

### HOMWORK 3, DUE THU FEB 18TH

All solutions should be with proofs, you may quote from the book

(1) Let  $G$  be a group,  $H, K$  subgroups.

(a) If  $H$  is normal, show that  $HK$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .

*Solution.* Using lemma 2.5.1, suffices to show that  $HK = KH$ . We will show that  $HK \subset KH$ , the reverse inclusion being similar. So, let  $hk \in HK$ , with  $h \in H, k \in K$ . Then,  $hk = (kk^{-1})hk = k(k^{-1}hk)$ . But  $k^{-1}hk \in H$ , since  $H$  is normal.  $\square$

(b) If  $H, K$  are both normal, show that  $HK$  is normal.

*Solution.* Let  $a \in G, h \in H, k \in K$ . Then,  $a(hk)a^{-1} = (aha^{-1})(aka^{-1})$  and since  $aha^{-1} \in H, aka^{-1} \in K$ , we see that the last term is in  $HK$ .  $\square$

(c) If  $H, K$  are both normal and  $H \cap K = \{e\}$ , show that for any  $h \in H, k \in K, hk = kh$ .

*Solution.* Let  $h \in H, k \in K$ . Then  $hkh^{-1}k^{-1} = (hkh^{-1})k \in K$ , since  $hkh^{-1} \in K$ . Similarly,  $hkh^{-1}k^{-1} = h(kh^{-1}k^{-1}) \in H$  since  $kh^{-1}k^{-1} \in H$ . Thus it is in both  $H$  and  $K$  and thus it must be the identity. So,  $hk = kh$ .  $\square$

(2) (a) Let  $G$  be a group and  $H$  a subgroup of  $G$ . Define  $N(H) = \{g \in G \mid gHg^{-1} = H\}$ . Show that  $H$  is a normal subgroup of  $N(H)$ . ( $N(H)$  is called the *Normalizer* of  $H$  in  $G$ .)

*Solution.* First we show that  $N(H)$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . If  $g, g' \in N(H)$ , then  $gg'H(gg')^{-1} = g(g'Hg^{-1})g^{-1} = gHg^{-1} = H$ . Equally trivial to show that if  $g \in N(H)$ , then  $g^{-1} \in N(H)$ . Thus  $N(H)$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . Next we show that  $H$  is a normal subgroup of  $N(H)$ . Let  $g \in N(H)$  and then by definition,  $gHg^{-1} = H$  and this proves what we need.  $\square$

- (b) Let  $G$  be a group and let  $Z(G) = \{g \in G \mid gx = xg \text{ for all } x \in G\}$ , called the *center* of  $G$ . Show that  $Z(G)$  is a normal subgroup of  $G$ .

*Solution.* Let  $y \in G$  and  $g \in Z(G)$ . Then,  $ygy^{-1} = gyy^{-1}$ , since  $yg = gy$ . This is just  $g \in Z(G)$ .  $\square$

- (c) Let  $G = GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ , the invertible  $n \times n$  matrices. Describe  $Z(G)$  explicitly.

*Solution.* This is a fact usually proved in linear algebra courses. The center is just the subgroup of scalar matrices,  $aI$ ,  $a$  a non-zero real number and  $I$  the identity matrix.  $\square$

- (3) For a set  $S$ , we as usual denote the group  $A(S)$ , set of all one-to-one onto maps from  $S$  to itself, with composition as the group operation. Let  $G$  be a group and  $f : G \rightarrow A(S)$  a group homomorphism. We shorten  $f(g)(s)$  as just  $gs$ , when  $f$  is understood. (This is usually called an *action* of  $G$  on  $S$ .) We give below a few maps which you should decide whether are group homomorphisms and if so, find its kernel.

- (a) Consider the map  $f : G \rightarrow A(G)$ , given as  $f(g) = \phi_g$  where  $\phi_g(h) = gh$ .

*Solution.* We attempt to check the homomorphism property.  $f(gh) = \phi_{gh}$  where  $\phi_{gh}(x) = ghx$  for any  $x \in G$ . While,  $\phi_g\phi_h(x) = \phi_g(hx) = ghx$ . Thus,  $f(gh) = f(g)f(h)$ . So, it is a group homomorphism. If  $g \in \ker f$ , then  $f(g)$  is the identity in  $A(G)$ , so  $f(g)(x) = x$ , which says  $gx = x$  and then by cancellation,  $g = e$ . So  $\ker f$  is just the trivial group  $\{e\}$ .  $\square$

- (b) Consider  $f : G \rightarrow A(G)$  given as  $f(g) = \psi_g$  where  $\psi_g(h) = ghg^{-1}$ .

*Solution.* Again, we c try to see whether  $f(gh) = f(g)f(h)$  for  $g, h \in G$ . That is,  $\psi_{gh} = \psi_g\psi_h$ . For any  $x \in G$ , we have  $\psi_{gh}(x) = (gh)x(gh)^{-1} = ghxh^{-1}g^{-1}$ . On the other hand,  $\psi_g\psi_h(x) = \psi_g(hxh^{-1}) = ghxh^{-1}g^{-1}$ . This says,  $f$  is indeed a homomorphism.

If  $g \in \ker f$ , we must have  $g x g^{-1} = x$  for all  $x \in G$ . This just says  $g x = x g$  for all  $x$  and this was just our definition of the center. So,  $\ker f = Z(G)$ .  $\square$

- (c) Let  $H$  be a subgroup of  $G$  and let  $L$  be the left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$ . Let  $f : G \rightarrow A(L)$  be defined as  $f(g) = \theta_g$  where  $\theta_g(aH) = gaH$ .

*Solution.* We check  $f(gh) = f(g)f(h)$ , that  $\theta_{gh} = \theta_g\theta_h$ .  $\theta_{gh}(xH) = ghxH$  for any  $x \in G$ , while,  $\theta_g\theta_h(xH) = \theta_g(hxH) = ghxH$ , so  $f$  is indeed a group homomorphism. Let  $g \in \ker f$ . This says,  $gaH = aH$  for all  $a \in G$ . So,  $a^{-1}gaH = H$  for all  $a$ . This just says  $a^{-1}ga \in H$  for all  $a$  which is same as saying  $g \in aHa^{-1}$  for all  $a$ . Thus  $\ker f = \bigcap_{a \in G} aHa^{-1}$ .  $\square$

- (4) Let  $G, H, K$  be groups.

*Solution.* The arguments for the following problem is completely straight forward. If you have difficulties, we will discuss it.  $\square$

- (a) Let  $f : G \rightarrow H, g : G \rightarrow K$  be group homomorphisms. Show that the map  $\phi : G \rightarrow H \times K, \phi(a) = (f(a), g(a))$  is a group homomorphism.
- (b) Let  $f : H \rightarrow G, g : K \rightarrow G$  be group homomorphisms. Show by an example that the map  $\phi : H \times K \rightarrow G$  given by  $\phi(a, b) = f(a)g(b)$  may not be a group homomorphism, but it is if  $G$  is abelian.
- (c) Show that the map  $f : G \rightarrow G, f(a) = a^{-1}$  may not be a group homomorphism, but it is if  $G$  is abelian.
- (5) Let  $G$  be a group and  $S \subset G$ , a subset. We write  $\hat{S} = \bigcap_{S \subset H} H$ , intersection of all subgroups of  $G$  containing  $S$ .
- (a) Let  $S' = \{s^{-1} | s \in S\}$ . Show that any element of the form  $s_1 s_2 \cdots s_n$  for some  $n$  with  $s_i \in S \cup S'$  is in  $\hat{S}$  and conversely every element in  $\hat{S}$  is of this form.

*Solution.* Because of the above property,  $\hat{S}$  is called the group *generated* by  $S$ .

We show  $s_1 s_2 \cdots s_n \in \hat{S}$  by induction on  $n$ . If  $n = 1$ , then either  $s_1 \in S$  and since the intersection is taken over groups with  $S \subset H$ , we get  $s_1 \in \hat{S}$ , or  $s_1^{-1} \in S$  and then again  $s_1^{-1} \in \hat{S}$ , but the latter is a subgroup and thus  $s_1 \in \hat{S}$ .

Assume proved for  $n - 1$  and let us prove for  $n$ . So, given  $s_1 s_2 \cdots s_n$ , we know  $a = s_1 s_2 \cdots s_{n-1} \in \hat{S}$ . As before,  $s_n \in \hat{S}$  and thus  $as_n \in \hat{S}$ , being a group.

Let  $T = \{s_1 s_2 \cdots s_n | s_i \in S \cup S'\}$ . We want to show  $T = \hat{S}$ . Since  $T \subset \hat{S}$  and  $S \subset T$ , we only need to show that  $T$  is a subgroup. As usual we check the two required properties. If  $a = s_1 s_2 \cdots s_n, b = t_1 t_2 \cdots t_m \in T$ , with  $s_i, t_j \in S \cup S'$ , clearly  $ab = s_1 s_2 \cdots s_n t_1 t_2 \cdots t_m \in T$ . Similarly, if  $a$  is as above, then  $a^{-1} = s_n^{-1} \cdots s_1^{-1}$  and since  $s_i^{-1} \in S \cup S', a^{-1} \in T$ .  $\square$

- (b) Let  $S = \{xyx^{-1}y^{-1} | x, y \in G\}$  (these elements are called *commutators*). Show that  $\hat{S}$  (which is usually written as  $[G, G]$  and called the *commutator subgroup*) is a normal subgroup of  $G$ .

*Solution.* First notice that if  $s \in S$ , then  $s^{-1} \in S$ , so any element  $a \in [G, G]$  can be written as  $a = s_1 s_2 \cdots s_n$  for  $s_i \in S$ , from the previous part of the problem. We need to show that for any  $g \in G, gag^{-1} \in [G, G]$ . But,  $gag^{-1} = g(s_1 s_2 \cdots s_n)g^{-1} = (gs_1 g^{-1})(gs_2 g^{-1}) \cdots (gs_n g^{-1})$  and so suffices to show that for any  $s \in S, gsg^{-1} \in [G, G]$ . So, let  $s = xyx^{-1}y^{-1}$ .

$$gsg^{-1} = ((gx)y(gx)^{-1}y^{-1})(ygx^{-1}y^{-1}g^{-1}).$$

The first term in parenthesis is in  $S$  and the second term is  $ygy^{-1}g^{-1} \in S$  too. So, their product is in  $[G, G]$ .  $\square$

- (c) Show that  $G/\hat{S}$  is abelian.

*Solution.* We have an onto group homomorphism  $\pi : G \rightarrow G/[G, G]$  and if  $a, b \in G/[G, G]$ , we can find  $x, y \in G$  such that  $\pi(x) = a, \pi(y) = b$ . Since  $xyx^{-1}y^{-1} \in [G, G]$ , the image of this element in  $G/[G, G]$  is the identity  $e'$  in

this group. So,

$$e' = \pi(xy x^{-1} y^{-1}) = \pi(x)\pi(y)\pi(x)^{-1}\pi(y)^{-1} = aba^{-1}b^{-1}$$

and this says,  $ab = ba$ .  $a, b$  are arbitrary and so  $G/[G, G]$  is abelian.  $\square$

- (d) If  $H$  is any normal subgroup of  $G$  such that  $G/H$  is abelian, show that  $\hat{S} \subset H$ .

*Solution.* Consider the onto group homomorphism  $p : G \rightarrow G/H$ . If  $s = xyx^{-1}y^{-1}$ ,  $p(s) = e'$ , the identity of  $G/H$ , since it is abelian. Thus the kernel of  $p$  contains all such  $s$  and then it contains  $[G, G]$   $\square$

- (6) (a) Let  $G$  be a group and  $Z$  its center. If  $G/Z$  is cyclic, show that  $Z = G$ .

*Solution.* As usual, we consider the onto group homomorphism,  $\pi : G \rightarrow G/Z$  and let  $b \in G/Z$  be a generator ( $G/Z$  is cyclic). Lift it to  $a \in G$ . Then, any element  $x \in G$  is of the form  $x = a^k z$  where  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $z \in Z$  and can be seen as follows. We know that  $\pi(x) = b^k$  for some  $k$  and then,  $\pi(a^{-k}x) = b^{-k}b^k$ , identity of  $G/Z$  and so this element belongs to the kernel which is  $Z$ . So,  $a^{-k}x = z \in Z$  and then,  $x = a^k z$ . Now, take two elements  $x = a^k z_1, y = a^l z_2$ , where  $k, l$  are integers and  $z_1, z_2 \in Z$ . Then,

$$xy = a^k z_1 a^l z_2 = a^k a^l z_1 z_2.$$

Now use again  $z_1 z_2 = z_2 z_1, a^k a^l = a^l a^k$  etc. to get  $xy = yx$ .  $\square$

- (b) Show that any group of order 9 is abelian.

*Solution.* This is the hardest of the problems and the statement is true for any group of order  $p^2$ ,  $p$  any prime. Since the proof is similar, I shall give a proof of the general result. If you fail to finish this problem, do not despair. So, let  $G$  be a group with  $o(G) = p^2$ . By Lagrange, every element in  $G$  must have order 1,  $p$  or  $p^2$ , since this order must divide  $o(G)$ . The only element with order 1 is  $e$ . If it had an element of order  $p^2$ , then it must be the cyclic

group and so we are done. Thus we may assume every element other than  $e$  has order  $p$ .

Let  $S = \{H_1, \dots, H_n\}$ , distinct subgroups (necessarily cyclic) of order  $p$ . In a group of order  $p^2$  we have seen that any non-identity element generates it and so  $H_i \cap H_j = \{e\}$ . Since every non-identity element has order  $p$ , they must be in one of the  $H_i$ . Thus, we see that  $G - \{e\} = \cup(H_i - \{e\})$ , a disjoint union. Since each  $H_i - \{e\}$  has exactly  $p - 1$  elements, we get  $p^2 - 1 = n(p - 1)$  and so  $n = p + 1$ .

Next, we look at the map  $\phi : G \rightarrow A(S)$  (the group of one-to-one onto maps from  $S$  to itself, with composition as the binary operation) given as  $\phi(g)(H_i) = gH_i g^{-1}$ . Easy to see that this is a group homomorphism. Let  $N = \ker \phi$ . Then  $G/N = \phi(G)$  and  $o(G/N) = o(G)/o(N) = o(\phi(G)) = d$ . So,  $d$  divides  $p^2$  and  $o(A(S)) = (p + 1)!$ . Since  $\gcd(p^2, (p + 1)!) = p$ , we see that  $d = 1$  or  $d = p$ . This says  $N \neq \{e\}$ . Every element  $g$  of  $N$  has thus the property,  $gH_i g^{-1} = H_i$  for all  $i$ . If necessary, we restrict to a subgroup of  $N$  (if  $N = G$ ) and assume  $o(N) = 3$ . This says, we have a map  $f_i : N \rightarrow \text{Aut}(H_i)$  (why?) given as  $f_i(g)(x) = gxg^{-1}$  for  $g \in N, x \in H_i$ . But,  $o(H_i) = p$  and thus  $o(\text{Aut}(H_i)) = p - 1$ , so  $f_i$  is not one-to-one. But,  $o(N) = 3$ , so its subgroups are just the trivial groups and thus kernel of  $f_i$  is all of  $N$ . This says,  $N \subset Z(G)$  and then the previous problem finishes the proof.

We will give a slightly better proof after we do class equation.  $\square$