

Section 4.3 Groups Acting on Themselves by Conjugation

Recall

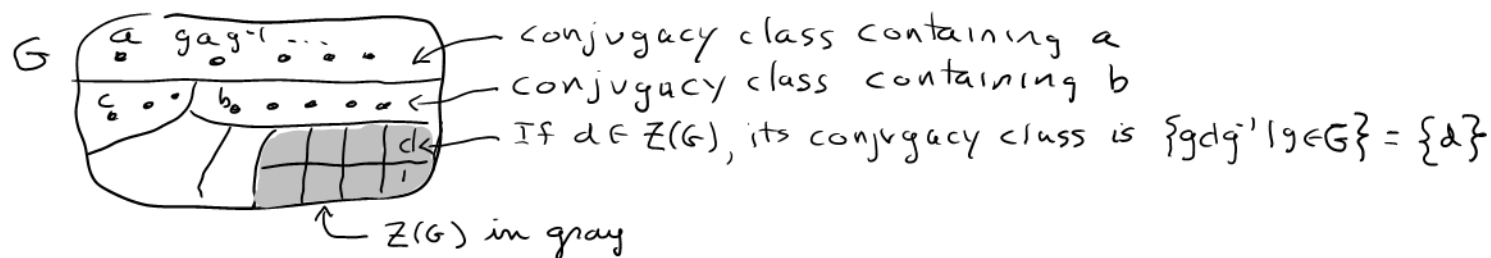
A partition of $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ is a non-decreasing sequence of positive integers that sum to n .

Example	Partitions of $n=5$
1, 1, 1, 1, 1	1, 2, 2
1, 1, 1, 2	2, 3
1, 1, 3	
1, 4	
5	

Key Idea Any group acts on the set $a = G$ by conjugation:
 $g \cdot a = gag^{-1}$ (check that this is a group action)

Elements, $a, b \in G$ are conjugate if $\exists g \in G$ with $b = gag^{-1}$
 Orbits of this action are called conjugacy classes.

Conjugacy class containing $a \in G$ is $\{gag^{-1} \mid g \in G\}$



Different conjugacy classes may have different orders,
 Proposition 2 gives their orders. It involves stabilizers.

Stabilizer of $a \in G$ is $G_a = \{g \in G \mid g \cdot a = a\} = \{g \in G \mid gag^{-1} = a\}$
 $= \{g \in G \mid ga = ag\} = C_G(a)$

Proposition 2

$$\left(\begin{array}{l} \# \text{ of elements} \\ \text{in conjugacy class} \\ \text{containing } a \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \# \text{ of elements} \\ \text{of orbit of } a \\ \text{under action} \end{array} \right) = |G : G_a| = |G : C_G(a)|$$

Consequence

Theorem 7 (The Class Equation)

If G is finite and $g_1, g_2, g_3, \dots, g_k$ are representatives distinct conjugacy classes not in $Z(G)$, then

$$|G| = |Z(G)| + \sum_{i=1}^k |G : C_G(a_i)|$$

Corollary

Theorem 8 If G has order p^α , for a prime p , then $Z(G) \neq \{1\}$

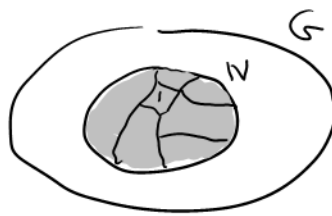
Proof By class equation $1 \leq |Z(G)| = |G| - \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^k |G : C_G(a_i)|}_{\text{each term is a multiple of } p}$

is a multiple of p , so $p \leq |Z(G)|$

Each term is a multiple of p by Lagrange's Theorem

Significant Observation

Every normal subgroup $N \trianglelefteq G$ is a union of conjugacy classes.
(Because taking conjugates of $a \in N$ does not take a outside of N)



Converse is not true: Union of conjugacy classes may not even be a subgroup!

Conjugacy in S_n

Proposition 10 If $\sigma = (a_1 a_2 a_3 \dots a_k)(b_1 b_2 \dots b_\ell) \dots \in S_n$ and $\tau \in S_n$ then $\tau \sigma \tau^{-1} = (\tau(a_1) \tau(a_2) \tau(a_3) \dots \tau(a_k)) (\tau(b_1) \tau(b_2) \dots \tau(b_\ell)) \dots$

Proof: $\sigma = (a_1 \xrightarrow{\sigma} a_2 \xrightarrow{\sigma} a_3 \dots \xrightarrow{\sigma} a_k) \dots$
 $\tau^{-1} \uparrow \quad \tau \downarrow \tau^{-1} \quad \tau \downarrow \tau^{-1} \quad \tau \downarrow \tau^{-1}$
 $\tau \sigma \tau^{-1} = (\tau(a_1) \tau(a_2) \tau(a_3) \dots \tau(a_k)) \dots$

Consequence (Two cycles are conjugate) \iff (they have the same length)

Proof (\implies) Proposition 10

(\impliedby) Given equal length cycles $\sigma = (a_1 a_2 \dots a_k)$ and $\pi = (b_1 b_2 \dots b_k)$

Take $\tau \in S_n$ with $\begin{matrix} (a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_k) \\ \tau \downarrow & \tau \downarrow & & \tau \downarrow \\ (b_1 & b_2 & & b_k) \end{matrix}$ Then $\pi = \tau \sigma \tau^{-1}$ by Proposition 10.

Example Conjugacy class of $(1, 2, 3) \in S_4$ is all 3-cycles in S_4 , i.e. $\{(1, 2, 3), (1, 3, 2), (1, 2, 4), (1, 4, 2), (1, 3, 4), (1, 4, 3), (2, 3, 4), (2, 4, 3)\}$

How does this play out with arbitrary permutations (that are not cycles)?

Definition If $\pi \in S_n$ is a product of disjoint cycles of lengths $n_1 \leq n_2 \leq n_3 \leq \dots \leq n_k$ (including cycles of length 1), then we say π has cycle type $n_1 n_2 n_3 \dots n_k$.

Example $\pi \in S_n$ $\pi = (1, 3, 2)(4)(5, 6, 7)(8, 9)$ has cycle type 1, 2, 3, 3.

Proposition 11 $\sigma, \pi \in S_n$ are conjugate in S_n if and only if they have the same cycle type. Thus number of conjugacy classes in S_n equals the number of partitions of n .

Reason: $\sigma = (1, 3, 2)(4)(5, 6, 7)(8, 9)$
 $\pi = (4, 5, 9)(3)(1, 2, 6)(7, 8)$ } $\pi = \tau \sigma \tau^{-1}$, etc.

Example: S_5 ($|S_5| = 5! = 120$)

Partitions of 5	Representative of conjugacy class with that cycle type
1 1 1 1 1	$()$ ← even
1 1 1 2	(12)
1 1 3	(123) ← even
1 4	(1234)
5	(12345) ← even
1 2 2	$(12)(34)$ ← even
2 3	$(12)(345)$

} even ones are in A_5

Computing centralizers in S_n (Useful because conjugacy class of $\pi \in S_n$ has $|S_n : C_{S_n}(\pi)|$ elements, so sometimes you need to find this number.)

Consider $\pi = (1\ 2\ 3\ \dots\ m) \in S_n$. What is $C_{S_n}(\pi)$ exactly?
 First we will find its order. Conjugacy class of π consists of all m -cycles.
 Total number of m -cycles is:

$$\binom{n}{m} m! \frac{1}{m} = \frac{n!}{m!(n-m)!} (m-1)! = \frac{n!}{m(n-m)!} = |S_n : C_{S_n}(\pi)| = \frac{n!}{|C_{S_n}(\pi)|}$$

Therefore $|C_{S_n}(\pi)| = m(n-m)!$

Using Proposition 2

Now let's find the set $C_{S_n}(\pi)$ explicitly.

Let τ be a permutationⁿ of $\{m+1, m+2, m+3, \dots, n\}$. ← $(n-m)!$ such $\tau \in S_n$

Note: $\tau \pi \tau^{-1} = \pi$

Also $\pi = \pi^{\ell} \underbrace{(\tau \pi \tau^{-1})}_{\pi} \pi^{-\ell} = \underbrace{(\pi^{\ell} \tau)}_{\pi} \pi (\pi^{\ell} \tau)^{-1}$

Conclusion: If $\pi = (1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ \dots\ m) \in S_n$ then:

$$C_{S_n}(\pi) = \{ \pi^{\ell} \tau \mid 1 \leq \ell \leq m, \tau \in S_{\{m+1, m+2, \dots, n\}} \}$$

Recall $|A_5| = \frac{5!}{2} = 60$

Theorem A_5 is simple. (i.e. has no proper nontrivial normal subgroup)

Proof Consider conjugacy classes of cycles in A_5 .

1	$(123) \leftarrow \frac{5!}{3(5-3)!} = \frac{120}{6} = 20$ of these
	$(12)(34) \leftarrow \frac{1}{2} \binom{5}{2} \binom{3}{2} = 15$ of these
	$(12345) \leftarrow \frac{1}{2} \frac{5!}{5(5-5)!} = 12$ of these
	$(13524) \leftarrow \frac{1}{2} \frac{5!}{5(5-6)!} = 12$ of these

A_5

Note: $(1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5)$
 $\downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \tau = (2\ 3\ 5\ 4)$ is odd.
 $(1\ 3\ 5\ 2\ 4)$

Thus $(1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5)$ and $(1\ 3\ 5\ 2\ 4)$ are conjugate in S_5 but not in A_5 .

A normal subgroup $N \trianglelefteq A_5$ would be a union of conjugacy classes, including $\{1\}$.

Thus $|N| = 1 + (\text{sum of some of } 20, 15, 12)$ and $|N|$ divides $|A_5| = 60$.

Only possibility is $N = \{1\}$. Thus A_5 is simple. \blacksquare