

## PROOF OF CAUCHY'S THEOREM

KEITH CONRAD

The converse of Lagrange's theorem is false in general: when  $d|\#G$ ,  $G$  doesn't have to contain a subgroup of size  $d$ . The most basic valid converse to Lagrange's theorem occurs for prime divisors. This is Cauchy's theorem.

**Theorem 1** (Cauchy, 1845). *Let  $G$  be a finite group and  $p$  be a prime factor of  $\#G$ . Then  $G$  contains an element of order  $p$ . Equivalently,  $G$  contains a subgroup of size  $p$ .*

The equivalence of the existence of an *element* of order  $p$  and a *subgroup* of size  $p$  is easy: an element of order  $p$  generates a subgroup of size  $p$ , while conversely a subgroup of size  $p$  contains elements of order  $p$  since  $p$  is prime.

Before treating the general case, let's see that the case  $p = 2$  of Cauchy's theorem can be proved in a simple way. If  $\#G$  is even, consider the set of pairs  $\{g, g^{-1}\}$ , where  $g \neq g^{-1}$ . This takes into account an even number of elements of  $G$ . Those  $g$ 's which are not part of such a pair are the ones satisfying  $g = g^{-1}$ , i.e.,  $g^2 = e$ . One such element is  $e$ . If it was the only one, then  $G$  would have odd size (why?). Since we are told  $G$  has even size, there must be  $g_0 \neq e$  such that  $g_0 = g_0^{-1}$ , so  $g_0^2 = e$  and  $g_0$  has order 2.

Although there is always a subgroup of order  $p$  when  $p|\#G$ , there need not be a subgroup of index  $p$ . For example,  $A_4$  has order 12 but no subgroup of index 2.

Now we prove Cauchy's theorem.

*Proof.* We will prove Cauchy's theorem by induction on  $\#G$ , treating separately abelian  $G$  (using quotient groups) and non-abelian  $G$  (using the class equation).

Let  $n = \#G$ . Since  $p|n$ ,  $n \geq p$ . The base case is  $n = p$ . When  $\#G = p$ , any non-identity element of  $G$  has order  $p$  because  $p$  is prime.

Now suppose  $n > p$ ,  $p|n$ , and the theorem is true for all groups with size less than  $n$  and divisible by  $p$ . Let  $G$  be a group of size  $n$ .

Case 1:  $G$  is abelian. Since  $p|n$  and  $n > p$ ,  $\#G$  is not prime. Therefore  $G$  has a proper non-trivial subgroup, say  $H$ . Since  $G$  is abelian,  $G/H$  is a group. Since

$$\#H \cdot \#(G/H) = \#G = n,$$

the prime  $p$  divides either  $\#H$  or  $\#(G/H)$  (we don't know which). Therefore, by induction,  $H$  or  $G/H$  has an element with order  $p$ . If  $H$  does, then so does  $G$ . If  $G/H$  has an element with order  $p$ , say  $\bar{g}$ , then what can we say about the order of  $g$  (in  $G$ )? Let  $m$  be the order of  $g$ . Then

$$g^m = e \text{ in } G \implies \bar{g}^m = \bar{e} \text{ in } G/H \implies p|m.$$

Thus,  $g$  has order divisible by  $p$ , so  $g^{m/p}$  is an element of  $G$  with order  $p$ .

Case 2:  $G$  is non-abelian. Since  $\#G$  is not a prime,  $G$  has a non-trivial proper subgroup, say  $H$ . Since  $\#G = \#H \cdot [G : H]$ ,  $p$  divides either  $H$  or  $[G : H]$ . If  $p$  divides  $H$ , we're done by induction. In other words, if  $G$  has a proper subgroup with size divisible by  $p$ , we're done by induction.

But if, instead,  $p|[G : H]$  for every non-trivial proper subgroup  $H$ , then the argument from the abelian case breaks down since  $H$  need not be a normal subgroup of  $G$ , so we can't apply induction with the smaller group  $G/H$ .

Happily, we can take advantage of the non-commutativity to show that this problem does not arise: when  $G$  is a non-abelian group and  $p|\#G$ , there is always a non-trivial proper subgroup with size divisible by  $p$ . That is what the rest of the proof will demonstrate.

Since  $G$  is non-abelian, its center  $Z(G)$  is a proper subgroup. For each  $g \in G$ , the centralizer of  $g$

$$Z(g) = \{h \in G : hg = gh\}$$

is a subgroup of  $G$ , and this is a proper subgroup when  $g \notin Z(G)$ . If  $p|\#Z(g)$  for some  $g \notin Z(G)$ , then  $Z(g)$  is a proper subgroup of  $G$  and its size is divisible by  $p$  so we're done. If  $p|\#Z(G)$ , then again we're done. We will use the class equation to show one of these possibilities ( $p|\#Z(g)$  for some  $g \notin Z(G)$  or  $p|\#Z(G)$ ) must happen.

Let the conjugacy classes in  $G$  with size *greater* than 1 be represented by  $g_1, g_2, \dots, g_r$ . Then the class equation for  $G$  says

$$\#G = \#Z(G) + \sum_{i=1}^r [G : Z(g_i)] = \#Z(G) + \sum_{i=1}^r \frac{\#G}{\#Z(g_i)}.$$

We look at  $p$ -divisibility of the terms in this equation. The left side is divisible by  $p$ . If some  $Z(g_i)$  has size divisible by  $p$ , we'd be done. On the other hand, if each  $Z(g_i)$  has size not divisible by  $p$ , then each index  $[G : Z(g_i)]$  is divisible by  $p$ . Therefore the remaining term,  $\#Z(G)$ , must be divisible by  $p$ .  $\square$

It is worthwhile reading and re-reading this proof until you see how it hangs together. For instance, notice that in the proof for abelian  $G$ , the smaller groups which we used are subgroups  $H$  and quotient groups  $G/H$ . Both of these are abelian when  $G$  is abelian, so inductively we did not need the non-abelian case to treat the abelian case. In fact, quite a few books prove Cauchy's theorem for abelian groups before they develop suitable material (like the class equation) to handle Cauchy's theorem for non-abelian groups.