

4/3/2014

Abstract Algebra

* Review all ^{past} course material and recent HW problems.

Going Quiz #8

1)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 \\ 7 & 8 & 5 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 10 & 6 & 9 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow (1\ 7\ 10) \circ (2\ 8\ 6\ 4) \circ (3\ 5) \quad \text{"In cycles form"}$$

~~(1 10)(1 7)(2 8)(2 6)(2 4)(3 5)~~

$$= (1\ 10)(1\ 7)(2\ 8)(2\ 6)(2\ 4)(3\ 5)$$

a product of transpositions (placement of cycles is very important)

2) Prove the square of a cycle is not necessarily a cycle. (Hint look in S_4)

Answer (Possibility #1):

so, $\cancel{(1\ 2)^2 = id}$ $\cancel{\text{"a cycle squared"}}$

$(1\ 2)^2 = id$ is a cycle

then, $(1\ 2\ 3)^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$

$= (1\ 2\ 3)$ is a cycle

⇒

then, $(1\ 2\ 3\ 4)^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 & 2 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$

Remark:

$= (1\ 3)\circ(2\ 4)$ is not case

where the ~~square~~ square of a cycle
is a cycle (we mean the same cycle).

Defn/

Note: Being a cycle is a well-defined property.

Proof:

Continuation of Lecture on Even/Odd Permutations

Defn: A permutation which can be expressed as a product of an even # of transpositions is called an even permutation.

then, odd # of \longleftrightarrow odd permutation
transpositions

Ex: Is $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 & 5 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ even or odd?

indicating the
~~decomp.~~ decompt.
the given

Answer: $(1\ 3)(2\ 4\ 5) = \text{(*)}$ the given

$\Rightarrow (1, 3)(2, 5)(2, 4)$

permutation

let

let
tran

so,

Chap

\Rightarrow The given permutation is odd QED

Remark: The composition of even permutations is even.
The converse is also true.

Defn / Proposition:

The set of even permutations in S_n (for any $n \geq 2$) is a subgroup of S_n , called the alternating group, A_n .

Proof: $\text{id} = (12)(12) \checkmark$

let $f, g \in A_n \Rightarrow f \circ g$ is a product of the transpositions in f and g . The total number is even again (because even + even = even)

let $f \in A_n$, $f = \tau_1 \circ \dots \circ \tau_k$ as a product of transpositions.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{so, } f^{-1} &= \tau_k^{-1} \circ \dots \circ \tau_1^{-1} \\ &= \tau_k \circ \dots \circ \tau_1 \end{aligned}$$

QED

Chapter 4 Section 2

Cayley's Theorem

the proof of Cayley's
Theorem (itself) :

Every finite group G is a subgroup of $S_{\#G}$

Proof: We will write down a monomorphism
 $G \rightarrow S_{\#G}$ as follows:

\Rightarrow For an arbitrary $g \in G$, \exists bijection
 $\ell_g: G \rightarrow G$

Namely: $\ell_g(h) = gh$

Proof that this is a bijection,

$$\ell_g(h_1) = \ell_g(h_2)$$

$$\text{then, } g^{-1} \cdot 1 \Leftrightarrow gh_1 = gh_2$$

$$\Rightarrow h_1 = h_2$$

so, the monomorphism is $\phi: G \rightarrow S_{\#G}$
 $g \mapsto \ell_g$

Proof that ϕ is a
monomorphism:

1) ϕ is a homomorphism

then, $\phi(g_1) \circ \phi(g_2) = \phi(g_1 g_2)$

a. Now we apply $\phi(g_1) \circ \phi(g_2)$ to h :

$$\text{then, } (\phi(g_1) \circ \phi(g_2))(h)$$

$$= \phi(g_1)(\ell_{g_2}(h))$$

$$= \phi(g_1)(g_2 h) = \ell_{g_1}(g_2 h) = \boxed{g_1 g_2 h} \checkmark$$

then, apply $\phi(g_1 g_2)(h)$,

b. $\phi(g_1 g_2)(h) = \ell_{g_1 g_2}(h) = \boxed{g_1 g_2 h} \checkmark$

2) ϕ is injective

then, let $\phi(g_1) = \phi(g_2)$

then, in particular, $\underbrace{\phi(g_1)(e)}_{\ell_{g_1}(e)} = \underbrace{\phi(g_2)(e)}_{\ell_{g_2}(e)}$

$$\begin{aligned} \ell_{g_1}(e) &= \ell_{g_2}(e) \\ &= g_2 \end{aligned}$$

QED

4/8/2014 Abstract Algebra

Chapter 4 Section 4 - Cosets of a subgroup.

Defn: Let $H \subseteq G$ be a subgroup.

For any $a \in G$,

$$aH = \{x \in G \mid x = ah \text{ for some } h \in H\}$$

is the left coset of H with respect to the group element "a".

* Analogously, $Ha \Rightarrow$ the right coset of H with respect to the group element "a".

Lemma 4.11 - "Left Coset Partition Lemma"

Let aH and bH be 2 cosets. Then either $aH = bH$ or $aH \cap bH = \emptyset$

↑ implies only 1 of these statements is true

Proof of Lemma 4.11:

Let's assume that $aH \cap bH = \emptyset$ is false.

$$\Rightarrow \exists z \in G: z \notin aH \cap bH$$

Show: $aH \subseteq bH$ (\supseteq by symmetry)

Proof of : Let $z = ah_1 = bh_2$

Show

$$h_1 \in H \quad h_2 \in H$$

then, solve for a :

$$\Leftrightarrow a = bh_2 h_1^{-1}$$

From this we can conclude,

$$\forall h \in H : ah = bh_2 h_1^{-1} h, \text{ where } h_2 h_1^{-1} h \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow bh_2 h_1^{-1} h \in bH \quad \boxed{\text{QED}}$$

"break up"

Corollary: The left cosets partition G into mutually disjoint subsets.

Defn: Let H be a subgroup of G .

Define "index of H in G ": =

Note:

$[G:H] = \# \text{ of}$
disjoint left
cosets of H .

Note:

$$eH = H$$

~~Note~~ Theorem 4.13 - Lagrange's Theorem

Let G be a finite group.
Let H be a subgroup of G .
then,

$$\text{ord } G = (\text{ord } H) \cdot [G:H]$$

Recheck \Rightarrow
this later.

this works when you have
the same # of elements
in the

Proof: Our strategy will be to show that all

left cosets have the same cardinality.

It clearly suffices to show that,

$\forall a \in H$: the left coset H and aH have the same cardinality.

To prove this, we prove $f: H \rightarrow aH$

Note \Rightarrow "aH" is not a group unless $aH = H$.

$$\text{so, } f: H \rightarrow aH$$

$h \mapsto ah$ is bijective (we need to prove that the bijectivity

so, $\text{Injectivity} \Rightarrow f(h_1) = f(h_2) \text{ holds}$

$$\Leftrightarrow ah_1 = ah_2$$

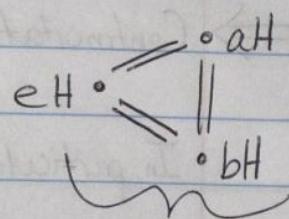
$$\text{then, } a^{-1} \cdot 1 \Leftrightarrow h_1 = h_2 \quad \checkmark$$

and $\text{Surjectivity} \Rightarrow$ let $z \in aH$ be " $z = ah_0$ "

$$\text{then, } f(h_0) = ah_0 = z \quad \boxed{\text{QED}}$$

Corollary: The order of H (aka $\text{ord } H$) divides the order of G (aka $\text{ord } G$)
 $\Leftrightarrow \text{ord } H / \text{ord } G$

Note:



indicating transitivity

Ex: If $\text{ord } G = 13$, then $\text{ord } H =$ the trivial answer (aka 1)

⇒ Continuation of previous Corollary:

In particular, $\forall g \in G: \text{ord}(g) = \text{ord}(\langle g \rangle)$

the order of

" g " divides the order of " G ".

Ex: Find all subgroups of S_3

→ Because of the previous corollary, we know that the order of any subgroup is 1, 2, 3, or 6.

then, $\text{ord } H = 1: H = \{e\}$

then, $\text{ord } H = 2: H = \{e, (1, 2)\}$

Note!

$S_3 = \{e, (1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3), (1, 2, 3), (1, 3, 2)\}$

and $H = \{e, (1, 3)\}$

$= \boxed{\langle (1, 3) \rangle}$

and

$H = \{e, (2, 3)\}$

$= \boxed{\langle (2, 3) \rangle}$

and $\text{ord } H = 3 : H = \{e, (123), (132)\}$

Ex: Find all subgroups of $(\mathbb{Z}_{15}, +)$

then, $15 = 3 \cdot 5 \Rightarrow$

Note :

$\text{ord } H = 3 :$

$$H = \{[0], [5], [10]\}$$

Proposition Any group of prime order is cyclic.

$\text{ord } H = 5 :$

$$H = \{[0], [3], [6], [9], [12]\}$$

Proof: Let $e \neq g \in G$ group
(we claim that g is arbitrary)

Proof of Claim: $\langle g \rangle = G$ (This is given claim)

then, $1 < \text{ord}(\langle g \rangle)$ and by Lagrange's Theorem,
 $\text{ord}(g) \mid \text{ord}(G) = \text{prime}$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \text{ord}(\langle g \rangle) &= \text{ord } G \\ \Rightarrow \langle g \rangle &= G \quad \boxed{\text{QED}} \end{aligned}$$

Proposition

Let $\text{ord}(G) = p \cdot q$, where "p" and "q" are prime numbers.

then, any proper subgroup is cyclic.

Proof: For any proper $\overset{\text{sub}}{H}$, one of the following holds:

$$1) \text{ord } H = 1$$

$$2) \text{ord } H = p$$

$$3) \text{ord } H = q$$

Now, we can apply
the previous proposition

QED

* * Review course material from Tuesday, April 8th

4/8/2014

Vector Analysis

\Rightarrow Given Set $R \in \mathbb{R}$ is open if for any $x \in R$, there is $\overline{B_\epsilon(x)} \subset R$

a ball
centered
at x of

a small radius
 ϵ .

so, $B_\epsilon(x)$ - a ball centered at x of radius ϵ .

$\mathbb{R}^3 \Rightarrow$ Ball

$\mathbb{R}^2 \Rightarrow$ Disc

$\mathbb{R}^1 \Rightarrow$ Interval

Ex: $R = \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(x, y) : y=0, 0 < x < 1\}$

★ ★ Review class notes on Discrete Fourier transform
and Fast Fourier Transform ★ ★

4/10/2014

Abstract Algebra

Continuation of 4.4 - Cosets and Starting 4.5 - ^{Normal} Subgroups

Chapter 4 Section 5 - Normal Subgroups

Recall: Let $H \subset G$ be a subgroup. Then for $a \in G$,
 $\Rightarrow aH = \{x \in G \mid x = ah, \text{ for some } h \in H\}$ is
the LEFT COSET OF H in G .

$\Rightarrow Ha = \{x \in G \mid x = ha, \text{ for some } h \in H\}$ is
the RIGHT COSET OF H in G .

Note: Special subgroup \Rightarrow when LEFT COSET
= RIGHT COSET

Defn: Let $H \subset G$ be a subgroup. Then H is
NORMAL if $\forall x \in G$, $xH = Hx$. (In other words,
left coset = right coset).

WARNING: $xH = Hx \leftarrow$ "Equality of Sets"

\sim
this does not mean $xh = hx : \forall x \in G$
 $, h \in H$.

Ex: Let $G = S_3 = \{(1), (1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3), (1, 2, 3), (1, 3, 2)\}$

and $H = \{(1), (1, 2, 3), (1, 3, 2)\}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let } x = (1, 2) \Rightarrow xH &= (1, 2)H \\ &= \{(1, 2)(1), (1, 2)(1, 2, 3), \\ &\quad (1, 2)(1, 3, 2)\} \\ &= \{(1, 2), (2, 3), (1, 3)\} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{and } Hx &= \{(1)(1, 2), (1, 2, 3)(1, 2), (1, 3, 2)(1, 2)\} \\ &= \{(1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3)\} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{so, } (1, 2)H = H(1, 2) \quad \checkmark$$

What you can also check later:

$$(1)H = H(1)$$

$$(1, 2, 3)H = H(1, 2, 3)$$

$$(1, 3, 2)H = H(1, 3, 2)$$

$$(1, 3)H = H(1, 3)$$

$$(2, 3)H = H(2, 3)$$

Note:
 $(1, 2)(1, 2, 3)$

$$1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 1$$

$$2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 3$$

$$3 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 2$$

$$(1, 3, 2)(1, 2)$$

$$1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 1$$

$$2 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 3$$

$$3 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 2$$

Theorem 4.16

If H is any subgroup of G , then
 $xH = H = Hx \Leftrightarrow x \in H$

* Review Permutation Multiplication

Theorem 4.18 - Conjugates and Normality

Let $H \subset G$ be a subgroup. Then H is normal

$$\Leftrightarrow \forall x \in G, \forall h \in H, xhx^{-1} \in H$$

same notation used in the

April 8th lecture

Note: xhx^{-1} is called the conjugate of h .

$$\Rightarrow H \text{ is normal} \Leftrightarrow xHx^{-1} \subseteq H \quad \checkmark$$

Proof of Theorem 4.18

" \Rightarrow " Assume H is normal

$$\text{then, } \forall x \in G, xH = Hx \quad [\text{By definition}]$$

$$\Rightarrow \forall h \in H, \forall x \in G, \exists h' \in H \text{ such that } xh = h'x$$

$$\Rightarrow xhx^{-1} = h' \text{ and } h' \in H \text{ (multiplication by } x^{-1})$$

$$\Rightarrow xhx^{-1} \in H$$



" \Leftarrow " Reverse steps used in " \Rightarrow "

$$\text{so, } \overset{\text{assume}}{xhx^{-1} \in H} \Rightarrow xhx^{-1} = h', h' \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow \forall h \in H, \forall x \in G, \exists h' \in H \text{ s.t. } xh = h'x$$

$$\Rightarrow \forall x \in G, xH = Hx \quad [\text{By defn.}]$$

$\Rightarrow H$ is normal

QED

Recall: If $H \subset G$ is a subgroup, then the INDEX of H in G is $[G:H] = \# \text{ of left cosets of } H$ (definition)

$$= \frac{\text{order } G}{\text{order } H} \quad [\text{by Lagrange's Theorem}]$$

Theorem - Every subgroup H of G of index 2 is normal. (So is this true? Let's prove it)

Proof: Assume $H \subset G$ has index of 2
(in other words, $[G:H] = 2$)

Let $x \in G$ be arbitrary

Case I: $x \in H \Rightarrow xH = H = Hx$, so H is normal

Using

Theorem

4.16

Case II: $x \notin H$

or $x \in G$, but
 $x \notin H$

QED

written as
 G/H

$[G:H] = 2 \Rightarrow$ 2 left cosets of H

so, $eH = H$ (we know ^{that} at least 1 \nwarrow left coset exists and that coset is H itself)

then, xH will be the other left coset.

Recall: Left cosets partition G into disjoint sets

⇒ pictorially,

coset 1	coset 2
------------	------------

then, $G = H \cup xH$ [\cup is used to represent "disjoint"]

Similarly, $G = H \cup Hx$ [for the right cosets]

so, $G = H \cup xH = H \cup Hx \iff xH = Hx$, so H is normal

QED

Chapter 4 Section 6 - Quotient Groups

(Theorem) - Groups of Cosets

Let H be a normal subgroup.

Then the set of all cosets

of H in G form a group

with respect to the following
binary operation:

written
as
 G/H

$$\text{if } a, b \in G, (aH)(bH) := \boxed{(ab)H}$$

Side Note:

whenever H is
normal, left coset =
right coset

⇒ for brevity, we will
then just say
"coset",
when left = right

Proof:

Closed: Let $aH, bH \in G/H$

$$\text{then, } (aH)(bH) = a(Hb)H$$

because G associative

Side Note:

4 Conditions for
defining a group.

- 1) closed
- 2) associative
- 3) identity elements
- 4) inverses

$$= a(bH)H \quad \left\{ \text{because } H \text{ is normal} \right.$$

$$=(ab)HH \quad \left\{ G \text{ is associative} \right.$$

$$=(ab)H \quad \left\{ \text{because } HH = H \right.$$

$\Rightarrow G/H$ is closed ✓ QED

Associativity: → Associativity is inherited from
G itself QED

Identity elements: → The identity is $eH = H$.

Now we check this to be true.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{so, } (aH)(eH) &= (ae)H \\ &= aH \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

* This is the same for $(eH)(aH) = aH \quad \checkmark$ QED

Inverses: Let $aH \in G/H$

$$\text{so, } (aH)(a^{-1}H) = eH$$

$$\text{Check: } (aH)(a^{-1}H) = (aa^{-1}H) = eH \quad \checkmark$$

This is the same for $(a^{-1}H)(aH) = eH \quad \checkmark$

$\Rightarrow G/H$ is a group

Final QED → So the set of
all cosets of H

in G is a group.

Defn: If $H \subset G$ is normal, the group of cosets, G/H is called the quotient group of G by H .

Remark: IF G is abelian (aka commutative), then any subgroup of G is normal.

Also G abelian implies the quotient group, G/H , is also abelian.

Note:

DO NOT MIX UP,

G/H "quotient" group

$G \setminus H$ "G excluding H "

Note:

~~G/H makes sense if H is normal~~ only G/H only makes sense if H is normal.

$$\text{so, } (aH)(bH) = (ab)H = (ba)H = (bH)(aH)$$

\Rightarrow then ~~normal~~ associativity holds to be true.

4/10/2014

Vector Analysis

Section 4.4 Problem 7b

$$\text{since } F = [(1+x)e^{x+y}]^i + [xe^{x+y} + 2y]^j - 2z^k$$

$$\text{then, } G = [(1+x)e^{x+y}]^i + [xe^{x+y} + 2\frac{z}{y}]^j - 2y^k$$