# **Groups**

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#### **Abstract**

Contents of the lecture.

- Definition of a group
- Subgroups.
- Cyclic groups.
- Generating sets and Cayley digraphs.

## The definition of a group

**Definition 1.** A binary structure (G,\*) is called a **group**, if the following axioms are satisfied.

 $\mathcal{G}_1$ : The binary operation \* is associative, i.e., for all  $a, b, c \in G$ , we have

$$(a*b)*c = a*(b*c).$$

 $\mathscr{G}_2$ : There exist an **identity element**  $e \in G$  such that for all  $a \in G$ ,

$$e * a = a * e = a$$
.

 $\mathscr{G}_3$ : For each  $a \in G$ , there exist an **inverse** element  $a' \in G$  such that

$$a \cdot a' = a' \cdot a = e$$
.

## **Examples of groups**

**Example 1.**  $(\mathbb{Z},+)$ ,  $(\mathbb{Q},+)$ ,  $(\mathbb{R},+)$ , and  $(\mathbb{C},+)$  are groups with e=0 and a'=-a.

**Example 2.**  $(U,\cdot)$  is a group with e=1 and  $a'=a^{-1}$ . Because  $(U,\cdot)$  and  $(\mathbb{R}_{2\pi},+_{2\pi})$  are isomorphic binary structures,  $(\mathbb{R}_{2\pi},+_{2\pi})$  is also a group with e=0 and  $a'=2\pi-a$ .

**Example 3.**  $(U_n, \cdot)$  is a group with e = 1 and  $a' = a^{-1}$ . Because  $(U_n, \cdot)$  and  $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n)$  are isomorphic binary structures,  $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n)$  is also a group with e = 0 and a' = n - a.

**Example 4.** Let  $M_{m\times n}(\mathbb{Z})$  be the set of all  $m\times n$  matrix with integer elements.  $(M_{m\times n}(\mathbb{Z}),+)$  is a group. The obviously defined sets  $M_{m\times n}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ ,  $M_{m\times n}(\mathbb{Q})$ ,  $M_{m\times n}(\mathbb{R})$ , and  $M_{m\times n}(\mathbb{C})$  are groups under matrix addition.

## **Examples of binary structures that are not groups**

**Example 5.**  $(\mathbb{Z}^+,+)$  is not a group, because there is no identity element. This is the reason for introducing 0.

**Example 6.**  $(\mathbb{Z}^+ \cup \{0\}, +)$  is not a group, because the element 1 has no inverse. This is the reason to introduce negative integers.  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$  *is* a group.

**Example 7.**  $(\mathbb{Z}\setminus\{0\},\cdot)$  is not a group, because the element 2 has no inverse. This is the reason to introduce rational numbers. Check that  $(\mathbb{Q}\setminus\{0\},\cdot)$  *is* a group.

## Abelian groups

**Definition 2.** A group (G,\*) is **abelian** if \* is commutative.

Until now, we met only abelian groups.

**Example 8.** Let  $GL(n,\mathbb{R})$  be a subset of  $M_{n\times n}(\mathbb{R})$  consisting of invertible matrices.  $GL(n,\mathbb{R})$  together with matrix multiplication is a non-abelian group. The obviously defined sets  $GL(n,\mathbb{Q})$  and  $GL(n,\mathbb{C})$  are non-abelian groups under matrix multiplication.

## Elementary theorems about groups

**Theorem 1.** If x \* a = x \* b, then a = b (left cancellation law). If a \* x = b \* x, then a = b (right cancellation law).

Proof of the left cancellation law.

$$x*a = x*b$$
 Theorem's condition  $x'*(x*a) = x'*(x*b)$  Left multiplication by  $x'$   $(x'*x)*a = (x'*x)*b$   $\mathcal{G}_1$ , associativity  $e*a = e*b$   $\mathcal{G}_3$ , inverse  $a = b$   $\mathcal{G}_2$ , identity.

**Theorem 2.** Let (G,\*) be a group and let  $a, b \in G$ . The linear equations a\*x = b and y\*a = b have unique solutions x and y in G.

**Theorem 3.** Let (G,\*) be a group. There exist only one identity element e. For any  $a \in G$ , there exist only one inverse a'.

# Left definition of a group

**Definition 3.** A binary structure (G,\*) is called a **group**, if the following axioms are satisfied.

 $\mathcal{G}_1$ : The binary operation \* is associative.

 $\mathscr{G}_2^l$ : There exist a **left identity element**  $e \in G$  such that for all  $a \in G$ ,

$$e*a=a$$
.

 $\mathscr{G}_3^l$ : For each  $a \in G$ , there exist a **left inverse** element  $a' \in G$  such that

$$a' \cdot a = e$$
.

**Theorem 4.** The system of two-sided axioms  $(\mathcal{G}_1,\mathcal{G}_2,\mathcal{G}_3)$  and the system of left axioms  $(\mathcal{G}_1,\mathcal{G}_2^l,\mathcal{G}_3^l)$  determine the same binary algebraic structures (called groups). Likewise, the obviously defined system  $(\mathcal{G}_1,\mathcal{G}_2^r,\mathcal{G}_3^r)$  of right axioms determine the same binary algebraic structures.

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## Finite groups and group tables

Let (G,\*) be a group and let G be a *finite* set. The structure of the group G can be completely described by the *group table*. For example,

	1	-1
1	1	-1
-1	-1	1

is the group table of the group  $(U_2,\cdot)$ . The table

$+_{2}$	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	0

is the group table of the group  $(\mathbb{Z}_2, +_2)$ . It is very easy to see that the groups are indeed isomorphic.

#### **Notation**

Along with notation from Lecture 2, algebraists use another notation:

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Notation of Lecture 2	Additive notation	Multiplicative notation		
a*b	a+b	ab		
e	0	1		
a'	-a	$a^{-1}$		
$a*a*\cdots*a$ (n times)	na	$a^n$		

Additive notation is used only for abelian groups.

**Definition 4.** The **order** |G| of a group G is the cardinality of the set G.

# **Subgroups**

A subgroup H of a group G is a group contained in G so that if  $h, h' \in H$ , then the product hh' in H is the same as the product hh' in G. The formal definition of subgroup, however, is more convenient to use.

**Definition 5.** A subset H of a group G is a **subgroup** if

①  $1 \in H$ ;

- ② If  $a, b \in H$ , then  $ab \in H$ ;
- 3 if  $a \in H$ , then  $a^{-1} \in H$ .

If H is a subgroup of G, we write  $H \leq G$ ; if H is a **proper** subgroup of G, that is,  $H \neq G$ , then we write H < G. G is the **improper** subgroup of G. The subgroup  $\{1\}$  is the **trivial subgroup** of G. All other subgroups are **nontrivial**.

## **Examples of subgroups**

**Example 9.** We have  $(\mathbb{Z},+)<(\mathbb{Q},+)<(\mathbb{R},+)<(\mathbb{C},+)$ .

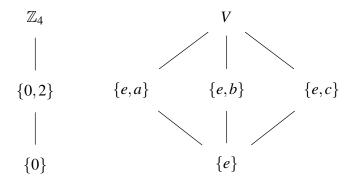
**Example 10.** Let  $\mathbb{C}^* = \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ . Then, for any  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , we have  $(U_n, \cdot) < (U, \cdot) < (\mathbb{C}^*, \cdot)$ . **Example 11.** The set of cardinality 4 may carry exactly two different group structures. The first is  $(\mathbb{Z}_4, +)$ ,

+4	0	1	2	3
0	0	1	2	3
1	1	2	3	0
2	2	3	0	1
3	3	0	1	2

while the second is the **Klein 4-group** V (V abbreviates the original German term Vierergruppe):

	e	a	b	С
e	e	а	b	С
а	a	e	c	b
b	b	c	e	а
С	С	b	а	e

 $\mathbb{Z}_4$  has only one nontrivial proper subgroup  $\{0,2\}$ , while V has three nontrivial proper subgroups,  $\{e,a\}$ ,  $\{e,b\}$ , and  $\{e,c\}$ . This is shown at the following *subgroup diagrams*.



## Cyclic subgroups

**Definition 6.** If G is a group and  $a \in G$ , write

$$\langle a \rangle = \{ a^n \colon n \in \mathbb{Z} \}.$$

 $\langle a \rangle$  is called the **cyclic subgroup** of G generated by a. A group G is called **cyclic** if there exists  $a \in G$  with  $G = \langle a \rangle$ , in which case a is called a **generator** for G.

**Example 12.** For any  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $U_n$  is a cyclic group with  $\zeta = e^{2\pi i/n}$  as a generator, i.e.,  $U_n = \langle \zeta \rangle$ . Because  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is isomorphic to  $U_n$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is also a cyclic group with 1 as a generator, i.e.,  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \langle 1 \rangle$ . Check that  $\mathbb{Z}_4 = \langle 3 \rangle$ .

**Example 13.** *V* is *not* cyclic, because  $\langle a \rangle$ ,  $\langle b \rangle$ , and  $\langle c \rangle$  are proper subgroups.

**Example 14.**  $(\mathbb{Z},+)=\langle 1 \rangle$ . For any  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , the cyclic subgroup generated by  $n, \langle n \rangle$ , consists of all multiples of n, and is denoted by  $n\mathbb{Z}$ . We have  $n\mathbb{Z}=-n\mathbb{Z}$ .

## **Properties of cyclic groups**

**Definition 7.** Let G be a group, and let  $a \in G$ . If  $\langle a \rangle$  is finite, then the **order** of a is the order  $|\langle a \rangle|$  of this cyclic subgroup. Otherwise, we say that a is of **infinite order**.

**Theorem 5.** Every cyclic group is abelian.

**Theorem 6** (Division algorithm for  $\mathbb{Z}$ ). Let  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then there exist unique  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$  (the **quotient**) and  $r \in \mathbb{Z}$  (the **remainder**) such that

$$n = mq + r$$
 and  $0 \le r < m$ .

*Proof.* Consider all nonnegative integers of the form n-am, where  $a\in\mathbb{Z}$ . Define r to be the smallest nonnegative integer of the form n-am, and define q to be the integer a occurring in the expression r=n-am.

If mq+r=mq'+r', where  $0 \le r' < m$ , then |(q-q')m|=|r'-r|. Now  $0 \le |r-r'| < m$  and, if  $|q-q'| \ne 0$ , then  $|(q-q')m| \ge m$ . We conclude that both sides are 0, that is, q'=q and r'=r.

**Theorem 7.** A subgroup of a cyclic group is cyclic.

**Corollary 1.** The subgroups of  $(\mathbb{Z},+)$  are  $(n\mathbb{Z},+)$  for  $n\in\mathbb{Z}$ .

Let  $r \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and  $s \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Let  $H = \langle r, s \rangle$  denotes the smallest subgroup in  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$  containing both r and s. H is a subgroup of  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ . One can prove that  $H = \{nr + ms \colon n, m \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$ . By Corollary 1, H has a generator  $d \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ , that can be chosen to be positive.

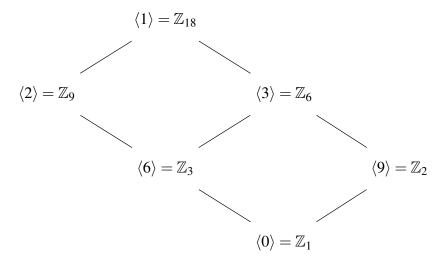
**Definition 8.** The positive generator d of the cyclic group  $H = \{nr + ms : n, m \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$  is called the greatest common divisor of r and s.

**Definition 9.** Two positive integers r and s are **relatively prime** if their greatest common divisor is 1.

**Theorem 8** (The structure of cyclic groups). Every infinite cyclic group is isomorphic to the group  $(\mathbb{Z},+)$  and every finite cyclic group of order m is isomorphic to the group  $(\mathbb{Z}_m,+_m)$ .

**Theorem 9.** Let  $G = \langle a \rangle$  and |G| = n. Let  $b = a^s \in G$ . Let d be the greatest common divisor of n and s, and let  $H = \langle b \rangle$ . Then |H| = n/d. In particular, b generates all of G if and only if r is relatively prime with n.

**Example 15.** The following subgroup diagram is obtained from Theorem 9 by direct calculations.



## **Generating sets**

Let  $(G, \cdot)$  be a group, and let S be a subset of G.

**Theorem 10.** Let  $\langle S \rangle$  be the set of elements of G consisting of all products  $x_1 \dots x_n$  such that  $x_i$  or  $x_i^{-1}$  is an element of S for each i, and also containing the unit element. It is the smallest subgroup of G containing S.

**Definition 10.** The elements of S are called the **generators** of  $\langle S \rangle$ . If  $\langle S \rangle = G$ , we say that S **generates** G. If there exists a finite set S that generates G, then G is **finitely generated**.

**Example 16.**  $(\mathbb{Z},+)=\langle 1 \rangle$  is a finitely generated group. Its subgroup  $\langle r,s \rangle$  is also generated by one element d, which is the greatest common divisor of r and s.

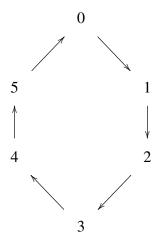
## **Directed graphs: definition**

**Definition 11.** A **directed graph** (or just digraph) is a finite set of points called **vertices** and some **arcs** (with a direction denoted by an arrowhead or without a direction) joining vertices.

For each generating set S of a *finite* group G, we can construct the following **Cayley digraph**  $\mathscr{D}$ . The number of vertices in  $\mathscr{D}$  is |G|. For any  $a \in S$ , there exist arcs of type a. An arc of type a points from  $x \in G$  to  $y \in G$  if and only if y = xa. If  $a \in S$  and  $a^2 = e$ , it is customary to omit the arrowhead from the arc of type a.

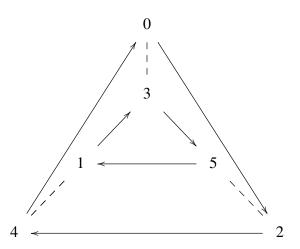
**Example:** Cayley digraph for  $G = \mathbb{Z}_6$  and  $S = \{1\}$ 

**Example 17.** Let  $G = \mathbb{Z}_6$  and  $S = \{1\}$ . The Cayley digraph has the form



# **Example: Cayley digraph for** $G = \mathbb{Z}_6$ and $S = \{2,3\}$

**Example 18.** Let  $G = \mathbb{Z}_6$  and  $S = \{2,3\}$ . Let  $\longrightarrow$  be an arrow of type 2. Because  $3^2 = 0$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_6$ , the arrow of type 3 must be ---. The Cayley digraph has the form

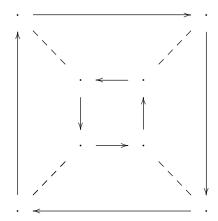


# A characterisation of Cayley digraphs

**Theorem 11.** A digraph  $\mathscr{G}$  is a Cayley digraph of some generating set H of a finite group G if and only if the following four properties are satisfied.

- ① *G* is connected.
- ② At most one arc goes from vertex g to a vertex h.
- ③ Each vertex g has exactly one arc of each type starting at g, and one of each type ending at g.
- 4 If two different sequences of arc types starting from vertex g lead to the same vertex h, then those same sequences of arc types starting from any vertex u will lead to the same vertex v.

Cayley used this theorem to construct new groups. For example, the following digraph satisfies all conditions of Theorem 11.



If we label  $\longrightarrow$  by a and --- by b, we obtain a Cayley digraph of a new group of order 8:

