## MATH 207: Problem Set 6

## Jesse Farmer

## 10 November 2003

- 1. Let F be a field and  $A \in M_2(F)$ . Show that A has a inverse if and only if  $det(A) \neq 0$ By question 2, A is invertible if and only if det(A) is invertible in F. But since F is a field the only element that is not invertible is 0. Therefore A is invertible if and only if  $det(A) \neq 0$ ;
- 2. Let R be a commutative ring with one and  $A \in M_2(R)$ . When does A have an inverse?

Claim: A is invertible if and only if det(A) is invertible in R.

<u>Lemma</u>: For any matrices  $A, B \in M_2(R)$ , det(AB) = det(A)det(B)

Let 
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$
 and  $B = \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{pmatrix}$   

$$det(AB) = det(\begin{pmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} & a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} \\ a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} & a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} \end{pmatrix})$$

$$= a_{12}a_{21}b_{12}b_{21} - a_{11}a_{22}b_{12}b_{21} - a_{12}a_{21}b_{11}b_{22} + a_{11}a_{22}b_{11}b_{22}$$

$$= (a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21})(b_{11}b_{22} - b_{12}b_{21})$$

$$= det(A)det(B)$$

Assume *A* is invertible, then there exists a  $B \in M_2(R)$  such that  $AB = I_2$ . But this means  $det(AB) = det(I_2) = 1$ . Since the determinent is distributive,  $1 = det(AB) = det(A)det(B) \Rightarrow det(B) = det(A)^{-1}$ . That is, det(A) is invertible.

Assume det(A) is invertible and let  $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ .

We see that 
$$det(A) = ad - bc$$
, and  $A \cdot \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} ad - bc & 0 \\ 0 & ad - bc \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = I_2$ . That is,  $A$  is invertible.

Therefore A is invertible if and only if det(A) is invertible in R.

3. What are the zero divisors of  $M_2(R)$ ?

<u>Claim</u>: *A* is a zero divisor if and only if *A* is not invertible.

Assume *A* is is both invertible and a zero divisor. Then there exists a  $0 \neq B \in M_2(R)$  such that AB = 0.  $0 = A^{-1}0 = A^{-1}(AB) = (A^{-1}A)B = I_2B = B$ , but by hypothesis  $B \neq 0$ .

1

The proof of the converse escapes me.

4. Let  $(R,+,\cdot,<)$  be an ordered integral domain. Show that R has a subring which is order isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

Let  $R \supset S^+ = \{1, 1+1, 1+1+1, \ldots\}$ . This set must be infinite, since, if it were not, it would not be ordered (as e but every subset of an ordered set is necessarily ordered. Assume for contradiction that  $S^+$  is not well-ordered; that is, there is some non-empty subset which does not have a leave element. Every subset is bounded below by 1, so 1 is not in this subset. Likewise, if n is not in this subset then n+1 cannot be in this subset since that would then be the least element. This subset must be empty, a contradiction of our assumption that this was a non-empty subset. Therefore  $S^+$  is well ordered.

If we take  $-1 \cdot S^+ = S^-$ , then this is the set of additive inverses of the elements in  $S^+$ . Letting  $S = S^+ \bigcup \{0\} \bigcup S^-$ , we see that we now have additive inverses and Therefore, by Problem 13 on Homework 3, this is order isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

5. Show that  $\mathbb{Q}$  does not satisfy the least upper bound property.

Let  $S = \{p \in \mathbb{Q} | p^2 < 2\}$ . We know that  $p^2 = 2 \Rightarrow p \notin \mathbb{Q}$ . So we want to show that this number is the upper bound. Let  $\alpha = \sup S \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

• Assume  $\alpha^2 > 2$   $\alpha^2 > 2 \Leftrightarrow \alpha^2 + 2\alpha > 2 + 2\alpha \Leftrightarrow \alpha > \frac{2\alpha + 2}{\alpha + 2}$   $(\frac{2\alpha + 2}{\alpha + 2})^2 > 2 \Leftrightarrow 4\alpha^2 + 8\alpha + 4 > 2\alpha^2 + 8\alpha + 8$   $\Leftrightarrow 4\alpha^2 > 2\alpha^2 + 4$   $\Leftrightarrow 2\alpha^2 > 4$ 

So  $\frac{2\alpha+2}{\alpha+2}$  is an upper bound but less than  $\alpha$ , contradicting the assumption that  $\alpha = \sup S$ .

• Assume  $\alpha^2 < 2$ 

Assume 
$$\alpha^{-} < 2$$

$$\alpha^{2} < 2 \Leftrightarrow \alpha^{2} + 2\alpha < 2 + 2\alpha \Leftrightarrow \alpha < \frac{2\alpha + 2}{\alpha + 2}$$

$$(\frac{2\alpha + 2}{\alpha + 2})^{2} < 2 \Leftrightarrow 4\alpha^{2} + 8\alpha + 4 < 2\alpha^{2} + 8\alpha + 8$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 4\alpha^{2} < 2\alpha^{2} + 4$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 2\alpha^{2} < 4$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \alpha^{2} < 2$$

So  $\frac{2\alpha+2}{\alpha+2} \in S$  but greater than  $\alpha$ , contradicting the assumption that  $\alpha = \sup S$ .

Hence the supremum must satisfy  $\alpha^2 = 2$ , but no rational number does this. Therefore we have a bounded set of rationals, S, whose supremum is not in  $\mathbb{Q}$ . That is,  $\mathbb{Q}$  does not satisfy the least upper bound property.

6. Show that there is a bijection from the normal subgroups of  $\frac{G}{N}$  and the normal subgroups of G containing N if  $N \subseteq G$ .

We know that the function defined by  $N \mapsto \varphi^{-1}(N)$  is a bijection between subgroups of  $\frac{G}{N}$  and subgroups of G containing N, so all that is left to show is that, given some  $H \leq G$  and  $\bar{H} = \frac{N}{N} \leq \frac{G}{N}$ , this map preserves normality.

Define  $f: \frac{G}{N} \to \frac{G}{H}$  by f(xN) = xH. Since the subgroups are normal, we see that this is a well-defined homomorphism whose kernel is  $\frac{H}{N}$  and whose image is  $\frac{G}{H}$ . By the first isomorphism theorem we see that  $\frac{G/N}{G/N}$  is isomorphic to  $\frac{G}{H}$ .

I believe this implies our statement about normality, but I'm not sure how.

- 7. Let G be a finite group and H be a subgroup of G with index k. Show that there exists a set of elements  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_k$  in G which can serve as complete coset representatives for both left and right cosets of H.
- 8. Find all possible areas of lattice squares in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Every lattice square in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is generated by constructing a line between the origin and an arbitrary point (a,b) where  $a,b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . The area of this square is  $a^2 + b^2$ , so an integer is the area of a lattice square if and only if it is the sum of two squares. Thus, we must discover which integers are the sum of two squares.

<u>Claim</u>: A positive integer n can be represented as the sum of two squares if and only if its prime factorization contains no odd powers of primes congruent to 3 modulo 4.

- 9. Find all positive integers which can be the length of the hypotenuse of a right triangle with legs of integer length.
- 10. Define a polyhedron in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

It is a union of s-simplices for with  $s \le r$ , that is closed under intersection, and such that the only time that one of simplices is contained in another is as a face. An n-simplex is the convex hull of (n+1) points in some Euclidian space.

11. Find a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{Q}$  which does not converge in  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

Define

$$a_n = \begin{cases} 1 & n = 1\\ \frac{2a_{n-1}+2}{a_{n-1}+2} & n > 1 \end{cases}$$

By the previous problem using this sequence, we see that  $1 > a_2 > a_3 > \ldots > a_n > \ldots > \sqrt{2}$ , so this set is clearly bounded in  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Moreover, this sequence is clearly Cauchy since it is strictly decreasing and bounded. Assume it converges in  $\mathbb{Q}$ , then  $\lim_{n\to\infty}a_n=L$  and  $\lim_{n\to\infty}a_{n+1}=L$ , but  $a_{n+1}=\frac{2a_n+2}{a_n+2}$ . Thus  $\frac{2L+2}{L+2}=L\Rightarrow L^2+2L=2L+2\Rightarrow L=\sqrt{2}$ . But then  $L\notin\mathbb{Q}$ . So  $(a_n)$  is Cauchy but does not converge in  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

12. Show that if  $(a_n)$ ,  $(b_n)$  are Cauchy sequences then  $(a_n + b_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence.

We have  $\forall r > 0 \exists N_1 \in \mathbb{N} \ni m, n > N_1 \Rightarrow |a_n - a_m| < \frac{r}{2} \text{ and } \forall r > 0 \exists N_2 \in \mathbb{N} \ni m, n > N_2 \Rightarrow |b_n - b_m| < \frac{r}{2}$ Let  $N = max(N_1, N_2)$ , then  $\forall r > 0, |(a_n + b_n) - (a_m + b_m)| \le |a_n - a_m| + |b_n - b_m| < \frac{r}{2} + \frac{r}{2} = r$ Therefore if  $(a_n)$  and  $(b_n)$  are Cauchy sequences then so is  $(a_n + b_n)$ .

- 13. Let  $(R, +, \cdot)$  be a ring with one. Show that  $(R^x, \cdot)$  is a group.
  - Associativity is inhereted.
  - Each element has an inverse by definition of  $(R^x, \cdot)$ .
  - $1 \cdot 1 = 1$ , so there is an identity in  $R^x$
  - Let  $a, b \in R^x$ , then  $a^{-1}, b^{-1}$  exist.  $(b^{-1}a^{-1})(ab) = b^{-1}(a^{-1}a)b = b^{-1}b = 1$ . So the operation is an internal law of composition.
- 14. Describe  $(\mathbb{Z}_n^x, \cdot)$  for  $2 \le n \le 16$ .

n	elements	Isomorphic group
2	1	{e}
3	1,2	$(\mathbb{Z}_2,+)$
4	1,3	$(\mathbb{Z}_2,+)$
5	1,2,3,4	$(\mathbb{Z}_4,+)$
6	1,5	$(\mathbb{Z}_2,+)$
7	1,2,3,4,5,6	$(\mathbb{Z}_6,+)$
8	1,3,5,7	$(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2, +)$
9	1,2,4,5,7,8	$(\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_2, +)$
10	1,3,7,9	$(\mathbb{Z}_4,+)$
11	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10	$(\mathbb{Z}_{10},+)$
12	1,5,7,11	$(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2, +)$
13	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12	$(\mathbb{Z}_{12},+)$
14	1,3,5,9,11,13	$(\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_2, +)$
15	1,2,4,7,8,11,13,14	$(\mathbb{Z}_5 \times \mathbb{Z}_3, +)$
16	1,3,5,7,9,11,13,15	$(\mathbb{Z}_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_4, +)$

## 15. Let C be the set of all Cauchy sequences in $\mathbb{Q}$ . Show that $I = \{(a_n) \in C | a_n \to 0\}$ is a maximal ideal.

First we show that I is an ideal. Let  $(a_n), (b_n) \in I$ , then we have  $\forall r > 0 \exists N_1 \in \mathbb{N} \ni n > N \Rightarrow |a_n| < \frac{r}{2}$  and  $\forall r > 0 \exists N_2 \in \mathbb{N} \ni n > N_2 \Rightarrow |b_n| < \frac{r}{2}$ . Let  $N = \max(N_1, N_2)$  then  $\forall r > 0$  we have  $|a_n + b_n| \le |a_n| + |b_n| < \frac{r}{2} + \frac{r}{2} = r$ . Therefore  $(a_n), (b_n) \in I \Rightarrow (a_n + b_n) \in I$ . Now, let  $(b_n) \in C$ . Because  $(b_n)$  is Cauchy it is eventually bounded from above by some constant, call it A. Choose N so that  $|a_n| < \frac{r}{A}$ . Then  $|a_n b_n| < \frac{r}{A}A = r$  for  $n \ge N$ . I is therefore an ideal of C.

To prove that I is maximal it suffices to show that for any  $(a_k) \in C$  the ideal generated by I and  $(a_k)$  is equal to C. Because  $(a_k) \notin I$  there is an M such that  $a_k$  is always nonzero for  $k \ge M$ . Define  $r_k$  as follows  $(b_k)$  is any element of C:

$$r_k = \begin{cases} \frac{b_k}{a_k} & k \ge M \\ 1 & k < M \end{cases}$$

 $r_k$  is Cauchy since,

$$\left| \frac{a_n}{b_n} - \frac{a_m}{b_m} \right| = \frac{1}{|a_n a_m|} |b_n a_m - a_n b_m|$$

If we choose *P* such that  $|a_k| \ge P$  for sufficiently large *k* and choose *K* such that  $|b_k| \le K$  for sufficiently large *k* we have

$$\left|\frac{a_n}{b_n} - \frac{a_m}{b_m}\right| \le \frac{K}{P^2} |a_n - a_m|$$

for sufficiently large m,n. That this is Cauchy follows immediately from our assumption that  $(a_k)$  is Cauchy. Let  $i_k = b_k - r_k a_k$  and note that this is eventually zero, i.e.,  $(i_k) \in I$ . Now  $(b_k) = (r_k)(a_k) + (i_k)$ , but the terms on the right-hand side belong to the ideal generated by I and  $(a_k)$ . Therefore  $(b_k)$  is in this ideal, i.e., this ideal is all of C. Therefore, I is a maximal ideal.