

Lecture 27

We are going to start with the conjugacy classes in S_n .

Recall that conjugacy classes are just orbits for the conjugate action of a group onto itself. In a previous lecture we saw the conjugates and conjugacy classes in S_3 . Here, we want to see conjugates and conjugacy classes in S_n . So let's start with some examples and try to analyze the situation there.

Recall that any $\sigma \in S_n$ can be written as a product of disjoint cycles. So we'll only work w/ disjoint cycles.

Examples :-

Consider S_7 and let $\tau = (125)(43)$.

Let's find what the conjugate action of τ on some $\sigma \in S_7$ is.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Note that } \tau^{-1} &= ((125)(43))^{-1} = (43)^{-1}(125)^{-1} \\ &= (43)(152)\end{aligned}$$

i) Let $\sigma = (375)$. Then $\tau \cdot \sigma = \tau \sigma \tau^{-1}$

$$\begin{aligned}\tau \sigma \tau^{-1} &= (125)(43)(375)(43)(152) \\ &= (147) = (471)\end{aligned}$$

Note that $\tau \sigma \tau^{-1}$ is again a 3-cycle. Moreover, the entries of $\tau \sigma \tau^{-1}$ are just the images of the entries of σ under τ as $\tau(3)=4$

$$\tau(7)=7$$

$$\tau(5)=1$$

(ii) $\sigma = (1754)(23)$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Then } \tau\sigma\tau^{-1} &= (125)(43)(1754)(23)(43)(125) \\ &= (2713)(524)\end{aligned}$$

Again, $\tau\sigma\tau^{-1}$ has the same cycle type decomposition as σ and the entries in $\tau\sigma\tau^{-1}$ are just the images of the entries in σ under τ .

Let's change τ and see if the same thing happens or not. Suppose $\tau = (1543)$

$$i') \sigma = (375). \text{ Note that } \tau^{-1} = (1345)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Then } \tau\sigma\tau^{-1} &= (1543)(375)(1345) \\ &= (741) = (174)\end{aligned}$$

Again $\tau\sigma\tau^{-1}$ has the same cycle type as σ and the entries in $\tau\sigma\tau^{-1}$ are just the images of entries in σ under τ .

$$\text{ii') } \sigma = (1754)(23)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\tau\sigma\tau^{-1} &= (1543)(1754)(23)(1345) \\ &= (5743)(21)\end{aligned}$$

Again $\tau\sigma\tau^{-1}$ has the same cycle type as σ and the entries in $\tau\sigma\tau^{-1}$ are just the images of entries in σ under τ .

All this examples basically tell us that given $\sigma \in S_n$, any conjugate to σ has the same cycle decomposition type as σ and we can explicitly find the entries too. More precisely,

Theorem 1 Let $\sigma \in S_n$. Then If $\tau \in S_n$, $\tau\sigma\tau^{-1}$ has the same cycle decomposition type as σ . Moreover the entries of $\tau\sigma\tau^{-1}$ are obtained by just writing the images of corresponding entries

of σ under τ .

Proof:- Suppose

$$\sigma = (a_1 a_2 \dots a_n) (b_1 b_2 \dots b_m) \dots$$

In order to prove the theorem, we just need to show that $i j$ for $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

$$\sigma(i) = j \text{ then}$$

$\tau \circ \tau^{-1}$ sends $\tau(i)$ to $\tau(j)$, so then we just replace the entries in σ by their images under τ which will also keep the same cycle decomposition type.

Now $\tau \circ \tau^{-1}(\tau(i)) = \tau \sigma(i) = \tau(j)$
 $\Rightarrow \tau \circ \tau^{-1}$ sends $\tau(i)$ to $\tau(j)$ and hence the theorem is proved.

□

So now we know that any conjugate of σ

has the same cycle decomposition type as σ .

Is the converse true? , i.e., any $\alpha \in S_n$ which has the same cycle decomposition type as σ is conjugate to σ which is to say that must there be a $\tau \in S_n$ s.t. $\alpha = \tau \sigma \tau^{-1}$?

It's enough to give an algorithm for finding τ , once we are given α and σ .

Again let $\alpha, \sigma \in S_7$, $\alpha = (1235)$ and $\sigma = (1374)$. We want to find a $\tau \in S_7$ s.t. $\tau \sigma \tau^{-1} = \alpha$. We follow the following algorithm:-

- 1) Write both α and σ as a product of disjoint cycles and write the cycles in increasing order of their lengths. We must include the 1-cycles too.

2) From Theorem 1, we know that if σ and α were conjugates then the entries of α are just the images of the corresponding entries of σ under T . So, for finding T we reverse-engineer! i.e., look at the corresponding entries in σ and α and write T as that permutation which will make Theorem 1 work. Let's see an example to understand this fact.

Following 1), we write α and σ as follows

$$\begin{array}{c} \sigma \\ (2)(5)(6)(1374) \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \alpha \\ (4)(6)(7)(1235) \end{array}$$

i.e., we write σ and α in increasing order of the lengths of the cycle, including the 1-cycles.

Since there are more than one 1-cycle, it doesn't matter in which order you write them.

Now if $\alpha = \tau \sigma \tau^{-1}$ then from Theorem 1,

τ should send

$$\begin{aligned} 2 &\mapsto 4 \\ 5 &\mapsto 6 \\ 6 &\mapsto 7 \\ 1 &\mapsto 1 \\ 3 &\mapsto 2 \\ 7 &\mapsto 3 \\ 4 &\mapsto 5 \end{aligned}$$

writing that as cycles $\tau = (245673)$

and one can check that indeed $\tau \sigma \tau^{-1} = \alpha$.

Let's see another example.

Let $\sigma, \alpha \in S_9$. $\sigma = (15)(349)(682)$

and $\alpha = (23)(896)(517)$

We want to find $\tau \in S_9$ s.t. $\tau \sigma \tau^{-1} = \alpha$.

We follow 1) and 2) of the algorithm:-

σ

$$(7)(15)(349)(682)$$

 α

$$(4)(23)(896)(517)$$

Note, again that we have written the 1-cycle too and it doesn't matter in which order you write the two 3-cycles. They might give different τ 's but all them will satisfy $\tau\sigma\tau^{-1} = \alpha$. So we get that

There can be many τ in S_n s.t. $\tau\sigma\tau^{-1} = \alpha$ for a given σ and α in S_n .

Now we do 2).

τ must send $7 \rightarrow 4, 1 \rightarrow 2, 5 \rightarrow 3, 3 \rightarrow 8, 4 \rightarrow 9,$
 $9 \rightarrow 6, 6 \rightarrow 5, 8 \rightarrow 1, 2 \rightarrow 7$, so

$\tau = (749653812)$ and one can check that
 $\tau\sigma\tau^{-1} = \alpha$.

In fact, there is nothing special with these examples and the same procedure will work for

any S_n , giving

Theorem 2 If $\sigma, \alpha \in S_n$ have the same cycle decomposition type, then they are conjugate to each other, i.e., $\exists \tau \in S_n$ s.t. $\tau \sigma \tau^{-1} = \alpha$. Moreover, τ can be explicitly found by following the procedures in the algorithm.

So combining Theorem 1 and 2, we get the following important result:-

Let $\sigma \in S_n$. Then $\alpha \in S_n$ is conjugate to σ , i.e., $\alpha \in O_\sigma$ if and only if σ and α have the same cycle decomposition type.

So for example if $G = S_5$ and $\sigma = (1234)$

then all other 4-cycles are conjugate to σ and only 4-cycles are conjugate to σ . Thus

$$|O_\sigma| = \# \text{ of } 4\text{-cycles}.$$

But the number of 4 cycles are $\frac{5_{C_4} \times 4!}{4}$

$$= \frac{\frac{5!}{4!} \times 4!}{4} = \frac{5!}{4} = \frac{5 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1}{4} = 30$$

So, $|O_\sigma| = 30$. But from the O-S Theorem,

$|S_5| = |O_\sigma| |\text{Stab}(\sigma)|$ and for the conjugation action, $\text{Stab}(\sigma) = C(\sigma) \rightarrow$ centralizer of σ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{thus we get , } |C(\sigma)| &= \frac{|S_5|}{|O_\sigma|} = \frac{5!}{30} \\ &= \frac{5!}{\frac{5_{C_4} \times 4!}{4}} \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{5! \times 4}{5C_4 \times 4!} = 4$$

But if you follow the argument above, then there was nothing special about S_5 or a 4-cycle.

Let $\sigma \in S_n$ be an m -cycle. Then from Theorem 1 and 2, all m -cycles in S_n are the only conjugates to σ

$$\Rightarrow |O_\sigma| = \frac{nC_m \times m!}{m} = \frac{n!}{\frac{m! \times (n-m)!}{m}} \times m!$$

$$= \frac{n \cdot (n-1) \cdots (n-m+1)}{m}$$

So

$$|O_\sigma| = \frac{n \cdot (n-1) \cdots (n-m+1)}{m}$$

and hence from the O-S Theorem, we get that

$$|C(\sigma)| = \frac{|S_n|}{|\text{Or}_\sigma|} = \frac{n!}{\frac{n \cdot (n-1) \cdots (n-m+1)}{m}} = m \cdot (n-m)!$$

Thus for any m -cycle σ in S_n

$$|C(\sigma)| = m \cdot (n-m)!$$

————— x ————— x —————

Finally, we want to prove Cauchy's Theorem for any group, using group action. Earlier, we proved Cauchy's Theorem for abelian groups only.

Theorem [Cauchy] Let G be a finite group and let p be a prime s.t. $p \mid |G|$. Then G has an element of order p .

Proof :-> Consider the set X

$$X = \left\{ (g_1, g_2, \dots, g_p) \in \underbrace{G \times G \times \dots \times G}_{p\text{-times}} \mid g_1 g_2 \dots g_p = e \right\}$$

i.e., we are considering those p -tuples in
 $\underbrace{G \times G \times \dots \times G}_{p\text{-times}}$ s.t. their ordered product = e .

Note that p is the same prime as in the hypothesis of the theorem. Also, \because each $g_i \in G$, $1 \leq i \leq p$, we are just multiplying them together and getting e .

Now $\underbrace{(e, e, \dots, e)}_{p\text{-times}} \in X \Rightarrow X \neq \emptyset$.

Also, if $(g_1, \dots, g_p) \in X$ then there are $|G|$ choices for g_1 , $|G|$ choices for $g_2, \dots, |G|$ choices for g_{p-1} . However, since $g_1 g_2 \dots g_p = e$

$$\Rightarrow g_p = (g_1, g_2, \dots, g_{p-1})^{-1} \Rightarrow g_p \text{ has}$$

only one choice, once we have chosen g_1, \dots, g_{p-1} .

Thus, $|X| = |G|^{p-1}$. Since $p \mid |G| \Rightarrow$

$$p \mid |X| \quad \text{--- } ①$$

Consider an action of \mathbb{Z}_p on X by

$$1 \cdot (g_1, g_2, \dots, g_p) = (g_2, g_3, \dots, g_p, g_1)$$

i.e., if 1 acts on (g_1, g_2, \dots, g_p) then we shift the elements towards the left by 1 place.

$$\text{Similarly } 2 \cdot (g_1, g_2, g_3, \dots, g_p) = (g_3, \dots, g_p, g_1, g_2)$$

so we shift every element towards left by 2 places.

Check :- The above is a group action.

By the Orbit-Stabilizer Theorem, if $x \in X$
 $\Rightarrow |O_x| \mid |\mathbb{Z}_p|$ as \mathbb{Z}_p is acting on X .
 $\Rightarrow \forall x \in X, |O_x| = 1 \text{ or } p.$

Also, the orbits partitions $X \Rightarrow$

$$\sum_{x \in X} |O_x| = |X|$$

\therefore from ①, $p \mid |X| \Rightarrow p \mid \sum |O_x|$ — ②
 now since $|O_x|$ can have size either 1 or p
 \Rightarrow either all orbits have size p or
 if atleast one orbit has size 1 \Rightarrow there
 must be atleast p orbits w/ size 1 as only
 then ② will be satisfied.

Now w/ the above action of \mathbb{Z}_p on X

$$|O_{(e,e,\dots,e)}| = 1$$

Thus there must be atleast $(p-1)$ elements in X , not equal to (e, \dots, e) with their orbit size as 1.

If $(g_1, g_2, \dots, g_p) \in X$ w/ $|O_{(g_1, \dots, g_p)}| = 1$

$$\text{then } 1 \cdot (g_1, \dots, g_p) = (g_1, \dots, g_p)$$

$$\Rightarrow (g_2, g_3, \dots, g_p, g_1) = (g_1, \dots, g_p)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow g_2 &= g_1 \\ g_3 &= g_2 \quad \Rightarrow g_1 = g_2 = \dots = g_p = g \\ &\vdots \\ g_1 &= g_p \end{aligned}$$

(say)

$$\text{Now } (g_1, g_2, \dots, g_p) \in X \Rightarrow g_1 g_2 \cdots g_p = e$$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{g \cdot g \cdots g}_{p\text{-times}} = e \Rightarrow g^p = e$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{ord}(g) \mid p \Rightarrow \text{ord}(g) = 1 \text{ or } \text{ord}(g) = p$$

$$\text{If } \text{ord}(g) = 1 \Rightarrow g = e \Rightarrow (g_1, \dots, g_p) = (e, \dots, e)$$

which is not possible.

Thus $\text{ord}(g) = p$ and hence G has an element of order p .

1710

