

Group Theory

Definition

- An abstract group G is a set of elements a, b, c, \dots for which a "product" ab is defined such that

1. if $ab = c$, then c is in the set
2. multiplication is associative in $a(bc) = (ab)c$.
3. an identity element e is in the set such that $ae = ea = a$ for all a .
4. For every a , there exists an element b such that $ab = ba = e$. Then $b = a^{-1}$.

Examples

1. the set of rational fractions under multiplication. ($e=1$)
2. the set of integers under addition ($e=0$)
 $n_1 + n_2 = n_3, n_1^{-1} = -n_1$.
3. the transformations of an equilateral triangle with bring it into coincidence with itself.
4. permutations of n objects.

Group Structure

- Defined by the multiplication table. The above are particular realizations of the abstract group structure.

Abelian Group

- any commutative group. Examples 1-3 are abelian while 4 is not.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ \xrightarrow{1 \leftrightarrow 2} & 2 & 1 & 3 \\ & \xrightarrow{2 \leftrightarrow 3} & 1 & 3 & 2 \\ & & \xrightarrow{1 \leftrightarrow 2} & & 2 & 3 & 1 & 0 \end{array}$$

Order of a Group

- The number of elements in the group.

Order of an Element a

- Consider the sequence a, a^2, a^3, \dots
- If $a^n = e$, then a is of order n .

- The set of elements $a, a^2, \dots, a^n = e$ forms the cyclic group of order n .

Examples of Group Structure

Order 1 - $e, e^2 = e$.

Order 2 $e, a, a^2 = e$

	e	a
e	e	a
a	a	e

e.g. co-ord. inversions $(x, y, z) \rightarrow (-x, -y, -z)$

Permutations of 2 symbols.

$$e = \{ 1 \rightarrow 1 \quad 2 \rightarrow 2 \} \quad a = \{ 1 \rightarrow 2 \quad 2 \rightarrow 1 \}$$

Isomorphisms

Groups G and G' are isomorphic ($G \cong G'$) if the elements can be put into a one-to-one correspondence which is preserved under multiplication.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ie if } & a \rightarrow a' \\ & b \rightarrow b' \\ & c \rightarrow c' \end{aligned}$$

then $ab = c \Rightarrow a'b' = c'$.

All isomorphic groups have the same multiplication table.

All groups of order 2 are isomorphic.

Order 3

- Elements $a, b, e.$

$ab \neq a$ or b since this would imply
that $b = e$ or $a = e$.
 $\therefore ab = e.$

Similarly $a^2 \neq b \neq e$ since $a^2b = ae = a$
 $\Rightarrow b = a$ if $a^2 = e$.

$\therefore a^2 = b$ and $b^2 = a$

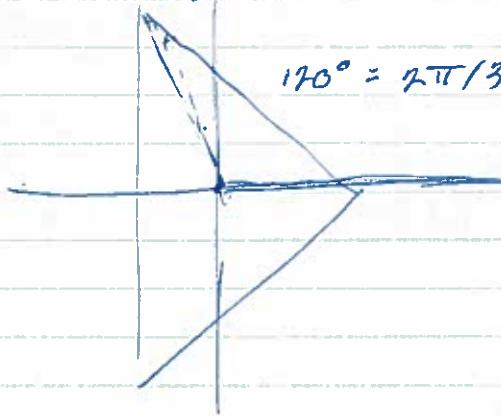
Thus the cyclic group $a, a^2, a^3 = e$ is the
only group of order 3.

Examples

1.- Rotations in a plane of an equilateral triangle

2.- The cube roots of unity with ordinary mult.

$$1, e^{i2\pi/3}, e^{-i4\pi/3}$$



$$120^\circ = 2\pi/3 \text{ rad.}$$

	e	a	b
e	e	a	b
a	a	b	c
b	b	c	a

The n th. roots of unity always form
an n -dimensional cyclic group.

$$e^{2\pi m i/n}, m = 0, 1, \dots, n-1.$$

\therefore there is at least one group for any finite order n .

Order 4

- There are two distinct structures.

e	a	b	c
a	b	c	e
b	c	e	a
c	e	a	b

$$\text{ie } ab = a^2$$

$$c = ab = a^3$$

This is the cyclic group $a, a^2, a^3, a^4 = e$.

e	a	b	c
a	c	c	b
b	c	e	a
c	b	a	e

$$\text{ie } a^2 = b^2 = c^2 = e$$

$$ab = c, bc = a, ca = b.$$

called the "four group".

- Realization - rotations through 180° about x, y, z axes.

$$a = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad b = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad c = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$e = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Permutations

- Label a set of boxes from 1 to n . Each box contains an object.
- A permutation consists of rearranging the objects so that once more each box contains one object.



$$a = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1 \rightarrow 4 \\ 2 \rightarrow 3 \\ 3 \rightarrow 1 \\ 4 \rightarrow 2 \end{array} \right\}$$

$$a \quad \boxed{3} \quad \boxed{4} \quad \boxed{1} \quad \boxed{2}$$

$$a^2 \quad \boxed{2} \quad \boxed{1} \quad \boxed{4} \quad \boxed{3}$$

$$a^3 \quad \boxed{4} \quad \boxed{3} \quad \boxed{1} \quad \boxed{2}$$

$$a^4 \quad \boxed{1} \quad \boxed{2} \quad \boxed{3} \quad \boxed{4} = e$$

Notation

$$a = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \text{boxes} \\ \text{images} \end{pmatrix}$$

Any rearrangement of columns denotes the same permutation

$$\text{e.g. } \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 & 4 \\ 4 & 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = a.$$

- This is a permutation of degree 4.
If there are n symbols, then there are in all $n!$ permutations.

An arbitrary permutation is denoted

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \\ p_1 & p_2 & \cdots & p_n \end{pmatrix}$$

if p_i is the image of box 1 etc.

Linear Transformations

$$x_i' = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j \quad \text{general linear transformation.}$$

A permutation can be regarded as a special case of a linear transformation.

Replace 1, 2, 3, ..., by the co-ordinates of a point (x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) .

The permutation transforms this point to a new point $(x_1', x_2', x_3', \dots)$ such that $x_{p_1}' = x_1, x_{p_2}' = x_2, \dots$.

In the previous example,

$$x_1' = x_3$$

$$x_2' = x_4$$

$$x_3' = x_2$$

$$x_4' = x_1$$

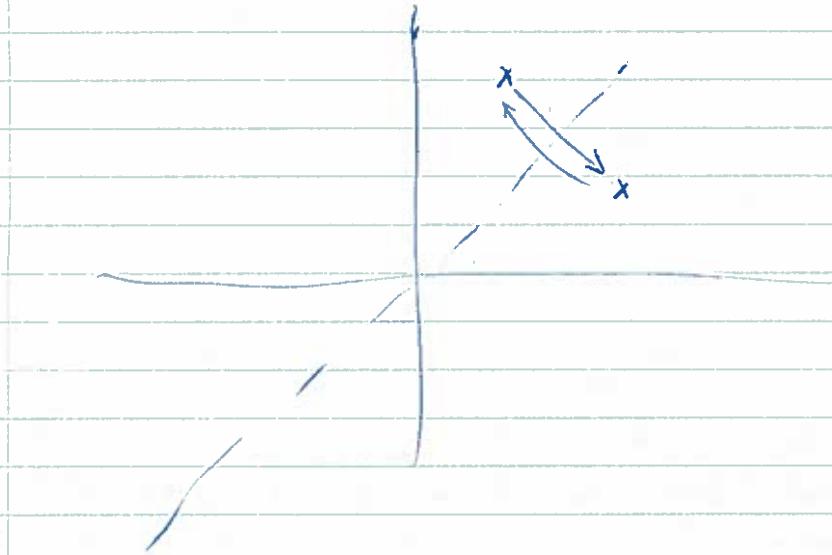
$$\therefore a = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

objects → images
 ↓
object in box object in box 3 is the image
of box 2.

$a_{32} = 1 \Rightarrow$ the image of box 3 is the image of box 2.
object in box 3 moves to box 2.

For 2 boxes, $a = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $e = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1' \\ x_2' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_2 \\ x_1 \end{pmatrix}$$



The Symmetric Group (S_n)

- all permutations of degree n form a group of order $n!$ called the symmetric group.

$$\Pi_a = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \\ p_1 & p_2 & \cdots & p_n \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\Pi_b = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \\ g_1 & g_2 & \cdots & g_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p_1 & p_2 & \cdots & p_n \\ g_{p_1} & g_{p_2} & \cdots & g_{p_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \Pi_c = \Pi_b \Pi_a &= \begin{pmatrix} p_1 & p_2 & \cdots & p_n \\ g_{p_1} & g_{p_2} & \cdots & g_{p_n} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \\ p_1 & p_2 & \cdots & p_n \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \\ g_{p_1} & g_{p_2} & \cdots & g_{p_n} \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

ii. perform the permutation Π_b on the bottom row of Π_a to obtain Π_c .

$$\Pi_a^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} p_1 & p_2 & \cdots & p_n \\ 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \end{pmatrix}$$

In general, $\Pi_b \Pi_a \neq \Pi_a \Pi_b$ so the group is non-abelian.

Cycle Structure

consider $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 5 & 4 & 7 & 6 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$
 $= (1\ 2\ 3)(4\ 5)(6\ 7)(8)$

ii. write the image after each symbol. The total permutation decomposes into 1-3 cycle, 2-2 cycles and 1-1 cycle. Cycles have no elements in common.

also $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 2 & 3 & 5 & 1 & 4 & 7 & 6 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$
 $= (1\ 2\ 3\ 5\ 4)(6\ 7)(8)$
 $= (3\ 5\ 4\ 1\ 2)(6\ 7)(8)$

- a two-cycle is a transposition. Any cycle can be written as a product of transpositions with elements in common.

in general $(1\ 2\ \cdots\ n) = (1\ n) \cdots (1\ 3)(1\ 2)$

ii. an n -cycle is equivalent to $n-1$ transpositions.

A permutation with an even no. of transpositions is called even and conversely if the no. is odd.

e.g. $(123)(45)(67) = (13)(12)(45)(67)$ is even.

$$\text{Decrement} = \text{no. of symbols} - \text{no. of cycles}$$
$$= 7 - 3 = 4.$$

The decrement determines whether the permutation is even or odd.

The even and odd permutations combine under multiplication like +1 and -1.

∴ the even permutations alone form a group denoted by the alternating group of order $n!/2$.

Cayley's Theorem

- every group G of order n is isomorphic with a subgroup of S_n .

i.e. S_n exhausts the possible structures of finite groups. The no. of possible structures is finite.

Subgroup

- If the elements in a subset H of G form a group, then H is a subgroup of G .
 $H \subset G$.

e.g. $A_n \subset S_n$.

Every group has two trivial subgroups -

$$\begin{aligned} H &= G \\ H &= e \end{aligned} \quad \left\{ \text{improper} \right.$$

The problem is to find proper subgroups.

Example - S_3 consists of
 $e, (123), (132); (12), (13), (23)$
 $\underbrace{e, (123), (132)}_{H_1}, \underbrace{(12), (13), (23)}_{H_2}$

Other subgroups are $H_1 = \{ e, (23) \}$
 $H_2 = \{ e, (13) \}$
 $H_3 = \{ e, (12) \}$

- Clearly $H_1 \approx H_2 \approx H_3$.

In general, S_n contains, among others, the n subgroups H_1, H_2, \dots, H_n

H_i leaves element i unchanged.

All are isomorphic to S_{n-1} .

Proof of T theorem

- Take any element b of $C_r = \{ a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \}$

and form the products ba_1, ba_2, \dots, ba_n . All the products are distinct since $ba_1 = ba_2 \Rightarrow a_1 = a_2$.

\therefore multiplying the list by b corresponds to writing the original list in a different order.

Replace b by $\pi_b = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & \dots & a_n \\ ba_1 & \dots & ba_n \end{pmatrix}$

" " $\pi_c = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & \dots & a_n \\ ca_1 & \dots & ca_n \end{pmatrix}$

$$\pi_c \pi_b = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & \dots & a_n \\ ca_1 & \dots & ca_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & \dots & a_n \\ cba_1 & \dots & cb a_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & \dots & a_n \\ cba_1 & \dots & cb a_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} ba_1 & \dots & ban \\ cba_1 & \dots & cb a_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & \dots & a_n \\ ba_1 & \dots & ban \end{pmatrix} = \pi_{cb} \rightarrow cb$$

- $\Pi_b \neq \Pi_c$ if $b \neq c$ so the mapping is one-to-one and is preserved under combination.

\therefore mapping is an isomorphism.

Example - the four group

\oplus	e	a	b	c
e	e	a	b	c
a	a	e	c	b
b	b	c	e	a
c	c	b	a	e

$$\begin{array}{l} e = 1 \\ a = 2 \\ b = 3 \\ c = 4 \end{array}$$

$$\Pi_c = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Pi_a = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = (12)(34)$$

$$\Pi_b = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = (13)(24)$$

$$\Pi_c = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = (14)(23)$$

The cyclic group of order 4.

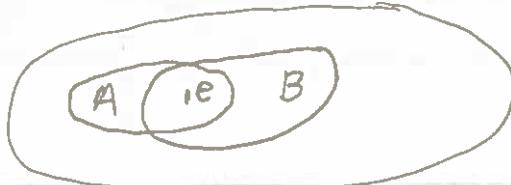
\oplus	e	a	b	c
e	e	a	b	c
a	a	b	c	e
b	b	c	e	a
c	c	e	a	b

$$\Pi_e = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Pi_a = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = (1234)$$

$$\Pi_b = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = (13)(24)$$

$$\Pi_c = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = (1432)$$



Notice that the common elements II_e , II_b themselves form a group. In general, elements in common to two subgroups themselves form a subgroup.

General Properties.

1. They are subgroups of order n of S_n .
2. Each permutation leaves no symbol unchanged. (except for II_e). e.g. II_b takes a_i into $b a_i$, which equals a_i only if $\text{II}_b = \text{II}_e$.

Permutations of this type are called regular permutations and the subgroups are called regular subgroups.

Consequences.

II_a , II_b

1. No two permutations can take a given element c into the same element d , since $\text{II}_a \text{II}_b^{-1}$ would leave c and d unchanged.
2. All cycles must have the same length for a given element. e.g. $\{ (12)(345) \}^2 = (1)(2)(354)$
member of group,
but leaves 1 unchanged

Application

- consider a group of prime order n' . The only possible cycle structure is

$$\text{II}_a = (1 2 \dots n')$$

$$\text{II}_a^2, \text{II}_a^3, \dots \text{II}_a^{n'} = e.$$

i.e. the cyclic group of order n' .

Exercise - Using Cayley's Theorem, find the possible groups of order 6.

Lagrange's Theorem

Example - notice that the ~~cyclic~~ group ~~of order 8~~ has the ~~four~~ subgroups $(e, a), (e, b), (e, c)$ each of order 2. 2 is an integral divisor of 4.

Theorem - for any finite group, the order of a subgroup is a divisor of the order of the group.

Proof

Consider a group G of order g and a subgroup H of order h .

Case I - $\emptyset \neq H = G$ if $h = g$.

Case II - H is a proper subgroup contained in G . ie. $h < g$.

H has elements H_1, H_2, \dots, H_h .

Let a be an element of G not in H . Form the products.

$\{aH_1, aH_2, \dots, aH_h\} = aH$. Left coset

all different

No element of aH is in H , for if, say

$aH_1 = H_2$, then $a = H_2H_1^{-1}$ is in H .

Case I' - $H + aH = G$ ie. $h = g/2$

Case II' - $H + aH \subset G$ ie. $h < g/2$.

- Pick another element b not in H or a H and form bH .

No element of bH can be in H or a λH .

e.g. if $aH_1 = bH_2$, then $b = aH_1 H_2^{-1}$ is in aH .

Continuing in this way, the group G must eventually be exhausted, and

$$G = H + aH + bH + \dots + kH.$$

$$\text{ie } g = AH - mh.$$

m is called the index of subgroup H under group G .

We could similarly have made the resolution into right cosets

$$G = H + Ha' + Hb' + \dots + Hk'$$

Are the coset subgroups? Are the left and right cosets necessarily equal?

Consequences

1. - Any element and its powers form a subgroup $a, a^2, \dots, a^n = c$ $n = \text{order of } a$.
 $\therefore n$ is a divisor of g .
2. - Groups of prime order must be cyclic.