

# Introduction to Abstract Algebra

**Dr. Abdullah Al-Azemi**

Mathematics Department  
Kuwait University

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## Section 0.0: Basic Notation

## Definition 0.0.1

- A set is a collection of objects (called elements or members).
- We write  $x \in A$  to indicate that an element  $x$  belongs to set  $A$ , while we write  $x \notin A$  to indicate that  $x$  does not belong to  $A$ .
- For any two sets  $A$  and  $B$ , we write  $A \subseteq B$  if  $\forall x \in A, x \in B$ .
- **Equality:**  $A = B$  if and only if  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B \subseteq A$ .
- **Intersection:**  $A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$ .
- **Union:**  $A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$ .
- **Difference:**  $A - B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}$ .
- **Cartesian (Cross) Product:**  $A \times B = \{(x, y) : x \in A \text{ and } y \in B\}$ .
- Note that in general,  $A \times B \neq B \times A$ .

★ **Notations:** We define the following sets of numbers:

- $\mathbb{N}$ : the set of all natural numbers  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ .
- $\mathbb{Z}$ : the set of all integers  $\{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ .
- $\mathbb{Q}$ : the set of all rational numbers  $\{\frac{a}{b} : a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } b \neq 0\}$ .
- $\mathbb{R}$ : the set of all real numbers.
- $\mathbb{C}$ : the set of all complex numbers.
- $S^*$ : the whole set  $S$  without the '0' element.
- $S^+$ : the set of all positive numbers in  $S$ .

- $S^-$ : the set of all negative numbers in  $S$ .
- $M_{n \times n}$ : the set of all  $n \times n$  matrices with entries of real numbers.
- $N_{n \times n}$ : the set of all  $n \times n$  non-singular matrices with entries of real numbers.

# Mapping and Operations

## Section 1.1: Mappings

### Definition 1.1.1

A **mapping** from a set  $S$  to a set  $T$  is a relationship that maps every element of  $S$  to a uniquely determined element of  $T$ . Moreover, If  $\alpha : S \rightarrow T$  is a mapping from  $S$  to  $T$ , then we say that  $S$  is the **domain** and  $T$  is the **codomain** of  $\alpha$ . Such a mapping is written as  $S \xrightarrow{\alpha} T$  sometimes. Moreover, if  $S = T$ , we simply say that  $\alpha$  is a mapping on  $S$ .

### Example 1.1.1

Let  $S = \{a, b, c\}$  and  $T = \{1, 2, 3\}$ . Let  $\alpha : S \rightarrow T$  so that:

- |                       |                  |                  |                            |
|-----------------------|------------------|------------------|----------------------------|
| i. $\alpha(a) = 1,$   | $\alpha(b) = 2,$ | $\alpha(c) = 3,$ | $\alpha$ is a mapping,     |
| ii. $\alpha(a) = 1,$  | $\alpha(b) = 1,$ | $\alpha(c) = 2,$ | $\alpha$ is a mapping,     |
| iii. $\alpha(a) = 1,$ | $\alpha(a) = 3,$ | $\alpha(b) = 2,$ | $\alpha$ is not a mapping. |

Clearly *iii.* is not a mapping since first  $\alpha$  does not map  $c$  and second because  $\alpha(a) = 1 \neq 3 = \alpha(a)$ .

### Definition 1.1.2

If  $\alpha : S \rightarrow T$  is a mapping and  $\alpha(a) = b$  for some  $a \in S$  and  $b \in T$ , then we say that  $b$  is the **image** of  $a$  and that  $a$  is the **preimage** of  $b$ .

Moreover, if  $A \subseteq S$ , then  $\alpha(A) = \{\alpha(x) : x \in A\} \subseteq T$ .

### Definition 1.1.3

A mapping (**function**)  $\alpha$  from a set  $S$  into a set  $T$  is **one-to-one** if each element of  $T$  has at most one element of  $S$  mapped into it. Moreover,  $\alpha$  is **onto**  $T$  if each element of  $T$  has at least one element of  $S$  mapped into it.

**Definition 1.1.4**

A mapping  $\alpha$  is called a bijection if it is one-to-one and onto.

**Remark 1.1.1**

Let  $\alpha : S \rightarrow T$  be a function. Then,

1.  $\alpha$  is a one-to-one function if for all  $a, b \in S$ ,  $\alpha(a) = \alpha(b)$  implies  $a = b$ .
2.  $\alpha$  is onto  $T$  if for each  $b \in T$ , there is  $a \in S$  such that  $\alpha(a) = b$ .

**Example 1.1.2**

Consider the two mappings  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x) = x^2$  and  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $g(x) = x^3$ . Decide whether  $f$  and  $g$  are one-to-one and onto?

**Solution:**

- Clearly,  $f$  is not one-to-one since  $f(1) = f(-1) = 1$  but  $-1 \neq 1$ . Also,  $f$  is not onto since there is no  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $f(x) = -1$  for instance. Therefore  $f$  is not a bijection.
- $g$  is one-to-one since if  $g(x) = g(y)$ , then  $x^3 = y^3$  and hence  $x = y$ . Also it is onto since for any  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ , there is  $x = y^{\frac{1}{3}} \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $g(x) = (y^{\frac{1}{3}})^3 = y$ . Hence  $g$  is a bijection.

**Example 1.1.3**

Let  $f$  be a mapping on  $\mathbb{N}$  defined by  $f(x) = 2x$ . Is  $f$  a bijection? Explain.

**Solution:**

Clearly,  $f$  is one-to-one since  $f(a) = f(b)$  implies that  $2a = 2b$  and hence  $a = b$ . But  $f$  is not onto, since  $1 \in \mathbb{N}$  and no  $a \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $f(a) = 1$ . That is  $f$  is not a bijection.



**Exercise 1.1.1**

Solve the following exercises from the book at page 14:

- 1.1 – 1.6,
- 1.12 – 1.13.

## Section 1.2: Composition. Invertible Mappings

### Definition 1.2.1

Let  $A, B$ , and  $C$  be three nonempty sets. If  $f : A \rightarrow B$  and  $g : B \rightarrow C$  are two mappings, then the composition of  $f$  and  $g$ , denoted by  $g \circ f$ , is the mapping from  $A$  to  $C$  defined by  $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x))$  for each  $x \in A$ .

### Example 1.2.1

Let  $A = \{x, y, z\}$ ,  $B = \{1, 2, 3\}$  and  $C = \{a, b, c\}$ . Define  $f : A \rightarrow B$  and  $g : B \rightarrow C$  by

$$f(x) = 2, f(y) = 1, \text{ and } f(z) = 3, \text{ and } g(1) = b, g(2) = c, \text{ and } g(3) = a.$$

List all the elements of  $g \circ f$ .

#### Solution:

- $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) = g(2) = c,$
- $(g \circ f)(y) = g(f(y)) = g(1) = b,$
- $(g \circ f)(z) = g(f(z)) = g(3) = a.$

### Example 1.2.2

Let  $f$  and  $g$  be two mapping on  $\mathbb{R}$  where  $f(x) = 2x + 1$  and  $g(x) = x - 1$ . Is  $g \circ f = f \circ g$ ? Explain.

#### Solution:

Clearly,

- $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) = g(2x + 1) = (2x + 1) - 1 = 2x$ , while
- $(f \circ g)(z) = f(g(x)) = f(x - 1) = 2(x - 1) + 1 = 2x - 1.$

Therefore,  $g \circ f \neq f \circ g$ .

**Theorem 1.2.1: This is from Math-250**

Assume that  $f : A \rightarrow B$  and  $g : B \rightarrow C$  are two mappings. Then,

1. If  $f$  and  $g$  are onto, then  $g \circ f$  is onto.
2. If  $g \circ f$  is onto, then  $g$  is onto.
3. If  $f$  and  $g$  are one-to-one, then  $g \circ f$  is one-to-one.
4. If  $g \circ f$  is one-to-one, then  $f$  is one-to-one.
5. If  $f$  and  $g$  are bijections, then  $g \circ f$  is a bijection.

**Proof:**

Recall this Theorem from Math-250.

1. Assume that both  $f$  and  $g$  are onto. Let  $z \in C$ , then there is  $y \in B$  such that  $g(y) = z$  since  $g$  is onto. Also, there is  $x \in A$  such that  $f(x) = y$  since  $f$  is onto. Therefore,  $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) = g(y) = z$  and hence  $g \circ f$  is onto.
2. Assume that  $g \circ f$  is onto. If  $z \in C$ , then there is  $x \in A$  such that  $(g \circ f)(x) = z$  (since  $g \circ f$  is onto). That is  $g(f(x)) = z$  with  $f(x) = y \in B$ . Thus  $g$  is onto.
3. Assume that both  $f$  and  $g$  are one-to-one. Then  $(g \circ f)(x) = (g \circ f)(y)$  implies  $g(f(x)) = g(f(y))$  which implies that  $f(x) = f(y)$  since  $g$  is one-to-one. Hence  $x = y$  because  $f$  is one-to-one. Therefore,  $g \circ f$  is one-to-one.
4. Assume that  $g \circ f$  is one-to-one. Let  $f(x) = f(y)$ . Then  $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) = g(f(y)) = (g \circ f)(y)$  and since  $g \circ f$  is one-to-one, we get that  $x = y$ . Hence  $f$  is one-to-one.
5. Assume that  $f$  and  $g$  are both bijections. Combining part 1 and part 3 concludes the result. Hence  $g \circ f$  is a bijection.

**Definition 1.2.2**

Let  $I_A$  denote the identity mapping on  $A$ . That is,

$$I_A(x) = x \quad \text{for every } x \in A.$$

Note that this mapping is an example of a bijection mapping.

**Definition 1.2.3**

A mapping  $g : B \rightarrow A$  is an inverse of a mapping  $f : A \rightarrow B$  if both  $g \circ f = I_A$  and  $f \circ g = I_B$ . In that case,  $f$  is called **invertible** and we write  $f^{-1} = g$ .

**Theorem 1.2.2**

A mapping  $f : A \rightarrow B$  is invertible if and only if  $f$  is a bijection.

**Proof:**

»  $\Rightarrow$ ": Assume that  $f$  is invertible. Then  $f^{-1} \circ f = I_A$  is one-to-one, and hence  $f$  is one-to-one. Moreover,  $f \circ f^{-1} = I_B$  is onto and hence  $f$  is onto. Therefore,  $f$  is a bijection.

»  $\Leftarrow$ ": Assume that  $f$  is a bijection. We construct  $f^{-1} : B \rightarrow A$  as follows: If  $y \in B$ , then there is  $x \in A$  such that  $f(x) = y$  (since  $f$  is onto). But since  $f$  is one-to-one, this element  $x$  is unique. Let  $f^{-1}(y) = x$ . This is can be done to all elements  $y \in B$  and hence  $f^{-1} : B \rightarrow A$  satisfying  $f \circ f^{-1} = I_B$  and  $f^{-1} \circ f = I_A$ . Thus  $f$  is invertible.

**Theorem 1.2.3**

If  $f : A \rightarrow B$  is a bijection, then  $f^{-1} : B \rightarrow A$  is a bijection.

**Proof:**

This is can be done using your knowledge from Math-250.

**Exercise 1.2.1**

Solve the following exercises from the book at page 18:

- 2.1 – 2.6,
- 2.11 – 2.13.

## Section 1.3: Operations

### Definition 1.3.1

A **binary operation** " $*$ " on a set  $S$  is a relationship that maps each ordered pair of elements of  $S$  to a unique element of  $S$ . That is  $*$  :  $S \times S \rightarrow S$ , where  $S \times S$  is the **Cartesian product** of  $S$  with  $S$  which contains all ordered pairs  $(a, b)$  with  $a, b \in S$ .

### Definition 1.3.2

Let  $*$  be a binary operation on a set  $S$ . For all  $a, b \in S$ ,  $a * b \in S$ . This property of  $*$  is called **closure** and we say that  $S$  is **closed with respect to**  $*$ .

Note that we write  $(S, *)$  for a defined binary operation  $*$  on a set  $S$ .

### Example 1.3.1

Decide if the following is binary operation:

$(\mathbb{N}, -)$	NO, $1, 2 \in \mathbb{N}$ but $1 - 2 = -1 \notin \mathbb{N}$
$(\mathbb{Z}, +)$	YES
$(\mathbb{Z}, -)$	YES
$(\mathbb{Z}, \cdot)$	YES
$(\mathbb{Z}, \div)$	NO, $1, 2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ but $\frac{1}{2} \notin \mathbb{Z}$
$(\mathbb{Q}, \div)$	NO, $0, 1 \in \mathbb{Q}$ but $\frac{1}{0} \notin \mathbb{Q}$
$(\mathbb{Q}^*, \div)$	YES
$(\mathbb{R}, +)$	YES
$(\mathbb{R}, -)$	YES
$(\mathbb{R}, \cdot)$	YES
$(\mathbb{R}^*, \div)$	YES

### Example 1.3.2

Let  $*$  be defined on  $\mathbb{Z}^+$  by  $m * n = m^n$  for all  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Is  $*$  a binary operation? Does the order of elements make any difference?

**Solution:**

Clearly, for any  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $m * n = m^n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Thus,  $*$  is a binary operation on  $\mathbb{Z}^+$ .  
However, the order makes difference since  $3 * 2 = 3^2 = 9$  while  $2 * 3 = 2^3 = 8$ .

**Definition 1.3.3**

If  $S$  is a finite set, then we can specify a binary operation on  $S$  by means of a **table**. We put  $a * b$  at the intersection of the row containing  $a$  and the column containing  $b$ , for all  $a, b \in S$ . Changing one more of the entries in the table will give a different binary operation. Such defined tables are called **Cayley tables**.

**Example 1.3.3**

Let  $S = \{a, b, c\}$ . Give two different Cayley tables.

**Solution:**

$*_1$	a	b	c
a	a	c	c
b	b	b	a
c	b	c	b

$*_2$	a	b	c
a	b	b	b
b	a	b	c
c	b	b	b

**Remark 1.3.1**

In general there are  $n^{n^2}$  Cayley tables for  $S = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$ . This is because each row has  $n$  positions with  $n$  possible elements in each position. That is, each row has  $n^n$  possible ways. Overall we have  $n$  rows and thus we have  $n^n \cdot n^n \cdot \dots \cdot n^n$  ( $n$ -times) which is  $n^{n^2}$ .

**Example 1.3.4**

Decide whether  $+$  and  $\cdot$  are binary operations on  $M_{2 \times 2}$

**Solution:**

Yes, because for any  $2 \times 2$  matrices, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \bullet \quad & \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a+x & b+y \\ c+z & d+w \end{bmatrix} \in M_{2 \times 2}, \\ \bullet \quad & \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ax+bz & ay+bw \\ cx+dz & cy+dw \end{bmatrix} \in M_{2 \times 2}, \end{aligned}$$

**Definition 1.3.4**

A binary operation  $*$  on a set  $S$  is said to be **associative** if the **associative law**

$$a * (b * c) = (a * b) * c$$

is satisfied for all  $a, b, c \in S$ .

**Definition 1.3.5**

A binary operation  $*$  on a set  $S$  is said to be **commutative** if the **commutative law**

$$a * b = b * a$$

is satisfied for all  $a, b \in S$ .

**Example 1.3.5**

Discuss the associative and commutative properties on

1.  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ ,
2.  $(\mathbb{Z}, -)$ ,
3.  $(\mathbb{Q}^*, \div)$

**Solution:**

1) Clearly,  $m + (n + k) = (m + n) + k$  for all  $m, n, k \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then  $+$  is associative on  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Also,  $m + n = n + m$  for all  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and hence  $+$  is commutative on  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

2)  $2 - (1 - 3) = 4$  while  $(2 - 1) - 3 = -2$  and hence  $-$  is not associative on  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Moreover,  $1 - 2 \neq 2 - 1$ . Thus  $-$  is not commutative on  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

3) " $\div$ " is not associative on  $\mathbb{Q}^*$  since  $1 \div (3 \div 2) = \frac{2}{3}$  while  $(1 \div 3) \div 2 = \frac{1}{6}$ . Moreover,



$1 \div 2 \neq 2 \div 1$ , hence  $\div$  is not commutative on  $\mathbb{Q}^*$ .

### Definition 1.3.6

Let  $S$  be a set with a binary operation  $*$ . An element  $e \in S$  is called an **identity** (or identity element) for  $*$  on  $S$  if

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

for all  $a \in S$ .

### Definition 1.3.7

Let  $e$  be an identity for a binary operation  $*$  on a set  $S$ . An element  $b \in S$  is called an **inverse of  $a$**  relative to  $*$  if

$$a * b = b * a = e.$$

### Example 1.3.6

Discuss the identity and inverse elements in what follows:

1.  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ : 0 is the identity element for  $+$  on  $\mathbb{Z}$ , while " $-a$ " is the inverse of  $a$  relative to  $+$  for every  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Note that  $a + (-a) = 0$ .
2.  $(\mathbb{Q}^*, \cdot)$ : 1 is the identity for  $\cdot$  on  $\mathbb{Q}^*$ , while  $\frac{1}{a}$  is the inverse of  $a \in \mathbb{Q}^*$ . That is  $a \cdot \frac{1}{a} = 1$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{Q}^*$ .
3.  $(\mathbb{Z}^+, +)$ : has no identity and no inverse.
4.  $(2\mathbb{Z}, \cdot)$ :  $2\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, \dots\}$  has no identity and no inverses.
5.  $(M_{2 \times 2}, +)$ : the identity matrix is  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  and for any  $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \in M_{2 \times 2}$  the inverse element is  $\begin{bmatrix} -a & -b \\ -c & -d \end{bmatrix}$ .
6.  $(M_{2 \times 2}, \cdot)$ : the identity matrix is  $I_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Some matrices have no inverse and some

do. For instance the matrix  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  has no inverse since its determinant equals zero.

7.  $(N_{2 \times 2}, \cdot)$ : the identity matrix is  $I_2$  and the inverse of a matrix  $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$  is given by  $\frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$ . That is,  $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{|A|} \text{adj}(A)$ .

**Exercise 1.3.1**

Solve the following exercises from the book at page 23:

- 3.1 – 3.8,
- 3.13.

**Exercise 1.3.2**

Let  $*$  be defined by  $m * n = m^n$  for all positive integers  $m$  and  $n$ . Is  $*$  a commutative binary operation on  $\mathbb{Z}^+$ ? Explain.

## Section 1.4: Composition as an Operation

### Example 1.4.1

Let  $S$  be any nonempty set, and let  $M(S)$  denote the set of all mappings from  $S$  to  $S$ . Is " $\circ$ ", the composition, an operation on  $M(S)$ ? Explain.

### Solution:

Let  $\alpha, \beta \in M(S)$ . Then  $\alpha : S \rightarrow S$  and  $\beta : S \rightarrow S$  and hence  $\beta \circ \alpha : S \rightarrow S$ . Thus,  $\beta \circ \alpha \in M(S)$  and the composition " $\circ$ " is an operation on  $M(S)$ .

### Theorem 1.4.1

Let  $S$  denote any nonempty set. Then

1. Composition is an associative operation on  $M(S)$ , with the identity element  $I_S$ .
2. Composition is an associative operation on the set of all invertible mappings in  $M(S)$ , with identity  $I_S$ .

### Proof:

1. Let  $f, g, h \in M(S)$ . Then for any  $x \in S$ , we have

$$[h \circ (g \circ f)](x) = h((g \circ f)(x)) = h(g(f(x))) = (h \circ g)(f(x)) = [(h \circ g) \circ f](x).$$

That is  $\circ$  is associative on  $M(S)$ . Moreover, it is clear that  $f \circ I_S = I_S \circ f = f$  for any  $f \in M(S)$ .

2. Assume that  $f, g \in M(S)$  and that both are invertible. Thus both  $f$  and  $g$  are bijections and hence  $g \circ f$  is a bijection which implies that  $g \circ f$  is invertible. Since the composition is associative on  $M(S)$ , it is associative on any of its subsets and hence it is associative on the subset of invertible mappings. Moreover,  $I_S$  is invertible and thus it is the identity element on the subset of invertible elements in  $M(S)$ .

**Remark 1.4.1**

Note that the composition operation " $\circ$ " is not commutative in general since  $f \circ g \neq g \circ f$  for some mappings  $f$  and  $g$ .



## Introduction To Groups

## Section 2.5: Definition and Examples

## Definition 2.5.1

A **group**  $(G, *)$  is a set  $G$ , **closed under a binary operation**  $*$ , such that the following conditions are satisfied

$\mathcal{G}_1$ : associativity:  $*$  is associative on  $G$ ,

$\mathcal{G}_2$ : identity element: there is  $e \in G$  such that  $e * g = g * e = g$  for every  $g \in G$ ,

$\mathcal{G}_3$ : inverse element: for every  $g \in G$ , there exists  $h \in G$  (usually written as  $h = g^{-1}$ ) such that  $g * h = h * g = e$ . That is every element in  $G$  has an inverse in  $G$ .

## Example 2.5.1

Show that the set of even integers, denoted by  $2\mathbb{Z}$ , with addition is a group.

## Solution:

We show that  $(2\mathbb{Z}, +)$  is a group by showing the conditions of Definition 2.5.1 as follows:

$\mathcal{G}_1$ : Let  $a, b, c \in 2\mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $(a + b) + c = a + b + c = a + (b + c)$  and hence  $+$  is associative.

$\mathcal{G}_2$ : The identity element is  $0 \in 2\mathbb{Z}$  since  $a + 0 = 0 + a = a$  for all  $a \in 2\mathbb{Z}$ .

$\mathcal{G}_3$ : For any  $a \in 2\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $-a \in 2\mathbb{Z}$  and  $a + (-a) = 0 = (-a) + a$ .

Therefore  $(2\mathbb{Z}, +)$  is a group.

## Example 2.5.2

Is  $(\mathbb{Z}^+, +)$  a group? Explain.

## Solution:

No. There is no identity element in  $\mathbb{Z}^+$  and there is no inverse in  $\mathbb{Z}^+$  for any element in  $\mathbb{Z}^+$ .

**Example 2.5.3**

Decide whether  $(M_{2 \times 2}, \cdot)$  "the set of all  $2 \times 2$  matrices" is a group.

**Solution:**

Clearly,  $\cdot$  is associative on  $M_{2 \times 2}$  and there is identity element  $I_2 \in M_{2 \times 2}$ . But for some elements  $A \in M_{2 \times 2}$  there is no inverse. For instance the inverse of  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  does not exist. Thus  $(M_{2 \times 2}, \cdot)$  is not a group.

**Definition 2.5.2**

A group  $G$  is called **abelian** if its binary operation is commutative. It is called **non-abelian** otherwise.

**Definition 2.5.3**

For  $a, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $n > 0$ , define the congruence class of  $a$  modulo  $n$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$  by

$$[a] = \bar{a} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} : a \equiv_n x \Leftrightarrow n \mid a - x\}.$$

Moreover, for  $[a], [b] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ , define

$$[a] \oplus [b] = [a + b].$$

**Theorem 2.5.1**

Let  $n$  be a positive integer, then  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{[0], [1], \dots, [n-1]\}$  is an abelian group with respect to the operation  $\oplus$ .

**Proof:**

$\mathcal{G}_1$ :

$$\begin{aligned} [a] \oplus ([b] \oplus [c]) &= [a] \oplus [b + c] = [a + b + c] = [(a + b) + c] \\ &= [a + b] \oplus [c] = ([a] \oplus [b]) \oplus [c]. \end{aligned}$$

$\mathcal{G}_2$ : The identity is  $[0]$  since  $[0] \oplus [a] = [0 + a] = [a] = [a + 0] = [a] \oplus [0]$ .

$\mathcal{G}_3$ : The inverse of  $[a]$  is  $[-a]$ :

$$[a] \oplus [-a] = [a + (-a)] = [0] = [(-a) + a] = [-a] \oplus [a].$$



Note that  $[-a]$  is congruent modulo  $n$  to exactly one integer in  $\{[0], [1], \dots, [n-1]\}$ .

To show that  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is abelian, let  $[a], [b] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ , then

$$[a] \oplus [b] = [a + b] = [b + a] = [b] \oplus [a].$$

Thus,  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is abelian group with respect to  $\oplus$ .

### Remark 2.5.1

#### Notation:

For simplicity, we write  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$  instead of  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{[0], [1], \dots, [n-1]\}$ .

### Example 2.5.4

The following are examples of some groups:

$$(\mathbb{Z}, +), (\mathbb{Q}, +), (M_{2 \times 2}, +), \text{ and } (M_{m \times n}, +).$$

$$(N_{n \times n}, \cdot), (\mathbb{Q}^*, \cdot), (\mathbb{Q}^+, \cdot), \text{ and } (2\mathbb{Z}, +).$$

### Theorem 2.5.2

Let  $(G, *)$  be a group. Then:

1. The identity element of  $G$  is unique.
2. The inverse of each element in  $G$  is unique.

#### **Proof:**

1. Let  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  be two identity elements in  $G$ . Then  $e_1 * a = a$  for all  $a \in G$ . In particular,  $e_1 * e_2 = e_2$  and  $e_1 * e_2 = e_1$ . Thus,  $e_1 = e_1 * e_2 = e_2$ , and hence  $e_1 = e_2$ .
2. Let  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  be two inverses of  $a \in G$ . Then,

$$a_1 = a_1 * e = a_1 * (a * a_2) = (a_1 * a) * a_2 = e * a_2 = a_2.$$

**Definition 2.5.4**

The **order** of a group is the number of elements in  $G$  denoted by  $|G|$ . If  $G$  is finite, we write  $|G| < \infty$ . Otherwise, we say that  $G$  is infinite group.

**Groups of small order:**

★ Groups of order 1:  $\mathbb{Z}_1 = \{0\}, +$ :

If  $G = \{e\}$ , then  $G$  is a group of order 1, with  $e^{-1} = e$ .

$*$	$e$
$e$	$e$

★ Groups of order 2:  $\mathbb{Z}_2 = \{0, 1\}, +$ :

Let  $G = \{e, a\}$ . The identity element is  $e$  and the inverse of  $a$  is  $a$ .

$*$	$e$	$a$
$e$	$e$	$a$
$a$	$a$	$e$

**Remark 2.5.2**

Each element needs an inverse in any group. Thus, there must be identity input in each row and column in the Caylay table of the group.

**Remark 2.5.3**

The equations  $a * x = b$  and  $y * a = b$  have unique solutions. Therefore, each element appears exactly once in each row and column of the Caylay table of the group.

★ Groups of order 3:  $\mathbb{Z}_3 = \{0, 1, 2\}, +$ :

Let  $G = \{e, a, b\}$ . We start with Table 1.

Now if  $a * a = e$ , then  $a * b = b$  since each element appears once in each row and column. But this suggests that  $a = e$  which is not the case. Thus, we must have  $a * a = b$  and  $a * b = e$ . Therefore, we get Table 2.

Table 1.

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

Table 2.

$*$	$e$	$a$	$b$
$e$	$e$	$a$	$b$
$a$	$a$	<b><math>b</math></b>	<b><math>e</math></b>
$b$	$b$	<b><math>e</math></b>	<b><math>a</math></b>

**Remark 2.5.4**

For any element  $a$  in a group  $G$  and  $n$  is a natural number, we have:

1.  $a^n = a * a * \cdots * a$ ,  $n$ -times.
2.  $a^{-n} = (a^{-1})^n = (a^n)^{-1} = a^{-1} * a^{-1} * \cdots * a^{-1}$ ,  $n$ -times.
3.  $a^0 = e$ .

**Definition 2.5.5**

If two groups  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  have the same structure, one group can be made to look exactly like the other by a renaming of elements. Then they are said to be **isomorphic**, denoted by  $G_1 \cong G_2$ . In particular,  $|G_1| = |G_2|$ .

**Example 2.5.5**

Consider  $\mathbb{Z}_3 = \{0, 1, 2\}$  with "+ modulo 3". Find its order.

**Solution:**

This is a group of order 3 as above by renaming  $e = 0$ ,  $a = 1$ , and  $b = 2$ . Thus,  $|\mathbb{Z}_3| = 3$ .

+	0	1	2
0	0	1	2
1	1	2	0
2	2	0	1

★ Groups of order 4:  $\mathbb{Z}_4$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_2^2 = D_2$ :

Let  $G = \{e, a, b, c\}$ . Thus, the Caylay table is

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

The question mark can NOT be filled with  $a$ , but it can be filled either with  $e$  or with  $\{b \text{ or } c\}$ .

**Case-1:** The ? spot filled with " $e$ ": Note that  $a * b \neq b$  since  $a \neq e$ . Thus, we get two possible tables

$T_1$  and  $T_2$  as follows:

	<table><tr><td>*</td><td><i>e</i></td><td><i>a</i></td><td><i>b</i></td><td><i>c</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>e</i></td><td><i>e</i></td><td><i>a</i></td><td><i>b</i></td><td><i>c</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>a</i></td><td><i>a</i></td><td><b>e</b></td><td><i>c</i></td><td><i>b</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>b</i></td><td><i>b</i></td><td><i>c</i></td><td><i>e</i></td><td><i>a</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>c</i></td><td><i>c</i></td><td><i>b</i></td><td><i>a</i></td><td><i>e</i></td></tr></table>	*	<i>e</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>a</i>	<b>e</b>	<i>c</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>e</i>	or	<table><tr><td>*</td><td><i>e</i></td><td><i>a</i></td><td><i>b</i></td><td><i>c</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>e</i></td><td><i>e</i></td><td><i>a</i></td><td><i>b</i></td><td><i>c</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>a</i></td><td><i>a</i></td><td><b>e</b></td><td><i>c</i></td><td><i>b</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>b</i></td><td><i>b</i></td><td><i>c</i></td><td><i>a</i></td><td><i>e</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>c</i></td><td><i>c</i></td><td><i>b</i></td><td><i>e</i></td><td><i>a</i></td></tr></table>	*	<i>e</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>a</i>	<b>e</b>	<i>c</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>a</i>
*	<i>e</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>																																																	
<i>e</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>																																																	
<i>a</i>	<i>a</i>	<b>e</b>	<i>c</i>	<i>b</i>																																																	
<i>b</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>a</i>																																																	
<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>e</i>																																																	
*	<i>e</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>																																																	
<i>e</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>																																																	
<i>a</i>	<i>a</i>	<b>e</b>	<i>c</i>	<i>b</i>																																																	
<i>b</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>e</i>																																																	
<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>a</i>																																																	
$T_1$ (The Klein 4-group) :			$T_2$ :																																																		

**Case-2:** The ? spot filled with "b" without loss of generality, and  $a * c \neq c$  since  $a \neq e$ . We get  $T_3$ :

	*	<i>e</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>
$T_3 :$	<i>e</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>
	<i>a</i>	<i>a</i>	<b>b</b>	<i>c</i>	<i>e</i>
	<i>b</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>a</i>
	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>

We end up with three tables  $T_1, T_2$ , and  $T_3$ . Note that  $T_2$  has the same structure as  $T_3$  when we interchanging letters  $a$  and  $b$  in table  $T_2$  everywhere and then rewrite the table to get exactly table  $T_3$ . Note that  $T_1$  is the smallest example of a non-cyclic group which is called the Klein 4-group.

### Example 2.5.6

Consider the group  $(\mathbb{Z}_4, +)$ . Find its order.

#### Solution:

This is a group of order 4 and it is isomorphic to the table  $T_3$ , namely  $(\mathbb{Z}_4, +)$ .

+	0	1	2	3
0	0	1	2	3
1	1	2	3	0
2	2	3	0	1
3	3	0	1	2

### Exercise 2.5.1

Show that  $G = \{2^m 3^n : m, n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  is a group with respect to multiplication.

### Exercise 2.5.2

Let  $G$  denote  $M(\mathbb{R})$ , the set of all mappings on  $\mathbb{R}$ . For  $f, g \in G$  define  $f + g$  by  $(f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Verify that  $G$  with this operation is a group.

**Exercise 2.5.3**

Let  $G = \{A \in M_{2 \times 2} : \det A \in \mathbb{Q}^*\}$ . Show that  $(G, \cdot)$  is a group.

**Exercise 2.5.4**

Let  $G = \{A \in M_{2 \times 2} : \det A = 1\}$ . Show that  $(G, \cdot)$  is a group.

**Exercise 2.5.5**

Prove that if  $G$  is a group,  $a \in G$ , and  $a * b = b$  for some  $b \in G$ , then  $a$  is the identity element of  $G$ .

**Exercise 2.5.6**

Solve the following exercises from the book at pages 33 - 34:

- 5.1 – 5.14,
- 5.16 – 5.18,
- 5.22.

**Exercise 2.5.7**

Consider the group  $(U_4, \cdot)$  where  $U_4 = \{1, i, -1, -i\}$ . Find its order and its isomorphic group.

## Section 2.6: Permutations and Symmetric Group

### Definition 2.6.1

A permutation of a set  $A$  is a mapping  $\phi : A \rightarrow A$  that is both one-to-one and onto  $A$ . That is  $\phi : A \xrightarrow[\text{onto}]{1-1} A$ .

The composition mapping is a binary operation on the collection of all permutations of a set  $A$ . We will call this operation **permutation multiplication**.

### Theorem 2.6.1

The set of all permutations of a nonempty set  $A$  is a group with respect to permutation multiplication. This group is called the symmetric group on  $A$  and is denoted by  $\text{Sym}(A)$ .

If  $A = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  is a set, then the group  $\text{Sym}(A)$  is commonly denoted by  $S_n$ , and is called the **symmetric group on  $n$  letters**.

### Example 2.6.1

Let  $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ . Find the elements of  $\text{Sym}(A)$  or simply  $S_3$ .

**Solution:**

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ and } \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Which is (in cycle notation):

$$e, (2\ 3), (1\ 2), (1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2), \text{ and } (1\ 3)$$

### Theorem 2.6.2

The order of  $S_n = n!$ .

**Proof:**

Counting the number of possibilities of permutations  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \end{pmatrix}$ .

### Remark 2.6.1

- the identity element in  $S_n$  is  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \\ 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \end{pmatrix}$ .
- the inverse element is obtained by reading from bottom to top. That is, for instance,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 1 & 4 & 2 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

That is  $(1 \ 3 \ 4 \ 2)^{-1} = (1 \ 2 \ 4 \ 3)$ .

- Compute in  $S_4$ :

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \circ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

That is  $(1 \ 2 \ 4 \ 3) \circ (1 \ 3 \ 2) = (3 \ 4)$  "in cycle notation".

### Theorem 2.6.3

$S_1$  and  $S_2$  are abelian groups. If  $n \geq 3$ , then  $S_n$  is non-abelian group.

#### Proof:

Let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  in  $S_n$  ( $n \geq 3$ ) be defined by

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & \cdots & n \\ 1 & 3 & 2 & 4 & \cdots & n \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & \cdots & n \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 4 & \cdots & n \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then,

$$\alpha \circ \beta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & \cdots & n \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 4 & \cdots & n \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \beta \circ \alpha = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & \cdots & n \\ 3 & 1 & 2 & 4 & \cdots & n \end{pmatrix}.$$

That is  $\alpha \circ \beta \neq \beta \circ \alpha$ , and the group is non-abelian.



**Definition 2.6.2**

If  $A$  is a set and  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k \in A$ , then  $(a_1 \ a_2 \ \dots \ a_k)$  denotes the permutation of  $A$  for which  $a_1 \mapsto a_2, a_2 \mapsto a_3, \dots, a_{k-1} \mapsto a_k, a_k \mapsto a_1$ , and  $x \mapsto x$  for all other  $x \in A$ . Such a permutation is called a **cycle** or **k-cycle**.

**Example 2.6.2**

Compute  $(1 \ 3 \ 2 \ 5)(1 \ 4 \ 3 \ 2)$  in  $S_5$ .

**Solution:**

We multiply from right to left to get,  $(1 \ 3 \ 2 \ 5)(1 \ 4 \ 3 \ 2) = (1 \ 4 \ 2 \ 3 \ 5)$ .

**Example 2.6.3**

Compute  $(1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4)^{-1}$  in  $S_4$ .

**Solution:**

$$(1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4)^{-1} = (1 \ 4 \ 3 \ 2)$$

**Definition 2.6.3**

We say that cycles  $(a_1 \ a_2 \ \dots \ a_m)$  and  $(b_1 \ b_2 \ \dots \ b_n)$  are **disjoint cycles** if  $a_i \neq b_j$  for all  $i$  and  $j$ .

**Theorem 2.6.4**

Disjoint cycles commute; That is if  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  represent disjoint cycles, then  $\alpha\beta = \beta\alpha$ .

**Theorem 2.6.5**

Any permutation of a finite set is either a cycle or can be written as a product of pairwise disjoint cycles. The resulting form is called the **cyclic decomposition** of the permutation.

**Example 2.6.4**

Find the cyclic decomposition of the following permutations: 1.  $(1\ 3)(2\ 5\ 4)$ , 2.  $(1\ 4\ 5)(2\ 3\ 5)$ , 3.  $(1\ 2)(1\ 3)(4\ 5)$ , and 4.  $(1\ 5\ 4\ 6\ 3\ 2)(4\ 3\ 6)(2\ 5)$ .

**Solution:**

1.  $(1\ 3)(2\ 5\ 4) = (1\ 3)(2\ 5\ 4)$ .
2.  $(1\ 4\ 5)(2\ 3\ 5) = (1\ 4\ 5\ 2\ 3)$ .
3.  $(1\ 2)(1\ 3)(4\ 5) = (1\ 3\ 2)(4\ 5)$ .
4.  $(1\ 5\ 4\ 6\ 3\ 2)(4\ 3\ 6)(2\ 5) = (1\ 5)(2\ 4)$ .
5.  $(1\ 3\ 2)(2\ 4\ 5)(1\ 4) = (1\ 5)(2\ 4\ 3)$ .

**Example 2.6.5**

Write down the Cayley table for  $S_3$  defined by "row  $\circ$  column".

**Solution:**

$\circ$	$e$	$(1\ 2\ 3)$	$(1\ 3\ 2)$	$(1\ 2)$	$(1\ 3)$	$(2\ 3)$
$e$	$e$	$(1\ 2\ 3)$	$(1\ 3\ 2)$	$(1\ 2)$	$(1\ 3)$	$(2\ 3)$
$(1\ 2\ 3)$	$(1\ 2\ 3)$	$(1\ 3\ 2)$	$e$	$(1\ 3)$	$(2\ 3)$	$(1\ 2)$
$(1\ 3\ 2)$	$(1\ 3\ 2)$	$e$	$(1\ 2\ 3)$	$(2\ 3)$	$(1\ 2)$	$(1\ 3)$
$(1\ 2)$	$(1\ 2)$	$(2\ 3)$	$(1\ 3)$	$e$	$(1\ 3\ 2)$	$(1\ 2\ 3)$
$(1\ 3)$	$(1\ 3)$	$(1\ 2)$	$(2\ 3)$	$(1\ 2\ 3)$	$e$	$(1\ 3\ 2)$
$(2\ 3)$	$(2\ 3)$	$(1\ 3)$	$(1\ 2)$	$(1\ 3\ 2)$	$(1\ 2\ 3)$	$e$

**Exercise 2.6.1**

Solve the following exercises from the book at page 40:

- 6.1 – 6.4.

**Exercise 2.6.2**

Compute  $(1\ 4\ 6)^{-1}(1\ 2\ 4\ 3\ 5)$  in  $S_6$ .

## Section 2.7: Subgroups

### Definition 2.7.1

A subset  $H$  of a group  $G$  is a **subgroup** of  $G$  if  $H$  is itself a group under the binary operation of  $G$ . In that case, we write  $H \leq G$ . In addition, if  $H \neq G$ , we simply write  $H < G$ .

### Example 2.7.1

The following are some examples of subgroups:

- $(\mathbb{Z}, +) \leq (\mathbb{R}, +)$ ,
- $(\{1, -1\}, \cdot) \leq (\mathbb{R}^*, \cdot)$ ,
- (improper subgroup)  $(G, *) \leq (G, *)$  for any group  $G$  with operation  $*$ , and
- (improper subgroup)  $(\{e\}, *) \leq (G, *)$  for any group  $G$  with operation  $*$ .

### Remark 2.7.1

Let  $H$  be a subgroup of a group  $(G, *)$ , i.e.  $H \leq G$ . Then:

- $a * b \in H$  for all  $a, b \in H$ . In particular,  $H$  must be closed under the operation  $*$ .
- $e_H = e_G$  and for  $a \in H$ ,  $a^{-1}$  in  $H$  is the same as  $a^{-1}$  in  $G$ .

### Theorem 2.7.1

A subset  $H$  is a subgroup of a group  $G$  if and only if the following properties hold:

$\mathcal{S}_1$ :  $H$  is not empty.

$\mathcal{S}_2$ : If  $a, b \in H$ , then  $a * b \in H$ , and

$\mathcal{S}_3$ : If  $a \in H$ , then  $a^{-1} \in H$ .

### Proof:

»  $\Rightarrow$  Assume that  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . Then  $H$  is a group itself and the properties 1, 2, and 3 hold.

„ $\Leftarrow$ ” Assume now that properties 1, 2, and 3 hold. Then we show that  $H$  is a group contained in  $G$ :

$\mathcal{G}_1$ : Clearly  $*$  is associative on  $G$  and hence it is associative on its subset  $H$ .

$\mathcal{G}_2$ :  $H$  is not empty by Property 1, and hence there is  $a \in H$  and thus  $a^{-1} \in H$  (by Property 3). Therefore,  $a * a^{-1} = e \in H$  (by Property 2).

$\mathcal{G}_3$ : For any  $a \in H$ , there is an inverse of  $a$  in  $H$  by Property 3.

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

### Definition 2.7.2

A subgroup  $H$  of a group  $G$  is called a **proper subgroup** if  $H \neq \{e\}$  ”the trivial subgroup of  $G$ ”, and  $H \neq G$  ”the improper subgroup of  $G$ ”.

### Example 2.7.2: Exercise 7.22 at page 46

Prove that if  $G$  is a group with operation  $*$ , and  $H$  is a subset of  $G$ , then  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$  if and only if:

1.  $H$  is not empty.
2. If  $a, b \in H$ , then  $a * b^{-1} \in H$ , and

#### Solution:

„ $\Rightarrow$ ” Assume that  $H \leq G$ . Then  $H$  is a group and the properties 1, and 2 hold.

„ $\Leftarrow$ ” Assume now that properties 1, and 2 hold. Then we show that  $H$  is a group in  $G$ :

$\mathcal{G}_1$ : Clearly  $*$  is associative on  $G$  and hence it is associative on its subset  $H$ .

$\mathcal{G}_2$ : Let  $a \in H$ , then  $e = a * a^{-1} \in H$  (by Property 2).

$\mathcal{G}_3$ : For any  $a \in H$ , we have  $e * a^{-1} \in H$  (by Property 2) and hence there is an inverse of  $a$  in  $H$ .

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

**Remark 2.7.2**

1.  $(\mathbb{R}, +) \geq (\mathbb{Q}, +) \geq (\mathbb{Z}, +) \geq (n\mathbb{Z}, +), n \in \mathbb{Z}, \geq \{0\}$ .
2.  $(\mathbb{R}^*, \cdot) \geq (\mathbb{Q}^*, \cdot) \geq (\mathbb{Q}^+, \cdot) \geq \{1\}$ .
3. Note that  $(3\mathbb{Z}, +) \not\leq (2\mathbb{Z}, +)$  since  $3\mathbb{Z} \not\subseteq 2\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Example 2.7.3**

Show that  $H = \{0, 2\}$  is a subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}_4$  under the addition modular 4.

**Solution:**

+	0	2
0	0	2
2	2	$4 \equiv_4 0$

Clearly,  $H$  is not empty and the identity element is 0 and the inverse of each element in  $H$  is itself. Thus  $H \leq \mathbb{Z}_4$ .

**Example 2.7.4**

Show that  $H = \{e, (1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2)\}$  is a subgroup of  $S_3$  under the permutation multiplication.

**Solution:**

We show that by proving that  $H$  satisfying the three properties of Theorem 2.7.1. We first start with the following table:

$\circ$	$e$	$(1\ 2\ 3)$	$(1\ 3\ 2)$
$e$	$e$	$(1\ 2\ 3)$	$(1\ 3\ 2)$
$(1\ 2\ 3)$	$(1\ 2\ 3)$	$(1\ 3\ 2)$	$e$
$(1\ 3\ 2)$	$(1\ 3\ 2)$	$e$	$(1\ 2\ 3)$

$\mathcal{S}_1$ : Clearly  $H$  is not empty.

$\mathcal{S}_2$ : The previous table shows that  $H$  is closed under the operation  $\circ$ .

$\mathcal{S}_3$ : Finally,  $e^{-1} = e \in H$ ,  $(1\ 2\ 3)^{-1} = (1\ 3\ 2) \in H$ , and  $(1\ 3\ 2)^{-1} = (1\ 2\ 3) \in H$ .

Therefore,  $H$  is a subgroup of  $S_3$ .

**Remark 2.7.3**

Subgroups of  $S_3$  are:

1.  $S_3$ .
2.  $\{e\}$ .
3.  $\{e, (1\ 2)\}$ .
4.  $\{e, (1\ 3)\}$ .
5.  $\{e, (2\ 3)\}$ .
6.  $\{e, (1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2)\}$ .

**Remark 2.7.4**

A **transposition** is a 2-cycle element in  $S_n$ .

- Every element in  $S_n$  is a transposition or a product of transpositions (not in a unique way). For instance in  $S_3$ ,  $(1\ 2\ 3) = (1\ 3)(1\ 2) = (2\ 3)(1\ 2)(1\ 3)(2\ 3)$  and in general in  $S_n$  we have

$$(a_1\ a_2\ \cdots\ a_k) = (a_1\ a_k)(a_1\ a_{k-1}) \cdots (a_1\ a_2).$$

- A permutation is even (or odd) if it can be written as a product of an even (or an odd, respectively) number of transpositions.

**Example 2.7.5**

Decide whether  $\alpha = (1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5)$  and  $\beta = (1\ 2\ 5)(3\ 4)$  are even or odd permutations in  $S_5$ .

**Solution:**

- $\alpha$  is even (4 transpositions):  $\alpha = (1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5) = (1\ 5)(1\ 4)(1\ 3)(1\ 2)$ , and
- $\beta$  is odd (3 transpositions):  $\beta = (1\ 2\ 5)(3\ 4) = (1\ 5)(1\ 2)(3\ 4)$ .

**Definition 2.7.3**

The set of all even permutations in  $S_n$  is called the alternating group and is denoted by  $A_n$ . Moreover, it is of order  $\frac{1}{2} n!$ .

**Theorem 2.7.2**

For each  $n \geq 2$ ,  $A_n$  is a subgroup of  $S_n$ .

**Proof:**

Let  $n \geq 2$ , then

$\mathcal{S}_1$ : The identity permutation  $e = (1\ 2)(1\ 2) \in A_n$  and hence  $A_n \neq \phi$ .

$\mathcal{S}_2$ : If  $a, b \in A_n$ , then both are even permutations and the product of two even number of transpositions is an even number. Thus  $ab \in A_n$ .

$\mathcal{S}_3$ : If  $a = (a_1\ a_2)(a_3\ a_4) \cdots (a_{k-1}\ a_k) \in A_n$ , then  $a^{-1} = (a_{k-1}\ a_k) \cdots (a_3\ a_4)(a_1\ a_2) \in A_n$

Therefore,  $A_n \leq S_n$ .

**Remark 2.7.5**

Note that the subgroup  $H$  of Example 2.7.4 is in fact  $A_3$  which is a subgroup of  $S_3$  and its order is  $3 = \frac{1}{2} 3!$ .

**Definition 2.7.4**

Let  $G$  be a permutation group on a set  $S$ , and let  $T \subseteq S$ . We define:

- $G_T = \{\alpha \in G : \alpha(t) = t \text{ for all } t \in T\}$ , which leaves  $T$  elementwise invariant.
- $G_{(T)} = \{\alpha \in G : \alpha(T) = T\}$ , which leaves  $T$  setwise invariant.

**Example 2.7.6**

Let  $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ ,  $G = \text{sym}(S) = S_4$ , and  $T = \{1, 2\}$ . Find  $G_T$  and  $G_{(T)}$ .

**Solution:**



$$G_T = \{(1)(2)(3)(4), (1)(2)(3\ 4)\} = \{e, (3\ 4)\}.$$

$$G_{(T)} = \{(1)(2)(3)(4), (1\ 2)(3)(4), (1)(2)(3\ 4), (1\ 2)(3\ 4)\} = \{e, (1\ 2), (3\ 4), (1\ 2)(3\ 4)\}.$$

### Theorem 2.7.3

If  $G$  is a permutation group on  $S$ , and  $T \subseteq S$ , then  $G_T$  and  $G_{(T)}$  are subgroups of  $G$ . Moreover,  $G_T$  is a subgroup of  $G_{(T)}$ .

#### Proof:

We first show that  $G_T \leq G$ .

$\mathcal{S}_1$ : Clearly, the identity mapping  $I$  of  $G$  is in  $G_T$ , and hence  $G_T \neq \phi$ .

$\mathcal{S}_2$ : Let  $\alpha, \beta \in G_T$ , then for each  $t \in T$ , we have

$$(\alpha \circ \beta)(t) = \alpha(\beta(t)) = \alpha(t) = t.$$

So,  $\alpha \circ \beta \in G_T$ .

$\mathcal{S}_3$ : If  $\alpha \in G_T$ , and  $t \in T$ , then  $\alpha^{-1} \in G_T$  because

$$\alpha(t) = t$$

$$\alpha^{-1}(\alpha(t)) = \alpha^{-1}(t)$$

$$(\alpha^{-1} \circ \alpha)(t) = \alpha^{-1}(t)$$

$$t = \alpha^{-1}(t).$$

Therefore  $G_T$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . Next we show that  $G_{(T)} \leq G$ .

$\mathcal{S}_1$ : Clearly  $I(T) = T$  and hence  $G_{(T)} \neq \phi$ .

$\mathcal{S}_2$ : If  $\alpha, \beta \in G_{(T)}$ , then  $(\alpha \circ \beta)(T) = \alpha(\beta(T)) = \alpha(T) = T$  and hence  $\alpha \circ \beta \in G_{(T)}$ .

$\mathcal{S}_3$ : If  $\alpha \in G_{(T)}$ , then  $\alpha(T) = T \Rightarrow \alpha^{-1}(\alpha(T)) = \alpha^{-1}(T) \Rightarrow T = \alpha^{-1}(T)$  and hence  $\alpha^{-1} \in G_{(T)}$ .

Therefore,  $G_{(T)} \leq G$ .

To show that  $G_T \leq G_{(T)}$ , we only show that  $G_T \subseteq G_{(T)}$  as follows: If  $\alpha \in G_T$ , then  $\alpha(t) = t$  for each  $t \in T$  and hence  $\alpha(T) = T$ . That is  $\alpha \in G_{(T)}$ . Therefore,  $G_T \subseteq G_{(T)}$  and hence  $G_T \leq G_{(T)}$ .

**Example 2.7.7: Exercise 7.13 at page 46**

Let  $H$  and  $K$  be two subgroups of  $(G, *)$ . Show that  $H \cap K$  is also a subgroup of  $(G, *)$ .

**Solution:**

We show that  $H \cap K$  is a subgroup of  $G$  as follows:

$\mathcal{S}_1$ :  $H \cap K \neq \phi$ : Since  $H$  and  $K$  are both subgroups of  $G$ , then  $e \in H$  and  $e \in K$ , and hence  $e \in H \cap K$ .

$\mathcal{S}_2$ :  $H \cap K$  is closed under  $*$ : Let  $a, b \in H \cap K$ . Then

1.  $a, b \in H$ , and since  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ ,  $a * b \in H$ , and
2.  $a, b \in K$ , and since  $K$  is a subgroup of  $G$ ,  $a * b \in K$ .

Thus,  $a * b \in H \cap K$ .

$\mathcal{S}_3$ : For each  $a \in H \cap K$ , there exists  $a^{-1} \in H \cap K$ : Let  $a \in H \cap K$ . Thus,  $a \in H$  and hence  $a^{-1} \in H$ . Also,  $a \in K$  and hence  $a^{-1} \in K$ . Therefore,  $a^{-1} \in H \cap K$ .

Therefore,  $H \cap K$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .

**Definition 2.7.5**

Let  $G$  be a group with operation  $*$  and that  $a \in G$ . The **centralizer of  $a$  in  $G$**  is defined by

$$C(a) = \{g \in G : a * g = g * a\}.$$

**Definition 2.7.6**

Let  $G$  be a group with operation  $*$ . The **center of  $G$**  is defined by

$$Z(G) = \{g \in G : g * a = a * g \text{ for all } a \in G\}.$$

**Remark 2.7.6**

For the sake of simplicity, we write  $ab$  instead of  $a * b$  for any elements  $a$  and  $b$  in  $(G, *)$ .

**Example 2.7.8:** Exercises 7.23 & 7.24 at page 46

Let  $G$  be a group with operation  $*$ . Then,

- (a) Show that  $C(a)$  is a subgroup of  $G$  for  $a \in G$ .
- (b) Show that  $Z(G)$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .

**Solution:**

We first show that  $C(a) \leq G$  for  $a \in G$  as follows:

$\mathcal{S}_1$ : Clearly,  $ae = a = ea$ . Hence,  $e \in C(a) \neq \phi$ .

$\mathcal{S}_2$ : Let  $g, h \in C(a)$ . Then,  $ag = ga$  and  $ah = ha$ . Thus,

$$a(gh) = (ag)h = (ga)h = g(ah) = g(ha) = (gh)a.$$

Since  $a(gh) = (gh)a$ ,  $(gh) \in C(a)$ , and  $C(a)$  is closed.

$\mathcal{S}_3$ : Let  $g \in C(a)$ . Then,

$$ag = ga \Leftrightarrow g^{-1}(ag) = a \Leftrightarrow g^{-1}a = ag^{-1}.$$

Hence,  $g^{-1} \in C(a)$ .

Therefore,  $C(a) \leq G$ . Next we show that  $Z(G) \leq G$  as follows:

$\mathcal{S}_1$ : For all  $a \in G$ ,  $ae = a = ea$ . Hence,  $e \in Z(G) \neq \phi$ .

$\mathcal{S}_2$ : Let  $g, h \in Z(G)$ , then  $ga = ag$  and  $ha = ah$  for all  $a \in G$ . Thus, for all  $a \in G$ , we have

$$a(gh) = (ag)h = (ga)h = g(ah) = g(ha) = (gh)a.$$

Therefore,  $gh \in Z(G)$ .

$\mathcal{S}_3$ : Let  $g \in Z(G)$ . Then,  $ag = ga$  for all  $a \in G$ . Then

$$g^{-1}ag = a \Leftrightarrow g^{-1}a = ag^{-1}.$$

Therefore,  $Z(G) \leq G$ .

**Example 2.7.9**

Suppose that  $G$  is an abelian group with operation  $*$ . Let  $H$  and  $K$  be two subgroups of  $G$ . Show that  $HK = \{hk : h \in H \text{ and } k \in K\}$  is also a subgroup of  $G$ .

**Solution:**

$\mathcal{S}_1$ : Clearly,  $e \in H$  and  $e \in K$ . Thus,  $e = ee \in HK \neq \phi$ .

$\mathcal{S}_2$ : Let  $a = h_1k_1, b = h_2k_2 \in HK$  so that  $h_1, h_2 \in H$  and  $k_1, k_2 \in K$ . Then,  $h_1h_2 \in H$  and  $k_1k_2 \in K$  since both  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups of  $G$ . Since  $G$  is abelian, we have

$$ab = (h_1k_1)(h_2k_2) = (h_1h_2)(k_1k_2) = hk \in HK,$$

where  $h = h_1h_2 \in H$  and  $k = k_1k_2 \in K$ . Thus  $HK$  is closed.

$\mathcal{S}_3$ : Let  $a = hk \in HK$  where  $h \in H$  and  $k \in K$ . Then,  $h^{-1} \in H$  and  $k^{-1} \in K$ . Thus,

$$a^{-1} = (hk)^{-1} = k^{-1}h^{-1},$$

and since  $G$  is abelian, we have

$$a^{-1} = k^{-1}h^{-1} = h^{-1}k^{-1} \in HK$$

Therefore,  $HK$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .

**Remark 2.7.7**

Note that if  $G$  is a group (not abelian), then  $HK$  is not necessary a subgroup of  $G$  for any subgroups  $H$  and  $K$ . For instance consider  $G = S_3$  and  $H = \{e, (1\ 2)\}$  and  $K = \{e, (2\ 3)\}$ .

**Example 2.7.10**

Let  $G$  be a group. If  $a, b \in G$  with  $ab \in Z(G)$ , then  $ab = ba$ .

**Solution:**

We show that  $aba^{-1}b^{-1} = e$  which is equivalent to showing that  $ab = ba$ . Note that  $(ab)g = g(ab)$  for all  $g \in G$ . Then

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

**Exercise 2.7.1**

Solve the following exercises from the book at pages 45 - 46:

- 7.1 – 7.4,
- 7.8, 7.10, 7.13, 7.15,
- 7.22 – 7.24.

**Exercise 2.7.2**

Prove or disprove: For any given group  $G$ ,

$$Z(G) = \bigcap_{a \in G} C(a).$$

**Exercise 2.7.3**

For any given group  $G$ , Compute  $C(e)$ .

**Exercise 2.7.4**

Let  $GL_n(\mathbb{R}) = \{\text{all } n \times n \text{ nonsingular matrices with real entries}\}$  be a group with the operation of matrix multiplication and let  $SL_n(\mathbb{R}) = \{A \in GL_n(\mathbb{R}) : \det(A) = 1\}$ . Show that  $SL_n(\mathbb{R}) \leq GL_n(\mathbb{R})$ .

**Exercise 2.7.5**

Let  $GL_2(\mathbb{R}) = \{\text{all } 2 \times 2 \text{ nonsingular matrices with real entries}\}$  be a group with the operation of matrix multiplication. Find  $C\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}\right)$ .



## Section 3.9: Equivalence Relations

## Definition 3.9.1

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be sets. A **relation**  $\sim$  from  $A$  to  $B$  is a subset of  $A \times B$ . If  $a \in A$  is related to  $b \in B$ , then we write  $a \sim b$ . Otherwise,  $a \not\sim b$ . Moreover, if  $A = B$ , we simply say that  $\sim$  is a relation on  $A$ .

## Definition 3.9.2

Let  $\sim$  be a relation on a set  $A$ . Then  $\sim$  is called an **equivalence relation** if and only if:

1.  $\sim$  is **reflexive** on  $A$ :  $(\forall x \in A) x \sim x$ .
2.  $\sim$  is **symmetric** on  $A$ :  $(\forall x, y \in A)$  if  $x \sim y$ , then  $y \sim x$ .
3.  $\sim$  is **transitive** on  $A$ :  $(\forall x, y, z \in A)$  if  $x \sim y$  and  $y \sim z$ , then  $x \sim z$ .

## Example 3.9.1

Let  $\sim$  be the relation on  $\mathbb{Z}$  given by  $x \sim y$  iff  $x - y$  is even. Show that  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Solution:**

- for all  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $x - x = 0$  which is even, hence  $x \sim x$  and  $\sim$  is reflexive.
- for any  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ , let  $x \sim y$ . Then  $x - y$  is even. That is  $x - y = 2k$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Hence  $y - x = 2(-k)$  which is even as well. Thus,  $y \sim x$  and  $\sim$  is symmetric.
- for any  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$ , let  $x \sim y$  and  $y \sim z$ . Then,  $x - y$  and  $y - z$  is even. So,  $(x - y) + (y - z) = x - z$  is also even. Thus,  $x \sim z$  and  $\sim$  is transitive.

Therefore,  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Example 3.9.2**

Let  $\alpha : A \rightarrow B$  be a mapping and define a relation  $\sim$  on  $A$  so that for any  $x, y \in A$ ,  $x \sim y$  iff  $\alpha(x) = \alpha(y)$ . Clearly,  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation. (Can you show it!?).

**Definition 3.9.3**

Let  $A$  be a non-empty set. A **partition** of the set  $A$  is a family of nonempty subsets  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  such that:

1.  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i = A$ , and
2.  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  if  $i \neq j$ .

**Example 3.9.3**

Let  $E$  denote the set of even integers and  $O$  the set of odd integers. Then,  $\{E, O\}$  forms a partition of the set of all integers. Note that  $\{0, 1\}$  is a complete set of equivalence class representatives.

**Definition 3.9.4**

Let  $\sim$  be an equivalence relation on a set  $A$ . For  $x \in A$ , define the **equivalence class** of  $x$  determined by  $\sim$  as

$$[x] = \{y \in A : x \sim y\}.$$

**Remark 3.9.1**

It is always true that  $x \in [x]$  because  $\sim$  is reflexive. And if  $y \in [x]$ , then  $x \in [y]$  because  $\sim$  is symmetric.

**Theorem 3.9.1**

If  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on a nonempty set  $A$ , then the set of equivalence classes of  $\sim$  forms a partition of  $A$ .



**Theorem 3.9.2**

Let  $G$  be a permutation group on nonempty set  $S$  and define a relation  $\sim$  on  $S$  by  $a \sim b$  iff  $\alpha(a) = b$  for some  $\alpha \in G$ . Then  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on  $S$ .

**Proof:**

We show that  $\sim$  is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive relations as follows:

Ref.: If  $a \in S$ , then  $I(a) = a$  and hence  $a \sim a$ .

Symm.: If  $a, b \in S$  and  $a \sim b$ , then  $\alpha(a) = b$  for some  $\alpha \in G$  and hence  $\alpha^{-1}(b) = a$  with  $\alpha^{-1} \in G$ . Thus  $b \sim a$ .

Trans.: If  $a, b, c \in S$  with  $a \sim b$  and  $b \sim c$ , then there are  $\alpha, \beta \in G$  such that  $\alpha(a) = b$  and  $\beta(b) = c$ . Thus  $\beta \circ \alpha \in G$  with

$$(\beta \circ \alpha)(a) = \beta(\alpha(a)) = \beta(b) = c.$$

That is  $a \sim c$ .

**Example 3.9.4**

Let  $G = \{e, (1\ 2\ 5), (1\ 5\ 2)\}$  and  $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$  and define a relation  $\sim$  on  $S$  by  $a \sim b$  iff  $\alpha(a) = b$  for some  $\alpha \in G$ . Find all the equivalence classes of  $\sim$  on  $S$ .

**Solution:**

Clearly,  $\{1, 2, 5\}, \{3\}, \{4\}$  are the equivalence classes of  $\sim$  on  $S$ . Moreover,  $\{1, 3, 4\}$  are called equivalence classes representatives.

**Exercise 3.9.1**

Solve the following exercises from the book at pages 55 - 56:

- 9.1 – 9.4,
- 9.8, 9.9, 9.13
- 9.19.

**Exercise 3.9.2**

Let  $\sim$  be a relation on  $\mathbb{N}$  so that  $x \sim y$  iff  $3 \mid x + y$ . Is  $\sim$  an equivalence relation on  $\mathbb{N}$ ? Explain your answer.

**Exercise 3.9.3**

Let  $\sim$  be a relation on  $\mathbb{N}$  so that  $x \sim y$  iff  $3 \mid x + 2y$ . Show that  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on  $\mathbb{N}$ .

## Section 3.10: Congruence. The Division Algorithm

### Definition 3.10.1

Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $b$  is divisible by  $a$  if there is  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $b = ak$ . In that case we say:

- $a$  divides  $b$ , written as  $a \mid b$ ,
- $b$  is a multiple of  $a$ , and
- $a$  is a factor of  $b$ .

### Theorem 3.10.1

If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , not both zero, then there is a unique positive integer  $d$  such that

1.  $d \mid a$  and  $d \mid b$ , and
2. if  $c \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $c \mid a$  and  $c \mid b$ , then  $c \mid d$ .

In that case,  $d$  is called the greatest common divisor and it is denoted by  $d = \text{GCD}(a, b)$ .

### Remark 3.10.1

The following are some general facts about integer numbers:

1. An integer  $p$  is a prime if  $p > 1$  and has no positive factors other than 1 and  $p$ ,
2. If  $a \mid b$ , then  $a \mid -b$ , and
3. If  $a \mid b$  and  $a \mid c$ , then  $a \mid (b \pm c)$ .
4. If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  (not both zeros), then  $\text{GCD}(a, b) = 1$  if and only if there are integers  $m$  and  $n$  such that  $am + bn = 1$ .

### Definition 3.10.2

Let  $n$  be a positive integer. Integers  $a$  and  $b$  are said to be **congruent modulo  $n$**  if  $a - b$  is divisible by  $n$ . This is written as  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  or  $a \equiv_n b$ . That is

$$a \equiv_n b \iff n \mid a - b \iff a = kn + b \text{ or } a - b = kn \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

**Example 3.10.1**

Here is some examples of some integers modulo  $n$  for some positive integer  $n$ :

- $17 \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$  since  $7 \mid (17 - 3) = 14$ ,
- $4 \equiv 22 \pmod{9}$  since  $9 \mid (4 - 22) = -18$ ,
- $19 \equiv 19 \pmod{11}$  since  $11 \mid (19 - 19) = 0$ ,
- but  $17 \not\equiv 3 \pmod{8}$  since  $8 \nmid (17 - 3) = 14$ .

**Theorem 3.10.2**

Congruence modulo  $n$  is an equivalence relation on  $\mathbb{Z}$ , for each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .

**Proof:**

We show that " $\equiv_n$ " is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive:

Ref.: for all  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $a \equiv_n a$  since  $n \mid (a - a) = 0$ .

Symm.: for all  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , if  $a \equiv_n b$ , then  $n \mid a - b$  and so  $n \mid b - a$ . That is  $b \equiv_n a$ .

Trans.: for all  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ , if  $a \equiv_n b$  and  $b \equiv_n c$ , then  $n \mid a - b$  and  $n \mid b - c$ . Thus,  $n \mid [(a - b) + (b - c)]$  which implies  $n \mid a - c$ . Hence,  $a \equiv_n c$ .

**Remark 3.10.2**

The equivalence classes for the equivalence relation " $\equiv_n$ " are called congruence classes modulo  $n$ .

**Theorem 3.10.3**

Let  $n$  be a positive integer and  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then,  $x \equiv_n y$  if and only if  $[x] = [y]$ .

**Proof:**

" $\Rightarrow$ ": Assume that  $x \equiv_n y$ . Then,  $n \mid x - y$ .

$$z \in [x] \iff z \equiv_n x \iff z \equiv_n y \iff z \in [y].$$

" $\Leftarrow$ ": Assume that  $[x] = [y]$ . Then  $x \in [x] = [y]$  implies that  $x \equiv_n y$ .

**Example 3.10.2**

Find a complete set of equivalence class representatives of  $\equiv_4$  on  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Solution:**

There are four congruence classes modulo 4:

$$[0] = \{\dots, -8, -4, 0, 4, 8, \dots\} \quad : 4 \mid 0 - a \text{ where } a \in \mathbb{Z},$$

$$[1] = \{\dots, -7, -3, 1, 5, 9, \dots\} \quad : 4 \mid 1 - a \text{ where } a \in \mathbb{Z},$$

$$[2] = \{\dots, -6, -2, 2, 6, 10, \dots\} \quad : 4 \mid 2 - a \text{ where } a \in \mathbb{Z},$$

$$[3] = \{\dots, -5, -1, 3, 7, 11, \dots\} \quad : 4 \mid 3 - a \text{ where } a \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Thus  $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$  is a complete set of congruence class representatives.

**Theorem 3.10.4**

Let  $n$  be a positive integer. Then each integer is congruent modulo  $n$  to exactly one of the integers  $0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$ .

**Definition 3.10.3**

Let  $n$  be a positive integer. Then  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  denotes a complete set of congruence classes modulo  $n$ .

That is  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{[0], [1], \dots, [n-1]\}$ .

**Least Integer Principle**

Every nonempty set of positive integers contains a least element.

**Example 3.10.3**

Note that

$$\frac{11}{4} = 2 + \frac{3}{4} \text{ is the same as } 11 = 4 \cdot 2 + 3.$$

**Theorem 3.10.5: The Division Algorithm**

If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $b > 0$ , then there exist unique integers  $q$  and  $r$  such that

$$a = bq + r; \quad 0 \leq r < b. \quad \text{That is, } a \equiv r \pmod{b}.$$

**Example 3.10.4**

Note that (1)  $11 = 4 \cdot 2 + 3$  and (2)  $-6 = 4 \cdot (-2) + 2$  as in  $a = b \cdot q + r$ . That is

1.  $r = 3$  is the smallest positive integer in the congruence class mod 4 containing  $a = 11$ , and  $q = 2$  is the number of positions (right) that moves us from  $r = 3$  to  $a = 11$ .
2.  $r = 2$  is the smallest positive integer in the congruence class mod 4 containing  $a = -6$ , and  $q = -2$  is the number of positions (left) that moves us from  $r = 2$  to  $a = -6$ .

**Example 3.10.5: Exercise 10.3 at page 60**

Find the smallest nonnegative integer congruent modulo 7 for

a. 12

b. 100

c. -25

**Solution:**

a  $\frac{12}{7} = 1 + \frac{5}{7} \Rightarrow 12 = 1 \cdot 7 + 5 \Rightarrow 12 \equiv 5 \pmod{7},$

b  $\frac{100}{7} = 14 + \frac{2}{7} \Rightarrow 100 = 14 \cdot 7 + 2 \Rightarrow 100 \equiv 2 \pmod{7},$

c  $\frac{-25}{7} = -3 - \frac{4}{7} + (1 - 1) = -4 + \frac{3}{7} \Rightarrow -25 = -4 \cdot 7 + 3 \Rightarrow -25 \equiv 3 \pmod{7}.$

**Example 3.10.6: Exercise 10.5 at page 60**

Find all  $x$  such that  $2x \equiv x \pmod{5}$ .

**Solution:**

Clearly,  $2x \equiv x \pmod{5} \Leftrightarrow 5 \mid (2x - x) \Leftrightarrow 5 \mid x \Leftrightarrow x = \{5k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$

**Example 3.10.7:** Exercise 10.11 at page 60

For each pair  $a$  and  $b$ , find the unique integers  $q$  and  $r$  such that  $a = bq + r$  with  $0 \leq r < b$ .

(a)  $a = 19, b = 5,$

(b)  $a = -7, b = 5,$

(c)  $a = 11, b = 17,$

(d)  $a = 50, b = 6,$

(e)  $a = 13, b = 20,$

(f)  $a = 30, b = 1.$

**Solution:**

Recall that  $a = \textcircled{q} \cdot b + \boxed{r} \Leftrightarrow \frac{a}{b} = q + \frac{r}{b} \Leftrightarrow a - r = bq \Leftrightarrow a \equiv r \pmod{b}$ . Then,

(a)  $\frac{19}{5} = 3 + \frac{4}{5} \Rightarrow 19 = \textcircled{3} \cdot 5 + \boxed{4}.$

(b)  $\frac{-7}{5} = -2 + \frac{3}{5} \Rightarrow -7 = \textcircled{-2} \cdot 5 + \boxed{3}.$

(c)  $\frac{11}{17} = 0 + \frac{11}{17} \Rightarrow 11 = \textcircled{0} \cdot 17 + \boxed{11}.$

(d)  $\frac{50}{6} = 8 + \frac{2}{6} \Rightarrow 50 = \textcircled{8} \cdot 6 + \boxed{2}.$

(e)  $\frac{13}{20} = 0 + \frac{13}{20} \Rightarrow 13 = \textcircled{0} \cdot 20 + \boxed{13}.$

(f)  $\frac{30}{1} = 30 + \frac{0}{1} \Rightarrow 30 = \textcircled{30} \cdot 1 + \boxed{0}.$

**Exercise 3.10.1**

Solve the following exercises from the book at pages 60 - 61:

- 10.1,
- 10.3 – 10.8,
- 10.11 – 10.18,
- 10.24.



## Section 3.11: Integers Modulo $n$

### Remark 3.11.1

With  $n$  is a fixed positive integer and  $k$  is any integer, let  $[k]$  denote the congruence class to which  $k$  belongs (mod  $n$ ). That is

$$[k] = \{h \in \mathbb{Z} : h \equiv k \pmod{n}\}.$$

### Definition 3.11.1

Let  $[a], [b] \in \mathbb{Z}_n = \{[0], [1], \dots, [n-1]\}$ , define  $[a] \oplus [b]$  by

$$[a] \oplus [b] = [a + b].$$

### Example 3.11.1

For  $n = 5$ , compute  $[3] \oplus [4]$  and  $[18] \oplus [-1]$ .

#### Solution:

1.  $[3] \oplus [4] = [3 + 4] = [7] = [2] \in \mathbb{Z}_5$ , and
2.  $[18] \oplus [-1] = [18 + (-1)] = [17] = [2] \in \mathbb{Z}_5$ .

### Theorem 3.11.1

$\mathbb{Z}_n$ , the group of integers modulo  $n$ , is an abelian group with respect to the operation  $\oplus$ .

#### Proof:

Clearly,  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is abelian since  $[a] \oplus [b] = [a + b] = [b + a] = [b] \oplus [a]$ . To show that  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is a group:

$\mathcal{G}_1$ :  $\oplus$  is associative:

$$\begin{aligned} [a] \oplus ([b] \oplus [c]) &= [a] \oplus [b + c] = [a + (b + c)] \\ &= [(a + b) + c] = [a + b] \oplus [c] = ([a] \oplus [b]) \oplus [c]. \end{aligned}$$

$\mathcal{G}_2$ : The identity is  $[0]$  since  $[a] \oplus [0] = [a] = [0] \oplus [a]$ .

$\mathcal{G}_3$ : For  $[a] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ , the inverse is  $[-a] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  with  $[a] \oplus [-a] = [a + (-a)] = [0]$ .

**Theorem 3.11.2**

There is a group of order  $n$  for each positive integer  $n$ .

**Proof:**

$(\mathbb{Z}_n, \oplus)$  has  $n$  elements  $\{[0], [1], \dots, [n-1]\}$ .

**Definition 3.11.2**

For  $[a], [b] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ , define  $[a] \odot [b] = [ab]$ .

**Remark 3.11.2**

$(\mathbb{Z}_n, \odot)$  is not a group in general, but  $\odot$  is associative and commutative on  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  has  $[1]$  as an identity element. Note that  $[0]$  has no inverse in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ .

**Theorem 3.11.3**

$(\mathbb{Z}_n^*, \odot)$  is a group if and only if  $n$  is a prime number.

**Proof:**

„ $\Rightarrow$ ” By contradiction assume that  $n$  is not prime. Then  $n = ab$  for some  $1 < a, b < n$ . Considering the equivalence classes, we have  $[a], [b] \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ . Then

$$[a][b] = [ab] = [n] = [0] \notin \mathbb{Z}_n^*.$$

Then,  $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$  is not a group, which is contradiction.

„ $\Leftarrow$ ” Assume that  $n$  is a prime. Then,

1. Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ , then  $ab \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$  since  $ab \neq n$ .
2. Clearly,  $1 \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$  (the identity is in  $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$ ).
3. Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ , then (the greatest common divisor of  $a$  and  $n$ )  $GCD(a, n) = 1$  which implies

$$\exists b, c \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } ab + nc = 1 \Rightarrow ab = 1 - nc \Rightarrow ab = 1 \pmod{n} \Rightarrow b = a^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*.$$

**Exercise 3.11.1**

Solve the following exercises from the book at pages 64 - 65:

- 11.1 – 11.8.

**Exercise 3.11.2**

Prove or disprove the following statements:

- $(\mathbb{Z}_4^*, \odot)$  is a group.
- $(\mathbb{Z}_5^*, \odot)$  is a group.

## Section 3.12: Greatest Common Divisor. The Euclidean Algorithm

### The Euclidean Algorithm

Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $a > b > 0$ . Then to find the  $\text{GCD}(a, b)$ , we do:

$$a = b q_1 + r_1, \quad 0 \leq r_1 < b.$$

If  $r_1 = 0$ , then  $\text{GCD}(a, b) = b$ . Otherwise,

$$b = r_1 q_2 + r_2, \quad 0 \leq r_2 < r_1.$$

If  $r_2 = 0$ , then  $\text{GCD}(a, b) = r_1$ . Otherwise, we go on as follows

$$a = b q_1 + r_1, \quad 0 \leq r_1 < b$$

$$b = r_1 q_2 + r_2, \quad 0 \leq r_2 < r_1$$

$$r_1 = r_2 q_3 + r_3, \quad 0 \leq r_3 < r_2$$

$$r_2 = r_3 q_4 + r_4, \quad 0 \leq r_4 < r_3$$

and so on. At some point for some  $k$ ,  $r_{k+1} = 0$  so that

$$r_{k-2} = r_{k-1} q_k + r_k, \quad 0 \leq r_k < r_{k-1}$$

$$r_{k-1} = r_k q_{k+1}.$$

Therefore,  $\text{GCD}(a, b) = r_k$ .

### Example 3.12.1

Compute the  $\text{GCD}(12, 5)$  by The Euclidean Algorithm, and write it as a linear combination of 12 and 5.

#### Solution:

Following the Euclidean Algorithm, we get:

$$12 = 5 \cdot 2 + 2,$$

$$5 = 2 \cdot 2 + 1,$$

$$2 = 2 \cdot 1$$

Therefore,  $\text{GCD}(12, 5) = 1$ . To write 1 as a linear combination of 12 and 5, we go back as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= 5 - 2 \cdot 2 \\ &= 5 - 2 \cdot (12 - 5 \cdot 2) \\ &= 5 \cdot 5 - 12 \cdot 2. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $1 = 5 \cdot 5 - 12 \cdot 2$ .

### Example 3.12.2

Compute the  $\text{GCD}(1001, 357)$  by The Euclidean Algorithm, and write it as a linear combination of 1001 and 357. Do the same thing for  $\text{GCD}(252, 105)$ ? =?21.

#### Solution:

Following the Euclidean Algorithm, we get:

$$\begin{aligned} 1001 &= 357 \cdot 2 + 287, \\ 357 &= 287 \cdot 1 + 70, \\ 287 &= 70 \cdot 4 + 7, \\ 70 &= 7 \cdot 10. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $\text{GCD}(1001, 357) = 7$ . To write 7 as a linear combination of 1001 and 357, we go back as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} 7 &= 287 - 70 \cdot 4 \\ &= (1001 - 357 \cdot 2) - (357 - 287 \cdot 1) \cdot 4 \\ &= (1001 - 357 \cdot 2) - (357 - (1001 - 357 \cdot 2)) \cdot 4 \\ &= (1001 - 357 \cdot 2) - 357 \cdot 4 + (1001 - 357 \cdot 2) \cdot 4 \\ &= 1001 \cdot 5 - 357 \cdot 14. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $7 = 1001 \cdot 5 - 357 \cdot 14$ .

**Remark 3.12.1**

Two integers  $a$  and  $b$  are said to be relatively prime if  $\text{GCD}(a, b) = 1$ . For instance, 4 and 9 are relatively prime integers.

**Example 3.12.3: Exercise 12.7 at page 69**

Find the  $\text{GCD}(-90, 1386)$  and write it as a linear combination of  $-90$  and  $1386$ .

**Solution:**

Following the Euclidean Algorithm for 1386 and 90, we get:

$$1386 = 90 \cdot 15 + 36,$$

$$90 = 36 \cdot 2 + 18,$$

$$36 = 18 \cdot 2$$

Therefore,  $\text{GCD}(-90, 1386) = 18$ . To write 18 as a linear combination of  $-90$  and  $1386$ , we go back as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} 18 &= 90 - 36 \cdot 2 \\ &= 90 - (1386 - 90 \cdot 15) \cdot 2 \\ &= 90 \cdot 31 - 1386 \cdot 2 \\ &= (-90) \cdot (-31) - 1386 \cdot 2 \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $18 = (-90) \cdot (-31) - 1386 \cdot 2$ .

**Example 3.12.4: Exercise 12.21 at page 69**

Prove that if  $\text{GCD}(a, m) = 1$ , then there is a solution (for  $x$ ) to the congruence  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ .

**Solution:**

Since  $\text{GCD}(a, m) = 1$ , we have  $au + mv = 1$  for some  $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then

$$a(ub) + m(vb) = b \quad \Rightarrow \quad a(ub) \equiv b \pmod{m}.$$

That is  $x = ub$  is a solution.

**Exercise 3.12.1**

Solve the following exercises from the book at page 69:

- 12.1 – 12.7,
- 12.21.

## Section 3.13: Factorization. Euler's Phi-Function

### Theorem 3.13.1

If  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ , with  $a \mid bc$  and  $\text{GCD}(a, b) = 1$ , then  $a \mid c$ .

#### Proof:

Since  $\text{GCD}(a, b) = 1$ , then there is  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $am + bn = 1$ . Thus,  $amc + bnc = c$ . Clearly  $a \mid amc$  and  $a \mid bnc$  because  $a \mid bc$ . Thus,  $a \mid (amc + bnc) = c$ .

### Theorem 3.13.2: Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

Each integer  $n > 1$  can be written as a product of primes in one way. That is  $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_k^{e_k}$  where  $p_1 < p_2 < \cdots < p_k$  are primes and  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k$  are positive integers.

### Definition 3.13.1

For each integer  $n > 1$ , let  $\phi(n)$  denote the number of positive integers that are less than  $n$  and relatively prime to  $n$ . Also, let  $\phi(1) = 1$ . The function  $\phi$  is called the Euler phi-function.

### Example 3.13.1

Find  $\phi(n)$  for  $n = 5, 6$ , and  $7$ .

#### Solution:

- $n = 5$ ,  $\phi(5) = 4$ , since 5 is relatively prime (and less than) to the set  $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ .
- $n = 6$ ,  $\phi(6) = 2$ , since 6 is relatively prime (and less than) to the set  $\{1, 5\}$ .
- $n = 7$ ,  $\phi(7) = 6$ , since 7 is relatively prime (and less than) to the set  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ .

### Theorem 3.13.3

Assume that  $p$  is a prime and  $r$  is a positive integer. Then

$$\phi(p^r) = p^r - p^{r-1} = p^r \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right).$$

In particular,  $\phi(p) = p - 1$ .



**Theorem 3.13.4**

If  $p$  and  $q$  are distinct primes, then

$$\phi(pq) = (p-1)(q-1).$$

**Theorem 3.13.5**

If  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  with  $\text{GCD}(m, n) = 1$ , then  $\phi(mn) = \phi(m)\phi(n)$ .

**Theorem 3.13.6**

If  $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_k^{e_k}$  with  $p_1 < p_2 < \cdots < p_k$  are primes and  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k$  are positive integers, then

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(n) &= (p_1^{e_1} - p_1^{e_1-1})(p_2^{e_2} - p_2^{e_2-1}) \cdots (p_k^{e_k} - p_k^{e_k-1}) \\ &= n \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_k}\right). \end{aligned}$$

**Example 3.13.2**

Find  $\phi(12)$ .

**Solution:**

Clearly,  $12 = 2^2 \cdot 3$ . That is

$$\phi(12) = 12 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{3}\right) = 12 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3} = 4.$$

That is because 12 is relatively prime (and less than) to the set  $\{1, 5, 7, 11\}$ .

**Definition 3.13.2**

For each positive integer  $n$ , let  $\mathbb{U}_n$  denote the set of congruence classes mod  $n$  defined as follows:

$$\mathbb{U}_n = \{[k] : 1 \leq k < n \text{ and } \text{GCD}(k, n) = 1\}.$$

**Example 3.13.3**

Find  $\mathbb{U}_6$ .

**Solution:**

Clearly 6 is relatively prime (and less than) to  $\{1, 5\}$  and hence  $\mathbb{U}_6 = \{[1], [5]\}$ .

**Example 3.13.4**

Find  $\mathbb{U}_9$ .

**Solution:**

Clearly 9 is relatively prime to  $\{1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8\}$  and hence  $\mathbb{U}_9 = \{[1], [2], [4], [5], [7], [8]\}$ .

**Theorem 3.13.7**

$(\mathbb{U}_n, \odot)$  is an abelian group. The order of the group  $\mathbb{U}_n$  is  $\phi(n)$ .

**Proof:**

We first show that  $\mathbb{U}_n$  is closed under the operation  $\odot$ . Let  $[a], [b] \in \mathbb{U}_n$ , then  $\text{GCD}(a, n) = \text{GCD}(b, n) = 1$ . Hence there are  $r, s, t, u$  such that  $ar + ns = 1$  and  $bt + nu = 1$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} (ar + ns)(bt + nu) &= abrt + arnu + nsbt + n^2su = 1 \\ \Rightarrow ab(rt) + n(aru + sbt + nsu) &= 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{GCD}(ab, n) = 1. \end{aligned}$$

That is  $[ab] \in \mathbb{U}_n$ . We now show that  $(\mathbb{U}_n, \odot)$  is abelian group.

$\mathcal{G}_1$ :  $\odot$  is associative and commutative on  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  and hence it is associative and commutative on  $\mathbb{U}_n$ .

$\mathcal{G}_2$ : Clearly,  $[1] \in \mathbb{U}_n$  is the identity element.

$\mathcal{G}_3$ : Let  $[a] \in \mathbb{U}_n$ . Then  $\text{GCD}(a, n) = 1$  and  $ar + ns = 1$  for some  $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$ . That is  $ar = 1 + (-s)n$  and  $ar \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ . Therefore,  $[a] \odot [r] = [ar] = [1]$  which implies that  $[r]$  is the inverse of  $[a]$ .

The order of  $\mathbb{U}_n$  is  $\phi(n)$  by the definition of  $\mathbb{U}_n$  and  $\phi(n)$ .

**Example 3.13.5**

Find the inverse of  $[37]$  in  $\mathbb{U}_{50}$ .

**Solution:**

Clearly,  $\text{GCD}(37, 50) = 1$ , then  $37r + 50s = 1$  for some  $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$ . That is  $37r = 1 + (-s)50$  which implies that  $37r \equiv 1 \pmod{50}$ . Therefore,

$$50 = 37 \cdot 1 + 13$$

$$37 = 13 \cdot 2 + 11$$

$$13 = 11 \cdot 1 + 2$$

$$11 = 2 \cdot 5 + 1$$

$$2 = 1 \cdot 2$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= 11 - 2 \cdot 5 \\ &= 11 - (13 - 11 \cdot 1) \cdot 5 \\ &= -13 \cdot 5 + 11 \cdot 6 \\ &= -13 \cdot 5 + (37 - 13 \cdot 2) \cdot 6 \\ &= -13 \cdot 5 + 37 \cdot 6 - 13 \cdot 12 \\ &= 37 \cdot 6 - 13 \cdot 17 \\ &= 37 \cdot 6 - (50 - 37 \cdot 1) \cdot 17 \\ &= (-17) \cdot 50 + 37 \cdot 6 + 37 \cdot 17 \\ &= (-17) \cdot 50 + 37 \cdot (23). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the inverse of  $[37]$  is  $[23]$  in  $\mathbb{U}_{50}$ .

**Exercise 3.13.1**

Solve the following exercises from the book at pages 72 - 73:

- 13.1 – 13.4,
- 13.7 – 13.10,
- 13.13 – 13.14.

**Exercise 3.13.2**

Find the least non-negative integer  $x$  so that:

1.  $17x \equiv 3 \pmod{29}$ . **Solution:** Note that if  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  and  $c \equiv d \pmod{n}$ , then  $ac \equiv bd \pmod{n}$ . Therefore, to find  $x$ , we do:

$$17x \equiv 3 \pmod{29} \Rightarrow x \equiv 17^{-1}3 \pmod{29}.$$

We use Euclid's Algorithm to find  $17^{-1}$ :

$$29 = 17 \cdot 1 + 12$$

$$17 = 12 \cdot 1 + 5$$

$$12 = 5 \cdot 2 + 2$$

$$5 = 2 \cdot 2 + 1$$

$$2 = 1 \cdot 2$$

Therefore,

$$1 = \dots = (12)17 + 29(-7).$$

Therefore,  $17^{-1} = 12$  and hence  $x \equiv 12 \cdot 3 \pmod{29}$ . That is  $x \equiv 36 \pmod{29}$ . Therefore,  $x \equiv 7 \pmod{29}$ . □

2.  $17x \equiv 1 \pmod{43}$ . **Solution:**  $x \equiv (-5) \equiv 38 \pmod{43}$ . □

## Section 4.14: Elementary Properties

## Theorem 4.14.1

Let  $(G, *)$  be a group. Then:

- a. If  $a, b, c \in G$  and  $a * b = a * c$ , then  $b = c$ . "left cancelation law"
- b. If  $a, b, c \in G$  and  $b * a = c * a$ , then  $b = c$ . "right cancelation law"
- c. If  $a, b \in G$ , then each of the equation  $a * x = b$  and  $x * a = b$  has a unique solution. In the first,  $x = a^{-1} * b$ ; in the second,  $x = b * a^{-1}$ .
- d. If  $a \in G$ , then  $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$ .
- e. If  $a, b \in G$ , then  $(a * b)^{-1} = b^{-1} * a^{-1}$ .

**Proof:**

- a. Assume that  $a * b = a * c$  for  $a, b, c \in G$ . We multiply both sides from left by  $a^{-1}$ :

$$a^{-1} * a * b = a^{-1} * a * c$$

$$e * b = e * c$$

$$b = c.$$

- b. Similar to part "a."

- c. Consider the equation  $a * x = b$  and multiply both sides from left by  $a^{-1} \in G$ :

$$a^{-1} * a * x = a^{-1} * b$$

$$e * x = a^{-1} * b$$

$$x = a^{-1} * b.$$

Uniqueness: If  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are two solutions to the equation  $a * x = b$ , then

$$a^{-1} * a * x_1 = a^{-1} * b = a^{-1} * a * x_2$$

$$e * x_1 = a^{-1} * b = e * x_2$$

$$x_1 = a^{-1} * b = x_2.$$

The second equation " $x * a = b$ " can be proved in a similar way by multiplying both sides from right by  $a^{-1}$ .

d. The inverse of  $a^{-1}$  is the unique element  $b \in G$  such that  $a^{-1} * b = e$ . But clearly,  $a^{-1} * a = e$ ; thus,  $b = a$  is the inverse of  $a^{-1}$ .

e. Clearly,

$$(a * b) * (b^{-1} * a^{-1}) = a * (b * b^{-1}) * a^{-1} = a * a^{-1} = e, \text{ and}$$

$$(b^{-1} * a^{-1}) * (a * b) = b^{-1} * (a^{-1} * a) * b = b^{-1} * b = e.$$

Thus,  $(a * b)^{-1} = b^{-1} * a^{-1}$ .

#### Definition 4.14.1

Let  $G$  be a group and  $a \in G$ . Then we define the integral power as follows:

$$a^0 = e, \quad a^1 = a, \quad a^2 = a * a, \quad \dots, \quad a^{n+1} = a^n * a.$$

Moreover,  $a^{-n} = (a^{-1})^n$  for each positive integer  $n$ .

#### Remark 4.14.1

★ Multiplicative notation:

$$a^m a^n = a^{m+n}$$

$$(a^m)^n = a^{mn}$$

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

★ Additive notation

$$ma + na = (m + n)a$$

$$n(ma) = (mn)a$$

$$n(-a) = (-n)a.$$

#### Example 4.14.1

Consider some powers for the elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_4 = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$  with the operation "+".

**Solution:**

Consider 1 for instance to get

$$\left. \begin{array}{rcl} 1^1 & & = 1 \\ 1^2 = 1 + 1 & & = 2 \\ 1^3 = 1 + 1 + 1 & & = 3 \\ 1^4 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 & & = 4 \end{array} \right\} \text{all } \mathbb{Z}_4 \text{ elements.}$$

While

$$\left. \begin{array}{rcl} 2^1 & & = 2 \\ 2^2 = 2 + 2 & & = 4 = 0 \\ 2^3 = 2 + 2 + 2 & & = 6 = 2 \end{array} \right\} \text{elements of } \{0, 2\} \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_4.$$

For 3, we have

$$\left. \begin{array}{rcl} 3^1 & & = 3 \\ 3^2 = 3 + 3 & & = 6 = 2 \\ 3^3 = 3 + 3 + 3 & & = 9 = 1 \\ 3^4 = 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 & & = 12 = 0 \end{array} \right\} \text{all } \mathbb{Z}_4 \text{ elements.}$$

Note that,

$$\left. \begin{array}{rcl} 1^{-1} & & = 3 \\ 1^{-2} = 1^{-1} + 1^{-1} & & = 3 + 3 = 6 = 2 \\ 1^{-3} = 1^{-1} + 1^{-1} + 1^{-1} & & = 3 + 3 + 3 = 9 = 1 \\ 1^{-4} = 1^{-1} + 1^{-1} + 1^{-1} + 1^{-1} & & = 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 = 12 = 0 \end{array} \right\} \text{all } \mathbb{Z}_4 \text{ elements.}$$

#### Definition 4.14.2

Let  $G$  be a group and  $a \in G$ . Then  $\langle a \rangle = \{a^n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ . That is

$$\langle a \rangle = \{\dots, a^{-2}, a^{-1}, a^0 = e, a^1, a^2, \dots\}.$$

#### Definition 4.14.3

A group  $G$  is called **cyclic** if there is some element  $a \in G$  such that  $\langle a \rangle = G$ .

**Definition 4.14.4**

An element  $a$  of a group  $G$  **generates**  $G$  and is a **generator of**  $G$  if  $\langle a \rangle = G$ .

**Definition 4.14.5**

The group  $\langle a \rangle = \{a^n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  is the **cyclic subgroup of**  $G$  **generated by**  $a$ .

**Theorem 4.14.2**

Let  $G$  be a group with  $a \in G$ . Then  $\langle a \rangle$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . In fact, it is the smallest subgroup of  $G$  containing  $a$ .

**Proof:**

$\mathcal{S}_1$ : Clearly,  $a \in \langle a \rangle$  and hence  $\langle a \rangle$  is nonempty.

$\mathcal{S}_2$ : Let  $b, c \in \langle a \rangle$ , then  $b = a^m$  and  $c = a^n$  for some  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Clearly,  $m + n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and thus  $bc = a^m a^n = a^{m+n} \in \langle a \rangle$ . Therefore,  $\langle a \rangle$  is closed.

$\mathcal{S}_3$ : Let  $a^t \in \langle a \rangle$  for some  $t \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $-t \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $a^{-t} \in \langle a \rangle$  where  $a^t a^{-t} = e$ . Thus each element in  $\langle a \rangle$  has inverse.

Note that  $a \in \langle a \rangle$  and since it is a subgroup of  $G$ ,

$$aa = a^2 \in \langle a \rangle, \quad a^2 a = a^3 \in \langle a \rangle, \quad \text{and so on.}$$

That is a subgroup containing  $a$  must contain  $\{a^n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \langle a \rangle$ . Thus, it is the smallest subgroup of  $G$  containing  $a$ .

**Example 4.14.2**

Example of some cyclic groups:

1.  $\langle 2 \rangle = \{\dots, -6, -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, 6, \dots\} = 2\mathbb{Z} \leq \mathbb{Z}$  is cyclic.
2.  $\langle 1 \rangle = \mathbb{Z}$  is cyclic.
3.  $\langle -1 \rangle = \mathbb{Z}$  is cyclic.
4.  $\mathbb{Z}$  has only two generators which are 1 and  $-1$ .



5.  $\mathbb{Z}_4 = \langle 1 \rangle = \langle 3 \rangle$  is cyclic.

6.  $\langle 2 \rangle = \{0, 2\} \leq \mathbb{Z}_4$  is cyclic.

### Theorem 4.14.3

Every cyclic group is abelian.

#### Proof:

Let  $G$  be a cyclic group and say  $G = \langle a \rangle$  for some  $a \in G$ . Thus, for  $g, h \in G$ , there are  $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $g = a^r$  and  $h = a^s$ . Then,

$$gh = a^r a^s = a^{r+s} = a^{s+r} = a^s a^r = hg.$$

Thus  $G$  is abelian.

### Definition 4.14.6

Let  $a$  be an element of a group  $G$ . If the cyclic subgroup  $\langle a \rangle$  of  $G$  is finite, then the **order of  $a$** , denoted by  $o(a)$ , is the order  $|\langle a \rangle|$  of this cyclic subgroup. Otherwise, we say that  $a$  is of infinite order.

#### Remark 4.14.2

If  $a \in G$  is of finite order  $m$ , then  $m$  is the smallest positive integer such that  $a^m = e$ . In that case,  $\langle a \rangle = \{a^0 = e, a, a^2, \dots, a^{m-1}\}$ .

### Example 4.14.3

Let  $G = \langle a \rangle$ ,  $a \in G$  and  $|G| = 5$ . So,  $a^5 = e$ . Therefore,  $G = \{e, a, a^2, a^3, a^4\}$ .

#### Remark 4.14.3

If  $G$  is a cyclic group with  $G = \langle a \rangle$ , then  $G = \langle a^{-1} \rangle$ .

**Example 4.14.4**

$S_3$  is not cyclic since there is no  $a \in S_3$  with  $\langle a \rangle = S_3$ . Moreover, if  $S_3$  is cyclic, then it is abelian which is not the case.

**Example 4.14.5**

Compute  $A_3 = \langle (1 \ 3 \ 2) \rangle$  in  $S_3$ .

**Solution:**

$$(1 \ 3 \ 2)^0 = id$$

$$(1 \ 3 \ 2)^1 = (1 \ 3 \ 2)$$

$$(1 \ 3 \ 2)^2 = (1 \ 3 \ 2)(1 \ 3 \ 2) = (1 \ 2 \ 3)$$

$$(1 \ 3 \ 2)^3 = (1 \ 3 \ 2)(1 \ 3 \ 2)(1 \ 3 \ 2) = id.$$

Thus,  $A_3 = \langle (1 \ 3 \ 2) \rangle = \{id, (1 \ 3 \ 2), (1 \ 2 \ 3)\}$ , and the order of  $(1 \ 3 \ 2)$  in  $S_3$  is 3.

## 4.14.1 Solving Book Problems from Section 14

## Exercise 4.14.1

Q.14.1: Solve the equation  $(1 \ 2) x = (1 \ 2 \ 3)$  in  $S_3$ .

## Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} x &= (1 \ 2)^{-1}(1 \ 2 \ 3) \\ &= (1 \ 2)(1 \ 2 \ 3) = (2 \ 3). \end{aligned}$$

## Exercise 4.14.2

Q.14.14(a): Prove that if  $a$  and  $b$  are elements of an abelian group  $G$  with  $o(a) = m$  and  $o(b) = n$ , then  $(ab)^{mn} = e$ .

## Solution:

We have  $o(a) = m$  and  $o(b) = n$  which implies that  $a^m = e$  and  $b^n = e$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} (ab)^{mn} &= ab \cdot ab \cdots ab, && mn\text{-times} \\ &= (a^{mn}) (b^{mn}) = (a^m)^n (b^n)^m, && G \text{ is abelian} \\ &= e^n e^m = e. \end{aligned}$$

## Exercise 4.14.3

Q.14.18: Assume that  $a$  and  $b$  are elements of a group  $G$ .

1. Prove that  $ab = ba$  if and only if  $a^{-1}b^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1}$ .
2. Prove that  $ab = ba$  if and only if  $(ab)^2 = a^2b^2$ .

## Solution:

(1.) Clearly,  $ab = ba \Leftrightarrow (ab)^{-1} = (ba)^{-1} \Leftrightarrow b^{-1}a^{-1} = a^{-1}b^{-1}$ .

(2.) " $\Rightarrow$ ": Assume that  $ab = ba$ , then

$$(ab)^2 = (ab)(ab) = a \underline{b} a b = a a b b = a^2 b^2.$$

" $\Leftarrow$ ": Assume that  $(ab)^2 = a^2b^2$ . Thus,  $(a \cancel{b})(a \cancel{b}) = a \cancel{a} b \cancel{b}$ , implies that  $ba = ab$ .

**Exercise 4.14.4**

Q.14.23: Prove that a non-identity element of a group has order 2 if and only if it is its own inverse.

**Solution:**

” $\Rightarrow$ ”: Assume that  $a \neq e$  such that  $o(a) = 2$ . Then,

$$a^2 = e \Leftrightarrow a^{-1}a^2 = a^{-1}e \Leftrightarrow a = a^{-1}.$$

” $\Leftarrow$ ”: If  $a = a^{-1}$ , then  $a \cdot a = a \cdot a^{-1}$  and hence  $a^2 = e$ . That is  $o(a) = 2$ .

**Exercise 4.14.5**

Q.14.24: Prove that every group of even order has an element of order 2.

**Solution:**

Assume that  $G$  is a group of even order. Let  $A = \{a \in G : a \neq a^{-1}\} \subseteq G$ . Clearly,  $e \notin A$  since  $e = e^{-1}$ . Also, if  $a \in A$ , then  $a^{-1} \in A$ . Thus,  $\{e\} \cup A$  has an odd number of elements, but  $\{e\} \cup A \subsetneq G$  ”because  $|G|$  is even”. Therefore there exists  $x \in G$  such that  $x \neq e$  and  $x \notin A$  with  $x = x^{-1}$ . Thus,  $x^2 = e$  which means  $o(x) = 2$ .

**Exercise 4.14.6**

Q.14.29: Prove that a group  $G$  is abelian if each of its non-identity elements has order 2.

**Solution:**

Suppose that  $G$  is a group so that if  $a \in G$  and  $a \neq e$ , then  $o(a) = 2$ . Thus,  $a^2 = e$  and  $a = a^{-1}$ . If  $a, b \in G$ , then  $ab \in G$  and hence  $ab = (ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1} = ba$ .

**Exercise 4.14.7**

Q.14.33: Prove or give a counterexample: If a group  $G$  has a subgroup of order  $n$ , then  $G$  has an element of order  $n$ .

**Solution:**

False. Consider  $S_3 \leq S_3$  where both are of order  $3! = 6$  but no element in  $S_3$  has order 6.

**Exercise 4.14.8**

Q.14.34: Prove that if a group  $G$  has no subgroup other than  $G$  and  $\{e\}$ , then  $G$  is cyclic.

**Solution:**

Let  $a \in G$  so that  $a \neq e$ . Then  $\langle a \rangle$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . Then  $\langle a \rangle = e$  or  $\langle a \rangle = G$ . But since  $a \neq e$ , we have  $\langle a \rangle \neq e$ . Therefore,  $\langle a \rangle = G$  and hence  $G$  is a cyclic group.

**Exercise 4.14.9**

Q.14.38: Prove that if  $A$  and  $B$  are subgroups of a group  $G$ , and  $A \cup B$  is also a subgroup of  $G$ , then  $A \subseteq B$  or  $B \subseteq A$ .

**Solution:**

A proof by contradiction: Assume that  $A \not\subseteq B$  and  $B \not\subseteq A$ . Then, there is  $x \in (A - B)$  and there is  $y \in (B - A)$ . But  $x, y \in A \cup B$  (which is a subgroup). Thus,  $xy \in A \cup B$ . Hence,  $xy \in A$  or  $xy \in B$ .

Case 1:  $xy \in A$  where  $x \in A$ . Then  $x^{-1} \in A$  and hence  $x^{-1}xy = y \in A$  (contradiction).

Case 1:  $xy \in B$  where  $y \in B$ . Then  $y^{-1} \in B$  and hence  $xyy^{-1} = x \in B$  (contradiction).

Therefore,  $A \subseteq B$  or  $B \subseteq A$ .

**Exercise 4.14.10**

Solve the following exercises from the book at pages 79 - 81:

- 14.1 – 14.6,
- 14.13,
- 14.14( $a$ ),
- 14.18,
- 14.23 – 14.26,
- 14.28 – 14.30,
- 14.33 – 14.34,
- 14.38.

## Section 4.15: Direct Products

### Definition 4.15.1

Let  $G$  and  $H$  be two groups. Then  $G \times H$  is the (Cartesian) product of  $G$  and  $H$  and is defined by

$$G \times H = \{(g, h) : g \in G \text{ and } h \in H\}.$$

### Theorem 4.15.1

If  $G$  and  $H$  are groups, then  $G \times H$  is a group with the operation defined by

$$(g_1, h_1)(g_2, h_2) = (g_1 g_2, h_1 h_2)$$

for all  $g_1, g_2 \in G$  and  $h_1, h_2 \in H$ . The group  $G \times H$  is called **the direct product of  $G$  and  $H$** .

### Remark 4.15.1

To prove the previous theorem, we need to note that:

1. The identity element of  $G \times H$  is  $(e_G, e_H)$  where  $e_G$  is the identity element of  $G$  and  $e_H$  is the identity element of  $H$ .
2. The inverse of the element  $(g, h) \in G \times H$  is the element  $(g^{-1}, h^{-1}) \in G \times H$ .

### Remark 4.15.2

Note that in  $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$  we have  $(a, b)(c, d) = (a + c, b + d)$  for all  $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

### Remark 4.15.3

Note that if  $A$  and  $B$  are finite, then so is  $A \times B$  with  $|A \times B| = |A| \cdot |B|$ .

### Example 4.15.1

Compute  $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times S_2$  and compute  $([1], (1 \ 2))([2], e)$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times S_2$ .

**Solution:**

Note that  $\mathbb{Z}_3 = \{[0], [1], [2]\}$  and  $S_2 = \{e, (1\ 2)\}$ . Thus,

$$\mathbb{Z}_3 \times S_2 = \{([0], e), ([0], (1\ 2)), ([1], e), ([1], (1\ 2)), ([2], e), ([2], (1\ 2))\}.$$

Moreover,

$$([1], (1\ 2))([2], e) = ([1] \oplus [2], (1\ 2)e) = ([0], (1\ 2)).$$

### Example 4.15.2

Simplify  $([2], (1\ 2\ 3))^{-1}([1], (2\ 4))([2], (1\ 2\ 3))$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_4 \times S_4$ .

#### Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} ([2], (1\ 2\ 3))^{-1}([1], (2\ 4))([2], (1\ 2\ 3)) &= ([2], (1\ 3\ 2))([3], (1\ 4\ 2\ 3)) \\ &= ([1], (1\ 4)). \end{aligned}$$

### Example 4.15.3: Exercise 15.17 at page 84

Let  $G$  and  $H$  be two groups. Show that  $G \times \{e_H\}$  and  $\{e_G\} \times H$  are both subgroups of  $G \times H$ .

#### Solution:

Note that  $G \times \{e_H\} = \{(g, e_H) : g \in G\}$ . Thus

$\mathcal{S}_1$ : Clearly,  $(e_G, e_H) \in G \times \{e_H\}$  and hence  $G \times \{e_H\}$  is nonempty.

$\mathcal{S}_2$ : Let  $(g_1, e_H), (g_2, e_H) \in G \times \{e_H\}$ . Then

$$(g_1, e_H)(g_2, e_H) = (g_1g_2, e_H) \in G \times \{e_H\} \text{ since } g_1g_2 \in G.$$

$\mathcal{S}_3$ : Let  $(g, e_H) \in G \times \{e_H\}$ . Then  $g^{-1} \in G$  since  $g \in G$  and hence

$$(g, e_H)(g^{-1}, e_H) = (gg^{-1}, e_H) = (e_G, e_H).$$

That is  $(g^{-1}, e_H)$  is the inverse of  $(g, e_H)$  and it is in  $G \times \{e_H\}$ .

Therefore,  $G \times \{e_H\}$  is a subgroup of  $G \times H$ . The other part can be proved in a similar way.



**Example 4.15.4:** Exercise 15.18 at page 84

Let  $G$  and  $H$  be two groups. Show that  $G \times H$  is abelian group if and only if both  $G$  and  $H$  are abelian.

**Solution:**

„ $\Rightarrow$ ”: Assume that  $G \times H$  is abelian group and let  $g_1, g_2 \in G$  and  $h_1, h_2 \in H$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}(g_1g_2, h_1h_2) &= (g_1, h_1)(g_2, h_2) \\ &= (g_2, h_2)(g_1, h_1) = (g_2g_1, h_2h_1).\end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $g_1g_2 = g_2g_1$  and  $G$  is abelian; and  $h_1h_2 = h_2h_1$  and  $H$  is abelian.

„ $\Leftarrow$ ”: Assume that  $G$  and  $H$  are abelian groups and that  $(g_1, h_1), (g_2, h_2) \in G \times H$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned}(g_1, h_1)(g_2, h_2) &= (g_1g_2, h_1h_2) \\ &= (g_2g_1, h_2h_1) = (g_2, h_2)(g_1, h_1).\end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $G \times H$  is abelian.

**Exercise 4.15.1**

Solve the following exercises from the book at pages 84 - 85:

- 15.9,
- 15.16 – 15.18,
- 15.20 – 15.21.

**Exercise 4.15.2**

Simplify  $([2], (1\ 2\ 3))^{-1}([1], (2\ 4))([2], (1\ 2\ 3))$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_4 \times S_4$ .

## Section 4.16: Cosets

Recall that if  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then  $\langle n \rangle$  is the subgroup consisting of all multiples of  $n$ . Because

$$a \equiv b \pmod{n} \Leftrightarrow n \mid a - b \Leftrightarrow a - b = kn, \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Thus,  $a \equiv b \pmod{n} \Leftrightarrow a - b \in \langle n \rangle$ .

### Theorem 4.16.1

Let  $H$  be a subgroup of a group  $G$  and define a relation  $\sim$  on  $G$  by  $a \sim b$  if and only if  $ab^{-1} \in H$ . Then  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on  $G$ .

#### Proof:

Reflexive: If  $a \in G$ , then  $a \sim a$  because  $aa^{-1} = e \in H$ .

Symmetric: If  $a \sim b$ , then  $ab^{-1} \in H$  and so is  $(ab^{-1})^{-1} = ba^{-1} \in H$  because  $H$  contains the inverse of any of its elements. Thus  $b \sim a$ .

Transitive: If  $a \sim b$  and  $b \sim c$ , then  $ab^{-1}, bc^{-1} \in H$ . Since  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , it contains the product of  $ab^{-1}$  and  $bc^{-1}$ . Thus,  $ab^{-1} \cdot bc^{-1} = ac^{-1} \in H$ . Hence  $a \sim c$ . Therefore,  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on  $G$ .

### Definition 4.16.1

Let  $G$  be a group with a subgroup  $H$ . For any  $a \in G$ , define:

- 1) **the left coset of  $H$  in  $G$**  by  $aH = \{ah : h \in H\}$ ,
- 2) **the right coset of  $H$  in  $G$**  by  $Ha = \{ha : h \in H\}$ .

Note that, if the group operation is  $+$ , then  $H + a$  and  $a + H$  is used instead of  $Ha$  and  $aH$ , respectively.

### Example 4.16.1

Let  $G = \mathbb{Z}$  and  $H = \langle 7 \rangle$ . Compute  $H + 3$

#### Solution:

$$H + 3 = \langle 7 \rangle + 3 = \{\dots, -14, -7, 0, 7, 14, \dots\} + 3 = \{\dots, -11, -4, 3, 10, 17, \dots\}.$$

Note that  $H + 3$  is the congruence class  $[3]$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_7$ . In  $\mathbb{Z}_7$ ,  $[3] = \{k : k \equiv 3 \pmod{7} \text{ iff } 7 \mid 3 - k\}$ .

**Example 4.16.2**

Let  $G = S_3$  and  $H = \{e, (1\ 2)\}$ . Compute  $He$ ,  $H(1\ 2\ 3)$ , and  $H(1\ 3\ 2)$ .

**Solution:**

$$He = \{ee, (1\ 2)e\} = \{e, (1\ 2)\}$$

$$H(1\ 2\ 3) = \{e(1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 2)(1\ 2\ 3)\} = \{(1\ 2\ 3), (2\ 3)\}$$

$$H(1\ 3\ 2) = \{e(1\ 3\ 2), (1\ 2)(1\ 3\ 2)\} = \{(1\ 3\ 2), (1\ 3)\}$$

Note that these three sets form a partition of  $G$ .

**Example 4.16.3**

Let  $G = S_3$  and  $H = \{e, (1\ 3)\}$ . Find  $(1\ 2)H$ ,  $H(1\ 2)$ , and  $(1\ 3\ 2)H$ .

**Solution:**

$S_3 = \{e, (1\ 2), (1\ 3), (2\ 3), (1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2)\}$ . So,

$$(1\ 2)H = \{(1\ 2), (1\ 3\ 2)\} \qquad H(1\ 2) = \{(1\ 2), (1\ 2\ 3)\}, \text{ and}$$

$$(1\ 3\ 2)H = \{(1\ 3\ 2), (1\ 2)\}.$$

**Remark 4.16.1**

Considering the previous example, we conclude:

1. Cosets are not subgroups in general.
2.  $aH$  might be the same as  $bH$  even though  $a \neq b$ . For instance,  $(1\ 2)H = (1\ 3\ 2)H$  in the previous example.
3.  $aH$  need not be equal to  $Ha$ , in general. From the previous example we conclude that  $(1\ 2)H = \{(1\ 2), (1\ 3\ 2)\}$  is not the same as  $H(1\ 2) = \{(1\ 2), (1\ 2\ 3)\}$ .
4. Cosets have the same number of elements as  $H$ , i.e.  $|aH| = |H| = |Ha|$  for any  $a \in G$ .

**Theorem 4.16.2**

If  $H$  is a subgroup of a group  $G$ , and  $a, b \in G$ , then the following conditions are equivalent:

1.  $a^{-1}b \in H$ .
2.  $b = ah$  for some  $h \in H$ .
3.  $b \in aH$ .
4.  $bH = aH$ .

**Proof:**

We show that the conditions are equivalent by showing that  $1 \rightarrow 2$ ,  $2 \rightarrow 3$ ,  $3 \rightarrow 4$ , and  $4 \rightarrow 1$ .

- a.  $1 \rightarrow 2$ : Let  $a^{-1}b = h \in H$ , then  $aa^{-1}b = ah$  and hence  $b = ah$  with  $h \in H$ .
- b.  $2 \rightarrow 3$ : If  $b = ah$  for some  $h \in H$ , then  $b \in aH$  by the definition of  $aH$ .
- c.  $3 \rightarrow 4$ : If  $b \in aH$ , then  $b = ah$  for some  $h \in H$ . We show that  $bH \subseteq aH$  and  $aH \subseteq bH$ .  
First, Let  $s \in bH$  with  $s = br$  for some  $r \in H$ . Then

$$s = br = (ah)r = a(hr) \text{ with } hr \in H.$$

Therefore,

$$s \in aH, \text{ and hence } bH \subseteq aH.$$

Now, let  $t \in aH$  with  $t = as$  for some  $s \in H$ . Note that  $b = ah$  implies that  $a = bh^{-1}$ .

Thus

$$t = as = (bh^{-1})s = b(h^{-1}s) \text{ with } h^{-1}s \in H.$$

Therefore,

$$t \in bH, \text{ and hence } aH \subseteq bH.$$

Therefore,  $aH = bH$ .

- d.  $4 \rightarrow 1$ : If  $bH = aH$ , then  $b = ah$  for some  $h \in H$ . Hence  $a^{-1}b = a^{-1}ah$  and hence  $a^{-1}b = h \in H$ .

**Remark 4.16.2**

To compute all of the right cosets of a subgroup  $H$  in a finite group  $G$ , we do the following:

1. First write  $H$  as  $H = He$ .
2. Next choose  $a_1 \in G - H$  and compute  $Ha_1$ .
3. Next choose  $a_2 \in G - (H \cup Ha_1)$  and compute  $Ha_2$ .
4. Continue in this way until the elements of  $G$  have been considered.
5. Finally  $G = H \cup Ha_1 \cup Ha_2 \cup \cdots \cup Ha_n$  for some  $n$ .

**Example 4.16.4**

Let  $G = \mathbb{Z}_9$  and  $H = \langle 3 \rangle$ . Find all right cosets of  $H$  in  $G$ .

**Solution:**

$$H = H + 0 = \{3, 6, 0\},$$

$$H + 1 = \{4, 7, 1\},$$

$$H + 2 = \{5, 8, 2\}.$$

Note that  $G = \mathbb{Z}_9 = H \cup H + 1 \cup H + 2$ .

**Theorem 4.16.3**

Let  $H$  be a subgroup of a group  $G$  and let  $a, b \in G$ . Then

1.  $a \in aH$ .
2.  $aH = H$  if and only if  $a \in H$ .
3. It is either  $aH = bH$  or  $aH \cap bH = \phi$ .
4.  $aH = bH$  if and only if  $a^{-1}b \in H$ .
5.  $|aH| = |H|$  for finite subgroup  $H$ .
6.  $aH = Ha$  if and only if  $H = aHa^{-1}$ .
7.  $aH$  is a subgroup of  $G$  if and only if  $a \in H$ .

**Proof:**

1. Clearly  $e \in H$ , then  $ae = a \in aH$ .
2. " $\Rightarrow$ " By 1, we have  $a \in aH = H$ , then  $a \in H$ .  
" $\Leftarrow$ " Assume that  $a \in H$ . For any  $h \in H$ , we have  $ah \in aH$  (by definition of  $aH$ ). But also  $ah \in H$  (since  $H$  is a subgroup) and hence  $aH \subseteq H$ .  
Let  $h \in H$ . If  $a \in H$ , then  $a^{-1} \in H$  ( $H$  is a subgroup) and hence  $a^{-1}h \in H$ . Therefore,  $a(a^{-1}h) = h \in aH$  (by definition of  $aH$ ). That is  $H \subseteq aH$  and hence  $aH = H$ .
3. Assume that there is  $x \in aH \cap bH$ , then  $x \in aH$  and  $x \in bH$ . That is  $ah_1 = x = bh_2$  and hence  $bh_2 \in aH$  and  $ah_1 \in bH$  which implies that  $aH = bH$ . Otherwise, there is no  $x \in aH \cap bH$  and hence  $aH \cap bH = \phi$ .
4.  $aH = bH$  if and only if  $a^{-1}bH = H$  if and only if  $a^{-1}b = h \in H$  (by (2)).
5. There is a bijection  $\alpha : H \rightarrow aH$  which is defined by  $\alpha(h) = ah$ .
6. Clearly,  $aH = Ha$  if and only if  $aHa^{-1} = H$ .
7. " $\Rightarrow$ ": Since  $a \in aH$  (by (1)), then  $a^2 \in aH$  and hence  $a^2 = ah$  for some  $h \in H$  and hence  $a = h \in H$ .  
" $\Leftarrow$ ": If  $a \in H$ , then  $aH = H$  (by (2)). Thus  $aH \leq G$ .

### 4.16.1 Solving Book Problems from Section 16

#### Exercise 4.16.1

Q.16.1: Determine the right cosets of  $\langle 4 \rangle$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_8$ .

#### Solution:

Note that  $\langle 4 \rangle = \{4, 0\}$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\langle 4 \rangle &= \{4, 0\}, & \langle 4 \rangle + 1 &= \{5, 1\}, \\ \langle 4 \rangle + 2 &= \{6, 2\}, & \langle 4 \rangle + 3 &= \{7, 3\}.\end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $\mathbb{Z}_8 = \langle 4 \rangle \cup \langle 4 \rangle + 1 \cup \langle 4 \rangle + 2 \cup \langle 4 \rangle + 3$ .

#### Exercise 4.16.2

Q.16.5: Determine the right cosets of  $\langle (1 \ 2 \ 3) \rangle$  in  $S_3$ .

#### Solution:

Let  $H = \langle (1 \ 2 \ 3) \rangle = \{e, (1 \ 2 \ 3), (1 \ 3 \ 2)\}$ . Therefore,

$$H = \{e, (1 \ 2 \ 3), (1 \ 3 \ 2)\} \quad \text{and} \quad H(1 \ 2) = \{(1 \ 2), (1 \ 3), (2 \ 3)\}.$$

Thus,  $S_3 = H \cup H(1 \ 2)$ .

#### Exercise 4.16.3

Q.16.11: If  $H$  is a subgroup of a group  $G$  and  $a, b \in G$ , then the following four conditions are equivalent:

1.  $a^{-1}b \in H$ .
2.  $b = ah$  for some  $h \in H$ .
3.  $b \in aH$ .
4.  $aH = bH$ .

#### Solution:



We prove that the four conditions are equivalent by showing that 1 implies 2, 2 implies 3, 3 implies 4, and 4 implies 1.

1. Suppose that  $a^{-1}b \in H$ . Then, there is  $h \in H$  with  $a^{-1}b = h$  and hence  $b = ah$ .
2. Assume that  $b = ah$  for some  $h \in H$ . Therefore,  $b \in aH$ .
3. Suppose that  $b \in aH$ . Then, there is  $h \in H$  with  $b = ah$ . Thus  $a^{-1}b = h \in H$ . Hence  $a^{-1}b \in H$  and  $a^{-1}bH = H$  which implies that  $aH = bH$ .
4. Assume that  $aH = bH$ . Thus,  $H = a^{-1}bH$ , and hence  $a^{-1}b \in H$ .

#### Exercise 4.16.4

Q.16.12: Verify that if  $H$  is a subgroup of an abelian group  $G$ , and  $a \in G$ , then  $aH = Ha$ .

#### Solution:

First,  $ah \in aH$  and hence (since  $G$  is abelian)  $ha \in aH$  but  $ha \in Ha$ . Thus,  $aH \subseteq Ha$ .  
 Second,  $ha \in Ha$  and hence (since  $G$  is abelian)  $ah \in Ha$ , but  $ah \in aH$ . Then  $Ha \subseteq aH$ .  
 Therefore,  $aH = Ha$ .

#### Exercise 4.16.5

Q.16.17: Compute the left cosets (or right) of  $\langle ((1 \ 2), 1) \rangle$  in  $S_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ .

#### Solution:

Let  $H = \langle ((1 \ 2), 1) \rangle = \{(e, 0), ((1 \ 2), 1)\}$ . Then the left cosets are:

$$\begin{aligned}
 H &= \{(e, 0), ((1 \ 2), 1)\} \\
 (e, 1)H &= \{(e, 1), ((1 \ 2), 0)\}, \\
 ((1 \ 3), 0)H &= \{((1 \ 3), 0), ((1 \ 2 \ 3), 1)\}, \\
 ((1 \ 3), 1)H &= \{((1 \ 3), 1), ((1 \ 2 \ 3), 0)\}, \\
 ((2 \ 3), 0)H &= \{((2 \ 3), 0), ((1 \ 3 \ 2), 1)\}, \\
 ((2 \ 3), 1)H &= \{((2 \ 3), 1), ((1 \ 3 \ 2), 0)\},
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$S_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 = H \cup (e, 1)H \cup ((1 \ 3), 0)H \cup ((1 \ 3), 1)H \cup ((2 \ 3), 0)H \cup ((2 \ 3), 1)H.$$

### Exercise 4.16.6

Q.16.18: Compute the left cosets (or right) of  $\langle (1 \ 2) \rangle \times \langle 1 \rangle$  in  $S_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ .

**Solution:**

Let  $H = \langle (1 \ 2) \rangle \times \langle 1 \rangle = \{e, (1 \ 2)\} \times \{0, 1\} = \{(e, 0), (e, 1), ((1 \ 2), 0), ((1 \ 2), 1)\}$ . Then the left cosets are:

$$\begin{aligned} H &= \{(e, 0), (e, 1), ((1 \ 2), 0), ((1 \ 2), 1)\}, \\ ((1 \ 3), 0)H &= \{((1 \ 3), 0), ((1 \ 3), 1), ((1 \ 2 \ 3), 0), ((1 \ 2 \ 3), 1)\}, \\ ((2 \ 3), 0)H &= \{((2 \ 3), 0), ((2 \ 3), 1), ((1 \ 3 \ 2), 0), ((1 \ 3 \ 2), 1)\}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$S_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 = H \cup ((1 \ 3), 0)H \cup ((2 \ 3), 0)H.$$

### Exercise 4.16.7

Q.16.21: Prove that if  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups of a group  $G$ , then any left (right, respectively) coset of  $H \cap K$  in  $G$  is the intersection of a left (right) coset of  $H$  in  $G$  and a left (right) coset of  $K$  in  $G$ .

**Solution:**

First note that since  $H$  and  $K$  are both subgroups of  $G$ , then  $H \cap K$  is also a subgroup of  $G$ . Assume that  $a(H \cap K)$  be any left coset of  $H \cap K$  in  $G$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} w \in a(H \cap K) &\Leftrightarrow a^{-1}w \in H \cap K \text{ (this is by Q.16.11)} \\ &\Leftrightarrow \exists h \in H \text{ and } \exists k \in K \text{ such that } a^{-1}w = h = k \\ &\Leftrightarrow \exists h \in H \text{ and } \exists k \in K \text{ such that } w = ah = ak \\ &\Leftrightarrow w \in aH \text{ and } w \in aK \\ &\Leftrightarrow w \in aH \cap aK. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $a(H \cap K) = aH \cap aK$ .

**Exercise 4.16.8**

Solve the following exercises from the book at pages 87 - 88:

- 16.1 – 16.2,
- 16.5 – 16.6,
- 16.12 – 16.12,
- 16.17 – 16.18,
- 16.21.

## Section 4.17: Lagrange's Theorem. Cyclic Groups

### Definition 4.17.1

If  $G$  is a finite group and  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , then the number of distinct left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$ , denoted by  $[G : H]$ , is called the **index** of  $H$  in  $G$ .

### Theorem 4.17.1: Lagrange's Theorem

If  $G$  is a finite group and  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , then  $|H|$  divides  $|G|$ . Moreover  $[G : H] = \frac{|G|}{|H|}$ .

#### Proof:

Recall that two left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  are either equal or disjoint. That is, the left cosets of  $H$ , being equivalence classes, form a partition of  $G$ . Note that  $|aH| = |H|$ . Thus all cosets have the same number of elements as  $H$ . Thus,  $G = a_1H \cup a_2H \cup \cdots \cup a_rH$ , where  $r = \frac{|G|}{|H|}$  as  $\{a_1H, \dots, a_rH\}$  is a partitioning of  $G$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} |G| &= |a_1H| + |a_2H| + \cdots + |a_rH| \\ &= |H| + |H| + \cdots + |H| \\ &= r|H|. \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $|H|$  divides  $|G|$ .

### Theorem 4.17.2

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

#### Proof:

Clearly,  $o(a) = |\langle a \rangle|$  where  $\langle a \rangle \leq G$ . Thus, by Lagrange's Theorem,  $o(a)$  divides  $|G|$ .

### Theorem 4.17.3

If  $G$  is a finite group and  $a \in G$ , then  $a^{|G|} = e$ .

#### Proof:

Clearly,  $o(a) \mid |G|$ , then  $|G| = k \cdot o(a)$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Therefore,  $a^{|G|} = a^{k \cdot o(a)} = (a^{o(a)})^k = e^k = e$ .

#### Theorem 4.17.4: Euler's Theorem

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

##### Proof:

Note that the group  $\mathbb{U}_n$  has order  $\phi(n)$ . Thus,  $[a]^{\phi(n)} = [1]$  in  $\mathbb{U}_n$ . But  $[a]^{\phi(n)} = [a^{\phi(n)}]$ , which implies that  $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ .

#### Theorem 4.17.5: Fermat's Little Theorem

Assume that  $p$  is a prime. If  $p \nmid a$ , then  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . For all  $a$ ,  $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$ .

##### Proof:

If  $p$ -prime and  $p \nmid a$ , then  $\phi(p) = p - 1$  and  $\text{GCD}(a, p) = 1$ . By Euler's Theorem, we have  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . Multiplying  $a$  in both sides we get  $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$ . Note that if  $p \mid a$ , then  $a^p \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  and  $a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ .

#### Theorem 4.17.6

A group  $G$  of a prime order contains no subgroups other than  $\{e\}$  and  $G$ .

##### Proof:

Let  $H \leq G$ , then by Lagrange's Theorem  $|H|$  divides  $|G| = p$ , and  $p$  is a prime. Then,  $|H| = 1$  or  $|H| = |G|$ . That is  $H = \{e\}$  or  $H = G$ .

#### Theorem 4.17.7

Every group of prime order is cyclic, generated by one of its non-identity elements.

##### Proof:

If  $a \in G \neq \{e\}$  (since it has a prime order) and  $a \neq e$  then  $\langle a \rangle \neq \{e\}$ . Thus  $\langle a \rangle = G$  (by the previous Theorem).

**Example 4.17.1**

Show that any non-abelian group has at least six elements. That is, any group of order less than 6 is an abelian group.

**Solution:**

We show the statement by showing that all groups of order at most 5 are abelian.

- order 1: Then  $G = \{e\}$  which is abelian.
- prime order: If the order is 2, 3, or 5, then the order is a prime and hence  $G$  is abelian.
- order 4: Then  $|G| = 4$  and hence (by Lagrange's Theorem) if  $a \neq e \in G$  then  $o(a) = 1, 2$ , or 4. Case 1: If  $o(a) = 4$  then  $G$  is cyclic since  $G = \langle a \rangle$ . Case 2: Note that  $o(a) \neq 1$  since  $a \neq e$ . Case 3: If  $o(a) = 2$ , then  $a^2 = e$  which means that  $a = a^{-1}$  and hence  $ab = (ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1} = ba$ . Thus  $G$  is abelian.

**Example 4.17.2**

Suppose that  $G$  is a non-abelian group of order 14. Show that  $G$  has an element of order 7.

**Solution:**

Let  $a \neq e$  in  $G$ . Then by Lagrange's Theorem  $o(a) = 7$  or 2 (this is because  $a \neq e$  so  $o(a) \neq 1$  and  $o(a) \neq 14$  since  $G$  is not cyclic as it is not abelian). If all  $a \in G$  is of order 2, then  $G$  is abelian which is not the case. Therefore, there is  $a \neq e$  in  $G$  with  $o(a) = 7$ .

**Theorem 4.17.8: Fundamental Theorem of Finite Cyclic Groups**

Let  $G$  be a cyclic group of a finite order  $n$  with  $G = \langle a \rangle = \{e, a, a^2, \dots, a^{n-1}\}$ . Then

1. Every subgroup of  $G$  is cyclic.
2. If  $1 \leq k < n$ , then  $a^k$  generates a subgroup of order  $\frac{n}{\gcd(k, n)}$ .
3. If  $1 \leq k < n$ , then  $a^k$  is a generator of  $G$  if and only if  $\gcd(k, n) = 1$ . [How many generators we have].
4. For each positive divisor  $d$  of  $n$ ,  $G$  has exactly one subgroup of order  $d$ .

**Example 4.17.3**

Consider  $\mathbb{Z}_{24}$ . Find the orders of  $\langle 3 \rangle$ ,  $\langle 4 \rangle$ ,  $\langle 5 \rangle$ , and  $\langle 9 \rangle$ .

**Solution:**

- $|\langle 3 \rangle| = \frac{24}{\gcd(3,24)} = \frac{24}{3} = 8.$
- $|\langle 4 \rangle| = \frac{24}{\gcd(4,24)} = \frac{24}{4} = 6.$
- $|\langle 5 \rangle| = \frac{24}{\gcd(5,24)} = \frac{24}{1} = 24.$
- $|\langle 9 \rangle| = \frac{24}{\gcd(9,24)} = \frac{24}{3} = 8.$

**Example 4.17.4**

If  $G$  is a cyclic group of order 10, find the generators of  $G$  and find the orders of all subgroups of  $G$ .

**Solution:**

Assume that  $a$  is a generator for  $G$ . That is,  $G = \langle a \rangle$ . If  $1 \leq k < 10$  is the order of a generator, then it must satisfy  $\gcd(k, 10) = 1$ . That is,  $a^1, a^3, a^7$ , and  $a^9$  are the generators of  $G$ . The order of any subgroup of  $G$  must divide the order of  $G$  which is 10. Therefore, the orders of all subgroups are 1, 2, 5, and 10.

**Example 4.17.5**

List all subgroups of  $\mathbb{Z}_{12}$ .

**Solution:**

$\mathbb{Z}_{12}$  is a cyclic group and hence it has exactly one cyclic subgroup of order  $k > 0$  where  $k \mid 12$ . That is  $k = 1, 2, 3, 4, 6$ , or 12.

### 4.17.1 Solving Book Problems from Section 17

#### Exercise 4.17.1

Q.17.1: Find  $[S_3 : \langle (1\ 2) \rangle]$ .

#### Solution:

Clearly,  $\langle (1\ 2) \rangle = \{e, (1\ 2)\}$ . Thus  $|\langle (1\ 2) \rangle| = 2$ . Therefore,  $[S_3 : \langle (1\ 2) \rangle] = \frac{|S_3|}{|\langle (1\ 2) \rangle|} = \frac{6}{2} = 3$ .

#### Exercise 4.17.2

Q.17.3: Find the index of  $\langle [2] \rangle$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_{10}$ , i.e.  $[\mathbb{Z}_{10} : \langle 2 \rangle]$ .

#### Solution:

Clearly  $\langle 2 \rangle = \{2, 4, 6, 8, 0\}$  and hence  $|\langle 2 \rangle| = 5$ . Thus,  $[\mathbb{Z}_{10} : \langle 2 \rangle] = \frac{|\mathbb{Z}_{10}|}{|\langle 2 \rangle|} = \frac{10}{5} = 2$ .

#### Exercise 4.17.3

Q.17.24: Prove that if  $G$  is a group of order  $p^2$  ( $p$ -prime) and  $G$  is not cyclic, then  $a^p = e$  for each  $a \in G$ .

#### Solution:

Let  $a \in G$ , then by Lagrange's Theorem  $o(a) = 1$ ,  $o(a) = p$ , or  $o(a) = p^2$ . Clearly  $o(a) \neq p^2$  because  $G$  is not cyclic. Thus  $o(a) = 1$  or  $o(a) = p$  and hence  $a^p = e$  for any  $a \in G$ .

#### Exercise 4.17.4

Q.17.18: Assume that  $G$  is a cyclic group of order  $n$ , that  $G = \langle a \rangle$ , that  $k \mid n$ , and that  $H = \langle a^k \rangle$ . Find  $[G : H]$ .

#### Solution:

Note that  $(a^k)^{\frac{n}{\gcd(k, n)}} = a^n = e$ . Then, since  $|G| = n$ , we have

$$|H| = |\langle a^k \rangle| = \frac{n}{\gcd(k, n)}.$$



$$\text{Thus } [G : H] = \frac{|G|}{|H|} = \frac{n}{\frac{n}{\gcd(k,n)}} = \gcd(k, n) = k.$$

**Exercise 4.17.5**

Q.17.30: If  $H$  is a subgroup of a group  $G$  and  $[G : H] = 2$ , then the right cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  are the same as the left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$ . Why?

**Solution:**

Since  $[G : H] = 2$ , the left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  are:  $H$  and  $aH$  for  $a \in G - H$ . Also, the right cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  are:  $H$  and  $Ha$  for  $a \in G$ .

Hence  $G = H \cup aH = H \cup Ha$  which implies that  $aH = G - H$  and that  $Ha = G - H$ . Therefore,  $aH = Ha$ .

**Exercise 4.17.6**

Q.17.32: Prove that if  $H$  is a subgroup of a finite group  $G$ , then the number of right cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  equals the number of left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$ .

**Solution:**

The number of right cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  is  $[G : H]$  which is equal to the number of left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  and both are equal to  $\frac{|G|}{|H|}$ .

**Exercise 4.17.7**

Use Fermat's Little Theorem to find the least non-negative integer  $x$  so that:

1.  $3^{50} \equiv x \pmod{7}$ . **Solution:**  $3^{50} = (3^6)^8 \cdot 3^2 \equiv 1^8 \cdot 9 \equiv 9 \pmod{7} \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$ . Therefore,  
 $x = 2$ . □

2.  $3^{52} \equiv x \pmod{11}$ . **Solution:**  $3^{52} = (3^{10})^5 \cdot 3^2 \equiv 1^5 \cdot 9 \equiv 9 \pmod{11}$ . Therefore,  $x = 9$ . □

3.  $3^{123} \equiv x \pmod{11}$ . **Solution:**  $3^{123} = (3^{10})^{12} \cdot 3^3 \equiv 1^{12} \cdot 27 \equiv 27 \pmod{11} \equiv 5 \pmod{11}$ .  
Therefore,  $x = 5$ . □

**Exercise 4.17.8**

Solve the following exercises from the book at pages 92 - 93:

- 17.1 – 17.4,
- 17.7 – 17.8,
- 17.13,
- 17.17 – 17.18,
- 17.24,
- 17.30,
- 17.32.

## Section 4.18: Isomorphism

### Example 4.18.1

Discuss the similarities between the groups  $\langle (1 \ 2 \ 3) \rangle$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_3$ .

#### Solution:

Note that  $\langle (1 \ 2 \ 3) \rangle = \{e, (1 \ 2 \ 3), (1 \ 3 \ 2)\}$  under the composition operation, and  $\mathbb{Z}_3 = \{[0], [1], [2]\}$  under the addition operation. These two groups are alike given the corresponding

$$e \Leftrightarrow [0], \quad (1 \ 2 \ 3) \Leftrightarrow [1], \quad \text{and} \quad (1 \ 3 \ 2) \Leftrightarrow [2].$$

$\circ$	$e$	$(1 \ 2 \ 3)$	$(1 \ 3 \ 2)$	$\oplus$	$[0]$	$[1]$	$[2]$
$e$	$e$	$(1 \ 2 \ 3)$	$(1 \ 3 \ 2)$	$[0]$	$[0]$	$[1]$	$[2]$
$(1 \ 2 \ 3)$	$(1 \ 2 \ 3)$	$(1 \ 3 \ 2)$	$e$	$[1]$	$[1]$	$[2]$	$[0]$
$(1 \ 3 \ 2)$	$(1 \ 3 \ 2)$	$e$	$(1 \ 2 \ 3)$	$[2]$	$[2]$	$[0]$	$[1]$

### Definition 4.18.1

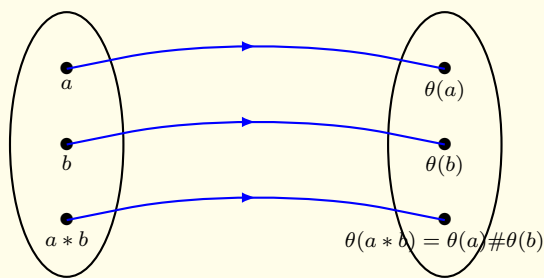
Let  $G$  be a group with operation  $*$  and let  $H$  be a group with operation  $\#$ . An isomorphism of  $G$  onto  $H$  is a mapping  $\theta : G \rightarrow H$  that is one-to-one and onto and satisfies

$$\theta(a * b) = \theta(a) \# \theta(b) \quad \text{for all } a, b \in G.$$

If there is such a mapping then we say that  $G$  and  $H$  are isomorphic and we write  $G \approx H$ . Moreover,  $\theta$  is called an isomorphism.

### Remark 4.18.1

The condition  $\theta(a * b) = \theta(a) \# \theta(b)$  is sometimes described by saying that  $\theta$  preserves the operation. That is, it makes no difference whether we operate in  $G$  first and then apply  $\theta$ , or apply  $\theta$  first and then operate in  $H$ . In either way, we get the same result.

**Example 4.18.2**

Show that  $\langle (1 \ 2 \ 3) \rangle \approx \mathbb{Z}_3$ .

**Solution:**

Consider the mapping  $\theta : \langle (1 \ 2 \ 3) \rangle \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_3$  defined by  $\theta(e) = [0]$ ;  $\theta((1 \ 2 \ 3)) = [1]$ ; and  $\theta((1 \ 3 \ 2)) = [2]$ . Then clearly,  $\theta$  is a bijection. Moreover, for any  $a, b \in \langle (1 \ 2 \ 3) \rangle$ , we have  $\theta(a \circ b) = \theta(a) \oplus \theta(b)$ , for instance

$$\theta((1 \ 2 \ 3)(1 \ 3 \ 2)) = \theta(e) = [0] = [1] \oplus [2] = \theta((1 \ 2 \ 3)) \oplus \theta((1 \ 3 \ 2)).$$

There are 9  $(3 \cdot 3)$  equations to be checked. Can you do it?

**Example 4.18.3**

Show that  $\mathbb{Z} \approx 3\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Solution:**

Let  $\theta : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 3\mathbb{Z}$  given by  $\theta(a) = 3a$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . This mapping is clearly one-to-one and onto  $3\mathbb{Z}$ . Moreover, it preserves addition:

$$\theta(a + b) = 3(a + b) = 3a + 3b = \theta(a) + \theta(b).$$

Therefore,  $\theta$  is an isomorphism and  $\mathbb{Z} \approx 3\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Example 4.18.4**

Show that  $\mathbb{Z}$  is isomorphic to the multiplicative group of all rational numbers of the form  $2^m$  for  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Solution:**

Let  $\alpha : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow H$ , where  $H = \{2^m : m \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ . **Onto:** Let  $x \in H$ , then  $x = 2^n$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . That is  $\alpha(n) = 2^n = x$ . Thus  $\alpha$  is onto  $H$ . **One-to-one:** Let  $\alpha(a) = \alpha(b)$  for some  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $2^a = 2^b$  and hence  $a = b$ . Thus  $\alpha$  is 1-1. Finally, note that for any  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  we have

$$\alpha(a + b) = 2^{a+b} = 2^a \cdot 2^b = \alpha(a) \cdot \alpha(b).$$

Therefore,  $\alpha$  is an isomorphism and  $\mathbb{Z} \approx H$ .

### Theorem 4.18.1

If  $G$  and  $H$  are isomorphic groups and  $G$  is abelian, then  $H$  is abelian.

#### Proof:

Let  $*$  and  $\#$  be the operations of  $G$  and  $H$ , respectively, and let  $\theta : G \rightarrow H$  be an isomorphism. If  $x, y \in H$ , there are elements  $a, b \in G$  such that  $\theta(a) = x$  and  $\theta(b) = y$ . Since  $\theta$  preserves the operation (meaning that  $\theta(a * b) = \theta(a) \# \theta(b)$ ) and  $G$  is abelian,

$$x \# y = \theta(a) \# \theta(b) = \theta(a * b) = \theta(b * a) = \theta(b) \# \theta(a) = y \# x.$$

That is  $H$  is abelian.

### Theorem 4.18.2

If  $G$  and  $H$  are isomorphic groups and  $G$  is cyclic, then  $H$  is cyclic.

#### Proof:

Exercise: Try to show that if  $G = \langle a \rangle$ , then  $H = \langle \theta(a) \rangle$  for an isomorphism  $\theta$ .

### Theorem 4.18.3

Let  $G$  and  $H$  be groups with operations  $*$  and  $\#$ , respectively, and let  $\theta : G \rightarrow H$  be a mapping such that  $\theta(a * b) = \theta(a) \# \theta(b)$  for all  $a, b \in G$ . Then,

1.  $\theta(e_G) = e_H$ ,
2.  $\theta(a^{-1}) = \theta(a)^{-1}$  for each  $a \in G$ ,
3.  $\theta(a^k) = \theta(a)^k$  for each  $a \in G$  and each  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,

4.  $\theta(G) = \{\theta(g) : g \in G\}$ , the image of  $\theta$ , is a subgroup of  $H$ , and
5. if  $\theta$  is one-to-one, then  $G \approx \theta(G)$ .

**Proof:**

1. Clearly,  $\theta(e_G)\theta(e_G) = \theta(e_G e_G) = \theta(e_G) \in H$ . Thus  $\theta(e_G) = \theta(e_G)e_H$  and then  $\theta(e_G)\theta(e_G) = \theta(e_G)e_H$ . By left cancelation law,  $\theta(e_G) = e_H$ .
2.  $e_H = \theta(e_G) = \theta(aa^{-1}) = \theta(a)\theta(a^{-1})$  for each  $a \in G$ . Thus,  $\theta(a^{-1}) = (\theta(a))^{-1}$ .
3. Consider three cases of  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ : **Case 1:**  $k = 0$ , then  $\theta(e_G) = e_H$ . **Case 2:**  $k > 0$ : Using induction if  $k = 1$ , then  $\theta(a^1) = \theta(a)^1$  which is true. Assume that  $\theta(a^k) = \theta(a)^k$  for some  $k$ . Then  $\theta(a^{k+1}) = \theta(a^k \cdot a) = \theta(a^k) \cdot \theta(a) = \theta(a)^k \cdot \theta(a) = \theta(a)^{k+1}$ . **Case 3:**  $k < 0$ : Use same idea as in case 2, but for the negative integers.
4. We show that  $\theta(G) \leq H$  by showing the following three conditions:

$\mathcal{S}_1$ : (Closure of  $\theta(G)$ ) Let  $\theta(g_1), \theta(g_2) \in \theta(G)$  for any  $g_1, g_2 \in G$ . Then

$$\theta(g_1)\theta(g_2) = \theta(g_1g_2) \in \theta(G) \text{ since } g_1g_2 \in G.$$

$\mathcal{S}_2$ : (identity)  $\theta(e_G) = e_H$  by part 1.

$\mathcal{S}_3$ : (inverse of  $\theta(g)$ ) Let  $\theta(g) \in \theta(G)$  for  $g \in G$ , then  $g^{-1} \in G$  and hence  $\theta(g^{-1}) = \theta(g)^{-1} \in \theta(G)$ .

5.  $\theta(G)$  is 1-1 is given. Note that  $\theta(ab) = \theta(a)\theta(b)$  by the assumption. Also, considering  $\theta$  as a mapping from  $G$  to  $\theta(G)$  shows that  $\theta$  is onto. Therefore,  $\theta : G \rightarrow \theta(G)$  is an isomorphism.

**Definition 4.18.2**

Let  $G$  and  $H$  be groups with operations  $*$  and  $\#$ , respectively. Then  $\theta : G \rightarrow H$  is a homomorphism if

$$\theta(a * b) = \theta(a) \# \theta(b) \quad \text{for all } a, b \in G.$$

**Example 4.18.5**

Let  $\theta : (\mathbb{R}, +) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}^+, \cdot)$  defined by  $\theta(x) = e^x$ . Show that  $\theta$  is an isomorphism.

**Solution:**

1 – 1: Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $\theta(x) = \theta(y)$ , then  $e^x = e^y$  and hence  $e^{x-y} = 1$  which implies  $x - y = 0$  and hence  $x = y$ .

onto: Let  $y \in \mathbb{R}^+$ , then  $y = e^x$  for some  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $\ln(y) = x$  and hence  $\theta(\ln(y)) = e^{\ln(y)} = y$ .

hom.: Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $\theta(x + y) = e^{x+y} = e^x e^y = \theta(x)\theta(y)$ . Therefore  $\theta$  is homomorphism.

Therefore  $\theta$  is an isomorphism, and  $(\mathbb{R}, +) \approx (\mathbb{R}^+, \cdot)$ .

**Exercise 4.18.1**

Solve the following exercises from the book at pages 96 - 97:

- 18.1 – 18.6,
- 18.9 – 18.12.



## Section 4.19: More On Isomorphism

### Theorem 4.19.1

Isomorphism, denoted by  $\approx$ , is an equivalence relation on the class of all groups.

#### Proof:

We simply show that  $\approx$  is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive as follows.

1. Reflexive: If  $G$  is a group, then the identity mapping  $I : G \rightarrow G$  is an isomorphism and thus  $G \approx G$ .
2. Symmetric: Assume that  $G \approx H$ . Then there is an isomorphism  $f : G \rightarrow H$  which is a bijection. But then  $f^{-1}$  is a bijection as well. So, we need to show that  $f^{-1}$  is a homomorphism mapping. That is,  $f^{-1}(ab) = f^{-1}(a)f^{-1}(b)$  for any  $a, b \in H$ . Let  $f^{-1}(a) = x$  and  $f^{-1}(b) = y$ , then  $a = f(x)$  and  $b = f(y)$  and hence  $ab = f(x)f(y) = f(xy)$ . That is  $f^{-1}(ab) = xy = f^{-1}(a)f^{-1}(b)$ . Therefore,  $H \approx G$ .
3. Transitive: Let  $G \approx H$  and  $H \approx K$  with  $f : G \rightarrow H$  and  $g : H \rightarrow K$  are two isomorphisms. That is  $f$  and  $g$  are both bijection and hence  $g \circ f : G \rightarrow K$  is a bijection as well. Also, for any  $a, b \in G$ , we have

$$(g \circ f)(ab) = g(f(ab)) = g(f(a)f(b)) = g(f(a))g(f(b)) = (g \circ f)(a)(g \circ f)(b).$$

That is  $G \approx K$ .

Therefore,  $\approx$  is an equivalence relation on the class of all groups.

### Theorem 4.19.2

If  $p$  is a prime and  $G$  is a group of order  $p$ , then  $G$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ .

#### Proof:

Let  $a$  be a nonidentity element of  $G$ . Then  $\langle a \rangle \neq \{e\}$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . By Lagrange's Theorem,  $\langle a \rangle = G$  and hence  $G = \{e, a, a^2, \dots, a^{p-1}\}$ . Define  $\theta : G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p$  by  $\theta(a^k) = [k]$ . We next show that  $\theta$  is an isomorphism.

1.  $\theta$  is one-to-one: Let  $\theta(a^{k_1}) = \theta(a^{k_2})$ , then

$$[k_1] = [k_2] \text{ iff } k_1 \equiv k_2 \pmod{p} \text{ iff } p \mid (k_1 - k_2) \text{ iff } a^{k_1 - k_2} = e \text{ iff } a^{k_1} = a^{k_2}.$$

2.  $\theta$  is onto: Let  $[k] \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ , then by the Division Algorithm  $k = p \cdot q + r$ ;  $0 \leq r < p$ . Thus  $a^k = (a^p)^q a^r = a^r \in G$ . Then  $\theta(a^k) = \theta(a^r) = [r] = [k] \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ .

3. Let  $a^m, a^n \in G$ , then

$$\theta(a^m a^n) = \theta(a^{m+n}) = [m+n] = [m] \oplus [n] = \theta(a^m) \oplus \theta(a^n).$$

Therefore,  $\theta$  is an isomorphism and hence  $G \approx \mathbb{Z}_p$ .

### Theorem 4.19.3

Every cyclic group of order  $n$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ .

#### Proof:

Assume that  $G$  is a cyclic group of order  $n$ . Let  $G = \langle a \rangle = \{e, a, a^2, \dots, a^{n-1}\}$ . Define  $\theta : G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$  by  $\theta(a^k) = [k]$ . Clearly,  $\theta$  is a bijection. Furthermore,

$$\theta(a^k a^h) = \theta(a^{k+h}) = [k+h] = [k] \oplus [h] = \theta(a^k) \oplus \theta(a^h).$$

Therefore,  $\theta$  is homomorphism and hence  $G \approx \mathbb{Z}_n$ .

### Theorem 4.19.4

Every cyclic group of infinite order is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

#### Proof:

Assume that  $G$  is a cyclic group of infinite order. There is  $a \in G$  with  $G = \langle a \rangle$ . Define  $\theta : G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  by  $\theta(a^k) = k$ . Clearly,  $\theta$  is a bijection. Furthermore,

$$\theta(a^k a^h) = \theta(a^{k+h}) = k+h = \theta(a^k) \oplus \theta(a^h).$$

Therefore,  $\theta$  is homomorphism and hence  $G \approx \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Theorem 4.19.5: Fundamental Theorem of Finite Abelian Groups**

If  $G$  is a finite abelian group, then  $G$  is the direct product of cyclic groups of prime power order.

Moreover, if  $G \approx A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_s$  and  $G \approx B_1 \times B_2 \times \cdots \times B_t$ , where each  $A_i$  and each  $B_j$  is cyclic of prime order, then  $s = t$  and after suitable relabeling of subscripts,  $|A_i| = |B_i|$  for  $1 \leq i \leq s$ .

**Example 4.19.1**

If  $p$  is a prime, then there are five isomorphism classes of abelian groups of order  $p^4$ . Give one group from each class.

**Solution:**

Clearly,  $p^4 = p^3 \cdot p = p^2 \cdot p^2 = p^2 \cdot p \cdot p = p \cdot p \cdot p \cdot p$ . Thus, we have

$$\mathbb{Z}_{p^4}; \mathbb{Z}_{p^3} \times \mathbb{Z}_p; \mathbb{Z}_{p^2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p^2}; \mathbb{Z}_{p^2} \times \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_p; \text{ and } \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_p.$$

**Example 4.19.2**

List the isomorphism class representatives of abelian groups of order 125.

**Solution:**

Clearly,  $125 = 5^3 = 5^2 \cdot 5 = 5 \cdot 5 \cdot 5$ . Thus, we have

$$\mathbb{Z}_{5^3}; \mathbb{Z}_{5^2} \times \mathbb{Z}_5; \text{ and } \mathbb{Z}_5 \times \mathbb{Z}_5 \times \mathbb{Z}_5.$$

**Example 4.19.3**

List the isomorphism class representatives of abelian groups of order 200.

**Solution:**

Clearly,  $200 = 2^3 \cdot 5^2 = 2^3 \cdot 5 \cdot 5 = 2^2 \cdot 2 \cdot 5^2 = 2^2 \cdot 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 5 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 5^2 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 5$ . Thus, we have

$$\begin{aligned} &\mathbb{Z}_{2^3} \times \mathbb{Z}_{5^2}; \mathbb{Z}_{2^3} \times \mathbb{Z}_5 \times \mathbb{Z}_5; \mathbb{Z}_{2^2} \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_{5^2}; \mathbb{Z}_{2^2} \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_5 \times \mathbb{Z}_5; \\ &\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_{5^2}; \text{ and } \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_5 \times \mathbb{Z}_5. \end{aligned}$$

**Exercise 4.19.1**

Solve the following exercises from the book at pages 101:

- 19.15 – 19.18.

## Section 5.21: Homomorphism of Groups. Kernels

## Remark 5.21.1

Every isomorphism is a homomorphism, but not (necessary) vice versa.

## Definition 5.21.1

If  $\theta : G \rightarrow H$  is a homomorphism, then the **kernel** of  $\theta$  is the set of all elements  $a \in G$  such that  $\theta(a) = e_H$ . That is

$$\ker \theta = \{a \in G : \theta(a) = e_H\}.$$

## Example 5.21.1

Let  $\theta : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  be defined by  $\theta(a) = 2a$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Discuss 1) homomorphismity of  $\theta$ . 2) Is  $\theta$  onto, 3) Is  $\theta$  1-1, and 4) Find  $\ker \theta$ .

Solution:

1. Clearly,  $\theta(a + b) = 2(a + b) = 2a + 2b = \theta(a) + \theta(b)$  and hence  $\theta$  is a homomorphism.
2.  $\theta$  is not onto  $\mathbb{Z}$  since there is no element  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $\theta(a) = 3$  for instance.
3.  $\theta(a) = \theta(b)$  implies  $2a = 2b$  and hence  $a = b$ . Thus,  $\theta$  is 1-1.
4.  $\ker \theta = \{a \in \mathbb{Z} : \theta(a) = 2a = 0\} = \{0\}$ .

□

## Example 5.21.2

For any positive integer  $n$ , define  $\theta : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$  by  $\theta(a) = [a]$  for each  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Show that  $\theta$  is a homomorphism, find  $\ker \theta$ , and is  $\theta$  an isomorphism? Explain.

**Solution:**

Clearly for any  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  we have  $\theta(a + b) = [a + b] = [a] \oplus [b] = \theta(a) \oplus \theta(b)$ .

Thus,  $\theta$  is a homomorphism. Also,  $\ker \theta = \{a \in \mathbb{Z} : \theta(a) = [a] = [0]\} = \{k \cdot n : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ .

Moreover,  $\theta$  is not isomorphism since it is not one-to-one, for instance  $\theta(0) = \theta(n) = [0]$ .

**Theorem 5.21.1**

If  $\theta : G \rightarrow H$  is a homomorphism and  $A \leq G$ , then  $\theta(A) \leq H$  where  $\theta(A) = \{\theta(a) : a \in A\}$ , the image of  $A$  under  $\theta$ .

**Proof:**

We prove the statement by showing the three conditions of a subgroup as follows:

$\mathcal{S}_1$ : Closure: Let  $\theta(a), \theta(b) \in \theta(A)$ , then  $\theta(a)\theta(b) = \theta(ab) \in \theta(A)$  since  $ab \in A$ .

$\mathcal{S}_2$ : Identity:  $\theta(e_G) = e_H \in \theta(A)$  since  $e_G \in A$ .

$\mathcal{S}_3$ : Inverse: Let  $\theta(a) \in \theta(A)$ , then  $\theta(a^{-1}) = \theta(a)^{-1} \in \theta(A)$  since  $a^{-1} \in A$ .

Therefore,  $\theta(A) \leq H$ .

**Exercise 5.21.1**

Q.21.10: If  $\theta : G \rightarrow H$  is a homomorphism and  $B \leq H$ , then  $\theta^{-1}(B) \leq G$ , where  $\theta^{-1}(B) = \{g \in G : \theta(g) \in B\}$ , the inverse image of  $B$  under  $\theta$ .

**Solution:**

$\mathcal{S}_1$ : Closure: Let  $g_1, g_2 \in \theta^{-1}(B)$ , then  $\theta(g_1), \theta(g_2) \in B$ . Thus

$$\theta(g_1)\theta(g_2) = \theta(g_1g_2) \in B \Rightarrow g_1g_2 \in \theta^{-1}(B).$$

$\mathcal{S}_2$ : Identity: Clearly  $\theta(e_G) = e_H \in B$  and hence  $e_G \in \theta^{-1}(B)$ .

$\mathcal{S}_3$ : Inverse: Let  $g \in \theta^{-1}(B)$ , then  $\theta(g) \in B$ . Therefore,  $\theta(g)^{-1} = \theta(g^{-1}) \in B$ . Hence  $g^{-1} \in \theta^{-1}(B)$ .

Therefore,  $\theta^{-1}(B) \leq G$ .

**Theorem 5.21.2**

If  $\theta : G \rightarrow H$  is a homomorphism, then  $\ker \theta \leq G$ . Moreover,  $\theta$  is 1-1 if and only if  $\ker \theta = \{e_G\}$ .

**Proof:**

We show the three conditions of a subgroup as follows:

$\mathcal{S}_1$ : Closure: Let  $a, b \in \ker \theta$ , then  $a, b \in G$  with  $\theta(a) = \theta(b) = e_H$ . Thus,  $\theta(ab) = \theta(a)\theta(b) = e_H e_H = e_H$ . Thus  $ab \in \ker \theta$ .

$\mathcal{S}_2$ : Identity: Clearly  $e_G \in \ker \theta$  since  $\theta(e_G) = e_H$ .

$\mathcal{S}_3$ : Inverse: Let  $a \in \ker \theta$  then  $a, a^{-1} \in G$ . Thus

$$\theta(a^{-1}) = \theta(a)^{-1} = e_H^{-1} = e_H \Rightarrow a^{-1} \in \ker \theta.$$

Therefore,  $\ker \theta \leq G$ . Next We show the if and only if statement:

" $\Rightarrow$ ": Assume that  $\theta$  is 1-1. Since  $e_G \in \ker \theta \leq G$  and the identity is unique then  $\ker \theta = \{e_G\}$ .

" $\Leftarrow$ ": Assume that  $\ker \theta = \{e_G\}$ . If  $a, b \in G$  with  $\theta(a) = \theta(b)$ , then  $\theta(a)\theta(b)^{-1} = e_H$  and hence  $\theta(a)\theta(b^{-1}) = e_H$  and thus  $\theta(ab^{-1}) = e_H$ . Therefore,  $ab^{-1} \in \ker \theta$  which implies that  $ab^{-1} = e_G$ . Hence  $a = b$ . Therefore  $\theta$  is 1-1.

**Example 5.21.3**

Consider the homomorphism  $\theta : \mathbb{Z}_{10} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{10}$  defined by  $\theta(x) = 8x$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{10}$ . Find the  $\ker \theta$ .

**Solution:**

$\ker \theta = \{0, 5\}$  since  $\theta(0) = \theta(5) = 40 = 0$  while for instance  $\theta(3) = 24 = 4 \neq 0$  and hence  $3 \notin \ker \theta$ .

**Definition 5.21.2**

A subgroup  $N$  of a group  $G$  is called **normal subgroup** of  $G$  if  $gng^{-1} \in N$  for all  $n \in N$  and all  $g \in G$ . In that case, we write  $N \triangleleft G$ .

**Example 5.21.4**

Show that every subgroup of an abelian group is a normal subgroup.

**Solution:**

If  $N$  is a subgroup of an abelian group  $G$ , then for all  $n \in N$  and for all  $g \in G$ ,

$$gng^{-1} = gg^{-1}n = n \in N.$$

Thus  $N \triangleleft G$ .

**Theorem 5.21.3**

If  $G$  and  $H$  are groups and  $\theta : G \rightarrow H$  is a homomorphism, then  $\ker \theta \triangleleft G$ .

**Proof:**

Recall that  $\ker \theta \leq G$ . Let  $n \in \ker \theta$  and  $g \in G$ , then  $\theta(n) = e_H$ . So

$$\theta(gng^{-1}) = \theta(g)\theta(n)\theta(g^{-1}) = \theta(g)e_H\theta(g^{-1}) = \theta(g)\theta(g^{-1}) = e_H.$$

Thus  $gng^{-1} \in \ker \theta$  and hence  $\ker \theta \triangleleft G$ .

**Remark 5.21.2**

Let  $H$  be a subgroup of a group  $G$ . Then  $H$  is normal subgroup of  $G$  iff for all  $g \in G$

$$gH = Hg \Leftrightarrow gHg^{-1} = H \Leftrightarrow H = g^{-1}Hg.$$

**Example 5.21.5**

Let  $H = \{e, (1\ 2)\} \leq S_3$ . Is  $H \triangleleft S_3$ ? Explain.

**Solution:**

Note that,

$$eH = \{e, (1\ 2)\} = He = \{e, (1\ 2)\}$$

$$(1\ 2)H = \{e, (1\ 2)\} = H(1\ 2) = \{e, (1\ 2)\}$$

$$(1\ 3)H = \{(1\ 3), (1\ 2\ 3)\} \neq H(1\ 3) = \{(1\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2)\}$$



Therefore,  $H$  is not a normal subgroup of  $S_3$ .

**Exercise 5.21.2**

Show that  $H = \{e, (1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2)\} \triangleleft S_3$ . [Hint: Simply show that for all  $g \in S_3$ , we have  $gH = Hg$ ].

**Example 5.21.6**

Show that  $H = \{0, 3\} \triangleleft (\mathbb{Z}_6, +)$ .

**Solution:**

One way to show the statement:  $H$  is a subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}_6$  which is an abelian group and hence  $H$  is normal subgroup.

Another way to show the statement: Show that  $H$  is a normal subgroup by showing that  $g + H = H + g$  for all  $g \in \mathbb{Z}_6$ .

**Exercise 5.21.3**

Solve the following exercises from the book at pages 109 - 110:

- 21.2,
- 21.5 – 21.10,
- 21.34.

## Section 5.22: Quotient Groups

### Theorem 5.22.1

Let  $H$  be a subgroup of a group  $G$ . The left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  with multiplication is well defined by  $aHbH = abH$  if and only if  $aH = Ha$  for all  $a, b \in G$ .

### Theorem 5.22.2

Let  $N$  be a normal subgroup of a group  $G$ , and let  $G/N$  denote the set of all left cosets of  $N$  in  $G$ . Then  $G/N = \{gN : g \in G\}$  under the binary operation  $(g_1N)(g_2N) = g_1g_2N$  is a group.

This group is called the **quotient group** (or factor group) of  $G$  by  $N$ . Moreover,

$$|G/N| = \frac{|G|}{|N|} := [G : N].$$

### Proof:

We show that  $G/N$  is a group by showing the following three conditions:

$\mathcal{G}_1$ : Associative: If  $a, b, c \in G$ , then

$$aN(bNcN) = aN(bcN) = (a(bc))N = ((ab)c)N = (ab)NcN = (aNbN)cN.$$

$\mathcal{G}_2$ : Identity: Clearly, the identity element is  $eN \in G/N$ .

$\mathcal{G}_3$ : Inverse: For any element  $gN \in G/N$ , the inverse is  $g^{-1}N \in G/N$ .

### Example 5.22.1

Let  $H = \langle 2 \rangle$ . Show that  $H \triangleleft \mathbb{Z}_{12}$ . Find the order of  $\mathbb{Z}_{12}/H$ . Is  $\mathbb{Z}_{12}/H \approx \mathbb{Z}_2$ ? Explain.

### Solution:

Note that  $H = \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10\}$ .

- Since  $\mathbb{Z}_{12}$  is abelian, then  $H \triangleleft \mathbb{Z}_{12}$ .
- Note that  $\mathbb{Z}_{12}/H$  is a quotient group and hence  $|\mathbb{Z}_{12}/H| = \frac{12}{6} = 2$ .
- Clearly  $\mathbb{Z}_{12}/H = \{a + H : a \in \mathbb{Z}_{12}\} = \{H, 1 + H\} \approx \mathbb{Z}_2$ .

**Example 5.22.2**

Consider  $N = \{e, (1 \ 2 \ 3), (1 \ 3 \ 2)\} \triangleleft S_3$ . Find  $S_3/N$ .

**Solution:**

Clearly,  $S_3/N = \{aN : a \in S_3\}$ , but since  $|S_3/N| = \frac{6}{3} = 2$ , we conclude that

$$S_3/N = \{N, (1 \ 2)N\}, \text{ where } (1 \ 2)N = \{(1 \ 2), (1 \ 3), (2 \ 3)\}.$$

**Theorem 5.22.3**

If  $G$  is a group with a normal subgroup  $N$ , then the mapping  $\theta : G \rightarrow G/N$  defined by  $\theta(a) = aN$  for each  $a \in G$  is a homomorphism of  $G$  onto  $G/N$ , and  $\ker \theta = N$ . It is called the natural homomorphism.

**Proof:**

Clearly the mapping  $\theta$  is well defined and onto  $G/N$ . If  $a, b \in G$ , then

$$\theta(ab) = abN = aNbN = \theta(a)\theta(b).$$

Thus  $\theta$  is a homomorphism. Finally, if  $a \in G$ , then

$$a \in \ker \theta \Leftrightarrow \theta(a) = aN = eN = N,$$

because  $eN$  is the identity element of  $G/N$ . Therefore,  $a \in \ker \theta$  if and only if  $aN = N$  and hence if and only if  $a \in N$ .

**Theorem 5.22.4**

Let  $G$  be a group with a normal subgroup  $N$ . Let  $G/N$  be a quotient group. Then,

1. If  $G$  is finite, then  $|G/N| = \frac{|G|}{|N|}$ .
2. If  $G$  is cyclic, then  $G/N$  is cyclic.
3. If  $G$  is abelian, then  $G/N$  is abelian.
4. If  $a$  has a finite order in  $G$ , then the order of  $aN$  in  $G/N$  divides the order of  $a$ .

**Theorem 5.22.5**

Every quotient group of a cyclic group is cyclic.

**Proof:**

Let  $G/N$  be a quotient group of a cyclic group  $G$ . Assume that  $G = \langle a \rangle$  for some  $a \in G$ . If  $g \in G$ , then  $g = a^n$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  since  $G$  is cyclic. Hence  $gN = a^nN = (aN)^n$  for any element  $gN \in G/N$ . Thus,  $G/N = \langle aN \rangle$  and so  $G/N$  is cyclic.

**Theorem 5.22.6**

If  $H$  and  $K$  are normal subgroups of a group  $G$ , then  $H \cap K \triangleleft G$ .

**Proof:**

For all  $g \in G$  and for all  $x \in H \cap K$ , we have  $x \in H$  and  $x \in K$ ; hence  $gxg^{-1} \in H$  and  $gxg^{-1} \in K$  and hence  $gxg^{-1} \in H \cap K$ . Therefore,  $H \cap K$  is normal.

**Theorem 5.22.7**

If  $H$  and  $K$  are normal subgroup of a group  $G$  and  $H \cap K = \{e\}$ , then  $hk = kh$  for all  $h \in H$  and  $k \in K$ .

**Proof:**

Let  $g = hkh^{-1}k^{-1} \in G$ . But  $K$  is normal and hence  $hkh^{-1} \in K$  and  $k^{-1} \in K$  and thus  $g = hkh^{-1}k^{-1} \in K$ . Also  $H$  is normal and hence  $h^{-1} \in H$  which implies that  $kh^{-1}k^{-1} \in H$  and hence  $g = hkh^{-1}k^{-1} \in H$ . Therefore,  $g \in H \cap K = \{e\}$ ; hence  $g = e$  and hence  $hk = kh$  for all  $h \in H$  and  $k \in K$ .

**Example 5.22.3**

Prove that if  $N \triangleleft G$  and  $H$  is any subgroup of  $G$ , then  $N \cap H \triangleleft H$ .

**Solution:**

Note that  $N \cap H \leq G$  and  $N \cap H \subseteq H$  implies that  $N \cap H \leq H$ . Let  $h \in H$  and  $x \in N \cap H$ . Then  $x \in N$  and  $x \in H$  and  $h^{-1} \in H$  and hence  $h x h^{-1} \in H$  since  $H \leq G$ . Also  $h x h^{-1} \in N$  since  $N \triangleleft G$ . Therefore,  $h x h^{-1} \in N \cap H$ . That is  $N \cap H \triangleleft H$ .

**Theorem 5.22.8: The Fundamental Homomorphism Theorem**

Let  $G$  and  $H$  be groups and let  $\theta : G \rightarrow H$  be a homomorphism from  $G$  onto  $H$  with  $\ker \theta = K$ . Then the mapping  $\Phi : G/K \rightarrow H$  defined by  $\Phi(aK) = \theta(a)$  for each  $aK \in G/K$  is an isomorphism of  $G/K$  onto  $H$ . Therefore,  $G/K \approx H$ .

**Proof:**

**Onto:** Clearly  $\Phi$  is onto  $H$  since  $\theta$  is onto  $H$ . For any  $h \in H$  there is  $a \in G$  such that  $\theta(a) = h = \Phi(aK)$  for  $aK \in G/K$ .

**1-1:** We show that  $\Phi$  is 1-1 iff  $\ker \Phi = \{eK\}$ . Let  $aK \in \ker \Phi$ , then  $\Phi(aK) = \theta(a) = e_H$  and hence  $a \in \ker \theta = K$  iff  $aK = K = eK$ . Thus,  $\ker \Phi = \{eK\}$  and hence  $\Phi$  is 1-1.

**homomorphism:** For any  $a, b \in G$ , we have:

$$\Phi(aK bK) = \Phi(ab K) = \theta(ab) = \theta(a) \theta(b) = \Phi(aK) \Phi(bK).$$

Therefore,  $G/K \approx H$ .

**Example 5.22.4**

For integer  $n \geq 2$ , show that  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \approx \mathbb{Z}_n$ ; or similarly  $\mathbb{Z}/\langle n \rangle \approx \mathbb{Z}_n$ .

**Solution:**

Let  $G = \mathbb{Z}$  and  $H = \mathbb{Z}_n$  and  $K = n\mathbb{Z} = \langle n \rangle$ . Let  $\theta : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$  be defined by  $\theta(a) = [a]$  which is onto homomorphism. Also, we know that  $\ker \theta = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} : [x] = [0]\} = \{nk : k \in \mathbb{Z}\} = n\mathbb{Z} = \langle n \rangle = K$ . Therefore, by the Fundamental Homomorphism Theorem, we get  $G/K \approx H$ .

**Exercise 5.22.1**

Solve the following exercises from the book at pages 114:

- 22.5 – 22.6.





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