

NELCO

Sweet  
*Chocolate*



150 g

*my* FAVOURITE



## □ Cyclic Group

\* A group  $G$  is called a cyclic group if  $G = \langle \{a\} \rangle$  for some  $a \in G$ . We usually write  $\langle \{a\} \rangle$  as  $\langle a \rangle$  - i.e.,

$$\langle a \rangle = \{a^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

i.e.,

In group theory, a branch of abstract algebra, a cyclic group is a group that is generated by a single element. That is, it contains an element 'a' such that every other element of the group may be obtained by repeatedly applying the group operation to 'a' or its inverse. This element 'a' is called a generator of the group.

Inverse of generator of cyclic group is generator, i.e.,

$$\langle a \rangle = \langle a^{-1} \rangle \text{ for any } a \in G$$

Theorem 7: Every cyclic group is abelian (Not every abelian group is cyclic)

A subgroup  $H$  of a group  $G$  is called a cyclic subgroup if it is a cyclic group.

$$\langle a \rangle = \{a^k \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \langle a \rangle$$

Since

Contains

All

or

Go

Then,

$\langle (12) \rangle$

and

(1)

• If  $K \leq G$  and  $a \in K$ , then  $\langle a \rangle \leq K$

Since  $\langle a \rangle$  is the smallest subgroup of  $G$  containing  $a$ .

• All the elements of  $\langle a \rangle = \{a^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  may or may not be distinct.

Ex:- Take  $a = (1\ 2) \in S_3$

Then,

$$\langle (1\ 2) \rangle = \{I, (1\ 2)\} \text{ since } (1\ 2)^2 = I, (1\ 2)^3 = (1\ 2)$$

and so on.

$$(1\ 2) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

(OR)

Let  $G$  be a group with operation  $\times$

For  $a \in G$ ,

what's the smallest subgroup of  $G$  that contains ' $a$ '?

$$\langle a \rangle = \{ \dots, a^{-3}, a^{-2}, a^{-1}, 1, a, a^2, a^3, \dots \}$$

= group generated by ' $a$ '

= smallest subgroup of  $G$  containing ' $a$ '

If  $G = \langle a \rangle$  for some  $a$ , then we call  $G$  a cyclic group.

Let

For

$\langle b \rangle$

If  $H$

$H = a$

Let  $H$  be a group with operation  $+$

For  $b \in H$ ,

$$\langle b \rangle = \{ \dots, -3b, -2b, -b, 0, b, 2b, 3b, \dots \}$$

= group generated by  $b$

= smallest subgroup of  $H$  containing  $b$

If  $H = \langle b \rangle$  for some  $b$ , then we call  $H$  a cyclic group.



# Cyclic groups

Infinite :  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$

Finite :  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, +)$



$\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}, \dots$

$\dots$ , Trivial group:  $\{e\}$ .

(E.11) Show that if  $G \neq \{e\}$  then  $G \neq \langle e \rangle$

Ans:  $G \neq \{e\} \Rightarrow a \neq e$  in  $G$

$$a \neq e \rightarrow a \neq e^r \text{ for any } r \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\therefore a \notin \langle e \rangle$$

$$\underline{\underline{G \neq \langle e \rangle.}}$$

(E.12)

Inverse of generator of cyclic group is generator, i.e.,

$$\langle a \rangle = \langle a^{-1} \rangle \text{ for any } a \in G$$

Proof

Any element of  $\langle a \rangle$  is  $a^n$ , for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$a^n = (a^{-1})^{-n}$$

$$\therefore a^n \in \langle a^{-1} \rangle \Rightarrow \langle a \rangle \subseteq \langle a^{-1} \rangle$$

Similarly,  $\langle a^{-1} \rangle \subseteq \langle a \rangle$

$$\therefore \underline{\underline{\langle a \rangle = \langle a^{-1} \rangle}}$$

\* Theorem 7: Every cyclic group is abelian.

Proof

$$G = \langle a \rangle = \{a^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

For any  $x, y$  in  $G$  there exists  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $x = a^m, y = a^n$

Then,

$$xy = a^m a^n = a^{m+n} = a^{n+m} = a^n a^m = yx$$

$$\Rightarrow xy = yx \text{ for all } x, y \in G.$$

$\therefore G$  is abelian

Note: every abelian group is not cyclic.

Ex 7 Consider the set  $K_4 = \{e, a, b, ab\}$  and the binary operation on  $K_4$  given by the table,

| $\cdot$ | e  | a  | b  | ab |
|---------|----|----|----|----|
| e       | e  | a  | b  | ab |
| a       | a  | e  | ab | b  |
| b       | b  | ab | e  | a  |
| ab      | ab | b  | a  | e  |

$\Rightarrow (K_4, \cdot)$  is a group, and this group is called the Klein 4-group.

$\Rightarrow K_4$  is abelian but not cyclic.

Q2  
Check something for similar proof  
Q.4

Define the set  $S = \{t \in \mathbb{N} \mid x^t \in H\}$   
 $= \{t \mid t > 0, x^t \in H\}$

Since  $H \neq \{e\}$ , there is a non-zero integer  $n$  such that  $x^n \in H$ .

i.e.,  $\exists n \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $x^n \in H, n \neq 0$

If  $n > 0$  then  $n \in S$ , and  
 If  $n < 0$  then  $-n \in S$ ,  
 since  $x^{-n} \in H$  and  $-n > 0$ .

[Since  $H$  is a subgroup,  $(x^n)^{-1} = x^{-n} \in H$ ]

$\therefore$  There exists a positive integer  $m$  (or  $-n$ ) such that  $x^m \in H$

Hence,  $S \neq \emptyset$

$\Rightarrow$

# Well-ordering principle:

- Every non-empty set of the integers contains a least element

$\Rightarrow S$  has a least element, say  $k$

i.e.,  $k$  is the least integer that  $x^k$  belongs to  $H$ .

$$(x^k)^2 \in \langle x^k \rangle$$

$$x^{2k} \in \langle x^k \rangle$$

② Consider any element  $x^{qk} \in \langle x^k \rangle$

If  $q=0$  then  $x^{qk} = x^0 = e \in H$

If  $q > 0$ , then  $x^{qk} = \underbrace{x^k \cdots x^k}_{q \text{ times}} \in H$   $\begin{cases} 0 \leq k \in H \\ \Rightarrow st \in H \end{cases}$

If  $q < 0$ , then  $x^{qk} = \underbrace{x^{-k} \cdots x^{-k}}_{-q \text{ times}} \in H$

$$x^{qk} = (x^k)^q \in H \quad \forall q \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\text{i.e., } \langle x^k \rangle \subseteq H \quad \leftarrow$$

$$\text{also } e \in H$$

⑥ Let  $x^n \in H$ ,

$$k \overline{\begin{matrix} m \\ n \\ r \end{matrix}}$$

\*

Coroll

Division algorithm:  $n = mk + r$

where  $m, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,

$$0 \leq r < k$$

$$x^r = x^{n-mk} = x^n \cdot x^{-mk} = x^n (x^k)^{-m} \in H$$

Since  $x^n, x^k \in H$

$k$  is the least +ve integer such that  $x^k \in H$

$$\therefore x^r \in H \iff r = 0$$

Then,  $n = mk$  and  $x^n = x^{mk} = (x^k)^m \in \langle x^k \rangle$

$$\therefore H \subseteq \langle x^k \rangle$$

$$\longrightarrow H = \langle x^k \rangle$$

$\therefore H$  is cyclic

\* Corollary: Let  $H \neq \{e\}$  be a subgroup of  $\langle a \rangle$ . Then  $H = \langle a^n \rangle$  where,  $n$  is the least +ve integer, such that  $a^n \in H$ .

(E.15) Obtain all the subgroups of  $\mathbb{Z}_4$  ( $\mathbb{Z}_4 = \langle 1 \rangle$ )

Ans: Since  $\mathbb{Z}_4$  is cyclic, all its subgroups are cyclic.

Its subgroups are:

$$\mathbb{Z}_4, \langle 2 \rangle, \langle 3 \rangle, \{0\}.$$



## Cosets

Q.C.G.T  
→

- \* Let  $G$  be a group and  $H, K$  be non-empty subsets of  $G$ . The product of  $H$  and  $K$  is the set,

$$HK = \{hk \mid h \in H, k \in K\}$$

- \* Let  $H$  and  $K$  be subgroups of a group  $G$ . Then  $HK$  is a subgroup of  $G$  iff  $HK = KH$ .

i.e. If  $H$  &  $K$  are subgroups of an abelian group  $G$ , then  $HK$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} H \leq G \\ K \leq G \end{array} \right\} HK \leq G \text{ iff } HK = KH$$

We'll look at the case when one of the subsets consists of a single element only.

$H\{x\} = \{hx \mid h \in H\}$ , where  $H$  is a subgroup of a group  $G$  and  $x \in G$ .

We'll denote  $H\{x\}$  by  $Hx$ .

\* Let  $H$  be a subgroup of a group  $G$ , and let  $x \in G$ . The set  $Hx = \{hx \mid h \in H\}$  is called a right coset of  $H$  in  $G$ .

The element  $x$  is a representative of  $Hx$ .

Similarly,

the left coset of  $H$  in  $G$  is defined as,

$$\underline{\underline{ $xH = \{xh \mid h \in H\}$ }}$$

Note: If the group operation is  $+$ , then the right and left cosets of  $H$  in  $(G, +)$  represented by  $\alpha \in G$  are:

$$\underline{H + \alpha = \{h + \alpha \mid h \in H\}} \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{\alpha + H = \{\alpha + h \mid h \in H\}}.$$

Ex. 1 Show that  $H$  is a right as well as a left coset of a subgroup  $H$  in a group  $G$ .

Ans:

Consider the right coset of  $H$  in  $G$  represented by  $e$ , the identity of  $G$ .

Then,

$$He = \{he \mid h \in H\} = \{h \mid h \in H\} = H$$

Similarly,  $eH = H$

$\therefore H$  is a right as well as left coset of  $H$  in  $G$ .

Ex. 2 What are the right cosets of  $4\mathbb{Z}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$ ?

Ans.  $H = 4\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -8, -4, 0, 4, 8, \dots\}$

The right cosets of  $H$  are,

$$H+0 = H$$

$$H+1 = \{\dots, -7, -3, 1, 5, 9, \dots\}$$

$$H+2 = \{\dots, -6, -2, 2, 6, 10, \dots\}$$

$$H+3 = \{\dots, -5, -1, 3, 7, 11, \dots\}$$

$$H+4 = \{\dots, -4, 0, 4, 8, 12, \dots\} = H$$

Similarly,  $H+5 = H+1$ ,  $H+6 = H+2$ ,  $\dots$  so on.

$\therefore$  the distinct right cosets are  $H, H+1, H+2, H+3, \dots$

- The distinct right cosets of  $H (=n\mathbb{Z})$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$  are  $H, H+1, \dots, H+(n-1)$ .

Similarly,

the distinct left cosets of  $H (=n\mathbb{Z})$  are  $H, 1+H, 2+H, \dots, (n-1)+H$ .

\* Theorem

$H$  and

(a)  $x \in$

(b)  $Hx$

(c)  $Hx =$

Proof

(a)  $e \in$

(b) Assume

$H = x$

Convers

$12-14$

Any  $e$   
 $h \in H$

$h \in H$

\* Theorem 4.1: Let  $H$  be a subgroup of a group  $G$  and let  $x, y \in G$ . Then,

- (a)  $x \in Hx$
- (b)  $Hx = H \iff x \in H$
- (c)  $Hx = Hy \iff xy^{-1} \in H$

Proof

(a)  $e \in H$  and  $x = ex$   
 $\implies x \in Hx$

(b) Assume that  $Hx = H$ ,  
 $x \in Hx \implies x \in H$

Conversely,

Assume that  $x \in H$ ,

Any element of  $Hx$  is of the form  $hax$ , where  $h \in H$ . i.e.  $hax \in Hx$

$h \in H$  &  $x \in H \implies hax \in H$

$\therefore Hx \subseteq H$

Let  $h \in H$ , then  $h = (hx^{-1})x$

$$x \in H \implies x^{-1} \in H \implies hx^{-1} \in H \text{ as } h \in H$$

$$\therefore h = (hx^{-1})x \in Hx$$

$$\therefore H \subseteq Hx$$

$$\implies \underline{H = Hx} \text{ whenever } x \in H$$

(c)

$$Hx = Hy,$$

$$\implies Hxy^{-1} = Hxy^{-1} = He = H$$

$$\implies xy^{-1} \in H$$

$$\left[ \text{since } Hx = H \iff x \in H \right]$$

Theorem 4.1(b)

Conversely,

$$xy^{-1} \in H \implies Hxy^{-1} = H$$

$$\implies Hxy^{-1}y = Hy$$

$$\implies \underline{Hx = Hy}$$

since

$$\left[ x \in H \iff Hx = H \right]$$

Similarly,

if  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$  and  $x, y \in G$ , then

(a)

$$x \in xH$$

(b)

$$xH = H \iff x \in H$$

(c)

$$xH = yH \iff x^{-1}y \in H$$

Ex: 3

Let  $G = S_3 = \{I, (1\ 2), (1\ 3), (2\ 3), (1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2)\}$  and  $H$  be the cyclic subgroup of  $G$  generated by  $(1\ 2\ 3)$ . Obtain the left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$ .

Ans.  $(1\ 2\ 3) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$(1\ 2\ 3) \cdot (1\ 2\ 3) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = (1\ 3\ 2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} (1\ 2\ 3) \cdot (1\ 2\ 3) \cdot (1\ 2\ 3) &= (1\ 2\ 3) \cdot (1\ 3\ 2) \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = I \end{aligned}$$

$$H = \langle (1\ 2\ 3) \rangle = \{I, (1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2)\}$$

The left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  are:

- $IH = H = \{I, (1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2)\}$
- $(1\ 2)H = \{(1\ 2), (1\ 2) \cdot (1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 2) \cdot (1\ 3\ 2)\}$   
 $= \{(1\ 2), (2\ 3), (1\ 3)\}$

$$(1\ 2)^{-1}(1\ 3) = (1\ 2) \cdot (1\ 3) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = (1\ 3\ 2) \in H$$

$$(1\ 2)^{-1}(2\ 3) = (1\ 2) \cdot (2\ 3) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = (1\ 2\ 3) \in H$$

$$xH = yH \iff xy^{-1} \in H \quad \left. \vphantom{xy^{-1} \in H} \right\} \quad (1\ 2)H = (2\ 3)H = (1\ 3)H$$

$$x \in H \iff xH = H$$

$$(1\ 2\ 3)H = H = (1\ 3\ 2)H$$

$\therefore$  The distinct left cosets of  $H$  are:

$$H \text{ and } (1\ 2)H.$$

(E.1) Obtain the left & right cosets of  $H = \langle (1\ 2) \rangle$  in  $S_3$ . Show that  $Hx \neq xH$  for some  $x \in S_3$ .

$$\text{Ans: } (1\ 2) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \left| \quad S_3 = \{I, (1\ 2), (1\ 3), (2\ 3), (1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2)\} \right.$$

$$(1\ 2) \cdot (1\ 2) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = (I) \quad (1\ 2)$$

$$\Rightarrow H = \langle (1\ 2) \rangle = \{I, (1\ 2)\}$$

Left cosets are:  $H, (1\ 2)H, (1\ 3)H, (2\ 3)H, (1\ 2\ 3)H, (1\ 3\ 2)H$

$$x \in H \iff xH = H \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (1\ 2)H = H \end{array} \right.$$

$$(1\ 2\ 3)H = (1\ 3)H, \quad (1\ 3\ 2)H = (2\ 3)H$$

$\therefore$  The distinct left cosets of  $H$  in  $S_3$  are:

$$H, (1\ 3)H, (2\ 3)H$$

Similarly,

the distinct right cosets of  $H$  in  $S_3$  are:

$$H, H(1\ 3), H(2\ 3)$$

$$(1\ 3)H = \{(1\ 3), (1\ 2\ 3)\}$$

$$H(1\ 3) = \{(1\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2)\}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} (1\ 3)H \neq H(1\ 3) \\ (2\ 3)H \neq H(2\ 3) \end{array} \right\}$$

## Quaternion group

Ex: 4 Consider the following set of eight  $2 \times 2$  matrices over  $\mathbb{C}$ .

$$Q = \{ \pm I, \pm A, \pm B, \pm C \} \quad \text{where}$$

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}, C = \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{such that } I^2 = I \cdot I = I^2 = I \text{ and } A^2 = B^2 = C^2 = -I,$$

$$AB = C = -BA, BC = A = -CB, CA = B = -AC$$

$\therefore Q$  is a non-abelian group under matrix multiplication.

Show that the subgroup  $H = \langle A \rangle$  has only two distinct right cosets in  $Q$ .

$$\text{Ans: } H = \langle A \rangle = \{ I, A, A^2, A^3 \} = \{ I, A, -I, -A \}$$

$$HB = \{ B, C, -B, -C \}$$

$$Hx = x \iff x \in H$$

$$H = HI = HA = H(-I) = H(-A)$$

$$Hx = Hy \iff xy^{-1} \in H$$

$$BC^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -i & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = -A \in H$$

$$\therefore HB = HC = H(-B) = H(-C)$$

→  $\therefore H$  has only 2 distinct cosets  
in  $G_8$  :  $H, HB$ .

(E.2) Show that  $K = \{I, -I\}$  is a subgroup of  $Q_8$ .  
Obtain all its right cosets, in  $Q_8$ .

Ans: Since  $ab^{-1} \in K \forall a, b \in K \implies K \leq Q_8$

$$K = KI = K(-I),$$

$$(-A)A^{-1} \in K \implies I \in K.$$

$$\implies KA = K(-A) = \{A, -A\}$$

$$KB = K(-B) = \{B, -B\}$$

$$KC = K(-C) = \{C, -C\}.$$

Define: Let  $H$  be a subgroup of a group  $G$ .

We define a relation ' $\sim$ ' on  $G$  by  
 $x \sim y$  iff  $xy^{-1} \in H$  where  $x, y \in G$ .

i.e.,  $x \sim y$  iff  $Hx = Hy$

Theorem 2: Let  $H$  be a subgroup of a group  $G$ . Then the relation ' $\sim$ ' defined by  $x \sim y$  iff  $xy^{-1} \in H$  (i.e.,  $x \sim y$  iff  $Hx = Hy$ ) is an equivalence relation.

The equivalence classes are the right cosets of  $H$  in  $G$ , i.e.,  $[x] = Hx$

Remark: If  $Hx$  and  $Hy$  are two right cosets of a subgroup  $H$  in  $G$ , then  $Hx = Hy$  or  $Hx \cap Hy = \emptyset$ .

$\Rightarrow$  Any subgroup  $H$  of a group  $G$  partitions  $G$  into disjoint right cosets.

Proof

For any  $x \in G$ ,  $xx^{-1} = e \in H$

$\therefore x \sim x$ , i.e.,  $\sim$  is reflexive

If  $xy$  for any  $x, y \in G$ , then  $xy^{-1} \in H$

$$\therefore (xy^{-1})^{-1} = yx^{-1} \in H$$

$\therefore y \sim x$ , i.e.,  $\sim$  is symmetric.

If  $x, y, z \in G$  such that  $xy$  and  $yz$ ,  
then,  $xy^{-1} \in H$  and  $yz^{-1} \in H$

$$(xy^{-1})(yz^{-1}) = x(y^{-1}y)z^{-1} = xz^{-1} \in H$$

$\therefore x \sim z$ , i.e.,  $\sim$  is transitive.

Thus,  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation.

The equivalence class determined by  $x \in G$  is,

$$[x] = \{y \in G \mid y \sim x\} = \{y \in G \mid xy^{-1} \in H\}$$

Let  $y = [x]$ ,

$$xy^{-1} \in H \iff Hx = Hy$$

$$y \in Hy \implies y \in Hx$$

$$\therefore [x] \subseteq Hx$$

For any  $hx \in Hx$ ,

$$x(hx)^{-1} = xx^{-1}h^{-1} = h^{-1} \in H$$

$\therefore hx \sim x$ , i.e.,  $hx \in [x]$ . for all  $hx \in Hx$

$$\therefore Hx \subseteq [x]$$

$$\implies \underline{\underline{[x] = Hx}}$$

Theorem 1.1: Let  $R$  be an equivalence relation on a set  $S$ . For  $a \in S$ , let  $[a]$  denote the equivalence class of  $a$ . Then,

①  $R$

- ①  $a \in [a]$
- ②  $b \in [a] \iff [a] = [b]$
- ③  $S = \bigcup_{a \in S} [a]$
- ④ if  $a, b \in S$  then  $[a] \cap [b] = \emptyset$   
(or)  $[a] = [b]$

② Assume

Let  
know

Transit

Proof

- An equivalence relation  $R$  on a set  $S$  divides  $S$  into a number of mutually disjoint subsets, i.e., it partitions  $S$  called equivalence classes.

Conversely,

Let  $a \in S$ . Then the set  $\{b \in S \mid a R b\}$  is called the equivalence class of  $a$  in  $S$ , i.e.,  $[a]$ . It is just the set of elements in  $S$  which are related to  $a$ .

$$[a] = \{b \in S \mid a R b\}$$

①  $R$  is an equivalence relation.  $\square$

$\therefore R$  is reflexive

$$aRa \quad \forall a \in S \implies a \in [a]$$

② Assume that  $b \in [a]$ , i.e.,  $aRb$

Let  $x \in [a]$  then  $xRa$  and we also know that  $aRb$ .

Transitivity of  $R \implies xRb$ , i.e.,  $x \in [b]$

$$[a] \subseteq [b]$$

Similarly,  $[b] \subseteq [a]$ .

$$\implies [a] = [b]$$

Conversely,

assume that  $[a] = [b]$ ,

$$\text{then } b \in [b] = [a] \implies b \in [a]$$

$$[a] \cup [b] = [a]$$

$$\cup$$

$$(c) [a] \subseteq S \quad \forall a \in S$$

~~Let~~  $x \in [a]$  for any  $[a]$ ,  
 $a \in S$ .

i.e., for  $x \in \bigcup_{a \in S} [a]$ ,  $x \in S$ .

$$\Rightarrow \bigcup_{a \in S} [a] \subseteq S$$

Conversely,

let  $x \in S$  then  $x \in [x]$  by (a)

$[x]$  is one of the sets in the collection  
 whose union is  $\bigcup_{a \in S} [a]$ .

$$\text{Hence, } x \in \bigcup_{a \in S} [a] \Rightarrow S \subseteq \bigcup_{a \in S} [a].$$

$$\therefore \underline{S = \bigcup_{a \in S} [a]}$$

(d) Suppose  $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$ .

Let  $x \in [a] \cap [b]$

then  $x \in [a]$  and  $x \in [b]$

$\rightarrow [x] = [a]$  and  $[x] = [b]$

(b)

$\Rightarrow \underline{\underline{[a] = [b]}}$

- Any two left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  are identical or disjoint.

i.e.,

If  $xH$  and  $yH$  are two left cosets of a subgroup  $H$  in  $G$ , then  $xH = yH$  or  $xH \cap yH = \emptyset$

- $G$  is the disjoint union of the distinct left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$ .

$$G = \bigcup_{x \in G} xH = \bigcup_{x \in G} Hx$$

Ex:-  $G = S_3 = \{I, (12), (13), (23), (123), (132)\}$

$H = \langle (123) \rangle = \{I, (123), (132)\}$

The distinct left cosets of  $H$  are:  $H$  and  $(12)H$

$\therefore S_3 = \langle (123) \rangle \cup (12)\langle (123) \rangle$

check  
Ex 3

E.3

- Let  $H$  be a subgroup of a group  $G$ .  
There is a one-one correspondence b/w  
the elements of  $H$  and those of any  
right or left coset of  $H$ .

i.e.,

the mapping  $f: H \rightarrow Hx \mid f(h) = hx$  is a bijection

$\Rightarrow$  The # of elements in every coset of  $H$   
is the same as the # of elements in  $H$ .

$$|Hx| = |H| = |xH| \quad \forall x \in G$$

$$|Hx_1| = |Hx_2| = \dots = |Hx_r| = |H|$$

$$|x_1H| = |x_2H| = \dots = |x_rH| = |H|$$

Proof

Let

Con

For

y =

For

Hence

b/w

Similar!

## Proof

Let  $H\alpha$  be a coset of  $H$  in  $G$ .

Consider the function  $f: H \rightarrow H\alpha \mid f(h) = h\alpha$

For  $h, h' \in H$ ,

$$f(h) = f(h') \implies h\alpha = h'\alpha$$

$$\implies h = h'$$

$\therefore f$  is one-one

$$y = f(h) = h\alpha \implies h = \frac{y}{\alpha}$$

For all  $y = f(h) \in H\alpha$ ,

there is  $h = \frac{y}{\alpha} \in H$

$\therefore f$  is onto

$\implies f$  is a bijection

Hence, there is a one-to-one correspondence  
b/w the elements of  $H$  and  $H\alpha$ .

---

Similarly, the map  $f: H \rightarrow \alpha H \mid f(h) = \alpha h$  is a  
bijection.

(E4) Write  $\mathbb{Z}$  as a union of disjoint cosets of  $5\mathbb{Z}$

Ans:  $H = 5\mathbb{Z} = \{ \dots, -10, -5, 0, 5, 10, \dots \}$

The right cosets of  $5\mathbb{Z}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$  are:

$$5\mathbb{Z}, 5\mathbb{Z}+1, 5\mathbb{Z}+2, 5\mathbb{Z}+3, 5\mathbb{Z}+4$$

$$\therefore \underline{\underline{\mathbb{Z} = 5\mathbb{Z} \cup 5\mathbb{Z}+1 \cup 5\mathbb{Z}+2 \cup 5\mathbb{Z}+3 \cup 5\mathbb{Z}+4}}$$



## LAGRANGE'S THEOREM

- The order of a finite group  $G$  is the # of elements in  $G$ . It is denoted by  $|G|$  or  $o(G)$

Ex:  $o(S_3) = |S_3| = 6$

$o(A_3) = |A_3| = 3$  where,

$$A_3 = \langle (1\ 2\ 3) \rangle = \{I, (1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2)\}$$

$o(\mathbb{Z}_n) = |\mathbb{Z}_n| = n$

$o(S_n) = |S_n| = n!$

\* Let  $H$  be a subgroup of a finite group  $G$ .

There is a one-to-one correspondence b/w the right cosets and the left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$ .

i.e.,

the mapping  $f: \{Hx \mid x \in G\} \rightarrow \{yH \mid y \in G\}$

such that  $f(Hx) = x^{-1}H$  is a bijection.

$\Rightarrow$  The # of distinct right cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  always equals the # of distinct left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$ .

$|G:H|$  = the # of distinct cosets of  $H$  in  $G$   
= the index of  $H$  in  $G$

Any le

Proof  $f: \{Hx \mid x \in G\} \rightarrow \{yH \mid y \in G\}$

such that  $f(Hx) = x^{-1}H$ .

$$Hx = Hy \Rightarrow xy^{-1} \in H \quad \left[ \text{Theorem 4.1 (c)} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow (xy^{-1})^{-1} \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow (y^{-1})^{-1}x^{-1} \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow x^{-1}H = y^{-1}H$$

$$\left[ x^{-1}H = y^{-1}H \iff x^{-1}y \in H \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{f(Hx) = f(Hy)}$$

$\therefore f$  is well defined

$$f(Hx) = f(Hy) \Rightarrow x^{-1}H = y^{-1}H$$

$$\Rightarrow (x^{-1})^{-1}y^{-1} = xy^{-1} \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow Hx = Hy$$

$\therefore f$  is one-one.

Any left coset of  $H$  in  $G$  is  $yH = f(x^{-1}y^{-1})$

$\therefore f$  is on-to

$\Rightarrow f$  is a Bijection.

Ex -  $|S_3 : A_3| = 2$

If  $H = \{e\}$ , then  $|G : \{e\}| = |G| = o(G)$

since  $\{e\}g = \{e\}g' \quad \forall g \in G$   
and  $\{e\}g \neq \{e\}g' \quad \nexists g \neq g'$

$S_3 =$

$P_{\text{top}}$

$A = \langle$

$E = \langle$

The

on

con

$$S_3 = \{I, (12), (13), (23), (123), (132)\}$$

Proper subgroups of  $S_3$  are:

$$A = \langle I \rangle, B = \langle (12) \rangle, C = \langle (13) \rangle, D = \langle (23) \rangle, E = \langle (123) \rangle$$

$$E = \langle (132) \rangle = \{I, (123), (132)\}.$$

The orders of the subgroups of  $S_3$  are:

$$1, 2, 3, 6$$

All these divide  $o(S_3) = |S_3| = 6$ .

→ Appeared in a paper in 1770,  
written by Lagrange.

\*

Theorem (4.3), (4.2.1): Lagrange's theorem

Let  $H$  be a subgroup of a finite group  $G$ .

Then,

$$|G| = |G:H| \cdot |H|$$

i.e.,

$|H|$  divides  $|G|$ , and  $|G:H|$  divides  $|G|$

- The index  $|G:H|$  measures the "relative sizes" of  $G$  and  $H$ ;  
which is the # of distinct cosets of  $H$  in  $G$ .

$$|H| \cdot n = |x_1 H \cup \dots \cup x_n H|$$

$$|H| \cdot |G:H| = |G| \quad \leftarrow$$

Proof

We can write  $G$  as a union of disjoint right cosets of  $H$  in  $G$ .

If  $Hx_1, Hx_2, \dots, Hx_r$  are all the distinct right cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  such that

$|G:H| = r$ , which gives the # of distinct cosets of  $H$  in  $G$ .

Then,

$$G = Hx_1 \cup Hx_2 \cup \dots \cup Hx_r \quad \text{--- ①}$$

and  $Hx_i \cap Hx_j = \emptyset$  for  $i \neq j$

from (E.2),

$$|Hx_1| = |Hx_2| = \dots = |Hx_r| = |H|$$

$$\begin{aligned} |Hx_1 \cup Hx_2 \cup \dots \cup Hx_r| &= r|H| \\ &= |G:H| \cdot |H| \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\underline{|G| = |G:H| \cdot |H|}}$$

Application Ex:

Find all the subgroups of a group  $G$  of order 35.

$|H| = |G:H| \cdot |H|$  } The only subgroups are those  
of order 1, 5, 7 and 35.

- Let  $G$  be a group and  $g \in G$ . Then, the order of the element  $g$  is the order of the cyclic subgroup  $\langle g \rangle$ , if  $\langle g \rangle$  is finite, which we denote as  $o(g) = |\langle g \rangle|$ .

If  $\langle g \rangle$  is an infinite subgroup of  $G$ , then we say that  $g$  is of infinite order.

$$|g| = |\langle g \rangle|$$

where  $g \in G$

Note  $\langle g \rangle$  is the smallest subgroup of  $G$  containing  $g$ .

### Definition

Let  $g \in G$  have finite order. Then, the set  $\{e, g, g^2, \dots\}$  is finite, since  $G$  is finite.

$\therefore$  all powers of  $g$  can't be distinct.

$\therefore g^r = g^s$  for some  $r > s$ .

$g^{r-s} = e$  and  $r-s \in \mathbb{N}$ .

$\therefore$  the set  $\{t \in \mathbb{N} \mid g^t = e\}$  is non-empty.

Well ordering principle  $\Rightarrow$  the set has a least element.

let  $n$  be the least +ve integer such that  $g^n = e$ . Then,

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

$$\therefore |g| = |\langle g \rangle| = n$$

$\Rightarrow |g|$  is the least +ve integer  $n$  such that  $g^n = e$ .

[If  $g \in \langle G, + \rangle$ , then  $|g|$  is the least +ve integer  $n$  such that  $ng = e$ ]

- If  $g \in G$  is of infinite order. Then, for  $m \neq n$ ,  $g^m \neq g^n$

(Because, if  $g^m = g^n$ , then  $g^{m-n} = e$ , which shows that  $\langle g \rangle$  is a finite group)

~~Ex~~ E.6 What are the orders of

②  $(1\ 2) \in S_3$

Ans:  $(1\ 2) \neq I, (1\ 2)^2 = (1\ 2) \circ (1\ 2) = I$

$$|(1\ 2)| = 2$$

③  $I \in S_4$

Ans:  $I^1 = I \implies |I| = 1$

④  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \in Q_8$

Ans: 2

⑤  $\bar{3} \in \mathbb{Z}_4$

Ans:  $\bar{3} \neq 0, 2 \cdot \bar{3} = \bar{6} = \bar{2}, 3 \cdot \bar{3} = \bar{9} = \bar{1}, 4 \cdot \bar{3} = \bar{12} = \bar{0}$

$$\therefore |\bar{3}| = 4$$

⑥  $1 \in \mathbb{R}$

Ans:  $\langle 1 \rangle = \mathbb{R}$  is infinite.

$$\therefore 1 \text{ is of infinite order}$$

Theorem 4.4: Let  $G$  be a group and  $g \in G$  be of order  $n$ . Then  $g^m = e$  for some  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  iff  $n|m$ .

Proof

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} |g| = n \\ \text{(or)} \\ g^n = e \end{array} \right\} g^m = e \text{ iff } n|m$$

Division algorithm

$$m = nt + r$$

$$\begin{array}{r} t \\ n \overline{) m} \\ \hline r \end{array}$$

where  $0 \leq r < n$

$$\begin{aligned} e = g^m &= g^{nt+r} = g^{nt} \cdot g^r = (g^n)^t g^r = e^t g^r \\ &= e g^r = g^r \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow g^r = e$ , but  $n$  is the smallest +ve integer such that  $g^n = e$  and  $r < n$ .

$$\therefore r = 0 \implies m = nt$$

$$\therefore n|m \quad \text{(or)} \quad \begin{array}{l} g^m = e \text{ iff} \\ |g| = n \text{ divides } m \end{array}$$

Theorem 4.5: Let  $G = \langle g \rangle$  be a cyclic group.

(a) If  $g$  is of infinite order then  $g^n$  is also of infinite order for every  $n \neq 0$ .

(b) If  $|g| = n$  then,

$$|g^m| = \frac{n}{\gcd(n, m)} \quad \forall m = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$$

Proof

(a) An element is of infinite order iff all its powers are distinct.

$g$  is of infinite order  $\Rightarrow$  all the powers of  $g$  are distinct.

$$\text{If possible, let } (g^m)^t = (g^m)^w \Rightarrow g^{mt} = g^{mw}$$

$$\text{But then } mt = mw$$

$$\therefore t = w$$

$\Rightarrow$  Powers of  $g^m$  are all distinct & hence  $g^m$  is of infinite order.

Let

$\deg(\dots)$

$n_1$

Now,

$n$

$\gcd$

(1)

$$|g| = n \quad \& \quad G = \langle g \rangle = \{e, g, g^2, \dots, g^{n-1}\}$$

Let  $H \neq \{e\}$  be a subgroup of  $\langle g \rangle = G$   
 then  $H = \langle g^m \rangle$  where  $m$  is the least  
 +ve integer such that  $g^m \in H$

$\Rightarrow H = \langle g^m \rangle$  must be of finite order

$|g^m|$  is finite

Let  $t = |g^m|$  then  $(g^m)^t = g^{mt} = e$

$$\& \quad |g| = n \Rightarrow g^n = e$$

Theorem 4.4  $\Rightarrow n \mid tm$

$$|g^m| = \frac{n}{\gcd(n, m)}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} = \frac{1}{\frac{dt}{d}}$$

$$t = \frac{n}{\gcd(n, m)}$$

We need to prove,

Let  $d = \gcd(n, m)$  then  $n = n_1 d$  &  
 $m = m_1 d$

$$d = \gcd(n, m) = \gcd(n_1 d, m_1 d) = d \gcd(n_1, m_1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \gcd(n_1, m_1) = 1$$

$$n_1 = \frac{n}{d} = \frac{n}{\gcd(n, m)}$$

Now,  $n | tm \Rightarrow n | t m_1 d \Rightarrow n_1 d | t m_1 d$

$$\Rightarrow n_1 | t m_1$$

$$\Rightarrow n_1 | t \quad (\text{or}) \quad n_1 | m_1$$

$$\gcd(n_1, m_1) = 1 \Rightarrow n_1 \nmid m_1$$

$$\therefore \underline{n_1 | t} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\frac{(n_1 d) | t}{(n_1 d) | t} = \frac{n | t}{n | t}$$

$$|g| = n \implies g^n = e$$

$$|g^m| = t \implies (g^m)^t = g^{mt} = e$$

as we defined

$$(g^m)^{n_1} = g^{mn_1} = g^{m_1dn_1} = g^{m_1n} = (g^n)^{m_1} = e^{m_1} = e$$

$$\text{Theorem 4.4} \implies t \mid n_1 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\textcircled{1} \& \textcircled{2} \implies t = n_1$$

$$t = n_1 = \frac{n}{d} = \frac{n}{\gcd(n, m)}$$

$$|g^m| = \frac{n}{\gcd(n, m)}$$

Ex:-

$$|\overline{4}| \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_{12} \text{ is } \frac{12}{\gcd(12,4)} = \frac{12}{4} = 3 //$$

\* Let  $G$  be a finite group, and  $g \in G$ . Then,  
 $|g|$  divides  $|G|$ , and in particular

$$g^{|G|} = e$$

$$\boxed{|g| \mid |G| \rightarrow g^{|G|} = e}$$

Proof

$|g| = |\langle g \rangle|$  &  $|\langle g \rangle| \mid |G|$  from  
Lagrange's theorem

$$\Rightarrow |g| \mid |G|$$

$$\text{Theorem 4.4} \rightarrow \underline{\underline{g^{|G|} = e}}$$

\* Every group of prime order is cyclic.

Proof.

Let  $G$  be a group of prime order  $p$ .  
i.e.,  $|G| = p$

Since  $p \neq 1 \exists g \in G$  such that  $a \neq e$ .

$$|g| \mid |G| \rightarrow |g| \mid p$$

$$\therefore |g| = 1 \text{ or } |g| = p$$

Since  $g \neq e$ ,  $|g| \geq 2$ .

$$\therefore |g| = p, \text{ i.e., } |g| = |\langle g \rangle| = p$$

$\langle g \rangle$  is the smallest subgroup of  $G$  containing ' $g$ '.

$$\therefore \langle g \rangle \leq G \text{ such that } |\langle g \rangle| = |G| = p$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle g \rangle = G \quad \therefore \underline{\underline{G \text{ is cyclic}}}$$

\*

(a) Let  $G$  be an abelian group and  $a, b \in G$ .

Then,

$$|ab| \mid \text{lcm}(|a|, |b|)$$

If  $|a|, |b|$  are coprime, i.e.,  $\gcd(|a|, |b|) = 1$  then

$$|ab| \mid |a||b|$$

(b) Let  $a, b$  be elements of an abelian group  $G$ .

If  $\langle a \rangle \cap \langle b \rangle = \{e\}$ , then  $|ab| = \text{lcm}(|a|, |b|)$

(c) Let  $a, b$  be elements of an abelian group  $G$ .

If  $|a|$  and  $|b|$  are coprime, i.e.,  $\gcd(|a|, |b|) = 1$  then,

$$|ab| = |a||b|$$

# Proof

① Let  $|a|=m$ ,  $|b|=n$  and let  $c = \text{lcm}(m, n)$ .  
then,

$$c = rm \quad \text{for some } r \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$c = sn \quad \text{for some } s \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\therefore (ab)^c = a^c b^c$$

$$[ab = ba]$$

$$= a^{rm} b^{sn}$$

$$= (a^m)^r (b^n)^s$$

$$= e^r e^s = e$$

$$\Rightarrow |ab| \mid c$$

$$[\text{Theorem 4.4}]$$

$$\Rightarrow |ab| \mid \text{lcm}(|a|, |b|)$$

$$\underline{\underline{\quad \quad \quad}}$$

(E) Let  $|ab| = r$  and  $c = \text{lcm}(|a|, |b|)$   
 $= \text{lcm}(\min)$

$$|ab| \mid \text{lcm}(\min) \Rightarrow r \mid c$$

$$\therefore r \leq c$$

$$e = (ab)^r = a^r b^r \Rightarrow a^r = b^{-r} \in \langle b \rangle$$

$\therefore a^r \in \langle a \rangle \cap \langle b \rangle = \{e\}$  ; as is taken.

$$\Rightarrow a^r = e$$

$$\therefore |a| = m \mid r$$

Similarly,  $b^r = (b^{-r})^{-1} = (a^r)^{-1} = e^{-1} = e$

$$\therefore |b| = n \mid r$$

$m \mid r$  &  $n \mid r \Rightarrow r$  is a +ve common multiple  
of  $m$  and  $n$

$$\therefore c = \text{lcm}(m, n) \leq r \Rightarrow c \leq r$$

$$\therefore c = r \Rightarrow \underline{\underline{|ab| = \text{lcm}(|a|, |b|)}}$$

② Given the elements  $a, b$  of an abelian group  $G$  and  $\gcd(|a|, |b|) = 1$

Consider the two cyclic subgroups of  $G$ .

$\langle a \rangle$  and  $\langle b \rangle$ , and consider  $H = \langle a \rangle \cap \langle b \rangle$

where  $H \leq G$ .

Lagrange's theorem  $\Rightarrow |H| \mid |\langle a \rangle|$  &  $|H| \mid |\langle b \rangle|$   
 $|a| = |G \cdot H|/|H|$

$$\Rightarrow |H| \mid m \quad \& \quad |H| \mid n$$

$$\Rightarrow |H| \mid \gcd(m, n) \quad \left[ \begin{array}{l} a \in N.T.: 1 \\ \end{array} \right]$$

$$\text{Given } \gcd(|a|, |b|) = \gcd(m, n) = 1$$

$$\therefore |H| \mid 1 \Rightarrow |H| = 1$$

$$\therefore H = \{e\} = \langle a \rangle \cap \langle b \rangle$$

$$\text{Using (b), } |ab| = \text{lcm}(|a|, |b|) = |a||b|$$

$$\underline{\underline{(|a|, |b|) \mid |ab|}}$$

$$H = \langle a \rangle \cap \langle b \rangle \implies H \leq \langle a \rangle \text{ and } H \leq \langle b \rangle$$

Proof

\* Let  $H$  be a non-empty subset of a group  $G$ .

Then  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$  iff

$$a, b \in H \implies ab^{-1} \in H$$

\*  $e \in \langle a \rangle$  &  $e \in \langle b \rangle$  then  $e \in \langle a \rangle \cap \langle b \rangle$   
 $\implies H = \langle a \rangle \cap \langle b \rangle \neq \emptyset$

$$\langle H \rangle \leq \langle a \rangle \text{ and } H \leq \langle b \rangle$$

$$\text{Let } p, q \in H = \langle a \rangle \cap \langle b \rangle$$

$$p, q \in \langle a \rangle \text{ and } p, q \in \langle b \rangle$$

$$pq^{-1} \in \langle a \rangle \text{ and } pq^{-1} \in \langle b \rangle$$

$$\implies pq^{-1} \in \langle a \rangle \cap \langle b \rangle$$

$\therefore H = \langle a \rangle \cap \langle b \rangle$  is a subgroup of  $\langle a \rangle$  and  $\langle b \rangle$ .

• Let  $G$  be a finite abelian group

If  $n$  is the maximal order among the element in  $G$ , then the order of every element divides  $n$ .

|                       |                                                   |
|-----------------------|---------------------------------------------------|
| $ g  \mid  g _{\max}$ | $\iff G \text{ is abelian } \iff \forall g \in G$ |
|-----------------------|---------------------------------------------------|

Proof

Let  $g$  have the maximal order  $n$ , i.e.,  $|g| = n$ .

Pick  $h \in G$  and let  $|h| = m$ .

We want to prove  $m \mid n$ .

Assume  $m$  does not divide  $n$ .

$$\Rightarrow \therefore m > 1$$

and  $m \leq n$  as is defined.

$$\Rightarrow 1 < m < n$$

Special Case: If  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$

$G$  is abelian  $\rightarrow |gh| = |g||h| = nm$

i.e.,  $|gh| > |g| = n$

which is a contradiction as  $g$  has the largest order  $n$ .

General Case:

If  $m \nmid n$ , then there is some prime  $p$  whose multiplicity (exponent) as a factor of  $m$  exceeds that of  $n$ .

Let  $p^k$  be the highest power of  $p$  in  $m$  and  $p^t$  be the highest power of  $p$  in  $n$  and so  $k > t$ .

$$m \nmid n : \frac{n}{m} = \frac{p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \dots p^t}{p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} \dots p^k} = p_1^{(a_1-b_1)} p_2^{(a_2-b_2)} \dots p^{(t-k)}$$

where  $t - k < 0 \Rightarrow \underline{k > t}$

Consider  $g^{p^t}$  and  $h^{m/p^k}$  such that

$$g^{p^t}, h^{m/p^k} \in G \text{ since } p^t, m/p^k \in \mathbb{Z}_+$$

Note that  $|g| = n, |h| = m$

$$|g^{p^t}| = \frac{n}{p^t} \nmid p \quad \left[ \frac{|g^n| - \frac{n}{\gcd(n, p^t)}}{n = |g|} \right]$$

$$|h^{m/p^k}| = \frac{m}{m/p^k} = p^k$$

$$\Rightarrow \gcd(|g^{p^t}|, |h^{m/p^k}|) = 1$$

i.e., The orders of the elements

$g^{p^t}$  &  $h^{m/p^k}$  are coprime.

Since  $G$  is an abelian group, and

$g^{p^t}, h^{m/p^k} \in G$  we have

$$|g^{p^t} h^{m/p^k}| = |g^{p^t}| |h^{m/p^k}|$$

$$= \frac{n}{p^t} \cdot p^k = n p^{k-t} > n$$

$$\text{since } k > t \Rightarrow k-t > 0$$

This contradicts the maximality of  $n$  as an order in  $G$ .