Chapter 6: Subgroups

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In this chapter we will introduce the concept of subgroup and begin exploring some of the rich mathematical territory that this concept opens up for us.

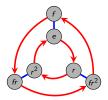
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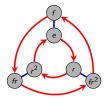
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Let's begin with an example.

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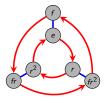


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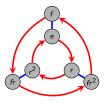
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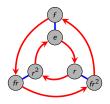
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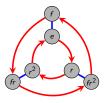
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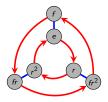
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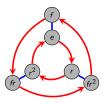


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There are other patterns that permeate this diagram, as well. Do you see any? Here are a couple: $f^2 = e$, $r^3 = e$,

An algebraic equation, like $frf = r^{-1}$ in S_3 , is true not just about one portion of a Cayley diagram, but it is true across the diagram in the same way.

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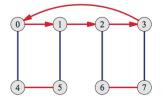
Every Cayley diagram is regular. In particular, diagrams lacking regularity do *not* represent groups (and so they are not called Cayley diagrams).

Recall that our original definition (Definition 1.9) of a group was called the "unofficial" definition of a group.

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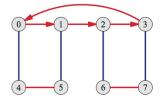
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Nope. The diagram is not regular.



This one is tricky.



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What would go "wrong" if we tried to form a group from this diagram? If the red arrow represents action a, then a^2 is not represented in the diagram, which violates Rule 1.8.

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In fact, since $\langle r \rangle$ is really just a copy of C_3 , we may be less formal and write

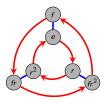
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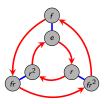
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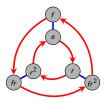
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We see that

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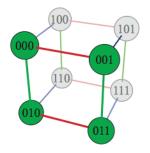
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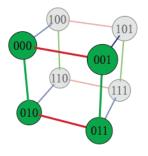


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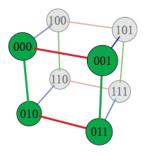
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It turns out that all of the subgroups of S_3 are just cyclic orbits, but there are many groups that have subgroups that are not cyclic orbits.





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$$\langle 001,010\rangle = \{000,001,010,011\} < C_2 \times C_2 \times C_2.$$



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Let's take a look at $C_6 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ in *Group Explorer* and see if we can discover all of the subgroups by experimenting with different generators for Cayley diagrams and possibly different layouts.

What we should have discovered is that C_6 is equal to $\langle 1 \rangle, \langle 5 \rangle$, and $\langle 2, 3 \rangle$.

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$$\{e\}, \underbrace{\langle r^2 \rangle, \langle f \rangle, \langle fr \rangle, \langle fr^2 \rangle, \langle fr^3 \rangle}_{\text{order 2}}, \underbrace{\langle r \rangle, \langle r^2, f \rangle, \langle r^2, fr \rangle}_{\text{order 4}}, D_4.$$

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Note that this algorithm works because every group (and subgroup) has a set of generators.

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- 3. Now, complete Exercise 6.5(a) (ignore the part about index). I want each group to turn in a complete solution.

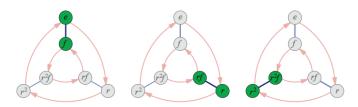
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For example, the following figure (taken from Figure 6.6 on page 102 of *Visual Group Theory*) highlights the repeated copies of $\langle f \rangle = \{e, f\}$ in S_3 .

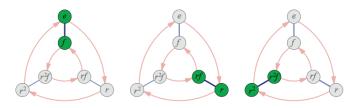
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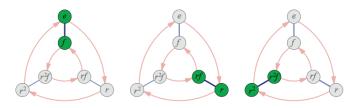


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However, only one of these copies is actually a group! Since the other two copies do *not* contain the identity, they cannot be groups.

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To be sure that we understand this concept, let's find all of the cosets of the subgroup $\langle f, r^2 \rangle = \{e, f, r^2, fr^2\}$ of D_4 . Using *Group Explorer* will help us pick the right Cayley diagram and layout, so that we can "see" the cosets.

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We see that the cosets of $\langle f, r^2 \rangle$ are

$$\underbrace{\{e,f,r^2,\mathit{fr}^2\}}_{\text{original}},\underbrace{\{r,r^3,\mathit{fr},\mathit{fr}^3\}}_{\text{copy}}\,.$$

Now, we will list some observations concerning cosets.

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The meaning of aH: start from the node a and follow all paths in H.



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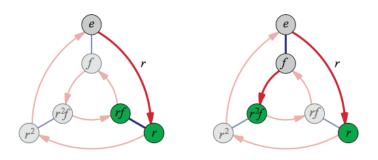
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It turns out that in this example, the left cosets for $\langle f \rangle$ were different than the right cosets. Thus, they must look different in the Cayley diagram.

The left diagram below shows the left coset $r\langle f \rangle$ in S_3 , the nodes that f arrows can reach after the path to r has been followed. The right diagram shows the right coset $\langle f \rangle r$ in S_3 , the nodes that r arrows can reach from teh elements in $\langle f \rangle$.



(Taken from Figure 6.7 on page 104 of Visual Group Theory.)

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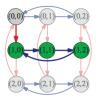
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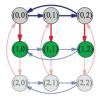
One of the most important things that we should take away from the last example is that left and right cosets are generally different.

But because they are not always different, it is worth seeing an example where they turn out to be the same.

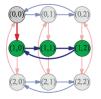
Consider the subgroup $H = \langle (0,1) \rangle = \{(0,0),(0,1),(0,2)\}$ in the group $C_3 \times C_3$ and take g = (1,0).

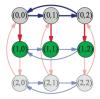
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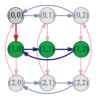
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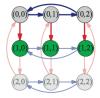




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Subgroups that satisfy gH = Hg for all elements g in the parent group are called normal.

More group work

Let's explore a few more examples.

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 - Exercise 6.20(a)(b) (ignore index)
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- 2. Let's discuss your solutions.

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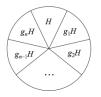
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Proof. Suppose that there exist $g \in G$ such that $g \in aH$ and $g \in bH$. By Observation 6.5, gH = aH and gH = bH. But then we must have aH = bH, which shows that our arbitrary g lies in a unique coset (with possibly many different names).

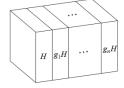
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This shows that |H| divides |G|.



If H < G, then the index of H in G, written [G : H], is how many times |H| goes into |G| (which is well-defined because of Lagrange's Theorem).

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Warning: The converse of Lagrange's Theorem is not generally true. That is, just because the order of G has a divisor does not mean that there is a subgroup of that order.



Even more group work

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Let's try this out.

In groups of 2–3 (try to mix the groups up again), complete Exercise 6.4. I want each group to turn in a complete solution.