

# Visual Algebra

## Lecture 2.5: Groups of permutations

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# Groups of permutations

Loosely speaking, a **permutation** is an action that rearranges a set of objects.

## Definition

Let  $X$  be a set. A **permutation** of  $X$  is a bijection  $\pi: X \rightarrow X$ .

## Definition

The permutations of a set  $X$  form a group that we denote  $S_X$  or  $\text{Perm}(S)$ . The special case when  $X = \{1, \dots, n\}$  is called the **symmetric group**, denoted  $S_n$ .

If  $|X| = |Y|$ , then  $S_X \cong S_Y$ , so we'll usually work with  $S_n$ , which has order  $n! = n(n-1) \cdots 2 \cdot 1$ .

There are several notations for permutations, each with their strengths and weaknesses.

This is best seen with an example:

$i$	1	2	3	4	5	6
$\pi(i)$	2	3	1	6	5	4

"one-line notation"



"permutation diagram"

$$\pi = (1\ 2\ 3)(4\ 5\ 6)$$

"cycle notation"

## Permutation notations

**One-line notation:**  $\pi = 231654$ ,  $\sigma = 564123$

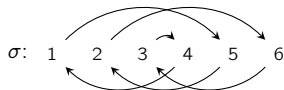
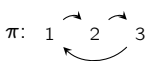
**Pros:**

- concise
- nice visualization of rearrangement

**Cons:**

- bad for combining permutations
- not clear where elements get mapped
- hard to compute the inverse

**Permutation diagram:**



**Pros:**

- can see where elements get mapped
- easy to compute inverses
- convenient for combining permutations

**Cons:**

- cumbersome to write
- can get tangled

**Cycle notation:**  $\pi = (123)(46)$ ,  $\sigma = (152634)$ ;

**Pros:**

- short and concise
- easy to see the disjoint cycles
- convenient for combining permutations

**Cons:**

- representation isn't unique
- not clear what  $n$  is

## Cycle notation

The cycle  $(1\ 4\ 6\ 5)$  means

*“1 goes to 4, which goes to 6, which does to 5, which goes back to 1.”*

Thus, we can write  $(1\ 4\ 6\ 5) = (4\ 6\ 5\ 1) = (6\ 5\ 1\ 4) = (5\ 1\ 4\ 6)$ .

To find the **inverse** of a cycle, write it backwards:

$$(1\ 4\ 6\ 5)^{-1} = (5\ 6\ 4\ 1) = (1\ 5\ 6\ 4) = \dots$$

Though it's not necessary, we usually prefer to begin a cycle with its smallest number.

### Remark

Every permutation in  $S_n$  can be written in cycle notation as a product of **disjoint cycles**, and this is unique up to commuting and cyclically shifting cycles.

For example, consider the following permutation in  $S_{10}$ :



This is a product of four disjoint cycles. Since they are disjoint, they commute:

$$(1465)(23)(8\ 10\ 9) = (23)(8\ 10\ 9)(1465) = (23)(8\ 10\ 9)(1465) = \dots$$

## Composing permutations

### Remark

The **order** of a permutation is the **least common multiple** of the sizes of its disjoint cycles.

For example,  $(1\ 3\ 8\ 6)(2\ 9\ 7\ 4\ 10\ 5) \in S_{10}$  has order 12; this should be intuitive.

When cycles are not disjoint, order matters.

Many books compose permutations from right-to-left, due to function composition.

Since we have been using **right Cayley graphs**, we will compose them from left-to-right.

### Notational convention

Composition of permutations will be done **left-to-right**. That is, given  $\pi, \sigma \in S_n$ ,

$\pi\sigma$  means “do  $\pi$ , then do  $\sigma$ ”.

The main drawback about our convention is that it does not work well with function notation applied to elements, like  $\pi(i)$ .

For example, notice that

$$(\pi\sigma)(i) = \sigma(\pi(i)) \neq \pi(\sigma(i)).$$

However, we will hardly ever use this notation, so that drawback is minimal.

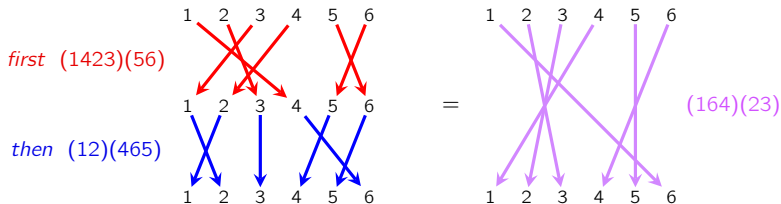
# Composing permutations

Here are two ways illustrating how permutations are composed, with the example

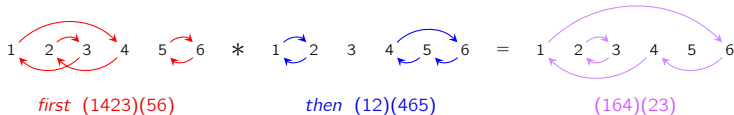
First do  $\frac{i \mid 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4 \ 5 \ 6}{\pi(i) \mid 4 \ 3 \ 1 \ 2 \ 6 \ 5}$

then do  $\frac{i \mid 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4 \ 5 \ 6}{\sigma(i) \mid 2 \ 1 \ 3 \ 6 \ 4 \ 5}$

■ “By stacking:”

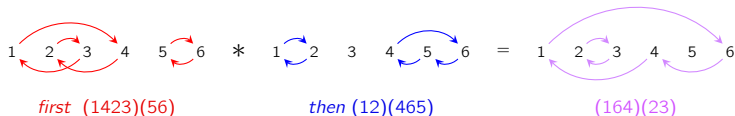


■ “By cycles:”



## Composing permutations in cycle notation

Let's practice composing two permutations:



Let's now do that in slow motion.

In the example above, we start with 1 and then read off:

- "1 goes to 4, then 4 goes to 6";      Write: (1 6
- "6 goes to 5, then 5 goes to 4";      Write: (1 6 4
- "4 goes to 2, then 2 goes to 1";      Write: (1 6 4), and start a new cycle.
- "2 goes to 3, then 3 is fixed";      Write: (1 6 4) (2 3
- "3 goes to 1, then 1 goes to 2";      Write: (1 6 4) (2 3), and start a new cycle.
- "5 goes to 6, then 6 goes to 5";      Write: (1 6 4) (2 3) (5); now we're done.

We typically omit 1-cycles (fixed points), so the permutation above is just (1 6 4) (2 3).

## Permutation matrices

We have seen how to represent groups of symmetries such as  $V_4$ ,  $C_n$ , and  $D_n$  as matrices.

Permuting coordinates of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is also a linear transformation.

Every permutation can be represented by an  $n \times n$  **permutation matrix**,  $P_\pi$ .

For an example of this, consider the following permutation  $\pi \in S_5$ :

$$\begin{array}{c|ccccc} i & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ \hline \pi(i) & 3 & 1 & 2 & 5 & 4 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} 1 \xrightarrow{\quad} 2 \xrightarrow{\quad} 3 \\ \quad \xleftarrow{\quad} 2 \xleftarrow{\quad} 1 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} 4 \xrightarrow{\quad} 5 \\ \quad \xleftarrow{\quad} 5 \end{array} \quad \pi = (132)(45)$$

The matrix  $P_\pi$  permutes the entries of a column vector:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_3 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_5 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix},$$

It permutes the entries of a row vector (by coordinates):

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_4 & x_5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 & x_3 & x_1 & x_5 & x_4 \end{bmatrix}.$$



# Permutation matrices

## Definition

Given an element  $\pi \in S_n$ , the corresponding **permutation matrix** is the  $n \times n$  matrix

$$P_\pi = (p_{ij}), \quad p_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \pi(i) = j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Here are several more examples of permutation matrices.

$$P_{(12)(34)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad P_{(134)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad P_{(1234)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Notice that the difference between left and right multiplication is:

$$P_\pi P_\sigma x \quad \text{Right-to-left: "Start with } x, \text{ apply } \sigma, \text{ then } \pi\text{"}$$

$$x^T P_\pi P_\sigma \quad \text{Left-to-right: "Start with } x^T, \text{ apply } \pi, \text{ then } \sigma\text{"}$$

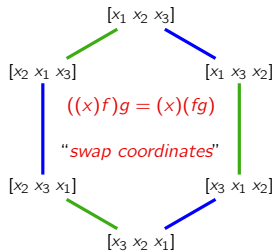
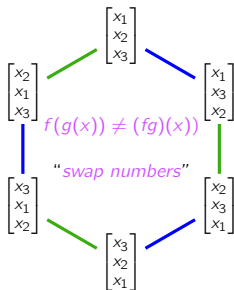
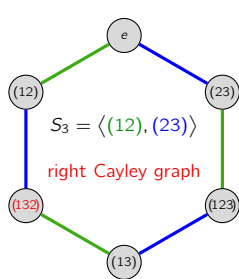
It does not matter whether we use row or column vectors, but we must be careful.

- **Column vectors** correspond to multiplying **right-to-left**, as in **function composition**.
- **Row vectors** correspond to multiplying **left-to-right**, which has been **our standard**.

Our left-to-right multiplication convention is more compatible with row vectors

$$P_{(12)}P_{(23)}\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_3 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = P_{(132)}\mathbf{v}.$$

$$\mathbf{v}^T P_{(12)}P_{(23)} = [x_1 \quad x_2 \quad x_3] \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = [x_1 \quad x_2 \quad x_3] \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ = [x_2 \quad x_3 \quad x_1] = \mathbf{v}^T P_{(132)}.$$



## Cayley's theorem

A set of permutations that forms a group is called a **permutation group**.

A fundamental theorem by British mathematician Arthur Cayley (1821–1895) says that every finite group can be thought of as a collection of permutations.

This is clear for groups of symmetries like  $V_4$ ,  $C_n$ , or  $D_n$ , but less so for groups like  $Q_8$ .

### Cayley's theorem

Every finite group is isomorphic to a collection of permutations, i.e., some subgroup of  $S_n$ .

We don't have the mathematical tools to prove this, but we'll get a 1-line proof when we study group actions.

A natural first question to ask is the following:

*Given a group, how do we associate it with a set of permutations?*

We'll see two algorithms which give strong intuition for why Cayley's theorem is true.

## Constructing permutations from a Cayley graph

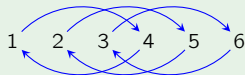
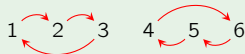
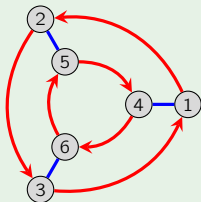
Here is an algorithm given a **Cayley graph** with  $n$  nodes:

1. number the nodes 1 through  $n$ ,
2. interpret each arrow type in the Cayley graph as a permutation.

Take the permutations corresponding to the generators.

### Example

Let's try this with  $D_3 = \langle r, f \rangle$ .



We see that  $D_3$  is isomorphic to the subgroup  $\langle (123)(465), (14)(25)(36) \rangle$  of  $S_6$ .

## Constructing permutations from a Cayley table

Here is an algorithm given a [Cayley table](#) with  $n$  elements:

1. replace the table headings with 1 through  $n$ ,
2. make the appropriate replacements throughout the rest of the table,
3. interpret each row (or column) as a permutation.

Take the permutations corresponding to *any* generating set.

### Example

Let's try this with the Cayley table for  $D_3 = \langle r, f \rangle$ .

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	2	3	1	5	6	4
3	3	1	2	6	4	5
4	4	6	5	1	3	2
5	5	4	6	2	1	3
6	6	5	4	3	2	1

Row 1 (1): 1 2 3 4 5 6

Row 2 ( $r$ ): 1  $\leftrightarrow$  2  $\leftrightarrow$  3 4  $\leftrightarrow$  5  $\leftrightarrow$  6

Row 3 ( $r^2$ ): 1  $\leftrightarrow$  2  $\leftrightarrow$  3 4  $\leftrightarrow$  5  $\leftrightarrow$  6

Row 4 ( $f$ ): 1  $\leftrightarrow$  2  $\leftrightarrow$  3  $\leftrightarrow$  4  $\leftrightarrow$  5  $\leftrightarrow$  6

Row 5 ( $rf$ ): 1  $\leftrightarrow$  2  $\leftrightarrow$  3  $\leftrightarrow$  4  $\leftrightarrow$  5  $\leftrightarrow$  6

Row 6 ( $r^2f$ ): 1  $\leftrightarrow$  2  $\leftrightarrow$  3  $\leftrightarrow$  4  $\leftrightarrow$  5  $\leftrightarrow$  6

We see that  $D_3$  is isomorphic to the subgroup  $\langle (123)(456), (14)(26)(35) \rangle$  of  $S_6$ .