# Chapter 1

## TODO

#### 1.1 cyclic group

What is cyclic group?

 $S \subseteq G$  if  $\langle S \rangle = G$  then G can be generated by S. Maybe we can use M instead of S.

If S is a singleton  $\{g\}$  then G is a cyclic group and can be denoted as  $\langle g \rangle$ .

If G is infinite and  $G = \langle a \rangle$ , then G is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

If G is finite and  $G = \langle a \rangle$ , then G is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ 

A group G is cyclic then G is abelian.

If a finite group G has a group member whose order is |G|, then G is cyclic.

A Euler function  $\varphi(n)$  is defined as the number of the positive integers that are less than n and are relative prime to n

G is finite, and |G| = n, then G has  $\varphi(n)$  generator.

the proof is easy, given a number q , q is relative prime to n, then  $\exists u,v\in\mathbb{Z},uq+v|G|=1$ 

G is a finite cyclic group, given a positive factor k, there is one and only one subgroup that is  $\langle a^{n/k} \rangle$ .

### 1.2 Transformation groups

M is a set. The transformation over a M is a monoid.

S(M) is the set of the bijective transformation on M. S(M) is a group and is called symmetric group.

If |M| = n, then S(M) is sometimes denoted as  $S_n$ .

And  $|S_n| = n!$ .

Transformation group G on M,

**Theorem 1.2.1.** Transformation group G on M, if there is onto function or one-one function in G then G = S(M)

*Proof.* If  $\tau$  is onto, consider  $\epsilon \tau(a) = \tau(a)$  then  $\epsilon$  is id.

If  $\tau$  is one-one, consider  $\tau \epsilon(a) = \tau(a)$ , then  $\epsilon$  is id, because  $\epsilon(a) = a$  for all a in G.

 $\forall a \in G, \exists b \in G, b = a^{-1}, \text{ viz.}, ab = \epsilon. \text{ So } a, b \text{ are inversible}$  and thus are bijectives. Then every a in G is bijective then G = S(M).

If a bijective is in a group on M then the group is bijective group, that is a group whose elements are bijectives.

If a group is not a bijective group then the group has no bijective or subjective or injective.

**Example 1.2.2.**  $M = \{ (x, y) \mid x, y \in \mathbb{R} \}, \forall a \in \mathbb{R}$ :

$$\tau_a \colon M \to M, (x, y) \mapsto (x + a, 0)$$

Prove that  $G = \{ \tau_a \mid a \in \mathbb{R} \}$  is a group.

**Theorem 1.2.3** (Cayley). Given a G, there exists a bijective group that is isomorphic to G.

*Proof.* Treat the elements in G as functions which is absolutely a bijective.  $\Box$ 

# Chapter 2

# Normal subgroups and quotient groups

#### 2.1 What is quotient groups

**Definition 2.1.1** (Formal subgroups). N is subgroup of G, and if N suit that  $\forall g \in G, gN = Ng$ , viz.,  $N = g^{-1}Ng$ , then N is a normal group.

Normal groups have a property that

$$Ng_1Ng_2 = g_1NNg_2 = g_1Ng_2 = Ng_1g_2$$

Consequently, if we have  $\{[g] \mid g \in G\}$ , where  $g_1 \sim g_2$  iff  $Ng_1 = Ng_2$ . And then, the above property says that  $\{[g]\}$  is closed under group operation. And furthermore,  $\{[g]\}$  is a group if we define the operation between  $[g_1], [g_2]$  as  $[g_1][g_2] = [g_1g_2]$ 

**Definition 2.1.2** (Quotient groups). Given a normal subgroup N we have that  $\{[g] \mid g \in G\}$  is a group, denoted as G/N, and we called G/N a quotient group.

**Definition 2.1.3** (Conjugate). Given a group member g the conjugation of g is defined as  $h \mapsto g^{-1}hg$ . If  $\exists g \in G$  s.t.  $h_1 = g^{-1}h_2g$ , then we say that  $h_1$  and  $h_2$  are conjugate. The relation of conjugate is a equivalence relation.

**Example 2.1.4.** While it remain a little bit ambiguous that we choose normal subgroups to construct quotient group, we can have a look at quotient in linear space and topological space to further understand what quotient is.

In linear algebra, every subspace of a linear space is a normal group if we treat it as group. Given a linear space V and a subspace W, we have that

$$\dim V/W = \dim V - \dim W$$

It seem that the subspace W is eliminated and that the space which is orthogonal to W is isomorphic to V/W.

Consider the topological space X, and given a equivalence relation of X, we can construct a quotient space Y, where every member is the equivalence class of the relation. **And** the family of open sets  $\mathscr{F}'$  suit that for the function  $\pi \colon O \mapsto \bigcup_{x \in O} [x]$ , we have that  $\pi(O)$  is an open set in Y iff O is an open set in X.

The quotient space of topological space X is also called identical space. That is to say, we glue the members in a class into a piece. And that is what we called quotient.

# 2.2 A basic homomorphism theorem of quotient

Next we talk about an important theorem about quotient groups, before which, we first introduce some definitions.

**Definition 2.2.1** (kernal). Given a homomorphism  $f \colon G \to G'$ , the kernal of f (denoted as  $\ker f$ ), is defined as

$$\ker f = f^{-1}(1) \subseteq G$$

and it is easy to show that ker f is a normal subgroup of G.

**Exercise:** Prove that ker f is a normal subgroup of G.

**Definition 2.2.2** (Image). The image of f is defined as

$$\operatorname{Im} f = \{ f(g) \mid g \in G \}$$

The image of f is less important than kernal, since  $\ker$  is a macro provided by  $\operatorname{LMTEX}$  while that  $\operatorname{Im}$  or  $\operatorname{im}$  does not exist.

Let us state the theorem

**Theorem 2.2.3** (a basic theorem of quotients). Given a homomorphism  $f: G \to G'$ , we define  $\bar{f}$  as that  $\bar{f}([g]) = f(g)$ , and we have that

$$\bar{f} \colon G/\ker f \to \operatorname{Im} f$$

is an isomorphic.

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*Proof.* We shall prove that  $\bar{f}$  is a homomorphism and also a bijective. Then we prove that  $\bar{f}$  is isomorphism.  $\Box$