

Group Theory

Aryaman Maithani

IIT Bombay

20th July 2020

Some examples of groups

Some examples of groups

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with addition.

Some examples of groups

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with addition.
- The set of nonzero real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.

Some examples of groups

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with addition.
- The set of nonzero real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of integers along with addition.

Some examples of groups

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with addition.
- The set of nonzero real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of integers along with addition.
- The set of 2×2 invertible real matrices along with multiplication.

Some examples of groups

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with addition.
- The set of nonzero real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of integers along with addition.
- The set of 2×2 invertible real matrices along with multiplication.
- The set $\{0, 1, \dots, n - 1\}$ along with addition defined modulo n .

Some examples of groups

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) **along with** addition.
- The set of nonzero real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) **along with** multiplication.
- The set of integers **along with** addition.
- The set of 2×2 invertible real matrices **along with** multiplication.
- The set $\{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ **along with** addition defined modulo n .

Some examples of groups

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) **along with** addition.
- The set of nonzero real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) **along with** multiplication.
- The set of integers **along with** addition.
- The set of 2×2 invertible real matrices **along with** multiplication.
- The set $\{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ **along with** addition defined modulo n .

Note the “along with.” We don’t talk about a group by just talking about a set. It is necessary to have an operation on it as well.

Some non-examples of groups

Some non-examples of groups

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.

Some non-examples of groups

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of natural numbers along with addition.

Some non-examples of groups

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of natural numbers along with addition.
- The set of non-zero integers (/natural numbers) along with multiplication.

Some non-examples of groups

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of natural numbers along with addition.
- The set of non-zero integers (/natural numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of 2×2 real matrices along with multiplication.

Some non-examples of groups

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of natural numbers along with addition.
- The set of non-zero integers (/natural numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of 2×2 real matrices along with multiplication.
- The set $\{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ with multiplication defined modulo n .

Some non-examples of groups

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of natural numbers along with addition.
- The set of non-zero integers (/natural numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of 2×2 real matrices along with multiplication.
- The set $\{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ with multiplication defined modulo n .
- \mathbb{R}^3 with cross-product.

Some non-examples of groups

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of natural numbers along with addition.
- The set of non-zero integers (/natural numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of 2×2 real matrices along with multiplication.
- The set $\{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ with multiplication defined modulo n .
- \mathbb{R}^3 with cross-product.
- My friend group.

What is a group?

Hmmmmmmmmmmmmmmmmmmmmmm?

What is a group?

First, a definition.

What is a group?

Definition 1 (Binary operation)

Given a set S , a binary operation \cdot on S is a function of the form

$$\cdot : S \times S \rightarrow S.$$

What is a group?

Definition 1 (Binary operation)

Given a set S , a binary operation \cdot on S is a function of the form

$$\cdot : S \times S \rightarrow S.$$

For ease of notation, we shall write $a \cdot b$ instead of $\cdot((a, b))$.

What is a group?

Definition 1 (Binary operation)

Given a set S , a binary operation \cdot on S is a function of the form

$$\cdot : S \times S \rightarrow S.$$

For ease of notation, we shall write $a \cdot b$ instead of $\cdot((a, b))$.

Examples?

What is a group?

Definition 1 (Binary operation)

Given a set S , a binary operation \cdot on S is a function of the form

$$\cdot : S \times S \rightarrow S.$$

For ease of notation, we shall write $a \cdot b$ instead of $\cdot((a, b))$.

What is a group?

Definition 1 (Binary operation)

Given a set S , a binary operation \cdot on S is a function of the form

$$\cdot : S \times S \rightarrow S.$$

For ease of notation, we shall write $a \cdot b$ instead of $\cdot((a, b))$.

- $+$ and \cdot are binary operations on $\mathbb{R}(/ \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{C} / \mathbb{Z})$.

What is a group?

Definition 1 (Binary operation)

Given a set S , a binary operation \cdot on S is a function of the form

$$\cdot : S \times S \rightarrow S.$$

For ease of notation, we shall write $a \cdot b$ instead of $\cdot((a, b))$.

- $+$ and \cdot are binary operations on $\mathbb{R}(/ \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{C} / \mathbb{Z})$.
- $-$ is also a binary operation on the above sets but \div is not.

What is a group?

Definition 1 (Binary operation)

Given a set S , a binary operation \cdot on S is a function of the form

$$\cdot : S \times S \rightarrow S.$$

For ease of notation, we shall write $a \cdot b$ instead of $\cdot((a, b))$.

- $+$ and \cdot are binary operations on $\mathbb{R}(/ \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{C}/\mathbb{Z})$.
- $-$ is also a binary operation on the above sets but \div is not.
- $+$ is a binary operation on \mathbb{N} but $-$ is not.

What is a group?

Definition 1 (Binary operation)

Given a set S , a binary operation \cdot on S is a function of the form

$$\cdot : S \times S \rightarrow S.$$

For ease of notation, we shall write $a \cdot b$ instead of $\cdot((a, b))$.

- $+$ and \cdot are binary operations on $\mathbb{R}(/ \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{C} / \mathbb{Z})$.
- $-$ is also a binary operation on the above sets but \div is not.
- $+$ is a binary operation on \mathbb{N} but $-$ is not.
- $+$ and \cdot modulo n are binary operations on $\{0, \dots, n-1\}$.

What is a group?

Definition 1 (Binary operation)

Given a set S , a binary operation \cdot on S is a function of the form

$$\cdot : S \times S \rightarrow S.$$

For ease of notation, we shall write $a \cdot b$ instead of $\cdot((a, b))$.

- $+$ and \cdot are binary operations on $\mathbb{R}(/ \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{C} / \mathbb{Z})$.
- $-$ is also a binary operation on the above sets but \div is not.
- $+$ is a binary operation on \mathbb{N} but $-$ is not.
- $+$ and \cdot modulo n are binary operations on $\{0, \dots, n-1\}$.
- \times (cross product) is a binary operation on \mathbb{R}^3 .

What is a group?

Definition 1 (Binary operation)

Given a set S , a binary operation \cdot on S is a function of the form

$$\cdot : S \times S \rightarrow S.$$

For ease of notation, we shall write $a \cdot b$ instead of $\cdot((a, b))$.

- $+$ and \cdot are binary operations on $\mathbb{R}(/ \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{C}/\mathbb{Z})$.
- $-$ is also a binary operation on the above sets but \div is not.
- $+$ is a binary operation on \mathbb{N} but $-$ is not.
- $+$ and \cdot modulo n are binary operations on $\{0, \dots, n-1\}$.
- \times (cross product) is a binary operation on \mathbb{R}^3 .

Now, we define what a group is.

What is a group?

Definition 2 (Group)

A group is an ordered pair (G, \cdot) where G is some set and \cdot is a binary operation on G satisfying the following axioms:

What is a group?

Definition 2 (Group)

A group is an ordered pair (G, \cdot) where G is some set and \cdot is a binary operation on G satisfying the following axioms:

① $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ for all $a, b, c \in G$,

What is a group?

Definition 2 (Group)

A group is an ordered pair (G, \cdot) where G is some set and \cdot is a binary operation on G satisfying the following axioms:

- 1 $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ for all $a, b, c \in G$,
- 2 there exists an element e in G , called an *identity* of G , such that for all $a \in G$ we have $a \cdot e = a = a \cdot e$,

What is a group?

Definition 2 (Group)

A group is an ordered pair (G, \cdot) where G is some set and \cdot is a binary operation on G satisfying the following axioms:

- 1 $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ for all $a, b, c \in G$,
- 2 there exists an element e in G , called an *identity* of G , such that for all $a \in G$ we have $a \cdot e = a = a \cdot e$,
- 3 for each $a \in G$, there is an element $a^{-1} \in G$, called an *inverse* of a such that $a \cdot a^{-1} = e = a^{-1} \cdot a$.

What is a group?

Definition 2 (Group)

A group is an ordered pair (G, \cdot) where G is some set and \cdot is a binary operation on G satisfying the following axioms:

- 1 $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ for all $a, b, c \in G$,
- 2 there exists an element e in G , called **an identity** of G , such that for all $a \in G$ we have $a \cdot e = a = a \cdot e$,
- 3 for each $a \in G$, there is an element $a^{-1} \in G$, called **an inverse** of a such that $a \cdot a^{-1} = e = a^{-1} \cdot a$.

What is a group?

Definition 2 (Group)

A group is an ordered pair (G, \cdot) where G is some set and \cdot is a binary operation on G satisfying the following axioms:

- 1 $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ for all $a, b, c \in G$,
- 2 there exists an element e in G , called **an identity** of G , such that for all $a \in G$ we have $a \cdot e = a = a \cdot e$,
- 3 for each $a \in G$, there is an element $a^{-1} \in G$, called **an inverse** of a such that $a \cdot a^{-1} = e = a^{-1} \cdot a$.

I have used “an” above. Why?

What is a group?

Definition 2 (Group)

A group is an ordered pair (G, \cdot) where G is some set and \cdot is a binary operation on G satisfying the following axioms:

- 1 $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ for all $a, b, c \in G$,
- 2 there exists an element e in G , called **an identity** of G , such that for all $a \in G$ we have $a \cdot e = a = a \cdot e$,
- 3 for each $a \in G$, there is an element $a^{-1} \in G$, called **an inverse** of a such that $a \cdot a^{-1} = e = a^{-1} \cdot a$.

I have used “an” above. Why? Well, simply because I can’t directly claim that identity (/inverse) is unique. However, it is.

What is a group?

Definition 2 (Group)

A group is an ordered pair (G, \cdot) where G is some set and \cdot is a binary operation on G satisfying the following axioms:

- 1 $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ for all $a, b, c \in G$,
- 2 there exists an element e in G , called **an identity** of G , such that for all $a \in G$ we have $a \cdot e = a = a \cdot e$,
- 3 for each $a \in G$, there is an element $a^{-1} \in G$, called **an inverse** of a such that $a \cdot a^{-1} = e = a^{-1} \cdot a$.

I have used “an” above. Why? Well, simply because I can’t directly claim that identity (/inverse) is unique. However, it is.

Proof?

Review

The discussion we had is what led to us agreeing upon the above axioms. So, let us only discuss what went wrong with the non-examples.

Review

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.

Review

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of natural numbers along with addition.

Review

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of natural numbers along with addition.
- The set of non-zero integers (/natural numbers) along with multiplication.

Review

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of natural numbers along with addition.
- The set of non-zero integers (/natural numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of 2×2 real matrices along with multiplication.

Review

- The set of real numbers ($/$ complex numbers/ $/$ rational numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of natural numbers along with addition.
- The set of non-zero integers ($/$ natural numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of 2×2 real matrices along with multiplication.
- The set $\{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ with multiplication defined modulo n .

Review

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of natural numbers along with addition.
- The set of non-zero integers (/natural numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of 2×2 real matrices along with multiplication.
- The set $\{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ with multiplication defined modulo n .
- \mathbb{R}^3 with cross-product.

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of natural numbers along with addition.
- The set of non-zero integers (/natural numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of 2×2 real matrices along with multiplication.
- The set $\{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ with multiplication defined modulo n .
- \mathbb{R}^3 with cross-product.
- My friend group.

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of natural numbers along with addition.
- The set of non-zero integers (/natural numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of 2×2 real matrices along with multiplication.
- The set $\{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ with multiplication defined modulo n .
- \mathbb{R}^3 with cross-product.
- My friend group.

The last case is nothing special. Indeed, in general we need the set to be nonempty since it must always have the identity.

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of natural numbers along with addition.
- The set of non-zero integers (/natural numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of 2×2 real matrices along with multiplication.
- The set $\{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ with multiplication defined modulo n .
- \mathbb{R}^3 with cross-product.
- My friend group.

The last case is nothing special. Indeed, in general we need the set to be nonempty since it must always have the identity.

Recall vector spaces?

- The set of real numbers (/complex numbers/rational numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of natural numbers along with addition.
- The set of non-zero integers (/natural numbers) along with multiplication.
- The set of 2×2 real matrices along with multiplication.
- The set $\{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ with multiplication defined modulo n .
- \mathbb{R}^3 with cross-product.
- My friend group.

The last case is nothing special. Indeed, in general we need the set to be nonempty since it must always have the identity.

Recall vector spaces? Verify that any vector space along with its $+$ forms a group.

Abelian groups

Commutativity

Abelian groups

Commutativity... is nice.

Abelian groups

Commutativity... is nice.

Due to this, commutative groups have a name of their own.

Abelian groups

Commutativity... is nice.

Due to this, commutative groups have a name of their own.

Definition 3 (Abelian groups)

A group (G, \cdot) is said to be abelian if

$$a \cdot b = b \cdot a$$

for all $a, b \in G$.

Abelian groups

Commutativity... is nice.

Due to this, commutative groups have a name of their own.

Definition 3 (Abelian groups)

A group (G, \cdot) is said to be abelian if

$$a \cdot b = b \cdot a$$

for all $a, b \in G$.

From the first slide, everything except for the matrix example was an example of an abelian.

Abelian groups

Commutativity... is nice.

Due to this, commutative groups have a name of their own.

Definition 3 (Abelian groups)

A group (G, \cdot) is said to be abelian if

$$a \cdot b = b \cdot a$$

for all $a, b \in G$.

From the first slide, everything except for the matrix example was an example of an abelian.

Even the example of $(V, +)$ for a vector space V is an abelian group.

Abelian groups

Commutativity... is nice.

Due to this, commutative groups have a name of their own.

Definition 3 (Abelian groups)

A group (G, \cdot) is said to be abelian if

$$a \cdot b = b \cdot a$$

for all $a, b \in G$.

From the first slide, everything except for the matrix example was an example of an abelian.

Even the example of $(V, +)$ for a vector space V is an abelian group.

Abelian groups are named after early 19th century mathematician Niels Henrik Abel.

Abelian groups

Commutativity... is nice.

Due to this, commutative groups have a name of their own.

Definition 3 (Abelian groups)

A group (G, \cdot) is said to be abelian if

$$a \cdot b = b \cdot a$$

for all $a, b \in G$.

From the first slide, everything except for the matrix example was an example of an abelian.

Even the example of $(V, +)$ for a vector space V is an abelian group.

Abelian groups are named after early 19th century mathematician Niels Henrik **A**bel.

Abuse of notation

It is a common theme in math to abuse notation.

Abuse of notation

It is a common theme in math to abuse notation.

Following this theme, we note that instead of writing “ (G, \cdot) is a group,” we often write the following:

Abuse of notation

It is a common theme in math to abuse notation.

Following this theme, we note that instead of writing “ (G, \cdot) is a group,” we often write the following:

- “ G is a group under \cdot ,” or

Abuse of notation

It is a common theme in math to abuse notation.

Following this theme, we note that instead of writing “ (G, \cdot) is a group,” we often write the following:

- “ G is a group under \cdot ,” or
- “ G is a group” when \cdot is clear from context.

Let G be a group and $x \in G$. We define x^n for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ as follows:

$$x^0 :=$$

For $n > 0$, we define

$$x^n :=$$

For $n < 0$, we have $x^n :=$, which is the same as
(Prove!)

Let G be a group and $x \in G$. We define x^n for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ as follows:

$$x^0 := e.$$

For $n > 0$, we define

$$x^n :=$$

For $n < 0$, we have $x^n :=$, which is the same as
(Prove!)

Let G be a group and $x \in G$. We define x^n for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ as follows:

$$x^0 := e.$$

For $n > 0$, we define

$$x^n := \underbrace{x \cdot x \cdots x}_{n \text{ times}}.$$

For $n < 0$, we have $x^n :=$, which is the same as
(Prove!)

Let G be a group and $x \in G$. We define x^n for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ as follows:

$$x^0 := e.$$

For $n > 0$, we define

$$x^n := \underbrace{x \cdot x \cdots x}_{n \text{ times}}.$$

For $n < 0$, we have $x^n := (x^{-1})^{-n}$, which is the same as (Prove!)

Let G be a group and $x \in G$. We define x^n for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ as follows:

$$x^0 := e.$$

For $n > 0$, we define

$$x^n := \underbrace{x \cdot x \cdots x}_{n \text{ times}}.$$

For $n < 0$, we have $x^n := (x^{-1})^{-n}$, which is the same as $(x^{-n})^{-1}$.
(Prove!)

Orders

Definition 4 (Order (group))

The order of a group is the cardinality of G .
It is denoted by $|G|$.

Definition 4 (Order (group))

The order of a group is the cardinality of G .
It is denoted by $|G|$.

Note that the order of a group may be infinite. A group is said to be finite if its cardinality is.

Definition 4 (Order (group))

The order of a group is the cardinality of G .
It is denoted by $|G|$.

Note that the order of a group may be infinite. A group is said to be finite if its cardinality is.

Definition 5 (Order (element))

The order of an element $x \in G$ is the smallest positive integer n such that

$$x^n = e.$$

(Where e is the identity of G .)

If no such n exists, then we say the element has infinite order.
It is denoted by $|x|$.

Finite groups

Proposition 1

Every element of a finite group has finite order.

Finite groups

Proposition 1

Every element of a finite group has finite order.

Proof.

Let G be a finite group and let $x \in G$.

It suffices to show that $x^n = e$ for *some* $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Note that $x^0, x^1, \dots, x^{|G|}$ are $|G| + 1$ elements of G . By PHP, two of them must be equal. Thus,

$$x^n = x^m$$

for some $0 \leq n < m \leq |G|$.

The above equation gives us

$$e = x^{m-n}.$$

Since $m - n \in \mathbb{N}$, we are done. □

What we shall see now is a recurring theme in mathematics.

Subgroups

What we shall see now is a recurring theme in mathematics.
Given a set with some certain properties, we look at subsets which have the same properties.

Subgroups

What we shall see now is a recurring theme in mathematics.
Given a set with some certain properties, we look at subsets which have the same properties.
Where have you seen this before?

Subgroups

What we shall see now is a recurring theme in mathematics.

Given a set with some certain properties, we look at subsets which have the same properties.

Where have you seen this before?

There are many examples:

- Subspaces of vector spaces,

Subgroups

What we shall see now is a recurring theme in mathematics.

Given a set with some certain properties, we look at subsets which have the same properties.

Where have you seen this before?

There are many examples:

- Subspaces of vector spaces,
- Subgroups of groups,

Subgroups

What we shall see now is a recurring theme in mathematics.

Given a set with some certain properties, we look at subsets which have the same properties.

Where have you seen this before?

There are many examples:

- Subspaces of vector spaces,
- Subgroups of groups,
- Subrings of rings,

Subgroups

What we shall see now is a recurring theme in mathematics.

Given a set with some certain properties, we look at subsets which have the same properties.

Where have you seen this before?

There are many examples:

- Subspaces of vector spaces,
- Subgroups of groups,
- Subrings of rings,
- Subfields of fields,

What we shall see now is a recurring theme in mathematics. Given a set with some certain properties, we look at subsets which have the same properties.

Where have you seen this before?

There are many examples:

- Subspaces of vector spaces,
- Subgroups of groups,
- Subrings of rings,
- Subfields of fields,
- Subspaces of (metric/topological) spaces, et cetera.

Subgroups

The idea is to find a subset of G which can be regarded as a group in its own right.

Subgroups

The idea is to find a subset of G which can be regarded as a group in its own right. What group operation should we give it then?

Subgroups

The idea is to find a subset of G which can be regarded as a group in its own right. What group operation should we give it then? Well, it is natural to consider the same operation as that of G .

Subgroups

The idea is to find a subset of G which can be regarded as a group in its own right. What group operation should we give it then? Well, it is natural to consider the same operation as that of G .

Definition 6 (Subgroup)

A subset $H \subset G$ is said to be *subgroup* of G if:

Subgroups

The idea is to find a subset of G which can be regarded as a group in its own right. What group operation should we give it then? Well, it is natural to consider the same operation as that of G .

Definition 6 (Subgroup)

A subset $H \subset G$ is said to be *subgroup* of G if:

- H is nonempty.

Subgroups

The idea is to find a subset of G which can be regarded as a group in its own right. What group operation should we give it then? Well, it is natural to consider the same operation as that of G .

Definition 6 (Subgroup)

A subset $H \subset G$ is said to be *subgroup* of G if:

- H is nonempty.
- $a \cdot b \in H$ for all $a, b \in H$,

Subgroups

The idea is to find a subset of G which can be regarded as a group in its own right. What group operation should we give it then? Well, it is natural to consider the same operation as that of G .

Definition 6 (Subgroup)

A subset $H \subset G$ is said to be *subgroup* of G if:

- H is nonempty.
- $a \cdot b \in H$ for all $a, b \in H$,
- $a^{-1} \in H$ for all $a \in H$.

Subgroups

The idea is to find a subset of G which can be regarded as a group in its own right. What group operation should we give it then? Well, it is natural to consider the same operation as that of G .

Definition 6 (Subgroup)

A subset $H \subset G$ is said to be *subgroup* of G if:

- H is nonempty.
- $a \cdot b \in H$ for all $a, b \in H$,
- $a^{-1} \in H$ for all $a \in H$.

The above conditions just tell us that \cdot (restricted to H) is a binary operation on H and that $(H, \cdot|_H)$ forms a group.

Subgroups

The idea is to find a subset of G which can be regarded as a group in its own right. What group operation should we give it then? Well, it is natural to consider the same operation as that of G .

Definition 6 (Subgroup)

A subset $H \subset G$ is said to be *subgroup* of G if:

- H is nonempty.
- $a \cdot b \in H$ for all $a, b \in H$,
- $a^{-1} \in H$ for all $a \in H$.

The above conditions just tell us that \cdot (restricted to H) is a binary operation on H and that $(H, \cdot|_H)$ forms a group.

One may note that the identity element of (G, \cdot) is always present in H and moreover, it is also the identity of $(H, \cdot|_H)$.

Notation: If H is a subgroup of G , then we write $H \leq G$.

Notation: If H is a subgroup of G , then we write $H \leq G$.

- A group always has at least two subgroups. Can you tell which?

Notation: If H is a subgroup of G , then we write $H \leq G$.

- A group always has at least two subgroups. Can you tell which? (Well, not two if G has only one element.)
- Is $\mathbb{N} \leq \mathbb{Z}$?

Notation: If H is a subgroup of G , then we write $H \leq G$.

- A group always has at least two subgroups. Can you tell which? (Well, not two if G has only one element.)
- Is $\mathbb{N} \leq \mathbb{Z}$?
- Is $n\mathbb{Z} \leq \mathbb{Z}$?

Notation: If H is a subgroup of G , then we write $H \leq G$.

- A group always has at least two subgroups. Can you tell which? (Well, not two if G has only one element.)
- Is $\mathbb{N} \leq \mathbb{Z}$?
- Is $n\mathbb{Z} \leq \mathbb{Z}$? In fact, any subgroup of \mathbb{Z} is of the form $n\mathbb{Z}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Notation: If H is a subgroup of G , then we write $H \leq G$.

- A group always has at least two subgroups. Can you tell which? (Well, not two if G has only one element.)
- Is $\mathbb{N} \leq \mathbb{Z}$?
- Is $n\mathbb{Z} \leq \mathbb{Z}$? In fact, any subgroup of \mathbb{Z} is of the form $n\mathbb{Z}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- $\mathbb{Z} \leq \mathbb{Q} \leq \mathbb{R} \leq \mathbb{C}$.

Notation: If H is a subgroup of G , then we write $H \leq G$.

- A group always has at least two subgroups. Can you tell which? (Well, not two if G has only one element.)
- Is $\mathbb{N} \leq \mathbb{Z}$?
- Is $n\mathbb{Z} \leq \mathbb{Z}$? In fact, any subgroup of \mathbb{Z} is of the form $n\mathbb{Z}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- $\mathbb{Z} \leq \mathbb{Q} \leq \mathbb{R} \leq \mathbb{C}$.
- The set of $n \times n$ upper invertible diagonal (real) matrices is a subgroup of the group of all invertible $n \times n$ (real) matrices.

Let H be a subgroup of G .

Let H be a subgroup of G . For $g \in G$, we define $g \cdot H$ as

$$g \cdot H := \{g \cdot h : h \in H\}.$$

Let H be a subgroup of G . For $g \in G$, we define $g \cdot H$ as

$$g \cdot H := \{g \cdot h : h \in H\}.$$

Definition 7 (Coset)

A *(left) coset* of H is a set of the form $g \cdot H$.

g is said to be a representative of the coset $g \cdot H$.

Let H be a subgroup of G . For $g \in G$, we define $g \cdot H$ as

$$g \cdot H := \{g \cdot h : h \in H\}.$$

Definition 7 (Coset)

A *(left) coset* of H is a set of the form $g \cdot H$.

g is said to be a representative of the coset $g \cdot H$.

We define G/H be the set of cosets, that is,

$$G/H := \{gH : g \in G\}.$$

Let H be a subgroup of G . For $g \in G$, we define $g \cdot H$ as

$$g \cdot H := \{g \cdot h : h \in H\}.$$

Definition 7 (Coset)

A *(left) coset* of H is a set of the form $g \cdot H$.

g is said to be a representative of the coset $g \cdot H$.

We define G/H be the set of cosets, that is,

$$G/H := \{gH : g \in G\}.$$

Note that different elements could correspond to the same coset. That is, a coset may have different representatives.

Let H be a subgroup of G . For $g \in G$, we define $g \cdot H$ as

$$g \cdot H := \{g \cdot h : h \in H\}.$$

Definition 7 (Coset)

A *(left) coset* of H is a set of the form $g \cdot H$.

g is said to be a representative of the coset $g \cdot H$.

We define G/H be the set of cosets, that is,

$$G/H := \{gH : g \in G\}.$$

Note that different elements could correspond to the same coset. That is, a coset may have different representatives. In fact, we now see precisely when that is possible.

Proposition 2 (Equality of cosets)

Let $a, b \in G$. Then,

$$aH = bH \text{ iff } b^{-1}aH = H \text{ iff } b^{-1}a \in H.$$

Proposition 2 (Equality of cosets)

Let $a, b \in G$. Then,

$$aH = bH \text{ iff } b^{-1}aH = H \text{ iff } b^{-1}a \in H.$$

This tells us that if $c \in aH$, then $aH = cH$.

Proposition 2 (Equality of cosets)

Let $a, b \in G$. Then,

$$aH = bH \text{ iff } b^{-1}aH = H \text{ iff } b^{-1}a \in H.$$

This tells us that if $c \in aH$, then $aH = cH$. This also leads to the following result.

Proposition 2 (Equality of cosets)

Let $a, b \in G$. Then,

$$aH = bH \text{ iff } b^{-1}aH = H \text{ iff } b^{-1}a \in H.$$

This tells us that if $c \in aH$, then $aH = cH$. This also leads to the following result.

Proposition 3 (Disjointness of cosets)

If aH and bH are two cosets, then either they are equal or they are disjoint.

Proposition 2 (Equality of cosets)

Let $a, b \in G$. Then,

$$aH = bH \text{ iff } b^{-1}aH = H \text{ iff } b^{-1}a \in H.$$

This tells us that if $c \in aH$, then $aH = cH$. This also leads to the following result.

Proposition 3 (Disjointness of cosets)

If aH and bH are two cosets, then either they are equal or they are disjoint.

Note that H itself is a coset since it equals $e \cdot H$. (Or $h \cdot H$ for any $h \in H$.)

Proposition 4 (Equality of cardinalities)

Given any coset aH , it has the same cardinality as H .

Proposition 4 (Equality of cardinalities)

Given any coset aH , it has the same cardinality as H .

(That is, there is a bijection between aH and H .)

Proposition 4 (Equality of cardinalities)

Given any coset aH , it has the same cardinality as H .

(That is, there is a bijection between aH and H .)

Proof.

Consider the function $f : H \rightarrow aH$ defined by

$$f(h) = a \cdot h.$$



Properties of cosets

Proposition 4 (Equality of cardinalities)

Given any coset aH , it has the same cardinality as H .

(That is, there is a bijection between aH and H .)

Proof.

Consider the function $f : H \rightarrow aH$ defined by

$$f(h) = a \cdot h.$$

This is clearly onto, by definition of aH .



Proposition 4 (Equality of cardinalities)

Given any coset aH , it has the same cardinality as H .

(That is, there is a bijection between aH and H .)

Proof.

Consider the function $f : H \rightarrow aH$ defined by

$$f(h) = a \cdot h.$$

This is clearly onto, by definition of aH .

Moreover, this is one-one since $ah = ah' \implies h = h'$.



Proposition 4 (Equality of cardinalities)

Given any coset aH , it has the same cardinality as H .

(That is, there is a bijection between aH and H .)

Proof.

Consider the function $f : H \rightarrow aH$ defined by

$$f(h) = a \cdot h.$$

This is clearly onto, by definition of aH .

Moreover, this is one-one since $ah = ah' \implies h = h'$. (One can cancel a since it has an inverse.) □

Properties of cosets

Proposition 4 (Equality of cardinalities)

Given any coset aH , it has the same cardinality as H .

(That is, there is a bijection between aH and H .)

Proof.

Consider the function $f : H \rightarrow aH$ defined by

$$f(h) = a \cdot h.$$

This is clearly onto, by definition of aH .

Moreover, this is one-one since $ah = ah' \implies h = h'$. (One can cancel a since it has an inverse.) □

Remark. This shows that any two cosets have the same cardinality.

Lagrange's Theorem

With the concept of cosets, we can prove a (quite fundamental) result of group theory.

Lagrange's Theorem

Theorem 1 (Lagrange's Theorem)

Let G be a finite group and $H \leq G$.

Then, $|H|$ divides $|G|$.

Lagrange's Theorem

Theorem 1 (Lagrange's Theorem)

Let G be a finite group and $H \leq G$.

Then, $|H|$ divides $|G|$.

Proof.



Lagrange's Theorem

Theorem 1 (Lagrange's Theorem)

Let G be a finite group and $H \leq G$.

Then, $|H|$ divides $|G|$.

Proof.

Left as an exercise to the reader.



Lagrange's Theorem

Theorem 1 (Lagrange's Theorem)

Let G be a finite group and $H \leq G$.

Then, $|H|$ divides $|G|$.

Proof.

Jk.



Lagrange's Theorem

Theorem 1 (Lagrange's Theorem)

Let G be a finite group and $H \leq G$.

Then, $|H|$ divides $|G|$.

Proof.

Consider the set of cosets $G/H = \{a_1H, \dots, a_nH\}$.



Lagrange's Theorem

Theorem 1 (Lagrange's Theorem)

Let G be a finite group and $H \leq G$.

Then, $|H|$ divides $|G|$.

Proof.

Consider the set of cosets $G/H = \{a_1H, \dots, a_nH\}$.

Note that given any element $g \in G$, it must belong to *some* coset.
(Why?)



Lagrange's Theorem

Theorem 1 (Lagrange's Theorem)

Let G be a finite group and $H \leq G$.

Then, $|H|$ divides $|G|$.

Proof.

Consider the set of cosets $G/H = \{a_1H, \dots, a_nH\}$.

Note that given any element $g \in G$, it must belong to *some* coset.
(Why?)

Thus, $G = a_1H \cup \dots \cup a_nH$.



Lagrange's Theorem

Theorem 1 (Lagrange's Theorem)

Let G be a finite group and $H \leq G$.

Then, $|H|$ divides $|G|$.

Proof.

Consider the set of cosets $G/H = \{a_1H, \dots, a_nH\}$.

Note that given any element $g \in G$, it must belong to *some* coset. (Why?)

Thus, $G = a_1H \cup \dots \cup a_nH$.

Moreover, by our previous observation, the above union is of disjoint sets. Thus,



Lagrange's Theorem

Theorem 1 (Lagrange's Theorem)

Let G be a finite group and $H \leq G$.

Then, $|H|$ divides $|G|$.

Proof.

Consider the set of cosets $G/H = \{a_1H, \dots, a_nH\}$.

Note that given any element $g \in G$, it must belong to *some* coset. (Why?)

Thus, $G = a_1H \cup \dots \cup a_nH$.

Moreover, by our previous observation, the above union is of disjoint sets. Thus,

$$|G| = |a_1H| + \dots + |a_nH|$$



Lagrange's Theorem

Theorem 1 (Lagrange's Theorem)

Let G be a finite group and $H \leq G$.

Then, $|H|$ divides $|G|$.

Proof.

Consider the set of cosets $G/H = \{a_1H, \dots, a_nH\}$.

Note that given any element $g \in G$, it must belong to *some* coset. (Why?)

Thus, $G = a_1H \cup \dots \cup a_nH$.

Moreover, by our previous observation, the above union is of disjoint sets. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} |G| &= |a_1H| + \dots + |a_nH| \\ &= n|H|. \end{aligned}$$



Lagrange's Theorem

Theorem 1 (Lagrange's Theorem)

Let G be a finite group and $H \leq G$.

Then, $|H|$ divides $|G|$.

Proof.

Consider the set of cosets $G/H = \{a_1H, \dots, a_nH\}$.

Note that given any element $g \in G$, it must belong to *some* coset. (Why?)

Thus, $G = a_1H \cup \dots \cup a_nH$.

Moreover, by our previous observation, the above union is of disjoint sets. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}|G| &= |a_1H| + \dots + |a_nH| \\ &= n|H|.\end{aligned}$$

That completes our proof. □

Homomorphisms

What we consider now is another common theme in mathematics.

Homomorphisms

What we consider now is another common theme in mathematics. Given two objects of the same type (for example, given two groups), we consider functions between them.

Homomorphisms

What we consider now is another common theme in mathematics. Given two objects of the same type (for example, given two groups), we consider functions between them. However, we don't just consider any function. We study some particular type of functions.

Homomorphisms

What we consider now is another common theme in mathematics. Given two objects of the same type (for example, given two groups), we consider functions between them. However, we don't just consider any function. We study some particular type of functions.

Do you recall what particular type of functions (between vector spaces) we considered in linear algebra?

Homomorphisms

What we consider now is another common theme in mathematics. Given two objects of the same type (for example, given two groups), we consider functions between them. However, we don't just consider any function. We study some particular type of functions.

Do you recall what particular type of functions (between vector spaces) we considered in linear algebra?

Similar to that, we consider functions that preserve the “structure” of the objects in consideration.

Homomorphisms

What we consider now is another common theme in mathematics. Given two objects of the same type (for example, given two groups), we consider functions between them. However, we don't just consider any function. We study some particular type of functions.

Do you recall what particular type of functions (between vector spaces) we considered in linear algebra?

Similar to that, we consider functions that preserve the “structure” of the objects in consideration.

The case of groups is particularly simple since there's pretty one much thing that gives the group its structure, the group operation.

Homomorphisms

What we consider now is another common theme in mathematics. Given two objects of the same type (for example, given two groups), we consider functions between them. However, we don't just consider any function. We study some particular type of functions.

Do you recall what particular type of functions (between vector spaces) we considered in linear algebra?

Similar to that, we consider functions that preserve the “structure” of the objects in consideration.

The case of groups is particularly simple since there's pretty one much thing that gives the group its structure, the group operation. This leads to the following definition.

Homomorphisms

Definition 8 (Homomorphism)

Let (G, \cdot) and (H, \star) be groups. A function

$$\varphi : G \rightarrow H$$

is said to be a *group homomorphism* if

$$\varphi(a \cdot b) = \varphi(a) \star \varphi(b)$$

for all $a, b \in G$.

Homomorphisms

Definition 8 (Homomorphism)

Let (G, \cdot) and (H, \star) be groups. A function

$$\varphi : G \rightarrow H$$

is said to be a *group homomorphism* if

$$\varphi(a \cdot b) = \varphi(a) \star \varphi(b)$$

for all $a, b \in G$.

One checks the following properties easily:

Homomorphisms

Definition 8 (Homomorphism)

Let (G, \cdot) and (H, \star) be groups. A function

$$\varphi : G \rightarrow H$$

is said to be a *group homomorphism* if

$$\varphi(a \cdot b) = \varphi(a) \star \varphi(b)$$

for all $a, b \in G$.

One checks the following properties easily:

- $\varphi(e_G) = e_H$,

Homomorphisms

Definition 8 (Homomorphism)

Let (G, \cdot) and (H, \star) be groups. A function

$$\varphi : G \rightarrow H$$

is said to be a *group homomorphism* if

$$\varphi(a \cdot b) = \varphi(a) \star \varphi(b)$$

for all $a, b \in G$.

One checks the following properties easily:

- $\varphi(e_G) = e_H$,
- $\varphi(a^{-1}) = (\varphi(a))^{-1}$ for all $a \in G$.

Properties of homomorphisms

Now, we see some properties of homomorphisms themselves.

Properties of homomorphisms

Now, we see some properties of homomorphisms themselves.

- Given any group G , the identity function $\text{id}_G : G \rightarrow G$ is a homomorphism from G to itself.

Properties of homomorphisms

Now, we see some properties of homomorphisms themselves.

- Given any group G , the identity function $\text{id}_G : G \rightarrow G$ is a homomorphism from G to itself.
- Given homomorphisms

$$G \xrightarrow{\varphi} H \xrightarrow{\psi} K,$$

the composition $\psi \circ \varphi$ is a function from G to K . Moreover, it is a homomorphism.

Properties of homomorphisms

Now, we see some properties of homomorphisms themselves.

- Given any group G , the identity function $\text{id}_G : G \rightarrow G$ is a homomorphism from G to itself.
- Given homomorphisms

$$G \xrightarrow{\varphi} H \xrightarrow{\psi} K,$$

the composition $\psi \circ \varphi$ is a function from G to K . Moreover, it is a homomorphism.

Said simply: composition of homomorphisms is again a homomorphism.

Properties of homomorphisms

Now, we see some properties of homomorphisms themselves.

- Given any group G , the identity function $\text{id}_G : G \rightarrow G$ is a homomorphism from G to itself.
- Given homomorphisms

$$G \xrightarrow{\varphi} H \xrightarrow{\psi} K,$$

the composition $\psi \circ \varphi$ is a function from G to K . Moreover, it is a homomorphism.

Said simply: composition of homomorphisms is again a homomorphism.

- With the same notation as above, we always have

$$\text{id}_H \circ \varphi = \varphi, \quad \psi \circ \text{id}_H = \psi.$$

Properties of homomorphisms

Now, we see some properties of homomorphisms themselves.

- Given any group G , the identity function $\text{id}_G : G \rightarrow G$ is a homomorphism from G to itself.
- Given homomorphisms

$$G \xrightarrow{\varphi} H \xrightarrow{\psi} K,$$

the composition $\psi \circ \varphi$ is a function from G to K . Moreover, it is a homomorphism.

Said simply: composition of homomorphisms is again a homomorphism.

- With the same notation as above, we always have

$$\text{id}_H \circ \varphi = \varphi, \quad \psi \circ \text{id}_H = \psi.$$

Go look up what a Category is.

Properties of homomorphisms

Now, we see some properties of homomorphisms themselves.

- Given any group G , the identity function $\text{id}_G : G \rightarrow G$ is a homomorphism from G to itself.
- Given homomorphisms

$$G \xrightarrow{\varphi} H \xrightarrow{\psi} K,$$

the composition $\psi \circ \varphi$ is a function from G to K . Moreover, it is a homomorphism.

Said simply: composition of homomorphisms is again a homomorphism.

- With the same notation as above, we always have

$$\text{id}_H \circ \varphi = \varphi, \quad \psi \circ \text{id}_H = \psi.$$

Go look up what a Category is. (In the context of Category Theory.)

Examples

Let \mathbb{R}^\times denote the group of nonzero real numbers under \cdot .
Similarly, we have \mathbb{Q}^\times and \mathbb{C}^\times .

Examples

Let \mathbb{R}^\times denote the group of nonzero real numbers under \cdot . Similarly, we have \mathbb{Q}^\times and \mathbb{C}^\times .

- The map $\exp : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^\times$ defined by

$$\exp(x) = e^x$$

is a homomorphism because

$$\exp(x + y) = e^x \cdot e^y = \exp(x) \cdot \exp(y).$$

Examples

Let \mathbb{R}^\times denote the group of nonzero real numbers under \cdot . Similarly, we have \mathbb{Q}^\times and \mathbb{C}^\times .

- The map $\exp : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^\times$ defined by

$$\exp(x) = e^x$$

is a homomorphism because

$$\exp(x + y) = e^x \cdot e^y = \exp(x) \cdot \exp(y).$$

- In the same way, the map $\exp : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^\times$ is a group homomorphism.

Examples

Let \mathbb{R}^\times denote the group of nonzero real numbers under \cdot . Similarly, we have \mathbb{Q}^\times and \mathbb{C}^\times .

- The map $\exp : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^\times$ defined by

$$\exp(x) = e^x$$

is a homomorphism because

$$\exp(x + y) = e^x \cdot e^y = \exp(x) \cdot \exp(y).$$

- In the same way, the map $\exp : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^\times$ is a group homomorphism. In fact, this is surjective.

Examples

Let \mathbb{R}^\times denote the group of nonzero real numbers under \cdot . Similarly, we have \mathbb{Q}^\times and \mathbb{C}^\times .

- The map $\exp : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^\times$ defined by

$$\exp(x) = e^x$$

is a homomorphism because

$$\exp(x + y) = e^x \cdot e^y = \exp(x) \cdot \exp(y).$$

- In the same way, the map $\exp : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^\times$ is a group homomorphism. In fact, this is surjective.
- Given any $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, the map $\varphi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ defined as

$$\varphi(z) = nz$$

is a homomorphism.

Examples

Let \mathbb{R}^\times denote the group of nonzero real numbers under \cdot . Similarly, we have \mathbb{Q}^\times and \mathbb{C}^\times .

- The map $\exp : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^\times$ defined by

$$\exp(x) = e^x$$

is a homomorphism because

$$\exp(x + y) = e^x \cdot e^y = \exp(x) \cdot \exp(y).$$

- In the same way, the map $\exp : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^\times$ is a group homomorphism. In fact, this is surjective.
- Given any $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, the map $\varphi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ defined as

$$\varphi(z) = nz$$

is a homomorphism.

- In general, if G is an abelian group and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, the map $x \mapsto x^n$ is a homomorphism.

Homomorphisms lead to another equally recurring concept in mathematics.

Homomorphisms lead to another equally recurring concept in mathematics. The concept of isomorphism.

Homomorphisms lead to another equally recurring concept in mathematics. The concept of isomorphism. Loosely speaking, an isomorphism captures two structures to be “equivalent.”

Homomorphisms lead to another equally recurring concept in mathematics. The concept of isomorphism. Loosely speaking, an isomorphism captures two structures to be “equivalent.”

For example, consider the group $\{0, 1, 2\}$ with addition modulo 3 and the group $\{1, \omega, \omega^2\}$ with multiplication. ($\omega = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}i\right)$.)

Homomorphisms lead to another equally recurring concept in mathematics. The concept of isomorphism. Loosely speaking, an isomorphism captures two structures to be “equivalent.”

For example, consider the group $\{0, 1, 2\}$ with addition modulo 3 and the group $\{1, \omega, \omega^2\}$ with multiplication. ($\omega = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}i\right)$.)

While the groups are not equal (since they don't have the same element), they pretty much are same in terms of the group properties.

Homomorphisms lead to another equally recurring concept in mathematics. The concept of isomorphism. Loosely speaking, an isomorphism captures two structures to be “equivalent.”

For example, consider the group $\{0, 1, 2\}$ with addition modulo 3 and the group $\{1, \omega, \omega^2\}$ with multiplication. ($\omega = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}i\right)$.)

While the groups are not equal (since they don't have the same element), they pretty much are same in terms of the group properties.

This idea can formalised as follows.

Definition 9 (Isomorphism)

Let G and H be groups. A group homomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ is said to be *isomorphism* if φ is bijective.

Definition 9 (Isomorphism)

Let G and H be groups. A group homomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ is said to be *isomorphism* if φ is bijective.

Remark. It can be checked that the inverse of a bijective homomorphism is again a homomorphism.

Definition 9 (Isomorphism)

Let G and H be groups. A group homomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ is said to be *isomorphism* if φ is bijective.

Remark. It can be checked that the inverse of a bijective homomorphism is again a homomorphism. In particular, if φ is an isomorphism, then so is φ^{-1} .

Definition 9 (Isomorphism)

Let G and H be groups. A group homomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ is said to be *isomorphism* if φ is bijective.

Remark. It can be checked that the inverse of a bijective homomorphism is again a homomorphism. In particular, if φ is an isomorphism, then so is φ^{-1} .

Definition 10 (Isomorphic)

Two groups G and H are said to be isomorphic if there exists a group isomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$.
In such a case, we write $G \cong H$.

Definition 9 (Isomorphism)

Let G and H be groups. A group homomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ is said to be *isomorphism* if φ is bijective.

Remark. It can be checked that the inverse of a bijective homomorphism is again a homomorphism. In particular, if φ is an isomorphism, then so is φ^{-1} .

Definition 10 (Isomorphic)

Two groups G and H are said to be isomorphic if there exists a group isomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$.
In such a case, we write $G \cong H$.

One can note that \cong is an “equivalence relation”.

Examples

- With $G = \{0, 1, 2\}$ and $H = \{1, \omega, \omega^2\}$ as earlier, we see that $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ defined by $\varphi(i) = \omega^i$ is an isomorphism.

- With $G = \{0, 1, 2\}$ and $H = \{1, \omega, \omega^2\}$ as earlier, we see that $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ defined by $\varphi(i) = \omega^i$ is an isomorphism.
- In general, the groups $G = \{0, \dots, n-1\}$ and $H = \{z \in \mathbb{C}^\times : z^n = 1\}$ are isomorphic.

Examples

- With $G = \{0, 1, 2\}$ and $H = \{1, \omega, \omega^2\}$ as earlier, we see that $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ defined by $\varphi(i) = \omega^i$ is an isomorphism.
- In general, the groups $G = \{0, \dots, n-1\}$ and $H = \{z \in \mathbb{C}^\times : z^n = 1\}$ are isomorphic.
- The map $\exp : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ is an isomorphism. (Note that \mathbb{R} is a group under $+$ whereas \mathbb{R}^+ is a group under \cdot .)

Once again, let us look at a concept the quite recurring in mathematics. (This time more focused in the realm of algebra.)

Once again, let us look at a concept the quite recurring in mathematics. (This time more focused in the realm of algebra.)

Definition 11 (Kernel)

Given a group homomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$, we denote the *kernel* of φ by $\ker \varphi$ and define it as

$$\ker \varphi := \{g \in G : \varphi(g) = e_H\}.$$

Once again, let us look at a concept the quite recurring in mathematics. (This time more focused in the realm of algebra.)

Definition 11 (Kernel)

Given a group homomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$, we denote the *kernel* of φ by $\ker \varphi$ and define it as

$$\ker \varphi := \{g \in G : \varphi(g) = e_H\}.$$

That is, it is the subset of G consisting of all those elements that get mapped to the identity of H .

Once again, let us look at a concept the quite recurring in mathematics. (This time more focused in the realm of algebra.)

Definition 11 (Kernel)

Given a group homomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$, we denote the *kernel* of φ by $\ker \varphi$ and define it as

$$\ker \varphi := \{g \in G : \varphi(g) = e_H\}.$$

That is, it is the subset of G consisting of all those elements that get mapped to the identity of H . Does this remind you of anything from linear algebra?

Once again, let us look at a concept the quite recurring in mathematics. (This time more focused in the realm of algebra.)

Definition 11 (Kernel)

Given a group homomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$, we denote the *kernel* of φ by $\ker \varphi$ and define it as

$$\ker \varphi := \{g \in G : \varphi(g) = e_H\}.$$

That is, it is the subset of G consisting of all those elements that get mapped to the identity of H . Does this remind you of anything from linear algebra?

Proposition 5

With the same notations as above, we have

$$\ker \varphi \leq G.$$

A curious property about kernels

Proposition 6

Let $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ and $K = \ker \varphi$.

Then, given any $a \in G$ and $k \in K$, we have

$$aka^{-1} \in K.$$

A curious property about kernels

Proposition 6

Let $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ and $K = \ker \varphi$.

Then, given any $a \in G$ and $k \in K$, we have

$$aka^{-1} \in K.$$

The above says that $aKa^{-1} \subset K$

A curious property about kernels

Proposition 6

Let $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ and $K = \ker \varphi$.

Then, given any $a \in G$ and $k \in K$, we have

$$aka^{-1} \in K.$$

The above says that $aKa^{-1} \subset K$, where aKa^{-1} is defined in the natural manner as

$$\{aka^{-1} : k \in K\}.$$

A curious property about kernels

Proposition 6

Let $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ and $K = \ker \varphi$.

Then, given any $a \in G$ and $k \in K$, we have

$$aka^{-1} \in K.$$

The above says that $aKa^{-1} \subset K$, where aKa^{-1} is defined in the natural manner as

$$\{aka^{-1} : k \in K\}.$$

In fact, since the above is true for all $a \in G$, it is also true for a^{-1} and we actually get the equality $aKa^{-1} = K$.

A curious property about kernels

Proposition 6

Let $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ and $K = \ker \varphi$.

Then, given any $a \in G$ and $k \in K$, we have

$$aka^{-1} \in K.$$

The above says that $aKa^{-1} \subset K$, where aKa^{-1} is defined in the natural manner as

$$\{aka^{-1} : k \in K\}.$$

In fact, since the above is true for all $a \in G$, it is also true for a^{-1} and we actually get the equality $aKa^{-1} = K$.

This can be written in yet another way as $aK = Ka$.

A curious calculation

Now, suppose that $a, a', b, b' \in G$ are elements such that $aK = a'K$ and $bK = b'K$.

A curious calculation

Now, suppose that $a, a', b, b' \in G$ are elements such that $aK = a'K$ and $bK = b'K$.

Then, we see that

A curious calculation

Now, suppose that $a, a', b, b' \in G$ are elements such that $aK = a'K$ and $bK = b'K$.

Then, we see that

$$(ab)K = a(bK)$$

A curious calculation

Now, suppose that $a, a', b, b' \in G$ are elements such that $aK = a'K$ and $bK = b'K$.

Then, we see that

$$\begin{aligned}(ab)K &= a(bK) \\ &= a(Kb)\end{aligned}$$

A curious calculation

Now, suppose that $a, a', b, b' \in G$ are elements such that $aK = a'K$ and $bK = b'K$.

Then, we see that

$$\begin{aligned}(ab)K &= a(bK) \\ &= a(Kb) \\ &= a(Kb')\end{aligned}$$

A curious calculation

Now, suppose that $a, a', b, b' \in G$ are elements such that $aK = a'K$ and $bK = b'K$.

Then, we see that

$$\begin{aligned}(ab)K &= a(bK) \\ &= a(Kb) \\ &= a(Kb') \\ &= (aK)b'\end{aligned}$$

A curious calculation

Now, suppose that $a, a', b, b' \in G$ are elements such that $aK = a'K$ and $bK = b'K$.

Then, we see that

$$\begin{aligned}(ab)K &= a(bK) \\ &= a(Kb) \\ &= a(Kb') \\ &= (aK)b' \\ &= (a'K)b'\end{aligned}$$

A curious calculation

Now, suppose that $a, a', b, b' \in G$ are elements such that $aK = a'K$ and $bK = b'K$.

Then, we see that

$$\begin{aligned}(ab)K &= a(bK) \\ &= a(Kb) \\ &= a(Kb') \\ &= (aK)b' \\ &= (a'K)b' \\ &= a'(Kb')\end{aligned}$$

A curious calculation

Now, suppose that $a, a', b, b' \in G$ are elements such that $aK = a'K$ and $bK = b'K$.

Then, we see that

$$\begin{aligned}(ab)K &= a(bK) \\ &= a(Kb) \\ &= a(Kb') \\ &= (aK)b' \\ &= (a'K)b' \\ &= a'(Kb') \\ &= (a'b')K.\end{aligned}$$

A curious calculation

Now, suppose that $a, a', b, b' \in G$ are elements such that $aK = a'K$ and $bK = b'K$.

Then, we see that

$$\begin{aligned}(ab)K &= a(bK) \\ &= a(Kb) \\ &= a(Kb') \\ &= (aK)b' \\ &= (a'K)b' \\ &= a'(Kb') \\ &= (a'b')K.\end{aligned}$$

Let us keep this in mind for now. We shall come back to it later.

A curious calculation

Now, suppose that $a, a', b, b' \in G$ are elements such that $aK = a'K$ and $bK = b'K$.

Then, we see that

$$\begin{aligned}(ab)K &= a(bK) \\ &= a(Kb) \\ &= a(Kb') \\ &= (aK)b' \\ &= (a'K)b' \\ &= a'(Kb') \\ &= (a'b')K.\end{aligned}$$

Let us keep this in mind for now. We shall come back to it later. Note that the only property we used was that $gK = Kg$ and not really that K was a kernel.

Coming back to cosets

Recall the set of cosets G/H .

Coming back to cosets

Recall the set of cosets G/H . We wish to turn this set into a group.

Coming back to cosets

Recall the set of cosets G/H . We wish to turn this set into a group.

What should the group operation be?

Coming back to cosets

Recall the set of cosets G/H . We wish to turn this set into a group.

What should the group operation be?

Well, given cosets aH and bH , we wish to define $(aH)(bH)$.

Coming back to cosets

Recall the set of cosets G/H . We wish to turn this set into a group.

What should the group operation be?

Well, given cosets aH and bH , we wish to define $(aH)(bH)$.

Moreover, the product must again be a coset.

Coming back to cosets

Recall the set of cosets G/H . We wish to turn this set into a group.

What should the group operation be?

Well, given cosets aH and bH , we wish to define $(aH)(bH)$.

Moreover, the product must again be a coset.

So, the question is: What $g \in G$ should be pick to define

$$(aH)(bH) = gH?$$

Coming back to cosets

Recall the set of cosets G/H . We wish to turn this set into a group.

What should the group operation be?

Well, given cosets aH and bH , we wish to define $(aH)(bH)$.

Moreover, the product must again be a coset.

So, the question is: What $g \in G$ should be pick to define

$$(aH)(bH) = gH?$$

Well, the natural choice is: $g = ab$.

Coming back to cosets

Recall the set of cosets G/H . We wish to turn this set into a group.

What should the group operation be?

Well, given cosets aH and bH , we wish to define $(aH)(bH)$.

Moreover, the product must again be a coset.

So, the question is: What $g \in G$ should be pick to define

$$(aH)(bH) = gH?$$

Well, the natural choice is: $g = ab$.

However, there is a problem...

A problem :(

When we talk about the product $(aH)(bH)$, we are defining products of two *sets*.

A problem :(

When we talk about the product $(aH)(bH)$, we are defining products of two *sets*.

Now, given any coset of H , it is true that it can be written as aH for *some* $a \in G$.

A problem :(

When we talk about the product $(aH)(bH)$, we are defining products of two *sets*.

Now, given any coset of H , it is true that it can be written as aH for *some* $a \in G$.

However, the problem is that the a is not (always) unique.

A problem :(

When we talk about the product $(aH)(bH)$, we are defining products of two *sets*.

Now, given any coset of H , it is true that it can be written as aH for *some* $a \in G$.

However, the problem is that the a is not (always) unique.

Thus, when defining the product, the product must not depend on the representative chosen.

A problem :(

When we talk about the product $(aH)(bH)$, we are defining products of two *sets*.

Now, given any coset of H , it is true that it can be written as aH for *some* $a \in G$.

However, the problem is that the a is not (always) unique.

Thus, when defining the product, the product must not depend on the representative chosen.

This means that we must take care of the following:

A problem :(

When we talk about the product $(aH)(bH)$, we are defining products of two *sets*.

Now, given any coset of H , it is true that it can be written as aH for *some* $a \in G$.

However, the problem is that the a is not (always) unique.

Thus, when defining the product, the product must not depend on the representative chosen.

This means that we must take care of the following:

Whenever we have $aH = a'H$ and $bH = b'H$

A problem :(

When we talk about the product $(aH)(bH)$, we are defining products of two *sets*.

Now, given any coset of H , it is true that it can be written as aH for *some* $a \in G$.

However, the problem is that the a is not (always) unique.

Thus, when defining the product, the product must not depend on the representative chosen.

This means that we must take care of the following:

Whenever we have $aH = a'H$ and $bH = b'H$, we must have

$$(aH)(bH) = (a'H)(b'H).$$

A problem :(

When we talk about the product $(aH)(bH)$, we are defining products of two *sets*.

Now, given any coset of H , it is true that it can be written as aH for *some* $a \in G$.

However, the problem is that the a is not (always) unique.

Thus, when defining the product, the product must not depend on the representative chosen.

This means that we must take care of the following:

Whenever we have $aH = a'H$ and $bH = b'H$, we must have

$$(aH)(bH) = (ab)H = (a'b')H = (a'H)(b'H).$$

A problem :(

When we talk about the product $(aH)(bH)$, we are defining products of two *sets*.

Now, given any coset of H , it is true that it can be written as aH for *some* $a \in G$.

However, the problem is that the a is not (always) unique.

Thus, when defining the product, the product must not depend on the representative chosen.

This means that we must take care of the following:

Whenever we have $aH = a'H$ and $bH = b'H$, we must have

$$(ab)H = (a'b')H.$$

Solving the problem :)

Well, what does that remind us of?

Solving the problem :)

Well, what does that remind us of? That was a property kernels of homomorphisms have!

Solving the problem :)

Well, what does that remind us of? That was a property kernels of homomorphisms have!

In fact, what we saw was that all we need is that $gH = Hg$ (for all $g \in G$) and then, we always have the desired property.

Solving the problem :)

Well, what does that remind us of? That was a property kernels of homomorphisms have!

In fact, what we saw was that all we need is that $gH = Hg$ (for all $g \in G$) and then, we always have the desired property.

Note that we have shown that if $gH = Hg$, then the multiplication is well-defined.

Solving the problem :)

Well, what does that remind us of? That was a property kernels of homomorphisms have!

In fact, what we saw was that all we need is that $gH = Hg$ (for all $g \in G$) and then, we always have the desired property.

Note that we have shown that if $gH = Hg$, then the multiplication is well-defined.

In fact, the converse is true as well.

Solving the problem :)

Well, what does that remind us of? That was a property kernels of homomorphisms have!

In fact, what we saw was that all we need is that $gH = Hg$ (for all $g \in G$) and then, we always have the desired property.

Note that we have shown that if $gH = Hg$, then the multiplication is well-defined.

In fact, the converse is true as well. That is,

Solving the problem :)

Well, what does that remind us of? That was a property kernels of homomorphisms have!

In fact, what we saw was that all we need is that $gH = Hg$ (for all $g \in G$) and then, we always have the desired property.

Note that we have shown that if $gH = Hg$, then the multiplication is well-defined.

In fact, the converse is true as well. That is, if

$$aH = a'H, bH = b'H \implies (ab)H = (a'b')H,$$

Solving the problem :)

Well, what does that remind us of? That was a property kernels of homomorphisms have!

In fact, what we saw was that all we need is that $gH = Hg$ (for all $g \in G$) and then, we always have the desired property.

Note that we have shown that if $gH = Hg$, then the multiplication is well-defined.

In fact, the converse is true as well. That is, if

$$aH = a'H, bH = b'H \implies (ab)H = (a'b')H,$$

then H must satisfy $gH = Hg$.

Normal subgroups

The previous discussion brings us to an important notion - that of a *normal* subgroup.

Normal subgroups

The previous discussion brings us to an important notion - that of a *normal* subgroup. What do you think is the definition?

Definition 12 (Normal subgroup)

A subgroup N of a group G is said to be *normal* if

The previous discussion brings us to an important notion - that of a *normal* subgroup. What do you think is the definition?

Definition 12 (Normal subgroup)

A subgroup N of a group G is said to be *normal* if

$$gN = Ng$$

for all $g \in G$.

The previous discussion brings us to an important notion - that of a *normal* subgroup. What do you think is the definition?

Definition 12 (Normal subgroup)

A subgroup N of a group G is said to be *normal* if

$$gN = Ng$$

for all $g \in G$.

Said differently, we must have $gNg^{-1} = N$ for all $g \in G$.

Normal subgroups

The previous discussion brings us to an important notion - that of a *normal* subgroup. What do you think is the definition?

Definition 12 (Normal subgroup)

A subgroup N of a group G is said to be *normal* if

$$gN = Ng$$

for all $g \in G$.

Said differently, we must have $gNg^{-1} = N$ for all $g \in G$.

Said even more differently, given any $n \in N$, and $g \in G$, we must have $gng^{-1} \in N$.

With this, we come to the last theme for today, another very recurring theme in mathematics

With this, we come to the last theme for today, another very recurring theme in mathematics - *quotienting*.

Quotienting

With this, we come to the last theme for today, another very recurring theme in mathematics - *quotienting*.

We first look at the definition and then have discussion about the theme.

With this, we come to the last theme for today, another very recurring theme in mathematics - *quotienting*.

Definition 13 (Quotient group)

Let G be a group and N be a normal subgroup of G . Then, the set of cosets G/N is a group under the operation defined by

$$(aN)(bN) := (ab)N,$$

which is well-defined in view of our previous discussion.

With this, we come to the last theme for today, another very recurring theme in mathematics - *quotienting*.

Definition 13 (Quotient group)

Let G be a group and N be a normal subgroup of G . Then, the set of cosets G/N is a group under the operation defined by

$$(aN)(bN) := (ab)N,$$

which is well-defined in view of our previous discussion.

We sometimes use the notation \bar{g} to denote the coset gH . (When H is clear from context.)

With this, we come to the last theme for today, another very recurring theme in mathematics - *quotienting*.

Definition 13 (Quotient group)

Let G be a group and N be a normal subgroup of G . Then, the set of cosets G/N is a group under the operation defined by

$$(aN)(bN) := (ab)N,$$

which is well-defined in view of our previous discussion.

We sometimes use the notation \bar{g} to denote the coset gH . (When H is clear from context.)

Another thing to note is that any subgroup of an abelian group is normal.

Example

Consider the group $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ and the subgroup $5\mathbb{Z}$. (Is this normal?)

Example

Consider the group $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ and the subgroup $5\mathbb{Z}$. (Is this normal?)
(Since the group operation is denoted with $+$, we will use $+$ to denote the cosets as well.)

Example

Consider the group $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ and the subgroup $5\mathbb{Z}$. (Is this normal?)
(Since the group operation is denoted with $+$, we will use $+$ to denote the cosets as well.)

As an example, one of the cosets of $5\mathbb{Z}$ is

$$2 + 5\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -8, -3, 2, 7, 12, \dots\}.$$

Example

Consider the group $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ and the subgroup $5\mathbb{Z}$. (Is this normal?)
(Since the group operation is denoted with $+$, we will use $+$ to denote the cosets as well.)

As an example, one of the cosets of $5\mathbb{Z}$ is

$$2 + 5\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -8, -3, 2, 7, 12, \dots\}.$$

The set of cosets is $\{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}, \bar{3}, \bar{4}\}$.

Example

Consider the group $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ and the subgroup $5\mathbb{Z}$. (Is this normal?)
(Since the group operation is denoted with $+$, we will use $+$ to denote the cosets as well.)

As an example, one of the cosets of $5\mathbb{Z}$ is

$$2 + 5\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -8, -3, 2, 7, 12, \dots\}.$$

The set of cosets is $\{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}, \bar{3}, \bar{4}\}$. The addition (as an example) is like

$$\bar{1} + \bar{2} = \bar{3}, \quad \bar{3} + \bar{4} = \bar{2}, \quad \bar{2} + \bar{3} = \bar{0}.$$

Example

Consider the group $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ and the subgroup $5\mathbb{Z}$. (Is this normal?)
(Since the group operation is denoted with $+$, we will use $+$ to denote the cosets as well.)

As an example, one of the cosets of $5\mathbb{Z}$ is

$$2 + 5\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -8, -3, 2, 7, 12, \dots\}.$$

The set of cosets is $\{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}, \bar{3}, \bar{4}\}$. The addition (as an example) is like

$$\bar{1} + \bar{2} = \bar{3}, \quad \bar{3} + \bar{4} = \bar{2}, \quad \bar{2} + \bar{3} = \bar{0}.$$

Basically, this is just addition modulo 5.

Example

Consider the group $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ and the subgroup $5\mathbb{Z}$. (Is this normal?)
(Since the group operation is denoted with $+$, we will use $+$ to denote the cosets as well.)

As an example, one of the cosets of $5\mathbb{Z}$ is

$$2 + 5\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -8, -3, 2, 7, 12, \dots\}.$$

The set of cosets is $\{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}, \bar{3}, \bar{4}\}$. The addition (as an example) is like

$$\bar{1} + \bar{2} = \bar{3}, \quad \bar{3} + \bar{4} = \bar{2}, \quad \bar{2} + \bar{3} = \bar{0}.$$

Basically, this is just addition modulo 5.

The above group is what is called $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$.

Example

Consider the group $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ and the subgroup $5\mathbb{Z}$. (Is this normal?) (Since the group operation is denoted with $+$, we will use $+$ to denote the cosets as well.)

As an example, one of the cosets of $5\mathbb{Z}$ is

$$2 + 5\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -8, -3, 2, 7, 12, \dots\}.$$

The set of cosets is $\{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}, \bar{3}, \bar{4}\}$. The addition (as an example) is like

$$\bar{1} + \bar{2} = \bar{3}, \quad \bar{3} + \bar{4} = \bar{2}, \quad \bar{2} + \bar{3} = \bar{0}.$$

Basically, this is just addition modulo 5.

The above group is what is called $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$. Of course, this works for all values of 5.

Example

Consider the group $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ and the subgroup $5\mathbb{Z}$. (Is this normal?) (Since the group operation is denoted with $+$, we will use $+$ to denote the cosets as well.)

As an example, one of the cosets of $5\mathbb{Z}$ is

$$2 + 5\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -8, -3, 2, 7, 12, \dots\}.$$

The set of cosets is $\{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}, \bar{3}, \bar{4}\}$. The addition (as an example) is like

$$\bar{1} + \bar{2} = \bar{3}, \quad \bar{3} + \bar{4} = \bar{2}, \quad \bar{2} + \bar{3} = \bar{0}.$$

Basically, this is just addition modulo 5.

The above group is what is called $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$. Of course, this works for all values of 5.

In fact, this is the group (up to isomorphism) which we saw earlier as $\{1, \dots, n-1\}$ with addition modulo n .