Algebraic Theory I

Thomas Fleming

October 13, 2021

Contents

Lecture 20: Free Groups (3)

Fri 08 Oct 2021 11:26

Recall. F is a free group on the set X when there is an injection $\sigma: X \overset{F}{\hookrightarrow}$ such that for all maps $\alpha: X \to G$, there is a homomorphism $\beta: F \to G$ such that $\beta \circ \sigma = \alpha$.

Remark. F is also a free group on $\sigma(X) \subseteq F$, using a similar inclusion map, so often we will assume $X \subseteq F$.

Theorem 0.1. If F_1 is free on X_1 and F_2 is free on X_2 and $|X_1| = |X_2|$, then $F_1 \simeq F_2$.

Proof. Since $|X_1| = |X_2|$ we find a bijection $\alpha: X_1 \to X_2$ and we can assume WLOG that $X_1 \subseteq F_1$ and $X_2 \subseteq F_2$. Then, the free property of F_1 implies there is a unique homomorphism $\beta: F_1 \to F_2$ such that $\beta(x) = \alpha(x)$ for all $x \in X_1$. Similarly, thee is a unique map $\gamma: F_2 \to F_1$ extending $\alpha^{-1}: X_2 \to X_1$ such that $\gamma(y) = \alpha^{-1}(y)$ for all $y \in X_2$. So, we see

$$\beta \mid_{X_1}: X_1 \longrightarrow X_2$$

$$x \longmapsto \beta(x) = \alpha(x)$$

and

$$\gamma \mid_{X_2}: X_2 \longrightarrow X_1$$

$$y \longmapsto \gamma(y) = \alpha^{-1}(y)$$

are inverses

Hence, we have β and γ are a pair of inverse homomorphisms as X_1 generates F_1 and likewise X_2 generates F_2 .

Then, for an arbitrary element in F of the form $x = x_1^{\varepsilon_1} \dots x_\ell^{\varepsilon_\ell}$ with $\varepsilon_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $x_i \in X_1$, then we see $\gamma(\beta(x)) = x$, hence this completes the proof.

Theorem 0.2. Let F be a free group with H,G being groups. Suppose $\alpha:F\to H$ is a homomorphism and $\beta:G\to H$ is a surjective homomorphism. Then, there is a $\gamma:F\to G$ such that $\beta\gamma=\alpha$.

Proof. Let F be free on $X \subseteq F$. Then, each $x \in X$ has $\alpha(x) \in H = \text{Im}(\beta)$. Then, there is some $g_x \in G$ such that $\beta(g_x) = \alpha(x)$. By the universal mapping property of F, we have the map $X \to G, x \mapsto g_x$ extends to a homomorphism

$$\gamma: F \longrightarrow G$$

$$x \longmapsto \gamma(x) = g_x.$$

Then, for $x \in X$ we see $\beta(\gamma(x)) = \beta(g_x) = \alpha(x)$, so $\beta \circ \gamma = \alpha$ on X which generates F, so $\beta \circ \gamma = \alpha$ on F as $\beta \circ \gamma$, α are homomorphisms.

Definition 0.1 (Group Presentations). Any group G is a homomorphic image of a free group F. An explicit homomorphism $\alpha: F \to G$ with F is called a **presentation** of G. Its kernel $N = \ker(\alpha) \unlhd F$ has $F/N \simeq G$. So, we may write $\langle X:Y \rangle = G$ where F is a free group on X and $Y \subseteq F$ has normal closure, $\bigcap_{H \unlhd G, Y \leq H} H = N$.

Example. $D_{2n} = \langle \alpha, \tau : \alpha^n, \tau^2, \tau \alpha \tau \alpha \rangle$. Here, we see F is free on the set $\{\alpha, \tau\}$ and N is the normal closure of $\langle \alpha^n, \tau^2, \tau \alpha \tau \alpha \rangle$, that being the smallest normal subgroup of F containing these three elements.

In general if $H \leq G$, then $\bigcap_{N \leq G, H \leq N} N \subseteq G$ is the normal closure of H. \diamond

Remark. In general, a group of relations can generate other relations that we may not account for, so it is good to know what elements in the normal closure look like. If $X\subseteq G$, we find elements in the normal closure N of $\langle X\rangle$ in G include inverses and products of elements from X. Furthermore, arbitrary conjugates and their products/inverses will be in N. We see this yields

$$N \supseteq \{\prod_{i=1}^{\ell} (g_i x_i g_i^{-1}) : \ell \ge 0, g_i \in G, x_i \in X \cup X^{-1}\}.$$

Furthermore, we see this set is in fact a normal subgroup itself, so equality holds.

Lecture 21 Wed 13 Oct 2021 11:23