

# Week 7

## 7.1 Classification of cyclic groups

**Example 7.1.1.** Let  $H = \{r_0, r_1, r_2, \dots, r_{n-1}\}$  be the subgroup of  $D_n$  consisting of all rotations, where  $r_1$  denotes the anti-clockwise rotation by the angle  $2\pi/n$ , and  $r_k = r_1^k$ . Then,  $H$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_n = (\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n)$ .

*Proof.* Define  $\phi : H \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$  as follows:

$$\phi(r_1^k) = \bar{k}, \quad k \in \mathbb{Z},$$

where  $\bar{k}$  denotes the remainder of the division of  $k$  by  $n$ .

The map  $\phi$  is well defined: If  $r_1^k = r_1^{k'}$ , then  $r_1^{k-k'} = e$ , which implies that  $n = |r_1|$  divides  $k - k'$ . Hence,  $\bar{k} = \bar{k}'$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ .

For  $i, j \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we have  $r_1^i r_1^j = r_1^{i+j}$ ; hence:

$$\phi(r_1^i r_1^j) = \phi(r_1^{i+j}) = \overline{i+j} = i +_n j = \phi(r_1^i) +_n \phi(r_1^j).$$

This shows that  $\phi$  is a homomorphism. It is clear that  $\phi$  is surjective, which then implies that  $\phi$  is one-to-one, for the two groups have the same size. Hence,  $\phi$  is a bijective homomorphism, i.e. an isomorphism.  $\square$

In fact:

**Theorem 7.1.2.** Any infinite cyclic group is isomorphic to  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ . Any cyclic group of finite order  $n$  is isomorphic to  $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n)$ .

*Proof.* Write  $G = \langle g \rangle$ .

Suppose  $|G| = \infty$ . Consider the map

$$\phi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow G, \quad k \mapsto g^k.$$

$\phi$  is a homomorphism because  $\phi(k_1 + k_2) = g^{k_1+k_2} = g^{k_1} \cdot g^{k_2} = \phi(k_1) \cdot \phi(k_2)$ .  
 $\phi$  is injective because  $\phi(k_1) = \phi(k_2)$  implies that  $g^{k_1} = g^{k_2}$  which forces  $k_1 = k_2$

as  $|g| = \infty$ .  $\phi$  is surjective because  $G$  is generated by  $g$ . We conclude that  $\phi$  is an isomorphism.

If  $|G| = n < \infty$ , Claim 2.1.2 says that we can write

$$G = \langle g \rangle = \{e, g, g^2, \dots, g^{n-1}\}.$$

Consider the bijection

$$\phi : G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n, \quad g^i \mapsto i.$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(g^{i_1} \cdot g^{i_2}) &= \phi(g^{i_1+i_2}) \\ &= \begin{cases} \phi(g^{i_1+i_2}) & \text{if } i_1 + i_2 < n, \\ \phi(g^{i_1+i_2-n}) & \text{if } i_1 + i_2 \geq n \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{cases} i_1 + i_2 & \text{if } i_1 + i_2 < n, \\ i_1 + i_2 - n & \text{if } i_1 + i_2 \geq n \end{cases} \\ &= \phi(g^{i_1}) + \phi(g^{i_2}), \end{aligned}$$

so  $\phi$  is an isomorphism. □

So for any  $n \in \mathbb{Z} \cup \{\infty\}$ , there is a unique (up to isomorphism) cyclic group of order  $n$ . In particular, we have the following:

**Corollary 7.1.3.** *If  $G$  and  $G'$  are two finite cyclic groups of the same order, then  $G$  is isomorphic to  $G'$ .*

For example, the multiplicative group of  $m$ -th roots of unity

$$U_m = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : z^m = 1\} = \{1, \zeta_m, \zeta_m^2, \dots, \zeta_m^{m-1}\},$$

where  $\zeta_m = e^{2\pi i/m} = \cos(2\pi/m) + i \sin(2\pi/m) \in \mathbb{C}$ , is cyclic of order  $m$ . So it is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ , and an isomorphism is given by

$$\phi : \mathbb{Z}_m \longrightarrow U_m, \quad k \mapsto \zeta_m^k.$$

## 7.2 Rings

**Definition.** A ring  $R$  (or  $(R, +, \cdot)$ ) is a set equipped with two binary operations:

$$+, \cdot : R \times R \rightarrow R$$

which satisfy the following properties:

1.  $(R, +)$  is an abelian group.
2. (a) The multiplication  $\cdot$  is associative, i.e.

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

for all  $a, b, c \in R$ .

- (b) There is an element  $1 \in R$  (called the *multiplicative identity*) such that  $1 \cdot a = a \cdot 1 = a$  for all  $a \in R$ .

3. (Distributive laws:)

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

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

for all  $a, b, c \in R$ .

**Example 7.2.1.** The following sets, equipped with the usual operations of addition and multiplication, are rings:

1.  $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ .
2.  $\mathbb{Z}[x], \mathbb{Q}[x], \mathbb{R}[x], \mathbb{C}[x]$  (Polynomials with integer, rational, real, complex coefficients, respectively.)
3.  $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}] = \{\sum_{k=0}^n a_k(\sqrt{2})^k : a_k \in \mathbb{Q}, n \in \mathbb{N}\} = \{a + b\sqrt{2} : a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$ .
4. For a fixed  $n$ , the set of  $n \times n$  matrices with integer coefficients.
5.  $C[a, b] = \{f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : f \text{ is continuous.}\}$
6.  $(\mathbb{N}, +, \cdot)$  is *not* a ring because  $(\mathbb{N}, +)$  is not a group.

**Remark.** • For convenience's sake, we often write  $ab$  for  $a \cdot b$ .

- In the definition, commutativity is required of addition, but not of multiplication.
- Every element has an additive inverse, but *not necessarily* a multiplicative inverse. That is, there may be an element  $a \in R$  such that  $ab \neq 1$  for all  $b \in R$ .

**Proposition 7.2.2.** *In a ring  $R$ , there is a unique additive identity and a unique multiplicative identity.*

*Proof.* We already know that the additive identity is unique.

Suppose there is an element  $1' \in R$  such that  $1'r = r$  or all  $r \in R$ , then in particular  $1'1 = 1$ . But  $1'1 = 1'$  since 1 is a multiplicative identity element, so  $1' = 1$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 7.2.3.** *For any  $r$  in a ring  $R$ , its additive inverse  $-r$  is unique. That is, if  $r + r' = r + r'' = 0$ , then  $r' = r''$ .*

*If  $r$  has a multiplicative inverse, then it is also unique. That is, if  $rr' = 1 = r'r$  and  $rr'' = 1 = r''r$ , then  $r' = r''$ .*

**Proposition 7.2.4.** *For all elements  $r$  in a ring  $R$ , we have  $0r = r0 = 0$ .*

*Proof.* By distributive laws,

$$0r = (0 + 0)r = 0r + 0r$$

Adding  $-0r$  (additive inverse of  $0r$ ) to both sides, we have:

$$0 = (0r + 0r) + (-0r) = 0r + (0r + (-0r)) = 0r + 0 = 0r.$$

The proof of  $r0 = 0$  is similar and we leave it as an exercise.  $\square$

**Proposition 7.2.5.** *For all elements  $r$  in a ring, we have  $(-1)(-r) = (-r)(-1) = r$ .*

*Proof.* We have:

$$0 = 0(-r) = (1 + (-1))(-r) = -r + (-1)(-r).$$

Adding  $r$  to both sides, we obtain

$$r = r + (-r + (-1)(-r)) = (r + -r) + (-1)(-r) = (-1)(-r).$$

We leave it as an exercise to show that  $(-r)(-1) = r$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 7.2.6.** *For all  $r$  in a ring  $R$ , we have:  $(-1)r = r(-1) = -r$*

*Proof.* **Exercise**  $\square$

**Proposition 7.2.7.** *If  $R$  is a ring in which  $1 = 0$ , then  $R = \{0\}$ . That is, it has only one element.*

We call such an  $R$  the **zero ring**.

*Proof.* **Exercise.**  $\square$

**Definition.** A ring  $R$  is said to be **commutative** if  $ab = ba$  for all  $ab \in R$ .

**Example 7.2.8.** •  $\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{C}$  are all commutative rings, so are  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ ,  $\mathbb{R}[x]$ ,  $\mathbb{C}[x]$ .

- For a fixed natural number  $n > 1$ , the ring of  $n \times n$  matrices with integer coefficients, under the usual operations of addition and multiplication, is not commutative.

## Modulo $m$ arithmetic

**Example 7.2.9.** Let  $m$  be a positive integer. Consider the set

$$\mathbb{Z}_m = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, m-1\}.$$

For any integer  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we denote by  $\bar{n}$  the remainder of the division of  $n$  by  $m$ :  $n = mq + r$ .

On the other hand, two integers  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  are said to be **congruent modulo  $m$** , denoted as  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ , if  $m \mid (a - b)$ . This defines an equivalence relation on  $\mathbb{Z}$ , and  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  can be regarded as parametrizing the equivalence classes, namely, every  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  is congruent modulo  $m$  to exactly one element in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ .

**Remark.** Congruence modulo  $m$  is exactly the same as the relation defined by the subgroup  $m\mathbb{Z} < \mathbb{Z}$ , so the above partition is the same as that given by cosets of  $m\mathbb{Z}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

We equip  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  with addition  $+_m$  and multiplication  $\cdot_m$  defined as follows: For  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ , let:

$$\begin{aligned} a +_m b &= \overline{a + b}, \\ a \cdot_m b &= \overline{a \cdot b}, \end{aligned}$$

where the addition and multiplication on the right are the usual addition and multiplication for integers.

**Proposition 7.2.10.** *With addition and multiplication thus defined,  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  is a commutative ring.*

*Proof.* 1. We already know that  $(\mathbb{Z}_m, +_m)$  is an abelian group.

2. Note that If  $a \equiv a' \pmod{m}$  and  $b \equiv b' \pmod{m}$ , then  $ab \equiv a'b' \pmod{m}$ . So for  $r_1, r_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ , we have

$$\overline{r_1 r_2} \equiv r_1 r_2 \equiv \overline{r_1} \cdot \overline{r_2} \equiv \overline{\overline{r_1} \cdot \overline{r_2}} \pmod{m}.$$

For  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ , we have:

$$a \cdot_m (b \cdot_m c) = a \cdot_m \overline{bc} = \overline{a \cdot \overline{bc}} = \overline{a(bc)},$$

which by the associativity of multiplication for integers is equal to:

$$\overline{(ab)c} = \overline{\overline{ab} \cdot c} = \overline{\overline{ab} \cdot_m c} = (a \cdot_m b) \cdot_m c.$$

So,  $\cdot_m$  is associative.

3. **Exercise:** We can take 1 to be the multiplicative identity.

4. For  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ ,  $a \cdot_m b = \overline{a \cdot b} = \overline{b \cdot a} = b \cdot_m a$ . So  $\cdot_m$  is commutative.

5. Lastly, we need to prove distributivity. For  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ , we have:

$$a \cdot_m (b +_m c) = \overline{a \cdot \overline{b + c}} = \overline{a \cdot (b + c)} = \overline{ab + ac} = \overline{ab} + \overline{ac} = a \cdot_m b +_m a \cdot_m c.$$

It now follows from the distributivity from the left, proven above, and the commutativity for  $\cdot_m$ , that distributivity from the right also holds:

$$(a +_m b) \cdot_m c = a \cdot_m c + b \cdot_m c.$$

□