

# Tableaux Combinatorics and Symmetric Functions

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ABSTRACT. These are lecture notes for Math 206a (Algebraic combinatorics) at UCLA, Fall 2025.

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Let  $R$  be a commutative ring, usually taken to be  $\mathbb{Q}$  or  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

Denote  $\mathbf{x}_n = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ , and  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots)$

## 1. Partitions

An integer partition of  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  is a sequence of integers  $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k)$  such that  $\sum_i \lambda_i = n$  and  $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_k$ . We denote  $\lambda \vdash n$ , and  $\ell(\lambda) = k$ . For convenience, we set  $\lambda_i = 0$  for  $i > \ell(\lambda)$ .

We will represent an integer partition using a *Young diagram*, which is a stack of boxes so that the  $i$ -th row has  $\lambda_i$  boxes. For example, the following is the Young diagram corresponds to  $(4, 3, 1)$ .

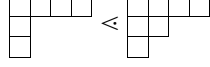


Denote  $\mathbf{Y}_n$  the set of all partitions of  $n$ , and denote  $\mathbf{Y} = \bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbf{Y}_i$ .

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There are two natural partial orders equipped with  $\mathbf{Y}$ . The first one, called *Young's natural order*, is defined so that  $\lambda \leq \mu$  when  $\lambda_i \leq \mu_i$  for all  $i$ . In other words, the Young diagram of  $\mu$  contains that of  $\lambda$ . In Young's order,  $\lambda$  is covered by  $\mu$  precisely when  $\mu$  has exactly one more box than  $\lambda$ . For example,  $(4, 2, 1) < (4, 3, 1)$ .



This partial order turns out to be a distributive lattices, hence called the *Young's lattice*.

Let  $\mathbb{Y} = \mathbb{Q}\text{-span}(\mathbf{Y})$  be the vector space over  $\mathbb{Q}$  whose basis are Young diagrams. Define two natural operators on  $\mathbb{Y}$  as follows:

$$U(\lambda) = \sum_{\lambda < \mu} \mu \quad D(\lambda) = \sum_{\mu < \lambda} \mu$$

(The actions are defined on the basis then extend by linearity.) For example,

$$U\left(\begin{array}{|c|c|c|}\hline \square & \square & \square \\ \hline \square & & \\ \hline \square & & \\ \hline \end{array}\right) = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|}\hline \square & \square & \square & \square \\ \hline \square & & & \\ \hline \square & & & \\ \hline \end{array} + \begin{array}{|c|c|c|}\hline \square & \square & \square \\ \hline \square & \square & \\ \hline \square & & \\ \hline \end{array} + \begin{array}{|c|c|}\hline \square & \square \\ \hline \square & \\ \hline \square & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

These operators satisfy the following identity.

**Proposition 1.1.**  $DU - UD = 1$ .

*Proof.* Exercise. Hint: given any partition  $\lambda$ , notice that there's always one more outer corner than inner corner.  $\square$

The algebra of the up/down operators is the *Weyl algebra*, denoted  $\mathcal{W}$ , which is the algebra of multiplication and differentiation on  $k[x]$  since  $[\frac{d}{dx}, x] = 1$ .

**Remark 1.2.** For any poset one can define the operators  $U$  and  $D$ , but not all satisfy the relation of the Weyl algebra. In [Sta88], Stanley defined *differential posets* to be those that affords a combinatorial representation of  $\mathcal{W}$ , with  $\mathbf{Y}$  being the canonical example.

**Proposition 1.3.** Consider  $D^n U^n$  as an element of  $\mathcal{W}$ , one can rewrite so that all  $U$ 's appear before  $D$ 's. Then the identity coefficient is  $n!$ .

*Proof.* Exercise.  $\square$

**Example 1.4.**  $D^2 U^2 = D(UD + 1)U = DUDU + DU = (UD + 1)(UD + 1) + (UD + 1) = UDUD + 3UD + 2 = U(UD + 1)D + 3UD + 2 = U^2 D^2 + 4UD + 2$ .

The second partial order that we will introduce, is a partial order defined on  $\mathbf{Y}_n$  (although extendable to  $\mathbf{Y}$ , it is more natural to consider as an order on  $\mathbf{Y}_n$  for each  $n$ ).

**Definition 1.5.**  $\lambda \leq \mu$  if and only if  $\lambda_1 + \cdots + \lambda_k \leq \mu_1 + \cdots + \mu_k$  for all  $k$ <sup>1</sup>. This is called the *dominance order*.

<sup>1</sup>Recall that  $\lambda_i = 0$  if  $i > \ell(\lambda)$ .

## 2. Symmetric polynomials

Let  $R$  be a commutative ring, usually taken to be  $\mathbb{Q}$  or  $\mathbb{Z}$ . We say a polynomial  $f \in R[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  is *symmetric* to be all polynomials that are invariant under  $S_n$ , i.e.

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(x_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, x_{\sigma(n)})$$

for all  $\sigma \in S_n$ .

**Definition 2.1.** Define  $\Lambda_{R,n} := R[\mathbf{x}_n]^{S_n} \subset R[\mathbf{x}_n]$  the subring of all symmetric polynomials.

Given any monomial  $\prod x_i^{\alpha_i}$ , one can find the smallest symmetric polynomial that contains it. This is exactly the sum of all possible rearrangements of  $\alpha = \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_l\}$ . All symmetric polynomials that arise in this way are called *monomial symmetric polynomials*, defined as follows.

**Definition 2.2.** For  $\lambda \in \mathbf{Y}$  such that  $\ell(\lambda) \leq n$ . Define *monomial symmetric polynomial*  $m_\lambda$  to be

$$m_\lambda = \sum_{\alpha \text{ rearrangement of } \lambda} \mathbf{x}_n^\alpha$$

It is clear that these form a basis of  $\Lambda_{R,n}$ . At the same time, there's another natural (but less obvious) basis for the ring symmetric polynomials — the *elementary symmetric polynomials*.

**Definition 2.3** (elementary symmetric polynomials). For  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , define

$$e_k(\mathbf{x}_n) = \sum_{1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k} x_{i_1} \cdots x_{i_k}.$$

And for  $\lambda \in \mathbf{Y}$ , define  $e_\lambda(\mathbf{x}_n) = e_{\lambda_1}(\mathbf{x}_n) \cdots e_{\lambda_l}(\mathbf{x}_n)$

That fact that  $e_\lambda$ 's also generate  $\Lambda_{R,n}$ , is called the *Fundamental theorem of symmetric polynomials*.

**Theorem 2.4** (Fundamental Theorem of Symmetric Polynomials). *There is an isomorphism between the ring of symmetric polynomials  $\Lambda_{R,n}$  and the polynomials ring of  $n$  variables  $R[t_1, \dots, t_n]$ , via the map  $e_n \mapsto t_n$ .*

*Proof.*

□

Now consider the ring of symmetric polynomials of differently many variables. There is an obvious projection map from  $\Lambda_{R,j}$  to  $\Lambda_{R,i}$  when  $i \leq j$ :

$$\rho_{i,j} : \Lambda_{R,j} \rightarrow \Lambda_{R,i} \quad f(x_1, \dots, x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_j) \mapsto f(x_1, \dots, x_i, 0, \dots, 0).$$

With the help of the fundamental theorem (Theorem 2.4), one can write down the maps  $\phi_{i,j}$  of which  $\rho_{i,j}$  are inverse to. For  $i \leq j$ , we define

$$\phi_{i,j} : \Lambda_{R,i} \rightarrow \Lambda_{R,j} \quad e_k(\mathbf{x}_n) \mapsto e_k(\mathbf{x}_m)$$

It is easy to check that:

**Lemma 2.5.**

- $\phi_{i,i} = 1$  for all  $i$ .
- $\phi_{i,k} = f_{j,k}f_{i,j}$  for all  $i \leq j \leq k$ .

### 3. Symmetric Functions

### 4. Robinson-Schensted Correspondence

### 5. Greene-Kleitman Theory

### References

[Sta88] Richard P Stanley, *Differential posets*, Journal of the American Mathematical Society **1** (1988), no. 4, 919–961. [2](#)