

## FEBRUARY 20 NOTES

### 1. SECTION 4: POWERS OF AN ELEMENT, CYCLIC GROUPS

Notational reminder from last time: it gets cumbersome to write  $\star$  all the time; e.g.  $x \star y$  can be tedious to write over and over again. So, when dealing with *abstract* groups, we will denote the operation by  $x \star y = xy$ . We will also write powers of a given element by  $x^n$ , where:

$$\begin{aligned}x^1 &= x \\x^2 &= x \star x \\x^3 &= x \star (x \star x) \\&\dots\end{aligned}$$

and so on.

So, whenever you see the notation  $xy$  in this class, it always means  $x \star y$ , where  $\star$  is whatever the binary operation is. When we know the operation, we may choose to change notation. For example, if the operation is  $+$ , we will write  $x + y$  instead of  $xy$ . For powers, instead of writing  $x^2$ , which means  $x \star x$ , we would write  $2x$  because  $x + x = 2x$ .

**Definition 1.1.** Let  $G$  be a group and  $x \in G$ . The **powers** of  $x$  are defined as:

- (1)  $x^0 = e$
- (2) positive powers:  $x^n = x \star x \star \dots \star x$  ( $n$   $x$ 's)
- (3) negative powers:  $x^{-n} = x^{-1} \star x^{-1} \star \dots \star x^{-1}$  ( $n$   $x^{-1}$ 's)

As above, we may use different notation in additive groups. For example, in  $G = \mathbb{Z}$  with  $\star = +$ , the 'power' of  $x$  is **not** the power in the usual sense; the  $n$ th power is

$$x \star x \star \dots \star x$$

( $n$   $x$ 's) which is more commonly written as

$$nx = x + x + \dots + x.$$

Powers behave as we expect:

**Definition 1.2.** Suppose  $G$  is a group,  $x \in G$ , and  $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then:

- (1)  $x^n x^m = x^{n+m}$
- (2)  $(x^n)^{-1} = x^{-n}$
- (3)  $(x^n)^m = x^{nm}$ .

*Proof.* We prove only the first one and leave (2) and (3) as exercises. To prove (1), we use cases. Suppose  $n = 0$ . By definition of the identity, because  $x^0 = e$ , we know

$$x^n x^0 = x^n e = x^n$$

and because  $n = n + 0$ , we have

$$x^n x^0 = x^{n+0}.$$

A similar argument holds if  $m = 0$ .

Next, suppose  $n, m > 0$ . Then, by definition,

$$x^n x^m = (x \star \dots \star x) \star (x \star \dots \star x)$$

where the first set of parentheses holds  $n$   $x$ s and the second has  $m$ . Using associativity, as the right side has a total of  $n + m$   $x$ s, this is

$$x^n x^m = x \star \cdots \star x \star x \star \cdots \star x = x^{n+m}.$$

Replacing  $x$  with  $x^{-1}$ , a similar argument holds if  $n, m < 0$ .

Next, suppose  $n > 0$  and  $m < 0$ . If  $|n| \geq |m|$ , write  $n = k + |m|$  where  $k \geq 0$  and  $k = n + m$ . Then, we know (from what we've already proven)  $x^n = x^k x^{|m|}$ , so

$$\begin{aligned} x^n x^m &= x^k x^{|m|} x^m \\ &= x^k \star (x \star \cdots \star x) \star (x^{-1} \star \cdots \star x^{-1}) \text{ where there are } m \text{ } x\text{s and } m \text{ } x^{-1}\text{s} \\ &= x^k \star e \text{ because each } x \text{ will cancel with each } x^{-1} \\ &= x^k = x^{n+m}. \end{aligned}$$

If  $|n| \leq |m|$ , write  $m = -n - k$  where  $k \geq 0$  and  $-k = n + m$ . Then,  $x^m = x^{-n} x^{-k}$ , and as above, we can write:

$$\begin{aligned} x^n x^m &= x^n x^{-n-k} = x^n x^{-n} x^{-k} \\ &= (x \star \cdots \star x) \star (x^{-1} \star \cdots \star x^{-1}) \star x^{-k} \text{ where there are } n \text{ } x\text{s and } n \text{ } x^{-1}\text{s} \\ &= e \star x^{-k} \text{ because each } x \text{ will cancel with each } x^{-1} \\ &= x^{-k} = x^{n+m}. \end{aligned}$$

A similar argument holds if  $n < 0$  and  $m > 0$ . □

**Definition 1.3.** Let  $G$  be a group and  $x \in G$ . If there exists a positive integer  $n$  such that  $x^n = e$ , then  $x$  is said to have **finite order** and the order of  $x$  is  $o(x)$ , the minimal positive integer  $n$  such that  $x^n = e$ .

If no such  $n$  exists,  $x$  is said to have **infinite order** and we write  $o(x) = \infty$ .

**Example 1.4.** For any group  $G$ ,  $e^1 = e$ , so  $o(e) = 1$ .

**Example 1.5.** If  $G = (\mathbb{Z}, +)$ , the order of an element  $x$  is the minimal positive integer  $n$  such that  $nx = 0$ . This says  $o(0) = 1$  because  $1 \cdot 0 = 0$ , but  $o(x) = \infty$  for every  $x \neq 0$  because  $nx \neq 0$  for any  $n > 0$ .

**Example 1.6.** If  $G = (\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n)$ , recalling that  $+_n$  means addition mod  $n$ , then for *every* element  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ ,  $nx = 0$ , so every element has order  $\leq n$ .

For instance, in  $n = 4$ , then  $\mathbb{Z}_4 = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ . We can compute the orders and get:  $o(0) = 1$ ,  $o(1) = 4$ ,  $o(2) = 2$ , and  $o(3) = 4$ .

**Definition 1.7.** Let  $G$  be a group and  $x \in G$ . The **set generated by**  $x$  is the set

$$\langle x \rangle = \{x^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{\dots, x^{-2}, x^{-1}, e, x, x^2, x^3, \dots\}.$$

**Example 1.8.** If  $G = \mathbb{Z}_4$ , what is  $\langle x \rangle$  for any  $x \in G$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} \langle 0 \rangle &= \{0\} \\ \langle 1 \rangle &= \{0, 1, 2, 3\} \\ \langle 2 \rangle &= \{0, 2\} \\ \langle 3 \rangle &= \{0, 3, 2, 1\} \end{aligned}$$

**Definition 1.9.** A group  $G$  is called a **cyclic group** if there exists an element  $x \in G$  such that  $G = \langle x \rangle$ . In this case, we say that  $x$  **generates**  $G$ .

**Example 1.10.**  $\mathbb{Z} = \langle 1 \rangle = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$  so  $\mathbb{Z}$  is cyclic generated by 1.

This doesn't mean that every element  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$  generates  $\mathbb{Z}$ ; for instance,  $\langle 2 \rangle = \{\dots, -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, \dots\} \neq \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Example 1.11.**  $\mathbb{Z}_3 = \langle 1 \rangle = \{0, 1, 2\}$  so  $\mathbb{Z}_3$  is cyclic generated by 1.

It is also generated by 2:  $\langle 2 \rangle = \{0, 2, 1\} = \mathbb{Z}_3$ .

We observed a few things at the end of class; namely: in order for a group to be cyclic, there *must* be an element whose order is equal to the total number of elements in  $G$ . This is stated precisely in the following theorem, which we will prove next time.

**Theorem 1.12.** *Let  $G$  be a group and  $x \in G$  such that  $o(x) = n$ . Then,*

$$\langle x \rangle = \{e, x, x^2, \dots, x^{n-1}\}.$$

*In particular,  $\langle x \rangle$  has  $n$  elements. If  $o(x) = \infty$ , then  $\langle x \rangle = \{\dots x^{-2}, x^{-1}, e, x, x^2, \dots\}$  and for any  $i \neq j$ ,  $x^i \neq x^j$ , so in particular,  $\langle x \rangle$  has infinitely many elements.*

**Example 1.13.** Let  $G$  be the group  $D_3$  from last week's worksheet. Is  $G$  cyclic?

The answer is **no**, for two reasons: first, you could compute the order of any element of  $G$ . The order of the identity is 1, the order of any rotation is 3 (because, if you rotate 3 times clockwise or counterclockwise, you get back to the original configuration), and the order of any flip is 2 (because flipping over twice gets you back to the original configuration). Therefore,  $G$  has no elements of order 6, so can't be cyclic.

Secondly, you could give an easier reason: cyclic groups **must be abelian**. Why? If  $G$  is cyclic, then every element of  $G$  is of the form  $x^n$  for some integer  $n$ , and  $x^n x^m = x^{n+m} = x^{m+n} = x^m x^n$ . Because  $D_3$  is not abelian, it cannot be cyclic.