MODEL ANSWERS TO THE NINTH HOMEWORK

1. For Chapter 2, Section 11: 1. Conjugacy in S_n is determined by cycle type. There are three conjugacy classes,

$$C_1 = \{e\}$$
 $C_2 = \{(2,3), (1,3), (1,2)\}$ and $C_3 = \{(1,2,3), (1,3,2)\}.$

Everything commutes with the identity

$$C_e = S_3$$

and the index of S_3 is one, the cardinality of C_1 .

Consider $(1,2) \in C_2$. This only commutes with the identity and itself, so that

$$C_{(1,2)} = \{e, (1,2)\}.$$

The index is 3 which is the cardinality of C_2 .

Consider $(1,2,3) \in C_2$. This only commutes with all of its powers

$$C_{(1,2,3)} = \{e, (1,2,3), (1,3,2)\}.$$

The index is 2 which is the cardinality of C_3 .

There is only conjugacy class with one element. It follows that the centre is trivial and so the class equation reads

$$6 = |S_3| = |Z| + |C_2| + |C_3| = 1 + 3 + 2.$$

2. There are five conjugacy classes,

$$C_1 = \{I\}, \quad C_2 = \{R, R^3\}, \quad C_3 = \{R^2\}, \quad C_4 = \{F_1, F_2\} \text{ and } C_5 = \{D_1, D_2\}.$$

Everything commutes with the identity

$$C_{I} = D_{4}$$

and the index of D_4 is one, the cardinality of C_1 . Everything also commutes with R^2 ,

$$C_{R^2} = D_4$$

and the index of D_4 is one, the cardinality of C_3 .

Consider $R \in C_2$. This only commutes with all of its powers

$$C_R = \{I, R, R^2, R^3\}.$$

The index is 2 which is the cardinality of C_2 .

Now consider $F_1 \in C_4$. This commutes with

$$C_{F_1} = \{I, R^2, F_1, F_2\}.$$

The index is 2 which is the cardinality of C_4 .

Finally consider $D_1 \in C_5$. This commutes with

$$C_{D_1} = \{I, R^2, D_1, D_2\}.$$

The index is 2 which is the cardinality of C_5 .

There are two conjugacy classes with one element. It follows that the centre

$$Z = \{I, R^2\}$$

has two elements. In this case the class equation reads

$$8 = |D_4| = |Z| + |C_2| + |C_4| + |C_5| = 2 + 2 + 2 + 2 + 2.$$

- 3. Follows from (4).
- 4. Done in class.
- 5. There are two ways to prove this.

Recall that Z is normal in G. As the quotient G/Z has order 1 or p, the quotient is cyclic. But then G is abelian.

Aliter: Note that if $c \in G$ then $Z \subset C(c)$, the centraliser.

As Z has index at most p there are two cases, Z = C(c) or C(c) = G. Suppose that Z = C(c). In this case $c \in Z$ so that c commutes with everything.

Suppose that C(c) = G. In this case c commutes with everything.

Either way, an arbitrary element c of G commutes with everything and G is abelian.

10. Conjugation by x defines an inner automorphism of G,

$$\phi \colon G \longrightarrow G$$
 given by $\phi(g) = xgx^{-1}$.

We want to show

$$N(\phi(H)) = \phi(N(H)).$$

Suppose that y belongs to the RHS. We show that it belongs to the

By assumption $y = \phi(n)$, where $n \in N(H)$. Suppose that $k \in \phi(H)$. Then we may find $h \in H$ such that $k = \phi(h)$. We have

$$yky^{-1} = \phi(n)\phi(h)\phi(n^{-1})$$
$$= \phi(nhn^{-1}).$$

Now $l = nhn^{-1} \in H$ as $h \in H$ and $n \in N(H)$. Thus $\phi(l) \in \phi(H)$ and so $y \in N(\phi(H))$ as k is arbitrary.

It follows that

$$N(\phi(H)) \supset \phi(N(H))$$
.

We have shown that

$$N(\psi(K)) \supset_2 \psi(N(K)))$$

for any subgroup K and any inner automorphism ψ . Let ψ be the inverse of ϕ and let $K = \phi(H)$. Then

$$N(H) \supset \psi(N(\phi(H)))$$
 as $H = \psi(K)$.

Applying ϕ to both sides gives

$$N(\phi(H)) \subset \phi(N(H)).$$

Thus the LHS is contained in the RHS.

16. $36 = 2^2 \cdot 3^2$. Thus there is a Sylow 3-subgroup H of order 9. Let S be the set of left cosests. Define an action of G on S as follows

$$G \times S \longrightarrow S$$
 given by $g \cdot (aH) = (ga)H$.

This gives rise to a homomorphism

$$\phi \colon G \longrightarrow A(S).$$

What can we say about the kernel N of ϕ ? If g is in the kernel then $\phi(g)$ fixes H, that is, it stabilises H. Thus $gH = g \cdot H = H$ and so $g \in H$. Thus

$$\operatorname{Ker} \phi = N \subset H$$
.

H has index 4 and so S has four elements. Thus $A(S) \simeq S_4$ has 24 elements. The image G' of G is a subgroup of A(S). 9 does not divide 24 and so 9 does not divide G' by Lagrange. Thus the kernel must be non-trivial.

The kernel is a subgroup of H and so N is a normal subgroup of order 3 or 9.

17. $108 = 2^2 \cdot 3^3$. Thus there is a Sylow 3-subgroup H of order 27. As before this gives us a group homomorphism

$$\phi\colon G\longrightarrow S_4.$$

Let N be the kernel. Then N is a normal subgroup of G and $\phi(G)$ is isomorphic to G/N. As 27 divides G but 9 does not divide 24=4! it follows that the order of N is divisible by 9. Thus N is a normal subgroup of order 9 or 27.

2. (i) True.

Let $\phi: G \longrightarrow G$ be an automorphism of G. We have to show that $\phi(K) \subset K$.

As H is characteristically normal in G it follows that $\phi(H) \subset H$. Define a function

$$\psi \colon H \longrightarrow H$$
 by the rule $\psi(h) = \phi(h) \in H$.

It is easy to see that ψ is a group homomorphism, as ϕ is a group homomorphism.

By assumption ϕ has an inverse ρ . $\rho(H) \subset H$ and so we may define a function

$$\sigma \colon H \longrightarrow H$$
 by the rule $\sigma(h) = \rho(h) \in H$.

By what we already observed, σ is a group homomorphism and σ is clearly the inverse of ψ .

Thus ψ is an automorphism of H. As K is characteristically normal in H it follows that

$$\phi(K) = \psi(K)$$

$$\subset K.$$

Thus K is characteristically normal in G.

(ii) False. Let

$$G = A_4$$
, $H = \{e, (1, 2)(3, 4), (1, 3)(2, 4), (1, 4)(2, 3)\}$ and $K = \{e, (1, 2)(3, 4)\}$.

Then the elements of H consist of the identity and all of the elements of order 2. It follows that H is characteristically normal in A_4 . K has index two in H and so K is normal in H.

However K is not normal in G. Let $\sigma = (1,2)(3,4) \in K$ and let $\tau = (1,2,3)$. Then

$$\tau \sigma \tau^{-1} = (2,3)(1,4) \notin K.$$

(iii) True. Let $g \in G$. As observed in (i) we get an automorphism of H by the rule

$$\phi \colon H \longrightarrow H$$
 given by $h \longrightarrow ghg^{-1}$

As K is characteristically normal in H we have

$$gKg^{-1} = \phi(K)$$
$$\subset K.$$

Therefore K is normal in G.

- (iv) False. If H is characteristically normal in G then it is certainly normal. Thus (ii) provides a counterexample.
- 3. Suppose that $G = \langle a \rangle$ is cyclic and let ϕ be an automorphism of G. Then ϕ is determined by what it does to a and it must send a to another generator of G. We have already seen that there is a unique isomorphism sending the generator of a cyclic generator to a generator. If G is infinite then the only generators of G are a and a^{-1} . Thus the

automorphism group of G has two elements and $\operatorname{Aut}(G) \simeq \mathbb{Z}_2$. Now suppose that a has order n, a^i is a generator of G if and only if i

Now suppose that a has order n. a^i is a generator of G if and only if i is coprime to n. This defines a function

$$f : \operatorname{Aut}(G) \longrightarrow U_n$$
 given by $f(\phi) = i$,

where $\phi(a) = a^i$. We check that f is a group homomorphism. Suppose that α and β are two automorphisms of G and let $\gamma = \alpha\beta$. Suppose that $\beta(a) = a^i$ and $\alpha(a) = a^j$. We have

$$\gamma(a) = (\alpha\beta)(a)$$

$$= (\alpha \circ \beta)(a)$$

$$= \alpha(\beta(a))$$

$$= \alpha(a^{j})$$

$$= \alpha(a)^{j}$$

$$= (a^{i})^{j}$$

$$= a^{ij}.$$

Thus

to

$$f(\gamma) = ij$$

= $f(\alpha)f(\beta)$,

so that f is an isomorphism.

4. Let G be a group of order n. If n is prime then G is cyclic. So we may assume that n = 14. If G is abelian then G is isomorphic

$$G \simeq \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_7 \simeq \mathbb{Z}_{14}$$
.

Suppose that G is not abelian. The order of an element must be a divisor of 14, so that the possible orders are 1, 2, 7 or 14. G is not cyclic, as it is not abelian and so there are no elements of order 14. There is only one element of order 1, the identity. As G is not abelian, not every element has order 2.

It follows that there is an element a of order 7. Let H be the group it generates. Then H has index two in G and so H is normal in G. G/H is a group of order two. Pick $b \in G \setminus H$. The image of b in G/H has order 2. Thus the order of b is divisible by 2. Thus the order of b is two, as it is not 14.

Note that $G = \langle a, b \rangle$, as the order of the group generated by a and b is divisible by both 2 and 7.

At this point we can proceed as in the lecture notes. Here is an alternative and more robust way to proceed.

Conjugation by b induces an automorphism of G. It restricts to an automorphism ϕ of H, as H is normal

$$\phi \colon H \longrightarrow H$$
 given by $\phi(h) = bhb^{-1} \in H$.

As G is not abelian, $bab^{-1} \neq a$ and so ϕ is non-trivial. Thus ϕ has order 2 as b has order 2.

By question (3),

$$Aut(H) = U_7.$$

The elements of U_7 are the integers from 1 to 6. $2^2 = 4$ and $2^3 = 8 = 1$ mod 7. Thus 2 is an element of order 3. $3^2 = 9 = 2 \mod 7$ so that 3 is an element of order 6. It follows that $U_7 = \langle 3 \rangle$ is cyclic and there is unique element of order 2, $3^3 = 27 = 6 \mod 7$. In this case

$$\phi(a) = a^6 = a^{-1}$$
 so that $bab^{-1} = a^{-1}$.

Thus $G \simeq D_7$, the Dihedral group of order 14.

Thus there are two groups of order 14, the cyclic group and the Dihedral group.

Challenge Problems (Just for fun)

5. $n=12=2^2\cdot 3$. If G is abelian then G is isomorphic to either

$$\mathbb{Z}_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_3 \simeq \mathbb{Z}_{12}$$
 or $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3 \simeq \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_6$.

Suppose that G is not abelian.

TBC

6. There are many ways to proceed; the main point is to try to be reasonably efficient. Suppose that $61 \le n \le 167$. By Sylow's theorem, we may assume that n is not of the form mp^k , where m < p and p is prime (note that this includes the case when n is either a power of a prime or the product of two primes).

This leaves

63, 70, 72, 80, 84, 90, 96, 105, 108, 112, 120, 126, 132, 135, 140, 144, 150, 154, 160, 165.

Suppose that n has the form $p^{\alpha}q^{\beta}$, where p < q. Then the number of Sylow q-subgroups is equal to

$$1, p, p^2, p^3, \dots$$

If this is not equal to 1, it must be greater than q > p, so that there must be at least p^2 such subgroups. Suppose that there are p^2 . Then q divides $p^2 - 1 = (p - 1)(p + 1)$. It follows that q = p + 1, so that p = 2 and q = 3. Otherwise, the number of such subgroups is at least p^3 . If $\beta = 1$, this gives at least $p^3(q - 1)$ elements of order q. If $\alpha = 3$, then there are only p^3 elements left and there is then a unique Sylow p-subgroup.

It follows that if n is not of the form $2^{\alpha}3^{\beta}$, and either $\alpha \leq 2$ or $\beta = 1$ and $\alpha = 3$, then G is not simple. Thus we can eliminate all such numbers. This leaves:

70, 72, 84, 90, 96, 105, 108, 120, 126, 132, 140, 144, 150, 154, 165.

Now suppose that the largest prime dividing n is eleven. Let x be the number of Sylow 11-subgroups. Then there are at least 10x elements of G whose order is a power of 11. Since 10x < 168, we see that $x \le 16$. But then

$$x = 1, 12.$$

Thus assuming that $x \neq 1$, n is divisible by 12.

Now suppose that the largest prime dividing n is seven. Let x be the number of Sylow 7-subgroups. Since 6x < 168, we see that x < 28. But then

$$x = 1, 8, 15, 22.$$

Thus assuming that $x \neq 1$, then either n is divisible by 2^3 or $3 \cdot 5$. This leaves

We handle the rest using a case by case analysis. Note first that if we can find a nontrivial group homomorphism

$$\rho\colon G\longrightarrow S_k$$

where either n does not divide k!, or n = k!, then we are done. Indeed we may assume that the kernel is trivial, in which case ρ is injective, so that by Lagrange $G \simeq S_k$. But then A_k is a proper normal subgroup. Note that G acts on the Sylow p-subgroups and that G acts on the left cosets of any subgroup H. So the number of Sylow p-subgroups and the index of any subgroup is at most 4, at most 5 if n does not divide 120, or n = 120, and at most 6, if n does not divide 720.

Suppose that $n=72=2^3\cdot 3^2$. Let x be the number of Sylow 3-subgroups. Then

$$x = 1, 4, 7, \dots$$

and x divides 8. But then $x \le 4$ and we are done.

If $n = 80 = 2^4 \cdot 5$, then a Sylow 2-subgroup has index 5 and we are done.

If $n = 90 = 2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5$, then let x be the number of Sylow 5-subgroups. Then

$$x = 1, 6, 11, 16,$$

and divides 18. Thus we may assume that x=6, and there are 30 elements of order 5. Now let y be the number of Sylow 3-subgroups. Then

$$y = 1, 4, 7, 10,$$

and divides 10. Thus we may assume that y = 10. Suppose that every two Sylow 3-subgroups intersect only in the trivial group. Then there are $10 \cdot 8 = 80$ elements which belong to these groups, which is far too

many. The only possibility is that there are two Sylow 3-subgroups P and Q such that $|P \cap Q| = 3$. Let N be the normaliser of $H = P \cap Q$. As H is normal in P and Q,

$$N \supset \langle P, Q \rangle \supset PQ$$
.

Thus N contains at least

$$\frac{|P||Q|}{|H|} = 27,$$

elements. Thus the index of N is at most three, and we are done. If $n = 96 = 2^5 \cdot 3$, then the number of Sylow 2-subgroups divides 3, and we are done.

If $n = 105 = 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7$, let x be the number of Sylow 7-subgroups. Then

$$x = 1, 8, 15,$$

and divides 15. Thus we may assume that x=15. But then there are $15 \cdot 6=90$ elements of order 5. Let y be the number of Sylow 5-subgroups. Then

$$y = 1, 6, 11, 16, 21,$$

and divides 21. Thus we may assume that y = 21, so that there are $21 \cdot 4$ elements of order five, impossible.

If $n = 108 = 2^2 \cdot 3^3$, then the index of a Sylow 3-subgroup Q is 4 and we are done.

If $n = 120 = 2^3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$, then let x be the number of Sylow 5-subgroups. Then

$$x = 1, 6, 11, 16, 21, \dots,$$

and x divides 24. But then x = 6, and there are 24 elements of order 5. Let y be the number of Sylow 3-subgroups. Then

$$y = 1, 4, 7, 10, \ldots,$$

and y divides 40. Thus y = 10, and there are 20 elements of order 3. Let z be the number of Sylow 2-subgroups. Then

$$z = 1, 3, 5, 7, \dots,$$

and z divides 15. Thus we may assume that z=15. If every pair of Sylow 2-subgroups have trivial intersection, then there are $15 \cdot 7 = 105$ elements belonging to these subsets, which is impossible.

Otherwise there is a pair P and Q of Sylow 2-subgroups, which intersect $H = P \cap Q$ non-trivially. Let N be the normaliser of H. If |N| > 8, then the index of N is at most five, and we are done.

If $n = 122 = 2^4 \cdot 7$, then we may assume that there are at least 2 Sylow 2-subgroups P and Q. Let $H = P \cap Q$. If $|H| \leq 2$, then

$$|G| \ge |PQ| = \frac{|P||Q|}{|H|} \ge 128,$$

a contradiction. Thus $|H| \geq 4$. Let $P' \subset P$ and $Q' \subset Q$ be two subgroups, in which H has index two. Then H is normal in both P' and Q' so that the normaliser N of H contains both P' and Q'. But then

If |N| = 16, then H is normal in a Sylow 2-subgroup, so that N contains both P and Q, a contradiction. But then |H| > 16, and its index is at most 4, and we are done.

If $n=132=2^2\cdot 3\cdot 11$, then let x be the number of Sylow 11-subgroups. Then

$$x = 1, 12, \dots,$$

and divides 12. Thus we may assume that x=12. In this case there are $12 \cdot 10 = 120$ elements of order 11. Let y be the number of Sylow 3-subgroups. Then

$$y = 1, 4, 7, \dots,$$

and y divides 44. But then we may assume that $y \ge 22$ and so there would be at least $22 \cdot 2 = 44$ elements of order 3, impossible.

If $n = 144 = 2^4 \cdot 3^2$, then let x be the number of Sylow 3-subgroups. Then

$$x = 1, 4, 7, \dots,$$

and x divides 16. But then we may assume that x=16. If every pair of Sylow 3-subgroups have trivial intersection, then there are $16 \cdot 8 = 128$ elements belonging to these subgroups. The remaining 16 elements must form the unique Sylow 2-subgroup. Otherwise the intersection H of two Sylow 3-subgroups P and Q has cardinality 3. In this case the normaliser N of H has order at least 27, so that its index is at most four and we are done.

If $n=150=2\cdot 3\cdot 5^2$, then a Sylow 5-subgroup has index six, and we are done.

If $n=160=2^5\cdot 5$. Then a Sylow 2-subgroup has index 5 and we are done.