# Cosets!

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With many thanks to Matthew Macauley, http://www.math.clemson.edu/~macaule/

10 Feb 2025

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# Goals for today:

- 1. Define what cosets are
- 2. See some examples

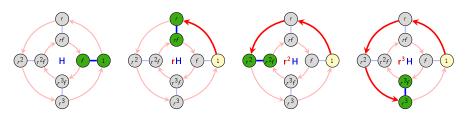
Definition time!

# Definition time! (soon)

Vibes-based explanation (not a definition)

Let  $H \leq G$ . A coset of H is a shifted copy of H somewhere else in G.

Example: consider  $H = \langle f \rangle < D_4$ .



(Of course, only one of these is actually a subgroup; the others don't contain the identity.) How do you shift to get from original H to each of these shifted copies?

## Left cosets, and how to find them

To find the left coset xH in a Cayley graph, carry out the the following steps:

- 1. starting from the identity, follow a path to get to x ("shift by x")
- 2. from x, follow all "H-paths".

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# Definition time! (actually)

### Definition

If H < G, then a left coset is a set

$$xH = \{xh \mid h \in H\},\$$

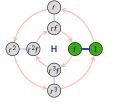
for some fixed  $x \in G$  called the representative. Similarly, we can define a right coset as

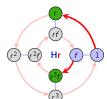
$$Hx = \{hx \mid h \in H\}.$$

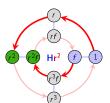
## Left vs. right cosets

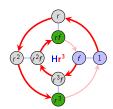
- The left coset rH in  $D_4$ : first shift by r, then traverse all "H-paths".
- The right coset Hr in  $D_4$ : first traverse all H-paths, then shift by r.

Let's look at the right cosets of  $H = \langle f \rangle$  in  $D_4$ .



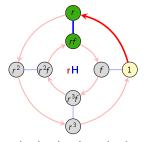




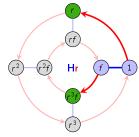


# Left vs. right cosets

- The **left coset** rH in  $D_4$ : first go to r, then traverse all "H-paths".
- The right coset Hr in  $D_4$ : first traverse all H-paths, then traverse the r-path.



$$rH = r\{1, f\} = \{r, rf\} = rf\{f, 1\} = rfH$$



$$rH = r\{1, f\} = \{r, rf\} = rf\{f, 1\} = rfH \qquad \qquad Hr = \{1, f\}r = \{r, r^3f\} = \{f, 1\}r^3f = Hr^3f$$

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Because of our convention that arrows in a Cayley graph represent right multiplication:

- left cosets look like copies of the subgroup,
- right cosets are usually "scattered."

# Key point

Left and right cosets are generally different.

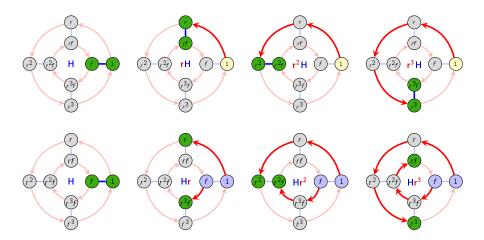
# Overview of left and right cosets of $\langle f \rangle$

### Definition

Let  $H \leq G$ . Given  $x \in G$ , its left coset xH and right coset Hx are:

$$xH = \{xh \mid h \in H\}, \qquad Hx = \{hx \mid h \in H\}.$$

$$Hx = \{hx \mid h \in H\}$$



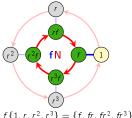
Your turn!

#### Your turn!

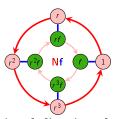
Find all the left and right cosets of a different subgroup,  $N = \langle r \rangle$ .

## Reminder: finding left vs right cosets

- Left coset xN: first shift by x, then traverse all N-paths
- $\blacksquare$  Right coset Nx: first traverse all N-paths, then shift by x



$$fN = f\{1, r, r^2, r^3\} = \{f, fr, fr^2, fr^3\}$$



$$Nf = \{1, r, r^2, r^3\}f = \{f, rf, r^2f, r^3f\}$$

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## Observations?

■ There are multiple representatives for the same coset:

$$fN = (rf)N = (r^2f)N = (r^3f)N$$
,  $Nf = N(rf) = N(r^2f) = N(r^3f)$ .

■ For this subgroup, each left coset is a right coset. Such a subgroup is called normal.

# Your turn!

### Now try:

- The other cyclic subgroups of  $D_4$
- $K = \langle r^2, f \rangle \leq D_4$

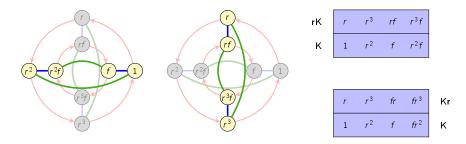
### Observations?

- Cosets never overlap
- All the cosets are always the same size as the original subgroup
- Cosets always cover the whole group
- Any time there are just two cosets, each left coset is a right coset

# Equality of sets vs. equality of elements

### Caveat!

An equality of cosets xK = Kx as sets does not imply (or require) an equality of elements xk = kx.



rK and Kr are the same as sets, even though the elements occur in a different order.

Properties of cosets!

# Basic properties of cosets

The following results are "visually clear" from the Cayley graphs, but let's now prove them:

## Proposition

Each (left) coset can have multiple representatives: if  $b \in aH$ , then aH = bH.

#### Proof

Since  $b \in aH$ , we can write b = ah, for some  $h \in H$ . That is,  $h = a^{-1}b$  and  $a = bh^{-1}$ .

To show that aH = bH, we need to verify both  $aH \subseteq bH$  and  $aH \supseteq bH$ .

"⊆": Take  $ah_1 \in aH$ . We need to write it as  $bh_2$ , for some  $h_2 \in H$ . By substitution,

$$ah_1 = (bh^{-1})h_1 = b(h^{-1}h_1) \in bH.$$

"⊇": Pick  $bh_3 \in bH$ . We need to write it as  $ah_4$  for some  $h_4 \in H$ . By substitution,

$$bh_3=(ah)h_3=a(hh_3)\in aH.$$

Therefore, aH = bH, as claimed.

# Corollary (boring but useful)

The equality xH = H holds if and only if  $x \in H$ . (And analogously, for Hx = H.)

# Basic properties of cosets

## Proposition

For any subgroup  $H \leq G$ , the (left) cosets of H partition the group G: every element  $g \in G$  lives in exactly one coset of H.

#### Proof

We know that the element  $g \in G$  lies in a (left) coset of H, namely gH. Uniqueness follows because if  $g \in kH$ , then gH = kH.

## **Proposition**

All (left) cosets of H < G have the same size.

### Proof

It suffices to show that |xH| = |H|, for any  $x \in H$ .

Define a map

$$\phi: H \longrightarrow xH$$
,  $h \longmapsto xh$ .

It is elementary to show that this is a bijection.

Lagrange's theorem!

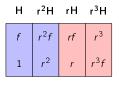
# Lagrange's theorem

#### Remark

For any subgroup  $H \leq G$ , the left cosets of H partition G into subsets of equal size.

The right cosets also partition G into subsets of equal size, but they may be different.

Let's compare these two partitions for the subgroup  $H = \langle f \rangle$  of  $G = D_4$ .





## Definition

The index of a subgroup H of G, written [G:H], is the number of distinct left (or equivalently, right) cosets of H in G.

## Lagrange's theorem

If H is a subgroup of finite group G, then  $|G| = [G : H] \cdot |H|$ .

# Funny historical aside

#### Guess who proved Lagrange's theorem. Not Lagrange!

- Lagrange, 1771: if a polynomial in n variables has its variables permuted in all n! ways, the number of different polynomials that are obtained is always a factor of n!.
  - What does this have to do with cosets?
  - Take  $H \le S_n$  to be the set of permutations that fix the polynomial.  $n! = |S_n| = [S_n : H] \cdot |H|$ .
  - The number of different polynomials is the number of cosets of H, aka the index  $[S_n : \hat{H}]$ .
  - $\blacksquare$  So: true for special subgroups of  $S_n$ .
- Gauss, 1801: the special case of subgroups of  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$
- Cauchy, 1844: true for any subgroup  $H < S_n$
- Jordan, 1861: true for any subgroup H of a permutation group
  - (so, now it's true for subgroups of subgroups of  $S_n$ )
- Cavley, 1854: every group is a permutation group

Importantly: Lagrange would not have had the words "index," "coset," "group."

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#### The tower law

## Proposition

Let G be a finite group and  $K \leq H \leq G$  be a chain of subgroups. Then

$$[G:K] = [G:H][H:K].$$

Here is a "proof by picture":

$$[G:H] = \#$$
 of cosets of  $H$  in  $G$ 

$$[H:K] = \#$$
 of cosets of  $K$  in  $H$ 

$$[\mathit{G}:\mathit{K}] = \#$$
 of cosets of  $\mathit{K}$  in  $\mathit{G}$ 

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	z <sub>1</sub> K	z <sub>2</sub> K	z <sub>3</sub> K		z <sub>n</sub> K
	i	į		·	:
	a <sub>1</sub> K	a <sub>2</sub> K	a <sub>3</sub> K		a <sub>n</sub> K
	K	h <sub>o</sub> K	h <sub>o</sub> K		b K

## Proof

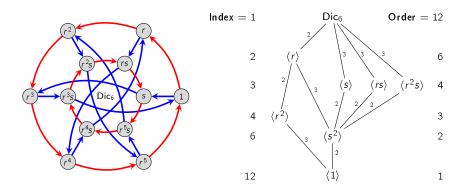
By Lagrange's theorem,

$$[G:H][H:K] = \frac{|G|}{|H|} \cdot \frac{|H|}{|K|} = \frac{|G|}{|K|} = [G:K].$$

#### The tower law

Another way to visualize the tower law involves subgroup lattices.

It is often helpful to label the edge from H to K in a subgroup lattice with the index [H:K].



## The tower law and subgroup lattices

For any two subgroups  $K \le H$  of G, the index of K in H is just the *products of the edge labels* of any path from H to K.

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Normal subgroups!

# Normal subgroups and normalizers

Given a subgroup H of G, it is natural to ask the following question:

"How many left cosets of H are right cosets?"



Partition of G by the left cosets of H



Partition of G by the right cosets of H

- "Best case" scenario: all of them
- "Worst case" scenario: only H
- In general: somewhere between these two extremes

#### Definition

A subgroup H is a normal subgroup of G if gH = Hg for all  $g \in G$ . We write  $H \subseteq G$ .

The normalizer of H, denoted  $N_G(H)$ , is the set of elements  $g \in G$  such that gH = Hg:

$$N_G(H) = \{ g \in G \mid gH = Hg \},\$$

i.e., the union of left cosets that are also right cosets.

# Examples of normal sugroups

We've seen cases where we know a subgroup will be normal without having to check.

1. The subgroup H=G is always normal in G. The only left coset is also the only right coset:

$$eG = G = Ge$$

2. The subgroup  $H = \{e\}$  is always normal. The left and right cosets are singleton sets:

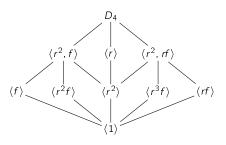
$$gH = \{g\} = Hg.$$

- 3. Subgroups H of index 2 are normal. The two cosets (left or right) are H and G-H.
- 4. Subgroups of abelian groups are always normal, because for any  $H \leq G$ ,

$$aH = \{ah \mid h \in H\} = \{ha \mid h \in H\} = Ha.$$

- 5. The center Z(G) is always normal, for the same reason as above.
- 6. Relatedly, any subgroup of Z(G) is always normal.

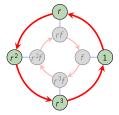
# Normal subgroups in $D_4$

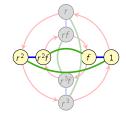


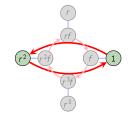
From our explorations, we found:

- $\langle r \rangle \triangleleft D_4$  (because it has index 2!)

- $\langle r^2 \rangle \triangleleft D_4$  (because it is  $Z(D_4)!$ )







The end!