

§3.6 Permutation Groups

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Review for §3.5

- Every subgroup of a cyclic group G is cyclic.
- Let G be a cyclic group. $\begin{cases} \text{i)} & \text{If } G \text{ is infinite, then } G \cong \mathbf{Z}. \\ \text{ii)} & \text{If } |G| = n < \infty, \text{ then } G \cong \mathbf{Z}_n. \end{cases}$
- i) Any two **infinite cyclic** groups are isomorphic to each other.
ii) Two **finite cyclic** groups are isomorphic \Leftrightarrow they have the same order.
- **Subgroups of \mathbf{Z}** : For any $0 \neq m \in \mathbf{Z}$, $\langle m \rangle = m\mathbf{Z} \cong \mathbf{Z} = \langle 1 \rangle = \langle -1 \rangle$.
 - $m\mathbf{Z} \subseteq n\mathbf{Z} \Leftrightarrow n|m$
 - $m\mathbf{Z} = n\mathbf{Z} \Leftrightarrow m = \pm n$
- **Subgroups of \mathbf{Z}_n** : For any $d|n$, $d\mathbf{Z}_n = \langle [d] \rangle \rightsquigarrow$ **subgroup diagram**
 - i) $d = (k, n)$: $\langle [k] \rangle = \langle [d] \rangle$ & $|\langle [k] \rangle| = |\langle [d] \rangle| = n/d$.
 - ii) $\mathbf{Z}_n = \langle [k] \rangle \Leftrightarrow [k] \in \mathbf{Z}_n^\times \Leftrightarrow (k, n) = 1$.
 - iii) If $d_1|n$ and $d_2|n$, then $\langle [d_1] \rangle \subseteq \langle [d_2] \rangle \Leftrightarrow d_2|d_1$.
 - iii)' If $d_1|n$ and $d_2|n$ and $d_1 \neq d_2$, then $\langle [d_1] \rangle \neq \langle [d_2] \rangle$.
- $\mathbf{Z}_n \cong \mathbf{Z}_{p_1^{\alpha_1}} \times \mathbf{Z}_{p_2^{\alpha_2}} \times \cdots \times \mathbf{Z}_{p_m^{\alpha_m}} \rightsquigarrow$ Euler's totient function $\varphi(n)$
- Let G be a *finite abelian* group. Let N be the **exponent** of G .
 $N = \max\{o(a) : a \in G\}$. In particular, G is cyclic $\Leftrightarrow N = |G|$.
- For small n , check \mathbf{Z}_n^\times cyclic or not **without using primitive root thm.**

Review for §2.3

- A **permutation** $\sigma: S \rightarrow S$ is **one-to-one** and **onto**. Write $\sigma \in \text{Sym}(S)$
- $\text{Sym}(S)$ is a group under \circ . S_n is the **symmetric group** of degree n .
- $|S_n| = n!$
- Cycle of length k : $\sigma = (a_1 a_2 \cdots a_k)$ has order k .
- **Disjoint** cycles are commutative.
- $\sigma \in S_n$ can be written as a *unique* product of **disjoint** cycles.
- The order of σ is the **lcm** of the orders of its **disjoint** cycles.
- A **transposition** is a cycle $(a_1 a_2)$ of length two.
- $\sigma \in S_n$ can be written as a product of transpositions. (**NOT unique**)
- **Even** permutation & **Odd** permutation
- **A cycle of odd length is even.** & **A cycle of even length is odd.**

Cayley's Theorem

Any subgroup of the symmetric group $\text{Sym}(S)$ is called a **permutation group**.

Every group G is isomorphic to a permutation group.

Proof: Given $a \in G$, define $\lambda_a : G \rightarrow G$ by $\lambda_a(x) = ax$. To show $\lambda_a \in \text{Sym}(G)$.

- λ_a is **one-to-one**: If $\lambda_a(x_1) = \lambda_a(x_2)$, then $x_1 = x_2$. [Why?]
- λ_a is **onto**: For any $x \in G$, we have $\lambda_a(a^{-1}x) = a(a^{-1}x) = x$. \square

This implies that $\phi : G \rightarrow \text{Sym}(G)$ defined by $\phi(a) = \lambda_a$ is well-defined.

To show $G_\lambda := \phi(G)$ is a subgroup of $\text{Sym}(G)$.

- Closure:** For any $\lambda_a, \lambda_b \in G_\lambda$ with $a, b \in G$, to show $\lambda_a \lambda_b \in G_\lambda$.
 $\lambda_a \lambda_b(x) = \lambda_a(\lambda_b(x)) = \lambda_a(bx) = a(bx) = (ab)x = \lambda_{ab}(x)$ for all $x \in G$.
- Identity λ_e :** $\lambda_a \lambda_e = \lambda_{ae} = \lambda_a$ & $\lambda_e \lambda_a = \lambda_{ea} = \lambda_a$.
- Inverses $\lambda_{a^{-1}}$:** $\lambda_a \lambda_{a^{-1}} = \lambda_e$ & $\lambda_{a^{-1}} \lambda_a = \lambda_e$. \square

Define $\phi : G \rightarrow G_\lambda$ by $\phi(a) = \lambda_a$ (well-def., onto). To show ϕ is an isomorphism.

- 1) For all $x \in G$, $\phi(a) = \phi(b) \rightsquigarrow \lambda_a(x) = \lambda_b(x) \rightsquigarrow ax = bx \rightsquigarrow a = b$.
 - 2) For any $a, b \in G$, we have $\phi(ab) = \lambda_{ab} = \lambda_a \lambda_b = \phi(a)\phi(b)$. \square
- Thus $G \cong G_\lambda$, where G_λ is a permutation group. [Why?] \square

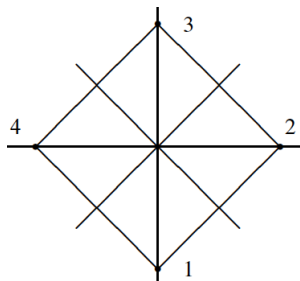
Example: Rigid Motions of a Square

A **rigid motion** is a change in position where the distance between points is preserved and figures remain congruent (having the same size and shape)

- Translation (slide)
- Reflection (flip)
- Rotation (turn)
- A combination of these

Each rigid motion determines a permutation of the vertices of the square.

There are a total of **eight** rigid motions of a square. [Why?] $(4 \cdot 2 = 8)$

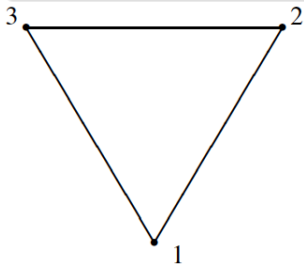


- (1234) counterclockwise rotation through 90°
- $(13)(24)$ counterclockwise rotation through 180°
- (1432) counterclockwise rotation through 270°
- (1) counterclockwise rotation through 360°
- (24) flip about vertical axis
- (13) flip about horizontal axis
- $(12)(34)$ flip about diagonal
- $(14)(23)$ flip about diagonal

We do **not** obtain all $(4! = 24)$ elements of S_4 as rigid motions. e.g., (12)

Example: Rigid Motions of an Equilateral Triangle

The rigid motions of an equilateral triangle yield the group S_3 .



(123) counterclockwise rotation through 120°

(132) counterclockwise rotation through 240°

(1) counterclockwise rotation through 360°

(23) flip about vertical axis

(13) flip about angle bisector

(12) flip about angle bisector

Recall: Another notion for describing S_3 in §3.3

$$S_3 = \{e, a, a^2, b, ab, a^2b\}, \quad \text{where } a^3 = e, b^2 = e, ba = a^2b = a^{-1}b.$$

Another notion for describing Rigid Motions of a Square

Let $a = (1234)$ and $b = (24)$. It can be shown that $ba = a^3b$.

$$S = \{e, a, a^2, a^3, b, ab, a^2b, a^3b\}, \quad \text{where } a^4 = e, b^2 = e, ba = a^3b = a^{-1}b.$$

Rigid Motions of a Regular Polygon (n -gon)

There are $2n$ rigid motions of a regular n -gon.

Proof: There are n choices of a position in which to place first vertex A , and then **two** choices for second vertex since it must be adjacent to A . \square

a is a counterclockwise rotation about the center through $(360/n)^\circ$

$\rightsquigarrow a$ is the cycle $(123 \cdots n)$ of length n and has **order n** .

b is a flip about the line of symmetry through position number 1.

$\rightsquigarrow b$ is the product of $(2n)(3 \ n-1) \cdots$ and has **order 2**.

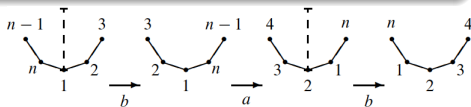
Consider the set $S = \{a^k, a^k b \mid 0 \leq k < n\}$ of rigid motions with $|S| = 2n$.

- a^k for $0 \leq k < n$ are all distinct. [Why?]
- $a^k b$ for $0 \leq k < n$ are all distinct.
- $a^k \neq a^j b$ for all $0 \leq k, j < n$ since a^k does **not** flip the n -gon.

$$S = \{a^k, a^k b \mid 0 \leq k < n\}, \quad \text{where } a^n = e, \quad b^2 = e, \quad ba = a^{-1}b.$$

To show $ba = a^{-1}b \iff bab = a^{-1}$

a^{-1} : **clockwise** rotation through $(360/n)^\circ$



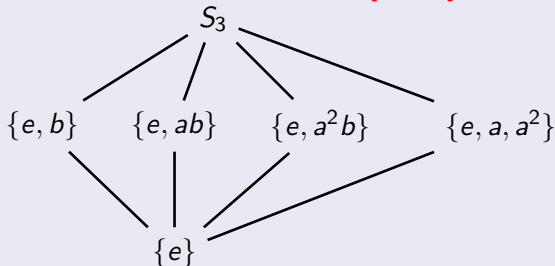
Dihedral Group D_n ($n \geq 3$)

Let $n \geq 3$ be an integer. The group of rigid motions of a regular n -gon is called the n th **dihedral group**, denoted by D_n . Note that $|D_n| = 2n$.

$$D_n = \{a^k, a^k b \mid 0 \leq k < n\}, \quad \text{where } a^n = e, b^2 = e, ba = a^{-1}b.$$

- We will **not** list all subgroups of S_n ($n \geq 4$) since there are **too many**.
- The “**simple**” subgroups of S_n : **cyclic subgroup** generated by $\sigma \in S_n$.
- The **dihedral group** D_n is one important example of subgroups of S_n .
- The **alternating group** A_n is another one important example. (**soon!**)

Every proper subgroup of $D_3 = S_3$ is cyclic. [Why?] Its subgroup diagram



Subgroups of D_4

$$D_4 = \{e, a, a^2, a^3, b, ab, a^2b, a^3b\}, \quad \text{where } a^4 = e, b^2 = e, ba = a^{-1}b = a^3b.$$

The possible orders of proper subgroups of D_4 are 1, 2, or 4. [Why?]

- I. Two special subgroups: $\{e\}$ (trivial subgroup) & D_4 (non-cyclic)
- II. The cyclic subgroups:
 - i) $a^4 = e$: $\langle a \rangle = \langle a^3 \rangle = \{e, a, a^2, a^3\}$ & $\langle a^2 \rangle = \{e, a^2\}$ (Note that $2|4$.)
 - ii) Each of the elements b, ab, a^2b, a^3b has order 2. (Check it!)
- III. **Q:** Are there proper subgroups of D_4 that are not cyclic? **A:** Yes.

If H is a non-cyclic proper subgroup, then $H \cong \mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_2$.

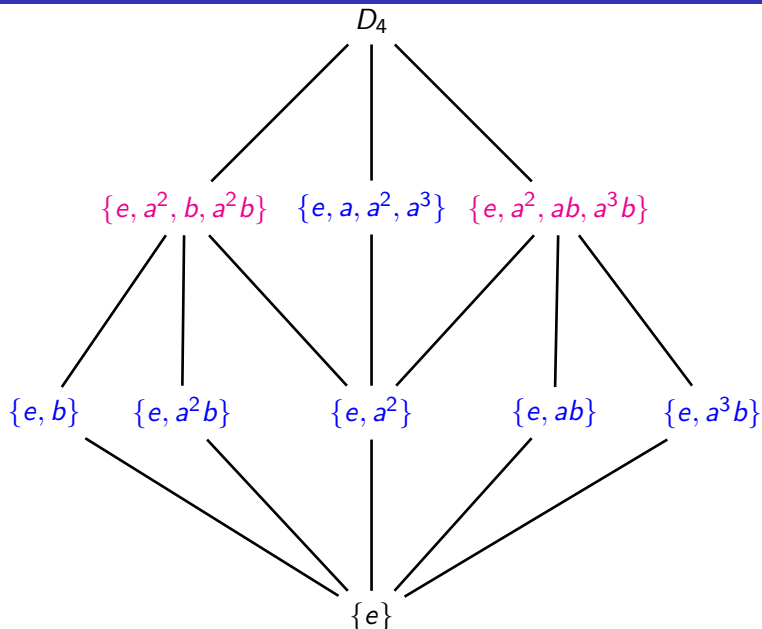
Proof: $|H| = 4$ and any non-identity element of H has order 2. \square

Say $H = \{e, x, y, xy\}$, and so $yx = xy$ since H is abelian.

Consider all possible pairs of elements of order 2 to find all such H 's.

- 1) $H_1 = \{e, a^2, b, a^2b\}$: $ba^2 = \dots = a^2b$ ✓
- 2) $H_2 = \{e, a^2, ab, a^3b\}$: $(ab)a^2 = \dots = a^3b$ ✓

Subgroup Diagram of D_4



Alternating Group A_n ($n \geq 2$)

The set of all even permutations of S_n is a subgroup of S_n .

Proof: ($|S_n| < \infty$) **Nonempty:** (1) **Closure:** If σ and τ are even, so is $\tau\sigma$.

The set of all even permutations of S_n is called the **alternating group** A_n .

$|A_n| = \frac{|S_n|}{2} = \frac{n!}{2}$. This is the **largest** possible cardinality for a proper subgroup.

Proof: Let O_n be the set (**not** a subgroup) of odd permutations in S_n . So

$$S_n = A_n \sqcup O_n \rightsquigarrow |S_n| = |A_n| + |O_n|.$$

i) For each odd permutation $\sigma \in O_n$, the permutation $(12)\sigma$ is even. If σ and τ are two distinct odd permutations, then $(12)\sigma \neq (12)\tau$.

Thus, $|A_n| \geq |O_n|$. **[Why?]**

ii) Similarly, we can show that $|O_n| \geq |A_n|$.

iii) Therefore, $|A_n| = |O_n| = \frac{|S_n|}{2} = \frac{n!}{2}$. □

e.g., $S_3 = \{(1), (12), (13), (23), (123), (132)\} \rightsquigarrow A_3 = \{(1), (123), (132)\}$

Example: List all the Elements of A_4 with $|A_4| = 12$.

The **decomposition type** of a permutation σ in S_n is the list of all the cycle lengths involved in a decomposition of σ into **disjoint** cycles.

↪ Possible decomposition types of permutations of S_4 :

- I. a single cycle of length 1, 2, 3 or 4
- II. two disjoint cycles of length 2

↪ Only **single cycles of length 1 or 3** and **two disjoint cycles of length 2** could possibly be even. Note that the single cycle of length 1 is just **(1)**.

i) **single cycle of length 3**: Choose any three of the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4:

$$\binom{4}{3} = \text{Four choices: } 123, \quad 124, \quad 134, \quad 234.$$

For **each choice**, there are **two** ways to make a cycle.

$$(123), (132), \quad (124), (142), \quad (134), (143), \quad (234), (243).$$

ii) **two disjoint cycles of length 2**: Choose any two of the #s 1, 2, 3, 4:

$$\binom{4}{2} = \text{Six choices: } 12, \quad 13, \quad 14, \quad 23, \quad 24, \quad 34.$$

↪ **Three** different products of two **disjoint** transpositions. **[Why?]**

$$(12)(34), \quad (13)(24), \quad (14)(23).$$

↪ $A_4 = \{(1), (123), (132), \dots, (234), (243), (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23)\}$

The Converse of Lagrange's Theorem is False

Recall that $A_4 = \{(1), (123), (132), \dots, (234), (243), (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23)\}$
In particular, every non-identity element of A_4 has order 2 or 3. [Why?]

A_4 has **no** subgroup of order 6.

Proof by contradiction: Suppose that H is a subgroup of order 6 in A_4 .

H must contain an element of order 2.

Proof: If **not**, $\{h, h^{-1}\} \in H$ with $h \neq h^{-1}$ for any $h \neq e$ & $\{e, e^{-1}\} = \{e\}$.

$\rightsquigarrow H$ has an odd number of elements, which is impossible. \square

H must contain an element of order 3.

Proof: If **not**, assume that every non-identity element of H has order 2.

Let $x, y \in H$ with $x \neq y$ and $o(x) = o(y) = 2$. So $o(xy) = 2$ since $xy \in H$ and $xy \neq e$ [Why?]. And then $xy = yx$ since $xy = (xy)^{-1} = y^{-1}x^{-1} = yx$.

$\rightsquigarrow \{e, x, y, xy\}$ is a subgroup of H of order 4, a contradiction. [Why?] \square

$\rightsquigarrow H$ must contain an element (abc) and $(ab)(cd)$ for distinct a, b, c, d .

Then H contains $(abc)(ab)(cd) = (acd)$ and $(ab)(cd)(abc) = (bcd)$.

$\rightsquigarrow H$ has **six** elements of order 3 since $(acb), (adc), (bcd) \in H$. [Why?] \square

Two Examples

$$A_4 \not\cong S_3 \times \mathbf{Z}_2$$

Proof: A_4 has **no** subgroup of order 6, but $S_3 \times \mathbf{Z}_2$ does (e.g., $S_3 \times \{[0]_2\}$)

$$S_4 \not\cong A_4 \times \mathbf{Z}_2$$

Proof: The largest possible order of an element in S_4 is 4. [Why?]

Recall that the possible decomposition types of permutations of S_4 are

- I) a single cycle of length 1, 2, 3 or 4
- II) two disjoint cycles of length 2

And so the possible decomposition types of permutations of A_4 are

- i) a single cycle of length 1 or 3
- ii) two disjoint cycles of length 2

It follows that there is an element of order 6 in $A_4 \times \mathbf{Z}_2$. [Why?]

However, S_4 has **no** element of order 6. Thus $S_4 \not\cong A_4 \times \mathbf{Z}_2$. □