# COURSE CODE: MTS 311 COURSE TITLE - Groups and Rings NUMBER OF UNITS: Three

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### COURSE CONTENT:

Groups, Examples of groups, Some elementary properties of groups, Subgroups, Cyclic groups, Cosets and Langrange's theorem, Normal subgroups and Quotient groups, Homomorphisms, The Isomorphism Theorems, Group Actions, orbits and stabilizers, Conjugacy, Class equation of a finite group, Cauchy's Theorem, The structure of p-groups, The Sylow's theorems, Some applications of Sylow's theorems, Simple groups, Solvable groups

# COURSE REQUIREMENTS

- 1. COURSE STATUS: Compulsory
- 2. PREREQUISITE: MTS 211 Abstract Algebra

### **RECOMMENDED TEXTS**

- 1. Elementary Abstract and Linear Algebra by Ilori & Akinyele, University of Ibadan Press
- 2. Abstract Algebra by Aderemi Kuku, University of Ibadan Press
- 3. A first course in Abstract Algebra by J.B. Fraleigh
- 4. A course in Algebra by E.B. Vinberg, American Mathematical Society, 2001

# 1 Groups

A binary operation  $\star$  on a set G associates to elements x and y of G a third element  $x \star y$  of G. For example addition and multiplication are binary operations of the set of all integers.

**Definition 1.1** A group G consists of a set G together with a binary operation  $\star$  for which the following properties are satisfied:

- $(x \star y) \star z = x \star (y \star z)$  for all x, y & z of G (the associative law)
- there exist an element e of G (known as the identity element of G) such that  $e \star x = x = x \star e$ , for all element x of G.
- for each element x of G there exists an element x' (known as the inverse of x) such that  $x^*x = e = x' \star x$  (where e is the identity element of G).

#### 1.0.1 Examples of Groups

- 1. The set of integers, rational numbers, real numbers and complex numbers are Abelian groups together with the binary operation of addition.
- 2. The set of non-zero rational numbers, non-zero real numbers and non-zero complex numbers are are also Abelian groups with the binary operation of multiplication
- 3. For each positive integer  $m \mathbb{Z}_m$  of congruency classes of integers modulo m is a group, where the group operation is addition of congruence classes.
- 4. For each positive integer n the set of all singular  $n \times n$  matrices is a group where the group operation is matrix multiplication. These groups are not Abelian for  $n \ge 2$ .

# 1.1 Some elementary properties of groups

In the following the some properties of a group G using multiplicative notation and denoting the identity element e are given.

**Lemma 1.1** A group G has exactly one identity element e such that xe = ex = e for all  $x \in G$ 

#### Proof

Suppose that f is an element of G with the property that fx = x foe all elements x of G. Then in particular f = fe = e. Similarly one can show that e is the only element of G satisfying xe = x for all element x of G.

**Lemma 1.2** Every element x of G has exactly one inverse  $x^{-1}$ 

#### Proof

From the axioms of a group, G contains at least one element  $x^{-1}$  which satisfies  $xx^{-1} = e$  and  $x^{-1}x = e$ . If z is any element of G which satisfies xz = e then  $z = ez = (x^{-1}x)z = x^{-1}(xz) = x^{-1}e = x^{-1}$ . Similarly if w is any element of G which satisfies wx = e then  $w = x^{-1}$ . In particular we conclude that the inverse  $x^{-1}$  of x is uniquely determined. This ends the proof.

**Lemma 1.3** Let x and y be elements of a group G. Then  $(xy)^{-1} = y^{-1}x^{-1}$ 

From the axioms of a group  $(xy)(y^{-1}x^{-1}) = x(y(y^{-1}x^{-1})) = x((yy^{-1})x^{-1}) = x(ex^{-1}) = xx^{-1} = e$ . Similarly  $(y^{-1}x^{-1})(xy) = e$ , and thus  $y^{-1}x^{-1}$  is the inverse of  $xx^{-1}$  as required.

**NOTE** In particular that  $(x^{-1})^{-1} = x$  for all elements x of a group G, since x has the properties that characterize the inverse of the inverse  $x^{-1}$  of x.

Give an element x of a group G, we define  $x^n$  for each positive integer n by the requirement that  $x^1 = x$ . Also, we define  $x^0 = e$  where e is the identity element of the group, and we define  $x^{-n}$  to be the inverse of  $x^n$  for all positive integers n.

**Theorem 1.1** Let x be an element of a group G. then  $x^{m+n} = x^m + x^n$  and  $x^{mn} = (x^m)^n$  for all integers m and n

### Proof

The identity  $x^{m+n} = x^m + x^n$  clearly holds when m = 0 and when n = 0. The identity  $x^{m+n} = x^m + x^n$  can be shown for all positive integers m and n by induction on n. The identity when both m and n are negative then follows from the identity  $x^{-m-n} = x^{-m}x^{-n}$  on taking inverses. The result when m and n have opposite signs can easily deduced from that where m and n both have the same sign.

The identity  $x^{mn} = (x^m)^n$  follows immediately from the definitions when n = 0, 1 or -1. The result when n is positive can be proved by induction on n. The result when n is negative can then be obtained on taking inverses.

# 1.2 Subgroups

**Definition 1.2** Let G be a group and let H be a subset of G. We say that H is a subgroup G if the following conditions are satisfied:

- the identity element of G is an element of H;
- the product of any two elements of H is itself an element of H; the inverse of any element of H is itself an element of H.

A subgroup H of G is said to be proper if  $H \neq G$ 

**Lemma 1.4** Let x be an element of a group G. Then the set of all elements of G that are of the form  $x^n$  for some integer n is a subgroup of G.

#### Proof

Let  $H = \{x^n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ . The identity element belongs to H, since it is equal to  $x^0$ . The product of two elements of H is itself an element of H since  $x^m x^n = x^{m+n}$  for all integers m and n. Also the inverse of an element of H is itself an element of H since  $(x^n)^{-1} = x^{-n}$  for all integers n. Thus H is a subgroup of G as required.

**Definition 1.3** Let x be an element of a group G. The order of x is the smallest positive integer n for which  $x^n = e$ . The subgroup generated by x is the subgroup consisting of all elements of G that are of the form  $x^n$  for some integer n

**Lemma 1.5** Let H and K be subgroups of G. Then  $H \cap K$  is also a subgroup of G.

### Proof

The identity element of G belong to  $H \cap K$  since it belong to the two subgroups H and K. If x and y are elements of  $H \cap K$  then xy is an element of H, and xy is an element of K, and therefore xy is an element of  $H \cap K$ . Also the inverse  $x^{-1}$  of an element x of  $H \cap K$  belongs to H and to K and thus belong to  $H \cap K$ .

**NOTE** that generally the intersection of any collection of subgroups of a given group is itself a subgroup of that group.

# 1.3 Cyclic Groups

**Definition 1.4** A group G is said to be cyclic with generator x, if every element of G is of the form  $x^n$  for some integer n.

### 1.3.1 Examples of Cyclic groups

- 1. The group Z of integers under addition is a cyclic group generated by 1.
- 2. Let n be a positive integer. The set  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  of congruence classes of integers modulo n is a cyclic group of order n with respect to the operation of addition.
- 3. The group of all rotations of the plane about the origin through an integer multiple of  $2\pi/n$  radians is a cyclic group of order *n*. This group is generated by an anticlockwise rotation through an angle of  $2\pi/n$  radian.

### 1.4 Cosets and Lagranges Theorem

**Definition 1.5** Let H be a subgroup of a group G. A left coset of H in G is a subset of G that is of the form xH, where  $x \in G$  and

$$xH = \{y \in G : y = xh \text{ for some } h \in H\}$$

Similarly, a right coset of H in G is a subset of G that is of the form Hx, where  $x \in G$  and

 $Hx = \{y \in G : y = hx \text{ for some } h \in H\}.$ 

**NOTE** that a subgroup H of a group G is itself a left coset of H in G.

**Lemma 1.6** Let H be a subgroup of a group G. Then the left coset of H in G have the following properties:

- 1.  $x \in xH$  for all  $x \in B$
- 2. If x and y are elements of G, and if y = xa for some  $a \in H$ , then xH = yH
- 3. If x and y are elements of G, and if  $xH \cap yH$  is non-empty then xH = yH.

#### Proof

Let  $x \in G$ . Then x = xe, where e is the identity element of G. But  $e \in H$ . It follows that  $x \in xH$  hence 1 is proved.

Let x and y be elements of G where y = xa for some  $a \in H$ . Then yh = x(ah) and  $xh = y(a^{-1}h)$  for all  $h \in H$ . Moreover,  $ah \in H$  and  $a^{-1} \in H$  for all  $h \in H$ , since H is a subgroup of G. It follows that  $yH \subset xH$  and  $xH \subset yH$  and 2 is proved.

Finally, suppose that  $xH \cap yH$  is non-empty for some elements x and y of G. Let z be an element of  $xH \cap yH$ . Then z = xa for some  $a \in H$ , and z = yb for some  $b \in H$ . It follows from 2 that zH = xH and zH = yH. Therefore xH = yH. This proves 3.

**Lemma 1.7** Let H be a finite subgroup of a group G. Then each left coset of H in G has the same number of elements as H.

#### Proof

To be provided during Lecture

**Theorem 1.2** (Lagrange's theorem) Let G be a finite group, and let H be a subgroup of G. Then the order of H divides the order of G.

### Proof

Each element of G belongs to at least one left coset of H in G and no element of can belong to two distinct left cosets of H in G (see Lemma 2.6). Therefore every element of G belongs to exactly one left coset of H. Moreover, each left coset of H contains |H| elements (Lemma 2.7). Therefore, |G| = n|H| where n is the number of left cosets of H in G. Hence the result follows.

**Definition 1.6** Let H be a subgroup of a group G. If the number of left cosets of h in G is finite then the number of such cosets is referred to as the index of H in G, denoted by [H : G].

The proof of Lagrange's Theorem shows that the index [G:H] of a subgroup H of a finite group G given by [G:H] = |G|/|H|.

**Corollary 1.1** Let x be an element of a finite group G. Then the order of x divides the order of G.

#### Proof

To be provided during Lecture  $\blacksquare$ 

Corollary 1.2 Any finite group of prime order is cyclic.

#### Proof

To be provided during Lecture

### 1.5 Normal subgroups and quotient groups

Let A and B be subsets of a group G. The product AB of the sets A and B is defined by

$$AB = \{xy : x \in A \text{ and } y \in B\}$$

We denote  $\{x\}A$  and  $A\{x\}$  for all  $x \in G$  and subsets  $A \subseteq G$ . The Associative Law for multiplication of elements of G ensures that (AB)C = A(BC) for all subsets A, B and C of G. We can therefore use the notation ABC to denote (AB)C and A(BC); and we can use analogous notation to denote the product of four or more subsets of G.

If A, B and C are subsets of a group G, and if  $A \subset B$  then clearly  $AC \subset BC$  and  $CA \subset CB$ .

Note that if H is a subgroup of the group G and if x is an elements of G then xH is the left coset of H in G that contains the element x. Similarly Hx is the right coset of H in G that contains the element x.

If H is a subgroup of G then HH = H. Indeed,  $HH \subset H$ , since the product of two elements of a subgroup H is itself an element of H. Also,  $H \subset HH$  since h = eh for any element  $h \in H$ , where e, the identity element of G belongs to H.

**Definition 1.7** A subgroup N of a group G is said to be a normal subgroup if G if  $xnx^{-1} \in N$  for all  $n \in N$  and  $x \in G$ .

The notation ' $N \triangleleft G$ ' signifies 'N is a normal subgroup of G'.

**Definition 1.8** A non-trivial group G is said to be simple if the only normal subgroups of G are the whole of G and the trivial subgroup  $\{e\}$  whose only element is the identity element of e of G.

Lemma 1.8 Every subgroup of an Abelian group is a nornmal subgroup

#### Proof

To be provided during Lecture

#### EXAMPLE

Let  $S_3$  be the group of permutations of the set  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  and let H be the subgroup of  $S_3$  consisting of the identity permutation and the transposition (12). Then H is not normal in G since  $(23)^{-1}(12)(23) = (23)(12)(23) = (13)$  and (13) does not belong to the subgroup H.

**Proposition 1.1** A subgroup N of a normal subgroup of  $G_{\delta}$  Let x be an element of G. Then  $xNx^{-1} = N$  for all element  $x \in G$ 

#### Proof

To be provided during Lecture

**Corollary 1.3** A sugroup N of a group G is a normal subgroup of G if and only if xN = Nx for all element x of G.

#### Proof

To be provided during Lecture

**Lemma 1.9** Let N be a normal subgroup of a group G and let x and y be elements of G. Then (xN)(yN) = (xy)N

#### Proof

To be provided during Lecture■

**Proposition 1.2** Let G be a group, and let N be a normal subgroup of G. Then the set of all cosets of N in G is group under the operation of multiplication. The identity element of this group is N itself, and the inverse of a coset xN is the coset  $x^{-1}N$  for any element  $x \in G$ .

#### Proof

To be provided during Lecture

**Definition 1.9** Let N be a normal subgroup of a group G. The quotient group G/N is defined to be the group of cosets of N in G under the operation of multiplication.

#### Proof

To be provided during Lecture

### EXAMPLE

Consider the dihedral group  $D_8$  of order 8, which we represent as the group of symmetries of a square in the plane with corners at the points whose Cartesian co-ordinates are (1, 1), (-1, 1), (-1, -1) and (1, -1). Then

$$D_8 = \{ \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{R}, \mathbf{R^2}, \mathbf{R^3}, \mathbf{T_1}, \mathbf{T_2}, \mathbf{T_3}, \mathbf{T_4} \}$$

where **I** denotes the identity transformation, **R** denotes an anticlockwise rotation about the origin through a right angle, and  $\mathbf{T_1}, \mathbf{T_2}, \mathbf{T_3}$  and  $T_4$  denote the reflections in the lines y = 0, x = y, x = 0 and x = -yrespectively. let  $N = {\mathbf{I}, \mathbf{R}^2}$ . Then N is a subgroup of  $D_8$ . The left cosets of N in  $D_8$  are N, A, B and C, where  $A = {\mathbf{R}, \mathbf{R}^3}$ ,  $B = {\mathbf{T_1}, \mathbf{T_3}}$ ,  $C = {\mathbf{T_2}, \mathbf{T_4}}$ . Moreover, N, A, B and C are also the right cosets of N in  $D_8$ . On multiplying the cosets A, B and C with one another we find that AB = BA = C, CA = AC = Band BC = CB = A. The quotient group  $D_8/N$  consists of the set  ${N, A, B, C}$  with the group operation just described.

### 1.6 Homomorphisms

**Definition 1.10** A homomorphism  $\theta : G \longrightarrow K$  from a group G to a group K is a function with property that  $\theta(g_1 \star g_2) = \theta(g_1) \star \theta(g_2)$  for all  $g_1, g_2 \in G$ , where  $\star$  denotes the group operation on G and on K

#### EXAMPLE

Let q be an integer. The function from the group Z of integers to itself that sends integer n to qn is a homomorphism.

#### EXAMPLE

Let x be an element of a group G. The function that sends each integer n to the identity element  $x^n$  is a homomorphism from the group  $\mathbb{Z}$  of integers to G, since  $x^{m+n} = x^m x^n$  for all integers m and n.

**Lemma 1.10** Let  $\theta: G \longrightarrow K$  be a homomorphism. Then  $\theta(e_G) = e_K$ , where  $e_G$  and  $e_K$  denote the identity elements of the groups G and K. Also  $\theta(x^{-1}) = \theta(x)^{-1}$  for all elements x of G.

#### Proof

To be provided during Lecture■

**Definition 1.11** An isomorphism  $\theta : G \longrightarrow K$  between group G and K is a homomorphism that is also a bijective mapping G onto K. Two groups G and K are said to be isomorphic if there exists an isomorphism mapping G onto K.

### EXAMPLE

Let  $D_6$  be the group of symmetries of an equilateral triangle in the plane with vertices X, Y and Z and let  $S_3$  be the group of permutations of the set  $\{X, Y, Z\}$ . The function which sends a symmetry of the triangle to the corresponding permutation of its vertices is an isomorphism between the dihedral group  $D_6$  of order 6 and the symmetric group  $S_3$ 

### EXAMPLE

Let  $\mathbf{R}$  be the group of real numbers with the operation of addition and let  $\mathbf{R}^+$  be the group of strictly positive real numbers with the operation of multiplication. The function  $exp: \mathbf{R} \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}^+$  that sends each real number x to the positive real number  $e^x$  is an isomorphism: it is both homomorphism of groups and a bijection. The inverse of this isomorphism is the function  $log: \mathbf{R}^+ \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}$  that sends each strictly positive real number to its natural logarithm

**Definition 1.12** The following are some terminologies regarding homomorphism:

- A monomorphism is an injective homomorphism.
- An epimorphism is a surjective homomorphism.
- An endomorphism is a homomorphism mapping a group into itself.
- An automorphism is an isomorphism mapping a group onto itself.

**Definition 1.13** The kernel Ker $\theta$  of the homomorphism  $\theta : G \longrightarrow K$  is the set of all elements of G that are mapped by  $\theta$  onto the identity element of K.

#### EXAMPLE

Let the group operation on the set  $\{+1, -1\}$  be multiplication, and let  $\theta : \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \{+1, -1\}$  be the homomorphism that sends each integer n to  $(-1)^n$ . Then the kernel of the homomorphism  $\theta$  is the subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}$  consisting of all even numbers.

**Lemma 1.11** Let G and K be groups, and let  $\theta : G \longrightarrow K$  be a homomorphism from G to K. Then the kernel ker $\theta$  of  $\theta$  is a normal subgroup of G.

#### Proof

To be provided during Lecture■

#### NOTE

If N is a normal subgroup of some group G then N is the kernel of the quotient homomorphism  $\theta: G \longrightarrow G/N$  that sends  $g \in G$  to the coset gN. It follows therefore that a subset of a group G is a normal subgroup of G if and only it it is the kernel of some homomorphism.

**Proposition 1.3** Let G and K be groups, let  $\theta : G \longrightarrow K$  be a homomorphism from G to K, and let N be a normal subgroup of G. Suppose that  $N \subset \ker \theta$ . Then the homomorphism  $\theta : G \longrightarrow K$  induces a homomorphism  $\theta : G/N \longrightarrow K$  sending  $gN \in G/N$  to  $\theta(g)$ . Moreover

### Proof

To be provided during Lecture■

**Corollary 1.4** Let G and K be groups, and let  $\theta : G \longrightarrow K$  be a homomorphism. Then  $\theta(G) \cong G/\ker\theta$ .

#### Proof

To be provided during Lecture

### 1.7 The Isomorphism Theorems

**Lemma 1.12** Let G be a group, let H a subgroup of G, and let N be a normal subgroup of G. Then the set HN is a subgroup of G, where  $HN = \{hn : handn \in N\}$ .

### Proof

To be provided during Lecture■

**Theorem 1.3** (First Isomorphism Theorem) Let G be a group, and let H be a subgroup of G, and let N be a normal subgroup of G. Then

$$\frac{HN}{N} \cong \frac{H}{N \cap H}$$

Proof

To be provided during Lecture∎

**Theorem 1.4** (Second Isomorphism Theorem) Let M and N be normal subgroups of a group G, where  $M \subset N$ . Then

$$\frac{G}{N}\cong \frac{G/M}{N/M}$$

#### Proof

To be provided during Lecture■

# 1.8 Group Actions, Orbits and Stabilizers

**Definition 1.14** A left action of a group G on a set X associates to each  $g \in G$  and  $x \in X$  an element  $g \cdot x$  of X in such a way that  $g \cdot (h \cdot x) = (gh) \cdot x$  and  $1 \cdot x = x$  for all  $g \cdot h \in G$  and  $x \in X$ , and 1 denotes the identity element of G

Given a left action of a group G on a set X, the orbit of an element x of X is the subset  $\{g \cdot x : a \in G\}$  of X and the stabilizer of x is the subgroup  $\{g \in G : g \cdot x = x\}$  of G

**Lemma 1.13** Let G be a finite group which acts on a set X on the left. Then the orbit of an element x of X contains [G:H] elements, where [G:H] is the index of stabilizer H of x in G.

#### Proof

To be provided during Lecture∎

# 1.9 Conjugacy

**Definition 1.15** Two elements h and k of a group G are said to be conjugate if  $k = hhg^{-1}$  for some  $g \in G$ 

#### NOTE

• It can readily be verified that the relation of conjugacy is reflexive, symmetric and transitive and therefore an equivalence relation on a group G.

- The equivalence classes determined by this relation are referred to as the conjugacy classes of G.
- A group is a disjoint union of its conjugacy classes. The conjugacy class of the identity element contains no other element of G.
- A group G is Abelian if and only if all its conjugacy classes contain exactly one element of the group G.

**Definition 1.16** Let G be a group. The centralizer Z(h) of an element h of G is the subgroup of G defined by  $Z(h) = \{g \in G : gh = hg\}.$ 

**Lemma 1.14** Let G be a finite group and let  $h \in G$ . Then the number of elements in the conjugacy class of h is equal to the index [G : Z(h)] of the centralizer Z(h) of h in G.

#### Proof

There is a well-defined function  $f : G/Z(h) \longrightarrow G$  defined on the set G/Z(h) of left cosets of Z(h) in G, which sends the coset gZ(h) to  $ghg^{-1}$  for all  $g \in G$ . This function is injective and its image is the conjugacy class of h. The result follows.

Let H be a subgroup of a group G. One can easily verify that  $gHg^{-1}$  is also a subgroup of G for all  $g \in G$ , where  $gHg^{-1} = \{ghg^{-1} : h \in H\}$ 

**Definition 1.17** Two subgroups H and k of group G are said to be conjugate if  $K = gHg^{-1}$  for some  $g \in G$ 

given any element  $h \in H$  there exist uniquely determined integers such that  $h = m_1b_1 + m_2b_2 + \ldots + m_rb_r$ given a

The relation of conjugacy is an equivalence relation on the collection of subgroups of a given group G.

### 1.10 Finitely Generated Abelian groups

Let H be a subgroup of additive group  $\mathbb{Z}^n$  consisting of all n-tuples of integers with the operation vector addition. A list  $b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_r$  of elements of  $\mathbb{Z}^n$  is said constitute an integral basis (or  $\mathbb{Z}$ -basis) of H if the following conditions are satisfied:

- the element  $m_1b_1 + m_2b_2 + \ldots + m_rb_r$  belongs to H for all integers  $m_1, m_2, \ldots, m_r$
- given any element  $h \in H$ , there exist uniquely determined integers  $m_1, m_2, \ldots, m_r$  such that  $h = m_1 b_1 + m_2 b_2 + \ldots + m_r b_r$

Note that the elements  $b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n$  of  $\mathbb{Z}^n$  constitute an integral basis of  $\mathbb{Z}^n$  if and only if every elements  $\mathbb{Z}^n$  is uniquely expressible as a linear combination of  $b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n$  with integer coefficients. It follows from basic linear algebra that the rows of an  $n \times n$  matrix of integers constitute an integral basis of  $\mathbb{Z}^n$  if and only if the determinant of that matrix is  $\pm 1$ .

**Theorem 1.5** Let H be a non-trivial subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}^n$ . Then there exists an integral basis  $b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n$  of  $\mathbb{Z}^n$ , a positive integer s where  $s \leq n$  and positive integers  $k_1, k_2, \ldots, k_s$  for which  $k_1b_1, k_2b_2, \ldots, k_sb_s$  is an integral basis of H.

### Proof

To be given during lecture.  $\blacksquare$