Sylow's theorems

GU4041

Columbia University

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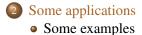
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Rough statement of the Sylow theorems Proofs of the Sylow Theorems





1 Rough statement of the Sylow theorems





3 Proofs of the Sylow Theorems

Statement of the theorems

Let *G* be a finite group of order *n*. Let *p* be a prime that divides *n*, and suppose $p^r|n$ but p^{r+1} does not divide *n*; we often write $p^r||n$.

Theorem (Sylow theorems)

- (1) G contains a subgroup $H \subset G$ of order p^r . Any such group is called a **Sylow** p-subgroup.
- (2) All Sylow p-subgroups of G are conjugate by elements of G. In particular, if G has only one Sylow p-subgroup H, then H is a **normal** subgroup of G.
- (3) The number of distinct Sylow p-subgroups of G is (i) congruent to 1 modulo p and (ii) divides |G|.

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Example

Let *G* be a group of order $21 = 3 \cdot 7$ and let *a* be the number of its distinct Sylow 7-subgroups. By the Third Sylow Theorem $a \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$ and *a* divides 21. The only divisor of 21 congruent to 1 modulo 7 is 1. So a = 1 and its unique Sylow 7-subgroup is normal

More generally,

Proposition

Let G be a group of order pq, where p and q are distinct primes, q > p. Then G has a unique Sylow q-subgroup H and H is normal. Moreover H is cyclic and if p does not divide q - 1 then G is abelian.

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Proof.

If *a* is the number of Sylow *q*-subgroups of *G*, then *a* divides *pq* and $a \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$. The only divisors of *pq* are 1, *p*, *q*, and *pq*, and of those only $1 \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$, because p < q.

By the Second Sylow Theorem, the unique Sylow *q*-subgroup *H* is normal. Since *H* is of order *q* it is abelian. Now consider the conjugation action of *G* on the normal subgroup *H*: it defines a homomorphism $c : G \to Aut(H) = \mathbb{Z}_q^{\times}$.

The image *J* is a divisor of q - 1, but $J \xrightarrow{\sim} \frac{|G|}{|\ker c|}$ by the First Isomorphism Theorem. So |J| divides

gcd(|G|, q-1) = gcd(pq, q-1) = gcd(p, q-1), since q is relatively prime to q-1. (Anyway, H is abelian, so its conjugation action on itself is trivial.). Thus if p does not divide q-1, then |J| = 1, which means that G is abelian.

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The case of S_4

If $G = S_4$ then $|G| = 24 = 2^3 \times 3$. We know that any 3 cycle generates a Sylow 3-subgroup. What is the structure of a Sylow 2-subgroup?

A Sylow 2-subgroup of A_4 is isomorphic to the Klein group K_4 , and contains all the elements with cycle decomposition 2 + 2. This set is invariant under conjugation by S_4 , so K_4 is a normal subgroup of S_4 . Let $s = (12) \in S_4$ (or any 2 cycle), H the subgroup generated by s. Then $P = H \cdot K_4$ is a Sylow 2-subgroup of order 8 with a normal subgroup of index 2.

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Some examples

S_4 , continued

Note that *s* commutes with (12)(34) but not with x = (13)(24) or y = (14)(23). In fact, we compute easily:

$$sxs^{-1} = y; sys^{-1} = x.$$

So P is not abelian, and its center is of order 2. Note that

$$s \cdot x = s \cdot (13)(24) = (1324); x \cdot s = (1423) = (1324)^{-1}.$$

So *s* normalizes the subgroup generated by the 4-cycle (1324) and takes it to its inverse:

$$s \cdot (1324)s^{-1} = s \cdot s \cdot x \cdot s = x \cdot s = (1324)^{-1}.$$

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Sylow subgroups of A_5

On the other hand, $|A_5| = 60 = 2^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$. So a Sylow 2-subgroup is just K_4 again. but it's no longer normal, because there are 15 elements with cycle decomposition 2 + 2, and they don't form a subgroup; for example, (13)(25), (15)(24), etc. The Sylow 3 and 5-subgroups are generated by a 3-cycle and a 5-cycle, respectively.

There are 24 5-cycles, and each Sylow 5-subgroup has 4 generators, so there are 6 Sylow 5-subgroups. And $6|60, 6 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$.

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A theorem of Cauchy

Theorem

Let G be a finite group of order n and let p be a prime dividing n. Then G has an element of order p.

Proof.

We use the Class Equation, where the x_i are representatives of conjugacy classes not in the center:

$$|G| = |Z(G)| + \sum_{i} [G:C_{x_i}]$$

Assume the theorem is true for groups of order less than *n*. If *p* divides the order of one of the C_{x_i} , then by induction C_{x_i} has an element *g* of order *p*, because $|C_{x_i}| < |G| = n$. But $g \in C_{x_i} \subseteq G$, so we are done.

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Proof of Cauchy's theorem, continued

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So we assume *p* divides no C_{x_i} . Then $p|[G : C_{x_i}] = |G|/|C_{x_i}|$ for all *i*. Now *p* divides

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because it divides each term on the left-hand side. Thus p divides |Z(G)|. But then |Z(G)| has an element of order p, by the classification of finite abelian groups.

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First suppose *p* does not divide $[G : C_{x_i}]$ for at least one *i*, hence p^r divides C_{x_i} , which is of smaller order than *G*. By induction C_{x_i} has a subgroup of order p^r .

So we may suppose p divides every $[G : C_{x_i}]$, hence p divides |Z(G)|. Then Z(G) contains a subgroup N of order p (by classification, or by Cauchy's theorem). But any subgroup of Z(G)| is normal in G(exercise). So G/N is of order less than n and by induction contains a subgroup \overline{K} of order p^{r-1} . Let $K \subset G$ be the corresponding subgroup containing N (the preimage of \overline{K} under the quotient map). Then

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Normalizers

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Let $H \subseteq G$ be a subgroup. The **normalizer** $N_G(H)$ of H in G is the set of $g \in G$ such that

 $gHg^{-1} \subseteq H.$

Lemma

If G is finite then $|gHg^{-1}| = |H|$ for any $g \in G$. So $gHg^{-1} \subseteq H$ implies $gHg^{-1} = H$.

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Consider the subgroup $\langle gP \rangle \subset N_G(P)/P$. If $g \notin P$ then $\langle gP \rangle$ has order p. Let $J \subset N_G(P)$ be the subgroup generated by g and P; so that

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Suppose $P \subseteq G$ is a p-Sylow subgroup. Let $g \in N_G(P)$ and assume g has order p^r for some $r \geq 1$. Then $g \in P$.

Proof.

Consider the subgroup $\langle gP \rangle \subset N_G(P)/P$. If $g \notin P$ then $\langle gP \rangle$ has order p. Let $J \subset N_G(P)$ be the subgroup generated by g and P; so that

$$J/P = \langle gP \rangle.$$

One more lemma

Lemma

Suppose $H, K \subseteq G$ are subgroups. The number of distinct subgroups hKh^{-1} , with $h \in H$, is $[H : N_G(K) \cap H]$.

Proof.

Omitted: see Judson book, p. 191, Lemma 15.6.

This is easy but it is another one of those proofs that is best read rather than seen on the (virtual) blackboard. The idea is clear:

 $h_1Kh_1^{-1} = h_2Kh_2^{-1} \Leftrightarrow (h_2h_1^{-1})K(h_2h_1^{-1})^{-1} = K \Leftrightarrow h_2 \in h_1N_G(K).$

So the set of *H*-conjugates of *K* is in bijection with $H/(N_G(K) \cap H)$.

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Proof of the Second Sylow Theorem

Here is the statement again:

Theorem

All Sylow p-subgroups of G are conjugate by elements of G.

Proof.

Let $|G| = n = p^r m$ as before, and let $S = \{P = P_1, \dots, P_k\}$ be the set of distinct conjugates of *P*. By the last Lemma, $k = [G : N_G(P)]$. Since $P \subseteq N_G(P)$, *k* divides *m* and thus is not divisible by *p*. Let $Q \neq P$ be a *p*-Sylow subgroup. We need to show that $Q = P_i$ for some $i \neq 1$. We consider the set of *Q*-conjugates of $P_i \in S$, which is a partition of *S*. Then

$$k = \sum_{i} [\mathcal{Q} : \mathcal{Q} \cap N_G(P_i)] = \sum_{i} |\mathcal{Q}| / |\mathcal{Q} \cap N_G(P_i)|.$$

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$$k = \sum_i [Q: Q \cap N_G(P_i)] = \sum_i |Q|/|Q \cap N_G(P_i)|.$$

Since *p* does not divide *k* it cannot divide $|Q|/|Q \cap N_G(P_i)|$ for some *i*. But the quotient $|Q|/|Q \cap N_G(P_i)|$ is a power of *p*, because |Q| is, so $Q \cap N_G(P_j) = Q$ for some *j*. In other words, $Q \subset N_G(P_j)$, which by the previous lemma implies that $Q \subset P_j$. Since $|Q| = |P_j|$, we are done.

Proof of the Third Sylow Theorem

Here is the statement again:

Theorem

The number k of distinct Sylow p-subgroups of G is (i) congruent to 1 modulo p and (ii) divides the order of G.

Proof.

We know that $k = [G : N_G(P)]$ if $P = P_1$ is a Sylow *p*-subgroup. This implies (ii).

Proof of the Third Sylow Theorem

Proof.

On the other hand, we partition the set S of Sylow *p*-subgroups into *P*-conjugacy classes, as before:

$$k = \sum_{i} [P : P \cap N_G(P_i)] = 1 + \sum_{i>1} |P|/|P \cap N_G(P_i)|.$$

If $P \cap N_G(P_i) = P$ then $P \subset N_G(P_i)$, and thus $P = P_i$. So for i > 1, $|P \cap N_G(P_i)|$ is a proper subgroup of |P|, so $|P|/|P \cap N_G(P_i)| \equiv 0$ (mod p). Thus $k \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, which completes the proof of (i).

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Theorem

There are no simple groups of order 20, 72, 48.

Proof.

If |G| = 20, then G has a Sylow 2-subgroup P of order 5. Since 1 is the only divisor of 20 that is congruent to 1 mod 5, P is normal, so G is not simple.

If |G| = 72, we consider a 3-Sylow subgroup *P* of order 9. The number *k* of conjugates of *H* is congruent to 1 mod 3 and divides 72. The divisors of 72 are 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 9, 12, 18, 24, 36, 72. The only ones congruent to 1 mod 3 are 1 and 4. We have to eliminate k = 4. If $k = [G : N_G(P)] = 4$ then by an in-class "challenge" *G* contains a normal subgroup *N*, contained in $N_G(P)$, of index $\leq 4! = 24$. Since 24 < 72 and $N \subseteq N_G(P)$, which is not equal to *G* (since we are assuming *P* is not normal), |N| > 1 and $N \neq G$. Thus *N* is a proper normal subgroup of *G*.

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Groups of order 48

Finally, if |G| = 48, let *P* be a 2-Sylow subgroup, of order 16, thus of index 3. Again, *G* contains a normal subgroup of index $\leq 3! = 6$, which is less than 48.

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Proof of the "challenge"

Challenge

If G contains a subgroup H of index n then G contains a **proper** normal subgroup N of index at most n!; in fact, $N \subseteq H$, so in particular $N \neq G$.

Proof.

Consider the set *X* of left cosets *G*/*H*. Multiplication on the left by *G* defines a permutation of the *n* elements of *X* (in fact, a transitive action). Thus there is a homomorphism $s : G \to S_n$, and

$$G/\ker(s) \xrightarrow{\sim} Image(s) \subseteq S_n.$$

It follows that ker(s) is of index $|Image(s)| \le |S_n| = n!$. And ker(s) is a normal subgroup.

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