

# Subgroups, isomorphisms, Cayley's theorem.

Injective, Surjective, Bijective functions:  $X, Y$  sets,

$f: X \rightarrow Y$  a function. For  $y \in Y$ , the set of preimages of  $y$  is  $f^{-1}(y) = \{x \in X \mid f(x) = y\}$ , a subset of  $X$ .

$f$  is injective  $\Leftrightarrow$  for all  $y \in Y$ ,  $f^{-1}(y)$  has at most one element  
 $f$  is surjective  $\Leftrightarrow$  for all  $y \in Y$ ,  $f^{-1}(y)$  has at least one element.  
 $f$  is bijective  $\Leftrightarrow$  for all  $y \in Y$ ,  $f^{-1}(y)$  has exactly one element.

$f: X \rightarrow Y$  is bijective iff there is an inverse function  $g: Y \rightarrow X$ , meaning that  $g(f(x)) = x$  for all  $x \in X$  and  $f(g(y)) = y$  for all  $y \in Y$ .

In this case  $\{x \in X \mid f(x) = y\} = \{g(y)\}$ .

Given functions  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ , define  $gof: X \rightarrow Z$  by  $gof(x) = g(f(x))$ . For any set  $X$ , there is an identity function  $\text{id}_X: X \rightarrow X$ ,  $\text{id}_X(x) = x$ . So  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is bijective iff there is a function  $g: Y \rightarrow X$  such that  $gof = \text{id}_X$  and  $fog = \text{id}_Y$ .

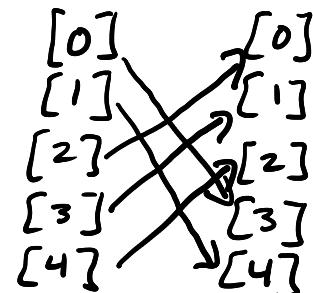
Let  $G$  be a group, and fix  $a \in G$ . Left and right multiplication by  $a$  define functions:

$$L_a: G \rightarrow G \quad L_a(g) = ag$$

$$R_a: G \rightarrow G \quad R_a(g) = ga$$

Example:  $G = (\mathbb{Z}_5, +)$   $[3] \in \mathbb{Z}_5$

$$L_{[3]}([b]) = [3] + [b] = [b+3]$$



Proposition let  $G$  be a group,  $a, b \in G$ . Then  $L_a \circ L_b = L_{ab}$  and  $R_a \circ R_b = R_{ba}$ . Also, if  $e \in G$  denotes the identity, then  $L_e = \text{id}_G = R_e$ .

Proof  $L_a \circ L_b(x) = L_a(L_b(x)) = L_a(bx) = a(bx) = (ab)x = L_{ab}(x)$ .  
 $R_a \circ R_b(x) = R_a(R_b(x)) = R_a(xb) = (xb)a = x(ba) = R_{ba}(x)$ .

$$L_e(x) = ex = x \quad \text{and} \quad R_e(x) = xe = x.$$

Proposition let  $G$  be a group,  $a \in G$ . Then  $L_a$  and  $R_a$  are bijective, with inverses  $L_{a^{-1}}$  and  $R_{a^{-1}}$ , respectively.

Proof  $L_a \circ L_{a^{-1}} = L_{aa^{-1}} = L_e = \text{id}_G$ , similar for  $R_a$ .  
 $L_{a^{-1}} \circ L_a = L_{a^{-1}a} = L_e = \text{id}_G$ , similar for  $R_{a^{-1}}$ .

Some easy and useful consequences of this:

Corollary let  $G$  be a group,  $a, b \in G$ . The equation  $ax = b$  has a unique solution  $x \in G$ , as does the equation  $xa = b$ .

Proof The equation  $ax = b$  is equivalent to  $L_a(x) = b$ . Since  $L_a$  is bijective, there is a unique  $x$  with this property. Similarly,  $xa = b$  means  $R_a(x) = b$ , and as  $R_a$  is bijective there is a unique solution.  $\square$

In fact, the unique solution to  $ax = b$  is  $x = a^{-1}b$ ,  
unique solution to  $xa = b$  is  $x = ba^{-1}$ .

Corollary Suppose  $a, x, y \in G$  satisfy  $ax = ay$ . Then  $x = y$ .  
Similarly, if  $xa = ya$  then  $x = y$ .

Proof Suppose  $ax = ay$ . Then  $L_a(x) = L_a(y)$ . Since  $L_a$  is injective, we conclude  $x = y$ . If  $xa = ya$ ,  $R_a(x) = R_a(y)$ , so  $x = y$  since  $R_a$  is injective.  $\square$

Let  $X$  be a set. Define  $\text{Sym}(X) = \{f: X \rightarrow X \mid f \text{ is bijective}\}$

$\text{Sym}(X)$  is a group where the group operation is composition of functions. The identity is  $\text{id}_X$ , and the inverse is the inverse function.

Now let  $G$  be a group. Then we have constructed a function

$$\begin{aligned} G &\longrightarrow \text{Sym}(G) \\ g &\longmapsto L_g \end{aligned}$$

This function is injective in its own right. Why?

If  $L_a = L_b$  as functions, then  $L_a(e) = L_b(e)$  so  $ae = be$  so  $a = b$ .

[However, most functions  $f \in \text{Sym}(G)$  are not of the form  $L_a$  for  $a \in G$ .]

The subset  $\{L_g \mid g \in G\} \subseteq \text{Sym}(G)$  has an important property:

Definition let  $G$  be a group. A subset  $H \subseteq G$  is called a subgroup if the operation makes  $H$  into a group in its own right.

We write  $H \leq G$  when  $H$  is a subgroup.

Ex ① Group  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ .  $2\mathbb{Z} = \{2k \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\} \subset \mathbb{Z}$  is a subgroup.  
 $\mathbb{Z} \leq \mathbb{Q} \leq \mathbb{R} \leq \mathbb{C}$

②  $G$  a group. Then  $\{e\} \subset G$  is a subgroup, called the trivial subgroup.

Proposition let  $G$  be a group,  $H \subseteq G$  a nonempty subset.

$H$  is a subgroup iff the following conditions hold:

- ① for all  $h_1, h_2 \in H$ ,  $h_1 h_2 \in H$  ( $H$  is closed under the operation)
- ② for all  $h \in H$ ,  $h^{-1} \in H$  ( $H$  is closed under taking inverse).

Proof Conditions are clearly necessary. To see they suffice,

Note that ① says that the operation on  $G$  actually gives an operation on  $H$ . We verify the axioms:

- Associativity follows from associativity of  $G$
- take any  $h \in H$ , then  $h^{-1} \in H$  by ②, so  $hh^{-1} = e \in H$  by ① thus  $H$  contains identity.
- inverses by ②.

let  $G$  be a group, and consider  $H = \{L_g \mid g \in G\} \subseteq \text{Sym}(G)$

Then  $H$  is a subgroup:

- ①  $L_g, L_h \in H \Rightarrow L_g \circ L_h = L_{gh} \in H \quad \checkmark$
- ②  $L_g \in H \Rightarrow L_g^{-1} = L_g^{-1} \in H. \quad \checkmark$

Definition: let  $G$  and  $H$  be groups, and let  $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$  be a function.

$\varphi$  is called an isomorphism if  $\varphi$  is bijective and for all  $g_1, g_2 \in G$ , we have  $\varphi(g_1 g_2) = \varphi(g_1) \varphi(g_2)$ .

Example  $G$  a group.  $H = \{L_g \mid g \in G\} \subseteq \text{Sym}(G)$ .

Define  $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$  by  $\varphi(g) = L_g$

Said before that  $\varphi$  is injective. It is surjective (onto  $H$ ) because of the way  $H$  is defined. So  $\varphi$  is bijective. Furthermore,

$$\varphi(g_1 g_2) = L_{g_1 g_2} = L_{g_1} \circ L_{g_2} = \varphi(g_1) \varphi(g_2)$$

So  $\varphi$  is an isomorphism.

This proves Cayley's theorem: Every group  $G$  is isomorphic to a subgroup of a symmetric group.

(Groups of the form  $\text{Sym}(X)$  are known as symmetric groups or permutation groups.)

In fact,  $G$  is isomorphic to a subgroup of  $\text{Sym}(G)$ .

Proposition If  $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$  is an isomorphism of groups, then  $\varphi(e_G) = e_H$ , and for all  $g \in G$ ,  $\varphi(g)^{-1} = \varphi(g^{-1})$

identity              identity  
of  $G$               of  $H$

$$\text{Proof } e_H \varphi(e_G) = \varphi(e_G) = \varphi(e_G e_G) = \varphi(e_G) \varphi(e_G)$$

$$\text{cancel } \varphi(e_G) \rightarrow e_H = \varphi(e_G).$$

Take  $g \in G$  then  $e_H = \varphi(e_G) = \varphi(gg^{-1}) = \varphi(g)\varphi(g^{-1})$   
by uniqueness of inverses,  $\varphi(g^{-1}) = \varphi(g)^{-1}$ .

Example : Recall complex numbers  $a+bi$   $i^2 = -1$

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta, \quad e^{x+y} = e^x e^y, \quad e^{2\pi i} = 1.$$

Fix  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Consider  $C_n = \{e^{2\pi ik/n} \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

I claim:  $C_n$  is a group, where the operation is multiplication of complex numbers. Furthermore, the function  $\varphi: \mathbb{Z}_n \rightarrow C_n$   $\varphi([k]) = e^{2\pi ik/n}$  is an isomorphism.