

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.

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \tau\sigma\tau^{-1} &= (125)(43)(1754)(23)(43)(125) \\ &= (2713)(54) \end{aligned}$$

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 .

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

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

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 $\sigma \in \mathfrak{S}_n$, 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 $\sigma \in \mathfrak{S}_n$. Then $\forall \tau \in \mathfrak{S}_n$, $\tau\sigma\tau^{-1}$ 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 ij for $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

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

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

$$\text{Now } \tau\sigma\tau^{-1}(\tau(i)) = \tau\sigma(i) = \tau(j)$$

$\Rightarrow \tau\sigma\tau^{-1}$ 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 τ . So, for finding τ we reverse-engineer! i.e., look at the corresponding entries in σ and α and write τ 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

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

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

2	\mapsto	4
5	\mapsto	6
6	\mapsto	7
1	\mapsto	1
3	\mapsto	2
7	\mapsto	3
4	\mapsto	5

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:-

$$\sigma$$

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

$$\alpha$$

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

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 $7 \mapsto 4, 1 \mapsto 2, 5 \mapsto 3, 3 \mapsto 8, 4 \mapsto 9,$
 $9 \mapsto 6, 6 \mapsto 5, 8 \mapsto 1, 2 \mapsto 7,$ so

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

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 procedure 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., $\alpha \in O_\alpha$ 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

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

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

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

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 ,

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

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

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

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

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

So

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

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

$$|C(\sigma)| = \frac{|S_n|}{|O_\sigma|} = \frac{n!}{\underbrace{n \cdot (n-1) \cdots (n-m+1)}_m}$$

$$= m \cdot (n-m)!$$

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 \Rightarrow 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 .

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

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 $g_1 g_2 \dots g_p = e$

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

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., 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: \Rightarrow 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 at least one orbit has size 1 \Rightarrow there must be at least p orbits w/ size 1 as only them 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.

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

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

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

$$\Rightarrow g_2 = g_1$$

$$g_3 = g_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$g_1 = g_p$$

$$\Rightarrow g_1 = g_2 = \dots = g_p = g \quad (\text{say})$$

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

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

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

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

which is not possible.

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

□

