

UNIT- IV

Topic : 1 Algebraic Structures

1) Define Binary Operation with Example:

Let A be any non-empty sets. The binary operation $*$ is a function from $A \times A$ i.e. a rule which assigns to every pair $(a, b) \in A \times A$, a unique element $a*b \in A$.

Example:

Usual addition, multiplication are binary operation defined on the set of real numbers.

Matrix addition and Matrix multiplication are binary operation on the set of 2×2 real matrices.

2) Define Algebraic System with Example:

A non-empty set A together with one or more n -ary operations $*$ defined on it, is called an algebraic system or algebraic structure or Algebra.

We denote it by $(A, *)$

Note: $+, -, \cdot, \times, *, \cup, \cap$ etc., are some of binary operations.

Properties of Binary operations:

Let the binary operation be $*$: $A \times A \rightarrow A$.

Then we have the following properties

1) Closure Property:

$$a * b \in A \quad \text{for all } a, b \in A.$$

2) Associativity:

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

3) Identity element:

$a * e = e * a = a$, for all $a \in A$, where e is called the identity element.

4) Inverse element:

If $a * b = b * a = e$, then b is called the inverse of a and it is denoted by a^{-1} , (i.e. $b = a^{-1}$).

5) Commutative:

$a * b = b * a$ for all $a, b \in A$.

6) Distributive properties: for all $a, b, c \in A$.

(i) $a * (b \cdot c) = (a * b) \cdot (a * c)$ [Left distributive law]

(ii) $(b \cdot c) * a = (b * a) \cdot (c * a)$ [Right distributive law]

7) Cancellation properties: for all $a, b, c \in A$

(i) $a * b = a * c \Rightarrow b = c$ [Left cancellation law]

(ii) $b * a = c * a \Rightarrow b = c$ [Right cancellation law]

Note:

If the binary operations defined on G is $+$ and \times , then we have the following table

	Properties	For all $a, b, c \in (G, +)$	For all $a, b, c \in (G, \times)$
1.	Closure	$a + b \in G$	$a \times b \in G$
2.	Associativity	$(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$	$(a \times b) \times c = a \times (b \times c)$
3.	Identity element	$a + 0 = 0 + a = a$, Here 0 is Additive Identity	$a \times 1 = 1 \times a = a$, Here 1 is Multiplicative Identity
4.	Inverse element	$a + (-a) = 0$, Here $(-a)$ is Additive inverse	$a \times \frac{1}{a} = \frac{1}{a} \times a = 1$, Here $\frac{1}{a}$ is multiplicative inverse a
5.	Commutative	$a + b = b + a$	$a \times b = b \times a$

Notation:

\mathbb{Z} or I	The set of all integer.
\mathbb{Q}	The set of all rational number.
\mathbb{R}	The set of all real number.
\mathbb{R}^+	The set of all positive real number.
\mathbb{Q}^+	The set of all positive rational number.
\mathbb{C}	The set of all complex number.

Example 1:

The set of integers \mathbb{Z} with the binary operations $+$ and \times is an algebraic system since it satisfies all the above properties.

Example 2:

The set of real numbers \mathbb{R} with binary operations $+$ and \times is an algebraic system.

3) Define Semi group with Example:

Definition: If a non-empty set S together with the binary operation $*$ satisfying the following two properties.

- (a) Closure property
- (b) Associative property

is called a semigroup. It is denoted by $(S, *)$.

Example:

1. Let X be any non-empty set. Then the set of all functions from X to X is the set X^X , is a semigroup w.r.to $*$, the composition of functions.
2. $(I, +)$, (I, \times) are semigroups, where $+$ is the usual addition and \times is the usual multiplication.
3. $(P(A), \cap)$ and $(P(A), \cup)$ are semigroups. Where $P(A)$ is the powerset of A (the set of all subsets of A).
4. $N = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ then $(N, +)$, (N, \times) are semigroups. N is not a semigroup w.r.to the operation subtraction.

Solved Examples:

1. Show that the set of all natural numbers N is a semigroup w.r.to operation $*$ defined by $a * b = \max \{a, b\}$.

Solution:

N is closed under the operation $*$.

For $a, b, c \in N$

$$a * (b * c) = \max \{a, \max \{b, c\}\} = \max \{a, b, c\} \quad (1)$$

$$(a * b) * c = \max \{\max \{a, b\}, c\}$$

$$(a * b) * c = \max \{a, b, c\} \quad (2)$$

From (1) and (2),

$$(a * b) * c = a * (b * c), \forall a, b, c \in N$$

$\therefore *$ is associative.

$\therefore (N, *)$ is a semigroup.

2. Show that the set of rational numbers Q is a semigroup for the operation $*$ defined by $a * b = a + b - ab$.

Solution: Q is closed for $*$.

$$\begin{aligned} a * (b * c) &= a * (b + c - bc) \\ &= a + b + c - bc - a(b + c - bc) \\ &= a + b + c - ab - bc - ca + abc \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} (a * b) * c &= (a + b - ab) * c \\ &= a + b - ab + c - (a + b - ab)c \\ &= a + b + c - ab - ac - bc + abc \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

From (1) and (2),

$$(a * b) * c = a * (b * c), \forall a, b, c \in Q$$

$\therefore *$ is associative.

$\therefore (Q, *)$ is a semigroup.

3. Show that the set of rational numbers Q is a semigroup for operation $*$ defined by $a * b = \frac{ab}{2} \forall a, b \in Q$

Solution: Q is closed for $*$.

$$a * (b * c) = a * \frac{bc}{2} = \frac{abc}{4}$$

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

$$(a * b) * c = a * (b * c), \forall a, b, c \in Q$$

$\therefore *$ is associative.

$\therefore (Q, *)$ is a semigroup.

4. Let $(A, *)$ be a semigroup. Show that for a, b, c in A if $a * c = c * a$ and then $b * c = c * b$ then $(a * b) * c = c * (a * b)$.

Solution: L.H.S. $(a * b) * c = a * (b * c)$	$[\because *$ is associative]
$= a * (c * b)$	$[\because b * c = c * b]$
$= (a * c) * b$	$[\because *$ is associative]
$= (c * a) * b$	$[\because a * c = c * a]$
$= c * (a * b)$	$[\because *$ is associative]
$=$ R.H.S.	

5. Let $(S, *)$ be a commutative semigroup. If $x * x = x, y * y = y$, prove that $(x * y) * (x * y) = x * y$.

Solution: L.H.S.: $(x * y) * (x * y)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= x * (y * (x * y)) \\ &= x * ((y * x) * y) \\ &= x * ((x * y) * y) \\ &= x * (x * (y * y)) \\ &= x * (x * y) \\ &= (x * x) * y \\ &= x * y \\ &= \text{R.H.S.} \end{aligned}$$

6. Let $(S, *)$ be a commutative semigroup. If $x * x = x$, $y * y = y$, prove that $(x * y) * (x * y) = x * y$.

Solution: L.H.S.: $(x * y) * (x * y)$
 $= x * (y * (x * y))$
 $= x * ((y * x) * y)$
 $= x * ((x * y) * y)$
 $= x * (x * (y * y))$
 $= x * (x * y)$
 $= (x * x) * y$
 $= x * y$
 $= \text{R.H.S.}$

7. Let $\{\{x, y\}, \cdot\}$ be a semigroup where $x \cdot x = y$. Show that

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

(ii) $y \cdot y = y$.

Solution: (i) $x \cdot (x \cdot x) = (x \cdot x) \cdot x$ (Since \cdot is associative)

Given $x \cdot x = y$

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

(ii) To prove: $y \cdot y = y$

Since the set $\{x, y\}$ is closed for operation ' \cdot ',

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

Assume $x \cdot y = x$

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

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

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

$\therefore y \cdot y = y$

Next consider the case $x \cdot y = y$,

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

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

$\therefore y \cdot y = y$

8. Let $(A, *)$ be a semi group. Furthermore for every $a, b \in A$, if $a \neq b$ then $a * b \neq b * a$

- (i) Show that for every $a \in A$, $a * a = a$
- (ii) For every $a \in A$, $a * (b * a) = a$.
- (iii) For every $a, b, c \in A$, $(a * b) * c = a * c$.

Solution:

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

Put $b = a$ and $c = a$

$a * (a * a) = (a * a) * a$

Since $(A, *)$ is not commutative, $a * a = a$.

(ii) Let us assume that $b \in A$ then

we have for $b \in A$, $b * b = b$.

Let $a * (b * b) = a * b$ [$\because b * b = b$]

$(a * b) * b = a * b$ [\because associative]

Hence $a * b = a$ (1) (Using Right Cancellation law)

$\therefore a * (b * a) = (a * b) * a$ From [\because associative]

$= a * a$

$= a$

(iii) $(a * b) * c = a * c$ [$\because a * b = a$]

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Monoids

1) Define Monoid with Example:

A semigroup $(S, *)$ with an identity element w.r.t. ' $*$ ' is called Monoid.

It is denoted by $(M, *)$.

In other words, a non-empty set ' M ' with respect to $*$ is said to be a monoid, if $*$ satisfies the following properties.

- (a) Closure property
- (b) Associative property
- (c) Identity property

Examples:

1. $N = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ then $(N, +)$, (N, \times) are monoids.
2. (Z, \times) , $(Z, +)$ are monoids.
3. The set of even integers $E = \{\dots, -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, \dots\}$, Then $(E, +)$ is a monoid and (E, \times) is a semigroup but not a monoid.
4. $(P(A), \cup)$ is a monoid with identity element \emptyset .
 $(P(A), \cap)$ is a monoid with identity element A , where A is any set.

Problem:

2) Show that the set of integers, is a monoid for the operation $*$ defined by $a*b = a + b - ab$, for $a, b \in I$.

Solution:

I is closed for the operation $*$.

Further $*$ is associative.

The element $0 \in I$ is the identity Element

Since $x * 0 = x + 0 - x \cdot 0 = x$ and $0 * x = 0 + x - 0 \cdot x = x, \forall x \in I$.

$\therefore (I, *)$ is a monoid with identity $0 \in I$.

X.....X

1) Define Group with Example :

A non-empty set G with binary operation $*$ is called a group if the following axioms are satisfied.

1. $*$ is associative, i.e. $(a*b)*c = a * b * c \forall a, b, c \in G$.
2. There exists an element $e \in G$ such that $a * e = e * a = a, \forall a \in G$.
(e is the identity element).
3. For every $a \in G, \exists$ an element $a^{-1} \in G$, such that $a * a^{-1} = a^{-1} * a = e$.
(a^{-1} is called the inverse element of a).

2) Define Abelian Group (or) Commutative Group

A group $(G, *)$ is called abelian if $a*b = b*a, \forall a, b \in G$. i.e. $*$ is commutative in G .

Example:

1. $(\mathbb{I}, +)$ is a group called the additive group of integers.
2. $M_2(\mathbb{R})$, the set of all 2×2 matrices is a group w.r.to matrix addition.
3. The set of all non-singular 2×2 matrices is a group w.r.to matrix multiplication.
4. The set of n^{th} roots of unity $\{1, w, w^2, \dots, w^{n-1}\}$ is a group w.r.to the operation multiplication of complex numbers.
5. $G = \{1, -1, i, -i\}$. In G , the operation \cdot is defined by the following table.
Then (G, \cdot) is an abelian group.

\cdot	1	-1	i	-i
1	1	-1	i	-i
-1	-1	1	-i	i
i	i	-i	-1	1
-i	-i	i	1	-1

Here \cdot is the multiplication of complex numbers.

Examples :

1. Show that $[Z_5, +_5]$ is an abelian group.

Solution: The table for addition modulo 5 is.

$+_5$	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
[0]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
[1]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[0]
[2]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[0]	[1]
[3]	[3]	[4]	[0]	[1]	[2]
[4]	[4]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]

- (i) Closure property:
 $[a] +_5 [b] =$ remainder when the sum is divided by 5.
- (ii) Associative Property:
From the table for $[a], [b], [c] \in Z_5$
 $[a] +_5 ([b] +_5 [c]) = ([a] +_5 [b]) +_5 [c]$
- (iii) Identity:
 $[0] \in Z_5$ is the identity
- (iv) Inverse:
The inverse of [1] is [4].
The inverse of [2] is [3].
The inverse of [3] is [2].
The inverse of [4] is [1].
The element $[0] \in Z_5$ has self-inverse.
- (v) Commutative property:
Further $[a] +_5 [b] = [b] +_5 [a], \forall [a], [b] \in Z_5.$

$\therefore (Z_5, +_5)$ is an abelian group.

2. Show that $\{1,2, 3, 4\}, x_5$ is an abelian group.

Solution: The table for the x_5 is as follows

$Z_5 = \{1,2,3,4\}$ and x_5 is multiplication operation

\times_5	1	2	3	4
1	1	2	3	4
2	2	4	1	3
3	3	1	4	2
4	4	3	2	1

- (i) Closure Property:
Here $a \in Z_5$ means $a = [a]$
 $a \times_5 b =$ remainder when ab is divisible by 5.
- (ii) Associative Property:
For $a, b, c \in Z_5$.
 $a \times_5 (b \times_5 c) = (a \times_5 b) \times_5 c$
- (iii) Identity:
 $1 \in Z_5$; is the identity element.
- (iv) Inverse:
The inverse of 1 is 1
The inverse of 2 is 3
The inverse of 3 is 2
The inverse of 4 is 4
- (v) Commutative property:
Further $a \times_5 b = b \times_5 a, \forall a, b \in Z_5$.
 $\therefore \{1,2, 3, 4\}, x_5$ is an abelian group.

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Topic :3 Properties of Group

Property 1:

The identity element in a group is unique.

Proof: If $(G, *)$ be a group and e_1 and e_2 be two identity elements of G .

Let $x \in G$; $x * e_1 = x$ and $x * e_2 = x$

$\therefore x * e_1 = x * e_2$,

By using left cancellation law, we get $e_1 = e_2$

\therefore Identity element is unique

Property 2:

The inverse of every element in a group is unique.

Proof: Let $(G, *)$ be a group, with identity element e .

Let b and c be inverses of a element $a \in G$.

$$a * b = b * a = e$$

$$a * c = c * a = e$$

$$b = b * e$$

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

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

$$= e * c$$

$$b = c$$

Property 3:

If a is an element in a group $(G, *)$ then $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$.

Property 4:(Reversal law)

If a and b are two elements in a group $(G, *)$ then

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

[prove $(a * b) * (b^{-1} * a^{-1}) = e$ and $(b^{-1} * a^{-1}) * (a * b) = e$]

Property 5: Cancellation laws

In a group $(G, *)$, for every $a, b, c \in G$, then

- (i) $a * c = b * c$ implies $a = b$ (Right Cancellation law)
- (ii) $c * a = c * b$ implies $a = b$ (Left Cancellation law)

Property 6:

In a group $(G, *)$, the equations $x * a = b$ and $a * y = b$ has unique solution.

Proof:

Consider $x * a = b$ Post
multiplying by a^{-1}

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

i.e. $x * e = b * a^{-1}$

$$\therefore x = b * a^{-1}$$

Proof of Uniqueness

Let x_1 and x_2 be two solutions of $x * a = b$.

Then $x_1 * a = b$ and $x_2 * a = b$.

$$\therefore x_1 * a = x_2 * a$$

$$\Rightarrow x_1 = x_2 \quad [\text{By Right cancellation law}]$$

\therefore The solution is unique.

In a similar manner, the equation $a * y = b$ has a solution $y = a^{-1} * b$ and it has unique solution.

Examples

1. Show that a group $(G, *)$ is abelian iff $(a * b)^2 = a^2 * b^2$

Solution: First we assume that $(G, *)$ is abelian,

$$\begin{aligned} (a * b)^2 &= (a * b) * (a * b) \\ &= a * (b * (a * b)) \\ &= a * ((b * a) * b) \end{aligned}$$

Since G is abelian, $a * b = b * a$.

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore (a * b)^2 &= a * ((a * b) * b) \\ &= (a * a) * (b * b) \\ &= a^2 * b^2\end{aligned}$$

Conversely,

we assume that $(a * b)^2 = a^2 * b^2$.

To prove : G is abelian

$$(a * b)^2 = a^2 * b^2$$

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

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

$$b * (a * b) = a * (b * b) \quad [\text{by Left cancellation law}]$$

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

$$b * a = a * b \quad [\text{by Right cancellation law}]$$

$$\therefore a * b = b * a, \forall a, b \in G$$

$$\therefore G \text{ is abelian.}$$

2. Show that $(G, *)$ is abelian iff $(a * b)^{-1} = a^{-1} * b^{-1}$.

Solution: Assume that G is Abelian.

$$\therefore (a * b) = (b * a), \forall a, b \in G$$

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

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

Conversely

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

But $a^{-1} * b^{-1} = (b * a)^{-1}$ (By Reversal law)

$$\therefore (a * b)^{-1} = (b * a)^{-1} \quad \text{From given}$$

Taking inverses both sides,

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

$$\Rightarrow a * b = b * a, \forall a, b \in G$$

$$\therefore (G, *) \text{ is abelian}$$

3. Show that if every element in a group is its own inverse, then the group is abelian.

Solution: Let G be a group such that every element in G is its own inverse.

$$\therefore \text{For } a \in G, a^{-1}=a$$

Let $a, b \in G$, then $(a * b) \in G$ and so

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

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

$$\text{Since } b^{-1} = b, a^{-1} = a.$$

$$\Rightarrow (a * b)^{-1} = b * a \quad (2)$$

From (1) and (2) we have $a * b = b * a \forall a, b \in G$

$\therefore G$ is abelian.

4. Prove that if for every element a in a group $(G, *)$, $a^2 = e$ then G is an abelian group.

Solution: Let $a, b \in G$

Then $(a * b) \in G$ and so $(a * b)^2 = e$ _____ (1)

$$\text{Since } a \in G, a^2=e \Rightarrow a * a = e$$

$$b \in G, b^2=e \Rightarrow b * b = e$$

$$\text{From (1)} \quad (a * b)^2 = e$$

$$\Rightarrow (a * b) * (a * b) = e * e$$

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

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

$$b * (a * b) = a * (b * b) \quad [\text{by Left cancellation law}]$$

$$\text{i.e. } (b * a) * b = (a * b) * b$$

$$\therefore b * a = a * b \quad [\text{by Right cancellation law}]$$

$\therefore G$ is abelian.

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1) Define Permutation with Example:

A permutation of a set A is a one-to-one and onto function from set A to itself.

Example.:

If $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, then a permutation is function σ where: $\sigma(1) = 4, \sigma(2) = 2, \sigma(3) = 5, \sigma(4) = 3, \sigma(5) = 1$. This can be represented with permutation notation

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

2) Define Symmetric Set:

If S is a finite set having n distinct elements then we shall have $n!$ distinct permutations of the sets. The set of all distinct permutations of degree n defined on the set S is denoted by S_n called symmetric set of permutations of degree n .

Note: $O(S_n) = n!$.

Problems:

1. List all elements of the symmetric set S_3 , where $S = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and prove that (S_3, \circ) is a non abelian group.

Solution: Given $S = \{1, 2, 3\}$.

Total number of permutation on $S = 3! = 6$.

Elements of symmetrical set $S_3 = \{P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4, P_5, P_6\}$

where

$$p_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, p_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$p_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, p_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$p_5 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, p_6 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The operation \circ product of permutations defined on the set $S_3 = \{P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4, P_5, P_6\}$ is given in the table.

P_1	P_2	P_3	P_4	P_5	P_6
P_1	P_1	P_2	P_3	P_4	P_5
P_2	P_2	P_1	P_4	P_3	P_6
P_3	P_3	P_5	P_1	P_6	P_4
P_4	P_4	P_6	P_2	P_5	P_1
P_5	P_5	P_3	P_6	P_1	P_4
P_6	P_6	P_4	P_5	P_2	P_3

To prove: (S_3, \circ) is a non abelian group.

(i) Closure: Since the body of the table contains only the elements of S_3 .

$\therefore (S_3, \circ)$ is closed.

(ii) Associativity: We know composition of function S_3 is associative and so it is true in S_3 also. (S_3, \circ) is associative.

$$P_1 \circ (P_3 \circ P_4) = P_1 \circ P_6 = P_6.$$

$$(P_1 \circ P_3) \circ P_4 = P_3 \circ P_4 = P_6.$$

$$\therefore P_1 \circ (P_3 \circ P_4) = (P_1 \circ P_3) \circ P_4.$$

(iii) Identity: $P_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$ is the identity element of S_3 .

(iv) Inverse: From the above table

$$P_1^{-1} = P_1; P_2^{-1} = P_2; P_3^{-1} = P_3; P_4^{-1} = P_5; P_5^{-1} = P_4; P_6^{-1} = P_6.$$

Thus inverse exists for every element. Hence inverse axiom is verified.

$\therefore (S_3, \circ)$ is a group.

(v) Commutative: From the table; $P_3 \circ P_4 = P_6$ and $P_4 \circ P_3 = P_2$.

$\therefore P_3 \circ P_4 \neq P_4 \circ P_3$. Hence (S_3, \circ) is not commutative.

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Topic 5: SUBGROUP

1) Define SUBGROUP with Example:

Definition: Let $G, *$ be a group. Let e be the identity element in G and let $H \subseteq G$. If H itself is a group with the same operation $*$ and the same identity element e .

(or)

Let $G, *$ be a group and $H \subseteq G$. $H, *$ is called a subgroup of $G, *$, if H itself is a group with respect to $*$.

Example: $(Q, +)$ is a subgroup of $(R, +)$.

2) Define TRIVIAL SUBGROUP OR IMPROPER SUBGROUP

Solution: For any group $G, *$, $\{e, *\}$ and $G, *$ are subgroups, called trivial subgroups.

3) Define NON TRIVIAL SUBGROUP OR PROPER SUBGROUP

Solution: All other subgroups other than $\{e, *\}$ and $(G, *)$ are called non trivial subgroup.

4) What is the CONDITION FOR A NON-EMPTY SUBSET H to be subgroup of G

$H, *$ is said to be a subgroup of $G, *$ if

- (i). H is closed for the operation $*$, $\forall a, b \in H, a * b \in H$.
- (ii). H contains the identity element e
(i.e) $e \in H$ where e is the identity of G .
- (iii). For any $a \in H, a^{-1} \in H$.

**1) Theorem 1: State and Prove NECESSARY AND SUFFICIENT CONDITION
For a subgroup :**

Statement: A non-empty subset H of a group G , $*$ is a subgroup of G if and only if $a * b^{-1} \in H$ for all $a, b \in H$.

PROOF: Necessary Condition:

Let H be a subgroup of a group G and $a, b \in H$.

To prove: $a * b^{-1} \in H$.

Since H is a subgroup and $b \in H$, b^{-1} must exist and $b^{-1} \in H$.

Now, $a \in H, b^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow a * b^{-1} \in H$. [By closure property]

Sufficient Condition:

Assume $a \in H, b \in H \Rightarrow a * b^{-1} \in H$.

To prove: H be a subgroup of a group G .

(i). **IDENTITY:**

Now, $a \in H, a^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow a * a^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow e \in H$.

Hence the identity element, $e \in H$.

(ii). **INVERSE:**

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

\Rightarrow Every element ' a ' of H has its inverse a^{-1} is in H .

(iii). **CLOSURE:**

If $b \in H$ then $b^{-1} \in H$. $a \in H, b^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow a * (b^{-1})^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow a * b \in H$.

(iv). **ASSOCIATIVE:**

Now $H \subseteq G$ and the associative law hold good for G , as G is a group.

Hence it is true for the element of H .

Thus all axioms for a group are satisfied for H .

Hence H is subgroup of G .

2) Prove: The intersection of two subgroups of a group $G, *$ is also a subgroup of $(G, *)$ & The Union need not be a Subgroup .

PROOF:

Let H and K are subgroups of $(G, *)$

To prove that: $H \cap K$ is subgroup of $(G, *)$.

We have $H \cap K \neq \emptyset$. [\because atleast identity element is common to both H and K].

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

$a \in H \cap K \Rightarrow a \in H$ and $a \in K$

$b \in H \cap K \Rightarrow b \in H$ and $b \in K$

Now, $a \in H, b \in H \Rightarrow a * b^{-1} \in H$ [H is a subgroup , Theorem 1],

$a \in K, b \in K \Rightarrow a * b^{-1} \in K$ [K is a subgroup , Theorem 1].

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

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

$H \cap K$ is a subgroup of G . [By Theorem 1]

ALSO, The union of two subgroups need not be a subgroup.

Example:

Let $(Z, +)$ is a group.

Let H and K are subgroup of $(Z, +)$

where $H = \{ \dots -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, 6 \dots \} = \{ 0, \pm 2, \pm 4, \pm 6, \dots \}$

$K = \{ \dots -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, 9 \dots \} = \{ 0, \pm 3, \pm 6, \pm 9, \dots \}$

$H \cup K = \{ 0, \pm 2, \pm 3, \pm 4, \pm 6, \pm 8, \pm 9, \dots \}$

$3, 8 \in H \cup K$ but $3 + 8 = 11 \notin H \cup K$.

Therefore, $H \cup K$ is not closed with respect to addition.

Therefore, $H \cup K$ is not a subgroup of G .

3) Prove: The union of two subgroups of a group G iff one is contained in the other.

PROOF:

Assume H and K are subgroups of G and $H \subseteq K$ or $K \subseteq H$.
To prove that. $H \cup K$ is a subgroup.

$\because H$ and K are subgroups and $H \subseteq K \Rightarrow H \cup K = K$.

(or) H and K are subgroups and $K \subseteq H \Rightarrow H \cup K = H$.

Therefore, $H \cup K$ is a subgroup.

Conversely,

Suppose $H \cup K$ is a subgroup.

To prove that, one is contained in the other (i.e) $H \subseteq K$ or $K \subseteq H$.

Suppose, $H \not\subseteq K$ or $K \not\subseteq H$.

Then, \exists elements a , such that $a \in H$ and $a \notin K$ -----(1)

$b \in K$ and $b \notin H$ -----(2)

Clearly, $a, b \in H \cup K$.

Since, $H \cup K$ is a subgroup of G , $ab \in H \cup K$.

Hence, $ab \in H$ or $ab \in K$.

Case 1: Let $ab \in H$. $\because a \in H, a^{-1} \in H$.

Hence, $a^{-1} ab = b \in H$, which is a contradiction (2).

Case 2: Let $ab \in K$. $\because b \in K, b^{-1} \in K$.

Hence, $b^{-1} ab = a \in K$, which is a contradiction (1).

Therefore, Our assumption is wrong.

Thus, $H \subseteq K$ or $K \subseteq H$.

1. Find all the non-trivial subgroup of $(Z_6, +_6)$.

Solution: $Z_6 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ of H is a subgroup of Z_6

Hence, $O(H) = 1, 2, 3,$ or 6 .

Subgroups are

$$\Rightarrow H = [0]$$

$$\Rightarrow H = [0], [3]$$

$$\Rightarrow H = [0], [2], [4]$$

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

2. Find all the subgroups of $(Z_9, +_9)$.

Solution:

$$Z_9 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$$

Here, $O(H) = 1, 3$.

Subgroups are

$$\Rightarrow H = \{0\}$$

$$\Rightarrow H = \{0, 3, 6\}$$

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

\times_9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
0	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	0
2	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	0	1
3	3	4	5	6	7	8	0	1	2
4	4	5	6	7	8	0	1	2	3
5	5	6	7	8	0	1	2	3	4
6	6	7	8	0	1	2	3	4	5
7	7	8	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	8	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3.. Check whether $H_1 = \{0, 5, 10\}$ and $H_2 = \{0, 4, 8, 12\}$ are subgroups of Z_{15} with respect to $+_{15}$.

Solution: $H_1 = \{0, 5, 10\}$

$$H_1 = \{0, 5, 10\}$$

$+_{15}$	0	5	10
0	0	5	10
5	5	10	0
10	10	0	5

$(H_1, +_{15})$

$$H_2 = \{0, 4, 8, 12\}$$

$+_{15}$	0	4	8	12
0	0	4	8	12
4	4	8	12	1
8	8	12	1	5
12	12	1	5	9

$(H_2, +_{15})$

Table 1:

$(H_1, +_{15})$: All the entries in the addition table for H_1 are the elements of H_1 .

Therefore, H_1 is a subgroup of Z_{15} .

Table 2:

$(H_2, +_{15})$: All the entries in the addition table for H_2 are not the elements of H_2 .

Therefore, H_2 is a subgroup of Z_{15} .

X.....X

Topic 7: NORMAL SUBGROUPS

1) Define NORMAL SUBGROUPS with Example.

Definition: A subgroup $(H, *)$ of $(G, *)$ is called normal subgroup of G

if $aH = Ha, \forall a \in G$.

2) Theorem: Every subgroup of an abelian group is normal

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

Let $a \in G$ be any element.

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

$$= \{h * a / h \in H\} \quad (\text{since } G \text{ is abelian}) = Ha$$

Since a is arbitrary, $aH = Ha \forall a \in G$

Therefore H is a normal subgroup of G .

3) Theorem: $(N, *)$ is a normal subgroup of $(G, *)$ iff $a * n * a^{-1} \in N$

$\forall n \in N$ and $\forall a \in G$.

Proof: Let $(N, *)$ is a normal subgroup of $(G, *)$. Therefore $aN = Na \quad \forall a \in G$

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

Therefore for any $n \in N, a * N * a^{-1} \in N$

Conversely, if $a * N * a^{-1} \in N, n \in N, \forall a \in G,$

To prove $a * N = N * a$

Let $x \in a * N \Rightarrow x = a * n$ for some $n \in N$

$$x = a * n * e \Rightarrow x = a * n * (a^{-1} * a)$$

$$\Rightarrow x = a * n * a^{-1} * a \in N * a$$

$$\Rightarrow a * N \subseteq N * a \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

Let $y \in N * a \Rightarrow y = n * a$ for some $n \in N$

$$\text{Then } y = a * a^{-1} * n * a = a * (a^{-1} * n * a^{-1}) \in a * N$$

$$\text{Therefore } y \in N * a \Rightarrow y \in a * N \text{ therefore } N * a \subseteq a * N \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

Therefore from (1) and (2) we get $a * N = N * a, \forall a \in G$.

Hence N is a normal subgroup of G .

4)Theorem: prove that intersection of two normal subgroup of $(G, *)$ is a normal subgroup of $(G, *)$.

Proof: Let $(N_1, *)$ and $(N_2, *)$ be two normal subgroups of $(G, *)$.

To Prove $(N_1 \cap N_2, *)$ is a normal subgroup of $(G, *)$.

$$a * n * a^{-1} \in N_1 \cap N_2 \text{ (by previous theorem)}$$

Since N_1 and N_2 are normal subgroup of G , they are basically subgroups.

We know $N_1 \cap N_2$ is a subgroup of G .

Now we shall prove it is a normal subgroup of G .

Let $n \in N_1 \cap N_2$ be any element and $a \in G$ be any element

Then $n \in N_1$ and $n \in N_2$, Since N_1 and N_2 are normal, $a * n * a^{-1} \in N_1$ and

$a * n * a^{-1} \in N_2$, Therefore $a * n * a^{-1} \in N_1 \cap N_2$.

Hence $N_1 \cap N_2$ is normal.

x.....x

Topic 8: Group Homomorphism:

1) Define Group Homomorphism.

Let $G, *$ and G_1, \circ be two groups. A mapping $g: G \rightarrow G_1$ is called group homomorphism if $g(a * b) = g(a) \circ g(b)$ for all $a, b \in G$.

2) Properties of group homomorphism:

A group homomorphism preserves identities, inverses and sub groups.

Theorem 1: Homomorphism preserves identities.

(or)

If $f(e) = e_1$ where e and e_1 are the identity elements of G and G_1 respectively.

Proof: Let $a \in G$, If e is the identity element G ,

then $a * e = e * a = a$

$$\Rightarrow f(a * e) = f(a)$$

$$\Rightarrow f(a) \circ f(e) = f(a) \quad \because f \text{ is homomorphism}$$

$$\Rightarrow f(e) = e_1$$

$\therefore f$ preserves identities.

Theorem 2: Homomorphism preserves inverse (or) $f(a^{-1}) = [f(a)]^{-1}$

Proof:

Let $a \in G$, $a^{-1} \in G \Rightarrow a * a^{-1} = a^{-1} * a = e$

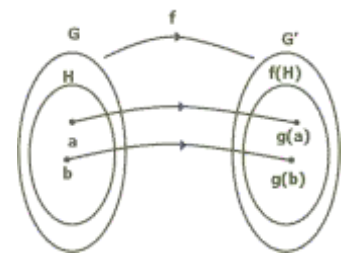
Since $a * a^{-1} = e$

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

$$\Rightarrow f(a) \circ f(a^{-1}) = f(e_1) \quad \because f \text{ is homomorphism}$$

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

$\therefore f$ preserves inverse



Theorem 3: Homomorphism preserves subgroup
(or)

If H is a subgroup of G , then $f(H)$ is a subgroup of G_1 .

Proof:

Let H be a subgroup of $G \Rightarrow$ for $a, b \in H, a * b^{-1} \in H$ [$\because H$ is a subgroup]

Let $f(a) \in f(H)$ and $f(b) \in f(H)$.

To prove $f(a) \circ f(b^{-1}) \in f(H)$

Consider $f(a) \circ f(b^{-1}) = f(a * b^{-1}) \in f(H)$ [$\because a * b^{-1} \in H$]

$\Rightarrow f(a) \circ f(b^{-1}) \in f(H) \quad \forall f(a) \in f(H) \text{ and } f(b) \in f(H)$.

$\therefore f(H) \subseteq G_1$ is a subgroup of G_1 .

Theorem 4: Let $f: G \rightarrow G'$ be a group homomorphism and H is a subgroup of G' .
Then $f^{-1}(H)$ is a subgroup of G .

Proof:

Clearly $f^{-1}(H)$ is a non empty subset of G [$\because H$ is a subgroup of G' .]

Now let us consider $a = f^{-1}(c) \in f^{-1}(H)$ and $b = f^{-1}(d) \in f^{-1}(H)$.

For $c, d \in H$ with $f(a) = c$ and $f(b) = d$.

Let $a, b \in f^{-1}(H) \Rightarrow f(a), f(b) \in H$ [$\because H$ is a subgroup.]

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

$\Rightarrow f(a * b^{-1}) \in H$ [$\because f$ is homomorphism.]

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

$\therefore a, b \in f^{-1}(H) \Rightarrow a * b^{-1} \in f^{-1}(H)$

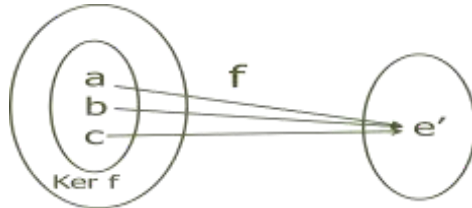
Hence $f^{-1}(H)$ is a subgroup of G .

X.....X

1) Define **KERNEL OF A HOMOMORPHISM** with Example:

Let $f: G \rightarrow G'$ be a group homomorphism. The set of elements of G which are mapped into e' (identity element in G') is called the kernel of f and it is denoted by $\ker f$.

$\ker f = \{x \in G / f(x) = e'\}$, e' is identity of G' .



then $\ker f = \{a, b, c\}$

- Example:** 1. $f: (Z, +) \rightarrow (Z, +)$ defined by $f(x) = 2x$ then $\ker f = \{0\}$
 2. $f: (R^*, \cdot) \rightarrow (R^+, \cdot)$ defined by $f(x) = |x|$, then $\ker f = \{1, -1\}$.

2) If $f: G \rightarrow G'$ is a homomorphism then $\ker f = \{e\}$ iff f is 1-1.

Proof:

Assume f is one to one Then

$$f(e) = e'$$

$$\therefore \ker f = \{e\}$$

Conversely,

Assume $\ker f = \{e\}$

Now $f(x) = f(y)$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) * f(y^{-1}) = f(y) * f(y^{-1})$$

$$\Rightarrow f(xy^{-1}) = e'$$

$$\Rightarrow xy^{-1} \in \ker f$$

$$\Rightarrow xy^{-1} = e$$

$$\Rightarrow x = y$$

$$\therefore f(x) = f(y) \Rightarrow x = y$$

Hence f is one to one.

3) Prove that Kernel of a homomorphism is a normal subgroup of G .

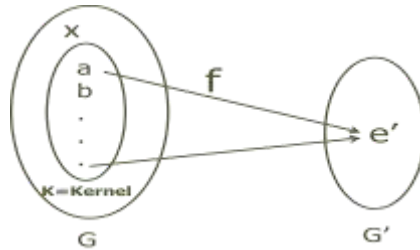
Proof:

Let $(G, *)$ and (G', \cdot) be the groups and $f: G \rightarrow G'$ is a group homomorphism.

By the definition of homomorphism, $f(a * b) = f(a) \cdot f(b) \forall a, b \in G$.

By the definition of kernel, $K = \{a \in G / f(a) = e'\}$

i.e., $f(a) = e' \forall a \in K$ and e' is the identity element of H .



To prove that 'K' is a normal subgroup of G.

i.e., To prove

- i) K is nonempty
- ii) $a * b^{-1} \in K, \forall a, b \in K$
- iii) $x * h * x^{-1} \in K, \forall h \in K, x \in G$

i) Identity element 'e' of G is mapped to identity element of e' of G'.

i.e., $f(e) = e'$

$\therefore e \in K \Rightarrow K$ is non-empty.

ii) Let $a, b \in K \subseteq G$

$\Rightarrow f(a) = f(b) = e'$

$f(a * b^{-1}) = f(a) \cdot f(b^{-1}) \{ \because f \text{ is homomorphism} \}$

$= e' \cdot (e')^{-1}$

$= e' \cdot e' = e'$

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

Hence $K = \ker f$ is a subgroup

iii) Let $x \in G$ and $h \in K$ be any element.

$\Rightarrow f(h) = e'$

$f(x * h * x^{-1}) = f(x) \cdot f(h) \cdot f(x^{-1})$

$= f(x) \cdot e' \cdot f(x^{-1}) = f(x) \cdot f(x^{-1}) = e'$

$\therefore x * h * x^{-1} \in K$

Hence $K = \ker f$ is a normal subgroup of G.

X.....X

State and prove the Fundamental Theorem Of Group Homomorphism.

Statement: Let $(G, *)$ and (G', \cdot) be two groups.

Let $f: G \rightarrow G'$ be a homomorphism of groups with kernel K ,
then G/K is isomorphic to (G) .

i.e., $G/K \cong G'$

Proof: Given that $f: G \rightarrow G'$ be a homomorphism of groups with kernel K .

Define the map $\phi (K * a) = f(a)$, $\forall a \in G$

i) ϕ is well defined:

Let $a, b \in G$ such that

$$K * a = K * b$$

$$\Rightarrow a * b^{-1} \in K \quad \text{-----} \rightarrow (1)$$

$$\Rightarrow f(a * b^{-1}) = e' \quad \{\because K \text{ is kernel}\}$$

$$\Rightarrow f(a) * f(b^{-1}) = e' \quad \{\because f \text{ is homomorphism}\}$$

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

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

$$\Rightarrow \phi(K * a) = \phi(K * b)$$

$\therefore \phi$ is well defined.

ii) ϕ is one to one:

To prove that $\phi(K * a) = \phi(K * b) \Rightarrow K * a = K * b$

We know that $\phi(K * a) = \phi(K * b) \Rightarrow f(a) = f(b)$

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

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

$$= f(e)$$

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

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

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

$$\Rightarrow K * a = K * b$$

$\therefore \phi$ is one to one.

iii) ϕ is onto:

Let $y \in G'$

Since f is onto, there exists $a \in G$ such that $f(a) = y$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(K * a) = y \quad \{ \because f(a) = \phi(K * a) \}$$

Thus every element of G' has preimage in G/K

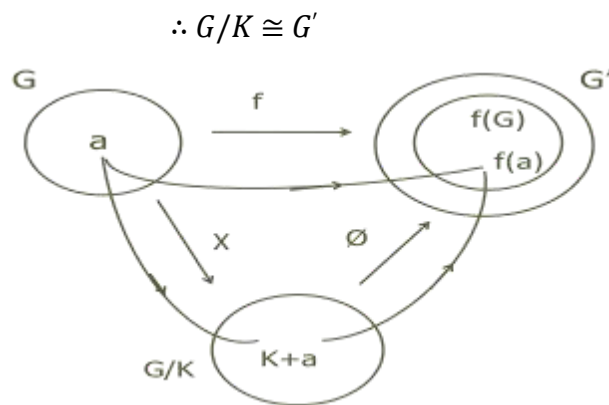
$\therefore \phi$ is onto.

i) ϕ is a homomorphism:

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(K * a * K * b) &= \phi(K * a * b) \\ &= f(a * b) \\ &= f(a) * f(b) \\ &= \phi(K * a) * \phi(K * b) \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore \phi$ is a homomorphism.

Since ϕ is one to one, onto and homomorphism, ϕ is isomorphism between G/K and G' .



2) State and prove the Cayley's representation theorem.

(or)

Prove that every finite group of order 'n' is isomorphic to a permutation group of order 'n'.

Proof:

To prove the theorem, we have to show the following.

- To form a set G of permutation
- To prove G' is a group
- Exhibit an Isomorphism $\phi: G \rightarrow G'$.

Let G be a finite group of order 'n' and $a \in G$ be any element.

Corresponding to 'a' we define a map $f_a(x) = a * x, \forall x \in G$ then f is one to one.

$$\because f_a(x) = f_a(y)$$

$$\Rightarrow a * x = a * y$$

$$\Rightarrow x = y \text{ (by left cancellation law)}$$

Now $y \in G$ (Co-domain), then

$a^{-1} * y \in G$ such that

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

$\therefore f_a$ is onto.

Thus f_a is a one to one and onto function from $G \rightarrow G$ and so it is a permutation on G .

b. To prove G' is a group:

Let $f_a, f_b \in G'$ be any two elements, then

$$(f_a \circ f_b)(x) = f_a(f_b(x)) = f_a(b * x) = a * (b * x) = (a * b) * x = f_{a*b}$$

$\therefore G'$ is closed.

Composition mapping is also associative.

Since 'e' is the identity element of G , $f_e \in G'$ is identity mapping.

Let $a \in G \Rightarrow a^{-1} \in G$

$$f_{a^{-1}} f_a(x) = f_{a^{-1}}(a * x) = (a^{-1} * a) * x = e * x = f_e(x)$$

$\therefore f_{a^{-1}} \in G'$

Hence G' is a group.

c. Isomorphism $\phi: G \rightarrow G'$:

To prove G and G' are isomorphic.

Let $\phi: G \rightarrow G'$ be defined by $\phi(a) = f_a, \forall a \in G$

Now for any $a, b \in G$, $\phi(a * b) = f_{a*b} = f_a * f_b = \phi(a) \phi(b)$

$\therefore \phi$ is a homomorphism.

Suppose $\phi(a) = \phi(b)$ then

$$f_a = f_b \Rightarrow f_a(x) = f_b(x), \forall x \in G \Rightarrow a * x = b * x \Rightarrow a = b \text{ \{Right Cancellation law\}}$$

$\therefore \phi$ is one to one

Since f_a is onto, ϕ is onto.

Thus $G \cong G'$

Topic 11: COSETS and LAGRANGE'S THEOREM:

1) Define cosets with Example:

Definition: Let $(H,*)$ be a subgroup of $(G,*)$. Let $a \in G$ be any element. Then

$aH = \{a * h / h \in H\}$ is called the left coset of H in G determined by a .

Sometimes aH can be written as $a * H$.

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

Points to remember:

1. Since $e \in H$, $a * e \in aH \Rightarrow a \in aH$ and $e * a = a \in Ha$

2. Also $eH = e * h / h \in H = h / h \in H = H$

and $He = h * e / h \in H = h / h \in H = H$

So H itself is a left coset as well as right coset.

3. In general, $aH \neq Ha$.

But if G is abelian, then $aH = Ha$ That is every left coset is a right coset.

Problems:

1. Find the left cosets of $H = (5Z, +)$ which is a subgroup of $(Z, +)$

Solution: If $H = 5Z$ then $(H, +)$ is a subgroup of $(Z, +)$.

Then the distinct left cosets of H in Z are

$$0 + H = H = 0 + 5x \text{ where } x \in Z$$

$$1 + H = 1 + 5x \text{ where } x \in Z$$

$$2 + H = 2 + 5x \text{ where } x \in Z$$

$$3 + H = 3 + 5x \text{ where } x \in Z$$

$$4 + H = 4 + 5x \text{ where } x \in Z$$

$$5 + H = 5 + 5x \text{ where } x \in Z$$

$6 + H = 6 + 5x/x \in Z = 1 + 5(1 + x)$ where $x \in Z = 1 + H$ and so

on. Therefore number of different left cosets of H in G is 5.

2)Theorem: Let $(H,*)$ be a subgroup of $(G,*)$. Then the set of all left cosets of H in G form a partition of G .

Proof: Let aH and bH be any two left cosets.

We shall prove either $aH = bH$

(or) $aH \cap bH = \emptyset$.

Suppose $aH \cap bH \neq \emptyset$, then there exists an element

$$x \in aH \cap bH \Rightarrow x \in aH \text{ and } x \in bH$$

$$\Rightarrow x = a * h_1 \quad x = b * h_2, \text{ for some } h_1, h_2 \in H \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

$$\text{Therefore, } a * h_1 = b * h_2 \Rightarrow a * h_1 * h_1^{-1} = b * h_2 * h_1^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow a * (h_1 * h_1^{-1}) = b * (h_2 * h_1^{-1})$$

$$\Rightarrow a * e = b * (h_2 * h_1^{-1})$$

$$a = b * (h_2 * h_1^{-1}) \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

If x is any element in aH , then $x = a * h$

$$\Rightarrow x = b * (h_2 * h_1^{-1}) * h$$

$$\Rightarrow x = b * (h_2 * h_1^{-1}) * h \in bH$$

Therefore $x \in aH \Rightarrow x \in bH$ therefore $aH \subseteq bH \dots\dots\dots(2)$

Similarly we can prove $bH \subseteq aH \dots\dots\dots(3)$

From (2) and (3) we get $aH = aH$.

Thus any two left cosets are either equal or disjoint. Further $\bigcup_{a \in G} aH \subseteq G$ since union of subsets is a subset. If x is any element in G , then $x = x * e \in xH$

Therefore x is a left coset and hence $x \in \bigcup_{a \in G} aH$. Hence $\Rightarrow x \in G \Rightarrow x \in \bigcup_{a \in G} aH \Rightarrow G \subseteq \bigcup_{a \in G} aH$. Therefore $G = \bigcup_{a \in G} aH$. Thus all the left cosets forms partition of G .

3) State and prove Lagrange's theorem:

Statement: The order of a subgroup H of a finite group G divides the order of the group. (i.e) order of H divides order of G .

Proof: Let $(G,*)$ be a group of order n and $(H,*)$ be a subgroup of order m .

Since G is a finite group, the number of left cosets of H in G is finite.

Let r be the number of left cosets of H in G

Let the r cosets be $a_1H, a_2H \dots a_r H$.

We know that the left cosets of G forms a partition of G . (by previous theorem)

Therefore $G = a_1H \cup a_2H \cup \dots \cup a_r H$

Therefore $o(G) = o(a_1H \cup a_2H \cup \dots \cup a_r H)$

$$= o(a_1H) + o(a_2H) + \dots + o(a_rH)$$

But $o(a_iH) = o(H)$ (by previous theorem)

Therefore $o(G) = o(H) + o(H) + \dots + o(H)$

r times

$$\Rightarrow o(G) = r o(H)$$

Thus $O(H)$ divides $o(G)$

Topic 12: RINGS AND FIELDS

1) Define Ring with Example:

Definition: A non-empty set R with two binary operations $+$ and \cdot called addition and multiplication is called ring if the following axioms are satisfied.

- (i) $(R, +)$ is an abelian group with 0 as identity
 - (ii) (R, \cdot) is a semigroup
 - (iii) The operation \cdot is distributive over $+$
- (i.e) $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$ and

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

2) Define commutative ring.

Definition: A ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is said to be commutative if $a \cdot b = b \cdot a \quad \forall a, b \in R$

3) Define Ring with Identity.

Definition: A ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is said to be a ring with identity if there exists an element $1 \in R$ such that $1 \cdot a = a \cdot 1 = a \quad \forall a \in R$

4) Define Ring with zero divisor.

Definition: If $R, +, \cdot$ is a commutative ring, then $a \neq 0 \in R$ is said to be a zero- divisor if there exists a non-zero $b \in R$ such that $ab = 0$.

5) Define Ring without zero divisors

Definition: If in a commutative ring $(R, +, \cdot)$, for any $a, b \in R$ such that $a \neq 0, b \neq 0 \Rightarrow ab \neq 0$ then the ring is without zero divisors.

In a ring without zero divisors, $a \cdot b = 0 \Rightarrow a = 0$ or $b = 0$.

6) Define Integral domain:

Definition: Integral domain: A commutative ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ with identity and without zero divisors is called an integral domain.

7) Define Field.

Definition: Field: A commutative ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ which has more than one element such that every non zero element of R has a multiplicative inverse in R is called a field.

Problems:

1. Show that $Z_5 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$ is an integral domain under $+_5$ and \times_5 .

Solution:

$+_5$	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	1	2	3	4
1	1	2	3	4	0
2	2	3	4	0	1
3	3	4	0	1	2
4	4	0	1	2	3

\times_5	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4
2	0	2	4	1	3
3	0	3	1	4	2
4	0	4	3	2	1

We can easily verify $(Z_5, +_5, \times_5)$ is a commutative ring with identity 1. From the table for \times_5 , we see product of non zero elements is non zero and so $(Z_5, +_5, \times_5)$ ring without zero divisors is an integral domain.

2. Prove the set $Z_4 = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ is a commutative ring with respect to $+_4$ and \times_4 .

Solution:

$+_4$	0	1	2	3
0	0	1	2	3
1	1	2	3	0
2	2	3	0	1
3	3	0	1	2

\times_4	0	1	2	3
0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3
2	0	2	0	2
3	0	3	2	1

(i) All entries in both the tables $+_4, \times_4$, belongs to Z_4 .
Therefore Z_4 is closed under $+_4, \times_4$.

(ii) The entries of the first row is same as those of first column.

(iii) Hence Z_4 is commutative with respect to $+_4, \times_4$

(iv) If $a, b, c \in Z_4$ we can verify

$$a+_4b+_4c = a+_4b+_4c$$

$$a \times_4 b \times_4 c = a \times_4 b \times_4 c$$

Also the law is true for $+_4, \times_4$.

(iv) $0+_4a = a+_40 = a \forall a \in Z_4$

$$1 \times_4 a = a \times_4 1 = a \in Z_4$$

0 is the additive identity and 1 is the multiplicative identity of Z_4 with respect to $+_4, \times_4$.

(v) From the table $+_4$ additive inverse of 0,1,2,3 are 0,3,2,1 respectively. And multiplicative inverse of non zero element 1,2,3 are 1,2,3 respectively.

(vi) Also we can verify distributive law

$$(vii) a \times_4 (b+_4c) = a \times_4 b+_4(a \times_4 c)$$

$$b+_4 \times_4 a = b \times_4 a+_4(c \times_4 a)$$

Hence $(Z_4, +_4, \times_4)$ is a commutative ring with unity.

3. Prove that every field is an integral domain.

Proof: Let F be a field.

(i.e) $(F, +, \cdot)$ is a commutative ring with identity and non zero element has a multiplicative inverse.

To prove F is an integral domain we have to show it has no zero divisors.

Suppose $a, b \in F$ with $a \cdot b = 0$ let $a \neq 0$, since a is a non zero element, its multiplicative inverse exists (i.e) a^{-1} exists.

$$\text{Therefore } a^{-1} \cdot a \cdot b = a^{-1} \cdot 0 \Rightarrow a^{-1} \cdot a \cdot b = 0 \Rightarrow 1 \cdot b = 0$$

Thus $a \cdot b = 0 \Rightarrow a \neq 0 \Rightarrow b = 0$. Therefore F has no zero divisors.

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

4) Show that $(z, +, \cdot)$ is an integral domain where Z is set of all integers.

Proof: We know commutative ring with identity and without zero divisors is called integral domain.

If Z is set of all integers, then

- (i) $(Z, +)$ is an abelian group.
- (ii) (Z, \times) is a semi ring.
- (iii) $a \times b = b \times a \forall a, b, c \in Z$
- (iv) $a \times b + c = a \times b + a \times c \quad \forall a, b, c \in Z$

Hence $(z, +, \cdot)$ is a commutative ring with identity.

If $a \neq 0, b \neq 0 \in Z$ then we know $ab \neq 0$. So Z is without zero divisors.

Hence $(z, +, \cdot)$ is an integral domain.

X.....X