David F. Anderson • Jodi Fasteen • John D. LaGrange

## The subgroup graph of a group

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#### Abstract

Given any subgroup $H$ of a group $G$, let $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ be the directed graph with vertex set $G$ such that $x$ is the initial vertex and $y$ is the terminal vertex of an edge if and only if $x \neq y$ and $x y \in H$. Furthermore, if $x y \in H$ and $y x \in H$ for some $x, y \in G$ with $x \neq y$, then $x$ and $y$ will be regarded as being connected by a single undirected edge. In this paper, the structure of the connected components of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ is investigated. All possible components are provided in the cases when $|H|$ is either two or three, and the graph $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ is completely classified in the case when $H$ is a normal subgroup of $G$ and $G / H$ is a finite abelian group.


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## 1 Introduction

Given any subgroup $H$ of a group $G$, let $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ be the directed graph with vertex set $G$ such that $x$ is the initial vertex and $y$ is the terminal vertex of an edge if and only if $x \neq y$ and $x y \in H$. Furthermore, if $x y \in H$ and $y x \in H$ for some $x, y \in G$ with $x \neq y$, then $x$ and $y$ will be regarded as being connected by a single undirected edge. Thus, $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ has no loops or multiple edges. In fact, Theorem 2.9 shows that it is superfluous to allow loops in the definition of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$.

Recently, there has been considerable attention to associating graphs with algebraic structures. Much of this has been motivated by the zero-divisor graph $\Gamma(R)$ of a commutative ring $R$ as introduced in [3]. Here, $\Gamma(R)$ is the (undirected) graph with vertices $Z(R) \backslash\{0\}$, the nonzero zero-divisors of $R$, and two distinct vertices $x$ and $y$ are adjacent if and only if $x y=0$. For more about $\Gamma(R)$ and related graphs, see the recent survey article [1].

As motivation, let $G=R$ be a commutative ring with nonzero identity (viewed as a group under addition) and assume that $H=Z(R)$, its set of zero-divisors, is closed under addition. Recall that $Z(R)$ is always closed under multiplication, and thus $Z(R)$ is an ideal (in fact, a prime ideal) of $R$ if and only if it is closed under addition. This would be the case, for example, when $R$ is a finite local ring with maximal ideal $M$, and then $M=Z(R)=\operatorname{nil}(R)$. This graph, called the total graph of $R$ and denoted by $T(\Gamma(R))$, was introduced in [2]. Specifically, $T(\Gamma(R))$ has vertices of all elements of $R$, and two distinct vertices are adjacent if and only if $x+y \in Z(R)$. Thus, $\Gamma_{Z(R)}(R)=T(\Gamma(R))$ when $Z(R)$ is an ideal of $R$. Several results in [2] may be recovered from this paper; for example, [2, Theorem 2.2] follows from Theorem 6.2.

A graph $\Gamma$ is called strongly connected if, for any two distinct vertices $v$ and $w$ of $\Gamma$, there exists a set $\left\{u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right\}$ of vertices of $\Gamma$ with $u_{1}=v$ and $u_{n}=w$ such that $u_{i}$ is the initial vertex and $u_{i+1}$ is the terminal vertex of an edge in $\Gamma$ for each $i \in\{1, \ldots, n-1\}$. Note that any graph has an undirected underlying graph that is obtained by regarding every vertex as both an initial vertex and a terminal vertex of each of its incident edges. A graph is called connected if its undirected underlying graph is strongly connected. At the outset, a component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ is defined as any subgraph of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ that is maximal with respect to being connected. However, Theorem 2.3 shows that every component in a subgroup graph is strongly connected. A component will be called undirected if every edge in the component is undirected.

Note that we may have $\Gamma_{H}(G) \cong \Gamma_{H^{\prime}}\left(G^{\prime}\right)$, but $G \not \approx G^{\prime}$. As a specific example, let $G=\mathbb{Z}_{2} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{3} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{3}$ and $G^{\prime}=\mathbb{Z}_{2} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{9}$ with $H=H^{\prime}=\{0\}$. Then $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ and $\Gamma_{H^{\prime}}\left(G^{\prime}\right)$ each consists of two complete graphs $K^{1}$ and eight complete bipartite graphs $K^{1,1}$. A less trivial example is provided in Example 6.1. Also, it can happen that $\Gamma_{H}(G) \cong \Gamma_{H^{\prime}}(G)$, but $H \not \not H^{\prime}$. For example, let $G=\mathbb{Z}_{4} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ with $H=\{0,2\} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ and $H^{\prime}=\mathbb{Z}_{4} \oplus\{0\}$. Then $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ and $\Gamma_{H^{\prime}}(G)$ each consists of two complete graphs $K^{4}$, but $H \not \equiv H^{\prime}$.

In Sect. 2, the components of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ are determined, and structural properties are revealed. These results are applied in Sect. 3 to provide sufficient conditions for $H$ to be normal in $G$. In Sects. 4 and 5, we take a first step in completely classifying $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ by giving every possible component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ in the cases when $|H|=2$ and $|H|=3$. The results in Sect. 6 completely classify $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ in the case when $H$ is a normal subgroup of $G$ and $G / H$ is a finite abelian group.

Throughout, the notation $x \rightarrow y$ will be used to indicate that there is an (possibly undirected) edge between $x$ and $y$, and that $x y \in H$. If $S \subseteq G$, then $\Gamma_{H}(S)$ will denote the subgraph of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ that is induced by $S$. As usual, $\mathbb{Z}^{+}, \mathbb{Z}_{n}, S_{n}, A_{n}, K^{n}$, and $K^{m, n}$ will denote the positive integers, the group of integers modulo $n$, the symmetric group of degree $n$, the alternating group of degree $n$, the complete graph on $n$ vertices, and the complete bipartite graph with bipartitions of orders $m$ and $n$, respectively. Moreover, $N(H)=\left\{g \in G \mid g H g^{-1}=H\right\}$ will denote the normalizer of $H$ in $G$. For any undefined terminology or notation, see [5] or [6] for group theory and [4] for graph theory.

## 2 The components of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$

In this section, we determine the connected components of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$. Moreover, it is shown that the normalizer of $H$ in $G$ is revealed by $\Gamma_{H}(G)$, and so are the elements $g \in G$ such that $g^{2} \in H$. Formulas for computing the degree of any vertex and the order of any component are also established.

Let $K$ be a subgroup of a group $G$. The following theorem shows that, for a subgroup $H$ of $K$, any component of $\Gamma_{H}(K)$ is also a component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$.

Theorem 2.1 Let $H$ and $K$ be subgroups of a group $G$ with $H \subseteq K$. Then $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ is the disjoint union of the induced subgraphs $\Gamma_{H}(K)$ and $\Gamma_{H}(G \backslash K)$ of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$.

Proof Let $k \in K$ and $g \in G$. If $g \rightarrow k$, then $g \in H k^{-1} \subseteq K$. Similarly, if $k \rightarrow g$, then $g \in k^{-1} H \subseteq K$. The theorem now follows since $G=K \cup(G \backslash K)$ and $K \cap(G \backslash K)=\emptyset$, and the above argument implies that there are no edges in $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ between any elements of $K$ and $G \backslash K$.

By Theorem 2.1 together with Cayley's theorem, any subgroup graph is isomorphic to a union of components of a subgroup graph of a symmetric group. In particular, components of subgroup graphs of symmetric groups can serve as models for components of all subgroup graphs. This is stated more formally in the following corollary.

Corollary 2.2 Let $H$ be a subgroup of a group $G$. Then there exists a subgroup $H^{\prime}$ of $S_{|G|}$ such that $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ is isomorphic to a union of components of $\Gamma_{H^{\prime}}\left(S_{|G|}\right)$.

The next theorem determines the components of subgroup graphs and verifies that all components of subgroup graphs are strongly connected.

Theorem 2.3 Let $H$ be a subgroup of a group $G$ and $g \in G$. Then the connected component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ containing $g$ is $\Gamma_{H}\left(H g H \cup H g^{-1} H\right)$. Furthermore, the (directed) distance from any element of $\mathrm{Hg} H \cup H g^{-1} H$ to $g$ is at most three, and the (directed) distance from $g$ to any element of $H g H \cup \mathrm{Hg}^{-1} \mathrm{H}$ is also at most three.

Proof Let $a \in H g H \cup H g^{-1} H$. If $a=h_{1} g h_{2}$ for some $h_{1}, h_{2} \in H$, then $\left\{a\left(h_{2}^{-1} g^{-1}\right),\left(h_{2}^{-1} g^{-1}\right) g\right\} \subseteq H$. If $a=h_{1} g^{-1} h_{2}$ for some $h_{1}, h_{2} \in H$, then $\left\{a\left(h_{2}^{-1} g\right),\left(h_{2}^{-1} g\right) g^{-1}, g^{-1} g\right\} \subseteq H$. Hence, the directed distance from any element of $\mathrm{HgH} \cup \mathrm{Hg}^{-1} H$ to $g$ is at most three. Similarly, the directed distance from $g$ to any element of $H g H \cup H g^{-1} H$ is at most three.

To show that $\Gamma_{H}\left(H g H \cup H g^{-1} H\right)$ is a component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$, it remains to verify that if an edge connects a vertex $a$ with any element of $H g H \cup H g^{-1} H$, then $a \in H g H \cup H g^{-1} H$. Let $b \in H g H \cup H g^{-1} H$. Suppose that $b=h g h^{\prime}$ for some $h, h^{\prime} \in H$. If $a \in G$ with $a b=h^{\prime \prime} \in H$, then $a=h^{\prime \prime} h^{\prime-1} g^{-1} h^{-1} \in H g^{-1} H$. The case when $b a \in H$ is similar, and so are the cases when $b \in H g^{-1} H$.

Remark 2.4 Theorem 2.3 implies that any two distinct vertices belonging to the same component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ can be connected by a directed path having either one, two, or three edges. The vertices $(1,2,3)$ and $(1,4,3)$ of $\Gamma_{\{t,(1,3)(2,4)\}}\left(S_{4}\right)$ show that, in general, the minimum distance of three does not decrease when the "directed" hypothesis is dropped (see Fig. 1 in Example 2.16) and that all three cases of either one, two, or three edges are possible.

The next result shows that the normalizer of $H$ in $G$ is revealed by $\Gamma_{H}(G)$. Specifically, $N(H)$ is the union of all the undirected components of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$. Note that $g H=g^{-1} H$ if and only if $g^{2} \in H$. Moreover, if $g \in N(H)$, then $H g H=g H=H g$ and $H g^{-1} H=g^{-1} H=H g^{-1}$.

Theorem 2.5 Let $H$ be a subgroup of a group $G$ and $g \in G$. Then $g \in N(H)$ if and only if the component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ containing $g$ is undirected. In particular, $H$ is normal in $G$ if and only if $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ is undirected.

Proof Suppose that $g \in N(H)$ and $a \rightarrow b$ for some vertices $a$ and $b$ contained in the same component as $g$. Note that $a \in H g H \cup H g^{-1} H$ by Theorem 2.3. In particular, $a \in N(H)$ since $g \in N(H)$ and $H \subseteq N(H)$. Then $b a=a^{-1}(a b) a \in H$ since $a b \in H$ and $H$ is a normal subgroup of $N(H)$; thus $b \rightarrow a$. Therefore, the component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ containing $g$ is undirected.

Conversely, suppose that the component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ containing $g$ is undirected. Let $h \in H$. Then $\left(h g^{-1}\right) g=$ $h \in H$. Clearly $g h g^{-1} \in H$ if $g=h g^{-1}$. If $g \neq h g^{-1}$, then $h g^{-1} \rightarrow g$. Thus, $g \rightarrow h g^{-1}$ since the component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ containing $g$ is undirected. Hence $g h g^{-1} \in H$, and thus $g \in N(H)$.

The "in particular" statement is clear.
Remark 2.6 The structure of $\Gamma_{H}(N(H))$ is easy to describe. In particular, the structure of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ is easy to describe when $H$ is a normal subgroup of $G$. First, observe that for any $a, b, x, y \in N(H)$ with $a \in x H$ and $b \in y H$, the three relations $a \rightarrow b, x \rightarrow y$, and $y H=x^{-1} H$ are equivalent. Therefore, if $x^{2} \in H$, then $\Gamma_{H}(x H)=\Gamma_{H}\left(x^{-1} H\right)$ is a component of $\Gamma_{H}(N(H))$ (and it is a component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ by Theorem 2.1) that is isomorphic to the complete graph $K^{|H|}$. If $x^{2} \notin H$, then $x H$ and $x^{-1} H$ are disjoint, and hence $\Gamma_{H}\left(x H \cup x^{-1} H\right)$ is a component of $\Gamma_{H}(N(H))$ which is isomorphic to the complete bipartite graph $K^{|H|,|H|}$.

Let $K=\left\{x \in N(H) \mid x^{2} \in H\right\}$; note that $K$ need not be a subgroup of $G$ (e.g., $G=S_{3}$ and $H=\{e\}$ ). Then $\Gamma_{H}(N(H))$ is completely determined by $|K|$ and $|H|$. If $N(H) / H$ is finite, then the number of complete
graph components is $\alpha(N(H), H)=|\{x H \mid x \in K\}|$ and the number of complete bipartite components is $\beta(N(H), H)=|\{x H \mid x \in N(H) \backslash K\}| / 2$. Note that, by Cauchy's theorem, $\alpha(N(H), H)=1$ if and only if $|N(H) / H|$ is odd; otherwise, $\alpha(N(H), H)$ is even (cf. Theorem 6.2).

The two extremes for $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ are when $H=\{e\}$ or $H=G$. By the above comments, $\Gamma_{G}(G)$ is the complete graph on $|G|$ vertices and $\Gamma_{\{e\}}(G)$ consists of $|K|$ complete graphs $K^{1}$ and $|G \backslash K| / 2$ complete bipartite graphs $K^{1,1}$. Note that for any normal subgroup $H$ of $G$, the graphs $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ and $\Gamma_{\{\bar{e}\}}(G / H)$ are easily obtained from one another. In fact, each component consisting of a single vertex $x H$ in $\Gamma_{\{\bar{e}\}}(G / H)$ corresponds to a complete graph component in $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ on the elements of $x H$, and each component consisting of two vertices $x H$ and $y H$ in $\Gamma_{\{\bar{e}\}}(G / H)$ corresponds to a complete bipartite graph component in $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ with bipartitions given by $x H$ and $y H$.

For the convenience of the reader, the results of Remark 2.6 are summarized in the following theorem.
Theorem 2.7 Let $H$ be subgroup of a group $G$, and set $K=\left\{x \in N(H) \mid x^{2} \in H\right\}$. If $x \in N(H)$, then the component of $\Gamma_{H}(N(H))$ containing $x$ is either a complete graph with vertex-set $x H$ or is a complete bipartite graph with vertex-set $x H \cup x^{-1} H$. In particular, every component of $\Gamma_{H}(N(H))$ is isomorphic to either $K^{|H|}$ or $K^{|H|,|H|}$. Furthermore, if $N(H) / H$ is finite, then the number of complete graph components of $\Gamma_{H}(N(H))$ is given by $\alpha(N(H), H)=|\{x H \mid x \in K\}|$ and the number of complete bipartite components of $\Gamma_{H}(N(H))$ is $\beta(N(H), H)=|\{x H \mid x \in N(H) \backslash K\}| / 2$.

The girth of a graph $\Gamma$ is the maximum integer $n$ such that $\Gamma$ contains no directed cycle having less than $n$ edges (if $\Gamma$ has no directed cycles, then its girth is defined as $\infty$ ). While Theorem 2.3 provides information regarding distance in subgroup graphs, the next result shows that the girth is small in components of subgroup graphs that contain cycles. In particular, the proof implies that every vertex of a component that contains a cycle is a vertex of some cycle that has either three or four edges.
Theorem 2.8 Let $H$ be a subgroup of a group $G$. Then any component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ is either isomorphic to $K^{1}$ or $K^{2}$, or it contains a cycle of length three or four. In particular, if $g \notin N(H)$, then the component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ containing g has a cycle.
Proof Let $g \in G$ be a vertex of a component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$. If $g \in N(H)$, then Theorem 2.7 shows that the component containing $g$ is either a complete graph or a complete bipartite graph. Hence, the component containing $g$ is either isomorphic to $K^{1}$ or $K^{2}$, or it has a cycle of length three or four.

Suppose that $g \notin N(H)$. Then there exists an $h \in H$ such that $g h \neq h g$. In particular, $g \neq h^{-1} g h$.
Case 1 Suppose that $g^{2} \in H$. If $g h \neq h^{-1} g$, then the elements $g, g h, h^{-1} g h$, and $h^{-1} g$ are distinct. Thus $g \rightarrow g h \rightarrow h^{-1} g h \rightarrow h^{-1} g \rightarrow g$, showing that the component containing $g$ has a cycle of length four. If $g h=h^{-1} g$, then $g \rightarrow g h \rightarrow h^{-1} g h \rightarrow g$ shows that the component containing $g$ has a cycle of length three.

Case 2 Suppose that $g^{2} \notin H$. If $g h^{-1} \neq h g^{-1}$, then the elements $g, g^{-1}, g h^{-1}$, and $h g^{-1}$ are distinct. Thus $g \rightarrow g^{-1} \rightarrow g h^{-1} \rightarrow h g^{-1} \rightarrow g$, showing that the component containing $g$ has a cycle of length four. If $g h^{-1}=h g^{-1}$, then $g \rightarrow g^{-1} \rightarrow g h^{-1} \rightarrow g$ shows that the component containing $g$ has a cycle of length three.

The "in particular" statement follows immediately.
Let $H$ be a subgroup of a finite group $G$ and $g \in G$. Define $N_{g}=\{v \in G \mid v \rightarrow g$ and $g \rightarrow v\}$. That is, $N_{g}$ is the set of vertices of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ that are adjacent to $g$ via an undirected edge. Also, recall that the degree of a vertex $g$, denoted by $\operatorname{deg}(g)$, is the cardinality of the set $\{v \in G \mid$ either $v \rightarrow g$ or $g \rightarrow v\}$.

The following result shows that the set $K=\left\{g \in G \mid g^{2} \in H\right\}$ is revealed by $\Gamma_{H}(G)$. In particular, it is redundant to allow loops in the definition of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$.
Theorem 2.9 Let $G$ be a finite group and $g \in G$. Then

$$
\operatorname{deg}(g)= \begin{cases}2|H|-\left|N_{g}\right|, & \text { if } g^{2} \notin H \\ 2|H|-\left|N_{g}\right|-2, & \text { if } g^{2} \in H\end{cases}
$$

Proof Let $A=\{a \in G \mid g a \in H$ or $a g \in H\}$. Then $|A|=\left|g^{-1} H \cup H g^{-1}\right|=\left|g^{-1} H\right|+\left|H g^{-1}\right|-\mid g^{-1} H \cap$ $H g^{-1}|=2| H\left|-\left|g^{-1} H \cap H g^{-1}\right|\right.$. Also,

$$
\left|N_{g}\right|=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
\left|g^{-1} H \cap H g^{-1}\right|, & \text { if } g^{2} \notin H \\
\left|g^{-1} H \cap H g^{-1}\right|-1, & \text { if } g^{2} \in H
\end{array} .\right.
$$



Hence

$$
\operatorname{deg}(g)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
|A|, & \text { if } g^{2} \notin H \\
|A|-1, & \text { if } g^{2} \in H
\end{array}=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
2|H|-\left|N_{g}\right|, & \text { if } g^{2} \notin H \\
2|H|-\left(\left|N_{g}\right|+1\right)-1, & \text { if } g^{2} \in H
\end{array} .\right.\right.
$$

Remark 2.10 Given any vertex $g$ of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$, the out-degree of $g$, denoted by $\operatorname{deg}^{+}(g)$, is the cardinality of the set $\{v \in G \mid g \rightarrow v\}$. Notice that $\operatorname{deg}^{+}(g)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}\left|g^{-1} H\right|, & \text { if } g^{2} \notin H \\ \left|g^{-1} H\right|-1, & \text { if } g^{2} \in H\end{array}\right.$. One defines the in-degree of $g$ analogously, and it is clear that $\operatorname{deg}^{-}(g)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}\left|H g^{-1}\right|, & \text { if } g^{2} \notin H \\ \left|H g^{-1}\right|-1, & \text { if } g^{2} \in H\end{array}\right.$. In particular, it follows that

$$
\operatorname{deg}^{-}(g)=\operatorname{deg}^{+}(g)= \begin{cases}|H|, & \text { if } g^{2} \notin H \\ |H|-1, & \text { if } g^{2} \in H\end{cases}
$$

for any $g \in G$.
Let $g \in G$. Any subgroup $H$ of $G$ acts on the set of cosets $X=\{(h g) H \mid h \in H\}$ by $h^{\prime} *(h g H)=\left(h^{\prime} h g\right) H$. Given any $x \in X$, let $H_{x}=\{h \in H \mid h * x=x\}$.

It is straightforward to check that $H_{g H}=H \cap g H^{-1}$ for all $g \in G$. Moreover, it is well known that HgH and $\mathrm{Hg}^{-1} H$ both have cardinalities equal to $|H|^{2} /\left|H \cap\left(\mathrm{gHg}^{-1}\right)\right|$ (this follows from a more general result for double cosets [6, Theorem 1.7.1]). In particular, $|H g H|=\left|H g^{-1} H\right|=|H|^{2} /\left|H_{g H}\right|$. These observations together with Theorem 2.3 imply the validity of the next result. Note that the proof provided below is independent of the known facts about double cosets.

Theorem 2.11 Let $H$ be a subgroup of a finite group $G$ and $g \in G$. If $C$ is the vertex set of the component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ containing $g$, then

$$
|C|= \begin{cases}2|H|^{2} /\left|H_{g H}\right|, & \text { if } H g H \cap H g^{-1} H=\emptyset \\ |H|^{2} /\left|H_{g H}\right|, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Proof Given any $h \in H$, it is straightforward to check that the mapping $H_{g H} \rightarrow\left\{h^{\prime} \mid(h g) H=\left(h^{\prime} g\right) H\right\}$ defined by the rule $\alpha \mapsto h \alpha$ is a bijection. Thus,

$$
|H g H|=\left|\cup_{h \in H}(h g) H\right|=|H|^{2} /\left|H_{g H}\right| .
$$

Also, the mapping $H_{g H} \rightarrow H_{g^{-1} H}$ defined by the rule $\alpha \mapsto g^{-1} \alpha g$ is bijective, and it follows that $\left|\mathrm{Hg}^{-1} \mathrm{H}\right|=$ $|H|^{2} /\left|H_{g H}\right|$. Therefore, if $\mathrm{HgH} \cap \mathrm{Hg}^{-1} H=\emptyset$, then

$$
\left|H g H \cup H g^{-1} H\right|=2|H|^{2} /\left|H_{g H}\right|-\left|H g H \cap H g^{-1} H\right|=2|H|^{2} /\left|H_{g H}\right| .
$$

But it is easy to check that $H g H \cap H g^{-1} H \neq \emptyset$ if and only if $H g H=H g^{-1} H$ (cf. [6, Lemma 1.7.1]). Therefore,

$$
\left|H g H \cup H g^{-1} H\right|=2|H|^{2} /\left|H_{g H}\right|-|H g H|=|H|^{2} /\left|H_{g H}\right|
$$

if $\mathrm{HgH} \cap \mathrm{Hg}^{-1} \mathrm{H} \neq \emptyset$. The result now follows by Theorem 2.3.
Since $H_{g H}$ is a subgroup of $H$, the next corollary follows immediately from Theorem 2.11 and Lagrange's theorem

Corollary 2.12 Let $H$ be a subgroup of a finite group $G$. Then $|H|$ divides the order of any component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$.

Corollary 2.13 Let $H$ be a subgroup of a finite group $G$, and let $C$ be the set of vertices of a component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$. If $|H|=|C|$, then $\Gamma_{H}(C) \cong K^{|H|}$. In particular, if $|C|$ is prime and $|H|>1$, then $\Gamma_{H}(C) \cong K^{|H|}$. In this case, $C \subseteq N(H)$.

Proof If $|H|=|C|$, then Theorem 2.11 implies that the equality $H_{g H}=H$ holds for each $g \in C$. Hence $g \in N(H)$ for all $g \in C$, and thus $\Gamma_{H}(C) \cong K^{|H|}$ by Theorem 2.7. The "in particular" statement then follows from Corollary 2.12.
Remark 2.14 If $g \in N(H)$, then $H g H \cap H g^{-1} H=g H \cap g^{-1} H$, and it follows that $g^{2} \notin H$ if and only if $H g H \cap H g^{-1} H=\emptyset$. Furthermore,

$$
H_{g H}=\{h \in H \mid h g H=g H\}=\left\{h \in H \mid g^{-1} h g \in H\right\}=H .
$$

In this case, the result in Theorem 2.11 reduces to

$$
|C|= \begin{cases}2|H|, & \text { if } g^{2} \notin H \\ |H|, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

(cf. Theorem 2.7.)
Let $x \in G \backslash N(H)$ such that $H x H \cap H x^{-1} H=\emptyset$. Then we have the disjoint union $H x H=H x h_{1} \cup$ $\ldots \cup H x h_{n}$ for some $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{n} \in H$ (assume here that this is a finite union; say that $G$ is finite). Also, then $H x^{-1} H=h_{1}^{-1} x^{-1} H \cup \cdots \cup h_{n}^{-1} x^{-1} H$ is a disjoint union.

Recall that the number of right cosets $H z$ in $H x H$ is $\left[H: H \cap x^{-1} H x\right]=|H| /\left|H \cap x^{-1} H x\right|(=n)$, and the number of left cosets $z H$ in $H x H$ is $\left[x^{-1} H x: H \cap x^{-1} H x\right]=|H| /\left|H \cap x^{-1} H x\right|$ ([6, Theorem 1.7.1]). The only left-to-right edges from $H x H$ to $H x^{-1} H$ are from each vertex in $H x h_{i}$ to each vertex in $h_{i}^{-1} x^{-1} H$ (there are no edges from $H x H$ to $H x H$, or from $H x^{-1} H$ to $H x^{-1} H$ ). So from $H x H$ to $H x^{-1} H$, there are $n|H|^{2}$ such edges. Similarly, we get all the right-to-left edges, i.e., from $H x^{-1} H$ to $H x H$. Which of these directed edges is an undirected edge?

Let $h x h_{i} \rightarrow h_{i}^{-1} x^{-1} k$ be an edge for some $h, k \in H$. Then there is an edge in the reverse direction $\Leftrightarrow\left(h_{i}^{-1} x^{-1} k\right)\left(h x h_{i}\right) \in H \Leftrightarrow x^{-1} k h x \in H \Leftrightarrow k h \in x H x^{-1} \Leftrightarrow k h \in x H x^{-1} \cap H$. So let $k \in H$ be fixed. Then $h \in k^{-1}\left(x H x^{-1} \cap H\right)$. Thus, there are $\left|H \| x H x^{-1} \cap H\right|$ two-way edges in $H x h_{i}$ to $h_{i}^{-1} x^{-1} H$, and hence there are $\left(|H|\left|x H x^{-1} \cap H\right|\right)\left(|H| /\left|H \cap x H x^{-1}\right|\right)=|H|^{2}$ undirected edges in the connected component $\Gamma_{H}\left(H x H \cup H x^{-1} H\right)$. Therefore, since there are $n|H|^{2}$ left-to-right edges and $n|H|^{2}$ right-to-left edges, the connected component $\Gamma_{H}\left(H x H \cup H x^{-1} H\right)$ has $2 n|H|^{2}-|H|^{2}=\left(2|H|^{3} /\left|H \cap x^{-1} H x\right|\right)-|H|^{2}$ edges.

Alternatively, graph-theoretic results can be used to arrive at the same conclusion. If $t \in H_{x H}$, then $x^{-1} t \neq x$ since $x^{2} \notin H$. Thus, $x^{-1} t \in N_{x}$, and it follows that the mapping $p: N_{x} \rightarrow H_{x H}$ defined by $p(a)=x a$ is a bijection. Thus, $\left|N_{x}\right|=\left|H_{x H}\right|$.

Suppose that $g \in H x H \cup H x^{-1} H$; say $g=h_{1} x h_{2}$ for some $h_{1}, h_{2} \in H$. Then $H g H \cap H g^{-1} H=$ $\left(H h_{1} x h_{2} H\right) \cap\left(H\left(h_{1} x h_{2}\right)^{-1} H\right)=H x H \cap H x^{-1} H=\emptyset$. Furthermore, the mapping $q: H_{x H} \rightarrow H_{g H}$ defined by $q(a)=h_{1} a h_{1}^{-1}$ is a bijection. So $\left|H_{x H}\right|=\left|H_{g H}\right|$. In particular, $\left|N_{x}\right|=\left|N_{g}\right|=\left|H_{x H}\right|$. Similar equalities hold if $g \in H x^{-1} H$. Hence Theorem 2.8 implies that the underlying undirected graph of $\Gamma_{H}\left(H x H \cup H x^{-1} H\right)$ is a $\left(2|H|-\left|H_{x H}\right|\right)$-regular graph. Furthermore, the graph obtained by deleting all of the directed edges in $\Gamma_{H}\left(H x H \cup H x^{-1} H\right)$ is a $\left|H_{x H}\right|$-regular graph.

It is well known that any $r$-regular graph on $v$ vertices has $v r / 2$ edges (cf. [4, p. 4]). Thus, $\Gamma_{H}(H x H \cup$ $\left.H x^{-1} H\right)$ has $\left|H x H \cup H x^{-1} H\right|\left(2|H|-\left|H_{x H}\right|\right) / 2=\left(2|H|^{2} /\left|H_{x H}\right|\right)\left(2|H|-\left|H_{x H}\right|\right) / 2=\left(2|H|^{3} /\left|H_{x H}\right|\right)-$ $|H|^{2}$ edges, where the first equality follows from Theorem 2.11. Similarly, it follows that there are $\mid H x H \cup$ $H x^{-1} H \| H_{x H}\left|/ 2=|H|^{2}\right.$ undirected edges in $\Gamma_{H}\left(H x H \cup H x^{-1} H\right)$. We record these observations in the following theorem.

Theorem 2.15 Let $H$ be a subgroup of a finite group $G$, and let $x \in G \backslash N(H)$ such that $H x H \cap H x^{-1} H=\emptyset$. If $C$ is the set of vertices of the component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ containing $x$, then $\Gamma_{H}(C)$ has $2|H|^{3} /\left|H_{x H}\right|-|H|^{2}$ edges, and $|H|^{2}$ undirected edges. In particular, if $|H|$ is prime, then $\Gamma_{H}(C)$ has $2|H|^{3}-|H|^{2}$ edges.
Example 2.16 Let $H=\{\iota,(1,3)(2,4)\} \leq S_{4}$. By Theorem 2.11, the order of any component of $\Gamma_{H}\left(S_{4}\right)$ is either 2, 4, or 8. By Theorem 2.5, it can be seen in Fig. 1 that $N(H)=\{\iota,(1,3)(2,4),(1,2,3,4),(1,4,3,2)$, $(1,2)(3,4),(1,4)(2,3),(1,3),(2,4)\}$. Furthermore, it is immediately seen from Theorem 2.9 and Fig. 1 (even if the vertices were not labeled) which vertices would be looped if the definition of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ allowed for loops. Note that Theorem 2.15 shows that any component of $\Gamma_{H}\left(S_{4}\right)$ with eight vertices has $2(2)^{3}-(2)^{2}=12$ edges, and $(2)^{2}=4$ undirected edges. As an illustration of Theorem 2.1, the reader can verify that any subgroup of $S_{4}$ containing $H$ can be realized as the set of vertices of a union of some components in Fig. 1.



Fig. 1 The graph $\Gamma_{\{\iota,(1,3)(2,4)\}}\left(S_{4}\right)$

## 3 Applications

Suppose that $t<p$ for some positive integers $t$ and $p$ with $p$ prime, and let $G$ be a group of order $p^{n} t$ for some positive integer $n$. It is a straightforward consequence of Sylow's theorem that if $H$ is a subgroup of $G$ with $|H|=p^{n}$, then $H$ is a normal subgroup $G$. The above results allow for a generalization of this fact, and the proof below may be of some interest since it is independent of Sylow's theorem.

Theorem 3.1 Let H be a proper subgroup of a finite group $G$, and let $p$ be the smallest prime number dividing $|H|$. If $|G| /|H| \leq p$, then $H$ is a normal subgroup of $G$.

Proof Suppose that $g \in G$. Let $C$ be the vertex set of the component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ containing $g$, and set $t=|G| /|H|$. Since $H \neq G$, it follows that $C \neq G$ (e.g., Theorem 2.3 shows that $\Gamma_{H}(H)$ is a component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ ). Thus, $|C| \leq|G|-|H|=|H|(t-1)$ since $|H|$ divides the order of any component by Corollary 2.12. Hence

$$
|H| /\left|H_{g H}\right| \leq|C| /|H| \leq t-1<p
$$

where the first inequality holds by Theorem 2.11. But either $|H| /\left|H_{g H}\right|=1$ or there is a prime factor of $|H|$ dividing $|H| /\left|H_{g H}\right|$. The minimality of $p$ eliminates the latter case, and thus $H=H_{g H}$. That is, $H=\{h \in H \mid(h g) H=g H\}=\left\{h \in H \mid g^{-1} h g \in H\right\}$. Thus, $g \in N(H)$. Since $g$ was chosen arbitrarily, $H$ is a normal subgroup of $G$.
Example 3.2 Let $G$ be a finite group with $|G|=700=2^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7$, and let $H$ be a subgroup of $G$ with $|H|=175=5^{2} \cdot 7$. Then $p=5$ is the smallest prime number dividing $|H|$ and $|G| /|H|=4<5$. Thus, $H$ is a normal subgroup of $G$ by Theorem 3.1.

The next result is well known (cf. [5, Corollary 4.5]), and it immediately follows from Theorem 3.1 since any prime number dividing $|H|$ is a prime number dividing $|G|$.

Corollary 3.3 Let H be a proper subgroup of a finite group $G$, and let $p$ be the smallest prime number dividing $|G|$. If $|G| /|H|=p$, then $H$ is a normal subgroup of $G$.

## 4 The case when $|H|=2$

Recall from Sect. 2 that, for a vertex $g$ of the graph $\Gamma_{H}(G)$, we define the set $N_{g}=\{v \in G \mid v \rightarrow g$ and $g \rightarrow v\}$. That is, $N_{g}$ is the set of all vertices of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ that are adjacent to $g$ via an undirected edge.

Lemma 4.1 Let $H$ be a subgroup of a finite group $G$ such that $|H|=2$, and let $g \in G$. Then the following statements hold.
(1) The inequality $\left|N_{g}\right| \leq 2$ holds if $g^{2} \notin H$, and the inequality $\left|N_{g}\right| \leq 1$ holds if $g^{2} \in H$.
(2) Suppose that $g \notin N(H)$. Then $\left|N_{g}\right|=0$ if and only if $g^{2} \in H$. In this case, $g=g^{-1}$.

Proof Note that $\operatorname{deg}(g) \geq 1$ since $|H|>1$. By Theorem 2.9, it follows that $1 \leq 4-\left|N_{g}\right|-2$ if $g^{2} \in H$. Also, if $g^{2} \notin H$ and $\left|N_{g}\right| \geq 3$, then Theorem 2.9 shows that $\operatorname{deg}(g)=4-\left|N_{g}\right| \leq 1$. But clearly $3 \leq\left|N_{g}\right| \leq \operatorname{deg}(g)$. This is a contradiction, and the first claim is proved.

To prove (2), it is clear that $g=g^{-1}$ if $\left|N_{g}\right|=0$; in particular, $g^{2} \in H$ if $\left|N_{g}\right|=0$. It remains to show that $\left|N_{g}\right|=0$ if $g^{2} \in H$.


Fig. 2 The possible components when $|H|=2$ and $g \notin N(H)$

Suppose that $g \notin N(H)$ and $g^{2} \in H$. Then $\left|N_{g}\right| \leq 1$ by (1). If $\left|N_{g}\right|=1$, then $\operatorname{deg}(g)=4-1-2=1$ by Theorem 2.9. Also, the proof of Theorem 2.8 shows that the component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ containing $g$ is either isomorphic to $K^{1}$ or $K^{2}$, or $g$ is the vertex of a cycle in $\Gamma_{H}(G)$. But the first and last of these possibilities are eliminated since $\operatorname{deg}(g)=1$, and the second possibility fails by Theorem 2.5 because $g \notin N(H)$. Therefore, $\left|N_{g}\right| \neq 1$; that is, $\left|N_{g}\right|=0$.

The following theorem characterizes the possible components of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ when $|H|=2$. That the four given components are realizable can be seen from Example 2.16 and the graph $\Gamma_{\{0,3\}}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{6}\right)$.
Theorem 4.2 Let $H$ be a subgroup of a finite group $G$ such that $|H|=2$. If $C$ is the set of vertices of a component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$, then $\Gamma_{H}(C)$ is isomorphic to either $K^{2}, K^{2,2}, \Gamma_{1}$, or $\Gamma_{2}$, where $\Gamma_{1}$ and $\Gamma_{2}$ are the graphs given in Fig. 2.

Proof Suppose that $H=\{e, h\}$, where $e$ denotes the identity element of $G$, and let $g \in C$. If $g \in N(H)$, then $\Gamma_{H}(C)$ is isomorphic to either $K^{2}$ or $K^{2,2}$ by Theorem 2.7. Henceforth, assume that $g \notin N(H)$. Note that $|C| \in\{4,8\}$ by Theorem 2.11 and Corollary 2.13.
Case 1 Assume that $|C|=4$. By Theorem 2.11, it is the case that $H g H \cap H g^{-1} H \neq \emptyset$, i.e., $H g H=H g^{-1} H$. By Theorem 2.3, it follows that $C=\{g, g h, h g, h g h\}$. If $g^{-1}=g h$, then $g(h g)=(g h) g=e$ implies that $g^{-1}=h g$, which contradicts that the elements of $C$ are distinct. Thus, $g^{-1} \neq g h$. Similarly, $g^{-1} \neq h g$. If $g^{-1}=h g h$, then $(g h)^{2}=e \in H$. Thus, in any case, it can be assumed that $C$ contains an element whose square is the identity element in $H$. Without loss of generality, let $g^{2}=e \in H$. Hence $(h g h)^{2}=e \in H$, and $(g h)^{2},(h g)^{2} \notin H$ since $g \notin N(H)$. Now it is clear that the adjacency relations given in Fig. 2a hold. That these are the only adjacency relations follows immediately from Remark 2.10.

Case 2 Assume that $|C|=8$. Then Theorem 2.3 implies that $C=\{g, g h, h g, h g h\} \cup\left\{g^{-1}, g^{-1} h, h g^{-1}\right.$, $\left.h g^{-1} h\right\}$. Clearly the adjacency relations given in Fig. 2b hold. By Remark 2.10, these are the only adjacency relations.

## 5 The case $|H|=3$

Before describing the possible components when $|H|=3$, it will be convenient to introduce the following construction. Given a component $\Gamma_{H}(C)$ of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$, let $\Gamma_{H}(C)^{*}$ be the graph whose vertices are the elements of $(C \times\{1\}) \cup(\{1\} \times C)$ such that $v$ and $w$ are the initial and terminal vertices of an edge, respectively, if and only if there exist elements $a, b \in C$ with $a b \in H$ such that either $v=(a, 1)$ and $w=(1, b)$, or $v=(1, a)$ and $w=(b, 1)$ (here, $a$ and $b$ need not be distinct). For example, it is easy to check that if $\Gamma_{H}(C) \cong K^{n}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$, then $\Gamma_{H}(C)^{*} \cong K^{n, n}$. Furthermore, it is straightforward to show that $\Gamma_{2} \cong \Gamma_{1}^{*}$, where $\Gamma_{1}$ and $\Gamma_{2}$ are the graphs in Fig. 2. It is shown below that these observations extend to the components of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ when $|H|=3$. In particular, there are two possible components (up to isomorphism) corresponding to the case when $\left|H_{g H}\right|=1$; namely, the graphs $\Gamma$ and $\Gamma^{*}$, where $\Gamma$ is the graph of order nine in Fig. 3.

Example 5.1 Let $G=A_{4} \times \mathbb{Z}_{3}$ and set $\sigma=(1,2,3) \in A_{4}$. Consider the subgroup $H=\left\{(\iota, 0),(\sigma, 0),\left(\sigma^{2}, 0\right)\right\}$ of $G$. Note that the graph $\Gamma_{\left\{\iota, \sigma, \sigma^{2}\right\}}\left(A_{4}\right)$ is given in Fig. 3, and it is isomorphic to the subgraph of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ whose vertices consist of the elements in $\left\{(\alpha, 0) \mid \alpha \in A_{4}\right\}$.

$(1,2,3)$

$(1,3,2)$


Fig. 3 The graph $\Gamma_{\{t,(1,2,3),(1,3,2)\}}\left(A_{4}\right)$


Fig. 4 The only possible component having nine vertices when $|H|=3$

Let $\Gamma$ be the component of order nine in Fig. 3. Define a bijection $\psi$ from the set $C=\left(A_{4} \backslash\left\{\iota, \sigma, \sigma^{2}\right\}\right) \times$ $\left(\mathbb{Z}_{3} \backslash\{0\}\right)$ onto the vertices of $\Gamma^{*}$ by $\psi(\alpha, 1)=(\alpha, 1)$ and $\psi(\alpha, 2)=(1, \alpha)$ for each $\alpha \in A_{4} \backslash\left\{\iota, \sigma, \sigma^{2}\right\}$. If $\left(\alpha_{1}, z_{1}\right),\left(\alpha_{2}, z_{2}\right) \in C$, then clearly $\left(\alpha_{1}, z_{1}\right) \rightarrow\left(\alpha_{2}, z_{2}\right)$ if and only if $\psi\left(\alpha_{1}, z_{1}\right)$ and $\psi\left(\alpha_{2}, z_{2}\right)$ are the initial and terminal vertices, respectively, of an edge in $\Gamma^{*}$. Thus, $\Gamma_{H}(C) \cong \Gamma^{*}$. Similarly, it is easy to check that $\left(\left\{\iota, \sigma, \sigma^{2}\right\} \times\{1\}\right) \cup\left(\left\{\iota, \sigma, \sigma^{2}\right\} \times\{2\}\right)$ are the vertices of a component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ that is isomorphic to $\Gamma_{\left\{\iota, \sigma, \sigma^{2}\right\}}\left(\left\{\iota, \sigma, \sigma^{2}\right\}\right)^{*} \cong K^{3,3}$. Therefore, $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ is isomorphic to the union of the four graphs $K^{3}, K^{3,3}, \Gamma$, and $\Gamma^{*}$.

The following theorem characterizes the possible components of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ when $|H|=3$. That the four given components are realizable can be seen from Example 5.1.

Theorem 5.2 Let $H$ be a subgroup of a finite group $G$ such that $|H|=3$. If $C$ is the set of vertices of $a$ component of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$, then $\Gamma_{H}(C)$ is isomorphic to either $K^{3}, K^{3,3}, \Gamma$, or $\Gamma^{*}$, where $\Gamma$ is the graph given in Fig. 4.

Proof Suppose that $H=\left\{e, h_{1}, h_{2}\right\}$, where $e$ denotes the identity element of $G$, and let $g \in C$. If $g \in N(H)$, then $\Gamma_{H}(C)$ is isomorphic to either $K^{3}$ or $K^{3,3}$ by Theorem 2.7. Henceforth, assume that $g \notin N(H)$. Note that $|C| \in\{9,18\}$ by Theorem 2.11 and Corollary 2.13.

Case 1 Suppose that $|C|=9$. By Theorem 2.11, it is the case that $H g H \cap H^{-1} H \neq \emptyset$, i.e., $H g H=$ $H g^{-1} H$. By Theorem 2.3, it follows that $C=\left\{g, g h_{1}, h_{1} g, h_{1} g h_{1}, g h_{2}, h_{2} g, h_{2} g h_{2}, h_{1} g h_{2}, h_{2} g h_{1}\right\}$. The inverse of any element in $C$ is again an element in $C$, and $|C|$ is odd. This implies that $C$ contains an element that is its own inverse. Therefore, without loss of generality, assume that $g^{2}=e$. Hence $\left(h_{1} g h_{2}\right)^{2}=\left(h_{2} g h_{1}\right)^{2}=e$. Now it is clear that the adjacency relations given in Fig. 4 hold. That these are the only adjacency relations follows by Remark 2.10.

Case 2 Suppose that $|C|=18$ and let $a \in C$. By Theorem 2.3, it follows that $C=\left\{a, a h_{1}, h_{1} a, h_{1} a h_{1}, a h_{2}\right.$, $\left.h_{2} a, h_{2} a h_{2}, h_{1} a h_{2}, h_{2} a h_{1}\right\} \cup\left\{a^{-1}, a^{-1} h_{1}, h_{1} a^{-1}, h_{1} a^{-1} h_{1}, a^{-1} h_{2}, h_{2} a^{-1}, h_{2} a^{-1} h_{2}, h_{1} a^{-1} h_{2}, h_{2} a^{-1} h_{1}\right\}$.


Let $\Gamma$ be the graph given in Fig. 4, and define a mapping $\psi$ from the vertices of $\Gamma^{*}$ onto $C$ such that $\psi\left(h g h^{\prime}, 1\right)=h a h^{\prime}$ and $\psi\left(1, h g h^{\prime}\right)=h a^{-1} h^{\prime}$ for all vertices $\left(h g h^{\prime}, 1\right)$ and $\left(1, h g h^{\prime}\right)$ of $\Gamma^{*}$. Clearly $\psi$ is a bijection. Also, it is straightforward to check that if $v$ and $w$ are the initial and terminal vertices, respectively, of an edge in $\Gamma^{*}$, then $\psi(v) \rightarrow \psi(w)$. But $\operatorname{deg}^{+}(v)=\operatorname{deg}^{-}(v)=3$ for every vertex $v$ of $\Gamma^{*}$, and thus the converse of the previous statement is valid by Remark 2.10 . Hence $\Gamma_{H}(C) \cong \Gamma^{*}$.

## 6 The case when $G / H$ is a finite abelian group

Let $H$ be a normal subgroup of a group $G$ such that $G / H$ is a finite abelian group, and let $K=\left\{x \in G \mid x^{2} \in\right.$ $H\}$. It is easily verified that $K$ is a subgroup of $G$ containing $H$.

We have already observed that $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ has two types of connected components: (i) complete graph components of the form $x H$ for $x \in K$, and (ii) complete bipartite graph components of the form $x H \cup x^{-1} H$ for $x \in G \backslash K$ (see Theorem 2.7). Let $\alpha(G, H)$ be the number of complete graph components of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$ and $\beta(G, H)$ be the number of complete bipartite graph components of $\Gamma_{H}(G)$. Then $\alpha=\alpha(G, H)=|K / H| \geq$ $1, \beta=\beta(G, H)=(|G / H|-|K / H|) / 2 \geq 0$, and $|G|=|H|(\alpha+2 \beta)$.

In Theorem 6.2, we give necessary conditions on $\alpha(G, H)$ and $\beta(G, H)$; in Theorem 6.3, we show that these conditions are also sufficient to realize such a graph as $\Gamma_{H}(G)$. However, we first give an example where $\Gamma_{H}(G) \cong \Gamma_{H^{\prime}}\left(G^{\prime}\right)$, but $G \nsubseteq G^{\prime}, H \nsubseteq H^{\prime}$, and $K \not \not K^{\prime}$.

Example 6.1 Let $G=\mathbb{Z}_{2} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{8} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{9} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{25}$ with $H=\{0\} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{8} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{9} \oplus\{0\}$, and let $G^{\prime}=\mathbb{Z}_{2}^{4} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{3}^{2} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{5}^{2}$ with $H^{\prime}=\mathbb{Z}_{2}^{2} \oplus\{0\}^{2} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{3}^{2} \oplus\{0\}^{2}$. Then $K=\{g \in G \mid 2 g \in H\}=\mathbb{Z}_{2} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{8} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{9} \oplus\{0\}$ and $K^{\prime}=\left\{g \in G^{\prime} \mid 2 g \in\right.$ $\left.H^{\prime}\right\}=\mathbb{Z}_{2}^{4} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{3}^{2} \oplus\{0\}^{2}$. Also, $|G|=\left|G^{\prime}\right|=3600,|H|=\left|H^{\prime}\right|=36$, and $|K|=\left|K^{\prime}\right|=144$. Therefore, by Theorem 2.7, it is straightforward to check that $\Gamma_{H}(G) \cong \Gamma_{H^{\prime}}\left(G^{\prime}\right)$. In fact, each graph consists of four complete graphs $K^{36}$ and 48 complete bipartite graphs $K^{36,36}$. Note that none of the groups are isomorphic.

Theorem 6.2 Let $H$ be a normal subgroup of a group $G$ such that $G / H$ is a finite abelian group. Then $\alpha(G, H)=2^{k}$ for some integer $k \geq 0$ and $2^{j} \mid \beta(G, H)$, where $j=\max \{k-1,0\}$.

Proof Let $\alpha=\alpha(G, H)$ and $\beta=\beta(G, H)$. By the Fundamental Theorem of Finite Abelian Groups, $G / H \cong$ $\mathbb{Z}_{2^{m_{1}}} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{2^{m_{k}}} \oplus L$, where $k \geq 0$, each $m_{i} \geq 1$, and $|L| \geq 1$ is odd. Thus, $K / H \cong\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)^{k}$; so $\alpha=|K / H|=2^{k}$. Now $|G / H|=\left(2^{m_{1}+\cdots+m_{k}}\right)|L|=\alpha+2 \beta=2^{k}+2 \beta$ with $m_{1}+\cdots+m_{k} \geq k$. Hence $2^{k} \mid 2 \beta$, and thus $2^{j} \mid \beta$, where $j=\max \{k-1,0\}$.

Theorem 6.3 Let $k \geq 0$ be an integer, $j=\max \{k-1,0\}, n \geq 0$ an integer such that $2^{j} \mid n$, and $h \geq 1$ an integer. Then there is a finite abelian group $G$ with subgroup $H$ such that $|H|=h, \alpha(G, H)=2^{k}$, and $\beta(G, H)=n$. Moreover, $|G|=2^{k}|H|+n|H|=\left(2^{k}+n\right) h$.

Proof We prove this in several cases. Let $m=2^{k}, \alpha=\alpha(G, H)$, and $\beta=\beta(G, H)$.
(a) Let $m=2^{k}$ with $k \geq 0$, and $n=0$.

Define $G=\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)^{k} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{h}$ and $H=\{0\} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{h}$. Then $K / H=G / H \cong\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)^{k}$. Thus, $\alpha=|K / H|=2^{k}=m$ and $\beta=(|G / H|-|K / H|) / 2=0=n$.
(b) Let $m=2^{0}=1$ and $n \geq 1$.

Define $G=\mathbb{Z}_{2 n+1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{h}$ and $H=\{0\} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{h}$. Then $G / H \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2 n+1}$, and $K / H=\{0\}$ since $2 n+1$ is odd.
Thus, $\alpha=|K / H|=1$ and $\beta=(|G / H|-|K / H|) / 2=(2 n+1-1) / 2=n$.
(c) Let $m=2^{k}$ with $k \geq 1$, and $n \geq 1$. Write $n=2^{r} q$ with $r \geq j$ and $q \geq 1$ odd. We consider two subcases.
(i) Let $r>j \geq k-1 \geq 0$.

Define $G=\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)^{k} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{d} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{h}$, where $d=2^{r-k+1} q+1$ and $H=\{0\}^{k+1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{h}$. Then $G / H \cong$ $\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)^{k} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{d}$, and $K / H \cong\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)^{k}$ since $d$ is odd. Thus, $\alpha=|K / H|=2^{k}$ and $\beta=(|G / H|-$ $|K / H|) / 2=\left(2^{k}\left(2^{r-k+1} q+1\right)-2^{k}\right) / 2=2^{r+1} q / 2=2^{r} q=n$.
(ii) Let $r=j=k-1 \geq 0$.

Since $q$ is odd, $q+1=2^{b-k} d$ for integers $b$ and $d$ with $b>k$ and $d \geq 1$ odd. Define $G=$ $\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)^{k-1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{2^{b-k+1}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{d} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{h}$ and $H=\{0\}^{k+1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{h}$. Then $G / H \cong\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)^{k-1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{2^{b-k+1}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{d}$ and $K / H \cong\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)^{k}$ since $d$ is odd. Thus, $\alpha=|K / H|=2^{k}$ and $\beta=(|G / H|-|K / H|) / 2=$ $\left(2^{k-1} 2^{b-k+1} d-2^{k}\right) / 2=2^{k}\left(2^{b-k} d-1\right) / 2=2^{k}(q+1-1) / 2=2^{k} q / 2=2^{k-1} q=2^{r} q=n$.

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Example 6.4 We illustrate each case in the above proof. Let $\alpha=\alpha(G, H), \beta=\beta(G, H)$, and $h=|H|=6$. The reader may verify that the given group $G$ and subgroup $H \cong \mathbb{Z}_{6}$ yield the desired $\alpha$ and $\beta$.
(a) For $\alpha=8=2^{3}$ and $\beta=0$, let $G=\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)^{3} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{6}$ and $H=\{0\}^{3} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{6}$.
(b) For $\alpha=1=2^{0}$ and $\beta=7$, let $G=\mathbb{Z}_{15} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{6}$ and $H=\{0\} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{6}$.
(c) (i) For $\alpha=4=2^{2}$ and $\beta=40=2^{3} \cdot 5$, let $G=\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)^{2} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{21} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{6}$ and $H=\{0\}^{3} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{6}$.
(ii) For $\alpha=4=2^{2}$ and $\beta=18=2 \cdot 3^{2}$, let $G=\mathbb{Z}_{2} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{4} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{5} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{6}$ and $H=\{0\}^{3} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{6}$.

Note that the " $G / H$ is abelian" hypothesis in Theorem 6.2 is necessary. For example, let $G$ be the dihedral group of order 16, and let $H=\left\{e, r^{4}\right\}$, where $r$ is a rotation of $\pi / 4$ radians. If $R$ is the set of eight reflections in $G$, then $K=\left\{e, r^{2}, r^{4}, r^{6}\right\} \cup R$. So $|K|=12$, and hence $\alpha(G, H)=6$.

If, on the other hand, $K$ happens to be a group, then every element of $K / H$ has order at most two. In this case, $K / H$ is an abelian group. If $K / H$ is also finite, then Theorem 6.2 implies that $\alpha(G, H)=2^{k}$ for some integer $k \geq 0$. This yields the following corollary.
Corollary 6.5 Let $H$ be a normal subgroup of a group $G$ such that $G / H$ is a finite group. If $K=\left\{x \in G \mid x^{2} \in\right.$ $H\}$ is a group, then $\alpha(G, H)=2^{k}$ for some integer $k \geq 0$.

Example 6.6 Let $H^{\prime}$ be any subgroup of a finite abelian group $G^{\prime}$, and let $K^{\prime}=\left\{x \in G^{\prime} \mid x^{2} \in H^{\prime}\right\}$. Let $G=A_{4} \times G^{\prime}$ and $H=\{(1)\} \times H^{\prime}$. Then $H$ is a normal subgroup of $G$ and $G / H \cong A_{4} \times G^{\prime} / H^{\prime}$ is a finite nonabelian group. Moreover, $K=\left\{x \in G \mid x^{2} \in H\right\}=\{(1),(1,2)(3,4),(1,3)(2,4),(1,4)(2,3)\} \times K^{\prime}$ is a group. By Corollary $6.5, \alpha(G, H)=2^{k}$ for some integer $k \geq 0$. (Alternatively, note that $\alpha(G, H)=$ $|K| /|H|=4\left|K^{\prime}\right| /\left|H^{\prime}\right|=4 \cdot \alpha\left(G^{\prime}, H^{\prime}\right)$, which is a power of two by Theorem 6.2.)

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[^0]:    D. F. Anderson ( $\triangle$ )

    Mathematics Department, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, TN 37996-1320, USA
    E-mail: anderson@math.utk.edu
    J. Fasteen

    Fariborz Maseeh Department of Mathematics and Statistics, Portland State University,
    Portland, OR 97207-0751, USA
    E-mail: jfasteen@pdx.edu
    J. D. LaGrange

    Division of Natural and Behavioral Sciences, Lindsey Wilson College,
    Columbia, KY 42728, USA
    E-mail: lagrangej@lindsey.edu

