

## 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 Isaacs. These notes will sketch this material. You will still want to read your notes and Isaacs Chapter 6.

### 1. CONJUGACY

**1.1. The big idea.** We recall from Linear Algebra that conjugacy in the matrix  $GL_n(\mathbb{F})$  corresponds to changing basis in the underlying vector space  $\mathbb{F}^n$ . That is, if  $A$  sends each  $\mathbf{e}_i \mapsto \sum_j \alpha_j^{(i)} \mathbf{e}_j$ , and  $B$  sends  $\mathbf{e}_i \mapsto \mathbf{b}_i$  for all  $i$ , then

$$(\mathbf{b}_i) \cdot B^{-1}AB = \mathbf{e}_i \cdot AB = \left( \sum_j \alpha_j^{(i)} \mathbf{e}_j \right) \cdot B = \sum_j \alpha_j^{(i)} \mathbf{b}_j.$$

Since  $GL_n(\mathbb{F})$  is exactly the automorphism group of  $\mathbb{F}^n$ , it's equivalent to say that conjugation in  $\text{Aut } \mathbb{F}^n$  corresponds to change of basis in  $\mathbb{F}^n$ .

Similarly,  $S_n$  is  $\text{Sym}[n]$ , the symmetries of the set  $[n] = \{1, \dots, n\}$ . We can think of an element of  $\text{Sym}[n]$  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  $g = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k)$  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  $(\alpha_1 \cdot h, \alpha_2 \cdot h, \dots, \alpha_k \cdot h)$ . Since  $S_n$  acts with trivial kernel on  $[n]$ , the lemma follows.

But if  $j$  is any element of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ , then

$$(j \cdot h) \cdot h^{-1}gh = j \cdot gh.$$

In particular,  $g^h$  sends  $\alpha_i \cdot h$  to  $\alpha_i \cdot gh = \alpha_{i+1} \cdot h$ , and fixes all other elements of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ , as desired.  $\square$

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

There is an “if and only if” relation.

**Definition 2.** The *cycle structure* of a permutation  $g \in S_n$  is the unordered list of sizes of lengths of cycles in the cyclic notation for  $g$ . (The separator is often written as a plus.)

For example,  $(1, 2)(3, 5)(6, 7, 8) \in S_8$  has cycle structure  $3 + 2 + 2 + 1$ .  
Then:

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

*Proof.* ( $\implies$ ): 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  $g$ .

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

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} (\alpha_1, & \alpha_2, & \dots, & \alpha_k) & \cdot & (\dots) & \cdot & (\dots) & \text{fixed points} \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow\downarrow & & \downarrow\downarrow & \downarrow \\ (\beta_1, & \beta_2, & \dots, & \beta_k) & \cdot & (\dots) & \cdot & (\dots) & \text{fixed points} \end{array} .$$

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  $x \in S_n$ . We have that  $g^x = h$  by Lemma 1.  $\square$

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  $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m)$ . If we apply the RHS to  $\alpha_i$  ( $2 \leq i \leq m - 1$ ), then the first  $i - 2$  transpositions fix it, while the  $(i - 1)$ st sends it to  $\alpha_1$ , and the  $i$ th sends  $\alpha_1$  to  $\alpha_{i+1}$ . Similarly for  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_m$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 5.**  *$S_n$  is generated by its transpositions.*

This is the starting point for the theory of *Coxeter groups*, or *crystallographic groups*. We can look at  $S_n$  as acting on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  by permuting the basis elements  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ . 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. NORMAL SUBGROUPS IN $S_n$

**3.1. The big idea.** Recall from earlier in class that  $GL_n(\mathbb{F})$  has two interesting normal subgroups:

- $Z(GL_n(\mathbb{F}))$  can be seen to consist of all scalar multiples of the identity matrix, hence is nontrivial if  $\mathbb{F} \neq \mathbb{Z}_2$ . (It is easy to show that any such element is central; the harder part is showing that this is the entire center.)
- $SL_n(\mathbb{F}) = \ker(\det)$ , the matrices with determinant 1.

Our first observation is that there is no analogue to the first subgroup in  $S_n$ .

**Theorem 6.** *If  $n \geq 3$ , then  $Z(S_n) = 1$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $g \in S_n$  send  $\alpha$  to  $\beta$ , and let  $h$  be the transposition exchanging  $\beta$  and some  $\gamma$  distinct from  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . Then  $g^h$  sends  $\alpha$  to  $\gamma$  by Lemma 1 (and/or its proof). Since  $g$  and  $g^h$  act differently on  $\alpha$ , we have  $g^h \neq g$ , and  $g$  is not central.  $\square$

An analogue of the determinant map does exist and give an interesting normal subgroup of  $S_n$ . This is the topic of the next section.

### 4. EVEN AND ODD PERMUTATIONS

**Definition 7.** We define a map

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

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

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

**Example 8.** If we tried to define  $\heartsuit(g)$  as  $\pm 1$  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  $\heartsuit(g)$  is not well-defined.

*Remark 9.* 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  $\text{sign } gh = +1 = \text{sign } g \cdot \text{sign } h$ . Similarly for even permutations, or an even and an odd.

*Remark 10.* This is the same sign that shows up in the definition of the determinant. In fact, one way to prove Theorem 11 below is to map  $S_n$  into  $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$ , mapping an element  $g$  to the associated so-called “permutation matrix” which sends a member  $\mathbf{e}_i$  of the standard basis to  $\mathbf{e}_{i.g}$ . 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 11 given below is beautiful.

**Theorem 11.** *The map  $\text{sign } g$  is a well-defined homomorphism  $S_n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$ .*

*Proof.* It suffices to construct a homomorphism  $\varphi : S_n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$  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:

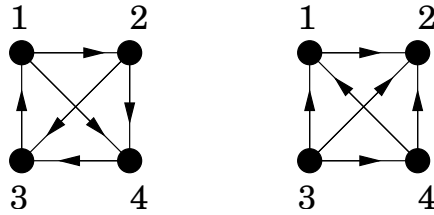


FIGURE 4.1. Two examples of orientations of  $[4]$ .

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:

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

We make some elementary claims:

*Claim 12.*  $d(o, o) = 1$

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

*Claim 14.*  $d(o, o')d(o', o'') = d(o, o'')$

*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  $o''$

$e''$  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. □

*Claim 15.* 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  $i \rightarrow j$  to the edge  $i \cdot g \rightarrow j \cdot g$ , for all pairs  $i, j$ . Clearly the number 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,  $\varphi$  measures the amount that  $g$  “moves” the orientation  $o$ .

We verify that  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism. First, using Claim 14, we have

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

Claim 15 then shows that  $d(o \cdot g, o \cdot gh) = d(o, o \cdot h)$ . Hence

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

where the last equality is because  $\{\pm 1\}$  is abelian. We have that  $\varphi$  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:

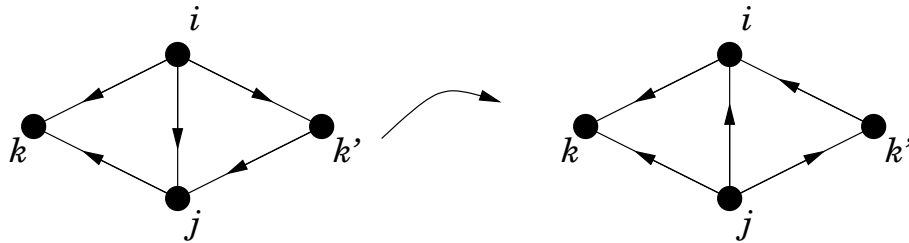


FIGURE 4.2. Transposing  $i$  and  $j$ .

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  $\varphi$  which agrees with  $\text{sign}$  on a generating set, the set of transpositions. Hence  $\varphi$  is equal to  $\text{sign}$  on any element of  $S_n$ .  $\square$

The main reason to prove Theorem 11 is its Corollary.

**Definition 16.** Let  $A_n = \{\text{even permutations in } S_n\}$ .

**Corollary 17.**  $A_n$  is a normal subgroup of index 2 in  $S_n$ .

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

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

as desired.  $\square$