

① A_4 has no subgroup of order 6 [Thus the converse of Lagrange's theorem is false]

Pf Let $H \subseteq A_4$ be a subgroup of size 6. By Hrk 4, since $(A_4 : H) = \frac{12}{6} = 2$, H is normal in A_4 .

Let $\pi: A_4 \rightarrow A_4/H$ be the natural homomorphism.
(observe that $A_4/H \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$)

If $x \in A_4$ is a 3-cycle, $\text{ord}(x) = 3$.

We also have, $\text{ord}(\pi(x)) \mid 2$ \leftarrow size of A_4/H .

On the other hand, $\text{ord}(\pi(x)) \mid \text{ord}(x) \Rightarrow \text{ord}(\pi(x)) = 1$

Thus $\pi(x) = xH = H \Rightarrow x \in H$.

Thus $H \supseteq$ all 3-cycles

$\Rightarrow H \supseteq A_4$ (A_4 is generated by 3-cycles).

This is a contradiction.

Thus H doesn't exist \blacksquare

② A_5 is simple

Sketch: let $N \subseteq A_5$ be normal.

By Lagrange's theorem $|N|$ divides $|A_5| = 60$.

On the other hand N is a union of conjugacy classes.

Lemma The conjugacy classes of A_5 are

- $[(1)]$ size 1
- $[(12345)]$ size 12
- $[(21345)]$ size 12
- $[(12)(34)]$ size 15
- $[(123)]$ size 20

they are conjugate in S_5 but not $\underline{A_5}$.

Now N must contain (1) and thus

$$|N| = 1 + a_0 12 + a_1 12 + a_2 15 + a_3 20$$

with $a_i \in \{0, 1\}$.

But $|N|$ divides 60 iff $a_i = 0 \forall i$ or $a_i = 1 \forall i$.

Thus $N = \{e\}$ or $N = A_5$.

Thus A_5 is simple \square

③ Writing groups as product of simpler groups:
 If $G \cong H \times K$, then to understand G , it suffices to understand the simpler groups H & K .

Prop] Let G be a group and $H, K \subseteq G$ normal. If $\langle H \cup K \rangle = G$ and $H \cap K = \{e\}$,
 then $H \times K \cong G$. subgroup generated by H, K

PF First let's show $hk = kh \forall k \in K, h \in H$.
 Well, $hk h^{-1} k^{-1} = (hk h^{-1}) k^{-1} \in K$ as K is normal
 and $hk h^{-1} k^{-1} = h(kh^{-1}k^{-1}) \in H$ as H is normal.
 Since $H \cap K = \{e\} \Rightarrow hk h^{-1} k^{-1} = e$
 $\Rightarrow hk = kh.$

Now define $\Psi: H \times K \rightarrow G$ by $(h, k) \mapsto hk$.
 Then $\Psi((h_1, h_2, k_1, k_2)) = h_1 h_2 k_1 k_2$
 $= h_1 k_1 h_2 k_2$ (above)
 $= \Psi(h_1, k_1) \Psi(h_2, k_2).$

Thus Ψ is a homomorphism.

• Injective: $\Psi(h, k) = e \Rightarrow hk = e \Rightarrow h = k^{-1} \Rightarrow h, k^{-1} \in H \cap K \Rightarrow h = k^{-1} = e$

• Surjective: The commutativity relation implies

$$G = \langle H \cup K \rangle = HK = \{h \cdot k : h \in H, k \in K\} = \Psi(H \times K) \blacksquare$$

One can use this to classify all finite abelian groups:

Ex Let G be abelian & $|G| = pq$ for distinct primes.

By Sylow I, there are subgroups H of order p and K of order q .

Since G is abelian, H, K are normal.

Since $H \cap K \subseteq K$ and $H \cap K \subseteq H \Rightarrow |H \cap K|$

divides $p, q \Rightarrow |H \cap K| = 1 \Rightarrow H \cap K = \{e\}$.

If you think about the proof of the Lemma, we obtain,

$\Psi: H \times K \rightarrow G, (h, k) \mapsto (hk)$ an injective homomorphism.

But $|H \times K| = pq$ & $|G| = pq$.

Thus Ψ is an isomorphism.

But we know $H \cong \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ and $K \cong \mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$ and this proves the classification theorem in this case. \blacksquare

Proceeding in this fashion one obtains the classifications of finite abelian groups