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# SOME PROPERTIES OF SCHENSTED ALGORITHM USING VIENNOT'S GEOMETRIC INTERPRETATION

#### JAEJIN LEE

ABSTRACT. Schensted algorithm was first described in 1938 by Robinson [5], in a paper dealing with an attempt to prove the correctness of the Littlewood-Richardson rule. Schensted [9] rediscovered Schensted algorithm independently in 1961 and Viennot [12] gave a geometric interpretation for Schensted algorithm in 1977. In this paper we describe some properties of Schensted algorithm using Viennot's geometric interpretation.

## 1. Introduction

Let  $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_l)$  be a partition of the nonnegative integer n, denoted  $\lambda \vdash n$ , so  $\lambda$  is a weakly decreasing sequence of positive integers summing to n. We will also let  $\lambda$  stand for the Ferrers diagram  $D_{\lambda}$  of  $\lambda$  written in English notation with  $\lambda_i$  nodes or cells in the *i*th row from the top.

Given  $\lambda \vdash n$ , a standard Young tableau T of shape  $\lambda$  is a filling of the diagram  $D_{\lambda}$  with positive integers  $1, 2, \ldots, n$  such that rows and columns strictly increase. For example,

1	3	5
2	6	
4	7	

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is a standard Young tableau of the shape (3, 2, 2).

There is a remarkable combinatorial correspondence associated with the theory of symmetric functions, called the Schensted algorithm.

THEOREM 1.1. (Schensted algorithm) Let  $S_n$  be the symmetric group of degree n. Then there is a bijection

$$\pi \mapsto (P,Q)$$

between permutations  $\pi$  of  $S_n$  and the set of all pairs  $(P_{\lambda}, Q_{\lambda})$  of standard Young tableaux of the same shape  $\lambda$ , where  $\lambda \vdash n$ .

It was first described in 1938 by Robinson [5], in a paper dealing with an attempt to prove the correctness of the Littlewood-Richardson rule. Schensted algorithm was rediscovered independently by Schensted [9] in 1961, whose main objective was counting permutations with given lengths of their longest increasing and decreasing subsequences. Schensted correspondence about increasing and decreasing subsequences is extended by C. Greene [2], to give a direct interpretation of the shape of the standard Young tableaux corresponding to a permutation. The combinatorial significance of Schensted algorithm was indicated by Schützenberger [11], who introduced the evacuation algorithm. Knuth [4] gave a generalization of the Schensted algoritm, where standard Young tableaux are replaced by column strict tableaux, and permutations are replaced by multi-permutations. And he described conditions for two permutation to have the same P-tableaux under Schensted algorithm. In [12] Viennot gave a geometric interpretation for Schensted algorithm.

After Knuth generalized Schensted algorithm to column strict tableaux, various analogs of the Schented algorithm came: versions for rim hook tableaux [10], shifted tableaux ([6]), oscillating tableaux [1], skew tableaux [8], and shifted rim hook tableaux [3].

The bijection in Theorem 1.1 is denoted  $\pi \leftrightarrow (P,Q)$  or  $\pi \stackrel{[S]}{\mapsto} (P(\pi), Q(\pi))$  and  $P(\pi), Q(\pi)$  are called the *P*-tableau and *Q*-tableau of  $\pi$ , respectively. For example, if  $\pi = 3 \ a \ 7 \ b \ 2 \ 4 \ d \ 5 \ e \ 9 \ 1 \ 6 \ c \ 8 \ \in S_{14}$ , then the *P*-tableau and *Q*-tableau of  $\pi$  are given as

$$\pi \stackrel{[S]}{\longmapsto} (P(\pi), Q(\pi)) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \ 4 \ 5 \ 6 \ 8 & 1 \ 2 \ 4 \ 7 \ 9 \\ 2 \ 7 \ 9 \ c \ e & 3 \ 6 \ 8 \ a \ d \\ 3 \ b \ d & , 5 \ c \ e \\ a & b & \end{pmatrix}$$

where a = 10, b = 11, c = 12, d = 13 and e = 14.

In this paper we describe the ways to find *P*-tableaux and *Q*-tableaux of permutations  $\pi^r$ ,  $\pi^*$  and  $\pi^{\#}$  without using Schützenberger's evacuation algorithm.

Section 2 gives Viennot's geometric interpretation for Schensted algorithm. In Section 3 we describe the ways to find *P*-tableaux and *Q*-tableaux of permutations  $\pi^r$ ,  $\pi^*$  and  $\pi^{\#}$  using Viennot's geometric interpretation for Schensted algorithm.

### 2. Geometric interpretation for Schensted algorithm

In this section we describe Viennot's geometric interpretation for Schensted algorithm. See [12] or [7] for further exposition.

EXAMPLE 2.1. Let

$$\pi = 4\ 2\ 3\ 6\ 5\ 1\ 7\ \in\ S_7$$

- Consider the first quadrant of the Cartesian plane. Given a permutation  $\pi = x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n$ , represent  $x_i$  by a box with coordinates  $(i, x_i)$ . See the figure 1.
- Imagine a light shining from the origin so that each box casts a shadow with boundaries parallel to the coordinate axes. The shadow cast by the box at (4,6) looks like the figure 2.
- Consider those points of the permutation that are in the shadow of no other point. In this case (1, 4), (2, 2), and (6, 1). The first shadow line,  $L_1$ , is the boundary of the combined shadows of these boxes. In the figure 3, the appropriate line has been thickened. Note that this is a broken line consisting of line segments and exactly one horizontal and one vertical ray. To form the second shadow line,  $L_2$ , one removes the boxes on the first shadow line and repeats this procedure.

Given a permutation displayed in the plane, we form its shadow lines  $L_1, L_2, \ldots$  as follows. Assuming that  $L_1, \ldots, L_{i-1}$  have been constructed, remove all boxes on these lines. Then  $L_i$  is the boundary of the shadow of the remaining boxes. The x-coordinate of  $L_i$  is

 $x_{L_i}$  = the *x*-coordinate of  $L_i$ 's vertical ray and the *y*-coordinate is

 $y_{L_i}$  = the *y*-coordinate of  $L_i$ 's horizontal ray The shadow lines make up the *shadow diagram* of  $\pi$ .



FIGURE 1. The coordinates  $(i, x_i)$  of  $\pi$ .



FIGURE 2. The shadow at (4, 6).



FIGURE 3. The first shadow line,  $L_1$ .

EXAMPLE 2.2. In the previous example, there are four shadow lines, and their x- and y-coordinates are shown above and to the left of the figure 4, respectively.



FIGURE 4. Four shadow lines for  $\pi = 4236517$ 

Compare the coordinates of our shadow lines with the first rows of the tableaux

computed by Schensted Algorithm. It seems as if

$$P_{1,j} = y_{L_j}$$
 and  $Q_{1,j} = x_{L_j}$ 

for all j.

In fact, even more is true. The boxes on line  $L_j$  are precisely those elements passing through the (1, j) cell during the construction of P, as the next result shows.

LEMMA 2.3. Let the shadow diagram of  $\pi = x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n$  be constructed as before. Suppose the vertical line x = k intersects *i* of the shadow lines. Let  $y_j$  be the y-coordinate of the lowest point of the intersection with  $L_j$ . Then the first row of the  $P_k = P(x_1 \dots x_k)$  is

(1) 
$$R_1 = y_1 y_2 \cdots y_i$$

*Proof.* : See [7].

EXAMPLE 2.4. Let  $\pi = 4\ 2\ 3\ 6\ 5\ 1\ 7$ , then

 $P_{0} = \emptyset \qquad P_{1} = 4 \qquad P_{2} = \frac{2}{4} \qquad P_{3} = \frac{2}{4}^{3}$   $P_{4} = \frac{2}{4}^{3} \stackrel{3}{6} \qquad P_{5} = \frac{2}{4}^{3} \stackrel{3}{6} \qquad P_{6} = \frac{1}{2}^{3} \stackrel{3}{6} \qquad P_{7} = \frac{1}{2}^{3} \stackrel{3}{6} \stackrel{5}{6}$   $P_{7} = \frac{2}{4}^{3} \stackrel{6}{6} \qquad P_{7} = \frac{2}{4}^{3} \stackrel{6}{6}$ 

(Case 1) k = 3,  $P_3 = P(x_1x_2x_3) = P(423) = \frac{2}{4} \cdot \frac{3}{4}$ ,  $R_1 = y_1y_2$ 

Then  $x_{k+1} = x_4 = 6 > 3 = y_2$  and so  $(k+1, x_{k+1}) = (4, 6)$  starts a new shadow line. Hence,  $y_3 = x_4 = 6$ .



(Case 2) k = 4,  $P_4 = P(4236) = \frac{2}{4} \quad \stackrel{3}{,} \quad 6$ ,  $R_1 = 236 = y_1 y_2 y_3$ Then  $y_1 < \cdots < y_{j-1} < x_5 = 5 < y_j < \cdots < y_3 = 6$  and so  $(k+1, x_{k+1}) = (5, 5)$  is added to line  $L_j$ . Hence,  $y'_j = x_{k+1} = x_5 = 5$ .





It follows from the previous lemma that the shadow diagram of  $\pi$  can be read left to right like a time-line recording the construction of  $P(\pi)$ . At the k-th stage, the line x = k intersects one shadow line in a ray or line segment and all the rest in single points. In terms of the first row of  $P_k$ : a ray corresponds to placing an element at the end, a line segment corresponds to displacing an element, and the points correspond to elements that are unchanged.

COROLLARY 2.5. If the permutation  $\pi$  has Schensted tableaux (P, Q)and shadow lines  $L_j$ , then, for all j,

$$P_{1,j} = y_{L_j}$$
 and  $Q_{1,j} = x_{L_j}$ .

Proof. See [7].

EXAMPLE 2.6. Let

$$\pi = 4 \ 2 \ 3 \ 6 \ 5 \ 1 \ 7 \ \in \ S_7$$

Then the first, second and third rows come from the thickened and dashed lines, respectively, of the figure 5, 6 and 7.



FIGURE 5. The first row of P and Q.

The *i*-th skeleton of  $\pi \in S_n$ ,  $\pi^{(i)}$ , is defined inductively by  $\pi^{(1)} = \pi$  and

$$\pi^{(i)} = \begin{array}{ccc} k_1 & k_2 & \cdots & k_n \\ l_1 & l_2 & \cdots & l_m \end{array}$$

where  $(k_1, l_1), \ldots, (k_m, l_m)$  are the NorthEast corners of the shadow diagram of  $\pi^{(i-1)}$  listed in lexicographic order. The shadow lines for  $\pi^{(i)}$  are denoted  $L_j^{(i)}$ .



FIGURE 6. The second row of P and Q.



FIGURE 7. The third row of P and Q.

EXAMPLE 2.7. Let  $\pi = 4\ 2\ 3\ 6\ 5\ 1\ 7$  and  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 5 & 7 & 1 & 3 & 4 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$ 

$$(P,Q) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 3 & 7 & 1 & 3 & 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 6 & & , & 2 & 5 \\ 4 & & & 6 & & \end{pmatrix}$$

 $\pi^{(2)}= \begin{matrix} 2 & 5 & 6 \\ 4 & 6 & 2 \end{matrix},$  where  $\{4,6,2\}$  and  $\{2,5,6\}$  are the remainder except

for the first row of P and Q, respectively.

$$\begin{split} P_{1,j} &= y_{L_j^{(1)}} = y_{L_1^{(1)}} y_{L_2^{(1)}} y_{L_3^{(1)}} y_{L_4^{(1)}} = 1 \ 3 \ 5 \ 7 \\ Q_{1,j} &= x_{L_j^{(1)}} = x_{L_1^{(1)}} x_{L_2^{(1)}} x_{L_3^{(1)}} x_{L_4^{(1)}} = 1 \ 3 \ 4 \ 7 \end{split}$$



rows of P and Q, respectively.

 $P_{2,j} = y_{L_j^{(2)}} = y_{L_1^{(2)}} y_{L_2^{(2)}} = 2\ 6 \quad, \quad Q_{2,j} = x_{L_j^{(2)}} = x_{L_1^{(2)}} x_{L_2^{(2)}} = 2\ 5$ Continuing this processing ,  $P_{3,j} = y_{L_1^{(3)}} = 4$  ,  $Q_{3,j} = x_{L_1^{(3)}} = 6$ .

THEOREM 2.8. Suppose  $\pi \to (P,Q)$ . Then  $\pi^{(i)}$  is a partial permutation such that

$$\pi^{(i)} \to (P^{(i)}, Q^{(i)})$$

where  $P^{(i)}$  (respectively,  $Q^{(i)}$ ) consists of the rows *i* and below of *P* (respectively, Q). Furthermore,

$$P_{i,j} = y_{L_i^{(i)}}$$
 and  $Q_{i,j} = x_{L_i^{(i)}}$ 

for all i, j.

*Proof.* See [7].

## 3. Main results

Given a permutation  $\pi = x_1 x_2 \cdots x_{n-1} x_n \in S_n$ , we define new permutations  $\pi^r$ ,  $\pi^*$  and  $\pi^{\#}$  as follows.

$$\pi^{r} = x_{n}x_{n-1}\cdots x_{2}x_{1}$$
  

$$\pi^{*} = (n+1-x_{1})(n+1-x_{2})\cdots (n+1-x_{n-1})(n+1-x_{n})$$
  

$$\pi^{\#} = (n+1-x_{n})(n+1-x_{n-1})\cdots (n+1-x_{2})(n+1-x_{1}).$$

Note that  $(\pi^*)^r = \pi^{\#}$ . Until now we used Schützenberger's evacuation algorithm to compute P-tableaux and Q-tableaux of permutations

 $\pi^r$ ,  $\pi^*$  and  $\pi^{\#}$ . See [7] for detail. In this section we describe the ways to find *P*-tableaux and *Q*-tableaux of permutations  $\pi^r$ ,  $\pi^*$  and  $\pi^{\#}$  directly from Viennot's geometric interpretation for Schensted algorithm.

Given a permutation  $\pi \in S_n$ , let  $\pi \xleftarrow{[S]} (P,Q)$ . Then we can find P-tableaux and Q-tableaux of permutations  $\pi^r$ ,  $\pi^*$  and  $\pi^{\#}$  as the following propositions.

PROPOSITION 3.1. Let  $\pi^* \xleftarrow{[S]} (P^*, Q^*)$ . Then  $(P^*, Q^*)$  can be obtained as follows:

- 1. Imagine a light shining from (0, n + 1) and get a new shadow diagram of  $\pi$ .
- 2. Change any coordinate  $y_{L_i}$  to  $(n+1) y_{L_i}$ .
- 3. P-tableaux and Q-tableaux are obtained similarly as if we read the original shadow diagram of  $\pi$ .

EXAMPLE 3.2. Let  $\pi = 4 \ 2 \ 3 \ 6 \ 5 \ 1 \ 7$ . Then,

$$\pi \xleftarrow{[S]} (P,Q) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 5 & 7 & 1 & 3 & 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 6 & & , 2 & 5 & \\ 4 & & 6 & & \end{pmatrix}.$$

By the reading coordinate steps of Figure 8 and 9, we obtain that

$$(P^*, Q^*) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 7 & 1 & 2 & 6 \\ 2 & 5 & & 3 & 5 & \\ 4 & & & 4 & \\ 6 & & 7 & & \end{pmatrix}$$

Note that  $P^* = (\text{ev}(P))^t$  and  $Q^* = Q^t$ .

PROPOSITION 3.3. Let  $\pi^r \xleftarrow{[S]} (P^r, Q^r)$ . Then  $(P^r, Q^r)$  can be obtained as follows:

- 1. Imagine a light shining from (n + 1, 0) and get a new shadow diagram of  $\pi$ .
- 2. Change any coordinate  $x_{L_i}$  to  $(n+1) x_{L_i}$ .
- 3. P-tableaux and Q-tableaux are obtained similarly as if we read the original shadow diagram of  $\pi$ .



FIGURE 9. Third and Fourth rows for  $\pi^*$ 

EXAMPLE 3.4. Let  $\pi = 4\ 2\ 3\ 6\ 5\ 1\ 7$ . By the reading coordinate steps of Figure 10 and 11, we obtain that

$$(P^r, Q^r) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 & 1 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 6 & 2 & 7 & \\ 5 & , 5 & & \\ 7 & & 6 & & \end{pmatrix}$$

Note that  $P^r = P^t$  and  $Q^r = (ev (Q))^t$ .

PROPOSITION 3.5. Let  $\pi^{\sharp} \xleftarrow{[S]} (P^{\sharp}, Q^{\sharp})$ . Then  $(P^{\sharp}, Q^{\sharp})$  can be obtained as follows:

1. Imagine a light shining from (n + 1, n + 1) and get a new shadow diagram of  $\pi$ .



FIGURE 11. Third and Fourth rows for  $\pi^r$ 

- 2. Change any coordinate  $x_{L_j}$  and  $y_{L_i}$  to  $(n+1) x_{L_j}$  and  $(n+1) y_{L_i}$ , respectively.
- 3. P-tableaux and Q-tableaux are obtained similarly as if we read the original shadow diagram of  $\pi$ .

EXAMPLE 3.6. Let  $\pi = 4\ 2\ 3\ 6\ 5\ 1\ 7$ . By the reading coordinate steps of Figure 12 and 13, we obtain that

$$(P^{\sharp}, Q^{\sharp}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 & 6 & 1 & 2 & 5 & 6 \\ 3 & 5 & & , 3 & 7 & \\ 7 & & 4 & & \end{pmatrix}$$



Note that  $P^{\sharp} = \text{ev}(P)$  and  $Q^{\sharp} = \text{ev}(Q)$ .

FIGURE 12. First and Second rows for  $\pi^{\sharp}$ 



FIGURE 13. Third row for  $\pi^{\sharp}$ 

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Department of Mathematics Hallym University Chunchon, Korea 200-702 *E-mail*: jjlee@hallym.ac.kr