Math 322: Introduction to Group Theory
Lecture Notes

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These are rough notes for the Fall 2017 course. Solutions to problem sets were posted on an internal website.

Contents

Introduction

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0.1. Administrivia

- Problem sets will be posted on the course website.
  - To the extent I have time, solutions may be posted on Connect.
- Textbooks
  - Rotman
  - Dummit and Foote
  - Algebra bookshttp://www.espn.com/nba/
- There will be a midterm and a final. For more details see syllabus.
  - Policies, grade breakdown also there.

0.2. Motivation

> Coxeter came to Cambridge and he gave a lecture, then he had this problem ... I left the lecture room thinking. As I was walking through Cambridge, suddenly the idea hit me, but it hit me while I was in the middle of the road. When the idea hit me I stopped and a large truck ran into me ... So I pretended that Coxeter had calculated the difficulty of this problem so precisely that he knew that I would get the solution just in the middle of the road ... One consequence of it is that in a group if $a^2 = b^3 = c^5 = (abc)^{-1}$, then $c^{610} = 1$.
>
> *J.H. Conway, Math. Intelligencer v. 23 no. 2 (2001)*

- Groups = Symmetry (see slides)
  - In geometry
  - In physics
  - Combinatorially
  - In mathematics
- Course also (mainly?) about formal mathematics.

0.3. Course plan (subject to revision)

- Examples / Calculation: $\mathbb{Z}$,S_n, $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$.
- Basics
  - Groups and homomorphisms.
  - Subgroups; Cosets and Lagrange's Theorem.
  - Normal subgroups and quotients.
  - Isomorphism Theorems
  - Direct and semidirect products
- Group Actions
  - Conjugation; class formula
  - Symmetric groups; Simplicity of A_n
  - Group actions
- Sylow Theorems
  - p-Groups
  - Sylow Theorems
  - Groups of small order
- Finitely Generated abelian groups.
- Free groups; Generators and relations.
- Other topics if time permits.

CHAPTER 1

Some explicit groups

1.1. $\mathbb{Z}$ (Lectures 1-3)

FACT 1 (Properties of the Integers). *Integers can be added, multiplied, and compared.*

0. The usual laws or arithmetic hold.
(1) $<$ is a linear order, and it respects addition and multiplication by positive numbers.
(2) (Well-ordering) If $A \subset \mathbb{Z}$ is bounded below, it contains a least element. 1 is the least positive integer.

EXERCISE 2. Every positive integer is of the form $1+1+\cdots+1$ (hint: consider the least positive integer not of this form and subtract 1).

We first examine the additive structure, and then the multiplicative structure.

LEMMA 3. *Well-ordering is equivalent to the principle of induction (if $A \subset \mathbb{Z}$ has $0 \in A$ and $(n \in A \Rightarrow (n+1) \in A)$ then $\mathbb{N} \subset A$.*

PROOF ($\Rightarrow$). Let $A \subset \mathbb{Z}$ satisfy $0 \in A$ and $(n \in A \Rightarrow (n+1) \in A)$. Let $B = \mathbb{N} \setminus A$. Suppose B is non-empty; then by the well-ordering principle there is $c = \min B$. □

1.1.1. The group $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$. We note the following properties of addition: for all $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$

- Associativity: $(x+y)+z = x+(y+z)$
- Zero: $0+x = x+0 = x$
- Inverse: there is $(-x) \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x+(-x) = (-x)+x = 0$.
- Commutativity: $x+y = y+x$.

PROBLEM 4. Which subsets of $\mathbb{Z}$ are closed under addition and inverses? (analogues of "subspaces" of a vector space)

EXAMPLE 5. $\{0\}$, all even integers. What else?

LEMMA 6 (Division with remainder). *Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a > 0$. Then there are unique q, r with $0 \leq r < a$ such that*

$$b = qa + r\,.$$

PROOF. (Existence) Given b, a let A be the set of all positive integers c such that $c = b - qa$ for some $q \in \mathbb{Z}$. This is non-empty (for example, $b - (-(|b|+1))a \geq a + |b|\,(a-1) \geq 0$), and hence has a least element r, say $r = b - qa$. If $r \geq a$ then $0 \leq r - a < r$ and $r - a = b - (q+1)a$, a contradiction.

(Uniqueness) Suppose that there are two solutions so that

$$b = qa + r = q'a + r'\,.$$

We then have

$$r - r' = a\left(q' - q\right)\,.$$

If $r = r'$ then since $a \neq 0$ we must have $q = q'$. Otherwise wlog $r > r'$ and then $q' > q$ so $q' - q \geq 1$ and $r - r' \geq a$, which is impossible since $r - r' \leq r \leq a - 1$. □

PROPOSITION 7. *Let $H \subset \mathbb{Z}$ be closed under addition and inverses. Then either $H = \{0\}$ or there is $a \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ such that $H = \{xa \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. In that case a is the least positive member of H.*

PROOF. Suppose H contains a non-zero element. Since it is closed under inverses, it contains a positive member. Let a be the least positive member, and let $b \in H$. Then there are q, r such that $b = qa + r$. Then $r = b - qa \in H$ (repeatedly add a or $(-a)$ to b). But $r < a$, so we must have $r = 0$ and $b = qa$. □

OBSERVATION 8. *To check if b was divisible by a we divide anyway and examine the remainder.*

Review of Lecture 1: two key techniques.

(1) To prove something by induction, consider the "least counterexample", use the truth of the proposition below that to get a contrdiction.
(2) To check if $a|b$ divide b by a and examine the remainder.

1.1.2. Multiplicative structure (Lecture 2).

DEFINITION 9. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Say "*a divides b*" and write $a|b$ if there is c such that $b = ac$. Write $a \nmid b$ otherwise.

EXAMPLE 10. ± 1 divide every integer. Only ± 1 divide ± 1. Every integer divides 0, but only 0 divides 0. $2|14$ but $3 \nmid 14$. $|a|$ divides a.

THEOREM 11 (Bezout). *Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ not be both zero, and let d be the greatest common divisor of a, b (that is, the greatest integer that divides both of them). Then there are $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $d = ax + by$, and every common divisor of a, b divides d.*

PROOF. Let $H = \{ax + by \mid x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. Then H is closed under addition and inverses and contains a, b hence is not $\{0\}$. By Proposition 7 there is $d \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ such that $H = \mathbb{Z}d$. Since $a, b \in H$ it follows that $d|a$, $d|b$ so d is a common divisor. Conversely, let x, y be such that $d = ax + by$ and let e be another common divisor. then $e|a, e|b$ so $e|ax, e|by$ so $e|ax + by = d$. In particular, $e \leq d$ so d is the *greatest* common divisor. □

ALGORITHM 12 (Euclid). *Given a, b set a_0, a_1 be $|a|, |b|$ in decreasing order. Then $a_0, a_1 \in H$. Given $a_{n-1} \geq a_n > 0$ divide a_{n-1} by a_n, getting:*

$$a_{n-1} = q_n a_n + r_n .$$

Then $r_n = a_{n-1} - q_n a_n \in H$ (closed under addition!) and we can set set $a_{n+1} = r_n < a_n$. The sequence a_n is strictly decreasing, so eventually we get $a_{n+1} = 0$.

CLAIM 13. When $a_{n+1} = 0$ we have $a_n = \gcd(a, b)$.

PROOF. Let $e = a_n$. Since $a_n \in H$ we have $\gcd(a, b)|e$. We have $e|a_n$ (equal) and $e|a_{n-1}$ (remainder was zero!). Since $a_{n-2} = q_{n-1} a_{n-1} + a_n$ we see $e|a_{n-2}$. Continuing backwards we see that $e|a_0, a_1$ so $e|a, b$. It follows that e is a common divisor $e|\gcd(a, b)$ and we conclude they are equal. □

REMARK 14. It is also not hard to show (exercise!) that $\gcd(a_{n-1}, a_n) = \gcd(a_n, a_{n+1})$. It follows by induction that this is $\gcd(a, b)$, and we get a different proof that the algorithm works, and hence of Bezout's Theorem.

EXAMPLE 15. $(69,51) = (51,18) = (18,15) = (15,3) = (3,0) = (3)$. In fact, we also find $18 = 69-51$, $15 = 51-2\cdot 18 = 3\cdot 51 - 2\cdot 69$, $3 = 18-15 = 3\cdot 69 - 4\cdot 51$.

1.1.3. Modular arithmetic and $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$.

- Motivation: (1) New groups (2) quotient construction.

DEFINITION 16. Let $a,b,n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $n \geq 1$. Say *a is congruent to b modulu n*, and wite $a \equiv b\ (n)$ if $n|b-a$.

LEMMA 17. *This is an equivalence relation.*

- Aside: Equivalence relations
  - Notion of equivalence relation.
  - Equivalence classes, show that they partition the set,

LEMMA 18. *Suppose $a \equiv a'$, $b \equiv b'$. Then $a+b \equiv a'+b'$, $ab \equiv a'b'$.*

PROOF. $(a'+b')-(a+b) = (a'-a)+(b'-b)$; $a'b'-ab = (a'-a)b' + a(b'-b)$. □

- Aside: quotient by equivalence relations
  - Set of equivalence classes

DEFINITION 19. Let $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ denote the quotient of $\mathbb{Z}$ by the equivalence relation $\equiv\ (n)$. Define on it arithmetic operations by

$$[a]_n \pm [b]_n \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} [a+b]_n\ ,$$
$$[a]_n \cdot [b_n] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} [ab]_n\ .$$

OBSERVATION 20. *Then laws of arithmetic from $\mathbb{Z}$ still hold. Proof: they work for the representatives.*

- Warning: actually needed to check that the operations were well-defined. That's the Lemma.
- Get additive group $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z},+)$.
- Note the "quotient" homomorphism $(\mathbb{Z},+) \to (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z},+)$.

1.1.4. The multiplicative group (Lecture 3).

Let $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times = \{a \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \mid (a,n) = 1\}$.

LEMMA 21. *$(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ is closed under multiplication and inverses.*

PROOF. Suppose $ax+ny = 1$, $bz+nw = 1$. multiplying we find

$$(ab)(xz) + n(axw + ybz + nyw) = 1$$

so $(ab,n) = 1$. For inverses see PS1. □

REMARK 22. Why exclude the ones not relatively prime? These can't have *inverse*s.

DEFINITION 23. This is called the *multiplicative group* mod n.

- Addition tables.
- Multiplication tables.
- Compare $(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z},+)$, $(\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z})^\times$, $(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})^\times$.
- Compare $(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z},+)$, $(\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z})^\times$ but $(\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z})^\times$.

REMARK 24. In general, $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times \simeq (\mathbb{Z}/(p-1)\mathbb{Z},+)$ – but the isomorphism is *computationally hard* (relevant hardness of discrete log hence cryptography).

DEFINITION 25. *Euler's totient function* is the function $\phi(n) = \#(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$.

LEMMA 26. $\sum_{d|n}\phi(n) = n$.

PROOF. For each $d|n$ let $A_d = \{0 \le a < n \mid \gcd(a,n) = d\}$. Then $\left\{\frac{a}{d} \mid a \in A_d\right\} = \left\{0 \le b < \frac{n}{d} \mid \gcd(b, \frac{n}{d}) = 1\right\}$ In particular, $\#A_d = \phi\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)$. □

1.1.5. Primes and unique factorization.

DEFINITION 27. Call *p prime* if it has no divisors except 1 and itself.

Note that p is prime iff $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times = \left\{\bar{1}, \cdots, \overline{p-1}\right\}$.

COROLLARY 28. *$p|ab$ iff $p|a$ or $p|b$.*

PROOF. Suppose $p \nmid a$ and $p \nmid b$. Then $[a]_p, [b]_p$ are relatively prime to p hence invertible, say with inverses a', b'. Then $(ab)(a'b') \equiv (aa')(bb') \equiv 1 \cdot 1 \equiv 1\,(p)$ so ab is invertible mod p hence not divisible by p. □

THEOREM 29 (Unique factorization). *Every non-zero integer can be uniquely written in the form $\varepsilon \prod_{p \text{ prime}} p^{e_p}$ where $\varepsilon \in \{\pm 1\}$ and almost all $e_p = 0$.*

PROOF. Supplement to PS2. □

1.1.6. The Chinese Remainder Theorem. We start with our second example of a non-trivial homomorphism.

Let $n_1|N$. Then the map $[a]_N \mapsto [a]_{n_1}$ respects modular addition and multiplication (pf: take representatives in $\mathbb{Z}$). Now suppose that $n_1, n_2|n$ and consider the map

$$[a]_N \mapsto \left([a]_{n_1}, [a]_{n_2}\right).$$

This also respects addition and multiplication (was OK in every coordinate).

DEFINITION 30. Call *n, m relatively prime* if $\gcd(n,m) = 1$.

Next comes our first non-trivial isomorphism.

THEOREM 31 (Chinese Remainder Theorem). *Let $N = n_1 n_2$ with n_1, n_2 relatively prime. Then the map*

$$f\colon \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z} \to (\mathbb{Z}/n_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/n_2\mathbb{Z})$$

constructed above is a bijection which respect addition and multiplication (that is, an isomorphism of the respective algebraic structures).

PROOF. For surjectivity, let x, y be such that

$$n_1 x + n_2 y = 1.$$

Let $b_1 = n_2 y$ and let $b_2 = n_1 x$. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} f([b_1]_N) &= ([1]_{n_1}, [0]_{n_2}) \\ f([b_2]_N) &= ([0]_{n_1}, [1]_{n_2}). \end{aligned}$$

It follows that $\{b_1, b_2\}$ is a "basis" for this product structure: for any a_1, a_2 mod n_1, n_2 respectively we have

$$\begin{aligned} f([a_1b_1 + a_2b_2]_N) &= ([a_1]_{n_1} \cdot [1]_{n_1}, [a_1]_{n_2} \cdot [0]_{n_2}) + ([a_2]_{n_1} \cdot [0]_{n_1}, [a_2]_{n_2} \cdot [1]_{n_2}) \\ &= ([a_1]_{n_1}, [0]_{n_2}) + ([0]_{n_1}, [a_2]_{n_2}) = ([a_1]_{n_1}, [a_2]_{n_2}) . \end{aligned}$$

Injectivity now following from the pigeon-hole principle (supplement to PS2). □

REMARK 32. Meditate on this. Probably first example of a non-obvious isomorphism, and a non-obvious "basis".

1.2. S_n (Lecture 4)

1.2.1. Permutations: concerete and abstract.

DEFINITION 33. Let X be a set. A *permutation* on X is a bijection $\sigma\colon X \to X$ (a function which is 1 : 1 and onto). The set of all permutations will be denoted S_X and called the *symmetric group*.

Recall that the *composition* of functions $f\colon Y \to Z$ and $g\colon X \to Y$ is the function $f \circ g\colon X \to Z$ given by $(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x))$.

LEMMA 34. *Composition of functions is associative. The identity function* $\mathrm{id}_X : X \to X$ *belongs to the symmetric group and is an identity for composition.*

EXAMPLE 35. $\begin{pmatrix}1\\1\end{pmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix}1&2\\2&1\end{pmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix}1&2&3&4\\4&2&1&3\end{pmatrix}$. The identity map. Non-example $\begin{pmatrix}1&2\\1&1\end{pmatrix}$.

LEMMA 36. *Let $\sigma\colon X \to X$ be a function.*

(1) $\sigma\colon X \to X$ is a bijection iff there is a "compositional inverse" $\bar{\sigma}\colon X \to X$ such that $\sigma \circ \bar{\sigma} = \bar{\sigma} \circ \sigma = \mathrm{id}$.
(2) S_X is closed under composition and compositional inverse.
(3) Suppose $\sigma \in S_X$ and that $\sigma\tau = \mathrm{id}$ or that $\tau\sigma = \mathrm{id}$. Then $\tau = \bar{\sigma}$. In particular, the compositional inverse is unique *and will be denoted σ^{-1}.*
(4) $(\sigma\tau)^{-1} = \tau^{-1}\sigma^{-1}$.

PROOF. (2) Suppose $\sigma, \tau \in S_X$ and let $\bar{\sigma}, \bar{\tau}$ be as in (1). Then σ satisfies $\sigma \circ \bar{\sigma} = \bar{\sigma} \circ \sigma = \mathrm{id}$ so $\bar{\sigma} \in S_X$. Also, $(\bar{\tau}\bar{\sigma})(\sigma\tau) = (\bar{\tau}(\bar{\sigma}\sigma))\tau = (\bar{\tau}\,\mathrm{id})\,\tau = \mathrm{id}$ and similarly in the other order, so $\sigma\tau \in S_X$.
(3) Suppose $\sigma\tau = \mathrm{id}$. Compose with $\bar{\sigma}$ on the left. Then $\bar{\sigma} = \bar{\sigma}(\sigma\tau) = (\bar{\sigma}\sigma)\tau = \mathrm{id}\,\tau = \tau$. □

REMARK 37. Note that S_X is not commutative! $\begin{pmatrix}1&2&3\\2&3&1\end{pmatrix}\begin{pmatrix}1&2&3\\2&1&3\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}1&2&3\\3&2&1\end{pmatrix}$ but $\begin{pmatrix}1&2&3\\2&1&3\end{pmatrix}\begin{pmatrix}1&2&3\\2&3&1\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}1&2&3\\1&3&2\end{pmatrix}$.

Also, note that $\begin{pmatrix}1&2&3\\2&1&3\end{pmatrix}\begin{pmatrix}1&2&3\\2&1&3\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}1&2&3\\1&2&3\end{pmatrix}$ – can have $\sigma^{-1} = \sigma$ ("involution").

LEMMA 38. $\#S_n = n!$.

PROOF. n ways to choose $\sigma(1)$, $n-1$ ways to choose $\sigma(2)$ and so on. □

1.2.2. Cycle structure.

DEFINITION 39. For $r \geq 2$ call $\sigma \in S_X$ an *r-cycle* if there are distinct $i_1, \ldots, i_r \in X$ such that $\sigma(i_j) = i_{j+1}$ for $1 \leq j \leq r-1$, suich that $\sigma(i_r) = i_1$, and that $\sigma(i) = i$ if $i \neq i_j$ for all j.

EXAMPLE 40. $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

DEFINITION 41. Let $\sigma \in S_X$. Set $\operatorname{supp}(\sigma) = \{i \in X \mid \sigma(i) \neq i\}$.

LEMMA 42. *σ, σ^{-1} have the same support. Suppose σ, τ have disjoint supports. Then $\sigma\tau = \tau\sigma$.*

PROOF. $\sigma(i) = i$ iff $\sigma^{-1}(i) = i$. If $i \in \operatorname{supp}(\sigma)$ then $j = \sigma(i) \in \operatorname{supp}(\sigma)$ (else $i = \sigma^{-1}(j) = j$ a contradiction). Thus $\sigma(i) \in \operatorname{Fix}(\tau)$ so $\tau\sigma(i) = \sigma(i)$. Also, $i \in \operatorname{Fix}(\tau)$ so $\sigma\tau(i) = \sigma(i)$). Similarly if $i \in \operatorname{supp}(\tau)$. If i is fixed by both σ, τ there's nothing to prove. □

THEOREM 43 (Cycle decomposition). *Every permutation on a finite set is a product of disjoint cycles. Furthermore, the representation is essentially unique: if we add a "1-cycle"(i) for each fixed point, the factorization is unique up to order of the cycles.*

PROOF. Let σ be a counterexample with mininal support. Then $\sigma \neq \mathrm{id}$, so it moves some i_1. Set $i_2 = \sigma(i_1)$, $i_3 = \sigma(i_3)$ and so on. They are all distinct (else not injective) and since X is finite eventually we return, which must be to i_1 (again by injectivity). Let κ be the resulting cycle. Then $\kappa^{-1}\sigma$ agrees with σ off $\{i_j\}$ and fixes each i_j. Factor this and multiply by κ.
For uniqueness note that the cycles can be intrinsically defined. □

EXAMPLE 44. $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 6 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 5 & 7 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = (1674)(23)(5)$.

1.2.3. Odd and even permutations; the sign. (Taken from Rotman page 8) We now suppose $X = [n]$ is finite.

LEMMA 45. *Every permutation is a product of transpositions.*

PROOF. By induction $(i_1 \cdots i_r) = (i_1 i_2) \cdots (i_{r-1} i_r)$, that is every cycle i □

DEFINITION 46. Let A_n (the "alternating" group) be the set of permutations that can be written as a product of an even number of transpositions.

REMARK 47. A_n is closed under multiplication and inverses, so it is a subgroup of S_n.

LEMMA 48. *Let $1 \leq k \leq n$. Then*

$$(a_1 a_k)(a_1 \ldots a_n) = (a_1 \ldots a_{k-1})(a_k \ldots a_n)$$
$$(a_1 a_k)(a_1 \ldots a_{k-1})(a_k \ldots a_n) = (a_1 \ldots a_n)$$

PROOF. First by direct evaluation, second follows from first on left multiplication by the transposition. □

Discussion: cycle gets cut in two, or two cycles glued together. What is not a_1? cyclicity of cycles.

EXAMPLE 49. $(17)(1674)(23)(5) = (16)(74)(23)(5)$ while $(12)(1674)(23)(5) = (167423)(5)$.

DEFINITION 50. Let $\sigma = \prod_{j=1}^{t} \beta_j$ be the cycle factorization of $\sigma \in S_n$, *including one cycle for each fixed point*. Then $\operatorname{sgn}(\alpha) = (-1)^{n-t}$ is called the *sign* of σ.

LEMMA 51. *Let τ be a transposition. Then* $\operatorname{sgn}(\tau\sigma) = -\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma)$.

PROOF. Suppose $\tau = (a_1 a_k)$. Either both are in the same cycle or in distinct cycles – in either case the number of cycles changes by exactly 1. □

THEOREM 52. *For all $\tau, \sigma \in S_n$ we have* $\operatorname{sgn}(\tau\sigma) = \operatorname{sgn}(\tau)\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma)$.

PROOF. Let $H = \{\tau \in S_n \mid \forall \sigma : \operatorname{sgn}(\tau\sigma) = \operatorname{sgn}(\tau)\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma)\}$. Then H contains all transpositions. Also, H is closed under multiplication: if $\tau, \tau' \in H$ and $\sigma \in S_n$ then

$$\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{sgn}\left((\tau\tau')\sigma\right) &\overset{\text{(assoc)}}{=} \operatorname{sgn}\left(\tau(\tau'\sigma)\right) \\
&\overset{\tau\in H}{=} \operatorname{sgn}(\tau)\operatorname{sgn}\left(\tau'\sigma\right) \\
&\overset{\tau'\in H}{=} \operatorname{sgn}(\tau)\operatorname{sgn}(\tau')\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) \\
&\overset{\tau\in H}{=} \operatorname{sgn}\left(\tau\tau'\right)\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma).
\end{aligned}$$

By Lemma 45 we see that $H = S_n$ and the claim follows. □

COROLLARY 53. *If $\sigma = \prod_{i=1}^{r} \tau_i$ with each τ_i are transposition then* $\operatorname{sgn}(\tau) = (-1)^r$, *and in particular the parity of r depends on σ but not on the representation.*

COROLLARY 54. *For $n \geq 2$, $\#A_n = \frac{1}{2}\#S_n$.*

PROOF. Let τ be any fixed transposition. Then the map $\sigma \mapsto \tau\sigma$ exchanges the subsets A_n, $S_n - A_n$ of S_n and shows they have the same size. □

EXERCISE 55. A_n is generated by the cycles of length 3.

1.3. $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ (optional)

Let $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R}) = \{g \in M_n(\mathbb{R}) \mid \det(g) \neq 0\}$. It is well-known that matrix multiplication is associative and I_n is an identity (best proof of associativity: matrix multiplication corresponds to composition of linear maps and composition of functions is associative).

LEMMA 56. *Every $g \in \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ has an inverse.*

SUMMARY 57. $(\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R}), \cdot)$ is a group.

Nex, recall that the map $\det\colon \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R}) \to \mathbb{R}^\times$ respects multiplication: $\det(gh) = (\det g)(\det h)$. This is one of our first examples of a *group homomorphism.*

EXERCISE 58. (Some subgroups)

(1) Show that $\{g \in \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R}) \mid g(\mathbb{R}\underline{e}_i) = (\mathbb{R}\underline{e}_i)\}$ is closed under multiplication and taking inverses.
(2) Show that if $\tau i = j$ then $\tau\,\mathrm{Stab}(i)\,\tau^{-1} = \mathrm{Stab}(j)$
(3) Show that intersecting some parabolics gives block-diagonal parabolic.

1.4. The dihedral group

Let P_n be the regular polygon with n sides. Let $D_{2n} = \mathrm{Aut}(P_n)$ be the set of maps of the plan that map P_n to itself.

- Label vertices $0, 1, \cdots, n-1$ (in fact, label them using $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$).
- Then have a map $c \in D_{2n}$ ("cycle"), with $c([i]) = [i+1]$. Note that $c^j([i]) = [i+j]$.
- And a map $r \in D_{2n}$ ("reflection" by the vertical axis) with $r([i] = -[i])$. Note that $r^2 = \mathrm{id}$ and that $rcr = c^{-1}$.

LEMMA 59. *Suppose $g \in D_{2n}$ fixes $[0]$. Then g is either* id *or r. Any $g \in D_{2n}$ can be written uniquely in the form $c^j r^\varepsilon$ for $j \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ and $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$.*

PROOF. For the first claim if we fix $[0]$ then we either fix $[1]$, at which point we fix everything by induction or we map $[1]$ to $[-1]$ at which point we reverse signs by induction.

For the second, suppose $g(0) = j$. Then $c^{-j}g$ fixes zero, so either $c^{-j}g = \mathrm{id}$ or $c^{-j}g = r$. For uniqueness, suppose $c^j r^\varepsilon = c^k r^\delta$. Then $c^{j-k} = r^{\delta-\varepsilon}$ so c^{j-k} fixes 0 so $j \equiv k\,(n)$. This means that also $r^\varepsilon = r^\delta$ so $\varepsilon = \delta$. □

COROLLARY 60. $\#D_{2n} = 2n$.

LEMMA 61. *$c^j r^\varepsilon c^k r^\delta = c^{j+\sigma k} r^{\varepsilon+\delta}$ where $\sigma = +$ if $\varepsilon = 0$ and $\sigma = -$ if $\varepsilon = 1$.*

PROOF. if $\varepsilon = 0$ clear. If $\varepsilon = 1$ we have

$$c^j r c^k r r r^\delta = c^j (rcr)^k r^{1+\delta} = c^{j-k} r^{1+\delta}.$$

□

REMARK 62. We saw that D_{2n} is *generated* by r, c.

CHAPTER 2

Groups and homomorphisms

2.1. Groups, subgroups, homomorphisms (Lecture 6)

2.1.1. Groups.

DEFINITION 63 (Group). A *group* is a pair $(G,\cdot)$ where G is a set and $\cdot\colon G\times G\to G$ is a binary operation satisfying:

(1) *Associativity*: $\forall x,y,z\in G:(xy)z=x(yz)$.
(2) *Neutral element*: $\exists e\in G\forall x\in G:ex=x$.
(3) *Left inverse*: $\forall x\in G\exists\bar{x}\in G:\bar{x}x=e$.

If, in addition, we have $\forall x,y\in G:xy=yx$ we call the group *commutative* or *abelian*.

Fix a group G.

LEMMA 64 (Unit and inverse). *(1) $\bar{x}$ is a two-sided inverse: $x\bar{x}=e$ as well.*
(2) e is a two-sided identity: $\forall x:xe=x$.
(3) The identity and inverse are unique.
(4) $\bar{\bar{x}}=x$.

PROOF. (1) For any $x\in G$ we have $\bar{x}=e\bar{x}=(\bar{x}x)\bar{x}=\bar{x}(x\bar{x})$. Multiplying on the left by $\bar{\bar{x}}$ we see that

$$e=\bar{\bar{x}}\bar{x}=\bar{\bar{x}}(\bar{x}(x\bar{x}))=(\bar{\bar{x}}\bar{x})(x\bar{x})=e(x\bar{x})=x\bar{x}.$$

(2) For any $x\in G$ we have $xe=x(\bar{x}x)=(x\bar{x})x=ex=x$.
(3) Let e' be another left identity. Then $e=e'e=e'$. Let $\bar{x}'$ be another left inverse. Then

$$\bar{x}'x=e.$$

Multiplying on the right by $\bar{x}$ we get

$$\bar{x}'=\bar{x}.$$

(4) We have $\bar{\bar{x}}\bar{x}=e$. Now multiply on the right by x. □

NOTATION 65. We write x^{-1} for the unique inverse to x. Then $\left(x^{-1}\right)^{-1}=x$.

REMARK 66. Because of this Lemma, quite often the axioms call for a two-sided identity and a two-sided inverse.

COROLLARY 67 (Cancellation laws). *Suppose $xy=xz$ or $yx=zx$ holds. Then $x=y$.*

PROOF. Multiply by x^{-1} on the appropriate side. □

COROLLARY 68. *e is the unique element of G satisfying $xx=x$.*

PROOF. Multiply by x^{-1}. □

EXAMPLE 69 (Examples of groups). (0) The trivial group.

(1) $\mathbb{Z}$, S_n, $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$.
(2) $\mathbb{R}^+$, additive group of vector space.
(3) $\mathbb{Q}^\times$, $\mathbb{R}^\times$, $\mathbb{C}^\times$.
(4) $C_n \simeq (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z},+)$, $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$.
(5) Symmetry groups.
    (a) Graph automorphisms.
    (b) Orthogonal groups.

EXAMPLE 70 (Non-groups). (1) $(\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0},+)$.
(2) $(\mathbb{Z},\times)$, $(M_n(\mathbb{R}),+)$.
(3) $(\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1},\mathrm{gcd})$. $(\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1},\mathrm{lcm})$.

2.1.2. Homomorphisms.

PROBLEM 71. Are $(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z},+)$ and $(\{\pm 1\},\times)$ the same group? Are $\mathbb{R}^+$and $\mathbb{R}^\times_{>0}$ the same group?

DEFINITION 72. Let $(G,\cdot),(H,*)$ be a groups. A *(group) homomorphism* from G to H is function $f\colon G \to H$ such that $f(x\cdot y) = f(x) * f(y)$ for all $x,y \in G$. Write $\mathrm{Hom}(G,H)$ for the set of homomorphisms.

EXAMPLE 73. Trivial homomorphism, $\mathrm{sgn}\colon S_n \to \{\pm 1\}$, $\det\colon \mathrm{GL}_n \to \mathrm{GL}_1$, the quotient map $\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$.

LEMMA 74. *Let $f\colon G \to H$ be a homomorphism. Then*
(1) $f(e_G) = e_H$.
(2) $f(g^{-1}) = (f(g))^{-1}$.

PROOF. (1) e_G, e_H are the unique solutions to $xx = x$ in their respective groups.
(2) We have $f(g)f(g^{-1}) = f\left(gg^{-1}\right) = f(e_G) = e_H$ so $f(g), f(g^{-1})$ are inverses. □

DEFINITION 75. $f \in \mathrm{Hom}\,(G,H)$ is called an *isomorphism* if it is a bijection.

PROPOSITION 76. *f is an isomorphism iff there exists $f^{-1} \in \mathrm{Hom}(H,G)$ such that $f \circ f^{-1} = \mathrm{id}_H$ and $f^{-1} \circ f = \mathrm{id}_G$.*

PROOF. PS4 □

LEMMA 77. *Let $g\colon G \to H$, $f\colon H \to K$ be group homomorphisms. Then $f \circ g\colon G \to K$ is a group homomorphism.*

PROOF. PS4. □

EXAMPLE 78. $(\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z})^\times$ and $(\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z})^\times$ are non-isomorphic groups of order 4.

PROOF. On the right we have $g \cdot g = 1$ for all g. On the left this fails. □

2.1.3. Subgroups.

LEMMA 79. *Let $(G,\cdot)$be a group, and let $H \subset G$ be non-empty and closed under $\cdot$ and under inverses, or under $(x,y) \mapsto xy^{-1}$. Then $e \in H$ and $(H, \cdot\restriction_{H\times H})$ is a group.*

PROOF. Let $x \in H$ be any element. under either hypothesis we have $e = xx^{-1} \in H$. In the second case we now have for any $y \in H$ that $y^{-1} = ey^{-1} \in H$ and hence that for any $x, y \in H$ that $xy = x(y^{-1})^{-1} \in H$. Thus in any case $\cdot \restriction_{H \times H}$ is H-valued, and satisfies the existential axioms. The associative law is universal. □

DEFINITION 80. Such H is called a *subgroup* of G.

Group homomorphisms have kernels and images, just like linear maps.

DEFINITION 81 (Kernel and image). Let $f \in \mathrm{Hom}(G,H)$. Its *kernel* is the set $\mathrm{Ker}(f) = \{g \in G \mid f(g) = e_H\}$. Its *image* is the set $\mathrm{Im}(f) = \{h \in H \mid \exists g \in G : f(g) = h\}$.

PROPOSITION 82. *The kernel and image of a homomorphism are subgroups of the respective groups.*

PROOF. (not given in class) Since $f(e_G) = e_H$ we have $e_G \in \mathrm{Ker}(f)$ and $e_H \in \mathrm{Im}(f)$ so both are non-empty. Let $g, g' \in \mathrm{Ker}(f)$. Then $f(g^{-1}) = f(g)^{-1} = e_H^{-1} = e_H$ and $f(gg') = f(g)f(g') = e_H e_H = e_H$.

Similarly let $h, h' \in \mathrm{Im}(f)$. Choose preimages $g \in f^{-1}(h)$ and $g' \in f^{-1}(h')$. Then $h^{-1} = f(g)^{-1} = f(g^{-1}) \in \mathrm{Im}(f)$ and $hh' = f(g)f(g') = f(gg') \in \mathrm{Im}(f)$. □

QUESTION 83. *Is every subgroup the kernel of some homomorphism?*

EXERCISE 84. Is every subspace of a vector space the kernel of a linear map?

LEMMA 85. *f in injective iff* $\mathrm{Ker}\, f = \{e\}$.

PROOF. (not given in class) Suppose f is injective. Then for $g \neq e$, $f(g) \neq f(e)$ so $\mathrm{Ker}(f) = e$. Conversely, suppose $\mathrm{Ker}(f) = e$ and that $f(g) = f(g')$. Then

$$f(g^{-1}g') = f(g)^{-1}f(g') = f(g)^{-1}f(g) = e$$

so $g^{-1}g' \in \mathrm{Ker}(f)$. By hypothesis this means $g^{-1}g' = e$ so $g' = g$ and f is injective. □

2.2. Examples (Lecture 7)

2.2.1. Isomorphism and non-isomorphism; orders of elements.

EXAMPLE 86. In $(\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z})^\times$ every element has $x^2 = 1$. But this isn't the case in $(\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z})^\times$.

DEFINITION 87. Say $[3] \in (\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z})^\times$ has *order* 2 but $[3] \in (\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z})^\times$ has *order* 4.

2.2.2. Cyclic groups.

DEFINITION 88. Let G be a group, $g \in G$. We set $g^0 = e$, for $n \geq 0$ define by recursion $g^{n+1} = g^n g$, and for $n < 0$ set $g^n = \left(g^{-1}\right)^{-n}$.

PROPOSITION 89 (Power laws). *For $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$we have (1) $g^{n+m} = g^n g^m$ (that is, the map $n \mapsto g^n$ is a group homomorphism $(\mathbb{Z}, +) \to G$) and (2) $(g^n)^m = g^{nm}$.*

PROOF. PS3. □

LEMMA 90. *The image of the homomorphism $n \mapsto g^n$ is the smallest subgroup containing g, denoted $\langle g \rangle$ and called the* cyclic subgroup *generated by g.*

PROOF. The image is a subgroup and is contained in any subgroup containing g. □

DEFINITION 91. A group G is *cyclic* if $G = \langle g \rangle$ for some $g \in G$.

PROPOSITION 92. *Let G be cyclic, generated by g, and let $f(n) = g^n$ be the standard homomorphism. Then either:*

(1) $\operatorname{Ker} f = \{0\}$ *and* $f\colon \mathbb{Z} \to G$ *is an isomorphism.*
(2) $\operatorname{Ker} f = n\mathbb{Z}$ *and f induces an isomorphism $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \to G$.*

NOTATION 93. The isomorphism class of $\mathbb{Z}$ is called the *infinite cyclic group*. The isomorphism class of $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is called the *cyclic group of order n* and denoted C_n.

REMARK 94. The generator isn't unique (e.g. $\langle g \rangle = \langle g^- \rangle$).

PROOF. f is surjective by definition. If $\operatorname{Ker} f = \{0\}$ then f is injective, hence an isomorphism. Otherwise, by Proposition 7 we have $\operatorname{Ker} f = n\mathbb{Z}$ for some n. We now define $\bar{f}\colon \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \to G$ by $\bar{f}([a]_n) = g^a$.

- This is well-defined: if $[a]_n = [b]_n$ then $a - b = cn$ for some c and then by the power laws, $f(a) = f(b + cn) = f(b)f(cn) = f(b)$ since $cn \in \operatorname{Ker} f$.
- This is a homomorphism: $\bar{f}([a]_n + [b]_n) = \bar{f}([a+b]_n) = f(a+b) = f(a)f(b) = \bar{f}([a]_n)\,\bar{f}([b]_n)$.
- This is injective: $[a]_n \in \operatorname{Ker} \bar{f} \iff f(a) = e \iff a \in n\mathbb{Z} \iff [a]_n = [0]_n$.

□

DEFINITION 95. The *order* of $g \in G$ is the size of $\langle g \rangle$.

COROLLARY 96. *The order of g is the least positive m such that $g^m = e$ (infinity if there is no such m).*

OBSERVATION 97. *If G is finite, then every $g \in G$ has finite order.*

EXAMPLE 98. In $\mathrm{GL}_2(\mathbb{R})$, $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ has infinite order while $\begin{pmatrix} & 1 \\ 1 & \end{pmatrix}$ has order 2 and $\begin{pmatrix} & -1 \\ 1 & \end{pmatrix}$ has order 4.

LEMMA 99. *If G is finite, and $H \subset G$ is non-empty and closed under $(x,y) \mapsto xy$ it is a subgroup.*

PROOF. If g has order n then $g^{-1} = g^{n-1}$ can be obtained from g by repeated multiplication. □

2.2.3. "Philosophy": automorphism groups. X set with "structure". Then $\operatorname{Aut}(X) = \{g\colon X \to X \mid g, g^{-1}$ "pr is a group. Use it to learn information about X.

EXAMPLE 100. X is $\mathbb{R}^n$ with Euclidean distance. The automorphism group is the *isometry group of Euclidean space*.
X a graph (more below)
G a group. $\operatorname{Aut}(G) = \operatorname{Hom}(G,G) \cap S_G$.

2.2.4. Dihedral groups (see practice problems).

DEFINITION 101. A *(simple) graph* is an ordered pair $\Gamma = (V, E)$ where V is a set ("vertices") and $E \subset V \times V$ is a set ("edges") such that $(x,x) \notin E$ and $(x,y) \in E \leftrightarrow (y,x) \in E$.

Example: K_n, cycle ...

DEFINITION 102. An *automorphism* of Γ is a map $f \in S_{V(\Gamma)}$ such that $(x,y) \in E \leftrightarrow (f(x), f(y)) \in E$.

LEMMA 103. $\mathrm{Aut}(\Gamma) < S_\Gamma$ *is a subgroup.*

EXAMPLE 104. $\Gamma = K_n$, $\mathrm{Aut}(\Gamma) = S_n$.

We concentrate on the cycle.

DEFINITION 105. $D_{2n} = \mathrm{Aut}(n\text{-cycle})$.

This contains *n rotations* (a subgroup isomorphic to C_n), *n reflections.*

LEMMA 106. $|D_{2n}| = 2n$.

PROOF. Enough to give an upper bound. Label the cycle by $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. Let $f \in D_{2n}$ and suppose that $f([0]) = a$. Then $f([1]) \in \{a+1, a-1\}$ and this determines the rest. □

LEMMA 107. $C_n < D_{2n}$ *is normal.*

2.3. Subgroups and coset spaces (Lecture 8)

2.3.1. The lattice of subgroups; generation.

LEMMA 108. *The intersection of any family of subgroups is a subgroup.*

DEFINITION 109. Given $S \subset G$, the *subgroup generated by S*, is the subgroup $\langle S \rangle = \bigcap \{H < G \mid S \subset G\}$.

Note that this is the smallest subgroup of G containing S.

DEFINITION 110. A *word* in S is an expression $\prod_{i=1}^{r} x_i^{\varepsilon_i}$ where $x_i \in S$ and $\varepsilon_i \in \{\pm 1\}$.

By induction on r, if H is a subgroup containing S and w is a word in S of length r then $w \in H$.

PROPOSITION 111. $\langle S \rangle$ *is the set of elements of G expressible as words in S.*

PROOF. Let W be the set of elements expressible as words. Then W is non-empty (via the trivial word) and is closed under products (concatenation) and inverses (reverse order exponents), so it is a subgroup; W evidently contains S (the words of length 1) so $W \supset \langle S \rangle$. On the other hand we just argued that $W \subset \langle S \rangle$.f □

2.3.2. Coset spaces and Lagrange's Theorem. Fix a group G and a subgroup H.
Define a relation on G by $g \equiv_L g'\,(H)$ iff $\exists h \in H : g' = gh$ iff $g^{-1}g' \in H$. Example: $g \equiv_L e\,(H)$ iff $g \in H$.

LEMMA 112. *This is an equivalence relation. The equivalence class of g is the set gH.*

DEFINITION 113. The equivalence classes are called *left cosets*.

REMARK 114. Equivalently, we can define right cosets Hg which are the equivalence classes for the relation $g' \equiv_R g\,(H) \leftrightarrow g'g^{-1} \in H$.

DEFINITION 115. Write G/H for the *coset space* $G/\equiv_L (H)$ (this explains the notation $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ from before). The *index* of H in G, denoted $[G:H]$, is the cardinality of G/H.

LEMMA 116. *The map* $gH \mapsto Hg^{-1}$ *is a bijection between* $H\backslash G$ *and* G/H. *In particular, the index does not depend on the choice of left and right cosets.*

THEOREM 117 ("Lagrange's Theorem"). $|G| = [G:H] \times |H|$. *In particular, if G is finite then $|H|$ divides $|G|$.*

PROOF. Let $R \subset G$ be a *system of representatives* for G/H, that is a set intersecting each coset at exactly one element. The function $R \to G/H$ given by $r \mapsto rH$ is a bijection, so that $|R| = [G:H]$. Finally, the map $R \times H \to G$ given by $(r,h) \mapsto rh$ is a bijection. □

COROLLARY 118. *Let G be a finite group. Then the order of every $g \in G$ divides the order of G. In particular, $g^{\#G} = e$.*

PROOF. Let g have order m. Then $m = |\langle g \rangle|$ is the order of a subgroup of G. Moreover, $g^{\#G} = (g^m)^{\#G/m} = e$. □

REMARK 119. Lagrange stated a special case in 1770. The general case is probably due to Galois; a proof first appeared in Gauss's book in 1801.

FACT 120. *It is a Theorem of Philip Hall that if G is finite, then $H\backslash G$ and G/H always have a* common *system of representatives.*

EXAMPLE 121. Let p be prime. Then every group of order p is isomorphic to C_p.

PROOF. Let G have order p, and let $g \in G$ be a non-identity element, say of order $k = |\langle g \rangle|$. Then $k|p$, but $k \neq 1$ ($g \neq e$) so $k = p$ and $\langle g \rangle = G$. □

EXAMPLE 122 (Fermat's Little Theorem; Euler's Theorem). Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then:

(1) If $\gcd(a,p) = 1$ then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1\,(p)$.
(2) $a^p \equiv a\,(p)$.
(3) If $\gcd(a,n) = 1$ then $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1\,(n)$.

PROOF. For (1), $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$ is a group of order $p-1$. (2) follows from (1) unless $[a] = 0$, when the claim is clear. (3) is the same for $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$, a group of order $\phi(n)$. □

2.4. Normal subgroups and quotients (Lectures 9–10)

2.4.1. Normal subgroups (Lecture 9). HW: Every subgroup is normal in its normalizer.
We will answer Question 83. To start with, we identify a constraint on kernels.

LEMMA 123. *Let $f \in \mathrm{Hom}(G,H)$ and let $g \in G$. Then $g\,\mathrm{Ker}(f)g^{-1} = \mathrm{Ker}(f)$.*

PROOF. Let $g \in G$, $n \in \mathrm{Ker}(f)$. Then $f\left(gng^{-1}\right) = f(g)f(n)f(g^{-1}) = f(g)f(g)^{-1} = e$ so $gng^{-1} \in \mathrm{Ker}\, f$ as well. □

DEFINITION 124. Call $N < G$ *normal* if $gN = Ng$ for all $g \in G$, equivalently if $gNg^{-1} = N$ for all $g \in G$. In that case we write $N \lhd G$.

LEMMA 125. *Enough to check $gNg^{-1} \subset N$.*

PROOF. PS5 Practice problem P4. □

REMARK 126. Normality is best verified using Lemma 123 or Lemma 125.

EXAMPLE 127. $\{e\}, G$ always normal; Any subgroup of an abelian group.
$\mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbb{R}) \lhd \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ (kernel of determinant), $A_n \lhd S_n$ (kernel of sign). Translations in $\mathrm{Isom}(\mathbb{E}^n)$.

LEMMA 128. *The intersection of any family of normal subgroups is normal.*

DEFINITION 129. The *normal closure* of $S < G$ is the normal subgroup $\langle S \rangle^{\mathrm{N}} = \bigcap \{N \lhd G \mid S \subset N\}$.

2.4.2. Quotients.

LEMMA 130. *The subgroup $N < G$ is normal iff the relation $\equiv (N)$ respects products and inverses.*

PROOF. Suppose N is normal, and suppose that $g \equiv g' (N)$ and that $h \equiv h' (N)$. Then

$$(gh)^{-1} \left(g'h'\right) = h^{-1} \left(g^{-1}g'\right) h' = \left[h^{-1} \left(g^{-1}g'\right) h\right] \left(h^{-1}h'\right) \in N.$$

Also, $g \equiv_L g' (N)$ iff $g^{-1} \equiv_R (g')^{-1} (N)$ but if N is normal then the two relations are the same.
The converse is practice problem 5 of PS5. □

COROLLARY 131. *Defining group operations via representatives endows G/N with the structure of a group.*

DEFINITION 132. This is called the quotient *of G by N*.

LEMMA 133. *The quotient map $g \mapsto gN$* is a surjective group homomorphism with kernel N.

EXAMPLE 134. $\mathbb{Z}$ is commutative, so every subgroup is normal, and we get a group $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$.

Motivation: "kill off" the elements of N.

2.4.3. Isomorphism Theorems (Lecture 10).

THEOREM 135 (First isomorphism theorem). *Let $f \in \mathrm{Hom}(G,H)$ and let $K = \mathrm{Ker}(f)$. Then f induces an isomorphism $G/K \to \mathrm{Im}(f)$.*

PROOF. Define $\bar{f}(gK) = f(g)$. This is well-defined: if $gK = g'K$ then $g' = gk$ for some $k \in K$ and then $f(g') = f(gk) = f(g)f(k) = f(g)$ since $k \in K$. It is a group homomorphism by definintion of the product structure on G/K. The image is the same as f by construction. As to the kernel, $\bar{f}(gK) = e_H$ iff $f(g) = e_H$ iff $g \in K$ iff $gK = K = e_{G/K}$. □

EXAMPLE 136. $\det\colon \mathrm{GL}_n(F) \to F^\times$ induces an isomorphism $\mathrm{GL}_n(F)/\mathrm{SL}_n(F) \simeq F^\times$.

REMARK 137. Today emphasize applications of theorems by proving other theorems with them.

THEOREM 138 (Second isomorphism theorem). *Let $N, H < G$ with N normal. Then $N \cap H$ is normal in H, and the natural map $H \to HN$ induces an isomorphism*

$$H/(H \cap N) \xrightarrow{\simeq} HN/N.$$

PROOF. Composing the inclusion $\iota\colon H \to HN$ and the quotient map $\pi\colon HN \to HN/N$ gives a homomorphism $f = \pi \circ \iota\colon H \to HN/N$. f is surjective: we have $(hn)N = h(nN) = hN$ for any $h \in H$, $n \in N$ so every coset has a representative in the image of ι. We now compute its kernel. Let $h \in H$. Then $h \in \mathrm{Ker}\, f$ iff $f(h) = e_{HN/N}$ iff $\pi(h) = N$ iff $hN = N$ iff $h \in N$ iff $h \in N \cap H$. Thus $\mathrm{Ker}\, f = H \cap N$ and the claim follows from the previous Theorem. □

THEOREM 139 (Third isomorphism theorem). *Let $K < N < G$ be subgroups with K, N normal in G. Then N/K is normal in G/K and there is a natural isomorphism $G/N \to (G/K)/(N/K)$.*

PROOF. Let $nK \in N/K$ and let $gK \in G/K$. Then $(gK)(nK)(gK)^{-1} \overset{\text{def}}{=} gng^{-1}K \in N/K$ so $N/K \lhd G/K$. Now Let f be the composition of the quotient maps $G \to G/K \to (G/K)/(N/K)$. Then f is surjective (composition of surjective maps) and $g \in \mathrm{Ker}\, f$ iff $gK \in N/K$ iff $g \in N$. □

2.4.4. Simplicity of A_n.

DEFINITION 140. G is *simple* if it has no normal subgroups except for $\{e\}, G$ ("prime")

LEMMA 141 (Generation and conjugacy in A_n). *The pairs* $(123),(145)$ *and* $(12)(34),(12)(35)$ *are conjugate in* A_5.

PROOF. Conjugate by $(24)(35)$ and (345) respectively. □

LEMMA 142 (Generation and conjugacy in A_n). *Let* $n \geq 5$.

(1) All cycles of length 3 *are conjugate in* A_n *and generate the group..*
(2) All elements which are a product of two disjoint transpositions are conjugate in A_n *and generate the group.*

PROOF. PS3 □

THEOREM 143. A_n *is simple if* $n \geq 5$.

PROOF. Let $N \lhd A_n$ be normal and non-trivial and let $\sigma \in N \setminus \{\mathrm{id}\}$ have minimal support, wlog $\{1,\ldots,k\}$.

Case 1. $k = 1$ would make $\sigma = \mathrm{id}$.
Case 2. $k = 2$ would make σ a transposition.
Case 3. $k = 3$ makes σ a 3-cycle. By Lemma 142(1), N contains all 3-cycles and thus equals A_n.
Case 4. $k = 4$ makes σ of the form $(12)(34)$ since 4-cycles are odd. We are then done by Lemma 142(2).
Case 5. $k \geq 5$ and σ has a cycle of length at least 3. We may then assume $\sigma(1) = 2$, $\sigma(2) = 3$ and let $\gamma = (345)\sigma(345)^{-1}\sigma^{-1} \in N$. Then γ fixes every point that σ does, and also $\gamma(2) = 2$, but $\gamma(3) = 4$, so $\gamma \neq \mathrm{id}$ – a contradiction.
Case 6. $k \geq 5$ and σ is a product of disjoint transpositions (necessarily at least 4), say $\sigma = (12)(34)(56)(78)\cdots$. Then the same γ again fixes every point that σ fixes, and also $1,2$ – but it still exchanges $7,8$ – another contradiction.

□

2.4.5. Alternative proofs.

2.4.5.1. *(taken from Rotman's book).*

(1) $A_n$is generated by 3-cycles if $n \geq 5$.
(2) A_5 is simple:
  (a) The conjugacy classes of (123) and $(12)(34)$ generate A_5.
  (b) The other conjugacy classes id, (12345) (13542) have sizes $1,12,12$ which do not add up to a divisor of 60.
(3) A_6 is simple:
  (a) Let $N \lhd A_6$ be normal and non-trivial. For $i \in [6]$, let $P_i = \mathrm{Stab}_{A_6}(i) \simeq A_5$. Then $N \cap P_i$ is normal in P_i. If this is non-trivial then by (1), $P_i \subset N$ and hence N contains a 3-cycle, so $N = A_6$. Otherwise every element of N has full support.
  (b) The possible cycle structures are $(123)(456)$ and $(12)(3456)$. In the second case the square is a non-trivial element of N with a fixed point. In the first case conjugate with (234) to get a fixed point.

(4) For $n \geq 6$ let $N \lhd A_n$ be normal. Let $\sigma \in N$ be non-identity with, say, $\sigma(1) = 2$. Then κ=(234) does not commute with σ ($\kappa\sigma(1) = 3$ but $\sigma\kappa(1) = 2$).
(5) The element $\gamma = [\sigma, \kappa] = \sigma\kappa\sigma^{-1}\kappa^{-1} = \sigma\left(\kappa\sigma^{-1}\kappa^{-1}\right) \in N$ is also non-identity. But writing this element as $\left(\sigma\kappa\sigma^{-1}\right)\kappa^{-1}$we see that it is a product of two 3-cycles and hence has support of size at most 6. This therefore belongs to a copy A^* of A_6 inside A_n. But $N \cap A^*$ is normal, and $A_6$is simple. Thus N contains A^* and in particular a 3-cycle.

2.4.5.2. *Induction.*

(1) A_5 is simple: see above.
(2) Suppose A_n simple, and let $N \lhd A_{n+1}$ be non-trivial. If $N \cap P_i$ is non-trivial for $i \in [n+1]$ then $P_i \subset N$ so N contains a 3-cycle and $N = A_{n+1}$. Otherwise every element of N has full support.
(3) Let $\sigma \in N$ be non-trivial, say $\sigma(1) = 2$, and $\sigma(3) = 4$ (move every element!). Let $\tau = (12)(45)$. Then $(\sigma\tau)(3) = 4$ while $\tau\sigma(3) = 5$, so $\sigma\tau\sigma^{-1}\tau^{-1} \in N$ is non-trivial and fixes $1, 2$ – a contradiction.

CHAPTER 3

Group Actions

3.1. Group actions (Lecture 11)

DEFINITION 144 (Group action). An *action* of the group G on the set X is a binary operation $\cdot\colon G\times X\to X$ such that $e_G\cdot x=x$ for all $x\in X$ and such that $g\cdot(h\cdot x)=(gh)\cdot x$ for all $g,h\in G$, $x\in X$. A *G-set* is a pair $(X,\cdot)$ where X is a set and $\cdot$ is an action of G on X. We sometimes write $G\curvearrowright X$.

We discus Examples of group actions

(0) For any X,G we have the *trivial action* $g\cdot x=x$ for all x.
(1) S_X acting on X. Key example.
(2) F field, V F-vector space. Then scalar multiplication is an action $F^\times\curvearrowright V$.
    - Orbit of non-zero vector is (roughly) the 1d subspace it spans.
(3) X set with "structure", $\mathrm{Aut}(X)=\left\{\sigma\in S_X\mid \sigma,\sigma^{-1}\text{ "preserve the structure"}\right\}$ acts on X.
    - Can always restrict actions: if $\cdot\colon G\times X\to X$ is an action then $\cdot\restriction_{H\times X}$ is an action of H.
    (a) D_{2n} acting on cycle, inside of there's C_n acting on te cycle; $\mathrm{Aut}(\Gamma)$ acting on Γ.
    (b) $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ acting on $\mathbb{R}^n$, $\mathrm{GL}(V)$ acting on V.
    (c) G group; $\mathrm{Aut}(G)$ acting on G.
(4) Induced actions (see Problem Set): suppose G acts on X,Y.
    (a) G acts on Y^X by $(g\cdot f)(x)\overset{\text{def}}{=}g\cdot\left(f\left(g^{-1}\cdot x\right)\right)$ (in particular, action of G on the vector space F^X where X is a G-set).
    (b) G acts on $P(X)$ by $g\cdot A=\{g\cdot a\mid a\in A\}$.
    (c) etc.

3.1.1. The regular action and the homomorphism picture. The *regular action*: G acting on itself by left multiplication: For $g\in G$ and $x\in G$ let $g\cdot x=gx$. Action by group axioms.

We now obtain a different point of view on actions. For this let G act on X, fix $g\in G$ and consider the function $\sigma_g\colon X\to X$ given by

$$\sigma_g(x)\overset{\text{def}}{=}g\cdot x.$$

LEMMA 145 (Actions vs homomorphisms). *In increasing level of abstraction:*

(1) $\sigma_g\in S_X$ for all $g\in G$.
(2) $g\mapsto\sigma_g$ is a group homomorphism homomorphism $G\to S_X$.
(3) The resulting map from group actions to $\mathrm{Hom}(G,S_X)$ *is a bijection*

$$\{\textit{actions of } G \textit{ on } X\}\leftrightarrow\mathrm{Hom}(G,S_X).$$

PROOF. We first show $\sigma_g \circ \sigma_h = \sigma_{gh}$. Indeed for any $x \in X$:

$$\begin{aligned}
(\sigma_g \circ \sigma_h)(x) &= \sigma_g(\sigma_h(x)) && \text{def of } \circ \\
&= g \cdot (h \cdot x) && \text{def of } \sigma_g, \sigma_h \\
&= (gh) \cdot x && \text{def of gp action} \\
&= \sigma_{gh}(x) && \text{def of } \sigma_{gh}.
\end{aligned}$$

This doesn't give (2) because we don't yet know (1). For that we use the axiom that $\sigma_e = \mathrm{id}$ to see that

$$\sigma_g \circ \sigma_{g^{-1}} = \mathrm{id} = \sigma_{g^{-1}} \circ \sigma_g$$

and hence that $\sigma_g \in S_X$ at which point we get (1),(2).

For (3), if $\sigma \in \mathrm{Hom}(G, S_X)$ then set $g \cdot x \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\sigma(g))(x)$. This is indeed an action, and evidently this is the inverse of the map constructed in (2). □

REMARK 146. This Lemma will be an important source of homomorphisms, and therefore of normal subgroups (their kernels).

We now get the first payoff of our theory:

THEOREM 147 (Cayley 1878). *Every group G is isomorphic to a subgroup of S_G. In particular, every group of order n is isomorphic to a subgroup of S_n.*

PROOF. Consider the left-regular action of G on itself. This corresponds to a homomorphism $L_G \colon G \to S_G$. We show that $\mathrm{Ker}(L_G) = \{e\}$, so that L_G will be an isomorphism onto its image. For that let $g \in \mathrm{Ker}(L_G)$. Then $L_G(g) = \mathrm{id}_G$, and in particular this means that g fixes e: $g \cdot e = e$. But this means $g = e$ and we are done. □

REMARK 148. Can make this quantitative: [**2**] asks for the minimal m such that G is isomorphic to a subgroup of S_m.

LEMMA 149. *For any prime p, C_p is isomorphic to a subgroup of S_n iff $n \geq p$.*

PROOF. If $n \geq p$ then S_n includes a p-cycle. Conversely, by Lagrange's Theorem 117, if S_n has a subgroup isomorphic to C_p then $p | n!$. Since p is prime this means $p | k$ for some $k \leq n$ so that $p \leq k \leq n$. □

REMARK 150. Johnson shows that if G has order n and embeds in S_n but no smaller S_m then either $G \simeq C_p$ or G has order 2^k for some k, and for each such order there is a unique group with the property.

3.2. Conjugation (Lecture 12)

This is another action on G on itself, but it's not the regular action!

3.2.1. Conjugacy of elements.

DEFINITION 151. For $g \in G$, $x \in G$ set ${}^g x = gxg^{-1}$. Set $\gamma_g(x) = gxg^{-1}$.

LEMMA 152. *This is a group action of G on itself, and it is an action by* automorphisms*: $\gamma_g \in \mathrm{Aut}(G)$.*

PROOF. Check. □

DEFINITION 153. Say "x is conjugate to y" if there is $g \in G$ such that ${}^g x = y$.

LEMMA 154. *This is an equivalence relation.*

PROOF. See PS3, problem 2(a). □

DEFINITION 155. The equivalence classes are called *conjugacy classes. Write $G\backslash X$ for the set of equivalence classes.*

EXAMPLE 156. The class of e is $\{e\}$. More generally, the class of x is $\{x\}$ iff $x \in Z(G)$ (proof).

REMARK 157. Why is conjugacy important? Because

(1) The action is by *automorphisms*, so conjugate elements have identical group-theoretic properties (same order, conjugate centralizers etc).
(2) These automorphisms are readily available.

In fact, the map $g \mapsto \gamma_g$ is a group homomorphism $G \to \mathrm{Aut}(G)$ (this is Lemma 145(2)).

DEFINITION 158. The image of this homomorphism is denoted $\mathrm{Inn}(G)$ and called the group of *inner automorphisms*.

EXERCISE 159. The kernel is exactly $Z(G)$, so by Theorem 135, $\mathrm{Inn}(G) \simeq G/Z(G)$. Also, if $f \in \mathrm{Aut}(G)$ then $f \circ \gamma_g \circ f^{-1} = \gamma_{f(g)}$ so $\mathrm{Inn}(G) \lhd \mathrm{Aut}(G)$.

DEFINITION 160. Call $\mathrm{Out}(G) \stackrel{def}{=} \mathrm{Aut}(G)/\mathrm{Inn}(G)$ the *outer automorphism group* of G.

EXAMPLE 161. $\mathrm{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}^d) \simeq \mathrm{GL}_d(\mathbb{Z})$ but all inner automorphisms are trivial (the group is commutative).

On the other hand, if $\#X \geq 3$ then $\mathrm{Inn}(S_X) = S_X$ (the center is trivial).

FACT 162. $\mathrm{Out}(S_n) = \{e\}$ *except that* $\mathrm{Out}(S_6) \simeq C_2$.

LEMMA 163. *There is a bijection between the conjugacy class of x and the quotient $G/Z_G(x)$. In particular, the number of conjugates of x is $[G : Z_G(x)]$.*

PROOF. Map $gZ_G(x) \to {}^g x$. This is well-defined: if $g' = gz$ with $z \in Z$ then ${}^{g'}x = {}^{gz}x = {}^g({}^z x) = {}^g x$. It is surjective: the conjugate ${}^g x$ is the image of $gZ_G(x)$, and finally if ${}^g x = {}^{g'}x$ then $x = {}^{g^{-1}}({}^{g'}x) = {}^{g^{-1}g'}x$ so $g^{-1}g' \in Z_G(x)$ and $g'Z_G(x) = g'Z(x)$. □

THEOREM 164 (Class equation). *Let G be finite. Then*

$$\#G = \#Z(G) + \sum_{\{x\}} [G : Z_G(x)] \,,$$

where the sum is over the non-central conjugacy classes.

PROOF. G is the disjoint union of the conjugacy classes. □

3.2.2. Conjugacy of subgroups. We consider a variant on the previous construction.

DEFINITION 165. For $g \in G$, $H < G$ set ${}^g H = gHg^{-1} = \gamma_g(H)$.

LEMMA 166. *This is a group action of G on its set of subgroups.*

PROOF. Same: ${}^eH = eHe^{-1} = H$, and

$$ {}^g\left({}^hH\right) = g\left(hHh^{-1}\right)g^{-1} = (gh)H(gh)^{-1} = {}^{gh}H\,. $$

□

EXAMPLE 167. The class of H is $\{H\}$ iff H is normal in G.

LEMMA 168. *Conjugacy of subgroups is an equivalence relation.*

PROOF. Same. □

LEMMA 169. *There is a bijection between the conjugates of H and $G/N_G(H)$.*

PROOF. Same. □

3.3. Orbits, stabilizers and counting (Lecture 13)

We now observe that the results of Section 3.2 depend only on the fact that conjugation is a group action, and not on the details of the action. The ultimate result is Proposition 176.

3.3.1. Orbits, stabilizers, and the orbit-stabilizer Theorem. Fix a group G acting on a set X.

DEFINITION 170. Say $x, y \in X$ are *in the same orbit* if there is $g \in G$ such that $gx = y$.

LEMMA 171. *This is an equivalence relation.*

PROOF. Repeat. □

DEFINITION 172. The equivalence classes are called orbits.

REMARK 173. Why orbits? Consider action of $\mathbb{R}^+$ on phase space by time evolution (idea of Poincaré).

DEFINITION 174. Write $G\cdot x$ or $\mathcal{O}(x)$ for the orbit of $x \in X$. Write $G\backslash X$ for the set of orbits. For $x \in X$ set $\mathrm{Stab}_G(x) = \{g \in G \mid g\cdot x = x\}$.

LEMMA 175. $\mathrm{Stab}_G(x)$ *is a subgroup.*

PROOF. $e\cdot x = x$, if $g\cdot x = x$ then $g^{-1}\cdot x = x$ and if $gx = x$ and $hx = x$ then $(hg)x = h(gx) = hx = x$. □

PROPOSITION 176 (Orbit-Stabilizer Theorem). *There is a bijection between the orbit $\mathcal{O}(x) \subset X$ and $G/\mathrm{Stab}_G(x)$. Moreover, the stabilizers of an orbit of G is a conjugacy class in of subgroups.*

PROOF. Same. □

COROLLARY 177 (General class equation). *We have*

$$ \#X = \sum_{\mathcal{O}(x)\in G\backslash X} [G : \mathrm{Stab}_G(x)]\,. $$

PROOF. X is the disjoint union of the orbits. □

DEFINITION 178. $\mathrm{Fix}(G) = \{x \in X \mid \mathrm{Stab}_G(x) = G\}$.

COROLLARY 179. *Suppose G has order p^k and X is finite. Then $\#X \equiv \#\mathrm{Fix}(X)$ (p).*

PROOF. Every non-fixed point is an orbit of size at least 2, hence its stabilizer is a non-1 divisor of p^k so it is divisible by p. □

EXAMPLE 180. Zagier's slick proof of Fermat's Theorem

3.4. Actions, orbits and point stabilizers (handout)

In this handout we gather a list of examples of group actions and determine the orbits and the stabilizers.

3.4.1. G **acting on** G/H**.** Let G be a group, H a subgroup. The regular action of G on itself induces an action on the subsets of G (see Problem Set 6).

- Let $C = xH$ be a coset in G/H and let $g \in G$. Then gC is also a coset: $gC = g(xH) = (gx)H$. Accordingly the subset $G/H \subset P(G)$ is *invariant* and we can *restrict* the action of G to get an action on the invariant subset G/H.

(1) Orbits: for any two cosets xH, yH let $g = yx^{-1}$. Then $g(xH) = yx^{-1}xH = yH$ so there is only one orbit.
   - We say the action is *transitive*.

(2) Stabilizers: $\{g \mid gxH = xH\} = \left\{g \mid gxHx^{-1} = xHx^{-1}\right\} = \left\{g \mid g \in xHx^{-1}\right\} = xHx^{-1}$, so $\mathrm{Stab}_G(xH) = xHx^{-1}$ – in other words, the point stabilizers are exactly the *conjugates* of H.

PROPOSITION 181. *Let G act on X. For $x \in X$ let $H = \mathrm{Stab}_G(x)$ and let $f\colon G/H \to \mathcal{O}(x)$ be the bijection $f(gH) = gx$ of Proposition 176.* Then f is a map of G-sets*: for all $g \in G$ and coset $C \in G/H$ we have*

$$f(g \cdot C) = g \cdot f(C)$$

where on the left we have the action of g on $C \in G/H$ and on the left we have the action of g on $f(C) \in \mathcal{O}(x) \subset X$.

3.4.2. $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ **acting on** $\mathbb{R}^n$**.**

- For a matrix $g \in G = \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ and vector $\underline{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ write $g \cdot \underline{v}$ for the matrix-vector product. This is an action (linear algebra).

(1) Orbits: We know that for all g, $g\underline{0} = \underline{0}$ so $\{\underline{0}\}$ is one orbit. For all other non-zero vectors we have:

CLAIM 182. Let V be a vector space, $\underline{u}, \underline{v} \in V$ be two non-zero vectors. Then there is a linear map $g \in \mathrm{GL}(V)$ such that $g\underline{u} = \underline{v}$.

We need a fact from linear algebra

FACT 183. *Let V, W be vector spaces and let $\{\underline{u}_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a basis of V. Let $\{\underline{w}_i\}_{i\in I}$ be any vectors in W. Then there is a unique linear map $f\colon V \to W$ such that $f(\underline{u}_i) = \underline{w}_i$.*

PROOF OF CLAIM. Complete $\underline{u}, \underline{v}$ to a bases $\{\underline{u}_i\}_{i\in I}, \{\underline{v}_i\}_{i\in I}$ ($\underline{u}_1 = \underline{u}$, $\underline{v}_1 = \underline{v}$). There is a unique linear map $g\colon V \to V$ such that $g\underline{u}_i = \underline{v}_i$ (because $\{\underline{u}_i\}$ is a basis) and similarly a unique map $h\colon V \to V$ such that $h\underline{v}_i = \underline{u}_i$. But then for all i we have $(gh)\,\underline{v}_i = \underline{v}_i = \mathrm{Id}\,\underline{v}_i$ and $(hg)\,\underline{u}_i = \underline{u}_i = \mathrm{Id}\,\underline{u}_i$, so by the uniqueness prong of the Fact we have $gh = \mathrm{Id} = hg$ and g is invertible, that is $g \in \mathrm{GL}(V)$. □

(2) Stabilizers: clearly all matrices stabilize zero. For other vectors we compute:

$$\mathrm{Stab}_{\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})}(\underline{e}_n) = \left\{ g \mid g \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} = \left\{ g = \begin{pmatrix} h & \underline{0} \\ \underline{u} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mid h \in \mathrm{GL}_{n-1}(\mathbb{R}), \underline{u} \in \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \right\}.$$

(more precisely the stabilizer consists of all matrices $g = \begin{pmatrix} h & \underline{0} \\ \underline{u} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ where $h \in M_{n-1}(\mathbb{R})$, but it is not hard to show that in this case g is invertible iff h is).

EXERCISE 184. Show that the block-diagonal matrices $M = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} h & \underline{0} \\ \underline{0} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mid h \in \mathrm{GL}_{n-1}(\mathbb{R}) \right\}$ are a subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ isomorphic to $\mathrm{GL}_{n-1}(\mathbb{R})$. Show that the matrices $N = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} I_{n-1} & \underline{0} \\ \underline{u} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mid \underline{u} \in \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \right\}$ are a subgroup isomorphic to $\left(\mathbb{R}^{n-1}, +\right)$. Show that $\mathrm{Stab}_{\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})}(\underline{e}_n)$ is the semidirect product $M \ltimes N$.

3.4.3. $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ acting on pairs of vectors (assume $n \geq 2$ here).

EXERCISE 185. If G acts on X and G acts on Y then setting $g \cdot (x,y) = (g \cdot x, g \cdot y)$ gives anthe action action of G on $X \times Y$.

We study the example where $G = \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ and $X = Y = \mathbb{R}^n$.

(1) Orbits:
   (a) Clearly $(\underline{0},\underline{0})$ is a fixed point of the action.
   (b) If $\underline{u},\underline{v} \neq \underline{0}$ the previous discussion constructed g such that $g\underline{u} = \underline{v}$ and hence $g \cdot (\underline{u},\underline{0}) = (\underline{v},\underline{0})$ and $g \cdot (\underline{0},\underline{u}) = (\underline{0},\underline{v})$. Since $G \cdot (\underline{u},\underline{0}) \subset \mathbb{R}^n \times \{\underline{0}\}$, we therefore get two more orbits: $\{(\underline{u},\underline{0}) \mid \underline{u} \neq 0\}$ and $\{(\underline{0},\underline{u}) \mid \underline{u} \neq 0\}$.
   (c) We now need to understand when there is g such that $g \cdot (\underline{u}_1,\underline{u}_2) = (\underline{v}_1,\underline{v}_2)$ when all vectors are nonzero. When studying the action on $\mathbb{R}^n$ itself we saw that if the pairs $\{\underline{u}_1,\underline{u}_2\}$, $\{\underline{v}_1,\underline{v}_2\}$ are each linearly independent then completing both to bases will provide such g. Conversely, if $\{\underline{u}_1,\underline{u}_2\}$ are independent then so are $\{g\underline{u}_1, g\underline{u}_2\}$ for any invertible g (g preserves the vector space structure hence linear algebra properties like linear independence). We therefore have an orbit
   $$\{(\underline{u}_1,\underline{u}_2) \mid \text{ the vectors are linearly independent}\}.$$
   (d) The case of linear dependence remains, so we need to consider the orbit of $(\underline{u}_1,\underline{u}_2)$ where both are non-zero and $\underline{u}_2 = a\underline{u}_1$ for some scalar a, necessarily non-zero. In that case $g \cdot (\underline{u}_1,\underline{u}_2) = (g\underline{u}_1, g(a\underline{u}_1)) = (g\underline{u}_1, a(g\underline{u}_1))$ so the orbit of $(\underline{u}_1, a\underline{u}_1)$ is contained in
   $$\{(\underline{v}, a\underline{v}) \mid \underline{v} \neq \underline{0}\}.$$
   Conversely, this is an orbit because if $\underline{u}_1,\underline{v}$ is are both non-zero there is g for which $g\underline{u}_1 = \underline{v}$ and then $g \cdot (\underline{u}_1, a\underline{u}_1) = (\underline{v}, a\underline{v})$.
   Summary: the orbits are $\{(\underline{0},\underline{0})\}$, $\{(\underline{u},\underline{0}) \mid \underline{u} \neq 0\}$,$\{(\underline{0},\underline{u}) \mid \underline{u} \neq 0\}$, $\{(\underline{u}_1,\underline{u}_2) \mid \dim \mathrm{Span}_F\{\underline{u}_1,\underline{u}_2\} = 2$ and for each $a \in F^\times$ the set $\{(\underline{u}_1, a\underline{u}_1) \mid \underline{u}_1 \neq \underline{0}\}$.
(2) Point stabilizers:
   (a) $(\underline{0},\underline{0})$ is fixed by the whole group.

(b) $g\cdot(\underline{u},\underline{0})=(\underline{u},\underline{0})$ iff $g\underline{u}=\underline{u}$, so this is the case solved before. Similarly for $g\cdot(\underline{u},a\underline{u})=(\underline{u},a\underline{u})$ which holds iff $g\underline{u}=\underline{u}$.

(c) $g\cdot(\underline{e}_{n-1},\underline{e}_n)=(\underline{e}_{n-1},\underline{e}_n)$ holds iff the last two columns of g are $\underline{e}_{n-1},\underline{e}_n$ so

$$\mathrm{Stab}_{\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})}(\underline{e}_{n-1},\underline{e}_n)=\left\{g=\begin{pmatrix}h & 0\\ y & I_2\end{pmatrix}\mid h\in\mathrm{GL}_{n-2}(\mathbb{R}),y\in M_{2,n-2}(\mathbb{R})\right\}.$$

EXERCISE 186. Show that the block-diagonal matrices $M=\left\{\begin{pmatrix}h & \underline{0}\\ \underline{0} & I_2\end{pmatrix}\mid h\in\mathrm{GL}_{n-2}(\mathbb{R})\right\}$ are a subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ isomorphic to $\mathrm{GL}_{n-2}(\mathbb{R})$. Show that the matrices $N=\left\{\begin{pmatrix}I_{n-2} & \underline{0}\\ y & 1\end{pmatrix}\mid y\in M_{2,n-2}(\mathbb{R})\right\}\simeq$ are a subgroup isomorphic to $\left(\mathbb{R}^{2(n-2)},+\right)$. Show that $\mathrm{Stab}_{\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})}(\underline{e}_{n-1},\underline{e}_n)$ is the semidirect product $M\ltimes N$.

3.4.4. $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ **and** $\mathrm{PGL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ **acting on** $\mathbb{P}^{n-1}(\mathbb{R})$**.**

DEFINITION 187. Write $\mathbb{P}^{n-1}(\mathbb{R})$ for the set of 1-dimensional subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^n$ (this set is called "projective space of dimension $n-1$").

- Let $L\in\mathbb{P}^{n-1}(\mathbb{R})$, so that L is a line in $\mathbb{R}^n$ and let $g\in\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$. Then $g(L)=\{g\underline{v}\mid\underline{v}\in L\}$ is also a line (the image of a subspace is a subspace, and invertible linear maps preserve dimension), and this defines an action of $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ on $\mathbb{P}^{n-1}(\mathbb{R})$ (a restriction of the action of $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ on all subsets of $\mathbb{R}^n$ to the set of subsets which are lines).

(1) The action is transitive: suppose $L=\mathrm{Span}\{\underline{u}\}$ and $L'=\mathrm{Span}\{\underline{v}\}$ for some non-zero vectors $\underline{u},\underline{v}$. Then any element g such that $g\underline{u}=\underline{v}$ will also map $gL=L'$.

(2) Suppose $L=\mathrm{Span}\{\underline{e}_n\}$. Then $gL=L$ means $g\underline{e}_n$ spans L, so $g\underline{e}_n=a\underline{e}_n$ for some non-zero a. It follows that

$$\mathrm{Stab}_{\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})}(F\cdot\underline{e}_n)=\left\{g=\begin{pmatrix}h & \underline{0}\\ \underline{u} & a\end{pmatrix}\mid h\in\mathrm{GL}_{n-1}(\mathbb{R}),a\in\mathbb{R}^\times\,\underline{u}\in\mathbb{R}^{n-1}\right\}.$$

- Repeat Exercize 184 from before, now with $M=\left\{\begin{pmatrix}h & \underline{0}\\ \underline{0} & a\end{pmatrix}\mid h\in\mathrm{GL}_{n-1}(\mathbb{R}),a\in\mathbb{R}^\times\right\}\simeq$ $\mathrm{GL}_{n-1}(\mathbb{R})\times\mathbb{R}^\times$.

This can be generalized. For the same reason as for lines, the group $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ acts on the *Grassmannian*

$$\mathrm{Gr}(n,k)=\{L\subset\mathbb{R}^n\mid L\text{ is a subspace and }\dim_{\mathbb{R}}L=k\}.$$

The action is still transitive (for any L,L', take bases $\{\underline{u}_i\}_{i=1}^k\subset L$, $\{\underline{v}_i\}_{i=1}^k\subset L'$, complete both to bases of $\mathbb{R}^n$ and get a map), and the stabilizer will have the form $M\ltimes N$ with $M\simeq\mathrm{GL}_{n-k}(\mathbb{R})\times\mathrm{GL}_k(\mathbb{R})$ and $N\simeq\left(M_{k,n-k}(\mathbb{R}),+\right)$.

3.4.5. $\mathrm{O}(n)$ **acting on** $\mathbb{R}^n$**.** Let the orthogonal group $\mathrm{O}(n)=\{g\in\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})\mid g^tg=\mathrm{Id}\}$ act on $\mathbb{R}^n$.

- This a different kind of *restriction* – we restrict the action of $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ to a subgroup, but the set is still the whole of $\mathbb{R}^n$.

(1) Orbits: we know that if $g\in\mathrm{O}(n)$ and $\underline{v}\in\mathbb{R}^n$ then $\|g\underline{v}\|=\|\underline{v}\|$. Conversely, for each $a\geq 0$ $\{\underline{v}\in\mathbb{R}^n\mid\|vv\|=a\}$ is an orbit. When $a=0$ this is clear (just the zero vector) and otherwise let $\underline{u},\underline{v}$ both have norm a. Then $\underline{u}_1=\frac{1}{a}vu$, $\underline{v}_1=\frac{1}{a}\underline{v}$ are both unit vectors which

we can separately complete to orthonormal bases $\{\underline{u}_i\}, \{\underline{v}_i\}$ respectively. Then the unique invertible linear map $g \in \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ such that $g\underline{u}_i = \underline{v}_i$ is orthogonal (linear algebra exercize). We thus obtain $g \in \mathrm{O}(n)$ such that $g\underline{u}_1 = \underline{v}_1$ and hence $g\underline{u} = g(a\underline{u}_1) = ag\underline{u}_1 = a\underline{v}_1 = \underline{v}$.

3.4.6. $\mathrm{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ **acting on** $\mathbb{R}^n$**.** Let $\mathrm{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ be the *Euclidean group*: the group of all *rigid motions* of $\mathbb{R}^n$ (maps $f\colon \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ which preserve distance, in that $\|f(\underline{u}) - f(\underline{v})\| = \|\underline{u} - \underline{v}\|$).

(1) The action is transitive: for any fixed $\underline{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ the *translation* $T_{\underline{a}}\underline{x} = \underline{x} + \underline{a}$ preserves distances, making it an element of $\mathrm{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n)$, and for all $\underline{u}, \underline{v}$ we have $T_{\underline{v}-\underline{u}}(\underline{u}) = \underline{v}$.

(2) The point stabilizer of zero is exactly the orthogonal group!

PROOF. We know that orthogonal maps preserve distances. Conversely let $f \in \mathrm{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ satisfy $f(\underline{0}) = \underline{0}$. Then f preserves distance from the origin:

$$\|f(\underline{x})\| = \|f(\underline{x}) - \underline{0}\| = \|f(\underline{x}) - f(\underline{0})\| = \|\underline{x} - \underline{0}\| = \|\underline{x}\|;$$

the difficulty is to show that f is a linear map. To showing that f preserves inner products first note that since $\left\|\underline{x} - \underline{y}\right\|^2 = \|\underline{x}\|^2 + \left\|\underline{y}\right\|^2 - 2\left\langle \underline{x}, \underline{y} \right\rangle$ we have the *polarization identity*

$$\left\langle \underline{x}, \underline{y} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{2}\left[\|\underline{x}\|^2 + \left\|\underline{y}\right\|^2 - \left\|\underline{x} - \underline{y}\right\|^2\right].$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \left\langle f(\underline{x}), f(\underline{y}) \right\rangle &= \frac{1}{2}\left[\|f(\underline{x})\|^2 + \left\|f(\underline{y})\right\|^2 - \left\|f(\underline{x}) - f(\underline{y})\right\|^2\right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2}\left[\|\underline{x}\|^2 + \left\|\underline{y}\right\|^2 - \left\|\underline{x} - \underline{y}\right\|^2\right] \\ &= \left\langle \underline{x}, \underline{y} \right\rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Next let $\{\underline{e}_i\}_{i=1}^n$ be the standard orthonormal basis. Since f preserves inner products, $\underline{u}_i = f(\underline{e}_i)$ also form an orthonormal basis, and there is a unique linear map $g \in \mathrm{O}(n)$ such that $g\underline{e}_i = \underline{u}_i$. We conclude by showing that $f = g$. For this let $\underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and let $a_i = \langle \underline{x}, \underline{e}_i \rangle$. Then $\underline{x} = \sum_i a_i \underline{e}_i$ and since

$$\langle f(\underline{x}), \underline{u}_i \rangle = \langle f(\underline{x}), f(\underline{e}_i) \rangle = \langle \underline{x}, \underline{e}_i \rangle = a_i$$

we have

$$f(\underline{x}) = \sum_i a_i \underline{u}_i = \sum_i a_i g\underline{e}_i = g\left(\sum_i a_i \underline{e}_i\right) = g\underline{x}.$$

□

EXERCISE 188. Let $V = \left\{T_{\underline{a}} \mid \underline{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n\right\} \subset \mathrm{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ be the group of translations. This is a subgroup isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^n$, and $\mathrm{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is the semidirect product $\mathrm{O}(n) \ltimes V$.

EXERCISE 189. The orbits of $\mathrm{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ on the space of pairs $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n$ are exactly the sets $D_a = \left\{(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) \mid \left\|\underline{x} - \underline{y}\right\| = a\right\}$ $(a \geq 0)$.

CHAPTER 4

p-Groups and Sylow's Theorems

4.1. p groups (Lecture 14)

We start with a partial converse to Lagrange's Theorem.

THEOREM 190 (Cauchy 1845). *Suppose that $p|\#G$. Then G has an element of order p.*

PROOF. Let G be a minimal counterexample. Consider the class equation

$$\#G = \#Z(G) + \sum_{i=1}^{h} [G : Z_G(g_i)]$$

$\{g_i\}_{i=1}^h$ are representatives for the non-central conjugacy classes. Then $Z_G(g_i)$ are proper subgroups, so by induction their order is prime to p. It follows that their index is divisible by p, so $p|\#Z(G)$ as well, and this group is non-trivial. Now let $x \in Z(G)$ be non-trivial. If the order of x is divisible by p we are done. Otherwise, the subgroup $N = \langle x \rangle$ is central, hence normal, and of order prime to p. Then Z/N has order divisible by p, and by induction an element $\bar{y}$ of order p. Let $y \in Z$ be any preimage. Then the order of y in Z is a multiple of the order of y in Z/N, hence a multiple of p and we are done. □

Here's another proof:

PROOF. Let $X = \left\{\underline{g} \in G^p \mid \prod_{i=1}^p g_i = e\right\}$. Then $\#X = (\#G)^{p-1}$ is divisible by p. The group C_p acts on X by permuting the coordinates. Let $Y \subset X$ be the set of fixed points. Then $\#Y \equiv \#X\,(p)$, so $p|\#Y$. But Y is in bijection with the set of elements of order divisible by p, which is non-empty since e is there. □

COROLLARY 191. *The number of elements of order exactly p is congruent to -1 mod p (in particular, it is non-zero).*

COROLLARY 192. *Let G be a finite group, p a prime. Then every element of G has order a power of p iff the order of G is a power of p.*

DEFINITION 193. Call G a p-group if every element of G has order a power of p.

Observe that if G is a finite p-group then the index of every subgroup is a power of p. It follows that every orbit of a G-action has either size 1 or size divisible by p. By the class equation we conclude that if G is a finite p-group and X is a finite G-set, we have:

$$|X| \equiv |\{x \in X \mid \mathrm{Stab}_G(x) = G\}| \mod p\,. \tag{4.1.1}$$

THEOREM 194. *Let G be a finite p-group. Then $Z(G) \neq 1$.*

PROOF. Let G act on itself by conjugation. The number of conjugacy classes of size 1 must be divisible by p. □

LEMMA 195. *If $G/Z(G)$ is cyclic it is trivial and G is commutative.*

PROOF. Suppose that $G/Z(G)$ is generated by the image of $g \in G$. We first claim that every $x \in G$ is of the form $x = g^k z$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, $z \in Z(G)$. Indeed, the image of x mod $Z(G)$ is in the cyclic subgroup generated by g, so there is k such that

$$x \equiv g^k (Z(G))$$

which means

$$x = g^k z.$$

Now suppose that $x = g^k z$ and $y = g^l w$ where $k, l \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $z, w \in Z(G)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} xy &= g^k z g^l w = g^k g^l z w = g^{k+l} z w \\ yx &= g^l w g^k z = g^l g^k w z = g^{k+l} z w. \end{aligned}$$

□

PROPOSITION 196 (Groups of order p^2, p^3). .

(1) Let G have order p^2. Then G is abelian, in fact isomorphic to one of C_{p^2} and $C_p \times C_p$.
(2) Let G be an abelian group of order p^3. Then G is one of C_{p^3}, $C_{p^2} \times C_p$, $C_p \times C_p \times C_p$.
(3) Let G be non-commutative, of order p^3. Then $Z(G) \simeq C_p$ and $G/Z(G) \simeq C_p \times C_p$.

PROOF.

(1) The order of $Z(G)$ is a divisor of p^2, not equal to 1. If it was p then $G/Z(G)$ would have order p and be cyclic. It follows that $Z(G) = G$ and G is abelian. If G has an element of order p^2 then $G \simeq C_{p^2}$. Otherwise the order of each element of G divides p.
   (a) Let $x \in G$ have order p, and let $y \in G - \langle x \rangle$. Then $y \neq e$ so y also has order p. Consider the map $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^2 \to G$ given by $f(a,b) = x^a y^b$. This is a well-defined homomorphism, which is injective and surjective.
   (b) Write the group law of G additively. For $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, $x \in G$ write $k \cdot g$ for $g^k = g + \cdots + g$ (k times). Since $g^p = e$ this is really defined for $k \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$. This endows G with the structure of a vector space over $\mathbb{F}_p$. It has p^2 elements so dimension 2, and fixing a basis gives an identificationwith $\left(\mathbb{F}_p^2, +\right) \simeq C_p^2$.

(2) We need to identify each possibility. There is $x \in G$ of order p^3 $G \simeq C_{p^3}$. If every non-identity $x \in G$ has order p then the argument of (1) gives $G \simeq C_p \times C_p \times C_p$. Otherwise there are some elements of order p^2, but none of order p^3. Now the map $g \mapsto g^p$ is a homomorphism $G \to G$. Its kernel is the elements of order dividing p (must be non-trivial!) so its image is a proper subgroup, to be detnoed G^p. This subgroup is non-trivial because the pth power of an element of order p^2 has order p. Suppose first G^p has order p^2. It can't be $\simeq C_{p^2}$ (if $x^p \in G^p$ had order p^2 then x has order p^3 and G would be cyclic) so it would be $C_p \times C_p$. Now let $x \in G$ have order p^2. Then $x^p \in G^p$ is non-trivial. By part (a) there is $y \in C^p$ such that $G^p = \langle x^p \rangle \langle y \rangle$. Then $\langle y \rangle$ is disjoint from $\langle x \rangle$ and we get $G = \langle x \rangle \langle y \rangle \simeq C_{p^2} \times C_p$, a contradiction (since for this group $G^p \simeq C_p$). We conclude that $G^p \simeq C_p$. Let $x \in G$ have order p^2, so that x^p generate G^p. Let $y \in G \setminus \langle x \rangle$. If y has order p we are done. Suppose y has order p^2. Then $y^p \in G^p = \langle x^p \rangle$ is non-trivia, hence of the form x^{kp} for some k prime to p. Let $\bar{k}$ be inverse to k mod p. Then $z = y^{\bar{k}}$ has $\langle z \rangle = \langle y \rangle$so

it still has order p^2 and still lies outside $\langle x\rangle$. Finally, by contruction $z^p = x^p$ so $zx^{-1} \notin \langle x\rangle$ has order p and we are done.

□

4.2. Example: groups of order pq (Lecture 15)

4.2.1. Classification of groups of order 6. To start with, we know C_6, S_3, D_6. C_6 is not isomorphic to the other two (it is abelian, they are not). $S_3 \simeq D_6$. For this note that D_6 is the isometry group of a the complete graph on 3 vertices, so isomorphic to S_3. We now show that C_6, D_6 are the only two isomorphism classes at order 6.

REMARK 197. For every n we have the group C_n, so that group must be there.

Accordingly, fix a group G of order 6. By Cauchy's Theorem 190, is it has a subgroup P of order 2, a subgroup Q of order 3. Note that the subgroup $P \cap Q$ must have order dividing both $2, 3$ so it is trivial.

LEMMA 198. *Let $P, Q < G$ satisfy $P \cap Q = \{e\}$. Then the (set) map $P \times Q \to PQ$ given by $(x, y) \mapsto xy$ is a bijection.*

PROOF. If $xy = x'y'$ then $x^{-1}x' = y(y')^{-1} \in P \cap Q = \{e\}$so $x = x'$ and $y = y'$. □

REMARK 199. In general there is a bijection between $PQ \times P \cap Q \leftrightarrow P \times Q$.

It follows that $\#PQ = \#P \times \#Q = 6 = \#G$ so $G = PQ$.

CLAIM. Q is normal (Can simply say that Q has index 2, but we give a different argument which generalizes).

PROOF. Let $\mathcal{C} = \left\{gQg^{-1} \mid g \in G\right\}$ be the congugacy class of Q. Since $G = PQ$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{C} &= \left\{xyQy^{-1}x^{-1} \mid x \in P, y \in Q\right\} \\ &= \left\{xQx^{-1} \mid x \in P\right\} \\ &= \left\{Q, aQa^{-1}\right\} \end{aligned}$$

if we parametrize $P = \{1, a\}$. Suppose that $Q' = aQa^{-1} \neq Q$. Now $Q \simeq Q' \simeq C_3$, and $Q' \cap Q$ is a subgroup of both. It's not of order 3 (this would force $Q = Q'$) so it is trivial. It now follows from the Lemma that $\#QQ' = 9 > \#G$, a contrdiction. □

It follows that $G = PQ$ where Q is a normal subgroup and $P \cap Q = \{e\}$, that is $G = P \ltimes Q$.
Note that if $xy, x'y' \in PQ$ then

$$(x'y')(xy) = \left[x'x\right]\left[(x^{-1}y'x)y\right].$$

In particular, to the product structure on $P \ltimes Q$ is determined by the conjugation action of P on Q. Parametrizing $P = \{e, a\}$, the action of e is trivial, so it remains to determine aya^{-1} for $y \in Q$. We note that $(aya^{-1})^2 = aya^{-1}aya^{-1} = ay^2a^{-1}$ so parametrizing $Q = \left\{1, b, b^2\right\}$ it remains to choose aba^{-1}. This must be one of b, b^2 (non-identity elements are not conjugate to the identity), so there are most two isomorphism classes.

REMARK 200. Having constructed two non-isomorphic groups, we are done, but we'd like to discover them anew.

Case 1. If $aba^{-1} = b$ then a, b commute, so P, Q commute, so $G \simeq P \times Q$ (internal direct product). But this means $G \simeq C_2 \times C_3 \simeq C_6$ by the Chinese Remainder Theorem 31.

Case 2. If $aba^{-1} = b^2 = b^{-1}$ then also $ab^2a = (b^2)^{-1}$ and we have D_6: $\left\{1, b, b^2\right\}$ are the rotations, and a is the reflection.

4.2.2. Classification of groups of order pq. Let $p < q$ be distinct primes (the case $p = q$ was dealt with before). Fix a group G of order pq. By Cauchy's Theorem 190, is it has a subgroup P of order p, a subgroup Q of order q. Note that the subgroup $P \cap Q$ must have order dividing both p, q so it is trivial.

Again by Lemma 198 we have $\#PQ = pq = \#G$ so $G = PQ$.

CLAIM. Q is normal (now $[G : Q] = p$ can be greater than 2).

PROOF. Let $\mathcal{C} = \left\{gQg^{-1} \mid g \in G\right\}$ be the congugacy class of Q. Since $G = PQ$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{C} &= \left\{xyQy^{-1}x^{-1} \mid x \in P, y \in Q\right\} \\ &= \left\{xQx^{-1} \mid x \in P\right\}. \end{aligned}$$

In other words, $\mathcal{C}$ is a single orbit for the action of P by conjugation. By the orbit-stabilizer theorem (Lemma 198), this must have size dividing $\#P = p$ so either 1 or p. Assume Q not normal, so the size is p. Now consider the action of Q on $\mathcal{C}$ by conjugation. Each Q-orbit can have size q or 1, but since $q > p$ there is no room for an orbit of size 1. We conclude that every $Q' \in \mathcal{C}$ is normalized by Q.

Since $p \geq 2$ there is some $Q' \in C_c$ different than Q, and again we have $Q \cap Q' = \{e\}$ since these groups are different, and hence $\#(QQ') = q^2 > pq = \#G$, a contradiction. □

It follows that $G = PQ$ where Q is a normal subgroup and $P \cap Q = \{e\}$, that is $G = P \ltimes Q$. Again the product structure on $P \ltimes Q$ is determined by the conjugation action of P on Q. Let a, b generate P, Q respectively. Then $aba^{-1} = b^k$ for some k. We claim that this fixed the whole action.

First, by induction on j, we have $ab^ja^{-1} = \left(b^j\right)^k$ so $aya^{-1} = y^k$ for all $y \in Q$. Second, by induction on i, $a^iya^{-i} = y^{(k^i)}$ (composition of homomorphisms). We see that it remains to choose k.

Note that $a^p = e$ and that $b = a^pba^{-p} = b^{k^p}$ so we must have $k^p \equiv 1\,(q)$, that is k must have order dividing p in $(\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z})^\times$.

Case 1. If $aba^{-1} = b$ then a, b commute, so P, Q commute and $G \simeq C_p \times C_q \simeq C_{pq}$ by the Chinese Remainder Theorem 31.

Case 2. If $aba^{-1} = b^k$ for $k \not\equiv 1\,(q)$. Then k has order exactly p in $(\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z})^\times$. Lagrange's Theorem then forces $p|q-1$ so $q \equiv 1\,(p)$. Conversely, suppose that this is the case. Then by Cauchy's theorem, $(\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z})^\times$ has elements of order p, so a non-commutative semidirect product exists. Since $(\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z})^\times$ is cyclic, the elements of order p form a unique cyclic subgroups, so they are all powers of each other. In particular, replacing a with a power gives an isomorphism, and we see there is only one isomorphism class of non-commutative groups in this case, of the form:

$$\left\langle a, b \mid a^p = b^q = e, aba^{-1} = q^k \right\rangle$$

where k is an element of order p in $(\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z})^\times$.

4.2.3. More detail, and examples (Lecture 16, 5/11/2015).

- Explicitely parametrize G as $\left\{a^i b^j \mid i \mod p, j \mod q\right\}$.
  - Every hom $C_n \to C_n$ must be of the form $x \mapsto x^k$. Composing two such gives the hom $x \mapsto x^{kl}$, so have an *automorphism* if k is invertible mod q. In other words, $\mathrm{Aut}(C_n) \simeq (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$.
  - For any k mod q can try to define the product
$$\left(a^{i'} b^{j'}\right)\left(a^i b^j\right) = a^{i'+i} b^{j' k^{-i}+j}$$
where k^{-r} is the power in $\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$.
  - Makes sense only if $k^p \equiv 1\,(q)$ so that a^p acts correctly. This can happen only if $q \equiv 1\,(p)$.
  - If $q \equiv 1\,(p)$ then by Cauchy there are elements of order p and we can make the definition.
  - If we replace k by k^r we can replace a with a^r (with $a^{\bar{r}}$) to get isomorphism of the semidirect products, so only one semidirect product
- Understand in detail how a group of order 3 cannot act on a group of order 5.
- Understand in details that the two non-trivial actions of C_3 on C_7 give isomorphic groups $C_3 \ltimes C_7$.

4.3. Sylow's Theorems (Lectures 17–19)

We substantially strengthen Cauchy's Theorem.

4.3.1. The Sylow Theorems (Lecture 17). Fix a group G of order n, and let $n = p^r m$ where $p \nmid m$.

THEOREM 201 (Sylow I). *If $p^i | n$ then G contains a subgroup of order p^i.*

PROOF. By induction on i, the case $i = 0$ being trivial. Accordingly let p^{i+1} divide the order of G, and let $H < G$ be a subgroup of order p^i. Let H act from the left on G/H. Since H is a p-group, $\#\mathrm{Fix}(H) \equiv \#(G/H)\ (p)$, so $p | \#\mathrm{Fix}(H)$. Now $gH \in \mathrm{Fix}(H)$iff for all $h \in H$ we have
$$hgH = gH \iff hgHg^{-1} = gHg^{-1} \iff h \in gHg^{-1}$$
so $gH \in \mathrm{Fix}(H)$ iff $H \subset gHg^{-1}$. Since these groups have the same order, we see that $gH \in \mathrm{Fix}(H)$ iff $g \in N_G(H)$, so $\mathrm{Fix}(H) = N_G(H)/H$. It follows that the group $N_G(H)/H$ has order divisible by p. By Cauchy's Theorem (Theorem 190), it has a subgroup C of order p, whose inverse image in $N_G(H)$ has order $p \cdot p^i = p^{i+1}$. □

REMARK 202. Note that we actually showed that if G contains a subgroup H of order p^i, and if $[G : H]$ is divisible by p^j, then H is contained in a subgroup of order p^{i+j}.

COROLLARY 203. *Then every maximal (by inclusion) p-subgroup of G has order p^r.*

DEFINITION 204. A maximal p-subgroup of G is called a *p-Sylow subgroup* of G. We write $\mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$ for the set of such subgroup and $n_p(G) = \#\mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$ for their number.

Note that a subgroup conjugate to a Sylow subgroup is a again a Sylow subgroup.

LEMMA 205. *Let P be a normal p-Sylow subgroup of G. Then P contains every p-subgroup of G, and in particular is the* unique *p-Sylow subgroup.*

PROOF. Let P' be any p-subgroup of G. Then PP' is a p-subgroup of G containing P, hence equal to P. It follows that $P' < P$. □

THEOREM 206 (Sylow II,III). *The p-Sylow subgroups of G are all conjugate (in particular, $n_p(G)|n$). Furthermore, $n_p(G) \equiv 1\,(p)$ (so actually $n_p(G)|m$).*

PROOF. Let P be a p-Sylow subgroup, and consider the action of P on $\mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$ by conjugation. Then P fixes $P' \in \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$ iff $P < N_G(P')$. This would make both P, P' be p-Sylow subgroups of $N_G(P')$, so by the Lemma $P = P'$. It follows that P has a unique fixed point, so $n_p(G) \equiv 1$.

Now let $\{P^g\}_{g\in G} \subset \mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$ be the set of p-Sylow subgroups conjugate to P. The size of this set is $[G : N_G(P)] \,\Big|\, [G : P]$ and is therefore prime to p (in fact, it is $\equiv 1\,(p)$ by the previous argument). Let P' be any p-Sylow subgroup. Then P' acts on $\{P^g\}_{g\in G}$ by conjugation; the number of fixed points is prime to p, and hence is non-zero. But the only fixed point of P' on $\mathrm{Syl}_p(G)$ is P' itself, so P' is conjugate to P. It follows that $n_p(G) = [G : N_G(P)]$, which divides n. □

REMARK 207. If $n = p^k m$ with $p \nmid m$, then we actually saw $n_p(G) \,|\, [G : P] = m$.

4.3.2. Applications I (Lecture 18).

EXAMPLE 208. The only groups of order 12 are C_{12}, $C_2 \times C_6$, A_4, $C_2 \times S_3$ and $C_4 \ltimes C_3$.

PROOF. G be a group of order 12. Then $n_2(G)|3$, so $n_2(G) \in \{1,3\}$, and $n_3(G)|4$ while $\equiv 1\,(3)$ so $n_3(G) \in \{1,4\}$.

Case 1. $n_3(G) = 4$. Then the action of G by conjugation on $\mathrm{Syl}_3(G)$ gives a homomorphism $G \to S_4$. We have $N_G(P_3) = P_3$ and since this isn't normal and has no non-trivial subgroups, the kernel of the map is trivial. The group G contains 8 elements of order 3, and S_4 has $2\binom{4}{3} = 8$ such elements, so the image contains all elements of order 3, hence the subgroup A_4 generated by them. But A_4 has order 12, so $G \simeq A_4$

Case 2. $n_3(G) = 1$. Then $G \simeq P_2 \ltimes P_3$, and it remains to classify the actions of a group of order 4 on a group of order 3.

- *Case* i. The action is trivial ($G \simeq P_2 \times P_3$). Then either $G \simeq C_4 \times C_3 \simeq C_{12}$ or $G \simeq C_2 \times C_2 \times C_3$. Here $n_2(G) = 1$.
- *Case* ii. The action is non-trivial and $P_2 \simeq V$. Since $\mathrm{Aut}(C_3) \simeq C_2$, we can write $V \simeq K \times C_2$ where K is the kernel of the action. Then $G \simeq K \times (C_2 \ltimes C_3) \simeq C_2 \times S_3$. Here $n_2(G) = 3$ since P_2 does not commute with P_3.
- *Case* iii. The action is non-trivial and $P_2 \simeq C_4$. Since there is a unique non-trivial homomorphism $C_4 \to C_2$ (reduction mod 2), there is a unique semidirect product $C_4 \ltimes C_3$. Here also $n_2(G) = 3$.

□

EXAMPLE 209. There is no simple group of order 30.

PROOF. Let G be a simple group of order 30. Numerology gives $n_3 \in \{1,10\}$ and $n_5(G) \in \{1,6\}$, but can't have a unique p-Sylow subgroup, so $n_3(G) = 10$, $n_5(G) = 6$. This means G has 20 elements of order 2, 24 elements of order 5, which add up to more than 30 elements. □

4.3.3. Applications II (Lecture 19).

EXAMPLE 210. Let G be a simple group of order 60. Then $G \simeq A_5$

PROOF. Numerology gives $n_2(G) \in \{1,3,5,15\}$, $n_3(G) \in \{1,4,10\}$ and $n_5(G) \in \{1,6\}$.

Can't have $n_p(G) = 1$ by simplicity. In fact, can't have $n_p(G) \leq 4$ since a hom to S_4 would have kernel, so have

$$n_2 \in \{5,15\}, n_3 = 10, n_5 = 6.$$

In particular, there are $10 \cdot (3-1) = 20$ elements of order 3 and $6 \cdot (5-1) = 24$ elements of order 4.

Case 1. $n_2(G) = 5$. Then the action of G by conjugation on $\mathrm{Syl}_3(G)$ gives a homomorphism $G \to S_5$. The kernel is a proper subgroup of any P_3, so is trivial. The image contains 20 elements of order 3, while S_5 has $\frac{5\cdot 4\cdot 3}{3} = 20$ such, so it contains all of them. They generate A_5, so the image is A_5.

Case 2. $n_2(G) = 15$. We have at most $60 - 20 - 24 - 1 = 15$ non-identity 2-elements, which means that the 2-Sylow subgroups must intersect. Accordingly let $x \in G$ be a non-identity element belonging to two distinct 2-Sylow subgroups. Then $C_G(x)$ properly contains a 2-Sylow subgroup, its index properly divides 15 (but isn't 1 since $Z(G)$ is normal). This gives an action on a set of size 3 or 5. The first case is impossible.

□

EXAMPLE 211 (PS9). No group of order p^2q or p^2q^2 is simple.

CHAPTER 5

Finitely Generated Abelian Groups

5.1. Statements (Lecture 20)

5.1.1. Prime factorization. Let A be a finite Abelian group of order n. For each $p|n$ let

$$A_p = A[p^\infty] = \bigcup_{j=0}^{\infty} A[p^j] = \left\{a \in A \mid \exists j : p^j a = 0\right\}.$$

This is a subgroup (increasing union of subgroups) containing all p-elements, hence the unique p-Sylow subgroup. By PS9 we have

$$A \simeq \prod_p A_p,$$

and the A_p are unique. Thus, to classify finite abelian groups it's enough to classify finite abelian p-groups.

5.1.2. Example: groups of order 8. Order 8: if some element has order 8, we have C_8. Otherwise, find an element of order 4. This gives all elements of order 4 mod elements of order 2, so find another element of order 2 and get $C_4 \times C_2$. If every element has order 2 we have C_2^3.

5.1.3. Theorems.

THEOREM 212 (Classification of finite abelian groups). *Every finite abelian group can be written as a product of cyclic p-groups, uniquely up to permutation of the factors.*

COROLLARY 213 (Invariant factors). *Every finite abelian group can be uniquely written in the form* $\prod_{j=1}^{d} C_{d_j}$ *with the* invariant factors $d_1|d_2|\cdots|d_r$.

What about infinite groups? We call a group *finitely generated* if it has a finite generating set (for example, any finite group is).

THEOREM 214 (Fundamental theorem of finitely generated abelian groups). *Let A be a finitely generated abelian group. Then* $A \simeq \mathbb{Z}^r \times A_{\text{tors}}$ *for a unique integer r called the* rank *of A.*

5.1.4. Examples.

(1) Counting elements of order p or p^2 in a finite abelian group.
(2) Finding subgroups of finite abelian groups.
(3) Elliptic curves over finite fields and crypto
(4) The Mordell-Weil group of an elliptic curve and the BS-D conjecture.

5.2. Proofs

The material in this section is not examinable.

5.2.1. Uniqueness in the finite case. By the reduction before, enough to consider abelian p-groups.

PROPOSITION 215. *Suppose $\prod_{i=1}^{r} C_{p^{e_i}} \simeq \prod_{j=1}^{s} C_{p^{f_j}}$. Then $r = s$ and $f_j = e_{\sigma(j)}$ for some $\sigma \in S_r$.*

PROOF. Let $A \simeq \prod_{i=1}^{r} C_{p^{e_i}}$. Then $a \in A$ has order p iff has order p in each factor, so $A[p] \simeq C_p^r$; in particular r is uniquely defined and $r = s$. Next, we have

$$A/A[p] \simeq \prod_{i=1}^{r} \left(C_{p^{e_i}}/C_p\right) \simeq \prod_{e_i>1} C_{p^{e_i-1}}$$

and for the same reason

$$A/A[p] \simeq \prod_{f_j>1} C_{p^{f_j-1}}\,.$$

By induction on the order of A, both products have the same number of factors, so in particular $r' = \#\{i \mid e_i > 1\} = \#\left\{i \mid f_j > 1\right\}$ so both products have the same number of factors isomorphic to C_p $(r - r')$. Ordering them to be last, we also have $\sigma \in S_{r'}$ such that $f_j - 1 = e_{\sigma(j)} - 1$ and this shows that the e_i and f_j are the same up to reordering. □

5.2.2. Existence in the finite case. By the reduction before, enough to consider abelian p-groups. In this section we write the group operation additively.

PROPOSITION 216. *Let A be a finite abelian p-group. Then A is isomorphic to a product of cyclic groups.*

Let e be maximal such that A has elements of order p^e, and consider the map $A \to A$ given by $f_e(a) = p^{e-1} \cdot a$. The image lies in $A[p]$, so is a subspace there.

- Let $\{c_{e,i}\}_{i=1}^{I_e} \subset f_e(A)$ be a basis.
- Let $b_{e,i} \in A$ be such that $f_e(b_{e,i}) = c_{e,i}$.

CLAIM 217. The map $h_e\colon (\mathbb{Z}/p^e\mathbb{Z})^{I_e} \to A$ given by

$$h_e(\underline{x}^e) = \sum_i x_i^e b_{e,i}$$

is an isomorphism onto its image $B_e = \langle\{b_{e,i}\}\rangle$.

PROOF. Each $b_{e,i}$ has $p^e b_{e,i} = 0$ so the map is well-defined. Its image is a subgroup containing B_e and consisting of words in the $\{b_{e,i}\}$ hence equal to B_e. To compute the kernel, let $k \le e$ be maximal such that there are $x_i' \in \mathbb{Z}$, not all divisible by p, for which $\underline{x} = p^k \underline{x}' \in \mathrm{Ker}(h_e)$. For such k and x_i' we have

$$\sum_i p^k x_i' b_{e,i} = 0\,.$$

Suppose $k \le e-1$. Raising to the power p^{e-1-k} we get

$$\sum_i x_i' c_{e,i} = 0$$

where not all x_i' are prime to p, which contradicts the linear independence of the $\{c_{e,i}\}$ over $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$. □

Continuing recursively

CLAIM 218. We have $A = B_e + A[p^{e-1}]$.

PROOF. By construction $f_e(B_e)$ contains a basis for $f_e(A)$ so $f_e(B_e) = f_e(A)$. Accordingly let $a \in A$. Then there is $b \in B_e$ such that $f_e(a) = f_e(b)$. Then $a - b \in \mathrm{Ker}(f_e) = A[p^{e-1}]$ so $a \in b + A[p^{e-1}] \subset B_e + A[p^{e-1}]$. □

Unfortunately this sum is not direct, so we have to work harder.

- Let $f_{e-1} \colon A[p^{e-1}] \to A[p]$ be given by $f_{e-1}(a) = p^{e-2} \cdot a$.
- Since $pB_e \subset A[p^{e-1}]$ and since $f_{e-1}(pa) = f_e(a)$ we see that $f_{e-1}\left(A[p^{e-1}]\right) \supset f_e(A)$.
- Let $\left\{c_{e-1,i}\right\}_{i=1}^{I_{e-1}} \subset f_{e-1}\left(A[p^{e-1}]\right)$ extend $\{c_{e,i}\}_{i=1}^{I_e}$ to a basis of $f_{e-1}\left(A[p^{e-1}]\right)$.
- Let $\left\{b_{e-1,i}\right\}_{i=1}^{I_{e-1}} \subset A[p^{e-1}]$ be such that $f_{e-1}\left(b_{e-1,i}\right) = c_{e-1,i}$.

PROOF. Now let $a \in A$. We have $a^{p^{e-1}}$ in the image of the map, so we can remove an element of A_{p^e} and get an element of $A[p^{e-1}]$. It follows that it is enough to generate that. □

Accordingly consider the map $A[p^{e-1}] \to A[p]$ given by $a \mapsto a^{p^{e-2}}$. The image contains the image of the previous map; extend the previous basis to a new basis, and pull back $\left\{b_{e-1,i}\right\}_{i=1}^{I_{e-1}}$.

CLAIM 219. The map $h_{e-1} \colon \left(\mathbb{Z}/p^e\mathbb{Z}\right)^{I_e} \times \left(\mathbb{Z}/p^{e-1}\mathbb{Z}\right)^{I_{e-1}} \to A$ given by

$$h_{e-1}(\underline{x}^e, \underline{x}^{e-1}) = \sum_i x_i^e b_{e,i} + \sum_i x_i^{e-1} b_{e-1,i}$$

is an isomorphism onto its image $B_e \oplus B_{e-1} = \left\langle \{b_{e,i}\} \cup \left\{b_{e-1,i}\right\} \right\rangle$.

PROOF. Each $b_{e-1,i}$ has $p^{e-1} b_{e,i} = 0$ so the map is well-defined. Its image is clearly generated by $\{b_{e,i}\} \cup \left\{b_{e-1,i}\right\}$. To compute the kernel suppose

$$h_{e-1}(\underline{x}^e, \underline{x}^{e-1}) = 0\,.$$

Applying f_e (which kills the $b_{e-1,i}$) and using that $\{c_{e,i}\}$ are linearly independent over $\mathbb{F}_p$ we see that x_i^e are all divisible by p. Now let $k \leq e-1$ be maximal such that there is $(\underline{x}^e, \underline{x}^{e-1}) \in \mathrm{Ker}\, h_{e-1}$ with $\underline{x}^{e-1}$ divisible by p^k, $\underline{x}^e$ divisible by p^{k+1}. Multiply by p^{e-1-k} we get $\bar{x}_i^e, \bar{x}_i^{e-1}$, not all zero mod p, such that

$$\sum_i \bar{x}_i^e c_{e,i} + \sum_i \bar{x}_i^{e-1} c_{e-1,i} = 0\,.$$

But this is a contradiction to the choice of the basis for $f_{e-1}\left(A[p^{e-1}]\right)$. □

CLAIM 220. We have $A = (B_e \oplus B_{e-1}) + A[p^{e-2}]$.

PROOF. Enough to show $A[p^{e-1}] = B_{e-1} + A[p^{e-2}]$ which has the same proof as before. □

Now continue recursively.

5.2.3. Finitely generated abelian groups. Let $\underline{e}_i \in \mathbb{Z}^d$ be the standard basis vector (the vector with 1 at the ith position and zero elsewhere).

PROPOSITION 221. *$\mathbb{Z}^d$ is free: for any abelian group A and any $\{a_i\}_{i=1}^d \subset A$ there is a unique homomorphism $f \colon \mathbb{Z}^d \to A$ such that $f(\underline{e}_i) = a_i$.*

PROOF. Define $f\colon \mathbb{Z}^d \to A$ by $f(\underline{n}) = n_1a_1 + \cdots + n_da_d$. This is a group homomorphism since A is abelian:

$$\begin{aligned} f(\underline{n}+\underline{m}) &= \sum_{i=1}^{d} (n_i+m_i)\, a_i = \sum_{i=1}^{d} (n_ia_i + m_ia_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{d} n_ia_i + \sum_{i=1}^{d} m_ia_i = f(\underline{n}) + f(\underline{m})\,. \end{aligned}$$

That $f(\underline{e}_i) = a_i$ holds by construction, and that f is unique follows from the general fact: □

EXERCISE 222. Let $f, g \in \mathrm{Hom}(G,H)$ and let $X \subset G$. If $f \restriction_X = g \restriction_X$ then $f \restriction_{\langle X\rangle} = g \restriction_{\langle X\rangle}$.

LEMMA-DEFINITION 223. *Let A be a finitely generated torsion-free abelian group. Then there are ("*primitive elements*") $a \in A$ such that if $a = n \cdot b$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $b \in A$ then $n = \pm 1$.*

PROOF. Let $S \subset A$ be a finite generating set. Then it spans the vector space $\mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} A$. Let $S_0 \subset S$ be a basis. Then $\langle S_0\rangle \simeq \mathbb{Z}^{\#S_0}$ and every element of S, hence A, has bounded denominator wrt S_0. □

THEOREM 224. *Every finitely-generated torsion-free abelian group is free.*

PROOF. By induction on $\dim_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} A)$. Let $a \in A$ be primitive. Then $\dim_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} (A/\langle a\rangle)) = \dim_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} A/\mathbb{Q}a) < \dim_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} A)$. Thus $A/\langle a\rangle$ is free, say $A/\langle a\rangle \simeq \mathbb{Z}^{r-1}$. Choose a section, and get a direct sum decomposition. □

THEOREM 225. *Every finitely generated abelian group is of the form $\mathbb{Z}^r \oplus A_{tors}$ for a finite abelian group A_{tors}.*

PROOF. Let A_{tors} be the torsion subgroup. Then A/A_{tors} is finitely generated and torsion-free, hence isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}^r$ for some r. Let $s\colon \mathbb{Z}^r \to A$ be a section for the quotient map (exists since $\mathbb{Z}^r$ is free). The map is injective (apply quotient map) so image is disjoint from the torsion, so $A \simeq \mathbb{Z}^r \times A_{\mathrm{tors}}$. This shows $A_{\mathrm{tors}} \simeq A/\mathbb{Z}^r$ so A_{tors} is also finitely generated, hence finite. □

CHAPTER 6

Solvable and Nilpotent groups

6.1. Nilpotence: Lecture 21

6.1.1. Nilpotent groups. In PS9 studied G such that $G/Z(G)$ is abelian – groups which are "nilpotent of order 2". Kick it up a notch: consider G such that $G/Z(G)$ are nilpotent of order 2 – call these "nilpotent of order 3".

DEFINITION 226. Call G nilpotent of order 0 if it is trivial; nilpotent of order $d+1$ if $G/Z(G)$ is nilpotent of order d.

EXAMPLE 227. Finite p-groups are nilpotent.

PROOF. By induction on the order: $Z(G)$ is always non-trivial, and $G/Z(G)$ is smaller. □

EXAMPLE 228. Products of p-groups.

EXERCISE 229. (PS10) A finite group is nilpotent iff it is a direct product of p-groups.

In more detail, let G be a group. Let $Z^0(G) = \{1\}$, $Z^{i+1}(G)$ the containing $Z^i(G)$ and corresponding to $Z\left(G/Z^i(G)\right)$. For example $Z^1(G) = Z(G)$.

LEMMA 230. *$Z^i(G)$ is an increasing sequence of normal subgroups.*

PROOF. $Z\left(G/Z^i(G)\right)$ is normal in $G/Z^i(G)$, now apply the correspondence theorem. □

DEFINITION 231. This is called the *ascending central series*.

EXAMPLE 232. Let $U_n = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & * & * \\ & \ddots & * \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \subset \mathrm{GL}_n(F)$ be the group of upper-triangular matrices with 1s on the diagonal. For example, $U_2 \simeq (F,+)$ and U_3 is the Heisenberg group.

EXERCISE 233. $Z(U_n)$ has zeroes everywhere except the upper right corner. $Z^2(U_n)$ has zeroes everywhere except the upper two diagonals and so on.

DEFINITION 234. Central series

THEOREM 235. *$Z^i(G)$ is the fastest-growing central series.*

DEFINITION 236. $\gamma^0(G) = G$, $\gamma^{i+1}(G) = \left[\gamma^i(G), G\right]$. Then these are all normal subgroups, $\gamma^i(G)/\gamma^{i+1}(G) \subset Z\left(G/\gamma^{i+1}(G)\right)$, and this is the fastest descending central series.

6.1.2. Solvable groups.

DEFINITION 237 (Normal series).

DEFINITION 238. G is solvable if it has a normal series with each quotient abelian.

EXAMPLE 239. Abelian groups. Upper-triangular group. Non-example: S_n, $n \geq 5$.

6.1.3. Motivation: Galois theory.

- Construction of Galois group of $f \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$.
- Main Theorem

6.2. Solvable groups: Lecture 22

- Refinement of normal series.
- Statement of Jordan–Hölder.

PROPOSITION 240. *Any subgroup of a solvable group is solvable.*

PROOF. Restrict normal series to subgroup. □

PROPOSITION 241. *Any quotient of a solvable group is solvable.*

PROOF. Take images of normal series. □

THEOREM 242. *Let $N \lhd G$. Then G is solvable iff $N, G/N$ are.*

PROOF. Stitch normal series. □

EXAMPLE 243. Every group of order pq, p^2q is solvable.

THEOREM 244 (Burnside [**1**]). *Every group of order $p^a q^b$ is solvable.*

CHAPTER 7

Topics

7.1. Minimal normal subgroups

7.1.1. Characteristically free subgroups.

7.1.2. The Socle.

7.1.3. Hall subgroups.

DEFINITION 245. Let G be a finite group. A *Hall subgroup* is a subgroup $H < G$ such that $\gcd(H,[G:H]) = 1$.

THEOREM 246 (M. Hall). *Let G be a solvable group of order mn with $(m,n) = 1$. Then G has a subgroup of order m.*

PROOF. Let G be a minimal counter-example, and let $M \lhd G$ be a minimal normal subgroup. Then M is elementary abelian (it is solvable), say of order p^r. If $p^r | m$ it suffices to pull back a subgroup of G/M of order m/p^r. Otherwise pulling back a subgroup of order m of G/M we may assume that $\#G = m \cdot p^r$. □

THEOREM 247 (Schur 1904, Zassenhaus 1937). *Let $H < G$ be a normal Hall subgroups. Then $G = Q \ltimes H$ for some $Q < G$.*

PROOF. Let $M \lhd G$ be a minimal normal subgroup, and let $\bar{Q}$ be a complement to $\bar{H} = HM/M$ in G/M. If $M \cap H = \{e\}$ then Q is a complement to H. Otherwise $M \subset H$, $Q \cap H = M$ and it's enough to find a complement to M in Q, that is assume that H is a minimal normal subgroup.

Now let $P < H$ be a non-trivial Sylow subgroup. By the Frattini argument, $G = HN_G(P)$. If $N_G(P)$ is a proper subgroup, we have reduced the problem to finding a complement to $N_H(P) = H \cap N_G(P)$ in $N_G(P)$, so we may assume $P \lhd G$. But H is a minimal normal subgroup, so $P = H$. We conclude that H is elementary abelian.

In the abelian case one directly computes the cohomology $H^2(G/H;H)$ and sees that it is trivial. □

Bibliography

[1] William Burnside. On groups of order $p^\alpha q^\beta$. *Proc. LMS*, 1:388–392, 1904.
[2] D. L. Johnson. Minimal permutation representations of finite groups. *Amer. J. Math.*, 93:857–866, 1971.