

at the following sets are subspace of V_3

Group Theory

Defⁿ: - (Group)

A non-empty set of elements G is said to form a group if on G there is defined a binary operation, called the product and denoted by (\cdot) , s.t

- (1) $a, b \in G \Rightarrow a \cdot b \in G$ (closure law)
- (2) $a, b, c \in G \Rightarrow a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$ (Associative law)
- (3) There exist an element $e \in G$ s.t $a \cdot e = e \cdot a = a$ for all $a \in G$ (Existence of an identity element in G)
- (4) For every $a \in G$ \exists an $a^{-1} \in G$ s.t $a \cdot a^{-1} = a^{-1} \cdot a = e$

Abelian or Commutative Group

A group G is said to be abelian group if for every $a, b \in G$, $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$

Order of a group: - The number of elements present in a group is called the order of the group. It is denoted by $o(G)$. If the order is finite. Then it is said to be finite group.

Semi-group: - A non-empty set G is said to be a semi-group under the binary operation if it satisfies the associative property.

Lemma- 2.3.1

If G is a group then

(a) The identity element of G is unique.

(b) Every $a \in G$ has a unique inverse in G .

(c) For every $a \in G$, $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$.

(d) For every $a, b \in G$, $(a \cdot b)^{-1} = b^{-1} \cdot a^{-1}$.

Proof

(a) To prove that the identity element of group G is unique.

Assume that the identity element of G is not unique.

\Rightarrow \exists at least two different identity elements

in G .
Let e and f be two different identity elements in G .

e is an identity element of G .

$$\Rightarrow a \cdot e = e \cdot a = a \quad \forall a \in G$$

In particular, for $f \in G$

$$f \cdot e = e \cdot f = f \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Again, f is an identity element of G .

$$\Rightarrow a \cdot f = f \cdot a = a \quad \forall a \in G$$

In particular, for $e \in G$

$$e \cdot f = f \cdot e = e \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\text{Now } e = f \cdot e$$

$$= f$$

$$e = f$$

This contradicts to the fact that a and b are different.

Therefore the identity element of G is unique.

Proof (b)

To prove that a has a unique inverse in G .

Assume that a has not unique inverse in G .

\Rightarrow \exists at least two different inverse elements of a .

Let x and y be two different inverse elements of a .

x is an inverse element of a

$$\Rightarrow x \cdot a = a \cdot x = e$$

Also y is an inverse element of a

$$\Rightarrow y \cdot a = a \cdot y = e$$

Now $x = x \cdot e$ (Existence of identity element in G)

$$= x \cdot (a \cdot y)$$

$$= (x \cdot a) \cdot y \quad (\text{By associative law})$$

$$= e \cdot y$$

$$= y$$

$$\Rightarrow x = y$$

This contradicts to the fact that x and y are different.

So a has a unique inverse in G .

Since a in G is arbitrary.

So, every a in G has a unique inverse in G .

Proof-(C)

To prove that $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a \quad \forall a \in G$

Let $a \in G$ be arbitrary

To show that $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$

$a \in G \Rightarrow \exists \bar{a}^{-1} \in G$ s.t

$a \cdot \bar{a}^{-1} = \bar{a}^{-1} \cdot a = e$ — (1) (existence of inverse element in G)

Now $\bar{a}^{-1} \in G \Rightarrow \exists (\bar{a}^{-1})^{-1} \in G$ s.t

$\bar{a}^{-1} (\bar{a}^{-1})^{-1} = (\bar{a}^{-1})^{-1} \cdot \bar{a}^{-1} = e$

Now

$a = a \cdot e$

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

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

by associative law

$= e \cdot (\bar{a}^{-1})^{-1}$

$= (\bar{a}^{-1})^{-1}$

existence of identity element

So $(\bar{a}^{-1})^{-1} = a$

Since $a \in G$ be arbitrary

So for every $a \in G, (\bar{a}^{-1})^{-1} = a$

So $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a \quad \forall a \in G$

Proof-d

To prove that

$(a \cdot b)^{-1} = b^{-1} \cdot a^{-1} \quad \forall a, b \in G$

Let $a, b \in G$ be arbitrary

$(a \cdot b) \cdot (b^{-1} \cdot a^{-1}) = e \quad \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Take} \\ c = a \cdot b \end{array} \right]$

$= (c \cdot b^{-1}) \cdot a^{-1}$ By associative law

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

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

$(a \cdot e) a^{-1} = a a^{-1} = e$ (existence of inverse element in G)
 $a a^{-1} = e$ (existence of identity element in G)

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

$(b^{-1} a^{-1})(a \cdot b) = e$
 $= (b^{-1} a^{-1})c$

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

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

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

$= b^{-1}(e \cdot b)$

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

$\text{So, } (ab)(b^{-1}a^{-1}) = (b^{-1}a^{-1})(a \cdot b) = e$

So $b^{-1}a^{-1}$ is the inverse of (ab)

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

Lemma - 2.3.2

Given a, b in the group G , then the equations $a \cdot x = b$ and $y \cdot a = b$ have unique solutions for x and y in G .
 In particular, the two cancellation laws

$a \cdot u = a \cdot w \Rightarrow u = w$

$u \cdot a = w \cdot a \Rightarrow u = w$

holds in G .
Proof

Given that a, b are in the group G .
 To show that the equation $a \cdot x = b$ has a unique solution.

We shall prove this by method of contradiction.

Assume that the equation $ax=b$ has not unique solⁿ.

$\Rightarrow \exists$ at least 2 different (solⁿ) of the equation $ax=b$.

Let x_1 and x_2 be 2 different solutions of the equation $ax=b$.

$$\Rightarrow a \cdot x_1 = b \text{ and } a \cdot x_2 = b$$

$$\Rightarrow ax_1 = ax_2$$

Now $x_1 = e x_1$ [existence of identity element]

$$= (a^{-1} \cdot a) x_1$$

$$= a^{-1} \cdot (a \cdot x_1)$$
 (associative law)

$$= a^{-1} \cdot (a \cdot x_2)$$
 (from ①)

$$= (a^{-1} a) x_2$$
 (associative law)

$$= e \cdot x_2$$
 (identity element)

$$\Rightarrow x_1 = x_2$$

This contradicts to the fact that x_1 and x_2 are different.

Therefore $ax=b$ has unique solution.

Next

To show that the equation $ya=b$ has a

unique solⁿ.

Assume $ya=b$ has not unique solⁿ.

\Rightarrow \exists at least two different solⁿ of $ya=b$.

let y_1 and y_2 be 2 different solⁿ of the

$$\text{eqn } ya=b$$

$$\Rightarrow y_1 a = b \text{ \& } y_2 a = b$$

$$\Rightarrow y_1 a = y_2 a$$

Now $y_1 = y_1 e$, existence of identity element

$$= y_1 (a a^{-1})$$

inverse element

$$= (y_1 a) a^{-1}$$

associative law of

$$= (y_2 a) a^{-1}$$

$$= y_2 (a a^{-1})$$

$$= y_2 \cdot e = y_2$$

This contradicts to the fact that y_1 and y_2 are different

Hence $ya=b$ has a unique solⁿ.

Again, Next to prove that

$$(i) a \cdot u = a \cdot \omega \Rightarrow u = \omega$$

$$\Rightarrow u \cdot a = (\omega \cdot a) \Rightarrow u = \omega$$

$$\text{Proof (i) } a \cdot u = a \cdot \omega$$

$$\Rightarrow a \cdot u = a \cdot \omega = b$$

$$\Rightarrow a \cdot u = b \text{ and } a \cdot \omega = b$$

$\Rightarrow u$ and ω are solⁿ of eqn. $a \cdot x = b$

$\Rightarrow u = \omega$ [\therefore The eqn $a \cdot x = b$ has a unique solⁿ]

$$(ii) u \cdot a = \omega \cdot a$$

$$\Rightarrow \omega \cdot a = u \cdot a = \omega \cdot a = b$$

$$\Rightarrow u \cdot a = b \text{ \& } \omega \cdot a = b$$

$\Rightarrow u$ and ω are solⁿ of eqn $ya=b$

the equation $ya=b$ has a unique sol

problems

Q-2 Proof

G is an abelian group

To show that $(a \cdot b)^n = a^n \cdot b^n \quad \forall a, b \in G$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

We shall prove this by method of induction

let $P_n \equiv (a \cdot b)^n = a^n \cdot b^n \quad \forall a, b \in G$

First to show that P_1 is true

i.e. to show that $(a \cdot b)^1 = a^1 \cdot b^1$

~~Assume~~

Assume P_n is true

i.e. $(a \cdot b)^n = a^n \cdot b^n$

To show that P_{n+1} is true

i.e. to show that $(a \cdot b)^{n+1} = a^{n+1} \cdot b^{n+1}$

L.H.S $(a \cdot b)^{n+1}$
 $= (a \cdot b)(a \cdot b)^n$

$= (a \cdot b)(a^n \cdot b^n)$ by assumption

$= \{ (a \cdot b) a^n \} b^n$ by associative law

$\Rightarrow a \cdot a^n \cdot b$

$= \{ a \cdot (b \cdot a^n) \} b^n$

$= \{ a \cdot (a^n \cdot b) \} b^n$

$\because G$ is abelian

$$= \{ (a \cdot a^k) (b b^k) \}$$

$$= \{ (a \cdot a^k) b \} b^k$$

$$= (a \cdot a^k) (b b^k)$$

$$= a^{k+1} \cdot b^{k+1}$$

P_{n+1} is true

Hence by method of induction P_n is true for

ve integers n .

2) Let G is a group s.t. $(a \cdot b)^2 = a^2 \cdot b^2$ for all $a, b \in G$. Show that G must be abelian.

Proof

Given that $(a \cdot b)^2 = a^2 \cdot b^2 \forall a, b \in G$.

To show that G is abelian

we have $(a \cdot b)^2 = a^2 \cdot b^2 \forall a, b \in G$

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

$$\Rightarrow \{ (a \cdot b) \cdot a \} \cdot b = a \cdot a \cdot b \cdot b \forall a, b \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow (a \cdot b) a = a \cdot a \cdot b \forall a, b \in G. \text{ (By right cancellation law for multiplication)}$$

$$\Rightarrow a \cdot (b \cdot a) = a \cdot a \cdot b \forall a, b \in G, \text{ (associative law)}$$

$$\Rightarrow b \cdot a = a \cdot b$$

$$\Rightarrow G \text{ is abelian.}$$

Proof

10. Given that every element of the group G is its own inverse.

To show that G is abelian,
i.e. to show that $a \cdot b = b \cdot a \quad \forall a, b \in G$

let $a, b \in G$ be arbitrary.

$\Rightarrow ab \in G$ (closure axiom)

So, $a = a^{-1}, b = b^{-1}$

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

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

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

$\Rightarrow ab = ba$ ($\because b^{-1} = b$ and $a^{-1} = a$)

Since $a, b \in G$ are arbitrary

So $ab = ba \quad \forall a, b \in G$

Hence G is abelian.

2.4 Subgroups

(1)

Defⁿ: - A non empty subset H of a group G is said to be a subgroup of G if H itself forms a group under the same binary operation as defined in G .

Lemma 2.4.1

A nonempty subset H of the group G is a subgroup of G if and only if

1. $a, b \in H \Rightarrow ab \in H$
2. $a \in H \Rightarrow a^{-1} \in H$

Proof

Given that H is a non-empty subset of the group G .

Also H is a subgroup of G .

To show that

1. $a, b \in H \Rightarrow ab \in H$
2. $a \in H \Rightarrow a^{-1} \in H$

We have given that H is a subgroup of G .

$\Rightarrow H$ forms a group. (By defⁿ of subgroup)

\Rightarrow All the four group axioms are satisfied in H .

- \Rightarrow 1. $a, b \in H \Rightarrow ab \in H$
and 2. $a \in H \Rightarrow a^{-1} \in H$

Conversely

Given that H is a nonempty subset of the group G .

Also $a, b \in H \Rightarrow ab \in H$ and $a \in H \Rightarrow a^{-1} \in H$.

To show that H is a subgroup of G we to prove that

(i) $a, b, c \in H \Rightarrow a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$

(ii) \exists an element $e \in H$ s.t. $a \cdot e = e \cdot a = a \forall a \in H$.

(i) $a, b, c \in H$
 $\Rightarrow a, b, c \in G$ ($\because H \subseteq G$)
 $\Rightarrow a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$ [associative axiom is satisfied in G]
 So $a, b, c \in H \Rightarrow a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$

(ii) To prove that \exists an element e in H s.t.
 $a \cdot e = e \cdot a = a \forall a \in H$

Let $a \in H$ be arbitrary
 First to show that $e \in H$
 we have $a \in H$

$\Rightarrow a^{-1} \in H$
 Now, $a \in H, a^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow a \cdot a^{-1} \in H$
 $\Rightarrow e \in H$

So $e \in H$

Now $a \in H \Rightarrow a \in G$ ($\because H \subseteq G$)
 $\Rightarrow a \cdot e = e \cdot a = a$

\exists an element e in H s.t. $a \cdot e = e \cdot a = a$, where $a \in H$

Since $a \in H$ is arbitrary

So \exists an element e in H s.t.
 $a \cdot e = e \cdot a = a \forall a \in H$

Lemma 2.4.2

\exists H is a nonempty finite subset of a group G and H is closed under multiplication, then H is a subgroup of G .

Proof

Given that H is a nonempty finite subset of a group G .

Also H is closed under multiplication.

To show that H is a subgroup of G .

i.e to prove that

$$a \in H \Rightarrow a^{-1} \in H$$

$$a \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow a \cdot a \in H \quad (\because H \text{ is closed under multiplication})$$

$$\Rightarrow a^2 \in H$$

Again $a^2 \in H, a \in H$

$$\Rightarrow a^2 \cdot a \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow a^3 \in H$$

Similarly a^4, a^5, \dots are all in H .

Thus the infinite collection of elements a, a^2, a^3, \dots must all be in H .

But H is given to be finite.

So there must be repetition in this collection of elements.

Let $a^r = a^s$ where r and s are +ve integers with $r > s$.

$$\Rightarrow a^{r-s} = e \in H \quad (\because r-s \text{ is a +ve integer, so } a^{r-s} \in H)$$

we have

r and s are +ve integers with $r > s$.

$$\Rightarrow r-s-1 \geq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow a^{r-s-1} \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow a^{r-s} \cdot a^{-1} \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow e \cdot a^{-1} \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow a^{-1} \in H$$

Hence H is a subgroup of G .

Defⁿ:- Let H be a subgroup of a group G . Let $a, b \in G$, a is congruent to b

modulo H is denoted by $a \equiv b \pmod{H}$ and is defined by $a \equiv b \pmod{H} \Leftrightarrow a b^{-1} \in H$.

Lemma-2.4.3

The relation $a \equiv b \pmod{H}$ is an equivalence relation

Proof

To prove that the relation $a \equiv b \pmod{H}$ is an equivalence relation,

we to show that

The relation $a \equiv b \pmod{H}$ is reflexive, symmetric and transitive

to prove that

(1) $a \equiv a \pmod{H}$ is reflexive

$$a \equiv b \pmod{H} \Leftrightarrow b \equiv a \pmod{H}$$

$$3. a \equiv b \pmod{H} \text{ and } b \equiv c \pmod{H} \Rightarrow a \equiv c \pmod{H}$$

1. clearly $e \in H$

$$\Rightarrow a \equiv a \pmod{H}$$

$$2. \Rightarrow a \equiv a \pmod{H}$$

(2) $a \equiv b \pmod{H}$

$$\Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in H$$

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

$$\Rightarrow (b^{-1})^{-1} \cdot (a^{-1}) \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow b \cdot a^{-1} \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow b \equiv a \pmod{H}$$

(3) $a \equiv b \pmod{H}$, and $b \equiv c \pmod{H}$

$$\Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in H \text{ and } bc^{-1} \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow (ab^{-1}) \cdot (bc^{-1}) \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow a \cdot c^{-1} \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow a \equiv c \pmod{H}$$

Hence the relation $a \equiv b \pmod{H}$ is reflexive
 Symmetric and transitive.
 So $a \equiv b \pmod{H}$ is an equivalence relation.

Defⁿ:- If H is a subgroup of a group G and $a \in G$.

$Ha = \{ha \mid h \in H\}$ Ha is called a right coset of H in G

$$aH = \{ah \mid h \in H\}$$

aH is called a left coset of H in G .

Lemma - 2.4.4

For all $a \in G$,

$$Ha = \{x \in G \mid a \equiv x \pmod{H}\}$$

Proof

To show that

$$Ha = \{x \in G \mid a \equiv x \pmod{H}\}$$

Let $[a] = \{x \in G \mid a \equiv x \pmod{H}\}$

To show that $Ha = [a]$

let $x \in Ha$

$$\Rightarrow x = ha \text{ where } h \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow x a^{-1} = (ha) a^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow x a^{-1} = h (a a^{-1})$$

$$\Rightarrow x a^{-1} = h e$$

$$\Rightarrow x a^{-1} = h$$

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

$$\Rightarrow x = a \pmod{H}$$

$$\Rightarrow a \equiv x \pmod{H}$$

associative law

existence of inverse element in G .

existence of identity element in G .

\therefore congruence modulo H is symmetric

So $x \in Ha \Rightarrow x \in [a]$ ①

Hence $Ha \subseteq [a]$

Let $x \in [a]$

$\Rightarrow a \equiv x \pmod{H}$

$\Rightarrow x \equiv a \pmod{H}$

$\Rightarrow xa^{-1} \in H$

$\Rightarrow (xa^{-1})a \in Ha$

$\Rightarrow x(a^{-1}a) \in Ha$

$\Rightarrow x \in Ha$

$\Rightarrow x \in Ha$

$\Rightarrow x \in [a]$

Hence $[a] \subseteq Ha$

$[a] \subseteq Ha$ ②

From ① and ②

$Ha = [a]$

Lemma - 2.4.5

There is a one-to-one correspondence between any two right cosets of H in G .

Proof

To prove that there is a one-to-one correspondence between any two right cosets of H in G .

Let Ha, Hb be any two right cosets of H in G .

Claim: - To prove that there is a one-to-one correspondence between Ha and Hb .

Let $f: H_a \rightarrow H_b$ be defined by (2)

$$f(h_a) = h_b \quad \forall h_a \in H_a$$

First to show that $f: H_a \rightarrow H_b$ is one-one

$$f(h_1 a) = f(h_2 a)$$

$$\Rightarrow h_1 b = h_2 b$$

$$\Rightarrow h_1 = h_2$$

$$\Rightarrow h_1 a = h_2 a$$

Hence $f(h_1 a) = f(h_2 a) \Rightarrow h_1 a = h_2 a$

Hence $f: H_a \rightarrow H_b$ is one-one.

Next to show that $f: H_a \rightarrow H_b$ is onto.

To show that for every $y \in H_b$ \exists at least

one $x \in H_a$ s.t. $y = f(x)$

Let $y \in H_b$ be arbitrary.

$$\Rightarrow y = h_b \text{ where } h \in H$$

Now $h \in H \Rightarrow h a \in H_a$

$$\Rightarrow x \in H_a \quad (\text{Taking } h a = x)$$

By defn of f ,

$$f(h a) = h b$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) = y$$

So, for $y \in H_b$, $\exists x \in H_a$ s.t. $y = f(x)$

Since $y \in H_b$ is arbitrary,

So for every $y \in H_b$

$\exists x \in H_a$ s.t. $y = f(x)$

Hence $f: H_a \rightarrow H_b$ is onto.

$\therefore f: H_a \rightarrow H_b$ is one-one and onto.

$\Rightarrow \exists$ a one-to-one correspondence between H_a and H_b .

Since Ha and Hb are any two right cosets of H in G .

So there is a one-to-one correspondence between any two right cosets of H in G .

Th - 2.4.1 (Lagrange's Th.)

If G is a finite group and H is a subgroup of G , then $|H|$ is a divisor of $|G|$.

Proof

We know that congruence mod (H) is an equivalence relation. The right cosets of H in G are equivalence classes.

An equivalence relation on G decomposes it as union of disjoint equivalence classes.

Since G is finite, the relation congruence mod (H) decomposes G as union of finite number (n) of equivalence classes.

$$\text{So } G = \bigcup_{i=1}^n H a_i$$

where $H a_i \cap H a_j = \emptyset$ for $i \neq j$.

$$\Rightarrow |G| = \left| \bigcup_{i=1}^n H a_i \right|$$

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

But \exists a 1-1 correspondence between any two right cosets of H in G and $H = H e$ is a right coset.

$$\text{Hence } |H a_i| = |H| \quad \forall i$$

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

$\therefore |H| \mid |G|$

Defⁿ:- If H is a subgroup of G , the order of H in G is the number of distinct right cosets of H in G .

Defⁿ:- If G is a group and $a \in G$, the order of a is the least positive integer n such that $a^n = e$.

Corollary: If G is a finite group and $a \in G$, then $o(a) \mid |G|$.

Proof

Given that G is a finite group and $a \in G$.

To prove that $o(a) \mid |G|$

Let H be the cyclic subgroup of G generated by a .

$$H = \{ a^i \mid i = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots \}$$

Claim: To prove that H contains exactly $o(a)$ number of elements.

First to show that H can not contain more than $o(a)$ number of elements.

we know that $a^{o(a)} = e$

$\Rightarrow H$ cannot contain more than $o(a)$ number of elements

[\because in H every term is repeated after $o(a)$ number of elements]

Next, to show that H can not contain less than $o(a)$ number of elements

if possible some elements in the collection

$$a^0 = e, a^1, a^2, \dots, a^{o(a)-1}$$

repeated.

Let $a^{\varepsilon} = a^j$, where $0 \leq \varepsilon < j < o(a)$

$$\Rightarrow a^{j-\varepsilon} = e$$

Now $0 \leq \varepsilon < j < o(a)$

$$\Rightarrow j-\varepsilon > 0 \text{ and } j-\varepsilon < o(a)$$

$\Rightarrow j-\varepsilon$ is a positive integer less than $o(a)$

So $j-\varepsilon$ is a +ve integer less than $o(a)$ and

$$a^{j-\varepsilon} = e$$

This contradicts to the fact that $o(a)$

is the least +ve integer s.t. $a^{o(a)} = e$

Hence H cannot contain $o(a)$ number of elements. Therefore H contains exactly

$o(a)$ number of elements

$$\text{So } o(H) = o(a)$$

Now H is a subgroup of a finite group G

$$\Rightarrow o(H) \mid o(G) \quad (\text{By Lagrange's Th.})$$

$$\Rightarrow o(a) \mid o(G)$$

Corollary-2

If G is a finite group and $a \in G$, then

$$a^{o(G)} = e$$

Proof

Given that G is finite group and $a \in G$

To show that $a^{o(G)} = e$

Since G is a finite group, and $a \in G$

So $o(a) \mid d(a)$
 $\Rightarrow d(a) = h \cdot o(a)$, k is an integer

Now $a^{o(a)} = a$
 $\Rightarrow a^{h \cdot o(a)} = a^k = (a^{o(a)})^h = e^h = e$

Corollary - 3 (Euler's Theorem)

Euler's ϕ function:-

Let n be a positive integer.
 If $n=1$, then $\phi(n)=1$.
 If $n>1$, then $\phi(n)$ is the number positive integers less than n and relatively prime to n .

If p is a prime number, then $\phi(p) = p-1$.

Corollary - 3 (Euler)

If n is a positive integer and a is relatively prime to n , then $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

Proof

Given that n is a positive integer and a is relatively prime to n .

To prove that $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

We know that G is the set of +ve integers less than n and relatively prime to n .
 Then G is a group under multiplication modulo n . and $o(G) = \phi(n)$.

Case-1 If $a \in G$

Now a is a +ve integer less than n and relatively prime to n .

$a \in G$
 $a^{\phi(n)} = 1$
 $a^{\phi(n)} = 1$
 $a^{\phi(n)} = 1$

$\Rightarrow a^{\phi(n)} - 1 = 0$

$\Rightarrow n \mid a^{\phi(n)} - 1$

$\Rightarrow a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

case 2. $a \in G$
 $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$
 $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

$\Rightarrow a = mn + r$

$\Rightarrow a - r = mn$

$\Rightarrow (a - r)^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$
 $\Rightarrow (a - r)^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

Now r is a +ve integer less than n
 relatively prime to n

$r^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$
 $r^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

$\Rightarrow r^{\phi(n)} - 1 = 0$

$n \mid r^{\phi(n)} - 1$
 $r^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

From (1) and (2) we get

$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

From case-1 and II. we conclude that

$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

Corollary-4 (Fermat)

If p is a prime number and a is any integer, then $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$.

Proof
 p is a prime number and a is any integer.

To prove that $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$ is \Rightarrow

Since p is a prime number

$$\text{So } \phi(p) = p-1$$

Case-1

If a is relatively prime to p
and p is a positive integer and a is relatively prime to p .

$$\Rightarrow a^{\phi(p)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \quad \text{by Euler th.}$$

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

$$\Rightarrow p \mid a^{p-1} - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow p \mid a(a^{p-1} - 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow p \mid a^p - a$$

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

Case-2

If a is not relatively prime to p . Since p is prime

So, $p \mid a$

$$\Rightarrow p \mid (a - a^{p-1})$$

$$\Rightarrow p \mid (a^p - a)$$

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

Again $p \mid a$

$$\Rightarrow p \mid (a - 0)$$

$$\Rightarrow a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

$$\Rightarrow a^p \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

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

From case-1 and II we conclude that

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

Corollary-5

If G is a finite group whose order is a prime number p , then G is a cyclic group.

Proof

Given that G is a finite group whose order is a prime number p .

To prove that G is a cyclic group, we have given that

$$o(G) = p, \text{ where } p \text{ is a prime number}$$

$$\Rightarrow o(G) > 1$$

∴ at least one element $a \in G$, $a \neq e$

let H be the cyclic subgroup of G generated by a
 $\therefore e \in H = \{a^i \mid i \geq 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots\} = \langle a \rangle$

Now, H is a subgroup of a finite group G

$\Rightarrow o(H) \mid o(G)$

$\Rightarrow o(H) \mid p$

$\Rightarrow o(H) = 1$ or $o(H) = p$

$\Rightarrow H = \{e\}$ or $o(H) = o(G)$

$\Rightarrow H = \{e\}$ or $H = G$

$\Rightarrow H = G$

$\Rightarrow G = \langle a \rangle$

$\Rightarrow G$ is a cyclic group.

2.5 A Counting Principle.

let H and K be subgroups of a group G .

Then their multiplication is a set divided by HK and is defined by

$$HK = \{x \in G \mid x = hk, h \in H, k \in K\}$$

Lemma - 2.5.1

HK is a subgroup of G if and only if $HK = KH$

Proof

Given that HK is a subgroup of G

To prove that $HK = KH$

let $n \in HK$

$$\Rightarrow n^{-1} \in HK$$

$$\Rightarrow n^{-1} = h_1 k_1$$

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

$$\Rightarrow n = k_1^{-1} h_1^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow n \in KH$$

So $HK \subseteq KH$

let $n \in KH$

$$\Rightarrow n = k_1 h_1, \quad k_1 \in K, h_1 \in H$$

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

$$\Rightarrow n^{-1} = h_1^{-1} k_1^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow n^{-1} \in HK$$

$$\Rightarrow (n^{-1})^{-1} \in HK$$

$$\Rightarrow n \in HK$$

$$\Rightarrow n \in HK$$

So $KH \subseteq HK$

From (1) and (2)
 $HK = KH$

Conversely $HK = KH$

To prove that HK is a subgroup of G .

$$HK = KH$$

i.e. to prove that

(i) HK is a non-empty subset of G

(ii) $x, y \in HK \Rightarrow xy \in HK$

(iii) $x \in HK \Rightarrow x^{-1} \in HK$

To prove that HK is a non-empty subgroup of G clearly,

$e \in H, e \in K \Rightarrow e \in HK$

$\Rightarrow e \in HK$

$\Rightarrow HK$ is non-empty

(i) let $x \in HK$

$\Rightarrow x = hk$ where $h \in H, k \in K$

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

$\Rightarrow h \in G, k \in G$

$hk \in G$ because closure law is satisfied

$\Rightarrow x \in G$

$\Rightarrow HK \subseteq G$

So HK is a non-empty subset of G

(ii) To prove that $x, y \in HK \Rightarrow xy \in HK$

$x, y \in HK$

$\Rightarrow x = h_1 k_1, y = h_2 k_2$

$\Rightarrow xy = (h_1 k_1)(h_2 k_2)$

$= h_1 (k_1 h_2) k_2$

$\Rightarrow xy = h_1 (h_3 k_3) k_2$

$\Rightarrow xy = h_1 (h_3 k_3 k_2)$

$\left. \begin{aligned} & h_1 h_3 \in KH \\ & \Rightarrow k_1 h_2 \in HK \text{ as } HK = KH \\ & \Rightarrow k_1 h_2 = h_3 k_3 \text{ where } h_3 \in H, k_3 \in K \end{aligned} \right\}$

associative

$$\Rightarrow xy = h_1 \{ h_3 (k_3 k_2) \}$$

$$\Rightarrow xy = (h_1 h_3) (k_3 k_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow xy \in HK$$

(iii) To prove that $x \in HK \Rightarrow x^{-1} \in HK$.

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

$$\Rightarrow x^{-1} \in KH$$

$$\Rightarrow x^{-1} \in HK$$

Hence HK is a subgroup of G .

Corollary

If H, K are subgroups of the abelian group G , then HK is a subgroup of G .

Proof

Given that H, K are subgroups of an abelian group G .

To prove that HK is a subgroup of G .

i.e. to prove that $HK = KH$.

Let $x \in HK$

$$\Rightarrow x = hk \text{ where } h \in H, k \in K$$

$$\Rightarrow x = kh$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in KH$$

$\because h \in H, k \in K \Rightarrow h \in G, k \in G$

as $H \subseteq G$ as $K \subseteq G$
 $\Rightarrow hh = kh$ as G is abelian

$HK \subseteq KH$
 $KH \subseteq HK$

Next, let $x \in HK$

$$\Rightarrow x = kh$$

$$\Rightarrow x = hk$$

$\Rightarrow k \in G, h \in G$ as $H \subseteq G, K \subseteq G \Rightarrow kh = hk$, as G is abelian.

So $kH \subseteq HK$
Hence $HK = KH$.

So HK is a subgroup of G .

Th-2.5.1

If H and K are finite subgroups of G of orders $|H|$ and $|K|$ respectively, then

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

Proof

Given that H and K are finite subgroups of G of orders $|H|$ and $|K|$ respectively.

To prove that $|HK| = \frac{|H| \cdot |K|}{|H \cap K|}$

We have given that H and K are subgroups of G .

$\Rightarrow H \cap K$ is a subgroup of G .

\Rightarrow All the four group axioms are satisfied in $H \cap K$.

$\Rightarrow H \cap K$ is a subgroup of K .

$\Rightarrow H \cap K$ is a subgroup of finite group K .

$\Rightarrow \frac{|H \cap K|}{|H \cap K|} \mid |K|$ by Lagrange's Th.

$\Rightarrow \frac{|K|}{|H \cap K|} = m$, where m is a +ve integer.

\Rightarrow There are m number of distinct right cosets of H in K .

Let $D_{k_1}, D_{k_2}, \dots, D_{k_m}$ be m number of distinct right cosets of D in K . [where $D = H \cap K$]

Let $D_{k_1}, D_{k_2}, \dots, D_{k_m}$ be m number of distinct right cosets of D in K .

$$K = (D_{k_1} \cup D_{k_2} \cup \dots \cup D_{k_m})$$

$$\Rightarrow HK = H(D_{k_1} \cup D_{k_2} \cup \dots \cup D_{k_m})$$

$$\Rightarrow HK = HD_{k_1} \cup HD_{k_2} \cup \dots \cup HD_{k_m}$$

$$\Rightarrow HK = H_{k_1} \cup H_{k_2} \cup \dots \cup H_{k_m} \quad \text{--- } \textcircled{1}$$

Claim

To prove that $H_{k_1}, H_{k_2}, \dots, H_{k_m}$ are pairwise disjoint if possible

$$\text{Let } (H_{k_i} \cap H_{k_j}) \neq \emptyset \text{ where } i \neq j$$

$$\Rightarrow H_{k_i} \cap H_{k_j} = H$$

$$\Rightarrow k_i k_j^{-1} \in H \quad (\because H a = H \Leftrightarrow a \in H)$$

$$\text{Again } k_i, k_j \in K \Rightarrow k_i k_j^{-1} \in K$$

$$\Rightarrow k_i k_j^{-1} \in K$$

$$\Rightarrow k_i k_j^{-1} \in H$$

$$\text{Now } k_i k_j^{-1} \in H \text{ and } k_i k_j^{-1} \in K$$

$$\Rightarrow k_i k_j^{-1} \in H \cap K$$

$$\Rightarrow k_i k_j^{-1} \in D$$

$$\Rightarrow k_i k_j^{-1} \in D$$

parallel

$\Rightarrow D_{k_i k_j^{-1}} = D_{k_i} \cap D_{k_j^{-1}}$
 This contradicts to the fact that $\overline{D} \cap H = \emptyset$

$D_{k_1}, D_{k_2}, \dots, D_{k_m}$ are disjoint.

Therefore, $H_{k_1}, H_{k_2}, \dots, H_{k_m}$ are pairwise disjoint.

From (1) we have

$$HK = \bigcup H_{k_1} \cup H_{k_2} \cup \dots \cup H_{k_m}$$

$$o(HK) = o(H_{k_1} \cup H_{k_2} \cup \dots \cup H_{k_m})$$

$$= o(H_{k_1}) + o(H_{k_2}) + \dots + o(H_{k_m})$$

[$\because H_{k_1}, \dots, H_{k_m}$ are pairwise disjoint]

$$= o(H) + o(H) + \dots + o(H) \quad m \text{ times}$$

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

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

Corollary

If H and K are subgroups of G and $|G| > \sqrt{|G|}$, then $H \cap K \neq \{e\}$

Proof

Given that H and K are subgroups of G and $|G| > \sqrt{|G|}$, $|K| > \sqrt{|G|}$

To prove that $H \cap K \neq \{e\}$
 We know that $H \cap K = \{n \in G \mid n = hk, h \in H, k \in K\}$
 $H \cap K \subseteq G$

$\Rightarrow |H \cap K| \leq |G|$

$\frac{|H| |K|}{|H \cap K|} \leq |G|$

$\Rightarrow |G| \geq \frac{|H| |K|}{|H \cap K|}$

$\Rightarrow |G| \frac{|H| |K|}{|H \cap K|} \geq \frac{\sqrt{|G|} \sqrt{|G|}}{|H \cap K|} = \frac{|G|}{|H \cap K|}$

$\Rightarrow |G| > \frac{|G|}{|H \cap K|}$

$\Rightarrow 1 > \frac{1}{|H \cap K|}$

$\Rightarrow |H \cap K| > 1$

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

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Problems.

1. Given H and K are subgroups of G .

To prove $H \cap K$ is a subgroup of G .

Let $ab \in H \cap K$

$\Rightarrow ab \in H$ and $ab \in K$

$\Rightarrow ab \in H$ and $ab \in K$ [$\because H$ & K are subgroups]

$\Rightarrow ab \in H \cap K$

Next, let $a \in H \cap K$

$\Rightarrow a \in H$ and $a \in K$

$\Rightarrow a^{-1} \in H$ and $a^{-1} \in K$

$\Rightarrow a^{-1} \in H \cap K$

Hence $H \cap K$ is a subgroup of G .

(2) Let G be a group, H a subgroup of G .

Let for $g \in G$, $gHg^{-1} = \{ghg^{-1} \mid h \in H\}$

Prove that gHg^{-1} is a subgroup of G .

Proof

Given that G is group.

H is a subgroup of G .

$gHg^{-1} = \{ghg^{-1} \mid h \in H\}$ where $g \in G$.

To prove gHg^{-1} is a subgroup of G

i.e. to prove that

(i) gHg^{-1} is nonempty subset of G .

(ii) $a, b \in gHg^{-1} \Rightarrow ab \in gHg^{-1}$

(iii) $a \in gHg^{-1} \Rightarrow a^{-1} \in gHg^{-1}$

(i) $e \in H$ [$\because H$ is a subgroup]

$$\Rightarrow geg^{-1} \in gHg^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow gg^{-1} \in gHg^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow e \in gHg^{-1}$$

$\Rightarrow gHg^{-1}$ is non-empty

let $a \in gHg^{-1}$

$$\Rightarrow a = ghg^{-1} \text{ where } h \in H$$

Now, $g \in G, h \in H \Rightarrow g \in G, h \in G$

$$\Rightarrow ghg^{-1} \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow a \in G$$

so $ghg^{-1} \in G$

$\Rightarrow gHg^{-1}$ is non-empty

(ii) $a, b \in gHg^{-1}$

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

$$\Rightarrow ab = (gh_1g^{-1})(gh_2g^{-1})$$

$$= gh_1h_2g^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow ab \in gHg^{-1}$$

(iii) $a \in gHg^{-1}$

$$\Rightarrow a = gh_1g^{-1} \text{ where } h_1 \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow a^{-1} = (gh_1g^{-1})^{-1} = \{ (gh_1)g^{-1} \}^{-1}$$

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

$$= g(h_1^{-1}g^{-1}) = gh_2g^{-1}$$

$\Rightarrow a^{-1} = g(h_1^{-1}g^{-1}) \in gHg^{-1}$
Hence gHg^{-1} is a subgroup of G

2.6 Normal Subgroups

Defn: - A subgroup N of G is said to be a normal subgroup of G if for every $g \in G$ and $n \in N$, $gn^{-1} \in N$, or $gNg^{-1} \subset N$.

Lemma-2.6.1

N is a normal subgroup of G if and only if $gNg^{-1} = N$ for every $g \in G$.

Proof

(\Rightarrow): Given that N is a normal subgroup of G . To prove that $gNg^{-1} = N \forall g \in G$.
Let $g \in G$ be arbitrary.

Claim

To prove that $gNg^{-1} = N$.
Since N is a normal subgroup of G and $g \in G$

So $gNg^{-1} \subset N$ — (1), by defn.

Now, $g \in G \Rightarrow g^{-1} \in G$

N is a normal subgroup of G and $g^{-1} \in G$

$\Rightarrow g^{-1}N(g^{-1})^{-1} \subset N$

$g^{-1}Ng \subset N$

$\Rightarrow gg^{-1}Ngg^{-1} \subset gNg^{-1}$

$\Rightarrow eNe \subset gNg^{-1}$

$\Rightarrow N \subset gNg^{-1}$

From (1) and (2) we get

$gNg^{-1} = N$

Since $g \in G$ is arbitrary,

So $gNg^{-1} = N \forall g \in G$.

(\Leftarrow):

Given that $gNg^{-1} = N \forall g \in G$

To prove that N is a normal subgroup of G .
We have given that

$gNg^{-1} = N \forall g \in G$

$\Rightarrow gNg^{-1} \subset N \forall g \in G$

$\Rightarrow N$ is a

normal subgroup of G

Lemma-2.6.2

N of G is a normal subgroup if and only if every left coset of N is a right coset of N .

Proof (\Rightarrow): Given that N is a normal subgroup of G .
Also N is a normal subgroup of G .

To prove that every left coset of N is a right coset of N .

We have given that

N is a normal subgroup of G

$\Rightarrow gNg^{-1} = N \forall g \in G$

$\Rightarrow gNg = Ng$

$\Rightarrow gN = Ng$

\Rightarrow every left coset of N is a right coset of N .

Also given that N is a subgroup of G ,
every left coset of N is a right coset of N .

To prove that N is a normal subgroup of G .

Let $gN = Nx$ (1)
 $Nx \in N$
 $\Rightarrow g \in N$
 $\Rightarrow g \in N$
 $\Rightarrow g \in N$
 $\Rightarrow N$ is a right coset of N to G containing g .

Agate $\Rightarrow g \in N$
 $\Rightarrow g \in N$
 $\Rightarrow g \in N$

$\Rightarrow N$ is a right coset of N to G containing g .

Agate $\Rightarrow g \in N$
 $\Rightarrow g \in N$
 $\Rightarrow g \in N$

quadruple $\Rightarrow g \in N$
 $\Rightarrow g \in N$
 $\Rightarrow g \in N$

So N and Ng are two right cosets of N to G containing $g \in N$ and $g \in N$ respectively.

$\Rightarrow N = Ng$
 $\Rightarrow N = Ng$
 $\Rightarrow N = Ng$

From (1) and (2)
 $gN = Ng$
 $\Rightarrow gN = Ng$
 $\Rightarrow gN = Ng$

$\Rightarrow gN = Ng$
 $\Rightarrow gN = Ng$
 $\Rightarrow gN = Ng$

$\Rightarrow gN = Ng$
 $\Rightarrow gN = Ng$
 $\Rightarrow gN = Ng$

$\Rightarrow N$ is a normal subgroup of G .

Lemma-2.6.31
 A subgroup N of G is a normal subgroup of G if and only if the product of two right cosets of N to G is again a right coset of N to G .

right cosets of N to G is again a right coset of N to G .

Proof (3):
 Given N is a normal subgroup of G .
 Also N is a normal subgroup of G .
 To prove that the product of two right cosets of N to G is a right coset of N to G .

Let Na and Nb be two right cosets of N to G .
 $\Rightarrow Na \cdot Nb \subseteq G$

So $a \in G$ and $b \in G \Rightarrow ab \in G$.

Now, $Na \cdot Nb = N(anb)$
 $= N(Nab) = (NN = N)$

which is a right coset of N to G .

$\Rightarrow Na \cdot Nb$ is a right coset of N to G .

\Rightarrow product of two right cosets of N to G is a right coset of N to G .

Given that N is a subgroup of G .

Also the product of two right cosets of N to G is a right coset of N to G .

To prove that $gNg^{-1} \in N \forall g \in G$.

Let $ng \in N$ and $g \in G$, be arbitrary.

So Ng and Ng^{-1} are two right cosets of N to G .

$\Rightarrow Ng \cdot Ng^{-1}$ is also a right coset of N to G .
 clearly, $gNg^{-1} \in N$
 $\Rightarrow gNg^{-1} \in N$
 So Ng and Ng^{-1} are two right cosets of N to G .
 $\Rightarrow gNg^{-1} \in N$
 So Ng and Ng^{-1} are two right cosets of N to G .
 $\Rightarrow gNg^{-1} \in N$

Again $e \in N = Ne$.
So, N is a right coset of N to e containing e .

Hence $NgNg^{-1}$ and N are two right cosets of N to g containing e .

$$\Rightarrow NgNg^{-1} \cap N \neq \emptyset$$

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

Since $g \in G$ and $n \in N$ are arbitrary
So $gng^{-1} \in N \forall g \in G$ and $n \in N$

Hence N is a normal subgroup of G .

Th-2.61

If G is a group, N a normal subgroup of G , then

$\frac{G}{N}$ is also a group. It is called the quotient group or factor group of G by N .

Given that G is a group

To prove that $\frac{G}{N}$ is a group

- $xy \in \frac{G}{N} \Rightarrow xy \in \frac{G}{N}$
- $x, y, z \in \frac{G}{N} \Rightarrow (xy)z = x(yz)$
- $x^{-1}y \in \frac{G}{N}$

(1) For every x to $\frac{G}{N}$ xy to $\frac{G}{N}$ is...

we know that G is the collection of all right cosets of N to g .

1. $x, y \in \frac{G}{N}$
 $\Rightarrow x = Na, y = Nb$

$$xy = NaNb = N(ab) = N(aN)b = N(ab) = Nc$$

$$\Rightarrow xy \in \frac{G}{N}$$

$x, y, z \in \frac{G}{N}$
 $\Rightarrow x = Na, y = Nb, z = Nc$, where $a, b, c \in G$

$$(xy)z = \{N(aN)b\}Nc = \{N(abN)c\} = N(abN)c = N(ab)Nc$$

$$= \{N(abN)c\} = N(abN)c$$

$$= N(abN)c = N(ab)Nc$$

$$= N\{N(abN)c\} = N\{N(ab)c\} = N\{N(ab)c\}$$

$$= N\{N(ab)c\} = N\{N(ab)c\}$$

Exerc 1 and 2

To prove that if an element $x \in N$ s.t. $xN = Nx = N$

First to prove that $N \in \mathcal{G}$
 let $x \in \mathcal{G}$ be arbitrary $\Rightarrow x = Na$ where $a \in G$

clearly, $Ne \in \mathcal{G}$ s.t. $Ne = N$
 given $N \in \mathcal{G} \Rightarrow N \in \mathcal{G}$ s.t. $N = Na$
 let $x = Na$ s.t. $xN = Nx = N$

$$(Na)N = N(Na) = N$$

$$Na = NNa = Na = N$$

To prove that for every $x \in \mathcal{G}$ $xN = Nx = N$

let $x \in \mathcal{G}$ arbitrary $\Rightarrow x = Na$

$$\Rightarrow xN = NaN = N$$

$$\Rightarrow Na^{-1} \in \mathcal{G}$$

$$\Rightarrow Y \in \mathcal{G}$$

$$XY = NaNa^{-1} = N$$

$$= N(Na)a^{-1}$$

$$= N(Na)a^{-1}$$

$$= NNa^{-1}$$

$$YX = Na^{-1}Na$$

$$= N(Na)a^{-1} = N$$

$$= N(Na)a^{-1} = N$$

So for $x \in \mathcal{G}$ $y \in \mathcal{G}$ s.t. $xy = yx = N$
 since $x \in \mathcal{G}$ is arbitrary
 So for every $x \in \mathcal{G}$ $y \in \mathcal{G}$ s.t. $xy = yx = N$

$XY = YX = N$

Let \mathcal{G} be a finite group and N is a normal subgroup of \mathcal{G} then \mathcal{G}/N is a group

proof: given that \mathcal{G} is a finite group and N is a normal subgroup of \mathcal{G}
 To prove that \mathcal{G}/N is a group
 we know that \mathcal{G}/N is the collection of all right cosets of N in \mathcal{G}

\mathcal{G}/N is a finite group and N is a subgroup of \mathcal{G}
 Again, \mathcal{G} is a finite group and N is a subgroup of \mathcal{G}

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\mathcal{G}}{N} = \text{Number of right cosets of } N \text{ in } \mathcal{G}$$

By Lagrange's theorem
 $|\mathcal{G}/N| = \frac{|\mathcal{G}|}{|N|}$

$$\frac{|\mathcal{G}|}{|N|} = \text{Number of right cosets of } N \text{ in } \mathcal{G}$$

$$\frac{|\mathcal{G}|}{|N|} = \frac{|\mathcal{G}|}{|N|}$$

Problems

1. Let H is a Subgroup of G s.t. the product of two right cosets of H is again a right coset of H . Prove that H is normal in G .

Proof

Given that H is a subgroup of G s.t. the product of two right cosets of H is again a right coset of H .

To prove that H is normal in G , we need to prove that $ghg^{-1} \in H \forall h \in H, g \in G$.

Let $h \in H$ & $g \in G$. Consider the product of two right cosets of H : gH and Hg^{-1} .

Since gH and Hg^{-1} are two right cosets of H , their product is a right coset of H . This right coset contains the element ghg^{-1} .

Since $ghg^{-1} \in H$ for all $h \in H, g \in G$, H is normal in G .

$\Rightarrow ghg^{-1} \in H \forall h \in H, g \in G$

Again let $e \in H$.

Hence eHg^{-1} and H are two right cosets of H having a common element e .

$\Rightarrow Hg^{-1} \cap H \neq \emptyset$. Two right cosets are either disjoint or identical.

Now $Hg^{-1} \cap H \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow Hg^{-1} = H$.

$\Rightarrow hg^{-1} \in H \forall h \in H, g \in G$.

$\Rightarrow h^{-1}gh \in H \forall h, g \in G$.

$\Rightarrow eghg^{-1} \in h^{-1}H$

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

$\Rightarrow ghg^{-1} \in H$ [$\because h^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow h^{-1}H = H$]

Since $g \in G$ and $h \in H$ are arbitrary.

So $ghg^{-1} \in H \forall g \in G$ and $h \in H$.

Hence H is normal in G .

2. G is a group and H is a subgroup of order 2. Prove that H is a normal subgroup of G .

Given that G is a group and H is a subgroup of order 2.

To prove that H is a normal subgroup of G , we need to prove that $h^{-1}xh = x \forall x \in G, h \in H$.

Let $x \in G$ be arbitrary.

Now two cases arise. They are either $x \in H$ or $x \notin H$.

Case-I. Let $x \in H$. Then $x^{-1}x = e$ and $x^{-1}x = x$.

Since H is a subgroup of order 2, $H = \{e, x\}$.

Case-II. Let $x \notin H$. Then $x^{-1}x = e$ and $x^{-1}x = x$.

Since H is a subgroup of order 2, $H = \{e, h\}$.

$\Rightarrow h^{-1}xh = x$ for all $x \in G$.

$\Rightarrow HxH = xH$ for all $x \in G$.

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

3) If N is a normal subgroup of G and H is any subgroup of G . Prove that NH is a subgroup of G .

Proof
Given that N is a normal subgroup of G .

Also, H is any subgroup of G .
To show that NH is a subgroup of G .

To prove that $NH = \cup N_h$.
is equivalent to normal subgroups of G .

So $N_h = nN + hN$.
 $\Rightarrow N_h = nN + hN$ [$\because H \in G$]

$\Rightarrow \cup_{h \in H} N_h = \cup_{h \in H} (nN + hN)$
also $g \in NH = H \cdot N$ is a subset of $\cup N_h$

4) Show that the intersection of two normal subgroups of G is a normal subgroup of G .

Proof
Let H and K be any two normal subgroups of G .

To show that $H \cap K$ is a normal subgroup of G .

(i) $H \cap K$ is a non-empty subset of G .

(ii) $a \in H \cap K \Rightarrow ab \in H \cap K$ and $a^{-1} \in H \cap K$
Hence $H \cap K$ is a normal subgroup of G .

Clearly $e \in H$ and $e \in K$
 $\Rightarrow e \in H \cap K$.
 $\Rightarrow H \cap K$ is non-empty.

Let $a \in H \cap K$ and $n \in G$
 $\Rightarrow an \in H$ and $an \in K$
 $\Rightarrow an \in H \cap K$

$\Rightarrow a^{-1} \in H$ and $a^{-1} \in K$
 $\Rightarrow a^{-1} \in H \cap K$

(iii) $a, b \in H \cap K$
 $\Rightarrow ab \in H$ and $ab \in K$
 $\Rightarrow ab \in H \cap K$

(iv) $a \in H \cap K$ and $n \in G$
 $\Rightarrow an \in H$ and $an \in K$
 $\Rightarrow an \in H \cap K$

(v) $a \in H \cap K$ and $n \in G$
 $\Rightarrow a^{-1} \in H$ and $a^{-1} \in K$
 $\Rightarrow a^{-1} \in H \cap K$

Hence $H \cap K$ is a normal subgroup of G .

5) $g \in H$ is a subgroup of G and N is a normal subgroup of G . Show that $H \cap N$ is a normal subgroup of H .

Proof

Given that H is a subgroup of G . Also N is a normal subgroup of G . To show that $H \cap N$ is a normal subgroup of H .
 No, H and N are subgroups of G .

$\Rightarrow H \cap N$ is a subgroup of G .

\Rightarrow All the conjugations are satisfied for $H \cap N$.

Again $H \cap N \subset H$

Hence $H \cap N$ is a subgroup of H .

Next to show that $H \cap N$ is normal in H .

Let $h \in H$ and $x \in H \cap N$. x is arbitrary. Let $h x h^{-1}$ and $x h x^{-1}$ be arbitrary.

$\Rightarrow h x h^{-1}$ and $x h x^{-1}$ are in $H \cap N$.

$\Rightarrow h x h^{-1}$ and $x h x^{-1}$ are in $H \cap N$.

$\Rightarrow (h x h^{-1})$ and $(x h x^{-1})$ are in $H \cap N$.

$\Rightarrow (h x h^{-1})$ and $(x h x^{-1})$ are in $H \cap N$.

$\Rightarrow h x h^{-1}$ and $x h x^{-1}$ are in $H \cap N$.

$\Rightarrow h x h^{-1}$ and $x h x^{-1}$ are in $H \cap N$.

$\Rightarrow h x h^{-1}$ and $x h x^{-1}$ are in $H \cap N$.

Hence $H \cap N$ is a normal subgroup of H .

Therefore $H \cap N$ is a normal subgroup of H .

6) Show that every subgroup of an abelian group is normal.

Proof

To show that every subgroup of an abelian group is normal.

Let H be any subgroup of an abelian group G .

Claim: - To show that $g h g^{-1} = h$ for all $g \in G$ and $h \in H$.

Let $g \in G$ and $h \in H$ be arbitrary.

Now $g h g^{-1} = h$ because G is abelian.

So $g h g^{-1} = h$ for all $g \in G$ and $h \in H$.

Hence H is normal in G .

$\Rightarrow g h g^{-1} = h$ and $h \in H$ are arbitrary.

So $g h g^{-1} \in H$ for all $g \in G$ and $h \in H$.

Hence H is normal in G .

Therefore H is a normal subgroup of G .

Prove that NM is also a normal subgroup of G .

Proof Given that N and M are normal subgroups of G .

To prove that NM is a normal subgroup of G .

We know that $NM = \cup_{n \in N} nM$.

Since N is normal in G , so

$Ng = gN$ for all $g \in G$.

$\Rightarrow Nm = mN$ for all $m \in M$.

2.7 Homomorphisms

Defn - A mapping ϕ from a group G into a group \bar{G} is said to be a homomorphism if $\phi(ab) = \phi(a)\phi(b) \forall a, b \in G$.

Lemma 2.2.1 - Let G be a group and N a normal subgroup of G . Define the mapping ϕ from G to G/N by $\phi(x) = Nx$ for all $x \in G$. Then ϕ is a homomorphism of G onto G/N .

Proof - Given that G is a group and N is a normal subgroup of G , ϕ is defined by $\phi(x) = Nx$ for $x \in G$. To prove that ϕ is a homomorphism, we need to show that $\phi(xy) = \phi(x)\phi(y)$ for all $x, y \in G$.

Let $x, y \in G$. Then $\phi(xy) = Nxy$. Also, $\phi(x)\phi(y) = NxNy$. Since N is normal, $NxNy = Nxy$. Therefore, $\phi(xy) = \phi(x)\phi(y)$.

To prove that ϕ is a homomorphism, we need to show that $\phi(xy) = \phi(x)\phi(y)$ for all $x, y \in G$. Let $x, y \in G$. Then $\phi(xy) = Nxy$. Also, $\phi(x)\phi(y) = NxNy$. Since N is normal, $NxNy = Nxy$. Therefore, $\phi(xy) = \phi(x)\phi(y)$.

Let $x, y \in G$. Then $\phi(xy) = Nxy$. Also, $\phi(x)\phi(y) = NxNy$. Since N is normal, $NxNy = Nxy$. Therefore, $\phi(xy) = \phi(x)\phi(y)$.

By defn $\phi(x) = Nx$. Then $\phi(xy) = Nxy$. Also, $\phi(x)\phi(y) = NxNy$. Since N is normal, $NxNy = Nxy$. Therefore, $\phi(xy) = \phi(x)\phi(y)$.

Now $\phi(Nx) = Nxy$. Also, $\phi(x)\phi(y) = NxNy$. Since N is normal, $NxNy = Nxy$. Therefore, $\phi(xy) = \phi(x)\phi(y)$.

$\Rightarrow \bigcup_{m \in M} N_m = \bigcup_{m \in M} mN$ is a subgroup of G .

$\Rightarrow NM = MN$. To show that NM is a subgroup, we need to show that $(nm)^{-1} \in NM$ for all $n \in N, m \in M$.

Let $n \in N, m \in M$. Then $(nm)^{-1} = m^{-1}n^{-1}$. Since N is normal, $m^{-1}n^{-1}m \in N$. Therefore, $m^{-1}n^{-1} \in Nm^{-1}$.

Let $n \in N, m \in M$. Then $(nm)^{-1} = m^{-1}n^{-1}$. Since N is normal, $m^{-1}n^{-1}m \in N$. Therefore, $m^{-1}n^{-1} \in Nm^{-1}$.

Let $n \in N, m \in M$. Then $(nm)^{-1} = m^{-1}n^{-1}$. Since N is normal, $m^{-1}n^{-1}m \in N$. Therefore, $m^{-1}n^{-1} \in Nm^{-1}$.

Let $n \in N, m \in M$. Then $(nm)^{-1} = m^{-1}n^{-1}$. Since N is normal, $m^{-1}n^{-1}m \in N$. Therefore, $m^{-1}n^{-1} \in Nm^{-1}$.

Let $n \in N, m \in M$. Then $(nm)^{-1} = m^{-1}n^{-1}$. Since N is normal, $m^{-1}n^{-1}m \in N$. Therefore, $m^{-1}n^{-1} \in Nm^{-1}$.

Let $n \in N, m \in M$. Then $(nm)^{-1} = m^{-1}n^{-1}$. Since N is normal, $m^{-1}n^{-1}m \in N$. Therefore, $m^{-1}n^{-1} \in Nm^{-1}$.

Let $n \in N, m \in M$. Then $(nm)^{-1} = m^{-1}n^{-1}$. Since N is normal, $m^{-1}n^{-1}m \in N$. Therefore, $m^{-1}n^{-1} \in Nm^{-1}$.

Let $n \in N, m \in M$. Then $(nm)^{-1} = m^{-1}n^{-1}$. Since N is normal, $m^{-1}n^{-1}m \in N$. Therefore, $m^{-1}n^{-1} \in Nm^{-1}$.

Let $n \in N, m \in M$. Then $(nm)^{-1} = m^{-1}n^{-1}$. Since N is normal, $m^{-1}n^{-1}m \in N$. Therefore, $m^{-1}n^{-1} \in Nm^{-1}$.

$\Rightarrow \phi(xy) = \phi(x)\phi(y)$

So $x, y \in G$ are arbitrary

So $\phi(xy) = \phi(x)\phi(y) \forall x, y \in G$

Hence $\phi: G \rightarrow \bar{G}$ is homomorphism.

Next to prove that $\phi: G \rightarrow \bar{G}$ is onto.

Let $y \in \bar{G}$ be arbitrary.

By defn of ϕ , $\phi(x) = y \iff x = y$

So for $y \in \bar{G}$ $\exists x \in G$ s.t. $y = \phi(x)$

So for every $y \in \bar{G}$ $\exists x \in G$ s.t. $y = \phi(x)$

Hence $\phi: G \rightarrow \bar{G}$ is onto.

Hence $\phi: G \rightarrow \bar{G}$ is a homomorphism and onto.

Lemma-2.7.2

If ϕ is a homomorphism of G into \bar{G} , then

(1) $\phi(e) = \bar{e}$, the unit element of \bar{G}

(2) $\phi(x^{-1}) = \phi(x)^{-1}$ for $x \in G$

Proof

(1) Given that ϕ is a homomorphism of G

into \bar{G} as $\phi(x) = \bar{x}$

To prove that $\phi(e) = \bar{e}$

$\phi(x) = \bar{x}$

$\phi(x) = \bar{x}$

$\phi(x) = \bar{x}$

$\phi(x) = \bar{x}$

$x \cdot e = x$

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

$\Rightarrow \phi(x) \cdot \phi(e) = \phi(x) \implies \phi(e) = \bar{e}$

Again $\phi(x) \cdot \bar{e} = \phi(x)$ (Existence of identity element in \bar{G})

Follow (1) and (2) we get ϕ is onto

$\Rightarrow \phi(x) \cdot \phi(e) = \phi(x) \cdot \bar{e} = \phi(x)$

$\Rightarrow \phi(e) = \bar{e}$

(2) Given that ϕ is a homomorphism of G into \bar{G}

To prove that

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

$x \cdot x^{-1} = e$ [Existence of inverse element in G]

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

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

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

Again $\phi(x) \cdot \phi(x^{-1}) = \bar{e}$ [Existence of inverse element in \bar{G}]

From (1) and (2)

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

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

Defn. (Kernel of a homomorphism)

Let ϕ be a homomorphism of G into \bar{G}

The kernel of ϕ is denoted by K_ϕ and is

Retained by $K_\phi = \{x \in G / \phi(x) = \bar{e}\}$

$K_\phi = \{x \in G / \phi(x) = \bar{e}\}$

$K_\phi = \{x \in G / \phi(x) = \bar{e}\}$

Lemma - 2.7.3 ϕ is a hom

Let ϕ is a homomorphism of G into \bar{G} with kernel K , then K is a normal subgroup

Proof's strategy

Given that ϕ is a homomorphism of G into \bar{G} with kernel K , $(\forall) \phi = (\phi)\phi$, $(\forall) \phi$ subgroup of \bar{G} .

To prove that K is a normal subgroup, i.e. to prove that $g^{-1}kg \in K$ for all $g \in G, k \in K$.

- ① k is a nonempty subset of G and $e \in K$
- ② $x, y \in K \Rightarrow xy \in K$
- ③ $x \in K \Rightarrow x^{-1} \in K$
- ④ To prove that K is a normal subgroup

$\Rightarrow k \in K$ and $e \in K$ (since $e \in K$)

From defn of kernel $\phi(k) = e$

to prove that K is a normal subgroup of G

$\phi(k) = e, \phi(gk) = e$

$x = y^{-1}k$

subgroup

$(\forall) \phi = \bar{g} \cdot (\forall) \phi$

Given that ϕ is a homomorphism of G into \bar{G}

with kernel K , $(\forall) \phi = (\phi)\phi$, $(\forall) \phi$ subgroup of \bar{G} .

To prove that K is a normal subgroup, i.e. to prove that $g^{-1}kg \in K$ for all $g \in G, k \in K$.

- ① k is a nonempty subset of G and $e \in K$
- ② $x, y \in K \Rightarrow xy \in K$
- ③ $x \in K \Rightarrow x^{-1} \in K$
- ④ To prove that K is a normal subgroup

$\Rightarrow k \in K$ and $e \in K$ (since $e \in K$)

From defn of kernel $\phi(k) = e$

to prove that K is a normal subgroup of G

$\phi(k) = e, \phi(gk) = e$

2.7.3 - 3.1.1

Let ϕ is a homomorphism of G into \bar{G} with kernel K , then K is a normal subgroup

To prove that K is a normal subgroup, i.e. to prove that $g^{-1}kg \in K$ for all $g \in G, k \in K$.

$\Rightarrow \phi(x^{-1}) = \bar{e}$

To prove that $g^{-1}kg \in K$ for all $g \in G, k \in K$

$\phi(gk) = \bar{e}$

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

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

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

$\phi(gk) = \bar{e}$

$\phi(gk) = \bar{e}$

$\phi(gk) = \bar{e}$

Let ϕ be a homomorphism of G onto \bar{G} with kernel K , then the set of all inverse images of $\bar{g} \in \bar{G}$ under ϕ for \bar{g} is given by Kx , where x is any particular inverse image of \bar{g} .

Proof

Given that $\phi: G \rightarrow \bar{G}$ is a homomorphism and onto Kx is the kernel of ϕ .

Let \bar{g} be any particular inverse image of \bar{g} under ϕ .

$$\bar{g} = \phi(x) = \phi(x) \cdot \phi(1) = \phi(x) \cdot \phi(1)$$

To prove that Kx is the set of all inverse images of \bar{g} under ϕ . i.e. to prove that

(1) Any element in Kx is an inverse image of \bar{g} under ϕ .

(2) Any inverse image of \bar{g} under ϕ is an element of Kx .

To prove that (1) is true, let $x \in Kx$. Then $x = ky$ for some $y \in G$. Then $\phi(x) = \phi(ky) = \phi(k)\phi(y) = \phi(1)\phi(y) = \phi(y) = \bar{g}$. Hence x is an inverse image of \bar{g} under ϕ .

Let y be any element in Kx .

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow y &\in Kx && (\text{where } k \in K) \\ \Rightarrow y &= kx && (\because y \in Kx) \end{aligned}$$

For (2), let $\bar{g} = \phi(x)$ for some $x \in G$. Then $\bar{g} = \phi(x) = \phi(kx) = \phi(k)\phi(x) = \phi(1)\phi(x) = \phi(x)$. Hence $x \in Kx$.

$$\bar{g} = \phi(x) = \phi(kx) = \phi(k)\phi(x) = \phi(1)\phi(x) = \phi(x)$$

$\therefore \phi(x) = \bar{g}$ for all $x \in Kx$.

$$\bar{g} = \phi(x) = \phi(kx) = \phi(k)\phi(x) = \phi(1)\phi(x) = \phi(x)$$

$\Rightarrow y$ is an inverse image of \bar{g} under ϕ .

Since y is any element in Kx . So every element in Kx is an inverse image of \bar{g} under ϕ .

To prove that (2) is true, let $\bar{g} = \phi(x)$ for some $x \in G$. Then $\bar{g} = \phi(x) = \phi(kx) = \phi(k)\phi(x) = \phi(1)\phi(x) = \phi(x)$. Hence $x \in Kx$.

Let z be any inverse image of \bar{g} under ϕ . Then $\phi(z) = \bar{g} = \phi(x)$. Hence $\phi(z^{-1}x) = \phi(z)^{-1}\phi(x) = \bar{g}^{-1}\bar{g} = \phi(1) = \phi(1)$. Hence $z^{-1}x \in K$. Hence $z \in Kx$.

$$\Rightarrow \phi(z) = \bar{g} = \phi(x) \Rightarrow \phi(z)^{-1}\phi(x) = \phi(1) \Rightarrow \phi(z^{-1}x) = \phi(1) \Rightarrow z^{-1}x \in K \Rightarrow z \in Kx$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(z) \cdot \phi(x)^{-1} = \phi(1) \Rightarrow \phi(z^{-1}x) = \phi(1) \Rightarrow z^{-1}x \in K \Rightarrow z \in Kx$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(z) \cdot \phi(x)^{-1} = \phi(1) \Rightarrow \phi(z^{-1}x) = \phi(1) \Rightarrow z^{-1}x \in K \Rightarrow z \in Kx$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(z^{-1}x) = \phi(1) \Rightarrow z^{-1}x \in K \Rightarrow z \in Kx$$

$$\Rightarrow z \cdot x^{-1} \in K \Rightarrow z \in Kx$$

$$\Rightarrow z \in Kx \text{ (where } x \in G)$$

Since z is any inverse image of \bar{g} under ϕ , so any inverse image of \bar{g} under ϕ is an element of Kx .

Let \bar{G} be the set of all cosets of G in G .
 \bar{G} under ϕ .

Defn 1 - A homomorphism ϕ from G into \bar{G} is said to be an isomorphism if ϕ is one-to-one.

Corollary

A homomorphism ϕ of G into \bar{G} with kernel K_ϕ is an isomorphism of G/K_ϕ into \bar{G} .

Proof (1) \Rightarrow

Given ϕ with kernel K_ϕ .
 Also ϕ is an isomorphism of G/K_ϕ into \bar{G} .

To prove that $K_\phi = \{e\}$.
 Assume that $K_\phi \neq \{e\}$.
 \Rightarrow \exists at least one element $a \in K_\phi$, $a \neq e$.

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow a \in K_\phi &\Rightarrow \phi(a) = \bar{e} \\ \Rightarrow \phi(a) = \phi(e) &\Rightarrow \phi(a) = \phi(e) \\ \Rightarrow a = e &\end{aligned}$$

So $K_\phi = \{e\}$

\Leftarrow Given that ϕ is a homomorphism of G into \bar{G} with kernel K_ϕ .

Also $K_\phi = \{e\}$ \Rightarrow ϕ is one-to-one.

Let ϕ be an isomorphism of G into \bar{G} .
 $\Rightarrow \phi$ is one-to-one and onto.

To prove that ϕ is an isomorphism of G into \bar{G} .

Since $\phi: G \rightarrow \bar{G}$ is given to be a 1-1 homomorphism, only to prove that

we have only to prove that ϕ is one-to-one.

So, let $\phi(a) = \phi(b)$.
 $\Rightarrow \phi(a) = \phi(b) \Rightarrow \phi(a) = \phi(b) \Rightarrow a = b$

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

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

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

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

So, $\phi(a) = \phi(b) \Rightarrow a = b$.
 Hence $\phi: G \rightarrow \bar{G}$ is one-to-one.

Hence $\phi: G \rightarrow \bar{G}$ is an isomorphism.

Proof - 2.7.1
 Let ϕ be a homomorphism of G into \bar{G} with kernel K_ϕ . Then $G/K_\phi \cong \bar{G}$.

Given that ϕ is a homomorphism of G into \bar{G} with kernel K_ϕ .

To prove that $G/K_\phi \cong \bar{G}$.

Let the homomorphism $\phi: G \rightarrow \bar{G}$ be defined by $\phi(a) = \bar{a}$.

$$\phi(a) = \bar{a} \Rightarrow \phi(a) = \bar{a} \Rightarrow \phi(a) = \bar{a}$$

$$\psi(Kg) = \bar{g} \quad \forall Kg \in \bar{K} \quad (2)$$

From (1) and (2) we get

$$\psi(Kg) = \phi(g) \quad (3)$$

Claim: To prove that ψ is well defined.

1. $\psi: \bar{K} \rightarrow \bar{G}$ is a homomorphism

2. $\psi: \bar{K} \rightarrow \bar{G}$ is one-one and onto

To prove that $\psi: \bar{K} \rightarrow \bar{G}$ is well defined

i.e. to prove that $\psi(g) = \psi(g')$ if $g \equiv g' \pmod{K}$

$$Kg_1 = Kg_2 \Rightarrow \psi(Kg_1) = \psi(Kg_2)$$

$$Kg_1 = Kg_2 \quad \text{where } g_1 - g_2 = K \in K$$

Now, $Kg_1 = Kg_2$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(Kg_1) = \phi(Kg_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \psi(Kg_1) = \psi(Kg_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \psi(g) = \psi(g')$$

$$\Rightarrow \psi(Kg) = \phi(g)$$

$$\Rightarrow \psi(Kg_1) = \psi(Kg_2)$$

So, $Kg_1 = Kg_2 \Rightarrow \psi(Kg_1) = \psi(Kg_2)$

Hence $\psi: \bar{K} \rightarrow \bar{G}$ is well defined.

(2) To prove that $\psi: \bar{K} \rightarrow \bar{G}$ is a homomorphism

$$\psi(Kg_1 Kg_2) = \psi(Kg_1) \psi(Kg_2)$$

$$\psi(Kg_1 Kg_2) = \psi(Kg_1) \psi(Kg_2)$$

$$\psi(Kg_1 Kg_2) = \psi(Kg_1) \psi(Kg_2)$$

$$\psi(Kg_1 Kg_2) = \psi(Kg_1) \psi(Kg_2)$$

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

$$= \psi(Kg_1) \psi(Kg_2)$$

$$= \psi(Kg_1) \psi(Kg_2)$$

$$= \psi(Kg_1) \psi(Kg_2)$$

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$$= \psi(Kg_1) \psi(Kg_2)$$

$$= \psi(Kg_1) \psi(Kg_2)$$

$$= \psi(Kg_1) \psi(Kg_2)$$

$$= \psi(Kg_1) \psi(Kg_2)$$

$$= \psi(Kg_1) \psi(Kg_2)$$

Some $\phi: G \rightarrow \bar{G}$ is onto and $\bar{g} \in \bar{G}$
 So, \exists an element $g \in G$ s.t.

$$\bar{g} = \phi(g)$$

Now, $g \in G \Rightarrow Kg \in \bar{K}$

We have $\bar{g} = \phi(g)$ and $\bar{g} \in \bar{K}$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{g} = \phi(Kg)$$

So $\forall Kg \in \bar{K} \exists g \in G$ s.t. $\bar{g} = \phi(Kg)$

Hence $\phi: \bar{K} \rightarrow \bar{G}$ is a homomorphism and onto

$$\text{So } \frac{\bar{G}}{\bar{K}} \cong \bar{G}$$

Th- 2.2.2

Let ϕ be a homomorphism of G onto \bar{G} with kernel K and let $\bar{N} \subseteq \bar{G}$ be a normal subgroup of \bar{G} .

$N = \{g \in G \mid \phi(g) \in \bar{N}\}$. Then $\frac{N}{K} \cong \frac{\bar{N}}{\bar{K}}$

$\phi|_N$ is surjective. $\frac{N}{K} \cong \frac{\bar{N}}{\bar{K}}$

Proof

Given that ϕ is a homomorphism with kernel K and \bar{N} is a normal subgroup of \bar{G} .

$N = \{g \in G \mid \phi(g) \in \bar{N}\}$ is a normal subgroup of G .

$$N = \{g \in G \mid \phi(g) \in \bar{N}\}$$

To prove that $\frac{N}{K} \cong \frac{\bar{N}}{\bar{K}}$

Let the homomorphism $\phi: G \rightarrow \bar{G}$ is defined by

$$\phi(g) = \bar{g} \quad \forall g \in G$$

Let $\psi: \bar{G} \rightarrow \frac{\bar{G}}{\bar{K}}$ be defined by

$$\psi(\bar{g}) = \bar{N}\bar{g}$$

From 1 and 2 we get $\psi(\phi(g)) = \bar{N}\phi(g)$

Claim To prove that $\frac{N}{K} \cong \frac{\bar{N}}{\bar{K}}$ is well defined

1. $\psi: \bar{G} \rightarrow \frac{\bar{G}}{\bar{K}}$ is well defined

2. ψ is a homomorphism

1. To prove that $\psi: \bar{G} \rightarrow \frac{\bar{G}}{\bar{K}}$ is well defined

i.e. to prove that

$$\psi(a) = \psi(b) \Rightarrow \bar{N}\bar{a} = \bar{N}\bar{b}$$

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

$$\Rightarrow \bar{N}\phi(a) = \bar{N}\phi(b)$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{N}\psi(a) = \bar{N}\psi(b)$$

Hence $\psi: \bar{G} \rightarrow \frac{\bar{G}}{\bar{K}}$ is well defined.

2. To prove that $\psi: \bar{G} \rightarrow \frac{\bar{G}}{\bar{K}}$ is a homomorphism

i.e. to prove that

$$\psi(\bar{a}\bar{b}) = \psi(\bar{a})\psi(\bar{b})$$

$$\psi(\bar{a}\bar{b}) = \bar{N}\bar{a}\bar{b}$$

$$= \bar{N}\bar{a}\bar{N}\bar{b}$$

$$= \bar{N}\bar{a}\bar{b}$$

So $\psi: \bar{G} \rightarrow \frac{\bar{G}}{\bar{K}}$ is a homomorphism.

③ To prove that $\psi: G \rightarrow \frac{G}{N}$ is onto
 to prove that for every $\bar{N}g \in \frac{G}{N}$
 if an element $g \in G$ s.t.
 $\bar{N}g = \psi(g)$
 Let $\bar{N}g \in \frac{G}{N}$ be arbitrary
 $\bar{N}g \in \frac{G}{N}$
 $g \in G$
 Since $\psi: G \rightarrow \frac{G}{N}$ is onto and $g \in G$
 So, \forall an element $g \in G$ s.t. $\bar{N}g = \psi(g)$
 By defⁿ of ψ
 $\psi(g) = \bar{N}g$
 for $\bar{N}g \in \frac{G}{N}$ \forall an element $g \in G$
 s.t. $\bar{N}g = \psi(g)$
 Since $\bar{N}g \in \frac{G}{N}$ is arbitrary, so for every
 $\bar{N}g \in \frac{G}{N}$ \exists an element $g \in G$ s.t. $\bar{N}g = \psi(g)$
 $\Rightarrow \psi: G \rightarrow \frac{G}{N}$ is onto
 So, ψ is a homomorphism of G onto $\frac{G}{N}$
 $\Rightarrow \frac{G}{K\psi} \cong \frac{G}{N}$
 Claim: To prove that $K\psi = N$
 Let $n \in K\psi$
 $\Rightarrow \psi(n) = \bar{N}$
 $\Rightarrow n \in N$

$\Rightarrow \bar{N}\psi(n) = \bar{N}$
 $\Leftrightarrow \phi(n) \in \bar{N}$ ($\because a \in H \Leftrightarrow Ha = H$)
 $\Rightarrow n \in N$
 Consequently
 $K\psi \subseteq N$ and $N \subseteq K\psi$
 Hence $K\psi = N$
 $\therefore \frac{G}{N} \cong \frac{G}{N}$
 Next, to prove that $\frac{G}{N} \cong \frac{(G/K)}{(N/K)}$
 We have given that ϕ is a homomorphism
 of G onto $\frac{G}{N}$ with kernel K
 $\Rightarrow \frac{G}{K} \cong \frac{G}{N}$
 Also, ψ is a homomorphism of N onto \bar{N}
 with kernel K
 $\Rightarrow \frac{N}{K} \cong \bar{N}$
 Hence $\frac{G/K}{N/K} \cong \frac{G}{N}$
 By symmetry
 Now $\frac{G}{N} \cong \frac{G/K}{N/K}$ and $\frac{G}{N} \cong \frac{G/K}{N/K}$
 Hence $\frac{G}{N} \cong \frac{(G/K)}{(N/K)}$

2.7

Q1(e) G is any abelian group $\phi: G \rightarrow G$ is defined by $\phi(x) = x^5 \forall x \in G$

$$\phi(xy) = (xy)^5 = x^5 y^5 = \phi(x) \phi(y)$$

ϕ is a homomorphism

Now, $\phi(x) = \phi(y) \Rightarrow x^5 = y^5$

$$\Rightarrow x = y$$

ϕ is one-one

2) Given G is any group g is a fixed element in G , $\phi: G \rightarrow G$ is defined by $\phi(x) = gxg^{-1}$

To prove ϕ is an isomorphism of G onto G , i.e. to prove that

- (i) ϕ is well-defined
- (ii) ϕ is a homomorphism
- (iii) ϕ is one-one
- (iv) ϕ is onto

of $x = y$

$$\Rightarrow gx = gy$$

$$\Rightarrow gxg^{-1} = gyg^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(x) = \phi(y)$$

Hence ϕ is well defined. To show that ϕ is homomorphism

(ii) $\phi(xy) = g(xy)g^{-1} = g(xyg^{-1}g)yg^{-1} = (gxg^{-1})(gyg^{-1}) = \phi(x)\phi(y)$

(iii) if $\phi(x) = \phi(y) \Rightarrow gxg^{-1} = gyg^{-1} \Rightarrow x = y$

So $\phi: G \rightarrow G$ is one-one

(iv) To show $\phi: G \rightarrow G$ is onto i.e. to show that for every y in G $\exists x$ in G s.t. $y = \phi(x)$

Let $y \in G$ be arbitrary $\Rightarrow g^{-1}yg \in G$

Let $g^{-1}yg = x$

so $x \in G$

$$\phi(x) = gxg^{-1} = g(g^{-1}yg)g^{-1} = gg^{-1}ygg^{-1} = eyg^{-1} = y$$

So for $y \in G \exists x \in G$ s.t. $y = \phi(x)$

Hence ϕ is an isomorphism of G onto G .