

# Cyclic Groups

## Definition

Let  $G$  be group. Let  $a \in G$   
Then  $H = \{a^n / n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  is a subgroup of  $G$   
 $H$  is called the cyclic subgroup of  $G$   
generated by  $a$  and is denoted by  $\langle a \rangle$

## Examples:

① In  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ ,  $\langle 2 \rangle = 2\mathbb{Z}$  which is the group  
of even integers

$$2\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, 6, \dots\}$$

$$2^1 = 2; \quad 2^2 = 4; \quad 2^3 = 8 \dots\dots$$

Hence  $a^n = 2^n = 2\mathbb{Z} \in H, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . is a  
Subgroup of  $G$ .

② In the group  $G = (\mathbb{Z}_{12}, \oplus)$ ,  $\langle 3 \rangle = \{0, 3, 6, 9\}$

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

③ In the group  $G = \{1, i, -1, -i\}$   
 $\langle i \rangle = \{i, i^2, i^3, \dots\} = \{i, -1, -i, 1\} = G$ .

## Theorem 3.22.

Any cyclic group is abelian.

Let  $G = \langle a \rangle$  be a cyclic group

Let  $x, y \in G$  Then  $x = a^m$

for some  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$\text{Hence } xy = a^m \cdot a^n = a^{m+n} \\ = a^{n+m}$$

Hence  $G$  is abelian.

**Theorem 3.23**

A subgroup of cyclic group is cyclic.

Let  $G$  be a cyclic group.  $\langle a \rangle$  generated by  $a$  and let  $H$  be a subgroup of  $G$ .



To prove that  $H$  is cyclic

clearly every element of  $H$  is of the form  $a^n$  for some integer  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Let  $m$  be the smallest positive integer such that  $a^m \in H$ .

To prove that  $a^m$  is a generator of  $H$ .

Let  $b \in H$ . Then  $b = a^n$  for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Let  $n = mq + r$  where  $0 \leq r < m$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } b &= a^n \\ &= a^{mq+r} \\ &= a^{mq} \cdot a^r \\ &= (a^m)^q \cdot a^r \end{aligned}$$

$$\underbrace{b(a^m)^{-q}}_{H \cdot H} = \underbrace{a^r}_H \quad \longrightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

Now  $a^m \in H$ . since  $H$  is subgroup. then  $(a^m)^{-q} \in H$ , and also  $b \in H$ .

By  $\textcircled{1}$   $a^r \in H$  and  $0 \leq r < m$ .

$m$  is the smallest positive integer such that  $a^m \in H$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore r=0 \quad \text{Hence } b &= a^n = a^{mq+r} \\ &= a^{mq} \cdot a^r \\ &= a^{mq} \cdot a^0 \\ &= a^{mq} \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore$  every element of  $H$  is a power of  $(a^m)$

$H = \langle a^m \rangle$  and hence  $H$  is cyclic

### 3.7. Order of an element

Definition:

Let  $G$  be a group and let  $a \in G$ .  
The least positive integer  $n$  (if it exists) such that  $a^n = e$  is called order of  $a$ .  
If there is no positive integer  $n$  such that  $a^n = e$ , then the order of  $a$  is said to be infinite.

~~Theo~~ Example:  $\mathbb{D} (C^*, \cdot)$   $i$  is an element of order 4.

$$G = \{1, -1, i, -i\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} i^4 &= 1 \quad \text{least} \\ i^8 &= 1 \\ i^{12} &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore o(i) = 4$$

### Theorem 3.24

Let  $G$  be a group and  $a \in G$ .  
The order of  $a$  is same as the order of the cyclic group  $\langle a \rangle$  by a

Let  $a$  be an element of order  $n$ .  
Then  $a^n = e$ ,  $n$  is least positive integer.  
To prove that  $e, a, a^2, \dots, a^{n-1}$  are all distinct.

Suppose  $a^r = a^s$  where  $0 < r < s < n$ .  
 $a^r \cdot a^{-r} = a^s \cdot a^{-r}$   
 $e = a^{s-r}$  and  $s-r < n$ .

Since  $n$  is least positive integer,  
which contradicts the definition  
of the order of  $a$ .  $\therefore a^r \neq a^s$ .

Hence  $e, a, a^2, \dots, a^{n-1}$  are  $n$  distinct  
elements and  $\langle a \rangle = \{ e, a, a^2, \dots, a^{n-1} \}$   
which is of order  $n$ .

$$\therefore |G| = |a| = n.$$

If  $a$  is of infinite order the  
sequence of elements  $a, a^2, \dots, a^n, \dots$   
are all distinct and are in  $\langle a \rangle$ .  
Hence  $\langle a \rangle$  is an infinite group.

### Theorem 3.25

In a finite group every element is of  
finite order.

Let  $a \in G$ . If  $a$  is of infinite  
order, then  $\langle a \rangle$  is an infinite subgroup  
of  $G$ , which is a contradiction.

$G$  is finite, Hence the order of  $a$   
is finite.



### Theorem 3.26

Let  $G$  be a group and  $a$  be an element of order  $n$  in  $G$ . Then  $a^m = e$  iff  $n$  divides  $m$ .

We know that  $o(a) = n \Rightarrow a^n = e$

If  $n/m$  ( $n$  divides  $m$ ). Then  $m = nq$  where  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$  [ $q$  is positive integer].

$$a^m = a^{nq} = (a^n)^q = e^q = e$$

$$\therefore a^m = e$$

Conversely, let  $a^m = e$

Let  $m = nq + r$  where  $0 \leq r < n$

$$a^m = a^{nq+r} = a^{nq} \cdot a^r = e \cdot a^r = a^r = e$$

$$\therefore a^r = e \text{ and } 0 \leq r < n$$

$n$  is least positive integer such that  $a^n = e$  we have  $r = 0$ . Hence  $m = nq$

$\therefore$  Therefore  $n/m$ .

### Theorem 3.27

Let  $G$  be a group and  $a, b \in G$

- Then
- (i) Order of  $a =$  order of  $a^{-1}$
  - (ii) Order of  $a =$  Order of  $b^{-1}ab$
  - (iii) Order of  $ab =$  order of  $ba$

(i) Let  $a$  be an element of order  $n$ .

$$\text{Then } a^n = e$$

To prove  $(a^{-1})^n = e$  and  $n$  is least positive integer.

$$\text{Let } (a^{-1})^n = (a^n)^{-1} = e^{-1} = e$$

$$\therefore (a^{-1})^n = e$$

Now, if possible let  $0 < m < n$  and

$$(a^{-1})^m = e$$

$$(a^m)^{-1} = e \quad \text{Hence } a^m = e \text{ which}$$

Contradicts the definition of order of  $a$   
 $\therefore a^n = e$ . Thus  $n$  is the least positive  
integer such that  $(a^{-1})^n = e$ .

$\therefore$  The order of  $a^{-1}$  is  $n$ .

(ii)

we shall first prove that for any  
positive integer  $r$ , then  $(b^{-1}ab)^r = b^{-1}a^r b$ .

Let  $r=1$  then  $(b^{-1}ab)^1 = b^{-1}a^1 b$ .  $\rightarrow$  (1)

$$b^{-1}ab = b^{-1}ab.$$

$r=1$  is trivial true.

Now (1) is true for  $r=k$  so that

$$(b^{-1}ab)^k = b^{-1}a^k b. \quad \text{put } k = k+1.$$

$$\text{Then } (b^{-1}ab)^{k+1} = (b^{-1}ab)^k (b^{-1}ab)$$

$$= b^{-1}a^k b b^{-1}a b.$$

$$= b^{-1}a^k a b.$$

$$= b^{-1}a^{k+1} b.$$

Hence by induction (1) is true for all  
positive integers.

Let  $a$  be any element of order  $n$ . Then

$$a^n = e.$$

$$(b^{-1}ab)^n = b^{-1}a^n b = b^{-1}e b = e.$$

Now, if possible let  $0 < m < n$  and

$$(b^{-1}ab)^m = e.$$

$$\therefore (b^{-1}ab)^m \Rightarrow b^{-1}a^m b = e.$$

$$\Rightarrow b b^{-1} a^m b = b e \quad (\text{Multiply by } b$$

$$e a^m b = b \quad (\text{on both sides})$$

$$a^m b b^{-1} = b b^{-1} \quad (\text{post multiply by } b^{-1} \text{ on both sides})$$

$$a^m = e$$

which contradicts the definition of the order  $a$ . Thus  $n$  is least positive integer such that

$$(b^{-1} a b)^n = e.$$

$\therefore$  The order of  $b^{-1} a b$  is  $n$ .

(iii) put  $b = a$  and  $a = ab$ . Then.

$$(a^{-1} a b a) = (a^{-1} a) b a = e b a = b a.$$

$\therefore$  The order of  $ab =$  the order of  $ba$ .

### Theorem 3.28.

Let  $G$  be a group and let  $a$  be an element of order  $n$  in  $G$ . Then the order of  $a^s$ , where  $0 < s < n$  is  $n/d$ , where  $d$  is the greatest common divisor of  $n$  and  $s$ .

Let  $n/d = k$  and  $s/d = l$  so that  $k$  and  $l$  are relatively prime.

$$\text{Now, } (a^s)^k = a^{sk} = a^{ldk} = a^{ln} = (a^n)^l = e$$

Further if  $m$  is any positive integer

such that

$$(a^s)^m = e$$

$$a^{sm} = e$$

Since order of  $a$  is  $n$ , we have

(substituting  $m/sm$ )

$$a^n = e$$

$$a^{sm} = e \Rightarrow n/sm$$

$$\therefore kd/ldm = k/lm$$

But  $k$  and  $l$  are relatively prime.

Hence  $k/m$  so that  $m \geq k$ .

Thus  $k$  is the least positive integer such that  $(a^s)^k = e$ .

$$\therefore \text{order of } a^s = k = n/d.$$

## Cosets and Lagrange's Theorem

### Definition

Let  $H$  be a subgroup of a group  $G$ .  
Let  $a \in G$ . Then the set  $aH = \{ah \mid h \in H\}$  is called the left coset of  $H$  defined by  $a$  in  $G$ .

Similarly  $Ha = \{ha \mid h \in H\}$  is called the right coset of  $H$  defined by  $a$ .

### Examples:

2. Consider  $(\mathbb{Z}_{12}, \oplus)$ . Then  $H = \{0, 4, 8\}$  Subgroup of  $G$ .

The left cosets of  $H$  are given by

$$0+H = \{0, 4, 8\} = H.$$

$$1+H = \{1, 5, 9\}$$

$$2+H = \{2, 6, 10\}$$

$$3+H = \{3, 7, 11\}$$

$$4+H = \{4, 8, 0\} = H$$

$$5+H = \{5, 9, 1\} = 1+H.$$



Theorem. 3.29

Let  $G$  be a group and  $H$  be a subgroup of  $G$ . Then.

- (i)  $a \in H \Rightarrow aH = H$
- (ii)  $aH = bH \Rightarrow a^{-1}b \in H$
- (iii)  $a \in bH \Rightarrow a^{-1} \in Hb^{-1}$
- (iv)  $a \in bH \Rightarrow aH = bH$ .

Proof:

(i) Let  $a \in H$ . To prove that  $aH = H$ .

Let  $x \in aH$ . Then  
 $x = ah$  for all  $h \in H$

Now,  $a \in H$  and  $h \in H \Rightarrow ah = x \in H$ .

Since  $H$  is subgroup.

Hence  $aH \subseteq H$

Let  $x \in H$  then

$$e \in H$$
$$a(a^{-1}x) \in H$$

$$x = a(a^{-1}x) \in aH. \text{ Hence } H \subseteq aH.$$

Thus  $H = aH$ .

Conversely, let  $aH = H$ . Now,

$$a = ae \in aH \text{ for all } e \in H.$$

$\therefore a \in H$ .

(ii) Let  $aH = bH$ .

pre multiply by  $a^{-1}$ .

$$a^{-1}aH = a^{-1}(bH)$$
$$H = (a^{-1}b)H.$$

Since  $H$  is subgroup, then

$$a^{-1}b \in H \text{ by (i)}$$

$$H = (a^{-1}b)H = H$$

$$H = \{ \dots \} = H$$

Conversely let  $a^{-1}b \in H$ .

Then  $a^{-1}bH = H$  (by i)

(pre multiply by  $a$ )

$$(aa^{-1})bH = aH$$

$$bH = aH.$$

(ii) let  $a \in bH$ . To prove that  $aH = bH$ .

let  $x \in aH$

$$x = ah_1 \quad \text{for some } h_1 \in H. \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

also  $a \in bH \Rightarrow a = bh_2$  for some  $h_2 \in H$ .

Then

$$x = (bh_2)h_1 \quad \text{from } \textcircled{1}.$$

$$x = b(h_2h_1)$$

$$x = bh_3 \quad \text{for some } h_3 \in H$$

$$x \in bH.$$

$$\therefore aH \subseteq bH.$$

Now, let  $x \in bH$  Then

$$x = bh_1 \quad \text{for some } h_1 \in H.$$

Then also  $b \in aH \Rightarrow b = ah_2$  for some  $h_2 \in H$

$$x = (ah_2)h_1$$

$$x = a(h_2h_1)$$

$$x = ah_3 \quad \therefore h_3 \in H$$

$$x \in aH$$

$$\therefore bH \subseteq aH. \quad \text{Hence } aH = bH.$$

Conversely, let  $aH = bH$ .

Then  $a = ae \in aH$ .

$$a \in bH.$$

- (iii) Let  $ah \in bH$ . Then
- $$\Leftrightarrow a = bh \text{ for some } h \in H.$$
- $$\Leftrightarrow a^{-1} = (bh)^{-1}$$
- $$\Leftrightarrow a^{-1} = h^{-1}b^{-1}$$

Since  $H$  is subgroup of  $G$ .

$$\Leftrightarrow a^{-1} \in Hb^{-1}$$

**Theorem 3.30:**

Let  $H$  be a subgroup of  $G$ . Then

- (i) any two left cosets of  $H$  are either identical or disjoint
- (ii) Union of all the left cosets of  $H$  is  $G$ .
- (iii) the number of elements in any left coset  $aH$  is the same as the number of elements in  $H$ .

Proof:

- (i) Let  $aH$  and  $bH$  be two left cosets.

Suppose  $aH$  and  $bH$  are not disjoint

we claim that  $aH = bH$ .

Since  $aH$  and  $bH$  are not disjoint

$$aH \cap bH \neq \emptyset$$

There exists an element

$$c \in aH \cap bH.$$

$$c \in aH \text{ and } c \in bH.$$

$$c \in aH \text{ and } c \in bH \text{ since } H \text{ is sgr.}$$

$$cH = aH \quad cH = bH.$$

Hence  $aH = bH$ .

(ii) Let  $a \in G$ . Then

$a \in aH$ .

every element of  $G$  belongs to a left coset of  $H$ .

Hence the union of all the left cosets of  $H$  is  $G$ .

(iii) The map  $f: H \rightarrow aH$  defined by  $f(h) = ah$  is clearly bijection.

(a) To prove  $f$  is 1-1.

$$f(h_1) = f(h_2)$$

$$ah_1 = ah_2$$

$$h_1 = h_2 \quad (\text{by left cancellation law})$$

(b) To prove  $f$  is onto.

Choose  $ah \in aH$ .

$$h \in H.$$

By definition of ' $f$ ' is  $f(h) = ah$ .

$h$  is preimage of  $ah$ .

$f$  is onto.

Hence every left coset has the same number of elements as  $H$ .

Remark

Let  $H$  be a subgroup of  $G$ , we define a relation in  $G$  as follows.

Define  $a \sim b \Leftrightarrow a^{-1}b \in H$ .

Then  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation.

For  $a^{-1}a = e \in H$ . Hence  $a \sim a$ .

Hence  $\sim$  is reflexive.



$$\begin{aligned}
a \sim b &\Rightarrow a^{-1}b \in H \\
&\Rightarrow (a^{-1}b)^{-1} \in H \\
&\Rightarrow b^{-1}(a^{-1})^{-1} \in H \\
&\Rightarrow b^{-1}a \in H \\
&\Rightarrow b \sim a
\end{aligned}$$

Hence  $a \sim b \Rightarrow b \sim a$ .

Hence  $\sim$  is symmetric

Now

$a \sim b$  and  $b \sim c$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\Rightarrow a^{-1}b \in H \text{ and } b^{-1}c \in H \\
&\Rightarrow (a^{-1}b)(b^{-1}c) \in H \\
&\Rightarrow a^{-1}(bb^{-1})c \in H \\
&\Rightarrow a^{-1}ec \in H \\
&\Rightarrow a^{-1}c \in H \\
&\Rightarrow a \sim c
\end{aligned}$$

Hence  $\sim$  is transitive

Thus  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation.

Now we claim that equivalence class  $[a] = aH$ .

Let  $b \in [a]$  Then  $b \sim a \Rightarrow a^{-1}b \in H$

$$a^{-1}b \in H$$

$$a^{-1}b = h \text{ for some } h \in H$$

$$a a^{-1}b = ah$$

$$eb = ah$$

$$b = ah$$

(pre multiply by  $a$  on both sides)

Hence  $b \in aH$

Also,  $b \in aH$

$$\Rightarrow b = ah \text{ for some } h \in H.$$

$$\Rightarrow a^{-1}b = a^{-1}ah \text{ (pre multiply by } a^{-1} \text{ on both sides)}$$

$$\Rightarrow a^{-1}b = h$$

$$\Rightarrow a^{-1}b \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow a \sim b \Rightarrow b \sim a$$

$$\Rightarrow b \in [a]. \text{ Hence, } [a] = aH$$

### Theorem 3.31

Let  $H$  be a subgroup of  $G$ . The number of left cosets of  $H$  is the same as the number of right cosets of  $H$ .

Let  $L$  and  $R$  respectively denote the set of left and right cosets of  $H$ .

We define map  $f: L \rightarrow R$  by

$$f(aH) = Ha^{-1}$$

$f$  is well defined

$$\text{for } aH = bH \Rightarrow a^{-1}b \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow a^{-1} \in Hb^{-1}$$

$$Ha^{-1} = Hb^{-1}$$

$$f(aH) = f(bH)$$

$f$  is 1-1 for.

$$\text{if } f(aH) = f(bH) \text{ (3.29)}$$

$$\Rightarrow Ha^{-1} = Hb^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow a^{-1} \in Hb^{-1}$$

(by theorem 3.29)

$$\Rightarrow a^{-1} = hb^{-1} \text{ for some } h \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow (a^{-1})^{-1} = (hb^{-1})^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow a = b^* h^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow a \in bH$$

$$\Rightarrow aH = bH$$

(by theorem 2.29)

$f$  is onto. for every right coset  $Ha$  has a preimage under  $f$  namely  $a^{-1}H$ .

$$\text{let } Ha^{-1} \in R$$

$$H \in H, a^{-1} \in G$$

$$(a^{-1})^{-1} \in G$$

$$a \in G$$

$$aH \in L$$

$$\therefore f(aH) = Ha^{-1}$$

Hence  $f$  is a bijection from  $L$  to  $R$ .  
Hence the number of left cosets is the same as the number of right cosets.

### Definition

Let  $H$  be a subgroup of  $G$ . Then the number of distinct left or right cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  is called Index of  $H$  in  $G$  and is denoted by  $[G:H]$ .

Example:

$$\text{In } (\mathbb{Z}_8, \oplus), H = \{0, 4\} \text{ is a}$$

subgroup of the left cosets of  $H$  are given by,

$$\begin{cases} 0+H = \{0, 4\} \\ 1+H = \{1, 5\} \\ 2+H = \{2, 6\} \\ 3+H = \{3, 7\} \\ 4+H = \{4, 0\} = H \\ 5+H = \{5, 1\} = 1+H \end{cases}$$

These are the four distinct left cosets of  $H$ .

Hence the index of subgroup  $H$  is 4.

$$\frac{o(G)}{o(H)} = \frac{8}{2} = 4 //$$

### Theorem 3.32

#### Lagrange's theorem.

Let  $G$  be a finite group of order  $n$  and  $H$  be any subgroup of  $G$ . Then the order of  $H$  divides the order of  $G$ .

Let  $|H| = m$  that is  $o(H) = m$  and  $o(G) = n$  and  $[G:H] = r$ .

Then the number of distinct left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  is  $r$ .

By our known theorem

"the number of elements in any left coset  $aH$  is the same as the number of elements in  $H$ ."

Also these  $r$  left cosets are mutually disjoint, they have same number of elements namely  $m$  and their union is  $G$ .



$n = rm$   
Hence  $m$  divides  $n$ .

**Theorem 3.22**

The order of any element of a finite group  $G$  divides the order of  $G$ .

Let  $G$  be a group of order  $n$ .  
 $O(G) = n$ .

Let  $a \in G$  be an element of order  $m$ .  
 $O(a) = m$ .

Then the order of  $a$  is same as the order of the cyclic group  $\langle a \rangle$ .

that is  $O(a) = \langle a \rangle$ .

by our known theorem the number

"Let  $G$  be a finite group of order  $n$  and  $H$  be any subgroup of  $G$ .

Then the order of  $H$  divides order of  $G$ .

The order of subgroup  $\langle a \rangle$  divides  $O(G)$

$m$  divides  $n$ .

**Theorem 3.34**

Every group of prime order is cyclic.

Let  $G$  be a group of order  $p$ .

$O(G) = p$  where  $p$  is prime

Let  $a \in G$  and  $a \neq e$



$$r^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

also  $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv r^{\phi(n)} \pmod{n}$

So that

$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

Since " $\equiv$ " is transitive.

### Theorem 3.38.

A group  $G$  has no proper subgroups iff it is a cyclic group of prime order.

Proof

Suppose  $G$  is a <sup>cyclic</sup> group of prime order. To prove  $G$  has no proper subgroups.

$$\text{Let } o(G) = p$$

Then by Lagrange's theorem  $o(H) \mid o(G)$

Since  $o(G) = p$  where  $p$  is prime.

$$o(H) = 1 \text{ or } p$$

$$H = \{e\} \text{ (or) } H = G$$

$H$  is a improper subgroup.

Hence  $G$  has no proper subgroup.

Converse part.

Given  $G$  has no proper subgroup.

To prove  $G$  is a cyclic group of prime order.

Suppose  $G$  is not cyclic, let  $a \in G$   
 $a \neq e$ .

Then the cyclic group  $\langle a \rangle$  is a proper subgroup of  $G$ , which is contradiction.

Hence  $G$  is cyclic.

Also  $G$  cannot be infinite, for an infinite cyclic group contains a proper subgroup  $\langle a^2 \rangle$ . Hence  $G$  must be of finite order, say  $n$ .

To prove  $n$  is prime.

If possible let  $n$  be a composite number, let  $n = pq$  where  $p, q > 1$ .

Let  $a \in G$  be a generator of the group.

Then  $\langle a^p \rangle$  is a subgroup of order  $q$ , and hence proper subgroup of  $G$  which is a contradiction.

Hence  $n$  is prime.

$\therefore G$  is a cyclic group of prime order.

### Theorem 3.37

#### Fermat's Theorem

Let  $p$  be a prime number and  $a$  be any integer relatively prime to  $p$ .

Then  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

Since  $p$  is prime, and let  $a$  be any integer relatively prime to  $p$ .

$$\phi(p) = p-1$$

Then by Euler's theorem.

$$a^{\phi(p)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

We know that  $\phi(p) = p-1$

$$\text{Hence, } a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$