

Math 110B (Algebra)

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These are my lecture notes for Math 110B (Algebra), which is the second course in Algebra taught by Nicolle Gonzales. The textbook for this class is *Abstract Algebra: An Introduction, 3rd edition* by Hungerford.

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1.1 Groups

- Algebra \rightarrow study of mathematical structure.
- Rings \leftrightarrow “numbers” e.g. $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{Z}_p$
2 operations $(+, \cdot)$

Question 1.1: What happens if we have only 1 operation (either \cdot or $+$ but not both)?
What kind of structure is this more basic setup?

Answer: Groups! It turns out groups encode the mathematical structures of the symmetries in nature.

Definition 1.2 (Group)

A group $(G, *)$ is a nonempty set with a binary operation $*$: $G \times G \rightarrow G$ that satisfies

1. (Closure): $a * b \in G \quad \forall a, b \in G$
2. (Associativity): $(a * b) * c = a * (b * c) \quad \forall a, b, c \in G$
3. (Identity): $\exists e \in G$ such that $e * a = a = a * e \quad \forall a \in G$
4. (Inverse): $\forall a \in G, \exists d \in G$ such that $d * a = e = a * d$

Note:

- If $*$ is addition, we just divide $*$ by the usual $+$ sign. In this case

$$e = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad d = -a$$

- If the operation $*$ is multiplication, we just divide $*$ by the usual \cdot sign. In this case

$$e = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad d = a^{-1}$$

- Be aware that sometimes $*$ is neither.

Definition 1.3 (Abelian)

If the $*$ operation is commutative, i.e. $a * b = b * a$, then we say that G is abelian (named after the mathematician N.H. Abel)

Definition 1.4 (Order, Finite Group vs. Infinite Group)

The order of a group G , denoted $|G|$, is the number of elements it contains (as a set).
Thus, G is a finite group if $|G| < \infty$
and G is an infinite group if $|G| = \infty$

Examples 1.5 (Examples of a group)

1. Rings where you “forget” multiplication.
 $\rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}, +)$ integers with $*$ = $+$, $(\mathbb{R}[X], +)$, etc.
Note: $(\mathbb{Z}, *)$ with $*$ = \cdot is not a group. Why?

Theorem 1.6

Every ring is an abelian group under addition.

Proof. $e = 0$, inverse $= -a$ for each $a \in R$. □

Fact: If $R \neq 0$ then (R, \cdot) is never a group since 0 has no multiplicative inverse.

Examples 1.7 (More examples of a group)

2. Fields without zero.

Theorem 1.8

Let \mathbb{F}^* denote the nonzero elements of a field \mathbb{F} . Then (\mathbb{F}^*, \cdot) is an abelian group.

Recall: A unit in a ring R is an element $a \in R$ with a multiplicative inverse $a^{-1} \in R$ such that $aa^{-1} = 1 = a^{-1}a$.

Theorem 1.9

The set of units \mathcal{U} inside a ring R is a group under multiplication.

Examples 1.10 (More examples of a group cont.)

3. $\mathcal{U}_n = \{m \mid (m, n) = 1\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_n$ is also a group, but under multiplication,

$n = 4$ $\mathbb{Z}_4 = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$, $\mathcal{U}_4 = \{1, 3\}$

$(\mathbb{Z}_4, +)$ and (\mathcal{U}_4, \cdot) are groups with different binary operation!

$n = 6$ $\mathbb{Z}_6 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, $\mathcal{U}_6 = \{1, 5\}$

(\mathcal{U}_6, \cdot) is a group

- $1 \cdot 5 = 5 \pmod{6} \in \mathcal{U}_6$ (closure)
- $1 = e$ (identity)
- $1 \cdot 1 = 1$, $5 \cdot 5 = 25 \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ (inverse)
- Associativity is clear

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2.1 Groups (Cont'd)

Examples 2.1

4. $(M_{n \times m}(\mathbb{F}), +) = m \times n$ matrices over \mathbb{F} under addition
 e = zero matrix, inverse of a matrix $-M$

Definition 2.2 (General linear group)

Denote by $GL_n(\mathbb{F})$ the set of $n \times n$ invertible matrices under multiplication. ($\det(A) \neq 0 \quad \forall A \in GL_n$)

- Closed: $\det(A \cdot B) = \det(A) \cdot \det(B) \neq 0 \implies AB \in GL_n \quad \forall A, B \in GL_n$
- Associativity: Obvious.
- Identity: $\det(I) = 1 \neq 0 \implies I \in GL_n(\mathbb{F})$
- Inverse: $A \in GL_n; \det(A^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \neq 0 \implies A^{-1} \in GL_n(\mathbb{F})$

Fact: $GL_n(\mathbb{F})$ is a group for any field \mathbb{F} .

Comment:

- $\det(A + B) \neq \det(A) + \det(B)$
- $\det(AB) = \det(A) \cdot \det(B)$

Definition 2.3 (Special linear group)

Let $SL_n(\mathbb{F})$ denote the set of invertible matrices over \mathbb{F} with $\det = 1$

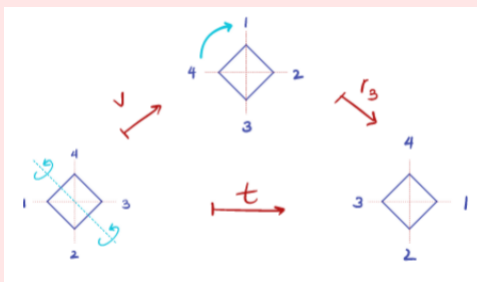
Exercise. Show that $SL_n(\mathbb{F})$ is a group.

2.2 Symmetries

Example 2.4 (Symmetries over a square)

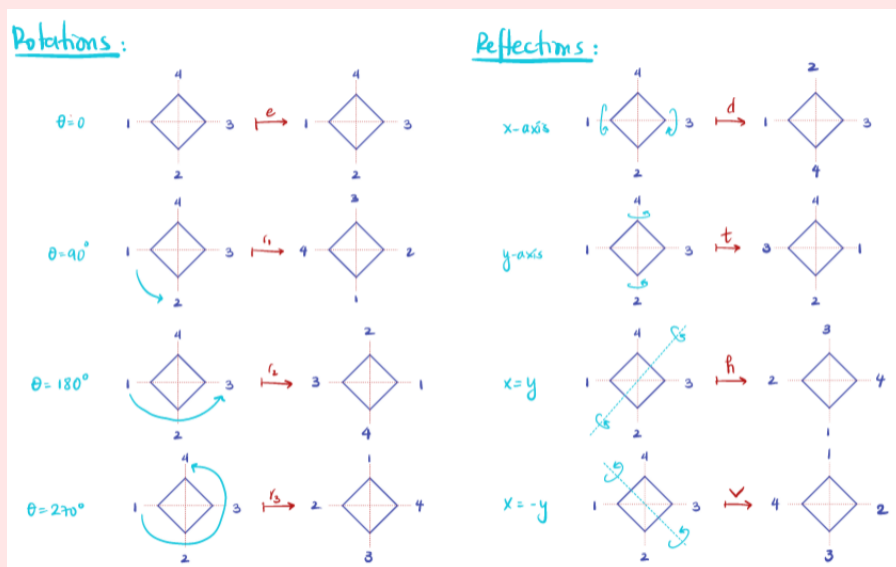
Rotations and reflection These operations (maps) form a group under composition. So $*$ = 0. For instance, suppose

$$r_3 \circ t = h$$



The group of rotations/reflections of a square is called Dihedral Group of degree 4, denoted D_4 .

$$D_4 = \{r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4, d, t, h, v \mid \text{under } \circ\}$$

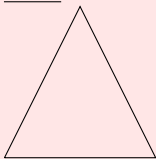


These are Professor Gonzales's lovely drawings.

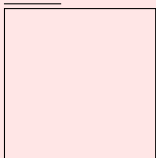
Example 2.5 (Symmetries of a regular polygon with n sides)

Called the dihedral groups of degree n , D_n .

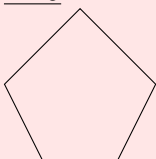
- $\underline{n=3}$



- $\underline{n=4}$



- $\underline{n=5}$



- $\underline{n=6}$

etc...

Observe: $|D_n| = 2n$ because you have n -axes of reflection and n -angles of notation.

Example 2.6 (The symmetric group)

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and S_n be the set of all permutations of the numbers $\{1, \dots, n\}$.

Note: any permutation of $\{1, \dots, n\}$ can be thought of as a bijection $\{1, \dots, n\} \rightarrow \{1, \dots, n\}$.

\implies This allows us to compose permutations just like functions.

$\implies S_n$ is a group!

Definition 2.7 (Symmetric group)

The symmetric group S_n is the group of permutations of the integers of the integers $\{1, \dots, n\}$.

Given any permutation $\sigma \in S_n$,

$$\sigma : \{1, \dots, n\} \rightarrow \{1, \dots, n\},$$

$$i \mapsto \sigma_i$$

$$\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \cdots & n-1 & n \\ \sigma_1 & \sigma_2 & \cdots & \sigma_{n-1} & \sigma_n \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow e = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \\ 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sigma^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \\ \sigma_1^{-1} & \sigma_2^{-1} & \cdots & \sigma_n^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

Group operation: function composition.

Example 2.8n=2:

$$e = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \tau = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\tau \circ \tau = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \circ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = e$$

$$\tau \circ e = \tau$$

$$e \circ \tau = \tau$$

$$e \circ \tau = e$$

 $\implies S_2 = \{e, \tau\}$ is a group

$$e^{-1} = e$$

$$\tau^{-1} = \tau$$

Associativity: obvious because of function composition

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3.1 Symmetries (Cont'd)

Example 3.1

$n=3$ S_3 : permutations of $\{1, 2, 3\}$

$$e = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \tau_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \tau_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \tau_{21} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \tau_{12} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\tau_{121} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\tau_1 \circ \tau_2 \circ \tau_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \tau_{121}$$

Note: $\tau_{21} = \tau_2 \circ \tau_1$, $\tau_{12} = \tau_1 \circ \tau_2$

$\tau_{21} \neq \tau_{12} \implies S_3$ is not abelian!

Exercise. τ_{212} ?

3.2 Direct Product of Groups

Definition 3.2 (Direct product)

Given $(G, *)$, (H, \star) both groups define the binary operation:

$$\begin{aligned} (G \times H) \times (G \times H) &\rightarrow G \times H \\ (g, h) \square (g', h') &\mapsto (g * g', h \star h') \end{aligned}$$

Side note: (S, \odot)

$\odot: S \times S \rightarrow S \implies S$ group

Example 3.3

$S_2 \times D_4$:

$$(\tau_1, r_{270^\circ}) \square (\tau_1, v) = (\tau_1 \circ \tau_1, r_{270^\circ} v) = (e, t)$$

Example 3.4

$(\mathbb{R}, +) \times (\mathbb{R}, \cdot)$

$$(5, 2) \square (-5, \pi) = (0, 2\pi)$$

Example 3.5

$\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$ $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$.

$$(a, b) \square (a', b') = (\underbrace{a + a'}_{\text{mod } n}, \underbrace{b + b'}_{\text{mod } m})$$

$$\begin{aligned} (5, 5) \square (2, 2) &= (5 + 2, 5 + 2) \\ &= (7, 1) \end{aligned}$$

3.3 Properties of Groups

Notation: Going forward, we omit $*$ in the notation: $(G, *) \rightarrow G$. Use multiplicative notation for abstract groups. Instead $a * b \rightarrow ab$.

$$\underbrace{a * a * a * a \cdots * a}_{n \text{ times}} \rightarrow a^n$$

However, for very explicit groups like

$(\mathbb{Z}, +)$, $(\mathbb{R}, +)$, $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$, etc, we use additive notation. ($*$ = $+$)

$$a * b \rightarrow a + b$$

$$\underbrace{a * \cdots * a}_{n \text{ times}} \rightarrow n \cdot a$$

(Review notation on page 198 of book)

Theorem 3.6

G group, $a, b, c \in G$. Then

1. $e \in G$ is unique
2. if $ab = ac$ or $ba = ca \implies b = c$
3. $\forall a \in G : a^{-1}$ is unique.

Proof.

1. Suppose $\exists e' \in G$ s.t $e \neq e'$ but $e'a = a = ae' \forall a \in G$. \implies let $a = e \implies e'e = e = ee'$

On the other hand $e \cdot e' = e' = e'e$
 $\implies e = e'$

2. $ab = ac, \quad a, b, c \in G$.

Since $a^{-1} \in G$

$$\begin{aligned} \implies \underbrace{a^{-1}a}_e b &= \underbrace{a^{-1}a}_e c \\ \implies e \cdot b &= e \cdot c \\ \implies b &= c \end{aligned}$$

3. Suppose $a \in G \exists$ two distinct inverses.

$d_1, d_2 \in G$.

$$d_1 a = e = a d_1$$

$$d_2 a = e = a d_2$$

$$\implies d_1 = d_1 e = d_1 a d_2 = e \cdot d_2 = d_2$$

□

Corollary 3.7

G group, $a, b \in G$. Then

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

■ **Proof.** Exercise.

□

Note: $ab = ba$ (G is abelian)

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

Generally: $ab \neq ba \implies a^{-1}b^{-1} \neq b^{-1}a^{-1}$

3.4 Order of an Element

Definition 3.8 (Order (of an element) and Finite vs. Infinite order)

The order of an element $a \in G$ is the smallest $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $a^k = e$. We denote this by $|a|$.

If k is finite $\implies a$ has finite order.

If k is infinite $\implies a$ has infinite order.

Example 3.9

$$S_2; e, \tau_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|e| = 1; e' = e$$

$$|\tau_1| = 2 \quad \tau_1^2 = \tau_1 \circ \tau_1 = e$$

$$\tau_1^4 = \tau_1^2 \circ \tau_1^2 = e \circ e = e$$

Example 3.10

$$\mathbb{Z} \leftarrow e = 0.$$

$$|1| = ?$$

$$1 \cdot n = 0 \text{ for which } n?$$

Answer none!

$$\implies |1| = \infty$$

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4.1 Order of an Element (Cont'd)

Theorem 4.1

G -group, $a \in G$

1. If $|a| = \infty$, then $a^i \neq a^j$ for any $i, j \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $i \neq j$.
2. If $\exists i \neq j$ such that $a^i = a^j \implies |a| < \infty$.

Proof. We prove (2) (because $1 \Leftrightarrow 2$).

WLOG suppose $i > j$, then if $a^i = a^j \implies a^{i-j} = a^i a^{-j} \implies a^j a^{-j} = a^0 = e$
 $\implies |a| \leq i - j < \infty$ □

Theorem 4.2

G group, $a \in G$ $|a| = n$

1. $a^k = e \Leftrightarrow n \mid k$ ($n \leq k$)
2. $a^i = a^j \Leftrightarrow i \equiv j \pmod{n}$
3. if $n = td$ $d \geq 1 \implies |a^t| = d$.

Proof.

1. If $a^k = e$ and since $a^n = e$ with n -smallest such integer, then $k > n$, and so $k = nd + r$ with $0 \leq r < n$

$$a^k = a^{nd+r} = (a^n)^d a^r = e^d a^r = a^r$$

If $0 < r < n \implies a^r \neq e \implies a^k \neq e$

$r = 0 \implies k = nd \implies n \mid k$.

2. If $a^i = a^j \implies a^{i-j} = e$
 $\implies n \mid i - j$ by part 1.
 $\implies i - j \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$
 $\implies i \equiv j \pmod{n}$

3. If $n = td$ ($d \geq 1$) $\stackrel{?}{\implies} |a^t| = d$

Since $a^n = e \implies (a^t)^d = e \implies |a^t| \leq d$.

If $|a^t| = k < d \implies (a^t)^k = a^{tk} = e$

But $tk < td = n \implies a^{tk} = e$ for $tk < n \implies \neq$ because n is the smallest positive integer such that $a^n = e$.

$\implies k = d \implies |a^t| = d$. □

Corollary 4.3

G -abelian group with $|a| < \infty \quad \forall a \in G$. Suppose $c \in G$ such that $|a| \leq |c| \quad \forall a \in G$. Then $|a| \mid |c|$.

Proof. Suppose not. \exists some $a \in G$ such that $|a| \nmid |c|$. Consider prime factorizations of $|a|$ and $|c|$.

\implies Then \exists some prime p such that $|a| = p^r m$ $|c| = p^s n$ where $r > s$ (s might be zero) and $(p_1 m) = 1 = (p_1 n)$.

Then by (3) of Theorem 4.2 of previous theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} |a^m| &= p^r \quad \text{and} \quad |c^{p^s}| = n \\ &\implies \text{because } (p^r, n)=1 \quad \underbrace{|a^m \cdot c^{p^s}|}_{\in G} = p^r \cdot n \end{aligned}$$

Note: $|a| = n, |b| = m, |a \cdot b| \neq n \cdot m$ unless $(n, m) = 1$

Recall: $|c| = p^s \cdot n$ where $s < r$

$$\implies p^r > p^s$$

$$\implies p^r n > p^s n$$

$$\implies |a^m \cdot c^{p^s}| > |c|$$

$\implies \neq$ because c is the element in G with maximal order! So $a^m c^{p^s} \in G$ cannot have order larger than c . \square

4.2 Subgroups

Definition 4.4 (Subgroup)

A subset $H \subseteq G$ is a subgroup of $(G, *)$ if it is also a group under $*$.

Note:

$G \subseteq G \implies G$ is always a subgroup of itself (Improper subgroup)

$\{e\} \subseteq G \implies \{e\}$ is always a subgroup of G (Trivial subgroup of G)

\implies Any subgroup $e \neq H \neq G$ is called a nontrivial proper subgroup.

Examples 4.5

- $(\mathbb{Z}, +) \subseteq (\mathbb{Q}, +)$
- $\{e, r_{90}, r_{180}, r_{270}\} \subseteq D_4$
- $SL_n(\mathbb{F}) \subseteq GL_n(\mathbb{F})$

Note: any subgroup always contains e .

Theorem 4.6

A nonempty subset H of G is a subgroup if:

1. $ab \in H \quad \forall a, b \in H$
2. $a^{-1} \in H \quad \forall a \in H$

Proof. Since $H \neq \emptyset \quad \exists a \in H$. By (2), $\exists a^{-1} \in H$. \implies By (1) $aa^{-1} = e \in H \implies e \in H$. \square

Theorem 4.7

Any closed nonempty finite subset H of G is a subgroup.

Proof. By Theorem 4.6, we need only show that H contains inverses.

If $a \in H$ $a^k \in H \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Since H is finite, not all a^k can be distinct.

$\implies |a| = n < \infty$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

$\implies a^n = e$

$\implies a^{n-1} \cdot a = e = a \cdot a^{n-1}$

If $n > 1 \implies a^{-1} \in H$

If $n = 1 \implies a^{-1} = e \implies a = e \implies a^{-1} = e \in H.$

□

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5.1 Subgroups (Cont'd)

Example 5.1

$\mathbb{Z}_5 \leftarrow$ group under addition = $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$

Units of \mathbb{Z}_5 : $\mathcal{U}_5 = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$

Clearly, $\mathcal{U}_5 \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_5$

Question: Is \mathcal{U}_5 a subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_5

No, because \mathcal{U}_5 is a group under multiplication.

Example 5.2

S_3 : set of permutations that fix 1.

$$e = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\tau_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\tau_2 e = \tau_2 = e \tau_2 \implies \underbrace{\{e, \tau_2\}}_H \text{ is closed.}$$

$$\tau_2 \cdot \tau_2 = e$$

By theorem 4.7, H is a subgroup because H is finite, nonempty, and closed.

5.2 Center of a Group

Definition 5.3 (Center of a group)

The center of a group G is the subset

$$Z(G) := \{a \in G \mid ag = ga \quad \forall g \in G\}$$

Note 5.4: When G is abelian $\implies Z(G) = G$

Question 5.5: Is $Z(G) = \emptyset$? No, because $e \in Z(G)$

Examples 5.6

- $Z(S_n) = e$

- $Z(D_4) = \{e, r_{180}\}$

- $Z(GL_n) = \{aI \mid a \in \mathbb{F}\}$

- $Z(SL_n) = \{I\} = e$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & a \end{pmatrix}$$

Theorem 5.7

$Z(G)$ is a subgroup of G .

Proof. By theorem 4.6, since $Z(G) \neq \emptyset$, we need only show closure and inverses.

1. $a, b \in Z(G) \xRightarrow{?} ab \in Z(G), \forall g \in G.$
 $(ab)g \stackrel{b/c}{=} \stackrel{g \in Z(G)}{=} a(gb) \stackrel{\text{by assoc.}}{=} (ag)b \stackrel{a \in Z(G)}{=} (ga)b = g(ab)$
 $\implies ab \in Z(G)$
2. $a \in Z(G), ag = ga \quad \forall g \in G.$
 $\implies a^{-1}(ag)a^{-1} = a^{-1}(ga)a^{-1}$
 $\implies ga^{-1} = a^{-1}g \implies a^{-1} \in Z(G)$

□

5.3 Cyclic Group

Definition 5.8 (Cyclic group)

For any $a \in G$, the set

$$\langle a \rangle = \{a^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

is a subgroup of G . We say $\langle a \rangle$ is the cyclic subgroup generated by a .

Note 5.9: Cyclic groups are always abelian.

If $G = \langle a \rangle$ for some $a \in G$, then G is a cyclic group.

Example 5.10

$$\langle r_{90} \rangle \subseteq D_4$$

$\langle r_{90} \rangle = \{e, r_{90}, r_{180}, r_{270}\} \leftarrow$ is a cyclic subgroup of G .

Note 5.11: In additive notation: $a * a = a + a$ (not $a \cdot a = a^2$)

$$\langle a \rangle = \{n \cdot a \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\} \quad n \cdot a = \underbrace{a + a + \cdots + a}_{n \text{ times}}$$

$$a^n = \underbrace{a \cdot a \cdot a \cdots a}_{n \text{ times}}$$

Example 5.12

$$(\mathbb{Z}, +) = \langle 1 \rangle = \langle -1 \rangle$$

Note 5.13: The generating element a is not unique.

Example 5.14

$$(\mathbb{Z}_3, +) = \langle 1 \rangle = \underbrace{\langle 2 \rangle}_{=-1}$$

Exercise. Which elements generate \mathbb{Z}_n for $n \in \mathbb{N}$?

Hint: Look at units (i.e. relatively prime) of \mathbb{Z}_n

Example 5.15

$$\mathbb{Z}_n = \langle 1 \rangle$$

\implies All \mathbb{Z}_n are cyclic groups of order n

Theorem 5.16Let $a \in G$

1. If $|a| = \infty$, then $\langle a \rangle = \langle a^k \mid k \in \mathbb{Z} \rangle$ is an infinite group.
2. If $|a| = n < \infty$, then $\langle a \rangle$ is a finite group. In fact, $\langle a \rangle = \langle e, a, a^2, a^3, \dots, a^{n-1} \rangle$

Proof (Sketch).

$$|a| = \infty \implies a^i \neq a^j \text{ for } i \neq j$$

$$\implies \{a^k \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\} \implies \text{infinite set.}$$

$$|a| = n \implies \langle a, a^2, \dots, a^{n-1}, a^n = e \rangle$$

$$\text{Since: } a \cdot a^{n-1} = a^n = e = a^{n-1} \cdot a$$

$$\implies a^{n-1} = a^{-1}$$

$$a^2 a^{n-2} = a^n = e = a^{n-2} a^2$$

$$\implies a^{-2} = a^{n-2}$$

□

Theorem 5.17Let \mathbb{F} be any field. Then any finite subgroup $G \subseteq \mathbb{F}^*$ is cyclic.**Recall 5.18** $\mathbb{F}^* = \mathbb{F} - \{0\}$ is a group under multiplication.

Proof. Since $|G| < \infty$, $\exists c \in G$ such that order of c is maximal ($|a| < |c| \quad \forall a \in G$). By corollary 4.3, $\forall a \in G$, $|a| \mid |c|$ so if $|c| = m \implies a^m = 1$. Consider $p(x) = x^m - 1$. Since $p(a) = 0 \quad \forall a \in G$.

Since $p(x)$ has degree m it can have at most m solutions $\implies |G| \leq m$. Since $|c| = m$ so $|\langle c \rangle| = m$.

$$\implies \langle c \rangle \subseteq G \implies \langle c \rangle = G.$$

$$\implies G \text{ is cyclic.}$$

□