# Part II Permutations, Cosets and Direct Product

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# 8 Permutations

Definition 8.1. Let A be a set.

- 1. A a permuation of A is defined to be a bijective map  $\varphi : A \xrightarrow{\sim} A$ . (Usually, we work with permutations of finite sets A.)
- 2. Let  $\mathcal{S}(A)$  denote the set of permuations of A.
- 3. The composition, defines a binary operation on  $\mathcal{S}(A)$  as follows:

 $\forall \sigma, \tau \in \mathcal{S}(A)$  define  $\tau \sigma(x) = \tau(\sigma(x))$   $\forall x \in A$ .

It is obvious that

$$
\tau, \sigma \in \mathcal{S}(A) \Longrightarrow \tau \sigma \in \mathcal{S}(A)
$$

So,  $\mathcal{S}(A)$  is closed under composition.

Further, as always, composition is associative.

The identity map  $Id_A : A \longrightarrow A$  given by  $Id_A(x) = x \,\forall x \in A$ , is the identity for the composition operation.

Also, a bijectiion  $\sigma \in \mathcal{S}(A)$  has an inverse  $\sigma^{-1} \in \mathcal{S}(A)$ , defined by

$$
\sigma^{-1}(y) = x \quad \text{if} \quad \sigma(x) = y.
$$

So,  $\mathcal{S}(A)$  is a group under composition.

- 4. If A is a finite set with n elements, we can take  $A = \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}.$
- 5. The the group of permutations of  $A = \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$  is denoted by  $S_n$ . It is called the symmetric group on n letters. Note  $S_n$  has n! elements.

Example 8.2. Read examples 8.7 and 8.8. Example 8.7 gives the multiplication table for  $S_3$ . Note  $S_3$  has  $3! = 6$  elements. Read about **dihedral** groups. You and I would write down all six elements of  $S_3$  on the board.

**Definition 8.3.** For a positive integer  $n \geq 2$ , the **Dihedral group**  $D_n$  is defined to be the group of symmetries of an regular  $n-gon$ . By a symmetry, we mean rotation and reflection.

- 1. So,  $D_3$  is the dihedral group of an equilateral triangle. In fact,  $D_3 \approx S_3$ .
- 2. So,  $D_4$  is the dihedral group of square. For a square, four rotations  $(0, \pi/2, \pi, 3\pi/2)$  are possible. With four reflections of the four, we get total of 8 elements. So,  $|D_4| = 8$ .

Each element  $\rho \in D_4$  corresponds to a permuation in  $S_4$ . In fact,  $D_4 \leq S_4$ .

Like homomorphisms of binary structures, we define homomorphisms of groups.

**Definition 8.4.** Suppose  $\varphi : G \longrightarrow G'$  be a mapping from a group G to another group  $G'$ .

- 1. We say,  $\varphi$  is a **homomorphism** if  $\varphi(xy) = \varphi(x)\varphi(y)$  for all  $x, y \in G$ .
- 2. Given a subgroup H of G, the **image of** H under  $\varphi$  is defined to be  $\varphi(H) := \{\varphi(x) : x \in H\}$

**Lemma 8.5.** Suppose  $\varphi: G \longrightarrow G'$  is a homomorphism of groups. Assume  $\varphi$  is injective. Then the image  $\varphi(G)$  is a subgroup of G' and  $\varphi$  induces an isomorphism between G and  $\varphi(G)$ .

**Proof.** We do not have to check associativity. Suppose  $x, y \in \varphi(G)$ . Then  $x = \varphi(a), y = \varphi(b)$  for some  $a, b \in G$ . So,  $xy = \varphi(a) = \varphi(ab) \in \varphi(G)$ . So,  $\varphi(G)$  is closed under multiplication.

Let  $e' \in G'$  denote the identity in G'. We calaim:  $\varphi(e) = e'$ . Because  $\varphi(e) = \varphi(ee) = \varphi(e)\varphi(e)$ . So,  $e' = (\varphi(e)^{-1}(\varphi(e)\varphi(e)) = \varphi(e)$ . So, it is established that  $e' = \varphi(e)$ . Therefore  $e' \in \varphi(G)$ .

Given  $x \in \varphi(G)$ ,  $x = \varphi(a)$  for some  $a \in G$ . So,  $x\varphi(a^{-1}) = \varphi(a)\varphi(a^{-1}) =$  $\varphi(aa^{-1}) = \varphi((e0 = e'. \text{ Similarly}, \varphi(a^{-1})x = e'. \text{ So inverse of } x \text{ is } \varphi(a^{-1}) \in$  $\varphi(G).$ 

This establishes that  $\varphi(G)$  is subgroup of G'. Let  $f: G \longrightarrow \varphi(G)$  be the mapping induced by  $\varphi$ . Clearly, it is onto and it is also one to one. So, f is bijective. So, G is isomorphic to  $\varphi(G)$ . The proof is complete.

Now, we will prove any group is isomorphic to a group of permutations.

**Theorem 8.6** (Cayley's Theorem). Let G be a group. Then, G is isomorphic to a group of permutations.

**Proof.** Let  $\mathcal{S}(G)$  denote the group of permutations of G. Given an element  $a \in G$  define a mapping

$$
L_a: G \longrightarrow G
$$
 by  $L_a(x) = ax \quad \forall x \in G.$ 

(We use notation  $L_a$  for left multiplication by a.) It is easy to see  $L_a$  is a bijection. Hence  $L_a \in \mathcal{S}(G)$ . Define

$$
\varphi: G \longrightarrow \mathcal{S}(G) \quad \forall \ a \in G \quad define \quad \varphi(a) = L_a
$$

It is easy to see that  $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b)$ . So,  $\varphi$  is a a group homomorphism. Now we calim that  $\varphi$  is one to one. Suppose  $\varphi(a) = \varphi(b)$ . So,  $L_a = L_b$ . So,  $a = L_a(e) = L_b(e) = b$ . So,  $\varphi$  is injective. The theorem is established by lemma 8.5. The proof is complete.  $\blacksquare$ 

Remark. In this proof, we could have tried to use right multiplication  $R_a: G \longrightarrow G$ , defined by  $R_a(x) = xa$ . We define

$$
\psi: G \longrightarrow \mathcal{S}(G) \quad by \quad \psi(a) = R_a
$$

Then, for  $x \in G$ , we have

$$
\psi(ab)(x) = R_{ab}(x) = x(ab) = (xa)b = R_b(R_a(x)) = \psi(b)\psi(a)(x)
$$

 $\blacksquare$ 

 $\blacksquare$ 

So,  $\psi(ab) = \psi(b)\psi(a)$ .

Reading Assignment: Read Example 8.17.

# 9 Orbits, Cycles, the Altrnating group

### 9.1 Orbits

**Definition 9.1.** Let A be a set and  $\sigma$  be a (fixed) parmutation on A. We define an equivalence relation  $\sim$  on A as follows:

for  $a, b \in A$  define  $a \sim b$  if  $b = \sigma^n(a)$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Then, (1)  $a \sim a \ \forall a \in A$ . So  $\sim$  is reflexive. (2) If  $a \sim b$  then  $b = \sigma^n(a)$ . So,  $a = \sigma^{-n}(b)$ . So,  $b \sim a$ . This means  $\sim$  is symmetric. (3) In fact,  $\sigma$  is also transitive. To see this let  $a \sim b \sim c$ . Then  $b = \sigma^n(a)$  and  $c = \sigma^m(b)$  for some  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Hence  $c = \sigma^{m+n}(a)$ . So,  $a \sim c$ .

Therefore,  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation.

- 1. An equivalence class of this relation  $\sim$  is called an **orbit** of  $\sigma$ .
- 2. For  $a \in A$  the orbit of a is given by

$$
\overline{a} = \{ \sigma^n(a) : r \in \mathbb{Z} \}.
$$

If  $\bar{a}$  is finite, with r elements, then

$$
\overline{a} = \{\sigma^0(a), \sigma^1(a), \sigma^2(a), \ldots, \sigma^{r-1}(a)\}.
$$

3. For example, the identity permutation  $\iota$  of A, each orbit has one element.

4.

Example 9.2 (9.3). Find the orbits of the permutation

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8\\3 & 8 & 6 & 7 & 4 & 1 & 5 & 2\end{array}\right)
$$

Solution:

$$
1 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 6 \rightarrow 1
$$
,  $2 \rightarrow 8 \rightarrow 2$ ,  $4 \rightarrow 7 \rightarrow 5 \rightarrow 4$ 

### 9.2 Cycles

Now we assume  $A = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ . As mentioned before, the groups of all its permutations is the symmetric group  $S_n$ .

**Definition 9.3.** Let  $r_1, r_2, \ldots r_k$  be k distinct elements in  $A = \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}.$ The **notation**  $(r_1, r_2, \ldots r_k)$  denotes a permutation  $\sigma \in S_n$  defined as follows:

$$
\begin{cases}\n\sigma(r_1) = r_2, \sigma(r_2) = r_3, \dots, \sigma(r_{k-1}) = r_k, \sigma(r_k) = r_1, \\
\sigma(r) = r \quad \forall r \neq r_i\n\end{cases}
$$

In particular,

$$
\forall 2 \le i \le k \quad r_i = \sigma^{i-1}(r_1) \quad and \quad \sigma^k = I_A.
$$

**Definition 9.4.** Let  $\sigma \in S_n$ .

- 1. We say  $\sigma$  is a cycle, if it has at most one orbit with more than one element.
- 2. Also, define length of a cycle to be the number of elements in the largest cycle.
- 3. Suppose  $\sigma \in S_n$  is a cycle, with length k.
	- (a) Fix any a in the largest orbit of  $\sigma$ . Then this largest orbit is

$$
\overline{a} = \{\sigma^0(a), \sigma^1(a), \sigma^2(a), \ldots, \sigma^{k-1}(a)\}.
$$

- (b) Since  $\sigma$  has only one orbit of length more than 1,  $\sigma(r) = r$  for  $r \neq \sigma^i(a)$ .
- (c) We conclude

$$
\sigma = (\sigma^0(a), \sigma^1(a), \sigma^2(a), \dots, \sigma^{r-1}(a))
$$

So, any cycle can be described in this form.

Reading Assignment:Examples 9.7

**Theorem 9.5.** Let  $\sigma \in S_n$ . Then

$$
\sigma = \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \cdots \sigma_t
$$

is a product of disjoint cycles  $\sigma_i$ .

**Proof.** Let  $B_1, B_2, \ldots, B_r$  be the orbits of  $\sigma$ . Define cycles  $\sigma_i$  as follows:

$$
\sigma_i(x) = \begin{cases} \sigma(x) & \text{if } x \in B_i \\ x & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
$$

Clearly,  $\sigma = \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \cdots \sigma_r$ . They are disjoint too. The proof is complete. ٠

Example 9.6 (9.9). Find the orbits of the permutation

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

Write  $\sigma$  as product of cycles.

Example 9.7 (9.10). Compute

$$
(1, 4, 5, 6)(2, 1, 5)
$$
 and  $(2, 1, 5)(1, 4, 5, 6)$ 

### 9.3 Even and odd Permutations

Definition 9.8. A cycle of length two is called a transposition. So,  $\sigma = (1, 2) \in S_n$  is a transposition. It maps

$$
\begin{cases}\n1 \mapsto 2, \\
2 \mapsto 1 \quad \text{and} \\
r \mapsto r \quad \forall \ r \ge 3.\n\end{cases}
$$

Lemma 9.9. Any cycle is a product of transpositions.

Proof. We have

$$
(1, 2, \dots, r) = (1, n)(1, n - 1) \cdots (1, 3)(1, 2)
$$

It goes as follows:

1.  $1 \mapsto 2$ 2.  $2 \mapsto 1 \mapsto 3$ 3.  $3 \mapsto 1 \mapsto 4$ 4. so on.

The proof is complete.

**Corollary 9.10.** Any permutation  $\sigma \in S_n$  is product of transpostions.

**Proof.**  $\sigma$  is product of cycles and each cycle is product of transpostions. The proof is complete.

**Theorem 9.11.** Let  $\sigma \in S_n$ . Then,  $\sigma$  can be written as product of either even number of transpositions or odd number of transpositions, not both.

#### Proof. (This proof seems cheating.)

Let C be the matrix obtained by applying  $\sigma$  to the rows of the identity matrix. If  $\sigma$  is product of even number of transpositions, then det  $C = 1$ . If  $\sigma$  is product of odd number of transpositions, then det  $C = -1$ . So, it cannot be both. The proof is complete.

**Definition 9.12.** Let  $\sigma \in S_n$ . We say  $\sigma$  is an even permutation, if it is product of even number of transpositions. We say  $\sigma$  is an odd permutation, if it is product of odd number of transpositions.

### 9.4 Alternating Groups

Proposition 9.13. Let

 $A_n = \{ \sigma \in S_n : \sigma \text{ is an even permutation} \}$ 

and

 $B_n = \{ \sigma \in S_n : \sigma \text{ is an odd permutation} \}.$ 

Then,  $A_n$  and  $B_n$  have same number of elements.

Proof. We define a map

 $\lambda: A_n \longrightarrow B_n$  by  $\lambda(\sigma) = (1, 2)\sigma$ 

Define

$$
\mu: B_n \longrightarrow A_n \qquad by \quad \lambda(\sigma) = (1,2)\sigma
$$

Then,  $\mu\lambda(\sigma) = (1, 2)(1, 2)\sigma = \sigma$ . So,  $\mu\lambda = ID$ . Similarly,  $\lambda\mu = ID$ . So,  $\lambda$  is bijective. The proof is complete.

**Theorem 9.14.**  $A_n$  is a subgroup of  $S_n$ . The order of  $A_n$  is  $n!/2$ .

**Proof.**  $A_n$  is closed under composition. The identity  $\iota = (1, 2)(2, 1) \in A_n$ . The inverse of an even permutation is even. So,  $A_n$  is a subgroup.

Also,  $S_n = A_n \cup B_n$ ,  $A_n \cap B_n = \emptyset$  and  $A_n, B_n$  have same number of elements. So, order of  $A_n$  is  $n!/2$ . The proof is complete.

**Definition 9.15.**  $A_n$  is called the **Alternating group on** n objects.

# 10 Coset and order of subgroups

#### Abstract

For (finite) groups  $H \leq G$ , we will provide a partition of G and prove the order of H divides order of G.

#### 10.1 Cosets

**Theorem 10.1.** Let G be a group and H be a subgroup of G. Define relations  $\sim_L$  and  $\sim_R$  as follows:

∀  $a, b \in G$  define  $a \sim_L b$  if  $a^{-1}b \in H$ 

and

$$
\forall a, b \in G \quad define \quad a \sim_R b \quad if \quad ab^{-1} \in H.
$$

Then,  $\sim_L$  and  $\sim_R$  are equivalence relations on G.

**Proof.** We only show  $\sim_R$  is an equivalence relations on G (other one left as exercise).

1. (Reflexive:)

$$
\forall a \in G, \quad aa^{-1} = e \in H. \quad So, \quad a \sim_R a.
$$

So,  $\sim_R$  is reflexive.

2. (**Symmetric:**) For  $a, b \in G$  we have

 $a \sim_R b \Longrightarrow ab^{-1} \in H \Longrightarrow (ab^{-1})^{-1} \in H \Longrightarrow ba^{-1} \in H \Longrightarrow b \sim_R a$ .

So,  $\sim_R$  is symmetric.

3. (Transitive:) For  $a, b, c \in G$  we have

 $a \sim_R b \sim_R c \Longrightarrow ab^{-1}, bc^{-1} \in H \Longrightarrow ac^{-1} = (ab^{-1})(bc^{-1}) \in H \Longrightarrow a \sim_R c.$ So,  $\sim_R$  is transitive.

So,  $\sim_R$  is an equivalence relation.

Now we compute the equivalence classes (the cells) for  $\sim_L$  and  $\sim_R$ .

1. For  $a \in G$  define

$$
\begin{cases}\nHa = \{xa : x \in H\} & \text{called the right coset of } a \\
aH = \{ax : x \in H\} & \text{called the left coset of } a\n\end{cases}
$$

2. The map  $f : H \longrightarrow Ha$  defined by  $f(x) = xa$  is bijective. Similalry,  $q: H \longrightarrow aH$  defined by  $q(x) = ax$  is bijective. So,  $H, Ha, aH$  have same cardinality. Notationally,

$$
|H| = |Ha| = |aH|
$$

3. If G is abelian then  $Ha = aH$  for all  $a \in G$ .

**Lemma 10.2.** For the relation  $\sim_R$ , the equivalence class of  $a \in G$  is the right coset Ha. For the relation  $\sim_L$ , the equivalence class of  $a \in G$ is the left coset  $aH$ .

**Proof.** We will give a proof only for  $\sim_R$  and the other one is left as an exercise. Let  $\bar{a}$  denote the equivlence class of a, for the relation  $\sim_R$ . Now,

$$
x \in \overline{a} \Longleftrightarrow x \sim_R a \Longleftrightarrow xa^{-1} \in H \Longleftrightarrow x \in Ha.
$$

So,  $\bar{a} = Ha$ . The proof is complete.

It follows from properties of equivalence classes that the left cosets (respectively right cosets) partitions G. This means

$$
G = \bigcup_{a \in G} aH \quad and \quad \forall a, b \in G \quad either \quad (aH = bH \quad or \quad aH \cap bH = \phi).
$$

Theorem 10.3 (Theorem of Lagrange). Let G be a finite group and  $H$  be subgroup of  $G$ . Then, the order of  $H$  divides the order of  $G$ .

**Proof.** Let r be the number of left cosets of H. Let  $m = |H|, n = |G|$ . Then  $m = |aH|$  for all  $a \in G$ . Since the left cosets partions G we have

$$
|G| = |H| \, r = mr.
$$

The proof is complete.  $\blacksquare$ 

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**Corollary 10.4.** Suppose  $G$  is a group of prime order. Then  $G$  is cyclic.

**Proof.** Let  $a \in G$  and  $a \neq e$ . Then,  $H = \langle a \rangle$  is subgroup of order at least two. Since |H| divides |G|, we have  $|G| = |H|$ . So,  $G = H = \langle a \rangle$ is cyclic. The proof is complete. П

**Corollary 10.5.** Suppose G is a group of prime order p. Then  $G \approx \mathbb{Z}_p$ .

**Proof.** First  $G = \langle a \rangle$  is cyclic. We showed before, the map

$$
\varphi : \mathbb{Z}_p \longrightarrow G \qquad \overline{r} \mapsto a^r
$$

is an isomprphism. The proof is complete.

**Definition 10.6.** Let G be a group and  $a \in G$ . Then the **order of** a is defined to be the order of the cyclic group  $\langle a \rangle$ . Order of a is denoted by  $o(a)$ . So,

$$
o(a):=|\langle a\rangle|.
$$

In fact,

$$
o(a) = \min\{n > 0 : a^n = 1\}
$$

**Corollary 10.7.** Let G be a finite group and  $a \in G$ . The order of a divides the order of G.

Proof. Trivial.

Here is an important number.

**Definition 10.8.** Let G be a finite group and H be a subgroup of G. The number of left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  is defined to be the index of H in G. The index of H in G, is denoted by  $(G : H)$ . So,

$$
(G:H)=\frac{|G|}{|H|}.
$$

Note this this is also the number of right cosets of H.

**Theorem 10.9.** Let  $G$  be a finite group and  $H, K$  are subgroup of  $G$ . Assume  $K \leq H \leq G$ . Then

$$
(G:K) = (G:H)(H:K).
$$

Proof. We have

$$
(G:K) = \frac{|G|}{|K|}, \quad (G:H) = \frac{|G|}{|H|}, \quad and \quad (H:K) = \frac{|H|}{|K|}
$$

The proof is complete.

 $\blacksquare$ 

### 11 Direct Product

Direct product could be defined in any category. Here we do it in the category of groups.

Definition 11.1. We define direct product of groups.

1. Let  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  be two groups. We define a binary product on  $G_1 \times G_2$  as follows:

 $\forall (a_1, a_2), (b_1, b_2) \in G_1 \times G_2$  define  $(a_1, a_2) \cdot (b_1, b_2) := (a_1b_1, a_2b_2)$ 

Then,  $(G_1 \times G_2, \cdot)$  is a group, to be called the **direct product** of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ . Here

- (a)  $e = (e_1, e_2) \in G_1 \times G_2$  is the identity of this product, where  $e_i$  is the identity of  $G_i$ .
- (b) Also  $(a_1, a_2)^{-1} = (a_1^{-1}, a_2^{-1}).$
- 2. More generally, let  $G_1, G_2, \ldots, G_n$  be finitely many groups. Define a binary product on the cartesian product  $G_1 \times G_2 \times \cdots \times G_n$ as follows

 $\forall (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n), (b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n) \in G_1 \times G_2 \times \cdots \times G_n$  define

 $(a_1, a_2 \ldots, a_n) \cdot (b_1, b_2 \ldots, b_n) := (a_1b_1, a_2b_2, \ldots, a_nb_n)$ 

Then,  $(G_1 \times G_2 \times \cdots \times G_n, \cdot)$  is a group, to be called the **direct** product of  $G_1, G_2, \ldots, G_n$ . Here

- (a)  $e = (e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n) \in G_1 \times G_2 \times \cdots \times G_n$  is the identity of this product, where  $e_i$  is the identity of  $G_i$ .
- (b) Also  $(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n)^{-1} = (a_1^{-1}, a_2^{-1} \ldots, a_n^{-1}).$
- 3. The direct product of  $G_1, G_2, \ldots, G_n$  is also denoted by

$$
\prod_{i=1}^{n} G_i
$$
 OR  $G_1 \times G_2 \times \cdots \times G_n$ 

Proof. Trivial.

**Example 11.2.** 1.  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3$  is a cyclic group. (see 11.3)

2.  $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_3$  is not cyclic. (see 11.4)

**Theorem 11.3.** The group  $\mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n$  is cyclic if and only if m and n are relatively prime.

**Proof.** First, note that the order  $|\mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n| = mn$ . (←): Assume m and n are relatively prime. Write  $o(\overline{1}, \overline{1}) = k$ . (Here, we use additive notation, unlike our default product notation.) So

$$
k(\overline{1},\overline{1}) = (\overline{0},\overline{0}).
$$
 or  $(\overline{k},\overline{k}) = (\overline{0},\overline{0})$ 

[Recall, by notation  $k(\overline{1}, \overline{1}) = (\overline{1}, \overline{1}) + \cdots + (\overline{1}, \overline{1}).$ ] So,  $\overline{k} = \overline{0}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  and  $\overline{k} = \overline{0}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ . So, k is divisible by m and n. Since,

 $m, n$  are relatively prime, it follows  $mn$  divides k. Since

$$
k = o(\overline{1}, \overline{1}) \le mn = |\mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n|
$$

it follows that  $k = mn$ . Therefore,  $\langle (\overline{1}, \overline{1}) \rangle = \mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n$ . So, it is established that  $\mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n$  cyclic, and is generated by  $(\overline{1}, \overline{1})$ . Since  $\mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n$  is cyclic of order mn, it is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_{mn}$ . This completes the proof of  $(\Leftarrow)$ .

 $(\Rightarrow)$ : Now assume that  $\mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n$  is cyclic. Write  $gcd(m, n) = d$ . We need to prove  $d=1$ . Let  $u=\frac{mn}{d}$  $\frac{dn}{d}$ . Both m and n divide u. So,

$$
\forall a = (\overline{r}, \overline{s}) \in \mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n \Longrightarrow ua = (\overline{ur}, \overline{us}) = (\overline{0}, \overline{0}).
$$

So,

$$
\forall \qquad a \in \mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n \quad we \; have \quad o(a) \leq u.
$$

Since  $\mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n = \langle x \rangle$  is cyclic, its generator x has order mn. So,  $o(x) = mn \le u = \frac{mn}{d}$  $\frac{dn}{d}$ . So,  $d = 1$ . The proof is complete.

Inductively, it follows

**Corollary 11.4.**  $\prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{Z}_{m_i}$  is cyclic if and only if the integers  $m_1, m_2, \ldots, m_n$ are pair wise relatively prime.

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**Example 11.5** (11.7). Let  $n = p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \cdots p_r^{n_r}$ , where  $p_i$  are distinct primes. Then,

$$
\mathbb{Z}_n = \prod_{i=1}^r \mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{n_i}}
$$

**Exercise 11.6.** Find the order of  $(8, 4, 10)$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_{12} \times \mathbb{Z}_{60} \times \mathbb{Z}_{24}$ . (see 11.10)

Answer is the lcm of the order of these three.

### 11.1 Extra

We discusss some properties direct product, which applies to other categories.

**Lemma 11.7.** Let  $G_1, G_2$  be two groups.

1. Then, the projections

$$
\begin{cases} \pi_1: G_1 \times G_2 \longrightarrow G_1 & sending \pi_2: G_1 \times G_2 \longrightarrow G_2 & sending \pi_3: (g_1, g_2) \mapsto g_2 \end{cases}
$$

are group homomorphisms.

2. Also, the maps

$$
\begin{cases}\n\iota_1: G_1 \longrightarrow G_1 \times G_2 & sending \quad g \mapsto (g, e_2) \\
\iota_2: G_2 \longrightarrow G_1 \times G_2 & sending \quad g \mapsto (e_1, g)\n\end{cases}
$$

are injective group homomorphism.

#### More Generally:

Example 11.8. Suppose  $G_1, G_2, \ldots, G_n$  are groups.

1. Prove the projection map

$$
\pi_i: G_1 \times G_2 \times \cdots \times G_n \mapsto G_i
$$
 sending  $(g_1, g_2, \cdots, g_n) \mapsto g_i$ 

is a group homomorphism.

2. Consider the map

$$
\iota_i: G_i \longrightarrow: G_1 \times G_2 \times \cdots \times G_n \qquad sending \quad g \mapsto (e_1, e_2, \ldots, g, \ldots e_n)
$$

where g is at the  $i^{th}$ -coordinate. Prove  $\iota_i$  is an injective homomorphism.

#### Proof.

1. Let  $x = (g_1, g_2, \ldots, g_n), y = (h_1, h_2, \ldots, h_n)$  be in  $G_i \longrightarrow G_1 \times$  $G_2 \times \cdots \times G_n$ . Then

$$
\pi_i(xy) = \pi(g_1h_1, g_2h_2, \dots, g_nh_n) = g_ih_i = \pi(x)\pi(y).
$$

So, by definition,  $\pi$  is a homomorphism.

2. Let  $g, h \in G_i$ . Then

$$
\iota_i(gh) = ((e_1, e_2, \dots, gh, \dots e_n) = (e_1, e_2, \dots, g, \dots, e_n)(e_1, e_2, \dots, h, \dots e_n) = \iota(g)\iota(h).
$$

п

So, by definition,  $\iota$  is a homomorphism. To prove injectivity, let

$$
\iota_i(g) = \iota(h).
$$
 Then,  $(e_1, e_2, \dots, g, \dots e_n) = (e_1, e_2, \dots, h, \dots e_n)$   
So,  $g = h.$ 

The proof is complete.

The direct product has the following "universal property":

**Lemma 11.9.** Let  $G_1, G_2$  and H be groups. For  $i = 1, 2$ , let

For  $i = 1, 2$  $\int \pi_i : G_1 \times G_2 \longrightarrow G_i$  be the projections  $p_i: H \longrightarrow G_i$  any two group homomorphims

Then, there is a a unique group homomorphims  $\Delta: H \longrightarrow G_1 \times G_2$ such that  $\pi_1 \Delta = p_1$  and  $\pi_2 \Delta = p_2$ . Diagramtically:



## 11.2 Structure of finitely generate abelian groups

Usually, theory of abelian groups is easier than that of non-commutative groups. We can say more about abelian groups.

Theorem 11.10 (Fundamental Theorem of Abelian Groups). Let G be a finitely generated abelian groups. Then  $G$  is isomorphis to the product of cyclic groups:

$$
\mathbb{Z}_{p_1^{n_1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_2^{n_2}} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_r^{n_r}} \times \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}
$$

where  $p_i$  are prime numbers, not necessarily distinct and  $n_i$  are positive integers.

Proof. Omitted.

 $\blacksquare$ 

# 12 Plane Isometries

We skip.