

1 Further Topics in Group Theory

1.1 p -Groups, Nilpotent Groups, and Solvable Groups

Definition. A *maximal subgroup* of a group G is a proper subgroup M of G such that there is no subgroups H of G with $M < H < G$.

Theorem 1. Let p be a prime and let P be a group of order p^a , $a \geq 1$. Then

1. The center of P is nontrivial: $Z(P) \neq 1$.
2. If H is a nontrivial normal subgroup of P then H contains a subgroup of order p^b that is normal in P for each divisor p^b of $|H|$. In particular, P has a normal subgroup of order p^b for every $b \in \{0, 1, \dots, a\}$.
3. If $H < P$ then $H < N_P(H)$ (i.e., every proper subgroup of P is a proper subgroup of its normalizer in P).
4. Every maximal subgroup of P is of index p and is normal in P .

Definition.

1. For any (finite or infinite) group G define the following subgroups inductively:

$$Z_0(G) = 1 \quad Z_1(G) = Z(G)$$

and $Z_{i+1}(G)$ is the subgroup of G containing $Z_i(G)$ such that

$$Z_{i+1}(G)/Z_i(G) = Z(G/Z_i(G))$$

(i.e., $Z_{i+1}(G)$ is the complete preimage in G of the center of $G/Z_i(G)$ under the natural projection). The chain of subgroups

$$Z_0(G) \leq Z_1(G) \leq Z_2(G) \leq \dots$$

is called the *upper central series* of G . (The use of the term “upper” indicates that $Z_i(G) \leq Z_{i+1}(G)$.)

2. A group G is called *nilpotent* if $Z_c(G) = G$ for some $c \in \mathbb{Z}$. The smallest c is called the *nilpotence class* of G .

Note.

1. If G is abelian then it is nilpotent since $G = Z(G) = Z_1(G)$.
2. The following containments are proper

cyclic groups \subset abelian groups \subset nilpotent groups \subset solvable groups \subset all groups

3. For any finite group there must, by order considerations, be an integer n such that

$$Z_n(G) = Z_{n+1} = Z_{n+2} = \dots$$

4. For infinite groups G it may happen that all $Z_i(G)$ are proper subgroups of G (so G is not nilpotent) but

$$G = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} Z_i(G).$$

Proposition 2. Let p be a prime and let P be a group of order p^a . Then P is nilpotent of nilpotence class at most $a - 1$ for all $a \geq 2$ (and class equal to a when $a = 0$ or 1).

Theorem 3. Let G be a finite group, let p_1, p_2, \dots, p_s be the distinct primes dividing its order and let $P_i \in \text{Syl}_{p_i}(G)$, $1 \leq i \leq s$. Then the following are equivalent:

1. G is nilpotent
2. if $H < G$ then $H < N_G(H)$, i.e., every proper subgroup of G is a proper subgroup of its normalizer in G
3. $P_i \trianglelefteq G$ for $1 \leq i \leq s$, i.e., every Sylow subgroup is normal in G
4. $G \cong P_1 \times P_2 \times \dots \times P_s$.

Corollary 4. A finite abelian group is the direct product of its Sylow subgroups.

Proposition 5. If G is a finite group such that for all positive integers n dividing its order, G contains at most n elements x satisfying $x^n = 1$, then G is cyclic.

Proposition 6. (Fratini's Argument) Let G be a finite group, let H be a normal subgroup of G and let P be a Sylow p -subgroup of H . Then $G = HN_G(P)$ and $|G : H|$ divides $|N_G(P)|$.

Proposition 7. A finite group is nilpotent if and only if every maximal subgroup is normal.

Definition. For any (finite or infinite) group G define the following subgroups inductively:

$$G^0 = G, \quad G^1 = [G, G] \quad \text{and} \quad G^{i+1} = [G, G^i].$$

The chain of groups

$$G^0 \geq G^1 \geq G^2 \geq \dots$$

is called the *lower central series* of G . (The term “lower” indicates that $G^i \geq G^{i+1}$.)

Theorem 8. A group G is nilpotent if and only if $G^n = 1$ for some $n \geq 0$. More precisely, G is nilpotent of class c if and only if c is the smallest nonnegative integer such that $G^c = 1$. If G is nilpotent of class c then

$$G^{c-i} \leq Z_i(G) \quad \text{for all } i \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, c\}.$$

Note.

1. If G is abelian, we have $G' = G^1 = 1$
2. If G is a finite group there must, by order considerations, be an integer n such that

$$G^n = G^{n+1} = G^{n+2} = \dots$$

Definition. For any group G define the following sequence of subgroups inductively:

$$G^{(0)} = G, \quad G^{(1)} = [G, G], \quad \text{and} \quad G^{(i+1)} = [G^{(i)}, G^{(i)}] \quad \text{for all } i \geq 1.$$

This series of subgroups is called the *derived* or *commutator series* of G .

Theorem 9. A group G is solvable if and only if $G^{(n)} = 1$ for some $n \geq 0$.

Proposition 10. Let G and K be groups, let H be a subgroup of G and let $\varphi: G \rightarrow K$ be a surjective homomorphism.

1. $H^{(i)} \leq G^{(i)}$ for all $i \geq 0$. In particular, if G is solvable, then so is H , i.e., subgroups of solvable groups are solvable (and the solvable length of H is less than or equal to the solvable length of G).
2. $\varphi(G^{(i)}) = K^{(i)}$. In particular, homomorphic images and quotient groups of solvable groups are solvable (of solvable length less than or equal to that of the domain group).
3. If N is normal in G and both N and G/N are solvable then so is G .

Theorem 11. Let G be a finite group.

1. (Burnside) If $|G| = p^a q^b$ for some primes p and q , then G is solvable.
2. (Philip Hall) If for every prime p dividing $|G|$ we factor the order of G as $|G| = p^a m$ where $(p, m) = 1$, and G has a subgroup of order m , then G is solvable (i.e., if for all primes p , G has a subgroup whose index equals the order of a Sylow p -subgroup, then G is solvable — such subgroups are called Sylow p -complements).
3. (Feit-Thompson) If $|G|$ is odd then G is solvable.
4. (Thompson) If for every pair of elements $x, y \in G$, $\langle x, y \rangle$ is a solvable group, then G is solvable.

1.2 Applications in Groups of Medium Order

Proposition 12.

1. If G has no subgroup of index 2 and $G \leq S_k$, then $G \leq A_k$.
2. If $P \in \text{Syl}_p(S_k)$ for some odd prime p , then $P \in \text{Syl}_p(A_k)$ and $|N_{A_k}(P)| = \frac{1}{2}|N_{S_k}(P)|$.

Lemma 13. In a finite group G is $n_p \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p^2}$, then there are distinct Sylow p -subgroups P and R of G such that $P \cap R$ is of index p in both P and R (hence is normal in each).

1.3 A word on Free Groups

Note. The way that a free group is defined is a bit involved and can be read on page 216

Theorem 16. $F(S)$ is a group under the binary operation defined on page 216.

Theorem 17. Let G be a group, S a set and $\varphi: S \rightarrow G$ a set map. Then there is a unique group homomorphism $\Phi: F(S) \rightarrow G$ such that the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} S & \xrightarrow{\text{inclusion}} & F(S) \\ & \searrow \varphi & \downarrow \Phi \\ & & G \end{array}$$

Corollary 18. $F(S)$ is unique up to a unique isomorphism which is the identity map on the set S .

Definition. The group $F(S)$ is called the *free group* on the set S . A group F is a *free group* if there is some set S such that $F = F(S)$ — in this case we call S a set of *free generators* (or a *free basis*) of F . The cardinality of S is called the *rank* of the free group.

Theorem 19. (Schreier) Subgroups of a free group are free.

Definition. Let S be a subset of a group G such that $G = \langle S \rangle$.

1. A *presentation* for G is a pair (S, R) , where R is a set of words in $F(S)$ such that the normal closure of $\langle R \rangle$ in $F(S)$ (the smallest normal subgroup containing $\langle R \rangle$) equals the kernel of the homomorphism $\pi: F(S) \rightarrow G$ (where π extends the identity map from S to S). The elements of S are called *generators* and those of R are called *relations* of G .
2. We say that G is *finitely generated* if there is a presentation (S, R) such that S is a finite set and we say G is *finitely presented* if there is a presentation (S, R) with both S and R finite sets.