

Lecture 12

Let S be a set.

Let $\text{Perm}(S)$ be the set of permutations of S .

We know that $\text{Perm}(S)$ is a group under the binary operation of composition.

We will focus on the case in which S is a finite set.

For any positive integer n , we define S_n to be the group of permutations of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

Array notation

Let $\sigma \in S_n$. Then, we can write σ as a $2 \times n$ array as follows:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & \dots & n \\ \sigma(1) & \sigma(2) & \dots & \sigma(n) \end{bmatrix}$$

Example

$$n=5 \quad \sigma(1) = 2, \quad \sigma(2) = 5, \\ \sigma(3) = 4, \quad \sigma(4) = 3, \quad \sigma(5) = 1$$

Then, we write

$$\sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 5 & 4 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

This makes it easy to calculate compositions, inverses, etc.

For example,

$$\sigma^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 5 & 1 & 4 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Suppose

$$\tau = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 5 & 4 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We want to calculate $\sigma \circ \tau$.

$$\sigma \circ \tau = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 5 & 4 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 5 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 4 & 5 & 2 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Remember: The function on the right acts first.

Order of S_n

Suppose we want to construct a permutation of the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. Let us denote the permutation by σ .

We will construct σ by choosing the elements $\sigma(1), \sigma(2), \dots$.

We have n choices for $\sigma(1)$.

After $\sigma(1)$ is chosen, we

have $(n-1)$ choices for $\sigma(2)$

as $\sigma(2) \neq \sigma(1)$.

After $\sigma(1)$ and $\sigma(2)$ are

chosen, we have $(n-2)$ choices

for $\sigma(3)$.

Continuing in this manner,
we see that σ can be
constructed in $n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdots 2 \cdot 1$
ways.

We call this number the
factorial of n , and write it
as $n!$. Thus, $|S_n| = n!$

Example

$$n=3, |S_3| = 3! = 6$$

1 \longrightarrow 1

2 \longrightarrow 2

3 \longrightarrow 3

1 \longrightarrow 1

2 \longrightarrow 3

3 \longrightarrow 2

1 \longrightarrow 2

2 \longrightarrow 1

3 \longrightarrow 3

1 \longrightarrow 3

2 \longrightarrow 1

3 \longrightarrow 2

1 \longrightarrow 2

2 \longrightarrow 3

3 \longrightarrow 1

1 \longrightarrow 1

2 \longrightarrow 3

3 \longrightarrow 2

Cycle decomposition

Let σ be a permutation of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

Consider the sequence

$$1, \sigma(1), \sigma^2(1), \dots$$

Since $\text{ord}(\sigma)$ is finite, we know that there exists a positive integer m such that $\sigma^m(1) = 1$.

Let r be the smallest positive integer such that $\sigma^r(1) = 1$.

(Note that we do not need $\sigma^r = \text{id}$, only that $\sigma^r(1) = 1$.

So r may be smaller than $\text{ord}(\sigma)$.)

Thus, the sequence looks like

$1, \sigma(1), \sigma^2(1), \dots, \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ r^{\text{th}} \text{ place}}}{1}, \sigma(1), \sigma^2(1), \dots$

We claim that the elements

$1, \sigma(1), \dots, \sigma^{r-1}(1)$ are

all distinct.

If not, there exist non-negative integers $i < j$ such that $\sigma^i(1) = \sigma^j(1)$.
Composing with σ^{-i} on both sides,
we get $\sigma^{j-i}(1) = 1$.

But $j-i > 0$ and $j-i < r$.

This contradicts the minimality of r .

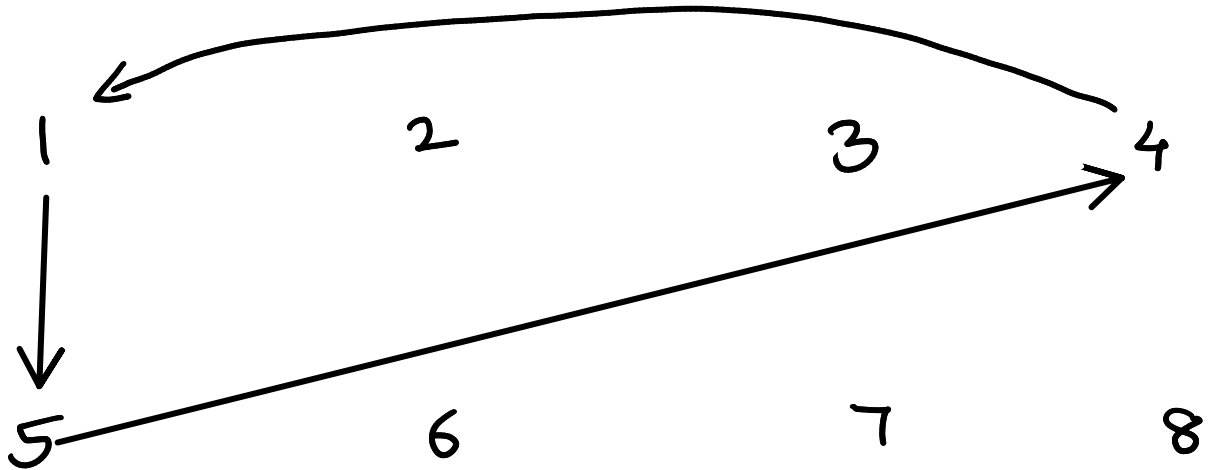
Thus the elements $1, \sigma(1), \dots, \sigma^{r-1}(1)$ are all distinct.

In fact the infinite sequence
 $\dots \sigma^{-2}(1), \sigma^{-1}(1), 1, \sigma(1), \sigma^2(1), \dots$
consists of the pattern

$1, \sigma(1), \dots, \sigma^{r-1}(1)$ repeating
indefinitely (in both directions).

A pictorial representation

$n=8$. $\sigma(1)=5$, $\sigma(2)=3$, $\sigma(3)=7$, $\sigma(4)=1$
 $\sigma(5)=4$, $\sigma(6)=6$, $\sigma(7)=8$, $\sigma(8)=2$



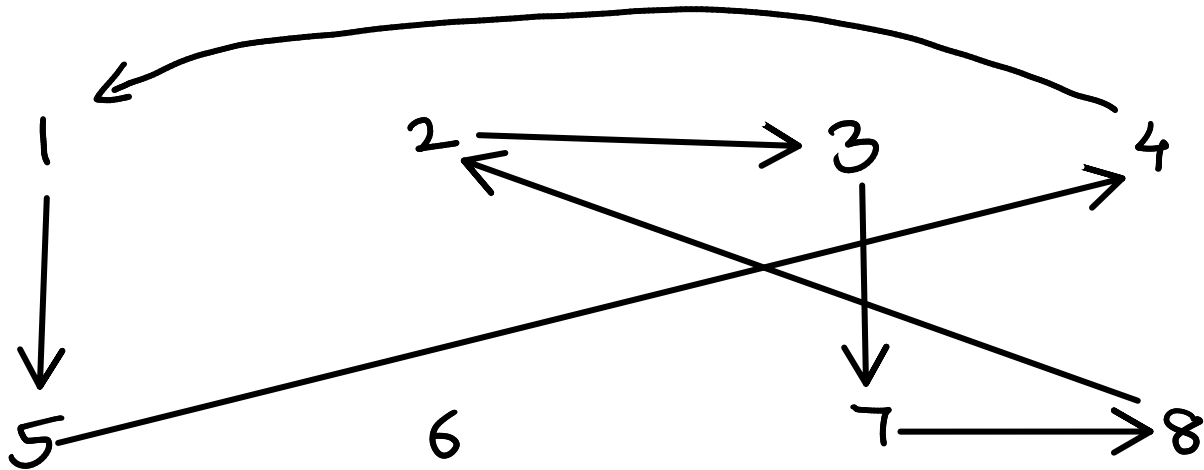
Let $A_1 = \{1, \sigma(1), \dots, \sigma^{r-1}(1)\}$.

If $A_1 \neq \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, choose some $x \notin A_1$ and repeat the process to obtain a "cycle" $x, \sigma(x), \dots, \sigma^{s-1}(x)$ (for some integer s).

Let $A_2 = \{x, \sigma(x), \dots, \sigma^{s-1}(x)\}$.

In our example, we take $x=2$.

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma(1) &= 5, \sigma(2) = 3, \sigma(3) = 7, \sigma(4) = 1 \\ \sigma(5) &= 4, \sigma(6) = 6, \sigma(7) = 8, \sigma(8) = 2 \end{aligned}$$



Observe that A_1 and A_2 are disjoint.

If $A_1 \cup A_2 = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, we stop. Otherwise, we choose some $y \notin A_1 \cup A_2$ and repeat the process.

This process must end in at most n steps.

Suppose, after p steps, we have disjoint sets A_1, A_2, \dots, A_p such that σ acts on the elements of each A_i "cyclically".

Definition A permutation σ of a set S is called a cycle if there exists a finite set $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_r\}$ such that $\sigma(a_1) = a_2$, $\sigma(a_2) = a_3$, \dots , $\sigma(a_r) = a_1$.

The integer r is called the length of the cycle.

The cycle σ is then written as (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_r) .

Two cycles (a_1, \dots, a_r) and (b_1, \dots, b_s) are said to be disjoint if $a_k \neq b_l$ for any k, l .

Recall that we have partitioned the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ into p disjoint subsets A_1, \dots, A_p such that for each i , $1 \leq i \leq p$, $A_i = \{a_{i1}, a_{i2}, \dots, a_{ir_i}\}$ and $\sigma(a_{i1}) = a_{i2}, \sigma(a_{i2}) = a_{i3}, \dots, \sigma(a_{ir_i}) = a_{i1}$.

Then, we observe that if $\sigma_i = (a_{i1}, a_{i2}, \dots, a_{ir_i})$, then

$$\sigma = \sigma_1 \circ \sigma_2 \circ \dots \circ \sigma_p.$$

Indeed for any $x \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, there is some i such that $x \in A_i$.

Let us compute $\sigma_1 \circ \sigma_2 \circ \dots \circ \sigma_p(x)$.

If $j > i$, $\sigma_j(x) = x$.

So $\sigma_{i+1} \circ \dots \circ \sigma_p(x) = x$.

$\sigma_i(x) = \sigma(x)$.

So $\sigma_i \circ \sigma_{i+1} \circ \dots \circ \sigma_p(x) = \sigma(x)$.

$\sigma(x) \in A_i \Rightarrow \sigma(x) \notin A_j$ for $j < i$.

So $\sigma_j(\sigma(x)) = \sigma(x)$ for

any $j < i$.

So,

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_1 \circ \sigma_2 \cdots \sigma_{i-1}(\sigma_i \circ \cdots \sigma_p(x)) \\&= \sigma_1 \circ \sigma_2 \cdots \sigma_{i-1}(\sigma(x)) \\&= \sigma(x).\end{aligned}$$

Thus $\sigma_1 \circ \sigma_2 \circ \cdots \circ \sigma_p(x) = \sigma(x)$
for any $x \in \{1, 2, \cdots, n\}$.

$$\text{So } \sigma = \sigma_1 \circ \sigma_2 \circ \cdots \circ \sigma_p.$$

This is called the cycle decomposition of σ .

For example:

$$n=8. \quad \sigma(1)=5, \sigma(2)=3, \sigma(3)=7, \sigma(4)=1 \\ \sigma(5)=4, \sigma(6)=6, \sigma(7)=8, \sigma(8)=2$$

$$\text{Then, } \sigma = (1, 5, 4) (2, 3, 7, 8) (6).$$

The cycle decomposition of a permutation is unique.

However, a single cycle may be written in multiple ways.

For example, $(a, b, c) = (b, c, a)$.

Secondly, disjoint cycles commute.

So, they may be composed in any order. (See Gallian, Thm 5.2.)

For example,

$$(1, 3, 4)(2, 5) = (2, 5)(1, 3, 4).$$

Except for this, it is easy to see that cycle decomposition is unique.

Also, note that a cycle of length 1 is just the identity element.

So, we often choose not to write 1-cycles in a cycle decomposition.

Examples

Elements of S_3 :

id, $(1,2)$, $(2,3)$, $(1,3)$, $(1,2,3)$,
 $(1,3,2)$.

Elements of S_4 :

Identity element: id

2-cycles: $(1,2)$, $(1,3)$, $(1,4)$,
 $(2,3)$, $(2,4)$, $(3,4)$.

3-cycles : $(1, 2, 3), (1, 3, 2), (1, 2, 4),$
 $(1, 4, 2), (1, 3, 4), (1, 4, 3), (2, 3, 4),$
 $(2, 4, 3)$

Products of 2-cycles:

$(1, 2)(3, 4), (1, 4)(2, 3),$
 $(1, 3)(2, 4).$

4-cycles: $(1, 2, 3, 4)$, $(1, 2, 4, 3)$,
 $(1, 3, 2, 4)$, $(1, 3, 4, 2)$,
 $(1, 4, 2, 3)$, $(1, 4, 3, 2)$

"Types" of cycle decomposition
 \longleftrightarrow Ways to partition 4.

$$4 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 = 2 + 1 + 1 = 2 + 2 \\ = 3 + 1$$

(More on this later.)

Order of a permutation

Let S be a set.

Let $\sigma = (a_1, \dots, a_m)$ and

$\tau = (b_1, \dots, b_n)$ be disjoint cycles in $\text{Perm}(S)$. Then,

we will prove that

$$\text{ord}(\sigma\tau) = \text{lcm}(m, n).$$

Let $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_m\}$,

$B = \{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$ and $C = S \setminus (A \cup B)$.

So, S is the disjoint union of A , B and C .

Let r be an integer.

Then, $(\sigma \tau)^r = \text{id} \iff (\sigma \tau)^r(x) = x$

for all $x \in S$.

* { Observe that if $x \in A$,
 $(\sigma \tau)(x) = \sigma(\tau(x)) = \sigma(x)$.

Also, note that in this case
 $\sigma(x) \in A$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } (\sigma \tau)^2(x) &= (\sigma \tau)(\sigma \tau(x)) \\ &= (\sigma \tau)(\sigma(x)) \\ &= \sigma(\sigma(x)) \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{Apply (*) to} \\ \sigma(x) \end{array} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Continuing in this manner,
we see that $(\sigma\tau)^k(x) = \sigma^k(x)$
for any positive integer.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{So, } (\sigma\tau)^r(x) = x &\iff \sigma^r(x) = x \\ &\iff m \mid r.\end{aligned}$$

Similarly, if $x \in B$, we see
that $(\sigma\tau)^r(x) = x \iff n \mid r.$

If $x \in C$, $\sigma(x) = x$ and $\tau(x) = x$.

So, in that case $(\sigma\tau)^r(x) = x$
for any r .

Thus $(\sigma\tau)^r(x) = x$ for all x
 $\Leftrightarrow m|r$ and $n|r$.

The smallest positive r with
this property is $\text{lcm}(m, n)$.

More generally, with this argument we can prove:

Theorem Let S be a finite set and let $\sigma \in \text{Perm}(S)$. If $\sigma = \sigma_1 \cdots \cdots \sigma_p$ is the cycle decomposition of σ , where σ_i is a cycle of

length n_i , then

$$\text{ord}(\sigma) = \text{lcm}(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_p).$$

Example

$$n = 10.$$

$$\sigma = (1, 4, 7, 2, 9, 3) (5, 8, 6, 10).$$

$$\text{Then, } \text{ord}(\sigma) = \text{lcm}(6, 4) = 12.$$