

## 1

To prove the result, we will decompose an arbitrary permutation  $\sigma \in S_n$  into transpositions. We will then show that each transposition can be written as a product of transpositions of the form  $(ii + 1)$ . We have  $\sigma = \tau_1 \dots \tau_r$ , where  $\tau_i$  is some transposition of the form  $(k_1 k + 1 + k_2)_i$ . Note that we can assume the first element of  $\tau_i$  is strictly lesser than the second since if it weren't we could just invert the order without any loss of generality. We state that  $(k_1 k_1 + k_2)$  can be written as a product of finite transpositions of the form  $(tt + 1)$ . See that  $(k_1 k_1 + k_2 - 1) = (k_1 + k_2 - 1 k_1 + k_2)(k_1 k_1 + k_2)(k_1 + k_2 - 1 k_1 + k_2)$ . Since we have  $(k_1 k_1 + k_2 - 1)$ , we have lowered the second entry of the transposition by one. In  $k_2 - 1$  steps, we will get  $(k_1 k_1 + 1) = (k_1 + 1 k_1 + 2)(k_1 k_1 + 2)(k_1 + 1 k_1 + 2)$ , which means that we can stop. We have  $\tau_i$  as a product of  $2(k_2 - 1) + 1$  transpositions of the desired type. We can do this for all transpositions to get our result. Thus we can generate any permutation in  $S_n$  by exchanging adjacent elements. The bubble sort algorithm works this way too, which accepts a permutation then returns the list of  $n$  numbers. This is essentially the same problem.

## 2

We want to find an isomorphism between  $S_{n-2}$  and  $A_n$ . We define  $\varphi : S_{n-2} \rightarrow A_n$  thus:

$$\varphi(\sigma) = \begin{cases} \sigma & \text{if } \sigma \text{ is even} \\ \sigma \circ (n-1, n) & \text{if } \sigma \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

We want to see that this is a homomorphism. If both  $\sigma, \tau \in S_{n-2}$  are even, then there is nothing to prove. If both are odd, then

$$\varphi(\sigma)\varphi(\tau) = \sigma \circ (n-1, n) \circ \tau \circ (n-1, n) = \sigma \circ \tau = \varphi(\sigma \circ \tau).$$

If  $\sigma$  is odd and  $\tau$  is even, we have

$$\varphi(\sigma)\varphi(\tau) = \sigma \circ (n-1, n) \circ \tau = \sigma \circ \tau \circ (n-1, n) = \varphi(\sigma \circ \tau).$$

To find the kernel, see that  $\varphi(\sigma) = e$  implies that either  $\sigma = e$  if  $\sigma$  is even, and if  $\sigma$  is odd,  $\sigma \circ (n-1, n)$  can never be the identity element. Thus the kernel is trivial.

This homomorphism restricted to the image gives us an isomorphism of  $S_{n-2}$  to a subgroup of  $A_n$ .

## 3

1. For some  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $G_i i = \{\sigma \in S_n : \sigma(i) = i\} \cong S_{n-1}$ . Consider  $G_i$  acting on  $\{1, 2, \dots, i-1, i+1, \dots, n\}$ . If  $n = 2$ , this set will be a singleton, hence trivially transitive. For  $n \geq 3$ , the set  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\} \setminus \{i\}$  has at least two elements. Then  $k, \ell \in \{1, 2, \dots, i-1, i+1, \dots, n\}$  such that they are distinct (If  $k = \ell$ , then  $i \in G_i$  works). See that  $(k\ell) \in G_i$ , as it does not affect  $i$ . Then we have  $(k\ell)k = \ell$ , which means that  $G_i$  is transitive.
2. For a doubly transitive action of  $G$  on  $A$ , let us claim that this action is doubly transitive. Let  $B \subseteq A$  be a proper block, then we have elements  $b \in B$  and  $a \in A \setminus B$ . We have  $\text{stab}(B) := \{g \in G : gB = B\}$ . See that we have  $\text{stab}(b) \leq \text{stab}(B)$ . To prove this, we consider the map  $f : \text{stab}(b) \rightarrow \text{stab}(B)$  that sends  $g$  to itself. It is evident that  $\text{stab}(b) \subseteq \text{stab}(B)$  as sets. Thus we have this relation. So if we have  $g \in \text{stab}(b)$ , then  $gB = B$ . Suppose there is an element  $c \in B, c \neq b$ , by double transitivity of  $G$  on  $A$ , there is a  $\tau \in \text{stab}(b)$  such that  $\tau(c) = a$ . But then  $\tau B \neq B$ , a contradiction. Thus either the block is a singleton or the entire set  $A$ .

## 4

Let us denote all elements of  $Q_8$  thus:  $1, i, j, k, -1, -i, -j, -k$  are assigned the numbers from 1 to 8. Then see that left multiplication by 1 is the identity permutation on  $S_8$ . Left multiplication by  $i$  is  $(1256)(3478)$ , by  $j$  is  $(1357)(2864)$ , and by  $k$  is  $(1458)(2367)$ . Their negatives also have a left regular representation. Now see that  $i, j$  can generate  $Q_8$  as a group, then it must stand to reason that their corresponding left regular representations will behave in the same way! Thus, see that  $G = \langle (1256)(3478), (1357)(2864) \rangle \cong Q_8$ .

## 5

Consider the action of  $G$  on the cosets  $G/H$  by left multiplication.  $\lambda : G \rightarrow S_{|G/H|}$  is the permutation representation of this action, and let  $K$  be its kernel.  $K$  is normal in  $G$ , and we have  $K \leq \text{stab}(H) = H$ . By the first isomorphism theorem, we have an injective homomorphism  $\bar{\lambda} : G/K \rightarrow S_{|G/H|}$ . Since  $|S_{|G/H|}| = n!$ , we have  $[G : K] \leq n!$ .

## 6

We shall prove a result that for  $|G| = n$  and  $p$  the smallest prime that divides  $n$ , then a subgroup of order  $p$  must be normal. Let some  $H \leq G$ , with  $[G : H] = p$ . Consider the group action of left multiplication on left cosets of  $H$ . This group action has a permutation representation, let us denote that by  $\pi_H$ . Take  $K = \ker \pi_H$ , and  $[H : K] = k$ . Then we have  $[G : K] = [G : H][H : K] = pk$ . We know that  $H$  has  $p$  many left cosets, hence  $\frac{G}{K}$  is isomorphic to some subgroup of  $S_p$  which is the image of  $G$  under  $\pi_H$ . Thus we must have  $pk|p! \implies k|(p-1)!$ . But since  $k$  can only have prime factors greater than or equal to  $p$  and  $(p-1)!$  has no prime factors greater than  $p$ , we must have  $k = 1$ . Thus  $H = K \trianglelefteq G$  is normal.

Let  $p$  be the smallest prime dividing  $n$ . We know that  $p < n$ , since  $n$  is composite. Then see that there must exist a subgroup of order  $\frac{n}{p}$  as given in the problem, hence this subgroup has index  $\frac{n}{\frac{n}{p}} = p$ , hence this is a normal subgroup. Thus  $G$  cannot be simple.

## 7

We know that  $[G : Z(G)] = n$ . For some  $g \in G$ , let  $\text{Cl}(g)$  be the conjugacy class of  $g$ . By orbit stabiliser theorem, we have  $|\text{Cl}(g)| = \left| \frac{G}{C_G(g)} \right|$ , where  $C_G(g)$  is the centraliser. But since  $Z(G) \leq C_G(g)$ , we have  $\left| \frac{G}{C_G(g)} \right| \leq \left| \frac{G}{Z(G)} \right| = n$ , which is the required result.

## 8

Given a permutation  $\sigma \in S_n$ , let  $m_1, \dots, m_s$  be the distinct integers that appear in the cycle type of  $\sigma$ , including 1-cycles. Let  $k_1, \dots, k_s$  be the number of times the above cycles appear. Then see that for another  $\tau \in S_n$  to be conjugate to it, we must have the exact cycle breakup. For this, we choose a permutation of  $n$  integers, then determine where to 'draw' brackets. For each repetition, we factor it out. Then from  $n!$ , we have for any  $m_i$ , and  $k_i$  the number of times the cycle of length  $m_i$  appears, we get  $k_i!m_i^{k_i}$  many such equivalent cycles. For example,  $(123)$  and  $(231)$  are the same permutation. Thus, we end up with

$$\frac{n!}{(k_1!m_1^{k_1}) \dots (k_s!m_s^{k_s})}.$$

Take any  $\sigma \in S_n$ . Then every cycle must be of order  $p$ , else the permutation will not have order  $p$ . Thus  $\sigma$  consists up any number of  $p$ -cycles, up to  $\lfloor \frac{n}{p} \rfloor$ . If  $\sigma$  has  $k$   $p$ -cycles, its conjugacy must have size

$$\frac{n!}{k!p^k(n-kp)!}.$$

Summing this over all  $k$ , we get

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor \frac{n}{p} \rfloor} \frac{n!}{k!p^k(n-kp)!},$$

the required solution.

## 9

We know that  $r$  is the greatest prime. Then let  $n_r = rk + 1$  be the number of Sylow  $r$ -subgroups. Since  $rk + 1 \mid pq$ , we can have  $rk + 1 = 1, p, q$ , or  $pq$ . If  $rk + 1$  is  $p$  or  $q$ , it would be absurd to have  $k \neq 0$  as for  $k = 1$   $r + 1 > p, q$ . Assume that  $n_r = pq$ . Let  $qk_2 + 1$  be the number of Sylow  $q$ -subgroups. Then  $qk_2 + 1 = 1, r, pr$ . Assume that  $n_q = r$ . We have  $n_p = pk_3 + 1$  as the number of Sylow  $p$ -subgroups. Then we have  $n_p = 1, q, r, qr$ . Assume that  $n_p = q$ . Let us count the number of elements in  $G$  of order  $p, q, r$ . Since  $n_r = pq$ , the number of elements of order  $r$  is  $pq(r - 1)$ . The number of elements of order  $q$  is  $(q - 1)r$  and the number of elements of order  $p$  is  $(p - 1)q$ . Adding these up, for  $q > 1$ , we have a number that is greater than  $pqr$ , which is not possible. Thus at least one of  $n_p, n_q, n_r$  is one.

## 10

We have  $|G| = 42 \cdot 11$ . Let  $n_{11} = 11k + 1$  be the number of Sylow 11-subgroups. Then  $11k + 1 \mid 42$ , which essentially forces  $k = 0$ . As  $n_{11} = 1$ , there is only one such subgroup which must be normal. Thus  $G$  is not simple.