

Math 3230 Abstract Algebra I

Sec 3.1: Subgroups

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`http://egunawan.github.io/algebra`

Abstract Algebra I

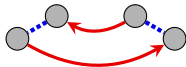
Regularity

Cayley diagrams have an important structural property called *regularity* that we've mentioned, but haven't analyzed in depth.

This is best seen with an example: Consider the group D_3 . It is easy to verify that $frf = r^{-1}$.

Thus, starting at *any node* in the Cayley diagram, the path frf will *always* lead to the same node as the path r^{-1} .

That is, the following fragment permeates throughout the diagram.



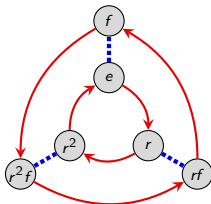
Equivalently, the path $frfr$ will always bring you back to where you started. (Because $frfr = e$).

Key observation

The **algebraic relations** of a group, like $frf = r^{-1}$, give Cayley diagrams a uniform symmetry – every part of the diagram is structured like every other.

Regularity

Let's look at the Cayley diagram for D_3 :



Check that indeed, $frf = r^{-1}$ holds by following the corresponding paths starting at any of the six nodes.

There are other patterns that permeate this diagram, as well. Do you see any?

Here are a couple: $f^2 = e$, $r^3 = e$.

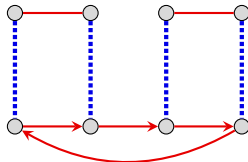
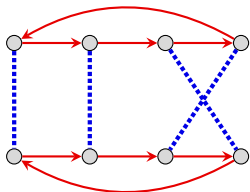
Definition

A diagram is called **regular** if it repeats every one of its interval patterns throughout the whole diagram, in the sense described above.

Regularity

Every Cayley diagram is regular. In particular, diagrams lacking regularity do *not* represent groups (and so they are not called Cayley diagrams).

Here are two diagrams that *cannot* be the Cayley diagram for a group because they are not regular.



Subgroups

Definition

When one group is contained in another, the smaller group is called a **subgroup** of the larger group. If H is a subgroup of G , we write $H < G$ or $H \leq G$.

All of the orbits that we saw in previous lectures are subgroups. Moreover, they are *cyclic* subgroups. **(Why?)**

For example, the orbit of r in D_3 is a subgroup of order 3 living inside D_3 . We can write

$$\langle r \rangle = \{e, r, r^2\} < D_3.$$

In fact, since $\langle r \rangle$ is really just a copy of C_3 , we may be less formal and write

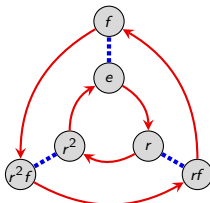
$$C_3 < D_3.$$

An example: D_3

Recall that the orbits of D_3 are

$$\begin{aligned}\langle e \rangle &= \{e\}, & \langle r \rangle &= \langle r^2 \rangle = \{e, r, r^2\}, & \langle f \rangle &= \{e, f\} \\ \langle rf \rangle &= \{e, rf\}, & \langle r^2f \rangle &= \{e, r^2f\}.\end{aligned}$$

The orbits corresponding to the generators are staring at us in the Cayley diagram. The others are more hidden.



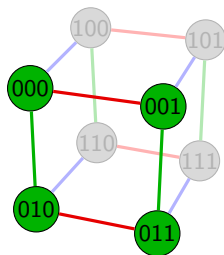
It turns out that all of the subgroups of D_3 are just (cyclic) orbits.

However, there are groups that have subgroups that are *not* cyclic.

Another example: $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$

Here is the Cayley diagram for the group $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ (the “three-light switch group”).

A copy of the subgroup V_4 is highlighted.



The group V_4 requires at least two generators and hence is *not* a cyclic subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$. In this case, we can write

$$\langle 001, 010 \rangle = \{000, 001, 010, 011\} < \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2.$$

Every (nontrivial) group G has *at least* two subgroups:

1. the **trivial subgroup**: $\{e\}$
2. the **non-proper subgroup**: G . (Every group is a subgroup of itself.)

Question

Which groups have *only* these two subgroups?

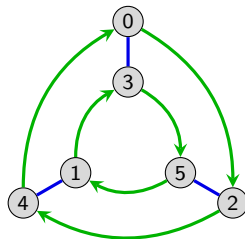
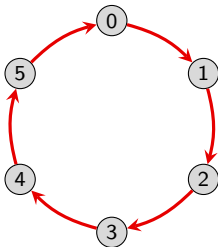
Yet one more example: $\mathbb{Z}/6$

It is not difficult to see that the subgroups of $\mathbb{Z}/6 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ are

$$\langle 0 \rangle = \{0\}, \quad \langle 2 \rangle = \langle 4 \rangle = \{0, 2, 4\}, \quad \langle 3 \rangle = \{0, 3\}, \quad \langle 1 \rangle = \langle 5 \rangle = \mathbb{Z}_6.$$

Depending on our choice of generators and layout of the Cayley diagram, not all of these subgroups may be “visually obvious.”

Here are two Cayley diagrams for $\mathbb{Z}/6$, one generated by $\langle 1 \rangle$ and the other by $\langle 2, 3 \rangle$:



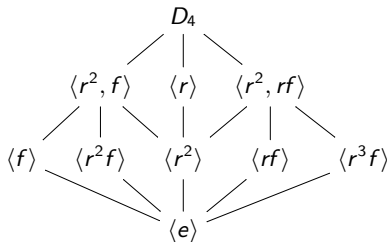
Another example: D_4

The dihedral group D_4 has 10 subgroups (though some are isomorphic to each other):

$$\{e\}, \underbrace{\langle r^2 \rangle, \langle f \rangle, \langle rf \rangle, \langle r^2 f \rangle, \langle r^3 f \rangle}_{\text{order 2}}, \underbrace{\langle r \rangle, \langle r^2, f \rangle, \langle r^2, rf \rangle}_{\text{order 4}}, D_4.$$

We can arrange the subgroups in a diagram called a **subgroup lattice** that shows which subgroups contain other subgroups.

The subgroup lattice of D_4 :



Exercise (from HW 4): Find all subgroups of $S_3 = \{e, (12), (23), (13), (123), (132)\}$ and arrange them in a subgroup lattice.

A (terrible) way to find all subgroups

Here is a brute-force method for finding all subgroups of a given group G of order n .

Though this algorithm is horribly inefficient, it makes a good thought exercise.

0. we always have $\{e\}$ and G as subgroups
1. find all subgroups generated by a single element ("cyclic subgroups")
2. find all subgroups generated by 2 elements
- \vdots
- $n-1$. find all subgroups generated by $n - 1$ elements

Along the way, we will certainly duplicate subgroups; one reason why this is so inefficient and impracticable.

This algorithm works because every group (and subgroup) has a set of generators.

Soon, we will see how a result known as [Lagrange's theorem](#) greatly narrows down the possibilities for subgroups.