

Coset:

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Coset

①

Defn: Let G be a group and H be a subgroup of G .

Let a be an element of G . For all h in H , $ah \in G$.

Thus, the subset $\{ah: h \in H\}$ is called a left coset of H in G and is denoted by aH .

Similarly, the subset $\{ha: h \in H\}$ is called the right coset of H in G .

For different elements b, c, \dots in G , the left cosets of H are bH, cH, \dots

Similarly, the right cosets are Hb, Hc, \dots etc. for elements b, c, \dots in G .

In an additive group G , the left and right cosets of H are $a+H$ and $H+a$ respectively.

Example: ① Let $G = (\mathbb{Z}, +)$, $H = (3\mathbb{Z}, +)$. v. H-2010

$$\text{The left coset } 0+H = \{3n: n \in \mathbb{Z}\} = H$$

$$\text{The left coset } 1+H = \{3n+1: n \in \mathbb{Z}\} \neq H$$

$$\text{The left coset } 2+H = \{3n+2: n \in \mathbb{Z}\} \neq H$$

There are three distinct left cosets of H .

They are $H, 1+H, 2+H$.

② Let $G = S_3$ and $H = \{P_0, P_3\}$.

Here $S_3 = \{P_0, P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4, P_5\}$ where

$$P_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, P_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, P_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, P_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$P_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, P_5 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Then $P_0 H = \{P_0, P_3\} = H$

$$P_1 H = \{P_1, P_5\}$$

$$P_2 H = \{P_2, P_4\}$$

$$P_3 H = \{P_0, P_3\} = H$$

$$P_4 H = \{P_2, P_4\} = P_2 H$$

$$P_5 H = \{P_1, P_5\} = P_1 H$$

There are three distinct left cosets of H . They are H , $P_1 H$, and $P_2 H$.

Theorem - 1: If H is any subgroup of a group G and $h \in H$.

$$\text{Then } Hh = H = hH. \quad \text{v.H-2010}$$

Proof: Let h' be any arbitrary element of H . Then $h' h$ is an arbitrary element of Hh .

Since H is a subgroup, we have $h' \in H, h \in H \Rightarrow h' h \in H$

Thus $h' h \in Hh \Rightarrow h' h \in H$.

i.e. every element of Hh is also an element of H .

$$\therefore Hh \subseteq H \quad \text{(i)}$$

$$\text{Again, } h' = h' (\bar{h}' h) \quad [\bar{h}' h = e]$$

$$= (h' \bar{h}') h \in Hh$$

$$[\because h \in H \Rightarrow \bar{h}' \in H]$$

$$\text{and } h' \in H, \bar{h}' \in H \Rightarrow h' \bar{h}' \in H$$

$\Rightarrow H$ is a subgroup of G

$$\therefore h' \in H \Rightarrow h' \in Hh$$

i.e. every element of H is also an element of Hh .

$$\therefore H \subseteq Hh \quad \text{(ii)}$$

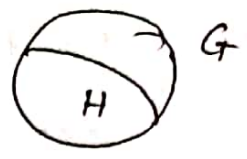
\therefore From (i) and (ii), $Hh = H$.

Similarly, $hH = H$.

Thus, $Hh = H = hH$. (Proved)

Theorem-2: If a, b are any two elements of a group G and H is any subgroup of G then
 $Ha = Hb \Leftrightarrow a\bar{b}' \in H$ and $aH = bH \Leftrightarrow \bar{a}'b \in H$.

Proof: Since a is an element of Ha .



Therefore, $Ha = Hb$
 $\Rightarrow a \in Ha \Rightarrow a \in Hb$
 $\Rightarrow a\bar{b}' \in (Hb)\bar{b}'$
 $\Rightarrow a\bar{b}' \in H \quad [\because b\bar{b}' = e]$

Conversely, $a\bar{b}' \in H$
 $\Rightarrow Ha\bar{b}' = H \quad [\because r \in H \Rightarrow Hr = H]$
 $\Rightarrow Ha\bar{b}'b = Hb$
 $\Rightarrow Ha = Hb$.

Similarly, we can prove that $aH = bH \Leftrightarrow \bar{a}'b \in H$.

Hence the theorem.

Theorem-3: If a, b are any two elements of a group G and H is any subgroup of G . Then
 $a \in Hb \Leftrightarrow Ha = Hb$ and $a \in bH \Leftrightarrow aH = bH$.

Proof: We have, $a \in Hb$
 $\Rightarrow a\bar{b}' \in Hb\bar{b}'$
 $\Rightarrow a\bar{b}' \in He \Rightarrow a\bar{b}' \in H$.

$\Rightarrow Ha\bar{b}' = H \quad [\because r \in H \Rightarrow Hr = H]$
 $\Rightarrow Ha\bar{b}'b = Hb$
 $\Rightarrow Ha = Hb$.

Conversely, $Ha = Hb \Rightarrow a\bar{b}' \in H$ [Proved previously]

Theorem: Any two right (left) cosets of a subgroup are either disjoint or identical. V.H-2010

Proof: Suppose H is a subgroup of a group G and let Ha and Hb are two right cosets of H in G . Suppose Ha and Hb are not disjoint. Then there exists at least one element c (say) such that $c \in Ha$ and $c \in Hb$.

$$\text{Let } c = h_1 a \text{ for } h_1 \in H \\ \text{and } c = h_2 b \text{ for } h_2 \in H.$$

$$\text{Then } h_1 a = h_2 b$$

$$\Rightarrow h_1^{-1} (h_1 a) = h_1^{-1} h_2 b$$

$$\Rightarrow e a = (h_1^{-1} h_2) b \quad [h_1^{-1} h_1 = e]$$

$$\Rightarrow a = (h_1^{-1} h_2) b. \quad [\because a \cdot e = a]$$

Since H is a subgroup, therefore $h_1^{-1} h_2 \in H$.

$$\text{Let } h_1^{-1} h_2 = h_3.$$

$$\text{Now, } Ha = H h_3 b = (H h_3) b = H b \quad \left[\begin{array}{l} \because h_3 \in H \\ \Rightarrow H h_3 = H \end{array} \right]$$

\therefore Therefore, the two right cosets are identical if they are not disjoint.

Thus, either $Ha \cap Hb = \emptyset$ or $Ha = Hb$.

Lagrange theorem:

Statement: The order of every subgroup of a finite group G is a divisor of the order of G .

Proof: Let G be a group of finite order n . Let H be a subgroup of G . and let $O(H) = m$, $O(G) = n$.

Suppose h_1, h_2, \dots, h_m are the m distinct members of H .

Let $a \in G$. Then Ha is a right coset of H in G . and

We have $H_a = \{h_{1a}, h_{2a}, \dots, h_{ma}\}$.

H_a has m distinct members, since $h_{ia} = h_{ja}, i \neq j$
 $\Rightarrow h_i = h_j$ [cancellation law]
which is not true.

Therefore each right coset of H in G has m distinct members.

Since G is a finite group, the number of distinct right cosets of H in G will be finite say k .

The union of these k -distinct right cosets of H in G is equal to G . Thus if $H_{a_1}, H_{a_2}, \dots, H_{a_k}$ are k distinct right cosets of H in G then $G = H_{a_1} \cup H_{a_2} \cup H_{a_3} \dots \cup H_{a_k}$.

\Rightarrow The no. of elements in $G =$ The no. of elements in H_{a_1}
+ ... + The no. of elements in H_{a_k} .

$$\Rightarrow O(G) = O(H_{a_1}) + O(H_{a_2}) + \dots + O(H_{a_k})$$

$$\Rightarrow n = m + m + \dots + m \text{ (k times)}$$

$$\Rightarrow n = mk$$

$$\Rightarrow k = \frac{n}{m} = \frac{O(G)}{O(H)}$$

Hence $O(H)$ is a divisor of $O(G)$.

Hence the theorem.

Note: The converse of Lagrange's theorem is not true.

For ex: The alternating group A_4 of degree 4 is of order 12. It can be seen that there is no subgroup of A_4 of order 6 though 6 is a divisor of 12.

Index: If G be a group and H be a subgroup of G then the number of distinct left cosets of H

in G is called the index of H in G and denoted by $[G:H]$. Lagrange's theorem says that $[G:H] = \frac{o(G)}{o(H)}$.

Theorem: Every group of prime order is cyclic.

Proof: Let G be a group of prime order p . Since p is prime, $o(G) > 1$. Let a be a non-identity element of G and H be a cyclic subgroup generated by a , $a \neq e$.
Therefore $o(H) > 1$.

Since H is a subgroup of G , by Lagrange's theorem, $o(H)$ is a divisor of p . Since p is prime, then only divisors of p are 1 and p .

Therefore, $o(H) = p$, since $o(H) \neq 1$.

Therefore $H = G$ and this proves that G is a cyclic group generated by a .

Ex: Prove that every group of order less than 6 is commutative. V.H.

Ans: A group of order 1 contains the identity element e only. This is a cyclic group generated by e . Therefore it is a commutative group.

A group of order 2 is cyclic, since 2 is prime. Therefore it is commutative.

A group of order 3 is cyclic, since 3 is prime. Therefore it is commutative.

Let us consider a group of order 4. The order of every element of G is a divisor of $o(G)$. The divisors are 1, 2 and 4.

Case I: If there exists an element of order 4 in G , then

The group is cyclic. Therefore it is commutative. (4)

Case-II: If there exists no element of order 4, then each non-identity element of the group is of order 2 and the order of the identity element is 1. Therefore, for every element $a \in G$

$$a \circ a = e$$

$$\Rightarrow a = a^{-1} \quad \forall a \in G.$$

Let $a, b \in G$. Then $a = a^{-1}$, $b = b^{-1}$

Also, $a, b \in G \Rightarrow a \circ b \in G$.

$$\therefore (a \circ b)^{-1} = (a \circ b)$$

$$\Rightarrow a \circ b = b^{-1} \circ a^{-1}$$

$$= b \circ a$$

$\therefore a \circ b = b \circ a \quad \forall a, b \in G$, G is commutative.

It follows that a group of order 4 is always commutative.

A group of order 5 is cyclic, since 5 is prime. Therefore it is commutative.

Therefore, every group of order less than 6 is commutative.

Ex: Prove that every proper subgroup of a group of order 6 is cyclic. V.H-'06

Ans: Let G be a group of order 6 and H be a proper subgroup of G .

By Lagrange's theorem, $O(H)$ is a divisor of 6. The divisors of 6 are 1, 2, 3 and 6. Since H is a proper subgroup of G , $O(H) < 6$.

If $O(H) = 1$ then $H = \{e\} = \langle e \rangle$ and H is cyclic.

If $O(H) = 2$ then H is a group of prime ^{order} and so H is cyclic.

If $O(H) = 3$, then also H is a group of prime order

and so H is a cyclic.

Thus in any case, H is cyclic.

Note: Every proper subgroup of a symmetric group S_3 is cyclic.
v.H-06

Theorem: A cyclic group of prime order has no proper non-trivial subgroup.

Proof: Let (G, o) be a cyclic group of prime order p and let $G = \langle a \rangle$. Let (H, o) be a cyclic subgroup generated by a^m , m is the least positive integer.

Since $o(G) = p$, $a^p = e$.

Since $H = \langle a^m \rangle$ and $a^p \in H$, $p = mk$ for some integer k .

Therefore, m is a divisor of p . Since p is prime, m is either 1 or p .

If $m = 1$ then $H = G$

If $m = p$ then $H = \{e\}$.

Therefore (H, o) is either trivial subgroup $\{e\}$ or the improper subgroup G .

(Ex): Show that the group of order 2 and 3 are always cyclic but the group of order 4 may or may not be a cyclic.

Ans: We know that every group of prime order is cyclic.

Here 2 and 3 are prime. Therefore, the group of order

2 and 3 are always cyclic.

We consider the example, the group of order 2 and 3 are $\{-1, 1\}$ and $\{1, \omega, \omega^2\}$.

Now, $(-1)^1 = -1, (-1)^2 = 1, (-1)^3 = -1, (-1)^4 = 1, \dots$

Here $\langle -1 \rangle$ is a generator of $\{-1, 1\}$.

Thus, $\{-1, 1\}$ is a cyclic group order 2.

Again,

$w^1 = w$	and $(w^2)^1 = w^2$
$w^2 = w^2$	$(w^2)^2 = w$
$w^3 = w^3 = 1$	$(w^2)^3 = 1$
$w^4 = w$	$(w^2)^4 = w^2$
$w^5 = w^2$	$(w^2)^5 = w$
$w^6 = w^3 = 1$	

Here w and w^2 are generators of $\{1, w, w^2\}$.

Thus, $\{1, w, w^2\}$ is a cyclic group of order 3.

Again, 4 is not a prime number, therefore 4 may or may not be cyclic. We consider the example, $\{1, -1, i, -i\}$ is a group of order 4. Also, $\{1, -1, i, -i\}$ is also a cyclic group generated by i and $-i$.

But the Klein's 4-group $\{e, a, b, c\}$ of order 4 is not cyclic group.

(Ex): Find the right cosets of the subgroup $\{1, -1\}$ of the multiplicative group of all nonzero reals that contains 5.

Ans: Let $H = \{1, -1\}$. $G = \{x : x \in \mathbb{R}\}$

$G = \{\mathbb{R} - \{0\}, \cdot\}$

Then $H \circ 5 = \{-5, 5\}$ is the right coset of H .

Again $H \circ x = \{-x, x\}$ is the right coset of H where $x (\neq 0) \in \mathbb{R}$.

(Ex) In the symmetric group S_3 , find two subgroups A and B such that $A \cup B$ is not a subgroup of S_3 . $e, (12)$

P_1 and P_5 does not belong to $A \cup B$.

(6)

Ans: Let $1, 2, 3$ be the elements ^{of a set.} and their six

Permutations are $P_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$, $P_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $P_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$,

$P_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$, $P_5 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $P_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$.

P_0 is the identity element.

The set $S_3 = \{P_0, P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4, P_5\}$ is a group with respect to permutation multiplication.

In that case composition table of S_3 is

	P_0	P_1	P_2	P_3	P_4	P_5
P_0	P_0	P_1	P_2	P_3	P_4	P_5
P_1	P_1	P_0	P_4	P_5	P_2	P_3
P_2	P_2	P_3	P_0	P_1	P_5	P_4
P_3	P_3	P_2	P_5	P_4	P_0	P_1
P_4	P_4	P_5	P_1	P_0	P_3	P_2
P_5	P_5	P_4	P_3	P_2	P_1	P_0

The subsets $\{P_0, P_1\}$, $\{P_0, P_2\}$ and $\{P_0, P_5\}$ are subgroups of S_3 with P_0 as the identity. These are groups of order 2.

Again $\{P_0, P_3, P_4\}$ is the only subgroup of S_3 of order 3.

$\{P_0\}$ and $\{P_3\}$ is a subgroup of order one.

and S_3 itself is a subgroup of S_3 of order 6.

$\{P_0\}$ and S_3 are improper subgroups. The other are

proper subgroups. The orders of the subgroups are namely, 1, 2, 3, 6, are factors of 6 [By Lagrange's theorem].

Here, we take $A = \{P_0, P_1\}$, $B = \{P_0, P_5\}$ be two subgroups of the symmetric group S_3 . Now $A \cup B = \{P_0, P_1, P_5\}$ is not a subgroup, since $P_1 \cdot P_5 = P_3$, $P_5 \cdot P_1 = P_4$

ii p_3 and p_4 does not belong to $A \cup B$.

So, $A \cup B = \{p_0, p_1, p_5\}$ is not a subgroup of S_3 .

Theorem: Let G be group and H be a subgroup of G . Let $a \in G - H$. Then $aH \cap H = \emptyset$.

Ans: If possible, let $p \in aH \cap H \Rightarrow p \in aH$ and $p \in H$

Hence $p = ah_1$ for some h_1 in H and $p = h_2$ for some $h_2 \in H$.

This implies $h_2 = ah_1 \Rightarrow a = h_2 h_1^{-1} \in H$, H is a subgroup.

This contradicts that $a \in G - H$.

So, $aH \cap H = \emptyset$.

Theorem: The order of each element in a finite group G is a divisor of $o(G)$.

Proof: Let G be a finite group and $a \in G$. The cyclic group $\langle a \rangle$ is a subgroup of G . By Lagrange's theorem, $o(\langle a \rangle)$ is a divisor of $o(G)$.

But $o(a) = o(\langle a \rangle)$.

$\therefore o(a)$ is a divisor of $o(G)$.