

obk7
 (duals
 . has some
 else -
 week 1

remark: (2) Induction also works for statements that are true for all $N \ni n \geq n_0 > 1$, since \exists a obvious isomorphism between $\{n_0, n_0+1, n_0+2, \dots\}$ and N .

12 Groups

2.1 The definition of a group

def. 1: let $G \neq \emptyset$ be a set. let μ_{be} be a mapping $\varphi: G \times G \rightarrow G$ that assigns to every ordered pair (a, b) with $a, b \in G$ an element of G that we denote by $a \vee b$.

remark: " \vee " is used to denote the mapping, i.e., $\varphi(a, b) = a \vee b$. It is not to be confused with the logical operator "or".

let \vee have the following properties

(i) $a \vee b \in G \quad \forall a, b \in G$ (closure; this is already implied by what we said above)

(ii) $(a \vee b) \vee c = a \vee (b \vee c)$ (associativity)

(iii) $\exists e \in G: e \vee a = a \quad \forall a \in G$ (existence of a neutral element)

(iv) $a \in G \rightarrow \exists a^{-1} \in G: a^{-1} \vee a = e$ (existence of an inverse)

then G is called a group under the operation \vee , and we write (G, \vee) .

$\exists!$, i.e. addition,

(v) $a \vee b = b \vee a \quad \forall a, b \in G$

then G is called an abelian group, and \vee is called commutative.

p¹⁰ f.p.

Remark: (1') The notation $ab \equiv a \cdot b \equiv ab$ and $e \equiv 1$ is
and more generally, in which case the group
is called "multiplicative".

remark: (1) For abelian groups, " v " is often denoted by " $+$ " and called addition.
 In this case, e is usually denoted by 0 ("zero"), and a^{-1} by $-a$ ("negative a "). Instead of $e + (-e) = 0$ one usually writes $a - a = 0$. With these conventions, the group is called additive.

example: (1) $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$, with the ordinary addition, is an abelian group with the neutral element the number zero.

(2) $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ is an abelian group.

proposition 1: $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ is an abelian group under ordinary multiplication. The neutral element is the number 1.

proof: (i) $a, b \in \mathbb{R} \rightarrow ab \in \mathbb{R}$ closed \checkmark
 (ii) $(ab)c = a(bc) \forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$ associativity \checkmark
 (iii) $1a = a \forall a \in \mathbb{R}$ neutral element \checkmark
 (iv) $a^{-1} = \frac{1}{a}$ exists $\forall a \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ and $aa^{-1} = 1 \forall a \in \mathbb{R}$
 (v) $ab = ba \forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ inverse \checkmark

proposition 2: (a) $ava^{-1} = a^{-1}va = e$ (left inverse = right inverse)
 and $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$

(b) $eve = eva = a$ (left identity = right identity)

(c) The neutral element is unique

proof: (a) def 1 (iii), (iv) $\rightarrow a^{-1}va va^{-1} = eva^{-1} = a^{-1}$

that a^{-1} has a inverse $(a^{-1})^{-1}$. Multiply with $(a^{-1})^{-1}$ from

the left: $(a^{-1})^{-1}va^{-1}va^{-1} = (a^{-1})^{-1}a^{-1} = e$

$evava^{-1} = eva^{-1}$

\rightarrow right inverse = left inverse and $a = (a^{-1})^{-1}$.

(b) $eva = \underbrace{ev}_{=e}a^{-1}va = \underbrace{eva}_{=e}$

(c) Suppose there were multiple neutral elements $e, (e^{-1}, \dots)$
 $\rightarrow ne = ne = n \neq n$ that $a^{-1}va =$ some e .

example: (3) The set $\{a, e\}$ with an operation ν defined by
 $e\nu e = e, e\nu e = e, e\nu a = a, a\nu e = e$
 forms a abelian group.

remark: (2) For finite groups, the operation scheme
 can be represented as a table. For
 example (3) we have

	e	a
e	e	a
a	e	e

2.2 Rules of operation

Let (G, ν) be a group. Then

proposition 1: $(a\nu b)^{-1} = b^{-1}\nu a^{-1} \quad \forall a, b \in G$

proof: $(b^{-1}\nu a^{-1})\nu(a\nu b) = b^{-1}\nu a^{-1}\nu a\nu b = b^{-1}\nu e\nu b = b^{-1}\nu b = e$ \square

def. 1: (a) Let G be a multiplicative group. Then we write the composition
 of $n \in \mathbb{N}$ elements of G

$$a_1 \nu a_2 \nu \dots \nu a_n = a_1 a_2 \dots a_n =: \prod_{\nu=1}^n a_\nu$$

and we define recursively $\prod_{\nu=1}^{h+1} a_\nu = \left(\prod_{\nu=1}^h a_\nu \right) a_{h+1}$.

We call this the product of the factors a_1, \dots, a_n .

(b) A product of n identical factors,

$$\prod_{\nu=1}^n a =: a^n$$

is called the n^{th} power of a .

proposition 2: $\prod_{\mu=1}^m a_\mu \prod_{\nu=1}^n a_\nu = \prod_{\xi=1}^{m+n} a_\xi \quad (*)$

That is, the product of two products equals the product

proof: by induction. let $n=1$. Then (*) holds by def. 1(a).
 Suppose (*) holds for some value of n . Then it holds for $n+1$:

$$\prod_{p=1}^n a_p \prod_{v=1}^{n+1} c_{n+v} = \prod_{p=1}^n a_p \left(\prod_{v=1}^n c_{n+v} \cdot c_{n+n+1} \right)$$

induction implies

$$\stackrel{\text{associativity}}{=} \left(\prod_{p=1}^n a_p \prod_{v=1}^n c_{n+v} \right) c_{n+n+1} = \left(\prod_{p=1}^{n+n} a_p \right) c_{n+n+1} = \prod_{v=1}^{n+n+1} a_v \quad \square$$

Wolley: (a) $a^n a^m = a^{n+m}$

(b) $(a^n)^m = a^{nm}$

proof: Problem 8

def. 2: The zero power is defined by $a^0 := e$

and negative powers by $a^{-n} := (a^{-1})^n$

remark: (1) The latter definition conforms with Wolley (b)

remark: (2) For additive groups, we write

$$a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n =: \sum_{v=1}^n a_v$$

and call this the sum of the a_v .

A sum of identical elements is a multiple of that element

$$\sum_{v=1}^n a = na$$

Prop. 2 and its Wolley still hold with Π replaced

by Σ , and $\sum_{p=1}^m a_p + \sum_{v=m+1}^{m+n} a_v = \sum_{p=1}^{m+n} a_p$ (prop 2)

replaced by + : $na + ma = (n+m)a$ (Wolley (a))

show $a = hna$ (Wolley (b))

Problem 9

Prove Li and P. 10/11/12

2.3 Permutations

def. 1: Let M be a ^{finite} set, and let $P: M \rightarrow M$ be a bijective mapping. Then P is called a permutation of M .

remark: (1) If M is finite with n elements, then M has the same cardinality as $\{1, \dots, n\}$. \rightarrow We can describe P by its action on $\{1, \dots, n\}$:

$$P_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & \dots & n \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & \dots & n \end{pmatrix}, \quad P_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & \dots & n \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & \dots & n \end{pmatrix} \text{ etc.}$$

proposition: The set of all permutations on a finite set with n elements forms a group ^{also written} called the symmetric group S_n .

proof.

- (i) closure \checkmark by def. 1
- (ii) associativity \checkmark by § 1.2 prop. 1
- (iii) $E = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & \dots & n \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & \dots & n \end{pmatrix}$ serves as the unit element.
- (iv) Any permutation is bijective and therefore has an inverse by § 1.2 remark (3). □

remark: (2) S_n is a group not abelian, see Problem 10.

2.4 Subgroups

def. 1: Let (G, \cdot) be a group, and let $H \subset G$ with $H \neq \emptyset$. Then H is called a subgroup of G if H is itself a group under \cdot .

rem. 1. (1) $1 \in H \subset G$ $\forall H$. \dots $H = \{e\}$ is a subgroup.

Lemma 1: H is a subgroup iff $a, b \in H$ implies $ab^{-1} \in H$.

proof: (1) Show that $(a, b \in H \rightarrow ab^{-1} \in H) \rightarrow H$ is a subgroup

happen $a, b \in H \rightarrow ab^{-1} \in H$.

In particular, if $b = e \in H \rightarrow a e^{-1} = a \in H$

and if $a = e \rightarrow e b^{-1} = b^{-1} \in H$

\rightarrow Axioms (iii), (iv) from §2.1 are fulfilled.

Axiom (ii) is trivially fulfilled, since G and H share the associative operation \cdot .

Now consider $ab = a(b^{-1})^{-1} \in H$ since $b^{-1} \in H$ if $b \in H$

\rightarrow Axiom (i) is fulfilled.

$\rightarrow H$ is a group \rightarrow The condition is sufficient

(2) Show that $(a, b \in H$ does not imply $ab^{-1} \in H) \rightarrow H$ is not a subgroup

happen $\exists a, b \in H: ab^{-1} \notin H$.

In order for H to be a group, $b \in H$ must imply $b^{-1} \in H$.

So now we have $a, b^{-1} \in H$, but $ab^{-1} \notin H$

\rightarrow Axiom (i) is violated $\rightarrow H$ is not a group

\rightarrow The condition is necessary \square

Example: (2) Consider then two subsets of S_3 :

$E = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{smallmatrix} \right)$ and $P = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{smallmatrix} \right)$. They form a subgroup g

proof: $P \circ P = E \rightarrow P = P^{-1}$

$\rightarrow E \circ P^{-1} = P \in g$ and $P \circ E^{-1} = P \in g$

and $E \circ E^{-1} = E \in g$ and $P \circ P^{-1} = E \in g$

\square

17: De Morgan's logic
 $A \rightarrow B$ is
 equivalent to
 $\text{not } B \rightarrow \text{not } A$

Proposition 2.1: 13/11

2.5 Isomorphisms and automorphisms

def. 1.1 Let (G, ν) and (H, τ) be groups. Let $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$ be a bijective mapping such that, $\forall a, b \in G$, $\varphi(a\nu b) = \varphi(a)\tau\varphi(b)$.
Then we call φ an isomorphism between G and H , say that G is isomorphic to H , and write $G \cong H$.

b) $\exists!$ $G \cong H$, and $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$ is an isomorphism, we call φ an automorphism on G .

week 2
about 2
#5,6,7,8

Remark: (1) One also says that φ "respects the operation".

example: (1) let $G = \{ \text{real } 2 \times 2 \text{ matrices } g_\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix}; 0 \leq \alpha < 2\pi \}$
and $H = \{ \text{complex numbers } h_\beta = e^{i\beta}; 0 \leq \beta < 2\pi \}$

Then G forms a group under matrix multiplication, and H forms a group under multiplication of complex numbers (the proofs are easy).

Now define $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$ by $\varphi(g_\alpha) = h_\alpha$. φ is clearly bijective. Furthermore,

$$g_\alpha g_\beta = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \beta & -\sin \beta \\ \sin \beta & \cos \beta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha \cos \beta - \sin \alpha \sin \beta & \cos \alpha \sin \beta + \sin \alpha \cos \beta \\ \sin \alpha \cos \beta + \cos \alpha \sin \beta & \sin \alpha \sin \beta - \cos \alpha \cos \beta \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\alpha + \beta) & -\sin(\alpha + \beta) \\ \sin(\alpha + \beta) & \cos(\alpha + \beta) \end{pmatrix} = g_{\alpha + \beta}$$

$$\rightarrow \varphi(g_\alpha g_\beta) = \varphi(g_{\alpha + \beta}) = h_{\alpha + \beta} = e^{i(\alpha + \beta)} = e^{i\alpha} e^{i\beta} = h_\alpha h_\beta = \varphi(g_\alpha) \varphi(g_\beta)$$

Problem 13 \cong u
Properties of