Group Theory Notes

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1 Subgroups

First, we'll define some things which will come in handy later on.

1.1 Definitions and Examples

Definition 1.1. A subgroup H of G is subset of G such that every group axiom holds on H with the same group operation of G. If H is a subgroup of G we shall write $H \leq G$.

Proposition 1.1. A subset H of G is a subgroup of G if and only if

- 1. $H \neq \emptyset$ and
- $2. \ \forall x, y \in H, \ xy^{-1} \in H$

Definition 1.2. A kernel of a function $\varphi: G \to H$ are groups, is the set

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

where G and H are groups.

Proposition 1.2. A function $\varphi: G \to H$ is injective if and only if $\ker(\varphi) = \{0\}$.

Definition 1.3. A group action is a function $\mu: G \times A \to A$ such that

- 1. $\mu(g_1, \mu(g_2, a)) = \mu(g_1 \cdot g_2, a)$
- 2. $\mu(e, a) = a$

To make the notation simple enough, we abbreviate the notation of $\mu(g, a)$ to $g \cdot a$ or sometimes ga.

Remark. Instead of saying 'Group Action of G on A', we saying group G acts on the set A.

Definition 1.4. Let group G act on set A. A stabilizer of a, where $a \in A$, is a the set consisting of elements which fixes a. i.e

$$G_a = \{ g \in G \mid g \cdot a = a \}$$

Proposition 1.3. The G_a is a subgroup of G for all $a \in A$.

Proposition 1.4. Let the group G act on a set A. The relation \sim defined on A by

$$a \sim b \iff a = hb$$
 for some $h \in G$

is a equivalence relation.

Definition 1.5. For each $a \in A$ the equivalence class under \sim is called *orbit* of a under action of G. Thus,

$$\mathcal{O}(a) = \{x \in A \mid x \sim a\} = \{ha \mid h \in G\}$$

Definition 1.6. Let G be an abelian group. Define

$$t = \{g \in G \mid |g| < \infty\}$$

and call it the torsion subgroup of G.

You can check that the set is a subgroup of G.

Problems and Solutions

Problem: Find a non-abelian group G such that the set of all elements with finite order is not a subgroup of G.

Solution:
$$G = GL_2(\mathbb{Q})$$
. Take $a = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $b = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1/2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Here, $|a| = |b| = 2$ but $|ab| = \infty$.

Problem : Let H and K be subgroups of G. Prove that $H \cup K$ is a subgroup if and only if $H \subseteq K$ or $K \subseteq H$.

Solution: The (\Leftarrow) is pretty simple. For (\Rightarrow) , suppose neither of $H \subseteq K$ or $K \subseteq H$ is true. Then, there exists a element h, k s.t $h \in H$ and $h \notin K$ and $k \in K$ and $k \notin H$. But since $H \cup K$ is a subgroup, $h \cdot k$ must be either in H or K. If $h \cdot k \in H$ then $h^{-1} \cdot (h \cdot k) \in H$ and if $h \cdot k \in K$ then $(h \cdot k) \cdot k^{-1} \in K$

Problem: Let F be any field. Define

$$SL_n(F) = \{ A \in GL_n(F) \mid \det(A) = 1 \}$$

(called the special linear group). Prove that $SL_n(F) \leq GL_n(F)$.

Solution: If we use some basic properties of determinants we should be able to prove that this is a subgroup of the general linear group. We know that,

$$\det(AB) = \det(A) \cdot \det(B)$$

From this basic fact, we should be able to verify every subgroup axiom.

Problem: Prove that the intersection of arbitrary amount of non-empty collection of subgroups of G is also a subgroup of G.

Solution: Let us suppose

$$K = \bigcap G_i$$

where G_i are the subgroups.

Let us take $a \in K$. Since, $a \in K$ that implies that $a \in G_i$. Since, of them are subgroups $a^{-1} \in G_i$ thus $a^{-1} \in K$. It's easy to see that $e_G \in K$. Associativity is also pretty easy to check. If $a \in G$ and $b \in G$ then $ab \in G$ as $a, b \in G_i$ which means $ab \in G_i$.

Problem : Let A be an abelian group and fix some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Prove that the following subsets are subgroup of A,

- 1. $\{a^n \mid a \in A\}$
- 2. $\{a \in A \mid a^n = 1\}$

Solution: The problem can be easily solved if we know a facts about abelian group. Let $a, b \in A$ then

- 1. $(ab)^n = a^n b^n$
- 2. $(a^{-1})^n = (a^n)^{-1}$ (This is true in general for all group A)

Problem : Let H be a subgroup of additive group of rational numbers with the property that $1/x \in H$ for every non-zero element of $x \in H$. Prove that H = 0 or $H = \mathbb{Q}$.

Solution: If H has no non-zero element then $H=\{0\}$. If H has has a non-zero element x then $x=\frac{a}{b}$ for some $a,b\in\mathbb{Z}$. Since, $\frac{a}{b}\in H$ then $a\in H$ because of the additive nature of H. Since, $a\in H$ we have $\frac{1}{a}\in H$, thus $1\in H$ as $a\cdot\frac{1}{a}=1$. Since, $1\in H$ we must have $-1\in H$ as well. Thus, every integer a is in H. Since, $a\in H$ we have $\frac{1}{a}\in H$ thus, $\frac{b}{a}\in H$ for any $b\in\mathbb{Z}$. Thus, every rational number can be obtained by this method. Thus, $\mathbb{Q}=H$.

Problem: Show that $\{x \in D_{2n} \mid x^2 = 1\}$ is not a subgroup of D_{2n} (n > 2).

Solution: We know that $(r^k s)^2 = 1$ for all $0 \le k \le n$. Thus, $(r^k s)(r^j s) = r^k (sr^j)s = r^{k-j}$. Thus $r^k = r^j \implies k = j$. But since n > 2 we can take different k, j. Thus, the set is not closed and thus it cannot be a subgroup of $D_2 n$.

Remark. Here, if you do not know about the Dihedral groups, then it might be little confusing but, essentially

$$D_{2n} = \{1, r, r^2, \dots, r^{n-1}, s, sr, \dots, sr^{n-1}\}\$$

This Dihedral group is the set of symmetries of a regular n-gon. You can check that

$$sr^k = r^{-k}s$$

1.2 Centralizers and Normalizers, Stabilizer and Kernels

We'll look at some important families of subgroups. Let A be any non-empty subset of G.

Definition 1.7. Define $C_G(A) = \{g \in G \mid gag^{-1} = a \ \forall a \in A\}$. This subset is called *centralizers* of A in G. The set is the collection of elements in G which commutes with every element of A.

Proposition 1.5. $C_G(A) \leq G$

Proof. One can check that $1 \in C_G(A)$. Suppose $x \in C_G(A)$, then $xax^{-1} = a \implies a = x^{-1}ax$. Thus, $x^{-1} \in C_G(A)$. Let $x, y \in C_G(A)$ then

$$(xy)a(xy)^{-1} = (xy)a(y^{-1}x^{-1})$$

= $x(yay^{-1})x^{-1}$
= xax^{-1}
= a

Thus, $xy \in C_G(A)$.

Definition 1.8. Define $Z(G) = \{g \in G \mid gx = xg \ \forall x \in G\}$. This is the set of elements in G such that it commutes with every other element of G. This is called the *center* of G.

Remark. You may notice that $Z(G) = C_G(G)$. Thus, $Z(G) \leq G$.

Definition 1.9. Define $gAg^{-1} = \{gag^{-1} \in G \mid a \in A\}$. Define the normalizers of A in G to be the set

$$N_G(A) = \{ q \in G \mid qAq^{-1} = A \}$$

Proposition 1.6. $N_G(A) \leq G$ and $C_G(A) \leq N_G(A)$.

Proof. Similar proof like **Proposition 1.4**.

Examples

- 1. Let G be abelian group. Then Z(G) = G, also $N_G(A) = C_G(A) = G$.
- 2. Let $G = D_8$. And let $A = \{1, r, r^2, r^3\}$ be a subgroup of rotations in D_8 . We show that $C_{D_8}(A) = A$. Since, powers of r commute with each other, we have $A \leq C_{D_8}(A)$. One can check $s \notin C_{D_8}(A)$ as $sr = r^{-1}s \neq rs$. Now, if $a \notin A$ and $a \in D_8$ then a must be of the form sr^i . If $a \in C_{D_8}(A)$ with $a = sr^i$ then $s = (sr^i)(r^{-i})$, thus a contradiction.

Stabilizer and Kernels of a Group Action

We have already seen what a stabilizer is, now lets look at what a kernel of a group action is

Definition 1.10. A kernel of a group G acting on a set A is the set of elements in g such that it fixes every element in A. That is, if $\phi: G \times A \to A$ is a group action then

$$\ker(\phi) = \{ g \in G \mid g \cdot s = s \ \forall s \in A \}$$

Proposition 1.7. Kernel of a group action is a subgroup of the group G.

Proof. If $g \in \ker(\phi)$ then $g \cdot s = s \implies g^{-1} \cdot (g \cdot s) = g^{-1} \cdot s \implies s = g^{-1} \cdot s$. Thus, $g^{-1} \in \ker(\phi)$. Similarly, you can verify other axioms.

We'll see that the centralizers, normalizers and kernels are some special case of facts that stabilizer and kernels of actions are subgroups. Let S = P(G) be the collection of all the subsets of group G, and let G act on S by conjugation i.e

$$\phi: G \times S \to S$$
 where $g \cdot A = gAg^{-1}$

where qAq^{-1} is defined just like in **Definition 1.9.**

Under this action, the stabilizer of A is same as normalizer of A i.e $N_G(A) = G_A$. This is basically of the definition, $N_G(A) = \{g \in G \mid gAg^{-1} = A\} = \{g \in G \mid g \cdot A = A\} = G_A$. Thus, $N_G(A) \leq G$.

Next Let the group $N_G(A)$ act on $A \subseteq G$ by conjugation. One can check that the centralizer of A is the same as kernel of this action. Thus, $C_G(A) = \ker(\phi) \leq N_G(A)$ and from the above argument $C_G(A) \leq N_G(A) \leq G \implies C_G(A) \leq G$. One can also check that G acting on G by conjugation has kernel same as the center of the group i.e Z(G) thus, $Z(G) \leq G$

Problems and Solutions

Problem : Prove that $C_G(Z(G)) = G$ and $N_G(Z(G)) = G$.

Solution: We already know that $C_G(Z(G))$ and $N_G(Z(G))$ are the subgroups of G. Thus, if we prove every element of $C_G(Z(G))$ and $N_G(Z(G))$ is also an element of G then we're done. Let $a \in Z(G)$, then ga = ag for any $g \in G$. Thus, $g \in C_G(Z(G))$. Since, $gZ(G)g^{-1} = \{gag^{-1} \mid a \in Z(G)\} = \{a \mid a \in Z(G)\} = Z(G)$. Thus, for any $g \in G$ we have $gZ(G)g^{-1} = Z(G)$ which means that $N_G(Z(G))$ collects all the $g \in G$. Thus, $N_G(Z(G)) = G$.

Problem: If A and B are the subsets of G such that $A \subseteq B$ then $C_G(B) \le C_G(A)$.

Solution: Every element of $C_G(B)$ is in $C_G(A)$ as xb = ba for all $b \in B$ so xa = ax for all $a \in A$ thus, $x \in C_G(A)$. Thus, we are done.

Problem: Let H be a subgroup of G.

- 1. Show that $H \leq N_G(H)$.
- 2. Show that $H \leq C_G(H) \iff H$ is abelian.

Solution: For the first part, $gHg^{-1} = \{ghg^{-1} \mid h \in H\}$. If we let $g \in H$ be an arbitrary element then $\{ghg^{-1} \mid h \in H\} = H$. This, can be proved by proving $\varphi_g : H \to H$ is a bijection for $g \in H$. Since, g is arbitrary $H \leq N_G(H)$.

For the second part, if H is abelian then ga = ag for every $a, g \in H$ thus $H \leq C_G(H)$. If $H \leq C_G(H)$ then ga = ag for all $a \in H$ and since H is a subgroup of $C_G(H)$ every element of H is in $C_G(H)$ that means ga = ag for every $a, g \in H$. Thus H is abelian.

Problem : Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $n \geq 3$. Prove the following

- 1. $Z(D_{2n}) = \{1\}$ if n is odd
- 2. $Z(D_{2n}) = \{1, r^k\}$ if n = 2k

Solution: We know that only elements that commute with powers of r are powers of r. Thus, r^i be the element that commutes with every element of D_{2n} . Then, $r^i(sr^i) = (sr^i)r^i \implies r^i(r^{-i}s) = sr^{2i} \implies s = sr^{2i} \implies r^{2i} = 1 \implies n \mid i \text{ if } n \text{ is odd. But } i < n \text{ so } i = 0$. If n = 2k then $n \mid 2i \implies 2i = nk$ but $2i < 2n \implies 2 > k \implies k = 1$. Thus i = n/2.

Problem : Let $G = S_n$ and fix an $i \in \{1, 2, 3, ..., n\}$ and let $G_i = \{\sigma \in G \mid \sigma(i) = i\}$. Prove that G_i is a subgroup of G and find $|G_i|$.

Solution: The subgroup part of this is pretty easy. To find, $|G_i|$ we fix the map $i \to i$ and let the other maps vary. The number of ways to do this is (n-1)! and this is the size of the group.

Problem : For any subgroup H of G and for any non-empty subset of A in G define $N_H(A) = \{h \in H \mid hAh^{-1} = A\}$. Show that $N_H(A) = N_G(A) \cap H$ and deduce that $N_H(A)$ is a subgroup of H.

Solution: $N_H(A)$ collects every $h \in H$ for which $hAh^{-1} = A$. $N_G(A) \cap H$ also collects $h \in H$ for which $hAh^{-1} = A$ thus $N_G(A) \cap H = N_H(A)$. To deduce $N_H(A)$ is a subgroup of H, you can easily check the axioms.

Problem : Let H be a subgroup of order 2 in G. Show that $N_G(H) = C_G(H)$. Deduce that if $N_G(H) = G$ then $H \leq Z(G)$.

Solution: Since, H has order 2 H must be $\{e, h\}$ where $h \neq e$ and $h^2 = e$. Now, if $gHg^{-1} = H$ then $\{ghg^{-1} \mid g \in G\} = \{e, ghg^{-1}\} = \{e, h\} \implies gh = hg$. Thus, $N_G(H)$ collects $g \in G$ which commutes with h which is exactly $C_G(H)$. For the second part, since $N_G(H) = G$ that means h commutes with every $g \in G$. Thus, $\{e, h\} \subseteq Z(G)$ and $H \leq Z(G)$.

Problem: Prove that $Z(G) \leq N_G(A)$ for any subset A of G.

Solution: Since Z(G) collects every $g \in G$ such that it commutes with every other element of G, it must commute with every element of A. Thus, $gAg^{-1} = \{gag^{-1} \mid g \in Z(G)\} = \{g \mid g \in Z(G)\} = A$ which means every $g \in Z(G)$ is also an element of $N_G(A)$.

1.3 Cyclic and Cyclic Subgroups

Definition 1.11. A group G is called *cyclic* if if can be generated by a single element i.e there is some $x \in G$ such that $H = \{x^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. We write is as $G = \langle x \rangle$ and say G is generated by x.

Proposition 1.8. If $H = \langle x \rangle$ then |H| = |x|.

x are different and thus $|H| = \infty$.

Proof. Suppose $|x| = n < \infty$ then $1, x, \dots, x^{n-1}$ are all distinct. Thus |H| is at least n. Now, using the division algorithm we can show that these are all of them. Suppose now $|x| = \infty$ then that means there is no finite $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t $x^n = 1$. If $x^b = x^c$ then $x^{b-c} = 1$ contradicting the fact that there is no n s.t $x^n = 1$. Thus, all of the powers of

Proposition 1.9. Let G be a group and let $x \in G$. If $x^m = 1$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ then |x| divides m.

Proposition 1.10. Any two cyclic group of same order are isomorphic. More specifically,

1. If $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and $\langle x \rangle$ and $\langle y \rangle$ are both cyclic groups of order n, then the map

$$\varphi: \langle x \rangle \to \langle y \rangle$$
$$x^k \to y^k$$

is well defined and is an isomorphism.

2. If $\langle x \rangle$ is an infinite cyclic group then

$$\varphi: \mathbb{Z} \to \langle x \rangle$$
$$k \to x^k$$

is well defined and is an isomorphism.

Proposition 1.11. Let G be a group, let $x \in G$ and let $a \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ then

- 1. If $|x| = \infty$ then $|x^a| = \infty$
- 2. If $|x| = n < \infty$ then $|x^a| = \frac{n}{(n,a)}$

Proof. 1. is pretty simple. Suppose $|x^a| = k$ then $x^{ak} = 1$ now $n \mid ak$. Write (n, a) = d and n = du and a = dv. Then, $du \mid dvk \implies u \mid k$. But

$$x^{a} = x^{dv} \implies (x^{du})^{v} = (x^{n})^{v} = 1$$

$$\implies (x^{a})^{u} = 1$$

$$\implies k \mid u$$

. Thus, $k = u \implies n = dk \implies k = \frac{n}{d} = \frac{n}{(n,a)}$.

Proposition 1.12. Let $H = \langle x \rangle$.

1. Assume $|x| = \infty$. Then $H = \langle x^a \rangle \iff a = \pm 1$.

2. Assume $|x| = n < \infty$. Then $H = \langle x^a \rangle \iff (a, n) = 1$. The number of generators of H is $\varphi(n)$.

Proof. For 1. we know $x \in \langle x^a \rangle$ as $\langle x^a \rangle = \langle x \rangle$ thus

$$x = x^{ak} \implies ak = 1 \implies a = \pm 1$$

For 2. we know $H = \langle x^a \rangle \implies |H| = |x^a| \iff |x| = |x^a|$,

$$\iff \frac{n}{(n,a)} = n$$

$$\iff$$
 $(n,a)=1$

Since, the number of positive integers less than n and co-prime to n are exactly $\varphi(n)$, thus the number of generators are exactly equal to $\varphi(n)$.

Theorem 1.1. Let $H = \langle x \rangle$ be a cyclic group.

- 1. Every subgroup of H is cyclic. More precisely, if $K \leq H$, then either $K = \{1\}$ or $K = \langle x^d \rangle$, where d is the smallest positive integer such that $x^d \in K$.
- 2. If $|H| = \infty$, then for any distinct nonnegative integers a and b, $\langle x^a \rangle \neq \langle x^b \rangle$.
- 3. If $|H| = n < \infty$, then for each positive integer a dividing n there is a unique subgroup of H of order a. This subgroup is the cyclic group $\langle x^d \rangle$, where $d = \frac{n}{a}$. Furthermore, for every integer m, $\langle x^m \rangle = \langle x^{(n,m)} \rangle$, so that the subgroups of H correspond bijectively with the positive divisors of n.

Proof. 1. and 2. are pretty easy. For 3. the cyclic group $\langle x^{n/a} \rangle$ has order a. To prove uniqueness, suppose K is any subgroup of H with order a, then $\langle x^b \rangle = K$ where b is the smallest positive integer b s.t $x^b \in K$ (this is from 1.). Thus,

$$|\langle x^{n/a} \rangle| = |\langle x^b \rangle| \implies \frac{n}{d} = a = \frac{n}{(n,b)}$$

$$\implies d = (n,b) \implies d \mid b$$

Hence, $\langle x^b \rangle \leq \langle x^d \rangle$ and since they both have same order $\langle x^b \rangle = \langle x^d \rangle$. For the assertion on 3., one can prove that $\langle x^m \rangle \leq \langle x^{(n,m)} \rangle$ as $(n,m) \mid n$, and since they have same order $\langle x^m \rangle = \langle x^{(n,m)} \rangle$. This means that the number of subgroups has a bijection with the divisors of n.

Problems and Solutions

Problem: Find all subgroup of $\mathbf{Z}_{45} = \langle x \rangle$, giving a generator of each. Describe the containment between these subgroups.

Solution: There are exactly 6 different subgroups of \mathbf{Z}_{45} . Since there is a one to one correspondence between divisors of 45 and subgroups of \mathbf{Z}_{45} we can list all of them,

$$\{1\}, \langle r \rangle, \langle r^3 \rangle, \langle r^5 \rangle, \langle r^9 \rangle, \langle r^1 5 \rangle$$

Problem: If x is an element of a finite group G and |x| = |G|. Prove that $G = \langle x \rangle$.

Solution: Let |x| = n. We know that $\{1, x, \dots, x^{n-1}\}$ is a subgroup of G. Since, it is a subgroup and has the same order as G thus $G = \{1, x, \dots, x^{n-1}\} = \langle x \rangle$.

Problem : Let $\mathbb{Z}_{48} = \langle x \rangle$ and use isomorphism $\mathbb{Z}/48\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{48}$ with $[1] \mapsto x$ to find all the subgroups of Z_{48} .

Solution: If $\langle [x] \rangle$ is a cyclic subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}/48\mathbb{Z}$ then $\langle \varphi([x]) \rangle$ is a subgroup of \mathbf{Z}_{48} where φ is the isomorphic map.

Problem: Let $\mathbf{Z}_{48} = \langle x \rangle$. For which integer a does the map φ_a defined by $\varphi_a : [1] \mapsto x^a$ extends to an isomorphism from $\mathbb{Z}/48\mathbb{Z}$ to \mathbf{Z}_{48} .

Solution: We already know it is an homomorphism as

$$\varphi([u] + [v]) = (x^a)^{u+v} = (x^a)^u (x^a)^v = \varphi([u])\varphi([v])$$

But to be an isomorphism x^{na} needs to cover \mathbf{Z}_{48} for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Thus,

$$\mathbf{Z}_{48} = \langle x \rangle = \langle x^a \rangle$$
$$\implies (48, a) = 1$$

So, for all the a which are co-prime to 48 the map, φ_a is an isomorphism.

Problem : Let $\mathbf{Z}_{36} = \langle x \rangle$. For which integer a does the map $\psi_a : [1] \mapsto x^a$ extend to an well defined homomorphism from $\mathbb{Z}/48\mathbb{Z}$ onto \mathbf{Z}_{36} . Can ψ_a ever be surjective?

Solution: One can check that the map is a homomorphism. Now, we need to show that

$$[u] = [v] \implies \psi_a([u]) = \psi_a([v])$$

If [u] = [v] then u - v = 48m

$$1 = \psi_a([0]) = \psi_a([u - v]) = x^{a(u - v)} = x^{48am}$$

$$\implies 36 \mid 48am$$

$$\implies 3 \mid am$$

Since $3 \mid am$ must hold for all integer m, if $3 \nmid a$ then $3 \mid m$ for all integer m which is clearly absurd thus $3 \mid a$. Thus, $x^{48 \cdot 3k \cdot m} = 1$ as $36 \mid 144km$. Thus,

$$x^{a(u-v)} = 1 \implies x^{au} = x^{av} \implies \psi_a([u]) = \psi_a([v])$$

Problem: Find a presentation for \mathbf{Z}_n with one generator.

Solution: $\mathbf{Z}_n = \langle r \mid r^n = 1 \rangle$.

Problem : Show that if H is any group with $h^n = 1$ then there exists a unique homomorphism from $\mathbf{Z}_n = \langle x \rangle$ to H such that $x \mapsto h$.

Solution: Define $\psi: \mathbf{Z}_n \to H$ by $\psi(x^k) = h^k$. This is a homomorphism and is unique because the output is completely determined by h.

Problem : Show that if H is any group and h is an element of H, then there is a unique homomorphism from \mathbb{Z} to H such that $1 \to h$.

Solution: Define $\psi: \mathbb{Z} \to H$ by $\psi(k) = h^k$. This is a homomorphism and is unique as the output is completely determined by h.

Problem: Let p be a prime and n be a positive integer. Show that if x is an element of the group G such that $x^{p^n} = 1$ then $|x| = p^m$ for some $m \le n$.

Solution: We know that if $x^n = 1$ then |x| must divide n. Thus, |x| must divide p^n but the only divisors of p^n are powers of p. Thus, $|x| = p^m$ for some $m \le n$.

Problem: Show that $(\mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$ is not cyclic.

Solution: Consider $\{1, -1\}$ and $1, 1 + 2^{n-1}$. They both are subgroups of order 2. But a cyclic group has exactly 1 subgroup of order d, where d is the divisor of order of the cyclic group G. But we found two distinct subgroups of the group with same order.

Problem: Let G be a finite group and let $x \in G$.

- 1. Prove that if $g \in N_G(\langle x \rangle)$ then $gxg^{-1} = x^a$ for some $a \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- 2. Prove conversely that if $gxg^{-1} = x^a$ for some $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $g \in N_G(\langle x \rangle)$. [Show first that $gx^kg^{-1} = (gxg^{-1})^k = x^{ak}$ for any integer k, so that $g\langle x \rangle g^{-1} \leq \langle x \rangle$. If x has order n, show the elements gx^ig^{-1} , $i = 0, 1, \ldots, n-1$, are distinct, so that $|g\langle x \rangle g^{-1}| = |\langle x \rangle| = n$ and conclude that $g\langle x \rangle g^{-1} = \langle x \rangle$.]

Problem: Let G be a cyclic group of order n and let k be an integer relatively prime to n. Prove that the map $x \mapsto x^k$ is surjective. Use Lagrange's Theorem (Exercise 19, Section 1.7) to prove the same is true for any finite group of order n. (For such k each element has a kth root in G. It follows from Cauchy's Theorem in Section 3.2 that if k is not relatively prime to the order of G then the map $x \mapsto x^k$ is not surjective.)

Problem: Let \mathbf{Z}_n be a cyclic group of order n and for each integer a let

$$\sigma_a: \mathbf{Z}_n \to \mathbf{Z}_n$$
 by $\sigma_a(x) = x^a$ for all $x \in Z_n$.

- 1. Prove that σ_a is an automorphism of Z_n if and only if a and n are relatively prime.
- 2. Prove that $\sigma_a = \sigma_b$ if and only if $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$.

- 3. Prove that every automorphism of Z_n is equal to σ_a for some integer a.
- 4. Prove that $\sigma_a \circ \sigma_b = \sigma_{ab}$. Deduce that the map $a \mapsto \sigma_a$ is an isomorphism of $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$ onto the automorphism group of Z_n (so $\operatorname{Aut}(Z_n)$ is an abelian group of order $\varphi(n)$).

1.4 Subgroups Generated by Subsets of a Group

Proposition 1.13. If \mathcal{A} is any non empty collection of subsets of G then the intersection of all members of \mathcal{A} is also a subgroup of G.

Proof. Trivial. \Box

Definition 1.12. If A is any subset of group G define

$$\langle A \rangle = \bigcap_{\substack{A \subseteq H \\ H \leq G}} H$$

This is called subgroup generated by A.

Definition 1.13. Let $A = \{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$ then define

$$\bar{A} = \{ a_1^{\epsilon_1} a_2^{\epsilon_2} \cdots a_n^{\epsilon_n} \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}, a_i \in A, \epsilon_i = \pm 1 \}$$

where $\bar{A} = \{1\}$ if $A = \emptyset$.

Remark. Here, a_i 's need not to be distinct.

Proposition 1.14. $\bar{A} = \langle A \rangle$

Proof. First we prove that \bar{A} is a subgroup. Note that $\bar{A} \neq \emptyset$. If $a, b \in \bar{A}$ then write $a = a_1^{\epsilon_1} \cdots a_n^{\epsilon_n}$ and $b = b_1^{\delta_1} \cdots b_m^{\delta_m}$ then one can check that $ab^{-1} \in \bar{A}$. Thus, \bar{A} is a subgroup of G.

Now, since $A \subseteq \bar{A}$ as $a = a^1$ for every $a \in A$, we can say that $\langle A \rangle \subseteq \bar{A}$. It is because $\langle A \rangle$ is the intersection of all the subgroups containing A. Now, since $\langle A \rangle$ contains A and is a group, it must contain every element of form $a_1^{\epsilon_1} \cdots a_n^{\epsilon_n}$ thus $\bar{A} \subseteq \langle A \rangle$. This completes the proposition.

Problems and Solutions

1. Prove that if H is a subgroup then $\langle H \rangle = H$.

Solution: From the definition,

$$\langle H \rangle = \bigcap_{\substack{H \subseteq K \\ K \le G}} K$$

Since, $H \subseteq H$ and $H \leq G$ thus $\langle H \rangle \subseteq H$. But also $H \subseteq \langle H \rangle$.

2. Prove if A is a subset of B then $\langle A \rangle \leq \langle B \rangle$. Give an example of $A \subseteq B$ with $A \neq B$ but $\langle A \rangle = \langle B \rangle$.

Solution: From the definition we have,

$$\langle B \rangle = \bigcap_{\substack{B \subseteq K \\ K < G}} K$$

Since, $A \subseteq B$ we have $\langle A \rangle \leq \langle B \rangle$. For the example, take $G = D_{16}$ and $A = \{r\}$ and $B = \{r, r^3\}$.

3. Prove if H is an abelian subgroup of G then $\langle H, Z(G) \rangle$ is abelian. Give and explicit example of a abelian subgroup H such that $\langle H, C_G(H) \rangle$ is not abelian.

Solution: We know that, $\bar{A} = \langle A \rangle$ thus

$$\langle H, Z(G) \rangle = \{ a_1^{\epsilon_1} \cdots a_n^{\epsilon_n} \mid e_i = \pm 1, n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}, a_i \in H \cup Z(G) \}$$

So, if you take two elements from $\langle H, Z(G) \rangle$, they will commute thus $\langle H, Z(G) \rangle$ is an abelian group. For the example, choose $H = \{1, r^2\}$ and $G = D_8$.

3. Prove that H is a subgroup then H is generated by $H - \{1\}$.

Solution: Since, we know that $\bar{A} = \langle A \rangle$ thus

$$\langle H - \{1\} \rangle = \{a_1^{\epsilon_1} \cdots a_n^{\epsilon_n} \mid a_i \in H - \{1\}, n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}, \epsilon_i = \pm 1\}$$

Thus, for $a \in H$ and $a \neq 1$, $a \in \langle H - \{1\} \rangle$ and also $1 = a^1 a^{-1} \in \langle H - \{1\} \rangle$. Also, $a \in \langle H - \{1\} \rangle$ is just some combination of elements in H thus $a \in H$. Thus, we have

$$\langle H - \{1\} \rangle = H$$

4. Prove that the multiplicative group of positive rational numbers is generated by the set $\{\frac{1}{p} \mid p \text{ is a prime }\}$.

Solution: Since,

$$\left\langle \left\{ \frac{1}{p} \mid p \text{ is a prime} \right\} \right\rangle = \left\{ \frac{p_1^{a_1} \cdots p_n^{a_n}}{q_1^{b_1} \cdots q_m^{a_m}} \mid p_i, q_i \in \mathbf{Primes} \right\} = \mathbb{Q}_{>0}$$

5. A group H is called *finitely generated* if there is a finite set A such that $H = \langle A \rangle$.

- (a) Prove that every finite group is finitely generated.
- (b) Prove that \mathbb{Z} is finitely generated.
- (c) Prove that every finitely generated subgroup of the additive group \mathbb{Q} is cyclic. [If H is a finitely generated subgroup of \mathbb{Q} , show that $H \leq \langle \frac{1}{k} \rangle$, where k is the product of all the denominators which appear in a set of generators for H.]
- (d) Prove that \mathbb{Q} is not finitely generated.
- **6.** Exhibit a proper subgroup of \mathbb{Q} which is not cyclic.
- 7. A subgroup M of a group G is called a maximal subgroup if $M \neq G$ and the only subgroups of G which contain M are M and G.
 - (a) Prove that if H is a proper subgroup of the finite group G then there is a maximal subgroup of G containing H.
 - (b) Show that the subgroup of all rotations in a dihedral group is a maximal subgroup.
 - (c) Show that if $G = \langle x \rangle$ is a cyclic group of order $n \geq 1$ then a subgroup H is maximal if and only if $H = \langle x^p \rangle$ for some prime p dividing n.
- 8. This is an exercise involving Zorn's Lemma (see Appendix I) to prove that every nontrivial finitely generated group possesses maximal subgroups. Let G be a finitely generated group, say $G = \{g_1, g_2, \ldots, g_n\}$, and let \mathcal{S} be the set of all proper subgroups of G. Then \mathcal{S} is partially ordered by inclusion. Let \mathcal{C} be a chain in \mathcal{S} .
 - (a) Prove that the union, H, of all the subgroups in \mathcal{C} is a subgroup of G.
 - (b) Prove that H is a proper subgroup. [If not, each g_i must lie in H and so must lie in some element of the chain C. Use the definition of a chain to arrive at a contradiction.]
 - (c) Use Zorn's Lemma to show that S has a maximal element (which is, by definition, a maximal subgroup).
- **9.** Let p be a prime and let

$$Z = \{ z \in \mathbb{C} \mid z^{p^m} = 1 \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \}$$

(so Z is the multiplicative group of all p-power roots of unity in \mathbb{C}). For each $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ let

$$H_k = \{ z \in Z \mid z^{p^k} = 1 \}$$

(the group of p^k th roots of unity). Prove the following:

- (a) $H_k \leq H_m$ if and only if $k \leq m$.
- (b) H_k is cyclic for all k (assume that for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, $\{e^{2\pi it/n} \mid t = 0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ is the set of all nth roots of 1 in \mathbb{C}).
- (c) Every proper subgroup of Z equals H_k for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ (in particular, every proper subgroup of Z is finite and cyclic).
- (d) Z is not finitely generated.

10. A nontrivial abelian group A (written multiplicatively) is called *divisible* if for each element $a \in A$ and each nonzero integer k there is an element $x \in A$ such that $x^k = a$, i.e., each element has a kth root in A (in additive notation, each element is the kth multiple of some element of A).

- (a) Prove that the additive group of rational numbers, \mathbb{Q} , is divisible.
- (b) Prove that no finite abelian group is divisible.
- 11. Prove that if A and B are nontrivial abelian groups, then $A \times B$ is divisible if and only if both A and B are divisible groups.

2 Quotients Groups and Homomorphism

2.1 Definition and Examples

Definition 2.1. Let $\varphi: G \to H$ be a homomorphism. A *fiber* over a, where $a \in \operatorname{im}(\varphi)$, is the set of elements in G that gets mapped to a under φ i.e

$$X_a = \{ g \in G \mid \varphi(g) = a \}$$

It is also denoted by $\varphi^{-1}(a)$.

Definition 2.2. We define the product of *fibers* as following

$$X_a \cdot X_b = \{g_1 g_2 \mid g_1 \in X_a, g_2 \in X_b\}$$

Remark. By definition of the product of fibers, we can see that

$$X_a \cdot X_b = X_{ab}$$

Proposition 2.1. The set of *fibers* over the elements of $\operatorname{im}(\varphi)$ forms a group.

Proof. The identity element of the set is going to be X_{1_H} . The inverse of X_a is going to be $X_{a^{-1}}$. And one can check that the associativity the closure property holds.

Definition 2.3. If φ is a homomorphism $\varphi: G \to H$, the kernel of φ is the set

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

and will be denoted by $\ker \varphi$.

Remark. The kernel of φ is the same as the fiber over 1_h i.e

$$\ker \varphi = X_{1H}$$

Definition 2.4. Let $\varphi: G \to H$ be a homomorphism with kernel K. The quotient group or the factor group, G/K (read as $G \mod K$), is the group whose elements are the fibers of φ .

Proposition 2.2. Let $\varphi: G \to H$ be a homomorphism of groups with kernel K. Let $X \in G/K$ be the fiber above a. i.e $X = \varphi^{-1}(a)$

- 1. For any $u \in X$, $X = \{uk \mid k \in K\} = uK$
- 2. For any $u \in X$, $X = \{ku \mid k \in K\} = Ku$

Proof. We'll prove 2. and leave 1. for the future me. Suppose $k \in K$ then

$$\varphi(ku) = \varphi(k)\varphi(u)$$

$$= 1 \cdot \varphi(u)$$

$$= a$$

Thus, $ku \in X \implies Ku \subseteq X$. Now, to show $X \subseteq Ku$, take any $g \in X$ then define $k := gu^{-1}$ thus

$$\varphi(k) = \varphi(gu^{-1}) = aa^{-1} = 1$$
 $\implies k \in K$

Thus, $g = ku \in Ku \implies X \subseteq Ku$.

Remark. Any coset(check below for the definition) is also an *fiber* for some element. It is because

$$uK = \varphi^{-1}(\varphi(u)) = uK$$

Definition 2.5. For a $N \leq G$ and any $g \in G$ let

$$gN = \{gn \mid n \in N\} \text{ and } Ng = \{ng \mid n \in G\}$$

be the *left coset* and *right coset* of N in G. Any element of a coset is called a *representative* of the coset.

Remark. To verify a map is a well defined map, one can't just use the condition imposed on the map. For example, the proof of the theorem below, I have said the operation is indeed well-defined but didn't prove it. You can't go about doing the following. Let uK = u'K and vK = v'K thus

$$(uv)K = (uK)(vK)$$
$$= (u'K)(v'K)$$
$$= (u'v')K$$

Here, you're assuming that $a = b \implies f(a) = f(b)$ which is true if f were to be a function. But to be a function, it needs to be well defined. Therefore you're assuming it's well defined to begin with.

Theorem 2.1. Let G be a group and let K be the kernel of some homomorphism from G to another group. Then the set whose elements are left cosets of K in G with operation defined by

$$(uK) \circ (vK) = (uv)K$$

forms a group, G/K.

Proof. One can check that the set whose elements are left cosets of K in G with operation defined above, does indeed form a group. Note that the operation is also well defined. Now, if X and Y are fibers then Z = XY is also a fiber. Now, we can write each fiber as

$$X = uK$$
, $Y = vK$, $XY = jK$

But we set j = uv as $uv \in XY$. Thus, every element of G/K is in set $\{uK \mid u \in G\}$. But we also that every coset is also a fiber thus, every element of $\{uK \mid u \in G\}$ is in G/K.

Proposition 2.3. Let N be any subgroup of the group G. The set of left cosets of N in G form a partition of G. Furthermore, for all $u, v \in G$, $uN = vN \iff v^{-1}u \in N$ and in particular, uN = vN if and only if u and v are representative of the same coset.

Proof. Since, $g \in gN$ as $1 \in N$, we can say that

$$g = \bigcup_{g \in G} gN$$

Now, if $x \in uN \cap vN$ then

$$x = un = vm$$

Thus, $u = vmn^{-1} \implies ut = vmn^{-1}t \in vN$. Thus, $uN \subseteq vN$ as ut covers every element of uN.

Now, one can reverse the roles and prove $vN \subseteq uN$, which altogether implies uN = vN. Thus, if $uN \cap vN \neq \emptyset$ then uN = vN.

For the other part of the proposition, $uN = vN \iff u = vn \iff v^{-1}u = n \in N$.

If uN = vN = K then $u, v \in K$. Thus they are the representative of the same coset. Also, if $u \in tN$ and $v \in tN$ then uN = tN = vN.

Proposition 2.4. Let G be a group and let N be a subgroup of G.

1. The operation on the set of left cosets of N on G defined by

$$(uN) \cdot (vN) = (uv)N$$

is well defined if and only if $qnq^{-1} \in N$ for all $q \in G$ and for all $n \in N$.

2. If the above operation is well-defined then the it makes the set of left coset into a group.

Proof. Assume the operation is well-defined i.e $u, u_1 \in uN, v, v_1 \in vN \implies uvN =$ u_1v_1N . Let g be an arbitrary element of G and let n be an arbitrary element of N. Then, set $u = 1, u_1 = n$ and $v_1 = v = g^{-1}$ thus

$$1g^{-1}N = ng^{-1}N \implies g^{-1}N = ng^{-1}N$$

Thus, $ng^{-1} \in g^{-1}N \implies gng^{-1} = k \in N$.

Now, suppose $gng^{-1} \in N$ for all $g \in G$ and $n \in N$. Let $u, u_1 \in uN$ and $v, v_1 \in vN$. We need to show

$$(uv)N = (u_1v_1)N$$

Since, $u_1 \in uN$ and $v_1 \in vN$ we can write them as $u_1 = un_1$ and $v_1 = vm$ for some $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$. Now, if we can prove $u_1 v_1 \in (uv) \mathbb{N}$ then we'd be done.

$$u_1v_1 = (un)(vm)$$

= $u(vv^{-1})nvm$
= $(uv)(v^{-1}nv)m = (un)(n_1m)$

where $n_1 = v^{-1}nv = v^{-1}n(v^{-1})^{-1} \in N$ as per the assumption. Thus, $u_1v_1 \in uvN \implies$ $(u_1v_1)N = (uv)N.$

For the second part, just check the group axioms.

Definition 2.6. The element qnq^{-1} is called the *conjugate* of n by q. The set $qNq^{-1} =$ $\{gng^{-1} \mid n \in N\}$ is called *conjugate* of N by g. The element g is said to normalize N if $gNg^{-1} = N$. A subgroup N is called normal if every element of G normalizes N i.e $qNq^{-1}=N$ for all $q\in G$. If N is a normal subgroup of G then we write it as $N\triangleleft G$.

Proposition 2.5. Let N be the subgroup of G. Then the following are equivalent

- 1. $N \subseteq G$
- 2. $N_G(N) = G$

- 3. gN = Ng for all $g \in G$
- 4. $gNg^{-1} \subseteq N$

Proof. Most of them easily follow from the definition and previous propositions. \Box

Definition 2.7. We define $G/N = \{gN \mid g \in G\}$ for $N \leq G$.

Proposition 2.6. Let $N \leq G$. Then N is normal if and only if N is a kernel of some homomorphism.

Proof. Suppose N is a kernel of some homomorphism φ . Then gN = Ng for all $g \in G$ and by previous proposition we can say $N \subseteq G$. Now, suppose $N \subseteq G$ then we define a map $\psi : G \to G/N$ such that $g \mapsto gN$. Then,

$$\psi(g_1g_2) = (g_1g_2)N$$

$$= g_1Ng_2N$$

$$= \psi(g_1)\psi(g_2)$$

Thus, ψ is indeed a homomorphism. Now,

$$\ker \psi = \{g \mid \psi(g) = 1N\}$$

$$= \{g \mid gN = N\}$$

$$= \{g \mid g \in N\}$$

$$= N$$

Thus, N is the kernel of ψ .

Definition 2.8. Let $N \subseteq G$. The homomorphism $\psi: G \to G/N$ defined by $\psi(g) = gN$ is called the *natural projection* of G onto G/N. If $\bar{H} \subseteq G/N$ is a subgroup of G/N, the complete preimage of \bar{H} in G is the preimage of \bar{H} under the natural projection.

Problems and Solutions

Problem : Let $\varphi: G \to H$ be an homomorphism and Let E be a subgroup of H. Prove that $\varphi^{-1}(E) \leq G$, where $\varphi^{-1}(E) = \{x \mid \varphi(x) \in E\}$. If $E \subseteq H$, prove that $\varphi^{-1}(E) \subseteq G$. Deduce that $\ker \varphi \subseteq G$.

Solution: Since, $\varphi^{-1}(E) = \{x \mid \varphi(x) \in E\}$. This subset of G is clearly not empty and if $x, y \in \varphi^{-1}(E)$ then $\varphi(xy^{-1}) = \varphi(x)\varphi(y)^{-1} \in E$ as E is a subgroup and $\varphi(x), \varphi(y) \in E$. Thus, $xy^{-1} \in \varphi^{-1}(E)$ for all $x, y \in \varphi^{-1}(E)$ which implies that $\varphi^{-1}(E) \leq G$.

If $E \subseteq H$ then take any arbitrary element g of G and take any arbitrary element of n of $\varphi^{-1}(E)$. Thus, $\varphi(gng^{-1}) = \varphi(g)\varphi(n)\varphi(g)^{-1} \in E$ as $\varphi(n) \in E$ and $\varphi(g) \in H$ and E is normal. Thus, $gng^{-1} \in \varphi^{-1}(E)$ which implies $g\varphi^{-1}(E)g \subseteq \varphi^{-1}(E) \implies \varphi^{-1}(E) \subseteq G$. For kernel part, take $E = \{1\} \subseteq H$

Problem : Let $\varphi : G \to H$ be a homomorphism of groups with kernel K and let $a, b \in \varphi(G)$. Let $X \in G/K$ be the fiber above a and let Y be the fiber above b, i.e, $X = \varphi^{-1}(a)$ and $Y = \varphi^{-1}(b)$. Fix an element of X. Prove that if XY = Z in the quotient group G/K and w is any member of Z, the there is some $v \in Y$ such that uv = w.

Solution: First part follows immediately from **Definition 1.2.** and for the second part look at $\varphi(u^{-1}w)$ where w is an arbitrary member of Z. Thus,

$$\varphi(u^{-1}w) = a^{-1}(ab)$$
$$= b$$

Thus, $u^{-1}w \in Y \implies w = uv$ for some $v \in Y$.

Problem : Let A be an abelian group and let B be an subgroup of A. Prove that A/B is abelian. Give an example of a non-abelian of a non-abelian group G containing a proper normal subgroup N such that G/N is abelian.

Solution: Any subgroup of a abelian group is a normal subgroup. Notice that,

$$(uB) \circ (vB) = (uv)B = (vu)B = (uB) \circ (vB)$$

For the example part, take $G = S_3$ and $N = \{e, (123), (132)\}.$

Problem: Prove that in quotient group G/N, $(gN)^{\alpha} = g^{\alpha}N$ for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Solution: