

Some Generalized Characteristics of Cyclic Group and Applications in Chemistry

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Abstract: In group theory, the cyclic group is a fundamental and seriously studied and understood classes, and is a corner stone in the study of algebraic structures. This paper studies several generalized characteristics of cyclic group with the aim of extending fundamental results and their implications within a broader context and applications to chemistry. We looked at classical properties of cyclic groups, their generation, structure and subgroup behavior. We also explore generalizations such as the decomposition of finite abelian into cyclic subgroup and their behavior under direct product constructions, and the role of cyclicity in automorphism groups and homomorphic images. Using proof-based analysis, we show that these generalized properties reveal deeper structural insights and enable a quick understanding of algebraic systems. Applications to chemistry are also discussed to highlight the practical relevance of cyclic group theory. The paper concludes the directions to future research on cyclic groups in some complex algebraic systems.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Group theory is central to abstract algebra and studies groups which are algebraic structures. Groups discuss the notion of symmetry and structure-preserving transformations. It has very wide applications in chemistry and chemical physics etc. Studying the various classes of groups reveals that cyclic groups are very significant due to their simplicity and fundamental role in understanding the structure of chemistry and their related structures. A cyclic group is referred to one that can be generated by a single element such that every other element of the group can be expressed as a power or multiple of that generator. The group of integers under addition, \mathbb{Z} and additive group of integers mod n , \mathbb{Z}_n are classic examples [1]. The motivation of this paper lies in the desire to revisit known properties of cyclic groups and use them to discuss more generalized texts such as products of cyclic groups, automorphism structures and cyclic behavior in non-cyclic environments. While classical texts have addressed the fundamental concepts of cyclic groups relatively few works focus on synthesizing and generalizing these properties across diverse algebraic constructions [2,3]. This paper explores both standard and generalized properties of cyclic groups and gives the core characteristics that broadens the theoretical concepts of cyclic groups. In particular we study the structural, homomorphic, and automorphic behavior in cyclic and related groups. Through rigorous proofs and examples we develop a more clearer

understanding of how cyclicity influences broader theoretical concepts.

II. MATHEMATICAL PRELIMINARIES

➤ Definition of Cyclic Groups

A cyclic group C_n is defined as $C_n = \{e, g, g^2, \dots, g^{n-1}\}$ with $g^n = e$. A 1-generator group $\langle C_n \rangle$ is termed cyclic and it consists of all the powers of g [4]. The addition group of integers, $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is an infinite cyclic group generated by 1 or -1. The group \mathbb{Z}_n is the additive group of congruence classes modulo n and is a finite cyclic group of order n , generated by 1. The multiplicative group of units modulo n is denoted as \mathbb{Z}_n^* and is also cyclic for certain values of n such as when n is a prime. Thus if C_n is a cyclic group then there exist $g \in C_n, h \in C_n$ such that $g^n = h$ (in multiplicative form) or $h = ng$ (in additive form) for some integer n .

III. NOTATION AND CONVENTION

- We shall use multiplication for a group operations unless stated otherwise
- We shall write $\langle C_n \rangle$ to denote cyclic group generated by g .
- We shall use \cong to denote isomorphism

- Z_n will denote the addition group of integers modulo n
- We will discuss finite groups unless stated otherwise
- For $g \in C_n$, the smallest positive integer n which gives $g^n = e$, where e is the identity element, is called the order of g .

IV. FUNDAMENTAL PROPERTIES OF CYCLIC GROUPS

There are basic properties of cyclic groups that make them different from the other types of groups. We shall prove some theorems of cyclic groups here:

➤ *Theorem: Every subgroup of a cyclic group is cyclic. Mathematically:*

Let $C_n = \langle g \rangle$ be a cyclic group. Then every subgroup $H \leq C_n$ is also cyclic.

- Proof: Let $C_n = \langle g \rangle$ and let also $H \leq C_n$. Since C_n is cyclic, we shall write every element of C_n to be of the form g^n for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Let p be smallest positive integer such that $g^p \in H$. Then we can write $H = \langle g^p \rangle$. Let $v \in H$, so $v = g^w$ for some $w \in \mathbb{Z}$. Using the division algorithm, we write $w = ap + b$, with $0 \leq b < p$.

• Then:

$$v = g^w = g^{ap+b} = g^{ap} g^b = (g^p)^a g^b$$

Since $v \in H$ and $g^p \in H$, it follows that $g^b \in H$. But $0 \leq b < p$, and p is the minimal positive integer such that $g^p \in H$. Hence, $b = 0$.

Therefore,

$v \in \langle g^p \rangle$. Thus, $H = \langle g^p \rangle$, and H is cyclic.

➤ *Number of Generators of a Cyclic Group*

Let $C_n = Z_n$. The number of generators of C_n is given by the Euler's totient function [5] $\omega(n)$, which counts the number of integers less than n that are relatively prime to n . Example: In Z_8 , the elements 1, 3, 5, and 7 are relatively prime to 8. Hence, there are $\omega(8) = 4$ generators.

➤ *Structure of Finite versus Infinite Cyclic Groups*

- If C_n is a Cyclic Group Generated by g Such that all Powers of g are Not Different then

$C_n = \{g\}$ is a finite cyclic group. $g^n = e$ if $n > 0$, the order of g . Thus a finite cyclic group of order n is isomorphic to Z_n , the group of integers modulo n . We can write that $C_n = \{g^1, g^2, \dots, g^{n-1}, g^n\}$

➤ If C_n be a cyclic group generated by g such that all the powers of g are distinct, then we can say that $C_n = \{g\}$ is an infinite cyclic group. It is isomorphic with \mathbb{Z} , the group of integers with addition. Each subgroup of \mathbb{Z} is of the

form of $v\mathbb{Z}$, which is itself cyclic. Thus, both finite and infinite cyclic groups have cyclic subgroups [6].

- *Isomorphism Between Z_n and Finite Cyclic Groups of Order n*

✓ Theorem: Every finite cyclic group of order n is isomorphic to Z_n .

✓ Proof: Let $|C| = n$. Define a map: $\gamma: Z_n \rightarrow C$. $\gamma(p) = g^p$. This map is a homomorphism since: $\gamma(\alpha + \beta) = g^{\alpha+\beta} = g^\alpha g^\beta = \gamma(\alpha)\gamma(\beta)$. It is also bijective, since $|C| = |Z_n| = n$ and the orders match. Thus, $C \cong Z_n$.

➤ *Generalizations and Extended Characteristics*

While cyclic groups are well studied and understood by mathematicians, their structural influence cover more broader classes of algebra. We here discuss other generalizations and a more complex behavior of cyclic groups:

- *Generalizations to Direct Products of Cyclic Groups:*

The fundamental theorem of finite abelian groups indicate that any abelian finite group can be linked up to the direct product of cyclic groups.

✓ Example: The group $Z_6 \cong Z_2 \times Z_3$ since 2 and 3 are coprime.

- *Characteristics of Finite Abelian Groups Using Cyclic Groups.*

✓ Theorem: Every finite abelian group is isomorphic to a direct product of cyclic groups of prime power order.

✓ Proof: The proof has two main steps:

- *Reduce to P-Groups (Primary Decomposition)*

Let $|C| = n$ and a factor $n = \prod_{i=1}^r p_i^{a_i}$ into distinct primes p_i . For each prime p dividing $|C|$ define the p -primary component

$$C_{(p)} = \{g \in C : p^r g = e \text{ for some } r \geq 0\}$$

✓ *Direct Primary Components Intersect Trivially:*

If $g \in C_{(p)} \cap C_{(q)}$ with $p \neq q$ then g has order a divisor of a power of p and of a power of q , hence order is 1, so $g = e$.

The product of the primary components equals C : every element of $g \in C$ has a finite order dividing n , so g can be uniquely written as product of elements each of prime-power order. The map $\prod C_{(p)} \rightarrow C$ is an isomorphism. Thus, $C \cong \prod_{p \mid |C|} C_{(p)}$

- *Decompose a Finite Abelian p-Group into Cyclic p-Power Factors*

Let C be a finite abelian p -group. Define $pC = \{pg : g \in C\}$. $k = \dim_{F_p}(C/pC)$

We claim

$$C = \langle y_1 \rangle \oplus \langle y_2 \rangle \oplus \dots \oplus \langle y_k \rangle$$

- *The Subgroups $\langle y_i \rangle$ Generate C*

Let $g \in C$. Its coset $\bar{g} \in C/pC$ can be written as an F_p -linear combination of basis.

$$\bar{g} = a_1 \bar{y}_1 + \cdots + a_r \bar{y}_r \quad (a_i \in \{0, \dots, p-1\})$$

$$g - (a_1 y_1 + \cdots + a_r y_r) \in pC$$

$$g = (a_1 y_1 + \cdots + a_r y_r) + p(b_1 y_1 + \cdots + b_r y_r) + p^2(\dots) + \cdots$$

- *The Sum is Direct*

Suppose

$$x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_r = e$$

$$\text{Then } p(\gamma_1 + \gamma_2 + \cdots + \gamma_r) = e$$

Therefore C is (isomorphic to) a direct product of the cyclic groups $\langle y_i \rangle$ of orders p^{n_i}

- *Combine Primary Components*

- ✓ Putting steps (i) and (ii) together,
- ✓ For each prime $p \mid |C|$ we have

$$C_{(p)} \cong Z/p^{n_{p,i}}Z$$

This proves the desired statement.

- *Cyclicity in Permutation Groups, Matrix Groups and Modular Arithmetics*

- ✓ In permutation groups, some subgroups especially those generated by a single cycle are cyclic.
- Proof: Let S_n be the symmetric group on $1, \dots, n$. Fix an μ -cycle, $\beta = (c_1 c_2 \dots c_\mu)$
- ✓ All powers of β are in H and $\beta^\mu = e$. Applying β, μ times returns every C_i to itself, so β^μ is the identity permutation e . Hence, every β^α (for integer α) lies in H , and $\beta^\mu = e$.
- ✓ The powers $e, \beta, \beta^2, \dots, \beta^{\mu-1}$ are distinct.

If $\beta^i = \beta^j$ with $0 \leq i < j < \mu$, then $\beta^{j-i} = e$ with $0 < j-i < \mu$, contradicting that μ is the length of the cycle (the least positive integer r with $\beta^r = e$ is $r = \mu$). Therefore, the μ elements $e, \beta, \beta^2, \dots, \beta^{\mu-1}$ are pairwise distinct.

- ✓ *These Powers Exhaust H*

By definition H consists of all integer powers β^μ . But any integer ω can be written $\omega = q\mu + v$ with $0 \leq v < \mu$, then $\beta^\omega = (\beta^\mu)^q \beta^v = e^q \beta^v = \beta^v$. So every power equals one of the μ listed elements.

From (ii) and (iii) we conclude $|H| = \mu$ and $H = e, \beta, \dots, \beta^{\mu-1}$. Thus, H is generated by a single element β and is therefore a cyclic group of order μ . Infact $H \cong Z_\mu$ via the map $r \mapsto \beta^r$. If $\beta = (C_1 \dots C_\mu)$ and $\tau = (d_1 \dots d_\nu)$ are disjoint

cycles, then β and τ commute and the order of the product $\beta\tau$ is $1cm(\mu, \nu)$. Consequently, the subgroup $\langle \beta, \tau \rangle = \langle \beta\tau \rangle$ is cyclic iff μ and ν are coprime (so $1cm(\mu, \nu) = \mu\nu$); more generally, a product of disjoint cycles generates a cyclic subgroup exactly when the cycle lengths are pairwise coprime.

- ✓ *Detailed Proof of Disjoint-Cycle Extension Statement*

Let β and τ be disjoint cycles in S_n of lengths $\omega = \text{ord}(\beta)$ and $\nu = \text{ord}(\tau)$. Then

- β and τ commute: $\beta\tau = \tau\beta$.
- $\text{ord}(\beta\tau) = 1cm(\omega, \nu)$.
- The Subgroup $\langle \beta, \tau \rangle$ consists exactly of the same element $\beta^i \tau^j$: $0 \leq i < \omega$; $0 \leq j < \nu$ and $|\langle \beta, \tau \rangle| = \omega\nu$. Consequently $\langle \beta, \tau \rangle \cong Z_\omega \times Z_\nu$ and is cyclic iff $\gcd(\omega, \nu) = 1$; in that case: $\beta\tau$ has the order $\omega\nu$ and generates the whole subgroup.

Proof

- *They Commute*

Let M be the support of β (the set of points moved by β) and N the support of τ . Disjoint cycle mean $M \cap N = \emptyset$. For any $x \in 1, \dots, n$ there are three cases:

- $y \in M$; then $\tau(y) = y$, so $\beta\tau(y) = \beta(y)$. Also $\tau\beta(y) = \tau(\beta(y)) = \beta(y)$ because $\beta(y) \in M$ and τ fixes M . Thus $\beta\tau(y) = \tau\beta(y)$.
- $y \in N$: Symmetric argument
- $y \notin M \cup N$: both fix y , so equally holds. Therefore so $\beta\tau = \tau\beta$.

- *Order of $\beta\tau$.*

Since β and τ commute, $(\beta\tau)^\nu = \tau^\nu \beta^\nu$ for all integers ν . Suppose $(\beta\tau)^\nu = e$. Then $\beta^\nu = \tau^{-\nu}$. Apply both sides to any $a \in M$. The right side $\tau^{-\nu}$ fixes a (since $a \notin N$), so $\beta^\nu(a) = a$. Hence β^ν is the identity on M , so $\omega \mid \nu$. Similarly by applying to points of N we get $\mu \mid \nu$. Thus any ν with $(\beta\tau)^\nu = e$ is a common multiple of ω and μ ; equivalently the order of $\beta\tau$ is a multiple of $1cm(\beta, \mu)$. On the other hand $(\beta\tau)^{1cm(\omega, \mu)} = \beta^{1cm(\omega, \mu)} \tau^{1cm(\omega, \mu)} = e \cdot e = e$. So the least positive ν with $(\beta\tau)^\nu = e$ is exactly $1cm(\beta, \mu)$. Therefore $\text{ord}(\beta\tau) = 1cm(\beta, \mu)$.

- *Structure of $\langle \beta, \tau \rangle$*

Since β and τ commute, any word in β, τ can be rearranged to form $\beta^i \tau^j$. So $\langle \beta, \tau \rangle \subseteq \beta^i \tau^j$; $i, j \in Z$. Reducing exponents modulo ω and μ shows every element of the subgroup can be written with $0 \leq i < \omega$; $0 \leq j < \mu$. Uniqueness: Suppose $\beta^i \tau^j = \beta^{i'} \tau^{j'}$. Then $\beta^{i-i'} = \tau^{j'-j}$. Therefore $|\langle \beta, \tau \rangle| = \omega \cdot \mu$, and the map $Z_\omega \times Z_\mu \rightarrow \langle \beta, \tau \rangle$, $(i \pmod{\omega}, j \pmod{\mu}) \mapsto \beta^i \tau^j$.

Now a finite direct product $Z_\omega \times Z_\mu$ is a cycle iff $\gcd(\omega, \mu) = 1$ [7] Translating back: $\langle \beta, \tau \rangle$ is cyclic iff $\gcd(\omega, \mu) = 1$. If $\gcd(\omega, \mu) = 1$, then $\text{ord}(\beta\tau) = 1cm(\omega, \mu) = \omega\mu = |\langle \beta, \tau \rangle|$.

- *Generalization:*

If β_1, \dots, β_v are pairwise disjoint cycles with lengths $\omega_1, \dots, \omega_v$, then they pairwise commute and every element of $(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_v)$ can be written uniquely as $\beta_1^{i_1} \dots \beta_v^{i_v}$ with $0 \leq i_x < \omega_x$. Thus the subgroup is isomorphic to Z_{ω_v} ; has order $\prod_{x=1}^v \omega_x$, and the product β_1, \dots, β_v has order $\text{lcm}(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_v)$. Consequently the subgroup is cyclic exactly when the cycle lengths $\omega_1, \dots, \omega_v$ are pairwise coprime.

- *Some Sub Groups of General Linear Groups Over Finite Fields (e.g., $GL(n, F_p)$) Contain Cyclic Elements.*

Proof:

We view the finite field F_p as an n -dimensional vector space over the subfield F_α (with $\alpha = p^r$). Multiplication by any nonzero element $\beta \in F_{\alpha^n}^\times$ is an F_α -linear map of that vector space with respect to a basis and it is an invertible $n \times n$ matrix over F_α . The multiplicative group $F_{\alpha^n}^\times$ is a cyclic of order $\alpha^n - 1$, so taking a generator (a primitive element) gives an element of $GL(n, F_\alpha)$ of order $\alpha^n - 1$. Thus $GL(n, F_\alpha)$ contains a cyclic subgroup of order $\alpha^n - 1$. We consider the following:

- ✓ *Field and Vector Field Structure*

Let $\alpha = p^r$ (we take $r=1$, so $q = \alpha$) \exists a degree n extension field F_{α^n} . As an F_α -vector space, F_{α^n} has dimension n .

- ✓ *Multiplication by β Linear*

For any field $\beta \in F_{\alpha^n}$, define $K_\beta: F_{\alpha^n} \rightarrow F_{\alpha^n}$ by $K_\beta(x) = \beta x$. For $a \in F_\alpha$ and $x, y \in F_{\alpha^n}$, $K_\beta(x + ay) = \beta(x + ay) = \beta x + a(\beta y) = K_\beta(x) + aK_\beta(y)$

- ✓ *Homomorphism from $F_{\alpha^n}^\times$ to $GL(n, F_\alpha)$*

The map $\gamma: F_{\alpha^n}^\times \rightarrow GL(n, F_\alpha)$, $\beta \mapsto K_\beta$, is a group homomorphism because $K_{\beta\delta} = K_\beta \circ K_\delta$. It is injective: if K_β is the identity map then $\beta x = x \forall x$, so $\beta = 1$. More generally $K_\beta = K_\delta$ implies $K_{\beta\delta^{-1}} = I$ so $\beta\delta^{-1} = 1$, hence $\beta = \delta$. Therefore $F_{\alpha^n}^\times$ embeds as a subgroup of $GL(n, F_\alpha)$.

- ✓ *Cyclicity and the Singer Cycle*

The multiplicative group $F_{\alpha^n}^\times$ is cycle of order $\alpha^n - 1$. Let θ be a generator (a primitive element) of $F_{\alpha^n}^\times$. Then $K_\theta \in GL(n, F_\alpha)$ has order $\alpha^n - 1$ and generates an embedded cyclic subgroup isomorphic to Z_{α^n-1} . Such a K_θ is called a singer cycle.

- ✓ *Alternative Concrete Matrix Realization (Companion Matrix)*

Choose an irreducible monic polynomial $j(x) \in F_\alpha[x]$ of degree n whose root θ generates F_{α^n} over F_α . With respect to the basis $(1, \theta, \theta^2, \dots, \theta^{n-1})$ the linear map K_θ has the companion matrix of $j(x)$. That companion matrix is an explicit $n \times n$ matrix in $GL(n, F_\alpha)$ of order dividing $\alpha^n - 1$; if θ is primitive its order is exactly $\alpha^n - 1$.

- *Remarks and Small Examples*

For $\alpha = p$ (primitive field), this shows $GL(n, F_p)$ contains a cyclic subgroup of order $\alpha^n - 1$. So already for $GL(2, F_3)$, there is an element of order $3^2 - 1 = 8$.

More elementary cyclic elements also exist, any scalar matrix λI with $\lambda \in F_\alpha^\times$ is in $GL(n, F_\alpha)$ and generates a cyclic subgroup of order $\alpha - 1$. Diagonal matrices with entries in F_α^\times give other cyclic subgroups (products of cyclic groups from diagonal entries). The singer cycle is important in finite geometry (ie. Acts regularly on the 1-dimensional subspaces of F_{α^n} , i.e. on the point of projective spaces $PG(n-1, \alpha)$) [8].

- *In Modular Arithmetic, $Z_n \times Z_n^*$ is cyclic iff $n = 1, 2, 4, \alpha^\beta$, or $2\alpha^\beta$ for odd prime α .*

- ✓ *Proof: Theorem: (Primitive-Root Theorem/Classification)*

The group $U(n) = (Z/nZ)^\times$ is cyclic iff $n \in \{1, 2, 4\}$ or $n = p^k$ or $n = 2p^k$. Proof splits into two parts: reduction by Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT) and impossibility for most 2-power factors, and existence of primitive roots for odd prime powers.

- ✓ *Reduction by the Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT):*

We write the prime-power factorization $n = \prod_{i=1}^a p_i^{\beta_i}$. Therefore $U(n) \cong \prod_{i=1}^a U(p_i^{\beta_i})$. Each factor $U(p_i^{\beta_i})$ must be cyclic, and the integers $|U(p_i^{\beta_i})| = K(p_i^{\beta_i})$ must be pairwise coprime. So we reduce to understanding the groups $U(p_i^{\beta_i})$ and their orders $K(p_i^{\beta_i})$.

- ✓ *Structure of (2^p)*

$|U(2)| = 1$ (trivial)

$|U(2)| = 1$ for $\beta \geq 3$, $|U(2^\beta)| = 2^{\beta-1}$. But important structural fact is that for $\beta \geq 3$, $(2^\beta) \cong C_2 \times C_{2^{\beta-2}}$.

Thus only 2-power moduli that give a cyclic unit group are 2 and 4. For 2^β with $\beta \geq 3$, $U(2^\beta)$ is not cyclic.

- ✓ *Structure of $U(p^\beta)$ for Odd Prime p*

For a finite field F_α , the multiplicative group F_α^\times is cyclic of order $\alpha - 1$. This gives a primitive root modulo p (i.e. $U(p)$ is cyclic). One then shows a lifting lemma: if a is a primitive not modulo p (odd p), then there exists a lift of a to a primitive root modulo p^β for every $\beta \geq 1$. A standard statement: if a is primitive modulo p then either a or $a + p$ is primitive modulo p^2 ; once you have a primitive root modulo p^2 you can lift inductively to all higher powers p^β . Hence for every odd prime p and every $\beta \geq 1$, the group $U(p^\beta)$ is cyclic of order $\gamma(p^\beta) = p^{\beta-1}(p-1)$.

- ✓ *Putting Pieces Together (Necessity and Sufficiency)*

- **Sufficiency:** If $n = 1, 2, 4$ then $U(n)$ is trivially cyclic. If $n = p^\beta$ with p odd, $U(p^\beta)$ is cyclic. If $n = 2p^\beta$ with p

odd, then by CRT $U(2p^\beta) \cong U(2) \times U(p^\beta) \cong [1] \times U(p^\beta) \cong U(p^\beta)$.

- Necessity: Suppose $U(n)$ is cyclic. By CRT, each factor $U(p_i^{\beta_i})$ must be cyclic. Only the 2-power factor allowed are 2 or 4 (or absent). All odd-prime power factor $U(p^\beta)$ are cyclic, but now the orders $K(p^\beta) = p^{\beta-1}(p-1)$ must be pairwise coprime. If there were two distinct odd powers p and θ dividing n , then both $K(p^{\beta_p})$ and $K(\theta^{\beta_\theta})$ are even (since each contains a factor $p-1$ or $\theta-1$ which is even), so they have gcd at least 2; thus the product cannot be cyclic (orders not coprime). Hence there can be at most one odd prime dividing n . So n is of the form 2^e or $2^e p^\beta$ with a single odd prime p . As noted, e can only be 0, 1, 2 (giving 1, 2, 4) because for $e \geq 3$ the 2-part group is noncyclic. If $e = 2$ and p occurs (so $n = 4p^\beta$), then $|U(4)| = 2$ and $|U(p^\beta)| = p^{\beta-1}(p-1)$ is even, so the orders are not coprime and the product is not cyclic. Thus e cannot be 2 when an odd prime factor is present. The only allowed combinations are therefore $n = 1, 2, 4, n = p^\beta$ (one odd prime power), $n = 2p^\beta$ (single odd prime power times a single factor 2). That completes the proof.

V. RELATION TO GROUP HOMOMORPHISM AND AUTOMORPHISM

If $G \cong Z_n$, then the automorphism group $Aut(G) \cong Z_n^*$. The number of automorphisms of a cyclic group of order n is $\phi(n)$.

Proof

Let $C_n = \langle v \rangle$ be a cyclic group of order n . An automorphism of C_n is a bijective homomorphism $\phi: C_n \rightarrow C_n$. A homomorphism of a cyclic group is completely determined by the image of a generator.

➤ Image of a Generator Must be a Generator

If ϕ is an automorphism and v is a generator of C_n , then $\phi(v)$ must generate C_n (because ϕ is surjective). Conversely, if $g \in C_n$ is a generator, then the map defined by $v \mapsto g$ extends to a homomorphism $C_n \rightarrow C_n$ which is necessarily surjective (hence bijective), so it is an automorphism.

➤ Generators of C_n

The elements of C_n can be written v^0, v^1, \dots, v^{n-1} . An element v^k is a generator iff $\gcd(k, n) = 1$. The number of integers k with $0 \leq k \leq n-1$ and $\gcd(k, n) = 1$ is $\phi(n)$ (Euler's totient function).

➤ Counting Automorphism

Each automorphism is determined uniquely by the image of v , and the possible images are exactly the $\phi(n)$ generator v^k with $\gcd(k, n) = 1$. Therefore there are exactly $\phi(n)$ automorphisms: $|Aut(C_n)| = \phi(n)$.

Examples:

- C_6 (cyclic group of order 6)

$C_6 = \langle v \rangle = v^0, v^1, v^2, v^3, v^4, v^5$. The generators are v^k with $\gcd(k, 6) = 1$.

Check each exponent k :

$\gcd(1, 6) = 1 \Rightarrow v^1$ is a generator

$\gcd(2, 6) = 2 \Rightarrow v^2$ is not a generator

$\gcd(3, 6) = 3 \Rightarrow v^3$ is not a generator

$\gcd(4, 6) = 2 \Rightarrow v^4$ is not a generator

$\gcd(5, 6) = 1 \Rightarrow v^5$ is a generator

So the generators are v^1, v^5 . Thus $\phi(6) = 2$, and indeed $|Aut(C_6)| = 2$. The automorphisms are

$\phi_1: v \mapsto v^1$ (identity automorphism)

$\phi_2: v \mapsto v^5$ (inversion automorphism)

- For Z_7 , since $\phi(7) = 6$, there are 6 automorphisms. Homomorphic images of cyclic groups are also cyclic. Let $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$ be a group homomorphism where G is cyclic. Then $\varphi(G)$ is also cyclic.

Proof: Let G be a cyclic group and $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$ a group homomorphism. Write $G = \langle v \rangle$ (so every element of G is v^k for some integer k).

$$\varphi(v^k) = (\varphi(v))^k$$

$$\varphi(G) = \{(\varphi(v))^k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \langle \varphi(v) \rangle$$

- Remarks:

If $\varphi(v)$ is the identity in H , then $\varphi(G)$ is the trivial (cyclic) subgroup. If $|v| = n < \infty$, then $|\varphi(v)|$ divides n . For $G \cong \mathbb{Z}$ (infinite cyclic), the same argument shows any image in Z is cyclic.

VI. APPLICATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

➤ Cyclic Groups are Very Important in Chemistry with Significant Applications Across Multiple Disciplines.

- Cyclic groups describe: (a) Planar ring systems such as benzene (C_6), cyclobutadiene (C_4) where the symmetry operation available is rotation. We therefore model this by C_n where n is a single rotation order representing rotation by $\frac{2\pi}{n}$. The group C_n does not include reflections or inversion but captures only all the rotational operations. Therefore, the symmetry group of a planar ring molecule is often isomorphic to C_n . Benzene is a planar hexagonal ring and its rotation is by $\frac{2\pi}{6} = 60^\circ$ about its central axis.

and maps the molecule onto itself. The set of operations are $\{E, C_6, C_6^2, C_6^3, C_6^4, C_6^5\}$ [9]

C_6 represents a 60° rotation. Thus, benzene's rotation has a subgroup of C_6 . Also cyclobutadiene (C_4H_4) is a square planar ring with symmetry of 90° rotation $\left(\frac{2\pi}{4}\right)$ having elements $E, C_4, C_4^2, C_4^3 \equiv C_4^-$. So its rotational symmetry is C_4 . Cyclopropane (C_3H_6) is an equilateral triangular ring with 120° symmetry rotation of C_3 having symmetry elements $E, C_3, C_3^2 \equiv C_3^-$. Cyclooctatetraene (COT, C_8H_8 , planar form) has octagonal symmetry with 45° rotations. Its symmetry elements are $E, C_8, C_8^2, \dots, C_8^7 \equiv C_8^-$.

- Cyclic groups are also useful in spectroscopy. Using group theory we can predict allowed IR and Raman vibrational modes by classifying them into irreducible representations of C_n . Benzene's six π -orbitals also transform under C_6 . Cyclic groups also model rotational symmetry of 2D crystal lattices (e.g. graphene sheets). All planar ring molecules have rotational symmetry groups isomorphic to cyclic C_n groups.
- Non-linear molecules like ammonia (NH_3) are modeled by C_3 [10]. The elements are $E, C_3, C_3^2 \equiv C_3^-$.

VII. CONCLUSION

Cyclic groups are known to analyze chemical systems like planar molecules, spectroscopy and crystallography. Therefore cyclic groups bridge the gap between mathematics and chemistry.

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