

**Algebra-I, Fall 2011. Solutions to Midterm #2.**

1. Given a finite group  $G$  and a positive integer  $n$ , denote by  $a_n(G)$  the number of elements of  $G$  of order  $n$  and by  $b_n(G)$  the number of elements of  $G$  of order dividing  $n$ . The goal of this problem is to prove the following theorem:

**Theorem A:** If  $G$  and  $H$  are finite abelian groups and  $a_n(G) = a_n(H)$  for all  $n$ , then  $G$  is isomorphic to  $H$ .

- (a) Let  $G$  and  $H$  be finite groups. Prove that  $a_n(G) = a_n(H)$  for all  $n \iff b_n(G) = b_n(H)$  for all  $n$ .
- (b) Suppose that  $G = X \times Y$ . Prove that  $b_n(G) = b_n(X)b_n(Y)$ .
- (c) Suppose that  $G$  and  $H$  are finite abelian groups s.t.  $a_n(G) = a_n(H)$  for all  $n$ . Prove that there exists a non-trivial group  $C$  s.t.  $G \cong A \times C$  and  $H \cong B \times C$  for some groups  $A$  and  $B$ . **Hint:** Use the classification theorem in invariant factors form.
- (d) Now use (a),(b) and (c) to prove Theorem A.

**Solution:** (a) " $\Rightarrow$ " Since  $b_n(K) = \sum_{d|n} a_d(K)$  for any group  $K$ , the equality  $a_n(G) = a_n(H)$  for all  $n$  implies that  $b_n(G) = b_n(H)$  for all  $n$

" $\Leftarrow$ " We use induction on  $n$ . The base case is clear since  $b_1(K) = a_1(K) = 1$  for any group  $K$ . Assume now that  $a_m(G) = a_m(H)$  for all  $m < n$  and  $b_n(G) = b_n(H)$ . Since  $a_n(K) = b_n(K) - \sum_{d|n, d < n} a_d(K)$  for any group  $K$ , we conclude that  $a_n(G) = a_n(H)$ .

(b) For a group  $K$  let  $B_n(K) = \{k \in K : k^n = 1\} = \{k \in K : o(k) \text{ divides } n\}$ , so that  $b_n(K) = |B_n(K)|$ . Given  $(x, y) \in X \times Y$ , we have  $(x, y)^n = 1 \iff x^n = 1$  and  $y^n = 1$ . Therefore,  $B_n(X \times Y) = B_n(X) \times B_n(Y)$  as sets, and so  $b_n(X \times Y) = |B_n(X \times Y)| = |B_n(X) \times B_n(Y)| = b_n(X)b_n(Y)$ .

(c) **Note:** To make the assertion of (c) valid we need to assume that  $G$  (and hence also  $H$ ) is non-trivial. Consider the IFF decomposition  $G = \mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_k}$  where  $2 \leq n_k \mid n_{k-1} \mid \dots \mid n_1$ . Then in the notations of (b),  $B_{n_1}(G) = G$  and  $G$  contains an element of order  $n_1$  (e.g. any generator of  $\mathbb{Z}_{n_1}$ ). Thus, the largest invariant factor of  $G$  (which we denoted by  $n_1$ ) is equal to the largest order of an element of  $G$ .

Since  $a_n(G) = a_n(H)$  for all  $n$ , applying the same argument to  $H$ , we

conclude that the largest invariant factor of  $H$  is equal to  $n_1$ . Thus,  $G = A \times C$  and  $H = B \times C$  where  $C = \mathbb{Z}_{n_1}$  and  $A$  (resp.  $B$ ) is the product of the remaining factors in IFF decomposition of  $G$  (resp.  $H$ ).

(d) We use induction on  $|G|$ . First note that  $G$  and  $H$  have the same order since  $|K| = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_n(K)$  for any group  $K$ .

Thus, in the base case  $|G| = 1$  we have  $|H| = 1$ , so  $G \cong H$ . Assume now that  $|G| > 1$ . Then by (c),  $G = A \times C$  and  $H = B \times C$  where  $C$  is non-trivial. By (a),  $b_n(G) = b_n(H)$  for all  $n$ , whence  $b_n(A) = b_n(G)/b_n(C) = b_n(H)/b_n(C) = b_n(B)$  by (b), and then using (a) again we get  $a_n(A) = a_n(B)$  for all  $n$ . Since  $C$  is non-trivial,  $|A| < |G|$ , so by induction hypothesis  $A \cong B$ , and therefore  $G = A \times C \cong B \times C = H$ .

**2.** Let  $G$  be a finite group

(a) Prove that  $G$  is nilpotent if and only if  $G$  contains a normal subgroup of order  $m$  for any  $m$  dividing  $|G|$ .

(b) Prove that  $G$  is cyclic if and only if  $G$  contains a unique subgroup of order  $m$  for any  $m$  dividing  $|G|$ .

**Note:** Of course, the forward direction in (b) is well known, so you can assume it without proof.

**Note:** [DF, 6.1] contains some results from which (a) and (b) follow almost immediately. We will give a proof of (a) and (b) using the main properties of nilpotent groups.

**Solution:** (a) “ $\Rightarrow$ ” Since  $G$  is nilpotent, it is a direct product of its Sylow subgroups  $P_1, \dots, P_k$ . If we are given a normal subgroup  $Q_i$  of  $P_i$  for each  $i$ , then  $Q_1 \times \dots \times Q_k$  is normal in  $P_1 \times \dots \times P_k = G$ . Thus, to prove (a) it suffices to show that for any group  $P$  of order  $p^m$ , with  $m$  prime, and any  $0 \leq l \leq m$ , there exists a normal subgroup  $Q$  of  $P$  of order  $p^l$ .

We prove the latter assertion by induction on  $m$ . The base case  $m = 1$  is clear. Assume now that the assertion is true for all  $p$ -groups of order less than  $p^m$ , and suppose that  $|P| = p^m$ . We know that  $Z(P)$  is non-trivial, so  $|Z(P)| = p^s$  for some  $s > 0$ . Note that  $Z(P)$  contains a subgroup of order  $p^t$  for every  $t \leq s$  (e.g. by Sylow theorems), and every subgroup of  $Z(P)$  is normal in  $P$ , so if  $l \leq s$ , we can find a normal subgroup of  $P$  of order  $p^l$  inside  $Z(P)$ . Suppose now that  $l > s$ . Then  $0 < l - s < m - s$ , so by the induction hypothesis,  $P/Z(P)$  contains a normal subgroup of order  $p^{l-s}$ . By the lattice isomorphism theorem, the full preimage of this subgroup in  $P$  is a normal subgroup of order  $p^l$ .

“ $\Leftarrow$ ” Suppose that  $|G| = p_1^{\alpha_1} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k}$  where  $p_1, \dots, p_k$  are distinct primes. By assumption, for each  $1 \leq i \leq k$ ,  $G$  contains a normal subgroup  $P_i$  of order  $p_i^{\alpha_i}$ . But then each  $P_i$  is a normal Sylow  $p_i$ -subgroup of  $G$ . Thus, all Sylow

subgroups of  $G$  are normal, so  $G$  is a direct product of its Sylow subgroups and therefore nilpotent.

(b) As remarked above, we shall only prove the reverse direction.

Suppose that  $|G| = p_1^{\alpha_1} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k}$ . Then by assumption  $H$  contains a unique subgroup of order  $p_i^{\alpha_i}$  for each  $i$ , so each Sylow  $p_i$ -subgroup of  $G$  is normal, and as in (a) we conclude that  $G$  is nilpotent, so  $Z(G) \neq \{1\}$ .

We proceed by induction on  $|G|$ . Consider two cases.

**Case 1:**  $G$  is abelian. If  $G$  is not cyclic, then its IFF decomposition has at least two terms:  $G = \mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_k}$  where  $2 \leq n_k \mid n_{k-1} \mid \dots \mid n_1$  and  $k \geq 2$ . Since  $n_2 \mid n_1$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}_{n_1}$  contains a subgroup isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_{n_2}$ , and therefore  $G$  contains two distinct subgroups isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_{n_2}$ , contrary to our assumption.

**Case 2:**  $G$  is non-abelian. Then the quotient  $G/Z(G)$  is non-cyclic. Since  $|G/Z(G)| < |G|$ , by induction hypothesis  $G/Z(G)$  contains two distinct subgroups of the same order. The preimages of these two subgroups in  $G$  yield two distinct subgroups of  $G$  of the same order, again contrary to our assumption.

**3.** In all parts of this problem  $G$  is a finite group.

(a) Prove that  $G$  has a simple quotient (that is,  $G$  has a quotient which is a simple group).

(b) Suppose that  $G$  is perfect, that is,  $[G, G] = G$ . Prove that  $G$  has a non-abelian simple quotient.

(c) Once again, let  $G$  be an arbitrary finite group. Prove that  $G$  has a unique normal subgroup  $K$  such that  $K$  is perfect and  $G/K$  is solvable.

**Note:** For the assertion of the problem to be valid, we need to assume that  $G$  is non-trivial.

**Solution:** (a) Since  $G$  is finite and non-trivial, it has a maximal normal subgroup  $N$ , that is, a maximal element of the set of **proper** normal subgroups of  $G$ , ordered by inclusion. Then  $G/N$  is simple. If not,  $G/N$  contains a proper non-trivial normal subgroup, so by the lattice isomorphism theorem there is a proper normal subgroup of  $G$  which strictly contains  $N$ , contradicting the assumption that  $N$  is maximal.

(b) For any normal subgroup  $N$  of any group  $G$  we have  $[G/N, G/N] = [G, G]N/N$ . If  $G$  is perfect,  $[G, G]N = GN = G$ , so any quotient of  $G$  is perfect. Thus, by (a),  $G$  has a perfect simple quotient, call it  $Q$ . Since simple groups are non-trivial and a non-trivial abelian group cannot be perfect,  $Q$  is simple non-abelian.

(c) The derived series  $\{G^{(n)}\}$  is descending, and since  $G$  is finite, there exists

$N \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t.  $G^{(n)} = G^{(N)}$  for all  $n \geq N$ . We claim that  $K = G^{(N)}$  has the required property. Indeed,  $[K, K] = [G^{(N)}, G^{(N)}] = G^{(N+1)} = K$ , so  $K$  is perfect. On the other hand,  $(G/K)^{(N)} = G^{(N)}K/K = K/K = \{1_{G/K}\}$ , so  $G/K$  is solvable.

Now we prove uniqueness. Let  $L$  be any perfect normal subgroup s.t.  $G/L$  is solvable. Since  $L$  is perfect, we have  $L = L^{(n)}$  for all  $n$ . In particular,  $L = L^{(N)} \subseteq G^{(N)} = K$ . And since  $G/L$  is solvable,  $(G/L)^{(n)} = \{1\}$  for some  $n$ . Since  $(G/L)^{(n)} = G^{(n)}L/L$ , we get  $L \supseteq G^{(n)} = K$ . Combining the two inclusions, we conclude that  $L = K$ .

4. Prove that there are precisely 5 isomorphism classes of groups of order 20. Include all the details.

**Solution:** We will use the following two results in the proof:

**Lemma A:** Let  $P$  and  $Q$  be groups and  $\phi, \psi$  homomorphisms from  $Q$  to  $\text{Aut}(P)$ . Suppose that there exists  $\theta \in \text{Aut}(Q)$  s.t.  $\phi\theta = \psi$ . Then  $P \rtimes_{\psi} Q \cong P \rtimes_{\phi} Q$ .

**Lemma B:** Let  $p$  and  $q$  be distinct primes,  $P$  be a finite  $p$ -group and  $Q$  a finite  $q$ -group, and let  $\phi, \psi$  be homomorphisms from  $Q$  to  $\text{Aut}(P)$ . Suppose that  $\text{Ker}\phi \not\cong \text{Ker}\psi$ . Then  $P \rtimes_{\psi} Q \not\cong P \rtimes_{\phi} Q$ .

Lemma A was proved in class (Lecture 10) and Lemma B is proved by the same argument as the assertion of the hint from [DF, Problem 7(c), p. 185] (=Problem 3 from HW#5).

So, let  $G$  be a group of order 20. Since  $n_5(G) \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$  and  $n_5(G) \mid 4$ , we must have  $n_5(G) = 1$ , so 5-Sylow subgroup of  $G$  is normal. Hence  $G = P \rtimes Q$  where  $P$  is the 5-Sylow of  $G$  and  $Q$  is a 2-Sylow of  $G$ , so  $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_5 \rtimes_{\phi} Q$  for some  $\phi : Q \rightarrow \text{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}_5) \cong \mathbb{Z}_4$ .

*Case 1:*  $Q \cong \mathbb{Z}_4$ . In this case a homomorphism  $\phi : Q \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_4$  is uniquely determined by  $\phi(\bar{1})$  (and there are no restrictions on  $\phi(\bar{1})$ ), so there exist four homomorphisms  $\phi_i : Q \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_4$ , with  $i = 0, 1, 2, 3$ , given by  $\phi_i(\bar{1}) = [\bar{i}]$ .

The homomorphisms  $\phi_0, \phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$  yield non-isomorphic groups by Lemma B since  $\text{Ker}\phi_0 \cong \mathbb{Z}_4$ ,  $\text{Ker}\phi_1$  is trivial and  $\text{Ker}\phi_2 \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$ . On the other hand,  $\mathbb{Z}_5 \rtimes_{\phi_1} Q \cong \mathbb{Z}_5 \rtimes_{\phi_3} Q$  by Lemma A since  $\phi_3 = \phi_1\theta$  where  $\theta \in \text{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}_4)$  is given by  $\theta(x) = -x$ .

*Case 2:*  $Q \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$ . In this case for any homomorphism  $\phi : Q \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_4$  we have  $\text{Im}\phi \subseteq \langle \bar{2} \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$ , so  $|\text{Im}\phi| \leq 2$  and thus  $\phi$  is entirely determined by its kernel. Moreover, any non-trivial subgroup of  $Q$  occurs as the kernel of some  $\phi : Q \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_4$ , so there exists 3 possibilities for a non-trivial  $\phi$ , call them  $\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3$ , whose kernels are  $\langle (\bar{1}, \bar{0}) \rangle$ ,  $\langle (\bar{0}, \bar{1}) \rangle$  and  $\langle (\bar{1}, \bar{1}) \rangle$ , respectively.

Since  $\text{Aut}(Q) \cong GL_2(\mathbb{Z}_2)$  acts transitively on  $Q$ , for any  $i, j \in \{1, 2, 3\}$  there exists  $\theta \in \text{Aut}(Q)$  s.t.  $\theta^{-1}\text{Ker}\phi_i = \text{Ker}\phi_j$ . Since  $\theta^{-1}\text{Ker}\phi_i = \text{Ker}(\phi_i\theta)$ ,

by the previous paragraph  $\phi_j = \phi_i \theta$ . Hence by Lemma A,  $\phi_1, \phi_2$  and  $\phi_3$  yield isomorphic groups. On the other hand, the trivial homomorphism and  $\phi_1$  yield non-isomorphic groups by Lemma B (or simply because one group is abelian and the other is not).

Thus, we have three isomorphism classes of groups of order 20 in Case 1 and two isomorphism classes in Case 2. Any group from Case 1 cannot be isomorphic to any group from Case 2 since they have non-isomorphic Sylow 2-subgroups. Thus, we proved that there are  $3 + 2 = 5$  isomorphism classes of groups of order 20.

**5.** Let  $X$  be a finite set and  $F = F(X)$  the (standard) free group on  $X$ .

**Definition:** An element  $g \in F$  is called cyclically reduced (with respect to  $X$ ) if the reduced word representing  $g$  is of the form  $x_1^{\varepsilon_1} \dots x_n^{\varepsilon_n}$  (with  $x_i \in X$ ,  $\varepsilon_i = \pm 1$ ) where  $x_n^{\varepsilon_n} \neq (x_1^{\varepsilon_1})^{-1}$ .

- (a) Prove that any element  $g \in F$  is conjugate to a cyclically reduced element.
- (b) Prove that if  $f \in F$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $f^n$  is cyclically reduced if and only if  $f$  is cyclically reduced.
- (c) Prove that if  $f, g \in F$  and  $f^n = g^n$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $f = g$ . Explain the argument in detail. **Hint:** First consider the case when  $f$  is cyclically reduced and then treat the general case.
- (d) Now prove that if  $f, g \in F$  and  $f^n = g^m$  for some  $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $f$  and  $g$  commute. **Hint:** Use (c).

**Solution:** (a) Let  $g = x_1^{\varepsilon_1} \dots x_n^{\varepsilon_n}$  with  $x_i \in X$  and  $\varepsilon_i = \pm 1$ . Let  $k$  be the largest non-negative integer s.t.  $k \leq n/2$  and  $x_i^{\varepsilon_i} = (x_{n+1-i}^{\varepsilon_{n+1-i}})^{-1}$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq k$ . Then  $g = aba^{-1}$  where  $a = \prod_{i=1}^k x_i^{\varepsilon_i}$  and  $b = \prod_{i=k+1}^{n-k} x_i^{\varepsilon_i}$ , and by construction  $b$  is cyclically reduced.

(b) In parts (b)-(d), to avoid any ambiguity in the notations, given  $u, v \in F(X)$ , by  $uv$  we denote the concatenation of  $u$  and  $v$  (without cancellations). Given a (possibly) non-reduced word  $u$ , by  $[u]$  we shall denote the unique reduced word equivalent to  $u$ . In this notation (b) is restated as follows:

If  $f$  is reduced, then  $f$  is cyclically reduced  $\iff [f^n]$  is cyclically reduced

Given a word  $u = x_1^{\varepsilon_1} \dots x_n^{\varepsilon_n}$  we shall refer to  $x_1^{\varepsilon_1}$  (resp.  $x_n^{\varepsilon_n}$ ) as the first (resp. last) factor of  $u$ .

Now take  $f \in F(X)$  and write  $f = aba^{-1}$  as in part (a). Then  $[f^n] = [(aba^{-1})^n] = [ab^n a^{-1}]$ . The word  $ab^n a^{-1}$  is reduced – if not, then one of the

words  $ab, ba^{-1}$  or  $bb$  would not be reduced, which is impossible –  $ab$  and  $ba^{-1}$  are reduced since they are subwords of the reduced word  $f$  and  $bb$  is reduced since  $b$  is cyclically reduced. Thus,  $[f^n] = ab^n a^{-1}$ .

“ $\Rightarrow$ ” Assume that  $f$  is cyclically reduced. Then  $a = e$ , the empty word and hence  $[f^n] = b^n = f^n$ . Thus, the first (resp. last) factor of  $f$  coincides with the first (resp. last) factor of  $[f^n]$ . So  $[f^n]$  is cyclically reduced since  $f$  is cyclically reduced.

“ $\Leftarrow$ ” Now assume that  $f$  is not cyclically reduced. Then  $a \neq e$ , so the first factor of  $[f^n]$  is the first factor of  $a$  and the last factor of  $[f^n]$  is the last factor of  $a^{-1}$ . Since the last factor of  $a^{-1}$  is the inverse of the first factor of  $a$ , we conclude that  $[f^n]$  is not cyclically reduced.

(c) First assume that  $f$  is cyclically reduced. Then by (b),  $[f^n]$  is cyclically reduced, so  $[g^n]$  is cyclically reduced and again by (b)  $g$  is cyclically reduced. In this case, as follows from the proof of (b),  $f^n = [f^n] = [g^n] = g^n$ , so  $f^n = g^n$  (as words).

Assume that  $f = x_1^{\varepsilon_1} \dots x_k^{\varepsilon_k}$  and  $g = y_1^{\delta_1} \dots y_m^{\delta_m}$ , with  $x_i, y_i \in X$  and  $\varepsilon_i, \delta_i = \{\pm 1\}$ . Then

$$f^n = \underbrace{x_1^{\varepsilon_1} \dots x_k^{\varepsilon_k} \cdot \dots \cdot x_1^{\varepsilon_1} \dots x_k^{\varepsilon_k}}_{n \text{ times}} \text{ and}$$

$$g^n = \underbrace{y_1^{\delta_1} \dots y_m^{\delta_m} \cdot \dots \cdot y_1^{\delta_1} \dots y_m^{\delta_m}}_{n \text{ times}}.$$

Since  $f^n = g^n$  as words, we know that  $x_i^{\varepsilon_i} = y_i^{\delta_i}$  (and so  $x_i = y_i$  and  $\varepsilon_i = \delta_i$ ) for  $i \leq \min\{m, k\}$ . Moreover,  $nk = \text{length}(f^n) = \text{length}(g^n) = nm$ , so  $k = m$ . Combining the last two results, we conclude that  $f = g$ .

Now we treat the general case. By (a),  $f = aba^{-1}$  where  $b$  is cyclically reduced. Then  $[g^n] = [f^n] = [(aba^{-1})^n] = ab^n a^{-1}$ , so  $b^n = [a^{-1}g^n a] = [(a^{-1}ga)^n]$ . Hence  $b = [a^{-1}ga]$  by the special case proved above, and therefore  $g = [a(a^{-1}ga)a^{-1}] = [aba^{-1}] = [f] = f$ .

(d) Assume that  $[f^n] = [g^m]$ . Then  $[(fgf^{-1})^m] = [fg^m f^{-1}] = [ff^n f^{-1}] = [f^n] = [g^m]$ . Hence by (c),  $[fgf^{-1}] = [g]$ , so  $[fg] = [gf]$ .