

Exam, 2022-2023 Questions and Solutions

Note that many of the answers are far more detailed than required for full credit.

1. Group theory: intrinsically-defined subgroups

Here we construct two important intrinsically-defined subgroups in any group.

- A. For a group G , its commutator $D(G)$ is defined by the set of all elements $[x, y] = x^{-1}y^{-1}xy$, along with all elements generated by products of such elements. Show that the commutator is a subgroup.

Identity: $D(G)$ contains the identity, since $[x, x] = x^{-1}x^{-1}xx = e$ for any $x \in G$.

Inverse: $[x, y]^{-1} = (x^{-1}y^{-1}xy)^{-1} = y^{-1}x^{-1}yx = [y, x]^{-1}$, so any of the generators $[x, y]$ of $D(G)$ also have their inverses in $D(G)$.

Associativity: Since $D(G)$ is a (perhaps proper) subset of G , this is inherited from associativity of G .

- B. Show that the commutator is a normal subgroup.

We need to show that if $a \in D(G)$ and $g \in G$, then $g^{-1}ag \in D(G)$. It suffices to show that this holds for a typical generator $a = [x, y]$, since if $b = a_1 \dots a_k$, a product of such generators, then

$$g^{-1}bg = g^{-1}a_1a_2 \dots a_kg = (g^{-1}a_1g)(g^{-1}a_2g) \dots (g^{-1}a_kg).$$

$$\begin{aligned} g^{-1}ag &= g^{-1}[x, y]g = g^{-1}(x^{-1}y^{-1}xy)g = g^{-1}x^{-1}gg^{-1}y^{-1}gg^{-1}xgg^{-1}yg \\ &= (g^{-1}x^{-1}g)(g^{-1}y^{-1}g)(g^{-1}xg)(g^{-1}yg) \\ \text{For } a = [x, y], & \quad \quad \quad , \text{ showing that} \\ &= (g^{-1}xg)^{-1}(g^{-1}yg)^{-1}(g^{-1}xg)(g^{-1}yg) \\ &= [g^{-1}xg, g^{-1}yg] \end{aligned}$$

$$g^{-1}ag \in D(G).$$

- C. The center of a group $Z(G)$ is defined as the subset of all elements that commute with all elements of G . Show that the center is a subgroup.

Identity: $Z(G)$ contains the identity, since the identity commutes with all $g \in G$.

Inverse: If x commutes with all $g \in G$, then so does x^{-1} , since $gx = xg \Leftrightarrow x = g^{-1}xg \Leftrightarrow xg^{-1} = g^{-1}x$. (First step is left multiplication by g^{-1} , second step is right multiplication by g^{-1})

- D. Show that the center is a normal subgroup.

We need to show that if $a \in Z(G)$ and $g \in G$, then $g^{-1}ag \in Z(G)$. So say that a commutes with all $x \in G$. Then it also commutes with any $g^{-1}xg$. That is, for any $x \in G$, $a(g^{-1}xg) = (g^{-1}xg)a$. But

$$\begin{aligned} ag^{-1}xg &= g^{-1}xga \Leftrightarrow \\ ag^{-1}x &= g^{-1}xgag^{-1} \Leftrightarrow \\ gag^{-1}x &= xgag^{-1} \Leftrightarrow \quad \cdot \text{ (First step: right multiplication by } g^{-1}, \text{ second step: left multiplication by } g) \\ (gag^{-1})x &= x(gag^{-1}) \end{aligned}$$

The final step shows that $g^{-1}ag$ commutes with any $x \in G$, and hence, is in the center.

- E. For $SO(n)$, the group of rotations in an n -dimensional Euclidean space, what is the commutator subgroup? Demonstrate by displaying a generator of the commutator group by computing $[x, y]$ for

group elements x and y that are close to the identity, but do not commute. An approximate argument suffices.

$n = 2$: Since $SO(2)$ is commutative, the commutator subgroup contains only the identity.

$n \geq 3$: Choose three orthogonal axes. Let $x(\delta)$ and $y(\delta)$ correspond to small rotations in planes that share one axis, and have the other axis orthogonal. For example,

$$x(\delta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \delta & \sin \delta & 0 \\ -\sin \delta & \cos \delta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = I + M_{12}\delta + \frac{1}{2}M_{12}^2\delta^2 + O(\delta^3), \text{ where } M_{12} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ and}$$

$$y(\delta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \delta & 0 & \sin \delta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\sin \delta & 0 & \cos \delta \end{pmatrix} = I + M_{13}\delta + \frac{1}{2}M_{13}^2\delta^2 + O(\delta^2), \text{ where } M_{13} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \text{ (This is justified,}$$

for example, by Taylor expansion). Below we also use M_{jk} in to denote a matrix with $+1$ in row j , column k and -1 in row k , column j .

Now calculate $[x(\delta), y(\delta)]$, noting that $(x(\delta))^{-1} = x(-\delta)$ and $(y(\delta))^{-1} = y(-\delta)$.

$$\begin{aligned} [x(\delta), y(\delta)] &= (x(\delta))^{-1} (y(\delta))^{-1} x(\delta) y(\delta) \\ &= \left(I - M_{12}\delta + \frac{1}{2}M_{12}^2\delta^2 \right) \left(I - M_{13}\delta + \frac{1}{2}M_{13}^2\delta^2 \right) \left(I + M_{12}\delta + \frac{1}{2}M_{12}^2\delta^2 \right) \left(I + M_{13}\delta + \frac{1}{2}M_{13}^2\delta^2 \right) + O(\delta^3) \\ &= I + (-M_{12} - M_{13} + M_{12} + M_{13})\delta + \\ &\quad \left(\left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} - 1 \right) M_{12}^2 + \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} - 1 \right) M_{13}^2 + (1 - 1 + 1) M_{12}M_{13} + (-1) M_{13}M_{12} \right) \delta^2 + O(\delta^3) \\ &= I + (M_{12}M_{13} - M_{13}M_{12})\delta^2 + O(\delta^3) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} M_{12}M_{13} - M_{13}M_{12} &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = M_{32}. \end{aligned}$$

$$[x(\delta), y(\delta)] = \delta z(\delta) + O(\delta^3), \text{ where } z(\delta) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \delta & -\sin \delta \\ 0 & \sin \delta & \cos \delta \end{pmatrix} = I + M_{32}\delta + \frac{1}{2}M_{32}^2\delta^2 + O(\delta^2). \text{ That is,}$$

$[x(\delta), y(\delta)]$ is a rotation of size δ^2 around the axis shared by $x(\delta)$ and $y(\delta)$.

Since this shared axis can be any axis, elements of the form $[x(\delta), y(\delta)]$ can be small rotations about any axis, and therefore, generate all of $SO(n)$.

F. For $SO(n)$, use the analysis in E to determine the center.

$n = 2$: $SO(2)$ is the group of rotations about an axis. This is commutative, so the center is the entire group. For $n \geq 3$, any element can be considered a product of rotations in pairs of orthogonal planes. So a small group element $g(\delta)$ can be considered to be a product of small rotations in such pairs of planes,

$$g(\delta) = \left(I + a_{12}M_{12}\delta + \frac{1}{2}a_{12}^2M_{12}^2\delta^2 \right) \left(I + a_{34}M_{34}\delta + \frac{1}{2}a_{34}^2M_{34}^2\delta^2 \right) \left(I + a_{56}M_{56}\delta + \frac{1}{2}a_{56}^2M_{56}^2\delta^2 \right) \dots + O(\delta^3)$$

e.g., $= I + (a_{12}M_{12} + a_{34}M_{34} + a_{56}M_{56} \dots)\delta +$

$$\left(\frac{1}{2}a_{12}^2M_{12}^2 + \frac{1}{2}a_{34}^2M_{34}^2 + \frac{1}{2}a_{56}^2M_{56}^2 + \dots + a_{12}a_{34}M_{12}M_{34} + a_{12}a_{56}M_{12}M_{56} + \dots \right)\delta^2 + O(\delta^3)$$

Compute $[g(\delta), y(\delta)]$ up to $O(\delta^2)$, At $O(\delta)$, all terms cancel. At $O(\delta^2)$, the terms like $M_{st}M_{uv}$ (all subscripts distinct) cancel. The only terms that do not drop out are those that refer to planes in the expansion of $g(\delta)$ that intersect the plane in which $y(\delta)$ rotates.

So

$$[g(\delta), y(\delta)] = I + a_{12}(M_{12}M_{13} - M_{13}M_{12})\delta^2 + a_{34}(M_{34}M_{13} - M_{13}M_{34})\delta^2 + O(\delta^3)$$

$$= I + a_{12}M_{32}\delta^2 + a_{34}M_{41}\delta^2 + O(\delta^3)$$

For g to be in the center, it has to commute with any y , so this would have to be the identity. For y in the (1,3) plane, this can only happen a_{12} and a_{34} are zero. But y could be chosen to interact with any of the planes in which g acts as a pure rotation – so all of the coefficients a_{uv} must be zero, and g must be the identity.

2. Fourier analysis as a unitary transformation

In its standard form, Fourier transformation is almost a unitary transformation – dot-product of two functions differs from that of their Fourier transforms by a factor of 2π (Parseval's Theorem). We can make it unitary by a slightly nonstandard formulation, which presents a nearly symmetric relationship between complex-valued functions on the line and their Fourier transforms:

$$\hat{f}(x) = (Sf)(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-ixu} f(u) du \quad (1)$$

and

$$f(x) = (S^{-1}\hat{f})(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{ixu} \hat{f}(u) du. \quad (2)$$

In this formulation, Fourier transformation is truly unitary: $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(x) \overline{\hat{g}(x)} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \overline{g(x)} dx$. Here we write

Fourier transformation as an operator (i.e., $\hat{f}(x) = (Sf)(x)$), to emphasize this viewpoint.

A. What is $(S^2 f)(x)$? What is $(S^4 f)(x)$? (Hint: Consider Sg for $g(x) = f(-x)$.)

$$(Sg)(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-ixu} f(-u) du = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{ixu} f(u) du = (S^{-1}f)(x),$$

(first equality is eq 1 above, then change variables, then equation 2 above)

So, if $Sg = S^{-1}f$, then $S^2g = f$, i.e., $(S^2g)(x) = f(x) = g(-x)$.

And $(S^4g)(x) = (S^2(S^2g))(x) = (S^2g)(-x) = g(x)$

B. What are the possible eigenvalues of S ?

If h is an eigenfunction of S with eigenvalue λ , then in general $S^n h = \lambda^n h$. Since, for any h , $S^4 h = h$ (part A), then $\lambda^4 = 1$. So, the possible values of λ are $\{1, -1, i, -i\}$.

C. Find an eigenvector for the eigenvalue of largest real part. (Hint: consider Gaussians.)

For eigenvalue $\lambda = 1$, we need a function that is preserved under Fourier transformation. Consider a

Gaussian of variance V : $g(x; V) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi V}} \exp(-x^2 / 2V)$ (which is properly normalized). Then

(completing the square)

$$\begin{aligned} (Sg)(x; V) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi V}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left(-\frac{u^2}{2V}\right) \exp(-ixu) du \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi V}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 V}{2}\right) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left(-\frac{u^2}{2V}\right) \exp(-ixu) \exp\left(\frac{x^2 V}{2}\right) du \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi V}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 V}{2}\right) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{u}{\sqrt{V}} + ix\sqrt{V}\right)^2\right) du \end{aligned}$$

Change of variables, $t = u + ixV$:

$$\begin{aligned} (Sg)(x; V) &= \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi V}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 V}{2}\right) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2V}\right) dt \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 V}{2}\right) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi V}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2V}\right) dt \end{aligned}$$

Recognizing that the last two terms are a properly-normalized Gaussian of variance V :

$$(Sg)(x; V) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 V}{2}\right).$$

So, for $h_1(x) = g(x; V)$ for $V = 1$ (i.e., a unit-variance Gaussian), $Sh_1 = h_1$.

D. Find an eigenvector for the eigenvalue whose real part is zero. (Hint: Consider $S(f')$.)

We need an eigenfunction for $\lambda = i$ or $\lambda = -i$. Generically, from eq. (1), integrating by parts:

$$(Sf')(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-ixu} \frac{d}{du} f(u) du = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} f(x) e^{-ixu} \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (-ix) e^{-ixu} f(u) du.$$

Considering functions f that approach zero in an integrable fashion for arguments $\rightarrow \pm\infty$, this is

$$(Sf')(x) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (-ix) e^{-ixu} f(u) du = -ix(Sf)(x).$$

Now take $f = h_1(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2}$ from part C. So $Sf = f$. And,

$(Sf')(x) = -ix(Sf)(x) = -ixf(x)$, but also $f'(x) = -\frac{x}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-x^2/2} = -xf(x)$. So $Sf' = if'$, and

$f'(x) = -\frac{x}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-x^2/2}$ has eigenvalue i .

E. Find an eigenvector for the eigenvalue of smallest real part. (Hint: Consider $S(f'')$.)

We need an eigenfunction for $\lambda = -1$. Applying the first result of D twice:

$$(Sf'')(x) = -ix(Sf')(x) = -x^2(Sf)(x).$$

Again take $f = h_1(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-x^2/2}$ from part C, so $Sf = f$. $f''(x) = \frac{d}{dx}\left(-\frac{x}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-x^2/2}\right) = (x^2 - 1)f(x)$.

So $-f(x) - f''(x) = -x^2f(x) = -x^2(Sf)(x) = (Sf'')(x)$. So S preserves the two-dimensional subspace spanned by $f(x)$ and $f''(x)$:

$$\begin{cases} Sf = f \\ Sf'' = -f - f'' \end{cases}, \text{ and acts like the transformation } \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ which has an eigenvalue of } -1.$$

To find it: we seek some $k = f'' + \alpha f$ for which $Sk = -k$. $Sk = Sf'' + \alpha Sf = -f - f'' + \alpha f$, so we need $-f - f'' + \alpha f = -(\alpha f + f'')$, i.e., $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$.

Finally, $k = f'' + \alpha f = f'' + \frac{1}{2}f = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\left(x^2 - \frac{1}{2}\right)e^{-x^2/2}$ has eigenvalue -1