

# Group theory introduction

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## 1 Defining things

A group  $G$  is a set, equipped with an operation  $*$  (for any  $g$  and  $h$  in  $G$ , we have an element  $g * h$  of  $G$ ), and a special element, which we denote  $1$  satisfying the following properties. For any  $g, h, k \in G$ :

1.  $g * (h * k) = (g * h) * k = g * h * k$
2.  $g * 1 = 1 * g = g$
3.  $\forall g \in G \exists g^{-1} \in G : g * g^{-1} = g^{-1} * g = 1$  (read "for all  $g$  in  $G$  there exists an element  $g^{-1}$  in  $G$  such that...")

I will from here on sometimes omit the  $*$  and write  $g * h$  as  $gh$ , as this is more natural. I only used it in the above to be clear about how things are being defined.

We call  $g^{-1}$  the *inverse* of  $g$ , and  $1$  is called the *identity* element.

## 2 Some examples and properties

A few examples of groups are  $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots - 2, -1, 0, 1, 2 \dots\}$  the set of integers,  $\mathbb{Q}$  the set of fractions,  $\mathbb{R}$  the set of real numbers (where we include things like  $\pi, \sqrt{2}$  and  $\sqrt[5]{7}$ ), and  $\mathbb{C}$  the set of complex numbers. In all of these,  $1$  is equal to  $0$  and  $*$  is addition.

If we want  $*$  to be multiplication, in which case  $1$  would actually be the number  $1$ , we could do this for all the above examples, besides for the integers  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Because there's no whole number you can multiply  $2$  by to get to  $1$ , in order to do that we would need fractions, in fact, this is why we have fractions in the first place.

## 3 Subgroups

An subgroup  $H$  of a group  $G$  is a subset of  $G$ , satisfying the following conditions:

1.  $g, h \in H \Rightarrow g * h \in H$
2.  $h \in H \Rightarrow h^{-1} \in H$

Or, in English, multiplying elements of a subgroup stays in the subgroup, and inverses stay in the subgroup. One simple thing that we get from this is that  $1 \in H$ , since we have  $h^{-1}$  for every  $h$  and  $hh^{-1} = 1$ . This gives us that  $H$  is actually a group, this is why we call it a subgroup, because it's a group in a group.

A special type of subgroup is a *normal subgroup*, this is a subgroup where  $gHg^{-1} = H$  i.e. for any group element  $g \in G$  and element  $h \in H$  the group element  $ghg^{-1}$  is also in  $H$ .

## 4 Homomorphism

A group homomorphism is a function  $f : G \rightarrow H$  from one group to another, satisfying the property that  $f(gh) = f(g)f(h)$ . This immediately gives us that  $f(1) = 1$ , a homomorphism takes the identity to the identity. Similarly  $f(g^{-1}) = f(g)^{-1}$ , a homomorphism takes inverses to inverses.

The *image* of a homomorphism  $Im(f)$  is the set of elements in  $H$  such that there's an element  $g \in G$  with  $f(g) = h$ . This is a subgroup of  $H$ . The set  $Ker(f)$  of elements in  $G$  mapping to 1 in  $H$  is called the kernel of  $f$ .

**Theorem 1.** *For any homomorphism,  $Ker(f)$  is normal subgroup.*

*Proof.* We first show that it is a subgroup. Firstly,  $f(1) = 1$  because we have that  $f(g) = f(1g) = f(1)f(g)$  so that multiplying on the left by  $f(g)^{-1}$  we get that  $f(1) = 1$  so this gives that  $1 \in Ker(f)$ . We also have that if  $g \in Ker(f)$  then  $1 = f(1) = f(gg^{-1}) = f(g)f(g^{-1}) = 1f(g^{-1}) = f(g^{-1})$  so that  $g^{-1} \in Ker(f)$  as well. Lastly, if  $g, h \in Ker(f)$  then  $f(gh) = f(g)f(h) = 1 * 1 = 1$  so that  $gh \in Ker(f)$ .

We now show that it is in fact normal, given  $h \in Ker(f)$  and  $g \in G$  we have that  $f(ghg^{-1}) = f(g)f(h)f(g^{-1}) = f(g)1f(g^{-1}) = f(g)f(g)^{-1} = 1$  so  $ghg^{-1} \in Ker(f)$ . ■

## 5 Quotient group

Given a group  $G$ , and a normal subgroup of it  $H$ , we can define a quotient subgroup  $G/H$ . But first we need to define a *coset*. Given a subgroup  $H$ , and an element  $g \in G$  the coset  $gH$  is the set of group elements expressible as products  $gh$  for any element  $h \in H$ , we write this in set notation as  $gH = \{gh : h \in H\}$ . If a subgroup is normal, we have that  $gH = Hg$  for every element  $g \in G$ , where  $Hg$  is defined analogously, with the order of the products reversed.

We can now, for a normal subgroup  $H$ , define the quotient group  $G/H$ , defined as the set of cosets of  $H$ . Given two such cosets  $gH$  and  $g'H$ , we have that  $gHg'H = gg'HH = gg'H$  ( $HH = H$  because  $1 \in H$  so every  $h$  in  $H$  can be expressed as a product of 1 and  $h$ , we also have that every product of things in  $H$  remains in  $H$ ). This allows the group structure on  $G/H$  to be compatible with the group structure of  $G$ , in fact, there exists a homomorphism  $f : G \rightarrow G/H$ , given by  $f(g) = gH$ , this homomorphism has kernel  $H$ .