Contents

Wed. 24 Jan 2024

> **Note**.
>
> All info for the class is available on the canvas page. Notes from the prof are written on the iPad, and PDFs will be provided after each class. Despite this taking notes is helpful.
>
> Offices are hours are Tuesdays in person, and Thursdays on Zoom. Hours may vary.
>
> A text for this class is not *required*. Technically, we are using Fraleigh's *A first course in Abstract Algebra*
>
> No quizzes in this class, weekly Homeworks except on Exam weeks, two midterms, and one final.
>
> Readings on the class schedule are not additional, it's for people that need extra material, or people that missed that day.

1 Introduction - Sets and Relations

1.1 Sets

Definition.

A **Set**. is a well-defined collection of objects called *elements*.

$a \in A$ means "A is a set, a is an element of a set, and a is in A.

Examples of sets are

- $\mathbb{Z}$ - The set of all integers, positive, negative, and zero
- $\mathbb{N}$ - The set of natural numbers, $0, 1, 2, \ldots$. **In this class, $\mathbb{N}$ starts with 1.**
- $\mathbb{Q}$ - The set of rational numbers.
- $\mathbb{R}$ - The set of real numbers.
- $\mathbb{C}$ - The set of complex numbers.
- $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$
- $\{a \in \mathbb{Z} \mid a > 2\}$. This is a set of integers *such that $a > 2$*.
- $\varnothing$ - The empty set.
- GLn($\mathbb{R}$) - The set of $n \times n$ invertible matrices with real entries. (GL stands for "General Linear".)
- $C(\mathbb{R})$ - The set of continuous functions $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$.

Definition.

A set A is a **subset** of a set B if

$$\forall x \in A, x \in B$$

In other words, everything in A is also in B. As notation, we can say either $A \subseteq B$ or $A \subset B$.

A **proper** subset is $A \subset B$ but $A \neq B$. Just write $A \subsetneq B$.

For example, $\mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$. And, importantly, $\varnothing \subseteq A$ for all sets A. In other words, the empty set is a subset of *all* sets.

Two sets are equal if $A = B$, or $A \subseteq B$ *and $B \subseteq A$*. This is often how you prove set equality.

1.1.1 Set Operations

We have four main operations.

- **Union**: $A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$.
- **Intersection**: $A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$.
- **Product**: $A \times B = \{(a, b) \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$.
- **Difference**: $A \setminus B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}$

Two sets are **disjoint** if $A \cap B = \varnothing$.

If we're working in a particular *universe* U (i.e. all sets are subsets of the universal set U) then the *complement* of A is $A^c = \{x \mid x \in U \text{ and } x \notin A\}$.

1.2 Relations

Definition.

A **relation** between sets A and B is a subset $R \subseteq A \times B$.

If $(a, b) \in R$, then we say that "a is related to b", or we write aRb, or $a \sim b$.

Example.

$R \subseteq \{1, 2, 3\} \times \{2, 3, 4\}$. $R = \{(1, 3), (2, 2), (3, 4)\}$

Note.

Relations might not be reflexive! If $(a, b) \in R$, that means a is related to b, but it might not be the case that $(b, a) \in R$. In other words, the reverse may not be true!

Another example might be $R \subseteq \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$, with $R = \{(x, x^3) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$. Oh look! We just rewrote $f(x) = x^3$, so functions are relations.

Definition.

A **partition** of a set A is a collection of *disjoint* subsets whose union is A.

Another way to think of this is that any element of A is in one and only one of its partitions.

An example of this might be the partition

$$A = \mathbb{Z} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x < 0\} \cup \{0\} \cup \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x > 0\}$$

is a partition of $\mathbb{Z}$ into 3 sets.

Another example might be $A = \mathbb{R}$, subsets are $\{x\}$ for each $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Another, maybe more interesting example might be the following.

Example.

Fix $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n \geq 2$. Let

- $\bar{0} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \text{ is divisible by } n\}$.
- $\bar{1} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x - 1 \text{ is divisible by } n\}$.
- $\bar{2} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x - 2 \text{ is divisible by } n\}$. On and on until...
- $\overline{n-1} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x - (n-1) \text{ is divisible by } n\}$.

Claim: This partitions $\mathbb{Z}$ into in n subsets.

Fri. 26 Jan 2024

Let's go back to relations, which we put aside to talk about partitions.

Definition.

A relation $A \subseteq A \times A$ is called an **equivalence relation** if it satisfies 3 properties

1. **Reflexivity**: aRA for all $a \in A$.

2. **Symmetry**: aRb if and only if bRa.

3. **Transitivity**: If aRb and bRc, then aRc.

The key idea is that equivalence relations on A are *the same* as partitions of A. What's going on here?

From an equivalence relation: If b is related to b, put them in the same set. Because of symmetry of equivalence relations, order of elements in the set doesn't matter.

Conversely, given a partition say $aRb \Leftrightarrow bRa$ are in the same subset.

> **Note.**
>
> We'll be talking a lot about partitions and equivalence relations in this class.

Now we move on to the next step in our intro: functions.

1.3   Functions

A function $f : A \to B$ is a relation $R_f \subseteq A \times B$ such that, for all $a \in A$, there is a *unique $b \in B$* such that aRb. Effectively, this means that

1. We pass the vertical line test.

2. The function is defined over its entire domain.

Which are the properties we expect of functions!

> **Example.**
>
> Let $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, with $R_f = \{(x, x^3) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$. We write $f(a)$ for the value b where $(a, b) \in R_f$.

Given a function $f : A \to B$. We say that

- A is the *domain*.

- B is the *codomain*.

- The *range* is a *subset* of the codomain, only where f outputs values.

The $+$ operation is a function $+ : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, also written as $(a, b) \mapsto a + b$. The multiplication operation $\times : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, also written as $(a, b) \to ab$. These are binary operations, very useful in Group Theory.

> **Definition.**
>
> A **binary operation** on a set A is a function $f : A \times A \to A$. Its an operation on two inputs that outputs one thing.

> **Note.**
>
> A dot product does not count here! Because the output of the dot product does not come from the same set as the input.

To do more complicated things in real life (such as $a + b + c$), we must parenthesize.

$$f(a, f(b, c)) \text{ or } f(f(a, b), c)$$

Of course this doesn't matter for addition in particular, but it might for other binary operators!

Example.

Fix $n \geq 2$ and consider $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \ldots, \overline{n-1}\}$ (Note that this is a set of sets!)

We want to come up with binary operations on this set. We have

1. Addition: $+ : \mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_n \to \mathbb{Z}_n$, defined as $(\bar{a}, \bar{b}) \mapsto \overline{a+b}$.

   But this isn't well-defined! For instance, what happens if $a+b$ exceeds n? To fix this, let's add the following condition:

   Let $\bar{x} = \bar{y}$ if x, y are in the same subset of partitions. (i.e. They have the same remainder mod n.)

   Question: Is this a well-defined binary operations?

   Answer: Yes! But we must check that it doesn't matter how we define our inputs.

2. Multiplication: $\times : \mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_n \to \mathbb{Z}_n$, defined as $(\bar{a}, \bar{b}) \mapsto \overline{ab}$

Note.

We also write $x \equiv y \pmod{n}$ if $\bar{x} = \bar{y}$.

Now we're ready to jump in.

2 Properties of Operations on R

Let's look at the properties of $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ and $(\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \times)$.

$(\mathbb{R}, +)$

1. **Associativity**: $a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c$

2. **Identity**: $a + 0 = a$

3. **Inverses**: $a + (-a) = (-a) + a = 0$

4. **Commutativity**: $a + b = b + a$

$(\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \times)$

1. **Associativity**: $a \times (b \times c) = (a \times b) \times c$

2. **Identity**: $a \times 1 = a$.

3. **Inverses**: $a \times (1/a) = (1/a) \times a = 1$

4. **Commutativity**: $a \times b = b \times a$

Definition.

We say that a binary operation $p : A \times A \to A$ is **associative** if

$$p(a, p(b, c)) = p(p(a, b), c)$$

for any $a, b, c \in A$. In other words, how we parenthesize doesn't matter.

Definition.

We say that a binary operation $p : A \times A \to A$ has an **identity** if

$$p(a, e) = p(e, a) = a$$

for any $a \in A$.

> **Definition**.
>
> We say that a binary operation $p : A \times A \to A$ has a **inverses** if
>
> 1. It has an identity element e (otherwise identity is meaningless!)
>
> 2.
> $$p(a, b) = p(b, a) = e$$
>
> for any $a \in A$ and some $b \in A$.
>
> We usually write b as a^{-1}.

> **Definition**.
>
> We say that a binary operation $p : A \times A \to A$ is **commutative** if
>
> $$p(a, b) = p(b, a)$$
>
> for any $a, b \in A$.

Let's look at properties of $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$ and $(\mathbb{Z}_n, \times)$.

$(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$

1. Is Associative.

2. Has an identity: 0.

3. Has an inverse: $\overline{(-a)}$ for any $\bar{a}$.

4. Is Commutative: We can move elements around.

$(\mathbb{Z}_n, \times)$

1. Is Associative

2. Has an identity: 1.

3. **Does not** have an inverse! Because $\bar{0}$ is still there, we have no inverse.

4. Is Commutative: We can move elements around. In this case, $\bar{a}\bar{b} = \overline{ab} = \overline{ba} = \bar{b}\bar{a}$.

Question: If we instead looked at $(\mathbb{Z}_n \setminus \{0\}, \times)$, would there be inverses?

Answer: We've messed the whole thing up! This is not even an binary operation anymore. Since we don't have $\bar{0}$, what does $\bar{2} + \bar{2}$ even mean now, if $n = 4$?

We'll study this more in about a week.

Let's look at matrices. $A = \mathrm{Mat}_n(\mathbb{R})$ be the set of $n \times n$ matrices with real elements, with the binary operation being matrix multiplication. Let's look at its properties.

1. Its associative.

2. It has an identity.

3. It **does not** have an inverse.

4. It **is not** commutative.

Now looking at $A = \text{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ be the set of $n \times n$ invertible matrices with real entries.

1. Its associative.

2. It has an identity.

3. It **does** have an inverses.

4. It **is not** commutative.

Proposition

If $p : A \times A \to A$ is a binary operation with two identities e, f, then $e = f$.

Proof

$e = p(e, f) = f$, so $e = f$.

Proposition

If we have two inverses, then they are the same. More formally: if $p(a, b) = p(b, a) = e$, and $p(a, c) = p(c, a) = e$, then $b = c$

Proof

$p(c, p(a, b)) = p(c, e) = c$, but we could have also done $p(p(c, a), b) = p(e, b) = b$, so $b = c$.

Mon. 29 Jan 2024

Note.

Homework 1 is due this Thursday at 11:59PM, on Gradescope. Because this is the first homework, Gradescope will allow late submissions but just submit it on time.

Last time, we talked about binary operations and their properties. Now, we are going to put everything together and talk about Groups!

3 Groups

Definition.

A **Group** is a set G with a binary operation $p : G \times G \to G$ that

1. Is *Associative*.

2. Has an *Identity*.

3. Has *Inverses*.

Note that it does **not** have commutatitivity. We'll talk about that later.

Notation-wise, we write (G, p), or just G if the binary operations is understood. Additionally, we often write the operation as $a \cdot b$, $a + b$, or ab instead of $p(a, b)$.

Definition.

A Group is **Abelian** if the operation is also *commutative*.

Note.

Sometimes, we say that a group is *closed* under its operation. However we don't need this because a binary operation, by definition, is necessarily closed.

Let's look at some examples.

Example.

These groups are **Abelian**:

1. $(\mathbb{R}, +)$
2. $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$
3. $(\mathbb{C}, +)$
4. $(\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \times)$

These groups are **Non-Abelian**:

1. $(\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R}), \times)$. Recall that this is the set of *non-invertible* $n \times n$ matrices with real entries.
2. $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$. Recall that this was the set of classes of partitions modulo n.

These are **not Groups**:

1. $(\mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}, +)$, has no inverses.
2. $\mathrm{Mat}_n(\mathbb{R}), \times)$, has no inverses.

Definition.

The **Order** of a group, is the *cardinality* of the set G, denoted $|G|$.

3.1 Cancellation Law

In a group G, if $ab = ac$, then $b = c$.

Proof

Since G has inverses, there is an element $a^{-1} \in G$ such that $aa^{-1} = e$. So,

$$
\begin{aligned}
ab &= ac \\
a^{-1}(ab) &= a^{-1}(ac) \\
(a^{-1}a)b &= (a^{-1}a)c \\
b &= c \qquad\qquad \text{Defn of Identity}
\end{aligned}
$$

Let's look at some more examples.

3.2 Groups of Matrices

Example.

From the groups of matrices, we can also talk about

- $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$

- $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{C})$
- $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{Q})$

Which are all groups.

Question: Is $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{N})$ a group? What about $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{Z})$?

Recall that GL stands for *general linear*. There is also the *special linear* group SL. This is the set of general linear matrices with determinant 1. Let's look at some examples

Example.

1. $\mathrm{SL} = \{A \in \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R}) \mid \det(A) = 1\}$

    Recall that $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$, so this is closed.

3.3 Symmetric Groups

Definition.

Given the set $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$, the group of *permutations* of this set is the **symmetric group** S_n, where the binary operation is *function composition*.

A **permutation** is a bijection $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\} \to \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$. A permutation can be described by a list.

Example.

If $n = 3$, we have the permutations

$$\{123, 213, 132, 321, 231, 312\}$$

We say that $\sigma : \{1, 2, \ldots, n\} \to \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ takes an input from the set and defines the shuffle.

We'll talk more about Symmetric groups later in the semester.

Note.

- The Symmetric group is **Non-Abelian**.
- There are $n!$ permutations of S_n, so the order of S_n is $|S_n| = n!$
- Why the Symmetric Group is named as it is is a question for another day.

3.4 Subgroups

Definition.

A **subgroup** is a subset H of a group (G, p) such that:

1. H is closed under p.

    If $a, b \in H$, then $p(a, b) \in H$.

    Note that we *need* to explicitly state that a subgroup is closed, because p is **not** closed in H, but it *is* by virtue of the values in H. However this does not come for free from p, unlike with G like before.

2. H has inverses.

    If $a \in H$, then $a^{-1} \in H$.

Note that we also have

1. **The Identity**, by virtue of H being closed and containing inverses.

$$aa^{-1} = e$$

2. **Associativity**, because (G, p) is associative. This property is just inherited from G.

So (H, p) is a group!

As notation, we say that $H \leq G$ if H is a subgroup of G.

Example.

$$\mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbb{R}) \leq \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R}) \leq \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{C})$$

Notice the direction of "subset-ness"!

Example.

$$\{\bar{0}, \bar{2}\} \leq (\mathbb{Z}_4, +)$$

Let's check this one.

1. **Closure**:

   This is small enough that we can check them all.

   - $\bar{0} + \bar{0} = \bar{0}$
   - $\bar{0} + \bar{2} = \bar{2}$
   - $\bar{2} + \bar{0} = \bar{2}$
   - $\bar{2} + \bar{2} = \bar{4} = \bar{0}$

   Note that we didn't really need to check the middle two, since the group is Abelian, and that property is inherited.

2. **Inverses**

   - $\bar{0} + \bar{0} = \bar{0}$
   - $\bar{2} + \bar{2} = \bar{0}$

So we have a subgroup!

Example.

If G is a group and $a \in G$ is an element, then

$$H = \{\ldots, a^{-3}, a^{-2}, a^{-1}, e, a^1, a^2, a^3, \ldots\}$$

is a subgroup.

As a note

- $a^{-3} = a^{-1}a^{-1}a^{-1}$

- $a^2 = aa$

Furthermore, sometimes, $a^n = e$ for some finite n. The smallest such n is called the **order** of a.

Example.

The order of $\bar{2} \in \mathbb{Z}_4$ is 2.

Definition.

We say that a subgroup $H \leq G$ is called **trivial** if $|H| = 1$. Or,

$$H = \{e\}$$

This is a subgroup of *every group*.

Note.

$G \leq G$ for all groups G. In other words, a group is always a subgroup of itself.

We can say that $H < G$ is a **proper** subgroup if $H \leq G$ but $H \neq G$ and, additionally for this class, H is non-trivial.

Wed. 31 Jan 2024

Today we are going to talk about subgroups of $\mathbb{Z}$ under addition. We want to understand *all* those subgroups. Both the techniques and the results will be useful beyond just this set of groups.

Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, and let $a\mathbb{Z} = \{ax \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ be all the multiples of a (with $0\mathbb{Z} = \{0\}$.)

Claim.

$a\mathbb{Z}$ is a subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}$.

Proof.

We need check two properties.

1. **Closure**: Given $ax, ay \in a\mathbb{Z}$, $ax + ay = a(x + y) \in a\mathbb{Z}$.

2. **Inverses**: Given $ax \in a\mathbb{Z}$, $a(-x) \in a\mathbb{Z}$, and $ax + a(-x) = ax - ax = 0 \in a\mathbb{Z}$.

Note.

This is how you should prove your questions relating to subgroups on the homework.

Claim.

If $H \leq \mathbb{Z}$ is a subgroup, then $H = a\mathbb{Z}$ for some $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. In other words, this is it! This is *all* the subgroups.

Proof.

If $H \leq \mathbb{Z}$, then $0 \in H$. If $H = \{0\}$; then $H = 0\mathbb{Z}$ is the trivial subgroup. Otherwise, H contains non-zero integers. Since H contains inverses, it contains positive integers. Let a be the smallest positive integer in H. We want to show that $H = a\mathbb{Z}$.

Given $ax \in a\mathbb{Z}$, we can express ax as follows

$$ax = \begin{cases} a + \cdots + a & x > 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \\ (-a) + \cdots + (-a) & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

In all such cases, H is closed and has inverses/identity, so $ax \in H$ and thus $a\mathbb{Z} \subseteq H$.

The harder way is going backwards.

Given $h \in H$, and assume $|h| > a$ (We can do this because a is the smallest positive integer in H.) Write

$$h = ax + r$$

Where $0 \leq r < a$. We know that $h \in H$, and $ax \in H$, so

$$r = h - ax \in H$$

Because r is a combination of two elements in the subgroup! But recall that r is between 0 and a. But we said before that a is the smallest positive integer in H, so r *must* be zero! In other words $h = ax$ and $h \in a\mathbb{Z}$. Which proves that $H \subseteq a\mathbb{Z}$.

So $H = a\mathbb{Z}$.

> **Note**.
>
> This proof is very important and the techniques in it come back! Be sure you understand what's going on.

This is great! We've now categorized every subgroup of the Integers under addition!

Now, given $a\mathbb{Z}$, $b\mathbb{Z}$, form

$$a\mathbb{Z} + b\mathbb{Z} = \{ax + by \mid x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

This is a subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}$. In fact,

Theorem

> **Definition**.
>
> If $a, b \neq 0$, then d is the **greatest common divisor** (gcd), of a and b,
>
> $$d = \gcd(a, b)$$

If $a, b = 0$, $d = \gcd(a, b)$, then

1. d divides a and b, notated as $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$.

   Proof.

   $a \cdot 1 + b \cdot 0 = a \in d\mathbb{Z}$, so $d \mid a$. Similarly for b, $a \cdot 0 + b \cdot 1 = b \in d\mathbb{Z}$ so $d \mid b$.

2. if $e \mid a$ and $e \mid b$, then $e \mid d$

   Proof

   If $e \mid a$ $e \mid b$, then $e \mid (ax + by) = d$.

3. $\exists x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $d = ax + by$

   Proof.

   $d \in a\mathbb{Z} + b\mathbb{Z}$, so $d = ax + by$, for some $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Fact.

d is the smallest positive value of $|ax + by|$.

This is useful, because if $ax + by = 1$ for some x, y, then $\gcd(a, b) = 1$.

Definition.

$a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ are **relatively prime** if $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ and

$$\gcd(a, b) = 1 \Leftrightarrow ax + by = 1$$

for some $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proposition.

Let p be a prime. If $p \mid ab$, then $p \mid a$ or $p \mid b$.

Proof.

Assume that p is a prime, and $p \mid ab$, but $p \nmid a$.

We will show that $p \mid b$.

The factors of p are 1 and p, and $p \nmid a$, so $\gcd(p, a) = 1$ (since the gcd is either 1 or p, but if it was p, then p would divide a.)

So there must exist $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $px + ay = 1$. Multiplying by b, we have $pxb + aby = b$. Now of course, $p \mid pxb$ and, more importantly, $p \mid aby$ since a is a multiple of p so

$$p \mid (pxb + aby) = b$$

So $p \mid b$.

Similarly.

$a\mathbb{Z} \cap b\mathbb{Z}$ is also a subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}$, say $m\mathbb{Z}$ and $m = \mathrm{lcm}(a, b)$, the least common multiple of a and b: The smallest number which is both a multiple of a and b.

The Euclidean Algorithm. *To find the* gcd

To understand this, let's look at an

Example.

Suppose we want to find the $\gcd(210, 45)$. Write $210 = 45 \cdot 4 + 30$. If $x \mid 210$ and $x \mid 45$, then $x \mid 30$. Now $x \mid 30$ and $x \mid 45$ implies that $x \mid 210$.

Hence $\gcd(210, 45) = \gcd(45, 30)$.

We can do this trick again!

$45 = 30 \cdot 1 + 15$, so $\gcd(45, 30) = \gcd(30, 15) = 15$. So $\gcd(210, 45) = 15$.

Cyclic Subgroups.

G is a group, and $a \in G$. The set

$$\langle a \rangle = \{\ldots, a^{-3}, a^{-2}, a^{-1}, e, a, a^2, a^3, \ldots\}$$

is called the **cyclic subgroup generated by** a.

Note.

$\langle a \rangle$ is the smallest subgroup of G that contains all these powers of a.

$|\langle a \rangle| = |a|$, the smallest positive n such that $a^n = e$, or ∞.

Fri. 2 Feb 2024

4 Cyclic Groups and Subgroups

We're going to repeat a little bit from last class, just to make sure we're on the same page.

Definition.

If G is a group and $a \in G$, the set

$$\langle a \rangle = \{\ldots, a^{-3}, a^{-2}, a^{-1}, e, a, a^2, a^3, \ldots\}$$

Is the cyclic subgroup generated by a.

If $G = \langle a \rangle$ for some $a \in G$, we say G is a **cyclic group**.

Example.

$G = \mathbb{Z}$, $a = 2$, We have that

$$\langle 2 \rangle = \{\ldots, -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, \ldots\}$$

In general, $\langle a \rangle = a\mathbb{Z}$, and $\langle 1 \rangle = \mathbb{Z}$, so $\mathbb{Z}$ is a cyclic group.

Note.

$\langle a \rangle$ is the smallest subgroup of G containing a.

Recall: Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be the smallest number such that $a^n = e$ (or ∞ if $a^n \neq e$ for all n) we say that n is the order of a, or $|a| = n$.

Proposition

Let $|a| = n < \infty$. Then

1. $a^l = a^m$ if and only if $l - m \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$.

2. $\langle a \rangle = \{e, a, a^2, \ldots, a^{n-1}\}$, and $|\langle a \rangle| = n$.

Proof

1. If $a^l = a^m$, then $a^l a^{-m} = e$ and so $a^{l-m} = e$. Assume that $l - m \le 0$.

   If $l - m \not\equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ then $l - m > n$, because n is minimal. Then $l - m = nk + r$, and $r \in \{0, 1, \ldots, n-1\}$.

   So

   $$a^r = a^{(l-m)-nk} = \underbrace{a^{l-m}}_{e} \underbrace{(a^n)^{-k}}_{e}$$

   But $r < n$ so in fact $r = 0$. This contradicts $l - m \not\equiv 0 \pmod{n}$, hence $l - m \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$.

2. If $l \in \mathbb{Z}$, write $l = nk + r$, $r \in \{0, 1, \ldots, n-1\}$, then $a^l = a^{nk+r} = (a^n)^k a^r = e^k a^r = a^r$. So

   $$\langle a \rangle = \{e, a, \ldots, a^{n-1}\}$$

   If $a^l = a^m$ for $l, m \in \{0, 1, \ldots, n-1\}$, then $l - m \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$. This only happens for $l = m$, so $|\langle a \rangle| = n$.

This answers the question to the overloading of the word "order" from before. The *order* of an element is in fact the order of the cyclic subgroup that it generates!

Example.

If $|a| = n$, then

$$|a^l| = \frac{n}{\gcd(n, l)}$$

This is a good exercise for understanding subgroups. If you understand why it's true, you're in good shape.

Definition.

An **infinite cyclic group** is a cyclic group $\langle a \rangle$ where $|a| = \infty$.

For example, $\mathbb{Z}$.

Finite cyclic groups, for example $\mathbb{Z}_n = \langle \bar{1} \rangle$

Example.

If $G = \mathrm{GL}_2(\mathbb{R})$, then

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Has infinite order. Raising it to a power keeps generating larger and larger matrices.

However other matrices have finite order. For example, rotation matrices! In fact, it's possible to generate a rotation matrix of any order!

$$B_n = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(2\pi/n) & -\sin(2\pi/n) \\ \sin(2\pi/n) & \cos(2\pi/n) \end{bmatrix}$$

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| Has order n. It's a rotation matrix!

4.1   Homomorphisms

So far we've been studying groups in isolation, but we may want to make general statements about the relation between different groups.

We want function between groups that "respect" the group operation.

Definition.

Given groups (G, p) and (G', p'). A **Homomorphism** $\varphi : G \to G'$ is a function such that

$$\varphi(p(a, b)) = p'(\varphi(a), \varphi(b))$$

It doesn't matter if we combine elements before or after the binary operations.

Suppressing p and p', we can write $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b)$.

Alternatively, we have the following diagram

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
G \times G & \xrightarrow{\quad p \quad} & G \\
\downarrow{\scriptstyle \varphi \times \varphi} & & \downarrow{\scriptstyle \varphi} \\
G' \times G' & \xrightarrow{\quad p' \quad} & G'
\end{array}
$$

Example.

We can express the determinant function as

$$\det : \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R}) \to (\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \times)$$

Or

$$A \to \det(A)$$

And we can check that $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$

Similarly

Example.

Consider the function $\exp : (\mathbb{R}, +) \to (\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \times)$

Or

$$x \to e^x$$

And we can check that $\exp(x + y) = e^x e^y = \exp(x)\exp(y)$

A more general

Example.

Given a group G, $a \in G$, we have

$$\varphi : (\mathbb{Z}, +) \to G$$

or

$$n \to a^n$$

If $|a| = n$, then $\varphi(\mathbb{Z}_n, +) \to G$, or $\bar{i} \to a^i$.

Example.

The **trivial homomorphism** $\varphi : G \to G'$ can be defined as $a \to e$ for all $a \in G$.

Note.

The difference between an *Isomorphism* and a *Homomorphism* is **not** necessarily a bijection.

Proposition

If $\varphi : G \to G'$ is a homomorphism, then

1. $\varphi(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = \varphi(\alpha_1) \cdots \varphi(a_n)$
2. $\varphi(e_G) = e_{G'}$
3. $\varphi(a^{-1}) = \varphi(a)^{-1}$

It's important to note that these aren't by definition, but *derived* from the definition.

Proof.

1. This one is by induction, we won't prove it.
2. $\varphi(e_G e_G) = \varphi(e_G)\varphi(e_G)$

   We can can "cancel" $\varphi(e_G)$ from both sides and get

$$e_{G'} = \varphi(e_G)$$

3. $e_{G'} = \varphi(e_G) = \varphi(aa^{-1}) = \varphi(a)\varphi(a^{-1})$ so $\varphi(a)\varphi(a^{-1}) = e_{G'}$ and so $\varphi(a^{-1}) = \varphi(a)^{-1}$

Mon. 5 Feb 2024

Recall: A **Homomorphism** is a function $\varphi : G \to G'$ satisfying $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b)$.

When we talk about functions, we like to talk about the *image* of that function.

Definition.

The **image** (or **range**) of φ is $\varphi(G) = \{\varphi(a) \mid a \in G\}$ is the set of all outputs of φ on its domain.

Definition.

The **Kernel** of φ is $\ker(\varphi) = \{a \in G \mid \varphi(a) = e_{G'}\}$.

A vector space under addition is actually a group!

Proposition

1. $\varphi(G)$ is a subgroup of G'. The image is a subgroup of the codomain.

   Closure

   If $\varphi(a), \varphi(b) \in \varphi(G)$, then $\varphi(a)\varphi(b) = \varphi(ab)$ since φ is a Homomorphism. But notice that $\varphi(ab) \in \varphi(G)$, so we have closure.

   Inverses

   If $\varphi(a) \in \varphi(G)$, then $\varphi(a)^{-1} = \varphi(a^{-1}) \in \varphi(G)$, so it's a subgroup.

2. $\ker(G)$ is a subgroup of G. The kernel is a subgroup of the domain.

   Closure

   If $a, b \in \ker(\varphi)$, $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b) = e \cdot e = e$, so $\varphi(ab) \in \ker(\varphi)$.

   Inverses

   If $a \in \ker(\varphi)$, then $\varphi(a^{-1}) = \varphi(a)^{-1} = e^{-1} = e$, so $a^{-1} \in \ker(\varphi)$.

Let's look at an

Example.

Consider the determinant function $\det : \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R}) \to (\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \times)$, $A \to \det(A)$

Here, the determinant is onto, so $\det(\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})) = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$. Additionally,

$$\ker(\det) = \{A \in \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R}) \min \det(A) = 1\} = \mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbb{R})$$

To prove that something is a subgroup, it's often useful to find a homomorphism whose kernel (or image) is a subgroup.

Consider the following

Example.

$\exp(\mathbb{R}, +) \to (\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \times)$ is a homomorphism, $x \to e^x$.

$\exp(\mathbb{R}) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x > 0\}$, and $\ker(\exp) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid \exp(x) = 1\} = \{0\}$.

Proposition:

$\varphi : G \to G'$ is one to one if and only if $\ker(\varphi) = \{e\}$.

Proof:

($\Rightarrow$): $\varphi(e) = e$, so $e \in \ker(\varphi)$.

If $a \neq e$ and $a \in \ker(\varphi)$, then $\varphi(a) = \varphi(e) = e$ so φ is not injective, and we have a contradiction. Thus $\ker(\varphi) = \{e\}$.

($\Leftarrow$): If $\varphi(a) = \varphi(b)$, then $\varphi(a)\varphi(b)^{-1} = e$, but then $\varphi(a)\varphi(b^{-1}) = \varphi(ab^{-1}) = e$ but since only $\varphi(e) = e$, this means $ab^{-1} = e$ and so $a = b$ and so φ is injective.

4.2   Isomorphisms

Definition.

An **Isomorphism** $\varphi : G \to G'$ is a bijective homomorphism.

Note.

To check that something is an Isomorphism, you need to check two things:

1. It's a Homomorphism

2. It's a Bijection.

   Note that if the function sets are finite, you only need to prove either one to one-ness or onto-ness and the other should follow. Think about why!

4.2.1   Examples

Some examples include:

- $\exp : (\mathbb{R}, \times) \to (\mathbb{R}_{>0}, \times)$

- $\varphi' : (\mathbb{Z}, +) \to \langle a \rangle \leq G$ is an isomorphism **if and only if** $|a| = \infty$.

  This should make sense, as we never get the identity by a non-zero power of a.

- Given any $A \in \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$, the linear map $f_A : (\mathbb{R}^n, +) \to (\mathbb{R}^n, +)$ that sends $\bar{x} \to A\bar{x}$ is an isomorphism.

- If $a \in G$, the map $\varphi_a : G \to G$ that sends $b \to aba^{-1}$ is an isomorphism, called **conjugation by** a

  Check:

  1. **Homomorphism**

$$\begin{aligned}
\varphi(bc) = a(bc)a^{-1} &= abeca^{-1} \\
&= (aba^{-1})(aca^{-1}) \\
&= \varphi_a(b)\varphi_a(c)
\end{aligned}$$

  2. **One to One**:

     If $\varphi_a(b) = e$, then $aba^{-1} = e$, then $a^{-1}aba^{-1}a = a^{-1}a$, and so $b = e$, so φ_a is injective.

  3. **Onto**: If $c \in G$, we want $b \in G$ such that $\varphi_a(b) = c$, i.e. $aba^{-1} = c$.

     So choose $b = a^{-1}ca$, then $\varphi_a(b) = aba^{-1} = a(a^{-1}ca)a^{-1} = c$, so φ_a is surjective.

Proposition: If $\varphi : G \to G'$ is an isomorphism, then $\varphi^{-1} : G' \to G$ is also an isomorphism.

Proof:

Since isomorphisms are bijections, it suffices to show that φ^{-1} is a homomorphism.

If $x, y \in G'$, we want to show that $\varphi^{-1}(xy) = \varphi^{-1}(x)\varphi^{-1}(y)$.

Say $\varphi^{-1}(x) = a$, $\varphi^{-1}(y) = b$, and $\varphi^{-1}(ab) = c$. Then we want to show that $ab = c$.

Then $ab = c$ if and only if $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(c)$ (since φ is bijective, in fact injectivity is sufficient for this.)

But then this is true if and only if $\varphi(a)\varphi(b) = \varphi(c)$, if and only if $\varphi(\varphi^{-1}(x))\varphi(\varphi^{-1}(y)) = \varphi(\varphi^{-1}(xy))$, if and only if $xy = xy$. Thus $ab = c$ and φ^{-1} is a homomorphism.

$$\begin{aligned} ab = c &\Leftrightarrow \varphi(ab) = \varphi(c) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \varphi(a)\varphi(b) = \varphi(c) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \varphi(\varphi^{-1}(x))\varphi(\varphi^{-1}(y)) = \varphi(\varphi^{-1}(xy)) \\ &\Leftrightarrow xy = xy \end{aligned}$$

Definition.

G and G' are **isomorphic** if there exists an isomorphism $\varphi : G \to G'$.

Note again that since isomorphisms are bijective, this means that the isomorphism goes both ways.

We write $G \cong G'$ or $G \simeq G'$, but mostly the former.

Note.

The goal of this class is to give a good classification to a lot of groups. Note that it's not really possible to completely do this, even for groups of a given order, because we have infinitely many possible groups of order one, but that's okay because there's an isomorphism between.

We say that we care about these groups *up to isomorphism*.

What this means is that if we have two groups that are isomorphic, we're going to treat them as the same. When classifying or counting, we can count G and G' are one if $G \cong G'$.

Exercise. There is only one group of order one up to isomorphism.

So if $|G| = |G^{-1}| = 1$, then $G \cong G'$.

Next week we'll talk about specific types of groups and take a break from the theory.

<u>**Wed 07 Feb 2024**</u>

5 Important Groups

5.1 Groups mod n

$$\mathbb{Z}_n = \{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \ldots, \overline{n-1}\}$$

Under $+$.

These are all cyclic, and in fact $\mathbb{Z}_n = \langle \bar{1} \rangle$.

Theorem:

Any cyclic (sub)group is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}$ or $\mathbb{Z}_n$, for $n \geq 2$.

Proof Idea:

Write $f : \mathbb{Z}$ or $\mathbb{Z}$ to $\langle a \rangle$ which takes k or $\bar{k}$ to a^k.

Chose $n = |a|$ or $\mathbb{Z}$ if $|a| = \infty$.

We know that subgroups of cyclic groups are cyclic (from Homework 1.) So any subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}_n$ is $H = \langle \bar{m} \rangle$ for some $\bar{m}$.

> **Example**.
>
> If $f | n$, then there exists some subgroup $H \leq \mathbb{Z}_n$ with $|H| = f$.

5.2   Multiplicative Groups

In what context can we define a group under multiplication for subsets of the integer $\pmod{n}$?

If $\bar{a}$ is multiplicatively invertible $\pmod{n}$, then there exists a $\bar{n} \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ with $\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} = \bar{1}$.

We know that $(\mathbb{Z}_4, \times)$, for example, is not a group. So when *is it* a group?

We know that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} = \bar{1} &\Leftrightarrow ab \equiv 1 \pmod{n} \\
&\Leftrightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } ab = 1 + nk \\
&\Leftrightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ with } ab + n(-k) = 1 \\
&\Leftrightarrow \gcd(a, n) = 1
\end{aligned}
$$

Let's define $\mathbb{Z}_n^\times = \{\bar{a} \in \mathbb{Z}_n \setminus \{\bar{0}\} \mid \gcd(a, n) = 1\}$

Theorem:

$(\mathbb{Z}_n^\times, \times)$ is a group.

Proof: Omitted.

> **Example**.
>
> $\mathbb{Z}_4^\times = \{\bar{1}, \bar{3}\}$, and looking at the multiplication table
>
> - $\bar{1} \cdot \bar{1} = \bar{1}$
> - $\bar{1} \cdot \bar{3} = \bar{3}$
> - $\bar{3} \cdot \bar{1} = \bar{3}$
> - $\bar{3} \cdot \bar{3} = \bar{1}$
>
> And in fact, we see that $\mathbb{Z}_4^\times \cong (\mathbb{Z}_2, +)$, Where φ takes $\bar{1}$ to $\bar{0}$, and $\bar{3}$ to $\bar{1}$.

> **Example**.
>
> Let's look at $\mathbb{Z}_8^\times = \{\bar{1}, \bar{3}, \bar{5}, \bar{7}\}$.
>
> In $\mathbb{Z}_8^\times$, every element $\bar{a}$ satisfies $\bar{a}^2 = \bar{1}$, so $\mathbb{Z}_8^\times \cong \mathbb{Z}_4$, because in $\mathbb{Z}_4$, $\bar{1} + \bar{1} \neq \bar{0}$ and $\bar{3} + \bar{3} = \bar{0}$.
>
> So they are not isomorphic. If there were, say f, it would be surjective, we could pick $\bar{a} \in \mathbb{Z}_8^\times$ with $f(\bar{a}) = \bar{1}$, then $f(\bar{a} \cdot \bar{a}) = f(\bar{a}) + f(\bar{a})$ but this can't be the case.

Corollary: $\mathbb{Z}_n^\times = \mathbb{Z}_n \setminus \{0\}$ if and only if n is prime.

So $\mathbb{Z}_p^\times = \{\bar{1}, \ldots, \overline{p-1}\}$ is a group under $\times$ when p is prime.

> **Note**.
>
> These are **not** subgroups of Z_n, they have a *different* binary operation! These groups are under multiplication while $\mathbb{Z}_n$ is under addition.

5.3   Symmetric Groups

Recall the definition of S_n

$$S_n = \{ \text{ all permutations of } \{1, \ldots, n\}\}$$
$$= \{ \text{ all bijections } \{1, \ldots, n\} \to \{1, \ldots, n\}\}$$

Furthermore, recall that $S_n = n!$.

> **Example**.
>
> Consider S_4, we say that $\sigma \in S_4$ is a function $\sigma : \{1, 2, 3, 4\} \to \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ with
>
> - $1 \mapsto 2$
> - $2 \mapsto 4$
> - $3 \mapsto 3$
> - $4 \mapsto 1$

This is really cumbersome to write so instead, we write

TODO Oh my god I can't tex this. See picture

Or,

$$\sigma = (124)(3) = (241)(3) = (3)(412)$$

Because 1, 2, 4 forms a cycle, and 3 is a self loop. And this uniquely describes the picture! Although this notation is compact, it's not unique. This is known as *cycle notation*.

If the group S_4 is understood, we can write $(124)(3)$ as 124. We have a tendency to just leave off the 1-cycles.

> **Example**.
>
> Let's do some multiplication.
>
> $\sigma^2 = (124)(124)$. To do this, we first draw the picture.
>
> **TODO**
>
> And to do σ^2, we follow the arrows twice (we do σ twice!)
>
> So $\sigma^2 = (142)$.

> **Example**.
>
> Let $\sigma = (124)$, and $\tau = (12)(34)$, what is $\tau\sigma$?
>
> Again, we can draw the graphs.
>
> **TODO**

Note that order matters here! It may not always be the case that $\sigma\tau$ equals $\tau\sigma$.

So $\tau\sigma = (12)(34)(124) = (234)$.

QUESTION How would I simplify $(123)(136)$?

Note.

It should make sense that $(123) = (12)(23)$, and more generally,

$$(a_1 a_2 \cdots a_k) = (a_1 a_2)(a_2 a_3) \cdots (a_{k-1} a_k)$$

A 2-cycle (a, b) is called a **transposition**. Every $\sigma \in S_n$ can be written as a product of transpositions.

Definition.

$\sigma \in S$ is **even** if it's the product of an even number of transpositions.

$\sigma \in S_n$ is **odd** if it's the product of an odd number of transpositions.

Proposition:

No $\sigma \in S_n$ is both even and odd.

Proof

(My idea here is that you can probably represent the permutation as a graph and color the vertices and make some statement about where it takes you or something like that.)

Next time!

What we get out of this is a map sgn $: S_n \to (\{\pm 1, \times\})$ with

$$\sigma \to \begin{cases} 1 & \sigma \text{ even} \\ -1 & \sigma \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

Claim: sgn is a homomorphism called the *signature* homomorphism.

Fri. 9 Feb 2024

Today we keep talking about the symmetric group and introduce the *Dyhedral Group!*

Recall: Last time, we defined S_n is the symmetric group of permutations. We talked about transpositions, $(ab) \in S_n$ for $a \neq b$ every element $\sigma \in S_n$ can be written as a product of transpositions

Example.

We said that $(1234) = (12)(23)(34)$.

TODO More graphs here. Explain how this works.

Recall: Last time, we said that $\sigma \in S_n$ is **even** if it can be written as product of an even number of transpositions, or $\sigma \in S_n$ is **odd** otherwise. We also claimed that it couldn't be both.

We can consider the following table

	σ even	σ odd
τ even	even	odd
τ odd	odd	even

Hence $\mathrm{sgn} : S_n \to (\{\pm 1\}, \times)$ defined as

$$\mathrm{sgn}(\sigma) = \begin{cases} 1 & \sigma \text{ even} \\ -1 & \sigma \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

is called the signature.

The kernel $\ker(\mathrm{sgn})$ is a subgroup of S_n called the **alternating group** A_n

$$A_n = \{\sigma \in S_n \mid \sigma \text{ even}\}$$

QUESTION Why is it that $\ker(\mathrm{sgn}) = A_n$? I thought that A_n was the subset of S_n for which the permutation was even? Also, isn't the kernel of a function just the subset of the function that maps to the identity? even permutations don't map to the identity, what's going on with that?

Let's look at an

Example.

$S_4 = \{e, (12), (13), (14), (23), (24), (34), (123), (132), (124), (142), (134), (143), (234), (243), (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(...$

and

$$A_4 = \{e, (123), (132), (124), (142), (134), (143), (234), (243), (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23), \}$$

Fact: $|S_n| = n!$ so $|A_n| = n!/2$.

Let's talk about order of elements.

Suppose we have a cycle $(12 \ldots k)$. What's the order of this cycle?

Since $\sigma^j(1) = j$, so if we want $\sigma^j(1) = 1$ with $j < k$, we need $j = k$. And moreover, $\sigma^k(i) = i$ which means that $\sigma^k = e$.

If σ has cycle notation, that is the product of a k-1 cycle, a k-2 cycle... Then

$$|\sigma| = \mathrm{lcm}(k_1, k_2, \ldots)$$
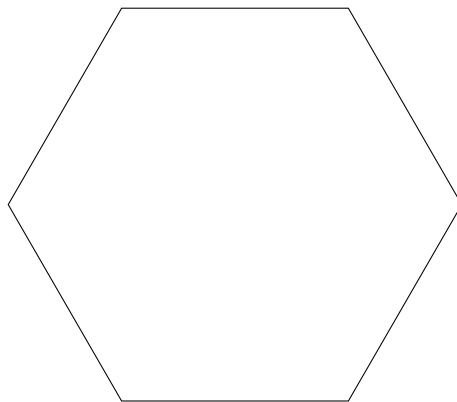
Let's look at some

Example.

- $|(12)(345)| = \mathrm{lcm}(2,3) = 6$
- $|(12)(34)| = \mathrm{lcm}(2,2) = 2$
- $|(12)(23)(34)| = |(1234)| = 4$

  This looks like a bunch of 2-cycles, but it's actually a 4-cycle. Be sure to use cycle notation to figure this out!
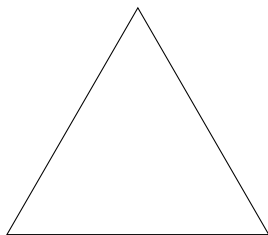
6 Symmetry Groups

Consider a regular polygon

TODO This looks so bad

We call this D_{2n}, the group of symmetries of a regular n-gon, also known as the **Dyhedral Group** of order $2n$.

We have that D_n is generated by 2 elements, ρ, its rotations, and μ, its reflections. Furthermore, $\rho^n = e$, $\mu^2 = e$, and $(\mu\rho)^2 = e$. We say that $D_n = \langle \rho, \mu \rangle$.

Example.

$D_6 = \{e, y, y^2, x, yx, y^2x\}$ is the symmetries of a triangle.

To keep track of what's going on, put names on your vertices.

There are only 6 possible symmetries of this group. Symmetries are determined by where the labels on the vertices go.

Consider an n-gon and take A_1, any vertex of this n-gon. You can take A_1 to any of n vertices, then chose whether to put A_2 (a neighbor of A_1) clockwise or counter-clockwise of A_1. Then, everything else is determined!

Note.

D_{2n} is **not** Abelian. Simply convince yourself that rotate then reflect is *different* from reflect, then rotate. If you're not convinced, draw it!

Example.

In D_{2n}, if x is a reflection, y is not counter-clockwise by $2\pi/n$ radians

Fact: $D_{2n} \leq S_n$ for $n \geq 3$. Since symmetry in D_{2n} is a permutation of vertex labels.

Exercise: Show that $D_6 \cong S_3$.

Definition.

If $H \leq G$, define

$$aH = \{ah \mid h \in H\} \subseteq G$$

is called a **left coset** of H, with $a \in G$ fixed.

Proposition: If we have a homomorphism $\varphi : G \to G'$, and $a, b \in G$, then if $K = \ker(\varphi)$ (which remember is a subgroup of G), then

$$\varphi(a) = \varphi(b) \Leftrightarrow a^{-1}b \in K \Leftrightarrow b \in aK \Leftrightarrow aK = bK$$

What we have is that cosets determine when elements map to the same spot under a homomorphism.

Proof:

$\varphi(a) = \varphi(b) \Leftrightarrow \varphi(a)^{-1}\varphi(b) = e \Leftrightarrow \varphi(a^{-1}b) = e \Leftrightarrow a^{-1}b \in K \Leftrightarrow a^{-1}b = k$ for some $k \in K$, which is true if and only if $b = ak$ for some $k \in K$, again if and only if $b \in aK$

$$\varphi(a) = \varphi(b)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \varphi(a)^{-1}\varphi(b) = e$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \varphi(a^{-1}b) = e$$
$$\Leftrightarrow a^{-1}b \in K$$
$$\Leftrightarrow a^{-1}b = k$$
$$\Leftrightarrow ab = k$$

TODO

Similarly, $a \in bK$.

Example.

$a \in bk$ and $b \in ak$ if and only if $aK = bK$.

In fact, for any subgroup $H \leq G$, $a^{-1}b \in H \Leftrightarrow b \in aH \Leftrightarrow aH = bH$.

So given $H \leq G$, define a relation $\sim$ no G by $a \sim b \Leftrightarrow a \in bH$. But by the above, this true if and only if $aH \Leftrightarrow bH$. Hence $\sim$ is an equivalence relation.

What we get out of this is that

1. **the cosets of H partition** G.

2. The number of cosets of H is the index of $H \in G$, written $[G : H]$, which may be ∞.

QUESTION How do we compute $[G : H]$?

Mon 12 Feb 2024

Note.

- Homework 3 is due Thursday this week

- Midterm 1 is two Fridays from today.

    Exam content will be up until Monday, and there will be a review on Wednesday.

7   Cosets

Recall: If $H \leq G$, and $a \in G$, the *left coset* $aH = \{ah \mid h \in H\}$.

Last time we saw that $a \in bH$ if and only if $b \in aH$, if and only if $aH = bH$, which gives us this equivalence relation $a \sim b \Leftrightarrow a \in bH$, which means we get a partition on the set G of this group, and it's partitioned on the cosets! So the cosets of H partition G.

Lemma: The size of any coset is the same as the original size of the subgroup for any element $a \in G$. In other words, all cosets are the same size!

Proof: We can write a map $f : H \rightarrow aH$ where $h \mapsto ah$.

Let's prove that this is bijective.

- **Injective**: If $f(h) = f(h')$, then $ah = ah'$, but then because this is a group, we can multiply by a^{-1} on both sides and so $h = h'$.

- **Surjective**: Given $ah \in aH$, then $f(h) = ah$.

So f is a bijection, so $|H| = |aH|$.

> **Note**.
>
> We only care about this when our sets are finite! In that case, injectivity and surjectivity are the same **as long as the domain and codomain are the same size!**

We finally get to one of the landmars of Group Theory, this is

8   Lagrange's Theorem

Theorem.

If $H \leq G$ and G is finite, then $|H|$ divides $|G|$.

> **Proof.**
> The cosets of H partition G, and all have the same size. Therefore
>
> $$|G| = \sum_{aH} |aH| = \sum_{[G:H]} = |H|[G : H]$$
>
> Where aH is a left coset of G.
>
> Furthermore, $|H|$ divides $|G|$ and $[G : H] = \frac{|G|}{|H|}$
>
> ■

Corollary.

If $a \in G$, then $|a|$ divides $|G|$

> Proof
>
> $|a| = |\langle a \rangle|$ and $\langle a \rangle \leq G$ so we are done by Lagrange's Theorem.
>
> ∎

> **Note**.
>
> **The converse is not necessarily true!**

Corollary.

If $|G| = p$ a prime, then G is cyclic.

> Proof
>
> Take $a \in G$, $a \neq e$, then $|a| \neq 1$ (because its not the identity.) But $|a| \mid p$, so in fact $|a| = p$. But $|G| = p$ and $\langle a \rangle \leq G$, and $\langle a \rangle = G$, so G is cyclic.
>
> In fact, every element in G which is not the identity is a generator of the group!
>
> ∎

Lemma.

If G, G' are cyclic groups of order n, then $G \cong G'$.

> **Proof.**
>
> We saw that $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_n$, and $G' \cong \mathbb{Z}_n$, and so it follows that $G \cong G'$.
>
> ∎

Corollary.

All order p groups, p a prime, are isomorphic.

> Proof
>
> Proof Omitted. It just follows from everything we've seen so far!
>
> **Up to isomorphism**, there is only one group of order p.
>
> ∎

Let's go back and talk about those left cosets.

Remark. We can also define **right cosets**

$$Ha = \{ha \mid h \in H\}$$

And in fact, everything we proved so far could have worked with right cosets too!

A priori, the partitions generated by a left and right coset might be different.

Definition.

A subgroup $H \leq G$ is a **normal subgroup** if

$$aH = Ha$$

for all $a \in G$. We write $H \trianglelefteq G$.

If $\varphi : G \to G'$ is a homomorphism, then $K = \ker(\varphi)$ is normal. The claim here is that kernels are normal subgroups.

Proof:

Given $a \in G$, $aK = \varphi^{-1}(\varphi(a)) = \{b \in G \mid \varphi(b) = \varphi(a)\}$. Since the inverse function might not exist, we're just looking for the *pre-image* here (Recall the proposition from last week.)

Note.

We could have redone this proposition with right cosets!

$$aK = Ka$$

We have lots of normal subgroups because we have lots of Homomorphisms.

Example.

- sgn $: S_n \to (\{\pm 1\}, \times)$ with

$$\sigma \mapsto \begin{cases} 1 & \sigma \text{ even} \\ -1 & \sigma \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

- $\ker(\text{sgn}) = An$ implies $An \trianglelefteq S_n$.

An alternative way to prove that $H \trianglelefteq G$:

$aH = Ha$ if and only if $aHa^{-1} = H$.

Note.

Warning:

- If $ah \in aH = Ha$, it's **not necessarily the case** that $ah = ha$.

  Remember, the sets are equal, but not necessarily the elements! Instead, $ah = h'a$ for some $h' \in H$.

- Similarly, $aha^{-1} = h^{-1}$, not necessarily h.

Normal subgroups are perfectly designed for doing algebra with cosets! $H \trianglelefteq G$, then

$$(aH)(bH) = \{(ah)(bh') \mid h, h' \in H\}$$

What is this set?, Well

$$(aH)(bH) = \{(ah)(bh') \mid h, h' \in H\}$$
$$= \{a \underbrace{(hb)}_{\in Hb = bH} h' \mid h, h' \in H\}$$
$$= \{a(bh'')h' \mid h', h'' \in H\}$$
$$= \{(ab)(h''h') \mid h', h'' \in H\}$$

As h' and h'' range over H, we get all elements of H. So this set is (ab) times all elements of H, so we have

$$(aH)(bH) = (ah)H$$

Alternatively, we may write

$$aHbH = a(Hb)H = a(bH)H$$
$$= ab(HH) = abH$$

With these cosets, we can form new groups! This multiplication of cosets is a binary operation on the set of cosets.

In order to simplify notation, let $\bar{a} = aH$, and we let

$$G/H = \{aH \mid a \in G\} = \{\bar{a} \mid a \in G\}$$

With binary operation $\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} = \overline{ab}$

Claim: G/H is a group, and furthermore, $\pi : G \to G/H$ where $a \mapsto \bar{a}$, is a group homomorphism, with $\ker(\pi) = H$.

> **Definition**.
>
> G/H is called the **quotient group** of G by H.

Proof of Claim:

- **Proof of Group**

  - **Associativity**: $(\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b}) \cdot \bar{c} = \overline{ab} \cdot \bar{c} = \overline{(ab)c}$. Since G is associative, $\overline{(ab)c} = \overline{a(bc)}$ and furthermore, $\bar{a} \cdot \overline{bc} = \bar{a}(\bar{b} \cdot \bar{c})$.

  - **Identity**: $\bar{e} = eH = H$ is the identity.

  - **Inverses**: $\overline{a^{-1}} \cdot \bar{a} = \overline{a^{-1}a} = \bar{e}$. So $\bar{a}^{-1} = \overline{a^{-1}}$.

- **Group Homomorphism**: $\pi(ab) = \overline{ab} = \bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} = \pi(a)\pi(b)$

- **Kernel**: $\pi(a) = \bar{e}$ if and only if $aH = eH = H$, if and only if $a \in eH = H$. So $H = \ker(\pi)$

Wed 14 Feb 2024

Note.

Recall: the Exam is next Friday, there are 2 practice Midterms. Not necessarily from this class, but they are the right material.

Also on there is Exam 1 material not on homework. Homework style questions on material that we didn't have a Homework on. Quotient Groups, First Isomorphism Theorem, ...

We are talking about normal subgroups and quotient groups. Let's talk about normal subgroups some more before getting into examples.

We saw that a subgroup is normal if $aH = Ha$ for all $a \in G$, $H \leq G$.

Claim: H is normal if and only if $aHa^{-1} = H$ for all $a \in G$. Why is this the same thing?

Proof

$\Rightarrow$

Assume H is normal. Let $a \in G$, then we know that $aH = Ha$ (that's what it means to be normal.) If we want to show that $aHa^{-1} = H$, we must show that these two sets are subsets of each other.

If $aha^{-a} \in aHa^{-1}$, then $ah \in aH$, but since $aH = Ha$, there exists some h' with $ah = h'a$. Hence $aha^{-a} = h'aa^{-1} = h' \in H$. So $aHa^{-1} \subseteq H$. We wanna prove the other direction now.

If $h \in H$, we want to show that $h \in aHa^{-1}$. We know that $h = haa^{-1}$, but $ha = ah'$ for some h', so $haa^{-1} = ah'a^{-1}$, so $H \subseteq aHa^{-1}$.

So $H = aHa^{-1}$.

$\Leftarrow$

Assume $aHa^{-1} = H$ for all $a \in G$. We want to show that $aH = Ha$, let $ah \in aH$, we know that $aha^{-1} \in H$, which means that there exist some element of H with $aha^{-1} = h'$, and so $ah = h'a \in Ha$. So $aH \subseteq Ha$.

The other direction works in the exact same way.

—

Example.

If $K = \ker(\varphi : G \to G')$, then $K \trianglelefteq G$, because if $aka^{-1} \in aKa^{-1}$, then

$$\varphi(aka^{-1}) = \varphi(a)\varphi(k)\varphi(a)^{-1} = e$$

So $aka^{-1} \in K$, so $aKa^{-1} \leq K$.

In fact, aKa^{-1} is the same size as K is conjugation does not change the size, so $aKa^{-1} = K$.

Now let's talk about quotient groups.

Let $G = S_n$ and $H = A_n$. We saw last time that $A_n \trianglelefteq S_n$ since $A_n = \ker(\text{sgn})$. Let's check this explicitly.

Given a permutation $\sigma \in A_n$ and $\tau \in S_n$. We want to show that $\tau\sigma\tau^{-1} \in A_n$.

Well, σ is even. If τ is odd, then so is τ^{-1} so $\tau\sigma\tau^{-1}$ is even. If τ is even, then so is τ^{-1}, so again $\tau\sigma\tau^{-1}$, so $\tau\sigma\tau^{-1} \in A_n$.

Side Note.

Why is it that $|\sigma| = |\sigma^{-1}|$, with $\sigma \in S_n$? Well, just think of

$$\sigma = (a_1 a_2)(a_2 a_3) \cdots (a_{k-1} a_k)$$

Then

$$\sigma^{-1} = (a_{k-1} a_k) \cdots (a_2 a_3)(a_1 a_2)$$

so $|\sigma| = |\sigma^{-1}|$.

∎

So $\tau \sigma \tau^{-1} \in A_n$, and A_n is normal.

9 Quotient Groups

Assume that $H \trianglelefteq G$. Last time, we defined that

$$G/H = \{aH \mid a \in G\} = \{\bar{a} \mid a \in G\}$$

With the binary operation $\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} = \overline{ab}$.

Example.

If $G = S_n$ and $H = A_n$. Since $|S_n| = n!$, $|A_n| = n!/2$. We know that

$$[S_n : A_n] = \frac{n!}{n!/2} = 2$$

and so $|S_n/A_n| = 2$ and thus $S_n/A_n \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$. **QUESTION** Why is this isomorphic?

Remark: "Identify the quotient group" means "Find a familiar group to which the quotient group is isomorphic."

Example.

Identify S_n/A_n. The answer is $S_n/A_n \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$

S_n/A_n **in more detail.**

The cosets of A_n are: either

- A_n (the coset of even permutations)
- $(12)A_n$ (the coset of odd permutations)

So $S_n/A_n = \{\bar{e}, \overline{(12)}\}$

TODO see multiplication table.

This is clearly isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_2$, where we just send $\bar{e} \to \bar{0}$ and $\overline{(12)} \to \bar{1}$.

Example.

Consider $G = \mathbb{Z}_n$, $H = \langle \bar{m} \rangle$ for $\bar{m} \in \mathbb{Z}_n$.

Fact: Any subgroup of an Abelian group is normal. This should make sense, because left and right cosets only different by the order in which you write, which doesn't matter for Abelian groups!

Say that $\gcd(m, n) = d$, then $|\bar{m}| = \frac{n}{d}$. Take $[G : H] = |G/H|$, and we know by Lagrange's theorem that $|G/H| = |G|/|H| = n/(n/d) = d$.

On Homework 2, we showed that if $\varphi : G \to G'$ is onto and G is cyclic, then G' is cyclic.

Here, we have the onto homomorphism $\pi : G \to G/H$. Since G is cyclic, so is G/H, which means G/H is a cyclic group of order d, hence $G/H \cong \mathbb{Z}_d$.

Alternatively: Assume that $\bar{m}$ is the smallest element in H (i.e. $\bar{m} = \bar{d}$.)

What are the cosets?

The cosets of H are

$\{\bar{0} + H, \bar{1} + H, \ldots, \overline{d-1} + H\}$, and $\bar{a} + H = H \Leftrightarrow \bar{a} \in H$, since $aH = eH \Leftrightarrow a \in eH = H$.

We can already see that G/H is cyclic, generated by $\bar{1} + H$. Hence $G/H \cong \mathbb{Z}_d$, where $\varphi(\bar{k} + H) = \bar{k}$.

Our goal is to prove the

Theorem.

1st Isomorphism Theorem.

> **Proof.**
> If you have a homomorphism $\varphi : G \to G'$, then $G/\ker(\varphi)$, since $\ker(\varphi)$ is normal. Furthermore,
>
> $$G/\ker(\varphi) \cong \text{image}(\varphi)$$
>
> ■

Example.

Take $\text{sgn} : S_n \to \mathbb{Z}_2$, but this time with

$$\sigma \to \begin{cases} \bar{0} & \sigma \text{ even} \\ \bar{1} & \sigma \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

sgn is onto, so image $= \mathbb{Z}_2$. $\ker(\text{sgn}) = A_n$, then $S_n/A_n \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$.

Example.

$\varphi : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}_n$ with $k \to \bar{k}$.

φ is onto, $\ker \varphi = n\mathbb{Z}$, then $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}_n$

Fri. 16 Feb 2024

Let's look at some examples of homs

Example.

Consider $\det : \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R}) \to (\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \times)$. We know that $\ker(\det) = \{A \in \mathrm{GL}_s(\mathbb{R}) \mid \det(A) = 1\} = \mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbb{R})$, and we now see that this is a normal subgroup.

$\mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbb{R}) \trianglelefteq \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$, as given any $A \in \mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbb{R})$, $B \in \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$, BAB^{-1} has $\det = 1$, so $BAB^{-1} \in \mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbb{R})$, so $\mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ is normal.

Because both of these groups are infinite, and so is the index, we can't just cheat like last time and take a look at what this is isomorphic to. We also know that det is surjective, but the 1st isomorphism theorem tells us that $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})/\mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbb{R}) \cong \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$.

One more example before the proof.

Example.

Consider $\varphi : \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\} \to \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ with $\varphi(z) = |z|$, the map which takes a complex number to its modulus (its length.)

Fact: $|zw| = |z||w|$, so φ is a homomorphism.

Notice that that the image of φ is only positive numbers, and $\ker(\varphi)$ is all the complex numbers with modulus 1 (or length 1.) This is all complex numbers of the form $a + bi = 1$, so $a^2 + b^2 = 1$, which is the unit circle!

Here, our 1st isomorphism theorem tells us that $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}/\text{unit circle} \cong \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$.

Think about this:

$$\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\} = \{re^{i\theta} \mid r \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq -0}, e^{i\theta} \in \text{ unit circle}\}$$

What we're left with is just the module information.

Question: Can you quotient out by the real numbers? Well remember that complex numbers under multiplication is Abelian, so every subgroup is normal, which means that you can! Do you get something isomorphic to the unit circle? Think about it!

Ok! Time for the theorem.

10   1st Isomorphism Theorem

Theorem.

Given a homomorphism $\varphi : G \to G'$, we have that

$$G/\ker(\varphi) \cong \mathrm{image}(\varphi)$$

Proof.

We have a hom $\varphi : G \to G'$. Let's assume that it's onto. If it's not, replace G' to image(φ) (Basically, we just change the codomain to make it onto.)

Let $K = \ker(\varphi)$, and we want to show that $G/K \cong G'$. Let $\pi : G \to G/K$ (since K is normal, we can do this!) This is the map $\pi(a) = \bar{a}$.

We define $\bar{\varphi} : G/K \to G'$, which takes $\bar{\varphi}(\bar{a}) = \varphi(a)$

Here's a picture. **TODO**

we check that $\bar{\varphi}$ is well-defined, i.e. if $\bar{a} = \bar{b}$, check that $\bar{\varphi}(\bar{a}) = \bar{\varphi}(\bar{b})$

$$\bar{a} = \bar{b} \Leftrightarrow aK = bK$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \varphi(a) = \varphi(b)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \bar{\varphi}(\bar{a}) = \bar{\varphi}(\bar{b})$$

So $\bar{\varphi}$ is a function.

Claim: $\bar{\varphi}$ is an isomorphism.

- **Homomorphism**:

  $\bar{\varphi}(\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b}) = \bar{\varphi}(\overline{ab}) = \varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b) = \bar{\varphi}(\bar{a})\bar{\varphi}(\bar{b})$.

- **One to one**:

  We'll show that $\ker(\bar{\varphi}) = \{\bar{e}\}$ (usefull trick btw, if you have a hom, you only need to check this)

  if $\bar{\varphi}(\bar{a}) = e$, then $\varphi(a) = e$, but then $a \in \ker(\varphi) = K$, so $\bar{a} = aK = K = \bar{e}$.

- **Onto**:

  if $b \in G'$, then there exists $a \in G$ with $\varphi(a) = b$ (remember, since we assumed φ to be onto!)

  So we get $\bar{\varphi}(\bar{a}) = \varphi(a) = b$.

Hence $\bar{\varphi} : G/K \to G'$ is an isomorphism, which concludes the proof.

■

Note.

For the exam, don't worry about being able to prove, this. You should be able to *use* these techniques. You should be able to use the tools and techniques from class.

The techniques that go into proofs are good to understand though!

TODO draw tetrahedron with colors. Oh god

Let G be the group of symmetries of the regular tetrahedron. Symmetry is determined by what it does to vertices. All permutations of vertices are possible since all vertices are neighbors. Immediately, we see that

$$G \cong S_4$$

Every symmetry also permutes the colors of the edges.

$$\{\text{red}, \text{green}, \text{blue}\}$$

The group of permutations of this set is isomorphic to S_3 of course! Because we have 3 things in it.

So we get a map $\varphi : S_4 \to S_3$ which takes σ, a symmetry of the tetrahedron, to the number of ways to permute the 3 colors.

We're not going to prove that φ is a homomorphism.

Let $C_1 = \text{green}, C_2 = \text{blue}, C_3 = \text{red}$. Then $(12) \in S_4$ is a reflection of the tetrahedron.

TODO draw this somehow

Another way to think about is is that vertices 3 and 4 don't move, but 1 and 2 switch.

So $\varphi((12)) = (C_1 C_2)(C_3) \in S_3$. It swaps green and blue and keeps red fixed.

Exercise 1: φ is surjective. Every way of permuting the colors is possible.

Exercise 2: $\ker(\varphi) = \{e, (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23)\}$. This is the Klein-4 group!!! Also known as K_4.

This is a group of order 4 which is **not** isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_4$, since all elements of K_4 are order 1 or 2.

Here, the 1st isomorphism theorem tells us that $S_4/K_4 \cong S_3$.

Warning: K_4 and $\mathbb{Z}_4$ are Abelian groups of order 4. Both have normal subgroups of order 2. If $K_4 = \{e, a, b, ab\}$, $H = \{e, a\}$ and $\{\bar{0}, \bar{2}\} \le \mathbb{Z}_4$, and $K_4/H \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$, $H \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$, and $\mathbb{Z}_4/H \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$.

Why is this a warning? Because we **cannot** reconstruct the original group from H and G/H.

> **Note**.
>
> We'll do product groups on Monday, which is testable. The rest will not be.

Mon. 19 Feb 2024

TODO

Wed. 21 Feb 2024

Today is review!

Structure of the Exam:

- 4 Questions

- First question is short answer. Similar to the 2019 Midterm

- 3 Longer questions, similar to the 2019 midterm.

Exam Questions

11 Exam 1 Review

11.1 Common Groups and their properties

Useful for having a repertoire of questions.

- $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}_n$. This is **always** under addition by default, **even if n is prime!** These are

  1. Cyclic

  2. Abelian

  3. Sometimes infinite? Or order n

> **Note**.
>
> All subgroups of cyclic groups are cyclic.

- $(\mathbb{Z}_n^\times, \times)$. This is the group of integers relatively prime to n (mod n) under $\times$. It is

  1. Abelian

  2. Not necessarily cyclic, so the order is complicated.

  3. Does not include $\bar{0}$.

- S_n. The Symmetric group. It is

  1. Non-Abelian

  2. Not cyclic

  3. $|S_n| = n!$

  We have some nice isomorphisms

  1. $S_3 \cong D_6$, where D_6 is the symmetries of a **triangle**.

  2. $S_2 \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$

- D_{2n}. The dyhedral group. The symmetries of a regular n-gon. It is

  1. Non-Abelian

  2. Not cyclic

  3. Order $2n$

  And we have that $D_{2n} \leq S_n$, but we only have $D_6 \cong S_3$.

  We have a nice notation for this. We say that it is generated by x, a reflection, and y a rotation.

  $$D_{2n} = \{e, x, y, \ldots, y^{n-1}, yx, \ldots, y^{n-1}x\}$$

  And we have that $yx = y^{-1}x$.

- A_n. The alternating group. $A_n \leq S_n$ with

  1. $|A_n| = n!/2$, subgroup of even permutations.

- $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ (under addition), $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}, \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}$ (under multiplication)

  These are

  1. Infinite

  2. Non-cyclic.

- $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R}), \mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbb{R})$. These are

  1. Infinite

  2. Non-Abelian

  Where the binary operation is Matrix multiplication.

- Product Groups $G \times H$ with

    1. $|G \times H| = |G| \cdot |H|$.

    2. $|(a, b)| = \text{lcm}(|a|, |b|)$.

    These groups are Abelian if and only if both G and H are Abelian.

    We saw

    1. $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \not\cong \mathbb{Z}_4$, the Klein-4 Group.

    We also saw $\mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n \cong \mathbb{Z}_{mn}$

Z_2 Can be written a number of different ways.

Example.

Groups of order 30.

We know that $30 = 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 2$.

1. If we want an Abelian group, we have no choice but to use $\mathbb{Z}_{30}$. **TODO** why?

   What about $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_5$? Well that's isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_{30}$, since $2, 3$ are coprime, and $6, 5$ are also coprime.

2. Non-Abelian: D_{30}, the symmetries of a regular 15-gon, or $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times D_{10}$, or $\mathbb{Z}_5 \times D_6$.

   Why are these 3 groups different? Why are they not isomorphic?

   The approach is to think about many different things. Usually the approach is to find a property that holds in one group that does not hold in the other.

   - It could be size. If the sizes don't match, no chance that there can be an isomorphism.

   - Abelian-ness

   - One of them could be that a group has a normal subgroup of order 5, and the other does not.

   - This group has an element of order 15, and the other does not.

   All those things can be used to show that things are not isomorphic.

   In the example above, we know that D_{30} has 15 elements of order 2, D_{10} for sure has 5. The claim is that this is all of them. Simply notice that

   $$|(\bar{a}, g)| = \text{lcm}(|\bar{a}|, |g|) = \begin{cases} \text{lcm}(1, |g|) = |g| \\ \text{lcm}(3, |g|) = 3|g| \end{cases}$$

   The problem is that $3|g|$ is never equal to 2, so it has to be $|g|$.

   TODO finish. So they cannot be isomorphic.

- $\mathbb{Z}_2 \cong (\{\bar{0}, \bar{1}\}, +) \cong (\{\pm 1\}, \times)$

2018, 7b

We have a group of order 40, we want to know all Abelian groups of order 40.

How many ways can we write 40 as a product of cyclic groups which are not isomorphic?

We know that

$$40 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 5$$

Well, we have

1. $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_5$

2. $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_5 \cong \mathbb{Z}_{10} \times \mathbb{Z}_4 \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_{20}$

3. $\mathbb{Z}_8 \times Z_5 \cong \mathbb{Z}_{40}$

Recall that we were asked for Abelian groups, so its just a product of cyclic groups.

How do we show something is normal?

There are several ways. Two big ones:

1. **By the definition**:

   Show that $aH = Ha$ are the same coset for all $a \in G$.

   If there's not many cosets, this isn't too bad.

2. **Show that $aHa^{-1} \in H$ for all $a \in G$, and for all $h \in H$**

   This implies that $aHa^{-1} = H$.

   In fact, it's sufficient to show the one direction for all elements. This is because we know that we have a bijection between a group and its conjugation.

3. **If G is Abelian**

   Then all your subgroups are normal, so we're done!

   This one is less applicable, but useful!

Example.

2019, number 4

If G is a group and $Z(G) = \{a \in G \mid ab = ba \forall b \in G\}$ is the center of the group.

We want to show that $Z(G) \trianglelefteq G$, in order words, that it's a normal subgroup.

Proof

$e \in Z$, so $Z \neq \varnothing$

Closure: If $z, z' \in Z$, then for any $a \in G$, then $zz'a = zaz' = azz'$ so $zz' \in Z$. So Z is closed.

Inverses: If $z \in Z$, $a \in G$, $az^{-1} = (za^{-1})^{-1} = (a^{-1}z)^{-1} = z^{-1}a$ so $z^{-1} \in Z$.

WARNING: If you aren't told it's a subgroup, you have to show that too!

Normal: To show that it's normal, if $z \in Z, a \in G$ then $aza^{-1} = aa^{-1}z = z \in Z$ so $Z \trianglelefteq G$.

What's an example of a Bijection that's not a Homomorphism?

Here's one

$$\varphi : \mathbb{Z}_4 \to \mathbb{Z}_4$$

where

- $\bar{0} \mapsto \bar{1}$
- $\bar{1} \mapsto \bar{2}$
- $\bar{2} \mapsto \bar{3}$
- $\bar{3} \mapsto \bar{0}$

Here, the identity does not map to the identity. Also

$$\varphi(\bar{0} + \bar{1}) = \varphi(\bar{1}) = \varphi(\bar{2})$$

But

$$\varphi(\bar{0}) + \varphi(\bar{1}) = \bar{1} + \bar{2} = \bar{3}$$

and $\bar{3} \neq \bar{2}$.

2018, question 2

$\sigma = (137)(2465)$, and $\tau = (152)(3647)$, want to find $\sigma\tau^{-1}$

Well, $\tau^{-1} = (125)(3746)$

Then $\sigma\tau^{-1} = (1453)(67)$ **TODO** Show

How do we write this in terms of transpositions? Well

$$= (14)(45)(53)(67)$$