# **IB Groups, Rings and Modules**

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# **§0** Introduction

This course will contain several sections:

- 1. Groups; this will be a continuation from IA, focusing on simple groups, p-groups, and p-subgroups. The main result in this part of the course will be the Sylow theorems.
- 2. Rings; these are sets where you can add, subtract and multiply (e.g  $\mathbb{Z}$  or  $\mathbb{C}[X]$ ). We will study rings of integers such as  $\mathbb{Z}[i], \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$ . These also generalise to polynomial rings. We will also study fields, which are rings where you can divide (e.g  $\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$  or  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  for p prime).
- 3. Modules; these are an analogue of vector spaces where the scalars belong to a ring instead of a field. We will classify modules over certain "nice" rings. This allows us to prove Jordan Normal Form, and classify finite abelian groups.

# §1 Groups

# §1.1 Recall of IA Groups

# **Definition 1.1** (Group)

A group is a pair  $(G, \cdot)$  where G is a set and  $\cdot : G \times G \to G$  is a binary operation satisfying:

- 1.  $a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$  (associativity)
- 2.  $\exists e \in G$  such that  $e \cdot g = g \cdot e = g$  for all  $g \in G$  (identity)
- 3.  $\forall g \in G, \exists g^{-1} \in G \text{ such that } g \cdot g^{-1} = g^{-1} \cdot g = e \text{ (inverses)}$

**Remark.** • In practice, one often needs to check closure in order to check that  $\cdot$  is well-defined.

- If using additive (respectively multiplicative) relations, we will often write 0 (or 1) for the identity.
- We write |G| for the number of elements in G.

# **Definition 1.2** (Subgroup)

A subset  $H \subseteq G$  is a subgroup (written  $H \subseteq G$ ) if H is closed under  $\cdot$  and  $(H, \cdot)$  is a group.

**Remark.** A non-empty subset H of G is a subgroup if  $a, b \in H \implies a \cdot b^{-1} \in H$  (see IA Groups for the proof).

#### **Example 1.3** (Examples of groups)

Groups we have already seen include:

- Additive groups  $(\mathbb{Z},+) \leq (\mathbb{Q},+) \leq (\mathbb{R},+)$ .
- Cyclic and dihedral groups  $C_n$  and  $D_{2n}$ .

- Abelian groups: those groups G such that  $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$  for all  $a, b \in G$ .
- Symmetric and alternating groups  $S_n$  = group of all permutations of  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$  and  $A_n \leq S_n$ , the group of all even permutations.
- Quaternion group  $Q_8 = \{\pm 1, \pm i, \pm j, \pm k\}$  where i, j, k are quaternions.
- General and special linear groups  $GL_n(\mathbb{R}) = n \times n$  matrices on  $\mathbb{R}$  with det  $\neq 0$ , where the group operation is matrix multiplication. This contains the subgroup  $SL_n(\mathbb{R}) \leq GL_n(\mathbb{R})$ , which is the subgroup of matrices with det = 1.

# **Definition 1.4** (Direct product)

The direct product of groups G and H is the set  $G \times H$  with operation

$$(g_1, h_1) \cdot (g_2, h_2) = (g_1g_2, h_1h_2).$$

# Theorem 1.5 (Lagrange's theorem)

Let  $H \leq G$ . Then the left cosets of H in G are the sets  $gH = \{gh : h \in H\}$  for  $g \in G$ . These partition G, and each has the same cardinality as H. From this we can deduce Lagrange's theorem:

If G is a finite group and  $H \leq G$ , then |G| = |H|[G:H] where [G:H] is the number of left cosets of H in G (the index of H in G).

**Remark.** Can also carry this out with right cosets. A corollary of Lagrange's theorem is thus that the number of left cosets = number of right cosets.

#### **Definition 1.6** (Order of an element)

Let  $g \in G$ . If  $\exists n \geq 1$  such that  $g^n = 1$ , then the least such n is the order of g in G. If no such n exists, g has infinite order.

**Remark.** If g has order d, then

- $g^n = 1 \implies d|n$ .
- $\{1, g, \dots, g^{d-1}\} \le G$  and so if G is finite, then d||G| (Lagrange).

#### **Definition 1.7** (Normal subgroup)

A subgroup  $H \leq G$  is normal if  $g^{-1}Hg = H$  for all  $g \in G$ . We write  $H \leq G$ .

## **Proposition 1.8**

If  $H \leq G$  then the set G/H of left cosets of H in G is a group (called the quotient group) with operation

$$g_1H \cdot g_2H = g_1g_2H.$$

*Proof.* Check  $\cdot$  is well-defined:

Suppose  $g_1H = g_1'H$  and  $g_2H = g_2'H$  for some  $g_1, g_1', g_2, g_2' \in G$ . Then  $g_1' = g_1h_1$  and  $g_2' = g_2h_2$  for some  $h_1, h_2 \in H$ . Therefore

$$g_1'g_2' = g_1h_1g_2h_2$$

$$= g_1g_2\underbrace{(g_2^{-1}h_1g_2)}_{\in H}\underbrace{h_2}_{\in H}$$

Therefore  $g_1'g_2'H = g_1g_2H$ . Associativity is inherited from G, the identity is H = eH, and the inverse of gH is  $g^{-1}H$ .

# **Definition 1.9** (Homomorphism)

If G, H are groups, then a function  $\phi : G \to H$  is a group homomorphism if  $\phi(g_1g_2) = \phi(g_1g_2) = \phi(g_1)\phi(g_2)$ . It has kernel

$$\ker \phi = \{g \in G : \ \phi(g) = e\} \le G.$$

and image

$$\operatorname{Im} \phi = \{\phi(g): g \in G\} \le H.$$

**Remark.** If  $a \in \ker \phi$  and  $g \in G$ , then

$$\phi(g^{-1}ag) = \phi(g^{-1})\phi(a)\phi(g)$$
$$= \phi(g^{-1})\phi(g)$$
$$= \phi(g^{-1}g) = \phi(e) = e.$$

So  $g^{-1}ag \in \ker \phi$  and hence  $\ker \phi$  is a normal subgroup of G.

# **Definition 1.10** (Isomorphism)

An isomorphism of groups is a group homomorphism that is also a bijection. We say G and H are isomorphic and write  $G \cong H$  if there exists an isomorphism  $\phi: G \to H$ . (Note it follows from the definition that  $\phi^{-1}$  is also a group homomorphism)

# **Theorem 1.11** (First Isomorphism Theorem)

Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a group homomorphism. Then  $\ker \phi \unlhd G$  and

$$G/\ker\phi\cong\operatorname{Im}\phi.$$

*Proof.* Let  $K = \ker \phi$ . We have already checked K is normal. Now we define  $\Phi: G/K \to \operatorname{Im} \phi$  by

$$qK \to \phi(q)$$
..

To show  $\Phi$  is well defined and injective:

$$g_1K = g_2K \iff g_2^{-1}g_1 \in K$$
  
 $\iff \phi(g_2^{-1}g_1) = e$   
 $\iff \phi(g_1) = \phi(g_2).$ 

To show  $\Phi$  is a group hom.:

$$\Phi(g_1Kg_2K) = \Phi(g_1g_2K)$$

$$= \phi(g_1g_2) = \phi(g_1)\phi(g_2)$$

$$= \Phi(g_1K)\Phi(g_2K)$$

Showing  $\Phi$  is surjective:

Let  $x \in \text{Im } \phi$ , say  $x = \phi(g)$  for some  $g \in G$ . Then  $x = \phi(gR)$ .

# Example 1.12

Let  $\phi : \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}^x = \{x \in C : x \neq 0\}$  given by  $z \mapsto e^z$ .

Since  $e^{z+w} = e^z e^w$ , this is a group homomorphism from  $(\mathbb{C}, +) \to (\mathbb{C}^x, \times)$ . We have that

$$\ker \phi = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : e^x = 1\} = 2\pi i \mathbb{Z}$$
  
 $\operatorname{Im} \phi = \mathbb{C}^x \text{ by existence of log}$ 

Hence  $\mathbb{C}/2\pi i\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{C}^x$ .

# Theorem 1.13 (Second Isomorphism Theorem)

Let  $H \leq G$ , and  $K \leq G$ . Then  $HK = \{hk : h \in H, k \in K\} \leq G$  and  $H \cap K \leq H$ . Moreover,

$$HK/K \cong H/(H \cap K)$$
.

*Proof.* Let  $h_1k_1, h_2k_2 \in HK$  (so  $h_1h_2 \in H$ ,  $k_1k_2 \in K$ ). Now

$$h_1 k_1 (h_2 k_2)^{-1} = \underbrace{h_1 h_2^{-1}}_{\in H} (\underbrace{h_2 k_1 k_2^{-1} h_2^{-1}}_{\in K}) \in HK.$$

Thus  $HK \leq G$  (by our previous remark). Let  $\phi: H \to G/K$  be given by  $h \to hK$ . This is the composite of  $H \to G$  and the quotient map  $G \to G/K$ ; hence  $\phi$  is a group homomorphism. Thus

$$\ker \phi = \{ h \in H : hK = K \} = H \cap K \le H$$
$$\operatorname{Im} \phi = \{ hK : h \in H \} = HK/K$$

Now by the First Isomorphism Theorem

$$HK/K \cong H/(H \cap K)$$
.

**Remark** (1.2). Suppose  $K \subseteq G$ . There is a bijection

{subgroups of G/K}  $\leftrightarrow$  {subgroups of G containing K},

where  $X \mapsto \{g \in G : gK \in X\}$  and  $H/K \leftarrow H$ . This further restricts to a bijection {normal subgroups of G/K}  $\leftrightarrow$  {normal subgroups of G containing K},

## **Theorem 1.14** (Third Isomorphism Theorem)

Let  $K \leq H \leq G$  be normal subgroups of G. Then

$$\frac{G/K}{H/K} \cong G/H.$$

*Proof.* Let  $\phi: G/K \to G/K$  be defined by  $gK \mapsto gH$ . If  $g_1K = g_2K$ , then  $g_2^{-1}g_1 \in K \leq H \implies g_1H = g_2H$ . Thus  $\phi$  is well-defined.

Thus  $\phi$  is a surjective homomorphim with kernel H/K. Now just apply the First Isomorphism Theorem.

# §1.2 Simple groups

If  $K \subseteq G$ , then studying the groups K and G/K gives some information about G. However, this approach is not always available. This is the case when a group is simple.

# **Definition 1.15** (Simple group)

A group G is simple if  $\{e\}$  and G are its only normal subgroups.

**Remark.** It is convention to not consider the trivial group a simple group.

#### **Lemma 1.16**

Let G be an abelian group. G is simple iff  $G \cong C_p$  for some prime p.

*Proof.*  $\Leftarrow$ : Let  $H \leq C_p$ . Lagrange's theorem says that  $|H| ||C_p| = p$ . Since p is prime, |H| = 1 or p. So H is the trivial group or  $C_p$ .

 $\Longrightarrow$ : Let  $g \in G$  where  $g \neq e$ . Consider the subgroup generated by g:

$$\langle g \rangle = \{ \dots, g^{-2}, g^{-1}, e, g, g^2, \dots \}.$$

This is normal in G since G is abelian. Since G is simple,  $\langle g \rangle = G$ . If G is infinite,  $G \cong (\mathbb{Z}, +)$  and  $2\mathbb{Z} \leq \mathbb{Z}$  which gives a contradiction.

Otherwise, we now know  $G \cong C_n$  for some n. Let g be a generator. If m|n then  $g^{n/m}$  generates a subgroup of order m and so G simple  $\implies$  the only factors of n are 1 and n. Therefore n is prime.

#### **Lemma 1.17**

If G is a finite group, then G has a composition series

$$e = G_0 \unlhd G_1 \unlhd \ldots \unlhd G_m = G,$$

with each quotient  $G_i/G_{i-1}$  simple.

*Proof.* We induct on |G|. If |G| = 1 it's obvious. If |G| > 1, let  $G_{m-1}$  be a normal subgroup of largest possible order that isn't G itself. Remark 1.2 implies  $G/G_{m-1}$  is simple. Then apply the induction hypothesis to  $G_{m-1}$ .

# §1.3 Group actions

# **Definition 1.18** (Permutation group)

For X any set, let  $\mathrm{Sym}(X)$  be the group of all bijections  $X \to X$  under composition. This clearly forms a group with  $e = \mathrm{Id}_X$ .

A group G is a permutation group of degree n if  $G \leq \text{Sym}(X)$  with |X| = n.

**Example 1.19** (Examples of permutation group) •  $S_n = \operatorname{Sym}(\{1, 2, \dots, n\})$  is a permutation group of degree n, as is  $A_n \leq S_n$ .

•  $D_{2n} =$ (symmetries of a regular n-gon) is a subgroup of Sym({vertices of n-gon}).

## **Definition 1.20** (Group action)

An actio of a group G on a set X is a function  $*: G \times X \to X$  satisfying

- (i) e \* x = x for all  $x \in X$
- (ii)  $(g_1g_2) * x = g_1 * (g_2 * x)$  for all  $g_1, g_2 \in G$ ,  $x \in X$ .

#### **Proposition 1.21**

An action of a group G on a set X is equivalent to specifying a group homomorphism  $\phi: G \to \operatorname{Sym}(X)$ .

*Proof.* For each  $g \in G$ , let  $\phi_g : X \to X$  send  $x \mapsto g * x$ .

We have  $\phi_{q_1q_2}(x) = (g_1g_2) * x = g_1 * (g_2 * x) = \phi_{q_1} \circ \phi_{q_2}(x)$ . (†)

In particular,  $\phi_g \circ \phi_{g^{-1}} = \phi_{g^{-1}} \circ \phi_g = \phi_e = \mathrm{Id}_X$ . Thus  $\phi_g \in \mathrm{Sym}(X)$ . Then the map  $\phi: G \to \mathrm{Sym}(X)$  given by  $g \mapsto \phi_g$  is a group homomorphism by  $(\dagger)$ .

Conversely, let  $\phi: G \to \operatorname{Sym}(X)$  be a group homomorphism. Define  $*: G \times X \to X$  given by  $(g, x) \mapsto \phi(g)(x)$ . Then

- (i)  $e * x = \phi(e)(x) = \text{Id}_X(x) = x$ .
- (ii)  $(g_1g_2) * x = \phi(g_1g_2)(x) = \phi(g_1)(\phi(g_2)(x)) = g_1 * (g_2 * x).$

# **Definition 1.22**

We say  $\phi: G \to \operatorname{Sym}(X)$  is a permutation representation of G.

## **Definition 1.23** (Orbit and stabiliser)

Let G act on a set X.

- (i) The orbit of  $x \in X$  is  $\operatorname{orb}_G(x) = \{g * x : g \in G\} \subset X$
- (ii) The stabiliser of  $x \in X$  is

$$G_x = \{g \in G: g * x = x\} \le G.$$

Recall the Orbit-Stabiliser Theorem from IA Groups: There is a bijection  $\operatorname{orb}_G(x) \leftrightarrow$  the set of left cosets of  $G_x$  in G. In particular if G is finite, then

$$|G| = |\operatorname{orb}_G(x)||G_x|.$$

# Example 1.24 (Example of Orbit-Stabiliser)

Let G be the group of all symmetries of a cube, acting on the set of veretices X. We can reach any vertex from any other one, so  $|\operatorname{orb}_G(x)| = 8$ . Some basic geometry gives  $|G_x| = 6$ . Therefore |G| = 48.

**Remark.** •  $\ker \phi = \bigcap_{x \in X} G_x$  is called the kernel of the group action.

- $\bullet$  The orbits partition X. We say the action is transitive if there is only one orbit.
- $G_{g*x} = gG_xg^{-1}$ , so if  $x, y \in X$  belong to the same orbit, then their stabilisers are conjugate.

Later on a lot of the proofs will involve picking a nice group action. So let's look at some examples of group actions.

(i) Let G act on itself by left multiplication, i.e g\*x=gx. The kernel of this action is

$$\{g \in G : gx = x \quad \forall x \in G\} = e.$$

Thus G is injective into Sym(G). This proves Cayley's theorem:

#### **Theorem 1.25** (Cayley's theorem)

Any finite group G is isomorphic to a subgroup of the symmetric group  $S_n$  for some n. (Take n = |G|.)

(ii) Let  $H \leq G$ ; then G acts on G/H by left multiplication, i.e g \* xH = gxH. This action is transitive (since  $(x_2x_1^{-1})x_1H = x_2H$ ) with

$$G_{xH} = \{g \in G : gxH = xH\}$$
$$= \{g \in G : x^{-1}gx \in H\}$$
$$= xHx^{-1}$$

Thus  $\ker(\phi) = \bigcap_{x \in G} xHx^{-1}$ . This is the largest normal subgroup of G that is contained in H.

#### Theorem 1.26

Let G be a non-abelian simple group, and  $H \leq G$  a subgroup of index n > 1. Then  $n \geq 5$  and G is isomorphic to a subgroup of  $A_n$ .

Proof. Let G act on X = G/H by left multiplication, and let  $\phi : G \to \operatorname{Sym}(X)$  be the associated permutation representation. As G is simple,  $\ker(\phi) = e$  or G. If  $\ker(\phi) = G$ , then  $\operatorname{Im}(\phi) = e$ . This is a contradiction since G acts transitively on X and |X| > 1. Thus  $\ker(\phi) = e$  and  $G \cong \operatorname{Im}(\phi) \leq S_n$ . Since  $G \leq S_n$  and  $A_n \subseteq S_n$ , the second isomorphism theorem gives  $G \cap A_n \subseteq G$  and  $G/(G \cap A_n) \cong GA_n/A_n \leq S_n/A_n \cong C_2$ . Since G is simple,  $G \cap A_n = e$  (this is impossible as  $G \subseteq C_2$  but G isn't abelian) or G. Thus  $G \subseteq A_n$ . Finally, if  $G \subseteq A_n$  has no non-abelian simple subgroups.