Graduate Algebra

1. Week 1 [2025-09-03]

We'll begin by recalling some basic sorts of algebra that you more-or-less encountered before.

1.1. Notations and recollections

We reserve the following letters:

- $\mathbb{N}$ for the set of *natural numbers* $0, 1, 2, \ldots$
- $\mathbb{Z}$ for the set of *integers*, i.e. for all $\pm n$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$
- $\mathbb{Q}$ for the set of *rational numbers* m/n for $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $n \neq 0$
- $\mathbb{R}$ for the set of *real numbers*, and
- $\mathbb{C}$ for the set of *complex numbers* $a + bi$ for $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

In this first lecture, I want to recall some of the main objects of study in algebra, including: groups, rings and fields. Ultimately, the goal today is to prove an analogue of Cayley's Theorem - see Theorem 1.6.1 and Theorem 1.7.1 about embedding arbitrary groups in some standard groups.

1.2. Groups

Recall that a group is a set G together with a binary operation $\cdot : G \times G \to G$ satifsying the following:

- associativity: $\forall x, y, z \in G, (xy)z = x(yz)$
- identity: $\exists e \in G, xe = ex = x$.
- inverses: $\forall x \in G, \exists y \in G, xy = yx = 1$.

Remark 1.2.1:

a. We usually write 1 or sometimes 1_G rather than e for the inverse element of G.
b. we usually write x^{-1} for the inverse of $x \in G$
c. there are *uniqueness* results that I'm eliding here; the identity 1 of G is unique, and the inverse x^{-1} of an element is unique. These statements are *consequences* of the above axioms (they don't require additional assumption.)
d. A group is abelian if $\forall a, b \in G, ab = ba$
e. Sometimes we write groups additively; in that case, 0 is the identity element and and the inverse of $a \in G$ is $-a \in G$. We always insist that additive groups are abelian.

Definition 1.2.2: For groups G and H, a function $\varphi : G \to H$ is a group homomorphism provided that $\forall x, y \in G, \varphi(xy) = \varphi(x)\varphi(y)$.

Definition 1.2.3: Let $\varphi : G \to H$ be a group homomorphism. The kernel of φ is

$$\ker \varphi = \{g \in G \mid \varphi(g) = 1.\}$$

Remark 1.2.4: If $\varphi : G \to H$ is a group homomorphism, $\ker \varphi$ is a subgroup of G – i.e. $\ker \varphi$ is non-empty, and is closed under multiplication and under taking inverses.

Proposition 1.2.5: Let $\varphi : G \to H$ be a group homomorphism. Then φ is an injective (or one-to-one) function if and only if $\ker \varphi = \{1_G\}$.

1.3. Rings

Definition 1.3.1: A ring is an additive abelian group R together with a binary operation of multiplication

$$\cdot : R \times R \to R$$

which satisfies the following:
- multiplication is associative: $\forall a, b, c \in R, (ab)c = a(bc)$.
- there is a multiplicative identity: $\exists 1 \in R, \forall a \in R, 1a = a1 = a$.
- distribution laws: $\forall a, b, c \in R, a(b + c) = ab + ac$ and $(b + c)a = ba + ca$.

The ring R is commutative provided that $\forall a, b \in R, ab = ba$.

Example 1.3.2:
a. $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ are commutative rings.
b. For a natural number $n > 1$, the ring $\operatorname{Mat}_n(\mathbb{Z})$ of $n \times n$ matrices with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}$ is a non-commutative ring.

Definition 1.3.3: For a commutative ring R, an element $a \in R$ is a unit provided that $\exists v \in R, uv = vu = 1$.

The set $R^\times$ of units in R is a group under the multiplication of R.

1.4. Fields

Definition 1.4.1: A field is a commutative ring F such that $\forall a \in F, a \neq 0 \Rightarrow a$ is a unit.

Example 1.4.2: $\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ are fields, but $\mathbb{Z}$ is not a field.

1.5. Linear Algebra

Definition 1.5.1: If F is a field, a vector space over F – or an F-vector space – is an additive abelian group V together with an operation of scalar multiplication

$$F \times V \to V$$

written $(t, v) \mapsto tv$, subject to the following:
- identity: $\forall v \in V, 1v = v$.
- associativity: $\forall a, b \in F$ and $v \in V$, $a(bv) = (ab)v$.
- distributive laws: $\forall a, b \in F$ and $v, w \in V$, $(a + b)v = av + bv$ and $a(v + w) = av + aw$.

Remark 1.5.2: Probably in a linear algebra class you saw results stated for vector spaces over $\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{C}$; however, "most" results in linear algebra remain valid for vector space over F.

Example 1.5.3: Let I be any set, and let V be the set of all functions $f : I \to F$ which have finite support. Recall that the support of f is $\{x \in I \mid f(x) \neq 0\}$.

Then V is a vector space. (The addition and scalar multiplication operations are define "pointwise" – see homework.)

Remark 1.5.4: Recall that a basis of a vector space is subset B of V which is linearly indepent and spans V.

The vector space of finitely supported functions $I \to F$ has a basis $B = \{\delta_i \mid i \in I\}$, where

$$\delta_i : I \to F$$

is the function defined by $\delta_i(j) = 0$ if $i \neq j$ and $\delta_i(i) = 1$.

Definition 1.5.5: If V and W are F-vector spaces, an F-linear map $\varphi : V \to W$ is a homomorphism of additive groups which satisfies the condition

$$\forall t \in F, \forall v \in V, \varphi(tv) = t\varphi(v).$$

Definition 1.5.6: If V is an F-vector space, the general linear group $\mathrm{GL}(V)$ is the set

$$\{\varphi : V \to V \mid \varphi \text{ is } F\text{-linear and invertible.}\}$$

$\mathrm{GL}(V)$ is a group whose operation is given by composition of linear transformations.

Remark 1.5.7: If V is finite dimensional, so that V is isomorphic to F^n as F-vector spaces, linear algebra shows that $\mathrm{GL}(V)$ is isomorphic to the group GL_n of $n \times n$ matrices with non-zero determinant, where $n = \dim_F V$ and where the operation in GL_n is given by matrix multiplication.

1.6. Cayley's Theorem

Let Ω be any set. The set $S(\Omega)$ of all bijective functions $\psi : \Omega \to \Omega$ is a group whose operation is composition of functions.

Theorem 1.6.1 (Cayley's Theorem): Let G be any group. Then G is isomorphic to a subgroup of $S(\Omega)$ for some Ω.

Proof: Let $\Omega = G$. For $g \in G$, define a mapping $\lambda_g : G \to G$ by the rule

$$\lambda_g(h) = gh.$$

We are going to argue that the mapping $g \mapsto \lambda_g$ defines an injective group homomorphism $G \to S(\Omega) = S(G)$.

First of all, we note that $\lambda_1 = \mathrm{id}$. Indeed, to check this identity of functions, let $h \in \Omega = G$. Then

$$\lambda_1(h) = 1h = h = \mathrm{id}(h);$$

this confirms $\lambda_1 = \mathrm{id}$.

Next, we note that for $g_1, g_2 \in G$, we have $(*)\quad \lambda_{g_1} \circ \lambda g_2 = \lambda_{g_1 g_2}$. Again, to confirm this identify of functions, we let $h \in \Omega = G$. Then

$$\left(\lambda_{g_1} \circ \lambda_{g_2}\right)h = \lambda_{g_1}\left(\lambda_{g_2}(h)\right) = \lambda_{g_1}(g_2 h) = g_1(g_2 h) = (g_1 g_2)h = \lambda_{g_1 g_2}(h)$$

as required.

Now, using $(*)$ we see for $g \in G$ that $\lambda_g \circ \lambda_{g^{-1}} = \lambda_1 = \mathrm{id} = \lambda_{g^{-1}} \circ \lambda_g$, which proves that λ_g is bijective; thus indeed $\lambda_g \in S(\Omega) = S(G)$.

Moreover, $(*)$ shows that the mapping $\lambda : G \to S(G)$ given by $g \mapsto \lambda_g$ is a group homomorphism.

It remains to see that λ is injective. If $g \in \ker \lambda$, then $\lambda_g = \mathrm{id}$. Thus $1 = \mathrm{id}(1) = \lambda_g(1) = g1 = g$. Thus $g = 1$ so that $\ker \lambda = \{1\}$ which confirms that λ is injective by Proposition 1.2.5. This completes the proof. ■

1.7. A linear analogue of Cayley's Theorem.

Let F be a field.

Theorem 1.7.1: Let G be any group. Then G is isomorphic to a subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}(V)$ for some F-vector space V.

Proof: The proof is quite similar to the proof of Cayley's Theorem.

Let V be the vector space of all finitely supported functions $f : G \to F$. Recall that V has a basis $B = \{\delta_g \mid g \in G.\}$

We are going to define an injective group homomorphism $G \to \mathrm{GL}(V)$.

For $g \in G$, we may define an F-linear mapping $\lambda_g : V \to V$ by defining the value of λ_g at each vector in B. We set $\lambda_g(\delta_h) = \delta_{gh}$.

Recall that a typical element v of V has the form

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} t_i \delta_{h_i}$$

for scalars $t_i \in F$ and elements $g_i \in G$; since λ_g is F-linear, we have

$$\lambda_g(v) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} t_i \delta_{g h_i}.$$

We now show that $\lambda_1 = \mathrm{id}$. To prove this, since the functions $V \to V$ are linear, it is enough to argue that the functions agree at each element of the basis B of V. Well, for $h \in G$,

$$\lambda_1(\delta_h) = \delta_{1h} = \delta_h = \mathrm{id}(\delta_h)$$

as required.

We next show for $g_1, g_2 \in G$ that $(*) \quad \lambda_{g_1} \circ \lambda_{g_2} = \lambda_{g_1 g_2}$. Again, it suffices to argue that these functions agree at each element δ_h of B. For $h \in G$ we have:

$$\left(\lambda_{g_1} \circ \lambda_{g_2}\right)(\delta_h) = \lambda_{g_1}\left(\lambda_{g_2}\delta_h\right) = \lambda_{g_1}\left(\delta_{g_2 h}\right) = \delta_{g_1(g_2 h)} = \delta_{(g_1 g_2)h} = \lambda_{g_1 g_2}\delta_h$$

as required.

Now, for $g \in G$ we see that by $(*)$ that

$$\mathrm{id} = \lambda_1 = \lambda_g \circ \lambda_{g^{-1}}$$

which proves that λ_g is invertible and hence in $\mathrm{GL}(V)$.

Moreover, $(*)$ shows that the assignment $\lambda : G \to \mathrm{GL}(V)$ given by the rule $g \mapsto \lambda_g$ is a group homomorphism.

It remains to argue that λ is injective. Suppose that $x \in \ker \lambda$, so that $\mathrm{id} = \lambda_x$.

Then $\delta_1 = \mathrm{id}(\delta_1) = \lambda_x(\delta_1) = \delta_{x1} = \delta_x$. This implies that $1 = x$ so that indeed the kernel of λ is trivial and thus λ is injective by Proposition 1.2.5.

■

2. Week 2 [2025-09-08]

This week, we'll discuss quotients, and we'll begin our discussion of group actions.

2.1. The Quotient of a set by an equivalence relation

Let S be a set and let R be a relation on S. Formally, R is an assignment $R : S \times S \to \mathrm{Prop}$ – in other words, for $a, b \in S$, $R(a, b)$ is the proposition that a and b are related; of course $R(a, b)$ may or may not hold.

We often use a symbol $\sim$ or $\underset{R}{\sim}$ to indicate this proposition; thus $R(a, b) \Leftrightarrow a \underset{R}{\sim} b$.

Definition 2.1.1: The relation $\sim$ is an equivalence relation if the following properties hold:

- reflexive: $\forall s \in S, s \sim s$.
- symmetric: $\forall s_1, s_2 \in S, s_1 \sim s_2 \Rightarrow s_2 \sim s_1$
- transitive: $\forall s_1, s_2, s_3 \in S, s_1 \sim s_2$ and $s_2 \sim s_3 \Rightarrow s_1 \sim s_3$

Definition 2.1.2: If $\sim$ is an equivalence relation on the set S, a quotient of S by $\sim$ is a set $\bar{S}$ together with a surjective function $\pi : S \to \bar{S}$ with the following properties:

(Quot 1) $\forall a, b \in S, a \sim b \Rightarrow \pi(a) = \pi(b)$

(Quot 2) Let T be any set and let f be any function $f : S \to T$ such that $\forall a, b \in S, a \sim b \Rightarrow f(a) = f(b)$. Then there is a function $\bar{f} : S \to T$ for which $f = \bar{f} \circ \pi$.

Proposition 2.1.3: Suppose that $(\bar{S}_1, \pi_1)$ and $(\bar{S}_2, \pi_2)$ are two quotients of the set S by the equivalence relation $\sim$. Let

$$\overline{\pi}_2 : \bar{S}_1 \to \bar{S}_2$$

be the mapping determined by the quotient property for $(\bar{S}_1, \pi_1)$ using

$$T = \bar{S}_2 \quad \text{and} \quad f = \pi_2 : S \to \bar{S}_2,$$

and let

$$\overline{\pi}_1 : \bar{S}_2 \to \bar{S}_1$$

be the mapping determined by the quotient property for $(\bar{S}_2, \pi_2)$ using

$$T = \bar{S}_1 \quad \text{and} \quad f = \pi_1 : S \to \bar{S}_2.$$

Then the maps $\pi_2' : \bar{S}_1 \to \bar{S}_2$ and $\pi_{1'} : \bar{S}_2 \to \bar{S}_1$ are inverse to one another, and in particular π_1' and π_2' are bijections.

Proof: By the definition of quotients, we have commutative diagrams

$$\begin{tikzcd} S_1 \arrow[r, "f = \pi_2"] \arrow[d, "\pi_1"] & T = \bar{S}_2 \\ \bar{S}_1 \arrow[ur, dashed, "\bar{f} = \bar{\pi}_2"'] & \end{tikzcd} \qquad \begin{tikzcd} S_2 \arrow[r, "f = \pi_1"] \arrow[d, "\pi_2"] & T = \bar{S}_1 \\ \bar{S}_2 \arrow[ur, dashed, "\bar{f} = \bar{\pi}_1"'] & \end{tikzcd}$$

In particular, we have $\pi_2 = \bar{\pi}_2 \circ \pi_1$ and $\pi_1 = \bar{\pi}_1 \circ \pi_2$

Substitution now yields

$$\pi_1 = \bar{\pi}_1 \circ \bar{\pi}_2 \circ \pi_1$$

and

$$\pi_2 = \bar{\pi}_2 \circ \bar{\pi}_1 \circ \pi_2$$

Since π_1 and π_2 are surjective, we conclude that $\mathrm{id} = \bar{\pi}_1 \circ \bar{\pi}_2$ and $\mathrm{id} = \bar{\pi}_2 \circ \bar{\pi}_1$ so indeed the indicated functions are inverse to one another. ■

Remark 2.1.4: The point of the Proposition is that a quotient is completely determined by the property indicated in the definition – this property is an example of what is known as a universal property or sometimes as a universal mapping property. The conclusion of the Proposition shows that any two ways of constructing a quotient are equivalent in a strong sense.

One way of constructing the quotient is by considering equivalence classes, as follows:

Definition 2.1.5: For an equivalence relation $\sim$ on a set S, the equivalence class $[s]$ of an element $s \in S$ is the subset of S defined by

$$[s] = \{x \in S \mid x \sim s\}.$$

Proposition 2.1.6: Equivalence classes for the equivalence relation $\sim$ have the following properties for arbitrary $s, s' \in S$:

a. $s \sim s' \Leftrightarrow [s] = [s']$
b. $[s] \neq [s'] \Leftrightarrow [s] \cap [s'] = \emptyset$

Proof: Review! ■

Theorem 2.1.7 (*Existence of quotients*): For any equivalence relation $\sim$ on a set S, there is a quotient $\left(\bar{S}, \pi\right)$.

Proof: We consider the set $\bar{S} = \{[s] \mid s \in S\}$ of equivalence classes and the mapping $\pi : S \to \bar{S}$ given by the rule $\pi(s) = [s]$.

Proposition 2.1.6 confirms condition (a) of Definition 2.1.2.

For condition (b) of Definition 2.1.2 suppose that T is a set and that $f : S \to T$ is a function with the property that $\forall a, b \in S, a \sim b \Rightarrow f(a) = f(b)$. We must exhibit a function $\bar{f} : \bar{S} \to T$ with the property $f = \bar{f} \circ \pi$. If $\bar{f}$ exists, it must satisfy $\bar{f}([a]) = a$ for $a \in S$. On the other hand, in view of Proposition 2.1.6 (a), the rule $[a] \mapsto f(a)$ indeed determines a well-defined function $\bar{f} : \bar{S} \to T$. Moreover, the identity $f = \bar{f} \circ \pi$ evidently holds.

■

Remark 2.1.8: We gave an explicit construction of the quotient using equivalence classes. On the other hand, if one has a quotient $\left(\bar{S}, \pi\right)$, the equivalence class $[x]$ of an element $x \in S$ is equal to $\pi^{-1}(\pi(x))$.

Proposition 2.1.9: If $\sim$ is an equivalence relation on the set S, then S is the disjoint union of the equivalence classes.

Proof: Each element $x \in S$ is contained in the equivalence classes $[x]$, so it only remains to prove that if two equivalence classes have a common element, they are equal. For this, let $x, y \in S$ and suppose that $z \in [x] \cap [y]$. Then $x \sim z$ and $y \sim z$ so that $x \sim y$ by transitivity; thus $[x] = [y]$.■

2.2. Sub-groups

Let G be a group (when giving definitions, we'll write G multiplicatively).

Definition 2.2.1: A subgroup of G is a non-empty subset $H \subseteq G$ such that H is closed under the operations of multiplication in G and inversion in G. In other words,

$$\forall a, b \in G, ab \in H \text{ and } a^{-1} \in H$$

.

Example 2.2.2: Consider the group $G = \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ where the operation is componentwise addition. Check the following!

a. $H_1 = \{(a, b) \in G \mid 2a + 3b = 0\}$ is a subgroup.
b. $H_2 = \{n(2, 2) + m(1, 2) \mid n, m \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a subgroup.

The collection of subgroups of G has a natural partial order given by *containment.*

Proposition 2.2.3: (Constructing subgroups)

a. If H_i for $i \in I$ is a family of subgroups of G, indexed by some set I, then the intersection $\bigcap_{i \in I} H_i$ is again a subgroup of G.
b. Let $S \subseteq G$ be a subset. There is a unique smallest subgroup $H(S) = \langle S \rangle$ containing S. In other words, for any subgroup H' of G with $S \subseteq H'$, we have $\langle S \rangle \subseteq H'$.

Remark 2.2.4:

a. If $S, T \subseteq G$ are subsets, we often write $\langle S, T \rangle$ for $\langle S \cup T \rangle$. If $S = \{s_1, s_2, ..., s_n\}$ we often write $\langle S \rangle = \langle s_1, s_2, ..., s_n \rangle$.
b. The subgroup in Example 2.2.2(b) is precisely $\langle (2, 2), (1, 2) \rangle$.

c. For any group G and $a \in G$, $\langle a \rangle := \langle \{a\} \rangle$ is the cyclic subgroup generated by a. If G is multiplicative, then $\langle a \rangle = \{a^n \mid n \in Z\}$ while if G is addtive then $\langle a \rangle = \{na \mid n \in Z\}$.

Proposition 2.2.5: If $\varphi : G \to H$ is a group homomorphism, then $\ker \varphi$ is a subgroup of G.

Proposition 2.2.6: If $X \subseteq G$ is a non-empty subset of G, then X is a subgroup if and only if $(*) \quad \forall a, b \in X, ab^{-1} \in X$.

Proof: $(\Rightarrow)$: Immediate from the definition of a subgroup.

$(\Leftarrow)$: Assume that $(*)$ holds. We must show that X is a subgroup.

We first argue that X contains the identity element. Since X is non-empty, there is an element $x \in X$. Condition $(*)$ then shows that $xx^{-1} = 1 \in X$ as required.

We now show that X is closed under inversion. Let $x \in X$. Since $1 \in X$, we apply $(*)$ with $a = 1$ and $b = x$ to learn that $1x^{-1} = x^{-1} \in X$, as required.

Finally, we show that X is closed under multiplication. Let $x, y \in X$. We have already seen that $y^{-1} \in X$. Now apply $(*)$ with $a = x$ and $b = y^{-1}$ to learn that

$$ab^{-1} = x\left(y^{-1}\right)^{-1} = xy \in X$$

as required. ■

2.3. Group actions

Definition 2.3.1: Let G be a group and let Ω be a set. An action of G on Ω is a mapping

$$G \times \Omega \to \Omega \text{ written } (g, x) \mapsto gx$$

such that for each $x \in \Omega$ we have

- $1x = x$
- $\forall g, h \in G, (gh)x = g(hx)$.

For brevity, sometimes we say that Ω is a G-space.

Proposition 2.3.2: An action of a group G on a set Ω determines a homomorphism $f : G \to S(\Omega)$ such that $f(g)(x) = gx$ for $g \in G$ and $x \in \Omega$.

Conversely, given a homomorphism $f : G \to S(\Omega)$, there is an action of G on Ω given by $gx = f(g)(x)$ for each $g \in G$ and $x \in \Omega$.

Definition 2.3.3: Suppose that Ω is a G-space. The G-conjugacy relation on Ω is defined as follows: for $x, y \in \Omega$, $x \underset{G}{\sim} y$ provided that $\exists g \in G, gx = y$.

Proposition 2.3.4: The G-conjugacy relation on Ω is an equivalence relation.

Definition 2.3.5: Let Ω be a G-space, and let $\varphi : \Omega \to \Omega/\sim$ be the quotient mapping for the G-conjugacy relation; see Definition 2.1.2. For $x \in \Omega$, the orbit $\mathcal{O}_x = Gx$ of G through x is the subset of Ω defined by

$$\mathcal{O}_x = \varphi^{-1}(\varphi(x)).$$

Thus the G-orbits are the equivalence classes for the relation $\underset{G}{\sim}$; see Remark 2.1.8.

Equivalently, we have $\mathcal{O}_x = \{gx \mid g \in G.\}$

Proposition 2.3.6: Ω is the disjoint union of the G-orbits in Ω.

Proof: This follows from Proposition 2.1.9. ∎

Remark 2.3.7: Each orbit $\mathcal{O}_x$ is itself a G-set.

2.4. Quotients of groups

Let G be a group and let H be a subgroup of G. There is an action of H on the set G by right multiplication: for $h \in H$ and $g \in G$ we can define $h \cdot g = gh^{-1}$.

We are going to consider the quotient of G by the equivalence relation of H-conjugacy; this equivalence relation is defined by

$$g \sim g' \Leftrightarrow \exists h \in H, g = g'h.$$

Definition 2.4.1: The left quotient of G by H is the quotient $(\pi, G/H)$ of G by the equivalence relation of H-conjugacy defined using the action of H on G by right multiplication as described above.

Remark 2.4.2:

a. Of course, one can use an explicit model for the quotient by taking G/H to be the set of equivalence classes in G for the H-conjugacy relation.
b. The equivalence classes for the relation of H-conjugacy defined by the action of right multiplication are precisely the left cosets of H in G. The class of $x \in G$ has the form

$$xH = \{xh \mid h \in H\}$$

.

For $x \in G$,

$$\pi^{-1}(\pi(x)) = xH.$$
c. We can also consider the action of H on G by left multiplication. This action determines an equivalence relation of H-conjugacy, and the quotient of G by this equivalence relation is called

the right quotient of G by H and is written $(\pi, H \setminus G)$. In this case, the equivalence classes are the right cosets where the class of $x \in G$ has the form $Hx = \{hx \mid h \in H\}$.

For $x \in G$, we have $\pi^{-1}(\pi(x)) = Hx$.

Proposition 2.4.3: There is an action

$$\alpha : G \times G/H \to G/H$$

of the group G on the set G/H such that

$$\forall g, x \in G, \text{we have } \alpha(g, \pi(x)) = \pi(gx)$$

where $\pi : G \to G/H$ is the quotient map.

Proof: To define the action map α, first fix $g \in G$. We are going to define the mapping

$$\alpha(g, -) : G/H \to G/H.$$

Consider the mapping $\pi_g : G \to G/H$ given by the rule $\pi_g(x) = \pi(gx)$. This mapping has the property that $x \underset{H}{\sim} x' \Rightarrow \pi_g(x) = \pi_{g(x')}$. Indeed,

$$x \underset{H}{\sim} x' \Rightarrow \exists h, x = x'h \Rightarrow \pi_g(x) = \pi(gx) = \pi(gx'h) = \pi(gx') = \pi_g(x')$$

by the defining property of π; see Definition 2.1.2. Again using Definition 2.1.2 we find the desired mapping $\alpha(g, -) : G/H \to G/H$ with the property that

$$(\clubsuit) \quad \alpha(g, -) \circ \pi = \pi_g.$$

We now assemble the mappings $\alpha(g, -)$ to get a mapping $\alpha : G \times G/H \to G/H$ which satisfies $\alpha(g, \pi(x)) = \pi(gx)$ for each $g, x \in G$, and it remains to check that α determines an action as in Definition 2.3.1.

Of course, using $(\clubsuit)$, we have $\alpha(1, -) \circ \pi = \pi_1 = \pi = \mathrm{id} \circ \pi$; since π is surjective, it follows that $\alpha(1, -) = \mathrm{id}$. Thus $\alpha(1, z) = z$ for each $z \in G/H$, which shows that α satsifies the first requirement of Definition 2.3.1.

Now suppose that $g_1, g_2 \in G$. To complete the proof, we must veryify the remaining requirement of Definition 2.3.1; thus we must show that

$$(\heartsuit) \quad \alpha(g_1, \alpha(g_2, -)) = \alpha(g_1 g_2, -)$$

On the one hand, using $(\clubsuit)$ we find that

$$\alpha(g_1 g_2, -) \circ \pi = \pi_{g_1 g_2};$$

on the other hand, for $z \in G$ we have

$$\begin{aligned}
(\alpha(g_1, \alpha(g_2, -)) \circ \pi)(z) &= \alpha(g_1, \alpha(g_2, \pi(z))) \\
&= \alpha\left(g_1, \pi_{g_2}(z)\right) \qquad \text{by } (\clubsuit) \\
&= \alpha(g_1, \pi(g_2 z)) \\
&= \pi(g_1(g_2 z)) \qquad \text{by } (\clubsuit)
\end{aligned}$$

Since π is surjective, (♥) follows at once. This completes the proof. ■

2.5. Quotients of groups and orbits.

Definition 2.5.1: Suppose that G acts on Ω_1 and on Ω_2. A morphism of G-sets $\varphi : \Omega_1 \to \Omega_2$ is a function φ with the property that $\forall g \in G$ and $\forall x \in \Omega_1$, we have $\varphi(gx) = g\varphi(x)$.

The morphism of G-sets φ is an isomorphism (of G-sets) if there is a morphism of G-sets $\psi : \Omega_2 \to \Omega_1$ such that $\varphi \circ \psi = \mathrm{id}$ and $\psi \circ \varphi = \mathrm{id}$.

Suppose that G acts on Ω and let $x \in \Omega$.

Definition 2.5.2: The stabilizer of x in G is the subgroup $\mathrm{Stab}_G(x) = \{g \in G \mid gx = x\}$.

Proposition 2.5.3: Write $H = \mathrm{Stab}_G(x)$ and recall that $\pi : G \to G/H$ is the quotient mapping. There is a unique isomorphism of G-sets $\gamma : G/H \to \mathcal{O}_x$ with the property that

$$\gamma(\pi(1)) = x.$$

Proof: The rule $g \mapsto gx$ determines a surjective mapping $\alpha_x : G \to \mathcal{O}_x$. Recall that the action of H on G by right multiplication determines an equivalence relation $\sim$ on G used to construct the quotient G/H.

For $g_1, g_2 \in G$ we find that

$$g_1 \sim g_2 \Rightarrow \exists h \in H, g_1 = g_2 h \Rightarrow \alpha(g_1) = \alpha(g_2 h) = g_2 h x = g_2 x = \alpha(g_2)$$

since $h \in H = \mathrm{Stab}_G(x) \Rightarrow hx = x$.

Thus Definition 2.1.2 shows that there is a mapping $\gamma : G/H \to \mathcal{O}_x$ such that $\gamma \circ \pi = \alpha_x$. To see that γ is a morhpism of G-sets, it suffices to show that (♣) $\forall g, g'$ we have

$$\gamma(g \cdot \pi(g')) = g \cdot \gamma(\pi(g')).$$

Now by the definition of the G-action on G/H we have $g \cdot \pi(g') = \pi(gg')$; see Proposition 2.4.3. Thus $\gamma(g \cdot \pi(g')) = \gamma(\pi(gg')) = \alpha_x(gg') = gg' \cdot x$. On the other hand, $g \cdot \gamma(\pi(g')) = g \cdot \alpha_{x(g')} = g \cdot g' \cdot x$ which confirms (♣). This shows that γ is indeed a morphism of G-sets.

Since α_x is surjective and $\gamma \circ \pi = \alpha_x$, also γ is surjective. It only remains to see that γ is injective. Suppose that $z, z' \in G/H$ such that $\gamma(z) = \gamma(z')$. Since $\pi : G \to G/H$ is surjective, we may choose $g, g' \in G$ with $z = \pi(g)$ and $z' = \pi(g')$. Now

$$\gamma(z) = \gamma(z') \Rightarrow \gamma(\pi(g)) = \gamma(\pi(g')) \Rightarrow \alpha_{x(g)} = \alpha_{x(g')} \Rightarrow gx = g'x.`$$

We now conclude that $g^{-1}gx = x$ so that $g^{-1}g \in \mathrm{Stab}_G(x) = H$. Since the quotient mapping π is constant on H-orbits, $z = \pi(g) = \pi(gg^{-1}g') = \pi(g') = z'$. This shows that γ is injective and completes the proof. ■

Definition 2.5.4: The action of G on Ω is transitive if there is a single G-orbit on Ω. Equivalently, the action is transitive if the quotient $\Omega/\sim$ is a singleton set.

Example 2.5.5: Let I be a set and let $G = S(I)$ be the group of permutations of I. Fix $x \in I$ and let $H = \operatorname{Stab}_G(x)$. Notice that G acts on I. Moreover, the G-orbit of x is precisely I - in other words, the action of G on I is transitive.

Notice that $H = S(I - \{x\})$.

Now Proposition 2.5.3 gives an isomorphism of G-sets $G/H \to I$; i.e. $S(I)/S(I - \{x\}) \to I$.

2.6. About Lagrange's Theorem

Let H be a subgroup of the group G and write G/H for the (left) quotient, as above. Recall that the H-cosets xH are the H-orbits for this action.

Theorem 2.6.1: There is a bijection $\varphi : (G/H) \times H \to G$ for which $\varphi(z, h)$ is an H-orbit (an H-coset) for each $z \in G/H$.

Proof: Indeed, using the axiom of choice we select for each $z \in G/H$ an element $g_z \in \pi^{-1}(z)$ where $\pi : G \to G/H$ is the quotient map.

Now define $\varphi : (G/H) \times H \to G$ by the rule $\varphi(z, h) = g_z h$.

To see that φ is onto, let $g \in G$. One then knows that $g \sim g_z$ for some $z \in G/H$. Since $\pi^{-1}(z) = g_z H$ it follows that $g = g_z h$ for some $h \in H$, so $g = \varphi(g_z, h)$.

To see that φ is injective, suppose that $\varphi(z, h) = \varphi(z', h')$. Then $g_z h = g_{z'} h'$ so that

$$(g_{z'})^{-1} g_z \in H \Rightarrow g_z \sim g_{z'} \Rightarrow z = z'.$$

Now $g_z h = g_z h' \Rightarrow h = h'$ which completes the proof that φ is injective. ■

Corollary 2.6.1.1: Suppose that G is a finite group and that H is a subgroup of G. Then

$$|G| = |G/H| \cdot |H|.$$

Proof: Indeed, for finite sets X and Y, we have $|X \times Y| = |X|\ |Y|$. ■

2.7. Normal subgroups

Subgroups of the form $\ker \varphi$ have a property that ordinary subgroups might lack.

Definition 2.7.1: A subset $N \subseteq G$ is a normal subgroup of G if N is a subgroup of G and if for any $g \in G$ and for any $x \in N$, we have $gxg^{-1} \in N$.

Proposition 2.7.2: Let G be a group.

a. For $g \in G$, the assignment $x \mapsto gxg^{-1}$ determines a group isomorphism
$$\mathrm{Inn}_x : G \to G$$
b. The assignment $x \mapsto \mathrm{Inn}_x$ determines a group homomorphism $G \to \mathrm{Aut}(G)$ where $\mathrm{Aut}(G)$ is the group of *automorphisms* of G.

Proof sketch:

- First check that Inn_x is a group homomorphism.
- Then check that (♦) $\quad \mathrm{Inn}_x \circ \mathrm{Inn}_y = \mathrm{Inn}_{xy}$ for all $x, y \in G$.
- Next, check that $\mathrm{Inn}_1 = \mathrm{id}$. Using (♦), this shows that $(\mathrm{Inn}_x)^{-1} = \mathrm{Inn}_{x^{-1}}$ so indeed Inn_x is an *automorphism* of G.
- Finally, (♦) shows that Inn is a group homomorphism.

■

In this notation, a subgroup H of G is normal when $\mathrm{Inn}_x(N) \subseteq N$ for each $x \in G$.

Definition 2.7.3: If $H, K \subseteq G$ are two subgroups, then H normalizes K if for each $g \in H$ we have $\mathrm{Inn}_g K \subseteq K$ (in other words, $\forall x \in K, gxg^{-1} \in K$).

Proposition 2.7.4: Suppose that $G = \langle S \rangle$ for some subset S. A subgroup H of G is normal if and only if $\mathrm{Inn}_x H \subseteq H$ for each $x \in S$.

Proof: The proof of the implication ($\Rightarrow$) is immediate from definitions.

To prove ($\Leftarrow$), consider the subset
$$X = \{g \in G \mid \mathrm{Inn}_g H \subseteq H\}.$$
Then $S \subseteq X$ by assumption, and the Proposition will follow once we confirm that X is a subgroup of G. This confirmation is straightforward and is left to the reader. ■

Definition 2.7.5: Let H, K be subsets of G. The product of H and K is the subset
$$HK := \{xy \mid x \in H, y \in K\}$$
.

Proposition 2.7.6: Suppose that H, K are subgroups of G and that H normalizes K.

a. Then $\langle H, K \rangle = HK$. In particular, HK a subgroup of G.
b. H is a normal subgroup of HK.

Proof:

a. Let $X = HK$. Since any subgroup of G which contains both H and K clearly contains X, it only remains to argue that X is a subgroup. For this, we use Proposition 2.2.6. First note that $1 = 1 \cdot 1 \in X$, so X is non-empty. Now, let $a_1, b_2 \in X$. We must argue that $a_1 a_2^{-1} \in X$. By definition, there are elements $x_1, x_2 \in H$ and y_1, y_2 in K with $a_i = x_i y_i$ for $i = 1, 2$. We now compute

$$a_1 a_2^{-1} = x_1 y_1 (x_2 y_2)^{-1} = x_1 y_1 y_2^{-1} x_2^{-1} = (x_1 x_2^{-1}) \cdot (x_2 y_1 y_2^{-1} x_2^{-1}).$$

We notice that $x_1 x_2^{-1} \in H$. Moreover, $y_1 y_2^{-1} \in K$; since H normalizes K it follows that $x_2 y_1 y_2^{-1} x_2^{-1} \in K$.

We have now argued that $a_1 a_2^{-1}$ has the form xy for $x \in H$ and $y \in K$ so that $a_1 a_2^{-1} \in X$. Now Proposition 2.2.6 indeed shows that $X = HK$ is a subgroup.

b.

■

Proposition 2.7.7: Let H, K be subgroups of G and let $\varphi : H \times K \to HK$ be the natural mapping given by $\varphi(h, k) = hk$.

a. For each $\alpha \in HK$, the set $\varphi^{-1}(\alpha)$ is in bijection with $H \cap K$.
b. In particular, if $H \cap K = \{1\}$, then φ is bijective.

Proof: Let $\alpha = hk \in HK$. Note for any $x \in H \cap K$ that $\varphi(hx, x^{-1}k) = \alpha$ so that $(hx, x^{-1}k) \in \varphi^{-1}(\alpha)$. We argue that the mapping

$$\gamma : H \cap K \to \varphi^{-1}(\alpha) \text{ given by } \gamma(x) = (hx, x^{-1}k)$$

is bijective. Well, if $(h_1, k_1) \in \varphi^{-1}(\alpha)$ then $\varphi(h_1, k_1) = \varphi(h, k)$ so that $h_1 k_1 = hk$ and thus $h^{-1} h_1 = k k_1^{-1}$. Now set $x = h^{-1} h_1 = k k_1^{-1} \in H \cap K$ and observe that $(h_1, k_1) = \gamma(x)$. This shows that γ is surjective. To see that γ is injective, suppose that $\gamma(x) = \gamma(x')$ for $x \in H \cap K$. Then

$$(hx, x^{-1}k) = (hx', x'^{-1}k) \Rightarrow hx = hx' \Rightarrow x = x'.$$

So γ is injective and the proof of a. is complete.

Now, the mapping φ is surjective by the definition of HK. To prove b. we suppose that

$$H \cap K = \{1\}.$$

According to a. the fiber $\varphi^{-1}(\alpha)$ is a singleton for each $\alpha \in HK$; this shows that φ is injective and confirms b.

■

Remark 2.7.8: If G is a finite group and H, K subgroups of G, then Proposition 2.7.7 shows that

$$|HK| = |H| \cdot |K| \ / \ |H \cap K|.$$

Let's introduce some examples of groups in order to investigate this a bit more.

Example 2.7.9: For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n \geq 1$, consider the symmetric group $S = S_n$ viewed as $S(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})$ where $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ denotes the collection of integers modulo n.

Consider the elements $\sigma, \tau \in S$ defined by the rules $\sigma(i) = i + 1$ and $\tau(i) = -i$ where the addition and negation occurs in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$.

Viewed as permutations, σ identifies with an n-cycle and τ identifies with a product of disjoint transpositions:

$$\sigma = (1, 2, ..., n) \text{ and } \tau = (1, n - 1)(2, n - 2)... = \prod_{i=1}^{\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor} (i, n - i).$$

In particular, σ has order n and τ has order 2. Moreover,

$$(\heartsuit) \quad \tau\sigma\tau = \sigma^{-1}$$

Condition ($\heartsuit$) shows that the subgroup $\langle\tau\rangle$ normalizes the subgroup $\langle\sigma\rangle$. Thus Proposition 2.7.6 shows that

$$\langle\sigma, \tau\rangle = \langle\sigma\rangle\langle\tau\rangle.$$

We call $D = \langle\sigma, \tau\rangle$ the dihedral group of order n. Note that ($\heartsuit$) shows that $\langle\tau\rangle$ normalizes $\langle\sigma\rangle$ so that $D = \langle\tau\rangle \cdot \langle\sigma\rangle$.

We claim:
- $|D| = 2n$. In fact, D is usually written D_{2n}.

To prove the claim, we apply Remark 2.7.8; we just need to argue that

$$(\clubsuit) \quad \langle\sigma\rangle \cap \langle\tau\rangle = \{1\}.$$

Since σ has order n and τ has order 2, ($\clubsuit$) is immediate if n is odd.

Now suppose that $n = 2k$ is even. The unique subgroup of order 2 in $\langle\sigma\rangle$ is generated by σ^k. To prove ($\clubsuit$) we must argue that $\sigma^k \neq \tau$.

Suppose the contrary. If $\sigma^k = \tau$ then $\sigma(n) = \tau(n) \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. Since $\sigma^k(n) \equiv n + k (\operatorname{mod} n)$ while $\tau(n) = -n \equiv n (\operatorname{mod} n)$, we conclude that $n + k \equiv n (\operatorname{mod} n)$; thus $k \equiv 0 (\operatorname{mod} n)$ i.e. $2k \mid k$, which yields a contradiction as $k \geq 1$. This completes the proof ($\clubsuit$).

Proposition 2.7.10: Let $N = \ker \varphi$ where $\varphi : G \to H$ is a group homomorphism. Then N is a normal subgroup of G.

Proof: We have already observed that N is a subgroup. Now let $g \in G$ and $x \in N$ so that $\varphi(x) = 1$. Now

$$\varphi(\operatorname{Inn}_g(x)) = \varphi(gxg^{-1}) = \varphi(g)\varphi(x)\varphi(g^{-1}) = \varphi(g)\varphi(g)^{-1} = 1$$

so that $\operatorname{Inn}_g N \subseteq N$ as required. ∎