# 24 Nilpotent groups

**24.1.** Recall that if G is a group then

$$Z(G) = \{a \in G \mid ab = ba \text{ for all } b \in G\}$$

Note that  $Z(G) \lhd G$ . Take the canonical epimorphism  $\pi \colon G \to G/Z(G)$ . Since  $Z(G/Z(G)) \lhd G/Z(G)$  we have:

$$\pi^{-1}\left(Z\left(G/Z(G)\right)\right)\lhd G$$

Define:

$$\begin{split} Z_1(G) := & Z(G) \\ Z_i(G) := & \pi_i^{-1} \left( Z\left( G/Z_{i-1}(G) \right) \right) \qquad \text{for } i > 1 \end{split}$$

where  $\pi_i \colon G \to G/Z_{i-1}(G)$ . We have  $Z_i(G) \lhd G$  for all i.

**24.2 Definition.** The *upper central series* of a group G is a sequence of normal subgroups of G:

$$\{e\} = Z_0(G) \subseteq Z_1(G) \subseteq Z_2(G) \subseteq \dots$$

**24.3 Definition.** A group G is *nilpotent* if  $Z_i(G) = G$  for some i.

If G is a nilpotent group then the *nilpotency class* of G is the smallest  $n \geq 0$  such that  $Z_n(G) = G$ .

**24.4 Proposition.** Every nilpotent group is solvable.

*Proof.* If G is nilpotent group then the upper central series of G

$$\{e\} = Z_0(G) \subseteq Z_1(G) \subseteq \ldots \subseteq Z_n(G) = G$$

is a normal series.

Moreover, for every i we have

$$Z_i(G)/Z_{i-1}(G) = Z(G/Z_{i-1}(G))$$

so all quotients of the upper central series are abelian.

**24.5 Note.** Not every solvable group is nilpotent. Take e.g.  $G_T$ . We have  $Z(G_T) = \{I\}$ , and so

$$Z_i(G_T) = \{I\}$$

for all i. Thus  $G_T$  is not nilpotent. On the other hand  $G_T$  is solvable with a composition series

$$\{I\} \subseteq \{I, R_1, R_2\} \subseteq G_T$$

#### 24.6 Proposition.

- 1) Every abelian group is nilpotent.
- 2) Every finite p-group is nilpotent.

Proof.

- 1) If G is abelian then  $Z_1(G) = G$ .
- 2) If G is a p-group then so is  $G/Z_i(G)$  for every i. By Theorem 16.4 if  $G/Z_i(G)$  is non-trivial then its center  $Z(G/Z_i(G))$  a non-trivial group. This means that if  $Z_i(G) \neq G$  then  $Z_i(G) \subseteq Z_{i+1}(G)$  and  $Z_i(G) \neq Z_{i+1}(G)$ . Since G is finite we must have  $Z_n(G) = G$  for some G.
- **24.7 Definition.** A *central series* of a group G is a normal series

$$\{e\} = G_0 \subseteq \ldots \subseteq G_k = G$$

such  $G_i \triangleleft G$  and  $G_{i+1}/G_i \subseteq Z(G/G_i)$  for all i.

**24.8 Proposition.** If  $\{e\} = G_0 \subseteq \ldots \subseteq G_k = G$  is a central series of G then  $G_i \subseteq Z_i(G)$ 

*Proof.* Exercise. □

**24.9 Corollary.** A group G is nilpotent iff it has a central series.

*Proof.* If *G* is nilpotent then

$$\{e\} = Z_0(G) \subseteq Z_1(G) \subseteq \ldots \subseteq Z_n(G) = G$$

is a central series of G.

Conversely, if

$$\{e\} = G_0 \subseteq \ldots \subseteq G_k = G$$

is a central series of G then by (24.9) we have  $G=G_k\subseteq Z_k(G)$ , so  $G=Z_k(G)$ , and so G is nilpotent.  $\Box$ 

**24.10 Note.** Given a group G define

$$\begin{split} &\Gamma_0(G) := &G \\ &\Gamma_i(G) := &[G,\Gamma_{i-1}(G)] \quad \text{ for } i > 0. \end{split}$$

We have

$$\ldots \subseteq \Gamma_1(G) \subseteq \Gamma_0(G) = G$$

### **24.11 Proposition.** If G is a group then

1) 
$$\Gamma_i(G) \triangleleft G$$
 for all  $i$ 

| 2) $\Gamma_{i+1}(G)/\Gamma_i(G) \subseteq Z(G/\Gamma_i(G))$ for all $i$   |
|---|
| Proof. Exercise.  |
| <b>24.12 Definition.</b> If $\Gamma_n(G)=\{e\}$ then  |
| $\{e\} = \Gamma_n(G) \subseteq \ldots \subseteq \Gamma_0(G) = G$  |
| is a central series of $G$ . It is called the <i>lower central series</i> of $G$ .  |
|   |
| <b>24.13 Proposition.</b> A group $G$ is nilpotent iff $\Gamma_n(G) = \{e\}$  |
| Proof. Exercise.  |
|   |
| 24.14 Theorem.  |
| 1) Every subgroup of a nilpotent group is nilpotent.  |
| 2) Ever quotient group of a nilpotent group is nilpotent.   |
| 3) If $H \lhd G$ , and both $H$ and $G/H$ are nilpotent groups then $G$ is also nilpotent.  |
| <i>Proof.</i> Similar to the proof of Theorem 23.6.   |
| <b>24.15 Corollary.</b> If $G_1, \ldots, G_k$ are nilpotent groups then the direct produc $G_1 \times \cdots \times G_k$ is also nilpotent. |
| <i>Proof.</i> Follows from part 3) of Theorem 24.14.  |

**24.16 Corollary.** If  $p_1, \ldots, p_k$  are primes and  $P_i$  is a  $p_i$ -group then  $P_1 \times \ldots \times P_k$  is a nilpotent group.

*Proof.* Follows from (24.6) and (24.15).

- **24.17 Theorem.** Let G be a finite group. The following conditions are equivalent.
  - 1) G is nilpotent.
  - 2) Every Sylow subgroup of G is a normal subgroup.
  - *G* isomorphic to the direct product of its Sylow subgroups.
- **24.18 Lemma.** If G is a finite group and P is a Sylow p-subgroup of G then

$$N_G(N_G(P)) = N_G(P)$$

*Proof.* Since  $P \subseteq N_G(P) \subseteq G$  and P is a Sylow p-subgroup of G therefore P is a Sylow p-subgroup of  $N_G(P)$ . Moreover,  $P \lhd N_G(P)$ , so P is the only Sylow p-subgroup of G.

Take  $a \in N_G(N_G(P))$ . We will show that  $a \in N_G(P)$ . We have

$$aPa^{-1} \subseteq aN_G(P)a^{-1} = N_G(P)$$

As a consequence  $aPa^{-1}$  is a Sylow p-subgroup of  $N_G(P)$ , and thus  $aPa^{-1}=P$ . By the definitions of normalizer this gives  $a \in N_G(P)$ .

**24.19 Lemma.** If H is a proper subgroup of a nilpotent group G (i.e.  $H \subseteq G$ , and  $H \neq G$ ), then H is a proper subgroup of  $N_G(H)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $k \geq 0$  be the biggest integer such that  $Z_k(G) \subseteq H$ . Take  $a \in Z_{k+1}(G)$  such that  $a \notin H$ . We will show that  $a \in N_G(H)$ .

We have

$$H/Z_k(G) \subseteq G/Z_k(G)$$
 and  $Z_{k+1}(G)/Z_k(G) = Z(G/Z_k(G))$ 

If follows that for every  $h \in H$  we have

$$ahZ_k(G) = (aZ_k(G))(hZ_k(G)) = (hZ_k(G))(aZ_k(G)) = haZ_k(G)$$

Therefore ha=ahh' for some  $h'\in Z_k(G)\subseteq H$ , and so  $a^{-1}ha=hh'\in H$ . As a consequence  $a^{-1}Ha=H$ , so  $a^{-1}\in N_G(H)$ , and so also  $a\in N_G(H)$ .

Proof of Theorem 24.17.

1)  $\Rightarrow$  2) Let P be a Sylow p-subgroup of G. It suffices to show that  $N_G(P) = G$ .

Assume that this is not true. Then  $N_G(P)$  is a proper subgroup G, and so by Lemma 24.19 it is also a proper subgroup of  $N_G(N_G(P))$ . On the other hand by Lemma 24.18 we have  $N_G(N_G(P)) = N_G(P)$ , so we obtain a contradiction.

- 2)  $\Rightarrow$  3) Exercise.
- 3)  $\Rightarrow$  1) Follows from Corollary 24.16.

# 25 Rings

- **25.1 Definition.** A *ring* is a set R together with two binary operations: addition (+) and multiplication  $(\cdot)$  satisfying the following conditions:
  - 1) R with addition is an abelian group.
  - 2) multiplication is associative: (ab)c = a(bc)
  - 3) addition is distributive with respect to multiplication:

$$a(b+c) = ab + ac (a+b)c = ac + bc$$

The ring R is commutative if ab = ba for all  $a, b \in R$ .

The ring R is a ring with identity if there is and element  $1 \in R$  such that a1 = 1a = a for all  $a \in R$ . (Note: if such identity element exists then it is unique)

### 25.2 Examples.

- 1)  $\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{C}$  are commutative rings with identity.
- 2)  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  is a ring with multiplication given by

$$k(n\mathbb{Z}) \cdot l(n\mathbb{Z}) := kl(n\mathbb{Z})$$

3) If R is a ring then

$$R[x] = \{a_0 + a_1 x + \ldots + a_n x^n \mid a_i \in R, \ n \ge 0\}$$

is the ring of polynomials with coefficients in  ${\cal R}$  and

$$R[[x]] = \{a_0 + a_1 x + \dots \mid a_i \in R\}$$

is the ring of formal power series with coefficients in  ${\cal R}.$ 

If R is a commutative ring then so are R[x], R[[x]]. If R has identity then R[x], R[[x]] also have identity.

- 4) If R is a ring then  $M_n(R)$  is the ring of  $n \times n$  matrices with coefficients in R.
- 5) The set  $2\mathbb{Z}$  of even integers with the usual addition and multiplication is a commutative ring without identity.
- 6) If G is an abelian group then the set  $\mathrm{Hom}(G.G)$  of all homomorphisms  $f\colon G\to G$  is a ring with multiplication given by composition of homomorphisms and addition defined by

$$(f+g)(a) := f(a) + g(a)$$

7) If R is a ring and G is a group then define

$$R[G] := \{ \sum_{g \in G} a_g g \mid a_g \in R, \ a_g \neq 0 \text{ for finitely many } g \text{ only } \}$$

addition in R[G]:

$$\sum_{g \in G} a_g g + \sum_{g \in G} b_g g = \sum_{g \in G} (a_g + b_g) g$$

multiplication in R[G]:

$$\left(\sum_{g \in G} a_g g\right) \left(\sum_{g \in G} b_g G\right) = \sum_{g \in G} \left(\sum_{hh' = g} a_h a_{h'}\right) g$$

The ring R[G] is called the *group ring* of G with coefficients in R.

**25.3 Definition.** Let R be a ring. An element  $0 \neq a \in R$  is a *left (resp. right)* zero divisor in R if there exists  $0 \neq b \in R$  such that ab = 0 (resp. ba = 0).

An element  $0 \neq a \in R$  is a zero divisor if it is both left and right zero divisor.

**25.4 Example.** In  $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$  we have  $2 \cdot 3 = 0$ , so 2 and 3 are zero divisors.

**25.5 Definition.** An *integral domain* is a commutative ring with identity  $1 \neq 0$  that has no zero divisors.

**25.6 Proposition.** Let R be an integral domain. If  $a,b,c\in R$  are non-zero elements such that

$$ac = bc$$

then a = b.

*Proof.* We have (a-b)c=0. Since  $c\neq 0$  and R has no zero divisors this gives a-b=0, and so a=b.

**25.7 Definition.** Let R be a ring with identity. An element a has a *left (resp. right) inverse* if there exists  $b \in R$  such that ba = 1 (resp. there exists  $c \in R$  such that cb = 1).

An element  $a \in R$  is a *unit* if it has both a left and a right inverse.

**25.8 Proposition.** If a is a unit of R then the left inverse and the right inverse of a coincide.

*Proof.* If ba = 1 = ac then

$$b = b \cdot 1 = b(ac) = (ba)c = 1 \cdot c = c$$

**25.9 Note.** The set of all units of a ring R forms a group  $R^*$  (with multiplication). E.g.:

$$\mathbb{Z}^* = \{-1, 1\} \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$$
  
 $\mathbb{R}^* = \mathbb{R} - \{0\}$   
 $(\mathbb{Z}/14\mathbb{Z})^* = \{1, 3, 5, 9, 11, 13\} \cong \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ 

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**25.10 Definition.** A *division ring* is a ring R with identity  $1 \neq 0$  such that every non-zero element of R is a unit.

A field is a commutative division ring.

### 25.11 Examples.

- 1)  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{C}$  are fields.
- 2)  $\mathbb{Z}$  is an integral domain but it is not a field.
- 3) The ring of real quaternions is defined by

$$\mathbb{H} := \{a + bi + cj + dk \mid a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}\}\$$

Addition in  $\mathbb{H}$  is coordinatewise. Multiplication is defined by the identities:

$$i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1, \quad ij = -ji = k, \quad jk = -kj = i, \quad ki = -ik = j$$

The ring  $\mathbb H$  is a (non-commutative) division ring with the identity

$$1 = 0 + 0i + 0j + 0k$$

The inverse of an element z=a+bi+cj+dk is given by

$$z^{-1} = (a/\|z\|) - (b/\|z\|)i - (c/\|z\|)j - (d/\|z\|)k$$

where  $||z|| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2}$ 

**25.12 Proposition.** The following conditions are equivalent.

- 1)  $Z/n\mathbb{Z}$  is a field.
- 2)  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  is an integral domain.
- 3) n is a prime number.

Proof. Exercise.

# 26 Ring homomorphisms and ideals

**26.1 Definition.** Let R, S be rings. A ring homomorphism is a map

$$f \colon R \to S$$

such that

- 1) f(a+b) = f(a) + f(b)
- 2) f(ab) = f(a)f(b)

**26.2 Note.** If R, S are rings with identity then these conditions do not guarantee that  $f(1_R) = 1_S$ .

Take e.g. rings with identity  $R_1, R_2$  and define

$$R_1 \oplus R_2 = \{(r_1, r_2) \mid r_1 \in R_1, R_2\}$$

with addition and multiplication defined coordinatewise. Then  $R_1 \oplus R_2$  is a ring with identity  $(1_{R_1}, 1_{R_2})$ . The map

$$f: R_1 \to R_1 \oplus R_2, \quad f(r_1) = (r_1, 0)$$

is a ring homomorphism, but  $f(1_{R_1}) \neq (1_{R_1}, 1_{R_2})$ .

**26.3 Note.** Rings and ring homomorphisms form a category  $\Re ing$ .

**26.4 Proposition.** A ring homomorphism  $f: R \to S$  is an isomorphism of rings iff f is a bijection.

*Proof.* Exercise.

**26.5 Definition.** If  $f: R \to S$  is a ring homomorphism then

$$Ker(f) = \{ a \in R \mid f(a) = 0 \}$$

**26.6 Proposition.** A ring homomorphism is 1-1 iff  $Ker(f) = \{0\}$ 

*Proof.* The same as for groups (4.4).

**26.7 Definition.** A *subring* of a ring R is a subset  $S \subseteq R$  such that S is an additive subgroup of R and it is closed under the multiplication.

A *left ideal* of R is a subring  $I \subseteq R$  such that for every  $a \in I$  and  $b \in R$  we have  $ab \in I$ . A *right ideal* of R is defined analogously.

A *ideal* of R is a subring  $I \subseteq R$  such that I is both left and right ideal.

- **26.8 Notation.** If *I* is an ideal of *R* then we write  $I \triangleleft R$ .
- **26.9 Proposition.** If  $f: R \to S$  is a ring homomorphism then  $\mathrm{Ker}(f)$  is an ideal of R.

*Proof.* Exercise. □

**26.10 Definition.** If I is an ideal of a ring R then the *quotient ring* R/I is defined as follows.

R/I := the set of left cosets of I in R

Addition: (a+I)+(b+I)=(a+b)+I, multiplication: (a+I)(b+I)=ab+I.

**26.11 Note.** If  $I \triangleleft R$  then the map

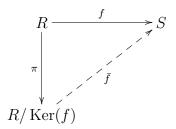
$$\pi \colon R \to R/I, \quad \pi(a) = a + I$$

is a ring homomorphism. It is called the *canonical epimorphism* of R onto R/I.

**26.12 Theorem.** If  $f \colon R \to S$  is a homomorphism of rings then there is a unique homomorphism

$$\bar{f} \colon R/\operatorname{Ker}(f) \to S$$

such that the following diagram commutes:



Moreover,  $\bar{f}$  is a monomorphism and  $\mathrm{Im}(\bar{f})=\mathrm{Im}(f).$ 

*Proof.* Similar to the proof of Theorem 6.1 for groups.

**26.13 First Isomorphism Theorem.** If  $f: R \to S$  is a homomorphism of rings that is an epimorphism then

$$R/\operatorname{Ker}(f) \cong S$$

*Proof.* Take the map  $\bar{f}: R/\operatorname{Ker}(f) \to S$ . Then  $\operatorname{Im}(\bar{f}) = \operatorname{Im}(f) = S$ , so  $\bar{f}$  is an epimorphism. Also,  $\bar{f}$  is 1-1. Therefore  $\bar{f}$  is a bijective homomorphism and thus it is an isomorphism.

**26.14 Note.** Let  $I, J \triangleleft R$ . Check:

| 1 | ) <i>I</i> | $\cap$ | J | $\triangleleft$ | R   |
|---|------------|--------|---|-----------------|-----|
| _ | , -        |        | 0 | 7               | - 0 |

2) 
$$I+J \triangleleft R$$
 where  $I+J=\{a+b \mid a \in I, b \in J\}$ 

## **26.15 Second Isomorphism Theorem.** If I,J are ideals of R then

$$I/(I \cap J) \cong (I+J)/J$$

*Proof.* Exercise. □

**26.16 Third Isomorphism Theorem.** If I,J are ideals of R and  $J\subseteq I$  then I/J is a ideal of R/J and

$$(R/J)/(I/J) \cong R/I$$

*Proof.* Exercise. □