

(26.0) Recall: we introduced the notion of a composition series of a group G .

• Composition series = descending chain of normal subgroups.

$$\Sigma: G = G_0 \supseteq G_1 \supseteq \dots \supseteq G_n = \{e\}$$

• Jordan-Hölder series = strict composition series, maximal with respect to refinement.

Certain composition series can be constructed via "commutators".

(26.1) Definition. - Let G be a group and $x, y \in G$.

$$[x, y] := xyx^{-1}y^{-1} \in G.$$

Given $A, B \subset G$ (just subsets),

$$[A, B] := \text{subgroup of } G \text{ generated by } \left\{ [a, b] : \begin{array}{l} a \in A \\ b \in B \end{array} \right\}.$$

Lemma. If $A, B \trianglelefteq G$, then $[A, B] \trianglelefteq G$.

(The proof is same as the one when $A = B = G$ see, e.g., Lecture 7 (page 3). We reproduce the argument below.)

Proof. Given $x = [a, b] = a b a^{-1} b^{-1}$; $a \in A$ & $b \in B$,

(2)

and $g \in G$, we have:

$$g x g^{-1} = \left[\underset{A}{g a g^{-1}}, \underset{B}{g b g^{-1}} \right] \in [A, B] \text{ as } A \text{ \& } B \text{ are } \underline{\text{normal}} \text{ in } G.$$

In general; $x \in [A, B]$ is of the form $x = x_1 x_2 \dots x_k$,
where $x_j = [a_j, b_j]$ for some $a_j \in A$, $b_j \in B$ ($j=1, 2, \dots, k$).

Again we obtain

$$g x g^{-1} = (g x_1 g^{-1}) (g x_2 g^{-1}) \dots (g x_k g^{-1}) \in [A, B].$$

Hence, $[A, B] \trianglelefteq G$. □

(26.2) Commutator series (also known as "derived series")-

[caution: the word "derived" has changed its meaning ~~to~~ these days. We have things like "derived categories, functors, derived algebraic geometry ...". So, it is, perhaps, not a good idea to use it here. I will try to stick to "commutator series".]

Let G be a group. Take $G^{(0)} = G$,

(3)

$$G^{(1)} = [G, G]; \quad G^{(2)} = [G^{(1)}, G^{(1)}]; \quad \dots$$

$$G^{(l+1)} = [G^{(l)}, G^{(l)}]; \quad \dots$$

We obtain $G = G^{(0)} \supseteq G^{(1)} \supseteq G^{(2)} \supseteq \dots$ (may not end!
even if G is finite.)

called commutator series of G .

Remark. For any group H , the quotient by $[H, H] \trianglelefteq H$,

$$H/[H, H]$$

is abelian. It is "the largest

abelian group which admits a surjective group hom. from H ."

That is, if A is any abelian group and $f: H \rightarrow A$

is a gp. hom., then $[H, H] \subset \text{Ker}(f)$. Moreover, for

$$f = \pi: H \longrightarrow H/[H, H], \quad \text{Ker}(\pi) = [H, H].$$

Thus, for the commutator series, the associated graded pieces

$$\left(G^{(0)}/G^{(1)}; \quad G^{(1)}/G^{(2)}; \quad \dots \right)$$

are abelian.

(26.3) Examples.

(i) G abelian $\implies G^{(0)} = G \supseteq G^{(1)} = \{e\}$.

(ii) $G = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{bmatrix} : a, c \neq 0; b \text{ arbitrary} \right\}$
 $\left[\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} a' & b' \\ 0 & c' \end{pmatrix} \right] = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a' & b' \\ 0 & c' \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{a} & -\frac{b}{ac} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{c} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{a'} & -\frac{b'}{a'c'} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{c'} \end{pmatrix}$

$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & d \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

[Note: $\begin{pmatrix} x & y \\ 0 & z \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{x} & -\frac{y}{xz} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{z} \end{pmatrix}$.

where $d = \frac{ab' - a'b + bc' - b'c}{cc'}$ (whatever!)

Then $G^{(1)}$ consist of $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} : x \text{ arbitrary} \right\}$

this group is abelian because $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & x \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x' \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x+x' \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

$\implies G^{(2)} = \{e\}$. Thus the commutator series

of this group is $G^{(0)} \supseteq G^{(1)} \supseteq G^{(2)} = \{e\}$.

(iii) Assume G is simple, non-abelian, say A_5 .

$[G, G] \trianglelefteq G$ (by Lemma (26.1) page 1).

$[G, G] \neq \{e\}$ because G is not abelian

(5)

(not every $ab = ba$ i.e. not every $ab^{-1}b^{-1} = e$).

As G is simple, we conclude that $[G, G] = G$.

Hence $G^{(0)} = G = G^{(1)} = G^{(2)} = \dots$ (never ending!).

(26.4) Definition. — We say G is solvable if for some $n \geq 0$, we have $G^{(n)} = \{e\}$.

Examples (i) and (ii) above are solvable. A_n (or any simple group for that matter) are not solvable.

(26.5) The term "solvable" originated from the concept of "Solvability by radicals of a polynomial equations". You will learn more about it next term (Galois theory!), but here is the rough dictionary to illustrate this.

$ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ can be "solved" in terms of

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

- e.g.
- polynomials in $\{a, b, c\}$
 - radicals (square-root)

The "reason" for this will turn out to be - $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} = S_2$ is ⑥
solvable.

• $S_3 = G = G^{(0)} \supseteq G^{(1)} \cong \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} \supseteq G^{(2)} = \{e\}$ also solvable

($D_6 = \langle \beta, \alpha \rangle$)

$\alpha^{-1} = \alpha^2 = \beta \alpha \beta \Rightarrow \beta \alpha \beta^{-1} = \alpha \in G^{(1)}$

Any degree 3 poly eqⁿ can be solved, ~~look up the general case~~
look up the general case

e.g. ~~$x^3 + B = 0$~~

$x^3 - 3Ax + B = 0$ is "solved" : radicals

$x = \alpha + \frac{A}{\alpha}$ where $\alpha = \left[\frac{B \pm \sqrt{B^2 - 4A^3}}{2} \right]^{\frac{1}{3}}$

Ex. S_4 is also solvable.

(read about solving degree 4 eqⁿ - if you are interested.)

S_5 (& S_n beyond; $n \geq 5$) are not solvable.

(You may already know this - a general degree 5 eqⁿ has no "explicit soln." like the ones above.)