

Some Properties of \mathcal{D} -sets of a Group¹

Joris N. Buloron, Cristopher John S. Rosero,
Jay M. Ontolan

Mathematics and ICT Department
Cebu Normal University
Cebu City, Philippines

Michael P. Baldado Jr.²

Mathematics Department
Negros Oriental State University
Dumaguete City, Philippines

Copyright © 2014 Joris N. Buloron et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Abstract

A subset D of a group G is called a \mathcal{D} -set if every element of G which is not in D has its inverse in D . In this paper, we gave some of the properties of a \mathcal{D} -set.

Mathematics Subject Classification: 20Dxx

Keyword: \mathcal{D} -sets, groups, subgroups, union

1 Introduction

Some investigations in group theory are concerned with finding a subset H of a group G which is also a group under the same operation (in this case, H is called a subgroup of G). Some even endeavored to find all subgroups of a given

¹This research is funded by Cebu Normal University, Cebu City, Philippines.

²Corresponding author

group and how each of these subsets are related. In contrast to such idea, we introduced in this research special subsets of a group which are normally not subgroups. A subset D of a group G is called a \mathcal{D} -set if every element of G which is not in D has its inverse in D . It will be shown that a proper subset of a group, which is a \mathcal{D} -set, is not a subgroup.

The following concepts are taken from [1], [2] and [3].

A *binary operation* on a nonempty set G is a function $G \times G \rightarrow G$. A *semigroup* is a nonempty set G together with a binary operation on G which is associative. A *group* is a semigroup which contains an element e with the property that $ge = g = eg$ for all $g \in G$ (in this case we call e the identity element); and for each $g \in G$, there exists $h \in G$ such that $gh = e = hg$.

Let G and H be semigroups. A function $f : G \rightarrow H$ is a *homomorphism* if for all $a, b \in G$, $f(ab) = f(a)f(b)$. If f is surjective, then we call f an *epimorphism*. On the other hand, a bijective homomorphism is called an *isomorphism*.

2 Results

We now give some properties of a \mathcal{D} -set.

Theorem 2.1 *Let G be a group. Then*

- i. The set T of all \mathcal{D} -sets of G is a semigroup under the set operation union.*
- ii. The set T^C of complements of all \mathcal{D} -sets of G is a semigroup under the set operation intersection.*

Proof: Let $D_1, D_2 \in T$ and consider $G \setminus (D_1 \cup D_2)$. Let $x \in G \setminus (D_1 \cup D_2)$. Then $x \notin D_1 \cup D_2$, that is, $x \notin D_1$ and $x \notin D_2$. Since D_1 and D_2 are \mathcal{D} -sets, $x^{-1} \in D_1$ and $x^{-1} \in D_2$. Thus, $x^{-1} \in D_1 \cup D_2$. This shows that $D_1 \cup D_2$ is a \mathcal{D} -set of G . Since associativity holds for the operation union of sets, T is a semigroup.

Let $E_1, E_2 \in T^C$. Thus, $G \setminus E_1$ and $G \setminus E_2$ are \mathcal{D} -sets of G . By the first part, $(G \setminus E_1) \cup (G \setminus E_2)$ is also a \mathcal{D} -set. Since $(G \setminus E_1) \cup (G \setminus E_2) = G \setminus (E_1 \cap E_2)$, we get $E_1 \cap E_2 \in T^C$. Finally, since associativity holds for intersection, T^C is a semigroup. ■

Theorem 2.2 *Let D be a \mathcal{D} -set and $x \in G$ such that $x^2 = e$. Then $x \in D$.*

Proof: Suppose $x \notin D$. Since D is a \mathcal{D} -set, there exists $y \in D$ such that $xy = e$. Note that y is necessarily x^{-1} . Since $x^2 = e$, $x = x^{-1} = y \in D$. This is a contradiction. Hence, $x \in D$. ■

The elements of order 2 of a group are what we called *involutions*. Theorem 2.2 suggests that involutions together with the identity element belong to any \mathcal{D} -set of G . The next theorem compares the cardinality of a \mathcal{D} -set and its complement. We borrow a convention from [4] which states that for sets X and Y , $|X| \preceq |Y|$ only if there exists an injection $f : X \rightarrow Y$.

Theorem 2.3 *Let D be a \mathcal{D} -set of a group G . Then $|G \setminus D| \preceq |D|$.*

Proof: Define $f : G \setminus D \rightarrow D$ by $f(x) = x^{-1}$. Let $x, y \in G \setminus D$. Then by the uniqueness of the inverse, we have, $x = y \Leftrightarrow x^{-1} = y^{-1} \Leftrightarrow f(x) = f(y)$. Hence, f is a well-defined injection. Accordingly, $|G \setminus D| \preceq |D|$. ■

For a finite group G , it is evident that a \mathcal{D} -set has more elements than its complement.

Theorem 2.4 *Let G be a group and $x \in G$. Then $T(x) = \{D \in T : x \in D\}$ is a sub-semigroup of T .*

Proof: All we need is to show the closure property. Let G be a group containing an element x and T be the set of all \mathcal{D} -sets of G . Let $T(x) = \{D \in T : x \in D\}$ and suppose D_i and D_j be any two elements of $T(x)$. By Theorem 2.1, $D_i \cup D_j$ is also in T . But since x is clearly in $D_i \cup D_j$, then $D_i \cup D_j$ must also be in $T(x)$. ■

Theorem 2.5 *Let x be a non-identity element of a group G . Then x is an involution if and only if $T(x) = T$.*

Proof: Suppose x is an involution of G . Then by Theorem 2.2, x is in every \mathcal{D} -set of G . Hence, $T(x) \supseteq T$. Since $T(x) \subseteq T$, we have $T(x) = T$.

Conversely, assume that $T(x) = T$ and x is not an involution. If x is non-involution and x is not the identity, then $x^{-1} \neq x$. Note that if D is a \mathcal{D} -set, then $(D \setminus \{x\}) \cup \{x^{-1}\}$ is a \mathcal{D} -set that do not contain x . This is a contradiction. Hence, x must be an involution. ■

Theorem 2.6 *Let G be a group with an element x whose order is 2. Then any \mathcal{D} -set of G contains a nontrivial subgroup of G .*

Proof: Let D be a \mathcal{D} -set of G . If $x \in G$ is of order 2 then $\langle x \rangle = \{x, e\}$ with $x^2 = e$. By Theorem 2.2, $x \in D$. Hence, $\langle x \rangle \subseteq D$. ■

The concept of \mathcal{D} -set can be used to characterize groups and subgroups. The following theorems reveal how \mathcal{D} -set show that a subgroup is improper and when can the group be trivial.

Theorem 2.7 *G has a trivial \mathcal{D} -set if and only if G is trivial.*

Proof: Suppose G is a trivial group. Then $G = \{e\}$ is a \mathcal{D} -set of G .

Conversely, suppose that G has a trivial \mathcal{D} -set and G is a nontrivial group. Then there exists a non-identity element x in G . Note that x is necessarily in $G \setminus \{e\}$. Since $\{e\}$ is a \mathcal{D} -set, there exists $y \in \{e\}$ (i.e. $y = e$) such that $xy = e$. This implies that $x = e$. This is a contradiction. Hence G must be trivial. ■

Theorem 2.8 *Let T be the set of all \mathcal{D} -set of G and $S = \{x \in G : x^2 = e\}$. Then $|T| = 1$ if and only if $G = S$.*

Proof: Assume that $|T| = 1$ and $S \neq G$. Then there exists $x \in G \setminus S$ such that $x^2 \neq e$ (i.e. $x \neq x^{-1}$). Let $D \in T$ and consider the following cases:

Case 1: $x \notin D$

If $x \notin D$, then $D \cup \{x\}$ is another \mathcal{D} -set of G , contradicting the fact that D is the only \mathcal{D} -set of G .

Case 2: $x \in D$

If $x \in D$, then $(D \setminus \{x\}) \cup \{x^{-1}\}$ is another \mathcal{D} -set of G , contradicting the assumption that D is the only \mathcal{D} -set of G .

Hence, S must be equal to G .

Conversely, suppose $G = S$. Note that for any D in T , $S \subseteq D$. Hence, $S \subseteq D \subseteq G$, which implies that $D = G$. Accordingly, $|T| = 1$. ■

In the next theorem, the usual subgroup notation will be used; that is, $H \leq G$ denotes that H is a subgroup of G .

Theorem 2.9 *Let $H \leq G$. Then H contains a \mathcal{D} -set of G if and only if $H = G$.*

Proof: Suppose H contains a \mathcal{D} -set D of G and $H \neq G$. Then there exists $x \in G \setminus H$. Since $x \notin H$, x must also be not in D . This implies that x^{-1} is in D . But this means that $x = (x^{-1})^{-1}$ is in H . This is a contradiction. Thus, $H = G$.

If $H = G$, then G is a \mathcal{D} -set of G contained in H . ■

Remark 2.10 *If each nontrivial subgroup contains a \mathcal{D} -set of a nontrivial group G then G is simple.*

To see this, suppose that G is a nontrivial group which is not simple. This means that G has a proper nontrivial normal subgroup H . Assume that each nontrivial subgroup contains a \mathcal{D} -set of G . Accordingly, H must contain a \mathcal{D} -set of G . By Theorem 2.9, $H = G$ which is a contradiction.

Theorem 2.11 *Let G_1 and G_2 be groups, and $\phi : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ be an epimorphism of groups.*

- i. If D_1 is a \mathcal{D} -set of G_1 , then $\phi(D_1)$ is a \mathcal{D} -set of G_2 .*
- ii. If D_2 is a \mathcal{D} -set of G_2 , then $\phi^{-1}(D_2)$ is a \mathcal{D} -set of G_1 .*

Proof: Let D_1 be a \mathcal{D} -set of G_1 and $y \in G_2 \setminus \phi(D_1)$, then there exists $x \in G_1$ such that $y = \phi(x)$. Note that $x \in G_1 \setminus D_1$, otherwise, $y = \phi(x) \in \phi(D_1)$. Since D_1 is a \mathcal{D} -set, $x^{-1} \in D_1$. Necessarily, $\phi(x^{-1}) \in \phi(D_1)$. Hence, there exists $z = \phi(x^{-1}) \in \phi(D_1)$ such that $yz = \phi(x)\phi(x^{-1}) = \phi(xx^{-1}) = \phi(e_1) = e_2$. This shows that $\phi(D_1)$ is a \mathcal{D} -set of G_2 .

Let D_2 be a \mathcal{D} -set of G_2 and $x \in G_1 \setminus \phi^{-1}(D_2)$. Note that $\phi(x) \notin D_2$, otherwise $x \in \phi^{-1}(D_2)$. Since D_2 is a \mathcal{D} -set, $\phi(x)^{-1} = \phi(x^{-1}) \in D_2$. Hence $x^{-1} \in \phi^{-1}(D_2)$. This shows that $\phi^{-1}(D_2)$ is a \mathcal{D} -set of G_1 . ■

This section culminates with a theorem which shows that the families T of \mathcal{D} -sets of a group and T^C of their corresponding complements are structurally alike.

Theorem 2.12 *T is isomorphic to T^C .*

Proof: We form $\phi : T \rightarrow T^C$ defined by $\phi(D) = G \setminus D$, where $D \in T$ and thus $G \setminus D$ must be in T^C . Then ϕ is obviously a bijection. Now, let D_1 and D_2 be in T . This means that $G \setminus D_1$ and $G \setminus D_2$ are in T^C . Further $\phi(D_1 \cup D_2) = G \setminus (D_1 \cup D_2) = (G \setminus D_1) \cap (G \setminus D_2) = \phi(D_1) \cap \phi(D_2)$. Hence, $\phi : T \rightarrow T^C$ is an isomorphism. ■

References

- [1] J. B. Fraleigh, A First Course in Abstract Algebra, 6th ed., Addison-Wesley Company Inc., 1999.

- [2] T. Harju, Lecture Notes on Semigroups, Department of Mathematics, University of Turku, Finland, 1996.
- [3] T. W. Hungerford, Algebra, Springer-Verlag New York, Inc, 1976.
- [4] D. C. Kurtz, Foundations of Abstract Mathematics , Singapore: McGraw-Hill Inc., 1992.

Received: May 5, 2014