## Lecture Notes by Jonathan Alcaraz (UCR)

# Algebra

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Based on Lectures by

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# **Lecture 1** 23 Sep 2016

**Definition 1.1** A monoid is a set together with a binary operation that is associative and has an identity (usually denoted e).

**Example** The collection of maps from a set to itself is a monoid with respect to composition.

**Definition 1.2** An element x of a monoid G is said to be *invertible* if there exists some  $y \in G$  such that xy = yx = e. It follows that such an element is unique. We call such an element the *inverse* of x and usually denote it by  $x^{-1}$ .

**Definition 1.3** A monoid in which every element is invertible is called a *group*.

**Example** The collection of bijections from a set to itself is a group with respect to composition.

**Definition 1.4** A map  $f: G_1 \to G_2$  of monoids is a homomorphism is  $f(g_1g_2) = f(g_1)f(g_2)$  and  $f(e_1) = e_2$ . If  $G_1, G_2$  are groups, it suffices to say that f(xy) = f(x)f(y).

**Definition 1.5** A bijective homomorphism is called an *isomorphism*. An isomorphism from a group to itself is called an *automorphism*.

**Theorem 1.6** For any group G, there is a set S and an injective homomorphism from G to the group of permutations of S.

Let P(G) be the group of permuations of G and define  $f: G \to P(G)$  by  $f(g) = L_g$  where  $L_g(x) = gx$ . Note that  $L_g$  has an inverse,  $L_{g^{-1}}$ , and hence is a permutation. Moreover, note that

$$L_{q_1q_2}(x) = g_1g_2x = g_1L_{q_2}(x) = L_{q_1}(L_{q_2}(x))$$

so f is in fact a homomorphism. To show f is injective, we intend to show it has trivial kernel. Let  $f(g) = id_G$ . That is  $L_g(x) = gx = x$  for any  $x \in G$ . In particular, if x = e, we see g = e.

**Definition 1.7** Given a subgroup H of G, a *left coset* of H is a subset of G of the form

$$aH = \{ah : h \in H\}$$

for some  $a \in G$ . One can similarly define a right coset.

Note Any 2 left cosets of H have the same cardinality.

**Exercise 1** The set of left cosets of H in G partition G.

Note the cosets cover G since  $e \in H$ , so for any  $a \in G$ ,  $a \in aH$ . Note that if  $b \in aH$ , then bH = aH. So, by the contrapositive of this statement, the cosets are pairwise disjoint.

**Definition 1.8** The number of cosets of H in G is called the *index* of G over H and is denoted by [G:H].

**Theorem 1.9** If H is a subgroup of G, then

$$[G:1] = [H:1][G:H]$$

where 1 denotes the trivial subgroup of G.

**Theorem 1.10** If H is a subgroup of G, the following properties are equivalent:

- (i)  $xHx^{-1} = H$  for any  $x \in G$ ;
- (ii) xH = Hx for any  $x \in G$ ;
- (iii) The elementwise product of two right cosets is a right coset.
- (iv) H is the kernel of some group homomorphism  $f:G\to G'$  for some G'.

**Definition 1.11** A subgroup with any of the above properties is said to be *normal*.

Lecture 2 26 Sep 2016

Let us now prove the above theorem.

(i)  $\Rightarrow$  (ii) This implication follows directly from the definition of these sets. (ii)  $\Rightarrow$  (iii) We have

$$(Hx)(Hy) = H(xH)y = H(Hx)y = (HH)xy = Hxy$$

(iii)  $\Rightarrow$  (iv) By (iii), HxHy = Hz for some  $z \in G$ . So the cosets Hxy and Hz have an element xy = hz in common. So Hxy = Hz.

(iv)  $\Rightarrow$  (i) Let f be the homomorphism given by (iv). Notice that for  $h \in H$ ,  $f(xhx^{-1}) = e$ , so  $xHx^{-1} \subseteq \ker(f) = H$ . Similarly,  $H \subseteq xHx^{-1}$ .

**Definition 2.1** Let H be a subgroup of G. The normalizer of H is

$$N_H = \{ x \in G : xHx^{-1} = H \}$$

The *centralizer* of a subset S of G is

$$\{x \in G : xhx^{-1} = h \,\forall h \in H\}$$

The centralizer of G itself is said to be the *center* of G, usually denoted by Z(G).

**Theorem 2.2** Let H, K be subgroups of G with  $H \subseteq N_K$ . Then

- (a) HK = KH;
- (b) HK is a subgroup of G;
- (c) K is normal in HK,  $H \cap K$  is normal in H, and  $H/H \cap K \cong HK/K$ .
  - (a) Since  $H \subseteq N_K$ ,  $hKh^{-1} = K$  for  $h \in H$ . Thus hK = Kh for any  $h \in H$ . So for  $hk \in HK$ ,  $hk = hK = Kh \subseteq KH$ . Thus  $HK \subseteq KH$ . Similarly,  $kh \in Kh = hK \subseteq HK$ .
  - (b) Clearly HK contains the identity since H and K do. Moreover, for some  $hk \in HK$ ,  $k^{-1}h^{-1} \in KH = HK$  and  $k^{-1}h^{-1}hk = hkk^{-1}h^{-1} = e$ . It remains to show that HK is closed under its operation. Note that a product of elements of HK would, a priori, be in HKHK. By (a),

$$HKHK = HHKK = HK$$

(c) Note that  $N_K$  is a group containing H and K (the fact that  $N_K$  is a group can be proven with a simple check of the group axioms). Hence  $HK \subseteq N_K$  and thus K is normal in HK.

Let  $\varphi: H \to HK/K$  be the composition of the inclusion  $H \to HK$  and the projection  $HK \to HK/K$ . Then  $\varphi$  is a surjective homomorphism. Indeed, each element of HK/K is of the form hkK = hK. Moreover, the kernel of  $\varphi$  is  $H \cap K$ . So  $H \cap K$  is normal in H and  $H/H \cap K \cong HK/K$ .

**Lemma 2.3** If  $K \subseteq H$  are subgroups of the finite group G, then

$$[G:K] = [G:H][H:K]$$

Let  $\{h_i\}$  be a set of representatives of left cosets of K in H and  $\{g_j\}$  be a set of representatives of the left cosets of H in G. We claim that  $\{g_ih_j\}$  is a set of representatives of K in G. These cover G since

$$G = \bigcup g_i H = \bigcup g_i h_i K$$

Suppose  $g_i h_j K = g_r h_s K$ . Then in particular,  $g_i h_j H = g_r h_s H$  and thus  $g_i = g_r$ , so i = r. Therefore,  $g_i h_j K = g_i h_s K$  and thus  $h_j K = h_s K$ , so j = s. Hence, these cosets are disjoint.

# **Lecture 3** 28 Sep 2016

**Definition 3.1** Let A be a finite set. Denote the set of permutations of A by  $S_A$  or P(A). Given  $\sigma \in S_A$  we can define an equivalence relation  $\sim_{\sigma}$  such that  $a \sim_{\sigma} b$  if  $\sigma^n(a) = b$ . The equivalence classes, say  $B_1, \ldots, B_k$ , of this relation are called the *orbits* of  $\sigma$ . For  $1 \le i \le k$ , define  $\sigma_i : A \to A$  by

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

Notice  $\sigma = \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \cdots \sigma_k$  and these  $\sigma_i$  commute with one another.

**Definition 3.2** A permutation  $\sigma \in S_A$  is called a *cycle* if it has at most one orbit of cardinality greater than one. If said orbit has k elements,  $\sigma$  is said to be a k-cycle.

**Definition 3.3** Two cycles are said to be *disjoint* if their orbits are disjoint.

**Definition 3.4** A transposition is a 2-cycle.

**Theorem 3.5** Every permutation can be written as a product (composition) of transpositions.

We start by introducing cycle notation. Let  $(a_1 a_2 \dots a_k)$  denote the k-cycle that takes  $a_i \mapsto a_{i+1}$  and  $a_k \mapsto a_1$ . This notation makes it clear that

$$(a_1 \ a_2 \ \dots \ a_k) = (a_1 \ a_k) \cdots (a_1 \ a_3)(a_1 \ a_2)$$

And any permutation is the product of k-cycles, we are done.

**Note** Let  $\sigma_1 = (a_1 \dots a_k)$ ,  $\sigma_2 = (b_1 \dots b_m)$  and  $\tau = (a_i \ b_j)$ . Without losing generality, suppose i = j = 1. Compute:

$$\tau \sigma_1 \sigma_2 = (a_1 \ b_1)(a_1 \dots a_k)(b_1 \dots b_m)$$
$$= (b_1 \dots b_m \ a_1 \dots a_k)$$

Consider  $\sigma = (a_1 \, a_j)(a_1 \, \dots \, a_k$  Then  $\sigma = (a_1 \, \dots \, a_{j-1})(a_j \, a_{j+1} \, \dots \, a_k)$ . So if i and j are in the same orbit of  $\sigma$ , then the cycles of  $\sigma$  are the same except that the cycle containing i and j is broken into two cycles.

# **Lecture 4** 30 Sep 2016

**Definition 4.1** We say a permutation is *even* (resp. *odd*) if it can be written as a product of an even (resp. odd) number of transpositions.

**Theorem 4.2** No permutation is both even and odd.

**Definition 4.3** The group of even permutations of  $\{1, ..., n\}$  is called the alternating group denoted  $A_n$ .

**Lemma 4.4**  $A_n$  is generated by 3-cycles.

We will consider the case where there are two 2-cycles and this can be

extended to any even permutation. If the 2 cycles are disjoint,

$$(a b)(c d) = (a c b)(a c d)$$

otherwise,

$$(a b)(a c) = (a c d)$$

So any even permutation can be written as a product of pairs of transpositions and each pair can be written as a product of 3-cycles, as desired.

**Lemma 4.5** If  $n \geq 5$ , then any two 3-cycles in  $S_n$  are conjugate by an element of  $A_n$ .

Let  $\sigma_1 = (a \, b \, c)$  and  $\sigma_2 = (a \, b \, c)$ . Let  $\gamma \in S_n$  map  $a \mapsto e, b \mapsto f, c \mapsto g$ . Note,

$$\gamma \sigma_1 \gamma^{-1} = \gamma(a b c) \gamma^{-1} = (e f g) = \sigma_2$$

If  $\gamma$  is even, we are done. Otherwise, choose distinct  $r, s \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\} \setminus \{a, b, c\}$ . Such r, s exist since  $n \geq 5$ . Let  $\tau = (r s)$ . Since  $\tau$  and  $\sigma$  are disjoint, they commute, hence

$$(\gamma \tau)\sigma_1(\gamma \tau)^{-1} = (\gamma \tau)\sigma_1(\tau^{-1}\gamma^{-1})$$
$$= \gamma(\tau \sigma_1)\tau^{-1}\gamma^{-1}$$
$$= \gamma(\sigma_1\tau)\tau^{-1}\gamma^{-1}$$
$$= \gamma \sigma_1\gamma^{-1} = \sigma_2$$

and  $\gamma \tau$  is even as desired.

Corollary 4.6 If a normal subgroup N of  $A_n$  contains a 3-cycle, then N contains all 3-cycles of  $S_n$ .

**Theorem 4.7**  $A_n$  is simple if and only if  $n \geq 5$ .

The forward direction can be done ad hoc for n < 5. Let N be a normal subgroup of  $A_n$ . Case 1: N contains a 3-cycle. By the above corollary, it contains all 3-cycles, so since  $A_n$  is generated by 3-cycles,  $N = A_n$ . We now wish to reduce the nontrivial cases to this case. That is, we wish to show that N contains a 3-cycle in each of the following cases.

Case 2: N contains an element  $\sigma = (a_1 \ a_2 \dots a_r)\tau$  where  $r \geq 4$  and  $\tau$  is a product of cycles which are disjoint from  $(a_1 \dots a_r)$ . Let  $\delta = (a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3)$ . Then  $\delta^{-1} = (a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3)$ . Then  $\sigma^{-1}(\delta \sigma \delta^{-1}) \in N$ . But

$$\sigma^{-1}(\delta\sigma\delta^{-1}) = [\tau^{-1}(a_r \dots a_1)](a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3)[(a_1 \dots a_r)\tau](a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3)$$
$$= (a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3)$$

as desired.

## **Lecture 5** 3 Oct 2016

Case 3: N contains  $\sigma = (a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3)(a_4 \ a_5 \ a_6)\tau$  where  $\tau$  is a product of disjoint cycles which are disjoint from  $(a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3)$  and  $(a_4 \ a_5 \ a_6)$ . Let  $\delta = (a_1 \ a_2 \ a_4)$ , so  $\delta^{-1} = (a_1 \ a_4 \ a_2)$ . Then,  $\sigma^{-1}(\delta \sigma \delta^{-1}) \in N$ . However,  $\sigma^{-1}(\delta \sigma \delta^{-1}) = (a_1 \ a_4 \ a_2 \ a_6 \ a_3)$ , so we are done by case 2.

Case 4: N contains  $\sigma = (a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3)$  where  $\tau$  is product of disjoint 2-cycles which are disjoint from  $(a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3)$ . Then  $\sigma^2 \in N$ . However, since  $\tau$  is a product of disjoint 2-cycles,  $\tau^2 = ()$ , so

$$\sigma^2 = (a_1 \, a_2 \, a_3)^2 \tau^2 = (a_1 \, a_2 \, a_3)^2 = (a_1 \, a_3 \, a_2)$$

as desired.

Case 5: Every  $\sigma \in N$  is a product of an even number of disjoint 2-cycles. Say  $\sigma = (a_1 \ a_2)(a_3 \ a_4)\tau$  where  $\tau$  is a product of an even number of 2-cycles which are disjoint from  $(a_1 \ a_2)$  and  $(a_3 \ a_4)$ . If  $\delta = (a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3)$ , then  $\sigma^{-1}(\delta \sigma \delta^{-1}) = (a_1 \ a_3)(a_2 \ a_4)$ . Since  $n \geq 5$ , we can choose  $b \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \setminus \{a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4\}$ . Then  $\xi = (a_1 \ a_3 \ b) \in A_n$  and  $\gamma = (a_1 \ a_3)(a_2 \ a_3) \in N$ . Further,  $\gamma(\xi \gamma \xi^{-1}) \in N$  and  $\gamma(\xi \gamma \xi^{-1}) = (a_1 \ a_3 \ b)$ .

\* \* \*

**Definition 5.1** A category  $\mathscr{C}$  is a class of objects, denoted  $\mathrm{Ob}(\mathscr{C})$ , and for each  $A, B \in \mathrm{Ob}(\mathscr{C})$  a set  $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(A, B)$  of morphisms. For each  $A, B, C \in$ 

 $\mathrm{Ob}(\mathscr{C})$ , there is a binary operation  $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(A,B) \times \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(B,C) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(A,C)$  (where we write the image of (f,g) by  $g \circ f$ ) such that

- (1) If  $A \neq A'$  or  $B \neq B'$ , then  $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(A,B) \cap \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(A',B') = \emptyset$
- (2) The binary operation  $\circ$  is associative.
- (3) For each  $A \in \text{Ob}(\mathscr{C})$ , there is and element  $1_A \in \text{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(A, A)$  such that  $1_A \circ g = g$  and  $f \circ 1_A = f$  for  $g \in \text{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(B, A)$  and  $f \in \text{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(A, B)$ .

#### **Lecture 6** 5 Oct 2016

**Example** Some common examples of categories.

- Set is the category of sets where the morphisms are maps.
- *Grp* is the category of groups with homomorphisms.
- $\bullet$  Ab is the category of abelian groups with homomorphisms.
- Rng is category of rings category of rings with ring homomorphisms.
- Top is the category of topological spaces with continuous maps.
- *HTop* is the category of topoligical spaces whose morphisms are homotopy classes of continuous maps.

**Definition 6.1** If  $\mathscr{C}$  and  $\mathscr{D}$  are categories, a covariant functor  $F:\mathscr{C}\to\mathscr{D}$  is a map  $F:\mathrm{Ob}(\mathscr{C})\to\mathrm{Ob}(\mathscr{D})$  and for each  $A,B\in\mathrm{Ob}(\mathscr{C})$ , we have a map  $F_{AB}:\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(A,B)\to\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathscr{D}}(F(A),F(B))$  such that

- (1) If  $f \in \text{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(A, B)$  and  $g \in \text{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(B, C)$  then  $F(g \circ f) = F(g) \circ F(f)$ .
- (2)  $F(1_A) = 1_{F(A)}$ .

**Definition 6.2** A contravariant functor from  $\mathscr{C}$  to  $\mathscr{D}$  is a map  $F : \mathrm{Ob}(\mathscr{C}) \to \mathrm{Ob}(\mathscr{D})$  and for each  $A, B \in \mathrm{Ob}(\mathscr{C})$ , we have a map  $F_{AB} : \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(A, B) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathscr{D}}(F(B), F(A))$  such that

- (1) If  $f \in \text{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(A, B)$  and  $g \in \text{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(B, C)$  then  $F(g \circ f) = F(f) \circ F(g)$ .
- (2)  $F(1_A) = 1_{F(A)}$ .

**Definition 6.3** In a category  $\mathscr{C}$ ,  $A \in \mathrm{Ob}(\mathscr{C})$  is said to be an *initial object* in  $\mathscr{C}$  if for each  $B \in \mathrm{Ob}(\mathscr{C})$ , there is a unique morphism  $f \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(A, B)$ .

## **Lecture 7** 7 Oct 2016

**Definition 7.1**  $A \in \text{Ob}(\mathscr{C})$  is a *terminal object* in  $\mathscr{C}$  if for each  $B \in \text{Ob}(\mathscr{C})$  there is a unique morphism  $f \in \text{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(A, B)$ .

**Definition 7.2** Let  $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$  be a family of objects in the category  $\mathscr{C}$ . Then a product for  $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$  is an object P together with a family of morphisms  $\{\pi_i\in \operatorname{Hom}(P,A_i)\}$  such that if  $\{g_i\in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(H,A_i)\}$  is any family of morphisms, then there exists a unique  $g\in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(H,P)$  such that  $\pi_i\circ g=g_i$  for every  $i\in I$ .

**Note** Given a family of objects  $\{X_i\}_{i\in I}$  in  $\mathscr{C}$ , we can define a category  $\mathscr{D}$  whose objects are pairs  $(A, \{a_i \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathscr{C}}(A, X_i)\}_{i\in I})$ . Say A with  $\{a_i\}$  and B with  $\{b_i\}$  are objects in this category, a morphism from the former to the latter would be completely determined by a morphism  $f: A \to B$  such that  $a_i = b_i \circ f$  for all i. The product of  $\{X_i\}$  can be equivalently defined as the terminal object of  $\mathscr{D}$ .

#### **Theorem 7.3** Products exists in *Grp*.

Let  $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$  be a family of groups and P be their Cartesian product. More precisely, an element of P is and I-tuple whose ith coordinate is an element of  $A_i$ . Denote the ith coordinate of  $x\in P$  by  $x_i$ . Notice P is a group with coordinate-wise operation, that is, the ith coordinate of xy is  $x_iy_i$ . Let  $\{\pi_i\}_{i\in I}$  be the projection maps on P, i.e  $\pi_i(x)=x_i$ . We claim that P with  $\{\pi_i\}$  is a product of Grp. Let G be some group and  $\{g_i:G\to A_i\}$  be a family of morphisms in Grp. Define  $g:G\to P$  by  $g(x)_i=g_i(x)$ . Indeed,  $\pi_i\circ g=g_i$  by definition. Moreover, g is unique since any other morphism would not have this property.

## Lecture 8 10 Oct 2016

**Definition 8.1** If S is a subset of a group (respectively monoid) G, then the subgroup (respectively submonoid) of G generated by S is the intersection of all subgroups (respectively submonoids) of G containing S.

**Note** The submonoid of a monoid G generated by  $S \subseteq G$  consists of the set of all finite products of elements of S where the empty product is the

identity. Further, if G is a group, then the subgroup of G generated by S is the submonoid of G generated by  $S \bigcup S^{-1}$  where  $S^{-1}$  is the set of inverses of S.

Note If S is a subset of a group (or monoid) G which generates G and  $f: S \to H$  is a map into a group (or monoid) H, then there exists at most one homomorphism  $\overline{f}: G \to H$  such that  $\overline{f}|_S = f$ . In short, a group (or monoid) homomorphism is completely determined by where it sends the set of generators.

**Definition 8.2** Let S be a set . A *free group* on S is a group G together with a map  $\lambda: S \to G$  such that if g is a map on S into a group H, then there is a unique homomorphism  $\overline{g}: G \to H$  such that  $\overline{g} \circ \lambda = g$ .

Note We can generalize this notion to any concrete category (that is, a category whose objects are sets). A free group is simply a free object in Grp.

**Definition 8.3** Let  $\mathscr C$  be a concrete category, X be a set, A an object in  $\mathscr C$ , and  $i:X\to A$  a map between sets. We say A together with i is a *free object* in  $\mathscr C$  if for any object B in  $\mathscr C$  and map  $f:X\to B$  between sets, there is a unique morphism  $g\in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathscr C}(A,B)$  such that  $g\circ i=f$ .

**Note** This property of free objects is sometimes abbreviated by simply drawing the following diagram:



and saying it *commutes* which in general means that all paths between two objects are equivalent.

**Theorem 8.4** Free monoids exist.

Let S be a set. Define  $M(S) := \{(s_1, \ldots, s_n) | n \geq 0, s_i \in S\}$ . M(S) is a monoid with concatenation and identity (). We have the canonical injection  $\varphi : S \to M(S)$  defined by  $\varphi(s) = (s)$ . Given a map f

from S to some monoid H, define  $\overline{f}: M(S) \to H$  by  $\overline{f}(s_1, \ldots, s_n) = f(s_1) \cdots f(s_n)$ . One can check that the respective diagram commutes.

#### **Theorem 8.5** Free groups exist.

Let S be a set and  $\overline{S}$  be a set disjoint from S such that there is a bijection from S to  $\overline{S}$ . Given  $s \in S$ , denote its image via this bijection by  $s^{-1}$ . We say an element  $w \in M(S \cup \overline{S})$  is of the form

$$w = s_1^{\varepsilon_1} \dots s_k^{\varepsilon_k}$$

where  $s_i \in S$  and  $\varepsilon_i = \pm 1$  and we say  $w' \in M(S \cup \overline{S})$  is obtained from w if  $s_i = s_{i+1}$  and  $\varepsilon_i = -\varepsilon_{i+1}$  and

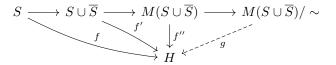
$$w' = s_1^{\varepsilon_1} \dots s_{i-1}^{\varepsilon_{i-1}} s_{i+2}^{\varepsilon_{i+2}} \dots s_k^{\varepsilon_k}$$

We call this process elementary reduction and we say w is a reduced word if  $s_i = s_{i+1}$  implies  $\varepsilon_i = \varepsilon_{i+1}$  for all i.

Define an equivalence relation  $\sim$  by  $w \sim w'$  meaning there is a sequence of words in  $M(S \cup \overline{S})$   $w = w_1, w_2, \dots w_{n-1}, w_n = w'$  such that either  $w_i$  is obtained from  $w_{i+1}$  for all i or  $w_{i+1}$  is obtained from  $w_i$  for all i. This is indeed an equivalence relation on  $M(S \cup \overline{S})$ . Moreover, if  $w_1 \sim w_1'$  and  $w_2 \sim w_2'$ , then  $w_1w_2 \sim w_1'w_2'$ . Hence the multiplication (concatenation) on  $M(S \cup \overline{S})$  induces multiplication on  $M(S \cup \overline{S})/\sim$  and  $M(S \cup \overline{S})/\sim$  is a group. So far, we have the following sequence of maps:

$$S \longrightarrow S \cup \overline{S} \longrightarrow M(S \cup \overline{S}) \longrightarrow M(S \cup \overline{S})/\sim$$

Suppose we are given a map  $f: S \to H$  for some group H. Define  $f': S \cup \overline{S} \to H$  by  $f'(s^{\pm 1}) = f(s)^{\pm 1}$ . Let  $f'': M(S \cup \overline{S}) \to H$  be the unique map given by  $M(S \cup \overline{S})$  being the free monoid on  $S \cup \overline{S}$  and let g be the map induced by f'' on  $M(S \cup \overline{S})/\sim$ . One can check that the following diagram commutes:



## Lecture 9 12 Oct 2016

**Note** We've shown that a free group is a set equivalence classes  $M(S \cup \overline{S})/\sim$ 

**Theorem 9.1** Each equivalence class of  $M(X \cup \overline{X})/\sim$  contains a unique reduced word.

Let S be the set of reduced words in  $M(S \cup \overline{S})$  and P(S) be the set of permutations of S.

**Theorem 9.2** Let X be a subset of a group G. The following are equivalent:

- (i) The inclusion  $X \to G$  is a free group on X.
- (ii) X generates G.
- (iii) X generates G and if w is a non-trivial reduced word in G, then  $w \neq 1$ .
- (iv) Each element of G can be written uniquely as  $x_1^{n_1} \cdots x_k^{n_k}$ ,  $n_i \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$  such that  $x_i \neq x_{i+1}$  for each i.