# Elementary group theory 

GU4041, fall 2023<br>Columbia University

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## Outline

(1) Cyclic groups
(2) Subgroups
(3) Dihedral groups
(4) Homomorphisms

## Definition of cyclic groups

So far we have seen the groups $S_{3}, K_{4}$, and $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$. The latter is an example of a cyclic group:

## Definition

A group $G$ is cyclic if it contains an element $g$, called a generator, such that every element is of the form
(1) $e, g, g^{2}, \ldots, g^{n-1}$, if $G$ is finite and $|G|=n$;

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The set $\mathbb{C}^{\times}$of complex numbers $z \neq 0$ forms a group under multiplication.
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1, g=e^{\frac{2 \pi i}{n}}, g^{2}=e^{\frac{4 \pi i}{n}}, \ldots, g^{k}=e^{\frac{2 k \pi i}{n}}, \ldots g^{n-1}=e^{\frac{2(n-1) \pi i}{n}}
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The $n$th power of $g$ is

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g^{n}=e^{\frac{2 n \pi i}{n}}=e^{2 \pi i}=1
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## Multiplication in cyclic groups

Suppose $g \in G$ is a generator. Then every element of $G$ is of the form $g^{a}$, where $a$ can be negative if $|G|$ is infinite and $g^{0}=e$.

The product of $g^{a}$ and $g^{b}$ is $g^{a+b}$.
The proof is the same as for addition of exponents in the
multiplication of real numbers. If $a, b \geq 0$ then we just put them in order. If $a>0$ and $-b<0$ we write
( $a$ copies of $g, b$ copies of $g^{-1}$ ). Then we cancel the $g \cdot g^{-1}$ until there are only $a-b g^{\prime}$ 's or $b-a g^{-1}$ 's left.

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## Generators in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$

In $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ we write $k \cdot[a]$ for the $k$-th "power" $[a]^{k}$ to avoid confusion. We know that $[1]$ is a generator in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$, the elements are

$$
[0],[1],[2]=[1]+[1],[3]=3 \cdot[1], \ldots[n-1]=(n-1) \cdot[1] .
$$

What other elements can be generators? More precisely, which elements $[a]$ have the property that, for any $[b] \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$, there is $k$ such that $[b]=k \cdot[a]$ ? Think of this as solving an equation for $k$. The answer: $[a]$ is a generator if and only if $\operatorname{gcd}(a, n)=1$.

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## Generators in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$

We claim $[a]$ is a generator if and only if $\operatorname{gcd}(a, n)=1$.

## Proof.

Suppose $\operatorname{gcd}(a, n)=1$. Then by Bezout there is $c$ such that $c a \equiv 1$ $(\bmod n)$. Thus

$$
c \cdot[a]=[c a]=[1] .
$$

Then for any $b$, we can take $k=b c$ :

$$
b c \cdot[a]=b \cdot[c a]=b \cdot[1]=[b] .
$$

Suppose $\operatorname{gcd}(a, n)=d>1$. Then for any $k, k \cdot[a]=[k a]$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(k a, n) \geq d$. So $k a$ can never be congruent to $1(\bmod n)$.

Thus a cyclic group of order $n$ has $\phi(n)$ generators, where $\phi(n)$ is Euler's $\phi$ function.

## Definition of subgroup

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- $e \in H$,
- for all $h, h^{\prime} \in H, h h^{\prime} \in H$;
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Example: Any $g \in G$ generates a subgroup denoted $\langle g\rangle$ :

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## Cyclic subgroups

Proposition
Suppose $G$ is finite. Then for any $g$, the subset

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(positive powers only) is a subgroup.
Proof.
Since $G$ is finite, so is any subset. Thus at some point the powers repeat: there are $i<j$ such that $g^{i}=g^{j}$. Then

Thus $g^{j-i-1}=g^{-1}$ and so every element of $H$ has its inverse in H.

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e=\left(g^{i}\right)^{-1} \cdot g^{i}=\left(g^{i}\right)^{-1} \cdot g^{j}=g^{j-i}=g \cdot g^{j-i-1} .
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Thus $g^{j-i-1}=g^{-1}$ and so every element of $H$ has its inverse in $H$.

## Order of an element

We see that in a finite group $G$, for every element $g \in G$ there is a positive integer $a$ (it was $j-i$ in the proof) such that $g^{a}=e$.

So there is a smallest positive integer $n$ such that $g^{n}=e$. This element is the order of $g$, and the subgroup $\langle g\rangle \subset G$ is then a cyclic group of order $n$.

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## The dihedral group

Let $n \geq 3$ be an integer. The dihedral group $D_{2 n}$ (often written $D_{n}$, but not in this class) is the group of symmetries of the regular $n$-gon.

## * Symmetry group of a regular hexagon

Posted by hexnet - 2010-04-18 04:16


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## Properties of the dihedral group

The group $D_{2 n}$ contains a cyclic subgroup of rotations of order $n$. If we think of the $n$-gon inscribed in the unit circle around 0 , then the rotations are by elements of $C_{n}$, the $n$-th roots of unity; or equivalently, by multiples of $\frac{2 \pi}{n}$.
Let $s \in D_{2 n}$ be rotation (counterclockwise) by $\frac{2 \pi}{n}, f$ (for flip)
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f s f=s^{-1} ; \quad f s=s^{-1} f=s^{n-1} f
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## Picture of the formula $f s f=s^{-1}$

## Multliplication in $D_{2 n}$

So the elements of $D_{2 n}$ are all of the form $e, s, s^{2}, \ldots, s^{n-1}$ and $f, f s, f s^{2}, \ldots, f s^{n-1}$.
Thus there are $2 n$ elements. Any two elements can be multiplied using the relations we know:

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For any $G$ and $g, h \in G,(g h)^{-1}=h^{-1} g^{-1}$.
The proof is: $h^{-1} g^{-1} \cdot(g h)=h^{-1} \cdot h=e$.

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## Every subgroup of a cyclic group is cyclic

The following theorem will be used constantly.
Theorem
Let $G$ be a cyclic group, $H \subset G$ a subgroup. Then $H$ is cyclic.
Proof: Let $g \in G$ be a generator. Let $a$ be the smallest integer $>0$ such that $\gamma=g^{a} \in H$. If there is no such integer then $H=\{e\}$.
$c>0$; if not, replace $h$ by $h^{-1}$
Thus $g^{a}$ and $g^{c} \in H$. So for any $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$,

By Bezout's theorem, if $d=\operatorname{gcd}(a, c)$, then $d=r a+s c$ for some $r, s$, so $g^{d} \in H$. Moreover $d \mid a$ and so $d \leq a$.

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Since $a$ is chosen to be minimum, $d=a$. But since we also know $d \mid c, b=c / d$ means $h=\gamma^{b}$. Thus $\gamma$ is a generator of $H$. This completes the proof.

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Let $G$ be a finite cyclic group, $|G|=n$. Then for every divisor $d$ of $n$, there is exactly one subgroup $H \subset G$ with $|H|=d$.

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## Proof of the theorem on subgroups of cyclic groups

Proof of existence Let $d \mid n$, so $n=m d$ for some $m$. Let $g$ be a generator of $G$.
has $d$ elements and it's easy to see it's a subgroup.
Proof of uniqueness Suppose $H \subset G$ is a subgroup, $|H|=d$. We
know $H$ is cyclic. Let $h$ be a generator of $H$, so $h^{d}=e$. But $h=g^{a}$ for some minimal $a>0$. (Unless $|H|=1$, in which case $H=\{e\}$.) Then

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## Homomorphisms

Let $G$ and $H$ be groups，with identity elements $e_{G}$ and $e_{H}$ ．A homomorphism from $G$ to $H$ is a function $f: G \rightarrow H$ such that，for all $g, g^{\prime} \in G$ ，

$$
f\left(g g^{\prime}\right)=f(g) f\left(g^{\prime}\right)
$$

This already implies that

$$
f\left(e_{G}\right)=f\left(e_{H}\right) .
$$

Indeed，let $f\left(e_{G}\right)=h$ ．Now $e_{G} \cdot e_{G}=e_{G}$ by definition，so

$$
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Now multiply both sides by $h^{-1}$ ，

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e_{H}=h^{-1} h=h^{-1} h \cdot h=h .
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In the same way，we prove that，for all $\left.g, f\left(g^{-1}\right)_{\overline{\bar{I}}}^{\bar{\square}} f\left(g_{⿹ 勹 䶹}\right)\right)^{-1}$

## Homomorphisms

Let $G$ and $H$ be groups, with identity elements $e_{G}$ and $e_{H}$. A homomorphism from $G$ to $H$ is a function $f: G \rightarrow H$ such that, for all $g, g^{\prime} \in G$,

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## Examples of homomorphisms

## Example

Suppose $m \mid n$ are positive integers. Then reduction modulo $n$ can be followed by reduction modulo $m$ :

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f: \mathbb{Z}_{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{m} ; f\left([a]_{n}\right)=[a]_{m} .
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Example
If $G=G L(n, \mathbb{R}), H=\mathbb{R}^{\times}$, det : $G \rightarrow H$ is a homomorphism. This is the familiar fact:

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\operatorname{det}(A B)=\operatorname{det}(A) \cdot \operatorname{det}(B)
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if $A$ and $B$ are invertible $n \times n$ matrices.

$\square$
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Let $G=\mathbb{R}^{n}, H=\mathbb{R}^{m}$. Then a linear transformation $T: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m}$ is a

## Properties of homomorphisms

A bijective homomorphism $f: G \rightarrow H$. is called an isomorphism. If $G=H$ it is called an automorphism.

> Proposition
> Let $f: G \rightarrow \boldsymbol{H}$ be a bijective homomorphism. Let $f^{-1}: H \rightarrow G$ be the inverse function. Then $f^{-1}$ is also a homomorphism (thus an isomorphism).

Proof: Let $h_{1}, h_{2} \in H$. By assumption, there are unique $g_{1}, g_{2} \in G$ such that $f\left(g_{1}\right)=h_{1}, f\left(g_{2}\right)=h_{2}$. Thus

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Let $G=D_{2 n}$, with generators $s, f ; H=\mathbb{Z}_{2}$. Define $\phi: G \rightarrow H$ by the formula

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$\phi\left(f s^{b} \cdot f s^{c}\right)=\phi\left(f^{2} s^{c-b}\right)=\phi\left(s^{c-b}\right)=[0]=[1]+[1]=\phi\left(f s^{b}\right)+\phi\left(f s^{c}\right)$.

## More on equivalence relations


[^0]:    Example

