Determine all right cosets of $H = \{[0], [4]\}$ in G .

Sol. : Left to you.

(g) **Product Group**

Definition : If G_1 and G_2 are groups and $G = G_1 \times G_2$ then G is called a product group under the operation defined by

$$(a_1, b_1) * (a_2, b_2) = (a_1 * a_2, b_1 * b_2)$$

Example : Let $G_1 = G_2 = \mathbb{Z}_2$. If $\bar{0}$ denotes the equivalence class $[0]$, and $\bar{1}$ denotes the equivalence class $[1]$, then the multiplication table for the product group $G_1 \times G_2$ is given by

	$(\bar{0}, \bar{0})$	$(\bar{1}, \bar{0})$	$(\bar{0}, \bar{1})$	$(\bar{1}, \bar{1})$
$(\bar{0}, \bar{0})$	$(\bar{0}, \bar{0})$	$(\bar{1}, \bar{0})$	$(\bar{0}, \bar{1})$	$(\bar{1}, \bar{1})$
$(\bar{1}, \bar{0})$	$(\bar{1}, \bar{0})$	$(\bar{0}, \bar{0})$	$(\bar{1}, \bar{1})$	$(\bar{0}, \bar{1})$
$(\bar{0}, \bar{1})$	$(\bar{0}, \bar{1})$	$(\bar{1}, \bar{1})$	$(\bar{0}, \bar{0})$	$(\bar{1}, \bar{0})$
$(\bar{1}, \bar{1})$	$(\bar{1}, \bar{1})$	$(\bar{0}, \bar{1})$	$(\bar{1}, \bar{0})$	$(\bar{0}, \bar{0})$

(M.U. 2000)

(h) **Quotient**

We know that an equivalence relation R defined on a set A induces a partition of A denoted by A / R . In the same way the equivalence relation R , mod m induces a partition of the set S of the semi-group $(S, *)$ which we denote by S / R . S / R is called **quotient**.

Example : If A is the set of natural numbers and R is the relation defined by $a R b$ if $a \equiv b \pmod{5}$, then prove that $(A / R, \oplus)$ is a group where A / R denotes the quotient group induced on A by R and \oplus the addition on residue classes i.e. $[a] \oplus [b] = [a + b]$.

Sol. : The partition induced on A by the relation $a \equiv b \pmod{5}$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned} [0] &= \{ \dots, -10, -5, 0, 5, 10, \dots \} = [5] = [10] = \dots \\ [1] &= \{ \dots, -9, -4, 1, 6, 11, \dots \} = [1] = [6] = \dots \\ [2] &= \{ \dots, -8, -3, 2, 7, 12, \dots \} = [2] = [7] = \dots \\ [3] &= \{ \dots, -7, -2, 3, 8, 13, \dots \} = [3] = [8] = \dots \\ [4] &= \{ \dots, -6, -1, 4, 9, 14, \dots \} = [4] = [9] = \dots \end{aligned}$$

Thus, we have $A / R = \{[0], [1], [2], [3], [4]\}$

and $[a] \oplus [b] = [a + b]$.

e.g., $[2] \oplus [3] = [2 + 3] = [5]$

With this understanding we can prepare the following table for \oplus on A / R .

\oplus	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
[0]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
[1]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[0]
[2]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[0]	[1]
[3]	[3]	[4]	[0]	[1]	[2]
[4]	[4]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]

From this table it is clear that \oplus is a binary operation.

G1: Associativity

$$[a] \oplus ([b] \oplus [c]) = [a] \oplus [b]$$

$$= [a + (b + c)]$$

Similarly, $([a] \oplus [b]) \oplus [c] = a + (b + c)$

This proves associativity.

G2: From the first row (column) we

$$[0]^{-1} = [0], \quad [1]^{-1} = [1]$$

$$\text{because } [0] \oplus [0] = [0], \quad [1] \oplus [1] = [1]$$

Hence, $(A / R, \oplus)$ is a group.

Definition : If R is a congruence

and if $(S / R, \oplus)$ or $(G / R, \oplus)$ is the con-

gruence homomorphism.

Example 1 : Find the natural ho-

and the relation R defined by a R is

Sol. : From the table given the previo-

$$0 \rightarrow [0], \quad 1 \rightarrow [1], \quad 2 \rightarrow [2]$$

Example 2 : Consider the follow-

by the operation $*$ given by the adj-

Show that $R = \{(a, a), (b, b), (c,$

an equivalence relation.

Find the quotient semi-group

Find the operation table for

Sol. : It is easy to prove that R is a

The partition S / R induced by

to the elements in the same block

We denote this as congruen-

Now, by definition $[a] \oplus [b] = [a + b]$

From the given table, we fin-

$$[a] \oplus [a] = [a + a]$$

$$[c] \oplus [a] = [c + a]$$

Hence, we get the table

$$\begin{array}{c|ccccc} * & [a] & [b] & [c] \\ \hline [a] & [a] & [a] & [c] \\ [b] & [a] & [b] & [a] \\ [c] & [c] & [a] & [a] \end{array}$$

The natural homomorphism

$$(a) \rightarrow [a]$$

G 1 : Associativity

$$[a] \oplus ([b] \oplus [c]) = [a] \oplus [b+c]$$

$$= [a + (b+c)] = (a+b+c)$$

[By associativity in A]

This proves associativity.

G 2 : From the first row (column) we see that $[0]$ is the identity for \oplus .

G 3 : Since in each row and column we find the identity element, every element has its inverse.

$$[0]^{-1} = [0], \quad [1]^{-1} = [4], \quad [2]^{-1} = [3]$$

$$\text{Hence } [0] \oplus [0] = [0], \quad [1] \oplus [4] = [0], \quad [2] \oplus [3] = [0].$$

Definition : If R is a congruence relation defined on a semi-group $(S, *)$ or on a group $(G, *)$ then the function $f_R: S \rightarrow S/R$ or $f_R: G \rightarrow G/R$ defined by $f_R(a) = [a]$ is an homomorphism called natural homomorphism.

Example 1 : Find the natural homomorphism $f_R: G \rightarrow G/R$ for the set A of natural numbers and the relation R defined by $a R b$ is $a \equiv b \pmod{5}$.

Sol. : From the table given the previous page, it is clear that the natural homomorphism is given by

$$0 \rightarrow [0], \quad 1 \rightarrow [1], \quad 2 \rightarrow [2], \quad 3 \rightarrow [3], \quad 4 \rightarrow [4].$$

Example 2 : Consider the following semigroup defined on $S = \{a, b, c, d\}$ by the operation $*$ given by the adjoining table.

Show that $R = \{(a, a), (b, b), (c, c), (d, d), (a, b), (b, a), (c, d), (d, c)\}$ is an equivalence relation.

Find the quotient semi-group $(S/R, \oplus)$ induced by R .

Find the operation table for $(S/R, \oplus)$. Find the natural homomorphism $f_R: S \rightarrow S/R$.

(M.U. 2006)

Sol. : It is easy to prove that R is an equivalence relation and is left to you as an exercise.

The partition S/R induced by R is

	a	c
	b	d

because every element in the block is related

to the elements in the same block.

We denote this as congruence classes. $[a] = \{a, b\}, [c] = \{c, d\}$

Now, by definition $[a] \oplus [b] = [a * b]$

From the given table, we find that

$$[a] \oplus [a] = [a * a] = [a], \quad [a] \oplus [c] = [a * c] = [c],$$

$$[c] \oplus [a] = [c * a] = [c], \quad [c] \oplus [c] = [c * c] = [a].$$

Hence, we get the table.

*	$[a]$	$[c]$
$[a]$	$[a]$	$[c]$
$[c]$	$[c]$	$[a]$

The natural homomorphism (from partition table).

$$(a) \rightarrow [a], (b) \rightarrow [a], (c) \rightarrow [c], (d) \rightarrow [c].$$

Example 3 : Consider the monoid $S = \{a, b, c, d\}$ with the operation * defined by the adjoining table.

Consider the congruence relation

$$R = \{(d, d), (d, a), (a, d), (a, a), (b, b), (b, c), (c, b), (c, c)\}$$

(i) Write operation table of the quotient monoid S / R .

(ii) Find the natural homomorphism $f_R : S \rightarrow S / R$.

Sol. : You can easily prove that R is an equivalence relation.

The partition S / R is given by $[d] = \{a, d\}$, $[b] = \{b, c\}$. Further d is the identity element of *. From the given table, we find that,

$$[a] \oplus [a] = [a * a] = [d] = [a]$$

$$[a] \oplus [b] = [a * b] = [b]$$

$$[b] \oplus [a] = [b * a] = [c] = [b]$$

$$[b] \oplus [b] = [b * b] = [b]$$

Hence, we get the table.

*	[a]	[b]
[a]	[a]	[b]
[b]	[b]	[b]

The natural homomorphism is (from partition table)

$$(a) \rightarrow [a], (d) \rightarrow [a], (b) \rightarrow [b], (c) \rightarrow [b].$$

8. Generators and Evaluation of Powers

Let $(A, *)$ be an algebraic system in which A is a set of angles in degrees and binary operation * gives the angle that the combination of 2 angles yields a new angle. We want to know all the possible combinations of angles.

Consider the group $\{0^\circ, 15^\circ, 45^\circ, 60^\circ, 75^\circ, 90^\circ, 105^\circ, 120^\circ\}, *$ that describes the rotation of straight line in the plane. If we can rotate straight line only by 60° each time. Successive rotations by 60° will give the angles of rotation $\{0, 60^\circ, 120^\circ\}$. If we can rotate the straight line only 15° each time, successive rotations by 15° will yield all the rotations of straight line in $\{0^\circ, 15^\circ, 45^\circ, 60^\circ, 75^\circ, 90^\circ, 105^\circ, 120^\circ\}$.

A subset of a group is called **generating set**, if it can be expressed using the elements of a subset by means of the group multiplication and inversion and there is a surjective map from a free group on that many generators to given generators of the free group to the elements of this free group.

The elements of the generating set are termed as **generators**.

In general, let $(G, *)$ be an algebraic system where * is a closed operation and $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots\}$ be a subset of G . Let A_1 be the subset of A which contains A as well as elements $a_i * a_j$ for $a_i, a_j \in A$. A_1 is called the set generated by A , similarly, let A_2 denote set generated by A_1, \dots and A_{i+1} denotes the set generated by A_i . Let B denote the union of A, A_1, A_2, \dots, A_i . The algebraic system $(B, *)$ is system generated by A and an element is said to be generated by A , if it is in B . Thus, for a group $(G, *)$, if B is finite, then $(B, *)$ is subgroup. If $B = G$, B is called a generating set or a set of generators of algebraic system $(G, *)$. In the example on rotation of straight line $\{15^\circ\}$ is a generating set.

*	a	b	c	d
a	d	b	c	a
b	c	b	c	b
c	b	b	c	c
d	a	b	c	d

a	b
d	c

*	a	b	c	d
a	d	b	c	d
b	c	b	c	a
c	b	b	c	b
d	a	b	c	d

a	b
d	c

Alternatively, A subset B of group A is called a generating set if it satisfies following equivalent conditions.

- For any element $b \in A$, we can write $b = a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ for each a_i either $a_i \in B$ or $a_i^{-1} \in B$. B is a symmetric subset i.e., $a_i \in B$ implies $a_i^{-1} \in S$.
- If C is a proper subgroup of A , then C can't contain B .
- Consider map from free group on as many generators as elements of B to the group A , which maps the freely generating set to the elements of S , this gives surjective homomorphism from free group to G .

For example, the set of all elements of a group is a generating set for the group.

If S is a subset of a group G s.t. every element of G is a power of some elements of S , then S is a generating set. If S is empty set, then $\langle S \rangle$ is the trivial group $\{e\}$. Since we consider empty product to be the identity. The set of all non-identity elements of a group is a generating set for the group e.g., the 5th roots of unity in the complex plane form a group under multiplication. Each non-identity element generates the group.

Definition : An element a of a group G generates G and is a generator for G if $\langle a \rangle = G$. A group G is cyclic if there is some element a in G that generates G . A cyclic group is a group that is generated by a single element.

For example, the group \mathbb{Z} under addition is a cyclic group, both 1 and -1 are generators for the group.

Finding generators of a cyclic group depends upon order of group. If the order of group is 8, then the total number of generators of group G are equal to positive integers less than 8 and coprime to 8 i.e., 1, 3, 5, 7 less than 8 and coprime to 8. Therefore, if a is a generator of G , then a^3, a^5, a^7 are also generators of G . Hence, there are 4 generators of G .

9. Cosets and Lagrange's Theorem

(a) Coset

(M.U. 2001)

Definition : Let $(G, *)$ be group and H be a subgroup of G . If a, b are two elements of G and if $a * b^{-1} \in H$, then we say that "a is congruent to b modulo H ". It is written as " $a \equiv b \pmod{H}$ ".

It can be easily verified that this congruence relation is an equivalence relation (See Ex. 1 page 16-33). Since this congruence relation is an equivalence relation on G it partitions G into equivalent classes called cosets.

Definition : Let $(G, *)$ be group and H be a subgroup of G .

If a is an element of G then the set $Ha = \{h * a \mid h \in H\}$ is called the right coset of H .

If a is an element of G , then the set $aH = \{a * h \mid h \in H\}$ is called the left coset of H .

a is called the representative element of the coset aH or Ha .

For example, consider binary operation $+$, group $(\mathbb{Z}_6, +)$ elements of this group are

$$\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$$

Let $H = \{0, 2, 4\}$ is a subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_6 .

$$\text{The left coset of } H \text{ w.r.t. } 0, \text{ i.e., } 0 + H = \{0 + 0, 0 + 2, 0 + 4\} = \{0, 2, 4\}$$

$$\text{The left coset of } H \text{ w.r.t. } 1, \text{ i.e., } 1 + H = \{1 + 0, 1 + 2, 1 + 4\} = \{1, 3, 5\}$$

$$\text{The left coset of } H \text{ w.r.t. } 2, \text{ i.e., } 2 + H = \{2 + 0, 2 + 2, 2 + 4\} = \{2, 4, 0\}$$

Note that, 0 is the identity element.

(b) Lagrange's Theorem

If H is a subgroup of finite group G ($H \subseteq G$), then the order of H divides the order of G .
For example, order of G = No. of elements = $|G|$.

Lagrange's Theorem : $H \subseteq G \Rightarrow |H|$ divides $|G|$.

Let G be a finite group with $|G| = 323 = 17 \times 19$. Divisors of 323 are 1, 17, 19, 323.
Possible subgroups orders : 1, 17, 19, 323.

Standard subgroup : $G, \{e\} \quad |G| = 323, |\{e\}| = 1$

Any other subgroups has order 17 or 19.

10. Permutation Groups and Burnside's Theorem

(a) Permutation Groups

A permutation of a set X is a function $\sigma : X \rightarrow X$, i.e., one-to-one and onto. Alternatively, a permutation of a set A is a function from A into B , i.e., both one-to-one and onto symbolically $\phi : A \rightarrow B$.

For example, suppose $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ and σ is the permutation given by as shown in the Fig. 16.7, then σ can be written in a standard notation as

$$\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 4 & 2 & 5 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

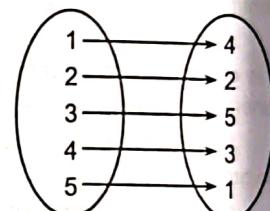


Fig. 16.7

Example 1 : Consider a set X containing 3 objects say triangle (Δ), a circle (\circ) and a rectangle (\square). A permutation of $X = \{\Delta, \circ, \square\}$ is a function $\sigma : X \rightarrow S$ defined as $\sigma(\Delta) = \Delta$, $\sigma(\circ) = \square$, $\sigma(\square) = \circ$, i.e., $\Delta \rightarrow \Delta$, $\circ \rightarrow \square$, $\square \rightarrow \circ$ respectively.

Since, what matters for a permutation is how many objects we have and not the nature of the objects. The permutation of above example can be rewritten as $\sigma : \{1, 2, 3\} \rightarrow \{1, 2, 3\}$, such that

$$\sigma(1) = 1, \sigma(2) = 3, \sigma(3) = 2 \text{ or } \sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

If A is a finite set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ then the group of all permutations of A is the symmetric group on n letters, denoted by S_n and has $n!$ elements where $n! = n(n-1)(n-2)\dots 2 \cdot 1$.

Every permutation has an inverse, the inverse permutation (A permutation is a bijection).

Example 2 : If $n = 1$, S_1 contains only one element, the permutation identity.

Example 3 : If $n = 2$, then $X = \{1, 2\}$ and we have only two permutations

$$\sigma_1 : 1 \rightarrow 1, 2 \rightarrow 2 \text{ and } \sigma_2 : 1 \rightarrow 2, 2 \rightarrow 1 \text{ and } S_2 = \{\sigma_1, \sigma_2\}.$$

The Cayley Table of S_2 is as like as adjoining table.

Consider (G, \circ) be a permutation group of a set $H = \{1, 2, 3\}$. A binary relation on H , is called binary relation induced by (G, \circ) , is defined to be s.t. element 1 is related to element 2 iff their is a permutation in G that map 1 into 2. For example, consider

$$G = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

	σ_1	σ_2
σ_1	σ_1	σ_2
σ_2	σ_2	σ_1

32. Let $(G_1, *_1)$ and $(G_2, *_2)$ be two groups. Prove that (S, \odot) is a group where $S = G_1 \times G_2$ and $(a_1, a_2) \odot (b_1, b_2) = (a_1 *_1 b_1, a_2 *_2 b_2)$.

33. Prove that $G = \{x \mid x^4 = 1\}$ is a group under multiplication.

34. Let Z_n denote the set of integers $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, (n-1)\}$. Let \odot be the binary operation on Z_n such that $a \odot b =$ the remainder of ab divided by n .

(i) construct the table for the operation \odot for $n = 4$.

(ii) Is Z_n a group for any n ?

[Ans. : (ii) $G = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ is an Abelian group under multiplication modulo 5. But $G = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ is not a group under multiplication modulo 6. See Ex. 7, 8, page 16-43 and Ex. 14 page 16-44.]

35. Let S_3 be the set of bijective functions that can be defined on the set $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$. And $*$ be the operation of composition of functions of the form $f \circ g$. Prove that $(S_3, *)$ is a group. Is it Abelian? (See Ex. 21, page 16-23)

(M.U. 2006) [Ans. : No]

12. Isomorphism and Homomorphism

(a) Isomorphism of groups

Definition : If $(G_1, *_1)$ and $(G_2, *_2)$ are groups, then $f : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ is an **isomorphism** from G_1 to G_2 if (i) f is a bijection (i.e. one-to-one and onto) and (ii) $f(a *_1 b) = f(a) *_2 f(b)$.

If such a function exists, then G_1 is said to be **isomorphic** to G_2 .

(b) Homomorphism of groups

Definition : If $(G_1, *_1)$ and $(G_2, *_2)$ are groups then $f : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ is an **homomorphism** from G_1 to G_2 if for any $a, b \in G_1$

$$f(a *_1 b) = f(a) *_2 f(b)$$

Example 1 : Let G be the group of integers under addition and G' be the group of even integers under addition. Show that the function $f : G \rightarrow G'$ defined by $f(a) = 2a$ is an isomorphism.

(M.U. 2003, 06, 10, 12)

Sol. : Suppose $f(a_1) = f(a_2) \quad \therefore 2a_1 = 2a_2 \quad \therefore a_1 = a_2$.

Hence, f is one-to-one.

Suppose b is an even integer i.e. $b \in G'$.

Then $2a = b \therefore a = (b/2) \in G_1$ and $f(a) = f(b/2) = 2(b/2) = b$.

$\therefore f$ is onto.

Here, $*_1$ and $*_2$ both are addition operations.

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore f(a *_1 b) &= f(a + b) = 2(a + b) = 2a + 2b \\ &= f(a) *_2 f(b) \end{aligned}$$

Hence, f is a isomorphism.

Example 2 : Let G be the group of real numbers under addition and G' be the group of positive real under multiplication. Let $f : G \rightarrow G'$ be defined by $f(x) = e^x$. (M.U. 1999, 2003)

Show that f is an isomorphism.

Sol. : Suppose $f(a_1) = f(a_2) \quad \therefore e^{a_1} = e^{a_2} \quad \therefore a_1 = a_2$.

Hence, f is one-to-one.

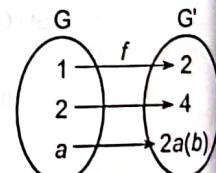


Fig. 16.9

Some Algebraic Structures
roup where $S = G_1 \times G_2$ and
(M.U. 2001)

the binary operation on Z_n
modulo 5. But

50) [Ans. 14]

sm from G_1

the group of even
is an isomorphism.
(M.U. 2003, 06, 10, 12)

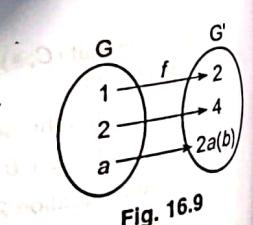


Fig. 16.9

and G' be the group of
x. (M.U. 1999, 2003)

Applied Mathematics - IV

(16-46)

Suppose b is a positive real number i.e. $b \rightarrow G'$.
Then $b = e^a \therefore a = \log b$.

and $f(a) = f(\log b) = e^{\log b} = b$.

Now, $f(a *_1 b) = f(a + b) = e^{a+b}$
 $= e^a \cdot e^b = f(a) *_2 f(b)$

$\therefore f$ is an isomorphism.

Some Algebraic Structures

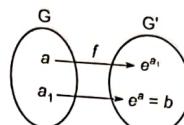


Fig. 16.10

Example 3 : Let R^+ be the set of all positive real numbers. Show that the function $f: R^+ \rightarrow R$ defined by $f(x) = \ln x$ is an isomorphism of the semi-group (R^+, \times) to the semi-group $(R^+, +)$ where \times and $+$ are ordinary multiplication and addition respectively.

Sol. : (i) Since $f(x) = \ln x = \log_e x$ if $f(a) = f(b)$ i.e., $\ln a = \ln b$, then $a = b$.
 $\therefore f$ is one-to-one.

(ii) If $c \in R$, then $e^c \in R$ and $f(e^c) = \ln e^c = c \ln e = c \in R^+$
 $\therefore f$ is onto.

(iii) Now, $f(a \times b) = \ln(a \times b) = \ln a + \ln b = f(a) + f(b)$
 $\therefore f$ is an isomorphism.

Example 4 : Show that the additive group Z_4 is isomorphic to multiplicative group of non-zero elements of Z_5 . (M.U. 2006)

Sol. : We have the following tables for the additive group G of Z_4 and multiplicative group of G' of (non-zero) Z_5 ,

+	0	1	2	3
0	0	1	2	3
1	1	2	3	0
2	2	3	0	1
3	3	0	1	2

\times	1	2	3	4
1	1	2	3	4
2	2	4	1	3
3	3	1	4	2
4	4	3	2	1

\times	1	3	4	2
1	1	3	4	2
3	3	4	2	1
4	4	2	1	3
2	2	1	3	4

Now, we write the table of \times taking the second column last and second row last.

Clearly, now we can see that $G \rightarrow G'$ where the mapping is $0 \rightarrow 1$, $1 \rightarrow 3$, $2 \rightarrow 4$, $3 \rightarrow 2$ is a isomorphism.

Example 5 : If ω denotes the cube root of unity, show that $G = \{1, \omega, \omega^2\}$ is isomorphic to $(Z_3, +_3)$.

Sol. : We have the following tables for \times and $+$.

\times	1	ω	ω^2
1	1	ω	ω^2
ω	ω	ω^2	1
ω^2	ω^2	1	ω

+	0	1	2
0	0	1	2
1	1	2	0
2	2	0	1

Clearly, $G \rightarrow G'$ where the mapping is $1 \rightarrow 0$, $\omega \rightarrow 1$ and $\omega^2 \rightarrow 2$ is an isomorphism.

Example 6 : Show that (G, \times) where $G = \{1, -1, i, -i\}$ and $(Z_4, +_4)$ are isomorphic.

Sol. : We first prepare the following tables for \times and $+$.

\times	1	-1	i	$-i$	$+$	0	1	2	3
1	1	-1	i	$-i$	0	0	1	2	3
-1	-1	1	$-i$	i	1	1	2	3	0
i	i	$-i$	-1	1	2	2	3	0	1
$-i$	$-i$	i	1	-1	3	3	0	1	2

Clearly $G \rightarrow G'$ where the mapping is $1 \rightarrow 0, -1 \rightarrow 2, i \rightarrow 1$ and $-i \rightarrow 3$ is a isomorphism.

Example 7 : If a function f is an isomorphism from a semi-group $(S, *)$ to another semi-group $(T, *')$, show that f^{-1} is also an isomorphism from $(T, *')$ to $(S, *)$. (M.U. 2002, 15)

Sol. : Since $f: S \rightarrow T$ is an isomorphism, f is one-to-one from S to T .

i.e., $f(a * b) = f(a) *' f(b)$ for all a, b in S .

$\therefore f^{-1}$ exists and is also one to one from T to S .

Now, suppose a', b' are elements of T .

Since f is onto we can always find elements a, b in S , such that

$$f(a) = a', f(b) = b'$$

Hence, $a = f^{-1}(a')$ and $b = f^{-1}(b')$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, } f'(a'*' b') &= f^{-1}[f(a) *' f(b)] \\ &= f^{-1}[f(a * b)] \quad [\text{By (1)}] \\ &= a * b \\ &= f^{-1}(a') * f^{-1}(b') \end{aligned}$$

\therefore Hence, f^{-1} is an isomorphism.

Example 8 : Show that if a function f is an isomorphism from a group $(G, *)$ to another group $(G', *')$ then show that f^{-1} is also an isomorphism from $(G, *')$ to $(G, *)$. (M.U. 2006)

Sol. : Left to you.

Example 9 : If f is homomorphism from a commutative semigroup $(S, *)$ onto a semigroup $(T, *')$ then prove that $(T, *')$ is also commutative. (M.U. 2002, 08, 13)

Sol. : Let t_1 and t_2 be any two elements of T .

Since f is homomorphic there exist s_1 and s_2 in S , such that $t_1 = f(s_1)$ and $t_2 = f(s_2)$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence, } t_1 *' t_2 &= f(s_1) *' f(s_2) \\ &= f(s_1 * s_2) \\ &= f(s_2 * s_1) \quad [\because S \text{ is a commutative group}] \\ \therefore t_1 *' t_2 &= f(s_2) *' f(s_1) = t_2 *' t_1 \\ \therefore (T, *') \text{ is also commutative.} \end{aligned}$$

13. Ring

So far we have studied structures of a set under one operation. We shall now study a set with two operations $+$ and \cdot on its elements. This gives rise to two important algebraic structures viz. rings and fields. Rings have structures similar to natural numbers and fields have structures similar to real numbers with respect to the operations of addition and multiplication.

Applied Mathematics - IV

(Ring) Definition : A ring is a set R with two binary operations $+$ and \cdot on R such that $(R, +)$ is a commutative group and (R, \cdot) is a semigroup. R is called a ring if $a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$ for all $a, b, c \in R$.

Properties of Rings :

1. The set of all integers \mathbb{Z}
2. The set of all real numbers \mathbb{R}
3. The set of all matrices $M_{m,n}$
4. The set of complex numbers \mathbb{C}

Remark : The binary operation $+$ is commutative, the identity of $(R, +)$ is denoted by 0 , the inverse of a is denoted by $-a$ and $a + (-a) = 0$. The binary operation \cdot is not necessarily commutative, the identity of (R, \cdot) is denoted by 1 , the inverse of a is denoted by a^{-1} and $a \cdot a^{-1} = 1$. In general $a \cdot b \neq b \cdot a$.

(Commutative Ring) Definition : A ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is called a commutative ring if $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$ for all $a, b \in R$.

Ring with Unity

Definition : A ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is called a ring with unity if there exists an element $1 \in R$ such that $a \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot a = a$ for all $a \in R$.

Ring with Zero Divisors

A ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is called a ring with zero divisors if there exist $a, b \in R$ such that $a \neq 0$ and $b \neq 0$ but $a \cdot b = 0$.

In this case a and b are called zero divisors. For example, we know that $0 \cdot a = a \cdot 0 = 0$ for all $a \in R$.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Definition : A ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is called a field if $a \neq 0$ or $b \neq 0$ or both $a \cdot b = 0$.

This means in a ring with unity, if $a \neq 0$ and $b \neq 0$ then $a \cdot b \neq 0$.

i.e. If $ab = ac$, then $b = c$.

Properties of Commutative Rings :

Example 1 : Let R be a commutative ring with unity. Then $a^2 = a$ for all $a \in R$.

Example 2 : Let R be a commutative ring with unity. Then $a^3 = a$ for all $a \in R$.

(Ring) Definition : A ring is an ordered triple $(R, +, \cdot)$ where R is a non-empty set and $+$ and \cdot

$R1 : (R, +)$ is a commutative group satisfying the following axioms.

$R2 : (a \cdot b)$, $c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ for all $a, b, c \in R$.

$R3 : a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$ and $(b + c) \cdot a = b \cdot a + c \cdot a$ for all $a, b, c \in R$ (\cdot is associative)

Examples of Rings

- a) The set of all integers is a ring (with unity) for $*$ and \times .
- b) The set of all real numbers of the form $a + \sqrt{2}b$ is a ring for $+$ and \times .
- c) The set of all matrices of the form $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ is a ring for $+$ and \times .
- d) The set of complex numbers with usual addition and multiplication is a ring.

Remark : ...

The binary operation $+$ and \cdot referred to above are called addition and multiplication. In the same spirit, the identity of $(R, +)$ is denoted by 0 and is called zero. The identity of (R, \cdot) is denoted by 1 and is called unity. The additive inverse of a is denoted by $-a$ and is called minus a . The multiplicative inverse of a is denoted by a^{-1} and is called reciprocal of a . Addition is commutative but multiplication is not.

(Commutative Ring) Definition : A ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is called a commutative ring if $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$ for all $a, b \in R$.

Ring with Unity

Definition : A ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is called a ring with unity or identity if there exists an element $1 \in R$ such that $a \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot a = a$ for all $a \in R$.

Ring with Zero Divisors

A ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is called a ring with zero divisor if for $a, b \in R$, we have $a \cdot b = 0$ but $a \neq 0$, $b \neq 0$. In this case a and b are called proper zero divisors.

For example, we know that, we can find two matrices A, B such that $A \cdot B = 0$ but $A \neq 0, B \neq 0$.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Definition : A ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is called a ring without zero divisor if for all $a, b \in R$, $ab = 0$ then $a = 0$ or $b = 0$ or both $a \neq 0, b \neq 0$.

This means in a ring without zero divisors, the left cancellation law and right cancellation laws hold.

i.e. If $ab = ac$, then $b = c$ and if $ba = ca$ then $b = c$.

Examples of Commutative Rings

Example 1 : Let R be the set of integers, positive, negative, and 0 ; $+$ is the usual addition and \cdot is the usual multiplication. Then $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a commutative ring with unity.

Example 2 : Let R be the set of even integers with usual operations of addition and multiplication. Then $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a commutative ring without unity.

Example 3 : Let R be the set of rational numbers with usual operations of addition and multiplication. Then R is a commutative ring with unity. (It is also a field). (See § 15)

Example 4 : Let $R = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ and \oplus and \otimes be two operations of addition and addition modulo 7. Then, (R, \oplus, \otimes) is a commutative ring with unity. (It is also a field). (See § 15)

The set $Z_m = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, (m-1)\}$ under the operations of addition and multiplication modulo m is called a ring of integers modulo m . If m is a prime the Z_m is a field. (See § 15)

Example 5 : Let $R = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ and \oplus and \otimes be two operations of multiplication modulo 6. Then (R, \otimes, \oplus) is a ring. (But it is not a field). It is a ring with zero divisors. (See § 15)

Example 6 : Prove that Z_4 is a ring under addition and multiplication modulo 4. (M.U. 2004)

Sol. : The addition and multiplication table for Z_4 modulo 4 are given below.

+	0	1	2	3	x	0	1	2	3
0	0	1	2	3		0	0	0	0
1	1	2	3	0		1	0	1	2
2	2	3	0	1		2	0	2	0
3	3	0	1	2		3	0	3	2

$R1 : (R; \oplus)$ is a commutative group.

$R2 : (a \oplus b) \oplus c = a \oplus (b \oplus c)$ for all $a, b, c \in R$. X is associative.

$R3 : a \oplus (b + c) = a \oplus b + a \oplus c$.

e.g. $2 \oplus (3 + 1) = 2 \oplus 0 = 0$ and $2 \times 3 + 2 \times 1 = 2 + 2 = 0$

and $(b + c) \times a = b \times a + c \times a$ for all $a, b, c \in R$.

$\therefore \times$ distributes over \oplus . Hence, $(Z_4, +, \times)$ is a ring.

Example 7 : Prove that Z_5 is a ring under addition and multiplication modulo 5. (M.U. 2005)

Sol. : The addition and multiplication tables for Z_5 modulo 5 are given below.

+	0	1	2	3	4	x	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	1	2	3	4		0	0	0	0	0
1	1	2	3	4	0		1	0	1	2	3
2	2	3	4	0	1		2	0	2	4	1
3	3	4	0	1	2		3	0	3	1	4
4	4	0	1	2	3		4	0	4	3	2

Verification that $(R, +, \times)$ is a ring is left to you.

Example 8 : Prove that $R = \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8\}$ is a commutative ring under addition and multiplication modulo 10.

Sol. : The addition and multiplication tables are given below.

+	0	2	4	6	8	x	0	2	4	6	8
0	0	2	4	6	8		0	0	0	0	0
2	2	4	6	8	0		2	0	4	8	2
4	4	6	8	0	2		4	0	8	6	4
6	6	8	0	2	4		6	0	2	4	6
8	8	0	2	4	6		8	0	6	2	8

Verification that $(R, +, \times)$ is a ring is left to you.

Example 9 : Let $A = \{a, b, c, d\}$ an

If R is a ring with identity and unit element.

(a) Is it a commutative ring?

(b) Find the additive inverse of each

(c) Commutative Ring

(d) It's easy to see that A is closed.

(e) Because, $(a + b) + c = b + c =$

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

+ is associative.

(f) From the first row and the first col.

(g) Since $a + b = b$ and $b + a = b$ is

(h) since for every element additive i

(i) From the second table we see that

(j) $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot c = a$ and

(k) is associative.

(l) You can establish distributivity. H

(m) As seen above a is the additive identit

(n) From the table we see that the inverse

(o) inverse of d is b .

(p) If $x, y \in Z$ and the operati

(q) Example 10 : If $x, y \in Z$ and the operati

(r) Prove that $(Z, +, \otimes)$ is a ring.

Sol. : See Ex. 3 of § 15.

Example 11 : Show that the set $R = \{1, 1/x\}$ is

addition and multiplication.

Sol. : See Ex. 2 of § 15.

(c) Basic Properties

If R is a ring with identity and unit element.

(i) $a \cdot 0 = 0 \cdot a = 0$

(ii) $a \cdot (-b) = (-a) \cdot b =$

(iii) $(-a) \cdot (-b) =$

(iv) unit element

(v) $(-1) \cdot a = a \cdot (-1) =$

(vi) $(-1) \cdot (-1) =$

Applied Mathematics - IV

(16-50)

Some Algebraic Structures

Example 9 : Let $A = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and let the operations $+$ and \cdot be defined by the following tables.

$+$	a	b	c	d	\cdot	a	b	c	d
a	a	b	c	d	a	a	a	a	a
b	b	c	d	a	b	a	c	a	c
c	c	d	a	b	c	a	a	a	a
d	d	a	b	c	d	a	c	a	a

- (a) Is it a commutative ring ? (b) Does it have an identity ?
 (c) Find the additive inverse of each element of A .

(M.U. 2007)

Sol. : (a) **Commutative Ring**

- (i) It is easy to see that A is closed under $+$ and also under \cdot .
 (ii) Because, $(a+b)+c = b+c=c$
 and $a+(b+c) = a+c=c$
 $\therefore +$ is associative.
 (iii) From the first row and the first column we see that a is the additive identity.
 (iv) Since $a+b=b$ and $b+a=b$ is true for all elements and
 (v) since for every element additive inverse exists $(R, +)$ is a commutative group.
 (vi) From the second table we see that

$$(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot c = a \quad \text{and} \quad a \cdot (b \cdot c) = a \cdot a = a = (a \cdot a) \cdot a$$

$\therefore \cdot$ is associative.

(vii) You can establish distributivity. Hence, $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a ring.

- (b) As seen above a is the additive identity.
 (c) From the table we see that the inverse of a is a , the inverse of b is d , the inverse of c is c , the inverse of d is b .

Example 10 : If $x, y \in Z$ and the operations \oplus, \otimes are defined by

$$x \oplus y = x + y - 1 \quad \text{and} \quad x \otimes y = x + y - xy$$

(M.U. 2003, 04, 05)

Prove that (Z, \oplus, \otimes) is a ring.**Sol. :** See Ex. 3 of § 15.

Example 11 : Show that the set $R = \{x \mid x = a + b\sqrt{2}, a, b \text{ are integers}\}$ is a ring under usual addition and multiplication.

(M.U. 2003, 06)

Sol. : See Ex. 2 of § 15.**(c) Basic Properties**

If R is a ring with identity 0 and unit element 1 then for all elements $a, b, c \in R$.

(M.U. 2005)

- (i) $a \cdot 0 = 0 \cdot a = 0$
- (ii) $a \cdot (-b) = (-a) \cdot b = -(a \cdot b)$
- (iii) $(-a) \cdot (-b) = a \cdot b$
- (iv) unit element is unique.
- (v) $(-1) \cdot a = -a$
- (vi) $(-1) \cdot (-1) = 1$

Sol. : (i) We have

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot 0 &= a \cdot (0 + 0) & [\because 0 + 0 = 0] \\ &= a \cdot 0 + a \cdot 0 & [\because \text{left distributive law}] \\ \therefore 0 + a \cdot 0 &= a \cdot 0 + a \cdot 0 & [\because 0 + a \cdot 0 = a \cdot 0] \\ \therefore 0 &= a \cdot 0 & [\because \text{right cancellation law}] \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, we have

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \cdot a &= (0 + 0) \cdot a & [\because 0 + 0 = 0] \\ &= 0 \cdot a + 0 \cdot a & [\because \text{right distributive law}] \\ \therefore 0 + 0 \cdot a &= 0 \cdot a + 0 \cdot a & [\because 0 + 0 \cdot a = 0 \cdot a] \\ \therefore 0 &= 0 \cdot a & [\because \text{right cancellation law}] \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $a \cdot 0 = 0 \cdot a = a$

(ii) Consider

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot (-b) + a \cdot b &= a \cdot (-b + b) & [\because \text{left distributive law}] \\ &= a \cdot 0 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $a \cdot b$ is the inverse of $a \cdot (-b)$ which is unique.

$$a \cdot (-b) = - (a \cdot b)$$

Similarly, we can prove that,

$$(-a) \cdot b = - (a \cdot b)$$

$$\therefore a \cdot (-b) = (-a) \cdot b = - (a \cdot b)$$

(iii) We have

$$\begin{aligned} (-a) \cdot (-b) &= -[(-a) \cdot b] & [\because a \cdot (-b) = - (a \cdot b)] \\ &= -[-(a \cdot b)] & [\because (-a) \cdot b = - (a \cdot b)] \\ &= a \cdot b & [\because -(-a) = a] \end{aligned}$$

(iv) If possible, suppose there is another unit element $1'$ with the same properties as 1.

$$\therefore 1 \cdot 1' = 1' \cdot 1 = 1' \quad [\because 1 \text{ is unit element}]$$

$$\text{But } 1 \cdot 1' = 1 \quad [\because 1' \text{ is unit element}]$$

$$\therefore 1' = 1$$

∴ The unit element is unique.

$$\begin{aligned} (v) \quad (-1) \cdot a &= - (1 \cdot a) & [\because (-a) \cdot b = - (a \cdot b)] \\ &= -a & [\because 1 \text{ is unity}] \end{aligned}$$

(vi) Replacing a and b by 1 in (iii) we get (vi).

(d) Subring

Analogous to the subgroup we have a subring.

Definition : A subset $R \subseteq S$ is a ring where $(S, +, \cdot)$ is a ring is called a **subring** of S .

In other words if $(S, +, \cdot)$ is a ring then a subset R of S is called a subring if R has all the properties of a ring.

Examples : (i) The ring of even integers is a subring of the ring of integers.

(ii) In general for any positive integer n , the set $n\mathbb{Z} = \{ nm \mid m \in \mathbb{Z} \}$ is a subring of \mathbb{Z} .

(iii) The ring of rationals is a subring of the ring of reals.

Homomorphism, Automorphism
We have learnt what we define these concepts with Homomorphism of rings
A mapping $\Phi : R \rightarrow S$ is
(i) $\Phi(a + b) = \Phi(a) + \Phi(b)$
and (ii) $\Phi(a \cdot b) = \Phi(a) \cdot \Phi(b)$
Isomorphism of rings
A mapping $\Phi : R \rightarrow S$ is
(i) $\Phi(a + b) = \Phi(a) + \Phi(b)$
(ii) $\Phi(a \cdot b) = \Phi(a) \cdot \Phi(b)$
and (iii) Φ is one-to-one and onto
Automorphism of rings

Example : If $\Phi : (R, +, \cdot)$ is a ring and $a \in R$.

: Since $\Phi : R \rightarrow S$ is a mapping, $\Phi(a + b) = \Phi(a) + \Phi(b)$

and $\Phi(a \cdot b) = \Phi(a) \cdot \Phi(b)$

Now put $a = -1$ and $b = 1$

$$\therefore \Phi(-1 + 1) = \Phi(-1) + \Phi(1)$$

$$\therefore \Phi(0) = \Phi(-1) + \Phi(1)$$

1. Show that the set of real numbers and multiplication is a subring of \mathbb{C} .

2. Show that the set of integers modulo 5 is a subring of \mathbb{Z} .

3. Show that the set of 2x2 matrices of real numbers is a subring of the set of all 2x2 matrices.

4. If R is the set of rational numbers with respect to addition and multiplication, is $(f \cdot g)x = f(x)g(x)$ true?

5. If R is a set of functions from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R} defined by $(a *_1 b)(x) = a(x) + b(x)$, is it a subring of $\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}}$? Has it a unity?

6. If Z is a set of integers with respect to addition and multiplication, is $a *_1 b = a + b$ its 'zero'? Has it a unity?

$= 0$
 distributive law
 $a \cdot 0 = 0$
 cancellation law

$= 0$
 distributive law
 $a = 0 \cdot a$

cancelation law

(e) **Homomorphism, Automorphism and Isomorphism**

We have learnt what we mean by homomorphism, automorphism and isomorphism. We shall now define these concepts with reference to rings.

Homomorphism of ring : Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ and $(S, +', \cdot')$ be two rings.

A mapping $\Phi : R \rightarrow S$ is called a **ring homomorphism** if for $a, b \in R$,

$$(i) \Phi(a + b) = \Phi(a) +' \Phi(b)$$

and (ii) $\Phi(a \cdot b) = \Phi(a) \cdot' \Phi(b)$

Isomorphism of ring : Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ and $(S, +', \cdot')$ be two rings.

A mapping $\Phi : R \rightarrow S$ is called a **ring isomorphism** if for $a, b \in R$,

$$(i) \Phi(a + b) = \Phi(a) +' \Phi(b)$$

$$(ii) \Phi(a \cdot b) = \Phi(a) \cdot' \Phi(b)$$

and (iii) Φ is one-to-one.

Automorphism of ring : If Φ is an isomorphism from R on to itself then Φ is called an **automorphism**.

Example : If $\Phi : (R, +, \cdot) \rightarrow (S, +', \cdot')$ is a ring homomorphism then prove that $\Phi(-a) = -\Phi(a)$ for all $a \in R$. (M.U. 2004)

Soln : Since $\Phi : R \rightarrow S$ is a homomorphism by definition for $a, b \in R$,

$$\Phi(a + b) = \Phi(a) +' \Phi(b)$$

$$\text{and } \Phi(a \cdot b) = \Phi(a) \cdot' \Phi(b)$$

Now put $a = -1$ and $b = a$,

$$\therefore \Phi(-1 \cdot a) = \Phi(-1) \cdot' \Phi(a)$$

$$= -1 \cdot' \Phi(a)$$

$$\therefore \Phi(-a) = -\Phi(a).$$

EXERCISE - III

- Show that the set $R = \{x | x = a + b\sqrt{2}, a, b \text{ integers}\}$ is a ring with ordinary addition and multiplication.
- Show that the set $R = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$ is a ring with respect to addition and multiplication modulo 5. (M.U. 2008)
- Show that the set of all $n \times n$ matrices is a ring with respect to addition and multiplication of matrices.
- If R is the set of all continuous functions defined on $[0, 1]$ then prove that R is a ring with respect to addition and multiplication of functions defined by $(f+g)x = f(x) + g(x)$ and $(f \cdot g)x = f(x) \cdot g(x)$.
- If R is a set of all real numbers and $*_1$ and $*_2$ are two operations defined on R such that $a *_1 b = a + b - 5$ and $a *_2 b = 5$, prove that $(R, *_1, *_2)$ is a commutative ring. What is its 'zero'? Has it zero divisors?

[Ans. : 5 is its zero. Yes, it has zero divisors]

- If Z is a set of integers and $*_1$ and $*_2$ are two operations defined on Z such that $a *_1 b = a + b - 1$ and $a *_2 b = a + b - ab$, prove that $(Z, *_1, *_2)$ is a commutative ring. What is its 'zero'? Is it a ring with unity?

[Ans. : Zero. Yes]

a subring of S .
 a subring if R has all the
 properties of integers.
 $\{ \}$ is a subring of Z .

7. If $R = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and $+$ and \times are defined on S by the following tables, prove that $(R, +, \times)$ is a ring.

$+$	a	b	c	d	\times	a	b	c	d
a	a	b	c	d	a	a	a	a	a
b	b	a	d	c	b	a	a	b	a
c	c	d	b	a	c	a	b	c	d
d	d	c	a	b	d	a	a	d	a

8. Prove that $(M, +, \cdot)$ where M is the set of all non-singular square matrices of order n is a ring under usual addition and multiplication of matrices.

9. Prove that $(M, +, \cdot)$ where M is the set of all matrices of the form $\begin{bmatrix} a+ib & c+id \\ -c+id & a-ib \end{bmatrix}$ and $a, b, c, d \in R$ and $i^2 = -1$ is a ring under usual addition and multiplication of matrices.

10. Prove that $(R, +, \cdot)$ where $R = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$ is a ring under addition modulo 5 and multiplication modulo 5.

11. Let Z be the set of integers and $a \oplus b = a + b + 1$, $a \odot b = a + b + ab$ for all $a, b \in Z$. Show that (Z, \oplus, \odot) is a ring. Is it a commutative ring? What is the zero of the ring? Is it a ring with unity?

[Ans.: It is commutative ring. Zero of the ring is -1 and 0 is its unity.]

12. Show that the set of all matrices of the form $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & a \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix}$ is a non-commutative ring with respect to addition and multiplication of matrices for every $a, b \in Q$. (M.U. 2002)

13. Show that the set of all 2×2 matrices of the type $M = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$, $a, b, c, d \in Z$ under usual matrix multiplication and addition is a ring. Is it commutative? What is the zero of the ring? What is the unity of the ring?

[Ans.: (i) Non-commutative, (ii) $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is the zero of the ring,

(iii) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is the unity of the ring.]

14. Let Z be the set of integers. Let \oplus and \odot be defined as $a \oplus b = a + b$ and $a \odot b = 0$ for all $a, b \in Z$. Is (Z, \oplus, \odot) a ring? Is it commutative? Does it have a unity?

[Ans.: (i) Yes, (ii) Yes, (iii) No]

14. Integral Domain

Definition 1 : (Integral Domain) : A commutative ring with unity without zero divisors is called an **Integral domain**.

An integral domain can also be defined more explicitly as :

Definition 2 : (Integral Domain) : A ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is called an **integral domain** if the following axioms hold.

11: It is a commutative ring.
12: It is a ring with unity.

13: It is a ring without zero divisors.

Properties of Integral Domain

1. The set $(Z, +, \cdot)$ is an integral domain.

2. The set $(Q, +, \cdot)$ is an integral domain.

3. But the set of even integers is not an integral domain because it does not have a unity.

Example 1 : Let $M = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix}$

Is $(M, +, \cdot)$ an integral domain?

Closure

Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} b & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix}$, $a, b \in Z$

Then $A + B = \begin{bmatrix} a+b & 0 \\ 0 & a+b \end{bmatrix}$

and $AB = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix}$

$\therefore M$ is closed under addition.

I1: Consider $(M, +)$

(i) Matrix addition is associative.

(ii) Since $\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix}$

(iii) Since $\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix}$

(iv) Matrix addition is commutative.

$\therefore (M, +)$ is a commutative group.

(v) For matrices $A \cdot (B + C) = AB + AC$

Hence, \cdot distributes over $+$.

Hence, $(M, +, \cdot)$ is a commutative ring.

I2: Consider $(M, +, \cdot)$

Since $\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix}$

\therefore Multiplicative identity exists.

Hence, $(M, +, \cdot)$ is a ring with unity.

53) Some Algebraic Structures
defined on S by the following tables, prove that

\times	a	b	c	d
a	a	a	a	a
b	a	a	b	a
c	a	b	c	d
d	a	a	d	a

All non-singular square matrices of order n is a
set of matrices.

All matrices of the form $\begin{bmatrix} a+ib & c+id \\ -c+id & a-ib \end{bmatrix}$
under usual addition and multiplication of matrices.

$\{3, 4\}$ is a ring under addition modulo 5 and
 $b+1, a \oplus b$

$\in \mathbb{Z}$. Show
Is it a ring

$\{3, 4\}$ is a
closed under
is the unity.)

It is
closed under
is the unity.)

$a \oplus b = 0$ for
unity?

(ii) Yes, (iii) No]

without zero divisors is called

following

Applied Mathematics - IV

(16-54)

Some Algebraic Structures

I 1 : It is a commutative ring.

I 2 : It is a ring with unity.

I 3 : It is a ring without zero divisors.

Examples of Integral Domain

1. The set $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ is an integral domain.
2. The set $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \cdot)$ is an integral domain.
3. But the set of even integers including zero with usual addition and multiplication is not an integral domain because it does not have multiplicative identity.

Example 1 : Let $M = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} \mid a \in R \right\}$ and let $+$ and \cdot denote usual matrix addition and multiplication.

Is $(M, +, \cdot)$ an integral domain?

Sol. : Closure

$$\text{Let } A = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} b & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix}, a, b \in R.$$

$$\text{Then } A + B = \begin{bmatrix} a+b & 0 \\ 0 & a+b \end{bmatrix} \in M$$

$$\text{and } AB = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ab & 0 \\ 0 & ab \end{bmatrix} \in M$$

$\therefore M$ is closed under addition and multiplication.

I 1 : Consider $(M, +)$

(i) Matrix addition is associative.

(ii) Since $\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix}$ for all $a \in R$, additive identity exists.

(iii) Since $\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -a & 0 \\ 0 & -a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, additive inverse exists.

(iv) Matrix addition is commutative.

$\therefore (M, +)$ is a commutative group.

(v) For matrices $A \cdot (B+C) = A \cdot B + A \cdot C$ and $(B+C) \cdot A = B \cdot A + C \cdot A$.

Hence, \cdot distributes over $+$.

Hence, $(M, +, \cdot)$ is a commutative ring.

I 2 : Consider $(M, +, \cdot)$

$$\text{Since } \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix}.$$

\therefore Multiplicative identity exists.

Hence, $(M, +, \cdot)$ is a ring with unity.

I 3 : Consider again $(M, +, \cdot)$

$$\text{Since } \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ab & 0 \\ 0 & ab \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and } \begin{bmatrix} b & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ba & 0 \\ 0 & ba \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence, $(M, +, \cdot)$ is a commutative ring with unity but without zero divisors.

$\therefore (M, +, \cdot)$ is an integral domain.

Example 2 : If addition and multiplication modulo 10 are defined on the set of integers $R = \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8\}$ then show that the system is an integral domain. (M.U. 2006, 07)

Sol. : Refer to Ex. 8 § 13. Yes. The system is an integral domain.

Example 3 : In an integral domain D . Show that if $ab = ac$ with $a \neq 0$ then $b = c$. (M.U. 1998)

Sol. : We have $ab = bc$

Multiply both sides by a^{-1} ,

$$\therefore a^{-1}(ab) = a^{-1}(ac)$$

$$\therefore (a^{-1}a)b = (a^{-1}a)c$$

[associativity]

$$eb = ec$$

[inverse]

$$\therefore b = c$$

[e is identity]

15. Field

Definition 1 (Field) : A commutative ring with unity and multiplicative inverse for each non-zero element is called a field.

A field can be defined in a more explicit way as follows.

Definition 2 (Field) : A field is an ordered triplet $(F, +, \cdot)$ where F is a non-empty set and $+$ and \cdot are two binary operations on F satisfying the following axioms.

F1 : $(F, +)$ is a commutative group.

F2 : $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ for all $a, b, c \in F$ (\cdot is commutative.)

F3 : $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$

and $(b + c) \cdot a = b \cdot a + c \cdot a$ for all $a, b, c \in F$ (\cdot distributes over $+$).

F4 : $(F \setminus 0, \cdot)$ is a commutative group.

Clearly, because of **F4**, a field is a commutative ring with unity in which every non-zero element has multiplicative inverse.

Example 1 : Show that the set of integers Z is a ring under addition and multiplication. Is it a field?

Sol. : **Closure** - Clearly Z is closed under $+$ and \cdot .

R1 : Consider $(Z, +)$

(i) Since for all integers $a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c$, addition is associative.

(ii) Since $a + 0 = 0 + a$ for all $a \in Z$, additive identity exists.

(iii) Since we have $-a$ corresponding to every $a \in Z$ such that

$$a + (-a) = (-a) + a = 0,$$

for every element $a \in Z$, additive inverse exists.

(iv) Since $a + b = b + a$ for all a, b , $(Z, +)$ is a commutative group.

R2 : $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ for all a, b, c .

R3 : $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$ and $(b + c) \cdot a = b \cdot a + c \cdot a$.

Hence, \cdot distributes over $+$.

Hence, $(Z, +, \cdot)$ is a ring.

However, no element of Z except 1 has a multiplicative inverse. For such a number a such that $2a = 1$.

$\therefore (Z \setminus 0, \cdot)$ is not a group.

Example 2 : Show that the set $F = \{x + b\sqrt{2}, y + c\sqrt{2} \mid x, y, b, c \in \mathbb{Q}\}$ is a field under addition and multiplication.

Closure - Let $x = a + b\sqrt{2}$, $y = c + d\sqrt{2}$

Since, $x + y = (a + b\sqrt{2}) + (c + d\sqrt{2})$

and $xy = (a + b\sqrt{2})(c + d\sqrt{2})$

$$= (ac + 2bd) + \sqrt{2}(ad + bc)$$

and since $(a + c), (b + d), (ac + 2bd), (ad + bc)$ are rational numbers, F is closed under addition $+$ and multiplication \cdot .

F1 : Consider $(F, +)$.

(i) Since for all rational numbers x, y

$$x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z$$

(ii) Since $(a + b\sqrt{2}) + (0 + 0\sqrt{2}) = a + b\sqrt{2}$

(iii) Since $(a + b\sqrt{2}) + (-\sqrt{a - b^2}) = 0$

(iv) Since for rational numbers x, y, z

$$\therefore (F, +)$$
 is a commutative group.

F2 : It can be shown that $(x \cdot y) \cdot z = x \cdot (y \cdot z)$

Hence, \cdot is associative.

F3 : It can be shown that $x \cdot z = x \cdot z + y \cdot z$ for all $x, y, z \in F$

Hence, \cdot distributes over $+$.

F4 : Consider $(F \setminus 0, \cdot)$,

(i) \cdot is associative as noted in **F3**.

(ii) Since $(a + b\sqrt{2}) \cdot (1 + 0\sqrt{2}) = a + b\sqrt{2}$

(iii) If $x \neq 0$ i.e. if $a \neq 0, b \neq 0$,

$$\frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{a + b\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{a + b\sqrt{2}}$$

where $c = \frac{a}{a^2 - 2b}, d = -\frac{b}{a^2 - 2b}$.

Since $a + b\sqrt{2} \neq 0, a - b\sqrt{2} \neq 0$

Some Algebraic Structures

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ba & 0 \\ 0 & ba \end{bmatrix}$$

t without zero divisors.

Integers
2006, 07

in $a \neq 0$ then $b = c$. (M.U. 1998)

Applied Mathematics - IV

(16-56)

Some Algebraic Structures

(iv) Since $a + b = b + a$ for all $a, b \in Z$, addition is commutative.
 $\therefore (Z, +)$ is a commutative group.

R2 : $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ for all $a, b, c \in Z$. Hence, \cdot is associative.

R3 : $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$ and $(b + c) \cdot a = b \cdot a + c \cdot a$.
Hence, \cdot distributes over $+$.

Hence, $(Z, +, \cdot)$ is a ring.

However, no element of Z except ± 1 has multiplicative inverse. For example, there exists no integer a such that $2a = 1$.

$\therefore (Z \sim 0, \cdot)$ is not a group. $\therefore (Z, +, \cdot)$ is not a field.

Example 2 : Show that the set $F = \{a + b\sqrt{2} \mid a, b \in Q\}$ where a and b are rational numbers is a field under addition and multiplication. (M.U. 2002, 03, 08)

Closure - Let $x = a + b\sqrt{2}$, $y = c + d\sqrt{2}$ where $a, b, c, d \in Q$.

Since, $x + y = (a + b\sqrt{2}) + (c + d\sqrt{2}) = (a + c) + (b + d)\sqrt{2}$

and $xy = (a + b\sqrt{2})(c + d\sqrt{2}) = ac + ad\sqrt{2} + bc\sqrt{2} + 2bd$

$$= (ac + 2bd) + \sqrt{2}(ad + bc)$$

since $(a + c), (b + d), (ac + 2bd), (ad + bc)$ are rational numbers $(x + y)$ and $xy \in F$. Hence, F is closed under addition $+$ and multiplication \cdot .

F1 : Consider $(F, +)$.

(i) Since for all rational numbers addition is associative, we can show that

$$x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z. \quad \therefore \text{Addition is associative.}$$

(ii) Since $(a + b\sqrt{2}) + (0 + 0\sqrt{2}) = a + b\sqrt{2}$, $0 + 0\sqrt{2}$ i.e. $0 \in Q$ is additive identity.

(iii) Since $(a + b\sqrt{2}) + (-\sqrt{a} - b\sqrt{2}) = 0 + 0\sqrt{2}$, for every $a + b\sqrt{2}$, additive inverse exists.

(iv) Since for rational numbers addition is commutative, we can show that $x + y = y + x$.

$\therefore (F, +)$ is a commutative group.

F2 : It can be shown that $(x \cdot y) \cdot z = x \cdot (y \cdot z)$ for all $x, y, z \in F$.

Hence, \cdot is associative.

F3 : It can be shown that $x \cdot (y + z) = x \cdot y + x \cdot z$

and $(x + y) \cdot z = x \cdot z + y \cdot z$ for all $x, y, z \in F$.

Hence, \cdot distributes over $+$.

F4 : Consider $(F \sim 0, \cdot)$.

(i) \cdot is associative as noted in F2.

(ii) Since $(a + b\sqrt{2}) \cdot (1 + 0\sqrt{2}) = a + b\sqrt{2}$, $1 + 0\sqrt{2}$ is the multiplicative identity.

(iii) If $x \neq 0$ i.e. if $a \neq 0, b \neq 0$, and $x = a + b\sqrt{2}$, then

$$\frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{a + b\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{a + b\sqrt{2}} \cdot \frac{a - b\sqrt{2}}{a - b\sqrt{2}} = \frac{a - b\sqrt{2}}{a^2 - 2b} = c + d\sqrt{2}$$

$$\text{where } c = \frac{a}{a^2 - 2b}, d = -\frac{b}{a^2 - 2b}.$$

Since $a + b\sqrt{2} \neq 0$, $a - b\sqrt{2} \neq 0$ hence, $a^2 - 2b \neq 0$.

$$\therefore c, d \in Q \quad \therefore \frac{1}{x} \in F.$$

\therefore For every $x \in (F - 0)$, there exists multiplicative inverse.

$\therefore (F - 0, \cdot)$ is a commutative group.

Hence, $(F, +, \cdot)$ is a field.

Example 3 : Let Z be the set of integers and $a \oplus b = a + b - 1$ and $a \otimes b = a + b - ab$. Show that (Z, \oplus, \otimes) is a ring? Is it an integral domain? Is it a field?

(M.U. 1998, 99, 2005)

Sol. : (i) Clearly $a \oplus b = a + b - 1$ and $a \otimes b = a + b - ab$ are binary operations in Z .

(ii) **R1 :** (Z, \oplus) is a commutative group as shown below.

G1 : For all $a, b, c \in Z$. $a \oplus b = a + b - 1$

$$\begin{aligned} (a \oplus b) \oplus c &= (a + b - 1) \oplus c \\ &= a + b - 1 + c - 1 \\ &= a + b + c - 2 \end{aligned}$$

Now, $b \oplus c = b + c - 1$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore a \oplus (b \oplus c) &= a \oplus (b + c - 1) \\ &= a + b + c - 1 - 1 \\ &= a + b + c - 2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore (a \oplus b) \oplus c = a \oplus (b \oplus c)$$

$\therefore \oplus$ is associative.

G2 : There exists additive identity (1).

This is so because,

$$a \oplus 1 = a + 1 - 1 = a \quad \text{and} \quad 1 \oplus a = 1 + a - 1 = a.$$

Thus, 1 is the zero (i.e. additive identity)

G3 : For every element $a \in Z$ there is an element $b = 2 - a$ which is its inverse.

This is so because

$$a \oplus b = a \oplus (2 - a) = a + 2 - a - 1 = 1$$

$$\text{and} \quad b \oplus a = (2 - a) \oplus a = 2 - a + a - 1 = 1.$$

G4 : Commutativity of \oplus

$$a \oplus b = a + b - 1 \quad \text{and} \quad b \oplus a = b + a - 1$$

$\therefore a \oplus b$ is commutative.

$\therefore (Z, \oplus)$ is a commutative group.

(iii) **R2 :** \otimes is associative. This is so because

$$a \otimes b = a + b - ab$$

$$\therefore (a \otimes b) \otimes c = (a + b - ab) \otimes c$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= a + b - ab + c - ac - bc + abc \\ &= a + b + c - ab - ac - bc + abc \end{aligned}$$

Now, $b \otimes c = b + c - bc$

$$\therefore a \otimes (b \otimes c) = a \otimes (b + c - bc)$$

$$= a + b +$$

$$a \otimes (b \otimes c) = (a \otimes b)$$

\otimes is associative.

R3 : Distributivity

$$a \otimes (b \oplus c) = a \otimes (b$$

$$= a + b +$$

$$= 2a + b$$

$$\text{and} \quad a \otimes b = a + b -$$

$$a \otimes c = a + c -$$

$$(a \otimes b) \oplus (a \otimes c) = (a + b$$

$$= a + b +$$

$$= 2a + b$$

$$\therefore a \otimes (b \oplus c) = (a \otimes b$$

\otimes distributes over \oplus .

Hence, (Z, \oplus, \otimes) is a ring.]

Commutativity of \otimes

$$a \otimes b = a + b -$$

$$a \otimes b = b \otimes a$$

$\therefore (Z, \oplus, \otimes)$ is a comm

Unity

$$\text{Now,} \quad a \otimes 0 = a +$$

$$\text{and} \quad 0 \otimes a = 0 +$$

$\therefore 0$ is its unity (i.e. mu

$\therefore (Z, \oplus, \otimes)$ is a comm

Zero Divisor

$$\text{Now,} \quad a \otimes b = a +$$

and $a \otimes b$ will be zero if a

$\therefore (Z, \oplus, \otimes)$ is a ring

$\therefore (Z, \oplus, \otimes)$ is an inte

(iv) For $a, b \in Z$ consider the eq

$$\therefore b = -\frac{a}{1-a}.$$

Since $ab = 0$ for $b = -\frac{a}{1-a}$ is the inverse of a ,

$$\therefore (Z, \oplus, \otimes)$$
 is a field

Example 4 : Prove that $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$ modulo 5, is a field.

Sol. : We prepare the tables for

$$\begin{aligned} &= a + b + c - bc - ab - ac + abc \\ \therefore a \otimes (b \otimes c) &= (a \otimes b) \otimes c \\ \therefore \otimes \text{ is associative.} \end{aligned}$$

(iv) R3 : Distributivity

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, } a \otimes (b \oplus c) &= a \otimes (b + c - 1) \\ &= a + b + c - 1 - ab - ac + a \\ &= 2a + b + c - ab - ac - 1 \\ \text{and } a \otimes b &= a + b - ab \\ a \otimes c &= a + c - ac \\ \therefore (a \otimes b) \oplus (a \otimes c) &= (a + b - ab) \oplus (a + c - ac) \\ &= a + b - ab + a + c - ac - 1 \\ &= 2a + b + c - ab - ac - 1 \\ \therefore a \otimes (b \oplus c) &= (a \otimes b) \oplus (a \otimes c) \\ \therefore \otimes \text{ distributes over } \oplus. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, (Z, \oplus, \otimes) is a ring.

(v) Commutativity of \otimes

$$\begin{aligned} a \otimes b &= a + b - ab \quad \text{and} \quad b \otimes a = b + a - ba \\ a \otimes b &= b \otimes a. \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore (Z, \oplus, \otimes)$ is a commutative ring.

(vi) Unity

$$\text{Now, } a \otimes 0 = a + 0 - a \cdot 0 = a$$

$$\text{and } 0 \otimes a = 0 + a - 0 \cdot a = a$$

$\therefore 0$ is its unity (i.e. multiplicative identity).

$\therefore (Z, \oplus, \otimes)$ is a commutative ring with unity.

(vii) Zero Divisor

$$\text{Now, } a \otimes b = a + b - ab$$

and $a \otimes b$ will be zero if $a = 0$ and $b = 0$.

$\therefore (Z, \oplus, \otimes)$ is a ring without zero divisor.

$\therefore (Z, \oplus, \otimes)$ is an integral domain.

(viii) For $a, b \in Z$ consider the equation $a \otimes b = 0$ i.e. $a + b - ab = 0$.

$$\therefore b = -\frac{a}{1-a}.$$

Since $ab = 0$ for $b = -\frac{a}{1-a}$ where 0 is its multiplicative identity, $-\frac{a}{1-a}$ is the multiplicative

inverse of a .

$\therefore (Z, \oplus, \otimes)$ is a field.

Example 4 : Prove that $(Z_5, +, \cdot)$ is a field where Z_5 is a set R of residue classes of $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$ modulo 5. (M.U. 2001, 03, 06, 08)

Sol. : We prepare the tables for addition and multiplication of $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$ modulo 5.

+	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	1	2	3	4
1	1	2	3	4	0
2	2	3	4	0	1
3	3	4	0	1	2
4	4	0	1	2	3

×	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4
2	0	2	4	1	3
3	0	3	1	4	2
4	0	4	3	2	1

Closure : It is clear from the table that Z_5 is closed under addition and multiplication modulo 5.

F1 : Consider $(Z_5, +)$

- (i) Since $a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c$, for all $a, b, c \in Z_5$, addition is associative.
- (ii) Since $a + 0 = a$ for all $a \in Z_5$, $0 \in Z_5$ is the additive identity.
- (iii) Since $1 + 4 = 0 = 4 + 1$, $2 + 3 = 0 = 3 + 2$, additive inverse exist.
- (iv) Since $a + b = b + a$ for all $a, b \in Z_5$, addition is commutative.

$\therefore (Z_5, +)$ is a commutative group.

F2 : It is clear from the table that $(a \times b) \times c = a \times (b \times c)$ for all $a, b, c \in Z_5$.

F3 : It can be seen that

$$a \times (b + c) = a \times b + a \times c$$

$$\text{and } (b + c) \times a = b \times a + b \times c.$$

Hence, \times distributes over $+$.

F4 : Consider $(Z_5 \sim 0, \times)$.

- (i) \times is associative.

- (ii) From the second row or second column of second table we see that 1 is the multiplicative identity.

- (iii) Since $1 \times 1 = 1$, $2 \times 3 = 1$, $3 \times 2 = 1$, $4 \times 4 = 1$, $1^{-1} = 1$, $2^{-1} = 3$, $3^{-1} = 2$ and $4^{-1} = 4$.

For every $a \in (Z_5 \sim 0)$, there exists multiplicative inverse:

$\therefore (Z_5 \sim 0, \times)$ is a commutative group.

Hence, $(Z_5, +, \times)$ is a field.

Example 5 : Is $(Z_6, +, \times)$ an integral domain ? Is it a field ?

Sol. : We first prepare the tables for addition and multiplication modulo 6.

+	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	1	2	3	4	5
1	1	2	3	4	5	0
2	2	3	4	5	0	1
3	3	4	5	0	1	2
4	4	5	0	1	2	3
5	5	0	1	2	3	4

×	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5
2	0	2	4	0	2	4
3	0	3	0	3	0	3
4	0	4	2	0	4	2
5	0	5	4	3	2	1

Prove that it is not a field because $3 \times 4 = 0$ but $3 \neq 0$ and $4 \neq 0$.

Applied Mathematics -

Example 6 : Is $(Z_p, +, \times)$ an integral domain ?

Sol. : We first note that

We prepare the

+	0	1	2	...	$p-1$	p

Closure : It is c

F1 : Consider (

As in Ex. 4 page

F2 : Consider (

Again as in Ex.

Hence, $(Z_p, +, \times)$

Note

In the first table

modulo operation is r

s never negative. Wh

Example 7 : Let

$S = (S, +, \cdot)$ an integral

Sol. : Closure

Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ a \\ a \end{bmatrix}$

Then $A + B$

$\therefore S$ is cl

I1 : Consider (

(i) Matrix ad

(ii) Since $\begin{bmatrix} a \\ a \\ a \end{bmatrix}$

(iii) Since $\begin{bmatrix} a \\ a \\ a \end{bmatrix}$

(iv) Matrix ad

$\therefore (S, +, \cdot)$

For matri

Example 6 : Is (Z_p, \oplus, \otimes) a field where p is a prime? (M.U. 2004)

Sol.: We first note that $Z_p = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$ where p is any prime number.

We prepare the tables for addition and multiplication of Z_p .

+	0	1	2	...	$p-1$
0	0	1	2	...	$p-1$
1	1	2	3	...	0
2	2	3	4	...	1
:	:	:	:	⋮	⋮
$p-1$	$p-1$	0	1	...	$p-2$

\times	0	1	2	...	$p-1$
0	0	0	0	...	0
1	0	1	2	...	$p-1$
2	0	2	4	...	$p-2$
:	:	:	:	⋮	⋮
$p-1$	0	$p-1$	$p-2$...	1

Closure : It is clear that Z_p is closed under addition and multiplication modulo p .

F1 : Consider $(Z_p, +)$.

As in Ex. 4 page 16-59, we can prove that $(Z_p, +)$ is a commutative group.

F2 : Consider $(Z_p - 0, \times)$.

Again as in Ex. 4 page 16-59, we can prove that (Z_p, \times) is a commutative group. Hence, $(Z_p, +, \times)$ is a field.

In the first table the sum of $p-1$ and $p-1 = 2p-2$. When this is divided by p the quotient in modulo operation is not 2 and the remainder is not -2 because the remainder in modulo operation is never negative. When $2p-2$ is divided by p the quotient is 1 and the remainder is $p-2$.

Example 7 : Let $S = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & a \\ a & a \end{bmatrix} \mid a \in R \right\}$ and $+$ and \cdot be matrix addition and matrix multiplication.

Is $(S, +, \cdot)$ an integral domain? Is it a field? (M.U. 2002, 05)

Sol. : Closure

$$\text{Let } A = \begin{bmatrix} a & a \\ a & a \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} b & b \\ b & b \end{bmatrix}, \quad a, b \in R$$

$$\text{Then } A + B = \begin{bmatrix} a+b & a+b \\ a+b & a+b \end{bmatrix} \in S \quad \text{and} \quad AB = \begin{bmatrix} a & a \\ a & a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b & b \\ b & b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2ab & 2ab \\ 2ab & 2ab \end{bmatrix}.$$

∴ S is closed under addition and multiplication.

I1 : Consider $(S, +)$

(i) Matrix addition is associative.

(ii) Since $\begin{bmatrix} a & a \\ a & a \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & a \\ a & a \end{bmatrix}$ additive identity exists.

(iii) Since $\begin{bmatrix} a & a \\ a & a \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -a & -a \\ -a & -a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ additive inverse exists.

(iv) Matrix addition is commutative.

∴ $(S, +)$ is a commutative group.

(v) For matrices $A \cdot (B + C) = A \cdot C + B \cdot C$
and $(B + C) \cdot A = B \cdot A + C \cdot A$

Hence, \cdot distributes over $+$.

$\therefore (S, +, \cdot)$ is a commutative ring.

I 2 : Consider $(S, +, \cdot)$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & a \\ a & a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2a & 2a \\ 2a & 2a \end{bmatrix} \quad \therefore A \cdot I \neq A$$

\therefore Multiplicative identity does not exist.

Hence, $(S, +, \cdot)$ is a ring without unity.

\therefore It is not an integral domain.

Since, there is no multiplicative identity, there is no multiplicative inverse.

Hence, it is not a field.

Example 8 : Show that the set of matrices $M = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -5b & a \end{bmatrix}, a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ form an integral domain.

(M.U. 1996, 97, 98, 2004)

Is it a field ?

Sol. : **Closure**

$$\text{Let } A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -5b & a \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} c & d \\ -5d & c \end{bmatrix}, a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

$$\text{Then } A + B = \begin{bmatrix} a+c & b+d \\ -5(b+d) & a+c \end{bmatrix} \in M \quad \text{and} \quad AB = \begin{bmatrix} ac - 5bd & ad + bc \\ -5(bc + ad) & ac - 5bd \end{bmatrix} \in M.$$

$\therefore M$ is closed under addition and multiplication.

I 1 : Consider $(M, +)$

(i) Matrix addition is associative.

$$\text{(ii) Since } \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -5b & a \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -5b & a \end{bmatrix}, a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, \text{ additive identity exists.}$$

$$\text{(iii) Since } \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -5b & a \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -a & -b \\ 5b & -a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ additive inverse exists.}$$

(iv) Matrix addition is commutative.

$\therefore (M, +)$ is a commutative group.

(v) For matrices $A \cdot (B + C) = A \cdot B + A \cdot C$

and $(B + C) \cdot A = B \cdot A + C \cdot A$.

Hence, \cdot distributes over $+$.

$\therefore (M, +, \cdot)$ is a commutative ring.

I 2 : Consider $(M, +, \cdot)$

$$\text{Since } \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -5b & a \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -5b & a \end{bmatrix}$$

Multiplicative unity exists.

Hence, $(M, +, \cdot)$ is a ring with unity.

Applied Mathematics - IV
I 3 : Consider $(M, +, \cdot)$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -5b & a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -5 & -5 \\ -5 & -5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c & d \\ -5d & c \end{bmatrix}$$

and $\begin{bmatrix} c & d \\ -5d & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -5 & -5 \\ -5 & -5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -5b & a \end{bmatrix}$

Hence, $(M, +, \cdot)$ is a c

I 4 : However, no ele

$\therefore (M - 0, \cdot)$ is no

\therefore Hence, $(M, +,$

Example 9 : Let $S =$

Sol. : Yes. Prove it.

Example 10 : Prove

Sol. : We know that a field

We also know that a

Thus, to prove that

have zero divisors.

Let $a \neq 0$ be an ele

Let $b \in F$ be such

$\therefore (a^{-1} a) b =$

Thus, we have if a

$\therefore F$ has no

\therefore A field is

But the converse

domain under usual ad

Definitions (A Review)

1. Semi-group

called a semi-group (

2. Monoid : A s

3. Group : A no

G1 : For all a,

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

G2 : For all a e

$(S, *)$. Note that G 2

into a group.

(16-62)

I 3 : Consider $(M, +, \cdot)$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -5b & a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c & d \\ -5d & c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ac - 5bd & ad + bc \\ -5(bc + ad) & ac - 5bd \end{bmatrix}$$

and $\begin{bmatrix} c & d \\ -5d & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -5b & a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ac - 5d & ad + bc \\ -5(ad + bc) & ac - 5bd \end{bmatrix}$

Hence, $(M, +, \cdot)$ is a commutative ring with unity but without zero divisors.I 4 : However, no element of M has multiplicative inverse. $\therefore (M \setminus 0, \cdot)$ is not a group. \therefore Hence, $(M, +, \cdot)$ is not a field.

Example 9 : Let $S = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix}, a \in R \right\}$. Is $(S, +, \cdot)$ an integral domain? (M.U. 2001)

Sol. : Yes. Prove it.

Example 10 : Prove that every field is an integral domain. Is the converse true?

Sol. : We know that a field is a ring $(F, +, \cdot)$ in which $(F \setminus 0, \cdot)$ is a commutative group.

We also know that an integral domain is a commutative ring with unity but without zero divisors.

Thus, to prove that every field is an integral domain, we have to show that a field does not have zero divisors.

Let $a \neq 0$ be an element of F . Then, a^{-1} exists where a^{-1} is the multiplicative inverse.Let $b \in F$ be such that $ab = 0 \quad \therefore a^{-1}(ab) = 0$ $\therefore (a^{-1}a)b = b \quad \therefore 1b = 0 \quad \therefore b = 0$.Thus, we have if $ab = 0$ and $a \neq 0$ then $b = 0$. $\therefore F$ has no divisors. \therefore A field is an integral domain.

But the converse is not true. Every integral domain is not a field. For example, Z is an integral domain under usual addition and multiplication. But Z is not a field, since $2^{-1} = \frac{1}{2} \notin Z$.

Definitions (A Review)

1. **Semi-group** : A non-empty set S together with a (i) binary and (ii) associative operation is called a **semi-group** $(S, *)$.

2. **Monoid** : A semi-group $(S, *)$ which has identity is called a **monoid**.

3. **Group** : A non-empty set S together with a binary operation $*$ satisfying the following axioms

G1 : For all $a, b, c \in G$

$$a * (b * c) = (a * b) * c \quad (\text{Associativity})$$

G2 : For all $a \in G$ there exists $e \in G$ such that $a * e = e * a = a$ (Identity)

G3 : For all $a \in G$ there exists $b \in G$ such that $a * b = b * a = c$ (Inverse) is called a group

$(S, *)$.

Note that **G2** and **G3** make a semi-group into a group. Also note that **G3** makes a monoid into a group.

Definition : A semi-group with identity and inverse for each element is called a group.

Definition : A monoid with inverse for each element is called a group.

4. Ring : A ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ where R is a non-empty set and $+$ and \cdot are two binary operations satisfying the following axioms.

R 1 : $(R, +)$ is a commutative group.

R 2 : For all $a, b, c \in R$, $a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$ (Associativity of \cdot)

R 3 : For all $a, b, c \in R$,

$$a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$$

$$\text{and } (b + c) \cdot a = b \cdot a + c \cdot a \quad (\cdot \text{ distributes over } +)$$

Note that **R 2** and **R 3** make a commutative group into a **ring**.

Definition : A commutative group with another associative binary operation \cdot which distributes over $+$ is called a ring.

5. Integral Domain : A commutative ring with unity and without zero divisors is called an **integral domain**.

6. Field : A commutative ring with unity, having multiplicative inverse for every non-zero element is called a **field**.

EXERCISE - IV

(A) 1. Prove that the set of even integers is a commutative ring under addition and multiplication. But it is not a field.

2. Prove that $(3\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ where $3\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots\}$ is a ring but not a field.

3. Prove that $(m\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ where m is a fixed integer is a ring but not a field.

4. Prove that the set of even integers is a ring under addition and multiplication. But it is not a field. (**Hint :** Let $a = 2m$, $b = 2n$, $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ etc.)

(B) (A) Show that $R = \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8\}$ is a ring under addition and multiplication modulo 10. Is it an integral domain? Is it a field? [Ans.: Yes, Yes]

(C) 1. Prove that $(M, +, \cdot)$ where M is the set of 3×3 matrices is a ring but not a field.

2. Prove that $(F, +, \cdot)$ where $F = a + b\sqrt{5}$, $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$ is a field.

3. Prove that $(F, +, \cdot)$ where $F = a + b\sqrt{7}$, $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$ is a field.

4. Let $S = \{0, 1, 2\}$. We define \oplus as $a \oplus b =$ the least non-negative remainder obtained on dividing $a + b$ by 3 and $a \odot b =$ the least non-negative remainder obtained on dividing ab by 3 where $a, b \in S$.

Prove that (S, \oplus, \odot) is a field.

(Hint : 0 and 1 are respectively additive and multiplicative identities. $1 \oplus 2$ implies that 1 and 2 are additive inverses of each other. $1 \odot 1, 2 \odot 2$, implies that 1 and 2 are multiplicative inverses of themselves.)

5. Show that the matrices of the form $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 2a & a \end{bmatrix}$ where $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ from a field under matrix addition and multiplication. (M.U. 1998)

6. Let $F = \{(a, b) \mid a, b \text{ are reals}\}$. Let \oplus and \odot be defined as $(a, b) \oplus (c, d) = (a+c, b+d)$ and $(a, b) \odot (c, d) = (ac - bd, bc + ad)$. Prove that F is a field. (M.U. 2004)

(16-29)

Sol. : Considering the above definition we have to prove that if $a, a', b, b' \in S$ and if $a R b$ and $a' R b'$, then $(a * a') R (b * b')$ i.e. we have to prove that if $a \equiv a' \pmod{3}$ and $b \equiv b' \pmod{3}$ then $a + b \equiv a' + b' \pmod{3}$. Now, since $a \equiv a' \pmod{3}$, $(a - a') = 3m$ say and since $b \equiv b' \pmod{3}$, $(b - b') = 3n$, say, where m and n are integers.

$$\begin{aligned} & \therefore a - a' + b - b' = 3m + 3n \\ & \therefore (a + b) - (a' + b') = 3(m + n) \\ & \therefore (a + b) \equiv (a' + b') \pmod{3} \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the result.

(M.U. 2000, 13)

(d) Cyclic Group

Definition : A group $(G, *)$ is said to be a **cyclic group** if there exists an element $a \in G$ such that every element of G can be written as some power of a viz. a^k for some integer k where by a^k we mean $a \times a \times a \dots a^k$ (times).

Then G is said to be generated by a or a generates G .

A cyclic group is always Abelian because commutativity is observed,

$$\therefore \text{if } a^r, a^s \in G, \text{ then } a^r \times a^s = a^s \times a^r.$$

Example 1 : The cube roots of unity form a cyclic group under multiplication of complex numbers.

Sol. : In Example 2, page 16-13, we have proved that the cube roots of unity is a group under multiplication.

Now, we shall prove that it is cyclic i.e., every element of the group $1, \omega, \omega^2$ can be expressed as integral power of some element $a \in G$.

$$\text{We note that } \omega^0 = 1, \omega^1 = \omega, \omega^2 = \omega^2.$$

Thus, the element $1, \omega, \omega^2$ are expressed as $0^{\text{th}}, 1^{\text{st}}$ and 2^{nd} power of ω . Hence, the group is cyclic with ω as a generator.

$$\text{Also, } (\omega^2)^0 = 1, (\omega^2)^1 = \omega^2, (\omega^2)^2 = \omega^4 = \omega^3 \cdot \omega = \omega.$$

$$\text{Thus, } 1, \omega, \omega^2 \text{ are expressed as } 0^{\text{th}}, 1^{\text{st}} \text{ and } 2^{\text{nd}} \text{ power of } \omega^2.$$

Hence, the group is cyclic with ω^2 as a generator.

Example 2 : Prove that the group $G = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ is a finite, abelian, cyclic group under addition modulo 6.

Sol. : We have proved in Example 2, page 16-27 that G is an Abelian group.

Now, we shall prove that it is a cyclic group i.e., every element of the group G can be expressed as integral power of some element $a \in G$.

$$\text{We note that } 1^1 = 1, 1^2 = 1 +_6 1 = 2, 1^3 = 1 +_6 1^2 = 1 +_6 2 = 3,$$

$$1^4 = 1 +_6 1^3 = 1 +_6 3 = 4, 1^5 = 1 +_6 1^4 = 1 +_6 4 = 5,$$

$$1^6 = 1 +_6 1^5 = 1 +_6 5 = 0. \quad [\text{See the table on page 16-27}]$$

$$\text{Hence, } G = \{1^6, 1^1, 1^2, 1^3, 1^4, 1^5\}.$$

$\therefore G$ is a cyclic group with 1 as a generator.

(It can be shown that 5 is another generator.)

- (e) **Subgroup**
Definition : Let H be a
- (i) the identity element
 - (ii) if a, b belong to H
 - (iii) if $a \in H$ then a^{-1} is
- In short a subgroup is

- Illustrations :** (i) Let H be a real under multiplication.
Let $H = \{a + ib \mid a^2 + b^2 \neq 0\}$

- (ii) Let G be the group

$$\text{Let } H = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \mid \right.$$

Example 1 : Consider

Let $H = \{ \dots, -3m, -$

Show that H is a sub

- Sol. :** (i) The identity of
- (ii) If km and lm are elements of H , then $(km + lm)$ is also an element of H .
 - (iii) If km is an element of H , then $(km)^{-1}$ is also an element of H .
- $\therefore H$ is a subgroup of G .

Example 2 : Find

Sol. : The operation add

From the first row
element.

$$\therefore 1 \oplus 4 = 0$$

$$\therefore 4 \oplus 1 = 0$$

$$\text{Also } 2 \oplus 3 = 0$$

$$\text{and } 3 \oplus 2 = 0$$

Hence, we consider

Now, by definition

- (i) the identity element

- (ii) if a, b belong to H

- (iii) if $a \in H$ then a^{-1} is

The above properties hold for subgroups.

Some Algebraic Structures

$b' \in S$ and if $a R b$ and $a' R b'$ then $a R a'$.
 Definition : Let H be a subset of group G , such that

(i) the identity element e of G belongs to H .
 (ii) if a, b belong to H then $a * b$ also belongs to H .

(iii) if $a \in H$ then $a^{-1} \in H$. Then H is called a subgroup of G .

short a subgroup is a subset of G having all the properties of a group.
 Illustrations : (i) Let G be the group of all non-zero complex numbers $a + ib$ where a, b are real multiplication.

(ii) If $H = \{a + ib \mid a^2 + b^2 = 1\}$ then H is a subgroup of G .

(M.U. 2000, 13) Let G be the group of 2×2 matrices $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ such that $ad - bc \neq 0$ under matrix multiplication.

Let $H = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}, ad \neq 0 \right\}$, then H is a subgroup of G .

Example 1 : Consider the group Z of integers under addition.

Let $H = \{\dots, -3m, -2m, -m, 0, m, 2m, 3m, \dots\}$ where m is a positive integer.
 Show that H is a subgroup of Z .

(i) The identity of element of G is 0 and 0 belongs to H .

(ii) If km and lm are any two elements of H , then

$$(km + lm) = (k + l)m \text{ is also an element of } H.$$

(iii) If km is an element of H , then its negative (inverse) km is also an element of H .

$\therefore H$ is a subgroup.

b. Hence, the group is Example 2 : Find the subgroups of (Z_5, \oplus) where \oplus is the operation addition modulo 5.

(M.U. 1998)

The operation addition modulo 5 is given by the adjoining table.

From the first row and first column we see that 0 is the identity element.

$\therefore 1 \oplus 4 = 0$, inverse of 1 is 4.

$\therefore 4 \oplus 1 = 0$, inverse of 4 is 1.

Also $2 \oplus 3 = 0$, inverse of 2 is 3.

and $3 \oplus 2 = 0$, inverse of 3 is 2.

Hence, we consider two subgroups of (Z_5, \oplus) viz. $G_1 = \{0, 1, 4\}$ and $G_2 = \{0, 2, 3\}$.

Now, by definition of subgroup H is a subgroup if

(i) the identity element e belongs to H .

(ii) if a, b belongs to H then $a \oplus b$ belongs to H .

(iii) if a belongs to H then a^{-1} belongs to H .

The above properties are satisfied by $\{0, 1, 4\}$ and $\{0, 2, 3\}$ under \oplus and hence they are groups.

Some Algebraic Structures

(M.U. 2002, 04, 05, 10)