

MA441: Algebraic Structures I

Lecture 9

1 October 2003

Exercise 16 from Chapter 3:

Let G be a group, and let $a \in G$. Prove that $C(a) = C(a^{-1})$.

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

Suppose $g \in C(a)$.

Then $ga = ag$.

By multiplying both sides on the left and right by a^{-1} , we see that $ga = ag$ iff $a^{-1}g = ga^{-1}$ because

$$a^{-1}gaa^{-1} = a^{-1}aga^{-1} \text{ iff}$$

$$a^{-1}ge = ega^{-1}.$$

This is exactly the condition for g to be in the centralizer of $C(a^{-1})$ because

$$C(a^{-1}) = \{x \in G : xa^{-1} = a^{-1}x\}.$$

Review from Lecture 8:

Theorem 4.3: Fundamental Theorem of Cyclic Groups

Every subgroup of a cyclic group is cyclic. Moreover, if $|\langle a \rangle| = n$, then the order of any subgroup of $\langle a \rangle$ is a divisor of n ; and, for each positive divisor k of n , the group $\langle a \rangle$ has exactly one subgroup of order k , namely, $\langle a^{n/k} \rangle$.

Definition:

We define the **Euler phi function** $\phi(n)$ to be the number of positive integers less than n and relatively prime to n ($n > 1$).

Special case: for $n = 1$, we set $\phi(1) = 1$.

Cycle notation for permutations

The cycle (a_1, \dots, a_m) denotes a mapping that sends a_i to a_{i+1} for $1 \leq i \leq m - 1$ and sends a_m to a_1 .

We say such a cycle has length m .

When a permutation fixes an element (the element forms a cycle of length 1), we can drop it from the cycle notation.

It's easy to compose permutations written in cycle notation.

Example:

Consider $R = (1234)$, $F = (12)(34)$.

$$R^2 = (1234)(1234) = ?$$

$$R^2 = (13)(24).$$

$$RF = (1234)(12)(34) = ?$$

$$RF = (1)(24)(3) = (24). \text{ (diagonal flip)}$$

$$FR = (12)(34)(1234) = ?$$

$$FR = (13)(2)(4) = (13). \text{ (diagonal flip)}$$

$$(FR)^2 = (13)(13) = e.$$

Theorem 4.4:

If d is a positive divisor of n , the number of elements of order d in a cyclic group of order n is $\phi(d)$.

Proof:

By Theorem 4.3, there is exactly one subgroup of order d , say $\langle a \rangle$.

Every element of order d also generates $\langle a \rangle$.

By Corollary 2 of Theorem 4.2, an element a^k generates $\langle a \rangle$ iff $\gcd(k, d) = 1$, that is, k is relatively prime to d . There are exactly $\phi(d)$ such k .

Corollary:

In a finite group the number of elements of order d is divisible by $\phi(d)$.

Idea of proof:

Find all copies of the cyclic group of order d that sit inside the finite group. These copies must have no elements of order d in common, and they each have $\phi(d)$ elements of order d .

Proof:

Let G be a finite group.

If G has no elements of order d , then the statement is true because any integer divides zero.

Now suppose that $a \in G$ and has order d . By Theorem 4.4, we know that $\langle a \rangle$ has $\phi(d)$ elements of order d .

If all elements of order d in G are in $\langle a \rangle$, then we are done.

Otherwise, choose $b \in G$ of order d such that $b \notin \langle a \rangle$.

Can the two cyclic subgroups $\langle a \rangle$ and $\langle b \rangle$ meet in an element of order d ?

Suppose c has order d and is contained in both cyclic subgroups.

Since c has order d and is contained in $\langle a \rangle$, then $\langle c \rangle = \langle a \rangle$.

The same is true for $\langle b \rangle$, which also equals $\langle c \rangle$.

So $\langle a \rangle = \langle b \rangle$, which contradicts our choice of b not being in $\langle a \rangle$.

Since all cyclic subgroups of order d each have $\phi(d)$ elements of order exactly equal to d and have no such elements in common, the number of elements of order d in a finite group is a multiple of $\phi(d)$.