

Groups

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1 What is a Group?

‘Groups’ is a course which introduces you to the subject of *Abstract Algebra*. Indeed, while groups are one of the simplest and most basic of all the algebraic structures¹, they are immensely useful and appear in almost every area of mathematics.

1.1 Definition of a Group

We will begin our study of the subject by defining formally what a group is.

Definition 1.1. A *group* is a set G with a binary operation² $*$ which satisfies the axioms:

- *Identity.* There is an element $e \in G$ such that $g * e = e * g = g$ for every $g \in G$.
- *Inverses.* For every element $g \in G$, there is an element $g^{-1} \in G$ such that $g * g^{-1} = g^{-1} * g = e$.
- *Associativity.* The operation $*$ is associative.

We typically refer to a group as defined above by $(G, *)$, which explicitly states that $*$ is the group operation. When the operation being used is clear, we can refer to the group by just G . We will also be omitting the group’s operation symbol quite often, for example writing $gh = g * h$.

In the next section, we will look at some non-trivial examples of groups.

1.2 Elementary Properties of Groups

With the notion of a group now defined, we can now consider some basic facts that follow directly from the definition of a group. We will first address whether it is possible for a group to have multiple identity elements, or for an element to have multiple inverses (no).

¹Apart from ‘magmas’ I suppose, but they don’t tend to be a particularly useful notion.

²Some texts include an additional *closure* axiom, but this is implied by $*$ being a binary operation on G .

Proposition 1.2 (Uniqueness of the Identity and Inverse). *Let $(G, *)$ be a group. Then there is a unique identity element, and for every $g \in G$, g^{-1} is unique.*

Proof. To prove that the identity element is unique, let e and e' be identity elements of G . Then $e * e' = e$ and $e * e' = e'$ by definition, giving $e = e'$.

To prove that the inverses are unique, suppose that for some $g, h, k \in G$ we have $g * h = g * k = e$. Then $g^{-1} * g * h = g^{-1} * g * k$, implying $h = k$. The case of $h * g = k * g = e$ follows analogously. \square

The next useful fact is the *cancellation law*, whose proof bears a large resemblance to the proof that inverses are unique.

Proposition 1.3 (Cancellation Law). *If $(G, *)$ is a group, and $a, b, c \in G$, then $a * b = a * c$ and $b * a = c * a$ both imply $b = c$.*

Proof. Taking $a * b = a * c$ and left-multiplying by a^{-1} we have $a^{-1} * a * b = a^{-1} * a * c$, that is, $b = c$. The other case follows analogously. \square

The last proposition we will prove in this section gives us a useful result about computing inverses.

Proposition 1.4 (Computing Inverses). *Let $(G, *)$ be a group, and let $g, h \in G$. Then the following hold:*

- (i) $(g * h)^{-1} = h^{-1} * g^{-1}$.
- (ii) $(g^{-1})^{-1} = g$.

Proof.

- (i) We have $(g * h) * (h^{-1} * g^{-1}) = g * (h * h^{-1}) * g^{-1} = g * g^{-1} = e$, so $(g * h)^{-1} = h^{-1} * g^{-1}$.
- (ii) Similarly, $g^{-1} * g = e$, so $(g^{-1})^{-1} = g$. \square

Theorem 1.5 (Cancellation Law). *If $(G, *)$ is a group, and $a, b, c \in G$, then $a * b = a * c$ and $b * a = c * a$ both imply $b = c$.*

It is worth noting though that we cannot (in general) cancel $a * b = c * a$.

With the notion of a group now defined, we can consider some non-trivial examples of groups.

Example 1.6 (Non-Examples of Groups).

- The pair (\mathbb{Q}, \cdot) is *not* a group. The element $0 \in \mathbb{Q}$ does not have an inverse.

Example 1.7 (Examples of Groups). The following are all groups.

1. The additive group of integers, $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$.
2. $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$, $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$, $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ and $(\mathbb{C}, +)$