Linear Algebra 1

Lecture #7

# Permutations and the symmetric group. Fields

Irena Penev

November 20, 2023

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  - Indeed, the composition of two permutations of X is a permutation of X, and so ∘ is a binary operation on Sym(X).
  - Moreover, it is clear that ∘ is associative; indeed, for any π, σ, τ ∈ Sym(X), we have that π ∘ (σ ∘ τ) = (π ∘ σ) ∘ τ, because for all x ∈ X, we have the following:

$$\begin{aligned} (\pi \circ (\sigma \circ \tau))(x) &= & \pi((\sigma \circ \tau)(x)) \\ &= & \pi(\sigma(\tau(x))) \\ &= & (\pi \circ \sigma)(\tau(x)) \\ &= & ((\pi \circ \sigma) \circ \tau)(x). \end{aligned}$$

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- The identity element of this group is the identity function  $Id_X$ .
- The inverse element of any permutation π ∈ Sym(X) is the inverse permutation π<sup>-1</sup>.

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$$\sigma(a) = b$$
,  $\sigma(b) = a$ , and  $\sigma(x) = x$  for all  $x \in X \setminus \{a, b\}$ ;  
•  $\tau(a) = c$ ,  $\tau(c) = a$ , and  $\tau(x) = x$  for all  $x \in X \setminus \{a, c\}$ .

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• Thus, Sym(X) is not abelian.

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- The group  $(S_n, \circ)$  is called the symmetric group of degree n.
- Note that  $|S_n| = n!$ .

• A permutation  $\pi \in S_n$  can be represented in the following way:

$$\pi = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \dots & n \\ \pi(1) & \pi(2) & \dots & \pi(n) \end{pmatrix}.$$

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- For example, the permutation  $\pi \in S_4$  given by

• 
$$\pi(1) = 3$$
,  
•  $\pi(2) = 2$ ,  
•  $\pi(3) = 4$ ,

• 
$$\pi(4) = 1$$

can be represented as follows:

$$\pi = \left(\begin{array}{rrrr} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 2 & 4 & 1 \end{array}\right).$$

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

• We can represent this permutation geometrically, as shown below.



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- We can also represent permutations in  $S_n$  in terms of cycles.
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• We can "encode" the picture that we obtained as a "product of disjoint cycles":

$$\pi = (13267)(4)(59)(8).$$

• The above is also referred to as a "disjoint cycle decomposition" of the permutation *π*.
$$6 \qquad 4 \qquad 6 \qquad 8$$



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- For example, the permutation  $\pi$  above can also be expressed as follows:  $\pi = (95)(26713)(8)(4)$ .
- However, the first disjoint cycle decomposition is canonical/standard because it satisfies the following two properties:
  - within each cycle, the smallest number appears first;
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- However, the first disjoint cycle decomposition is canonical/standard because it satisfies the following two properties:
  - within each cycle, the smallest number appears first;
  - the first elements of the cycles from the disjoint cycle decomposition form an increasing sequence.
- Usually, the canonical representation is preferred, but occasionally, it may be more practical to use a non-canonical one.





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- So, if we know that we are working in  $S_9$ , then we may omit the one-element cycles (4) and (8) from the representation above, and write simply

$$\pi = (13267)(59).$$



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- In this case, the cycles (4) and (8) are understood from context.
- However, we can only do this when *n* has been specified beforehand!
  - Otherwise, cycles of length one must be included.

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  - For instance, if we are working in  $S_{12}$ , then (123) is ambiguous.
  - To avoid ambiguity, we write (1, 2, 3) or (12, 3), as appropriate.
  - However, if we are working in *S<sub>n</sub>*, where *n* is a single-digit number, then there is no danger of confusion, and so we normally omit commas.

Find the disjoint cycle decompositions of the following permutations.

$$\begin{array}{c} \bullet & \pi_1 = \left(\begin{array}{rrrrr} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 5 & 4 & 3 & 1 \end{array}\right) \\ \bullet & \pi_2 = \left(\begin{array}{rrrrr} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 3 & 2 & 4 & 1 & 6 & 5 \end{array}\right) \\ \bullet & \pi_3 = \left(\begin{array}{rrrr} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 5 & 1 & 3 & 4 \end{array}\right) \end{array}$$

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(b)  $\pi_2 = (134)(2)(56);$ 

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•  $(154362) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 5 & 1 & 6 & 3 & 4 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$ 

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•  $(1)(23)(45) \circ (124)(35) = (134)(25).$ 

 The inverse of a permutation π in S<sub>n</sub> can be obtained by starting with a disjoint cycle decomposition of π, and then reversing the order of elements in all cycles, i.e. turning each cycle of the form (a<sub>1</sub>a<sub>2</sub>...a<sub>k</sub>) into (a<sub>k</sub>...a<sub>2</sub>a<sub>1</sub>).





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• If we wish to emphasize n (or if we need to avoid confusion with other kinds of 1 that may appear in our proof/computation), then we can denote the identity permutation in  $S_n$  by  $1_n$ .

Given a positive integer n and a permutation  $\pi \in S_n$ , the sign of  $\pi$ , denoted by  $\text{sgn}(\pi)$ , is given by  $\text{sgn}(\pi) = (-1)^{n-k}$ , where k is the number of cycles in the disjoint cycle decomposition of  $\pi$  including the one-element cycles.

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$$\pi_1 = (1367)(2)(45)$$
 in  $S_7$ , we have

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• for  $\pi_2 = (12)(345)(6)(7)$  in  $S_7$ , we have

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Equivalently, for π ∈ S<sub>n</sub>, we have that sgn(π) = (-1)<sup>n'-k'</sup>, where k' is the number of cycles in some disjoint cycles in some disjoint cycle decomposition of π (possibly with some one-element cycles omitted), and n' is the number of elements in those k' cycles.

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- The two definitions are equivalent because if d is the number of omitted one-element cycles in some disjoint cycle decomposition of π, then n = n' + d, and if we write the complete disjoint cycle decomposition of π including all one-element cycles, then we get k = k' + d many cycles.

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- The two definitions are equivalent because if d is the number of omitted one-element cycles in some disjoint cycle decomposition of π, then n = n' + d, and if we write the complete disjoint cycle decomposition of π including all one-element cycles, then we get k = k' + d many cycles. So, n k = n' k', and consequently, (-1)<sup>n-k</sup> = (-1)<sup>n'-k'</sup>.
• For instance, for  $\pi_3 = (123)(45)$  in  $S_7$ , we have

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- Note that the one-element cycles (6) and (7) are implicitly understood for  $\pi_3$ , that is,  $\pi_3 = (123)(45)(6)(7)$ .
- And indeed, we have

$$sgn(\pi_3) = (-1)^{7-4} = -1,$$

as before.

- **Remark:** Note that for all positive integers *n*, the identity permutation in *S<sub>n</sub>* has sign 1.
  - This is because the identity permutation in S<sub>n</sub> has disjoint cycle decomposition (1)(2)...(n), and so its sign is (-1)<sup>n-n</sup> = (-1)<sup>0</sup> = 1.

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  - This is because the identity permutation in  $S_n$  has disjoint cycle decomposition  $(1)(2) \dots (n)$ , and so its sign is  $(-1)^{n-n} = (-1)^0 = 1$ .
- **Terminology:** Permutations whose sign is +1 are called *even*, and permutations whose sign is -1 are called *odd*. Since the sign of the identity permutation is +1, the identity permutation is even.

Let  $n \geq 2$  be an integer, and let  $\pi$  be a permutation in  $S_n$ . Then  $sgn(\pi^{-1}) = sgn(\pi)$ .

Proof.

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*Proof.* This follows from the fact that  $\pi$  and  $\pi^{-1}$  have the same number of cycles in their disjoint cycle decompositions (when the one-element cycles are included).

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- Note that this transposition could also have been written in the form (1)(25)(3)(4).
  - More commonly, one-element cycles are omitted.

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  - Indeed, if  $\tau$  is a transposition in  $S_n$   $(n \ge 2)$ , then the disjoint cycle decomposition of  $\tau$  consists of one cycle of length two and n-2 many cycles of length one, and consequently, it consists of n-1 cycles total (when cycles of length one are included).

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• So, 
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• The correctness of the above can easily be verified by checking that the image of each element of  $\{1, \ldots, 7\}$  under the permutations (134)(2657) and (13)  $\circ$  (34)  $\circ$  (26)  $\circ$  (65)  $\circ$  (57) is the same.

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- Moreover, this works in general, as the following proposition shows (next slide).

Let  $n \ge 2$  be an integer. Then any permutation in  $S_n$  can be written as a composition of transpositions.

Proof.

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 $\pi = (a_1^1 a_2^1 \dots a_{\ell_1}^1) \dots (a_1^k a_2^k \dots a_{\ell_k}^k),$ 

where the  $a_i^{j}$ 's are pairwise distinct, and  $\ell_1, \ldots, \ell_k \geq 2$ .

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where the  $a_i^{j}$ 's are pairwise distinct, and  $\ell_1, \ldots, \ell_k \geq 2$ . But then

 $\pi = (a_1^1 a_2^1) \circ (a_2^1 a_3^1) \circ \cdots \circ (a_{\ell_1-1}^1 a_{\ell_1}^1) \circ \cdots \circ (a_1^k a_2^k) \circ (a_2^k a_3^k) \circ \cdots \circ (a_{\ell_{\ell}-1}^k a_{\ell_{\ell}}^k),$ 

and so  $\pi$  is the composition of transpositions.  $\Box$ 

Express each of the following permutations in  $S_6$  as the composition of transpositions.

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$$\pi_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 5 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 6 \end{pmatrix};$$

 •  $\pi_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 5 & 6 & 4 \end{pmatrix};$ 

 •  $\pi_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 3 & 6 & 5 & 2 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}.$ 

Solution.

**(a)** 
$$\pi_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 5 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 6 \end{pmatrix} = (2543) = (25) \circ (54) \circ (43);$$

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$$\pi_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 5 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 6 \end{pmatrix} = (2543) = (25) \circ (54) \circ (43);$$

 •  $\pi_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 5 & 6 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = (12)(456) = (12) \circ (45) \circ (56);$ 

Express each of the following permutations in  $S_6$  as the composition of transpositions.

Solution (continued).

$$\pi_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 3 & 6 & 5 & 2 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = (135)(264) = (13) \circ (35) \circ (26) \circ (64).$$

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•  $(12245) = (15) \circ (14) \circ (12) \circ (12);$ 

• 
$$(12345) = (15) \circ (14) \circ (13) \circ (12);$$

$$(35) \circ (35) \circ (23) \circ (23) \circ (15) \circ (14) \circ (13) \circ (12) \circ (35) \circ (35).$$

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- For instance, in  $S_5$ , we have:
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  - (12345) = $(35) \circ (35) \circ (23) \circ (23) \circ (15) \circ (14) \circ (13) \circ (12) \circ (35) \circ (35).$
- However, as we shall see, for any given permutation  $\pi$  in  $S_n$ , where  $n \ge 2$ , in all representations of  $\pi$  as a composition of transpositions, the number of transpositions is of the same parity (i.e. it is either always even or always odd).

#### Theorem 2.3.6

Let  $n \ge 2$ . Then for any permutation  $\pi \in S_n$ , if  $\pi$  can be expressed as a composition of r transpositions, then

(a) 
$$\operatorname{sgn}(\pi) = (-1)^r;$$

**(b)**  $\pi$  is an even permutation iff r is even;

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Let  $n \ge 2$  be an integer. Then for all  $\pi, \tau \in S_n$  s.t.  $\tau$  is a **transposition**, we have that  $sgn(\tau \circ \pi) = sgn(\pi \circ \tau) = -sgn(\pi)$ .

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• We first prove Theorem 2.3.6 assuming Proposition 2.3.5, and then we actually prove Proposition 2.3.5.

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Proof (assuming Proposition 2.3.5).

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*Proof (assuming Proposition 2.3.5).* Clearly, (b) and (c) follow from (a).

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Proof (assuming Proposition 2.3.5). Clearly, (b) and (c) follow from (a). Part (a) follows from Proposition 2.3.5 by an easy induction on r. Let us give the details. We prove the following statement: "for every positive integer r and permutation  $\pi \in S_n$ , if  $\pi$  is the composition of r transpositions, then  $sgn(\pi) = (-1)^r$ ."

**Base case:** r = 1. Note that if  $\pi$  is the composition of one transposition, i.e.  $\pi$  is itself a transposition, then  $\pi$  is odd, and we have that  $sgn(\pi) = -1 = (-1)^r$ .

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Now, fix a permutation  $\pi \in S_n$  in  $S_n$  s.t.  $\pi$  can be expressed as the composition of r + 1 transpositions, say  $\pi = (a_0a'_0) \circ (a_1a'_1) \circ \cdots \circ (a_ra'_r)$ .

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Then by the induction hypothesis,  $\pi' := (a_1 a'_1) \circ \cdots \circ (a_r a'_r)$  satisfies  $sgn(\pi') = (-1)^r$ .

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Let  $n \ge 2$  be an integer. Then for all  $\pi, \tau \in S_n$  s.t.  $\tau$  is a **transposition**, we have that  $sgn(\tau \circ \pi) = sgn(\pi \circ \tau) = -sgn(\pi)$ .

• Warning: In general,  $\tau \circ \pi \not\succ \pi \circ \tau$ .

Proof of Proposition 2.3.5.

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**Claim.** For all  $\pi, \tau \in S_n$  s.t.  $\tau$  is a transposition, we have that  $sgn(\tau \circ \pi) = -sgn(\pi)$ .

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Proof of the Claim.

Let  $n \ge 2$  be an integer. Then for all  $\pi, \tau \in S_n$  s.t.  $\tau$  is a **transposition**, we have that  $sgn(\tau \circ \pi) = sgn(\pi \circ \tau) = -sgn(\pi)$ .

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Proof of Proposition 2.3.5. The Claim below proves one part of the proposition (" $sgn(\tau \circ \pi) = -sgn(\pi)$ "). The other part (" $sgn(\pi \circ \tau) = -sgn(\pi)$ ") can be proven using the Claim and certain basic properties of permutations (as we shall see below).

**Claim.** For all  $\pi, \tau \in S_n$  s.t.  $\tau$  is a transposition, we have that  $sgn(\tau \circ \pi) = -sgn(\pi)$ .

Proof of the Claim. Fix  $\pi, \tau \in S_n$ , and assume that  $\tau = (ij)$  is a transposition (here, *i* and *j* are some two distinct elements of  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ ).

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Proof of the Claim. Fix  $\pi, \tau \in S_n$ , and assume that  $\tau = (ij)$  is a transposition (here, *i* and *j* are some two distinct elements of  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ ). There are two cases to consider: when *i* and *j* are in the same cycle of the disjoint cycle decomposition of  $\pi$ , and when they are in different cycles.

Proof of the Claim (continued). Reminder:  $\tau = (ij)$ .

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**Case 1:** *i* and *j* are in the same cycle of the disjoint cycle decomposition of  $\pi$ . After possibly swapping the order of our disjoint cycles, and cyclically permuting the elements of the cycle that contains *i* and *j*, we may assume that our disjoint cycle decomposition of  $\pi$  is given by

 $\pi = (i \ a_1 \dots a_p \ j \ b_1 \dots b_q)(c_1^1 \dots c_{\ell_1}^1) \dots (c_1^r \dots c_{\ell_r}^r).$ 

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In the permutation  $\tau \circ \pi$ , the red cycle essentially gets "split up" into two, while the blue cycles remain unaffected, as follows (next slide):





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We now see that the disjoint cycle decomposition of  $\tau \circ \pi$  has one cycle more than the disjoint cycle decomposition of  $\pi$ , and it follows that  $sgn(\tau \circ \pi) = -sgn(\pi)$ .

• Indeed, the disjoint cycle decomposition of  $\pi$  has r + 1 cycles, whereas the disjoint cycle decomposition of  $\tau \circ \pi$  has r + 2 cycles. Therefore,  $\operatorname{sgn}(\tau \circ \pi) = (-1)^{n-(r+2)} = (-1)^{n-(r+1)-1} = -(-1)^{n-(r+1)} = -\operatorname{sgn}(\pi)$ .

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We then have that

$$\pi = (i \ a_1 \dots a_p)(j \ b_1 \dots b_q)(c_1^1 \dots c_{\ell_1}^1) \dots (c_1^r \dots c_{\ell_r}^r)$$
  

$$\stackrel{(*)}{=} (ij) \circ (i \ a_1 \dots a_p \ j \ b_1 \dots b_q)(c_1^1 \dots c_{\ell_1}^1) \dots (c_1^r \dots c_{\ell_r}^r),$$

where (\*) follows from the argument given in Case 1.

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where (\*) follows from the argument given in Case 1. We now compose both sides with  $\tau = (ij)$  on the left, and we obtain (next slide):

 $(ij) \circ \pi = (ij) \circ (ij) \circ (i a_1 \dots a_p j b_1 \dots b_q) (c_1^1 \dots c_{\ell_1}^1) \dots (c_1^r \dots c_{\ell_r}^r).$ 

 $(ij) \circ \pi = (ij) \circ (ij) \circ (i \ a_1 \dots a_p \ j \ b_1 \dots b_q) (c_1^1 \dots c_{\ell_1}^1) \dots (c_1^r \dots c_{\ell_r}^r).$ Since  $(ij) = \tau$  and  $(ij) \circ (ij) = 1_n$ , we deduce that  $\tau \circ \pi = (i \ a_1 \dots a_p \ j \ b_1 \dots b_q) (c_1^1 \dots c_{\ell_1}^1) \dots (c_1^r \dots c_{\ell_r}^r).$   $(ij) \circ \pi = (ij) \circ (ij) \circ (i a_1 \dots a_p j b_1 \dots b_q) (c_1^1 \dots c_{\ell_1}^1) \dots (c_1^r \dots c_{\ell_r}^r).$ Since  $(ij) = \tau$  and  $(ij) \circ (ij) = 1_n$ , we deduce that

 $\tau \circ \pi = (i a_1 \dots a_p j b_1 \dots b_q)(c_1^1 \dots c_{\ell_1}^1) \dots (c_1^r \dots c_{\ell_r}^r).$ 

As we can see, in the permutation  $\tau \circ \pi$ , the two red cycles of  $\pi$  essentially get "merged" into one, while the blue cycles remain unaffected.

 $(ij) \circ \pi = (ij) \circ (ij) \circ (i \ a_1 \dots a_p \ j \ b_1 \dots b_q)(c_1^1 \dots c_{\ell_1}^1) \dots (c_1^r \dots c_{\ell_r}^r).$ Since  $(ij) = \tau$  and  $(ij) \circ (ij) = 1_n$ , we deduce that

 $\tau \circ \pi = (i a_1 \dots a_p j b_1 \dots b_q)(c_1^1 \dots c_{\ell_1}^1) \dots (c_1^r \dots c_{\ell_r}^r).$ 

As we can see, in the permutation  $\tau \circ \pi$ , the two red cycles of  $\pi$  essentially get "merged" into one, while the blue cycles remain unaffected. But now the disjoint cycle decomposition of  $\tau \circ \pi$  has one cycle less than the disjoint cycle decomposition of  $\pi$ , and it follows that sgn $(\tau \circ \pi) = -\text{sgn}(\pi)$ .

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This completes the proof of the Claim. ♦

Let  $n \ge 2$  be an integer. Then for all  $\pi, \tau \in S_n$  s.t.  $\tau$  is a **transposition**, we have that  $sgn(\tau \circ \pi) = sgn(\pi \circ \tau) = -sgn(\pi)$ .

*Proof (continued).* We have now proven the Claim below. **Claim.** For all  $\pi, \tau \in S_n$  s.t.  $\tau$  is a transposition, we have that  $sgn(\tau \circ \pi) = -sgn(\pi)$ .
# Proposition 2.3.5

Let  $n \ge 2$  be an integer. Then for all  $\pi, \tau \in S_n$  s.t.  $\tau$  is a **transposition**, we have that  $sgn(\tau \circ \pi) = sgn(\pi \circ \tau) = -sgn(\pi)$ .

*Proof (continued).* We have now proven the Claim below. **Claim.** For all  $\pi, \tau \in S_n$  s.t.  $\tau$  is a transposition, we have that  $sgn(\tau \circ \pi) = -sgn(\pi)$ .

Now, fix  $\pi, \tau \in S_n$  s.t.  $\tau$  is a transposition. By the Claim, we have that  $sgn(\tau \circ \pi) = -\pi$ . On the other hand,

$$\begin{split} \operatorname{sgn}(\pi \circ \tau) &= \operatorname{sgn}\left((\pi \circ \tau)^{-1}\right) & \text{by Proposition 2.3.2} \\ &= \operatorname{sgn}(\tau^{-1} \circ \pi^{-1}) & \text{by Proposition 1.10.17(c)} \\ &= \operatorname{sgn}(\tau \circ \pi^{-1}) & \text{or by Proposition 2.2.4(f))} \\ &= \operatorname{sgn}(\tau \circ \pi^{-1}) & \text{and so } \tau^{-1} = \tau \\ &= -\operatorname{sgn}(\pi^{-1}) & \text{for the Claim applied to} \\ &= -\operatorname{sgn}(\pi) & \text{for the proposition 2.3.2} \end{split}$$

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#### Theorem 2.3.6

Let  $n \ge 2$ . Then for any permutation  $\pi \in S_n$ , if  $\pi$  can be expressed as a composition of r transpositions, then

(a) 
$$\operatorname{sgn}(\pi) = (-1)^r$$
;

- )  $\pi$  is an even permutation iff r is even;

Let  $n \geq 2$  be an integer, and let  $\sigma, \pi \in S_n$ . Then  $sgn(\sigma \circ \pi) = sgn(\sigma)sgn(\pi)$ .

Proof.

Let  $n \ge 2$  be an integer, and let  $\sigma, \pi \in S_n$ . Then  $sgn(\sigma \circ \pi) = sgn(\sigma)sgn(\pi)$ .

*Proof.* This easily follows from Proposition 2.3.3 and Theorem 2.3.6.

Let  $n \ge 2$  be an integer, and let  $\sigma, \pi \in S_n$ . Then  $sgn(\sigma \circ \pi) = sgn(\sigma)sgn(\pi)$ .

*Proof.* This easily follows from Proposition 2.3.3 and Theorem 2.3.6. Let us give the details.

Let  $n \ge 2$  be an integer, and let  $\sigma, \pi \in S_n$ . Then  $sgn(\sigma \circ \pi) = sgn(\sigma)sgn(\pi)$ .

*Proof.* This easily follows from Proposition 2.3.3 and Theorem 2.3.6. Let us give the details. By Proposition 2.3.3, we can express  $\sigma$  and  $\pi$  as compositions of transpositions, say

- $\sigma = (s_1 s'_1) \circ (s_2 s'_2) \circ \cdots \circ (s_k s'_k);$
- $\pi = (t_1t_1') \circ (t_2t_2') \circ \cdots \circ (t_\ell t_\ell').$

By Theorem 2.3.6(a), we have that  $sgn(\sigma) = (-1)^k$  and  $sgn(\pi) = (-1)^\ell$ .

Let  $n \ge 2$  be an integer, and let  $\sigma, \pi \in S_n$ . Then  $sgn(\sigma \circ \pi) = sgn(\sigma)sgn(\pi)$ .

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By Theorem 2.3.6(a), we have that  $\text{sgn}(\sigma) = (-1)^k$  and  $\text{sgn}(\pi) = (-1)^\ell$ .

On the other hand,

 $\sigma \circ \pi = (s_1 s'_1) \circ (s_2 s'_2) \circ \cdots \circ (s_k s'_k) \circ (t_1 t'_1) \circ (t_2 t'_2) \circ \cdots \circ (t_\ell t'_\ell),$ and so again by Theorem 2.3.6(a), we have that  $\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma \circ \pi) = (-1)^{k+\ell}.$ 

Let  $n \ge 2$  be an integer, and let  $\sigma, \pi \in S_n$ . Then  $sgn(\sigma \circ \pi) = sgn(\sigma)sgn(\pi)$ .

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So, 
$$\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma \circ \pi) = (-1)^{k+\ell} = (-1)^k (-1)^\ell = \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) \operatorname{sgn}(\pi)$$
.  $\Box$ 

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- For an integer n ≥ 2, let A<sub>n</sub> be the set of all even permutations in S<sub>n</sub>.
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- We apply Theorem 2.2.9.

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- It is closed under  $\circ$ , that is,  $\forall a, b \in H$ :  $a \circ b \in H$ ;
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  - Finally, by Proposition 2.3.2, the sign of a permutation in  $S_n$  is equal to the sign of its inverse, and in particular, the inverse of an even permutation is even; so,  $A_n$  is closed under inverses.

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  - Finally, by Proposition 2.3.2, the sign of a permutation in  $S_n$  is equal to the sign of its inverse, and in particular, the inverse of an even permutation is even; so,  $A_n$  is closed under inverses.
  - Theorem 2.2.9 now guarantees that  $A_n$  is indeed a subgroup of  $S_n$ .

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- We remark that the set of odd permutations in  $S_n$   $(n \ge 2)$ , call it  $O_n$ , does **not** form a subgroup of  $S_n$ .
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- **Remark:**  $O_n$  is **not** standard notation for the set of odd permutations in  $S_n$ ; in fact, no standard notation exists for this set.
- However,  $A_n$  is indeed the standard notation for the set of even permutations in  $S_n$ .

# Definition

Let *n* be a positive integer. An *inversion* of a permutation  $\pi \in S_n$  is an ordered pair (i, j) of numbers in  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$  s.t. i < j and  $\pi(i) > \pi(j)$ .

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#### Example 2.3.8

The permutation

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

in  $S_7$  has the following four inversions: (1,2), (4,5), (4,6), (5,6).

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#### Theorem 2.3.9

Let *n* be a positive integer. Then all permutations  $\pi \in S_n$  satisfy  $sgn(\pi) = (-1)^r$ , where *r* is the number of inversions of  $\pi$ .

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*Proof.* We proceed by induction on the number r of inversions.

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**Base case:** r = 0.

Let *n* be a positive integer. Then all permutations  $\pi \in S_n$  satisfy  $sgn(\pi) = (-1)^r$ , where *r* is the number of inversions of  $\pi$ .

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*Proof.* We proceed by induction on the number r of inversions.

**Base case:** r = 0. The only permutation with no inversions is the identity permutation, and its sign is 1. Since  $(-1)^0 = 1$ , this is what we needed.

**Induction step:** Fix a non-negative integer r, and assume inductively that any permutation in  $S_n$  that has exactly r inversions has sign  $(-1)^r$ . WTS any permutation in  $S_n$  that has exactly r + 1 inversions has sign  $(-1)^{r+1}$ .

Let *n* be a positive integer. Then all permutations  $\pi \in S_n$  satisfy  $sgn(\pi) = (-1)^r$ , where *r* is the number of inversions of  $\pi$ .

*Proof (continued).* Fix a permutation  $\pi \in S_n$ , and assume that it has exactly r + 1 inversions.

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In particular,  $\pi$  has at least one inversion, and it follows that there exists some  $p \in \{1, ..., n-1\}$  s.t. (p, p+1) is an inversion of  $\pi$ .

• Otherwise, we would have that  $\pi(1) < \pi(2) < \cdots < \pi(n)$ , and then  $\pi$  would be the identity permutation, contrary to the fact that it has at least one inversion.

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Now, consider the transposition  $\tau := (\pi(p)\pi(p+1))$  in  $S_n$ , and set  $\pi' := \tau \circ \pi$ , so that

$$\pi' = \left(\begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & \ldots & p-1 & p & p+1 & p+2 & \ldots & n \\ \pi(1) & \ldots & \pi(p-1) & \pi(p+1) & \pi(p) & \pi(p+2) & \ldots & \pi(n) \end{array}\right)$$

*Proof (continued).* Reminder:

$$\pi' = \left(\begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & \ldots & p-1 & p & p+1 & p+2 & \ldots & n \\ \pi(1) & \ldots & \pi(p-1) & \pi(p+1) & \pi(p) & \pi(p+2) & \ldots & \pi(n) \end{array}\right).$$

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Then  $\pi'$  has exactly *r* inversions, i.e. exactly one inversion less than  $\pi$  has.
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Then  $\pi'$  has exactly *r* inversions, i.e. exactly one inversion less than  $\pi$  has. To see this, we note the following:

• inversions (*i*, *j*) of  $\pi$  s.t.  $i, j \notin \{p, p+1\}$  are still inversions of  $\pi'$ ;

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- inversions of the form (p, j) of π, where p + 1 < j, correspond to inversions (p + 1, j) of π';
- inversions of the form (p+1,j) of  $\pi$  correspond to inversions (p,j) of  $\pi'$ ;
- $\pi'$  has no other inversions, and in particular (p, p + 1) is **not** an inversion of  $\pi'$ .

#### Theorem 2.3.9

Let *n* be a positive integer. Then all permutations  $\pi \in S_n$  satisfy  $sgn(\pi) = (-1)^r$ , where *r* is the number of inversions of  $\pi$ .

*Proof (continued).* Reminder:  $\pi' = \tau \circ \pi$  and  $\pi'$  has exactly *r* inversions (i.e. exactly one inversion less than  $\pi$ ).

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But now

 $(-1)^r = \operatorname{sgn}(\pi')$  by the induction hypothesis, since  $\pi'$  has exactly r inversions

= sgn $(\tau \circ \pi)$  because  $\pi' = \tau \circ \pi$ 

 $= -\text{sgn}(\pi) \qquad \qquad \begin{array}{l} \text{by Proposition 2.3.5,} \\ \text{since } \tau \text{ is a transposition,} \end{array}$ 

and it follows that  $sgn(\pi) = (-1)^{r+1}$ . This completes the induction.  $\Box$ 

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• Note that  $\pi''$  has only one inversion (namely, (1,2)), whereas  $\pi$  has four.

## Definition

A *field* is an ordered triple  $(\mathbb{F}, +, \cdot)$ , where  $\mathbb{F}$  is a set, and + and  $\cdot$  are binary operations on  $\mathbb{F}$  (i.e. functions from  $\mathbb{F} \times \mathbb{F}$  to  $\mathbb{F}$ ), called *addition* and *multiplication*, respectively, satisfying the following axioms:

- addition and multiplication are associative, that is, for all  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{F}$ , we have that a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c and  $a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$ ;
- addition and multiplication are commutative, that is, for all a, b ∈ F, we have that a + b = b + a and a ⋅ b = b ⋅ a;
- So there exist distinct elements 0<sub>F</sub>, 1<sub>F</sub> ∈ F s.t. for all a ∈ F, a + 0<sub>F</sub> = a and a ⋅ 1<sub>F</sub> = a; 0<sub>F</sub> is called the *additive identity* of F, and 1<sub>F</sub> is called the *multiplicative identity* of F;
- G for every a ∈ F, there exists an element in F, denoted by -a and called the additive inverse of a, s.t. a + (-a) = 0<sub>F</sub>;
- S for all a ∈ 𝔽 \ {0<sub>𝔅</sub>}, there exists an element in 𝔅, denoted by a<sup>-1</sup> and called the *multiplicative inverse* of a, s.t. a ⋅ a<sup>-1</sup> = 1<sub>𝔅</sub>;
- multiplication is distributive over addition, that is, for all  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{F}$ , we have that  $a \cdot (b + c) = (a \cdot b) + (a \cdot c)$ .

$$(\mathbb{Q},+,\cdot); \qquad (\mathbb{R},+,\cdot);$$

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    - For  $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$ , we typically write ab instead of  $a \cdot b$ , and we typically write a b instead of a + (-b).

# All the following are fields:

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# Notation:

- If operations + and  $\cdot$  are understood from context, then we typically just say "field  $\mathbb{F}$ " instead of "field  $(\mathbb{F},+,\cdot)$ ."
- For  $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$ , we typically write ab instead of  $a \cdot b$ , and we typically write a b instead of a + (-b).
- As usual, unless parentheses indicate otherwise, we perform multiplication before performing addition. So, for  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{F}$ , we write ab + c instead of  $(a \cdot b) + c$ , and similarly, we write a + bc instead of  $a + (b \cdot c)$ .

- **Remark:** Axioms 1, 2, and 3 imply that  $(\mathbb{F}, +)$  and  $(\mathbb{F}, \cdot)$  are monoids with identity elements  $0_{\mathbb{F}}$  and  $1_{\mathbb{F}}$ , respectively. Proposition 2.1.1 guarantees that  $0_{\mathbb{F}}$  and  $1_{\mathbb{F}}$  are unique.
  - When there is no danger of confusion, we write 0 and 1 instead of  $0_{\mathbb F}$  and  $1_{\mathbb F},$  respectively.

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#### Proposition 2.4.2

Let  $(\mathbb{F}, +, \cdot)$  be a field. Then all the following hold:

(a) for all 
$$a \in \mathbb{F}$$
,  $0a = a0 = 0$ ;

$$\textcircled{0}$$
 for all  $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$ , if  $ab = 0$ , then  $a = 0$  or  $b = 0$ ;

$$\bigcirc$$
 for all  $a \in \mathbb{F}$ ,  $(-1)a = -a.^a$ 

<sup>a</sup>This statement may require some clarification. Here, -a is the additive inverse of a. On the other hand, (-1)a is the product of -1 (the additive inverse of the multiplicative identity) and a. So, -a is not simply a shorthand for (-1)a. The two quantities are indeed equal, but this requires proof!

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- First, some remarks (next slide).

• Axioms 1, 2, 3, and 4 imply that  $(\mathbb{F}, +)$  is an abelian group with identity element  $0_{\mathbb{F}}$ . By Proposition 2.2.1, this implies that each element  $a \in \mathbb{F}$  has a **unique** additive inverse -a.

- Axioms 1, 2, 3, and 4 imply that (F, +) is an abelian group with identity element 0<sub>F</sub>. By Proposition 2.2.1, this implies that each element a ∈ F has a **unique** additive inverse -a.
- ② By Proposition 2.4.2, for any  $a, b \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0_{\mathbb{F}}\}$ , we have  $ab \neq 0_{\mathbb{F}}$ , i.e.  $ab \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0_{\mathbb{F}}\}$ .

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  - So,  $(\mathbb{F} \setminus \{0_{\mathbb{F}}\}, \cdot)$  is an abelian group with identity element  $1_{\mathbb{F}}$ .
  - By Proposition 2.2.1, it follows that every element
    - $a \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0_{\mathbb{F}}\}$  has a **unique** multiplicative inverse  $a^{-1}$ .

### • Remarks:

- Axioms 1, 2, 3, and 4 imply that (𝔽, +) is an abelian group with identity element 0<sub>𝔽</sub>. By Proposition 2.2.1, this implies that each element a ∈ 𝔽 has a **unique** additive inverse -a.
- ② By Proposition 2.4.2, for any  $a, b \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0_{\mathbb{F}}\}$ , we have  $ab \neq 0_{\mathbb{F}}$ , i.e.  $ab \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0_{\mathbb{F}}\}$ .
  - This, together with axioms 1 and 3, implies that  $(\mathbb{F} \setminus \{0_{\mathbb{F}}\}, \cdot)$  is a monoid with identity element  $1_{\mathbb{F}}$ .
  - Next, by Proposition 2.4.2, and by axioms 2 (commutativity of addition) and 3 ( $0_{\mathbb{F}} \neq 1_{\mathbb{F}}$ ), we have that we have that  $a0_{\mathbb{F}} = 0_{\mathbb{F}}a = 0_{\mathbb{F}} \neq 1_{\mathbb{F}}$ .
  - This, together with axiom 5 implies that the multiplicative inverse of any element a ∈ 𝔅 \ {0𝔅} also belongs to 𝔅 \ {0𝔅}.
  - So,  $(\mathbb{F} \setminus \{0_{\mathbb{F}}\}, \cdot)$  is an abelian group with identity element  $1_{\mathbb{F}}$ .
  - By Proposition 2.2.1, it follows that every element  $a \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0_{\mathbb{F}}\}$  has a **unique** multiplicative inverse  $a^{-1}$ .
- By axioms 2 and 6, for all a, b, c ∈ F, we have that (b+c) ⋅ a = (b ⋅ a) + (c ⋅ a), or written in a simplified manner, (b+c)a = ba + ca.

• Indeed, for 
$$a, b, c \in \mathbb{F}$$
, we have that  
 $(b+c)a \stackrel{\text{ax. 2.}}{=} a(b+c) \stackrel{\text{ax. 6.}}{=} ab + ac \stackrel{\text{ax. 2.}}{=} ba + ca$ 

Let  $(\mathbb{F}, +, \cdot)$  be a field. Then all the following hold:

• for all 
$$a \in \mathbb{F}$$
,  $0a = a0 = 0$ ;

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 for all  $a,b\in {\Bbb F}$ , if  $ab=0$ , then  $a=0$  or  $b=0;$ 

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$$a0 \stackrel{(*)}{=} a(0+0) \stackrel{(**)}{=} a0+a0,$$

where (\*) follows from the fact that 0 + 0 = 0 (because 0 is the additive identity of the field), and (\*\*) follows from axiom 6 of the definition of a field.

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where (\*) follows from the fact that 0 + 0 = 0 (because 0 is the additive identity of the field), and (\*\*) follows from axiom 6 of the definition of a field. We have now established that a0 = a0 + a0, and it follows that (next slide):

*Proof (continued).* Reminder: a0 = a0 + a0.

$$0 = -(a0) + a0$$

= -(a0) + (a0 + a0)

= (-(a0) + a0) + a0

= 0 + a0

= a0

because -(a0) is the additive inverse of a0

because a0 = a0 + a0 (proven above)

because + is associative

because -(a0) is the additive inverse of a0

because 0 is the additive identity of the field  $\mathbb{F}$ .

Thus, a0 = 0. This proves (a).

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$$a = a \cdot 1 = a(bb^{-1}) \stackrel{(*)}{=} (ab)b^{-1} \stackrel{(**)}{=} 0b^{-1} \stackrel{(***)}{=} 0,$$

where (\*) follows from the associativity of multiplication, (\*\*) follows from the fact that ab = 0, and (\*\*\*) follows from (a).

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*Proof (continued).* It remains to prove (c). Fix  $a \in \mathbb{F}$ . WTS (-1)a = -a. First, we have that

$$0 \stackrel{(*)}{=} 0a = (1-1)a = 1a + (-1)a = a + (-1)a,$$
  
where (\*) follows from (a). Consequently,

$$-a = -a + 0$$
 because 0 is the additive identity of the field  $\mathbb{F}$ 

= -a + (a + (-1)a)

= (-a+a) + (-1)a

= 0 + (-1)a

= (-1)a

because 
$$0 = a + (-1)a$$
 (proven above)

because + is associative

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This proves (c).  $\Box$ 

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*Proof.* By Proposition 0.2.11, addition and multiplication are associative and commutative in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ , and multiplication is distributive over addition in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ .

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Further,  $0 := [0]_p$  is the additive identity and  $1 := [1]_p$  is the multiplicative identity of  $(\mathbb{Z}_p, +, \cdot)$ .

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Further, for all  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ , the additive inverse of  $[a]_p$  in  $(\mathbb{Z}_p, +, \cdot)$  is  $[-a]_p$ , and so axiom 4 is satisfied.

If  $p \in \mathbb{N}$  is a prime number and  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p \setminus \{0\}$ , then  $a^{p-1} = 1$ .

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*Proof (continued).* Finally, by Fermat's Little Theorem, every number  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p \setminus \{0\}$  has a multiplicative inverse, namely,  $a^{p-2}$ , and it follows that axiom 5 is satisfied.

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This proves that  $(\mathbb{Z}_p, +, \cdot)$  is indeed a field, which is what we needed to show.  $\Box$ 

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- **Remark:** For a positive integer *n* that is **not** prime,  $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +, \cdot)$  is not a field.
  - If n = 1, then this follows from the fact that Z<sub>n</sub> = Z<sub>1</sub> has only one element, whereas every field has at least two elements (namely, the additive and multiplicative identities, which cannot be equal by axiom 3 of the definition of a field).
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  - Now, let us suppose that n ≥ 2 is composite, say n = pq where p, q ≥ 2 are integers. Then [p]<sub>n</sub>[q]<sub>n</sub> = [pq]<sub>n</sub> = [n]<sub>n</sub> = 0. So, if (Z<sub>n</sub>, +, ·) were a field, Proposition 2.4.2(b) would imply that at least one of [p]<sub>n</sub> and [q]<sub>n</sub> is 0, a contradiction.

Let  $n \ge 2$  be an integer. Then there exists a field of size n iff n is a power of a prime.<sup>a</sup> Moreover, if n is a power of a prime, then up to "isomorphism" (i.e. up to renaming the operations and elements of the field), there is exactly one field of size n, and it is denoted by  $\mathbb{F}_{n}$ .<sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup>"*n* is a power of a prime" means that there exists some prime number *p* and a positive integer *m* s.t.  $n = p^m$ .

<sup>b</sup>Technically, the field is  $(\mathbb{F}_n, +, \cdot)$ , but we typically write just  $\mathbb{F}_n$ .

Proof. Omitted.

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### Proof. Omitted.

- **Remark:** For a prime number p, we have that  $\mathbb{F}_p = \mathbb{Z}_p$ .
  - However, if n = p<sup>m</sup>, where p is a prime number and m ≥ 2 is an integer, then F<sub>n</sub> ≠ Z<sub>n</sub> (this is because F<sub>n</sub> is a field, but Z<sub>n</sub> is **not** a field).

• Let  $\mathbb{F}$  be a field. For  $a \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0\}$ , we sometimes use the notation  $\frac{1}{a}$  instead of  $a^{-1}$  (the multiplicative inverse of a in the field  $\mathbb{F}$ ).

- Let F be a field. For a ∈ F \ {0}, we sometimes use the notation <sup>1</sup>/<sub>a</sub> instead of a<sup>-1</sup> (the multiplicative inverse of a in the field F).
  - For instance, in  $\mathbb{Z}_3$ , we have  $\frac{1}{1} = 1^{-1} = 1$  and  $\frac{1}{2} = 2^{-1} = 2$  (because in  $\mathbb{Z}_3$ , we have that  $2 \cdot 2 = 1$ ).

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  - For example, in  $\mathbb{Z}_5$ , we have that  $3^{-1} = 2$  (because  $3 \cdot 2 = 1$ ), and so  $\frac{4}{3} = 3^{-1} \cdot 4 = 2 \cdot 4 = 3$ .

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- In a similar vein, for scalars  $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$  s.t.  $b \neq 0$ , we sometimes write  $\frac{a}{b}$  instead of  $b^{-1}a$ .
  - For example, in  $\mathbb{Z}_5$ , we have that  $3^{-1} = 2$  (because  $3 \cdot 2 = 1$ ), and so  $\frac{4}{3} = 3^{-1} \cdot 4 = 2 \cdot 4 = 3$ .
- It is sometimes more convenient to use the notation  $\frac{1}{a}$  instead of  $a^{-1}$ , and  $\frac{a}{b}$  instead of  $b^{-1}a$ .

- Let F be a field. For a ∈ F \ {0}, we sometimes use the notation <sup>1</sup>/<sub>a</sub> instead of a<sup>-1</sup> (the multiplicative inverse of a in the field F).
  - For instance, in  $\mathbb{Z}_3$ , we have  $\frac{1}{1} = 1^{-1} = 1$  and  $\frac{1}{2} = 2^{-1} = 2$  (because in  $\mathbb{Z}_3$ , we have that  $2 \cdot 2 = 1$ ).
- In a similar vein, for scalars  $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$  s.t.  $b \neq 0$ , we sometimes write  $\frac{a}{b}$  instead of  $b^{-1}a$ .
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- It is sometimes more convenient to use the notation  $\frac{1}{a}$  instead of  $a^{-1}$ , and  $\frac{a}{b}$  instead of  $b^{-1}a$ .
- However, when working over a finite field such as Z<sub>p</sub> (for a prime number p), we **never** leave a fraction as a final answer, and instead, we always simplify.

The *characteristic* of a field  $\mathbb{F}$  is the smallest positive integer *n* (if it exists) s.t. in the field  $\mathbb{F}$ , we have that

$$\underbrace{1+\cdots+1}_{n} = 0,$$

where the 1's and the 0 are understood to be in the field  $\mathbb{F}$ . If no such *n* exists, then char( $\mathbb{F}$ ) := 0.

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#### Theorem 2.4.5

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