

$$= a * a^{-1} \quad [\because a * c = a]$$

$$= e \quad \dots (1)$$

$$(b^{-1} * a^{-1}) * (a * b) = b^{-1} * (a^{-1} * a) * b$$

$$= b^{-1} * e * b$$

$$= b^{-1} * b \quad [\because e * b = b]$$

$$= e \quad \dots (2)$$

By (1) and (2), we get

$$(a * b) * (b^{-1} * a^{-1}) = (b^{-1} * a^{-1}) * (a * b) = e$$

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

Example 7. Every group of order 4 is abelian.

Solution : Let $(G, *)$ be a group of order 4 where $G = \{e, a, b, c\}$. Since G is of even order, there exists at least one element (say) a such that $a^{-1} = a$.

Then two cases arise

(i) $b^{-1} = b, c^{-1} = c$, (ii) $b^{-1} = c, c^{-1} = b$.

Case (i) : $e^{-1} = e, a^{-1} = a, b^{-1} = b, c^{-1} = c$

Every element is its own inverse.

The $(G, *)$ is abelian.

Case (ii) : $a^{-1} = a, b^{-1} = c, c^{-1} = b$

$$\therefore a^2 = e, b * c = e, c * b = e$$

*	e	a	b	c
e	e	a	b	c
a	a	e	c	b
b	b	c	a	e
c	c	b	e	a

Since $(G, *)$ is a group, its elements will appear in a row (column) only once.

Since, a, e appears in the second row and b appears in the third column, c will appear as $(2, 3)$ th element.

\therefore $(2, 4)$ th element is b

$(3, 3)$ th element is a

$(3, 2)$ th element is c

$(4, 2)$ th element is b

$(4, 4)$ th element is a

Example 8. Show that $G = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} : a \neq 0 \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$ is an abelian group under matrix multiplication.

Solution :

(i) **Closure law**

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

$$\text{Then } AB = \begin{pmatrix} ab & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in G.$$

(ii) **Commutative Law :** $AB = BA$ is true $\forall A, B \in G$, since

$$AB = BA = \begin{pmatrix} ab & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad [\because ab = ba \text{ is true in } \mathbb{R}]$$

(iii) Matrix multiplication is associative.

(iv) **Identity :** $I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in G$ is the identity in G , since

$$AI = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = A \quad \forall A \in G.$$

(iv) **Inverse :** If

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in G. \text{ Then } A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in G.$$

is the inverse of A , since

$$AA^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = 1 \quad (\because a \neq 0 \in R \Rightarrow 1/a \neq 0 \in R)$$

Hence G is an abelian group under matrix multiplication.

Example 9. Show that the set $S = \{1, 5, 7, 11\}$ is a group w.r.t multiplication modulo 12.

Solution : The composition tables of S w.r.t \odot_{12} of as follows :

\odot_{12}	1	5	7	11
1	1	5	7	11
5	5	1	11	7
7	7	11	1	5
11	11	7	5	1

Here $5 \odot_{12} 7 = 35$, which on division by 12 gives the remainder 11, $11 \odot_{12} 7 = 77$, which on division by 12 gives the remainder 5 etc

Hence S is a group, in which 1 is the identity and each element of S is its own inverse.

Example 10. Show that the set of matrices

$$G = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix}, \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \right\} \text{ forms a group under matrix multiplication.}$$

Solution : (i) Closure law

$$\text{Let } A_\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix} \in G \text{ and } A_\beta = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \beta & -\sin \beta \\ \sin \beta & \cos \beta \end{pmatrix} \in G.$$

$$\text{Then } A_\alpha A_\beta = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \beta & -\sin \beta \\ \sin \beta & \cos \beta \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A_\alpha A_\beta &= \begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha \cos \beta - \sin \alpha \sin \beta & -(\cos \alpha \sin \beta + \sin \alpha \cos \beta) \\ \sin \alpha \cos \beta + \cos \alpha \sin \beta & \cos \alpha \cos \beta - \sin \alpha \sin \beta \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \cos (\alpha + \beta) & -\sin (\alpha + \beta) \\ \sin (\alpha + \beta) & \cos (\alpha + \beta) \end{bmatrix} = A_{\alpha + \beta} \in G. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Note that } A_\alpha A_\beta = A_{\alpha + \beta} \quad \dots (1)$$

(ii) We know that the matrix multiplication is associative.

(iii) **Identity** : $I_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is the identity in G .

Since $A_\alpha I_0 = I_0 A_\alpha = A_\alpha$ for $A_\alpha \in G$.

(iv) **Inverse** : $A_{-\alpha}$ is the inverse of A_α for each $A_\alpha \in G$, since

$$A_\alpha A_{-\alpha} = A_{\alpha + (-\alpha)} = A_0 = I_0, \text{ using (1)}$$

Example 11. Find the left cosets of $\{[0], [3]\}$ in the addition modular group $(Z_6, +_6)$. [MCA, N/D. 2002] [A.U N/D 2010]

Solution : Let $Z_6 = \{[0], [1], [2], [3], [4], [5], [6]\}$ be a group and $H = \{[0], [3]\}$ be a sub-group of Z_6 under $+_6$ (addition mod 6)

The left cosets of H are

$$[0] + H = \{[0], [3]\} = H$$

$$[1] + H = \{[1], [4]\}$$

$$[2] + H = \{[2], [5]\}$$

$$[3] + H = \{[3], [6]\} = \{[3], [0]\} = \{[0], [3]\} = H$$

$$[4] + H = \{[4], [7]\} = \{[4], [1]\} = [1] + H$$

$$[5] + H = \{[5], [8]\} = \{[5], [2]\} = [2] + H$$

$$\therefore [0] + H = [3] + H = H$$

and

$$[1] + H = [4] + H, [2] + H = [5] + H$$

are the distinct left cosets of H in Z_6

Example 12. If $f: G \rightarrow G'$ is a group homomorphism from $\{G, *\}$ to $\{G', \Delta\}$ then prove that for any $a \in G$, $f(a^{-1}) = [f(a)]^{-1}$

[A.U N/D 2012]

Solution : $\forall a \in G$ and $\forall a^{-1} \in G$

$$\therefore f(a * a^{-1}) = f(a) \Delta f(a^{-1})$$

$$\text{i.e., } f(e) = f(a) \Delta f(a^{-1})$$

$$\text{i.e.,} \quad e' = f(a) \Delta f(a^{-1}) \quad \dots (1)$$

$$|||y, \quad f(a^{-1} * a) = f(a^{-1}) \Delta f(a)$$

$$\text{i.e.,} \quad f(e) = f(a^{-1}) \Delta f(a)$$

$$e' = f(a^{-1}) \Delta f(a) \quad \dots (2)$$

From (1) & (2), we get

$$f(a) \Delta f(a^{-1}) = f(a^{-1}) \Delta f(a)$$

$$\Rightarrow f(a^{-1}) \text{ is the inverse of } f(a)$$

$$\text{i.e., } f(a^{-1}) = [f(a)]^{-1}$$

Example 13. Let G be a group and $a \in G$. Let $f : G \rightarrow G$ be given by $f(x) = axa^{-1}$ for all $x \in G$. Prove that f is an isomorphism of G on to G .
[A.U. A/M. 2005, N/D 2010]

Solution : The map f is a homomorphism if $x, y \in G$, then

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) f(y) &= (axa^{-1}) (aya^{-1}) \\ &= ax(a^{-1}a)ya^{-1} \\ &= axya^{-1} \\ &= a(xy)a^{-1} = f(xy). \end{aligned}$$

So f is a homomorphism.

f is one-to-one : If $f(x) = f(y)$, then $axa^{-1} = aya^{-1}$, so by left cancellation, we have $xa^{-1} = ya^{-1}$, again by right cancellation we get $x = y$.

f is onto : Let $y \in G$, then $a^{-1}ya \in G$ and $f(a^{-1}ya)$

$$= a(a^{-1}ya)a^{-1}$$

$$= (aa^{-1})y(aa^{-1})$$

$$= y. \quad \text{So } f(x) = y \text{ for some } x \in G.$$

Thus f is an isomorphism.

PERMUTATION FUNCTIONS

Definition :

A bijection from a set A to itself is called a **permutation** of A .

Example 14 : Let $A = \mathbb{R}$ and let $f : A \rightarrow A$ be defined by $f(a) = 2a + 1$. Since f is one to one and onto, it follows that f is a permutation of A .

Example 15 : Let $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$. Then all the permutations of A are

$$\begin{aligned} 1_A &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, & p_1 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, & p_2 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \\ p_3 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, & p_4 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, & p_5 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Using the permutations of compute

$$(a) p_4^{-1} ; (b) p_3 \circ p_2$$

Solution : (a) Viewing p_4 as a function, we have

$$p_4 = \{(1, 3), (2, 1), (3, 2)\}$$

$$\text{Then } p_4^{-1} = \{(3, 1), (1, 2), (2, 3)\}$$

or, when written in increasing order of the first component of each ordered pair, we have

$$p_4^{-1} = \{(1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 1)\}$$

$$\text{Thus } p_4^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = p_3$$

(b) The function p_2 takes 1 to 2 and p_3 takes 2 to 3, so $p_3 \circ p_2$ takes 1 to 3. Also, p_2 takes 2 to 1 and p_3 takes 1 to 2, so $p_3 \circ p_2$ takes 2 to 2. Finally, p_2 takes 3 to 3 and p_3 takes 3 to 1, so $p_3 \circ p_2$ takes 3 to 1. Thus

$$p_3 \circ p_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

We may view the process of forming $p_3 \circ p_2$ as shown in fig. Observe that $p_3 \circ p_2 = p_5$.

$$p_3 \circ p_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \circ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = p_5$$

Theorem : If $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$ is a set containing n elements, then there are

$$n! = n \cdot (n-1) \dots 2 \cdot 1 \text{ permutations of } A$$

Definition : Cyclic permutation

Let b_1, b_2, \dots, b_r be r distinct elements of the set $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$. The permutation $p : A \rightarrow A$ defined by

$$p(b_1) = b_2$$

$$p(b_2) = b_3$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\vdots$$

$$p(b_{r-1}) = b_r$$

$$p(b_r) = b_1$$

$p(x) = x$, if $x \in A$, $x \notin \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_r\}$ is called a **cyclic permutation** of length r , or simply a **cycle** of length r , and will be denoted by (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_r) .

Example 16: Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$. The cycle $(1, 3, 5)$ denotes the permutation

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

Example 17: Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$. Compute $(4, 1, 3, 5) \circ (5, 6, 3)$ and $(5, 6, 3) \circ (4, 1, 3, 5)$.

Solution : We have

$$(4, 1, 3, 5) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 3 & 2 & 5 & 1 & 4 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(5, 6, 3) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 & 5 & 4 & 6 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

then $(4, 1, 3, 5) \circ (5, 6, 3)$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 3 & 2 & 5 & 1 & 4 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \circ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 & 5 & 4 & 6 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 3 & 2 & 4 & 1 & 6 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

and $(5, 6, 3) \circ (4, 1, 3, 5)$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 & 5 & 4 & 6 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \circ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 3 & 2 & 5 & 1 & 4 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 5 & 2 & 6 & 1 & 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Observe that

$$(4, 1, 3, 5) \circ (5, 6, 3) \neq (5, 6, 3) \circ (4, 1, 3, 5)$$

and that neither product is a cycle.

Definition :

Two cycles of a set A are said to be **disjoint** if no element of A appears in both cycles.

Example 18 : Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$. Then the cycles $(1, 2, 5)$ and $(3, 4, 6)$ are disjoint, whereas the cycles $(1, 2, 5)$ and $(2, 4, 6)$ are not.

Theorem : A permutation of a finite set that is not the identity or a cycle can be written as a product of disjoint cycles of length ≥ 2 .

Example 19: Write the permutation $p = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 3 & 4 & 6 & 5 & 2 & 1 & 8 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$ of the set $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ as a product of disjoint cycles.

Solution : We start with 1 and find that $p(1) = 3$, $p(3) = 6$ and $p(6) = 1$, so we have the cycle $(1, 3, 6)$. Next we choose the first element of A that has not appeared in a previous cycle. We choose 2, and we have $p(2) = 4$, $p(4) = 5$ and $p(5) = 2$, so we obtain the cycle $(2, 4, 5)$. We now choose 7, the first element of A that has not appeared in a previous cycle. Since $p(7) = 8$ and $p(8) = 7$, we obtain the cycle $(7, 8)$. We can then write p as product of disjoint cycles as

$$p = (7, 8) \circ (2, 4, 5) \circ (1, 3, 6).$$

Definition : Even and Odd Permutations

A cycle of length 2 is called a **transposition**. That is, a transposition is a cycle $p = (a_i, a_j)$, where $p(a_i) = a_j$ and $p(a_j) = a_i$.

Observe that if $p = (a_i, a_j)$ is a transposition of A , then $p \circ p = I_A$, the identity permutation of A .

Every cycle can be written as a product of transpositions. In fact,

$$(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_r) = (b_1, b_r) \circ (b_1, b_{r-1}) \circ \dots \circ (b_1, b_3) \circ (b_1, b_2)$$

This case can be verified by induction on r , as follows :

Basis Step

If $r = 2$, then the cycle is just (b_1, b_2) , which already has the proper form.

Induction Step

We use $P(k)$ to show $P(k+1)$. Let $(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_k, b_{k+1})$ be a cycle of length $k+1$. Then $(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_k, b_{k+1}) = (b_1, b_{k+1}) \circ (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_k)$ as may be verified by computing the composition. Using $P(k)$, $(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_k) = (b_1, b_k) \circ (b_1, b_{k-1}) \circ \dots \circ (b_1, b_2)$. Thus, by substitution,

$$(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_{k+1}) = (b_1, b_{k+1}) \circ (b_1, b_k) \circ \dots \circ (b_1, b_3) (b_1, b_2).$$

This completes the induction step. Thus, by the principle of mathematical induction, the result holds for every cycle. For example,

$$(1, 2, 3, 4, 5) = (1, 5) \circ (1, 4) \circ (1, 3) \circ (1, 2)$$

Corollary 1 : Every permutation of a finite set with atleast two elements can be written as a product of transpositions.

Theorem : If a permutation of a finite set can be written as a product of an even number of transpositions, then it can never be written as a product of an odd number of transpositions, and conversely.

A permutation of a finite set is called **even** if it can be written as a product of an even number of transpositions, and it is called **odd** if it can be written as a product of an odd number of transpositions.

Example 20 : Is the permutation

$$p = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 2 & 4 & 5 & 7 & 6 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

even or odd ?

Solution : We first write p as a product of disjoint cycles, obtaining

$$p = (3, 5, 6) \circ (1, 2, 4, 7).$$

Next we write each of the cycles as a product of transpositions :

$$(1, 2, 4, 7) = (1, 7) \circ (1, 4) \circ (1, 2)$$

$$(3, 5, 6) = (3, 6) \circ (3, 5)$$

Then $p = (3, 6) \circ (3, 5) \circ (1, 7) \circ (1, 4) \circ (1, 2)$. Since p is a product of an odd number of transpositions, it is an odd permutation.

Note : From the definition of even and odd permutations, it follows.

- (a) The product of two even permutation is even.
- (b) The product of two odd permutations is even.

- (c) The product of an even and an odd permutation is odd.

Example 21 : Show that the permutation

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 5 & 6 & 2 & 4 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \text{ is odd, while the permutation } \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 6 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ is even.}$$

Solution :

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 5 & 6 & 2 & 4 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = (1 \ 5) (2 \ 6 \ 3) \\ = (1 \ 5) (2 \ 6) (2 \ 3)$$

The given permutation can be expressed as the product of an odd number of transpositions and hence the permutation is odd. Again

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 6 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = (1 \ 6) (2 \ 3 \ 4 \ 5) \\ = (1 \ 6) (2 \ 3) (2 \ 4) (2 \ 5)$$

Since it is a product of even number of transposition, the permutation is an even permutation.

Example 22 : Express the permutation

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 6 & 5 & 2 & 4 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ as a product of transposition.}$$

Solution :

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 6 & 5 & 2 & 4 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = (1 \ 6) (2 \ 5 \ 3) = (1 \ 6) (2 \ 5) (2 \ 3)$$

Example 23 : Find the inverse of the permutation.

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

Solution : Given $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 5 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$

Let the inverse of the permutation be $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ x & y & z & u & v \end{pmatrix}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 5 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ x & y & z & u & v \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \\ \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ y & z & x & v & u \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \\ \Rightarrow y = 1, z = 2, x = 3, v = 4, u = 5. \end{aligned}$$

Hence the inverse permutation is $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 & 5 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$.

Example 24 : If $A = (1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5)$, $B = (2\ 3)\ (4\ 5)$. Find AB .

Solution : Given $A = (1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5)$, $B = (2\ 3)\ (4\ 5)$

$$\begin{aligned} AB &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 & 5 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 2 & 5 & 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (1\ 3\ 5) \end{aligned}$$

Example 25 : If $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ then express the following permutations as a product of disjoint cycles.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a) } p &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 6 & 5 & 7 & 8 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ \text{(b) } p &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 4 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Solution :

$$\text{(a) } p(1)=6, p(6)=3, p(3)=7, p(7)=2, p(2)=5, p(5)=4, p(4)=8, p(8)=1.$$

$$\therefore p = (1, 6, 3, 7, 2, 5, 4, 8)$$

$$\text{(b) } p(1) = 2, p(2) = 3, p(3) = 1 \Rightarrow (1, 2, 3)$$

$$p(5) = 6, p(6) = 7, p(7) = 8, p(8) = 5 \Rightarrow (5, 6, 7, 8)$$

$$p = (5, 6, 7, 8) \circ (1, 2, 3)$$

Example 26 : Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ and

$$p = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 & 1 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \text{ be a permutation of } A.$$

- Write p as a product of disjoint cycles.
- Compute p^{-1}
- Compute p^2
- Find the period of p , that is, the smallest positive integer k such that $p^k = 1_A$.

Solution :

$$(a) \text{ Given } p = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 & 1 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

Since $p(1) = 2, p(2) = 4$ and $p(4) = 1$, we write $p = (1, 2, 4)$ as the other elements are fixed.

$$(b) p^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & 3 & 1 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 4 & 1 & 3 & 2 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(c) p^2 = p \circ p = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 4 & 1 & 3 & 2 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(d) p^3 = p^2 \circ p = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix} = 1_A.$$

$$p^4 = p, p^5 = p^2 \text{ etc.}$$

\therefore The period of $p = 3$.

$$(p_2 \circ p_1)^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 5 & 6 & 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\therefore (p_2 \circ p_1)^{-1} = p_1^{-1} \circ p_2^{-1}$$

Example 27 : If $f = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$ and
 $g = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ are permutations,
 prove that $(g \circ f)^{-1} = f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}$.

Solution : $f^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$ and

$$g^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f^{-1} \circ g^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$g \circ f = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \circ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(g \circ f)^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Hence $(g \circ f)^{-1} = f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}$.

Example 28 : Let $p_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 7 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 4 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$ and
 $p_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 6 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 5 & 4 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$

(a) Compute $p_1 \circ p_2$

(b) Compute p_1^{-1}

(c) Is p_1 an even or odd permutation ? Explain.

Solution :

$$(a) \quad p_1 \circ p_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 7 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 4 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \circ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 6 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 5 & 4 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 5 & 2 & 3 & 7 & 4 & 1 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(b) \quad p_1^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 4 & 3 & 2 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(c) \quad p_1 = (1, 7, 6, 5, 4) \circ (2, 3)$$

(i) **Closure** : Let $b \in H \Rightarrow b^{-1} \in H$

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore \text{ For } a, b \in H &\Rightarrow a, b^{-1} \in H \\ &\Rightarrow a * (b^{-1})^{-1} \in H \\ &\Rightarrow a * b \in H\end{aligned}$$

$\therefore H$ is closed under the operation " $*$ "

(ii) **Associative** : Since $H \subseteq G$, the elements of H are also the elements of G .

Since $*$ is associative in G , it must also be associative in H .

(iii) **Identity** : Let $a \in H$, $\Rightarrow a * a^{-1} \in H$
 $\Rightarrow e \in H$

$\therefore e$ is the identity element of H .

(iv) **Existence of inverse** : Let $e \in H, a \in H$
 $\Rightarrow e * a^{-1} \in H$
 $\Rightarrow a^{-1} \in H$

\therefore Every element of H has an inverse in H .

$\therefore H$ itself is a group under the operation $*$ in G .

Theorem 2 :

Let $(G, *)$ be a finite group, and H is non-empty subset of G and H is closed under $*$. Then H is a subgroup of G .

Proof : $(G, *)$ is a finite group and H is a subset of G which is closed under $*$.

i.e., $a, b \in H \Rightarrow a * b \in H$.

Let $O(G) = n$

Now $a, a \in H$

Then $a * a = a^2 \in H$

$a^2, a \in H$. Then $a^2 * a = a^3 \in H$ and so on.

Since G is finite there exists a ' m ' with $1 \leq m \leq n$ such that

$$a^m = e \in H$$

That is $e \in H$

Hence identity exists.

Let $a \in H$, then $a^{m-1} \in H$.

$$\text{i.e., } a^{m-1} = a^m * a^{-1} \in H$$

$$\text{i.e., } e * a^{-1} \in H$$

$$\text{i.e., } a^{-1} \in H.$$

\Rightarrow inverse exists.

Since every element of H is in G , associative property is true in H .

Hence $(H, *)$ is a group and so H is a subgroup of G .

Theorem 3.

The kernel of a homomorphism g from a group $\langle G, * \rangle$ to $\langle H, \Delta \rangle$ is a subgroup of $\langle G, * \rangle$.

Proof : Since $g(e_G) = e_H$, $e_G \in \ker(g)$

Also, if $a, b \in \ker(g)$,

$$\text{i.e., } g(a) = g(b) = e_H, \text{ then}$$

$$g(a * b) = g(a) \Delta g(b) = e_H \Delta e_H = e_H$$

so that $a * b \in \ker(g)$.

Finally, if $a \in \ker(g)$, then $g(a^{-1}) = [g(a)]^{-1} = e_H^{-1} = e_H$.

Hence $a^{-1} \in \ker(g)$ and $\ker(g)$ is a subgroup of $\langle G, * \rangle$.

Theorem 4.

Every cyclic group is abelian.

[A.U. M/J 2013, N/D 2013]

Solution: Let $(G, *)$ be a cyclic group generated by an element $a \in G$.

$$\text{(i.e.,) } G = \langle a \rangle$$

Then for any two elements $x, y \in G$

We have $x = a^n, y = a^m$, where m, n are integer.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Therefore } x * y &= a^n * a^m = a^{n+m} \\ &= a^{m+n} = a^m * a^n \\ &= y * x \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $(G, *)$ is abelian.

Problems based on sub group

Example 1. Is the union of two subgroups of a group, a subgroup of G ? Justify your answer.

Solution : The union of two subgroups of a group need not be a subgroup of G .

Let the group $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$

Let $H = 3\mathbb{Z} = \{0, \pm 3, \pm 6, \dots\}$

Let $K = 2\mathbb{Z} = \{0, \pm 2, \pm 4, \dots\}$

$\Rightarrow H$ and K are subgroups of $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$.

$\Rightarrow 3 \in 3\mathbb{Z} \in 3\mathbb{Z} \cup 2\mathbb{Z} = H \cup K$

$\Rightarrow 2 \in 2\mathbb{Z} \in 2\mathbb{Z} \cup 3\mathbb{Z} = H \cup K$

But $3 + 2 = 5 \notin 2\mathbb{Z} \cup 3\mathbb{Z}$

$\therefore H \cup K$ is not a subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$

Example 2. The identity element of a subgroup is same as that of the group. [A.U N/D 2012]

Solution : Let H be the subgroup of the group G and e and e' be the identity elements of G and H respectively.

Now if $a \in H$, then $a \in G$ and $ae = a$, because e is the identity element of G .

Again $a \in H$, then $ae' = a$ since e' is the identity element of H .

Thus $ae = ae'$ which gives $e = e'$

Example 3. If H and K are subgroup of G , prove that $H \cup K$ is a subgroup of G if and only if either $H \subseteq K$ or $K \subseteq H$.

[A.U N/D 2014]

Solution : Given H and K are two subgroups of G and $H \subseteq K$ or $K \subseteq H$.

If $H \subseteq K$ then $H \cup K = K$ which is a subgroup of G .

If $K \subseteq H$ then $H \cup K = H$ which is a subgroup of G .

Conversely suppose $K \not\subseteq H$ and $H \not\subseteq K$.

Then there exists $a \in H$ and $a \notin K$ and there exists a $b \in K$ and $b \notin H$.

Now $a, b \in H \cup K$. Because $H \cup K$ is a subgroup, it follows that $a * b \in H \cup K$. Hence $a * b \in H$ or $a * b \in K$.

Case (i) : If $a * b \in H$

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

That is $b \in H$ which is a contradiction.

Case (ii) : If $a * b \in K$

Then $a * b * b^{-1} \in K$

i.e., $a \in K$ which is a contradiction.

Thus either $H \subseteq K$ or $K \subseteq H$

Example 4. Prove that the intersection of two subgroups of a group is a subgroup of G . [A.U M/J 2013, N/D 2013, N/D 2014]

Solution : Given H and K are subgroups of G .

Let $a, b \in H \cap K \Rightarrow a, b \in H$ and $a, b \in K$

$\Rightarrow a * b^{-1} \in H$ and $a * b^{-1} \in K$ (as H and K are subgroups)

$\Rightarrow a * b^{-1} \in H \cap K$.

Thus $H \cap K$ is a subgroup of G .

Example 5. Show that the set of all elements a of a group $(G, *)$ such that $a * x = x * a$ for every $x \in G$ is a subgroup of G .

[A.U N/D 2010]

Solution : Let $H = \{a \in G \mid ax = xa, \forall x \in G\}$

As $ey = ye = y, \forall y \in G, e \in G, H$ is non empty.

Let x and z in H

Then $xy = yx$ and $zy = yz$ for all $y \in G$

$$(xz)y = x(yz) \Rightarrow (yx)z = y(xz), \forall y \in G$$

$$\therefore xz \in H, \quad \forall x, z \in H$$

$$x \in H \Leftrightarrow xy = yx, \quad \forall y \in G$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x^{-1}(xy)x^{-1} = x^{-1}(yx)x^{-1}, \quad \forall y \in G$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (x^{-1}x)(yx^{-1}) = (x^{-1}y)(xx^{-1})$$

$$\Leftrightarrow yx^{-1} = x^{-1}y$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x^{-1} \in H$$

$\therefore H$ is a subgroup.

Example 6. If 'a' is a generator of a cyclic group G , then show that 'a⁻¹' is also a generator of G .

[A.U M/J 2012]

Solution : Let $G = \langle a \rangle$ be a cyclic generated by 'a'

If $x \in G$, then $x = a^n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$\therefore x = a^n = (a^{-1})^{-n}, \quad (-n \in \mathbb{Z})$$

$\therefore 'a^{-1}'$ is also a generator of G .

Example 7. Find all the subgroups of $(\mathbb{Z}_9, +_9)$

[A.U M/J 2014]

Solution : $\mathbb{Z}_9 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$

The operation is addition modulo 9.

Consider the subsets

$$H_1 = \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8\}$$

$$H_2 = \{0, 3, 6\}$$

$$H_3 = \{0, 4, 8\}$$

$$H_4 = \{0, 5\}$$

The improper subgroups of $(Z_9, +_9)$ are $[\{0\}, +_9]$ and $[Z_9, +_9]$

$+_9$	0	5
0	0	5
5	5	1

$[H_4 \text{ is closed}]$

$+_9$	0	4	8
0	0	4	8
4	4	8	3
8	8	3	7

$[H_3 \text{ is closed}]$

$+_9$	0	3	6
0	0	3	6
3	3	6	0
6	6	0	3

$[H_2 \text{ is closed}]$

$+_9$	0	2	4	6	8
0	0	2	4	6	8
2	2	4	6	8	1
4	4	6	8	1	3
6	6	8	1	3	5
8	8	1	3	5	7

$[H_1 \text{ is closed}]$

The operation tables shows that

H_1, H_2, H_3 and H_4 are closed for $+_9$

\therefore The possible proper subgroups of $(Z_9, +_9)$ are $(H_1, +_9)$, $(H_2, +_9)$, $(H_3, +_9)$ and $(H_4, +_9)$

Example 8. Any cyclic group of order n is isomorphic to the additive group of residue classes of integers modulo n .

Proof :

Let $G = \{a, a^2, \dots, a^n = e\}$ be a cyclic group of order n generated by a .

We know that $(Z_n, +_n)$ is the additive group of residue classes modulo n .