

Exercises from *Abstract Algebra* by I. N. Herstein

Exercise 2.1.18 If G is a finite group of even order, show that there must be an element $a \neq e$ such that $a = a^{-1}$.

Proof. First note that $a = a^{-1}$ is the same as saying $a^2 = e$, where e is the identity. I.e. the statement is that there exists at least one element of order 2 in G . Every element a of G of order at least 3 has an inverse a^{-1} that is not itself – that is, $a \neq a^{-1}$. So the subset of all such elements has an even cardinality (/size). There's exactly one element with order 1 : the identity $e^1 = e$. So G contains an even number of elements -call it $2k$ - of which an even number are elements of order 3 or above – call that $2n$ where $n < k$ - and exactly one element of order 1 . Hence the number of elements of order 2 is

$$2k - 2n - 1 = 2(k - n) - 1$$

This cannot equal 0 as $2(k - n)$ is even and 1 is odd. Hence there's at least one element of order 2 in G , which concludes the proof. \square

Exercise 2.1.21 Show that a group of order 5 must be abelian.

Proof. Suppose G is a group of order 5 which is not abelian. Then there exist two non-identity elements $a, b \in G$ such that $a * b \neq b * a$. Further we see that G must equal $\{e, a, b, a * b, b * a\}$. To see why $a * b$ must be distinct from all the others, not that if $a * b = e$, then a and b are inverses and hence $a * b = b * a$. Contradiction. If $a * b = a$ (or $= b$), then $b = e$ (or $a = e$) and e commutes with everything. Contradiction. We know by supposition that $a * b \neq b * a$. Hence all the elements $\{e, a, b, a * b, b * a\}$ are distinct.

Now consider a^2 . It can't equal a as then $a = e$ and it can't equal $a * b$ or $b * a$ as then $b = a$. Hence either $a^2 = e$ or $a^2 = b$. Now consider $a * b * a$. It can't equal a as then $b * a = e$ and hence $a * b = b * a$. Similarly it can't equal b . It also can't equal $a * b$ or $b * a$ as then $a = e$. Hence $a * b * a = e$.

So then we additionally see that $a^2 \neq e$ because then $a^2 = e = a * b * a$ and consequently $a = b * a$ (and hence $b = e$). So $a^2 = b$. But then $a * b = a * a^2 = a^2 * a = b * a$. Contradiction. Hence starting with the assumption that there exists an order 5 abelian group G leads to a contradiction. Thus there is no such group. \square

Exercise 2.1.26 If G is a finite group, prove that, given $a \in G$, there is a positive integer n , depending on a , such that $a^n = e$.

Proof. Because there are only a finite number of elements of G , it's clear that the set $\{a, a^2, a^3, \dots\}$ must be a finite set and in particular, there should exist some i and j such that $i \neq j$ and $a^i = a^j$. WLOG suppose further that $i > j$ (just reverse the roles of i and j otherwise). Then multiply both sides by $(a^j)^{-1} = a^{-j}$ to get

$$a^i * a^{-j} = a^{i-j} = e$$

Thus the $n = i - j$ is a positive integer such that $a^n = e$. \square

Exercise 2.1.27 If G is a finite group, prove that there is an integer $m > 0$ such that $a^m = e$ for all $a \in G$.

Proof. Let n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k be the orders of all k elements of $G = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k\}$. Let $m = \text{lcm}(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k)$. Then, for any $i = 1, \dots, k$, there exists an integer c such that $m = n_i c$. Thus

$$a_i^m = a_i^{n_i c} = (a_i^{n_i})^c = e^c = e$$

Hence m is a positive integer such that $a^m = e$ for all $a \in G$. \square

Exercise 2.2.3 If G is a group in which $(ab)^i = a^i b^i$ for three consecutive integers i , prove that G is abelian.

Proof. Let G be a group, $a, b \in G$ and i be any integer. Then from given condition,

$$\begin{aligned} (ab)^i &= a^i b^i \\ (ab)^{i+1} &= a^{i+1} b^{i+1} \\ (ab)^{i+2} &= a^{i+2} b^{i+2} \end{aligned}$$

From first and second, we get

$$a^{i+1} b^{i+1} = (ab)^i (ab) = a^i b^i ab \implies b^i a = ab^i$$

From first and third, we get

$$a^{i+2} b^{i+2} = (ab)^i (ab)^2 = a^i b^i abab \implies a^2 b^{i+1} = b^i aba$$

This gives

$$a^2 b^{i+1} = a (ab^i) b = ab^i ab = b^i a^2 b$$

Finally, we get

$$b^i aba = b^i a^2 b \implies ba = ab$$

This shows that G is Abelian. \square

Exercise 2.2.5 Let G be a group in which $(ab)^3 = a^3b^3$ and $(ab)^5 = a^5b^5$ for all $a, b \in G$. Show that G is abelian.

Proof. We have

$$\begin{aligned} (ab)^3 &= a^3b^3, \text{ for all } a, b \in G \\ \implies (ab)(ab)(ab) &= a(a^2b^2)b \\ \implies a(ba)(ba)b &= a(a^2b^2)b \\ \implies (ba)^2 &= a^2b^2, \text{ by cancellation law.} \end{aligned}$$

Again,

$$\begin{aligned} (ab)^5 &= a^5b^5, \text{ for all } a, b \in G \\ \implies (ab)(ab)(ab)(ab)(ab) &= a(a^4b^4)b \\ \implies a(ba)(ba)(ba)(ba)b &= a(a^4b^4)b \\ \implies (ba)^4 &= a^4b^4, \text{ by cancellation law.} \end{aligned}$$

Now by combining two cases we have

$$\begin{aligned} (ba)^4 &= a^4b^4 \\ \implies ((ba)^2)^2 &= a^2(a^2b^2)b^2 \\ \implies (a^2b^2)^2 &= a^2(a^2b^2)b^2 \\ \implies (a^2b^2)(a^2b^2) &= a^2(a^2b^2)b^2 \\ \implies a^2(b^2a^2)b^2 &= a^2(a^2b^2)b^2 \\ \implies b^2a^2 &= a^2b^2, \text{ by cancellation law.} \\ \implies b^2a^2 &= (ba)^2, \text{ since } (ba)^2 = a^2b^2 \\ \implies b(ba)a &= (ba)(ba) \\ \implies b(ba)a &= b(ab)a \\ \implies ba &= ab, \text{ by cancellation law.} \end{aligned}$$

It follows that, $ab = ba$ for all $a, b \in G$. Hence G is abelian \square

Exercise 2.2.6c Let G be a group in which $(ab)^n = a^n b^n$ for some fixed integer $n > 1$ for all $a, b \in G$. For all $a, b \in G$, prove that $(aba^{-1}b^{-1})^{n(n-1)} = e$.

Proof. We start with the following two intermediate results. (1) $(ab)^{n-1} = b^{n-1}a^{n-1}$. (2) $a^n b^{n-1} = b^{n-1}a^n$. To prove (1), notice by the given condition for all $a, b \in G$ $(ba)^n = b^n a^n$, for some fixed integers $n > 1$. Then, $(ba)^n = b^n a^n \implies b.(ab)(ab) \dots (ab).a = b(b^{n-1}a^{n-1})a$, where (ab) occurs $n-1$ times $\implies (ab)^{n-1} = b^{n-1}a^{n-1}$, by cancellation law. Hence, for all $a, b \in G$

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

To prove (2), notice by the given condition for all $a, b \in G$ $(ba)^n = b^n a^n$, for some fixed integers $n > 1$. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned}
& (ba)^n = b^n a^n \\
\Rightarrow & b \cdot (ab)(ab) \dots (ab) \cdot a = b (b^{n-1} a^{n-1}) a, \text{ where } (ab) \text{ occurs } n-1 \text{ times} \\
\Rightarrow & (ab)^{n-1} = b^{n-1} a^{n-1}, \text{ by cancellation law} \\
\Rightarrow & (ab)^{n-1} (ab) = (b^{n-1} a^{n-1}) (ab) \\
\Rightarrow & (ab)^n = b^{n-1} a^n b \\
\Rightarrow & a^n b^n = b^{n-1} a^n b, \text{ given condition} \\
\Rightarrow & a^n b^{n-1} = b^{n-1} a^n, \text{ by cancellation law.}
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore for all $a, b \in G$ we have

$$a^n b^{n-1} = b^{n-1} a^n$$

In order to show that

$$(aba^{-1}b^{-1})^{n(n-1)} = e, \text{ for all } a, b \in G$$

it is enough to show that

$$(ab)^{n(n-1)} = (ba)^{n(n-1)}, \quad \forall x, y \in G.$$

Step 3 This is because of

$$\begin{aligned}
(ab)^{n(n-1)} &= (ba)^{n(n-1)} \Rightarrow (ba)^{-1})^{n(n-1)} (ab)^{n(n-1)} = e \\
&\Rightarrow (a^{-1}b^{-1})^{n(n-1)} (ab)^{n(n-1)} = e \\
&\Rightarrow \left((a^{-1}b^{-1})^n \right)^{n-1} ((ab)^n)^{n-1} = e \\
&\Rightarrow \left((ab)^n (a^{-1}b^{-1})^n \right)^{n-1} = e, \text{ by (1)} \\
&\Rightarrow (aba^{-1}b^{-1})^{n(n-1)} = e, \text{ (given condition)}
\end{aligned}$$

Now, it suffices to show that

$$(ab)^{n(n-1)} = (ba)^{n(n-1)}, \quad \forall x, y \in G.$$

Now, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
(ab)^{n(n-1)} &= (a^n b^n)^{n-1}, \text{ by the given condition} \\
&= (a^n b^{n-1} b)^{n-1} \\
&= (b^{n-1} a^n b)^{n-1}, \text{ by (2)} \\
&= (a^n b)^{n-1} (b^{n-1})^{n-1}, \text{ by (1)} \\
&= b^{n-1} (a^n)^{n-1} (b^{n-1})^{n-1}, \text{ by (1)} \\
&= (b^{n-1} (a^{n-1})^n) (b^{n-1})^{n-1} \\
&= (a^{n-1})^n b^{n-1} (b^{n-1})^{n-1}, \text{ by (2)} \\
&= (a^{n-1})^n (b^{n-1})^n \\
&= (a^{n-1} b^{n-1})^n, \text{ by (1)} \\
&= (ba)^{n(n-1)}, \text{ by (1)}.
\end{aligned}$$

This completes our proof. \square

Exercise 2.3.17 If G is a group and $a, x \in G$, prove that $C(x^{-1}ax) = x^{-1}C(a)x$

Proof. Note that

$$C(a) := \{x \in G \mid xa = ax\}.$$

Let us assume $p \in C(x^{-1}ax)$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned}
p(x^{-1}ax) &= (x^{-1}ax)p \\
\implies (px^{-1}a)x &= x^{-1}(axp) \\
\implies x(px^{-1}a) &= (axp)x^{-1} \\
\implies (xpx^{-1})a &= a(xpx^{-1}) \\
\implies xpx^{-1} &\in C(a).
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$p \in C(x^{-1}ax) \implies xpx^{-1} \in C(a).$$

Thus,

$$C(x^{-1}ax) \subset x^{-1}C(a)x.$$

Let us assume

$$q \in x^{-1}C(a)x.$$

Then there exists an element y in $C(a)$ such that

$$q = x^{-1}yx$$

Now,

$$y \in C(a) \implies ya = ay.$$

Also,

$$q(x^{-1}ax) = (x^{-1}yx)(x^{-1}ax) = x^{-1}(ya)x = x^{-1}(ya)x = (x^{-1}yx)(x^{-1}ax) = (x^{-1}yx)q.$$

Therefore,

$$q(x^{-1}ax) = (x^{-1}yx)q$$

So,

$$q \in C(x^{-1}ax).$$

Consequently we have

$$x^{-1}C(a)x \subset C(x^{-1}ax).$$

It follows from the aforesaid argument

$$C(x^{-1}ax) = x^{-1}C(a)x.$$

This completes the proof. \square

Exercise 2.3.19 If M is a subgroup of G such that $x^{-1}Mx \subset M$ for all $x \in G$, prove that actually $x^{-1}Mx = M$.

Exercise 2.3.16 If a group G has no proper subgroups, prove that G is cyclic of order p , where p is a prime number.

Proof. Case-1: $G = (e)$, e being the identity element in G . Then trivially G is cyclic. Case-2: $G \neq (e)$. Then there exists a non-identity element in G . Let us consider a non-identity element in G , say $a \neq (e)$. Now look at the cyclic subgroup generated by a , that is, $\langle a \rangle$. Since $a \neq (e) \in G$, $\langle a \rangle$ is a subgroup of G . If $G \neq \langle a \rangle$ then $\langle a \rangle$ is a proper non-trivial subgroup of G , which is an impossibility. Therefore we must have

$$G = \langle a \rangle.$$

This implies, G is a cyclic group generated by a . Then it follows that every non-identity element of G is a generator of G . Now we claim that G is finite. \square

Exercise 2.3.21 If A, B are subgroups of G such that $b^{-1}Ab \subset A$ for all $b \in B$, show that AB is a subgroup of G .

Proof. Proof: Let us consider any two elements p and q in AB . Then there exist elements $a_1, a_2 \in A$ and $b_1, b_2 \in B$ such that

$$p = a_1b_1 \text{ and } q = a_2b_2.$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} pq^{-1} &= (a_1b_1)(a_2b_2)^{-1} \\ &= (a_1b_1)(b_2^{-1}a_2^{-1}) \\ &= a_1(b_1b_2^{-1}a_2^{-1}b_2b_1^{-1})b_1b_2^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $b^{-1}Ab \subset A$, for all $b \in B$, we have

$$b_1 b_2^{-1} a_2^{-1} b_2 b_1^{-1} \in A.$$

□

Exercise 2.3.22 If A and B are finite subgroups, of orders m and n , respectively, of the abelian group G , prove that AB is a subgroup of order mn if m and n are relatively prime.

Proof. Proof: Firstly we show that AB forms a subgroup of the abelian group G . Let us consider $p \in AB, q \in AB$ and $p = a_1 b_1, q = a_2 b_2$, for some $a_1, a_2 \in A$ and $b_1, b_2 \in B$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} pq &= (a_1 b_1) (a_2 b_2) \\ &= a_1 (b_1 a_2) b_2 \\ &= a_1 (a_2 b_1) b_2, \text{ since } G \text{ is abelian} \\ &= (a_1 a_2) (b_1 b_2) \in AB. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$p, q \in AB \implies pq \in AB.$$

Also,

$$p^{-1} = (a_1 b_1)^{-1} = (b_1)^{-1} (a_1)^{-1} = (a_1)^{-1} (b_1)^{-1} \in AB.$$

So AB is a subgroup of G .

□

Exercise 2.3.28 Let M, N be subgroups of G such that $x^{-1}Mx \subset M$ and $x^{-1}Nx \subset N$ for all $x \in G$. Prove that MN is a subgroup of G and that $x^{-1}(MN)x \subset MN$ for all $x \in G$.

Proof. Proof: First we assert that MN is a subgroup of G . Let us consider two elements

$$x, y \in MN.$$

Then, there exists $m_1, m_2 \in M$ and $n_1, n_2 \in N$ such that

$$x = m_1 n_1 \text{ and } y = m_2 n_2.$$

Now we need to show that $xy^{-1} \in MN$. Now,

$$\begin{aligned} xy^{-1} &= m_1 n_1 (m_2 n_2)^{-1} \\ &= m_1 n_1 n_2^{-1} m_2^{-1} \\ &= m_1 m_2^{-1} (m_2 n_1 n_2^{-1} m_2^{-1}). \end{aligned}$$

Since, $n_1, n_2 \in N$, then $n_1 n_2^{-1} \in N$ and this implies $m_2 n_1 n_2^{-1} m_2^{-1} \in N$. Consequently,

$$xy^{-1} = m_1 m_2^{-1} (m_2 n_1 n_2^{-1} m_2^{-1}) \in MN.$$

Thus,

$$x, y \in MN \implies xy \in MN.$$

Hence, MN is a subgroup of G .

□

Exercise 2.3.29 If M is a subgroup of G such that $x^{-1}Mx \subset M$ for all $x \in G$, prove that actually $x^{-1}Mx = M$.

Proof. Proof: To prove $x^{-1}Mx = M$, it suffices to show that

$$M \subset x^{-1}Mx$$

Let us consider an element m in M . Then,

$$m = x^{-1} (xmx^{-1}) x, \text{ for any } x \in G.$$

Since G is a group,

$$x \in G \implies x^{-1} \in G.$$

So,

$$xmx^{-1} = (x^{-1})^{-1} mx^{-1} \in x^{-1}Mx (\subset M) \implies xmx^{-1} \in M$$

It follows that

$$m = x^{-1} (xmx^{-1}) x \in x^{-1}Mx.$$

Thus,

$$m \in M \implies m \in x^{-1}Mx.$$

Consequently,

$$M \subset x^{-1}Mx$$

Thence,

$$M = x^{-1}Mx$$

This completes the proof. \square

Exercise 2.4.8 If every right coset of H in G is a left coset of H in G , prove that $aHa^{-1} = H$ for all $a \in G$.

Proof. Proof: We have

$$Ha = bH, \text{ for } a, b \in G.$$

Then there exist $h_1, h_2 \in H$ such that

$$h_1a = bh_2.$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} h_1a = bh_2 &\implies b = h_1ah_2^{-1} \\ &\implies bH = h_1ah_2^{-1}H \\ &\implies Ha = h_1ah_2^{-1}H \\ &\implies Ha = h_1aH \\ &\implies h_1^{-1}Ha = aH \\ &\implies Ha = aH \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} Ha &= aH, \text{ for all } a \in G \\ &\implies H = aHa^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof. \square

Exercise 2.4.26 Let G be a group, H a subgroup of G , and let S be the set of all distinct right cosets of H in G , T the set of all left cosets of H in G . Prove that there is a 1-1 mapping of S onto T .

Proof. It suffices to show that there is a bijection between the set of all distinct left cosets of H in G and the set of all distinct right cosets of H in G . Let us consider an element a in G . Let us define a mapping

$$f : S \rightarrow T$$

by the assignment

$$f(Ha) = a^{-1}H, Ha \in S.$$

First we show that the mapping f is well defined in the sense that if

$$Hx = Ha \text{ then } x^{-1}H = a^{-1}H.$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} Hx = Ha &\implies x \in Ha \\ &\implies xa^{-1} \in H \\ &\implies (x^{-1})^{-1}a^{-1} \in H \\ &\implies a^{-1} \in x^{-1}H \\ &\implies a^{-1}H = x^{-1}H. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore f assigns a unique coset in T to a unique coset in S . We now prove that f is one-one. Let $Ha, Hb \in S$ and $Ha \neq Hb$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} f(Ha) = f(Hb) &\implies a^{-1}H = b^{-1}H \\ &\implies a^{-1} \in b^{-1}H \\ &\implies (b^{-1})^{-1}a^{-1} \in H \\ &\implies ba^{-1} \in H \\ &\implies b \in Ha \implies Hb = Ha. \end{aligned}$$

So,

$$Ha \neq Hb \implies f(Ha) \neq f(Hb).$$

This proves that f is one-one. In order to prove the f is onto, let us take an element aH in T . The pre-image of aH is Ha^{-1} in S , since

$$f(Ha^{-1}) = (a^{-1})^{-1}H = aH.$$

Therefore, f is onto. Consequently, f is a bijection from S to T . Hence we get an one-one mapping S onto T . This completes the proof. \square

Exercise 2.4.32 Let G be a finite group, H a subgroup of G . Let $f(a)$ be the least positive m such that $a^m \in H$. Prove that $f(a) \mid o(a)$, where $o(a)$ is an order of a .

Proof. Let us assume that

$$o(a) = n.$$

Then by Division Algorithm, there exist q and r such that

$$n = qf(a) + r, \text{ where } 0 \leq r < f(a).$$

Since $o(a) = n$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} a^n &\implies (a)^{qf(a)} \cdot a^r = e \\ &\implies \left(a^{f(a)}\right)^q \cdot a^r = e \end{aligned}$$

Now,

$$a^{f(a)} \in H \implies \left(a^{f(a)}\right)^q \in H \implies a^r \in H, \text{ as } e \in H.$$

The minimality of $f(a)$ that $a^{f(a)} \in H$, forced $r = 0$. It follows that

$$n = qf(a).$$

Therefore,

$$f(a) \mid o(a)$$

This completes the proof. \square

Exercise 2.4.36 If $a > 1$ is an integer, show that $n \mid \varphi(a^n - 1)$, where ϕ is the Euler φ -function.

Proof. Proof: We have $a > 1$. First we propose to prove that

$$\text{Gcd}(a, a^n - 1) = 1.$$

If possible, let us assume that $\text{Gcd}(a, a^n - 1) = d$, where $d > 1$. Then d divides a as well as $a^n - 1$. Now, d divides $a \implies d$ divides a^n . This is an impossibility, since d divides $a^n - 1$ by our assumption. Consequently, d divides 1, which implies $d = 1$. Hence we are contradict to the fact that $d > 1$. Therefore

$$\text{Gcd}(a, a^n - 1) = 1.$$

Then $a \in U_{a^n-1}$, where U_n is a group defined by

$$U_n := \{\bar{a} \in \mathbb{Z}_n \mid \text{Gcd}(a, n) = 1\}.$$

We know that order of an element divides the order of the group. Here order of the group U_{a^n-1} is $\phi(a^n - 1)$ and $a \in U_{a^n-1}$. This follows that $o(a)$ divides $\phi(a^n - 1)$. \square

Exercise 2.5.23 Let G be a group such that all subgroups of G are normal in G . If $a, b \in G$, prove that $ba = a^j b$ for some j .

Proof. Let G be a group where each subgroup is normal in G . let $a, b \in G$.

$$\begin{aligned}\langle a \rangle \triangleleft G &\Rightarrow b \cdot \langle a \rangle = \langle a \rangle \cdot b. \\ &\Rightarrow b \cdot a = a^j \cdot b \text{ for some } j \in \mathbb{Z}.\end{aligned}$$

(hence for $a_1 b \in G$ $a^j b = b \cdot a$). □

Exercise 2.5.30 Suppose that $|G| = pm$, where $p \nmid m$ and p is a prime. If H is a normal subgroup of order p in G , prove that H is characteristic.

Proof. Let G be a group of order pm , such that $p \nmid m$. Now, Given that H is a normal subgroup of order p . Now we want to prove that H is a characteristic subgroup, that is $\phi(H) = H$ for any automorphism ϕ of G . Now consider $\phi(H)$. Clearly $|\phi(H)| = p$. Suppose $\phi(H) \neq H$, then $H \cap \phi(H) = \{e\}$. Consider $H\phi(H)$, this is a subgroup of G as H is normal. Also $|H\phi(H)| = p^2$. By lagrange's theorem then $p^2 \mid pm \Rightarrow p \mid m$ - contradiction. So $\phi(H) = H$, and H is characteristic subgroup of G □

Exercise 2.5.31 Suppose that G is an abelian group of order $p^n m$ where $p \nmid m$ is a prime. If H is a subgroup of G of order p^n , prove that H is a characteristic subgroup of G .

Proof. Let G be an abelian group of order $p^n m$, such that $p \nmid m$. Now, Given that H is a subgroup of order p^n . Since G is abelian H is normal. Now we want to prove that H is a characteristic subgroup, that is $\phi(H) = H$ for any automorphism ϕ of G . Now consider $\phi(H)$. Clearly $|\phi(H)| = p^n$. Suppose $\phi(H) \neq H$, then $|H \cap \phi(H)| = p^s$, where $s < n$. Consider $H\phi(H)$, this is a subgroup of G as H is normal. Also $|H\phi(H)| = \frac{|H||\phi(H)|}{|H \cap \phi(H)|} = \frac{p^{2n}}{p^s} = p^{2n-s}$, where $2n - s > n$. By lagrange's theorem then $p^{2n-s} \mid p^n m \Rightarrow p^{n-s} \mid m \Rightarrow p \mid m$ - contradiction. So $\phi(H) = H$, and H is characteristic subgroup of G . □

Exercise 2.5.37 If G is a nonabelian group of order 6, prove that $G \simeq S_3$.

Proof. Suppose G is a non-abelian group of order 6 . We need to prove that $G \cong S_3$. Since G is non-abelian, we conclude that there is no element of order 6. Now all the nonidentity element has order either 2 or 3 . All elements cannot be order 3 .This is because except the identity elements there are 5 elements, but order 3 elements occur in pair, that is a, a^2 , both have order 3 , and $a \neq a^2$. So, this is a contradiction, as there are only 5 elements. So, there must be an element of order 2 . All elements of order 2 will imply that G is abelian, hence there is also element of order 3 . Let a be an element of order 2 , and b be an element of order 3 . So we have e, a, b, b^2 , already 4 elements. Now $ab \neq e, b, b^2$. So ab is another element distinct from the ones already constructed.

$ab^2 \neq e, b, ab, b^2, a$. So, we have got another element distinct from the other. So, now $G = \{e, a, b, b^2, ab, ab^2\}$. Also, ba must be equal to one of these elements. But $ba \neq e, a, b, b^2$. Also if $ba = ab$, the group will become abelian. so $ba = ab^2$. So what we finally get is $G = \langle a, b \mid a^2 = e = b^3, ba = ab^2 \rangle$. Hence $G \cong S_3$. \square

Exercise 2.5.43 Prove that a group of order 9 must be abelian.

Proof. We use the result from problem 40 which is as follows: Suppose G is a group, H is a subgroup and $|G| = n$ and $n \nmid (i_G(H))!$. Then there exists a normal subgroup $K \neq \{e\}$ and $K \subseteq H$. So, we have now a group G of order 9. Suppose that G is cyclic, then G is abelian and there is nothing more to prove. Suppose that G is not cyclic, then there exists an element a of order 3, and $A = \langle a \rangle$. Now $i_G(A) = 3$, now $9 \nmid 3!$, hence by the above result there is a normal subgroup K , non-trivial and $K \subseteq A$. But $|A| = 3$, a prime order subgroup, hence has no non-trivial subgroup, so $K = A$. So A is normal subgroup. Now since G is not cyclic any non-identity element is of order 3. So Let $a (\neq e) \in G$. Consider $A = \langle a \rangle$. As shown before A is normal. a commutes with any of its powers. Now Let $b \in G$ such that $b \notin A$. Then $bab^{-1} \in A$ and hence $bab^{-1} = a^i$. This implies $a = b^3ab^{-3} = a^{i^3} \implies a^{i^3-1} = e$. So, 3 divides $i^3 - 1$. Also by Fermat's little theorem 3 divides $i^2 - 1$. So 3 divides $i - 1$. But $0 \leq i \leq 2$. So $i = 1$, is the only possibility and hence $ab = ba$. So $a \in Z(G)$ as b was arbitrary. Since a was arbitrary $G = Z(G)$. Hence G is abelian. \square

Exercise 2.5.44 Prove that a group of order p^2 , p a prime, has a normal subgroup of order p .

Exercise 2.5.52 Let G be a finite group and φ an automorphism of G such that $\varphi(x) = x^{-1}$ for more than three-fourths of the elements of G . Prove that $\varphi(y) = y^{-1}$ for all $y \in G$, and so G is abelian.

Exercise 2.6.15 If G is an abelian group and if G has an element of order m and one of order n , where m and n are relatively prime, prove that G has an element of order mn .

Exercise 2.7.3 Let G be the group of nonzero real numbers under multiplication and let $N = \{1, -1\}$. Prove that $G/N \simeq$ positive real numbers under multiplication.

Exercise 2.7.7 If φ is a homomorphism of G onto G' and $N \triangleleft G$, show that $\varphi(N) \triangleleft G'$.

Exercise 2.8.7 If G is a group with subgroups A, B of orders m, n , respectively, where m and n are relatively prime, prove that the subset of G , $AB = \{ab \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$, has mn distinct elements.

Exercise 2.8.12 Prove that any two nonabelian groups of order 21 are isomorphic.

Exercise 2.8.15 Prove that if $p > q$ are two primes such that $q \mid p - 1$, then any two nonabelian groups of order pq are isomorphic.

Exercise 2.9.2 If G_1 and G_2 are cyclic groups of orders m and n , respectively, prove that $G_1 \times G_2$ is cyclic if and only if m and n are relatively prime.

Exercise 2.10.1 Let A be a normal subgroup of a group G , and suppose that $b \in G$ is an element of prime order p , and that $b \notin A$. Show that $A \cap \langle b \rangle = \{e\}$.

Exercise 2.11.6 If P is a p -Sylow subgroup of G and $P \triangleleft G$, prove that P is the only p -Sylow subgroup of G .

Exercise 2.11.7 If $P \triangleleft G$, P a p -Sylow subgroup of G , prove that $\varphi(P) = P$ for every automorphism φ of G .

Exercise 2.11.22 Show that any subgroup of order p^{n-1} in a group G of order p^n is normal in G .

Exercise 3.2.21 If σ, τ are two permutations that disturb no common element and $\sigma\tau = e$, prove that $\sigma = \tau = e$.

Exercise 3.2.23 Let σ, τ be two permutations such that they both have decompositions into disjoint cycles of cycles of lengths m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k . Prove that for some permutation β , $\tau = \beta\sigma\beta^{-1}$.

Exercise 3.3.2 If σ is a k -cycle, show that σ is an odd permutation if k is even, and is an even permutation if k is odd.

Exercise 3.3.9 If $n \geq 5$ and $\langle e \rangle \neq N \subset A_n$ is a normal subgroup of A_n , show that N must contain a 3-cycle.

Exercise 4.1.19 Show that there is an infinite number of solutions to $x^2 = -1$ in the quaternions.

Exercise 4.1.34 Let T be the group of 2×2 matrices A with entries in the field \mathbb{Z}_2 such that $\det A$ is not equal to 0. Prove that T is isomorphic to S_3 , the symmetric group of degree 3.

Exercise 4.2.5 Let R be a ring in which $x^3 = x$ for every $x \in R$. Prove that R is commutative.

Exercise 4.2.6 If $a^2 = 0$ in R , show that $ax + xa$ commutes with a .

Exercise 4.2.9 Let p be an odd prime and let $1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{p-1} = \frac{a}{b}$, where a, b are integers. Show that $p \mid a$.

Exercise 4.3.1 If R is a commutative ring and $a \in R$, let $L(a) = \{x \in R \mid xa = 0\}$. Prove that $L(a)$ is an ideal of R .

Exercise 4.3.25 Let R be the ring of 2×2 matrices over the real numbers; suppose that I is an ideal of R . Show that $I = (0)$ or $I = R$.

Exercise 4.4.9 Show that $(p-1)/2$ of the numbers $1, 2, \dots, p-1$ are quadratic residues and $(p-1)/2$ are quadratic nonresidues \pmod{p} .

Exercise 4.5.12 If $F \subset K$ are two fields and $f(x), g(x) \in F[x]$ are relatively prime in $F[x]$, show that they are relatively prime in $K[x]$.

Exercise 4.5.16 Let $F = \mathbb{Z}_p$ be the field of integers \pmod{p} , where p is a prime, and let $q(x) \in F[x]$ be irreducible of degree n . Show that $F[x]/(q(x))$ is a field having at exactly p^n elements.

Exercise 4.5.23 Let $F = \mathbb{Z}_7$ and let $p(x) = x^3 - 2$ and $q(x) = x^3 + 2$ be in $F[x]$. Show that $p(x)$ and $q(x)$ are irreducible in $F[x]$ and that the fields $F[x]/(p(x))$ and $F[x]/(q(x))$ are isomorphic.

Exercise 4.5.25 If p is a prime, show that $q(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^{p-1}$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

Exercise 4.6.2 Prove that $f(x) = x^3 + 3x + 2$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

Exercise 4.6.3 Show that there is an infinite number of integers a such that $f(x) = x^7 + 15x^2 - 30x + a$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

Exercise 5.1.8 If F is a field of characteristic $p \neq 0$, show that $(a + b)^m = a^m + b^m$, where $m = p^n$, for all $a, b \in F$ and any positive integer n .

Exercise 5.2.20 Let V be a vector space over an infinite field F . Show that V cannot be the set-theoretic union of a finite number of proper subspaces of V .

Exercise 5.3.7 If $a \in K$ is such that a^2 is algebraic over the subfield F of K , show that a is algebraic over F .

Exercise 5.3.10 Prove that $\cos 1^\circ$ is algebraic over \mathbb{Q} .

Exercise 5.4.3 If $a \in C$ is such that $p(a) = 0$, where $p(x) = x^5 + \sqrt{2}x^3 + \sqrt{5}x^2 + \sqrt{7}x + \sqrt{11}$, show that a is algebraic over \mathbb{Q} of degree at most 80.

Exercise 5.5.2 Prove that $x^3 - 3x - 1$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

Exercise 5.6.3 Let \mathbb{Q} be the rational field and let $p(x) = x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$. Show that there is an extension K of \mathbb{Q} with $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$ over which $p(x)$ splits into linear factors.

Exercise 5.6.14 If F is of characteristic $p \neq 0$, show that all the roots of $x^m - x$, where $m = p^n$, are distinct.