

# Dummit & Foote Ch. 1.6: Homomorphisms and Isomorphisms

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## 1. (3/25/23)

Let  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  be a homomorphism.

- (a) Prove that  $\varphi(x^n) = \varphi(x)^n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .

*Proof.* By induction. When  $n = 1$ ,  $\varphi(x^1) = \varphi(x) = \varphi(x)^1$ .

Suppose for some  $n$ ,  $\varphi(x^n) = \varphi(x)^n$ . Then  $\varphi(x^{n+1}) = \varphi(x^n x)$ . By definition, because  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism from  $G$  to  $H$ ,  $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b)$  for all  $a, b \in G$ . So  $\varphi(x^n x) = \varphi(x^n)\varphi(x)$ . By the induction hypothesis,  $\varphi(x^n) = \varphi(x)^n$ , so this equals  $\varphi(x)^{n+1}$ .

Therefore  $\varphi(x^n) = \varphi(x)^n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .  $\square$

- (b) Do part (a) for  $n = -1$  and deduce that  $\varphi(x^n) = \varphi(x)^n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

This proof diverges slightly from the directions but arrives at the same result.

Note that, for all  $x \in G$ ,  $\varphi(x) = \varphi(1 \cdot x) = \varphi(1)\varphi(x)$ . Therefore  $\varphi(1) = 1$  (in  $H$ ). Now  $1 = \varphi(1) = \varphi(x^n \cdot x^{-n}) = \varphi(x^n)\varphi(x^{-n})$ . From part a), this equals  $\varphi(x)^n \varphi(x^{-n})$ . Left-multiplying both sides by  $\varphi(x)^{-n}$ , we obtain  $\varphi(x^{-n}) = \varphi(x)^{-n}$ , as desired.

## 2. (3/26/23)

If  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  is an isomorphism, prove that  $|\varphi(x)| = |x|$  for all  $x \in G$ . Deduce that any two isomorphic groups have the same number of elements of order  $n$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  be an isomorphism and let  $x \in G$ . If  $|x|$  is finite, then (from 1.a)  $\varphi(x^n) = \varphi(x)^n$  and (from 1.b)  $\varphi(1) = \varphi(x^n) = \varphi(x)^n = 1 \in H$ . The order of the element  $\varphi(x)^n \in H$  is therefore at most  $n$ . Because  $\varphi$  is an

isomorphism, there is only one element whose image is 1, and that is  $\varphi(1) = 1$ . Therefore for no  $m < n$  do we have  $\varphi(x)^m = 1$ , and so the  $|\varphi(x)| = n$ .

Next, suppose that  $x$  has infinite order in  $G$ . Then  $x^n \neq 1$  for all  $n > 0$ . Because  $\varphi$  is an isomorphism, we know that only  $\varphi(1) = 1 \in H$ . Therefore  $\varphi(x^n) = \varphi(x)^n \neq 1$  for all  $n > 0$ . Therefore  $|\varphi(x)| = \infty$ .

This result is not necessarily true if  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism. For example,  $\varphi$  could send every element of  $G$  to the identity in  $H$ . (This is a homomorphism:  $\varphi(x)\varphi(y) = 1 \cdot 1 = 1$  and  $\varphi(x)\varphi(y) = \varphi(xy) = 1$ .) Then for all  $x \in G$ ,  $|\varphi(x)| = 1$ , regardless of the order of  $x$ .  $\square$

### 3. (3/27/23)

If  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  is an isomorphism, prove that  $G$  is abelian if and only if  $H$  is abelian. If  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism, what additional conditions on  $\varphi$  (if any) are sufficient to ensure that if  $G$  is abelian, then so is  $H$ ?

*Proof.* First, let  $G$  be an abelian group and  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  be an isomorphism. Given arbitrary distinct elements of  $H$ , because  $\varphi$  is surjective, there are two distinct elements in  $G$  whose images are these elements in  $H$ . Let  $\varphi(x), \varphi(y) \in H$  be distinct elements and  $x, y \in G$ . Then  $\varphi(xy) = \varphi(x)\varphi(y)$ . Also, because  $x$  and  $y$  commute,  $\varphi(xy) = \varphi(yx) = \varphi(y)\varphi(x)$ . Therefore  $\varphi(x)\varphi(y) = \varphi(y)\varphi(x)$ , so  $H$  is an abelian group.

Next, let  $H$  be an abelian group. Again let  $\varphi(x), \varphi(y) \in H$  and  $x, y \in G$ . Then  $\varphi(x)\varphi(y) = \varphi(xy)$ . Also,  $\varphi(x)\varphi(y) = \varphi(y)\varphi(x) = \varphi(yx)$ . So  $\varphi(xy) = \varphi(yx)$ . Because  $\varphi$  is one-to-one, this implies that  $xy = yx$ , and so  $G$  is an abelian group.

If  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism, then  $G$  being an abelian group does not imply that  $H$  is abelian. For example,  $H$  could be a non-abelian group and  $\varphi$  could send every element of  $G$  to the identity in  $H$ .

A sufficient condition for a homomorphism  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  to ensure that if  $G$  is abelian, then so is  $H$ , is that  $\varphi$  is surjective. Then for all  $h \in H$ ,  $h = \varphi(x)$  for some  $x \in G$  (possibly more than one  $x$ ). Let  $h_1, h_2 \in H$  with  $h_1 = \varphi(x_1) = \varphi(x_2) = \dots$  and  $h_2 = \varphi(y_1) = \varphi(y_2) = \dots$  and with  $x_i, y_j \in G$ .  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism, so for any  $i, j$ ,  $\varphi(x_i y_j) = \varphi(x_i)\varphi(y_j) = h_1 h_2$ . Also, because  $G$  is abelian,  $\varphi(x_i y_j) = \varphi(y_j x_i) = \varphi(y_j)\varphi(x_i) = h_2 h_1$ . Therefore  $h_1 h_2 = h_2 h_1$ , so  $H$  is abelian.  $\square$

### 4. (3/27/23)

Prove that the multiplicative groups  $\mathbb{R} - \{0\}$  and  $\mathbb{C} - \{0\}$  are not isomorphic.

*Proof.* For any  $x \in \mathbb{R} - \{0\}$ ,  $x \neq \pm 1$ ,  $x$  has infinite order. The proof of this is as follows: Let  $x \in \mathbb{R} - \{0, \pm 1\}$ . If the absolute value of  $x$  is greater than 1, then the absolute value of  $x^n$  is greater than 1 for all  $n$ , and by induction  $x$  has infinite order. If the absolute value of  $x$  is less than 1, then the absolute value

of  $x^n$  is less than 1 for all  $n$ , and by induction  $x$  has infinite order. So 1 and  $-1$  are the only elements of  $\mathbb{R} - \{0\}$  with finite order.

In  $\mathbb{C} - \{0\}$ ,  $i$  and  $-i$  have order 4. From 2., isomorphic groups have the same number of elements of order  $n$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . However,  $\mathbb{R} - \{0\}$  has no elements of order 4, and  $\mathbb{C} - \{0\}$  has at least 2. Therefore they are not isomorphic.  $\square$

## 5. (3/27/23)

Prove that the additive groups  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  are not isomorphic.

*Proof.* Given that  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  do not have the same cardinality ( $\mathbb{R}$  is uncountable while  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countably infinite), there is no map  $\varphi : \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  that is surjective. An isomorphism is a bijection that is necessarily surjective, and so the two groups are not isomorphic.

Alternatively, consider the homomorphism  $\varphi : \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $\varphi(q) = q$ . Such a map is injective but not surjective: There is no  $q \in \mathbb{Q}$  with  $\varphi(q) = \sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{R}$ . If we attempt to make  $\varphi$  surjective by assigning  $\varphi(q_1) = \sqrt{2}$  for some  $q_1$ , then  $q_1$  now has no preimage in  $\mathbb{Q}$ , and so we must find a  $q_2$  and assign  $\varphi(q_2) = q_1$ . However, now  $q_2$  has no preimage. This process continues *ad infinitum*, and  $\varphi$  is forever not surjective. Therefore  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  are not isomorphic.  $\square$

## 6. (3/27/23)

Prove that the additive groups  $\mathbb{Z}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  are not isomorphic.

*Proof.* Consider a homomorphism  $\varphi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ . For all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\varphi(0) = \varphi(n + (-n)) = \varphi(n) + \varphi(-n)$ . From 1.b),  $\varphi(0) = 0$ , so  $\varphi$  preserves inverses:  $\varphi(-n) = -\varphi(n)$ . That is,  $\varphi(n) = q$  implies that  $\varphi(-n) = -q$ .

We also claim that, if  $\varphi(1) = k$ , then  $\varphi$  assigns all integers to their product with  $k$  in  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Since  $\varphi$  preserves inverses, we only have to show this for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , by induction (base case given): Suppose that  $\varphi(n) = kn$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{Q}^+$ . Then  $\varphi(n+1) = \varphi(n) + \varphi(1) = kn + k = k(n+1)$ , as desired. Therefore  $\varphi$  assigns all integers to their product with  $k$  in  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

But now it is impossible for  $\varphi$  to be surjective, because only integer multiples of  $k$  have preimages in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . For example,  $k/2 \in \mathbb{Q}$  has no preimage. Therefore  $\mathbb{Z}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  are not isomorphic.  $\square$

## 7. (3/27/23)

Prove that  $D_8$  and  $Q_8$  are not isomorphic.

*Proof.*  $s, sr, sr^2, sr^3 \in D_8$  all have order 2. However, in  $Q_8$ , only  $-1$  has order 2. From 2., isomorphic groups must have the same number of elements of each order. Therefore  $D_8$  and  $Q_8$  are not isomorphic.  $\square$

## 8. (3/28/23)

Prove that if  $n \neq m$ ,  $S_n$  and  $S_m$  are not isomorphic.

*Proof.* Without loss of generality, let  $n > m$ . From Chapter 1.3, the order of a symmetric group  $S_n$  is  $n!$ . Then  $S_n$  contains  $n!$  elements, and  $S_m$  contains  $m!$  elements. It is trivial to show that  $n > m \Rightarrow n! > m!$ . Since the two groups do not have the same cardinality, there is no bijection between them. Thus  $S_n$  and  $S_m$  are not isomorphic.  $\square$

## 9. (3/28/23)

Prove that  $D_{24}$  and  $S_4$  are not isomorphic.

*Proof.*  $D_{24}$  has 24 elements, and  $S_4$  has 24 elements. They are both non-abelian. In order to prove that they are not isomorphic, then, let us consider the orders of each group's respective elements.

$D_{24}$  has 13 elements of order 2:  $\{sr^i \mid i \in \{0, \dots, 11\}\}$  and  $r^6$ .

The elements of order 2 in  $S_4$  are those permutations with cycle decompositions that are disjoint 2-cycles:

$\{(1, 2), (1, 3), (1, 4), (2, 3), (2, 4), (3, 4), (1, 2)(3, 4), (1, 3)(2, 4), (1, 4)(2, 3)\}$ . So there are 9 elements of order 2 in  $S_4$ .

Since  $D_{24}$  and  $S_4$  do not have the same number of elements of order 2, they are not isomorphic.  $\square$

## 10. (3/31/23)

Fill in the details of the proof that the symmetric groups  $S_\Delta$  and  $S_\Omega$  are isomorphic if  $|\Delta| = |\Omega|$  as follows: Let  $\theta : \Delta \rightarrow \Omega$  be a bijection. Define

$$\varphi : S_\Delta \rightarrow S_\Omega \text{ by } \varphi(\sigma) = \theta \circ \sigma \circ \theta^{-1} \text{ for all } \sigma \in S_\Delta$$

and prove the following:

- (a)  $\varphi$  is well-defined, that is, if  $\sigma$  is a permutation of  $\Delta$  then  $\theta \circ \sigma \circ \theta^{-1}$  is a permutation of  $\Omega$ .

To show that  $\varphi$  is well-defined, we need to show that it assigns a given permutation of  $\Delta$  to a unique permutation of  $\Omega$ .

An arbitrary permutation  $\sigma$  is a bijection from  $\Delta$  to itself. It is represented with a cycle decomposition that shows how it assigns a given element of  $\Delta$  to another element. For  $\sigma$  and a given element  $s_1$ , we can say that  $\sigma$  assigns  $s_1$  to  $s_2 \in \Delta$ .

Since  $\Delta$  and  $\Omega$  have the same cardinality, there exists a bijection  $\theta$  between them, and we can say that  $\theta$  assigns distinct  $s_1, s_2 \in \Delta$  to distinct  $t_1, t_2 \in \Omega$ , respectively.

Now let us consider what happens when we apply  $\varphi$  to  $\sigma$ . By definition,  $\varphi(\sigma) = \theta \circ \sigma \circ \theta^{-1}$ .  $\theta^{-1}$  is a bijection:  $\Omega \rightarrow \Delta$ ,  $\sigma$  is a bijection:  $\Delta \rightarrow \Delta$ , and  $\theta$  is a bijection:  $\Delta \rightarrow \Omega$ . Applying the compositions, we see that  $\varphi(\sigma)$  is a map from  $\Omega \rightarrow \Omega$  (not yet proven to be a bijection).

$t_1$  is an arbitrary element of  $\Omega$  with preimage  $s_1 \in \Delta$ . Then:

$$\varphi(\sigma)(t_1) = \theta(\sigma(\theta^{-1}(t_1))) = \theta(\sigma(s_1)) = \theta(s_2) = t_2,$$

that is,  $\varphi(\sigma)$  is a permutation of  $\Omega$  that uniquely assigns  $t_1$  to  $t_2$ . Therefore  $\varphi$  is well-defined.

(b)  $\varphi$  is a bijection from  $S_\Delta$  onto  $S_\Omega$ .

We have shown that  $\varphi$  is a well-defined map from  $S_\Delta$  onto  $S_\Omega$ . However, it remains to be shown that  $\varphi$  is a bijection.

To show that  $\varphi$  is invertible, define a map  $\gamma : S_\Omega \rightarrow S_\Delta$ , with  $\gamma(\tau) = \theta^{-1} \circ \tau \circ \theta$  for  $\tau \in \Omega$ . The proof above suffices to show that  $\gamma$  is well-defined.

Consider what happens when we take  $\gamma(\varphi(\sigma))$ :

$$\gamma(\varphi(\sigma)) = \gamma(\theta \circ \sigma \circ \theta^{-1}) = \theta^{-1} \circ (\theta \circ \sigma \circ \theta^{-1}) \circ \theta = (\theta^{-1} \theta) \circ \sigma \circ (\theta^{-1} \theta) = \sigma.$$

That is,  $\gamma(\varphi(\sigma)) = \sigma$  for all  $\sigma \in S_\Delta$ . Therefore  $\gamma = \varphi^{-1}$ . Since  $\varphi$  has a well-defined inverse, it is a bijection from  $S_\Delta$  onto  $S_\Omega$ .

(c)  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism, that is,  $\varphi(\sigma \circ \tau) = \varphi(\sigma) \circ \varphi(\tau)$ .

We apply the function compositions:

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(\sigma \circ \tau) &= \\ (\theta \circ \sigma \circ \theta^{-1}) \circ (\theta \circ \tau \circ \theta^{-1}) &= \theta \circ \sigma \circ (\theta^{-1} \circ \theta) \circ \tau \circ \theta^{-1} = \\ &= \theta \circ \sigma \circ \tau \circ \theta^{-1} = \varphi(\sigma) \circ \varphi(\tau). \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism, and since it is also a bijection, the groups  $S_\Delta$  and  $S_\Omega$  are isomorphic.

## 11. (4/1/23)

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be groups. Prove that  $A \times B \cong B \times A$ .

*Proof.* Consider the map  $\varphi : A \times B \rightarrow B \times A$  defined by  $\varphi(a, b) = (b, a)$ .  $\varphi$  is injective, since  $\varphi(a_1, b_1) = \varphi(a_2, b_2) \Rightarrow (b_1, a_1) = (b_2, a_2) \Rightarrow a_1 = a_2$  and  $b_1 = b_2$ .  $\varphi$  is surjective, since for every  $(b, a) \in B \times A$ , there exists by definition  $(a, b) \in A \times B$  with  $\varphi(a, b) = (b, a)$ . Therefore  $\varphi$  is a bijection from  $A \times B \rightarrow B \times A$ .

$\varphi$  is also a homomorphism: Let  $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2) \in A \times B$ . Then:

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi((a_1, b_1)(a_2, b_2)) &= \varphi(a_1 a_2, b_1 b_2) = \\ &= (b_1 b_2, a_1 a_2) = (b_1, a_1)(b_2, a_2) = \varphi(a_1, b_1)\varphi(a_2, b_2).\end{aligned}$$

Since  $\varphi$  is a bijective homomorphism, it is an isomorphism, and so  $A \times B \cong B \times A$ .  $\square$

## 12. (4/5/23)

Let  $A, B$ , and  $C$  be groups and let  $G = A \times B$  and  $H = B \times C$ . Prove that  $G \times C \cong A \times H$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\varphi : G \times C \rightarrow A \times H$  defined by  $\varphi \circ ((a, b), c) = (a, (b, c))$ . We will show that  $\varphi$  is a bijective homomorphism, that is, an isomorphism, and thus that  $G \times C \cong A \times H$ .

To show that  $\varphi$  is injective, let  $((a_1, b_1), c_1)$  and  $((a_2, b_2), c_2) \in G \times C$ , and suppose that applying  $\varphi$  to both gives the same element  $(a, (b, c)) \in A \times H$ . Then, by definition of  $\varphi$ ,  $a_1 = a$  and  $a_2 = a$ , so  $a_1 = a_2$ . The same logic shows that  $b_1 = b_2$  and  $c_1 = c_2$ . Thus the two elements in  $G$  are in fact the same element, and therefore  $\varphi$  is injective.

To show that  $\varphi$  is surjective, let  $(a, (b, c)) \in A \times H$ . Then, by definition of  $\varphi$ , there exists  $a, b, c \in A, B, C$ , respectively, such that for  $((a, b), c) \in G \times C$ ,  $\varphi \circ ((a, b), c) = (a, (b, c))$ . Therefore  $\varphi$  is surjective, and so it is a bijection.

Finally, let  $((a_1, b_1), c_1)$  and  $((a_2, b_2), c_2) \in G \times C$ . Then:

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi \circ (((a_1, b_1), c_1)((a_2, b_2), c_2)) &= \varphi \circ ((a_1 a_2, b_1 b_2), c_1 c_2) = (a_1 a_2, (b_1 b_2, c_1 c_2)) = \\ &= (a_1, (b_1, c_1))(a_2, (b_2, c_2)) = \varphi \circ ((a_1, b_1), c_1)\varphi \circ ((a_2, b_2), c_2).\end{aligned}$$

Thus  $\varphi$  is an isomorphism from  $G \times C \rightarrow A \times H$ , and so  $G \times C \cong A \times H$ .  $\square$

## 13. (4/5/23)

Let  $G$  and  $H$  be groups and let  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  be a homomorphism. Prove that the image of  $\varphi$ ,  $\varphi(G)$ , is a subgroup of  $H$ . Prove that if  $\varphi$  is injective then  $G \cong \varphi(G)$ .

*Proof.* To prove that  $\varphi(G)$  is a subgroup of  $H$ , we must show that it is closed under the binary operation of  $H$  and that it is closed under inverses (the other group properties follow from these). By definition, for  $a, b \in G$ ,  $\varphi(a), \varphi(b) \in H$ . Since  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism, their product,  $\varphi(a)\varphi(b) = \varphi(ab)$ , is also an element of  $H$ . Thus  $\varphi(G)$  is closed under the binary operation of  $H$ .

To show that  $\varphi(G)$  is closed under inverses, let  $a \in G$ . From 1.b),  $\varphi(1) = 1$ . Also,  $\varphi(1) = \varphi(aa^{-1}) = \varphi(a)\varphi(a^{-1})$ . Therefore  $\varphi(a^{-1}) = \varphi(a)^{-1}$ , and so  $\varphi(G)$  is closed under inverses. Thus it is a subgroup of  $H$ .

Now suppose that  $\varphi$  is injective. To prove that  $G$  is then isomorphic to  $\varphi(G)$ , we must show that  $\varphi$  is an isomorphism, that is, that it is also surjective onto  $\varphi(G)$ . By definition, since  $\varphi(G) = \{h \in H \mid h = \varphi(g) \text{ for some } g \in G\}$ ,  $\varphi$  is surjective onto  $\varphi(G)$ . Thus  $\varphi$  is an isomorphism, and so  $G \cong \varphi(G)$ .  $\square$

## 14. (4/9/23)

Let  $G$  and  $H$  be groups and let  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  be a homomorphism. Define the *kernel* of  $\varphi$  to be  $\{g \in G \mid \varphi(g) = 1_H\}$  (so the kernel is the set of elements in  $G$  which map to the identity in  $H$ , i.e., is the fiber over the identity of  $H$ ). Prove that the kernel of  $\varphi$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . Prove that  $\varphi$  is injective if and only if the kernel of  $\varphi$  is the identity subgroup of  $G$ .

*Proof.* To show that the kernel of  $\varphi$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , we need to show that it is closed under the binary operation of  $G$  and that it is closed under inverses.

Let  $g_1, g_2$  be in the kernel of  $\varphi$ . Then  $\varphi(g_1) = \varphi(g_2) = 1_H$ . Since  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism,  $1_H = \varphi(g_1)\varphi(g_2) = \varphi(g_1g_2)$ . So the product  $g_1g_2$  of arbitrary elements in the kernel of  $G$  is also in the kernel of  $G$ . Thus the kernel of  $\varphi$  is closed under the binary operation of  $G$ .

From 1.b),  $\varphi(1) = 1_H$ . Also,  $1_H = \varphi(1) = \varphi(gg^{-1}) = \varphi(g)\varphi(g^{-1}) = 1_H \cdot \varphi(g^{-1})$ , which implies that  $\varphi(g^{-1}) = 1_H$ , so  $g^{-1}$  is also in the kernel of  $\varphi$ . The kernel of  $\varphi$  is closed under inverses, and thus it is a subgroup of  $G$ .

Now we will show that  $\varphi$  is injective if and only if the kernel of  $\varphi$  is  $\{1_G\}$ .

First, let  $\varphi$  be an injective homomorphism from  $G$  to  $H$ . So for any  $g_1, g_2 \in G$ ,  $\varphi(g_1) = \varphi(g_2)$  implies that  $g_1 = g_2$ . Let  $g$  be in the kernel of  $\varphi$ , so  $\varphi(g) = 1_H$ . Also,  $\varphi(1_G) = 1_H$ , which implies that  $g = 1_G$ , so the only unique element in the kernel of  $\varphi$  is  $1_G$ .

Next, suppose the kernel of  $\varphi$  is  $\{1_G\}$ . So  $g \in G, g \neq 1_G$  implies that  $\varphi(g) \neq 1_H$ . Suppose that  $g_1, g_2 \in G, g_1, g_2 \neq 1_G$  such that  $\varphi(g_1) = \varphi(g_2) = h \in H$ . From 1.b),  $\varphi(g_2) = h$  implies that  $\varphi(g_2)^{-1} = \varphi(g_2^{-1}) = h^{-1}$ . So  $\varphi(g_1)\varphi(g_2^{-1}) = hh^{-1} = 1_H$ . Because  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism,  $\varphi(g_1g_2^{-1}) = 1_H$ . Because the only element in the kernel of  $\varphi$  is  $1_G$ , we must have  $g_1g_2^{-1} = 1_G$ , which implies that  $g_1 = g_2$ . Therefore  $\varphi$  is an injective map from  $G$  to  $H$ .

This completes the proof that  $\varphi$  is injective if and only if the kernel of  $\varphi$  is  $\{1_G\}$ .  $\square$

## 15. (4/9/23)

Define a map  $\pi : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $\pi((x, y)) = x$ . Prove that  $\pi$  is a homomorphism and find the kernel of  $\pi$ .

*Proof.* To show that  $\pi$  is a homomorphism, let  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . Then  $\pi((x_1, y_1)(x_2, y_2)) = \pi((x_1x_2, y_1y_2)) = x_1x_2$ . Also,  $\pi((x_1, y_1)) \cdot \pi((x_2, y_2)) = x_1x_2$ . Thus  $\pi$  is a homomorphism.

By definition, the kernel of  $\pi$  is the set  $\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid \pi(x, y) = 1\}$ . Now  $\pi((x, y)) = 1$  if and only if  $x = 1$ . Note that  $x = 1 \Rightarrow \pi((1, y)) = 1$  and  $\pi((x, y)) = 1 \Rightarrow x = 1$ . So the kernel of  $\pi$  is  $\{(1, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid y \in \mathbb{R}\}$ .  $\square$

## 16. (4/10/23)

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be groups and let  $G$  be their direct product,  $A \times B$ . Prove that the maps  $\pi_1 : G \rightarrow A$  and  $\pi_2 : G \rightarrow B$  defined by  $\pi_1((a, b)) = a$  and  $\pi_2((a, b)) = b$  are homomorphisms and find their kernels.

*Proof.* To show that  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$  are homomorphisms, let  $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2) \in G$ . Then  $\pi_1((a_1, b_1)(a_2, b_2)) = \pi_1((a_1 a_2, b_1 b_2)) = a_1 a_2$  and  $\pi_1((a_1, b_1)) \cdot \pi_1((a_2, b_2)) = a_1 a_2$ , so  $\pi_1$  is a homomorphism. Similarly,  $\pi_2((a_1, b_1)(a_2, b_2)) = b_1 b_2 = \pi_2((a_1, b_1)) \cdot \pi_2((a_2, b_2))$ , so it is also a homomorphism.

Now by identical proof to 15., the kernel of  $\pi_1$  is  $\{(1, b) \in G \mid b \in B\}$  and the kernel of  $\pi_2$  is  $\{(a, 1) \in G \mid a \in A\}$ .  $\square$

## 17. (4/11/23)

Let  $G$  be any group. Prove that the map from  $G$  to itself defined by  $g \mapsto g^{-1}$  is a homomorphism if and only if  $G$  is abelian.

*Proof.* First, let  $\varphi : G \rightarrow G$  be defined by  $\varphi(g) = g^{-1}$ , and let  $G$  be abelian. Then for  $g, h \in G$ ,  $\varphi(gh) = (gh)^{-1}$ . If we let  $x = (gh)^{-1}$ , then  $ghx = 1 \Rightarrow hx = g^{-1} \Rightarrow x = h^{-1}g^{-1}$ , so  $\varphi(gh) = h^{-1}g^{-1}$ . Also,  $\varphi(g)\varphi(h) = g^{-1}h^{-1} = h^{-1}g^{-1}$  (since any elements of  $G$  commute), and thus  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism.

Next, let  $\varphi$  be the map  $G \rightarrow G$  defined by  $\varphi(g) = g^{-1}$ . As above,  $\varphi(g)\varphi(h) = g^{-1}h^{-1}$  and  $\varphi(gh) = (gh)^{-1} = h^{-1}g^{-1}$ . If  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism, then we must have  $\varphi(g)\varphi(h) = \varphi(gh)$ , that is,  $g^{-1}h^{-1} = h^{-1}g^{-1}$ . This implies that  $(hg)^{-1}g = h^{-1} \Rightarrow (hg)^{-1}gh = 1 \Rightarrow gh = hg$ , and so  $G$  is abelian.

Therefore the map from  $G$  to itself defined by  $g \mapsto g^{-1}$  is a homomorphism if and only if  $G$  is abelian.  $\square$