

Math 71: Abstract Algebra

Prishita Dharampal

Problem 1. Determine whether the following functions f are well-defined:

1. $f : \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ defined by $f(a/b) = a$
2. $f : \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ defined by $f(a/b) = a^2/b^2$

Solution.

1. f is not well defined.
 $f(1/2) = 1, f(2/4) = 2$ but,
 $1/2 = 2/4$ therefore, f is ambiguous and not well-defined.
2. f is well-defined.
 $f(1/2) = 1/4, f(2/4) = 4/16$ and,
 $4/16 = 1/4$
thus, f is unambiguous and well-defined.

Problem 2. Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ be a surjective map of sets. Prove that the relation

$$a \sim b \text{ if and only if } f(a) = f(b)$$

is an equivalence relation whose equivalence classes are the fibers of f .

Solution.

To see if \sim is an equivalence relation for any $a, b \in A$:

1. $a = a \implies f(a) = f(a), \forall a \in A$. Thus, the relation is reflexive, $a \sim a$.
2. From definition for any $a, b \in A$,
$$\begin{aligned} a = b &\implies f(a) = f(b) \implies f(b) = f(a). \text{ Thus, the relation is symmetric,} \\ a \sim b &\implies b \sim a. \end{aligned}$$
3. And by transitivity of $=$, if $f(a) = f(b)$ and $f(b) = f(c)$ then $f(a) = f(c)$. Which also means if $a = b, b = c \implies a = c, \forall a, b, c \in A$. Thus, the relation is transitive, $a \sim b$ and $b \sim c \implies a \sim c$.

Thus the relation $a \sim b$ on set A is an equivalence relation.

If $f(a) = b$ for any $a \in A, b \in B$, then the fiber over b is $f^{-1}(b) = F_b$, such that $F_b \subset A$. $\forall x, y \in F_b$ we know that $f(x) = f(y) = b$. Thus, $x \sim y$.

Thus, all elements in the fiber over b exist in the same equivalence class say, A_b .

Moreover, $\forall z \in A_b, z \sim x$, then $f(z) = f(x) = b$. Which implies that $z \in F_b$. Thus, there exists a 1-to-1 relationship between the fibers of f and the equivalence classes in A .

Problem 3. Prove that for any given positive integer N , there exist only finitely many integers n with $\varphi(n) = N$, where φ denotes Euler's φ -function. Conclude in particular that $\varphi(n)$ tends to infinity as n tends to infinity.

Solution.

For Euler's φ -function we know that,

1. $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b)$, if $(a, b) = 1$.
2. $\varphi(p^a) = p^{a-1}(p - 1)$, for a prime p , and any $a \geq 1$.

Let $n = q^a b$, where q is the biggest prime factor n has. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} N &= \varphi(n) = \varphi(q^a b) \\ N &= \varphi(q^a b) = \varphi(q^a)\varphi(b) \\ N &= q^{a-1}(q - 1)\varphi(b) \end{aligned}$$

Since we know that $N, \varphi(b) \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, $a \geq 1$, we can say that $q < N$. Thus, there are only a finite possibilities for $1 < q < N$, for any fixed N .

We also know that $q^{a-1} \leq N$, hence, $q^{a-1} < N$. So,

1. n can only contain some subset of a finite number of primes,
2. and for each prime in n , there can only be a finite number of different powers that it can be raised to.

So only a finite number of n can be generated using q, a . Hence, there only exist finitely many integers n with $\varphi(n) = N$.

To see that $\varphi(n)$ tends to infinity, as n tends to infinity, let's consider that set $P = \{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$ for a finite number of primes. Then we know that for a $n = p_1 p_2 \dots p_n + 1$, n has a prime divisor p .

$$p \mid n = p \mid (p_1 p_2 \dots p_n + 1)$$

But $p \notin P$, because if $p \in P$ then:

$$p \mid n = p \mid p_1 p_2 \dots p_n + p \mid 1$$

and $p \mid 1$ cannot be true (Euler's proof for infinite primes). Thus, there are infinite primes, and as $n \rightarrow \infty$, N accumulates more primes and thus also tends to infinity.

Problem 4. Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n > 1$, and let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $1 \leq a \leq n$. Prove that if a and n are not relatively prime, there exists an integer b with $1 \leq b < n$ such that $ab \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$, and deduce that there cannot be an integer c such that $ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

Solution.

Given that a, n are not relatively prime, there exists a gcd $d > 1$ such that:

$$\begin{aligned} a \pmod{d} &\equiv n \pmod{d} \equiv 0 \\ n &= n'd, n' < n \\ a &= a'd, a' < a, n \\ a &= a'd \text{ (multiplying both sides by } n') \\ an' &= a'dn' = ab \\ ab &\equiv 0 \pmod{n} \end{aligned}$$

i.e. an integer b exists such that $1 \leq b < n$.

Assuming $ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$:

$$\begin{aligned} ac &\equiv 1 \pmod{n} \\ acb &\equiv 1b \pmod{n} \\ (ab)c &\equiv b \pmod{n}, \text{ integers are commutative} \\ 0c &\equiv b \pmod{n}, ab \equiv 0 \pmod{n} \\ 0 &\equiv b \pmod{n} \end{aligned}$$

This implies $b \geq n$ but from the first proof, $b < n$. Thus, this is a contraction and c cannot exist if a, n are not co-prime.

Problem 5. Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n > 1$, and let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $1 \leq a \leq n$. Prove that if a and n are relatively prime, there exists an integer c such that $ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. [use the fact that the g.c.d. of two integers is a \mathbb{Z} -linear combination of the integers]

Solution.

Given that a, n are relatively prime, the gcd $d = 1$.

$$\begin{aligned} d &= ax + ny, \text{ where } x, y \in \mathbb{Z} \\ 1 &= ax + ny \\ -ny &= ax - 1 \\ 0 &\equiv ax - 1 \pmod{n} \\ 1 &\equiv ax \pmod{n} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, an integer x or c exists such that $ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ if a and n are co-prime.

Problem 6. Conclude from the previous two exercises that $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ is the set of elements \bar{a} of $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ with $(a, n) = 1$ and hence prove Proposition 4. Verify this directly in the case $n = 12$.

Solution.

From the above two solutions we know:

1. $(a, n) = 1 \implies \exists c, ac \equiv 1, \pmod{n}$
2. $(a, n) > 1 \implies \nexists c, ac \equiv 1, \pmod{n}$

Hence $\forall a, n : (a, n) > 1$, there exists no multiplicative inverse for $a \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ because there exists no $c < n : ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. However, for co-prime a, n , a $c < n : ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ exists. Thus the latter set has multiplicative inverses. It is also closed under multiplication because $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} : (a, n) = 1 \& (b, n) = 1 \implies (ab, n) = 1$.

(The other 2 axioms - associativity and identity element = 1 are inherited from \mathbb{Z}).

Thus, $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times = \{\bar{a} \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} : (a, n) = 1\}$, where \bar{a} is the equivalence class for all a such that $ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

Problem 7. Determine which of the following sets are groups under addition:

1. The set of rational numbers (including $0 = 0/1$) in lowest terms whose denominators are odd.
2. The set of rational s(including $0 = 0/1$) in lowest terms whose denominators are even.
3. The set of rational numbers of absolute value < 1 .
4. The set of rational numbers of absolute value ≥ 1 together with 0.
5. The set of rational numbers with denominators equal to 1 or 2.
6. The set of rational numbers with denominators equal to 1, 2 or 3.

Solution.

1. The set of rational numbers (including $0 = 0/1$) in lowest terms whose denominators are odd.

Let this set be called A . Let's see if the axioms hold for this set under addition:
 $\forall \frac{a}{b}, \frac{c}{d} \in A$

- (a) Associativity: inherited from \mathbb{Q} .
- (b) Closure: $\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad+bc}{bd}$, if b, d are odd, then bd is odd.
- (c) Identity: $\frac{a}{b} + 0/1 = \frac{a}{b} = 0/1 + \frac{a}{b}$
- (d) Inverse element: $\frac{a}{b} + (-\frac{a}{b}) = 0/1$, if b is odd then -b is also odd.

Thus, this set is a group under addition.

2. The set of rational numbers (including $0 = 0/1$) in lowest terms whose denominators are even.

For $\frac{1}{2} \in$ the set. $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{2}{2} = 1$ (lowest terms). And 1 is not in the set, hence this set does not have closure and is not a group under addition.

3. The set of rational numbers of absolute value < 1 .

Let x be any element in this set. For the value of $x = 0.9$, $x + x = 1.8$ which is not < 1 and thus not a member of the set (the set is not closed under addition). Hence this set is not a group under addition.

4. The set of rational numbers of absolute value ≥ 1 together with 0.

For $x, y \in$ this set, let $x = -1.4$, $y = 1 \implies x + y = -0.4$ and $| -0.4 | = 0.4$ which is not ≥ 1 and thus not a member of the set (the set is not closed under addition). Hence this set is not a group under addition.

5. The set of rational numbers with denominators equal to 1 or 2.

For any $\frac{a}{b}, \frac{c}{d} \in$ the set,

- (a) Associativity: Inherited from \mathbb{Q} .
- (b) Closure: $\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad+cb}{bd}$ but both $b, d \in \{1, 2\}$ so $bd \in \{0, 1\}$. Hence the set is closed under addition.
- (c) Identity: $\frac{a}{b} + 0/1 = \frac{a}{b} = 0/1 + \frac{a}{b}$.
- (d) Inverse element: $\frac{a}{b} + (-\frac{a}{b}) = 0/1$, if $b \in \{1, 2\}$ then $-b \in \{-1, -2\}$.

Thus, the set is a group under addition.

6. The set of rational numbers with denominators equal to 1, 2, 3.

$\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad+cb}{bd}$, both $b, d \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ which means that $bd \in \{1, 2, 3, 6\}$. Because the result of the sum can have 6 as a denominator the set is not closed under addition.

Problem 8. Prove that $(a_1a_2 \cdots a_n)^{-1} = a_n^{-1}a_{n-1}^{-1} \cdots a_2^{-1}a_1^{-1}$ for all $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in G$.

Solution.

$$\begin{aligned}(a_1a_2 \cdots a_n)^{-1}(a_1a_2 \cdots a_n) &= e \\ (a_1a_2 \cdots a_n)^{-1}(a_1a_2 \cdots a_{n-1}a_n)a_n^{-1} &= a_n^{-1} \\ (a_1a_2 \cdots a_n)^{-1}(a_1a_2 \cdots a_{n-1})a_{n-1}^{-1} &= a_n^{-1}a_{n-1}^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

after doing this n times, we get

$$(a_1a_2 \cdots a_n)^{-1} = a_n^{-1}a_{n-1}^{-1} \cdots a_2^{-1}a_1^{-1}$$

Thus proved.

Problem 9. Let x be an element of G . Prove that $x^2 = 1$ if and only if $|x|$ is either 1 or 2.

Solution.

We know that the order of an element in a group is the minimum positive number of times it needs to be operated on with itself to get the identity element. Given $x^2 = 1 = e$, we can see that $|x| \leq 2$. So $|x| \in \{1, 2\}$. Hence proved.

Problem 10. Let x be an element of G . Prove that if $|x| = n$ for some positive integer n then $x^{-1} = x^{n-1}$.

Solution.

Given $|x| = n$:

$$\begin{aligned}x^n &= e \\ x^n x^{-1} &= ex^{-1} \\ x^{n-1} &= x^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

Hence proved.

Problem 11. If x and g are elements of the group G , prove that $|x| = |g^{-1}xg|$. Deduce that $|ab| = |ba|$ for all $a, b \in G$

Solution.

Let the order of $g^{-1}xg$ be n .

$$\begin{aligned}
 e &= (g^{-1}xg)^n \\
 e &= \underbrace{(g^{-1}xg)(g^{-1}xg)\dots(g^{-1}xg)}_{n \text{ times}} \\
 e &= \underbrace{g^{-1}x(gg^{-1})x(g\dots g^{-1})xg}_{n \text{ times}} \\
 e &= g^{-1}x^n g \\
 g^{-1}g &= g^{-1}x^n g \\
 gg^{-1}g &= gg^{-1}x^n g \\
 gg^{-1} &= x^n gg^{-1} \\
 e &= x^n \implies |x| = n = |g^{-1}xg|
 \end{aligned}$$

Using,

$$\begin{aligned}
 n &= |x| = |g^{-1}xg| \\
 e &= x^n = (g^{-1}xg)^n \\
 x^n &= g^{-1}x^n g \quad (\text{shown above}) \\
 gx^n &= gg^{-1}x^n g \\
 gx^n &= x^n g \implies |gx^n| = |x^n g|
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $|ab| = |ba| \forall a, b \in G$.

Problem 12. Suppose $x \in G$ and $|x| = n < \infty$. If $n = st$ for some positive integers s and t , prove that $|x^s| = t$

Solution.

Given $|x| = n$ and $n < \infty$:

$$\begin{aligned} e &= x^n \\ e &= x^{st} \\ e &= \underbrace{xx\dots x}_{s \text{ times}} \underbrace{xx\dots x}_{s \text{ times}} \dots \underbrace{xx\dots x}_{s \text{ times}} \\ &\quad t \text{ times} \\ e &= (x^s)^t \\ |x^s| &= t \end{aligned}$$

Hence proved.

Problem 13. Prove that if $x^2 = 1$ for all $x \in G$ then G is abelian.

Solution.

If $x^2 = 1, \forall x \in G$ then,

$$\begin{aligned} (ab)^2 &= 1 \\ abab &= 1 \\ ababb^{-1} &= b^{-1} \\ aba &= b^{-1} \\ abaa^{-1} &= b^{-1}a^{-1} \\ ab &= b^{-1}a^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

but,

$$\begin{aligned} kk &= kk^{-1} \\ k &= k^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

so,

$$\begin{aligned} ab &= b^{-1}a^{-1} \\ ab &= ba \end{aligned}$$

Thus, G is abelian.

Problem 14. Prove that any finite group G of even order contains an element of order 2. [Let $t(G)$ be the set $\{g \in G \mid g \neq g^{-1}\}$. Show that $t(G)$ has an even number of elements and every nonidentity element of $G|t(G)$ has order 2.]

Solution.

Let $t(G) = \{g \in G \mid g \neq g^{-1}\}$. i.e. the set $t(G)$ includes the elements of the group that aren't their own inverses. And because for each $a \in G$ there exists a $a^{-1} \in G$ that is it's inverse, we can pair up elements of $t(G)$ in (a, a^{-1}) pairs. Thus we can see that $|t(G)| = 2n, n \in \mathbb{N}$. Moreover, we know that the set $G \setminus t(G)$ is not empty because $e \notin t(G)$ but $e \in G$. And because $|G| = 2m$ and $|t(G)| = 2n$ for any $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ we know that there exist at least two elements in $|G \setminus t(G)|$.

And for any $a \in G \setminus t(G), a = a^{-1} \implies aa^{-1} = e \implies |a| = 2$.

Thus, any finite group G of even order contains an element of order 2.

Problem 15. Let G be a group and $g \in G$.

1. Prove that if $ga = a$ for any single $a \in G$ (or that $ag = a$ for any single $a \in G$) then g is the identity element.
2. Prove that if $gg = g$ then g is the identity element.
3. Give an example of a group G and an element $g \in G$ such that $g^3 = g$ but that g is not an identity element.

Solution.

1. Given $ga = a, \forall a \in G$:

$$\begin{aligned} gaa^{-1} &= aa^{-1} \\ gaa^{-1} &= e \\ ge &= e \\ g &= e \end{aligned}$$

Thus, g is the identity element.

2. Given $gg = g$

$$\begin{aligned} gg &= g \\ ggg^{-1} &= gg^{-1} \\ ge &= e \\ g &= e \end{aligned}$$

Thus, g is the identity element.

3. If G is the group $(\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}, *)$, then for $g = -1$, $g^3 = g$ but g is not an identity element.

Problem 15. The set of invertible $n \times n$ real matrices is a group $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ with the operation of matrix multiplication, called the real general linear group. Consider the following elements of $\mathrm{GL}_2(\mathbb{R})$:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Show that A and B have finite order (compute their orders) but that AB has infinite order. This shows that the order of a product is not necessarily the product of the orders! (Though see Problem Set 1 for an instance when this does hold.)

Solution.

For $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = I_2 \\ \left| \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \right| &= 3 \end{aligned}$$

For $B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \\ \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = I_2 \\ \left| \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right| &= 4 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} AB &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

For $AB = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -4 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

It seems like for calculating AB^n the resulting matrix is $= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -n & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, thus AB^n can never produce the identity matrix, and $|AB| = \infty$.