PMATH347S18 - Groups & Rings

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1 Lecture 1 May 02nd 2018

1.1 Introduction

1.1.1 Numbers

The following are some of the number sets that we are already familiar with:

$$\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, ...\} \qquad \mathbb{Z} = \{.., -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, ...\}$$

$$\mathbb{Q} = \left\{\frac{a}{b} : a \in \mathbb{Z}, b \in \mathbb{N}\right\} \qquad \mathbb{R} = \text{ set of real numbers}$$

$$\mathbb{C} = \{a + bi : a, b \in \mathbb{R}, i = \sqrt{-1}\} = \text{ set of complex numbers}$$

For $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, let \mathbb{Z}_n denote the set of integers modulo n, i.e.

$$\mathbb{Z}_n = \{[0], [1], ..., [n-1]\}$$

where the [r], $0 \le r \le n-1$, are the congruence classes, i.e.

$$[r] = \{ z \in \mathbb{Z} : z \equiv r \mod n \}$$

These sets share some common properties, e.g. + and \times . Let's try to break that down to make further observation.

NOTE THAT for $R = \mathbb{N}$, \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} , or \mathbb{Z}_n , R has 2 operations, i.e. addition and multiplication.

Addition If $r_1, r_2, r_3 \in R$, then

- (closure) $r_1 + r_2 \in R$
- (associativity) $r_1 + (r_2 + r_3) = (r_1 + r_2) + r_3$

Also, if $R \neq \mathbb{N}$, then $\exists 0 \in R$ (the **additive identity**) such that

$$\forall r \in R \quad r+0=r=0+r.$$

Also, $\forall r \in R$, $\exists (-r) \in R$ such that

$$r + (-r) = 0 = (-r) + r.$$

Multiplication For $r_1, r_2, r_3 \in R$, we have

- (closure) $r_1r_2 \in R$
- (associativity) $r_1(r_2r_3) = (r_1r_2)r_3$

Also, $\exists 1 \in R$ (a.k.a the mutiplicative identity), such that

$$\forall r \in R \quad r \cdot 1 = r = 1 \cdot r.$$

Finally, for $R = \mathbb{Q}$, \mathbb{R} , or \mathbb{C} , $\forall r \in R$, $\exists r^{-1} \in R$ such that

$$r \cdot r^{-1} = 1 = r^{-1} \cdot r$$
.

Note that for $R = \mathbb{Z}_n$, where $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, not all $[r] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ have a multiplicative inverse. For example, for $[2] \in \mathbb{Z}_4$, there is no $[x] \in \mathbb{Z}_4$ such that [2][x] = [1].

1.1.2 Matrices

For $n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{1\}$, an $n \times n$ matrix over \mathbb{R}^2 is an $n \times n$ array that can be expressed as follows:

$$A = [a_{ij}] = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

where for $1 \le i, j \le n$, $a_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$. We denote $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ as the set of all $n \times n$ matrices over \mathbb{R} .

As in Section 1.1.1, we can perform addition and multiplication on $M_n(\mathbb{R})$.

¹ This is best proven using techniques introduced in MATH135/145.

Matrix Addition Given $A = [a_{ij}], B = [b_{ij}], C = [c_{ij}] \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$, we define matrix addition as

$$A + B = [a_{ij} + b_{ij}],$$

which immediately gives the **closure property**, since $a_{ij} + b_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$ and hence $A + B \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$. Also, by this definition, we also immediately obtain the associativity property, i.e.

$$A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C.$$

We define the zero matrix as

$$0 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then we have that 0 is the additive identity, i.e.

$$A + 0 = A = 0 + A$$
.

Finally, $\forall A \in M_n(\mathbb{R}), \exists (-A) \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ (the additive inverse) such that

$$A + (-A) = 0 - (-A) + A$$
.

Note that in this case, we also have that that the operation is commutative, i.e.

$$A + B = B + A$$
.

Matrix Multiplication Given $A = [a_{ij}], B = [b_{ij}], C = [c_{ij}] \in M_n(\mathbb{R}),$ we define the matrix multiplication as

$$AB = [d_{ij}]$$
 where $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{kj} \in \mathbb{R}$.

Clearly, $AB \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$, i.e. it is closed under matrix multiplication. Also, we have that, under such a defintion, matrix multiplication is associative, i.e.

$$A(BC) = (AB)C.$$

Define the identity matrix, $I \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$, as follows:

$$I = egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \ dots & dots & & dots \ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then we have that *I* is the **multiplicative identity**, since

$$AI = A = IA$$
.

However, contrary to matrix addition, $\forall A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$, it is not always true that $\exists A^{-1} \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ such that

$$AA^{-1} = I = A^{-1}A.$$

Also, we can always find some $A, B \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ such that

$$AB \neq BA$$
,

i.e. matrix multiplication is not always commutative.

THE COMMON PROPERTIES of the operations from above: **closure**, **associativity**, **and existence of an inverse**, are not unique to just addition and multiplication. We shall see in the next lecture that there are other operations where these properties will continue to hold, e.g. **permutations**.

This is especially true if the **determinant** of A is 0.

2 Lecture 2 May 04th 2018

2.1 *Introduction* (Continued)

2.1.1 Permutations

Definition 2.1.1 (Injectivity)

Let $f: X \to Y$ be a function. We say that f is **injective** (or **one-to-one**) if $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ implies $x_1 = x_2$.

Definition 2.1.2 (Surjectivity)

Let $f: X \to Y$ be a function. We say that f is surjective (or onto) if $\forall y \in Y \ \exists x \in X \ f(x) = y$.

Definition 2.1.3 (Bijectivity)

Let $f: X \to Y$ be a function. We say that f is **bijective** if it is both *injective* and *surjective*.

Definition 2.1.4 (Permutations)

Given a non-empty set L, a permutation of L is a bijection from L to L. The set of all permutations of L is denoted by S_L .

Example 2.1.1

Consider the set $L = \{1,2,3\}$, which has the following 6 different permutations:

$$\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
1 & 2 & 3
\end{pmatrix} \quad
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
1 & 3 & 2
\end{pmatrix} \quad
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
2 & 1 & 3
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
2 & 3 & 1
\end{pmatrix} \quad
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
3 & 1 & 2
\end{pmatrix} \quad
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
3 & 2 & 1
\end{pmatrix}$$

For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we denote $S_n := S_{\{1,2,\dots,n\}}$, the set of all permutations of

Note

$$\begin{pmatrix}1&2&3\\1&3&2\end{pmatrix}$$
 indicates the bijection $\sigma:\{1,2,3\}\to\{1,2,3\}$ with $\sigma(1)=1,\sigma(2)=3$ and $\sigma(3)=2.$

 $\{1,2,...,n\}$. Example 2.1.1 shows the elements of the set S_3 .

Definition 2.1.5 (Order)

The **order** of a set A, denoted by |A|, is the cardinality of the set.

Example 2.1.2

We have seen that the order of S_3 , $|S_3|$ is 6 = 3!.

Proposition 2.1.1

$$|S_n| = n!$$

Proof

 $\forall \sigma \in S_n$, there are n choices for $\sigma(1)$, n-1 choices for $\sigma(2)$, ..., 2 choices for $\sigma(n-1)$, and finally 1 choice for $\sigma(n)$.

Do elements of S_n share the same properties as what we've seen in the numbers? Given $\sigma, \tau \in S_n$, we can **compose** the 2 together to get a third element in S_n , namely $\sigma\tau$ (wlog), where $\sigma\tau: \{1,...,n\} \to \{1,...,n\}$ is given by $\forall x \in \{1,...,n\}, x \mapsto \sigma(\tau(x))$.

It is important to note that $:: \sigma, \tau$ are **both bijective**, $\sigma\tau$ is also bijective. Thus, together with the fact that $\sigma\tau : \{1,...,n\} \to \{1,...,n\}$, we have that $\sigma\tau \in S_n$ by definition of S_n .

 $\therefore \forall \sigma, \tau \in S_n$, $\sigma\tau, \tau\sigma \in S_n$, but $\sigma\tau \neq \tau\sigma$ in general. The following is an example of the stated case:

Example 2.1.3

Let

$$\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ and } \tau = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Compute $\sigma \tau$ and $\tau \sigma$ to show that they are not equal.

Solution

$$\sigma au = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$
 but $\tau \sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$

Perhaps what is interesting is the question of: **when does commutativity occur?** One such case is when σ and τ have support sets that are disjoint¹.

¹ This is proven in A₁

On the other hand, the associative property holds², i.e.

Exercise 2.1.1

Prove this as an exercise.

$$\forall \sigma, \tau, \mu \in S_n \ \sigma(\tau \mu) = (\sigma \tau) \mu$$

The set S_n also has an identity element³, namely

$$\varepsilon = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \dots & n \\ 1 & 2 & \dots & n \end{pmatrix}$$

Finally, $\forall \sigma \in S_n$, since σ is a bijection, we have that its inverse function, σ^{-1} is also a bijection, and thus satisfies the requirements to be in S_n . We call $\sigma^{-1} \in S_n$ to be the inverse permutation of σ , such that

$$\forall x, y \in \{1, ..., n\} \quad \sigma^{-1}(x) = y \iff \sigma(y) = x.$$

It follows, immediately, that

$$\sigma(\sigma^{-1}(x)) = x \wedge \sigma^{-1}(\sigma(y)) = y.$$

... We have that

$$\sigma\sigma^{-1} = \varepsilon = \sigma^{-1}\sigma$$
.

Example 2.1.4

Find the inverse of

$$\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 4 & 5 & 1 & 273 \end{pmatrix}$$

Solution

By rearranging the image in ascending order, using them now as the object and their respective objects as their image, construct

$$\tau = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

It can easily (although perhaps not so prettily) be shown that

$$\sigma \tau = \varepsilon = \tau \sigma$$
.

With all the above, we have for ourselves the following proposition:

Proposition 2.1.2 (Properties of S_n)

We have

1.
$$\forall \sigma, \tau \in S_n \ \sigma \tau, \tau \sigma \in S_n$$
.

2.
$$\forall \sigma, \tau, \mu \in S_n \ \sigma(\tau \mu) = (\sigma \tau) \mu$$
.

Exercise 2.1.2

Verify that the given identity element is indeed the identity, i.e.

$$\forall \sigma \in S_n \ \sigma \varepsilon = \sigma = \varepsilon \sigma.$$

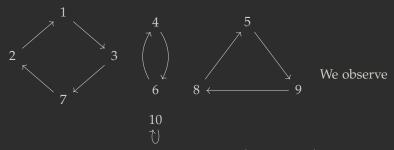
3. $\exists \varepsilon \in S_n \ \forall \sigma \in S_n \ \sigma \varepsilon = \sigma = \varepsilon \sigma$.

4.
$$\forall \sigma \in S_n \ \exists ! \sigma^{-1} \in S_n \ \sigma \sigma^{-1} = \varepsilon = \sigma^{-1} \sigma.$$

Consider

$$\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 \ 3 & 1 & 7 & 6 & 9 & 4 & 2 & 5 & 8 & 10 \end{pmatrix} \in S_{10}$$

If we represent the action of σ geometrically, we get



that σ can be **decomposed** into one 4-cycle, $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 7 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$, one 2-cycle, $\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$, one 3-cycle, $\begin{pmatrix} 5 & 9 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$, and one 1-cycle, $\begin{pmatrix} 10 \end{pmatrix}$.

Note that these cycles are (pairwise) disjoint, and we can write⁴

$$\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 7 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 9 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

Note that we may also write

$$\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 9 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 7 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} 6 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 9 & 8 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

It is interesting to note that the cycles can rotate their "elements" in a cyclic manner, i.e.

$$\begin{pmatrix}1&3&7&2\end{pmatrix}=\begin{pmatrix}7&2&1&3\end{pmatrix}\neq\begin{pmatrix}1&2&7&3\end{pmatrix}.$$

Although the decomposition of the cycle notation is not unique (i.e. you may rearrange them), each individual cycle is unique, and is proven below⁵.

Theorem 2.1.1 (Cycle Decomposition Theorem)

If $\sigma \in S_n$, $\sigma \neq \varepsilon$, then σ is a product of (one or more) disjoint cycles of length at least 2. This factorization is unique up to the order of the factors.

⁴ We generally do not include the 1-cycle and assume that by excluding them, it is known that any number that is supposed to appear loops back to themselves.

⁵ See bonus question of A1. Proof will be included in the notes once the assignment is over.

Note (Convention)

Every permutation in S_n can be regarded as a permutation of S_{n+1} by fixing the permutation of n + 1. Therefore, we have that

$$S_1 \subseteq S_2 \subseteq \ldots \subseteq S_n \subseteq S_{n+1} \subseteq \ldots$$

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