Algebra, Chapter 0

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Chapter I. Preliminaries: Set theory and categories

§1. Naive Set Theory

1.6 Define a relation \sim on the set \mathbb{R} of real numbers, by setting $a \sim b \iff b-a \in \mathbb{Z}$. Prove that this is an equivalence relation, and find a 'compelling' description for \mathbb{R}/\sim . Do the same for the relation \approx on the plane $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ defined by declaring $(a_1, a_2) \approx (b_1, b_2) \iff b_1 - a_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $b_2 - a_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$. [§II.8.1, II.8.10]

Imaginatively, \mathbb{R}/\sim can be viewed as a ring of length 1 by bending the real line \mathbb{R} . Then we can rotate a ring around an axis of rotation to get $\mathbb{R}\times\mathbb{R}/\approx$, which makes a torus.

§2. Functions between sets

2.1 How many different bijections are there between a set S with n elements and itself? [§II.2.1]

There are n! different bijections $S \to S$.

§3. Categories

- **3.1** Let C be a category. Consider a structure C^{op} with:
 - $Obj(C^{op}) := Obj(C);$
 - for A, B objects of C^{op} (hence, objects of C), $\operatorname{Hom}_{C^{op}}(A,B) := \operatorname{Hom}_{C}(B,A)$

Show how to make this into a category (that is, define composition of morphisms in C^{op} and verify the properties listed in §3.1). Intuitively, the 'opposite' category C^{op} is simply obtained by 'reversing all the arrows' in C. [5.1, §VIII.1.1, §IX.1.2, IX.1.10]

- For every object A of C, there exists one identity morphism $1_A \in \operatorname{Hom}_{C}(A, A)$. Since $\operatorname{Obj}(\mathsf{C}^{op}) := \operatorname{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}^{op}}(A, A) := \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, A)$, for every object A of C^{op} , the identity on A coincides with $1_A \in \mathsf{C}$.
- For A, B, C objects of C^{op} and $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{C^{op}}(A, B) = \operatorname{Hom}_{C}(B, A), g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{C^{op}}(B, C) = \operatorname{Hom}_{C}(C, B)$, the composition laws in C determines a morphism f * g in $\operatorname{Hom}_{C}(C, A)$, which deduces the composition defined on C^{op} :

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}^{op}}(A,B) \times \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}^{op}}(B,C) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}^{op}}(A,C)$$

 $(f,g) \longmapsto g \circ f := f * g$

• Associativity. If $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}^{op}}(A,B), g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}^{op}}(B,C), h \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}^{op}}(C,D)$, then

$$f \circ (g \circ h) = f \circ (h * g) = (h * g) * f = h * (g * f) = (g * f) \circ h = (f \circ g) \circ h.$$

• Identity. For all $f \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{C}^{op}}(A, B)$, we have

$$f \circ 1_A = 1_A * f = f, \quad 1_B \circ f = f * 1_B = f.$$

Thus we get the full construction of $\mathsf{C}^{op}.$

§4. Morphisms

4.2 In Example 3.3 we have seen how to construct a category from a set endowed with a relation, provided this latter is reflexive and transitive. For what types of relations is the corresponding category a groupoid (cf. Example 4.6)? [§4.1]

For a reflexive and transitive relation \sim on a set S, define the category C as follows:

• Objects: Obj(C) = S;

• Morphisms: if a, b are objects (that is: if $a, b \in S$) then let

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(a,b) = \begin{cases} (a,b) \in S \times S & \text{if } a \sim b \\ \emptyset & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In Example 3.3 we have shown the category. If the relation \sim is endowed with symmetry, we have

$$(a,b) \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(a,b) \implies a \sim b \implies b \sim a \implies (b,a) \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(b,a).$$

Since

$$(a,b)(b,a) = (a,a) = 1_a, (b,a)(a,b) = (b,b) = 1_b,$$

in fact (a,b) is an isomorphism. From the arbitrariness of the choice of (a,b), we show that C is a groupoid. Conversely, if C is a groupoid, we can show the relation \sim is symmetric. To sum up, the category C is a groupoid if and only if the corresponding relation \sim is an equivalence relation.

§5. Universal properties

5.1 Prove that a final object in a category C is initial in the opposite category C_{op} (cf. Exercise 3.1).

An object F of C is final in C if and only if

$$\forall A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C}) : \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, F) \text{ is a singleton.}$$

That is equivalent to

$$\forall A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C}_{op}) : \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}_{op}}(F,A) \text{ is a singleton,}$$

which means F is initial in the opposite category C_{op} .

Chapter II. Groups, first encounter

§1. Definition of group

1.1 Write a careful proof that every group is the group of isomorphisms of a groupoid. In particular, every group is the group of automorphisms of some object in some category.

Assume G is a group. Define a category C as follows:

• Objects: $Obj(C) = \{*\};$

• Morphisms: $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(*,*) = \operatorname{End}_{\mathsf{C}}(*) = G$.

The composition of homomorphism is corresponding to the multiplication between two elements in G. The identity morphism on * is $1_* = e_G$, which satisfies for all $g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(*,*)$,

$$ge_G = e_G g = g,$$

and

$$gg^{-1} = e_G, \ g^{-1}g = e_G.$$

Thus any homomorphism $g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(*,*)$ is an isomorphism and accordingly C is a groupoid. Now we see $G = \operatorname{End}_{\mathsf{C}}(*)$ is the group of isomorphisms of a groupoid. Moreover, supposing that * is an object in some category D , G would be the group of automorphisms of *, which is denoted as $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathsf{D}}(*)$.

1.4 Suppose that $g^2 = e$ for all elements g of a group G; prove that G is commutative.

For all $a, b \in G$,

$$abab = e \implies a(abab)b = ab \implies (aa)ba(bb) = ab \implies ba = ab.$$

§2. Examples of groups

2.1 One can associate an $n \times n$ matrix M_{σ} with a permutation $\sigma \in S_n$, by letting the entry at $(i, \sigma(i))$ be 1, and letting all other entries be 0. For example, the matrix corresponding to the permutation

$$\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \in S_3$$

would be

$$M_{\sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Prove that, with this notation,

$$M_{\sigma\tau} = M_{\sigma} M_{\tau}$$

for all $\sigma, \tau \in S_n$, where the product on the right is the ordinary product of matrices.

By introducing the Kronecker delta function

$$\delta_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \neq j, \\ 1 & \text{if } i = j, \end{cases}$$

the entry at (i,j) of the matrix $M_{\sigma\tau}$ can be written as

$$(M_{\sigma\tau})_{i,j} = \delta_{\tau(\sigma(i)),j}$$

and the entry at (i,j) of the matrix $M_{\sigma}M_{\tau}$ can be written as

$$(M_{\sigma}M_{\tau})_{i,j} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} (M_{\sigma})_{i,k} (M_{\tau})_{k,j} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \delta_{\sigma(i),k} \cdot \delta_{\tau(k),j} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \delta_{\sigma(i),k} \cdot \delta_{k,\tau^{-1}(j)} = \delta_{\sigma(i),\tau^{-1}(j)},$$

where the last but one equality holds by the fact

$$\tau(k) = j \iff k = \tau^{-1}(j).$$

Noticing that

$$\tau(\sigma(i)) = j \iff \sigma(i) = \tau^{-1}(j),$$

we see $M_{\sigma\tau} = M_{\sigma}M_{\tau}$ for all $\sigma, \tau \in S_n$.

2.2 Prove that if $d \leq n$, then S_n contains elements of order d.

The cyclic permutation

$$\sigma = (1 \ 2 \ 3 \cdots d)$$

is an element of order d in S_n .

2.3 For every positive integer n find an element of order n in $S_{\mathbb{N}}$.

The cyclic permutation

$$\sigma = (1 \ 2 \ 3 \cdots n)$$

is an element of order d in S_n .

2.4 Define a homomorphism $D_8 \to S_4$ by labeling vertices of a square, as we did for a triangle in §2.2. List the 8 permutations in the image of this homomorphism.

The image of n rotations under the homomorphism are

$$\sigma_1 = e_{D_8}, \ \sigma_2 = (1\ 2\ 3\ 4), \ \sigma_3 = (1\ 3)(2\ 4), \ \sigma_4 = (1\ 4\ 3\ 2).$$

The image of n reflections under the homomorphism are

$$\sigma_5 = (1\ 3), \ \sigma_6 = (2\ 4), \ \sigma_7 = (1\ 2)(3\ 4), \ \sigma_8 = (1\ 4)(3\ 2).$$

2.11 Prove that the square of every odd integer is congruent to 1 modulo 8.

Given an odd integer 2k + 1, we have

$$(2k+1)^2 = 4k(k+1) + 1,$$

where k(k+1) is an even integer. So $(2k+1)^2 \equiv 1 \mod 8$.

2.12 Prove that there are no integers a, b, c such that $a^2 + b^2 = 3c^2$. (Hint: studying the equation $[a]_4^2 + [b]_4^2 = 3[c]_4^2$ in $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$, show that a, b, c would all have to be even. Letting a = 2k, b = 2l, c = 2m, you would have $k^2 + l^2 = 3m^2$. What's wrong with that?)

$$a^{2} + b^{2} = 3c^{2} \implies [a]_{4}^{2} + [b]_{4}^{2} = 3[c]_{4}^{2}.$$

Noting that $[0]_4^2 = [0]_4$, $[1]_4^2 = [1]_4$, $[2]_4^2 = [0]_4$, $[3]_4^2 = [1]_4$, we see $[c]_4^2$ must be $[0]_4$ and so do $[a]_4^2$ and $[b]_4^2$. Hence $[a]_4$, $[b]_4$, $[b]_4$ can only be $[0]_4$ or $[2]_4$, which justifies letting $a = 2k_1$, $b = 2l_2$, $c = 2m_1$. After substitution we have $k^2 + l^2 = 3m^2$. Repeating this process n times yields $a = 2^n k_n$, $b = 2^n l_n$, $c = 2^n m_n$. For a sufficiently large number N, the absolute value of k_N , l_N , m_N must be less than 1. Thus we conclude that a = b = c = 0 is the unique solution to the equation $a^2 + b^2 = 3c^2$.

2.13 Prove that if gcd(m, n) = 1, then there exist integers a and b such that am + bn = 1. (Use Corollary 2.5.) Conversely, prove that if am + bn = 1 for some integers a and b, then gcd(m, n) = 1. [2.15, §V.2.1, V.2.4]

Applying corollary 2.5, we have gcd(m,n) = 1 if and only if $[m]_n$ generates $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. Hence

$$gcd(m,n) = 1 \iff a[m]_n = [1]_n \iff [am]_n = [1]_n \iff am + bn = 1.$$

2.15 Let n > 0 be an odd integer.

- Prove that if gcd(m, n) = 1, then gcd(2m + n, 2n) = 1. (Use Exercise 2.13.)
- Prove that if gcd(r, 2n) = 1, then $gcd(\frac{r+n}{2}, n) = 1$. (Ditto.)
- Conclude that the function $[m]_n \to [2m+n]_{2n}$ is a bijection between $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$ and $(\mathbb{Z}/2n\mathbb{Z})^*$.

The number $\phi(n)$ of elements of $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$ is Eulers $\phi(n)$ -function. The reader has just proved that if n is odd, then $\phi(2n) = \phi(n)$. Much more general formulas will be given later on (cf. Exercise V.6.8). [VII.5.11]

• According to Exercise 2.13,

$$\gcd(m,n) = 1 \implies am + bn = 1 \implies \frac{a}{2}(2m+n) + \left(b - \frac{a}{2}\right)n = 1.$$

If a is even, we have shown gcd(2m + n, 2n) = 1. Otherwise we can let a' = a + n be an even integer and b' = b - m. Then it holds that

$$\frac{a'}{2}(2m+n) + \left(b' - \frac{a'}{2}\right)n = 1,$$

which also indicates gcd(2m + n, 2n) = 1.

• If gcd(r, 2n) = 1, then r must be an odd integer and accordingly

$$\gcd(2r+2n,4n) = 1 \implies a(2r+2n) + b(4n) = 1 \implies 4a\frac{r+n}{2} + 4bn = 1,$$

which is $gcd(\frac{r+n}{2}, n) = 1$.

• It is easy to check that the function $f: (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^* \to (\mathbb{Z}/2n\mathbb{Z})^*$, $[m]_n \mapsto [2m+n]_{2n}$ is well-defined. The fact

$$f([m_1]_n) = f([m_2]_n) \implies f([2m_1 + n]_{2n}) = f([2m_2 + n]_{2n})$$

 $\implies (2m_1 + n) - (2m_2 + n) = 2kn$
 $\implies m_1 - m_2 = kn$
 $\implies [m_1]_n = [m_2]_n$

indicates that f is injective. For any $[r]_{2n} \in (\mathbb{Z}/2n\mathbb{Z})^*$, we have

$$\gcd(r,2n) = 1 \implies \gcd\left(\frac{r+n}{2},n\right) = 1 \implies \left[\frac{r+n}{2}\right]_n \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*,$$

and

$$f\left(\left[\frac{r+n}{2}\right]_{n}\right) = [r+2n]_{2n} = [r]_{2n},$$

which indicates that f is surjective. Thus we show f is a bijection.

2.16 Find the last digit of $1238237^{18238456}$. (Work in $\mathbb{Z}/10\mathbb{Z}$.)

 $1238237^{18238456} \equiv 7^{18238456} \equiv (7^4)^{4559614} \equiv 2401^{4559614} \equiv 1 \mod 10,$

which indicates that the last digit of $1238237^{18238456}$ is 1.

2.17 Show that if $m \equiv m' \mod n$, then gcd(m, n) = 1 if and only if gcd(m', n) = 1. [§2.3]

Assume that m - m' = kn. If gcd(m, n) = 1, for any common divisor d of m' and n

$$d|m',\ d|n \implies d|(m'+kn) \implies d|m \implies d=1,$$

which means gcd(m', n) = 1. Likewise, we can show $gcd(m', n) = 1 \implies gcd(m, n) = 1$

§3. The category Grp

3.1 Let $\varphi:G\to H$ be a morphism in a category C with products. Explain why there is a unique morphism

$$(\varphi \times \varphi) : G \times G \longrightarrow H \times H.$$

(This morphism is defined explicitly for C = Set in §3.1.)

By the universal property of product in C, there exist a unique morphism $(\varphi \times \varphi) : G \times G \longrightarrow H \times H$ such that the following diagram commutes.

$$G \xrightarrow{\varphi} H$$

$$\pi_{G} \downarrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow^{\pi_{H}}$$

$$G \times G \xrightarrow{\varphi \times \varphi} H \times H$$

$$\pi_{G} \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\pi_{H}}$$

$$G \xrightarrow{\varphi} H$$

3.2 Let $\varphi: G \to H, \psi: H \to K$ be morphisms in a category with products, and consider morphisms between the products $G \times G, H \times H, K \times K$ as in Exercise 3.1. Prove that

$$(\psi\varphi)\times(\psi\varphi)=(\psi\times\psi)(\varphi\times\varphi).$$

(This is part of the commutativity of the diagram displayed in §3.2.)

By the universal property of product in C, there exists a unique morphism

$$(\psi\varphi)\times(\psi\varphi):G\times G\to K\times K$$

such that the following diagram commutes.

$$G \xrightarrow{\psi\varphi} H$$

$$\pi_{G} \downarrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow^{\pi_{H}}$$

$$G \times G \xrightarrow{(\psi\varphi)\times(\psi\varphi)} H \times H$$

$$\pi_{G} \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\pi_{H}}$$

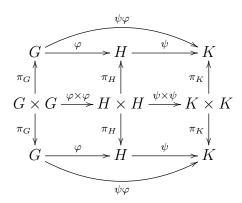
$$G \xrightarrow{\psi\varphi} H$$

As the following commuting diagram tells us the composition

$$(\psi \times \psi)(\varphi \times \varphi) : G \times G \to K \times K$$

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can make the above diagram commute,



there must be $(\psi\varphi) \times (\psi\varphi) = (\psi \times \psi)(\varphi \times \varphi)$.

3.3 Show that if G, H are abelian groups, then $G \times H$ satisfies the universal property for coproducts in Ab .

Define two monomorphisms:

$$i_G: G \longrightarrow G \times H, \ a \longmapsto (a, 0_H)$$

$$i_H: H \longrightarrow G \times H, \ b \longmapsto (0_G, b)$$

We are to show that for any two homomorphisms $g:G\to M$ and $h:H\to M$ in $\mathsf{Ab},$ the mapping

$$\varphi: \quad G \times H \longrightarrow M,$$
$$(a,b) \longmapsto g(a) + h(b)$$

is a homomorphism and makes the following diagram commute.

$$G \downarrow g \downarrow G \downarrow G \downarrow M$$

$$G \times H \xrightarrow{\varphi} M$$

$$i_H \downarrow h$$

$$H$$

Exploiting the fact that g, h are homomorphisms and M is an abelian group, it is easy to

check that φ preserves the addition operation

$$\varphi((a_1, b_1) + (a_2, b_2)) = \varphi((a_1 + a_2, b_1 + b_2))$$

$$= g(a_1 + a_2) + h(b_1 + b_2)$$

$$= (g(a_1) + g(a_2)) + (h(b_1) + h(b_2))$$

$$= (g(a_1) + h(b_1)) + (g(a_2) + h(b_2))$$

$$= g(a_1 + b_1) + h(a_2 + b_2)$$

$$= \varphi((a_1, b_1)) + \varphi((a_2, b_2))$$

and the diagram commutes

$$\varphi \circ i_G(a) = \varphi((a, 0_H)) = g(a) + h(0_H) = g(a) + 0_M = g(a),$$

$$\varphi \circ i_H(b) = \varphi((0_G, b)) = g(0_G) + h(b) = 0_M + h(b) = h(b).$$

To show the uniqueness of the homomorphism φ we have constructed, suppose a homomorphism φ' can make the diagram commute. Then we have

$$\varphi'((a,b)) = \varphi'((a,0_H) + (0_G,b)) = \varphi'(i_G(a)) + \varphi'(i_H(b)) = g(a) + h(b) = \varphi((a,b)),$$

that is $\varphi' = \varphi$. Hence we show that there exist a unique homomorphism φ such that the diagram commutes, which amounts to the universal property for coproducts in Ab.

3.4 Let G, H be groups, and assume that $G \cong H \times G$. Can you conclude that H is trivial? (Hint: No. Can you construct a counterexample?)

Consider the function

$$\varphi: \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}[x] \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}[x]$$

 $(n, f(x)) \longmapsto n + x f(x)$

Firstly, we can show φ is a homomorphism as follows

$$\varphi((n_1, f_1(x)) + (n_2, f_2(x))) = \varphi((n_1 + n_2, f_1(x) + f_2(x)))$$

$$= (n_1 + n_2) + x(f_1(x) + f_2(x))$$

$$= (n_1 + xf_1(x)) + (n_2 + xf_2(x))$$

$$= \varphi((n_1, f_1(x))) + \varphi((n_2, f_2(x))).$$

Secondly, we are to show φ is a monomorphism. It follows by

$$\varphi((n, f(x))) = n + x f(x) = 0 \implies n = 0, \ f(x) = 0 \implies \ker \varphi = \{(0, 0)\}.$$

Lastly, since the cardinal numbers of both $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}[x]$ and $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ are \aleph_0 , φ is indeed an isomorphism. Therefore, as a counterexample we have $\mathbb{Z}[x] \cong \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}[x]$.

3.5 Prove that \mathbb{Q} is not the direct product of two nontrivial groups.

Consider the additive group of rationals $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$. Assume that φ is a isomorphism between the product $G \times H = \{(a, b) | a \in G, b \in H\}$ and $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$. Note that $\{e_G\} \times H$ and $G \times \{e_H\}$ are subgroups in $G \times H$ and their intersection is the trivial group $\{(e_G, e_H)\}$. It is easy to check that bijection φ satisfies $\varphi(A \cap B) = \varphi(A) \cap \varphi(B)$. So applying the fact we have

$$\varphi(\{(e_G, e_H)\}) = \varphi(\{e_G\} \times H \cap G \times \{e_H\}) = \varphi(\{e_G\} \times H) \cap \varphi(G \times \{e_H\}) = \{0\}.$$

Suppose both $\varphi(\lbrace e_G \rbrace \times H)$ and $\varphi(G \times \lbrace e_H \rbrace)$ are nontrivial groups. If $\frac{p}{q} \in \varphi(\lbrace e_G \rbrace \times H) - \lbrace 0 \rbrace$ and $\frac{r}{s} \in \varphi(G \times \lbrace e_H \rbrace) - \lbrace 0 \rbrace$, there must be

$$rp = rq \cdot \frac{p}{q} = ps \cdot \frac{r}{s} \in \varphi(\lbrace e_G \rbrace \times H) \cap \varphi(G \times \lbrace e_H \rbrace),$$

which implies rp = 0. Since both $\frac{p}{q}$ and $\frac{r}{s}$ are non-zero, it leads to a contradiction. Thus without loss of generality we can assume $\varphi(\{e_G\} \times H)$ is a trivial group $\{0\}$. Since φ is isomorphism, we see that for all $h \in H$,

$$\varphi(e_G, h) = \varphi(e_G, e_H) = 0 \iff h = e_H.$$

That is, H is a trivial group. Therefore, we have shown $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$ will never be isomorphic to the direct product of two nontrivial groups.

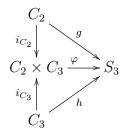
- **3.6** Consider the product of the cyclic groups C_2 , C_3 (cf. §2.3): $C_2 \times C_3$. By Exercise 3.3, this group is a coproduct of C_2 and C_3 in Ab. Show that it is not a coproduct of C_2 and C_3 in Grp, as follows:
 - find injective homomorphisms $C_2 \to S_3$, $C_3 \to S_3$;
 - arguing by contradiction, assume that $C_2 \times C_3$ is a coproduct of C_2, C_3 , and deduce that there would be a group homomorphism $C_2 \times C_3 \to S_3$ with certain properties;
 - show that there is no such homomorphism.
 - Monomorphisms $g: C_2 \to S_3$, $h: C_3 \to S_3$ can be constructed as follows:

$$g([0]_2) = e, g([1]_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$h([0]_3) = e, h([1]_3) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, h([2]_3) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

ullet Supposing that $C_2 \times C_3$ is a coproduct of C_2, C_3 , there would be a unique group

homomorphism $\varphi: C_2 \times C_3 \to S_3$ such that the following diagram commutes



In other words, for all $a \in C_2, b \in C_3$,

$$\varphi(a,b) = \varphi(([0]_2,b) + (a,[0]_3)) = \varphi(([0]_2,b))\varphi((a,[0]_3)) = \varphi(i_{C_3}(b))\varphi(i_{C_2}(a)) = h(b)g(a)$$
$$= \varphi((a,[0]_3) + ([0]_2,b)) = \varphi((a,[0]_3))\varphi(([0]_2,b)) = \varphi(i_{C_2}(a))\varphi(i_{C_3}(b)) = g(a)h(b).$$

• Since

$$g([1]_2)h([1]_3) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$
$$h([1]_3)g([1]_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix},$$

we see $g(a)h(b) \neq h(b)g(a)$ not always holds. The derived contradiction shows that $C_2 \times C_3$ is not a coproduct of C_2 , C_3 in Grp.

3.7 Show that there is a surjective homomorphism $Z*Z \to C_2*C_3$. (* denotes coproduct in Grp.)

Consider the mapping

$$\varphi: \mathbb{Z} * \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow C_2 * C_3$$
$$x^{m_1} y^{n_1} \cdots x^{m_k} y^{n_k} \longmapsto x^{[m_1]_2} y^{[n_1]_3} \cdots x^{[m_k]_2} y^{[n_k]_3}$$

Since

$$\varphi(x^{m_1}y^{n_1}\cdots x^{m_k}y^{n_k}x^{m'_1}y^{n'_1}\cdots x^{m'_{k'}}y^{n'_k})$$

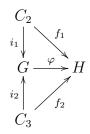
$$=x^{[m_1]_2}y^{[n_1]_3}\cdots x^{[m_k]_2}y^{[n_k]_3}x^{[m'_1]_2}y^{[n'_1]_3}\cdots x^{[m'_k]_2}y^{[n'_k]_3},$$

$$=\varphi(x^{m_1}y^{n_1}\cdots x^{m_k}y^{n_k})\varphi(x^{m'_1}y^{n'_1}\cdots x^{m'_{k'}}y^{n'_k})$$

 φ is a homomorphism. It is clear that φ is surjective. Thus we show there exists a surjective homomorphism $Z*Z\to C_2*C_3$.

3.8 Define a group G with two generators x, y, subject (only) to the relations $x^2 = e_G$, $y^3 = e_G$. Prove that G is a coproduct of C_2 and C_3 in Grp. (The reader will obtain an even more concrete description for $C_2 * C_3$ in Exercise 9.14; it is called the modular group.) [§3.4, 9.14]

Given the maps $i_1: C_2 \to G$, $[m]_2 \mapsto x^m$ and $i_2: C_3 \to G$, $[n]_3 \mapsto y^n$, we can check that i_1, i_2 are homomorphisms. We are to show that for every group H endowed with two homomorphisms $f_1: C_2 \to H$, $f_2: C_3 \to H$, there would be a unique group homomorphism $\varphi: G \to H$ such that the following diagram commutes



or

$$\varphi(i_1([m]_2)) = \varphi(x^m) = \varphi(x)^m = f_1([m]_2),$$

 $\varphi(i_2([n]_3)) = \varphi(y^n) = \varphi(y)^n = f_2([n]_3).$

Define $\phi: G \to H$ as $\phi(x^m y^n) = f_1([m]_2)f_2([n]_3)$, $\phi(y^n x^m) = f_2([n]_3)f_1([m]_2)$. It is clear to see ϕ makes the diagram commute. Moreover, if φ makes the diagram commute, it follows that for all $x^m y^n, y^n x^m \in G$,

$$\varphi(x^m y^n) = \varphi(x^m)\varphi(y^n) = f_1([m]_2)f_2([n]_3),$$

$$\varphi(y^n x^m) = \varphi(y^n)\varphi(x^m) = f_2([n]_3)f_1([m]_2),$$

which implies $\varphi = \phi$. Thus we can conclude G is the coproduct of C_2 and C_3 in Grp.

§4. Group homomorphisms

4.1 Check that the function π_m^n defined in §4.1 is well-defined, and makes the diagram commute. Verify that it is a group homomorphism. Why is the hypothesis m|n necessary? [§4.1]

In §4.1 the function π_m^n is defined as

$$\pi_m^n : \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$$

$$[a]_n \longmapsto [a]_m$$

with the condition m|n. We can check that π_m^n is well-defined as

$$[a_1]_n = [a_2]_n \iff a_1 - a_2 = kn = (kl)m \implies [a_1]_m = [a_2]_m \iff \pi_m^n([a_1]_n) = \pi_m^n([a_2]_n).$$

Note $\pi_m^n(\pi_n(a)) = \pi_m^n([a]_n) = [a]_m = \pi_m(a)$. The diagram in §4.1 must commute.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
\mathbb{Z} & \\
\pi_n & \\
\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\pi_m^n} \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}
\end{array}$$

Since

$$\pi_m^n([a]_n + [b]_n) = [a+b]_m = [a]_m + [b]_m = \pi_m^n([a]_n) + \pi_m^n([b]_n),$$

it follows that π_m^n is a group homomorphism. Actually we have shown that without the hypothesis $m|n, \pi_m^n$ may not be well-defined.

4.2 Show that the homomorphism $\pi_2^4 \times \pi_2^4 : C_4 \to C_2 \times C_2$ is not an isomorphism. In fact, is there any nontrivial isomorphism $C_4 \to C_2 \times C_2$?

Let calculate the order of each non-zero element in both C_4 and $C_2 \times C_2$. For the group C_4 ,

$$|[2]_4| = 2, \quad |[1]_4| = |[3]_4| = 4.$$

For the group $C_2 \times C_2$,

$$|([1]_2, [0]_2)| = |([0]_2, [1]_2)| = |([1]_2, [1]_2)| = 2.$$

Since isomorphism must preserve the order, we can assert that there is no such isomorphism $C_4 \to C_2 \times C_2$.

4.3 Prove that a group of order n is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ if and only if it contains an element of order n. [§4.3]

Assume some group G is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. Since $|[1]_n| = n$ and isomorphism preserves the order, we can affirm that there is an element of order n in G.

Conversely, assume there is a group G of order n in which g is an element of order n. By definition we see $g^0, g^1, g^2 \cdots g^{n-1}$ are distinct pairwise. Noticing group G has exactly n elements, G must consist of $g^0, g^1, g^2 \cdots g^{n-1}$. We can easily check that the function

$$f: G \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$$
$$g^k \longmapsto [k]_n$$

is an isomorphism.

4.4 Prove that no two of the groups $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$, $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$, $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ are isomorphic to one another. Can you decide whether $(\mathbb{R}, +)$, $(\mathbb{C}, +)$ are isomorphic to one another? (Cf. Exercise VI.1.1.)

Suppose there exists an isomorphism $f: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Q}$. Let f(1) = p/q $(p, q \in \mathbb{Z})$. If p = 1, for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, we have

$$f(n) = \frac{n}{q} \neq \frac{1}{2q}.$$

If $p \neq 1$, for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, we have

$$f(n) = \frac{np}{q} \neq \frac{p+1}{q}.$$

In both cases, it implies $f(\mathbb{Z}) \nsubseteq \mathbb{Q}$. Hence we see f is not a surjection, which contradicts the fact that $f: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Q}$ is an isomorphism. Compare the cardinality of \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R}

$$|\mathbb{Z}| = |\mathbb{Q}| < |\mathbb{R}|$$

and we show there exists no such isomorphisms like $f: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{R}$ or $f: \mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{R}$. We can prove $(\mathbb{R}, +)$, $(\mathbb{C}, +)$ are isomorphic, if considering the both as vector spaces over \mathbb{Q} .

4.5 Prove that the groups $(\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$ and $(\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$ are not isomorphic.

Suppose $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}$ is an isomorphism. Then there exists a real number x such that f(x) = i.

$$f(x^4) = f(x)^4 = i^4 = 1.$$

Since isomorphism preserves the identity, we have

$$f(1) = 1 = f(x^4).$$

which indicates $x^4 = 1$. Noticing that $x \in \mathbb{R}$, there must be $x^2 = 1$. Now we see

$$f(1) = f(x^2) = f(x)^2 = i^2 = -1,$$

which derives a contradiction. Thus we can conclude that groups $(\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$ and $(\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$ are not isomorphic.

4.6 We have seen that $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ and $(\mathbb{R}_{>0}, \cdot)$ are isomorphic (Example 4.4). Are the groups $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$ and $(\mathbb{Q}_{>0}, \cdot)$ isomorphic?

Suppose $f: \mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{Q}_{>0}$ is an isomorphism. Since isomorphism preserves the multiplication, we have

$$f(1) = f\left(n \cdot \frac{1}{n}\right) = f\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^n \quad (n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}),$$

which implies

$$f\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) = f(1)^{\frac{1}{n}}.$$

Assume $f(1) = \frac{p}{q} = \frac{p_1^{r_1} p_2^{r_2} \cdots p_k^{r_k}}{q_1^{s_1} q_2^{s_2} \cdots q_l^{s_l}}$ where p_i, q_i are pairwise distinct positive prime numbers. Then let $M = \max\{p, q\} + 1 > \max\{r_1, \cdots, r_k, s_1, \cdots, s_l\}$. Thus we assert

$$f\left(\frac{1}{M}\right) = \left(\frac{p_1^{r_1} p_2^{r_2} \cdots p_k^{r_k}}{q_1^{s_1} q_2^{s_2} \cdots q_l^{s_l}}\right)^{\frac{1}{M}} \notin \mathbb{Q},$$

which can be proved by contradiction. Suppose

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^{\frac{1}{M}} = \frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q}$$

or say

$$pb^M = qa^M,$$

where a, b are coprime. Note b^M , a^M are also coprime and the prime factorization of a^M can be written as $a_1^{Mt_1}a_2^{Mt_2}\cdots a_j^{Mt_j}$ where a_i are pairwise distinct positive prime numbers. That forces

$$p = p_1^{r_1} p_2^{r_2} \cdots p_k^{r_k} = N \cdot a_1^{Mt_1} a_2^{Mt_2} \cdots a_j^{Mt_j}$$

Noticing that a_i must coincide with one number in $\{p_1, p_2, \cdots p_k\}$, we can assume $a_1 = p_1$ without loss of generality. However, since $M > \max\{r_1, \cdots, r_k\}$, we see the exponent of p_1 is distinct from that of a_1 , which violates the unique factorization property of \mathbb{Z} . Hence we get a contradiction and conclude $f\left(\frac{1}{M}\right) \notin \mathbb{Q}$. Moreover, it contradicts our assumption that $f: \mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{Q}_{>0}$ is an isomorphism. Eventually we show that the groups $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$ and $(\mathbb{Q}_{>0}, \cdot)$ are not isomorphic.

4.7 Let G be a group. Prove that the function $G \to G$ defined by $g \mapsto g^{-1}$ is a homomorphism if and only if G is abelian. Prove that $g \mapsto g^2$ is a homomorphism if and only if G is abelian.

Given the function

$$f: G \longrightarrow G$$
$$g \longmapsto g^{-1}$$

we have

$$f(g_1g_2) = (g_1g_2)^{-1} = g_2^{-1}g_1^{-1}, \quad f(g_1)f(g_2) = g_1^{-1}g_2^{-1}.$$

If G is abelian, it is clear to see $f(g_1g_2) = f(g_1)f(g_2)$. If f is a homomorphism, $\forall h_1, h_2 \in G$,

$$h_1 h_2 = (h_2^{-1} h_1^{-1})^{-1} = f(h_2^{-1} h_1^{-1}) = f(h_2^{-1}) f(h_1^{-1}) = h_2 h_1.$$

Given the function

$$h: G \longrightarrow G$$
$$g \longmapsto g^2$$

we have

$$h(g_1g_2) = (g_1g_2)^2 = g_1g_2g_1g_2, \quad h(g_1)h(g_2) = g_1^2g_2^2 = g_1g_1g_2g_2.$$

If G is abelian, it is clear to see $h(g_1g_2) = h(g_1)h(g_2)$. If h is a homomorphism, by cancellation we have

$$h(g_1g_2) = h(g_1)h(g_2) \implies g_2g_1 = g_1g_2.$$

4.8 Let G be a group, and $g \in G$. Prove that the function $\gamma_g : G \to G$ defined by $(\forall a \in G) : \gamma_g(a) = gag^{-1}$ is an automorphism of G. (The automorphisms γ_g are called 'inner' automorphisms of G.) Prove that the function $G \to \operatorname{Aut}(G)$ defined by $g \mapsto \gamma_g$ is a homomorphism. Prove that this homomorphism is trivial if and only if G is abelian.

Since

$$\gamma_g(ab) = gabg^{-1} = gag^{-1}gbg^{-1} = \gamma_g(a)\gamma_g(b),$$

 γ_g is an automorphism of G. For all $a \in G$, we have

$$\gamma_{g_1g_2}(a) = g_1g_2ag_2^{-1}g_1^{-1} = \gamma_{g_1}(g_2ag_2^{-1}) = (\gamma_{g_1} \circ \gamma_{g_2})(a),$$

which implies $\gamma_{g_1g_2} = \gamma_{g_1} \circ \gamma_{g_2}$ and $g \mapsto \gamma_g$ is a homomorphism. If G is abelian, for all g the homomorphism

$$\gamma_a(a) = gag^{-1} = gg^{-1}a = a$$

is the identity in $\operatorname{Aut}(G)$. That is, the homomorphism $g \mapsto \gamma_g$ is trivial. If the homomorphism $g \mapsto \gamma_g$ is trivial, we have for all $g, a \in G$,

$$gag^{-1} = a,$$

which implies for all $a, b \in G$,

$$ab = bab^{-1}b = ba$$
.

Thus we show the homomorphism $g \mapsto \gamma_g$ is trivial if and only if G is abelian.

4.9 Prove that if m, n are positive integers such that gcd(m,n) = 1, then $C_{mn} \cong C_m \times C_n$.

Define a function

$$\varphi: C_m \times C_n \longrightarrow C_{mn}$$

 $([a]_m, [b]_n) \longmapsto [anp + bmq]_{mn}$

where $[pn]_m = [1]_m$ and $[qm]_n = [1]_n$, as $\gcd(m,n) = 1$ guarantees the existence of p,q (see textbook p56). First of all, we have to check whether φ is well-defined. Note that

$$[(anp_1 + bmq_1) - (anp_2 + bmp_2)]_m = [a(p_1n - p_2n) + b(q_1m - q_2m)]_m = [0]_m$$

$$[(anp_1 + bmq_1) - (anp_2 + bmp_2)]_n = [a(p_1n - p_2n) + b(q_1m - q_2m)]_n = [0]_n$$

and gcd(m, n) = 1. Thus we have

$$[(anp_1 + bmq_1) - (anp_2 + bmp_2)]_{mn} = [0]_{mn},$$

or

$$[anp_1 + bmq_1]_{mn} = [anp_2 + bmp_2]_{mn}.$$

Then we show φ is a homomorphism.

$$\varphi(([a_1]_m, [b_1]_n) + ([a_2]_m, [b_2]_n)) = \varphi([a_1 + a_2]_m, [b_1 + b_2]_n)
= [(a_1 + a_2)np + (b_1 + b_2)mq]_{mn}
= [a_1np + b_1mq]_{mn} + [a_2np + b_2mq]_{mn}
= \varphi([a_1]_m, [b_1]_n) + \varphi([a_2]_m, [b_2]_n).$$

In order to show φ is a monomorphism, we can check

$$\varphi([a_1]_m, [b_1]_n) = \varphi([a_2]_m, [b_2]_n)
\Longrightarrow [a_1np + b_1mq]_{mn} = [a_2np + b_2mq]_{mn}
\Longrightarrow [(a_1 - a_2)np + (b_1 - b_2)mq]_{mn} = [0]_{mn}
\Longrightarrow [(a_1 - a_2)np + (b_1 - b_2)mq]_m = [a_1 - a_2]_m = [0]_m,
[(a_1 - a_2)np + (b_1 - b_2)mq]_n = [b_1 - b_2]_n = [0]_n
\Longrightarrow [a_1]_m = [a_2]_m, [b_1]_m = [b_2]_m.$$

Since $|C_m \times C_n| = |C_{mn}| = mn$, we can conclude φ is an isomorphism. Thus we complete proving $C_{mn} \cong C_m \times C_n$.

§5. Free groups

5.1 Does the category \mathcal{F}^A defined in §5.2 have final objects? If so, what are they?

Yes, they are functions from A to any trivial group, for example $T = \{t\}$.



For any object (j,G) in \mathscr{F}^A , the trivial homomorphism $\varphi:g\mapsto t$ is the unique homomorphism such that the diagram commutes. That is, $\operatorname{Hom}((j,G),(e,T))=\{\varphi\}$.

5.2 Since trivial groups T are initial in Grp , one may be led to think that (e,T) should be initial in \mathscr{F}^A , for every A: e would be defined by sending every element of A to the (only) element in T; and for any other group G, there is a unique homomorphism $T \to G$. Explain why (e,T) is not initial in \mathscr{F}^A (unless $A=\emptyset$).

Let $G = C_2 = \{[0]_2, [1]_2\}$. Note that $\varphi \circ e(A)$ must be the trivial subgroup $\{[0]_2\}$. If $x \in A$ and $j(x) = [1]_2$, we see $\varphi \circ e \neq j$ and the following diagram does not commute.

$$T \xrightarrow{\varphi} G$$

$$e \downarrow \qquad \qquad j$$

$$A$$

That implies (e, T) is not initial in \mathscr{F}^A unless $A = \emptyset$.

5.3 Use the universal property of free groups to prove that the map $j:A\to F(A)$ is injective, for all sets A. (Hint: it suffices to show that for every two elements a,b of A there is a group G and a set-function $f:A\to G$ such that f(a)=f(b). Why? and how do you construct f and G?) [§III.6.3]

Let $G = S_A$ be the symmetric group over A. Define functions $g_a : A \to A$, $x \mapsto a$ sending every element of A to a. Since $g_a \in S_A$, we can define an injection

$$f: A \longrightarrow S_A$$
$$a \longmapsto g_a$$

In light of the commuting diagram

$$F(A) \xrightarrow{\varphi} S_A$$

$$\downarrow f$$

$$\downarrow f$$

we have $\forall a, b \in A$,

$$j(a) = j(b) \implies \varphi(j(a)) = \varphi(j(b)) \implies f(a) = f(b) \implies a = b.$$

5.4 In the 'concrete construction of free groups, one can try to reduce words by performing cancellations in any order; the 'elementary reductions' used in the text(that is, from left to right) is only one possibility. Prove that the result of iterating cancellations on a word is independent of the order in which the cancellations are performed. Deduce the associativity of the product in F(A) from this. [§5.3]

We use induction on the length of w. If w is reduced, there is nothing to show. If not, there must be some pair of symbols that can be cancelled, say the underlined pair

$$w = \cdots \underline{x}\underline{x}^{-1} \cdots$$
.

(Let's allow x to denote any element of A', with the understanding that if $x = a^{-1}$ then $x^{-1} = a$.) If we show that we can obtain every reduced form of w by cancelling the pair xx^{-1} first, the proposition will follow by induction, because the word $w^* = \cdots xx^{-1} \cdots$ is shorter.

Let w_0 be a reduced form of w. It is obtained from w by some sequence of cancellations. The first case is that our pair xx^{-1} is cancelled at some step in this sequence. If so, we may as well cancel xx^{-1} first. So this case is settled. On the other hand, since w_0 is reduced, the pair xx^{-1} can not remain in w_0 . At least one of the two symbols must be cancelled at some time. If the pair itself is not cancelled, the first cancellation involving the pair must look like

$$\cdots x^{-1}xx^{-1}\cdots$$
 or $\cdots xx^{-1}x\cdots$

Notice that the word obtained by this cancellation is the same as the one obtained by cancelling the pair xx^{-1} . So at this stage we may cancel the original pair instead. Then we are back in the first case, so the proposition is proved.

5.5 Verify explicitly that $H^{\oplus A}$ is a group.

Assume the A is a set and H is an abelian group. $H^{\oplus A}$ are defined as follows

$$H^{\oplus A} := \{ \alpha : A \to H | \alpha(a) \neq e_H \text{ for only finitely many elements } a \in A \}.$$

Now that $H^{\oplus A} \subset H^A := \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathsf{Set}}(A, H)$, we can first show $(H^A, +)$ is a group, where for all $\phi, \psi \in H^A$, $\phi + \psi$ is defined by

$$(\forall a \in A) : (\phi + \psi)(a) := \phi(a) + \psi(a).$$

Here is the verification:

• Identity: Define a function $\varepsilon: A \to H, a \mapsto e_H$ sending all elements in A to e_H . Then for any $\alpha \in H^A$ we have

$$(\forall a \in A) : (\alpha + \varepsilon)(a) = \alpha(a) + \varepsilon(a) = \alpha(a),$$

which is $\alpha + \varepsilon = \alpha$. Because of the commutativity of the operation + defined on H^A , ε is the identity indeed.

• Associativity: This follows by the associativity in H:

$$(\forall a \in A) : ((\alpha + \beta) + \gamma)(a) = (\alpha + \beta)(a) + \gamma(a) = \alpha(a) + (\beta + \gamma)(a) = (\alpha + (\beta + \gamma))(a).$$

• Inverse: Every function $\phi \in H^A$ has inverse $-\phi$ defined by

$$(\forall a \in A) : (-\phi)(a) = -\phi(a).$$

Thus H^A makes a group.

Then it is time to show $H^{\oplus A}$ is a subgroup of H^A . For all $\alpha, \beta \in H^{\oplus A}$, let $N_{\alpha} = \{a \in A | \alpha(a) \neq e_H\}$, $N_{\beta} = \{a \in A | \beta(a) \neq e_H\}$, $N_{\alpha-\beta} = \{a \in A | (\alpha - \beta)(a) \neq e_H\}$. Since

$$(\forall a \in A) : (\alpha - \beta)(a) = \alpha(a) - \beta(a),$$

we have

$$(\alpha - \beta)(a) \neq e_H \implies \alpha(a) \neq e_H \text{ or } \beta(a) \neq e_H,$$

which implies $N_{\alpha-\beta} \subset N_{\alpha} \cup N_{\beta}$. Note that N_{α} , N_{β} are both finite sets, which forces $N_{\alpha-\beta}$ to be finite. So there must be $\alpha-\beta \in H^{\oplus A}$. Now we see $H^{\oplus A}$ is closed under additions and inverses. And $e_{H^A} = \varepsilon \in H^{\oplus A}$ means that $H^{\oplus A}$ is nonempty. Finally we can conclude $H^{\oplus A}$ is a subgroup of H^A .

References