

Group Theory - Week 1 - Group Theory Recap: Group Properties, Subgroups and Lagrange's Theorem

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1 Groups

1.1 Definition: Groups

Consider a set G , and let \star be a **binary function**:

$$\star : G \times G \rightarrow G$$

$$(g, h) \mapsto g \star h \in G, \quad \forall g, h \in G$$

A **group** (G, \star) satisfies 3 axioms:

1. **Associativity**:

$$g \star (h \star k) = (g \star h) \star k, \quad g, h, k \in G$$

2. **Existence of Identity**:

$$\exists e \in G : e \star g = g \star e = g, \quad \forall g \in G$$

3. **Existence of Inverse**:

$$\forall g \in G, \exists h \in G : g \star h = h \star g = e$$

We write $h = g^{-1}$.

By letting \star be a function, we ensure that (G, \star) is **closed** under \star .
(Definition 1.1.1)

- What is the order of a group?

- the number of elements in G
- we denote the order via $|G|$

1.2 Definition: Abelian Group

A group (G, \star) is **abelian** if:

$$g \star h = h \star g, \quad \forall g, h \in G$$

1.3 Theorem: Group Properties

Let (G, \star) be a group. Then:

1. **Existence and Uniqueness of Group Products:** if $g, h \in G$, then there are **unique** elements k_1, k_2 such that:

$$k_1 \star g = h \quad g \star k_2 = h$$

2. **Cancellation Law:** let $g, s, t \in G$. Then:

$$g \star s = g \star t \implies s = t$$

$$s \star g = t \star g \implies s = t$$

3. **Uniqueness of Identity:** e is the only identity element. $\forall g, h \in G$ if $g \star h = h$, then $g = e$.

4. **Uniqueness of Inverse:** g^{-1} is the only inverse of $g \in G$. $\forall g, h \in G$ if $g \star h = e$, then $h = g^{-1}$.

5. **Inverse of Identity:** the inverse of the identity element is the identity element

$$e^{-1} = e$$

6. **Inverse of Inverse:** if $g \in G$, then $(g^{-1})^{-1} = g$

(Revision Exercises 1, 2 + FPM Notes)

Proof. 1. **Existence and Uniqueness of Group Products**

We prove the first statement: if $g, h \in G$, there is a **unique** $k \in G$ such that $k \star g = h$.

Define $k := hg^{-1}$. Clearly, $k \in G$. Moreover:

$$kg = (hg^{-1})g = h(g^{-1}g) = h$$

Moreover, k is unique: assume $\exists k' \in G$ such that $k'g = h$. Then:

$$k = hg^{-1} = (k'g)g^{-1} = k'(gg^{-1}) = k'$$

2. Cancellation Law

Assume $gs = gt$. By uniqueness, this is only possible if $s = t$. Alternatively:

$$gs = gt \implies g^{-1}(gs) = g^{-1}(gt) \implies s = t$$

3. Uniqueness of Identity

- (a) assume $\exists g, h$ such that:

$$gh = h$$

But since $eh = h$, it follows by cancellation law/uniqueness that $g = e$, as required.

(b) assume e' is another identity. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} e'g &= eg \\ \implies (e'g)g^{-1} &= (eg)g^{-1} \\ \implies e'(gg^{-1}) &= e(gg^{-1}) \\ \implies e' &= e \end{aligned}$$

(c) assume e' is another identity. Then we must have that:

$$ee' = e \quad ee' = e'$$

But by uniqueness of products, we must then have $e = e'$.

4. Uniqueness of Inverse

(a) follows directly from existence and uniqueness, by using g, e , and the fact that by the group axioms, $gg^{-1} = e$

(b) assume h, k are 2 inverses of g . Then:

$$gh = e \quad gk = e \implies gh = gk$$

so by cancellation/uniqueness, $k = h$

5. Inverse of Identity

Since $ee = e$ and $ee^{-1} = e$, and inverses are unique, $e = e^{-1}$

6. Inverse of Inverse

Since $g^{-1}(g^{-1})^{-1} = e$ and $g^{-1}g = e$, and inverses are unique, $g = (g^{-1})^{-1}$

□

1.4 Definition: The Product Group

*Let (G, \star_G) and (H, \star_H) be groups. The **direct product** $G \times H$ is a **product group** under operation \star , defined by:*

$$(g, h) \star (g', h') = (g \star_G g', h \star_H h')$$

(Definition 1.4.8)

1.5 Examples of Groups

1.5.1 Symmetric Group

- S_n is the symmetric group
- corresponds to the set of all **permutations** of the set $\{1, \dots, n\}$
- \star is permutation composition
- contains $n!$ elements

1.5.2 Dihedral Group

- D_n is the **dihedral groups**
- corresponds to the set of all **symmetries** of a regular n -gon
- contains $2n$ elements: n rotations and n reflections

1.5.3 Free Group

- 2 letters have a **free group** $G = \langle x, y \rangle$
- corresponds to the set of all **words** which can be generated by combining x, y, x^{-1}, y^{-1}
- \star is letter concatenation:

$$xxx^{-1}y \star y^{-1}x = xxx^{-1}yy^{-1}x = xx = x^2$$

- the identity element is the **empty word** (no letters)

1.5.4 Integers Under Addition

- $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is a group with $e = 0$
- it is a **cyclic group** generated by 1 (so every element in \mathbb{Z} can be written as a sum of 1s)
- $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$ (integers modulo n) are also a group

2 Subgroups

2.1 Definition: Subgroups

Let (G, \star) be a group. A **non-empty** subset $H \subseteq G$ is a **subgroup** if (H, \star) is a group.

In particular, H is a subgroup if its **closed** under **products** and **inverses**:

1. $hk \in H, \forall h, k \in H$

2. $h^{-1} \in H, \forall h \in H$

If H is a subgroup of G , we write:

$$H \leq G$$

(Definition 1.3.1)

Notice, the $e \in H$, since $h, h^{-1} \in H$ and there's multiplicative closure. Moreover, H will be associative, since G was. So H satisfies the properties of a group!

- **Given a finite group, how can we test for a subgroup?**
 - for **finite** subsets, it is sufficient to check that H is closed under **products**

- What is a proper subgroup?

- a subgroup H which is a proper subset of G
- we write:

$$H < G$$

2.2 Theorem: Test for Subgroup

Let G be a group, and $H \subseteq G$. H is a subgroup if and only if it is **non-empty** and:

$$hk^{-1} \in H, \quad \forall h, k \in H$$

(Revision Exercise 4)

Proof. If H is a subgroup, consider $h, k \in H$. Then, we have that $k^{-1} \in H$, and by closure, it follows that $hk^{-1} \in H$, as required.

Alternatively, let $h, k \in H$, and assume that $hk^{-1} \in H$. We need to show closure under products and inverses. Since $k \in H$, let $h = k$. Then it follows that:

$$hk^{-1} \in H \implies hh^{-1} = e \in H$$

Hence, it follows that:

$$hk^{-1} \in H \implies ek^{-1} = k^{-1} \in H$$

so H is closed under inverses.

Moreover,

$$hk^{-1} \in H \implies h(k^{-1})^{-1} = hk \in H$$

so H is closed under products. Hence, H is a subgroup. □

2.3 Examples of Subgroups

- $\{e\}$ is the **trivial subgroup** for any group G ; similarly, G is a subgroup of G
- the set of rotations of an n -gon form a subgroup of D_n
- A_n is the **alternating group**, and it's a subgroup of S_n , constructed by taking the product of an **even** number of 2-cycles
- $GL(n, F)$ is the **general linear group** over a field F , containing all the **invertible** $n \times n$ matrices. $SL(n, F)$ is the **special linear group**, the set of all invertible $n \times n$ matrices with determinant 1. $SL(n, F)$ is a subgroup of $GL(n, F)$.

2.4 Cyclic Groups

- How can we generate subgroups by using elements of groups?

- we can repeatedly apply \star to an element g with itself
- this generates a subgroup:

$$\langle g \rangle := \{g^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

known as the **subgroup generated by g**

- What is a cyclic group?

- a **group** which is generated by a **single** element $g \in G$:

$$G = \langle g \rangle$$

- What is the order of a group element?

- the **smallest positive integer** n such that:

$$g^n = e$$

(if it doesn't exist, $n = \infty$)

- denoted as $o(g)$
- we have that the order of a **cyclic subgroup** is the **order** of the subgroup's generator:

$$|\langle g \rangle| = o(g)$$

2.5 Worked Exercises

3 Cosets

3.1 Definition: Left and Right Cosets

Let $H \subseteq G$, and consider $g \in G$. Then:

- the **left coset** of H determined by g is the set:

$$gH = \{gh \mid h \in H\} \subseteq G$$

- the **right coset** of H determined by g is the set:

$$Hg = \{hg \mid h \in H\} \subseteq G$$

G/H denotes the set of all **left cosets**, whilst $H \setminus G$ denotes the set of all **right cosets**.

(Definition 1.3.6)

- What is the index of H in G , where $H \leq G$?

- the number of **left cosets** of H :

$$|G/H| = [G : H]$$

3.1.1 Worked Exercises

- (Revision Exercise 7) Let $G = S_3$ and let $H = \{e, (12)\}$. $H \leq G$. Write down the elements of G/H and $H \setminus G$. What do you notice about these sets?

3.2 Normal Subgroups

3.2.1 Definition: Normal Subgroups

Let $H \leq G$. H is a **normal subgroup** if it is **invariant under conjugation**. In other words:

$$gH = Hg, \quad \forall g \in G$$

We write $H \triangleleft G$.

3.2.2 Theorem: Equivalent Definitions for Normal Subgroups

The following are **equivalent**:

1. $H \triangleleft G$
2. $gHg^{-1} = H, \quad \forall g \in G$
3. $gHg^{-1} \subseteq H, \quad \forall g \in G$
4. $H = \bigcap_{g \in G} gHg^{-1}$
5. $H \subseteq \bigcap_{g \in G} gHg^{-1}$

Proof.

- $H \triangleleft G \iff gHg^{-1} \subseteq H$
(\implies) Let H be a normal subgroup; that is:

$$gH = Hg, \quad \forall g \in G$$

For any $g \in G$, $\exists h, k \in H$ such that:

$$gh = kg \implies ghg^{-1} = k \in H$$

That is, if $ghg^{-1} \in gHg^{-1}$ then also $ghg^{-1} \in H$, so $gHg^{-1} \subseteq H$. (Alternatively, argue that $gH = Hg \implies gHg^{-1} = H$)

(\impliedby) Assume that $gHg^{-1} \subseteq H, \forall g \in G$.

On the one hand, we have that $\exists h, k \in H$ such that:

$$ghg^{-1} = k \implies gh = kg \in Hg$$

so it follows that $gH \subseteq Hg$.

On the other hand, since $g^{-1} \in G$, $\exists h, k \in H$ such that:

$$(g^{-1})h(g^{-1})^{-1} = k \implies g^{-1}hg = k \implies hg = gk \in gH$$

so it follows that $Hg \subseteq gH$. Hence, we must have that $gH = Hg$, and H is a normal subgroup.

- $H \triangleleft G \iff gHg^{-1} = H$

$$\begin{aligned}
H \triangleleft G &\iff gH = Hg \\
&\iff (gH)g^{-1} = (Hg)g^{-1} \\
&\iff gHg^{-1} = H
\end{aligned}$$

□

3.2.3 Theorem: Another Definition for a Normal Subgroup

Let $H \leq G$, and assume that $\forall g \in G$ we have:

$$gHg^{-1} \subseteq H \quad g^{-1}Hg \subseteq H$$

then:

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

and so, $H \triangleleft G$.

Proof. Assume that $gHg^{-1} \neq H$. Then, $\exists h \in H$ such that $h \notin gHg^{-1}$. But then, observe:

$$\begin{aligned}
H &= (gg^{-1})H(gg^{-1}) \\
&= g(g^{-1}Hg)g^{-1} \\
&\subseteq gHg^{-1}
\end{aligned}$$

In other words, any element of H must be in gHg^{-1} . However, this is a contradiction, and so, no such $h \in H$ must exist. Hence, $gHg^{-1} = H$, and by the definition of a normal subgroup:

$$H \triangleleft G$$

as required.

□

4 Lagrange's Theorem

4.1 Recap: Equivalence Relations and Equivalence Classes

- What is an equivalence relation?

- consider a set X
- for $s, t \in X$, we write $s \sim t$ to say “ s is related to t ”
- \sim defines an **equivalence relation** if it's:
 - * **reflexive**: $x \sim x, \forall x \in X$
 - * **symmetric**: $x \sim y \implies y \sim x, \forall x, y \in X$
 - * **transitive**: $x \sim y, y \sim z \implies x \sim z, \quad \forall x, y, z \in X$

- What is an equivalence class?

- for some $x \in X$, its **equivalence class** is the set of all elements in X which are related to x via an **equivalence relation**:

$$cl(x) = \{y \mid x \sim y, y \in X\}$$

4.1.1 Theorem: Properties of Equivalence Classes

Consider a set X with equivalence relation \sim . Then:

$$1. cl(x) \neq \emptyset$$

2. $x \sim y, x, y \in X$ **if and only if:**

$$cl(x) = cl(y)$$

if and only if:

$$cl(x) \cap cl(y) \neq \emptyset$$

In other words, 2 equivalence classes are either the exact same, or completely disjoint.

Proof. 1. This follows from the fact that $x \in cl(x)$ by **reflexivity**

2. Assume $x \sim y$. Let $z \in cl(y)$, so that $y \sim z$. Since $x \sim y$, by transitivity it follows that $x \sim z$, so $z \in cl(x) \implies cl(y) \subseteq cl(x)$. By similar arguments, $cl(x) \subseteq cl(y)$, so:

$$cl(x) = cl(y)$$

Otherwise, if $cl(x) \neq cl(y)$, since $x \in cl(x)$ and $y \in cl(y)$, it follows that $x \in cl(y), y \in cl(x)$, so $x \sim y$.

Assume $x \sim y$. We know that $x \in cl(y)$ and $y \in cl(x)$, so in particular $x \in cl(x) \cap cl(y)$, so $cl(x) \cap cl(y) \neq \emptyset$.

Otherwise if $cl(x) \cap cl(y) = \emptyset$, then $\exists z \in cl(x) \cap cl(y)$, so $x \sim z$ and $z \sim y$. By transitivity, $x \sim y$, as required. □

4.1.2 Theorem: Equivalence Classes Partition Sets

Let X be a set with an **equivalence relation** \sim . Then, the **equivalence classes** generated by \sim **partition** X . In other words, each element of X can be put into a unique equivalence class (which is non-empty), such that the union of equivalence classes gives X .

Proof. Any 2 equivalence classes are either the same set (if they have a common representative), or completely disjoint. Moreover, each element of x belongs to at least one equivalence class ($cl(x)$). Thus:

$$X = \bigcup_{x \in X} cl(x)$$

□

4.2 Theorem: Cosets as Equivalence Classes

Let G be a group, and $H \leq G$. The relation \sim , given by:

$$g_1 \sim g_2 \iff \exists g_2 : g_1 \in g_2 H, \quad g_1, g_2 \in G$$

is an equivalence relation on G .

The equivalence classes are the cosets gH ; in other words, the cosets gH partition the group, so $\exists g_1, \dots, g_n \in G$ such that:

$$G = \bigcup_{i=1}^n g_i H$$

As a bonus, if $h \in H$, then we have that:

$$hH = H$$

Proof. We verify the properties of an equivalence relation:

1. Reflexivity

Notice, since $e \in H$, then $g \in gH$, so it follows that $g \sim g$.

2. Symmetry

Assume that $g_1 \in g_2 H$. Then, $\exists h \in H$ such that $g_1 = g_2 h$. Consider the coset $g_1 H$. We must have that:

$$g_1 H = (g_2 h) H = g_2 (h H)$$

Now, H is closed under multiplication, so clearly $hH \subseteq H$. Suppose $t \in H$. We can write:

$$t = h(h^{-1}t), \quad h^{-1}t \in H$$

Then, $t \in hH$, so $H \subseteq hH$. Thus, $hH = H$.

This shows that if $g_1 \in g_2 H$, then $g_1 H = g_2 H$, so in particular $g_2 \in g_1 H$ (as $g_2 \in g_2 H$) so $g_1 \sim g_2 \implies g_2 \sim g_1$.

3. Transitivity

Assume that $g_1 \in g_2 H$ and $g_2 \in g_3 H$. Then, $\exists h, k \in H$ such that:

$$g_1 = g_2 h \quad g_2 = g_3 k$$

So:

$$g_1 = g_2 h = (g_3 k) h = g_3 (kh) \in g_3 H$$

since $kh \in H$. Thus, $g_1 \sim g_3$, as required.

□

Notice, this then means that given 2 cosets, either:

- $g_1 H = g_2 H$
- $g_1 H \cap g_2 H = \emptyset$

4.3 Theorem: Cosets Have Same Order as Subgroup

Let $H \leq G$. Then:

$$|gH| = |H|, \quad \forall g \in G$$

Proof. Consider the map:

$$f : H \rightarrow gH$$

defined by:

$$f(h) = gh$$

It is sufficient to show that f is a bijection. It is clearly surjective from definition:

$$gH = \{gh \mid h \in H\} = \{f(h) \mid h \in H\}$$

It is also injective, by the uniqueness of group products/cancellation law:

$$f(h_1) = f(h_2) \iff gh_1 = gh_2 \iff h_1 = h_2$$

Hence, it follows that f is a bijection, and $|gH| = |H|$.

*This is known as the **canonical map**, and we will see more next week, when defining the **Isomorphism Theorems**.*

□

4.4 Theorem: Lagrange's Theorem

*Let $H \subset G$, where G is a **finite** group. Then, the **order** of H divides the **order** of G .*

More precisely:

$$|G| = |G/H||H|$$

(Theorem 1.3.8)

Proof. We showed about that the relation $g_1 \sim g_2 \iff g_1 = g_2H$ is an equivalence relation, with equivalence classes gH , the left cosets of H . These cosets partition the group:

$$G = \bigcup_{i=1}^n g_iH$$

where $g_i \in G$ are representatives of the equivalence classes.

Then, since the equivalence classes are disjoint:

$$|G| = \sum_{i=1}^n |g_iH| = \sum_{i=1}^n |H| = n|H|$$

where we have used the theorem above, whereby $|gH| = |H|, \forall g \in G$.
But here n is the number of distinct left cosets of H , which is $|G/H|$ so:

$$|G| = |G/H||H|$$

as required □

4.4.1 Remark: Differences Between Left and Right Cosets

*When developing Lagrange's Theorem, we have just used **left cosets**.
However, it is easy to verify that:*

$$g_1 \sim g_2 \iff g_1 \in Hg_2$$

*is an equivalence relation, with equivalence classes Hg - the **right cosets**.
Thus, **Lagrange's Theorem** also applies to **right cosets**:*

$$|G| = |H \setminus G||H|$$

*and this also means that if H is a **subgroup**, it has the **same** number of
left and right cosets.*

4.5 Corollaries of Lagrange's Theorem

4.5.1 Theorem: Cauchy's Theorem

*Lagrange's Theorem imposes restrictions on the possible orders of subgroups. However, it doesn't imply the **existence** of said subgroups. This changes for prime ordered subgroups.*

*If G is a **finite group** and p is **prime**, such that p divides $|G|$, then G
has a subgroup of order p .
(Theorem 1.3.9)*

The proof requires the Orbit-Stabilizer Theorem, done in FPM.

4.5.2 Corollary: Order of Group Elements

Let G be a group, and $g \in G$. Then:

1. $o(g)$ divides $|G|$
2. $g^{|G|} = e$

Proof. $\langle g \rangle$ is a subgroup of order $o(g)$, so by Lagrange's Theorem:

$$|G| = |G/\langle g \rangle| o(g)$$

This places a restriction on the order of group elements!

By the above:

$$g^{|G|} = g^{|G/\langle g \rangle| o(g)} = (g^{o(g)})^{|G/\langle g \rangle|} = e^{|G/\langle g \rangle|} = e$$

□

4.5.3 Corollary: Cyclic Group if Order is Prime

*If $|G|$ is **prime**, then G is **cyclic**.
(Corollary 1.3.11)*

Proof. Let $|G|$ be prime. By Lagrange's Theorem:

$$|G| = |G/H||H|$$

Now, consider $g \in G, g \neq e$, and in particular, the subgroup $H = \langle g \rangle$. Since $o(g)$ must divide $|G|$, $g \neq e$ and $|G|$ is prime, this is only possible if $o(g) = |G|$. Hence, $H = \langle g \rangle = G$, and G is cyclic. □

4.5.4 Corollary: Groups of Order 5 or Less Are Abelian

*Let G be a group. If $|G| < 6$, then G is **abelian**.*

4.5.5 Theorem: Fermat's Little Theorem

If p is prime, and $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, then:

$$a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$$

Proof. If $a \equiv 0$, then the result follows, so assume this is not the case.

We can think of a as an element of the group \mathbb{Z}_p^\times under the operation of multiplication modulo p , with identity $e = 1$.

This group has $p - 1$ elements, so by the corollary on the order of group elements:

$$g^{|\mathbb{Z}_p^\times|} = g^{p-1} = 1, \quad \forall g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^\times$$

Moving back to a , it follows that:

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

so multiplying through by a yields the desired result. □

4.5.6 Worked Exercises

- (Revision Exercise 13) **Provide the details for the following example.** Let $G = \mathbb{Z}_{10}^+$, and $H = \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8\}$. $H \leq G$ and in fact it is a normal subgroup. Show why. Verify that the left cosets of H are the same as the right cosets. Another coset is $1 + H$ (odd numbers mod 10). Verify that this is what Lagrange predicts. Finally, consider $K = \{0, 5\}$, which is also a normal subgroup. What are the 5 cosets of K ?

5 Group Homomorphisms

5.1 Definition: Group Homomorphisms and Endomorphisms

Let G, H be groups.

A function:

$$\phi : G \rightarrow H$$

such that

$$\phi(a \star_G b) = \phi(a) \star_H \phi(b), \quad \forall a, b \in G$$

is a **group homomorphism**.

If $\phi : G \rightarrow G$, then ϕ is a **group endomorphism**.

(Definition 1.4.1)

5.2 Definition: Group Isomorphisms and Automorphisms

Let G, H be groups.

If $\phi : G \rightarrow H$ is a **bijective group homomorphism**, then ϕ is a **group isomorphism**.

If $G = H$, so that $\phi : G \rightarrow G$, then ϕ is a **group automorphism**.

- What are isomorphic groups?

- groups whereby there is an **isomorphism** between them
- if G, H are **isomorphic**, then:

$$G \cong H$$

5.2.1 Theorem: Cyclic Groups are Isomorphic

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Any 2 **cyclic** groups of order n are **isomorphic**.

Proof. Let $G = \langle g \rangle, H = \langle h \rangle$. Consider the mapping:

$$\phi : G \rightarrow H$$

$$\phi(g^t) = h^t$$

We first verify that this is a **homomorphism**. Without loss of generality, let $s, t \in \mathbb{N}$ (group composition can involve powers of inverses, but these can be expressed with positive powers, since the group is cyclic). Then:

$$\phi(g^t g^s) = \phi(g^{t+s}) = h^{t+s} = h^t h^s = \phi(g^t) \phi(g^s)$$

So ϕ is a group homomorphism.

Moreover, it is surjective, since $\forall h^t \in H, \phi(g^t) = h^t$. Since $|G| = |H|$ and ϕ is surjective, it follows that ϕ is also injective, and so, it's a bijection, so ϕ is an isomorphism.

Thus, any 2 cyclic groups of the same order are isomorphic.

□

5.2.2 Examples of Group Isomorphisms

- (\mathbb{R}^+, \times) has an isomorphism:

$$\begin{aligned} \exp : \mathbb{R} &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \\ \exp(x + y) &= \exp(x)\exp(y) \end{aligned}$$

- the map $\phi : D_3 \rightarrow S_3$, mapping the symmetries of a triangle to the permutation of the vertices under the symmetry is an isomorphism
- if we think of \mathbb{Z}_p as a field, consider the group of **units**, \mathbb{Z}_p^\times (that is, the group of all elements in \mathbb{Z}_p with an inverse). Then, $\mathbb{Z}_p^\times \cong C_{p-1}$: that is, the group of units is a cyclic group of order $p - 1$

5.3 Theorem: Properties of Group Homomorphisms

Let $\phi : G \rightarrow H$ be a group homomorphism. Then:

1. $\phi(e_G) = e_H$
2. $\phi(g^{-1}) = \phi(g)^{-1}$
3. *If ϕ is a **group isomorphism**, then so is ϕ^{-1} .*

Proof. 1.

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(e_G) &= \phi(e_G \star_G e_G) \\ \implies \phi(e_G) &= \phi(e_G) \star_H \phi(e_G) \\ \implies (\phi(e_G))^{-1} \star_H \phi(e_G) &= (\phi(e_G))^{-1} (\phi(e_G) \star_H \phi(e_G)) \\ \implies e_H &= \phi(e_G) \end{aligned}$$

2.

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(g) \star_H \phi(g^{-1}) &= \phi(g \star_G g^{-1}) \\ &= \phi(e_G) \\ &= e_H \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(g^{-1}) \star_H \phi(g) &= \phi(g^{-1} \star_G g) \\ &= \phi(e_G) \\ &= e_H \end{aligned}$$

Since inverses are unique, and $\phi(g^{-1})$ is an inverse to $\phi(g)$, it follows that:

$$(\phi(g))^{-1} = \phi(g^{-1})$$

3. Since ϕ is an isomorphism, $\phi^{-1} : H \rightarrow G$ is a well-defined, bijective function. Now, consider:

$$h = \phi(g) \quad h' = \phi(g'), \quad g, g' \in G, h, h' \in H$$

Then:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \phi^{-1}(h \star_H h') &= \phi^{-1}(\phi(g) \star_H \phi(g')) \\
 &= \phi^{-1}(\phi(g \star_G g')) \\
 &= g \star_G g' \\
 &= \phi^{-1}(h) \star_G \phi^{-1}(h')
 \end{aligned}$$

so ϕ is a group homomorphism; since it's bijective, it's an isomorphism. □

5.3.1 Theorem: Isomorphic Prime Groups

*All groups of **prime** order are **isomorphic**.*

Proof. We showed that by Lagrange's Theorem, if G is of prime order, it is cyclic. We further showed above that all cyclic groups are isomorphic, so it follows that all groups of prime order are isomorphic. □

5.4 The Kernel of a Homomorphism

5.4.1 Definition: The Kernel

*Let $\phi : G \rightarrow H$ be a **group homomorphism**.
The **kernel** of ϕ is a **subgroup** of G , defined by:*

$$\ker(\phi) = \{g \mid \phi(g) = 0, g \in G\}$$

5.4.2 Theorem: Properties of the Kernel

Let $\phi : G \rightarrow H$ be a group homomorphism.

1. $\ker(\phi) \leq G$ (in fact, $\ker(\phi) \triangleleft G$)
2. ϕ is **injective if and only if**:

$$\ker(\phi) = \{e\}$$

Proof. 1. We first show $\ker(\phi)$ is a subgroup. We need to verify closure under product and inverse. Let $g_1, g_2 \in \ker(\phi)$. Then:

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

Thus:

$$e_H = e_H \star_H e_H = \phi(g_1) \star_H \phi(g_2) = \phi(g_1 \star_G g_2)$$

Hence, if $g_1, g_2 \in \ker(\phi)$, then $g_1 g_2 \in \ker(\phi)$.

Moreover, for $g \in \ker(\phi)$:

$$\phi(g) = e_H \implies \phi(g) = \phi(g) \star_H (\phi(g))^{-1} = \phi(g) \star_H \phi(g^{-1})$$

Hence, by the cancellation law:

$$\phi(g^{-1}) = e_H$$

so if $g \in \ker(\phi)$, $g^{-1} \in \ker(\phi)$.

Thus, it follows that $\ker(\phi) \leq G$.

Lastly, recall, a subgroup $K \subseteq G$ is a normal subgroup **if and only if**:

$$gKg^{-1} \subseteq K$$

Let $K = \ker(\phi)$. For any $g \in G, k \in K$:

$$\phi(g \star_G k \star_G g^{-1}) = \phi(g) \star_H \phi(k) \star_H \phi(g^{-1}) = \phi(g) \star_H e_H \star_H \phi(g^{-1}) = e_H$$

so it follows that $gkg^{-1} \in K$ so $gKg^{-1} \subseteq K$, and so, $\ker(\phi) \triangleleft G$.

2. (\implies) Assume that $\ker(\phi) = \{e\}$. Then, for $g_1, g_2 \in G$:

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(g_1) &= \phi(g_2) \\ \implies \phi(g_1^{-1}) \star_H \phi(g_1) &= \phi(g_1^{-1}) \star_H \phi(g_2) \\ \implies \phi(g_1^{-1} \star_G g_1) &= \phi(g_1^{-1} \star_G g_2) \\ \implies \phi(e_G) &= \phi(g_1^{-1} \star_G g_2) \\ \implies e_H &= \phi(g_1^{-1} \star_G g_2) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, it must be the case that $g_1^{-1}g_2 \in \ker(\phi)$. But by assumption, $\ker(\phi) = \{e_G\}$, so:

$$g_1^{-1}g_2 = e_G \iff g_1 = g_2$$

so it follows that ϕ is injective.

(\impliedby) Assume that ϕ is injective. Since we know that $\phi(e_G) = e_H$, it can't be the case that any other $g \in G$ maps to e_H by injectivity, so:

$$\ker(\phi) = \{e_G\}$$

as required. □

5.5 The Image of a Homomorphism

5.5.1 Definition: The Image

*Let $\phi : G \rightarrow H$ be a **group homomorphism**.
The **image** of ϕ is a **subgroup** of H , defined by:*

$$\text{im}(\phi) = \{h \mid h = \phi(g), g \in G\}$$

5.5.2 Lemma: The Image is a Subgroup

*If $\phi : G \rightarrow H$ is a **group homomorphism**, then $\text{im}(\phi) \leq H$.*

Proof. Firstly, $\text{im}(\phi)$ is non-empty, since:

$$\phi(e_G) = e_H \in H$$

We now verify closure. If $h_1, h_2 \in \text{im}(\phi)$ then:

$$\exists g_1, g_2 \in G : \phi(g_1) = h_1 \quad \phi(g_2) = h_2$$

So:

$$h_1 h_2 = \phi(g_1) \phi(g_2) = \phi(g_1 g_2)$$

so $h_1 h_2 \in \text{im}(\phi)$, so $\text{im}(\phi)$ is closed.

We now verify the existence of inverse. Let $h \in \text{im}(\phi)$, so that $\exists g \in G : \phi(g) = h$. But the homomorphism maps inverses to inverses, so:

$$\phi(g^{-1}) = h^{-1} \implies h^{-1} \in \text{im}(\phi)$$

□

5.6 Definition: The Automorphism Group

*Let G be a group.
The **set** of all **automorphisms**, $\phi : G \rightarrow G$ forms the **automorphism group** of G , written $\text{Aut}(G)$. This is a **group** under **function composition**.*

5.6.1 Worked Example: Automorphism Group of Cyclic Group of Prime Order

Consider a cyclic group $G = C_p$, where p is prime. It can be shown that:

$$\text{Aut}(G) \cong \mathbb{Z}_p^\times \cong C_{p-1}$$

We can check this when $p = 5$. We can think of G as:

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

If $\phi \in \text{Aut}(G)$, and since G only has 5 elements, we must have one of the following cases:

$$\phi(g) = e, g, g^2, g^3, g^4$$

If $\phi(g) = e$, then ϕ won't be an automorphism, since it won't be bijective (as $\phi(e) = e$ already). Hence, we have 4 remaining possibilities:

$$\phi(g) = g, g^2, g^3, g^4$$

$\phi(g) = g$ is the identity automorphism, which works. What about $\phi(g) = g^2$. Then:

- $\phi(e) = e^2 = e$
- $\phi(g) = g^2$
- $\phi(g^2) = g^4$
- $\phi(g^3) = g^6 = g$
- $\phi(g^4) = g^8 = g^3$

Hence, this defines a bijection. Similarly, we can check that $\phi_i(g) = g^i$ defines automorphisms. We have then found 4 automorphisms for G , which are the only possibilities, so $|Aut(G)| = 4$. We can now look at the structure of $Aut(G)$. For instance, how it behaves under the group action:

$$\phi_i(\phi_j(g)) = \phi_i(g^j) = (\phi_i(g))^j = (g^i)^j = g^{ij} = \phi_{ij}(g)$$

Here, ij needs to be interpreted modulo 5, so we see that $Aut(G)$ has structure similar to multiplication in the field \mathbb{Z}_5 , so indeed $Aut(G) \cong \mathbb{Z}_5^\times$ (we can't have isomorphisms from fields to groups, since fields have more structure; however, the units do form a group, with the same elements as the field).

6 Exercises for Chapter 1

1. True or False

1. *Lagrange's Theorem shows that every group of order 60 has a subgroup of order 15.*
2. *Every group of order 60 has a subgroup of order 1.*
3. *Every group of order 60 has a normal subgroup of order 60.*
4. *Lagrange's Theorem shows that no group of order 60 has a subgroup of order 24.*

2. Let H, K be subgroups of G . Show that $H \cap K$ is a subgroup of G . When is $H \cup K$ a subgroup of G ?

3. Let H, K be normal subgroups of G . Show that $H \cap K$ is a normal subgroup of G ?

4. Suppose that $H \leq G$ and $|G/H| = [G : H] = 2$. Show that $H \triangleleft G$. You may want to use properties of cosets to show that the right coset of H is H , and the left coset of H is $G \setminus H$.

5. Let G be a group, and $H \leq G$. Show that $N = \bigcap_{x \in G} xHx^{-1}$ is the largest normal subgroup of G contained in H . That is, show that:

1. $N \triangleleft G$
2. if $N' \triangleleft G$, and $N' \subseteq H$, then $N' \subseteq N$.

6. Let G be a finite group, and let H, K be subgroups of G . Suppose that $|H|, |K|$ are coprime. Show that $H \cap K = \{e\}$.

7. Let G be a group, and recall that the centre $Z(G)$ of G is the set:

$$Z(G) = \{z \mid z \in G, zg = gz \forall g \in G\}$$

If $N \leq Z(G)$, show that $N \triangleleft G$. If in addition G/N is cyclic, show that G is abelian. You may want to show that any element of G can be written as $g^a n$ for some $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n \in N$.

8. Let μ_8 be the set of eighth roots of unity in \mathbb{C}^* . What is $|\mu_8|$? Write down the elements of μ_8 as complex numbers. Show that μ_8 is a cyclic group under multiplication. Find the elements g in μ_8 , such that $\langle g \rangle = \mu_8$; that is, which elements of μ_8 can be used as cyclic generators of μ_8 ?

9. Let $w = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{3}}$, so $w^3 = 1$, and $w \neq 1$. Since:

$$a := \begin{pmatrix} w^2 & 0 \\ 0 & w \end{pmatrix} \quad b := \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

are invertible, they are in $GL(2, \mathbb{C})$. Find the orders of a and b . Calculate the conjugate bab^{-1} , and find k so that $bab^{-1} = a^k$.

10. Let $G \leq GL(2, \mathbb{C})$, where G is generated by a, b . Show that G is a finite group, and find its order. You might want to use the fact that $ba = a^k b$, alongside Lagrange's Theorem.
11. Show that G from the previous problem is not isomorphic to D^6 . You may want to consider the order of elements in the different groups.
12. Let F be a finite field with q elements. Show that $|GL(2, F)| = (q^2 - 1)(q^2 - q)$, and that:

$$|SL(2, F)| = q(q + 1)(q - 1)$$
13. Show that $Aut(G)$ is a group under the composition of functions.
14. Find $Aut(\mu_8)$.
15. Let L be a ring. Let $Aut(L)$ denote the set of ring isomorphisms of L to itself. Show that $Aut(L)$ forms a group.
16. Let K be a subfield of a field L . The set of elements of $Aut(L)$ that are equal to the identity when restricted to K is denoted by $Aut_K(L)$. Show that $Aut_K(L)$ is a subgroup of $Aut(L)$.
17. Interpret the preceding 2 problems for $\mathbb{R} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$. What is $Aut_{\mathbb{R}}(\mathbb{C})$

7 Useful Exercises & Proofs from FPM

7.1 Theorem: Cyclic Groups are Abelian

*If G is **cyclic**, then G is **abelian**.
(Exercise 2.4, FPM)*

7.2 Theorem: Abelian if Square is Identity

Let G be a group. If:

$$g^2 = e, \quad \forall g \in G$$

*then G is **abelian**.
(Exercise 1.12, FPM)*

7.3 Theorem: Product of Cyclic Groups with Coprime Order

*Let $G = C_m, H = C_n$ be **cyclic** groups of order m, n respectively.
Then, $G \times H$ is **cyclic if and only if** m and n are **coprime**.
Moreover, $C_m \times C_n \cong C_{mn}$ **if and only if** m, n are coprime.
(Theorem 2.3.16, FPM)*

7.4 Theorem: Subgroup of Cyclic Group

*If G is **cyclic**, then any subgroup $H \leq G$ is **cyclic**.
(Theorem 2.3.15)*