

SF2729 GROUPS AND RINGS LECTURE NOTES 2010-02-02

MATS BOIJ

2. The second lecture - subgroups, cyclic groups and Cayley digraphs

The second lecture introduces subgroups and, deals with cyclic groups, generators of groups and Cayley digraphs.¹

Definition 2.1 (Subgroup). We say that a group H which is a non-empty subset of a group G is a *subgroup* of G, denoted by $H \leq G$ if the binary operation on H is the restriction of the binary operation on G, i.e., if H is a group with the same group operation.

Example 2.2.

- (1) The set of even integers $2\mathbb{Z}$ form a subgroup of the integers, \mathbb{Z} under addition.
- (2) More generally, for any integer n we have that $n\mathbb{Z} \leq \mathbb{Z}$.
- (3) The trivial subgroup $\{e\}$ is a subgroup in any group, $\{e\} \leq G$.
- (4) The group itself is a subgroup, G < G.

Definition 2.3 (non-trivial, proper). A subgroup $H \leq G$ is non-trivial if $H \neq \{e\}$. It is proper if $H \neq G$ and in this case we write H < G.

It is conveient to notice that we can check whether a subset of a group forms a subgroup by the following result:

Theorem 2.4. Let H be a non-empty subset of a group G. Then H is a subgroup of G if and only if

- i) H is closed under the group operation, i.e., $a, b \in H \Longrightarrow a * b \in H$
- ii) H is closed under taking inverses, i.e., $a \in H \Longrightarrow a^{-1} \in H$

Proof. If H is a subgroup, then the group operation on G defines the group operation on H and hence H must be closed under this operation and under taking inverses.

Suppose that H satisfies the two conditions. Now * defines a binary operation on H, which has to be associative, since it is associative on a larger set G. The unit of G has to be in H since $a \in H \Rightarrow a^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow e = aa^{-1} \in H$. Hence the three axioms for a group holds for the restriction of the group operation on G to the subset H.

¹The second lecture is based on the sections 5-7 of Chapter I in A First Course in Abstract Algebra [1].

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Example 2.5. We can now easily get many more examples of subgroups:

- (1) The set of matrices of determinant one, $\mathrm{Sl}_n(\mathbb{R}) \leq \mathrm{Gl}_n(\mathbb{R})$ the special linear group.
- (2) The set of orthogonal matrices, $O_n(\mathbb{R}) \leq Gl_n(\mathbb{R})$ the *orthogonal group*.
- (3) The set of even permutations $A_n \leq S_n$ the alternating group.

Corollary 2.6. If H is a finite subset of a group G, then H is a subgroup if it is closed under the group operation.

Corollary 2.7. Let q be any element of H. If H is finite and closed under the group operation, some powers of g have to be equal, say $g^i = g^j$, i < j. By cancellation in G, we get $g^{j-i} = e$. Hence $q^{-1} = q^{j-i-1} \in H$ and H is closed under taking inverses.

Definition 2.8 (Order and cyclic supgroups). Any element g of a groups G generates a subgroup, $\langle g \rangle = \{g^i | i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. This is the cyclic subgroup generated by g. The order of a group is its cardinality, i.e., the number of elements and the order of an element q is the order of the cyclic subgroup generated by g.

Remark 2.9. We have to check that $\langle g \rangle$ really is a subgroup, which is easily done by verifying that

- $g^i * g^j = g^{i+j} \in \langle g \rangle$ $g^{-1} \in \langle g \rangle$ since $-1 \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Another important way to get subgroups of a group is from maps between groups.

Definition 2.10 (homomorphism, isomorphism, kernel, image). A map $\phi: G \longrightarrow H$ between groups is a group homomorphism if it respects the group structure, i.e., if

$$\phi(g_1 * g_2) = \phi(g_1) * \phi(g_2), \quad \forall g_1, g_2 \in G.$$

A group isomorphism is a bijective group homomorphism, and if $\phi: G \longrightarrow H$ is an isomorphism, we say that G and H are isomorphic. The kernel of ϕ is given by

$$\ker \phi = \{ g \in G | \phi(g) = e \}$$

and the *image* of ϕ is given by

$$\mathrm{im}\phi=\{\phi(g)|g\in G\}.$$

Exercise 2.11. Prove that the kernel and image of a group homomorphism $\phi: G \longrightarrow H$ are *subgroups, i.e., that* $\ker \phi \leq G$ *and* $\operatorname{im} \phi \leq H$.

Exercise 2.12. Prove that $\phi^{-1}(K) \leq G$ if $\phi: G \longrightarrow H$ is a group homomorphism and $K \leq H$.

Example 2.13. The subgroups $A_n \leq S_n$ and $Sl_n(\mathbb{R}) \leq Gl_n(\mathbb{R})$ are kernels of the homomorphisms:

$$\operatorname{sgn}: S_n \longrightarrow \{\pm 1\}$$
 and $\det: \operatorname{Gl}_n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^*$.

Exercise 2.14. Prove that a group homomorphism is injective if and only if the kernel is trivial.

2.1. Cyclic groups.

Definition 2.15 (Cyclic group). A group G is *cyclic* if there is an element $g \in G$ such that $G = \langle g \rangle$. Such an element is called a *generator* of G.

Theorem 2.16. A cyclic group is either infinite, and isomorphic to \mathbb{Z} under addition, or finite and isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}_n under addition for some positive integer n.

Proof. If g is a generator and G, we get a surjective homorphism from $\phi : \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow G$ by $\phi(i) = g^i$. If the kernel of ϕ is trivial, ϕ is an isomorphism and G is infinite.

If there is a non-trivial kernel of this homomorphism, let n be the smallest positive integer in $\ker \phi$. Then we have that $g^n = e$, but $g^i \neq i$ for 0 < i < n. Hence ϕ induces an isomorphism $\bar{\phi}: \mathbb{Z}_n \longrightarrow G$, by $\bar{\phi}([i]) = g^i$. This is well-defined since

$$[i] = [j] \iff j = kn + i \implies g^j = g^{kn+i} = e^k g^i = g^i.$$

Theorem 2.17. A subgroup of a cyclic group is cyclic.

Proof. According Theorem 2.16, it is enough to prove the statement for \mathbb{Z} and for \mathbb{Z}_n under addition.

If $H \leq \mathbb{Z}$ is a subgroup, we can let d be the smallest positive integer in H. Now $\langle d \rangle \leq H$. If n is any integer in H, we can write n = qd + r, where $0 \leq r < d$. Since H is a subgroup, r = n - qd is in H since n and d are in H. Hence r = 0 by the assumption on d and $n = qd \in \langle d \rangle$.

Let $H \leq \mathbb{Z}_n$ be a subgroup. Then $\phi^{-1}(H) = \{i \in \mathbb{Z} | \phi(i) \in H\}$ is a subgroup of \mathbb{Z} , where $\phi : \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$ is the natural surjective homomorphism given by $\phi(i) = [i]$. By the above argument we can find $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\langle d \rangle = \phi^{-1}(H)$. This means that every element in H can be written as $\phi(nd)$ for some n, but this means that $H = \langle \phi(d) \rangle$ and H is cyclic. \square

Theorem 2.18. Let G be a cyclic group of order n. Then G has a unique subgroup of order d for any positive divisor d in n.

Proof. We may identify G with \mathbb{Z}_n under addition. For any divisor d in n, we may take the subgroup $\langle [n/d] \rangle$. This subgroup has order d since [n/d] has order d.

If H is a subgroup of order d, let m be the least positive integer such that $[m] \in H$. Then H is generated by m as we saw earlier. Now, [m] has to have order d, which implies that in fact m = n/d.

2.2. Generating sets and Cayley digraphs.

Definition 2.19 (Subgroup generated by a set). If S is a subset of a group G, we let $\langle S \rangle$ denote the *subgroup generated by* S, i.e., the intersection of all subgroups of G that contain S.

Remark 2.20. We should check that the definition makes sense by checking that $\langle S \rangle$ is in fact a subgroup. There is at least one subgroup that contains S, namely G itself. The intersection of any set of subgroups is again a subgroup, since

$$g,h\in\bigcap_{i\in I}H_i\Longrightarrow g,h\in H_i,\,\forall i\in I\Longrightarrow g*h\in H_i,\,\forall i\in I\Longrightarrow g*h\in\bigcap_{i\in I}H_i.$$

and similarly for the inverses.

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Theorem 2.21. We have that $\langle S \rangle = \{a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n | a_i \in S \text{ or } a_i^{-1} \in S, \text{ for some } n\}.$

Proof. All the element in the right hand side has to be in any subgroup that contains S, since any subgroup is closed under the group operation and under taking inverses. Thus is is sufficient to prove that the right hand side is in fact a subgroup.

It is closed under the group operation since we can compose two such expressions to a longer expression, and it is closed under inverses since

$$(a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n)^{-1} = a_n^{-1} a_{n-1}^{-1} \cdots a_1^{-1}.$$

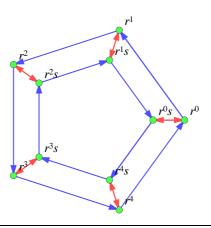
Definition 2.22 (Generators). If S is a subset of a group G such that $G = \langle S \rangle$, we say that S is a set of *generators* of G.

Definition 2.23 (Cayley digraph). For a group G with a generator set S, the *Cayley digraph* is a directed graph which has G as the set of vertices for each pair $(g, s) \in G \times S$ there is an arc labelled s from g to gs.

Remark 2.24. We can easily see that the Cayley digraph is connected, since S is a set of generators. In fact, we can use this in order to verify that S generates G.

Furthermore, from each vertex, there are exactly |S| arcs going out and between any two vertices, there is at most one arc in each direction.

Example 2.25. The dihedral group D_{2n} is generated by one reflection s and one basic rotation r by an angle $2\pi/n$. Thus we can use the generating set $S = \{s, r\}$ and draw the corresponding Cayley digraph. There will be two-way arcs between r^i and $r^i s$ and there will be arcs labelled by r from r^i to r^i and from $r^i s$ to $r^{i-1} s$. We draw this for n = 5 below.



RECOMMENDED EXCERCISES

I-5 Subgropus. 8-13, 14-19, 39, 46, 47, 51, 53, 55

I-6 Cyclic groups. 32, 33-37, 45, 46, 48

I-7 Cayley digraphs. 7-11

REFERENCES

[1] J. B. Fraleigh. A First Course In Abstract Algebra. Addison Wesley, seventh edition, 2003.