

# Groups: Handwritten notes

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## # Group:-

A non-empty set  $G$  is group if

i) Closure law holds in  $G$

i.e for  $a, b \in G$ ,  $a * b \in G$ .

ii) Associative law holds in  $G$ .

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

iii) Identity law holds in  $G$ .

i.e for  $a \in G$ ,  $a * e = e * a = a$

where  $e$  is an identity element.

iv) Inverse law holds in  $G$ .

i.e for  $a \in G$   $\exists$   $a' \in G$  such that

$$a * a' = a' * a = e$$

If commutative law holds in  $G$  then  $G$  is called abelian group.

## Example:-

$(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ ,  $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ ,  $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$ ,  $(\{\pm 1, \pm i\}, \cdot)$  are the examples of group.

$A = \{I, \pm i, \pm j, \pm k\}$  with the conditions

$$i \cdot i = j \cdot j = k \cdot k = I$$

$$i \cdot j = j \cdot k = k \cdot i = j$$

$$j \cdot i = -k, k \cdot j = -i, i \cdot k = -j$$

$$\& \quad Ix = x \quad \forall x \in A$$

then  $A$  is called group.

## # Question:-

Prove that  $(\mathbb{Z}_n, \oplus)$  is a group.

Solution-

$$\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$$

i) For  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ , then  $a + b \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  if  $a + b < n$  and if  $a + b \geq n$ , then after dividing  $a + b$  by  $n$ , then remainder is less than  $n$  and

So belongs to  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ .

i.e binary operation  $\oplus$  is defined

- ii)  $\oplus$  is associative in general.
- iii)  $0 \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  is an identity element.
- iv) For  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ ,  $n-a$  is inverse of  $a$ .

$$\because a + (n-a) = n = 0 \quad \Big| \quad n \div n \Rightarrow \text{Remainder } 0$$

Hence  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is group under  $\oplus$ .

### # Some Important Result:-

Let  $G$  be a group then

- i) Cancellation law holds in  $G$ .
- ii) Identity element is unique.
- iii) Inverse of the element is unique.
- iv)  $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a \quad \forall a \in G$ .
- v)  $(ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1}$

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## # Order of Group:-

def:- The number of element in a group  $G$  is called the order of  $G$  and is denoted by  $|G|$ .

A group  $G$  is said to be finite if  $G$  consists of only a finite number of elements. Otherwise  $G$  is said to be an infinite group.

## # Order of Element:-

def:- Let  $a$  be an element of a group  $G$ . A positive integer 'n' is said to be the order of  $a$  if  $a^n = e$  and  $n$  is the least such positive integer.

## # Question:-

Let  $a \in G$  and order of 'a' is 'n'. then the elements  $a, a^2, a^3, \dots, a^{n-1}$  are all distinct.  
Solution:

On the contrary let

$$a^p = a^q \quad \text{for some } p < n, q < n, p \neq q.$$

then

$$a^p \cdot a^{-q} = e$$

$$\Rightarrow a^{p-q} = e \Rightarrow p-q < n$$

~~$$p < q$$~~

a contradiction  $\because$  order of  $a$  is  $n$ .

hence  $a^p \neq a^q$

$\therefore$  Since  $a^p, a^q$  are taken to be arbitrary therefore all elements are distinct.

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## # Theorem:-

Let  $G$  be a group, for  $a \in G$  let  $a^n = e$   
 then for some integer  $k$ ,  $a^k = e$  iff  $n/k$ .

## Solution:-

Let  $n/k$  then there is a some integer  $q$ , such that  $k = nq$ .

$$a^k = a^{nq} = (a^n)^q = e^q = e.$$

Conversely, let  $a^k = e$  i.e.  $k > n$ .

so there are integers  $q$  and  $r$  such that

$$k = nq + r \quad ; \quad r < n.$$

so

$$a^k = a^{nq+r} = a^q e$$

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

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

$$\Rightarrow (e)^q \cdot a^r = e \quad \because n \text{ is order of } a.$$

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

which is only possible if  $r = 0$

$$\text{then } k = nq \Rightarrow n/k.$$

## # Periodic Group:-

def:- If every element of a group  $G$  is of finite order then  $G$  is periodic group.

## # Mixed Group:-

def:- If a group  $G$  contains elements of finite as well as infinite order, then  $G$  is called mixed group.

e.g.  $(\mathbb{R}', \cdot)$  is mixed group.

$$\mathbb{R}' = \mathbb{R} - \{0\}$$

## # Sub-group:-

def:- Let  $H$  be a non-empty subset of a group  $G$  then  $H$  is subgroup of  $G$  if  $H$  itself is a ~~sub~~ group with the binary operation defined on  $G$ .

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## # Theorem:

Let  $G$  be a group and  $H$  a non-empty subset of  $G$ . then  $H$  is ~~group~~ sub-group iff  $a, b \in H \Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in H$ .

Proof:

Suppose that  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , then  $(H, \cdot)$  is a group, if  $b \in H$ ,  $b^{-1} \in H$   
hence  $a, b \in H \Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in H$ .

Conversely, suppose that  $a, b \in H \Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in H$ .

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

Now  $e, b \in H \Rightarrow eb^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow b^{-1} \in H$ .

Again  $a, b \in H \Rightarrow a, b^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow a(b^{-1})^{-1} = ab \in H$ .

Thus  $H$  is closed in  $G$ , The associative law holds for elements of  $H$  as it holds, in general, for the element of  $G$ .

Hence all the axioms of a group are satisfied by the elements of  $H$ . Hence  $H$  is a group under the binary operation defined on  $G$  and so is a subgroup of  $G$ .

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## # Theorem :-

Let  $G$  be an abelian group and  $F$  be a subset of all elements of  $G$  with finite order, then  $F$  is a subgroup.

Proof:-

Let  $a, b \in F$  then there are integers  $m$  and  $n$  such that

$$a^m = e \quad \text{and} \quad b^n = e$$

we have to prove  $ab^{-1} \in F$ .

$$\begin{aligned} (ab^{-1})^{mn} &= (b^{-1})^{mn} (a)^{mn} \\ &= a^{mn} (b^{-1})^{mn} \quad \because G \text{ is abelian} \\ &= a^{mn} \cdot b^{-mn} \quad \because (b^{-1})^m = b^{-m} \\ &= (a^m)^n \cdot (b^n)^{-m} \\ &= e^n \cdot e^{-m} \\ &= e \cdot e = e \end{aligned}$$

implies that  $ab^{-1} \in F$

therefore  $F$  is a subgroup.

## # Theorem:-

Intersection of any family of subgroups of a group  $G$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .

Proof:-

Let  $\{H_i\}_{i \in I}$  be a family of subgroups of  $G$ .

$$\text{Let } H = \bigcap_{i \in I} H_i$$

Let  $a, b \in H$  then  $a, b \in H_i$  for each  $i \in I$

Since  $H_i$  is a subgroup of  $G$

so  $ab^{-1} \in H_i$  for each  $i \in I$

therefore  $ab^{-1} \in \bigcap_{i \in I} H_i = H$

Hence  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .



# Note:- Union of two subgroup may not be a subgroup.

e.g.  $Z_1 = \{0, 3\}$ ;  $Z_2 = \{0, 2, 4\}$  are subgroup of a group  $Z_6 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$  then  $Z_1 \cup Z_2 = \{0, 2, 3, 4\}$  is not a subgroup.

# Theorem:-

Let  $H_1, H_2$  are two subgroup of a group  $G$  then  $H_1 \cup H_2$  is a subgroup of a  $G$  iff either  $H_1 \subseteq H_2$  or  $H_2 \subseteq H_1$ .

Proof:-

Let  $H_1 \subseteq H_2$  or  $H_2 \subseteq H_1$

then  $H_1 \cup H_2 = H_2$  or  $H_1 \cup H_2 = H_1$

$\therefore H_1 \cup H_2$  are subgroup so  $H_1 \cup H_2$  is also subgroup.

Conversely:

Let  $H_1 \cup H_2$  is a subgroup,

and let  $H_1 \not\subseteq H_2$  or  $H_2 \not\subseteq H_1$ ,

then there are  $a, b \in G$  such that

$a \in H_1 \setminus H_2$ ,  $b \in H_2 \setminus H_1$

i.e.  $a \in H_1$  but  $a \notin H_2$  or  $b \in H_2$  but  $b \notin H_1$

$\therefore a, b \in H_1 \cup H_2$

As  $H_1 \cup H_2$  are subgroup

therefore  $ab \in H_1 \cup H_2 \Rightarrow ab \in H_1$  or  $ab \in H_2$

then

$a^{-1}(ab) = b \in H_1$

which is a contradiction

hence  $H_1 \cup H_2$  is subgroup iff  $H_1 \subseteq H_2$  or  $H_2 \subseteq H_1$

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## # Invalution.

def:- An element  $x$  of order 2 in a group  $G$  is called invalution in  $G$ .

## # Theorem:-

Every group of even order has atleast one invalution.

Proof:-

Let  $G$  be a group of order  $2n$ .

and let  $A = \{e, x \mid x^2 = e \wedge x \in G\}$

&  $B = \{y \mid y^2 \neq e \wedge y \in G\}$

then

$$A \cup B = G \quad \text{and} \quad A \cap B = \emptyset$$

if  $B = \emptyset$  then  $A = G$

then  $G$  contains invalution.

if  $B \neq \emptyset$ , let  $y \in G$  then  $y^2 \neq e \Rightarrow y \neq y^{-1}$

hence  $(y^{-1})^2 \neq e \Rightarrow y^{-1} \in B$

i.e.  $y, y^{-1} \in B$

$\Rightarrow$  number of elements in  $B$  is even

As  $|G| = |A| + |B|$  (only for disjoint sets)

and so number of elements in  $A$  is even.

$\therefore e \in A \Rightarrow A \neq \emptyset$

$\Rightarrow |A| \geq 2$

$\therefore$  order of  $A$  is even,

so it contain min. 2 elements

Since  $A \subseteq G$

$\Rightarrow G$  contains an invalution.

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## # Relation between Groups:-

### • Homomorphism

def:- Let  $(G, *)$  and  $(H, \cdot)$  be two groups. Define a mapping  $\phi: G \rightarrow H$ .

The  $\phi$  is homomorphism if  $\phi(x * y) = \phi(x) \cdot \phi(y)$

e.g.  $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ ,  $(\mathbb{R}^+, \cdot)$  be two groups

define  $\phi(x) = e^x \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

then for  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$

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

$\Rightarrow \phi$  is homomorphism.

### ✓ • Monomorphism

def:- A mapping  $\phi: G \rightarrow G'$  is called monomorphism if

- i)  $\phi$  is homomorphism
- ii)  $\phi$  is injective (one-one)

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

### ✓ • Epimorphism

def:- A mapping  $\phi: G \rightarrow G'$  is epimorphism such that

- i)  $\phi$  is homomorphism
- ii)  $\phi$  is surjective (onto)

i.e.  $\forall b \in G'$  there is  $a \in G$  such that  $\phi(a) = b$ .

## • Isomorphism

def:- A mapping  $\phi: G \rightarrow G'$  is isomorphism if

i)  $\phi$  is homomorphism.

ii)  $\phi$  is bijective (one-one and onto).

(denoted as  $G \sim G'$ )

## • Endomorphism

def:- A homomorphism mapping  $\phi: G \rightarrow G$  is called endomorphism (i.e. on same set).

## # Example

• Let  $\phi: (\mathbb{R}, +) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}_+, \cdot)$ , where  $\mathbb{R}$  is set of real number and  $\mathbb{R}_+$  is the set of non-zero positive real number

define  $\phi(x) = e^x \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

is isomorphism.

• Let  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$  and  $(\mathbb{E}, +)$  be two groups under addition then the mapping  $\phi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{E}$  defined by  $\phi(n) = 2n$  is isomorphism between  $\mathbb{Z}$  and  $\mathbb{E}$ .

• Let  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$  and  $(\{\pm 1\}, \cdot)$  be two groups define a mapping  $\phi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$

by  $\phi(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ -1 & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$

prove that  $\phi$  is homomorphism and hence epimorphism.

•  $\phi: \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $\phi(x) = \log x$

where  $(\mathbb{R}, \cdot)$  and  $(\mathbb{R}, +)$  are two groups. then  $\phi$  is isomorphism.

## # Question:-

Let  $G$  and  $G'$  are two groups and  $f: G \rightarrow G'$  is isomorphic then  $f^{-1}: G' \rightarrow G$  is also isomorphic.

Solution:-

Since  $f: G \rightarrow G'$  is bijective

so  $f^{-1}: G' \rightarrow G$  is also bijective

to prove  $f^{-1}$  is homomorphism

let  $a, b \in G'$  then there are  $x, y \in G$  such that  $f(x) = a$  and  $f(y) = b$

$$\text{or } x = f^{-1}(a) \text{ \& } y = f^{-1}(b)$$

$\therefore f$  is homomorphism

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

as  $f(xy) = ab \Rightarrow xy = f^{-1}(ab) \therefore f$  is bijective.

and

$$\begin{aligned} f^{-1}(a) \cdot f^{-1}(b) &= x \cdot y \\ &= f^{-1}(ab) \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $f^{-1}$  is homomorphism

as  $f^{-1}$  is bijective therefore  $f^{-1}$  is isomorphism.

## # Question:-

Let  $G, G', G''$  be groups

and  $f: G \rightarrow G', g: G' \rightarrow G''$  are isomorphism

then  $g \circ f: G \rightarrow G''$  is also isomorphism.

Solution

Since composition of two bijective mapping is bijective so  $g \circ f$  is bijective

$$\text{and } g \circ f(xy) = g(f(xy))$$

$$= g(f(x) \cdot f(y)) \therefore f \text{ is isomorphism}$$

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

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

therefore  $\phi \circ f$  is homomorphism  
and hence isomorphism.

# Theorem:-

Prove that isomorphic groups form an equivalence relation.

Proof:-

i) Reflexive

Define  $I: G \rightarrow G$  by  $I(x) = x$

then  $I$  is one-one and onto

and also  $I(x \cdot x) = x \cdot x = I(x) \cdot I(x)$

ii) Symmetric (i.e.  $G \sim G'$  then  $G' \sim G$ )

Define  $f: G \rightarrow G'$  an isomorphism

then  $f^{-1}: G' \rightarrow G$  is bijective

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

~~as  $f(xy) = f(x) \cdot f(y)$~~  ~~so~~ ~~to~~ prove  $f^{-1}$  is homomorphism  
as in previous Question.

iii) Transitive: (i.e.  $G \sim G'$  and  $G' \sim G''$  then  $G \sim G''$ )

Suppose  $f: G \rightarrow G'$  and  $g: G' \rightarrow G''$  are

isomorphism. then

prove  $g \circ f$  is isomorphism

as in previous Question

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## # Definition (Kernel)

def - Let  $\varphi: G \rightarrow G'$  be a homomorphism then kernel of  $\varphi$  is defined by

$$\ker \varphi = \{x \mid x \in G \wedge \varphi(x) = e'\}$$

where  $e'$  is identity of  $G'$ .

## # Lemma:

i) If  $\varphi$  is homomorphism of group  $G$  to  $G'$  then  $\varphi(e) = e'$  (i.e. identity element of  $G$  is mapped to identity element of  $G'$ )

ii)  $\varphi(x^{-1}) = [\varphi(x)]^{-1} \quad \forall x \in G$

Proof:

i) Let  $x \in G$  then  $\varphi(x) \in G'$

Since  $e'$  is identity of  $G'$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \varphi(x) \cdot e' &= \varphi(x) \\ &= \varphi(x \cdot e) \quad \because x = x \cdot e \\ &= \varphi(x) \cdot \varphi(e) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{i.e. } \varphi(x) \cdot e' = \varphi(x) \cdot \varphi(e)$$

$$\Rightarrow e' = \varphi(e) \quad \text{by cancellation law.}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ii) } \varphi(x) \cdot \varphi(x^{-1}) &= \varphi(x x^{-1}) \quad \because \varphi \text{ is homomorphism} \\ &= \varphi(e) \\ &= e' \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow \varphi(x^{-1})$  is inverse of  $\varphi(x)$

but  $[\varphi(x)]^{-1}$  is also inverse of  $\varphi(x)$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(x^{-1}) = [\varphi(x)]^{-1} \quad \text{as inverse is unique}$$

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## # Theorem:-

The homomorphic image of a group is a group.

Proof:

Let  $G$  be a group and  $\phi(G)$  be a homomorphic image of  $G$  under  $\phi$ .

1) Let  $g_1, g_2 \in G$  then  $\phi(g_1), \phi(g_2) \in \phi(G)$

and  $\phi(g_1 g_2) = \phi(g_1) \cdot \phi(g_2) \in \phi(G)$

~~$\therefore \phi(g_1 g_2) \in \phi(G)$~~

i.e.  $\phi(G)$  is closed.

2) Let  $\phi(g_1), \phi(g_2), \phi(g_3) \in \phi(G)$  then

$$\phi(g_1) \cdot [\phi(g_2) \cdot \phi(g_3)] = \phi(g_1) \cdot [\phi(g_2 g_3)]$$

$$= \phi(g_1 (g_2 g_3))$$

$$= \phi((g_1 g_2) g_3)$$

$$= \phi(g_1 g_2) \cdot \phi(g_3)$$

$$= [\phi(g_1) \cdot \phi(g_2)] \cdot \phi(g_3)$$

$\Rightarrow \phi(G)$  is associative.

3) If  $e$  is identity of  $G$  then

$$\phi(x) \cdot \phi(e) = \phi(xe)$$

$$= \phi(x)$$

$\Rightarrow \phi(e)$  is an identity of  $\phi(G)$ .

4) For  $x \in G, x^{-1} \in G$

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

$$= \phi(e)$$

i.e.  $\phi(G)$  contains inverse of its each element

$\therefore \phi(G)$  satisfy all the axioms of group.

$\therefore \phi(G)$  is group.



## # Theorem:

Let  $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$  be homomorphism of a group  $G$  into group  $H$ , then for  $a, b \in G$

$$\varphi(a) = \varphi(b) \quad \text{iff} \quad ab^{-1} \in \ker \varphi.$$

## Proof:

Suppose  $\varphi(a) = \varphi(b)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } \varphi(ab^{-1}) &= \varphi(a) \cdot \varphi(b^{-1}) \\ &= \varphi(b) \cdot \varphi(b^{-1}) \quad \because \varphi(a) = \varphi(b) \\ &= \varphi(bb^{-1}) \\ &= \varphi(e) = e' \in H \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in \ker \varphi.$$

Conversely, suppose  $ab^{-1} \in \ker \varphi$ .

then  $\varphi(ab^{-1}) = e'$  where  $e'$  is identity of  $H$ .

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

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(a) [\varphi(b)]^{-1} = e'$$

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

proved

## # Theorem

Let  $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$  be a homomorphism then  $\varphi$  is one-one iff  $\ker \varphi = \{I_G\}$ .

## Proof:

Suppose  $\varphi$  is one-one.

It is obvious that  $\{I_G\} \subseteq \ker \varphi$

and let  $a \in \ker \varphi$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(a) = I_H$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(a) = \varphi(I_G)$$

and  $\because \varphi$  is one-one

$$\therefore a = I_G \Rightarrow a \in \{I_G\}$$

$$\Rightarrow \ker \varphi \subseteq \{I_G\} \text{ and hence } \ker \varphi = \{I_G\}$$

$$\begin{array}{|l} \because \varphi(I_G) = I_H \\ \Rightarrow I_G \in \ker \varphi \\ \text{i.e. } \{I_G\} \subseteq \ker \varphi \end{array}$$

Conversely, let  $\ker \varphi = \{I_G\}$

to prove  $\varphi$  is one-one

$$\text{Let } \varphi(a) = \varphi(b)$$

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

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(ab^{-1}) = \varphi(bb^{-1})$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(ab^{-1}) = \varphi(I_G)$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(ab^{-1}) = I_H$$

$$\Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in \ker \varphi$$

$$\Rightarrow ab^{-1} = I_G$$

$$\Rightarrow a = b$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi \text{ is one-one}$$

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# Theorem.

Let  $H$  be a subgroup of a group  $G$ .  
Define a relation over  $G$  such that

$$x \sim y \text{ iff } xy^{-1} \in H$$

then relation  $\sim$  is equivalence relation.

Proof:

i) Reflexive

$$\because e \in H \Rightarrow xx^{-1} \in H \quad \forall x \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow x \sim x$$

i.e. this relation is reflexive.

ii) Symmetric

Let  $x \sim y$  then  $xy^{-1} \in H$

$$\Rightarrow (xy^{-1})^{-1} \in H \quad \because H \text{ is group.}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{i.e. } (xy^{-1})^{-1} &= (y^{-1})^{-1} \cdot x^{-1} \\ &= y \cdot x^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

so  $yx^{-1} \in H$  i.e.  $y \sim x$ .

$\therefore \sim$  is symmetric.

iii) Transitive

Let  $x \sim y$  then  $xy^{-1} \in H$

also  $y \sim z$  then  $yz^{-1} \in H$

$$\text{Now } (xy^{-1})(yz^{-1}) \in H$$

$$\text{" or } x(y^{-1}y)z^{-1} \in H$$

$$\text{" or } x(e)z^{-1} \in H$$

$$\text{or } xz^{-1} \in H$$

$\Rightarrow x \sim z$  i.e.  $\sim$  is transitive.

hence the relation  $\sim$  is equivalence.

## # Cyclic Group:-

def:- A group  $G$  is called a cyclic group if all of its element can be express as power of a single element say  $a \in G$ .

In this case 'a' is called to be a generator of  $G$ . i.e if 'a' is generator then for  $x \in G$  there is an integer  $k$  such that  $a^k = x$ .

Let  $G$  be a finite group of order  $n$  then

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

Note that order of cyclic group is equal to the order of its generator. and the generating element is not necessary unique.

e.g

$$\{\pm 1, \pm i\}$$

$$\text{let } a = i, \quad a^2 = i^2 = -1$$

$$a^3 = i^3 = i \cdot i^2 = -i$$

$$a^4 = (i^2)^2 = 1$$

Also if  $a = -i$ , then this is also generator  
i.e  $i, -i$  are a generator.

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## # Theorem

Any two cyclic group of same order are isomorphic.

Proofs-

i) For finite order:-

Let  $G$  be a cyclic group of order  $n$ ,  
i.e.  $G = \langle a : a^n = e \rangle$

Consider cyclic group  $C_n$  of  $n$ ,  $n$ th roots of unity. Consider a mapping  $\phi: G \rightarrow C_n$  defined by

$$\phi(a^k) = e^{\frac{2k\pi}{n}i}$$

•  $\phi$  is one-one

$$\text{for } \phi(a^k) = \phi(a^m) ; a^k, a^m \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow e^{\frac{2k\pi}{n}i} = e^{\frac{2m\pi}{n}i}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{2k\pi}{n}i = \frac{2m\pi}{n}i$$

$$\Rightarrow k = m \Rightarrow a^k = a^m$$

Thus  $\phi$  is one-one

•  $\phi$  is obviously onto

$\therefore$  for every  $e^{\frac{2k\pi}{n}i}$  where  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$   
 $\exists a^k \in G \forall k$ .

• Now  $\phi(a^k \cdot a^m) = \phi(a^{k+m})$

$$= e^{\frac{2(k+m)\pi}{n}i}$$

$$= e^{\frac{2k\pi}{n}i} \cdot e^{\frac{2m\pi}{n}i}$$

$$= \phi(a^k) \cdot \phi(a^m)$$

$\Rightarrow \phi$  is homomorphism i.e.  $G \cong C_n$

ii) For Infinite Order:-

for infinite cyclic group we define a mapping  $\phi: G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  by  $\phi(a^k) = k$ .

$$\begin{aligned} z^n &= 1 = 1 + 0i \\ &= \cos 2k\pi + i \sin 2k\pi \\ z &= \cos \frac{2k\pi}{n} + i \sin \frac{2k\pi}{n} \\ &= e^{\frac{2k\pi}{n}i} \end{aligned}$$

then  $\phi$  is one-one

$$\because \phi(a^k) = \phi(a^m) \quad \text{for } a^k, a^m \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow k = m$$

$$\Rightarrow a^k = a^m$$

and also for each  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$   $\exists$  an element  $a^k \in G$  such that  $\phi(a^k) = k$

$\Rightarrow \phi$  is onto.

Also

$$\phi(a^k \cdot a^m) = \phi(a^{k+m})$$

$$= k + m$$

$$= \phi(a^k) + \phi(a^m)$$

$\Rightarrow \phi$  is homomorphism

hence  $G \cong \mathbb{Z}$ .

and the proof is complete.

### # Theorem

Let  $G$  be a cyclic group of order  $n$  and generated by  $a$ . Let  $d \mid n$ , then there is a unique subgroup of order  $d$ .

Proof: let  $G = \langle a : a^n = e \rangle$

$\because d \mid n \therefore \exists$  integers  $q$  such that  $n = dq$ .

Take  $b = a^q$  then

$$b^d = (a^q)^d = a^{qd} = a^n = e$$

So  $H = \langle b : b^d = e \rangle$  is required subgroup.

To see  $H$  is unique, suppose  $K$  is another subgroup of  $G$  of order  $d$ . Then  $K$  is generated by an element  $c = a^k$ , where  $k$  is least such +ve integer.

As  $K$  has order  $d$

$$\therefore a^{kd} = a^{cd} = e$$

where  $kd = n$  so that

$$k = \frac{n}{d} = q$$

\* Hence  $b = a^q = a^k = c$

so that  $K = H$  and hence

$H$  is unique.

## # Theorem

Every subgroup of a cyclic group is cyclic:

Proof:

Let  $G$  be a cyclic group generated by  $a$ .  
Let  $H$  be a ~~st~~ subgroup of  $G$  and  $k$  be the least +ive integer such that  $a^k \in H$ .

we prove that  $H$  is generated by  $a^k$ .

For this let ~~any~~  $x = a^m \in H \forall m > k$

then  $\exists$  integers  $q$  and  $r$  such that

$$m = qk + r \quad ; \quad 0 \leq r < k$$

$$\text{then } a^m = a^{qk+r}$$

$$= a^{qk} \cdot a^r$$

$$\Rightarrow a^m \cdot a^{-qk} = a^r$$

$$\Rightarrow a^m \cdot (a^k)^{-q} = a^r$$

$\therefore a^m$  and  $(a^k)^{-q}$  are in  $H$

$$\Rightarrow a^r \in H$$

but  $k$  is smallest for which  $a^k \in H$

and here  $a^r \in H$  and  $r < k$

so by minimality of  $k$

$a^r \in H$  only if  $r = 0$

but if  $r = 0$

then  $m = qk$

$$\Rightarrow a^m = (a^k)^q = \text{~~any~~}$$

$\Rightarrow a^k$  is generator of  $H$ . i.e  $H$  is cyclic

## # Theorem:-

The homomorphic image of a cyclic group is cyclic.

Proof:

Let  $G$  be a cyclic group generated by  $a$ .

Let  $\phi(G)$  be a homomorphic image of  $G$  under a homomorphism  $\phi$ .

we show that  $\varphi(G)$  is cyclic.

Take  $b = \varphi(a)$

Let  $x \in \varphi(G)$ , then there is an element  $a^k \in G$  such that

$$x = \varphi(a^k)$$

$$= \varphi(\underbrace{a \cdot a \cdot a \cdots a}_{k \text{ times}})$$

$$= \varphi(a) \cdot \varphi(a) \cdot \varphi(a) \cdots \varphi(a) \quad \because \varphi \text{ is homo.}$$

$$= \underbrace{b \cdot b \cdot b \cdots b}_{(k \text{ times})}$$

$$= b^k$$

So  $\varphi(G)$  is generated by  $b$ .  
hence  $\varphi(G)$  is cyclic.

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# Theorem: -

i) Let  $G$  be a cyclic group of order  $n$  generated by  $a$ , then an element  $a^k \in G$  is a generator of  $G$  iff  $k$  and  $n$  are relatively prime.

ii) If  $G$  is infinite cyclic group then  $a$  and  $a^{-1}$  are its generator only.

Proof: -

Let  $G = \langle a : a^n = e \rangle$  be finite cyclic group. Consider  $k$  and  $n$  are relatively prime then there exists integers  $p$  and  $q$  such that  $pk + qn = 1$ .

Let  $H$  be a subgroup generated by  $a^k$ , to prove  $H = G$

$$\begin{aligned} a^1 &= a^{pk+qn} \\ &= (a^k)^p \cdot (a^n)^q \\ &= (a^k)^p \cdot (e)^q \quad \because a^n = e \\ &= (a^k)^p \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore (a^k)^p$  is an element of  $H$

$$\Rightarrow a \in H$$

$$\therefore H = G$$

i.e  $G$  is also generated by  $a^k$ .

Conversely,

Let  $a^k$  is generator of  $G$

we prove  $k$  and  $n$  are relatively prime

$\because a^k$  is generator

so for some integer  $p$ ,

$$(a^k)^p = a \Rightarrow a^{pk} = a$$

$$\Rightarrow a^{pk-1} = e$$

$$\Rightarrow n \mid pk-1 \quad \because n \text{ is least such integer,}$$

so  $\exists$  integer  $q$  such that

$$pk-1 = qn$$

$$\Rightarrow pk - qn = 1$$

so  $k$  and  $n$  are relatively prime.

ii) Let  $G = \langle a \rangle$  be infinite cyclic group.  
 Let  $a^k$  is also a generator of  $G$ .  
 then  $(a^k)^p = a$  for some integer  $p$ .  
 $\Rightarrow a^{kp-1} = e$

$$\Rightarrow kp-1 \neq 0 \quad \text{or} \quad kp-1 = 0$$

if  $kp-1 \neq 0$

then  $G$  is finite, a contradiction

hence  $kp-1 = 0 \Rightarrow kp = 1$

Since  $k$  and  $p$  are integers

therefore  $k=p=1$  or  $k=p=-1$

i.e.  $a, a^{-1}$  are only generators.

# Complex in a group:

def:- A subset  $X$  of a group  $G$  is called complex in  $G$ .

# Product of Complexes

def:- If  $X$  and  $Y$  are two complexes in  $G$  then the product  $XY$  is defined as

$$XY = \{xy : x \in X, y \in Y\}$$

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Imp ✓  
# Theorem

Let  $H$  and  $K$  be two subgroups of a group  $G$  then  $HK$  is subgroup of  $G$  iff  $HK = KH$ .

Proof.

Let  $HK$  be a subgroup

Let  $h_1, k_1 \in HK$  for  $h_1 \in H, k_1 \in K$

$\Rightarrow (h_1, k_1)^{-1} \in HK \quad \therefore HK$  is subgroup.

Now  $(h_1, k_1)^{-1} = k_1^{-1} h_1^{-1} \in KH \quad \therefore k_1^{-1} \in K, h_1^{-1} \in H$

i.e.  $HK \subseteq KH$  — (i)

Now for  $h \in H, k \in K, h^{-1} k^{-1} \in HK$

and for  $kh \in KH$

$$kh = (k^{-1})^{-1} (h^{-1})^{-1} = (h^{-1} k^{-1})^{-1} \in HK$$

as  $HK$  is subgroup.

$\Rightarrow KH \subseteq HK$  — (ii)

From (i) and (ii)

$$HK = KH.$$

Conversely, let  $HK = KH$ , to prove  $HK$  is subgroup

Let  $h_1, k_1, h_2, k_2 \in HK$

for some  $h_1, h_2 \in H, k_1, k_2 \in K$ .

$$\Rightarrow (h_1, k_1)(h_2, k_2)^{-1} = (h_1, k_1)(k_2^{-1} h_2^{-1})$$

$$= h_1 (k_1 k_2^{-1}) h_2^{-1}$$

$$= h_1 (k_3 h_2^{-1}) \quad \text{for } k_1, k_2 \in K$$

$$k_3 = k_1 k_2^{-1} \in K$$

$$= h_1 (h_2^{-1} k_3) \quad \therefore KH = HK$$

$$= (h_1 h_2^{-1}) k_3 \quad \text{for } h_1, h_2 \in H, h_3 = h_1 h_2^{-1} \in H$$

$$= h_3 k_3 \in HK.$$

therefore  $HK$  is a subgroup.

Question: If  $H$  is subgroup of group  $G$  then

i) Prove that  $H^2 = H$

ii) Prove that  $H^{-1} = H$

— Do yourself —

## # Theorem:-

∴ If  $H$  and  $K$  are two subgroups of a finite group  $G$  and  $H \cap K = \{e\}$ , then  
 $|HK| = |H| \cdot |K|$ .

Proof:-

$$HK = \{hk : h \in H, k \in K\} \text{ and } H \cap K = \{e\}$$

The only way in which  $|HK| \neq |H| \cdot |K|$  is that for some  $h_1, h_2 \in H$ ,  $h_1 \neq h_2$  and  $k_1, k_2 \in K$ ,  $k_1 \neq k_2$  we have  $h_1 k_1 = h_2 k_2$ .

Let us consider

$$h_1 k_1 = h_2 k_2$$

$$\Rightarrow h_2^{-1} (h_1 k_1) = k_2$$

$$\Rightarrow (h_2^{-1} h_1) k_1 = k_2$$

$$\Rightarrow h_2^{-1} h_1 = k_2 k_1^{-1} = g \text{ (say)}$$

$$\therefore h_1, h_2 \in H, h_1, h_2^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow g = h_2^{-1} h_1 \in H$$

and similarly  $g = k_2 k_1^{-1} \in K$ .

i.e.  $g \in H$  and  $g \in K$

$$\Rightarrow g \in H \cap K = \{e\}$$

$$\Rightarrow g = e$$

$$\therefore h_2^{-1} h_1 = g \text{ and } k_2 k_1^{-1} = g$$

$$\Rightarrow h_2^{-1} h_1 = e, \quad k_2 k_1^{-1} = e$$

$$\Rightarrow h_2 = h_1, \quad k_2 = k_1$$

which is a contradiction

hence  $|HK| = |H| \cdot |K|$ .

OR

$$|HK| = |H| \cdot |K|$$

Example:

$$H = \{1, \omega, \omega^2\}$$

$$K = \{\pm 1, \pm i\} \text{ are two subgroups of } G$$

$$H \cap K = \{1\}$$

then

$$HK = \{\pm 1, \pm i, \pm \omega, \pm \omega i, \pm \omega^2, \pm \omega^2 i\}$$

Question:

$$G = \{e, f, g, gf, fg, g^2\}$$

$$\text{where } g^3 = e, f^3 = e, (fg)^2 = e$$

prove that  $G$  is group.

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## # Theorem:-

$\therefore$  If  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups of a group  $G$  such that  $O(HNK) > 1$  i.e.  $HNK \neq \{e\}$

then

$$O(HK) = \frac{O(H) \cdot O(K)}{O(HNK)} \quad \text{or} \quad |HK| = \frac{|H| \cdot |K|}{|HNK|}$$

Proof,

let  $O(H) = p$ ,  $O(K) = q$ ,  $O(HNK) = r$ ,  $O(HK) = m$ .

as  $HK = \{hk : h \in H, k \in K\}$

$= \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_m\}$  (say)

Also  $O(HNK) = r$

so let  $HNK = \{\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_3, \dots, \gamma_r\}$

$\therefore$  each  $\gamma_i \in HNK \quad \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, r$

and  $HNK$  is a subgroup  $\therefore$

$\therefore \gamma_i^{-1} \in HNK \quad \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, r$

so  $\gamma_i, \gamma_i^{-1} \in H$  and  $\gamma_i, \gamma_i^{-1} \in K$ .

let  $h \in H$ ,  $k \in K$

$\Rightarrow h\gamma_i \in H$ ,  $\gamma_i^{-1}k \in K$

$\Rightarrow (h\gamma_i)(\gamma_i^{-1}k) \in HK$ .

but  $(h\gamma_1)(\gamma_1^{-1}k) = (h\gamma_2)(\gamma_2^{-1}k) = (h\gamma_3)(\gamma_3^{-1}k) = \dots$

$\dots = (h\gamma_r)(\gamma_r^{-1}k) = hk = x$

i.e.  $x$  is repeat  $r$  times in  $HK$ .

so total number of elements possible in  $HK$  is  $rm$ .

i.e.  $rm = pq$

$$\Rightarrow m = \frac{pq}{r}$$

$$\text{i.e. } O(HK) = \frac{O(H) \cdot O(K)}{O(HNK)}$$

proved

# Corollary:-

Let  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroup of a group  $G$  such that  $o(H) \geq \sqrt{o(G)}$ ,  $o(K) \geq \sqrt{o(G)}$  then  $H \cap K \neq \{e\}$ .

Proof.

$$\because o(H) \geq \sqrt{o(G)}, \quad o(K) \geq \sqrt{o(G)}$$

as  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroup of  $G$

$$\Rightarrow H \subseteq G, \quad K \subseteq G$$

$$\Rightarrow HK \subseteq G$$

$$\Rightarrow o(HK) < o(G)$$

$$\text{i.e. } o(G) > o(HK)$$

$$= \frac{o(H) \cdot o(K)}{o(H \cap K)}$$

$$= \frac{o(H) \cdot o(K)}{o(H \cap K)}$$

$$\geq \frac{\sqrt{o(G)} \cdot \sqrt{o(G)}}{o(H \cap K)}$$

$$= \frac{o(G)}{o(H \cap K)}$$

$$\Rightarrow o(H \cap K) > 1$$

$$\Rightarrow H \cap K \neq \{e\}$$

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## # Coset:-

def:- Let  $H$  be a subgroup of a group  $G$ . Then the set  $Ha = \{ha : h \in H\}$  where  $a \in G$  is called right coset of  $H$  in  $G$ .

Similarly  $aH = \{ah : h \in H\}$  is left coset of  $H$  in  $G$ .

In case of addition  $a+H$ ,  $H+a$  are left and right coset respectively.

## # Example:-

Let  $G = \{e, f, g, gf, fg, g^2\}$

be a group where

$$f^3 = e, \quad g^3 = e, \quad (fg)^2 = e$$

Let  $H = \{e, g, g^2\}$  be a subgroup.

$$He = \{e, g, g^2\}$$

$$Hg = \{g, g^2, g^3 = e\}$$

$$Hg^2 = \{g^2, g^3, g^4\} = \{g^2, e, g\}$$

$$Hf = \{f, gf, g^2f\} = \{f, gf, fg\}$$

As

$$(fg)^2 = e$$

$$\Rightarrow (fg)(fg) = e$$

$$\Rightarrow fg = g^{-1}f^{-1}$$

$$f^2 = e \Rightarrow f \cdot f = e \Rightarrow f = f^{-1}$$

$$g^3 = e \Rightarrow g^2 \cdot g = e \Rightarrow g^2 = g^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow fg = g^2f$$

So

$$Hgf = \{gf, g^2f, g^3f\} = \{gf, fg, f\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} Hfg &= \{fg, g(fg), g^2(fg)\} = \{fg, g(g^2f), g^2(g^2f)\} \\ &= \{fg, f, gf\} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Now } He = Hg = Hg^2 = \{e, g, g^2\}$$

$$Hf = Hfg = Hgf = \{f, gf, fg\}$$

i.e. we have only two disjoint right coset.

## # Index of Subgroup:-

def:- The number of distinct left or right cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  is called index of  $H$  in  $G$ .



## # Index of subgroup:-

def:- The number of distinct left or right cosets of a subgroup  $H$  of a group  $G$  is called the index of  $H$  in  $G$  and is denoted by  $[G:H]$ .

## # Theorem:- (Lagrange's Theorem):

-: Both the order and index of a subgroup of a finite group divide the order of the group.

Proof:-

Let  $G$  be a group of order  $n$  and  $H$  be a subgroup of order  $m$ .

Also let  $k$  be the index of  $H$  in  $G$ .

Let  $a_1H, a_2H, \dots, a_kH$  are the distinct left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$ .

we prove  $G = \bigcup_{i=1}^k a_iH$  and  $a_iH \cap a_jH = \emptyset$ ,  $i \neq j$   
and  $i, j = 1, 2, \dots, k$ .

Let  $a_i \in G$

then  $a_i = a_i e \in a_iH$  because  $e \in H$

so,  $G \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^k a_iH$  — (i)

Also each  $a_iH$  is a subset of  $G$

$\therefore \bigcup_{i=1}^k a_iH \subseteq G$  — (ii)

From (i) and (ii)

$$G = \bigcup_{i=1}^k a_iH.$$

Next, let  $aH$  and  $bH$  are distinct left cosets and  $x \in aH \cap bH$ .

then  $x = ah_1 = bh_2$  for some  $h_1, h_2 \in H$ .

$$\Rightarrow a = bh_2h_1^{-1}$$

$$= bh_3 \quad \text{where } h_3 = h_2h_1^{-1} \text{ (say).}$$

Now for  $h \in H$ ,  $ah \in aH$

but  $ah = bh_3h$  is also an element of  $bH$ .

$$\Rightarrow aH \subseteq bH$$

Similarly  $bH \subseteq aH$ .

i.e.  $aH = bH$ , a contradiction  
 hence  $x \notin aH \cap bH$

$$\Rightarrow aH \cap bH = \emptyset$$

$\Rightarrow$  all left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  define a partition.  
 i.e.

$$|G| = |a_1H| + |a_2H| + \dots + |a_kH| \quad \text{--- (iii)}$$

To find number of element in each coset  
 we define a mapping  $\varphi: H \rightarrow a_iH$  by

$$\varphi(h) = a_i h, \quad h \in H$$

for  $h_1, h_2 \in H$

$$\varphi(h_1) = \varphi(h_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow a_i h_1 = a_i h_2$$

$$\Rightarrow h_1 = h_2$$

$\Rightarrow \varphi$  is one-one

Also for each  $a_i h \in a_i H \exists h \in H$

so  $\varphi$  is onto

hence the number of elements in  $H$  and  $a_i H$   
 is the same for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$

As  $H$  has  $m$  elements, each  $a_i H$  has  $m$  elements.

so from (iii) we have

$$n = m + m + \dots + m \quad (k \text{ times})$$

$$\Rightarrow n = km$$

$$\Rightarrow k \mid n \quad \text{and} \quad m \mid n$$

i.e. order and index of subgroup divides  
 order of group.

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## # Double Cosets:-

def:- Let  $H$  and  $K$  are two subgroups of a group  $G$  then for  $a \in G$  the set

$$HaK = \{hak : h \in H, k \in K\}$$

is called coset of module  $(H, K)$ .

## # Theorem:-

Let  $H$  and  $K$  are two subgroup of a group  $G$ . then the collection of all double cosets defines a partition in  $G$ .

Proof:-

Let  $HaK$  be a collection of all double coset of  $H$  and  $K$  in  $G$

we have to prove

$$G = U(HaK) \quad \text{and} \quad HaK \cap HbK = \emptyset$$

Since each  $HaK \subseteq G$

$$\Rightarrow U(HaK) \subseteq G \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

if  $a \in G$  then  $ae \in HaK$

$$\text{i.e. } a \in HaK$$

$$\Rightarrow G \subseteq U(HaK) \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

From (i) and (ii)

$$G = U(HaK)$$

Now consider  $HaK$  and  $HbK$  are two distinct double cosets

$$\text{let } x \in (HaK) \cap (HbK)$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in HaK \quad \text{and} \quad x \in HbK$$

$$\therefore x = hak \quad \text{and} \quad x = h_1 b k_1$$

$$\Rightarrow hak = h_1 b k_1$$

$$\Rightarrow ak = h^{-1} h_1 b k_1$$

$$\Rightarrow a = h^{-1} h_1 b k_1 k^{-1}$$

if  $y \in HaK$

then  $y = h_2 a k_2$

$$= h_2 (h_1^{-1} h_1 b k_1 k_1^{-1}) k_2$$

$$= h_2 h_1^{-1} h_1 b k_1 k_1^{-1} k_2 \in HbK$$

$$\Rightarrow y \in HbK$$

$$\Rightarrow HaK \subseteq HbK$$

Similarly, we can get

$$HbK \subseteq HaK$$

$$\Rightarrow HaK = HbK$$

which is contradiction as  $HaK$  and  $HbK$  are distinct.

hence  $HaK \cap HbK = \emptyset$

The proof is complete.

### # Normalizer

def:- let  $X$  be a subset of a group  $G$  then the set  $N_G(X) = \{a : a \in G, aX = Xa\}$

is called Normalizer of  $X$  in  $G$ .

here  $aX = Xa$  means, for  $x \in X$ , there is  $x' \in X$  such that  $ax = x'a$

### # Theorem:

The normalizer  $N_G(X)$  of a subset  $X$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .

Proof:-

let  $a, b \in N_G(X)$

then  $aX = Xa$  and  $bX = Xb$

$$\because bX = Xb$$

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

$$\Rightarrow b(Xb^{-1}) = X(bb^{-1})$$

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

$$\Rightarrow xb^{-1} = b^{-1}x$$

$$\Rightarrow b^{-1} \in N_G(x).$$

$$\text{Now } ab^{-1}(x) = a(b^{-1}x)$$

$$= a(xb^{-1}) \quad \because b^{-1} \in N_G(x)$$

$$= (ax)(b^{-1})$$

$$= (xa)b^{-1} \quad \because a \in N_G(x)$$

$$= x(ab^{-1})$$

$$\Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in N_G(x)$$

hence  $N_G(x)$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .

# Corollary:-

If  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$  then  $H \subseteq N_G(H)$ .

Proof:-

Let  $h \in H$

then  $hH = H = Hh \quad \because aH = H \Leftrightarrow a \in H$

i.e.  $hH = Hh$

$\Rightarrow h \in N_G(H)$

so  $H \subseteq N_G(H)$

Note.

The above corollary can also be state as

"Normalizer of a subgroup contains that subgroup."

Also converse of above corollary may not true.

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## # Centralizer

def:- Let  $X$  be a subset of a group  $G$  and  $\forall x \in X$ , then the set

$$C_G(X) = \{a : a \in G \wedge ax = xa\}$$

is called centralizer of  $X$  in  $G$ .

# Centre of  $G$ 

def:- The centralizer of  $G$  in  $G$  is called centre of  $G$ .

## # Theorem:-

✓ The centralizer of  $X$  in  $G$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .

Proof:-

Let  $a, b \in C_G(X)$

then by definition,  $\forall x \in X$

$$ax = xa \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

$$bx = xb \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

From (ii)

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

$$\Rightarrow b(xb^{-1}) = x(bb^{-1})$$

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

$$\Rightarrow xb^{-1} = b^{-1}x \quad \text{--- (iii)}$$

Hence

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

$$= a(xb^{-1}) \quad \text{by (iii)}$$

$$= (ax)b^{-1}$$

$$= (xa)b^{-1} \quad \text{by (i)}$$

$$= x(ab^{-1})$$

$$\Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in C_G(X)$$

hence  $C_G(X)$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .

### ✓ # Conjugate or Transform in a group:-

def:- Let  $a \in G$ , then an element  $gag^{-1}$ ,  $g \in G$  is called conjugate of  $a$ .

or for  $a, b \in G$ ,  $b$  is conjugate of  $a$  if  $b = gag^{-1}$ ,  $g \in G$ .

### # Theorem:

-: The relation of conjugacy between element of group  $G$  is equivalence relation.

Proof:-

We denote the conjugacy relation of element by  $R$  or  $\sim$ .

i) ~~Reflex~~ Reflexive

$$\because a = eae^{-1}, e \in G \Rightarrow a \sim a.$$

ii) Symmetric.

Let  $a \sim b$

$$\Rightarrow b = gag^{-1}, g \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow gag^{-1} = b$$

$$\Rightarrow ag^{-1} = g^{-1}b$$

$$\Rightarrow a = g^{-1}bg$$

$$\Rightarrow a = g^{-1}b(g^{-1})^{-1} \quad \text{where } g^{-1} \in G.$$

$$\Rightarrow b \sim a \Rightarrow \sim \text{ is symmetric.}$$

iii) Transitive

Let  $a \sim b$  &  $b \sim c$

$$\Rightarrow b = g_1 a g_1^{-1} \quad \& \quad c = g_2 b g_2^{-1} \quad \text{for } g_1, g_2 \in G.$$

Since

$$c = g_2 b g_2^{-1}$$

$$= g_2 (g_1 a g_1^{-1}) g_2^{-1}$$

$$= (g_2 g_1) a (g_1^{-1} g_2^{-1})$$

$$= (g_2 g_1) a (g_2 g_1)^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow a \sim c$$

hence  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation.

Question ✓

$G$  is a group such that

$$G = \langle a, b : a^4 = b^2 = (ab)^2 = 1 \rangle$$

and subset i)  $X = \{1, a^2\}$  ii)  $X = \{1, a, a^2, a^3\}$

Find centralizer of  $X$ .

Solution:-

$$i) G = \langle a, b : a^4 = b^2 = (ab)^2 = 1 \rangle$$

$$= \{1, a, a^2, a^3, b, a^2b, a^3b\}$$

$$\because a^4 = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow a^{-1} = a^3$$

$$\& (ab)^2 = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow (ab)(ab) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow ab = b^{-1}a^{-1}$$

$$= ba^3$$

$$b^2 = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow b^{-1} = b$$

$$\& (ab)^2 = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow (ab)(ab) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow a(ba)b = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow ba = a^{-1}b^{-1}$$

$$= a^3b$$

$C_G(x)$  contains those elements of  $G$  which commute with every element of  $X$ .

For  $a$

$$a \cdot 1 = a = 1 \cdot a$$

$$a \cdot a^2 = a^3 = a^2 \cdot a$$

For  $a^2$

$$a^2 \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot a^2$$

$$a^2 \cdot a^2 = a^4 = 1 = a^2 \cdot a^2$$

For  $a^3$

$$a^3 \cdot 1 = a^3 = 1 \cdot a^3$$

$$a^3 \cdot a^2 = a^5 = a^2 \cdot a^3$$

For  $b$

$$b \cdot 1 = b = 1 \cdot b$$

$$b \cdot a^2 = (ba) \cdot a = (a^3b)a = a^3(ba)$$

$$= a^3(a^3b) = a^6b = a^4 \cdot (a^2b) = a^2b$$

For  $ab$

$$(ab) \cdot 1 = ab = 1 \cdot (ab)$$



$$(ab) \cdot a^2 = (ba^3) \cdot a^2 = ba^5 = (ba) \cdot a^4 = ba \\ = a^3b = a^2(ab)$$

For  $a^3b$

$$a^3b \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot a^3b$$

$$(a^3b) \cdot a^2 = (ba) \cdot a^2 = ba^3 = ab$$

$$\& a^2 \cdot (a^3b) = a^5b = a^4(ab) = ab$$

$$\Rightarrow (a^3b) \cdot a^2 = a^2 \cdot (a^3b)$$

For  $a^2b$

$$(a^2b) \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot (a^2b)$$

$$(a^2b) \cdot a^2 = a(ab)a^2 = a(ba^3)a^2$$

$$= a(ba) = a(a^3b) = a^4b = a^2 \cdot (a^2b)$$

As all element of  $G$  commute with element of  $X$  therefore  $C_G(X) = G$ .

$$ii) \quad X = \{1, a, a^2, a^3\}$$

$ba \neq ab$  so  $b$  does not commute with  $a$ .

$$a^2(ab) = a^3b \neq ba^3$$

$$\therefore C_G(X) = \{1, a, a^2, a^3\} = X$$

# Exercise:

Find the center of  $D_8$

$$D_8 = \langle a, b : a^4 = b^2 = (ab)^2 = e \rangle$$

$$\text{Ans: } C_G(G) = \{e, a^2\}$$

# Exercise:

Find  ~~$N_G(x)$~~   $N_G(x)$  if  $G = D_8$

$$\text{and i) } x = \{1, a^2\}, \quad \text{ii) } x = \{1, a, a^2, a^3\}$$

$$\text{Ans: i) } G$$

$$\text{ii) } \{1, a, a^2, a^3\}$$

## # Remarks ✓

$$\bullet \text{ Let } b = ga\bar{g}^{-1} \Rightarrow a = \bar{g}^{-1}b(\bar{g}^{-1})^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow b^m = (ga\bar{g}^{-1})^m = ga^m\bar{g}^{-1} \text{ and } a^m = \bar{g}^{-1}b^m(\bar{g}^{-1})^{-1}$$

$$\text{i.e. } a^m = e \text{ iff } b^m = e$$

i.e. order of  $a$  &  $b$  is same.

$$\bullet \text{ If } X = \{x\} = \text{singleton set}$$

$$\text{then } C_G(X) = N_G(X).$$

## # Self-Conjugate:

∴ An element  $a \in G$  is called self-conjugate if for  $g \in G$ ,  $a = ga\bar{g}^{-1}$  i.e.  $ga\bar{g}^{-1} = a$   
 self-conjugate elements also called central elements.

## # Corollary ✓

∴ An element  $x$  in a group  $G$  is self-conjugate iff  $x \in C_G(G)$ .

Proof:-

Let  $x$  is self-conjugate then there is  $g \in G$  such that  $x = ga\bar{g}^{-1} = g x \bar{g}^{-1}$

$$\Rightarrow xg = gx$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in C_G(G).$$

Conversely,

$$\text{Let } x \in C_G(G)$$

$$\text{then } xg = gx$$

$$\Rightarrow x = g^{-1}xg$$

$$\Rightarrow x \text{ is self-conjugate.}$$

## ✓ # Conjugacy Class

def:- Let  $a \in G$  then the subset of all element of  $G$  conjugate to  $a$  is called conjugacy class. i.e.  $C_a = \{b : b \in G, b = ga\bar{g}^{-1}, g \in G\}$ .

### # Theorem

∴ The number of elements in a conjugacy class  $C_a$  of an element  $a \in G$  is equal to the index of its normalizer in  $G$ , and hence divides the order of  $G$ .

Proof.

Let  $G$  be a group and  $a \in G$ . Let  $C_a$  be the conjugacy class of  $G$  containing  $a$ . Let  $N$  be a normalizer of  $\{a\}$  in  $G$  i.e.  $N_G(\{a\}) = N$ .

Let  $A$  be the collection of all right cosets of normalizer.

then we have to prove that number of elements in  $A$  is equal to number of elements in  $C_a$ .

Define a mapping

$$\varphi: A \rightarrow C_a \text{ by } \varphi(Ng) = g^{-1}ag, \quad g \in G.$$

i)  $\varphi$  is well define

$$\text{Let } Ng_1 = Ng_2 \quad \text{where } g_1, g_2 \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow N = Ng_2g_1^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow g_2g_1^{-1} \in N$$

$$g_2g_1^{-1} = n \text{ (say } n \in N)$$

$$\text{Now } g_2^{-1}ag_2 = (ng_1^{-1})a(ng_1) \quad \therefore g_2 = ng_1$$

$$= (g_1^{-1}n^{-1})a(ng_1)$$

$$= g_1^{-1}(n^{-1}an)g_1$$

$$= g_1^{-1}ag_1$$

$$\therefore n^{-1}an = a$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(Ng_2) = \varphi(Ng_1)$$

∴  $\varphi$  is well defined.

ii)  $\varphi$  is onto as to every  $g^{-1}ag \in C_a$ , we have right coset  $Ng$ .

iii)  $\varphi$  is one-one

$$\varphi(Ng_1) = \varphi(Ng_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{g}_1^{-1} a g_1 = \bar{g}_2^{-1} a g_2$$

$$\Rightarrow g_2 (\bar{g}_1^{-1} a g_1) \bar{g}_2^{-1} = a$$

$$\Rightarrow (g_2 \bar{g}_1^{-1}) a (g_1 \bar{g}_2^{-1}) = a$$

$$\Rightarrow (g_2 \bar{g}_1^{-1})^{-1} a (g_1 \bar{g}_2^{-1}) = a$$

$$\Rightarrow g_1 \bar{g}_2^{-1} \in N$$

$$\Rightarrow g_1 \in Ng_2 \quad \text{but } g_1 \in Ng_1$$

$$\Rightarrow Ng_1 \subseteq Ng_2$$

Similarly

$$Ng_2 \subseteq Ng_1$$

$$\Rightarrow Ng_1 = Ng_2 \quad \text{so } \varphi \text{ is one-one.}$$

$\Rightarrow \varphi$  is bijective

i.e. no. of elements in  $A =$  no. of elements in  $C_a$

$\Rightarrow$  no. of elements in  $C_a$  is equal to the no. of right cosets of normalizer of  $\{a\}$ .

and since by Lagrange's theorem index (no. of right cosets) divides order of the group  $G$ .

Review:

• let  $a \in G$ , then the subset of all element of  $G$  conjugate to  $a$  is called conjugacy class

$$\text{i.e. } C_a = \{b : b \in G, b = g a g^{-1}, g \in G\}$$

• If  $X = \{a\}$  then

$$N_G(X) = C_G(X)$$

i.e. Normalizer of  $X$  in  $G =$  Centralizer of  $X$  in  $G$ .

## # Class Equation

def:- Let  $G$  be a finite group of order  $n$ , then the number of conjugacy classes will also be finite. Let  $C_1, C_2, C_3, \dots, C_r$  be the all conjugacy classes with  $m_1, m_2, m_3, \dots, m_r$  number of elements respectively.

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{then } n = |C_1| + |C_2| + \dots + |C_r| \\ \text{i.e. } n = m_1 + m_2 + \dots + m_r \end{array} \right\} \text{--- (i)}$$

where each  $m_i$  divides  $n$ .

then equation (i) is called class equation.

## # P-Group

def:- Let  $G$  be a group of order  $p^n$ , where  $p$  is a prime number then  $p$  divides  $|G| = p^n$ .

If order of every element  $a \in G$  is also a power of that prime number  $p$ .

then  $G$  is called  $p$ -group.

## # Theorem:

-: The centre of  $p$ -group is non-trivial.

Proof:

Let  $G$  be a  $p$ -group of order  $p^n$  and its class equation

$$p^n = m_1 + m_2 + \dots + m_r$$

where each  $m_i$  divides  $p^n$ .

Since each  $m_i$  divides  $p^n$  so it must be of the form  $p^{\alpha_i}$ .

$$\text{i.e. } p^{\alpha_1}, p^{\alpha_2}, \dots, p^{\alpha_r}$$

Let one of them say  $m_i$  is one due to conjugacy class of identity element.

Also conjugacy classes of self-conjugate element contain only that element i.e.  $a$  is self-conjugate then  $C_a = \{a\}$ .

but if  $b \in C_a$

$$\text{then } b = gag^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow bg = ga$$

$$\Rightarrow bg = ag \quad \because a \text{ is self-conjugate}$$

$$\Rightarrow b = a$$

Let such classes of the above two types be  $K$ .  
Without loss of generality these are

$$m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k$$

Now

$$p^n = m_1 + m_2 + \dots + m_k + m_{k+1} + m_{k+2} + \dots + m_r$$

$$= 1 + 1 + \dots + 1 + m_{k+1} + m_{k+2} + \dots + m_r$$

$$= k + p^{\alpha_{k+1}} + p^{\alpha_{k+2}} + \dots + p^{\alpha_r}$$

$$\Rightarrow k = p^n - (p^{\alpha_{k+1}} + p^{\alpha_{k+2}} + \dots + p^{\alpha_r})$$

$$= p^n - \sum_{i=k+1}^r p^{\alpha_i}$$

Now

$$p \mid p^n \text{ and } p \mid p^{\alpha_i} \text{ for each } i = k+1, k+2, \dots, r$$

$$\Rightarrow p \mid p^n - \sum_{i=k+1}^r p^{\alpha_i}$$

$$\text{i.e. } p \mid k$$

$\Rightarrow$  centre of  $p$ -group is non-trivial.

### # Alternative Statements:

• Every group of <sup>order</sup>  $p^n$  has non-trivial centre.

• Every finite  $p$ -group has non-trivial centre.

## # Conjugate Subgroup

def:- Let  $H$  be a subgroup of a group  $G$ .  
Define a set

$$K = gHg^{-1} = \{ghg^{-1} : h \in H\} \quad \text{for some } g \in G.$$

## # Theorem

∴ If  $H$  is a subgroup of a group  $G$  and  $K$  is conjugate to  $H$ , then  $K$  is also subgroup of  $G$ .

Proof:-

$$K = gHg^{-1} = \{ghg^{-1} : h \in H\}$$

Let  $a, b \in K$

then  $a = gh_1g^{-1}$ ,  $b = gh_2g^{-1}$  where  $h_1, h_2 \in H$ .

Now

$$\begin{aligned} ab^{-1} &= (gh_1g^{-1})(gh_2g^{-1})^{-1} \\ &= (gh_1g^{-1})(gh_2^{-1}g^{-1}) \\ &= gh_1(g^{-1}g)h_2^{-1}g^{-1} \\ &= gh_1eh_2^{-1}g^{-1} \\ &= gh_1h_2^{-1}g^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

∵  $h_1, h_2 \in H$  and  $H$  is subgroup

∴  $h_1h_2^{-1} \in H$  &  $h_1h_2^{-1} = h_3$  (say)

$$\Rightarrow ab^{-1} = gh_3g^{-1}$$

$\Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in K \Rightarrow K$  is subgroup

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## # Theorem

$\therefore$  Let  $G$  be a group of finite order  $n$  then order of a subgroup  $H$  and that of its conjugate  $K$  is same.

OR

Conjugate subgroups  $H$  and  $K$  are isomorphism.  
Proof:-

Let  $H$  and  $K$  are two subgroups where  $K$  is conjugate to  $H$  by  $g$ .

$$K = gHg^{-1} = \{ ghg^{-1} : h \in H \}$$

Define a mapping

$$\varphi : H \rightarrow K \text{ by } \varphi(h) = k$$

i) then  $\varphi$  is onto

$\therefore k \in K$  is image of  $h \in H$  as  $k = ghg^{-1}$

ii)  $\varphi$  is one-one

$$\varphi(h_1) = \varphi(h_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow k_1 = k_2$$

$$\Rightarrow gh_1g^{-1} = gh_2g^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow h_1 = h_2$$

$\Rightarrow \varphi$  is bijective mapping.

So no. of element in  $H$  and  $K$  are equal.

To prove  $\varphi(h_1h_2) = \varphi(h_1)\varphi(h_2)$  i.e. homomorphism

$$\varphi(h_1h_2) = gh_1h_2g^{-1}$$

$$= (gh_1)(h_2g^{-1})$$

$$= (gh_1)g^{-1}g(h_2g^{-1})$$

$$= (gh_1g^{-1})(gh_2g^{-1})$$

$$= \varphi(h_1)\varphi(h_2)$$

$\Rightarrow \varphi$  is homomorphism

$\therefore \varphi$  is bijective

$\therefore H$  and  $K$  are isomorphism.



## # Theorem

$\therefore$   $H$  and  $K$  are finite subgroups of a group  $G$ . then each double coset  $HaK$  contains  $\frac{mn}{q}$  number of elements.

where  $O(H) = m$ ,  $O(K) = n$  and  $O(Q) = q$  with  $Q = H \cap aK\bar{a}'$ .

Proof:

$\therefore$   $H$  and  $K$  are finite subgroup of  $G$  so number of elements in  $HaK$  is also finite

Let  $HaK = \{g_1, g_2, \dots, g_r\} = \bigcup_{i=1}^r \{g_i\}$ ,  $r < n$ .

then

$$HaK\bar{a}' = \bigcup_{i=1}^r \{g_i\bar{a}'\}$$

$\therefore HaK \subseteq G$

then each  $g_i\bar{a}'$  is distinct

but for  $i \neq j$  if  $g_i\bar{a}' = g_j\bar{a}'$   
 $\rightarrow g_i = g_j$

Define mapping

$\phi: HaK \rightarrow HaK\bar{a}'$

by  $\phi(hak) = hak\bar{a}'$

$$\Rightarrow |HaK| = |HaK\bar{a}'| \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

Also let  $aK\bar{a}' = K'$  then

number of elements in  $K'$ , being conjugate to  $K$ , is  $n$ .

Now

$$|HaK\bar{a}'| = |HK'|$$

$$= \frac{|H| \cdot |K'|}{|H \cap K'|}$$

$$= \frac{m \cdot n}{|Q|}$$

$$= \frac{mn}{q} \quad \text{where } |H \cap K'| = |Q| \text{ (say)}$$

$$= \frac{mn}{q} \quad \text{--- (ii) } |Q| = q \text{ (say)}$$

where  $Q = H \cap K' = H \cap aK\bar{a}'$ .

By (i) and (ii)

$$|HaK| = \frac{mn}{q} \quad \text{proved}$$

## # Theorem

$\therefore$  Let  $H$  and  $K$  ~~are~~ <sup>be</sup> subgroups of a group  $G$ ,  $HaK$  is a double coset and  $Q = H \cap aK\bar{a}$  then there is one-one correspondence between the left coset of  $K$  in  $HaK$  and the left coset of  $Q$  in  $H$ .

Proof.

Let  $A$  be the collection of all left cosets  $haK$  of  $K$  in  $HaK$  and  $B$  be the collection of all left cosets  $hQ$  of  $Q$

Define a mapping  $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$  as follows:

For each  $haK \in A$  we have a left coset  $hQ$  of  $Q$  in  $H$

$$\text{i.e. } \varphi(haK) = hQ$$

then  $\varphi$  is well define

$$\text{As } haK = h'aK$$

$$\Rightarrow haK = h'aK \quad \text{for } k, k' \in K$$

$$\Rightarrow h^{-1}h = a k' k^{-1} a^{-1} \in aK\bar{a} \quad \text{as } k'k^{-1} \in K$$

$$\Rightarrow h^{-1}h \in Q$$

$$\Rightarrow h \in h'Q \quad \text{but } h \in hQ$$

$$\Rightarrow hQ \subseteq h'Q$$

Similarly we can show

$$h'Q \subseteq hQ \Rightarrow hQ = h'Q$$

$$\text{i.e. } \varphi(haK) = \varphi(h'aK)$$

so  $\varphi$  is well define.

$\varphi$  is one one as

$$\varphi(haK) = \varphi(h'aK)$$

$$\Rightarrow hQ = h'Q$$

$$\Rightarrow h^{-1}hQ = Q$$

$$\Rightarrow h^{-1}h \in Q$$

So

$$h^{-1}h = a k \bar{a}$$

$$\Rightarrow ha = h'a k \in h'aK$$

\* Also  $ha = h'ae \in haK$

$\Rightarrow haK$  and  $h'aK$  are not disjoint

$$\Rightarrow haK = h'aK$$

Also  $\varphi$  is onto obviously

So there is one-one correspondence between

$\therefore Q = H \cap aK\bar{a}$  element of  $A$  and  $B$

\*

## # Normal Subgroup ✓

def: - Let  $H$  be a subgroup of a group  $G$ .

If  $a^{-1}Ha = H$  for  $a \in G$ ,

or  $a^{-1}ha \in H$  for  $h \in H, a \in G$ ,

then  $H$  is called normal subgroup.

and we write  $H \triangleleft G$ .

Note:

If  $a^{-1}ha \in H$  then  $a^{-1}ha = h_1 \Rightarrow ha = ah_1$ .

## # Theorem

Let  $G$  and  $H$  are two groups and  $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$  is a homomorphism. Then  $\ker \varphi$  is a normal subgroup of  $G$ .

Proof:

Let  $a, b \in \ker \varphi$

$\Rightarrow \varphi(a) = I_H$  and  $\varphi(b) = I_H$

To prove  $\ker \varphi$  is a subgroup, we show that  $ab^{-1} \in \ker \varphi$ .

$$\varphi(ab^{-1}) = \varphi(a) \cdot \varphi(b^{-1}) \quad \because \varphi \text{ is homomorphism}$$

$$= I_H \cdot (\varphi(b))^{-1} \quad \because \varphi(a) = I_H$$

$$= I_H \cdot (I_H)^{-1}$$

$$= I_H$$

$\Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in \ker \varphi$

Let  $k \in \ker \varphi$

to prove  $gk\bar{g}^{-1} \in \ker \varphi, g \in G$ .

$$\varphi(gk\bar{g}^{-1}) = \varphi(g) \cdot \varphi(k) \cdot \varphi(\bar{g}^{-1}) \quad \because \varphi \text{ is homomorphism}$$

$$= \varphi(g) \cdot I_H \cdot \varphi(\bar{g}^{-1})$$

$$= \varphi(g) \cdot \varphi(\bar{g}^{-1})$$

$$= \varphi(g\bar{g}^{-1})$$

$$= \varphi(e) = I_H$$

$\Rightarrow gk\bar{g}^{-1} \in \ker \varphi$

$\Rightarrow \ker \varphi$  is normal subgroup.

## # Theorem

$\therefore$  If  $H$  and  $K$  are normal subgroup of  $G$  with  $HNK = \{e\}$ . Show that every element of  $H$  commute with every element of  $K$ .

Proof:

Let  $h \in H$  and  $k \in K$

then we have to prove  $hk = kh$ .

For this we consider the element  $hkh^{-1}k^{-1}$

As  $H$  is normal subgroup of  $G$ .

$\Rightarrow kh^{-1}k^{-1} \in H$  for  $h^{-1} \in H, k \in K \subseteq G$ .

$\Rightarrow h(kh^{-1}k^{-1}) \in H$  by closure law as  $h \in H$ .

or  $hkh^{-1}k^{-1} \in H$ .

Also  $K$  is normal subgroup of  $G$ ,

$\Rightarrow hkh^{-1} \in K$  for  $k \in K, h \in H \subseteq G$ .

$\Rightarrow (hkh^{-1})k^{-1} \in K$  by closure law as  $k^{-1} \in K$

$\Rightarrow hkh^{-1}k^{-1} \in K$

$\therefore hkh^{-1}k^{-1} \in H$  and  $hkh^{-1}k^{-1} \in K$

$\therefore hkh^{-1}k^{-1} \in HNK = \{e\}$

$\Rightarrow hkh^{-1}k^{-1} = e$

$\Rightarrow hk = kh$

proved

✓

## # Corollary

$\therefore$  Let  $G$  be an abelian group then each subgroup of  $G$  is normal in  $G$ .

Proof:

Let  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .

$\therefore G$  is abelian  $\therefore ab = ba \quad \forall a, b \in G$

$\Rightarrow ah = ha \quad \forall h \in H$  and  $a \in G$

$\Rightarrow h = a^{-1}ha \in H$

hence  $H$  is normal in  $G$ .

## # Theorem

Let  $H$  be a subgroup of a group  $G$ .  
then following are equivalent.

- i)  $H$  is normal subgroup of  $G$ .
- ii)  $gHg^{-1} = H$  for each  $g \in G$ .
- iii)  $gH = Hg$ .

Proof:

$$(i) \Rightarrow (ii)$$

Let  $H$  is normal subgroup of  $G$ .

then  $gHg^{-1} \in H$ ,  $g \in G$

$$\Rightarrow gHg^{-1} \subseteq H \quad \text{--- (A)}$$

If  $h \in H$

$$h = (g\bar{g}^{-1})h(g\bar{g}^{-1})$$

$$= g(\bar{g}^{-1}hg)\bar{g}^{-1}$$

$$= gh'\bar{g}^{-1} \in gHg^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow H \subseteq gHg^{-1} \quad \text{--- (B)}$$

From (A) and (B)

$$gHg^{-1} = H$$

Now (ii)  $\Rightarrow$  (iii)

$$\text{i.e. } gHg^{-1} = H$$

$$\Rightarrow gh\bar{g}^{-1} = h', \quad h, h' \in H$$

$$\text{or } h = \bar{g}^{-1}h'g$$

For  $gh \in gH$

$$gh = g(\bar{g}^{-1}h'g)$$

$$= (g\bar{g}^{-1})h'g = eh'g$$

$$= h'g \in Hg$$

$$\Rightarrow gH \subseteq Hg \quad \text{--- (C)}$$

Likewise  $Hg \subseteq gH \Rightarrow gH = Hg$ .

$$(ii) \Rightarrow (i)$$

$$gH = Hg$$

$$\Rightarrow gh = h'g \quad \text{for } h, h' \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow ghg^{-1} = h' \in H$$

$\Rightarrow H$  is normal subgroup of group  $G$ .

### # Theorem

$\therefore$  Every subgroup of index two is a normal subgroup.  
OR Let  $G$  be a group and  $H$  a subgroup of index two then  $H \triangleleft G$ .

Proof:

Let  $H$  be a subgroup of index two  
i.e.  $H$  has two distinct right (or left) coset in  $G$ .

One of the two right coset is  $H = He$  and the other one is  $Ha$ .

then  $a \notin H \therefore$  if  $a \in H$  then  $Ha = H$ .

Similarly one left coset is  $H (= eH)$  and the other left coset is  $aH$ .

By Lagrange's theorem all right (or left) coset define a partition

$$\text{i.e. } G = H \cup Ha = H \cup aH$$

$$\text{and } H \cap Ha = aH \cap H = \emptyset$$

$$\Rightarrow aH = Ha$$

i.e. each left coset is equal to right coset

$$\Rightarrow ah = ah' \quad \text{for } h, h' \in H \text{ and } a \in G.$$

$$\Rightarrow ah\bar{a}' = h' \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow ah\bar{a}' \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow H \triangleleft G$$

## # Factor or Quotient Group.

Let  $H$  be a normal subgroup of a group  $G$ . Consider a collection of all right cosets  $Ha$  of  $H$  in  $G$ .

$$\text{i.e. } Q = G/H = \{Ha : a \in G\}$$

is called the quotient group of  $G$  by  $H$ .

We define multiplication in  $Q$  by

for  $Ha, Hb \in Q$

$$Ha \cdot Hb = Hab.$$

This multiplication is well define

for  $h_1a \in Ha$ ,  $h_2b \in Hb$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} h_1a h_2b &= h_1(a h_2) b \\ &= h_1(h_3 a) b \\ &= (h_1 h_3)(ab) \\ &= h_4 ab \end{aligned}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \because H \trianglelefteq G \\ aH = Ha \\ \Rightarrow ah_2 = h_3a, h_2, h_3 \in H \\ h_4 = h_1 h_3 \text{ (say)} \in H \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\Rightarrow Ha \cdot Hb = Hab$$

Also  $Q$  is group.

$\because$  i)  $Q$  is closed as  $Ha \cdot Hb = Hab \in Q$ .

ii)  $Q$  is associative

$$\begin{aligned} Ha \cdot (Hb \cdot Hc) &= Ha \cdot Hbc \\ &= Ha(bc) = H(ab)c \\ &= Hab \cdot Hc = (Ha \cdot Hb) \cdot Hc \end{aligned}$$

iii)  $H$  is identity of  $Q$ .

$$\because Ha \cdot H = Ha \cdot He = Hae = Ha$$

$$\text{and } H \cdot Ha = He \cdot Ha = Hea = Ha$$

iv) for  $a \in G$   $\exists \bar{a}' \in G$

$$\text{such that } Ha \cdot H\bar{a}' = Ha\bar{a}' = He = H$$

$$\text{also } H\bar{a}' \cdot Ha = H\bar{a}'a = He = H$$

$\Rightarrow Q$  contain inverse of each right coset

$$\therefore Q = G/H = \{Ha : a \in G\}$$

is a quotient group.

## # Theorem

Let  $H$  be a normal subgroup of  $G$  and  $\phi: G \rightarrow G/H$  is a mapping given by  $\phi(a) = Ha \quad \forall a \in G$ .

then  $\phi$  is epimorphism (homomorphism + onto) and  $\ker \phi = H$ .

Proof.

$\because \phi: G \rightarrow G/H$  is defined as

$$\phi(a) = Ha, \quad a \in G$$

i)  $\phi$  is well defined as

$$a = b, \quad a, b \in G$$

$$Ha = Hb$$

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

ii)  $\phi$  is onto as

$Ha \in G/H$  is an image of  $a \in G$  under  $\phi$ .

iii)  $\phi$  is homomorphism

$$\phi(a) \cdot \phi(b) = Ha \cdot Hb$$

$$= Hab$$

$$= \phi(ab)$$

i.e.  $\phi(ab) = \phi(a) \cdot \phi(b) \Rightarrow \phi$  is homomorphism.

$\Rightarrow \phi$  is epimorphism as it is onto & homomorphism.

To prove  $\ker \phi = H$

Let  $a \in H \subseteq G$

$$\phi(a) = Ha$$

$$= H$$

$\because$  when  $a \in H$

then  $Ha = H$

= identity of Quotient group

$$\Rightarrow a \in \ker \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow H \subseteq \ker \phi \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

Conversely, Let  $a \in \ker \phi$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(a) = H$$

$$\Rightarrow Ha = H$$

$$\Rightarrow a \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow \ker \phi \subseteq H \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

From (i) and (ii)

$$\ker \phi = H \quad \text{proved}$$



## # 1st Isomorphism theorem

∴ Let  $\varphi: G \rightarrow G'$  be an epimorphism then the quotient group  $G/K$  is isomorphic to  $G' = \varphi(G)$  and  $K$  is  $\ker \varphi$ .

Proof:

$$\varphi: G \rightarrow G'$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(g) = g' \quad \text{for } g \in G, g' \in G'$$

Define a mapping  $\psi$  such that

$$\psi: G/K \rightarrow G' \quad \text{defined by}$$

$$\psi(gK) = g' = \varphi(g)$$

then  $\psi$  is well define

∵  $\varphi$  is onto  
for each  $g' \in G'$   
 $\exists g \in G$  such  
that  $g' = \varphi(g)$

$$\text{for } g, g_1 \in G \Rightarrow gK, g_1K \in G/K$$

$$\text{if } gK = g_1K$$

$$\Rightarrow K = \bar{g}^{-1}g_1K$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{g}^{-1}g_1 \in K$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(\bar{g}^{-1}g_1) = e'$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(\bar{g}^{-1}) \cdot \varphi(g_1) = e' \quad \because \varphi \text{ is homomorphism}$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(g) \cdot \varphi(\bar{g}^{-1}) \cdot \varphi(g_1) = \varphi(g) \cdot e'$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(g\bar{g}^{-1}) \cdot \varphi(g_1) = \varphi(g)$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(e) \cdot g'_1 = g'$$

$$\Rightarrow e' \cdot g'_1 = g'$$

$$\Rightarrow \psi(g_1K) = \psi(gK)$$

$$\Rightarrow \psi \text{ is well define.}$$

ii) For  $g' \in G'$

$$g' = \varphi(g) \quad \text{and} \quad \varphi(g) = \psi(gK)$$

$$\Rightarrow g' = \varphi(g) = \psi(gK)$$

i.e every element  $g' \in G'$  is an image of  $gK \in G/K$

$$\Rightarrow \psi \text{ is onto.}$$

iii)  $\psi$  is one-one

$$\text{As } \psi(gK) = \psi(g_1K)$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(g) = \phi(g_1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(g^{-1}) \cdot \phi(g) = \phi(g^{-1}) \cdot \phi(g_1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(g^{-1}g) = \phi(g^{-1}g_1) \quad \because \phi \text{ is homomorphism}$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(e) = \phi(g^{-1}g_1)$$

$$\Rightarrow e' = \phi(g^{-1}g_1) \quad \text{where } \phi(e) = e'$$

$$\Rightarrow g^{-1}g_1 \in K$$

$$\Rightarrow g_1 \in gK \quad \text{also } g_1 \in g_1K$$

$$\Rightarrow gK = g_1K$$

$$\Rightarrow \psi \text{ is one-one}$$

iv) To prove  $\psi$  is homomorphism

for  $gK, g_1K \in G/K$

$$\psi(gK \cdot g_1K) = \psi(gg_1K)$$

$$= \phi(gg_1)$$

$$= \phi(g) \cdot \phi(g_1) \quad \because \phi \text{ is homomorphism}$$

$$= \psi(gK) \cdot \psi(g_1K)$$

$\Rightarrow \psi$  is homomorphism

hence  $G/K \cong \phi(G)$  or  $G/K \cong G'$

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## # Theorem

Let  $\varphi: G \rightarrow G'$  be epimorphism then a subgroup  $H'$  of  $G'$  is normal in  $G'$  if, and only if, inverse image  $H = \varphi^{-1}(H') = \{h : h \in H, \varphi(h) = h', h' \in H'\}$  is normal in  $G$ .

Proof.

Let  $H'$  be normal subgroup of  $G'$   
and  $H = \varphi^{-1}(H') = \{h : \varphi(h) = h' \in H'\}$

Let  $h \in H, g \in G$ , to prove  $ghg^{-1} \in H$

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(ghg^{-1}) &= \varphi(g) \cdot \varphi(h) \cdot \varphi(g^{-1}) \quad \because \varphi \text{ is homo.} \\ &= \varphi(g) \cdot \varphi(h) \cdot (\varphi(g))^{-1} \in H' \quad \because H' \text{ is normal}\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(ghg^{-1}) \in H'$$

$$\Rightarrow ghg^{-1} \in \varphi^{-1}(H') = H \quad \because \varphi \text{ is onto}$$

$$\Rightarrow H \text{ is normal subgroup of } G.$$

Conversely, Let  $H$  is normal subgroup of  $G$ .

For  $h' \in H', g' \in G'$  consider the element  $g'h'g'^{-1}$

Let  $g'$  and  $h'$  are image of  $g \in G, h \in H$

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow g'h'g'^{-1} &= \varphi(g) \cdot \varphi(h) \cdot \varphi(g^{-1}) \\ &= \varphi(ghg^{-1}) \quad \because \varphi \text{ is homomorphism}\end{aligned}$$

$$\because H \trianglelefteq G \Rightarrow ghg^{-1} \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(ghg^{-1}) \in H'$$

$$\text{i.e. } g'h'g'^{-1} \in H'$$

$$\Rightarrow H' \trianglelefteq G'$$

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## # 2nd Isomorphism Theorem

∴ Let  $G$  be a group,  $H$  a subgroup and  $K$  a normal subgroup of  $G$  then

i)  $HNK$  is normal subgroup of  $H$ .

ii)  $HK$  is subgroup of  $G$ .

iii)  $H/HNK \cong HK/K$

Proof.

i) To prove  $HNK$  is a normal subgroup

Let  $x \in HNK$

⇒  $x \in H$  and  $x \in K$ .

∵  $K$  is normal subgroup

∴  $hxh^{-1} \in K$  for  $h \in H \subseteq G$ .

also  $hxh^{-1} \in H$  ∵  $h, x \in H$  and  $H$  is subgroup.

⇒  $hxh^{-1} \in HNK$

⇒  $HNK$  is normal subgroup

ii) To prove  $HK$  is a subgroup

Let  $x_1, x_2 \in HK$

then  $x_1 = h_1 k_1$ ,  $x_2 = h_2 k_2$  for  $h_1, h_2 \in H$ ,  $k_1, k_2 \in K$

Now

$$x_1 x_2^{-1} = (h_1 k_1) (h_2 k_2)^{-1}$$

$$= (h_1 k_1) (k_2^{-1} h_2^{-1}) = h_1 (k_1 k_2^{-1}) h_2^{-1}$$

$$= h_1 k_3 h_2^{-1} \quad \text{where } k_1 k_2^{-1} \in K$$

$$\Rightarrow k_1 k_2^{-1} = k_3 \text{ (say)}$$

$$= h_1 (h_2^{-1} h_2) k_3 h_2^{-1}$$

$$= (h_1 h_2^{-1}) (h_2 k_3 h_2^{-1}) \in HK$$

because  $h_1 h_2^{-1} \in H$  and  $h_2 k_3 h_2^{-1} \in K$  as  $K$  is normal

⇒  $HK$  is subgroup of  $G$ .

iii) To prove  $H/HNK \cong HK/K$

Define a mapping

$$\varphi: H \rightarrow HK/K$$

$$\text{by } \varphi(h) = hK \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

then  $\varphi$  is obviously well define and onto

Now

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(h_1 h_2) &= h_1 h_2 K \\ &= (h_1 K)(h_2 K) && \text{by multiplication} \\ &= \varphi(h_1) \cdot \varphi(h_2) && \text{in quotient group.}\end{aligned}$$

i.e  $\varphi$  is homomorphism

$\Rightarrow \varphi$  is epimorphism as it is onto & homomorphism

By 1st isomorphism theorem

$$H / \text{Ker } \varphi \cong \varphi(H)$$

$$\text{i.e } H / \text{Ker } \varphi \cong HK / K$$

Now to prove  $\text{Ker } \varphi = H \cap K$

Let  $h \in \text{Ker } \varphi$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(h) = K$$

$$\Rightarrow hK = K \quad \text{by (i)}$$

$$\Rightarrow h \in K \quad \text{also } h \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow h \in H \cap K$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Ker } \varphi \subseteq H \cap K \quad \text{(ii)}$$

Now let  $x \in H \cap K$

$$\Rightarrow x \in H \quad \text{and } x \in K$$

$$\therefore \varphi(x) = xK \quad \text{by (i)}$$

$$= K \quad \therefore x \in K$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(x) = K \quad (\text{identity of quotient group})$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in \text{Ker } \varphi$$

$$\Rightarrow H \cap K \subseteq \text{Ker } \varphi \quad \text{(iii)}$$

From (ii) and (iii)

$$\text{Ker } \varphi = H \cap K$$

$$\therefore H / \text{Ker } \varphi \cong HK / K$$

$$\Rightarrow H / H \cap K \cong HK / K$$

Q.E.D.

## # 3rd Isomorphism Theorem

$\therefore$  Let  $H$  and  $K$  are two normal subgroups of  $G$  with  $H \subseteq K$  then

$$(G/H) / (K/H) \cong G/K$$

Proof.

Since  $H \trianglelefteq G$  and  $H \subseteq K$

$$\Rightarrow H \trianglelefteq K$$

To see  $K/H$  is normal in  $G/H$ .

for  $kH \in K/H$  and  $gH \in G/H$

$$\begin{aligned} (gH)kH(gH)^{-1} &= (gH)(kH)(g^{-1}H) \\ &= (gkH)(g^{-1}H) \\ &= gkg^{-1}H \quad \text{by multiplication of} \\ &\quad \text{quotient group.} \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore K \trianglelefteq G \therefore gkg^{-1} \in K$$

$$\text{so } gkg^{-1}H \in K/H$$

$$\Rightarrow K/H \trianglelefteq G/H$$

Define a mapping  $\phi: G/H \rightarrow G/K$

$$\text{by } \phi(gH) = gK$$

then  $\phi$  is clearly onto

Also

$$\phi(g_1H \cdot g_2H) = \phi(g_1g_2H)$$

$$= g_1g_2K$$

$$= g_1K \cdot g_2K$$

$$= \phi(g_1H) \cdot \phi(g_2H)$$

$\Rightarrow \phi$  is homomorphism.

$\therefore \phi$  is epimorphism as it is onto and homomorphism.

by 1st isomorphism theorem

$$(G/H) / \text{Ker } \phi \cong G/K$$

if  $\phi: G \rightarrow G'$  is epimorphism then

$$G / \text{Ker } \phi \cong G'$$

To prove  $\ker \phi = K/H$

Let  $gH \in \ker \phi$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(gH) = K \text{ (identity of quotient group)}$$

Also

$$\phi(gH) = gK$$

$$\Rightarrow gK = K$$

$$\Rightarrow g \in K$$

$$\Rightarrow gH \in K/H$$

$$\Rightarrow \ker \phi \subseteq K/H \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

Now let  $kH \in K/H$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{then } \phi(kH) &= kK \\ &= K \text{ (identity)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow kH \in \ker \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow K/H \subseteq \ker \phi \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

From (i) and (ii)

$$\ker \phi = K/H$$

$$\therefore (G/H) /_{\ker \phi} \cong G/K$$

$$\Rightarrow (G/H) /_{(K/H)} \cong G/K$$

proved

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## # Endomorphism:-

def:- Let  $G$  be a group and  $\alpha: G \rightarrow G$  be homomorphism from  $G$  into  $G$  then  $\alpha$  is called endomorphism of  $G$ .

The set of endomorphism of  $G$  is usually denoted as  $\text{End}(G)$  or  $E(G)$ .

## # Automorphism:-

def:- Let  $G$  be a group and  $\alpha: G \rightarrow G$  be homomorphism, if the mapping  $\alpha$  is bijective then  $\alpha$  is called automorphism.

i.e  $\alpha: G \rightarrow G$  is automorphism if

i)  $\alpha$  is homomorphism

ii)  $\alpha$  is bijective.

The set of all automorphism of  $G$  is usually denoted by  $A(G)$  or  $\text{Aut}(G)$ .

## # Remarks:

It can be easily seen that  $\text{Aut}(G) \subseteq \text{End}(G)$ .

## # Theorem:

The set  $A(G)$  or  $\text{aut}(G)$  of all automorphism of  $G$  is a group. (under the composition of mappings)

Proof:

i) ~~The~~ Let  $\alpha, \beta \in A(G)$ , then since  $\alpha, \beta$  are bijective mappings, so their product (composition)  $\alpha\beta$  is also bijective mapping.

and for  $g_1, g_2 \in G$

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha\beta(g_1, g_2) &= \alpha(\beta(g_1, g_2)) \\ &= \alpha(\beta(g_1) \cdot \beta(g_2)) \quad \because \beta \text{ is homo.} \\ &= \alpha(\beta(g_1)) \cdot \alpha(\beta(g_2)) \quad \because \alpha \text{ is homo.} \\ &= \alpha\beta(g_1) \cdot \alpha\beta(g_2) \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow \alpha\beta$  is homomorphism  $\Rightarrow \alpha\beta \in A(G)$ .



ii) Since mappings are associative in general therefore associative property holds in  $A(G)$ .

iii) Define  $I: G \rightarrow G$  by

$$I(g) = g \quad \forall g \in G$$

then

$$I(g_1 g_2) = g_1 g_2 = I(g_1) \cdot I(g_2)$$

$\Rightarrow I$  is homomorphism.

$$\text{Also } \alpha I(g) = \alpha \circ I(g) = \alpha(I(g)) = \alpha(g)$$

$$\text{i.e. } \alpha I = \alpha$$

Similarly  $I\alpha = \alpha$

$\Rightarrow I$  is identity of  $A(G)$ .

iv) To prove for  $\alpha \in A(G) \exists \alpha^{-1} \in A(G)$

$\because \alpha: G \rightarrow G$  is bijective

$\therefore \alpha^{-1}: G \rightarrow G$  is also bijective.

$$\alpha^{-1}(g_1 g_2) = \alpha^{-1}(I(g_1 g_2))$$

$$= \alpha^{-1}(I(g_1) \cdot I(g_2))$$

$$= \alpha^{-1}(\alpha \alpha^{-1}(g_1) \cdot \alpha \alpha^{-1}(g_2))$$

$$= \alpha^{-1} \alpha (\alpha^{-1}(g_1) \cdot \alpha^{-1}(g_2))$$

$$= I(\alpha^{-1}(g_1) \cdot \alpha^{-1}(g_2))$$

$$= \alpha^{-1}(g_1) \cdot \alpha^{-1}(g_2)$$

$\Rightarrow \alpha^{-1}$  is homomorphism  $\Rightarrow \alpha^{-1} \in A(G)$ .

i.e. for each mapping in  $A(G)$  there exist inverse mapping in  $A(G)$ .

$\Rightarrow A(G)$  is a group.

# Lemma: (Conjugation as an automorphism)

-: Let  $G$  be a group,  $a \in G$ , define a mapping  $\varphi_a : G \rightarrow G$  by

$$\varphi_a(g) = a^{-1}ga$$

then  $\varphi_a$  is automorphism

Proof.

i)  $\varphi$  is onto.

for  $g \in G$ ,  $a \in G$  we have  $aga^{-1} \in G$   
then  $g$  is image of  $aga^{-1}$  under  $\varphi$

$$\begin{aligned} \because \varphi_a(aga^{-1}) &= a^{-1}(aga^{-1})a \\ &= (a^{-1}a)g(a^{-1}a) \\ &= g \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow \varphi$  is onto.

ii)  $\varphi$  is one-one

$$\because \varphi_a(g_1) = \varphi_a(g_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow a^{-1}g_1a = a^{-1}g_2a$$

$$\Rightarrow g_1 = g_2$$

iii)  $\varphi$  is homomorphism

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_a(g_1g_2) &= \varphi_a(a^{-1}g_1g_2a) \\ &= a^{-1}g_1(a^{-1}g_2a) \\ &= (a^{-1}g_1a)(a^{-1}g_2a) \\ &= \varphi_a(g_1) \cdot \varphi_a(g_2) \end{aligned}$$

hence  $\varphi_a$  is automorphism

## # Inner and Outer automorphism

defn- The set  $I(G)$  or  $\text{Inn}(G)$  of all mapping of the type  $\varphi_a = ag\bar{a}^{-1}$  is called inner automorphism of  $G$ .

and the set which is not containing inner automorphism is called outer automorphism.

## # Theorem

$\therefore$  The set  $I(G)$  of all inner automorphism of a group  $G$  is a normal subgroup of  $A(G)$ .

Proof

Let  $\varphi_a, \varphi_b \in I(G)$

then  $\varphi_a = ag\bar{a}^{-1}$ ,  $\varphi_b = bg\bar{b}^{-1}$

Now

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi_b \cdot \varphi_b^{-1}(g) &= \varphi_b(\bar{b}^{-1}g(\bar{b}^{-1})^{-1}) \\ &= \varphi_b(\bar{b}^{-1}gb) \\ &= b(\bar{b}^{-1}gb)\bar{b}^{-1} \\ &= (b\bar{b}^{-1})g(b\bar{b}^{-1}) \\ &= ege^{-1} \\ &= \varphi_e\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi_b^{-1} = (\varphi_b)^{-1}$$

Now let  $x = \varphi_a$ ,  $y = \varphi_b$

$$x\bar{y}^{-1} = \varphi_a(\varphi_b)^{-1}(g)$$

$$= \varphi_a\varphi_b^{-1}(g) = \varphi_a(\bar{b}^{-1}gb)$$

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

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

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

$$= \varphi_{a\bar{b}^{-1}} \in I(G)$$

$\Rightarrow I(G)$  is a subgroup.

Let  $\phi_a \in I(G)$ ,  $\alpha \in A(G)$

Now

$$\begin{aligned}
 \alpha \phi_a \alpha^{-1}(g) &= \alpha \phi_a(\alpha^{-1}(g)) \\
 &= \alpha(a(\alpha^{-1}(g))a^{-1}) \\
 &= \alpha(a) \cdot \alpha(\alpha^{-1}(g)) \cdot \alpha(a^{-1}) \quad \because \alpha \text{ is homo.} \\
 &= \alpha(a) \cdot g \cdot (\alpha(a))^{-1} \quad \because \alpha \text{ is bijective} \\
 &= \phi_{\alpha(a)} \in I(G)
 \end{aligned}$$

i.e.  $\alpha \phi_a \alpha^{-1} \in I(G)$

hence  $I(G) \trianglelefteq A(G)$

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## # Theorem

Let  $G$  be a group with  $C(G)$  as its centre and  $I(G)$  the group of inner automorphism then  $G/C(G)$  is isomorphic to  $I(G)$ .

Proof:

Consider a mapping  $\psi : G \rightarrow I(G)$  defined by

$$\psi(a) = \varphi_a \quad \text{where } a \in G, \varphi_a \in I(G)$$

i) then  $\psi$  is well defined

$$\text{if } a = b \Rightarrow a^{-1} = b^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow ag = bg$$

$$\Rightarrow aga^{-1} = bgb^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi_a = \varphi_b$$

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

ii)  $\psi$  is clearly onto

as every  $\varphi_a \in I(G)$  is an image of  $a \in G$ .

iii)  $\psi$  is homomorphism as

$$\psi(ab) = \varphi_{ab}$$

$$= (ab)g(ab)^{-1}$$

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

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

$$= a(\varphi_b)a^{-1}$$

$$= \varphi_a(\varphi_b) = \varphi_a \circ \varphi_b \quad (\text{composite fn.})$$

$$= \varphi_a \cdot \varphi_b$$

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

$\Rightarrow \psi$  is epimorphism as it is homomorphism and onto.

Now By first isomorphism theorem

$$G/\ker \psi \cong I(G)$$

$\therefore$  if  $\psi : G \rightarrow G'$  is epimorphism then

$$G/\ker \psi \cong G'$$

To prove  $\ker \psi = C(G)$ .

$$\text{Let } \ker \psi = \{a : a \in G \wedge \psi(a) = \varphi_e\}$$

$$= \{a : a \in G \wedge \varphi_a = \varphi_e\}$$

$$= \{a : a \in G \wedge aga^{-1} = ege^{-1}\}$$

$$= \{a : a \in G \wedge aga^{-1} = g\}$$

$$= \{a : a \in G \wedge ag = ga\}$$

$$= C(G)$$

$$\Rightarrow G/C(G) \cong I(G)$$

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## # Theorem:

$\Rightarrow \varphi: G \rightarrow G$  by  $\varphi(x) = x^{-1}$  then  $\varphi$  is automorphism iff  $G$  is abelian.

Proof:

Let  $G$  be abelian

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(g_1 g_2) &= (g_1 g_2)^{-1} \\ &= g_2^{-1} g_1^{-1} \\ &= g_1^{-1} g_2^{-1} \quad \because G \text{ is abelian} \\ &= \varphi(g_1) \cdot \varphi(g_2) \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow \varphi$  is homomorphism

$\varphi$  is onto because each  $g \in G$  we have:

$$\varphi(g^{-1}) = (g^{-1})^{-1} = g$$

$\varphi$  is one-one

$$\varphi(g_1) = \varphi(g_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow g_1^{-1} = g_2^{-1} \Rightarrow g_1 = g_2$$

$\Rightarrow \varphi$  is automorphism.

Conversely, let  $\varphi$  is automorphism

i.e.  $\varphi$  is homomorphism

$$\varphi(g_1 g_2) = \varphi(g_1) \cdot \varphi(g_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow (g_1 g_2)^{-1} = g_1^{-1} g_2^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow g_2^{-1} g_1^{-1} = g_1^{-1} g_2^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow g_1 g_2 = g_2 g_1$$

$\Rightarrow G$  is abelian

## # Commutator of a group

def:- Let  $G$  be a group and  $a, b \in G$   
 then the element  $x = ab\bar{a}b^{-1}$  is called ~~com~~  
 commutator of  $G$ , and we write  $[a, b] = ab\bar{a}b^{-1}$ .

## # Theorem:

-: The following commutator results hold in  $G$ .

For  $a, b \in G$

$$i) [b, a] = [a, b]^{-1}$$

$$ii) [ab, c] = [b, c]^a [a, c]$$

$$= a [b, c] \bar{a}^{-1} [a, c]$$

$$[b, c]^a = a [b, c] \bar{a}^{-1}$$

$$iii) [a, bc] = [a, b] [a, c]^b$$

$$iv) [a, b^{-1}] = [b, a]^{b^{-1}}, \quad [a^{-1}, b] = [b, a]^{a^{-1}}$$

Proof

$$[a, b] [b, a] = (ab\bar{a}b^{-1})(ba\bar{b}a^{-1})$$

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

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

$$= a(bb^{-1})a^{-1}$$

$$= aa^{-1} = e$$

i.e.  $[b, a]$  is inverse of  $[a, b]$

$$\Rightarrow [a, b]^{-1} = [b, a]$$

$$ii) [ab, c] = (ab)c(ab)^{-1}c^{-1}$$

$$= abc\bar{b}\bar{a}^{-1}c^{-1}$$

$$= abc\bar{b}c^{-1}e\bar{a}^{-1}c^{-1}$$

$$= abc\bar{b}c^{-1}\bar{a}^{-1}ac\bar{a}^{-1}c^{-1}$$

$$= a(bc\bar{b}c^{-1})\bar{a}^{-1}(ac\bar{a}^{-1}c^{-1})$$

$$= [b, c]^a [a, c]$$

proved

$$iii) [a, bc] = a(bc)\bar{a}^{-1}(bc)^{-1}$$

$$= ab\bar{c}\bar{a}^{-1}c^{-1}b^{-1}$$

$$= ab\bar{a}^{-1}ac\bar{a}^{-1}c^{-1}b^{-1}$$

$$= ab\bar{a}^{-1}b^{-1}bac\bar{a}^{-1}c^{-1}b^{-1}$$



$$\begin{aligned}
 &= (a b \bar{a}' b^{-1}) b (a c \bar{a}' c^{-1}) b^{-1} \\
 &= [a, b] [a, c]^b \quad \text{proved.}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{(iv) } [a, b^{-1}] &= a b^{-1} \bar{a}' (b^{-1})^{-1} \\
 &= a b^{-1} \bar{a}' b \\
 &= b^{-1} b a b^{-1} \bar{a}' b \\
 &= b^{-1} (b a b^{-1} \bar{a}') b \\
 &= b^{-1} (b a b^{-1} \bar{a}') (b^{-1})^{-1} \\
 &= [b, a]^{b^{-1}} \quad \text{proved}
 \end{aligned}$$

And

$$\begin{aligned}
 [a^{-1}, b] &= \bar{a}' b (\bar{a}')^{-1} b^{-1} \\
 &= \bar{a}' b \bar{a}' b^{-1} \\
 &= \bar{a}' b a b^{-1} \bar{a}' a \\
 &= \bar{a}' (b a b^{-1} \bar{a}') a \\
 &= \bar{a}' (b a b^{-1} \bar{a}') (\bar{a}')^{-1} \\
 &= [b, a]^{\bar{a}'} \quad \text{proved}
 \end{aligned}$$

# Derive Group or Commutative subgroup.

def: Let  $G$  be a group and  $G'$  be a subgroup of  $G$ . If  $G'$  is generated by a set of commutators then  $G'$  is called derived group.

$$G' = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$$

Note: Product of two commutators may not be a commutator.

# Theorem:-

$\therefore$  Let  $G$  be a group then

- i) the derived group  $G'$  is a normal subgroup of  $G$ .
- ii) The quotient group  $G/G'$  is abelian.
- iii) If  $K$  is normal subgroup of  $G$  such that  $G/K$  is abelian then  $G' \subseteq K$ .

Proof:

To prove  $G' \triangleleft G$ , ~~Let~~ Let for  $g \in G$   
 $g[a, b]g^{-1} = g(a b \bar{a}' b^{-1})g^{-1}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= g a b \bar{a}' \bar{b}' \bar{g}'^{-1} \\
 &= g a \bar{g}' g b \bar{g}' g \bar{a}' \bar{g}' g \bar{b}' \bar{g}'^{-1} \\
 &= (g a \bar{g}') (g b \bar{g}') (g \bar{a}' \bar{g}') (g \bar{b}' \bar{g}') \\
 &= (g a \bar{g}') (g b \bar{g}') (g a \bar{g}')^{-1} (g b \bar{g}')^{-1} \\
 &= a^g b^g (a^g)^{-1} (b^g)^{-1} = [a^g, b^g] \in G' \\
 \Rightarrow G' &\text{ is normal subgroup of } G.
 \end{aligned}$$

ii) Let  $aG', bG' \in G/G'$  where  $a, b \in G$

then

$$\begin{aligned}
 [aG', bG'] &= (aG')(bG')(aG')^{-1}(bG')^{-1} \\
 &= (aG')(bG')(\bar{a}'G')(\bar{b}'G') \\
 &= (a\bar{a}'b\bar{b}')G' \quad \text{by multiplication of quotient group} \\
 &= [a, b]G' \\
 &= G' \quad \because [a, b] \in G' \\
 &= \text{Identity of Quotient group}
 \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow G/G'$  is abelian

if $[a, b] = e$	$\Rightarrow a\bar{a}'b\bar{b}' = e$
	$\Rightarrow ab = ba$

iii)

Since  $aK \cdot bK (aK)^{-1} (bK)^{-1} = K \quad \because G/K$  is abelian.

$$\Rightarrow aK \cdot bK \cdot \bar{a}'K \cdot \bar{b}'K = K$$

$$\Rightarrow (a\bar{a}'b\bar{b}')K = K$$

$$\Rightarrow [a, b]K = K$$

$$\Rightarrow [a, b] \in K$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\because \text{if } aH = H \\
 &\Rightarrow a \in H
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow G' \subseteq K$$

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## # Direct Product of Groups

def:- Let  $H$  and  $K$  are two subgroups of a group  $G$ . we define the direct product of these two groups by

$$H \times K = \{ (h, k) : h \in H \wedge k \in K \}$$

under multiplication

$$(h_1, k_1) \cdot (h_2, k_2) = (h_1 h_2, k_1 k_2)$$

Note: Under multiplication  $H \times K$  is a group with identity  $(e, e')$  where  $e$  is identity of  $H$  and  $e'$  is identity of  $K$ . And inverse of  $(h, k)$  is  $(h^{-1}, k^{-1})$ .

## # Theorem

-: Let a group  $G$  be a direct product of its two normal subgroups  $H$  with  $H \cap K = \{e\}$ ,  $G = HK$  then

- i) Every element of  $H$  is permutable (commute) with every element of  $K$ .
- ii) Every element of  $G$  is uniquely expressible as  $g = hk$ .
- iii)  $G \cong H \times K$  i.e.  $HK \cong H \times K$ .

Proof:

Consider an element  $hkh^{-1}k^{-1}$

then  $kh^{-1}k^{-1} \in H \quad \because H \trianglelefteq G$

$\Rightarrow h(kh^{-1}k^{-1}) \in H \quad \because h \in H$

also  $hkh^{-1} \in K \quad \because K \trianglelefteq G$

$\Rightarrow (hkh^{-1})k^{-1} \in K \quad \because k^{-1} \in K$

i.e.  $hkh^{-1}k^{-1} \in H \cap K = \{e\}$  (given)

$\Rightarrow hkh^{-1}k^{-1} = e$

$\Rightarrow hk = kh$

$\Rightarrow$  every element of  $H$  is permutable with every element of  $K$ .

ii) Let if possible,  $g$  has two expressions

$$g = h_1 k_1 \quad \& \quad g = h_2 k_2$$

$$\text{for } h_1, h_2 \in H \rightarrow k_1, k_2 \in K$$

$$h_1 \neq h_2 \rightarrow k_1 \neq k_2$$

$$\Rightarrow h_1 k_1 = h_2 k_2$$

$$\Rightarrow h_2^{-1} h_1 = k_2 k_1^{-1} \in K \text{ and } H$$

$$\Rightarrow h_2^{-1} h_1 = k_2 k_1^{-1} \in H \cap K$$

$$\Rightarrow h_2^{-1} h_1 = e \quad \& \quad k_2 k_1^{-1} = e$$

$$\Rightarrow h_1 = h_2 \quad \& \quad k_1 = k_2$$

which is a contradiction

hence  $g = h_1 k_1$  is a unique representation.

iii) To prove  $G \cong H \times K$

Define a mapping  $\phi: G \rightarrow H \times K$

$$\text{by } \phi(g) = (h, k)$$

a) The mapping is well define as

$$\text{for } g_1 = g_2$$

$$\Rightarrow h_1 k_1 = h_2 k_2 \quad \therefore G = HK$$

$$\Rightarrow h_1 = h_2, \quad k_1 = k_2$$

$$\Rightarrow (h_1, k_1) = (h_2, k_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(g_1) = \phi(g_2)$$

b)  $\phi$  is onto as

$(h, k) \in H \times K$  is image of  $g = hk \in HK = G$

$$\therefore (h, k) \in H \times K$$

$$\Rightarrow h \in H, \quad k \in K \quad \Rightarrow hk \in HK$$

c)  $\phi$  is one-one

$$\phi(g_1) = \phi(g_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow (h_1, k_1) = (h_2, k_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow h_1 = h_2, k_1 = k_2$$

$$\Rightarrow h_1 k_1 = h_2 k_2$$

$$\Rightarrow g_1 = g_2 \quad \because g = hk$$

d) ~~is~~  $\phi$  is homomorphism

$$\phi(g_1 \cdot g_2) = \phi(h_1 k_1 \cdot h_2 k_2)$$

$$= \phi(h_1 (k_1 h_2) k_2)$$

$$= \phi(h_1 (h_2 k_1) k_2) \quad \text{by (i)}$$

$$= \phi(h_1 h_2 \cdot k_1 k_2)$$

$$= (h_1 h_2, k_1 k_2)$$

$$= (h_1, k_1) \cdot (h_2, k_2)$$

$$= \phi(h_1 k_1) \cdot \phi(h_2 k_2)$$

$$= \phi(g_1) \cdot \phi(g_2)$$

i.e.  $\phi$  is homomorphism

and hence  $\phi$  is ~~an~~ isomorphism as it is also one-one and onto.

$$\Rightarrow G \cong H \times K \quad \text{or} \quad HK \cong H \times K$$

# Note:  $G$  is abelian group if  $H = \{e\}$  is derived group.

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## # Lemma

Let  $G$  be a direct product of two subgroups  $H$  and  $K$  and  $H_1 \trianglelefteq H$  then prove that  $H_1 \trianglelefteq G$ .

Proof

Let  $h_1 \in H_1$  and  $g \in G$

then  $g = hk$  for  $h \in H, k \in K$

Now

$$\begin{aligned}
 gh_1g^{-1} &= (hk)h_1(hk)^{-1} \\
 &= (hk)h_1(k^{-1}h^{-1}) \\
 &= h(kh_1)(k^{-1}h^{-1}) && \because h_1 \in H_1 \subseteq H \\
 &= h(h_1k)(k^{-1}h^{-1}) && \because H \text{ and } K \text{ commute} \\
 &= hh_1(kk^{-1})h^{-1} && \text{element wise.} \\
 &= hh_1k^{-1} \in H_1 && \because H \trianglelefteq H_1
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow gh_1g^{-1} \in H_1$$

$$\Rightarrow H_1 \trianglelefteq G \quad \text{proved.}$$

## ≡ Theorem

If  $G = H \times K$  then show that

$$c(G) = c(H) \times c(K)$$

where  $c(G)$ ,  $c(H)$  and  $c(K)$  denotes centre of  $G$ ,  $H$  and  $K$  respectively.

Proof.

To prove  $c(H) \times c(K) \subseteq c(G)$

Let  $x \in c(H) \times c(K)$

then  $x = z_1 z_2$  where  $z_1 \in c(H), z_2 \in c(K)$

Let  $g = hk$  for  $h \in H, k \in K, g \in G$

then

$$\begin{aligned}
 gx &= (hk)(z_1 z_2) \\
 &= h(kz_1)z_2 \\
 &= h(z_1 k)z_2
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= (hz_1)(kz_2) \\
 &= (z_1h)(z_2k) \\
 &= z_1(hz_2)k \\
 &= (z_1z_2)(hk) \\
 &= xg
 \end{aligned}$$

hence  $\Rightarrow x \in C(G)$

$$C(H) \times C(K) \subseteq C(G) \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

Now to prove  $C(G) \subseteq C(H) \times C(K)$

let  $z \in C(G)$

$$\Rightarrow gz = zg \quad \text{for } g \in G.$$

in particular

$$zh = hz, \quad zk = kz$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
 h \in H \subseteq G \\
 k \in K \subseteq G
 \end{array}$$

let  $z = h'k'$  for  $h' \in H, k' \in K$

$$\text{so } zh = (h'k')h = h'(k'h) = h'hk'$$

$$\text{and } hz = hh'k'$$

$$\therefore hz = zh$$

$$\Rightarrow hh'k' = h'hk'$$

$$\Rightarrow hh' = h'h \quad \Rightarrow h' \in C(H)$$

Similarly  $k' \in C(K)$

hence  $h'k' \in C(H) \times C(K)$

$$\Rightarrow z \in C(H) \times C(K) \quad \because z = h'k'$$

$$\Rightarrow C(G) \subseteq C(H) \times C(K) \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

from (i) and (ii)

$$C(G) = C(H) \times C(K)$$

proved

## # Theorem

$\therefore$  If  $G = H \times K$ , then the factor group  $G/K$  is isomorphic to  $H$ .

Proof:

$$G/K = \{gK = hkK = hK, h \in H\} \quad \because g = hk$$

Define a mapping

$$\varphi: G/K \rightarrow H \text{ by } \varphi(gK) = \varphi(hK) = h$$

then  $\varphi$  is well define as

$$g_1K = g_2K$$

$$\Rightarrow h_1K = h_2K$$

$$\Rightarrow h_2^{-1}h_1K = K$$

$$\Rightarrow h_2^{-1}h_1 \in K \quad \text{but also } h_2^{-1}h_1 \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow h_2^{-1}h_1 \in H \cap K = \{e\}$$

$$\Rightarrow h_2^{-1}h_1 = e \Rightarrow h_1 = h_2$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(h_1K) = \varphi(h_2K)$$

$\varphi$  is onto and one-one as

for  $h \in H$  there is a coset  $hK \in G/K$  i.e.  $\varphi(hK) = h$

and  $\varphi(h_1K) = \varphi(h_2K)$

$$\Rightarrow h_1 = h_2$$

$$\Rightarrow h_1K = h_2K$$

Now

$$\varphi(g_1K \cdot g_2K) = \varphi(h_1K \cdot h_2K)$$

$$= \varphi(h_1h_2K)$$

$$= h_1h_2$$

$$= \varphi(h_1K) \cdot \varphi(h_2K)$$

$$= \varphi(g_1K) \cdot \varphi(g_2K)$$

$\Rightarrow \varphi$  is homomorphism

therefore  $G/K \cong H$  proved



# Lemma:

$H$  and  $K$  are cyclic groups of order  $m$  and  $n$  respectively, where  $m$  and  $n$  are relatively prime then  $H \times K$  is a cyclic group.

Proof:

$$H = \langle a : a^m = e \rangle$$

$$K = \langle b : b^n = e \rangle$$

and element of  $H \times K$  is of the form  $(a, b)$

for  $(a, b)^k = (a^k, b^k) = (e, e)$  iff  $m | k, n | k$ .

As  $m, n$  are relatively prime

$$\Rightarrow mn | k$$

As no. of element in  $H \times K$  is  $mn$

also

$$\begin{aligned} (a, b)^{mn} &= (a^{mn}, b^{mn}) \\ &= ((a^m)^n, (b^n)^m) = (e, e) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{i.e. } H \times K = \langle (a, b) : (a, b)^{mn} = e \rangle$$

$\Rightarrow H \times K$  is cyclic group of order  $mn$ .

# Invariant Subgroup

def:- Let  $G$  be a group and  $\phi: G \rightarrow G$  is endomorphism then an element  $\phi(g) = g$  is called invariant element

A subgroup  $H$  of  $G$  is fully invariant if under all endomorphism  $\phi(h) \in H$  or  $\phi(H) \subseteq H$ .

# Example:

Commutator subgroup  $G'$  is fully invariant

Let  $[x, y] \in G'$

$$\begin{aligned} \phi([x, y]) &= \phi(xy\bar{x}\bar{y}) \\ &= \phi(x) \cdot \phi(y) \cdot \phi(\bar{x}) \cdot \phi(\bar{y}) \\ &= \phi(x) \cdot \phi(y) \cdot (\phi(x))^{-1} (\phi(y))^{-1} = [\phi(x), \phi(y)] \in G' \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow G'$  is fully invariant.

## # Characteristic Subgroup:

A subgroup  $H$  of  $G$  is characteristic subgroup if it remain fully invariant under all automorphism, i.e for all  $h \in H$ , for all  $\phi \in \text{Aut}(G)$

$$\phi(h) \in H \quad \text{or} \quad \phi(H) = H$$

## # Question

$\therefore$  Centre of  $G$  is characteristic subgroup of  $G$ .

Solution

$$\text{Let } x \in C(G)$$

$$\Rightarrow gx = xg \quad \forall g \in G$$

Let  $\phi: G \rightarrow G$  be an automorphism

$$\phi(gx) = \phi(xg)$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(g)\phi(x) = \phi(x)\phi(g)$$

$$\text{As } g \in G \Rightarrow \phi(g) \in G$$

$$\text{so } \phi(x) \in C(G)$$

$$\Rightarrow C(G) \text{ is characteristic}$$

## # Question

$\therefore$  Every characteristic subgroup is normal.

Solution:

Let  $H$  is a characteristic subgroup of  $G$ ,

$$\text{then } \phi(H) = H \quad \forall \phi \in \text{aut}(G)$$

In particular

$$\phi_g(H) = H \quad \because \phi_g \text{ is an inner automorphism.}$$

$$\Rightarrow gHg^{-1} = H$$

$$\Rightarrow H \text{ is normal subgroup of } G.$$

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= { The End } =

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