

MA-224 - WEEK 43
THE GROUP P_n AND LAGRANGE'S THEOREM

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CONTENTS

1. Introduction	1
2. Basic arithmetic	1
2.1. The euclidean algorithm	1
2.2. Bézout's identity	2
2.3. Modular exponentiation	3
3. Multiplicative modular inverses	4
4. Cosets of groups and Lagrange's theorem	4
References	6

1. INTRODUCTION

We will discuss topics from [1, §16.3-4]. Last week we learned about basic concepts in group theory. In this week we will study a group of integers with group operation being modular multiplication modulo n , in addition to a fundamental theorem about the number of elements in a finite group.

2. BASIC ARITHMETIC

We collect some basic arithmetic facts to begin with. Much of this should be known from earlier.

2.1. The euclidean algorithm. Let x and n be any positive integers. An algorithm for finding the remainder of integer division x by n was written down by Euclid. Here it is, fashionably implemented in Python:

```
def remainder(x,n):  
    r = x  
    while r >= n:  
        r -= n  
    return r
```

In fact, if q is the number of iterations performed in the loop of the algorithm, you will find that

$$x = q \cdot n + r.$$

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In fact, the numbers q and r are unique such that the above formula holds and $0 \leq r < n$.

Definition 2.1. Let m and n be natural numbers. The **greatest common divisor** of m and n is the largest natural number which divides both m and n . We denote this number by $\gcd(m, n)$.

The algorithm known as the *euclidean algorithm* computes greatest common divisors.

Let $m > n > 0$ be natural numbers. The greatest common divisor of m and n is equal to the greatest common division of $m - n$ and n , or in other words: $\gcd(m, n) = \gcd(m - n, n)$. Since $n > 0$, then $m - n < m$. If $m - n = n$, then $\gcd(m, n) = \gcd(m - n, n) = \gcd(n, n) = n$. On the other hand, if $m - n > n$, we may repeat the procedure using the pair $(m - n, n)$. The largest number in the pair will become strictly smaller for each iteration. Since we always take the difference between unequal numbers, we can assume that neither m nor n is 0. Therefore, the procedure must stop at some point where $m = n > 0$.

```
def euclidean_algorithm(m, n):
    while m != n:
        if m > n:
            m -= n
        else:
            n -= m
    return m
```

2.2. Bézout's identity. Let m, n be integers. Then Bézout's identity is the statement that there exists integers x and y such that

$$xm + yn = \gcd(m, n).$$

This fact follows from the euclidean algorithm and can be proved by induction on the number of steps in the algorithm: Let m_k and n_k be the pair of integers at the k th step of Euclid's algorithm. If $k = 1$ is the index of the start of the process, then $m_1 = m$ and $n_1 = n$. Let $B(k)$ be the statement that $m_k = x_k m + y_k n$ and $n_k = z_k m + w_k n$ for some integers x_k, y_k, z_k, w_k . Then $B(1)$ is true with $x_1 = w_1 = 1$ and $y_1 = z_1 = 0$. For the induction step, assume that $B(k)$ is true for $k \geq 1$. If $m_k > n_k$, according to the euclidean algorithm, we then choose

$$\begin{aligned} m_{k+1} &= m_k - n_k = (x_k - z_k)m + (y_k - w_k)n \\ n_{k+1} &= n_k = z_k m + w_k n \end{aligned}$$

for the next step. Therefore $B(k + 1)$ is true if we choose

$$\begin{aligned} x_{k+1} &= x_k - z_k & z_{k+1} &= z_k \\ y_{k+1} &= y_k - w_k & w_{k+1} &= w_k. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly if $n_k > m_k$. If the algorithm terminates at $k = N$, we then have that $B(N)$ is true which means that $\gcd(m, n) = m_N = x_N m + y_N n$, which is Bézout's identity.

This procedure is called the *extended euclidean algorithm*.

```
def extended_euclidean_algorithm(m,n):
    x,y = (1,0)
    z,w = (0,1)
    while m != n:
        if m > n:
            m -= n
            x -= z
            y -= w
        else:
            n -= m
            z -= x
            w -= y

    # Return the gcd together with x, y
    # such that gcd(m,n) = xm + yn
    return (m,x,y)
```

Remark 2.2 Be aware that x and y in this formula are not unique.

2.3. Modular exponentiation. Let a, b and $n > 1$ be integers. By the division algorithm, we can write $a = un + r$ and $b = vn + s$ where $0 \leq u, v < n$. Then

$$ab = (un + r)(vn + s) = uvn^2 + (us + vr)n + rs \equiv rs \pmod{n}.$$

In other words, if we want to compute the product $ab \pmod{n}$, we can start by first reducing a and b modulo n , then multiply together the results.

This comes in handy when we are computing powers modulo n since we can always keep the numbers involved in our calculations less than n , as the next example shows.

Example 2.3 We wish to compute $37^3 \pmod{13}$. By reducing modulo 13 whenever possible, our computation breaks into the following steps:

$$\begin{aligned} 37^3 &= 37 \cdot 37 \cdot 37 \equiv 11 \cdot 11 \cdot 11 \pmod{13} \\ &= 121 \cdot 11 \\ &\equiv 4 \cdot 11 \pmod{13} \\ &= 44 \\ &\equiv 5 \pmod{13}. \end{aligned}$$

The rule is that whenever we see a number which is larger or equal to 13, we reduce it modulo 13 before we proceed with multiplication. This way, all of our numbers are kept at a manageable size.

3. MULTIPLICATIVE MODULAR INVERSES

Let $m < n$ be integers such that $\gcd(m, n) = 1$. Bézout's identity says that there exists x, y such that $xm + yn = 1$, or equivalently, there exists an integer x such that $xm \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

If x' is another integer such that $x'm \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$, then by subtracting both sides we get $(x - x')m \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$. Since $\gcd(m, n) = 1$, it follows that $x - x' \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$. Therefore, multiplicative inverses to m are unique modulo n .

Not all integers mod(n) have multiplicative inverses, the easiest example is $m = 0$. Another non-trivial example is $m = 2$ and $n = 4$. However, if we restrict attention to those integers which is coprime to n , it turns out that we get a group.

Definition 3.1. Let $n > 0$. Define

$$P_n = \{k \in \mathbb{Z} \mid 1 \leq k < n, \gcd(k, n) = 1\}$$

to be the set consisting of all natural numbers which are coprime to and less than n .

Lemma 3.2. The set P_n becomes a group under integer multiplication modulo n .

Proof. If $x, y \in P_n$ then the product xy is also going to be coprime to n , i.e. $\gcd(xy, n) = 1$. If $k > n$ and $\gcd(k, n) = 1$ then also $\gcd(k - n, n) = 1$ like in Euclid's algorithm. Therefore P_n is closed under multiplication modulo n . Inverse elements exist because of Bézout's identity which says that there exists integers s and t such that $sk + tn = \gcd(k, n) = 1$, or equivalently: There exists an integer s such that $sk = 1 \pmod{n}$. This integer belongs to the set P_n because $\gcd(s, n)$ is a divisor of $\gcd(sk, n) = 1$. \square

4. COSETS OF GROUPS AND LAGRANGE'S THEOREM

Definition 4.1. Let $H \subset G$ be a subgroup of G , and let $g \in G$ be any element. The subset

$$gH = \{g \cdot h \mid h \in H\} \subset G$$

is called the **coset** of g and H in G .

Lemma 4.2. Let G be a group and $H \subset G$ a subgroup. Then any two cosets of $H \subset G$ are either equal or disjoint.

If H is a subgroup of G , then all cosets of H have the same number of elements as the subgroup H . I.e. $|gH| = |H|$ for all subgroups $H \subset G$ and elements $g \in G$.

Proof. The property of belonging to the same coset defines a relation among elements of G which is obviously reflexive and symmetric. Let $g_1, g_2 \in G$ and assume that $x, y \in g_1H$ and $y, z \in g_2H$. This means that there exists elements $h_1, h_2, h_3, h_4 \in H$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} x &= g_1h_1, \text{ since } x \in g_1H \\ y &= g_1h_2, \text{ since } y \in g_1H \\ y &= g_2h_3, \text{ since } y \in g_2H \\ z &= g_2h_4, \text{ since } z \in g_2H \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $g_1h_2 = g_2h_3$ from which we get $g_2 = g_1h_2h_3^{-1}$. Using this, the last line from the list above says that $z = g_2h_4 = (g_1h_2h_3^{-1})h_4 = g_1(h_2h_3^{-1}h_4)$. Since the product in the last parenthesis is an element of H , we have shown that $z = g_1h$ so $z \in g_1H$ is in the same coset as x . Therefore, the relation is also associative. Therefore it is an equivalence relation with equivalence classes equal to the set of cosets of H . We know that equivalence classes are either equal or disjoint, so the same holds for cosets.

Let $g_1, g_2 \in G$ be any two elements. Define a function of sets

$$f : g_1H \rightarrow g_2H$$

by the formula $f(x) = g_2 \cdot g_1^{-1} \cdot x$. Then $f(x)$ belong to G , and since any $x \in g_1H$ can be written as $x = g_1 \cdot h$ for some $h \in H$, it follows that $f(x) = g_2 \cdot g_1^{-1} \cdot g_1 \cdot h = g_2 \cdot h$ is in the coset g_2H . The same construction produces a function in the opposite direction

$$g : g_2H \rightarrow g_1H,$$

which is obviously inverse to f . It follows that $|g_1H| = |g_2H|$. The coset eH of the neutral element is just the subgroup H , so for any $g \in G$ we get that $|H| = |gH|$. \square

Note that the cosets is a partition of G into equally sized subsets of which only one of them, $eH = H$ is a subgroup. The others are disjoint from H , so they are not subgroups since they do not contain the neutral element $e \in H$.

Definition 4.3. Let $H \subset G$ be a subgroup. The index of H in G is denoted by $[G : H]$, and is defined to be the number of different cosets gH in G :

$$[G : H] = |\{gH \mid g \in G\}|$$

Example 4.4 Let $G = \mathbb{Z}/6 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ be the cyclic group of order 6, and let $H = \{0, 2, 4\}$ be the subgroup generated by $2 \in \mathbb{Z}/6$

Here is an explicit list of all the cosets of H :

$$0 + H = \{0, 2, 4\}$$

$$1 + H = \{1, 3, 5\}$$

$$2 + H = \{2, 4, 0\}$$

$$3 + H = \{3, 5, 1\}$$

$$4 + H = \{4, 0, 2\}$$

$$5 + H = \{5, 1, 3\}$$

We see from the list that there are only two different cosets: $0 + H$ and $1 + H$, so $[\mathbb{Z}/6 : \mathbb{Z}/3] = 2$. We see from this that the formula

$$|\mathbb{Z}/6| = |\mathbb{Z}/3| \cdot [\mathbb{Z}/6 : \mathbb{Z}/3]$$

holds in our case.

Theorem 4.5 (Lagrange's theorem). *Let G be a finite group, and let $H \subset G$ be a subgroup. Then $|G| = |H| \cdot [G : H]$.*

Proof. We know from Lemma 4.2 that the cosets form a partition of G and that all cosets have the same number of elements. It follows that

$$|G| = \sum_{gH} |gH| = \sum_{gH} |H| = |H| \cdot \left(\sum_{gH} 1 \right) = |H| \cdot [G : H].$$

□

REFERENCES

- [1] Ralph P. Grimaldi, *Discrete and combinatorial mathematics: an applied introduction.*, Pearson Education, 2013.

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