

Rep#2a: Finite subgroups of multiplicative groups of fields

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[not completed, not proofread]

This note is mostly an auxiliary note for Rep#2. We are going to prove a fact which is used rather often in algebra:

Theorem 1. Let A be a field, and let G be a finite subgroup of the multiplicative group A^\times . Then, G is a cyclic group.

This theorem generalizes the (well-known) fact that the multiplicative group of a finite field is cyclic. Most proofs of this fact can actually be used to prove Theorem 1 in all its generality, so there is not much need to provide another proof here. But yet, let us sketch a proof of Theorem 1 that requires only basic number theory. The downside is that it is very ugly. First, an easy number-theoretical lemma:

Lemma 2. Let i , g and a be three integers such that a is positive, such that $g \mid a$, and such that i is coprime to g . Then, there exists an integer I such that $I \equiv i \pmod{g}$ and such that I is coprime to a .

Proof of Lemma 2. For every integer n , let us denote by $\text{PF } n$ the set of all prime divisors of n . By the unique factorization theorem, for any positive integer n , the set $\text{PF } n$ is finite and satisfies $n = \prod_{p \in \text{PF } n} p^{v_p(n)}$.

Clearly, $a \neq 0$ (since a is positive) and $g \neq 0$ (since $a \neq 0$ and $g \mid a$). Now, $g \mid a$ yields $\text{PF } g \subseteq \text{PF } a$. We have

$$a = \prod_{p \in \text{PF } a} p^{v_p(a)} = \prod_{p \in \text{PF } g} p^{v_p(a)} \cdot \prod_{p \in \text{PF } a \setminus \text{PF } g} p^{v_p(a)} \quad (\text{since } \text{PF } g \subseteq \text{PF } a).$$

In other words, $a = a_1 a_2$, where $a_1 = \prod_{p \in \text{PF } g} p^{v_p(a)}$ and $a_2 = \prod_{p \in \text{PF } a \setminus \text{PF } g} p^{v_p(a)}$.

The number g is not divisible by any prime $p \in \text{PF } a \setminus \text{PF } g$ (because if g is divisible by a prime p , then $p \in \text{PF } g$, so that p cannot lie in $\text{PF } a \setminus \text{PF } g$). Hence, g is coprime to $p^{v_p(a)}$ for every $p \in \text{PF } a \setminus \text{PF } g$. Consequently, g is coprime to the product

$\prod_{p \in \text{PF } a \setminus \text{PF } g} p^{v_p(a)}$. In other words, g is coprime to a_2 (since $\prod_{p \in \text{PF } a \setminus \text{PF } g} p^{v_p(a)} = a_2$). Thus,

by Bezout's Theorem¹, there exist integers ρ_1 and ρ_2 such that $\rho_1 g + \rho_2 a_2 = 1$. Thus, $1 - \rho_1 g = \rho_2 a_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{a_2}$. Now, let $I = i - (i - 1) \rho_1 g$. Then, $I = i - (i - 1) \rho_1 g \equiv i \pmod{g}$. Hence, I is coprime to g (since i is coprime to g). Hence, I is not divisible by any prime $p \in \text{PF } g$. Thus, I is coprime to $p^{v_p(a)}$ for every $p \in \text{PF } g$. Consequently, I is coprime to the product

$\prod_{p \in \text{PF } g} p^{v_p(a)}$. In other words, I is coprime to a_1 (since

$\prod_{p \in \text{PF } g} p^{v_p(a)} = a_1$). On the other hand, I is coprime to a_2 (since

$$I = i - (i - 1) \rho_1 g = \underbrace{i(1 - \rho_1 g)}_{\equiv 0 \pmod{a_2}} + \rho_1 g \equiv \rho_1 g \equiv \rho_1 g + \rho_2 a_2 = 1 \pmod{a_2}$$

¹**Bezout's theorem** states that if λ_1 and λ_2 are two coprime integers, then there exist integers ρ_1 and ρ_2 such that $\rho_1 \lambda_1 + \rho_2 \lambda_2 = 1$.

). Hence, I is coprime to a_1a_2 (since I is coprime to a_1 and to a_2). In other words, I is coprime to a (since $a_1a_2 = a$). This proves Lemma 2.

Proof of Theorem 1. We first notice that

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{if } \alpha \text{ and } \beta \text{ are two elements of } G, \text{ then there exists } \gamma \in G \text{ such that} \\ &\alpha \in \langle \gamma \rangle \text{ and } \beta \in \langle \gamma \rangle. \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Proof of (1). Let a be the order of α in G , and let b be the order of β in G . Let g be $\gcd(a, b)$. Then, $g \mid a$ and $g \mid b$. Thus, $(a/g) \mid a$ and $(b/g) \mid b$.

The order of α in G is a . Hence, the order of $\alpha^{a/g}$ in G is $\frac{a}{a/g} = g$ (since $(a/g) \mid a$). Consequently, the elements $(\alpha^{a/g})^0, (\alpha^{a/g})^1, \dots, (\alpha^{a/g})^{g-1}$ are pairwise distinct, and we have $(\alpha^{a/g})^g = 1$. Now, for every $i \in \{0, 1, \dots, g-1\}$, we

$$\text{have } \left((\alpha^{a/g})^i \right)^g = \left(\underbrace{(\alpha^{a/g})^g}_{=1} \right)^i = 1, \text{ and thus the element } (\alpha^{a/g})^i \text{ is a root of the}$$

polynomial $X^g - 1 \in A[X]$. In other words, the elements $(\alpha^{a/g})^0, (\alpha^{a/g})^1, \dots, (\alpha^{a/g})^{g-1}$ are roots of the polynomial $X^g - 1 \in A[X]$. Since we know that these

elements $(\alpha^{a/g})^0, (\alpha^{a/g})^1, \dots, (\alpha^{a/g})^{g-1}$ are pairwise distinct, we thus see that the

elements $(\alpha^{a/g})^0, (\alpha^{a/g})^1, \dots, (\alpha^{a/g})^{g-1}$ are pairwise distinct roots of the polynomial

$X^g - 1 \in A[X]$. But the polynomial $X^g - 1 \in A[X]$ can only have at most g roots

(since any nonzero polynomial of degree g over a field can only have at most g roots),

so these roots $(\alpha^{a/g})^0, (\alpha^{a/g})^1, \dots, (\alpha^{a/g})^{g-1}$ must be all the roots of the polynomial

$X^g - 1 \in A[X]$. Consequently, the polynomial $X^g - 1$ equals a constant times

$(X - (\alpha^{a/g})^0)(X - (\alpha^{a/g})^1) \dots (X - (\alpha^{a/g})^{g-1})$. But the constant just mentioned

must be 1 (since the polynomials $X^g - 1$ and

$(X - (\alpha^{a/g})^0)(X - (\alpha^{a/g})^1) \dots (X - (\alpha^{a/g})^{g-1})$ have the same leading term); hence,

this becomes

$$X^g - 1 = (X - (\alpha^{a/g})^0)(X - (\alpha^{a/g})^1) \dots (X - (\alpha^{a/g})^{g-1}).$$

In other words, $X^g - 1 = \prod_{i=0}^{g-1} (X - (\alpha^{a/g})^i)$. Applying this identity to $X = \beta^{b/g}$, we

obtain $(\beta^{b/g})^g - 1 = \prod_{i=0}^{g-1} (\beta^{b/g} - (\alpha^{a/g})^i)$. Since $(\beta^{b/g})^g - 1 = \beta^b - 1 = 0$ (since b

is the order of β , and thus $\beta^b = 1$), this becomes $0 = \prod_{i=0}^{g-1} (\beta^{b/g} - (\alpha^{a/g})^i)$. Hence,

there must exist some $i \in \{0, 1, \dots, g-1\}$ such that $\beta^{b/g} - (\alpha^{a/g})^i = 0$ (because if a product of elements of a field is zero, then one of the factors must be zero).

Consequently, this $i \in \{0, 1, \dots, g-1\}$ satisfies $\beta^{b/g} = (\alpha^{a/g})^i$. Similarly, there exists

some $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, g-1\}$ satisfying $\alpha^{a/g} = (\beta^{b/g})^j$. Thus, $\alpha^{a/g} = \left(\underbrace{\beta^{b/g}}_{=(\alpha^{a/g})^i} \right)^j =$

$\left(\left(\alpha^{a/g}\right)^i\right)^j = \left(\alpha^{a/g}\right)^{ij}$, so that $1 = \frac{\left(\alpha^{a/g}\right)^{ij}}{\alpha^{a/g}} = \left(\alpha^{a/g}\right)^{ij-1}$. Since the order of the element $\alpha^{a/g}$ is g , this yields $g \mid ij - 1$, so that $ij \equiv 1 \pmod{g}$. Hence, ij is coprime to g , so that i must also be coprime to g . Thus, by Lemma 2, there exists an integer I such that $I \equiv i \pmod{g}$ and such that I is coprime to a . Since $I \equiv i \pmod{g}$, we have $g \mid I - i$, and thus $\left(\alpha^{a/g}\right)^{I-i} = 1$ (since g is the order of $\alpha^{a/g}$), so that

$$\left(\alpha^{a/g}\right)^I = \left(\alpha^{a/g}\right)^{(I-i)+i} = \underbrace{\left(\alpha^{a/g}\right)^{I-i}}_{=1} \left(\alpha^{a/g}\right)^i = \left(\alpha^{a/g}\right)^i = \beta^{b/g}. \quad (2)$$

Now, the integers a/g and b/g are coprime (since $\gcd(a/g, b/g) = \frac{\gcd(a, b)}{g} = g/g = 1$); hence, by Bezout's Theorem, there exist integers u and v such that $u \cdot a/g + v \cdot b/g = 1$. Now, let $\gamma = \alpha^{Iv} \beta^u$. Then, $\gamma \in G$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma^{b/g} &= \left(\alpha^{Iv} \beta^u\right)^{b/g} = \underbrace{\left(\alpha^{Iv}\right)^{b/g}}_{=\alpha^{Iv \cdot b/g}} \underbrace{\left(\beta^u\right)^{b/g}}_{=(\beta^{b/g})^u} = \alpha^{Iv \cdot b/g} \left(\underbrace{\beta^{b/g}}_{=\left(\alpha^{a/g}\right)^I} \right)^u \\ &= \alpha^{Iv \cdot b/g} \underbrace{\left(\left(\alpha^{a/g}\right)^I\right)^u}_{=(\alpha^{a/g})^{Iu} = \alpha^{Iu \cdot a/g}} \\ &= \alpha^{Iv \cdot b/g} \alpha^{Iu \cdot a/g} = \alpha^{Iv \cdot b/g + Iu \cdot a/g} = \alpha^I \end{aligned}$$

(since $Iv \cdot b/g + Iu \cdot a/g = I(u \cdot a/g + v \cdot b/g) = I$). Since I is coprime to a , there exist integers x and y such that $xI + ya = 1$ (according to Bezout's theorem). Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= \alpha^1 = \alpha^{Ix+ay} \quad (\text{since } 1 = xI + ya = Ix + ay) \\ &= \underbrace{\alpha^{Ix}}_{=(\alpha^I)^x} \underbrace{\alpha^{ay}}_{=(\alpha^a)^y} = \left(\underbrace{\alpha^I}_{=\gamma^{b/g}} \right)^x \left(\underbrace{\alpha^a}_{=1 \text{ (since } a \text{ is the order of } \alpha)} \right)^y = (\gamma^{b/g})^x 1^y = (\gamma^{b/g})^x \in \langle \gamma \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, since $\gamma = \alpha^{Iv} \beta^u$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma^{a/g} &= \left(\alpha^{Iv} \beta^u\right)^{a/g} = \underbrace{\left(\alpha^{Iv}\right)^{a/g}}_{=\alpha^{Iv \cdot a/g} = \alpha^{(a/g) \cdot Iv}} \cdot \underbrace{\left(\beta^u\right)^{a/g}}_{=\beta^{u \cdot (a/g)}} = \left(\underbrace{\left(\alpha^{a/g}\right)^I}_{=\beta^{b/g} \text{ (by (2))}} \right)^v \cdot \beta^{u \cdot (a/g)} \\ &= \underbrace{\left(\beta^{b/g}\right)^v}_{=\beta^{(b/g) \cdot v} = \beta^{v \cdot (b/g)}} \cdot \beta^{u \cdot (a/g)} = \beta^{v \cdot (b/g)} \cdot \beta^{u \cdot (a/g)} = \beta^{v \cdot (b/g) + u \cdot (a/g)} \\ &= \beta^1 \quad (\text{since } v \cdot (b/g) + u \cdot (a/g) = u \cdot a/g + v \cdot b/g = 1) \\ &= \beta, \end{aligned}$$

and therefore $\beta = \gamma^{a/g} \in \langle \gamma \rangle$.

Altogether, we have proven that $\gamma \in G$, that $\alpha \in \langle \gamma \rangle$ and that $\beta \in \langle \gamma \rangle$. This proves (1).

Now, let us finally prove Theorem 1: Clearly, there exists a subset P of the group G such that $G = \langle P \rangle$ (in fact, the whole group G is an example of such a subset P). Let U be such a subset with the smallest number of elements.² Then, U is a subset of the group G such that $G = \langle U \rangle$, but there is no subset U' of G with less elements than U that satisfies $G = \langle U' \rangle$.

We let $k = |U|$, and we write the set U as $U = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k\}$, where u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k are the k (pairwise distinct) elements of U . Assume now that $k > 1$. Then, u_1 and u_2 are well-defined. Now, there exists an element $\gamma \in G$ such that $u_1 \in \langle \gamma \rangle$ and $u_2 \in \langle \gamma \rangle$ (by (1), applied to $\alpha = u_1$ and $\beta = u_2$), and therefore $u_i \in \langle \gamma, u_3, u_4, \dots, u_k \rangle$ for every $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ ³. Hence, $\langle u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k \rangle \subseteq \langle \gamma, u_3, u_4, \dots, u_k \rangle$, so that

$$G = \langle U \rangle = \langle \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k\} \rangle = \langle u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k \rangle \subseteq \langle \gamma, u_3, u_4, \dots, u_k \rangle = \langle \{\gamma, u_3, u_4, \dots, u_k\} \rangle = \langle U' \rangle,$$

where U' denotes the subset $\{\gamma, u_3, u_4, \dots, u_k\}$ of G . But clearly, also $G \supseteq \langle U' \rangle$. Thus, $G = \langle U' \rangle$. Besides, the subset U' of G has less elements than U (because $U' = \{\gamma, u_3, u_4, \dots, u_k\}$ has at most $k - 1$ elements, while U has $|U| = k$ elements). This contradicts to the fact that there is no subset U' of G with less elements than U that satisfies $G = \langle U' \rangle$. This contradiction shows that our assumption $k > 1$ was wrong. Hence, $k \leq 1$, so that $k = 1$ or $k = 0$. If $k = 0$, then $|U| = k = 0$ and thus $U = \emptyset$, which leads to $G = \langle \emptyset \rangle = 1$, so that G is a cyclic group. If $k = 1$, then $|U| = k = 1$, so that $U = \{u\}$ for some $u \in G$, and therefore $G = \langle U \rangle = \langle \{u\} \rangle = \langle u \rangle$ is a cyclic group. Hence, in both cases, G is a cyclic group. This proves Theorem 1.

Here is an easy consequence of Theorem 1:

Lemma 3. Let A be a field. Let n be a positive integer, and for every $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, let ξ_i be a root of unity in A . Then, there exists some root of unity ζ of A and a sequence (k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n) of nonnegative integers such that $(\xi_i = \zeta^{k_i}$ for every $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\})$ and $\gcd(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n) = 1$.

Proof of Lemma 3. Let G be the subgroup $\langle \xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_n \rangle$ of the multiplicative group A^\times . Then, the map

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi : \langle \xi_1 \rangle \times \langle \xi_2 \rangle \times \dots \times \langle \xi_n \rangle &\rightarrow \langle \xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_n \rangle && \text{defined by} \\ (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) &\mapsto x_1 x_2 \dots x_n \end{aligned}$$

is surjective (because every element of $\langle \xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_n \rangle$ has the form $\prod_{i=1}^n \xi_i^{f_i}$ for some n -tuple (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n) of integer, and thus is $\Phi(\xi_1^{f_1}, \xi_2^{f_2}, \dots, \xi_n^{f_n})$), and the set $\langle \xi_1 \rangle \times \langle \xi_2 \rangle \times \dots \times \langle \xi_n \rangle$ is finite (since the set $\langle \xi_i \rangle$ is finite for every $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, because ξ_i is a root of unity). Hence, the set $\langle \xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_n \rangle$ is finite. Thus, $G = \langle \xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_n \rangle$ is a finite subgroup of

²Indeed, such a U exists, because the set of all subsets of the group G is finite (since G itself is finite).

³In fact, three cases are possible: either $i = 1$, or $i = 2$, or $i \geq 3$. If $i = 1$, then $u_i \in \langle \gamma, u_3, u_4, \dots, u_k \rangle$ follows from $u_1 \in \langle \gamma \rangle \subseteq \langle \gamma, u_3, u_4, \dots, u_k \rangle$. If $i = 2$, then $u_i \in \langle \gamma, u_3, u_4, \dots, u_k \rangle$ follows from $u_2 \in \langle \gamma \rangle \subseteq \langle \gamma, u_3, u_4, \dots, u_k \rangle$. Finally, if $i \geq 3$, then $u_i \in \langle \gamma, u_3, u_4, \dots, u_k \rangle$ is trivial. Thus, $u_i \in \langle \gamma, u_3, u_4, \dots, u_k \rangle$ holds in all cases.

A^\times . Hence, by Theorem 1, this group G is cyclic, so that there exists some $\tau \in G$ such that $G = \langle \tau \rangle$. Now, if u is the order of τ in the group G , then $\langle \tau \rangle = \{\tau^0, \tau^1, \dots, \tau^{u-1}\}$. Hence, for every $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, there exists some nonnegative integer ℓ_i such that $\xi_i = \tau^{\ell_i}$ (since $\xi_i \in G = \langle \tau \rangle = \{\tau^0, \tau^1, \dots, \tau^{u-1}\}$). Now, let $\ell = \gcd(\ell_1, \ell_2, \dots, \ell_n)$. Let $\zeta = \tau^\ell$, and let $k_i = \ell_i/\ell$ for every $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. Then, $\ell_i = \ell k_i$ for every $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

Now we know that ζ is a root of unity (since $\zeta \in G$, and thus Lagrange's theorem yields $\zeta^{|G|} = 1$), and for every $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ we have $\xi_i = \tau^{\ell_i} = \tau^{\ell k_i} = \left(\underbrace{\tau^\ell}_{=\zeta} \right)^{k_i} = \zeta^{k_i}$.

Finally, recall that $k_i = \ell_i/\ell$ for every $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. Thus, $\gcd(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n) = \gcd(\ell_1/\ell, \ell_2/\ell, \dots, \ell_n/\ell) = \underbrace{\gcd(\ell_1, \ell_2, \dots, \ell_n)}_{=\ell} / \ell = 1$. Thus, Lemma 3 is proven.