

Misc

- To prove uniqueness, suppose not unique and try to show equality.
- To prove equality of two sets, show that each is a subset of the other.
- To show multiple, use Euclidean algorithm, then show  $r = 0$ .

Basic Set Theory

A set is a collection of objects called elements.

Examples of sets

- $\mathbb{N}$  is the set of positive integers.
- $\mathbb{Z}^\times$  is the set of integers excluding 0.
- $\mathbb{Q}^\times$  is the set of rational numbers excluding 0.

Set operations

Let  $A, B$  be sets.

1. If  $B$  is a subset of  $A$ , write  $B \subseteq A$ .
2.  $A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$ .
3.  $A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$ .
4.  $A \setminus B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}$ .
5.  $A \times B = \{(a, b) : a \in A \text{ and } b \in B\}$ .

Functions

Let  $A, B$  be sets, and let  $f : A \rightarrow B$  be a function.

- For  $a \in A$ , denote  $f(a) = b \in B$ .
- The set  $A$  is called the domain, and the set  $B$  is called the co-domain.
- The range/image of  $f$  is

$$\{b \in B : b = f(a) \text{ for some } a \in A\}$$

- Let  $B' \subseteq B$ . Define

$$f^{-1}(B') = \{a \in A : f(a) \in B'\}$$

- If  $g : C \rightarrow D$  is another function, then we say  $f = g \iff A = C, B = D$  and  $f(a) = g(a) \forall a \in A$
- If  $S \subseteq A$ , then  $f|_S$  denotes the same function except that the domain  $A$  is replaced by  $S$ . This function  $f|_S$  is called the restriction of  $f$  to  $S$ .
- If  $h : B \rightarrow C$ , then the composite of  $h$  and  $f$  is a function  $h \circ f : A \rightarrow C$  given by

$$(h \circ f)(a) = h(f(a)) \quad \forall a \in A$$

Notable examples

- The identity function on  $A$  is  $f : A \rightarrow A$  defined by

$$f(x) = x \quad \forall x \in A$$

We also denote the identity function on  $A$  by  $\text{id}_A$ .

- The inclusion function on  $Y$  for some  $Y \subset X$  is the function  $h : Y \rightarrow X$  defined by  $h(y) = y \forall y \in Y$ .

Injection/Surjection/Bijection

Let  $f : A \rightarrow B$  be a function.

1.  $f$  is an injection if  $f(a) = f(a') \implies a = a'$ .
2.  $f$  is a surjection if  $\forall b \in B, \exists a \in A$  such that  $f(a) = b$ .
3.  $f$  is a bijection if it is both an injection and a surjection.
4. If  $f$  is a bijection, we can define the inverse function  $f^{-1} : B \rightarrow A$  in the following way:  
For every  $b \in B$ , we have a unique  $a \in A$  such that  $f(a) = b$ . Then  $f^{-1}(b) = a$ .
5. A function is a bijection  $\iff$  its inverse function exists.

Integers

Divisibility

Given  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  where  $a \neq 0$ .

- We say  $a$  divides  $b$  if  $b = ma$  for some  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ . The integer  $b$  is called a multiple of  $a$ , and we write  $a|b$ .
- An integer  $n$  is called a unit if it divides 1. Hence  $n = 1$  or  $-1$ .
- Transitivity holds, i.e.  $a|b$  and  $b|c \implies a|c$

Prime

A nonzero  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$  is called a prime integer if:

1.  $p$  is not a unit (i.e  $p \neq \pm 1$ ), and
2. if  $p$  divides  $ab$  for some  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then  $p|a$  or  $p|b$ .

A positive prime integer is called a prime number.

Irreducible

A nonzero  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$  is called a irreducible integer if:

1.  $p$  is not a unit (i.e  $p \neq \pm 1$ ), and
2. if  $p$  divides  $xy$  for some  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then either  $x$  or  $y$  is a unit, i.e.  $x$  or  $y$  is  $\pm 1$ .

Prime vs irreducible

Let  $p$  be an integer. It is an irreducible integer  $\iff$  it is a prime integer.

The Euclidean algorithm

Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $y \neq 0$ . Then there exist unique integers  $q$  and  $r$  such that

$$x = qy + r \text{ and } 0 \leq r < |y|$$

This is also known as the division algorithm.

Common divisor

Given two integers  $x$  and  $y$  where  $y \neq 0$ .

- A nonzero integer  $m$  is called a common divisor if  $m|x$  and  $m|y$ .
- 1 is always a common divisor.
- If  $m$  is a common divisor,  $-m$  is also a common divisor.
- Every common divisor lies bewtween  $-|y|$  and  $|y|$ .
- There are only finitely many common divisors.

Greatest common divisor

There is a largest number  $d$  among the common divisors of  $x$  and  $y$ , which we call the GCD of  $x$  and  $y$ . Denote it by  $d = \gcd(x, y)$ .

- Since 1 is always a common factor,  $d \geq 1$
- $\gcd(0, y) = |y|$
- $\gcd(x, y) = \gcd(y, x) = \gcd(x, |y|) = \gcd(|x|, y) = \gcd(|x|, |y|)$
- $\gcd(cx, cy) = |c| \gcd(x, y)$
- $\gcd(x, y) = \gcd(x + y, y) = \gcd(x - y, y)$

Connection with Euclidean algorithm

Let  $x, y$  be integers where  $y \neq 0$ .

Let  $x = qy + r$  where  $0 \leq r < |y|$ . Then

$$\gcd(x, y) = \gcd(y, r)$$

Computing GCD

Given  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

- If  $x_2 = 0$ , then  $\gcd(x_1, x_2) = |x_1|$ .
- Else,  $x_2 \neq 0$ .

Assume  $x_2 \neq 0$ . Since  $\gcd(x_1, x_2) = \gcd(x_1, |x_2|)$ , suppose  $x_2 > 0$ . By the division algorithm,

$$x_1 = qx_2 + x_3 \quad \text{for some } 0 \leq x_3 < x_2$$

By the lemma above,

$$\gcd(x_1, x_2) = \gcd(x_2, x_3)$$

Doing this repeatedly, we get

$$\gcd(x_1, x_2) = \gcd(x_2, x_3) = \cdots = \gcd(x_m, 0) = x_m$$

where  $|x_2| > x_3 > x_4 > \cdots \geq 0$ .

Example

$$\begin{aligned} \gcd(6804, -930) &= \gcd(6804, 930). \\ 6804 &= 7(930) + 294 \\ 930 &= 3(294) + 48 \\ 294 &= 6(48) + 6 \\ 48 &= 8(6) + 0 \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \gcd(6804, -930) &= \gcd(6804, 930) = \gcd(930, 294) \\ &= \gcd(294, 48) = \gcd(48, 6) = \gcd(6, 0) = 6 \end{aligned}$$

Then, by reverse engineering,

$$\begin{aligned} 6 &= 294 - 6(48) \\ &= 294 - 6(930 - 3(294)) \\ &= -6(930) + (19)(294) \\ &= -6(930) + (19)(6804 - 7(930)) \\ &= 19(6804) - 139(930) \\ &= (19)(6804) + 139(-930) \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $6 = a(6804) + b(-930)$  for some  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Proposition

Let  $d = \gcd(x, y)$  where  $y \neq 0$ . Then

1. We have  $d = ax + by$  for some  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$
2. Let  $I = \{mx + ny \in \mathbb{Z} : m, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ . Then  $I = d\mathbb{Z}$  is the set of all the multiples of  $d$ .
3. If an integer  $c$  divides both  $x$  and  $y$ , then  $c$  divides  $d$ .

GCD of 3 or more integers

Let  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$ , and not all are 0. We say  $c$  is a common divisor of  $x, y, z$  if  $c$  divides  $x, y, z$ . The GCD of  $x, y, z$  is denoted by  $d = \gcd(x, y, z)$ .

1. If  $c$  divides  $x, y, z$  then  $c$  divides  $\gcd(x, y)$  and  $z$ .
2.  $\gcd(x, y, z) = \gcd(\gcd(x, y), z)$
3.  $d = mx + ny + pz$  for some  $m, n, p \in \mathbb{Z}$
4.  $I = \{mx + ny + pz : m, n, p \in \mathbb{Z}\} = d\mathbb{Z}$

**Tut 1 Q2 (GCD given prime factorization)**

Suppose

$$x = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_s^{e_s}, y = p_1^{f_1} p_2^{f_2} \cdots p_s^{f_s}, d = p_1^{g_1} p_2^{g_2} \cdots p_s^{g_s}$$

are prime factorizations of  $x$  and  $y$ , with  $p_i$  being distinct positive prime integers, and  $e_i, f_i \geq 0$ . Then

- The integer  $d$  divides  $x \iff g_i \leq e_i$  for all  $i$ .
- If  $d|x$  and  $d|y$ , then  $g_i \leq \min\{e_i, f_i\}$  for all  $i$ .
- GCD is

$$gcd(x, y) = p_1^{\min\{e_1, f_1\}} p_2^{\min\{e_2, f_2\}} \cdots p_s^{\min\{e_s, f_s\}}$$

- If  $d|x$  and  $d|y$ , then  $d|gcd(x, y)$

**The fundamental theorem of arithmetic**

Let  $n > 1$  be a positive integer. Then there exists a factorization

$$n = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_s$$

where  $p_i$  is a (positive) prime number for all  $i$ , and  $p_1 \leq p_2 \leq \cdots \leq p_s$ . This factorization is unique.

**Mathematical induction**

**Mathematical induction**

Let  $P(1)$  be a property that depends on  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . If

1.  $P(1)$  holds and
2. if  $P(k)$  holds, then  $P(k + 1)$  holds

then  $P(n)$  holds  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Strong MI**

Let  $P(1)$  be a property that depends on  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . If

1.  $P(1)$  holds and
2. if  $P(i)$  holds for  $1 \leq i \leq k$ , then  $P(k + 1)$  holds

then  $P(n)$  holds  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Binomial theorem**

$$(a + b)^n = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} a^{n-i} b^i \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

**Fermat’s little theorem**

Let  $p$  be a prime number. Then

$$p|(n^p - n) \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

i.e.

$$n^p \equiv n \pmod{p}$$

**Equivalence relations**

**Relation**

Let  $A$  be a set. A subset  $R$  of  $A \times A$  is a relation on  $A$ . For  $a, b \in A$ ,  $a \sim b \iff (a, b) \in R$ . We may write it as  $a \sim_R b$ .

**Equivalence relation**

Let  $A$  be a set. A relation  $R$  on  $A$  (i.e.  $R \subseteq A \times A$ ) is an equivalence relation on  $A$  if for all  $a, b, c$ ,

- (E1)  $a \sim a$  (reflexive)
- (E2)  $a \sim b \implies b \sim a$  (symmetric)
- (E3)  $a \sim b \wedge b \sim c \implies a \sim c$  (transitive)

**Equivalence class**

Let  $R$  be an equivalence relation on a set  $A$ . Let  $a \in A$ . The equivalence class of  $a \in A$  is the subset

$$\{x \in A : a \sim x\}$$

and we denote it by  $Cl(a)$ .

**Partition**

Let  $A$  be a set and let  $\{A_i : i \in I, A_i \subseteq A\}$  be a collection of subsets of  $A$ . We say that the collection  $\{A_i : i \in I\}$  forms a partition of  $A$  if

- (P1)  $A = \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$ , and
- (P2)  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  for all  $i, j \in I$  and  $i \neq j$

Alternatively, P2 can be stated as: If  $A_i \cap A_j$  is a nonempty subset, then  $A_i = A_j$ .

**Collection of all equivalence classes**

Let  $R$  be an equivalence relation on a set  $A$ . The set of equivalence classes  $\{Cl(a) : a \in A\}$  is denoted by  $A/R$ ,  $A/\sim_R$ , or simply  $A/\sim$ .

- The collection of all equivalence classes forms a partition of  $A$ .
- The map  $p : A \rightarrow A/R$  given by  $p(a) = Cl(a)$  is called the quotient map.

**Linear Congruences**

**Congruent modulo  $m$**

Let  $m$  be a positive integer. Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  if  $m|(a - b)$ .

**Simultaneous congruence equations**

**Solution to congruence equation**

Suppose  $gcd(a, m) = 1$ . For  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , the congruence equation

$$ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$$

has a solution  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ , that is unique modulo  $m$ , i.e.  $x' \in \mathbb{Z}$  is another solution iff

$$x \equiv x' \pmod{m}$$

**Chinese Remainder Theorem**

Suppose  $gcd(m, m') = 1$ . Then the congruence equations

$$x \equiv b \pmod{m}$$

$$x \equiv b' \pmod{m'}$$

have a common solution  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ , that is unique modulo  $mm'$ , i.e. if  $x' \in \mathbb{Z}$  is another solution, then

$$x \equiv x' \pmod{mm'}$$

**Solving simultaneous congruence equations**

Solve the simultaneous congruence equations

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{13}$$

$$x \equiv 5 \pmod{11}$$

By the division algorithm, we have  $13 = 11 + 2$  and  $11 = 5(2) + 1$ . Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} gcd(13, 11) &= 1 = 11 - 5(2) \\ &= 11 - 5(13 - 11) = -5(13) + 6(11) \end{aligned}$$

This implies

$$6(11) \equiv 1 \pmod{13}$$

$$-5(13) \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$$

Consider  $x = 5(-5)(13) + 3(6)(11) = -127$ . We can show that this is a solution, and then by the Chinese Remainder Theorem, all solutions are of the form  $x = -127 + k(13)(11)$ .

Binary operations

Definition

Let  $G$  be a set. A binary op  $*$  on  $G$  is a function

$$*: G \times G \rightarrow G$$

- For  $(x,y) \in G$ , we denote  $*(x,y)$  by  $x*y$ .
- Associative if  $\forall a,b,c \in G, (a*b)*c = a*(b*c)$ .
- Commutative/abelian if  $\forall a,b \in G, a*b = b*a$ .

Multiplication table

Let  $G = \{a,b,c\}$ . We can represent a binary operation  $*$  with a multiplication table:

$x*y$	$y=a$	$b$	$c$
$x=a$	$a$	$a$	$b$
$b$	$a$	$c$	$c$
$c$	$b$	$a$	$c$

For  $*$  to be abelian, the multiplication table should be symmetric along the diagonal.

Identity

Let  $(G,*)$  be a set with a binary op. Let  $e \in G$ .

- $e$  is a left identity element if  $\forall a \in G, e*a = a$ .
- $e$  is a right identity element if  $\forall a \in G, a*e = a$ .
- $e$  is an identity element if  $\forall a \in G, e*a = a*e = a$ .

Groups

Group axioms

A group  $(G,*)$  consists of a set  $G$  and a binary operation  $*$  on  $G$  which satisfies four axioms:

- (G1) (Closure) For all  $a,b \in G, a*b \in G$ .
- (G2) (Associativity) For all  $a,b,c \in G,$ 

$$(a*b)*c = a*(b*c)$$
- (G3) (Existence of identity element)  $\exists e \in G$  such that for all  $a \in G,$ 

$$e*a = a*e = a$$

Note that the identity element is unique.
- (G4) (Existence of inverse element) For each  $a \in G, \exists b \in G$  such that

$$a*b = b*a = e$$

where  $e$  is the identity element in (G3). Note that the inverse of an element is unique.

Order

The number of elements in  $G$  is called the order of  $G$ . We denote it by  $|G|$ . If  $|G|$  is finite, then we call  $G$  a finite group. Otherwise it is an infinite group.

Abelian group

A group  $(G,*)$  is called an abelian group if  $a*b = b*a$  for all  $a,b \in G$ .

Some theorems

Let  $(G,*)$  be a group. Let  $a,b,c \in G$ . Then

- $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$
- $(a*b)^{-1} = b^{-1}*a^{-1}$
- $a^{-1}*\dots*a^{-1} = (a*\dots*a)^{-1}$  where there are  $n$  copies of  $a^{-1}$  and  $a$  on both sides.
- (Cancellation Law) If  $a*c = b*c$ , then  $a = b$ . If  $c*a = c*b$ , then  $a = b$ .
- Given  $a,b \in G$ , the equation  $a*x = b$  (and respectively  $x*a = b$ ) has a unique solution  $x \in G$ .
- $a^n*a^m = a^{n+m}$  for  $n,m \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Weakened axioms

For (G3) and (G4), if we show either

- just right identity + right inverse,
- or just left identity + left inverse,

and if (G1) and (G2) are already proven, then we have a group.

Examples of groups

$n$ th roots of unity

Given a positive integer  $n$ . Let

$$\mu_n = \left\{e^{\frac{2k\pi i}{n}} : k = 0, \dots, n-1\right\}$$

Then  $(\mu_n, \times)$  forms a finite abelian group of order  $n$ , where  $\times$  is the usual complex number multiplication.

- Identity is 1.
- Inverse of  $e^{\frac{2k\pi i}{n}}$  is  $e^{\frac{2(n-k)\pi i}{n}}$ .

If we set  $a = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{n}}$ , then  $G$  could be written as

$$\mu_n = \{1 = a^n, a, a^2, \dots, a^{n-1}\}$$

and we call  $\mu_n$  a cyclic group of order  $n$ .

Integers modulo  $n$

Let  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} = \{0,1,2,\dots,n-1\}$ . The binary operation  $*$  is given by

$$x*y = \begin{cases} x+y & \text{if } x+y < n \\ x+y-n & \text{if } x+y \geq n \end{cases}$$

$(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})$  forms a group and is also a cyclic group of order  $n$ .

- Identity is 0.
- Inverse element is 0 for 0,  $n-x$  for positive  $x$ .

Set of bijections

Let  $Y$  be a set (could be **infinite**) and let

$$S_Y = \{f : Y \rightarrow Y : f \text{ is a bijection.}\}$$

The binary operation  $\circ$  is the composite of functions. Then  $(S_Y, \circ)$  is a group.

- Identity is the identity function on  $Y$ .
- Inverse of a function  $f$  is its inverse function.

Symmetric group on  $n$  letters

Consider  $S_Y$  where  $Y = \{1,2,\dots,n\}$ . Then  $S_Y$  is a finite group of order  $n!$ .

Product group

Let  $(G,*)$  and  $(H,\star)$  be two groups. Consider the Cartesian product  $G \times H = \{(g,h) : g \in G, h \in H\}$ . Define binary operation  $\cdot$  on  $G \times H$  by

$$(g,h) \cdot (g',h') = (g*g', h\star h')$$

for all  $(g,h),(g',h') \in G \times H$ . Then  $(G \times H, \cdot)$  forms a group, called the product group of  $(G,*)$  and  $(H,\star)$ .

- Identity element is  $(e_G, e_H)$  where  $e_G$  and  $e_H$  are the identity elements of  $G$  and  $H$  respectively.
- Inverse element of  $(g,h)$  is  $(g^{-1}, h^{-1})$ .

General linear group

Let  $G$  be the set of invertible  $n$  by  $n$  matrices with entries in a field  $F$ . The binary operation  $\times$  is the usual matrix multiplication. Then  $(G, \times)$  is a group called the general linear group of rank  $n$  and we denote  $G$  by  $\text{GL}(n,F)$ .

- Identity is the  $n$  by  $n$  identity matrix.
- Inverse of a matrix  $A$  is the usual inverse  $A^{-1}$ .

Special linear group

$\text{SL}(n,F)$  is defined in the same way as in “General linear group”, except we only have matrices with determinant 1.

Orthogonal group

$\text{O}(n)$  is defined in the same way as in “General linear group”, except we only have orthogonal matrices.

Group isomorphisms

Definition

Let  $(G,*)$  and  $(H,\star)$  be two groups. We say that these two groups are isomorphic if there exists a bijection  $\phi : G \rightarrow H$  such that

$$\phi(g_1*g_2) = \phi(g_1)\star\phi(g_2)$$

for all  $g_1,g_2 \in G$ .

- The bijection  $\phi$  is called a group isomorphism.
- We denote  $(G,*) \simeq (H,\star)$  and  $\phi : (G,*) \xrightarrow{\sim} (H,\star)$ .
- If  $(G,*)$  and  $(H,\star)$  are isomorphic finite groups, then they have the same order.
- If  $(G,*)$  is an abelian group, then  $(H,\star)$  is an abelian group.
- $\phi : G \rightarrow G$  given by  $\phi(g) = g^{-1}$  is a group isomorphism  $\iff G$  is an abelian group.

Two isomorphisms

Suppose  $\phi : (G,*) \rightarrow (H,\star)$  and  $\psi : (H,\star) \rightarrow (K,\cdot)$  are two isomorphisms of groups. Then

- the inverse function  $\phi^{-1} : (H,\star) \rightarrow (G,*)$  and
- the composite function  $\psi \circ \phi : (G,*) \rightarrow (K,\cdot)$

are group isomorphisms.

Group homomorphism

Let  $(G,*)$  and  $(H,\star)$  be two groups. A function  $\phi : G \rightarrow H$  is called a group homomorphism if

$$\phi(x*y) = \phi(x)\star\phi(y)$$

for all  $x,y \in G$ .

There is no requirement on  $\phi$  to be injective or surjective. But if  $\phi$  is a bijection, then we have a group isomorphism instead.

Subgroups

Definition

Let  $(G,*)$  be a group. Let  $H \subseteq G$  be a nonempty subset. Suppose  $(H,*)$  forms a group, i.e. it satisfies the four group axioms. Then  $(H,*)$  is called a subgroup of  $(G,*)$ . Note that the binary operation is the same for  $G$  and  $H$ .

Integer multiple

Suppose  $(I,+)$  is a subgroup of  $(\mathbb{Z},+)$ . Then  $I = d\mathbb{Z}$  for some non-negative integer  $d$ .

**Roots of unity**

$(\mu_m, \times)$  is a subgroup of  $(\mu_n, \times)$  if  $m|n$ .

Properties of subgroups

**Proposition 30**

Let  $(G, *)$  be a group and let  $H \subseteq G$  be a nonempty subset. Then  $(H, *)$  is a subgroup iff:

- (S1) For all  $a, b \in H$ , we have  $a * b \in H$ .
- (S2) For all  $a \in H$ , we have  $a^{-1} \in H$ .

**Proposition 31**

Let  $(G, *)$  be a group and let  $H \subseteq G$  be a nonempty subset. Then  $(H, *)$  is a subgroup iff:

- (S) For all  $a, b \in H$ , we have  $a * b^{-1} \in H$ .

**Cyclic group**

Let  $(G, *)$  be a group and let  $x \in G$ . We call  $H = \{x^n \in G : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  the cyclic subgroup of  $G$  generated by  $x$ , and we denote  $H$  by  $\langle x \rangle$ .

A group  $(G, *)$  is called a cyclic group if  $G = \langle x \rangle$  for some  $x \in G$ , i.e.

$$G = \langle x \rangle = \{x^n \in G : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

**Proposition 32**

Let  $(G, *)$  be a group and let  $H \subseteq G$  be a nonempty finite subset. Then  $(H, *)$  is a subgroup iff

- (S1) For all  $a, b \in H$ , we have  $a * b \in H$ .

**Intersection of subgroups**

If  $\{(H_i, *) : i \in I\}$  is a collection of subgroups of  $(G, *)$ , then

$$\left(\bigcap_{i \in I} H_i, *\right)$$

is a non-empty subgroup of  $(G, *)$ .

**Proposition 34**

Let  $(H, *)$  and  $(K, *)$  be subgroups of  $(G, *)$ . If  $(H \cup K, *)$  is a subgroup, then either  $H \subseteq K$  or  $K \subseteq H$ .