1. (a) We know that since for any element  $x \in G$  that  $C_x$  the centralizer of x is a subgroup of G, by orbit stabilizer  $\#C_x\#\mathcal{O}_x = \#G$  where  $\mathcal{O}_x$  is the orbit of x under the conjugation action. It follows that listing the distinct orbits  $\mathcal{O}_{x_i}$ ,

$$\#G = \#\bigsqcup_{i} \mathcal{O}_{x_i} = \sum_{i} \#\mathcal{O}_{x_i}$$

and each  $\mathcal{O}_{x_i}|G$  implying that  $\#\mathcal{O}_{x_i} \in \{1,p,p^2\}$ , if we assume for contradiction that Z(G)=1, then from the above class equation  $1+\sum_{i\geq 2}\#\mathcal{O}_{x_i}=1+\sum_{i\geq 2}k_ip=p^2$ , taking this equation modulke p we get a contradiction, so that #Z(G)=p or  $p^2$  in the  $p^2$  case we are done, and in the other case we have G/Z(G) is cyclic, so that any element of G can be written in the form  $x^ia$ ,  $a\in Z(G)$ , but  $(x^ia)(x^jb)=x^{i+j}ab=x^jx^iba=x^jbx^ia$  which shows that G is abelian, this contradicts #Z(G)=p, so #Z(G)=#G and G is abelian.  $\square$ 

- (b) A group of order p is cyclic and generated by any of its nontrivial elements, so that all of its elements aside from 1 have order p. Hence p-1 such elements. A group of order  $p^2$  is of the form  $C_p^2$  or  $C_{p^2}$  by the classification of abelian groups. In the former case, we use the fact that o(x,y) = lcm[x,y], so as long as either x or y have order p we have an element of order p, this gives  $p^2-1$  elements of order p. In the latter case,  $C_{p^2}$  is generated by any element k with  $\gcd(k,p^2)=1$  the number of these is  $\varphi(p^2)=p(p-1)=p^2-p$ , so there are  $p^2-(p^2-p)-1=p-1$  elements of order p.
- **2.** We can use orbit stabilizer with  $S_9$  acting on the pearls, the stabilizer of the necklace BBBBWWWRR is clearly  $S_4 \times S_3 \times S_2$  has cardinality  $12 \cdot 4!$ , so there are  $\frac{9!}{12 \cdot 4!}$  necklaces.

3.

$$X = \{(g_1, \dots, g_p) \mid g_i \in G \text{ and } \prod_{1}^p g_i = 1\}$$

Then we have an action of  $\mathbf{F}_p$  on X via  $k \cdot (g_i) = (g_{[k+i]})$  where [n] denotes  $n \mod p$ . Note that when determining an element of X, the first p-1 choices are free, meaning there are  $n^{p-1}$  choices for the first p-1 coordinates (here n=#G), but the last coordinate is fixed as  $\left(\prod_{i=1}^{p-1}g_i\right)^{-1}$ , so X has  $n^{p-1}$  elements. In the case where  $g_i=g_j, \forall i,j$  the action is trivial, otherwise the orbit of the action has order p. The cardinality of X is the sum of the cardinality of the orbits, letting r be the number of single element orbits, and q the number of p element orbits we get p = r + qp so that since p = r + qp which implies p = r + qp since p = r + qp so that since p = r + qp and the number of element orbit p = r + qp so that since p = r + qp so that since p = r + qp so that since p = r + qp so that p = r + qp so that since p = r + qp so that p

**4.** Since the groups are not commutative they must have composite order, write  $\#G = \prod_1^r p_i$  where  $p_r \ge p_{r-1} \ge \cdots \ge p_1$ . Then  $p_1$  connot be 11, so  $p_1$  is at most 7, moreover if  $p_1 = 7$ , then  $G = C_{49}, C_7$  or  $C_7^2$  all of which are abelian, so that  $p_1$  is at most 5, if  $p_1 = 5$ , then once again we get an abelian group since the only possible factorizations are  $p_1 = p_2 = 5$  which is abelian by question 1, or  $p_2 = 7$ , it follows that the subgroup N of order 7 is normal since it has index 5, the smallest prime dividing the order of the group, so this group can't be simple. This implies that  $p_1 \in \{2,3\}$ .

Now we note that no group of order pq for p,q both primes is simple, this is immediate from Sylows theorem since if q>p, the number of q sylow subgroups must be one hence normal. Now we can look at the case  $p^2q$ , if p>q, we are done since the Sylow-p group has to be normal, so assume q>p, then there are either  $p^2$  or 1 sylow q subgroups, in the latter case we are done and in the former case, these sylow q subgroups all need to have intersection 1 since they are cyclic so we have  $p^2(q-1)=p^2q-p^2$  elements of order q, the remaining elements must all be in the same sylow p subgroup having order  $p^2$ , so the sylow p subgroup must be normal in this case, contradicting simplicity.

To rule out all groups with 3 prime factors we are thus left with the groups of order 30 and 42, the group of order 42 is easy since the sylow-7 subgroup must be normal by Sylow 2. For the group of order 30, we need only consider the case where there are 6 sylow-5 subgroups and hence 24 elements of order 5,

the sylow 3 subgroup must be normal otherwise there would be 10 sylow 3 subgroups adding 20 elements of order 3 giving too many elements, so at this point we have ruled out all groups with 3 prime factors.

Four prime factors (not all 2,3) gives us groups of order 56 and 40 in the 56 case we get the sylow-7 subgroup has index 1 or 8, in the index 8 case we get 48 elements of order 7, so the remaining 8 elements must constitute a single sylow-2 subgroup, which must be normal so this case is null. In the order 40 case the sylow 5 subgroup must be normal.

Now the problem has been reduced to  $\geq 4$  prime factors all being 2, 3, for now I will appeal to Burnside's theorem, but I should finish it more satisfyingly later.

- **5.** (a) The types of elements in  $A_5$  are 1, (abc), (ab)(cd), (abcde) The conjugacy classes are each contained in their conjugacy classes in  $S_5$ , i.e. cycle types, and hence the orders are divisors. We compute  $\#\mathcal{O}_1 = 1$ , the normalizer of elements of the form (ab)(cd) are elements of  $A_5$  sending  $\{a,b\} \to \{a,b\}$  and  $\{c,d\} \to \{c,d\}$  or  $\{a,b\} \to \{c,d\}$  and  $\{c,d\} \to \{a,b\}$ , of which there are 4 elements
- (b) A normal subgroup of  $A_5$  must be a union of conjugacy classes (including 1) with order dividing  $\#A_5 = 60$ , by reading the conjugacy class sizes in (a), no such union of conjugacy classes exists.
  - (c)
  - (d)
  - (e)
- **6.** Note first that in general  $g \in G$  and z in a left G-set, then  $\operatorname{Stab}(gz) = g\operatorname{Stab}(z)g^{-1}$ 
  - (a) If gx = y, then from the previous remark

$$\operatorname{Stab}(y) = \operatorname{Stab}(gx) = g\operatorname{Stab}(x)g^{-1}$$

(b) First suppose  $g\operatorname{Stab}(x)g^{-1} = \operatorname{Stab}(y)$ , then let take  $F: hx \mapsto hgy$ , this is clearly a bijection and a G-set morphism so long as its well defined. If hx = h'x, then  $h^{-1}h' \in \operatorname{Stab}(x)$ , so that

$$g^{-1}h^{-1}h'gy = y \iff h'gy = hgy$$

as desired.

Conversely, if  $F: X \to Y$  is a G-set isomorphism, then write F(x) = gy, then

$$\operatorname{Stab}(x) = \operatorname{Stab}F(x) = g\operatorname{Stab}(y)g^{-1}$$