

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:

$$\left(\begin{array}{l} m \geq 0 \\ m < 0 \end{array} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{array}{l} n \geq 0 \\ n < 0 \end{array} \right)$$