1. **Permutation Statistics**

- 1.1 Descents
- 1.2 Cycles and Left to Right Maxima
- 1.3 Major Indices and Inversion Numbers
- 1.4 Algebraic Aspects of the Symmetric Group

Descents

For convenience, fix $n \in \mathbb{N}$ throughout, and we are going to write [n] to denote $\{1, \ldots, n\}$.

Def'n 1.2. Symmetric Group, Permutation on [n] The set of bijections from [n] to itself is called the *symmetric group* on [n], denoted as S_n . An element $\sigma \in S_n$ is called a *permutation*.

(1.1)One-line Notation for Permutations

Suppose that $\sigma \in S_n$ is given. To uniquely describe σ , observe that it is enough to write the sequence of values $\sigma(1), \dots, \sigma(n)$. We often write these values in order without any punctuation to obtain the *one-line notation* for σ :

One-line Notation

$$\sigma(1)\cdots\sigma(n)$$
. [1.1]

Using the notation in [1.1], the elements of S_3 are:

Observe that one-line notation gives a bijection between S_n and the collection of lists of [n]. Since there are n! lists of [n], it follows that there are

Number of Permutations

$$|S_n| = n! ag{1.2}$$

permutations on [n].

(1.2)Permutation Statistics Given a finite set, we are interested in assignming a weight function to the set so that we can wrtie a generating series. In most cases, there is an obvious choice of weight function to use. For permutations, however, there are many important – and nontrivial – weight functions (called *permutation statistics*) to consider.

Def'n 1.3. Descent, Descent Number of a Permutation Let $\sigma \in S_n$. A *descent* of σ is $i \in [n-1]$ such that $\sigma(i+1) < \sigma(i)$. We write des (σ) ot denote the number of descents of σ , called the descent number of σ .

Eulerian Polynomial, Eulerian Number

$$S_n(x) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} x^{\operatorname{des}(\sigma)}.$$
 [1.3]

The coefficients of an Eulerian polynomial are called *Eulerian number*. For each $k \in [n] \cup \{0\}$, we write $\binom{n}{k}$ to denote

(1.3)**Eulerian Numbers**

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Similar to binomial coefficients, there is a nice recurrence relation for Eulerian numbers:

Recurrence Relation for Eulerian Numbers

[1.5] follows from observing the fact that we can construct $\sigma \in S_n$ by first defining $\sigma' \in S_{n-1}$, write σ' doen in one-line notation, and insert n at the beginning, end, or in between any two numbers (so n possible slots in total). When there are k-1 descents of σ' , then there are (n-1)-(k-1)=n-k slots to insert n so that des $(\sigma) = n$. When there are k descents of σ' , there are k+1 places to insert n so that des $(\sigma) = n$. Thus [1.5] follows.

Cycles and Left to Right Maxima

Def'n 1.5. Let $\sigma \in S_n$. A *cycle* of σ is a minimal (with respect to \subseteq) subset $C \subseteq [n]$ such that $\sigma(C) = C$. We write $\operatorname{cyc}(\sigma)$ to denote the number of cycles of σ .

(1.4)Cycles Cycles are important because any permutation $\sigma \in S_n$ has a property that the collection of cycles of σ is a partition of [n]. That is,

$$\bigcup_{C \subseteq S_n: C \text{ is a cycle of } \sigma} C = [n]$$
 [1.6]

is a disjoint union. The generating series for S_n with respect to cyc is of our interest also.

Signless Stirling Number of the First Kind

Consider the generating series

$$\Phi_{S_n, \operatorname{cyc}}(x) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} x^{\operatorname{cyc}(\sigma)}$$

Consider the generating $\Phi_{S_n, \operatorname{cyc}}(x) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} x^{-1}$ for S_n with respect to cyc. Given any $k \in [n]$, the coefficient $c(n,k) = \left[x^k\right] \Phi_{S_n,\operatorname{cyc}}$ is called a *signless Stirling number of the first kind*.

$$c(n,k) = \left[x^{k}\right] \Phi_{S_{n}, \text{cyc}}(x)$$

Note that there can be at least 1, at most *n* cycles of $\sigma \in S_n$. Therefore,

Generating Series for S_n with respect to cyc

$$\Phi_{S_n,\text{cyc}}(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} c(n,k) x^k$$
 [1.7]

is the generating series for S_n with respect to cyc. We also have a recurrence relation

Recurrence Relation for Stirling Numbers

$$c(n,k) = c(n-1,k-1) + (n-1)c(n-1,k)$$
[1.8]

for Stirling numbers.¹

¹The idea of coming up and proving recurrence relations like [1.5] and [1.8] is very general: we consider arbitrary element of S_{n-1} , written in one-line notation, and see what happens when we insert n in the n available slots.

(1.5)Left to Right Maxima Another permutation statistic that we take a look is 12r.

Left to Right Maximum of a Permutation

Def'n 1.7. Let $\sigma \in S_n$. A *left to right* maximum of σ is $i \in [n]$ such that $\sigma(j) < \sigma(i)$ for all $j \in [i-1]$. We write $12r(\sigma)$ to denote the number of left to right maxima of σ .

An interesting fact about the permutation statistics cyc and 12r is that they have the same generating series. To see this, we are going to look at yet different notation to write dowen a permutation uniquely: by using cycles. First, note that given a cycle $C = \{c_1, \dots, c_p\}$, we have a list of mappings

$$c_1 \mapsto c_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$c_{p-1} \mapsto c_p$$

$$c_p \mapsto c_1$$

which can be compactly written as

$$c_1 \cdots c_p$$
. [1.9]

To distinguish [1.9] from one-line notation, we put paranthesis around:

Cycle Notation
$$(c_1 \cdots c_p) \, . \tag{1.10}$$

But there are p choses for the first element (hence p possible cycle notations for $\sigma|_C$), so to make sure that we have a single cycle notation per cycle, we let $c_1 = \max(C)$. Now we are ready to define the standard cycle notation for permutations.

Standard Cycle Notation of a Permutation

Def'n 1.8. Let $\sigma \in S_n$ and let $C_1, \dots, C_k \subseteq [n]$ be the cycles of σ , where $k = \operatorname{cyc}(\sigma)$, sorted in the increasing order of the maximum element.^a The *standard cycle notation* of σ is $\left(m_1\sigma(m_1)\cdots\sigma^{n_1-1}(m_1)\right)\cdots\left(m_k\sigma(m_k)\cdots\sigma^{n_k-1}(m_k)\right), \qquad [1.11]$ where $n_j = \left|C_j\right|, m_j = \max\left(C_j\right)$ for each $j \in [k]$. $\frac{\text{where } n_j = \left|C_j\right|, m_j = \max\left(C_j\right) \text{ for each } j \in [k].}{\text{a} \text{That is, given } i, j \in [k] \text{ with } i < j, \max\left(C_i\right) < \max\left(C_j\right).}$

$$\left(m_1 \sigma\left(m_1\right) \cdots \sigma^{n_1-1}\left(m_1\right)\right) \cdots \left(m_k \sigma\left(m_k\right) \cdots \sigma^{n_k-1}\left(m_k\right)\right), \tag{1.11}$$

Cycles and Left to Right Maxima

An interesting feature of the standard cycle notation is that we can remove the paranthesis and still can uniquely determine what the cycles are, thus permutation. For, $m_1 < \cdots < m_k$ and

$$m_{j} = \max_{p \in \left\{0,\dots,n_{j}-1\right\}} \sigma^{p}\left(m_{j}\right)$$

for all $j \in [k]$, it follows that every left to right maximum of σ is the beginning of a cycle, whose end is right before the next left to right maximum. This means, if we write $\zeta: S_n \to S_n$ to denote the function which takes an element of S_n in one-line notation and spits out its standard cycle notation (without paranthesis), then we have

cyc and 12r

$$\operatorname{cyc}(\sigma) = \operatorname{l2r}(\zeta(\sigma)). \tag{1.12}$$

But recall that $\zeta(\sigma)$ uniquely determines σ . This means ζ is a bijection, so

Generating Series with respect to cyc and 12r

$$\sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \operatorname{cyc}(\sigma) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \operatorname{l2r}(\sigma), \qquad [1.13]$$

the equality that we initially claimed. This in particular means

Coefficients of the Generating Series with respect to 12r

$$\left[x^{k}\right] \sum_{\sigma \in S_{n}} 12r(\sigma) = c(n,k)$$
 [1.14]

for all $k \in [n]$.

Major Indices and Inversion Numbers

(1.7) Major Indices One problem with using des solely is that we lose information about where descents actually occur. Although it is difficult (or even impossible) to express every descents of a permutation by a single statistic, we can still record the sum.

Def'n 1.9.

Major Index of a Permutation

Let $\sigma \in S_n$. The *major index* of σ , denoted as maj (σ) , is the sum of the descents of σ .

For instance, $\sigma = 13846725$ has maj $(\sigma) = 9$. Recall that² we found nice recurrence formula for other statistics by using the fact that we can construct an element of S_n by inserting n into any of n slots of $\sigma' \in S_{n-1}$. The same idea applies here: given $\sigma' \in S_{n-1}$ with $k = \text{maj}(\sigma')$, by inserting n in any of n slots, we obtain an element of S_n whose major index is oen of $k, \ldots, k+n-1$, where each number occurs exactly once.³ This gives the following recurrence relation for maj:

Recurrence Relation for maj

$$\sum_{\sigma \in S_n} q^{\text{maj}(\sigma)} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} q^i \sum_{\sigma' \in S_{n-1}} q^{\text{maj}(\sigma')}.$$
 [1.15]

The polynomial $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} q^i$ that appears in [1.15] has a particular importance, so we have a name and notation for it.

Def'n 1.10.

q-integer

A polynomial of the form $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} q^i$, where $n \in \mathbb{N}$, is called a *q-integer*. We write $[n]_q = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} q^i$.

Using the notation $[n]_q$, [1.15] becomes

Generating Series with respect to maj

$$\sum_{\sigma \in S_n} q^{\text{maj}(\sigma)} = [n]_q \cdots [1]_q.$$
 [1.16]

Note that the expression at the RHS of [1.16] looks like a factorial: we call it a *q-factorial*, denoted as $[n]_a!$.

²See [1.5], [1.8], especially the footnote after [1.8].

 $^{^{3}}$ An easy argument for this line is a proof by construction. Begin with placing n at the descent positions, from right to left, and then at the ascent positions, from left to right.

Mahonian Statistic
A permutation statistic is called *Mahonian* if the generating series for S_n with respect to the statistic is a q-factorial.

(1.8)Inversion Numbers Clearly maj is Mahonian. But arguably the most important Mahonian statistic is the inversion number.

Inversion, Inversion Number of a Permutation

Def'n 1.12. Let $\sigma \in S_n$. An *inversion* of σ is a pair $(i, j) \in [n]^2$ with i < j such that w(i) > w(j). The *inversion number* of σ , denoted as inv (σ) , is the number of inversions σ has.

In fact, given any $\sigma' \in S_{n-1}$, we can produce $\sigma \in S_n$ with inv $(\sigma) = k + i$ by placing n at the (n-i)th slot from the beginning of the one-line notation of σ' . This means inv has the precisely same recurrence relation as maj:

Recurrence Relation for inv

$$\sum_{\sigma \in S_n} q^{\operatorname{inv}(\sigma)} = [n]_q \sum_{\sigma' \in S_{n-1}} q^{\operatorname{inv}(\sigma')}.$$
 [1.17]

This means inv is also Mahonian, as said before:

Generating Series with respect to inv

$$\sum_{\sigma \in S_n} q^{\text{inv}(\sigma)} = [n]_q!.$$
 [1.18]

Since $\Phi_{S_n,\text{mai}}(q) = \Phi_{S_n,\text{inv}}(q)$, it is natural to expect that there is a bijection $\varphi: S_n \to S_n$ such that

$$maj(\sigma) = inv(\varphi(\sigma))$$

for all $\sigma \in S_n$, similar to the case of cyc and 12r. But finding such bijection is much difficult for this case.

Algebraic Aspects of the Symmetric Group

Note that the symmetric group S_n is a group under the following operation: given any $\sigma, \tau \in S_n$, write $\sigma \tau$ (1.9)(the *multiplication* of σ , τ) to denote

$$\sigma \tau = \sigma \circ \tau$$
,

since we can compose any elements of S_n , obtaining an element of S_n again. Moreover, we have the following.

(a) *identity*: There is an *identity* element of S_n , denoted as id $\in S_n$, such that

$$id \sigma = \sigma id = \sigma$$

for all $\sigma \in S_n$, namely id = $1 \cdots n$ (in one-line notation).

(b) *inverse*: Given any $\sigma \in S_n$, there exists $\tau \in S_n$ such that

$$\sigma \tau = \tau \sigma = id$$
. [1.19]

Note that clearly $\tau = \sigma^{-1}$ (inverse as a function) works, and by [1.19] this τ is unique.

(c) associativity: Given $\sigma, \tau, \rho \in S_n$, we have

$$(\sigma \tau) \rho = \sigma(\tau \rho) = \sigma \tau \rho.$$

An important type of permutation is a simple transposition.

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Def'n 1.13. Simple Transposition
A permutation
$$\sigma \in S_n$$
 is called a *simple transposition* if there exists $i \in [n-1]$ such that

$$\sigma(j) = \begin{cases} j+1 & \text{if } j=i \\ j-1 & \text{if } j=i+1 \\ j & \text{if } j \notin \{i,i+1\} \end{cases}$$
[1.20]

The unique simple transposition in S_n that satisfies [1.20] is denoted as s_i .

Multiplying by a simple transposition is easy in terms of one-line notation: given $\sigma \in S_n$,

- (a) σs_i is obtained by swapping the letters in positions i, i+1 of the one-line notation of σ ; and
- (b) σs_i is obtained by swapping the letters in values i, i+1 of the one-line notation of σ .

Note that, given any $\sigma \in S_n$, we can write σ as a product of simple transpositions. We also have the following formula:

Inversion Number after Multiplying by a Simple Transposition

$$\operatorname{inv}(\sigma s_i) = \begin{cases} \operatorname{inv}(\sigma) + 1 & \text{if } \sigma(i) < \sigma(i+1) \\ \operatorname{inv}(\sigma) - 1 & \text{if } \sigma(i) > \sigma(i+1) \end{cases}.$$
 [1.21]



2. **Permutations and Graphs**

- 2.1 Reduced Words
- 2.2 Platonic Solids

Reduced Words

(2.1) Reduced Words Suppose that a permutation $w \in S_n$ is given. Then recall that we can write w as a product of simple transpositions

$$w = s_{i_1} \cdots s_{i_k}, \tag{2.1}$$

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and that $k \ge \text{inv}(w)$. In fact, we know that we can use exactly inv (w) simple transpositions.

Def'n 2.1.

Reduced Decomposition, Reduced Word for a Permuataion

An expression of the form [2.1] with k = inv(w) is called a *reduced decomposition* for w, and the sequence $(i_j)_{j=1}^k$ is called a *reduced word* for w. We write R(w) to denote the set of the reduced words of w.

(EX 2.2)

Suppose that $w = 31542 \in S_5$, then 42134, 23413 are reduced words for w.

(2.3)
Generating Reduced
Words

Given $w \in S_n$, we desire to calculate |R(w)|. But before doing so, we are going to discuss about systematically writing down every element of R(w), by using graphs. A brute-force way of achieving this is to look at every string in $\{1, \dots, n-1\}^n$ and see check which one is a reduced word for w. Of course this is very inefficient, so we are going to find a better algorithm. We start by finding a reduced word, from where we are going to find everything else. But we already know how to get a reduced word, so it suffices to find relations between reduced words.

- (a) Given $i, j \in [n-1]$, if $|i-j| \ge 2$, then $s_i s_j = s_j s_i$. Such swap is called a **commutation**.
- (b) Given $i \in [n]$, observe that $s_i s_{i+1} s_i = s_{i+1} s_i s_{i+1}$. Such *swap* is called a *braid move*.

It turns out by using commutations and braid moves only, we can generate every reduced word of a permutation from a reduced word.

Theorem 2.1.Generating Reduced Words

Let $w \in S_n$ and let $r, s \in R(w)$. Then s can be obtained from r by a sequence of commutations and braid moves.

(2.4)
Graph of Reduced Words

Fix $w \in S_n$ and consider the G(w) whose vertex set is R(w) and vertices $v, u \in R(w)$ are adjacent if and only if one can be turned into another by a commutation or braid move.

Theorem 2.2. Connectedness of G(w)

Consider the setting of (2.4). G(w) is connected.

Lemma 2.2.1. Exchange Lemma

If $i_1 \cdots i_l, j_1 \cdots j_l \in R(w)$, then $j_1 i_1 \cdots i_{k-1} i_{k+1} \cdots i_l \in R(w)$

for some $k \in [l]$.

Proof. Observe that $i_l \cdots i_1, j_l \cdots j_1 \in R(w^{-1})$. Then from assignments, we know the following.

(a) $(j_1, j_1 + 1)$ is an inversion of w^{-1} .

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(b) $(j_1, j_1 + 1) = s_{i_1} \cdots s_{i_{k-1}} (i_k, i_k + 1)$ for some $k \in [l]$. This means flipping $j_1, j_1 + 1$ before $s_{i_1} \cdots s_{i_{k-1}}$ is equivalent to first applying $s_{i_1} \cdots s_{i+k-1}$ and then flipping $i_k, i_k + 1$. In other words,

$$s_{j_1}s_{i_1}\cdots s_{i_{k-1}}=s_{i_1}\cdots s_{i_k}.$$

Then observe that

$$s_{j_1}s_{i_1}\cdots s_{i_{k-1}}s_{i_{k+1}}\cdots s_{i_l}=s_{i_1}\cdots s_{i_l},$$

as desired.

Proof of Theorem 2.2. We proceed inductively.

- When $w \in S_n$ is such that inv (w) = 0 or inv (w) = 1, then G(w) is clearly connected.
- o Suppose that the result holds for permutations whose inversion number is l-1, where $l \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $i_1 \cdots i_l, j_1 \cdots j_l \in R(w)$ and denote $i = i_1 \cdots i_l, j = j_1 \cdots j_l$. Then by the exchange lemma, $j_1 i_1 \cdots i_{k-1} i_{k+1} \cdots i_l \in R(w)$ for some $k \in [l]$, and denote $e = j_1 i_1 \cdots i_{k-1} i_{k+1} \cdots i_l$. The idea is to find an i, e-path and then find an e, j-path. We have two cases.
 - (a) Suppose that k < l. Then by deleting i_l , we obtain

$$\underbrace{i_1\cdots i_{l-1}}_{=i'}, \underbrace{j_1i_1\cdots i_{k-1}i_{k+1}\cdots i_{l-1}}_{=e'},$$

which are reduced words for ws_{i_l} . So by the inductive hypothesis, there exists a i', e'-path in $G(ws_{i_l})$. But note that every edge in any i', e'-path consists of commutations and braid moves between the l-1 indices of i', e', which are the first l-1 indices of i, e. This means the same commutation and braid edges can be used to produce an i, e-path. Obtaining an e, j-path can be done in a similar manner, by first deleting j_1 from the front and then using the inductive hypothesis.

(b) Suppose that k = l. In this case, we are going to find another vertex, which would allow us to use the idea used in case (a). Note that

$$e = j_1 i_1 \cdots i_{l-1}$$
.

We have two subcases.

- (i) If $|j_1 i_1| < 2$, then $e, \underbrace{i_1 j_1 i_2 \cdots i_{l-1}}_{=f}$ are neighbors, and we can use the same idea as (a) to find a i, f-path and e, j-path, so we are done.
- (ii) If $|j_1-i_1|=1$, we apply the exchange lemma again, on i,e. That is, there exists $h \in [l-1]^2$ such that

$$\underbrace{i_1 j_1 i_1 \cdots i_{h-1} i_{h+1} \cdots i_{l-1}}_{=f}$$

is a reduced word for w. Since i, f both start with i_1 , by using the same idea used in (a), we obtain an i, f-path. But note that f is a neighbor of

$$\underbrace{j_1 i_1 j_1 i_2 \cdots i_{h-1} i_{h+1} \cdots i_{l-1}}_{=g}$$

by a braid edge (since $|i_1 - j_1| = 1$ by assumption), and we can find a g, e-path since they both start by j_1 . This concludes the proof.

 $^{^{1}}s_{k}\left(a,b\right)$ means the ordered pair obtained from $\left(a,b\right)$ by replacing any instance of k with k+1 and any instance of k+1 with

²We better not remove the first character of e, since then we have $i_1i_1\cdots$, which clearly is not a reduced word.

Platonic Solids

(2.5) Platonic Solids Recall that we have the following five *Platonic solids*: *tetrahedron*, *cube*, *octahedron*, *dodecahedron*, *icosahedron*. We are going to associate each Platonic solid to a group that *looks like a symmetric group*. The idea of *duality* also plays an important role.

- \circ tetrahedron: Note that tetrahedron is the planar dual of itself. Tetrahedron corresponds to S_4 .
- \circ *cube, octahedron*: Observe that cube and octahedron are planar duals. As a result, they both correspond to a *hyperoctahedral group*, denoted as B_n , the group of *signed permutations*.
- \circ dodecahedron, icosahedron: Dodecahedron and icosahedron are planar duals, and they both correspond to H_3 .

We are going to discuss signed permutations mainly.

Def'n 2.2.

Signed Permutation on [n]

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. A *signed permutation* on [n] is a permutation w on $\{-n, \ldots, n\}$ with an additional property that

$$w(i) = -w(-i)$$

for all $i \in [n]$. We write B_n to denote the set of signed permutations on [n].

By definition, note that it is enough to just define w(1), ..., w(n) to define w for all $\{-n, ..., n\}$. Therefore, we usually think a signed permutation on [n] to a permutation on [n] with an additional information (i.e. sign) on each number. Correspondingly, we have the following way of writing *one-line notation* for a signed permutation. Given a signed permutation w on [n], we first write the one-line notation which disregards the signs, and for every negative w(i), we put a bar above. So, for instance,

$$21\overline{3}4\overline{5}\overline{9}78\overline{6}$$

is a one-line notation for a signed permutation. Now consider the following question.

Given
$$n \in \mathbb{N}$$
, how many signed permutations on $[n]$ are there? [2.2]

Note that the answer is $2^n n!$, since we have 2^n ways of choosing which w(i) would be negative and n! ways of choosing *unsigned* permutations. That is,

$$|B_n| = 2^n n!$$
.

3. Matroids

- 3.1 Matroids
- 3.2 Greedy Algorithms for Matroids

Matroids

(3.1)Motivation Matroid theory serves as common generalization of graph theory and linear algebra.

Finite Matroid on a Set

Def'n 3.1. Let E be a finite set. We say a collection M of subsets of E is a *matroid* on E if

- Let E be a filtre set. We say a concentration $M \neq \emptyset$; $\circ \text{ if } X \in M, Y \subseteq X \text{, then } Y \in M \text{; and}$ $\circ \text{ if } X, Y \in M \text{ are maximal and } e \in X \setminus Y \text{, then there exists } f \in Y \setminus X \text{ such that } (X \setminus \{e\}) \cup \{f\} \text{ is}$

We shall discuss finite matroids only. In other words, when we say matroid, we mean finite matroid.

Independent, Dependent Subset

- Let E be a finite set and let M be a matroid on E.

 (a) $X \subseteq E$ is called *independent* if $X \in E$. Otherwise, we say X is *dependent*.

 (b) Maximal $X \in M$ is called a *basis*, and a minimal $Y \in \mathcal{P}(E) \setminus M$ is called a *circuit*. We define the *rank function* on E, rank : $\mathcal{P}(E) \to \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$, by $\operatorname{rank}(X) = \max\{|Y| : Y \subseteq X, Y \in M\}$ for all $X \subseteq E$. We call $\operatorname{rank}(X)$ the *rank* of X.

$$\operatorname{rank}(X) = \max\{|Y| : Y \subseteq X, Y \in M\}$$

Loop, Parallel Elements of a Matroid

- Let E be a finite set and let M be a matroid on E.

 (a) A loop of M is a singleton $\{e\} \subseteq E$ such that $\{e\} \notin M$.

 (b) $Parallel\ elements$ are elements $e, f \in E$ such that e, f are not loops but $\{e, f\} \notin M$.

Def'n 3.4. Let V be a vector space over a field \mathbb{K} and let $E \subseteq V$ be finite. Then $M = \{X \subseteq E : X \text{ is linearly independent}\}$

$$M = \{X \subseteq E : X \text{ is linearly independent}\}$$
 [3.1]

(3.2)Vector Matroids We have to verify that [3.1] actually defines a matroid.

- (a) $\emptyset \in M$, so M is nonempty.
- (b) If $X \subseteq E$ is linearly independent, then any $Y \subseteq X$ is linearly independent also, so any $Y \subseteq X$ is an element of E.
- (c) Note that maximally linearly independent subsets of E are the bases of span (E). So if $X,Y \in M$ are maximal, then $|X| = |Y| = \underline{\dim(\operatorname{span}(E))}$. So if $e \in X \setminus Y$, then $\operatorname{span}(X \setminus \{e\})$ is (d-1)dimensional, which means there exists $f \in Y$ that is not in span $(X \setminus \{e\})$. But note that this f

is not in X, since otherwise $f \in \text{span}(X \setminus \{e\})$. Thus we found $e \in X \setminus Y, f \in Y \setminus X$ such that $(X \setminus \{e\}) \cup \{f\}$ is a basis for E.

Graphical Matroid

Let G be a multi-graph^a with edge set E. Let M be the collection of subsets of E such that given any $X \in M$, deleting all edges not in X gives a forest. In other words, if $X \in M$, then

is a forest. We call M the graphical matroid over E.

(3.3)**Graphical Matroids**

We show that graphical matriods are matriods.

- (a) $\emptyset \in M$, so M is nonempty.
- (b) If $X \in M$, then given any $Y \in X$, $Y \in M$, since we already deleted enough edges to form an acyclic graph with X, and we are deleting even more with Y.
- (c) Note that maximal elements of M are spanning forests. Suppose that $X, Y \in M$ are maximal. Then given any $e \in X \setminus Y$, note that we are *splitting* a component of X into 2 components by removing e from X. But since $e \notin Y$, there exists $f \in Y$ joining these pieces, so X - e + f is again a spanning forest. Thus X - e + f is a matroid.

(3.4)Analogy between Matroids, Vector Spaces, and Graphs

We have the following table that shows analogy between matroids, vector spaces, and graphs.

Analogy between Matroids, Vector Spaces, and Graphs		
matroids	vector spaces	graphs
independent sets	independent sets	subforests
dependent sets	dependent sets	subgraphs with a cycle
bases	bases of span (E) , where E is a	spanning forests
	finite subset of the vector space	
rank	$\dim(\operatorname{span}(E))$	maximum number of edges in a
		subforest
circuits	minimal dependent subsets	cycles
loops	{0 }	loops
parallel elements	parallel vectors	multiple edges

Let E be a finite set. The *free* matroid M on E is the collection of subsets of E: $M = \mathcal{P}(E)$.

(3.5)Free Matroid

Note that any free matroid is a matroid.

- (a) Clearly *M* is nonempty.
- (b) Clearly if $X \subseteq E$ and $Y \subseteq X$, then $Y \subseteq E$.
- (c) E is the only maximal independent set, so the last condition is vacuously true.

In particular, E is the basis for M. It turns out that a free matroid is a vector matroid and a graphical matroid.

^aIn other words, we allow multiple edges incident to the same vertices and loops.

Greedy Algorithms for Matroids

(3.6)

Prim's Algorithm for MST

Recall that *Prim's algorithm* successfully finds an MST for any connected weighted graph.

- (a) Start with any vertex and empty edge set.
- (b) At any iterative step, consider the cut induced by the current set of vertices. Choose the edge with the least weight, include the edge in the edge set, and vertex which is incident to the edge and not currently in the vertex set to the vertex set.

We claim that there is an analogous algorithm works in the matroid setting. Before proving this, we introduce some notions.

Simplicial Complex on a Set

Def'n 3.7. Let E be a finite set. A *simplicial complex I* on E is a collection of subsets of E such that (a) $\emptyset \in I$; and (b) if $X \in I$, then $Y \in I$ for any $Y \subseteq X$.

(3.7)Simplicial Complexes Note that a matroid is a simplicial complex with an additional notion of basis.

Isomorphism of Simplicial Complexes

Let E, F be finite sets and let I be a simplicial complex on E, J be a simplical complex on F. If bijective $\varphi: E \to F$ satisfies

$$X \in I \iff \varphi(X) \in J$$
,

then we say φ is an isomorphism of I, J.

There are other ways of specifying a simplicial complex. Suppose that I is a simplicial complex on a finite set E. Then we can uniquely determine what I is if we know any one of the following:

- (a) *I*;
- (b) maximal elements of *I*;
- (c) $\mathcal{P}(E) \setminus I$; and
- (d) minimal elements of $\mathcal{P}(E) \setminus I$.

Theorem 3.1. Characterizations of Matroids

Let E be a finite set and let I be a simplicial complex of E. Write

- *B to denote the collection of maximal elements of I;*
- \circ *F* to denote $\mathcal{P}(E) \setminus I$; and
- \circ *C* to denote the collection of minimal elements of *F*.

Then the following are equivalent.

- (a) I is a matroid (i.e. if $X, Y \in B$ and $e \in X \setminus Y$, then there is $f \in Y \setminus X$ such that $X \setminus \{e\} \cup \{f\} \in B$).
- (b) For every $X, Y \in B$ and $e \in X \setminus Y$ there exists $f \in Y \setminus X$ such that $Y \cup \{e\} \setminus \{f\} \in B$.
- (c) For any $E' \subseteq E$, if $X, Y \subseteq E'$ are maximal in $\mathcal{P}(E') \cap I$, then |X| = |Y|.

- (d) If $X, Y \in I$ and |X| < |Y|, then there exists $y \in Y \setminus X$ such that $X \cup \{y\} \in I$.
- (e) For every nonnegative weight function on E, there is a greedy algorithm which finds a maximum weight independent set.