

## # cyclic subgroup generated by a group element

You may not have a cyclic group  $(G, *)$  but we can derive  $\Rightarrow$  a cyclic subgroup  $(H, *)$  from  $G$

→ Let  $(G, *)$  be a group

$x \in G$ , such that  $\text{order}(x) = m$

$$H = \{ x^0 = e, x^1 = x, x^2, \dots, x^{m-1} \}$$

identity

$H \subseteq G$  & all elements of  $H$  are distinct

Then  $H$  is a cyclic group subgroup of order  $m$  generated by  $x$

$$H = \langle x \rangle$$

We have to prove group axioms satisfied for  $H$ .

To do that we have to show only  $S_1$  &  $S_2$  satisfied

$S_1$ : For any  $x^i, x^j \in H$  we have

$$x^i * x^j = x^{i+j} = x^{(i+j) \bmod m} \in H$$

$$x^{i+j} = x^{(i+j) \bmod m} \therefore x^m = 1 \text{ (identity)}$$

$(i+j) \bmod m \Rightarrow$  gives remainder from division

∴ any power of  $x$  from 0 to  $m-1$  is part of  $H$

∴ closure property satisfied.

$S_2$ : Consider any arbitrary  $x^i \in H$ , where  $i > 0$

∴ if  $i=0$   $x^0 = e$  identity

We need to check for non identity elements

$$x^i * x^{m-i} = x^m = 1 \quad 0 < i \leq m-1$$

$$x^{m-i} \in H$$

since  $x^{-1} \in H$ , the inverse of  $x$  is  $x^{-1}$

### # Left and Right coset #

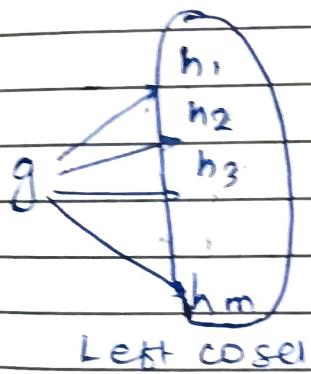
Let  $(G, *)$  be a group and  $(H, *)$  be a subgroup of  $G$ , and let  $g \in G$

i) Left coset of  $H$  w.r.t  $g \Rightarrow$

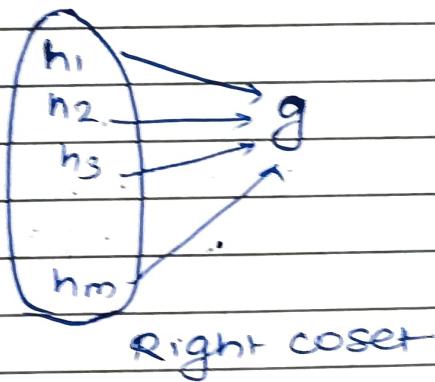
$$gH = \{g * h \mid h \in H\}$$

ii) Right coset of  $H$  w.r.t  $g$

$$Hg = \{h * g \mid h \in H\}$$



Left coset



Right coset

• Proof: If  $H$  is a finite subgroup, then for any  $g \in G$ , we have  $|gH| = |Hg| = |H|$

- Let  $H = \{h_1, h_2, \dots, h_n\}$

$$gH = \{g * h_1, g * h_2, \dots, g * h_n\}$$

From ~~Left~~ cancellation rule, all these elements are distinct.

$$\because g * h_i = g * h_j \Rightarrow h_i = h_j$$

$\therefore$  all elements are distinct.

all

eg consider a subgroup  $H = \{1, 10\}$

$G = \mathbb{Z}_{11}^* = \{1, 2, \dots, 10\} \Rightarrow$  Integers coprime to 11

The operation is  $\times_{11}$

$$1 \times_{11} H = \{1, 10\}$$

$$6 \times_{11} H = \{6, 5\}$$

$$2 \times_{11} H = \{2, 9\}$$

$$7 \times_{11} H = \{7, 4\}$$

$$3 \times_{11} H = \{3, 8\}$$

$$8 \times_{11} H = \{8, 3\}$$

$$4 \times_{11} H = \{4, 7\}$$

$$9 \times_{11} H = \{9, 2\}$$

$$5 \times_{11} H = \{5, 6\}$$

$$10 \times_{11} H = \{10, 11\}$$

Note that, Left cosets can be identical or disjoint

eg  $1 \times_{11} H = 10 \times_{11} H$

$$2 \times_{11} H = 9 \times_{11} H$$

- Proof: Let  $(G, *)$  be a group,  $(H, *)$  be a subgroup of  $G$  and let  $g_1, g_2 \in G$ . Then either  $g_1 * H = g_2 * H$  or  $g_1 * H \cap g_2 * H = \emptyset$

Let's recap terms:

1) Equivalence class

2) Partition

1) Equivalence class

+ A relation said to be equivalent if it satisfies reflexive, symmetry and transitive property

+ Let  $R$  be an equivalence relation on a set  $A$ . The set of all elements that are related to an element ' $a$ ' with respect to ' $R$ ' is denoted by  $[a]_R$ . It is called an equivalence class of ' $a$ '.

$$[a]_R = \{ (b, s) | b R s \} \\ \{ s | (a, s) \in R \}$$

Any element  $b \in [a]_R$  called as representative of the equivalence class.

e.g. Let  $R$  be the relation on set of integers, such that  $aRb$  if & only if  $a = b$  or  $a = -b$ .

- In this case  $[a] = \{a, -a\}$

$$[7] = \{7, -7\}$$

$$[0] = \{0\}$$

## 2) Partitions

- Let  $A$  be the set of students at your school who are majoring in exactly one subject.
- $R$  is a relation defined over  $A$ .

$$R = \{(x, y) | x \text{ and } y \text{ are students with same major}\}$$

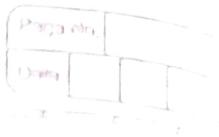
- Here  $R$  is an equivalence relation.
- $R$  splits  $A$  into disjoint sets (subsets), where each subset contains students with specified major.
- These subsets are equivalence classes of  $\underline{R}$

Theorem 1: Let  $R$  be the equivalence relation on set  $A$  then equivalence classes of two elements of  $A$  either identical or disjoint.

$$\text{Ex: } \{x, y\} = \{x, y\} \text{ or } \{x, y\} \cap \{z, w\} = \emptyset$$

Let  $R$  be an equivalence relation on set ' $A$ '. Then statements for elements ' $a$ ' and ' $b$ ' of  $A$  are equivalent

$$\text{i)} aRb \text{ ii)} [a] = [b] \text{ iii)} [a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$$



Proof: Let's understand first the terms

i)  $aRb$  -  $a$  is related to  $b$  where  $a, b \in A$

ii)  $[a] = [b] \Rightarrow$  Equivalence class of  $a$  and equivalence class of  $b$  are equal.

$$[a] = \{s \mid (a, s) \in R\}$$

$$[b] = \{s \mid (b, s) \in R\}$$

iii)  $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$

Intersection of  $[a]$  and  $[b]$  cannot be null

We first show i) implies ii) Then ii) implies iii) and finally iii) implies i)

① i) implies ii)

$$aRb \rightarrow [a] = [b]$$

→ Assume  $aRb$

we will prove  $[a] = [b]$  by  $[a] \subseteq [b] \& [b] \subseteq [a]$

Suppose  $c \in [a]$ ,

Then we have  $aRc$

We know that  $aRb \& R$  is symmetric

→  $bRa$  is present in  $R$

Also  $R$  is transitive

$$\therefore bRa \Rightarrow aRc \Rightarrow bRc$$

This implies  $c \in [b]$

This proves  $[a] \subseteq [b]$

Similarly we can prove  $[b] \subseteq [a]$

②  $[a] = [b] \rightarrow [a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$

Assume  $[a] = [b]$ , This follows:

$$[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$$

because  $[a]$  is non empty or  $R$  is reflexive  
 $a \in [a]$

③  $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset \rightarrow aRb$

Let  $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$

Then there is an element 'c' with  $c \in [a]$  and  $c \in [b]$ .

In other words we have,  $aRc$  and  $bRc$ ,  
by symmetric property we also have  $cRb$   
 $aRb$ ,  $bRb \rightarrow aRb$  proved!

- Let  $R$  be the equivalence relation on set  $A$ .  
The union of the equivalence classes of  $R$  is all  $A$

$$\bigcup_{a \in A} [a]_R = A$$

This follows

$$[a]_R \cap [b]_R = \emptyset \quad (\text{It is disjoint})$$

$$[a]_R \cap [b]_R \neq \emptyset \quad (\text{It is identical})$$

Ex  $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ , The collection of sets  $A_1 = \{1, 2, 3\}$ ,  $A_2 = \{4, 5\}$  and  $A_3 = \{6\}$  forms a partition on 'S'. because these sets are disjoint & forms 'S' on union.

# If  $R$  be the relation on set 'S', Then equivalence classes of  $R$  form a partition of 'S'.

Ex List all the ordered pairs in the equivalence relation 'R' produced by the partition  $A_1 = \{1, 2, 3\}$ ,  $A_2 = \{4, 5\}$ ,  $A_3 = \{6\}$ , of  $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$

1) From  $A_1 = \{1, 2, 3\}$

Pairs =  $\{(1,1), (2,2), (3,3), (1,2), (2,1), (1,3), (3,2), (2,3)\} \in R$

2) From  $A_2 = \{4, 5\}$

Pairs =  $\{(4,4), (5,5), (4,5), (5,4)\} \in R$

3) From  $A_3 = \{6\}$

Pairs =  $\{(6,6)\} \in R$

\* Now let's go back to our proof on cosets

Let  $(G, *)$  &  $(H, *)$  be a group & subgroup respectively. & let  $g_1, g_2 \in G$ . Then either

$$g_1 * H = g_2 * H$$

OR

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



This is the condition similar to equivalence class that creates partitions as discussed in previous topic.

That is we have to prove cosets are identical or disjoint.

If we can prove the the relation  $R$ , where

$xRy \Rightarrow y \in xH$  (i.e.  $y$  belongs to coset) is an equivalence relation.

① Relation  $R$  is reflexive

$$x = x * e \Rightarrow x \in xH$$

$$\therefore e \in H \& x * e = \underline{x}$$

∴ we have a relation  $xRx \Rightarrow$  reflexive relation

## ② Relation R is symmetric

Let:  $xRy$

$$y = x * h_1 \text{ for some } h_1 \in H \quad \text{---} ①$$

Multiply both sides by  $(h_1)^{-1}$

$$x = y * (h_1)^{-1}$$

We know that  $h_1 \in H$  then  $(h_1)^{-1} \in H$  ::  
 $\therefore H$  is a subgroup.

$$\therefore x \in yH \Rightarrow yRx$$

$\therefore$  we have  $xRy$  &  $yRx \Rightarrow$  symmetric

## ③ Relation R is transitive

Let  $xRy$  &  $yRz$

$$y = x * h_1 \text{ for some } h_1 \in H \quad \text{---} ①$$

$$z = y * h_2 \text{ for some } h_2 \in H \quad \text{---} ②$$

$$z = (x * h_1) * h_2 = x * (h_1 * h_2) \in xH$$

$$\therefore h_1 * h_2 \in H \Rightarrow h_1$$

$$\therefore x * (h_1 * h_2) \in xH$$

$\therefore$  This is a transitive relation.

$\therefore R$  creates a partition of 'G', with cosets  
constituting the equivalence classes,

## # Lagrange's Theorem

+ Let  $G$  be the finite group of order ' $n$ ' and  $H$  be a subgroup of order ' $m$ '. Then  $m \mid n$ .

→ • Size of each coset =  $m$

we have proved that  $|xH| = |Hx| = |H|$

∴ Size of coset =  $m$

• We have also proved that any cosets are either disjoint or same.

• The set of distinct cosets ~~are~~ constitutes partition of  $G$ .

Let's say we have ' $k$ ' distinct cosets.

The union of all cosets  $\Rightarrow \underline{\underline{G}}$

$$k \cdot m = n \Rightarrow m \cancel{|} n$$

$m$  divides  $n$

$$\underline{\underline{k}} * |xH| = |G|$$

# Let's revisit whatever we have discussed so far about subgroups

1) subgroup = subset + group

$H \leq G$  - notation

two standard/trivial subgroups

①  $G$

②  $\{e\}$

As per Lagrange's theorem, If.  $H \leq G$ , then order of  $H$  divides the order of  $G$ .

Order of  $G = |G|$

If  $H \leq G \rightarrow |H|$  divides  $|G|$

That means subgroups cannot be of any size there is strong restriction on possible subgroup size.

e.g. Let  $G$  be the group with  $|G| = 323$

The divisors of  $323 = 1, 17, 19, 323$

Then possible subgroups orders:  $1, 17, 19, 323$

We know two trivial subgroups

①  $G \rightarrow |G| = 323$

②  $\{e\} \rightarrow |\{e\}| = 1$

Any other possible subgroup has order 17 or 19

Q  $|G| = 323$  ( $17 \times 19$ )

Does Lagrange's theorem say there are subgroups of order 17 and 19?

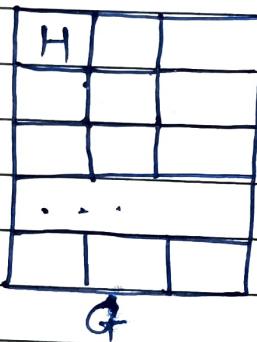
- NO!

According to Lagrange's theorem

If  $H \leq G$  THEN  $|H|$  divides  $|G|$

\* This doesn't mean if  $|H|$  divides  $|G|$  then  $H$

$G$  is partitioned into cosets



$$|G| = n$$

$$|H| = d$$

$$\text{If } \# \text{ cosets} = k$$

$$\therefore k \cdot d = n$$

$\rightarrow d$  divides  $n$

Remember that  $G$  is partitioned into cosets  
only ' $H$ ' is subgroup of  $G$  as only  $H$  contains  
identity element

# Normal subgroup & factor (quotient) ~~group~~

Lets take a motivating example

$\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow$  set of integers

operation - Integers mod 5

The operation divides  $\mathbb{Z}$  into 5 sets according to  
the remainders

$\mathbb{Z}$

	$\tau=0 : \{-\dots-15, -10, -5, 0, 5, 10, 15, \dots\}$
	$\tau=1 : \{-\dots-14, -9, -4, 0, 6, 11, 16, \dots\}$
	$\tau=2 : \{-\dots-13, -8, -3, 0, 7, 12, 17, \dots\}$
	$\tau=3 : \{-\dots-12, -7, -2, 0, 8, 13, 18, \dots\}$
	$\tau=4 : \{-\dots-11, -6, -1, 0, 9, 14, 19, \dots\}$

## Critical observation

① If you take any number from  $r=0$  & add to  $r=2$  you will get always a number from set  $r=3$

To generalize take any number from sets 1 and add to any number from any set 2 then output will be from one of the 5 sets.

These 5 sets are called as congruent classes

$$\bar{0} = \{-\dots -16, -10, -5, 0, 5, 10, 15, \dots\}$$

$$\bar{1} = \{-\dots -14, -9, -4, 1, 6, 11, 16, \dots\}$$

$$\bar{2} = \{-\dots -13, -8, -3, 2, 7, 12, 17, \dots\}$$

$$\bar{3} = \{-\dots -12, -7, -2, 3, 8, 13, 18, \dots\}$$

$$\bar{4} = \{-\dots -11, -6, -1, 4, 9, 14, 19, \dots\}$$

If we treat these 5 sets as numbers then we create a set  $Z$  with these 5 elements

$$Z = \{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}, \bar{3}, \bar{4}\}$$

Now we can have a group  $Z \bmod 5$

These meta numbers indeed forms a group under addition.

1) Closure property satisfied  $\bar{0} + \bar{1} \in Z$

$$\bar{3} + \bar{2} = \bar{0} \in Z$$

2) Associative - addition operation Itself is associative

3) Identity -  $\bar{0}$

4) Inverse:  $\bar{0} \rightarrow \bar{0}$

$$\bar{1} \rightarrow \bar{4}$$

$$\bar{2} \rightarrow \bar{3}$$

$$\bar{3} \rightarrow \bar{2}$$

$$\bar{4} \rightarrow \bar{1}$$

When two integers are in same congruence  
then we write

$$a \equiv b \pmod{n}$$

$a$  is congruent to  $b$  mod  $n$

That means ' $a$ ' & ' $b$ ' have same remainder when divided by ' $n$ '.

- Now lets consider a group  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ .  
We have subgroups as

$$\mathbb{Z}, 2\mathbb{Z}, 3\mathbb{Z}, 4\mathbb{Z}, 5\mathbb{Z}, 6\mathbb{Z}, \dots$$

All these sets satisfies group axioms. & they are subsets of  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

Lets take  $5\mathbb{Z}$  subgroup

	$5\mathbb{Z} = \{-\dots -15, -10, -5, 0, 5, 10, \dots\}$ - sub
	$5\mathbb{Z}+1 = \{-\dots -14, -9, -4, 1, 6, 11, \dots\}$ - coset
	$5\mathbb{Z}+2 = \{-\dots -13, -8, -3, 2, 7, 12, \dots\}$ - coset
	$5\mathbb{Z}+3 = \{-\dots -12, -7, -2, 3, 8, 13, \dots\}$ - coset
	$5\mathbb{Z}+4 = \{-\dots -11, -6, -1, 4, 9, 14, \dots\}$ - coset

$\mathbb{Z}$

group  $\mathbb{Z}$

The set is divided into 5 distinct sets formed  
using  $5\mathbb{Z}$  subgroup  
This creates a partition.

Note that only  $5\mathbb{Z}$  satisfies group axioms

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} 5\mathbb{Z}+1 \\ 5\mathbb{Z}+2 \\ 5\mathbb{Z}+3 \\ 5\mathbb{Z}+4 \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{closure } \times \\ \text{inverse } \times \\ \text{Identity } \times \end{array}$$

*306  
203v*

We used subgroup  $5\mathbb{Z}$  to partition the group  $\mathbb{Z}$  into cosets, and because the cosets form the group we call  $5\mathbb{Z}$  as normal subgroup, and group  $\mathbb{Z}$  quotient cosets is called quotient group.

Here quotient group is denoted as  $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$   
we are using subgroup  $5\mathbb{Z}$  to divide the group  $\mathbb{Z}$  into quotient group

- Note that, cosets are  $\rightarrow 0+5\mathbb{Z}, 1+5\mathbb{Z}, 2+5\mathbb{Z}, 3+5\mathbb{Z}, 4+5\mathbb{Z}$ .  
Now we can consider these cosets as elements in a new group called as coset group
- Note that it is not necessary the cosets always form a group; If cosets don't form a group then we do not call 'N' as normal subgroup, and we cannot make a quotient group

## # cosets problems #

Defn: Let  $H$  be a subgroup of  $G$  and  $a \in G$ .

then the set

$aH = \{ah \mid h \in H\}$  is called left coset.

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

By defn it is clear that corresponding to every element of  $G$ , we have a left coset & right coset of  $H$  in  $G$ .

$$aH \subset G, Ha \subset G \quad \forall a \in G$$

Further more note that,  $eH = H = He$ .

left & right cosets of  $H$  corresponding to the identity 'e' coincides with  $H$ :

Hence ' $H$ ' itself is a left as well as right coset of  $H$  in  $G$ .

Eg ①

$$G = (\mathbb{Z}, +) \text{ & } H = 2\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots -4, -2, 0, +2, +4, \dots\}$$

then right cosets of  $H$  in  $G$

$$H+0 = \{\dots -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, \dots\}$$

$$H+1 = \{\dots -3, -1, 1, 3, 5, \dots\}$$

$$H+2 = \{\dots -2, 0, 2, 4, 6, \dots\} = H$$

$$H+3 = \{\dots -3, -1, 1, 3, 5, \dots\} = H+$$

$$\text{Here } H+1 = H+3 = H+5 = \dots$$

$$H = H+2 = H+4 = \dots$$

$$\therefore G = H \cup (H+1)$$

Here ' $G$ ' has only two distinct cosets ( $H, H+1$ )

Type No.	
Date	

Eg 2. Find all cosets of  $3\mathbb{Z}$  in the group  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$

$$H = 3\mathbb{Z} = \{-9, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, 9, \dots\}$$

$$H+0 = \{\dots -9, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, 9, \dots\}$$

$$H+1 = \{\dots -8, -5, -2, 1, 4, 7, 10, \dots\}$$

$$H+2 = \{\dots -7, -4, -1, 2, 5, 8, 11, \dots\}$$

$$H+3 = \{\dots -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, 9, \dots\} = H+0$$

$$H+4 = \{\dots -5, -2, 1, 4, 7, 10, \dots\} = H+1$$

⋮

Cosets are  $H, H+1, H+2$

$$G = H \cup H+1 \cup H+2$$

# Remark: There are 'n' cosets of  $n\mathbb{Z}$  in  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ .

Q.3) Find all the cosets of  $H = \{0, 4\}$  in the group  $(\mathbb{Z}_8, +_8)$

$$\Rightarrow G = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\} \quad +_8$$

$$\textcircled{a} \quad H = \{0, 4\}$$

$$H+0 = \{0, 4\}$$

$$H+1 = \{0+_8 1, 4+_8 1\} = \{1, 5\}$$

$$H+2 = \{0+_8 2, 4+_8 2\} = \{2, 6\}$$

$$H+3 = \{0+_8 3, 4+_8 3\} = \{3, 7\}$$

$$H+4 = \{0+_8 4, 4+_8 4\} = \{4, 0\} = H$$

$$H+5 = \{0+_8 5, 4+_8 5\} = \{5, 1\} = H+1$$

⋮

There are 4 distinct cosets  $\Rightarrow H, H+1, H+2, H+3$ .

- If  $H$  is subgroup of  $G$  &  $g \in G$ , then prove

a)  $gHg^{-1} = \{ghg^{-1} \mid h \in H\}$  is a subgroup of  $G$

b) If  $H$  is finite, then  $|O(H)| = |O(gHg^{-1})|$

$\rightarrow$  a) Let  $x = gh_1g^{-1} \in gHg^{-1}$   
 $y = gh_2g^{-1} \in gHg^{-1}$

where  $h_1, h_2 \in H$

then

$$\begin{aligned} x \cdot y^{-1} &= (gh_1g^{-1})(gh_2g^{-1})^{-1} \\ &= (gh_1g^{-1})((g^{-1})^{-1} \cdot h_2 \cdot g^{-1}) \\ &= (gh_1g^{-1})(gh_2g^{-1}) \\ &= gh_1(g^{-1} \cdot g) \cdot h_2 g^{-1} \\ &= gh_1(e) \cdot h_2 g^{-1} \\ &= gh_1h_2^{-1}g^{-1} \\ &\in gHg^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore h_1, h_2^{-1} \in H$

only one cond'n is enough to check subgroup - inverse condition

$$\therefore a, b \in G \text{ then } (ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1}$$

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

$$(ab)^{-1}(ab) = e \text{ - identity}$$

$$(ab)^{-1}(ab)b^{-1} = e \cdot b^{-1} \text{ - multiply by } b^{-1}$$

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

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

$$(ab)^{-1} \cdot a \cdot a^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1} \text{ - multiply by } a^{-1}$$

$$ab^{-1} \cdot e = b^{-1}a^{-1}$$

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

- Theorem : If  $H$  is subgroup of a group  $G$  and  $a \in G$  then

$$a \in aH \text{ and } a \in Ha$$

Proof : Let  $e$  be identity of  $G$  so also of  $H$ .  
 $a \in G, e \in H, \rightarrow ae = a \in aH$   
 $e \in H \rightarrow ea = a \in Ha$

$$\Rightarrow aH \neq \emptyset \text{ & } Ha \neq \emptyset$$

(\*) Cosets : Left cosets & right cosets are subsets of  $G$ .

$(G, *)$  - group

let  $g \in G$

$(H, *)$  - subgroup

Left coset  $\Rightarrow g \cdot H$

We know that,  $\forall h \in H, h \in G$  also as  
 $H \subseteq G$ .

and  $G$  satisfies closure property

$$\therefore g * h \in G$$

$\therefore$  left coset is subset of  $G$

Similarly we can prove for right coset

- Theorem : If  $H$  is a subgroup then for  $h \in H$

$$h * H = H = H * h$$

Here  $(H, *)$  is a subgroup of  $(G, *)$  &  $h \in H$ .

$\Rightarrow$  We will first try to prove  $hH = H$

TO prove  $h * H = H$  we need to prove two conditions  
i)  $h * H \subseteq H$       iii)  $H \subseteq h * H$

i)  $h * H \subseteq H$ , we know  $h \in H$

let  $h' \in H$ , then ~~h' \* h~~  
multiply by  $h'$

$$h' * h \in H * h \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

we know that  $h' \in H$  &  $h \in H$  then

by closure property  $h' * h \in H \quad \text{--- (2)}$

$\therefore$  we can say that  $H * h \subseteq H$

$\Rightarrow$  We will first try to prove

$H * h = H$ , To prove this we need to prove two conditions

1)  $H * h \subseteq H$

2)  $H \subseteq H * h$

1)  $H * h \subseteq H$ , we know  $h \in H$

Let  $h' \in H$ , multiply by  $h'$

$$\Rightarrow h' * h \in H * h \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

as both  $h'$  &  $h \in H$ , by closure property

$$h' * h \in H \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$\therefore$  from ① & ②

$$H * h \subseteq H$$

2)  $H \subseteq H * h$

let  $h_1 \in H$ , we know  $h \in H$

by inverse property,  $h^{-1} \in H$ .

$$h_1 \in H \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

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

by closure property

$$h_1 * h^{-1} \in H \quad \text{--- (I)}$$

multiply by  $h$  to eqn (I)

$$h_1 * h^{-1} * h \in H * h$$

$$h_1 * e \in H * h$$

$$h_1 \in H * h \quad \text{--- (II)}$$

from (I) & (II)

$$H \subseteq H * h.$$

# Group 'G' is union of all left or right cosets.

$\Rightarrow$  proof: If  $H \leq G$ , then  $G$  is union of all right cosets of  $H$  in  $G$

Let  $S = \text{union of all right cosets in } G$

$$S = H \cup Ha_1 \cup Ha_2 \cup \dots \cup Ha_n$$

where  $a_i \in G$ ,  $i \neq 1, n$

We need to prove that  $S$  is a group  $G$  i.e.

$$S \subseteq G$$

To prove this we need to prove 2 conditions

i)  $S \subseteq G$       ii)  $G \subseteq S$

(i)  $S \subseteq G$

Let  $x \in S$ ,

so  $x$  can be either belongs to  $H$ , or  $Ha_1$ , or  $Ha_2$ ...

We have already proved that cosets are subgroups of  $G$

$\therefore Ha_i \subseteq G$

$\therefore x$  can belong to any coset, & the coset itself is subset of  $G$

$$\therefore x \in G$$

$$\therefore S \subseteq G$$

2) similarly we need to prove  $G \subseteq S$   
let  $a \in G$ , we need to prove  $a \in S$

$$a_1 = e * a_0 - \textcircled{1}$$

we know that  $e \in H$

$\therefore$  I can write  $a_1 \in Ha$

$$\therefore (e \in H \rightarrow e * a = a)$$

If  $a \in Ha$  then  $a_1 \in S$

$$\therefore S = H \cup Ha_1 \cup Ha_2 \cup a_3 \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow a \in S \Rightarrow G \subseteq S$$

same we can prove for left cosets

### # Normal subgroup :

so far we discussed about group, subgroups  
cosets created from subgroup

Now lets define a normal subgroup,

It is a type of subgroup

Let  $G$  be the group &  $H \leq G$

let  $x \in G$ , then

left coset  $\Rightarrow xH$

Right coset  $\Rightarrow Hx$

We know if group is abelian group then

$$xH = Hx \quad \forall x \in G$$

But if  $G$  is not an Abelian group, it is not necessary to satisfy left coset = right coset.

- If  $G$  is not Abelian and still left cosets & right cosets are equal then we call such ' $H$ ' as normal subgroup

$$xH = Hx \quad \forall x \in G \quad \text{even } G \text{ is not abelian}$$

$H \rightarrow$  is a normal subgroup

\* That mean if  $G$  is Abelian then all its subgroups are normal subgroups.

Note that for non Abelian group,

$Hx = xH$  must be satisfied for all  $x \in G$ .

It is denoted by

$$[H \trianglelefteq G]$$

Trivial normal subgroups / Improper Normal subgroup

1)  $H = \{e\}$

2)  $H = G$

Non trivial or proper normal subgroups

$$H \subseteq G \quad \forall g \in G \quad x \neq e$$

$$[H \trianglelefteq G]$$

- simple group :- A group for which no proper normal subgroup exists.

e.g. let  $G$  be a group of order 3

- By lagrange theorem we know that,  
order of sub group is multiple of 3.

∴ It can be either 1 or 3 i.e.

it can be either  $\{e\}$  or  $G$  it self.

∴ it is a simple group

- \*  $H$  is a normal subgroup iff  $xHx^{-1} = H$

i.e.

$$H \trianglelefteq G \leftrightarrow xHx^{-1} = H$$



$$xH(x^{-1} \cdot xe) = Hxe$$

$$xeH = Hxe$$

$$xeH = Hxe \rightarrow \text{Normal subgroup}$$

G
$xH$
$yH$

$$yH = Hx$$

Prop. Atm.
Ques

Theorem: If  $H \trianglelefteq G$ , then each left coset of  $H$  in  $G$  is a right coset of  $H$  in  $G$ .

Note here we are not restricting

$$xH = Hx \text{ by}$$

but it is also true for  $y \in G$

$$xH = Hy.$$

→ We know  $xHx^{-1} = H$  &  $xH = Hx$

$$xH = Hx \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

We have also proved that two cosets of a group are either disjoint or identical.

~~Let~~ let  $x, y \in G$

$xH$  &  $yH$  are two cosets

$$\therefore 1) xH = yH \quad \text{or}$$

$$2) xH \cap yH = \emptyset$$

∴ If I consider these are disjoint identical  
then eqn ① becomes

~~Let~~  $yH = Hx \rightarrow$  Hence proved.

Similarly we can prove converse

i.e. given  $xH = Hy$  - prove  $H \trianglelefteq G$   
 $x, y \in G$ .

→  $x \in xH$  is possible? Yes ∵  $e \in H$

$$\therefore x \in x \cdot e \Rightarrow x \in \underline{xH}$$

$$x \in xH \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

left cosets

We know that  $xH = Hy$

$$\therefore x \in Hy - \textcircled{2}$$

can  $x \in Hx \Rightarrow ?$  Right coset yes!

$$e \in H, x \in Hx - \textcircled{3}$$

$$x \in Hy \text{ from } \textcircled{2} \quad x \in Hx \text{ from } \textcircled{3}$$

We know that two cosets are distinct or identical

$$\therefore Hy = Hx - \textcircled{4}$$

We have given  $xH = Hy$

$$\therefore xH = Hx \Rightarrow \text{Normal subgroup cond'}$$

$$\therefore H \trianglelefteq G$$

- Theorem  $\Rightarrow$  if  $H \trianglelefteq G$  then product of two right cosets is again a right coset.

(i) Let's prove first implication

$$H \trianglelefteq G \rightarrow Hx * Hy = H * z, \forall x, y, z \in G$$

Let  $x, y$  be any two elements of  $G$ .  
Take product of right cosets

$$(Hx)(Hy) - \textcircled{1}$$

We know it satisfies associativity property

$$= H(xH)y - \textcircled{2}$$

We know  $H \trianglelefteq G \therefore xH = Hx$

$$= H(Hx)y - \textcircled{3}$$

Again consider associativity

$$(HH)x y - \textcircled{4}$$

As  $HH = H$  ( $\because$  closure property)

$= Hx y$  Now we considered  $x, y \in G$   
 $\therefore xy \in G$  let  $xy = z$

$= \underline{Hz}$  Right coset.

i) Now we will prove converse

$(Hx)(Hy) = Hz$  then  $H \triangleleft G$

lets take an inverse of  $x$  as  $x^{-1}$

$\therefore (Hx)(Hx^{-1})$  is also a right coset —①

Now we know

$e \in H$

$\therefore (ex)(ex^{-1}) \in (Hx)(Hx^{-1})$

$\Rightarrow$

$xx^{-1} \in (Hx)(Hx^{-1})$

$e \in (Hx)(Hx^{-1})$

$e \in$  right coset from eqn ①

Now we also know  $e \in H$

and we can also say that  $e \in He$

$\therefore He = \underline{H} —②$

$e$  is right coset generated by identity  $e$ .  
We have two right cosets now

①  $He$

②  $(Hx)(Hx^{-1})$

These right cosets can be identical or distinct  
but  $e \in He$  &  $e \in (Hx)(Hx^{-1})$

these right cosets are identical.

$(Hx)(Hx^{-1}) = H —③$

Let  $h, h' \in H$

$$(hx)(h'x^{-1}) \in (Hx)(Hx^{-1})$$

∴ from eqn ③

$$(hx)(h'x^{-1}) \in H - ④$$

Multiply by  $h'$  both sides:

$$\underbrace{h'^{-1}}_e (hx)(h'x^{-1}) \in h'H$$

$$xh'x^{-1} \in H$$

$$\therefore hH = H \text{ (proved already)}$$

$$\therefore xh'x^{-1} \in H$$

This is the normality cond? i.e.

If  $xh'x^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow H$  is a normal subgroup

## # Quotient group / Factor group #

Group  $\rightarrow$  subgroup  $\rightarrow$  cosets  $\rightarrow$  Normal subgroup



quotient group

• Quotient group - collection of all cosets  $H$  in  $G$   
where  $H$  is normal subgroup

- collection of all cosets of normal subgroup

It is denoted by

$G/N$  where  $N$  is normal subgroup  
 $G/H$  " "  $H$  "

$$G/H = \{Ha \mid a \in G\}$$

Here we are taking only right coset on  $H$

is a normal subgroup &  $Ha = aH$ .

Why it is called as group?

- As all cosets collectively form a group.

- Properties of quotient group

① If  $G$  is Abelian then  $G/H$  is also abelian.

Let  $a, b \in G$

$$Ha, Hb \in G/H$$

Take operation on  $Ha \cdot Hb$

$$(Ha)(Hb) = Hab - \textcircled{1}$$

- Right cosets operated to get right side

$$(Ha)(Hb) = Hba$$

$\therefore ab = ba$  or group is abelian

$$\Rightarrow (Ha)(Hb) = (Hb)(Ha)$$

$\Rightarrow$  cosets are also Abelian commutative

$\therefore$  quotient group is commutative

$\rightarrow$  It is Abelian group

\* Note that here we are considering cosets as elements of quotient group

② If  $G$  is cyclic,  $G/H$  also cyclic.

$\Rightarrow G = \langle a \rangle$  with  $a$  as generator

so all elements of  $G$  are generated by  $a^n$

$$\therefore a^n \in G$$

Derive a coset from  $a^n \in Ha$

$$\Rightarrow H(a \cdot a \cdot a \cdots a)$$

$$\Rightarrow Ha Ha Ha \cdots Ha$$

$$(\because HaHb = Ha \cdot b)$$

$$\Rightarrow (Ha)^n$$

$$Ha^n = (Ha)^n$$

That mean if I take any element of  $G/H$ , it can be represented as  $(Ha)^n$

$\Rightarrow$  cyclic group with generator  $Ha$

$$G/H = \langle Ha \rangle$$

③ Let  $a \in G$ , &  $O(a) = n$

$$Ha \in G \text{ & } O(Ha) = m$$

Then  $m$  divides  $n$ .

$\Rightarrow$  Let  $a^n = e$  ( $\because$  defn of order)

$$Ha^n = H(a \cdot a \cdot a \cdots a)$$

$$= Ha Ha Ha \cdots Ha$$

$$Ha^n = (Ha)^n$$

$$\text{but } a^n = e$$

$$\Rightarrow He = (Ha)^n$$

$$\Rightarrow He = (Ha)^n$$

$\Rightarrow (Ha)^n = H$  which is identity of  $G/H$

We already proved  $a^n = e \text{ & } O(a) = m$   
then  $m$  divides  $n$

$$\Rightarrow m \mid n$$

Q Find quotient group  $G/H$  when  
 $G = (\{1, -1, i, -i\}, \times)$  &  $H = (\{1, -1\}, \times)$

$\Rightarrow$  Here  $G$  is a commutative group, so every subgroup is a normal subgroup.  
 Considerently  $G/H$  exists & having following cosets

$$H \times 1 = \{1 \times 1, -1 \times 1\} = \{1, -1\} = H$$

$$H \times -1 = \{-1 \times 1, -1 \times -1\} = \{1, -1\} = H$$

$$H \times i = \{i, -i\} = i \cdot H$$

$$H \times -i = \{-i, i\} = i \cdot H$$

$$\therefore G/H = \{H, iH\}$$

composition table of  $G/H$  is

	H	$iH$
H	H	$iH$
$iH$	$iH$	H

Q2 Find the quotient group  $G/H$  when

$$G = (\mathbb{Z}, +), H = (4\mathbb{Z}, +)$$

$\rightarrow (4\mathbb{Z}, +) \trianglelefteq \mathbb{Z} \therefore G/\mathbb{Z}$  exists

The cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  are follows

$$0+H = H+0 = \{-\infty, -8, -4, 0, 4, 8, \dots\}$$

$$1+H = H+1 = \{-\infty, \dots, -7, -3, \Phi, 5, 9, \dots\}$$

$$2+H = H+2 = \{-\infty, \dots, -6, -2, 2, 6, 10, \dots\}$$

$$3+H = H+3 = \{-\infty, \dots, -5, -1, 3, 7, 11, \dots\}$$

Further

$$\begin{aligned}
 H &= H+4 = H+8 \dots = H+(-4) = H+(-8) \\
 H+1 &= H+5 = H+9 \dots = H+(-3) = H+(-7) \\
 H+2 &= H+6 = H+10 \dots = H+(-2) = H+(-6) \\
 H+3 &= H+7 = H+11 \dots = H+(+1) = H+(-5)
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus the distinct cosets are

$$G/H = \{H, H+1, H+2, H+3\}$$

composition table

+	H	H+1	H+2	H+3
H	H	H+1	H+2	H+3
H+1	H+1	H+2	H+3	H
H+2	H+2	H+3	H	H+1
H+3	H+3	H	H+1	H+2

Identity = H

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Inverse of } H &= H, \quad H+1 \Rightarrow H+3 \\
 &\quad H+2 \Rightarrow H+2 \\
 &\quad H+3 \Rightarrow H+1
 \end{aligned}$$

## # Permutation group #

- Functions : A function or mapping, defined as  $(f: X \rightarrow Y)$  is a relationship from elements of one set  $X$  to elements of another set  $Y$ . ( $X$  and  $Y$  are non-empty sets)

$X \rightarrow$  Domain / pre-image

$Y \rightarrow$  codomain / image

A function  $f$  is a relation on  $X$  and  $Y$  such that for each  $x \in X$ , there exists a unique  $y \in Y$  such that  $(x, y) \in f$ .

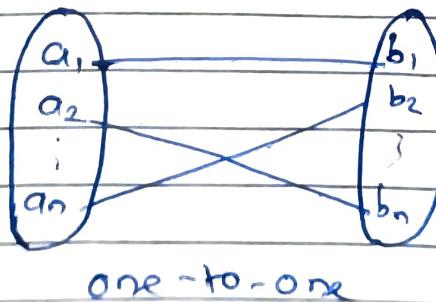
- \* A function can be one-to-one, or many-to-one but not one to many

### ① Injective / one-to-one

- A function is said to injective or one-to-one function for every element in domain there exists at most one element in domain.

$$f: A \rightarrow B \quad \forall b \in B, \text{ at most one } a \in A$$

i.e. if  $a_1 \neq a_2$  implies  $f(a_1) \neq f(a_2)$

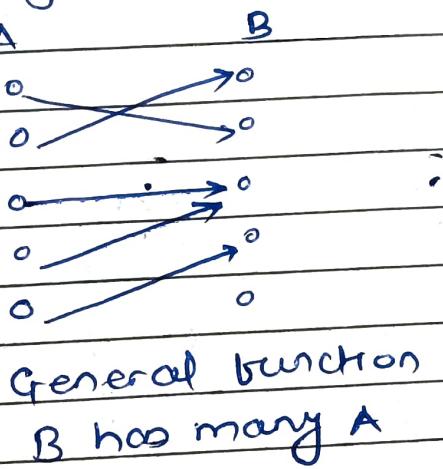


## ② Surjective / on-to

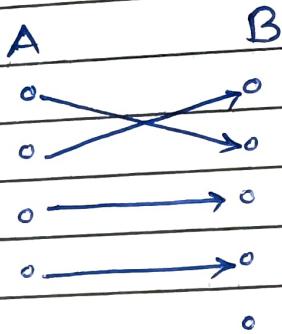
A function  $f: A \rightarrow B$  is surjective (onto) if for every  $b \in B$ , there exists some  $a \in A$ , such that  $f(a) = b$ . This means for any  $y$  in  $B$ , there exists some  $x$  in  $A$ ,  $y = f(x)$ .



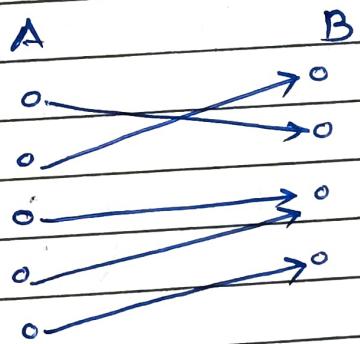
Not a function  
(One-to-many)  
A has many B



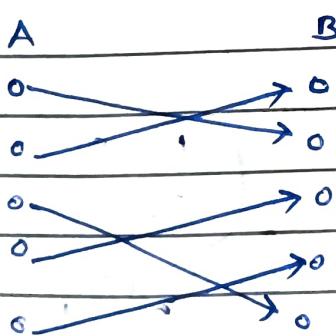
General function  
B has many A



Injective (Not surjective)  
B can't have many A



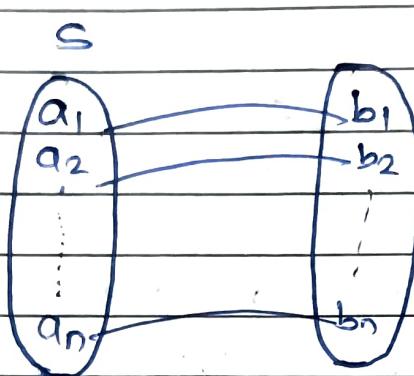
Surjective (Not injective)  
Every B has some A.



Bijection  
(Injective & Surjective)  
A to B perfectly.

# Suppose 'S' is a finite set having 'n' distinct elements. Then mapping of 'S' onto itself is called permutation of degree 'n'.

$f: S \rightarrow S$  with one-to-one mapping & onto.



Such function with number of elements called as permutation with degree 'n'.

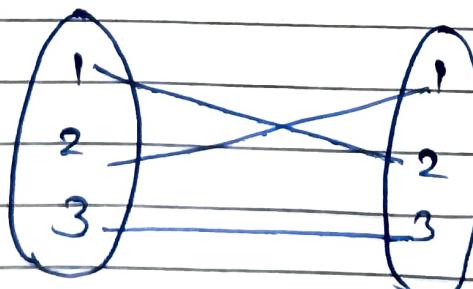
The other way of representing permutation is as follows

$$f = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & \dots & a_n \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & \dots & b_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$a_1$ , image is  $b_1$ ,

$a_2$  " "  $b_2$   
⋮ ⋮ ⋮

eg



$$\Rightarrow f = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

## • Equality of two permutations

$$b = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad g = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$b = g \text{ if } b(a) = g(a) \quad \forall a \in S$$

## # Product or composition of two permutations

$$b = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad g = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

1)  $bog = b(g(x))$

$b(1) = 2$	$g(1) = 4$
$b(2) = 3$	$g(2) = 3$
$b(3) = 4$	$g(3) = 2$
$b(4) = 1$	$g(4) = 1$

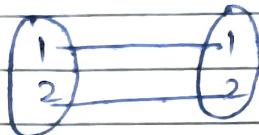
①  $bog(1) = b(g(1)) = b(4) = 1$   
 $bog(2) = b(g(2)) = b(3) = 4$   
 $= b(g(3)) = b(2) = 3$   
 $b(g(4)) = b(1) = 2$

②  $gob \Rightarrow g(b(1)) = g(2) = 3$   
 $g(b(2)) = g(3) = 2$   
 $g(b(3)) = g(4) = 1$   
 $g(b(4)) = g(1) = 4$

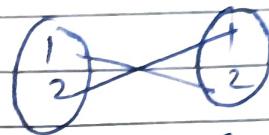
$bog \neq gob \Rightarrow$  Some cases it may be in  
general it is not commutative

- Let  $S = \{1, 2\}$   $f: S \rightarrow S$

How many possible permutations (one-one)



Identity mapping (I)  
1-1, 2-2



$1 \rightarrow 2$  ( $f_1$ )  
 $2 \rightarrow 1$

If  $n=2$  then 2 permutations are possible

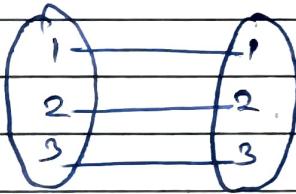
This is denoted by  $S_2$

$S_2 = \{f: f \text{ is a permutation of degree 2}\}$

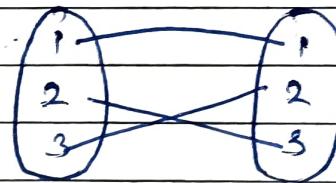
$$S_2 = \{I; f_1\}$$

- Let  $S = \{1, 2, 3\}$   $f: S \rightarrow S$

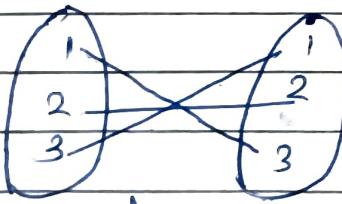
How many possible permutations?



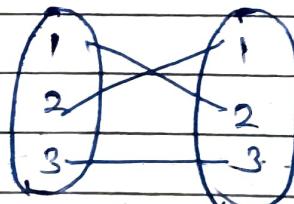
Identity (I)



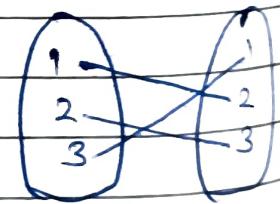
$f_1$



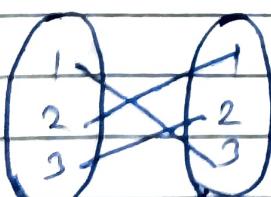
$f_2$



$f_3$



$f_4$



$f_5$

No other possibilities

This is denoted by  $S_3$

$S_3 = \{f: f \text{ is a permutation of degree 3}\}$

$$\text{Order}(S_3) = 6$$

• similarly  $O(S_n) = n!$

$$\therefore O(S_4) = 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 24$$

### # Symmetric group

$$S_n = \{ b : b \text{ is permutation of degree } n \}$$

Binary operation ( $\circ$ ) - composition of permutation

$(S_n, \circ) \Rightarrow$  is a group.

① Closure property - composition of two permutations is also permutation.

Let  $b, g \in S_n \rightarrow bog \in S_n$

$\because g \in S_n \& b \in S_n$

$\Downarrow bog \in S_n$

②

### Associative Property

2.  $b, g, h \in S_n$

$$(bog)oh = bo(goh)$$

③ Identity :- For  $b \in S_n$   $I \in S_n$  such that

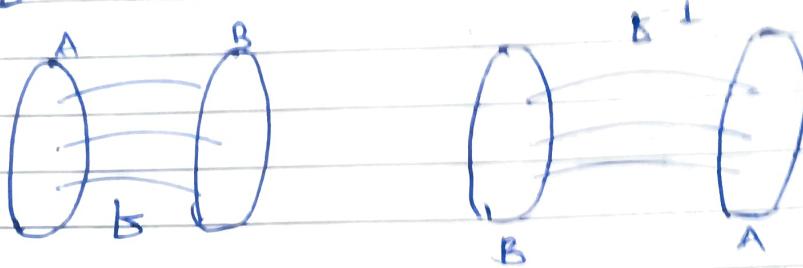
$$b \circ I = I \circ b = b$$

$$\text{eg } b = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & \dots & a_n \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & \dots & b_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$I = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & \dots & a_n \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & \dots & a_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$b \circ I = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & \dots & a_n \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & \dots & b_n \end{pmatrix} = b$$

④ Inverse - Here inverse of a function can be obtained by changing domain & codomain  
 $f: A \rightarrow B \Rightarrow f^{-1}: B \rightarrow A$



As function is one-to-one, & onto, the inverse

$$f = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & \dots & a_n \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & \dots & b_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & \dots & b_n \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & \dots & a_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f^{-1} \circ f = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & \dots & a_n \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & \dots & a_n \end{pmatrix} = I$$

⑤ commutative - Not satisfied.

$$bog \neq gob$$

• cyclic permutation:

Permutation group can be represented as below  
 i.e.

$$f = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 & 3 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\left( \begin{smallmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 & 3 & 5 & 6 \end{smallmatrix} \right) =$$

$$\left( \begin{smallmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 & 1 & 5 & 6 \end{smallmatrix} \right) \left( \begin{smallmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 6 & 5 \end{smallmatrix} \right) = (1\ 2\ 3)$$

we can get back to complete permutation.

as follows

permutation group of order 6 & cyclic permutations  
on  $(1243) = ?$

$$b = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 & 3 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

Now lets focus on  $S_3$

$$S_3 = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \right. \\ \left. \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$$S_3 = \left\{ I, (12), (13), (23), (123), (132), (132) \right\}$$

Reduced form.

$$S_3 = \left\{ I, (12), (13), (23), (123), (132) \right\}$$

Now lets check if  $S_3$  satisfies closure property

① closure

$$(12) \circ (13) = ?$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \\ = (132) \in S_3$$

$$(32) \circ (12) = (32)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \\ = I$$

② Associative property - satisfied

④ Inverse

$$(12)(12) \Rightarrow (1)(2)(3) = I$$

inverse of  $(12)$  is  $(12)$

$$(13)(13) \Rightarrow (1)(3)(2) = I$$

in general  $(abc)^{-1} = (bca)$   
 $(abc)^{-1} = (acb)$

Note that  $abc = bca = cab$   
cycles are same

$$(13) = (31) \quad \& \quad (12) = (21)$$

$$\overbrace{abc} \neq \overbrace{bac}$$

# What is the difference between permutation & symmetric group?

- symmetric group is set of all permutations of degree  $n$

e.g.  $S_3 = \{ I, (13), (12)(23), (123)(132) \}$

Permutation group is a subgroup of symmetric group

e.g.  $H = \{ I, (132), (123) \}$  is a permutation group which is subgroup of symmetric group  $S_3$   
But  $H$  is not a symmetric group

## Cayley graph / Table

$$S_3 = \{ I, (12), (13), (23), (123), (132) \}$$

I	(12)	(13)	(23)	(123)	(132)
I	I	(12)	(13)	(23)	(123)
(12)	(12)	I	(132)	(123)	(23)
(13)	(13)	(123)	I	(132)	(12)
(23)	(23)	(132)	(123)	I	(13)
(123)	(123)	(13)	(23)	(12)	I
(132)	(132)	(23)	(12)	(13)	I

$$(12)(\overset{1}{12}) \Rightarrow (11)(22)(33) \Rightarrow (\cancel{123})(1)(2)(3)$$

$$(\overset{2}{12})(\overset{3}{13}) \Rightarrow (132)$$

$$(12)(23) \Rightarrow (231)$$

$$(12)(123) \Rightarrow (1)(23)$$

$$(12)(132) \Rightarrow (31) = (13)$$

$$(13)(12) \Rightarrow (123)$$

$$(13)(13) \Rightarrow (1)(3)(2) = I$$

$$(13)(23) \Rightarrow (213) \Rightarrow (132)$$

Cayley table

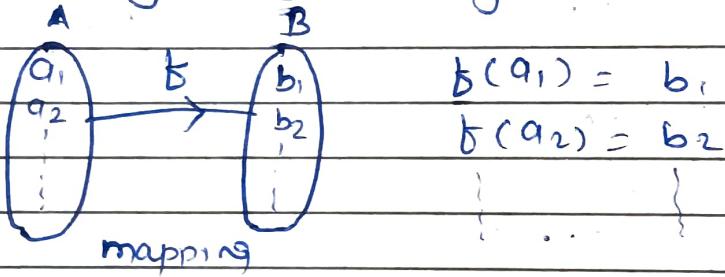
As this group is not symmetric  $\rightarrow$  this is non abelian group

## # Homomorphism of group #

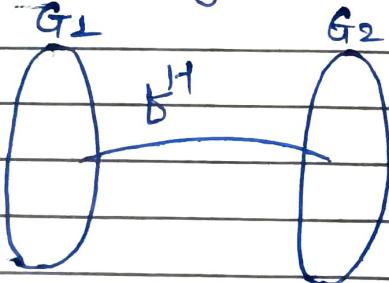
Homo morphism  
 ↓              ↓  
 same            mapping  
 same Algebraic      mapping between  
 structure            two groups.  
 (Group)            mapping which preserve structure

- Mapping between two algebraic structure which preserves property of algebraic structure

Mapping is generally defined by a function



same thing will follow in groups.

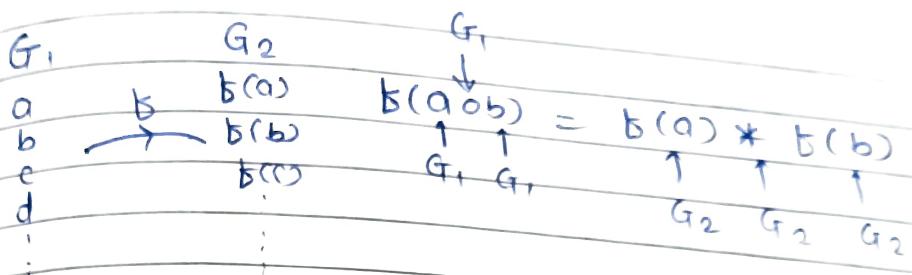


$G_1$  &  $G_2$  are two groups  
 on which we have defined  
 a homomorphism mapping  
 $f^H$

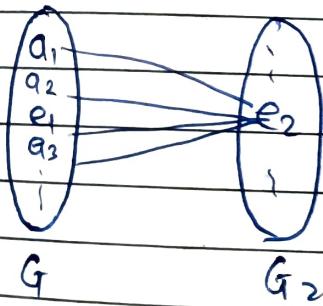
# Definition : Let  $G_1$  &  $G_2$  be two groups with some binary operations  $\circ$  &  $*$  respectively then

$$f: G_1 \rightarrow G_2 \text{ defined by } f(a \circ b) = f(a) * f(b) \quad \forall a, b \in G_1$$

Then 'f' is called as homomorphism.



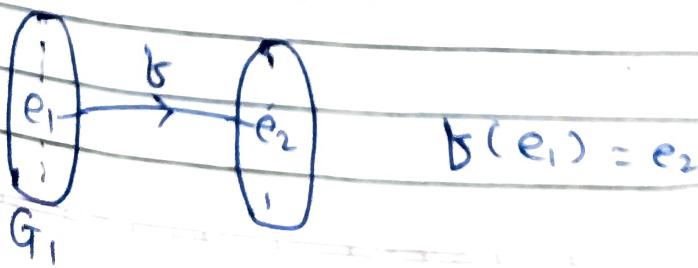
- If a homomorphism is one-to-one then we call it as monomorphism.
- If a homomorphism is onto then we call it as epimorphism.
- If all elements of  $G_1$  are mapped to identity of  $G_2$  then we call it as trivial homomorphism.



- If a homomorphism is both one-to-one and onto we call it as isomorphism.

### # Theorems on Homomorphism

- ① If  $b: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  &  $b$  is homomorphism then  $b(e_1) = e_2$  where  $e_1$  is identity of  $G_1$  &  $e_2$  is identity of  $G_2$

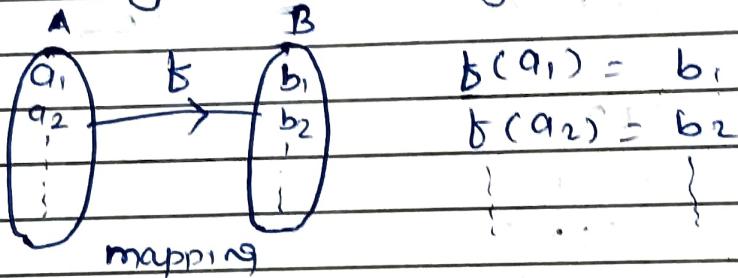


## # Homomorphism of group #

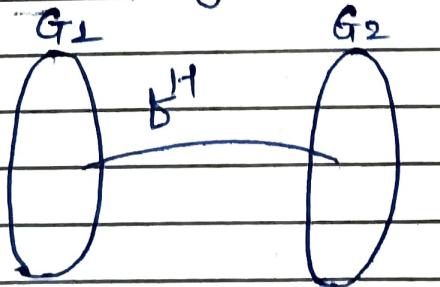
Homo morphism  
 ↓  
 same mapping  
 same Algebraic  
 structure  
 (Group) mapping between  
 two groups.  
 mapping which preserve structure

- Mapping between two algebraic structure which preserves property of algebraic structure

mapping is generally defined by a function



same thing will follow in groups.

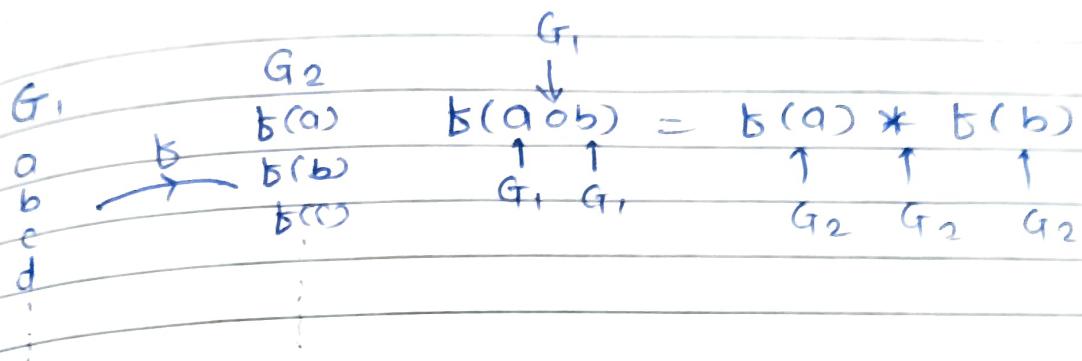


$G_1$  &  $G_2$  are two groups on which we have defined a homomorphism mapping  $f^H$

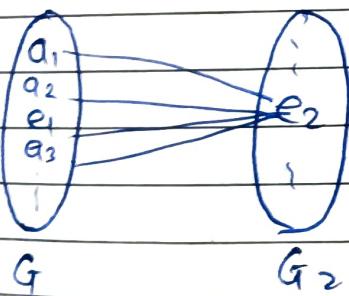
# Definition: Let  $G_1$  &  $G_2$  be two groups with some binary operations  $\circ$  &  $*$  respectively then

$$f: G_1 \rightarrow G_2 \text{ defined by } f(a \circ b) = f(a) * f(b) \quad \forall a, b \in G_1$$

Then 'f' is called as homomorphism.



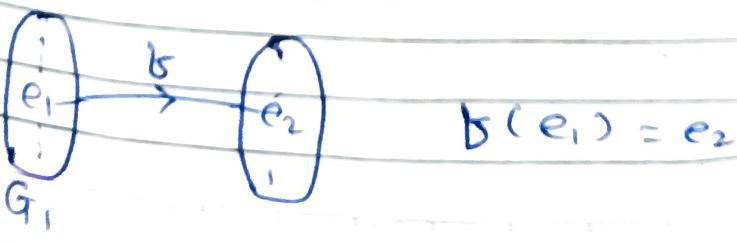
- If a homomorphism is one-to-one then we call it as monomorphism
  - If a homomorphism is onto then we call it as epimorphism.
  - If all elements of  $G_1$  are mapped to identity of  $G_2$  then we call it as trivial homomorphism



- If a homomorphism is both one-to-one and onto we call it as isomorphism.

## Theorems on Homomorphism

① If  $\beta: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  &  $\beta$  is homomorphism then  
 $\beta(e_1) = e_2$  where  $e_1$  is identity of  $G_1$  &  
 $e_2$  is identity of  $G_2$



Identity of  $G_1$  always gets mapped to identity of  $G_2$

Proof :- Let  $a \in G_1 \rightarrow b(a) \in G_2$

$$b(a) = b(a) \cdot e_2 - \textcircled{1}$$

by multiplying identity of  $G_2$

$$b(a) = b(a \cdot e_1) - \textcircled{2}$$

$e_1$  is identity of  $G_1 \therefore a \cdot e_1 = a$

We know defn of homomorphism

$$b(a \cdot e_1) = b(a) \cdot b(e_1) - \textcircled{3}$$

From eqn \textcircled{1} & \textcircled{3}

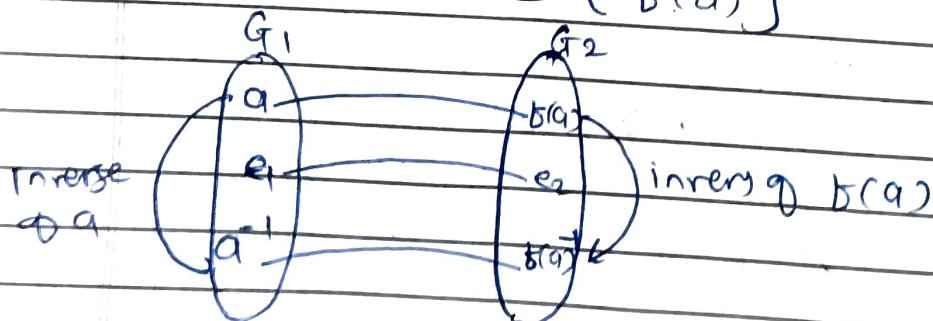
$$b(a) \cdot e_2 = b(a) \cdot b(e_1)$$

By left cancellation rule

$$b(e_1) = e_2 \quad \text{Hence proved. :}$$

② If  $b: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  &  $b$  is homomorphism then

$$b(a^{-1}) = [b(a)]^{-1}$$



We have to prove

$$[\beta(a)]^{-1} = \beta(a^{-1}) \quad \text{--- (A)}$$

To show this we can prove

$$\beta(a) \cdot \beta(a^{-1}) = e_2$$

identity of  $G_2$

From previous proof we know that

$$e_2 = \beta(e_1)$$

Let  $a \in G$

$$\therefore e_2 = \beta(a \cdot a^{-1})$$

By defn of homomorphism

$$\beta(a \cdot a^{-1}) = \beta(a) \cdot \beta(a^{-1}) = e_2$$

$$\therefore \text{If } \beta(a) \cdot \beta(a^{-1}) = e_2$$

This implies inverse of  $\beta(a)$  is  $\beta(a^{-1})$

$$\therefore [\beta(a)]^{-1} = \beta(a^{-1})$$

(ii)  $o(\beta(a))$  divides  $o(a)$

order of  $\beta(a)$  divides order of  $a$

$$\Rightarrow o(\beta(a)) = m \quad o(a) = n$$

$\Rightarrow m$  divides  $n$

$$\rightarrow a^n = e_1 - \text{given}$$

$$\beta(a^n) = \beta(e_1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \beta(a \cdot a \cdot a \cdots a) \Rightarrow \beta(a) \cdot \beta(a) \cdot \beta(a) \cdots \beta(a)$$

$$\Rightarrow [\beta(a)]^n = \underline{\underline{\beta(e_1)}}$$

$b(e_1) = e_2 \rightarrow$  from previous theorem.

$$\therefore e_2 = (b(a))^n \rightarrow ①$$

but order of  $b(a)$  is  $m$

we already know from group modulus if

## # Example

Let  $(\mathbb{R}, +)$  be the additive group of real numbers and  $(\mathbb{R}_+, \times)$  be the multiplicative group of non-zero real numbers.

mapping  $b: (\mathbb{R}, +) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}_+, \times)$ ;  $b(x) = 2^x \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$  is a homomorphism of  $\mathbb{R}$  into  $\mathbb{R}_+$  because for any  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\begin{aligned} b(x_1 + x_2) &= 2^{x_1 + x_2} = 2^{x_1} \cdot 2^{x_2} \\ &= b(x_1) \times b(x_2) \end{aligned}$$

Q12 Let  $G = \{1, -1\}$  be a multiplicative group  
then map

$$b: (\mathbb{Z}, +) \rightarrow (G, \times); b(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \text{ is even} \\ -1 & \text{if } x \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

is an epimorphism from  $\mathbb{Z}$  to  $G$ , because for any  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$

i) When  $x_1, x_2$  both are even then,

$$b(x_1 + x_2) = 1 = 1 \cdot 1 = b(x_1) \cdot b(x_2)$$

ii) When  $x_1, x_2$  both are odd

$$b(x_1 + x_2) = -1 = -1 \cdot -1 = b(x_1) \cdot b(x_2)$$

iii) When  $x_1$  is even &  $x_2$  is odd

$$f(x_1+x_2) = -1 = +1 \cdot -1 = f(x_1) \cdot f(x_2)$$

iv) When  $x_1$  is even  $x_2$  is odd

$$f(x_1+x_2) = -1 = +1 \cdot -1 = f(x_1) \cdot f(x_2)$$

$(\mathbb{Z}, +)$



$f(x)$

$(G, \times)$



$\therefore$  function mapping

onto ~~one-to-one~~

: it is a epimorphism

\* The map  $f: (\mathbb{Z}, +) \rightarrow (2\mathbb{Z}, +); f(x) = 2x \forall x \in \mathbb{Z}$   
is isomorphism

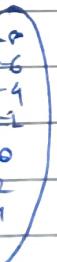
$$\rightarrow \textcircled{1} f(x_1+x_2) = 2(x_1+x_2) = 2x_1+2x_2 \\ = f(x_1)+f(x_2)$$

$\therefore$  it is a homomorphism

If

$$\textcircled{2} f(x_1) = f(x_2) = 2x_1+2x_2 \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2$$

If  $f(x_1) = f(x_2) \rightarrow x_1 = x_2$  then this is  
a one-to-one mapping



One to One

$$\textcircled{3} f(x) \text{ is onto } f(\mathbb{Z}) = 2\mathbb{Z}$$

$$\therefore \text{Hence } \mathbb{Z} \cong 2\mathbb{Z}$$

$\therefore \mathbb{Z}$  is isomorphic to  $2\mathbb{Z}$

## # Rings & Fields

① A ring  $R$  denoted by  $\{R, +, *\}$  is set of elements with two binary operators called addition & multiplication, such that for all  $a, b, c \in R$ , the following axioms are obeyed

- 1) Group -  $G_1$  to  $G_4$  (For addition)
- 2) Abelian group -  $A_5$  (For addition)
- 3) Associativity -  $M_2$  (For multiplication)
- 4) Closure -  $M_1$  (For multiplication)
- 5) Distributive -  $M_3$  - for multiplication
$$a(b+c) = ab + ac$$
$$(a+b)c = a\cancel{c} + bc$$

② commutative Ring :- A ring is said to be commutative, if it satisfies additional cond? commutative under multiplication.

$$ab = ba$$

③ Integral domain : An integral domain is a commutative ring that obeys

① multiplicative identity ( $M_5$ )

$$a \cdot e = e \cdot a = a$$

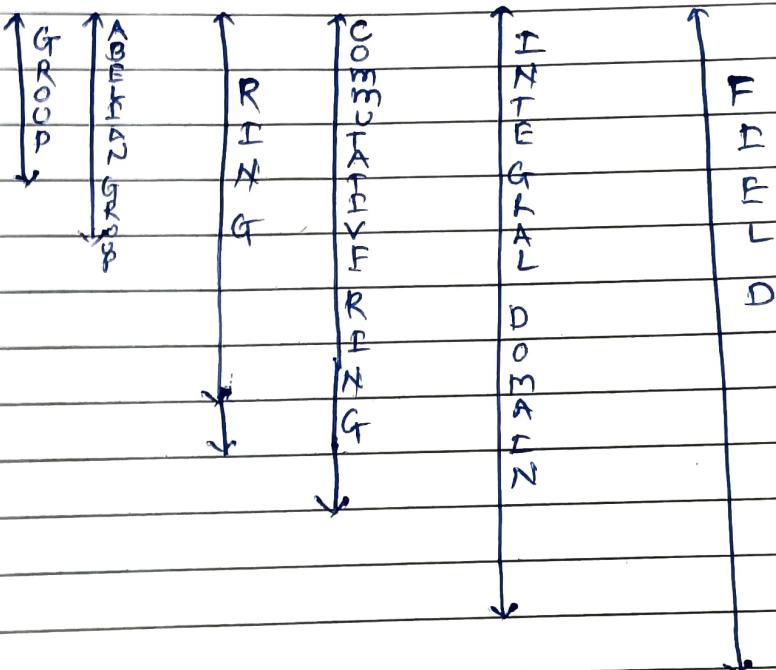
② <sup>No</sup> zero divisors =

If  $ab = 0$ , then either  $a = 0$  /  $b = 0$  or

④ Fields : A field  $F$ , sometimes denoted by  $\{F, +, *\}$  is a set of elements with two binary operations called addition & multiplication, s.t. for  $a, b \in F$  following axioms are obeyed

- 1)  $A_1$  to  $A_5$  - commutative group under +
- 2)  $M_1$  to  $M_6$  - for multiplication
- 3)  $M_7$  - multiplicative inverse exists.

$A_1$ : closure  
 $A_2$ : associative  
 $A_3$ : identity  
 $A_4$ : inverse  
 $A_5$ : commutative  
 $M_1$ : closure  
 $M_2$ : associative  
 $M_3$ : distributive  
 $M_4$ : commutative  
 $M_5$ : identity  
 $M_6$ : no zero divisor  
 $M_7$ : inverse



5) Finite Fields :- A Field with finite number of elements is called finite field.

e.g set of all  $n \times n$  matrices form a ring with identity but it is not a commutative ring

Q.2 Prove that the set  $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$  is a ring with  $+_6$  &  $\times_6$