

Cyclic Groups

Recall: G a group, $H \subseteq G$ a subset. Then H is a subgroup provided

① for all $h_1, h_2 \in H$, $h_1 h_2 \in H$

② for all $h \in H$, $h^{-1} \in H$.

Examples $(\mathbb{C}, +)$ $\mathbb{Z} \leq \mathbb{Q} \leq \mathbb{R} \leq \mathbb{C}$

(\mathbb{C}^*, \cdot) $\mathbb{R}_+ \leq \mathbb{R}^* \leq \mathbb{C}^*$

$\mathbb{C}^* = \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ $\mathbb{R}^* = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ $\mathbb{R}_+ = \{x > 0\} \subset \mathbb{R}$.

$GL(n, \mathbb{R}) = \{A \text{ } n \times n \text{ matrix with real entries} \mid \det A \neq 0\}$

$O(n) = \{A \in GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \mid A^T A = I\} \leq GL(n, \mathbb{R})$

Proposition Let G be a group and let $H_1 \leq G$, $H_2 \leq G$ be subgroups. Then $H_1 \cap H_2$ is a subgroup.

More generally, $\bigcap_{\alpha \in J} H_\alpha$ is a subgroup if

$\{H_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ is an indexed collection of subgroups ($H_\alpha \leq G$.)

Proof ① Suppose $h_1, h_2 \in \bigcap_{\alpha} H_\alpha$. Then $\forall \alpha$ $h_1 \in H_\alpha$ and $h_2 \in H_\alpha$ thus since H_α is a subgroup, $\forall \alpha$ $h_1, h_2 \in H_\alpha$, so $h_1 h_2 \in \bigcap_{\alpha} H_\alpha$

② Similar logic: $h \in \bigcap_{\alpha} H_\alpha \Rightarrow \forall \alpha h \in H_\alpha$

$$\Rightarrow \forall \alpha h^{-1} \in H_\alpha \Rightarrow h^{-1} \in \bigcap_{\alpha} H_\alpha.$$

Now suppose $A \subseteq G$, $A \neq \emptyset$ is any nonempty subset. A may not be a subgroup, but we would like to enlarge it so that it becomes a subgroup. We seek the minimal such enlargement.

Definition: The subgroup generated by A is

$$\langle A \rangle = \text{intersection of all subgroups } H \subseteq G \text{ that contain } A: A \subseteq H.$$

Because $\langle A \rangle$ is an intersection of subgroups, it is itself a subgroup. Also it is minimal in the sense that any subgroup that contains A must contain $\langle A \rangle$.

Constructive approach To construct $\langle A \rangle$, we start with all of the elements $a \in A$, and repeatedly take all possible products and inverses. We get

$$\langle A \rangle = \left\{ a_1^{e_1} a_2^{e_2} \dots a_k^{e_k} \mid a_i \in A, e_i \in \{1, -1\} \right\}$$

$$\text{e.g., if } a, b \in A, \text{ then } aab^{-1}aba^{-1}bba^{-1} \in \langle A \rangle$$

We can see directly that this is a subgroup:

$$(a_1^{e_1} a_2^{e_2} \dots a_k^{e_k}) (b_1^{f_1} \dots b_l^{f_l}) = a_1^{e_1} \dots a_k^{e_k} b_1^{f_1} \dots b_l^{f_l} \in \langle A \rangle$$

$$(a_1^{e_1} a_2^{e_2} \dots a_k^{e_k})^{-1} = a_k^{-e_k} a_{k-1}^{-e_{k-1}} \dots a_1^{-e_1} \in \langle A \rangle$$

It is also clear that any subgroup that contains A must contain $a_1^{e_1} \dots a_k^{e_k}$ for $a_i \in A$, $e_i \in \{1, -1\}$.

This justifies the equality of the two definitions.

Special case: $A = \{a\}$, a singleton set. Then we write

$$\langle a \rangle = \langle \{a\} \rangle = \{a^k \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

This is called the subgroup generated by a.

Here, $a^0 = e$, $a^k = \underbrace{a \cdot a \cdots a}_k$ for $k > 0$, and $a^{-k} = (a^k)^{-1}$ for $k > 0$

If G is a group, and $a \in G$, and $G = \langle a \rangle$, we say that G is a cyclic group (generated by a).

In general, if $a \in G$, then $\langle a \rangle \leq G$ is the cyclic subgroup generated by a.

Examples $G = (\mathbb{Z}, +)$ $d \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\langle d \rangle = \{kd \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \langle -d \rangle$

$\langle 1 \rangle = \langle -1 \rangle = \mathbb{Z}$, so \mathbb{Z} is cyclic, generated by 1 (or -1).

$G = (\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$. $[d] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$, $\langle [d] \rangle = \{[kd] \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

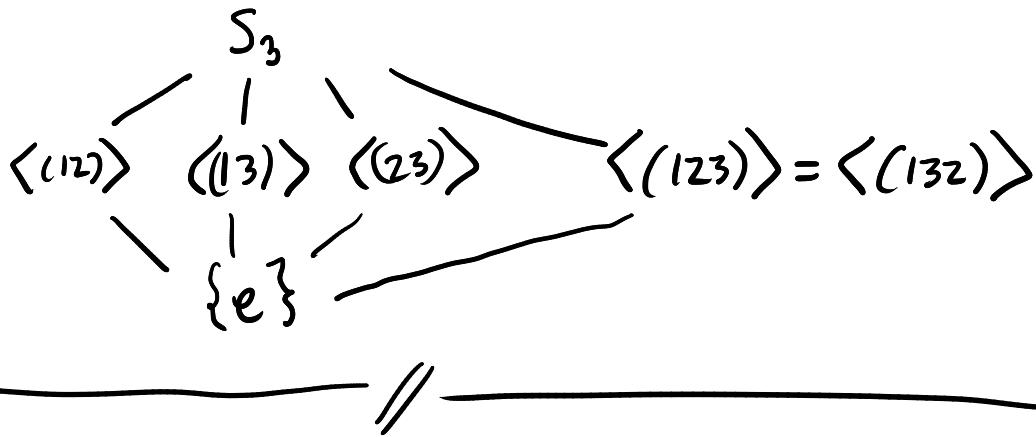
$\langle [1] \rangle = \mathbb{Z}_n$, so \mathbb{Z}_n is cyclic. (Are there other generators?)

For a given group G , we can consider all subgroups H . Subgroups are partially ordered by inclusion, and any two subgroups H_1, H_2 have a "minimum" $H_1 \cap H_2$ as well as a maximum $\langle H_1 \cup H_2 \rangle$.

Thus the set of subgroups of G forms what is called a lattice.

We can visualize the subgroup lattice using a diagram

$$S_3 = \{ e, (12), (13), (23), (123), (132) \}$$



Let G be a group, and let $a \in G$. Then $\langle a \rangle$ is either finite or infinite. If $\langle a \rangle$ is finite, the number of elements in this set is called the order of a

$$o(a) = |\langle a \rangle|$$

If $\langle a \rangle$ is infinite we say the order of a is infinite and write $\text{o}(a) = \infty$.

Recall two groups G, H are isomorphic if there is a bijective function $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ with $\varphi(g_1 g_2) = \varphi(g_1) \varphi(g_2)$. We write $G \cong H$ to mean G and H are isomorphic.

Proposition (Classification of cyclic groups)

Let G be a group and $a \in G$.

(i) if $\delta(a)=\infty$, then $\langle a \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}$

(ii) If $\text{ord}(a) = n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\langle a \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_n$.

Proof: Two cases: either all powers a^k are distinct elements of G , or else there are $k \neq l$ with $a^k = a^l$ in G .

If all powers a^k are distinct, then $\langle a \rangle = \{a^k \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is infinite, so $O(a) = \infty$. In this case, we define $\varphi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \langle a \rangle$ by $\varphi(k) = a^k$

φ is surjective: every element of $\langle a \rangle$ is a^k for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

φ is injective: if not, then $a^k = a^l$ for $k \neq l$, which assuming doesn't happen.

$$\text{Lastly } \varphi(k+l) = a^{k+l} = a^k a^l = \varphi(k) \varphi(l)$$

so φ is an isomorphism, and $\langle a \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}$. \checkmark

If two powers a^k and a^l are equal for $k < l$, we deduce $a^k = a^l \Rightarrow (a^k)^{-1} a^k = (a^k)^{-1} a^l \Rightarrow e = a^{l-k}$

Thus there is a positive power of a that equals e .

Let n be the least positive integer with $a^n = e$.

We claim $\langle a \rangle = \{e, a, a^2, \dots, a^{n-1}\}$

First: $e, a, a^2, \dots, a^{n-1}$ are all distinct (Exercise 2.2.9)

For any $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, write $k = qn+r$ with $0 \leq r \leq n-1$.

$$\text{then } a^k = a^{qn+r} = (a^n)^q a^r = e^q a^r = a^r.$$

So any power of a is equal to some element of the set $\{e, a, a^2, \dots, a^{n-1}\}$.

Define $\varphi: \mathbb{Z}_n \rightarrow \langle a \rangle$ by $\varphi([k]) = a^k$.

We defined since $k \equiv k' \pmod{n}$ implies $k' = k + qn$ so

$$a^{k'} = a^k (a^n)^q = a^k e^q = a^k.$$

Since

$\mathbb{Z}_n = \{[0], [1], \dots, [n-1]\}$, φ is bijective, and
 $\varphi([k] + [l]) = \varphi([k+l]) = a^{k+l} = a^k a^l = \varphi([k]) \varphi([l]).$
so φ is an isomorphism. $\mathbb{Z}_n \cong \langle a \rangle$. \square

Now consider the subgroups of \mathbb{Z} .

Proposition: If $H \leq \mathbb{Z}$ is a subgroup, then either $H = \{0\}$
there is a unique $d \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $H = \langle d \rangle$.

Proof: If $H \neq \{0\}$, there is some $k \in H$, $k \neq 0$. Then $-k \in H$ also. Either k or $-k$ is positive, so H contains a positive number. Let $d \in \mathbb{N} \cap H$ be the least positive number in H . Then $\langle d \rangle \subseteq H$.

We claim $H \subseteq \langle d \rangle$ as well.

Take $k \in H$. Write $k = qd + r$ $0 \leq r < d$

If $r \neq 0$, then $k - qd = r \in H$ is a positive number less than d , contradicting the assumed minimality of d . So $r = 0$ and $k = qd$ for some $q \in \mathbb{Z}$. Thus $k \in \langle d \rangle$. So $H \subseteq \langle d \rangle$ and we conclude $H = \langle d \rangle$.

For uniqueness, observe that $\langle d_1 \rangle = \langle d_2 \rangle$ implies $d_1 | d_2$ and $d_2 | d_1$, so $d_1 = \pm d_2$. If $d_1, d_2 \in \mathbb{N}$, this forces $d_1 = d_2$.

Proposition In $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$, $\langle d_1 \rangle \leq \langle d_2 \rangle \iff d_2 | d_1$.

Proof: $\langle d_1 \rangle \leq \langle d_2 \rangle \iff d_1 \in \langle d_2 \rangle \iff d_1 = kd_2$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$
 $\iff d_2 | d_1$