

Homework #3 Solutions

p 23, #4. $s = -3$ and $t = 2$ work since

$$7s + 11t = -21 + 22 = 1.$$

These choices are not unique since $s = 8$, $t = -5$ also work:

$$7s + 11t = 56 - 55 = 1.$$

p 24, #30. Given any integer n , at least one of the three consecutive numbers $n - 1$, n , $n + 1$ must be divisible by 2 and at least one of them must be divisible by 3. Therefore the product $(n - 1)n(n + 1) = n(n^2 - 1) = n^3 - n$ must be divisible by $2 \cdot 3 = 6$. It follows that n^3 and n must have the same remainder when divided by 6, i.e. $n^3 \bmod 6 = n \bmod 6$.

p 54, #8 We must verify that the 4 group axioms hold for the set $S = \{5, 15, 25, 35\}$ together with the operation of multiplication modulo 40. Since we know that this operation is associative on all of \mathbb{Z}_n , it will be associative on S as well. We need only verify closure, the existence of an identity, and the existence of inverses. We can do this by building a Cayley table for S :

	5	15	25	35
5	25	35	5	15
15	35	25	15	5
25	5	15	25	35
35	15	5	35	25

The table shows that S is closed under multiplication mod 40, that 25 is the identity of S , and, since 25 appears in each row, every element has an inverse. In fact, each element is its own inverse!

To compare S to $U(8) = \{1, 3, 5, 7\}$, we examine the Cayley table of the latter:

	3	5	1	7
3	1	7	3	5
5	7	1	5	3
1	3	5	1	7
7	5	3	7	1

If we swap symbols in this table according to the following rules

$$1 \leftrightarrow 25, 3 \leftrightarrow 5, 5 \leftrightarrow 15, 7 \leftrightarrow 35$$

then the Cayley table for $U(8)$ is transformed into the Cayley table for S . That is, aside from the way we have labeled our elements, $U(8)$ and S are the *same group*.

p 54, #12. If $n > 2$ then clearly $1, n - 1 \in U(n)$ and $n - 1 \neq 1$. We claim that these both satisfy the equation $x^2 = 1$. This is obvious for 1 and easy to show for $n - 1$:

$$(n - 1)^2 \bmod n = (n^2 - 2n + 1) \bmod n = (n(n - 2) + 1) \bmod n = 1.$$

Handout problem #1. Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $a \bmod n = b \bmod n$ and suppose $(a, n) = 1$. We can write

$$\begin{aligned} a &= qn + r \\ b &= pn + r \end{aligned}$$

where $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r = a \bmod n = b \bmod n$. But then

$$a = qn + r = qn + (b - pn) = b + (q - p)n.$$

Suppose that $d \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ divides both b and n . Then $b = db'$ and $n = dn'$ for some $b', n' \in \mathbb{Z}$. It follows that

$$a = db' + (q - p)dn' = d(b' + (q - p)n')$$

so that d divides a . But d also divides n and $(a, n) = 1$. It follows that $d = 1$. That is, the only divisor common to both b and n is 1, i.e. $(b, n) = 1$.

We now use this to prove that $U(n)$ is closed under multiplication modulo n . Let $a, b \in U(n)$. Then $(a, n) = (b, n) = 1$ so that $(ab, n) = 1$ as well. Let $r = (ab) \bmod n \in \mathbb{Z}_n$. Then $r \bmod n = r = (ab) \bmod n$, so by the preceding paragraph we must have $(r, n) = 1$. That is, $r \in U(n)$, as needed.

Handout problem #2. If $a \bmod n = b \bmod n$ then, as above, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} a &= qn + r \\ b &= pn + r \end{aligned}$$

where $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r = a \bmod n = b \bmod n$. If $g^n = e$ it follows that

$$g^a = g^{qn+r} = (g^n)^q g^r = e g^r = (g^n)^p g^r = g^{pn+r} = g^b.$$

p 67, #4. We first prove the following: Let G be a group and let $a \in G$. Then for any integer n , $a^n = e$ if and only if $(a^{-1})^n = e$. The proof is simple: if $a^n = e$ then

$$e = e^{-1} = (a^n)^{-1} = (a^{-1})^n$$

and the converse is established by replacing a with a^{-1} throughout.

This result implies that the positive integers that annihilate a are the same as those that annihilate a^{-1} . Hence, the order, which is the smallest positive integer annihilating a given element, must be the same for both a and a^{-1} .

p 67, #10. Let G be an Abelian group and suppose $a, b \in G$, $a \neq b$ and $|a| = |b| = 2$. Let

$$H = \{e, a, b, ab\}.$$

Claim 1: H has order 4. Since $|a| = |b| = 2$, $a \neq e$ and $b \neq e$. Since $a \neq e$ we must show that $ab \neq a$, $ab \neq b$ and $ab \neq e$. If $ab = a$ or $ab = b$, then left or right cancelation imply $b = e$ or $a = e$, either of which is a contradiction. If $ab = e$ then

$$b = eb = a^2b = a(ab) = ae = a$$

which is also a contradiction.

Claim 2: H is a subgroup of G . This is easily seen using the finite subgroup test and a Cayley table:

	e	a	b	ab
e	e	a	b	ab
a	a	e	ab	b
b	b	ab	e	a
ab	ab	b	a	e

Here we have made repeated use of the facts: $a^2 = b^2 = e$, $ab = ba$. The table shows that H is closed under the operation of G , so the finite subgroup test implies H is a subgroup of G .

p 67, #12. We are given that $H < \mathbb{Z}$ and $18, 30, 40 \in H$. Since H is a subgroup it is closed under addition and subtraction. Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} 12 &= 30 - 18 \in H \\ 6 &= 18 - 12 \in H \\ 34 &= 40 - 6 \in H \\ 2 &= 6 \cdot 6 - 34 \in H \end{aligned}$$

Again, closure implies that H must contain all the multiples of 2. If H contained any odd integer, say $2n + 1$, then we'd have

$$1 = (2n + 1) - n \cdot 2 \in H$$

which would mean that $H = \mathbb{Z}$, which contradicts our hypothesis. Thus, H must consist of exactly the even integers, i.e.

$$H = \{2n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \langle 2 \rangle.$$

p 68, #14. Let G be a group and $H, K \leq G$. We apply the one-step subgroup test to show that $H \cap K \leq G$. First of all, $H \cap K \neq \emptyset$ since $e \in H \cap K$. Now let $a, b \in H \cap K$. Then $a, b \in H$ and, since $H \leq G$, $ab^{-1} \in H$. But also $a, b \in K$ and $K \leq G$ so that $ab^{-1} \in K$. Therefore $ab^{-1} \in H \cap K$. Since a and b were arbitrary, we conclude that for any $a, b \in H \cap K$ we have $ab^{-1} \in H \cap K$. By the one-step subgroup test we conclude that $H \cap K \leq G$.

p 69, #28. We see that

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

so that $|A| = 4$. Likewise:

$$\begin{aligned}B^2 &= \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\B^3 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = I\end{aligned}$$

so that $|B| = 3$. However

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

and we showed in class that $|AB| = \infty$. The moral here is that it is possible for group elements with finite order to multiply together to yield an element of infinite order.