## SEPTEMBER 26 NOTES

## 1. 2.5: The lattice of subgroups of a group

We conclude Chapter 2 with a way of visualizing all subgroups of a given group. This will become very important when we talk about Galois theory in Math 612!

**Construction.** Let G be a group. For each subgroup of G, plot the subgroups of G vertically, starting with  $\{1\}$  at the bottom and G at the top, putting subgroups on the same line if they have the same number of elements. Connect two subgroups  $H \leq G$  and  $K \leq G$  with a line if H < Kand there does not exist a subgroup K' with H < K' < K.

**Example 1.1.** For  $G = \mathbb{Z}_6$ , we listed all of the subgroups already: The subgroups of  $\mathbb{Z}_6$  are:

- (order 6)  $\langle 1 \rangle = \langle 5 \rangle = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$
- (order 3)  $\langle 2 \rangle = \langle 4 \rangle = \{0, 2, 4\}$
- (order 2)  $\langle 3 \rangle = \{0, 2\}$
- (order 1)  $\langle 0 \rangle = \{0\}$

The subgroup lattice is:



**Example 1.2.** For  $G = D_8$ , we can list all of the subgroups. (We leave this as an exercise to verify this list is complete. Key input: if a subgroup contains  $r^i$  and  $sr^j$  for i = 1, 3 and j = 0, 1, 2, 3, it must be the whole group.)

- (order 8)  $\langle r, s \rangle = \{1, r, r^2, r^3, s, sr, sr^2, sr^3\}$  (order 4)  $\langle s, r^2 \rangle = \langle sr^2, r^2 \rangle = \{1, s, r^2, sr^2\}$ , and  $\langle r \rangle = \langle r^3 \rangle = \{1, r, r^2, r^3\}$ , and  $\langle sr, r^2 \rangle = \langle sr^3, r^2 \rangle = \{1, sr, r^2, sr^3\}$ , (order 2)  $\langle s \rangle = \{1, s\}$ , and  $\langle sr^2 \rangle = \{1, sr^2\}$ ,  $\langle r^2 \rangle = \{1, r^2\}$ , and  $\langle sr \rangle = \{1, sr\}$ , and  $\langle sr^3 \rangle = \{1, sr^3\},\$
- (order 1)  $\langle 1 \rangle = \{1\}$

The subgroup lattice is:



2. 3.1: QUOTIENT GROUPS AND HOMOMORPHISMS

Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a homomorphism. For any  $a \in H$ , the **fiber** over  $a, X_a$ , is the preimage of a:  $X_a := \phi^{-1}(a) = \{ q \in G \mid \phi(q) = a \}.$ 

We can visualize this schematically as the fibers of G being the 'vertical' sets that get contracted to the point  $a \in H$  (see Dummit and Foote). Using the binary operation in H, we can define a group structure on the set of nonempty fibers by saying  $X_a \star X_b = X_{ab}$ , where  $ab \in H$  is the

product of a and b. This construction is one definition of quotient group. The prototypical example is the map  $\phi : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}_n$  given by  $\phi(x) = x \mod n$ . The fiber  $X_a$  is the set of all  $z\mathbb{Z}$  such that  $z = a \mod n$ , i.e. all elements with remainder a. It makes sense to say  $X_a + X_b = X_{a+b}$  because, for  $z \in X_a$  and  $w \in X_b$ ,  $z = a \mod n$  and  $w = b \mod n$ , so  $z + w = a + b \mod n$ .

Before we formally define quotient groups, some reminders:

Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a homomorphism. Then:

(1) 
$$\phi(1_G) = 1_H$$

(2) 
$$\phi(q^{-1}) = \phi(q)^{-1}$$

- (3) for any  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\phi(q^n) = \phi(q)^n$
- (4) the **kernel** of  $\phi$  is the set ker  $\phi = \{g \in G \mid \phi(g) = 1_H\} = X_{1_H}$ . It is a subgroup of G.
- (5) the **image** of  $\phi$  is the set  $\operatorname{im} \phi = \{\phi(g) \mid g \in G\}$ . It is a subgroup of H.

**Definition 2.1.** Let  $\phi : G \to H$  be a homomorphism with kernel K. The **quotient group** G/K ('G mod K') is the group

$$G/K = \{X_a \mid a \in H\}$$

with  $X_a \star X_b := X_{ab}$ .

This may be quite different than the definition you've seen before. To relate them, we introduce more notation and observations.

**Proposition 2.2.** Let  $\phi : G \to H$  be a homomorphism with kernel K. Let  $X = \phi^{-1}(a)$  for  $a \in H$ . Then:

- (1) For any  $u \in X$ ,  $X = \{uk \mid k \in K\}$  and
- (2) for any  $u \in X$ ,  $X = \{ku \mid k \in K\}$ .

*Proof.* We prove only (1). Let  $uK = \{uk \mid k \in K\}$ . For any  $k \in K$ , we have  $\phi(k) = 1$ , and  $u \in X$ , so  $\phi(u) = a$ , and therefore  $\phi(uk) = \phi(u)\phi(k) = a1 = a$ , so  $uk \in X$ . Therefore,  $uK \subset X$ .

Now, let  $x \in X$  be any element. Let  $k = u^{-1}x$  and note that  $\phi(k) = \phi(u^{-1}x) = \phi(u)^{-1}\phi(x) = a^{-1}a = 1$ so  $k \in K$ . Because x = uk, we have shown  $x \in uK$  so  $X \subset uK$ . Therefore, X = uK.

These sets uK are very important so have their own name.

**Definition 2.3.** Let  $H \leq G$  be any subgroup and  $g \in G$ . The **left coset** of H with respect to g is

$$gH = \{gh \mid h \in H\}.$$

The **right coset** is

$$Hg = \{hg \mid h \in H\}.$$

We can use the language of cosets to define a quotient group without using the homomorphism  $\phi$  at all.

**Theorem 2.4.** Let G be a group and let K be the kernel of some homomorphism from G to another group. Then the set of left cosets of K forms a group G/K with binary operation uKvK = (uv)K.

*Proof.* Note that, by the previous proposition, the fibers of  $\phi$  are exactly the cosets of K, so the set G/K is the same as our previous definition. Let us show that this binary operation is well-defined and the same as above. First, let X and Y be fibers so  $X = \phi^{-1}(a)$  and  $Y = \phi^{-1}(b)$ . Let  $Z = \phi^{-1}(ab)$  so XY = Z. Let u and v be arbitrary representatives of X and Y, i.e. X = uK and Y = vK. To show our new binary operation uKvK = (uv)K is well defined, we need to show that uvK = Z, which is implied by saying  $uv \in Z$  (by the previous proposition). By definition,  $\phi(u) = a$  and  $\phi(v) = b$ , so we have  $\phi(uv) = \phi(u)\phi(v) = ab$  so  $uv \in Z$ . Therefore, Z = uvK.

**Example 2.5.** The morphism  $\phi : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}_n$  has kernel  $\langle n \rangle$ . The cosets of  $\langle n \rangle$  are exactly the sets  $0 + \langle n \rangle$ ,  $1 + \langle n \rangle$ ,  $2 + \langle n \rangle$ , ...  $n - 1 + \langle n \rangle$ . The group of cosets has binary operation determined by just adding the first number:  $u + \langle n \rangle + v + \langle n \rangle = (u + v) + \langle n \rangle$ .

Sometimes Dummit and Foote denotes cosets by  $\overline{u}$  instead of uK for simplicity, so the previous example we could write the cosets as  $\overline{0}, \overline{1}, \ldots, \overline{n-1}$ .

More on cosets:

**Proposition 2.6.** Let H be any subgroup of G. The set of left cosets form a partition of G, meaning for every  $g \in G$ , g appears in some coset of H, and for two different elements  $u, v \in G$ , either uH = vH or  $uH \cap vH = \emptyset$ . Furthermore, uH = vH if and only if  $v^{-1}u \in H$ .

*Proof.* Because  $e \in H$ , for any  $g \in G$ ,  $g = ge \in gH$ , so every  $g \in G$  appears in some coset of H. Now, suppose  $u, v \in G$ . If  $uH \cap vH = \emptyset$ , we have nothing to prove. Suppose  $uH \cap vH \neq \emptyset$ and let  $x \in uH \cap vH$ . Then,  $x = uh_1$  and  $x = vh_2$  for some  $h_1, h_2 \in H$ . In particular,  $uh_1 = vh_2$ , so  $u = vh_2h_1^{-1}$ . Because  $h_2h_1^{-1} \in H$ , we have  $u \in vH$ . Therefore, for any  $uh \in uH$ ,  $uh = v(h_2h_1^{-1}h) \in vH$  so  $uH \subset vH$ . Similarly, we can show  $vH \subset uH$  so vH = uH.

Note that we showed  $u \in vH$  in the course of the proof, so u = vh for some  $h \in H$ , so  $v^{-1}u = h \in H$ . Similarly, if  $v^{-1}u = h \in H$ , then by the proof  $uH \subset vH$ . Finally, if  $v^{-1}u = h \in H$ , then  $u^{-1}v = h^{-1} \in H$ , so  $vH \subset uH$ . Therefore,  $v^{-1}u \in H$  if and only if uH = vH.