

## §3.3 Constructing Examples

Shaoyun Yi

MATH 546/701I

University of South Carolina

May 20-21, 2020

- Subgroup  $H$ : No worry about *associativity*  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Closure} \\ \text{Identity} \\ \text{Inverses} \end{array} \right.$

- Subgroup  $H$ : No worry about *associativity*  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Closure} \\ \text{Identity} \\ \text{Inverses} \end{array} \right.$ 
  - **Corollary 7:**  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab^{-1} \in H$  for all  $a, b \in H$

- Subgroup  $H$ : No worry about *associativity*  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Closure} \\ \text{Identity} \\ \text{Inverses} \end{array} \right.$ 
  - **Corollary 7:**  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab^{-1} \in H$  for all  $a, b \in H$
  - **Corollary 8:** add " $H$  is finite"  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab \in H, \forall a, b \in H$

- Subgroup  $H$ : No worry about *associativity*  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Closure} \\ \text{Identity} \\ \text{Inverses} \end{array} \right.$ 
  - **Corollary 7:**  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab^{-1} \in H$  for all  $a, b \in H$
  - **Corollary 8:** add " $H$  is finite"  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab \in H, \forall a, b \in H$
  - **Examples:**  $\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Q} \subseteq \mathbf{R} \subseteq \mathbf{C}; \mathbf{R}^+ \subseteq \mathbf{R}^\times; n\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Z}; \text{SL}_n(\mathbf{R}) \subseteq \text{GL}_n(\mathbf{R})$ .

- Subgroup  $H$ : No worry about *associativity*  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Closure} \\ \text{Identity} \\ \text{Inverses} \end{array} \right.$ 
  - **Corollary 7:**  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab^{-1} \in H$  for all  $a, b \in H$
  - **Corollary 8:** add " $H$  is finite"  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab \in H, \forall a, b \in H$
  - **Examples:**  $\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Q} \subseteq \mathbf{R} \subseteq \mathbf{C}; \mathbf{R}^+ \subseteq \mathbf{R}^\times; n\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Z}; \text{SL}_n(\mathbf{R}) \subseteq \text{GL}_n(\mathbf{R})$ .
- Cyclic subgroup  $\langle a \rangle$  is the **smallest** subgroup of  $G$  containing  $a \in G$ .

- Subgroup  $H$ : No worry about *associativity*  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Closure} \\ \text{Identity} \\ \text{Inverses} \end{array} \right.$ 
  - **Corollary 7:**  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab^{-1} \in H$  for all  $a, b \in H$
  - **Corollary 8:** add " $H$  is finite"  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab \in H, \forall a, b \in H$
  - **Examples:**  $\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Q} \subseteq \mathbf{R} \subseteq \mathbf{C}; \mathbf{R}^+ \subseteq \mathbf{R}^\times; n\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Z}; \text{SL}_n(\mathbf{R}) \subseteq \text{GL}_n(\mathbf{R})$ .
- Cyclic subgroup  $\langle a \rangle$  is the **smallest** subgroup of  $G$  containing  $a \in G$ .  
For example,  $\langle i \rangle \subseteq \mathbf{C}^\times; \langle 2i \rangle \subseteq \mathbf{C}^\times; \langle (123) \rangle \subseteq S_3; \langle (12) \rangle \subseteq S_3$ .

- Subgroup  $H$ : No worry about *associativity*  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Closure} \\ \text{Identity} \\ \text{Inverses} \end{array} \right.$ 
  - **Corollary 7:**  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab^{-1} \in H$  for all  $a, b \in H$
  - **Corollary 8:** add " $H$  is finite"  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab \in H, \forall a, b \in H$
  - **Examples:**  $\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Q} \subseteq \mathbf{R} \subseteq \mathbf{C}; \mathbf{R}^+ \subseteq \mathbf{R}^\times; n\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Z}; \text{SL}_n(\mathbf{R}) \subseteq \text{GL}_n(\mathbf{R})$ .
- Cyclic subgroup  $\langle a \rangle$  is the **smallest** subgroup of  $G$  containing  $a \in G$ .  
For example,  $\langle i \rangle \subseteq \mathbf{C}^\times; \langle 2i \rangle \subseteq \mathbf{C}^\times; \langle (123) \rangle \subseteq S_3; \langle (12) \rangle \subseteq S_3$ .
- $G$  is cyclic if  $G = \langle a \rangle$ .



- Subgroup  $H$ : No worry about *associativity*
  - Closure
  - Identity
  - Inverses
- **Corollary 7:**  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab^{-1} \in H$  for all  $a, b \in H$
- **Corollary 8:** add " $H$  is finite"  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab \in H, \forall a, b \in H$
- **Examples:**  $\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Q} \subseteq \mathbf{R} \subseteq \mathbf{C}; \mathbf{R}^+ \subseteq \mathbf{R}^\times; n\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Z}; \mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbf{R}) \subseteq \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbf{R})$ .
- Cyclic subgroup  $\langle a \rangle$  is the **smallest** subgroup of  $G$  containing  $a \in G$ .  
For example,  $\langle i \rangle \subseteq \mathbf{C}^\times; \langle 2i \rangle \subseteq \mathbf{C}^\times; \langle (123) \rangle \subseteq S_3; \langle (12) \rangle \subseteq S_3$ .
- $G$  is cyclic if  $G = \langle a \rangle$ .  
For example,  $\mathbf{Z}; \mathbf{Z}_n; \mathbf{Z}_5^\times$ . **Not examples:**  $\mathbf{Z}_8^\times; S_3$ .

- Subgroup  $H$ : No worry about *associativity*
  - Closure
  - Identity
  - Inverses
- **Corollary 7:**  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab^{-1} \in H$  for all  $a, b \in H$
- **Corollary 8:** add " $H$  is finite"  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab \in H, \forall a, b \in H$
- **Examples:**  $\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Q} \subseteq \mathbf{R} \subseteq \mathbf{C}; \mathbf{R}^+ \subseteq \mathbf{R}^\times; n\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Z}; \mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbf{R}) \subseteq \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbf{R})$ .
- Cyclic subgroup  $\langle a \rangle$  is the **smallest** subgroup of  $G$  containing  $a \in G$ .  
For example,  $\langle i \rangle \subseteq \mathbf{C}^\times; \langle 2i \rangle \subseteq \mathbf{C}^\times; \langle (123) \rangle \subseteq S_3; \langle (12) \rangle \subseteq S_3$ .
- $G$  is cyclic if  $G = \langle a \rangle$ .  
For example,  $\mathbf{Z}; \mathbf{Z}_n; \mathbf{Z}_5^\times$ . **Not examples:**  $\mathbf{Z}_8^\times; S_3$ .
- $o(a) = |\langle a \rangle|$ .

- Subgroup  $H$ : No worry about *associativity*
  - Closure
  - Identity
  - Inverses
- **Corollary 7:**  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab^{-1} \in H$  for all  $a, b \in H$
- **Corollary 8:** add " $H$  is finite"  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab \in H, \forall a, b \in H$
- **Examples:**  $\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Q} \subseteq \mathbf{R} \subseteq \mathbf{C}; \mathbf{R}^+ \subseteq \mathbf{R}^\times; n\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Z}; \mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbf{R}) \subseteq \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbf{R})$ .
- Cyclic subgroup  $\langle a \rangle$  is the **smallest** subgroup of  $G$  containing  $a \in G$ .  
For example,  $\langle i \rangle \subseteq \mathbf{C}^\times; \langle 2i \rangle \subseteq \mathbf{C}^\times; \langle (123) \rangle \subseteq S_3; \langle (12) \rangle \subseteq S_3$ .
- $G$  is cyclic if  $G = \langle a \rangle$ .  
For example,  $\mathbf{Z}; \mathbf{Z}_n; \mathbf{Z}_5^\times$ . **Not examples:**  $\mathbf{Z}_8^\times; S_3$ .
- $o(a) = |\langle a \rangle|$ . If  $o(a) = n$  is finite, then  $a^k = e \Leftrightarrow n|k$  for  $k \in \mathbf{Z}$ .

- Subgroup  $H$ : No worry about *associativity*
  - Closure
  - Identity
  - Inverses
- **Corollary 7:**  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab^{-1} \in H$  for all  $a, b \in H$
- **Corollary 8:** add " $H$  is finite"  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab \in H, \forall a, b \in H$
- **Examples:**  $\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Q} \subseteq \mathbf{R} \subseteq \mathbf{C}; \mathbf{R}^+ \subseteq \mathbf{R}^\times; n\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Z}; \mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbf{R}) \subseteq \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbf{R})$ .
- Cyclic subgroup  $\langle a \rangle$  is the **smallest** subgroup of  $G$  containing  $a \in G$ .  
For example,  $\langle i \rangle \subseteq \mathbf{C}^\times; \langle 2i \rangle \subseteq \mathbf{C}^\times; \langle (123) \rangle \subseteq S_3; \langle (12) \rangle \subseteq S_3$ .
- $G$  is cyclic if  $G = \langle a \rangle$ .  
For example,  $\mathbf{Z}; \mathbf{Z}_n; \mathbf{Z}_5^\times$ . **Not examples:**  $\mathbf{Z}_8^\times; S_3$ .
- $o(a) = |\langle a \rangle|$ . If  $o(a) = n$  is finite, then  $a^k = e \Leftrightarrow n|k$  for  $k \in \mathbf{Z}$ .
- Lagrange's Theorem: If  $|G| = n < \infty$  and  $H \subseteq G$ , then  $|H| | n$ .

- Subgroup  $H$ : No worry about *associativity*
  - Closure
  - Identity
  - Inverses
- **Corollary 7:**  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab^{-1} \in H$  for all  $a, b \in H$
- **Corollary 8:** add " $H$  is finite"  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab \in H, \forall a, b \in H$
- **Examples:**  $\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Q} \subseteq \mathbf{R} \subseteq \mathbf{C}; \mathbf{R}^+ \subseteq \mathbf{R}^\times; n\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Z}; \mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbf{R}) \subseteq \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbf{R})$ .
- Cyclic subgroup  $\langle a \rangle$  is the **smallest** subgroup of  $G$  containing  $a \in G$ .  
For example,  $\langle i \rangle \subseteq \mathbf{C}^\times; \langle 2i \rangle \subseteq \mathbf{C}^\times; \langle (123) \rangle \subseteq S_3; \langle (12) \rangle \subseteq S_3$ .
- $G$  is cyclic if  $G = \langle a \rangle$ .  
For example,  $\mathbf{Z}; \mathbf{Z}_n; \mathbf{Z}_5^\times$ . **Not examples:**  $\mathbf{Z}_8^\times; S_3$ .
- $o(a) = |\langle a \rangle|$ . If  $o(a) = n$  is finite, then  $a^k = e \Leftrightarrow n|k$  for  $k \in \mathbf{Z}$ .
- Lagrange's Theorem: If  $|G| = n < \infty$  and  $H \subseteq G$ , then  $|H| | n$ .
  - **Corollary 20:**  $o(a) | n$  for any  $a \in G$ .

- Subgroup  $H$ : No worry about *associativity*
  - Closure
  - Identity
  - Inverses
- **Corollary 7:**  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab^{-1} \in H$  for all  $a, b \in H$
- **Corollary 8:** add " $H$  is finite"  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab \in H, \forall a, b \in H$
- **Examples:**  $\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Q} \subseteq \mathbf{R} \subseteq \mathbf{C}; \mathbf{R}^+ \subseteq \mathbf{R}^\times; n\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Z}; \mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbf{R}) \subseteq \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbf{R})$ .
- Cyclic subgroup  $\langle a \rangle$  is the **smallest** subgroup of  $G$  containing  $a \in G$ .  
For example,  $\langle i \rangle \subseteq \mathbf{C}^\times; \langle 2i \rangle \subseteq \mathbf{C}^\times; \langle (123) \rangle \subseteq S_3; \langle (12) \rangle \subseteq S_3$ .
- $G$  is cyclic if  $G = \langle a \rangle$ .  
For example,  $\mathbf{Z}; \mathbf{Z}_n; \mathbf{Z}_5^\times$ . **Not examples:**  $\mathbf{Z}_8^\times; S_3$ .
- $o(a) = |\langle a \rangle|$ . If  $o(a) = n$  is finite, then  $a^k = e \Leftrightarrow n|k$  for  $k \in \mathbf{Z}$ .
- Lagrange's Theorem: If  $|G| = n < \infty$  and  $H \subseteq G$ , then  $|H| | n$ .
  - **Corollary 20:**  $o(a) | n$  for any  $a \in G$ .  $\rightarrow$  Nice proof for Euler's thm.

- Subgroup  $H$ : No worry about *associativity*
  - Closure
  - Identity
  - Inverses
- **Corollary 7:**  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab^{-1} \in H$  for all  $a, b \in H$
- **Corollary 8:** add " $H$  is finite"  $\Leftrightarrow H$  is nonempty and  $ab \in H, \forall a, b \in H$
- **Examples:**  $\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Q} \subseteq \mathbf{R} \subseteq \mathbf{C}; \mathbf{R}^+ \subseteq \mathbf{R}^\times; n\mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Z}; \mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbf{R}) \subseteq \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbf{R})$ .
- Cyclic subgroup  $\langle a \rangle$  is the **smallest** subgroup of  $G$  containing  $a \in G$ .  
For example,  $\langle i \rangle \subseteq \mathbf{C}^\times; \langle 2i \rangle \subseteq \mathbf{C}^\times; \langle (123) \rangle \subseteq S_3; \langle (12) \rangle \subseteq S_3$ .
- $G$  is cyclic if  $G = \langle a \rangle$ .  
For example,  $\mathbf{Z}; \mathbf{Z}_n; \mathbf{Z}_5^\times$ . **Not examples:**  $\mathbf{Z}_8^\times; S_3$ .
- $o(a) = |\langle a \rangle|$ . If  $o(a) = n$  is finite, then  $a^k = e \Leftrightarrow n|k$  for  $k \in \mathbf{Z}$ .
- Lagrange's Theorem: If  $|G| = n < \infty$  and  $H \subseteq G$ , then  $|H| | n$ .
  - **Corollary 20:**  $o(a) | n$  for any  $a \in G$ .  $\rightarrow$  Nice proof for Euler's thm.
  - **Corollary 21:** Any group of prime order is cyclic (and so abelian).

$$|G| = 4$$

Any group of order 2, 3, or 5 must be cyclic. (Why?)



$$|G| = 4$$

Any group of order 2, 3, or 5 must be cyclic. (Why?)

Let  $|G| = 4$  and  $a \in G$  with  $a \neq e$ .

$$|G| = 4$$

Any group of order 2, 3, or 5 must be cyclic. (Why?)

Let  $|G| = 4$  and  $a \in G$  with  $a \neq e$ . Then  $o(a) = 2$  or  $o(a) = 4$ . (Why?)

$$|G| = 4$$

Any group of order 2, 3, or 5 must be cyclic. (Why?)

Let  $|G| = 4$  and  $a \in G$  with  $a \neq e$ . Then  $o(a) = 2$  or  $o(a) = 4$ . (Why?)

(a) If  $o(a) = 4$ , then  $G = \langle a \rangle = \{e, a, a^2, a^3\}$ .

$$|G| = 4$$

Any group of order 2, 3, or 5 must be cyclic. (Why?)

Let  $|G| = 4$  and  $a \in G$  with  $a \neq e$ . Then  $o(a) = 2$  or  $o(a) = 4$ . (Why?)

(a) If  $o(a) = 4$ , then  $G = \langle a \rangle = \{e, a, a^2, a^3\}$ .

(b) If there is no element of order 4, then  $o(a) = 2$  for all  $a \neq e$ .

$$|G| = 4$$

Any group of order 2, 3, or 5 must be cyclic. (Why?)

Let  $|G| = 4$  and  $a \in G$  with  $a \neq e$ . Then  $o(a) = 2$  or  $o(a) = 4$ . (Why?)

(a) If  $o(a) = 4$ , then  $G = \langle a \rangle = \{e, a, a^2, a^3\}$ .

(b) If there is no element of order 4, then  $o(a) = 2$  for all  $a \neq e$ . So in the multiplication table for  $G$ ,  $e$  must occur down the main diagonal.

$$|G| = 4$$

Any group of order 2, 3, or 5 must be cyclic. (Why?)

Let  $|G| = 4$  and  $a \in G$  with  $a \neq e$ . Then  $o(a) = 2$  or  $o(a) = 4$ . (Why?)

(a) If  $o(a) = 4$ , then  $G = \langle a \rangle = \{e, a, a^2, a^3\}$ .

(b) If there is no element of order 4, then  $o(a) = 2$  for all  $a \neq e$ . So in the multiplication table for  $G$ ,  $e$  must occur down the main diagonal.

### Fact 1

*Each element must occur exactly once in each row and column.*

$$|G| = 4$$

Any group of order 2, 3, or 5 must be cyclic. (Why?)

Let  $|G| = 4$  and  $a \in G$  with  $a \neq e$ . Then  $o(a) = 2$  or  $o(a) = 4$ . (Why?)

(a) If  $o(a) = 4$ , then  $G = \langle a \rangle = \{e, a, a^2, a^3\}$ .

(b) If there is no element of order 4, then  $o(a) = 2$  for all  $a \neq e$ . So in the multiplication table for  $G$ ,  $e$  must occur down the main diagonal.

### Fact 1

*Each element must occur exactly once in each row and column.*

By Fact 1, there is only one possible pattern for the table. (eg.  $\mathbf{Z}_8^\times$ )

Table 3.3.1: Multiplication Tables for Groups of Order 4

	$e$	$a$	$a^2$	$a^3$		$e$	$a$	$b$	$c$
$e$	$e$	$a$	$a^2$	$a^3$	$e$	$e$	$a$	$b$	$c$
$a$	$a$	$a^2$	$a^3$	$e$	$a$	$a$	$e$	$c$	$b$
$a^2$	$a^2$	$a^3$	$e$	$a$	$b$	$b$	$c$	$e$	$a$
$a^3$	$a^3$	$e$	$a$	$a^2$	$c$	$c$	$b$	$a$	$e$

$$|G| = 6$$

We know of two basic examples of groups of order 6:



$$|G| = 6$$

We know of two basic examples of groups of order 6:

(1)  $\mathbf{Z}_6$ : cyclic group. Its multiplication table is easy. (Check it!)

$$|G| = 6$$

We know of two basic examples of groups of order 6:

- (1)  $\mathbf{Z}_6$ : cyclic group. Its multiplication table is easy. (Check it!)
- (2)  $S_3$ : nonabelian.

$$|G| = 6$$

We know of two basic examples of groups of order 6:

- (1)  $\mathbf{Z}_6$ : cyclic group. Its multiplication table is easy. (Check it!)
- (2)  $S_3$ : nonabelian. We have described it by explicitly listing the permutations that belong to it. Here we will give another description:

$$|G| = 6$$

We know of two basic examples of groups of order 6:

- (1)  $\mathbf{Z}_6$ : cyclic group. Its multiplication table is easy. (Check it!)
- (2)  $S_3$ : nonabelian. We have described it by explicitly listing the permutations that belong to it. Here we will give another description:  
Let  $e = (1)$ ,  $a = (123)$  and  $b = (12)$ .  $\Rightarrow a^2 = (132)$ ,  $a^3 = e$ ,  $b^2 = e$ .

$$|G| = 6$$

We know of two basic examples of groups of order 6:

- (1)  $\mathbf{Z}_6$ : cyclic group. Its multiplication table is easy. (Check it!)
- (2)  $S_3$ : nonabelian. We have described it by explicitly listing the permutations that belong to it. Here we will give another description: Let  $e = (1)$ ,  $a = (123)$  and  $b = (12)$ .  $\Rightarrow a^2 = (132)$ ,  $a^3 = e$ ,  $b^2 = e$ . Using the convention  $a^0 = b^0 = e$ , we can express each element of  $S_3$  in a unique way in the form  $a^i b^j$ , for  $i = 0, 1, 2$  and  $j = 0, 1$ .

$$|G| = 6$$

We know of two basic examples of groups of order 6:

- (1)  $\mathbf{Z}_6$ : cyclic group. Its multiplication table is easy. (Check it!)
- (2)  $S_3$ : nonabelian. We have described it by explicitly listing the permutations that belong to it. Here we will give another description: Let  $e = (1)$ ,  $a = (123)$  and  $b = (12)$ .  $\Rightarrow a^2 = (132)$ ,  $a^3 = e$ ,  $b^2 = e$ . Using the convention  $a^0 = b^0 = e$ , we can express each element of  $S_3$  in a unique way in the form  $a^i b^j$ , for  $i = 0, 1, 2$  and  $j = 0, 1$ . That is,  $(1) = e$ ,  $(123) = a$ ,  $(132) = a^2$ ,  $(12) = b$ ,  $(13) = ab$ ,  $(23) = a^2 b$ .

## Question 1

$$|G| = 6$$

We know of two basic examples of groups of order 6:

- (1)  $\mathbf{Z}_6$ : cyclic group. Its multiplication table is easy. (Check it!)
- (2)  $S_3$ : nonabelian. We have described it by explicitly listing the permutations that belong to it. Here we will give another description: Let  $e = (1)$ ,  $a = (123)$  and  $b = (12)$ .  $\Rightarrow a^2 = (132)$ ,  $a^3 = e$ ,  $b^2 = e$ . Using the convention  $a^0 = b^0 = e$ , we can express each element of  $S_3$  in a unique way in the form  $a^i b^j$ , for  $i = 0, 1, 2$  and  $j = 0, 1$ . That is,  $(1) = e$ ,  $(123) = a$ ,  $(132) = a^2$ ,  $(12) = b$ ,  $(13) = ab$ ,  $(23) = a^2 b$ .

## Question 1

*Question: What is  $ba$ ?*

$$|G| = 6$$

We know of two basic examples of groups of order 6:

- (1)  $\mathbf{Z}_6$ : cyclic group. Its multiplication table is easy. (Check it!)
- (2)  $S_3$ : nonabelian. We have described it by explicitly listing the permutations that belong to it. Here we will give another description: Let  $e = (1)$ ,  $a = (123)$  and  $b = (12)$ .  $\Rightarrow a^2 = (132)$ ,  $a^3 = e$ ,  $b^2 = e$ . Using the convention  $a^0 = b^0 = e$ , we can express each element of  $S_3$  in a unique way in the form  $a^i b^j$ , for  $i = 0, 1, 2$  and  $j = 0, 1$ . That is,  $(1) = e$ ,  $(123) = a$ ,  $(132) = a^2$ ,  $(12) = b$ ,  $(13) = ab$ ,  $(23) = a^2 b$ .

## Question 1

Question: What is  $ba$ ?    A:  $ba = a^2 b$  (Why?)



$$|G| = 6$$

We know of two basic examples of groups of order 6:

- (1)  $\mathbf{Z}_6$ : cyclic group. Its multiplication table is easy. (Check it!)
- (2)  $S_3$ : nonabelian. We have described it by explicitly listing the permutations that belong to it. Here we will give another description: Let  $e = (1)$ ,  $a = (123)$  and  $b = (12)$ .  $\Rightarrow a^2 = (132)$ ,  $a^3 = e$ ,  $b^2 = e$ . Using the convention  $a^0 = b^0 = e$ , we can express each element of  $S_3$  in a unique way in the form  $a^i b^j$ , for  $i = 0, 1, 2$  and  $j = 0, 1$ . That is,  $(1) = e$ ,  $(123) = a$ ,  $(132) = a^2$ ,  $(12) = b$ ,  $(13) = ab$ ,  $(23) = a^2 b$ .

## Question 1

Question: What is  $ba$ ?    A:  $ba = a^2 b$  (Why?)     $(12)(123) = (23)$

$$|G| = 6$$

We know of two basic examples of groups of order 6:

- (1)  $\mathbf{Z}_6$ : cyclic group. Its multiplication table is easy. (Check it!)
- (2)  $S_3$ : nonabelian. We have described it by explicitly listing the permutations that belong to it. Here we will give another description: Let  $e = (1)$ ,  $a = (123)$  and  $b = (12)$ .  $\Rightarrow a^2 = (132)$ ,  $a^3 = e$ ,  $b^2 = e$ . Using the convention  $a^0 = b^0 = e$ , we can express each element of  $S_3$  in a unique way in the form  $a^i b^j$ , for  $i = 0, 1, 2$  and  $j = 0, 1$ . That is,  $(1) = e$ ,  $(123) = a$ ,  $(132) = a^2$ ,  $(12) = b$ ,  $(13) = ab$ ,  $(23) = a^2 b$ .

### Question 1

Question: What is  $ba$ ?    A:  $ba = a^2 b$  (Why?)     $(12)(123) = (23)$

$$S_3 = \{e, a, a^2, b, ab, a^2 b\}, \quad \text{where } a^3 = e, b^2 = e, ba = a^2 b.$$

### Question 2

$$|G| = 6$$

We know of two basic examples of groups of order 6:

- (1)  $\mathbf{Z}_6$ : cyclic group. Its multiplication table is easy. (Check it!)
- (2)  $S_3$ : nonabelian. We have described it by explicitly listing the permutations that belong to it. Here we will give another description: Let  $e = (1)$ ,  $a = (123)$  and  $b = (12)$ .  $\Rightarrow a^2 = (132)$ ,  $a^3 = e$ ,  $b^2 = e$ . Using the convention  $a^0 = b^0 = e$ , we can express each element of  $S_3$  in a unique way in the form  $a^i b^j$ , for  $i = 0, 1, 2$  and  $j = 0, 1$ . That is,  $(1) = e$ ,  $(123) = a$ ,  $(132) = a^2$ ,  $(12) = b$ ,  $(13) = ab$ ,  $(23) = a^2 b$ .

### Question 1

Question: What is  $ba$ ?    A:  $ba = a^2 b$  (Why?)     $(12)(123) = (23)$

$$S_3 = \{e, a, a^2, b, ab, a^2 b\}, \quad \text{where } a^3 = e, b^2 = e, ba = a^2 b.$$

### Question 2

Question: What is  $ba^2$ ?

$$|G| = 6$$

We know of two basic examples of groups of order 6:

- (1)  $\mathbf{Z}_6$ : cyclic group. Its multiplication table is easy. (Check it!)
- (2)  $S_3$ : nonabelian. We have described it by explicitly listing the permutations that belong to it. Here we will give another description: Let  $e = (1)$ ,  $a = (123)$  and  $b = (12)$ .  $\Rightarrow a^2 = (132)$ ,  $a^3 = e$ ,  $b^2 = e$ . Using the convention  $a^0 = b^0 = e$ , we can express each element of  $S_3$  in a unique way in the form  $a^i b^j$ , for  $i = 0, 1, 2$  and  $j = 0, 1$ . That is,  $(1) = e$ ,  $(123) = a$ ,  $(132) = a^2$ ,  $(12) = b$ ,  $(13) = ab$ ,  $(23) = a^2 b$ .

### Question 1

Question: What is  $ba$ ? A:  $ba = a^2 b$  (Why?)  $(12)(123) = (23)$

$$S_3 = \{e, a, a^2, b, ab, a^2 b\}, \quad \text{where } a^3 = e, b^2 = e, ba = a^2 b.$$

### Question 2

Question: What is  $ba^2$ ?  $ba^2 = (ba)a = (a^2 b)a = a^2(ba) = a^2(a^2 b) = ab$

$$|G| = 6$$

We know of two basic examples of groups of order 6:

- (1)  $\mathbf{Z}_6$ : cyclic group. Its multiplication table is easy. (Check it!)
- (2)  $S_3$ : nonabelian. We have described it by explicitly listing the permutations that belong to it. Here we will give another description: Let  $e = (1)$ ,  $a = (123)$  and  $b = (12)$ .  $\Rightarrow a^2 = (132)$ ,  $a^3 = e$ ,  $b^2 = e$ . Using the convention  $a^0 = b^0 = e$ , we can express each element of  $S_3$  in a unique way in the form  $a^i b^j$ , for  $i = 0, 1, 2$  and  $j = 0, 1$ . That is,  $(1) = e$ ,  $(123) = a$ ,  $(132) = a^2$ ,  $(12) = b$ ,  $(13) = ab$ ,  $(23) = a^2 b$ .

### Question 1

Question: What is  $ba$ ? A:  $ba = a^2 b$  (Why?)  $(12)(123) = (23)$

$$S_3 = \{e, a, a^2, b, ab, a^2 b\}, \quad \text{where } a^3 = e, b^2 = e, ba = a^2 b.$$

### Question 2

Question: What is  $ba^2$ ?  $ba^2 = (ba)a = (a^2 b)a = a^2(ba) = a^2(a^2 b) = ab$

Find its multiplication table. (Check it!)

# Multiplication Table for $S_3$

$$S_3 = \{e, a, a^2, b, ab, a^2b\}, \quad \text{where } a^3 = e, b^2 = e, ba = a^2b.$$

We also calculated  $ba^2 = (ba)a = (a^2b)a = a^2(ba) = a^2(a^2b) = ab$ .

	$e$	$a$	$a^2$	$b$	$ab$	$a^2b$
$e$	$e$	$a$	$a^2$	$b$	$ab$	$a^2b$
$a$	$a$	$a^2$	$e$	$ab$	$a^2b$	$b$
$a^2$	$a^2$	$e$	$a$	$a^2b$	$b$	$ab$
$b$	$b$	$a^2b$	$ab$	$e$	$a^2$	$a$
$ab$	$ab$	$b$	$a^2b$	$a$	$e$	$a^2$
$a^2b$	$a^2b$	$ab$	$b$	$a^2$	$a$	$e$

# Product of two subgroups

# Product of two subgroups

Recall: *the intersection of subgroups of a group is again a subgroup.*



# Product of two subgroups

Recall: *the intersection of subgroups of a group is again a subgroup.*  
If  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups of a group  $G$ , then  $H \cap K$  is the largest subgroup of  $G$  that is contained in both  $H$  and  $K$ .

# Product of two subgroups

Recall: *the intersection of subgroups of a group is again a subgroup.*  
If  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups of a group  $G$ , then  $H \cap K$  is the largest subgroup of  $G$  that is contained in both  $H$  and  $K$ . On the other hand, what is the smallest subgroup that contains both  $H$  and  $K$ ?

## Definition 2

# Product of two subgroups

Recall: *the intersection of subgroups of a group is again a subgroup.* If  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups of a group  $G$ , then  $H \cap K$  is the largest subgroup of  $G$  that is contained in both  $H$  and  $K$ . On the other hand, what is the smallest subgroup that contains both  $H$  and  $K$ ?

## Definition 2

Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $S$  and  $T$  be subsets of  $G$ . Then

$$ST = \{x \in G \mid x = st \text{ for some } s \in S, t \in T\}.$$

# Product of two subgroups

Recall: *the intersection of subgroups of a group is again a subgroup.*  
If  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups of a group  $G$ , then  $H \cap K$  is the largest subgroup of  $G$  that is contained in both  $H$  and  $K$ . On the other hand, what is the smallest subgroup that contains both  $H$  and  $K$ ?

## Definition 2

Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $S$  and  $T$  be subsets of  $G$ . Then

$$ST = \{x \in G \mid x = st \text{ for some } s \in S, t \in T\}.$$

If  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups of  $G$ , then we call  $HK$  the **product** of  $H$  and  $K$ .

## Question 3

# Product of two subgroups

Recall: *the intersection of subgroups of a group is again a subgroup.*  
If  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups of a group  $G$ , then  $H \cap K$  is the largest subgroup of  $G$  that is contained in both  $H$  and  $K$ . On the other hand, what is the smallest subgroup that contains both  $H$  and  $K$ ?

## Definition 2

Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $S$  and  $T$  be subsets of  $G$ . Then

$$ST = \{x \in G \mid x = st \text{ for some } s \in S, t \in T\}.$$

If  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups of  $G$ , then we call  $HK$  the **product** of  $H$  and  $K$ .

## Question 3

Is the **product**  $HK$  a subgroup?

# Product of two subgroups

Recall: *the intersection of subgroups of a group is again a subgroup.*  
If  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups of a group  $G$ , then  $H \cap K$  is the largest subgroup of  $G$  that is contained in both  $H$  and  $K$ . On the other hand, what is the smallest subgroup that contains both  $H$  and  $K$ ?

## Definition 2

Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $S$  and  $T$  be subsets of  $G$ . Then

$$ST = \{x \in G \mid x = st \text{ for some } s \in S, t \in T\}.$$

If  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups of  $G$ , then we call  $HK$  the **product** of  $H$  and  $K$ .

## Question 3

Is the **product**  $HK$  a subgroup? A: **NOT** always.

# Product of two subgroups

Recall: *the intersection of subgroups of a group is again a subgroup.*  
If  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups of a group  $G$ , then  $H \cap K$  is the largest subgroup of  $G$  that is contained in both  $H$  and  $K$ . On the other hand, what is the smallest subgroup that contains both  $H$  and  $K$ ?

## Definition 2

Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $S$  and  $T$  be subsets of  $G$ . Then

$$ST = \{x \in G \mid x = st \text{ for some } s \in S, t \in T\}.$$

If  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups of  $G$ , then we call  $HK$  the **product** of  $H$  and  $K$ .

## Question 3

Is the **product**  $HK$  a subgroup? A: **NOT** always. (*When?*)

# Product of two subgroups

Recall: *the intersection of subgroups of a group is again a subgroup.*  
If  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups of a group  $G$ , then  $H \cap K$  is the largest subgroup of  $G$  that is contained in both  $H$  and  $K$ . On the other hand, what is the smallest subgroup that contains both  $H$  and  $K$ ?

## Definition 2

Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $S$  and  $T$  be subsets of  $G$ . Then

$$ST = \{x \in G \mid x = st \text{ for some } s \in S, t \in T\}.$$

If  $H$  and  $K$  are subgroups of  $G$ , then we call  $HK$  the **product** of  $H$  and  $K$ .

## Question 3

Is the **product**  $HK$  a subgroup? A: **NOT** always. (*When?*)

If the operation of  $G$  is denoted additively, then we write  $H + K$ , and refer to the **sum** of  $H$  and  $K$ .



When the product  $HK$  is a subgroup?

Proposition 1

# When the product $HK$ is a subgroup?

## Proposition 1

*Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $H$  and  $K$  be subgroups of  $G$ . If  $h^{-1}kh \in K$  for all  $h \in H$  and  $k \in K$ , then  $HK$  is a subgroup of  $G$*

Proof.

# When the product $HK$ is a subgroup?

## Proposition 1

Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $H$  and  $K$  be subgroups of  $G$ . If  $h^{-1}kh \in K$  for all  $h \in H$  and  $k \in K$ , then  $HK$  is a subgroup of  $G$

## Proof.

(i) Closure: Let  $g_1, g_2 \in HK$ . Then  $g_1 = h_1k_1$  and  $g_2 = h_2k_2$ .

# When the product $HK$ is a subgroup?

## Proposition 1

Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $H$  and  $K$  be subgroups of  $G$ . If  $h^{-1}kh \in K$  for all  $h \in H$  and  $k \in K$ , then  $HK$  is a subgroup of  $G$

## Proof.

(i) Closure: Let  $g_1, g_2 \in HK$ . Then  $g_1 = h_1k_1$  and  $g_2 = h_2k_2$ .

$$g_1g_2 = (h_1k_1)(h_2k_2) = h_1(h_2h_2^{-1})k_1h_2k_2 = h_1h_2(h_2^{-1}k_1h_2)k_2 \stackrel{?}{\in} HK$$

We omit parentheses because of associativity.

# When the product $HK$ is a subgroup?

## Proposition 1

Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $H$  and  $K$  be subgroups of  $G$ . If  $h^{-1}kh \in K$  for all  $h \in H$  and  $k \in K$ , then  $HK$  is a subgroup of  $G$

## Proof.

(i) Closure: Let  $g_1, g_2 \in HK$ . Then  $g_1 = h_1k_1$  and  $g_2 = h_2k_2$ .

$$g_1g_2 = (h_1k_1)(h_2k_2) = h_1(h_2h_2^{-1})k_1h_2k_2 = h_1h_2(h_2^{-1}k_1h_2)k_2 \stackrel{?}{\in} HK$$

We omit parentheses because of associativity.

(ii) Identity:  $e = e \cdot e \in HK$ . (Why?)

# When the product $HK$ is a subgroup?

## Proposition 1

Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $H$  and  $K$  be subgroups of  $G$ . If  $h^{-1}kh \in K$  for all  $h \in H$  and  $k \in K$ , then  $HK$  is a subgroup of  $G$

## Proof.

(i) Closure: Let  $g_1, g_2 \in HK$ . Then  $g_1 = h_1k_1$  and  $g_2 = h_2k_2$ .

$$g_1g_2 = (h_1k_1)(h_2k_2) = h_1(h_2h_2^{-1})k_1h_2k_2 = h_1h_2(h_2^{-1}k_1h_2)k_2 \stackrel{?}{\in} HK$$

We omit parentheses because of associativity.

(ii) Identity:  $e = e \cdot e \in HK$ . (Why?)

(iii) Inverses: If  $g = hk$  for  $h \in H$  and  $k \in K$ . Then

$$g^{-1} = k^{-1}h^{-1} = (h^{-1}h)k^{-1}h^{-1} = h^{-1}((h^{-1})^{-1}k^{-1}h^{-1}) \stackrel{?}{\in} HK$$



# When the product $HK$ is a subgroup?

## Proposition 1

Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $H$  and  $K$  be subgroups of  $G$ . If  $h^{-1}kh \in K$  for all  $h \in H$  and  $k \in K$ , then  $HK$  is a subgroup of  $G$

## Proof.

(i) Closure: Let  $g_1, g_2 \in HK$ . Then  $g_1 = h_1k_1$  and  $g_2 = h_2k_2$ .

$$g_1g_2 = (h_1k_1)(h_2k_2) = h_1(h_2h_2^{-1})k_1h_2k_2 = h_1h_2(h_2^{-1}k_1h_2)k_2 \stackrel{?}{\in} HK$$

We omit parentheses because of associativity.

(ii) Identity:  $e = e \cdot e \in HK$ . (Why?)

(iii) Inverses: If  $g = hk$  for  $h \in H$  and  $k \in K$ . Then

$$g^{-1} = k^{-1}h^{-1} = (h^{-1}h)k^{-1}h^{-1} = h^{-1}((h^{-1})^{-1}k^{-1}h^{-1}) \stackrel{?}{\in} HK$$



If  $G$  is **abelian**, then the product of any two subgroups is again a subgroup.

# When the product $HK$ is a subgroup?

## Proposition 1

Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $H$  and  $K$  be subgroups of  $G$ . If  $h^{-1}kh \in K$  for all  $h \in H$  and  $k \in K$ , then  $HK$  is a subgroup of  $G$

## Proof.

(i) Closure: Let  $g_1, g_2 \in HK$ . Then  $g_1 = h_1k_1$  and  $g_2 = h_2k_2$ .

$$g_1g_2 = (h_1k_1)(h_2k_2) = h_1(h_2h_2^{-1})k_1h_2k_2 = h_1h_2(h_2^{-1}k_1h_2)k_2 \stackrel{?}{\in} HK$$

We omit parentheses because of associativity.

(ii) Identity:  $e = e \cdot e \in HK$ . (Why?)

(iii) Inverses: If  $g = hk$  for  $h \in H$  and  $k \in K$ . Then

$$g^{-1} = k^{-1}h^{-1} = (h^{-1}h)k^{-1}h^{-1} = h^{-1}((h^{-1})^{-1}k^{-1}h^{-1}) \stackrel{?}{\in} HK$$

□

If  $G$  is **abelian**, then the product of any two subgroups is again a subgroup.

If  $G$  is a finite group, then  $|HK| = |H||K|/|H \cap K|$ . (How to prove it?)



# Proof of $|HK| = |H||K|/|H \cap K|$

# Proof of $|HK| = |H||K|/|H \cap K|$

- $H \cap K$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . (Why?)

## Proof of $|HK| = |H||K|/|H \cap K|$

- $H \cap K$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . (Why?)
- $H \cap K$  is a subgroup of  $H$  and a subgroup of  $K$ . (Why?)

## Proof of $|HK| = |H||K|/|H \cap K|$

- $H \cap K$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . (Why?)
- $H \cap K$  is a subgroup of  $H$  and a subgroup of  $K$ . (Why?)
- For any element  $t \in H \cap K$ , if  $hk \in HK$ , then we can write
$$hk = (ht)(t^{-1}k) \in HK. \text{ (Why?)}$$

## Proof of $|HK| = |H||K|/|H \cap K|$

- $H \cap K$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . (Why?)
- $H \cap K$  is a subgroup of  $H$  and a subgroup of  $K$ . (Why?)
- For any element  $t \in H \cap K$ , if  $hk \in HK$ , then we can write

$$hk = (ht)(t^{-1}k) \in HK. \text{ (Why?)}$$

This implies that every element in  $HK$  can be written in at least  $|H \cap K|$  different ways.

## Proof of $|HK| = |H||K|/|H \cap K|$

- $H \cap K$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . (Why?)
- $H \cap K$  is a subgroup of  $H$  and a subgroup of  $K$ . (Why?)
- For any element  $t \in H \cap K$ , if  $hk \in HK$ , then we can write

$$hk = (ht)(t^{-1}k) \in HK. \text{ (Why?)}$$

This implies that every element in  $HK$  can be written in at least  $|H \cap K|$  different ways.

- On the other hand, if  $hk = h'k' \in HK$ , then

$$h'^{-1}h = k'k^{-1} \in H \cap K. \text{ (Why?)}$$

## Proof of $|HK| = |H||K|/|H \cap K|$

- $H \cap K$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . (Why?)
- $H \cap K$  is a subgroup of  $H$  and a subgroup of  $K$ . (Why?)
- For any element  $t \in H \cap K$ , if  $hk \in HK$ , then we can write

$$hk = (ht)(t^{-1}k) \in HK. \text{ (Why?)}$$

This implies that every element in  $HK$  can be written in at least  $|H \cap K|$  different ways.

- On the other hand, if  $hk = h'k' \in HK$ , then

$$h'^{-1}h = k'k^{-1} \in H \cap K. \text{ (Why?)}$$

This means that there exists  $t \in H \cap K$  such that  $t = h'^{-1}h = k'k^{-1}$ . So  $h' = ht^{-1}$  and  $k' = tk$ , i.e.,  $h'k' = (ht^{-1})(tk)$  for some  $t \in H \cap K$ .

## Proof of $|HK| = |H||K|/|H \cap K|$

- $H \cap K$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . (Why?)
- $H \cap K$  is a subgroup of  $H$  and a subgroup of  $K$ . (Why?)
- For any element  $t \in H \cap K$ , if  $hk \in HK$ , then we can write

$$hk = (ht)(t^{-1}k) \in HK. \text{ (Why?)}$$

This implies that every element in  $HK$  can be written in at least  $|H \cap K|$  different ways.

- On the other hand, if  $hk = h'k' \in HK$ , then

$$h'^{-1}h = k'k^{-1} \in H \cap K. \text{ (Why?)}$$

This means that there exists  $t \in H \cap K$  such that  $t = h'^{-1}h = k'k^{-1}$ . So  $h' = ht^{-1}$  and  $k' = tk$ , i.e.,  $h'k' = (ht^{-1})(tk)$  for some  $t \in H \cap K$ .

- Thus, every element in  $HK$  can be written in exactly  $|H \cap K|$  different ways.



# Proof of $|HK| = |H||K|/|H \cap K|$

- $H \cap K$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . (Why?)
- $H \cap K$  is a subgroup of  $H$  and a subgroup of  $K$ . (Why?)
- For any element  $t \in H \cap K$ , if  $hk \in HK$ , then we can write

$$hk = (ht)(t^{-1}k) \in HK. \text{ (Why?)}$$

This implies that every element in  $HK$  can be written in at least  $|H \cap K|$  different ways.

- On the other hand, if  $hk = h'k' \in HK$ , then

$$h'^{-1}h = k'k^{-1} \in H \cap K. \text{ (Why?)}$$

This means that there exists  $t \in H \cap K$  such that  $t = h'^{-1}h = k'k^{-1}$ . So  $h' = ht^{-1}$  and  $k' = tk$ , i.e.,  $h'k' = (ht^{-1})(tk)$  for some  $t \in H \cap K$ .

- Thus, every element in  $HK$  can be written in exactly  $|H \cap K|$  different ways. Therefore,

$$|HK| = \frac{|H||K|}{|H \cap K|}.$$

## Example 3

$$G = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}, H = \{[1], [11]\}, K = \{[1], [4]\}:$$

## Example 3

$G = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^\times$ ,  $H = \{[1], [11]\}$ ,  $K = \{[1], [4]\}$ : Then  $HK$  is a subgroup. (Why?)

[

## Example 3

$G = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^\times$ ,  $H = \{[1], [11]\}$ ,  $K = \{[1], [4]\}$ : Then  $HK$  is a subgroup. (Why?)  
[ $\mathbf{Z}_{15}^\times$  is abelian] Computing all possible products in  $HK$  gives us

## Example 3

$G = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}$ ,  $H = \{[1], [11]\}$ ,  $K = \{[1], [4]\}$ : Then  $HK$  is a subgroup. (Why?)

[ $\mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}$  is abelian] Computing all possible products in  $HK$  gives us

$$[1][1] = [1], \quad [1][4] = [4], \quad [11][1] = [11], \quad [11][4] = [14],$$

and so  $HK = \{[1], [4], [11], [14]\}$  is a subgroup of order 4.

## Example 3

$G = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}$ ,  $H = \{[1], [11]\}$ ,  $K = \{[1], [4]\}$ : Then  $HK$  is a subgroup. (Why?)

[ $\mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}$  is abelian] Computing all possible products in  $HK$  gives us

$$[1][1] = [1], \quad [1][4] = [4], \quad [11][1] = [11], \quad [11][4] = [14],$$

and so  $HK = \{[1], [4], [11], [14]\}$  is a subgroup of order 4.

Let  $L = \langle [7] \rangle = \{[1], [4], [7], [13]\}$ . Listing all of the distinct products:

$$HL = \{[1], [2], [4], [7], [8], [11], [13], [14]\} = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}.$$

## Example 4 ( $a\mathbf{Z} + b\mathbf{Z} = (a, b)\mathbf{Z}$ )

## Example 3

$G = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}$ ,  $H = \{[1], [11]\}$ ,  $K = \{[1], [4]\}$ : Then  $HK$  is a subgroup. (Why?)

[ $\mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}$  is abelian] Computing all possible products in  $HK$  gives us

$$[1][1] = [1], \quad [1][4] = [4], \quad [11][1] = [11], \quad [11][4] = [14],$$

and so  $HK = \{[1], [4], [11], [14]\}$  is a subgroup of order 4.

Let  $L = \langle [7] \rangle = \{[1], [4], [7], [13]\}$ . Listing all of the distinct products:

$$HL = \{[1], [2], [4], [7], [8], [11], [13], [14]\} = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}.$$

## Example 4 ( $a\mathbf{Z} + b\mathbf{Z} = (a, b)\mathbf{Z}$ )

Let  $h \in H = a\mathbf{Z}$  and  $k \in K = b\mathbf{Z}$ . Let  $(a, b) = d$ . Claim:  $H + K = d\mathbf{Z}$ .

## Example 3

$G = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}$ ,  $H = \{[1], [11]\}$ ,  $K = \{[1], [4]\}$ : Then  $HK$  is a subgroup. (Why?)

[ $\mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}$  is abelian] Computing all possible products in  $HK$  gives us

$$[1][1] = [1], \quad [1][4] = [4], \quad [11][1] = [11], \quad [11][4] = [14],$$

and so  $HK = \{[1], [4], [11], [14]\}$  is a subgroup of order 4.

Let  $L = \langle [7] \rangle = \{[1], [4], [7], [13]\}$ . Listing all of the distinct products:

$$HL = \{[1], [2], [4], [7], [8], [11], [13], [14]\} = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}.$$

## Example 4 ( $a\mathbf{Z} + b\mathbf{Z} = (a, b)\mathbf{Z}$ )

Let  $h \in H = a\mathbf{Z}$  and  $k \in K = b\mathbf{Z}$ . Let  $(a, b) = d$ . Claim:  $H + K = d\mathbf{Z}$ .

- $H + K \subseteq d\mathbf{Z}$ : (Why?) [



## Example 3

$G = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}$ ,  $H = \{[1], [11]\}$ ,  $K = \{[1], [4]\}$ : Then  $HK$  is a subgroup. (Why?)  
[ $\mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}$  is abelian] Computing all possible products in  $HK$  gives us

$$[1][1] = [1], \quad [1][4] = [4], \quad [11][1] = [11], \quad [11][4] = [14],$$

and so  $HK = \{[1], [4], [11], [14]\}$  is a subgroup of order 4.

Let  $L = \langle [7] \rangle = \{[1], [4], [7], [13]\}$ . Listing all of the distinct products:

$$HL = \{[1], [2], [4], [7], [8], [11], [13], [14]\} = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}.$$

## Example 4 ( $a\mathbf{Z} + b\mathbf{Z} = (a, b)\mathbf{Z}$ )

Let  $h \in H = a\mathbf{Z}$  and  $k \in K = b\mathbf{Z}$ . Let  $(a, b) = d$ . Claim:  $H + K = d\mathbf{Z}$ .

- $H + K \subseteq d\mathbf{Z}$ : (Why?) [ $h + k$  is a linear combination of  $a$  and  $b$ .]

## Example 3

$G = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}$ ,  $H = \{[1], [11]\}$ ,  $K = \{[1], [4]\}$ : Then  $HK$  is a subgroup. (Why?)

[ $\mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}$  is abelian] Computing all possible products in  $HK$  gives us

$$[1][1] = [1], \quad [1][4] = [4], \quad [11][1] = [11], \quad [11][4] = [14],$$

and so  $HK = \{[1], [4], [11], [14]\}$  is a subgroup of order 4.

Let  $L = \langle [7] \rangle = \{[1], [4], [7], [13]\}$ . Listing all of the distinct products:

$$HL = \{[1], [2], [4], [7], [8], [11], [13], [14]\} = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}.$$

## Example 4 ( $a\mathbf{Z} + b\mathbf{Z} = (a, b)\mathbf{Z}$ )

Let  $h \in H = a\mathbf{Z}$  and  $k \in K = b\mathbf{Z}$ . Let  $(a, b) = d$ . Claim:  $H + K = d\mathbf{Z}$ .

- $H + K \subseteq d\mathbf{Z}$ : (Why?) [ $h + k$  is a linear combination of  $a$  and  $b$ .]
- $d\mathbf{Z} \subseteq H + K$ : (Why?) [

## Example 3

$G = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}$ ,  $H = \{[1], [11]\}$ ,  $K = \{[1], [4]\}$ : Then  $HK$  is a subgroup. (Why?)  
[ $\mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}$  is abelian] Computing all possible products in  $HK$  gives us

$$[1][1] = [1], \quad [1][4] = [4], \quad [11][1] = [11], \quad [11][4] = [14],$$

and so  $HK = \{[1], [4], [11], [14]\}$  is a subgroup of order 4.

Let  $L = \langle [7] \rangle = \{[1], [4], [7], [13]\}$ . Listing all of the distinct products:

$$HL = \{[1], [2], [4], [7], [8], [11], [13], [14]\} = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}.$$

## Example 4 ( $a\mathbf{Z} + b\mathbf{Z} = (a, b)\mathbf{Z}$ )

Let  $h \in H = a\mathbf{Z}$  and  $k \in K = b\mathbf{Z}$ . Let  $(a, b) = d$ . Claim:  $H + K = d\mathbf{Z}$ .

- $H + K \subseteq d\mathbf{Z}$ : (Why?) [ $h + k$  is a linear combination of  $a$  and  $b$ .]
- $d\mathbf{Z} \subseteq H + K$ : (Why?) [ $d$  is a linear combination of  $a$  and  $b$ , so  $d \in H + K$ .]

## Example 3

$G = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}$ ,  $H = \{[1], [11]\}$ ,  $K = \{[1], [4]\}$ : Then  $HK$  is a subgroup. (Why?)  
[ $\mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}$  is abelian] Computing all possible products in  $HK$  gives us

$$[1][1] = [1], \quad [1][4] = [4], \quad [11][1] = [11], \quad [11][4] = [14],$$

and so  $HK = \{[1], [4], [11], [14]\}$  is a subgroup of order 4.

Let  $L = \langle [7] \rangle = \{[1], [4], [7], [13]\}$ . Listing all of the distinct products:

$$HL = \{[1], [2], [4], [7], [8], [11], [13], [14]\} = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}.$$

## Example 4 ( $a\mathbf{Z} + b\mathbf{Z} = (a, b)\mathbf{Z}$ )

Let  $h \in H = a\mathbf{Z}$  and  $k \in K = b\mathbf{Z}$ . Let  $(a, b) = d$ . Claim:  $H + K = d\mathbf{Z}$ .

- $H + K \subseteq d\mathbf{Z}$ : (Why?) [ $h + k$  is a linear combination of  $a$  and  $b$ .]
- $d\mathbf{Z} \subseteq H + K$ : (Why?) [ $d$  is a linear combination of  $a$  and  $b$ , so  $d \in H + K$ . It implies that  $d\mathbf{Z} \subseteq H + K$ .]

## Example 3

$G = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}$ ,  $H = \{[1], [11]\}$ ,  $K = \{[1], [4]\}$ : Then  $HK$  is a subgroup. (Why?)  
[ $\mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}$  is abelian] Computing all possible products in  $HK$  gives us

$$[1][1] = [1], \quad [1][4] = [4], \quad [11][1] = [11], \quad [11][4] = [14],$$

and so  $HK = \{[1], [4], [11], [14]\}$  is a subgroup of order 4.

Let  $L = \langle [7] \rangle = \{[1], [4], [7], [13]\}$ . Listing all of the distinct products:

$$HL = \{[1], [2], [4], [7], [8], [11], [13], [14]\} = \mathbf{Z}_{15}^{\times}.$$

## Example 4 ( $a\mathbf{Z} + b\mathbf{Z} = (a, b)\mathbf{Z}$ )

Let  $h \in H = a\mathbf{Z}$  and  $k \in K = b\mathbf{Z}$ . Let  $(a, b) = d$ . Claim:  $H + K = d\mathbf{Z}$ .

- $H + K \subseteq d\mathbf{Z}$ : (Why?) [ $h + k$  is a linear combination of  $a$  and  $b$ .]
- $d\mathbf{Z} \subseteq H + K$ : (Why?) [ $d$  is a linear combination of  $a$  and  $b$ , so  $d \in H + K$ . It implies that  $d\mathbf{Z} \subseteq H + K$ . (Proposition 2 in §3.2 (b))]

## Definition 5

# Direct product

## Definition 5

Let  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  be groups. The set of all ordered pairs  $(x_1, x_2)$  such that  $x_1 \in G_1$  and  $x_2 \in G_2$  is called the **direct product** of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ , denoted by  $G_1 \times G_2$ . That is,

$$G_1 \times G_2 = \{(x_1, x_2) \mid x_1 \in G_1 \text{ and } x_2 \in G_2\}$$

Proposition 2 (Let  $(G_1, *)$  and  $(G_2, \cdot)$  be groups.)

# Direct product

## Definition 5

Let  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  be groups. The set of all ordered pairs  $(x_1, x_2)$  such that  $x_1 \in G_1$  and  $x_2 \in G_2$  is called the **direct product** of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ , denoted by  $G_1 \times G_2$ . That is,

$$G_1 \times G_2 = \{(x_1, x_2) \mid x_1 \in G_1 \text{ and } x_2 \in G_2\}$$

**Proposition 2** (Let  $(G_1, *)$  and  $(G_2, \cdot)$  be groups.)

(a) *The direct product  $G_1 \times G_2$  is a group under the operation defined for all  $(a_1, a_2), (b_1, b_2) \in G_1 \times G_2$  by*

$$(a_1, a_2)(b_1, b_2) = (a_1 * b_1, a_2 \cdot b_2).$$



# Direct product

## Definition 5

Let  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  be groups. The set of all ordered pairs  $(x_1, x_2)$  such that  $x_1 \in G_1$  and  $x_2 \in G_2$  is called the **direct product** of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ , denoted by  $G_1 \times G_2$ . That is,

$$G_1 \times G_2 = \{(x_1, x_2) \mid x_1 \in G_1 \text{ and } x_2 \in G_2\}$$

## Proposition 2 (Let $(G_1, *)$ and $(G_2, \cdot)$ be groups.)

(a) *The direct product  $G_1 \times G_2$  is a group under the operation defined for all  $(a_1, a_2), (b_1, b_2) \in G_1 \times G_2$  by*

$$(a_1, a_2)(b_1, b_2) = (a_1 * b_1, a_2 \cdot b_2).$$

(b) *If  $a_1 \in G_1$  and  $a_2 \in G_2$  have orders  $n$  and  $m$ , respectively, then in  $G_1 \times G_2$  the element  $(a_1, a_2)$  has order  $\text{lcm}[n, m]$ .*

## Remark 1

# Direct product

## Definition 5

Let  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  be groups. The set of all ordered pairs  $(x_1, x_2)$  such that  $x_1 \in G_1$  and  $x_2 \in G_2$  is called the **direct product** of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ , denoted by  $G_1 \times G_2$ . That is,

$$G_1 \times G_2 = \{(x_1, x_2) \mid x_1 \in G_1 \text{ and } x_2 \in G_2\}$$

## Proposition 2 (Let $(G_1, *)$ and $(G_2, \cdot)$ be groups.)

(a) *The direct product  $G_1 \times G_2$  is a group under the operation defined for all  $(a_1, a_2), (b_1, b_2) \in G_1 \times G_2$  by*

$$(a_1, a_2)(b_1, b_2) = (a_1 * b_1, a_2 \cdot b_2).$$

(b) *If  $a_1 \in G_1$  and  $a_2 \in G_2$  have orders  $n$  and  $m$ , respectively, then in  $G_1 \times G_2$  the element  $(a_1, a_2)$  has order  $\text{lcm}[n, m]$ .*

## Remark 1

*If  $G_1, G_2$  are finite groups, then  $|G_1 \times G_2| = |G_1| \cdot |G_2|$ .*

# Proof of Proposition 2

# Proof of Proposition 2

- (a) (i) Closure: The given operation defines a binary operation. (Check it!)

# Proof of Proposition 2

- (a) (i) Closure: The given operation defines a binary operation. (Check it!)
- (ii) Associativity:

## Proof of Proposition 2

- (a) (i) Closure: The given operation defines a binary operation. (Check it!)  
(ii) Associativity: For all  $(a_1, a_2), (b_1, b_2), (c_1, c_2) \in G_1 \times G_2$  we have

$$\begin{aligned}(a_1, a_2)((b_1, b_2)(c_1, c_2)) &= (a_1, a_2)(b_1 * c_1, b_2 \cdot c_2) \\ &= (a_1 * (b_1 * c_1), a_2 \cdot (b_2 \cdot c_2)) \\ &= ((a_1 * b_1) * c_1, (a_2 \cdot b_2) \cdot c_2) \\ &= (a_1 * b_1, a_2 \cdot b_2)(c_1, c_2) \\ &= ((a_1, a_2)(b_1, b_2))(c_1, c_2)\end{aligned}$$

- (iii) Identity:

## Proof of Proposition 2

- (a) (i) Closure: The given operation defines a binary operation. (Check it!)  
(ii) Associativity: For all  $(a_1, a_2), (b_1, b_2), (c_1, c_2) \in G_1 \times G_2$  we have

$$\begin{aligned}(a_1, a_2)((b_1, b_2)(c_1, c_2)) &= (a_1, a_2)(b_1 * c_1, b_2 \cdot c_2) \\ &= (a_1 * (b_1 * c_1), a_2 \cdot (b_2 \cdot c_2)) \\ &= ((a_1 * b_1) * c_1, (a_2 \cdot b_2) \cdot c_2) \\ &= (a_1 * b_1, a_2 \cdot b_2)(c_1, c_2) \\ &= ((a_1, a_2)(b_1, b_2))(c_1, c_2)\end{aligned}$$

- (iii) Identity:  $(e_1, e_2)$ , where  $e_i$  is the identity elements in  $G_i, i = 1, 2$ .

## Proof of Proposition 2

- (a) (i) Closure: The given operation defines a binary operation. (Check it!)  
(ii) Associativity: For all  $(a_1, a_2), (b_1, b_2), (c_1, c_2) \in G_1 \times G_2$  we have

$$\begin{aligned}(a_1, a_2)((b_1, b_2)(c_1, c_2)) &= (a_1, a_2)(b_1 * c_1, b_2 \cdot c_2) \\ &= (a_1 * (b_1 * c_1), a_2 \cdot (b_2 \cdot c_2)) \\ &= ((a_1 * b_1) * c_1, (a_2 \cdot b_2) \cdot c_2) \\ &= (a_1 * b_1, a_2 \cdot b_2)(c_1, c_2) \\ &= ((a_1, a_2)(b_1, b_2))(c_1, c_2)\end{aligned}$$

- (iii) Identity:  $(e_1, e_2)$ , where  $e_i$  is the identity elements in  $G_i, i = 1, 2$ .  
(iv) Inverses:  $(a_1, a_2)^{-1} = (a_1^{-1}, a_2^{-1})$ . (Check it!)



## Proof of Proposition 2

- (a) (i) Closure: The given operation defines a binary operation. (Check it!)  
(ii) Associativity: For all  $(a_1, a_2), (b_1, b_2), (c_1, c_2) \in G_1 \times G_2$  we have

$$\begin{aligned}(a_1, a_2)((b_1, b_2)(c_1, c_2)) &= (a_1, a_2)(b_1 * c_1, b_2 \cdot c_2) \\ &= (a_1 * (b_1 * c_1), a_2 \cdot (b_2 \cdot c_2)) \\ &= ((a_1 * b_1) * c_1, (a_2 \cdot b_2) \cdot c_2) \\ &= (a_1 * b_1, a_2 \cdot b_2)(c_1, c_2) \\ &= ((a_1, a_2)(b_1, b_2))(c_1, c_2)\end{aligned}$$

(iii) Identity:  $(e_1, e_2)$ , where  $e_i$  is the identity elements in  $G_i, i = 1, 2$ .

(iv) Inverses:  $(a_1, a_2)^{-1} = (a_1^{-1}, a_2^{-1})$ . (Check it!)

- (b) Let  $o(a_1) = n, o(a_2) = m$ . In  $G_1 \times G_2$ ,  $o((a_1, a_2))$  is the smallest positive power  $k$  s.t.  $(a_1, a_2)^k = (e_1, e_2)$ . To show:  $k = \text{lcm}[n, m]$ .

## Proof of Proposition 2

- (a) (i) Closure: The given operation defines a binary operation. (Check it!)  
(ii) Associativity: For all  $(a_1, a_2), (b_1, b_2), (c_1, c_2) \in G_1 \times G_2$  we have

$$\begin{aligned}(a_1, a_2)((b_1, b_2)(c_1, c_2)) &= (a_1, a_2)(b_1 * c_1, b_2 \cdot c_2) \\ &= (a_1 * (b_1 * c_1), a_2 \cdot (b_2 \cdot c_2)) \\ &= ((a_1 * b_1) * c_1, (a_2 \cdot b_2) \cdot c_2) \\ &= (a_1 * b_1, a_2 \cdot b_2)(c_1, c_2) \\ &= ((a_1, a_2)(b_1, b_2))(c_1, c_2)\end{aligned}$$

(iii) Identity:  $(e_1, e_2)$ , where  $e_i$  is the identity elements in  $G_i, i = 1, 2$ .

(iv) Inverses:  $(a_1, a_2)^{-1} = (a_1^{-1}, a_2^{-1})$ . (Check it!)

- (b) Let  $o(a_1) = n, o(a_2) = m$ . In  $G_1 \times G_2$ ,  $o((a_1, a_2))$  is the smallest positive power  $k$  s.t.  $(a_1, a_2)^k = (e_1, e_2)$ . To show:  $k = \text{lcm}[n, m]$ .

$$(a_1, a_2)^k = (a_1^k, a_2^k) = (e_1, e_2) \Rightarrow a_1^k = e_1, a_2^k = e_2 \Rightarrow n|k, m|k. (\text{Why?})$$

## Proof of Proposition 2

- (a) (i) Closure: The given operation defines a binary operation. (Check it!)  
(ii) Associativity: For all  $(a_1, a_2), (b_1, b_2), (c_1, c_2) \in G_1 \times G_2$  we have

$$\begin{aligned}(a_1, a_2)((b_1, b_2)(c_1, c_2)) &= (a_1, a_2)(b_1 * c_1, b_2 \cdot c_2) \\ &= (a_1 * (b_1 * c_1), a_2 \cdot (b_2 \cdot c_2)) \\ &= ((a_1 * b_1) * c_1, (a_2 \cdot b_2) \cdot c_2) \\ &= (a_1 * b_1, a_2 \cdot b_2)(c_1, c_2) \\ &= ((a_1, a_2)(b_1, b_2))(c_1, c_2)\end{aligned}$$

(iii) Identity:  $(e_1, e_2)$ , where  $e_i$  is the identity elements in  $G_i, i = 1, 2$ .

(iv) Inverses:  $(a_1, a_2)^{-1} = (a_1^{-1}, a_2^{-1})$ . (Check it!)

- (b) Let  $o(a_1) = n, o(a_2) = m$ . In  $G_1 \times G_2$ ,  $o((a_1, a_2))$  is the smallest positive power  $k$  s.t.  $(a_1, a_2)^k = (e_1, e_2)$ . To show:  $k = \text{lcm}[n, m]$ .

$$(a_1, a_2)^k = (a_1^k, a_2^k) = (e_1, e_2) \Rightarrow a_1^k = e_1, a_2^k = e_2 \Rightarrow n|k, m|k. (\text{Why?})$$

$k$  is the smallest positive integer s.t.  $n|k$  and  $m|k$ ,

## Proof of Proposition 2

- (a) (i) Closure: The given operation defines a binary operation. (Check it!)  
(ii) Associativity: For all  $(a_1, a_2), (b_1, b_2), (c_1, c_2) \in G_1 \times G_2$  we have

$$\begin{aligned}(a_1, a_2)((b_1, b_2)(c_1, c_2)) &= (a_1, a_2)(b_1 * c_1, b_2 \cdot c_2) \\ &= (a_1 * (b_1 * c_1), a_2 \cdot (b_2 \cdot c_2)) \\ &= ((a_1 * b_1) * c_1, (a_2 \cdot b_2) \cdot c_2) \\ &= (a_1 * b_1, a_2 \cdot b_2)(c_1, c_2) \\ &= ((a_1, a_2)(b_1, b_2))(c_1, c_2)\end{aligned}$$

(iii) Identity:  $(e_1, e_2)$ , where  $e_i$  is the identity elements in  $G_i, i = 1, 2$ .

(iv) Inverses:  $(a_1, a_2)^{-1} = (a_1^{-1}, a_2^{-1})$ . (Check it!)

- (b) Let  $o(a_1) = n, o(a_2) = m$ . In  $G_1 \times G_2$ ,  $o((a_1, a_2))$  is the smallest positive power  $k$  s.t.  $(a_1, a_2)^k = (e_1, e_2)$ . To show:  $k = \text{lcm}[n, m]$ .

$$(a_1, a_2)^k = (a_1^k, a_2^k) = (e_1, e_2) \Rightarrow a_1^k = e_1, a_2^k = e_2 \Rightarrow n|k, m|k. (\text{Why?})$$

$k$  is the smallest positive integer s.t.  $n|k$  and  $m|k$ , so  $k = \text{lcm}[n, m]$ .

## Example: Klein four-group

We give the addition table for  $\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_2 = \{([0], [0]), ([1], [0]), ([0], [1]), ([1], [1])\}$ :

## Example: Klein four-group

We give the addition table for  $\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_2 = \{([0], [0]), ([1], [0]), ([0], [1]), ([1], [1])\}$ :

	$([0], [0])$	$([1], [0])$	$([0], [1])$	$([1], [1])$
$([0], [0])$	$([0], [0])$	$([1], [0])$	$([0], [1])$	$([1], [1])$
$([1], [0])$	$([1], [0])$	$([0], [0])$	$([1], [1])$	$([0], [1])$
$([0], [1])$	$([0], [1])$	$([1], [1])$	$([0], [0])$	$([1], [0])$
$([1], [1])$	$([1], [1])$	$([0], [1])$	$([1], [0])$	$([0], [0])$

## Example: Klein four-group

We give the addition table for  $\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_2 = \{([0], [0]), ([1], [0]), ([0], [1]), ([1], [1])\}$ :

	$([0], [0])$	$([1], [0])$	$([0], [1])$	$([1], [1])$
$([0], [0])$	$([0], [0])$	$([1], [0])$	$([0], [1])$	$([1], [1])$
$([1], [0])$	$([1], [0])$	$([0], [0])$	$([1], [1])$	$([0], [1])$
$([0], [1])$	$([0], [1])$	$([1], [1])$	$([0], [0])$	$([1], [0])$
$([1], [1])$	$([1], [1])$	$([0], [1])$	$([1], [0])$	$([0], [0])$

This group is usually called the **Klein four-group**.

## Example: Klein four-group

We give the addition table for  $\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_2 = \{([0], [0]), ([1], [0]), ([0], [1]), ([1], [1])\}$ :

	$([0], [0])$	$([1], [0])$	$([0], [1])$	$([1], [1])$
$([0], [0])$	$([0], [0])$	$([1], [0])$	$([0], [1])$	$([1], [1])$
$([1], [0])$	$([1], [0])$	$([0], [0])$	$([1], [1])$	$([0], [1])$
$([0], [1])$	$([0], [1])$	$([1], [1])$	$([0], [0])$	$([1], [0])$
$([1], [1])$	$([1], [1])$	$([0], [1])$	$([1], [0])$	$([0], [0])$

This group is usually called the **Klein four-group**.

The pattern in this table is the same as the table below.

	$e$	$a$	$b$	$c$
$e$	$e$	$a$	$b$	$c$
$a$	$a$	$e$	$c$	$b$
$b$	$b$	$c$	$e$	$a$
$c$	$c$	$b$	$a$	$e$



## Example: Klein four-group

We give the addition table for  $\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_2 = \{([0], [0]), ([1], [0]), ([0], [1]), ([1], [1])\}$ :

	$([0], [0])$	$([1], [0])$	$([0], [1])$	$([1], [1])$
$([0], [0])$	$([0], [0])$	$([1], [0])$	$([0], [1])$	$([1], [1])$
$([1], [0])$	$([1], [0])$	$([0], [0])$	$([1], [1])$	$([0], [1])$
$([0], [1])$	$([0], [1])$	$([1], [1])$	$([0], [0])$	$([1], [0])$
$([1], [1])$	$([1], [1])$	$([0], [1])$	$([1], [0])$	$([0], [0])$

This group is usually called the **Klein four-group**.

The pattern in this table is the same as the table below.

	$e$	$a$	$b$	$c$
$e$	$e$	$a$	$b$	$c$
$a$	$a$	$e$	$c$	$b$
$b$	$b$	$c$	$e$	$a$
$c$	$c$	$b$	$a$	$e$

This group is characterized by the fact that **it has order 4 and each element except the identity has order 2**.

# More Examples

## Example 6

In the group  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ ,

# More Examples

## Example 6

In the group  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ , the subgroup generated by an element  $(m, n)$  consists of all multiples  $k(m, n)$ .

# More Examples

## Example 6

In the group  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ , the subgroup generated by an element  $(m, n)$  consists of all multiples  $k(m, n)$ .

This subgroup cannot contain both of  $(1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ . (Check it!)

# More Examples

## Example 6

In the group  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ , the subgroup generated by an element  $(m, n)$  consists of all multiples  $k(m, n)$ .

This subgroup cannot contain both of  $(1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ . (Check it!)

So no single element generates  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ .

# More Examples

## Example 6

In the group  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ , the subgroup generated by an element  $(m, n)$  consists of all multiples  $k(m, n)$ .

This subgroup cannot contain both of  $(1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ . (Check it!)

So no single element generates  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ . Thus, it is not cyclic.

# More Examples

## Example 6

In the group  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ , the subgroup generated by an element  $(m, n)$  consists of all multiples  $k(m, n)$ .

This subgroup cannot contain both of  $(1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ . (Check it!)

So no single element generates  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ . Thus, it is not cyclic.

Natural subgroups:  $\langle(1, 0)\rangle$  and  $\langle(0, 1)\rangle$ .

# More Examples

## Example 6

In the group  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ , the subgroup generated by an element  $(m, n)$  consists of all multiples  $k(m, n)$ .

This subgroup cannot contain both of  $(1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ . (Check it!)

So no single element generates  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ . Thus, it is not cyclic.

Natural subgroups:  $\langle(1, 0)\rangle$  and  $\langle(0, 1)\rangle$ . The “diagonal” subgroup  $\langle(1, 1)\rangle$ .

## Example 7



# More Examples

## Example 6

In the group  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ , the subgroup generated by an element  $(m, n)$  consists of all multiples  $k(m, n)$ .

This subgroup cannot contain both of  $(1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ . (Check it!)

So no single element generates  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ . Thus, it is not cyclic.

Natural subgroups:  $\langle(1, 0)\rangle$  and  $\langle(0, 1)\rangle$ . The “diagonal” subgroup  $\langle(1, 1)\rangle$ .

## Example 7

$\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_3$  is cyclic. (Why?) [

# More Examples

## Example 6

In the group  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ , the subgroup generated by an element  $(m, n)$  consists of all multiples  $k(m, n)$ .

This subgroup cannot contain both of  $(1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ . (Check it!)

So no single element generates  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ . Thus, it is not cyclic.

Natural subgroups:  $\langle(1, 0)\rangle$  and  $\langle(0, 1)\rangle$ . The “diagonal” subgroup  $\langle(1, 1)\rangle$ .

## Example 7

$\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_3$  is cyclic. (Why?)  $[(1, 1)$  has order 6 (Why?)  $\text{order} = \text{lcm}[2, 3] = 6]$

# More Examples

## Example 6

In the group  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ , the subgroup generated by an element  $(m, n)$  consists of all multiples  $k(m, n)$ .

This subgroup cannot contain both of  $(1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ . (Check it!)

So no single element generates  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ . Thus, it is not cyclic.

Natural subgroups:  $\langle(1, 0)\rangle$  and  $\langle(0, 1)\rangle$ . The “diagonal” subgroup  $\langle(1, 1)\rangle$ .

## Example 7

$\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_3$  is cyclic. (Why?)  $[(1, 1)$  has order 6 (Why?)  $\text{order} = \text{lcm}[2, 3] = 6]$

$\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_4$  is **not** cyclic. (Why?) [

# More Examples

## Example 6

In the group  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ , the subgroup generated by an element  $(m, n)$  consists of all multiples  $k(m, n)$ .

This subgroup cannot contain both of  $(1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ . (Check it!)

So no single element generates  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ . Thus, it is not cyclic.

Natural subgroups:  $\langle(1, 0)\rangle$  and  $\langle(0, 1)\rangle$ . The “diagonal” subgroup  $\langle(1, 1)\rangle$ .

## Example 7

$\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_3$  is cyclic. (Why?)  $[(1, 1)$  has order 6 (Why?)  $\text{order} = \text{lcm}[2, 3] = 6]$

$\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_4$  is **not** cyclic. (Why?) [Note that  $|\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_4| = 2 \cdot 4 = 8]$

# More Examples

## Example 6

In the group  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ , the subgroup generated by an element  $(m, n)$  consists of all multiples  $k(m, n)$ .

This subgroup cannot contain both of  $(1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ . (Check it!)

So no single element generates  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ . Thus, it is not cyclic.

Natural subgroups:  $\langle(1, 0)\rangle$  and  $\langle(0, 1)\rangle$ . The “diagonal” subgroup  $\langle(1, 1)\rangle$ .

## Example 7

$\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_3$  is cyclic. (Why?)  $[(1, 1)$  has order 6 (Why?)  $\text{order} = \text{lcm}[2, 3] = 6]$

$\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_4$  is **not** cyclic. (Why?) [Note that  $|\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_4| = 2 \cdot 4 = 8]$

In the first component the possible orders are **1 and 2**.

# More Examples

## Example 6

In the group  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ , the subgroup generated by an element  $(m, n)$  consists of all multiples  $k(m, n)$ .

This subgroup cannot contain both of  $(1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ . (Check it!)

So no single element generates  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ . Thus, it is not cyclic.

Natural subgroups:  $\langle(1, 0)\rangle$  and  $\langle(0, 1)\rangle$ . The “diagonal” subgroup  $\langle(1, 1)\rangle$ .

## Example 7

$\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_3$  is cyclic. (Why?)  $[(1, 1)$  has order 6 (Why?)  $\text{order} = \text{lcm}[2, 3] = 6]$

$\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_4$  is **not** cyclic. (Why?) [Note that  $|\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_4| = 2 \cdot 4 = 8]$

In the first component the possible orders are **1 and 2**.

In the second component the possible orders are **1, 2, and 4**.

# More Examples

## Example 6

In the group  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ , the subgroup generated by an element  $(m, n)$  consists of all multiples  $k(m, n)$ .

This subgroup cannot contain both of  $(1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ . (Check it!)

So no single element generates  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ . Thus, it is not cyclic.

Natural subgroups:  $\langle(1, 0)\rangle$  and  $\langle(0, 1)\rangle$ . The “diagonal” subgroup  $\langle(1, 1)\rangle$ .

## Example 7

$\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_3$  is cyclic. (Why?)  $[(1, 1)$  has order 6 (Why?)  $\text{order} = \text{lcm}[2, 3] = 6]$

$\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_4$  is **not** cyclic. (Why?) [Note that  $|\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_4| = 2 \cdot 4 = 8]$

In the first component the possible orders are **1 and 2**.

In the second component the possible orders are **1, 2, and 4**.

The largest possible least common multiple we can have is 4,

# More Examples

## Example 6

In the group  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ , the subgroup generated by an element  $(m, n)$  consists of all multiples  $k(m, n)$ .

This subgroup cannot contain both of  $(1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ . (Check it!)

So no single element generates  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ . Thus, it is not cyclic.

Natural subgroups:  $\langle(1, 0)\rangle$  and  $\langle(0, 1)\rangle$ . The “diagonal” subgroup  $\langle(1, 1)\rangle$ .

## Example 7

$\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_3$  is cyclic. (Why?)  $[(1, 1)$  has order 6 (Why?)  $\text{order} = \text{lcm}[2, 3] = 6]$

$\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_4$  is **not** cyclic. (Why?) [Note that  $|\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_4| = 2 \cdot 4 = 8]$

In the first component the possible orders are **1 and 2**.

In the second component the possible orders are **1, 2, and 4**.

The largest possible least common multiple we can have is 4, so there is no element of order 8 and the group is not cyclic.

## Proposition 3



# More Examples

## Example 6

In the group  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ , the subgroup generated by an element  $(m, n)$  consists of all multiples  $k(m, n)$ .

This subgroup cannot contain both of  $(1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ . (Check it!)

So no single element generates  $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}$ . Thus, it is not cyclic.

Natural subgroups:  $\langle(1, 0)\rangle$  and  $\langle(0, 1)\rangle$ . The “diagonal” subgroup  $\langle(1, 1)\rangle$ .

## Example 7

$\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_3$  is cyclic. (Why?)  $[(1, 1)$  has order 6 (Why?)  $\text{order} = \text{lcm}[2, 3] = 6]$

$\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_4$  is **not** cyclic. (Why?) [Note that  $|\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_4| = 2 \cdot 4 = 8]$

In the first component the possible orders are **1 and 2**.

In the second component the possible orders are **1, 2, and 4**.

The largest possible least common multiple we can have is 4, so there is no element of order 8 and the group is not cyclic.

## Proposition 3

$\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  is cyclic if and only if  $\text{gcd}(n, m) = 1$ .

## Proof of Proposition 3: $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$ is cyclic $\Leftrightarrow (n, m) = 1$ .

Recall: A finite group  $G$  is cyclic if and only if  $o(x) = |G|$  for some  $x \in G$ .

$\Rightarrow$ : Assume  $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  is cyclic, we need *to show*  $(n, m) = 1$ .

## Proof of Proposition 3: $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$ is cyclic $\Leftrightarrow (n, m) = 1$ .

Recall: A finite group  $G$  is cyclic if and only if  $o(x) = |G|$  for some  $x \in G$ .

$\Rightarrow$ : Assume  $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  is cyclic, we need to show  $(n, m) = 1$ . There is an element  $(a, b) \in \mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  with  $o((a, b)) = nm$  since  $|\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m| = nm$ .

## Proof of Proposition 3: $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$ is cyclic $\Leftrightarrow (n, m) = 1$ .

Recall: A finite group  $G$  is cyclic if and only if  $o(x) = |G|$  for some  $x \in G$ .

$\Rightarrow$ : Assume  $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  is cyclic, we need to show  $(n, m) = 1$ . There is an element  $(a, b) \in \mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  with  $o((a, b)) = nm$  since  $|\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m| = nm$ .

We also have  $o(a)|n$  and  $o(b)|m$ . (Why?) [

## Proof of Proposition 3: $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$ is cyclic $\Leftrightarrow (n, m) = 1$ .

Recall: A finite group  $G$  is cyclic if and only if  $o(x) = |G|$  for some  $x \in G$ .

$\Rightarrow$ : Assume  $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  is cyclic, we need to show  $(n, m) = 1$ . There is an element  $(a, b) \in \mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  with  $o((a, b)) = nm$  since  $|\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m| = nm$ .

We also have  $o(a)|n$  and  $o(b)|m$ . (Why?) [Corollary 20 (a) in §3.2]

## Proof of Proposition 3: $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$ is cyclic $\Leftrightarrow (n, m) = 1$ .

Recall: A finite group  $G$  is cyclic if and only if  $o(x) = |G|$  for some  $x \in G$ .

$\Rightarrow$ : Assume  $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  is cyclic, we need to show  $(n, m) = 1$ . There is an element  $(a, b) \in \mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  with  $o((a, b)) = nm$  since  $|\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m| = nm$ .

We also have  $o(a)|n$  and  $o(b)|m$ . (Why?) [Corollary 20 (a) in §3.2]

And we have  $o((a, b)) = \text{lcm}[o(a), o(b)]$ . (Why?) [

## Proof of Proposition 3: $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$ is cyclic $\Leftrightarrow (n, m) = 1$ .

Recall: A finite group  $G$  is cyclic if and only if  $o(x) = |G|$  for some  $x \in G$ .

$\Rightarrow$ : Assume  $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  is cyclic, we need to show  $(n, m) = 1$ . There is an element  $(a, b) \in \mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  with  $o((a, b)) = nm$  since  $|\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m| = nm$ .

We also have  $o(a)|n$  and  $o(b)|m$ . (Why?) [Corollary 20 (a) in §3.2]

And we have  $o((a, b)) = \text{lcm}[o(a), o(b)]$ . (Why?) [Proposition 2 (b)]

## Proof of Proposition 3: $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$ is cyclic $\Leftrightarrow (n, m) = 1$ .

Recall: A finite group  $G$  is cyclic if and only if  $o(x) = |G|$  for some  $x \in G$ .

$\Rightarrow$ : Assume  $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  is cyclic, we need to show  $(n, m) = 1$ . There is an element  $(a, b) \in \mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  with  $o((a, b)) = nm$  since  $|\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m| = nm$ .

We also have  $o(a)|n$  and  $o(b)|m$ . (Why?) [Corollary 20 (a) in §3.2]

And we have  $o((a, b)) = \text{lcm}[o(a), o(b)]$ . (Why?) [Proposition 2 (b)]

Therefore, we must have  $o(a) = n$  and  $o(b) = m$ .



## Proof of Proposition 3: $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$ is cyclic $\Leftrightarrow (n, m) = 1$ .

Recall: A finite group  $G$  is cyclic if and only if  $o(x) = |G|$  for some  $x \in G$ .

$\Rightarrow$ : Assume  $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  is cyclic, we need to show  $(n, m) = 1$ . There is an element  $(a, b) \in \mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  with  $o((a, b)) = nm$  since  $|\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m| = nm$ .

We also have  $o(a)|n$  and  $o(b)|m$ . (Why?) [Corollary 20 (a) in §3.2]

And we have  $o((a, b)) = \text{lcm}[o(a), o(b)]$ . (Why?) [Proposition 2 (b)]

Therefore, we must have  $o(a) = n$  and  $o(b) = m$ . Otherwise,

$$nm = o((a, b)) = \text{lcm}[o(a), o(b)] = \frac{o(a) \cdot o(b)}{\text{gcd}(o(a), o(b))} \leq o(a) \cdot o(b) < nm$$

## Proof of Proposition 3: $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$ is cyclic $\Leftrightarrow (n, m) = 1$ .

Recall: A finite group  $G$  is cyclic if and only if  $o(x) = |G|$  for some  $x \in G$ .

$\Rightarrow$ : Assume  $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  is cyclic, we need to show  $(n, m) = 1$ . There is an element  $(a, b) \in \mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  with  $o((a, b)) = nm$  since  $|\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m| = nm$ .

We also have  $o(a)|n$  and  $o(b)|m$ . (Why?) [Corollary 20 (a) in §3.2]

And we have  $o((a, b)) = \text{lcm}[o(a), o(b)]$ . (Why?) [Proposition 2 (b)]

Therefore, we must have  $o(a) = n$  and  $o(b) = m$ . Otherwise,

$$nm = o((a, b)) = \text{lcm}[o(a), o(b)] = \frac{o(a) \cdot o(b)}{\text{gcd}(o(a), o(b))} \leq o(a) \cdot o(b) < nm$$

It implies that  $\text{gcd}(o(a), o(b)) = \text{gcd}(n, m) = 1$ . (Why?)

$\Leftarrow$ :

## Proof of Proposition 3: $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$ is cyclic $\Leftrightarrow (n, m) = 1$ .

Recall: A finite group  $G$  is cyclic if and only if  $o(x) = |G|$  for some  $x \in G$ .

$\Rightarrow$ : Assume  $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  is cyclic, we need to show  $(n, m) = 1$ . There is an element  $(a, b) \in \mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  with  $o((a, b)) = nm$  since  $|\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m| = nm$ .

We also have  $o(a) | n$  and  $o(b) | m$ . (Why?) [Corollary 20 (a) in §3.2]

And we have  $o((a, b)) = \text{lcm}[o(a), o(b)]$ . (Why?) [Proposition 2 (b)]

Therefore, we must have  $o(a) = n$  and  $o(b) = m$ . Otherwise,

$$nm = o((a, b)) = \text{lcm}[o(a), o(b)] = \frac{o(a) \cdot o(b)}{\text{gcd}(o(a), o(b))} \leq o(a) \cdot o(b) < nm$$

It implies that  $\text{gcd}(o(a), o(b)) = \text{gcd}(n, m) = 1$ . (Why?)

$\Leftarrow$ : Assume  $(n, m) = 1$ , consider the cyclic subgroup  $\langle ([1]_n, [1]_m) \rangle$ .

## Proof of Proposition 3: $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$ is cyclic $\Leftrightarrow (n, m) = 1$ .

Recall: A finite group  $G$  is cyclic if and only if  $o(x) = |G|$  for some  $x \in G$ .

$\Rightarrow$ : Assume  $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  is cyclic, we need to show  $(n, m) = 1$ . There is an element  $(a, b) \in \mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  with  $o((a, b)) = nm$  since  $|\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m| = nm$ .

We also have  $o(a)|n$  and  $o(b)|m$ . (Why?) [Corollary 20 (a) in §3.2]

And we have  $o((a, b)) = \text{lcm}[o(a), o(b)]$ . (Why?) [Proposition 2 (b)]

Therefore, we must have  $o(a) = n$  and  $o(b) = m$ . Otherwise,

$$nm = o((a, b)) = \text{lcm}[o(a), o(b)] = \frac{o(a) \cdot o(b)}{\text{gcd}(o(a), o(b))} \leq o(a) \cdot o(b) < nm$$

It implies that  $\text{gcd}(o(a), o(b)) = \text{gcd}(n, m) = 1$ . (Why?)

$\Leftarrow$ : Assume  $(n, m) = 1$ , consider the cyclic subgroup  $\langle ([1]_n, [1]_m) \rangle$ . It is easy to see that  $o([1]_n) = n$  and  $o([1]_m) = m$ .

### Proof of Proposition 3: $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$ is cyclic $\Leftrightarrow (n, m) = 1$ .

Recall: A finite group  $G$  is cyclic if and only if  $o(x) = |G|$  for some  $x \in G$ .

$\Rightarrow$ : Assume  $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  is cyclic, we need to show  $(n, m) = 1$ . There is an element  $(a, b) \in \mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  with  $o((a, b)) = nm$  since  $|\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m| = nm$ .

We also have  $o(a)|n$  and  $o(b)|m$ . (Why?) [Corollary 20 (a) in §3.2]

And we have  $o((a, b)) = \text{lcm}[o(a), o(b)]$ . (Why?) [Proposition 2 (b)]

Therefore, we must have  $o(a) = n$  and  $o(b) = m$ . Otherwise,

$$nm = o((a, b)) = \text{lcm}[o(a), o(b)] = \frac{o(a) \cdot o(b)}{\text{gcd}(o(a), o(b))} \leq o(a) \cdot o(b) < nm$$

It implies that  $\text{gcd}(o(a), o(b)) = \text{gcd}(n, m) = 1$ . (Why?)

$\Leftarrow$ : Assume  $(n, m) = 1$ , consider the cyclic subgroup  $\langle ([1]_n, [1]_m) \rangle$ . It is easy to see that  $o([1]_n) = n$  and  $o([1]_m) = m$ . Again, we have

$$o(\langle ([1]_n, [1]_m) \rangle) = \text{lcm}[o([1]_n), o([1]_m)] = \text{lcm}[n, m] = \frac{nm}{(n, m)} = nm.$$

### Proof of Proposition 3: $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$ is cyclic $\Leftrightarrow (n, m) = 1$ .

Recall: A finite group  $G$  is cyclic if and only if  $o(x) = |G|$  for some  $x \in G$ .

$\Rightarrow$ : Assume  $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  is cyclic, we need to show  $(n, m) = 1$ . There is an element  $(a, b) \in \mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m$  with  $o((a, b)) = nm$  since  $|\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m| = nm$ .

We also have  $o(a)|n$  and  $o(b)|m$ . (Why?) [Corollary 20 (a) in §3.2]

And we have  $o((a, b)) = \text{lcm}[o(a), o(b)]$ . (Why?) [Proposition 2 (b)]

Therefore, we must have  $o(a) = n$  and  $o(b) = m$ . Otherwise,

$$nm = o((a, b)) = \text{lcm}[o(a), o(b)] = \frac{o(a) \cdot o(b)}{\text{gcd}(o(a), o(b))} \leq o(a) \cdot o(b) < nm$$

It implies that  $\text{gcd}(o(a), o(b)) = \text{gcd}(n, m) = 1$ . (Why?)

$\Leftarrow$ : Assume  $(n, m) = 1$ , consider the cyclic subgroup  $\langle ([1]_n, [1]_m) \rangle$ . It is easy to see that  $o([1]_n) = n$  and  $o([1]_m) = m$ . Again, we have

$$o(\langle ([1]_n, [1]_m) \rangle) = \text{lcm}[o([1]_n), o([1]_m)] = \text{lcm}[n, m] = \frac{nm}{(n, m)} = nm.$$

Therefore,  $\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m = \langle ([1]_n, [1]_m) \rangle$  since  $|\mathbf{Z}_n \times \mathbf{Z}_m| = o(\langle ([1]_n, [1]_m) \rangle)$ .

# Definition of a field

## Definition 8

# Definition of a field

## Definition 8

Let  $F$  be a set with two binary operations  $+$  and  $\cdot$  with respective identity elements  $0$  and  $1$ , where  $0 \neq 1$ . Then  $F$  is called a **field** if

- (i) the set of all elements of  $F$  is an abelian group under  $+$  ;
- (ii) the set of all nonzero elements of  $F$  is an abelian group under  $\cdot$  ;
- (iii)  $a(b + c) = ab + ac$  and  $(a + b)c = ac + bc$  for all  $a, b, c \in F$ .



# Definition of a field

## Definition 8

Let  $F$  be a set with two binary operations  $+$  and  $\cdot$  with respective identity elements  $0$  and  $1$ , where  $0 \neq 1$ . Then  $F$  is called a **field** if

- (i) the set of all elements of  $F$  is an abelian group under  $+$  ;
- (ii) the set of all nonzero elements of  $F$  is an abelian group under  $\cdot$  ;
- (iii)  $a(b + c) = ab + ac$  and  $(a + b)c = ac + bc$  for all  $a, b, c \in F$ .

For example,  $\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{R}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{Z}_p$ , when  $p$  is a prime number.

# Definition of a field

## Definition 8

Let  $F$  be a set with two binary operations  $+$  and  $\cdot$  with respective identity elements  $0$  and  $1$ , where  $0 \neq 1$ . Then  $F$  is called a **field** if

- (i) the set of all elements of  $F$  is an abelian group under  $+$  ;
- (ii) the set of all nonzero elements of  $F$  is an abelian group under  $\cdot$  ;
- (iii)  $a(b + c) = ab + ac$  and  $(a + b)c = ac + bc$  for all  $a, b, c \in F$ .

For example,  $\mathbf{Q}$ ,  $\mathbf{R}$ ,  $\mathbf{C}$ ,  $\mathbf{Z}_p$ , when  $p$  is a prime number. But  $\mathbf{Z}$  is **not** a field.

# Definition of a field

## Definition 8

Let  $F$  be a set with two binary operations  $+$  and  $\cdot$  with respective identity elements  $0$  and  $1$ , where  $0 \neq 1$ . Then  $F$  is called a **field** if

- (i) the set of all elements of  $F$  is an abelian group under  $+$  ;
- (ii) the set of all nonzero elements of  $F$  is an abelian group under  $\cdot$  ;
- (iii)  $a(b + c) = ab + ac$  and  $(a + b)c = ac + bc$  for all  $a, b, c \in F$ .

For example,  $\mathbf{Q}$ ,  $\mathbf{R}$ ,  $\mathbf{C}$ ,  $\mathbf{Z}_p$ , when  $p$  is a prime number. But  $\mathbf{Z}$  is **not** a field. Axiom (iii) lists the **distributive laws**, which give a connection between addition and multiplication.

## Proposition 4

# Definition of a field

## Definition 8

Let  $F$  be a set with two binary operations  $+$  and  $\cdot$  with respective identity elements  $0$  and  $1$ , where  $0 \neq 1$ . Then  $F$  is called a **field** if

- (i) the set of all elements of  $F$  is an abelian group under  $+$  ;
- (ii) the set of all nonzero elements of  $F$  is an abelian group under  $\cdot$  ;
- (iii)  $a(b + c) = ab + ac$  and  $(a + b)c = ac + bc$  for all  $a, b, c \in F$ .

For example,  $\mathbf{Q}$ ,  $\mathbf{R}$ ,  $\mathbf{C}$ ,  $\mathbf{Z}_p$ , when  $p$  is a prime number. But  $\mathbf{Z}$  is **not** a field. Axiom (iii) lists the **distributive laws**, which give a connection between addition and multiplication.

## Proposition 4

*For any element  $a \in F$ , we have  $a \cdot 0 = 0$  and  $0 \cdot a = 0$ .*

*Proof:*

# Definition of a field

## Definition 8

Let  $F$  be a set with two binary operations  $+$  and  $\cdot$  with respective identity elements  $0$  and  $1$ , where  $0 \neq 1$ . Then  $F$  is called a **field** if

- (i) the set of all elements of  $F$  is an abelian group under  $+$  ;
- (ii) the set of all nonzero elements of  $F$  is an abelian group under  $\cdot$  ;
- (iii)  $a(b + c) = ab + ac$  and  $(a + b)c = ac + bc$  for all  $a, b, c \in F$ .

For example,  $\mathbf{Q}$ ,  $\mathbf{R}$ ,  $\mathbf{C}$ ,  $\mathbf{Z}_p$ , when  $p$  is a prime number. But  $\mathbf{Z}$  is **not** a field. Axiom (iii) lists the **distributive laws**, which give a connection between addition and multiplication.

## Proposition 4

*For any element  $a \in F$ , we have  $a \cdot 0 = 0$  and  $0 \cdot a = 0$ .*

*Proof:* Note that  $0$  is (**not**) in the multiplicative group  $(F^\times, \cdot)$ , but in  $(F, +)$ .

# Definition of a field

## Definition 8

Let  $F$  be a set with two binary operations  $+$  and  $\cdot$  with respective identity elements  $0$  and  $1$ , where  $0 \neq 1$ . Then  $F$  is called a **field** if

- (i) the set of all elements of  $F$  is an abelian group under  $+$  ;
- (ii) the set of all nonzero elements of  $F$  is an abelian group under  $\cdot$  ;
- (iii)  $a(b + c) = ab + ac$  and  $(a + b)c = ac + bc$  for all  $a, b, c \in F$ .

For example,  $\mathbf{Q}$ ,  $\mathbf{R}$ ,  $\mathbf{C}$ ,  $\mathbf{Z}_p$ , when  $p$  is a prime number. But  $\mathbf{Z}$  is **not** a field. Axiom (iii) lists the **distributive laws**, which give a connection between addition and multiplication.

## Proposition 4

*For any element  $a \in F$ , we have  $a \cdot 0 = 0$  and  $0 \cdot a = 0$ .*

*Proof:* Note that  $0$  is (**not**) in the multiplicative group  $(F^\times, \cdot)$ , but in  $(F, +)$ .

$$0 + a \cdot 0 = a \cdot 0 = a \cdot (0 + 0) = a \cdot 0 + a \cdot 0 \Rightarrow 0 = a \cdot 0 \text{ (Why?)}$$

# Definition of a field

## Definition 8

Let  $F$  be a set with two binary operations  $+$  and  $\cdot$  with respective identity elements  $0$  and  $1$ , where  $0 \neq 1$ . Then  $F$  is called a **field** if

- (i) the set of all elements of  $F$  is an abelian group under  $+$  ;
- (ii) the set of all nonzero elements of  $F$  is an abelian group under  $\cdot$  ;
- (iii)  $a(b + c) = ab + ac$  and  $(a + b)c = ac + bc$  for all  $a, b, c \in F$ .

For example,  $\mathbf{Q}$ ,  $\mathbf{R}$ ,  $\mathbf{C}$ ,  $\mathbf{Z}_p$ , when  $p$  is a prime number. But  $\mathbf{Z}$  is **not** a field. Axiom (iii) lists the **distributive laws**, which give a connection between addition and multiplication.

## Proposition 4

*For any element  $a \in F$ , we have  $a \cdot 0 = 0$  and  $0 \cdot a = 0$ .*

*Proof:* Note that  $0$  is (**not**) in the multiplicative group  $(F^\times, \cdot)$ , but in  $(F, +)$ .

$$0 + a \cdot 0 = a \cdot 0 = a \cdot (0 + 0) = a \cdot 0 + a \cdot 0 \Rightarrow 0 = a \cdot 0 \text{ (Why?)}$$

A similar argument shows that  $0 \cdot a = 0$  for all  $a \in F$ . (**Check it!**)

## Definition 9



### Definition 9

Let  $F$  be a field. The set of all invertible  $n \times n$  matrices with entries in  $F$  is called the **general linear group of degree  $n$  over  $F$** , and is denoted by  $GL_n(F)$ .

### Proposition 5

### Definition 9

Let  $F$  be a field. The set of all invertible  $n \times n$  matrices with entries in  $F$  is called the **general linear group of degree  $n$  over  $F$** , and is denoted by  $GL_n(F)$ .

### Proposition 5

*Let  $F$  be a field. Then  $GL_n(F)$  is a group under matrix multiplication.*

### Definition 9

Let  $F$  be a field. The set of all invertible  $n \times n$  matrices with entries in  $F$  is called the **general linear group of degree  $n$  over  $F$** , and is denoted by  $GL_n(F)$ .

### Proposition 5

*Let  $F$  be a field. Then  $GL_n(F)$  is a group under matrix multiplication.*

- (i) Well-definedness: If  $(a_{ij})$  and  $(b_{ij})$  are  $n \times n$  matrices, then the product  $(c_{ij})$  with  $(i, j)$ -entries  $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} b_{kj}$ .

### Definition 9

Let  $F$  be a field. The set of all invertible  $n \times n$  matrices with entries in  $F$  is called the **general linear group of degree  $n$  over  $F$** , and is denoted by  $GL_n(F)$ .

### Proposition 5

*Let  $F$  be a field. Then  $GL_n(F)$  is a group under matrix multiplication.*

(i) Well-definedness: If  $(a_{ij})$  and  $(b_{ij})$  are  $n \times n$  matrices, then the

product  $(c_{ij})$  with  $(i, j)$ -entries  $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} b_{kj}$ .

If  $A, B \in GL_n(F)$ , then  $AB \in GL_n(F)$ . (Why?)

### Definition 9

Let  $F$  be a field. The set of all invertible  $n \times n$  matrices with entries in  $F$  is called the **general linear group of degree  $n$  over  $F$** , and is denoted by  $GL_n(F)$ .

### Proposition 5

*Let  $F$  be a field. Then  $GL_n(F)$  is a group under matrix multiplication.*

(i) Well-definedness: If  $(a_{ij})$  and  $(b_{ij})$  are  $n \times n$  matrices, then the

product  $(c_{ij})$  with  $(i, j)$ -entries  $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} b_{kj}$ .

If  $A, B \in GL_n(F)$ , then  $AB \in GL_n(F)$ . (Why?)

(ii) Associativity:  $\checkmark$

### Definition 9

Let  $F$  be a field. The set of all invertible  $n \times n$  matrices with entries in  $F$  is called the **general linear group of degree  $n$  over  $F$** , and is denoted by  $GL_n(F)$ .

### Proposition 5

*Let  $F$  be a field. Then  $GL_n(F)$  is a group under matrix multiplication.*

(i) Well-definedness: If  $(a_{ij})$  and  $(b_{ij})$  are  $n \times n$  matrices, then the

product  $(c_{ij})$  with  $(i, j)$ -entries  $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} b_{kj}$ .

If  $A, B \in GL_n(F)$ , then  $AB \in GL_n(F)$ . (Why?)

(ii) Associativity:  $\checkmark$

(iii) Identity: The identity matrix  $I_n$

### Definition 9

Let  $F$  be a field. The set of all invertible  $n \times n$  matrices with entries in  $F$  is called the **general linear group of degree  $n$  over  $F$** , and is denoted by  $GL_n(F)$ .

### Proposition 5

*Let  $F$  be a field. Then  $GL_n(F)$  is a group under matrix multiplication.*

(i) Well-definedness: If  $(a_{ij})$  and  $(b_{ij})$  are  $n \times n$  matrices, then the

product  $(c_{ij})$  with  $(i, j)$ -entries  $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} b_{kj}$ .

If  $A, B \in GL_n(F)$ , then  $AB \in GL_n(F)$ . (Why?)

(ii) Associativity:  $\checkmark$

(iii) Identity: The identity matrix  $I_n$

(iv) Inverses:  $A^{-1} \in GL_n(F)$ . (Why?) [

### Definition 9

Let  $F$  be a field. The set of all invertible  $n \times n$  matrices with entries in  $F$  is called the **general linear group of degree  $n$  over  $F$** , and is denoted by  $GL_n(F)$ .

### Proposition 5

*Let  $F$  be a field. Then  $GL_n(F)$  is a group under matrix multiplication.*

(i) Well-definedness: If  $(a_{ij})$  and  $(b_{ij})$  are  $n \times n$  matrices, then the

product  $(c_{ij})$  with  $(i, j)$ -entries  $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} b_{kj}$ .

If  $A, B \in GL_n(F)$ , then  $AB \in GL_n(F)$ . (Why?)

(ii) Associativity:  $\checkmark$

(iii) Identity: The identity matrix  $I_n$

(iv) Inverses:  $A^{-1} \in GL_n(F)$ . (Why?) [definition of invertible matrix]



# Example 1: $GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)$

## Example 1: $GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)$

We can check that  $|GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)| = 6$ .

## Example 1: $GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)$

We can check that  $|GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)| = 6$ . These 6 elements are

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

## Example 1: $GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)$

We can check that  $|GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)| = 6$ . These 6 elements are

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We simply use 0 and 1 to denote the congruence classes  $[0]_2$  and  $[1]_2$ .

## Example 1: $GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)$

We can check that  $|GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)| = 6$ . These 6 elements are

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We simply use 0 and 1 to denote the congruence classes  $[0]_2$  and  $[1]_2$ . Note that the group  $GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)$  is not abelian.

### Proposition 6

## Example 1: $GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)$

We can check that  $|GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)| = 6$ . These 6 elements are

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We simply use 0 and 1 to denote the congruence classes  $[0]_2$  and  $[1]_2$ . Note that the group  $GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)$  is not abelian.

### Proposition 6

$|GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_p)| = (p^2 - 1)(p^2 - p)$ , where  $p$  is a prime number.

## Example 1: $GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)$

We can check that  $|GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)| = 6$ . These 6 elements are

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We simply use 0 and 1 to denote the congruence classes  $[0]_2$  and  $[1]_2$ . Note that the group  $GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)$  is not abelian.

### Proposition 6

$|GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_p)| = (p^2 - 1)(p^2 - p)$ , where  $p$  is a prime number.

- For the first row, there are  $p^2 - 1$  choices. (Why?)

## Example 1: $GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)$

We can check that  $|GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)| = 6$ . These 6 elements are

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We simply use 0 and 1 to denote the congruence classes  $[0]_2$  and  $[1]_2$ . Note that the group  $GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)$  is not abelian.

### Proposition 6

$|GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_p)| = (p^2 - 1)(p^2 - p)$ , where  $p$  is a prime number.

- For the first row, there are  $p^2 - 1$  choices. (Why?)  
–1 is because  $(0, 0)$  cannot be a choice.



## Example 1: $GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)$

We can check that  $|GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)| = 6$ . These 6 elements are

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We simply use 0 and 1 to denote the congruence classes  $[0]_2$  and  $[1]_2$ . Note that the group  $GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)$  is not abelian.

### Proposition 6

$|GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_p)| = (p^2 - 1)(p^2 - p)$ , where  $p$  is a prime number.

- For the first row, there are  $p^2 - 1$  choices. (Why?)  
–1 is because  $(0, 0)$  cannot be a choice.
- For the second row, there are  $p^2 - p$  choices. (Why?)

## Example 1: $GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)$

We can check that  $|GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)| = 6$ . These 6 elements are

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We simply use 0 and 1 to denote the congruence classes  $[0]_2$  and  $[1]_2$ . Note that the group  $GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_2)$  is not abelian.

### Proposition 6

$|GL_2(\mathbf{Z}_p)| = (p^2 - 1)(p^2 - p)$ , where  $p$  is a prime number.

- For the first row, there are  $p^2 - 1$  choices. (Why?)  
–1 is because  $(0, 0)$  cannot be a choice.
- For the second row, there are  $p^2 - p$  choices. (Why?)  
– $p$  is because the scalars of the first row cannot be choices.

## Example 2: Quaternion group

Let  $Q$  be the following set of matrices in  $GL_2(\mathbf{C})$  :

$$\pm \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

## Example 2: Quaternion group

Let  $Q$  be the following set of matrices in  $GL_2(\mathbf{C})$  :

$$\pm \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

If we let

$$\mathbf{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{i} = \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{j} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{k} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

then computations show that we have the following identities:

## Example 2: Quaternion group

Let  $Q$  be the following set of matrices in  $GL_2(\mathbf{C})$  :

$$\pm \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

If we let

$$1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{i} = \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{j} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{k} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

then computations show that we have the following identities:

$$\mathbf{i}^2 = \mathbf{j}^2 = \mathbf{k}^2 = -1;$$
$$\mathbf{ij} = \mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{jk} = \mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{ki} = \mathbf{j}; \quad \mathbf{ji} = -\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{kj} = -\mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{ik} = -\mathbf{j}.$$

## Example 2: Quaternion group

Let  $Q$  be the following set of matrices in  $GL_2(\mathbf{C})$  :

$$\pm \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

If we let

$$1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{i} = \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{j} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{k} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

then computations show that we have the following identities:

$$\mathbf{i}^2 = \mathbf{j}^2 = \mathbf{k}^2 = -1;$$
$$\mathbf{ij} = \mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{jk} = \mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{ki} = \mathbf{j}; \quad \mathbf{ji} = -\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{kj} = -\mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{ik} = -\mathbf{j}.$$

$Q$  is a subgroup of  $GL_2(\mathbf{C})$ . (Check it!) [Closure:  $\checkmark$ ]

## Example 2: Quaternion group

Let  $Q$  be the following set of matrices in  $GL_2(\mathbf{C})$  :

$$\pm \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

If we let

$$1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{i} = \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{j} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{k} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

then computations show that we have the following identities:

$$\mathbf{i}^2 = \mathbf{j}^2 = \mathbf{k}^2 = -1;$$
$$\mathbf{ij} = \mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{jk} = \mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{ki} = \mathbf{j}; \quad \mathbf{ji} = -\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{kj} = -\mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{ik} = -\mathbf{j}.$$

$Q$  is a subgroup of  $GL_2(\mathbf{C})$ . (Check it!) [Closure:  $\checkmark$ ]

$Q$  is not abelian (Why?) and

## Example 2: Quaternion group

Let  $Q$  be the following set of matrices in  $GL_2(\mathbf{C})$  :

$$\pm \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

If we let

$$1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{i} = \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{j} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{k} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

then computations show that we have the following identities:

$$\mathbf{i}^2 = \mathbf{j}^2 = \mathbf{k}^2 = -1;$$
$$\mathbf{ij} = \mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{jk} = \mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{ki} = \mathbf{j}; \quad \mathbf{ji} = -\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{kj} = -\mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{ik} = -\mathbf{j}.$$

$Q$  is a subgroup of  $GL_2(\mathbf{C})$ . (Check it!) [Closure:  $\checkmark$ ]

$Q$  is not abelian (Why?) and is not cyclic (Why?).



## Example 2: Quaternion group

Let  $Q$  be the following set of matrices in  $GL_2(\mathbf{C})$  :

$$\pm \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

If we let

$$1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{i} = \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{j} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{k} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

then computations show that we have the following identities:

$$\mathbf{i}^2 = \mathbf{j}^2 = \mathbf{k}^2 = -1;$$
$$\mathbf{ij} = \mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{jk} = \mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{ki} = \mathbf{j}; \quad \mathbf{ji} = -\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{kj} = -\mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{ik} = -\mathbf{j}.$$

$Q$  is a subgroup of  $GL_2(\mathbf{C})$ . (Check it!) [Closure:  $\checkmark$ ]

$Q$  is not abelian (Why?) and is not cyclic (Why?).

- $-1$  has order 2

## Example 2: Quaternion group

Let  $Q$  be the following set of matrices in  $GL_2(\mathbf{C})$  :

$$\pm \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \pm \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

If we let

$$1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{i} = \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{j} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{k} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

then computations show that we have the following identities:

$$\mathbf{i}^2 = \mathbf{j}^2 = \mathbf{k}^2 = -1;$$
$$\mathbf{ij} = \mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{jk} = \mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{ki} = \mathbf{j}; \quad \mathbf{ji} = -\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{kj} = -\mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{ik} = -\mathbf{j}.$$

$Q$  is a subgroup of  $GL_2(\mathbf{C})$ . (Check it!) [Closure:  $\checkmark$ ]

$Q$  is not abelian (Why?) and is not cyclic (Why?).

- $-1$  has order 2
- $\pm\mathbf{i}, \pm\mathbf{j}$ , and  $\pm\mathbf{k}$  have order 4

# Subgroup generated by $S$

## Definition 10

# Subgroup generated by $S$

## Definition 10

Let  $S$  be a nonempty subset of the group  $G$ . A finite product of elements of  $S$  and their inverses is called a **word** in  $S$ . The set of all words in  $S$  is denoted by  $\langle S \rangle$ .

# Subgroup generated by $S$

## Definition 10

Let  $S$  be a nonempty subset of the group  $G$ . A finite product of elements of  $S$  and their inverses is called a **word** in  $S$ . The set of all words in  $S$  is denoted by  $\langle S \rangle$ .

For example, for  $a, b, c \in S$ , the product  $a^{-1}a^{-1}bab^{-1}acb^{-1}cbc^{-1}c^{-1}$ .

## Proposition 7

# Subgroup generated by $S$

## Definition 10

Let  $S$  be a nonempty subset of the group  $G$ . A finite product of elements of  $S$  and their inverses is called a **word** in  $S$ . The set of all words in  $S$  is denoted by  $\langle S \rangle$ .

For example, for  $a, b, c \in S$ , the product  $a^{-1}a^{-1}bab^{-1}acb^{-1}cbc^{-1}c^{-1}$ .

## Proposition 7

*Let  $S$  be a nonempty subset of the group  $G$ . Then  $\langle S \rangle$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , and is equal to the intersection of all subgroups of  $G$  that contain  $S$ .*

# Subgroup generated by $S$

## Definition 10

Let  $S$  be a nonempty subset of the group  $G$ . A finite product of elements of  $S$  and their inverses is called a **word** in  $S$ . The set of all words in  $S$  is denoted by  $\langle S \rangle$ .

For example, for  $a, b, c \in S$ , the product  $a^{-1}a^{-1}bab^{-1}acb^{-1}cbc^{-1}c^{-1}$ .

## Proposition 7

*Let  $S$  be a nonempty subset of the group  $G$ . Then  $\langle S \rangle$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , and is equal to the intersection of all subgroups of  $G$  that contain  $S$ .*

- (i) If  $x$  and  $y$  are two words in  $S$ , then  $xy$  is again a word in  $S$ . ✓

# Subgroup generated by $S$

## Definition 10

Let  $S$  be a nonempty subset of the group  $G$ . A finite product of elements of  $S$  and their inverses is called a **word** in  $S$ . The set of all words in  $S$  is denoted by  $\langle S \rangle$ .

For example, for  $a, b, c \in S$ , the product  $a^{-1}a^{-1}bab^{-1}acb^{-1}cbc^{-1}c^{-1}$ .

## Proposition 7

*Let  $S$  be a nonempty subset of the group  $G$ . Then  $\langle S \rangle$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , and is equal to the intersection of all subgroups of  $G$  that contain  $S$ .*

- (i) If  $x$  and  $y$  are two words in  $S$ , then  $xy$  is again a word in  $S$ . ✓
- (ii)  $e = aa^{-1} \in \langle S \rangle$ . A element  $a \in S$  always exists since  $S$  is nonempty.



# Subgroup generated by $S$

## Definition 10

Let  $S$  be a nonempty subset of the group  $G$ . A finite product of elements of  $S$  and their inverses is called a **word** in  $S$ . The set of all words in  $S$  is denoted by  $\langle S \rangle$ .

For example, for  $a, b, c \in S$ , the product  $a^{-1}a^{-1}bab^{-1}acb^{-1}cbc^{-1}c^{-1}$ .

## Proposition 7

*Let  $S$  be a nonempty subset of the group  $G$ . Then  $\langle S \rangle$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , and is equal to the intersection of all subgroups of  $G$  that contain  $S$ .*

- (i) If  $x$  and  $y$  are two words in  $S$ , then  $xy$  is again a word in  $S$ . ✓
- (ii)  $e = aa^{-1} \in \langle S \rangle$ . A element  $a \in S$  always exists since  $S$  is nonempty.
- (iii)  $x^{-1} \in \langle S \rangle$ : reverses the order and changes the sign of the exponent.

# Subgroup generated by $S$

## Definition 10

Let  $S$  be a nonempty subset of the group  $G$ . A finite product of elements of  $S$  and their inverses is called a **word** in  $S$ . The set of all words in  $S$  is denoted by  $\langle S \rangle$ .

For example, for  $a, b, c \in S$ , the product  $a^{-1}a^{-1}bab^{-1}acb^{-1}cbc^{-1}c^{-1}$ .

## Proposition 7

*Let  $S$  be a nonempty subset of the group  $G$ . Then  $\langle S \rangle$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , and is equal to the intersection of all subgroups of  $G$  that contain  $S$ .*

- (i) If  $x$  and  $y$  are two words in  $S$ , then  $xy$  is again a word in  $S$ . ✓
- (ii)  $e = aa^{-1} \in \langle S \rangle$ . A element  $a \in S$  always exists since  $S$  is nonempty.
- (iii)  $x^{-1} \in \langle S \rangle$ : reverses the order and changes the sign of the exponent.

If  $S \subseteq H$ , where  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , then it contains all words in  $S$ .

# Subgroup generated by $S$

## Definition 10

Let  $S$  be a nonempty subset of the group  $G$ . A finite product of elements of  $S$  and their inverses is called a **word** in  $S$ . The set of all words in  $S$  is denoted by  $\langle S \rangle$ .

For example, for  $a, b, c \in S$ , the product  $a^{-1}a^{-1}bab^{-1}acb^{-1}cbc^{-1}c^{-1}$ .

## Proposition 7

*Let  $S$  be a nonempty subset of the group  $G$ . Then  $\langle S \rangle$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , and is equal to the intersection of all subgroups of  $G$  that contain  $S$ .*

- (i) If  $x$  and  $y$  are two words in  $S$ , then  $xy$  is again a word in  $S$ . ✓
- (ii)  $e = aa^{-1} \in \langle S \rangle$ . A element  $a \in S$  always exists since  $S$  is nonempty.
- (iii)  $x^{-1} \in \langle S \rangle$ : reverses the order and changes the sign of the exponent.

If  $S \subseteq H$ , where  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , then it contains all words in  $S$ .

Therefore,  $\langle S \rangle \subseteq H$ .

# Subgroup generated by $S$

## Definition 10

Let  $S$  be a nonempty subset of the group  $G$ . A finite product of elements of  $S$  and their inverses is called a **word** in  $S$ . The set of all words in  $S$  is denoted by  $\langle S \rangle$ .

For example, for  $a, b, c \in S$ , the product  $a^{-1}a^{-1}bab^{-1}acb^{-1}cbc^{-1}c^{-1}$ .

## Proposition 7

*Let  $S$  be a nonempty subset of the group  $G$ . Then  $\langle S \rangle$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , and is equal to the intersection of all subgroups of  $G$  that contain  $S$ .*

- (i) If  $x$  and  $y$  are two words in  $S$ , then  $xy$  is again a word in  $S$ . ✓
- (ii)  $e = aa^{-1} \in \langle S \rangle$ . An element  $a \in S$  always exists since  $S$  is nonempty.
- (iii)  $x^{-1} \in \langle S \rangle$ : reverses the order and changes the sign of the exponent.

If  $S \subseteq H$ , where  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , then it contains all words in  $S$ . Therefore,  $\langle S \rangle \subseteq H$ . It follows that  $\langle S \rangle$  is the intersection of all subgroups of  $G$  that contain  $S$ .

# Subgroup generated by $S$

## Definition 10

Let  $S$  be a nonempty subset of the group  $G$ . A finite product of elements of  $S$  and their inverses is called a **word** in  $S$ . The set of all words in  $S$  is denoted by  $\langle S \rangle$ .

For example, for  $a, b, c \in S$ , the product  $a^{-1}a^{-1}bab^{-1}acb^{-1}cbc^{-1}c^{-1}$ .

## Proposition 7

*Let  $S$  be a nonempty subset of the group  $G$ . Then  $\langle S \rangle$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , and is equal to the intersection of all subgroups of  $G$  that contain  $S$ .*

- (i) If  $x$  and  $y$  are two words in  $S$ , then  $xy$  is again a word in  $S$ . ✓
- (ii)  $e = aa^{-1} \in \langle S \rangle$ . An element  $a \in S$  always exists since  $S$  is nonempty.
- (iii)  $x^{-1} \in \langle S \rangle$ : reverses the order and changes the sign of the exponent.

If  $S \subseteq H$ , where  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , then it contains all words in  $S$ . Therefore,  $\langle S \rangle \subseteq H$ . It follows that  $\langle S \rangle$  is the intersection of all subgroups of  $G$  that contain  $S$ . That is,  $\langle S \rangle$  is the smallest subgroup that contains  $S$ .