

# Part III. Homomorphisms and Factor Groups

## Section III.13. Homomorphisms

**Note.** So far our study of algebra has been a study of the structure of groups. By “structure” I mean such properties as abelian or nonabelian, the number of generators, the orders of subgroups, the types of subgroups, etc. The idea behind a homomorphism between two groups is that it is a mapping which preserves the binary operation (from which all “structure” follows), but may not be a one to one and onto mapping (and so it may lack the preservation of the “purely set theoretic” properties, as the text says).

**Definition 13.1.** A map  $\varphi$  of a group  $G$  into a group  $G'$  is a *homomorphism* if for all  $a, b \in G$  we have  $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b)$ .

**Note.** We see that  $\varphi : G \rightarrow G'$  is an isomorphism if it is a one to one and onto homomorphism.

**Note.** There is always a homomorphism between any two groups  $G$  and  $G'$ . If  $e'$  is the identity element of  $G'$ , then  $\varphi(g) = e'$  for all  $g \in G$  is a homomorphism called the *trivial homomorphism*.

**Example 13.2.** Suppose  $\varphi : G \rightarrow G'$  is a homomorphism and  $\varphi$  is onto  $G'$ . If  $G$  is abelian then  $G'$  is abelian. Notice that this shows how we can get structure preservation without necessarily having an isomorphism.

**Example 13.8.** Let  $G = G_1 \times G_2 \times \cdots \times G_i \times \cdots \times G_n$  be a direct product of groups  $G_1, G_2, \dots, G_n$ . Define the *projection map*  $\pi_i : G \rightarrow G_i$  where  $\pi_i((g_1, g_2, \dots, g_i, \dots, g_n)) = g_i$ . Then  $\pi_i$  is a homomorphism.

**Exercise 13.10.** Let  $F$  be the *additive* group of all continuous functions mapping  $\mathbb{R}$  into  $\mathbb{R}$ . Let  $\mathbb{R}$  be the *additive* group of real numbers and let  $\varphi : F \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be given by  $\varphi(f) = \int_0^4 f(x) dx$ . Then  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism.

**Definition 13.11.** Let  $\varphi$  be a mapping of a set  $X$  into a set  $Y$ , and let  $A \subseteq X$  and  $B \subseteq Y$ . The *image* of  $A$  in  $Y$  under  $\varphi$  is  $\varphi[A] = \{\varphi(a) \mid a \in A\}$ . The set  $\varphi[X]$  is the *range* of  $\varphi$  (notice that  $\varphi$  is defined on all of  $X$  and we can take  $X$  as the domain of  $\varphi$ ). The *inverse image* of  $B$  in  $X$  is  $\varphi^{-1}[B] = \{x \in X \mid \varphi(x) \in B\}$ .

**Theorem 13.12.** Let  $\varphi$  be a homomorphism of a group  $G$  into group  $G'$ .

- (1) If  $e$  is the identity in  $G$ , then  $\varphi(e)$  is the identity element  $e'$  in  $G'$ .
- (2) If  $a \in G$  then  $\varphi(a^{-1}) = (\varphi(a))^{-1}$ .
- (3) If  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , then  $\varphi[H]$  is a subgroup of  $G'$ .
- (4) If  $K'$  is a subgroup of  $G'$ , then  $\varphi^{-1}[K']$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .

**Note.** Theorem 13.12 shows that homomorphisms map identities to identities, inverses to inverses, and subgroups (back and forth) to subgroups.

**Note.** By Theorem 13.12 part (4), we know that for  $K < G'$ , where  $K = \{e'\}$ , we have  $\varphi^{-1}[K] < G$ . This subgroup  $\varphi^{-1}[K]$  includes all elements of  $G$  mapped under  $\varphi$  to  $e'$ . You encountered a similar idea in linear algebra when considering an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  as a linear transformation from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbb{R}^m$  are groups (by Theorem 11.2) and multiplication on the left by  $A$  is a homomorphism from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  into  $\mathbb{R}^m$  since  $A(\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = A\vec{v} + A\vec{w}$  for all  $\vec{v}, \vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  (this is Example 13.5). The identity in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  is  $\vec{0}$  and the elements of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  mapped to  $\vec{0}$  form the *nullspace* of  $A$ . That is, the nullspace of  $A$  is  $A^{-1}[\{\vec{0}\}]$  (here, we use the symbol  $A^{-1}$  in the sense of an inverse *image* of a set under a mapping, not in the sense of the inverse of matrix  $A$  which may or may not exist). Recall that the nullspace of  $A$  is related to the invertibility of matrix  $A$  (and so, indirectly at least, to whether the mapping  $A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is one to one and onto—that is, whether it is an isomorphism). In short, the elements of  $G$  mapped to the identity of  $G'$  are important!

**Definition 13.13.** Let  $\varphi : G \rightarrow G'$  be a homomorphism. The subgroup  $\varphi^{-1}[\{e'\}] = \{x \in G \mid \varphi(x) = e'\}$  (where  $e'$  is the identity in  $G$ ) is the *kernel* of  $\varphi$ , denoted  $\text{Ker}(\varphi)$ .

**Exercise 13.18.** Let  $\varphi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{10}$  be a homomorphism such that  $\varphi(1) = 6$ . Find  $\text{Ker}(\varphi)$ .

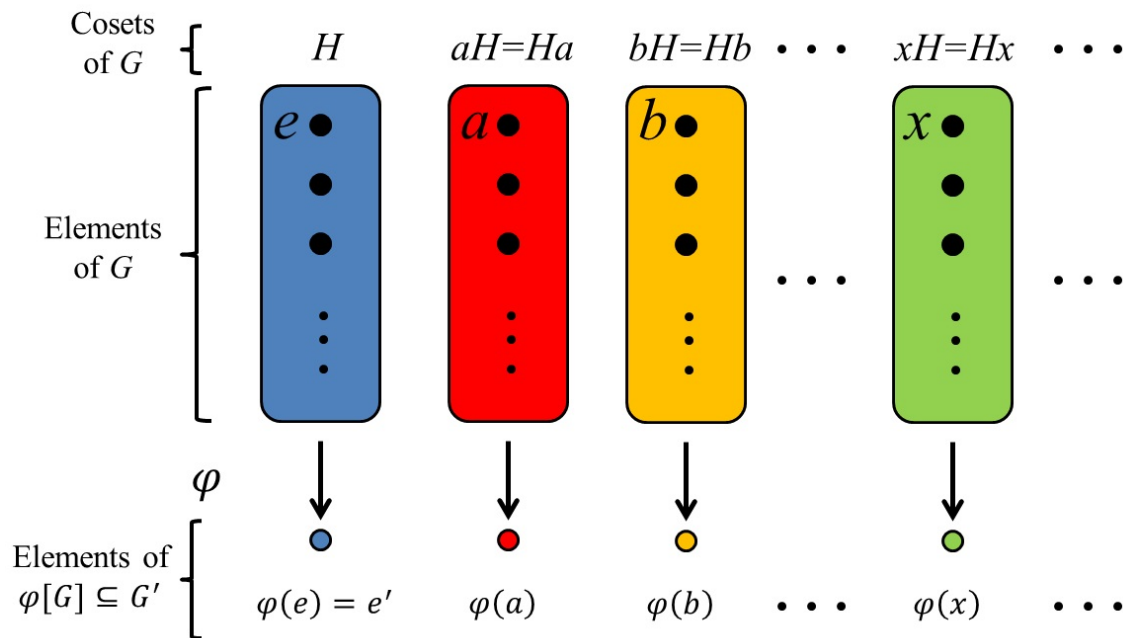
**Note.** The following result relates  $\text{Ker}(\varphi)$  to cosets.

**Theorem 13.15.** Let  $\varphi : G \rightarrow G'$  be a group homomorphism and let  $H = \text{Ker}(\varphi)$ . Let  $a \in G$ . Then the set

$$\varphi^{-1}[\{\varphi(a)\}] = \{x \in G \mid \varphi(x) = \varphi(a)\}$$

is the left coset  $aH$  of  $H$ , and is also the right coset  $Ha$  of  $H$ . So, the two partitions of  $G$  into left cosets and right cosets (see Section II.10) are the same.

**Note.** Recall that  $\varphi$  may not be one to one. In fact, if  $\text{Ker}(\varphi) \neq \{e\}$ , then we know that  $\varphi$  is not one to one (in fact this is an “if and only if” observation— see Corollary 13.18 below). So we can think of  $\varphi$  as a “many to one” mapping (for example,  $f(x) = x^2$  is a two to one mapping for  $x \neq 0$  since every nonzero element of the range is the image of two elements in the domain). Theorem 13.15 tells us that  $\varphi$  maps many elements of  $G$  onto single elements of  $G'$ . That is,  $\varphi$  maps the cosets  $aH$  and  $Ha$  onto the same element of  $G'$ —namely  $\varphi(a)$ . We exhibited a one to one mapping between the different cosets of  $G$  with respect to subgroup  $H$  in the Lemma stated before the proof of Lagrange’s Theorem (see the class notes from Section II.10 or page 100 of the text), so all cosets of  $H$  are of the same cardinality (this cardinality is the “many” in the “many to one” mentioned above). We can think of  $\varphi$  as “collapsing down” (the text’s wording—see page 129) the cosets of  $H$  onto individual elements of  $G'$ . See Figure 13.14 on page 130 or consider:



Notice, for example, that  $\varphi^{-1}[\{\varphi(a)\}]$  is the coset  $aH = Ha$ . Now for the proof.

**Example 13.17.** Let  $D$  be the additive group of all differentiable functions mapping  $\mathbb{R}$  into  $\mathbb{R}$ , and let  $F$  be the additive group of all functions mapping  $\mathbb{R}$  into  $\mathbb{R}$ . Define  $\varphi : D \rightarrow F$  as the differentiation operator  $\varphi(f) = f'$ . Then  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism since for all  $f, g \in D$  we have

$$\varphi(f + g) = (f + g)' = f' + g' = \varphi(f) + \varphi(g).$$

Now  $\text{Ker}(\varphi) = \{f \in D \mid f' = 0\}$ , so  $\text{Ker}(\varphi)$  is the set of all constant functions (which, of course, is a subgroup of  $D$ , call it  $C$ ). We know  $x^2 \in F$  so let's find all elements of  $D$  mapped under  $\varphi$  to  $x^2$ :

$$\{f \in D \mid \varphi(f) = f' = x^2 \in F\}.$$

We know from Calculus 1 (MATH 1910) that this is the *set* of all functions of the form  $f(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + k$  for some constant  $k$ . We denote this set as  $\int x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + C$ .

By Theorem 13.15, this set is the coset of  $\text{Ker}(\varphi)$  of  $x^2 C$ :  $x^2 C = \int x^2 dx$ .

**Note.** The following result tells us when a homomorphism  $\varphi$  is “one to one” versus “many to one,” in terms of  $\text{Ker}(\varphi)$ .

**Corollary 13.18.** A group homomorphism  $\varphi : G \rightarrow G'$  is a one to one map if and only if  $\text{Ker}(\varphi) = \{e\}$ .

**Exercise 13.34.** Is there a nontrivial homomorphism from  $\mathbb{Z}_{12}$  to  $\mathbb{Z}_4$ ?

**Note.** We’ll see in the next section that when the left and right cosets of subgroup  $H$  are the same,  $gH = Hg$  for all  $g \in G$ , then we can form a group out of the cosets of  $H$  (as discussed informally in Section II.10). Such subgroups  $H$  are useful in the study of nonabelian groups (we already have a classification of abelian groups in Theorem 11.12—at least, finitely generated abelian groups).

**Definition 13.19.** A subgroup  $H$  of a group  $G$  is *normal* if its left and right cosets coincide, that is if  $gH = Hg$  for all  $g \in G$ . Fraleigh simply says “ $H$  is a normal subgroup of  $G$ ,” but a common notation is  $H \triangleleft G$ .

**Note.** If  $G$  is abelian, then all subgroups of  $G$  are normal.

**Corollary 13.20.** If  $\varphi : G \rightarrow G'$  is a homomorphism, then  $\text{Ker}(\varphi)$  is a normal subgroup of  $G$ .

**Note.** We'll see more on normal subgroups in Section III.15 and a lot more in Section III.16 in connection with simple groups.

**Exercise 13.50.** Let  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  be a group homomorphism. Then  $\varphi[G]$  is abelian if and only if for all  $x, y \in G$  we have  $xyx^{-1}y^{-1} \in \text{Ker}(\varphi)$ .

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