

Notes of Krishna Alladi's Lecture on Mon, Apr 6, 2020

Chapter 9: Normal subgroups and factor groups

Some preliminaries

We will discuss some preliminary notions before we define normal subgroups and study their properties.

~~Let~~ Let  $G$  be a group and  $H$  and  $K$  subgroups of  $G$ . Just as we defined cosets  $aH$  and  $Ha$ . when  $a \in G$ , we can define  $HK$  as follows:

$$HK = \{hk \mid h \in H, k \in K\}. \quad (1)$$

Thus  $HK$  is a subset of  $G$  and not a subgroup in general.

But whether  $HK$  is a subgroup or not, we can determine the size of  $HK$  when  $H$  and  $K$  are finite. This is given by Thm 7.2, but we prove it here as a preliminary to our discussion of normal subgroups.

Theorem 7.2: Let  $G$  be a group and  $H$  and  $K$  two finite subgroups of  $G$ . Then

$$|HK| = \frac{|H| |K|}{|H \cap K|}.$$

Note: We can divide by  $|H \cap K|$  because  $H \cap K$  is a group and hence non-empty; it contains the identity.

Proof: Clearly we have  $|H| \cdot |K|$  elements of the form  $hk$  with  $h \in H$  and  $k \in K$  but these elements are not necessarily all distinct. To evaluate  $|HK|$ , we need to understand the repetition in the values of  $hk$ .

Suppose  $t \in H \cap K$  (including  $t = e$ , the identity). Observe that

$$hk = ht \cdot t^{-1}k \quad (2)$$

Set  $h' = ht$  and  $k' = t^{-1}k$  so that  $h' \in H$  and  $k' \in K$  since  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups and we have  $t \in H$  &  $t \in K$ . Thus  $h'k' \in HK$

is another representation of  $hk$ , which means the values  $hk$  will have at least  $|H \cap K|$  repetitions. (2)

Next consider  $h \in H$ ,  $k \in K$ ,  $h' \in H$  and  $k' \in K$  such that

$$hk = h'k' \tag{3}$$

Rewrite (3) as

$$h^{-1}h' = kk'^{-1} \tag{4}$$

Note that  $h^{-1}h' \in H$  and  $kk'^{-1} \in K$  (because  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups) and so the common (equal) value in (4), denoted by  $t$  will belong to  $H \cap K$ . So with  $t = h^{-1}h' = kk'^{-1}$ , we have

$$h' = ht \quad \& \quad k' = t^{-1}k, \tag{5}$$

which is precisely how we formed the repetition above. Thus each value  $hk$  repeats exactly  $|H \cap K|$  times. Hence the assertion of Thm 7.2 follows.

WARNING: Although  $H$  and  $K$  are groups, the set  $HK$  need not be a group, as the following example shows:

Let  $G = S_3$ , the group of permutations on 3 letters. We know that  $|S_3| = 3! = 6$ . Let  $\alpha = (1, 2)$  and  $\beta = (2, 3)$  be two transpositions in  $S_3$ . Since  $\alpha^2 = \beta^2 = \text{identity}$ ,  $\alpha = \alpha^{-1}$  &  $\beta = \beta^{-1}$ , and so the subgroups  $H$  and  $K$  generated by  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are:

$H = \langle \alpha \rangle = \{i, \alpha\}$ ,  $K = \langle \beta \rangle = \{i, \beta\}$ , with  $|H \cap K| = 1$ , where  $i$  is the identity permutation. Now

$$HK = \{1, \alpha, \beta, \alpha\beta\}. \tag{6}$$

Note  $|HK| = |H| \cdot |K| / |H \cap K| = \frac{2 \cdot 2}{1} = 4$ , by Thm 7.2, and confirmed by (6). Observe that

$$\alpha\beta = (1, 2)(2, 3) = (1, 2, 3) - \text{a 3-cycle} \tag{7}$$

Since  $\alpha\beta \in HK$ , but  $(\alpha\beta)^{-1} = (3, 2, 1) \notin HK$ , we see that  $HK$  is not a subgroup of  $S_3$ . Another way to realize that  $HK$  is not a subgroup of  $G = S_3$  is to note that  $4 \nmid 6$ ,  $|HK| = 4$  &  $|S_3| = 6$ .

In view of the above example, we now ask

QUESTION: If  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups of  $G$ , what condition can we impose on  $H$  and/or  $K$  to ensure that  $HK$  is a subgroup of  $G$ ?

ANSWER: If at least one of  $H$  or  $K$  is a normal subgroup, then  $HK$  will be a subgroup.

We will establish this below after we define normal subgroups.

But before that, we consider another notion.

Theorem C: Let  $G$  be a group and  $H$  a subgroup of  $G$ . Then for each  $a \in G$ , the set

$$aHa^{-1} = \{aha^{-1} \mid h \in H\}$$

is a subgroup of  $G$ .

Proof: Let  $e$  be the identity in  $G$ . Then  $aea^{-1} = e \in aHa^{-1}$  since  $e \in H$ .

Thus  $aHa^{-1}$  contains the identity.

Next consider any two elements  $aha^{-1}$  and  $ah'a^{-1}$  of  $aHa^{-1}$ .

Observe that

$$aha^{-1} \cdot ah'a^{-1} = ah'h'a^{-1} \in aHa^{-1} \text{ because } hh' \in H.$$

Thus  $aHa^{-1}$  is closed under multiplication.

Finally consider any  $aha^{-1} \in H$ . Then

$$(aha^{-1})^{-1} = (a^{-1})^{-1}h^{-1}a^{-1} = ah^{-1}a^{-1} \in aHa^{-1}, \text{ because } h^{-1} \in H.$$

Thus for each element of  $aHa^{-1}$ , its inverse belongs to  $aHa^{-1}$ .

Therefore  $aHa^{-1}$  is a subgroup, and so Theorem C is proved.

Terminology: The group  $K = aHa^{-1}$  is called a conjugate of  $H$ .

Note that

$$K = aHa^{-1} \Rightarrow H = a^{-1}Ka = a^{-1}K(a^{-1})^{-1} \quad (8)$$

which means  $H$  is a conjugate of  $K$  using  $a^{-1}$  instead of  $a$ .

Thus  $H$  and  $K$  are conjugates (of each other), and so the terminology "conjugate" is appropriate. In view of this conjugacy, we called the above result as Theorem C.

## Inner automorphisms and conjugate groups

(4)

Let  $G$  be a group and  $a \in G$ . We know that each  $a \in G$  induces an automorphism of  $G$  called the inner automorphism induced by 'a', denoted by  $i_a$  and defined by

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} i_a: G \rightarrow G \\ g \rightarrow aga^{-1} \end{array} \right\} i_a(g) = aga^{-1} \quad (9)$$

Let  $H$  be a subgroup of  $G$ . If we consider the restriction of  $i_a$  to  $H$ , then we get

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} i_a|_H: H \rightarrow aHa^{-1} \\ h \rightarrow ah a^{-1} \end{array} \right\} i_a(h) = ah a^{-1}, \quad \forall h \in H \quad (10)$$

which is a map (isomorphism) from  $H$  to  $aHa^{-1}$ . The map  $i_a|_H$  is a bijection and operation preserving, hence an isomorphism.

The groups  $H$  and  $aHa^{-1}$  are isomorphic but not the same in general. Let us look at the earlier example we had to illustrate this:

$G = S_3 =$  the symmetric group on 3 letters.

Let  $\alpha = (1, 2)$  - a transposition and let  $H = \langle \alpha \rangle = \{1, \alpha\}$ .

Let  $\beta = (2, 3)$ . Then since  $\beta^{-1} = \beta$ , we have

$$\beta H \beta^{-1} = \beta H \beta = \{1, \beta \alpha \beta\}. \quad 1 = \text{identity}$$

Note that

$$\beta \alpha \beta = (2, 3) \cdot (1, 2) \cdot (2, 3) = (2, 3)(1, 2, 3) = (1, 3) - \text{a transposition}$$

Thus

$$\beta H \beta^{-1} = \{1, (1, 3)\} \neq H = \{1, (1, 2)\}.$$

So this leads to

QUESTION: What condition do we need to impose on  $H$  such that

$$aHa^{-1} = H, \quad \forall a \in G?$$

ANSWER: If  $H$  is a normal subgroup, we will have  $aHa^{-1} = H, \quad \forall a \in G$ .

We will prove this after defining a normal subgroup which is what we do next.

## Normal subgroups

(5)

Previously for a subgroup  $H$  of a group  $G$ , we considered the left cosets  $aH$  and right cosets  $Ha$ , for  $a \in G$ . The left coset  $aH$  is not the same as the right coset  $Ha$  in general. So this leads to

Definition of a Normal subgroup: Let  $G$  be a group and  $H$  a subgroup.

We say  $H$  is a normal subgroup if

$$aH = Ha, \quad \forall a \in G. \quad (11)$$

We write  $H \triangleleft G$  to denote  $H$  is a normal subgroup of  $G$ .

Examples:

- 1) If  $G$  is Abelian, then all subgroups  $H$  of  $G$  are normal.
- 2) If  $H = Z(G)$ , the center of  $G$ , then  $Z(G)$  is a normal subgroup because all elements of  $Z(G)$  commute with all elements of  $G$ .  
That is  $aH = \{ah \mid h \in Z(G)\} = \{ha \mid h \in Z(G)\} = Ha, \forall a \in G$ .
- 3) Let  $G = S_n$ , the symmetric group on  $n$  letters and  $A_n$  the alternating group, namely the subgroup of even permutations. Then  $A_n$  is a normal subgroup of  $G = S_n$ .

To realize this consider any  $\pi \in S_n$ . We have two cases:

Case 1:  $\pi$  is even. That is  $\pi \in A_n$ . Then

$$\pi A_n = A_n = A_n \pi$$

Case 2:  $\pi$  is odd. That is  $\pi \in O_n =$  set of odd permutations. Then

$$\pi A_n = O_n = A_n \pi.$$

Thus  $\pi A_n = A_n \pi, \forall \pi \in S_n$ . Hence  $A_n \triangleleft S_n$ .

- 4) Let  $D_{2n}$  be the Dihedral group of order  $2n$  and  $R^{(n)}$  the group of rotations in  $D_{2n}$ . Then  $R^{(n)}$  is a normal subgroup of  $D_{2n}$ .

The proof of this is similar to the proof of  $A_n \triangleleft S_n$ . Any member of  $D_{2n}$  is either a rotation  $r$  or a reflection  $p$ . We know that

$$\left. \begin{aligned} r R^{(n)} &= R^{(n)} = R^{(n)} r, \quad \forall r \in R^{(n)} \\ \text{and } p R^{(n)} &= D_{2n} - R^{(n)} = R^{(n)} p, \quad \forall p \in D_{2n} - R^{(n)} \end{aligned} \right\} \text{ Hence } R^{(n)} \triangleleft D_{2n}$$