## MATH 415 <br> Modern Algebra I

## Lecture 9: <br> Cayley graphs (continued). Permutations.

## Cayley graph

A finitely generated group $G$ can be visualized via the Cayley graph. Suppose $a, b, \ldots, c$ is a finite list of generators for $G$. The Cayley graph is a directed graph (or digraph) with labeled edges where vertices are elements of $G$ and edges show multiplication by generators. Namely, every edge is of the form $g \xrightarrow{s} g s$. Alternatively, one can assign colors to generators and think of the Cayley graph as a graph with colored edges.
The Cayley graph can be used for computations in $G$. For example, let $h=a^{2} b^{-1} c a^{-1}$. To compute $g h$, we need to find a path of the form (note the directions of edges)

$$
g \xrightarrow{a} g_{1} \xrightarrow{a} g_{2} \stackrel{b}{\longleftarrow} g_{3} \xrightarrow{c} g_{4} \stackrel{a}{\leftarrow} g_{5} .
$$

Such a path exists and is unique. Then $g h=g_{5}$.
Also, the Cayley graph can be used to find relations between generators, which are equalities of the form $g_{1} g_{2} \ldots g_{k}=1$, where each $g_{i}$ is a generator or the inverse of a generator. Any relation corresponds to a closed path in the graph.

## Examples of Cayley graphs

Group: $\mathbb{Z}_{5}$.
Generating set: $\{1\}$.


Group: $\mathbb{Z}$. Generating set: $\{1\}$.


Group: $\mathbb{Z}_{6}$.
Generating set: $\{2,3\}$.

## Klein four-group

The Klein four-group $V=\{a, b, c, d\}$ is a group with the following Cayley table and Cayley graph:

| $*$ | $a$ | $b$ | $c$ | $d$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $a$ | $a$ | $b$ | $c$ | $d$ |
| $b$ | $b$ | $a$ | $d$ | $c$ |
| $c$ | $c$ | $d$ | $a$ | $b$ |
| $d$ | $d$ | $c$ | $b$ | $a$ |



The group is abelian but not cyclic. The Cayley graph is relative to the generating set $\{b, c, d\}$ ( $a$ is the identity element). Since every generator is its own inverse, each directed edge $g \xrightarrow{s} g s$ is accompanied by another edge $g{ }^{s}$ gs. This allows to consider the Cayley graph as a graph with undirected edges.

## Groups of permutations

Let $X$ be a nonempty set. A permutation of $X$ is a bijective function $f: X \rightarrow X$.

Given two permutations $\pi$ and $\sigma$ of $X$, the composition $\pi \sigma$, defined by $\pi \sigma(x)=\pi(\sigma(x))$, is called the product of these permutations. In general, $\pi \sigma \neq \sigma \pi$, i.e., multiplication of permutations is not commutative. However it is associative: $\pi(\sigma \tau)=(\pi \sigma) \tau$.

All permutations of a set $X$ form a group called the symmetric group on $X$. Notation: $S_{X}, \Sigma_{X}, \operatorname{Sym}(X)$.
All permutations of $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ form a group called the symmetric group on $n$ symbols and denoted $S_{n}$ or $S(n)$.

## Permutations of a finite set

The word "permutation" usually refers to transformations of finite sets.
Permutations are traditionally denoted by Greek letters ( $\pi, \sigma, \tau, \rho, \ldots$ ).
Two-row notation. $\pi=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}a & b & c & \ldots \\ \pi(a) & \pi(b) & \pi(c) & \ldots\end{array}\right)$, where $a, b, c, \ldots$ is a list of all elements in the domain of $\pi$. Rearrangement of columns does not change the permutation.

Example. The symmetric group $S_{3}$ consists of 6 permutations:
$\left(\begin{array}{lll}1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{lll}1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{lll}1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{lll}1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{lll}1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{lll}1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1\end{array}\right)$.

Theorem The symmetric group $S_{n}$ has $n!=1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \ldots \cdot n$ elements.

Traditional argument: The number of elements in $S_{n}$ is the number of different rearrangements $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$ of the list $1,2, \ldots, n$. There are $n$ possibilities to choose $x_{1}$. For any choice of $x_{1}$, there are $n-1$ possibilities to choose $x_{2}$. And so on...
Alternative argument: Any rearrangement of the list $1,2, \ldots, n$ can be obtained as follows. We take a rearrangement of $1,2, \ldots, n-1$ and then insert $n$ into it. By the inductive assumption, there are ( $n-1$ )! ways to choose a rearrangement of $1,2, \ldots, n-1$. For any choice, there are $n$ ways to insert $n$.

## Product of permutations

Given two permutations $\pi$ and $\sigma$, the composition $\pi \sigma$ is called the product of these permutations. Do not forget that the composition is evaluated from right to left: $(\pi \sigma)(x)=\pi(\sigma(x))$.
To find $\pi \sigma$, we write $\pi$ underneath $\sigma$ (in two-row notation), then reorder the columns so that the second row of $\sigma$ matches the first row of $\pi$, then erase the matching rows.
Example. $\pi=\left(\begin{array}{lllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 1\end{array}\right), \sigma=\left(\begin{array}{lllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 5 & 4\end{array}\right)$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sigma=\left(\begin{array}{lllll}
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\
3 & 2 & 1 & 5 & 4
\end{array}\right) \quad \Longrightarrow \pi \sigma=\left(\begin{array}{lllll}
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\
4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 5
\end{array}\right) \\
& \pi=\left(\begin{array}{lllll}
3 & 2 & 1 & 5 & 4 \\
4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 5
\end{array}\right) \quad \Longrightarrow \quad
\end{aligned}
$$

To find $\pi^{-1}$, we simply exchange the upper and lower rows:

$$
\left(\begin{array}{lllll}
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\
2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 1
\end{array}\right)^{-1}=\left(\begin{array}{lllll}
2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 1 \\
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{lllll}
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\
5 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4
\end{array}\right) .
$$

## Cycles

A permutation $\pi$ of a set $X$ is called a cycle (or cyclic) of length $r$ if there exist $r$ distinct elements $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{r} \in X$ such that

$$
\pi\left(x_{1}\right)=x_{2}, \pi\left(x_{2}\right)=x_{3}, \ldots, \pi\left(x_{r-1}\right)=x_{r}, \pi\left(x_{r}\right)=x_{1},
$$

and $\pi(x)=x$ for any other $x \in X$.
Notation. $\pi=\left(\begin{array}{llll}x_{1} & x_{2} & \ldots & x_{r}\end{array}\right)$.
The identity function is (the only) cycle of length 1. Any cycle of length 2 is called a transposition.
The inverse of a cycle is also a cycle of the same length. Indeed, if $\pi=\left(\begin{array}{llll}x_{1} & x_{2} & \ldots & x_{r}\end{array}\right)$, then $\pi^{-1}=\left(\begin{array}{llll}x_{r} & x_{r-1} & \ldots & x_{2}\end{array} x_{1}\right)$.
Example. Any permutation of $\{1,2,3\}$ is a cycle.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
1 & 2 & 3
\end{array}\right)=\operatorname{id},\left(\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
1 & 3 & 2
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
2 & 3
\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
2 & 1 & 3
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 2
\end{array}\right), \\
& \left(\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
2 & 3 & 1
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 2 & 3
\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
3 & 1 & 2
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 3 & 2
\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
3 & 2 & 1
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 3
\end{array}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

