

Exercise 1.1.2a Prove the peration \star on \mathbb{Z} defined by $a \star b = a - b$ is not commutative.

Proof. Not commutative since

$$1 \star (-1) = 1 - (-1) = 2$$

$$(-1) \star 1 = -1 - 1 = -2.$$

Exercise 1.1.3 Prove that the addition of residue classes $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is associative.

Proof. We have

$$\begin{split} (\bar{a} + \bar{b}) + \bar{c} &= \overline{a + b} + \bar{c} \\ &= \overline{(a + b) + c} \\ &= \overline{a + (b + c)} \\ &= \bar{a} + \overline{b + c} \\ &= \bar{a} + (\bar{b} + \bar{c}) \end{split}$$

since integer addition is associative.

Exercise 1.1.4 Prove that the multiplication of residue class $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is associative.

Proof. We have

$$(\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b}) \cdot \bar{c} = \overline{a \cdot b} \cdot \bar{c}$$

$$= \overline{(a \cdot b) \cdot c}$$

$$= \overline{a \cdot (b \cdot c)}$$

$$= \bar{a} \cdot \overline{b \cdot c}$$

$$= \bar{a} \cdot (\bar{b} \cdot \bar{c})$$

since integer multiplication is associative.

Exercise 1.1.5 Prove that for all n > 1 that $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is not a group under multiplication of residue classes.

Proof. Note that since $n > 1, \overline{1} \neq \overline{0}$. Now suppose $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$ contains a multiplicative identity element \overline{e} . Then in particular,

$$\bar{e} \cdot \bar{1} = \bar{1}$$

so that $\bar{e} = \overline{1}$. Note, however, that

$$\overline{0} \cdot \overline{k} = \overline{0}$$

for all k, so that $\overline{0}$ does not have a multiplicative inverse. Hence $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$ is not a group under multiplication.

Exercise 1.1.15 Prove that $(a_1 a_2 \dots a_n)^{-1} = a_n^{-1} a_{n-1}^{-1} \dots a_1^{-1}$ for all $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in G$.

Proof. For n=1, note that for all $a_1 \in G$ we have $a_1^{-1}=a_1^{-1}$. Now for $n \geq 2$ we proceed by induction on n. For the base case, note that for all $a_1, a_2 \in G$ we have

$$(a_1 \cdot a_2)^{-1} = a_2^{-1} \cdot a_1^{-1}$$

since

$$a_1 \cdot a_2 \cdot a_2^{-1} a_1^{-1} = 1.$$

For the inductive step, suppose that for some $n \geq 2$, for all $a_i \in G$ we have

$$(a_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot a_n)^{-1} = a_n^{-1} \cdot \ldots \cdot a_1^{-1}.$$

Then given some $a_{n+1} \in G$, we have

$$(a_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot a_n \cdot a_{n+1})^{-1} = ((a_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot a_n) \cdot a_{n+1})^{-1}$$
$$= a_{n+1}^{-1} \cdot (a_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot a_n)^{-1}$$
$$= a_{n+1}^{-1} \cdot a_n^{-1} \cdot \ldots \cdot a_1^{-1},$$

using associativity and the base case where necessary.

Exercise 1.1.16 Let x be an element of G. Prove that $x^2 = 1$ if and only if |x| is either 1 or 2.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Suppose $x^2=1$. Then we have $0<|x|\leq 2$, i.e., |x| is either 1 or 2. (\Leftarrow) If |x|=1, then we have x=1 so that $x^2=1$. If |x|=2 then $x^2=1$ by definition. So if |x| is 1 or 2, we have $x^2=1$.

Exercise 1.1.17 Let x be an element of G. Prove that if |x| = n for some positive integer n then $x^{-1} = x^{n-1}$.

Proof. We have $x \cdot x^{n-1} = x^n = 1$, so by the uniqueness of inverses $x^{-1} = x^{n-1}$.

Exercise 1.1.18 Let x and y be elements of G. Prove that xy = yx if and only if $y^{-1}xy = x$ if and only if $x^{-1}y^{-1}xy = 1$.

Exercise 1.1.20 For x an element in G show that x and x^{-1} have the same order.

Proof. Recall that the order of a group element is either a positive integer or infinity. Suppose |x| is infinite and that $|x^{-1}| = n$ for some n. Then

$$x^n = x^{(-1) \cdot n \cdot (-1)} = ((x^{-1})^n)^{-1} = 1^{-1} = 1,$$

a contradiction. So if |x| is infinite, $|x^{-1}|$ must also be infinite. Likewise, if $|x^{-1}|$ is infinite, then $|(x^{-1})^{-1}| = |x|$ is also infinite. Suppose now that |x| = n and $|x^{-1}| = m$ are both finite. Then we have

$$(x^{-1})^n = (x^n)^{-1} = 1^{-1} = 1,$$

so that $m \leq n$. Likewise, $n \leq m$. Hence m = n and x and x^{-1} have the same order. \square

Exercise 1.1.22a If x and g are elements of the group G, prove that $|x| = |g^{-1}xg|$.

Proof. First we prove a technical lemma:

Lemma. For all $a, b \in G$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $(b^{-1}ab)^n = b^{-1}a^nb$. The statement is clear for n = 0. We prove the case n > 0 by induction; the base case n = 1 is clear. Now suppose $(b^{-1}ab)^n = b^{-1}a^nb$ for some $n \ge 1$; then

$$(b^{-1}ab)^{n+1} = (b^{-1}ab)(b^{-1}ab)^n = b^{-1}abb^{-1}a^nb = b^{-1}a^{n+1}b.$$

By induction the statement holds for all positive n. Now suppose n < 0; we have

$$(b^{-1}ab)^n = ((b^{-1}ab)^{-n})^{-1} = (b^{-1}a^{-n}b)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^nb.$$

Hence, the statement holds for all integers n. Now to the main result. Suppose first that |x| is infinity and that $|g^{-1}xg| = n$ for some positive integer n. Then we have

$$(g^{-1}xg)^n = g^{-1}x^ng = 1,$$

and multiplying on the left by g and on the right by g^{-1} gives us that $x^n = 1$, a contradiction. Thus if |x| is infinity, so is $|g^{-1}xg|$. Similarly, if $|g^{-1}xg|$ is infinite and |x| = n, we have

$$(g^{-1}xg)^n = g^{-1}x^ng = g^{-1}g = 1,$$

a contradiction. Hence if $|g^{-1}xg|$ is infinite, so is |x|. Suppose now that |x| = n and $|g^{-1}xg| = m$ for some positive integers n and m. We have

$$(g^{-1}xg)^n = g^{-1}x^ng = g^{-1}g = 1,$$

So that $m \leq n$, and

$$(g^{-1}xg)^m = g^{-1}x^mg = 1,$$

so that $x^m = 1$ and $n \le m$. Thus n = m.

Exercise 1.1.22b Deduce that |ab| = |ba| for all $a, b \in G$.

Proof. Let a and b be arbitrary group elements. Letting x = ab and g = a, we see that

$$|ab| = \left| a^{-1}aba \right| = |ba|.$$

Exercise 1.1.25 Prove that if $x^2 = 1$ for all $x \in G$ then G is abelian.

Proof. Solution: Note that since $x^2 = 1$ for all $x \in G$, we have $x^{-1} = x$. Now let $a, b \in G$. We have

$$ab = (ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1} = ba.$$

Thus G is abelian.

Exercise 1.1.29 Prove that $A \times B$ is an abelian group if and only if both A and B are abelian.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Suppose $a_1, a_2 \in A$ and $b_1, b_2 \in B$. Then

$$(a_1a_2, b_1b_2) = (a_1, b_1) \cdot (a_2, b_2) = (a_2, b_2) \cdot (a_1, b_1) = (a_2a_1, b_2b_1).$$

Since two pairs are equal precisely when their corresponding entries are equal, we have $a_1a_2 = a_2a_1$ and $b_1b_2 = b_2b_1$. Hence A and B are abelian. (\Leftarrow) Suppose $(a_1,b_1), (a_2,b_2) \in A \times B$. Then we have

$$(a_1, b_1) \cdot (a_2, b_2) = (a_1 a_2, b_1 b_2) = (a_2 a_1, b_2 b_1) = (a_2, b_2) \cdot (a_1, b_1).$$

Hence $A \times B$ is abelian.

Exercise 1.1.34 If x is an element of infinite order in G, prove that the elements $x^n, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ are all distinct.

Proof. Solution: Suppose to the contrary that $x^a = x^b$ for some $0 \le a < b \le n-1$. Then we have $x^{b-a} = 1$, with $1 \le b-a < n$. However, recall that n is by definition the least integer k such that $x^k = 1$, so we have a contradiction. Thus all the x^i , $0 \le i \le n-1$, are distinct. In particular, we have

$$\{x^i \mid 0 \le i \le n-1\} \subseteq G,$$

so that $|x| = n \le |G|$

Exercise 1.3.8 Prove that if $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}$ then S_{Ω} is an infinite group

Exercise 1.6.4 Prove that the multiplicative groups $\mathbb{R} - \{0\}$ and $\mathbb{C} - \{0\}$ are not isomorphic.

Proof. Solution: Recall from Exercise 1.6.2 that isomorphic groups necessarily have the same number of elements of order n for all finite n.

Now let $x \in \mathbb{R}^{\times}$. If x = 1 then |x| = 1, and if x = -1 then |x| = 2. If (with bars denoting absolute value) |x| < 1, then we have

$$1 > |x| > \left| x^2 \right| > \cdots,$$

and in particular, $1 > |x^n|$ for all n. So x has infinite order in \mathbb{R}^{\times} . Similarly, if |x| > 1 (absolute value) then x has infinite order in \mathbb{R}^{\times} . So \mathbb{R}^{\times} has 1 element of order 1,1 element of order 2, and all other elements have infinite order. In \mathbb{C}^{\times} , on the other hand, i has order 4. Thus \mathbb{R}^{\times} and \mathbb{C}^{\times} are not isomorphic. \square

Exercise 1.6.11 Let A and B be groups. Prove that $A \times B \cong B \times A$.

Proof. Solution: We know from set theory that the mapping $\varphi: A \times B \to B \times A$ given by $\varphi((a,b)) = (b,a)$ is a bijection with inverse $\psi: B \times A \to A \times B$ given by $\psi((b,a)) = (a,b)$. Also φ is a homomorphism, as we show below. Let $a_1, a_2 \in A$ and $b_1, b_2 \in B$. Then

$$\varphi((a_1, b_1) \cdot (a_2, b_2)) = \varphi((a_1 a_2, b_1 b_2))$$

$$= (b_1 b_2, a_1 a_2)$$

$$= (b_1, a_1) \cdot (b_2, a_2)$$

$$= \varphi((a_1, b_1)) \cdot \varphi((a_2, b_2))$$

Hence $A \times B \cong B \times A$.

Exercise 1.6.17 Let G be any group. Prove that the map from G to itself defined by $g \mapsto g^{-1}$ is a homomorphism if and only if G is abelian.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Suppose G is abelian. Then

$$\varphi(ab) = (ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1} = a^{-1}b^{-1} = \varphi(a)\varphi(b),$$

so that φ is a homomorphism. (\Leftarrow) Suppose φ is a homomorphism, and let $a,b\in G$. Then

$$ab = \left(b^{-1}a^{-1}\right)^{-1} = \varphi\left(b^{-1}a^{-1}\right) = \varphi\left(b^{-1}\right)\varphi\left(a^{-1}\right) = \left(b^{-1}\right)^{-1}\left(a^{-1}\right)^{-1} = ba,$$

so that G is abelian.

Exercise 1.6.23 Let G be a finite group which possesses an automorphism σ such that $\sigma(g) = g$ if and only if g = 1. If σ^2 is the identity map from G to G, prove that G is abelian.

Proof. Solution: We define a mapping $f: G \to G$ by $f(x) = x^{-1}\sigma(x)$. Claim: f is injective. Proof of claim: Suppose f(x) = f(y). Then $y^{-1}\sigma(y) = x^{-1}\sigma(x)$, so that $xy^{-1} = \sigma(x)\sigma(y^{-1})$, and $xy^{-1} = \sigma(xy^{-1})$. Then we have $xy^{-1} = 1$, hence x = y. So f is injective.

Since G is finite and f is injective, f is also surjective. Then every $z \in G$ is of the form $x^{-1}\sigma(x)$ for some x. Now let $z \in G$ with $z = x^{-1}\sigma(x)$. We have

$$\sigma(z) = \sigma(x^{-1}\sigma(x)) = \sigma(x)^{-1}x = (x^{-1}\sigma(x))^{-1} = z^{-1}.$$

Thus σ is in fact the inversion mapping, and we assumed that σ is a homomorphism. By a previous example, then, G is abelian.

Exercise 1.7.5 Prove that the kernel of an action of the group G on a set A is the same as the kernel of the corresponding permutation representation $G \to S_A$.

Proof. Solution: Let G be a group acting on A. The kernel of the action is the set

$$K = \{ g \in G \mid g \cdot a = a \text{ for all } a \in A \}.$$

The corresponding permutation representation is a group homomorphism φ : $G \to S_A$ given by $\varphi(g)(a) = g \cdot a$, and by definition

$$\ker \varphi = \{ g \in G \mid \varphi(g) = 1 \}.$$

 $K \subseteq \ker \varphi$: Let $k \in K$. Then for all $a \in A$, we have

$$\varphi(k)(a) = k \cdot a = a,$$

so that

$$\varphi(k) = \mathrm{id}_A = 1.$$

Thus $g \in \ker \varphi$. $\ker \varphi \subseteq K$: Let $k \in \ker \varphi$. Then for all $a \in A$, we have

$$k \cdot a = \varphi(k)(a) = \mathrm{id}_A(a) = a.$$

Thus $k \in K$.

Exercise 1.7.6 Prove that a group G acts faithfully on a set A if and only if the kernel of the action is the set consisting only of the identity.

Proof. Solution: We know that a group action is faithful precisely when the corresponding permutation representation $\varphi: G \to S_A$ is injective. Moreover, a group homomorphism is injective precisely when its kernel is trivial. The kernel of a group action is equal to the kernel of the corresponding permutation representation. So G acts faithfully on A if and only if the kernel of the action is trivial.

Exercise 2.1.5 Prove that G cannot have a subgroup H with |H| = n - 1, where n = |G| > 2.

Proof. Solution: Under these conditions, there exists a nonidentity element $x \in H$ and an element $y \notin H$. Consider the product xy. If $xy \in H$, then since $x^{-1} \in H$ and H is a subgroup, $y \in H$, a contradiction. If $xy \notin H$, then we have xy = y. Thus x = 1, a contradiction. Thus no such subgroup exists.

Exercise 2.1.13 Let H be a subgroup of the additive group of rational numbers with the property that $1/x \in H$ for every nonzero element x of H. Prove that H = 0 or \mathbb{Q} .

Proof. Solution: First, suppose there does not exist a nonzero element in H. Then H=0. Now suppose there does exist a nonzero element $a\in H$; without loss of generality, say a=p/q in lowest terms for some integers p and q - that is, $\gcd(p,q)=1$. Now $q\cdot \frac{p}{q}=p\in H$, and since $q/p\in H$, we have $p\cdot \frac{q}{p}\in H$. There exist integers x,y such that qx+py=1; note that $qx\in H$ and $py\in H$, so that $1\in H$. Thus $n\in H$ for all $n\in \mathbb{Z}$. Moreover, if $n\neq 0, 1/n\in H$. Then $m/n\in H$ for all integers m,n with $n\neq 0$; hence $H=\mathbb{Q}$.

Exercise 2.4.4 Prove that if H is a subgroup of G then H is generated by the set $H - \{1\}$.

Exercise 2.4.13 Prove that the multiplicative group of positive rational numbers is generated by the set $\left\{\frac{1}{p} \mid p \text{ is a prime}\right\}$.

Exercise 2.4.16a A subgroup M of a group G is called a maximal subgroup if $M \neq G$ and the only subgroups of G which contain M are M and G. Prove that if H is a proper subgroup of the finite group G then there is a maximal subgroup of G containing H.

Exercise 2.4.16b Show that the subgroup of all rotations in a dihedral group is a maximal subgroup.

Exercise 2.4.16c Show that if $G = \langle x \rangle$ is a cyclic group of order $n \geq 1$ then a subgroup H is maximal if and only $H = \langle x^p \rangle$ for some prime p dividing n.

Exercise 3.1.3a Let A be an abelian group and let B be a subgroup of A. Prove that A/B is abelian.

Proof. Lemma: Let G be a group. If |G| = 2, then $G \cong Z_2$. Proof: Since $G = \{ea\}$ has an identity element, say e, we know that ee = e, ea = a, and ae = a. If $a^2 = a$, we have a = e, a contradiction. Thus $a^2 = e$. We can easily see that $G \cong Z_2$.

If A is abelian, every subgroup of A is normal; in particular, B is normal, so A/B is a group. Now let $xB, yB \in A/B$. Then

$$(xB)(yB) = (xy)B = (yx)B = (yB)(xB).$$

Hence A/B is abelian.

Exercise 3.1.22a Prove that if H and K are normal subgroups of a group G then their intersection $H \cap K$ is also a normal subgroup of G.

Exercise 3.1.22b Prove that the intersection of an arbitrary nonempty collection of normal subgroups of a group is a normal subgroup (do not assume the collection is countable).

Exercise 3.2.8 Prove that if H and K are finite subgroups of G whose orders are relatively prime then $H \cap K = 1$.

Proof. Solution: Let |H| = p and |K| = q. We saw in a previous exercise that $H \cap K$ is a subgroup of both H and K; by Lagrange's Theorem, then, $|H \cap K|$ divides p and q. Since gcd(p,q) = 1, then, $|H \cap K| = 1$. Thus $H \cap K = 1$.

Exercise 3.2.11 Let $H \leq K \leq G$. Prove that $|G:H| = |G:K| \cdot |K:H|$ (do not assume G is finite).

Exercise 3.2.16 Use Lagrange's Theorem in the multiplicative group $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$ to prove Fermat's Little Theorem: if p is a prime then $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$ for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. Solution: If p is prime, then $\varphi(p)=p-1$ (where φ denotes the Euler totient). Thus

$$\mid ((\mathbb{Z}/(p))^{\times} \mid = p-1.$$

So for all $a \in (\mathbb{Z}/(p))^{\times}$, we have |a| divides p-1. Hence

$$a = 1 \cdot a = a^{p-1}a = a^p \pmod{p}.$$

Exercise 3.2.21a Prove that \mathbb{Q} has no proper subgroups of finite index.

Proof. Solution: We begin with a lemma. Lemma: If D is a divisible abelian group, then no proper subgroup of D has finite index. Proof: We saw previously that no finite group is divisible and that every proper quotient D/A of a divisible group is divisible; thus no proper quotient of a divisible group is finite. Equivalently, [D:A] is not finite. Because $\mathbb Q$ and $\mathbb Q/\mathbb Z$ are divisible, the conclusion follows.

Exercise 3.3.3 Prove that if H is a normal subgroup of G of prime index p then for all $K \leq G$ either $K \leq H$, or G = HK and $|K : K \cap H| = p$.

Proof. Solution: Suppose $K \setminus N \neq \emptyset$; say $k \in K \setminus N$. Now $G/N \cong \mathbb{Z}/(p)$ is cyclic, and moreover is generated by any nonidentity- in particular by \bar{k}

Now $KN \leq G$ since N is normal. Let $g \in G$. We have $gN = k^a N$ for some integer a. In particular, $g = k^a n$ for some $n \in N$, hence $g \in KN$. We have $[K : K \cap N] = p$ by the Second Isomorphism Theorem.

Exercise 3.4.1 Prove that if G is an abelian simple group then $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_p$ for some prime p (do not assume G is a finite group).

Proof. Solution: Let G be an abelian simple group. Suppose G is infinite. If $x \in G$ is a nonidentity element of finite order, then $\langle x \rangle < G$ is a nontrivial normal subgroup, hence G is not simple. If $x \in G$ is an element of infinite order, then $\langle x^2 \rangle$ is a nontrivial normal subgroup, so G is not simple.

Suppose G is finite; say |G| = n. If n is composite, say n = pm for some prime p with $m \neq 1$, then by Cauchy's Theorem G contains an element x of order p and $\langle x \rangle$ is a nontrivial normal subgroup. Hence G is not simple. Thus if G is an abelian simple group, then |G| = p is prime. We saw previously that the only such group up to isomorphism is $\mathbb{Z}/(p)$, so that $G \cong \mathbb{Z}/(p)$. Moreover, these groups are indeed simple.

Exercise 3.4.4 Use Cauchy's Theorem and induction to show that a finite abelian group has a subgroup of order n for each positive divisor n of its order.

Exercise 3.4.5a Prove that subgroups of a solvable group are solvable.

Exercise 3.4.5b Prove that quotient groups of a solvable group are solvable.

Exercise 3.4.11 Prove that if H is a nontrivial normal subgroup of the solvable group G then there is a nontrivial subgroup A of H with $A \subseteq G$ and A abelian.

Exercise 4.2.8 Prove that if H has finite index n then there is a normal subgroup K of G with $K \leq H$ and $|G:K| \leq n!$.

Proof. Solution: G acts on the cosets G/H by left multiplication. Let $\lambda: G \to S_{G/H}$ be the permutation representation induced by this action, and let K be the kernel of the representation. Now K is normal in G, and $K \leq \operatorname{stab}_G(H) = H$. By the First Isomorphism Theorem, we have an injective group homomorphism $\bar{\lambda}: G/K \to S_{G/H}$. Since $|S_{G/H}| = n!$, we have $[G:K] \leq n!$.

Exercise 4.2.9a Prove that if p is a prime and G is a group of order p^{α} for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, then every subgroup of index p is normal in G.

Proof. Solution: Let G be a group of order p^k and $H \leq G$ a subgroup with [G:H]=p. Now G acts on the conjugates gHg^{-1} by conjugation, since

$$g_1g_2 \cdot H = (g_1g_2) H (g_1g_2)^{-1} = g_1 (g_2Hg_2^{-1}) g_1^{-1} = g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot H)$$

and $1 \cdot H = 1H1 = H$. Moreover, under this action we have $H \leq \operatorname{stab}(H)$. By Exercise 3.2.11, we have

$$[G: \operatorname{stab}(H)][\operatorname{stab}(H): H] = [G: H] = p,$$

a prime. If $[G:\operatorname{stab}(H)]=p$, then $[\operatorname{stab}(H):H]=1$ and we have $H=\operatorname{stab}(H)$; moreover, H has exactly p conjugates in G. Let $\varphi:G\to S_p$ be the permutation representation induced by the action of G on the conjugates of H, and let K be the kernel of this representation. Now $K\leq\operatorname{stab}(H)=H$. By the first isomorphism theorem, the induced map $\bar{\varphi}:G/K\to S_p$ is injective, so that |G/K| divides p!. Note, however, that |G/K| is a power of p and that the only powers of p that divide p! are 1 and p. So [G:K] is 1 or p. If [G:K]=1, then G=K so that $gHg^{-1}=H$ for all $g\in G$; then $\operatorname{stab}(H)=G$ and we have $[G:\operatorname{stab}(H)]=1$, a contradiction. Now suppose [G:K]=p. Again by Exercise 3.2.11 we have [G:K]=[G:H][H:K], so that [H:K]=1, hence H=K. Again, this implies that H is normal so that $gHg^{-1}=H$ for all $g\in G$, and we have $[G:\operatorname{stab}(H)]=1$, a contradiction. Thus $[G:\operatorname{stab}(H)]\neq p$ If $[G:\operatorname{stab}(H)]=1$, then $G=\operatorname{stab}(H)$. That is, $gHg^{-1}=H$ for all $g\in G$; thus $H\leq G$ is normal.

Exercise 4.2.14 Let G be a finite group of composite order n with the property that G has a subgroup of order k for each positive integer k dividing n. Prove that G is not simple.

Proof. Solution: Let p be the smallest prime dividing n, and write n = pm. Now G has a subgroup H of order m, and H has index p. By Corollary 5 in the text, H is normal in G.

Exercise 4.3.5 If the center of G is of index n, prove that every conjugacy class has at most n elements.

Exercise 4.3.26 Let G be a transitive permutation group on the finite set A with |A| > 1. Show that there is some $\sigma \in G$ such that $\sigma(a) \neq a$ for all $a \in A$.

Exercise 4.3.27 Let g_1, g_2, \ldots, g_r be representatives of the conjugacy classes of the finite group G and assume these elements pairwise commute. Prove that G is abelian.

Exercise 4.4.2 Prove that if G is an abelian group of order pq, where p and q are distinct primes, then G is cyclic.

Exercise 4.4.6a Prove that characteristic subgroups are normal.

Exercise 4.4.6b Prove that there exists a normal subgroup that is not characteristic.

Exercise 4.4.7 If H is the unique subgroup of a given order in a group G prove H is characteristic in G.

Exercise 4.4.8a Let G be a group with subgroups H and K with $H \leq K$. Prove that if H is characteristic in K and K is normal in G then H is normal in G.

Exercise 4.5.1a Prove that if $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_p(G)$ and H is a subgroup of G containing P then $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_p(H)$.

Proof. Solution: If $P \leq H \leq G$ is a Sylow p-subgroup of G, then p does not divide [G:P]. Now [G:P]=[G:H][H:P], so that p does not divide [H:P]; hence P is a Sylow p-subgroup of H.

Exercise 4.5.13 Prove that a group of order 56 has a normal Sylow p-subgroup for some prime p dividing its order.

Exercise 4.5.14 Prove that a group of order 312 has a normal Sylow p-subgroup for some prime p dividing its order.

Exercise 4.5.15 Prove that a group of order 351 has a normal Sylow p-subgroup for some prime p dividing its order.

Exercise 4.5.16 Let |G| = pqr, where p, q and r are primes with p < q < r. Prove that G has a normal Sylow subgroup for either p, q or r.

Exercise 4.5.17 Prove that if |G| = 105 then G has a normal Sylow 5 - subgroup and a normal Sylow 7-subgroup.

Exercise 4.5.18 Prove that a group of order 200 has a normal Sylow 5-subgroup.

Exercise 4.5.19 Prove that if |G| = 6545 then G is not simple.

Exercise 4.5.20 Prove that if |G| = 1365 then G is not simple.

Exercise 4.5.21 Prove that if |G| = 2907 then G is not simple.

Exercise 4.5.22 Prove that if |G| = 132 then G is not simple.

Exercise 4.5.23 Prove that if |G| = 462 then G is not simple.

Exercise 4.5.28 Let G be a group of order 105. Prove that if a Sylow 3-subgroup of G is normal then G is abelian.

Exercise 4.5.33 Let P be a normal Sylow p-subgroup of G and let H be any subgroup of G. Prove that $P \cap H$ is the unique Sylow p-subgroup of H.

Exercise 5.4.2 Prove that a subgroup H of G is normal if and only if $[G, H] \leq H$.

Exercise 7.1.2 Prove that if u is a unit in R then so is -u.

Proof. Solution: Since u is a unit, we have uv = vu = 1 for some $v \in R$. Thus, we have

$$(-v)(-u) = vu = 1$$

and

$$(-u)(-v) = uv = 1.$$

Thus -u is a unit.

Exercise 7.1.11 Prove that if R is an integral domain and $x^2 = 1$ for some $x \in R$ then $x = \pm 1$.

Proof. Solution: If $x^2 = 1$, then $x^2 - 1 = 0$. Evidently, then,

$$(x-1)(x+1) = 0.$$

Since R is an integral domain, we must have x-1=0 or x+1=0; thus x=1 or x=-1.

Exercise 7.1.12 Prove that any subring of a field which contains the identity is an integral domain.

Proof. Solution: Let $R \subseteq F$ be a subring of a field. (We need not yet assume that $1 \in R$). Suppose $x, y \in R$ with xy = 0. Since $x, y \in F$ and the zero element in R is the same as that in F, either x = 0 or y = 0. Thus R has no zero divisors. If R also contains 1, then R is an integral domain.

Exercise 7.1.15 A ring R is called a Boolean ring if $a^2 = a$ for all $a \in R$. Prove that every Boolean ring is commutative.

Proof. Solution: Note first that for all $a \in R$,

$$-a = (-a)^2 = (-1)^2 a^2 = a^2 = a.$$

Now if $a, b \in R$, we have

$$a + b = (a + b)^2 = a^2 + ab + ba + b^2 = a + ab + ba + b.$$

Thus ab + ba = 0, and we have ab = -ba. But then ab = ba. Thus R is commutative. \Box

Exercise 7.2.2 Let $p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$ be an element of the polynomial ring R[x]. Prove that p(x) is a zero divisor in R[x] if and only if there is a nonzero $b \in R$ such that bp(x) = 0.

Proof. Solution: If bp(x) = 0 for some nonzero $b \in R$, then it is clear that p(x) is a zero divisor. Now suppose p(x) is a zero divisor; that is, for some $q(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} b_i x^i$, we have p(x)q(x) = 0. We may choose q(x) to have minimal degree among the nonzero polynomials with this property. We will now show by induction that $a_i q(x) = 0$ for all $0 \le i \le n$. For the base case, note that

$$p(x)q(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n+m} \left(\sum_{i+j=k} a_i b_j\right) x^k = 0.$$

The coefficient of x^{n+m} in this product is a_nb_m on one hand, and 0 on the other. Thus $a_nb_m=0$. Now $a_nq(x)p(x)=0$, and the coefficient of x^m in q is $a_nb_m=0$. Thus the degree of $a_nq(x)$ is strictly less than that of q(x); since q(x) has minimal degree among the nonzero polynomials which multiply p(x) to 0, in fact $a_nq(x)=0$. More specifically, $a_nb_i=0$ for all $0 \le i \le m$. For the inductive step, suppose that for some $0 \le t < n$, we have $a_rq(x)=0$ for all $t < r \le n$. Now

$$p(x)q(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n+m} \left(\sum_{i+j=k} a_i b_j\right) x^k = 0.$$

On one hand, the coefficient of x^{m+t} is $\sum_{i+j=m+t} a_i b_j$, and on the other hand, it is 0. Thus

$$\sum_{i+j=m+t} a_i b_j = 0.$$

By the induction hypothesis, if $i \ge t$, then $a_i b_j = 0$. Thus all terms such that $i \ge t$ are zero. If i < t, then we must have j > m, a contradiction. Thus we have $a_t b_m = 0$. As in the base case,

$$a_t q(x)p(x) = 0$$

and $a_tq(x)$ has degree strictly less than that of q(x), so that by minimality, $a_tq(x)=0$. By induction, $a_iq(x)=0$ for all $0 \le i \le n$. In particular, $a_ib_m=0$. Thus $b_mp(x)=0$.

Exercise 7.2.4 Prove that if R is an integral domain then the ring of formal power series R[[x]] is also an integral domain.

Proof. Solution: Let α and β be two nonzero elements in R[[x]]. Let

$$\alpha = \sum_{n\geqslant 0} a_n x^n, \quad \beta = \sum_{n\geqslant 0} b_n x^n.$$

Suppose i is the smallest nonnegative integer n such that $a_n \neq 0$ and j is the smallest nonnegative integer m such that $b_m \neq 0$. Then $a_i \neq 0, b_j \neq 0$ and

$$\alpha = \sum_{n \geqslant i} a_n x^n, \quad \beta = \sum_{m \geqslant j} b_m x^m.$$

Then it is clear that

 $\alpha\beta = a_i b_i x^{i+j} + \text{ terms with higher degree.}$

Because R is an integral domain, we have $a_i b_j \neq 0$. So $\alpha \beta \neq 0$. Therefore the ring R[[x]] of formal power series is also an integral domain.

Exercise 7.2.12 Let $G = \{g_1, \ldots, g_n\}$ be a finite group. Prove that the element $N = g_1 + g_2 + \ldots + g_n$ is in the center of the group ring RG.

Proof. Solution: Let $M = \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i g_i$ be an element of R[G]. Note that for each $g_i \in G$, the action of g_i on G by conjugation permutes the subscripts. Then we have the following.

$$NM = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} g_i\right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} r_j g_j\right)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_j g_i g_j$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_j g_j g_j^{-1} g_i g_j$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} r_j g_j \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} g_j^{-1} g_i g_j\right)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} r_j g_j \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} g_i\right)$$

$$= \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} r_j g_j\right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} g_i\right)$$

$$= MN$$

Thus $N \in Z(R[G])$.

Exercise 7.3.16 Let $\varphi: R \to S$ be a surjective homomorphism of rings. Prove that the image of the center of R is contained in the center of S.

Proof. Solution: Suppose $r \in \varphi[Z(R)]$. Then $r = \varphi(z)$ for some $z \in Z(R)$. Now let $x \in S$. Since φ is surjective, we have $x = \varphi y$ for some $y \in R$. Now

$$xr = \varphi(y)\varphi(z) = \varphi(yz) = \varphi(zy) = \varphi(z)\varphi(y) = rx.$$

Thus $r \in Z(S)$.

Exercise 7.3.28 Prove that an integral domain has characteristic p, where p is either a prime or 0.

Proof. Solution: Suppose the characteristic n of R is composite, and that n=ab where a and b are both less than n. Letting

$$\varphi: \mathbb{Z} \to R$$

be the ring homomorphism that takes $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ to the k-fold sum of 1 or -1, we have $\varphi(a)$ and $\varphi(b)$ nonzero. However,

$$\varphi(a)\varphi(b) = \varphi(ab) = \varphi(n) = 0,$$

so that $\varphi(a)$ and $\varphi(b)$ are zero divisors. Thus we have a contradiction. Hence, the characteristic of R is not composite, and thus must be a prime or zero. \square

Exercise 7.3.37 An ideal N is called nilpotent if N^n is the zero ideal for some $n \geq 1$. Prove that the ideal $p\mathbb{Z}/p^m\mathbb{Z}$ is a nilpotent ideal in the ring $\mathbb{Z}/p^m\mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. Solution: First we prove a lemma. Lemma: Let R be a ring, and let $I_1, I_2, J \subseteq R$ be ideals such that $J \subseteq I_1, I_2$. Then $(I_1/J)(I_2/J) = I_1I_2/J$. Proof: (\subseteq) Let

$$\alpha = \sum (x_i + J) (y_i + J) \in (I_1/J) (I_2/J).$$

Then

$$\alpha = \sum (x_i y_i + J) = \left(\sum x_i y_i\right) + J \in \left(I_1 I_2\right) / J.$$

Now let $\alpha = (\sum x_i y_i) + J \in (I_1 I_2) / J$. Then

$$\alpha = \sum (x_i + J) (y_i + J) \in (I_1/J) (I_2/J).$$

From this lemma and the lemma to Exercise 7.3.36, it follows by an easy induction that

$$(p\mathbb{Z}/p^m\mathbb{Z})^m = (p\mathbb{Z})^m/p^m\mathbb{Z} = p^m\mathbb{Z}/p^m\mathbb{Z} \cong 0.$$

Thus $p\mathbb{Z}/p^m\mathbb{Z}$ is nilpotent in $\mathbb{Z}/p^m\mathbb{Z}$.

Exercise 7.4.27 Let R be a commutative ring with $1 \neq 0$. Prove that if a is a nilpotent element of R then 1 - ab is a unit for all $b \in R$.

Proof. $\mathfrak{N}(R)$ is an ideal of R. Thus for all $b \in R, -ab$ is nilpotent. Hence 1-ab is a unit in R.

Exercise 8.1.12 Let N be a positive integer. Let M be an integer relatively prime to N and let d be an integer relatively prime to $\varphi(N)$, where φ denotes Euler's φ -function. Prove that if $M_1 \equiv M^d \pmod{N}$ then $M \equiv M_1^{d'} \pmod{N}$ where d' is the inverse of $d \mod \varphi(N)$: $dd' \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(N)}$.

Exercise 8.2.4 Let R be an integral domain. Prove that if the following two conditions hold then R is a Principal Ideal Domain: (i) any two nonzero elements a and b in R have a greatest common divisor which can be written in the form ra + sb for some $r, s \in R$, and (ii) if a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots are nonzero elements of R such that $a_{i+1} \mid a_i$ for all i, then there is a positive integer N such that a_n is a unit times a_N for all $n \geq N$.

Exercise 8.3.4 Prove that if an integer is the sum of two rational squares, then it is the sum of two integer squares.

Exercise 8.3.5a Let $R = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-n}]$ where n is a squarefree integer greater than 3. Prove that $2, \sqrt{-n}$ and $1 + \sqrt{-n}$ are irreducibles in R.

Exercise 8.3.6a Prove that the quotient ring $\mathbb{Z}[i]/(1+i)$ is a field of order 2.

Exercise 8.3.6b Let $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ be a prime with $q \equiv 3 \mod 4$. Prove that the quotient ring $\mathbb{Z}[i]/(q)$ is a field with q^2 elements.

Exercise 9.1.6 Prove that (x, y) is not a principal ideal in $\mathbb{Q}[x, y]$.

Exercise 9.1.10 Prove that the ring $\mathbb{Z}[x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots] / (x_1x_2, x_3x_4, x_5x_6, \ldots)$ contains infinitely many minimal prime ideals (cf. exercise.9.1.36 of Section 7.4).

Exercise 9.3.2 Prove that if f(x) and g(x) are polynomials with rational coefficients whose product f(x)g(x) has integer coefficients, then the product of any coefficient of g(x) with any coefficient of f(x) is an integer.

Exercise 9.4.2a Prove that $x^4 - 4x^3 + 6$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Exercise 9.4.2b Prove that $x^6 + 30x^5 - 15x^+6x - 120$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Exercise 9.4.2c Prove that $x^4 + 4x^3 + 6x^2 + 2x + 1$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Exercise 9.4.2d Prove that $\frac{(x+2)^p-2^p}{x}$, where p is an odd prime, is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Exercise 9.4.9 Prove that the polynomial $x^2 - \sqrt{2}$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$. You may assume that $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$ is a U.F.D.

Exercise 9.4.11 Prove that $x^2 + y^2 - 1$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x, y]$.

Exercise 11.1.13 Prove that as vector spaces over $\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}^n \cong \mathbb{R}$, for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

Exercise 11.3.3bi Let S be any subset of V^* for some finite dimensional space V. Define $Ann(S) = \{v \in V \mid f(v) = 0 \text{ for all } f \in S\}$. Let W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of V^* . Prove that $Ann(W_1 + W_2) = Ann(W_1) \cap Ann(W_2)$.

Exercise 11.3.3bii Let S be any subset of V^* for some finite dimensional space V. Define $\operatorname{Ann}(S) = \{v \in V \mid f(v) = 0 \text{ for all } f \in S\}$. Let W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of V^* . Prove that $\operatorname{Ann}(W_1 \cap W_2) = \operatorname{Ann}(W_1) + \operatorname{Ann}(W_2)$.

Exercise 11.3.3c Let S be any subset of V^* for some finite dimensional space V. Define $Ann(S) = \{v \in V \mid f(v) = 0 \text{ for all } f \in S\}$. Let W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of V^* . Prove that $W_1 = W_2$ if and only if $Ann(W_1) = Ann(W_2)$.

Exercise 11.3f Let S be any subset of V^* for some finite dimensional space V. Define $\operatorname{Ann}(S) = \{v \in V \mid f(v) = 0 \text{ for all } f \in S\}$. Let W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of V^* . Prove that if W^* is any subspace of V^* then $\dim \operatorname{Ann}(W^*) = \dim V - \dim W^*$.