## Physics 220, Lecture 2

• Last time: left cosets gH of subgroup  $H \subset G$ , is the set of all gh for  $h \in H$ . Note that gH is not a group, it does not contain the identity element. Note also that it contains the same number of elements as H: |gH| = |H|, and none of its elements are in H. Suppose that we take a G element g' that is neither in H nor in gH, then the coset g'H is also of order |H|, and none of its elements are in H or gH. Eventually, each and every G element fits into some coset, so we can decompose  $G = H + g_1H + \ldots g_{m-1}H$ . Likewise for right cosets. This shows that |H| = |G|/m with m an integer.

Examples for  $S_3$ . Take  $H_1 = \{e, a_1, a_2\}$  the  $Z_3$  cyclic subgroup. Then  $G = H_1 + a_3 H_1$ , where the coset  $a_3H_1 = \{a_3, a_4, a_5\}$ . Now consider  $H_2$  one of the  $Z_2$  subsets, say  $H_2 = \{e, a_3\}$ . Then  $G = H_2 + a_4H_2 + a_5H_2$ , with  $a_4H_2 = \{a_4, a_2\}$  and  $a_5H_2 = \{a_5, a_1\}$ . Note that  $a_3H_1 = H_1a_3$ , but  $a_4H_2 \neq H_2a_4$ . For  $H_2$ , left and right cosets differ.

• Normal or invariant subgroups H: gH = Hg for all  $g \in G$ . For example, the  $Z_3 \subset S_3$  is normal, whereas the  $Z_2 \subset S_3$  is not. Similarly,  $D_2$  is a normal subgroup of  $S_4$ .

• Factor group G/H is a legit subgroup of G if (though perhaps not only if) H is normal. For example,  $S_3/Z_3 = Z_2$ .

• Conjugacy classes: sets S such that  $g^{-1}Sg = S$  for all  $g \in G$ . For abelian groups, each element is in its own conjugacy class. For every group e is in its own conjugacy class.  $S_3$  example of conjugacy classes.

Normal subgroups contain complete conjugacy classes, e.g.  $Z_3 \subset S_3$  and  $D_2 \subset S_4$ (where  $C_2 = (12)(34)$ ,  $C_a = (13)(24)$ ,  $C_b = (14)(23)$ .)

•  $D_n$  and its conjugacy classes. Let's call the  $D_n$  elements  $C_n^k$ , for  $k = 1, \ldots n -$ (with  $C_n^n = e$ ), and  $R_k$ .  $D_3 \cong S_3$  has classes:  $e; C_3, C_3^2; R_1, R_2, R_3$ .  $D_4$  has classes:  $e; C_4, C_4^3; C_4^2; R_1, R_3; R_2, R_4$ . Generally,  $D_{n=2p}$  has e and  $C_{2p}^p$  each in their own class, the remaining *n*-fold rotations form p - 1 classes with 2 elements in each class, and the 2-fold elements  $R_k$  form 2 classes of p elements each; the total is (n+6)/2 classes. For  $D_{n=2p+1}$ , all 2-fold elements  $R_k$  are in the same class, e forms a class, and the remaining n fold rotations give p classes with 2 elements each; the total is (n+3)/2 classes.

• General  $S_n$ . Write elements in terms of permutations, e.g. e = (1)(2)...(n); general element as  $k_j$  j-cycles, with  $\sum_{j=1}^n jk_j = n$ , e.g.  $S_8$  has an element (123)(47)(568). Conjugacy class contains all elements with given choice of  $k_j$ , e.g.  $S_8$  element is together with all  $k_2 = 1$ ,  $k_3 = 2$  elements. Some examples: in  $S_4$ , conjugating (23) by (12) gives (13); conjugating (234) by (12) gives (134) etc.

Such a class has  $n! / \prod_j j^{k_j} k_j!$  elements.

Define  $\lambda_j \equiv \sum_{i=j}^n k_j$ , so  $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots$  and  $\sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j = n$ . The different conjugacy classes are thus related to the different partitions of n. Draw diagrams with n boxes, with  $\lambda_1$  in the first row,  $\lambda_2$  in the second, etc.

 $S_4$  example of conjugacy classes, with 1, 6, 3, 8, 6 elements.

• product groups:  $G = H_1 \dots H_n$  if elements  $h_i \in H_i$  commute for  $i \neq j$  and each  $g \in G$  can uniquely be written as  $g = h_1 \dots h_n$ . Follows that each  $H_i$  must be invariant subgroup of G. Example:  $Z_6 = Z_2 \times Z_3$ .