13. Symmetric groups

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1. Cycles, disjoint cycle decompositions

The symmetric group S_n is the group of bijections of $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ to itself, also called **permutations** of n things. A standard notation for the permutation that sends $i \longrightarrow \ell_i$ is

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & \dots & n \\ \ell_1 & \ell_2 & \ell_3 & \dots & \ell_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Under composition of mappings, the permutations of $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ is a group.

The fixed points of a permutation f are the elements $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ such that f(i) = i.

A k-cycle is a permutation of the form

$$f(\ell_1) = \ell_2$$
 $f(\ell_2) = \ell_3$... $f(\ell_{k-1}) = \ell_k$ and $f(\ell_k) = \ell_1$

for distinct ℓ_1, \ldots, ℓ_k among $\{1, \ldots, n\}$, and f(i) = i for i not among the ℓ_j . There is standard notation for this cycle:

$$(\ell_1 \ \ell_2 \ \ell_3 \ \dots \ \ell_k)$$

Note that the same cycle can be written several ways, by cyclically permuting the ℓ_j : for example, it also can be written as

$$(\ell_2 \ \ell_3 \ \dots \ \ell_k \ \ell_1)$$
 or $(\ell_3 \ \ell_4 \ \dots \ \ell_k \ \ell_1 \ \ell_2)$

Two cycles are **disjoint** when the respective sets of indices *properly moved* are disjoint. That is, cycles $(\ell_1 \ \ell_2 \ \ell_3 \ \ldots \ \ell_k)$ and $(\ell'_1 \ \ell'_2 \ \ell'_3 \ \ldots \ \ell'_{k'})$ are disjoint when the sets $\{\ell_1, \ell_2, \ldots, \ell_k\}$ and $\{\ell'_1, \ell'_2, \ldots, \ell'_{k'}\}$ are disjoint.

[1.0.1] Theorem: Every permutation is uniquely expressible as a product of disjoint cycles.

Proof: Given $g \in S_n$, the cyclic subgroup $\langle g \rangle \subset S_n$ generated by g acts on the set $X = \{1, \ldots, n\}$ and decomposes X into disjoint *orbits*

$$O_x = \{g^i x : i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

for choices of orbit representatives $x \in X$. For each orbit representative x, let N_x be the order of g when restricted to the orbit $\langle g \rangle \cdot x$, and define a cycle

$$C_x = (x \ gx \ g^2x \ \dots \ g^{N_x - 1}x)$$

Since distinct orbits are disjoint, these cycles are disjoint. And, given $y \in X$, choose an orbit representative x such that $y \in \langle g \rangle \cdot x$. Then $g \cdot y = C_x \cdot y$. This proves that g is the product of the cycles C_x over orbit representatives x.

2. Transpositions

The (adjacent) transpositions in the symmetric group S_n are the permutations s_i defined by

$$s_i(j) = \begin{cases} i+1 & (\text{for } j=i) \\ i & (\text{for } j=i+1) \\ j & (\text{otherwise}) \end{cases}$$

That is, s_i is a 2-cycle that interchanges *i* and i + 1 and does nothing else.

[2.0.1] **Theorem:** The permutation group S_n on n things $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ is generated by *adjacent* transpositions s_i .

Proof: Induction on *n*. Given a permutation *p* of *n* things, we show that there is a product *q* of adjacent transpositions such that $(q \circ p)(n) = n$. Then $q \circ p$ can be viewed as a permutation in S_{n-1} , and we do induction on *n*. We may suppose p(n) = i < n, or else we already have p(n) = n and we can do the induction on *n*.

Do induction on *i* to get to the situation that $(q \circ p)(n) = n$ for some product *q* of adjacent transposition. Suppose we have a product *q* of adjacent transpositions such that $(q \circ p)(n) = i < n$. For example, the empty product *q* gives $q \circ p = p$. Then $(s_i \circ q \circ p)(n) = i + 1$. By induction on *i* we're done. ///

The **length** of an element $g \in S_n$ with respect to the generators s_1, \ldots, s_{n-1} is the smallest integer ℓ such that

$$g = s_{i_1} s_{i_2} \dots s_{i_{\ell-1}} s_{i_{\ell}}$$

3. Worked examples

[13.1] Classify the conjugacy classes in S_n (the symmetric group of bijections of $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ to itself).

Given $g \in S_n$, the cyclic subgroup $\langle g \rangle$ generated by g certainly acts on $X = \{1, \ldots, n\}$ and therefore decomposes X into *orbits*

 $O_x = \{g^i x : i \in \mathbb{Z}\}\$

for choices of orbit representatives $x_i \in X$. We claim that the (unordered!) list of sizes of the (disjoint!) orbits of g on X uniquely determines the conjugacy class of g, and vice versa. (An unordered list that allows the same thing to appear more than once is a **multiset**. It is not simply a set!)

To verify this, first suppose that $g = tht^{-1}$. Then $\langle g \rangle$ orbits and $\langle h \rangle$ orbits are related by

$$\langle g \rangle$$
-orbit $O_{tx} \leftrightarrow \langle h \rangle$ -orbit O_x

Indeed,

$$g^{\ell} \cdot (tx) = (tht^{-1})^{\ell} \cdot (tx) = t(h^{\ell} \cdot x)$$

Thus, if g and h are conjugate, the unordered lists of sizes of their orbits must be the same.

On the other hand, suppose that the unordered lists of sizes of the orbits of g and h are the same. Choose an ordering of orbits of the two such that the cardinalities match up:

$$|O_{x_i}^{(g)}| = |O_{y_i}^{(h)}| \quad (\text{for } i = 1, \dots, m)$$

where $O_{x_i}^{(g)}$ is the $\langle g \rangle$ -orbit containing x_i and $O_{y_i}^{(h)}$ is the $\langle g \rangle$ -orbit containing y_i . Fix representatives as indicated for the orbits. Let p be a permutation such that, for each index i, p bijects $O_{x_i}^{(g)}$ to $O_{x_i}^{(g)}$ by

$$p(g^{\ell}x_i) = h^{\ell}y$$

The only slightly serious point is that this map is well-defined, since there are many exponents ℓ which may give the same element. And, indeed, it is at this point that we use the fact that the two orbits have the same cardinality: we have

$$O_{x_i}^{(g)} \leftrightarrow \langle g \rangle / \langle g \rangle_{x_i} \quad (\text{by } g^\ell \langle g \rangle_{x_i} \leftrightarrow g^\ell x_i)$$

where $\langle g \rangle_{x_i}$ is the isotropy subgroup of x_i . Since $\langle g \rangle$ is cyclic, $\langle g \rangle_{x_i}$ is necessarily $\langle g^N \rangle$ where N is the number of elements in the orbit. The same is true for h, with the same N. That is, $g^{\ell}x_i$ depends exactly on $\ell \mod N$, and $h^{\ell}y_i$ likewise depends exactly on $\ell \mod N$. Thus, the map p is well-defined.

Then claim that g and h are conjugate. Indeed, given $x \in X$, take $O_{x_i}^{(g)}$ containing $x = g^{\ell} x_i$ and $O_{y_i}^{(h)}$ containing $px = h^{\ell} y_i$. The fact that the exponents of g and h are the same is due to the definition of p. Then

$$p(gx) = p(g \cdot g^{\ell} x_i) = h^{1+\ell} y_i = h \cdot h^{\ell} y_i = h \cdot p(g^{\ell} x_i) = h(px)$$

Thus, for all $x \in X$

$$(p \circ g)(x) = (h \circ p)(x)$$

Therefore,

$$p \circ g = h \circ p$$

or

$$pgp^{-1} = h$$

(Yes, there are usually many different choices of p which accomplish this. And we could also have tried to say all this using the more explicit cycle notation, but it's not clear that this would have been a wise choice.)

Symmetric groups

[13.2] The projective linear group $PGL_n(k)$ is the group $GL_n(k)$ modulo its center k, which is the collection of scalar matrices. Prove that $PGL_2(\mathbb{F}_3)$ is isomorphic to S_4 , the group of permutations of 4 things. (*Hint:* Let $PGL_2(\mathbb{F}_3)$ act on lines in \mathbb{F}_3^2 , that is, on one-dimensional \mathbb{F}_3 -subspaces in \mathbb{F}_3^2 .)

The group $PGL_2(\mathbb{F}_3)$ acts by permutations on the set X of lines in \mathbb{F}_3^2 , because $GL_2(\mathbb{F}_3)$ acts on non-zero vectors in \mathbb{F}_3^2 . The scalar matrices in $GL_2(\mathbb{F}_3)$ certainly stabilize every line (since they act by scalars), so act trivially on the set X.

On the other hand, any non-scalar matrix $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ acts non-trivially on some line. Indeed, if

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} * \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} * \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ * \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ * \end{pmatrix}$$

then c = 0. Similarly, if

then b = 0. And if

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \lambda \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

for some λ then a = d, so the matrix is scalar.

Thus, the map from $GL_2(\mathbb{F}_3)$ to permutations $\operatorname{Aut}_{\operatorname{set}}(X)$ of X has kernel consisting exactly of scalar matrices, so factors through (that is, is well defined on) the quotient $PGL_2(\mathbb{F}_3)$, and is injective on that quotient. (Since $PGL_2(\mathbb{F}_3)$ is the quotient of $GL_2(\mathbb{F}_3)$ by the kernel of the homomorphism to $\operatorname{Aut}_{\operatorname{set}}(X)$, the kernel of the mapping induced on $PGL_2(\mathbb{F}_3)$ is trivial.)

Computing the order of $PGL_2(\mathbb{F}_3)$ gives

$$|PGL_2(\mathbb{F}_3)| = |GL_2(\mathbb{F}_3)| / |\text{scalar matrices}| = \frac{(3^2 - 1)(3^2 - 3)}{3 - 1} = (3 + 1)(3^2 - 3) = 24$$

(The order of $GL_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$ is computed, as usual, by viewing this group as automorphisms of \mathbb{F}_q^n .)

This number is the same as the order of S_4 , and, thus, an injective homomorphism must be surjective, hence, an isomorphism.

(One might want to verify that the center of $GL_n(\mathbb{F}_q)$ is exactly the scalar matrices, but that's not strictly necessary for this question.)

[13.3] An automorphism of a group G is **inner** if it is of the form $g \longrightarrow xgx^{-1}$ for fixed $x \in G$. Otherwise it is an **outer automorphism**. Show that every automorphism of the permutation group S_3 on 3 things is *inner*. (*Hint:* Compare the action of S_3 on the set of 2-cycles by conjugation.)

Let G be the group of automorphisms, and X the set of 2-cycles. We note that an automorphism must send order-2 elements to order-2 elements, and that the 2-cycles are exactly the order-2 elements in S_3 . Further, since the 2-cycles generate S_3 , if an automorphism is trivial on all 2-cycles it is the trivial automorphism. Thus, G injects to Aut_{set}(X), which is permutations of 3 things (since there are three 2-cycles).

On the other hand, the conjugation action of S_3 on itself stabilizes X, and, thus, gives a group homomorphism $f: S_3 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Aut}_{\operatorname{set}}(X)$. The kernel of this homomorphism is trivial: if a non-trivial permutation p conjugates the two-cycle $t = (1 \ 2)$ to itself, then

$$(ptp^{-1})(3) = t(3) = 3$$

so $tp^{-1}(3) = p^{-1}(3)$. That is, t fixes the image $p^{-1}(3)$, which therefore is 3. A symmetrical argument shows that $p^{-1}(i) = i$ for all i, so p is trivial. Thus, S_3 injects to permutations of X.

In summary, we have group homomorphisms

$$S_3 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Aut}_{\operatorname{group}}(S_3) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Aut}_{\operatorname{set}}(X)$$

where the map of automorphisms of S_3 to permutations of X is an isomorphism, and the composite map of S_3 to permutations of X is surjective. Thus, the map of S_3 to its own automorphism group is necessarily surjective.

[13.4] Identify the element of S_n requiring the maximal number of adjacent transpositions to express it, and prove that it is unique.

We claim that the permutation that takes $i \longrightarrow n-i+1$ is the unique element requiring n(n-1)/2 elements, and that this is the maximum number.

For an ordered listing (t_1, \ldots, t_n) of $\{1, \ldots, n\}$, let

 $d_o(t_1, \ldots, t_n) =$ number of indices i < j such that $t_i > t_j$

and for a permutation p let

$$d(p) = d_o(p(1), \dots, p(n))$$

Note that if $t_i < t_j$ for all i < j, then the ordering is $(1, \ldots, n)$. Also, given a configuration (t_1, \ldots, t_n) with some $t_i > t_j$ for i < j, necessarily this inequality holds for some *adjacent* indices (or else the opposite inequality would hold for *all* indices, by transitivity!). Thus, if the ordering is *not* the default $(1, \ldots, n)$, then there is an index *i* such that $t_i > t_{i+1}$. Then application of the adjacent transposition s_i of i, i + 1 reduces by exactly 1 the value of the function $d_o()$.

Thus, for a permutation p with $d(p) = \ell$ we can find a product q of exactly ℓ adjacent transpositions such that $q \circ p = 1$. That is, we need at most $d(p) = \ell$ adjacent transpositions to express p. (This does not preclude *less efficient* expressions.)

On the other hand, we want to be sure that $d(p) = \ell$ is the *minimum* number of adjacent transpositions needed to express p. Indeed, application of s_i only affects the comparison of p(i) and p(i+1). Thus, it can decrease d(p) by at most 1. That is,

$$d(s_i \circ p) \ge d(p) - 1$$

and possibly $d(s_i \circ p) = d(p)$. This shows that we do need at least d(p) adjacent transpositions to express p.

Then the permutation w_o that sends i to n - i + 1 has the effect that $w_o(i) > w_o(j)$ for all i < j, so it has the maximum possible $d(w_o) = n(n-1)/2$. For uniqueness, suppose p(i) > p(j) for all i < j. Evidently, we must claim that $p = w_o$. And, indeed, the inequalities

$$p(n) < p(n-1) < p(n-2) < \ldots < p(2) < p(1)$$

leave no alternative (assigning distinct values in $\{1, \ldots, n\}$) but

$$p(n) = 1 < p(n-1) = 2 < \ldots < p(2) = n - 1 < p(1) = n$$

(One might want to exercise one's technique by giving a more careful inductive proof of this.)

[13.5] Let the permutation group S_n on n things act on the polynomial ring $\mathbb{Z}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ by \mathbb{Z} -algebra homomorphisms defined by $p(x_i) = x_{p(i)}$ for $p \in S_n$. (The universal mapping property of the polynomial ring allows us to define the images of the indeterminates x_i to be whatever we want, and at the same time guarantees that this determines the \mathbb{Z} -algebra homomorphism completely.) Verify that this is a group homomorphism

$$S_n \longrightarrow \operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Z}-\operatorname{alg}}(\mathbb{Z}[x_1,\ldots,x_n])$$

Symmetric groups

Consider

$$D = \prod_{i < j} \left(x_i - x_j \right)$$

Show that for any $p \in S_n$

$$p(D) = \sigma(p) \cdot D$$

where $\sigma(p) = \pm 1$. Infer that σ is a (non-trivial) group homomorphism, the sign homomorphism on S_n .

Since these polynomial algebras are *free* on the indeterminates, we check that the permutation group *acts* (in the technical sense) on the set of indeterminates. That is, we show associativity and that the identity of the group acts trivially. The latter is clear. For the former, let p, q be two permutations. Then

$$(pq)(x_i) = x_{(pq)(i)}$$

while

$$p(q(x_i)) = p(x_{q(i)} = x_{p(q(i))})$$

Since p(q(i)) = (pq)(i), each $p \in S_n$ gives an automorphism of the ring of polynomials. (The endomorphisms are invertible since the group has inverses, for example.)

Any permutation merely permutes the factors of D, up to sign. Since the group *acts* in the technical sense,

$$(pq)(D) = p(q(D))$$

That is, since the automorphisms given by elements of S_n are \mathbb{Z} -linear,

$$\sigma(pq) \cdot D = p(\sigma(q) \cdot D) = \sigma(q)p(D) = \sigma(q) \cdot \sigma(p) \cdot D$$

Thus,

$$\sigma(pq) = \sigma(p) \cdot \sigma(q)$$

which is the homomorphism property of σ .

Exercises

13.[3.0.1] How many distinct k-cycles are there in the symmetric group S_n ?

13.[3.0.2] How many elements of order 35 are there in the symmetric group S_{12} ?

13.[3.0.3] What is the largest order of an element of S_{12} ?

13.[3.0.4] How many elements of order 6 are there in the symmetric group S_{11} ?

13.[3.0.5] Show that the *order* of a permutation is the least common multiple of the lengths of the cycles in a disjoint cycle decomposition of it.

13.[3.0.6] Let X be the set $\mathbb{Z}/31$, and let $f: X \longrightarrow X$ be the permutation $f(x) = 2 \cdot x$. Decompose this permutation into disjoint cycles.

13.[3.0.7] Let X be the set $\mathbb{Z}/29$, and let $f: X \longrightarrow X$ be the permutation $f(x) = x^3$. Decompose this permutation into disjoint cycles.

13.[3.0.8] Show that if a permutation is expressible as a product of an odd number of 2-cycles in *one* way, then *any* expression of it as a product of 2-cycles expresses it as a product of an odd number of 2-cycles.

13.[3.0.9] Identify the lengths (expressed in terms of *adjacent transpositions*) of all the elements in S_4 .

13.[3.0.10] (*) Count the number of elements of S_n having at least one fixed point.

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