



## 1. Cyclic groups and subgroups

**Definition 1.1.** A group  $H$  is cyclic if  $H$  can be generated by a single element, i.e., there exists  $a \in H$  such that

$$H = \langle a \rangle = \{a^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\} \text{ where } a^n \in H.$$

**Remark 1.1.1.** 1. In additive notation  $H = \{2m \mid m \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ . (In additive notation  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})$  is cyclic and  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} = \langle 1 \rangle$ )

2. If  $H$  is cyclic then there exists some  $x \in H$  such that  $H = \langle x \rangle$ .
3. If  $|H| = \langle x \rangle$  then  $x$  is not unique (and more).
4.  $x^n \neq x^m$  if and only if  $n \neq m$ .
5. If  $G = D_n$  and  $H = \langle r \rangle$ , then  $H = \langle r^m \rangle$  and  $k = m$  if and only if  $k \equiv m \pmod n$ .
6. Every cyclic subgroup  $H$  is abelian. For example, if  $H = \langle r \rangle$  in  $G = D_n$ , then  $H$  is abelian, but  $D_n$  is not cyclic.
7. By convention,  $x^0 = 1$  for any element  $x$

**Proposition 1.2.** If  $H = \langle x \rangle$  then  $|H| = |x|$ . More specifically:

1. If  $|H| = n < \infty$ , then  $x^n = 1$  and  $1, x, \dots, x^{n-1}$  are all distinct elements of  $H$ .
2. If  $|H| = \infty$ , then  $x^n \neq 1$  for  $n \neq 0$  and  $x^a \neq x^b$  for  $a \neq b$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Proposition 1.3.** Let  $G$  be a group,  $x \in G$ , and  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ .

- If  $x^m = 1$  and  $x^n = 1$ , then  $x^d = 1$  where  $d = \gcd(m, n)$ .
- In particular, if  $x^m = 1$ , then  $x^{|m|} = 1$ .

*Proof.* By the Euclidean Algorithm, there exist  $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $d = mr + ns$  where  $d = \gcd(m, n)$ . Therefore,  $x^d = (x^m)^r \cdot (x^n)^s = 1^r \cdot 1^s = 1$ .

On the other hand, if  $x^m = 1$  and  $n = |x|$ , then if  $m = 0$  (implying  $n \mid m$ ), then by 1),  $x^d = 1$  where  $d = \gcd(m, n)$ ,

therefore  $d = n$  by minimality. Then (since  $d \mid n$  and  $n \mid m$ ),  $d = m$ . □

*Proof.* □

**Theorem 1.4.** Any two cyclic groups of the same order are isomorphic.

*Proof.* (1) **Finite case:** Let  $H_1 = \langle x \rangle$  and  $H_2 = \langle y \rangle$  where  $|x| = |y| = n$ . Define  $\varphi : \langle x \rangle \rightarrow \langle y \rangle$  by  $\varphi(x^k) = y^k$ . Then  $\varphi$  is a well-defined isomorphism.

- **Well-defined:** If  $x^k = x^l$  then  $\varphi(x^k) = \varphi(x^l)$  since  $y^k = y^l$ . Since  $x^k = x^l$  implies  $k \equiv l \pmod n$ ,  $y^k = y^l$  by the same logic.
- **Homomorphism:**  $\varphi(x^k \cdot x^l) = \varphi(x^{k+l}) = y^{k+l} = y^k \cdot y^l = \varphi(x^k) \cdot \varphi(x^l)$ .
- **Injective:** If  $\varphi(x^k) = y^k = 1$ , then  $x^k = 1$  since  $n \mid k$ .
- **Surjective:** Let  $y^k \in \langle y \rangle$  then  $\varphi(x^k) = y^k$ .

(2) **Infinite case:** If  $H = \langle x \rangle$  with  $|H| = \infty$ , then define  $\varphi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \langle x \rangle$  by  $\varphi(k) = x^k$ .  $\varphi$  is an isomorphism:

- $\varphi$  is a function from  $\mathbb{Z}$  to  $\langle x \rangle$  that maps each integer  $k$  to  $x^k$ , preserving the structure of  $\mathbb{Z}$  under addition, mirroring the group operation of  $\langle x \rangle$  under multiplication.

□

**Remark 1.4.1.** Up to isomorphism, there exists a unique cyclic group of finite order  $n$ , namely  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} = \langle x \rangle = \{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{n-1}\}$  (multiplicative), and a unique cyclic group of infinite order,  $\mathbb{Z} = \langle x \rangle = \{n \cdot 1 \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  (additive).

**Proposition 1.5.** Let  $G$  be a group, let  $x \in G$ , and let  $a \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ .

- (i) If  $|x| = \infty$ , then  $|x^a| = \infty$ .
- (ii) If  $|x| = n < \infty$ , then  $|x^a| = \frac{n}{\gcd(n,a)}$ .
- (iii) If  $|x| = n < \infty$  and also  $a \equiv 0 \pmod n$ , then  $|x^a| = \frac{n}{a}$ .

*Proof.* 1. Assume that  $|x| = \infty$ . Just assume  $|x^a| = m < \infty$ . Then  $(x^a)^m = x^{am} = 1$ . Show that there exist  $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $n = amr + s$  where  $x^n = x^s$ . This shows  $|x| < \infty$ , which is a contradiction.

2. Define  $y = x^a$  and  $d = \gcd(n, a)$ , then  $n = db$  and  $a = dc$  for some  $b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $\gcd(b, c) = 1$ . We need to prove that  $|y| = b$ . First note that  $y^b = (x^a)^b = x^{ab} = x^{dc b} = (x^n)^c = 1^c = 1$ . Thus  $|y| \leq b$ .

Let  $k = |y|$ , then  $y^k = x^{ak} = 1$ . If  $ak = nd$ , since  $\gcd(b, c) = 1$ , then  $b \mid k$ . Thus  $k = b$  and hence  $|y| = b$ .

3. This is a special case of 2.

□

**Theorem 1.6.** Let  $H$  be a cyclic group. Assume  $H = \langle x \rangle$ .

- 1. Every subgroup  $K \leq H$  is cyclic and  $K = \langle x^d \rangle$  where  $d = \min\{k \in \mathbb{N} \mid x^k \in K\}$ .
- 2. If  $|H| = \infty$ , then  $\langle x^s \rangle \neq \langle x^t \rangle$  for all  $s \neq t$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$ , and  $\langle x^n \rangle = \langle x \rangle$  implies  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Thus, there exists an injective correspondence between  $\mathbb{N}$  and the subgroups of  $H$ .

3. If  $|H| = n < \infty$ , then for all  $a \in \mathbb{Z}^*$  such that  $a \mid n$  and  $a \neq n$ ,  $\langle x^d \rangle \leq H$  implies that  $|K| = a$  where  $d \cdot m = n/a$ .

(a)  $\langle x^s \rangle = \langle x^{(n/m)} \rangle$  where  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ .

4. The subgroups of  $H$  correspond bijectively with the positive divisors of  $|H|$ .

**Remark 1.6.1.** In  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ :

1.  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} = \langle t \rangle = \langle m \rangle$  if and only if  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$  for  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ .
2.  $\langle s \rangle \leq \langle \gcd(s, m) \rangle$ .
3.  $\langle a \rangle \leq \langle b \rangle$  if and only if  $\gcd(b, n) \mid \gcd(a, n)$  where  $1 \leq a, b \leq n$ .

**Example 1.** In  $\mathbb{Z}/48\mathbb{Z}$ , compute  $\langle 6 \rangle$ , find the order of  $a$  and relation between  $\langle 6 \rangle$  and Molien subgroups.

$$\bullet \phi(48) = \phi(2^4 \cdot 3) = \phi(2^4) \cdot \phi(3) = 2^3 \cdot (3 - 1) = 16.$$

The subgroup relations for  $\mathbb{Z}/48\mathbb{Z}$  are represented as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle 1 \rangle &= \langle 47 \rangle = \langle 49 \rangle = \dots = \langle 1 \rangle, \\ \langle 2 \rangle &= \langle 46 \rangle = \langle 50 \rangle = \dots = \langle 2 \rangle, \\ \langle 3 \rangle &= \langle 45 \rangle = \langle 51 \rangle = \dots = \langle 3 \rangle, \\ \langle 4 \rangle &= \langle 44 \rangle = \langle 52 \rangle = \dots = \langle 4 \rangle, \\ \langle 6 \rangle &= \langle 42 \rangle = \langle 54 \rangle = \dots = \langle 6 \rangle, \\ \langle 8 \rangle &= \langle 40 \rangle = \langle 56 \rangle = \dots = \langle 8 \rangle, \\ \langle 12 \rangle &= \langle 36 \rangle = \langle 60 \rangle = \dots = \langle 12 \rangle, \\ \langle 16 \rangle &= \langle 32 \rangle = \langle 64 \rangle = \dots = \langle 16 \rangle, \\ \langle 24 \rangle &= \langle 24 \rangle = \langle 72 \rangle = \dots = \langle 24 \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Subgroups of  $\mathbb{Z}/48\mathbb{Z}$  are related as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle 24 \rangle &\subset \langle 12 \rangle \subset \langle 6 \rangle \subset \langle 3 \rangle \subset \langle 1 \rangle, \\ \langle 16 \rangle &\subset \langle 8 \rangle \subset \langle 4 \rangle \subset \langle 2 \rangle \subset \langle 1 \rangle, \\ \langle 18 \rangle &\subset \langle 9 \rangle \subset \langle 3 \rangle \subset \langle 1 \rangle, \\ \langle 20 \rangle &\subset \langle 10 \rangle \subset \langle 5 \rangle \subset \langle 1 \rangle. \end{aligned}$$