Chapter 1

Groups

1.1 Semigroups, monoids and groups

Exercise 1.1.1. Give examples other than those in the text of semigroups and monoids that are not groups.

Answer. Semigroup: $(\mathbf{Z}_+, +)$ Monoid: (\mathbf{Z}_+, \times)

Exercise 1.1.2. Let G be a group (written additively), S a nonempty set, and M(S,G) the set of all functions $f:S\to G$. Define addition in M(S,G) as follows: $(f+g):S\to G$ is given by $s\to f(s)+g(s)\in G$. Prove that M(S,G) is a group, which is abelian if G is.

Answer. Firstly we check M(S,G) is a group

- 1. $f+g: s \mapsto f(s)+g(s) \in G$, so $f+g \in M(S,G)$
- 2. $(f+g) + h : s \mapsto (f(s) + g(s)) + h(s)$, G is a group, so $s \mapsto (f(s) + g(s)) + h(s) \Leftrightarrow s \mapsto f(s) + (g(s) + h(s))$, (f+g) + h = f + (g+h).
- 3. Take the unit element as $e': s \mapsto e$. $f + e': s \mapsto f(s) + e'(s) = f(s) + e = f(s)$, so f + e' = f. Similarly, e' + f = f.
- 4. For any $f \in M(S,G)$, take $f^{-1}: s \mapsto (f(s))^{-1}$, whence $f(s) + (f(s))^{-1} = (f(s))^{-1} + f(s) = e$.

In conclusion, M(S,G) is a group. If G is abelian $f+g: s \mapsto f(s)+g(s)=g(s)+f(s), \ f+g=g+f,$ so M(S,G) is abelian.

Exercise 1.1.3. Is it true that a semigroup which has a left identity element and in which every element has a right inverse (see Proposition 1.3) is a group?

Answer. If e is the left identity, $\forall a \in A, ea = a \text{ and } \forall a \in A, \exists a^{-1}s.t.aa^{-1} = e$. We have proved that if cc = c, then c = e.

$$(a^{-1}a)(a^{-1}a) = a^{-1}(aa^{-1})a = a^{-1}(ea) = a^{-1}a \Rightarrow a^{-1}a = e$$

 a^{-1} is also the left inverse. $ae = a(a^{-1}a) = (aa^{-1})a = ea = a$, e is also the right identity.

Exercise 1.1.4. Write out a multiplication table for the group D_4^* .

Answer. $D_4^* = \{R, R^2, R^3, I, T_x, T_y, T_{13}, T_{24}\}$

| | I | R | R^2 | R^3 | T_x | T_y | T_{13} | T_{24} |
|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| I | I | R | R^2 | R^3 | T_x | T_{u} | T_{13} | T_{24} |
| R | R | R^2 | R^3 | I | T_{13} | T_{24} | T_y | T_x |
| R^2 | R^2 | R^3 | I | R | T_y | T_x | T_{24} | T_{13} |
| R^3 | R^3 | I | R | R^2 | T_{24} | T_{13} | T_x | T_y |
| T_x | T_x | T_{24} | T_y | T_{13} | I | R^2 | R^3 | R |
| T_y | T_y | T_{13} | T_x | T_{24} | R^2 | I | R | R^3 |
| T_{13} | T_{13} | T_y | T_{24} | T_x | R^3 | R | I | R^2 |
| | | T_x | | | | | R^2 | I |

Exercise 1.1.5. Prove that the symmetric group on n letters, S_n , has order n!.

Answer. For a set A whose order is n, we prove there's n! different bijections by induction

- 1. For n = 1, trivial.
- 2. Assume n=k, there's k! bijections. For n=k+1, fix one element in A, and take $a\mapsto a$, there's k free elements, so there's $k!\cdot (k+1)$ bijections in total.

By induction, we get the result.

Exercise 1.1.6. Write out an addition table for $Z_2 \oplus Z_2$. $Z_2 \oplus Z_2$ is called the Klein four group.

Answer. $Z_2 = \{1, 0\}, Z_2 \oplus Z_2 = \{(1, 1), (1, 0), (0, 1), (0, 0)\}$

$$\begin{array}{c|ccccc} & (1,1) & (1,0) & (0,1) & (0,0) \\ \hline (1,1) & (0,0) & (0,1) & (1,0) & (1,1) \\ (1,0) & (0,1) & (0,0) & (1,1) & (1,0) \\ (0,1) & (1,0) & (1,1) & (0,0) & (0,1) \\ (0,0) & (1,1) & (1,0) & (0,1) & (0,0) \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Exercise 1.1.7. If p is prime, then the nonzero elements of Z_p form a group of order p-1 under multiplication. Show that this statement is false if p is not prime.

Answer. For the set $Z_p \setminus \{\bar{0}\}$

- 1. $Z_p \setminus \{\bar{0}\}\$ is obviously associative and communicative.
- 2. Take $\bar{1}$ as the identity element, $\forall \bar{a} \in \mathbb{Z}_p \setminus \{\bar{0}\}, \bar{1} \times \bar{a} = \bar{a}$.
- 3. We prove there is a unique element $a^{-1} \in Z_p \setminus \{\bar{0}\} s.t. aa^{-1} = \bar{1}$. Assume there exists \bar{b}, \bar{c} and $\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} = \bar{k}, \bar{a} \cdot \bar{c} = \bar{k}$, then $a(b-c) \equiv 0 \mod p$. p is a prime, so lcm(p,a) = 1, lcm(p,b-c) = 1, so $\bar{b} = \bar{c}$. There is at most one element s.t. $\bar{a}\bar{b} = \bar{k}$. Take $\bar{b} = \bar{1}, \bar{2}, \dots p-1$, \bar{k} travels through $\bar{b} = \bar{1}, \bar{2}, \dots p-1$. There exists an element $\bar{b} \in Z_p \setminus \{\bar{0}\}, \bar{a}\bar{b} = \bar{1}$.

 $Z_p \setminus \{0\}$ is a group. If p is not a prime, the inverse element is not always unique. Take a|p, there's more than one inverse element in $Z_p \setminus \{\bar{0}\}$.

Exercise 1.1.8. 1. The relation given by $a \sim b \Leftrightarrow a - b \in \mathbf{Z}$ is a congruence relation on the additive group \mathbf{Q} [see Theorem 1.5].

2. The set \mathbf{Q}/\mathbf{Z} of equivalence classes is an infinite abelian group.

Answer. 1. For group $(\mathbf{Q}, +)$, $a_1 \sim b_1 \Leftrightarrow a_1 - b_1 = k_1 \in \mathbf{Z}$, $a_2 \sim b_2 \Leftrightarrow a_2 - b_2 = k_2 \in \mathbf{Z}$, so $(a_1 + a_2) - (b_1 + b_2) = ((k_1 + b_1) + (k_2 + b_2)) - (b_1 + b_2) = k_1 + k_2 \in \mathbf{Z}$. $a \sim b$ is a congruence relation.

- 2. 1 if $a + b \ge 1$, $\bar{a} + \bar{b} = a + \bar{b} 1$. If a + b < 1, $\bar{a} + \bar{b} = a + \bar{b}$.
 - $2 \mathbf{Q}/\mathbf{Z}$ is obviously associative and communicative.
 - 3 Take the identity element as $\bar{0}$, $\bar{0} + \bar{a} = \bar{a}$.
 - 4 If $\bar{a} \neq 0$, take $(\bar{a})^{-1} = 1 a$, then $\bar{a} + 1 a = \bar{0}$
 - so \mathbf{Q}/\mathbf{Z} is a abelian group. (Infinite remains to be certified)

Exercise 1.1.9. Let p be a fixed prime. Let R_p be the set of all those rational numbers whose denominator is relatively prime to p. Let R^p be the set of rationals whose denominator is a power of $p(p^i, i > 0)$. Prove that both R_p and R^p are abelian groups under ordinary addition of rationals.

Answer. Trivial.

Exercise 1.1.10. Let p be a prime and let $Z(p^{\infty})$ be the following subset of the group \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} :

$$Z(p^{\infty}) = \{\bar{a/b} \in \mathbf{Q}/\mathbf{Z}| a, b \in \mathbf{Z} \text{ and } b = p^i \text{ for some } i \ge 0\}$$

Show that $Z(p^{\infty})$ is an infinite group under the addition operation of \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} .

Answer. $Z(p^{\infty}) = \{\bar{a/b}| a, b \in \mathbf{Z}, b = p^i, i \geq 0\}$. Take $a = \frac{\bar{a_1}}{b_1}, b = \frac{\bar{a_2}}{b_2}$. $b^{-1} = \frac{b_2 - a_2}{b_2}$

$$a + b^{-1} = \frac{\bar{a_1}}{b_1} + \frac{b_2 - \bar{a_2}}{b_2} = \frac{\bar{a_1}}{p^{s_1}} + \frac{p^{s_2} - \bar{a_2}}{p^{s_2}}$$
$$= \frac{a_1 \cdot p^{s_2} + p^{\bar{s_1}}(p^{s_2} - \bar{a_2})}{p^{s_1 + s_2}} \in Z(p^{\infty})$$

Therefore, $Z(p^{\infty})$ is a subgroup of \mathbf{Q}/\mathbf{Z} . $\frac{1}{p^i} \in Z(p^{\infty})$ for any $i \in \mathbf{Z}$, so $Z(p^{\infty})$ is infinite, \mathbf{Q}/\mathbf{Z} is also infinite.

Exercise 1.1.11. The following conditions on a group G are equivalent:

i G is abelian;

ii $(ab)^2 = a^2b^2$ for all $a, b \in G$;

iii $(ab)^{-1} = a^{-1}b^{-1}$ for all $a, b \in G$;

iv $(ab)^n = a^n b^n$ for all $n \in \mathbf{Z}$ and all $a, b \in G$;

v $(ab)^n = a^n b^n$ for three consecutive integers n and all $a, b \in G$. Show that $v \Rightarrow i$ is false if 'three' is replaced by 'two'.

Answer. i \Leftrightarrow iii: $((ab)b^{-1})a^{-1} = (ab)(b^{-1}a^{-1}) = e$, so $(ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1}$. If iii, $b^{-1}a^{-1} = a^{-1}b^{-1}$ for any $a, b \in G$, G is abelian. If i, G is abelian, $(ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1} = a^{-1}b^{-1}$.

 $iv \Rightarrow v$, $iv \Rightarrow ii$ and $i \Rightarrow iv$ are trivial. $ii \Rightarrow i$:

$$(ab)(ab) = aabb \Rightarrow a^{-1}(ab)^2b^{-1} = a^{-1}aabbb^{-1} = ba = ab$$

so G is abelian.

$$\mathbf{v} \Rightarrow \mathbf{i} \colon a^n b^n = (ab)^n, \ a^{n-1} b^{n-1} = (ab)^{n-1}, \ a^{n+1} b^{n+1} = (ab)^{n+1}.$$

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

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

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

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

So $a^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1}b$, which means G is abelian.

If "three" is replaced by "two": $a^n b^n = (ab)^n$, $a^{n+1} b^{n+1} = (ab)^{n+1}$.

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

For the group $S_3 = \{(1), (12), (13), (23), (123), (132)\}$, taking any $a \in S_3$, we can check that $a^6 = (1)$. If n = 6, then $a = (b^{-1})^n a b^n$ for any $a, b \in S_3$. But S_3 is nonabelian.

Exercise 1.1.12. If G is a group, $a, b \in G$ and $bab^{-1} = a^r$ for some $r \in \mathbb{N}$, then $b^j ab^{-j} = a^{r^j}$ for all $j \in \mathbb{N}$.

Answer. $bab^{-1} = a^r$. We prove it by induction. For j = 1, its always true. Assume j = k the equation is correct, $b^k ab^{-k} = a^{r^k}$. $ba^{r^k}b^{-1} = (a^{r^k})^{r=a^{r^{k+1}}}$. For j = k+1, it's also true.

Exercise 1.1.13. If $a^2 = e$ for all elements a of a group G, then G is abelian.

Answer.

$$a^{2} = e \Rightarrow a^{2}a^{-1} = ea^{-1} = a(aa^{-1}) = ae \Rightarrow a = a^{-1}$$

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

So $ab = ba \forall a, b \in G$. G is abelian.

Exercise 1.1.14. If G is a finite group of even order, then G contains an element $a \neq e$ such that $a^2 = e$.

Answer. Suppose not. $\forall a \neq e, aa \neq e \Leftrightarrow a \neq a^{-1}$. We can classify the group into some subsets. $G = \bigcup_{a \neq e} \{a, a^{-1}\} \cup \{e\}$. Notice that $\{a, a^{-1}\} \cap \{b, b^{-1}\} = \emptyset$ if $a \neq b$, so |G| = 2n + 1, That's contradictory!

Exercise 1.1.15. Let G be a nonempty finite set with an associative binary operation such that for all $a, b, c \in G$, $ab = ac \Rightarrow b = c$ and $ba = ca \Rightarrow b = c$. Then G is a group. Show that this conclusion may be false if G is finite.

Answer. G is a semigroup. Fix $a \in G$ and take b travels through all elements in G, then ab travels through all elements in G.

There exists an element e_1 s.t. $ae_1 = a \forall a \in G$. Similarly, we can find e_2 s.t. $e_2a = a \forall a \in G$. $e_2e_1 = e_1 = e_2 = e$. e is the identity element of G. Easily, we can find that $\forall a \in G, \exists! a^{-1} \in G$ s.t. $a^{-1}a = aa^{-1} = e$ because $ab = ac \Rightarrow b = c$ and $ba = ca \Rightarrow b = c$.

G is a group. If G is infinite, G may not be a group, for example: (Z_+, \times) .

Exercise 1.1.16. Let $a_1, a_2, ...$ be a sequence of elements in a semigroup G. Then there exists a unique function $\Psi : \mathbb{N}^* \to G$ such that $\Psi(1) = a_1, \Psi(2) = a_1 a_2, \Psi(3) = (a_1 a_2) a_3$ and for $n \geq 1$, $\Psi(n+1) = (\Psi(n)) a_{n+1}$. Note that $\Psi(n)$ is precisely the standard n product $\prod_{i=1}^n a_i$.

Answer. Applying the Recursion Theorem with $a = a_1, S = G$ and $f_n : G \to G$ given by $x \mapsto xa_{n+2}$ yields a function $\phi : \mathbf{N} \to G$. Let $\Psi = \phi\theta$, where $\theta : \mathbf{N}^* \to \mathbf{N}$ is given by $k \mapsto k - 1$.

1.2 Homomorphisms and subgroups

Exercise 1.2.1. If $f: G \to H$ is a homomorphism of groups, then $f(e_G) = e_H$ and $f(a^{-1}) = f(a)^{-1}$ for all $a \in G$. Show by example that the first conclusion may be false if G, H are monoids that are not groups.

Answer. For example, $(\mathbf{Z}_+, +)$ and (\mathbf{N}, \times) are monoids. Denote $f : \mathbf{Z}_+ \to \mathbf{N}$ as $f(x) = 0 \forall x \in \mathbf{Z}_+$. f is a homomorphism satisfies those conditions.

Exercise 1.2.2. A group G is abelian if and only if the map $G \to G$ given by $x \mapsto x^{-1}$ is automorphism.

Answer. If G is abelian, $f(x) = x^{-1}$ is a monomorphism and epimorphism. $f(a)f(b) = a^{-1}b^{-1} = (ab)^{-1} = f(ab)$ If $f(x) = x^{-1}$ is a isomorphism, $f(a)f(b) = a^{-1}b^{-1} = f(ab) = (ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1} \forall a,b \in G$, so G is abelian.

Exercise 1.2.3. Let Q_8 be the group (under ordinary matrix multiplication) generated by complex matrices $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, where $i^2 = -1$. Show that Q_8 is a nonabelian group of order 8. Q_8 is called the quaternion group.

Answer. The multiply operation is associative by the difinition. $A^4 = B^4 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = I$ which is the identity element.

$$A^{-1} = A^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in G \qquad B^{-1} = B^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ -i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in G$$

So $\forall A^i B^j \in G$, $(A^i B^j)^{-1} \in G$. G is a group. Now we examine the order of G is 8.

$$BA = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -i & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{pmatrix}$$
$$A^{3}B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -i & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

So $BA = A^3B$. Take $X = A^{s_1}B^{s_2}A^{s_3}B^{s_4}\dots A^{s_{2n-1}}B^{s_{2n}} = A^{s_1}B^{s_2-1}A^3B$ $A^{s_3-1}B^{s_4}\dots A^{s_{2n-1}}B^{s_{2n}} = \dots$ In finite steps, we can change it into $X = A^aB^b$. $A^4 = B^4 = I$, so we only consider $1 \le a, b \le 4$. $A^2 = B^2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$, we list all: $Q_8 = \{A, A^2, B, BA, AB, A^2B, AB^2, I\}$. The order of Q_8 is 8.

Exercise 1.2.4. Let H be the group (under ordinary matrix multiplication) of real matrices generated by $C = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $D = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Show that H is a nonabelian group of order 8 which is not isomorphic to the quaternion group, but is isomorphic to the group D_4^* .

Answer. $C^4D^2 = I, DC = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = C^3D$. Similarly, we can prove H is a nonabelian group of order 8. $H = \{C, C^2, C^3, I, D, CD, C^2D, C^3D\}$ Assume $G \cong H$ and the isomorphism is f, Let f(D) = X, $f(D^2) = X^2 = f(I) = I$, so $X^2 = I$. But $f^{-1}(I) = I \Rightarrow X \neq I \Rightarrow X = AB$ or $X = A^2$ or $X = B^2$.

If $X=A^2$, consider $f(C)=Y, f(C^2D)=Z$, we have $(Y,Z)=(B^2,AB)$ or $(Y,Z)=(AB,B^2)$. $f(C^2D)=f(C^2)f(D)\Leftrightarrow Z=XY$. That's contradictory!

If $X = B^2$, the proof is similar.

If X = AB, (Y, Z) = (A, B) or (Y, Z) = (B, A). That's contradictory! So f doesn't exist. G is not isomorphic to H.

Now we prove $H \cong D_4^*$. For any point $(x,y)^T$ inside the square

$$T_{x} = (x, -y)^{T} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} (x, y)^{T} = CD(x, y)^{T}$$

$$T_{y} = (-x, y)^{T} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} (x, y)^{T} = C^{3}D(x, y)^{T}$$

$$T_{13} = (-y, x)^{T} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} (x, y)^{T} = C^{3}(x, y)^{T}$$

$$T_{24} = (y, -x)^{T} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} (x, y)^{T} = C(x, y)^{T}$$

so $D_4^* = \langle T_x, T_y, T_{13}, T_{24} \rangle = H = \langle C, D \rangle.$

Exercise 1.2.5. Let S be a nonempty subset of a group G and define a relation on G by $a \sim b$ if and only if $ab^{-1} \in S$. Show that \sim is an equivalence relation if and only if S is a subgroup of G.

Answer. If \sim is a equivalence relation

- 1. $a \sim b \Rightarrow b \sim a$;
- 2. $a \sim a$;
- 3. $a \sim b, b \sim c \Rightarrow a \sim c$.

 $2 \Leftrightarrow aa^{-1} = e \in S$. $1 \Rightarrow a \sim e \Rightarrow e \sim a \forall a \in S$, so $ae^{-1} = a \in S, ea^{-1} = a^{-1} \in S$. If $a, b \in S, b^{-1} \in S$, so $ae^{-1} \in S, e(b^{-1})^{-1} \in S$. By $3, a \sim e, e \sim b^{-1} \Rightarrow a \sim b^{-1} \Rightarrow ab \in S$. S is a subgroup of G.

If S is a subgroup of G

- 1. $aa^{-1} \in S \Rightarrow a \sim a$;
- 2. $ab^{-1} \in S \Rightarrow (ab^{-1})^{-1} = ba^{-1} \in S \Rightarrow (a \sim b \Rightarrow b \sim a);$
- 3. $ab^{-1} \in S, bc^{-1} \in S \Rightarrow (ab^{-1})(bc^{-1}) = ac^{-1} \in S$, which means $a \sim b, b \sim c \Rightarrow a \sim c$

In conclusion, \sim is a equivalence relation.

Exercise 1.2.6. A nonempty finte subset of a group is s subgroup if and only if it is closed under the product in G.

Answer. \Rightarrow : Trivial.

 \Leftarrow : S is apparently associative. $\forall a,b \in S, ab \in S$. S is a finite set, so there exists $m > n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $a^m = a^n$.

Exercise 1.2.7. If n is a fixed integer, then $\{kn|n \in \mathbf{Z}\} \subset \mathbf{Z}$ is an additive subgroup of \mathbf{Z} , which is isomorphic to \mathbf{Z} .

Answer. Denote $Z^n = \{kn | k \in \mathbf{Z}\}$. We can easily check that Z^n is a subgroup of \mathbf{Z} . Now we build a isomorphism between Z^n and \mathbf{Z} . Take $f: Z^n \to \mathbf{Z}$ as f(kn) = k, $f^{-1}(n) = kn$. f is a bijection so Z^n and \mathbf{Z} are isomorphism.

11

Exercise 1.2.8. The set $\{\sigma \in S_n | \sigma(n) = n\}$ is a subgroup of S_n which is isomorphic to S_{n-1} .

Answer. Denote $S_n^{(n)} = \{ \sigma \in S_n | \sigma(n) = n \}$. $\forall \sigma_1, \sigma_2 \in S_n^{(n)}, \sigma_1 \sigma_2(n) = \sigma_1(\sigma_2(n)) = \sigma_1(n) = n$, so $\sigma_1 \sigma_2 \in S_n^{(n)}$. By the above exercise, $S_n^{(n)}$ is a subgroup of S_n . Now we build an isomorphism between $S_n^{(n)}$ and S_{n-1} . Take $f: S_{n-1} \to S_n^{(n)}$ as $f(\sigma) = \sigma'$, where $\sigma'(x) = \begin{cases} n, & x = n \\ \sigma(n), & x \neq n \end{cases}$. $\sigma' \in S_n^{(n)}$ and f is a bijection, so $S_{n-1} \cong S_n^{(n)}$.

Exercise 1.2.9. Let $f: G \to H$ be a homomorphism of groups, A a subgroup of G, and B a subgroup of H.

- 1. Ker f and $f^{-1}(B)$ are subgroups of G.
- 2. f(A) is a subgroup of H.

Answer. 1. f is a homomorphism, so $f(e) = e', e \in \text{Ker} f$. $\forall a \in \text{Ker} f$, $f(aa^{-1}) = f(a)f(a^{-1}) = e'$, so $f(a^{-1}) = f(a)^{-1} = e'^{-1} = e'$. $\forall a, b \in \text{Ker} f$, $f(ab^{-1}) = f(a)f(b^{-1}) = f(a)f(b)^{-1} = e' \Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in \text{Ker} f$, which means Ker f is a subgroup of G. The proof of $f^{-1}(B)$ is a subgroup of G is similar.

2. f is a homomorphism, f(e) = e'. $\forall a, b \in A, ab^{-1} \in A$, so $f(ab^{-1}) = f(a)f(b^{-1}) = f(a)f(b)^{-1} \in f(A)$, f(A) is a subgroup of H.

Exercise 1.2.10. List all subgroups of $Z_2 \oplus Z_2$. Is $Z_2 \oplus Z_2$ isomorphic to Z_4 ?

Answer. $Z_2 \oplus Z_2$: {{(1,1), (1,0), (0,1), (0,0)}, {(1,1), (0,0)}, {(0,0)}, {(0,0)}, {(0,1), (0,0)}, {(0,1), (1,0), (0,0)}}. Z_4 : {{ $\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}, \bar{3}$ }, { $\bar{0}, \bar{2}$ }, { $\bar{0}$ }}.

 Z_4 and $Z_2 \oplus Z_2$ are not isomorphic because they have different subgroups.

Exercise 1.2.11. If G is a subgroup, then $C = \{a \in G | ax = xa \text{ for all } x \in G\}$ is a abelian subgroup of G. C is called the center of G.

Answer. Take $a, b \in C, ab = ba, C$ is communicative. $\forall a, b \in C, x \in G, b^{-1} \in G$, so $ab^{-1} = b^{-1}a$.

$$ax = axbb^{-1} = abxb^{-1} = baxb^{-1} = bxab^{-1} = abb^{-1}x = bab^{-1}x$$

so $b^{-1}ax = ab^{-1}x = xab^{-1}$, $ab^{-1} \in C$, C is a subgroup of G.

Exercise 1.2.12. The group D_4^* is not cyclic, but can be generated by two elements. The same is true of S_n (nontrivial). What is the minimal number of generators of the additive group $\mathbf{Z} \oplus \mathbf{Z}$?

Answer. $\mathbf{Z} \oplus \mathbf{Z} = \{(a,b)|a \in \mathbf{Z}, b \in \mathbf{Z}\} = \langle (0,0), (1,0), (0,1) \rangle$. We can easily check the spanning set is the minimal.

Exercise 1.2.13. If $G = \langle a \rangle$ is a cyclic group and H is any group, then every homomorphism $f: G \to H$ is completely determined by the element $f(a) \in H$.

Answer. $\forall x \in G$, there exist $m \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $x = a^m$, so $f(x) = f(a^m) = f(a)^m \Rightarrow \text{Im} f = \langle f(a) \rangle$. $f: a^m \mapsto f(a)^m \forall m \in \mathbb{N}$. f is completely determined by $f(a) \in H$.

Exercise 1.2.14. The following cyclic subgroups are all isomorphic: the multiplication group $\langle i \rangle$ in \mathbb{C} , the additive group \mathbb{Z}_4 and the subgroup $\left\langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\rangle$ of S_4 .

Answer. $\langle i \rangle = \{i, -1, -i, 1\}, Z_4 = \{\overline{0}, \overline{1}, \overline{2}, \overline{3}\},$ $\langle (1234) \rangle = \{(1234), (13)(24), (1432), (1)\}.$ Denote $f : \langle i \rangle \to Z_4$ as $f(i) = \overline{i},$ $g : Z_4 \to \langle (1234) \rangle$ as g(i) = (1234). From the exercise above we know f and g aer homomorphisms, and they are bijections, so $\langle i \rangle \cong Z_4 \cong \langle (1234) \rangle$. **Exercise 1.2.15.** Let G be a group and AutG is the set of all automorphisms of G.

- 1. AutG is a group with composition of functions as binary operation.
- 2. Aut $\mathbf{Z} \cong Z_2$ and Aut $Z_6 \cong Z_2$; Aut $Z_8 \cong Z_2 \oplus Z_2$; Aut $Z_p \cong Z_{p-1}$ (p prime).
- 3. What is $AutZ_n$ for arbitrary $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$?

Answer. We only prove the third question.

For $\bar{a} \in Z_n$, the order of \bar{a} is $|\bar{a}| = \frac{n}{(n,a)}$. When (n,a) = 1, \bar{a} is a generator of Z_n . Denote Euler function as $\varphi(x)$ and $Z_n^* = \{\bar{a} \in Z_n | (a,n) = 1\}$, then $|Z_n^*| = \varphi(n)$. For $\sigma \in \operatorname{Aut} Z_n$, σ is completely determined by $\sigma(\bar{1}) = \bar{a}$, and we denote σ as σ_a . For $\sigma_a, \sigma_b \in \operatorname{Aut} Z_n$, $\sigma_a(\sigma_b(\bar{1})) = \sigma_a(\bar{b}) = \bar{a}\bar{b} = \sigma_{ab}(\bar{1})$. We have proved $\operatorname{Aut} Z_n \cong Z_n^*$.

Now we give out a lemma to show the structure of Z_n^* .

Lemma. If n = st, (s, t) = 1, then $Z_n^* \cong Z_s^* \oplus Z_t^*$.

The proof of this lemma is quite simple. Consider the mapping $f^*: Z_n^* \to Z_s^* \oplus Z_t^*$ which is defined by $(x \mod n) \mapsto (x \mod s, x \mod t)$. Since for any $a,b \in Z_n^*$, $f^*(a)f^*(b) = (a \mod s, a \mod t)(b \mod s, b \mod t) = (ab \mod s, ab \mod t) = f^*(ab)$, f^* is a well defined homomorphism. For $x \in \operatorname{Ker} f^*$, $x \equiv 1 \mod s$, $x \equiv 1 \mod t$, so $x \equiv 1 \mod [s,t]$, $x \equiv 1 \mod n$, f^* is a monomorphism. Since $|f^*(Z_n^*)| = |Z_n| = \varphi(n) = \varphi(s)\varphi(t) = |Z_s^* \oplus Z_t^*|$, f^* is a epimorphism. $Z_n^* \cong Z_s^* \oplus Z_t^*$

 f^* is a epimorphism. $Z_n^*\cong Z_s^*\oplus Z_t^*$ For $n=p_1^{k_1}p_2^{k_2}\cdots p_m^{k_m}$, $Z_n^*\cong Z_{p_1^{k_1}}^*\oplus Z_{p_2^{k_2}}^*\oplus \cdots \oplus Z_{p_m^{k_m}}^*$. Now we consider the structure of Z_{nk}^* .

For p = 2, $Z_2^* \stackrel{p^*}{\cong} Z_1$, $Z_4^* \cong Z_2$, $Z_{2^k}^* \cong Z_2 \oplus Z_{2^{k-2}}$.

For other odd prime $p, Z_{p^k}^* \cong Z_{(p-1)p^{k-1}}$.

In order to prove the result, we need the Lagrange theorem in number theory.

Lemma (Lagrange). $f(x) \in Z[n]$, $f(x) \equiv k$ has at most n solutions when mod p, where p is an odd prime.

We use induction to prove the lemma.

- 1. n=1, the proof the trivial.
- 2. Assume for $n \leq m-1$ the lemma is correct, and for $n=m, f(x) \equiv k$ has m+1 solutions. $f(x)-f(x_{m+1})=(x-x_{m+1})g(x)\equiv 0 \mod p$. Take $x=x_i, i=1,2,\ldots,m, (x_i-x_{m+1})g(x_i)\equiv 0 \mod p, x_i \neq x_{m+1}$, so $g(x_i)\equiv 0 \mod p$, That's contradictory to the induction assumptions!

The lemma is proved.

 $g_{s,t}: Z_{p^s}^*/\mathrm{Ker} f_{s,t} \to Z_{p^t}^*.$

Come back to the original question. Firstly, we consider k=1 and p is an odd prime. For any factor d of p-1, denote $S(d)=\{\bar{a}\in Z_p^*| \operatorname{ord}_p(a)=d\}$. S(d) forms a partition of Z_p^* . If $S(d)\neq\emptyset$, there exists $\bar{a}\in S(d)$ and $a^d\equiv 1$ mod p. By Largrange theorem, $a^d\equiv 1$ mod p has at most d solutions. Notice that $\{1,a,a^2,\ldots,a^{d-1}\}$ are the solutions of the equation, $a^i\not\equiv a^j$ mod p, whence $S(d)\subset \langle \bar{a}\rangle$. For $k=1,2,\ldots,d-1$, $\operatorname{ord}_p(\bar{a^k})=\left|a^k\right|=\frac{d}{(d,k)}=d\Leftrightarrow (d,k)=1$. Thus $|S(d)|=\varphi(d)$. From $Z_p^*=\bigcup_{d|p-1}S(d)$, we get

$$p-1 = |Z_p^*| = \sum_{d|p-1} |S(d)| \le \sum_{d|p-1} \varphi(d) = p-1$$

If d|p-1, $|S(d)|=\varphi(d)$. Particularly, when d=p-1, $|S(p-1)|=\varphi(p-1)\neq 0$, Z_p^* has a element of order p-1, Z_p^* is a cyclic group. Secondly, we consider $k\geq 2$. Take $a\in \mathbf{Z}$ and \bar{a} is the class of $x\equiv a \mod p^k$. For $s\geq t$, we have a group homomorphism $f_{s,t}:Z_{p^s}^*\to Z_{p^t}^*$ which is defined by $(a\mod p^s)\mapsto (a\mod p^t)$. Since $a\equiv b\mod p^s\Rightarrow a\equiv b\mod p^t$, f is well defined. Ker $f_{s,t}=\{up^t+1\mod p^s|u=0,1,\ldots,p^{s-t}-1\}$. If $2t\geq s$, since $(up^t+1)(vp^t+1)\equiv uvp^{2t}+(u+v)p^t+1\equiv (u+v)p^t+1\mod p^s$, Ker $f_{s,t}\cong Z_{p^{s-t}}$ is a cyclic group. There exists a isomorphism

$$\{\bar{1}_{p^k}\} = \operatorname{Ker} f_{k,k} < \operatorname{Ker} f_{k,k-1} < \dots < \operatorname{Ker} f_{k,1} < Z_{p^k}^*$$

Lemma. Suppose $i \geq 2$, $\bar{a}_{p^k} \in \operatorname{Ker} f_{k,i}$, but $\bar{a}_{p^k} \notin \operatorname{Ker} f_{k,i+1}$, then $\bar{a}_{p^k}^p \in \operatorname{Ker} f_{k,i+1}$ and $\bar{a}_{p^k}^p \notin \operatorname{Ker} f_{k,i+2}$.

This lemma can be proved by LTE. Here we use the language in group theory to prove it. $f_{k,i+2}(\bar{a}_{p^k}) = \bar{a}_{p^{i+2}}, \ \bar{a}_{p^{i+2}} \in f_{k,i+2}(\operatorname{Ker} f_{k,i}) = \operatorname{Ker} f_{i+2,i}.$ Ker $f_{i+2,i} \cong Z_{p^2}$ since $2i \geq i+2$. $\bar{a}_{p^{i+2}} \notin f_{k,i+2}(\operatorname{Ker} f_{k,i+1}) = \operatorname{Ker} f_{i+2,i+1} \cong Z_p$. Ker $f_{i+2,i+1}$ contains all the elements whose order is p in $\operatorname{Ker} f_{i+2,i}$, so $|\bar{a}_{p^{i+2}}| = p^2$. $\bar{a}_{p^{i+2}}^p \in \operatorname{Ker} f_{i+2,i+1}, \ \bar{a}_{p^{i+2}}^p \notin \operatorname{Ker} f_{i+2,i+2}, \ \bar{a}_{p^k}^p \in g_{k,i+2}^{-1}(\operatorname{Ker} f_{i+2,i+2}) = \operatorname{Ker} f_{k,i+2}(\bar{a}_{p^{i+2}}) \subset g_{k,i+2}^{-1}(\operatorname{Ker} f_{i+2,i+1}) = \operatorname{Ker} f_{k,i+1}, \ \bar{a}_{p^k}^p \notin g_{k,i+2}^{-1}(\operatorname{Ker} f_{i+2,i+2}) = \operatorname{Ker} f_{k,i+2}.$ For i=1, if p is an odd prime, $\operatorname{Ker} f_{3,1} = \langle p+1_{p^3} \rangle \cong Z_{p^2}$, if p=2, $\operatorname{Ker} f_{3,1} = \{\bar{1}_8, \bar{3}_8, \bar{5}_8, \bar{7}_8\} \cong Z_2 \oplus Z_2$. Thus, for $\bar{a}_{p^k} \in \operatorname{Ker} f_{k,2}, \bar{a}_{p^k} \notin \operatorname{Ker} f_{k,3}$, using the lemma above for several times, we get $\bar{a}_{p^k}^{p^{k-2}} \in \operatorname{Ker} f_{k,2}, \bar{a}_{p^k}^{p^{k-3}} \notin \operatorname{Ker} f_{k,k}, |\bar{a}_{p^k}| = p^{k-2}$, $\operatorname{Ker} f_{k,2} \cong Z_{p^{k-2}}$.

If p is an odd prime, we can further obtain $\operatorname{Ker} f_{k,1} \cong Z_{p^{k-1}}$.

Suppose x is a generator of Z_p^* , assume $a \in g_{k,1}^{-1}(x), \ g_{k,1}^{-1}(x) = a \mathrm{Ker} f_{k,1}$, and $a^{p-1} \in g_{k,1}^{-1}(x^{p-1}) = g_{k,1}^{-1}(\bar{1}_p) = \mathrm{Ker} f_{k,1}$. If $a^{p-1} \notin \mathrm{Ker} f_{k,2}$, then $\left|a^{p-1}\right| = p^{k-1}$. If $a^{p-1} \in \mathrm{Ker} f_{k,2}$, $\forall h \in \mathrm{Ker} f_{k,1}, h \notin \mathrm{Ker} f_{k,2}$. Since $(ah)^{p-1} = (a^{p-1}h^p)h^{-1}, \ (ah)^{p-1} \in \mathrm{Ker} f_{k,1}, (ah)^{p-1} \notin \mathrm{Ker} f_{k,2}$, whence $\left|(ah)^{p-1}\right| = p^{k-1}, \ Z_{p^k}^* \cong Z_{(p-1)p^{k-1}}$. If $p = 2, \ Z_{2^k}^* = \mathrm{Ker} f_{k,1} \cong Z_{2^{k-2}} \oplus Z_2$.

For Aut**Z**, assume there exist $f \neq 1_G$, -1_G , $f \in \mathbf{AutZ}$. WLOG, $f(1) = x \neq \pm 1$, f(-1) = y. f(1) + f(-1) = f(0) = x + y = 0. Assume af(1) + bf(-1) = f(a - b) = 1 = (a - b)x, since $x \neq \pm 1$, there is a contradiction. Aut**Z** $\cong Z_2$.

Exercise 1.2.16. For each prime p the additive subgroup $Z(p^{\infty})$ of \mathbf{Q}/\mathbf{Z} is generated by the set $\{1/p^n|n\in\mathbf{N}^*\}$.

Answer. We prove that $\left\langle \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p^n} \right\rangle \cong Z(p^{\infty})$. $\forall x \in Z(p^{\infty}), x = \frac{\bar{a}}{b} = \frac{\bar{a}}{p^k}$. Expand a as $a = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} p^i a_i$, where $a_i = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$. $x = \frac{\bar{a}}{b} = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \frac{\bar{a_i}}{p^{k-i}} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{a_{k-i}^-}{p^i}$. Denote $f: \left\langle \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p^n} \right\rangle \to Z(p^{\infty})$ as $f(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{a_i}{p^i}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{a_i}{p^i}$. f is an isomorphism because every $x \in Z(p^{\infty})$ can be written in such form.

Exercise 1.2.17. Let G be an abelian group and let H, K be subgroups of G. Show that the join $H \vee K$ is the set $\{ab | a \in H, b \in K\}$. Extend this result to any finite number of subgroups of G.

Answer. $H \vee K = \langle H \cup K \rangle$, $I = \{ab | a \in H, b \in K\}$. G is abelian so I is a subgroup of G. $H < I, K < I, (H \cup K) \subset I$. $\langle H \cup K \rangle \subset I \Rightarrow \langle H \cup K \rangle$. For any $ab \in I$, $a \in H$, $b \in K$, we prove that ab is contained in any subgroup which contains $H \cup K$.

Assume $(H \cup K) \subset J$, so $a \in J, b \in J \Rightarrow ab \in J$, which means $I \subset H \vee K$. $\langle H \cup K \rangle = I$.

G is abelian group, $H_1, H_2, \ldots H_n$ are n subgroups. $\left\langle \bigcup_{i=1}^n H_i \right\rangle = \left\{ \prod_{i=1}^n h_i \middle| h_i \in H_i, i = 1, 2, \ldots n \right\}$. This proposition can be proved by induction.

1. Let G be a group and $\{H_i|i\in I\}$ a family of sub-Exercise 1.2.18. groups. State and prove a condition that will imply that $\bigcup H_i$ is a

subgroup, that is $\bigcup_{i \in I} H_i = \left\langle \bigcup_{i \in I} H_i \right\rangle$. 2. Given an example of a group G and a family of subgroups $\{H_i | i \in I\}$ such that $\bigcup_{i \in I} H_i \neq \left\langle \bigcup_{i \in I} H_i \right\rangle$.

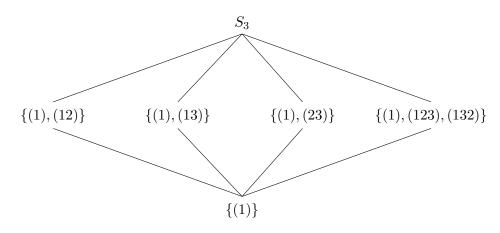
Answer. I didn't find a sufficient and necessary condition for this question, just choose one as you like:)

Exercise 1.2.19. 1. The set of all subgroups of a group G, partially ordered by set theoretic inclusion, forms a complete lattice in which the g.l.b of $\{H_i|i\in I\}$ is $\bigcap_{i\in I}H_i$ and the l.u.b is $\left\langle\bigcap_{i\in I}H_i\right\rangle$.

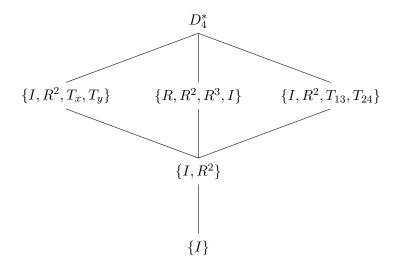
2. Exhibit the lattice of subgroups of the groups S_3, D_4^*, Z_6, Z_{27} and Z_{36} .

1. The subset relation < forms a partially ordered relation. By Answer. the difinition of $\left\langle \bigcup_{i \in I} H_i \right\rangle$, $\left\langle \bigcup_{i \in I} H_i \right\rangle$ is the smallest set contains $\bigcup_{i \in I} H_i$, so it's lup. For glb, we know that $\bigcap_{i \in I} H_i \subset H_i \ \forall i \in I$, and $\forall H \supset \bigcap_{i \in I} H_i$, there exists $x \in H, x \notin H_j$ $j \in I$, so $\bigcap_{i \in I}$ is glb.

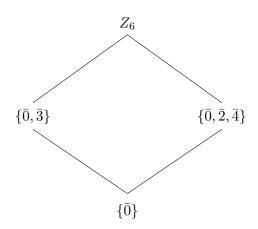
2. $S_3 = \{(1), (12), (13), (23), (123), (132)\}.$



 $D_4^* = \{R, R^2, R^3, I, T_x, T_y, T_{13}, T_{24}\}.$



 $Z_6 = \{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}, \bar{3}, \bar{4}, \bar{5}\}.$



1.3 Cyclic groups

Exercise 1.3.1. Let a, b be elements of group G. Show that $|a| = |a^{-1}|$; |ab| = |ba|, and $|a| = |cac^{-1}|$ for all $c \in G$.

Answer. We only consider that |a|, |b|, |c| are finite. Assume $a^k = e$, $(ab)^m = e$, $(ac^{-1})^n = e$, $kmn \neq 0$. $a^k \cdot (a^{-1})^k = e$, so k sialso the order of $a^{-1}, |a^{-1}| = k$. $(ab)^m = e = a(ba)^{m-1}b \Rightarrow (ba)^{m-1} = a^{-1}b^{-1}$, $(ba)^m = a^{-1}b^{-1}ba = e$. m is the order of ba. $(cac^{-1})^r = cac^{-1}cac^{-1} \cdots cac^{-1} = ca^nc^{-1} = e$, so $a^n = e$, whence n = k.

Exercise 1.3.2. Let G be an abelian group containing elements a and b of orders m and n respectively. Show that G contains an element whose order is the least common multiple of m and n.

Answer. If (m, n) = 1, we know that $\forall a^i, i = 1, 2, ..., m, b^j, j = 1, 2, ..., n, <math>a^i b^j \neq e$, since if $a^i = b^j$, $|a^i| = n = |b^{-j}| = |b^j| = m$. G is abelian, so $(ab)^k = a^k b^k \Rightarrow |ab| = mn = [m, n]$.

If m|n or n|m, then a or b is the element we want. We consider $m \not | n$ and $n \not | m$. Factorise $n = p_1^{t_1} p_2^{t_2} \cdots p_l^{t_l}$, $m = p_1^{s_1} p_2^{s_2} \cdots p_l^{s_l}$, where p_1, \cdots, p_l are primes and $t_1, \cdots, t_l, s_1, \cdots, s_l \ge 0$. We can choose a new arrangement of p_1, \cdots, p_l and make $t_1 \ge s_1, t_2 \ge s_2, ..., t_i \ge s_i, t_{i+1} < s_{i+1}, ..., t_l < s_l$.

$$(m,n) = p_1^{s_1} \cdots p_i^{s_i} p_{i+1}^{t_{i+1}} \cdots p_l^{t_l}, [m,n] = p_1^{t_1} \cdots p_i^{t_i} p_{i+1}^{s_{i+1}} \cdots p_l^{s_l}$$

Take $x=a^{p_{i+1}^{s_{i+1}}\cdots p_l^{s_l}},\ y=b^{p_1^{t_1}\cdots p_i^{t_i}},\ \text{then}\ |x|=p_1^{t_1}\cdots p_i^{t_i},\ |y|=p_{i+1}^{s_{i+1}}\cdots p_l^{s_l}.$ Thus (x,y)=1, the order of xy is $|x|\cdot |y|=p_1^{t_1}\cdots p_i^{t_i}p_{i+1}^{s_{i+1}}\cdots p_l^{s_l}=[m,n].$

Exercise 1.3.3. Let G be an abelian group of order pq, with (p,q)=1. Assume there exist $a,b\in G$ such that |a|=p,|b|=q and show that G is cyclic.

Answer. From Exercise 1.3.2 we know $a^i b^j \neq e$ for i < p, j < q. |G| = pq for all $a^i b^j$ and $a^m b^n$ with $i \neq m, b \neq n, a^i b^j \neq a^m b^n$. So G can be generated by ab. G is cyclic.

Exercise 1.3.4. If $f: G \to H$ is a homomorphism, $a \in G$, and f(a) has finte order in H, then |a| is infinite or |f(a)| divides |a|.

Answer. Assume |f(a)| = n, |a| = m, and $n \not | m$. Trivially, $m \ge n$. Assume $\gcd(m,n) = k \le n$. $a^m = e \Rightarrow f(a)^m = e' = f(a)^n$. By Bezout theorem $\exists x,y \in \mathbf{Z} \text{ s.t. } f(a)^{mx+ny} = f(a)^k = e', \ k \le n$, that's contradictory!

Exercise 1.3.5. Let G be the multiplicative group of all nonsingular 2×2 matrices with rational entries. Show that $a = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ has order 4 and $b = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ has order 3, but ab has infinite order. Conversely, show that the additive group $Z_2 \oplus \mathbf{Z}$ contains nonzero elements a, b of infinite order such that a + b has finite order.

Answer. The verification of |a|=4 and |b|=3 is trivial. $ab=\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ $\det(ab=\lambda I)=0\Rightarrow \lambda_1=\lambda_2=1.$ ab is not diagnizable. By induction, we have $(ab)^n=\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2^{n-1} \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ which means (ab) has infinite order. For $a=(\bar{0},1),b=(\bar{0},-1)\in Z_2\oplus {\bf Z},$ a,b have infinite order, but $a+b=(\bar{0},0)$ has finite order 1.

Exercise 1.3.6. If G is a cyclic group of order n and k|n, then G has exactly one subgroup of order k.

Answer. Assume $a^n = e$, mk = n, we verify that $\langle a^m \rangle$ is a subgroup of order k. $\forall x, y \in \mathbf{Z}_+$, $a^{xm} \cdot a^{-ym} = a^{(x-y)m} \in \langle a^m \rangle$, so $\langle a^m \rangle$ is a subgroup. $a^{km} = e$, $a^{sm} \neq e$ for s < k, so $|\langle a^m \rangle| = k$.

Exercise 1.3.7. Let p be prime and H a subgroup of $Z(p^{\infty})$.

- (a) Every element of $Z(p^{\infty})$ has finite order p^n for some $n \geq 0$.
- (b) If at least one element of H has order p^k and no element of H has order greater than p^k , then H is the cyclic subgroup generated by $1/p^k$, whence $H \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p^k}$.

- (c) If there is no upper bound on the orders of elements of H, then $H = Z(p^{\infty})$.
- (d) The only proper subgroups of $Z(p^{\infty})$ are the finite cyclic groups $C_n = \langle 1/\bar{p}^n \rangle$ (n = 1, 2, ...). Furthermore, $\langle 0 \rangle = C_0 < C_1 < C_2 < C_3 < \cdots$.
- (e) Let x_1, x_2, \ldots be elements of an abelian group G such that $|x_1| = p, px_2 = x_1, px_3 = x_2, \ldots, px_{n+1} = x_n, \ldots$ The subgroup generated by the $x_i (i \ge 1)$ is isomorphic to $Z(p^{\infty})$.
- **Answer.** (a) $\forall x \in Z(p^{\infty}), \ x = \frac{a}{p^n}$ where $a < p^n, \ p \not| a$. p is a prime, so $\gcd(p,a) = 1$. $m \cdot a | p^n \Rightarrow m = p^n$. Thus $m \cdot \frac{a}{p^n} = e$, p^n is the smallest number satisfies it. $\frac{a}{p^n}$ has order p^n .
- (b) For all $x \in Z(p^{\infty})$, if x has order smaller than p^k , x must have the form $x = \frac{a}{p^i}(i \le k)$, (p, a) = 1, so $x \in \left\langle \frac{1}{p^k} \right\rangle$. If not, assume $x = \frac{a}{p^i}(i > k)$, then $p^k \cdot x = \frac{a}{p^{i-k}} \ne 1$.
- (c) Assume not, $H < Z(p^{\infty})$, $H \neq Z(p^{\infty})$. There exist $y \in H$ s.t. y has order $p^m, m \geq n$. $y = \frac{b}{p^m}$, (p, b) = 1, so there exists $b^{-1} \in \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$, $bb^{-1} \equiv 1 \mod p^m$. But $ab^{-1}p^{m-n}y = \frac{a}{p^n} = x \in H$, that's contradictory! Conversely, $H = Z(p^{\infty})$.
- (d) From (b), we know that if there's least upper bound p^n for elements in a subgroup S, then $S = C_n$.

$$\langle 0 \rangle = C_0 < C_1 < C_2 < C_3 < \dots < Z(p^{\infty})$$

is easy to verify.

(e) We can verify that $f: x_i \mapsto \frac{1}{p^i}$ is a well defined isomorphism. $f(e) = f(px_1) = 1$, $f(px_{i+1}) = f(x_i) = \frac{1}{p^i} = p \cdot \frac{1}{p^{i+1}}$. f is obviously a bijection, so $H \cong Z(p^{\infty})$.

Exercise 1.3.8. A group that has only a finite number of subgroups must be finite.

Answer. Suppose not. If the order of all subgroups are finite, G must be finite. So there exists a infinite subgroup H < G. $\forall a \in G$, if $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, $a^n \neq e$, then we can construct infinite subgroups $\langle a \rangle$, $\langle a^2 \rangle$, $\langle a^3 \rangle$ If $\forall a \in G$, $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$, $a^n = e$, so $\langle a \rangle$ is a proper subgroup of G, we can take $b \in G \ni \langle a \rangle$ to construct another subgroup. By induction, there are infinite subgroups in G. That's contradictory, so G must be finite.

Exercise 1.3.9. If G is an abelian group, then the set T of all elements of G with finite order is a subgroup of G.

Answer. We can easily verify that $\forall a, b \in S$, |a| = m, |b| = n and $|ab^{-1}| \le mn$ is finite. T is a subgroup of G.

Exercise 1.3.10. An infinite group is cyclic if and only if it is isomorphic to each of its proper subgroups.

Answer. If G is cyclic, $G \cong \mathbf{Z}$, S < G. For any subgroup of \mathbf{Z} , it has the form $\{na\}, a \in \mathbf{Z}$. We can construct a isomorphism $f : n \mapsto na$, so $S \cong \{na\} \Rightarrow G \cong S$.

If $\forall S < G$, $G \cong S$ and |G| = |S| is finite. We prove there exists S < G s.t. $|S| = \aleph_0$. Take $a \in G$ and $S = \{na|n \in \mathbf{Z}\}$, S is a subgroup. If there exists ma = 0, S must be finite, contradictory! Thus, $S \cong \mathbf{Z} \cong G$. G is a infinite cyclic group.