MATH 433
Applied Algebra
Lecture 29:
Cosets.
Lagrange's Theorem.

## Cosets

Definition. Let $H$ be a subgroup of a group $G$. A coset (or left coset) of the subgroup $H$ in $G$ is a set of the form $a H=\{a h: h \in H\}$, where $a \in G$. Similarly, a right coset of $H$ in $G$ is a set of the form $H a=\{h a: h \in H\}$, where $a \in G$.

Theorem Let $H$ be a subgroup of $G$ and define a relation $R$ on $G$ by $a R b \Longleftrightarrow a \in b H$. Then $R$ is an equivalence relation.
Proof: We have $a R b$ if and only if $b^{-1} a \in H$.
Reflexivity: aRa since $a^{-1} a=e \in H$.
Symmetry: $a R b \Longrightarrow b^{-1} a \in H \Longrightarrow a^{-1} b=\left(b^{-1} a\right)^{-1} \in H$
$\Longrightarrow b R a$. Transitivity: $a R b$ and $b R c \Longrightarrow b^{-1} a, c^{-1} b \in H$ $\Longrightarrow c^{-1} a=\left(c^{-1} b\right)\left(b^{-1} a\right) \in H \Longrightarrow a R c$.

Corollary The cosets of the subgroup $H$ in $G$ form a partition of the set $G$.

Proof: Since $R$ is an equivalence relation, its equivalence classes partition the set $G$. Clearly, the equivalence class of $g$ is $g H$.

## Examples of cosets

- $G=\mathbb{Z}, H=n \mathbb{Z}$.

The coset of $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ is $[a]_{n}=a+n \mathbb{Z}$, the congruence class of a modulo $n$.

- $G=\mathbb{R}^{3}, H$ is the plane $x+2 y-z=0$. $H$ is a subgroup of $G$ since it is a subspace. The coset of $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}, z_{0}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$ is the plane $x+2 y-z=x_{0}+2 y_{0}-z_{0}$ parallel to $H$.
- $G=S(n), H=A(n)$.

There are only 2 cosets, the set of even permutations $A(n)$ and the set of odd permutations $S(n) \backslash A(n)$.

- $G$ is any group, $H=G$.

There is only one coset, $G$.

- $G$ is any group, $H=\{e\}$.

Each element of $G$ forms a separate coset.

## Lagrange's Theorem

The number of elements in a group $G$ is called the order of $G$ and denoted $o(G)$. Given a subgroup $H$ of $G$, the number of cosets of $H$ in $G$ is called the index of $H$ in $G$ and denoted [G:H].

Theorem (Lagrange) If $H$ is a subgroup of a finite group $G$, then $o(G)=[G: H] \cdot o(H)$. In particular, the order of $H$ divides the order of $G$.

Proof: For any $a \in G$ define a function $f: H \rightarrow a H$ by $f(h)=a h$. By definition of $a H$, this function is surjective. Also, it is injective due to the left cancellation property: $f\left(h_{1}\right)=f\left(h_{2}\right) \Longrightarrow a h_{1}=a h_{2} \Longrightarrow h_{1}=h_{2}$.
Therefore $f$ is bijective. It follows that the number of elements in the coset $a H$ is the same as the order of the subgroup $H$. Since the cosets of $H$ in $G$ partition the set $G$, the theorem follows.

## Corollaries of Lagrange's Theorem

Corollary 1 If $G$ is a finite group, then the order of any element $g \in G$ divides the order of $G$.

Proof: The order of $g \in G$ is the same as the order of the cyclic group $\langle g\rangle$, which is a subgroup of $G$.

Corollary 2 If $G$ is a finite group, then $g^{o(G)}=e$ for all $g \in G$.
Proof: We have $g^{n}=e$ whenever $n$ is a multiple of $o(g)$. By Corollary $1, o(G)$ is a multiple of $o(g)$ for all $g \in G$.

## Corollaries of Lagrange's Theorem

Corollary 3 (Fermat's Little Theorem) If $p$ is a prime number then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \bmod p$ for any integer $a$ that is not a multiple of $p$.
Proof: $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \bmod p$ means that $[a]_{p}^{p-1}=[1]_{p}$. $a$ is not a multiple of $p$ means that $[a]_{p}$ is in $G_{p}$, the multiplicative group of invertible congruence classes modulo $p$. It remains to recall that $o\left(G_{p}\right)=p-1$ and apply Corollary 2.

Corollary 4 (Euler's Theorem) If $n$ is a positive integer then $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \bmod n$ for any integer a coprime with $n$.
Proof: $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \bmod n$ means that $[a]_{n}^{\phi(n)}=[1]_{n}$. $a$ is coprime with $n$ means that the congruence class $[a]_{n}$ is in $G_{n}$. It remains to recall that $o\left(G_{n}\right)=\phi(n)$ and apply Corollary 2.

## Corollary 5 Any group $G$ of prime order $p$ is cyclic.

Proof: Take any element $g \in G$ different from $e$. Then $o(g) \neq 1$, hence $o(g)=p$, and this is also the order of the cyclic subgroup $\langle g\rangle$. It follows that $\langle g\rangle=G$.

Corollary 6 Any group $G$ of prime order has only two subgroups: the trivial subgroup and $G$ itself.

Proof: If $H$ is a subgroup of $G$ then $o(H)$ divides $o(G)$. Since $o(G)$ is prime, we have $o(H)=1$ or $o(H)=o(G)$. In the former case, $H$ is trivial. In the latter case, $H=G$.

Corollary 7 The alternating group $A(n), n \geq 2$, consists of $n!/ 2$ elements.

Proof: Indeed, $A(n)$ is a subgroup of index 2 in the symmetric group $S(n)$. The latter consists of $n!$ elements.

Theorem Let $G$ be a cyclic group of finite order $n$. Then for any divisor $d$ of $n$ there exists a unique subgroup of $G$ of order $d$, which is also cyclic.
Lemma Suppose that an element $g$ has finite order $m$. Then for any integer $\ell \neq 0$ the power $g^{\ell}$ has order $m / \operatorname{gcd}(\ell, m)$.
Proof: Let $N$ be a positive integer. Then $\left(g^{\ell}\right)^{N}=g^{\ell N}$. Hence $\left(g^{\ell}\right)^{N}=e$ if and only if $\ell N$ is divisible by $m$. The smallest number $N$ with this property is $m / \operatorname{gcd}(\ell, m)$.
Proof of the theorem: We have $G=\langle g\rangle$, where $o(g)=n$. Take any divisor $d$ of $n$. By Lemma, $o\left(g^{n / d}\right)=d$. Therefore a cyclic group $H=\left\langle g^{n / d}\right\rangle$ has order $d$.
Now assume $H^{\prime}$ is another subgroup of $G$ of order $d$. The group $H^{\prime}$ is cyclic since $G$ is cyclic. We have $H^{\prime}=\left\langle g^{k}\right\rangle$ for some $k \neq 0$. By Lemma, $o\left(g^{k}\right)=n / \operatorname{gcd}(k, n)$. On the other hand, $o\left(g^{k}\right)=d$. It follows that $\operatorname{gcd}(k, n)=n / d$. We know that $\operatorname{gcd}(k, n)=a k+b n$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $g^{n / d}=g^{a k+b n}=g^{k a} g^{n b}=\left(g^{k}\right)^{a}\left(g^{n}\right)^{b}=\left(g^{k}\right)^{a} \in\left\langle g^{k}\right\rangle=H^{\prime}$. Hence $H=\left\langle g^{n / d}\right\rangle \subset H^{\prime}$. But $o(H)=o\left(H^{\prime}\right)=d$. Thus $H^{\prime}=H$.

