

**Problem 2 (Ch. 1.12)**

Determine representatives of the conjugacy classes in  $S_5$  and the number of elements in each class. Use this information to prove that the only normal subgroups of  $S_5$  are 1,  $A_5$ ,  $S_5$ .

*Solution.* As is shown in Jacobson, the conjugacy classes of  $S_5$  have a 1-1 correspondance to the partitions of 5, namely positive integers  $r \geq s \geq \cdots \geq u$  such that  $r + s + \cdots + u = 5$ . The partitions of 5 are (5), (4, 1), (3, 2), (3, 1, 1), (2, 2, 1), (2, 1, 1, 1), and (1, 1, 1, 1, 1). Thus, we present the following representatives of the corresponding equivalence classes:

$$\begin{aligned}(12345) &= (15)(14)(13)(12) \\ (1234)(5) &= (14)(13)(12) \\ (123)(45) &= (13)(12)(45) \\ (123)(4)(5) &= (13)(12) \\ (12)(34)(5) &= (12)(34) \\ (12)(3)(4)(5) &= (12) \\ (1)(2)(3)(4)(5) &= (1)\end{aligned}$$

If  $K$  is a normal subgroup of  $S_5$ , then  $\alpha^{-1}K\alpha \in K$  for all  $\alpha \in S_5$ . We know that  $K$  must be some union of our conjugacy classes (otherwise if it did not contain an entire conjugacy class, it fails for  $\alpha$  in that conjugacy class), and since it is a group, it must contain (1). Given this, since conjugacy classes imply  $\alpha^{-1}K\alpha \in K$ , we just need to find the subgroups of  $S_5$  which are unions of conjugacy classes, and closed under multiplication.

If  $K \subseteq A_5$ , then it contains only even conjugacy classes (note that conjugacy classes all share the same sign, since any element in a conjugacy class given by the representative above can be decomposed into transpositions similarly). These are  $\overline{(12345)}$ ,  $\overline{(123)}$ ,  $\overline{(12)(34)}$ ,  $\overline{(1)}$ . Note that  $(15)(14) \cdot (123) = (12345) \in \overline{(12345)}$ ,  $(14)(15) \cdot (12345) = (123) \in \overline{(123)}$  and  $(315) \cdot (12345) = (12)(34)(12)(34)$ , thus the group is only closed when all of the even conjugacy classes are included in  $K$ , i.e.  $K = A_5$ , or  $K = 1$ .

Now let  $K \not\subseteq A_5$ . Then  $K$  must contain at least one of the odd conjugacy classes, so  $\overline{(1234)}$ ,  $\overline{(123)(45)}$  and/or  $\overline{(12)}$ . But the product of two odd permutations is even, and so one can see that  $A_5 \subseteq K$ . Similar to before, we can construct products between the odd conjugacy classes and the even ones such that  $K$  is only closed when all of the odd conjugacy classes are included. Thus  $K = S_5$ .

**Problem 4 (Ch. 1.12)**

Show that if a finite group  $G$  has a subgroup  $H$  of index  $n$  then  $H$  contains a normal subgroup of  $G$  of index a divisor of  $n!$ . (Hint: Consider the action of  $G$  on  $G/H$  by left translations.

*Solution.* Consider the action of  $G$  on  $G/H$  by left translations. By definition, this is a homomorphism  $T: G \rightarrow \text{Sym}(G/H)$  (where  $\text{Sym}(G/H)$  are the bijective maps on  $G/H$  to itself). Let  $K = \ker(T)$ . Note that  $K$  is a normal subgroup of  $G$  by the fundamental theorem of homomorphisms. Furthermore, by the fundamental theorem, there is a bijection from  $G/K$  to the image  $T(G) \subseteq \text{Sym}(G/H)$ . Since  $T$  is a homomorphism,  $T(G)$  is a group, specifically a subgroup of  $\text{Sym}(G/H)$ . Since the index of  $G/H$  is  $n$ , there are  $n$  elements in  $G/H$ , and so there are  $n!$  elements in  $\text{Sym}(G/H)$  (the number of permutations of  $n$  elements). By Lagrange's theorem, the order of a subgroup divides the order of the group, and so  $|G/K| = [G : K] \mid |\text{Sym}(G/H)| = n!$ .

It remains to show that  $K$  is a subgroup of  $H$ . The identity of  $\text{Sym}(G/H)$  is the identity map of the cosets of  $G/H$ . Since  $K = \ker(T)$ , this means that for any  $k \in K$ ,  $kxH = xH$  for all  $x \in G$ . Fixing  $x = 1_G$ , we have  $kH = H$ . But this is true only if  $k \in H$  for all  $k \in K$ , thus  $H$  contains a normal subgroup of index a divisor of  $n!$ .

**Problem 5 (Ch. 1.12)**

Let  $p$  be the smallest prime dividing the order of a finite group. Show that any subgroup of  $H$  of  $G$  of index  $p$  is normal.

*Solution.* We apply Problem 4 from 1.12 (above): if  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$  with index  $p$ , then  $H$  contains a normal subgroup of  $G$ , call it  $K$ , such that  $[G : K] \mid p!$ . Now recall from Problem 2 of 1.7 of Jacobson that  $[G : K] = [G : H][H : K]$  since  $K \subset H$ , thus  $p = [G : H] \mid [G : K] \mid p!$ . Thus  $[G : K] = np$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $1 \leq n \leq p - 1$ .

We note that  $p$  is the smallest value (other than 1) dividing the order of the group  $G$ . If there was a prime value smaller that divides  $|G|$ , we contradict our assumption that  $p$  was the smallest, and if there was a composite value smaller, than there are primes that divide the composite value which must be smaller than it, which also contradicts our assumption.

By Lagrange's theorem,  $|G| = |K|np \implies n \mid |G|$ , but if  $1 < n < p$ , but since  $p$  is the smallest value that divides  $|G|$  other than 1, we must have that  $n = 1$ . Thus  $[G : K] = p = [G : H]$  as well, so  $|K| = |H|$  by Lagrange's theorem (ie.  $|H|p = |K|p = |G|$ ), and since  $K$  is a subgroup of  $H$ , we have that  $H = K$ . Hence,  $H$  is normal in  $G$  (since  $K$  was).

### Problem 6 (Ch. 1.12)

Show that every group of order  $p^2$ ,  $p$  is a prime, is abelian. Show that up to isomorphism there are only two such groups.

*Solution.* Let  $G$  be a group with order  $p^2$ . For the sake of contradiction, assume that  $G$  is not abelian. Then  $|C(G)| = p^2$ , and also by Theorem 1.11,  $C(G) \neq 1$ , thus since  $|C(G)| \mid |G|$ , we have that  $|C(G)| = p$ . Let  $g \in G$  such that  $g \notin C(G)$ . Since  $[G : C(G)] = p$ ,  $g$  and  $C(G)$  generate  $G$ . Thus, if  $a \in G$ , we have that  $a = g^i c$  where  $c \in C(G)$  and  $0 \leq i \leq p - 1$ . So if  $b \in G$  such that  $b = g^j c'$  with the same assumptions as before, we have that  $ab = (g^i c)(g^j c') = g^i g^j c c' = (g^j c')(g^i c)$ . But since  $a, b \in G$  were arbitrary, this means  $G$  is abelian, contradiction.

Now, note that  $G$  can be cyclic. If  $G$  has an element with order  $p^2$ ,  $G$  is cyclic. If it is not, then all non-identity elements of  $G$  has order  $p$  (to divide the order of the group). Any two elements  $a, b$  will generate the group if  $a \neq b^n$  for any  $n$ , since  $p \cdot p = p^2$ . Thus if two such elements are  $a, b$ , then  $G = \langle a, b \rangle$ .

### Problem 8 (Ch. 1.12)

Let  $G$  act on  $S$ ,  $H$  act on  $T$ , and assume  $S \cap T = \emptyset$ . Let  $U = S \cup T$  and define for  $g \in G$ ,  $h \in H$ ,  $s \in S$ ,  $t \in T$ ;  $(g, h)s = gs$ ,  $(g, h)t = ht$ . Show that this defines an action of  $G \times H$  on  $U$ .

*Solution.* Note that this map is well-defined, since if  $u \in U$ , then either  $u \in S$  or  $u \in T$  but not both, so it always gets mapped to only one element in  $U$ .

The identity of  $G \times H$  is  $(1_G, 1_H)$ . If  $u \in S$ , then  $(1_G, 1_H)u = 1_G u = u$ . If  $u \in T$ , then  $(1_G, 1_H)u = 1_H u = u$ .

Let  $(g_1, h_1), (g_2, h_2) \in G \times H$ . If  $u \in S$ , then  $((g_1, h_1)(g_2, h_2))u = (g_1 g_2, h_1 h_2)u = g_1 g_2 u = (g_1, h_1)g_2 u = (g_1, h_1)(g_2, h_2)u$ . If  $u \in T$ , then  $((g_1, h_1)(g_2, h_2))u = (g_1 g_2, h_1 h_2)u = h_1 h_2 u = (g_1, h_1)h_2 u = (g_1, h_1)(g_2, h_2)u$ . Thus, we have shown that this defines a group action.

### Problem 9 (Ch. 1.9)

A group  $H$  is said to act on a group  $K$  by automorphisms if we have an action of  $H$  on  $K$  and for every  $h \in H$  the map  $k \rightarrow hk$  of  $K$  is an automorphism. Suppose this is the case and let  $H$  be the product set  $K \times H$ . Define a binary composition in  $K \times H$  by

$$(k_1, h_1)(k_2, h_2) = (k_1(h_1 k_2), h_1 h_2)$$

and define  $1 = (1, 1)$  - the units of  $K$  and  $H$  respectively. Verify that this defines a group such that  $h \rightarrow (1, h)$  is a monomorphism of  $H$  into  $K \times H$  and  $k \rightarrow (k, 1)$  is a monomorphism of  $K$  into  $K \times H$  whose image is a normal subgroup.  $G$  is called a semi-direct product of  $K$  and  $H$ . Note that if  $H$  and  $K$  are finite then  $|K \times H| = |K||H|$ .

*Solution.* We first show that this defines a group. First, the binary composition is closed, since  $h_1 k_2 \in K$ , since  $k \rightarrow h_1 k$  is an automorphism, so  $h_1 k \in K$  for all  $k$ , which includes  $k_2$ ; then the product of  $k_1(h_1 k_2) \in K$  by closure

of  $K$ . Also,  $h_1h_2 \in H$  by closure of  $H$ . Second, we show associativity:

$$\begin{aligned}
 ((k_1, h_1)(k_2, h_2))(k_3, h_3) &= (k_1(h_1k_2), h_1h_2)(k_3, h_3) \\
 &= (k_1(h_1k_2)(h_1(h_2k_3)), (h_1h_2)h_3) \\
 &= (k_1(h_1(k_2(h_2k_3))), h_1(h_2h_3)) \\
 &= (k_1, h_1)(k_2(h_2k_3), h_2h_3) \\
 &= (k_1, h_1)((k_2, h_2)(k_3, h_3))
 \end{aligned}$$

Where the third line is done by  $(h_1k_2)(h_1(h_2k_3)) = h_1(k_2(h_2k_3))$  since  $\phi: k \rightarrow h_1k$  is an isomorphism (since its an automorphism), so  $\phi(k_2(h_2k_3)) = \phi(k_2)\phi(h_2k_3)$ . The unit is in  $K \times H$ , specifically  $(1_K, 1_H)$ . Finally, we claim the inverse of  $(k, h) \in K \times H$  is  $(h^{-1}k^{-1}, h^{-1}) \in K \times H$ . See:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (k, h)(h^{-1}k^{-1}, h^{-1}) &= (k(h(h^{-1}k^{-1})), hh^{-1}) = (k(hh^{-1}k^{-1}), 1_H) = (k(1_Hk^{-1}), 1_H) = (kk^{-1}, 1_H) = (1_K, 1_H) \\
 (h^{-1}(k^{-1}, h^{-1})(k, h) &= ((h^{-1}k^{-1})(h^{-1}k), h^{-1}h) = (k'^{-1}k', 1_H) = (1_K, 1_H)
 \end{aligned}$$

where we used the fact that  $h^{-1}k = (h^{-1}k^{-1})^{-1}$  since  $k \rightarrow h^{-1}k$  is an isomorphism (since its an automorphism), and so we denoted  $h^{-1}k = k' \in K$ . Thus, ths defines a group.

To verify  $\phi: h \rightarrow (1, h)$  is a monomorphism, we see that it is a homomorphism since  $\phi(h_1)\phi(h_2) = (1, h_1)(1, h_2) = (1(h_11), h_1h_2) = (1, h_1h_2) = \phi(h_1h_2)$  where we have made the substitution  $h_11 = 1$  because  $x \rightarrow h_1x$  is an isomorphism (since its an automorphism) and isomorphisms must map the identity to itself; to see that the map is injective, note that if  $\phi(h) = \phi(h')$ , then  $(1, h) = (1, h')$  which is true if and only if  $h = h'$ .

To verify  $\psi: k \rightarrow (k, 1)$  is a monomorphism, we see that it is a homomorphism since  $\psi(k_1)\psi(k_2) = (k_1, 1)(k_2, 1) = (k_1(1k_2), 1) = (k_1k_2, 1) = \psi(k_1k_2)$  where we have made the substitution  $1k_2 = k_2$  because  $k \rightarrow 1k$  is the identity automorphism and so maps  $k_2$  to itself; to see that the map is injective, note that if  $\psi(k) = \psi(k')$ , then  $(k, 1) = (k', 1)$  which is true if and only if  $k = k'$ .

Finally, to see that the image of  $\psi$  is normal subgroup of  $K \times H$ , it remains only to show that the image is normal, since by the fundamental theorem of homomorphisms, since  $K$  is a group and  $k \rightarrow (k, 1)$  is a homomorphism (monomorphism), then the image is a subgroup of  $K \times H$ . If  $(k', 1) = \psi(k') \in \psi^{\text{img}}(K)$  for some  $k' \in K$ , consider  $(h^{-1}k^{-1}, h)(k', 1)(k, h)$  for arbitrary  $(k, h) \in K \times H$  (where we have shown previously the expression on the left is our inverse). See

$$\begin{aligned}
 (h^{-1}k^{-1}, h^{-1})(k', 1)(k, h) &= ((h^{-1}k^{-1})(h^{-1}k'), h^{-1})(k, h) \\
 &= (h^{-1}(k^{-1}k'), h^{-1})(k, h) \\
 &= (h^{-1}(k^{-1}k')(h^{-1}k), h^{-1}h) \\
 &= (h^{-1}(k^{-1}k'k), 1)
 \end{aligned}$$

(where we have been pulling out  $h^{-1}$  since  $k \rightarrow h^{-1}k$  is an isomorphism from the fact it is an automorphism, and so  $(h^{-1}k)(h^{-1}k') = h^{-1}(kk')$ ). But  $k^{-1}k'k \in K$  so  $h^{-1}(k^{-1}k'k) \in K$  since  $k \rightarrow h^{-1}k$  is an automorphism of  $K$ . Thus,  $(h^{-1}(k^{-1}k'k), 1) = \psi(h^{-1}(k^{-1}k'k))$ , thus  $(h^{-1}k^{-1}, h^{-1})(k', 1)(k, h) \in \psi^{\text{img}}(K)$ , so the subgroup is normal.