Minimum Counterexamples in Group Theory
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$3 \times 6$ window lattice

| code block | weight | No. of codes <br> with block | No. of trees $=$ <br> weight $\times$ number |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 1 | 6 | 6 |
| 101 | 3 | 4 | 12 |
| 1001 | 4 | 3 | 12 |
| 10001 | 6 | 2 | 12 |
| 10101 | 9 | 2 | 18 |
| 100001 | 8 | 1 | 8 |
| 101001 | 12 | 2 | $\underline{92}$ |
|  | TABLE 1 |  |  |

The combinatorial problem in the general case is that of having to determine all admissible distributions of the known number of vertices of the $W$-lattice vertex matrix. For example, Figure 7(a) shows a tree $T_{H}$ with the all-zeros code 00000 in the $5 \times 5$ window lattice where the eight vertices of $W$ not spanned by $T_{H}$ are distributed in accord with the composition 12131 of 8 among the columns of $W$, and Figure 7(b) shows another code- 00000 tree $T_{H}$ where the 8 nonspanned vertices are distributed as the composition 11312.

## References

[1] Gerald L. Thompson, Hamiltonian tours and paths in rectangular lattice graphs, this Magazine, 50 (1977) 147-150.
[2] Frank Harary, Graph Theory, Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA, 1969.
[3] S. Seshu and M. B. Reed, Linear Graphs and Electrical Networks, Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA, 1961; Problem No. 2-6, p. 33.

## Minimum Counterexamples in Group Theory

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In the theory of finite groups, many major theorems have been proved by the minimum counterexample technique which works as follows. If there is a counterexample to a given theorem, then there is a counterexample $G$ of smallest possible order. The assumption that $G$ exists is then used to force a contradiction and the theorem in question is thus established. In practice, the contradiction frequently arises from the existence of a counterexample of order smaller than that of the presumed minimum counterexample. This technique was used by G. A. Miller [1], as early as 1916, though it may have been used by earlier writers. Of course, the minimum counterexample technique is merely a disguised form of mathematical induction and in fact bears the same kind of relation to induction as does proof by the method of infinite descent used in number theory.

However, even when a conjecture about finite groups turns out to be false, the question naturally arises as to which group furnishes us with a counterexample of smallest possible order. The search for counterexamples is an important aspect of the teaching of modern algebra, and the finding of minimum counterexamples, or "least criminals" as they are sometimes called, gives the student an excellent opportunity of becoming familiar with the groups of "small" order. Indeed, it is remarkable just how many conjectures can be refuted with a knowledge of the structures of the groups of order 12 or less.

In this paper we give a minimum counterexample for each of a number of not implausible conjectures about finite groups. Proofs can be found in standard references on group theory, but we have included a few arguments to illustrate the search technique. We also suggest many further problems, solved and perhaps unsolved, in this area. We work with groups given by generators and defining relations, or with groups given by their faithful permutation representations. We note that a minimum counterexample need not be unique since nonisomorphic minimum counterexamples (of the same order) may possibly exist for a given conjecture (as in Conjecture 1 below).

For handy reference throughout this note we list in Table 1 the notation which we shall use, and in Table 2 the groups of order less than 12.

| G | a finite group | Order | Distinct nonisomorphic groups |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $Z(G)$ | the center of $G$ | 1 | $C_{1}$ |
| $G^{\prime}$ | the commutator subgroup of $G$ | 2 | $C_{2}$ |
| ${ }^{\|G\|}$ | the order of $G$ | 3 | $C_{3}$ |
| $C_{n}$ | the cyclic group of order $n$ |  | $C_{4} C_{2} \times C_{2}$ |
| $D_{n}$ | the dihedral group of order $2 n$ |  | $C_{4}, C_{2} \times C_{2}$ |
| $A_{n}$ | the alternating group of order $n!/ 2$ | 5 | $C_{5}$ |
| $Q$ | the quaternion group of order 8 | 6 | $C_{6} \simeq C_{2} \times C_{3}, S_{3} \simeq D_{3}$ |
| $A \times B$ | the direct product of $A$ and $B$ | 7 | $C_{7}$ |
| $F$ | the set $\left\{x^{2} \mid x \in G\right\}$ of all squares in $G$ | 8 | $C_{8}, C_{4} \times C_{2}, C_{2} \times C_{2} \times C_{2}, D_{4}, Q$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & G \simeq H \\ & H \triangleleft G \end{aligned}$ | the groups $G$ and $H$ are isomorphic $H$ is a normal subgroup of $G$ | 9 | $C_{9}, C_{3} \times C_{3}$ |
| Aut $G$ | the group of automorphisms of $G$ | 10 | $C_{10} \simeq C_{2} \times C_{5}, D_{5}$ |
| $\Phi(G)$ | the Frattini subgroup of $G$ (see [2]) | 11 | $C_{11}$ |

We will use standard notation for generators and relations for a group. For example, $S_{3}=\left\langle a, b \mid a^{3}=b^{2}=1, b a b=a^{2}\right\rangle$ denotes the fact that the symmetric group $S_{3}$ can be described as the group whose elements are products of two elements $a, b$ subject to the conditions that $a$ is of order $3, b$ is of order 2, and the triple product $b a b$ collapses to $a^{2}$. This "generators and relations" notation allows us to avoid the tedious use of multiplication tables.

Conjecture 1. In any group $G$, the set $F$ of all squares of elements of $G$ is a subgroup of $G$.
If $G$ is Abelian and $x^{2}, y^{2}$ are elements of $F$, then $x^{2} y^{2}=(x y)^{2}$, so $F$ is closed and clearly nonempty and thus a subgroup of $G$. This fact rules out as counterexamples all groups of order less than 12 with the possible exceptions of $S_{3}, D_{4}, Q$ and $D_{5}$.

Now $S_{3} \simeq D_{3}=\left\langle a, b \mid a^{3}=b^{2}=1, b a b=a^{2}\right\rangle$ and direct calculation shows that $F=\left\{1, a, a^{2}\right\}$ is a subgroup of $S_{3}$. Next, for $D_{4}=\left\langle a, b \mid a^{4}=b^{2}=1, b a b=a^{3}\right\rangle, F=\left\{1, a^{2}\right\}$, which is a subgroup of $D_{4}$. Similarly, $Q=\left\langle a, b \mid a^{4}=1, a^{2}=b^{2}, b^{-1} a b=a^{3}\right\rangle$ giving $F=\left\{1, a^{2}\right\}$, which is a subgroup of $Q$. Finally, $D_{5}=\left\langle a, b \mid a^{5}=b^{2}=1, b a b=a^{4}\right\rangle$ giving $F=\left\{1, a, a^{2}, a^{3}, a^{4}\right\}$, a subgroup of $D_{5}$.


Figure 1. The rotation group of the regular tetrahedron permutes the vertices, and hence can be identified with $A_{4}$. This group is a minimum counterexample to several conjectures.

Thus a minimum counterexample has order at least 12 , and we will now show that $A_{4}$, of order 12, is a minimum counterexample. Representing $A_{4}$ as a permutation group, we have

$$
A_{4}=\{e,(12)(34),(13)(24),(14)(23),(123),(132),(124),(142),(134),(143),(234),(243)\}
$$

(see Figure 1) and

$$
F=\{e,(123),(132),(124),(142),(134),(143),(234),(243)\}
$$

So, since $|F|=9$, and 9 is not a divisor of $\left|A_{4}\right|, F$ is not a subgroup of $A_{4}$. Note that the dicyclic group of order 12 given by $\left\langle a, b \mid a^{6}=1, b^{2}=a^{3}, b^{-1} a b=a^{-1}\right\rangle$ is also a minimum counterexample.

Conjecture 2. The converse of Lagrange's theorem is true; i.e., if $n$ divides $|G|$, then $G$ has a subgroup of order $n$.
Since it is known that the converse of Lagrange's theorem is true for all finite Abelian groups, we can rule out each group of order less than 12 as a minimum counterexample except possibly $S_{3}, D_{4}, Q$ and $D_{5}$. For each of these groups we can produce subgroups of appropriate orders, in terms of the generators already given:

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
S_{3}:\{1\}, \quad\{1, b\}, \quad\left\{1, a, a^{2}\right\}, & S_{3} . \\
D_{4}:\{1\}, \quad\left\{1, a^{2}\right\}, & \left\{1, a, a^{2}, a^{3}\right\}, & D_{4} . \\
Q:\{1\}, \quad\left\{1, a^{2}\right\}, \quad\left\{1, a, a^{2}, a^{3}\right\}, & Q . \\
D_{5}:\{1\}, \quad\{1, b\}, \quad\left\{1, a, a^{2}, a^{3}, a^{4}\right\}, & D_{5} .
\end{array}
$$

Hence none of these groups is a counterexample. However, $A_{4}$ is a minimum counterexample, since we can show that it has no subgroup of order 6. Direct calculation shows that the conjugacy classes in $A_{4}$ are

$$
\{e\},\{(12)(34),(13)(24),(14)(23)\},\{(123),(134),(243),(142)\}
$$

and

$$
\{(132),(143),(234),(124)\} .
$$

If $H$ were a subgroup of order 6 in $A_{4}$, then, since $\left[A_{4}: H\right]=2, H \triangleleft A_{4}$. Therefore $H$ must consist of complete conjugacy classes of $A_{4}$ and of course $e \in H$. The five nonidentity elements of $H$ must be made up by taking complete classes with either 3 or 4 elements, an impossibility. Thus $H$ cannot exist and so $A_{4}$ is a minimum counterexample.

## Consecture 3. If $A$ and $B$ are subgroups of $G$ such that $B \triangleleft A$ and $A \triangleleft G$, then $B \triangleleft G$.

Since every subgroup of an Abelian group is normal, the only group of order less than 8 to be examined is $S_{3}$. Now $\{1\} \triangleleft\left\{1, a, a^{2}\right\} \triangleleft S_{3}$ is the only relevant normal chain in $S_{3}$, and since $\{1\} \triangleleft S_{3}, S_{3}$ does not produce a counterexample. However, $D_{4}$ of order 8 is a minimum counterexample, as we now prove. Since $D_{4}=\left\langle a, b \mid a^{4}=b^{2}=1, b a b=a^{3}\right\rangle$, we take $B=\{1, b\}$,
$A=\left\{1, a^{2}, b, a^{2} b\right\}$. Then $B \triangleleft A$, since $A$ is Abelian, and $A \triangleleft D_{4}$ since $\left[D_{4}: A\right]=2$, but clearly $B$ is not normal in $D_{4}$ since $a^{-1} b a \notin B$.

Conjecture 4. all groups of odd order are Abelian.
This conjecture might be optimistically made on the strength of Feit and Thompson's remarkable result that all groups of odd order are soluble. We have the following well-known results:
(a) Groups of order $p$ or $p^{2}$ are Abelian, where $p$ is a prime.
(b) If $p$ and $q$ are distinct primes with $p>q$ and if $q$ does not divide $p-1$, then there is a unique group of order pq and this group is the Abelian group $C_{p q} \simeq C_{p} \times C_{q}$.

These two results eliminate all groups of odd order less than 21 as counterexamples. However, there is a group $G$ of order 21, given by $G=\left\langle a, b \mid a^{7}=b^{3}=1, b^{-1} a b=a^{2}\right\rangle$, and $G$ is clearly nonAbelian, so $G$ is the required minimum counterexample.

Conjecture 5. $Z(G)$ is a fully invariant subgroup of $G$, i.e., $Z(G)$ is mapped into $Z(G)$ by every endomorphism of $G$.

If $G$ is Abelian or $Z(G)=\{1\}$, then $Z(G)$ is fully invariant, so all groups of order less than 12 are ruled out as counterexamples, except possibly $D_{4}$ and $Q$. In both of these groups it is easy to show that $Z(G)=G^{\prime}$, so $Z(G)$ is fully invariant because it is known that $G^{\prime}$ is fully invariant. However, $D_{6}=\left\langle a, b \mid a^{6}=1=b^{2}, b a b=a^{5}\right\rangle$ of order 12 is a minimum counterexample. In $D_{6}$ the mapping $a \rightarrow b, b \rightarrow b$, induces an endomorphism $\theta$ of $D_{6}$ such that $\left(a^{3}\right) \theta=b$, where $a^{3} \in Z\left(D_{6}\right)$ and $b \notin Z\left(D_{6}\right)$.

Conjecture 6. If $N \triangleleft G$, then $G$ contains a subgroup isomorphic to the factor group $G / N$.
This very natural conjecture is in fact true for finite Abelian groups, so $S_{3}$ is the only group of order less than 8 which needs to be considered. Now $\{1\},\left\{1, a, a^{2}\right\}$, and $S_{3}$ are the normal subgroups of $S_{3}$, and the corresponding factor groups are isomorphic to $S_{3}, C_{2}$, and $C_{1}$. However, $S_{3}$ has subgroups isomorphic to each of these groups. But the quaternion group $Q$ is a minimum counterexample. Let $Q=\left\langle a, b \mid a^{4}=1, a^{2}=b^{2}, b^{-1} a b=a^{3}\right\rangle$. Then $\left\langle a^{2}\right\rangle=A \triangleleft Q$ and $Q / A \simeq C_{2} \times C_{2}$. However, $Q$ has no subgroup isomorphic to $C_{2} \times C_{2}$, since $Q$ has only one element of order 2.

We close with a number of conjectures, all of which are false. The reader is challenged to produce a minimum counterexample in each case. At the time of writing, minimum counterexamples to those conjectures marked with an asterisk were unknown to the author. Some of these are likely to present considerable difficulty, and the author would welcome comments or solutions.

Conjecture 7. In any group G, the set of all commutators forms a subgroup.
Conjecture 8. If every subgroup of $G$ is normal, then $G$ is Abelian.
Conjecture 9. If every proper subgroup of $G$ is cyclic, then $G$ is cyclic.
Conjecture 10. If every proper subgroup of $G$ is cyclic, then $G$ is Abelian.
Conjecture 11. If every proper subgroup of $G$ is Abelian, then $G$ is Abelian.
Conjecture 12. Every normal subgroup of $G$ is characteristic in $G$.
Conjecture 13. Every characteristic subgroup is fully invariant in $G$.
Conjecture 14. Given a group $G$, there exists a group $H$ such that $G \simeq H^{\prime}$.
Conjecture 15. Given a group $G$, there exists a group $H$ such that $G \simeq$ Aut $H$.

Conjecture 16. Given a nonAbelian group $G$, there exists a finite group $H$ such that $G \simeq \operatorname{Aut} H$.
Conjecture 17. Given a nonAbelian group $G$, there exists a finite group $H$ such that $G \simeq$ $H / Z(H)$.

Conjecture 18. Given a group $G$, there exists a finite group $H$ such that $G \simeq \Phi(H)$.
Conjecture 19. Every group $G$ has a subgroup of prime index.
Conjecture 20. If $G$ is a simple group, then $G$ is Abelian.
Conjecture 21. Every insoluble group $G$ is simple.
Conjecture 22. If $G$ is a group with trivial center, then $G=G^{\prime}$.
Conjecture 23. If $G$ is a group with $G=G^{\prime}$, then $G$ has trivial center. (See [3], page 56.)
Conjecture 24. If every group of order $|G|$ is cyclic, then $|G|$ must be a prime number (ignore $|G|=1)$.

Conjecture 25*. If an automorphism $\alpha$ of $G$ sends every conjugacy class of $G$ onto itself, then $\alpha$ must be inner. (See [2], page 23.)

Conjecture 26*. If G has a fixed-point-free automorphism, then $G$ is nilpotent. (See [3], page 336.)

Consecture 27*. If $G$ is nonAbelian, then Aut $G$ is nonAbelian.
Conjecture 28*. If $G$ is nonAbelian, then $\mid$ Aut $G \mid$ is even, i.e., every nonAbelian group has an automorphism of order 2 .

Conjecture 29. If $G$ is nonAbelian, then $G$ is a 2-generator group.
Conjecture 30. If $G$ is a nonAbelian p-group, then Aut $G$ cannot also be a p-group.
Conjecture 31*. If $G$ is nonAbelian and $|G|$ is odd, then $G$ has an outer automorphism.
Conjecture 32. If $H$ is a proper subgroup of $G$, then $\mid$ Aut $G|>|$ Aut $H \mid$. (See [2], page 24.)
Conjecture 33. If $|G|=n>1$, then there are less than $n$ distinct isomorphism classes of groups of order $n$.

Consecture 34. If $G$ and $H$ are groups such that $G$ and $H$ have exactly the same number of elements of each order, then $G \simeq H$.

Conjecture 35. If $H$ is a normal nilpotent subgroup of $G$ such that $G / H$ is nilpotent, then $G$ is nilpotent.

Conjecture 36*. If $G$ is a nonAbelian p-group, where $p$ is odd, then Aut $G$ cannot also be a p-group.

Consecture 37. The kernel of a Frobenius group $G$ is Abelian.
Conjecture 38. If $|G|=|H|$ and $\operatorname{Aut} G \simeq$ Aut $H$, then $G \simeq H$.
Conjecture 39. If $H$ is a subgroup of $G$, then $\Phi(H) \subseteq \Phi(G)$. (See [2], page 50.)
Conjecture 40. If $|G|=|H|$, and $G$ and $H$ have the same character table, then $G \simeq H$.
Conjecture 41. In any permutation group $G$, the product of transpositions, no two of which are equal, cannot be the identity element of $G$.

Conjecture 42. If $A$ and $B$ are subgroups of $G$ such that $A \subset B \subset G$, where $A$ is characteristic in $G$, then $A$ is characteristic in $B$.

CONJECTURE 43. If $G$ is a noncyclic group with $|G|=n$, then $G$ can be faithfully embedded in $S_{m}$ for some $m<n$.

CONJECTURE 44. If $G$ is. a nonAbelian group with $|G|=n$, then $G$ can be faithfully embedded in $S_{m}$ for some $m<n$.

Conjecture 45. Any element of $G^{\prime}$ is the product of at most two elements of $F$.
Conjecture 46. If $A$ and $B$ are normal subgroups of $a$ group $G$ such that $A \simeq B$, then $G / A \simeq G / B$.

Conjecture 47. If $A$ and $B$ are normal subgroups of $a$ group $G$ such that $G / A \simeq G / B$, then $A \simeq B$.

## References

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## Regions of Convergence for a Generalized Lambert Series

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In this note, we discuss infinite series of the form

$$
G(z)=\sum \frac{a_{n} z^{n}}{1+c_{n} z^{n}}
$$

where the coefficients $a_{n}$ and $c_{n}$ are complex numbers and $c_{n} z^{n} \neq-1$. We will call this type of infinite series a $G$-series. A $G$-series is a power series if, for all $n, c_{n}=0$ and a Lambert series if, for all $n, c_{n}=-1$.

In the literature a $G$-series is usually considered as a generalized Lambert series. For our investigation it might be better to think of a Lambert series as a generalized power series since the questions we will consider can be readily understood in terms of what is known about power series. For example, we inquire-does a $G$-series have a radius of convergence? Are there convergence criteria for $G$-series similar to well-known criteria of power series?

We first consider Lambert series. In general, a Lambert series is analytic at the origin and therefore has a power series expansion at the origin. Some of these power series expansions are very interesting. For example, J. H. Lambert found that for $|z|<1$

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{z^{n}}{1-z^{n}}=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \tau_{n} z^{n}=z+2 z^{2}+2 z^{3}+3 z^{4}+2 z^{5}+4 z^{6}+\cdots
$$

where $\tau_{n}$ is the number of divisors of $n$. More generally, provided $r$ is a real number and $|z|<1$,

