Math 502: Abstract Algebra Homework 4

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January 5, 2014 http://coursework.tylerlogic.com/courses/upenn/math502/homework04 **Homomorphic** Let σ, τ each be elements of S_n . Then we have

$$\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma\tau)f_n(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = f_n(x_{(\sigma\tau)(1)},\ldots,x_{(\sigma\tau)(1)})$$

$$= f_n(x_{\sigma(\tau(1))},\ldots,x_{\sigma(\tau(1))})$$

$$= \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma)f_n(x_{\tau(1)},\ldots,x_{\tau(1)})$$

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$$= \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma)\operatorname{sgn}(\tau)f_n(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$$

and because \mathbb{Q} is a field, we can cancel $f_n(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ on both sides leaving us with $\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma \tau) = \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) \operatorname{sgn}(\tau)$.

Uniqueness For later contradiction, let $g: S_n \to \mu_2$ be another group homomorphism not equal to sgn that satisfies the same properties of the sgn function. Then for $\sigma \in S_n$, we have

$$f_n(x_{\sigma(1)},\ldots,x_{\sigma(n)}) = g(\sigma)f_n(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$$

but there must exist at least one τ where $\operatorname{sgn}(\tau) \neq g(\tau)$. So without loss of generality, let $\operatorname{sgn}(\tau) = 1$ and $g(\tau) = -1$. However, then we would have

$$f_n(x_{\sigma(1)},\ldots,x_{\sigma(n)}) = \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma)f_n(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = f_n(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$$

and

$$f_n(x_{\sigma(1)},\ldots,x_{\sigma(n)}) = g(\sigma)f_n(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = -f_n(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$$

which is not possible with our definition of f_n . Hence we've reached a contradiction, and thus g and sgn must be one in the same.

The following proof is derived from [DF04, pg. 109]. It's just so slick.

We will first prove that the transposition (1, 2) has negative sign and then move on to the general case. According to the definition of the sgn function we have that for $\sigma = (1, 2)$,

$$\begin{aligned} f_n(x_{\sigma(1)}, x_{\sigma(2)}, \dots, x_{\sigma(n)}) &= & \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) f_n(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \\ \Pi_{1 \le i < j \le n}(x_{\sigma(i)} - x_{\sigma(j)}) &= & \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) \Pi_{1 \le i < j \le n}(x_i - x_j) \\ \Pi_{2 \le j \le n}(x_{\sigma(1)} - x_{\sigma(j)}) \Pi_{3 \le j \le n}(x_{\sigma(2)} - x_{\sigma(j)}) \Pi_{3 \le i < j \le n}(x_i - x_j) &= & \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) \Pi_{2 \le j \le n}(x_1 - x_j) \Pi_{3 \le j \le n}(x_2 - x_j) \\ \Pi_{3 \le i < j \le n}(x_i - x_j) \\ \Pi_{2 \le j \le n}(x_{\sigma(1)} - x_{\sigma(j)}) \Pi_{3 \le j \le n}(x_{\sigma(2)} - x_{\sigma(j)}) &= & \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) \Pi_{2 \le j \le n}(x_1 - x_j) \Pi_{3 \le j \le n}(x_2 - x_j) \\ (x_{\sigma(1)} - x_{\sigma(2)}) \Pi_{3 \le j \le n}(x_{\sigma(1)} - x_{\sigma(j)}) \Pi_{3 \le j \le n}(x_{\sigma(2)} - x_{\sigma(j)}) &= & \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma)(x_1 - x_2) \Pi_{3 \le j \le n}(x_1 - x_j) \Pi_{3 \le j \le n}(x_2 - x_j) \\ (x_2 - x_1) \Pi_{3 \le j \le n}(x_2 - x_j) \Pi_{3 \le j \le n}(x_1 - x_j) &= & \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma)(x_1 - x_2) \Pi_{3 \le j \le n}(x_1 - x_j) \Pi_{3 \le j \le n}(x_2 - x_j) \\ (x_2 - x_1) &= & \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma)(x_1 - x_2) \end{aligned}$$

which indicates that $sgn((1\ 2)) = -1$.

Now let (i, j) be an abitrary transposition in S_n . Then we have that (i, j) = (1, i)(2, j)(1, 2)(1, i)(2, j). This then yields the following

$$sgn((i, j)) = sgn((1, i)(2, j)(1, 2)(1, i)(2, j))$$

= sgn((1, i)) sgn((2, j)) sgn((1, 2)) sgn((1, i)) sgn((2, j))
= sgn((1, i))^2 sgn((2, j))^2 sgn((1, 2))
= -1

where we make use of the fact that sgn is a homomorphism and the commutativity of μ_2 .

(d)

We can see that a cycle of length m has that $(1, 2, ..., m) = (1, 2)(2, 3) \cdots (m - 1, m)$. Therefore, using the fact that the sgn function is a homomorphism and that transpositions have sign of -1, we obtain

 $sgn((1,2,\ldots,m)) = sgn((1,2)(2,3)\cdots(m-1,m)) = sgn((1,2))sgn((2,3))\cdots sgn((m-1,m)) = (-1)^{m-1}$

(e)

(f) Extra Credit

(g) Extra Credit

$\mathbf{2}$

For a matrix $A \in GL_3(\mathbb{R})$, left $L_A : \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ denote the linear transformation of left multiplication by A.

(a)

First, we see that any vector v in C that is on the "surface" of C, i.e. any vector with at least one coordinate of 1, must have that for $A \in G$, $L_A(v)$ must also be on the surface of C. The reason being because if it weren't, then there would be some scalar $\alpha > 1$ with $L_A(\alpha v) \in C$, but this can't happen as it contradicts A(C) = C.

Not the least important of the vectors on the surface of C are e_1, e_2, e_3 . Since e_1, e_2, e_3 each have a length of which is the shortest possible length of a vector on the surface of C, a length of one, then their images under L_A must have length of at least one since they must be on the surface. On the other hand, because $e_1 + e_2 + e_3$ is also on the surface of C then an increase in any one of the sizes of e_1, e_2 or e_3 under L_A will result in $L_A(e_1 + e_2 + e_3)$ being outside of C. Hence L_A will map each of e_1, e_2 and e_3 to one of $\{\pm e_1, \pm e_2, \pm e_3\}$. However, because $A \in GL_3(\mathbb{R})$, then L_A is an isomorphism and will map e_1, e_2 and e_3 to distinct elements and furthermore to a basis. Therefore L_A preserves the size and angles between e_1, e_2 and e_3 , which since those vectors are a basis for \mathbb{R}^3 makes A orthogonal, and thus $G \subset O_3$.

Now $I \in G$ since it preserves C. If $A, B \in G$, then A(C) = C and B(C) = C, implying that (BA)(C) = B(A(C)) = B(C) = C and therefore $AB \in G$. And finally, since A(C) = C then $C = A^{-1}(C)$, and thus $A^{-1} \in G$. These three things, combined with the fact $G \subset O_3$ proven above makes G a subgroup of O_3 . Let $A \in G$. Since L_A maps $\{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ to a basis of elements of $\{\pm e_1, \pm e_2, \pm e_3\}$ as per above, then L_A maps e_1 to one of the 6 elements of $\{\pm e_1, \pm e_2, \pm e_3\}$, maps e_2 to one of the four elements of $\{\pm e_1, \pm e_2, \pm e_3\} - \{\pm L_A(e_1)\}$ and e_3 to two of elements of $\{\pm e_1, \pm e_2, \pm e_3\} - \{\pm L_A(e_1), \pm L_A(e_2)\}$. Hence G has 6(4)(2) = 48 elements and consists of

$$\begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} \middle| a, b, c \in \{1, -1\} \end{cases} \quad \bigcup \quad \begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ c \\ c \end{pmatrix} \middle| a, b, c \in \{1, -1\} \end{cases} \\ \bigcup \quad \begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} \middle| a, b, c \in \{1, -1\} \end{cases} \\ \bigcup \quad \begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} \middle| a, b, c \in \{1, -1\} \end{cases} \\ \bigcup \quad \begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ c \end{pmatrix} \middle| a, b, c \in \{1, -1\} \end{cases} \\ \bigcup \quad \begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} \middle| a, b, c \in \{1, -1\} \end{cases} \\ \bigcup \quad \begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} \middle| a, b, c \in \{1, -1\} \end{cases} \end{cases}$$

(c)

We will abuse notation here and consider S_3 and $Perm(\{L_1, L_2, L_3\})$ to be one in the same. They are, after all, isomorphic.

 π is surjective Let $\sigma \in S_3$ and define A to be the matrix with i^{th} column $e_{\sigma(i)}$. Therefore according to the previous part of this problem, $A \in G$. Thus $Ae_i = e_{\sigma(i)}$ which implies that $A(L_i) = L_{\sigma(i)}$ and therefore $\pi(A) = \sigma$.

Ker(π) The kernel of the π will be the set of all matrices A such that $A(L_i) = L_i$. Therefore A will need to be such that $Ae_i = \pm e_i$. Hence

$$\operatorname{Ker}(\pi) = \left\{ \left(\begin{array}{cc} a & & \\ & b & \\ & & c \end{array} \right) \middle| a, b, c \in \{-1, 1\} \right\}$$

(d)

Denote the set of diagonals of the problem's statement by $D = \{d_1, d_2, d_3, d_4\}$. We will again abuse notation here and consider S_4 and Perm $(\{d_1, d_2, d_3, d_4\})$ to be one in the same.

We will use the following for vectors to help in our discussion here.

$$v_1 = e_1 + e_2 + e_3$$

$$v_2 = -e_1 + e_2 + e_3$$

$$v_3 = e_1 - e_2 + e_3$$

$$v_4 = -e_1 - e_2 + e_3$$

These vectors are the vectors contained in the diagonals of D where e_3 is always positive. With these vectors, we

have a basis $\mathscr{B} = \{v_1, v_3, v_4\}$ and can write the standard basis $\mathscr{E} = \{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ as

$$e_1 = \frac{1}{2}(v_3 - v_4) \tag{2.1}$$

$$e_2 = \frac{1}{2}(v_1 - v_3) \tag{2.2}$$

$$e_3 = \frac{1}{2}(v_1 + v_4) \tag{2.3}$$

which gives rise to

$$[id]_{\mathscr{BE}} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 (2.4)

$$[id]_{\mathscr{EB}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 (2.5)

where $[id]_{\mathscr{B}\mathscr{E}}$ and $[id]_{\mathscr{E}\mathscr{B}}$ are, respectively, the change of basis matrix from \mathscr{E} to \mathscr{B} and from \mathscr{B} to \mathscr{E} (yes it looks backwards).

 ϕ is surjective Let $\sigma \in S_4$. We then aim to find a matrix $A \in G$ such that $Av_i = v_{\sigma(i)}$. So let's define a linear transformation $T : \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ by its transformation of the basis \mathscr{B} : $T(v_i) = v_{\sigma(i)}$. By equations 2.1 through 2.3 we have that

$$T(e_1) = \frac{1}{2}(v_{\sigma(3)} - v_{\sigma(4)})$$

$$T(e_2) = \frac{1}{2}(v_{\sigma(1)} - v_{\sigma(3)})$$

$$T(e_3) = \frac{1}{2}(v_{\sigma(1)} + v_{\sigma(4)})$$

leaving us with the following matrix representation of T in the standard basis

$$A = \frac{1}{2} \left(v_{\sigma(3)} - v_{\sigma(4)} \quad v_{\sigma(1)} - v_{\sigma(3)} \quad v_{\sigma(1)} + v_{\sigma(4)} \right)$$

The definition of T informs us that $A \in G$ and that $A(d_i) = d_{\sigma(i)}$, thus implying that $\phi(A) = \sigma$.

Ker(ϕ) We know that every element of the kernel will have that $d_i = d_i$, which implies that $e_1 + e_2 + e_3$, being contained in a diagonal, will need to be mapped to itself or $-e_1 - e_2 - e_3$. Hence

$$\operatorname{Ker}(\phi) = \left\{ \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & & \\ & 1 & \\ & & 1 \end{array} \right), \left(\begin{array}{cc} -1 & & \\ & -1 & \\ & & -1 \end{array} \right) \right\}$$

(e)

Is det $|_{\mathbf{G}} = \operatorname{sgn} \circ \pi$ This is not true. According to part (c) of this problem, $A = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & \\ & 1 \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is in the kernel of π , meaning that $\operatorname{sgn} \circ \pi(A) = 1$. However, A has a determinant of -1.

Is $\operatorname{sgn} \circ \pi = \operatorname{sgn} \circ \phi$

Is det $|_{\mathbf{G}} = \operatorname{sgn} \circ \phi$ This is not true. According to part (d) of this problem, $A = \begin{pmatrix} --1 & \\ & -1 & \\ & & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ is contained in the kernel of ϕ , meaning that $\operatorname{sgn}(\phi(A)) = 1$. However, A has a determinant of -1.

3

(a)

The dihedral group D_8 is indeed isomorphic to a subgroup of G. Since G is the group of symmetries of a cube, then all elements which, say, keep e_1 fixed will be symmetries of the unit square contained in the plane containing e_2 and e_3 . Call this square S. We can use this in our definition of an injective group homomorphism $\phi: D_8 \to G$.

We can think of ϕ as the map that takes s (where $D_8 = \langle s, r \rangle$) to the symmetry that reflects S across the plane containing e_1 and e_3 ; i.e. take s to the matrix representation of the linear transformation defined by $e_1 \mapsto e_1$, $e_2 \mapsto -e_2$, and $e_3 \mapsto e_3$. Similarly ϕ will take r to the matrix representation of rotation about e_3 by $\pi/2$.

This high-level definition of ϕ can be made concrete by the formula

$$\phi(s^{\ell}r^{i}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & -1 & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{\ell} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & & -1 \\ & 1 & \end{pmatrix}^{i}$$

for all $s^{\ell} r^i \in D_8$. By noticing that

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & -1 \\ & 1 & \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & -1 & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & -1 & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & & 1 \\ & & -1 & \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc}1\\&-1\\&1\end{array}\right)^{-1} = \left(\begin{array}{cc}1\\&1\\&-1\end{array}\right)$$

we can see that the following implies that ϕ is a group homomorphism

$$\begin{split} \phi(s^{\ell}r^{i})\phi(s^{k}r^{j}) &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & -1 & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{\ell} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & 1 & \end{pmatrix}^{i} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & -1 & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{k} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{j} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{\ell+k} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & & -1 \end{pmatrix}^{i} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{j} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{\ell+k} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & & -1 \end{pmatrix}^{-i} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{j} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{\ell+k} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{j-i} \\ &= \phi(s^{\ell+k}r^{j-i}) \\ &= \phi(s^{\ell}r^{i}s^{k}r^{j}) \\ &= \phi(s^{\ell}r^{i}s^{k}r^{j}) \end{split}$$

Now assume that some element $s^{\ell}r^i$ is mapped by ϕ to the identity of G. Then we would have that

$$\phi(s^{\ell}r^{i}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & 1 & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{\ell} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & & -1 \end{pmatrix}^{i} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{\ell} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & 1 & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{i} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{\ell} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{\ell}$$

which implies that $\ell = i = 0$ since

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

shows that the order of $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \\ & -1 \\ & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is four. Hence the kernel is trivial, implying that ϕ is injective.

The fact that $\phi: D_8 \xrightarrow{\sim} G$ is an injective group homomorphism implies that D_8 is isomorphic to a subgroup of G, namely $\phi(D_8)$.

(b) Extra Credit

4

(a) Show that $\dim_{\mathbb{C}}(V) = 2$ and $\{1, j\}$ is a \mathbb{C} -basis of V

Let $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$. Then since

$$1(a+bi) + j(c-di) = a+bi+cj-dji = a+bi+cj+dk$$

we see that $\{1, j\}$ spans V.

Not if we were to have 1(a + bi) + j(c + di) = 0, then a + bi + cj - dk = 0 which implies that a = b = c = d = 0. Hence 1 and j are linearly independent.

With these two results, $\{1, j\}$ is a basis for V, and thus $\dim_{\mathbb{C}}(V) = 2$.

(b) Show for $x \in \mathbb{H}$ that "left multiplication by x" is an endomorphism on V.

By the following, it can be seen that "left multiplication by x" is an endomorphism, where $v, w \in V$ The distributive law on \mathbb{H} is what gives us that $\alpha(x)$ is an endomorphism, i.e.

$$\alpha(x)(v+w) = x(v+w) = xv + xw = \alpha(x)v + \alpha(x)w$$

By the following two equations, we have that α is a ring homomorphism

$$\alpha(x+y)(v) = (x+y)(v) = xv + yv = \alpha(x)(v) + \alpha(y)(v) = (\alpha(x) + \alpha(y))(v)$$

$$\alpha(xy)(v) = (xy)(v) = x(y(v)) = \alpha(x)(\alpha(y)(v)) = (\alpha(x) \circ \alpha(y))(v)$$

(d) Prove that α is injective

Let $x \in H$ be such that $\alpha(x) = \mathrm{id}_V$. Then for all $v \in V$ $xv = \alpha(x)(v) = \mathrm{id}_V(v) = v$, but the only element of \mathbb{H} with this property is the multiplicative identity, so x must be the identity. Hence the kernel of α is trivial and thus α is injective.

(e) Write down the matrix representation of $\alpha(i)$, $\alpha(j)$, and $\alpha(k)$ with respect to the basis $\{1, j\}$

Set \mathscr{B} to the basis $\{1, j\}$. We will use the notation $[\cdot]_{\mathscr{B}}$ to denote "representation in the basis \mathscr{B} ". With that said

$$[\alpha(i)]_{\mathscr{B}} = \left(\begin{array}{cc} [\alpha(i)(1)]_{\mathscr{B}} & [\alpha(i)(j)]_{\mathscr{B}} \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} [i]_{\mathscr{B}} & [ij]_{\mathscr{B}} \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} i & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{array} \right)$$

$$[\alpha(j)]_{\mathscr{B}} = \left(\begin{array}{cc} [\alpha(j)(1)]_{\mathscr{B}} & [\alpha(j)(j)]_{\mathscr{B}} \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} [j]_{\mathscr{B}} & [j^{2}]_{\mathscr{B}} \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} [j]_{\mathscr{B}} & [-1]_{\mathscr{B}} \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

$$[\alpha(k)]_{\mathscr{B}} = \left(\begin{array}{cc} [\alpha(k)(1)]_{\mathscr{B}} & [\alpha(k)(j)]_{\mathscr{B}} \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} [k]_{\mathscr{B}} & [kj]_{\mathscr{B}} \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} [k]_{\mathscr{B}} & [-i]_{\mathscr{B}} \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

(f)

Because \mathbb{H} is a \mathbb{R} -vector space of dimension four $(\{1, i, j, k\}$ is an \mathbb{R} -basis) and because α is injective as per part (d) of this problem, then as a linear transformation, α has a trivial kernel. Therefore the rank+nullity theorem informs us that the image of α has dimension of four since dim_{\mathbb{R}}(\mathbb{H}) = 4. However, because dim_{\mathbb{C}}(End_{\mathbb{C}}(V)) = 4 as well, we must have $\alpha(\mathbb{H}) = \text{End}_{\mathbb{C}}(V)$.

References

[DF04] D.S. Dummit and R.M. Foote. Abstract Algebra. John Wiley & Sons Canada, Limited, 2004.