

Group Theory

J. S. Milne

January 27, 2022

Contents

1	Basic Definitions and Results	2
1.1	Definitions and examples	2
1.2	Normal subgroups	4
1.3	Theorems concerning homomorphisms	5
1.4	Direct products	6
1.5	Commutative groups	7
1.6	The order of ab	9
1.7	Exercises	10
2	Free Groups and Presentations; Coxeter Groups	11
2.1	Free monoids	11
2.2	Free groups	11
2.3	Generators and relations	13
2.4	Finitely presented groups	13
2.5	Coxeter groups	14
2.6	Exercises	14
3	Automorphisms and Extensions	14
3.1	Automorphisms of groups	14
3.2	Characteristic subgroups	17
3.3	Semidirect products	17
3.4	Extensions of groups	20
3.5	The Hölder program	20
3.6	Exercises	20

4	Groups Acting on Sets	21
4.1	Definition and examples	21
4.1.1	Orbits	22
4.1.2	Stabilizers	23
4.1.3	Transitive actions	24
4.1.4	The class equation	25
4.1.5	p -groups	27
4.1.6	Action on the left cosets	28
4.1.7	Permutation groups	28
5	TODO skip and problems	31

1 Basic Definitions and Results

1.1 Definitions and examples

The **order** $|G|$ of a group is its cardinality. A finite group whose order is a power of a prime p is called a **p -group**

C_n denote any cyclic group of order n

Example 1.1 (The quaternion group Q). Let $a = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sqrt{-1} \\ \sqrt{-1} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $b = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Then

$$a^4 = e, \quad a^2 = b^2, \quad bab^{-1} = a^3$$

The subgroup of $\text{GL}_2(\mathbb{C})$ generated by a and b is

$$Q = \{e, a, a^2, a^3, b, ab, a^2b, a^3b\}$$

The group Q can also be described as the subset $\{\pm 1, \pm i, \pm j, \pm k\}$ of the quaternion algebra \mathbb{H} . Recall that

$$\mathbb{H} = \mathbb{R}1 \oplus \mathbb{R}i \oplus \mathbb{R}j \oplus \mathbb{R}k$$

with the multiplication determined by

$$i^2 = -1 = j^2, \quad ij = k = -ji$$

The map

Example 1.2. Let V be a finite-dimensional vector space over a field F . A bilinear form on V is a mapping $\phi : V \times V \rightarrow F$ that is linear in each variable. An **automorphism** of such a ϕ is an isomorphism $\alpha : V \rightarrow V$ s.t.

$$\phi(\alpha v, \alpha w) = \phi(v, w) \text{ for all } v, w \in V$$

The automorphism of ϕ form a group $\text{Aut}(\phi)$. Let $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ be a basis for V , and let

$$P = (\phi(e_i, e_j))_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$$

be the matrix of ϕ . The choice of the basis identifies $\text{Aut}(\phi)$ with the group of invertible matrices A s.t.

$$A^T \cdot P \cdot A = P$$

When ϕ is symmetric, i.e.,

$$\phi(v, w) = \phi(w, v) \text{ all } v, w \in V$$

and nondegenerate, $\text{Aut}(\phi)$ is called the **orthogonal group** of ϕ

Theorem 1.1 (Cayley). *There is a canonical injective homomorphism*

$$\alpha : G \rightarrow \text{Sym}(G)$$

Corollary 1.2. *A finite group of order n can be realized as a subgroup of S_n*

Proposition 1.3. *Let H be a subgroup of a group G*

1. *An element $a \in G$ lies in a left coset C of H iff $C = aH$*
2. *Two left cosets are either disjoint or equal*
3. *$aH = bH$ iff $a^{-1}b \in H$*
4. *Any two left cosets have the same number of elements*

The **index** $(G : H)$ of H in G is defined to be the number of left cosets of H in G . For example, $(G : 1)$ is the order of G

Theorem 1.4 (Lagrange). *If G is finite, then*

$$(G : 1) = (G : H)(H : 1)$$

Proof. The left cosets of H in G form a partition of G , there are $(G : H)$ of them □

Corollary 1.5. *The order of each element of a finite group divides the order of the group*

Proof. Consider $H = \langle g \rangle$ □

Proposition 1.6. *For any subgroups $H \supset K$ of G*

$$(G : K) = (G : H)(H : K)$$

Proof. $G = \coprod_{i \in I} g_i H$, and $H = \coprod_{j \in J} h_j K$ □

1.2 Normal subgroups

A subgroup N of G is **normal**, denoted $N \triangleleft G$, if $gNg^{-1} = N$ for all $g \in G$ it suffices to check that $gNg^{-1} \subset N$

Example 1.3. Let $G = \text{GL}_2(\mathbb{Q})$ and let $H = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & n \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mid n \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$. Then H is a subgroup of G ; in fact $H \cong \mathbb{Z}$. Let $g = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Then

$$g \begin{pmatrix} 1 & n \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} g^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & n \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 5n \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Hence $gHg^{-1} \subsetneq H$ and $g^{-1}Hg \not\subset H$

Proposition 1.7. *subgroup N of G is normal iff every left coset of N in G is also a right coset*

Example 1.4. 1. Every subgroup of index two is normal. Indeed, let $g \in G \setminus H$, then $G = H \amalg gH = H \amalg Hg$

A group G is **simple** if it has no normal subgroups other than G and $\{e\}$.

Proposition 1.8. *If H and N are subgroups of G and N is normal, then HN is a subgroup of G . If H is also normal, then HN is a normal subgroup of G*

Intersection of normal subgroups of a group is again a normal subgroup. Therefore we can define the **normal subgroup generated by a subset X** of a group G to be the intersection of the normal subgroups containing X . We say that a subset X of a group G is **normal** if $gXg^{-1} \subset X$ for all $g \in G$

Lemma 1.9. *If X is normal, then the subgroup $\langle X \rangle$ generated by it is normal*

Lemma 1.10. *For any subset X of G , the subset $\bigcup_{g \in G} gXg^{-1}$ is normal, and it is the smallest normal set containing X*

Proposition 1.11. *The normal subgroup generated by a subset X of G is $\langle \bigcup_{g \in G} gXg^{-1} \rangle$*

Proposition 1.12. *The map $a \mapsto aN : G \rightarrow G/N$ has the following universal property: for any homomorphism $\alpha : G \rightarrow G'$ of groups s.t. $\alpha(N) = \{e\}$, there exists a unique homomorphism $G/N \rightarrow G'$ making the diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} G & \xrightarrow{a \mapsto aN} & G/N \\ & \searrow \alpha & \downarrow \text{---} \\ & & G' \end{array}$$

commute

Proof. Define $\bar{\alpha} : G/N \rightarrow G'$, $\bar{\alpha}(gN) = \alpha(g)$

□

1.3 Theorems concerning homomorphisms

The kernel of the homomorphism $\det : \text{GL}_n(F) \rightarrow F^\times$ is the group of $n \times n$ with determinant 1 - this group $\text{SL}_n(F)$ is called the **special linear group of degree n**

Theorem 1.13 (HOMOMORPHISM THEOREM). *For any homomorphism $\alpha : G \rightarrow G'$ of groups, $\ker \alpha \triangleleft G$, $\text{im } \alpha \leq G'$, and α factors in a natural way into the composite of a surjection, an isomorphism, and an injection*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} G & \xrightarrow{\alpha} & G' \\ \downarrow g \mapsto gN & & \uparrow \\ G/N & \xrightarrow[\substack{\sim \\ gN \mapsto \alpha(g)}} & I \end{array}$$

Theorem 1.14 (ISOMORPHISM THEOREM). *$H \leq G$, $N \triangleleft G$. Then $HN \leq G$, $H \cap N \triangleleft G$*

$$h(H \cap N) \mapsto hN : H/H \cap N \rightarrow HN/N$$

is an isomorphism

link

\bar{G} is a quotient group of G

Theorem 1.15 (CORRESPONDENCE THEOREM). *Let $\alpha : G \twoheadrightarrow \bar{G}$ be a surjective homomorphism, and let $N = \ker \alpha$. Then there is a one-to-one correspondence*

$$\{\text{subgroups of } G \text{ containing } N\} \leftrightarrow \{\text{subgroups of } \bar{G}\}$$

under which a subgroup H of G containing N corresponds to $\bar{H} = \alpha(H)$ and a subgroup \bar{H} of \bar{G} corresponds to $H = \alpha^{-1}(\bar{H})$. Moreover, if $H \leftrightarrow \bar{H}$ and $H' \leftrightarrow \bar{H}'$, then

1. $\bar{H} \subset \bar{H}' \Leftrightarrow H \subset H'$, in which case $(\bar{H}' : \bar{H}) = (H' : H)$
2. $\bar{H} \triangleleft \bar{G} \Leftrightarrow H \triangleleft G$, in which case α induces an isomorphism

$$G/H \xrightarrow{\cong} \bar{G}/\bar{H}$$

Corollary 1.16. *$N \triangleleft G$; then there is a one-to-one correspondence between the set of subgroups of G containing N and the set of subgroups of G/N , $H \leftrightarrow H/N$. Moreover $H \triangleleft G \Leftrightarrow H/N \triangleleft G/N$, in which case the homomorphism $g \mapsto gN : G \rightarrow G/N$ induces an isomorphism*

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

1.4 Direct products

Let G be a group, and let H_1, \dots, H_k be subgroups of G . G is a **direct product** of the subgroups H_i if the map

$$(h_1, \dots, h_k) \mapsto h_1 \dots h_k : H_1 \times \dots \times H_k \rightarrow G$$

is an isomorphism of groups

note that if $g = h_1 \dots h_k$ and $g' = h'_1 \dots h'_k$, then

$$gg' = (h_1 h'_1) \dots (h_k h'_k)$$

Proposition 1.17. *A group G is a direct product of subgroups H_1, H_2 iff*

1. $G = H_1 H_2$
2. $H_1 \cap H_2 = \{e\}$
3. every element of H_1 commutes with every element of H_2

Proof. 3 shows that $(h_1, h_2) \rightarrow h_1 h_2$ is a homomorphism, 2 injective, 1 surjective \square

Proposition 1.18. *A group G is a direct product of subgroups H_1, H_2 iff*

1. $G = H_1 H_2$
2. $H_1 \cap H_2 = \{e\}$
3. $H_1, H_2 \triangleleft G$

Proof. The elements h_1, h_2 of a group commute iff their commutator

$$[h_1, h_2] := (h_1 h_2)(h_2 h_1)^{-1}$$

is e . But

$$(h_1 h_2)(h_2 h_1)^{-1} = h_1 h_2 h_1^{-1} h_2^{-1} = \begin{cases} (h_1 h_2 h_1^{-1}) \cdot h_2^{-1} \\ h_1 \cdot (h_2 h_1^{-1} h_2^{-1}) \end{cases}$$

which is in H_2 because H_2 is normal, and is in H_1 because H_1 is normal \square

Proposition 1.19. *A group G is a direct product of subgroups H_1, \dots, H_k iff*

1. $G = H_1 \dots H_k$
2. for each j , $H_j \cap (H_1 \dots H_{j-1} H_{j+1} \dots H_k) = \{e\}$
3. $H_1, \dots, H_k \triangleleft G$

1.5 Commutative groups

Let M be a commutative group. The subgroup $\langle x_1, \dots, x_k \rangle$ of M generated by the elements x_1, \dots, x_k consists of the sums $\sum m_i x_i$, $m_i \in \mathbb{Z}$. A subset $\{x_1, \dots, x_k\}$ of M is a **basis** of M if it generates M and

$$\sum m_i x_i = 0, m_i \in \mathbb{Z} \implies m_i x_i = 0 \text{ for every } i$$

then

$$M = \langle x_1 \rangle \oplus \dots \oplus \langle x_k \rangle$$

Lemma 1.20. *Let x_1, \dots, x_k generate M . For any $c_1, \dots, c_k \in \mathbb{N}$ with $\gcd(c_1, \dots, c_k) = 1$, there exist generators y_1, \dots, y_k for M s.t. $y_1 = c_1 x_1 + \dots + c_k x_k$*

Proof. We argue by induction on $s = c_1 + \dots + c_k$. The lemma certainly holds if $s = 1$, and so we assume $s > 1$. Then, at least two c_i are nonzero, say, $c_1 \geq c_2 > 0$. Now

- $\{x_1, x_2 + x_1, x_3, \dots, x_k\}$ generates M
- $\gcd(c_1 - c_2, c_2, c_3, \dots, c_k) = 1$
- $(c_1 - c_2) + c_2 + \dots + c_k < s$

and so, by induction, there exist generators y_1, \dots, y_k for M s.t.

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 &= (c_1 - c_2)x_1 + c_2(x_1 + x_2) + c_3x_3 + \dots + c_kx_k \\ &= c_1x_1 + \dots + c_kx_k \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 1.21. *Every finitely generated commutative group M has a basis; hence it is a finite direct sum of cyclic groups*

Proof. Induction on the generators of M .

Among the generating sets $\{x_1, \dots, x_k\}$ for M with k elements there is one for which the order of x_1 is the smallest possible. We shall show that M is the direct sum of $\langle x_1 \rangle$ and $\langle x_2, \dots, x_k \rangle$

If M is not the direct sum of $\langle x_1 \rangle$ and $\langle x_2, \dots, x_k \rangle$, then there exists a relation

$$m_1 x_1 + \dots + m_k x_k = 0$$

with $m_1 x_1 \neq 0$. After possibly changing the sign of some of the x_i , we may suppose that $m_1, \dots, m_k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $m_1 < \text{order}(x_1)$. Let $d = \gcd(m_1, \dots, m_k) >$

0, and let $c_i = m_i/d$. According to the lemma, there exists a generating set y_1, \dots, y_k s.t. $y_1 = c_1x_1 + \dots + c_kx_k$. But

$$dy_1 = m_1x_1 + \dots + m_kx_k = 0$$

and $d \leq m_1 < \text{order}(x_1)$, and so this contradicts the choice of $\{x_1, \dots, x_k\}$ \square

Corollary 1.22. *A finite commutative group is cyclic if, for each $n > 0$, it contains at most n elements of order dividing n*

Proof. After Theorem 1.21, we may assume that $G = C_{n_1} \times \dots \times C_{n_r}$ with $n_i \in \mathbb{N}$. If n divides n_i and n_j with $i \neq j$, then G has more than n elements of order dividing n . **First consider $n = p$, then in C_p there are $p - 1$ elements of order dividing p by Lagrange theorem.**

Now consider $n = p_1p_2$. If $(k, p_1p_2) = 1$, then order of k is p_1p_2 . Hence there are at least $p_1p_2 - p_1 - p_2 - 1$ elements. Check THIS! Therefore the hypothesis implies that the n_i are relatively prime. Let a_i generate the i th factor. Then (a_1, \dots, a_r) has order $n_1 \dots n_r$, and so generates G \square

Example 1.5. Let F be a field. The elements of order dividing n in F^\times are the roots of the polynomial $X^n - 1$. Because unique factorization holds in $F[X]$, there are at most n of these, and so corollary shows that every finite subgroup of F^\times is cyclic

Theorem 1.23. *A nonzero finitely generated commutative group M can be expressed*

$$M \approx C_{n_1} \times \dots \times C_{n_s} \times C_\infty^r$$

for certain integers $n_1, \dots, n_s \geq 2$ and $r \geq 0$. Moreover

1. r is uniquely determined by M
2. the n_i can be chosen so that $n_1 \geq 2$ and $n_1 \mid n_2, \dots, n_{s-1} \mid n_s$, and then they are uniquely determined by M
3. the n_i can be chosen to be powers of prime numbers, and then they are uniquely determined by M

The number r is called the **rank** of M . By r being uniquely determined by M , we mean that two decompositions of M of the form , the number of copies of C_∞ will be the same. The integers in (2) are called the **invariant factors** of M . Statement (3) says that M can be expressed

$$M \approx C_{p_1^{e_1}} \times \dots \times C_{p_t^{e_t}} \times C_\infty^r, \quad e_i \geq 1$$

for certain prime powers $p_i^{e_i}$, and that the integers $p_1^{e_1}, \dots, p_t^{e_t}$ are uniquely determined by M ; they are called the **elementary divisors** of M

Proof. The first assertion is a restatement of Theorem 1.21

1. For a prime p not dividing any of the n_i

$$M/pM \approx (C_\infty/pC_\infty)^r \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^r$$

and so r is the dimension of M/pM as an \mathbb{F}_p -vector space **suppose**
 $C_n = \langle a \rangle$ and $f : C_n \rightarrow pC_n : a \mapsto a^p$. Since $(p, n) = 1$, $|a^p| = n$. Thus
this is an isomorphism

2. 3. If $\gcd(m, n) = 1$, then $C_m \times C_n$ contains an element of order mn , and so

$$C_m \times C_n \approx C_{mn}$$

In this way we can decompose C_{n_i} into products of cyclic groups of prime power order. Then we can construct what we want

To prove the uniqueness of (2) and (3), we can replace M with its torsion subgroup (and so assume $r = 0$).

uniqueness of elementary divisors is clear.

n_s is the smallest integer > 0 s.t. $n_s M = 0$; n_{s-1} is the smallest integer > 0 s.t. $n_{s-1} M$ is cyclic; n_{s-2} is the smallest integer s.t. $n_{s-2} M$ can be expressed as a product of two cyclic groups, and so on

in the end, we will get a factoring like

$$\begin{array}{cccc} C_{p_1^{r_1}} & C_{p_1^{r_2}} & C_{p_1^{r_3}} & C_{p_1^{r_4}} \\ C_{p_2^{s_1}} & C_{p_2^{s_2}} & & \\ C_{p_3^{t_1}} & C_{p_3^{t_2}} & C_{p_3^{t_3}} & \end{array}$$

and get out invariant factors

□

1.6 The order of ab

Theorem 1.24. For any integers $m, n, r > 1$, there exists a finite group G with elements a and b s.t. a has order m , b has order n , and ab has order r

Proof. We shall show that, for a suitable prime power q , there exist elements a and b of $\text{SL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q)$ s.t. a, b and ab have orders $2m, 2n$ and $2r$ respectively. As $-I$ is the unique element of order 2 in $\text{SL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q)$, the image of a, b, ab in $\text{SL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q)/\{\pm I\}$ will then have orders m, n and r as required.

Let p be the prime number not dividing $2mnr$. Then p is a unit in the finite ring $\mathbb{Z}/2mnr\mathbb{Z}$, and so some power of it, q say, is 1 in the ring. This means that $2mnr$ divides $q - 1$. As the group \mathbb{F}_q^\times has order $q - 1$ and is cyclic (1.5), there exist element $u, v, w \in \mathbb{F}_q^\times$ having orders $2m, 2n$ and $2r$ respectively. Let

$$a = \begin{pmatrix} u & 1 \\ 0 & u^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \in \text{SL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q) \quad b = \begin{pmatrix} v & 0 \\ t & v^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \in \text{SL}_2(\mathbb{F}_q)$$

where t has been chosen so that

$$uv + t + u^{-1}v^{-1} = w + w^{-1}$$

The characteristic polynomial of a is $(X - u)(X - u^{-1})$ □

1.7 Exercises

Exercise 1.7.1. Let $n = n_1 + \dots + n_r$ be a partition of the positive integer n . Use Lagrange's theorem to show that $n!$ is divisible by $\prod_{i=1}^r n_i!$

Proof. n_1, \dots, n_r is a partition of n elements, and S_{n_i} is the permutation group of each part.

Apparently each S_{n_i} is normal. Thus $S_{n_1} \dots S_{n_r}$ is a subgroup of S . Also $S_{n_i} \cap S_{n_j} = \{\text{id}\}$. Therefore $S_{n_1} \dots S_{n_r} \cong S_{n_1} \times \dots \times S_{n_r}$ □

Exercise 1.7.2. Let $N \triangleleft G$ of index n . Show that $g \in G \Rightarrow g^n \in N$

Proof. Because the group G/N has order n , $(gN)^n = 1$ for every $g \in G$. □

Exercise 1.7.3. A group G is said to have **finite exponent** if there exists an $m > 0$ s.t. $a^m = e$ for every $a \in G$; the smallest such m is then called the **exponent** of G

1. Show that every group of exponent 2 is commutative

2. Show that, for an odd prime p , the group of matrices

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mid a, b, c \in \mathbb{F}_p \right\}$$

has exponent p , but is not commutative

Proof. 1. $ba = (abab)ba = ab$

□

Exercise 1.7.4. Two subgroups H and H' of a group G is **commensurable** if $H \cap H'$ is of finite index in both H and H' . Show that commensurability is an equivalence relation on the subgroups of G

2 Free Groups and Presentations; Coxeter Groups

2.1 Free monoids

Let $X = \{a, b, c, \dots\}$. A **word** is a finite sequence of symbols from X . Empty sequence is denoted by 1. Write SX for the set of words together with the binary concatenation. Then SX is a monoid, called the **free monoid** on X

$X \rightarrow SX$ has the following universal property: for any map of sets $\alpha : X \rightarrow S$ from X to a monoid S , there exists a unique homomorphism $SX \rightarrow S$ making the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{a \mapsto a} & SX \\ & \searrow \alpha & \downarrow \\ & & S \end{array}$$

commute

2.2 Free groups

We want to construct a group FX containing X and having the same universal property. Define

$$X' = \{a, a^{-1}, b, b^{-1}, \dots\}$$

Let W' be the set of words using symbols from X' . A word is **reduced** if it contains no pairs of the form aa^{-1} or $a^{-1}a$. Starting with a word w , we can perform a finite sequence of cancellations to arrive at a reduced word, which will be called the **reduced form** w_0 of w .

Proposition 2.1. *There is only one reduced form of a word*

Proof. Induction on the length of the word w . If w is reduced, there is nothing to prove. Otherwise a pair of the form $a_0 a_0^{-1}$ or $a_0^{-1} a_0$ occurs - assume the first

Observe that any two reduced forms of w obtained by a sequence of cancellations in which $a_0 a_0^{-1}$ is cancelled first are equal, because the induction hypothesis can be applied to the shorter word.

Next observed that any reduced forms of w obtained by a sequence of cancellations where $a_0 a_0^{-1}$ is cancelled at some point are equal, because the result of such a sequence of cancellations will not be affected if $a_0 a_0^{-1}$ is cancelled first

finally consider a reduced form w_0 obtained by a sequence where no cancellation cancels $a_0 a_0^{-1}$ directly. Since $a_0 a_0^{-1}$ doesn't remain in w_0 , at least one of a_0 or a_0^{-1} is cancelled. But the word obtained after this cancellation is the same as if our original pair were cancelled \square

w, w' are **equivalent**, denoted $w \sim w'$, if they have the same reduced form

Proposition 2.2. *products of equivalent words are equivalent, i.e.,*

$$w \sim w', v \sim v' \Rightarrow wv \sim w'v'$$

Let FX be the set of equivalence classes of words. Proposition 2.2 shows that the binary operation on W' defines a binary operation on FX , which obviously makes it into a monoid. It also has inverses. Thus FX is a group, called the **free group**

Proposition 2.3. *For any map of sets $\alpha : X \rightarrow G$ from X to a group G , there exists a unique homomorphism $FX \rightarrow G$ making the following diagram commute*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{a \mapsto a} & FX \\ & \searrow \alpha & \downarrow \\ & & G \end{array}$$

Proof. Consider a map $\alpha : X \rightarrow G$, and extend it to $X' \rightarrow G$ letting $\alpha(a^{-1}) = \alpha(a)^{-1}$. Because G is a monoid, α extends to a homomorphism of monoids $SX' \rightarrow G$. This map will send equivalent words to the same element of G , and so will factor through $FX = SX' / \sim$. \square

Corollary 2.4. *Every group is a quotient of a free group*

Proof. Choose a set X of generators for G (e.g. $X = G$), and let F be the free group generated by X . According to 2.3 the map $a \mapsto a : X \rightarrow G$ extends to a homomorphism $F \rightarrow G$, and the image, being a subgroup containing X , must equal G \square

Theorem 2.5 (Nielsen-Schreier). *Subgroups of free groups are free*

Two free groups FX and FY are isomorphic iff $|X| = |Y|$. Thus **rank** of a free group G to be the cardinality of any free generating set (subset X of G for which the homomorphism $FX \rightarrow G$ given by 2.3 is an isomorphism)

2.3 Generators and relations

Consider a set X and a set R of words made up of symbols in X' . Each element of R represents an element of the free group FX , and the quotient G of FX by the normal subgroup generated by these elements is said to have X as **generators** and R as **relations**. (X, R) is a **presentation** for G , and denotes G by $\langle X \mid R \rangle$

Proposition 2.6. $G = \langle X \mid R \rangle$, for any group H and map $\alpha : X \rightarrow H$ sending each element of R to 1, there exists a unique homomorphism $G \rightarrow H$ making the diagram commute

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 X & \xrightarrow{a \mapsto a} & G \\
 & \searrow \alpha & \downarrow \\
 & & H
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 X & \xrightarrow{\iota} & FX & \longrightarrow & FX/(\iota R) = G \\
 & \searrow & \downarrow & & \swarrow \\
 & & H & &
 \end{array}$$

Proof.

\square

2.4 Finitely presented groups

A group is **finitely presented** if it admits a presentation (X, R) with both X and R finite

Example 2.1. Consider a finite group G . Let $X = G$, and let R be the set of words

$$\{abc^{-1} \mid ab = c\}$$

(X, R) is a presentation of G , and so G is finitely presented: let $G' = \langle X \mid R \rangle$. The extension of $a \mapsto a : X \rightarrow G$ to FX sends each element of R to 1, and therefore defines a homomorphism $G' \rightarrow G$, which is obviously surjective. But every element of G' is represented by an element of X , and so $|G'| \leq |G|$. Therefore the homomorphism is bijective

2.5 Coxeter groups

A **Coxeter system** is a pair (G, S) consisting of a group G and a set of generators S for G subject only to relations of the form $(st)^{m(s,t)} = 1$

$$\begin{cases} m(s, s) = 1 \text{ for all } s \\ m(s, t) \geq 2 \\ m(s, t) = m(t, s) \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

When no relation occurs between s and t , we set $m(s, t) = \infty$. Thus a Coxeter system is defined by a set S and a mapping

$$m : S \times S \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$$

satisfying (1), and the group $G = \langle S \mid R \rangle$ where

$$R = \{(st)^{m(s,t)} \mid m(s, t) \neq \infty\}$$

The **Coxeter groups** are those that arise as part of a Coxeter system. The cardinality of S is called the **rank** of the Coxeter system

2.6 Exercises

Exercise 2.6.1. Let $D_n = \langle a, b \mid a^n, b^2, abab \rangle$ be the n th dihedral group. If n is odd, prove that $D_{2n} \approx \langle a^n \rangle \times \langle a^2, b \rangle$, and hence that $D_{2n} \approx C_2 \times D_n$

Proof. first, $ab(b^{-1}a^{-1}) = ab(b^{-1}a^{-1})(abab) = abab = e$, hence D_n is commutative for any n . Since n is odd, $(n, 2) = 1$ and so $D_{2n} \approx C_2 \times C_n$ \square

3 Automorphisms and Extensions

3.1 Automorphisms of groups

For $g \in G$, the map i_g “conjugation by g ”

$$x \mapsto gxg^{-1} : G \rightarrow G$$

is an automorphism of G , called an **inner automorphism** and others are called **outer**

As $i_{gh}(x) = (i_g \circ i_h)(x)$ and so the map $g \mapsto i_g : G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(G)$ is a homomorphism, its image is denoted by $\text{Inn}(G)$. Its kernel is the center of G

$$Z(G) = \{g \in G \mid gx = xg \text{ for all } x \in G\}$$

and so

$$G/Z(G) \cong \text{Inn}(G)$$

$\text{Inn}(G) \triangleleft \text{Aut}(G)$: for $g \in G$ and $\alpha \in \text{Aut}(G)$, we have

$$\alpha \circ i_g \circ \alpha^{-1} = i_{\alpha(g)}$$

Example 3.1. 1. $G = \mathbb{F}_p^n$. The automorphisms of G as a commutative group are just the automorphisms of G as a vector space over \mathbb{F}_p ; thus $\text{Aut}(G) = \text{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}_p)$

2. As a particular case of (1), we see that

$$\text{Aut}(C_2 \times C_2) = \text{GL}_2(\mathbb{F}_2)$$

Definition 3.1. A group G is **complete** if the map $g \mapsto i_g : G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(G)$ is an isomorphism

G is complete iff

1. $Z(G)$ is trivial
2. every automorphism of G is inner

Let G be a cyclic group of order n , say $G = \langle a \rangle$. Let m be an integer ≥ 1 . The smallest multiple of m divisible by n is $m \cdot \frac{n}{\gcd(m,n)}$. Therefore a^m has order $\frac{n}{\gcd(m,n)}$, and so the generators of G are exactly the elements a^m with $\gcd(m, n) = 1$. An automorphism α of G must send a to another generator of G , and so $\alpha(a) = a^m$ for some m relatively prime to n . The map $\alpha \mapsto m$ defines an isomorphism

$$\text{Aut}(C_n) \cong (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$$

where

$$(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times = \{\text{units in } \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}\} = \{m + n\mathbb{Z} \mid \gcd(m, n) = 1\}$$

If $n = p_1^{r_1} \dots p_s^{r_s}$ is the factorization of n into a product of powers of distinct primes, then

$$\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}/p_1^{r_1}\mathbb{Z} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}/p_s^{r_s}\mathbb{Z}, \quad m \bmod n \leftrightarrow (m \bmod p_1^{r_1}, \dots)$$

by the Chinese remainder theorem. This is an isomorphism of rings, and so

$$(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p_1^{r_1}\mathbb{Z})^\times \times \dots \times (\mathbb{Z}/p_s^{r_s}\mathbb{Z})^\times$$

It remains to consider the case $n = p^r$, p prime

Suppose first that p is odd. Then $\{0, 1, \dots, p^r - 1\}$ is a complete set of representatives for $\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z}$, and one p th of its elements are divisible by p . Hence $(\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^\times$ has order $p^r - \frac{p^r}{p} = p^{r-1}(p-1)$. The homomorphism

$$(\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^\times \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$$

is surjective with kernel of order p^{r-1} , and we know that $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$ is cyclic.

Let $G = (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$ and suppose G is not cyclic. Suppose each i has order m_i . Let $d = [m_1, \dots, m_{p-1}]$. Then there is an element c with order d and $d < p-1$. Now if we consider $X^d - 1$, it has $p-1$ roots in G . A contradiction. link

Let $a \in (\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^\times$ map to a generator of $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$. Then $a^{p^{r-1}} = 1$ and a^{p^r} again maps to a generator of $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$. Therefore $(\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^\times$ contains an element $\xi := a^{p^r}$ of order $p-1$. Using the binomial theorem, one finds that $1+p$ has order p^{r-1} in $(\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^\times$. Therefore $(\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^\times$ is cyclic with generators $\xi \cdot (1+p)$ and every element can be written uniquely in the form

$$\xi^i \cdot (1+p)^j, \quad 0 \leq i < p-1, \quad 0 \leq j < p^{r-1}$$

On the other hand

$$(\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z})^\times = \{\bar{1}, \bar{3}, \bar{5}, \bar{7}\} = \langle \bar{3}, \bar{5} \rangle \approx C_2 \times C_2$$

is not cyclic

reference

Summary

1. For a cyclic group of G of order n , $\text{Aut}(G) \cong (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$. The automorphism of G corresponding to $[m] \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ is $a \mapsto a^m$
2. If $n = p_1^{r_1} \dots p_s^{r_s}$ with the p_i distinct primes, then

$$(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p_1^{r_1}\mathbb{Z})^\times \times \dots \times (\mathbb{Z}/p_s^{r_s}\mathbb{Z})^\times$$

3. For a prime p

$$(\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^\times \approx \begin{cases} C_{(p-1)p^{r-1}} & p \text{ odd} \\ C_2 & p^r = 2^2 \\ C_2 \times C_{2^{r-2}} & p = 2, r > 2 \end{cases}$$

3.2 Characteristic subgroups

Definition 3.2. A **characteristic subgroup** of a group G is a subgroup H s.t. $\alpha(H) = H$ for all automorphism α of G

Remark. 1. Consider a group G and $N \triangleleft G$. An inner automorphism of G restricts to an automorphism of N , which may be outer. Thus a normal subgroup of N need not be a normal subgroup of G . However, a characteristic subgroup of N will be a normal subgroup of G . Also a characteristic subgroup of a characteristic subgroup is a characteristic subgroup

2. The center $Z(G)$ of G is a characteristic subgroup
3. If H is the only subgroup of G of order m , then it must be characteristic, because $\alpha(H)$ is again a subgroup of G of order m
4. Every subgroup of a commutative group is normal but not necessarily characteristic. For example, every subspace of dimension 1 in \mathbb{F}_p^2 is a subgroup of \mathbb{F}_p^2 , but it is not characteristic because it is not stable under $\text{Aut}(\mathbb{F}_p^2) = \text{GL}_2(\mathbb{F}_p)$

3.3 Semidirect products

$N \triangleleft G$. Each element $g \in G$ defines an automorphism of N , $n \mapsto gng^{-1}$, and this defines a homomorphism

$$\theta : G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(N), \quad g \mapsto i_g \upharpoonright N$$

If there is a subgroup Q of G s.t. $G \rightarrow G/N$ maps Q isomorphically onto G/N , then we can construct G from N , Q and the restriction of θ to Q . Indeed, an element g of G can be written uniquely in the form

$$g = nq, \quad n \in N, \quad q \in Q$$

Thus we have a one-to-one correspondence

$$G \leftrightarrow N \times Q$$

If $g = nq$ and $g' = n'q'$, then

$$gg' = (nq)(n'q') = n(qn'q^{-1})qq' = n\theta(q)(n')qq'$$

Definition 3.3. A group G is a **semidirect product** of its subgroups N and Q if $N \triangleleft G$ and $G \rightarrow G/N$ induces an isomorphism $Q \rightarrow G/N$

Equivalently, G is a semidirect product of subgroup N and Q if

$$N \triangleleft G; \quad NQ = G; \quad N \cap Q = \{1\}$$

written as $G = N \rtimes Q$ (or $N \rtimes_{\theta} Q$, where $\theta : Q \rightarrow \text{Aut}(N)$ gives the action of Q on N by inner automorphism)

Example 3.2. 1. In D_n , $n \geq 2$, let $C_n = \langle r \rangle$ and $C_2 = \langle s \rangle$; then

$$D_n = \langle r \rangle \rtimes_{\theta} \langle s \rangle = C_n \rtimes_{\theta} C_2$$

where $\theta(s)(r^i) = r^{-i}$

From a semidirect product $G = N \rtimes Q$, we obtain a triple

$$(N, Q, \theta : Q \rightarrow \text{Aut}(N))$$

and that the triple determines G . We now prove that every such triple arises from a semidirect product. As a set, let $G = N \times Q$, and define

$$(n, q)(n', q') = (n\theta(q)(n'), qq')$$

Proposition 3.4. *The composition law above makes G into a group, in fact, the semidirect product of N and Q*

Example 3.3 (Groups of order 6). Both S_3 and C_6 are semidirect products of C_3 by C_2 .

Note that $\text{Aut}(C_3) \cong (\mathbb{F}_3)^{\times} \cong C_2$ and there are two homomorphism of $C_2 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C_3)$, the identity function and the constant function. If θ is the constant function, then $C_6 \cong C_3 \rtimes_{\theta} C_2$. Otherwise, suppose $C_2 = \{1, b\}$ and $C_3 = \{1, a, a^2\}$, $\theta(b) = a \mapsto a^2$. Then $abab = a\theta(b)(a)bb = a^3b^2 = 1$. Hence $C_3 \rtimes_{\theta} C_2 = D_3 \cong S_3$.

Example 3.4 (Groups of order p^3 (element of order p^2)). Let $N = \langle a \rangle$ be cyclic of order p^2 and let $Q = \langle b \rangle$ be cyclic of order p , where p is an odd prime. Then $\text{Aut}(N) \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p^2\mathbb{Z})^{\times} \cong C_{(p-1)p} \cong C_p \times C_{p-1}$, and C_p is generated by $\alpha : a \mapsto a^{1+p}$. Define $Q \rightarrow \text{Aut } N$ by $b \mapsto \alpha$. The group $G := N \rtimes_{\theta} Q$ has generators a, b and defining relations

$$a^{p^2} = 1, \quad b^p = 1, \quad bab^{-1} = a^{1+p}$$

It is a noncommutative group of order p^3 , and possesses an element of order p^2

Example 3.5 (Groups of order p^3 without element of order p^2). Let $N = \langle a, b \rangle$ be the product of two cyclic groups $\langle a \rangle$ and $\langle b \rangle$ of order p , and let $Q = \langle c \rangle$ be a cyclic group of order p . Define $\theta : Q \rightarrow \text{Aut}(N)$ to be the homomorphism s.t.

$$\theta(c^i)(a) = ab^i, \quad \theta(c^i)(b) = b$$

If we regard N as the additive group $N = \mathbb{F}_p^2$ with a and b the standard basis elements, then $\theta(c^i)$ is the automorphism of N defined by the matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ i & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. The group $G := N \rtimes_{\theta} Q$ is a group of order p^3 , with generators a, b, c and defining relations

$$a^p = b^p = c^p = 1, \quad ab = cac^{-1}, \quad [b, a] = 1 = [b, c]$$

Lemma 3.5. *Given two triples (N, Q, θ) and (N, Q, θ') , if there exists an $\alpha \in \text{Aut}(N)$ s.t.*

$$\theta'(q) = \alpha \circ \theta(q) \circ \alpha^{-1}, \quad \text{all } q \in Q$$

then the map

$$(n, q) \mapsto (\alpha(n), q) : N \rtimes_{\theta} Q \rightarrow N \rtimes_{\theta'} Q$$

is an isomorphism

Lemma 3.6. *If $\theta = \theta' \circ \alpha$ with $\alpha \in \text{Aut}(Q)$, then the map*

$$(n, q) \mapsto (n, \alpha(q)) : N \rtimes_{\theta} Q \approx N \rtimes_{\theta'} Q$$

is an isomorphism

Lemma 3.7. *If Q is finite and cyclic and the subgroup $\theta(Q)$ of $\text{Aut}(N)$ is conjugate to $\theta'(Q)$, then*

$$N \rtimes_{\theta} Q \approx N \rtimes_{\theta'} Q$$

Summary. Let G be a group with subgroups H_1 and H_2 s.t. $G = H_1 H_2$ and $H_1 \cap H_2 = \{e\}$, so that each element g of G can be written uniquely as $g = h_1 h_2$ with $h_1 \in H_1$ and $h_2 \in H_2$

1. If H_1 and H_2 are both normal, then G is the direct product of H_1 and H_2 , $G = H_1 \times H_2$ (1.18)
2. If $H_1 \triangleleft G$, then G is the semidirect product of H_1 and H_2 , $G = H_1 \rtimes H_2$
3. If neither H_1 nor H_2 is normal, then G is the Zappa-Szép product of H_1 and H_2

3.4 Extensions of groups

$$1 \longrightarrow N \xrightarrow{\iota} G \xrightarrow{\pi} Q \longrightarrow 1$$

An exact sequence is called an **extension of Q by N** . An extension is **central** if $\iota(N) \subset Z(G)$. For example, a semidirect product $N \rtimes_{\theta} Q$ give rise to an extension of Q by N

$$1 \longrightarrow N \longrightarrow N \rtimes_{\theta} Q \longrightarrow Q \longrightarrow 1$$

which is central iff θ is the trivial homomorphism and N is commutative

The extensions of Q by N are said to be **isomorphic** if there exists a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 1 & \longrightarrow & N & \longrightarrow & G & \longrightarrow & Q \longrightarrow 1 \\ & & \parallel & & \downarrow \approx & & \parallel \\ 1 & \longrightarrow & N & \longrightarrow & G' & \longrightarrow & Q \longrightarrow 1 \end{array}$$

An extension of Q by N is **split** if it is isomorphic to the extension defined by a semidirect product. Equivalently

1. there is a subgroup $Q' \subset G$ s.t. π induces an isomorphism $Q' \rightarrow Q$;
or
2. there exists a homomorphism $s : Q \rightarrow G$ s.t. $\pi \circ s = \text{id}$

Theorem 3.8 (Schur-Zassenhaus). *An extension of finite groups of relatively prime order is split*

3.5 The Hölder program

3.6 Exercises

Exercise 3.6.1. $\text{GL}_2(\mathbb{F}_2) \approx S_3$

Proof. In \mathbb{F}_2^2 , the vectors are $\{0, u, v, w\}$ and there are three bases $\{u, v\}, \{u, w\}, \{v, w\}$. An element $A \in \text{GL}_2(\mathbb{F}_2)$ is an automorphism of \mathbb{F}_2^2 and also that two linear map are the same if they carry one basis to another. \square

Exercise 3.6.2. Find the automorphism groups of C_{∞} and S_3

4 Groups Acting on Sets

4.1 Definition and examples

Definition 4.1. Let X be a set and let G be a group. A **left action** of G on X is a mapping $(g, x) \mapsto gx : G \times X \rightarrow X$ s.t.

1. $1x = x$, for all $x \in X$
2. $(g_1g_2)x = g_1(g_2x)$, all $g_1, g_2 \in G, x \in X$

A set together with a (left) action of G is called a (left) **G -set**. An action is **trivial** if $gx = x$ for all $g \in G$

The condition imply that, for each $g \in G$, left translation by g ,

$$g_L : X \rightarrow X, \quad x \mapsto gx$$

has $(g^{-1})_L$ as an inverse, and therefore g_L is a bijection, i.e., $g_L \in \text{Sym}(X)$. Axiom (2) now says that

$$g \mapsto g_L : G \rightarrow \text{Sym}(X) \tag{2}$$

is a homomorphism. Conversely, every such homomorphism defines an action of G on X . The action is **faithful** (or **effective**) if the homomorphism (2) is injective, i.e., if

$$gx = x \text{ for all } x \in X \Rightarrow g = 1$$

Example 4.1. 1. Every subgroup of the symmetric group S_n acts faithfully on $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

2. Every subgroup H of a group G acts faithfully on G by left translation

$$H \times G \rightarrow G, \quad (h, x) \mapsto hx$$

3. Let H be a subgroup of G . The group G acts on the set of left cosets of H ,

$$G \times G/H \rightarrow G/H, \quad (g, C) \mapsto gC$$

The action is faithful if, for example, $H \neq G$ and G is simple

4. Every group G acts on itself by conjugation. For any $N \triangleleft G$, G acts on N and G/N by conjugation

A **right action** $X \times G \rightarrow X$ is defined similarly. To turn a right action into a left action, set $g * x = xg^{-1}$. For example, there is a natural right action of G on the set of right cosets of a subgroup H in G , namely $(C, g) \mapsto Cg$, which can be turned into a left action $(g, C) \mapsto Cg^{-1}$.

A **map of G -sets** (**G -map**, **G -equivariant map**) is a map $\varphi : X \rightarrow Y$ s.t.

$$\varphi(gx) = g\varphi(x), \quad \text{all } g \in G, \quad x \in X$$

4.1.1 Orbits

Let G act on X . A subset $S \subset X$ is **stable** under the action of G if

$$g \in G, x \in S \Rightarrow gx \in S$$

The action of G on X then induces an action of G on S

Write $x \sim_G y$ if $y = gx$ for some $g \in G$. This is an equivalence relation. The equivalence classes are called **G -orbits**. Thus the G -orbits partition X . Write $G \backslash X$ for the set of orbits

By definition, the G -orbit containing x_0 is

$$Gx_0 = \{gx_0 \mid g \in G\}$$

It is the smallest G -stable subset of X containing x_0

Example 4.2. 1. Suppose G acts on X , and let $\alpha \in G$ be an element of order n . Then the orbits of $\langle \alpha \rangle$ are the set of the form

$$\{x_0, \alpha x_0, \dots, \alpha^{n-1}x_0\}$$

2. The orbits for a subgroup H of G acting on G by left multiplication are the right cosets of H in G . We write $H \backslash G$ for the set of right cosets. Note that the group law on G will **not** induce a group law on G/H unless H is normal
3. For a group G acting on itself by conjugation, the orbits are called **conjugacy classes**: for $x \in G$, the conjugacy class of x is the set

$$\{gxg^{-1} \mid g \in G\}$$

of conjugates of x .

A subset of X is stable iff it is a union of orbits. For example, a subgroup H of G is normal iff it is a union of conjugacy classes

The action of G on X is said to be **transitive**, and G is said to act **transitively** on X if there is only one orbit. The set X is called a **homogeneous** G -set. For example, S_n acts transitively on $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. For any subgroup H of a group G , G acts transitively on G/H , but the action of G on itself is never transitive if $G \neq 1$ because $\{1\}$ is always a conjugacy class

The action of G on X is **doubly transitive** if for any two pairs (x_1, x_2) , (y_1, y_2) of elements of X with $x_1 \neq x_2$ and $y_1 \neq y_2$, there exists a (single) $g \in G$ s.t. $gx_1 = y_1$ and $gx_2 = y_2$. Define **k -fold transitivity** for $k \geq 3$ similarly

4.1.2 Stabilizers

Let G acts on X . The **stabilizer** (or **isotropy group**) of an element $x \in X$ is

$$\text{Stab}(x) = \{g \in G \mid gx = x\}$$

It is a subgroup, but it need not be a normal subgroup. The action is **free** if $\text{Stab}(x) = \{e\}$ for all x

Lemma 4.2. For any $g \in G$ and $x \in X$

$$\text{Stab}(gx) = g \cdot \text{Stab}(x) \cdot g^{-1}$$

$$\bigcap_{x \in X} \text{Stab}(x) = \ker(G \rightarrow \text{Sym}(X))$$

which is a normal subgroup of G . The action is faithful iff $\bigcap \text{Stab}(x) = \{1\}$

Example 4.3. 1. Let G act on itself by conjugation. Then

$$\text{Stab}(x) = \{g \in G \mid gx = xg\}$$

This group is called the **centralizer** $C_G(x)$ of x in G . It consists of all elements of G that commute with, i.e., centralize, x . The intersection

$$\bigcap_{x \in G} C_G(x) = \{g \in G \mid gx = xg \text{ for all } x \in G\}$$

is the centre of G

2. Let G act on G/H by left multiplication. Then $\text{Stab}(H) = H$, and the stabilizer of gH is gHg^{-1}

For $S \subseteq X$, we define the **stabilizer** of S to be

$$\text{Stab}(S) = \{g \in G \mid gS = S\}$$

Then $\text{Stab}(S)$ is a subgroup of G , and the same argument as in the proof of 4.2 shows that

$$\text{Stab}(gS) = g \cdot \text{Stab}(S) \cdot g^{-1}$$

Example 4.4. Let G act on G by conjugation, and let H be a subgroup of G . The stabilizer of H is called the **normalizer** $N_G(H)$ of H in G

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

Clearly $N_G(H)$ is the largest subgroup of G containing H as a normal subgroup

It is possible for $gS \subset S$ but $g \notin \text{Stab}(S)$ 1.3

4.1.3 Transitive actions

Proposition 4.3. *If G acts transitively on X , then for any $x_0 \in X$, the map*

$$g \text{Stab}(x_0) \mapsto gx_0 : G/\text{Stab}(x_0) \rightarrow X$$

is an isomorphism of G -sets

Proof. G -equivariant □

Thus every homogeneous G -set X is isomorphic to G/H for some subgroup H of G , but such a realization of X is *not canonical*: it depends on the choice of $x_0 \in X$. The G -set G/H has a preferred point, namely, the coset H ; to give a homogeneous G -set X together with a preferred point is essentially the same as to give a subgroup of G

Corollary 4.4. *Let G act on X , and let $O = Gx_0$ be the orbit containing x_0 . Then the cardinality of O is*

$$|O| = (G : \text{Stab}(x_0))$$

For example, the number of conjugates gHg^{-1} of a subgroup H of G is $(G : N_G(H))$

Proof. The action of G on O is transitive □

Proposition 4.5. *Let $x_0 \in X$. If G acts transitively on X , then*

$$\ker(G \rightarrow \text{Sym}(X))$$

is the largest normal subgroup contained in $\text{Stab}(x_0)$

Proof.

$$\ker(G \rightarrow \text{Sym}(X)) = \bigcap_{x \in X} \text{Stab}(x) = \bigcap_{g \in G} \text{Stab}(gx_0) = \bigcap g \cdot \text{Stab}(x_0) \cdot g^{-1}$$

Hence the proposition is a consequence of the following lemma □

Lemma 4.6. *For any subgroup H of a group G , $\bigcap_{g \in G} gHg^{-1}$ is the largest normal subgroup contained in H*

Proof. $N_0 := \bigcap_{g \in G} gHg^{-1}$ is still a subgroup. It is normal since

$$g_1 N_0 g_1^{-1} = \bigcap_{g \in G} (g_1 g) H (g_1 g)^{-1} = N_0$$

If N is a second such group, then

$$N = gNg^{-1} \subset gHg^{-1}$$

for all $g \in G$, and so $N \subset N_0$ □

4.1.4 The class equation

When X is finite, it is a disjoint union of a finite number of orbits:

$$X = \bigcup_{i=1}^m O_i$$

hence

Proposition 4.7.

$$|X| = \sum_{i=1}^m |O_i| = \sum_{i=1}^m (G : \text{Stab}(x_i)), \quad x_i \in O_i$$

When G acts on itself by conjugation, this formula becomes

Proposition 4.8 (Class equation).

$$|G| = \sum (G : C_G(x))$$

(x runs over a set of representatives for the conjugacy classes), or

$$|G| = |Z(G)| + \sum (G : C_G(y))$$

(y runs over set of representatives for the conjugacy classes containing more than one element)

Theorem 4.9 (Cauchy). *If the prime p divides $|G|$, then G contains an element of order p*

Proof. Induction on $|G|$. If for some y not in the center of G , p doesn't divide $(G : C_G(y))$, then p divides the order of $C_G(y)$ and we can apply induction to find an element of order p in $C_G(y)$. Thus we may suppose that p divides all of the terms $(G : C_G(y))$ in the class equation (second form), and so also divides $Z(G)$. But $Z(G)$ is commutative and it follows from the structure theorem¹ of such groups that $Z(G)$ will contain an element of order p \square

Corollary 4.10. *A finite group G is a p -group iff every element has order a power of p*

Proof. If $|G|$ is a power of p , then Lagrange's theorem shows that the order of every element is a power of p . The converse follows from Cauchy's theorem \square

Corollary 4.11. *Every group of order $2p$, p an odd prime, is cyclic or dihedral*

Proof. From Cauchy's theorem, we know that such a G contains elements s and r of orders 2 and p respectively. Let $H = \langle r \rangle$. Then H is of index 2, and so is normal. Obviously $s \notin H$, and so $G = H \cup Hs$:

$$G = \{1, r, \dots, r^{p-1}, s, rs, \dots, r^{p-1}s\}$$

As H is normal, $srs^{-1} = r^i$, some i . Because $s^2 = 1$, $r = s^2rs^{-2} = s(srs^{-1})s^{-1} = r^{i^2}$ and so $i^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Because $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ is a field, its only elements with square 1 are ± 1 , and so $i \equiv 1$ or $-1 \pmod{p}$. In the first case, the group is commutative; in the second case $srs^{-1} = r^{-1}$ and we have the dihedral group \square

¹Here is a direct proof that the theorem holds for an abelian group Z . We use induction on the order of Z . It suffices to show that Z contains an element whose order is divisible by p . Let $g \neq 1$ be an element of Z . If p doesn't divide the order of g , then it divides the order of $Z/\langle g \rangle$, in which case there exists an element of G whose order in $Z/\langle g \rangle$ is divisible by p . But the order of such an element must itself be divisible by p

4.1.5 p -groups

Theorem 4.12. *Every nontrivial finite p -group has nontrivial center*

Proof. By assumption, $(G : 1)$ is a power of p , and so $(G : C_G(y))$ is a power of p for all y not in the center of G . Thus $p \mid |Z(G)|$ \square

Corollary 4.13. *A group of order p^n has normal subgroups of order p^m for all $m \leq n$*

Proof. Induction on n . The center of G contains an element of order p , and so $N = \langle g \rangle$ is a normal subgroup of G of order p . Now the induction hypothesis allows us to assume the result for G/N , and the correspondence theorem 1.15 then gives it to use for G \square

Proposition 4.14. *Every group of order p^2 is commutative, and hence is isomorphic to $C_p \times C_p$ or C_{p^2}*

Proof. We know that the center Z is nontrivial, and that G/Z is therefore has order 1 or p . In either case it is cyclic, and the next result implies that G is commutative \square

Lemma 4.15. *Suppose G contains a subgroup H in its center (hence H is normal) s.t. G/H is cyclic. Then G is commutative*

Proof. Let a be an element of G whose image in G/H generates it. Then every element of G can be written $g = a^i h$ with $h \in H, i \in \mathbb{Z}$. Now

$$a^i h \cdot a^{i'} h' = a^i a^{i'} h h' = a^{i'} h' \cdot a^i h$$

\square

The above proof shows that if $H \subset Z(G)$ and G contains a set of representatives for G/H whose elements commute, then G is commutative

For p odd, it is now not difficult to show that any noncommutative group of order p^3 is isomorphic to exactly one of the groups constructed in 3.4 3.5

Proof. Suppose $|G| = p^3$. Then $|Z(G)|$ is either p or p^2 . If $|Z(G)| = p$. Then $G/Z(G)$ is commutative. $Z(G)$ is also cyclic

If $|Z(G)| = p^2$, then \square

Example 4.5. Let G be a noncommutative group of order 8. Then G must contain an element a of order 4 (1.7.3). If G contains an element b of order 2 not in $\langle a \rangle$, then $G \simeq \langle a \rangle \rtimes_{\theta} \langle b \rangle$ where θ is the unique isomorphism $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$, and so $G \approx D_4$. If not, any element b of G not in $\langle a \rangle$ must have order 4, and $a^2 = b^2$. Now bab^{-1} is an element of order 4 in $\langle a \rangle$. It can't equal a , because otherwise G would be commutative, and so $bab^{-1} = a^3$. Therefore G is the quaternion group

4.1.6 Action on the left cosets

Let $X = G/H$. Recall that

$$\text{Stab}(gH) = g \text{Stab}(1 \cdot H) g^{-1} = gHg^{-1}$$

and the kernel of

$$G \rightarrow \text{Sym}(X)$$

is the largest normal subgroup $\bigcap_{g \in G} gHg^{-1}$ of G contained in H

Remark. 1. Let H be a subgroup of G not containing a normal subgroup of G other than 1. Then $G \rightarrow \text{Sym}(G/H)$ is injective, and we have realized G as a subgroup of a symmetric group of order much smaller than $(G : 1)!$.

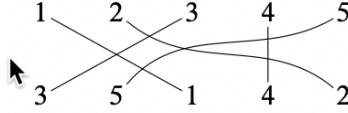
4.1.7 Permutation groups

Consider a permutation

$$\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & \dots & n \\ \sigma(1) & \sigma(2) & \sigma(3) & \dots & \sigma(n) \end{pmatrix}$$

The ordered pairs (i, j) with $i < j$ and $\sigma(i) > \sigma(j)$ are called the **inversions** of σ , and σ is said to be **even** or **odd** according as the number of inversions is even or odd. The **signature**, $\text{sgn}(\sigma)$ of σ is 1 or -1 according as σ is even or odd.

Remark. To compute the signature of σ , connect each element i in the top row to the element i in the bottom row, and count the number of times that the lines cross. For example, is even



For a permutation σ , consider the products

$$V = \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} (j - i) = (2 - 1)(3 - 1) \dots (n - 1) \\ (3 - 2) \dots (n - 2) \\ \dots \\ (n - (n - 1))$$

$$\sigma V = \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} (\sigma(j) - \sigma(i)) = (\sigma(2) - \sigma(1))(\sigma(3) - \sigma(1)) \dots (\sigma(n) - \sigma(1)) \\ (\sigma(3) - \sigma(2)) \dots (\sigma(n) - \sigma(2)) \\ \dots \\ (\sigma(n) - \sigma(n - 1))$$

Both products run over the 2-element subsets $\{i, j\}$ of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ and the terms corresponding to a subset are the same except that each inversion introduces a negative sign. Therefore

$$\sigma V = \text{sgn}(\sigma) V$$

Now let P be the additive group of maps $\mathbb{Z}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$. For $f \in P$ and $\sigma \in S_n$, let σf denote the element of P defined by

$$(\sigma f)(z_1, \dots, z_n) = f(z_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, z_{\sigma(n)})$$

For $z \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ and $\sigma \in S_n$, let z^σ denote the element of \mathbb{Z}^n s.t. $(z^\sigma)_i = z_{\sigma(i)}$. Then $(z^\sigma)^\tau = z^{\sigma\tau}$. By definition, $(\sigma f)(z) = f(z^\sigma)$, and so $((\sigma\tau)f)(z) = f(z^{\sigma\tau}) = f((z^\sigma)^\tau) = (\tau f)(z^\sigma) = (\sigma(\tau f))(z)$, i.e.

$$\sigma(\tau f) = (\sigma\tau)f$$

Let $p \in P$ defined by

$$p(z_1, \dots, z_n) = \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} (z_j - z_i)$$

The same argument as above shows that

$$\sigma p = \text{sgn}(\sigma)p$$

On putting $f = p$, we find that

$$\text{sgn}(\sigma) \text{sgn}(\tau) = \text{sgn}(\sigma\tau)$$

Therefore “sign” is a homomorphism $S_n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$. When $n \geq 2$, it is surjective, and so its kernel is a normal subgroup of S_n of order $\frac{n!}{2}$, called the **alternating group** A_n .

Remark. We show shown that there exists a homomorphism $\text{sgn} : S_n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$ s.t. $\text{sgn}(\sigma) = -1$ for every transposition. The transposition generate S_n , and so sign is uniquely determined by this property. Now let $G = \text{Sym}(X)$, where X is a set with n elements. The choice of an ordering of X determines an isomorphism of G with S_n sending transpositions to transpositions. Therefore G also admits a unique isomorphism $\epsilon : G \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$ s.t. $\epsilon(\sigma) = -1$ for every transposition σ . Once we have chosen an ordering of X , we can speak of the inversions of an element σ of G , and define a sign homomorphism $G \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$ as before. This must agree with ϵ , and so $\epsilon(\sigma)$ equals 1 or -1 according as σ has an even or an odd number of inversions.

A **cycle** is a permutation of the following form

$$i_1 \mapsto i_2 \mapsto i_3 \mapsto \cdots \mapsto i_r \mapsto i_1$$

The i_j are required to be distinct. We denote this cycle by $(i_1 i_2 \dots i_r)$ and call r its **length**. The **support of the cycle** $(i_1 \dots i_r)$ is the set $\{i_1, \dots, i_r\}$ and cycles are **disjoint** if their supports are disjoint. Disjoint cycles commute

Proposition 4.16. *Every permutation can be written as a product of disjoint cycles*

Proof. $\sigma \in S_n$, and let $O \subset \{1, \dots, n\}$ be an orbit for $\langle \sigma \rangle$. If $|O| = r$, then for any $i \in O$,

$$O = \{i, \sigma(i), \dots, \sigma^{r-1}(i)\}$$

Therefore σ and the cycle $(i \ \sigma(i) \dots \sigma^{r-1}(i))$ have the same action on any element of O . Let

$$\{1, 2, \dots, n\} = \bigcup_{j=1}^m O_j$$

be the decomposition of $\{1, \dots, n\}$ into a disjoint union of orbits for $\langle \sigma \rangle$, and let γ_j be the cycle associated with O_j . Then

$$\sigma = \gamma_1 \dots \gamma_m$$

is a decomposition of σ into a product of disjoint cycles. □

Corollary 4.17. *Each permutation σ can be written as a product of transpositions; the number of transpositions in such a product is even or odd according as σ is even or odd*

Proof.

$$(i_1 i_2 \dots i_r) = (i_1 i_2) \dots (i_{r-2} i_{r-1})(i_{r-1} i_r)$$

Because sign is a homomorphism, and the signature of a transposition is -1, $\text{sgn}(\sigma) = -1^{\# \text{transpositions}}$ \square

5 TODO skip and problems

1.6 2.5 4.1.6