

Cosets and the orders of subgroups

Even though we can't define the quotient group G/H for every subgroup $H \leq G$, we showed that the left cosets still form a partition of G . For $|G|$ finite, this gives an easy proof of Lagrange's Theorem:

Thm: (Lagrange's theorem) If G is a finite group and $H \leq G$, $|H|$ divides $|G|$, and $\frac{|G|}{|H|}$ is the number of left cosets of H in G .

Pf: Let $g \in G$, and consider the coset gH .

Define the function $f: H \rightarrow gH$ by $h \mapsto gh$.

f is surjective by definition of gH , and if $gh = gh'$, then $h = h'$, so f is also injective. Thus, $|H| = |gH|$, so all cosets have the same # of elements.

Since they partition G , $|G| = |H| \cdot d$, where $d = \#$ of cosets. \square

In the case of infinite groups, it's possible for a subgroup to have a finite # of cosets:

e.g. $n\mathbb{Z} \leq \mathbb{Z}$ has n left cosets.

Def: If G is any group (possibly infinite) and $H \leq G$, the number of left cosets of H in G is called the index of H in G and is denoted $[G:H]$.

Ex: $H = \{(a, 0) \mid a \in \mathbb{Z}\} \leq \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} = G$

The cosets are $\mathbb{Z} \times \{0\}$, $\mathbb{Z} \times \{1\}$, $\mathbb{Z} \times \{2\}$, so $[G:H] = 3$.
 $(0,0)+H$ $(0,1)+H$ $(0,2)+H$

$$G/H \cong \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}.$$

Ex: Let $H \leq G$ be a subgroup of index 2.

Then for any $g \notin H$, $\{gH, 1H\}$ are the left cosets of H .

Similarly, the right cosets are Hg and $H1$.

Thus, $\forall g \in G - H$, $gH = Hg$. If $g \in H$, $gH = 1H = H = H1 = Hg$.

$\Rightarrow gH = Hg \forall g \in G \Rightarrow H \trianglelefteq G$. That is, every subgroup of index 2 is normal.

Note: The index is also equal to the # of right cosets. So while every subgroup has the same # of left and right cosets (HW) they are only equal if the subgroup is normal.

The converse to Lagrange's Thm is not true. i.e.

it's not always true that G will have a subgroup of

every order that divides $|G|$, but we can give a partial converse now (we'll see another in the next chapter).

Cauchy's Theorem: If G is a finite abelian group and p is a prime dividing $|G|$, then G contains an element of order p (and thus a subgroup of order p).

Pf: We will prove this by induction on the order of G .

Assume it's true for every group whose order is less than $|G|$.

Since $|G| > 1$, $\exists x \in G$ s.t. $x \neq 1$. If $|G| = p$ then $|x| = p$ by Lagrange's Theorem, and we're done. Thus, assume $|G| > p$.

Suppose p divides $|x|$ and write $|x| = pn$. Then $|x^n| = \frac{pn}{(pn, n)} = p$, and we're done.

Thus, assume p doesn't divide $|x|$. Let $N = \langle x \rangle$.

G is abelian, so $N \trianglelefteq G$. By Lagrange's Thm $|G/N| = \frac{|G|}{|N|}$.

Since $N \neq 1$, $|G/N| < |G|$. p doesn't divide $|N|$, so p divides $|G/N|$.

By induction, G/N contains an element yN of order p .

$yN \neq 1N$, so $y \notin N$, but $y^p \in N$. Thus $\langle y^p \rangle \neq \langle y \rangle$.

$\Rightarrow |y^p| < |y| \Rightarrow |y^p| = \frac{|y|}{(y, p)}$ But $(y, p) \neq 1$, so $p \mid |y|$. Thus,

we are done by an argument above. \square

The idea here is that we could use the fact that G has a normal subgp to deduce something about G from G/N . This is a common approach in algebra. An obvious obstruction to this is if G has no normal subgps other than 1 and G . This is called a simple group.

Products of subgroups

Def: Let H and K be subgroups of G . Define

$$HK = \{hk \mid h \in H, k \in K\}.$$

Note that $H \subseteq HK$ and $K \subseteq HK$, but HK is not necessarily a subgroup of G — e.g. $\langle(12)\rangle\langle(23)\rangle = \{1, (12), (23), (123)\}$, which has order 4 and is thus not a subgroup of S_3 .

If G is abelian, then $(hk)(h'k')^{-1} = (hh'^{-1})(kk'^{-1}) \in HK$, so

$HK \leq G$. In fact, it is a subgroup in a more general setting:

Thm: $HK \leq G \iff HK = KH$.

Pf: If $HK \leq G$, then $\forall h \in H, k \in K$, we know

$h \cdot 1 = h \in HK$ and $1 \cdot k = k \in HK$, so $kh \in HK$. Thus

$$KH \subseteq HK.$$

For the reverse containment, if $hk \in HK$, then $(hk)^{-1} \in HK$,
so $(hk)^{-1} = h_1 k_1$, some $h_1 \in H, k_1 \in K$

Thus $hk = (h_1 k_1)^{-1} = k_1^{-1} h_1^{-1} \in KH$. So $HK = KH$.

For the converse, assume $HK = KH$.

Let $a, b \in HK$. We want to show $ab^{-1} \in HK$

Let $a = h_1 k_1, b = h_2 k_2$. Then $ab^{-1} = h_1 \underbrace{k_1 k_2^{-1} h_2^{-1}}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ KH = HK}} = h_1 h_3 k_3 \in HK$.
 $\Rightarrow HK \leq G$. \square

(Note that $HK = KH$ does not mean elements of H commute w/ elements of K . It just means we can write hk as $h'k'$, for some $k' \in K, h' \in H$.)

Cor: If $K \trianglelefteq G$, then $HK \leq G$ for any $H \leq G$.

Pf: Assume $K \trianglelefteq G$. $HK = \bigcup_{h \in H} hK = \bigcup_{h \in H} Kh = KH$. $\Rightarrow HK \leq G$. \square
normality!

If G is finite, how many elements does HK have?

HK is the union of cosets, but some of those cosets may be

equal.

$$h_1 K = h_2 K \Leftrightarrow h_1 = h_2 k, \text{ some } k \in K$$

$$\Leftrightarrow h_2^{-1} h_1 \in K.$$

$$\Leftrightarrow h_2^{-1} h_1 \in H \cap K \Leftrightarrow h_1 (H \cap K) = h_2 (H \cap K).$$

So the number of distinct cosets in the union is

$$\frac{|H|}{|H \cap K|} \text{ by Lagrange's theorem. Since each coset}$$

has $|K|$ elements,

$$|HK| = \frac{|H||K|}{|H \cap K|}.$$