

Solution. We have

$$\sigma^2 = (12345)(12345) = (13524),$$

$$\sigma^3 = \sigma^2 \cdot \sigma = (13524)(12345) = (14253),$$

$$\sigma^4 = \sigma^3 \cdot \sigma = (14253)(12345) = (15432),$$

$$\sigma^5 = \sigma^4 \cdot \sigma = (15432)(12345) = I.$$

EXERCISES

1. Express the following as a product of disjoint cycles :

$$(i) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 3 & 2 & 5 & 7 & 1 & 6 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(ii) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 & 11 \\ 3 & 9 & 5 & 4 & 7 & 8 & 1 & 6 & 11 & 2 & 10 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(iii) (1325)(143)(251), \quad (iv) (1432)(241)(135).$$

2. Compute $a^{-1}ba$, where

$$(i) a = (134), b = (2354).$$

$$(ii) a = (135)(12), b = (1579).$$

3. Determine which of the following are even or odd permutations :

$$(i) (123)(12)$$

$$(ii) (123)(1456)$$

$$(iii) (123)(45)(16789)(15)$$

$$(iv) (123)(2345)(23).$$

4. Given that $f = (1325)(143)(251)$, express f as a product of disjoint cycles. Also, find the inverse of f and write it as a product of disjoint cycles.

5. Let $\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 & - & - & 7 & 8 & 9 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$ be an even permutation. Find $\sigma(4)$ and $\sigma(5)$.

[Hint. $\sigma = (132)(4x)(5y)(6789)$

$$= (\underline{12})(\underline{13})(\underline{4x})(\underline{5y})(69)(68)(67).$$

If $x = 4, y = 5$; then $\sigma = (12)(13)(69)(68)(67)$ is an odd permutation, which is contrary to the given hypothesis.

If $x = 5, y = 4$; then

$$\sigma = (12)(13)(45)(69)(68)(67), \text{ which is even.}$$

Hence $\sigma(4) = 5$ and $\sigma(5) = 4$.]

6. If $f = (12)$, $g = (123)$, $h = (1234)$; show that

$$f^2 = g^3 = h^4 = I \text{ (identity permutation).}$$

7. Find the cycle structure of all the powers of $(1 2 3 \dots 8)$.

[Hint. Similar to Example 2.5.6.]

8. Find all the transpositions in S_5 . How many they are ?

[Hint. Number of 2-cycles in $S_5 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{5!}{(5-2)!} = 10$.]

9. Prove that there is no permutation a such that
 $a^{-1}(123)a = (13)(578).$

[Hint. R.H.S. = (13)(58)(57) is an odd permutation.
L.H.S. = $a^{-1}(13)(12)a$ is always an even permutation for all $a \in S_n$.]

10. If $f \in S_n$ is expressible as a product of disjoint cycles : $f = \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \dots \sigma_k$, where $\text{o}(\sigma_i) = m_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$; show that

$$\text{o}(f) = \text{l.c.m. of } m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k.$$

Theorem 2.5.3. Show that the set A_n of all even permutations of S_n is a normal subgroup of S_n and $\text{o}(A_n) = \frac{1}{2} n !$. [D.U., 1997]

Proof. We know $\text{o}(S_n) = n !$ and A_n is the subset of S_n consisting of all even permutations. First of all we show that A_n is a subgroup of S_n . Clearly, A_n is non-empty, since the identity permutation I is an even permutation i.e., $I \in A_n$. Let $f, g \in A_n$ so that f and g are even permutations. Since the product of two even permutations is even, $fog \in A_n$. Consequently, A_n is a subgroup of S_n (since S_n is finite). Let $W = \{1, -1\}$ be the group under multiplication. Define

$\psi : S_n \rightarrow W$ as follows :

$$\psi(f) = 1, \text{ if } f \text{ is an even permutation} \quad \dots(1)$$

$$= -1, \text{ if } f \text{ is an odd permutation.} \quad \dots(2)$$

We shall prove that ψ is a homomorphism. Let $f, g \in S_n$ be arbitrary.

Case I. Let f, g be both even permutations.

Then $\psi(f) = \psi(g) = 1$, by (1).

Since fog is even, so by (1)

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(fog) &= 1 \\ &= 1 \cdot 1 = \psi(f)\psi(g). \end{aligned}$$

Case II. Let f, g be both odd permutations.

Then $\psi(f) = \psi(g) = -1$, by (2).

Since the product of two odd permutations is even, so by (1)

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(fog) &= 1 \\ &= (-1)(-1) = \psi(f)\psi(g). \end{aligned}$$

Case III. Let f be even and g be odd.

Then $\psi(f) = 1$ and $\psi(g) = -1$.

Since fog is odd, $\psi(fog) = -1$, by (2)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Similarly, } \psi(fog) &= 1 \times -1 = \psi(f)\psi(g). \\ \text{where } f \text{ is odd and } g \text{ is even.} \quad \psi(fog) &= \psi(f)\psi(g), \end{aligned}$$

In any case, ψ is a homomorphism.

Obviously, ψ is onto, since S_n must contain both even and odd permutations ($n \geq 2$). By Fundamental theorem of homomorphism,

$$\frac{S_n}{\text{Ker } \psi} \cong W; \quad \dots(3)$$

where

$$\text{Ker } \psi = \{f \in S_n : \psi(f) = 1\}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } f \in \text{Ker } \psi &\Leftrightarrow \psi(f) = 1 \\ &\Leftrightarrow f \text{ is an even permutation} \\ &\Leftrightarrow f \in A_n. \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \text{Ker } \psi = A_n. \quad \dots(4)$$

Since $\text{Ker } \psi$ is a normal subgroup of S_n , $A_n \triangleleft S_n$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{From (3) and (4), } \frac{S_n}{A_n} &\cong W \\ \Rightarrow o(W) &= o\left(\frac{S_n}{A_n}\right) \quad \text{or} \quad 2 = \frac{o(S_n)}{o(A_n)} = \frac{n!}{o(A_n)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Hence } o(A_n) = \frac{n!}{2} = \frac{1}{2} o(S_n). \quad \dots(5)$$

Ex. 1. Show that the multiplicative group $W = \{1, -1\}$ is a homomorphic image of S_n . Hence show that the set A_n of all even permutations of S_n is a normal subgroup of S_n . [D.U., 1997]

Ex. 2. Define an even permutation on a finite set. Show that there are exactly half even permutations on a finite set S which forms a normal subgroup of the group of permutations on S . [D.U., 1998]

[Hint. Let $o(S) = n$ so that $o(S_n) = n!$. Let A_n be the set of all even permutations on S . As shown above, $A_n \triangleleft S_n$ and $o(A_n) = \frac{1}{2} o(S_n)$

i.e., A_n contains exactly half even permutations of S_n]

EXAMPLES

Example 2.5.7. If A_3 be the subgroup of S_3 consisting of all even permutations, show that $A_3 \triangleleft S_3$ and $o(A_3) = \frac{1}{2} o(S_3)$. Further show that S_3/A_3 is cyclic.

Solution. We have

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

Then $A_3 = \{I, (123), (132)\}$ and

$$i(A_3) = o\left(\frac{S_3}{A_3}\right) = \frac{o(S_3)}{o(A_3)} = \frac{6}{3} = 2.$$

Since $i(A_3) = 2$, $A_3 \triangleleft S_3$ and $o(A_3) = \frac{1}{2} o(S_3)$.

- 132

Further $\frac{S_3}{A_3} = \{A_3, A_3(12)\}$,

where $[A_3(12)]^2 = A_3(12)A_3(12)$
 $= A_3(12)(12)$, as $A_3 \triangleleft S_3$
 $= A_3 I$ [$\because (12)(12) = I$]
 $= A_3$.

Hence $\frac{S_3}{A_3}$ is a cyclic group generated by $A_3(12)$.

Example 2.5.8. Show that :

(i) Every homomorphic image of an abelian group is abelian.

(ii) Every homomorphic image of a cyclic group is cyclic.

Show by means of an example that the converse of each of the above results is not true.

Solution. See Example 2.2.7 for parts (i) and (ii).

(iii) The mapping $\phi: S_3 \rightarrow \frac{S_3}{A_3}$ defined by

$$\phi(f) = A_3 f \quad \forall f \in S_3$$

is an onto homomorphism (Recall $\phi: G \rightarrow G/N$ defined by $\phi(g) = Ng$ is an onto homomorphism).

Hence S_3/A_3 is a homomorphic image of S_3 , but S_3/A_3 is not cyclic (not abelian) where S_3/A_3 is cyclic (abelian). [Example 2.5.7]

Note. From Section 1.16 of Chapter 1, we recall that

If S is a non-empty subset of a group G , then the smallest subgroup of G containing S is called the subgroup generated by S . It is denoted by $\langle S \rangle$. Further

$$\alpha \in \langle S \rangle \Leftrightarrow \alpha = s_1 s_2 \dots s_n ; s_i \in S \text{ and } n \text{ is a positive integer.}$$

This definition will be used in the following problems.

Example 2.5.9. Show that for $n \geq 3$, the subgroup generated by 3-cycles is A_n .

Solution. We know A_n is the subgroup of S_n consisting of all even permutations defined on the set $S = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. Let H be a subgroup of S_n generated by 3-cycles. We shall show that

$$H = A_n.$$

Let $f \in H$ be arbitrary. Then

$$f = \theta_1 \theta_2 \dots \theta_l, \text{ where each } \theta_i \text{ is a 3-cycle. [See the above Note]}$$

Since any 3-cycle $(a_1 a_2 a_3)$ is an even permutation and since the product of two even permutations is even, it follows that f is an even permutation i.e. $f \in A_n$ for each $f \in H$.

$$\therefore H \subseteq A_n.$$

Conversely, let $f \in A_n$ be arbitrary. By definition, f is expressible as a product of even number of transpositions and each transposition $(\alpha \beta)$ where $\alpha \neq 1, \beta \neq 1$ can be expressed as $(1 \alpha) (1 \beta) (1 \alpha)$. Thus $f \in A_n$ is of the form :

$$f = (1 \alpha_1) (1 \alpha_2) \dots (1 \alpha_{k-1}) (1 \alpha_k); \text{ where } k \text{ is even and } \alpha_i \in \{2, 3, \dots, n\}$$

or $f = (1 \alpha_2 \alpha_1) \dots (1 \alpha_k \alpha_{k-1})$.

It follows that f is a product of finite number of 3-cycles. Thus $f \in H$ and so $A_n \subseteq H$.

$$\therefore \text{Hence } A_n = H.$$

Example 2.5.10. Show that every element of A_n is a product of 3-cycles.

Hint. See the converse part of Example 2.5.9.

Example 2.5.11. Prove that the alternating group A_n ($n \geq 3$) may be generated by $(n-2)$, 3-cycles of the form

$$(123), (124), \dots, (12n). \quad [\text{D.U., 1993}]$$

Solution. Let K be a subgroup (of S_n) generated by 3-cycles of the form :

$$(123), (124), \dots, (12n). \quad \dots(1)$$

We have to show that $K = A_n$.

Let $f \in K$ be arbitrary. Then

$$f = \theta_1 \theta_2 \dots \theta_l \text{ where each } \theta_i \text{ is a 3-cycle of the form given in (1).}$$

Since each 3-cycle is an even permutation, so each θ_i is an even permutation. Thus f is an even permutation (since the product of two even permutations is even). It follows that

$$f \in A_n \text{ for each } f \in K \text{ i.e., } K \subseteq A_n.$$

Conversely, let $f \in A_n$ be arbitrary. Then f is expressible as a product of even number of transpositions and each transposition $(\alpha \beta)$ where $\alpha \neq 1, \beta \neq 1$ can be expressed as $(1 \alpha) (1 \beta) (1 \alpha)$. Hence each $f \in A_n$ is expressible as the product of even number of transpositions from the set

$$T = \{(12), (13), \dots, (1n)\}.$$

Let $(1 \alpha), (1 \beta) \in T$ be arbitrary.

$$\text{If } \beta = 2, \text{ then } (1 \alpha)(1 \beta) = (1 \beta \alpha) = (12 \alpha) \in K.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{If } \beta \neq 2, \text{ then } (1 \alpha)(1 \beta) &= (1 \alpha)(12)(2 \beta)(12) \\ &= (12 \alpha)(1 \beta 2) \end{aligned}$$

$$= (12 \alpha)(12 \beta)^{-1} \in K \text{ for each pair } (1 \alpha), (1 \beta) \in T.$$

$$\therefore (1 \alpha)(1 \beta) \in K.$$

It follows that $f \in K \forall f \in A_n$. i.e., $A_n \subseteq K$.

$$\text{Hence } K = A_n.$$

Example 2.5.12. Prove the following:

(i) Every permutation f in S_n ($n > 1$) is expressible as a product of transpositions $(12), (13), \dots, (1n)$.

(ii) Every permutation f in S_n ($n > 1$) is expressible as a product $(12), (23), (34), \dots, (n-1, n)$.

Solution. (i) Let $f \in S_n$ be arbitrary. Then f is expressible as a product of transpositions. Further any transposition (ab) can be expressed as $(ab) = (1a)(1b)(1a)$.

It follows that $f \in S_n$ is expressible as a product of transpositions of the form $(1x)$, $x \in \{2, 3, \dots, n\}$.

(ii) Let H be the subgroup of S_n generated by the transpositions $(12), (23), (34), \dots, (n-1, n)$.

We have

$$\begin{aligned} (12) &= (12) \in H, \\ (13) &= (12)(23)(12) \in H, \\ (14) &= (13)(34)(13) \in H, \\ \hline (1n) &= (1, n-1)(n-1, n)(1, n-1) \in H. \end{aligned} \quad \left. \right\} \dots(1)$$

Let $f \in S_n$ be arbitrary. Then f is expressible as a product of transpositions. Consider any transposition (ab) . If a or b is 1, then $(1b) = (1a) \in H$ [Using (1)]. If $a \neq 1$ and $b \neq 1$, then

$$(ab) = (1a)(1b)(1a) \in H, \text{ using (1).}$$

It follows that $f \in H \forall f \in S_n$ and so $S_n \subseteq H$.

Hence $f \in S_n \Rightarrow f \in H \Rightarrow f$ is expressible as a product of $(12), (23), (34), \dots, (n-1, n)$.

It may, however, be noted that

$$S_n = H, \text{ since } H < S_n.$$

Example 2.5.13. Prove that the permutation group S_n ($n \geq 2$) is generated by $n-1$ transpositions

$$(12), (23), (34), \dots, (n-1, n).$$

[D.U., 1996]

Solution. See part (ii) of Example 2.5.12.

Example 2.5.14. Show that the permutations (12) and $(123\dots n)$ generate the permutation group S_n .

[D.U., 1995, 94]

Or

Show that the smallest subgroup of S_n containing (12) and $(123\dots n)$ is S_n .

Solution. Let H be the subgroup of S_n generated by (12) and $(123\dots n)$. Let $f \in S_n$ be arbitrary. Then f can be expressed as the product of transpositions. Further any transposition (ab) is expressible as

$$(ab) = (1a)(1b)(1a).$$

Thus each $f \in S_n$ is expressible as a product of transpositions of the form $(1n)$ (1)

Clearly,

$$(1n) = (n, n-1, \dots, 3 2 1) (12) (1 2 3 \dots n) \in H.$$

It follows that

$$(n, n-1) = (n, n-1, \dots, 3 2 1) (1n) (1 2 3 \dots n) \in H;$$

$$(n-1, n-2) = (n, n-1, \dots, 3 2 1) (n, n-1) (123 \dots n) \in H;$$

and so on. Proceeding likewise, we obtain

$$(n-2, n-3), \dots, (43), (32) \in H. \text{ Consequently}$$

$$(12) = (12) \in H$$

$$(13) = (12)(23)(12) \in H$$

$$(14) = (13)(34)(13) \in H$$

$$(1n) \in H.$$

Using these results in (1), it follows that $f \in H \forall f \in S_n$. So $S_n \subseteq H$. Obviously, $H \subseteq S_n$. Hence $S_n = H$.

Example 2.5.15. Let H be a subgroup of S_n ($n \geq 2$). If H contains an odd permutation, show that the set of all even permutations in H forms a normal subgroup of H of index 2.

Solution. Consider the multiplicative group $W = \{1, -1\}$. Define a mapping $\psi : H \rightarrow W$ as

$$\psi(f) = 1, \text{ if } f \text{ is an even permutation in } H$$

$$= -1, \text{ if } f \text{ is an odd permutation in } H.$$

As shown in Theorem 2.5.3, ψ is a homomorphism. Since H contains an odd permutation and, of course, even permutations; ψ is onto. By Fundamental theorem of homomorphism,

$$\frac{H}{\text{Ker } \psi} \cong W, \quad \dots (1)$$

where $\text{Ker } \psi = \{f \in H : \psi(f) = 1\}$.

$$\therefore f \in \text{Ker } \psi \Leftrightarrow \psi(f) = 1 \Leftrightarrow f \text{ is an even permutation in } H.$$

Thus $\text{Ker } \psi = A_H$ (the set of all even permutations in H).

$$\text{Putting in (1), } \frac{H}{A_H} \cong W. \quad \dots (2)$$

Since $\text{Ker } \psi \triangleleft H$, $A_H \triangleleft H$ and further by (2),

$$i(A_H) = o\left(\frac{H}{A_H}\right) = o(W) = 2.$$

Example 2.5.16. Let H be a subgroup of S_n ($n \geq 2$). Show that either all permutations in H are even or exactly half are even.

Solution. Refer to Example 2.5.15. It is clear that H cannot contain all odd permutations, since identity permutation is H is even. If H contains all even permutations, the first part of the problem is proved. Suppose now H contains an odd permutation, then by Example 2.5.15,

$$\frac{H}{A_H} = W,$$

where A_H is the normal subgroup of even permutations of H .

From (1), we have

$$\begin{aligned} o\left(\frac{H}{A_H}\right) &= \frac{o(H)}{o(A_H)} = o(W) = 2 \\ \Rightarrow o(A_H) &= \frac{1}{2} o(H). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, in H , exactly half permutations are even.

Example 2.5.17. Show that A_4 has no subgroup of order 6.

Solution. By definition, A_4 is the set of all even permutations defined on the set $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. By Theorem 2.5.3,

$$A_4 \subset S_4 \text{ and } o(A_4) = \frac{1}{2} o(S_4) = \frac{4!}{2} = 12.$$

We know that any 3-cycle is even. [$\because (abc) = (bc)(ca)$]

Consequently, all 3-cycles of S_4 belong to A_4 . We know that the number of distinct r -cycles ($r \leq n$) in S_n is $\frac{1}{r} \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$ [See Example 2.5.3]

Thus the number of distinct 3-cycles in S_4 (and hence in A_4) is

$$= \frac{1}{3} \frac{4!}{(4-3)!} = 8.$$

Suppose, on the contrary, A_4 has a subgroup (say H) of order 6 i.e., $H \subset A_4$ and $o(H) = 6$. Since there are 8 distinct 3-cycles in A_4 and $o(H) = 6$, all 3-cycles of A_4 cannot belong to H . Let σ be a 3-cycle of A_4 such that $\sigma \in H$. As $o(\sigma) = 3$, $K = \{\sigma, \sigma^2, \sigma^3 = I\}$ is a subgroup of A_4 and $o(K) = 3$.

Since $\sigma^3 = I, \sigma^2 = \sigma^{-1} \notin H$

($\because \sigma^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow \sigma \in H$, which is a contradiction)

Thus $H \cap K = \{I\}$ ($\because \sigma \in H$ and $\sigma^2 \notin H$)

$$o(HK) = \frac{o(H)o(K)}{o(H \cap K)} = \frac{6 \times 3}{1} = 18.$$

This is impossible, since $HK \subseteq A_4$ and $o(A_4) = 12$. Hence A_4 has no subgroup of order 6.

Solution. Refer to Example 2.5.15. It is clear that H cannot contain only odd permutations, since identity permutation in H is even. If H contains all even permutations, the first part of the problem is proved. Suppose now H contains an odd permutation, then by Example 2.5.15,

$$\frac{H}{A_H} \cong W, \quad \dots(1)$$

where A_H is the normal subgroup of even permutations of H .

From (1), we have

$$\begin{aligned} o\left(\frac{H}{A_H}\right) &= \frac{o(H)}{o(A_H)} = o(W) = 2 \\ \Rightarrow o(A_H) &= \frac{1}{2} o(H). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, in H , exactly half permutations are even.

Example 2.5.17. Show that A_4 has no subgroup of order 6.

Solution. By definition, A_4 is the set of all even permutations defined on the set $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. By Theorem 2.5.3,

$$A_4 \triangleleft S_4 \text{ and } o(A_4) = \frac{1}{2} o(S_4) = \frac{4!}{2} = 12.$$

We know that any 3-cycle is even. $[\because (abc) = (bc)(ca)]$

Consequently, all 3-cycles of S_4 belong to A_4 . We know that the number of distinct r -cycles ($r \leq n$) in $S_n = \frac{1}{r(n-r)!} n!$ [See Example 2.5.3]

Thus the number of distinct 3-cycles in S_4 (and hence in A_4) is

$$= \frac{1}{3} \frac{4!}{(4-3)!} = 8.$$

Suppose, on the contrary, A_4 has a subgroup (say H) of order 6 i.e., $H < A_4$ and $o(H) = 6$. Since there are 8 distinct 3-cycles in A_4 and $o(H) = 6$, all 3-cycles of A_4 cannot belong to H . Let σ be a 3-cycle of A_4 such that $\sigma \notin H$. As $o(\sigma) = 3$, $K = \{\sigma, \sigma^2, \sigma^3 = I\}$ is a subgroup of A_4 and $o(K) = 3$.

Since $\sigma^3 = I, \sigma^2 = \sigma^{-1} \notin H$

$(\because \sigma^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow \sigma \in H, \text{ which is a contradiction})$

$$\text{Thus } H \cap K = \{I\} \quad (\because \sigma \notin H \text{ and } \sigma^2 \notin H)$$

$$o(HK) = \frac{o(H)o(K)}{o(H \cap K)} = \frac{6 \times 3}{1} = 18.$$

This is impossible, since $HK \subseteq A_4$ and $o(A_4) = 12$. Hence A_4 has no subgroup of order 6.

AUTOMORPHISMS AND CONJUGATE ELEMENTS

In this chapter we discuss Automorphisms of a group, Conjugate elements, Conjugate classes, Class equation of a finite group and its applications, Cauchy's Theorem, Similar and Conjugate permutations etc.

3.1 Automorphism

Definition. An isomorphism of a group G onto itself is called an automorphism of G .

In other words, a mapping $f: G \rightarrow G$ is an automorphism, if f is a homomorphism, one-to-one and onto.

Illustrations.

1. The identity mapping $I: G \rightarrow G$ defined as $I(x) = x$ for all $x \in G$ is an automorphism. I is called a trivial automorphism.
2. The mapping $f: (\mathbb{Z}, +) \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}, +)$ defined as $f(x) = -x$ is an automorphism. Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} f(x+y) &= -(x+y) = (-x) + (-y) = f(x) + f(y) \Rightarrow f \text{ is a homomorphism} \\ f(x) = f(y) &\Rightarrow -x = -y \Rightarrow x = y \Rightarrow f \text{ is one-to-one.} \\ \text{For any } x \in \mathbb{Z}, x = -(-x) &\Rightarrow x = f(-x), -x \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow f \text{ is onto.} \\ \text{Thus } f &\text{ is an automorphism of } \mathbb{Z}. \end{aligned}$$
3. The mapping $f: (\mathbb{R}^+, \cdot) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}^+, \cdot)$ defined as $f(x) = x^2$ is an automorphism.
Here (\mathbb{R}^+, \cdot) denotes the group of positive real numbers under multiplication.
4. Let $G = \langle a \rangle$, $a^{12} = e$. The mapping $f: G \rightarrow G$ defined as $f(x) = x^3$ for all $x \in G$ is not an automorphism, since f is not one-to-one. Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} a^3 &\neq a^5, \quad a \neq a^5 \quad \text{but} \quad f(a) = f(a^5) = a^3. \\ \text{Indeed } f(a^5) &= a^{15} = a^{12} \cdot a^3 = e \cdot a^3 = a^3. \end{aligned}$$

Notation. The set of all automorphisms of a group G is denoted by $\text{Aut}(G)$.

Recall that $A(G)$ is the group of all one-to-one mappings of G onto itself. Thus

$$\text{Aut}(G) \subseteq A(G).$$

It will help to remember that

$$T \in \text{Aut}(G) \Leftrightarrow T: G \rightarrow G \text{ is a homo. ; } I = T \text{ and onto.}$$

3

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In this chapter we discuss Automorphisms of a group, Conjugate elements, Conjugate classes, Class equation of a finite group and its applications, Cauchy's Theorem, Similar and Conjugate permutations in S_n .

3.1 Automorphism

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Illustrations

1. The identity mapping $I: G \rightarrow G$ defined as $I(x) = x$ for all $x \in G$ is an automorphism. I is called a *trivial automorphism*. 164

2. The mapping $f: (\mathbb{Z}, +) \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}, +)$ defined as $f(x) = -x$ is an automorphism. Notice that 125

$$f(x+y) = -(x+y) = (-x) + (-y) = f(x) + f(y) \Rightarrow f \text{ is a homomorphism}; \\ f(x) = f(y) \Rightarrow -x = -y \Rightarrow x = y \Rightarrow f \text{ is one-to-one}.$$

For any $x \in \mathbb{Z}$, $x = -(-x) \Rightarrow x = f(-x)$, $-x \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow f$ is onto.

Thus f is an automorphism of \mathbb{Z} . 1(a) = f(0)

3. The mapping $f: (\mathbb{R}^+, \cdot) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}^+, \cdot)$ defined as $f(x) = x^2$ is an automorphism. 126

Here (\mathbb{R}^+, \cdot) denotes the group of positive real numbers under multiplication. 1(b) = f(1)

4. Let $G = \langle a \rangle$, $a^{12} = e$. The mapping $f: G \rightarrow G$ defined as $f(x) = x^3$ for all $x \in G$ is not an automorphism, since f is not one-to-one. Notice that 1(c) = 3

$$a^3 \circ a^7 = e, a \neq a^7 \text{ but } f(a) = f(a^7) = a^3.$$

$$a^7 \text{ [Indeed } f(a^7) = a^{15} = a^{12} \cdot a^3 = e \cdot a^3 = a^3]$$

Notation. The set of all automorphisms of a group G is denoted by 1(d) = 3

$$\text{Aut}(G).$$

Recall that $A(G)$ is the group of all one-to-one mappings of G onto itself. Thus

$$\text{Aut}(G) \subseteq A(G).$$

It will help to remember that

$$T \in \text{Aut}(G) \Leftrightarrow T: G \rightarrow G \text{ is a homo. ; 1-1 and onto.}$$

3

AUTOMORPHISMS AND CONJUGATE ELEMENTS

In this chapter we discuss *Automorphisms of a group*, *Conjugate elements*, *Conjugate classes*, *Class equation of a finite group and its applications*, *Cauchy's Theorem*, *Similar and Conjugate permutations in S_n* .

3.1 Automorphism

Definition. An isomorphism of a group G onto itself is called an automorphism of G .

In other words, a mapping $f: G \rightarrow G$ is an automorphism, if f is a homomorphism, one-to-one and onto.

Illustrations.

1. The identity mapping $I: G \rightarrow G$ defined as $I(x) = x$ for all $x \in G$ is an automorphism. I is called a *trivial automorphism*. $\frac{1}{2} | 64 |$
2. The mapping $f: (\mathbf{Z}, +) \rightarrow (\mathbf{Z}, +)$ defined as $f(x) = -x$ is an automorphism. Notice that $\frac{1}{2} | 5$
 $f(x+y) = -(x+y) = (-x) + (-y) = f(x) + f(y) \Rightarrow f$ is a homomorphism;
 $f(x) = f(y) \Rightarrow -x = -y \Rightarrow x = y \Rightarrow f$ is one-to-one.
For any $x \in \mathbf{Z}$, $x = -(-x) \Rightarrow x = f(-x)$, $-x \in \mathbf{Z} \Rightarrow f$ is onto.
Thus f is an automorphism of \mathbf{Z} . $\frac{2(a)}{a^3} = \frac{f(a^5)}{a^3}$
3. The mapping $f: (\mathbf{R}^+, \cdot) \rightarrow (\mathbf{R}^+, \cdot)$ defined as $f(x) = x^2$ is an automorphism. $a + b$
Here (\mathbf{R}^+, \cdot) denotes the group of positive real numbers under multiplication. $\frac{b}{f(a)} = \frac{f(b)}{f(a)}$
4. Let $G = \langle a \rangle$, $a^{12} = e$. The mapping $f: G \rightarrow G$ defined as $f(x) = x^3$ for all $x \in G$ is not an automorphism, since f is not one-to-one. Notice that $\frac{a^3}{f(a^5)} = \frac{a^3}{a^3}$
 $a^3 \neq a^5$, but $f(a) = f(a^5) = a^3$.
Indeed $f(a^5) = a^{15} = a^{12} \cdot a^3 = e \cdot a^3 = a^3$

Notation. The set of all automorphisms of a group G is denoted by $\text{Aut}(G)$.

Recall that $\text{A}(G)$ is the group of all one-to-one mappings of G onto itself. Thus

$$\text{Aut}(G) \subseteq \text{A}(G).$$

It will help to remember that

$$T \in \text{Aut}(G) \Leftrightarrow T: G \rightarrow G \text{ is a homo. ; } T = I \text{ and onto.}$$

3.3. Theorem on Automorphism

Theorem 3.3.1. If $T \in \text{Aut}(G)$, then

(i) $T(e) = e$

(ii) $T(a^{-1}) = b^{-1}$, where $a, b \in G$ if $b = T(a) \Rightarrow b^{-1} = T(a^{-1})$.

Proof. (i) By Theorem 3.2.1 (i) $T(e) = T(e^T) = T(e)^T$. Hence, since

$$T(e) = e^T$$

Hence $T(e) = e$ is a homomorphism. (ii)

$$T(e) = e \Rightarrow (T(e))^n = e^n (n \in \mathbb{N})$$

(iii) Let $\sigma(a) = n$ so that n is the least positive integer such that

$$a^n = e$$

Now

$$a^n = e \Rightarrow T(a^n) = T(e)$$

$$T(a^n) = T(a) \dots T(a)$$

$\Rightarrow (T(a))^n = e$, since T is a homomorphism
n times

$$(T(a))^n = e$$

We shall prove that n is the least positive integer satisfying (i). If possible, $(T(a))^m = e$ for some positive integer m , $0 < m < n$. Then

$$T(a^m) = T(e), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

$\Rightarrow a^m = e, 0 < m < n$; since T is one-to-one.
This contradicts (i).

Hence $\sigma(T(a)) = n = \sigma(a)$.

Theorem 3.2.2. Show that $\text{Aut}(G)$ is a subgroup of $A(G)$.

Proof. Let $T_1, T_2 \in \text{Aut}(G)$. Then each of T_1 and T_2 is a homomorphism, one-to-one mapping of G onto G . Consequently,

$$T_1 \circ T_2 : G \rightarrow G \text{ is one-to-one and onto.}$$

Now we show that $T_1 \circ T_2$ is a homomorphism.

Let $a, b \in G$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} (T_1 \circ T_2)(ab) &= T_1[T_2(ab)], \text{ by definition of } \circ \\ &= T_1[T_2(a)T_2(b)], \text{ since } T_2 \text{ is a homo.} \\ &= T_1(T_2(a))T_1(T_2(b)), \text{ since } T_1 \text{ is a homo.} \\ &\quad \text{and } T_2(a), T_2(b) \in G \\ &= (T_1 \circ T_2)(a)(T_1 \circ T_2)(b). \end{aligned}$$

Thus $T_1 \circ T_2$ is a homomorphism and so

$$T_1 \circ T_2 \in \text{Aut}(G) \text{ for all } T_1, T_2 \in \text{Aut}(G).$$

Finally, we show that

$$T \in \text{Aut}(G) \Rightarrow T^{-1} \text{Aut}(G).$$

3.2 Theorems on Automorphisms

Theorem 3.2.1. If $T \in \text{Aut}(G)$, then

- (i) $T(e) = e$.
- (ii) $\sigma(T(a)) = \sigma(a)$, where $a \in G$ is of order $\sigma(a) > 0$.

Proof. (i) By Theorem 2.2.1 (Chapter 2), if $f: G \rightarrow G'$ is a homomorphism, then

$$f(e) = e'.$$

Here $T: G \rightarrow G$ is a homomorphism, so

$$T(e) = e. \quad (\because e' = e \text{ in } G)$$

(ii) Let $\sigma(a) = n$ so that n is the least positive integer such that

$$a^n = e.$$

$$\text{Now } a^n = e \Rightarrow T(a^n) = T(e)$$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{T(a) \cdot T(a) \dots T(a)}_{n \text{ times}} = e, \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

$$\Rightarrow \{T(a)\}^n = e.$$

We shall prove that n is the least positive integer satisfying (2). If possible, $\{T(a)\}^m = e$ for some positive integer m , $0 < m < n$. Then

$$T(a^m) = T(e), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

$$\Rightarrow a^m = e, 0 < m < n; \text{ since } T \text{ is one-to-one}$$

This contradicts (1).

$$\text{Hence } \sigma(T(a)) = n = \sigma(a).$$

Theorem 3.2.2. Show that $\text{Aut}(G)$ is a subgroup of $A(G)$.

Proof. Let $T_1, T_2 \in \text{Aut}(G)$. Then each of T_1 and T_2 is a homomorphism, one-to-one mapping of G onto G . Consequently,

$T_1 \circ T_2: G \rightarrow G$ is one-to-one and onto.

Now we show that $T_1 \circ T_2$ is a homomorphism.

Let $a, b \in G$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} (T_1 \circ T_2)(ab) &= T_1[T_2(ab)], \text{ by definition of } \circ \\ &= T_1[T_2(a)T_2(b)], \text{ since } T_2 \text{ is a homo.} \\ &= T_1(T_2(a))T_1(T_2(b)), \text{ since } T_1 \text{ is a homo.} \\ &\quad \text{and } T_2(a), T_2(b) \in G \\ &= (T_1 \circ T_2)(a)(T_1 \circ T_2)(b). \end{aligned}$$

Thus $T_1 \circ T_2$ is a homomorphism and so

$T_1 \circ T_2 \in \text{Aut}(G)$ for all $T_1, T_2 \in \text{Aut}(G)$.

Finally, we show that

$$T \in \text{Aut}(G) \Rightarrow T^{-1} \in \text{Aut}(G).$$

3.2 Theorems on Automorphisms

Theorem 3.2.1. If $T \in \text{Aut}(G)$, then

$$(i) \quad T(e) = e.$$

(ii) $\text{o}(T(a)) = \text{o}(a)$, where $a \in G$ is of order $\text{o}(a) > 0$.

Proof. (i) By Theorem 2.2.1 (Chapter 2), if $f: G \rightarrow G'$ is a homomorphism, then

$$f(e) = e'.$$

Here $T: G \rightarrow G$ is a homomorphism, so

$$T(e) = e. \quad (\because e' = e \text{ in } G)$$

(ii) Let $\text{o}(a) = n$ so that n is the least positive integer such that

$$a^n = e.$$

$$a^n = e \Rightarrow T(a^n) = T(e)$$

Now

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{T(a) \cdot T(a) \dots T(a)}_{n \text{ times}} = e, \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

$$\Rightarrow \{T(a)\}^n = e.$$

We shall prove that n is the least positive integer satisfying (2). If possible, $\{T(a)\}^m = e$ for some positive integer m , $0 < m < n$. Then

$$T(a^m) = T(e), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

$$\Rightarrow a^m = e, 0 < m < n; \text{ since } T \text{ is one-to-one.}$$

This contradicts (1).

$$\text{Hence } \text{o}\{T(a)\} = n = \text{o}(a).$$

Theorem 3.2.2. Show that $\text{Aut}(G)$ is a subgroup of $A(G)$.

Proof. Let $T_1, T_2 \in \text{Aut}(G)$. Then each of T_1 and T_2 is a homomorphism, one-to-one mapping of G onto G . Consequently,

$T_1 \circ T_2 : G \rightarrow G$ is one-to-one and onto.

Now we show that $T_1 \circ T_2$ is a homomorphism.

Let $a, b \in G$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} (T_1 \circ T_2)(ab) &= T_1[T_2(ab)], \text{ by definition of } \circ \\ &= T_1[T_2(a) T_2(b)], \text{ since } T_2 \text{ is a homomorphism} \\ &= T_1(T_2(a)) T_1(T_2(b)), \text{ since } T_1 \text{ is a homomorphism} \\ &\quad \text{and } T_2(a), T_2(b) \in G \\ &= (T_1 \circ T_2)(a) (T_1 \circ T_2)(b). \end{aligned}$$

Thus $T_1 \circ T_2$ is a homomorphism and so

$T_1 \circ T_2 \in \text{Aut}(G)$ for all $T_1, T_2 \in \text{Aut}(G)$.

Finally, we show that

$$T \in \text{Aut}(G) \Rightarrow T^{-1} \in \text{Aut}(G).$$

Since $T : G \rightarrow G$ is one-to-one and onto, so $T^{-1} : G \rightarrow G$ is also one-to-one and onto. Now we show that T^{-1} is a homomorphism.

Let $a, b \in G$ be arbitrary. Since T is onto, there exist $a_1, b_1 \in G$ such that

$$\begin{aligned}
 & T(a_1) = a \text{ and } T(b_1) = b \\
 \Rightarrow & a_1 = T^{-1}(a) \text{ and } b_1 = T^{-1}(b). \\
 \text{Now} & ab = T(a_1)T(b_1) \\
 \Rightarrow & ab = T(a_1b_1), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism} \\
 \Rightarrow & T^{-1}(ab) = a_1b_1 \\
 \Rightarrow & T^{-1}(ab) = T^{-1}(a)T^{-1}(b) \\
 \Rightarrow & T^{-1} \text{ is a homomorphism} \\
 \Rightarrow & T^{-1} \in \text{Aut}(G) \text{ for all } T \in \text{Aut}(G). \quad \dots(2)
 \end{aligned}$$

From (1) and (2), it follows that $\text{Aut}(G)$ is a subgroup of $A(G)$.

Remark. $\text{Aut}(G)$ is referred to as the group of automorphisms of G .

Theorem 3.2.3. If a be any fixed element of a group G , then the mapping $T_a : G \rightarrow G$ defined by $T_a(x) = axa^{-1}$ for all $x \in G$ is an automorphism of G .

Proof. Let x, y be any two arbitrary elements of G . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 T_a(xy) &= a(xy)a^{-1} \\
 &= (axa^{-1})(aya^{-1}) \quad (\because a^{-1}a = e) \\
 &= T_a(x)T_a(y).
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus T_a is a homomorphism.

Now $T_a(x) = T_a(y) \Rightarrow axa^{-1} = aya^{-1} \Rightarrow x = y$, by cancellation law in G .

Thus T_a is one-to-one.

Let $g \in G$ be arbitrary. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 g &= a(a^{-1}ga)a^{-1} \quad (\because aa^{-1} = e) \\
 &= ag_1a^{-1}, \text{ where } g_1 = a^{-1}ga \in G \\
 \Rightarrow & g = T_a(g_1), g_1 \in G \\
 \Rightarrow & T_a \text{ is onto.}
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence T_a is an automorphism of G .

Ex. Show that the mapping $T_a : G \rightarrow G$ defined by

$$T_a(x) = a^{-1}xa \quad \forall x \in G \text{ is an automorphism of } G.$$

Definition. (Inner Automorphism)

Let a be any element of a group G . The automorphism $T_a : G \rightarrow G$ defined by

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

is called an inner automorphism of G .

The set of all inner automorphisms of G is denoted by $I(G)$. Thus

$$I(G) = \{T_a : a \in G\}.$$

Theorem 3.2.4. For any group G , show that $I(G)$ is a normal subgroup of $\text{Aut}(G)$. [D.U., 1992, 9]

Proof. Firstly, we show that $I(G)$ is a subgroup of $\text{Aut}(G)$.

Let $T_a, T_b \in I(G)$. We proceed to show that

$$T_a \circ T_b = T_{ab}.$$

For any $x \in G$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (T_a \circ T_b)(x) &= T_a(T_b(x)) \\ &= T_a(b x b^{-1}) = a(b x b^{-1}) a^{-1} \\ &= (ab)x(ab)^{-1}, \text{ since } (ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1} \\ &= T_{ab}(x) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore T_a \circ T_b = T_{ab} \quad \forall a, b \in G. \quad \dots(1)$$

From (1), it follows that $T_a \circ T_b \in I(G)$.

Using (1), we see that

$$T_a \circ T_a^{-1} = T_{aa^{-1}} = T_e,$$

where

$$T_e(x) = e x e^{-1} = x = I(x), x \in G$$

$\Rightarrow T_e = I$ and so $T_a \circ T_a^{-1} = I$ implies that

$$(T_a)^{-1} = T_a^{-1} \quad \forall T_a \in I(G). \quad \dots(2)$$

From (2), it follows that $(T_a)^{-1} \in I(G)$ for each $T_a \in I(G)$. Hence $I(G)$ is a subgroup of $\text{Aut}(G)$. Now we prove that $I(G)$ is a normal subgroup of $\text{Aut}(G)$.

i.e., $T \circ T_a \circ T^{-1} \in I(G) \quad \forall T \in \text{Aut}(G)$ and $T_a \in I(G)$.

Let $x \in G$ be arbitrary. Then

$$\begin{aligned} (T \circ T_a \circ T^{-1})(x) &= (T \circ T_a)(T^{-1}(x)) \\ &= (T \circ T_a)(y), \text{ where } y = T^{-1}(x) \in G \\ &= T(T_a(y)) = T(a y a^{-1}) \\ &= T(a) T(y) T(a^{-1}), \text{ as } T \text{ is a homo.} \\ &= T(a) T(T^{-1}(x)) \{T(a)\}^{-1}, \text{ as } T \text{ is a homo.} \\ &= b(T \circ T^{-1})(x) b^{-1}, \text{ where } b = T(a) \in G \\ &= b I(x) b^{-1}, \text{ as } T \circ T^{-1} = I \\ &= b x b^{-1} = T_b(x) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore T \circ T_a \circ T^{-1} = T_b \in I(G). \quad (\because b \in G)$$

Hence $I(G)$ is a normal subgroup of $\text{Aut}(G)$.

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

is called an inner automorphism of G .

The set of all inner automorphisms of G is denoted by $I(G)$. Thus

$$I(G) = \{T_a : a \in G\}.$$

Theorem 3.2.4. For any group G , show that $I(G)$ is a normal subgroup of $\text{Aut}(G)$. [D.U., 1998, 93]

Proof. Firstly, we show that $I(G)$ is a subgroup of $\text{Aut}(G)$.

Let $T_a, T_b \in I(G)$. We proceed to show that

$$T_a \circ T_b = T_{ab}.$$

For any $x \in G$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (T_a \circ T_b)(x) &= T_a(T_b(x)) \\ &= T_a(b x b^{-1}) = a(b x b^{-1}) a^{-1} \\ &= (ab)x(ab)^{-1}, \text{ since } (ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1} \\ &= T_{ab}(x) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore T_a \circ T_b = T_{ab} \quad \forall a, b \in G. \quad \dots(1)$$

From (1), it follows that $T_a \circ T_b \in I(G)$.

Using (1), we see that

$$T_a \circ T_{a^{-1}} = T_{aa^{-1}} = T_e$$

where

$$T_e(x) = e x e^{-1} = x = I(x), \quad x \in G$$

$\Rightarrow T_e = I$ and so $T_a \circ T_{a^{-1}} = I$ implies that

$$(T_a)^{-1} = T_{a^{-1}} \quad \forall T_a \in I(G). \quad \dots(2)$$

From (2), it follows that $(T_a)^{-1} \in I(G)$ for each $T_a \in I(G)$. Hence $I(G)$ is a subgroup of $\text{Aut}(G)$. Now we prove that $I(G)$ is a normal subgroup of $\text{Aut}(G)$.

i.e., $T \circ T_a \circ T^{-1} \in I(G) \quad \forall T \in \text{Aut}(G)$ and $T_a \in I(G)$.

Let $x \in G$ be arbitrary. Then

$$\begin{aligned} (T \circ T_a \circ T^{-1})(x) &= (T \circ T_a)(T^{-1}(x)) \\ &= (T \circ T_a)(y), \text{ where } y = T^{-1}(x) \in G \\ &= T(T_a(y)) = T(a y a^{-1}) \\ &= T(a) T(y) T(a^{-1}), \text{ as } T \text{ is a homo.} \\ &= T(a) T(T^{-1}(x)) \{T(a)\}^{-1}, \text{ as } T \text{ is a homo.} \\ &= b(T \circ T^{-1})(x) b^{-1}, \text{ where } b = T(a) \in G \\ &= b I(x) b^{-1}, \text{ as } T \circ T^{-1} = I \\ &= b x b^{-1} = T_b(x) \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore T \circ T_a \circ T^{-1} = T_b \in I(G). \quad (\because b \in G)$

Hence $I(G)$ is a normal subgroup of $\text{Aut}(G)$.

Theorem 3.2.5. For any group G , prove that

$$I(G) \cong \frac{G}{Z},$$

where $I(G)$ is the group of inner automorphisms of G and Z is the centre of G . [D.U., 1998, 94]

Proof. We know that

$$Z = \{g \in G : gx = xg \ \forall x \in G\}, Z \triangleleft G$$

and $I(G) = \{T_a : a \in G\}$, where

$$T_a(x) = axa^{-1} \ \forall x \in G. \quad \dots(1)$$

We define a mapping

$$\Psi : \Psi : G \rightarrow I(G) \text{ as } \Psi(a) = T_a \ \forall a \in G. \quad \dots(2)$$

Let a, b be any two arbitrary elements of G . Then

$$\Psi(ab) = T_{ab}. \quad \dots(3)$$

For any $x \in G$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} T_{ab} &= abx(ab)^{-1}, \text{ by (1)} \\ &= abx b^{-1} a^{-1} \\ &= a y a^{-1}, \text{ where } y = b x b^{-1} \in G \\ &= T_a(y), \text{ by (1)} \\ &= T_a(T_b(x)), \text{ since } y = b x b^{-1} = T_b(x) \\ &= (T_a \circ T_b)(x). \end{aligned} \quad \dots(4)$$

$$\text{Thus } T_a \circ T_b = T_{ab} \ \forall a, b \in G.$$

From (3) and (4), we get

$$\Psi(ab) = T_a \circ T_b$$

or

$$\Psi(ab) = \Psi(a) \circ \Psi(b), \text{ by (2).}$$

Thus Ψ is a homomorphism. Obviously, Ψ is onto. Hence by Fundamental Theorem of Homomorphism,

$$\frac{G}{\text{Ker } \Psi} \cong I(G) \quad \text{or} \quad I(G) \cong \frac{G}{\text{Ker } \Psi}, \quad \dots(5)$$

Now $g \in \text{Ker } \Psi \Leftrightarrow \Psi(g) = I$, identity of $I(G)$

$$\begin{aligned} &\Leftrightarrow T_g = I, \text{ by (2)} \\ &\Leftrightarrow T_g(x) = x, \forall x \in G \\ &\Leftrightarrow g x g^{-1} = x, \forall x \in G \\ &\Leftrightarrow g x = xg, \forall x \in G \\ &\Leftrightarrow g \in Z. \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \text{Ker } \Psi = Z.$$

...(6)

From (5) and (6), we obtain

$$I(G) \cong \frac{G}{Z}.$$

EXAMPLES

Example 3.2.1. Show that $T: G \rightarrow G$ such that $T(x) = x^{-1}$ is an automorphism of G if and only if G is abelian.

Solution. Let T be an automorphism of G . Let $g_1, g_2 \in G$ be arbitrary.

As given,

$$T(g_1 g_2) = (g_1 g_2)^{-1}$$

$$T(g_1) T(g_2) = g_2^{-1} g_1^{-1}, \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

$$\Rightarrow g_1^{-1} g_2^{-1} = g_2^{-1} g_1^{-1}, \text{ as given}$$

$$\Rightarrow (g_1^{-1} g_2^{-1})^{-1} = (g_2^{-1} g_1^{-1})^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow (g_2^{-1})^{-1} (g_1^{-1})^{-1} = (g_1^{-1})^{-1} (g_2^{-1})^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow g_2 g_1 = g_1 g_2 \quad \forall g_1, g_2 \in G.$$

Hence G is abelian.

Conversely, let G be abelian. We shall prove

$$T: G \rightarrow G \text{ defined by } T(x) = x^{-1} \quad \forall x \in G$$

is an automorphism. Let $x, y \in G$. We have

$$T(xy) = (xy)^{-1} = y^{-1} x^{-1}$$

$$= x^{-1} y^{-1}, \text{ since } G \text{ is abelian}$$

$$= T(x) T(y)$$

Thus T is a homomorphism.

$$\text{Now } T(x) = T(y) \Rightarrow x^{-1} = y^{-1} \Rightarrow (x^{-1})^{-1} = (y^{-1})^{-1} \Rightarrow x = y.$$

Thus T is one-to-one.

For any $x \in G$, $x = (x^{-1})^{-1} = g^{-1}$, where $g = x^{-1} \in G$.

Thus $x = g^{-1} \Rightarrow x = T(g) \Rightarrow T$ is onto. Hence T is an automorphism of G .

Example 3.2.2. Let G be a finite abelian group of order n , and let m be a positive integer prime to n . Show that the mapping $\sigma: x \rightarrow x^m$ is an automorphism of G .

Solution. We are given, $\sigma(x) = x^m \quad \forall x \in G$.
Let $x, y \in G$. Then

$$\sigma(xy) = (xy)^m$$

$$= x^m y^m, \text{ since } G \text{ is abelian}$$

$$= \sigma(x) \sigma(y).$$

Thus σ is a homomorphism.

Since $(m, n) = 1$, there exist integers r and s such that $mr + ns = 1$.

Let $x \in G$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} x &= x^{mr+ns} = x^{mr} x^{ns} = (x')^m (x^n)^s, \text{ where } x^n = e. \\ x &= x^{mr} \quad \forall x \in G \end{aligned} \quad \dots(1)$$

or $x = y^m$, where $y = x' \in G$.

$\therefore x = \sigma(y)$, $y \in G$. Thus σ is onto.

In order to show that σ is one-to-one, we prove that $\text{Ker } (\sigma) = \{e\}$.

Let $g \in \text{Ker } (\sigma)$ be arbitrary. Then $\sigma(g) = e$

$$\Rightarrow g^m = e \Rightarrow g^{mr} = e \Rightarrow g = e, \text{ by (1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Ker } (\sigma) = \{e\} \Rightarrow \sigma \text{ is one-to-one.}$$

Hence σ is an automorphism of G .

Example 3.2.3. Let $G = \langle a \rangle$ be a finite cyclic group of order n . Show that the mapping $\sigma : a \rightarrow a^m$ is an automorphism if and only if m and n are relatively prime.

Solution. Let $(m, n) = 1$. Then by Example 3.2.2, $\sigma : a \rightarrow a^m$ is an automorphism.

Conversely, let σ be an automorphism.

$$\text{Then } o(a) = o(\sigma(a)) \Rightarrow o(a^m) = n. \quad \dots(1)$$

Let $(m, n) = d$ so that d divides m and $n \Rightarrow m/d$ and n/d are positive integers. We have

$$(a^m)^{n/d} = (a)^{mn/d} = (a^n)^{m/d} = (e)^{m/d} = e.$$

$$\therefore o(a^m)^{n/d} = e. \quad \dots(2)$$

From (1) and (2), it follows that n divides n/d and so $d = 1$.

Hence $(m, n) = 1$.

Example 3.2.4. Show that $I(G) = \{I\}$ if and only if G is abelian.

Solution. We know $I(g) = \{T_g ; g \in G\}$, where

$$T_g(x) = g x g^{-1} \quad \forall x \in G.$$

$$\text{Now } I(G) = \{I\} \Leftrightarrow T_g = I \quad \forall g \in G$$

$$\Leftrightarrow T_g(x) = I(x) \quad \forall x \in G \text{ and } g \in G$$

$$\Leftrightarrow g x g^{-1} = x \quad \forall g, x \in G$$

$$\Leftrightarrow gx = xg \quad \forall g, x \in G$$

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

Example 3.2.5. If G is a group such that $x^2 \neq e$ for some $x \in G$, then G has a non-trivial automorphism.

Solution. The identity mapping $I : G \rightarrow G$ defined as $I(x) = x$ $\forall x \in G$ is called a trivial automorphism.

If G is abelian, then $T : G \rightarrow G$ defined as $T : x \rightarrow x^{-1}$ is an automorphism. [See Example 3.2.1]

Further $T \neq I$, for $T = I \Rightarrow T(g) = I(g) \quad \forall g \in G$

$$\Rightarrow g^{-1} = g \quad \forall g \in G \Rightarrow g^2 = e \quad \forall g \in G,$$

which is contrary to the given hypotheses. Thus T is a non-trivial automorphism of G , if G is abelian.

If G is non-abelian, then there exists some inner automorphism $T_g \neq I$, for if $T_g = I \forall g \in G$, then

$$T_g(x) = I(x) \quad \forall x \in G \Rightarrow gxg^{-1} = x \quad \forall g, x \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow gx = xg \quad \forall g, x \in G \Rightarrow G \text{ is abelian,}$$

which is a contradiction. In any case, G has a non-trivial automorphism.

Example 3.2.6. Find $\text{Aut}(G)$, if G is an infinite cyclic group.

[D.U., 1990]

Or

Show that if G is an infinite cyclic group, then $\text{Aut}(G)$ is isomorphic to a cyclic group of order 2.

Solution. Let $G = \langle a \rangle = \{a^i : i = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots\}$ be an infinite cyclic group. Since G is infinite, therefore

$$a^i = e \Leftrightarrow i = 0.$$

Let T be any automorphism of G . Since $T(a) \in G = \langle a \rangle$,

$$T(a) = a^m$$

for some integer m . Since T is onto; for $a \in G$, there exists some $x \in G$ such that $T(x) = a$. Now $x \in G = \langle a \rangle \Rightarrow x = a^n$ for some integer n .

Thus $a = T(x) = T(a^n) = T(a) \cdot T(a) \dots T(a)$ (n times),

since T is a homomorphism

$$\therefore a = \{T(a)\}^n = \{a^m\}^n = a^{mn}, \text{ using (2)}$$

$$\Rightarrow a^{mn-1} = e \Rightarrow mn - 1 = 0, \text{ using (1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow mn = 1 \Rightarrow m = \pm 1 \text{ (Also } n = \pm 1).$$

Using in (2), it follows that if T is any automorphism of G , then

$$T(a) = a \quad \text{or} \quad T(a) = a^{-1}.$$

Hence $\text{Aut}(G) = \{I, T\}$, where

$$I(x) = x \quad \forall x \in G \quad \text{and} \quad T(x) = x^{-1} \quad \forall x \in G.$$

Since $\text{o}[\text{Aut}(G)] = 2$; $\text{Aut}(G)$ is cyclic. Since any two cyclic groups of the same order are isomorphic,

$$\text{Aut}(G) = C_2,$$

where C_2 is a cyclic group of order 2.

Example 3.2.7. Find $\text{Aut}(G)$, if G is a finite cyclic group of order n .

Or

Show that $\text{o}[\text{Aut}(G)] = \phi(n)$, where G is a finite cyclic group of order n and $\phi(n)$ is Euler ϕ -function.

[D.U., 1997]

Or

Show that if G is a finite cyclic group of order n , then $\text{Aut}(G) = U_n$ where U_n is the group of integers less than n and relatively prime to n under multiplication modulo n .

[D.U., 1996]

If G is non-abelian, then there exists some inner automorphism $T_g \neq I$, for if $T_g = I \forall g \in G$, then

$$\begin{aligned} T_g(x) = I(x) \quad \forall x \in G &\Rightarrow gxg^{-1} = x \quad \forall g, x \in G \\ \Rightarrow gx = xg \quad \forall g, x \in G &\Rightarrow G \text{ is abelian,} \end{aligned}$$

which is a contradiction. In any case, G has a non-trivial automorphism. [D.U., 1996]

Example 3.2.6. Find $\text{Aut}(G)$, if G is an infinite cyclic group.

Or

Show that if G is an infinite cyclic group, then $\text{Aut}(G)$ is isomorphic to a cyclic group of order 2.

Solution. Let $G = \langle a \rangle = \{a^i : i = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots\}$ be an infinite cyclic group. Since G is infinite, therefore

$$a^i = e \Leftrightarrow i = 0.$$

Let T be any automorphism of G . Since $T(a) \in G = \langle a \rangle$,

$$T(a) = a^m$$

for some integer m . Since T is onto ; for $a \in G$, there exists some $x \in G$ such that $T(x) = a$. Now $x \in G = \langle a \rangle \Rightarrow x = a^n$ for some integer. Thus $a = T(x) = T(a^n) = T(a) \cdot T(a) \dots T(a)$ (n times),

since T is a homomorphism

$$\therefore a = \{T(a)\}^n = \{a^m\}^n = a^{mn}, \text{ using (2)}$$

$$\Rightarrow a^{mn-1} = e \Rightarrow mn-1 = 0, \text{ using (1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow mn = 1 \Rightarrow m = \pm 1 \text{ (Also } n = \pm 1).$$

Using in (2), it follows that if T is any automorphism of G , then

$$T(a) = a \quad \text{or} \quad T(a) = a^{-1}.$$

Hence $\text{Aut}(G) = \{I, T\}$, where

$$I(x) = x \quad \forall x \in G \quad \text{and} \quad T(x) = x^{-1} \quad \forall x \in G.$$

Since $\text{o}[\text{Aut}(G)] = 2$; $\text{Aut}(G)$ is cyclic. Since any two cyclic groups of the same order are isomorphic,

$$\text{Aut}(G) \cong C_2,$$

where C_2 is a cyclic group of order 2.

Example 3.2.7. Find $\text{Aut}(G)$, if G is a finite cyclic group of order n .

Or

Show that $\text{o}[\text{Aut}(G)] = \phi(n)$, where G is a finite cyclic group of order n and $\phi(n)$ is Euler ϕ -function. [D.U., 1996]

Show that if G is a finite cyclic group of order n , then $\text{Aut}(G) = U_n$ where U_n is the group of integers less than n and relatively prime to n under multiplication modulo n . [D.U., 1996]

Solution. Let $G = \langle a \rangle$, where $a^n = e$ ($a \neq e$).
Let $T \in Aut(G)$ be arbitrary. Since $T(a) \in G$, therefore

$$T(a) = a^i, \text{ for some integer } i, 0 < i < n. \quad \dots(1)$$

[Note that $i=0$ or $n \Rightarrow a^i = e \Rightarrow T(a) = e \Rightarrow T(a) = T(e) \Rightarrow a = e$, which is a contradiction]

Since T is an automorphism, therefore

$$\sigma(T(a)) = \sigma(a) = n. \quad \dots(2)$$

Now we show that $(i, n) = 1$. $\dots(3)$

Let, if possible, $(i, n) = k$ (k being a positive integer).

Then k divides i and n and so i/k and n/k are positive integers.

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \{T(a)\}^{n/k} &= \{a^i\}^{n/k} = a^{in/k} = (a^n)^{i/k} = e^{i/k} = e \\ \Rightarrow \sigma\{T(a)\} &= n \text{ divides } n/k \\ \Rightarrow k &= 1 \Rightarrow (i, n) = 1. \end{aligned}$$

From (1) and (3), it follows that

$$Aut(G) = \{T : T(x) = x^i, 0 < i < n \text{ and } (i, n) = 1\}. \quad \dots(4)$$

Hence $\sigma[Aut(G)] = \phi(n)$, where $\phi(n)$ is Euler ϕ -function.

Finally, we show that $Aut(G) \cong U_n$.

For the sake of convenience, we write (4) as follows :

$$Aut(G) = \{T_i : T_i(x) = x^i \quad \forall x \in G, 0 < i < n \text{ and } (i, n) = 1\}. \quad \dots(5)$$

Define a mapping $\phi : U_n \rightarrow Aut(G)$ as .

$$\phi(i) = T_i \quad \forall i \in U_n \quad \dots(6)$$

[Recall that $i \in U_n \Leftrightarrow 0 < i < n$ and $(i, n) = 1$.]

Clearly ϕ is onto and one-to-one.

Now we show that ϕ is a homomorphism.

Let $i, j \in U_n$. Then $\phi(ij) = T_{ij}$, by (6).

For any $x \in G$, $T_{ij}(x) = x^{ij}$, by (5)

$$= (x^j)^i = T_i(x^j) = T_i(T_j(x)), \text{ by (5)}$$

$$= T_i \circ T_j(x) \text{ and so } T_{ij} = T_i \circ T_j = \phi(i) \circ \phi(j).$$

$\therefore \phi(ij) = \phi(i) \circ \phi(j) \Rightarrow \phi$ is a homomorphism, Hence

$$U_n \cong Aut(G) \quad \text{or} \quad Aut(G) \cong U_n$$

Example 3.2.8. Find $Aut(G)$, if $G = \langle a \rangle$, $a^{12} = e$.

Solution. The positive integers less than 12 and relatively prime to 12 are 1, 5, 7, 11. i.e., $\phi(12) = 4$. We have

$$Aut(G) = \{I, T_1, T_2, T_3\};$$

where $I(x) = x \quad \forall x \in G$,

$$T_1(x) = x^5 \quad \forall x \in G,$$

$$T_2(x) = x^7 \quad \forall x \in G,$$

$$T_3(x) = x^{11} \quad \forall x \in G.$$

Hence $\text{o}[Aut(G)] = \phi(12)$.

Ex. 1. Find $Aut(G)$, where $G = \langle a \rangle$, $a^{10} = e$.

Ex. 2. Find $Aut(G)$, where $G = \langle a \rangle$, $a^{15} = e$.

Example 3.2.9. Determine $Aut(G)$, where G is Klein's 4-group.

[D.U., 1995, 94]

Or

Let G be a group of order 4, $G = \{e, a, b, ab\}$, $a^2 = b^2 = e$, $ab = ba$.

Determine $Aut(G)$.

Solution. We have $(ab)^2 = ab ab = aa bb$ $(\because ba = ab)$

$$= a^2 b^2 = e \cdot e = e$$

$$x^2 = e \quad \forall x \in G.$$

Thus

Let $T \in Aut(G)$ be arbitrary. Then $T(e) = e$.

We know $\text{o}(x) = \text{o}\{T(x)\} \quad \forall x \in G$.

Since a, b, ab are all of order 2, therefore

$$T(a) = a \text{ or } b \text{ or } ab.$$

If $T(a)$ is fixed, $T(x)$ is known for each $x \in G$. Thus T is completely determined and further there cannot be more than six automorphisms of G viz.

$$I : e \rightarrow e, \quad a \rightarrow a, \quad b \rightarrow b, \quad ab \rightarrow ab ;$$

$$T_1 : e \rightarrow e, \quad a \rightarrow a, \quad b \rightarrow ab, \quad ab \rightarrow b ;$$

$$T_2 : e \rightarrow e, \quad a \rightarrow b, \quad b \rightarrow a, \quad ab \rightarrow ab ;$$

$$T_3 : e \rightarrow e, \quad a \rightarrow b, \quad b \rightarrow ab, \quad ab \rightarrow a ;$$

$$T_4 : e \rightarrow e, \quad a \rightarrow ab, \quad b \rightarrow a, \quad ab \rightarrow b ;$$

$$T_5 : e \rightarrow e, \quad a \rightarrow ab, \quad b \rightarrow ab, \quad ab \rightarrow a .$$

Hence $Aut(G) = \{I, T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4, T_5\}$.

Example 3.2.10. Show that $Aut(G) \approx S_3$, where G is Klein's 4-group.

Solution. Refer to above example. We know

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

and

$$Aut(G) = \{I, T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4, T_5\}.$$

Define a mapping $\phi : Aut(G) \rightarrow S_3$ as

$$\phi(I) = e, \quad \phi(T_2) = (12), \quad \phi(T_1) = (23)$$

$$\phi(T_5) = (13), \quad \phi(T_3) = (123), \quad \phi(T_4) = (132)$$

[Take $1 \leftrightarrow a, 2 \leftrightarrow b, 3 \leftrightarrow ab$]

It is easy to verify that ϕ is one-to-one, onto and homomorphism.

Hence $Aut(G) \approx S_3$.

Example 3.2.11. For $G = S_3$, prove that $G \approx I(G)$.

Or

Show that : $I(S_3) \approx S_3$.

Solution. We know

$$G = S_3 \Rightarrow Z(G) = \{e\}.$$

By Theorem 3.2.5, we have

$$\frac{G}{Z(G)} \approx I(G)$$

$$\text{For } G = S_3, \quad \frac{G}{\{e\}} \approx I(G). \quad \dots(1)$$

$$\text{We know} \quad G \approx \frac{G}{\{e\}}. \quad \dots(2)$$

From (1) and (2),

$$G \approx I(G), G = S_3 \text{ or } I(S_3) \approx S_3.$$

Notice that $I(S_3) = \{T_e, T_{(12)}, T_{(23)}, T_{(13)}, T_{(123)}, T_{(132)}\}$.

Example 3.2.12. Determine $\text{Aut}(S_3)$.

Or

Show that : $\text{Aut}(S_3) \approx S_3$.

[D.U., 1998, 97]

Solution. We know

$$S_3 = \{e, (12), (23), (31), (123), (132)\} \text{ where}$$

$$(12)^2 = (23)^2 = (31)^2 = e \text{ and } (123)^3 = (132)^3 = e.$$

Thus the elements (12), (23) and (31) are all of order 2 and (123), (132) are of order 3.

If T be any automorphism of G ; then

$$o(x) = o(T(x)) \quad \forall x \in S_3.$$

Consequently, $T\{(123)\} = (123)$ or (132) ;

and $T\{(12)\} = (12)$ or (23) or (31) .

If $T\{(12)\}$ and $T\{(123)\}$ are fixed, $T(x)$ is known for each $x \in S_3$.

Hence T is completely determined. Further there cannot be more than six automorphisms of S_3 . Hence

$$\text{Aut}(S_3) = I(S_3) \approx S_3. \quad (\text{See Example 3.2.11})$$

Example 3.2.13. Let G be a group, H a subgroup of G , T an automorphism of G . Prove that

$$T(H) = \{T(h) : h \in H\}$$

is a subgroup of G .

Further show that if H is a normal subgroup of G , then $T(H)$ is also a normal subgroup of G .

Solution. It is clear that $T(H)$ is non-empty,
since $e \in H \Rightarrow T(e) \in H$.

Let $a, b \in T(H)$ be arbitrary. Then
 $a = T(h_1), b = T(h_2)$ for some $h_1, h_2 \in H$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{We have } ab^{-1} &= T(h_1)[T(h_2)]^{-1} \\ &= T(h_1)T(h_2^{-1}), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism} \\ &= T(h_1h_2^{-1}), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism} \\ &= T(h_1h_2^{-1}) \in T(H). \end{aligned}$$

Now

$$H \triangleleft G \Rightarrow h_1h_2^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow T(h_1h_2^{-1}) \in T(H).$$

$\therefore ab^{-1} \in T(H) \quad \forall a, b \in T(H)$.

Hence $T(H)$ is a subgroup of G .

Now we show that $H \triangleleft G \Rightarrow T(H) \triangleleft G$.

Let $g \in G$ and $n \in T(H)$ be arbitrary. Then

$$n = T(h) \text{ for some } h \in H.$$

Since $T: G \rightarrow G$ is onto ; for $g \in G$, there exists some $g_1 \in G$ such that

$$T(g_1) = g.$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} gng^{-1} &= T(g_1)T(h)T(g_1)^{-1} \\ &= T(g_1h)T(g_1^{-1}), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism} \\ &= T(g_1hg_1^{-1}), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism} \end{aligned}$$

Since $H \triangleleft G$, therefore $g_1hg_1^{-1} \in H$ and so

$$\begin{aligned} T(g_1hg_1^{-1}) &\in T(H) \\ \Rightarrow gng^{-1} &\in T(H) \quad \forall g \in G \text{ and } n \in T(H). \end{aligned}$$

Hence $T(H)$ is a normal subgroup of G .

Remark. Sometimes we write $T(x)$ as xT . Accordingly $T(H)$ is denoted as $(H)T$, where

$$(H)T = \{hT : h \in H\}.$$

Example 3.2.14. Let G be a group and Z the centre of G . If T is an automorphism of G , prove that $T(Z) \subset Z$.

Solution. We know $Z = \{a \in G : ag = ga \quad \forall g \in G\}$
and $T(Z) = \{T(a) : a \in Z\}$.

Let $y \in T(Z)$ be arbitrary. Then

$$y = T(a) \text{ for some } a \in Z.$$

Now $a \in Z \Rightarrow ag = ga \quad \forall g \in G$.

Since $T: G \rightarrow G$ is onto ; for any $g \in G$, there exists some $g_1 \in G$ such that

$$T(g_1) = g.$$

We have $yg = T(a)T(g_1)$, by (1) and (3).

Solution. It is clear that $T(H)$ is a subgroup.

Since $a \in H \Rightarrow T(a) \in H$.

Let $a, b \in T(H)$ be arbitrary. Then

$a = T(h), b = T(k)$ for some $h, k \in H$.

$$a = T(h)$$

$$\text{We have } ab^{-1} = T(h)(T(k))^{-1}$$

$$= T(h)T(k^{-1}), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

$$= T(hk^{-1}), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

$$= T(hk^{-1}) \in H \Rightarrow T(hk^{-1}) \in T(H).$$

Now

$$H < G \Rightarrow h_1h_1^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow T(h_1h_1^{-1}) \in T(H).$$

$$\therefore ab^{-1} \in T(H) \quad \forall a, b \in T(H).$$

Hence $T(H)$ is a subgroup of G .

Now we show that $H < G \Rightarrow T(H) < G$.

Let $g \in G$ and $n \in T(H)$ be arbitrary. Then

$$n = T(h) \text{ for some } h \in H.$$

Since $T: G \rightarrow G$ is onto ; for $g \in G$, there exists some $g_1 \in G$ such

that

$$T(g_1) = g.$$

We have

$$g \cdot g^{-1} = T(g)T(h)T(g)^{-1}$$

$$= T(g_1h)T(g_1^{-1}), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

$$= T(g_1hg_1^{-1}), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

Since $H < G$, therefore $g_1hg_1^{-1} \in H$ and so

$$T(g_1hg_1^{-1}) \in T(H)$$

$$\Rightarrow g \cdot g^{-1} \in T(H) \quad \forall g \in G \text{ and } n \in T(H).$$

Hence $T(H)$ is a normal subgroup of G .

Remark. Sometimes we write $T(x)$ as xT . Accordingly $T(H)$ is denoted as $(H)T$, where

$$(H)T = \{hT : h \in H\}.$$

Example 3.2.14. Let G be a group and Z the centre of G . If T is an automorphism of G , prove that $T(Z) \subset Z$.

Solution. We know $Z = \{a \in G : ag = ga \quad \forall g \in G\}$

and

$$T(Z) = \{T(a) : a \in Z\}.$$

Let $y \in T(Z)$ be arbitrary. Then

$$y = T(a) \text{ for some } a \in Z.$$

$$\text{Now } a \in Z \Rightarrow ag = ga \quad \forall g \in G.$$

Since $T: G \rightarrow G$ is onto ; for any $g \in G$, there exists some $g_1 \in G$ such that

$$T(g_1) = g.$$

We have $yg = T(a)T(g_1)$, by (1) and (3)

Solution. It is clear that $\Gamma(\mathbb{Z})$ is non-empty since $e \in H \Rightarrow \Gamma(e) \in H$.

Let $a, b \in \Gamma(\mathbb{Z})$ be arbitrary. Then

Let $a = \Gamma(a_1), b = \Gamma(b_1)$ for some $a_1, b_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$a = \Gamma(a_1), b = \Gamma(b_1)$$

We have $ab^{-1} = \Gamma(a_1)\Gamma(b_1)^{-1}$

$$= \Gamma(a_1)\Gamma(b_1^{-1}) \text{ since } \Gamma \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

$$= \Gamma(a_1b_1^{-1}) \text{ since } \Gamma \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

$$= \Gamma(a_1b_1^{-1}) \in \Gamma(\mathbb{Z}) \in \Gamma(H).$$

Now

$$H < G = a_1b_1^{-1} \in H = \Gamma(a_1b_1^{-1}) \in \Gamma(H).$$

$$\therefore ab^{-1} \in \Gamma(H) \forall a, b \in \Gamma(\mathbb{Z}).$$

Hence $\Gamma(\mathbb{Z})$ is a subgroup of G .

Now we show that $H < G \Rightarrow \Gamma(H) < G$.

Let $g \in G$ and $x \in \Gamma(H)$ be arbitrary. Then

$$x = \Gamma(x_1) \text{ for some } x_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Since $\Gamma: G \rightarrow G$ is onto; for $g \in G$ there exists some $y \in G$ such that

$$\Gamma(g) = g.$$

We have

$$gx^{-1} = \Gamma(g)\Gamma(x_1)\Gamma(x_1)^{-1}$$

$$= \Gamma(gx_1)\Gamma(x_1^{-1}) \text{ since } \Gamma \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

$$= \Gamma(gx_1x_1^{-1}) \text{ since } \Gamma \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

Since $H < G$ therefore $gx_1x_1^{-1} \in H$ and so

$$\Gamma(gx_1x_1^{-1}) \in \Gamma(H)$$

$\Rightarrow gx^{-1} \in \Gamma(H) \forall x \in G$ and $x \in \Gamma(H)$.

Hence $\Gamma(H)$ is a normal subgroup of G .

Remark. Sometimes we write $\Gamma(x)$ as $x\Gamma$. Associated to Γ denoted as $(\mathbb{Z})\Gamma$, where

$$(\mathbb{Z})\Gamma = \{\Gamma(n) : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

Example 3.2.14. Let G be a group and \mathbb{Z} the centre of G . If Γ is a homomorphism of G prove that $\Gamma(\mathbb{Z}) < \mathbb{Z}$.

Solution. We know $\mathbb{Z} = \{z \in G : zg = gz \forall g \in G\}$

and

$$\Gamma(\mathbb{Z}) = \{\Gamma(z) : z \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

Let $x \in \Gamma(\mathbb{Z})$ be arbitrary. Then

$$x = \Gamma(z_1) \text{ for some } z_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Now $z_1 \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow zg = gz \forall g \in G$

Since $\Gamma: G \rightarrow G$ is onto, for any $g \in G$ there exists some $g' \in G$ such that

$$g' = \Gamma(g)$$

We have $g'z_1 = \Gamma(g)z_1 = \Gamma(gz_1) = \Gamma(g) \in \Gamma(\mathbb{Z})$

Solution. It is clear that $T(H)$ is non-empty, since $e \in H \Rightarrow T(e) \in H$.

Let $a, b \in T(H)$ be arbitrary. Then $a = T(h_1), b = T(h_2)$ for some $h_1, h_2 \in H$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{We have } ab^{-1} &= T(h_1) [T(h_2)]^{-1} \\ &= T(h_1) T(h_2^{-1}), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism} \\ &= T(h_1 h_2^{-1}), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism} \\ &H \triangleleft G \Rightarrow h_1 h_2^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow T(h_1 h_2^{-1}) \in T(H). \end{aligned}$$

Now $ab^{-1} \in T(H) \quad \forall a, b \in T(H)$.
 $\therefore ab^{-1} \in T(H)$

Hence $T(H)$ is a subgroup of G .

Now we show that $H \triangleleft G \Rightarrow T(H) \triangleleft G$.

Let $g \in G$ and $n \in T(H)$ be arbitrary. Then $n = T(h)$ for some $h \in H$.

Since $T: G \rightarrow G$ is onto ; for $g \in G$, there exists some $g_1 \in G$ such that $T(g_1) = g$.

We have

$$\begin{aligned} gn g^{-1} &= T(g_1) T(h) T(g_1)^{-1} \\ &= T(g_1 h) T(g_1^{-1}), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism} \\ &= T(g_1 h g_1^{-1}), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism} \end{aligned}$$

Since $H \triangleleft G$, therefore $g_1 h g_1^{-1} \in H$ and so

$$T(g_1 h g_1^{-1}) \in T(H)$$

$$\Rightarrow gn g^{-1} \in T(H) \quad \forall g \in G \text{ and } n \in T(H).$$

Hence $T(H)$ is a normal subgroup of G .

Remark. Sometimes we write $T(x)$ as xT . Accordingly $T(H)$ is denoted as $(H)T$, where

$$(H)T = \{hT : h \in H\}.$$

Example 3.2.14. Let G be a group and Z the centre of G . If T is an automorphism of G , prove that $T(Z) \subset Z$.

Solution. We know $Z = \{a \in G : ag = ga \quad \forall g \in G\}$ and $T(Z) = \{T(a) : a \in Z\}$.

Let $y \in T(Z)$ be arbitrary. Then

Now $y = T(a)$ for some $a \in Z$.

$$a \in Z \Rightarrow ag = ga \quad \forall g \in G.$$

Since $T: G \rightarrow G$ is onto ; for any $g \in G$, there exists some $g_1 \in G$ such that

$$T(g_1) = g.$$

We have $yg = T(a)T(g_1)$, by (1) and (3).

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= T(a g_1), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism} \\
 &= T(g_1 a), \text{ by (2)} \\
 &= T(g_1) T(a), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism} \\
 &= gy, \text{ by (1) and (3).} \\
 \therefore \quad &yg = gy \quad \forall g \in G \\
 \Rightarrow \quad &y \in Z \text{ for each } y \in T(Z).
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence $T(Z) \subset Z$.

Example 3.2.15. Let G be a group and T an automorphism of G . Prove that for $a \in G$,

$$N(aT) = (N(a))T,$$

where $N(a)$ is the normalizer of a in G .

Solution. By definition, $N(a) = \{x \in G : xa = ax\}$

and

$$(N(a))T = \{xT : x \in N(a)\}.$$

(Here $T(x)$ is denoted as xT)

Let $y \in (N(a))T$ be arbitrary. Then

$$y = xT \text{ for some } x \in N(a). \quad \dots(1)$$

$$\text{Since } x \in N(a), xa = ax. \quad \dots(2)$$

$$\text{Consider } y(aT) = (xT)(aT), \text{ by (1)}$$

$$= (xa)T, \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

$$= (ax)T, \text{ by (2)}$$

$$= (aT)(xT), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

$$= (aT)y, \text{ by (1)}$$

$$\therefore y(aT) = (aT)y \Rightarrow y \in N(aT).$$

$$\text{Consequently, } (N(a))T \subseteq N(aT). \quad \dots(3)$$

Conversely, let $g \in N(aT)$ be arbitrary. Then

$$g(aT) = (aT)g. \quad \dots(4)$$

Since $T: G \rightarrow G$ is onto ; for $g \in G$, there exists some $g_1 \in G$ such that

$$g_1 T = g. \text{ Using in (4), we get}$$

$$(g_1 T)(aT) = (aT)(g_1 T)$$

$$\Rightarrow (g_1 a)T = (a g_1)T, \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

$$\Rightarrow g_1 a = a g_1, \text{ since } T \text{ is one-to-one}$$

$$\Rightarrow g_1 \in N(a)$$

$$\Rightarrow g_1 T \in (N(a))T$$

$$\Rightarrow g \in (N(a))T \quad \forall g \in N(aT).$$

$$\therefore N(aT) \subseteq (N(a))T. \quad \dots(5)$$

From (3) and (5), $N(aT) = (N(a))T$.

Example 3.2.16. Let $f: G \rightarrow G$ defined as $f(a) = a^n$... (1)

be an automorphism, show that $a^{n-1} \in Z(G)$ for all $a \in G$.

Solution. Let $a, x \in G$ be arbitrary. By (1), we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(a^{-n} x a^n) &= (a^{-n} x a^n)^n \\ &= (a^{-n} x a^n)(a^{-n} x a^n) \dots (a^{-n} x a^n) \quad (\text{n times}) \\ &= a^{-n} (x x \dots x) a^n \quad [\because a^n a^{-n} = a^0 = e] \\ &= a^{-n} x^n a^n \\ &= f(a^{-1}) f(x) f(a), \text{ by (1).} \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore f(a^{-n} x a^n) = f(a^{-1} x a)$, since f is a homomorphism
 $a^{-n} x a^n = a^{-1} x a$, since f is one-to-one.

On pre-multiplying by a^n and post-multiplying by a^{-1} , we get

$$x a^{n-1} = a^{n-1} x \quad \text{for all } a, x \in G$$

$$a^{n-1} \in Z(G) \quad \text{for all } a \in G.$$

Hence

Example 3.2.17. Let G be a finite group, T an automorphism of G with the property :

$$xT = x \text{ for } x \in G \text{ if and only if } x = e. \quad \dots(1)$$

Prove that every $g \in G$ can be represented as

$$g = x^{-1} (xT) \text{ for some } x \in G.$$

Solution. Define a mapping $\phi : G \rightarrow G$ as

$$\phi(x) = x^{-1} (xT) \quad \forall x \in G. \quad \dots(2)$$

[Notice that $xT \in G$ for each $x \in G$ and so $x^{-1} (xT) \in G$ for each $x \in G$.]

We proceed to show that ϕ is one-to-one.

Let $x, y \in G$ be arbitrary. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(x) = \phi(y) &\Rightarrow x^{-1} (xT) = y^{-1} (yT), \text{ by (2)} \\ &\Rightarrow (xT) (yT)^{-1} = xy^{-1} \\ &\Rightarrow (xT) (y^{-1} T) = xy^{-1}, \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism} \\ &\Rightarrow (xy^{-1}) T = xy^{-1}, \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism} \\ &\Rightarrow xy^{-1} = e, \text{ using (1)} \\ &\Rightarrow x = y \Rightarrow \phi \text{ is one-to-one.} \end{aligned}$$

Since G is a finite group and $\phi : G \rightarrow G$ is one-to-one, ϕ must be an onto mapping. Hence for any $g \in G$, there exists some $x \in G$ such that

$$g = \phi(x) \quad \text{or} \quad g = x^{-1} (xT), \text{ by (2).}$$

Example 3.2.18. Let G be a finite group, T an automorphism of G with the property :

$$xT = x \text{ if and only if } x = e.$$

Suppose further that $T^2 = I$. Prove that G must be abelian.

AUTOMORPHISMS AND CONJUGATE ELEMENTS

Solution. By Example 3.2.17, each $g \in G$ can be represented as

$$\begin{aligned}
 & g = x^{-1} (x T) \text{ for some } x \in G \\
 \Rightarrow & g^{-1} = (x T)^{-1} (x^{-1})^{-1} = (x^{-1} T) x, \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism} \\
 \Rightarrow & g^{-1} T = [(x^{-1} T) x] T \\
 & = (yx) T, \text{ where } y = x^{-1} T \in G \\
 & = (y T) (x T), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism} \\
 & = ((x^{-1} T) T) (x T) \\
 & = (x^{-1} T^2) (x T) \\
 & = (x^{-1} I) (x T), \text{ since } T^2 = I \\
 & = x^{-1} (x T) = g. \quad \dots(1)
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus $g^{-1} T = g \quad \forall g \in G$.

Let $g_1, g_2 \in G$ be arbitrary. By (1), we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 & g_1^{-1} T = g_1 \quad \text{and} \quad g_2^{-1} T = g_2. \\
 \text{Now} \quad & g_1 g_2 = (g_1^{-1} T) (g_2^{-1} T) \\
 & = (g_1^{-1} g_2^{-1}) T, \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism} \\
 & = (g_2 g_1)^{-1} T \\
 & = g_3^{-1} T, \text{ where } g_3 = g_2 g_1 \in G \\
 & = g_3, \text{ using (1)} \\
 & = g_2 g_1 \\
 \therefore & g_1 g_2 = g_2 g_1 \quad \forall g_1, g_2 \in G.
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence G is abelian.

Example 3.2.19. Let G be a group and T an automorphism of G . If N is a normal subgroup of G such that $T(N) \subset N$, show how you could use T to define an automorphism of G/N .

Solution. The mapping $T: G \rightarrow G$ is an automorphism.

Define a mapping $\phi: \frac{G}{N} \rightarrow \frac{G}{N}$ as

$$\phi(Ng) = NT(g) \quad \forall g \in G. \quad \dots(1)$$

Notice that $T(g) \in G \quad \forall g \in G$ and so $NT(g) \in G/N$.

We verify that ϕ is well-defined.

$$\text{Let } Ng_1 = Ng_2 \Rightarrow g_1 g_2^{-1} \in N \Rightarrow T(g_1 g_2^{-1}) \in T(N)$$

$$\Rightarrow T(g_1 g_2^{-1}) \in N \quad (\because T(N) \subset N)$$

$$\Rightarrow T(g_1) T(g_2^{-1}) \in N, \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

$$\Rightarrow T(g_1) T(g_2)^{-1} \in N, \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

$$\Rightarrow NT(g_1) = NT(g_2).$$

Thus ϕ is well-defined.

Now we show ϕ is one-to-one.

$$\text{Let } \phi(Ng_1) = \phi(Ng_2); g_1, g_2 \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow NT(g_1) = NT(g_2), \text{ by (1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow T(g_1)T(g_2)^{-1} \in N$$

$$\Rightarrow T(g_1)T(g_2^{-1}) \in N \Rightarrow T(g_1g_2^{-1}) \in N,$$

since T is a homomorphism.

$$\Rightarrow g_1g_2^{-1} \in N \quad [\because T(N) \subset N]$$

$$\Rightarrow Ng_1 = Ng_2 \Rightarrow \phi \text{ is one-to-one.}$$

Next we show that ϕ is onto.

Let $X \in G/N$ be arbitrary so that $X = Ng$ for some $g \in G$. Since T is onto, there exists some $g' \in G$ such that $T(g') = g$.

$$\therefore X = Ng = NT(g') = \phi(Ng'), \text{ by (1).}$$

Thus ϕ is onto, as $Ng' \in G/N$.

Finally, we show that ϕ is a homomorphism.

Let

$$A = Ng_1, B = Ng_2 \in G/N. \text{ Then}$$

$$AB = Ng_1Ng_2 = Ng_1g_2. \text{ Using (1), we have}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(AB) &= \phi(Ng_1g_2) = NT(g_1g_2) \\ &= N[T(g_1)T(g_2)], \text{ as } T \text{ is a homomorphism} \\ &= NT(g_1)NT(g_2), \text{ as } T(g_1), T(g_2) \in G \text{ and } N \triangleleft G \\ &= \phi(Ng_1)\phi(Ng_2), \text{ by (1)} \\ &= \phi(A)\phi(B). \end{aligned}$$

Thus ϕ is a homomorphism.

Hence we have used T , as given in (1), to define an automorphism ϕ of G/N

Example 3.2.20. Define a characteristic subgroup of a group G . Prove that a characteristic subgroup of G must be a normal subgroup of G . Show by an example that the converse need not be true.

Solution. A subgroup H of a group G is called a characteristic subgroup of G , if

$$T(H) \subset H \quad \forall T \in \text{Aut}(G)$$

or

$$T(h) \in H \quad \forall h \in H \text{ and } \forall T \in \text{Aut}(G). \quad \dots(1)$$

Let H be a characteristic subgroup of G , so that (1) is true. We shall prove that H is a normal subgroup of G . Let $h \in H$ and $g \in G$.

Since the mapping $T_g : G \rightarrow G$ defined as

$$T_g(x) = gxg^{-1} \quad \forall x \in G$$

is an automorphism of G , therefore by (1),

$$T_g(h) \in H \quad \forall h \in H$$

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

Hence H is a normal subgroup of G .

However, the converse need not be true i.e., a normal subgroup of G may not be a characteristic subgroup of G . Consider the Klein's 4-group

$$G = \{e, a, b, ab\}, \text{ where } a^2 = b^2 = e, ab = ba.$$

Let $H = \{a, a^2 = e\}$. Then $H < G$ and

$$i_G(H) = \frac{o(G)}{o(H)} = \frac{4}{2} = 2 \Rightarrow H \triangleleft G.$$

The mapping $T : G \rightarrow G$ defined as

$$T : e \rightarrow e, a \rightarrow b, b \rightarrow a, ab \rightarrow ab$$

is an automorphism of G such that $a \in H$ but $T(a) = b \notin H$. Hence H is not a characteristic subgroup of G .

Example 3.2.21. If G is a group, N a normal subgroup of G , M a characteristic subgroup of N , prove that M is a normal subgroup of G .

[D.U., 1996]

Solution. We have $N \triangleleft G$ and $T(M) \subset M$ for all $T \in \text{Aut}(N)$.

We shall prove that $M \triangleleft G$. It is clear that M is a subgroup of G .

$$\text{Now } N \triangleleft G \Rightarrow gng^{-1} \in N \quad \forall g \in G \text{ and } n \in N. \quad \dots(1)$$

Using (1), it is easy to verify that the mapping

$$T_g : N \rightarrow N \text{ defined as } T_g(n) = gng^{-1} \quad \forall n \in N$$

is an automorphism of N i.e., $T_g \in \text{Aut}(N)$.

$$\text{Consequently, } T_g(M) \subset M \quad \forall g \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow T_g(m) \in M \quad \forall m \in M \text{ and } g \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow gmg^{-1} \in M \quad \forall m \in M \text{ and } g \in G.$$

Hence M is a normal subgroup of G .

Example 3.2.22. Prove that the commutator subgroup of a group G is a characteristic subgroup of G .

Solution. The commutator subgroup of a group G is denoted as G' , where $\alpha \in G' \Rightarrow \alpha = c_1c_2 \dots c_n$, where each c_i is a commutator of G i.e., $c_i = a_i b_i a_i^{-1} b_i^{-1}$ ($a_i, b_i \in G$) and n is some positive integer. Let T be any automorphism of G . Then

$$\begin{aligned} T(c_i) &= T(a_i b_i a_i^{-1} b_i^{-1}) \\ &= T(a_i) T(b_i) T(a_i^{-1}) T(b_i^{-1}), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homo.} \\ &= T(a_i) T(b_i) T(a_i)^{-1} T(b_i)^{-1}, \text{ since } T \text{ is a homo.} \\ &= \alpha_i \beta_i \alpha_i^{-1} \beta_i^{-1}, \alpha_i = T(a_i), \beta_i = T(b_i) \in G. \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore T(c_i) = d_i$$

$d_i = \alpha_i \beta_i \alpha_i^{-1} \beta_i^{-1}$ is a commutator of G .

where

Now

$$T(\alpha) = T(c_1 c_2 \dots c_n)$$

$= T(c_1) T(c_2) \dots T(c_n)$, since T is a homomorphism
 $= d_1 d_2 \dots d_m$, where each d_i is a commutator of G .

Hence $T(\alpha) \in G' \forall \alpha \in G'$ and $T \in \text{Aut}(G)$ and so G' is a characteristic subgroup of G .

Example 3.2.23. Let G be an abelian group. Show that,

$H = \{x \in G \mid x^n = e, n \text{ being a fixed integer}\}$
is a characteristic subgroup of G .

Solution. Let $x, y \in H$. Then $x^n = y^n = e$. We have

$$(xy)^n = x^n y^n, \text{ since } G \text{ is abelian}$$

$$= e \cdot e = e.$$

Thus $xy \in H$.

Again

\Rightarrow

$$x \in H \Rightarrow x^n = e \Rightarrow x^{-n} = e^{-1} \Rightarrow (x^{-1})^n = e$$

$$x^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow H < G.$$

Let T be any automorphism of G and $x \in H$ so that $x^n = e$

$$\Rightarrow T(x^n) = T(e)$$

$$\Rightarrow \{T(x)\}^n = T(e), \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

$$\Rightarrow \{T(x)\}^n = e, \text{ since } T \text{ is a homomorphism}$$

$$\Rightarrow T(x) \in H \quad \forall T \in \text{Aut}(G) \text{ and } x \in H.$$

Hence H is a characteristic subgroup of G .

Example 3.2.24. Define characteristic subgroup of a group. Give an example of a characteristic subgroup.

Hint. Refer to Example 3.3.23.

Example 3.2.25. Show that every subgroup of a finite cyclic group is a characteristic subgroup.

Solution. Let $G = \langle a \rangle$, $a^n = e$ be a finite cyclic group and H be a subgroup of G . Then $H = \langle a^m \rangle$ for some integer $0 \leq m \leq n$. Let T be any automorphism of G . Since

$$T(a) \in G = \langle a \rangle, T(a) = a^l, 0 \leq l \leq n.$$

We shall prove that $T(H) \subset H$.

Let $x \in H$ be arbitrary. Then $x = (a^m)^k$ for some integer $k, 0 \leq k \leq m$. We have

$$T(x) = T(a^{mk}) = \{T(a)\}^{mk}, \text{ as } T \text{ is homomorphism}$$

$$T(x) = (a^l)^{mk} = (a^{mk})^l \in H = \langle a^m \rangle.$$

$\therefore T(x) \in H \quad \forall x \in H.$

Hence H is a characteristic subgroup of G .

3.3 Conjugate Elements

Definition. If a and b are two elements of a group G , we say that a is conjugate to b , denoted as $a \sim b$, if there exists some element $x \in G$ such that

$$a = x^{-1}bx.$$

Remark. We may also define conjugate elements as follows :

$$a \sim b \text{ iff } a = xbx^{-1} \text{ for some } x \in G.$$

For example, $(123) \sim (132)$ in S_3 .

Take $\theta = (23) \in S_3$. Then $\theta(132)\theta^{-1} = (23)(132)(23) = (123)$.

Theorem 3.3.1. Show that the relation (\sim) of conjugacy is an equivalence relation on a group G .

Proof. Let $a, b, c \in G$.

Reflexive. $a \sim a$, since $a = eae = e^{-1}ae, e \in G$.

Symmetric. Let $a \sim b$ so that $a = x^{-1}bx, x \in G$

$$\Rightarrow xax^{-1} = b \Rightarrow b = (x^{-1})^{-1}a(x^{-1}), x^{-1} \in G.$$

Thus $a \sim b \Rightarrow b \sim a$.

Transitive. Let $a \sim b$ and $b \sim c$. Then

$$a = x^{-1}bx \text{ and } b = y^{-1}cy \text{ for some } x, y \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow a = x^{-1}(y^{-1}cy)x = (yx)^{-1}c(yx), yx \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow a \sim c.$$

Hence the relation (\sim) of conjugacy is an equivalence relation on G .

Remark 1. For $a \in G$, the equivalence class of a , denoted by $C(a)$ or $[a]$, is given by

$$C(a) = \{x \in G : x \sim a\} = \{x \in G : x = y^{-1}ay : y \in G\}$$

$$\therefore C(a) = \{y^{-1}ay : y \in G\}.$$

This equivalence class of a is also called the *conjugate class* of a .

Since the conjugacy relation \sim is an equivalence relation on G , so

$$G = \bigcup_{a \in G} [a]$$

i.e., G is expressible as the union of mutually disjoint conjugate classes.

Clearly, $[a] = [b] \Leftrightarrow a \sim b$.

Remark 2. $C(e) = \{e\}$; where e is the identity of the group G .

$$C(e) = \{y^{-1}ey : y \in G\} = \{e\}.$$

Remark 3. In an abelian group G ,

$$C(a) = \{a\} \quad \forall \quad a \in G \quad \text{i.e., } o[C(a)] = 1.$$

Ex. Define conjugate elements and conjugate classes of a group G .
[D.U., 1995]

Theorem 3.3.2. If G is a finite group, then

$$o[C(a)] = \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))} = i_G(N(a)),$$

where $N(a)$ is the normalizer of $a \in G$.

Or

[D.U., 1995, 9]

If G is a finite group, then the number of elements conjugate to a in G is the index of the normalizer of a in G .

Proof. Define a relation \sim on G as follows :

$$a \sim b \text{ iff } a = x^{-1} b x \text{ for some } x \in G$$

Then \sim is an equivalence relation on G and the equivalence class of a is

$$C(a) = \{x^{-1} a x : x \in G\},$$

which is the conjugate class of a in G . Furthermore,

$$G = \bigcup_{a \in G} C(a). \quad \dots(1)$$

Let Σ denote the set of all distinct right cosets of $N(a)$ in G , where

$$N(a) = \{x \in G : xa = ax\}.$$

Define a mapping $f: C(a) \rightarrow \Sigma$ as

$$f(x^{-1} a x) = N(a)x, x \in G. \quad \dots(2)$$

Then f is a well-defined mapping, since

$$\begin{aligned} x^{-1} a x &= y^{-1} a y \Rightarrow ax = xy^{-1}ay \\ \Rightarrow a(xy^{-1}) &= (xy^{-1})a \\ \Rightarrow xy^{-1} &\in N(a) \Rightarrow N(a)x = N(a)y. \end{aligned}$$

Clearly f is onto, since for any $X \in \Sigma \Rightarrow X = N(a)g$ for some $g \in G \Rightarrow X = f(g^{-1} a g)$, by (2) and $g^{-1} a g \in C(a)$.

Finally, f is one-to-one, since

$$\begin{aligned} f(x^{-1} a x) &= f(y^{-1} a y) \Rightarrow N(a)x = N(a)y, \text{ by (2)} \\ \Rightarrow xy^{-1} &\in N(a) \Rightarrow xy^{-1}a = a xy^{-1} \\ \Rightarrow x^{-1} a x &= y^{-1} a y. \end{aligned}$$

Hence there exists a one-to-one correspondence between $C(a)$ and Σ . Since G is finite, it follows that

$$o[C(a)] = o[\Sigma]$$

or

$o[C(a)] = i_G(N(a))$. Using Lagrange's Theorem, we have

$$o[C(a)] = i_G(N(a)) = \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))}.$$

Corollary 1. (Class Equation of a Group)
If G is a finite group, then

$$o(G) = \sum_{a \in G} i_G(N(a)) = \sum_{a \in G} \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))},$$

where the sum runs over one element a in each conjugate class.

Proof. Since G is a finite group and since the R.H.S. of (1) is the disjoint union of conjugate classes, therefore

$$o(G) = \sum_{a \in G} o[C(a)],$$

where the sum runs over one element a in each conjugate class.

By Theorem 3.3.2,

$$o[C(a)] = \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))} = i(N(a)).$$

Hence
$$o(G) = \sum_{a \in G} \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))} = \sum_{a \in G} i_G(N(a)).$$

This equation is known as *class equation* of the finite group G .

Corollary 2. (Second Form of Class Equation)

If G is a finite group, then

$$o(G) = o(Z) + \sum_{a \notin Z} \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))},$$

Z being the centre of G .

Proof. By corollary 1, the class equation of G is

$$o(G) = \sum_{a \in G} \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))}$$

$$o(G) = \sum_{a \in Z} \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))} + \sum_{a \notin Z} \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))}. \quad \dots(3)$$

or

$$[\because G = Z \cup (G - Z)]$$

We now show that

$$a \in Z \Leftrightarrow N(a) = G.$$

$$\text{Let } a \in Z \Rightarrow xa = ax \text{ for all } x \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in N(a) \text{ for all } x \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow N(a) = G.$$

$$\text{Conversely, } N(a) = G \Rightarrow x \in N(a) \forall x \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow xa = ax \forall x \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow a \in Z$$

This proves (4). Since G is finite, it follows that

$$a \in Z \Leftrightarrow o(G) = o(N(a))$$

$$a \in Z \Leftrightarrow \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))} = 1.$$

or

$$o(Z) = \sum_{a \in G} \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))}. \quad \dots(5)$$

158

From (3) and (5), we obtain

$$o(G) = o(Z) + \sum_{a \in Z} \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))}.$$

This is the second form of class equation of a finite group G . This equation is of great importance in proving many interesting results of finite groups.

The equivalent forms of class equation of a finite group G are:

$$o(G) = \sum_{a \in G} \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))},$$

$$o(G) = o(Z) + \sum_{a \in Z} \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))},$$

$$o(G) = o(Z) + \sum_{a \in Z} i_G(N(a)),$$

$$o(G) = o(Z) + \sum_{N(a) \neq G} \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))}.$$

EXAMPLES

Example 3.3.1. Verify the class equation for S_3 .

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

If $G = S_3$, $o(G) = 6$.

By definition, $N(a) = \{x \in G : xa = ax\}$.

It is easy to verify that

$$N(I) = S_3,$$

$$N[(12)] = \{I, (12)\},$$

$$N[(123)] = \{I, (123), (132)\}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \sum_{a \in G} \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))} &= \frac{o(G)}{o\{N(I)\}} + \frac{o(G)}{o\{N[(12)]\}} + \frac{o(G)}{o\{N[(123)]\}} \\ &= \frac{6}{6} + \frac{6}{2} + \frac{6}{3} \\ &= 1 + 3 + 2 = 6 = o(G). \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Hence } o(G) = \sum_{a \in G} \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))}.$$

Example 3.3.2. Verify the class equation for the group

$$G = \{e, \theta, a, b, c, \theta a, \theta b, \theta c\},$$

where $a^2 = b^2 = c^2 = \theta$, $\theta^2 = e$, $ab = \theta ba = c$, $bc = \theta cb = a$, $ca = \theta ac = b$.

This group is known as the group of quaternion units.

Solution. It may be observed that e is the identity of G and the inverse elements of a, b, c are $\theta a, \theta b, \theta c$, respectively. It is interesting to verify that

$$Z(G) = \{e, \theta\}.$$

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Also $N(e) = G, N(\theta) = G, N(a) = \{e, a, \theta, \theta a\} = N(\theta a),$
 $N(b) = \{e, b, \theta, \theta b\} = N(\theta b), N(c) = \{e, c, \theta, \theta c\} = N(\theta c).$
 $\therefore o[C(e)] = \frac{o(G)}{o[N(e)]} = \frac{8}{8} = 1, o[C(\theta)] = \frac{8}{8} = 1,$

$$o[C(a)] = \frac{o(G)}{o[N(a)]} = \frac{8}{4} = 2 = o[C(\theta a)].$$

Similarly, $o[C(b)] = 2 = o[C(c)].$

Hence $o[C(e)] + o[C(\theta)] + o[C(a)] + o[C(b)] + o[C(c)]$
 $= 1 + 1 + 2 + 2 + 2 = 8 = o(G).$

Hence the class equation is verified for $G.$

Example 3.3.3. If N is a normal subgroup of G and $a \in N$, show that every conjugate of a in G is also in N . Hence show that

$$o(N) = \sum_{a \in N} o[C(a)].$$

Solution. By definition, any conjugate of a in G is of the form

$$x^{-1}ax, x \in G.$$

Since N is a normal subgroup of G and $a \in N$, therefore

$$x^{-1}ax \in N \quad \forall x \in G. \quad (\because a \in N)$$

Hence every conjugate of $a \in N$ is in N .

The conjugate class of $a \in N$ is

$$C(a) = \{x^{-1}ax : x \in G\} \subseteq N. \quad (\because N \triangleleft G)$$

Hence $N = \bigcup_{a \in N} C(a).$

If N is finite, then

$$o(N) = \sum_{a \in N} o[C(a)].$$

Example 3.3.4. If in a finite group G an element a has exactly two conjugates, prove that G has a normal subgroup $N \neq (e), N \neq G$.

Solution. $C(a)$ denotes the conjugate class of $a \in G$. Since a has exactly two conjugates, $o[C(a)] = 2$. [Theorem 3.3.2]

We know $o[C(a)] = i_G(N(a)).$

$$\therefore i_G(N(a)) = 2 \text{ and so } N(a) \triangleleft G.$$

[\because a subgroup of G of index 2 must be a normal subgroup of G]

Now we show that $N(a) \neq (e), N(a) \neq G$.

Let, if possible, $N(a) = G$. Then $o(G) = o(N(a))$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))} = 1 \Rightarrow o[C(a)] = \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))} = 1,$$

which is contrary to the given hypothesis.

Thus $N(a) \neq G$.
 Let, if possible, $N(a) = \{e\}$. Then $a \in N(a) \Rightarrow a = e$
 $\Rightarrow C(a) = \{y^{-1}ay : y \in G\} = \{y^{-1}ey : y \in G\} = \{e\}$
 $\Rightarrow o[C(a)] = 1$,
 which is again contrary to the given hypothesis.

Thus $N(a) \neq \{e\}$.
Ex. Suppose $a \in G$ has only two conjugates in G , then show that $N(a)$ is a normal subgroup of G .

Example 3.3.5. Let G be a group containing an element of finite order $n > 1$ and exactly two conjugate classes. Show that G is a finite group of order 2.

Solution. Let $a \neq e \in G$, where $o(a) = n$ i.e., $a^n = e$.

Since G has only two conjugate classes, these must be $\{e\}$ and $C(a)$.
 Further

$$G = \{e\} \cup C(a). \quad \dots(1)$$

It follows that if $b \neq e \in G$ is arbitrary, then $b \in C(a)$

$$\begin{aligned} &\Rightarrow b = x^{-1}ax \text{ for some } x \in G \\ &\Rightarrow o(b) = o(x^{-1}ax) = o(a) \\ &\therefore o(b) = o(a) = n \text{ for all } b \neq e \in G. \end{aligned} \quad \dots(2)$$

We now show that n is prime. Let $n = lm$, where l and m are positive integers $< n$. Then

$$a^n = e \Rightarrow a^{lm} = e \Rightarrow (a^m)^l = e, \text{ where } a^m \neq e \in G.$$

$$\text{By (2), } o(a^m) = n \Rightarrow l = n \Rightarrow l = lm \Rightarrow m = 1.$$

Thus n is a prime number. Next we prove that

$$n = 2 \text{ i.e., } a^2 = e.$$

Let, if possible, $a^2 \neq e$. By (1), $a^2 \in C(a)$

$$\begin{aligned} &\Rightarrow a^2 = g^{-1}ag \text{ for some } g \in G \\ &\Rightarrow (a^2)^2 = (g^{-1}ag)^2 = g^{-1}a^2g = g^{-1}(g^{-1}ag)g \\ &\therefore a^2 = g^{-2}ag^2. \end{aligned}$$

Proceeding in the same manner, we get

$$\begin{aligned} &a^{2^n} = g^{-n}a^ng^n \Rightarrow a^{2^n} = a, \text{ by (2)} \\ &\Rightarrow a^{2^n-1} = e \Rightarrow o(a) = n | 2^n - 1. \end{aligned}$$

This is impossible, since n is prime.

$\therefore a^2 = e$ i.e., $o(a) = 2$. Hence, by (2), $o(g) = 2 \forall g \neq e \in G$.

It follows that G is abelian and so $o[C(a)] = 1$.

Hence, by (1),

[See Remark 3 of Theorem 3.3.1]

$$o(G) = 1 + 1 = 2.$$

3.4 Applications of Class Equation of a Group

Theorem 3.4.1. If $o(G) = p^n$, where p is a prime number; then

$$Z(G) \neq \{e\} \text{ or } o(Z(G)) > 1. \quad [\text{D.U., 1998, 95, 94}]$$

Equivalently, a group of prime power order must have a non-trivial centre.

Proof. The class equation of G is

$$o(G) = o(Z) + \sum_{a \in Z} \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))}. \quad \dots(1)$$

By Lagrange's Theorem, $o(N(a))$ divides $o(G) = p^n$ for each $a \in Z$. Consequently,

$$o(N(a)) = p^k, \text{ where } 0 < k < n$$

$$\therefore \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))} = \frac{p^n}{p^k} = p^{n-k}$$

$$\Rightarrow p \text{ divides } \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))}, \text{ whenever } a \in Z$$

$$\Rightarrow p \text{ divides } \sum_{a \in Z} \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))}. \quad \dots(2)$$

$$\text{Also } p \text{ divides } o(G) = p^n. \quad \checkmark \quad \dots(3)$$

From (2) and (3), it follows that

$$p \text{ divides } \left[o(G) - \sum_{a \in Z} \frac{o(G)}{o(N(a))} \right] = o(Z), \text{ using (1).}$$

Now $p \mid o(Z) \Rightarrow o(Z)$ is at least two (since the least value of p is 2).

Hence $o(Z) > 1$ i.e., Z is non-trivial.

[Notice that $Z = \{e\}$ is a trivial centre and in this case $o(Z) = 1$]

Corollary. If $o(G) = p^n$, p a prime number, then G has a normal subgroup of order p .

Proof. As shown above, $p \mid o(Z)$ and so by Cauchy's Theorem, Z has a subgroup say N of order p i.e., $N \triangleleft Z, o(N) = p$

$$\Rightarrow n \in Z \quad \forall n \in N$$

$$\Rightarrow gn = ng \quad \forall g \in G, n \in N$$

$$\Rightarrow gng^{-1} = n \in N \quad \forall g \in G, n \in N$$

$$\Rightarrow N \triangleleft G, o(N) = p.$$

Note. $N \triangleleft Z \Rightarrow N \triangleleft G$.

Theorem 3.4.2. If $o(G) = p^2$, where p is a prime number; then G is abelian.

Proof. Since $o(G) = p^2$, by Theorem 3.4.1, G has a non-trivial centre i.e., $o(Z) > 1$. By Lagrange's Theorem,

$$o(Z) \text{ divides } o(G) = p^2.$$

$$\therefore o(Z) = p \text{ or } p^2.$$

[Notice that $o(Z) \neq 1$, as $o(Z) > 1$.]