

## ASSIGNMENT-1

1) Consider  $H = \{1, a, b, c\}$ . Consider an arbitrary  $x, y \in H$ . Is  $xy = 1$ ? If so, it would be commutative. If suppose  $xy \neq 1$ . Is  $xy = x$  or  $y$ ? Neither, since that would result in either  $x$  or  $y$  being 1. Therefore,  $xy = z$  where  $z$  is the element different from  $x, y$ . Same way, the argument can be extended to  $yx = z$ . Hence, either  $xy = 1$ , or  $xy = yx = z$ , which makes  $\{1, a, b, c\}$  an abelian group.

Let us now classify the groups of order 4. We can immediately fill up the initial parts:

x	1	a	b	c
1	1	a	b	c
a	a	x	x	x
b	b	x	x	x
c	c	x	x	x

Since this is a finite group of order 4, there should be atleast one element with order 2. We WLOG select that element to be  $b$  so that  $b^2 = 1$ . Is  $ab = a$  or  $b$ ? Nope, since that would make either one identity. So  $ab = c$ . Is  $ba = a$  or  $b$ ? In much the same way, we conclude  $ba = ab = c$ .  $b(ba) = bc = a$  and  $(ab)b = ab^2 = cb$ . Hence  $bc = cb = a$ . So far we got: (This is applicable for any group of size 4, since we did not use the property that this group has no element with order 4.)

x	1	a	b	c
1	1	a	b	c
a	a	x	c	x
b	b	c	1	a
c	c	x	a	x

**(The Klein Route)** Suppose our group has no element with order 4. Is  $a^2 = b$ ? Can't be, because then, since  $b^2 = 1$ , we'd have  $a^4 = 1$  which is against hypothesis. Hence  $a^2 = 1$ , or  $a^2 = c$ . Likewise, we can conclude that  $c^2 = 1$  or  $c^2 = a$  (Ask the same questions, is  $c^2 = b$ ? No). Suppose  $a^2 = 1$  and  $c^2 = a$ . That would make  $c^4 = 1$ , which is against hypothesis. Hence, if  $a^2 = 1$  then  $c^2 = 1$  as well. Likewise, if  $c^2 = 1$ , then  $a^2 = 1$  as well. Suppose neither, i.e,  $c^2 = a$  and  $a^2 = c$ . Then  $c^4 = a^2 = c$  and  $a^4 = c^2 = a$ . We have  $a^3 = 1$  and  $c^3 = 1$ .  $(ba)a^2 = b$  which means  $ca^2 = b \implies c^2 = b$ . But  $c^2 = a$ . Absurd. Hence, this scenario is impossible. Hence, for the Klein route,  $a^2 = c^2 = 1$ .

Question for  $ac$  and  $ca$ , then arises. Is  $ac = 1$ ? That would mean  $a^2c = 1c = a$ , absurd. Hence,  $ac = b$ . Similarly, is  $ca = 1$ ? we would then have  $c = a$  again. Therefore,  $ac = ca = b$ . This completes the Klein Route:

x	1	a	b	c
1	1	a	b	c
a	a	1	c	b
b	b	c	1	a
c	c	b	a	1

(**The  $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$  Route**) Suppose that  $G$  has an element of order 4. Since the size of the cyclic subgroup of this element is 4 as well, this group is cyclic. WLOG, assume that  $G = \langle a \rangle$ . Then every element is 1,  $a = a$ ,  $a^2 = b$ ,  $a^3 = c$ . We have (for a general 4 membered group)

x	1	a	b	c
1	1	a	b	c
a	a	x	c	x
b	b	c	1	a
c	c	x	a	x

Since the group is cyclic, we can immediately write  $a^2 = b$ . Since  $a^3 = c$ ,  $a^6 = a^2 = c^2 = b$ . We can write that in as well. All that is left is  $ac$  and  $ca$ . Let us rule out the obvious:  $ac \neq a$ ,  $ca \neq a$ ,  $ac \neq c$ ,  $ca \neq c$ . Is  $ac = b$ ? That would mean  $a^4 = b$ , which makes  $b = 1$ . Same way,  $ca \neq b$ . Hence,  $ac$  and  $ca$  have only one option left, 1. We can fill that in to get the  $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$  isomorph:

x	1	a	b	c
1	1	a	b	c
a	a	b	c	1
b	b	c	1	a
c	c	1	a	b

Note that Klein is the unique 4 membered group with no element of order 4.  $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$  isomorph is the unique group with one element with order 4.

---

2) Suppose that  $\forall x \in G, x^2 = 1$ . Suppose there exists  $a, b$  so that  $ab \neq ba$ . This means  $a^2b \neq aba \implies b \neq aba$ . This then means that  $b^2 \neq (ba)(ba) = (ba)^2$ . But this boils down to  $1 \neq 1$ . Absurd. Hence,  $\forall a, b \in G, ab = ba$ .

---

3) Suppose  $a \in G$ . Consider the case when order of  $a$  is finite =  $n$ .  $a^n = 1$ .  $a \cdot a \cdot \dots \cdot a = 1$ . Note that  $(a_1 a_2 \dots a_n)^{-1} = a_n^{-1} a_{n-1}^{-1} \dots a_1^{-1}$  which means that the inverse of  $a^n$  is  $a^{-n} = (a^{-1})^n = 1$ .  $(a^{-1})^n = 1$  would mean that the actual order of  $a^{-1}$  is a divisor of  $n$ . Say order of  $a^{-1}$  is  $m$ . We have  $m|n$ . But the argument can be reversed with  $a^{-1}$  as some  $b$  and  $a$  as some  $b^{-1}$  to get  $n|m$  which gives  $m = n$ . Hence  $\mathfrak{O}(a) = \mathfrak{O}(a^{-1})$ .

---

4) Consider  $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ . Let us define multiplication as  $\bar{a} \times \bar{b} = \overline{(a \times b)}$ . Consider the element  $\bar{3}$ .  $3 \times 1 = 3 \text{ mod } (6)$ .  $3 \times 2 = 6 \text{ mod } 6 = 0 \text{ mod } (6)$ ,  $3 \times 3 = 3 \text{ mod } 6$ .  $3 \times 4 = 12 = 0 \text{ mod } 6$ .  $3 \times 5 = 15 = 3 \text{ mod } 6$ . Hence, we note that 3 has no inverse. Hence,  $\mathbb{Z}_6$  is not a group.

Consider  $\mathbb{Z}_7$ . We know the classification of the elements in the multiplicative  $(\mathbb{Z}_n)^*$ , which is

$$(\mathbb{Z}_{n\mathbb{Z}})^* := \{z \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} : \exists c \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} : \overline{cz} = \overline{1}\}$$

Which is actually equivalent to saying

$$(\mathbb{Z}_{n\mathbb{Z}})^* := \{z \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} : \gcd(z, n) = 1\}$$

And we note that since 7 is a prime, every element smaller than 7 is coprimes with 7 which means that every element of  $\mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z} - \{0\}$  is in the multiplicative group.

5)  $U_n :=$  the multiplicative  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  which is  $\{z \in \mathbb{Z}_n : \exists c \in \mathbb{Z}_n : cz = 1\}$ , which can be rewritten as  $\{z \in \mathbb{Z}_n : \gcd(z, n) = 1\}$ . Define  $\text{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$  of the group  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  as the set of all group isomorphisms from  $\mathbb{Z}$  to itself, seen as a group under addition  $+$ .

Look at  $\text{aut}(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$ , the set of all  $\phi : \mathbb{Z}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$  such that it is a bijection (invertible) and is a homomorphism, i.e.,  $\forall x \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ , we have  $\phi(a + b) = \phi(a) + \phi(b)$ . Let  $\phi(a) = a'$ . Define  $\phi^{-1}(a') = a$ . This is aswell a bijection. Consider  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  so that  $\phi(a) = x$ ,  $\phi(b) = y$ . We know such unique  $a$  and  $b$  exist, since it is a bijection. Have a look at  $\phi^{-1}(x)$  and  $\phi^{-1}(y)$ . We see that  $\phi^{-1}(x) = a$  and  $\phi^{-1}(y) = b$ . What is  $\phi^{-1}(x + y)$ ?  $\phi^{-1}(\phi(a + b)) = a + b$ . Hence,  $\phi^{-1}$  is aswell a group isomorphism. Now consider  $\phi \circ \phi^{-1}$  and  $\phi^{-1} \circ \phi$  which is  $I$  the identity map. The identity map is an isomorphism. Therefore, for every element  $\phi$  in  $\text{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$ , there exists an inverse  $\phi^{-1}$ . Consider  $\phi$  and  $\psi$  two group isomorphisms in  $\text{aut}$ .  $\phi(a + b) = \phi(a) + \phi(b)$  and  $\psi(a + b) = \psi(a) + \psi(b)$ . Consider  $\psi \circ \phi(a + b) = \psi(\phi(a) + \phi(b)) = \psi \circ \phi(a) + \psi \circ \phi(b)$ . Hence, composition operation is also a group isomorphism (since bijectivity is preserved whenever we compose two bijections). Therefore,  $\text{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$  is a group. This is true for any group as well.

Consider the map  $\gamma : \text{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}_n, +) \rightarrow U_n$  given by  $\gamma(\psi \in \text{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)) = \psi(\overline{1})$ . We have  $\gamma(\psi) = \psi(\overline{1})$ .  $\gamma(\varphi) = \varphi(\overline{1})$ . What is  $\gamma(\psi \circ \varphi)$ ? it is  $\psi \circ \varphi(\overline{1}) = \psi(\varphi(\overline{1}))$ . What is  $\gamma(\psi) \cdot \gamma(\varphi)$ ? It is  $\psi(1) \cdot \varphi(1)$ . Is  $\psi(\varphi(1)) = \psi(1) \cdot \varphi(1)$ ?

We need to stop to understand that if  $\phi$  is an automorphism from  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  to itself, it must map 1 to an element  $\bar{j} \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  so that  $\gcd(j, n) = 1$ . To understand this, we note that  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is a cyclic group generated by 1. But we know that  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \langle 1^x \rangle$  if and only if  $\gcd(x, n) = 1$ . So  $j$  can generate  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  if and only if  $(j, n) = 1$ . Moreover, if we are to preserve structure in the homomorphism  $\phi$ , we need to map generators to generators. To see this, suppose  $1 \mapsto k$  where  $\gcd(k, n) \neq 1$ . Note that when we define a homomorphism on the generator, it is basically defined for every other element for  $\phi(x) = \phi(1 + 1 + 1 \cdots 1) = x\phi(1)$ . If  $\gcd(k, n) \neq 1$ , then  $\langle j \rangle$  will be a proper subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ , meaning it will miss out on a few elements in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ . Suppose  $\phi(1) = j$ , this means  $\phi(x) = j^x = x(j)$  (in the context of an additive group). But All the multiples of  $j$  do not cover the entire group. Hence,  $\phi$ , an automorphism, maps 1 to  $j$  so that  $\gcd(j, n) = 1$  or equivalently,  $\phi$  maps 1 to an element in the multiplicative  $(\mathbb{Z}_n)^*$  (since every element in the multiplicative group has its gcd with  $n$  to be 1). Notice that if

$a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$  and  $b \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ , then  $ab \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ .

Now we can answer the question, is  $\psi(\varphi(1)) = \psi(1)\varphi(1)$ ?  $\psi(1) = k_1$  so that  $(k_1, n) = 1$  and  $\varphi(1) = j_1$  so that  $(j_1, n) = 1$ .  $\psi(j_1) = j_1\psi(1)$  from the generator definition, hence we see that  $\psi(\varphi(1)) = j_1 \times k_1 = \psi(1) \times \varphi(1)$ . Hence, this is a group homomorphism.

Now to show that  $\gamma$  is bijective, we note that, for a  $\phi : \mathbb{Z}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$  to be an isomorphism, one needs to send a generator to a generator. i.e, different isomorphisms can be generated by sending 1 to each element  $j$  so that  $(j, n) = 1$ . Moreover, if we send 1 to a *non* generator, i.e an element with non unity gcd with  $n$ , then that ceases to be a group isomorphism since group order wouldn't be preserved. Hence, there are  $\text{totient}(n)$  elements in  $\text{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$ , which is the same as the size of the multiplicative group  $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$ . Hence,  $\gamma : \text{aut}(\mathbb{Z}_n, +) \rightarrow U_n$  given by  $\gamma(\psi) = \psi(1)$  is a group isomorphism.

6) Let  $B_n := \{r \in \mathbb{Z}_n : \gcd(r, n) = 1\}$  If  $r, s \in B_n$  then  $\gcd(r, n) = \gcd(s, n) = 1$ . Consider  $rs := \bar{r}\bar{s} \in B_n$ .  $xr \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  and  $ys \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ . This means  $xys \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  which means  $xys = 1 + zn$  which means  $xys + zn = 1$ . This means that  $\gcd(rs, n) = 1$ .

**Claim:** Suppose  $\gcd(x, n) = 1$ , and  $x < n$  with  $1 < n$ , then for any  $z$  so that  $z \in \bar{x}$ , we have  $\gcd(z, n) = 1$ .

*Proof.* Consider  $z = rn + x$ . We then have  $n = px + q$  and we keep going to find the gcd as the final remainder in the process of euclid's division algorithm. Therefore, the  $\gcd$  of  $z$  and  $n$  as well, is 1.  $\square$

**Claim:** Suppose  $\gcd(x, n) = j \neq 1 (\geq 2)$  and  $1 \leq x < n$  and  $1 < n$ . Then, the claim is that there exists  $1 < b < n$  so that  $xb \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ . This would then imply that there would exist no  $z < n$  so that  $xz \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ .

*Proof.*  $\square$