## LINEAR ALGEBRA -II

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▶ Basic references:

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- Linear Algebra, A. Ramachandra Rao and P. Bhimasankaram.

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- Linear Algebra, Henry Helson.

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- ► The Rubik's cube is a toy very you see a lot of 'permutations' in action.



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- ▶ Define  $\sigma_1: S \to S$  by

$$\sigma_1(s_j) = \begin{cases} s_{j+1} & \text{if } 1 \leq j < n \\ s_1 & \text{if } j = n. \end{cases}$$

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▶ Then  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2$  are permutations.



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ightharpoonup Similarly  $\sigma_2$  is displayed as:

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- (i) Associativity:  $\sigma_1 \circ (\sigma_2 \circ \sigma_3) = (\sigma_1 \circ \sigma_2) \circ \sigma_3$  for all  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3$  in G.

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- ▶ Proof. Take  $\iota$  as the identity map and then properties (i) to (iii) should be clear.

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- For distinct  $k_1, k_2, \ldots, k_r$  in  $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$  (with  $r \in \mathbb{N}$ ) we denote the cycle  $k_1 \dashrightarrow k_2 \dashrightarrow k_1 \dashrightarrow k_r \dashrightarrow k_1$  simply as  $(k_1, k_2, \ldots, k_r)$ .

# Cycle decomposition of permutations

For any permutation  $\sigma$ ,  $\sigma^2$  denotes  $\sigma \circ \sigma$  and more generally for any natural number r,  $\sigma^r = \sigma \circ \sigma \circ \cdots \circ \sigma$  (r times).

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- ▶  $k_3 = k_2$  is not possible, as this would mean that  $k_2 = \sigma(k_1) = \sigma(k_2)$  and contradicting injectivity of  $\sigma$ .

Continuing this way, by induction if we get distinct  $k_1, k_2, \ldots, k_s$  with  $k_1 \longrightarrow k_2 \longrightarrow \cdots \longrightarrow k_s$ , we take  $k_{s+1} = \sigma(k_s)$ . If  $k_{s+1} = k_1$ , we can take r = s and we are done.

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- ▶ Exercise 1.6: Show that there exists some  $t \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\sigma^t(j) = j$  for all  $j \in S$ .

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- ➤ Some authors do not write down 1-cycles at all. It is understood that elements of *S* which are not written down form 1-cycles.
- With this notation this permutation is simply (1, 3, 7), (2, 5) or (3, 7, 1)(5, 2) etc.

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- ▶ Then  $(k_1, k_2, ..., k_r)$  denotes the permutation:

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▶ More generally if  $k_{11}, k_{12}, \ldots, k_{1r_1}, k_{21}, k_{22}, \ldots, k_{2r_2}, k_{31}, k_{32}, \ldots, k_{3r_3}, \ldots, k_{m1}, k_{m2}, \ldots k_{mr_m}$  are distinct elements of S, then

$$(k_{11}, k_{12}, \ldots, k_{1r_1})(k_{21}, k_{22}, \ldots, k_{2r_2}) \cdots (k_{m1}, k_{m2}, \ldots, k_{mr_m})$$

is a 'product' of cycles, with

$$\sigma(k_{11}) = k_{12}, \sigma(k_{12}) = k_{13}, \dots, \sigma(k_{1r_1}) = k_{11},$$
 
$$\sigma(k_{21}) = k_{22}, \dots, \sigma(k_{2r_2}) = k_{21}, \dots,$$
 
$$\sigma(k_{m1}) = k_{m2}, \dots, \sigma(k_{mr_m}) = k_{m1}, \sigma(j) = j, \text{ otherwise.}$$

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- ▶ Then  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation. (Exercise).

- ▶ Theorem 1.7: Let  $S = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  Suppose  $\sigma$  is a permutation of S. Then S decomposes uniquely as a product of cycles.
- Proof. Take  $k_1 = 1$ . Then by Lemma 1.3, and its proof,  $\sigma$  has a cycle  $(k_1, k_2, \ldots, k_r)$  with  $k_1 = 1$ .
- ▶ If  $S = \{k_1, k_2, ..., k_r\}$ , we are done. If not, take any  $j \in \{k_1, k_2, ..., k_r\}^c$ , and we can get a cycle  $(j_1, j_2, ...)$  with elements distinct from  $\{k_1, k_2, ..., k_r\}$ . Continuing this way, we can exhaust whole of S, as S is a finite set.
- ▶ Clearly then, the permutation  $\sigma$  is a product of cycles. The uniqueness should also be clear as these cycles determine  $\sigma$ .
- ▶ For i, j in S, write  $i \sim j$  if  $j = \sigma^r(i)$  for some  $r \in \{0, 1, ...\}$ .
- ▶ Then  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation. (Exercise).
- It maybe seen that i, j are in the same cycle if and only if i ~ j. In other words, the equivalence classes form different cycles of the permutation.



▶ Definition 1.8: Let  $S = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and let  $\sigma$  be a permutation of S. Then the signature of  $\sigma$  is defined as the number

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$$\sigma(k_1) = k_2, \sigma(k_2) = k_3, \dots, \sigma(k_r) = k_1$$
  
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► Therefore the signature of a cycle is defined as  $(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_r) = (-1)^{n-(1+(n-r))} = (-1)^{r-1}.$ 



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- ► END OF LECTURE 1.