

## 3. Groups

### 3.1 Abstract groups

In Chapter 1, we considered the set  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$  of **remainders modulo  $n$**  and saw that it was possible to define the operator  $+_n$  on it.

#### Definition 3.1.1: Abstract group (p69)

A pair  $(G, \cdot)$  consisting of

- a set  $G$ ,
- a *group operation*  $\cdot : G \times G \rightarrow G$  (*law of composition*)

is called a **group** if the following axioms are satisfied:

1. **Associativity**: For all  $a, b, c \in G$ ,

$$(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c).$$

2. **Identity element**:

$$\exists e \in G : \forall f \in G, e \cdot f = f \cdot e = f$$

3. **Inverse element**:

$$\forall f \in G : \exists g \in G : f \cdot g = e = g \cdot f$$

The element  $g$  is called the **inverse** of  $f$  and is denoted by  $f^{-1}$ .

#### Abelian group

A group  $(G, \cdot)$  is called **abelian** (or **commutative**) if the LOC satisfies **commutativity**:

$$\forall a, b \in G : a \cdot b = b \cdot a.$$

Examples of groups

- $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ 
  - infinitely many elements (**infinite order**)
  - abelian
- $(\mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$
- $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n)$

**Non-examples** of groups

- $(\mathbb{Z}, \cdot), (\mathbb{Q}, \cdot), (\mathbb{R}, \cdot)$  (not every element has an inverse:  $0^{-1}$  does not exist)
- $(\mathbb{N}, +)$  (not every element has an inverse)
- $(\mathbb{Z}_n, \cdot_n)$  (not every element has an inverse, see below)

### Order of a group (p71)

The **order** of a group  $(G, \cdot)$  is the number of elements in  $G$ , that is  $|G|$ .

- If  $|G| = n < \infty$  the group is called a **finite group of order  $n$** .

$$\text{ord}(G) = n = |G|$$

- If  $|G| = \infty$  the group is of **infinite order**.

$$\text{ord}(G) = \infty$$

### $(\mathbb{Z}_n, \cdot_n)$ is not a group

$(\mathbb{Z}_n, \cdot_n)$  comes close to being a group:

1. It is associative (Theorem 1.4.2).
2. The identity element is 1.
3. However, **not every element has an inverse**.
  - $(\mathbb{Z}_6, \cdot_6)$ , 2 has no inverse since there is no  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_6$  such that

$$2 \cdot x \equiv 1 \pmod{6} \iff 2x = 1 + 6k \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

When does an element  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  have an inverse in  $(\mathbb{Z}_n, \cdot_n)$ ?

### Invertibility in $(\mathbb{Z}_n, \cdot_n)$ (p71)

$$a \in \mathbb{Z}_n \text{ has an inverse in } (\mathbb{Z}_n, \cdot_n) \iff \gcd(a, n) = 1$$

#### Proof

Take  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  and assume  $\gcd(f, n) = 1$ . We want to find  $g$  such that

$$f \cdot_n g = 1$$

Using the Extended Euclidean Algorithm, we can find  $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$r \cdot f + s \cdot n = \gcd(f, n) = 1.$$

We can assume  $0 \leq s < n$ . Otherwise, replace  $r$  by  $r + kn$  and  $s$  by  $s - kf$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ :

$$(r + kn) \cdot f + (s - kf) \cdot n = r \cdot f + s \cdot n = \text{the above} = \gcd(f, n) = 1.$$

Using Definition 1.2.1 of congruence modulo an integer, we have that

$$r \cdot f \equiv 1 \pmod{n},$$

which means that  $r \cdot_n f = 1$ . We can thus **choose**  $g = r = f^{-1}$ .

Conversely, assume that  $f$  has an inverse  $f^{-1} = g \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} f \cdot_n g = 1 &\iff (f \cdot g) \bmod n = 1 \\ &\iff f \cdot g = 1 + k \cdot n \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z} \\ &\iff fg - kn = 1 \end{aligned}$$

By **Bézout's identity** (p29), this implies that  $\gcd(f, n) = 1$ .

### Definition: $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$

A slightly modified version of  $(\mathbb{Z}_n, \cdot_n)$  is the set  $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$ :

$$\mathbb{Z}_n^* = \{a \in \mathbb{Z}_n \mid \gcd(a, n) = 1\}.$$

This group has order  $(n)$ , where  $(n)$  is the **Euler's totient function** (see below).

### Definition: Euler's totient function $(n)$

The **Euler's totient function**  $(n)$  is defined as the **number of elements in  $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$** , that is:

$$= \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \\ n \mapsto |\mathbb{Z}_n^*| \end{cases}$$

So  $(n) = |\mathbb{Z}_n^*| = \text{ord}(\mathbb{Z}_n^*, \cdot_n)$ .

### $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$ is a group

The pair  $(\mathbb{Z}_n^*, \cdot_n)$  is a group of order  $(n)$ .

This follows directly from the invertibility theorem above and the fact that  $\cdot_n$  is associative (Theorem 1.4.2) and has an identity element (1).

### Lemma 3.1.7: Uniqueness of identity element (p72)

Let  $(G, \cdot)$  be a group. Then it has **exactly one** identity element.

Note that if  $(G, \cdot)$  is  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ , it would be very confusing to write  $f^3$  if what we meant is  $f + f + f$ .  
 $\Rightarrow$  write  $nf$  or  $n \cdot f$  instead of  $f^n$  when the group operation is addition

### Exercise 3.21

If  $(G, \cdot)$  is a group, then

$$\forall f, g \in G : (f \cdot g)^{-1} = g^{-1} \cdot f^{-1}.$$

### Definition 3.1.10: Order of an element (p73)

Let  $(G, \cdot)$  be a group and  $g \in G$ .

- If it exists, the **order of the element  $g$**  is

$$\text{ord}(g) = \text{smallest positive integer } i \text{ such that } g^i = e$$

- If  $\forall i \in \mathbb{N} : g^i \neq e$ , we say that  $g$  is of **infinite order** and write

$$\text{ord}(g) = \infty$$

### Exercise 3.11

Let  $(G, \cdot)$  be a group and  $f, g \in G$ . Then

1.  $\boxed{\text{ord}(f^{-1}) = \text{ord}(f)}$
2.  $\boxed{\text{ord}(f \cdot g) = \text{ord}(g \cdot f)}$

### Lemma: Order of an element

Let  $(G, \cdot)$  be a group and  $g \in G$ . Then **EITHER**

1.  $\text{ord}(g) = \infty$ :

$$\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow G : i \mapsto g^i \text{ is injective}$$

2.  $\text{ord}(g) = i < \infty$ :

$$\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} : g^k = e \text{ and } g^0, g^1, \dots, g^{k-1} \text{ are distinct}$$

### Lemma 3.1.12 (p73)

Let  $(G, \cdot)$  be a group and  $g \in G$  an element. Then

$$\exists i \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0} : \boxed{g^i = e \Rightarrow \text{ord}(g) \mid i}$$

Conversely, if  $i \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$  is a multiple of  $\text{ord}(g)$ , then

$$g^i = e \text{ because } g^{k \cdot \text{ord}(g)} = (g^{\text{ord}(g)})^k = e^k = e$$

### Order of identity element

Let  $(G, \cdot)$  be a group with identity element  $e$ . Then

$$\text{ord}(e) = 1$$

#### Why?

Because  $e^1 = e$  and there is no smaller positive integer than 1.

### The identity element is the only element of order 1 (p72)

Let  $(G, \cdot)$  be a group with identity element  $e$ . Then

$$\forall f \in G : \boxed{\text{ord}(f) = 1 \iff f = e}$$

In other words, the **identity element is the only element of order 1.**

#### Why?

If  $f \in G$  is such that  $\text{ord}(f) = 1$ , then by definition of order of an element,  $f^1 = e$ . So  $f = e$ , because by Lemma 3.1.7, the identity element is **unique**.

## 3.2 Cyclic groups

### 🔗 Counterclockwise rotations of a regular $n$ -gon (p74)

Denote by  $r$  the counterclockwise rotation by  $2\pi$  radians (or  $360^\circ$ ) around the center of a regular  $n$ -gon with vertices  $0, 1, \dots, n-1$ .

Using the composition operator  $\circ$ , we can define  $\boxed{r^0 = e}$ ,  $r^1 = r$ ,  $r^2 = r \circ r$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $r^{n-1} = \underbrace{r \circ r \circ \dots \circ r}_{n-1}$ .

We can make a group out of the **rotational symmetries of a regular  $n$ -gon** using  $\circ$  as the group operation:

$$\boxed{C_n := \{e, r, r^2, \dots, r^{n-1}\} = \langle r \rangle}.$$

This is a group:

0. The group operation  $\circ$  is a function  $C_n \times C_n \rightarrow C_n$ .
1. The group operation  $\circ$  (function composition) is associative (Lemma 2.1.2).
2. The identity element is  $e \stackrel{\Delta}{=} r^0$ .
3. The inverse of each element is given by  $(r^i)^{-1} = r^{-i}$ , satisfying  $r^i \circ r^{-i} = e$ .

### ⚙️ Lemma 3.2.1: identities of $(C_n, \circ)$ (p74)

Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ . Then  $(C_n, \circ)$  is a group. The following identities hold:

1.  $\boxed{r^n = e}$
2.  $\forall i \in [0, n-1] : \boxed{(r^i)^{-1} = r^{(-i) \bmod n}}$
3.  $\forall i, j \in [0, n-1] : \boxed{r^i \circ r^j = r^{(i+j \bmod n)} = r^{i+nj}}$

### 📖 Definition 3.2.2: Cyclic group (p75)

A group  $(G, \cdot)$  is called **cyclic** if any element in  $G$  can be written as a power of a single element  $g \in G$ :

$$\exists g \in G : \boxed{G = \langle g \rangle = \{g^i \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}\}}.$$

The element  $g$  is called a **generator** of  $G$ .

The group  $(C_n, \circ)$  is an example of a cyclic group.

In fact,  $(C_n, \circ)$  is generated by  $r$ :

$$\boxed{C_n = \langle r \rangle} = \{\underbrace{r \circ \dots \circ r}_{i \text{ times}} \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{r^{i \bmod n} \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{r^i \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

Another example is  $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n)$ , which is generated by 1:

$$\boxed{\mathbb{Z}_n = \langle 1 \rangle} = \{\underbrace{1 +_n \dots +_n 1}_{i \text{ times}} \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{1^i \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

### 🌀 Lemma 3.2.3: Cyclic if order of an element equals order of group (p75)

Let  $(G, \cdot)$  be a **finite** group of order  $n$  ( $\text{ord}(G) = |G| = n$ ). Then

$$G \text{ is cyclic} \iff \exists g \in G : \text{ord}(g) = |G| = n.$$

Also,

$$g \in G \text{ is a generator of } G \iff \text{ord}(g) = |G| = n.$$

In this case,  $G = \{e, g, g^2, \dots, g^{n-1}\}$ .

Now the climax of Week 3.2:

### 📖 Theorem 3.2.5: The order of power theorem (p76)

Let  $(G, \cdot)$  be a group and  $g \in G$  an element of **finite** order  $n = \text{ord}(g)$ . Then

$$\forall i \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} : \quad \text{ord}(g^i) = \frac{n}{\gcd(n, i)} = \frac{\text{ord}(g)}{\gcd(\text{ord}(g), i)}$$

For  $i = 0$ , we have  $\text{ord}(g^0) = n \gcd(n, 0) = nn = 1$ .

### 🔗 Corollary 3.2.6 (p76)

Let  $(G, \cdot)$  be a finite **cyclic** group of order  $n$ . Then

- The order of every element in  $G$  divides  $\text{ord}(G) = n$ :

$$\forall g \in G : \quad \boxed{\text{ord}(g) \mid n} \implies \boxed{\text{ord}(g) \mid \text{ord}(G)}$$

- If  $d \mid n$ , then there are **exactly**  $(d) = |\mathbb{Z}_d^*|$  **elements of order  $d$  in  $G$** .

This corollary implies that **a finite cyclic group of order  $n$  has  $(n)$  generators**, because it has  $(n)$  elements of order  $n$ .

### 🔗 Corollary 3.2.7 (p76)

Let  $n$  be a positive integer ( $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ ). Then

$$n = \sum_{d \text{ divides } n} (d)$$

because  $\forall g \in G : \text{ord}(g) \mid \text{ord}(G) = n$  and there are  $(d)$  elements of order  $d$  for each divisor  $d$  of  $n$ .

### 📝 Exercise 4.23

**A cyclic group is abelian.**

Proof: Let  $(G, \cdot)$  be a cyclic group. Then  $\exists g \in G$  such that  $G = \{g^i \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ .

Take  $a, b \in G$ . Then  $\exists i, j \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $a = g^i$  and  $b = g^j$ .

$$a \cdot b = g^i \cdot g^j = g^{i+j} = g^{j+i} = g^j \cdot g^i = b \cdot a.$$

## 3.3 Dihedral groups

Apart from **rotational** symmetries (which form the group  $C_n$ ), regular  $n$ -gons also have **reflectional** symmetries.

We again enumerate the vertices of a regular  $n$ -gon as  $0, 1, \dots, n-1$ . We denote - as before - by  $r$  the counterclockwise rotation by  $2\pi$  radians around the center of the  $n$ -gon. We have already seen that  $r[k] = (k+1) \bmod n$ .

Now consider the **reflection** symmetry  $s$  with **reflection axis** through  $0$ :

- $s$  fixes  $0$
- $\forall k \in [1, n-1] : s[k] = (-k) \bmod n$

So, we have that

$$s[i] = (-i) \bmod n = (n-i) \bmod n \quad \forall i \in [0, n-1].$$

We can compose the symmetries  $r$  and  $s$  using the composition operator  $\circ$ .

### ⚙ Lemma 3.3.1 (p78)

Let  $r$  and  $s$  be the *rotational*, respectively *reflectional* symmetries of a regular  $n$ -gon as defined above. Then we have:

1.  $s^{-1} = s \iff s \circ s = e \iff s^2 = e$
2.  $\forall i \in \{0, \dots, n-1\} : s \circ r^i = r^{-i} \circ s \implies s \circ r = r^{-1} \circ s$   
Note that we already knew that  $r^n = e$  (Lemma 3.2.1).

Note that (2) implies that  $D_n$  is **not abelian** for  $n \geq 3$ .

### ⚡ 3.3.1 consequence: $D_n$ is not abelian for $n \geq 3$ (p78)

Let  $n \geq 3$  be an integer and let  $r, s$  be the rotational, respectively reflectional symmetries of a regular  $n$ -gon as defined above. Then

$$s \circ r \neq r \circ s \quad (n \geq 3)$$

In other words, the group  $D_n$  is **not abelian** for  $n \geq 3$ .

Why for  $n \geq 3$ ? Because for  $n = 2$ , we have  $r = r^{-1}$ , so  $s \circ r = r \circ s$ .

### 📖 Theorem 3.3.2: The dihedral group (p78)

Let  $n \geq 2$  be an integer and define the **dihedral group**  $D_n$  as

$$D_n := \{e, r, r^2, \dots, r^{n-1}, s, rs, r^2s, \dots, r^{n-1}s\}.$$

Then the pair  $(D_n, \circ)$  forms a group of **order  $2n$** .

The elements  $\{e, r, \dots, r^{n-1}\}$  correspond to the rotational symmetries of the regular  $n$ -gon as we have seen. The elements  $\{s, rs, \dots, r^{n-1}s\}$  correspond to its reflection symmetries.

The **dihedral group**  $D_n$  is of order  $2n$  because it has  $n$  *rotational* symmetries (including  $e$ ) and  $n$  *reflectional* symmetries.

## 3.4 Products of groups & examples of groups of small order

### Theorem 3.4.1: Product of groups (p79)

Let  $(G_1, \cdot_1)$  and  $(G_2, \cdot_2)$  be groups. Define

$$G_1 \times G_2 := \{(g_1, g_2) \mid g_1 \in G_1, g_2 \in G_2\}$$

and define

$$\cdot : G \times G \rightarrow G : ((f_1, f_2), (g_1, g_2)) \mapsto (f_1 \cdot_1 g_1, f_2 \cdot_2 g_2).$$

Then  $(G, \cdot)$  is a group.

### Definition 3.4.3: The quaternion group (p80)

The **quaternion group** is the group  $(\cdot, \cdot)$  where

$$:= \{1, -1, i, -i, j, -j, k, -k\}$$

and the group operation  $\cdot$  is defined by the following multiplication table:

| $\cdot$ | 1  | -1 | i  | -i | j  | -j | k  | -k |
|---------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| 1       | 1  | -1 | i  | -i | j  | -j | k  | -k |
| -1      | -1 | 1  | -i | i  | -j | j  | -k | k  |
| i       | i  | -i | -1 | 1  | k  | -k | -j | j  |
| -i      | -i | i  | 1  | -1 | -k | k  | j  | -j |
| j       | j  | -j | -k | k  | -1 | 1  | i  | -i |
| -j      | -j | j  | k  | -k | 1  | -1 | -i | i  |
| k       | k  | -k | j  | -j | -i | i  | -1 | 1  |
| -k      | -k | k  | -j | j  | i  | -i | 1  | -1 |

We can derive the multiplication table from the following:

- $-1$  commutes with any other element:  $\forall a \in : (-1) \cdot a = a \cdot (-1) = -a$
- $(-1)^2 = 1$
- $i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = ijk = -1$

*Example:*  $ij = k$  because  $ij = ij(-1)(-1) = ijk(-1) = (-1)k(-1) = (-1)^2(k) = k$ .

$C_n$  is a subgroup of  $D_n$ :

