Group Theory

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1 Groups

1.1 Cayley tables

A binary operation \circ on a finite set G can be visualized using a Cayley table.

Example: $G = \{0, 1\}$ and $\circ \equiv$ multiplication.



1.2 Definition

Definition Monoid

A monoid (G, \circ) is a tuple containing a set G and a binary operation $\circ \colon G \times G \to G$.

The relation must satisfy the following properties

- 1. Associativity: $\forall a, b, c \in G, a \circ (b \circ c) = (a \circ b) \circ c$
- 2. Identity: $\exists e \mid \forall a \in G, ea = ae = a$

The operation \circ between a and b may be written as $a \circ b$ or just ab.

Definition Group

A group is a monoid (G, \circ) where each element has an inverse.

1. Inverse: $\forall a \in G, \exists a^{-1} \in G \mid a^{-1}a = aa^{-1} = e$

1.3 Proof of uniqueness of the identity element

Theorem Uniqueness of the inverse element

If e is an identity element of a group, then it is unique.

Proof Uniqueness of the identity element

Suppose there is more than one identity element, e_1 and e_2 .

$$e_1 = e_1 \circ e_2$$
 since e_2 is an identity
= e_2 since e_1 is an identity

Thus, e_1 and e_2 must be the same. This reasoning can be extended to when we may suppose to have n identity elements.

1.4 Proof of uniqueness of the inverse element

Theorem Uniqueness of the inverse element

If a^{-1} is an inverse of a in a group, then it is unique.

Proof Uniqueness of the inverse element

Suppose we have $a \in G$ with inverses b and c.

$$b = b \circ e = b \circ (a \circ c)$$
$$(b \circ a)c = e \circ c$$
$$= c$$

Thus, b and c must be the same. This reasoning can be extended to when we may suppose to have n inverses of a.

1.5 Cancellation laws

Theorem Right cancellation law

$$ba = ca \implies b = c$$

Theorem Left cancellation law

$$ab = ac \implies b = c$$

1.6 Inverse of Product

Theorem Inverse of Product

Consider a group (G, \circ) . For any two elements $a, b \in G$

$$(a \circ b)^{-1} = b^{-1} \circ a^{-1}$$

Proof Inverse of Product

We start by noticing that by associativity we have

$$(a \circ b) \circ (b^{-1} \circ a^{-1}) = a \circ (b \circ b^{-1}) \circ a^{-1}$$
$$= a \circ e \circ a^{-1}$$
$$= a \circ a^{-1}$$
$$= e$$

This implies that $(a \circ b)$ is the inverse of $(b^{-1} \circ a^{-1})$. Since $(a \circ b) \circ (a \circ b)^{-1} = e$ we have

$$(a \circ b) \circ (b^{-1} \circ a^{-1}) = e = (a \circ b) \circ (a \circ b)^{-1}$$

We can clearly see that $(b^{-1} \circ a^{-1}) = (a \circ b)^{-1}$.

In general, we have

$$(a_1 \circ a_2 \circ \dots a_n)^{-1} = a_n^{-1} \circ \dots \circ a_2^{-1} \circ a_1^{-1}$$

2 Subgroups

2.1 Definition

Definition Subgroups

Given an algebraic structure $g=(G,\circ)$ and a group $h=(H,\circ),$ h is a subgroup of g $(g\leq h)$ if $H\subseteq G.$

2.2 One-Step Subgroup Test

Theorem One-Step Subgroup Test

Let (G, \circ) be a group and let $H \subseteq G$ where $\emptyset \neq H$. Then (H, \circ) is a subgroup of $(G, \circ) \iff \forall a, b \in H, a \circ b^{-1} \in H$.

Proof One-Step Subgroup Test

(\Longrightarrow): Assume $(H, \circ) \leq (G, \circ)$. The properties of a group directly infer $\forall a, b \in H, a \circ b^{-1} \in H$ (\Longleftrightarrow): Assume $\forall a, b \in H, a \circ b^{-1} \in H$

- **Identity**: let a = b, then $a \circ a^{-1}H \implies e \in H$.
- Inverse: Let $k \in H$, a = e and b = k. $a \circ b^{-1} = e \circ k^{-1} \implies k^{-1} \in H$.
- Closure: Let $m, n \in H \implies n^{-1} \in H$ and let a = m and $b = n^{-1}$. $a \circ b^{-1} = a \circ (b^{-1})^{-1} = a \circ b$. This implies $a, b \in H$.

2.3 The centralizer subgroup

Definition The centralizer subgroup

Let $H \leq G$ be groups and define

$$C_G(H) = \{ g \in G \mid \forall h \in H, gh = hg \}$$

as the centralizer of H.

This is the set of all elements of G such that they commute with every element of H.

Theorem

Let $H \leq G$, then $C_G(H) \leq G$.

Proof

Suppose $a, b \in C_G(H)$. We want to show $ab^{-1} \in C_G(H)$. Note that the condition $gh = hg \iff hg^{-1} = g^{-1}h$.

Consider the expression $(ab^{-1})h = a(b^{-1}h) = ahb^{-1} = h(ab^{-1})$. This means that $ab^{-1} \in C_G(H)$ and thus in H.

2.4 The conjugate subgroup

Definition The conjugate subgroup

Let $H \leq G$ be groups and define

$$g^{-1}Hg = \{g^{-1}hg \mid h \in H\}$$

as the conjugate subgroup.

Theorem

Let $H \leq G$, then $g^{-1}Hg \leq G$.

Proof

Suppose $a,b \in g^{-1}Hg$. We want to show $ab^{-1} \in g^{-1}Hg$. Note that $a = g^{-1}h_1g$ and $b = g^{-1}h_2g$ for some $h_1,h_2 \in H$. This means that $ab^{-1} = a(g^{-1}h_2g)^{-1} = a(g^{-1}h_2^{-1}g) = g^{-1}h_1gg^{-1}h_2^{-1}g = g^{-1}(h_1h_2)g \in g^{-1}Hg$ because $h_1h_2 \in H$.

3 Center of a group

Definition Center of a group

Let G be a group. The center of the group G is defined as

$$\mathbf{Z}(G) = \{ g \in G \, | \, \forall x \in G, gx = xg \}$$

This is the set of all elements that commute with every other element. The condition gx = xg is also sometimes expressed as $gxg^{-1} = x$.

Theorem

Let G be a group, then $Z(G) \leq G$.

Proof

Assume $a,b\in \mathrm{Z}(G)$ meaning $a=gag^{-1}$ and $b=gag^{-1}$ for any $g\in G$. We want to show $ab^{-1}\in \mathrm{Z}(G)$. $ab^{-1}=(gag^{-1})(gbg^{-1})^{-1}=gag^{-1}gb^{-1}g^{-1}=gab^{-1}g^{-1}$ which is precisely the requirement to be in $\mathrm{Z}(G)$.