

# Math 71: Abstract Algebra

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**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  $a, b \in A$ ,  
if  $a = b \implies f(a) = f(b) \implies f(b) = f(a)$ . Thus, the relation is symmetric,  
 $a \sim b \implies b \sim a$ .
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  $\varphi$  denotes Euler's  $\varphi$ -function. Conclude in particular that  $\varphi(n)$  tends to infinity as  $n$  tends to infinity.

*Solution.*

For Euler's  $\varphi$ -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:

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

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 numbers (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  $\geq 1$  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:  $\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{a+c}{bd}$ , 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  $\geq 1$  together with 0.

For  $x, y \in$  this set, let  $x = -1.4$ ,  $y = 1 \implies x + y = -.4$  and  $|-0.4| = 0.4$  which is not  $\geq 1$  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  $bd \in \{1, 2\}$ . 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  $bd \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 9\}$ . Because the result of the sum can have 4 or 9 as a denominator the set is not closed under addition.

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

*Solution.*

$$\begin{aligned} (a_1 a_2 \dots a_n)^{-1} (a_1 a_2 \dots a_n) &= e \\ (a_1 a_2 \dots a_n)^{-1} (a_1 a_2 \dots a_{n-1} a_n) a_n^{-1} &= a_n^{-1} \\ (a_1 a_2 \dots a_n)^{-1} (a_1 a_2 \dots a_{n-1}) a_{n-1}^{-1} &= a_n^{-1} a_{n-1}^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

after doing this  $n$  times, we get

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

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  $|x| = n$ :

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

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,

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

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  $n < \infty$ :

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

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  $G \setminus t(G)$  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 its 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  $ga = a, \forall a \in G$ :

$$gaa^{-1} = aa^{-1}$$

$$gaa^{-1} = e$$

$$ge = e$$

$$g = e$$

Thus,  $g$  is the identity element.

2. Given  $gg = g$

$$gg = g$$

$$ggg^{-1} = gg^{-1}$$

$$ge = e$$

$$g = e$$

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  $\text{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$  with the operation of matrix multiplication, called the real general linear group. Consider the following elements of  $\text{GL}_2(\mathbb{R})$ :

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

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  $|AB| = \infty$ .