

## Section 0.2

4. Let  $a, b$  and  $N$  be fixed integers with  $a$  and  $b$  nonzero and let  $d = (a, b)$  be the greatest common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$ . Suppose  $x_0$  and  $y_0$  are particular solutions to  $ax + by = N$  (i.e.,  $ax_0 + by_0 = N$ ). Prove for any integer  $t$  that the integers

$$x = x_0 + \frac{b}{d}t \quad \text{and} \quad y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d}t$$

are also solutions to  $ax + by = N$  (this is in fact the general solution).

*Proof.* (Bastille) Let  $t \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Assume  $ax_0 + by_0 = N$  (with  $x_0, y_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ ). Define

$$x = x_0 + \frac{b}{d}t, \quad y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d}t.$$

First we verify that  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ : since  $d = (a, b)$ ,  $d|b$ ,  $d|a$ ,  $d \neq 0$ . Therefore since also  $a, b \neq 0$

$$\exists k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{Z}^* : \quad b = k_1 d, \quad a = k_2 d$$

and so  $k_1 = \frac{b}{d} \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $k_2 = \frac{a}{d} \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Hence  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Now we have:

$$\begin{aligned} ax + by &= a \left( x_0 + \frac{b}{d}t \right) + b \left( y_0 - \frac{a}{d}t \right) = ax_0 + \frac{ab}{d}t + by_0 - \frac{ba}{d}t \\ &= \underbrace{ax_0 + by_0}_{=N \text{ by assumption}} + \underbrace{\left( \frac{ab}{d} - \frac{ba}{d} \right)}_{=0} t = N. \end{aligned}$$

□

5. Determine the value  $\varphi(n)$  for each integer  $n \leq 30$  where  $\varphi$  denotes the Euler  $\varphi$ -function.

(Bastille) We present the formulae used to compile the table below. By definition,

$$\varphi(n) = |\{a : (a, n) = 1, 1 \leq a \leq n\}|. \quad (1)$$

We also have for  $p$  a prime and  $\alpha \geq 1$

$$\varphi(p^\alpha) = p^{\alpha-1}(p-1). \quad (2)$$

And for any  $a, b$  such that  $(a, b) = 1$  we have

$$\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b). \quad (3)$$

Hence we used (1) to compute  $\varphi(1)$ , (2) to compute  $\varphi$  for  $2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11, 13, 16, 17, 19, 23, 25, 27, 29$ , and (3) for  $6 = 3 \cdot 2$ ,  $10 = 2 \cdot 5$ ,  $12 = 3 \cdot 4$ ,  $14 = 2 \cdot 7$ ,  $15 = 3 \cdot 5$ ,  $18 = 2 \cdot 9$ ,  $20 = 4 \cdot 5$ ,  $21 = 3 \cdot 7$ ,  $22 = 2 \cdot 11$ ,  $24 = 3 \cdot 8$ ,  $26 = 2 \cdot 13$ ,  $28 = 4 \cdot 7$ ,  $30 = 5 \cdot 6$ .

$n$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
$\varphi(n)$	1	1	2	2	4	2	6	4	6	4	10	4	12	6	8	8

  

$n$	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
$\varphi(n)$	16	6	18	8	12	10	22	8	20	12	18	12	28	8

11. Prove that if  $d$  divides  $n$  then  $\varphi(d)$  divides  $\varphi(n)$  where  $\varphi$  denotes Euler's  $\varphi$ -function.

*Proof.* (Bastille) We assume  $0 < d \leq n$  to be able to define  $\varphi(d), \varphi(n)$ . Let  $p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$  be the prime factorization of  $d$ . If  $d|n$  with  $0 < d \leq n$  then there exists  $\ell \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that

$$n = \ell d.$$

We can always write  $\ell$  in the following way:

$$\ell = p_1^{\beta_1} p_2^{\beta_2} \cdots p_k^{\beta_k} m$$

such that  $(m, p_i) = 1 \quad \forall i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$  with the stipulation that  $\beta_i \geq 0$ . Hence,

$$n = \ell d = p_1^{\alpha_1 + \beta_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k + \beta_k} m,$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(n) &= \varphi(p_1^{\alpha_1 + \beta_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k + \beta_k}) \cdot \varphi(m) \quad \text{since } \left( m, p_1^{\alpha_1 + \beta_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k + \beta_k} \right) = 1 \\ &= p_1^{\alpha_1 + \beta_1 - 1} (p_1 - 1) \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k + \beta_k - 1} (p_k - 1) \cdot \varphi(m) \\ &= \underbrace{p_1^{\alpha_1 - 1} (p_1 - 1) \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k - 1} (p_k - 1)}_{=\varphi(d)} \cdot \underbrace{p_1^{\beta_1} p_2^{\beta_2} \cdots p_k^{\beta_k}}_{=: r \in \mathbb{Z}^+} \cdot \varphi(m). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, there exists  $r \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $\varphi(n) = r\varphi(d)$ . Therefore,

$$\varphi(d) | \varphi(n).$$

□

## Section 0.3

9. Prove that the square of any odd integer always leaves a remainder of 1 when divided by 8.

*Proof.* (Gillispie) Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  be an odd positive integer, and there exists a  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.  $n = 2k + 1$ . We will proceed by induction on  $k$ .

Supposing  $k = 0$ , we have then that  $n^2 \mod 8 \equiv (0 + 1)^2 \mod 8 \equiv 1 \mod 8$ .

Now suppose the theorem holds for  $k \geq 0$ . Consider the odd integer  $2(k + 1) + 1$ , and note then that

$$\begin{aligned} (2(k + 1) + 1)^2 \mod 8 &\equiv (2k + 3)^2 \mod 8 \\ &\equiv (4k^2 + 12k + 9) \mod 8 \\ &\equiv (4k^2 + 4k + 1) \mod 8 \\ &\equiv (2k + 1)^2 \mod 8 \\ &\equiv 1 \mod 8 \text{ by induction.} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the theorem holds for all of the positive odd integers.

Suppose  $n = 2k + 1$  is an odd negative integer. Note then that  $(2k + 1)(-1) > 0$

$$\begin{aligned} n \mod 8 &= (2k + 1) \mod 8 \\ &= (2k + 1)(-1)(-1) \mod 8 \\ &\equiv ((2k + 1)(-1) \mod 8)(-1 \mod 8) \\ &\equiv 1 \cdot 7 \mod 8 \\ &\equiv 1 \mod 8. \end{aligned}$$

Hence the remainder of any odd integer when divided by 8 is 1.

□

13. Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $n > 1$  and let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $1 \leq a \leq n$ . If  $(a, n) = 1$  then there is an integer  $c$  s.t.  $ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ .

*Proof.* (Gillispie) Since  $(a, n) = 1$ , by 0.2.7 we know there are  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.

$$ax + ny = 1.$$

Using cancellation, we establish

$$ax = -ny + 1 = (-y)n + 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}.$$

□

## Section 1.1

- 21 Let  $G$  be a finite group and let  $x$  be an element of  $G$  of order  $n$ . Prove that if  $n$  is odd then  $x = (x^2)^k$  for some integer  $k \geq 1$ .

*Proof.* (Schamel) Since  $n$  is the order of an element,  $n \geq 1$ . Since  $n$  is also odd, there is an integer  $r \geq 0$  so that  $2r + 1 = n$ . Since  $|x| = n$  in  $G$  then  $x = x^{n+1} = x^{(2r+1)+1} = x^{2(r+1)} = (x^2)^{r+1}$ . Since  $r + 1 \geq 1$ , our claim is proven. □

- 25 Prove that if  $x^2 = 1$  for all  $x \in G$  then  $G$  is Abelian.

*Proof.* (Schamel) Note first that, by hypothesis, each non-identity element is its own inverse. Let  $x, y \in G$ . Since  $xy \in G$ , we have  $(xy)^2 = 1$  and thus

$$xy = (xy)^{-1} = y^{-1}x^{-1} = yx.$$

□

- 27 Prove that if  $x$  is an element of the group  $G$  then  $\{x^n | n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .

*Proof.* (Buchholz) Let  $H = \{x^n | n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ . Since  $H \subseteq G$  we must show is that  $H$  is a group. First note that  $H$  inherits associativity from  $G$ . Then since  $G$  is a group  $e \in G$  and  $e^n = e$  so  $e \in H$ . Lastly since  $x^{-1} \in G$  we have  $(x^{-1})^n = x^{-n}$  and  $-n \in \mathbb{Z}$  we know that  $x^{-1} \in H$ . Hence  $H \leq G$ . □

- 31 Prove that any finite group  $G$  of even order contains an element of order 2.

*Proof.* (Buchholz) Let  $t(G) = \{g \in G | g \neq g^{-1}\}$ . Note that if  $a \in t(G)$  then  $a^{-1} \in t(G)$  because  $a \neq a^{-1}$ . So  $e \notin t(G)$  since the inverse of  $e$  is not in  $t(G)$ . Since  $e \notin t(G)$  then  $|t(G)|$  is even because each element and its inverse are contained in  $t(G)$ . We also know that  $G$  is of even order. Thus there exists some element  $b \in G$ , where  $b \neq e$ , such that  $b^2 = e$ . Hence  $G$  contains an element of order 2. □

## Section 1.3

4. Compute the order of each of the elements in the following groups: **(a)**  $S_3$ , **(b)**  $S_4$ .

*Proof.* (Lawless)

- (a)  $S_3 = \{1, (1\ 2), (1\ 3), (2\ 3), (1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2)\}$ .

elements with order 1: 1.

elements with order 2:  $(1\ 2), (1\ 3), (2\ 3)$ .

elements with order 3:  $(1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2)$ .

- (b)  $S_4 = \{1, (1\ 2), (1\ 3), (1\ 4), (2\ 3), (2\ 4), (3\ 4), (1\ 2)(3\ 4), (1\ 3)(2\ 4), (1\ 4)(2\ 3), (1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2), (1\ 2\ 4), (1\ 4\ 2), (1\ 3\ 4), (1\ 4\ 3), (2\ 3\ 4), (2\ 4\ 3), (1\ 2\ 3\ 4), (1\ 2\ 4\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2\ 4), (1\ 3\ 4\ 2), (1\ 4\ 2\ 3), (1\ 4\ 3\ 2)\}$

elements with order 1: 1.

elements with order 2:  $(1\ 2), (1\ 3), (1\ 4), (2\ 3), (2\ 4), (3\ 4), (1\ 2)(3\ 4), (1\ 3)(2\ 4), (1\ 4)(2\ 3)$ .

elements with order 3:  $(1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2), (1\ 2\ 4), (1\ 4\ 2), (1\ 3\ 4), (1\ 4\ 3), (2\ 3\ 4), (2\ 4\ 3)$ .

elements with order 4:  $(1\ 2\ 3\ 4), (1\ 2\ 4\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2\ 4), (1\ 3\ 4\ 2), (1\ 4\ 2\ 3), (1\ 4\ 3\ 2)$ .

□

5. Find the order of  $\sigma = (1\ 12\ 8\ 10\ 4)(2\ 13)(5\ 11\ 7)(6\ 9)$ .

*Proof.* (Lawless) Since disjoint cycles commute, and since each of the cycles of  $\sigma$  are disjoint, then the order of  $\sigma$  is the least common multiple of the orders of the cycles. Since  $\sigma$  has a cycle of length 5, 3, and 2, then the order of  $\sigma$  is 30. □

6. Write out the cycle decomposition of each element of order 4 in  $S_4$ .

*Proof.* (Lawless) The elements of order 4 in  $S_4$  are:

$$(1\ 2\ 3\ 4), (1\ 2\ 4\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2\ 4), (1\ 3\ 4\ 2), (1\ 4\ 2\ 3), (1\ 4\ 3\ 2).$$

This is a complete list since only four cycles can have order 4 in  $S_4$  and there are  $3! = 6$  four cycles. □

7. Write out the cycle decomposition of each element of order 2 in  $S_4$ .

*Proof.* (Lawless) The elements of order 2 in  $S_4$  are:

$$(1\ 2), (1\ 3), (1\ 4), (2\ 3), (2\ 4), (3\ 4), (1\ 2)(3\ 4), (1\ 3)(2\ 4), (1\ 4)(2\ 3).$$

□

14. Let  $p$  be a prime. Show that an element has order  $p$  in  $S_n$  if and only if its cycle decomposition is a product of commuting  $p$ -cycles. Show by an explicit example that this need not be the case if  $p$  is not prime.

*Proof (Granade).* Let  $p$  be prime, and let  $x \in S_n$  have a disjoint cycle decomposition given by:

$$x = x_1 x_2 \cdots x_m$$

for some  $x_i \in S_n$  being cycles. We shall then show each direction of the theorem in turn.

$\Leftarrow$  Suppose that each  $x_i$  is a  $p$ -cycle. Then, since the order of  $x$  is given by  $\text{lcm}(p, p, \dots, p)$ , we have that  $|x| = p$  as required.

$\Rightarrow$  We shall proceed here to show the contrapositive. Suppose  $x$  is not a product of  $p$ -cycles. That is, that there exists  $k \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$  such that  $|x_k| = r \neq p$  for some  $r \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then, since  $p$  is prime,  $r \nmid p$ , and the order of  $x$  must include a factor of  $r$ . We conclude that  $|x| \neq p$ .

□

Note that the theorem proved above does *not* hold if  $x$  is a product of non-commuting  $r$ -cycles for some composite  $r$ . To see this, consider that in  $S_5$ ,  $|(12)(345)| = \text{lcm}(2, 3) = 6$ , but that  $(12)(345)$  is not a product of commuting 6-cycles.

19. Find all numbers  $n$  such that  $S_7$  contains an element of order  $n$ .

*Solution (Granade).* Note that each element in  $S_7$  can be written as the product of disjoint cycles. This decomposition can each number in  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$  at most once, limiting the possible decompositions available. For instance, we know that no element in  $S_7$  has a disjoint cycle decomposition into two 4-cycles, since this would require that some number appear in two different cycles.

We can use this insight, along with the fact that the order of a permutation is completely determined by the lengths of the cycles in its disjoint cycle decomposition. Thus, to figure out the possible orders of elements in  $S_7$ , we start by listing the ways in which we can add the integers  $\{2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$  and obtain a sum no greater than 7:

$$2, 2+2, 2+2+2, 3, 3+3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 2+3, 2+4, 2+5, 2+2+3, 3+4$$

Each sum listed corresponds to a possible order for an element in  $S_7$ , with some orders duplicated, as can be seen if we view each term as the length of a cycle in the decomposition of an element in  $S_7$ . Taking the least common multiple of the terms in each sum listed above, we find the possible orders (omitting 1):

$$\begin{aligned} 2 &= \text{lcm}(2) = \text{lcm}(2, 2) = \text{lcm}(2, 2, 2) \\ 3 &= \text{lcm}(3) = \text{lcm}(3, 3) \\ 4 &= \text{lcm}(4) = \text{lcm}(2, 4) \\ 5 &= \text{lcm}(5) \\ 6 &= \text{lcm}(6) = \text{lcm}(2, 3) = \text{lcm}(2, 2, 3) \\ 7 &= \text{lcm}(7) \\ 10 &= \text{lcm}(2, 5) \\ 12 &= \text{lcm}(3, 4) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, elements in  $S_7$  can have orders in  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10, 12\}$ .

## Chapter 1.4

2. Write out all the elements of  $GL_2(\mathbb{F}_2)$  and compute the order of each element.

(Baggett)  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  order = 1

$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  order = 2

$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  order = 2

$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  order = 2

$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  order = 3

$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  order = 3

10. Let  $G = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix} \mid a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}; a \neq 0, c \neq 0 \right\}$

- a. Compute the product of  $\begin{pmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ 0 & c_1 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $\begin{pmatrix} a_2 & b_2 \\ 0 & c_2 \end{pmatrix}$  to show that  $G$  is closed under matrix multiplication.  
(Baggett)

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ 0 & c_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_2 & b_2 \\ 0 & c_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 a_2 & a_1 b_2 + b_1 c_2 \\ 0 & c_1 c_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Since  $a_1 \neq 0$  and  $a_2 \neq 0$ ,  $a_1 a_2 \neq 0$ ; similarly, since  $c_1 \neq 0$  and  $c_2 \neq 0$ ,  $c_1 c_2 \neq 0$ . Thus,  $\begin{pmatrix} a_2 & b_2 \\ 0 & c_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ 0 & c_1 \end{pmatrix} \in G$ , and  $G$  is closed under matrix multiplication.

- b. Find the matrix inverse of  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix}$  and deduce that  $G$  is closed under inverses.

(Baggett) Since  $\det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix} = ac \neq 0$  because  $a \neq 0$  and  $c \neq 0$ ,  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix}^{-1}$  exists. Furthermore,

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{a} & \frac{-b}{ac} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{c} \end{pmatrix} \text{ since}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{a} & \frac{-b}{ac} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{c} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{a} & \frac{-b}{ac} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{c} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Note that since  $a \neq 0$  and  $c \neq 0$ ,  $\frac{1}{a}$ ,  $\frac{-b}{ac}$ ,  $\frac{1}{c} \in \mathbb{R}$ . Also,  $\frac{1}{a} \neq 0$  and  $\frac{1}{c} \neq 0$ . Hence,  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \in G$  and  $G$  is closed under inverses.

- c. Deduce that  $G$  is a subgroup of  $GL_2(\mathbb{R})$ .

(Baggett) Firstly,  $\emptyset \neq G \subseteq GL_2(\mathbb{R})$ , since  $\det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix} = ac \neq 0$  because  $a \neq 0$  and  $c \neq 0$ . Secondly,  $G$  is closed under inverses and matrix multiplication. This is enough to show that  $G$  is a subgroup of  $GL_2(\mathbb{R})$ . (If  $A \in G$ , then  $A^{-1} \in G$ , and  $AA^{-1} = I_2 \in G$  since  $G$  is closed under multiplication. Since matrix multiplication is associative in  $GL_2(\mathbb{R})$ , matrix multiplication is associative in  $G$ .) Therefore,  $G$  is a subgroup of  $GL_2(\mathbb{R})$ .

- d. Prove that the set of elements of  $G$  whose two diagonal entries are equal (i.e.  $a = c$ ) is also a subgroup of  $GL_2(\mathbb{R})$ .

*Proof.* (Baggett) First, we will show that  $H = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}; a \neq 0 \right\}$  is closed under matrix multiplication. Take any two matrices  $\begin{pmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ 0 & a_1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} a_2 & b_2 \\ 0 & a_2 \end{pmatrix} \in H$ . Then

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ 0 & a_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_2 & b_2 \\ 0 & a_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 a_2 & a_1 b_2 + b_1 a_2 \\ 0 & a_1 a_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Since  $a_1 \neq 0$  and  $a_2 \neq 0$ ,  $a_1 a_2 \neq 0$ . Thus,  $\begin{pmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ 0 & a_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_2 & b_2 \\ 0 & a_2 \end{pmatrix} \in H$  and  $H$  is closed under matrix multiplication. Second, we will show that  $H$  is closed under inverses. Take any matrix

$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix} \in H$ . Then  $\det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix} = a^2 \neq 0$  because  $a \neq 0$ , so  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix}^{-1}$  exists. Furthermore,  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{a} & \frac{-b}{a^2} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{a} \end{pmatrix}$  since

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{a} & -\frac{b}{a^2} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{a} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{a} & -\frac{b}{a^2} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{a} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Because  $a \neq 0$ ,  $\frac{1}{a}, -\frac{b}{a^2} \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\frac{1}{a} \neq 0$ . Hence,  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \in H$  and  $H$  is closed under inverses.

Lastly,  $H \subseteq GL_2(\mathbb{R})$  since for any  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix} \in H$ ,  $\det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix} = a^2 \neq 0$  because  $a \neq 0$ . As before, this is enough to conclude that  $H$  is a subgroup of  $GL_2(\mathbb{R})$ . □

## Chapter 1.5

1. Compute the order of each of the elements in  $\mathbb{Q}_8$ .

(Baggett)

$$|1| = 1$$

$$|-1| = 2$$

$$|i| = 4$$

$$|-i| = 4$$

$$|j| = 4$$

$$|-j| = 4$$

$$|k| = 4$$

$$|-k| = 4$$

## Section 1.6

2. If  $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$  is an isomorphism, prove that  $|\varphi(x)| = |x|$  for all  $x \in G$ . Deduce that any two isomorphic groups have the same number of elements of order  $n$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Is the result true if  $\varphi$  is only assumed to be a homomorphism?

Lemma: The identity element of  $G$  maps to the identity element of  $H$ .

Let  $e_G$  be the identity element in  $G$ . Then we know that  $ae_G = e_Ga = a$  where  $a \in G$ . Further, it is true that  $\varphi(ae_G) = \varphi(e_Ga) = \varphi(a) = \varphi(a)\varphi(e_G) = \varphi(e_G)\varphi(a)$ . Let  $\varphi(a) = b$  where  $b \in H$ . Then  $b\varphi(e_G) = \varphi(e_G)b = b$  and  $\varphi(e_G)$  is the identity element in  $H$  or  $\varphi(e_G) = e_H$ . Thus, the identity element of  $G$  maps to the identity element of  $H$ .

*Proof.* (Mobley) If  $x \in G$  has order  $n$ , it follows that  $x^n = e_G$ . Then  $\varphi(x^n) = [\varphi(x)]^n = \varphi(e_G)$ . From the lemma, we can state that  $[\varphi(x)]^n = \varphi(e_G) = e_H$ , and therefore  $|\varphi(x)| \mid n$ . However, if  $|\varphi(x)| = k < n$ , then  $e_H = \varphi(x)^k = \varphi(x^k) = \varphi(e_G)$  and since  $\varphi$  is an isomorphism, we have  $x^k = e_G$ . It follows that  $|x| \mid k < n$  which contradicts that  $n$  is the *smallest* positive integer for which  $|x^n| = e_G$ . Thus,  $|\varphi(x)| = |x|$  in the finite case.

Let  $y \in G$  have infinite order. Suppose  $|\varphi(y)| = m$ . Then  $[\varphi(y)]^m = \varphi(y^m) = e_H$ . We have shown in the lemma that  $\varphi(e_G) = e_H$ . Then  $\varphi(y^m) = \varphi(e_G)$ . It must follow that  $y^m = e_G$  and that  $y$  has a finite order. But this is a contradiction. Thus, if the order of  $y \in G$  is infinite, the order of  $\varphi(y)$  is also infinite. □

Since  $|\varphi(x)| = |x|$  for all  $x \in G$ , it must be the case that any two isomorphic groups have the same number of elements of order  $n$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . If the case existed that one group had more elements of order  $n$  than the other group, it would not be true that  $|\varphi(x)| = |x|$  for all  $x \in G$ .

The result is not true if  $\varphi$  is only assumed to be a homomorphism. As an example we have the homomorphism of  $\varphi : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  defined by  $\varphi(z) = z^2$ . Here the order of  $i$  is 4. The order of  $\varphi(i)$  is 2.

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

*Proof.* (Mobley) If it were true that  $\mathbb{R} - \{0\} \cong \mathbb{C} - \{0\}$ , then for all  $x \in G$ ,  $|x| = |\varphi(x)|$ . However, in  $\mathbb{R} - \{0\}$ ,  $|e| = 1$ ,  $|-1| = 2$  and all other elements have infinite order. In the case of  $\mathbb{C} - \{0\}$ ,  $|e| = 1$ ,  $|-1| = 2$ , but  $|i| = 4$ . Since there is no element in  $\mathbb{R} - \{0\}$  with order 4,  $\mathbb{R} - \{0\} \not\cong \mathbb{C} - \{0\}$ . □

5. Prove that the additive groups  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  are not isomorphic.

*Proof.* (Mobley) If it were true that  $\mathbb{R} \cong \mathbb{Q}$ , then  $|\mathbb{R}|$  would have to be equal to  $|\mathbb{Q}|$ . But  $\mathbb{R}$  is an uncountable set whereas  $\mathbb{Q}$  is a countable set. Therefore  $|\mathbb{R}| \neq |\mathbb{Q}|$  and the two additive groups are not isomorphic. □

6. Prove that the additive groups  $\mathbb{Z}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  are not isomorphic.

*Proof.* (Mobley) If it were true that  $\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Q}$ , then a group isomorphism  $\varphi$  would have to exist between the two groups. However, since  $\varphi$  sends  $1_{\mathbb{Z}}$  to  $1_{\mathbb{Q}}$  and preserves sums, we have that  $\varphi(z) = z \in \mathbb{Q}$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{Z}$ . We can see however that this mapping is not surjective. □

14. (Hazlett) Let  $G$  and  $H$  be groups and let  $\phi : G \rightarrow H$  be a homomorphism. Prove that the kernel of  $\phi$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . Prove that  $\phi$  is injective if and only if the kernel of  $\phi$  is the identity subgroup of  $G$ .

*Proof.* First, notice that  $e_G \in \ker(\phi)$  so the kernel is non-empty. Now choose  $x, y \in \ker(\phi)$ . Then  $\phi(xy) = \phi(x)\phi(y) = 1_H 1_H = 1_H$ . So  $xy \in \ker(\phi)$  and the kernel is closed under products. Note  $\phi(x^{-1}) = 1_H \phi(x^{-1}) = \phi(x)\phi(x^{-1}) = \phi(xx^{-1}) = \phi(1_G) = 1_H$ . Consequently  $x^{-1} \in \ker(\phi)$ . Since  $\ker(\phi)$  is non-empty, closed under products and inverses,  $\ker(\phi) \leq G$ .

Suppose  $\ker(\phi) = \{1_G\}$  and  $\phi(x) = \phi(y)$ . Thus  $\phi(xy^{-1}) = \phi(x)\phi(y^{-1}) = \phi(y)\phi(y^{-1}) = \phi(yy^{-1}) = \phi(1_G) = 1_H$ . So  $xy^{-1} \in \ker(\phi)$ . This implies that  $xy^{-1} = 1_G$ . Hence  $x = y$  and  $\phi$  is an injection. Assume instead then that  $\phi$  is an injection. Let  $x \in \ker(\phi)$ . Then  $\phi(x) = \phi(1_G)$ . Therefore  $x = 1_G$  and  $\ker(\phi) = \{1_G\}$ . □

19. (Hazlett) Let  $G = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid z^n = 1 \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$ . Prove that for any fixed integer  $k > 1$  the from  $G$  to itself defined by  $z \mapsto z^k$  is a surjective homomorphism but is not an isomorphism.

*Proof.* Let  $\phi : G \rightarrow G$  such that  $\phi(x) = x^k$  for some fixed integer  $k$ . Note  $\phi(xy) = (xy)^k = x^k y^k = \phi(x)\phi(y)$ . Thus  $\phi$  is a homomorphism. Choose  $z \in G$ . Then for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  we have  $z^n = 1$ . Note further that if we write  $z = e^{i\theta}$  then,  $z$  has a  $k$ th root,  $w = e^{i\frac{\theta}{k}}$ . Moreover,  $(w)^{nk} = z^n = 1$ . Hence  $w \in G$ . Also,  $\phi(w) = z$ . Consequently  $\phi$  is a surjection. Note, there are exactly  $k$   $k$ th-roots of unity. Thus there are  $w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k \in \mathbb{C}$  where  $w_i^k = 1$ . Then  $w_i \in G$  for  $1 \leq i \leq k$ . However,  $\phi(w_i) = w_i^k = 1$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq k$ . Thus  $\phi$  is not an injection. Therefore  $\phi$  is not an isomorphism. □