SUPPLEMENT ON THE SYMMETRIC GROUP

RUSS WOODROOFE

I presented a couple of aspects of the theory of the symmetric group S_n differently than what is in Herstein. These notes will sketch this material. You will still want to read your notes and Herstein Chapter 2.10.

1. Conjugacy

1.1. The big idea. We recall from Linear Algebra that conjugacy in the matrix $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$ corresponds to changing basis in the underlying vector space \mathbb{R}^n . Since $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$ is exactly the automorphism group of \mathbb{R}^n (check the definitions!), it's equivalent to say that conjugation in Aut \mathbb{R}^n corresponds to change of basis in \mathbb{R}^n .

Similarly, S_n is Sym[n], the symmetries of the set $[n] = \{1, \ldots, n\}$. We could think of an element of Sym[n] as being a "set automorphism" – this just says that sets have no interesting structure, unlike vector spaces with their abelian group structure. You might expect conjugation in S_n to correspond to some sort of change in basis of [n].

1.2. Mathematical details.

Lemma 1. Let $g = (\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k)$ be a k-cycle in S_n , and $h \in S_n$ be any element. Then

$$g^h = (\alpha_1 \cdot h, \alpha_2 \cdot h, \dots \alpha_k \cdot h).$$

Proof. We show that g^h has the same action as $(\alpha_1 \cdot h, \alpha_2 \cdot h, \dots, \alpha_k \cdot h)$, and since S_n acts faithfully (with trivial kernel) on [n], the lemma follows.

First: $(\alpha_i \cdot h) \cdot g^h = (\alpha_i \cdot h) \cdot h^{-1}gh = \alpha_i \cdot gh$. If $1 \leq i < m$, then $\alpha_i \cdot gh = \alpha_{i+1} \cdot h$ as desired; otherwise $\alpha_m \cdot h = \alpha_1 \cdot h$ also as desired.

Second: if β is fixed by g, then $\beta \cdot h$ is fixed by g^h , by a similar proof: $(\beta \cdot h) \cdot g^h = \beta \cdot gh = \beta \cdot h.$

Since g^h cyclicly permutes $\alpha_i \cdot h$ and fixes all other $\beta \cdot h$, our proof is complete.

Lemma 1 corresponds to change of basis, since instead of g acting on $\{1, \ldots, n\}$, we see it acting on $\{1 \cdot h, 2 \cdot h, \ldots, n \cdot h\}$. In $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$, we had a similar situation: $A^{-1}BA$ acts on $\{e_1 \cdot A, \ldots, e_n \cdot A\}$ in the same way as B acts on $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$.

There is an "if and only if" relation.

Remark 2. I will use slightly different language in these notes than I used in class, to try to bridge the difference to what Herstein does at the end of Chapter 2.11. If you're not interested in bridging with Herstein, you can skip reading the next two paragraphs without losing much.

A partition of a natural number n is a set of numbers i_1, \ldots, i_m , such that $i_1 \geq i_2 \geq \cdots \geq i_m$ and $i_1 + i_2 + \cdots + i_m = n$. A partition of a set X, as we have previously discussed, is a decomposition of X into X_1, \ldots, X_m such that $X = \bigcup X_j$. Thus, the cardinalities of the parts of the partition of X induce a partition of |X|, if taken in decreasing order.

An element $g \in S_n$ induces a partition of [n], as follows. Let $g = \prod_{i=1}^k g_i$ be the disjoint cycle decomposition. Each g_i acts by cyclic permutation on a set X_i . If an element is fixed by all cycles, add it as a singleton at the end. The induced partition of [n] is

$$[n] = (\bigcup^{\cdot} X_i) \dot{\cup} (\bigcup^{\cdot}_{\alpha \text{ a fixed point}} \{\alpha\})$$

and this induces a partition of n as

$$|X_1| + \dots + |X_k| + 1 + 1 + \dots + 1 = o(g_1) + \dots + o(g_k) + 1 + \dots + 1.$$

Returning to things as we discussed in class:

Theorem 3. Two elements of S_n are conjugate if and only if they have the same cycle structure.

(Thus, the conjugacy classes are in bijective correspondence with partitions of n!)

Proof. (\Longrightarrow): Let $g \in S_n$ have disjoint cycle decomposition $g = \prod_{i=1}^k g_i$, and let $h \in S_n$ be any other element. Then Lemma 1 tells us that g_i^h is another cycle, of the same order as g_i . Furthermore, these cycles are disjoint. Thus, the disjoint cycle decomposition of $g^h = \prod_{i=1}^k g_i^h$, which has the same cycle structure as g_i .

(\Leftarrow): We need to find an element $h \in S_n$ which sends the cycles of $g_1 \in S_n$ to the cycles of $g_2 \in S_n$. We do this as follows: write out the cycle decomposition of g_1 above that of g_2 , with the cycles in order of decreasing size; and with the fixed points at the end. Map "straight down", as illustrated:

(α_1 ,	$\alpha_2,$	· · · ,	α_k)	•()	•()	fixed points
	\downarrow	\downarrow		\downarrow			$\downarrow\downarrow$			$\downarrow\downarrow$		\downarrow .
($\beta_1,$	β_2 ,	,	β_k)	•()	•()	fixed points

So $\alpha_1 \mapsto \beta_1$, etc. This map is invertible (since the corresponding "straight up" map is its inverse), so is a bijection on [n], and so corresponds to an element $h \in S_n$. We have that $g_1^h = g_2!$

For example, (1, 2, 3)(4, 5, 6, 7) and (3, 5, 7)(1, 4, 2, 6) are conjugate in S_7 . An element (not unique) which conjugates the first to the second is the 7-cycle (1, 3, 7, 6, 2, 5, 4).

2. Transpositions

Recall that a *transposition* in S_n is a 2-cycle, i.e., a cycle of the form (i, j).

Lemma 4. Any element $g \in S_n$ can be written as the product of transpositions.

Proof. Since g can be written as a disjoint product of cycles, it suffices to write a cycle as a product of decompositions. We check that

$$(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k) = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2) \cdot (\alpha_1, \alpha_3) \cdot \dots \cdot (\alpha_1, \alpha_k)$$

is such a decomposition. Clearly, the RHS fixes any element not in the orbit of $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m)$. If we apply the RHS to α_i $(2 \le i \le m-1)$, then the first i-2 transpositions fix it, while the (i-1)st sends it to α_1 , and the *i*th sends α_1 to α_{i+1} . Similarly for α_1 and α_m .

Corollary 5. S_n is generated by its transpositions.

This is the starting point for the theory of *Coxeter groups*, or *crystallo-graphic groups*. We can look at S_n as acting on \mathbb{R}^n by permuting the basis elements $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$. Each transposition (i, j) corresponds to reflecting \mathbb{R}^n across the hyperplane $\{x_i = x_j\}$, and we get a very geometric approach to understanding S_n .

Unfortunately, Coxeter groups are beyond the scope of this course. If you are interested in knowing more about them, then Humphreys' book "Reflection Groups and Coxeter Groups" may be a good place to start.

3. Even and odd permutations

Definition 6. We define a map

sign:
$$S_n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$$

 $g \mapsto \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } g \text{ is a product of an even number of transpositions} \\ -1 & \text{if } g \text{ is a product of an odd number of transpositions}. \end{cases}$

We say that g is even if sign g = 1 (so that g is a product of an even number of transpositions), and that g is odd if sign g = -1.

The problem with this definition, is that it's not clear that sign is well-defined!

Example 7. If we tried to define $\heartsuit(g)$ as ± 1 depending on whether g is an even or odd product of 3-cycles, we would get into trouble. For example

$$(1,2,3) \cdot (3,4,5) = (1,2,4,5,3) = (1,2,3) \cdot (2,3,4) \cdot (2,5,3)$$

is both an even and odd product of 3-cycles! So $\heartsuit(q)$ is not well-defined.

Remark 8. Assuming that sign is well-defined, it is a homomorphism. For the product of two odd permutations is an even permutation, and in this case sign $gh = +1 = \text{sign } g \cdot \text{sign } h$. Similarly for even permutations, or an even and an odd.

Remark 9. This is the same sign that shows up in the definition of the determinant. In fact, one way to prove Theorem 10 below is to map S_n into $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$, mapping an element to the associated so-called "permutation matrix". The sign map is then the determinant of the permutation matrix.

This is somewhat circular, since the definition of determinant depends on sign being well-defined! And in any case, the proof of Theorem 10 given below is beautiful.

Theorem 10. The map sign g is a well-defined homomorphism $S_n \to \{\pm 1\}$.

Proof. It suffices to construct a homomorphism $\varphi : S_n \to \{\pm 1\}$ such that $\varphi((i, j)) = -1$ for any transposition (i, j). We will do this by actions on directed graphs, in a clever proof due to Cartier:

Take a vertex for every number $1 \dots n$, and put an arrow (directed edge) between each pair of vertices, as in the following examples:



FIGURE 3.1. Two examples of orientations of [4].

Call such an assignment of arrows between each pair an *orientation*. There are many orientations of [n]. If o and o' are two orientations, then a pair i, j is a *difference* if o and o' differ on the edge between i and j, i.e., if one has an edge $i \rightarrow j$ and the other $j \rightarrow i$. To measure the difference between o and o', we define the following function:

 $d(o, o') = (-1)^{\#}$ differences between o and o'.

We make some elementary claims:

Claim 11.
$$d(o, o) = 1$$

Claim 12. d(o, o') = d(o', o)

Claim 13. d(o, o')d(o', o'') = d(o, o'')

Proof. Let

e be the number of edges where o is different from both o' and o''

e'' be the number of edges where o'' is different from both o and o'. Then

$$d(o, o')d(o', o'') = (-1)^{e+e'}(-1)^{e'+e''} = (-1)^{e+e''+2e'} = (-1)^{e+e''} = d(o, o'')$$

where $(-1)^{2e'} = 1$ since $2e'$ is even.

e' be the number of edges where o' is different from both o and o''

Claim 14. The action of S_n on [n] induces an action on {orientations of [n]}, and $d(o \cdot g, o' \cdot g) = d(o, o')$.

Proof. The action on [n] sends the edge $i \to j$ to the edge $i \cdot g \to j \cdot g$, for all pairs i, j. Clearly the <u>number</u> of differences remain the same (though they are moved around). More specifically, i, j is a difference between o and o' iff $i \cdot g, j \cdot g$ is a difference between $o \cdot g$ and $o' \cdot g$.

Fix some orientation o, and let $\varphi(g) = d(o, o \cdot g)$. Intuitively, φ measures the amount that g "moves" the orientation o.

We verify that φ is a homomorphism. First, using Claim 13, we have

 $\varphi(gh) = d(o, o \cdot gh) = d(o, o \cdot g)d(o \cdot g, (o \cdot g) \cdot h) = d(o, o \cdot g)d(o \cdot g, o \cdot gh).$

Claim 14 then shows that $d(o \cdot g, o \cdot gh) = d(o, o \cdot h)$. Hence

$$\varphi(gh) = d(o, o \cdot g)d(o, o \cdot h) = \varphi(g)\varphi(h),$$

and φ is a homomorphism.

Next, we check that if (i, j) is a transposition, then $\varphi((i, j)) = d(o, o \cdot (i, j)) - 1$. Consider the following diagram:



FIGURE 3.2. Transposing i and j.

We see that (i, j) reverses the edge i, j. If the edges k, i and k, j have the same direction, then they do afterwards, and these edges add 0 differences; if the edges k, i and k, j have different directions, then they are reversed by (i, j), and these edges add 2 differences. The claim that $\varphi((i, j)) = -1$ follows since $(-1)^2 = 1$.

We have constructed a concrete, well-defined homomorphism φ which agrees with sign on a generating set, the set of transpositions. Hence φ is equal to sign on any element of S_n .

The main reason to prove Theorem 10 is its Corollary.

Definition 15. Let $A_n = \{\text{even permutations in } S_n\}.$

Corollary 16. A_n is a normal subgroup of index 2 in S_n .

Proof. $A_n = \ker \operatorname{sign}$, hence $A_n \triangleleft S_n$. By the Isomorphism Theorem,

$$S_n: A_n] = |S_n/A_n| = |\operatorname{Im}\operatorname{sign}| = 2,$$

as desired.