

## 2.2 The centre, centralizers and conjugacy

**Definition 2.2.1.** Let  $G$  be a group with operation  $\star$ . The centre of  $G$ , denoted by  $Z(G)$  is the subset of  $G$  consisting of all those elements that commute with every element of  $G$ , i.e.

$$Z(G) = \{x \in G : x \star g = g \star x \text{ for all } g \in G\}.$$

Note that the centre of  $G$  is equal to  $G$  if and only if  $G$  is abelian.

**Example 2.2.2.** What is the centre of  $GL(n, \mathbb{Q})$ , the group of  $n \times n$  invertible matrices with rational entries (under matrix multiplication)?

**Solution (Summary):** Suppose that  $A$  belongs to the centre of  $GL(n, \mathbb{Q})$  (so  $A$  is a  $n \times n$  invertible matrix). For  $i, j$  in the range  $1, \dots, n$  with  $i \neq j$ , let  $E_{ij}$  denote the matrix that has 1 in the  $(i, j)$  position and zeros in all other positions. Then  $I_n + E_{ij} \in GL(n, \mathbb{Q})$  and

$$A(I_n + E_{ij}) = (I_n + E_{ij})A \implies A + AE_{ij} = A + E_{ij}A \implies AE_{ij} = E_{ij}A.$$

Now  $AE_{ij}$  has Column  $i$  of  $A$  as its  $j$ th column and is otherwise full of zeros, while  $E_{ij}A$  has Row  $j$  of  $A$  as its  $i$ th row and is otherwise full of zeros. In order for these two matrices to be equal for all  $i$  and  $j$ , it must be that the off-diagonal entries of  $A$  are all zero and that the entries on the main diagonal are all equal to each other. Thus  $A = aI_n$ , for some  $a \in \mathbb{Q}$ ,  $a \neq 0$ . On the other hand it is easily checked that any matrix of the form  $aI_n$  where  $a \in \mathbb{Q}$  does commute with all other matrices. Hence the centre of  $GL(n, \mathbb{Q})$  consists precisely of those matrices  $aI_n$  where  $a \in \mathbb{Q}$ ,  $a \neq 0$ .

**Note:** Matrices of this form are called *scalar* matrices, they are scalar multiples of the identity matrix.

**Exercise:** Write out an expanded version of the above proof yourself, making sure that you follow all the details. Proofs like this that involve matrix indices and the mechanism of matrix multiplication tend to be fairly concise to write down but also fairly intricate for the reader to unravel.

A key fact about the centre of a group is that it is not merely a subset but a *subgroup*. This is our first example of a subgroup that is defined by the behaviour of its elements under the group operation.

**Theorem 2.2.3.** Let  $G$  be a group. Then  $Z(G)$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .

*Proof.* We have the usual three things to show, and we must use the definition of the centre to show them.

- $Z(G)$  is closed under the operation of  $G$ .  
Suppose  $a, b \in Z(G)$ . We must show that  $ab \in Z(G)$ . That means showing that for any element  $x$  of  $G$ ,  $x$  commutes with  $ab$ . Now

$$\begin{aligned} abx &= axb \quad (bx = xb \text{ since } b \in Z(G)) \\ &= xab \quad (ax = xa \text{ since } a \in Z(G)). \end{aligned}$$

So  $abx = xab$  for all  $x \in G$ , and  $ab \in Z(G)$ .

- $\text{id}_G \in Z(G)$   
By definition  $\text{id}_G x = x \text{id}_G = x$  for all  $x \in G$ , so  $\text{id}_G$  commutes with every element of  $G$  and belongs to the centre of  $G$ .
- Suppose  $a \in Z(G)$ . We need to show that  $a^{-1} \in Z(G)$ .  
Let  $x \in G$ . Then

$$ax = xa \implies axa^{-1} = xaa^{-1} = x \implies a^{-1}axa^{-1} = a^{-1}x \implies xa^{-1} = a^{-1}x.$$

Thus  $a^{-1}$  commutes with  $x$  for all  $x \in G$  and  $a^{-1} \in Z(G)$ .

We conclude that  $Z(G)$  is a subgroup of  $G$ . □

**Exercise:** Show that  $Z(D_6)$  is the trivial subgroup.

Another important concept in group theory is introduced in the next definition.

**Definition 2.2.4.** Let  $G$  be a group and let  $g \in G$ . A conjugate of  $g$  in  $G$  is an element of the form  $xgx^{-1}$  for some  $x \in G$ . The set of all conjugates of  $g$  in  $G$  is called the conjugacy class of the element  $g$ .

It may not be immediately obvious why this notion of conjugacy is an important one. Basically elements that are conjugates of each other have many properties in common (we will see in the next chapter what this means in the special case of groups of permutations). To get a sense of what the definition means we will start with a few observations.

1. Think of the element  $g$  as being fixed and imagine that we are looking at the various conjugates of  $g$ . These are the elements  $xgx^{-1}$  where  $x \in G$ . The element  $xgx^{-1}$  is equal to  $g$  if and only if  $gx = xg$ , i.e. if and only if  $x$  commutes with  $g$ .
2. This means that if every element of  $G$  commutes with  $g$  (i.e. if  $g \in Z(G)$ ), then all the conjugates of  $g$  are equal to  $g$ , and the conjugacy class of  $g$  consists only of the single element  $g$ .
3. In particular this means that if  $G$  is abelian, then every conjugacy class in  $G$  consists of a single element (this is not really an interesting case for the concept of conjugacy).
4. So (roughly) the number of distinct conjugates of an element  $G$  measures how far away it is from being in the centre. If an element has few conjugates then it commutes with many elements of the group. If an element has many conjugates, it commutes with few elements. We will make this precise later.
5. Every element  $g$  of  $G$  is conjugate to itself, since for example  $g = ggg^{-1}$ .

**Example 2.2.5.** Let the elements of  $D_8$ , the group of symmetries of the square, be denoted by  $\text{id}$ ,  $R_{90}$ ,  $R_{180}$ ,  $R_{270}$  (the rotations),  $T_L$ ,  $T_M$  (the reflections in the perpendicular bisectors of the sides), and  $T_N$ ,  $T_P$  (the reflections in the two diagonals). Then  $D_8$  has five distinct conjugacy classes as follows:

$$\{\text{id}\}, \{R_{180}\}, \{R_{90}, R_{270}\}, \{T_L, T_M\}, \{T_N, T_P\}.$$

This is saying that:

- $\{\text{id}\}$  and  $R_{180}$  are in the centre.
- $R_{90}$  and  $R_{270}$  are conjugate to each other. To confirm this, look at (for example) the element  $T_L \circ R_{90} \circ T_L^{-1}$  and confirm that it is equal to  $R_{270}$ . You can replace  $T_L$  with any of the reflections here, they will all work.
- The reflections  $T_L$  and  $T_M$  are conjugate to each other. To confirm this you could look at  $T_N \circ T_M \circ T_N^{-1}$ .
- The reflections  $T_N$  and  $T_P$  in the diagonals are conjugate to each other. To confirm this you could look at  $T_M \circ T_N \circ T_M^{-1}$ .

Note that in this case the whole group is the union of the distinct conjugacy classes, and that different conjugacy classes do not intersect each other. This is a general and important feature of groups. We will not prove it formally although you are encouraged (as an exercise) to adapt the following description to a formal proof. If two elements of  $G$  are conjugate to each other, then any element that is conjugate to either of them is conjugate to both. Thus the conjugacy class of an element  $g$  is the same as the conjugacy class of  $hgh^{-1}$  for any  $h \in G$ . On the other hand, if two elements are not conjugate to each other, then no element can be simultaneously conjugate to both of them, and their conjugacy classes do not intersect.

In the case of  $D_8$  above, we can notice that the numbers of elements in the conjugacy classes (1,1,2,2 and 2) are all factors of the group order which is 8. We will finish Chapter 2 now by showing that this is not an accident.

**Definition 2.2.6.** Let  $g$  be an element of a group  $G$ . Then the centralizer of  $g$  in  $G$ , denoted  $C_G(g)$ , is defined to be the set of all elements of  $G$  that commute with  $g$ , i.e.

$$C_G(g) = \{x \in G : xg = gx\}.$$

Please give some care and attention to this definition, and in particular make sure that you understand the distinction between the *centralizer of an element* of a group and the *centre* of a group. The centre of a group consists of all those elements that commute with everything in the group; it is a feature of the group itself. However, centralizers are only defined for particular elements. The centralizer of a particular element  $g$  consists of all those elements that commute with  $g$ ; they don't have to commute with anything else. The centre of the group is the intersection of the centralizers of all elements.

**Example 2.2.7.** Let  $G = D_8$ , with elements labelled as in Example 2.2.5. We can write down the centralizers of all elements of  $G$ . Note that  $Z(G) = \{\text{id}, R_{180}\}$ .

- $C_G(\text{id}) = G$  - all elements commute with the identity, so its centralizer is the whole group.
- $C_G(R_{180}) = G$  - all elements commute with  $R_{180}$ , so its centralizer is the whole group; this element is in the centre of  $D_8$ .
- $C_G(R_{90}) = \{\text{id}, R_{90}, R_{180}, R_{270}\}$  -  $R_{90}$  commutes with all of the rotations but with none of the reflections.
- $C_G(R_{270}) = \{\text{id}, R_{90}, R_{180}, R_{270}\}$  -  $R_{270}$  commutes with all of the rotations but with none of the reflections.
- $C_G(T_L) = \{\text{id}, R_{180}, T_L, T_M\}$  -  $T_L$  commutes with itself and with the reflection  $T_M$  in the axis that is perpendicular to  $L$ , and with the elements of the centre.
- $C_G(T_M) = \{\text{id}, R_{180}, T_L, T_M\}$  -  $T_M$  commutes with itself and with the reflection  $T_L$  in the axis that is perpendicular to  $M$ , and with the elements of the centre.
- $C_G(T_N) = \{\text{id}, R_{180}, T_N, T_P\}$  -  $T_N$  commutes with itself and with the reflection  $T_P$  in the axis that is perpendicular to  $N$ , and with the elements of the centre.
- $C_G(T_P) = \{\text{id}, R_{180}, T_N, T_P\}$  -  $T_P$  commutes with itself and with the reflection  $T_N$  in the axis that is perpendicular to  $P$ , and with the elements of the centre.

**Theorem 2.2.8.** For every  $g \in G$ ,  $C_G(g)$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .

The proof of Theorem 2.2.8 is a problem on Problem Sheet 2.

Two observations about centralizers:

1. The centralizer of  $g$  in  $G$  is equal to  $G$  if and only if  $g \in Z(G)$ .
2. For an element  $g$  of  $G$  that is not in the centre,  $C_G(g)$  will be a subgroup that contains both  $Z(G)$  and  $g$  (and so properly contains  $Z(G)$ ) but is not equal to  $G$ .

The following theorem relates the centralizer of an element  $g$  of  $G$  to the conjugacy class of  $g$ . It is a special case of the famous Orbit-Stabilizer Theorem concerning group actions.

**Theorem 2.2.9.** Let  $g$  be an element of a finite group  $G$ . Then the number of distinct conjugates of  $g$  is  $[G : C_G(g)]$ , the index in  $G$  of  $C_G(g)$ .

**Note:** Using Examples 2.2.5 and 2.2.7 above, we can verify this theorem for the dihedral group  $D_8$ .

It is convenient to mention the following necessary Lemma first, rather than trying to prove it in the middle of the proof of Theorem 2.2.9.

**Lemma 2.2.10.** Suppose that  $H$  is a subgroup of a finite group  $G$ . Let  $x, y$  be elements of  $G$ . Then the cosets  $xH$  and  $yH$  are equal if and only if the element  $y^{-1}x$  belongs to  $H$ .

*Proof.* From Lemma 2.1.5 we know that  $xH$  and  $yH$  are equal if and only if  $x \in yH$  (since in this case  $x$  belongs to both  $xH$  and  $yH$  and the cosets are equal since they intersect). This occurs if and only if  $x = yh$  for some  $h \in H$ , i.e., if and only if the element  $y^{-1}x$  belongs to  $H$ .  $\square$

*Proof.* (of Theorem 2.2.9) Recall that  $[G : C_G(x)]$  is the number of left cosets of  $C_G(x)$  in  $G$ . We will show that two elements of  $G$  determine distinct conjugates of  $g$  if and only if they belong to distinct left cosets of  $C_G(g)$ . To see this let  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  be elements of  $G$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 g x_1^{-1} &= x_2 g x_2^{-1} \\ \iff g x_1^{-1} &= x_1^{-1} x_2 g x_2^{-1} \\ \iff g x_1^{-1} x_2 &= x_1^{-1} x_2 g \\ \iff x_1^{-1} x_2 &\in C_G(g) \end{aligned}$$

By Lemma 2.2.10, this occurs if and only if the cosets  $x_1 C_G(g)$  and  $x_2 C_G(g)$  are equal. Thus elements of  $G$  determine distinct conjugates of  $g$  if and only if they belong to distinct left cosets of  $C_G(g)$ , and the number of distinct conjugates of  $g$  is the number of distinct left cosets of  $C_G(g)$  in  $G$ , which is  $[G : C_G(g)]$ .  $\square$

In particular, since  $|G| = |C_G(g)| [G : C_G(g)]$ , the number of elements in each conjugacy class of  $G$  is a factor of  $|G|$ . This fact can be used to prove the following important theorem about finite  $p$ -groups. A finite  $p$ -group is a group whose order is a power of a prime  $p$  (e.g. a group of order 27, 64, or 125).

**Theorem 2.2.11.** *Suppose that  $G$  is a finite  $p$ -group. Then the centre of  $G$  cannot be trivial, i.e. it cannot consist only of the identity element.*

*Proof.* As an example, suppose that  $p = 5$  and that  $|G| = 5^4 = 625$ . (As an exercise you could adapt the proof for this example to a general proof). Suppose that the conjugacy classes of  $G$  are  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_k$ . Remember that every element of the centre comprises a conjugacy class all on its own, and that each non-central element belongs to a conjugacy class whose number of elements is greater than 1 and is a divisor of  $5^4$ . Suppose that  $C_1$  is the conjugacy class that consists only of the identity element. Then

$$|G| = 5^4 = 1 + |C_2| + |C_3| + \dots + |C_k|.$$

(This is called the *class equation* of  $G$ ). Each  $|C_i|$  is either 1 or a multiple of 5. If all of  $|C_2|, |C_3|, \dots, |C_k|$  are multiples of 5, it means that  $|G| = 1 + (\text{a multiple of } 5)$ , so  $|G|$  would have remainder 1 on division by 5. This is not possible since  $|G| = 5^4$ , so it must be that some (at least 4) of the  $C_i$  (apart from  $C_1$ ) consist of a single element. These "single element" conjugacy classes correspond to non-identity elements of the centre of  $G$ .  $\square$