

ON FUNDAMENTAL PROPERTIES OF HOM-GROUPS

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ABSTRACT. This paper focuses on the study of Hom-groups. A Hom-group $(G, *, \alpha)$ is the non-associative generalization of the classical group G whose associativity and unitality are twisted by a compatible bijective map α . We present more properties of Hom-groups, Hom-subgroups, Hom-normal subgroups, Hom-quotient groups and Hom-group homomorphisms with examples. We prove the Zassenhaus Butterfly Lemma of Hom-groups as a major result of this paper.

Keywords: Hom-group; Hom-normal subgroup; Hom-quotient group; Hom-group homomorphism.

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1. Introduction

The concept of Hom-Lie algebras was introduced by Hartwig et al. in [6] in their study of deformations of the Witt and Virasoro algebras. Since the introduction of Hom-Lie algebras, many researchers have worked on expanding and extending the concept to include other Hom-like structures such as Hom-Lie groups, Hom-Hopf algebras, Hom-coalgebras and Hom-bialgebras. For full details, the readers should see ([2], [3], [5], [6], [11-13], [15-19], [21-24]). Hassanzadeh [8], Laurent-Gengoux and Makhlouf [13] have shown in their works that the twisting map in the Hom-group (G, α) needs not to be invertible as it was taken in the previous works. Using the invertibility of α , Hassanzadeh [7] studied and obtained many interesting properties of the Hom-group including Hom-group representations and Hom-group cohomology. Following the notions introduced and used to study Hom-groups by Hassanzadeh in [7, 8], Liang et al. [14] extensively studied Hom-groups. Many basic and fundamental properties of Hom-groups were presented with interesting examples. They proved first, second and third isomorphism theorems of Hom-groups. They introduced the concept of Hom-group action and proved the first Sylow theorem for Hom-groups. In [1], Agboola et al. for the first time introduced the concept of neutrosophic Hom-group. Many examples of both the Hom-groups and neutrosophic Hom-groups were presented. They presented basic and fundamental properties of neutrosophic Hom-groups. In addition, they studied neutrosophic morphisms of neutrosophic Hom-groups along with their properties and they

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established a kind of morphism relationship that exists between a neutrosophic Hom-group $G(I)$ and a Hom-group $G \times G$. In the present paper, we follow the concepts introduced by Hassanzadeh [7, 8] and Liang et al. [14] to further study and obtain more properties of Hom-groups. Specifically, we present more properties of Hom-groups, Hom-subgroups, Hom-normal subgroups, Hom-quotient groups and Hom-group homomorphisms with examples. As a major result of this paper, we prove the Zassenhaus Butterfly Lemma of Hom-groups.

1.1. Recalls. In this subsection, we will recall the definition, basic notations and properties of Hom-groups as presented by Basdouri et al. in [3], Hassanzadeh in [7, 8], Liang et al. in [14] and Jiang et al. in [10] which we are going to use in the sequel.

Definition 1.1. [10] Let G be a nonempty set, $*$: $G \times G \rightarrow G$ a binary operation on G , α : $G \rightarrow G$ a bijective set map and $1 \in G$ a distinguished element. The quadruple $(G, *, \alpha, 1)$ is called a Hom-group if the following conditions hold:

- (i) The product map α satisfies the Hom-associativity property

$$\alpha(g) * (h * k) = (g * h) * \alpha(k) \quad \forall g, h, k \in G.$$

- (ii) The product map α is multiplicative that is

$$\alpha(g * k) = \alpha(g) * \alpha(h) \quad \forall g, h \in G.$$

- (iii) The element $1 \in G$ called the unit element satisfies the Hom-unitary conditions

$$g * 1 = 1 * g = \alpha(g) \quad \forall g \in G.$$

- (iv) For every element $g \in G$, there exists an element $g^{-1} \in G$ such that

$$g * g^{-1} = g^{-1} * g = 1.$$

If there is no confusion, we may omit the multiplication sign $*$. In that case $g * h$ will be written simply as gh .

- (v) For any $g \in G$, there exists $k \in \mathbb{N}$ satisfying the Hom-invertibility condition

$$\alpha^k(gg^{-1}) = \alpha^k(g^{-1}g) = 1.$$

If only conditions (i) and (ii) are satisfied, G is called a Hom-semigroup. A Hom-semigroup with condition (iii) is called a Hom-monoid and a Hom-monoid with condition (iv) is called a Hom-group.

In (v), the smallest such k is called the invertibility index of g . If the invertibility index of $g \in G$ is k , then the invertibility index of $\alpha(g)$ is $k - 1$.

Example 1.2. [1] Let \mathbb{C} be the set of complex numbers and let $*$: $\mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be the binary operation on \mathbb{C} defined by $z_1 * z_2 = \overline{z_1 + z_2} \quad \forall z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{C}$. Let α : $\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a mapping defined by $\alpha(z) = \bar{z} \quad \forall z \in \mathbb{C}$. Then $(\mathbb{C}, *, \alpha, 0)$ is an abelian Hom-group.

Proposition 1.3. [14] Let G be a Hom-group.

- (a) The unit element of G is unique.
- (b) For any element $g, h \in G$:
 - (i) $\alpha(1) = 1$;
 - (ii) g^{-1} is unique;
 - (iii) $(g^{-1})^{-1} = g$;
 - (iv) $(gh)^{-1} = h^{-1}g^{-1}$;
 - (v) $(\alpha(g))^{-1} = \alpha(g^{-1})$.

Proof. See [14]. □

Proposition 1.4. [14] Let G be a Hom-group.

- (a) If there is an element $g \in G$ such that $gg = \alpha(g) = g1$, then $g = 1$.
- (b) If the elements $g, h, k \in G$ satisfy $gh = gk$ or $hg = kg$, then $h = k$.
- (c) For any $g, h, k \in G$:
 - (i) $\alpha^{-1}(gh) = \alpha^{-1}(g)\alpha^{-1}(h)$;
 - (ii) $(\alpha^{-1}(g)h)k = g(h\alpha^{-1}(k))$.

Proof. See [14]. □

Proposition 1.5. [7] Let (G, μ) be a group and let $\alpha : G \rightarrow G$ be a group automorphism. Then $(G, \alpha \circ \mu, \alpha)$ is a Hom-group.

Proof. See [1] □

Definition 1.6. [7] Let H be a nonempty subset of a Hom-group (G, α) that is closed under the binary operation in G . H is said to be a Hom-subgroup of G if (H, α) is itself a Hom-group under the binary operation inherited from G and we write $H \leq G$.

Proposition 1.7. [14] Let H and K be two Hom-subgroups of a Hom-group G .

- (a) (i) $1_H = 1_G$.
- (ii) for each $h \in H$, $h_H^{-1} = h_G^{-1}$.
- (b) (i) $H \cap K \leq G$.
- (ii) $H \cup K \leq G$ if and only if $H \subset K$ or $K \subset H$.

Proof. See [14]. □

Definition 1.8. [14] Let H be a Hom-subgroup of a Hom-group G and let $g \in G$. The sets gH and Hg are defined respectively by $\{gh : h \in H\}$ and $\{hg : h \in H\}$. gH is called a Hom-left coset of H in G while Hg is called a Hom-right coset of H in G . The set of all distinct Hom-left cosets of H in G is denoted by G/H .

Generally, $gH \neq Hg$ except if G is abelian. However, if $gH = Hg \forall g \in G$, then H is called a Hom-normal subgroup of G and we write $H \triangleleft G$.

Proposition 1.9. [14] Let H be a Hom-subgroup of a finite Hom-group G . For all $g, h \in G$, the following statements are equivalent:

- (i) $gH = hH$;
- (ii) $gH \cap hH \neq \emptyset$;
- (iii) $g^{-1}h \in H$;
- (iv) $\alpha(h) \in gH$;
- (v) $\alpha(g)H = \alpha(h)H$.

Proof. See [14]. □

Proposition 1.10. [14] *Let H be a Hom-subgroup of a Hom-group G . For all $g \in G$, the following statements are equivalent:*

- (i) $gH = Hg$;
- (ii) for $h \in H$, $(gh)\alpha(g^{-1}) \in H$;
- (iii) $(gH)\alpha(g^{-1}) \subseteq H$;
- (iv) $(gH)\alpha(g^{-1}) = H$;
- (v) $\alpha(g)H = H\alpha(g)$.

Proof. See [14]. □

Lemma 1.11. [14] *Let $(G, *, \alpha)$ be a Hom-group. Let $H \leq G$ and $N \triangleleft G$. Then, $NH = HN \leq G$.*

Proof. See [14]. □

Proposition 1.12. [14] *If H is a Hom-normal subgroup of a Hom-group $(G, *, \alpha)$, then $(G/H, \odot, \beta)$ is a Hom-group, where \odot is defined for any $aH, bH \in G/H$ by $aH \odot bH = a * bH$ and β is defined for any $aH \in G/H$ by $\beta(aH) = \alpha(a)H$.*

Proof. See [14]. □

Definition 1.13. [14] *Let (G, α) and (H, β) be two Hom-groups. The map $\phi : G \rightarrow H$ is called a Hom-group homomorphism if ϕ satisfies the following two conditions:*

- (i) for any $g, h \in G$, $\phi(gh) = \phi(g)\phi(h)$;
- (ii) for all $g \in G$, $\beta(\phi(g)) = \phi(\alpha(g))$.

In addition, if ϕ is a bijection, then we call ϕ an isomorphism and we write $G \cong H$.

Definition 1.14. [14] *The map $\phi : (G, \alpha) \rightarrow (H, \beta)$ is called a weak Hom-group homomorphism if $\phi(1_G) = 1_H$ and $\beta \circ \alpha(gk) = (\phi \circ \alpha(g))(\phi \circ \alpha(k)) \forall g, k \in G$.*

Proposition 1.15. [14] *Let $\phi : (G, \alpha) \rightarrow (H, \beta)$ be a Hom-group homomorphism. Then,*

- (i) $\phi(1_G) = 1_H$;
- ii) for all $g \in G$, $\phi(g^{-1}) = (\phi(g))^{-1}$;
- (iii) $\text{Ker}\phi \triangleleft G$;
- (iv) $\text{Im}\phi \leq H$.

Proof. See [14]. □

Proposition 1.16. *Let $\phi : (G, \alpha) \rightarrow (H, \beta)$ be a Hom-group homomorphism.*

- (a) *If $A \leq G$ and $B \leq H$, then,*
 - (i) $\phi(A) \leq H$;
 - (ii) $\phi^{-1}(B) \leq G$.
- (b) *(i) ϕ is a monomorphism if and only if $\text{Ker}\phi = \{1_G\}$;*
- (ii) *ϕ is an epimorphism if and only if $\text{Im}\phi = H$;*
- (iii) *ϕ is an isomorphism if and only if $\text{Ker}\phi = \{1_G\}$ and $\text{Im}\phi = H$.*

Proof. See [14]. □

Proposition 1.17. [14] *(First Isomorphism Theorem) Let $\phi : (G, \alpha) \rightarrow (H, \beta)$ be a Hom-group homomorphism. Then, $G/\text{Ker}\phi \cong \text{Im}\phi$. If ϕ is a Hom-group epimorphism, then, $G/\text{Ker}\phi \cong H$.*

Proof. See [14]. □

Lemma 1.18. [14] *If G is a Hom-group such that $H \leq G$ and $N \triangleleft G$, then, $HN = NH \leq G$.*

Proof. See [14]. □

Proposition 1.19. [14] *(Second Isomorphism Theorem) Let G be a Hom-group such that $H \leq G$ and $N \triangleleft G$. Then,*

- (i) $H \cap N \triangleleft H$;
- (ii) $N \triangleleft NH$;
- (iii) $H/(H \cap N) \cong NH/N$.

Proof. See [14]. □

Proposition 1.20. [14] *(Third Isomorphism Theorem) Let (G, α) be a Hom-group such that $M \triangleleft G$, $N \triangleleft G$ and $N \leq M$. Then,*

- (i) $(M/N, \mu) \triangleleft (G/N, \mu)$;
- (ii) $(G/N)/(M/N) \cong G/M$.

Proof. See [14]. □

Proposition 1.21. *Let (G, α) be a Hom-group and let $H, K \leq G$. If H and K satisfy the following three conditions:*

- (i) $G = HK$;
- (ii) $H \cap K = \{1\}$;
- (iii) $\forall h \in H, k \in K$, we have $hk = kh$,

then $G \cong H \times K$.

Proof. See [14]. □

2. Main Results

In this section, we will study and give more fundamental properties of Hom-groups and provide examples.

Proposition 2.1. *Let $(G, *, \alpha)$ be a Hom-group. Then, the unital element $1 \in G$ is the only idempotent element in G .*

Proof. By definition, $1 * 1 = \alpha(1) = 1$ which shows that $1 \in G$ is an idempotent element. Suppose that $1 \neq u \in G$ is also another idempotent element in G . Then, $u^2 = u$ which implies that $u(u - 1) = 0$. Since u cannot be 0 or 1, it follows that such a u does not exist in G and therefore, 1 is the only idempotent element in G . \square

Lemma 2.2. *Let (G, α) be a Hom-group. Then for any $g \in G$:*

- (i) $(\alpha^{-1}(g))^{-1} = \alpha^{-1}(g^{-1});$
- (ii) $(\alpha^{-1}(g^{-1}))^{-1} = \alpha^{-1}(g);$
- (iii) $(\alpha(g)\alpha^{-1}(g^{-1}))^{-1} = \alpha^{-1}(g)\alpha(g^{-1}) = \alpha^{-1}(g)\alpha^2(g^{-1}) = g\alpha(g^{-1}).$

Proof. (i) It is sufficient to show that the inverse of $\alpha^{-1}(g)$ is $\alpha^{-1}(g^{-1})$. To this end,

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha^{-1}(g)\alpha^{-1}(g^{-1}) &= \alpha^{-1}(gg^{-1}) = 1 \text{ and also,} \\ \alpha^{-1}(g^{-1})\alpha^{-1}(g) &= \alpha^{-1}(g^{-1}g) = 1.\end{aligned}$$

The required result follows from the uniqueness of the inverse element in G .

(ii) It suffices to show that the inverse of $\alpha^{-1}(g^{-1})$ is $\alpha^{-1}(g)$. To this end,

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha^{-1}(g^{-1})\alpha^{-1}(g) &= \alpha^{-1}(g^{-1}g) = 1 \text{ and also,} \\ \alpha^{-1}(g)\alpha^{-1}(g^{-1}) &= \alpha^{-1}(gg^{-1}) = 1.\end{aligned}$$

The required result follows from the uniqueness of the inverse element in G .

(iii)

$$\begin{aligned}(1) \quad (\alpha(g)\alpha^{-1}(g^{-1}))^{-1} &= (\alpha^{-1}(g^{-1}))^{-1}(\alpha(g))^{-1} \\ &= \alpha^{-1}(g)\alpha(g^{-1}). \\ &= \alpha(\alpha^{-1}(gg^{-1}))[\alpha^{-1}(g)\alpha(g^{-1})] \\ &= (\alpha^{-1}(gg^{-1})\alpha^{-1}(g))\alpha^2(g^{-1}) \\ (2) \quad &= \alpha^{-1}(g)\alpha^2(g^{-1}).\end{aligned}$$

From (1), we have

$$\begin{aligned}(3) \quad (\alpha(g)\alpha^{-1}(g^{-1}))^{-1} &= \alpha^{-1}(g)\alpha(g^{-1}) \\ &= (\alpha^{-1}(g)\alpha(g^{-1}))\alpha(\alpha^{-1}(gg^{-1})) \\ &= \alpha(\alpha^{-1}(g))(\alpha(g^{-1})\alpha^{-1}(gg^{-1})) \\ &= g\alpha(g^{-1}).\end{aligned}$$

The required results follow from (1), (2) and (3). \square

Proposition 2.3. *Let (G, α) be a Hom-group and let $g, h \in G$. Then, G is an abelian Hom-group if and only if $(gh)^2 = g^2h^2$.*

Proof. Suppose that $(gh)^2 = g^2h^2$. Then, $(gh)(gh) = (gg)(hh)$ and so,

$$\begin{aligned} (gh)\alpha\alpha^{-1}(gh) &= (gg)\alpha\alpha^{-1}(hh) \\ \Rightarrow \alpha(g)(h\alpha^{-1}(gh)) &= \alpha(g)(g\alpha^{-1}(hh)). \end{aligned}$$

By premultiplying both sides by $\alpha^2(g^{-1})$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha^2(h\alpha^{-1}(gh)) &= \alpha^2(g\alpha^{-1}(hh)) \\ \Rightarrow (\alpha(h)\alpha(g))\alpha^2(h) &= (\alpha(g)\alpha(h))\alpha^2(h). \end{aligned}$$

By postmultiplying both sides by $\alpha^3(h^{-1})$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha^3(hg) &= \alpha^3(gh) \\ hg &= gh \end{aligned}$$

and therefore, G is abelian.

Conversely, suppose that G is abelian. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} (gh)^2 &= (gh)(gh) = (gh)\alpha\alpha^{-1}(gh) = \alpha(g)(h\alpha^{-1}(gh)) \\ &= \alpha(g)(\alpha\alpha^{-1}(h)(\alpha^{-1}(g)\alpha^{-1}(h))) = \alpha(g)((\alpha^{-1}(h)(\alpha^{-1}(g)))h) \\ &= \alpha(g)((\alpha^{-1}(hg)h)) = \alpha(g)((\alpha^{-1}(gh)\alpha\alpha^{-1}(h))) \\ &= \alpha(g)(g(\alpha^{-1}(h)\alpha^{-1}(h))) = \alpha(g)(g\alpha^{-1}(h^2)) \\ &= g^2h^2. \end{aligned}$$

□

Corollary 2.4. *Let (G, α) be a Hom-group such that $g^2 = 1 \forall g \in G$. Then G is an abelian Hom-group. More generally, if G is a Boolean Hom-group, then G is an abelian Hom-group.*

Proposition 2.5. *Let (G, α) be a Hom-group and let $g, h \in G$. G is an abelian Hom-group if and only if $(gh)^{-1} = g^{-1}h^{-1}$.*

Proof. Suppose that $(gh)^{-1} = g^{-1}h^{-1}$. Then, $h^{-1}g^{-1} = g^{-1}h^{-1}$ so that

$$\alpha^2(h^{-1})\alpha^2(g^{-1}) = \alpha^2(g^{-1})\alpha^2(h^{-1}).$$

After some manipulations, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha^6(hg) &= \alpha^6(gh) \\ hg &= gh \end{aligned}$$

and therefore, G is abelian.

Conversely, suppose that G is abelian. Then, $(gh)^{-1} = (hg)^{-1} = g^{-1}h^{-1}$.

□

Proposition 2.6. *Let (G, α) be a Hom-group and let g, h, k be any elements of G . If $gk = \alpha(hk)$, then $g = h$.*

Proof. Suppose that $gk = \alpha(hk)$. Then, $gk = 1(gk) = \alpha(gk) = \alpha(g)\alpha(k) = \alpha(hk) = \alpha(h)\alpha(k)$ which implies that $\alpha(g)\alpha(k) = \alpha(h)\alpha(k)$ so that $\alpha^2(g)1 = \alpha^2(h)1$ from which we obtain $\alpha^3(g) = \alpha^3(h)$ and therefore, $g = h$. \square

Example 2.7. Let $(G, *)$ be a Klein 4-group where $G = \{1, a, b, c\}$ and let $\alpha : G \rightarrow G$ be a group automorphism defined by $\alpha(1) = 1, \alpha(a) = c, \alpha(b) = a, \alpha(c) = b$. Then, by Proposition 1.5, $(G, \alpha \circ *, \alpha)$ is a Hom-group shown in the Cayley table below.

$\alpha \circ *$	1	a	b	c
1	1	c	a	b
a	c	1	b	a
b	a	b	1	c
c	b	a	c	1

It is observed that $(G, \alpha \circ *, \alpha)$ has no nontrivial Hom-subgroup.

Example 2.8. Let $(G, *)$ be the group of integers modulo 8 that is $G = \mathbb{Z}_8 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$ and let $\alpha : G \rightarrow G$ be a group automorphism defined by $\alpha(0) = 0, \alpha(1) = 7, \alpha(2) = 6, \alpha(3) = 5, \alpha(4) = 4, \alpha(5) = 3, \alpha(6) = 2, \alpha(7) = 1$. Then, by Proposition 1.5, $(G, \alpha \circ *, \alpha)$ is a Hom-group shown in the Cayley table below.

$\alpha \circ *$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	0	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
1	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
2	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	7
3	5	4	3	2	1	0	7	6
4	4	3	2	1	0	7	6	5
5	3	2	1	0	7	6	5	4
6	2	1	0	7	6	5	4	3
7	1	0	7	6	5	4	3	2

It can easily be checked that $(G, \alpha \circ *, \alpha)$ is non-cyclic, and it has two nontrivial Hom-subgroups $H = \{0, 4\}$ and $K = \{0, 2, 4, 6\}$. Since $4 \times 0 = 0, 4 \times 1 = 4$ and $4 \times 2 = 4 + 4 = 0$, it follows that H is a cyclic Hom-subgroup of order 2 generated by 4, that is $H = \langle 4 \rangle$. For K , we have $2 \times 0 = 0, 2 \times 1 = 2, 2 \times 2 = 2 + 2 = 4; 4 \times 0 = 0, 4 \times 1 = 4, 4 \times 2 = 4 + 4 = 0; \text{ and } 6 \times 0 = 0, 6 \times 1 = 6, 6 \times 2 = 6 + 6 = 4$; it follows that K is not cyclic, that is $K \neq \langle 2 \rangle, \langle 4 \rangle, \langle 6 \rangle$. Lastly, since $o(H) = 2, o(K) = 4$, and the order of the Hom-group $(G, \alpha \circ *, \alpha)$ is 8, it follows that both H and K satisfy Lagrange's theorem.

Proposition 2.9. Let H be a subset of a Hom-group $(G, *, \alpha)$.

- (a) H is a Hom-subgroup of G if the following conditions hold:
 - (i) $H \neq \emptyset$;
 - (ii) for any $g, h \in H$, then, $gh \in H$;
 - (iii) for all $h \in H$, then, $h^{-1} \in H$.
- (b) H is a Hom-subgroup of G if the following conditions hold:

- (i) $H \neq \emptyset$;
- (ii) for any $g, h \in H$, then, $gh^{-1} \in H$.

Proof. Easy. □

Proposition 2.10. Let $(G, *, \alpha)$ be an abelian Hom-group and let H be a subset of G defined by $H = \{g \in G : g = g^{-1}\}$. Then, H is a Hom-subgroup of G for all $g \in G$.

Proof. Suppose that G is abelian. It is clear that $H \neq \emptyset$ since $1 = 1^{-1} \in H$. Let $g, h \in H$ be arbitrary. Then $g = g^{-1}$ and $h = h^{-1}$ so that $gh^{-1} = g^{-1}h = g^{-1}(h^{-1})^{-1} = (gh^{-1})^{-1} \in H$. According to Proposition 2.9, H is a Hom-subgroup of G . □

Example 2.11. Let $(G, *)$ be a group where $G = \{\pm 1, \pm i\}$, $i^2 = -1$ and let $\alpha : G \rightarrow G$ be a group automorphism defined by $\alpha(1) = 1, \alpha(-1) = -i, \alpha(i) = i, \alpha(-i) = -1$. Then, by Proposition 1.5, $(G, \alpha \circ *, \alpha)$ is a Hom-group shown in the Cayley table below.

$\alpha \circ *$	1	-1	i	$-i$
1	1	$-i$	i	-1
-1	$-i$	i	-1	1
i	i	-1	1	$-i$
$-i$	-1	1	$-i$	i

It is observed that $(G, \alpha \circ *, \alpha)$ has only one nontrivial Hom-subgroup $H = \{1, i\}$ which is cyclic generated by i , that is $H = \langle i \rangle$.

Proposition 2.12. Let A and B be Hom-normal subgroups of Hom-groups (G, α) and (H, β) , respectively. Then, $A \times B \triangleleft G \times H$.

Proof. Suppose that $A \triangleleft G$ and $B \triangleleft H$. Then clearly, $A \times B \neq \emptyset$ since $(1_G, 1_H) \in A \times B$, and we have, $(ga)\alpha(g^{-1}) \in A$ and $(hb)\beta(h^{-1}) \in H$ for $(g, h) \in G \times H$ and $(a, b) \in A \times B$. Now, let $(a, b), (c, d) \in A \times B$ be arbitrary. Then, $(a, b)(c, d)^{-1} = (a, b)(c^{-1}, d^{-1}) = (ac^{-1}, bd^{-1}) \in A \times B$. This shows that $A \times B \leq G \times H$. For Hom-normality, consider $((g, h)(a, b))(\alpha(g^{-1}), \beta(h^{-1})) = (ga, hb)(\alpha(g^{-1}), \beta(h^{-1})) = ((ga)\alpha(g^{-1}), (hb)\beta(h^{-1})) \in A \times B$. Accordingly, $A \times B \triangleleft G \times H$. □

Definition 2.13. Let A be a subset of the Hom-group (G, α) . $C(A)$, the centralizer of A in G , is defined by $C(A) = \{g \in G : ag = ga \ \forall a \in A\}$.

- Proposition 2.14.**
- (i) $C(A) \leq G$.
 - (ii) If A is an abelian Hom-subgroup of G , then $A \triangleleft C(A)$.

Proof. (i) $C(A) \neq \emptyset$ since $1 \in C(A)$. Next, suppose that $g, h \in C(A)$ are arbitrary. Then, $ga = ag$ and $ha = ah$ so that $h^{-1}a^{-1} = a^{-1}h^{-1}$. Now, $(gh^{-1})a = (gh^{-1})\alpha(\alpha^{-1}(a)) = \alpha(g)(h^{-1}\alpha^{-1}(a)) = \alpha(g)(\alpha^{-1}(a)h^{-1}) = (g\alpha^{-1}(a))\alpha(h^{-1}) = (\alpha^{-1}(a)g)\alpha(h^{-1}) = a(gh^{-1})$. Hence, $gh^{-1} \in C(A)$ and $C(A) \leq G$.

(ii) Suppose that A is an abelian Hom-subgroup of G . Then, $a \in A$ implies that $a \in C(A) \forall a \in A$. Suppose that $g \in C(A)$. Then, $ga = ag$ and $(ga)\alpha(g^{-1}) = (ag)\alpha(g^{-1}) = \alpha(a)(gg^{-1}) = \alpha(a)1 = \alpha^2(a) \in A$. Accordingly, $A \triangleleft C(A)$. \square

Definition 2.15. Let A be a subset of the Hom-group (G, α) . $N(A)$, the normalizer of A in G , is defined by $N(A) = \{g \in G : gA = Ag\}$.

Proposition 2.16. (i) $N(A) \leq G$.
(ii) If A is a Hom-subgroup of G , then $A \triangleleft G$ if and only if $N(A) = G$.

Proof. (i) $N(A) \neq \emptyset$ since $1 \in N(A)$. Next, suppose that $g, h \in N(A)$ are arbitrary. Then $gA = Ag$ and $hA = Ah$ so that $h^{-1}A = Ah^{-1}$. Now, for $a \in A$, $(gh^{-1})a = (gh^{-1})\alpha(\alpha^{-1}(a)) = \alpha(g)(h^{-1}\alpha^{-1}(a)) = \alpha(g)(\alpha^{-1}(a)h^{-1}) = (g\alpha^{-1}(a))\alpha(h^{-1}) = (\alpha^{-1}(a)g)\alpha(h^{-1}) = a(gh^{-1})$. Hence, $(gh^{-1})A = A(gh^{-1})$, $gh^{-1} \in N(A)$ and $N(A) \leq G$.

(ii) The proof is the same as the case of the classical group and so omitted. \square

Lemma 2.17. Let (G, α) be a Hom-group and let $H, K \triangleleft G$. Then, $HK \triangleleft G$.

Proof. Suppose that $H, K \triangleleft G$. Then, for any $g \in G$, there exist $h \in H$, $k \in K$ such that $(gh)\alpha(g^{-1}) \in H$ and $(gk)\alpha(g^{-1}) \in K$. Again, there exist $x \in H, y \in K$ such that $x = (gh)\alpha(g^{-1})$ and $y = (gk)\alpha(g^{-1})$. Now, $xy = ((gh)\alpha(g^{-1}))((gk)\alpha(g^{-1})) = (\alpha(g)(hg^{-1}))(\alpha(g)(kg^{-1})) \in HK$, and, $(g(xy))\alpha(g^{-1}) = \alpha(g)((\alpha(g)(hg^{-1}))(\alpha(g)(kg^{-1})))g^{-1} \in HK$. Hence, $HK \triangleleft G$. \square

Example 2.18. (i) Let $(G, \alpha \circ *, \alpha)$ be the Hom-group of Example 2.11 and let $H = \{1, i\}$ be its Hom-subgroup. It can easily be checked that $H \triangleleft G$. Distinct Hom-left cosets of H in G are H and $-iH$ which form the partitions of G and $G/H = \{H, -iH\}$.

(ii) Let $(G, \alpha \circ *, \alpha)$ be the Hom-group of Example 2.8 and let $H = \{0, 4\}$ and $K = \{0, 2, 4, 6\}$ be its Hom-subgroups. Distinct Hom-left cosets of H in G are $H, 1 + H, 2 + H$ and $3 + H$ which are the partitions of G and $G/H = \{H, 1 + H, 2 + H, 3 + H\}$. Also, distinct Hom-left cosets of K in G are K and $1 + K$ which also form the partitions of G and therefore, $G/K = \{K, 1 + K\}$.

(iii) Let G/H be as defined in Example 2.18 (i) and consider the Cayley table below.

\odot	H	$-iH$
H	H	$-iH$
$-iH$	$-iH$	H

It can easily be checked that $(G/H, \odot, \beta)$ is a Hom-group.

(iv) Let G/H and G/K be as defined in Example 2.18 (ii) and consider the Cayley tables below.

\oplus	H	$1+H$	$2+H$	$3+H$
H	H	$3+H$	$2+H$	$1+H$
$1+H$	$3+H$	$2+H$	$1+H$	H
$2+H$	$2+H$	$1+H$	H	$3+H$
$3+H$	$1+H$	H	$3+H$	$2+H$

\oplus	K	$1+K$
K	K	$1+K$
$1+K$	$1+K$	K

It can easily be checked that $(G/H, \oplus, \beta)$ and $(G/K, \oplus, \beta)$ are Hom-groups.

Proposition 2.19. Let A and B be Hom-normal subgroups of the Hom-groups $(G, *, \alpha)$ and (H, \star, β) , respectively. Let $(G/A, \odot, \lambda)$ and $(H/B, \otimes, \mu)$ be Hom-quotient groups respectively factored by A and B . Let $(G/A) \times (H/B) = \{(gA, hB) : g \in G, h \in H\}$. Then, $(G/A) \times (H/B), \square, \gamma$ is a Hom-group.

Proof. To prove Hom-associativity, let $(gA, hB), (pA, qB), (xA, yB) \in (G/A) \times (H/B)$ be arbitrary. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma((gA, hB)) \square ((pA, qB) \square (xA, yB)) &= (\alpha(g)A, \beta(h)B) \square (pxA, qyB) \\ &= (\alpha(g)(px)A, \beta(h)(qy)B) \\ &= ((gp)\alpha(x)A, (hq)\beta(y)B) \\ &= ((gA, hB) \square (pA, qB)) \square (\alpha(x)A, \beta(y)B) \\ &= ((gA, hB) \square (pA, qB)) \square \gamma(xA, yB). \end{aligned}$$

To establish Hom-multiplication, let $(gA, hB), (pA, qB) \in (G/A) \times (H/B)$ be arbitrary. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma(((gA, hB) \square (pA, qB))) &= \gamma((gpA, hqB)) = (\alpha(gp)A, \beta(hq)B) \\ &= (\alpha(g)A, \beta(h)B) \square (\alpha(p)A, \beta(q)B) \\ &= \gamma((gA, hB))\gamma((pA, qB)). \end{aligned}$$

For Hom-neutrality, let $(gA, hB) \in (G/A) \times (H/B)$ be arbitrary. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} (1, 1) \square (gA, hB) &= (1gA, 1hB) = (g1A, h1B) = (\alpha(g)A, \beta(h)B) \\ &= \gamma((gA, hB)). \end{aligned}$$

Lastly for Hom-invertibility, we have for all $(gA, hB) \in (G/A) \times (H/B)$,

$$\begin{aligned} (gA, hB) \square (g^{-1}A, h^{-1}B) &= (gg^{-1}A, hh^{-1}B) = (1A, 1B) = (A, B), \\ (g^{-1}A, h^{-1}B) \square (gA, hB) &= (g^{-1}gA, h^{-1}hB) = (1A, 1B) = (A, B). \end{aligned}$$

These show that for all $(gA, hB) \in (G/A) \times (H/B)$, $(g^{-1}A, h^{-1}B)$ is its inverse. Accordingly, $(G/A \times H/B, \square, \gamma)$ is a Hom-group. \square

Lemma 2.20. *Let $\phi : (G, \alpha) \rightarrow (H, \beta)$ be a Hom-group homomorphism and let $A \triangleleft G$ and $B \triangleleft H$. Then,*

- (i) $\phi(A) \triangleleft H$;
- (ii) $\phi^{-1}(B) \triangleleft G$.

Proof. Suppose that $\phi : (G, \alpha) \rightarrow (H, \beta)$ is a Hom-group homomorphism.

(i) Given that $A \triangleleft G$, it follows from Proposition 1.16 (a) (i) that $A \leq G$. For Hom-normality, let $\phi(a) \in \phi(A)$ and $h \in H$. Then, there exists $g \in G$ such that $h = \phi(g)$. Since $A \triangleleft G$, then,

$$\begin{aligned} (ga)\alpha(g^{-1}) &\in A \\ \Rightarrow (\phi(g)\phi(a))\phi(\alpha(g^{-1})) &\in \phi(A). \end{aligned}$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} (h\phi(a))\beta(h^{-1}) &= (\phi(g)\phi(a))\beta((\phi(g))^{-1}) = (\phi(g)\phi(a))\beta(\phi(g^{-1})) \\ &= (\phi(g)\phi(a))\phi(\alpha(g^{-1})) \in \phi(A). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $\phi(A) \triangleleft H$.

(ii) Given that $B \triangleleft H$, it follows from Proposition 1.16 (a) (ii) that $B \leq H$. For Hom-normality, let $b \in B$ and $h \in H$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} (hb)\beta(h^{-1}) &\in B \\ \Rightarrow (\phi^{-1}(h)\phi^{-1}(b))\phi^{-1}(\beta(h^{-1})) &\in \phi^{-1}(B). \end{aligned}$$

Now, for some $x = \phi^{-1}(h)$ and $y = \phi^{-1}(b) \in G$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (xy)\phi^{-1}(\beta(\phi(x^{-1}))) &\in \phi^{-1}(B) \\ \Rightarrow (xy)\alpha(x^{-1}) &\in \phi^{-1}(B). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $\phi^{-1}(B) \triangleleft G$. □

Proposition 2.21. *Let $\phi : (G, \alpha) \rightarrow (H, \beta)$ be a Hom-group isomorphism and let N be a Hom-normal subgroup of G . Then, ϕ induces a Hom-group isomorphism between G/N and $H/\phi(N)$.*

Proof. Suppose that $\phi : (G, \alpha) \rightarrow (H, \beta)$ is a Hom-group isomorphism and $N \triangleleft G$. Then by Lemma 2.20 (i), $\phi(N) \triangleleft H$. Let $\psi : (G/N, \mu) \rightarrow (H/\phi(N), \nu)$ be a mapping defined by $\psi(xN) = \phi(x)\phi(N)$ for every $x \in G$. ψ is clearly well-defined since $N \triangleleft G$ and $\phi(N) \triangleleft H$. For Hom-homomorphism, let $xN, yN \in G/N$ be arbitrary. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(xNyN) &= \psi(xyN) = \phi(xy)\phi(N) = \phi(x)\phi(y)\phi(N) \\ &= (\phi(x)\phi(N))(\phi(y)\phi(N)) = \psi(xN)\psi(yN). \end{aligned}$$

Also,

$$\begin{aligned} \nu(\psi(xN)) &= \nu(\phi(x)\phi(N)) = \beta(\phi(x))\phi(N) = \phi(\alpha(x))\phi(N) = \mu(xN)\phi(N) \\ &= \psi(\mu(xN)). \end{aligned}$$

Accordingly, ψ is a Hom-group homomorphism. ψ is obviously onto. For 1-1,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ker}\psi &= \{xN \in G/N : \psi(xN) = 1_{H/\phi(N)}\} = \{xN \in G/N : \psi(xN) = \phi(N)\} \\ &= \{xN \in G/N : \phi(x) \in \phi(N)\} = \{xN \in G/N : x \in N\} \\ &= \{N\}. \end{aligned}$$

Now, ψ is 1-1 and therefore, $G/N \cong H/\phi(N)$. \square

Proposition 2.22. *Let (G, α) and (H, β) be two Hom-groups. Then, $G \times H \cong H \times G$.*

Proof. Let $\phi : (G \times H, \mu) \rightarrow (H \times G, \nu)$ be a mapping defined by $\phi((g, h)) = (h, g)$ for any $(g, h) \in G \times H$. For Hom-homomorphism, let $(g, h), (u, v) \in G \times H$ be arbitrary. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \phi((g, h)(u, v)) &= \phi((gu, hv)) = (hv, gu) = (h, g)(v, u) \\ &= \phi((g, h))\phi((u, v)). \end{aligned}$$

Also,

$$\begin{aligned} \nu(\phi((g, h))) &= \nu((h, g)) = (h, g) = \phi((g, h)) \\ &= \phi(\mu((g, h))). \end{aligned}$$

The mapping ϕ is obviously onto. For 1-1,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ker}\phi &= \{(g, h) \in G \times H : \phi((g, h)) = 1_{H \times G}\} \\ &= \{(g, h) \in G \times H : \phi((g, h)) = (1_H, 1_G)\} \\ &= \{(g, h) \in G \times H : (h, g) = (1_H, 1_G)\} \\ &= \{(1_G, 1_H)\}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, ϕ is 1-1 and, $G \times H \cong H \times G$. \square

Proposition 2.23. *Let (G, α) and (H, β) be two Hom-groups and let $A \triangleleft G$ and $B \triangleleft H$. Then, $(G \times H)/(A \times B) \cong (G/A) \times (H/B)$.*

Proof. By Proposition 2.12, $A \times B \triangleleft G \times H$ and therefore, $(G \times H)/(A \times B)$ is a Hom-quotient group. Let $\phi : (G \times H, \mu) \rightarrow ((G/A) \times (H/B), \nu)$ be a mapping defined by $\phi((g, h)) = (gA, hB) \forall (g, h) \in G \times H$. Clearly, ϕ is well-defined. For Hom-homomorphism, let $(g, h), (x, y) \in G \times H$ be arbitrary. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \phi((g, h)(x, y)) &= \phi((gx, hy)) = (gxA, hyB) = (gA, hB)(xA, yB) \\ &= \phi((g, h))\phi((x, y)). \end{aligned}$$

Also,

$$\begin{aligned} \nu(\phi((g, h))) &= \nu((gA, hB)) = ((\alpha(g)A, \beta(h)B)) = \phi((\alpha(g), \beta(h))) \\ &= \phi(\mu((g, h))). \end{aligned}$$

Accordingly, ϕ is a Hom-group homomorphism. Clearly, ϕ is onto and therefore, ϕ is an epimorphism. Now,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ker}\phi &= \{(g, h) \in G \times H : \phi((g, h)) = 1_{G/A} \times (H/B)\} \\ &= \{(g, h) \in G \times H : (gA, hB) = (A, B)\} \\ &= \{(g, h) \in G \times H : g \in A \text{ and } h \in B\} = A \times B. \end{aligned}$$

By invoking the First Isomorphism Theorem, we have $(G \times H)/(A \times B) \cong (G/A) \times (H/B)$. \square

Proposition 2.24. [20](Zassenhaus Butterfly Lemma) Let (G, α) be a Hom-group and let $H, K \leq G$. If $A \triangleleft H$ and $B \triangleleft K$, then,

- (i) $A \cap K \triangleleft H \cap K$;
- (ii) $H \cap B \triangleleft H \cap K$;
- (iii) $(A \cap K)B \triangleleft (H \cap K)B$;
- (iv) $A(H \cap B) \triangleleft A(H \cap K)$;
- (v) $A(H \cap K)/A(H \cap B) \cong (H \cap K)/(A \cap K)(H \cap B) \cong (H \cap K)B/(A \cap K)B$.

Proof. Suppose that $H, K \leq G$ and suppose that $A \triangleleft H$, $B \triangleleft K$.

(i) From Proposition 1.7 (b) (i), we have $H \cap K \leq G$ which is indeed a Hom-group. Since $A \cap K \subseteq H \cap K$, it is clear that $A \cap K \leq H \cap K$. For Hom-normality, let $x \in A \cap K$ and $y \in H \cap K$. Then, $x \in A$, $x \in K$, $y \in H$ and $y \in K$ from which we obtain $x \in A$, $y \in H$, $x \in B$ and $y \in K$. Since $A \triangleleft H$ and $B \triangleleft K$, it follows that $(yx)\alpha(y^{-1}) \in A$ and $(yx)\alpha(y^{-1}) \in K$ from which we obtain $(yx)\alpha(y^{-1}) \in A \cap K$ and therefore, $A \cap K \triangleleft H \cap K$.

(ii) Follows the same arguments as in (i).

(iii) Since $B \triangleleft K$, it follows from Lemma 1.11 that $(H \cap K)B$ is a Hom-group. To show that $(A \cap K)B$ is also a Hom-group, it suffices to show that $A \cap K$ is a Hom-subgroup of the normalizer of A which is H . To see this,

$$\begin{aligned} N(A) &= \{x \in H \cap K : xA = Ax\} = \{x \in H \cap K : A = xAx^{-1}\} \\ &= \{x \in H \cap K : x \in A \text{ since } A \triangleleft H\} = H. \end{aligned}$$

From the same Lemma 1.11, $(A \cap K)B$ is a Hom-group which is contained in $(H \cap K)B$ as a Hom-subgroup. For Hom-normality, this follows from Lemma 2.17 since from (i), $A \cap K \triangleleft H \cap K$ and we know that $B \triangleleft K$.

(iv) Follows the same arguments as in (iii).

(v) Let $\phi : A(H \cap K) \rightarrow (H \cap K)/(A \cap K)(H \cap B)$ be a mapping defined by

$$\phi(ah) = h(A \cap K)(H \cap B), \text{ for all } a \in A, h \in H \cap K.$$

We first show that ϕ is well-defined. Suppose that $a = b$ and $h = k$ that is $ah = bk$ where $a, b \in A$ and $h, k \in H \cap K$. We need to show that $\phi(ah) = \phi(bk)$.

To this end,

$$\begin{aligned}
(a^{-1}b)^{-1}(hk^{-1}) &= (b^{-1}a)(hk^{-1}) = \alpha\alpha^{-1}((b^{-1}a))(hk^{-1}) \\
&= (\alpha^{-1}((b^{-1}a)h)\alpha)(k^{-1}) = [(\alpha^{-1}(b^{-1})\alpha^{-1}(a))\alpha\alpha^{-1}(h)]\alpha(k^{-1}) \\
&= ((b^{-1}(\alpha^{-1}(a)\alpha^{-1}(h)))\alpha)(k^{-1}) = ((b^{-1}(\alpha^{-1}(ah)))\alpha)(k^{-1}) \\
&= ((b^{-1}(\alpha^{-1}(bk)))\alpha)(k^{-1}) = ((b^{-1}(\alpha^{-1}(b)\alpha^{-1}(k)))\alpha)(k^{-1}) \\
&\in A \cap K = A \cap (H \cap K) \subseteq (A \cap K)(H \cap B).
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, $\phi(ah) = \phi(bk)$, and ϕ is well-defined.

For Hom-homomorphism, we first note that $(G, *, \alpha)$, $(H \cap K, *, \alpha)$, $(A(H \cap K), *, \alpha)$ and $((H \cap K)/(A \cap K)(H \cap B), \otimes, \beta)$ are Hom-groups. Let $a, b \in A$ and $h, k \in H \cap K$. We need to show that $\phi((ah)(bk)) = \phi(ah)\phi(bk)$ and $\beta(\phi(ah)) = \phi(\alpha(ah))$. Since $A \triangleleft H$, $(hb)\alpha(h^{-1}) \in A$ and we can take $(hb)\alpha(h^{-1}) = c = \alpha(h)(bh^{-1})$ for some $c \in A$ from which we obtain $b = (h^{-1}c)\alpha(h)$. Now,

$$\begin{aligned}
(ah)(bk) &= (ah)\alpha\alpha^{-1}(bk) = \alpha(a)(h\alpha^{-1}(bk)) \\
&= \alpha(a)(h(\alpha^{-1}(b)\alpha^{-1}(k))) = \alpha(a)(\alpha\alpha^{-1}(h)(\alpha^{-1}(b)\alpha^{-1}(k))) \\
&= \alpha(a)((\alpha^{-1}(h)\alpha^{-1}(b))k) = \alpha(a)((\alpha^{-1}(h)\alpha^{-1}((h^{-1}c)\alpha(h)))k) \\
&= \alpha(a)((\alpha^{-1}(hh^{-1})\alpha^{-1}(c))(hk)) = \alpha(a)(1\alpha^{-1}(c))(hk) \\
&= (\alpha(a)c)(hk).
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}
\phi((ah)(bk)) &= \phi((\alpha(a)c)(hk)) = hk(A \cap K)(H \cap B) \\
&= (h(A \cap K)(H \cap B))(k(A \cap K)(H \cap B)) = \phi(ah)\phi(bk).
\end{aligned}$$

Next,

$$\begin{aligned}
\beta(\phi(ah)) &= \beta(h(A \cap K)(H \cap B)) = \alpha(h)(A \cap K)(H \cap B) \\
&= \phi(\alpha(a)\alpha(h)) = \phi(\alpha(ah)).
\end{aligned}$$

We have just shown that ϕ is a Hom-group homomorphism. We next show that ϕ is a Hom-group epimorphism. To this end, for all $h \in H$, $\phi(1h) = h(A \cap K)(H \cap B)$. This shows that every element of $(H \cap K)/(A \cap K)(H \cap B)$ under ϕ has a preimage in $H \cap K$. Hence, ϕ is a Hom-group epimorphism. Lastly,

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Ker}\phi &= \{ah \in A(H \cap K) : \phi(ah) = 1_{(H \cap K)/(A \cap K)(H \cap B)} = (A \cap K)(H \cap B)\} \\
&= \{ah \in A(H \cap K) : h(A \cap K)(H \cap B) = (A \cap K)(H \cap B)\} \\
&= A(H \cap B).
\end{aligned}$$

By invoking the First Isomorphism Theorem, $A(H \cap K)/A(H \cap B) \cong (H \cap K)/(A \cap K)(H \cap B)$. Using the same argument, it can be shown that $A(H \cap K)/A(H \cap B) \cong (H \cap K)B/(A \cap K)B$. Hence, $A(H \cap K)/A(H \cap B) \cong (H \cap K)/(A \cap K)(H \cap B) \cong (H \cap K)B/(A \cap K)B$. \square

3. Conclusion

In this paper, we have studied and obtained more properties of Hom-groups. Specifically, we presented more properties of Hom-groups, Hom-subgroups, Hom-normal subgroups, Hom-quotient groups and Hom-group homomorphisms with examples. As a major result of this paper, we have proved the Zassenhaus Butterfly Lemma of Hom-groups.

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