Math 375 Week 3

3.1 The Center and Centralizer

There are two subgroups of any group G that are easily defined and easily confused

DEFINITION 1 If G is a group then the center of G is the set

$$C(G) = \{ a \in G | ax = xa \ \forall x \in G \}.$$

Note that the center consists of the elements of G which commute with all elements of G.

- **THEOREM 2** Show that C(G) is a subgroup of G.
 - PROOF Let's use the two step method.
 - CLOSURE Let $a, b \in C(G)$. Show that $ab \in C(G)$. For all $x \in G$,

$$(ab)x = a(bx) = a(xb) = (ax)b = x(ab)$$

so $ab \in C(G)$.

INVERSES Let $a \in C(G)$. Show that $a^{-1} \in C(G)$. But

$$ax=xa\Rightarrow (ax)^{-1}=(xa)^{-1}\Rightarrow x^{-1}a^{-1}=a^{-1}x^{-1}$$

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

- **EXAMPLE 1** If G is abelian what is C(G)?
- **EXAMPLE 2** Show that $\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix} \in C(GL(2, \mathbf{R}))$ where $a \neq 0$. In fact, it can be shown that $C(GL(2), \mathbf{R}) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix} \middle| a \neq 0 \right\}.$

EXAMPLE 3 $C(D_3) = \{e = r_0\}$ since non-zero rotations don't commute with flips.

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- **EXAMPLE 4** For an element to be in the center of G its row and column in the Cayley table for G must be identical. Clearly the identity must always be in the center.
- **EXAMPLE 5** What is $C(V_4)$? What is $C(Q_8)$? Answers: V_4 and $\{I, -I\}$, respectively.
- **DEFINITION 3** Let G be a group and let $a \in G$. The centralizer of G is the set

$$C(a) = \{g \in G | ga = ag\} = \{g \in G | gag^{-1} = a\}$$

- **EXAMPLE 6** For an element g to be in the centralizer of a, the g entry of the a-row and a-column must be the same.
- **THEOREM 4** C(a) is a subgroup of G.
 - PROOF Use the one-step method. Note that C(a) is never empty since it always contains e. So let $g, h \in C(a)$. Is $gh^{-1} \in C(a)$?

$$(gh^{-1})a(gh^{-1})^{-1} = g(h^{-1}ah)g^{-1}.$$

Now since $h \in C(a)$, then $hah^{-1} = a \Rightarrow a = h^{-1}ah$ using left and right multiplication by h^{-1} and h, respectively. So $h^{-1} \in C(a)$ (so maybe we should have done two-step method). So then from above,

 $(gh^{-1})a(gh^{-1})^{-1} = g(h^{-1}ah)g^{-1} = gag^{-1} = a$

since $g \in C(a)$. So $gh^{-1} \in C(a)$, too.

(ii) Inverses: use the method as in center proof.

EXAMPLE 7 In D_3 , $C(a) = \{a, r_0\}, C(r_{120}) = \{r_0, r_{120}, r_{240}\}.$

EXAMPLE 8 In $GL(2, \mathbf{R})$ find $C\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}\right)$. By direct computation:

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix} \mid a, b \in \mathbf{R} \right\}.$$

EXAMPLE 9 In an abelian group G, C(a) = G.

EXAMPLE 10 What is C(J) in Q_8 ?

Note that we can think of both the centralizer and the center as a measure of the abelianness of the element or the group in question.

EXAMPLE 11 It is clear that

$$C(G) = \bigcap_{a \in G} C(a)$$

since $C(G) \subseteq C(a)$ for any *a* and if $g \in C(a)$ for all *a* then it commutes with every element in *G* so it is in (*G*).

3.2 Cyclic Subgroups

Last time we were able to derive a finite subgroup test because if H were a finite closed subset of a group G, powers of the elements of H cycled around on themselves.

EXAMPLE 12 In (\mathbf{Z}_6, \oplus) , let's examine the powers of 3, 4, and 5 explicitly.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{a}) & |3| = 2 \\ \mathbf{b}) & |4| = 3 \\ \mathbf{c}) & |5| = 6 \end{aligned} \begin{cases} 1(3) = 3\\ 2(3) = 0\\ 1(4) = 4\\ 2(4) = 2\\ 3(4) = 0\\ 1(5) = 5\\ 2(5) = 4\\ 3(5) = 3\\ 4(5) = 2\\ 5(5) = 1\\ 6(5) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

In this last case all of the elements of \mathbb{Z}_6 are *multiples* (i.e., powers) of of 5. This is not the case with 3 or 4.

Our next goal is to make the notion of generation by powers precise.

DEFINITION 5 Let $x \in G$, a group. The set of powers (multiples) of x in G is denoted by $\langle x \rangle$. In particular:

 $\langle x \rangle = \{x^n | n \in \mathbf{Z}\}$ (for multiplicative groups) $\langle x \rangle = \{nx | n \in \mathbf{Z}\}$ (for additive groups)

EXAMPLE a) in \mathbb{Z}_6

 $<3>=\{3, 0\}$ $<5>=\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$

b) In D_3

 $\langle v \rangle = \{v, r_0\}$ $\langle r_{120} \rangle = \{r_{120}, r_{240}, r_0\}$

- c) Find < 5 > in U(12).
- d) Find $\langle i \rangle$ in C^{*}.

It is worth repeating, even though $\langle x \rangle = \{\dots, x^{-2}, x^{-1}, x^0 = e, x^1, x^2, \dots\}$ would seem to have an infinite number of elements, it may only be finite if powers of the elements cycle around on themselves.

THEOREM 6 Let G be a group. Then $\langle x \rangle$ is a subgroup of G.

Let's use the one step method. Pick two elements in $g, h \in \langle x \rangle$. What do they look like? $g = x^n$ and $h = x^m$. Notice $gh^{-1} = x^n(x^m)^{-1} = x^n x^{-m} = x^{n-m} \in \langle x \rangle$.

Note: It is obvious that $|x| = |\langle x \rangle|$ since both numbers simply count the distinct powers(multiples) of x.

EXAMPLE a) In $U(12), <5>=\{5,1\}.$

- **b)** In \mathbf{Z}_{12} , $< 3 >= \{3, 6, 9, 0\}$.
- c) In Q_8 , < K > = < I, K, -I, -K >.
- d) In Z, what is < 1 >? What about < 2 >?
- **DEFINITION 7** If there is some element $x \in G$ such that $\langle x \rangle = G$, then G is called a **cyclic** group. In other words, $G = \{x^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. We call x a **generator** of G.

Note: Obviously if $\langle x \rangle = G$, then |x| = |G|.

- **EXAMPLE 15** Which of the following are cyclic: D_3 , V_4 , Q_8 , \mathbf{Z} , \mathbf{Z}_n , \mathbf{Q}^* , U(12), U(5), and \mathbf{R} .
 - **LEMMA 8** If x is a generator of G, then so is x^{-1} .

PROOF Let $g \in G$. We must show that g can be written as some power of x^{-1} . Since G is generated by x, then for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, $g = x^k = (x^{-1})^{-k}$.

- **EXAMPLE 16** Find all the generators of \mathbb{Z}_8 .
 - SOLUTION Certainly 1 is hence so is 7. 2 is not, so 6 is not. 3 is, so 5 is. 4 is not and 0 is not.

THEOREM 9 Let a be an element of a group G.

- **a)** If $|a| = \infty$, then $a^j = a^k \iff k = j$.
- **b)** If |a| = n, then $a^j = a^k \iff n \mid k j \iff k = j \mod n$.

PROOF A Note that

$$a^{j} = a^{k} \iff e = a^{k-j}$$
$$\iff k - j = 0 \qquad (\text{since } |a| = \infty)$$
$$\iff k = j$$

PROOF B By the division algorithm, k - j = qn + r where $0 \le r < n$.

$$a^{j} = a^{k} \iff e = a^{k-j}$$

$$\iff e = a^{qn+r} = a^{qn}a^{r} = (a^{n})^{q}a^{r}$$

$$\iff e = a^{r}$$

$$\iff r = 0$$

$$\iff k - j = qn$$

$$\iff n \mid k - j.$$

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

$$|a| = n \text{ and } r < n$$

COROLLARY 10 Let |a| = n. If $a^k = e$, then $n \mid k$.

PROOF Notice $a^k = e = a^0$, so by the theorem $n \mid k = 0$.

Gallian's comments in the text about the theorem in the finite case are crucial. In the case where |a| = n, then the group operation in the cyclic group $\langle a \rangle$ amounts to addition mod n. That is, if $k + j = r \mod n$, then $a^k a^j = a^r$, no matter what the particular element represents. (Example: $i \in C^*$, $K \in Q_8$, and $r_{90} \in D_4$ all have order four. And the little cyclic subgroups that each generates are essentially the same.) This leads to the notion of an *isomorphism* which we will discuss in great detail later. A similar remark is true when $|a| = \infty$. Then the group operation in $\langle a \rangle$ boils down to regular addition in \mathbf{Z} since $a^j a^k = a^{j+k}$. The whole point is that both \mathbf{Z} and \mathbf{Z}_n are well understood, even by you. We want to find out when other groups are "just like them."

The first part of the next result is **not in the text**. But it is crucial.

THEOREM 11 (Generators of Finite Cyclic Groups: Sam Park's Thm) Let $G = \langle a \rangle$ be a cyclic group of order n.

a)
$$|a^k| = \frac{\operatorname{lcm}(k,n)}{k} = \frac{n}{\operatorname{gcd}(k,n)}.$$

b) a^k is also a generator of G if and only if gcd(k, n) = 1.

PROOF A By the corollary

$$(a^k)^j = e \iff a^{kj} = e \iff n \mid kj.$$

Therefore $|a^k| = j \iff kj$ is the smallest multiple of k divisible $n \iff kj$ is the smallest common multiple of n and $k \iff kj = \operatorname{lcm}(k, n)$. Therefore,

$$|a^{k}| = j = \frac{kj}{j} = \frac{\operatorname{lcm}(k,n)}{k}$$
$$= \frac{\operatorname{lcm}(k,n) \cdot \operatorname{gcd}(k,n)}{k \cdot \operatorname{gcd}(k,n)} = \frac{kn}{k \cdot \operatorname{gcd}(k,n)} = \frac{n}{\operatorname{gcd}(k,n)}$$

PROOF B Since $\langle a^k \rangle \leq \langle a \rangle = G$, to show that $\langle a^k \rangle = \langle a \rangle$, it suffices to show that $|\langle a^k \rangle| = |\langle a \rangle| = n$. But

$$|\langle a^k \rangle| = |a^k| = \frac{n}{\gcd(k,n)} = n \iff \gcd(k,n) = 1.$$

Since \mathbf{Z}_n is cyclic his theorem means that

- **COROLLARY 12** An integer k is a generator of \mathbf{Z}_n if and only if gcd(k, n) = 1.
 - **EXAMPLE 17** Find the order of each element of \mathbf{Z}_{12} . Which are generators? (Answer: 1, 5, 7, and 1 which are exactly the elements of U(12). More generally, the generators of \mathbf{Z}_n are the elements of U(n).
 - **EXAMPLE 18** Suppose that $G = \langle a \rangle$ is cyclic of order 24. What are its generators?
 - **EXAMPLE** a) What is the order of 756 in \mathbb{Z}_{1155} ? Well, in the first week of class we saw gcd(1155, 756) = 21. Therefore

$$|756| = \frac{1155}{\gcd(756, 1155)} = \frac{1155}{21} = 55.$$

- e) What is the order of a^{756} in $G = \langle a \rangle$ if |a| = 1155? Same as above: 21.
- **THEOREM 13** (Fundamental Theorem of Cyclic Groups) Let $G = \langle a \rangle$ be a cyclic group, then:
 - **a**) every subgroup of G is cyclic;
 - **b)** if | < a > | = n, then the order of any subgroup of < a > is a divisor of n;

c) if k is a divisor of $n = | \langle a \rangle |$, then the group $\langle a \rangle$ has exactly one subgroup of order k, namely $\langle a^{n/k} \rangle$.

Let's look at what this theorem means before we prove it.

- 3.2 Cyclic Subgroups
- **EXAMPLE 20** Z is cyclic, so every subgroup of Z has the form < n >. But this is just the set of multiples of n. For example, < 2 > is the set of even integers, < 3 > is the set of integers divisible by 3. Now we also know that the intersection of two subgroups is again a subgroup.
 - b) What is $< 12 > \cap < 8 >$? Well, it must be < n > since Z is cyclic. It is a set of multiples common to both < 8 > and < 12 >. Therefore $< 12 > \cap < 8 > = < lcm(8, 12) >$.
 - c) More generally, $\langle m \rangle \cap \langle n \rangle = \langle \operatorname{lcm}(m, n) \mod n \rangle$.
- **EXAMPLE 21** Now consider $G = \mathbb{Z}_{24}$. It is cyclic and generated by 1. We can list all of its subgroups because we know all of its divisors: 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12, and 24.

Order 24: $< 1 >= \{0, 1, \dots, 23\} = < 23 >=?$

Order 12: $\langle 2 \rangle = \{0, 2, 4, \dots, 22\} = \langle 22 \rangle = ?$ Now we need $2 = \gcd(k, n)$ for k to generate this subgroup of order 12.

Order 8: $<3>=\{0,3,6,\ldots,21\}=<21>=?$

Order 6: $< 6 >= \{0, 6, 12, 18\} = < 18 >= ?$

Order 3: $< 8 >= \{0, 8, 16\} = < 16 >$

Order 2: $< 12 >= \{0, 12\}$

Order 1: $< 0 >= \{0\}$

Notice that in each case, the subgroup of order k had 24/k as one of its generators.

d) We can reinterpret this list for a multiplicative group $G = \langle a \rangle$ of order 24.

 $\begin{array}{l} \text{Order } 24: \, < a >= \, \{e = a^0, a^1, \ldots, a^{23}\} = < a^{23} > \\ \text{Order } 12: \, < a^2 >= \, \{e, a^2, a^4, \ldots, a^{22}\} = < a^{22} > \\ \text{Order } 8: \, < a^3 >= \, \{e, a^3, a^6, \ldots, a^{21}\} = < a^{21} > \\ \text{Order } 6: \, < a^6 >= \, \{e, a^6, a^{12}, a^{18}\} = < a^{18} > \\ \text{Order } 3: \, < a^8 >= \, \{e, a^8, a^{16}\} = < a^{16} > \\ \text{Order } 2: \, < a^{12} >= \, \{e, a^{12}\} \\ \text{Order } 1: \, < e >= \, \{e\} \end{array}$

- **EXAMPLE 22** Suppose that a finite cyclic group $G = \langle a \rangle$ has exactly three distinct subgroups: G itself, a subgroup of order 7, and $\{e\}$. What is the order of G?
 - SOLUTION What do we know? Let |G| = n. We know that 7 | n, and of course 1 | n and n | n? Can any other k divide n? Thus, n is a power of 7, i.e., $n = 7^m$. What must m be? Can't be 0 or 1, could be 2. Why can't it be higher than 2?
 - **PROOF** To prove the theorem we proceed in steps.

(A) Let H be any subgroup of G. If $H = \{e\}$, then $H = \langle e \rangle$ and so is cyclic. If H is not $\{e\}$, then H contains elements of the form a^k where $k \neq 0$. Of course if $a^k \in H$, then $a^{-k} \in H$ and either k or -k is positive. By Well-Ordering, there is a smallest positive integer d such that $a^d \in H$. By closure, it is clear that $\langle a^d \rangle \leq H$ We will now show that $\langle a^d \rangle = H$.

Let $h \in H$. Then $h \in G$, $h = a^k$ for some k. By the division algorithm:

$$k = qd + r \qquad 0 \le r < d.$$

Next since $a^d \in H$, then $(a^d)^{-q} = a^{-qd} \in H$. Therefore,

$$a^{-qd}h = a^{-qd}a^k = a^{-qd}a^{qd+r} = a^r \in H$$
 $0 \le r < d.$

If $r \neq 0$ this contradicts the choice of d as the minimal power of x in H. So we must have r = 0 and therefore k = qd. Thus

$$h = a^k = a^{qd} = (a^d)^q \in \langle a^d \rangle$$

(B) From (a) any subgroup H of $G = \langle a \rangle$ is cyclic, so $H = \langle a^d \rangle$. But then

$$|H| = |\langle a^d \rangle| = |a^d| = \frac{n}{\gcd(n,d)}$$

so $n = |H| \cdot \operatorname{gcd}(n, d)$. But then |H| | n.

(C) Let k be any divisor of n, so kd = n and d = n/k. We must show that there is only one subgroup of order k. First we find one such subgroup. Notice that $| < a^d > | = \frac{n}{\gcd(n,d)} = \frac{n}{d} = k$. So if $H = \langle a^d \rangle$, then $|H| = |\langle a^d \rangle| = k$.

Next, let H' be some other subgroup of order k. (To show H = H'.) From (a), $H' = \langle a^{d'} \rangle$ for some d' and from (b)

$$\frac{n}{\gcd(n,d')} = |H'| = k = \frac{n}{d}.$$

Therefore,

$$gcd(n,d') = d \Rightarrow d = kn + md' \Rightarrow a^d = a^{kn+md'} = a^{md'}$$

But then

$$a^{\,d'} = a^{m\,d} = a^{d^{\,m}} \in < a^d > \Rightarrow < a^{\,d'} > \leq < a^d >$$

by closure. But

$$| < a^{d'} > | = |H'| = |H| = | < a^{d} > |$$

so we must have $H = \langle a^{d'} \rangle = \langle a^{d} \rangle = H$.

- 3.2 Cyclic Subgroups
- **EXAMPLE** a) List the subgroups of Z_{24} . Illustrate their relation to each other with a schematic diagram called a **lattice**. Do the same for Z_{30} and Z_{20} .
 - **b)** Show that in Z_n we have $\langle k \rangle \cap \langle m \rangle = \langle \operatorname{lcm}(k, m) \mod n \rangle$, for example in \mathbb{Z}_{24} we have: $\langle 6 \rangle \cap \langle 8 \rangle = \langle 0 \rangle$, etc. (Show how this appears in the lattice. Also note that the smallest subgroup containing $\langle k \rangle$ and $\langle m \rangle$ is $\langle \operatorname{gcd}(k, m) \mod n \rangle$.)
- **EXAMPLE 24** If $G = \langle x \rangle$ and has order 225, find the order of the subgroup $\langle x^{90} \rangle$. Solution $|\langle x^{90} \rangle| = 225/\gcd(225,90) = 225/45 = 5$. Notice that $\langle x^{45} \rangle = \langle x^{90} \rangle$ since there is only one subgroup of order 5 of G.
- **EXAMPLE 25** Show that every group of order 3 must be cyclic. (Write out the Cayley table.)