Homomorphisms and quotient groups

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1 Homomorphisms and quotient groups

1.1 Generators and group presentations

We can imagine the subgroup generated by x as x being thrown in a box with itself and shook around. So what if we throw in more elements to be shook together?

Definition: Subsets as group generators

The subgroup generated by a subset S of G, $\langle S \rangle$, is the set of finite productive between elements of S and their inverses.

- S = [a, b], then $\langle S \rangle$ is stuff like abababa, $a^5b^3ab^2$, $a^{-1}bab^{-100}$
- If $\langle S \rangle = G$, then S is a **set of generators** for G
- Notation: $\mathbb{Z} = \langle 1 \rangle$
- What if we know that x has a special condition? Notation $\mathbb{Z}/100\mathbb{Z}=\langle x|x^{100}=1\rangle$
- Basically that the group can be generated by any element that has the given property

Example: \mathbb{Z}

 $\langle 1 \rangle = \mathbb{Z}$, because each integer can be written as a bunch of 1's or a bunch of -1's

Definition: Group presentation

We can define a group by a set of generators and **relations** between them. The **group presentation** is that expression

• We can then say that two elements of a group are equal iff you can get from one to the other with the relations.

Example: Dihedral group

The group presentation is

$$D_{2n} = \langle r, s | r^n = s^2 = 1, rs = sr^{-1} \rangle$$
.

• This defines what the group is by defining the relationships between the generators

Example: Free group

The free group on n elements is the group with n generators and no relations.

$$F_n = \langle x_1, x_2, x_3 \dots \rangle$$
.

- Can basically be thought of as arbitrary units being thrown together
- $F_2 = \langle a, b \rangle$ is a bunch of a, b, a^{-1}, b^{-1} thrown together.
- $F_1 = \mathbb{Z}$. Why? Because \mathbb{Z} is just the group made up by adding 1 and -1 to itself a bunch of times

Remark: The same group can have very different presentations, because a generator values can encompass two or more values of another generator set

1.2 Homomorphisms

How can we define relationships between groups that aren't just isomorphisms?

Definition: Homomorphism

For groups (G, \star) and (H, \star) , A **group homomorphism** is a map $\phi: G \to H$ where $\forall g_1, g_2 \in G$ we have

$$\phi(g_1 \star g_2) = \phi(g_1) * \phi(g_2).$$

- Like a linear map, but over groups instead of vector spaces
- Note the lack of bijection condition, we only need that the group action is respected

Remark: The right way to think about an isomorphism is as a "bijective homomorphism"

Example: Homomorphisms

- All isomorphisms are homomorphisms
- The identity map is a homomorphism
- The **trivial homomorphism** sends everything to 1_H
- From \mathbb{Z} to $\mathbb{Z}/100\mathbb{Z}$ where you just mod everything by 100
- From \mathbb{Z} to itself where you just multiply everything by 10
 - This map is injective, but not surjective
- From permutations S_n to S_{n+1} where you just keep the n+1th position constant.
 - Again, injective, but not surjective

Remark: Specifying a homomorphism from $\mathbb{Z} \to G$ is the same as just

specifying what the image of 1 is. Because

$$\phi(n) = \phi(1) * \phi(1) \dots = \phi(1)^n.$$

Remark: The last example shows something important.

To specify a homomorphism $G \to H$, we only have to specify where each generator of G goes. Making sure that the relations are still satisfied (?)

Lemma:

- $G \cong H$ iff there exists homomorphisms st $\phi \circ \psi = id_H$ and $\psi \circ \phi = id_G$
 - Proof: to do later
- Let ϕ be a homomorphism, then $\phi(1_G) = 1_H$ and $\phi(g^{-1}) = \phi(g)^{-1}$
 - Proof for the first one:

$$\phi(g \star 1_G) = \phi(g) * \phi(1_G) \tag{1}$$

$$\phi(g) = \phi(g) * \phi(1_G) \tag{2}$$

$$1_H = \phi(1_G) \tag{3}$$

Definition: Kernel

The ${\bf kernel}$ of a homomorphism is the subset of G that sends values to 1_H

- It also happens to be a (not necessarily proper) subgroup of G, because 1_G is always in the kernel and it is closed
- Notation: $\ker \phi$

Proposition: Kernel determines injectivity

 ϕ is injective if and only if $\ker \phi = \{1_G\}$

Example: Kernels

- The kernel of an isomorphism is just 1_G
- The kernel of the trivial homomorphism (sending everything to 1_H is all of G (duh)
- The kernel of the map from Z to the cyclic group of size 100 is $100\mathbb{Z}$, namely all the integer multiples of 100. (Because the mod 100 of the map sends all of them to 0, the identity for the cyclic group
- $\phi: \mathbb{Z} \to G$ by $n \mapsto g^n$. The kernel then depends on g
 - If $\operatorname{ord} g = \infty$, then the kernel is just 1
 - If ordg = a, then the kernel is $a\mathbb{Z} = \dots a^{-2}, a^{-1}, 1, a, a^2 \dots$

Remark: The image of a homomorphism forms a subgroup as well

1.3 Cosets and modding out

Here's the idea:

- Consider a surjective homomorphism $\phi: G \to Q$ that is not injective (ker ϕ is non-trivial), what can we say about it?
- Consider a related case, $f: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/100\mathbb{Z}$, the kernel is $100\mathbb{Z}$
 - We also then know that $f(x) = f(g+x) \ \forall g \in \ker \phi$
 - This basically means that f doesn't really care about elements of the subgroup 100Z, it's **indifferent**.
 - Similarly, notice that for $N = 100\mathbb{Z}$,

$$N = \{\dots -200, -100, 0, 100, 200\dots\}$$
(4)

$$1 + N = \{\dots -199, -99, 1, 101, 201\dots\}$$
 (5)

$$99 + N = \{ \dots -101, -1, 99, 199, 299 \dots \}$$
 (7)

- The image for each of those sets is the same, $img(g + N) = \{g\}$

Definition: Quotient groups

Let $\phi:G\to Q$ be a surjective homomorphism with kernel N (subgroup of G)

We claim that in this case, Q should be thought of as the **quotient** of G by N

• Notation: G/N

Remark: We can think of Q as the group whose elements are represented by the sets, ie for the $\mathbb{Z}/100\mathbb{Z}$ homomorphism, the elements of Q can be thought of as these sets

$$N = \{\dots -200, -100, 0, 100, 200\dots\}$$
 (8)

$$1 + N = \{\dots -199, -99, 1, 101, 201\dots\}$$
 (9)

$$\dots$$
 (10)

$$99 + N = \{ \dots -101, -1, 99, 199, 299 \dots \}$$
 (11)

- Note how there are exactly 100 of these sets, just like Q (which is $\mathbb{Z}/100\mathbb{Z}$ remember)
- ullet If the homomorphism had been an isomorphism, then each one of those sets would have one value, and there would be exactly as many elements as the cardinality of G

Remark: We can also define an equivalence relation \sim_N on G where $x \sim_N y$ iff $\phi(x) = \phi(y)$, ie they belong to the same set a + N

Definition: Left coset

Let H be any subgroup of G. A set of the form gH is called a **left** coset of H

Remark: g_1N is often equal to g_2N even if $g_1\neq g_2$. ie $g_1=3$ and $g_2=103$ for the $\mathbb{Z}/100\mathbb{Z}$ group

Remark: Given cosets g_1H and g_2H , $x \mapsto g_2g_1^{-1}x$ is a bijection from $g_1H \to g_2H$ (Note this means all cosets have the same cardinality)

Remark: Elements of the quotient group Q are naturally identified with left cosets of the divisor group, N

• This is just a formalization of what was mentioned before, that we can think of the elements of the quotient group Q as those sets (which turned out to be the left cosets of N)

Definition: Normal groups

A subgroup N of G is **normal** if it is the kernel of some homomorphism.

• Notation: $N \subseteq G$

Definition: Quotient groups again

Let $N \leq G$, then the **quotient group**, denoted G/N (read: "G mod N") is defined as follows

- The elements of G/N are left cosets of N
- Define the product of two cosets as such
 - Recall that each coset corresponds to one value in Q (what the fuck does Q refer to here? The quotient group? The ONE THAT SUPPOSED TO BE MADE UP OF COSETS? I AM CONFUSION)
 - $-\,$ Take the product of cosets to be the coset corresponding to the product of the values in Q for the two cosets
 - Note: We can do this with the representatives of the cosets
 - * Let $C_1 = g_1 N$ and $C_2 = g_2 N$.
 - * Then $C_1 \cdot C_2$ should be the coset g_1g_2H (the coset that contains g_1g_2)

 \bullet By this definition, G/N is isomorphic to Q (the old definition of a quotient group)