

Example: Recall  $\mathbb{C}^* = \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$  is a group with multiplication. Let  $H = \{1, -1, i, -i\}$ . Then

$H \subset \mathbb{C}^*$  is a subgroup. In fact, it has table:

	1	i	-1	-i
1	1	i	-1	-i
i	i	-1	-i	1
-1	-1	-i	1	i
-i	-i	1	i	-1

Compare this to  $\mathbb{Z}_4$  with +

+	0	1	2	3
0	0	1	2	3
1	1	2	3	0
2	2	3	0	1
3	3	0	1	2

note these tables are "the same" if we set  $0=1$ ,  $1=i$ ,  $2=-1$ , and  $3=-i$ . We will make this notion of "sameness" precise later.

## Chapter 4 Cyclic groups.

There are times when a single element of a group  $G$  can determine an entire subgroup  $H \subset G$ .

Example: Consider the subgroup  $3\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Z}$ . As a set, it's  $\{\dots, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots\} = 3\mathbb{Z}$ . We can see that in some way, the entire set  $3\mathbb{Z}$  is determined by the single element "3". Specifically, every element  $m \in 3\mathbb{Z}$  is a multiple of 3, i.e.

$$m = 3k \text{ for some } k$$

$$= \underbrace{3 + 3 + \dots + 3}_{k \text{ times}}$$

$k$  times.

Example: If  $H = \{2^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ , then  $H \subset \mathbb{C}^*$  is a subgroup. For example, we can check that  $a \in H$  and  $b \in H \Rightarrow ab \in H$ , since

$$2^m \in H \text{ and } 2^n \in H \Rightarrow 2^m \cdot 2^n = 2^{m+n} \in H.$$

Then similar to above, every element of  $H$  is "determined" by 2, in the sense that for all  $a \in H$ ,  $a$  is an iterated product of twos (or an iterated product of inverses of 2).

Theorem: If  $G$  is a group and  $g$  is any element of  $G$ , then the set

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

is a subgroup of  $G$ . Moreover,  $\langle g \rangle$  is the smallest subgroup of  $G$  containing  $g$ .

Proof: The set  $\langle g \rangle$  contains  $e$  since  $g^0 = e$ .

If  $a, b$  are elements of  $\langle g \rangle$  then  $a = g^n$  and  $b = g^m$  for some  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , so  $ab = g^{n+m} \in \langle g \rangle$ .

Last, if  $g^n \in \langle g \rangle$  then  $(g^n)^{-1} = g^{-n} \in \langle g \rangle$  as well, so it is a subgroup.

Finally, if  $H \subset G$  is a subgroup containing  $g$ , then  $H$  must contain every power of  $g$  by the fact that it is closed under the group operation. Therefore  $\langle g \rangle \subset H$ , in this sense  $\langle g \rangle$  is the smallest subgroup containing  $g$ .

Definition: The set  $\langle a \rangle$  is called the cyclic subgroup generated by  $a$ . In the special case that  $G$  contains an element  $a$  such that  $G = \langle a \rangle$ , then  $G$  is called a cyclic group. We call  $a$  a generator of  $G$ .

Theorem: Every cyclic group is abelian.

Proof: Suppose  $G$  is cyclic with generator  $g$ , and let  $a, b \in G$  be given.

Then  $a = g^n$  and  $b = g^m$  for some  $m, n$ . Therefore

$$ab = g^n \cdot g^m = g^{n+m} = g^{m+n} = g^m \cdot g^n = ba.$$

Corollary: There are many non-cyclic groups, for example the symmetries of a triangle is a non-cyclic group, since that group is nonabelian.



## Chapter 4.1 Subgroups of cyclic groups

What are the subgroups of a cyclic group?

Theorem: Every subgroup of a cyclic group is cyclic

Proof: Let  $G$  be a cyclic group generated by  $a$ , and suppose that  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .

First, if  $H = \{e\}$  then  $H$  is trivially cyclic. So suppose that  $H$  contains some  $g \neq e$ . Write  $g$  as a power of  $a$ , which we can do since  $G$  is cyclic:  $g = a^n$ .

We can assume that  $n > 0$ , because if  $n < 0$  then we can take  $a^{-1}$  as a generator of  $G$  and then

$a^n = (a^{-1})^{-n} = g$ , so  $g$  is a positive power of the new generator. Let  $m$  be the smallest natural number such that  $a^m \in H$  — such a number exists since  $a^n = g \in H$ , by the Well-Ordering Principle.

Claim:  $h = a^m$  is a generator for  $H$ , we need to show that every  $h' \in H$  can be written as a power of  $h$ . Write  $h' = a^k$  for some  $k$ , this is possible since  $h' \in H \subset G$ . Since  $m$  was chosen to be minimal,  $m \leq k$  and we can divide  $k$  by  $m$

to get  $k = mq + r$  for  $0 \leq r < m$ . Therefore

$$a^k = a^{mq+r} = (a^m)^q a^r = h^q a^r,$$

so that  $a^r = \cancel{a^k} h^{-q}$ . But then since  $a^k \in H$  and  $h \in H$ , we must have  $a^r \in H$ ; this contradicts minimality of  $m$  unless  $r = 0$ . Consequently  $r = 0$  and  $k = mq$ , so

$$h' = a^k = a^{mq} = h^q$$

so that  $h'$  is a power of  $h$ , and  $H$  is cyclic and generated by  $h$ .

Corollary: The only subgroups of  $\mathbb{Z}$  are  $n\mathbb{Z}$  for  $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$

Proposition: If  $G$  is a finite cyclic group, say of order  $n$ , then every generator  $a \in G$  satisfies  $a^k = e$  if and only if  $n$  divides  $k$ .

Proof: Suppose  $\langle a \rangle = G$  and  $a^k = e$ , and  $|G| = n$ .

Write  $k = nq + r$  where  $0 \leq r < n$ , and then write

$$e = a^k = a^{nq+r} = (a^{nq}) a^r = e a^r = a^r,$$

where we know  $a^n = e$  since  $G$  is cyclic and  $a$  is a generator.

The smallest  $n$  such that  $a^n = e$  is called the order of the element  $a$ . If there's no such  $n$ , we say  $a$  is of infinite order. We write  $|a| = n$  and  $|a| = \infty$  respectively.

Example: Generators of cyclic subgroups are not unique. For example,

$$\mathbb{Z}_6 = \langle 1 \rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{Z}_6 = \langle 5 \rangle, \text{ since}$$

$$5+5 \equiv 4 \pmod{6}$$

$$5+5+5 \equiv 3 \pmod{6}$$

$$5+5+5+5 \equiv 2 \pmod{6}$$

$$5+5+5+5+5 \equiv 1 \pmod{6}.$$

On the other hand not every element of a cyclic group is a generator. For example,

$$\langle 2 \rangle = \{0, 2, 4\} \subset \mathbb{Z}_6.$$

Example:  $U(9)$  is cyclic. We compute

$$\begin{aligned} U(9) &= \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\} \\ &= \{1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8\}. \end{aligned}$$

And then we check:

$$2^0 = 1 \quad 2^3 = 8$$

$$2^1 = 2 \quad 2^4 = 7$$

$$2^2 = 4 \quad 2^5 = 5$$



But  $m=n$  is the smallest positive integer s.t.  $a^m=e$ ,  
so this forces  $r=0$ . Therefore  $k=nq$  and  $n|k$ .

On the other hand, if  $n|k$  then  $k=ns$   
for some  $s$ , and

$$\underline{\underline{a^k = a^{ns} = (a^n)^s = e}}$$

Theorem: Let  $G$  be a cyclic group of order  $n$   
and suppose  $a \in G$  is a generator of  $G$ . If  $b=a^k$ ,  
then the order of  $b$  is  $\frac{n}{\gcd(n,k)}$ .

Proof: The order of  $b$  is the smallest  $m$  s.t.  $b^m=e$ .  
By the previous proposition,  $(a^k)^m = b^m = e$  if and only  
if  $km$  is divisible by  $n$ . So, we are seeking the smallest  
integer  $km$  s.t.  $n|km$ . Equivalently,

$$\frac{n}{\gcd(n,k)} \text{ divides } \frac{km}{\gcd(n,k)} \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} \text{just take out the} \\ \text{biggest factor common} \\ \text{to } n \text{ \& } k \end{array} \right)$$

But  $\frac{n}{\gcd(n,k)}$  and  $\frac{k}{\gcd(n,k)}$  are relatively prime  
since we have factored the gcd out of each.



So if  $\frac{n}{\gcd(n,k)}$  divides  $m \left( \frac{k}{\gcd(n,k)} \right)$  then it must divide  $m$ . The smallest  $m$  divisible by  $\frac{n}{\gcd(n,k)}$  is  $\frac{n}{\gcd(n,k)}$  itself, which proves the theorem.

Corollary: The generators of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  are exactly the elements  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  with  $\gcd(r,n)=1$ .

Proof: We take  $1 \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  as the generator. Then consider  $r = \underbrace{1+1+\dots+1}_{r \text{ times}}$  (or  $1^r$  in multiplicative notation).

The previous theorem says that the order of  $r = \underbrace{1+1+\dots+1}_{r \text{ times}}$  is  $\frac{n}{\gcd(n,r)}$ . The element  $r$  will be a generator if and only if its order is  $n$ , this happens exactly when  $\gcd(n,r)=1$ .

Example:  $\mathbb{Z}_8$  has many generators, namely  $\{1, 3, 5, 7\}$ , each being relatively prime to 8. So a cyclic group can have many generators, and we can list them.

Question: How many generators does a cyclic group have? (Good question for future "research").

Example: The unit circle in  $\mathbb{C}^*$  is a subgroup.

It is denoted by

$$S^1 = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z| = 1\},$$

ie.  $S^1 = \{a+ib \in \mathbb{C} \mid a^2+b^2=1\}.$

To show that it's a subgroup, observe that:

- (i) The identity  $1 \in S^1$ .
- (ii) If  $z \in S^1$  and  $w \in S^1$ , then

$$|zw| = |z| \cdot |w| = 1 \cdot 1 = 1,$$

so  $zw \in S^1$

- (iii) If  $z = a+ib \in S^1$ , then  $z^{-1} = \frac{a-ib}{a^2+b^2}$  and

$$|z^{-1}| = \frac{1}{a^2+b^2} |a-ib| = \frac{1}{a^2+b^2} \cdot (a^2+b^2) = 1, \text{ so}$$

$$z^{-1} \in S^1.$$

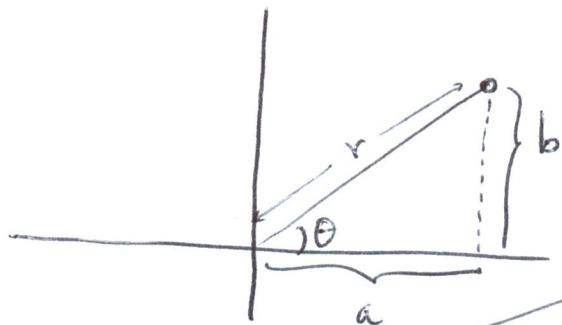
Next day we will examine cyclic subgroups of  $S^1$ .

# MATH 2020, § 4.2.

Definition: The solutions to  $z^n = 1$  are called the  $n^{\text{th}}$  roots of unity.

Example: Find the solutions to  $z^3 = 1$ .

Solution: If  $z = a + ib$ , then thinking in the complex plane:



the book calls this  $\text{cis}(\theta)$

we see that  $z = r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)$ , where  $r = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$  and  $\theta$  is the argument of  $z = a + ib$ . Then we have the

following fact:

$$\text{If } z_1 = r_1(\cos\theta_1 + i\sin\theta_1)$$

$$\text{and } z_2 = r_2(\cos\theta_2 + i\sin\theta_2)$$

then  $z_1 z_2 = r_1 r_2 (\cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2) + i\sin(\theta_1 + \theta_2))$  i.e., multiplying complex numbers multiplies their lengths and adds their angles. So if  $z = r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)$  then

$$1 = z^3 \Rightarrow 1 = r^3 (\cos(3\theta) + i\sin(3\theta))$$

$\Rightarrow r=1$  and  $\theta = \frac{2k\pi}{3}$ , for  $k=0,1,2$ . Since then,  
for example if  $k=1$

$$1 \cdot \left( \cos\left(3 \cdot \left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right)\right) + i \sin\left(3 \cdot \left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right)\right) \right) \\ = \cos(2\pi) + i \sin(2\pi) = 1.$$

In this case, the roots are

$$k=0: \cos(0) + i \sin(0) = 1$$

$$k=1 \quad \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right) = -\frac{1}{2} + i \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

$$k=2 \quad \cos\left(\frac{4\pi}{3}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{4\pi}{3}\right) = -\frac{1}{2} - i \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}.$$

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In general, we have De Moivre's theorem.

Theorem: If  $z = r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)$  then

$$z^n = r^n (\cos(n\theta) + i\sin(n\theta))$$

and as a consequence we get:

Proposition: If  $n \geq 1$  then the  $n^{\text{th}}$  roots of unity (i.e. the solutions to  $z^n = 1$ ) are:

$$z = \cos\left(\frac{2k\pi}{n}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{2k\pi}{n}\right)$$

where  $k=0,1,2,\dots,n-1$ . Furthermore, these roots form a cyclic group of order  $n$ .



Proof: By de Moivre's theorem,

$$z^n = 1 \Rightarrow 1 = r(\cos(n\theta) + i\sin(n\theta))$$

$$\Rightarrow r=1 \text{ and } \theta = \frac{2\pi k}{n} \text{ for } k=0, 1, \dots, n-1.$$

These solutions are all distinct since the values of  $\frac{2\pi k}{n}$  are between 0 and  $2\pi$ . This set constitutes all of the roots since a polynomial of degree  $n$  can have at most  $n$  roots (we will actually prove this later).

These roots form a cyclic group since, for  $0 \leq k < n$  the element

$$\cos\left(\frac{2k\pi}{n}\right) + i\sin\left(\frac{2k\pi}{n}\right) = \left(\cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{n}\right) + i\sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{n}\right)\right)^k, \text{ by}$$

de Moivre's theorem.

A generator for the group of  $n^{\text{th}}$  roots of unity is called a primitive  $n^{\text{th}}$  root of unity.

Remark: So, in some cases the solutions to polynomial equations can form a group! This observation forms the backbone of several large fields of study, for example, the study of elliptic curves. (Solutions to  $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ ) (The group operation is not multiplication in that case).

## Chapter 4 problems (§4.4)

1, 2, 3(a)-(d), (g)-(m), 6, 11, 12, 16, 20, 21, 24-31.