

محاضرات في جبر الزمر

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Abstract Group Theory

0.1 Binary Operators

Let A be a set. A *binary operator* on A is a function $*$: $A \times A \rightarrow A$

A binary operator is simply something that takes two elements of a set and gives back a third element of the same set.

Example 1

Let \mathbb{R} be the set of real numbers. Then $+$: $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, given by $+(x, y) = x + y$, is a binary operator.

Also \cdot : $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, given by $\cdot (x, y) = xy$, is a binary operator.

In general, in the sets \mathbb{N} , \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , and \mathbb{C} , addition and multiplication are binary operators.

Example 2

Let X be a set and let $P(X)$ be the power set of X . Then union and intersection are binary operators on $P(X)$; for example

\cap : $P(X) \times P(X) \rightarrow P(X)$ is defined by $\cap (A, B) = A \cap B$, where $A, B \in X$.

Definition 1 (permutation)

A permutation of a set X is a bijective function α : $X \rightarrow X$. We call the set of all permutations of X , $\text{Sym}(X)$.

Example 3

Let X be a set and let $\text{Sym}(X)$ be the set of all permutations of X . Then \circ is a binary operator on $\text{Sym}(X)$,

\circ : $\text{Sym}(X) \times \text{Sym}(X) \rightarrow \text{Sym}(X)$ is defined by $\circ (\alpha, \beta) = \alpha \circ \beta$.

For example, let $X = \{1, 2, 3\}$, the set $\text{Sym}(X) = S_3$ of permutation operations that take 123 into 123, 132, 213, 312, 231, 321. The elements of the set are

$$e = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \alpha = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = (123), \quad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = (132),$$

$$\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = (23), \quad \delta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = (13), \quad \sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = (12).$$

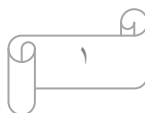
The operation $\alpha \circ \beta$ means (for example);

$$\alpha \circ \beta = (123) \circ (132) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \circ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = e$$

$$\alpha \circ \gamma = (123) \circ (23) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \circ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = (13) = \delta$$

$$\gamma \circ \alpha = (23) \circ (123) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \circ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = (12) = \sigma.$$

This operation on $\text{Sym}(X)$ is associative, because composition of functions is always associative. It is also invertible. The identity element for this operation is the



identity function . The inverse of a permutation exists because bijective functions are always invertible. However, composition of permutations is not commutative.

Let A be a set and let $*$: $A \times A \rightarrow A$ be a binary operator. As in the above examples, it is customary to write $a * b$ instead of $*(a, b)$, where $a, b \in A$. However, we keep in mind that $*$ is a function and that $a * b \in A$.

Let $*$: $A \times A \rightarrow A$ be a binary operator on a set A and let $B \subseteq A$. we say that B is **closed** under the operation of $*$ if for every $a, b \in B$, we have $a * b \in B$.

Example 4

Let E be the set of even integers. Then E is closed under the operations of addition and multiplication of integers. Indeed, the sum of even integers is even, and the product of even integers is even.

Let O be the set of odd integers. Then O is closed under multiplication. However, O is not closed under addition, because the sum of two odd integers is even.

Example 5

Let $B = \{a + b\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{R} ; a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$. Then B is closed under addition and multiplication of real numbers. For example,

If $a + b\sqrt{2}$ and $c + d\sqrt{2}$ are two element of B , then

$$(a + b\sqrt{2}) + (c + d\sqrt{2}) = (a + c) + (b + d)\sqrt{2} \in B$$

and

$$(a + b\sqrt{2}) \cdot (c + d\sqrt{2}) = (ac + 2bd) + (bc + ad)\sqrt{2} \in B$$

Note that these results are in B because \mathbb{Q} itself is closed under addition and multiplication. Therefore $(ac + 2bd), (bc + ad) \in \mathbb{Q}$.

Example 6

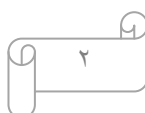
Let X be a set and let $Y \subseteq X$. Then $P(Y) \subseteq P(X)$, and the subset $P(Y)$ is closed under the operations of intersection and union of subset of X .

Example 7

The real numbers have two binary operations, addition and multiplication. Each is commutative and associative. The additive identity is 0, and the multiplicative identity is 1. Every element a has an additive inverse $-a$, and if $a \neq 0$, it has a multiplicative inverse $a^{-1} = 1/a$.

Example 8

Let X be a set and consider intersection and union of subsets of X . These are operations on $P(X)$ which are commutative and associative. Intersection has an identity element, which is the entire set X , since for $A \subseteq X$, we have $A \cap X = A$. Union also has an identity element, which is \emptyset . Neither of these operations supports inverses.



However, the operation of symmetric difference on $P(X)$, defined by $A \Delta B = (A \cup B) - (A \cap B)$, is commutative, associative, and invertible. The identity element is \emptyset , and the inverse of $A \in P(X)$ is itself.

Example 9

The standard *dot product* on \mathbb{R}^n is defined by

$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = v_1 \cdot w_1 + v_2 \cdot w_2 + \cdots + v_n \cdot w_n$$

where $\vec{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$ and $\vec{w} = (w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n)$. Note that for $n > 1$, this is not a binary operator! why?

Example 10

An $m \times n$ matrix with entries in \mathbb{R} is an array of elements of \mathbb{R} with m rows and n columns. The entries of a matrix are often labeled a_{ij} , where this is the entry in the i^{th} row and j^{th} column. We may write such a matrix with the notation (a_{ij}) .

An $m \times n$ matrix $A = (a_{ij})$ may be added to an $m \times n$ matrix $B = (b_{ij})$ to give an $m \times n$ matrix $A+B = D = (d_{ij})$ by the formula $d_{ij} = a_{ij} + b_{ij}$.

An $m \times n$ matrix $A = (a_{ij})$ may be multiplied by an $n \times p$ matrix $B = (b_{jk})$ to give an $m \times p$ matrix $AB = C = (c_{ik})$ by the formula

$$c_{ik} = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} b_{jk}$$

thus the ik^{th} entry of C is the dot product of the i^{th} row of A with the k^{th} column of B .

Let $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ be the set of all $n \times n$ matrices over \mathbb{R} .

Then addition of matrices is a binary operation on $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ which is commutative, associative, and invertible.

Also, multiplication of matrices is a binary operation on $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ which is associative and has an identity. The identity is simply the matrix given by

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad e = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

However, this operation is not commutative, and there are many elements which do not have inverses.

Exercise 1

In each case, we define a binary operation $*$ on \mathbb{R} . Determine if $*$ is commutative and/or associative, find an identity if it exists, and find any invertible elements.

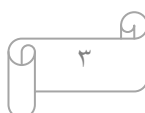
(a) $x * y = xy + 1$,

(b) $x * y = \frac{1}{2}xy$.

Exercise 2

Consider the plane \mathbb{R}^2 . Define a binary operation $*$ on \mathbb{R}^2 by

$$(x_1, y_1) * (x_2, y_2) = \left(\frac{x_1 + x_2}{2}, \frac{y_1 + y_2}{2} \right)$$



Thus the "product" of two points under this operation is the point which is midway between them. Determine if $*$ is commutative and/or associative, find an identity if it exists, and find any invertible elements.

Exercise 3

Let I be the collection of all open intervals of real numbers. We consider the empty set to be an open interval.

- (a) Show that I is closed under the operation of \cap on $P(\mathbb{R})$,
(b) Show that I is not closed under the operation of \cup on $P(\mathbb{R})$.

1.1 Groups

A non-empty set G , is said to form a group if in G there is defined a binary operation, called the product and denoted by ' $*$ ' such that

- Closure : if $a, b \in G$ implies $a * b \in G$.
- Associativity : $a, b, c \in G$ implies $(a * b) * c = a * (b * c)$.
- Unit element : There exists an element $e \in G$ such that $a * e = e * a = a$ for all $a \in G$.
- Inverse : For every $a \in G$ there exists an element $a^{-1} \in G$ such that $a * a^{-1} = a^{-1} * a = e$.

A group, which contains only a finite number of elements, is called a finite group, otherwise it is termed as an infinite group. By the order of a finite group we mean the number of elements in the group.

The following properties follow from the above definition:

Pro.1. Left cancellation : If $ax = ay$ then $x = y$ for all a in the group.

Proof: $ax = ay$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow a^{-1}(ax) &= a^{-1}(ay) \\ \Rightarrow (a^{-1}a)x &= (a^{-1}a)y \\ \Rightarrow ex &= ey \\ \Rightarrow x &= y \end{aligned}$$

Pro.2. Unit element on the right : $ae = a = ea$.

Proof:

$$a^{-1}(ae) = (a^{-1}a)e = ee = e = a^{-1}a$$

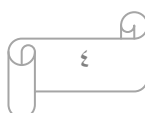
and using the left cancellation law we have $ae = a$.

Pro.3. Inverse element on the right: $aa^{-1} = e = a^{-1}a$.

Proof:

$$a^{-1}(aa^{-1}) = (a^{-1}a)a^{-1} = ea^{-1} = a^{-1} = a^{-1}e.$$

Using the left cancellation law, $aa^{-1} = e$.



Pro.4. Right cancellation : If $xa = ya$ then $x = y$ for all a in the group.

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} xa = ya &\implies (xa) a^{-1} = (ya) a^{-1} \implies x(aa^{-1}) = y(aa^{-1}) \\ &\implies xe = ye \implies x = y. \end{aligned}$$

We note the importance of associativity in the above proofs.

The following identity is often useful :

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{which follows from } (ab)^{-1} (ab) = e &\implies (ab)^{-1}a = b^{-1} \\ &\implies (ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

1.2 Abelian Group(commutative group)

Let G be a group. If $a * b = b * a$ for all $a, b \in G$, we call G an abelian group or a commutative group.

1.3 Subgroup

A subgroup is a set of elements within a group which forms a group by itself. Evidently, the unit element forms a subgroup by itself.

Example 11

Integers under addition. The unit element $e = 0$ and the inverse of an element a is $a^{-1} = -a$. This group is abelian and infinite.

Example 12

Let \mathbb{Q} be the set of rationals. $\mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}$ is a group under multiplication. This is an infinite group.

Example 13

A set of all $n \times m$ matrices $M_{n \times m}$ under matrix addition . The unit element is the zero matrix and the inverse of U is $-U$.

This group is abelian and infinite.

Example 14

A set of all $n \times n$ invertible matrices $M_{n \times n}$ under matrix multiplication. The unit element is the unit matrix and the inverse of U is U^{-1} . This group is not abelian and infinite.

Example 15

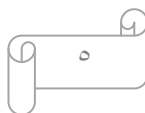
The set S_3 of permutation operations . The elements of the group are ;

$$\begin{aligned} e &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, & (123) &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, & (132) &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \\ (23) &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, & (13) &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, & (12) &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

The operation \circ means (for example) ;

$$(123) \circ (132) = e$$

The group (S_3, \circ) is not abelian and finite. Since . . .



\circ	e	(123)	(132)	(23)	(13)	(12)
e	e	(123)	(132)	(23)	(13)	(12)
(123)	(123)	(132)	e	(13)	(12)	(23)
(132)	(132)	e	(123)	(12)	(23)	(13)
(23)	(23)	(12)	(13)	e	(132)	(123)
(13)	(13)	(23)	(12)	(123)	e	(132)
(12)	(12)	(13)	(23)	(132)	(123)	e

Example 16

$\{e\}$ and G are always subgroups of the group G , called the trivial subgroups.

1.4 Center group

Let $(G, *)$ be a group, S be a subset of G , we define the following set ;

$$\text{Cent.}G = \{ x \in G ; x * a = a * x, \forall a \in G \}$$

which is called center group .

Remark 1

G abelian group $\Leftrightarrow \text{Cent.}G = G$.

Example 17

1- $\text{Cent.} S_3 = \{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \}$.

2- $\text{Cent.} \mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z}$.

Remark 2

Let H_1, H_2 are two subgroups of the group G , then

1- $H_1 \cap H_2$ is a subgroup of G ,

2- $H_1 \cup H_2$ is not necessary a subgroup of G .

In general case, let H_1, H_2, H_3, \dots are a subgroups of the group G then $\bigcap_i H_i$ is a subgroup of G .

1.5 Cyclic Groups

Let G be a group, S be a subset of G , we define the following set ;

$$\langle S \rangle = \bigcap \{ H ; H \text{ is a subgroup of } G \text{ such that } S \subseteq H \}$$

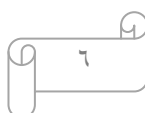
$\langle S \rangle$ is smallest subgroup of G contains S . Which is called the subgroup generated by S . (if S is subgroup then $S = \langle S \rangle$)

If S is finite set, the subgroup $\langle S \rangle$ is finitely generated .

If $S = \{a\}$, then we say that the subgroup $\langle S \rangle = \langle \{a\} \rangle = \langle a \rangle$ is a cyclic group generated by the element a .

A group of n elements is said to be cyclic if it can be generated from one element . The elements of the group must be $a, a^2, a^3, \dots, a^n = e$. n is called the order of the cyclic group.

A cyclic group is evidently abelian but an abelian group is not necessarily cyclic.



Example 18

Integers under addition, $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$, is a cyclic group generated by 1, (i.e. $\mathbb{Z} = \langle 1 \rangle$).

Let $2\mathbb{Z}$ be the set of even integers, $(2\mathbb{Z}, +)$, is a cyclic group generated by 2.

In general case, $(n\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is a cyclic group generated by n , (i.e. $n\mathbb{Z} = \langle n \rangle$).

Example 19

In general \mathbb{Q} and \mathbb{R} with addition and multiplication operators, $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$, $(\mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$, $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ and $(\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$ all are not cyclic groups.

Example 20

Example of cyclic group are the subgroup of the permutation group in the **example 15**. The subgroup $(e, (123), (132))$ is the same as $((123), (123)^2 = (132), (123)^3 = e)$.

Example 21

$\mathbb{Z}_p = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$, p a prime, be the set of integers modulo p . $\mathbb{Z}_p \setminus \{0\}$ is a group under multiplication modulo p , $(\mathbb{Z}_p \setminus \{0\}, \times_p)$, this is a finite cyclic group of order $p-1$.

Exercise 4

- 1- $(G, *)$ is an abelian group $\Leftrightarrow (a * b)^2 = a^2 * b^2 \quad \forall a, b \in G$.
- 2- If $(G, *)$ is an group such that $a^2 = e \quad \forall a \in G$ ($e = \text{unit element}$) $\Rightarrow (G, *)$ is an abelian group. And the inversion is not true.
- 3- If $(G, *)$ is an group such that $a^2 = e \quad \forall a \in G$ ($e = \text{unit element}$) $\Rightarrow \text{Cent.}G = G$.
- 4- Prove that; $(\mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$ is not cyclic group.
- 5- Let $(G, *)$ and $(\bar{G}, \bar{*})$ are two commutative groups. Define a binary operation \odot on the Cartesian product $G \times \bar{G} = \{(a, b); a \in G, b \in \bar{G}\}$ as follows; $(a_1, b_1) \odot (a_2, b_2) = (a_1 * a_2, b_1 \bar{*} b_2) \quad \forall (a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2) \in G \times \bar{G}$
Prove that; $(G \times \bar{G}, \odot)$ is a commutative group.

1.6 Order of an Element

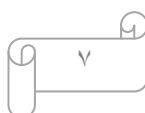
Let $a \neq e$ be an element of a group. Form the products a^2, a^3, \dots . a^2 must be either e or a different element from a because if $a^2 = a \Rightarrow a = e$. If $a^2 \neq e$ we continue forming a^3 . By a similar argument, a^3 must be either e or a different element from a and a^2 . If a, a^2, a^3, \dots, a^n are distinct from each other and $a^n = e$ then n is called the order of element a . These elements form a cyclic group.

The order of an element $a \in G$, $o(a)$, is defined to be the minimal positive integer n such that $a^n = e$. If no such n exists, we say a has infinite order.

We call a subgroup H **cyclic** if there is an element $h \in H$ such that $H = \{h^n; n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.

Note that $H = \{h^n; n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is always a cyclic subgroup. We denote it by $\langle h \rangle$.

Thus every group must have at least one cyclic subgroup. In the **example 15** above, (123) and (132) are of order 3 and $(12), (13)$, and (23) are of order 2.



Example 22

Let $G = \langle g ; g^8 = I \rangle$ be a cyclic group of order 8 .

$H = \langle g^2 \rangle = \{g^2, g^4, g^6, I\}$ is subgroup of G .

1.7 Normal Subgroups

Let $(G, *)$ be a group. A non-empty subset H of G is said to be a normal subgroup of G , if $H*a = a*H \quad \forall a \in G$ or equivalently

$$H = \{a^{-1} * h * a ; \forall a \in G \text{ \& } \forall h \in H\}.$$

If G is an abelian group or a cyclic group then all of its subgroups are normal in G .

Example 23

The subgroup $H = \{e, (123), (132)\}$ given in **example 15** is a normal subgroup of S_3 .

$$S_3 = \{e^{-1} = e, (123)^{-1} = (132), (132)^{-1} = (123), (12)^{-1} = (12), (13)^{-1} = (13), (23)^{-1} = (23)\}$$

We must prove that $H \circ a = a \circ H \quad \forall a \in S_3$, it is easy to show the following ;

$$\begin{aligned} He &= \{e \circ e, (123) \circ e, (132) \circ e\} = \{e, (123), (132)\} \\ &= H = \{e \circ e, e \circ (123), e \circ (132)\} = eH \\ H(123) &= \{e \circ (123), (123) \circ (123), (132) \circ (123)\} = \{(123), (132), e\} \\ &= H = \{(123) \circ e, (123) \circ (123), (123) \circ (132)\} = (123)H \\ H(132) &= \{e \circ (132), (123) \circ (132), (132) \circ (132)\} = \{(132), e, (123)\} \\ &= H = \{(132) \circ e, (132) \circ (123), (132) \circ (132)\} = (132)H \\ H(12) &= \{e \circ (12), (123) \circ (12), (132) \circ (12)\} = \{(12), (23), (13)\} \\ &= \{(12), (13), (23)\} = \{(12) \circ e, (12) \circ (123), (12) \circ (132)\} = (12)H \\ H(23) &= \{e \circ (23), (123) \circ (23), (132) \circ (23)\} = \{(23), (13), (12)\} \\ &= \{(23), (12), (13)\} = \{(23) \circ e, (23) \circ (123), (23) \circ (132)\} = (23)H \\ H(13) &= \{e \circ (13), (123) \circ (13), (132) \circ (13)\} = \{(13), (12), (23)\} \\ &= \{(13), (23), (12)\} = \{(13) \circ e, (13) \circ (123), (13) \circ (132)\} = (13)H \end{aligned}$$

Notation

Let S_n be the symmetric group of degree n . Then for $n \geq 5$, each S_n has only one normal subgroup, A_n which is of order $\frac{n!}{2}$ called the alternating group.

Exercise 5

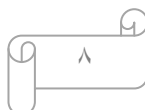
Prove that ; there is only one normal subgroup of the group (S_3, \circ) .

1.8 Simple Group

If G is a group, which has no normal subgroups then we say G is simple group.

Example 24

Let $\mathbb{Z}_{11} \setminus \{0\} = \{1, 2, \dots, 10\}$ be the group under multiplication modulo 11. The group $\mathbb{Z}_{11} \setminus \{0\}$ has no subgroups or normal subgroups.



1.9 Congruent

Let G be a group , H a subgroup of G ; for $a, b \in G$ we say a is congruent to $b \bmod H$, and written as $a \equiv b \bmod H$ if $ab^{-1} \in H$.

Lemma 1

The relation $a \equiv b \bmod H$ is an equivalence relation .

Proof

We must verify the following three conditions ; for all $a, b, c \in G$,

- 1- $a \equiv a \bmod H$,
- 2- $a \equiv b \bmod H \Rightarrow b \equiv a \bmod H$,
- 3- $a \equiv b \bmod H , b \equiv c \bmod H \Rightarrow a \equiv c \bmod H$.

1- Since H is a subgroup of G , $e \in G$, and since $aa^{-1}=e$, $aa^{-1} \in G \Rightarrow a \equiv a \bmod H$.

2- Suppose $a \equiv b \bmod H$ i.e. $ab^{-1} \in H$, but H is a subgroup of G , that is

$(ab^{-1})^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow (ab^{-1})^{-1} = (b^{-1})^{-1}a^{-1} = ba^{-1}$ and hence $ba^{-1} \in G$ so $b \equiv a \bmod H$.

3- Suppose $a \equiv b \bmod H , b \equiv c \bmod H \Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in H, bc^{-1} \in H$

but H is a subgroup of G , that is $(ab^{-1})(bc^{-1}) \in H$, now

$ac^{-1} = a(e)c^{-1} = a(b^{-1}b)c^{-1} = (ab^{-1})(bc^{-1}) \Rightarrow ac^{-1} \in H$ that is $a \equiv c \bmod H$.

1.10 coset

Let $(H, *)$ is a subgroup of the group $(G, *)$ and let $a \in G$, the set

$H*a = \{h*a ; h \in H\}$ is called a right coset of H in G .

In a similar fashion , we can define the left coset $a*H$ of H .

Lemma 2

For all $a \in G$, $Ha = \{x \in G ; a \equiv x \bmod H\}$.

Proof

Let $[a] = \{x \in G ; a \equiv x \bmod H\}$. we must prove $Ha = [a]$.

First , let $h \in H \Rightarrow a(ha)^{-1} = a(a^{-1}h^{-1}) = h^{-1} \in H$ since H is subgroup of G . By definition of congruence $\bmod H \Rightarrow a \equiv ha \bmod H$, that is

$ha \in [a]$ for every $h \in H$, and so $Ha \subset [a]$.

second , let $x \in [a]$. Thus, by definition of $\bmod H \Rightarrow ax^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow$

$(ax^{-1})^{-1} = xa^{-1} \in H$. That is $xa^{-1} = h$ for some $h \in H$,

$\Rightarrow x = (xa^{-1})a = ha \in Ha$, and so $[a] \subset Ha$. Therefore $Ha = [a]$.

Theorem 1

If $(H, *)$ is a subgroup of the group $(G, *)$, then $a * H = H \Leftrightarrow a \in H$.

proof

(\Rightarrow) we know that $e \in H \Rightarrow a = a * e \in a * H = H$.

(\Leftarrow) Let $a \in H \Rightarrow a * H \subseteq H$ (since H is a subgroup). Any element $h \in H$ may be written as $h = a * (a^{-1} * h)$. But $a^{-1} * h \in H$ (since $a, h \in H$ and H is a subgroup) $\Rightarrow h \in a * H$, and therefore $H \subseteq a * H$.

Theorem 2

If $(H, *)$ is a subgroup of the group $(G, *)$, then $a * H = b * H \Leftrightarrow a^{-1} * b \in H$.

proof

(\Rightarrow) Assume that $a * H = b * H$. Then, if $a * h_1 \in a * H = b * H$ so

there exist an $h_2 \in H$ such that $a * h_1 = b * h_2$.

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

but $h_1 * h_2^{-1} \in H$ (since $(H, *)$ is a subgroup) $\Rightarrow a^{-1} * b \in H$.

(\Leftarrow) if $a^{-1} * b \in H$, then by Theorem 1 we have $(a^{-1} * b) * H = H$,

$\Rightarrow \forall h \in H, h = (a^{-1} * b) * h_1$, for some $h_1 \in H \Rightarrow a * h = b * h_1$.

Thus each product $a * h$ in the coset $a * H$ is equal to an element of the form $b * h_1$, and consequently lies in the coset $b * H$. $\Rightarrow a * H = b * H$.

Remark

If $(H, *)$ is a subgroup of the group $(G, *)$, then the following statement are equivalent ;

- 1- $(H, *)$ is a normal subgroup of $(G, *)$,
- 2- $a * H = H * a, \forall a \in G$,
- 3- $a * H * a^{-1} \subseteq H, \forall a \in G$,
- 4- $a * h * a^{-1} \in H, \forall a \in G, \forall h \in H$.

Theorem 3

If $(H, *)$ is a subgroup of the group $(G, *)$, then $\forall a, b \in G$

either $a * H \cap b * H = \emptyset$ or $a * H = b * H$.

Example 25

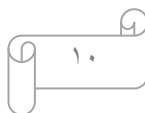
$4\mathbb{Z} = \langle 4 \rangle$ is a subgroup of the group $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$, then from Theorem 1 we have

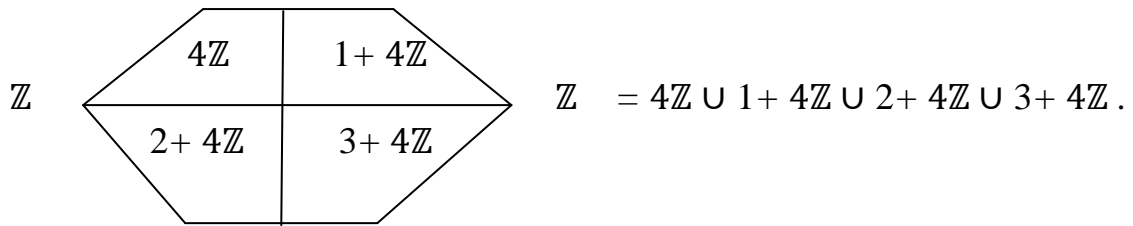
$$m + 4\mathbb{Z} = 4\mathbb{Z} \text{ if } m \in 4\mathbb{Z} \text{ (i.e. } \dots = -8 + 4\mathbb{Z} = -4 + 4\mathbb{Z} = 4\mathbb{Z} = 0 + 4\mathbb{Z} = 4 + 4\mathbb{Z} = 8 + 4\mathbb{Z} = \dots)$$

$$1 + 4\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -7, -3, 1, 5, 9, \dots\} = -7 + 4\mathbb{Z} = -3 + 4\mathbb{Z} = 5 + 4\mathbb{Z} = 9 + 4\mathbb{Z} = \dots$$

$$2 + 4\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -6, -2, 2, 6, 10, \dots\} = -6 + 4\mathbb{Z} = -2 + 4\mathbb{Z} = 6 + 4\mathbb{Z} = 10 + 4\mathbb{Z} = \dots$$

$$3 + 4\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -5, -1, 3, 7, 11, \dots\} = -5 + 4\mathbb{Z} = -1 + 4\mathbb{Z} = 7 + 4\mathbb{Z} = 11 + 4\mathbb{Z} = \dots$$





Theorem 4

If $(H, *)$ is a subgroup of the group $(G, *)$, the left (right) coset of H in G form a partition of the set G .

Example 26

Let $\mathbb{Z}_{12} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 10, 11\}$ be the group under addition modulo 12. $(\{0, 4, 8\}, +_{12})$ is a subgroup of the group $(\mathbb{Z}_{12}, +_{12})$, the left coset of $H = \{0, 4, 8\}$ in \mathbb{Z}_{12} are

$$0 +_{12} H = \{0, 4, 8\} = 4 +_{12} H = 8 +_{12} H,$$

$$1 +_{12} H = \{1, 5, 9\} = 5 +_{12} H = 9 +_{12} H,$$

$$2 +_{12} H = \{2, 6, 10\} = 6 +_{12} H = 10 +_{12} H,$$

$$3 +_{12} H = \{3, 7, 11\} = 7 +_{12} H = 11 +_{12} H.$$

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

Remark

If $(G, *)$ be a finite group, and let $o(G)$ = order of $G = n$. $(H, *)$ is a subgroup of the group $(G, *)$ of order k , i.e. $o(H) = k$.

We can then decompose the set G into a union of a finite number of left cosets of H ;

$$G = (a_1 * H) \cup (a_2 * H) \cup \dots \cup (a_r * H), \text{ for } a_i \in G$$

1.11 index

If H is a subgroup of G , the index of H in G is the number of distinct left cosets of H in G . We shall denote it by $i_G(H)$.

In case G is a finite group, and $o(G) = n$. H is a subgroup of G , and $o(H) = k$. then $n = k \times i_G(H)$.

Theorem 5 (Lagrange)

The order and index of any subgroup of a finite group divides the order of the group.

Corollary

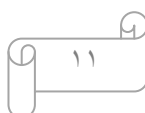
If $(G, *)$ be a group of order n , then the order of any element $a \in G$ is a factor of n ; in addition, $a^n = e$.

Proof

Let the element a have order k . By definition, the cyclic subgroup $(\langle a \rangle, *)$ generated by a must also be of order k . According to the conclusion of Lagrange's Theorem, k is a divisor of n ; that is $n = rk$ for some $r \in \mathbb{Z}_+$. Hence, $a^n = a^{rk} = (a^k)^r = e^r = e$.

Theorem 6

If $(G, *)$ be a finite group of composite order, then $(G, *)$ has nontrivial subgroup.



Corollary

Every group $(G, *)$ of prime order is cyclic .

Theorem 7 (Revisited)

Any noncommutative group has at least six elements .

1.12 quotient group (factor group)

If $(H, *)$ is a normal subgroup of $(G, *)$, then we shall denote the collection of distinct cosets of H in G by $G/H = \{a * H ; a \in G\}$.

A rule of composition \otimes may be defined on G/H by the formula

$$(a * H) \otimes (b * H) = (a * b) * H$$

Theorem 8

If $(H, *)$ is a normal subgroup of $(G, *)$, then $(G/H, \otimes)$ forms a group ,

known as the *quotient group (factor group)* of G by H .

Proof

$$\text{Let } (a * H), (b * H) \in G/H \Rightarrow (a * H) \otimes (b * H) = (a * b) * H \in G/H$$

$$\text{Let } (a * H), (b * H), (c * H) \in G/H \Rightarrow$$

$$\begin{aligned} [(a * H) \otimes (b * H)] \otimes (c * H) &= [(a * b) * H] \otimes (c * H) \\ &= ((a * b) * c) * H = (a * (b * c)) * H \\ &= (a * H) \otimes ((b * c) * H) \\ &= (a * H) \otimes [(b * H) \otimes (c * H)] \end{aligned}$$

The coset $H = e * H$ is the identity element for the operation \otimes , since
 $(a * H) \otimes (e * H) = (a * e) * H = a * H = (e * a) * H = (e * H) \otimes (a * H)$

Let $(a * H) \in G/H \Rightarrow (a^{-1} * H) \in G/H$, since $a \in G$ (G a group)

$$(a * H) \otimes (a^{-1} * H) = (a * a^{-1}) * H = (e * H) = H$$

And hence $(G/H, \otimes)$ is a group .

Example 27

Let $(n\mathbb{Z}, +)$ be a normal subgroup of an integers group $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$,
 Then $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, \otimes)$ is a group ,

where $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} = \{n\mathbb{Z}, 1 + n\mathbb{Z}, 2 + n\mathbb{Z}, \dots, (n - 1) + n\mathbb{Z}\}$

$$= \{ [0], [1], [2], \dots, [n-1] \}$$

and $\otimes = +_n$.

And hence $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, \otimes) = (\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n)$.

Exercise 6

Prove that ; $(S_3 / \langle (123) \rangle, \circ)$ is a group .

1.13 Commutator subgroup (derived subgroup)

Given a group $(G, *)$ and element $a, b \in G$, the commutator of a and b is defined to be the product $a * b * a^{-1} * b^{-1}$.

The symbol $[a, b] = a * b * a^{-1} * b^{-1}$. i.e. $a * b = [a, b] * b * a$

The elements a and b commute if and only if $[a, b] = e$.

Now, the inverse of a commutator is again commutator ; $[a, b]^{-1} = [b, a]$.

The set $[G, G]$ is defined by , $[G, G] = \{ \prod [a_i, b_i] ; a_i, b_i \in G \}$

The system $([G, G], *)$ forms a group .

Theorem 9

The group $([G, G], *)$ is a normal subgroup of $(G, *)$.

Remark

The quotient group $(G/[G, G], \otimes)$ is called the commutator quotient group .

Theorem 10

Let $(H, *)$ is a normal subgroup of $(G, *)$, then the quotient group $(G/H, \otimes)$ is commutative if and only if $[G, G] \subseteq H$.

Corollary

For any group $(G, *)$ the commutator quotient group $(G/[G, G], \otimes)$ is commutative .

1.14 Homomorphisms

Let $(G, *)$ and $(G', *')$ be two groups and f a function from G into G' , $f : G \rightarrow G'$. Then f is said to be a homomorphism from $(G, *)$ into $(G', *')$

if and only if

$$f(a * b) = f(a) *' f(b), \forall a, b \in G.$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} a, b & \xrightarrow{*} & a * b \in G \\ f \downarrow & & f \downarrow \\ f(a), f(b) & \xrightarrow{*' } & f(a * b) = f(a) *' f(b) \in G' \end{array}$$

Remark

If $f : G \rightarrow G'$ is a homomorphism, then we say that

1- f is an **epimorphism** if f is surjective (onto) .

2- f is a **monomorphism** if f is injective (one-to-one) .

Example 28

For any group $(G, *)$, define the function $f : G \rightarrow G$ by taking $f(x) = I(x) = x$, $\forall x \in G$. It is easy to show that f is a homomorphism .

Example 29

Let $(G, *)$ and $(G', *')$ be two groups, define the function $f: G \rightarrow G'$ by $f(x) = e' \quad \forall x \in G$. It is easy to show that f is a homomorphism.

Example 30

Let $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ and $(\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$ be two groups, define the function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ by ; $f(x) = e^x = \exp.(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$.

It is easy to show that f is a homomorphism, since

$$f(x+y) = e^{x+y} = e^x \cdot e^y = f(x) \cdot f(y) \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$$

Example 31

Let $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ be the group of integers and $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n)$ be the group of integers modulo n . Define $f: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$ by $f(x) = [x]$,

It is easy to show that f is a homomorphism, since

$$f(x+y) = [x+y] = [x] +_n [y] = f(x) +_n f(y)$$

Remark

For any group $(G, *)$, define the set of all homomorphisms from G into itself ; $Hom(G) = \{ f: G \rightarrow G, f \text{ is homomorphism} \}$.

Theorem 11

The pair $(Hom(G), \circ)$ forms a semigroup with identity, (where \circ denotes functional composition).

Proof

1) Let $f, g \in Hom(G)$, $\forall a, b \in G$

$$\begin{aligned} (g \circ f)(a * b) &= g(f(a * b)) = g(f(a) * f(b)) = g(f(a)) * g(f(b)) \\ &= (g \circ f)(a) * (g \circ f)(b) \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow g \circ f \in Hom(G)$$

2) By **Example 28** $I(x) = x, \forall x \in G \Rightarrow I \in Hom(G)$

3) It is easy to show that, if $f, g, h \in Hom(G)$, then

$$(g \circ f) \circ h = g \circ (f \circ h) \in Hom(G)$$

Remark

For any group $(G, *)$, define the set of all one-to-one homomorphisms from G onto itself ; $A(G) = \{ f: G \rightarrow G, f \text{ is epimorphism \& monomorphism} \}$.

Theorem 12

The system $(A(G), \circ)$ is a subgroup of the symmetric group $(sym(G), \circ)$ (where \circ denotes functional composition).

Hint : let $f \in A(G)$ we must prove $f^{-1} \in A(G)$

If $\bar{a}, \bar{b} \in G \Rightarrow \exists a, b \in G$ such that $\bar{a} = f(a)$ and $\bar{b} = f(b)$, since $f \in A(G)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Therefore } f^{-1}(\bar{a} * \bar{b}) &= f^{-1}(f(a) * f(b)) = f^{-1}(f(a * b)) = a * b \\ &= f^{-1}(\bar{a}) * f^{-1}(\bar{b}). \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 13

If $f: (G, *) \rightarrow (G', *')$ is a homomorphism, then

$$1- f(e) = e',$$

$$2- f(a)^{-1} = f(a^{-1}) \quad \forall a \in G.$$

Example 32

Let $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ be the group of integers, define $f: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ by $f(x) = 2x$, it is clear that f is a homomorphism.

Example 33

Let $(\mathbb{R} - \{0\}, .)$ and $(\{1, -1\}, *)$ be two groups, where
Define

*	1	-1
1	1	-1
-1	-1	1

$f: (\mathbb{R} - \{0\}, .) \rightarrow (\{1, -1\}, *)$ by $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x > 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$

it is clear that f is a homomorphism.

Example 34

A group of all 2×2 invertible matrices $M_{2 \times 2}$ under matrix multiplication. The unit element is the unit matrix and the inverse of A is A^{-1} . This group is not abelian.

Define $f: (M_{2 \times 2}, \times) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R} - \{0\}, .)$ by
 $f(A) = |A|$ (where $|A| = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{21}a_{12}$)

it is easy to show that f is a homomorphism.

Theorem 14

If $f: (G, *) \rightarrow (G', *')$ is a homomorphism, then

- 1- If $(H, *)$ is a subgroup of $(G, *)$, then $(f(H), *')$ is a subgroup of $(G', *')$.
- 2- If $(H', *')$ is a subgroup of $(G', *')$, then $(f^{-1}(H'), *)$ is a subgroup of $(G, *)$.

Hint :

$$f(H) = \{f(h) ; h \in H\}, \quad f^{-1}(H') = \{a \in G ; f(a) \in H'\}$$

and

$$f(a) *' f(b)^{-1} = f(a) *' f(b^{-1}) = f(a * b^{-1}) \in f(H), \quad \forall a, b \in H$$

Let $a, b \in f^{-1}(H')$

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

That is $a * b^{-1} \in f^{-1}(H')$.

Corollary *

- 1- If $(H', *')$ is a normal subgroup of $(G', *')$, then $(f^{-1}(H'), *)$ is a normal subgroup of $(G, *)$.
- 2- Let $f(G) = G'$, if $(H, *)$ is a normal subgroup of $(G, *)$, then $(f(H), *')$ is a normal subgroup of $(G', *')$.

Remark

Let $f: (G, *) \rightarrow (G', *')$ be a homomorphism, define the set
 $\ker.f = \{a \in G ; f(a) = e'\}$ which is called the **kernel** of f .

Theorem 15

If $f: (G, *) \rightarrow (G', *')$ is a homomorphism, then

f is monomorphism if and only if $\ker.f = \{e\}$.

proof

(\Rightarrow) we know that $e \in \ker.f$. Suppose $\exists a \in \ker.f$ so that $f(a) = e'$

but $f(a) = e' = f(e) \Rightarrow a = e$.

(\Leftarrow) suppose $\ker.f = \{e\}$. Let $a, b \in G$ and $f(a) = f(b)$
 $\Rightarrow f(a) *' f(b)^{-1} = f(b) *' f(b)^{-1} \Rightarrow f(a) *' f(b^{-1}) = f(b) *' f(b^{-1})$
 $\Rightarrow f(a * b^{-1}) = f(b * b^{-1}) = f(e) = e' \Rightarrow a * b^{-1} \in \ker.f = \{e\}$
 $\Rightarrow a * b^{-1} = e \Rightarrow a = b$.

Theorem 16

If $f: (G, *) \rightarrow (G', *')$ is a homomorphism, then

The pair $(\ker.f, *)$ is a normal subgroup of $(G, *)$.

Proof

We know $(\{e'\}, *')$ is a normal subgroup of $(G', *')$, and
 $\ker.f = \{a \in G ; f(a) = e'\} \Rightarrow \ker.f = f^{-1}(e')$ so from **Corollary** *
 we have $(\ker.f, *)$ is a normal subgroup of $(G, *)$.

Example 35

Let $f: (\mathbb{Z}, +) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R} - \{0\}, \cdot)$ defined by ; $f(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \in \mathbb{Z}_e \\ -1 & \text{if } n \in \mathbb{Z}_o \end{cases}$

it is clear that f is a homomorphism, and

$\ker.f = \{a \in G ; f(a) = e'\} = \{n \in \mathbb{Z} ; f(n) = 1\} = \mathbb{Z}_e$.

It is clear that $(\ker.f, *) = (\mathbb{Z}_e, +)$ is a normal subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$,

and $(f(\mathbb{Z}), \cdot) = (\{1, -1\}, \cdot)$ is a subgroup of $(\mathbb{R} - \{0\}, \cdot)$.

Theorem 17

If $(H, *)$ is a normal subgroup of $(G, *)$, then the mapping

$f_H: (G, *) \rightarrow (G/H, \otimes)$ defined by $f_H(a) = a * H$, $\forall a \in G$

f_H is a homomorphism from $(G, *)$ onto $(G/H, \otimes)$, and $\ker.f_H = H$.

Hint :

It is clear that f_H is a homomorphism which is onto, since

$f_H(a * b) = (a * b) * H = (a * H) \otimes (b * H) = f_H(a) \otimes f_H(b)$

and $G/H = \{a * H ; a \in G\}$ so

$\forall x \in G/H \exists a \in G$ such that $f_H(a) = a * H = x$

Now $\ker.f_H = \{a \in G ; f_H(a) = e * H = H\}$

$= \{a \in G ; a * H = H\} = H$, since $(H, *)$ is a normal subgroup.

Theorem 18

If $(H, *)$ is a normal subgroup of $(G, *)$, then there exist a group

$(G', *')$, and a homomorphism f from $(G, *)$ onto $(G', *')$, such that $\ker.f = H$.

Hint :

We take $(G', *')$ to be the quotient group $(G/H, \otimes)$, and $f = f_H$ in above

Theorem 17 .

1.15 Isomorphisms

Two groups $(G, *)$ and $(G', *)'$ are said to be **isomorphic**, denoted $(G, *) \cong (G', *)'$, if there exists a one-to-one homomorphism f of $(G, *)$ onto $(G', *)'$. Such a homomorphism f is called an **isomorphism** (epimorphism & monomorphism).

Example 36

Let two groups $(\mathbb{Z}_4, +_4)$ and $(G, *)$, where $G = \{1, -1, i, -i\}$ and the operation $*$ be defined by the table ;

*	1	-1	i	-i
1	1	-1	i	-i
-1	-1	1	-i	i
i	i	-i	-1	1
-i	-i	i	1	-1

- 1) Defined function $f: (\mathbb{Z}_4, +_4) \rightarrow (G, *)$ by $f(0)=1$, $f(1)=i$, $f(2)=-1$, $f(3)=-i$. Consequently $(\mathbb{Z}_4, +_4) \cong (G, *)$.
- 2) Defined function $g: (\mathbb{Z}_4, +_4) \rightarrow (G, *)$ by $g(0)=1$, $g(1)=-i$, $g(2)=-1$, $g(3)=i$. Consequently $(\mathbb{Z}_4, +_4) \cong (G, *)$.

Example 37

Let $(G, *)$, where $G = \{e, a, b, c\}$ And the operation $*$ be defined by the table ;
($G, *$) known as Klein's four-group .

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

- 1) Defined the function $f: (\mathbb{Z}_4, +_4) \rightarrow (G, *)$ by $f(0)=e$, $f(1)=a$, $f(2)=b$, $f(3)=c$, it is easy to show that f is not homomorphism, since $f(1 +_4 3) = e \neq b = f(1) * f(3)$.
- 2) Defined the function $g: (\mathbb{Z}_4, +_4) \rightarrow (G, *)$ by $g(0)=e$, $g(1)=b$, $g(2)=c$, $g(3)=a$, it is easy to show that g is not homomorphism, since $g(1 +_4 3) = e \neq c = g(1) * g(3)$.
- 3) Defined the function $h: (\mathbb{Z}_4, +_4) \rightarrow (G, *)$ by $h(0)=e$, $h(1)=b$, $h(2)=a$, $h(3)=c$, it is easy to show that h is a not homomorphism, since $h(1 +_4 3) = e \neq a = h(1) * h(3)$.

Exercise 38

Show that $(\mathbb{Z}_4, +_4) \not\cong (G, *)$, where $(G, *)$ Klein's four-group .

Hint :

Suppose that $(\mathbb{Z}_4, +_4) \cong (G, *)$, so there is an isomorphism say $f: (\mathbb{Z}_4, +_4) \rightarrow (G, *)$ and hence $f(x +_4 y) = f(x) * f(y) \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_4$
i.e. $f(x +_4 x) = f(x) * f(x) = e = f(0) \xrightarrow{f \text{ is 1-1}} x +_4 x = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{Z}_4$, contradiction .

Remark

A standard procedure for showing that two groups are not isomorphic is to find some property of one, not possessed by the other, which by its nature would necessarily be shared if these groups were actually isomorphic .

In the present case, the group $(\mathbb{Z}_4, +_4)$ and the Klein's four-group are differentiated by the fact the former is a cyclic group whereas the latter is not .

Example 39

Let $(G, *)$, where $G = \{e, a, b, c\}$

And the operation $*$ be defined by the table ;

It is clear that $(G, *)$ is a cyclic group , since

$$\langle a \rangle = \langle c \rangle = G$$

And we know that the group $(\mathbb{Z}_4, +_4)$ is cyclic ,

since $\langle 1 \rangle = \langle 3 \rangle = \mathbb{Z}_4$

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

1) Defined the function $f: (\mathbb{Z}_4, +_4) \rightarrow (G, *)$ by

$f(0)=e$, $f(1)=a$, $f(2)=b$, $f(3)=c$, it is easy to show that f is isomorphism ,
hence $(\mathbb{Z}_4, +_4) \cong (G, *)$

2) Defined the function $g: (\mathbb{Z}_4, +_4) \rightarrow (G, *)$ by

$g(0)=e$, $g(1)=c$, $g(2)=b$, $g(3)=a$, it is easy to show that g is isomorphism ,
hence $(\mathbb{Z}_4, +_4) \cong (G, *)$.

Example 40

The two groups $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ and $(\mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}, .)$ are not isomorphic .

Suppose there exists a one-to-one onto function $f: (\mathbb{Z}, +) \rightarrow (\mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}, .)$
with the property $f(a+b)=f(a).f(b) \quad \forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$.

let $x \in \mathbb{Z}$, such that $f(x)=-1$, then $f(2x)=f(x+x)=f(x).f(x)=(-1).(-1)=1$

$\Rightarrow 2x=0$ (since f is a homomorphism) $\Rightarrow x=0$

i.e. $f(0)=-1$ and $f(0)=1$, contradicting , because f is one-to-one .

Theorem 19

Every finite cyclic group of order n is isomorphic to $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n)$ and every infinite cyclic group is isomorphic to $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$.

Hint :

1) Defined $f: \langle a \rangle \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n)$ by $f(a^k) = [k]$, $0 \leq k < n$,

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

2) Defined $f: \langle a \rangle \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}, +)$ by $f(a^n) = n$, $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$

where $\langle a \rangle = \{e, a, a^2, \dots, a^n, \dots\}$.

Corollary

Any two cyclic groups of the same order are isomorphic .

Remark

Let $(G, *)$ be any group and $a \in G$.

defined a function $f_a: G \rightarrow G$ by $f_a(x) = a * x$, $\forall x \in G$,

and let $F_G = \{f_a; a \in G\}$.

The system (F_G, \circ) to form a group , (where \circ denotes functional composition) .

Example 41

Let $(\mathbb{Z}_4, +_4)$ be the group of integers modulo 4 and $(\langle a \rangle, *)$ be any finite cyclic group of order 8 .

Assume $f: (\mathbb{Z}_4, +_4) \rightarrow (\langle a \rangle, *)$ is define as ; $f(0)=f(2)=e$, $f(1)=f(3)=a^4$.

i) Prove that f is a homomorphism ,

ii) Describe the subgroup $(\ker.f, +_4)$ and $(f(\mathbb{Z}_4), *)$.

Example 42

Let $(\mathbb{Z}_6, +_6)$ be the group of integers modulo 6 and $(\langle a \rangle, *)$ be any finite cyclic group of order 12. Assume $f: (\mathbb{Z}_6, +_6) \rightarrow (\langle a \rangle, *)$

is define as ; $f(0)=f(3)=e$, $f(1)=f(4)=a^4$, $f(2)=f(5)=a^8$.

- Prove that f is a homomorphism ,
- Describe the subgroup $(\ker.f, +_6)$ and $(f(\mathbb{Z}_6), *)$,
- If $H=\{e, a^4, a^8\}$, show that the pair $(f^{-1}(H), +_6)$ is a subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z}_6, +_6)$.

Theorem 20 (Cayley theorem)

If $(G, *)$ be any group , then $(G, *) \cong (F_G, \circ)$.

Hint :

Define the mapping $f: G \rightarrow F_G$ by the rule $f(a) = f_a \forall a \in G$.

- f is onto , since let $f_a \in F_G$ then $a \in G$ such that $f(a) = f_a$
- f is one-to-one , suppose $f(a) = f(b) \Rightarrow f_a = f_b$
 $\Rightarrow a * x = b * x, \forall x \in G$
 but $e \in G \Rightarrow a = a * e = b * e = b$.
- f is a homomorphism , since $f(a * b) = f_{a*b} = f_a \circ f_b = f(a) \circ f(b)$.

Exercise 7

Described the following functions . Is a homomorphism or not ;

- $f: (\mathbb{Z}, +) \rightarrow (\mathbb{Q}, +)$ where $f(x) = \frac{2}{3}x$,
- $f: (\mathbb{Z}, +) \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}, +)$ where $f(x) = nx$,
- $f: (\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \cdot) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}^+, \cdot)$ where $f(x) = |x|$,
- $f: (\mathbb{Z}, +) \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}, +)$ where $f(x) = x^2$.

Exercise 8

Let $(\mathbb{Z}_8, +_8)$ be the group of integers modulo 8 and $(\langle a \rangle, *)$ be any finite cyclic group of order 12. Assume $f: (\mathbb{Z}_8, +_8) \rightarrow (\langle a \rangle, *)$ is define as ;

$f(0)=f(4)=e$, $f(1)=f(5)=a^3$, $f(2)=f(6)=a^6$, $f(3)=f(7)=a^9$.

- Prove that f is a homomorphism ,
- Describe the subgroup $(\ker.f, +_8)$ and $(f(\mathbb{Z}_8), *)$,
- If $H=\{e, a^6\}$, show that the pair $(f^{-1}(H), +_8)$ is a subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z}_8, +_8)$.

1.15 The fundamental theorems

Let $f: (G, *) \rightarrow (G', *')$ is an onto homomorphism ($f(G) = G'$) from $(G, *)$ onto $(G', *')$

Theorem 21 (Factor theorem)

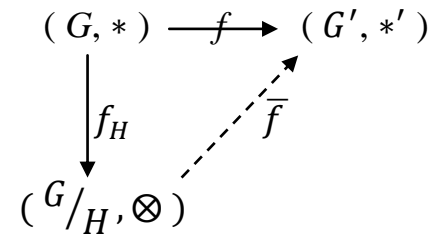
Let $(H, *)$ is a normal subgroup of $(G, *)$ such that $H \subseteq \ker.f$. then there exist a unique homomorphism $\bar{f}: (G/H, \otimes) \rightarrow (G', *')$ with the property

$$f = \bar{f} \circ f_H \text{ (} f_H \text{ maintain in Theorem 17)}$$

Hint :

Defined $\bar{f}: (G/H, \otimes) \rightarrow (G', *')$

by $\bar{f}(a * H) = f(a), a \in G$



1) It is well-defined, since

suppose $a * H = b * H$ for $a, b \in G \Rightarrow a^{-1} * b \in H \subseteq \ker.f$
 $\Rightarrow f(b) = f(a * a^{-1} * b) = f(a) * f(a^{-1} * b) = f(a) * e' = f(a).$

2) \bar{f} is a homomorphism, since

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{f}[(a * H) \otimes (b * H)] &= \bar{f}[(a * b) * H] = f(a * b) = f(a) *' f(b) \\ &= \bar{f}(a * H) *' \bar{f}(b * H). \end{aligned}$$

3) For each $a \in G$, $f(a) = \bar{f}(a * H) = \bar{f}(f_H(a)) = (\bar{f} \circ f_H)(a).$

Corollary

The function \bar{f} is one-to-one if and only if $\ker.f \subseteq H$.

Theorem 22 (fundamental theorem)

If $f: (G, *) \rightarrow (G', *')$ is onto homomorphism ($f(G) = G'$). then

$$(G/\ker.f, \otimes) \cong (G', *').$$

Hint :

Defined $h: (G/\ker.f, \otimes) \rightarrow (G', *')$

by $h(a * \ker.f) = f(a), a \in G$.

Corollary

If $f: (G, *) \rightarrow (G', *')$ is a homomorphism. then

$$(G/\ker.f, \otimes) \cong (f(G), *').$$

Example 43

Let $f: (\mathbb{Z}, +) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R} - \{0\}, \cdot)$ defined by ; $f(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \in \mathbb{Z}_e \\ -1 & \text{if } n \in \mathbb{Z}_o \end{cases}$

it is clear that f is a homomorphism, and

$$\ker.f = \{a \in G; f(a) = e'\} = \{n \in \mathbb{Z}; f(n) = 1\} = \mathbb{Z}_e.$$

It is clear that $(\ker.f, *) = (\mathbb{Z}_e, +)$ is a normal subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$,

and $(f(\mathbb{Z}), \cdot) = (\{1, -1\}, \cdot)$ is a subgroup of $(\mathbb{R} - \{0\}, \cdot)$.

$$\text{So that } \left(\mathbb{Z}/\mathbb{Z}_e, \otimes \right) = (G/\ker.f, \otimes) \cong (f(\mathbb{Z}), \cdot) = (\{1, -1\}, \cdot)$$

Example 44

Let $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ be the group of integers and $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n)$ be the group of integers modulo n . Define $f: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$ by

$f(x) = [x]$ is onto homomorphism (*see example 30*)
 $\ker.f = \{ x \in \mathbb{Z} ; f(x) = [0] \} = \{ x \in \mathbb{Z} ; [x] = [0] \} = \{ x \in \mathbb{Z} ; x \in n\mathbb{Z} \} = n\mathbb{Z} .$
 Therefore

$$\left(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} , \otimes \right) = \left(\mathbb{Z}/\ker.f , \otimes \right) \cong (\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n) .$$

Exercise 9

Consider the two groups $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ and $(\{1, -1, i, -i\}, \cdot)$. show that the mapping defined by $f(n) = i^n$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ is a homomorphism which is onto, and determine $\ker.f$? attain *fundamental theorem* ?

المصادر

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