

CS201

Mathematics For Computer
Science

Indian Institute of Technology, Kanpur

Group Number: 5

Devanshu Singla (190274), Sarthak Rout
(190772), Yatharth Goswami (191178)

Assignment 4

Date of Submission: December 16,
2020

Question 1

Let S be a finite set and F be set of all bijections from S to S . Show that F along with the composition operation is a group.

Solution

For proving the above result, we will first provide some standard results for functions.

Lemma 1.1. If $f : X \rightarrow Y$, $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ and $h : Z \rightarrow W$ are functions, then $(h \circ g) \circ f = h \circ (g \circ f)$, where \circ represents the composition operator.

Proof. Note that for every $x \in X$ we have,

$$\begin{aligned} [(h \circ g) \circ f](x) &= (h \circ g)(f(x)) \\ &= h(g(f(x))) \\ &= h((g \circ f)(x)) \\ &= [h \circ (g \circ f)](x) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $(h \circ g) \circ f = h \circ (g \circ f)$. □

Lemma 1.2. Suppose $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ are bijections. Then their composition $h = (g \circ f) : X \rightarrow Z$ is also a bijection.

Proof. We will first show that h is injective or we will show that if $h(x) = h(x')$, then we must have that $x = x'$. Suppose that $h(x) = h(x')$. Using the definition of h this implies that $g(f(x)) = g(f(x'))$. Since, both f and g are injective therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} g(f(x)) = g(f(x')) &\implies f(x) = f(x') \\ &\implies x = x' \end{aligned}$$

Hence, h is injective.

Now, we will show that h is surjective. Since, f and g are both surjections, we have that $f(X) = Y$ and $g(Y) = Z$. Therefore, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} h(A) &= (g \circ f)(A) \\ &= \{z \in Z \mid (g \circ f)(x) = z, \text{ for some } x \in X\} \\ &= \{z \in Z \mid (g(f(x))) = z, \text{ for some } x \in X\} \\ &= \{z \in Z \mid (g(y)) = z, \text{ for some } y \in f(X)\} \\ &= g(f(X)) \\ &= g(Y) \\ &= Z \end{aligned}$$

Hence, h is surjective as well and hence h is bijective. □

Lemma 1.3. There exists an inverse for every bijective function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ which is also bijective.

Proof. Define $f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$ by letting $f^{-1}(y)$ be the unique x in X for which $f(x) = y$. (Since, f is surjective there is at least one such x and since f is injective, there is at most one such x . Hence, it is unique). For f^{-1} to be the inverse of f we need to show that for all $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$,

$$f^{-1}(f(x)) = x \text{ and } f(f^{-1}(y)) = y$$

Now, for $x \in X$, we have $f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$ (since $[f^{-1}(f(x))]$ is defined to be the element that f sends to $f(x)$). Similarly, for $y \in Y$, $f(f^{-1}(y)) = y$ (since $f^{-1}(y)$ is defined to be the element that f sends to y). Therefore, f^{-1} is an inverse of f .

Now, for proving that f^{-1} is also bijective, we will prove it's injectivity and surjectivity independently. For injectivity, we need to show that if $f^{-1}(y_1) = f^{-1}(y_2)$ then $y_1 = y_2$. Since, $f^{-1}(y_1), f^{-1}(y_2) \in X$, we can fix $x_1, x_2 \in X$ such that, $f^{-1}(y_1) = x_1$ and $f^{-1}(y_2) = x_2$, with the assumption that $x_1 = x_2$. This implies that $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$. Substituting $f^{-1}(y_1) = x_1$ and $f^{-1}(y_2) = x_2$, we can see that

$$\begin{aligned} f(f^{-1}(y_1)) &= f(f^{-1}(y_2)) \\ \implies y_1 &= y_2 \end{aligned}$$

Hence f^{-1} is injective. Now, for proving surjectivity, we need to show that for any arbitrary $x \in X$, we can find a $y \in Y$ such that $f^{-1}(y) = x$. Since, f is bijective, there exists a $z \in X$ such that $f(z) = y$. Therefore, we get $x = f^{-1}(f(z)) = z$. Therefore, we can find for any arbitrary $x \in X$, a $y = f(x) \in Y$ which gets mapped to x by f^{-1} . Hence, we proved the surjectivity and therefore, f^{-1} is bijective. \square

Now, to prove that F along with the composition operation is a group, we will check for each of the properties of the group, one by one.

- **Closure:** We need to show that for every $f, g \in F$, there is a unique $h \in F$ such that $f \circ g = h$.

Proof. We need to show two things here, first is that h is unique and other that $h \in F$. We have with us bijective functions $f : S \rightarrow S$ and $g : S \rightarrow S$. Note that, domain of h is same as domain of g which is S and at every $s \in S$, $h(s)$ is uniquely defined by $f(g(s))$ and hence h is unique. Now, for proving that $h \in F$, we will use directly **Lemma 1.2**, which gives the result that $h : S \rightarrow S$ is a bijection. Hence, closure is satisfied. \square

- **Associativity:** We need to prove that for every $f, g, h \in F$, $(h \circ g) \circ f = h \circ (g \circ f)$ which is a direct result of **Lemma 1.1**. Hence, associativity is also satisfied.
- **Identity:** We need to show that there is $I \in F$ such that $f \circ I = f$ for every f .

Proof. Choose $I : S \rightarrow S$ such that $I(s) = s \forall s \in S$ (identity function). It is trivially a bijective function on S and hence $I \in F$. Also, for every $f \in S$, we have $[f \circ I](s) = f(I(s)) = f(s) \forall s \in S$ and $[I \circ f](s) = I(f(s)) = f(s) \forall s \in S$. Hence, the Identity property also gets satisfied. \square

- **Inverse:** We need to show that for every $f \in F$, there exists $g \in F$ such that $f \circ g = I$, where I is the identity.

Proof. In other words we need to show that for all $f \in F$ there exists $g \in F$ such that for all $s \in S$,

$$[f \circ g](s) = I(s) = s$$

Using **Lemma 1.3** we know that there exists an inverse for f , say f^{-1} and therefore using the property of inverses $[f \circ f^{-1}](s) = f(f^{-1}(s)) = s \forall s \in S$ and $[f^{-1} \circ f](s) = f^{-1}(f(s)) = s \forall s \in S$. Hence, the Inverse property is also satisfied. □

Therefore, F along with composition operation forms a group.

Question 2

Let G be a non-commutative group and $e \in G$ be the identity element. The **order** of an element $g \in G$ denoted as $\text{ord}(g)$ is the smallest natural number s such that $g^s = e$ where

$$g^i = \underbrace{g \cdot g \cdot g \cdots g}_{\text{number of } g \text{ is } i}$$

Let a and b be elements of G such that $\text{ord}(a) = 7$ and $a^3b = ba^3$. Prove that $ab = ba$.

Solution

$$\text{ord}(a) = 7 \implies a^7 = e \text{ (by definition of ord)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} a^9b &= a^6(a^3b) \\ &= a^6(ba^3) && \text{(given)} \\ &= a^3(a^3b)a^3 && \text{(associative property)} \\ &= a^3(ba^3)a^3 && \text{(given } a^3b = ba^3) \\ &= (a^3b)a^6 && \text{(associative property)} \\ &= (ba^3)a^6 && \text{(given } a^3b = ba^3) \\ &= ba^9 \\ \implies a^9b &= ba^9 \\ \implies a^2(a^7)b &= ba^2(a^7) \\ \implies a^2(e)b &= ba^2(e) && (a^7 = e) \\ \implies a^2b &= ba^2 && (ae = a) \end{aligned}$$

Pre-multiplying both sides by a ,

$$\begin{aligned} a^3b &= aba^2 \\ \implies ba^3 &= aba^2 && \text{(given } a^3b = ba^3) \end{aligned}$$

Post-multiplying both sides by a^5 ,

$$\begin{aligned}ba^8 &= aba^7 \\ \implies ba(a^7) &= ab(a^7) \\ \implies ba(e) &= ab(e) && (a^7 = e) \\ \implies ba &= ab && (ae = e)\end{aligned}$$

Alternative Solution:

We have $a^3b = ba^3$ and $a^7 = e$.

Pre-multiplying the first equation by a^4 and then post-multiplying it by a ,

$$a^4a^3ba = a^7ba = ba = a^4ba^4 \implies ba = aa^3ba^4 = a(ba^3)a^4 = aba^3a^4 = aba^7 = ab$$

Hence, $ab = ba$

□.

Question 3

Let $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta]$ denote the smallest subring of \mathbb{C} containing rational numbers \mathbb{Q} and the element $\alpha = \sqrt{2}$ and $\beta = \sqrt{3}$. Let $\gamma = \alpha + \beta$. Is $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta] = \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$?

Solution

Yes. A subring of a ring \mathcal{C} is a subset of \mathcal{C} that is also a ring in itself under the operations restricted to itself. ([Wikipedia](#))

A ring is closed under addition and multiplication operations. Hence, any linear combination of any rational number along with α, β and $\alpha\beta \in \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta]$. This means $\forall x \in \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta]$

$$\exists r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4 \in \mathbb{Q} \mid x = r_1 + r_2 \cdot \alpha + r_3 \cdot \beta + r_4 \cdot \alpha\beta$$

Claim: Let $A = \{x \mid \exists a, b, c, r \in \mathbb{Q} \text{ s.t. } x = r + a\alpha + b\beta + c\alpha\beta\}$. Then A with addition operation (+) and multiplication operation (\times) form a ring and this ring is equal to $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta]$.

Proof. For any two elements $x_1, x_2 \in A$ s.t. $x_1 = r_1 + a_1\alpha + b_1\beta + c_1\alpha\beta$ and $x_2 = r_2 + a_2\alpha + b_2\beta + c_2\alpha\beta$,

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 + x_2 &= (r_1 + a_1\alpha + b_1\beta + c_1\alpha\beta) + (r_2 + a_2\alpha + b_2\beta + c_2\alpha\beta) \\ &= (r_1 + r_2) + (a_1 + a_2)\alpha + (b_1 + b_2)\beta + (c_1 + c_2)\alpha\beta \\ &= r_3 + a_3\alpha + b_3\beta + c_3\alpha\beta \end{aligned}$$

where, $r_3 = r_1 + r_2, a_3 = a_1 + a_2, b_3 = b_1 + b_2$ and $c_3 = c_1 + c_2$ and $r_3, a_3, b_3, c_3 \in \mathbb{Q}$ by closure property of \mathbb{Q} .

Hence, $x_1 + x_2 \in A \implies +$ satisfies closure property in A . Other properties like commutative, associative, additive identity(0) and existence of inverse can be easily seen are satisfied for addition.

$$\begin{aligned} x_1x_2 &= (r_1 + a_1\alpha + b_1\beta + c_1\alpha\beta)(r_2 + a_2\alpha + b_2\beta + c_2\alpha\beta) \\ &= (r_1r_2 + 2a_1a_2 + 3b_1b_2 + 6c_1c_2) + (r_1a_2 + 3b_1c_2 + r_2a_1 + 3b_2c_1)\alpha \\ &\quad + (r_1b_2 + r_2b_1 + 2a_1c_2 + 2a_2c_1)\beta + (r_1c_2 + r_2c_1 + a_1b_2 + a_2b_1)\alpha\beta \\ &= r_4 + a_4\alpha + b_4\beta + c_4\alpha\beta \end{aligned}$$

where, $r_4 = (r_1r_2 + 2a_1a_2 + 3b_1b_2 + 6c_1c_2)$, $a_4 = (r_1a_2 + 3b_1c_2 + r_2a_1 + 3b_2c_1)$, $b_4 = (r_1b_2 + r_2b_1 + 2a_1c_2 + 2a_2c_1)$, and $c_4 = (r_1c_2 + r_2c_1 + a_1b_2 + a_2b_1)$ and $r_4, a_4, b_4, c_4 \in \mathbb{Q}$ by closure property of \mathbb{Q}

Hence, $x_1x_2 \in A \implies \times$ satisfies closure property in A . Other properties like commutative, associative and multiplicative identity(1) can be easily seen are satisfied for multiplication also. Also, it can be easily seen multiplication is distributive over addition for A .

Hence, A forms a ring with $+$ and \times . Since, $A \in \mathbb{C} \implies A$ is subring of \mathbb{C} .

Consider $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta]$, since $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta] \implies \alpha\beta \in \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta]$ by closure in multiplication. Also, it implies, $r + a\alpha + b\beta + c\alpha\beta \in \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta] \forall r, a, b, c \in \mathbb{Q} \implies A \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta]$ by closure of addition and multiplication. Hence, every set containing α and β with rational numbers forming subring in \mathbb{C} must contain A as subset and since A forms subring in \mathbb{C} , smallest such set is $A \implies \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta] = A$. \square

If $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta] = \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$, then, every element in $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta]$ must be present in $\mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$ and vice-versa.

Lemma: If $y \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, then $\mathbb{Q}[y] \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[x]$.

Proof: The set of rational numbers \mathbb{Q} is common in both. As $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ is a ring, and $y \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, hence, $\forall z \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, $y + z$ and $y \cdot z \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$. But, all elements of $\mathbb{Q}[y]$ can be expressed at linear combination of sums and products of rationals and y . So, y and rationals along with their sums and products $\in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, $\mathbb{Q}[y] \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[x]$.

Therefore, if we show that $\gamma \in \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta]$ and simultaneously, α, β and $\alpha\beta \in \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$, then,

$$\mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta] \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[\gamma] \ \& \ \mathbb{Q}[\gamma] \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta] \implies \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta] = \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$$

The **first part** is obvious as $1 \cdot \alpha + 1 \cdot \beta = \gamma$ by definition, hence, $\gamma \in \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta]$.

For the **second part**, as $\gamma \in \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$, hence,

$$\gamma \cdot \gamma = \gamma^2 = 5 + 2\sqrt{6} \in \mathbb{Q}[\gamma] \text{ (multiplicative closure)} \implies \sqrt{6} = \alpha\beta \in \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$$

. Hence, let

$$\delta = \sqrt{6} \cdot \gamma = \sqrt{6}(\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}) = \sqrt{12} + \sqrt{18} = 2\sqrt{3} + 3\sqrt{2}$$

. $\delta \in \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$ due to **multiplicative closure**.

Now,

$$\delta - 2\gamma = \sqrt{2} = \alpha \implies \alpha \in \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$$

. Also,

$$\beta = \gamma - \alpha \implies \beta \in \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$$

.

Therefore, as $\gamma \in \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta]$ and α, β and $\alpha\beta \in \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$, with the ring of rationals \mathbb{Q} common, these two subrings are equal.

Claim: Let A be the same set as in previous claim, then $\mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$ is equal to the subring formed by A in \mathbb{C} .

Proof. As $\gamma \in \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$, hence,

$$\gamma \cdot \gamma = \gamma^2 = 5 + 2\sqrt{6} \in \mathbb{Q}[\gamma] \text{ (multiplicative closure)} \implies \sqrt{6} = \alpha\beta \in \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$$

. Hence, let

$$\delta = \sqrt{6} \cdot \gamma = \sqrt{6}(\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}) = \sqrt{12} + \sqrt{18} = 2\sqrt{3} + 3\sqrt{2}$$

Since, $\delta \in \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$ due to **multiplicative closure**.

Now,

$$\delta - 2\gamma = \sqrt{2} = \alpha \implies \alpha \in \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$$

. Also,

$$\beta = \gamma - \alpha \implies \beta \in \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$$

.

Since, α, β and $\alpha\beta \in \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$, it implies their linear combination with rational numbers must also belong to $\mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$,

$$\implies A \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[\gamma] \text{ (by definition of } A)$$

Since, A contains γ and rational numbers, and also every ring containing γ and rational numbers must have A as subset, hence minimal such ring containing γ and rational numbers is ring formed by A ,

$$\implies \mathbb{Q}[\gamma] = A$$

□

Question 4

An element n of a ring R is called **nilpotent** if there exists $j \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n^j = 0$. An element u of a ring R is called a **unit** if there exists $v \in R$ such that $uv = 1$. Prove that if $r \in R$ is nilpotent, then $1 - r$ is a unit.

Solution

Since r is nilpotent, there exists $j \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $r^j = 0$. Suppose that $r^m = 0$ for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$.

Observation 1: $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\forall r \in R$ $r^n \in R$.

Proof. We will show this by induction on n . For $n = 1$, this is trivially true. Suppose that $r^{n-1} \in R$. Since, $r^n = r^{n-1} \cdot r$ and R is closed under (\cdot) , therefore $r^n \in R$. Hence, proved. \square

Observation 2: For any $r \in R$ and for all $n \in \mathbf{W}$, $\sum_{i=0}^{i=n} r^i \in R$.

Proof. We will show this by induction on n . For $n = 0$, this is trivially true. Suppose it is true for $n - 1$. Since, $\sum_{i=0}^{i=n} r^i = \sum_{i=0}^{i=n-1} r^i + r^n$ therefore using the above observation that $r^n \in R$ and the fact that $(R, +)$ form a commutative group (which implies that R is closed under $+$), we get that $\sum_{i=0}^{i=n} r^i \in R$. Hence, proved. \square

Also, observe that $(R, +)$ forming a commutative group implies that $\sum_{i=1}^{i=n} r_i$ can be permuted in any order to give the same result.

Now, if we take $u = 1 - r \in R$ and $v = \sum_{i=1}^{i=m-1} r^i$. Using the above observations, we know that $v \in R$. Therefore we see that,

$$\begin{aligned} uv &= (1 - r)(1 + r + r^2 + \dots + r^{m-1}) \\ &= (1 + r + r^2 + \dots + r^{m-1}) + (-r + (-r^2) + \dots + (-r^m)) \\ &= (1 + (-r^m)) \text{ \{Using commutativity\}} \\ &= 1 \text{ \{Using nilpotency\}} \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we proved that there exists a v for any arbitrary $u = 1 - r$, such that $uv = 1$ or $1 - r$ is a unit.

Question 5

Let I and J be ideals of a ring R such that $I + J = R$. Prove that $IJ = I \cap J$ where $IJ = \{\sum xy | x \in I, y \in J\}$.

Solution

By definition of ideal: If $x \in I \subseteq R$ and I is an ideal, then $r \cdot x \in I \forall r \in R$.

Also according to [Wikipedia](#), "when R is a commutative ring, the definitions of left, right, and two-sided ideal coincide, and the term ideal is used alone." Hence, it is assumed that this ring is commutative.

For any element $v \in IJ$, we can write $v = \sum_k x_k y_k$ such that $x_k \in I, y_k \in J$. But, $I, J \subseteq R$.

As $y_k \in J \subseteq R, y \in R$, hence, $x_k y_k \in I$. Similarly, as $x_k \in I \subseteq R, x_k \in R$, and $x_k y_k \in J$. As $x_k y_k \in I$ and $x_k y_k \in J, x_k y_k \in I \cap J$.

As this is valid for any k and $I \cap J$ is a ring, hence, $v \in I \cap J$. Therefore, for any $v \in IJ, v \in I \cap J \implies \mathbf{IJ} \subseteq \mathbf{I \cap J}$.

Consider an element $t \in I \cap J$. As $t \in I \cap J, t \in I$ and $t \in J$. Also, $t = 1 \cdot t$ where $1 \in R$ is the multiplicative identity element.

As $I + J = R$, we can write $1 = u + v$ where $u \in I$ and $v \in J$.

$$\implies t = 1 \cdot t = (u + v) \cdot t = u \cdot t + v \cdot t$$

But, $u \in I$ and $t \in J$. Hence, $u \cdot t \in IJ$ and similarly, as $v \in J$ and $t \in I \implies v \cdot t \in IJ$.

Therefore, their sum $u \cdot t + v \cdot t = t \in IJ$ (as IJ is also a ring) for any $t \in I \cap J$ which implies $\mathbf{I \cap J} \subseteq \mathbf{IJ}$.

As $IJ \subseteq I \cap J$ and $I \cap J \subseteq IJ, \mathbf{IJ} = \mathbf{I \cap J}$.