

Theorem 2.3 Let G be a group and $\{H_\alpha : \alpha \in I\}$ be any non-empty collection of subgroups of G . Then $\bigcap_{\alpha \in I} H_\alpha$ is a subgroup.

Proof: Since each H_α is a subgroup, $e \in H_\alpha$ for all $\alpha \in I$.

Hence $e \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} H_\alpha$ and $\bigcap_{\alpha \in I} H_\alpha \neq \emptyset$. Let $a, b \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} H_\alpha$. Then

$a, b \in H_\alpha, \forall \alpha \in I$. Thus, $ab^{-1} \in H_\alpha, \forall \alpha \in I$ since each H_α

is a subgroup and so $ab^{-1} \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} H_\alpha$. Consequently $\bigcap_{\alpha \in I} H_\alpha$ is

a subgroup

~~NOTE~~ Note: Union of two subgroups of a group may not be a subgroup. $(3\mathbb{Z}, +)$ and $(4\mathbb{Z}, +)$ are two subgroups of $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$

but $3 \in 3\mathbb{Z}$ and $4 \in 4\mathbb{Z}$ but $3+4 = 7 \notin 3\mathbb{Z} \cup 4\mathbb{Z}$

So, $3\mathbb{Z} \cup 4\mathbb{Z}$ is ~~not~~ a subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$.

Let G be a group and $a \in G$. Let $\langle a \rangle = \{a^n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

Then $\langle a \rangle$ is a subgroup of G . $\langle a \rangle$ is called subgroup generated by a .

In additive notation, we have $\langle a \rangle = \{na : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

Let $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ be the group. Then $\langle 2 \rangle = 2\mathbb{Z}$

Let G be a group and $a \in G$. Let $C(a) = \{b \in G : ba = ab\}$

Let e be the identity in G . Then $ea = ae = a$, so, $e \in C(a)$

$\therefore C(a) \neq \emptyset$. Let $b, c \in C(a)$. Then $ba = ab$ and $ca = ac$

As $ca = ac$, so, $c^{-1}a = ac^{-1}$.

Now $(bc^{-1})a = b(c^{-1}a) = b(ac^{-1}) = (ba)c^{-1} = (ab)c^{-1} = a(bc^{-1})$

$\therefore bc^{-1} \in C(a) \therefore C(a)$ is a subgroup of G . $C(a)$ is called the centralizer of a in G . It is also called normalizer of a in G .

Let H and K be two subgroups of a group G .

Let $HK = \{hk : h \in H, k \in K\}$. HK may not be a subgroup.

For example, let $G = S_3$, $H = \{e, \beta_3\}$ and $K = \{e, \beta_4\}$ are two subgroups of G

Here $HK = \{e, \beta_1, \beta_3, \beta_4\}$ and $KH = \{e, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4\}$

HK and KH are both not subgroups of S_3

Theorem 2.4 Let H and K be two subgroups of G . Then HK is a subgroup of G if and only if $HK = KH$

Proof: Let HK be a subgroup of G . Let $x \in HK$. Since HK is a subgroup, $x^{-1} \in HK$. Let $x^{-1} = h_1 k_1$, $h_1 \in H, k_1 \in K$

Then $x = k_1^{-1} h_1^{-1} \in KH \therefore HK \subseteq KH$

Let $y = k_2 h_2 \in KH$, $k_2 \in K, h_2 \in H$. Now $h_2^{-1} k_2^{-1} \in HK$ as $h_2^{-1} \in H$ and $k_2^{-1} \in K$

Since HK is a subgroup $(h_2^{-1} k_2^{-1})^{-1} = k_2 h_2 = y \in HK$.

$\therefore KH \subseteq HK$. So $HK = KH$

Conversely, let $KH = HK$. Let $p, q \in HK$ and $p = h_3 k_3, q = h_4 k_4$ where $h_3, h_4 \in H$ and $k_3, k_4 \in K$

Then $pq = (h_3 k_3)(h_4 k_4) = h_3 (k_3 h_4) k_4 = h_3 (h_5 k_5) k_4$, since $KH = HK$

$= (h_3 h_5)(k_5 k_4) \in HK$. So, $p, q \in HK \Rightarrow pq \in HK$

Let $r \in HK$ and $r = h k$, $r^{-1} = (hk)^{-1} = k^{-1} h^{-1} \in KH = HK$

So, $r \in HK \Rightarrow r^{-1} \in HK$. So, HK is a subgroup of G .

We state a theorem without proof

Theorem 2.5 Let H, K are two finite subgroups of a group G such that HK is a subgroup of G . Then $o(HK) = \frac{o(H) \cdot o(K)}{o(H \cap K)}$

We state another theorem without proof

Theorem 2.6 Let a be an element of a group G . Then for integers m and n ,

$$(i) a^m a^n = a^{m+n} \quad (ii) (a^m)^n = a^{mn} \quad (iii) (a^n)^{-1} = a^{-n}$$

Order of an element: Let G be a group and $a \in G$. a is said to be of finite order if \exists a positive integer such that $a^n = e$, e is the identity in G . The order of a , denoted by $o(a)$ is the least

positive integer n such that $a^n = e$ and is denoted by $o(a)$.

a is said to be of infinite order if the order of a is not finite.

Examples: 1. In the group $(\mathbb{Z}_6, +)$, $o(1) = 6$, $o(2) = 3$, $o(3) = 2$,

$$o(4) = 3, \quad o(5) = 6$$

2. In the group S_3 , $o(p_1) = 3$, $o(p_2) = 3$, $o(p_3) = o(p_4) = o(p_5) = 2$

3. In the Klein's 4-group, $o(a) = o(b) = o(c) = 2$

4. In the group $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$, the order of each non-zero element is infinite

Note: The only element in a group which has order 1 is the identity element.

Another Theorem without proof is

Theorem 2.7 Let a be an element of a group G . Then

$$(i) o(a) = o(a^{-1})$$

(ii) if $o(a) = n$ and $a^m = e$, then n is a divisor of m (e is the identity element in G)

(iii) if $o(a) = n$ then a, a^2, \dots, a^n ($a^n = e$) are distinct elements of G .

(iv) if $o(a) = n$, then for a positive integer m $o(a^m) = \frac{n}{\gcd(m, n)}$

(v) if $o(a) = n$, then $o(a^p) = n$ if and only if p is prime to n

(vi) if $o(a)$ is infinite and p is a positive integer, then $o(a^p)$ is infinite

Theorem 2.8. Every element of a finite group is of finite order.

Proof Let a be an element of a finite group G . Then a, a^2, \dots are all elements of G . Since G is finite, these elements are not all distinct. So, $a^m = a^n$ must hold for some positive integers m, n ($m > n$)
 $\therefore a^m (a^n)^{-1} = e \Rightarrow a^{m-n} = e$ (e is the identity in G)

This proves that a is of finite order.

Worked out exercises: 1. In a group G , a is an element of order 30. Find the order of a^{18}

Ans: $o(a^{18}) = \frac{30}{\gcd(18, 30)} = \frac{30}{6} = 5$

2. Find all elements of order 8 in the group $(\mathbb{Z}_{24}, +)$

Ans: The elements of the group are $\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \dots, \bar{23}$, $o(\bar{0}) = 1$ and $o(\bar{1}) = 24$

Let $o(\bar{m}) = 8$, where $0 < m < 24$

$o(\bar{1}) = 24$. $o(\bar{m}) = o(m\bar{1}) = \frac{24}{\gcd(24, m)}$. As $o(\bar{m}) = 8$

$\therefore \gcd(24, m) = 3$. So $\frac{m}{3}$ and $\frac{24}{3}$ are prime to each other

So $\frac{m}{3}$ is less than 8 and prime to 8

i.e., $\frac{m}{3} = 1, 3, 5, 7$

Hence the elements of order 8 are $\bar{3}, \bar{9}, \bar{15}, \bar{21}$

Exercise 1. Show that $SL(2, \mathbb{R}) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} : a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } \det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = 1 \right\}$

is a subgroup of $GL(2, \mathbb{R})$ where $GL(2, \mathbb{R})$ is the group of all real non-singular matrices of order 2 with respect to matrix multiplication.

Note: $GL(2, \mathbb{R})$ is called ^{The} General linear group of degree 2 over \mathbb{R} and $SL(2, \mathbb{R})$ is called the Special linear group of degree 2 over \mathbb{R}

2. In a group G , a is the only element of order n and $a \neq e$ (e is the identity element in G). Show that $n=2$ and $a \in Z(G)$

Ans Proof: Here $o(a) = n$ now we know that

$$o(a) = o(a^{-1}), \text{ so } a = a^{-1} \Rightarrow a^2 = e \text{ As } a \neq e, n=2$$

Also we know that $o(a) = o(xax^{-1})$ for any $x \in G$.

$$\therefore a = xax^{-1} \text{ or } xa = ax \text{ for any } x \in G$$

$$\therefore a \in Z(G)$$

3. Let G be a group in $(ab)^3 = a^3b^3 \quad \forall a, b \in G$. Show that $H = \{x^3 : x \in G\}$ is a subgroup of G .

Proof: Let e be the identity in G . Then $e = e^3 \in H \Rightarrow e \in G$

$$\therefore H \neq \emptyset. \text{ Let } a, b \in H$$

$$\text{Now } \cancel{(ab)^3 = a^3b^3} \quad \forall a, b \in G, \quad (ab)^3 = a^3b^3, \quad \forall a, b \in G.$$

$$\text{or, } (ab)(ab)(ab) = a^3b^3 \text{ or } b(ab)a = a^2b^2$$

$$\text{or, } (ba)^3 = a^3b^3, \quad \forall a, b \in G. \quad \dots (1)$$

Let $a, b \in H$ then $\cancel{(ab)^3} \quad a = x^3, b = y^3, x, y \in G$

$$\text{So, } ab^{-1} = x^3(y^3)^{-1} = x^3(y^{-1})^3 = (y^{-1}x)^3 \text{ from (1)}$$

$$\therefore ab^{-1} = (y^{-1}x)^3, \quad y^{-1}x \in G.$$

$$\therefore ab^{-1} \in H \quad \therefore H \text{ is a subgroup of } G.$$

We state another theorem without proof.

Theorem 2.9. Let G be a group and H, K are subgroups of G .

Then HUK forms a subgroup of G if and only if $\overset{HCK}{H \subseteq K}$ or KCH

3. Cyclic group: A group G is said to be a cyclic group if
 \exists an element $a \in G$ such that $G = \{a^n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$, i.e., $G = \langle a \rangle$.
 a is said to be a generator of the cyclic group.
 In additive notation, $G = \{na : n \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \langle a \rangle$

- Examples: 1. $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is a cyclic group generated by 1. -1 is also a generator.
 2. $(\mathbb{Z}_4, +)$ is a cyclic group generated by $\bar{1}$. $\bar{3}$ is also a generator.
 3. Klein's 4-group is not a cyclic group as there is no generator.

Theorem 3.1 Let G be a cyclic group generated by a . Then a^{-1} is also a generator.

Proof: Since a is a generator, $G = \{a^n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

Let $H = \{(a^{-1})^n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. Let $b \in G \Rightarrow b = a^r, r \in \mathbb{Z}$

Now $b = (a^{-1})^{-r}, -r \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow b \in H$, So, $G \subset H$

$\therefore H = G \Rightarrow a^{-1}$ is a generator of G .

Theorem 3.2 Every cyclic group is abelian

Proof: Let G be a cyclic group generated by a

Let $p, q \in G$. So, $p = a^r, q = a^s, r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So, } pq &= a^r a^s = a^{r+s} = a^{s+r} \quad \text{as } r+s = s+r \\ &= a^s a^r = qp \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore G$ is abelian

Note: An abelian group may not be cyclic. Example,

Klein's 4-group is abelian but not cyclic.