

Additional Definitions & Theorems

Homomorphism

Defn

Let $(G, \circ)$ and $(H, *)$ be groups

Let $\phi: G \rightarrow H$ be a mapping such that $\circ$ has the morphism property under ϕ .

That is

Then $\forall a, b \in G$

$$\phi(a \circ b) = \phi(a) * \phi(b)$$

Then $\phi: (G, \circ) \rightarrow (H, *)$ is a group homomorphism.

Let $\phi: (S, \circ) \rightarrow (T, *)$ be a mapping from one algebraic structure $(S, \circ)$ to another $(T, *)$.

Then $\circ$ has the morphism property

under ϕ iff $\forall x, y \in S$

$$\phi(x \circ y) = \phi(x) * \phi(y)$$

Kernel of Group Homomorphism

Defn

Let $(G, \circ)$ and $(H, *)$ be groups.

Let $\phi: (G, \circ) \rightarrow (H, *)$ be a group Homomorphism.

The kernel of ϕ is the subset of the domain of ϕ defined as:

$$\text{Ker}(\phi) = \{x \in G \mid \phi(x) = e_H\}$$

where e_H is the identity of H .

That is $\text{Ker}(\phi)$ is the subset of G that maps to the identity of H .

Proof

Let $z \in S$

$$(\rho_x \circ \rho_y)(z) = \rho_x(\rho_y(z)) \quad \text{Defn of Composition of mappings}$$

$$= \rho_x(z * y) \quad \text{Defn of Right reg. rep.}$$

$$= x * (z * y) * x \quad \text{Defn of Right reg. rep.}$$

$$= z * (y * x) \quad \text{Semigroup Axiom: Associativity}$$

$$= \rho_y * x(z) \quad \text{Defn of Right reg. rep.}$$

3) Composition of Left Regular representation with Right.

Theorem

Let $(S, *)$ be a semigroup

Let λ_x and ρ_y be the left and right reg. rep of $(S, *)$ w.r.t x and y respectively.

Let $\lambda_x \circ \rho_y$ and $\rho_y \circ \lambda_x$ etc. be defined as the composition of mappings λ_x and ρ_y .

Then $\forall x, y \in S$

$$\lambda_x \circ \rho_y = \rho_y \circ \lambda_x \leftarrow$$

Proof Let $z \in S$

$$(\lambda_x \circ \rho_y)(z) = \lambda_x(\rho_y(z)) \quad \text{Defn Comp. of mappings}$$

$$= \lambda_x(z * y) \quad \text{Defn Right reg. rep}$$

$$= x * (z * y) \quad \text{Defn Left reg. rep}$$

$$= (x * z) * y \quad \text{Semigroup Axiom: Associativity}$$

$$= \rho_y(x * z) \quad \text{Defn } r \cdot r \cdot r$$

$$= \rho_y(\lambda_x(z)) \quad \text{Defn } L \cdot r \cdot r$$

$$= (\rho_y \circ \lambda_x)(z) \quad \text{Defn Comp. of mappings.}$$

Identity Mapping

The identity mapping of a set S is the mapping $I_S : S \rightarrow S$ defined as:

$$I_S = \{(x, y) \in S \times S \mid x = y\}$$

Identity mapping is injection.

$$\forall I_S(x) = I_S(y) \Rightarrow x = y \text{ (Injection)}$$

or Alternatively

$$I_S = \{(x, x) \mid x \in S\}$$

Identity mapping is Surjection.

$$\forall y \in S : I_S(y) = y \text{ Defn of id mapping}$$

We have $\forall y \in S : \exists x \in S : x = y (y \text{ is itself})$

$$\Rightarrow \forall y \in S : \exists x \in S : I_S(x) = y \text{ Defn } I_S$$

That is

$$I_S : S \rightarrow S : \forall x \in S : I_S(x) = x \quad \Rightarrow \text{Surjection}$$

$\Rightarrow I_S$ is a bijection.

Informally, it is a mapping for which every element is a fixed element.

$\hookrightarrow$ The identity mapping of a group is a mapping from the group to itself whereby every element is mapped to itself.

Kernel is trivial iff group Monomorphism.

Theorem

Let $\phi : (S, \circ) \rightarrow (T, *)$ be a group homomorphism identity e_S .

Contains only

Let $\text{Ker}(\phi)$ be the kernel of ϕ .

Then ϕ is a group monomorphism if and only if $\text{Ker}(\phi)$ is trivial.

Let $(G, \circ)$ and $(H, *)$ be groups

Let $\phi : G \rightarrow H$ be a group homomorphism

Then ϕ is a group monomorphism if and only if ϕ is an injection.

Proof

Necessary Condition

Let $\phi : (S, \circ) \rightarrow (T, *)$ be a group monomorphism

By Homomorphism to Group preserves identity $\rightarrow$ i.e. $\phi(e_S) = e_T$
 $e_S \in \text{Ker}(\phi)$

If $\text{Ker}(\phi)$ contained another element $S \neq e_S$ then $\phi(S) = \phi(e_S) = e_T$ and ϕ would not be injective, thus not a group monomorphism.

So $\text{Ker}(\phi)$ can contain only one element, and that must be e_S , which is therefore the trivial subgroup of S .

□

Sufficient Condition

Now Suppose $\text{Ker}(\phi) = \{e_S\}$

Then for $x, y \in S$:

$\rightarrow$

$$\phi(x) = \phi(y)$$

$$\phi(x) * (\phi(y))^{-1} = \phi(y) * (\phi(y))^{-1} \quad \text{Group Axioms}$$

$$\phi(x \circ y^{-1}) = e_T \quad \text{Defn of Morphism property}$$

$$x \circ y^{-1} \in \text{Ker}(\phi) \quad \text{Defn of Kernel of Group Homomorphism}$$

$$x \circ y^{-1} = e_S \quad \text{by hypothesis}$$

$$x = e_S \circ y = y \quad \text{Group Axiom}$$

Thus ϕ is injective and therefore a group Monomorphism.

Monomorphism Image is Isomorphic to Domain.

Theorem

"The image of a monomorphism is isomorphic to its domain."

That is : If $\phi : S_1 \rightarrow S_2$ is a monomorphism, then :

$$\phi(S_1)$$

$\phi : S_1 \rightarrow \text{Img}(\phi)$ is an isomorphism.

Proof

Requirements : 1) Defn of domain & Image ✓

2) How to prove injection & Surjection (bijection) ✓ ??

3) Restriction of injection is injection

4) Defn of Restriction & Inclusion ✓

5) Restriction of Mapping is Mapping

6) Restriction of Mapping to image is Surjection.

6) Binary Relations, ✓

7) Morphism property preserves Closure.

Group Theory Cont.

Defn of function.

- A function is a binary relation which is left-total and right unique.

$\underbrace{\forall x}$ $\underbrace{\exists y}$

Definition of

① Mapping

Defn 1

A mapping from S to T is a binary relation on $S \times T$ which associates each element of S with only one element of T .

Defn 2

A mapping f from S to T denoted $f: S \rightarrow T$ is a relation $f = (S, T, G)$ where $G \subseteq S \times T$ such that

$$\forall x \in S : \forall y_1, y_2 \in T : (x, y_1) \in G \wedge (x, y_2) \in G \Rightarrow y_1 = y_2$$

in words: If f sends $x \in S$ to both y_1 and y_2 then $y_1 = y_2$

$$\text{and } \forall x \in S : \exists y \in T : (x, y) \in G$$

denotes right unique

Defn 3

A mapping f from S to T denoted $f: S \rightarrow T$ is a relation $f = (S, T, R)$ where $R \subseteq S \times T$ such that:

$$\forall (x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \in f : y_1 \neq y_2 \Rightarrow x_1 \neq x_2$$

$$\text{and } \forall x \in S : \exists y \in T : (x, y) \in f.$$

↳ NOTE: Suppose $x \in S$ and $y \in T$

$$f: S \rightarrow T : f(x) = y \rightarrow \text{interpreted to mean } (x, y) \in f$$

NOTE:

(As can be seen, binary relations are represented by mappings.)

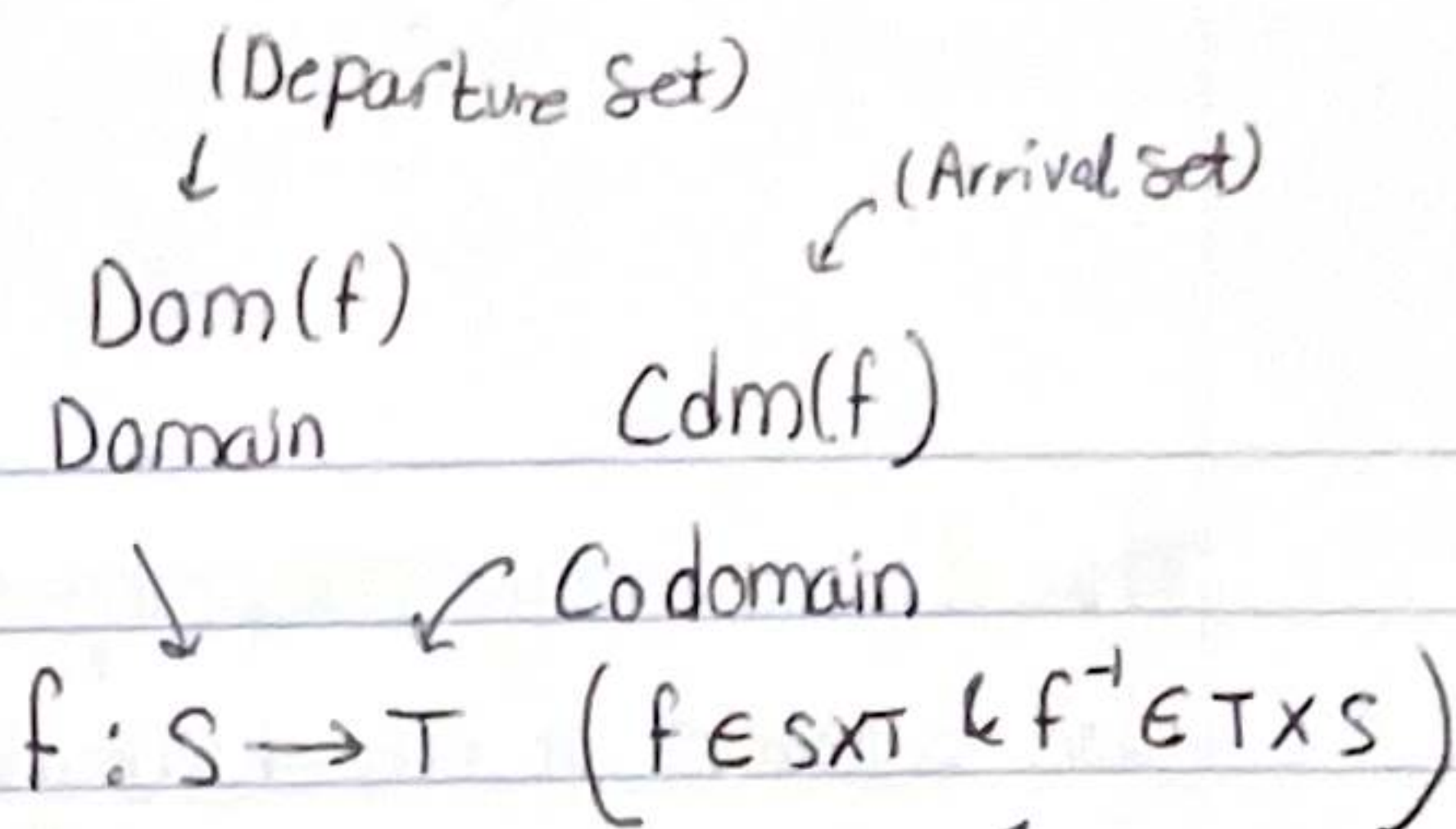
Defn 4

A mapping from S to T is a relation on $S \times T$ which is

1) Many-to-One

2) Left-total.

Defn of Domain & Image.



Image

Let S and T be sets

Let $f: S \rightarrow T$ be a mapping

Let $X \subseteq S$ be a subset of S .

Preimage - $\text{Img}^{-1}(f)$

$$= \{s \in S \mid \exists t \in T \text{ s.t. } f(s) = t\}$$

$f^{-1}[T]$ is the image of T under f^{-1}

Then the image of X (Under f) is defined and denoted as:

$$f[X] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{t \in T \mid \exists s \in X : f(s) = t\}$$

entire domain.
↓
set of values taken by f is $f[S]$ and is
denoted $\text{Img}(f)$.

Image of Subset as Element of Direct Image Mapping.

The image of X under f can be seen to be an element of the codomain of the direct image mapping $f^{\rightarrow}: \mathcal{P}(S) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(T)$ of f :

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{P}(S) : f^{\rightarrow}(x) := \{t \in T : \exists s \in x : f(s) = t\}$$

Thus

$$\forall x \subseteq S : f[x] = f^{\rightarrow}(x)$$

Direct Image Mapping [Mapping induced (on the power set) by f .]

Let S and T be sets

Let $\mathcal{P}(S)$ and $\mathcal{P}(T)$ be their Power sets.

Let $f \subseteq S \times T$ be a mapping from S to T .

↘ Binary Relation.

The direct image mapping of f is the mapping $f^{\rightarrow}: \mathcal{P}(S) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(T)$ that sends a subset $X \subseteq S$ to its image under f :

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{P}(S) : f^{\rightarrow}(x) = \begin{cases} \{t \in T : \exists s \in x : f(s) = t\} & : x \neq \emptyset \\ \emptyset & : x = \emptyset \end{cases}$$

The direct image mapping of f can be seen to be the set of images of all the subsets of the domain of f :

$$\forall X \subseteq S : f[X] = f^{-1}(X)$$

Note f and f^{-1} are not the same.

f^{-1} and f are mappings induced on the power sets by the mapping f .

Examples

1) Arbitrary mapping from $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ to $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$

Let $f : S \rightarrow S$ be the mapping defined as :

$$f(0) = 0$$

$$f(1) = 0$$

$$f(2) = 0$$

$$f(3) = 1$$

$$f(4) = 2, 1$$

$$f(5) = 3$$

Then Image of ~~f~~

①

Let

$$A = \{0, 3\} \quad B = \{0, 1, 3\} \quad C = \{0, 1, 2\}$$

$$\text{Then } f[A] = \{0, 1\}$$

Set of

Generated Image Set

$$f[B] = \{0, 0, 1\} = \{0, 1\}$$

Domain

All the values of the

domain is sent to

all of these.

$$f[C] = \{0\}$$

$$\text{and } \text{Img}(f) = \{0, 1, 3\}$$

$f[X]$ image of

ie. $\text{Img}(f)$ where f on entire domain

subset X of domain

2) Image of $[-3..2]$ under $x \mapsto x^4 - 1$

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the mapping defined as :

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R} : f(x) = x^4 - 1$$

$$f[-3..2] = [-1..80]$$

Image of closed interval $[-3..2]$

$$(-3)^4 - 1 = 80$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} (x^4 - 1) = 4x^3$$

minimum image occurs at $4x^3 = 0$

$$\Rightarrow f(0) = -1 \leftarrow \text{minimum image.}$$

(f is strictly increasing on $x > 0$ and strictly decreasing on $x < 0$)



$$f(-3) = 80 \quad f(2) = 15 \quad \text{but } f_{\min} = -1$$

$$\Rightarrow [-2, 80]$$

min $\nearrow$ max for given $[-3..2]$

~~Domain~~

Restrictions & Inclusions

Restrictions

- The restriction of a function f is a new function denoted $f|_A$ obtained by choosing a smaller domain A for the original function f .

Formally

- Let $f: E \rightarrow F$ be a function from a set E to a set F . If a set A is a subset of E , then the restriction of f to A is the function $f|_A: A \rightarrow F$ given by $f|_A(x) = f(x)$ for x in A .
- Informally, the restriction of f to A is the same function as f but is only defined on $\text{Dom}(f) \cap A$.

- If the function f is thought as a relation $(x, f(x))$ on the cartesian product $E \times F$, then the restriction of f to A can be represented by its graph (graph of a function)

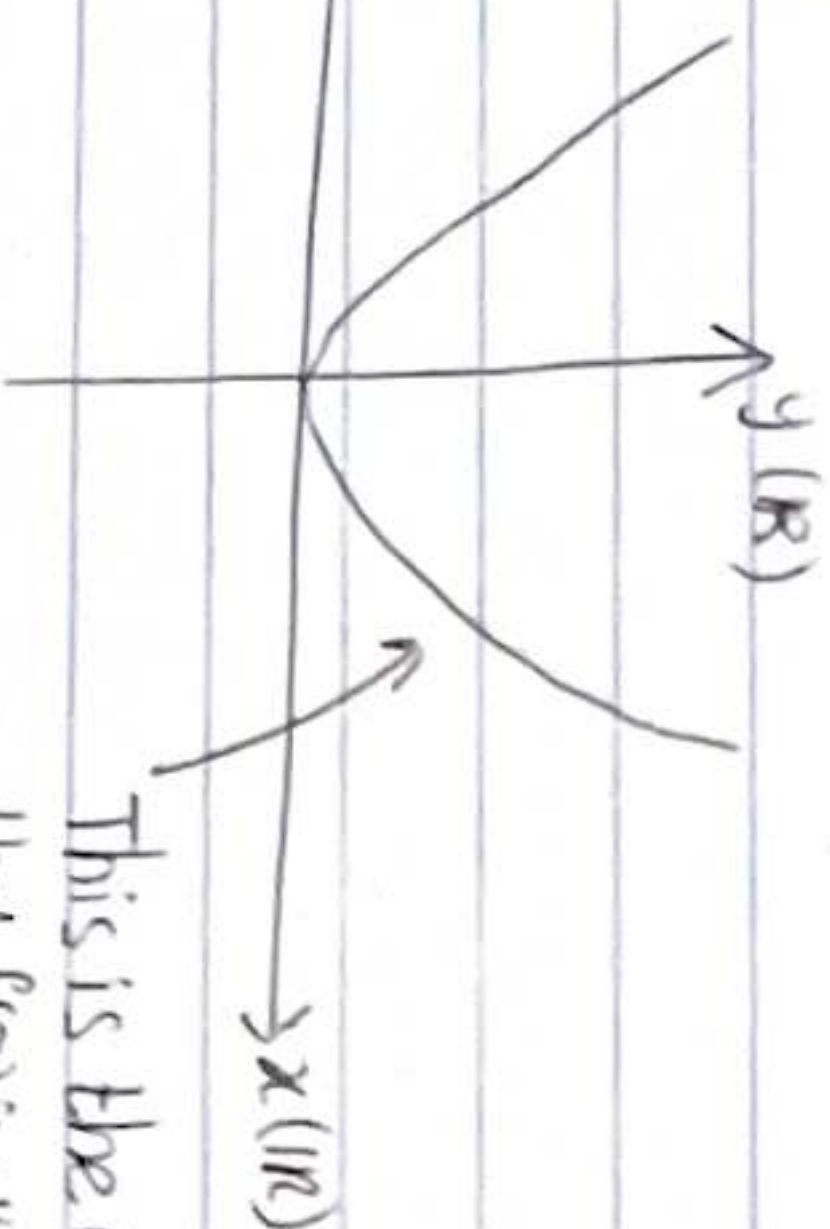
eg. $y = x^2 \rightarrow f(x) = x^2 \Rightarrow (x, x^2) = (x, f(x))$ on $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$

$G(f|_A) = \{(x, f(x)) \in G(f) | x \in A\}$
 $= G(f) \cap (A \times F)$

where $(x, f(x))$ represent

ordered pairs in the

graph G .



This is the only part of $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ that $f(x)$ is allowed to take i.e. its graph.

Examples

- 1) The restriction of the non-injective function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, x \mapsto x^2$ to the domain $\mathbb{R}_+ = [0, \infty)$ is the injection $f: \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, x \mapsto x^2$
(used during exams to find inverse for $x \geq 0$ (domain))
- 2) The factorial function is the restriction of the gamma function to the two integers, with the argument shifted by one: $\Gamma(1 \pm n) = (n-1)!$

Properties of restrictions

- Restricting the function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ to its entire domain X gives back the original function i.e. $f|_X = f$.
- Restricting a function twice (same restriction parameter) is the same as restricting it once. i.e. if $A \subseteq B \subseteq \text{dom } f$ then $(f|_B)|_A = f|_A$

- The restriction of a continuous function is continuous
- The restriction of the identity function on a set X to a subset A of X is just the inclusion map from A into X .

Left/Domain Restriction (More general)

A ΔR of a binary relation R between E and F may be defined as a relation having domain A and codomain F and graph

$G(A \Delta R) = \{(x, y) \in G(R) | x \in A\}$

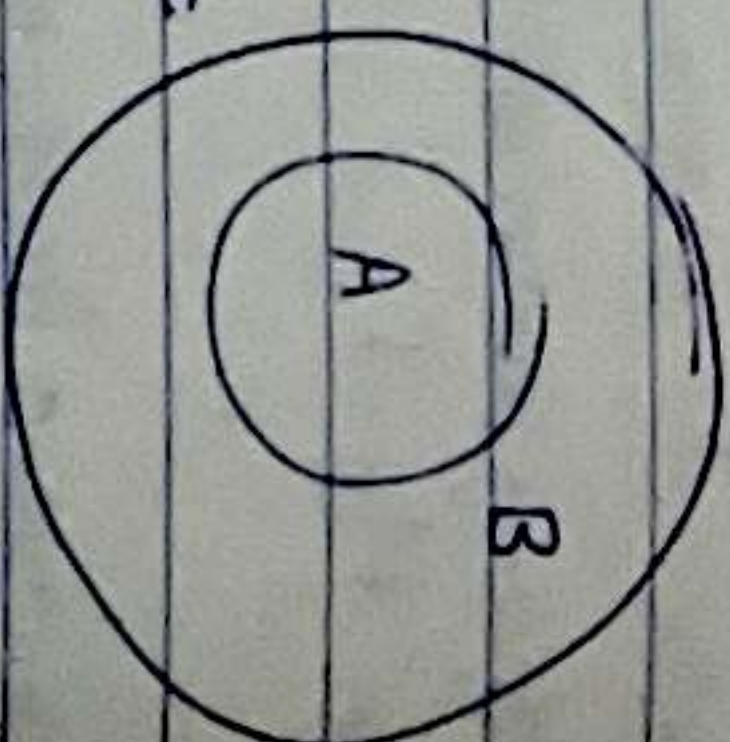
Similarly right/range restriction can be defined ($R \triangleright B$)

Anti-Restriction

- The domain anti-restriction (or domain subtraction) of a function f or a binary relation R (with domain E and codomain F) by a set A may be defined as $(E/A) \triangleleft R$; it removes all elements of A from E .
- It is sometimes denoted $A \nsubseteq A \triangleleft R$
- Similarly the range anti-restriction (or range subtraction) of a function or binary relation R ~~by~~ a set B is defined $R \triangleright (F/B)$. It removes all elements of B from the codomain F . It is sometimes denoted $R \triangleright B$.

Inclusion Map

- If A is a subset of B then the inclusion map (canonical injection) is the function f that sends each element x of A treated as an element of B . (It sorts of "properly" include A in B)



$f: A \rightarrow B \quad f(x) = x$
 A is a subset of B and B is a superset of A .

Theorem: Restriction of Injection is Injection

- Let $f: S \rightarrow T$ be an injection
- Let $X \subseteq S$ be a subset of S .
- Let $f[X]$ denote the image of X under f .
- Let $Y \subseteq T$ be a subset of T such that $f[X] \subseteq Y$
- $\rightarrow$ The restriction $f \upharpoonright_{X \times Y}$ of f to $X \times Y$ is an injection

Theorem: Restriction of mapping is mapping

- Let $f: S \rightarrow T$ be a mapping
- Let $X \subseteq S$
- Let $f \upharpoonright_X$ be the restriction of f to X .
- Then
- $f \upharpoonright_X: X \rightarrow T$ is a mapping
- whose domain is X
- whose preimage is X

Theorem: The preimage of a mapping is the same set as its domain i.e. $\text{Im}^{-1}(f) = \text{Dom}(f)$

Proof Defn of

Let $f \subseteq S \times T$ be a mapping
 Then: $\forall x \in S: \exists y \in T: (x, y) \in f$ Mapping
 $\Rightarrow \forall x \in S: x \in \text{Im}^{-1}(f)$ Preimage of mapping
 $\Rightarrow S \subseteq \text{Im}^{-1}(f)$ subset.

Set equality

$$S = T \Leftrightarrow (\forall x \in S \Leftrightarrow x \in T)$$

$$\forall S = T \text{ iff } S \subseteq T \text{ and } T \subseteq S$$

Proof As $f: S \rightarrow T$ is a mapping we have that:

$$\forall x \in S: (x, y_1) \in f \wedge (x, y_2) \in f \Rightarrow y_1 = y_2 \quad \text{Defn of Mapping as binary relation.}$$

From the definition of subset we have that:

$$x \in X \Rightarrow x \in S \text{ and so}$$

$$\forall x \in X: (x, y_1) \in f \upharpoonright_X \wedge (x, y_2) \in f \upharpoonright_X \Rightarrow y_1 = y_2 \quad \text{Mapping induced by restriction of } f \text{ on } X.$$

Also from the definition of mapping

$$\forall x \in S: \exists y \in T: (x, y) \in f$$

Again from the definition of a subset, $x \in X \Rightarrow x \in S$, and so

$$\forall x \in X: \exists y \in T: (x, y) \in f \upharpoonright_X \quad \text{Defn of mapping recovered for } f \upharpoonright_X.$$

So $f \upharpoonright_X: X \rightarrow T$ is a mapping

$$f: S \rightarrow T \text{ injective}$$

$$x \in S$$

$$y \in T$$

* Proof of Restriction of Injection is Injection.

First we show that $f|_{X \times Y}$ is a mapping from X to Y .

By restriction of mapping is mapping, $f|_{X \times T}$ is a mapping from X to T .

We need to show $f|_X: X \rightarrow T$ where $X \subseteq S$ is same as $f|_{X \times T}$.

Defn. of mapping $\forall x \in S: \exists y \in T: (x, y) \in f$ for $f: S \rightarrow T$

We know that a mapping is a binary relation.

A binary relation over set S and T is a subset of $S \times T$.

Note: $f|_X = \{(x, f(x)) | x \in X\}$ where $X \subseteq S$

Another Definition of Restriction

Let $S \rightarrow T$ be a mapping

Let $X \subseteq S$

Let $f[X] \subseteq Y \subseteq T$

The restriction of f to $X \times Y$ is the mapping $f|_{X \times Y}: X \rightarrow Y$ defined as

$$f|_{X \times Y} = f \cap (X \times Y)$$

Remember: f is a mapping, a binary relation over S and T ($S \times T$)

therefore like bin rel, $f \subseteq S \times T$

For the mapping $X \rightarrow Y$ where $X \subseteq S$ and $Y \subseteq T$, the values of

f are also restricted i.e. only $X \times Y$ in $S \times T$

$$\Rightarrow f|_{X \times Y} = f \cap (X \times Y) \text{ i.e. } (S \times T) \cap (X \times Y)$$

$$\text{Since } (X \times Y) \subseteq (S \times T)$$

$$f|_{X \times Y} \subseteq X \times Y$$

If $Y = T$ (in case of subset of T domain to whole codomain)

$\Rightarrow$ The restriction is called simply restriction of f to X denoted $f|_X$.

$$\text{Also } f|_X = \{(x, y) \in f | x \in X\}$$

$$\text{or } f|_X = \{(x, f(x)) | x \in X\}$$

* Proof

First we show that $f|_{X \times Y}$ is an injection

$X \subseteq S$ and $Y \subseteq T$ and $f[X] \subseteq Y$

$\Rightarrow f|_{X \times Y}$ is an injection from X to Y .

$\uparrow$ restriction of f to $X \times Y$ $f|_{X \times Y}: X \rightarrow Y$.

Set of codomain.
 $\uparrow$
Img of X under f .

Proof

First we show that $f|_{X \times Y}$ is a mapping from X to Y .

By restriction of mapping is mapping, $f|_{X \times Y}$ (or simply $f|_X$) is a mapping from X to T .

If $x \in X$, then by definition of image $f(x) \in f[X]$

Since $f[X] \subseteq Y$, $f|_{X \times Y}$ is a mapping from X to Y .

By definition of an injection

$$\forall s_1, s_2 \in S: f(s_1) = f(s_2) \Rightarrow s_1 = s_2$$

Aiming for contradiction, suppose $f|_{X \times Y}: X \rightarrow Y$ were not an injection.

Then:

AND

$$\exists x_1, x_2 \in X \text{ s.t. } x_1 \neq x_2, \text{ but } f(x_1) = f(x_2)$$

($\neq$)

Let there be x_1, x_2 where $x_1 \neq x_2$.

But then

AND

?

$$\exists x_1, x_2 \in S: x_1 \neq x_2, f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$$

($\neq$)

which implies $f: S \rightarrow T$ is not an injection.

$\Rightarrow f|_{X \times Y}: X \rightarrow Y$ is an injection.

~~Right restriction of codomain to image.~~
 Right restriction of codomain to image.

Restriction of Mapping to Image is Surjection.

1) Surjection (right total)

Let S and T be sets or classes.

Let $f : S \rightarrow T$ be a mapping from S to T .

↳ same as

function $(?)$

$f : S \rightarrow T$ is a Surjection if and only if

$$f[S] = T$$

in direct image mapping notation $f^{-1}(S) = T$

ie. f is a surjection iff its image equals its codomain

ie. $\text{Img}(f) = \text{Codm}(f) \rightarrow \text{Right Total. (No one is left unpaid)}$

Note: Surjection is sometimes denoted as follows $f : S \twoheadrightarrow T$.

2) Surjective Restriction

Let $f : S \rightarrow T$ be a mapping which is not surjective.

Then a surjective restriction of f is a restriction $g : S' \rightarrow T'$ of f such that

$$g|_{S'} : S' \rightarrow T' \text{ is a surjection.}$$

3) Theorem

Let $f : S \rightarrow T$ be a mapping

Let $g : S \rightarrow \text{Img}(f)$ be the restriction of f to $S \times \text{Img}(f)$

Then g is a surjective restriction of f .

Proof

From: Image is subset of Codomain

$$\text{Img}(f) \subseteq \text{Codm}(f) \subseteq T$$

By defn of image we have

$$\forall s \in S : g(s) \in \text{Img}(g)$$

Therefore g may be viewed as a mapping

$$g : S \rightarrow \text{Img}(g)$$

Thus by defn, g is a surjection.

Thus for any mapping $f : S \rightarrow T$ which is not surjective, by restricting its codomain to its image can be made surjective.

Bijection

For mappings

1) A mapping $f : S \rightarrow T$ is a (bijection) iff both 1) f is an injection 2) f is a surjection.

2) f has both a left inverse and a right inverse (composite functions)

3) The inverse f^{-1} of f is a mapping $T \rightarrow S$

4) A mapping $f \in S \times T$ is a bijection iff

for each $y \in T$ there exists one and only one $x \in S$ such that $(x, y) \in f$.

5) A relation $f \in S \times T$ is a bijection iff.

- 1) for each $x \in S$ there exists one and only one $y \in T$ such that $(x, y) \in f$
- 2) for each $y \in T$ there exists one and only one $x \in S$ such that $(x, y) \in f$.

Symbol for bijection $f: S \leftrightarrow T$

Injection: $S \rightarrow T$ or $S \hookrightarrow T$

Surjection: $S \twoheadrightarrow T$

Note: We still need to show Morphism property preserves closure and give the definition for Algebraic Structure.

Algebraic Structure

An algebraic structure is an ordered tuple

$(S, 0_1, 0_2, \dots, 0_n)$ where S is a set which has one or more binary operations $0_1, 0_2, \dots, 0_n$ defined on all the elements of $S \times S$.

Since operation is binary

i.e. $S \times S \rightarrow S$

$S \times S$ or $S \times S$ where $S \in S$

An algebraic structure with one binary operation is thus an ordered pair denoted $(S, 0)$, $(T, *)$ and so on.

Theorem: Morphism property preserves closure.

Let $\phi: (S, 0_1, 0_2, \dots, 0_n) \rightarrow (T, *_1, *_2, \dots, *_n)$ from one algebraic structure to another.

Let 0_k have the morphism property under ϕ for some operation 0_k in $(S, 0_1, 0_2, \dots, 0_n)$ then the following properties hold

If $S' \subseteq S$ is closed under 0_k then $\phi[S']$ is closed under $*_k$.

If $T' \subseteq T$ is closed under $*_k$ then $\phi^{-1}[T']$ is closed under 0_k , where $\phi[S']$ is the image of S' .

Proof

Suppose that 0_k has the morphism property under ϕ

Suppose $S' \subseteq S$ is closed under 0_k .

Thus: $s_1, s_2 \in S' \Rightarrow s_1 \circ_k s_2 \in S'$

Similarly suppose $T' \subseteq T$ is closed under $*_k$

Thus: $t_1, t_2 \in T' \Rightarrow t_1 *_k t_2 \in T'$

First we prove that $\phi[S']$ is closed under $*_k$:

$t_1, t_2 \in \phi[S']$

$\Rightarrow \exists s_1 \in S' : t_1 = \phi(s_1) \wedge \exists s_2 \in S' : t_2 = \phi(s_2)$ Defn. image of subset

$\Rightarrow t_1 *_k t_2 = \phi(s_1) *_k \phi(s_2) = \phi(s_1 \circ_k s_2)$ Defn. of morphism property

$\Rightarrow t_1 *_k t_2 \in \phi[S']$ S' is closed under 0_k .

Homomorphism - Morphism for magmas.

2)

Then we prove that $\phi^{-1}(T')$ is closed under $\circ_K$:

$S_1, S_2 \in \phi^{-1}[T'] \Rightarrow \phi(S_1), \phi(S_2) \in \phi^{-1}[T']$ Defn of inverse mapping

$$\phi(S_1) *_{\kappa} \phi(S_2) \in T'$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(S_1 \circ_K S_2) \in T' \quad \text{Defn of morphism property}$$

$$\Rightarrow S_1 \circ_K S_2 \in \phi^{-1}[T'] \quad \text{Defn of inverse mapping.}$$

We now have everything required for our theorem.

Monomorphism Image is isomorphic to Domain.

The image of a monomorphism is isomorphic to its domain.

That is if $\phi: S_1 \rightarrow S_2$ is a monomorphism, then:

$\phi: S_1 \rightarrow \text{Img}(\phi)$ is an isomorphism.

Proof

Let $(S_1, \circ_1)$ and $(S_2, \circ_2)$ be closed algebraic structures.

Let ϕ be a monomorphism from $(S_1, \circ_1)$ to $(S_2, \circ_2)$

Let $T = \text{Img}(\phi)$ be the image of ϕ

By morphism property preserves closure $(T, \circ_2)$ is closed

As ϕ is a monomorphism it is by definition an injective homomorphism

From Restriction of injection is injection, $\phi: S_1 \rightarrow \text{Img}(\phi)$ is an injection.

From Restriction of mapping to image is surjection, $\phi: S_1 \rightarrow \text{Img}(\phi)$ is a surjection.

Thus $\phi \rightarrow \text{Img}(\phi)$ is by definition a bijection

Thus $\phi: S_1 \rightarrow \text{Img}(\phi)$ is a bijective homomorphism

Hence by definition, $\phi: S_1 \rightarrow \text{Img}(\phi)$ is an isomorphism.

Cayley's Representation Theorem.

Let S_n denote the symmetric group on n letters

Every finite group is isomorphic to a subgroup of S_n for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

General Case

Let $(G, \circ)$ be a group

Then there exists a permutation group P on some set S such that

$$G \cong P.$$

Proof

Finite

Let G be any arbitrary group whose identity is e_G .

Let S be the symmetric group on the elements of G , where e_S is the identity of S .

For any $x \in G$, let λ_x be the left regular representation of G w.r.t x

From Regular representations in groups are permutations, $\forall x \in G; \lambda_x \in S$

So we can define a mapping $\theta: G \rightarrow S$ as: $\forall x \in G: \theta(x) = \lambda_x$

From Composition of regular representations, we have:

$$\forall x, y \in G: \lambda_x \circ \lambda_y = \lambda_{xy} \quad \text{where in this context } \circ \text{ denotes composition of mappings.}$$

Thus by definition of $\theta: \theta(x) \circ \theta(y) = \theta(xy)$ demonstrating that θ is a homomorphism.

Having established that fact, we can now consider $\text{Ker}(\theta)$ (kernel of θ)

Let $x \in G$

We have that

$$x \in \text{Ker}(\theta)$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta(x) = e_s$$

Defn of kernel of group homomorphism

$$\Rightarrow \lambda x = I_G$$

where I_G is the identity mapping of G .

$$\Rightarrow \lambda x(e_g) = I_G(e_g)$$

Defn of identity mapping

$$\Rightarrow x = e_g$$

Defn of λx and I_G

So $\text{Ker}(\theta)$ can contain no element other than e_g .

So since clearly $e_g \in \text{Ker}(\theta)$ it follows that

$$\text{Ker}(\theta) = \{e_g\}$$

$$\text{Ker}(\theta) = \{e_g\}$$

By kernel is trivial iff Monomorphism, it follows that θ is a Monomorphism.

By Monomorphism image is isomorphic to domain, we have that:

$$\theta[G] \cong \text{Im}(\theta)$$

that is θ is isomorphic to its image.

Hence the result.

$$\theta[G] \cong \text{Im}(\theta)$$

θ sends Group to Symmetric group

permutation group (domain)

$$\theta[G] \cong \text{Im}(\theta)$$

permutation group (Image)

Subset of

Symmetric group

Cosets of a group

- A Subgroup H of Group G may be used to decompose the underlying set of G into disjoint equal size pieces called Cosets.
- There are 2 types of cosets namely Left Coset and Right Coset. Cosets of either type have the same number of elements (Cardinality) as does H .
- Furthermore, H is itself a coset which is both a left coset and a right coset. The number of left cosets of H in G is equal to the number of right cosets of H in G .

Definition

Let $H \leq G$

Given an element $g \in G$

The left cosets of H in G are the sets obtained by multiplying each element of H by a fixed element g of G (where g is a left factor).

$$\text{ie. } gH = \{gh : h \text{ is an element of } H\} \text{ for each } g \text{ in } G$$

The right cosets are defined similarly (except g is a right factor)

$$Hg = \{hg : h \text{ is an element of } H\} \text{ for each } g \text{ in } G$$

As g varies through the group, it would appear that many (left & right) cosets are generated. However, not all these cosets are distinct. In fact, we will see that if an element is common to 2 or more cosets, then these cosets are the same.

Example 1) Consider $S(\Delta)$
 We know that $(\{e, r, s\}, o) \leq S(\Delta)$ (Subgroup)
 So we will use the latter to generate cosets.

H (Subgroup)

	e	r	s	a	b	c
eH	e	r	s	a	b	c
rH	e	r	s	a	b	c
sH	e	r	s	a	b	c
aH	a	c	b	e	s	r
bH	b	a	c	r	e	s
cH	c	b	a	s	r	e

* But for the same

subgroup H , the all the cosets have the same size (even left & right cosets) all left cosets & all right cosets (Trivial)

$eH = \{e, r, s\}$
 These are the left cosets generated by the subgroup H .

$rH = \{r, s, e\}$
 We can see that for example r is present in eH, rH and sH .

$sH = \{s, e, r\}$
 These cosets as can be seen are equal (order does not matter in sets)

$aH = \{a, c, b\}$
 An additional cosets are also obtained namely $\{a, b, c\}$

$bH = \{b, a, c\}$
 by a, b and c multiplication.

$cH = \{c, b, a\}$
 Not true: subgroups of different size might exist (mg of elements)

$S(H) = \{see, sor, sos\}$
 Important: We also see that all cosets have same cardinality (size) we also know ng left cosets of $H = n_H$ right cosets of H .

If we calculate the right cosets we shall see that they are different from the left cosets.

In an Abelian Group left coset (of eg. g) ie $gH = Hg$ (right coset by g)

* If for a Subgroup of G which has $gH = Hg$ then the Subgroup is known as a Normal Subgroup.

Why do we not check at each integer / element of G but a "collective" ie Subgroup, collection under mod n ..
 We can see that the cosets $\{e, r, s\}$ and $\{a, b, c\}$ generated are in fact disjoint.
 * Like in quotient sets in equivalence relations the cosets of a normal subgroup form a group known as quotient group.

If G is not abelian, then the partition induced on G by the left cosets will be different from the H coses induced by the right cosets.
 If $G = aH$ (where H is a Normal Subgroup) the partition will be the same and thus the "set of all cosets" can be properly defined and considered for the group G . This group is known as the quotient group (and is similar to quotient sets obtained with equivalence classes).

Example 2) Consider the Dihedral Group of Order 6 (D_3) with $a^3 = b^3 = I$ and $ba = a^2b = a^2b$

x	I	a	a ²	b	ab	a ² b
I	I	a	a ²	b	ab	a ² b
a	a	a	a ²	I	ab	a ² b
a ²	a ²	a ²	I	a	a ² b	b
b	b	a ² b	ab	I	a ²	a
ab	ab	ab	a ² b	a ² b	a ²	a
a ² b	a ² b	a ² b	b	a ²	I	I

Let T be the Subgroup $\{I, b\}$

The left Cosets of T are:

$IT = T = \{I, b\}$

$aT = \{a, ab\}$

$a^2T = \{a^2, a^2b\}$

We stop here as all the elements of D_3 has appeared in the

cosets we calculated generating and any more cosets would be ones with same elements and have equal ones

Although $IT = TI$ (possible) for other cosets must equal the right cosets w.r.t the same coset. Only unequal too. If $\exists a : aT \neq Ta \Rightarrow$ Group not abelian.

The right Cosets of T are:

$TI = \{I, b\} (=T)$

$Ta = \{a, ba\} = \{a, a^2b\}$

$Ta^2 = \{a^2, ba^2\} = \{a^2, ab\}$

As we can see consider $a, aT \neq Ta$ ie left coset of T w.r.t $a \neq$ right coset of T w.r.t a .

In an abelian group all left cosets w.r.t or right cosets w.r.t are the same.

Centre of a Group

For some elements other than the identity, left & right cosets may coincide even if the group is not abelian. This element is known as the centre of a group.

G

- The centre of a group, denoted $Z(G)$ is the set of elements that commute with all the elements of the group.

$$Z(G) = \{z \in G \mid \forall g \in G, zg = gz\}$$

- The centre is a normal subgroup ~~even~~

$$\text{i.e. } Z(G) \triangleleft G \rightarrow \text{A group } G \text{ is abelian iff } Z(G) = G$$

The elements of the centre are sometimes called central.

A group G is centreless if $Z(G)$ is trivial i.e. $Z(G) = \{e_G\}$

For the elements in a centre eg e (a central)

Note: A group may be non-Abelian and possess a centre.

For the centre, the cosets (L & R) will coincide.

Also a central will multiply both left & right with a subgroup to yield the same coset.

Index of a Subgroup

The index of a subgroup H in a group G is the "relative size" of H in G ; equivalently the number of "copies" (cosets) of H that fill up G .

eg. If H has index 2 in G , half the elements of G lie in H . The index of H in G is usually denoted $[G : H]$ or $|G : H|$

Formally, the index of H in G is defined as the number of cosets of H in G . (It is always the case that the number of left cosets of H in G is equal to the number of right cosets.)

Example: Let Z be the group of integers under addition. Let $2Z$ be the subgroup of even integers. Then $2Z$ has 2 cosets, namely the even integers and odd integers. So $[Z : 2Z] = 2$

$$\text{Generally } [Z : nZ] = n$$

If N is a normal subgroup in G , then the index of N in G is also equal to the order of the quotient group G/N since the latter is defined in terms of a group structure on the sets of cosets of N in G .

Properties

- If H is a subgroup of G and K is a subgroup of H , then $|G : K| = |G : H| |H : K|$

- If H and K are subgroups of G then $|G : HNK| \leq |G : H| |G : K|$, with equality if $HK = G$ (If $|G : HNK|$ is finite, then equality holds iff $HK = G$)

Equivalently

- If $H \leq G \wedge K \leq G$ then $|H : HNK| \leq |G : K|$ with equality, if $HK = G$
- If $|H : HNK|$ is finite, then equality holds iff $HK = G$.

• If G and H are groups and $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$ is a homomorphism, then the index of the kernel of φ in G is equal to the order of the image.

$$[G : \ker(\varphi)] = |\text{Im}(\varphi)|$$

Some additional Theorems

- 1) Cosets are equivalent ✓
- 2) Cosets are identical or disjoint. ✓
- 3) Formal Defn of Index of a Subgroup.
- 4) Left congruence modulo H . ✓
- 5) Set equivalence is equivalence relation. ✓
- 6) Element in Left/Right Coset iff product with inverse in Subgroup. ✓

* In general
Let $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n$ with inverse
 $a_1^{-1}, a_2^{-1}, a_3^{-1}, \dots, a_n^{-1}$
Then $(a_1 \circ a_2 \circ \dots \circ a_n)^{-1}$
 $= a_n^{-1} \circ \dots \circ a_2^{-1} \circ a_1^{-1}$

Theorem 1) Element in Left coset iff product with inverse in Subgroup.

Let G be a group

Let $H \leq G$ be a Subgroup of G

Let $x, y \in G$

Let yH denote the left coset of H by y .

Then $x \in yH \Leftrightarrow x^{-1}y \in H$

Proof

$$x \in yH$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \exists h \in H : x = yh \quad \text{Defn of Left Coset}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \exists h \in H : x^{-1} = h^{-1}y^{-1} \quad \text{Inverse of Group product}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \exists h \in H : x^{-1}y = h^{-1} \quad \text{Product with y on the right.}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x^{-1}y \in H \quad H \text{ is a Subgroup.}$$

$\Rightarrow$ Inverse.

* Inverse of Group Product.

Theorem: Let $(G, \circ)$ be a group with identity e .

Let $a, b \in G$ with inverse a^{-1}, b^{-1}
Then $(a \circ b)^{-1} = b^{-1} \circ a^{-1}$

Proof

$$(a \circ b) \circ (b^{-1} \circ a^{-1}) = ((a \circ b) \circ b^{-1}) \circ a^{-1}$$

$$= (a \circ (b \circ b^{-1})) \circ a^{-1}$$

$$= (a \circ e) \circ a^{-1} \quad \text{defn of inverse}$$

$$= a \circ a^{-1}$$

$$= e$$

$\uparrow$ Group product identity

Element in Right Coset iff Product with inverse in Subgroup.

Let G be a group

Let $H \leq G$ be a Subgroup of G

Let $x, y \in G$

Let Hy denote the right coset of H by y .

Then $x \in Hy \Leftrightarrow xy^{-1} \in H$

Proof

Let $(G, *)$ be the Opposite Group of G .

Then:

$$x \in Hy \Leftrightarrow x \in y * H$$

$$xy^{-1} \in H \Leftrightarrow y^{-1} * x \in H$$

Since H is closed under inverses:

$$xy^{-1} \in H \Leftrightarrow x^{-1} * y \in H$$

By element in left coset iff product with inverse in Subgroup.

$$x \in y * H \Leftrightarrow x^{-1} * y \in H$$

Hence the result.

$\rightarrow$ Let $(G, \circ)$ be a group

We define a new operation $*$ on G by:

$$\forall a, b \in G : a * b = b \circ a$$

$(G, *)$ is called the opposite group

to G .

Theorem 2) Set equivalence is equivalence relation.

Proof

For two sets to be equivalent, there needs to be a bijection between them. In the following, let $\emptyset, \emptyset_1, \emptyset_2$, etc. be understood as bijections.

Reflexive

From identity mapping is bijection, the id mapping $I_S : S \rightarrow S$ is the required bijection.

Thus there exists a bijection from S to itself and S is therefore equivalent to itself.

$\Rightarrow$ Set equivalence is reflexive.

$\square$

Symmetric

$S \sim T$

$\Rightarrow \exists \emptyset : S \rightarrow T$ Defn set equivalence.

That is they have the same cardinality.

$\Rightarrow \exists \emptyset^{-1} : T \rightarrow S$ Bijection iff inverse is a bijection.

(written as $S \sim T$)

$\Rightarrow T \sim S$

Defn set equivalence:

for non-equivalence we write $S \not\sim T$

$\Rightarrow$ Set equivalence is

$\emptyset^{-1}$ is also a bijection.

Symmetric.

Inverse of a bijection (bijective function) is also a bijection.

$\square$

Transitive

$S_1 \sim S_2 \wedge S_2 \sim S_3$

$\Rightarrow \exists \emptyset_1 : S_1 \rightarrow S_2 \wedge \exists \emptyset_2 : S_2 \rightarrow S_3$

Defn of Set equivalence

$\emptyset_1 \circ \emptyset_2$ is also

$\Rightarrow \exists \emptyset_2 \circ \emptyset_1 : S_1 \rightarrow S_3$

Composite of bijection is bijection.

$\Rightarrow S_1 \sim S_3$

Defn of Set equivalence.

$\Rightarrow$ Set equivalence is transitive.

$\Rightarrow$ Set equivalence is equivalence relation.

Theorem 3) Cosets are equivalent

All left cosets of a group G w.r.t a Subgroup H are equivalent.

$\rightarrow$ That is any 2 left cosets are in one-to-one correspondence.

The same applies to right cosets.

As a special case of this:

$\forall x \in G : |xH| = |H| = |Hx|$ where $H \leq G$

Proof 1

Follows directly from Set equivalence of regular representations.

If S is a finite subset of group G then

$|a \circ S| = |S| = |S \circ a|$ i.e. $a \circ S$, S and $S \circ a$ are equivalent: $a \circ S \sim S \sim S \circ a$

Proof - Follows directly from both the left & right regular representations are permutations and therefore bijections.

Proof 2

Let us set up the mappings as follows: $\theta : H \rightarrow Hx$ and $\emptyset : Hx \rightarrow H$ as follows:

$\forall u \in H : \theta(u) = ux$

$\forall v \in Hx : \emptyset(v) = vx^{-1}$

From element in right coset iff Product with inverse in subgroup.

$v \in Hx \Rightarrow vx^{-1} \in H$

Now

$\forall v \in Hx : \theta \circ \emptyset(v) = vx^{-1}x = v$

$\forall u \in H : \emptyset \circ \theta(u) = ux^{-1}x = u$

Thus $\theta \circ \emptyset = I_{Hx}$ and $\emptyset \circ \theta = I_H$ are identity mappings

Set Equivalence (of cosets)

So $\theta = \theta^{-1}$: both are bijections and one is the inverse of the other.

This establishes, for each $x \in G$, the set equivalence between H and Hx :

$$H \simeq Hx$$

In particular for any $x, y \in G$, the set equivalence it follows from $Hx \simeq H$ and $H \simeq Hy$ that $Hx \simeq Hy$ by Set equivalence is equivalence relation.

Similarly we can set up mappings $\alpha: H \rightarrow xH$ and $\beta: xH \rightarrow H$ as follows:

$$\forall u \in H: \alpha(u) = xu$$

$$\forall v \in xH: \beta(v) = x^{-1}v$$

Analogous to above reasoning gives $\alpha = \beta^{-1}$ which establishes $H \simeq xH$

Also similarly $xH \simeq yH$ for all $x, y \in G$

Hence the result.

Congruence modulo Subgroup.

Left congruence modulo Subgroup

Let G be a group

Let $H \leq G$ be a Subgroup of G .

We can use H to define a relation on G as follows:

$$R_H := \{(x, y) \in G \times G \mid x^{-1}y \in H\}$$

This is called left congruence modulo H .

When we write $x \equiv y \pmod{H}$ read as x is left congruent to y modulo H .

What is the function of modulo here??

Right congruence modulo Subgroup.

Let G be a group.

Let $H \leq G$

We can use H to define a relation on G as follows:

$$R'_H = \{(x, y) \in G \times G \mid xy^{-1} \in H\}$$

When $(x, y) \in R'_H$ we write $x \equiv y \pmod{H}$ read as y is right congruent to x modulo H .

By defn Congruence classes are identical & disjoint.

Congruence Class modulo Subgroup is Coset.

China residue class integers modulo n .
Portions set of integers.

1) Theorem: Left congruence class modulo Subgroup is left Coset

Let G be a group and $H \leq G$

Let R'_H be defined as the equivalence defined as left congruence modulo H .

Then the equivalence class $[g]_{R'_H}$ of an element $g \in G$ is the left coset gH . This is known as the left congruence class of $g \pmod{H}$.

Proof Congruence modulo H

Let $x \in [g]_{R'_H}$ Defn left $_a$ Thus $[g]_{R'_H} = gH$ i.e. the equivalence class $[g]_{R'_H}$

Thm $\rightarrow \exists h \in H: y^{-1}x = h$ Group properties of an element $g \in G$ equals the left coset gH .

$\exists h \in H: x = gh$ Defn left Coset

$x = gh$ Defn Subgroup

$\rightarrow [g]_{R'_H} \subseteq gH$ left

Now let $x \in gH$ Defn left Coset

$\rightarrow \exists h \in H: x = gh$ Group properties Defn left Coset

$\rightarrow g^{-1}x = h \in H$ Defn left congruence modulo H Group properties

$\rightarrow x \in [g]_{R'_H}$ Defn left congruence modulo H .

$\rightarrow = gH \subseteq [g]_{R'_H}$ Defn Subgroup.

Theorem 2) Right congruence class modulo Subgroup is Right Coset.

Let G be a group and $H \leq G$

Let R_H be the equivalence relation defined as right congruence modulo H . Then the equivalence class $[g]_{R_H}$ of an element $g \in G$ is the right coset Hg .

This is known as the right congruence class of $g \bmod H$.

Proof

Let $x \in [g]_{R_H}$

Then:

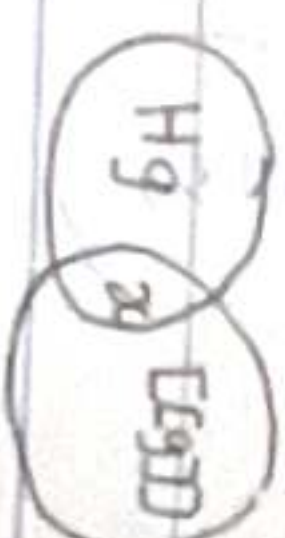
$\exists h \in H : xg^{-1} = h$ Defn of right congruence mod H .

$\rightarrow \exists h \in H : x = hg$

$\rightarrow x = hg$

$\rightarrow [x]_{R_H} \subseteq Hg$

Group properties
Defn right Coset
Defn Subgroup.



Now

Let $x \in Hg$

$\rightarrow \exists h \in H : x = hg$

$\rightarrow \exists h \in H : xg^{-1} = h$ $(\in H)$

$\rightarrow x \in [g]_{R_H}$

$\rightarrow Hg \subseteq [g]_{R_H}$

Thus $[g]_{R_H} = Hg$ i.e. the equivalence class $[g]_{R_H}$ of an element $g \in G$ equals the right coset gH .

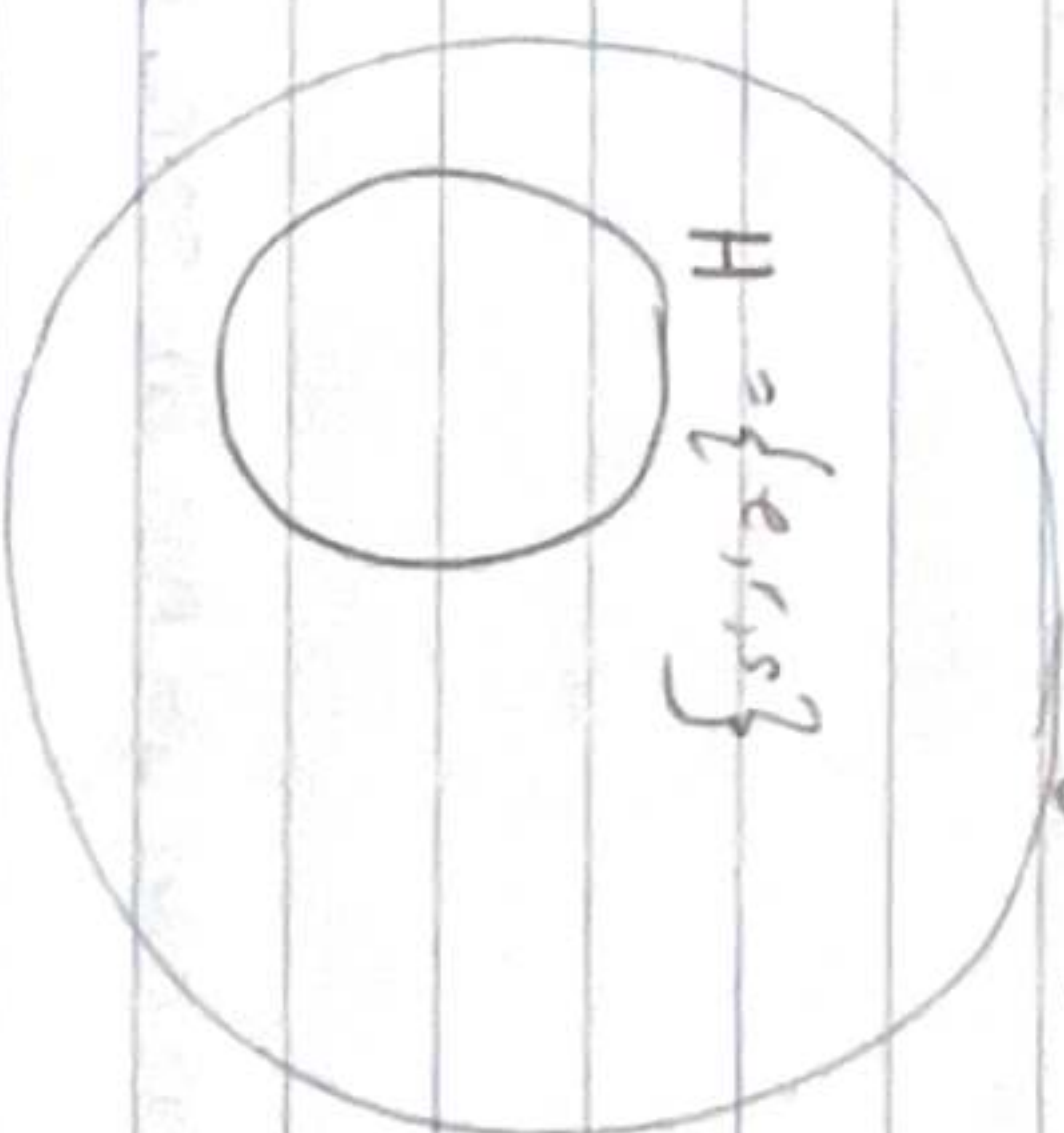
Another definition of the index of a subgroup. $| \text{Left coset} | = | \text{Right coset} |$

Let G be a group and $H \leq G$

The index of H ($\text{in } G$) is the cardinality of left (or right) coset space G/H . denoted $[G : H]$

But why is a Coset Congruence Class of elements of G modulo Subgroup ??

Intuition.



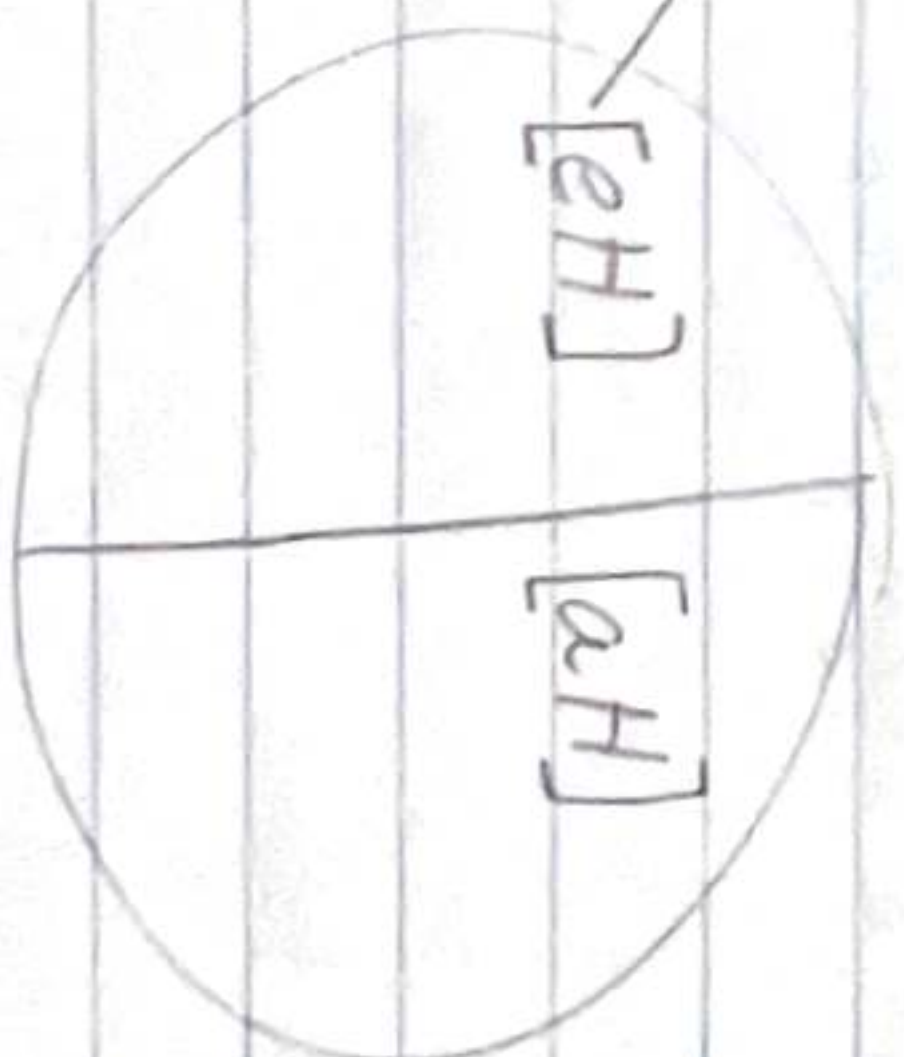
Renew This.

The left coset space of G modulo H is the quotient set of G by left congruence modulo H , denoted G/H . It is the set of all the left cosets of H in G . Same for right.

Cosets are a way of decomposing a group. We shall consider left cosets.

Congruence $\left\{ \begin{aligned} eH &= rH = sH = \{e, r, s\} \\ aH &= bH = cH = \{a, b, c\} \end{aligned} \right.$

a Congruence class



When we consider the congruence class of $g \bmod H$ we are referring to $g = \{e, r, s, a, b, c\}$ and $H = \{e, r, s\}$ like in a modulo n for integers $[a]$ when n is known.

H is known $\Rightarrow [e], [a]$ class of set of element of G congruence to Subgroup H .

Lagrange's Theorem

Let G be a finite group.

Let H be a Subgroup of G .

Then $|H|$ divides $|G|$ where $|H|$ and $|G|$ are the orders of H and G respectively.

In fact: $[G:H] = |G|/|H|$ where $[G:H]$ is the index of H .

Proof

Let G be a group

Let $H \leq G$

From Cosets are equivalent, a left coset gH has the same number of elements as H namely $|H|$

Since left cosets are either identical or disjoint, each element of G belongs to exactly one left coset.

From the definition of the index of a Subgroup there are $[G:H]$ Cosets and therefore:

$$|G| = [G:H] |H|$$

$\rightarrow$ (No. of cosets $\times$ size of coset) gives size of group

Let G be of finite order
 $\rightarrow$ All 3 numbers are finite and the result follows

Let G be of infinite order

If $[G:H] = n$ is finite, then $|G| = n|H|$ and so H is of infinite order.

If H is of finite order such that $|H| = n$, then $|G| = [G:H] \times n$ and so

$[G:H]$ is infinite.

$\uparrow$ Coset Space G/H is infinite set.

What to do?

① Review Previous work.

② Group Actions

③: General Linear Group & Special Linear Group

④ $SO(3)$

⑤ Orbit-Stabiliser Theorem

⑥ Sylow's Theorems

⑦ Circle Group

⑧ Direct Products

⑨ Normal Subgroups

⑩ Quotient Groups

What to do? ... (11) ... (12) ...

(12) General Relativity - Group

(14) Heisenberg group

(15) Cayley graph

(16) Other Topics

$$\{ \dots \} = 2$$

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$