

## REU APPRENTICE CLASS #6

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### 1. GROUPS. THE SYMMETRIC GROUP

Recall that a permutation of a set  $A$  is a bijection  $\pi: A \rightarrow A$ . For  $A = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  we can denote permutations using the *cycle notation*, e.g., we write

$$\pi = (156)(27)(34)$$

for the permutation of  $[8] = \{1, 2, \dots, 8\}$  given by

$$\begin{array}{c|cccccccc} x & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ \hline \pi(x) & 5 & 7 & 4 & 3 & 6 & 1 & 2 & 8 \end{array}$$

Note that we omit the cycle  $(8)$  of length 1. We say that  $\pi$  has *cycle structure*  $(3, 2, 2)$ . A cycle of length 2 is called a *transposition*.

Composition of functions defines an operation on the set  $S_n$  of permutations of  $[n] = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . The resulting structure is called a group.

**Definition 1.1.** A *group* is a set  $G$  together with an operation  $G \times G \rightarrow G$ ,  $(a, b) \mapsto a * b$  satisfying the axioms:

- (1) For all  $a, b \in G$ , there exists a unique  $a * b$  in  $G$  (that is, the operation is a function with the correct domain and codomain).
- (2) The operation is associative.
- (3) (Identity) There exists an element  $e \in G$  such that for all  $a \in G$ ,  $e * a = a = a * e$ .
- (4) (Inverses) For all  $a \in G$  there exists  $a^{-1} \in G$  such that  $a * a^{-1} = a^{-1} * a = e$ .

If, in addition, we have  $a * b = b * a$  for all  $a, b \in G$ , then  $G$  is called an *abelian* group.

**Convention 1.2.** We compose permutations in the same order as functions, i.e.,  $(12)(23) = (123)$  and  $(23)(12) = (132)$ .

$S_n$  is a group with  $*$  given by composition of functions, called the *symmetric group of degree  $n$* , and we just noticed that  $S_n$  is not abelian for  $n \geq 3$ . Examples of abelian groups are  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ , the nonzero elements  $F^\times = F \setminus \{0\}$  of a number field  $F$  under multiplication, or the  $n$ -th roots of unity in  $\mathbb{C}$  under multiplication.

While it is not true that *all* pairs of elements of the symmetric group commute, there are obviously some pairs of elements that do, for example, disjoint cycles.

**Definition 1.3.** The *support* of a permutation  $\sigma$  of  $[n]$  is the set

$$\text{supp}(\sigma) = \{x \in [n] \mid \pi(x) \neq x\},$$

that is, the support is the set of elements that are not fixed by  $\sigma$ .

**Exercise 1.4.** If  $\text{supp}(\pi) \cap \text{supp}(\sigma) = \emptyset$ , then  $\pi\sigma = \sigma\pi$ .

**Problem 42.** Find permutations  $\pi, \sigma$  such that  $\text{supp}(\pi) \cap \text{supp}(\sigma) \neq \emptyset$  and  $\pi\sigma = \sigma\pi$ .

The *commutator* of  $\pi$  and  $\sigma$  is  $[\pi, \sigma] = \pi\sigma\pi^{-1}\sigma^{-1}$ .

**Problem 43.** If  $|\text{supp}(\pi) \cap \text{supp}(\sigma)| = 1$ , then the commutator  $[\pi, \sigma]$  of  $\pi$  and  $\sigma$  is a 3-cycle.

**Definition 1.5.** A *subgroup*  $H$  of a group  $G$  is a subset  $H \subseteq G$  such that

- (1)  $H \neq \emptyset$ .

- (2)  $H$  is closed under the multiplication.
- (3)  $H$  is closed under inverses.

We use the shorthand  $H \leq G$  for the statement “ $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .”

Note that it follows immediately from the definition of a subgroup that the identity  $e$  lies in it, and that  $H$  is itself a group under the restricted multiplication.

**Problem 44.** A (possibly infinite) intersection of subgroups is a subgroup.

**Corollary 1.6.** *If  $T \subseteq G$  is a subset, then there exists a unique minimal subgroup containing  $T$ , denoted by  $\langle T \rangle$  and called the subgroup generated by  $T$ . Moreover, this subgroup is in fact the smallest subgroup containing  $T$ .*

Here  $H$  being minimal among subgroups containing  $T$  means that for all subgroups  $K$ , if  $K \supseteq T$ , then  $K \subseteq H \Rightarrow K = H$ , and  $H$  being the smallest subgroup containing  $T$  means that  $K \supseteq T$  implies  $K \supseteq H$ .

**Observation 1.7.** The subgroup  $\langle T \rangle$  consists of all finite products of elements of  $T$  and their inverses. Note that  $\langle \emptyset \rangle = \{e\}$ . This agrees with our convention that the product of nothing is the identity element.

**Theorem 1.8.** *The transpositions generate  $S_n$ . (The number of transpositions is  $\binom{n}{2}$ .)*

*Proof.* Write a generic  $k$ -cycle as a product of  $k - 1$  transpositions. □

**Theorem 1.9.** *The  $n - 1$  neighbour swaps  $(i, i + 1)$  generate  $S_n$ .*

*Proof.* Write the transposition  $(i, i + k)$  as a product of  $2k - 1$  neighbour swaps. □

Can we generate  $S_n$  using  $n - 1$  transpositions in a different way? Fix a set  $T$  of transpositions. In order to study this question it is useful to consider the graph whose vertices are  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , with an edge between  $i$  and  $j$  if and only if  $(ij) \in T$ .

**Definition 1.10.** Two graphs  $X = (V, E)$  and  $Y = (W, F)$  are *isomorphic* if there exists an isomorphism  $X \rightarrow Y$ , i.e., a bijection  $\varphi: V \rightarrow W$  such that  $(u, v) \in E \Leftrightarrow (\varphi(u), \varphi(v)) \in F$ .

- Problem 45.**
- (a) Show that there are many non-isomorphic arrangements of  $n - 1$  transpositions that generate  $S_n$ . (That is, the graphs of the respective generating sets are not isomorphic.)
  - (b) Show that  $S_n$  cannot be generated by fewer than  $n - 1$  transpositions.

**Problem 46.** The identity cannot be written as a product of an odd number of transpositions.

**Problem 47.** Let  $\sigma = (1, 2, \dots, n)$  and let  $\tau = (12)$ . Then:

- (a)  $S_n = \langle \sigma, \tau \rangle$
- (b) Every permutation is a product of  $O(n^2)$  instances of  $\{\sigma, \sigma^{-1}, \tau\}$ .
- (c) For some permutations we need  $\Omega(n^2)$ .

Recall that  $O(n^2)$  means *at most*  $C \cdot n^2$ ,  $\Omega(n^2)$  means *at least*  $C' \cdot n^2$  for some constants  $C, C' > 0$ .

## 2. FIELDS

**Notation 2.1.** For an abelian group  $G$  we usually write  $a + b$  for  $a * b$ ,  $0$  for the identity element, and  $-a$  for the inverse of  $a \in G$  (additive notation). For a nonabelian group we instead write  $a \cdot b$  or  $ab$  for  $a * b$ ,  $1$  for the identity element, and  $a^{-1}$  for the inverse of  $a \in G$  (multiplicative notation). The multiplicative notation is also frequently used for abelian groups if we consider two group structures on the same set.

**Definition 2.2.** The *order* of a group is the number of elements, denoted by  $|G|$ . (Note that  $|G| \geq 1$ .)

Fix  $n \geq 1$ . The subgroup  $\{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid z^n = 1\}$  of  $(\mathbb{C}^\times, \cdot)$  is a group of order  $n$ .

**Definition 2.3.** A *field*  $(F, +, \cdot)$  is a set two operations  $+, \cdot: F \times F \rightarrow F$  such that

- (1)  $(F, +)$  is an abelian group whose identity element we denote by  $0$ .
- (2)  $(F^\times, \cdot)$  is an abelian group, where  $F^\times = F \setminus \{0\}$ .

(3) The distributive law holds, i.e., for all  $a, b, c \in F$ , the equation

$$(a + b)c = ac + bc$$

holds.

**Exercise 2.4.** Let  $(F, +, \cdot)$  be a field. For all  $a \in F$ ,  $a0 = 0a = 0$ . Thus  $ab = ba$  for all  $a, b \in F$ .

**Exercise 2.5.** Let  $(F, +, \cdot)$  be a field. For all  $a, b \in F$ , if  $ab = 0$ , then  $a = 0$  or  $b = 0$ .

Note that the order  $|F|$  of a field is at least two: every field contains the two elements  $0 \neq 1$ . In order to write down simple examples we can use multiplication tables for the respective group operations.

**Problem 48.** In the multiplication table of a group, every element appears exactly once in each row and each column.

The set  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$  of integers modulo  $n$  has two operations given by addition modulo  $n$  and multiplication modulo  $n$ . Thus it is almost a field:  $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$  is obviously an abelian group, and the distributive law already holds prior to reduction modulo  $p$ . Moreover, multiplication is clearly associative and has an identity element 1. Thus it is a field if and only if every non-zero element has an inverse modulo  $n$ .

**Problem 49.** Prove that  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is a field if and only if  $n$  is a prime number.

**Notation 2.6.** Let  $p$  be a prime number. We write  $\mathbb{F}_p$  for the field  $(\mathbb{Z}_p, +, \cdot)$  of integers modulo  $p$ .

The set  $\mathbb{F}_4 = \{0, 1, a, a^{-1}\}$  can be endowed with the structure of a field. The multiplication table for  $(\mathbb{F}_4, +)$  is given by

$+$	$0$	$1$	$a$	$a^{-1}$
$0$	$0$	$1$	$a$	$a^{-1}$
$1$	$1$	$0$	$a^{-1}$	$a$
$a$	$a$	$a^{-1}$	$0$	$1$
$a^{-1}$	$a^{-1}$	$a$	$1$	$0$

and the multiplication table for  $(\mathbb{F}_4^\times, \cdot)$  is given by

$\cdot$	$1$	$a$	$a^{-1}$
$1$	$1$	$a$	$a^{-1}$
$a$	$a$	$a^{-1}$	$1$
$a^{-1}$	$a^{-1}$	$1$	$a$

Note that  $\mathbb{F}_4 \neq \mathbb{Z}_4$ ; indeed,  $\mathbb{F}_4$  is a field, while  $\mathbb{Z}_4$  is not.

**Problem 50.** If  $\mathbb{F}$  is a finite field, then  $|\mathbb{F}|$  is a prime power. (Note: the converse is also true: for every prime power  $q$  there is a field of order  $q$ , and this field is unique up to isomorphism.)

**Problem 51.** Let  $\mathbb{C}_p = \{a + bi \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_p\}$  be the “mod  $p$  complex numbers.” For what values of  $p$  is  $\mathbb{C}_p$  a field? (Experiment, conjecture, prove. Hint: use Problem 52.)

**Definition 2.7.** A *ring*  $(R, +, \cdot)$  is a set with two operations  $+, \cdot: R \times R \rightarrow R$  such that

- (1)  $(R, +)$  is an abelian group.
- (2)  $(R, \cdot)$  is associative.
- (3) The two distributive laws hold.

A *commutative ring* is a ring such that  $ab = ba$  for all  $a, b \in R$ .

Examples of commutative rings are  $\mathbb{Z}$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ .

**Exercise 2.8.** Let  $(R, +, \cdot)$  be a ring. For all  $a \in R$ ,  $a0 = 0a = 0$ .

**Problem 52.** A *finite* commutative ring  $R$  is a field if and only if  $|R| \geq 2$  and for all  $a, b \in R$ ,  $ab = 0$  implies  $a = 0$  or  $b = 0$ .

This concludes our discussion of finite fields. Note that every number field is a field, in fact, number fields are precisely the subfields of  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Problem 53.** Give an example of an infinite field that is not isomorphic to a number field.

### 3. ASYMPTOTICS

**Definition 3.1.** Let  $G$  be a group,  $a \in G$ . The *order*  $\text{ord}(a)$  of  $a$  is the smallest integer  $n > 0$  such that  $a^n = 1$ . If no such  $n$  exists we say that  $\text{ord}(a) = \infty$ .

For example, the order of  $\text{ord}(123) = 3$ ,  $\text{ord}(1, 2, \dots, n) = n$  and  $\text{ord}((123)(45)) = 6$ . More generally, if  $\sigma$  has cycle structure  $(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k)$ , then  $\text{ord}(\sigma) = \text{lcm}(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k)$ . In order to get elements with big order, we could set  $n_i$  to be  $2, 3, 5, 7, 11, \dots$ . What is the maximum order of a permutation of  $n$  elements? We study the asymptotic behavior of this function.

**Definition 3.2.** Two sequences  $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  and  $(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  are *asymptotically equal*,  $a_n \sim b_n$ , if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n/b_n = 1$ .

**Theorem 3.3** (Prime number theorem). *Let  $\pi(x)$  be the number of primes  $\leq x$ . Then*

$$\pi(x) \sim \frac{x}{\ln(x)}$$

*so the probability that a random number up to  $x$  is prime is asymptotically equal to  $1/\ln(x)$ .*

For example, the probability that a random number with 200 digits is prime is roughly

$$\frac{1}{\ln(10^{200})} = \frac{1}{200 \ln(10)} \approx \frac{1}{460}.$$

**Problem 54.** Prove that  $\ln(x!) \sim x \ln(x)$ .

**Problem 55.** Let

$$P(x) = \prod_{p \leq x \text{ prime}} p$$

be the product of all primes of size at most  $x$ . Prove that the statement

$$\ln(P(x)) \sim x$$

is equivalent to the Prime Number Theorem.

**Problem 56.** Find the log-asymptotics of the largest order of a permutation in  $S_n$ .