

Homework 1, Solutions

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1.1 Group definition

Exercise 1.1.1. Given a semi-group (X, \cdot) with a left-neutral element (i.e. $e \in X$ such that for all $a \in X$: $ea = a$) and left-inverses (for all $a \in X$ there is an $a_L \in X$ such that $a_L a = e$), show that (X, \cdot) is a group.

What happens when we require a right-neutral and right-inverse elements?

Solution. First note that $aa_L = e_L aa_L = a_{LL}(a_L a)a_L = a_{LL}(e_L a_L) = a_{LL}a_L = e_L$ shows that a_L is also a right-inverse. Secondly note that $ae_L = (aa^{-1})a = e_L a = a$. This shows that e_L is the neutral element.

In the converse case note the anti-homomorphism $T: (X, \cdot) \rightarrow (X, \cdot) : g_1 \cdots g_n \mapsto g_n \cdots g_1$ which maps $(gh)^T = h^T g^T$, but otherwise preserves the structure and thus reduces the right-neutral and right-inverse to a left-neutral and left-inverse. \square

Exercise 1.1.2. Let (X, \cdot) be a semi-group and assume for every $a, b \in X$ the equations $ax = b$ and $ya = b$ have a solution. Show that (X, \cdot) is a group.

Solution. Let $a \in X$ be any element and $e_{aL} \in X$ the solution of $xa = a$. Then there is for every $b \in X$ a $b_L \in X$ such that $b_L b = e_{aL}$. But also a y such that $ay = b$. Therefore $e_{aL} b = e_{aL} ay = ay = b$. Thus e_{aL} is a left-neutral element for the whole operation \cdot . Now the last exercise shows that (X, \cdot) is a group. \square

Exercise 1.1.3. a. Let (X, \cdot) be a finite semi-group. Assume that for every $a \in X$ the cancellation law holds, i.e. $ab = ac$ implies $b = c$ and $ba = ca$ implies $b = c$. Show that (X, \cdot) is a group.

b. Given an example of an infinite semigroup where the cancellation law holds, but that is not a group.

Solution.

- a. The cancellation laws show that $a \cdot : X \rightarrow X$ and $\cdot a : X \rightarrow X$ are injective. Because X is finite, this implies that they are also surjective. I.e. for every pair $a, b \in X$ there are $x, y \in X$ with $ax = b = ya$. Therefore the last exercise this shows that (X, \cdot) is a group.
- b. The example $(\mathbb{N}_+, +)$ shows that the cancellation laws (which hold, because $(\mathbb{N}_+, +) \subset (\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is a semi-subgroup) alone are not enough.

□

Exercise 1.1.4. Describe the group of symmetries of the sine curve ($y = \sin x$ over the real numbers), i.e. list all its elements and write a multiplication table (compactly).

Solution. The known symmetry properties are sin is odd (point symmetry/ rotation ρ by 180°) and period length $p = 2\pi$ (translation symmetry τ). But we also know that sin is axial symmetric about $x = \pi/2$ (reflection symmetry σ). This gives the symmetry group $S = \langle \rho, \tau, \sigma \rangle \subset \text{ISO}(\mathbb{R}^2)$ or as table:

| id | τ^n | $\sigma\tau^n$ | $\rho\tau^n$ | $\sigma\rho\tau^n$ |
|--------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| τ^m | τ^{m+n} | $\sigma\tau^{n-m}$ | $\rho\tau^{n-m}$ | $\sigma\rho\tau^{n+m}$ |
| $\sigma\tau^m$ | $\sigma\tau^{m+n}$ | τ^{n-m} | $\sigma\rho\tau^{n-m}$ | $\rho\tau^{n+m}$ |
| $\rho\tau^m$ | $\rho\tau^{m+n}$ | $\sigma\rho\tau^{n-m-2}$ | τ^{n-m} | $\sigma\tau^{n+m+2}$ |
| $\sigma\rho\tau^m$ | $\sigma\rho\tau^{m+n}$ | $\rho\tau^{n-m-2}$ | $\sigma\tau^{n-m}$ | τ^{n+m+2} |

Remark. We can thus write down the group compactly $S = \langle \tau, \sigma, \rho : \sigma^2 = \text{id} = \rho^2, \rho\tau\rho = \tau^{-1}, \sigma\tau\sigma = \tau^{-1}, \sigma\rho\sigma = \rho\tau^{-2} \rangle$.

Remark. There is a cyclic subgroup $\langle \tau \rangle \subset S$ of the translations, which is the elementary lattice.

To show that *these are all symmetries*, note that every symmetry of the sine curve preserves the x -axis and is thus either a horizontal translation, a reflection on a vertical line, or a rotation by 180° about a point on the x -axis. Due to the discretely periodic nature of the sin-curve, all possible symmetries are thus the listed ones. □

Exercise 1.1.5. Given a group (G, \cdot) . Show that $a^m a^n = a^{m+n}$ for all $a \in G$ and $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ where a^m has the usual meaning, i.e. $a^m = \underbrace{aa \cdots a}_{m \text{ times}}$ for $m > 0$, $a^0 = \text{id}$ and $a^{-m} = (a^m)^{-1}$. Show moreover $(a^m)^n = a^{mn}$ for the same elements.

Solution. Denote $\langle a \rangle$ the cyclic group generated by a . Due to associativity this group is abelian, i.e. $a^n a^m = a^{n+m} = a^m a^n$ as can be checked by making the distinction $n \geq 0$, or $n < 0$. Once this is proven, it is also clear that $(a^m)^n = a^{mn}$, again by the 2 cases for n . \square

- Exercise 1.1.6.** a. Show that a finite group with an even number of elements contains an even number of elements x such that $x^{-1} = x$.
- b. State and prove a similar statement for finite groups with an odd number of elements.

Solution. Let $\Omega_2 := \{x \in G : x^2 = \text{id}\}$ and $C := G \setminus \Omega_2$. For $x \in C$ we have $x^{-1} \neq x$ and thus $x^{-1} \in C$, i.e. the elements of C come in pairs. If G is finite, then C is also finite and has thus an even number of elements. This leads to:

- a. If $(G : 1)$ is even, then $|\Omega_2|$ is also even.
- b. If $(G : 1)$ is odd, then also $|\Omega_2|$ is odd.

\square

1.2 Subgroups and homomorphisms

Exercise 1.2.1. Given a group G and a family of subgroups $\{S_\alpha \subset G : \alpha \in A\}$. Show that

- a. The intersection $\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} S_\alpha$ is a subgroup;
- b. if all $S_\alpha \triangleleft G$ are normal, then the intersection is also normal.

Solution. Let S_\cap be the mentioned intersection.

- a. Since for all $\alpha \in A$, $\text{id}_G \in S_\alpha$, we also have $\text{id}_G \in S_\cap$. Moreover if $g \in S_\cap$, then $g \in S_\alpha$ for all $\alpha \in A$. But then also $g^{-1} \in S_\alpha$ for the same α and thus $g^{-1} \in S_\cap$. Due to the same argument $g, h \in S_\cap$ implies $g, h \in S_\alpha$ for all $\alpha \in A$. But then $gh \in S_\alpha$ and thus $gh \in S_\cap$. This proves that S_\cap is a subgroup.
- b. Let now $S_\alpha \triangleleft G$ be normal subgroups. Then for every $g \in G$ we have $ghg^{-1} \in S_\alpha$. But then also $ghg^{-1} \in S_\cap$. In total $gS_\cap g^{-1} \subset S_\cap$. Since this is true for all $g \in G$, $S_\cap \triangleleft G$ as required.

□

Exercise 1.2.2. Let $G = D_n$ and $H = \{\text{id}, \tau\}$. Show that for $n \geq 3$ the partition into left-cosets is different from the partition into right-cosets.

Solution. Let $\sigma \in D_n$ be a reflection, i.e. $\sigma^2 = \text{id}$. Then $\sigma H = \{\sigma, \sigma\tau\}$ while $H\sigma = \{\sigma, \sigma\tau^{-1}\}$. For $n \geq 3$ we know that $\tau^{-1} = \tau^{n-1} \neq \tau$ and therefore these two sets do not coincide. □

Exercise 1.2.3. a. Give a group together with two subgroups whose union is not a subgroup.

b. Given a group G together with two subgroups $S_{1/2} \subset G$. Show that $S_1 \cup S_2$ is a subgroup iff $S_1 \subset S_2$ or $S_2 \subset S_1$.

Solution.

a. Let $G = C_2 \times C_2 := \{(a, b) : a, b \in C_2 \cong \mathbb{Z}/(2)\}$ with componentwise operation. Then $C_{0,1} := \text{id} \times C_2$ and $C_{1,0} := C_2 \times \text{id}$ are subgroups, but their union is $G \setminus \{(1, 1)\}$, has only 3 elements and is thus not a subgroup.

b. The cases $S_1 \subset S_2$ and $S_2 \subset S_1$ are clear. Conversely we assume that $S_1 \cup S_2 \subset G$ is a subgroup. If neither subgroup is contained in the other one, then there are $g \in S_1 \setminus S_2$ and $h \in S_2 \setminus S_1$. We know that $y := gh \in S_1 \cup S_2$. W.l.o.g. let $y \in S_1$. But then $h = g^{-1}y \in S_1$ in contradiction to the assumption. Therefore the assumption is wrong and the original claim must be true.

□

Exercise 1.2.4. Show that every group of prime order is simple (i.e. has only trivial subgroups) and cyclic.

Solution. Let G be of prime order $p \in \mathbb{P}$. Lagrange's theorem shows that every subgroup $S \subset G$ has order $d|p$. But the only positive divisors of p are 1 and p . $(S : 1) = 1$ implies $S = \{\text{id}\}$ the trivial subgroup and $(S : 1) = p$ implies $S = G$ the other trivial subgroup.

Consider now the order of the elements $g \in G$. Since $\text{ord } g = (\langle g \rangle : 1)|(G : 1)$ these are also either 1 or p . For $\text{ord } g = 1$ we conclude $g = \text{id}$ and in the other case that $G = \langle g \rangle$ and in particular cyclic. This completes the proof. □

Exercise* 1.2.5. Given a (finite) group G . A subgroup $M \subset G$ is called *maximal* iff it is different from G ($M \neq G$) and there is no subgroup properly in between ($M \subsetneq S \subsetneq G$). Show that every subgroup $H \subsetneq G$ that does not coincide with G is contained in a maximal subgroup.

Solution. The subgroup inclusion pattern is a *partial order*, i.e. any two $S, T \subset G$ can be related as $S \subset T$ or $T \subset S$ or not related at all, and if they are the first two, then $S = T$. Note also that all inclusion chains $S_0 \subset S_1 \subset \dots$ have G as the upper bound. By a proposition in class the supremum $S_\infty := \bigcup_{n \geq 0} S_n$ is a subgroup of G as well.

Therefore given any subgroup H , then we can write down the whole inclusion pattern from H to G . Going along any maximal branch $H = S_0 \subset S_1 \subset S_2 \subset \dots \subset G$ and omitting G , we see that S_∞ as defined above is a maximal subgroup (because the branch was maximal). Also $H = S_0 \subset S_\infty$ is contained in it. This completes the proof.

Note that the existence of maximal branches requires that either the group is finite or Zorn's lemma (or the axiom of choice). \square

Exercise 1.2.6. Given a group G together with two subgroups $H, K \subset G$. Show that the intersection of a left-coset of H with a left-coset of K is either empty or a left-coset of $H \cap K$.

Solution. Let L_H be a left-coset of H , L_K be a left-coset of K , $L := L_H \cap L_K$ their intersection, and $S := H \cap K$ the intersection of the two subgroups. Assume further that $g \in L$, i.e. the intersection is not empty. Obviously $g \in L_H$ implies $L_H = gH$ and conversely $L_K = gK$. But then $gS \subset L$. On the other hand for $g' \in L$ there is an $h \in H$ and a $k \in K$ such that $gh = g' = gk$. Since G is a group (multiplication with g^{-1} from the left yields) $h = k \in H \cap K = S$. This completes the proof. \square

Exercise 1.2.7. Given a group isomorphism $\phi: G \rightarrow H$ show that its inverse $\phi^{-1}: H \rightarrow G: \phi(g) \mapsto g$ is also a group homomorphism.

Solution. Denote $\phi^{-1}: H \rightarrow G: \phi(g) \mapsto g$ the inverse map. Since ϕ is a bijection, this is well defined. Also since ϕ is a homomorphism, we know that $\phi(g_1)\phi(g_2) = \phi(g_1g_2)$, i.e. $\phi^{-1}(h_1h_2) = g_1g_2 = \phi^{-1}(h_1)\phi^{-1}(h_2)$ for $\phi(g_i) = h_i$. But this is the homomorphism property. \square

Exercise 1.2.8. Given a group homomorphism $\phi: G \rightarrow H$.

- a. Assume that $N \triangleleft H$ is a normal subgroup. Show that $\phi^{-1}(N) \triangleleft G$ is a normal subgroup.

- b. Assume that ϕ is surjective and $N \triangleleft G$ is a normal subgroup of G . Show that $\phi(N) \triangleleft H$ is a normal subgroup.
- c. Find an example of a group homomorphism and a normal subgroup such that the image of the normal subgroup is not normal.

Solution. Note that the map $\phi^{-1}: 2^H \rightarrow 2^G$ also maps cosets to cosets, i.e. for $N' := \phi^{-1}(N) \subset G$, then $\phi^{-1}(hN) = gN'$ if there is a $g \in G$ with $\phi(g) = h$ (i.e. $h \in \text{im } \phi$) and $\phi^{-1}(Nh) = N'g$.

- a. It follows that $gN' = \phi^{-1}(hN) = \phi^{-1}(Nh) = N'g$ for $h = \phi(g)$, i.e. the left-cosets coincide with the right-cosets.
- b. Let conversely ϕ be surjective, $N \triangleleft G$ be a normal subgroup and $N'' := \phi(N)$. We have shown in the lecture that $N'' \subset H$ is a subgroup. Then $hN'' = \phi(gN) = \phi(Ng) = N''h$ for any $g \in G$ with $\phi(g) = h$. But since ϕ is surjective, there is always such a g .
- c. We thus need a map that is not surjective and moreover $N_H(\phi(N)) \neq H$, i.e. in particular $\phi(N), H \setminus \phi(N) \not\subset \text{cent } H$. This said, we try, e.g. $G = D_2$, $S = \langle \sigma \rangle \triangleleft G$ the subgroup generated by a rotation, and $H = D_4$. ($S \triangleleft D_2$, because $D_2 \cong C_2 \times C_2$ is abelian.) Then $\phi: D_2 \rightarrow D_4: \sigma \mapsto \sigma, \tau_2 \mapsto \tau_4^2$ maps $\phi(N) = \langle \sigma \rangle$. Now $N_H(\langle \sigma \rangle) = \langle \sigma, \tau_4^2 \rangle \subsetneq H$ and therefore S is not normal in H . This is actually the example that follows from the next exercise.

□

Exercise 1.2.9. Show that D_4 contains subgroups $A \subset N \subset D_4$ such that $A \triangleleft N$ and $N \triangleleft D_4$, but not $A \triangleleft D_4$.

Solution. Let $N := \langle \sigma, \tau^2 \rangle \subset D_4$ the subgroup generated by a reflection and the rotations by 180° . This is normal $N \triangleleft D_4$. Further $A := \langle \sigma \rangle \subset N \subset D_4$. Since N is abelian $A \triangleleft N$. But on the other hand $N_{D_4}(A) = \langle \sigma, \tau^2 \rangle \subsetneq D_4$, i.e. not normal in D_4 . □

Exercise 1.2.10. Prove that every subgroup of index 2 is normal.

Solution. Let $H \subset G$ be a subgroup of index 2, i.e. $(G : H) = 2$. In particular $G/H = \{H, G \setminus H\}$. But also $H \setminus G = \{H, G \setminus H\}$, i.e. the two cosets are left-cosets as well as right-cosets. Moreover $gH = H$ iff $g \in H$ as well as $Hg = H$ in the same case. Therefore $gH = Hg$ for all $g \in G$. □

Exercise 1.2.11. Prove that the union of an increasing sequence of normal subgroups $N_1 \subset N_2 \subset N_3 \subset \dots$, $N_i \triangleleft G$ of a group G is normal.

Solution. Let $N_\infty := \bigcup_{n \geq 1} N_n \subset G$ be their union. As shown in class $N_\infty \subset G$ is a subgroup. Let now $g \in G$ and $n \in N_\infty$. But then there is an $m \geq 1$ such that $n \in N_m \triangleleft G$. Therefore $gng^{-1} \in N_m \subset N_\infty$ and so $gN_\infty g^{-1} \subset N_\infty$. But this proves that $N_\infty \triangleleft G$ is normal. \square

Exercise 1.2.12. a. Let G be a group generated by $X \subset G$. Prove that for two homomorphisms $\phi, \psi: G \rightarrow H$ into any group H , $\phi(x) = \psi(x)$ for all $x \in X$ is equivalent to $\phi = \psi$.

b. Find all endomorphisms of $V_4 := \langle (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23) \rangle \subset S_4$ (Klein's four group).

c. Find all automorphisms of V_4 .

d. Find all endomorphisms and automorphisms for D_3 .

Solution.

a. Obviously $\phi|_X = \psi|_X$ is necessary. Since $G = \langle X \rangle$ we know that we can write every element $g \in G$ as a (finite) product of elements in $X \cup \bar{X}$. But since $\phi(x) = \psi(x)$ for all $x \in X \cup \bar{X}$ this implies $\phi(g) = \psi(g)$. Therefore $\phi = \psi$.

b. $V_4 \cong C_2 \times C_2$ abelian, i.e. $V_4 = \langle (12)(34), (13)(24) \rangle$ and each generator has degree 2. But then we can map each of them to any element in V_4 , i.e. $\text{End}(V_4) \cong V_4 \times V_4$. The monoid structure is $\text{End}(V_4) \cong \text{End}(\mathbb{F}_2^2)$, i.e. matrix multiplication of linear maps of the (2 dimensional) vector space \mathbb{F}_2^2 over \mathbb{F}_2 the field with 2 elements.

c. The automorphisms are now these endomorphisms that are invertible, i.e. we cannot map any generator to $\text{id} \in V_4$. But also $\phi((13)(24)) \in \langle \phi((12)(34)) \rangle$ would not permit us to invert the map. In the above isomorphism these are the elements $\text{GL}_2(\mathbb{F}_2)$, i.e. the invertible 2×2 matrices with entries in \mathbb{F}_2 . In particular these are $\text{Aut}(V_4) \cong \text{GL}_2(\mathbb{F}_2) = \{ \mathbb{1}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \}$ a group with 6 elements. Since the group is not abelian, it must be isomorphic to D_3 , namely for $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \sigma$ (order 2) and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \tau$ (order 3), we see that $\text{Aut}(V_4) \cong D_3$.

d. Analogously $D_3 = \langle \sigma, \tau : \sigma^2 = \text{id} = \tau^3, \dots \rangle$, i.e. it is also generated by 2 elements. Therefore any endomorphism needs to map σ to an element

of degree 2 (or 1). These elements are $O_2 = \{\text{id}, \sigma, \sigma\tau, \sigma\tau^2\}$. Conversely τ needs to be mapped to an element of degree 3 (or 1), which are $N = \{\text{id}, \tau, \tau^2\}$. But we also have to check that the images fulfill the additional relations . . . , i.e. $\phi(\sigma\tau\sigma) = \phi(\sigma)\phi(\tau)\phi(\sigma)$. By inspection this is true for all choices $O_2 \times N$ except for $(\text{id}, \tau^{\pm 1})$. Therefore the endomorphisms are $\text{End}(D_3) \approx \{\text{Id}, (\text{id}, \text{id}), (\sigma, \text{id}), (\sigma, \tau^2), (\sigma\tau, \text{id}), (\sigma\tau, \tau), (\sigma\tau, \tau^2), (\sigma\tau^2, \text{id}), (\sigma\tau^2, \tau)\}$. The multiplication law is

| | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Id | (σ, id) | (σ, τ^2) | $(\sigma\tau, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau, \tau)$ | $(\sigma\tau, \tau^2)$ | $(\sigma\tau^2, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau^2, \tau)$ | $(\sigma\tau^2, \tau^2)$ |
| (id, id) | (id, id) | (id, id) | . . . | | | | | |
| (σ, id) | (σ, id) | (σ, id) | (σ, id) | (σ, id) | (σ, id) | (σ, id) | (σ, id) | (σ, id) |
| (σ, τ^2) | (σ, id) | Id | $(\sigma\tau^2, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau^2, \tau^2)$ | $(\sigma\tau^2, \tau)$ | $(\sigma\tau, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau, \tau^2)$ | $(\sigma\tau, \tau)$ |
| $(\sigma\tau, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau, \text{id})$ | (σ, id) | (σ, id) | (σ, id) | (σ, id) | (σ, id) | (σ, id) |
| $(\sigma\tau, \tau)$ | $(\sigma\tau, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau, \tau^2)$ | $(\sigma\tau^2, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau^2, \tau)$ | $(\sigma\tau^2, \tau^2)$ | (σ, id) | Id | (σ, τ^2) |
| $(\sigma\tau, \tau^2)$ | $(\sigma\tau, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau, \tau)$ | (σ, id) | (σ, τ^2) | Id | $(\sigma\tau^2, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau^2, \tau^2)$ | $(\sigma\tau^2, \tau)$ |
| $(\sigma\tau^2, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau^2, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau^2, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau^2, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau^2, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau^2, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau^2, \text{id})$ |
| $(\sigma\tau^2, \tau)$ | $(\sigma\tau, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau, \tau^2)$ | (σ, id) | Id | (σ, τ^2) | $(\sigma\tau, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau, \tau)$ | $(\sigma\tau, \tau^2)$ |
| $(\sigma\tau^2, \tau^2)$ | $(\sigma\tau, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau, \tau)$ | $(\sigma\tau, \text{id})$ | $(\sigma\tau, \tau^2)$ | $(\sigma\tau, \tau)$ | (σ, id) | (σ, τ^2) | Id |

The invertible elements are $\text{Aut}(D_3) = \{\text{Id}, (\sigma, \tau^2), (\sigma\tau, \tau^2), (\sigma\tau^2, \tau), (\sigma\tau^2, \tau^2)\}$ a group with 4 elements which is not cyclic, thus $\text{Aut}(D_3) \cong C_2 \times C_2$.

□