

# MAT3004 Lecture 2 Notes

## 1 Recall: Groups

**Definition 1.**  $(G, *)$  is a group if:

- (i) **Associativity:**  $(a * b) * c = a * (b * c)$  for all  $a, b, c \in G$ .
- (ii) **Identity:** There exists  $e \in G$  such that  $a * e = e * a = a$  for all  $a \in G$ .
- (iii) **Inverse:** For every  $a \in G$ , there exists  $a^{-1} \in G$  such that  $a * a^{-1} = a^{-1} * a = e$ .

**Remark 1.** For  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ , we write:

$$g^m = \underbrace{g * g * \cdots * g}_{m \text{ times}}$$

Also, note that in general,  $a * b \neq b * a$  (groups are not necessarily abelian).

**Example 1.** Consider  $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$ , the General Linear Group.

$$\begin{cases} A \cdot I_n = I_n \cdot A = A \\ A \cdot A^{-1} = A^{-1} \cdot A = I_n \end{cases}$$

**Note:** We do not have  $AB = BA$  in general. To prove inverses in matrices, we typically need to prove  $AA^{-1} = I_n$  and  $A^{-1}A = I_n$  separately, though for square matrices one implies the other.

## 2 Uniqueness Properties

**Theorem 1.** Let  $(G, *)$  be a group.

1. The identity element  $e \in G$  is unique.
2. For all  $a \in G$ , the inverse  $a^{-1} \in G$  is unique.

*Proof.* **Uniqueness of Identity:** Suppose  $e$  and  $e'$  both satisfy the identity property. Then  $e * e' = e'$  (treating  $e$  as identity). Also  $e * e' = e$  (treating  $e'$  as identity). Therefore,  $e = e'$ .

**Uniqueness of Inverse:** Suppose  $b$  and  $c$  are both inverses of  $a$ .

$$\begin{aligned} c &= c * e \\ &= c * (a * b) \quad (\text{since } a * b = e) \\ &= (c * a) * b \quad (\text{associativity}) \\ &= e * b \quad (\text{since } c \text{ is an inverse of } a) \\ &= b \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $c = b$ . □

### 3 Cayley Tables

**Definition 2.** Let  $(G, *)$  be a finite group. The **Cayley Table** of  $G$  is the "multiplication table" of  $G$ , whose rows and columns are labeled by elements of  $G$ , and the  $(g, h)$ -entry is equal to  $g * h$ .

**Example 2.**  $(\mathbb{Z}_4, +)$

$+$	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]
[0]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]
[1]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[0]
[2]	[2]	[3]	[0]	[1]
[3]	[3]	[0]	[1]	[2]

**Proposition 1** (Latin Square Property). The elements of  $G$  show up **exactly once** in each row and each column of the Cayley Table.

Equivalently: For any  $a \in G$ , the set  $\{a * g \mid g \in G\}$  has no repetitions (it has  $|G|$  elements). Similarly for  $\{g * a \mid g \in G\}$ .

*Proof.* Suppose on the contrary that there exist  $g \neq g'$  in  $G$  such that:

$$a * g = a * g'$$

Multiply by  $a^{-1}$  on the left:

$$\begin{aligned} a^{-1} * (a * g) &= a^{-1} * (a * g') \\ (a^{-1} * a) * g &= (a^{-1} * a) * g' \quad (\text{associativity}) \\ e * g &= e * g' \\ g &= g' \end{aligned}$$

This contradicts  $g \neq g'$ . Thus, all entries in a row must be distinct. Since the group is finite, every element must appear exactly once.  $\square$

### 4 Subgroups

#### 4.1 Definition

**Definition 3.** Let  $(G, *)$  be a group. A subset  $H \subseteq G$  is called a **subgroup** of  $G$  (written  $H \leq G$ ) if:

1. For all  $h, h' \in H$ ,  $h * h' \in H$  (Closure).
2. For all  $h \in H$ ,  $h^{-1} \in H$  (Inverse).

**Example 3.**  $(\mathbb{Z}, +) \leq (\mathbb{Q}, +) \leq (\mathbb{R}, +)$ .

#### 4.2 Notation Convention

If our binary operation is  $+$ , we write  $mg$  instead of  $g^m$ :

$$mg = \underbrace{g + g + \cdots + g}_{m \text{ times}}$$

The inverse is denoted  $-g$ .

### 4.3 Examples and Non-Examples

**Example 4.** Let  $k\mathbb{Z} = \{\text{all multiples of } k\}$ .  $k\mathbb{Z}$  is a subgroup of  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ .

**Example 5.** Consider  $2\mathbb{Z} + 1$  (the odd integers).  $(2\mathbb{Z} + 1, +)$  is **not** a subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}$  because closure fails:

$$\text{odd} + \text{odd} = \text{even} \notin (2\mathbb{Z} + 1).$$

**Example 6.** If  $W \subseteq V$  is a vector subspace, then  $(W, +) \leq (V, +)$  is a subgroup.

**Example 7** (Special Linear Group).

$$SL_n(\mathbb{R}) = \{A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) \mid \det(A) = 1\} \leq (GL_n(\mathbb{R}), \cdot)$$

*Proof Sketch:* If  $A, B \in SL_n(\mathbb{R})$ , then  $\det(A) = 1$  and  $\det(B) = 1$ .

$$\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B) = 1 \cdot 1 = 1 \implies AB \in SL_n(\mathbb{R}).$$

Also,  $\det(A^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\det(A)} = 1$ , so inverses are in the set.

**Example 8.** Consider the group  $G = (\mathbb{Z}_9^\times, \times)$  (Units modulo 9). Elements:  $\{[1], [2], [4], [5], [7], [8]\}$ .

- Let  $H_1 = \{[1], [4]\}$ . Check closure:  $[4] \times [4] = [16] = [7]$ . Since  $[7] \notin H_1$ , this is **not** a subgroup.
- Let  $H_2 = \{[1], [8]\}$ . Check closure:  $[8] \times [8] = [64] = [1] \in H_2$ . Inverse of  $[8]$  is  $[8]$ . This **is** a subgroup.

### 4.4 Properties of Subgroups

**Proposition 2.** If  $H$  is a subgroup of  $(G, *)$ , then  $(H, *)$  is also a group.

*Proof.* We check the group axioms for  $H$ :

1. **Associativity:** For  $a, b, c \in H$ ,  $(a * b) * c = a * (b * c)$  holds because it holds for all elements in  $G$ .
2. **Identity:** For any  $a \in H$ , we know  $a^{-1} \in H$  (by subgroup definition). By closure,  $a * a^{-1} \in H$ . Since  $a * a^{-1} = e$ , the identity  $e \in H$ .
3. **Inverse:** Direct from the subgroup definition.

□

### 4.5 Types of Subgroups

1. A **proper subgroup** is any subgroup  $H \leq G$  such that  $H \neq G$ .
2. The **trivial subgroup** is  $\{e\}$ .
3. Any subgroup  $H$  such that  $\{e\} \neq H \leq G$  is called a **nontrivial** subgroup.

**Definition 4** (Cyclic Subgroup). For any  $g \in G$ ,

$$\langle g \rangle := \{g^m \mid m \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

is the **cyclic subgroup generated by  $g$** .

[Exercise: Check

$$g^m \cdot g^n = g^{m+n}$$

by cases:

$$\begin{cases} m \geq 0 \\ m < 0 \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{cases} n \geq 0 \\ n < 0 \end{cases})$$