The Sign of a Permutation

Math 2803: Number Theory and Cryptography

Let σ be a *permutation* of $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$, i.e., a one-to-one and onto function from $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ to itself. We will define what it means for σ to be *even* or *odd*, and then discuss how the parity (or *sign*, as it is called) behaves when we multiply two permutations. Finally, we will prove a useful formula for the sign of a permutation in terms of its cycle decomposition.

Two-line representation

One way of writing down a permutation is through its two-line representation

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc}1&2&\cdots&n\\\sigma(1)&\sigma(2)&\cdots&\sigma(n)\end{array}\right).$$

For example, the permutation α of $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ which takes 1 to 3, 2 to 1, 3 to 4, 4 to 2, 5 to 6, and 6 to 5 has the two-line representation $\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 3 & 1 & 4 & 2 & 6 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$.

Graphic representation

We can visualize the permutation σ as a (bipartite) graph G_{σ} by writing the numbers $1, 2, \ldots, n$ in two rows and joining *i* (in the top row) to $\sigma(i)$ (in the bottom row) with an edge for all *i*. For example, the graph corresponding to the permutation α above is:



Figure 1: The graph G_{α}

Inverting and multiplying permutations

Given a permutation σ , its *inverse* σ^{-1} is the permutation sending $\sigma(i)$ to *i* for all i = 1, ..., n. For example, the inverse of the permutation α and β above is $\alpha^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 & 3 & 6 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$. In terms of the graphic representation, inverting a permutation corresponds to interchanging the top and bottom rows of the corresponding graph. Given permutations σ and τ of $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$, their product $\sigma\tau$ is the function $i \mapsto \sigma(\tau(i))$, i.e., we compose the two permutations as functions. Note that in general $\sigma\tau \neq \tau\sigma$; for example, if α is as above and $\beta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 5 & 1 & 3 & 6 & 4 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$, then $\alpha\beta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 6 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\beta\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 3 & 5 & 6 & 1 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$.

In terms of graphic representations, to compute $\sigma\tau$ we concatenate the diagrams corresponding to each, with τ placed above σ . For example, the following picture represents $\beta\alpha$ in our running example:



Figure 2: Graphical representation of $\beta \alpha$

Cycle decomposition

Another way of writing down a permutation is through its *cycle decomposition*. A permutation σ is called a *k*-cycle if there exist distinct elements $i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_k \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ such that

$$\sigma(i_1) = i_2, \sigma(i_2) = i_3, \dots, \sigma(i_{k-1}) = i_k, \sigma(i_k) = i_1,$$

and $\sigma(i) = i$ for all other *i*. We denote such a cycle by $\sigma = (i_1 \ i_2 \ \cdots \ i_k)$. A 2-cycle is also called a *transposition*. Note that every element of a cycle can be considered as the starting point, so for example (1234) = (2341).

The basic fact about permutations and cycles is the following:

Lemma: Any permutation can be written as a product of disjoint cycles. This representation is unique, apart from the order of the factors and the starting points of the cycles.

We will not give a formal proof of this result (though it's not difficult), but will instead describe the algorithm underlying its proof and give some examples.

Algorithm: (Decompose a permutation into a product of disjoint cycles)

WHILE there exists $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$ not yet assigned to a cycle:

- Choose any such *i*;
- Let ℓ be the smallest positive integer such that $\sigma^{\ell}(i) = i$;
- Construct the cycle $(i \sigma(i) \cdots \sigma^{\ell-1}(i))$.

RETURN the product of all cycles constructed.

Example: The cycle decomposition of α is (1342)(56). Indeed, if we start with i = 1 then following the above algorithm we have $\ell = 4$ and we construct the cycle (1342). We next choose the unused element i = 5 and construct the cycle (56), and we're done.

Similarly, the cycle decomposition of β is (15462)(3). It is customary to omit fixed elements in cycle notation, so we could also write β as simply (15462).

Note that (1234) and (2341), for example, determine the same cycle, and that (12)(34) and (34)(12) represent the same permutation. We can make the cycle decomposition *unique* by requiring that each cycle begins with its smallest element, and that the cycles are ordered with increasing smallest elements.

Inversions and signature

A pair (i, j) with $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ is called an *inversion* of σ if i < j but $\sigma(i) > \sigma(j)$. The *inversion number* inv (σ) is the total number of inversions of σ . The permutation σ is called *even* (resp. *odd*) if inv (σ) is even. The *sign* of σ is defined as $\operatorname{sign}(\sigma) = (-1)^{\operatorname{inv}(\sigma)}$. So $\operatorname{sign}(\sigma) = 1$ if σ is even and $\operatorname{sign}(\sigma) = -1$ if σ is odd.

It is easy to see that a pair (i, j) is an inversion of σ if and only if the edges $i\sigma(i)$ and $j\sigma(j)$ cross in the graphic representation of σ . Thus the inversion number $inv(\sigma)$ equals the number of crossings in G_{σ} . This observation implies that $inv(\sigma) = inv(\sigma^{-1})$, and hence $sign(\sigma) = sign(\sigma^{-1})$.

The sign is multiplicative

We have the following fundamental formula:

$$\operatorname{sign}(\sigma\tau) = \operatorname{sign}(\sigma) \cdot \operatorname{sign}(\tau). \tag{1}$$

To see this, note that (i, j) is an inversion in $\sigma\tau$ if and only if the paths starting at *i* and *j* cross in the top half of the composite graph but not the bottom, or in the bottom half but not the top. If they cross in both, as with 5 and 6 in Figure 2 above, then the crossings

cancel out (in the figure, (5,6) is not an inversion for $\beta\alpha$). Thus $inv(\sigma\tau) \equiv inv(\sigma) + inv(\tau)$ (mod 2), which is equivalent to (1).

The sign and cycle decompositions

Suppose $\sigma = \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \cdots \sigma_t$ is the cycle decomposition of a permutation σ . Applying (1) repeatedly, we see that

$$\operatorname{sign}(\sigma) = \operatorname{sign}(\sigma_1) \cdots \operatorname{sign}(\sigma_t).$$
(2)

So in order to compute the sign of an arbitrary permutation, it suffices to compute the sign of a cycle.

We first consider the sign of a transposition $\tau = (i, j)$. We claim that τ is odd. To see this, note that an edge kk with k < i or k > j contributes no crossing, while each edge kk with i < k < j contribute two crossings (see Figure 3 below). There is only one additional edge, namely ij, which contributes one crossing. Thus the total number of crossings is odd, as claimed.



Figure 3: Crossings in a transposition

Now let $(i_1 i_2 \cdots i_\ell)$ be a cycle of length $\ell \geq 3$. One checks easily that

$$(i_1i_2\cdots i_\ell) = (i_1i_2)\cdots (i_{\ell-2}i_{\ell-1})(i_{\ell-1}i_\ell)$$

and therefore the sign of an ℓ -cycle (for all $\ell \geq 1$) is $(-1)^{\ell-1}$. In other words, odd cycles are even and even cycles are odd.

By formula (2), we conclude that if the cycle decomposition of σ is $\sigma_1 \sigma_2 \cdots \sigma_t$ and σ_i has length ℓ_i , then

$$\operatorname{sign}(\sigma_1 \sigma_2 \cdots \sigma_t) = (-1)^{\sum_{i=1}^t (\ell_i - 1)}.$$
(3)

Naturality

In addition to being a useful computational tool, formula (1) shows that the sign of a permutation is *intrinsic*, in the following sense. Suppose we replace 1 by $\tau(1)$, 2 by $\tau(2)$, etc. in both rows of the two-line representation of σ , where τ is some permutation. Then σ is transformed into the *conjugate permutation* $\sigma' = \tau^{-1}\sigma\tau$. By (1), we have

$$\operatorname{sign}(\sigma') = \operatorname{sign}(\tau^{-1})\operatorname{sign}(\sigma)\operatorname{sign}(\tau) = \operatorname{sign}(\sigma)\operatorname{sign}(\tau)^2 = \operatorname{sign}(\sigma)$$

so that σ and σ' have the same sign.

This implies, in particular, that while the *number of inversions* of σ depends on our choice of an ordering of the set $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$, the sign of σ does not.

For an application to number theory, suppose p is an odd prime and g is a primitive root modulo p, and let a be an integer not divisible by p, so that $a \equiv g^k$ for some integer k. Let σ be the permutation of $\{1, 2, \ldots, p-1\}$ induced by multiplication by a modulo p and let σ' be the permutation of $\{0, 1, \ldots, p-2\}$ induced by addition of k modulo p-1. Then $\sigma' = \tau^{-1}\sigma\tau$, where $\tau : \{0, 1, \ldots, p-2\} \rightarrow \{1, 2, \ldots, p-1\}$ is defined by $\tau(j) \equiv g^j \pmod{p}$. By (1), the sign of σ is equal to the sign of σ' . (This is an important point in Zolotarev's proof of the Law of Quadratic Reciprocity.)

Acknowledgments

I have drawn from two main sources for this handout: Martin Aigner's "A Course in Enumeration" and Peter J. Cameron's "Combinatorics". The three figures above are all from Aigner's book.