

Algebra and Number Theory [MA8551]

Introduction :

Number System

Natural numbers. $(\mathbb{N}) = \{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$

Whole numbers $(\mathbb{W}) = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$

Integers $(\mathbb{Z}) = \{0, 1, -1, 2, -2, 3, -3, \dots\}$

Rational $(\mathbb{Q}) = \left\{ \frac{p}{q} / p \text{ and } q \text{ are integers, } q \neq 0 \right\}$

Irrational = Not rational = \mathbb{Q}^c

Real numbers = $(\text{Rational}) \cup (\text{Irrational})$
= $\mathbb{Q} \cup \mathbb{Q}^c$

Note :

Rational and Irrationals have no number in common.

That is $\mathbb{Q} \cap \mathbb{Q}^c = \emptyset$

\emptyset means empty set

\mathbb{Q}^c means complement of \mathbb{Q} .

Set Inclusion

Subset If all the elements of the set A

are the elements of B then A is a subset of B

We write

$A \subseteq B$

Example

Let

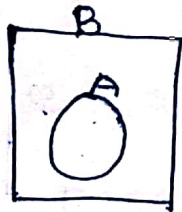
$A = \{1, 2, 3\}$

$B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$

Hence

$A \subseteq B$

A is a subset of B

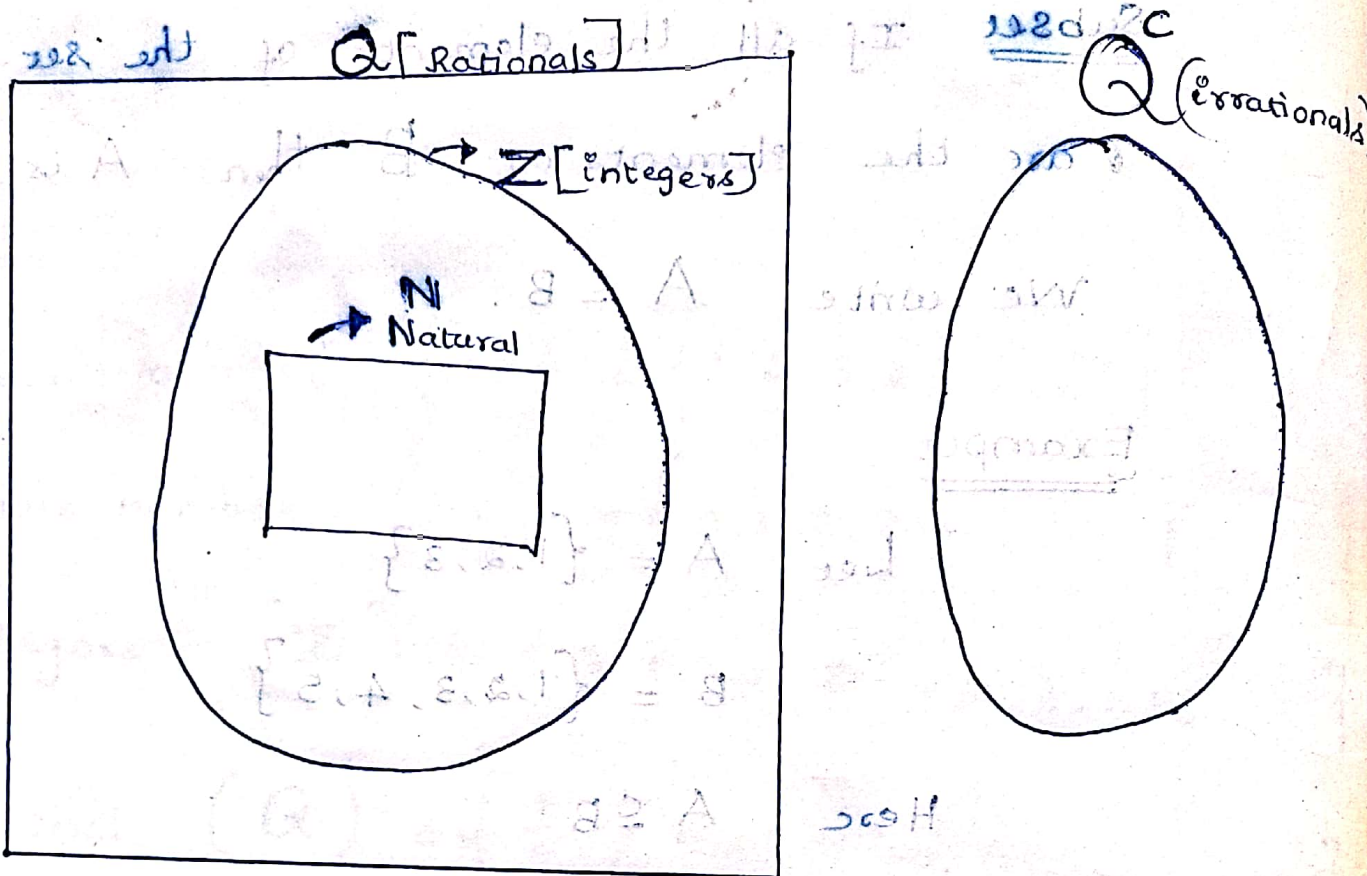


Equal Set

Two sets A and B are equal if

$A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$

Diagram [Representing Number System]



$$N \subseteq Z \subseteq Q$$

$$Q \cup Q^c = R$$



Here

$$N = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

$$Z = \{0, 1, -1, 2, -2, 3, -3, \dots\}$$

$$Q = \left\{ \frac{p}{q} \mid p \text{ and } q \text{ are integers, } q \neq 0 \right\}$$

Unit - I

GROUPS AND RINGS

GROUPS

A non empty set 'G' with binary operation '*' is called a group if it satisfies the following properties.

(i) Closure property:

For any $a, b \in G$, $a * b \in G$.

(ii) Existence of identity:

There exists an identity element $e \in G$ such that $a * e = e * a = a$ for all $a \in G$.

(iii) Associative property:

$a * (b * c) = (a * b) * c$ for all $a, b, c \in G$.

(iv) Existence of inverse:

For any $a \in G$, there exists $a' \in G$ such that $a * a' = a' * a = e$.

Note

Here a' is called inverse of a .

e is identity element.

Notation: If G is a group with respect to *

then we denote $(G, *)$ is a group.

Examples

(1) \mathbb{Z} is a group under the binary operations

That is, $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is a group.

Proof:

(i) closure property

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Then obviously $a + b \in \mathbb{Z}$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$.

(ii) Associate property

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Then obviously $a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c$

for all $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$.

(iii) Existence of Identity

0 is the identity element and $0 \in \mathbb{Z}$

Also for any $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, $0 + a = a + 0 = a$.

(iv) Existence of inverse

Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Then $-a \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

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

Here $-a$ is inverse of a .

$\therefore (\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is a group.

2) ~~Prove that~~ $(\mathbb{N}, +)$ is not a group.

Proof

(i) closure property

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$

Then obviously $a + b \in \mathbb{N}$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$.

(ii) Associative property

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{N}$

then obviously $a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c$

for all $a, b, c \in \mathbb{N}$

(iii) Existence of property

Here there does not exist an identity element.

\therefore Existence property ~~is~~ does not hold.

$\therefore (\mathbb{N}, +)$ is not a group.

③ Show that \mathbb{Z} is not a group under the binary operation ' \cdot '.

Soln.

To prove (\mathbb{Z}, \cdot) is not a group.

(i) Closure property:

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$

Then obviously $a \cdot b \in \mathbb{Z}$

(ii) Associative property:

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$

Then obviously $a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$

(iii) Existence of identity

1 is the identity element and $1 \in \mathbb{Z}$.

For any $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, $1 \cdot a = a \cdot 1 = a$.

(iv) Existence of inverse:

Here elements other than ± 1 and -1 have no inverse.

(For example; 2 has no inverse).

$\therefore \mathbb{Z}$ is not a group under multiplication.

Other Examples

- (i) $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ is a group.
- (ii) $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$ is a group.
- (iii) $(\mathbb{Q}^c, +)$ is not a group.
- (iv) $(\mathbb{R} - \{0\}, \cdot)$ is a group.
- (v) $(\mathbb{Q} - \{0\}, \cdot)$ is a group.

Abelian Group

A group $(G, *)$ is abelian if $a * b = b * a$

Examples

- (i) $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ is abelian group.
- (ii) $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$ is abelian group.
- (iii) $(\mathbb{R} - \{0\}, \cdot)$ is abelian group.
- (iv) $(\mathbb{Q} - \{0\}, \cdot)$ is abelian group.

Problem :: Show that the set of all 2×2 ^{non zero} matrices and ^{determinant \neq zero} with ~~en~~ real entries is a group but not an abelian group, under matrix multiplication.

Soln Let $G = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} / a, b, c, d \text{ are real numbers} \right.$

(i) closure property:

Let $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} \in G$;

with a, b, c, d are not simultaneously zero and $\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} \neq 0$

Then $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ae+bg & af+bh \\ ce+dg & cf+dh \end{bmatrix} \in G$.

(ii) Associate property:

Let $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} i & j \\ k & l \end{bmatrix} \in G$.

Then $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \cdot \left(\begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} i & j \\ k & l \end{bmatrix} \right) = \left(\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} \right) \cdot \begin{bmatrix} i & j \\ k & l \end{bmatrix}$

(iii) Existence of identity

Clearly $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \in G$ and it is identity element.

For any $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \in G$,

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

(iv) Existence of inverse

Let $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \in G$.

Then $\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} \neq 0$.

$\Rightarrow ad - bc \neq 0$.

$\frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$ is the inverse of $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$.

$$\frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{bmatrix} ad-bc & -db+db \\ -ac+ac & ad-bc \end{bmatrix} \\ = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\therefore G$ is a group.

To prove G is not abelian

Abelian
 $a * b = b * a$
 for all $a, b \in G$

Let $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \in G$.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 2 \\ 18 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 6 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

Here $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \neq \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$

$\therefore G$ is not abelian group.

H.w Determine which of the following are groups and are not groups. Explain your answer.

① Let $A = \{1, -1, i, -i\}$ where 'i' is a complex number with $i^2 = -1$.

(A, \cdot) is a group or not?

② The set of all whole numbers under the binary operation $+$ is a group or not?

③ Let $G = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\}$
 \emptyset means empty set.

Define the binary operation \cap on G .
 \cap means intersection.

(G, \cap) is a group or not?

Order of group. The number of elements in a finite group is order of group, denoted by $O(G) = |G|$.

Permutation Group

Permutation

Let 'A' be a finite set. A bijection from 'A' to itself is called a permutation.

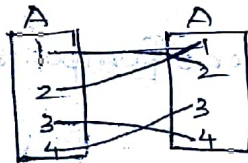
[Bijection means 1-1 & onto mapping]

Example

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

Define a function 'f' from A into A by

$$f(1) = 2, \quad f(2) = 1, \quad f(3) = 4, \quad f(4) = 3$$



Then f is bijection.

We write this permutation

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

may be read as "1 goes to 2, 2 goes to 1, 3 goes to 4, 4 goes to 3"

Operation On permutations

$$\text{Let } A = \{1, 2, 3\}$$

Then there are $3! = 6$ permutations on A.

Let S_3 denote these permutations.

$$S_3 = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

Define a binary operation 'o' [composition] on S_3

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

Take $P_1 :$

$$\begin{matrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{matrix}$$

$P_2 :$

$$\begin{matrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{matrix}$$

Then $P_1 \circ P_2 :$

$$\begin{matrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{matrix}$$

Similarly define S_n for $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

Note

* S_n contains $n!$ elements.

* S_n is a group under 'Composition of mappings'

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

Then $S_3 = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$

Take $e = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$

$P_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

$P_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$P_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$

$P_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$P_5 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

Cayley table

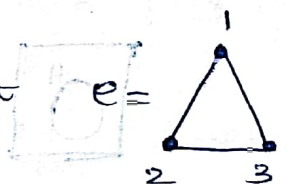
\circ	e	P_1	P_2	P_3	P_4	P_5
e	e	P_1	P_2	P_3	P_4	P_5
P_1	P_1	e	P_5	P_4	P_3	P_2
P_2	P_2	P_4	e	P_5	P_1	P_3
P_3	P_3	P_5	P_4	e	P_2	P_1
P_4	P_4	P_2	P_3	P_5	P_1	e
P_5	P_5	P_3	P_1	P_2	e	P_4

All properties are clear from above table.

$\therefore S_3$ is a group.
 S_3 is non abelian.

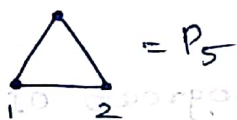
Q. Let G be the set of all rigid motions of an equilateral triangle. Identify the elements of G . Show that it is a non-abelian group of order 6.

Soln.

Let $e =$  be equilateral triangle.

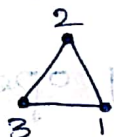
Then possible rigid motions are

Rotate 120° anticlockwise.



$= P_5$

Rotate 240° anticlockwise



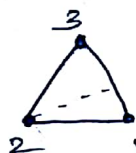
$= P_4$

Reflections along axes



$= P_1$

" " "



$= P_2$



$= P_3$

\therefore Set of all rigid motions = $\{e, P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4, P_5\}$.

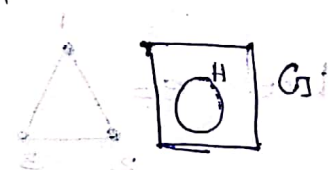
Write Cayley Table.

This is non-abelian group of order 6.

It is non-abelian group, since $P_1 \circ P_2 \neq P_2 \circ P_1$.

Defn (Subgroup)

A subset 'H' of a group G is called a subgroup of G if H forms a group with respect to the binary operation in G.



Examples

- ① $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is a subgroup of $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$
- ② $\{1\}$ is a subgroup of $\{1, -1, i, -i\}$ with respect to the binary operation.
- ③ $\{e, P_i\}$ is a subgroup of S_3 under the binary operation 'o' [composition].

Subgroup Test:

A non-empty subset 'H' of a group $(G, *)$ is a subgroup of G iff $a, b \in H \Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in H$.

Example

- ① $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is a subgroup of $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$.

Proof

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$
Since a, b are integers, $-a, -b$ belong to \mathbb{Z}
 $\Rightarrow a - b$ is an integer

$\Rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is a subgroup of $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$

Cyclic Subgroup

Let G be a group and $a \in G$.

Then $H = \{a^n / n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a subgroup of G .

H is called a cyclic subgroup of G generated by a and is denoted by $\langle a \rangle$.

$$H = \langle a \rangle.$$

Important note

* Suppose G is a group w.r.t. ' \cdot '

then $H = \{a^n / n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is cyclic subgroup.

* Suppose G is a group w.r.t. ' $+$ '

then $H = \{na / n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is cyclic subgroup.

Cyclic Group

Let G be a group and $a \in G$.

Then G is cyclic iff $\langle a \rangle \cong G$.

Here a is called generator of G .

Examples

① $\{1, -1, i, -i\}$ is a cyclic group w.r.t. ' \cdot '.

Proof

Here i and $-i$ are generators.

$$\langle i \rangle = \{i, i^2, i^3, i^4\} = \{i, -1, -i, 1\}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Similarly } \langle -i \rangle &= \{-i, (-i)^2, (-i)^3, (-i)^4\} \\ &= \{-i, -1, i, 1\}. \end{aligned}$$

② $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is a cyclic group.

Proof:

Here 1 and -1 are generators.

$$\langle 1 \rangle = \{n \cdot 1 \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\langle -1 \rangle = \{n \cdot (-1) \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \mathbb{Z}$$

This is infinite cyclic group.

③ $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$ is not a cyclic group

Since there is no element $a \in \mathbb{Q}$ such

that

$$\langle a \rangle = \mathbb{Q}.$$

④ Let $\mathbb{Z}_5 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$

Define a binary operation \oplus in \mathbb{Z}_5 such that

$$a \oplus b = r \quad \text{where } r \text{ is a remainder}$$

when $a+b$ is divided by 5.

For example, $1 \oplus 3 = 4$

$$2 \oplus 4 = 1$$

(\because we get remainder 1 when '2+4' is divided by 5)

$$3 \oplus 4 = 2$$

$$4 \oplus 4 = 3$$

$$1 \oplus 4 = 0$$

Z_5 is a cyclic group.

Proof Here 1 is a generator.

$$\begin{aligned} \langle 1 \rangle &= \{1, 1 \oplus 1, 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 1, 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 1, 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 1\} \\ &= \{1, 2, 3, 4, 0\} \\ &= Z_5. \end{aligned}$$

Also 3 is a generator

$$\begin{aligned} \langle 3 \rangle &= \{3, 3 \oplus 3, 3 \oplus 3 \oplus 3, 3 \oplus 3 \oplus 3 \oplus 3, 3 \oplus 3 \oplus 3 \oplus 3 \oplus 3\} \\ &= \{3, 1, 4, 2, 0\} \\ &= Z_5. \end{aligned}$$

Home work!

Prove that $\{Z_7, \oplus\}$ is a group. [Write Cayley Table]

Also prove it is cyclic group.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	2	3	4	5	6	0
2	3	4	5	6	0	1
3	4	5	6	0	1	2
4	5	6	0	1	2	3
5	6	0	1	2	3	4
6	0	1	2	3	4	5

Prime Number:

A number is prime if its only divisors are 1 and itself.

Examples

2, 3, 5, 7, 11 are prime numbers.

Question: Prove that $\mathbb{Z}_7 - \{0\}$ is a group under multiplication modulo 7.

Soln

$$\mathbb{Z}_7 - \{0\} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

Define a binary operation "multiplication modulo 7"

on $\mathbb{Z}_7 - \{0\}$ by

$a \odot b = r$ where r is a remainder when ab is divided by 7.

For example,

$$2 \odot 5 = 3$$

$$2 \odot 3 = 6$$

Cayley Table

\odot	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	2	4	6	1	3	5
3	3	6	2	5	1	4
4	4	1	5	2	6	3
5	5	3	1	6	4	2
6	6	5	4	3	2	1

To prove $(\mathbb{Z}_7 - \{0\}, \odot)$ is a group. every of

(i) closure property:

It is obvious from Cayley table.

(ii) Associative property:

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}_7 - \{0\}$.

Then clearly $a \odot (b \odot c) = (a \odot b) \odot c$

(iii) Existence of identity

1 is the identity element

and $1 \in \mathbb{Z}_7 - \{0\}$ with $1 \odot a = a \odot 1 = a$ for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}_7 - \{0\}$.

(iv) Existence of inverse

Inverse of 1 is 1

" " 2 is 4

" " 3 is 5

" " 4 is 2

" " 5 is 3

" " 6 is 6.

\therefore All properties of Group are satisfied.

$\therefore (\mathbb{Z}_7 - \{0\}, \odot)$ is a group.

Also it is abelian group.

$\therefore a \odot b = b \odot a$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_7 - \{0\}$.

To prove $(\mathbb{Z}_7 - \{0\}, \odot)$ is a cyclic group.

Here 3 is a generator.

$$\langle 3 \rangle = \{3, 3 \odot 3, 3 \odot 3 \odot 3, 3 \odot 3 \odot 3 \odot 3, 3 \odot 3 \odot 3 \odot 3 \odot 3, 3 \odot 3 \odot 3 \odot 3 \odot 3 \odot 3\}$$

$$= \{3, 2, 6, 4, 5, 1\}$$

$$= \mathbb{Z}_7 - \{0\}$$

$\therefore (\mathbb{Z}_7 - \{0\}, \odot)$ is cyclic group.

Note

* Generally $(\mathbb{Z}_n - \{0\}, \odot)$ is a group if n is prime.

For example $(\mathbb{Z}_6 - \{0\}, \odot)$ is not a group.

Reason: $\mathbb{Z}_6 - \{0\} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$.

Here $2, 3 \in \mathbb{Z}_6 - \{0\}$

But $2 \odot 3 = 0 \notin \mathbb{Z}_6 - \{0\}$.

\therefore closure property is not satisfied.

Problem

$$G = \{q \in \mathbb{Q} / q \neq -1\}$$

Define a binary operation 'o' on G by

$$x \circ y = x + y + xy.$$

Prove that G is an abelian group.

Soln

$$G = \{q \in \mathbb{Q} / q \neq -1\}.$$

Let $x, y \in G$.

$$x \circ y = x + y + xy.$$

(i) closure property:

Let $x, y \in G$.

$$\Rightarrow x \neq -1 \text{ and } y \neq -1.$$

$$x \circ y = x + y + xy.$$

To prove: $x + y + xy \neq -1$

Suppose $x + y + xy = -1$

$$\Rightarrow x + y + xy + 1 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (x+1)(y+1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (x+1) = 0 \text{ (or) } (y+1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x = -1 \text{ (or) } y = -1.$$

Which is a contradiction to $x \neq -1$ and $y \neq -1$.

$$\therefore x + y + xy \neq -1.$$

$$\therefore x + y + xy \in G.$$

closure property satisfied.

(ii) Associate property

Let $x, y, z \in G$.

$$\text{To prove } x \circ (y \circ z) = (x \circ y) \circ z$$

$$\text{L.H.S } x \circ (y \circ z) = x \circ (y + z + yz)$$

$$= x + y + z + yz + xy + xz + xyz \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

$$\text{R.H.S } (x \circ y) \circ z = (x + y + xy) \circ z$$

$$= x + y + xy + z + xz + yz + xyz \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

From $\textcircled{1}$ and $\textcircled{2}$, associative property holds good.

(iii) Existence of Identity:

$0 \in G$ is identity element.

Since, $0 \neq 0 \cdot x = 0 + x + 0 \cdot x = x$, for all $x \in G$.

(iv) Existence of Inverse:

Let $a \in G$. $\Rightarrow a \neq -1$.

Let a' be the inverse of a .

Then $a \circ a' = a' \circ a = \text{identity element}$

$$a \circ a' = 0$$

$$a + a' + aa' = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow a + a'(1+a) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow a'(1+a) = 0 - a = -a$$

$$\Rightarrow a' = \frac{-a}{1+a} \in G$$

$$a \circ a' = a + \left(\frac{-a}{1+a} \right) + a \left(\frac{-a}{1+a} \right)$$

$$= \frac{a + a^2 - a - a^2}{1+a}$$

$$= \frac{0}{1+a}$$

$$= 0 \text{ (identity element)}$$

Also $a' \circ a = 0$ (identity element)

$\therefore G$ is a group.

Abelian

$$x \circ y = x + y + xy$$

$$y \circ x = y + x + yx = x + y + xy$$

$$\therefore x \circ y = y \circ x \text{ for all } x, y \in G$$

$\therefore G$ is abelian group.

Notations (Useful in proving theorems)

\in : belongs to

\notin : does not belong to

\Rightarrow : implies that

\Leftrightarrow : if and only if

$\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$: contradiction

\exists : there exists

Theorem 1 Let G be a group.

(i) identity element of G is unique.

(ii) for any $a \in G$, the inverse of a is unique.

Proof:

Let $(G, *)$ be a group.

(i) T.P : identity element of G is unique.

Suppose e_1 and e_2 are two identity elements

of G .

$$\text{Since } e_1 \text{ is identity, } e_1 * e_2 = e_2 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\text{Since } e_2 \text{ is identity, } e_1 * e_2 = e_1 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

From (1) and (2), $e_1 = e_2$.

\therefore Identity element of G is unique.

(ii) Let $a \in G$ be any arbitrary element.

To prove inverse of a is unique.

Let a' and a'' be two inverses of a .

$$\Rightarrow a'a = a'a = e$$

Also $a * a'' = a'' * a = e$. (identity element)

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

\therefore Inverse of a is unique.

Theorem 2 In a group the left and right cancellation laws hold.

$$a * b = a * c \Rightarrow b = c.$$

Proof

Left cancellation Law:

$$\text{Let } a * b = a * c$$

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

$$\Rightarrow (a^{-1} * a) * b = (a^{-1} * a) * c \quad \left(\text{Using Associative Property} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow e * b = e * c$$

$$\Rightarrow b = c$$

Hence the left cancellation law.

Right Cancellation Law "a bnc" and "a" and "c"

T.P $b * a = c * a \Rightarrow b = c$

Let $b * a = c * a$ in G

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

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

$\Rightarrow b * e = c * e$

$\Rightarrow b = c$

Hence the right cancellation law

Theorem 3

Let $(H, *)$ be a subgroup of $(G, *)$. Then

(a) the identity element of H is the same as that of G .

(b) for each $a \in H$ the inverse of a in H is the same as the inverse of a in G .

Proof

(a) Let e be an identity element of G and e' be an identity element of H .

Let $a \in H$

Then $a = e' * a$ ($\because e'$ is identity in H)

Also $a \in G$. ($\because H \subseteq G$)

Now $a = e * a$.

$\therefore e' * a = e * a$ is true in G .

Using right cancellation law, $e' = e$.

\therefore Identity element of H is same as that of G .

(ii) (b) Let a' and a'' be the inverses of a in G
in H respectively.

From (a), G and H have same identity element

$$\text{say } e \text{ is the identity element}$$

$$\Rightarrow a' * a = e \text{ and } a'' * a = e$$

$$a' * a = e \text{ and } a'' * a = e$$

$$\therefore a' * a = a'' * a$$

Using right cancellation law, $a' = a''$

\therefore Inverse of a in H is same that of G .

Theorem (A) A subset H of a group G is a subgroup

of G if and only if

- (i) it is closed under the binary operation in G
- (ii) the identity e of G is in H
- (iii) $a \in H \Rightarrow a^{-1} \in H$.

Proof:-

Let H be a subgroup of $(G, *)$



Then $(H, *)$ is also a group

\therefore (i), (ii), (iii) are obviously true.

Conversely, let us assume that H is a subset of G

satisfying (i), (ii), (iii).

To prove: H is a subgroup.

Closure property:

Let $a, b \in H$.

Then by (i), $a * b \in H$.

Associative property: Let $a, b, c \in H$

$$a * (b * c) = (a * b) * c \text{ for all } a, b, c \in H.$$

Existence of identity

It is obvious from (ii).

Existence of inverse.

It is obvious from (iii).

$\therefore (H, *)$ is a group and $H \subseteq G$.

$\therefore H$ is a subgroup of G .

Theorem Let H be a non-empty finite subset of a group G , then H is a subgroup of G if and only if H is closed under the binary operation in G .

Proof

Let $(G, *)$ be a group.

Let H be a non-empty finite subset of G .

Assume H is closed under $*$.

To prove: H is a subgroup of G .

Let $a \in H$

(Since H is closed under $*$, $a, a*a, a*a*a, \dots$ are all elements of H .)

$\Rightarrow a, a^2, a^3, \dots, a^n, \dots$ are all elements of H .

Since H is finite $a, a^2, a^3, \dots, a^n, \dots$ cannot all be distinct.

Hence $a^r = a^s$ for some $r < s$.

Then $a^{s-r} = a^r * a^{-r} = e \in H$.

Take $s^{-1} = m$.

Then $a^m = e$.

$$\Rightarrow a * a^{m-1} = e = a^{m-1} * a$$

$\Rightarrow a^{m-1}$ is inverse of a

Also $a^{m-1} \in H$.

$\therefore H$ is subgroup [using theorem ④]

Conversely, let H is a subgroup of G .

Then H is closed under the binary operation in G .

Hence the proof.

Theorem ⑥ If H and K are subgroups of a group G then HNK is also a subgroup of G .

Proof:-

Let H and K be subgroups of a group $(G, *)$.

Then $e \in HNK$.

$\Rightarrow HNK$ is non-empty.

To prove: HNK is a subgroup.

Let $a, b \in HNK$.

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

Since H is a subgroup $a * b^{-1} \in H$

Since K is a subgroup $a * b^{-1} \in K$.

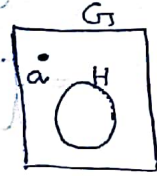
$\Rightarrow a * b^{-1} \in HNK$.

$\therefore HNK$ is a subgroup.

Defn [coset]

If H is a subgroup of a group G , then for each $a \in G$, the set $aH = \{ah / h \in H\}$ is called a left coset of H in G .

The set $Ha = \{ha / h \in H\}$ is called a right coset of H in G .



Note

* If the operation in G is '+', we write

$a+H$ in place of aH
 $a+H = \{a+h / h \in H\}$

Examples

① Let G be the set of all integers with the binary operation '+'.
 $\therefore G = (\mathbb{Z}, +)$

Let $2\mathbb{Z} = \{2z / z \in \mathbb{Z}\}$
 $= \{0, \pm 2, \pm 4, \pm 6, \dots\}$

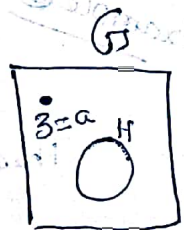
Take $H = (2\mathbb{Z}, +)$

Then H is a subgroup of G .

$a = 3 \in G$

Left coset of $H = 3H = 3+H$

$= \{3+h / h \in H\}$
 $= \{3, 5, 1, 7, -1, 9, -3, \dots\}$



Example ② Let $G = (\mathbb{Z}_{12}, \oplus)$.

$H = \{0, 4, 8\}$ under \oplus [addition modulo 12]

Then H is a subgroup of G .

Take $a = 1 \in G$.

$$1 \oplus H = \{1 \oplus h / h \in H\}$$

$$= \{1 \oplus 0, 1 \oplus 4, 1 \oplus 8\}$$

$$= \{1, 5, 9\}$$

Take $a = 5 \in G$.

$$5 \oplus H = \{5 \oplus h / h \in H\}$$

$$= \{5 \oplus 0, 5 \oplus 4, 5 \oplus 8\}$$

$$= \{5, 9, 1\}$$

$1 \oplus H$ and $5 \oplus H$ are determined same

left coset of H in G .

Example ③ Let $G = (S_3, \circ)$

$H = \{e, P_1\}$ under composition.



Then H is a subgroup of G .

$$P_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Take $a = P_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in G$

Then $aH = a \circ H = \{a \circ h / h \in H\}$.

$$= \{a \circ e, a \circ P_1\}$$

$$= \{P_2, P_2 \circ P_1\}$$

Left coset of H .

$$= \left\{ P_2, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Right coset of } H &= Ha = Ho_a = \{hoa / h \in H\} \\ &= \{eoa, P_1oa\} \\ &= \{eop_2, P_1oP_2\} \\ &= \{P_2, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}\}. \end{aligned}$$

Note Here $aH \neq Ha$.

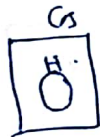
Theorem 7 If H is a subgroup of a finite group G , then for all $a, b \in G$

(i) $|aH| = |H|$

(ii) either $aH = bH$ or $aH \cap bH = \emptyset$

Proof:-

Let H be a subgroup of a finite group G .



Let $a, b \in G$ be any arbitrary elements.

(i) To prove $|aH| = |H|$.

$$aH = \{ah / h \in H\}.$$

$$\Rightarrow |aH| \leq |H|.$$

$$\Rightarrow |aH| < |H| \text{ or } |aH| = |H|.$$

We claim that $|aH| < |H|$ is not possible.

Suppose $|aH| < |H|$ is possible.

Then \exists elements h_1, h_2 with $h_1 \neq h_2$ such that $ah_1 = ah_2$.

$$\Rightarrow h_1 = h_2 \text{ (using cancellation law)}$$

Which is a contradiction to $h_1 \neq h_2$.

$$\therefore |aH| < |H| \text{ is not possible. } \Rightarrow |aH| = |H|.$$

(ii) Let aH and bH be two left cosets.

Suppose aH and bH are not disjoint

$$\Rightarrow aH \cap bH \neq \emptyset$$

We claim that $aH = bH$.

Since $aH \cap bH \neq \emptyset$, \exists an element $c \in aH \cap bH$.

$$\Rightarrow c \in aH \text{ and } c \in bH$$

$$\Rightarrow cH = aH \text{ and } cH = bH$$

Using
 $a \in bH \Rightarrow aH = bH$.

$$\therefore aH = bH$$

\therefore Either $aH = bH$ or $aH \cap bH = \emptyset$.

In other words, aH and bH are either identical or disjoint.

Theorem 2 Lagrange's Theorem
 If G is a finite group of order n

with H a subgroup of order m , then m divides n .

Proof:-

If $H = G$ then the thm is obviously true.

Assume $H \neq G$. $|H| = m < n = |G|$

$$\Rightarrow m < n$$

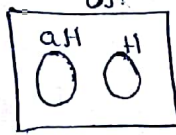
$\therefore \exists$ an element $a \in G - H$.

$$\Rightarrow a \in G \text{ but } a \notin H$$

$$a \notin H \Rightarrow aH \neq H$$

$\therefore aH$ and H are disjoint

$$\Rightarrow aH \cap H = \emptyset$$



If $G = aH \cup H$, then $|G| = |aH| + |H|$
 $= |H| + |H|$
 $(\because |aH| = |H|)$
 $= 2|H|$

$\Rightarrow n = 2m$
 $\Rightarrow m$ divides n .

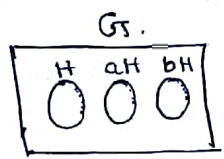
If $G \neq aH \cup H$, \exists an element $b \in G - (aH \cup H)$.

$\Rightarrow b \in G$ but $b \notin aH \cup H$.

Now $b \notin aH \cup H \Rightarrow b \notin aH$ and $b \notin H$.

$\Rightarrow bH \neq aH$ and $bH \neq H$.

$\Rightarrow bH \cap aH = \emptyset$ and $bH \cap H = \emptyset$.



If $G = H \cup aH \cup bH$, then $|G| = |H| + |aH| + |bH|$
 $= |H| + |H| + |H|$
 $= 3|H|$

$n = 3m$
 $\Rightarrow m$ divides n .

If $G \neq H \cup aH \cup bH$ then we choose ~~an element~~
 an element $c \in G - (H \cup aH \cup bH)$

Since G is finite group, this process terminates.

$$G = a_1 H \cup a_2 H \cup a_3 H \cup \dots \cup a_k H \quad (\text{say})$$

$$|G| = |a_1 H| + |a_2 H| + |a_3 H| + \dots + |a_k H|$$

$$= k|H|$$

$$n = km$$

$\Rightarrow m$ divides n .

Note



* By Lagrange's theorem, $|O(H)|$ divides $|O(G)|$.

$|H| + |HD| = |G|$ and $H \cup HD = G$

~~If q is not a divisor of $|O(G)|$~~

Suppose ' q ' is not a divisor of $|O(G)|$

then G cannot have a subgroup with order q

Example

Let $G = S_3$

$\Rightarrow |O(G)| = 3! = 6$

Here 4 does not divide 6.

S_3 cannot have a subgroup of order 4

* Converse of Lagrange's theorem true in finite abelian groups.

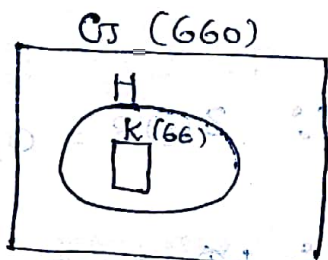


Q.2

Problem: Let G be a group with subgroups H and K .
If $|G| = 660$, $|K| = 66$ and $K \subseteq H \subseteq G$, what are the possible values for $|H|$?

Soln

Given: G is a group
 H and K are subgroups, $K \subseteq H \subseteq G$.
 $|G| = 660$, $|K| = 66$.



By Lagrange's theorem,

$|H|$ must divide $|G|$ and $|K|$ must divide $|H|$.

∴ $|H|$ must divide $|G|$ and $|H| = \text{multiple of } 66$.

∴ $|H|$ must divide 660 and $|H| = \text{multiple of } 66$.

Multiples of 66: 66, 132, 198, 264, 330, 396, 462, 528, 594, 660.

Among these 66, 132, 330, 660 are divisors of 660.

∴ $|H|$ can have possible values 66, 132, 330, 660.

Defn [order of an element].

Let G be a group and $a \in G$. Then order of 'a' is the least positive integer 'n' such that $a^n = e$.

Example ① Let $G = (\mathbb{Z}_6, \oplus)$.

Here identity element = $e = 0$

~~Let $a = 3$.~~

Order of 3 is 2. $(\because 3 \oplus 3 = 0)$

Order of 1 is 6 $(\because 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 1 = 0)$

Order of 2 is 3 $(\because 2 \oplus 2 \oplus 2 = 0)$

Order of 4 is 3 $(\because 4 \oplus 4 \oplus 4 = 0)$

Order of 5 is 6 $(\because 5 \oplus 5 \oplus 5 \oplus 5 \oplus 5 \oplus 5 = 0)$

Order of 0 is 1.

Example ② Let $G = (S_3, \circ)$

$$S_3 = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

Order of identity element = $e = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$ is 1.

Order of $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ is 2 $(\because \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \circ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix})$

Order of $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is 3 $(\because \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \circ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \circ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix})$

Important Results

① Order of $e = 1$

② Suppose G is a finite cyclic group and 'a' is generator.

Then order of $a = o(a) = |G|$.

Example

Let $G = \{1, -1, i, -i\}$.

Then G is a group under multiplication.

$$e = 1$$

i is generator.

$$i \cdot i \cdot i \cdot i = (i)^4 = 1.$$

\therefore order of $i = 4 = o(G)$.

③ Order must be least positive integer 'n'.

such that $a^n = e$.

Example

Let $G = (\mathbb{Z}_3, \oplus)$. $\mathbb{Z}_3 = \{0, 1, 2\}$.

Here, $e = 0$.

Let $a = 2$.

$$\text{order of } a = 3. \quad (2 \oplus 2 \oplus 2 = 0)$$

At the same time, $2 \oplus 2 \oplus 2 \oplus 2 \oplus 2 \oplus 2 = 0$

6 times.

But 3 is least +ve integer.

\therefore Order of 2 is 3.

Theorem 9 The order of any element of a finite group G divides the order of G .

Proof:-

Let G be a group of order n .

Let $a \in G$ with $o(a) = m$.

To prove: m divides n .

Since $a \in G$, $\langle a \rangle$ is a subgroup of order m .

By Lagrange's theorem, m divides n .

Hence the proof.

Theorem 10 Every group of prime order is cyclic.

Proof

Let G be a group with $o(G) = p$

where p is a prime number.

Let $a \in G$ with $a \neq e$.

Then $o(a)$ must divide $o(G)$ (Using thm 9)

$\Rightarrow o(a)$ must divide p where p is prime

$\Rightarrow o(a) = 1$ or $o(a) = p$ (p is prime)

Since $a \neq e$, $o(a) \neq 1$.

$\Rightarrow o(a) = p$.

$\therefore a \in G$ is an element with $o(a) = p = o(G)$.

$\therefore a$ is a generator.

$\langle a \rangle = G$.

$\therefore G$ is cyclic.

Theorem ⑪ Let $a \in G$ with $o(a) = n$. If $k \in \mathbb{Z}$

and $a^k = e$, then n divides k .

Proof:-

Let G be a group and $a \in G$, $o(a) = n$.

$\therefore n$ is the least positive integer such that $a^n = e$.

Let k be any integer with $a^k = e$.

To prove: n divides k .

Suppose n does not divide k .

$\Rightarrow k = qn + r$ where r is a non-zero

remainder when k is divided by n .

$$0 < r < n$$

Now, $a^k = e$

$$\Rightarrow a^{qn+r} = e$$

$$\Rightarrow a^{qn} \cdot a^r = e$$

$$\Rightarrow (a^n)^q \cdot a^r = e$$

$$\Rightarrow (e)^q \cdot a^r = e$$

$$\Rightarrow e \cdot a^r = e$$

$$\Rightarrow a^r = e$$

We have $r < n$, with $a^r = e$.

Which is a $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$ to $o(a) = n$.

$\therefore n$ divides k .

$\begin{array}{r} q \\ n \overline{)k} \\ \underline{ \neq 0} \end{array}$
$\begin{array}{r} 4 \\ 24 \overline{)100} \\ \underline{96} \\ 4 \end{array}$

Homomorphism

One to one Function :

A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is one to one if

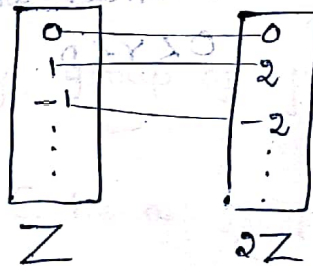
$$f(a) = f(b) \Rightarrow a = b.$$

In other words, f is 1-1 if distinct elements have distinct images.

Example

$f: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 2\mathbb{Z}$ defined by

$$f(x) = 2x \text{ is 1-1 function.}$$



Onto Function :-

A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is onto if

every element in Y has a pre-image in X .

Example

$f: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 2\mathbb{Z}$ defined by $f(x) = 2x$ is

onto.

Bijection

A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is bijection

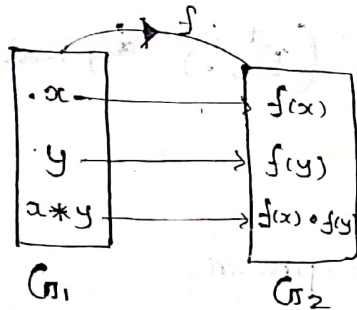
if it is both 1-1 & onto.

Defn [Group Homomorphism]

Let $(G_1, *)$ and (G_2, \circ) be two groups.

A function $f: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ is a homomorphism if

$$f(x * y) = f(x) \circ f(y) \quad \forall x, y \in G_1.$$



Defn [Isomorphism]

Let $(G_1, *)$ and (G_2, \circ) be two groups.

A function $f: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ is an isomorphism if f is homomorphism and bijection.

In this case, we write " G_1 is isomorphic to G_2 ".

In symbol $G_1 \cong G_2$.

Note:

1) Isomorphism is a mapping which preserves algebraic properties.

For example, if $f: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ is an isomorphism

Then G_1 is cyclic $\Rightarrow G_2$ also cyclic

G_1 is abelian $\Rightarrow G_2$ also abelian.

Examples

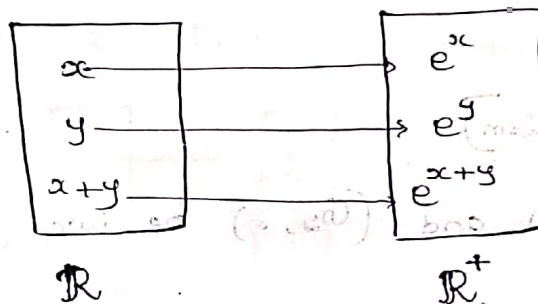
① Let \mathbb{R} denote set of all real numbers.
 \mathbb{R}^+ denote set of all positive real numbers.

Then $(\mathbb{R}, +)$, (\mathbb{R}^+, \cdot) are groups.

Define $f: (\mathbb{R}, +) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}^+, \cdot)$ defined by

$$f(x) = e^x$$

Then f is an isomorphism.



$$\begin{aligned} f(x+y) &= e^{x+y} \\ &= e^x \cdot e^y \end{aligned}$$

$$= f(x) \cdot f(y)$$

$\therefore f$ is homomorphism.

To prove f is 1-1.

$$\text{Let } f(x) = f(y)$$

$$\Rightarrow e^x = e^y$$

Taking logarithm both sides

$$\log e^x = \log e^y$$

$$\Rightarrow x = y$$

$\therefore f$ is 1-1.

To prove f is onto.

Let $r \in \mathbb{R}^+$.

Then $\exists \log r \in \mathbb{R}$ (such) that

$$f(\log r) = e^{\log r} = r$$

$\therefore \log r$ is the pre-image of r .

$\therefore f$ is onto.

$\therefore f$ is both homomorphism and bijection.

$\therefore f$ is an isomorphism.

$$\therefore (\mathbb{R}, +) \cong (\mathbb{R}^+, \cdot)$$

② $f: (\mathbb{Z}, +) \rightarrow (2\mathbb{Z}, +)$ defined by

$f(x) = 2x$ is an isomorphism.

③ Let $G = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mid a \text{ is non-zero real number} \right\}$

Then G is a group under matrix multiplication.

Let \mathbb{R}^* denote non-zero real numbers.

Then (\mathbb{R}^*, \cdot) is a group.

Define $f: G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^*$ by

$$f \left(\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right) = a$$

Claim: f is an isomorphism.

To prove f is homomorphism. 1-1

Let $\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in G$ such that

$$f \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = f \begin{pmatrix} b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow a = b$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$\therefore f$ is 1-1.

To prove f is onto.

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}^*$

Then $\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in G$ such that $f \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = a$.

$\therefore f$ is onto.

To prove: f is homomorphism.

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

It is enough to prove $f(A \cdot B) = f(A) \cdot f(B)$

$$A \cdot B = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ab & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f(A \cdot B) = \begin{pmatrix} ab & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = ab \quad (\text{by defn})$$

$$= f \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot f \begin{pmatrix} b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= f(A) \cdot f(B)$$

$\therefore f$ is homomorphism $[a^{-1}] = (a^{-1})^{-1}$ is group of (d)

$\therefore f$ is isomorphism.

$$\Rightarrow (G, \cdot) \cong (\mathbb{R}^*, \cdot)$$

Theorem (2) Let (G, \cdot) , $(H, *)$ be groups with respective identities e_G, e_H if $f: G \rightarrow H$ is a homomorphism, then

(a) $f(e_G) = e_H$

(b) $f(a^{-1}) = [f(a)]^{-1} \quad \forall a \in G$

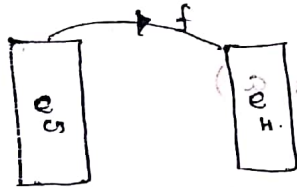
(c) $f(a^n) = [f(a)]^n \quad \forall a \in G \text{ and } n \in \mathbb{Z}$

(d) $f(S)$ is a subgroup of H for each subgroup S of G .

Proof:-

Let (G, \cdot) and $(H, *)$ be two groups and let

$f: G \rightarrow H$ a homomorphism.



(G, \cdot) and $(H, *)$

(a) To prove: $f(e_G) = e_H$

$$e_H * f(e_G) = f(e_G) \quad (\because e_H \text{ is identity in } H)$$

$$= f(e_G * e_G) \quad (\because e_G * e_G = e_G)$$

$$e_H * f(e_G) = f(e_G) * f(e_G) \quad (\because f \text{ is homomorphism})$$

Using right cancellation law, $e_H = f(e_G)$

(b) To prove: $f(a^{-1}) = [f(a)]^{-1} \quad \forall a \in G$

Let $a \in G$.

Now $f(a) * f(a^{-1}) = f(a \circ a^{-1}) \leftarrow$

$= f(e_G)$

$= e_H \quad (\text{by } \textcircled{a}) \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$

Also

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

$= f(e_G)$

$= e_H \quad (\text{by } \textcircled{a}) \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$

From $\textcircled{1}$ & $\textcircled{2}$, $f(a) * f(a^{-1}) = f(a^{-1}) * f(a) = e_H$

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

$\Rightarrow f(a^{-1}) = [f(a)]^{-1}$

(c) To prove $f(a^n) = [f(a)]^n \quad \forall a \in G \text{ and } n \in \mathbb{Z}$

Let $a \in G$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$f(a^n) = f(\underbrace{a \circ a \circ \dots \circ a}_{n \text{ times}})$

$= f(a) * f(a) * \dots * f(a) \quad (f \text{ is homo})$

$= [f(a)]^n$

(d) Let (S, \circ) be a subgroup of G .

To prove: $f(S)$ is a subgroup of H .

$f(S) = \{ f(a) \mid a \in S \}$

Subgroup Test

$$(\forall x, y \in S \Rightarrow x \circ y^{-1} \in S)$$

Let $x, y \in f(S)$

(To prove: $x \circ y^{-1} \in f(S)$)

$\therefore x = f(a)$, $y = f(b)$ for some $a, b \in S$.

$$x \circ y^{-1} = f(a) \circ [f(b)]^{-1}$$

$$= f(a) \circ f(b^{-1}) \quad (\because f(b^{-1}) = [f(b)]^{-1})$$

$$x \circ y^{-1} = f(a \circ b^{-1}) \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

Since S is a subgroup $a, b \in S \Rightarrow a \circ b^{-1} \in S$.

\therefore From $\textcircled{1}$ $x \circ y^{-1} \in f(S)$.

$\therefore f(S)$ is a subgroup of H .

Hence the proof.

Theorem 13 Let G be a cyclic group.

(a) $|G|$ is infinite then $G \cong (\mathbb{Z}, +)$

~~(b) $|G|$ is finite then $G \cong (\mathbb{Z}_n, \oplus)$~~

(b) $|G| = n$ where $n > 1$, then $G \cong (\mathbb{Z}_n, \oplus)$

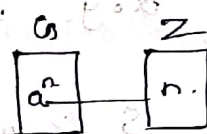
Proof:-

Let G be a cyclic group with generator a

$$\Rightarrow G = \{a^n / n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

(a) Suppose $|G|$ is infinite.

To prove: $G \cong (\mathbb{Z}, +)$.



Define $f: G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ by $f(a^n) = n, \forall a^n \in G$.

Claim: f is an isomorphism.

f is 1-1: Let $f(a^n) = f(a^m)$

$$\Rightarrow n = m$$

$$\Rightarrow a^n = a^m$$

$$\therefore f \text{ is 1-1.}$$

f is onto:

For any $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\exists a^n \in G$

such that $f(a^n) = n$.

$\therefore f$ is onto.

f is homomorphism:

$$f(a^n \cdot a^m) = f(a^{n+m})$$

$$= n+m$$

$$= f(a^n) + f(a^m)$$

$\therefore f$ is homomorphism.

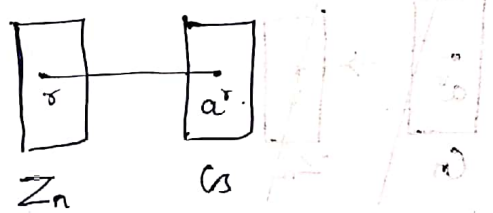
$\therefore f$ is an isomorphism. $\Rightarrow G \cong (\mathbb{Z}, +)$.

(b) If $|G| = n$ with $n > 1$.

Then $G = \{a, a^2, a^3, \dots, a^{n-1}, e\}$.

To prove $Z_n \cong G$.

Define $f: Z_n \rightarrow G$ by $f(r) = a^r$.



(i) f is 1-1

Let $f(r) = f(s)$

$$\Rightarrow a^r = a^s$$

$$\Rightarrow r = s$$

$\therefore f$ is 1-1.

(ii) f is onto:

For any $a^r \in G$, $\exists r \in Z_n$ with

$$f(r) = a^r \therefore f \text{ is onto.}$$

(iii) f is homomorphism.

To prove $f(r \oplus s) = f(r) \cdot f(s)$.

Let $r \oplus s = t$.

$\Rightarrow r + s$ leaves the remainder t when it is divided by n .

$$\Rightarrow r + s = qn + t, \quad 0 \leq t < n.$$

$$\Rightarrow f(r \oplus s) = f(t) = a^t \rightarrow \text{①}$$

Also $f(r) \cdot f(s) = a^r \cdot a^s = a^{r+s} = a^{qn+t} = a^{qn} \cdot a^t = (a^n)^q \cdot a^t = (e)^q \cdot a^t = e \cdot a^t = a^t$

From ① & ②, $f(r \oplus s) = f(r) \cdot f(s) = a^t \rightarrow \text{②}$.
 $\therefore f$ is isomorphism.

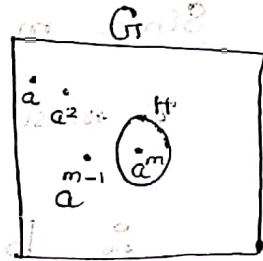
Theorem 1A Every subgroup of a cyclic group is cyclic.

Proof: Let G be a cyclic group generated by a .

v) $\langle a \rangle = G$.

Every element of G is some powers of a .

Let H be a subgroup of G .



To prove: H is cyclic.

Let m be the least +ve integer

such that $a^m \in H$.

We claim that a^m is the generator of H .

It is enough to prove, every element of H is some power of a^m .

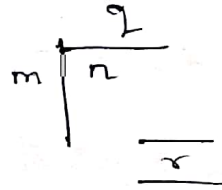
Let $b \in H$.



$\therefore b = a^n$ ($\because b \in G, G$ is cyclic)

Dividing n by m

$n = mq + r$; $0 \leq r < m$.



consider $b = a^n = a^{mq+r}$

$b = a^{mq} \cdot a^r$

Operate $(a^{mq})^{-1}$ both sides

$b \cdot (a^{mq})^{-1} = (a^{mq}) \cdot (a^{mq})^{-1} \cdot a^r$

$b \cdot (a^{mq})^{-1} = e \cdot a^r$

$b \cdot (a^{mq})^{-1} = a^r \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$

We have $b, a^{mq} \in H$.

Since H is a subgroup $b \cdot (a^{mq})^{-1} \in H$.

From ①, $a^r \in H$.

We have $0 \leq r < m$ with $a^r \in H$.

Since m is least +ve integer such that $a^m \in H$,

δ must be zero.

$$\therefore b = a^{mq+r}$$

$$\Rightarrow b = a^{mq+0}$$

$$\Rightarrow b = a^{mq}$$

$$\Rightarrow b = (a^m)^q$$

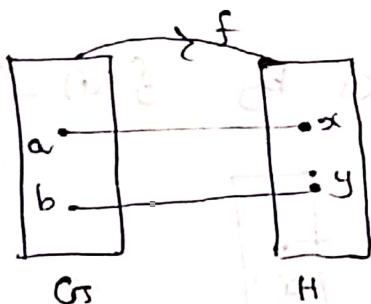
\therefore Every element of H is some power of a^m .

$\Rightarrow H$ is cyclic

Hence the proof.

Problem: Let $f: G \rightarrow H$ be a group homomorphism onto H . If G is abelian then prove H is abelian.

Soln: Given $f: G \rightarrow H$ is a homomorphism and onto.



Assume that G is abelian.

To prove: H is abelian

Let $x, y \in H$.

It is enough to prove $x \cdot y = y \cdot x$.

Since f is onto, x & y have pre-images.

$$\Rightarrow x = f(a)$$

$$\& y = f(b)$$

for some $a, b \in G$.

$$x \cdot y = f(a) \cdot f(b)$$

$$= f(a \cdot b) \quad (\because f \text{ is homo})$$

$$= f(b \cdot a) \quad (\because G \text{ is abelian, } a \cdot b = b \cdot a)$$

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

$$x \cdot y = y \cdot x$$

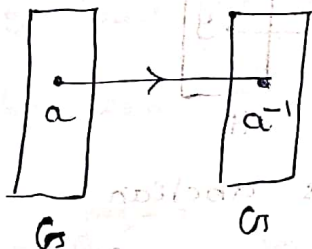
This is true for every $x, y \in H$.

$\therefore H$ is abelian.

Problem For a group G , prove that $f: G \rightarrow G, f(a) = a^{-1}$ is an isomorphism iff G is abelian. // and

Proof:- Let G be a group.

Define $f: G \rightarrow G$ by $f(a) = a^{-1}$.



Assume that $f(a) = a^{-1}$ is an isomorphism.

To prove: G is abelian

Let $a, b \in G$.

$\Rightarrow a^{-1}, b^{-1} \in G$.

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

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



Formula

$$(x \cdot y)^{-1} = y^{-1} \cdot x^{-1}$$

$$(b^{-1})^{-1} \cdot (a^{-1})^{-1} = (a^{-1})^{-1} \cdot (b^{-1})^{-1} \rightarrow \text{①}$$

a is the inverse of a^{-1} & vice-versa

b " " " " b^{-1} & " "

\therefore From ①, $b \cdot a = a \cdot b$.

$\therefore G$ is abelian.

Conversely assume that G is abelian.

To prove: $f(a) = a^{-1}$ is an isomorphism.

(i) f is 1-1

$$f(a) = f(b)$$

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

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

$$\Rightarrow a = b$$

$\therefore f$ is 1-1.

(ii) f is onto

Let $a \in G_2$

Then $\exists a^{-1} \in G_1$ such that $f(a^{-1}) = (a^{-1})^{-1} = a$

a^{-1} is the pre-image of a .

$\therefore f$ is onto.

(iii) f is homomorphism

$$\begin{aligned} f(a \cdot b) &= (a \cdot b)^{-1} \\ &= b^{-1} \cdot a^{-1} \\ &= a^{-1} \cdot b^{-1} \quad (\because G_1 \text{ is abelian}) \\ &= f(a) \cdot f(b) \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow f$ is homomorphism.

$\therefore f$ is an isomorphism.

Hence the proof.

Rings

Defn (Ring)

A non-empty set 'R' with two binary operations

$+$ and \cdot is called a ring if it satisfies

the following

(i) $(R, +)$ is an abelian group

(ii) \cdot is associative.

$$\forall a, b, c \in R \quad a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$$

(iii) Distributive law holds.

Left distributive law

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

Right distributive law

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

Ring denoted by $(R, +, \cdot)$

Defn (Commutative ring)

A ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is commutative ring if

$$a \cdot b = b \cdot a \quad \forall a, b \in R.$$

Defn (Ring with Identity)

A ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is called a ring

with identity element if it has the identity

with respect to the binary operation \cdot .

Notes

- * In a ring additive identity element called zero element. Denoted by 0 .
 - * Multiplicative identity element called "identity".
 - * A ring may and may not have identity element. But a ring must have zero element.
 - * $+$ \rightarrow First binary operation
 \cdot \rightarrow Second binary operation
- These binary operations can be changed.
- * Additive inverse of a is denoted by $-a$.

Examples

① $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ is a commutative ring with identity.

② $(2\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ is a ring.

Also it is commutative ring.

But it has no identity element.

③ $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \cdot)$ is a commutative ring with identity.

④ $(\mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$ is a commutative ring with identity.

$\mathbb{R} \rightarrow$ Set of all real numbers.

⑤ $(\mathbb{C}, +, \cdot)$ is a commutative ring with identity.

$\mathbb{C} \rightarrow$ set of all complex numbers.

⑥ Let $M_2(\mathbb{R})$ be the set of all 2×2 matrices with real entries.

Then $M_2(\mathbb{R})$ is a ring under matrix addition and matrix multiplication.

Proof:-

$$M_2(\mathbb{R}) = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \mid a, b, c, d \text{ are real numbers} \right\}$$

First binary operation (+): $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a+e & b+f \\ c+g & d+h \end{bmatrix}$

Second binary operation (\cdot): $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ae+bg & af+bh \\ ce+dg & cf+dh \end{bmatrix}$

(i) $(M_2(R), +)$ is an abelian group.

$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is zero element.

(ii) \cdot is associative:

Let $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} i & j \\ k & l \end{bmatrix} \in M_2(R)$

Take $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix}, C = \begin{bmatrix} i & j \\ k & l \end{bmatrix}$.

To prove

Left distributive law $A \cdot [B + C] = A \cdot B + A \cdot C$

$$A \cdot (B + C) = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \cdot \left(\begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} i & j \\ k & l \end{bmatrix} \right)$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} e+i & f+j \\ g+k & h+l \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a(e+i) + b(g+k) & a(f+j) + b(h+l) \\ c(e+i) + d(g+k) & c(f+j) + d(h+l) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A \cdot (B + C) = \begin{bmatrix} ae + ai + bg + bk & af + aj + bh + bl \\ ce + ci + dg + dk & cf + cj + dh + dl \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

$$A \cdot B = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ae + bg & af + bh \\ ce + dg & cf + dh \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A \cdot C = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} i & j \\ k & l \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ai + bk & aj + bl \\ ci + dk & cj + dl \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A \cdot B + A \cdot C = \begin{bmatrix} ae + ai + bg + bk & af + aj + bh + bl \\ ce + ci + dg + dk & cf + cj + dh + dl \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

$$\text{From } \textcircled{1}, \textcircled{2} \quad A \cdot [B + C] = [A \cdot B] + [A \cdot C].$$

Similarly, we can prove right distributive law.

$\therefore (M_2(R), +, \cdot)$ is a ring.

But it is not a commutative ring.

Since $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \neq \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$.

But it has an identity element $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

$\therefore (M_2(\mathbb{R}), +, \cdot)$ is a non-commutative ring with an identity element.

Problem
U.Q. Prove that $(\mathbb{Q}, \oplus, \circ)$ is a ring on the set of all rational numbers under the binary operations

$$x \oplus y = x + y + 7$$

$$x \circ y = x + y + \left(\frac{xy}{7}\right) \quad \text{for } x, y \in \mathbb{Q}.$$

Soln:-

To prove: $(\mathbb{Q}, \oplus, \circ)$ is a ring

(i) claim: (\mathbb{Q}, \oplus) is an abelian group.

Closure property. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$

$$x \oplus y = x + y + 7 \in \mathbb{Q}.$$

Associate property: Let $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Q}$

$$\text{To prove: } x \oplus (y \oplus z) = (x \oplus y) \oplus z$$

$$\text{L.H.S. } x \oplus (y \oplus z) = x \oplus (y + z + 7)$$

$$= x + y + z + 7 + 7 \quad \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

$$\text{R.H.S. } (x \oplus y) \oplus z = (x + y + 7) \oplus z$$

$$= x + y + 7 + z + 7 \quad \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

From $\textcircled{1}$ and $\textcircled{2}$

$$x \oplus (y \oplus z) = (x \oplus y) \oplus z$$

Existence of identity:

-7 is an identity element.

$$-7 \in \mathbb{Q} \text{ such that } x \oplus -7 = x + (-7) + 7$$

Also $-7 \oplus x = -7 + x + 7 = x$

Existence of inverse:

Let $x \in \mathbb{Q}$, and x' be the inverse of x .

Then $x \oplus x' = x + x' + 7 = -7$ (identity element).

$$\Rightarrow x' = -7 - x - 7$$

$$\Rightarrow x' = -x - 14$$

For any $x \in \mathbb{Q}$, $x' = -x - 14$ is the inverse of x and $x' \in \mathbb{Q}$.

Abelian:

Let $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$.

Then $x \oplus y = x + y + 7$

Also $y \oplus x = y + x + 7$

$$\therefore x \oplus y = y \oplus x \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$$

$\therefore (\mathbb{Q}, \oplus)$ is an abelian group.

(ii) claim: 'o' is associative.

1) To prove $x \circ (y \circ z) = (x \circ y) \circ z$.

LHS $x \circ (y \circ z) = x \circ \left(y + z + \frac{yz}{7} \right)$

$$= x + y + z + \frac{xyz}{7} + \frac{xy}{7} + \frac{xz}{7}$$

Ex. 11.5

$$\begin{aligned}
 (x \circ y) \circ z &= \left(x + y + \frac{xy}{7} \right) \circ z = x + y + \frac{xy}{7} + z + \frac{\left(x + y + \frac{xy}{7} \right) z}{7} \\
 &= x + y + \frac{xy}{7} + z + \frac{xyz}{7} + \frac{xz}{7} + \frac{yz}{7}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore x \circ (y \circ z) = (x \circ y) \circ z \quad \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{Q}$$

\therefore 'o' is associative.

(iii) Distributive laws

Left Distributive law ; $x \circ (y \oplus z) = (x \circ y) \oplus (x \circ z)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 x \circ (y + z) &= x \circ (y + z + 7) \\
 &= x + y + z + 7 + \frac{x(y + z + 7)}{7} \\
 &= x + y + z + 7 + \frac{xy}{7} + \frac{xz}{7} + \frac{7x}{7} \\
 &= 2x + y + z + 7 + \frac{xy}{7} + \frac{xz}{7} \quad \text{--- (3)}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$x \circ y = x + y + \frac{xy}{7}$$

$$x \circ z = x + z + \frac{xz}{7}$$

$$(x \circ y) \oplus (x \circ z) = \left(x + y + \frac{xy}{7} \right) \oplus \left(x + z + \frac{xz}{7} \right)$$

$$= x + y + \frac{xy}{7} + x + z + \frac{xz}{7} + 7$$

$$= 2x + y + z + 7 + \frac{xy}{7} + \frac{xz}{7} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

From (3) & (4)

$$x \circ (y \oplus z) = (x \circ y) \oplus (x \circ z)$$

Right Distributive Law : $(x \oplus y) \circ z = (x \circ z) \oplus (y \circ z)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 (x \oplus y) \circ z &= (x + y + 7) \circ z \\
 &= x + y + 7 + z + \frac{(x + y + 7)z}{7} \\
 &= x + y + 7 + z + \frac{xz}{7} + \frac{yz}{7} + z \\
 &= x + y + 2z + 7 + \frac{xz}{7} + \frac{yz}{7} \rightarrow \textcircled{5}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$x \circ z = x + z + \frac{xz}{7}$$

$$y \circ z = y + z + \frac{yz}{7}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 (x \circ z) \oplus (y \circ z) &= \left(x + z + \frac{xz}{7}\right) \oplus \left(y + z + \frac{yz}{7}\right) \\
 &= x + z + \frac{xz}{7} + y + z + \frac{yz}{7} + 7 \\
 &= x + y + 2z + 7 + \frac{xz}{7} + \frac{yz}{7} \rightarrow \textcircled{6}
 \end{aligned}$$

From $\textcircled{5}$ & $\textcircled{6}$, $(x \oplus y) \circ z = (x \circ z) \oplus (y \circ z)$

\therefore Distributive law holds.

$\therefore (\mathbb{Q}, \oplus, \circ)$ is a ring.



Defn: [zero divisor].

Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ be a commutative ring with identity. A non-zero element $a \in R$ is said to be a zero divisor if there exists a non-zero element $b \in R$ such that $ab = 0$ or $ba = 0$.

Examples

$(\mathbb{Z}_{12}, \oplus, \odot)$ is a commutative ring with identity.

$\oplus \rightarrow$ addition modulo 12

$\odot \rightarrow$ multiplication modulo 12.

Here zero element is 0

3 is a zero divisor.

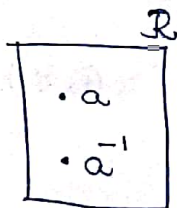
Since $3 \odot 4 = 0$

Also 2, 6, 4 are zero divisors.

Since $2 \odot 6 = 0$ and $4 \odot 3 = 0$.

Defn: [Unit]

Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ be a commutative ring with identity. An element $a \in R$ is called a unit in R if it has a multiplicative inverse in R .



Example:

$(\mathbb{Z}_5, \oplus, \odot)$ is a commutative ring with identity.

$\oplus \rightarrow$ addition modulo 5

$\odot \rightarrow$ multiplication modulo 5

Here identity element is '1'

Here 3 is a unit.

Since $2 \in \mathbb{Z}_5$ such that $2 \odot 3 = 3 \odot 2 = 1$.

This means that 2 is multiplicative inverse of 3.

Also 4 is a unit.

Since $4 \odot 4 = 1$, inverse of 4 is 4.

Defn:- [Field]

A commutative ring with identity is called a

Field if every non zero element has a multiplicative inverse.

Example $(\mathbb{Z}_5, \oplus, \odot)$ is a Field.

$\oplus \rightarrow$ addition modulo 5

$\odot \rightarrow$ multiplication modulo 5

Here identity element is 1.

$$\mathbb{Z}_5 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}.$$

Cayley Table for Z_5 under \odot

	1	2	3	4
1	1	2	3	4
2	2	4	1	3
3	3	1	4	2
4	4	3	2	1

Multiplicative Inverse of 1 is 1

Multiplicative inverse of 2 is 3

" " of 3 is 2

" " of 4 is 4.

Defn:- [Integral domain]

A commutative ring with identity, having no zero divisors is called an integral domain.

Examples:

(i) $(Z, +, \cdot)$ is an integral domain

(ii) (Z_3, \oplus, \odot) is an integral domain

(iii) (Z_6, \oplus, \odot) is not an integral domain.

Since 2 and 3 are zero divisors.

$$2 \odot 3 = 0.$$

Notes

* Every field is an integral domain.

But every integral domain need not be field.

For example, $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ is an integral domain.

But $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ is not a field.

Since 2 has no multiplicative inverse.

Defn: [Relatively prime]

A positive integer 'a' is relatively prime to 'n' if g.c.d of a and n is '1'.

g.c.d of a and n is denoted by (a, n)

Example

① 10 is relatively prime to 13.

Since g.c.d of 10 and 13 is 1.

$$u). (10, 13) = 1.$$

② 15 is relatively prime to 16.

Since $(15, 16) = 1$.

③ 2 is not relatively prime to 4.

$$(2, 4) = 2 \neq 1.$$

Formula [Finding how many integers relatively prime to n]

Let n be given positive integer.

Aim: To find number of integers $\leq n$ and relatively prime to n .

Express n as product of prime powers.

$$\text{Say } n = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \dots p_k^{a_k}$$

Then number of ⁺ve integers $\leq n$ and

$$\text{relatively prime to } n = n \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_k}\right)$$

This is denoted by $\phi(n)$

$$\therefore \phi(n) = n \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_k}\right)$$

Examples

① Find how many +ve integers are ≤ 100 and relatively prime to 100.

Soln:-

$$\begin{array}{r} 2 \overline{) 100} \\ 2 \overline{) 50} \\ 5 \overline{) 25} \\ 5 \end{array}$$

$$\therefore 100 = 2 \times 2 \times 5 \times 5$$

$$100 = 2^2 \times 5^2$$

The number of +ve integers ≤ 100 and relatively prime to 100 = $\phi(100)$

$$\phi(100) = 100 \times \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{5}\right)$$

$$= 100 \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{4}{5}$$

$$= 40.$$

\therefore There are 40 integers which are ≤ 100 and relatively prime to 100.

② How many +ve integers are ≤ 23 and relatively prime to 23.

Soln:-

23 is a prime number.

$$\therefore 23 = 23^1$$

$$\therefore \phi(23) = 23 \times \left(1 - \frac{1}{23}\right)$$

$$= 23 \times \frac{22}{23}$$

$$= 22.$$

Notes

* If p is a prime number then

$$\phi(p) = (p-1)$$

Important Result:

Let $(\mathbb{Z}_n, \oplus, \odot)$ be a ring.

$\oplus \rightarrow$ addition modulo n

$\odot \rightarrow$ multiplication modulo n .

Then the number of elements in \mathbb{Z}_n which have multiplicative inverse is $\phi(n)$.

(i) The number of units in \mathbb{Z}_n is $\phi(n)$.

Example Compute how many elements in $(\mathbb{Z}_{12}, \oplus)$ are units and list out them.

Soln:-

$$\mathbb{Z}_{12} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11\}.$$

The number of units in \mathbb{Z}_{12} is $\phi(12)$.

$$\begin{array}{r} 2 \overline{) 12} \\ 2 \overline{) 6} \\ 3 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore 12 &= 2 \times 2 \times 3 \quad (1-1) = (1-1) \phi \\ &= 2^2 \times 3. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \phi(12) &= 12 \times \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) \times \left(1 - \frac{1}{3}\right) \\ &= 12 \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{2}{3} \\ \phi(12) &= 4. \end{aligned}$$

$$(1, 12) = 1$$

$$(5, 12) = 1$$

$$(7, 12) = 1$$

$$(11, 12) = 1$$

$\therefore 1, 5, 7, 11$ are units

Verification :

Cayley Table Z_{12} under \oplus

\oplus	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
2	2	4	6	8	10	0	2	4	6	8	10
3	3	6	9	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9
4	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8
5	5	10	3	8	1	6	11	4	9	2	7
6	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6
7	7	2	9	4	11	6	1	8	3	10	5
8	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4
9	9	6	3	0	9	6	3	0	9	6	3
10	10	8	6	4	2	0	10	8	6	4	2
11	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Multiplicative inverse of 1 is 1

" 5 is 5

" 7 is 7

" 11 is 11

$\therefore 1, 5, 7, 11$ are units in $(Z_{12}, \oplus, \otimes)$

Theorem ① Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ be a commutative ring with identity. Then R is an integral domain iff for all $a, b, c \in R$ where $a \neq 0$, $ab = ac$ implies that $b = c$.

(OR)

A commutative ring with identity is an integral domain iff the cancellation law of multiplication holds in R .

Proof:

Assume that R is an integral domain

claim: For all $a, b, c \in R$ where $a \neq 0$

$$ab = ac \Rightarrow b = c.$$

Let $a, b, c \in R$ where $a \neq 0$.

Now $ab = ac$

$$\Rightarrow ab - ac = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow a(b - c) = 0$$

Since R is an integral domain, R has no zero divisor.

\therefore Either $a = 0$ (or) $b - c = 0$.

But $a \neq 0$.

$$\therefore b - c = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow b = c.$$

\therefore Cancellation law holds good in R .

Conversely assume that for all $a, b, c \in R$
with $a \neq 0$, $ab = ac \Rightarrow b = c$.

Claim: R is an integral domain.

i) To prove R has no zero divisor.

ii) To prove $ab = 0 \Rightarrow a = 0$ (or) $b = 0$.

Let $ab = 0$ with $a \neq 0$.

$$ab = a \cdot 0 \quad (\because a \cdot 0 = 0)$$

Using cancellation law, $b = 0$.

$\therefore R$ is an integral domain.

Theorem ② Let $(F, +, \cdot)$ be a field. Then it is an integral domain.

Proof:-

Let $(F, +, \cdot)$ be a field.

Claim: $(F, +, \cdot)$ is an integral domain.

i) To prove F has no zero divisor.

Let $ab = 0$ with $a \neq 0$.

Since $a \neq 0$, $a^{-1} \in F$. ($\because F$ is a field).

Now $ab = 0$.

Operate a^{-1} on both sides

$$a^{-1}ab = a^{-1} \cdot 0$$

$$\Rightarrow eb = 0 \quad \text{where } e \text{ is identity}$$

$$\Rightarrow b = 0.$$

$\therefore F$ is an integral domain.

Theorem ② Any finite integral domain is a field.

Proof: Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ be finite integral domain.

\therefore By defn, R is a commutative ring with identity.

$$\therefore R = \{0, 1, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$$

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \because R \text{ is finite, } 1 = \text{identity} \\ 0 = \text{zero element} \end{array} \right\}$

Let $a \in R$ with $a \neq 0$.

Then $\{a, aa_1, aa_2, \dots, aa_n\}$ is a set of distinct elements and none of them is zero.

Hence $aa_i = 1$ for some $a_i \in R$

$$\text{Also } a_i a = 1$$

$$\therefore aa_i = a_i a = 1.$$

$\Rightarrow a_i$ is multiplicative inverse of a

\therefore Every non-zero element has a multiplicative inverse in R .

$\therefore (R, +, \cdot)$ is a field.

Subring: Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ be a ring.

A non-empty subset S of R is called a subring of R if $(S, +, \cdot)$ is a ring.



Subring Test:

Given a ring $(R, +, \cdot)$

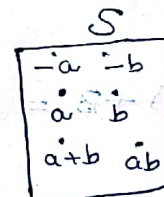
Let S be a non-empty subset of R



Then S is a subring of R if it satisfies the following

(i) For all $a, b \in S$, $a+b \in S$
and $ab \in S$

(ii) For all $a \in S$, $-a \in S$



Examples

(i) $(2\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ is a subring of $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$

(ii) $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \cdot)$ is a subring of $(\mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$

$\mathbb{Q} \rightarrow$ set of all rationals

$\mathbb{R} \rightarrow$ set of all real numbers

(iii) $(\mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$ is a subring of $(\mathbb{C}, +, \cdot)$

$\mathbb{C} \rightarrow$ set of all complex numbers

$\mathbb{R} \rightarrow$ set of all real numbers

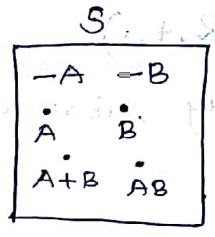
Problem: Let $M_2(\mathbb{Z})$ be the set of all 2×2 matrices with integer entries.

Let $S = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} x & x+y \\ x+y & x \end{bmatrix} \mid x, y \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$.

be the subset of $M_2(\mathbb{Z})$. (For example $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \in S$
 $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \notin S$)

Then prove that $(S, +, \cdot)$ is a subring of $(M_2(\mathbb{Z}), +, \cdot)$

Soln:-



Subring Test:

(i) Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_1+y_1 \\ x_1+y_1 & x_1 \end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 & x_2+y_2 \\ x_2+y_2 & x_2 \end{bmatrix} \in S$

$$A+B = \begin{bmatrix} x_1+x_2 & x_1+y_1+x_2+y_2 \\ x_1+y_1+x_2+y_2 & x_1+x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} x_1+x_2 & x_1+x_2+y_1+y_2 \\ x_1+x_2+y_1+y_2 & x_1+x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$A+B \in S$.

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_1+y_1 \\ x_1+y_1 & x_1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_2 & x_2+y_2 \\ x_2+y_2 & x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} x_1 x_2 + x_1 x_2 + x_1 y_2 + x_2 y_1 + y_1 y_2 & x_1 x_2 + x_1 y_2 + x_1 x_2 + x_2 y_1 \\ x_1 x_2 + x_2 y_1 + x_1 x_2 + x_1 y_2 & x_1 x_2 + x_1 y_2 + x_2 y_1 + y_1 y_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$AB \in S$.

(ii)

$$\text{Let } A = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \alpha+y \\ \alpha+y & \alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Let } A = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \alpha+y \\ \alpha+y & \alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

$$-A = \begin{bmatrix} -\alpha & -(\alpha+y) \\ -(\alpha+y) & -\alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore -A \in S.$$

$$\therefore (S, +, \cdot) \text{ is a subring of } (M_2(\mathbb{Z}), +, \cdot) \quad \textcircled{1}$$

Homework

① Let $R = M_2(\mathbb{Z})$ and S be the subset of R

where $S = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \alpha-y \\ \alpha-y & y \end{bmatrix} \mid \alpha, y \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$.

Prove S is a subring of R . ③

Integers modulo n

Defn [congruence]

Let n be any positive integer and $n > 1$.

We say that " a is congruent to b modulo n "
and we write $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ if n divides $(a-b)$

Examples

① $17 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$

Because 5 divides $(17-2)$.

② $-7 \equiv -49 \pmod{6}$

Since 6 divides $-7 - (-49)$

6 divides 42 .

③ $11 \equiv -5 \pmod{8}$

Since 8 divides $11 - (-5)$

8 divides 16.

Notes

Suppose a, b, n are +ve integers.

* If $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ then ' a ' leaves the remainder ' b ' when a is divided by n .

If we subtract the remainder ' b ' from ' a ' then the resulting number is the multiple of n .

$a - b = \text{multiple of } n$.

For example, $17 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$

$$17 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$$

\therefore 17 leaves the remainder 2 when 17 is divided by 5.

$$\text{Also } 17 - 2 = 3(5)$$

* Suppose any one of a and b is -ve

Then $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ means that

$$a - b = \text{multiple of } n.$$

For example, $-7 \equiv -49 \pmod{6}$

$$\text{Here } -7 - (-49) = \text{multiple of } 6.$$

$$\text{e.g. } 42 = 7(6)$$

* Congruence will help to find the inverse

of any unit in $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +, \cdot)$

Theorem 4 $(\mathbb{Z}_n, \oplus, \odot)$ is a field iff n is prime.

Proof:-

We know that $(\mathbb{Z}_n, \oplus, \odot)$ is a commutative ring with identity.

Assume that n is prime.

Claim: \mathbb{Z}_n is a field.

Let a be any non-zero element in \mathbb{Z}_n .

To prove: $a^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_n$.

Now $\text{g.c.d.}(a, n) = 1$.

Result If $\text{g.c.d.}(x, y) = m$ then $\exists s, t$ such that $m = sx + ty$.
 s, t are integers.

$\therefore \exists$ integers s, t such that

$$1 = as + tn.$$

$$\Rightarrow \cancel{as} + \cancel{tn} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow -tn = as - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{multiple of } n = as - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow as \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

$$\Rightarrow s = a^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_n.$$

$\therefore \mathbb{Z}_n$ is a field.

Conversely assume that \mathbb{Z}_n is a field.

$\Rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$ is an integral domain.

Claim: n is prime

Suppose n is not a prime number.

Then $n = kl$ where $1 < k, l < n$.

But $k, l \in \mathbb{Z}_n$.

$$k \cdot l = n = \text{zero element}$$

$\Rightarrow k, l$ are zero divisors

$\Rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$ is not an integral domain.

Which is a $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$ to \mathbb{Z}_n is an integral domain.

$\therefore n$ is a prime number.

H/p.

Theorem 5 In $(\mathbb{Z}_n, \oplus, \odot)$ a is a unit iff

$$\text{g.c.d.}(a, n) = 1.$$

Proof:-

Assume that $\text{g.c.d.}(a, n) = 1$.

Claim: a is a unit.

Since $\text{g.c.d.}(a, n) = 1$, \exists integers s and t

$$\text{such that } 1 = as + tn.$$

$$\Rightarrow -tn = as - 1.$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{multiple of } n = as - 1.$$

$$\Rightarrow as \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

$$\Rightarrow s = a^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_n.$$

$\therefore a$ is a unit.

Conversely assume that a is a unit

$$\Rightarrow a^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_n.$$

claim: $\text{g.c.d}(a, n) = 1$.

$$\text{Let } a^{-1} = s.$$

$$\Rightarrow as = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow as \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

$$\Rightarrow as - 1 = \text{multiple of } n.$$

$$\Rightarrow as - 1 = tn \quad \text{for some } t \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

$$\Rightarrow as = 1 + tn.$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 = as - tn.$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 = as + n(-t).$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{g.c.d}(a, n) = 1.$$

H/p.

Procedure for finding inverse in Z_n .

To find a^{-1}

Step (1) check if $\text{g.c.d.}(a, n) = 1$.

If $\text{g.c.d.}(a, n) = 1$, $a^{-1} \in Z_n$.

Otherwise not exists.

Step (2) Write $\text{g.c.d.}(a, n) = 1$ as a linear combination of a and n .

Step (3) Suppose $1 = as + tn$.

Then $as - 1 = -tn$

$as - 1 = \text{multiple of } n$

$\Rightarrow as \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

Step (4) We have $as \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

Case (i) Suppose s is +ve, $a^{-1} = s$.

Case (ii) Suppose s is -ve, $a^{-1} = s + n$

Problem

Find $(25)^{-1}$ in \mathbb{Z}_{72} .

Soln

We know that $(\mathbb{Z}_{72}, +, \cdot)$ is a commutative ring with identity.

Aim: To find multiplicative inverse of 25.

Now $\text{g.c.d.}(25, 72) = 1$.

\therefore By thm 5, $(25)^{-1}$ exists in \mathbb{Z}_{72} .

Divide 72 by 25

$$72 = 2(25) + 22 \rightarrow \textcircled{1}, \quad 0 < 22 < 25.$$

Divide 25 by 22.

$$25 = 1(22) + 3 \rightarrow \textcircled{2}, \quad 0 < 3 < 22.$$

Divide 22 by 3.

$$22 = 7(3) + 1 \rightarrow \textcircled{3}, \quad 0 < 1 < 3.$$

Divide 3 by 1.

$$3 = 3(1) + 0.$$

The last non zero remainder is 1.

$$1 = \text{g.c.d.}(25, 72).$$

$$\text{From } \textcircled{3}, \quad 1 = 22 - 7(3).$$

$$= 22 - 7(25 - 22) \quad (\text{using } \textcircled{2})$$

$$= 22 - 7(25) + 7(22)$$

$$= 22 - 7(25) + 7(22)$$

$$= 22 - 7(25) + 7(22)$$

$$= 22 - 7(25) + 7(22)$$

$$= 22 - 7(25) + 7(22)$$

$$= 8(22) - 7(25)$$

$$= 8(72 - 2(25)) - 7(25)$$

$$= 8(72) - 16(25) - 7(25)$$

$$= 8(72) - 23(25)$$

$$\Rightarrow -23(25) - 1 = 8(72)$$

$$\Rightarrow -23(25) - 1 = \text{multiple of } 72$$

$$\Rightarrow -23(25) \equiv 1 \pmod{72}.$$

$$-23 (25) \equiv 1 \pmod{72}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{inverse of } 25 \text{ is } (-23 + 72)$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{inverse of } 25 \text{ is } 49$$

Problem 2

Q. Q. Find $(100)^{-1}$ in \mathbb{Z}_{1009} .

Soln. We know that $(\mathbb{Z}_{1009}, +, \cdot)$ is a commutative ring with identity.

Aim: To find $(100)^{-1}$

Since $\text{g.c.d.}(100, 1009) = 1$, $(100)^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_{1009}$.

Divide 1009 by 100.

$$1009 = 10(100) + 9 \rightarrow \textcircled{1}, 0 < 9 < 100$$

Divide 100 by 9

$$100 = 11(9) + 1 \rightarrow \textcircled{2}, 0 < 1 < 9$$

Divide 9 by 1

$$9 = 9(1) + 0$$

The last non-zero remainder is 1.

$$\therefore \text{g.c.d.}(100, 1009) = 1$$

$$\therefore 1 = 100 - 11(9) \quad (\text{using } \textcircled{2})$$

$$= 100 - 11 \left[1009 - 10(100) \right]$$

$$1 = 100 - 11(1009) + 110(100)$$

$$1 = 111(100) - 11(1009)$$

$$\Rightarrow 11(1009) = 111(100) - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{multiple of } 1009 = 111(100) - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow 111(100) \equiv 1 \pmod{1009}$$

$$\Rightarrow 111 \text{ is inverse of } 100$$

Homework

① Find $(98)^{-1}$ in \mathbb{Z}_{101}

② Find $(17)^{-1}$ in \mathbb{Z}_{625}

Homomorphism

Defn Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ and (S, \oplus, \odot) be two rings.

The function $f: (R, +, \cdot) \rightarrow (S, \oplus, \odot)$ is a homomorphism if it satisfies the following.

$$(i) f(x+y) = f(x) \oplus f(y)$$

$$(ii) f(x \cdot y) = f(x) \odot f(y) \quad \forall x, y \in R$$

Defn [Isomorphism]

A homomorphism $f: (R, +, \cdot) \rightarrow (S, \oplus, \odot)$ is an isomorphism if it is 1-1 & onto.

Example

(1) Let \mathbb{C} be the ring of complex numbers.

(a) $(\mathbb{C}, +, \cdot)$ is a ring.

Let S be the set of all matrices of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix}; \text{ where } a, b \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$$(b) S = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix} \mid a, b \text{ are real numbers} \right\}$$

S is a ring under matrix addition and matrix multiplication.

$$\text{Define } f: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow S \text{ by } f(a+ib) = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then f is an isomorphism.

Proof:-

$$f: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{S} \text{ by } f(a+ib) = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Let } x = a_1 + ib_1$$

$$y = a_2 + ib_2 \in \mathbb{C}$$

(i) claim: $f(x+y) = f(x) + f(y)$

L.H.S: $f(x+y) = f[(a_1 + ib_1) + (a_2 + ib_2)]$

$$= f[(a_1 + a_2) + i(b_1 + b_2)]$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a_1 + a_2 & b_1 + b_2 \\ -(b_1 + b_2) & a_1 + a_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ -b_1 & a_1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} a_2 & b_2 \\ -b_2 & a_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= f(x) + f(y)$$

(ii) claim: $f(x \cdot y) = f(x) \cdot f(y)$

$$f(x \cdot y) = f\left[\begin{pmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ -b_1 & a_1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} a_2 & b_2 \\ -b_2 & a_2 \end{pmatrix}\right]$$
$$= f\left[\begin{matrix} a_1 a_2 - b_1 b_2 & a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1 \\ -a_2 b_1 - a_1 b_2 & -b_1 b_2 + a_1 a_2 \end{matrix}\right]$$

L.H.S: $f(x \cdot y) = f[(a_1 + ib_1) \cdot (a_2 + ib_2)]$

$$= f[(a_1 a_2 - b_1 b_2) + i(a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1)]$$

$f(x \cdot y)$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a_1 a_2 - b_1 b_2 & a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1 \\ -(a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1) & a_1 a_2 - b_1 b_2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

$$f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ -b_1 & a_1 \end{bmatrix}, f(y) = \begin{bmatrix} a_2 & b_2 \\ -b_2 & a_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$f(x) \cdot f(y) = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ -b_1 & a_1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} a_2 & b_2 \\ -b_2 & a_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a_1 a_2 - b_1 b_2 & a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1 \\ -a_2 b_1 - a_1 b_2 & a_1 a_2 - b_1 b_2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

From $\textcircled{1}$ & $\textcircled{2}$, $f(xy) = f(x) \cdot f(y)$

$\therefore f$ is an ~~isom~~ homomorphism

Claim f is 1-1.

Let $f(x) = f(y)$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ -b_1 & a_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_2 & b_2 \\ -b_2 & a_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow a_1 = a_2 \text{ \& } b_1 = b_2$$

$$\Rightarrow a_1 + ib_1 = a_2 + ib_2$$

$$\Rightarrow x = y$$

$\therefore f$ is 1-1

Claim: f is onto.

For any $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix} \in S$, $\exists a+ib \in \mathbb{C}$ such that

$$f[a+ib] = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix}$$

$\therefore f$ is onto.

Theorem 6: Let $f: (R, +, \cdot) \rightarrow (S, \oplus, \odot)$ be a ring homomorphism, then

(a) $f(0_R) = 0_S$.

where $0_R \rightarrow$ zero element of R

$0_S \rightarrow$ zero element in S

(b) $f(-a) = -f(a)$ for all $a \in R$.

(c) $f(na) = nf(a) \quad \forall a \in R, n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

(d) $f(a^n) = [f(a)]^n$ for all $a \in R, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

(e) if A is a subring of R , it follows that $f(A)$ is a subring of S .

Proof:-

(a) claim $f(0_R) = 0_S$.

$$0_S + f(0_R) = f(0_R) \quad (\because 0_S \text{ is zero element in } S)$$

$$= f(0_R + 0_R) \quad (\because 0_R + 0_R = 0_R)$$

$$0_S + f(0_R) = f(0_R) + f(0_R) \quad (\because f \text{ is homo)}$$

Using right cancellation law, $0_S = f(0_R)$.

(b) claim: $f(-a) = -f(a) \quad \forall a \in R$.

From (a) $f(0_R) = 0_S$

$$f(a-a) = 0_S \quad (\because a-a = 0_R)$$

$$f(a+(-a)) = 0_S$$

$$f(a) \oplus f(-a) = 0_S$$

$\Rightarrow f(-a)$ is additive inverse of $f(a)$.

But additive inverse of $f(a)$ is $-f(a)$

$$\therefore f(-a) = -f(a)$$

(c) $f(na) = n f(a)$, $\forall a \in R, n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Let $a \in R$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$$f(na) = f(\underbrace{a+a+\dots+a}_{n \text{ times}})$$

$$= \underbrace{f(a) \oplus f(a) \oplus \dots \oplus f(a)}_{n \text{ times}}$$

$$= n f(a)$$

(d) $f(a^n) = [f(a)]^n$, $\forall a \in R, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

Let $a \in R$ and n be any +ve integer.

$$f(a^n) = f(\underbrace{a \cdot a \cdot \dots \cdot a}_{n \text{ times}})$$

$$= \underbrace{f(a) \odot f(a) \odot \dots \odot f(a)}_{n \text{ times}}$$

$$= [f(a)]^n$$

(e) Let A be a subring of R .

Claim $f(A)$ is a subring of S .

$$f(A) = \{ f(a) \mid a \in A \}$$

Let $x, y \in f(A)$.

$$\Rightarrow x = f(a)$$

$$y = f(b) \text{ for some } a, b \in A.$$

$$f(A) = \begin{matrix} -x & -y \\ x & y \\ x \oplus y & x \otimes y \end{matrix}$$

$$A \text{ [subring]} = \begin{matrix} -a & -b \\ a & b \\ a+b & ab \end{matrix}$$

claim: $x \oplus y \in f(A)$.

$$\begin{aligned} x \oplus y &= f(a) \oplus f(b) \\ &= f(a+b) \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore x \oplus y \in f(A)$.

claim: $x \otimes y \in f(A)$.

$$x \otimes y = f(a) \otimes f(b)$$

$$= f(ab)$$

$\therefore x \otimes y \in f(A)$.

Let $x \in f(A)$

$$\Rightarrow x = f(a) \text{ for some } a.$$

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

$$= f(-a)$$

$$\Rightarrow -x \in f(A).$$

\therefore By subring test,

$f(A)$ is a subring of S .