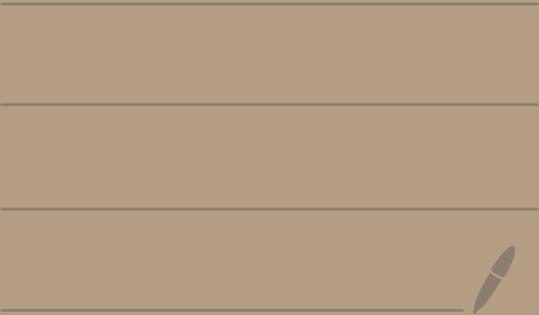


Math 4550

Topic 5 - Cyclic groups



Theorem: Let G be a cyclic group. If $H \leq G$, then H is cyclic.

Proof: Suppose $G = \langle x \rangle$ is cyclic.

Let $H \leq G$.

If $H = \{e\}$, then $H = \langle e \rangle$ is cyclic.

Suppose $H \neq \{e\}$.

Then there must exist $a \in H$ with $a \neq e$.

Since $H \leq G$ we know $a \in G$.

Thus, $a = x^k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, $k \neq 0$.

If $k < 0$, then $a^{-1} = x^{-k}$ is also in

H since H is a subgroup.

We can conclude that H contains

Some x^n where n is a positive integer.

Let m be the smallest positive integer where $x^m \in H$.

Claim: $H = \langle x^m \rangle$

We know $\langle x^m \rangle \subseteq H$ because $x^m \in H$ and H is a subgroup so $(x^m)^l \in H$ for any $l \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Let's show that $H \subseteq \langle x^m \rangle$.

Let $y \in H$.

Then $y = x^a$ for some $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ since $H \leq G$ and $G = \langle x \rangle$.

By the division algorithm
 $a = mq + r$ where $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$
and $0 \leq r < m$.

$$\text{Then, } y = x^a = x^{mq} x^r$$

$$\text{So, } x^r = (x^{mq})^{-1} y = \underbrace{(x^m)^{-q}}_{\substack{\text{in } H \\ \text{since} \\ x^m \in H}} \underbrace{y}_{\text{in } H}$$

Thus, $x^r \in H$.

Since $x^r \in H$ and $0 \leq r < m$ and m is the smallest positive integer with $x^m \in H$ we must have that $r = 0$.

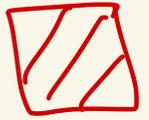
$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thus, } y = x^a &= x^{mq} x^r = (x^m)^q x^0 \\ &= (x^m)^q e \\ &= (x^m)^q \end{aligned}$$

So, $y \in \langle x^m \rangle$.

Thus, $H \subseteq \langle x^m \rangle$.

So, $H = \langle x^m \rangle$ and

H is cyclic.



Ex: Find all subgroups of \mathbb{Z}_{12} .

Since \mathbb{Z}_{12} is cyclic all its subgroups must be cyclic.

Lemma: If G is a group and $x \in G$, then $\langle x^{-1} \rangle = \langle x \rangle$.

proof: HW.

all subgroups of \mathbb{Z}_{12} :

$$\langle \bar{0} \rangle = \{ \bar{0} \}$$

$$\langle \bar{1} \rangle = \mathbb{Z}_{12} = \langle \bar{11} \rangle$$

$$\boxed{\bar{1}^{-1} = \bar{11}}$$

$$\langle \bar{2} \rangle = \{ \bar{0}, \bar{2}, \bar{4}, \bar{6}, \bar{8}, \bar{10} \} = \langle \bar{10} \rangle$$

$$\boxed{\bar{2}^{-1} = \bar{10}}$$

$$\langle \bar{3} \rangle = \{ \bar{0}, \bar{3}, \bar{6}, \bar{9} \} = \langle \bar{9} \rangle$$

$$\boxed{\bar{3}^{-1} = \bar{9}}$$

$$\langle \bar{4} \rangle = \{ \bar{0}, \bar{4}, \bar{8} \} = \langle \bar{8} \rangle$$

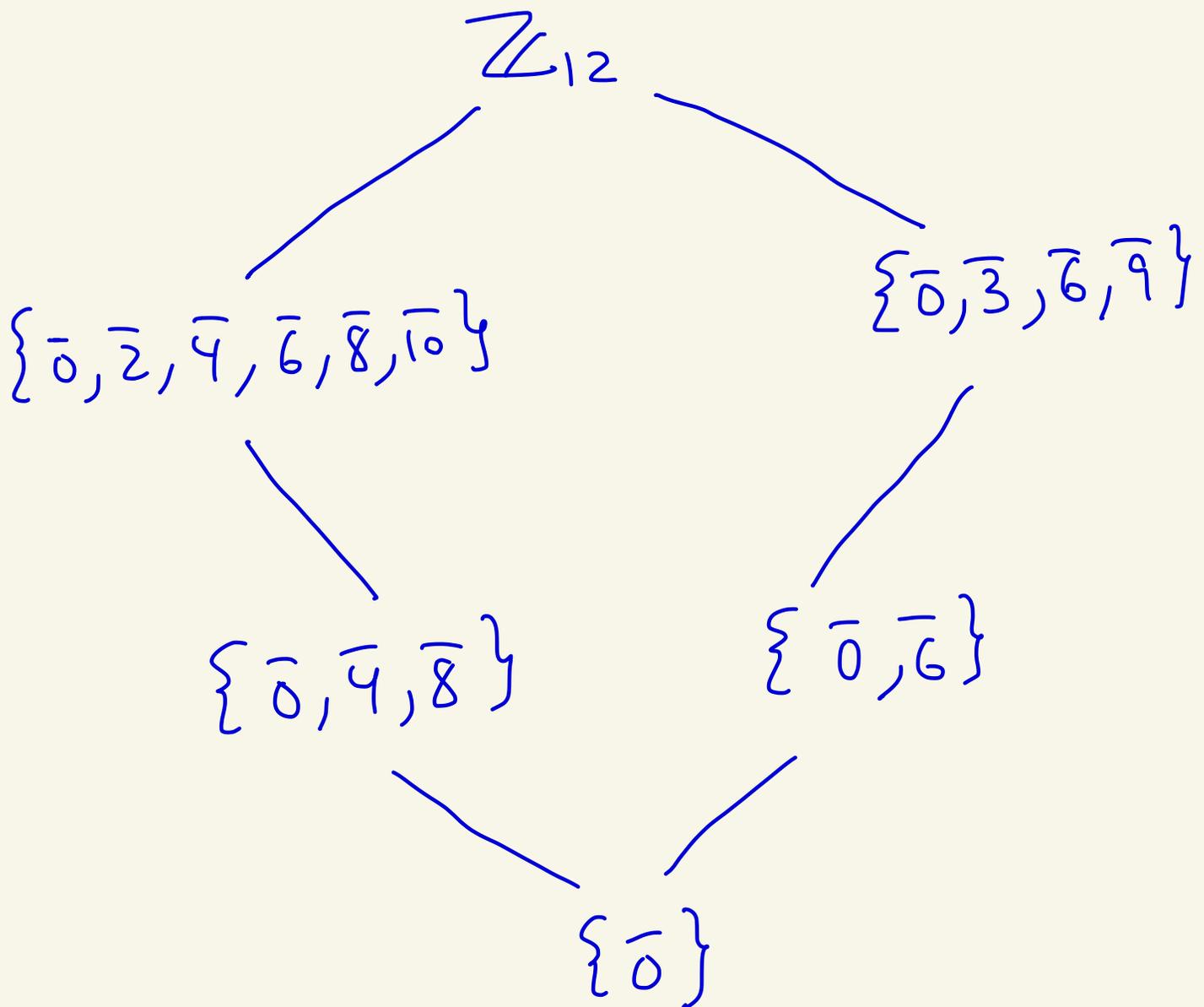
$$\boxed{\bar{4}^{-1} = \bar{8}}$$

$$\langle \bar{5} \rangle = \{ \bar{0}, \bar{5}, \bar{10}, \bar{3}, \bar{8}, \bar{1}, \bar{6}, \bar{11}, \bar{4}, \bar{9}, \bar{2}, \bar{7} \}$$

$$= \mathbb{Z}_{12} = \langle \bar{7} \rangle \leftarrow \boxed{\bar{5}^{-1} = \bar{7}}$$

$$\langle \bar{6} \rangle = \{ \bar{0}, \bar{6} \}$$

Subgroup diagram

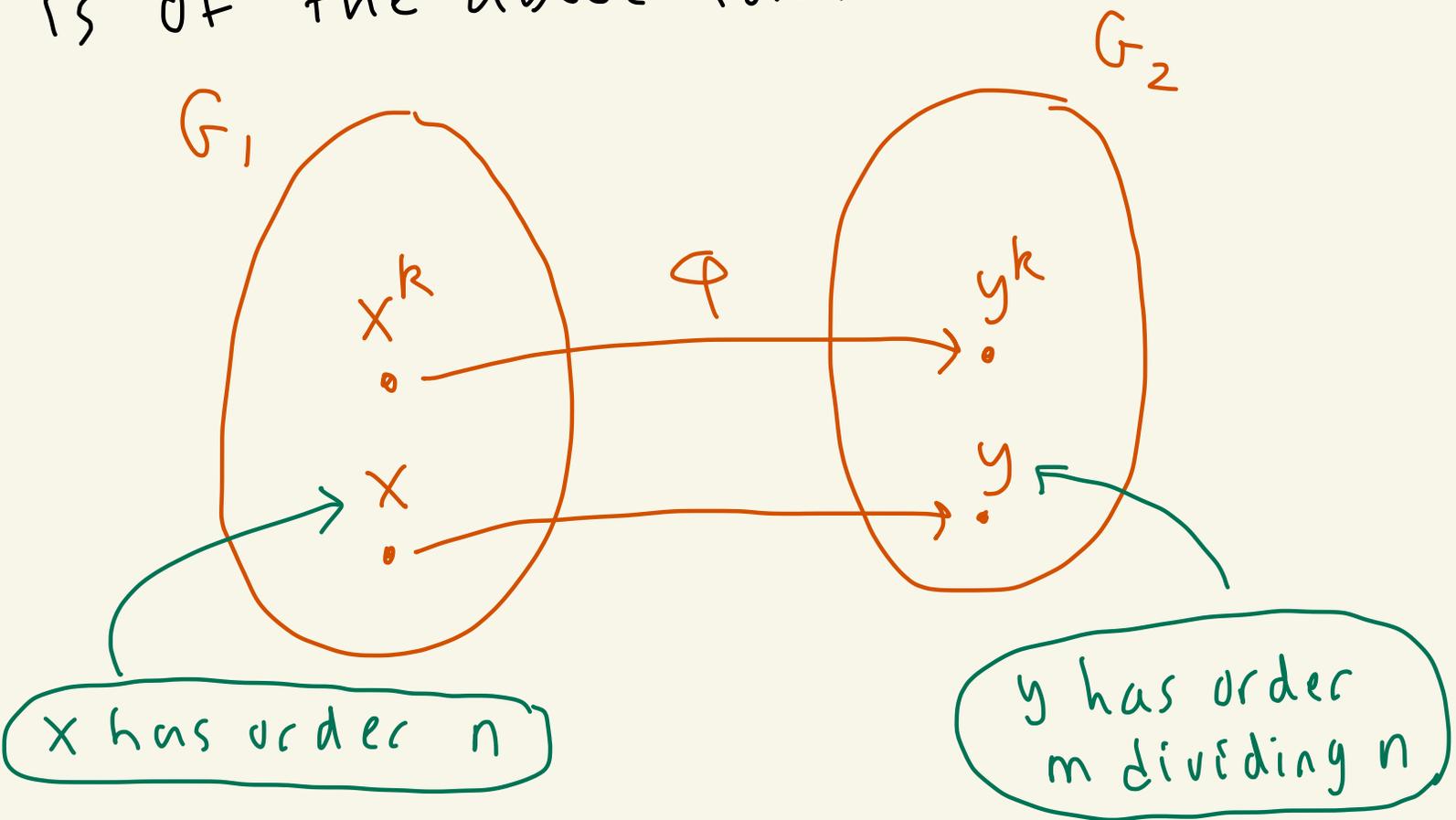


Theorem: (Homomorphisms out of cyclic groups) Let $G_1 = \langle x \rangle$ be a cyclic group. Let G_2 be a group.

Case 1: Suppose x has finite order n

Pick $y \in G_2$ with order m dividing n .

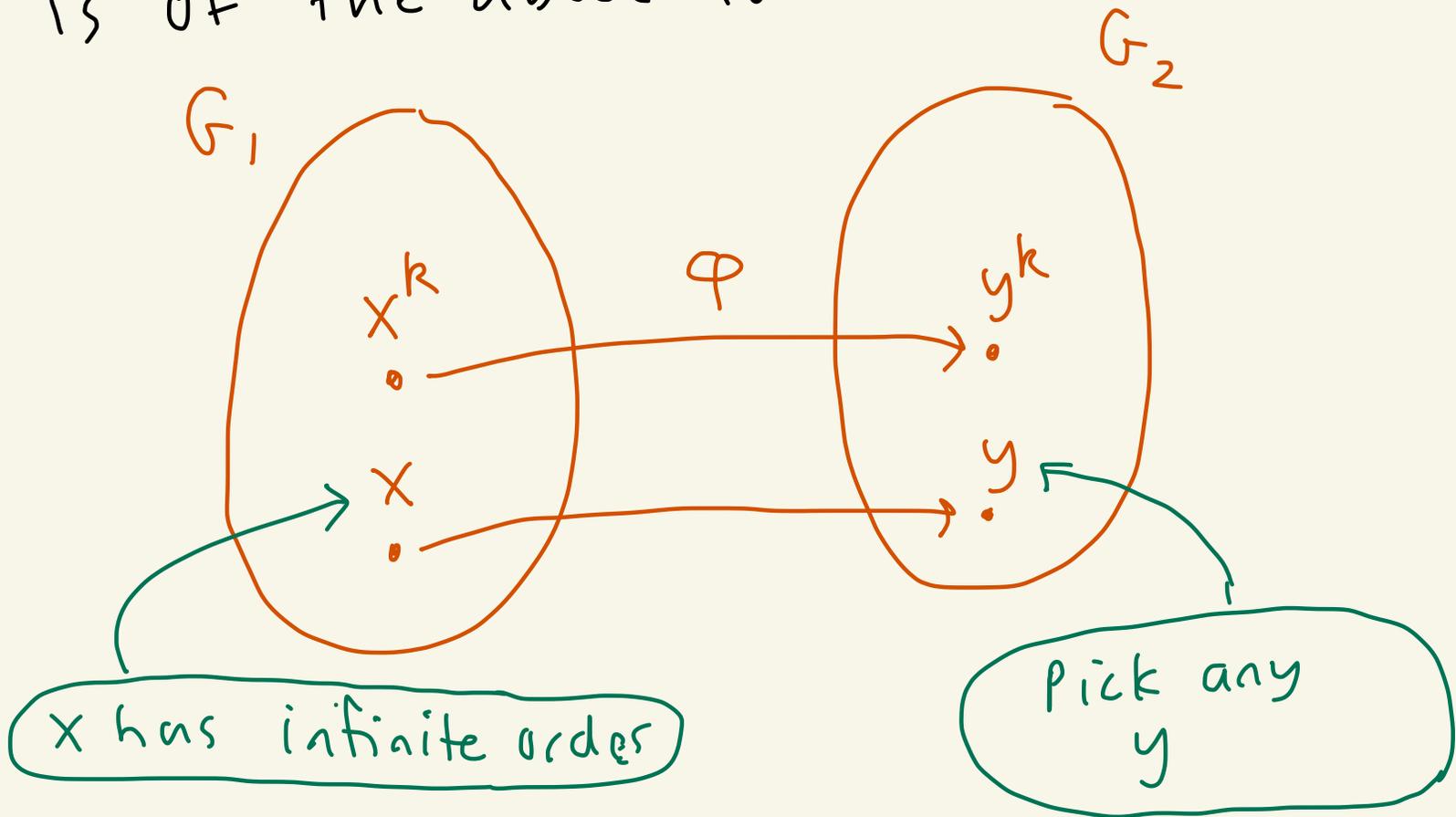
Then, $\varphi: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ given by $\varphi(x^k) = y^k$ is a homomorphism. Furthermore, every homomorphism from G_1 to G_2 is of the above form.



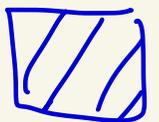
case 2: Suppose x has infinite order

Pick any $y \in G_2$.

Then $\varphi: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ given by $\varphi(x^k) = y^k$ is a homomorphism. Furthermore, every homomorphism from G_1 to G_2 is of the above form.



proof: At end of these notes.



Ex: Let's find all homomorphisms

$$\varphi: U_6 \rightarrow U_4.$$

We have

$$U_6 = \{1, \rho, \rho^2, \rho^3, \rho^4, \rho^5\} \text{ where } \rho = e^{\frac{2\pi}{6}i} \text{ has order 6.}$$

and

$$U_4 = \{1, \gamma, \gamma^2, \gamma^3\} \text{ where } \gamma = e^{\frac{2\pi}{4}i} \text{ has order 4.}$$

elements of U_4	order
1	1
γ	4
γ^2	2
γ^3	4

To construct $\varphi: U_6 \rightarrow U_4$ first we pick a generator for U_6 . We have

$U_6 = \langle \mathcal{P} \rangle$ with \mathcal{P} having order 6.

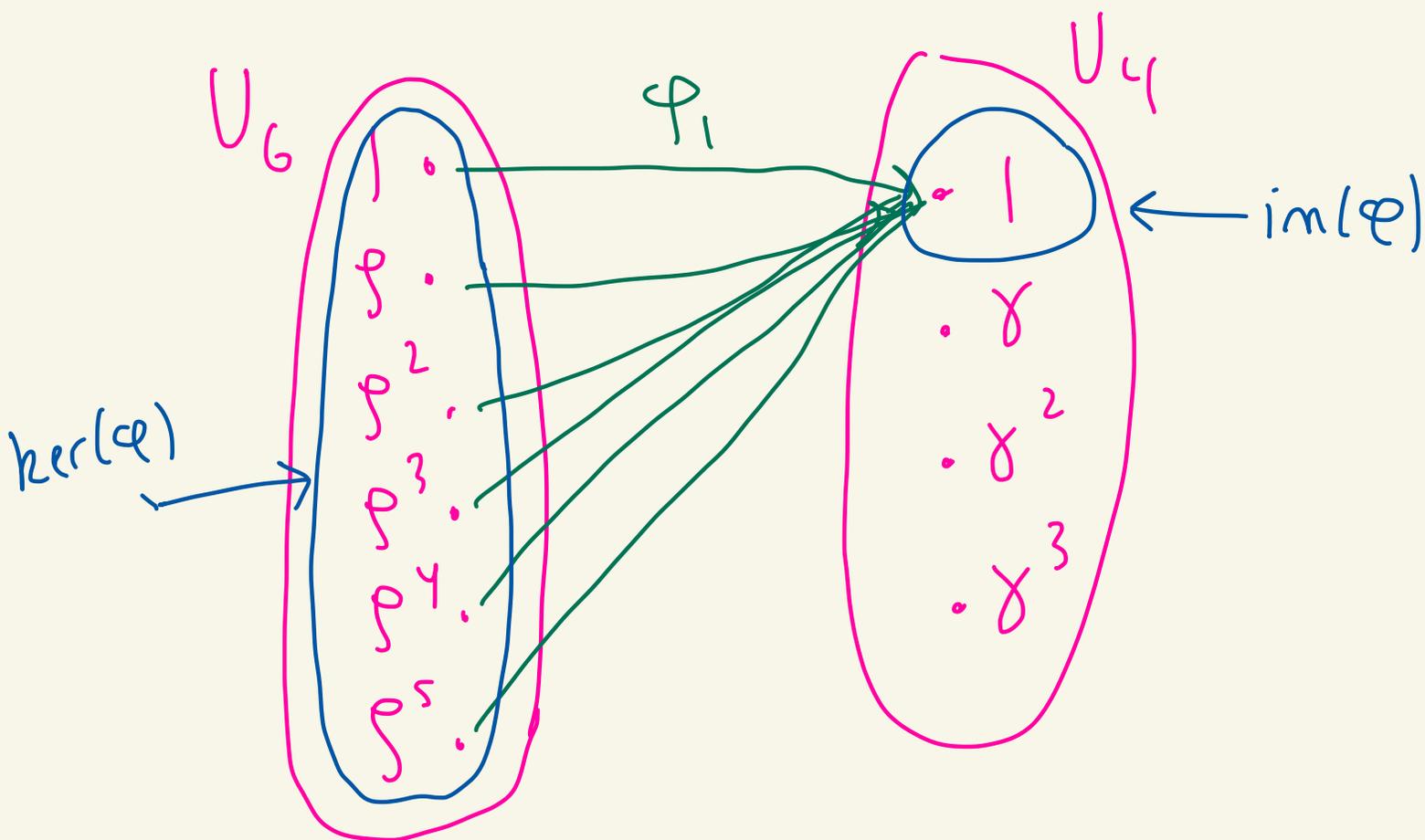
To build φ we pick an element of U_4 having order dividing 6.

We can pick 1 or γ^2 .

Case 1: Pick 1 from U_4 .

Define $\varphi: U_6 \rightarrow U_4$ where $\varphi(\mathcal{P}^k) = 1^k$

Thus, $\varphi(\mathcal{P}^k) = 1$ for all k .



Here $\ker(\varphi_1) = U_6$ and $\text{im}(\varphi_1) = \{1\}$.

Case 2: Pick γ^2 from U_6 .

Define $\varphi_2: U_6 \rightarrow U_4$ where $\varphi_2(\beta^k) = (\gamma^2)^k$

So,

$$\varphi_2(1) = \varphi_2(\beta^0) = (\gamma^2)^0 = 1$$

$$\varphi_2(\beta) = (\gamma^2)^1 = \gamma^2$$

$$\varphi_2(\beta^2) = (\gamma^2)^2 = \gamma^4 = 1$$

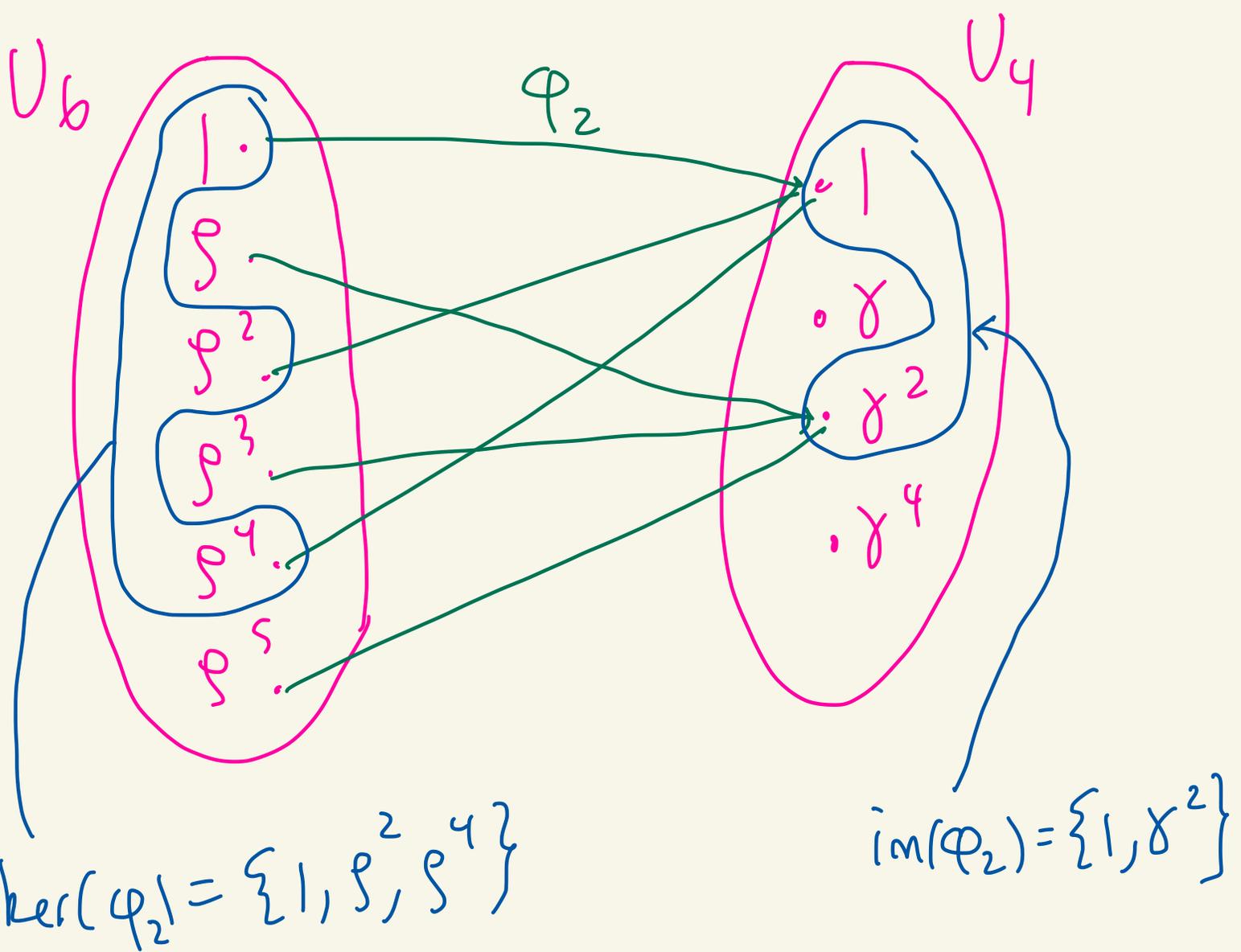
$$\varphi_2(\beta^3) = (\gamma^2)^3 = \gamma^6 = \gamma^4 \gamma^2 = \gamma^2$$

$$\varphi_2(\beta^4) = (\gamma^2)^4 = \gamma^8 = \gamma^4 \gamma^4 = 1$$

$$\varphi_2(\beta^5) = (\gamma^2)^5 = \gamma^{10} = \gamma^4 \gamma^4 \gamma^2 = \gamma^2$$

Use
 $\gamma^4 = 1$

Here is the picture



So, there are two homomorphisms from U_6 to U_4 .

Let me discuss why the above is constructed this way.

Let's say we wanted

$$\varphi(p) = \gamma^2$$

Then for φ to be a homomorphism we need

$$\varphi(p^2) = \varphi(p)\varphi(p) = \gamma^2\gamma^2 = (\gamma^2)^2$$

and

$$\varphi(p^3) = \varphi(p)\varphi(p)\varphi(p) = \gamma^2\gamma^2\gamma^2 = (\gamma^2)^3$$

and so on.

This is why once you decide where p goes it forces where $\varphi(p^k)$ goes.

Ex: Let's construct a homomorphism

$$\varphi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}.$$

We know \mathbb{Z} is cyclic with $\mathbb{Z} = \langle 1 \rangle$.

Since 1 has infinite order we can pick any element of \mathbb{R} to make φ .

Let's pick π .

Then, by the theorem we define

$$\varphi(n) = n\pi$$

\mathbb{Z} and \mathbb{R} are groups under addition so "powers" of elements are sums

Let's explain where this comes from.

Let's say we want $\varphi(1) = \pi$.

Then for φ to be a homomorphism we need

$$\varphi(2) = \varphi(1+1) = \varphi(1) + \varphi(1) = \pi + \pi = 2\pi$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(3) &= \varphi(1+1+1) = \varphi(1) + \varphi(1) + \varphi(1) \\ &= \pi + \pi + \pi \\ &= 3\pi\end{aligned}$$

inverse here
is under
adding

and

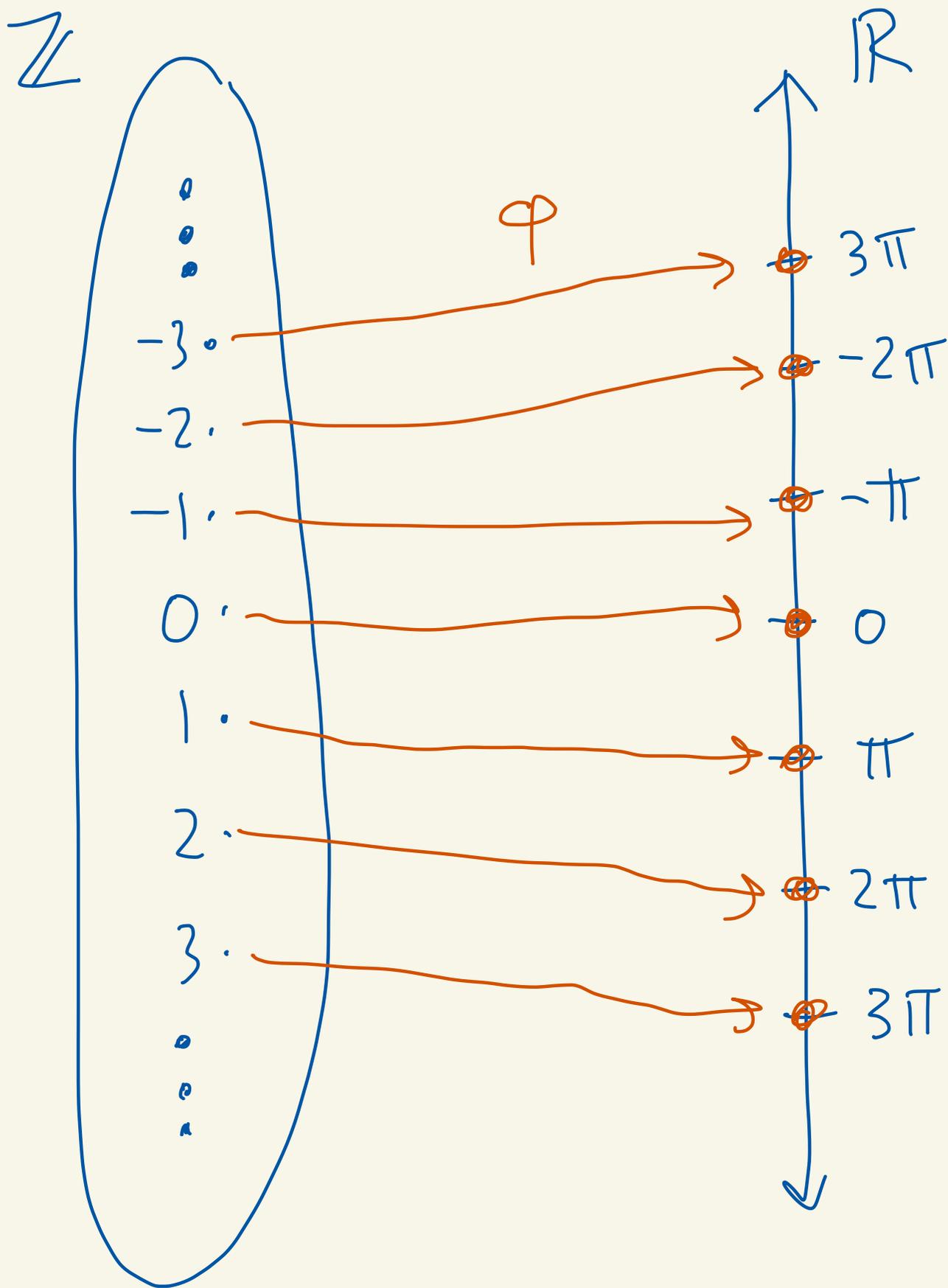
$$\varphi(-1) = [\varphi(1)]^{-1} = [\pi]^{-1} = -\pi$$

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(-2) &= \varphi(-1-1) = \varphi(-1) + \varphi(-1) \\ &= -\pi - \pi \\ &= -2\pi\end{aligned}$$

and so on.

This is why once you pick $\varphi(1) = \pi$
you must then have $\varphi(n) = n\pi$.

So we get this picture:



Here $\ker(\varphi) = \{0\}$ so φ is 1-1.
 $\text{im}(\varphi) = \{k\pi \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

Theorem: (Classification of cyclic groups)

Let G be a cyclic group.

- If $|G| = n$, then $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_n$
 - If $|G| = \infty$, then $G \cong \mathbb{Z}$.
-

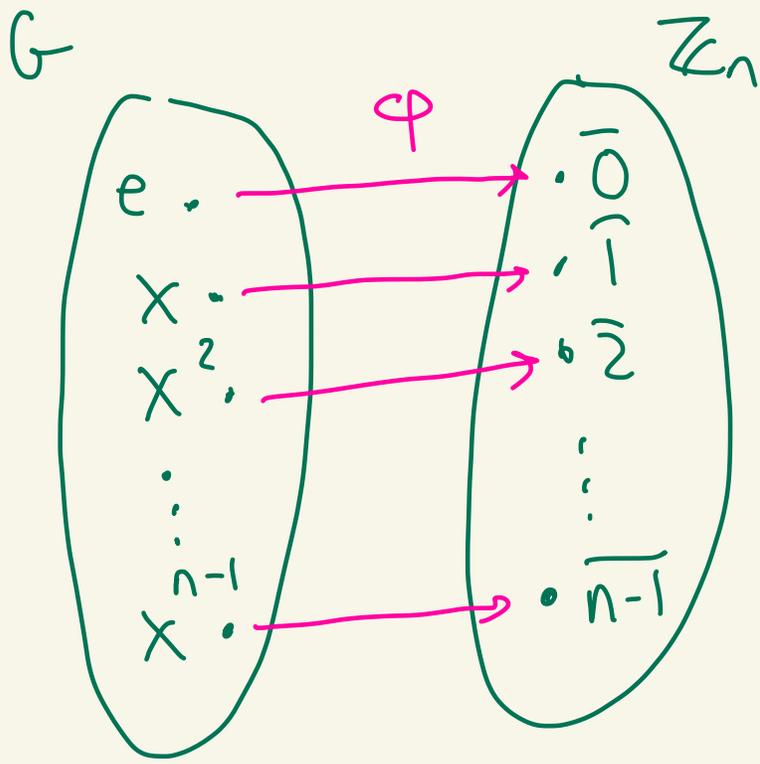
proof:

case 1: Let $G = \langle x \rangle$ where x has order n . Then, $G = \{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{n-1}\}$.

Define $\varphi: G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$ by $\varphi(x^k) = \bar{k}$

[We picked $\bar{1}$ in \mathbb{Z}_n of order n
and \bar{k} is the "k-th power" of $\bar{1}$]

By the previous theorem, φ is a homomorphism.

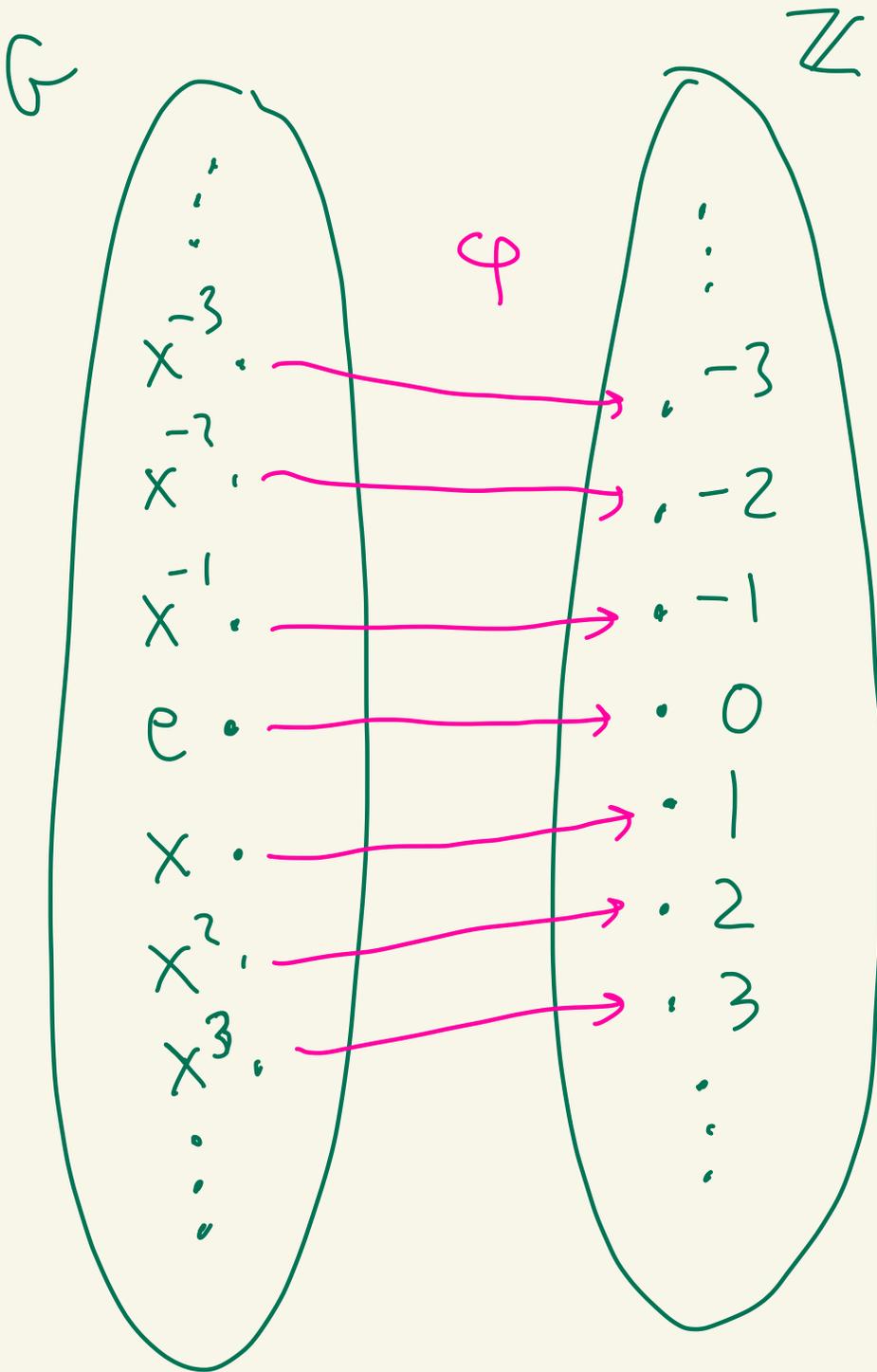


We see that φ is 1-1 and onto so φ is an isomorphism.
Thus, $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_n$.

Case 2: Let $G = \langle x \rangle$ where x has infinite order. Define $\varphi: G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ where $\varphi(x^k) = k$.

[We picked 1 in \mathbb{Z} and k is the "k-th power" of 1]

By the previous theorem, φ is a homomorphism.

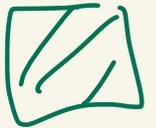


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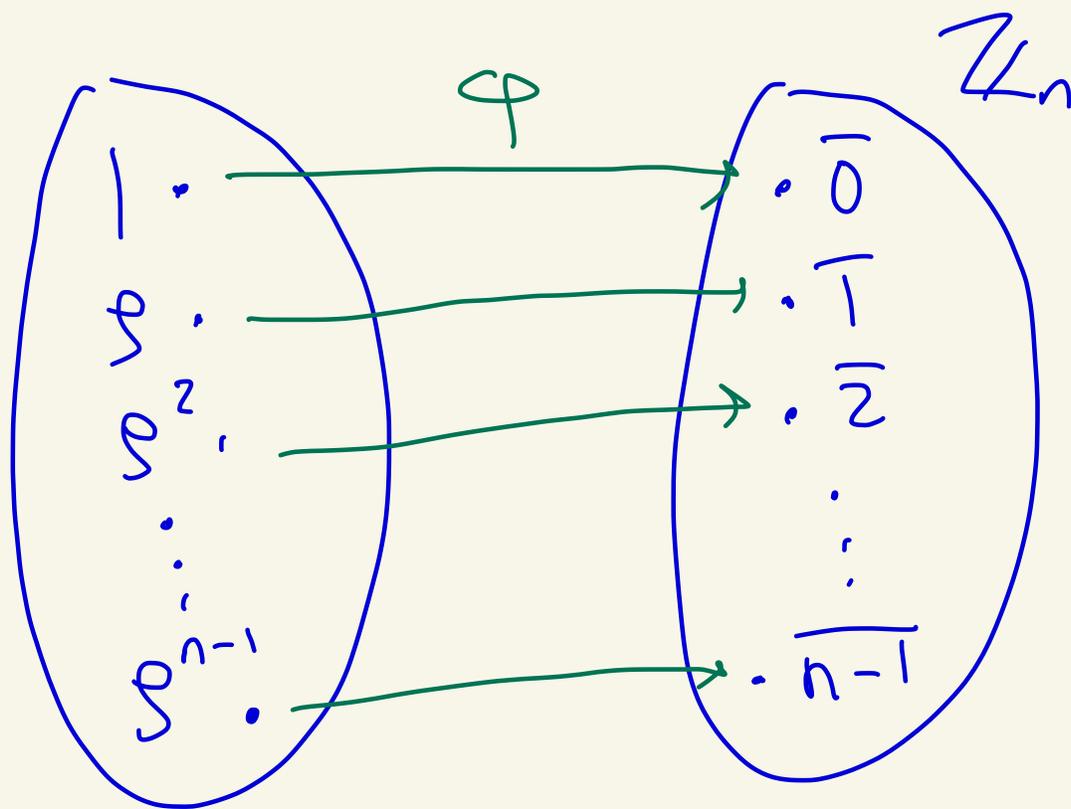
Thus, φ is an isomorphism

And

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}$$



Ex: $U_n \cong \mathbb{Z}_n$ since both are cyclic of size n .



φ is an isomorphism.

Below is the proof
of the theorem about
homomorphisms from
the notes

First a lemma.

Lemma: Let G be a group.

Let $x \in G$ where x has order n . If $x^k = e$ for some integer k , then n divides k .

Proof: By the division algorithm

$$k = qn + r$$

where $0 \leq r < n$.

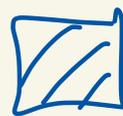
Then

$$e = x^k = x^{qn+r} = (x^n)^q x^r = e^q x^r = x^r$$

Since n is the order of x and $0 \leq r < n$ we must have $r = 0$.

Thus, $k = qn$.

So, n divides k .

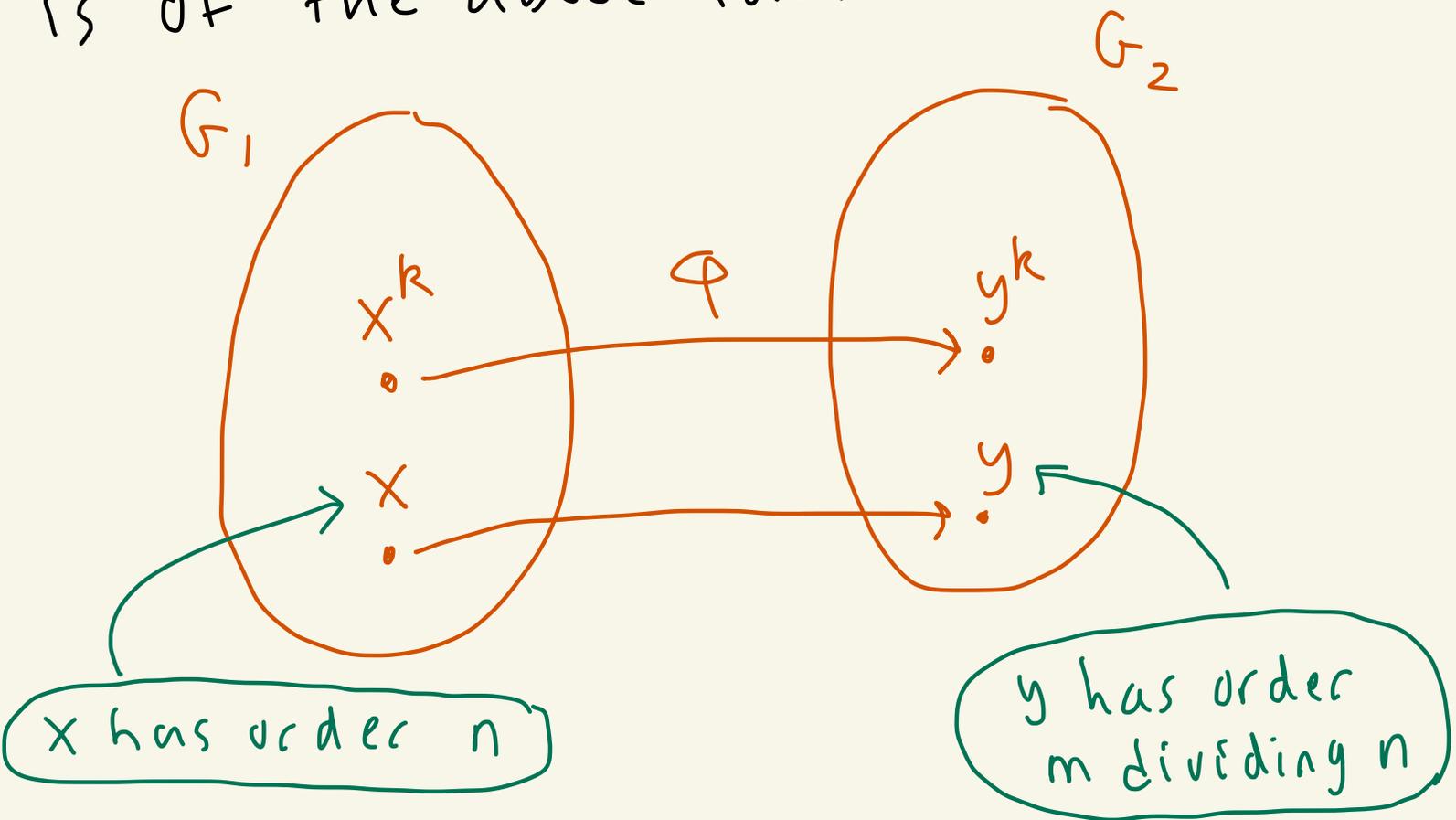


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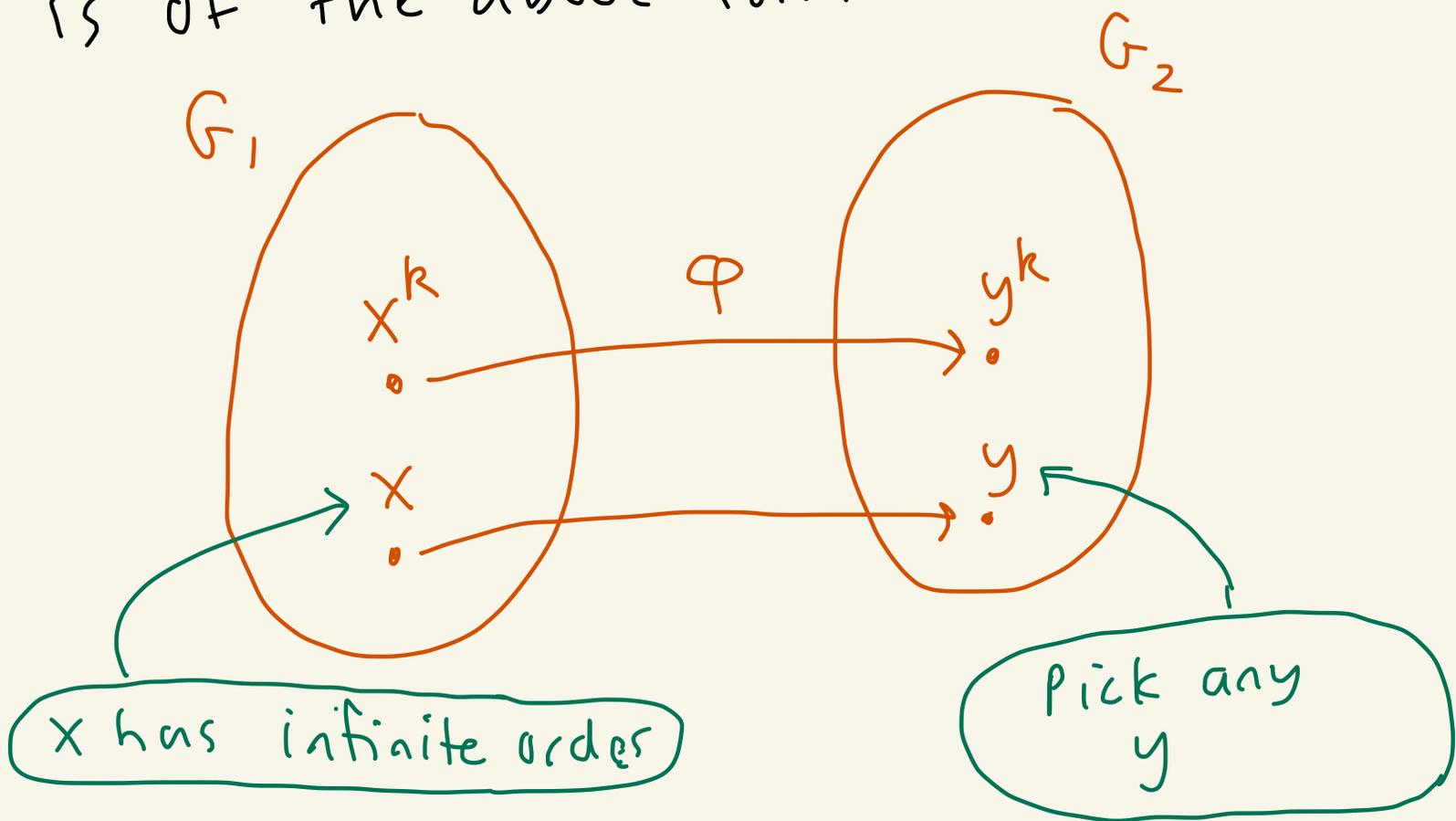
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case 2: Suppose x has infinite order

Pick any $y \in G_2$.

Then $\varphi: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ given by $\varphi(x^k) = y^k$ is a homomorphism. Furthermore, every homomorphism from G_1 to G_2 is of the above form.



proof:

Let $G = \langle x \rangle$ where $x \in G$.

case 1: Suppose x has order n .

Let $y \in G_2$ have order m .

Suppose m divides n .

Then $n = ml$ where $l \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Let $\varphi: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ be defined as $\varphi(x^k) = y^k$

First we show that φ is well-defined.

Suppose $x^a = x^b$ where $a \geq b$.

Then $x^{a-b} = e_1$ where e_1 is the identity of G_1 .

By the lemma $a-b = nq$ for some $q \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} y^{a-b} &= \varphi(x^{a-b}) = \varphi(x^{nq}) = \varphi(x^{mlq}) \\ &= y^{mlq} = (y^m)^{lq} = e_2^{lq} = e_2 \end{aligned}$$

So, $y^{a-b} = e_2$ where e_2 is the identity of G_2 .

By the lemma $a-b = mj$ where $j \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So, } \varphi(x^a) = y^a &= y^{b+mj} = y^b y^{mj} \\ &= y^b (y^m)^j = y^b e_2^j = y^b = \varphi(x^b) \end{aligned}$$

Thus if $x^a = x^b$ then $\varphi(x^a) = \varphi(x^b)$

and φ is well-defined.

Now we show that φ is a homomorphism.

Let $w, z \in G$,

Then $w = x^c$ and $z = x^d$ where $c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$$\text{So, } \varphi(wz) = \varphi(x^c x^d) = \varphi(x^{c+d}) = y^{c+d}$$

$$= y^c y^d = \varphi(x^c) \varphi(x^d) = \varphi(w) \varphi(z)$$

Thus φ is a homomorphism.

Now we show the furthermore part of the theorem.

Suppose that $\psi: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ is a homomorphism.

Let $y = \psi(x)$.

By induction and the fact that ψ is a homomorphism we get

$$\text{that } \psi(x^k) = y^k.$$

Let y have order m .

By the division algorithm
 $n = mq + r$ for some $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$
with $0 \leq r < m$.

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} e_2 = \varphi(e_1) &= \varphi(x^n) = \varphi(x^{mq+r}) \\ &= y^{mq+r} = (y^m)^q y^r = e_2^q y^r \\ &= y^r \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $y^r = e_2$.

Since y has order m and $0 \leq r < m$
we must have $r = 0$.

Thus, $n = mq$.

So m divides n .

This finishes case 1.

case 2: Exercise. (This is easier
than case 1 because there's no well-
defined part, the rest is similar) \square