**1.** Let  $\varphi: G \to H$  be a homomorphism of groups. Prove that im  $\varphi$  is a subgroup of H.

*Proof.* First we show that  $\operatorname{im} \varphi$  is closed. To see this, suppose that  $x, y \in \operatorname{im} \varphi$ , so there exist  $a, b \in G$  such that  $\varphi(a) = x$  and  $\varphi(b) = y$ . It follows that  $xy = \varphi(a)\varphi(b) = \varphi(ab)$ , hence  $xy \in \operatorname{im} \varphi$ . Next, recall from Proposition 2.5.3 in the text that  $\varphi(1_G) = 1_H$  and  $\varphi(a^{-1}) = \varphi(a)^{-1}$  for all  $a \in G$ . It follows that  $\operatorname{im} \varphi$  contains  $1_H$  and is closed under inversion.

**2.** Let G be a set with binary operation  $(a, b) \mapsto ab$  and consider the following possible axioms:

- (1)  $\forall a, b \in G, a(bc) = (ab)c.$
- (2)  $\exists e \in G, \forall a \in G, ae = ea = a.$
- (3)  $\forall a \in G, \exists b \in G, ab = ba = e.$
- (3')  $\forall a \in G, \exists b \in G, ab = e.$

**Prove that the axioms (3) and (3') are equivalent.** That is, show that (1), (2), and (3) hold if and only if (1), (2), and (3') hold. (One direction is easy. For the other direction, let  $a \in G$ . Then there exist  $b, c \in G$  such that ab = e and bc = e. Show that a = c.)

*Proof.* Assume that (1) and (2) hold. In this case we wish to show that  $(3) \Leftrightarrow (3')$ . The fact that (3) implies (3') is trivial. So suppose that (3') holds. That is, every element of the set G has a right inverse. We wish to show (3) — that every element actually has a two-sided inverse. To do this, let  $a \in G$ . By (3') there exist  $b, c \in G$  such that ab = e and bc = e. But then applying (1) and (2) gives

$$a = ae = a(bc) = (ab)c = ec = c.$$

It follows that ab = ba = e and hence b is a two-sided inverse for a.

**3.** Let H, K be subgroups of G. Prove that  $H \cap K$  is also a subgroup of G.

*Proof.* To show that  $H \cap K$  is closed, let  $a, b \in H \cap K$ . Since H and K are both closed we have  $a, b \in H \Rightarrow ab \in H$  and  $a, b \in K \Rightarrow ab \in K$ . Thus ab is in H and K. In other words,  $ab \in H \cap K$ . Next, we know that  $1_G \in H$  and  $1_G \in K$ , hence  $1_G \in H \cap K$ . Finally, let  $a \in H \cap K$ . Then  $a \in H \Rightarrow a^{-1} \in H$  and  $a \in K \Rightarrow a^{-1} \in K$ . Hence  $a^{-1} \in H \cap K$ .  $\Box$ 

- 4. (a) Consider a homomorphism φ : Z<sup>+</sup> → G with φ(1) = g ∈ G. Describe im φ and ker φ.
  (b) Describe the set of automorphisms φ : Z<sup>+</sup> → Z<sup>+</sup>.
  - (a) Since  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism, note that

$$\varphi(n) = \varphi(1+1+\dots+1) = \varphi(1)\varphi(1)\cdots\varphi(1) = gg\cdots g = g^n$$

for all positive integers n. Then since  $\varphi$  preserves the identity and inverses, it follows that  $\varphi(n) = g^n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . (In particular,  $\varphi$  is completely determined by the choice of  $\varphi(1)$ .) We conclude that  $\operatorname{im} \varphi$  is the cyclic subgroup  $\langle g \rangle \leq G$  generated by the element  $g \in G$ . Now suppose that  $|\langle g \rangle| = a$ . If  $a < \infty$  then we have  $\varphi(n) = g^n = e$  if and only if n = ak for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ , hence  $\ker \varphi = a\mathbb{Z} = \{ak : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ . If  $a = \infty$  then note that  $g^n = e$  if and only if n = 0, hence  $\ker \varphi = \{0\} = 0\mathbb{Z}$ . (This formula could be uniform if you're willing to define  $\infty\mathbb{Z} = 0\mathbb{Z}$ .)

(b) Now consider a homomorphism  $\varphi : \mathbb{Z}^+ \to \mathbb{Z}^+$  (that is, let  $G = \mathbb{Z}$ ). By part (a) the map  $\varphi$  is completely determined by the choice of  $\varphi(1) = m \in \mathbb{Z}$ . For which m is  $\varphi$  an automorphism (i.e. a bijection)? For  $\varphi$  to be **surjective** we must have  $\operatorname{im} \varphi = \mathbb{Z}$ . Since  $\operatorname{im} \varphi = \langle m \rangle = m\mathbb{Z}$ ,

this will happen if and only if m = 1 or m = -1. In both of these cases m has order  $\infty$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$  so the kernel is ker  $\varphi = \{0\}$ , and we conclude that  $\varphi$  is also **injective**.

Conclusion: There are exactly two automorphisms  $\varphi : \mathbb{Z}^+ \to \mathbb{Z}^+$ ; call them  $\varphi_1(1) := 1$  and  $\varphi_2(1) := -1$ . Thus Aut( $\mathbb{Z}^+$ ) is a group of order 2 with group table:

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \circ & \varphi_1 & \varphi_2 \\ \hline \varphi_1 & \varphi_1 & \varphi_2 \\ \varphi_2 & \varphi_2 & \varphi_1 \end{array}$$

What is the identity element of this group?

5. Given a group G, define its center:

$$Z(G) := \{ g \in G : \forall h \in G, gh = hg \}.$$

Prove that Z(G) is a normal subgroup of G. (We write  $Z(G) \leq G$ .)

*Proof.* There are a few ways to think about this. The most concrete way uses Definition 2.5.10 in the text which says that a subgroup  $N \leq G$  is normal iff for all  $a \in N$  and  $g \in G$  we have  $gag^{-1} \in N$ . So let  $a \in Z(G)$  and  $g \in G$ . We wish to show that  $gag^{-1} \in Z(G)$ . But by definition we have ag = ga. Hence  $gag^{-1} = agg^{-1} = a \in Z(G)$  as desired.

A more abstract proof uses that fact that  $N \leq G$  is normal iff there exists a group homomorphism  $\varphi: G \to G'$  such that  $N = \ker \varphi$ . In this case we can define a homomorphism  $\phi: G \to \operatorname{Aut}(G)$  by sending a group element  $g \in G$  to the conjugation map  $\phi_g: G \to G$  defined by  $\phi_g(h) := ghg^{-1}$  for all  $h \in G$ . (One needs to check that indeed  $\phi$  is a homomorphism.) Then note that  $\ker \phi = Z(G)$ .

**Problem 6 had a problem, so I've deleted it.** I meant to ask this: Prove that the "center" of the set of  $n \times n$  real matrices, defined by  $Z(M_n(\mathbb{R})) = \{A \in M_n(\mathbb{R}) : \forall X \in M_n(\mathbb{R}), AX = XA\}$ , is equal to the set of scalar matrices  $\{cI : c \in \mathbb{R}\}$ . (The analogous statement for **invertible** matrices is also true, but harder to show.)

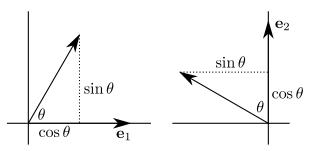
Proof. Let  $S = \{cI : c \in \mathbb{R}\}$  denote the set of scalar matrices. We wish to show that  $S = Z(M_n(\mathbb{R}))$ . First note that  $S \subseteq Z(M_n(\mathbb{R}))$ . Indeed, given  $cI \in S$  we have cIX = cX = XcI for all  $X \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ . To complete the proof we must show that  $Z(GL_n(\mathbb{R})) \subseteq S$ . So suppose  $A \in Z(M_n(\mathbb{R}))$  and let  $a_{ij}$  denote the entry of A in the *i*-th row and *j*-th column. Let  $E_{ij}$  denote the matrix with a 1 in the (i, j) position and zeroes elsewhere. Since  $A \in Z(M_n(\mathbb{R}))$  we have  $AE_{ij} = E_{ij}A$ , which reads as:

$$i \begin{pmatrix} & a_{1i} \\ & a_{2i} \\ & \vdots \\ & a_{ii} \\ & \vdots \\ & a_{ni} \end{pmatrix} = i \begin{pmatrix} & j \\ & & \\ & & \\ a_{j1} & a_{j2} & \cdots & a_{jj} & \cdots & a_{jn} \end{pmatrix}$$

Here *i* and *j* label the *i*-th row and the *j*-th column of each matrix. Blank space indicates that all the other entries are zero. Since the matrices are equal component-by-component we conclude that all of the displayed symbols are zero except for  $a_{ii} = a_{jj}$ . Applying this argument for all  $1 \leq i < j \leq n$  shows that the diagonal entries of A are all equal and the off-diagonal entries are all zero. That is,  $A \in S$ .

- **7.** Consider the matrix  $R_{\theta} := \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$ .
  - (a) Given  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2$  show that  $R_{\theta} \mathbf{x}$  is the rotation of  $\mathbf{x}$  by  $\theta$  degrees counterclockwise. (Hint: It suffices to let  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{e}_1$  and  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{e}_2$ .)
  - (b) If  $A \in SO_2(\mathbb{R})$  prove that  $A = R_{\theta}$  for some  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ .
  - (c) Verify that the map  $\varphi(e^{i\theta}) := R_{\theta}$  is an isomorphism  $U(1) \approx SO_2(\mathbb{R})$ .

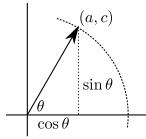
*Proof.* For part (a), Let  $T_{\theta} : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$  denote the map that rotates a vector by  $\theta$  degrees counterclockwise. Then note that  $T_{\theta}(\mathbf{e}_1) = (\cos \theta, \sin \theta)^T$  and  $T_{\theta}(\mathbf{e}_2) = (-\sin \theta, \cos \theta)^T$  as in the following figure:



Finally, since rotation is a **linear** map, we have

$$T_{\theta}\begin{pmatrix}x\\y\end{pmatrix} = T_{\theta}(x\begin{pmatrix}1\\0\end{pmatrix} + y\begin{pmatrix}0\\1\end{pmatrix}) = xT_{\theta}\begin{pmatrix}1\\0\end{pmatrix} + yT_{\theta}\begin{pmatrix}0\\1\end{pmatrix}$$
$$= x\begin{pmatrix}\cos\theta\\\sin\theta\end{pmatrix} + y\begin{pmatrix}-\sin\theta\\\cos\theta\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}\cos\theta & -\sin\theta\\\sin\theta & \cos\theta\end{pmatrix}\begin{pmatrix}x\\y\end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus we have  $T_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = R_{\theta}\mathbf{x}$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , as desired. For part (b) suppose that  $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$  is in SO(2). Note that  $A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}$ , hence the condition  $A^{-1} = A^T$  implies that a = d and b = -c. Thus A is of the form  $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & -c \\ c & a \end{pmatrix}$  with determinant  $a^2 + c^2 = 1$ . This means that  $(a, c) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  is a point on the unit circle. Let  $\theta$  be the angle that the corresponding vector makes with the x-axis, as in the following picture:



We conclude that  $a = \cos \theta$  and  $c = \sin \theta$ , as desired. For part (c), consider the map  $\varphi : U(1) \rightarrow SO(2)$  given by  $\varphi(e^{i\theta}) = R_{\theta}$ . To show that  $\varphi$  is **injective**, suppose that  $\varphi(e^{i\alpha}) = \varphi(e^{i\beta})$ — i.e.  $R_{\alpha} = R_{\beta}$ — for some  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ . The fact that  $R_{\alpha} = R_{\beta}$  means that the two rotations do the same thing. In other words,  $\alpha - \beta = 2\pi k$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . This implies that  $\cos(\alpha) = \cos(\beta)$  and  $\sin(\alpha) = \sin(\beta)$ . By Euler's formula  $(e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$  for all  $\theta \in \mathbb{R})$  we have  $e^{i\alpha} = e^{i\beta}$ . The fact that  $\varphi$  is **surjective** follows directly from part (b). Finally, to see that  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism note that  $R_{\alpha}R_{\beta} = R_{\alpha+\beta}$ . One could show this, for instance, by quoting the angle-sum triginometric formulas. But I think it is better to observe that  $R_{\alpha}R_{\beta}$  is the function

that rotates a vector by  $\beta$ , then rotates by  $\alpha$ , which is the same thing as rotating by  $\alpha + \beta$ . We conclude that

$$\varphi(e^{i\alpha}e^{i\beta}) = \varphi(e^{i(\alpha+\beta)}) = R_{\alpha+\beta} = R_{\alpha}R_{\beta} = \varphi(e^{i\alpha})\varphi(e^{i\beta}),$$

as desired.

[Problem 7(b) has an analogue in 3-dimensions: If  $A \in SO(3)$  then A is a rotation by some angle about an axis in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . (See "Euler's Theorem" 5.1.25 in the text.) Since SO(3) is a group, this theorem has a remarkable consequence — which is **not** obvious, either algebraically or geometrically: The composition of rotations about any two axes in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is a rotation about some other axis in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .]

8. Given  $a, b \in G$  we say that a and b are conjugate if there exists  $g \in G$  such that  $a = gbg^{-1}$ . **Prove** that conjugacy is an equivalence relation on G. (The equivalence classes are called conjugacy classes.) **Prove**: If  $a, b \in G$  are conjugate then they have the same order.

*Proof.* To show transitivity, suppose that a is conjugate to b and b is conjugate to c. That is, there exist  $g, h \in G$  such that  $a = gbg^{-1}$  and  $b = hch^{-1}$ . Then

$$a = gbg^{-1} = ghch^{-1}g^{-1} = (gh)c(gh)^{-1},$$

hence a is conjugate to c. To show symmetry, suppose a is conjugate to b. That is, there exists  $g \in G$  such that  $a = gbg^{-1}$ . But then  $b = (g^{-1})a(g^{-1})^{-1}$ , hence b is conjugate to a. Finally, note that  $a = eae^{-1}$  for all  $a \in G$ , hence a is conjugate to itself. We conclude that conjugacy is an equivalence relation.

Now consider  $a, b \in G$  with  $a = gbg^{-1}$  for some  $g \in G$ . We claim that a and b have the same order. Indeed, consider the conjugation map  $\phi_g : G \to G$  defined by  $\phi_g(h) = ghg^{-1}$  for all  $h \in G$ . It is easy to see that  $\phi_g$  restricts to a bijection  $\phi_g : \langle b \rangle \to \langle a \rangle$  of cyclic subgroups. (You proved a special case on the first homework.)