Advanced Modern Algebra

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1 Things Past

1.1 Roots of Unity

Proposition 1.1 (Polar Decomposition). Every complex number z has a factorization

$$z = r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)$$

where $r = |z| \ge 0$ and $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$

Proposition 1.2 (Addition Theorem). If $z = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$ and $w = \cos \psi + i \sin \psi$, then

$$zw = \cos(\theta + \psi) + i\sin(\theta + \psi)$$

Theorem 1.3 (De Moivre). $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\cos(nx) + i\sin(nx) = (\cos x + i\sin x)^n$$

Theorem 1.4 (Euler). $e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$

Definition 1.5. If $n\in\mathbb{N}\geq 1$, an **nth root of unity** is a complex number ξ with $\xi^n=1$

Corollary 1.6. Every nth root of unity is equal to

$$e^{2\pi ik/n} = \cos(\frac{2\pi k}{n}) + i\sin(\frac{2\pi k}{n})$$

for $k = 0, 1, \dots, n - 1$

$$x^{n} - 1 = \prod_{\xi^{n} = 1} (x - \xi)$$

If ξ is an nth root of unity and if n is the smallest, then ξ is a **primitive** nth root of unity

Definition 1.7. If $d \in \mathbb{N}^+$, then the \$d\$th cyclotomic polynomial is

$$\Phi_d(x) = \prod (x - \xi)$$

where ξ ranges over all the *primitive dth* roots of unity

Proposition 1.8. For every integer $n \ge 1$

$$x^n - 1 = \prod_{d|n} \Phi_d(x)$$

Definition 1.9. Define **Euler** ϕ **-function** as the degree of the nth cyclotomic polynomial

$$\phi(n) = \deg(\Phi_n(x))$$

Proposition 1.10. If $n \ge 1$ is an integer, then $\phi(n)$ is the number of integers k with $1 \le k \le n$ and (k, n) = 1

Proof. Suffice to prove $e^{2\pi i k/n}$ is a primitive nth root of unity if and only if k and n are relatively prime

Corollary 1.11. For every integer $n \ge 1$, we have

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

2 Group I

2.1 Permutations

Definition 2.1. A **permutation** of a set *X* is a bijection from *X* to itself.

Definition 2.2. The family of all the permutations of a set X, denoted by S_X is called the **symmetric group** on X. When $X = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$, S_X is usually denoted by X_n and is called the **symmetric group on** n **letters**

Definition 2.3. Let i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_r be distinct integers in $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$. If $\alpha \in S_n$ fixes the other integers and if

$$\alpha(i_1) = i_2, \alpha(i_2) = i_3, \dots, \alpha(i_{r-1}) = i_r, \alpha(i_r) = i_1$$

then α is called an textbf{r-cycle}. α is a cycle of **length** r and denoted by

$$\alpha = (i_1 \ i_2 \ \dots \ i_r)$$

2-cycles are also called the **transpositions**.

Definition 2.4. Two permutations $\alpha, \beta \in S_n$ are **disjoint** if every i moved by one is fixed by the other.

Lemma 2.5. Disjoint permutations $\alpha, \beta \in S_n$ commute

Proposition 2.6. Every permutation $\alpha \in S_n$ is either a cycle or a product of disjoint cycles.

Proof. Induction on the number k of points moved by α

Definition 2.7. A **complete factorization** of a permutation α is a factorization of α into disjoint cycles that contains exactly one 1-cycle (i) for every i fixed by α

Theorem 2.8. Let $\alpha \in S_n$ and let $\alpha = \beta_1 \dots \beta_t$ be a complete factorization into disjoint cycles. This factorization is unique except for the order in which the cycles occur

Proof. for all
$$i$$
, if $\beta_t(i) \neq i$, then $\beta_t^k(i) \neq \beta_t^{k-1}(i)$ for any $k \geq 1$

Lemma 2.9. If $\gamma, \alpha \in S_n$, then $\alpha \gamma \alpha^{-1}$ has the same cycle structure as γ . In more detail, if the complete factorization of γ is

$$\gamma = \beta_1 \beta_2 \dots (i_1 \ i_2 \ \dots) \dots \beta_t$$

then $\alpha\gamma\alpha^{-1}$ is permutation that is obtained from γ by applying α to the symbols in the cycles of γ

Example. Suppose

$$\beta = (1\ 2\ 3)(4)(5)$$
$$\gamma = (5\ 2\ 4)(1)(3)$$

then we can easily find the α

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 5 & 2 & 4 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Theorem 2.10. Permutations γ and σ in S_n has the same cycle structure if and only if there exists $\alpha \in S_n$ with $\sigma = \alpha \gamma \alpha^{-1}$

Proposition 2.11. If $n \geq 2$ then every $\alpha \in S_n$ is a product of transositions

Proof.
$$(1\ 2\ \dots\ r) = (1\ r)(1\ r-1)\dots(1\ 2)$$

Definition 2.12. A permutation $\alpha \in S_n$ is **even** if it can be factored into a product of an even number of transpositions. Otherwise **odd**

Definition 2.13. If $\alpha \in S_n$ and $\alpha = \beta_1 \dots \beta_t$ is a complete factorization, then **signum** α is defined by

$$\operatorname{sgn}(\alpha) = (-1)^{n-t}$$

Theorem 2.14. For all $\alpha, \beta \in S_n$

$$\operatorname{sgn}(\alpha\beta) = \operatorname{sgn}(\alpha)\operatorname{sgn}(\beta)$$

Theorem 2.15. 1. Let $\alpha \in S_n$; if $sgn(\alpha) = 1$ then α is even. otherwise odd

2. A permutation α is odd if and only if it's a product of an odd number of transpositions

Corollary 2.16. Let $\alpha, \beta \in S_n$. If α and β have the same parity, then $\alpha\beta$ is even while if α and β have distinct parity, $\alpha\beta$ is odd

2.2 Groups

Definition 2.17. A **binary operation** on a set G is a function

$$*:G\times G\to G$$

Definition 2.18. A **group** is a set G equipped with a binary operation * s.t.

- 1. the associative law holds
- 2. identity
- 3. every $x \in G$ has an **inverse**, there is a $x' \in G$ with x * x' = e = x' * x

Definition 2.19. A group G is called **abelian** if it satisfies the **commutative** law

Lemma 2.20. Let G be a group

- 1. The **cancellation laws** holds: if either x * a = x * b or a * x = b * x, then a = b
- e is unique
- 3. Each $x \in G$ has a unique inverse
- 4. $(x^{-1})^{-1} = x$

Definition 2.21. An expression $a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$ needs no parentheses if all the ultimate products it yields are equal

Theorem 2.22 (Generalized Associativity). If G is a group and $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in G$ then the expression $a_1 a_2 \ldots a_n$ needs no parentheses

Definition 2.23. Let G be a group and let $a \in G$. If $a^k = 1$ for some k > 1 then the smallest such exponent $k \ge 1$ is called the **order** or a; if no such power exists, then one says that a has **infinite order**

Proposition 2.24. If G is a finite group, then every $x \in G$ has finite order

Definition 2.25. A **motion** is a distance preserving bijection $\varphi: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$. If π is a polygon in the plane, then its **symmetry group** $\Sigma(\pi)$ consists of all the motions φ for which $\varphi(\pi) = \pi$. The elements of $\Sigma(\pi)$ are called the **symmetries** of π

Let π_4 be a square. Then the group $\Sigma(\pi_4)$ is called the **dihedral group** with 8 elements, denoted by D_8

Definition 2.26. If π_n is a regular polygon with n vertices v_1, \ldots, v_n and center O, then the symmetry group $\Sigma(\pi_n)$ is called the {dihedral group} with 2n elements, and it's denoted by D_{2n}

2.3 Lagrange's theorem

Definition 2.27. A subset H of a group G is a **subgroup** if

- 1. $1 \in H$
- 2. if $x, y \in H$, then $xy \in H$
- 3. if $x \in H$, then $x^{-1} \in H$

If H is a subgroup of G, we write $H \leq G$. If H is a proper subgroup, then we write $H \leq G$

Proposition 2.28. A subset H of a group G is a subgroup if and only if H is nonempty and whenever $x,y\in H$, $xy^{-1}\in H$

Proposition 2.29. A nonempty subset H of a finite group G is a subgroup if and only if H is closed; that is, if $a, b \in H$, then $ab \in H$

Definition 2.30. If *G* is a group and $a \in G$

$$\langle a \rangle = \{a^n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{\text{all powers of } a\}$$

 $\langle a \rangle$ is called the **cyclic subgroup** of G **generated** by a. A group G is called **cyclic** if there exists $a \in G$ s.t. $G = \langle a \rangle$, in which case a is called the **generator**

Definition 2.31. The **integers mod** m, denoted by \mathbb{I}_m is the family of all congruence classes mod m

Proposition 2.32. Let $m \geq 2$ be a fixed integer

- 1. If $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, then [a] = [r] for some r with $0 \le r < m$
- 2. If $0 \le r' < r < m$, then $[r'] \ne [r]$
- 3. \mathbb{I}_m has exactly m elements

Theorem 2.33. 1. If $G = \langle a \rangle$ is a cyclic group of order n, then a^k is a generator of G if and only if (k, n) = 1

2. If G is a cyclic group of order n and $gen(G) = \{all \text{ generators of } G\}$, then

$$|gen(G)| = \phi(n)$$

where ϕ is the Euler ϕ -function

Proof. 1. there is $t \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $a^{kt} = a$ hence $a^{kt-1} = 1$ and $n \mid kt-1$

Proposition 2.34. Let G be a finite group and let $a \in G$. Then the order of a is $|\langle a \rangle|$.

Definition 2.35. If G is a finite group, then the number of elements in G, denoted by |G| is called the **order** of G

Proposition 2.36. The intersection $\bigcap_{i \in I} H_i$ of any family of subgroups of a group G is again a subgroup of G

Corollary 2.37. If X is a subset of a group G, then there is a subgroup $\langle X \rangle$ of G containing X tHhat is **smallest** in the sense that $\langle X \rangle \leq H$ for every subgroup H of G that contains X

Definition 2.38. If X is a subset of a group G, then $\langle X \rangle$ is called the {subgroup generated by} X

A word on X is an element $g \in G$ of the form $g = x_1^{e_1} \dots x_n^{e_n}$ where $x_i \in X$ and $e_i = \pm 1$ for all i

Proposition 2.39. If X is a nonempty subset of a group G, then $\langle X \rangle$ is the set of all words on X

Definition 2.40. If $H \leq G$ and $a \in G$, then the **coset** aH is the subset aH of G, where

$$aH=\{ah:h\in H\}$$

aH left coset, Ha right coset

Lemma 2.41. $H \leq G, a, b \in G$

- 1. aH = bH if and only if $b^{-1}a \in H$
- 2. if $aH \cap bH \neq \emptyset$, then aH = bH
- 3. |aH| = |H| for all $a \in G$

Proof. define a relation $a \equiv b$ if $b^{-1}a \in H$

Theorem 2.42 (Lagrange's Theorem). If H is a subgroup of a finite group G, then |H| is a divisor of |G|

Proof. Let $\{a_1H, a_2H, \dots, a_tH\}$ be the family of all the distinct cosets of H in G. Then

$$G = a_1 H \cup a_2 H \cup \cdots \cup a_t H$$

hence

$$|G| = |a_1H| + \dots + |a_tH|$$

But $|a_iH| = |H|$ for all i. Hence |G| = t|H|

Definition 2.43. The **index** of a subgroup H in G denoted by [G:H], is the number of left cosets of H in G

Note that |G| = [G:H]|H|

Corollary 2.44. If G is a finite group and $a \in G$, then the order of a is a divisor of |G|

Corollary 2.45. If G is a finite group, then $a^{|G|}=1$ for all $a\in G$

Corollary 2.46. If p is a prime, then every group G of order p is cyclic

Proposition 2.47. The set $U(\mathbb{I}_m)$, defined by

$$U(\mathbb{I}_m) = \{ [r] \in \mathbb{I}_m : (r, m) = 1 \}$$

is a multiplicative group of order $\phi(m)$. If p is a prime, then $U(\mathbb{I}_m) = \mathbb{I}_m^{\times}$, the nonzero elements of \mathbb{I}_p .

Corollary 2.48 (Fermat). If p is a prime and $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, then

$$a^p \equiv a \mod p$$

Proof. suffices to show $[a^p]=[a]$ in \mathbb{I}_p . If [a]=[0], then $[a^p]=[a]^p=[0]$. Else, since $\left|\mathbb{I}_p^\times\right|=p-1$, $[a]^{p-1}=[1]$

Theorem 2.49 (Euler). If (r, m) = 1, then

$$r^{\phi(m)} \equiv 1 \mod m$$

Theorem 2.50 (Wilson's Theorem). An integer p is a prime if and only if

$$(p-1)! \equiv -1 \mod p$$

2.4 Homomorphisms

Definition 2.51. If (G,*) and (H,\circ) are groups, then a function $f:G\to H$ is a **homomorphism** if

$$f(x * y) = f(x) \circ f(y)$$

for all $x, y \in G$. If f is also a bijection, then f is called an **isomorphism**. G and H are called **isomorphic**, denoted by $G \cong H$

Lemma 2.52. Let $f: G \to H$ be a homomorphism

- 1. f(1) = 1
- 2. $f(x^{-1}) = f(x)^{-1}$
- 3. $f(x^n) = f(x)^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

Definition 2.53. If $f: G \to H$ is a homomorphism, define

kernel
$$f = \{x \in G : f(x) = 1\}$$

and

image
$$f = \{h \in H : h = f(x) \text{ for some } x \in G\}$$

Proposition 2.54. Let $f: G \to H$ be a homomorphism

- 1. $\ker f$ is a subgroup of G and $\operatorname{im} f$ is a subgroup of H
- 2. if $x \in \ker f$ and if $a \in G$, then $axa^{-1} \in \ker f$
- 3. f is an injection if and only if $\ker f = \{1\}$

Proof. 1.
$$f(a) = f(b) \Leftrightarrow f(ab^{-1}) = 1$$

Definition 2.55. A subgroup K of a group G is called a **normal subgroup** if $k \in K$ and $g \in G$ imply $gkg^{-1} \in K$, denoted by $K \triangleleft G$

Definition 2.56. If G is a group and $a \in G$, then a **conjugate** of a is any element in G of the form

$$gag^{-1}$$

where $g \in G$

Definition 2.57. If G is a group and $g \in G$, define **conjugation** $\gamma_g : G \to G$ by

$$\gamma_a(a) = gag^{-1}$$

for all $a \in G$

Proposition 2.58. 1. If G is a group and $g \in G$, then conjugation $\gamma_g: G \to G$ is an isomorphism

2. Conjugate elements have the same order

Proof. 1. bijection: $\gamma_g \circ \gamma_{g^{-1}} = 1 = \gamma_{g^{-1}} \circ \gamma_g$

Proposition 2.59. 1. If H is a subgroup of index 2 in a group G, then $g^2 \in H$ for every $g \in G$

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2. If H is a subgroup of index 2 in a group G, then H is a normal subgroup of G

Definition 2.60. The group of **quaternions** is the group Q of order 8 consisting of the following matrices in $GL(2,\mathbb{C})$

$$Q = \{I, A, A^2, A^3, B, BA, BA^2, BA^3\}$$

where I is the identity matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
, and $B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Proposition 2.61. The alternating group A_4 is a group of order 12 having no subgroup of order 6

2.5 Quotient group

 $\mathcal{S}(G)$ is the set of all nonempty subsets of a group G. If $X,Y\in\mathcal{S}(G)$, define

$$XY = \{xy : x \in X \text{ and } y \in Y\}$$

Lemma 2.62. $K \leq G$ is normal if and only if

$$gK = Kg$$

A natural question is that whether HK is a subgroup when H and K are subgroups. The answer is no. Let $G = S_3, H = \langle (1\ 2) \rangle, K = \langle (1\ 3) \rangle$

Proposition 2.63. 1. If H and K are subgroups of a group G, and if one of them is normal, then $HK \leq G$ and HK = KH

2. If $H, K \triangleleft G$, then $HK \triangleleft G$

Theorem 2.64. Let G/K denote the family of all the left cosets of a subgroup K of G. If $K \triangleleft G$, then

$$aKbK = abK$$

for all $a, b \in G$ and G/K is a group under this operation

Proof.
$$aKbK = abKK = abK$$

G/K is called the **quotient group** $G \mod K$

Corollary 2.65. Every $K \triangleleft G$ is the kernel of some homomorphism

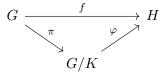
Proof. Define the **natural map**
$$\pi: G \to G/K$$
, $a \mapsto aK$

Theorem 2.66 (First Isomorphism Theorem). If $f:G\to H$ is a homomorphism, then

$$\ker f \triangleleft G$$
 and $G/\ker f \cong \operatorname{im} f$

If $\ker f = K$ and $\varphi: G/K \to \operatorname{im} f \leq H, aK \mapsto f(a)$, then φ is an isomorphism

Remark



Proposition 2.67 (Product Formula). If H and K are subgroups of a finite group G, then

$$|HK||H \cap K| = |H||K|$$

Proof. Define a function $f: H \times K \to HK, (h, k) \mapsto hk$. Show that $|f^{-1}(x)| = |H \cap K|$.

Claim that if x = hk, then

$$f^{-1}(x) = \{(hd, d^{-1}k) : d \in H \cap K\}$$

Theorem 2.68 (Second Isomorphism Theorem). If $H \triangleleft G, K \leq G$, then $HK \leq G, H \cap K \triangleleft G$ and

$$K/(H\cap K)\cong HK/H$$

Proof.
$$hkH = kk^{-1}hkH = kh'H = kH$$

Theorem 2.69 (Third Isomorphism Theorem). If $H, K \triangleleft G$ with $K \leq H$, then $H/K \triangleleft G/K$ and

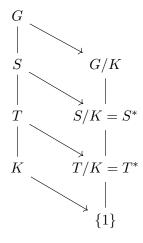
$$(G/K)/(H/K) \cong G/H$$

Theorem 2.70 (Correspondence Theorem). If $K \triangleleft G, \pi: G \rightarrow G/K$ is the natural map, then

$$S \mapsto \pi(S) = S/K$$

is a bijection between Sub(G;K), the family of all those subgroups S of G that contain K, and Sub(G/K), the family of all the subgroups of G/K. If we denote S/K by S^* , then

- 1. $T \leq S \leq G$ if and only if $T^* \leq S^*$, in which case $[S:T] = [S^*:T^*]$
- 2. $T \triangleleft S$ if and only if $T^* \triangleleft S^*$, in which case $S/T \cong S^*/T^*$



Proof. Use $\pi^{-1}\pi=1$ and $\pi\pi^{-1}=1$ to prove injectivity and surjectivity respectively.

For $[S:T]=[S^*:T^*]$, show there is a bijection between the family of all cosets of the form sT and the family of all the cosets of the form s^*T^* . injective:

$$\pi(m)T^* = \pi(n)T^* \Leftrightarrow \pi(m)\pi(n)^{-1} \in T^*$$

$$\Leftrightarrow mn^{-1}K \in T/K$$

$$\Rightarrow mn^{-1}t^{-1} \in K$$

$$\Rightarrow mn^{-1} = tk \in T$$

$$\Leftrightarrow mT = nT$$

surjective:

If *G* is finite, then

$$[S^*:T^*] = |S^*|/|T^*|$$

$$= |S/K|/|T/K|$$

$$= (|S|/|K|)/(|T|/|K|)$$

$$= |S|/|T|$$

$$= [S:T]$$

If $T \triangleleft S$, by third isomorphism theorem, $T/S \cong (T/K)/(S/K) = T^*/S^*$ If $T^* \triangleleft S^*$.

$$\pi(sts^{-1}) \in \pi(s)T^*\pi(s)^{-1} = T^*$$

so that $sts^{-1} \in \pi^{-1}(T^*) = T$

Proposition 2.71. If G is a finite abelian group and d is a divisor of |G|, then G contains a subgroup of order d

Proof. Abelian group's subgroup is normal and hence we can build quotient groups. p90 for proof. Use the correspondence theorem \Box

Definition 2.72. If H and K are grops, then their **direct product**, denoted by $H \times K$, is the set of all ordered pairs (h, k) with the operation

$$(h,k)(h',k') = (hh',kk')$$

Proposition 2.73. Let G and G' be groups and $K \triangleleft G, K'trilG'$. Then $K \times K' \triangleleft G \times G'$ and

$$(G \times G')/(K \times K') \cong (G/K) \times (G'/K')$$

Proposition 2.74. If G is a group containing normal subgroups H and K and $H \cap K = \{1\}$ and HK = G, then $G \cong H \times K$

Proof. Note $|HK||H \cap K| = |H||K|$. Consider $\varphi : G \to H \times K$. Show it's homo and bijective.

Theorem 2.75. If m, n are relatively prime, then

$$\mathbb{I}_{mn} \cong \mathbb{I}_m \times \mathbb{I}_n$$

Proof.
$$\mathbb{Z}/\langle mn \rangle \cong \mathbb{I}_m \times \mathbb{I}_n$$

Proposition 2.76. Let G be a group, and $a, b \in G$ be commuting elements of orders m, n. If (m, n) = 1, then ab has order mn

Corollary 2.77. If (m, n) = 1, then $\phi(mn) = \phi(m)\phi(n)$

Corollary 2.78. 1. If p is a prime, then $\phi(p^e) = p^e - p^{e-1} = p^e(1 - \frac{1}{p})$

2. If $n = p_1^{e_1} \dots p_t^{e_t}$, then

$$\phi(n) = n(1 - \frac{1}{p_1})\dots(1 - \frac{1}{p_t})$$

Lemma 2.79. A cyclic group of order n has a unique subgroup of order d, for each divisor d of n, and this subgroup is cyclic.

Define an equivalence relation on a group G by $x \equiv y$ if $\langle x \rangle = \langle y \rangle$. Denote the equivalence class containing x by gen(C), where $C = \langle x \rangle$. Equivalence classes form a partition and we get

$$G = \prod_{C} \operatorname{gen}(C)$$

where C ranges over all cyclic subgroups of G. Note $|gen(C)| = \phi(n)$

Theorem 2.80. A group G of order n is cyclic if and only if for each divisor d of n, there is at most one cyclic subgroup of order d

Theorem 2.81. If G is an abelian group of order n having at most one cyclic subgroup of order p for each prime divisor p of n, then G is cyclic

Exercise:

- 2.71 Suppose $H \le G, |H| = |K|$. Since |H| = [H:K]|K|, [H:K] = 1. Hence H = K
- 2.67 1. $\operatorname{Inn}(S_3) \cong S_3/Z(S_3) \cong S_3$ and $\left|\operatorname{Aut}(S_3)\right| \leq 6$. Hence $\operatorname{Aut}(S_3) = \operatorname{Inn}(S_3)$

2.6 Group Actions

Theorem 2.82 (Cayley). Every group G is isomorphic to a subgroup of the symmetric group S_G . In particular, if |G| = n, then G is isomorphic to a subgroup of S_n

Proof. For each $a \in G$, define $\tau_a(x) = ax$ for every $x \in G$. τ_a is a bijection for its inverse is $\tau_{a^{-1}}$

$$\tau_a \tau_{a^{-1}} = \tau_1 = \tau_{a^{-1}} \tau_a$$

Theorem 2.83 (Representation on Cosets). Let G be a group and $H \leq G$ having finite index n. Then there exists a homomorphism $\varphi: G \to S_n$ with $\ker \varphi \leq H$

When $H = \{1\}$, this is the Cayley theorem.

Proposition 2.84. Every group G of order 4 is isomorphic to either \mathbb{I}_4 or the four-group V. And $\mathbb{I}_4 \not\cong V$

Proof. By lagrange's theorem, every element in G other than 1 has order 2 or 4. If 4, then G is cyclic.

Suppose
$$x, y \neq 1$$
, then $xy \neq x, y$. Hence $G = \{1, x, y, xy\}$.

Proposition 2.85. If G is a group of order 6, then G is isomorphic to either \mathbb{I}_6 or S_3 . Moreover $\mathbb{I}_6 \ncong S_3$

Proof. If G is not cyclic. Since |G| is even, it has some elements having order 2, say t.

If G is abelian. Suppose it has another different element a with order 2. Then $H=\{1,a,t,at\}$ is a subgroup which contradict. Hence it must contain an element b of order 3. Then bt has order 6 and G is cyclic.

If G is not abelian. If G doesn't have elements of order 3, then it's abelian. Hence G has an element s of order 3.

Now $|\langle s \rangle| = 3$, so $[G:\langle s \rangle] = |G|/|\langle s \rangle| = 2$ and $\langle s \rangle$ is normal. Since $t = t^{-1}$, $tst \in \langle s \rangle$. If $tst = s^0 = 1$, s = 1. If tst = s, $|\langle st \rangle| = 6$. If $tst = s^2 = s^{-1}$.

Let $H=\langle t \rangle$, $\varphi:G \to S_{G/\langle t \rangle}$ given by

$$\varphi(g): x\langle t\rangle \to gx\langle t\rangle$$

By representation on cosets, $\ker \varphi \leq \langle t \rangle$. Hence $\ker \varphi = \{1\}$ or $\ker \varphi = \langle t \rangle$. Since

$$\varphi(t) = \begin{pmatrix} \langle t \rangle & s \langle t \rangle & s^2 \langle t \rangle \\ t \langle t \rangle & t s \langle t \rangle & t s^2 \langle t \rangle \end{pmatrix}$$

If $\varphi(t)$ is the identity permutation, then $ts\langle t\rangle=s\langle t\rangle$, so that $s^{-1}ts\in \langle t\rangle=\{1,t\}$. But now $s^{-1}ts=t$. Therefore $t\not\in\ker\varphi$ and $\ker\varphi=\{1\}$. Therefore φ is injective. Because $|G|=|S_3|$, $G\cong S_3$

Definition 2.86. If X is a set and G is a group, then G acts on X if there is a function $G \times X \to X$, denoted by $(g,x) \to gx$ s.t.

- 1. (gh)x=g(hx) for all $g, h \in G$ and $x \in X$
- 2. 1x = x for all $x \in X$

X is a G -set if G acts on X

Definition 2.87. If G acts on X and $x \in X$, then the **orbit** of x, denoted by $\mathcal{O}(x)$, is the subset of X

$$\mathcal{O}(x) = \{gx : g \in G\} \subseteq X$$

the **stabilizer** of x, denoted by G_x , is the subgroup

$$G_x = \{g \in G : gx = x\} \le G$$

G acts **transitively** on X if there is only one orbit. **centralizer** $C_G(x) = \{g \in G : gxg^{-1} = x\}$

Normalizer

$$N_G(H) = \{ g \in G : gHg^{-1} = H \}$$

When a group G acts on itself by conjugation, then

$$\mathcal{O}(x) = \{ y \in G : y = axa^{-1} \text{ for some } a \in G \}$$

In this case, $\mathcal{O}(x)$ is called the ${\bf conjugacy\ class}$ of x , denoted by x^G

Proposition 2.88. If G acts on a set X, then X is the disjoint union of the orbits. If X is finite, then

$$|X| = \sum_{i} |\mathcal{O}(x_i)|$$

where x_i is chosen from each orbit

Proof. $x \equiv y \Leftrightarrow \text{there exists } g \in G \text{ with } y = gx \text{ is an equivalence relation } \square$

Theorem 2.89. If G acts on a set X and $x \in X$ then

$$|\mathcal{O}(x)| = [G:G_x]$$

Proof. Let G/G_x denote the family of cosets. Construct a bijection $\varphi:G/G_x\to \mathcal{O}(x)$

Corollary 2.90. If a finite group G acts on a set X, then the number of elements in any orbit is a divisor of |G|

Corollary 2.91. If x lies in a finite group G, then the number of conjugates of x is the index of its centralizer

$$\left|x^G\right| = \left[G : C_G(x)\right]$$

and hence it's a divisor of *G*

Proposition 2.92. If H is a subgroup of a finite group G, then the number of conjugates of H in G is $[G:N_G(H)]$

Proof. Similar to theorem 2.89

Theorem 2.93 (Cauchy). If G is a finite group whose order is divisible by a prime p, then G contains an element of order p

Proof. Prove by induction on $m \geq 1$, where |G| = mp. If m = 1, it's obvious. If $x \in HG$, then $\left|x^G\right| = [G:C_G(x)]$. If $x \notin Z(G)$, then x^G has more than one element, so $absC_G(x) < |G|$. If $p \mid \left|C_G(x)\right|$, by inductive hypothesis, we are done. Else if $p \nmid \left|C_G(x)\right|$ for all noncentral x and $|G| = [G:C_G(x)] \left|C_G(x)\right|$, we have

$$p \mid [G:C_G(x)]$$

Z(G) consists of all those elements with $\left|X^{G}\right|=1$, we have

$$|G| = |Z(G)| + \sum_{i} [G : C_G(x_i)]$$

Hence $p \mid |Z(G)|$ and by proposition 2.71

Definition 2.94. The class equation of a finite group G is

$$|G| = |Z(G)| + \sum_{i} [G : C_G(x_i)]$$

where each x_i is selected from each conjugacy class having more than one element

Definition 2.95. If p is a prime, then a finite group G is called a **p-group** if $|G|=p^n$ for some $n\geq 0$

Theorem 2.96. If p is a prime and G is a p-group, then $Z(G) \neq \{1\}$

Proof. Consider

$$|G| = |Z(G)| + \sum_{i} [G : C_G(x_i)]$$