

Math6310: Algebra Homework #2

1. Let G be a group, and let $\Gamma^\bullet G$ be its descending central series. Show that:

- each $\Gamma^i G$ is a normal subgroup of G ;
- each $\Gamma^{i+1} G$ is contained in $\Gamma^i G$; and
- each $\Gamma^i G / \Gamma^{i+1} G$ is contained in the centre of $G / \Gamma^{i+1} G$.

- We show that each element of the descending central series is normal in G by induction on i . Since $\Gamma^1 G = G$ our base case is $i = 2$. Recall that $\Gamma^2 G$ is generated by commutators $[g, h]$ where $g \in G, h \in \Gamma^1 G = G$. Now let $k \in G$ and the following shows that $\Gamma^2 G$ is closed under conjugation by elements in G

$$k[g, h]k^{-1} = kghg^{-1}h^{-1}k^{-1} = (kgk^{-1})(khk^{-1})(kg^{-1}k^{-1})(kh^{-1}k^{-1}) = [kgk^{-1}, khk^{-1}] \in \Gamma^2 G.$$

And so, $\Gamma^2 G \trianglelefteq G$ by definition.

Now suppose $\Gamma^i G \trianglelefteq G$ and consider $\Gamma^{i+1} G$, which is generated by elements $[g, h]$ where now $g \in G$ and $h \in \Gamma^i G$. Let $k \in G$ and notice that, since $\Gamma^i G$ is normal by the induction hypothesis, we have $khk^{-1} \in \Gamma^i G$. Thus the above calculation gives that $k[g, h]k^{-1} = [kgk^{-1}, khk^{-1}] \in \Gamma^{i+1} G$. Thus, each $\Gamma^i G \trianglelefteq G$ by induction.

- We show that $\Gamma^{i+1} G \subseteq \Gamma^i G$. Let $[g, h]$ be a generator of $\Gamma^{i+1} G$, so that $g \in G$ and $h \in \Gamma^i G$. Above we showed that $\Gamma^i G \trianglelefteq G$ and so $ghg^{-1} \in \Gamma^i G$. Moreover, $h \in \Gamma^i G$ implies $h^{-1} \in \Gamma^i G$, since $\Gamma^i G$ is a group. Thus

$$[g, h] = ghg^{-1}h^{-1} = (ghg^{-1})h^{-1} \in \Gamma^i G.$$

Then, since each generator of $\Gamma^{i+1} G$ is contained in $\Gamma^i G$, we have $\Gamma^{i+1} G \subseteq \Gamma^i G$.

- todo

■

2. (CMN Example 2.8) What is the derived series for the dihedral group D_{2n} ? What is the descending central series?

Big sorry, I'm going to use D_n to denote the dihedral group which has $2n$ elements. Recall the presentation

$$D_n = \langle r, s : r^n = s^2 = e \quad rs = sr^{-1} \rangle$$

First note that D_1 and D_2 are abelian. We have $D_1 = \{e, s\}$ a single non-trivial element, and so is trivially abelian. Meanwhile $D_2 = \{e, s, r, rs\}$, the relation $rs = sr^{-1}$ becomes $rs = sr$, i.e. $[r, s] = e$. Likewise we have $[r, rs] = r(rs)r(rs)^{-1} = r^2(rs)(rs)^{-1} = e$ and $[s, rs] = s(rs)s(rs)^{-1} = s^2(rs)(rs)^{-1} = e^1$. Hence, D_2 is also abelian. **Question (feel free to ignore the following):** was it sufficient to show that r, s commute to show that D_n is abelian? And generally speaking, if a group is generated by n elements g_1, \dots, g_n which all commute, is that sufficient to show that the group is abelian? (later), okay I have convinced myself. I think in general showing that all the generators of a finite group commute with each other is enough to show that every commutator of a group is trivial. (even later) Moreso, I have now realized that if $[g, h] = e$ then we also always have $[h, g] = e$.

It follows that the derived subgroup $G' = \Gamma^2 G$ is trivial for $G = D_1$ or $G = D_2$. Moreover, since $\Gamma^3 G$ is generated by the commutators $[g, e] = geg^{-1}e = e$ for each $g \in G$, it follows that $\Gamma^i G$ is trivial for each $i > 1$ for both of these groups.

Now suppose $n \geq 3$ is odd. We show first that $\Gamma^2 G = \langle r \rangle$ by computing all the commutators. Recall that $\Gamma^2 G = G'$ is the subgroup generated by all commutators $[g, h]$ where $g \in G$ and $h \in \Gamma^1 G = G$. We need to compute the following commutators: $[r^k, s], [r, r^k s], [s, r^k s]$ where $k = 1, \dots, n-1$. First recall the relation $rs = sr^{-1}$ and then consider the following

$$[r^k, s] = r^k s r^{-k} s = r^k r^{-k} s^2 = r^{-2k} \neq e$$

¹I later realized that computing $[g, h]$ is enough to determine $[h, g]$. In particular if $[g, h] = x$ for some $x \in G$ then we have $ghg^{-1}h^{-1} = x \implies x^{-1} = hgh^{-1}g^{-1} = [h, g]$. Alas, there is some redundant calculation above.

where the last (in)equality follows from the fact that n is odd. In particular $k = 1$ shows that $r^2 \in \Gamma^2 G$. Very similar calculations give the following

$$[r, r^k s] = r(r^k s)r^{-1}(sr^{-k}) = r^2 \neq e$$

$$[s, r^k s] = s(r^k s)s(sr^{-k}) = r^{-2k} \neq e$$

Then, since we have already shown that $r^2 \in \Gamma^2 G$ we have that $\Gamma^2 G = \langle r^2 \rangle$. The situation is even better than this because for $n \geq 3$ odd we have $\langle r^2 \rangle = \langle r \rangle$ in D_n . We have $r^2 = r \cdot r \in \langle r \rangle$. Moreover, consider there are n distinct powers of r in $\langle r^2 \rangle$, we have

$$\langle r^2 \rangle = \{r^2, r^4, \dots, r^{n+1} = r, r^{n+3}, \dots, r^{2n-2}, e\},$$

since, again, n is odd. That is, we have $r \in \langle r^2 \rangle$ and so indeed we have

$$\Gamma^2 G = \langle r^2 \rangle = \langle r \rangle.$$

Next we show that when $\Gamma^{i-1} G = \langle r \rangle$ then we must have $\Gamma^i G = \langle r \rangle$ for $i = 3, 4, \dots$. Recall that $\Gamma^i G$ is generated by $[g, h]$ where $g \in G$ and $h \in \Gamma^{i-1} G$. Since $\Gamma^{i-1} G$ is only generated by a single element we only need to compute the following:

$$[r^k, r] = e$$

$$[s, r] = r^{-2}$$

$$[r^k s, r] = r^{-2},$$

following similar calculations to above. That is $\Gamma^i G = \langle r^2 \rangle$ and we still have $\langle r^2 \rangle = \langle r \rangle$. That is, we have shown $\Gamma^i G = \langle r \rangle$ for $i \geq 2$.

Now we consider the case when $n \geq 4$ is even. First notice that we can split this case into two further cases — either $n = 2^k$ for some k or $n = 2^k m$ for some k and some $m \geq 3$ odd. If n is not a power of 2 then its prime factor decomposition is $2^k m$ where m is the product of all of its odd prime factors.

Now first consider the case where $n = 2^k m$. Our above calculation shows that $\Gamma^2 D_{2^k m} = \langle r^2 \rangle$ but now $\langle r^2 \rangle \neq \langle r \rangle$ since r^2 has even order. In particular $\langle r^2 \rangle = \{r^2, r^4, \dots, r^{2 \cdot (2^{k-1} m)} =$

$e\}$. Now we compute $\Gamma^3 G$ via direct computation of the generators $[g, h]$ where $g \in G$ and $h \in \Gamma^2 G = \langle r^2 \rangle$. Following the now usual strategy, we have

$$\begin{aligned}[r^k, r^2] &= e \\ [s, r^2] &= sr^2sr^{-2} = r^{-4} \\ [r^k s, r^2] &= r^{-4}.\end{aligned}$$

That is, $\Gamma^3 G = \langle r^4 \rangle$. Essentially the same calculation will give $\Gamma^i G = \langle r^{2^{(i-1)}} \rangle$ for $2 \leq i$. The book claims that this simplifies to $\langle r^{2^k} \rangle$ when $i \geq k+1$, but im having trouble seeing why. come back to this later.

Now suppose $n = 2^k$ for some k . The same computation as above gives $\Gamma^i G = \langle r^{2^{(i-1)}} \rangle$ for $i \geq 2$. However, now when $i \geq k+1$ we have $r^{2^{(i-1)}} = r^{2^{(k+\ell)}} = (r^{2^k})^\ell = e^\ell = e$. And so, when $i \geq k+1$ we have $\Gamma^i G = e$. This last fact also follows since when $i = k+1$ we have $\Gamma^i G = \langle r^{2^k} \rangle = e$. In question 1 we showed that $\Gamma^i G \subseteq \Gamma^{i-1} G$ and so it would then follow that all $\Gamma^i G = e$ for all $i > k+1$. That is, when $n = 2^k$ we have that D_n is nilpotent, and in particular solvable.

Now we consider the derived series for D_n . Recall that $(D_n)^{(1)} = \Gamma^2 D_n$, and then $(D_n)^{(i)}$ is generated by $[g, h]$ for each $g, h \in (D_n)^{(i-1)}$. For $n = 1, 2$ we showed above that D_n is abelian. It follows that all commutators are trivial, i.e., $G^{(1)} = e$ and then $G^{(i)} = 1$ for all $i \geq 1$. For $n \geq 3$ we showed above that the derived subgroup $G' = \langle x \rangle$ is a cyclic subgroup, where either $x = r$ or $x = r^{2^k}$. In particular G' is abelian, and so it follows that all commutators $[g, h]$ with $g, h \in G'$ are trivial. And so for $n \geq 3$ we have $(D_n)^{(1)} = \langle x \rangle$ and $(D_n)^{(i)} = e$ for $i > 1$, where x depends on the exact form of n , as discussed above.

■

3. True or false:

- An extension of an abelian group by an abelian group is abelian.
- An extension of a nilpotent group by a nilpotent group is nilpotent.
- An extension of a solvable group by a solvable group is solvable.

Give a proof or counterexample, as appropriate.

- In question 5 we find all the groups of order 28 partly by studying the possible semidirect products $C_7 \rtimes_{\theta} C_4$, these semidirect products give an extension of the abelian group C_4 by the abelian group C_7 . However, we find examples where $C_7 \rtimes C_4$ is non-abelian. Namely when $\theta : C_4 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_7) \cong C_6$ is the map of order 2 given by $\theta(h) = (n \mapsto -n \equiv (7 - n))$ for each h .

■

4. Let

$$1 \rightarrow N \rightarrow G \xrightarrow{\pi} H \rightarrow 1$$

be an extension of groups. Show that there is a homomorphism

$$\rho: H \rightarrow \text{Out}(N)$$

sending an element $h \in H$ to the outer automorphism of N given by conjugation by any $\tilde{h} \in G$ such that $\pi(\tilde{h}) = h$. In the particular case that $G = N \rtimes_{\theta} H$ is the semidirect product of H by N via θ , show that ρ is equal to the composition

$$H \xrightarrow{\theta} \text{Aut}(N) \rightarrow \text{Out}(N).$$

Firstly, we will show that ρ is a well defined map $H \rightarrow \text{Out}(N)$. Let $h \in H$ and $\tilde{h}_1, \tilde{h}_2 \in G$ such that $\pi(\tilde{h}_1) = \pi(\tilde{h}_2) = h$. We have $\rho(\tilde{h}_1) = f := (n \mapsto \tilde{h}_1 n \tilde{h}_1^{-1})$ and $\rho(\tilde{h}_2) = g := (n \mapsto \tilde{h}_2 n \tilde{h}_2^{-1})$. Note that these are indeed automorphisms of N , as in the previous homework we showed that conjugation by a fixed element is an automorphism. If we show that $\rho(\tilde{h}_1)$ and $\rho(\tilde{h}_2)$ lie in the same coset of $\text{Inn}(N)$ then ρ is well-defined. (Note: I believe this map is not well defined as a map $H \rightarrow \text{Aut}(N)$).

Recall that two elements g, h of a group lie in the same coset of a normal subgroup N if $g^{-1}h \in N$. For our automorphisms f, g we have $g^{-1} = (n \mapsto \tilde{h}_2^{-1} n \tilde{h}_2)$. And so we have $(g^{-1} \circ f)(n) = \tilde{h}_2^{-1} \tilde{h}_1 n \tilde{h}_1^{-1} \tilde{h}_2$. Recall that $N \trianglelefteq G$ and so is closed under conjugation by definition. In particular then $\tilde{h}_1 n \tilde{h}_1^{-1} \in N$ and $\tilde{h}_2^{-1}(\tilde{h}_1 n \tilde{h}_1^{-1}) \tilde{h}_2 \in N$ since $\tilde{h}_1, \tilde{h}_2 \in G$. Thus f, g have the same image in $\text{Out}(N)$ and so ρ is well defined with respect to the choice of \tilde{h} .

Next we show that ρ is a group homomorphism. Let $h_1, h_2 \in H$ and $\tilde{h}_1, \tilde{h}_2 \in G$ such that $\pi(\tilde{h}_1) = h_1$ and $\pi(\tilde{h}_2) = h_2$. Moreover, since π is a group homomorphism we have $\pi(\tilde{h}_1 \tilde{h}_2) = \tilde{h}_1 \tilde{h}_2$. Following a similar, calculation to last week's homework, consider the following

$$\begin{aligned}
\rho(h_1 h_2) &= \gamma_{\tilde{h}_1 \tilde{h}_2} \\
&= (n \mapsto \tilde{h}_1 \tilde{h}_2 n (\tilde{h}_1 \tilde{h}_2)^{-1}) \\
&= (n \mapsto \tilde{h}_1 \tilde{h}_2 n \tilde{h}_2^{-1} \tilde{h}_1^{-1}) \\
&= \gamma_{\tilde{h}_1} \circ \gamma_{\tilde{h}_2} \\
&= \rho(h_1) \rho(h_2).
\end{aligned}$$

Thus, the given ρ is indeed a group homomorphism.

Now suppose $G = N \rtimes_{\theta} H$. We can state more precisely the outer automorphism given by ρ . Let $h \in H$ and then all lifts are of the form $\tilde{h} = (m, h)$ for some $m \in N$. Then, being explicit about the details of the semidirect product, our map $\rho(h) : \iota(N) \rightarrow \iota(N)$ acts as follows

$$\begin{aligned}
\rho_h(n) &= (m, h) \cdot_{\theta} (n, e_H) \cdot_{\theta} (m, h)^{-1} \\
&= (m, h)(n, e_H)(\theta_{h^{-1}}(m^{-1}), h^{-1}) \\
&= (m\theta_h(n), h)(\theta_{h^{-1}}(m^{-1}), h^{-1}) \\
&= (m\theta_h(n)(\theta_h \circ \theta_{h^{-1}}(m^{-1}), hh^{-1}) \\
&= (m\theta_h(n)m^{-1}, e_H).
\end{aligned}$$

Which induces the automorphism $f = (n \mapsto m\theta_h(n)m^{-1}) : N \rightarrow N$. Note that $(\theta_h \theta_{h^{-1}}) = id_H$ since θ is a group homomorphism $H \rightarrow Aut(N)$.

We show that this is the same as the composition $H \rightarrow Aut(N) \rightarrow Out(N)$. We have $h \mapsto \theta_h \mapsto \overline{\theta_h}$. Notice now that θ_h and f lie in the same coset of $Inn(N)$. In particular

$$\overline{\theta_h} = \overline{\gamma_m \theta_h} = \overline{f}$$

since $\gamma_m = (n \mapsto mn m^{-1})$ is one of the inner automorphisms of N . Hence, in the case where $G = N \rtimes_{\theta} H$ we have ρ and $H \rightarrow Aut(N) \rightarrow Out(N)$ give the same map.

One interpretation of this is that, whilst ρ is a well defined map $H \rightarrow Out(N)$, it is not a well defined map $H \rightarrow Aut(N)$. However, in the case where G is a semidirect product of

N and H via θ , we have a preferred lift $h \mapsto (e_N, h) \in G$, and in fact there is a well defined map $H \rightarrow \text{Aut}(N)$, namely θ , whose projection gives the same map as ρ .

■

5. (Aluffi Exercise IV.5.15) Let G be a group of order 28.

- Prove that G contains a subgroup of order 4, and a normal subgroup of order 7. Deduce that G is either a split extension of C_4 by C_7 , or is a split extension of $C_2 \times C_2$ by C_7 .
- Prove that there are only two homomorphisms $C_4 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_7)$ and only two homomorphisms $C_2 \times C_2 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_7)$, up to changing the choice of generators for C_4 and $C_2 \times C_2$.
- Deduce that there are exactly four groups of order 28, up to isomorphism.

- Sylow's theorem I gives us that there exists a subgroup of order 7 in G , since $|H| = 7^1 \cdot 4$ and 7 does not divide 4. Alternatively, Cauchy's theorem gives us that there exists an element $g \in G$ with $|g| = 7$, hence we have $\langle g \rangle \leq G$. Moreover, Sylow III gives us that there's only a single Sylow 7 group. Indeed, if n_7 is the number of Sylow 7 groups in G then Sylow III gives us that $n_7 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$ and $n_7 | 4$. The only integer solving both these conditions is $n_7 = 1$. Similarly, if we write $|G| = 28 = 2^2 \cdot 7$ and notice that 2 does not divide 7, then Sylow I gives us that there exists a subgroup of order $2^2 = 4$.

Let N denote the 7-subgroup of G , we argue that N is normal. If $g \in G$ then recall $\gamma_g = (\ell \mapsto g\ell g^{-1})$ is an automorphism of G . Therefore $|\gamma_g(N)| = |N|$. However, there's a unique subgroup of order 7 in G and so the image $\gamma_g(N) = N$ for all $g \in G$. That is, N is closed under conjugation by elements in G and so N is normal by definition. We have shown that G has a normal subgroup of order 7 and in fact we have found that $N \cong C_7$.

- Recall **or perhaps I shall prove** that $\text{Aut}(N) = \text{Aut}(C_7) \cong C_6$. We determine the homomorphisms $C_4 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_7) \cong C_6$. Consider C_4 , once we have specified where a generator $\sigma \in C_4$ is mapped to in C_6 then we have determined the homomorphism $C_4 \rightarrow C_6$. Since $|\sigma| = 4$ we must have $|\theta(\sigma)| = 4$ or $|\theta(\sigma)| = 2$, for θ non-trivial, since the image of an element under a homomorphism must have order which divides the original element's order. Notice that there's only a single element of order 2 in C_6 , and no elements of order 4. And so there's one trivial homomorphism $C_4 \rightarrow C_6$ and one non-trivial map $\bar{\theta} : C_4 \rightarrow N$. Since $\bar{\theta}(\sigma)$ has order two we can deduce that it is the automorphism which sends each element of C_7 to its inverse. That is

$\bar{\theta}(\sigma) = (n \mapsto 7 - n)$. And, of course, the trivial map $\theta_{\text{triv}}(\sigma) = (n \mapsto n)$ for each $\sigma \in C_4$.

We use similar reasoning to determine the maps $\theta : C_2 \times C_2 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(N) \cong C_6$. One generating set of $C_2 \times C_2$ is $\{(0, 1), (1, 0)\}$ and again, once we determine where these elements are mapped to by θ we have determined the entire homomorphism $\theta : C_2 \times C_2 \rightarrow C_6$. Now each generating element has order two, and so any non-trivial θ maps both the generating elements to the unique element of order 2 in C_6 . And so, again, we have one trivial map $\theta_{\text{triv}} : C_2 \times C_2 \rightarrow C_6$ and one non-trivial map $\tilde{\theta} : C_2 \times C_2 \rightarrow C_6$. The automorphisms $\tilde{\theta}((0, 1)) = \tilde{\theta}(1, 0)$ are both the same as the one described above — $(n \mapsto 7 - n \equiv -n)$.

- Determining all the possible semi-direct products $C_7 \rtimes H$ with $H = C_4$ or $H = C_2 \times C_2$ will tell us the possible group laws on G . Notice that $N \cap H = \{e\}$ for $H = C_4$ or $C_2 \times C_2$. This follows since every non-identity element of $N \cong C_7$ is order 7, meanwhile there are no elements of order 7 in either C_4 or $C_2 \times C_2$. **We also need to show that $NH = G$.** Then it follows that $G \cong N \rtimes_{\theta} H$ for $H = C_4$ or $H = C_2 \times C_2$ and one of the θ described above.

With all possible homomorphisms $H \rightarrow \text{Aut}(N)$ described above, we can determine all the semi-direct products $N \rtimes H$. First suppose $H = C_4$ and $\theta : C_4 \rightarrow C_6$ the trivial map. That is $\theta(h) = (n \mapsto n)$ for each $h \in H$. We have the following group product for $N \rtimes_{\theta} H$:

$$\begin{aligned} (n_1, h_1) \cdot_{\theta} (n_2, h_2) &= (n_1 \theta_{h_1}(n_2), h_1 h_2) \\ &= (n_1 n_2, h_1 h_2). \end{aligned}$$

That is, then $N \rtimes_{\theta} H$ is isomorphic to $C_7 \times C_4 \cong G$. The same calculation will give us that when $H = C_2 \times C_2$ and $\theta : C_2 \times C_2 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(N)$ is the trivial map, we also have $G \cong C_7 \times C_2 \times C_2$.

Now we determine the products given by the non-trivial $H \rightarrow \text{Aut}(N)$. Note that when $H = C_4$ and $\theta(h) = (n \mapsto -n)$ we have a non-commutative group structure

on $C_7 \rtimes_{\theta} C_4$. Consider

$$(n_1, h_1) \cdot_{\theta} (n_2, h_2) = (n_1 - n_2, h_1 h_2)$$

Meanwhile,

$$(n_2, h_2) \cdot_{\theta} (n_1, h_1) = (n_2 - n_1, h_1 h_2) \neq (n_1 - n_2, h_1 h_2),$$

where we take C_7 as a group under addition and C_4 as a group whose product is written as “multiplication”. Similar reasoning I think shows us that when $H = C_2 \times C_2$ and $\theta(h) = (n \mapsto -n)$ we also have $C_7 \rtimes_{\theta} C = 2 \times C_2$ as non-abelian. These groups may be isomorphic to something nice, I’m not sure, I’d have to stare at them a bit longer.

In any case, we have found every possible group structure on G , a group of order 28. There are two abelian group structures, and two non-abelian group structures.

■

6. (Aluffi IV.2.7) Prove that there are no simple groups of order 57. (Google “Grothendieck prime” for the significance of the number 57.)

Aluffi points us to an example in the text, and so I will reprove that example. We prove that if $|G| = mp$ for some prime p and some $m < p$ then G is not simple. **Quick question:** The text seems to require $m > 1$, however, I cannot see where that condition is needed in the proof. (Maybe in the hypothesis for the Sylow Theorems?) Recall Sylow III gives us that there are $1 \pmod p$ subgroups of order p in G . We show that there is in fact only a single p -subgroup in G .

Suppose that there is more than one p -subgroup of order p , then there must be at least $p + 1$ p -subgroups. Notice that if $H, H' \leq G$ are distinct p -subgroups then they can only intersect at the identity. Indeed, suppose $g \in H \cap H'$. Then, since H, H' are groups, we have in particular $\langle g \rangle \leq H$. However, by Lagrange’s theorem, we then have $|g|$ divides $|H|$. However H is of prime order, and so $|g| = 1$ or $|g| = p$. If $|g| = p$ then we in fact have $\langle g \rangle = H$. However, we’d then also have $\langle g \rangle = H'$ which contradicts the assumption that H and H' are distinct. And so we must have $|g| = 1$, in other words, $g = e$. Thus, H, H' may only intersect at the identity. And, in fact, they always intersect at the identity, since they are both subgroups.

Now, we have at least $p + 1$ distinct p -subgroups, each of these subgroups must contain $p - 1$ elements which are not contained in any of the other p -subgroups. That is, we have $1 + (p + 1)(p - 1) = p^2$ distinct elements of G contained across all of these subgroups. However, $p^2 > mp = |G|$ and so we have a contradiction. That is, there must be exactly one p -subgroup in G .

Let us denote the unique subgroup of order p by N . We show N is normal in G . Let $g \in G$ and consider the automorphism $\gamma_g = (n \mapsto gng^{-1})$. Since γ_g is an automorphism, we must have that the image $\gamma_g(N)$ is a subgroup and must be of order p . However N is the unique subgroup of order p and so we actually have $\gamma_g(N) = N$. This holds for each conjugation automorphism γ_g with $g \in G$. In other words, N is normal by definition. We have found a normal subgroup of G , and so G is not simple.

Finally, notice that $|G| = 57 = 3 \cdot 19$, then above lemma gives that any group of order 57 cannot be simple. ■

7. (Aluffi IV.2.23) Let n_p denote the number of Sylow p -subgroups in a finite group G . Show that if G is non-abelian and simple, then $\#G$ divides $n_p!$ for all p dividing $\#G$.

Suppose G is simple, and let p be a prime which divides $|G|$. Notice that we have $|G| = p^k (\prod_i p_i^{\alpha_i})$, by definition of $|G|$'s prime factorization. In particular p does not divide $m := \prod_i p_i^{\alpha_i}$. And so, we are free to apply the Sylow theorems in the following manner.

Recall Sylow I and Sylow III gives us that $0 < n_p \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and $n_p | m$. In particular, if $n_p = 1$ then the unique p -Sylow subgroup would be normal (see arguments in question 6, for example), however G is simple and so we must have $n_p > 1$.

Now, let N_p be a set containing each of the p -Sylow subgroups, that is

$N_p := \{H \leq G : |H| = p^k\}$. Allow G to act on N_p by conjugation $g \circ H = gHg^{-1}$.

Recall that G acting on itself by conjugation is an automorphism, and so in particular $|gHg^{-1}| = |H|$. In other words the conjugation of a p -Sylow subgroup is again a p -Sylow subgroup and so our proposed action is well-defined.

This action induces a homomorphism to the symmetric group on n_p elements $\phi : G \rightarrow S_{n_p}$ defined as follows. If we label the elements in N_p by integers in $[n_p]$, denote the integer associated with $H \in N_p$ with $\text{ind}(H)$, and denote the p -Sylow subgroup associated with the integer i as $H(i)$, then $\phi(g)$ is the permutation where $i \mapsto \text{ind}(gH(i)g^{-1})$. Recall that G acting on itself is an automorphism, and in particular our action on N_p is a bijection, hence $\phi(g)$ with this definition is a well-defined permutation of $[n_p]$. **The logic of this last sentence is a bit iffy in my brain, does this sound correct?**

By the first isomorphism theorem we have $\text{im}(\phi) \leq S_{n_p}$ and in particular, by Lagrange's theorem, $|\text{im}(\phi)|$ divides $|S_{n_p}| = n_p!$. Moreover, $\text{im} \phi \cong G / \ker \phi$, and so another application of Lagrange's theorem gives

$$\frac{|G|}{|\ker \phi|} \mid |S_{n_p}| = n_p!$$

Next, we show that $\ker \phi$ is trivial. Notice that $\ker \phi$ is a normal subgroup of G . Let $h \in \ker \phi$ meaning $hHh^{-1} = H$ for each p -Sylow subgroup in N_p . Now let $g \in G$, we

have

$$(ghg^{-1})H(g^{-1}h^{-1}g) = g(hH'h^{-1})g^{-1} = gH'g^{-1} = g(g^{-1}Hg)g^{-1} = H,$$

Where $H' \in N_p$. That is $ghg^{-1} \in \ker \phi$ and so $\ker \phi \trianglelefteq G$ by definition. Recall that G is simple, and so $\ker \phi$ must either be trivial or all of G . However, recall that Sylow II gives that if $H, H' \in N_p$ then H, H' are conjugates of each other: $H = gH'g^{-1}$ for some $g \in G$. Moreover, earlier we showed that $|N_p| = n_p > 1$. That is, there must be some non-trivial element of g which does not fix all of N_p . In other words, $\ker \phi$ is a proper subgroup of G . It follows then that $\ker \phi$ is trivial and $|\ker \phi| = 1$. And so, we have

$$|G| = \frac{|G|}{|\ker \phi|} |S_{n_p}| = n_p!,$$

as desired. ■

8. In this problem, we will find a presentation for the symmetric group S_n . Let Σ_n denote the group generated by $n - 1$ elements a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n-1} , subject to the relations:

- $a_i^2 = 1$ for $1 \leq i \leq n - 1$;
- $(a_i a_j)^2 = 1$ for $1 \leq i \leq j - 1 \leq n - 2$; and
- $(a_i a_{i+1})^3 = 1$ for $1 \leq i \leq n - 2$.

- (a) Show that there is a surjective homomorphism $\Sigma_n \twoheadrightarrow S_n$, sending a_i to the transposition $(i, i + 1)$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n - 1$.
- (b) Show that the elements $a_i, a_j \in \Sigma_n$ commute for $|i - j| \neq 1$. Show also that

$$a_{i+1} a_i a_{i+1} = a_i a_{i+1} a_i$$

for $1 \leq i \leq n - 2$.

- (c) Show that every element of Σ_n can be written in the form

$$w \quad \text{or} \quad a_{n-1}w \quad \text{or} \quad a_{n-2}a_{n-1}w \quad \text{or} \quad \dots \quad \text{or} \quad a_1a_2 \dots a_{n-2}a_{n-1}w,$$

where w is contained in the subgroup generated by a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n-2} .

- (d) Show that there is a homomorphism $\Sigma_{n-1} \rightarrow \Sigma_n$ whose image is equal to the subgroup generated by the elements $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n-2} \in \Sigma$. Using the previous part, show that Σ_n is a finite group of order $\leq n!$.
- (e) Conclude that the homomorphism $\Sigma_n \rightarrow S_n$ you constructed is an isomorphism.

- (a) Let ϕ denote the suggested map $\phi(a_i) = (i, i + 1)$. We take the suggested map and extend it so that it's a homomorphism, i.e., $\phi(a_i \cdot a_j) = (j, j + 1)(i, i + 1)$ (note, here my elements of S_n act on the right of permutations of $[n]$, I do this so that my notation for transposition decomposition is correct later). Note that there are exactly $n - 1$ transpositions of the form $(i, i + 1)$ in S_n , namely $(1, 2), (2, 3), \dots, (n - 1, n)$. It then follows that Σ_n bijects onto the set of $(i, i + 1)$ -transpositions in S_n .

We argue that this homomorphism is indeed surjective. Recall that any element $\sigma \in S_n$ has a disjoint cycle decomposition. That is we can always write $\sigma = ((a_1)_1, (a_1)_2, \dots, (a_1)_{r_1}) \cdots ((a_k)_1, \dots, (a_k)_{r_k})$ (apologies for this notation). If (a_1, \dots, a_k) is a cycle in S_n then we have

$$(a_1, \dots, a_k) = (a_1, a_2)(a_1, a_3) \cdots (a_1, a_k)$$

Now, notice that (a_1, a_2) may not be of the form $(i, i + 1)$, we could have, say,

$(a_1, a_2) = (1, 4)$ if $n \geq 4$. However, we can decompose these transpositions further. Suppose (a_1, a_2) is a transposition in S_n with $a_1 < a_2$, then we have

$$\begin{aligned} (a_1, a_2) &= [(a_1, a_1 + 1)(a_1 + 1, a_1 + 2) \cdots (a_2 - 2, a_2 - 1)] \\ &\quad \cdot (a_2 - 1, a_2) \cdot \\ &\quad \cdot [(a_2 - 2, a_2 - 1) \cdots (a_1 + 1, a_1 + 2)(a_1, a_1 + 1)], \end{aligned}$$

where, recall, our transpositions act on the right of a given permutation. Note that since each transposition is order two, this is really a conjugation of $(a_2 - 1, a_2)$ by the element $(a_1, a_1 + 1) \cdots (a_2 - 2, a_2 - 1)$. The equality above is probably easiest to see with an example. Suppose $n = 4$ and notice that indeed

$$(1, 4) = (1, 2)(2, 3)(3, 4)(2, 3)(1, 2) = [(1, 2)(2, 3)](3, 4)[(1, 2)(2, 3)]^{-1}.$$

In any case, we've recalled that every element of S_n has a disjoint cycle decomposition, we've shown that every cycle has a transposition decomposition, and every transposition has a $(i, i + 1)$ -decomposition. It follows then that every element of S_n has a $(i, i + 1)$ -transposition decomposition. Thus ϕ is surjective since it surjects onto the set of $(i, i + 1)$ transpositions in S_n .

- (b) First suppose $|i - j| \neq 1$ and without loss of generality suppose $0 \leq i + 1 < j \leq n - 1$. Then consider

$$a_i a_j = a_i (a_i a_j)^2 a_j = (a_i)^2 a_j a_i (a_j)^2 = a_j a_i,$$

using the given relations. In other words, each such a_i, a_j commute. Using a similar idea, consider

$$\begin{aligned} a_{i+1} a_i a_{i+1} &= a_{i+1} a_i (a_i a_{i+1})^3 a_{i+1} \\ &= a_{i+1} a_i (a_i a_{i+1}) (a_i a_{i+1}) (a_i a_{i+1}) a_{i+1} \\ &= a_{i+1} (a_i)^2 a_{i+1} a_i a_{i+1} a_i (a_{i+1})^2 \\ &= (a_{i+1})^2 a_{i+1} a_i a_{i+1} \\ &= a_{i+1} a_i a_{i+1}, \end{aligned}$$

holds for each $1 \leq i \leq n - 2$.

- (c) If w is a word in Σ_n which does not contain a_{n-1} then we are trivially done. Now, let w be a word in Σ_n which contains a_{n-1} but no instances of the letter a_{n-2} . That is w is a word such that $|n-1-j| > 1$ for all $a_j \in w$ (where we use the notation $a_j \in w$ to mean “ w contains the letter a_j ”). Note that the given relations imply that $(a_i)^{-1} = a_i$ for all $i \in [n]$, in particular, we do not have $a_j = (a_{n-1})^{-1}$ for some $j < n-1$. That is $\Sigma_{n-1} \leq \Sigma_n$. Since $a_{n-2} \notin w$ we have that a_{n-1} commutes with every letter in w and so we can write $w = a_n w'$ where $w' \in \Sigma_{n-1}$.

Now suppose $a_{n-2}, a_{n-1} \in w$ with $a_{n-2} <_w a_{n-1}$ (meaning, a_{n-2} is “to the left of” a_{n-1} in w), but $a_{n-3} \notin w$. That is $w = \bar{a}_1 \bar{a}_2 \cdots a_{n-2} \cdots a_{n-1} \cdots \bar{a}_k$ where each $a_{n-3} \neq \bar{a}_i \in \Sigma_{n-1}$. Now a_{n-1} commutes with everything to its left until “it hits” a_{n-2} . That is $w = \bar{a}_1 \cdots a_{n-2} a_{n-1} \cdots \bar{a}_k$. And, a_{n-1} does not commute with a_{n-2} , however, we can “push them down the word together”, that is, notice $w = \cdots \bar{a}_\ell a_{n-2} a_{n-1} \cdots = \cdots a_{n-2} \bar{a}_\ell a_{n-1} \cdots = \cdots a_{n-2} a_{n-2} \bar{a}_\ell \cdots$, Since $\ell < n-2 < n-1$. And so it follows that $w = a_{n-2} a_{n-1} w$ where $w \in \Sigma_{n-1}$.

The same logic above applies to any word of the form² $w = \cdots w_{n-k} \cdots w_{n-(k+1)} \cdots w_{n-1} \cdots$ (note, although i was too lazy to write it as such, w is a finite word). That is, the logic above applies so that we can “push down a_{n-1} until it hits a_{n-2} , and then push the block $a_{n-2} a_{n-1}$ until they hit a_{n-3} , etc, until the block $a_{n-k} \cdots a_{n-1}$ is at the left of the word”. More precisely, we can write

$$\begin{aligned}
 w &= \cdots w_{n-k} \cdots w_{n-(k+1)} \bar{a} \cdots \bar{a} w_{n-2} \cdots w_{n-1} \cdots \quad \text{where } \bar{a} \in \Sigma_{n-1} \text{ possibly distinct} \\
 &= \cdots w_{n-k} \cdots w_{n-(k+1)} \bar{a} \cdots \bar{a} w_{n-2} w_{n-1} \cdots \\
 &= \cdots w_{n-k} \cdots w_{n-(k+1)} \cdots w_{n-2} w_{n-1} \bar{a} \cdots \\
 &= \cdots w_{n-k} w_{n-(k+1)} \cdots w_{n-2} w_{n-1} \cdots \\
 &= w_{n-k} w_{n-(k+1)} \cdots w_{n-2} w_{n-1} \cdots \\
 &= w_{n-k} w_{n-(k+1)} \cdots w_{n-2} w_{n-1} w' \quad w' \in \Sigma_{n-1},
 \end{aligned}$$

²Note that we only care about the existence of letters w_{k-1} to the left relative to w_k , since we are attempting to “push the letters to the left of the word”. I.e. our argument still holds if there are letters $a_{i-1} >_w a_i$, even if we do not explicitly cover it.

for $1 \leq k \leq n-1$, as sought. (Apologies for the cumbersome notation.)

- (d) Following the definition in the question Σ_{n-1} is the group generated by $n-2$ elements $\tilde{a}_1, \dots, \tilde{a}_{n-2}$ satisfying the relations $(\tilde{a}_i)^2 = (\tilde{a}_i \tilde{a}_j)^2 = (\tilde{a}_i \tilde{a}_{i+1})^3 = 1$ for appropriate indices. Define a map $\Sigma_{n-1} \rightarrow \Sigma_n$ by $\tilde{a}_i \mapsto a_i$ for each i , and extend this so that it's a homomorphism, i.e., $(\tilde{a}_i \tilde{a}_j) \mapsto a_i a_j$. Then the relations of Σ_{n-1} are satisfied by the relations in Σ_n by definition. Hence the image of this map is the subgroup generated by a_i for $i = 1, \dots, n-2$. Moreover, this map is injective.

We then have a chain of inclusions

$$\Sigma_1 = 1 \hookrightarrow \Sigma_2 \hookrightarrow \dots \hookrightarrow \Sigma_{n-1} \hookrightarrow \Sigma_n.$$

Now consider, $|\Sigma_2| = 2$ by definition. The previous part shows that the words in Σ_3 are of one of the following forms $e \cdot w', a_1 \cdot w', a_1 a_2 \cdot w'$, where $w' \in \Sigma_2$. Therefore, there are at most $3 \cdot |\Sigma_2| = 3 \cdot 2 = 6$ words in Σ_3 . Generally, the previous part shows that there are at most $k |\Sigma_{k-1}|$ words in Σ_k . In particular, unpacking the recursion,

$$|\Sigma_n| \leq n |\Sigma_{n-1}| \leq n!$$

- (e) In part (a) we showed that ϕ is a homomorphism and that it surjects onto S_n , which has $n!$ elements. It follows then that $|\Sigma_n| \geq n!$. Combined with the statement in the previous part, it follows that in fact $|\Sigma_n| = n!$. And so ϕ is in fact an isomorphism. I.e. $\Sigma_n \cong S_n$, and the description of Σ_n given in the question is then actually a presentation for S_n .

■