

Advanced Algebra I Lecture Notes

ALECK ZHAO

September 26, 2016

This is AS.110.401 Advanced Algebra I, taught by Caterina Consani.

Contents

1	26 September, 2016	2
---	--------------------	---

1 26 September, 2016

Subgroups

Goal: Find subsets of a given group which inherit the same law as the group itself.

Example

Some examples of a chain of subsets.

- $\{\pm 1\} \subset \{\pm 1, \pm i\} \subset \mathbb{C}^0 = \{z \in \mathbb{C}^* \mid |z| = 1\} \subset \mathbb{C}^*$
- $\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R} \subset (\mathbb{C}, +)$
- $A_n \subset (S_n, \circ)$

Definition. $H \subset G$ where G is a group, is a subgroup of G if H is a group with respect to the same operation for G .

Theorem (Subgroup Test)

A subset $H \subset G$ is a subgroup if:

1. $1_G \in H$
2. $h, h' \in H \implies hh' \in H$
3. $h \in H \implies h^{-1} \in H$ (where $h \in G$ is the inverse of h)

Proof. 1. Let $e \in H$ be the identity of H . Then $e^2 = e = e \cdot 1_G$, then by the cancellation law in G it follows that $e = 1_G$.

2. This follows from the fact that H is a subgroup, so it is closed under the operation.

3. Let $h \in H$ and $h' \in H$ be its inverse. If $h^{-1} \in G$ is the inverse of h in G , then $hh' = 1 = hh^{-1} \implies h' = h^{-1}$ by the cancellation law in G .

□

Example

$n\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Z}$ is a subgroup for fixed n .

Theorem (Finite group test)

If $|H| < \infty$, $H \neq \{\}$, and $H \subset G$ group. Then H is a subgroup if and only if H is closed.

Proof. H is closed and finite. Let $h \in H$ such that $h^n = h^{m+n}$ for some $m, n \geq 1$. Then by the cancellation in G , this means $1_G = h^m$, so $1_G \in H$. Then since $1_G = h^{m-1}h$, so $h^{-1} = h^{m-1} \in H$. □

Example

Consider $G = \mathbb{Z}_3$, study its subgroups. Trivially the sets $H_1 = \{\bar{0}\}$ and $H_2 = \mathbb{Z}_3$ are subgroups. Does there exist a subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_3 with cardinality 2?

Consider the possible sets H_3 . If $H_3 = \{\bar{0}, \bar{1}\}$ then H_3 is not closed since $\bar{1} + \bar{1} = \bar{2} \notin H_3$. Similarly for other combinations.

An element g is a **generator** if all elements of G can be generated by g .

Example

$\mathbb{Z}_3 = \{n \cdot \bar{1} \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ so $\bar{1}$ is a generator for \mathbb{Z}_3 .

Example (Groups of order 4)

Let $|G| = 4$. From the Cayley table, we know that

$$G = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}_4 \\ K_4 \end{cases}$$

where K_4 is the Klein group $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$.

In the first case, $G = \{1, a, a^2, a^3\}$ such that $a^4 = 1$. A trivial subgroup is $H_1 = \{1\}$. If $|H| = 2$, then $H_2 = \{1, x\}$ where $x^2 \in H_2$, thus it must be that $H_2 = \{1, a^2\}$. We can't have $x = a$ or $x = a^3$ because a^2 would not be in H_2 , and because $(a^3)^2 = a^6 = a^2$ would not be in H_2 . Similarly we can't have $|H_3| = 3$, so the only subgroups are $\{1\}, \{1, a^2\}, G$.

In the second case, $G = \{1, a, b, c\}$ such that $a^2 = b^2 = c^2 = 1$. Then $H_2 = \{1, a\}$ and similarly $\{1, b\}$ and $\{1, c\}$ are all subgroups. There are no subgroups of size 3 because elements such as ab and bc would not be contained, so they would not be closed. Thus, the subgroups are $\{1\}, \{1, a\}, \{1, b\}, \{1, c\}, G$.

Example

If $|G| = 6$, then either G is commutative or $G = S_3 = \{\varepsilon, \sigma, \sigma^2, \tau, \tau\sigma, \tau\sigma^2\}$ with the identities $\sigma^3 = \tau^2 = \varepsilon$ and $\sigma\tau\sigma = \tau$. Then the subgroups are

$$\begin{aligned} H_1 &= \{\varepsilon\} \\ H_2 &= \{\varepsilon, \tau\} \\ H_3 &= \{\varepsilon, \tau\sigma\} \\ H_4 &= \{\varepsilon, \tau\sigma^2\} \\ H_5 &= \{\varepsilon, \sigma, \sigma^2\} \\ H_6 &= S_3 \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, if G is commutative, then $G = \mathbb{Z}_6$. Then the subgroups are

$$\begin{aligned} H_1 &= \{1\} \\ H_2 &= \{0, 3\} \\ H_3 &= \{0, 2, 4\} \\ H_4 &= \mathbb{Z}_6 \end{aligned}$$

so these clearly have different group structures.

Remark. The cardinality of the subgroups divide the cardinality of the whole group. Coincidence?

Remark. We stated without proof that \mathbb{Z}_6 is the only commutative group of order 6 (up to isomorphism).

Definition. The subgroup of **centers** of G is defined as

$$Z(G) := \{z \in G \mid gz = zg, \forall g \in G\}$$

If G is commutative, then $Z(G) \equiv G$. On the other hand if G is not commutative, then $Z(G)$ can be very small.

Example

Proof in book. $Z(S_n) = \{\varepsilon\}$

Example

$|G| = 8$ where G is non-commutative. An example is the group of **quaternions** which is defined as

$$G = Q := \{\pm 1, \pm i, \pm j, \pm k\}$$

such that

$$i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1$$

$$ij = -ji = k$$

$$jk = -kj = i$$

$$ki = -ik = j$$

Q can be realized as a subgroup of $\text{GL}_n(\mathbb{C})$. Then the subgroup of centers is $Z(Q) = \{\pm 1\}$, so Q is very non-commutative.

Theorem

If G is a group and $H, K \subset G$ are subgroups, then

1. $H \cap K := \{g \in G \mid g \in H, g \in K\}$ is a subgroup of G
2. $\forall g \in G$, the set $gHg^{-1} := \{ghg^{-1} \mid h \in H\}$ is a subgroup of G . The group gHg^{-1} is called a **conjugate** of H in G .

Fact. $|H| = |gHg^{-1}|$ if H is finite.

Fact. If G is commutative, then $gHg^{-1} \equiv H$.