

## Lecture 16

Tuesday, 6/9/2022

Note Title

9/5/2022

Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $H \leq G$ .

For  $a, b \in G$ , we can consider  $a^{-1}b$ ,  $b^{-1}a$ ,  $ab^{-1}$ ,  $ba^{-1}$

Case I: We define a relation  $\sim_L$  in  $G$  as follows:

$$a \sim_L b \text{ if } a^{-1}b \in H$$

(equivalently,  $b^{-1}a \in H$ )  
( $H \leq G$ , so  $a^{-1}b \in H \Leftrightarrow b^{-1}a \in H$ ).

Clearly,  $\sim_L$  is an equivalence relation.

For  $a \in G$ , the equivalence class containing 'a'

$$= \{b \in G \mid a \sim_L b\} = \{b \in G \mid a^{-1}b \in H\} = \{b \in G \mid b \in aH\},$$

$$\text{Here, } aH = \{a \cdot h \mid h \in H\} = aH.$$

- $aH$  is called the left coset of  $H$  containing 'a'.

Case II: For  $a, b \in G$ , we define  $a \sim_R b$  if  $ab^{-1} \in H$ .  
(equivalently,  $b a^{-1} \in H$ )

In this case, the equivalence class containing 'a'

$$= \{b \in G \mid a \sim_R b\} = \{b \in G \mid b \sim_R a\} = \{b \in G \mid b a^{-1} \in H\} \\ = \{b \in G \mid b \in Ha\} = Ha, \text{ where } Ha = \{h \cdot a \mid h \in H\}$$

- $Ha$  is called the right coset of  $H$  containing 'a'.

- Since left cosets / right cosets are equivalence classes, so we have: For any  $a, b \in G$ , either  $aH = bH$  or  $aH \cap bH = \emptyset$ .  
Also,  $Ha = Hb$  or  $Ha \cap Hb = \emptyset$ .

Theorem 1: Let  $H$  be a subgroup of  $G$ . Then,  
 $\# \{aH \mid a \in G\} = \# \{Ha \mid a \in G\}$ .

Proof: Define  $\phi: \{aH \mid a \in G\} \longrightarrow \{Ha \mid a \in G\}$ .  
 $\phi(aH) = Ha^{-1}$ .

①  $\phi$  is well-defined: Let  $aH = bH$ . Then,  $b^{-1}a \in H$   
 $\Rightarrow a^{-1}b \in H \Rightarrow (a^{-1})(b^{-1})^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow Ha^{-1} = Hb^{-1} \Rightarrow \phi(aH)$   
 $= \phi(bH)$ .  
 $\therefore \phi$  is well-defined.

②  $\phi$  is 1-1:  $\phi(aH) = \phi(bH) \Rightarrow Ha^{-1} = Hb^{-1} \Rightarrow (a^{-1})(b^{-1})^{-1} \in H$   
 $\Rightarrow a^{-1}b \in H \Rightarrow aH = bH$ .  $\therefore \phi$  is 1-1.

③ It is clear that  $\phi$  is onto. Hence,  $\phi$  is a bijection.  $\#$

Definition: (Index of a subgroup): For  $H \leq G$ , the index of  $H$  in  $G$  is defined as the cardinality of  $\{aH \mid a \in G\}$  or as the cardinality of  $\{Ha \mid a \in G\}$ , and we denote it by  $[G:H]$ .

$$\therefore [G:H] = \#\{Ha \mid a \in G\} = \#\{aH \mid a \in G\}.$$

Ex: Let  $n \geq 1$ . Then,  $\{a + n\mathbb{Z} \mid a \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{n\mathbb{Z}, 1+n\mathbb{Z}, \dots, (n-1)+n\mathbb{Z}\}$ ,

Thus,  $n\mathbb{Z}$  has  $n$  distinct right (left) cosets in  $\mathbb{Z}$  and

$$\text{hence } [\mathbb{Z}:n\mathbb{Z}] = n.$$

Ex: In case of  $G = (\mathbb{R}, +)$  and  $H = \mathbb{Z}$ , the set of distinct right (left) cosets is  $\{x + \mathbb{Z} \mid x \in [0, 1)\}$ .

Theorem 2: Let  $G$  be a group, and  $H \leq G$ . Then, for  $a, b \in G$ ,  
 $\#Ha = \#Hb$ , that is,  $|Ha| = |Hb|$ . Same is true for left cosets.

Proof:  $\psi: Ha \rightarrow Hb$  given by  $\psi(ha) = hb$  is a bijection.

Theorem 3 (Lagrange Theorem): #

Let  $G$  be a finite group, and  $H \leq G$ . Then,  $|H|$  divides  $|G|$ .

Proof: Let  $a_1H, a_2H, \dots, a_mH$  be the distinct left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$ .

Then,  $G = a_1H \cup a_2H \cup \dots \cup a_mH$  and  $a_iH \cap a_jH = \emptyset$  if  $i \neq j$ .

$$\Rightarrow |G| = |a_1H| + |a_2H| + \dots + |a_mH| = |H| + \dots + |H| = m \cdot |H|$$

$$\Rightarrow |H| \text{ divides } |G|. \text{ Also, } m = [G:H] = \frac{|G|}{|H|}, \quad \#$$

## § Application of Lagrange theorem:

① Let  $G$  be a finite group. Then,  $o(a) \mid |G|$  for every  $a \in G$

Proof: We have,  $o(a) = |\langle a \rangle|$ . But,  $|\langle a \rangle|$  divides  $|G|$ , and hence  $o(a) \mid |G|$ .

② If  $|G| = n$ , then  $a^n = e \quad \forall a \in G$ .

Proof: Let  $o(a) = k$ . Then, by (i),  $k \mid n$ . Let  $n = km$ .

Then,  $a^n = a^{km} = (a^k)^m = e$ .

③ Fermat's little theorem: Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $p$  is a prime.

If  $p \nmid a$ , then  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

Proof: Let  $p$  be a prime. Then,  $U(p) = \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$  is a group

under multiplication modulo  $p$ . If  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $p \nmid a$ , then  $a \pmod{p} \in U(p)$ . We have  $|U(p)| = p-1$ .

By Lagrange theorem,  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

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(iv) Euler's generalization: Let  $n \geq 2$ . Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  be such that  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ . Then,  $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ .

Proof:  $U(n) = \{x \mid 1 \leq x \leq n, \gcd(n, x) = 1\}$  is a group under multiplication modulo  $n$ , and  $|U(n)| = \phi(n)$ .

If  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ , then  $a \pmod{n} \in U(n)$ .

Hence, by Lagrange theorem,  $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ .

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(v) Every group of prime order is cyclic.

Proof: Let  $|G| = p$ , where  $p$  is a prime number.

Let  $a \in G$  and  $a \neq e$ . Then,  $O(a) \mid |G|$ , that is,  $O(a) \mid p$ .  
 $\Rightarrow O(a) = 1$  or  $p$ . Since  $a \neq e$ , so  $O(a) > 1$ .

$\therefore O(a) = p \Rightarrow a$  is a generator of  $G$ .  
Hence,  $G$  is cyclic.

We have proved that, every  $a \neq e$  is a generator of  $G$  if  $|G|$  is a prime.

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