

# My abstract algebra exercises

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# Preliminaries

## 0.1 Basics

### 0.1.1

*Determine which of the following elements of  $A$  lie in  $B$*

$M$  is defined to be

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$B = \{x \in A : MX = XM\}$$

thus all of the following are in  $B$ .

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

### 0.1.2

*Prove that  $P, Q \in B \Rightarrow P + Q \in B$*

Suppose that  $P, Q \in B$ . Then we follow that

$$(P + Q)M = PM + QM = QM + PM = (Q + P)M$$

where we've used distributive and commutativity under addition for matrices

**0.1.3**

*Prove that  $P, Q \in B \Rightarrow PQ \in B$*

Suppose that  $P, Q \in B$ . Thus we follow that  $PM = MP$  and  $QM = MQ$ . Thus

$$(PQ)M = PQM = P(QM) = P(MQ) = PMQ = (PM)Q = (MP)Q = M(PQ)$$

as desired.

**0.1.4**

*Find conditions on  $p, q, r, s$ , which determine precisely when*

$$\begin{pmatrix} p & q \\ r & s \end{pmatrix} \in B$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} p & q \\ r & s \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p & p+q \\ r & r+s \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p & q \\ r & s \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p+r & q+s \\ r & s \end{pmatrix}$$

thus we follow that we need to have

$$\begin{pmatrix} p+r & q+s \\ r & s \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p & p+q \\ r & r+s \end{pmatrix}$$

thus we follow that the matrix is in  $B$  if and only if  $r = 0$  and  $p = s$ . (ocave seems to support this point).

**0.1.5**

*Determine whether the following functions  $f$  are well-defined:*

(a)

$$f : Q \rightarrow Z : f(a/b) = a$$

If we assume that  $a/b$  is in form, where  $b > 0$  and  $a/b$  in their lower terms, then the function is well-defined. Otherwise, we've got that

$$2/4 = 1/2$$

but

$$f(2/4) = 2 \neq 1 = f(1/2)$$

(b)

$$f : Q \rightarrow Q : f(a/b) = a^2/b^2$$

is indeed well-defined, since for every  $a \in Q$  there is only one square.

**0.1.6**

*Determine whether the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  defined by mapping a real number  $r$  to the first digit to the right of the decimal point in a decimal expansion of  $r$  is well-defined.*

This is a somewhat trick question, since we've got that

$$1 = 0.99999999\ldots$$

which in this case gives us that  $f$  is not well-defined.

**0.1.7**

*Let  $f : A \rightarrow B$  be a surjective map of sets. Prove that the relation*

$$a \sim b \Leftrightarrow f(a) = f(b)$$

*is an equivalence relation whose equivalence classes are the fibers of  $f$ .*

$$f(a) = f(a) \Rightarrow a \sim a$$

$$(f(a) = f(b) \wedge f(b) = f(c) \Rightarrow f(a) = f(c)) \Rightarrow (a \sim b \wedge b \sim c \Rightarrow a \sim c)$$

$$a \sim b \Rightarrow f(a) = f(b) \Rightarrow f(b) = f(a) \Rightarrow b \sim a$$

which gives us reflexive, transitive and symmetric properties, thus  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation.

We follow that if  $x \in B$  and  $a, b \in f^{-1}(\{x\})$ , then  $a \sim b$  by definition. Suppose that  $a \sim b$ . Then we follow that  $f(a) = f(b)$ , therefore  $a \in f^{-1}(\{f(a)\}) \wedge b \in f^{-1}(\{f(a)\})$ . Thus we follow that if  $a \sim b$ , then they are fibers for the same value. Thus we follow that  $a \sim b$  if and only if  $(\exists x \in B)(a, b \in f^{-1}(\{x\}))$ . Thus we follow that fibers of  $f$  are indeed the equivalence classes for  $\sim$ .

**0.2 Properties of the Integers****0.2.1**

*Find GCD and LCM for following numbers and find integers  $x$  and  $y$  such that  $ax + by = \gcd(a, b)$*

```
gcd:   1; lcm:       260, 2 * 20 + -3 * 13 = 1
gcd:   3; lcm:      8556, 27 * 69 + -5 * 372 = 3
gcd:  11; lcm:     19800, 8 * 792 + -23 * 275 = 11
gcd:   3; lcm:  21540381, -126 * 11391 + 253 * 5673 = 3
gcd:   1; lcm:   2759487, -105 * 1761 + 118 * 1567 = 1
gcd: 691; lcm:  44693880, -17 * 507885 + 142 * 60808 = 691
```

**0.2.2**

*Prove that if the integer  $k$  divides the integers  $a$  and  $b$ , then  $k$  divides  $as + bt$  for every pair of integers  $s$  and  $t$*

We follow that because  $k$  divides both  $a$  and  $b$  it also divides  $(a, b)$ . Since  $(a, b)$  divides both  $a$  and  $b$  we follow that there exist  $q, w \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $a = q(a, b)$ ,  $b = w(a, b)$ . Thus

$$as + bt = q(a, b) + w(a, b) = (q + w)(a, b)$$

thus we follow that  $(a, b)$  divides  $as + bt$ . Since  $|$  is transitive, we follow that  $k|(a, b)$  and  $(a, b)|as + bt$  implies that  $k|as + bt$ , as desired.

(We could've actually skip this part, don't know why I've used it)

**0.2.3**

*Let  $a, b, N$  be fixed integers with  $a, b \neq 0$  and let  $d = (a, b)$ . Suppose that  $x_0, y_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$  are such that  $ax_0 + by_0 = N$ . Prove that*

$$a(x_0 + \frac{b}{d}t) + b(y_0 - \frac{a}{d}t) = N$$

$$\begin{aligned} a(x_0 + \frac{b}{d}t) + b(y_0 - \frac{a}{d}t) &= ax_0 + a\frac{b}{d}t + by_0 - b\frac{a}{d}t = ax_0 + by_0 + t(\frac{ab}{d} - \frac{ab}{d}) = \\ &= ax_0 + by_0 + t(0) = N + 0 = N \end{aligned}$$

**0.2.4**

*Determine the value  $\phi(n)$  for each integer  $n \leq 30$  where  $\phi$  denotes the Euler  $\phi$ -function*

```
phi(1) = 1
phi(2) = 1
phi(3) = 2
phi(4) = 2
phi(5) = 4
phi(6) = 2
phi(7) = 6
phi(8) = 4
phi(9) = 6
phi(10) = 4
phi(11) = 10
phi(12) = 4
phi(13) = 12
```

$\text{phi}(14) = 6$   
 $\text{phi}(15) = 8$   
 $\text{phi}(16) = 8$   
 $\text{phi}(17) = 16$   
 $\text{phi}(18) = 6$   
 $\text{phi}(19) = 18$   
 $\text{phi}(20) = 8$   
 $\text{phi}(21) = 12$   
 $\text{phi}(22) = 10$   
 $\text{phi}(23) = 22$   
 $\text{phi}(24) = 8$   
 $\text{phi}(25) = 20$   
 $\text{phi}(26) = 12$   
 $\text{phi}(27) = 18$   
 $\text{phi}(28) = 12$   
 $\text{phi}(29) = 28$   
 $\text{phi}(30) = 8$

### 0.2.5

*Prove the WOP of  $Z$  by induction and prove the minimal element is and prove the minimal element is unique.*

GOTO set theory book

### 0.2.6

*If  $f$  is a prime prove that there do not exist nonzero integers  $a$  and  $b$  such that  $a^2 = pb^2$*

We follow that  $a$  and  $b$  can be represented as multiples of primes. Therefore the powers of primes, that represent  $a^2$  and  $b^2$  are even. Since the power of  $p$  in  $pb^2$  is not even, we follow that such numbers do not exist, as desired

### 0.2.7

*Let  $p$  be a prime,  $n \in Z^+$ . Find a formula for the largest power of  $p$  which divides  $n!$*

We follow that every  $p$ 'th number is a multiple of  $p$ . Thus the amount of multiples of  $p$  in the list  $1, 2, \dots, n$  is  $\lfloor n/p \rfloor$ . To those we need to add the number of multiples of  $p^2$ , of which there will be  $\lfloor n/p^2 \rfloor$ , and thus we follow that the number of multiples of  $p$  in  $n$  is

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \lfloor n/p^i \rfloor$$

Since for every prime number we've got that  $p^n > n$ , we can follow that this formula will do.



**0.2.8**

*Write a computer program to determine ....*

Way ahead of you, check `congr.py` in `progs`.

**0.3  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ : The Integers Modulo  $n$** **0.3.1**

*Write down explicitly all the elements in the residue classes  $\mathbb{Z}/18\mathbb{Z}$ .*

$$\overline{1}, \overline{2}, \dots, \overline{17}$$

**0.3.2**

*Prove that the distinct equivalence classes in  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  are precisely  $\overline{0}, \dots, \overline{n-1}$ .*

Suppose that  $q \in N$ . We follow that  $q = an + r$ , where  $0 \leq r < n$ , thus we follow that  $q \in \overline{r}$ . Therefore every integer is in one of those sets. Since  $r$  is unique, we follow that  $q$  is only in one of those sets.

**0.3.3**

*Prove that of  $a = a_n 10^n + a_{n-1} 10^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 10 + a_0$  is any positive integer then  $a \equiv \sum a_n \pmod{9}$ .*

We follow that  $10 \equiv 1 \pmod{9}$ , and therefore  $10^n \equiv 1 \pmod{9}$  for any  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Thus we can follow that

$$10a_n \equiv a_n \pmod{9}$$

and in general

$$10^n a_n \equiv a_n \pmod{9}$$

therefore

$$\overline{a_n 10^n} = \overline{a_n}$$

and since

$$\sum \overline{a_n} = \overline{\sum a_n}$$

we follow the desired result.

**0.3.4**

*Compute the remainder when  $37^{100}$  is divided by 29*

We follow that

$$37^{100} \equiv 8^{100} \pmod{29}$$

thus

$$8^1 \equiv 8 \pmod{29}$$

$$8^2 \equiv 6 \pmod{29}$$

$$8^4 \equiv 36 \equiv 7 \pmod{29}$$

$$8^8 \equiv 49 \equiv 20 \pmod{29}$$

$$8^{10} \equiv 120 \equiv 4 \pmod{29}$$

$$8^{20} \equiv 16 \pmod{29}$$

$$8^{40} \equiv 256 \equiv 24 \pmod{29}$$

$$8^{50} \equiv 96 \equiv 9 \pmod{29}$$

$$8^{100} \equiv 81 \equiv 23 \pmod{29}$$

thus we follow that  $37^{100}$  divided by 29 gives us the answer 23.

**0.3.5**

$$9^{1500} = \dots 01$$

**0.3.6**

*Prove that the squares of the elements in  $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$  are just 0 and 1*

We follow that

$$0^2 = 0$$

$$1^2 = 1$$

$$2^2 = 4 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$$

$$3^2 = 9 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$$

so yeah

**0.3.7**

*Prove for any integers  $a$  and  $b$  that  $a^2 = b^2$  never leaves a remainder of 3 when divided by 4*

From previous exercise we follow that

$$a^2 \equiv [0, 1] \pmod{4}$$

$$b^2 \equiv [0, 1] \pmod{4}$$

thus

$$a^2 + b^2 \equiv [0, 1, 2] \pmod{4}$$

**0.3.8**

*Prove that the equation  $a^2 + b^2 = 3c^2$  has no nonzero integer solutions*

We follow from previous exercise that  $a^2 + b^2 \equiv [0, 1, 2] \pmod{4}$ , and  $c^2 \equiv [0, 1] \pmod{4}$ , therefore  $3c^2 \equiv [0, 3] \pmod{4}$ . Thus we follow that the only possible case is when  $a^2 + b^2 \equiv 3c^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ . Thus we follow all of the  $a^2$ ,  $b^2$  and  $c^2$  have the factor of 4. Thus there exist  $a_0, b_0, c_0$  such that  $a^2 = 4^n a_0^2$ ,  $b^2 = 4^n b_0^2$ ,  $c^2 = 4^n c_0^2$  and  $a_0^2, b_0^2, c_0^2$  are not divisible by 4 (otherwise we get a contradiction). Thus we follow that

$$a_0^2 + b_0^2 = 3c_0^2$$

all of which are not divisible by 4, which gets us a contradiction, as desired.

**0.3.9**

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

We follow that remainders of squares of congruent classes of 8 are

$$01410141$$

thus we follow the desired conclusion.

# Chapter 1

## Introduction to Groups

### 1.1 Basic Axioms and Examples

*Let  $G$  be a group*

#### 1.1.1

*Determine which of the following binary operations are associative*

(a)

$$Z$$

$$a \star b = a - b$$

$$(a - b) - c = a - b - c = a - (b + c)$$

therefore it is not associative

(b)

$$R$$

$$a \star b = a + b + ab$$

$$(a \star b) \star c = (a + b + ab) \star c = (a + b + ab) + (c) + (ca + cb + abc)$$

$$a \star (b \star c) = a \star (b + c + bc) = (a) + (b + c + bc) + (ab + ac + abc)$$

$$(a + b + ab) + (c) + (ca + cb + abc) - ((a) + (b + c + bc) + (ab + ac + abc)) = \\ = 0$$

therefore it is associative.

(c)

$$Q$$

$$a \star b = \frac{a + b}{5}$$

$$(a \star b) \star c = \frac{a+b}{5} \star c = \frac{\frac{a+b}{5} + c}{5} = \frac{a+b+5c}{25}$$

$$a \star (b \star c) = a \star \frac{b+c}{5} = \frac{a + \frac{b+c}{5}}{5} = \frac{5a+b+c}{25}$$

therefore it is not associative.

(d)

$$Z \times Z$$

$$(a, b) \star (c, d) = (ad + bc, bd)$$

$$((a, b) \star (c, d)) \star (e, f) = (ad + bc, bd) \star (e, f) = ((ad + bc)f + bde, bdf) = (adf + bcf + bde, bdf)$$

$$(a, b) \star ((c, d) \star (e, f)) = (a, b) \star (cf + de, df) = (adf + b(cf + de), bdf) = (adf + bcf + bde, bdf)$$

therefore it is associative.

(e)

$$Q \setminus \{0\}$$

$$a \star b = \frac{a}{b}$$

$$a \star (b \star c) = a \star \frac{b}{c} = \frac{a}{\frac{b}{c}} = \frac{ac}{b}$$

$$(a \star b) \star c = \frac{a}{b} \star c = \frac{\frac{a}{b}}{c} = \frac{ac}{b}$$

therefore it is associative.

### 1.1.2

*Decide which of the binary operations in the preceeding exercise are commutative*

b and c

### 1.1.3

*Prove that addition of residue classes in  $Z/nZ$  is associative*

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

### 1.1.4

*Prove that multiplication of residue classes in  $Z/nZ$  is associative*

analogous to previous

**1.1.5**

*Prove that for all  $n > 1$  that  $Z/nZ$  is not a group under multiplication*

We follow that there is no inverse of  $\bar{0}$ ,  $Z/nZ$  is not a group

**1.1.6**

*Determine which of the following sets are groups under addition*

Sums are associative for every following group, therefore I'll skip discussion about them.

(a) *Rationals, whose denominators are odd*

Is a group, denominator of the sum is a divisor of product of two odd numbers, and therefore it is odd itself, and inverses of given elements have same denominators as the elements themselves.

(b) *Rationals. whose denominators are even*

$$1/2 + 1/2 = 1/1$$

therefore it is not closed under addition, and therefore it is not a group.

(c) *The set of rational numbers of absolute value  $< 1$*

$$0.7 + 0.7 = 1.4$$

therefore it is not closed under addition, and therefore it is not a group.

(d) *the set of rationals of absolute value  $\geq 1$ , together with 0*

$$-1.5 + 1 = 0.5$$

therefore it is not closed under addition, and therefore it is not a group.

(e) *the set of rationals, with denominators equal to 1 or 2 (or 3)*

Is a group under addition.

**1.1.7**

*Let  $G = \{x \in R : 0 \leq x < 1\}$  and for  $x, y \in G$  let  $x \star y$  be the fractional part of  $x + y$ . Prove that  $\star$  is a well-defined binary operation on  $G$  and that  $G$  is an abelian group under  $\star$ .*

Since  $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$  is a well-defined function, we follow that there exists unique  $\lfloor x + y \rfloor$  for given  $x, y \in R$ , and therefore  $x + y - \lfloor x + y \rfloor$  is a well-defined on  $R \times R \rightarrow R$ .

Let  $x, y \in G$ . Then we follow that  $0 \leq x + y < 2$ , therefore we've got two cases: if  $x + y < 1$  or  $1 \leq x + y < 2$ . In former case we follow that  $\lfloor x + y \rfloor = 0$ , therefore

$$0 \leq x \star y = x + y < 1$$

. In the latter case we've got that

$$\lfloor x + y \rfloor = 1$$

, therefore  $x \star y = x + y - 1$  and thus  $0 \leq x \star y = x + y - 1 < 1$ . Therefore  $x, y \in G \Rightarrow x \star y \in G$ , therefore we can state that  $\star : G \times G \rightarrow G$  is a well-defined function on  $G$ .

Thus

$$x \star (y \star z) = x \star (y + z - \lfloor y + z \rfloor) = x + y + z - \lfloor y + z \rfloor - \lfloor x + y + z - \lfloor y + z \rfloor \rfloor$$

$$(x \star y) \star z = (x + y - \lfloor x + y \rfloor) \star z = x + y + z - \lfloor x + y \rfloor - \lfloor x + y + z - \lfloor x + y \rfloor \rfloor$$

We follow that for every  $n \in Z$  we've got that  $\lfloor n \rfloor = n$ . It is also pretty straightforward (although I can't seem to produce a concrete proof for now) to check that  $\lfloor x + n \rfloor = \lfloor x \rfloor + n$  for every  $n \in Z$ . Since  $\lfloor x \rfloor \in Z$  for every  $x \in R$  we follow that

$$\begin{aligned} (x \star y) \star z &= \\ &= x + y + z - \lfloor y + z \rfloor - \lfloor x + y + z - \lfloor y + z \rfloor \rfloor = x + y + z - \lfloor y + z \rfloor - \lfloor x + y + z \rfloor + \lfloor y + z \rfloor = \\ &= x + y + z - \lfloor x + y + z \rfloor = x + y + z - \lfloor x + y \rfloor - \lfloor x + y + z \rfloor + \lfloor x + y \rfloor = \\ &= x + y + z - \lfloor y + z \rfloor - \lfloor x + y + z - \lfloor y + z \rfloor \rfloor = x \star (y \star z) \end{aligned}$$

therefore  $\star$  is an associative function.

By definition,  $0 \in G$ , therefore

$$0 \star x = 0 + x + \lfloor 0 + x \rfloor = x + \lfloor x \rfloor = x = x \star 0$$

thus we've got the identity in  $G$ .

For 0 we've got that it is an inverse of itself. For every  $x \in G \setminus \{0\}$  we can follow that  $1 - x \in G$  therefore  $1 - x \star x = x + 1 - x + \lfloor 1 \rfloor = 0$  therefore for every  $x \in G$  we've got the identity.

Thus we can follow that  $\langle G, \star \rangle$  is indeed a group.

We also follow that  $x \star y = x + y - \lfloor x + y \rfloor = y + x - \lfloor y + x \rfloor = y \star x$  therefore given group is also abelian, as desired.

### 1.1.9

Let  $G = \{a + b\sqrt{2} \in R : a, b \in Q\}$ .

Prove that  $G$  is a group under addition.

Let  $x, y, z \in G$ . Thus

$$x + y = a_x + b_x\sqrt{2} + a_y + b_y\sqrt{2} = (a_x + a_y) + \sqrt{2}(b_x + b_y)$$

therefore  $G$  is closed under addition, thus we follow that  $+$  :  $G \times G \rightarrow G$ . Sums are associative in general, therefore gonna skip that. 0 is the usual identity, which can be represented as  $0 + 0\sqrt{2}$ , thus  $0 \in G$ . For  $x \in G$  we can define  $x^{-1} = -a_x - b_x\sqrt{2}$ , which is also in  $G$ . Thus we follow that  $\langle G, + \rangle$  is indeed a group, as desired.

**1.1.11**

*Find the orders of each element of the additive group  $\mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z}$ .*

we've got that

```
ord (0) = 1
ord (1) = 12
ord (2) = 6
ord (3) = 4
ord (4) = 3
ord (5) = 12
ord (6) = 2
ord (7) = 12
ord (8) = 3
ord (9) = 4
ord (10) = 6
ord (11) = 12
```

**1.1.13**

*Find the orders of the following elements of the additive group  $\mathbb{Z}/36\mathbb{Z}$ : ...*

we've got that

```
ord (0) = 1
ord (1) = 36
ord (2) = 18
ord (3) = 12
ord (4) = 9
ord (5) = 36
ord (6) = 6
ord (7) = 36
ord (8) = 9
ord (9) = 4
ord (10) = 18
ord (11) = 36
ord (12) = 3
ord (13) = 36
ord (14) = 18
ord (15) = 12
ord (16) = 9
ord (17) = 36
ord (18) = 2
```



$$\text{ord } (26) = 18$$

$$\text{ord } (35) = 36$$

And since  $\overline{-1} = \overline{35}$  and so on, we've got the desired result.

### 1.1.15

*Prove that  $(a_1 a_2 \dots a_n)^{-1} = a_n^{-1} a_{n-1}^{-1} \dots a_1^{-1}$*

We already know that  $(a_1 a_2)^{-1} = a_2^{-1} a_1^{-1}$ . Suppose that chain of length  $n-1$  has this property. Then we follow that

$$(a_1 \dots a_{n-1} a_n)^{-1} = ((a_1 \dots a_{n-1})(a_n))^{-1} = a_n^{-1} (a_1 \dots a_{n-1})^{-1} = a_n^{-1} a_{n-1}^{-1} \dots a_1^{-1}$$

thus we follow that if  $k$  has this property, then  $k+1$  has this property, thus we follow that this property holds for all  $n \geq 2$ , as desired.

### 1.1.17

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

We follow that  $|x| = n$  means that  $x^n = e$ , where  $e$  denoted identity. Thus

$$e = x^n$$

$$ex^{-1} = x^n x^{-1}$$

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

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

$$x^{-1} = x^{n-1}$$

as desired.

### 1.1.18

*Let  $x, y \in G$ . Prove that  $xy = yx$  iff  $y^{-1}xy = x$  iff  $x^{-1}y^{-1}xy = 1$*

$$xy = yx \Leftrightarrow y^{-1}xy = y^{-1}yx \Leftrightarrow y^{-1}xy = ex \Leftrightarrow y^{-1}xy = x \Leftrightarrow x^{-1}y^{-1}xy = x^{-1}x \Leftrightarrow x^{-1}y^{-1}xy = e$$

where  $e = 1$ , and we've got the reverse implication in  $\Leftrightarrow$  by cancelation laws.

**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  $x = (x^2)^k$ .

We follow that  $n = 2k - 1$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ , thus

$$\begin{aligned} e &= x^n \\ e &= x^{2k-1} \\ ex &= x^{2k-1}x \\ x &= x^{2k} \\ x &= (x^2)^k \end{aligned}$$

as desired.

**1.1.23**

Suppose  $x \in G$  and  $|x| = n < \infty$ . If  $n = st$  for some positive integers  $s, t$ , prove that  $|x^s| = t$

We follow that  $n$  is the lowest integer such that

$$x^n = e$$

thus

$$\begin{aligned} x^{st} &= e \\ (x^s)^t &= e \end{aligned}$$

thus  $t$  is the smallest integer such that  $x^s = e$ , therefore  $|x^s| = t$ , as desired.

**1.1.25**

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

Suppose that  $x, y \in G$ . We follow that

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 &= e \\ x^{-1}x^2 &= x^{-1} \\ x &= x^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

by the same logic

$$y = y^{-1}$$

and since  $xy \in G$  we've got that

$$xy = (xy)^{-1}$$

thus

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

as desired.

**1.1.27**

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

Let us denote this set by  $H$  and let  $y, z, w \in H$ . Then we follow that there exist  $i, j, k \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} y &= x^i \\ z &= x^j \\ w &= x^k \end{aligned}$$

thus

$$yz = x^i x^j = x^{i+j}$$

thus we follow that  $H$  is closed under  $\star$ . We also have that

$$y(wz) = x^{i+j+k} = (yw)z$$

Since  $x^0 = 1$ , we follow that  $1 \in H$ . Also, if  $x^n \in H$ , then  $x^{-n} \in H$ , and since  $x^n x^{-n} = x^0 = 1$  we follow that every element has an inverse. Thus we conclude that  $H$  is indeed a group.

**1.1.29**

*Prove that  $A \times B$  is an abelian group iff both  $A$  and  $B$  are abelian groups.*

Let  $x, y \in A \times B$ . Then we follow that

$$\begin{aligned} xy = yx &\Leftrightarrow (a_x, b_x)(a_y, b_y) = (a_y, b_y)(a_x, b_x) \Leftrightarrow \\ &\Leftrightarrow (a_x a_y, b_x b_y) = (a_y a_x, b_y b_x) \Leftrightarrow a_x a_y = a_y a_x \wedge b_x b_y = b_y b_x \end{aligned}$$

as desired.

**1.1.33**

*Let  $x$  be an element of finite order in  $G$ .*

*(a) Prove that if  $n$  is odd then  $x^i \neq x^{-i}$  for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$ .*

We follow firstly that

$$x \neq x^2 \neq x^3 \dots \neq x^{n-1}$$

because if we have that  $x^i = x^j$  for  $1 \leq i < j \leq n-1$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} x^i &= x^j \\ x^{-i} x^i &= x^{j-i} \\ 1 &= x^{j-i} \end{aligned}$$

which contradicts that  $n$  is the order of  $x$ .

Thus we've got that

$$x^i \neq x^{-i}$$

is equivalent to

$$x^{2i} \neq 1$$

If  $2i < n$ , then we follow that this is given by the fact that order of  $x$  is  $n$ . If  $2i \geq n$ , then we follow that  $2i < 2n$ , therefore  $2i - n < n$ , and thus

$$x^n x^{2i-n} \neq 1$$

$$x^{2i-n} \neq 1$$

which is given to us by the fact that  $n$  is the order of  $x$ .

## 1.2 Dihedral Groups

We firstly state that

$$D_{2n} = \langle r, s | r^n = s^2 = 1, rs = sr^{-1} \rangle$$

### 1.2.1

*Compute the order of each of the elements in the following groups:*

In general, we're going to have that

$$|1| = 1$$

$$|r| = n$$

$$|r^j| = \text{lcm}(j, n)/j$$

$$|s| = |sr^j| = 2$$

(a)  $D_6$

$$|1| = 1$$

$$|r| = 3$$

$$(r^2)^2 = r^4 = rr^3 = r$$

$$(r^2)^3 = r^6 = (r^3)^2 = 1^2 = 1$$

$$|r^2| = 3$$

$$|s| = 2$$

$$(sr)^2 = sr sr = ssr^{-1}r = 1$$

$$|sr| = 2$$

$$(sr^2)^2 = sr^2 sr^2 = srrsrr = sr sr^{-1} rr = ssr^{-1} r^{-1} rr = 1$$

$$|sr^2| = 2$$

(b)  $D_8$

$$|1| = 1$$

$$|r| = 4$$

$$(r^2)^2 = r^4 = 1$$

$$|r^2| = 2$$

$$(r^3)^2 = r^6 = r^2$$

$$(r^3)^3 = r^9 = r$$

$$(r^3)^4 = r^{12} = 1$$

$$|r^3| = 4$$

$$|s| = 2$$

$$|sr| = 2$$

$$srrsrr = sr sr^{-1} rr = ssr^{-1} r^{-1} rr = 1$$

$$|sr^2| = 2$$

$$srrrsrrr = srr sr^{-1} rrr = sr sr^{-1} r^{-1} rrr = ssr^{-3} r^3 = 1$$

$$|sr^3| = 2$$

*Not gonna repeat for  $D_{10}$ , outlined general case in the beginning of the exercise*

**1.2.3**

Use the generators and relations above to show that every element of  $D_{2n}$ , which is not a power of  $r$  has order 2. Deduce that  $D_{2n}$  is generated by the two elements  $s$  and  $sr$ , both of which have order 2.

We follow that

$$rs = sr^{-1}$$

and since  $(r^{-1})^{-1} = r$ , we follow that

$$r^{-1}s = sr$$

Now suppose that  $j \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $sr^j = r^{-j}s$ . Then we follow that

$$sr^{j+1} = sr^j r = r^{-j} sr = r^{-j} r^{-1} s = r^{-(j+1)} s$$

thus we conclude that for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  we've got that  $sr^j = r^{-j}s$ . Therefore we can follow that

$$(sr^j)^2 = sr^j sr^j = sr^j r^{-j} s = ss = 1$$

therefore  $|sr^j| = 2$  for every  $j \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Suppose that  $x \in D_{2n}$ . Then we follow that  $x = s^j r^i$  therefore  $x = s^{j-i} (sr)^i$ , as desired.

**1.2.5**

If  $n$  is odd and  $n \geq 3$ , show that the identity is the only element of  $D_{2n}$  which commutes with all elements of  $D_{2n}$ .

Suppose that  $x, y \in D_{2n}$ . Then we follow that if  $x$  is not the identity, then  $x = r^j$  or  $x = sr^j$ . Then we follow that if  $x = sr^j$ , then

$$xr = sr^{j+1}$$

and

$$rx = r sr^j = sr^{j-1}$$

thus we follow that  $x$  does not commute with  $r^i$ .

If we let  $x = r^j$  then we follow that

$$sx = sr^j$$

and

$$xs = r^j s = sr^{-j} = sr^{n-j}$$

We follow that if  $n$  is odd, then there does not exist  $j$  such that  $j = n - j$ , therefore we follow that  $x$  does not commute with  $s$ .

Thus we can conclude that the only element that commutes with all elements in  $D_{2n}$  is the identity, as desired.

**1.2.7**

Show that  $(a, b | a^2 = b^2 = (ab)^n = 1)$  gives a presentation for  $D_{2n}$

Let  $a = s$  and  $b = sr$ . Then we follow that

$$a^2 = s^2 = 1$$

from which we follow that

$$s = s^{-1}$$

$$(ab)^n = s^n s^n r^n = (s^2)^n r^n = 1 r^n = r^n = 1$$

$$b^2 = 1 \Leftrightarrow (sr)^2 = 1 \Leftrightarrow sr = (sr)^{-1} \Leftrightarrow sr = r^{-1} s^{-1} = sr = r^{-1} s$$

thus we conclude that given representation is equivalent to our original representation.

**1.2.9**

Let  $G$  be the group of rigid motions in  $R^3$  of tetrahedron. Show that  $|G| = 12$ .

We follow that we can send every vertex into another 3 vertices, which gives us 4 motions (don't forget the identity). Then we've got 3 other vertices, with which we can label the second vertex, thus giving us 24 total cases (in general we've got that  $|G|$  is equal to number of vertices of the solid multiplied by the number of neighbors of any given vertex.)

**1.2.11, 1.2.13**

Same logic as in 1.2.9

**1.2.15**

Find a set of generators and relations for  $Z/nZ$ .

1 is the obvious candidate, since  $j = \sum 1$  for every  $j \in Z/nZ$ . We can state that  $1^{n+1} = 1$ , which will give us a relation. Not sure how to show that this is the extensive list of relations, but here's mine.

**1.2.17**

Let  $X_{2n}$  be a group whose presentation is displayed in (1.2)

$$X_{2n} = \langle x, y | x^n = y^2 = 1, xy = yx^2 \rangle$$

(a) Show that if  $n = 3k$ , then  $X_{2n}$  has order 6, and it has the same generators and relations as  $D_6$  when  $x$  is replaced by  $r$  and  $y$  by  $s$ .

We follow that  $1, x, y \in X_{2n}$ .

If  $z \notin X_{2n}$ , then it is represented by  $z = x^j y^i$  or  $z = y^i x^j$ . In former case we can use the relation  $y^2 = 1$  to follow that

$$x^j y^i = x^j y$$

from which by induction we can follow that

$$x^j y = y x^{2j}$$

In latter case we follow that  $z = y x^j$  or  $z = x^j$  by the relation  $y^2 = 1$ . In any case we follow that

$$z \in X_{2n} \Rightarrow (\exists j \in \mathbb{Z})(z = y x^j \vee z = x^j)$$

Now it would be nice to get that  $x^3 = 1$ . From the identity in the chapter we follow that

$$x = x^4$$

and therefore  $x^3 = 1$ , which is neat.

Since  $n = 3k$ , we follow that

$$x^n = x^{3k} = (x^3)^k = 1$$

thus we follow that  $x^n = 1$  does not restrict our set in any way.

Therefore we follow that all the elements of  $X_{2n}$  are  $1, x, x^2, y, yx, yx^2$ , therefore it has order 6, as desired.

Now suppose that we let  $x = r$  and  $y = s$ . Then we follow that we've got relations

$$x^3 = 1$$

$$s^2 = 1$$

$$rs = sr^2 \Leftrightarrow rsr = sr^3 \Leftrightarrow rsr = s \Leftrightarrow sr = r^{-1}s$$

which gives us the desired correspondense

(b) Show that if  $(3, n) = 1$ , then  $x$  satisfies additional relation  $x = 1$

We follow that if  $(3, n) = 1$ , then  $3a + qn = 1$ , and thus  $qn = 1 - 3a$ . Thus

$$1 = x^n = x^{qn} = x^n = x^{3a-1} = (x^3)^a x$$

and since  $x^3 = 1$  we follow that

$$1 = x^{3a} x = 1x = x$$

from which we follow that the only elements of  $X_{2n}$  are  $1, y$ . Thus  $|X_{2n}| = 2$ , as desired.



## 1.3 Symmetric Groups

### 1.3.1

Let  $\sigma$  and  $\tau$  be the given permutations. Find the cycle decomposition of their compositions

$$\sigma = (1, 3, 5)(2, 4)$$

$$\tau = (1, 5)(2, 3)$$

$$\tau\sigma = (1, 2, 4, 3)$$

$$\sigma\tau = (1)(2, 5, 3, 4)$$

$$\tau^2 = (1)(2)(3)(4)(5)$$

$$\tau^2\sigma = (1, 3, 5)(2, 4)$$

### 1.3.3

For each of the permutations whose cycle decompositions were computed in the preceeding (I've got only one) exercises compute its order

We follow that the general case is the  $lcm(l_1, l_2, \dots)$ , where  $l_j$  is the length of  $j$ 'th cycle

### 1.3.5

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

It's 12.

### 1.3.7

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

Skip

### 1.3.9

(a) Let  $\sigma$  be the 12-cycle  $(1, 2, 3, \dots, 12)$ . For which positive integers  $i$  is  $\sigma^i$  also a 12-cycle

Ones that have  $(i, 12) = 1$

Rest is similar.

### 1.3.11

Let  $\sigma$  be the  $m$ -cycle  $(1, 2, \dots, m)$ . Show taht  $\sigma^i$  is also a ...

Trivial

**1.3.13**

Show that an element has order 2 in  $S_n$  iff its cycle decomposition is a product of commuting 2-cycles.

We follow that  $|S_n| = lcm(l_1, \dots, l_n)$ , thus if we omit 1-cycles, then  $S_n$  has indeed order 2 iff it's a product of commuting 2-cycles.

**1.3.15**

Prove that the ....

Trivial

**1.3.17**

Show that if  $n \geq 4$ , then the number of permutations in  $S_n$  which are the product of two disjoint 2-cycles is  $n(n-1)(n-2)(n-3)/8$

Let  $C$  denote binomial coefficient. We follow that there are  $C(n, 2)$  ways to choose the elements in the first cycle, and  $C(n-2, 2)$  for the second. Thus there are

$$C(n, 2)C(n-2, 2) = \frac{n(n-1)}{2} \frac{(n-2)(n-3)}{2} = \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)(n-3)}{4}$$

total elements, if we care about order. Since we don't care about the order of the product, we follow that we can divide this number by  $2! = 2$  to get the number of unordered products of disjoint cycles, which will be

$$\frac{n(n-1)(n-2)(n-3)}{8}$$

as desired.

**1.3.19**

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

We follow that if element is of order  $n$ , then  $lcm(l_1, l_2, \dots, l_n) = n$ . Since  $lcm(n, 1, 1, \dots) = n$ , we follow that all the numbers 1 through  $n$  are there. We can also brute-force this thing and get that 10, 12 are also present. 9 is out, and so is 8. And that's about it.

**1.4 Matrix Groups****1.4.1**

Prove that  $|GL_2(F_2)| = 6$

We follow that there are only 2 elements in  $F$ , therefore there are only 16 matrices in general.

We follow that matrices

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

its four rotation,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

its four rotation and

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

are all non-invertible. Every other one is invertible, so we follow that  $|GL_2(F_2)| = 6$ , as desired.

### 1.4.3

*Show that  $GL_2(F_2)$  is non-abelian*

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

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

thus we follow that elements in this group do not commute.

### 1.4.1 1.4.5

*Show that  $GL_n(F)$  is a finite group if and only if  $F$  has a finite number of elements*

We can follow that if  $F$  is finite, then there are only  $|F|^{n^2}$  matrices in total, and invertible matrices are a subset of this set, thus we follow that  $GL_n(F)$  is a finite set.

Conversely, suppose that  $GL_n(F)$  is a finite group and  $F$  is infinite. Then we follow that for every  $x \in F$  we've got  $xI \in GL_n(F)$ , thus we follow that finite set has an infinite subset, which is a contradiction.

**1.4.7**

Let  $p$  be a prime. Prove that the order of  $GL_2(F_p)$  is  $p^4 - p^3 - p^2 + p$ . There are a total of  $p^4$  distinct matrices. We follow that there are  $p^2$  distinct rows, one of which is zero. If the row is not zero, then it has  $p$  distinct scalar multiples. For zero there is  $p^2$  rows, such that one of them is the scalar multiple of the other. Thus we follow that there are

$$(p^2 - 1)p + p^2 = p^3 - p + p^2$$

non-invertible matrices. From this we follow that the total number of invertible matrices is

$$p^4 - p^3 - p^2 + p$$

as desired.

**1.4.9**

Prove that the binary operation of matrix multiplication of  $2 \times 2$  matrices with real number entries is associative.

Follows from definition of matrix multiplication, true in general for  $n \times n$  matrices.

**1.5 Quaternion Group****1.5.1**

Compute the order of each of the elements in  $Q_8$

$$|1| = 1$$

$$|-1| = 2$$

$$|i| = 4$$

$$(-i)^2 = (kj)^2 = kjkj = kik = jk = i$$

$$(-i)^3 = (kj)^3 = ikj = (-j)j = 1$$

$$|-i| = 3$$

$$|j| = 4$$

$$(-j)^2 = ikik = ijk = kk = -1$$

$$(-j)^3 = -1(-j) = j$$

$$(-j)^4 = j(-j) = 1$$

$$|-j| = 4$$

$$\begin{aligned}
|k| &= 4 \\
(-k)^2 &= jiji = jki = i^2 = -1 \\
|-k| &= 4
\end{aligned}$$

## 1.6 Homomorphisms and Isomorphisms

### 1.6.1

Let  $\phi : G \rightarrow H$  be a homomorphism

(a) Prove that  $\phi(x^n) = \phi(x)^n$

We follow that  $\phi(x^2) = \phi(x)^2$  by definition.

Suppose that  $\phi(x^n) = \phi(x)^n$ . Then we follow that

$$\phi(x^{n+1}) = \phi(x^n x) = \phi(x^n)\phi(x) = \phi(x)^n\phi(x) = \phi(x)^{n+1}$$

thus we follow the desired conclusion from induction.

(b) Do part (a) by with  $n = 1$  and conclude that the same is true for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

We follow that

$$\phi(1x) = \phi(1)\phi(x)$$

and

$$\phi(x1) = \phi(x)\phi(1)$$

thus we can conclude that  $\phi$  maps identity to the identity. Therefore we follow that

$$\phi(x^0) = \phi(1) = 1 = \phi(x)^0$$

$$\phi(x^{-1}) = 1\phi(x^{-1}) = \phi(x)^{-1}\phi(x)\phi(x^{-1}) = \phi(x)^{-1}\phi(xx^{-1}) = \phi(x)^{-1}\phi(1) = \phi(x)^{-1}$$

thus we follow that if  $\phi(x^{-1}) = \phi(x)^{-1}$ . Suppose now that

$$\phi(x^{-j}) = \phi(x)^{-j}$$

then we follow that

$$\phi(x^{-(j+1)}) = \phi(x^{-j}x^{-1}) = \phi(x^{-j})\phi(x^{-1}) = \phi(x)^{-j}\phi(x)^{-1} = \phi(x)^{-(j+1)}$$

Thus we've got the desired conclusion.

**1.6.3**

If  $\phi : G \rightarrow H$  is an isomorphism, prove that  $G$  is abelian iff  $H$  is abelian. If  $\phi : G \rightarrow H$  is a homomorphism, what additional conditions on  $\phi$  are sufficient to ensure that if  $G$  is abelian, then so  $H$ ?

Suppose that  $G$  is abelian. Now let  $x, y \in H$ . Because  $\phi$  is a bijection, we follow that it is surjective. Thus we follow that there exist  $x', y' \in G$  such that  $\phi(x') = x$  and  $\phi(y') = y$ . Thus we follow that

$$xy = \phi(x')\phi(y') = \phi(x'y') = \phi(y'x') = \phi(y')\phi(x') = yx$$

thus we follow that  $H$  is abelian.

If a function is a bijection, then the inverse of this function is also surjective. Thus we've got converse case from the forward implication.

If  $\phi$  is a homomorphism, then we follow that if  $\phi$  is surjective and  $G$  is abelian, then  $H$  is abelian as well.

**1.6.5**

Prove that the additive groups  $R$  and  $Q$  are not isomorphic.

Since there are no bijections from  $R$  to  $Q$ , we follow that no such functions exist (for the proof GOTO either first chapter of real analysis book, or just google it).

**1.6.7**

Prove that  $D_8$  and  $Q_8$  are not isomorphic.

$Q_8$  has an element of order 3, but  $D_8$  does not.

**1.6.9**

Prove that  $D_{24}$  and  $S_4$  are not isomorphic.

We've got that  $r^{11} \in D_{24}$  has order 132, and the maximum order of an element in  $S_4$  is below 16 (not gonna compute the exact thing, for more info GOTO 1.3.19)

**1.6.11**

Let  $A, B$  be groups. Prove that  $A \times B \cong B \times A$ .

Define  $\phi((a, b)) = (b, a)$ . Then we follow that  $\phi$  is a bijection, and the fact that is a homomorphism is easily followed from definitions.

**1.6.13**

Let  $G$  and  $H$  be groups and let  $\phi : G \rightarrow H$  be a homomorphism. Prove that the image of  $\phi$ ,  $\phi(G)$  is a subgroup of  $H$ . Prove that if  $\phi$  is injective, then  $G \cong \phi(G)$ .

We follow that if  $1 \in \phi(G)$ , as proven earlier. Associativity comes naturally and inverses are handled in exercise 1.6.1. Thus we follow that  $\phi(G)$  is indeed a subgroup.

If  $\phi$  is injective, then we follow that  $\phi : G \rightarrow \phi(G)$  is a bijection, thus we've got isomorphism, as desired.

**1.6.15**

Define a map  $\pi : R^2 \rightarrow R$  by  $\pi((x, y)) = x$ . Prove that  $\pi$  is a homomorphism and find the kernel of  $\pi$ .

Suppose that  $x = (a, b), y = (c, d) \in R$ . Then we follow that

$$\phi(xy) = \phi(ac, bd) = ac = \phi((a, b))\phi((b, d))$$

therefore  $\phi$  is a homomorphism.

We follow that  $(0, y) \in R^2$  is a kernel of  $\pi$ .

**1.6.17**

Let  $G$  be any group. Prove that the map from  $G$  to itself, defined by  $g \rightarrow g^{-1}$  is a homomorphism iff  $G$  is abelian.

Suppose that  $g \rightarrow g^{-1}$  is a homomorphism and let  $x, y \in G$ . Then we follow that

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

thus we follow that  $G$  is abelian.

Suppose that  $G$  is abelian. Then we follow that

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

thus we follow that  $\phi$  is a homomorphism.

**1.6.19**

Let  $G = \{z \in C : (\exists n \in \mathbb{Z}^+)(z^n = 1)\}$ . Prove that for any fixed integer  $k > 1$  the map from  $G$  to itself defined by  $z \rightarrow z^k$  is surjective homomorphism but not an isomorphism.

Suppose that  $x, y \in G$ . Then we follow that

$$\phi(xy) = (xy)^k = x^k y^k = \phi(x)\phi(y)$$

which proves that  $\phi$  is a homomorphism.

Suppose that  $x \in G$ . Then we follow that  $x \in C$  and there exists  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $x^n = 1$ . Thus we follow that  $x \neq 0$  and we're going to have some  $x^{-k+1}$  such that  $\phi(x^{-k+1}) = x^1 = x$ . We can also follow that  $(x^{-k+1})^n = x^n = 1$ , thus  $x^{-k+1} \in G$ . Thus we follow that  $x \in \phi(G)$ , and therefore  $\phi$  is surjective.

We follow that for every number  $x$  in  $C$  there exist  $k$  elements of  $C$  such that

$$x^k = 1$$

. Since  $1 \in G$ , and  $k > 1$  we follow that there exist  $x_1 \neq x_2 \in C$  such that

$$\phi(x_1) = 1 = \phi(x_2)$$

thus we follow that  $\phi$  is not injective, and thus it is not an isomorphism.

### 1.6.21

*Prove that for each fixed nonzero  $k \in Q$  the map from  $Q$  to itself defined by  $q \rightarrow kq$  is an automorphism of  $Q$ .*

Assuming that by  $kq$  we mean multiplication and letting  $\phi(q) = kq$ , then we follow that

$$\phi(x + y) = k(x + y) = kx + ky = \phi(x) + \phi(y)$$

thus it is an isomorphism.

We follow that if  $x \neq y$ , then

$$\phi(x) - \phi(y) = k(x - y) \neq 0$$

thus we follow that  $x \neq y$  implies that  $\phi$  is injective.

For  $x \in Q$  we follow that  $\phi(k^{-1}x) = kk^{-1}x = x$ , thus  $\phi$  is also surjective. Thus  $\phi$  is an automorphism.

### 1.6.23

*let  $G$  be a finite group which possesses an automorphism  $\sigma$ . such that  $\sigma(g) = g$  iff  $g = 1$ . If  $\sigma^2$  is the identity map, prove that  $G$  is abelian.*

Suppose that  $\sigma^2$  is the identity. We need to show that for all  $x, y \in G$  we've got that

$$xy = yx$$

Suppose that  $x \in G$ . We follow that if  $x \neq 1$ , then

$$\sigma(x) \neq x$$

but

$$\sigma(x^2) = \sigma(x)^2 = x^2$$



thus we follow that for every  $x \in G$ ,  $x^2 = 1$ . Thus we follow that  $x^{-1} = x$  for every  $x \in G$ . Therefore we follow that for every  $x, y \in G$  we've got that  $xy \in G$  as well, thus

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

thus the group is abelian, as desired.

### 1.6.25

Followes some exercise in my linear algebra book

## 1.7 Group Actions

### 1.7.1

Let  $F$  be a field. Show that the multiplicative group of nonzero elements of  $F$  (denoted by  $F^\times$ ) acts on the set  $F$  by  $g \cdot a = ga$ , where  $g \in F^\times$ ,  $a \in F$  and  $ga$  is the usual product in  $F$  of the two field elements.

We follow that for all  $g_1, g_2, g, a \in F^\times$

$$g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot a) = (g_1 \cdot g_2) \cdot a$$

by associative property of multiplication in the field. We also follow that

$$1 \in F$$

by the fact that multiplicative identity is in  $F^\times$ , and

$$1 \cdot a = a$$

by the fact that 1 is the multiplicative identity.

### 1.7.3

Show that the additive group  $R$  acts on the  $x, y$  plane  $R \times R$  by

$$r \cdot (x, y) = (x + ry, y)$$

We follow that for  $r_1, r_2 \in R$  we've got

$$(r_1 + r_2) \cdot (x, y) = (x + r_1y + r_2y, y)$$

$$r_1 \cdot (r_2 \cdot (x, y)) = r_1 \cdot (x + r_2y, y) = (x + r_1y + r_2y, y)$$

thus we follow the first part of the definition of group action.

We follow that in this case the group identity in  $R$  is 0, therefore for all  $(x, y) \in R \cdot R$  is

$$0 \cdot (x, y) = (x + 0y, y) = (x, y)$$

Thus given function satisfies all the properties of group action, and therefore it is a group action itself, as desired.

## 1.7.5

*Prove that the kernel of an action of the group  $G$  on the set  $A$  is the same as the kernel of corresponding permutation representation  $G \rightarrow S_A$ .*

Skip, cannot figure out wording. Kernel of the action is a subset of  $G \times A$  and kernel of permutation representation is a subset of  $G$ , which means that their sole common subset is  $\emptyset$ . Kernel of permutation representation may be non-empty, thus we follow that the conclusion of the exercise is false.

## 1.7.7

*Prove that in Example 2 in this section the addition is faithful.*

Let  $x, y \in F^\times$  be such that  $x \neq y$ . Let  $\phi_1, \phi_2$  be permutations, produced by

$$\phi_1(a) = x \cdot a$$

$$\phi_2(a) = y \cdot a$$

Let  $v \in V$  be defined by

$$v = (1, 1, \dots)$$

We follow that

$$\phi_1(v) = (x, x, \dots)$$

$$\phi_2(v) = (y, y, \dots)$$

and since  $x \neq y$ , we follow that  $\phi_1(v) \neq \phi_2(v)$ . Thus we follow that  $x \neq y$  implies that  $\phi_x \neq \phi_y$ , as desired.

## 1.7.8

*Let  $A$  be a nonempty set and let  $k$  be a positive integer with  $k \leq |A|$ . The symmetric group  $S_A$  acts of the set  $B$  consisting of all subsets of  $A$  of cardinality  $k$  by  $\sigma \cdot \{a_1, \dots, a_k\} = \{\sigma(a_1), \dots, \sigma(a_k)\}$ .*

Don't have a clue on why do we need a finite cardinality here, but here we go.

Presumably we define  $\cdot : S_A \times B \rightarrow B$  to be

$$\cdot(\langle \sigma, b \rangle) = \sigma[b]$$

where  $[]$  is defined to be image of  $B$ . Since every  $\sigma \in S_A$  is a bijection, we follow that for every  $b \in B$  there quite literally exists a bijection between  $b$  and  $\sigma[b]$ . Thus we follow that

$$(\forall \sigma \in S_A, b \in B)(|\sigma \cdot b| = |b| = k)$$

(a) *Prove that this is a group action.*

Suppose that  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2 \in S_A$  and  $b \in B$  are arbitrary. We follow that

$$\sigma_1 \cdot (\sigma_2 \cdot b) = \sigma_1 \cdot \sigma[b] = \sigma_1[\sigma_2[b]] = (\sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_2)[b]$$

where the last equation quite easily comes from definition of range.

We also follow that if  $\sigma$  is an identity, then

$$\sigma[b] = b$$

by the definition (or minor deriviation and application of definition of range) of identity.

Thus we follow that  $\cdot$  is indeed a group action.

*Describe explicitly how the elements  $(1, 2)$  and  $(1, 2, 3)$  act on the six 2-element subsets of  $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$*

We follow that

$$B = \{\{1, 2\}, \{2, 3\}, \{3, 4\}, \{1, 3\}, \{1, 4\}, \{2, 4\}\}$$

where we're gonna refer to each element of  $B$  by  $b_j$ , where  $j$  is the order of the element in the above-mentioned representation. Then we follow that

$$(1, 2) \cdot b_1 = \{1, 2\}$$

$$(1, 2) \cdot b_2 = \{1, 3\}$$

$$(1, 2) \cdot b_3 = \{3, 4\}$$

$$(1, 2) \cdot b_4 = \{2, 3\}$$

$$(1, 2) \cdot b_5 = \{2, 4\}$$

$$(1, 2) \cdot b_6 = \{1, 4\}$$

$$(1, 2, 3) \cdot b_1 = \{2, 3\}$$

$$(1, 2, 3) \cdot b_2 = \{1, 3\}$$

$$(1, 2, 3) \cdot b_3 = \{1, 4\}$$

$$(1, 2, 3) \cdot b_4 = \{1, 2\}$$

$$(1, 2, 3) \cdot b_5 = \{2, 4\}$$

$$(1, 2, 3) \cdot b_6 = \{3, 4\}$$

**1.7.1 1.7.11**

Write out the cycle decomposition of the eight permutations in  $S_4$ , corresponding to the elements of  $D_8$  given by the action of  $D_8$  on the vertices of a square.

$$\begin{aligned}
 &() \\
 &(1, 2, 3, 4) \\
 &(1, 3)(2, 4) \\
 &(1, 4, 3, 2) \\
 &(2, 4) \\
 &(1, 2)(3, 4) \\
 &(1, 3) \\
 &(1, 4)(2, 3)
 \end{aligned}$$

**1.7.2 1.7.13**

Find the kernel of the left regular action

We follow that the kernel of left regular action is the set

$$A : \{ \langle x, y \rangle \in G \times G : x = y^{-1} \}$$

**1.7.15**

Let  $G$  be any group and let  $A = G$ . Show that the maps defined by  $g \cdot a = ag^{-1}$  for all  $g, a \in G$  do satisfy the axioms of group action of  $G$  on itself

Suppose that  $x, y, z \in G$ . Then we follow that

$$x \cdot (y \cdot z) = x \cdot (zy^{-1}) = zy^{-1}x^{-1}$$

$$(xy) \cdot z = z(xy)^{-1} = zy^{-1}x^{-1}$$

And we follow that

$$1 \cdot z = z1^{-1} = z$$

### 1.7.17

Let  $G$  be a group and let  $G$  act on itself by left conjugation (i.e.

$$\cdot : G \times G \rightarrow G$$

$$g \cdot x = gxg^{-1}$$

)

For  $g_1, g_2, a \in G$

$$g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot a) = g_1 g_2 a g_2^{-1} g_1^{-1}$$

$$(g_1 g_2) \cdot a = g_1 g_2 a (g_1 g_2)^{-1} = g_1 g_2 a g_2^{-1} g_1^{-1}$$

as desired.

The fact that if we fix  $g$  and make a function

$$\sigma_g : G \rightarrow G$$

$$\sigma_g(a) = g \cdot a$$

is an automorphism comes from the fact that permutation representation produces permutations (i.e. bijections from  $G$  to  $G$ ), which is precisely the definition of automorphism.

### 1.7.3 1.7.18

Let  $H$  be a group acting on a set  $A$ . Prove that the relation  $\equiv$  on  $A$  defined by

$$a \equiv b \iff a = hb$$

is an equivalence relation.

We follow that

$$a = 1a \Rightarrow a \equiv a$$

$$a \equiv b \wedge b \equiv c \Rightarrow a = hb \wedge b = h'c \Rightarrow a = hh'c \Rightarrow a \equiv c$$

$$a \equiv b \Rightarrow a = hb \Rightarrow b = h^{-1}a \Rightarrow b \equiv a$$

## Chapter 2

# Subgroups

### 2.1 Definition and Examples

Let  $G$  be a group

#### 2.1.1 2.1.1

*Prove that the specified subset is a subgroup of the given group*

Let us denote the described group by  $H$

(a) *the set of complex number of the form  $a + ai$ ,  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  (addition)*

$0 = 0 + 0i \in H$ , therefore  $H \neq \emptyset$ . Suppose that  $x, y \in H$   $x = a + ai$ ,  $y = b + bi$ , then we follow that  $y^{-1} = -b - bi \in H$  and

$$xy^{-1} = a + ai - b - bi = (a - b) + (a - b)i \in H$$

therefore we follow that  $H$  is a subgroup.

(b) *The set of complex numbers of absolute value 1, i.e. the unit circle in the complex plane (under multiplication)*

We follow that  $1 \in H$ , therefore  $H \neq \emptyset$ . Suppose that  $x, y \in H$ . Then we follow that  $|y^{-1}| = 1$ , therefore  $y^{-1} \in H$ .

$$|xy^{-1}| = |1| \in H$$

(concrete proof follows from properties of complex numbers in linear algebra course) therefore  $H$  is a subgroup.

(c) *For fixed  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  the set of rational number whose denominators divide  $n$  (under addition)*

We follow that  $1/n \in H$ . Suppose that  $y \in H$ . We follow that  $y = m/k$ , and thus  $y^{-1} = -m/k$ , thus  $y^{-1} \in H$ . Suppose that  $x \in H$ . We follow that  $x = j/l$ , and

$$xy^{-1} = s/\text{lcm}(l, k)$$

where  $s$  is some number and denominator also is a multiple of  $n$ , thus  $H$  is a subgroup.

(d) *rational numbers whose denominators are relatively prime to  $n$  (addition)*

If  $p$  is prime, then  $1/p \in H$ . For  $y = m/k \in H$ , we follow that  $y^{-1} = -m/k \in H$ , and for some  $x = k/l \in H$  we follow that

$$xy^{-1} = s/\text{lcm}(l, k) \in H$$

Thus  $H$  is a subgroup

(e) *The set of nonzero real numbers whose square is a rational number (under multiplication)*

Here we've got  $G = H$ .

### 2.1.2

*Prove that subset is not a subgroup*

(a) *the set of 2-cycles in  $S_n$  for  $n \geq 3$ .*

Suppose that  $s$  is defined by  $(1, 2)$ . We follow that  $ss^{-1} (1, 2)(2, 1) = (1)(2)$  which is not a 2-cycle.

(b) *The set of reflections in  $D_{2n}$  for  $n \geq 3$ .*

We follow that  $1 \notin H$ .

(c) *For  $n$  composite integer  $> 1$  and  $G$  is a group containing element of order  $n$ , the set  $\{x \in G : |x| = n\} \cup \{1\}$ .*

We follow that if  $x \in H$ , then  $x^n \notin H$

(d) *odd integers and 0*

$$3 + 3 = 6$$

(e) *reals whose square is a rational number (under addition)*

$$(\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3})^2 = 5 + 2\sqrt{6}$$

### 2.1.4

*Give an explicit example of a group  $G$  and an infinite subset  $H$  of  $G$  is closed under the group operation but is not a subgroup of  $G$ .*

$\mathbb{Z}^+$  closed under addition, but does not have inverses.

### 2.1.5

*Prove that  $G$  cannot have a subgroup  $H$  with  $|H| = n - 1$ , where  $n = |G| > 2$*

Suppose that  $x$  is the removed element. Then we follow that it cannot be identity by definition of the group. If  $x$  is not an identity, then we follow that  $xy$  must be removed as well, thus we follow that  $|H|$  cannot be  $n - 1$ .

**2.1.6**

Let  $G$  be an abelian group. Prove that  $H = \{g \in G : |g| < \infty\}$  is a subgroup of  $G$  (called the torsion subgroup of  $G$ ). Give an explicit example where this set is not a subgroup when  $G$  is non-abelian.

We follow that  $1 \in H$ . Suppose that  $y \in H$ . We follow that  $|y| < \infty$ . Thus

$$y^n = 1$$

for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Thus

$$y^{-n} = 1$$

, therefore  $| -y | < \infty$  as well. Suppose that  $x \in H$ . We follow that there exists  $j \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that

$$x^j = 1$$

thus

$$(xy^{-1})^{\text{lcm}(j,n)} = 1$$

where we can use this fact only because  $G$  is abelian, and therefore we can use the fact that

$$(xy)^n = x^n y^n$$

We can have an operator

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

for which the inverse is

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -0.5 \\ 0 & 0.25 \end{pmatrix}$$

and whose square root is

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

where we have that inverse times square root has an infinite order.

**2.1.7**

Fix some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $n > 1$ . Find the torsion subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z} \times (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})$ . Show that the set of elements of infinite order together with the identity is not a subgroup of this direct product.

We follow that the only element of  $\mathbb{Z}$  that has a finite order is 0 and  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  can have  $\phi(n)$  (not sure about this, but at least finite ) number of elements that have finite order. Thus we follow that the cartesian product of those two sets are the torsion subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z} \times (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})$ .

Identity in this case is  $\langle 0, 0 \rangle$ , and we follow that

$$\langle 1, 0 \rangle \langle -1, 1 \rangle = \langle 0, 1 \rangle$$



**2.1.8**

Let  $H$  and  $K$  be subgroups of  $G$ . Prove that  $H \cup K$  is a subgroup if and only if either  $H \subseteq K$  or  $K \subseteq H$ .

Suppose that  $H \cup K$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . Let  $x \in K \setminus H$  and  $y \in H \setminus K$ . If  $x^{-1} \in H$ , then we follow that  $(x^{-1})^{-1} \notin H$ , therefore  $H$  is not closed under inverses. Thus we follow that  $x^{-1} \in K \setminus H$ . Same applies to  $y$ , thus  $x, x^{-1} \in K \setminus H$  and  $y, y^{-1} \in H \setminus K$ .

Now suppose that  $xy \in K$ . We follow that since  $x^{-1} \in K$ , then  $x^{-1}xy \in K$ , therefore  $y \in K$ , which is a contradiction. Similar case holds for  $xy \in H$ . Thus we follow that our assumption that  $H \setminus K$  and  $K \setminus H$  are both nonempty is false. Thus we follow that  $H \subseteq K$  or  $K \subseteq H$ , as desired.

Conversely, if  $H \subseteq K$  or  $K \subseteq H$ , then we follow that  $H \cup K = H$  or  $H \cup K = K$ , thus it's a subgroup.

**2.1.9**

Let  $G = GL_n(F)$  where  $F$  is any field. Define

$$SL_n(F) = \{A \in GL_n(F) : \det(A) = 1\}$$

Prove that  $SL_n(F) \leq GL_n(F)$ .

We follow that  $I \in SL_n(F)$ , thus it is nonempty. Suppose that  $x, y \in SL_n(F)$ . Then we follow that  $x, y$  are both invertible (followed by nonzero determinant), and also  $y^{-1} \in SL_n(F)$  (because  $\det(A^{-1}) = \det(A)^{-1}$ ). From this we follow that

$$\det(xy^{-1}) = 1$$

since  $\det(A)\det(B) = \det(AB)$ . Thus  $SL_n(F) \leq GL_n(F)$ , as desired.

**2.1.10**

Similar case was handled in linear algebra book, gonna skip this one.

**2.1.11**

Trivial; skip

**2.1.12**

Let  $A$  be an abelian group and fix some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Prove that the following sets are subgroups of  $A$ :

(a)  $\{a^n : a \in A\}$

repeat of 1.1.27

(b)

$$H = \{a \in A : a^n = 1\}$$

We follow that  $1 \in H$ , therefore  $H \neq \emptyset$ . Suppose that  $x, y \in H$ . Then we follow that  $y^n = 1$ . Therefore  $y^{-n} = 1$ , therefore  $y^{-1} \in H$ . Thus we follow that

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

**2.1.13**

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

We follow that  $H = 0$  and  $H = \mathbb{Q}$  are cases, where everything holds. Now suppose that there exist two nonzero elements  $x, y$  of  $\mathbb{Q}$  such that  $x \in H$  and  $y' \notin H$ . Then we follow that if  $y' < 0$ , then  $y'^{-1} > 0$  and  $y'^{-1} \notin H \iff y \notin H$ , thus we can let  $y = \max\{y, y'\}$ . (Not gonna remember about it afterwards, this was done so that we've got  $x, y > 0$  for simplicity's sake).

Now we get that  $x > 0$  and  $y > 0$ ,  $x \in H$ ,  $y \notin H$ . Since  $x, y$  are positive rationals we follow that  $x = m/n, y = r/q$  for some  $m, n, r, q \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .

Since  $x \in H$ , we follow that every integer multiple of  $x$  is in  $H$ . Thus we follow that

$$q(m/n) = (qm)/n \in H$$

we can also state by definition of  $H$  that

$$n/(qm) \in H$$

therefore every integer multiple of it is also in  $H$ . Thus

$$jn/lm \in H$$

for every  $j, l \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Thus we follow that

$$(j/l)(n/m) \in H$$

and thus if we set  $j/l = (m/n)/(r/q)$  then we can follow that

$$r/q \in H$$

therefore  $y \in H$ , which is a contradiction. Thus we follow that the only possible cases for  $H$  are  $0$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$ , as desired.

**2.1.14**

Show that  $H = \{x \in D_{2n} : x^2 = 1\}$  is not a subgroup of  $D_{2n}$  (for  $n \geq 3$ ).

We follow that  $1, s \in H$ . If  $n$  is even, then we follow that  $r^{n/2}, sr^{n/2} \in H$ . We also follow that  $sr^j \in H$  for every  $j \in Z^+$  since

$$(sr^j)^2 = 1$$

For which we follow that  $ssr^j = r^j \in H$ , which is a contradiction.

**2.1.15**

Let  $H_1 \leq H_2, \dots$  be an ascending chain of subgroups of  $G$ . Prove that

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} H_i$$

is a subgroup of  $G$ .

Let us denote

$$S = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} H_i$$

Since  $1 \in H_1$  and  $H_1 \subseteq S$ , we follow that  $1 \in S$ , therefore  $S$  is non-empty.

Suppose that  $x, y \in S$ . Then we follow that  $(\exists j, k \in Z^+)(y \in H_j \wedge y \in H_k)$ . From this we follow by group property of  $H_k$  that

$$(\exists j, k \in Z^+)(y \in H_j \wedge y^{-1} \in H_k)$$

Let  $l = \max\{j, k\}$ . Then we follow by definition of  $S$  that  $H_j \subseteq H_l$  and  $H_k \subseteq H_l$ . Thus

$$(\exists l \in Z^+)(y \in H_l \wedge y^{-1} \in H_l)$$

from which by group property of  $H_l$  we follow that

$$(\exists l \in Z^+)(xy^{-1} \in H_l)$$

thus by definition of  $S$  we follow that

$$xy^{-1} \in S$$

Thus we conclude that  $x, y \in S \Rightarrow xy^{-1} \in S$ . Therefore  $S$  satisfies all the properties of a subgroup of  $G$ . Thus  $S$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , as desired.

**2.1.16**

Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and let  $F$  be a field. Prove that the set

$$\{a_{i,j} \in GL_n(F) : (\forall i > j)(a_{ij} = 0)\}$$

is a subgroup of  $GL_n(F)$

Identity is in there and we follow closure under multiplication and inverses by properties in linear algebra book. Same goes for the next exercise as well.

**2.2 Centralizers and Normalizers, Stabilizers and Kernels****2.2.1**

Prove that  $C_G(A) = \{g \in G : (\forall a \in A)(g^{-1}ag = a)\}$ .

Suppose that  $g' \in C_G(A)$ . Since  $C_G(A)$  is a group, we follow that there exists  $g \in C_G(A)$  such that  $g' = g^{-1}$ . Thus  $g^{-1} \in C_G(A)$ . Therefore

$$(\forall a \in A)(g^{-1}a(g^{-1})^{-1} = a) \Leftrightarrow (\forall a \in A)(g^{-1}ag = a)$$

thus  $g^{-1} \in \{g \in G : (\forall a \in A)(g^{-1}ag = a)\}$ . Therefore  $g' \in \{g \in G : (\forall a \in A)(g^{-1}ag = a)\}$ .

Suppose that  $g' \in \{g \in G : (\forall a \in A)(g^{-1}ag = a)\}$ . We follow that

$$(\forall a \in A)(g'^{-1}ag' = a) \Leftrightarrow (\forall a \in A)(ag' = g'a) \Leftrightarrow (\forall a \in A)(a = g'ag'^{-1})$$

thus we follow that  $g' \in C_G(A)$ . Thus we can follow that  $C_G(A) = \{g \in G : (\forall a \in A)(g^{-1}ag = a)\}$  as desired.

**2.2.2**

Prove that  $C_G(Z(G)) = G$  and deduce that  $N_G(Z(G)) = G$ .

Suppose that  $g \in C_G(Z(G))$ . We follow that

$$(\forall A \in \mathcal{P}(G) \setminus \{\emptyset\})(g \in C_G(A) \Rightarrow g \in G)$$

and since  $Z_G \subseteq G \wedge Z(G) \neq \emptyset$  we follow that  $C_G(Z(G)) \subseteq G$ .

Suppose that  $g \in G$ . We follow that

$$(\forall z \in Z(G))(zg = gz)$$

thus

$$(\forall z \in Z(G))(gzg^{-1} = z)$$

thus  $g \in C_G(Z(G))$ . By double inclusion we get that  $C_G(Z(G)) = G$ .

Since  $C_G(A) \leq N_G(A)$ , we follow that  $C_G(Z(G)) \leq N_G(Z(G))$ . And since both  $C_G$  and  $N_G$  are subgroups of  $G$ , we follow that

$$G \leq C_G(Z(G)) \leq N_G(Z(G)) \leq G$$

thus

$$G = C_G(Z(G)) = N_G(Z(G)) = G$$

as desired.

### 2.2.3

*Prove that if  $A$  and  $B$  are subsets of  $G$  with  $A \subseteq B$ , then  $C_G(B) \leq C_G(A)$*

Suppose that  $x \in C_G(B)$ . We follow that

$$(\forall b \in B)(xbx^{-1} = b)$$

Since  $A \subseteq B$ , we follow that

$$(\forall a \in A)(xbx^{-1} = a)$$

thus  $x \in C_G(A)$ . Therefore we conclude that  $C_G(B) \subseteq C_G(A)$ . And since both are groups, we follow that  $C_G(B) \leq C_G(A)$ , as desired.

### 2.2.4

*For each of  $S_3, D_8, Q_8$ , compute the centralizers of each element and find the center of each group. Does Lagrange's Theorem simplify your work?*

Let us firstly state the elements of all of the groups.

$S_3$  consists of  $3! = 6$  permutations in total. Particularly we've got permutations

$$123, 132, 213, 231, 312, 321$$

which produces cycles

$$(), (2, 3), (1, 2), (1, 2, 3), (1, 3, 2), (1, 3)$$

We can follow that  $C_G(1) = G$ , by the virtue of the fact that  $g1g^{-1} = 1$ . Thus we conclude  $C_{S_4}[(1)] = S_4$ .

There's a neat program in progs folder (cycles.py) that computes the following result:

```
C_{S_3}[ [(1,), (2,), (3,)] ] = [(1,), (2,), (3,)],
[(1,), (2, 3)], [(1, 2), (3,)], [(1, 2, 3)], [(1, 3, 2)], [(1, 3), (2,)]
C_{S_3}[ [(1,), (2, 3)] ] = [(1,), (2,), (3,)], [(1,), (2, 3)]
C_{S_3}[ [(1, 2), (3,)] ] = [(1,), (2,), (3,)], [(1, 2), (3,)]
C_{S_3}[ [(1, 2, 3)] ] = [(1,), (2,), (3,)], [(1, 2, 3)], [(1, 3, 2)]
C_{S_3}[ [(1, 3, 2)] ] = [(1,), (2,), (3,)], [(1, 2, 3)], [(1, 3, 2)]
C_{S_3}[ [(1, 3), (2,)] ] = [(1,), (2,), (3,)], [(1, 3), (2,)]
```

which seems to deal with the  $C_{S_3}$ . Given that the intersection of all of those sets is identity, we follow that  $Z(S_3) = \{1\}$

There's a certain result that we can get from here: a centralizer of a subset of a group is an intersection of the centralizers of its elements. We can also follow that  $x \in Z(G) \Leftrightarrow C_G(x) = G$  (which is kind of obvious when you think about it for more than a second, but it's still a neat tool).

For  $D_8$  we've got elements  $1, r, r^2, r^3, s, sr, sr^2, sr^3$ . As in the general case,  $C_{D_8}(1) = D_8$ . The Lagrange's Theorem in this case implies that the number of elements in the subgroup is either 1, 2, 4 or 8, which simplifies checking a bit. For example, if we know that there are 4 elements in the subgroup already, and one element is not in the group, we can conclude that there are only 4 elements in the subgroup.

$$C_{D_8}(r) = \{1, r, r^2, r^3\}$$

$$C_{D_8}(r^2) = D_8$$

$$C_{D_8}(r^3) = \{1, r, r^2, r^3\}$$

$$C_{D_8}(s) = \{1, s, r^2, sr^2\}$$

$$C_{D_8}(sr) = \{1, sr, r^2, sr^3\}$$

$$C_{D_8}(sr^2) = \{1, r^2, s, sr^2\}$$

$$C_{D_8}(sr^3) = \{1, r^2, sr, sr^3\}$$

From this one we can follow that  $Z(D_8) = 1, D_8$

And for  $Q_8$  we've got that cardinalities of possible subgroups are 1, 2, 4, as in the previous case.

$$C_{Q_8}(1) = Q_8$$

$$C_{Q_8}(-1) = Q_8$$

$$C_{Q_8}(i) = \{1, -1, i, -i\}$$

$$C_{Q_8}(-i) = \{1, -1, i, -i\}$$

$$C_{Q_8}(j) = \{1, -1, j, -j\}$$

$$C_{Q_8}(-j) = \{1, -1, j, -j\}$$

$$C_{Q_8}(k) = \{1, -1, k, -k\}$$

$$C_{Q_8}(-k) = \{1, -1, k, -k\}$$

thus  $Z(Q_8) = \{1, -1\}$ .

**2.2.5**

In each of parts (a) to (c) show that for the specified group  $G$  and subgroup  $A$  of  $G$ ,  $C_G(A) = A$  and  $N_G(A) = G$ .

(a)  $G = S_3$  and  $A = \{1, (1, 2, 3), (1, 3, 2)\}$ .

We can follow that

$$C_{S_3}(1) = S_3$$

$$C_{S_3}[(1, 2, 3)] = \{1, (1, 2, 3), (1, 3, 2)\}$$

$$C_{S_3}[(1, 3, 2)] = \{1, (1, 2, 3), (1, 3, 2)\}$$

thus

$$C_{S_3}(A) = \{1, (1, 2, 3), (1, 3, 2)\} = A$$

We know that  $C_{S_3}(A) \leq N_{S_3}(A) \leq G$ . Thus by Lagrange's Theorem we follow that if there exists another element in  $N_{S_3}(A)$ , then  $N_{S_3}(A) = G$ . We follow that  $(2, 3) \circ (1, 2, 3) \circ (2, 3)^{-1} = (1, 3, 2)$ ,  $(2, 3) \circ (1, 2, 3) \circ (2, 3)^{-1} = (1, 2, 3)$ , and  $(2, 3) \circ 1 \circ (2, 3)^{-1} = 1$ . Therefore we conclude that  $(2, 3) \in N_{S_3}(A)$ , and thus  $N_{S_3}(A) = G$ , as desired

(b)  $G = D_8$  and  $A = \{1, s, r^2, sr^2\}$ .

We follow that  $C_{D_8}(A) = \{1, r^2, s, sr^2\}$ , which we can see by taking appropriate intersections. We can follow that

$$r1r^{-1} = 1$$

$$rr^2r^{-1} = r^2$$

$$rsr^{-1} = sr^2$$

$$rsr^2r^{-1} = s$$

thus we conclude that  $N_{D_8}(A) = G$ , as desired.

(c)  $G = D_{10}$  and  $A = \{1, r, r^2, r^3, r^4, r^5\}$

Since each element of  $A$  is in form  $r^i$  for  $i \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we can follow that all of them commute. Thus we follow that  $A \subseteq C_{D_{10}}(A)$ . From the fact that  $sr \neq rs$  and from Lagrange's Theorem we conclude that  $C_{D_{10}}(A) = A$ . We can also follow that  $sr^i s = r^{-i}$ , thus we conclude that  $s \in N_{D_{10}}(A)$ . Therefore once again by Lagrange's theorem we follow that  $N_{D_{10}}(A) = D_{10}$ , as desired.

**2.2.6**

Let  $H$  be a subgroup of the group  $G$ .

(a) Show that  $H \leq N_G(H)$ . Give an example to show that this is not necessarily true if  $H$  is not a subgroup.

Suppose that  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . Let  $h, h' \in H$ . We follow that  $h^{-1} \in H$ , and thus  $h^{-1}h' \in H$ , therefore  $h^{-1}h'h \in H$ . Thus we follow that  $h(h^{-1}h'h)h^{-1} = h'$ . Therefore we follow that for every  $h' \in H$  there exists  $h^{-1}h'h \in H$  such that  $h(h^{-1}h'h)h^{-1} = h'$ .

Therefore we conclude that  $hHh^{-1} = H$ . Thus we follow that  $H \subseteq N_G(H)$ . Since  $H$  is a group and is a subset of  $N_G(H)$  with the same binary operations and whatnot, we follow that  $H \leq N_G(H)$ , as desired.

Second point is followed from the fact that if  $H$  is not a group, then it can't be a subgroup.

(b) Show that  $H \leq C_G(H)$  iff  $H$  is abelian.

Suppose that  $H \leq C_G(H)$ . Then we follow that every element of  $H$  commutes with every element of  $H$ . Thus we follow that  $H$  is abelian. Reverse is trivial as well.

### 2.2.7

Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $n \geq 3$ . Prove the following:

(a)  $Z(D_{2n}) = 1$  if  $n$  is odd.

Suppose that  $n$  is odd and  $n \geq 3$ . Let  $x \in D_{2n}$  be such that  $x \neq 1$ . There are two cases:  $x = r^i$  and  $x = sr^j$  for  $0 < i < n$  and  $0 \leq j < n$ .

If former is true, then we follow that  $sx = sr^j$  and  $xs = r^j s = sr^{-j} = sr^{n-j}$ . Because  $n$  is odd, we follow that if  $j$  is even, then  $n-j$  is odd, thus  $xs \neq sx$ . If  $j$  is odd, then  $n-j$  is even, and the same holds. Thus we follow that  $r^j \notin Z(D_{2n})$ .

If latter is true, then we follow that

$$xr = sr^{j+1}$$

$$rx = rsr^j = sr^{j-1}$$

Suppose that  $sr^{j+1} = sr^{j-1}$ . We follow that  $r^{j+1} = r^{j-1}$ . If  $j = 0$ , then  $n-1 \neq 1$  by the fact that  $n \geq 3$ . If  $j = n-1$ , then the same is true. Every other case is also impossible. Thus we have a contradiction and conclude that  $sr^j \notin Z(D_{2n})$ .

Therefore we follow that  $x \neq 1 \Rightarrow x \notin Z(D_{2n})$ . Since  $1 \in Z(D_{2n})$ , we follow that  $Z(D_{2n}) = 1$ , as desired.

(b)  $Z(D_{2n}) = \{1, r^k\}$  if  $n = 2k$ .

Dihedral groups (in this book at least) are defined on  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \wedge n \geq 3$ . Thus I think that we're justified to state that  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \wedge k \geq 2$ . Although I'm sure that the definition can be generalized a bit, we're going to assume those conditions for this exercise.

Suppose that  $x \notin \{1, r^k\}$ . If  $x = r^i$  for  $1 \leq i < n \wedge i \neq k$ , then  $r^i s = sr^{n-i}$  and  $sr^i \neq sr^{n-i}$  because  $i \neq k$ . If  $x = sr^i$ , then the same logic as in the previous section holds. Therefore we follow that  $x \notin \{1, r^k\} \Rightarrow x \notin Z(D_{2n})$ .

We can follow pretty easily that  $\{1, r^k\} \subseteq Z(D_{2n})$ . Thus we follow the desired result.

### 2.2.8

Let  $G = S_n$ , fix  $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  and let  $G_i = \{\sigma \in G : \sigma(i) = i\}$ . Use group actions to prove that  $G_i$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . Find  $|G_i|$ .



Can't fully figure out what exactly are we supposed to do here. We've already proven through properties of group action, that a stabilizer of an element is a subgroup.

anyways,  $|G_i| = (n - 1)!$  by simple logic.

### 2.2.9

*For any subgroup  $H$  of  $G$  and any nonempty subset  $A$  of  $G$ , define  $N_H(A)$  to be the set  $\{h \in H : hAh^{-1} = A\}$ . Show that  $N_H(A) = N_G(A) \cap H$  and deduce that  $N_H(A)$  is a subgroup of  $H$ .*

Let  $x \in N_G(A) \cap H$ . We follow that