

Recall: $(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is a group.

Note: $(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}, \cdot) \rightarrow [2]_4 \cdot [2]_4 = [4]_4 = [0]_4$
 \rightarrow cannot have a number be its own inverse.

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} [a]_n \cdot [x]_n = [0]_n \\ \text{and } [a]_n \cdot [b]_n = [1]_n \end{array} \right\} [b]_n \cdot [a]_n \cdot [x]_n = [b]_n [0]_n = [0]_n.$$

but $[b]_n [a]_n [x]_n = [1]_n [x]_n = [x]_n$

contradiction

$\Rightarrow \{[1]_n, [3]_n\}$ is a group under multiplication.

Example: Let $GL_n(\mathbb{R}) = \{g \in \text{Mat}_n(\mathbb{R}) : \det(g) \neq 0\}$.
This is a group under matrix multiplication.

- $g, h \in GL_n(\mathbb{R})$, $g \cdot h \in GL_n(\mathbb{R})$ b/c $\det(gh) = \det(g)\det(h) \neq 0$.
- 1_n (id matrix) is the identity element.
- Associative. Do painful calculations or something with invertible linear transformations and check with maps.
- $\det(g) \neq 0$ means g has inverse.

Example: $GL_2(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}) \stackrel{?}{=} \{g \in \text{Mat}_2(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}) : \det(g) \neq [0]_4\}$.

Let $g = \begin{pmatrix} [2]_4 & [0]_4 \\ [0]_4 & [2]_4 \end{pmatrix}$, $g \cdot g = \begin{pmatrix} [0]_4 & [0]_4 \\ [0]_4 & [0]_4 \end{pmatrix}$. Thus not closed.

So $GL_2(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}) = \{g \in \text{Mat}_2(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}) : \det(g) \text{ has inverse in } \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}\}$.

Note for $GL_2(\mathbb{Z})$, $\det(g)$ must be ± 1 to be invertible.
e.g. $\det(g) = 2$ is invertible in \mathbb{R} .

Example: Let $X = \{1, 2, 3\}$

Let $S_3 = \{f: X \rightarrow X : f \text{ is bijective}\}$.

$$f: \begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 \end{array} \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} 3 \text{ choices for } 1 \\ 2 \text{ choices for } 2 \\ 1 \text{ choice for } 3 \end{array} \right.$$

$\rightarrow 3!$ total elements.

So $\#S_3 = 6$.

This is a group under composition of functions.

$$\text{id}: \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = (1)$$

$$\sigma_1: \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = (12)$$

$$\sigma_2: \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = (13)$$

$$\sigma_3: \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = (23)$$

$$\sigma_4: \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = (123)$$

$$\sigma_5: \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = (132)$$

We say S_3 is the symmetric group on 3 letters.

Example: Let $X = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

Let $S_n = \{f: X \rightarrow X : f \text{ is bijective}\}$.

$\#S_n = n!$

This is still a group under composition of function.
(non-abelian finite group)

Fact: Every finite group injects into S_n for some n .

Example: Consider the regular n -gon.

Set $r_n =$ rotation by $\frac{2\pi}{n}$ clockwise.

So $r_n^2 = r_n \circ r_n =$ rotation by $2(\frac{2\pi}{n})$ clockwise.

$r_n^{n-1} =$ rotation by $(n-1)(\frac{2\pi}{n})$ clockwise.

$r_n^n =$ rotation by $n(\frac{2\pi}{n}) =$ no rotation.

So $\text{id}, r_n, r_n^2, \dots, r_n^{n-1}$ are distinct rigid motions.

Set $C_n = \{\text{id}, r_n, r_n^2, \dots, r_n^{n-1}\}$. This is an abelian group of order n .

This is referred to the cyclic group of order n .

Example: If we also allow a flip over axis σ , then
 $D_n = \{ \text{id}, r_n, r_n^2, \dots, r_n^{n-1}, \sigma, \sigma r_n, \sigma r_n^2, \dots, \sigma r_n^{n-1} \}.$

Example: The addition table for $(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is:

+	$[0]_4$	$[1]_4$	$[2]_4$	$[3]_4$
$[0]_4$	$[0]_4$	$[1]_4$	$[2]_4$	$[3]_4$
$[1]_4$	$[1]_4$	$[2]_4$	$[3]_4$	$[0]_4$
$[2]_4$	$[2]_4$	$[3]_4$	$[0]_4$	$[1]_4$
$[3]_4$	$[3]_4$	$[0]_4$	$[1]_4$	$[2]_4$

Example: Let $G = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} = \{ ([a]_2, [b]_2) : [a]_2, [b]_2 \in \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \}$
 with addition $([a]_2, [b]_2) + ([c]_2, [d]_2) = ([a+c]_2, [b+d]_2).$
 The addition table is:

+	$(0,0)$	$(0,1)$	$(1,0)$	$(1,1)$
$(0,0)$	$(0,0)$	$(0,1)$	$(1,0)$	$(1,1)$
$(0,1)$	$(0,1)$	$(0,0)$	$(1,1)$	$(1,0)$
$(1,0)$	$(1,0)$	$(1,1)$	$(0,0)$	$(0,1)$
$(1,1)$	$(1,1)$	$(1,0)$	$(0,1)$	$(0,0)$

We call G the Klein 4-group.

Basic Properties of Groups

Theorem: Let G be any group.

- 1) The identity element is unique.
- 2) Inverses are unique.
- 3) Let $a, b, c \in G$ with $ab=ac$. Then $b=c$.
- 4) Let $a, b \in G$. One can always solve the equation $ax=b$ for some $x \in G$.

proof: (1) Let e_1, e_2 be identity elements of G .
 So $e_1 = e_1 e_2$. But also $e_2 = e_1 e_2$
 So $e_1 = e_2$.

(2) Let g_1, g_2 be inverses of g .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } g_1 &= eg_1 \\ &= (g_2 g) g_1 \\ &= (g_1 g) g_2 \\ &= eg_2 \\ &= g_2. \end{aligned}$$

(3) Since $a \in G$, $\exists! a^{-1}$ s.t. $aa^{-1} = e$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } ab = ac &\Leftrightarrow a^{-1}(ab) = a^{-1}(ac) \\ &\Leftrightarrow (a^{-1}a)b = (a^{-1}a)c \\ &\Leftrightarrow eb = ec \\ &\Leftrightarrow b = c. \end{aligned}$$

(4) Set $x = a^{-1}b \in G$.

$$\text{Then } a(a^{-1}b) = (aa^{-1})b = eb = b. \quad \square$$

We saw earlier $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is not a group under multiplication.

$(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})^* = \{[1]_4, [3]_4\}$ is a group under multiplication.

Note $2 \nmid 4$, so that seems to be a problem...

in reference to $[2]_4$ not being in $(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})^*$.

What about $\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z}$ and $[8]_{10}$?

$$[8]_{10} \cdot [5]_{10} = [40]_{10} = [0]_{10} \leftarrow \text{BAD!}$$

We want our elements to have no common divisors with n .

$$\text{Set } (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^* = \{[a]_n \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} : \gcd(a, n) = 1\}.$$

careful! this is
a representative of $[a]_n$...
Test well-definedness.

If $[b]_n = [a]_n$, then $a = b + nk$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

If $d = \gcd(b, n)$, then $d \mid b + nk$. So $d \mid \gcd(a, n) = 1$.

Thus $d = 1$.

Is $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$ a group?

Well-definedness: Define $[a]_n [b]_n = [ab]_n$.

Let $[a]_n = [c]_n$ and $[b]_n = [d]_n$.

So $a = c + ns$ and $b = d + nt$.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Then } [a]_n [b]_n &= [ab]_n \\ &= [(c+ns)(d+nt)]_n \\ &= [cd + n(st + nst)]_n \\ &= [cd]_n \\ &= [c]_n [d]_n.\end{aligned}$$

Identity: Let $[a]_n \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$. Note

$$\begin{aligned}[1]_n [a]_n &= [1 \cdot a] = [a]_n. \\ \text{and } [1 \cdot a]_n &= [a \cdot 1]_n = [a]_n [1]_n.\end{aligned}$$

Thus $[1]_n$ is the identity.

Associativity: Let $[a]_n, [b]_n, [c]_n \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{we have } ([a]_n [b]_n) [c]_n &= [ab]_n [c]_n \\ &= [(ab)c]_n \\ &= [a(bc)]_n \\ &= [a]_n [bc]_n \\ &= [a]_n ([b]_n [c]_n).\end{aligned}$$

Thus $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is associative.

Inverse: Let $[a]_n \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$. Since $\gcd(a, n) = 1$,
 $\exists s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $as + nt = 1$.

Moreover, $\gcd(s, n) = 1$ b/c if $e|s$ and $e|n$, then
 $e|(as + nt) = 1$. Observe

$$[as + nt]_n = [1]_n$$

↓

$$[a]_n [s]_n + [n]_n [t]_n = [a]_n [s]_n.$$

So $[a]_n [s]_n = [1]_n$. Thus $[s]_n = [a]_n^{-1}$.

Thing: Let $[a]_n, [b]_n \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$. To see $[ab]_n \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$,
WTS $\gcd(ab, n) = 1$.

If $\gcd(ab, n) \neq 1$, then there is a prime p s.t.
 $p \mid \gcd(ab, n)$. So $p \mid n$ and $p \mid ab$. Since p is prime,
 $p \mid ab$ implies $p \mid a$ and $p \mid b$.
Thus $p \mid \gcd(a, n)$ or $p \mid \gcd(b, n)$. ~~≠~~ Thus $\gcd(ab, n) = 1$.