## Math 417 Problem Set 3

Starred (\*) problems are due Friday, September 14.

(\*) 15. (Gallian, p.58, #51) Show that, if we had 'weakened' the definition of a group G to (1) there is an  $e \in G$  with ge = g for every  $g \in G$ , (2) inverses exist, and (3) the group operation is associative, then we can <u>prove</u> that eg = g for every  $g \in G$  (i.e, the other half of the definition of an identity automatically holds).

We want to show that, for any  $g \in G$ , we have eg = g. But by property (2), we know that  $g^{-1}$  exists, so we know that  $gg^{-1} = g^{-1}g = e$ . So then  $eg = (gg^{-1})g = g(g^{-1}g) = ge = g$ , where we used associativity (3) for the second equality and our modified property (1) for the fourth equality.

So we have shown that if (1),(2), and (3) are true, then eg = g for every  $g \in G$ .

(\*) 17. (Gallian, p.57, #39) If G is a group, and for every  $a, b, c, d, x \in G$  we have axb = cxd implies that ab = cd, show that then for every  $u, v \in G$  we have uv = vu. ('A middle cancellation law implies commutativity.')

[Hint: Find an x so that uxv = vxu!]

Following the hint, we look for an  $x \in G$  so that uxv = vxu. We only 'know' about the elements u and v, so we probably want to build x out of them. If we just try a few possibilities, x = u doesn't seem to work ( $u^2v = vu^2$ ? why should  $u^2$  and v commute?), and neither does x = v ( $uv^2 = v^2u$  has the same problem). But trying  $x = u^{-1}$ , we get  $uxv = uu^{-1}v = ev = v$ , while  $vxu = vu^{-1}u = ve = v$ , so uxv = vxu is actually true. [N.B.:  $x = v^{-1}$  also works, as does  $x = v^{-1}uv^{-1}$ :

$$uxv = u(v^{-1}uv^{-1})v = uv^{-1}u(v^{-1}v) = uv^{-1}u = vv^{-1}(uv^{-1}u) = v(v^{-1}uv^{-1})u = vxu$$
.

There are many others that also work!]

Having done this, we know that for any  $u, v \in G$  there is an  $x \in G$  so that uxv = vxu. So by our hypothesis we have that, for any  $u, v \in G$ , uv = vu. That is, G is abelian.

(\*) 19. If G is a group and  $a \in G$ , and if  $|a| < \infty$  and  $\gcd(k, |a|) = 1$ , show that then  $|a^k| = |a|$ .

There is more than one way to proceed with this problem; here are two.

Viewing |a| as  $|\{a\}|$ , what we want to show is that  $|\{a^k\}| = |\{a\}|$ . But since  $a^k \in \{a\}$ , we know that  $\{a^k\} \subseteq \{a\}$ ;  $g \in \{a^k\}$  means that  $g = (a^k)^s = a^{ks}$  for some  $s \in \mathbb{Z}$ , so  $g \in \{a\}$ . Therefore,  $|a^k| = |\{a^k\}| \le |\{a\}| = |a|$  (a subset has fewer elements!).

To establish the opposite inequality  $(|a|leq|a^k|)$ , based on what we just showed, it is enough to show that  $a \in \{a^k\}$ , since then  $\{a\} \subseteq \{a^k\}$ .

We need our hypothesis,  $\gcd(k,|a|)=1$ , in order to show this. This hypothesis tells us that we can write 1=rk+s|a| for some integers r,s. Therefore,  $a=a^1=a^{rk+s|a|}=a^{rk}a^{s|a|}=(a^k)^r(a^{|a|})^s$ . But!  $a^{|a|}=e$  (from class;  $|a|<\infty$  implies that this is true). So:  $a=(a^k)^s\in\{a^k\}$ , as desired. This gives  $|a|\leq|a^k|$ , and so together with  $|a^k|\leq|a|$  we get  $|a^k|=|a|$ .

If we view, instead, |a| as the smallest  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $a^n = e$ , then we know that  $(a^k)^{|a|} = a^{k|a|} = (a^{|a|})^k = e^k = e$ , and so  $|a^k|$ , the smallest n with  $(a^k)^n = e$ , must be at most |a|, and so  $|a^k| \leq |a|$ .

To get the opposite inequality, set  $|a^k| = m$  (for notational convenience); what we want to show is that  $a^m = e$  (so that  $|a| \le m = |a^k|$ ). Again, we need to use our hypothesis that  $\gcd(k,|a|) = 1$  in order to do this. And, again, we use that 1 = rk + s|a| for some integers r and s. Then:

$$a^m = (a^1)^m = (a^{rk+s|a|})^m = a^{m(rk+s|a|)} = a^{mrk+ms|a|} = a^{mrk}a^{ms|a|} = ((a^k)^m)^r(a^{|a|})^{ms} = e^r e^{ms} = ee = e,$$

since  $m = |a^k|$  so  $(a^k)^m = e$ , and  $a^{|a|} = e$ . So  $a^m = e$ , so  $|a^k| = m \le |a|$ .

Putting together  $|a^k| \le |a|$  and  $|a| \le |a^k|$ , we get  $|a^k| = |a|$ .

## A selection of further solutions

14. Give an example of a group G and  $a, b \in G$  so that  $(ab)^4 = a^4b^4$ , but  $ab \neq ba$ .

[Hint: Problem #11 might help? Slightly bigger challenge: try the same thing with the 4's replaced by 3's!]

The cheapest way to arrange this is to (first) try making  $(ab)^4 = e = a^4 = b^4$ , that is, find elements a and b with order (dividing) 4 whose product ab also has order (dividing) 4, and then check to see if ab = ba. Problem #11 suggests a way to do this: try  $a = F(\theta)$  and  $b = F(\psi)$  with ab not equal to  $R(\pi)$  (which, we can note, has order 2), but (rather) having order 4. Note that in this case  $a^2 = b^2 = e = R(0)$ , and so  $a^4 = b^4 = e^2 = e$ , and so  $a^4b^4 = e = (ab)^4$ . And to get what we want, we set  $\theta - \psi = \pi/4$ , so  $ab = R(2(\pi/4)) = R(\pi/2)$ , which does have order 4. Specifically, we can choose  $F_1 = R(\pi/4)$  and  $F_2 = R(0)$ . And we can choose any group G that contains these reflections, like the symmetries of a circle, or the symmetries of a square.

18. (Gallian, p.69, #4) Show that if G is a group and  $a \in G$ , then  $|a| = |a^{-1}|$ .

There are at least two ways to approach this (and probably more?). If  $|a| < \infty$ , then setting n = |a| for notational simplicity, we know that  $a^n = e$ , so  $(a^{-1})^n = a^{-1} \cdots a^{-1} = (a \cdots a)^{-1} = (a^n)^{-1} = e^{-1} = e$  (where this 'used' that  $(ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1}$  and induction), and so we know that  $|a^{-1}| \le n$  (by definition) or  $|a^{-1}|$  divides n (from results from class), depending on your viewpoint. In particular, we have  $|a^{-1}| < \infty$ , as well.

But then, since  $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$  and we know that  $m = |a^{-1}| < \infty$  (introducing the notation again for simplicity), the same argument above shows that  $n = |a| = |(a^{-1})^{-1}| \le m$  (or n divides m, if you take that viewpoint). So we have established that  $m \le n$  and  $n \le m$  (or m|n and n|m, with  $m, n \ge 1$ ), which (both) imply that n = m. So  $m = |a^{-1}| = |a| = n$ , as desired.

For completeness, we should mention that if  $|a| = \infty$  then we must also have  $|a^{-1}| = \infty$ , since otherwise  $|a^{-1}| = m < \infty$ , and then our argument above implies that  $|a| = |(a^{-1})^{-1}|$  must be finite as well (and  $|a| \le m$ ), a contradiction! So  $|a^{-1}| = \infty$ , and in particular  $|a^{-1}| = |a|$ . So whether |a| is finite or infinite, we always have  $|a| = |a^{-1}|$ .