

Abstract algebra I Homework 2

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1)

(a)

Take the sum of 14 and 13, and it's 27 modulo 30, $27 \notin G_1$ thus, G_1 is not a subgroup of G .

(b)

We can show that the subset G_2 is a subgroup of G by showing G_2 is non-empty and closed under addition (+) and inverses:

- The identity element of G_2 is 0, since the result of $g + 0 = 0 + g = g$ modulo 30 is unchanged.
- $0 + 0 \equiv 0 \pmod{30}$, thus, $g^{-1} = 0$ when $g = 0$. All the other non-zero elements $\in G_2$ can be written as the form $2k, k \in [1, 14], k \in \mathbb{N}$. Assume $g = 2k$, then there must exist an element $h = 2(15 - k) \in G_2$ such that $g + h \equiv 0 \pmod{30}$. Thus, every element in G_2 has an inverse element in G_2 .
- Take the sum of any two elements $x, y \in G_2$. Their sum is even, and the result modulo 30 must be an even number less than 30, which implies $x + y \in G_2$. Thus, G_2 is closed under addition.

(c)

Take the sum of 1 and 29, and it's 0 modulo 30, $0 \notin G_3$ thus, G_3 is not a subgroup of G .

2)

(i)

Proof. Since H is not empty, we can choose $x, y \in G$.

By the closedness of inverse, the inverse of x exists and belongs to the H , let $y = x^{-1}$.

By the closedness of $*$, $x * x^{-1} = e \in H$, where e is the identity element of H . Thus, the identity of H exists.

Since H is closed under products, and inverse for each element exists, and the identity for H exists. It's a group and $H \subset G$, so H is a subgroup of G . \square

(ii)

For simplicity, I denote the determinant of a n by n matrix A as $|A|$.

Since the determinant of an identity matrix I_n is 1, $SL_n(\mathbb{R}) \neq \emptyset$.

For any matrices $a, b \in SL_n(\mathbb{R})$, suppose $c = ab$, then c must be a real matrix (all entries are real), also, $|c| = |a||b| = 1 * 1 = 1$, the determinant of c is also 1. Thus, $c \in SL_n(\mathbb{R})$. Here proves the closedness of matrix multiplication.

Claim 1: Real $n \times n$ matrix A is invertible if and only if $|A| \neq 0$

Proof. Suppose A is invertible, then there exists a matrix B such that $AB = I$. $|I| = |A||B| = 1$, $|A|$ can't be zero.

Assume $|A| \neq 0$, then $B = \frac{1}{|A|} \text{adj}(A)$ (B is also a real $n \times n$ matrix) satisfies $AB = BA = I$ where $\text{adj}(A)$ is the classical adjoint matrix of A and I is the identity matrix.

Thus, $|A| \neq 0$ is necessary and sufficient. \square

By claim 1, every element in $SL_n(\mathbb{R})$ has its inverse due to their non-zero determinant. Suppose A is any matrix in $SL_n(\mathbb{R})$, and its inverse is A^{-1} , then $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$, $|A||A^{-1}| = |I| = 1$, thus, $|A^{-1}| = 1$.

Hence, the inverse of A , i.e., A^{-1} is also in $SL_n(\mathbb{R})$. Here the closedness of inverse is proved. By the subgroup criterion proved in 2(i), $SL_n(\mathbb{R})$ is a subgroup of $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$.

3)**(a)**

First, we need to prove that the set S_n has $n!$ elements.

Proof. Let's call the two sets A and B . $A = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, $B = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. And A is mapped to B .

Since the map is bijective, for 1 in A , there are n choices to be mapped, after 1 is mapped, 2 in A has $n - 1$ choices to be mapped, and so on.

Thus, there are $n(n - 1)(n - 1) \dots 1 = n!$ types of bijection. \square

Then we need to show that S_n is a group (there the operation is the composition of two bijective functions)

Proof. For the closedness, if $f, g \in S_n$, then their composition (written as $(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x))$) is also bijective trivially. Thus, $f \circ g \in S_n$.

For the associativity, suppose we have three bijections $f, g, h \in S_n$, take any integer $x \in 1, 2, \dots, n$. Then $f \circ (g \circ h)(x) = f \circ g(h(x)) = f(g(h(x)))$ and $(f \circ g) \circ h(x) = (f \circ g)(h(x)) = f(g(h(x)))$. The composition of bijections are associative.

The identity element in S_n is the mapping $\text{id} : \{1, 2, \dots, n\} \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ such that for every element τ in S_n , we have $\text{id} \circ \tau(x) = \tau \circ \text{id}(x)$, where $x \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

Since every element in S_n is a bijective mapping, by definition, we must can find an inverse operation/element for every element in S_n . \square

In conclusion, S_n is a group with order $n!$.

(b)

Let's call the subset H ($H \subset S_2$). Obviously the H is not empty. For compositions of any $\tau, \sigma \in H$, we have a bijection fixing 1 again, thus, H is closed under the composition.

Since every bijection has its inverse operation, also, $\forall \sigma \in H$, 1 is fixed (always mapped to 1), σ^{-1} is also a bijection fixing 1, which implies $\sigma^{-1} \in H$. Thus, H is closed under taking inverses.

Hence, by the subgroup criterion proved in 2(i), the given subset is a subgroup of S_4 .

Since the subset is the collection of bijections fixing 1, the bijective mapping $\{2, 3, 4\} \rightarrow \{2, 3, 4\}$ have $3!$ possibilities by the proposition in 3(a). Hence, the order of the group is 6.

(c)

The identity element in the group for matrices multiplication is the identity matrix $I_{2 \times 2}$.

For a , $a = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $a^2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$, $a^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $a^4 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = I_{2 \times 2}$. Thus, $o(a) = 4$. For b , $b = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$, $b^2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $b^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = I_{2 \times 2}$, thus, $o(b) = 3$.

4)

(a)

Theorem 1. Bézout's identity

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, ab \neq 0$

$d = \gcd(a, b)$ be the greatest common divisor of a and b .

Then $\exists x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $ax + by = d$. Also, d is the smallest positive integer combination of a and b .

Proof. Given any two non-zero integer a, b , Let set $S = \{ax + by : x, y \in \mathbb{Z} \wedge ax + by > 0\}$

It's trivial that S is not an empty set (For example, $a > 0, x = 1, y = 0$ or $a < 0, x = 1, y = 0$, $ax + by \in S$, thus, S is not an empty set). Since all elements in S are positive integers, by well ordering principle, S contains a least element d . And write it as the form $d = au + bv$, where u and v are integers.

Consider a 's euclidean division: $a = qd + r, q \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 \leq r < d$, we have:

$$r = a - qd = a - q(au + bv) = a(1 - qu) - bq v$$

Because both $1 - qu$ and qv are integers, $r \in S \cup \{0\}$ (because $0 \leq r < d$). Also, d is the least element in S , this implies that r is not belonging to S , it must be 0. Thus, $d|a$. Similarly, $d|b$.

Consider arbitrary common divisor c of a, b , $\exists s, t$ such that $a = cs, b = ct$. So, $d = au + bv = c(us + vt)$, because $us + vt \in \mathbb{Z}$, we know $c|d \wedge c \leq d$.

Since d is greater than all divisors, $d = \gcd(a, b)$, it's also the least element in S by previous definition. \square

For simplicity, for a generator c of a cyclic group, the order of it I may type it as $|x|$ or $o(x)$, so are the order of groups.

Claim 2: If x is the generator of cyclic group H , then the order of H is the same as $|x|$ (If one side of this equality is infinite, so is the other).

Proof. Let $|x| = n$ and first consider the case when $n < \infty$. The elements $1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{n-1}$ are distinct since if $x^a = x^b, 0 \leq a < b < n$ then $x^{b-a} = 1$, which contradict n being the smallest positive power give the identity. Also, we can write any integer power t as the form $t = ns + r, 0 \leq r < n$. Hence, $x^t = x^{ns+r} = (x^n)^s x^r = x^r \in \{1, x, \dots, x^{n-1}\}$, x can generate all elements in H .

Suppose $|x| = \infty$ so no power of x is the identity, If $x^a = x^b$ for some a and b , with $a < b$, then $x^{b-a} = 1$ induced a contradiction. Distinct power of x are distinct elements of $|H|$, so $|H| = \infty$ is true. \square

Claim 3: Let G be an arbitrary group, $x \in G$ and let $m, n, n\mathbb{Z}$. If $x^n = 1$ and $x^m = 1$, then $x^d = 1$, where $d = (m, n)$ In particular, if $x^m = 1$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $|x|$ divides m .

Proof. By Theorem 1 there exists integers a and b such that $d = an + bm$, $d = (m, n)$. Thus, $x^d = x^{an+bm} = (x^n)^a (x^m)^b = 1$, this proves the first assertion.

If $x^m = 1$, let $n = |x|$. If $m = 0$, $n|m$ is trivially true. Assume m is not zero, by preceding result, $x^d = 1, d = (m, n)$. Since $0 < d \leq n$ and n is the smallest positive power of x which gives the identity, we must have $d = n$, that is $n|m$ as the claim said. \square

Claim 4: Let G be a group, let $x \in G$ and let $a \in \mathbb{Z} - \{0\}$, if $o(x) = n < \infty$, then $o(x^a) = \frac{n}{(n,a)}$.

Proof. Let $y = x^a$, $(n, a) = d$ and write $n = db, a = dc$ for suitable $b, c \in \mathbb{Z}, b > 0$. Since d is the greatest common divisor, b and c are coprime, i.e., $(b, c) = 1$

Note that $y^b = x^{ab} = x^{bdc} = (x^n)^c = 1$. By Claim 3 applied to $\langle y \rangle$, we have $|y||b|$. Let $k = |y|$. Then $x^{ak} = y^k = 1$.

By Claim 3 applied to $\langle x \rangle$, $n|ak$, i.e., $db|dck$, thus $b|ck$. Since $(b, c) = 1$, $b|k$. Since b and $|y|$ divides each other, we have $|y| = o(y) = b$, i.e., $o(x^a) = \frac{n}{(n,a)}$. \square

Claim 5: Let $H = \langle x \rangle$. Assume $o(x) = n < \infty$. Then $H = \langle x^a \rangle$ if and only if $(a, n) = 1$.

Proof. If $|x| = n < \infty$. Claim 2 says x^a generates a subgroup of H of order $|x^a|$. The subgroup equals $|H|$ only when $|x| = |x^a|$. By Claim 4, $|x^a| = |x|$ if and only if $\frac{n}{(a,n)} = n$, i.e., $(n, a) = 1$. \square

What we want to prove is $(k, n) = 1$ is sufficient and necessary for g^k being a generator of G .

For the sufficiency of $(k, n) = 1$, by Theorem 1, there must exist $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $an + bk = 1$. Since, $an + bk = 1$, $bk = -an + 1$ and $(bt)k = -(at)n + t$. We have $g^{(bt)k} = g^{-(at)n} g^t$, and $(g^k)^{bt} = g^t$. For integer $t \in [1, n]$, g^k can generate the group $\{1, g, g^2, \dots, g^{n-1}\}$.

Claim 5 already proves the necessity. Hence, if g is a generator of G , then g^k is a generator of G iff $(n, k) = 1$.

(b)

Claim 6: Every subgroup of H is cyclic. More precisely, if $K \leq H$, then either $K = \{1\}$ or $K = \langle x^d \rangle$, where d is the smallest positive integer such that $x^d \in K$.

Proof. Let $K \leq H$. If $K = \{1\}$, the claim is true for the subgroup. Assume $K \neq \{1\}$. Thus $\exists a \neq 0$ such that $x^a \in K$. Since K is a group, $x^{-a} = (x^a)^{-1} \in K$, K always contains some positive power of x . Define P as:

$$P = \{b | b \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \text{ and } x^b \in K\}$$

\square

By proposition above, P is obviously a nonempty set of positive integers. Also by well ordering principle, P has a minimum element d . Because K is a subgroup and $x^d \in K$, cyclic group $\langle x^d \rangle \leq K$. All elements in K have the form x^a for some integers a , we can write it as $a = qd + r$ where $0 \leq r < d$.

Then $x^r = x^a(x^d)^{-q} \in K$ since both x^a and x^d are in K . The only possibility of r is zero since d is the minimum element of P . Thus, $x^a = (x^d)^q \in \langle x^d \rangle$. We now have $K \leq \langle x^d \rangle$.

Hence, $K = \langle x^d \rangle$ and the claim is proved.

Let $d = \frac{n}{m}$ and apply claim 4, we obtain that $\langle x^d \rangle$ is a subgroup of order m , which proves the existence of a subgroup of order m .

Suppose K is any subgroup of G of order m . By claim 6 we have $K = \langle x^b \rangle$ where b is the smallest positive integer such that $x^b \in K$.

By claim 4:

$$\frac{n}{d} = m = |K| = |x^b| = \frac{n}{\gcd(n, b)}$$

Hence, $d = (n, b)$, and $d|b$. Since b is a multiple of d , $x^b \in \langle x^d \rangle$. So $K = \langle x^b \rangle \leq \langle x^d \rangle$. Since $|\langle x^d \rangle| = m = |K|$ we have $K = \langle x^d \rangle$. Here proves the uniqueness of subgroup with order m .

(c)

5)**(a)***Proof.*

□

(b)**(c)**

Since elements in the abelian group $(G, *)$ are commutative, i.e., for any $a, b \in G$, we have $a * b = b * a$.

Let's choose one arbitrary elements g , consider the subgroup as $B = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\}$. Then $gB = \{g * a_1, g * a_2, \dots, g * a_m\}$, and $Bg = \{a_1 * g, a_2 * g, \dots, a_m * g\}$. since $g * a_i = a_i * g$ for all i , we have $gB = Bg$.

Hence, by the definition, every subgroup of an abelian group is normal.

(d)