

UNIT-III

COSETS & NORMAL SUBGROUPS

Outline of Presentation

- **Definition & Examples of Cosets**
 - **Properties of Cosets**
 - **Index of a Subgroup**
 - **Order of an element**
 - **Normal Subgroup**
 - **Quotient Group**

Definition: Let H be a subgroup of a group (G, o) . If $a \in G$ then the subset aoH of G defined by

$$aoH = \{ aoh : h \in H \}$$

is called a **left coset of H** in G determined by element $a \in G$.

Similarly, the subset $Ho a$ of G defined by

$$Ho a = \{ hoa : h \in H \}$$

is called a **right coset of H** in G determined by element $a \in G$.

Note that (i) Cosets are not subgroups in general!

(ii) If e is the identity of $(G, .)$ and H is subgroup of G then H itself is a left as well as right coset.

(iii) If $(G, +)$ is a group under addition and H is a subgroup of G .

For $a \in G$

$$a + H = \{ a + h : h \in H \}$$

$$H + a = \{ h + a : h \in H \}$$

are left coset and right coset respectively.

(iv) If (G, o) is an Abelian group then left coset of G is same as right coset of G , i.e., $aoH = Hoa$

Examples:

1. Suppose $G = \{1, -1, i, -i\}$ is a group under operation multiplication, where $i^2 = -1$.

$H = \{1, -1\}$ is a subgroup of G .

The right coset of H in G are $H.1, H.(-1), H(i), H(-i)$, where

$$H.1 = \{1.1, (-1).1\} = H$$

$$H.(-1) = \{1.(-1), (-1)(-1)\} = \{-1, 1\} = H$$

$$H.i = \{1.i, (-1).i\} = \{i, -i\}$$

$$H.(-i) = \{1.(-i), (-1)(-i)\} = \{-i, i\}$$

2. Suppose $G = \mathbb{Z}$, the set of integers is a group under addition.

$H = 2\mathbb{Z}$, the set of even integers is a subgroup of \mathbb{Z}

$$H = \{ 0, \pm 2, \pm 4, \pm 6, \pm 8, \dots \}$$

$$H + 0 = \{ h + 0 : h \in H \} = \{ h : h \in H \} = H$$

$$H + 1 = \{ h + 1 : h \in H \} = \{ \pm 1, \pm 3, \pm 5, \dots \}$$

$$H + 2 = \{ h + 2 : h \in H \} = \{ 0, \pm 2, \pm 4, \pm 6, \pm 8, \dots \}$$

$$H + 3 = \{ h + 3 : h \in H \} = \{ \pm 1, \pm 3, \pm 5, \dots \}$$

Hence, the only distinct right cosets of H in G are H and $H + 1$.

Properties of Cosets:

1.Theorem: If G is an abelian group and $a \in G$ then $aH = Ha$.

Proof: Let $x \in Ha$. Then $x = ha$ for some $h \in H$.

As $h \in H \Rightarrow h \in G$. Again, $a \in G$ and G is abelian, $ha = ah$

$\Rightarrow x = ah$ for some $h \in H$.

$\Rightarrow x \in aH$.

Thus, $Ha \subseteq aH$

Similarly, if $x \in aH$. Then $x = ah$ for some $h \in H$.

As $h \in H \Rightarrow h \in G$. Again, $a \in G$ and G is abelian,

we have, $ah = ha \Rightarrow x = ha$ for some $h \in H$.

$\Rightarrow x \in Ha$. Thus, $aH \subseteq Ha$. Hence, $aH = Ha$.

2.Theorem: If H is a subgroup of G and $a, b \in G$, then

- (i) $Ha = H$ if and only if $a \in H$
- (ii) $aH = H$ if and only if $a \in H$
- (iii) $Ha = Hb$ if and only if $ab^{-1} \in H$
- (iv) $aH = bH$ if and only if $a^{-1}b \in H$.

Proof: (i) Firstly, suppose $Ha = H$.

As H is subgroup of G , so $e \in H$

Thus, $ea \in Ha \Rightarrow a \in Ha \Rightarrow a \in H$.

Hence, $Ha = H \Rightarrow a \in H$.

Conversely, suppose $a \in H$. To prove $Ha = H$.

Let $x \in Ha \Rightarrow x = ha$ for some $h \in H$.

Now, $h, a \in H \Rightarrow ha \in H \Rightarrow x \in H$.

This shows that $x \in Ha \Rightarrow x \in H$

$$\Rightarrow Ha \subseteq H. \quad \dots\dots\dots(\text{eq. 1})$$

Now, take $x \in H$. Given $a \in H \Rightarrow xa^{-1} \in H$.

$$\Rightarrow (xa^{-1})a \in Ha \Rightarrow x(a^{-1}a) \in Ha$$

$$\Rightarrow x.e \in Ha \Rightarrow x \in Ha$$

This proves that if $x \in H \Rightarrow x \in Ha \Rightarrow H \subseteq Ha$. $\dots\dots\dots(\text{eq. 2})$

From eq. (1) & (2), we have $Ha = H$.

(ii) Proof is similar to (i).

(iii) Firstly, suppose $Ha = Hb$.

Now $e \in H$, as H is a subgroup of $G \Rightarrow ea \in Ha, a \in Ha$

$$\Rightarrow a \in Hb, \text{ since } Ha = Hb$$

$$\Rightarrow a = hb \text{ for } h \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow ab^{-1} = (hb)b^{-1} = h(bb^{-1}) = he = h$$

Thus, $ab^{-1} \in H$.

Conversely, suppose $ab^{-1} \in H$.

Therefore, $ab^{-1} = h$ for some $h \in H$.

$$\Rightarrow (ab^{-1})b = hb \Rightarrow a(b^{-1}b) = hb \Rightarrow a = hb.$$

Thus, $Ha = H(hb) = (Hh)b = Hb$.

(iv) Proof is similar to (iii).

3. Theorem: If H is a subgroup of G and $a, b \in G$, then

(i) $a \in Hb$ if and only if $Ha = Hb$

(ii) $a \in bH$ if and only if $aH = bH$.

Proof: (i) Suppose $a \in Hb$.

$$\text{Then } ab^{-1} \in (Hb)b^{-1}$$

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

$$\Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in He = H$$

$$\Rightarrow Hab^{-1} = H$$

$$\Rightarrow (Hab^{-1})b = Hb$$

$$\Rightarrow Ha(b^{-1}b) = Hb$$

$$\Rightarrow Hae = Hb \Rightarrow Ha = Hb.$$

Conversely, let $Ha = Hb$. Now $e \in H$, as H is a subgroup of G .

$$\Rightarrow ea \in Ha \Rightarrow a \in Ha,$$

$$\text{But } Ha = Hb \Rightarrow a \in Hb.$$

(ii) Proof is similar to (i)

4. Theorem: Prove that any two right(left) cosets of a subgroup are either disjoint or identical.

Proof: Let H be a subgroup of a group G and $a, b \in G$.

Let Ha and Hb be two right cosets of H in G .

We have to show that either $Ha = Hb$ or $Ha \cap Hb = \emptyset$.

Case 1: If $Ha \cap Hb = \emptyset$, then nothing to prove.

Case 2: Let $Ha \cap Hb \neq \emptyset$. We have to show that $Ha = Hb$.

Since $Ha \cap Hb \neq \emptyset$, so there exist atleast one element

$$x \in Ha \cap Hb$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in Ha \ \& \ x \in Hb$$

$$\Rightarrow x = h_1a \text{ for some } h_1 \in H \ \& \ x = h_2b \text{ for some } h_2 \in H$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Thus, } h_1 a = h_2 b &\Rightarrow h_1^{-1}(h_1 a) = h_1^{-1}(h_2 b) \\
&\Rightarrow (h_1^{-1} h_1) a = (h_1^{-1} h_2) b \\
&\Rightarrow ea = h_3 b, \text{ where } h_3 = (h_1^{-1} h_2) \in H \\
&\Rightarrow a = h_3 b \Rightarrow Ha = H(h_3 b) = (Hh_3)b = Hb
\end{aligned}$$

since $Hh_3 = H$.

Hence, $Ha = Hb$.

Thus, if $Ha \cap Hb \neq \emptyset$, then $Ha = Hb$.

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

5.Theorem : The group G is equal to the union of all right cosets of H in G .

Proof: Let e, a, b, c, \dots be elements of G and $H = He, Ha, Hb, Hc, \dots$ are right cosets of H in G . We have to show that

$$G = H \cup Ha \cup Hb \cup Hc \cup \dots$$

Let $x \in G$ and xH be a right coset of H in G .

Now $ex \in Hx$, (since $e \in G$ and H is a subgroup of G).

Thus, $x \in Hx \Rightarrow x \in H \cup Ha \cup Hb \cup Hc \cup \dots \cup Hx \cup \dots$

Therefore,

$$G \subset H \cup Ha \cup Hb \cup Hc \cup \dots \quad (1)$$

Conversely, suppose Ha is any right coset of H in G , where $a \in G$.

Let $x \in Ha \Rightarrow x = ha$ for some $h \in H$. As $H \subset G \Rightarrow h \in G$.

Also $a \in G \Rightarrow ha \in G \Rightarrow x \in G$.

Therefore, $x \in Ha \Rightarrow x \in G$.

Hence,

$$Ha \subset G \Rightarrow \bigcup_{a \in G} Ha \subset G.$$

$$\Rightarrow H \cup Ha \cup Hb \cup Hc \cup \dots \subset G \quad \dots\dots(2)$$

From (1) & (2), we have

$$G = H \cup Ha \cup Hb \cup Hc \cup \dots \dots \dots$$

6.Theorem: There is one-to-one correspondence between any two left cosets of H in G .

Proof: Let aH and bH be two left cosets of H in G for $a, b \in H$.

Define a map $f: aH \rightarrow bH$ by $f(ah) = bh \quad \forall ah \in aH$.

f is one-to-one map: Let $x, y \in aH$ such that $f(x) = f(y)$.

Since $x, y \in aH \Rightarrow x = ah_1, y = ah_2$ for some $h_1, h_2 \in H$.

Thus, $f(x) = f(y) \Rightarrow f(ah_1) = f(ah_2) \Rightarrow bh_1 = bh_2$

$\Rightarrow bh_1 = bh_2 \Rightarrow h_1 = h_2$ by left cancellation laws.

$\Rightarrow ah_1 = ah_2 \Rightarrow x = y \Rightarrow f$ is one-to-one.

f is onto map: Let $y \in bH \Rightarrow y = bh$ for some $h \in H$.

Suppose $x = ah$. Since $h \in H \Rightarrow ah \in aH \Rightarrow x \in aH$

where $x = ah \in aH$. Thus, f is onto map.

Therefore, f is one-to-one and onto map.

Hence, aH and bH are in one-one correspondence.

7.Theorem: There is one-to-one correspondence between any two right cosets of H in G .

Proof: Same as in theorem 6 by using right cosets in place of left cosets.

8.Theorem: There is one-to-one correspondence between the set of all left cosets of H in G and the set of right cosets of H in G .

Proof: Let $L = \{aH: a \in G\}$ and $M = \{Ha: a \in G\}$

Define a map $f: L \rightarrow M$ by $f(aH) = Ha^{-1} \forall a \in G$.

If $a \in G$ then $a^{-1} \in G$ and hence $Ha^{-1} \in M$, so f is a map from L to M .

f is well-defined: Let $a, b \in G$ such that $aH = bH$

$$\Leftrightarrow a^{-1}b \in H \Leftrightarrow Ha^{-1}b = H \Leftrightarrow (Ha^{-1}b)b^{-1} = Hb^{-1}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow Ha^{-1}(bb^{-1}) = Hb^{-1} \Leftrightarrow Ha^{-1}e = Hb^{-1}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow Ha^{-1} = Hb^{-1} \Leftrightarrow f(aH) = f(bH).$$

Thus, f is well-defined.

f is one-one map: The proof follows from reverse steps of f is well-defined.

f is onto map: Let $Ha \in M$ be arbitrarily.

As $a \in G \Rightarrow a^{-1} \in G \Rightarrow a^{-1}H \in L$ such that

$f(a^{-1}H) = H(a^{-1})^{-1} = Ha$. Thus, f is onto map.

Hence, $f : L \rightarrow M$ is one-to-one and onto map.

Definition: (Index of Subgroup)

The number of distinct left or right cosets of a subgroup H in group G is called the **index of H in G** and is denoted by $[G:H]$

Definition: (Order of an element)

Let a be an element of a group G . If there exists a positive integer such that $a^n = e$, then a is said to have finite order and the smallest such positive n such that $a^n = e$ is called the **order of a** and is denoted by $O(a)$.

If there does not exist a positive integer n such that $a^n = e$, then a is said to have **infinite order or the order does not exist**.

If $(G, +)$ is an additive group and a is an element of G then n is called order of an element a if n is a smallest +ve integer such that

$$na = a + a + a + \cdots (n - \text{times}) + a = 0$$

Example: In group $(G, +_6)$, the order of each element exists.

Here $G = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$.

The order of 0, $O(0) = 1$, $O(1) = 6$,

$$O(2) = 3, O(3) = 2, O(4) = 3, O(5) = 6$$

Lagrange's Theorem:

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

Proof: Let G be a group of finite order n . Let H be a subgroup of G and let $O(H) = m$. Suppose $h_1, h_2, h_3, h_4, \dots, h_m$ be m distinct elements of H . Suppose $a \in G$, Ha is a right coset of H in G and we have

$$Ha = \{ h_1 a, h_2 a, h_3 a, \dots, h_m a \}$$

Ha has m distinct elements, (since if

$$h_i a = h_j a, \quad 1 \leq i, j \leq m, i \neq j$$

By using right cancellation laws, $h_i = h_j$, a contradiction.)

Hence, each right coset of H in G has m distinct members. Any two distinct right cosets of H in G are disjoint. Since G is a finite group, the number of distinct right cosets of H in G will be finite, say equal to k . The union of these k distinct right cosets of H in G is equal to G .

Thus, if $Ha_1, Ha_2, Ha_3, \dots, Ha_k$ are distinct right cosets of H in G , then

$$G = Ha_1 \cup Ha_2 \cup Ha_3 \cup \dots \cup Ha_k$$

Therefore, Number of elements in G

$$= \text{the number of elements in } Ha_1 + \text{number of elements in } Ha_2 \\ + \dots + \text{the number of elements in } Ha_k$$

(since two distinct right cosets are mutually disjoint)

This implies that $O(G) = km \Rightarrow n = km \Rightarrow k = \frac{n}{m}$

Thus, m is a divisor of n .

This shows that $O(H)$ is a divisor of $o(G)$.

Hence, the theorem.

Converse of the Lagrange's theorem is not true.

e.g. The alternating group A_4 of degree 4 is of order 12. But there is no subgroup of A_4 of order 6, although 6 is a divisor of 12.

Definition (Normal Subgroups)

A subgroup H of G is called a **normal subgroup** of G if every left coset of H in G is equal to the corresponding right coset of H in G .

i.e., $aH = Ha$, for all $a \in G$.

Note that (i) If $(G,+)$ is an additive group and H is called normal subgroup of G iff $a + H = H + a$ for all $a \in G$.

(ii) If G is an Abelian group then every subgroup H of G is a normal subgroup.

(iii) The subgroups $\{e\}$ and G of any group G are always normal subgroups of G . These are called trivial normal subgroups.

Theorem: A subgroup H of G is a normal subgroup of G if and only if $ghg^{-1} \in H \forall h \in H, g \in G$.

Proof: Firstly, suppose H is a normal subgroup of G .

Therefore, $gH = Hg \forall g \in G$.

Let $h \in H, g \in G$. Then $gh \in gH = Hg \Rightarrow gh \in Hg$.

This implies that $gh = h_1g$ for some $h_1 \in H$

$\Rightarrow ghg^{-1} = h_1 \in H \Rightarrow ghg^{-1} \in H$.

Conversely, suppose H is a subgroup of G such that

$ghg^{-1} \in H \forall h \in H, g \in G$.

We have to show that H is a normal subgroup,

i.e., $aH = Ha \forall a \in G$.

Let $a \in G$. Then by given condition

$$aha^{-1} \in H \quad \forall h \in H.$$

Suppose $ah \in aH$. Then

$$aH = (aHa^{-1})a \in Ha \Rightarrow ah \in Ha \Rightarrow aH \subset Ha \dots (1)$$

Again, let $b = a^{-1} \in G$.

Then by given condition $bhb^{-1} \in H$.

$$\text{But } bhb^{-1} = a^{-1}h(a^{-1})^{-1} = a^{-1}ha \in H.$$

Let $ha \in Ha$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} ha &= (aa^{-1})ha = a(a^{-1}ha) \in aH \\ &\Rightarrow ha \in aH \Rightarrow Ha \subset aH \dots \dots (2) \end{aligned}$$

From (1) and (2), we get $aH = Ha \quad \forall a \in G$

Hence, H is a normal subgroup of G .

Theorem: Let H be subgroup of a group G . Then the following are equivalent:

$$(i) \quad ghg^{-1} \in H, \quad \forall g \in G, h \in H.$$

$$(ii) \quad gHg^{-1} = H, \quad \forall g \in G.$$

$$(iii) \quad gH = Hg \quad \forall g \in G.$$

Proof: $(i) \Rightarrow (ii)$ Given $ghg^{-1} \in H, \quad \forall g \in G, h \in H$.

Let $ghg^{-1} = h_1 \quad \forall h_1 \in H, \Rightarrow gHg^{-1} = H \quad \forall g \in G$.

$(ii) \Rightarrow (iii)$ Given $gHg^{-1} = H, \quad \forall g \in G$

$$\Rightarrow (gHg^{-1})g = Hg, \quad \forall g \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow gH(g^{-1}g) = Hg, \quad \forall g \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow gHe = Hg, \quad \forall g \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow gH = Hg, \quad \forall g \in G$$

$$(iii) \Rightarrow (i) \quad \text{Given} \quad gH = Hg, \quad \forall g \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow gh = h_1g \quad \forall h, h_1 \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow ghg^{-1} = h_1 \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow ghg^{-1} \in H.$$

Hence, the theorem.

Ex: If H is a subgroup of G of index 2 in G then H is normal subgroup of G .

Solu: Let H be a subgroup of G such that $[G:H]=2$. Thus, the number of distinct cosets(left or right) of H in G is 2.

We have to show that H is a normal subgroup of G .

It is enough to show that $aH = Ha \forall a \in G$.

Case I: If $a \in H \Rightarrow aH = H = Ha$. Hence, H is a normal subgroup of G .

Case II: If $a \notin H \Rightarrow aH \neq H, Ha \neq H$.

Also, $[G:H] = 2, H \cup aH = G = H \cup Ha$
 $\Rightarrow aH = Ha$.

From Case(I) and Case (II), we have $aH = Ha \forall a \in G$.

Hence, H is a normal subgroup of G.

Quotient Group

Definition: Let H be normal subgroup of group G.

Consider the set G/H , where

$$G/H = \{ aH : a \in G \},$$

the set G/H of all the left(right) cosets of H in G. Define an operation of composition as $(aH)(bH) = abH$.

Then G/H forms a group under the composition and group is known as **Quotient Group**.

Theorem: Let H be normal subgroup of G . Then the set G/H of all the left(right) cosets of H in G forms a group under the composition defined by $(aH)(bH) = abH$.

Proof: Let H be normal subgroup of group G .

Then the set $G/H = \{ aH : a \in G \}$

For $aH, bH \in G/H$ Define the composition in G/H as

$$(aH)(bH) = abH$$

To show that the above composition is well-defined.

$$\text{Let } aH = cH \text{ \& } bH = dH \quad \forall c, d \in G$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } aH = cH &\Rightarrow c^{-1}a \in H \Rightarrow c^{-1}a = h_1 \quad \forall h_1 \in H \\ &\Rightarrow a = ch_1 \quad \forall h_1 \in H \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $aH = cH \Rightarrow a = ch_1 \quad \forall h_1 \in H$.

Similarly, $bH = dH \Rightarrow b = dh_2 \quad \forall h_2 \in H$.

Hence, the composition is well-defined if $(aH)(bH) = (cH)(dH)$
if $abH = cdH$ if $(ab)(cd)^{-1} \in H$.

To show G/H is a group, let $aH, bH, cH \in G/H \quad \forall a, b, c \in G$.

Closure Property: $aH bH = abH \in G/H$ since $ab \in G$.

Associativity: $(aH \cdot bH)cH = (abH)(cH) = (ab)cH = a(bc)H$
(since $a(bc) = (ab)c \quad \forall a, b, c \in G$)
 $= aH(bcH) = aH(bH \cdot cH)$.

Existence of Identity: Let $e \in G$, $eH \in G/H$

$$(aH)(eH) = aeH = aH = eaH = eHaH.$$

Thus, $eH = H$ is identity element of G/H

Existence of Inverse: For $aH \in G/H$ we have $a \in G \Rightarrow a^{-1} \in G$

$$\Rightarrow a^{-1}H \in G/H$$

$$\begin{aligned}(aH)(a^{-1}H) &= aa^{-1}H = eH = H = He = a^{-1}aH \\ &= (a^{-1}H)(aH)\end{aligned}$$

Thus, $a^{-1}H$ is the inverse of $aH \in G/H$

Hence, G/H forms a group.
