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Authors	Dolan, Brian;MacHale, Desmond;MacHale, Peter
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University College Cork, Ireland Coláiste na hOllscoile Corcaigh

Counting Commutativities in Finite Algebraic Systems

BRIAN DOLAN, DES MACHALE AND PETER MACHALE

ABSTRACT. We examine the total possible number of commutativities in a finite algebraic system, concentrating on groups, but also examining rings and semigroups. Numerical restrictions are found and bounds for the total number of commutativities in subgroups and factor groups are derived. Finally, a curious connection with group representations is explored.

1. INTRODUCTION

Consider the Cayley table of a finite group G. For $a, b \in G$, if ab = ba, we place a 1 in each of the boxes corresponding to ab and ba. This is called a commutativity in G. Otherwise we put a 0 in each of these boxes, indicating a non-commutativity in G. If G is an abelian group, there will be a 1 in each box, so we disregard this uninteresting case.

We call this matrix of 1's and 0's the commutativity chart for G. Here for example is the commutativity chart for S_3 , the group of all permutations on the set $\{1, 2, 3\}$ under composition. S_3 is in fact the smallest non-abelian group.

	e	(123)	(132)	(12)	(13)	(23)
e	1	1	1	1	1	1
(123)	1	1	1	0	0	0
(132)	1	1	1	0	0	0
(12)	1	0	0	1	0	0
(13)	1	0	0	0	1	0
(23)	1	0	0	0	0	1

We denote by I(G) the number of times that 1 appears in the commutativity chart and by O(G) the number of times that 0 appears. Thus $I(S_3) = 18$ and $O(S_3) = 18$ also.

In general we see that $I(G) + O(G) = |G|^2$ and O(G) > 0 since we are assuming G is non-abelian. Also we have I(G) > 0 since for

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example xx = xx for all $x \in G$. One of our objectives of this note will be to discuss the possible values of I(G) and O(G), where G is a finite non-abelian group and to investigate the values of I(S) and O(S) for other non-commutative algebraic systems S.

Since if $ab \neq ba$ then $ba \neq ab$ and xx = xx for all x, we see that O(G) is always an even number, but there are examples to show that I(G) can be either even or odd. For example, $I(A_4) = 48$, where A_4 is the alternating group of order 12, while I(G(21)) = 105, where G(21) is the non-abelian group of order 21. We emphasise that throughout, G denotes a finite non-abelian group.

2. Some Elementary Results

Let us recall some facts from elementary group theory. Two elements x and y in G are said to be conjugate if there exists $w \in G$ with $y = w^{-1}xw$. The relation of conjugacy is easily seen to be an equivalence relation on G, under which G is partitioned into disjoint conjugacy classes. For example, in the group S_3 , the conjugacy classes are $\{e\}, \{(123), (132)\}$ and $\{(12), (13), (23)\}$.

In general, let G have exactly k(G) conjugacy classes and let Cl(x)be the class containing x. Let $C_G(x)$, the centralizer of x in G, be the subgroup of G given by $C_G(x) = \{a \in G \mid ax = xa\}$. There is a nice connection between conjugacy classes and centralizers viz. $|Cl(x)| = (G : C_G(x))$, i.e. the number of cosets of $C_G(x)$ in G, and both these numbers are divisors of |G|.

From the definition, we have that

$$I(G) = \sum_{x \in G} |C_G(x)| = \sum_{x \in G} \frac{|G|}{|Cl(x)|}$$
$$= |G| \sum_{x \in G} \frac{1}{|Cl(x)|} = |G|k(G). \text{ See } [5].$$

It follows that $O(G) = |G|^2 - I(G) = |G|(|G| - k(G))$. Thus in the case of S_3 , since $k(S_3) = 3$, we have $I(G) = 6 \cdot 3 = 18$ and $O(G) = 6 \cdot (6-3) = 18$, in agreement with our previous calculations.

Theorem 2.1. If |G| is odd, then k(G) is odd.

Proof. If |G| is odd, since O(G) is even and O(G) = |G|(|G| - k(G)), we see that |G| - k(G) must be even, so k(G) is odd.

We note that the converse of this result is not true; $k(S_3) = 3$, but $|S_3| = 6$.

Theorem 2.2. I(G) is odd if and only if |G| is odd.

Proof. If |G| is odd then by Theorem 2.1 k(G) is odd, so I(G) = |G|k(G) is odd. Conversely, if I(G) is odd then |G| clearly must be odd.

In fact the smallest possible odd value of $I(G) = 105 = 21 \cdot 5$, arising from G(21), which is the smallest odd-order non-abelian group. We remark that Theorem 2.1, which says that if |G| is odd, then $|G| - k(G) \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, can be improved upon considerably using the theory of matrix group representations. A lovely theorem of Burnside [3] states that if |G| is odd, then $|G| - k(G) \equiv 0 \pmod{16}$.

Again G(21) shows that this result is the best possible. Since O(G) = |G|(|G| - k(G)) we have

Theorem 2.3. If |G| is odd, then O(G) is a multiple of 16|G|.

Again, $O(G(21)) = 336 = 16 \cdot 21$, shows that this result is the best possible.

We now investigate the possible values of I(G) and O(G) as G ranges over all finite non-abelian groups. For a given group G it is easy, if tedious, to calculate the value of k(G), and for certain classes of groups, and for groups of small order, this information is readily available from a variety of sources.

In particular let D_n be the dihedral group of order 2n (n > 2) given by

 $< a, b \mid a^n = 1 = b^2; b^{-1}ab = a^{-1} > b^2$

Then if n(=2m) is even, we have $k(D_{2m}) = m+3$, making $I(D_{2m}) = 4m(m+3) = 4m^2 + 12m$.

If n(=2m+1) is odd, then $k(D_{2m+1}) = m+2$, so $I(D_{2m+1}) = (4m+2)(m+2) = 4m^2 + 10m + 4$.

The values of $O(D_n)$ can be found from $O(G) = |G|^2 - I(G)$.

The symmetric group S_n of order n! has exactly p(n) conjugacy classes, where p(n) is the (integer) partition function, so $I(S_n) = n!p(n)$ and $O(S_n) = n!(n! - p(n))$.

For distinct odd primes p and q, with p < q where p|(q-1), there is a unique non-abelian group G(pq) of order pq. Easy calculations show that G(pq) has exactly $p + \frac{q-1}{p}$ conjugacy classes, so that $I(G(pq)) = q(p^2 + q - 1)$ and $O(G(pq)) = p^2q^2 - I(G) =$ $q(q-1)(p^2-1)$.

We now present a chart with three columns. In the first column are the possible orders of a finite non-abelian group G. In the second and third columns we give the values of I(G) and O(G) for each non-abelian group of order |G|. Since it is known that there are only finitely many groups with a given order and also only finitely many groups with a given number of conjugacy classes ([6], [9]), we see that there are just finitely many (maybe zero) groups with a given I(G) or a given O(G). Note that there may be several different groups of order |G| with the same k(G) and hence the same I(G)and O(G).

G	I(G)	O(G)	G	I(G)	O(G)		G	I(G)	O(G)
6	18	18	32	544	480		48	1152	1152
8	40	24	34	340	816		48	1440	864
10	40	60	36	216	1080		50	700	1800
12	48	96	36	324	972		50	1000	1500
12	72	72	36	360	936		52	364	2340
14	70	126	36	432	864		52	832	1872
16	112	144	36	648	648		54	540	2376
16	160	96	38	418	1026		54	810	2106
18	108	216	39	273	1248		54	972	1944
18	162	162	40	400	1200		54	1188	1728
20	100	300	40	520	1080		54	1458	1458
20	160	240	40	640	960		55	385	2640
21	105	336	40	1000	600		56	448	2688
22	154	330	42	294	1470		56	952	2184
24	120	456	42	420	1344		56	1120	2016
24	168	408	42	504	1260		56	1960	1176
24	192	384	42	630	1134		57	513	2736
24	216	360	42	882	882		58	928	2436
24	288	288	44	616	1320		60	300	3300
24	360	216	46	598	1518		60	540	3060
26	208	468	48	384	1920		60	720	2880
27	297	432	48	480	1824		60	900	2700
28	280	504	48	576	1728		60	1080	2520
30	270	630	48	672	1632		60	1200	2400
30	360	540	48	720	1584		60	1440	2160
30	450	450	48	768	1536		60	1800	1800
32	352	672	48	864	1440				
32	448	576	48	1008	1296]			

We note that for direct products of groups G_1 and G_2 , $I(G_1 \times G_2) = I(G_1)I(G_2)$ and $k(G_1 \times G_2) = k(G_1)k(G_2)$. However, $O(S_3)O(S_3) = 18 \cdot 18 = 324 \neq 972 = O(S_3 \times S_3)$.

By [7] we have $\frac{k(G)}{|G|} \leq \frac{5}{8}$ so $I(G) \leq \frac{5}{8}|G|^2$, and $O(G) \geq \frac{3}{8}|G|^2$. Also, by examining Cayley tables, it is clear that $I(G) \geq 3|G|-2$, so that $O(G) \leq |G|^2 - 3|G| + 2$. Thus, consulting the above charts, we see that the allowable values for I(G) are: 18, 40, 48, 70, 72, 100, 105, 108, 112, 120, 154, 160, 162, 168, 192, 208, 216, 270, 273, 280, 288, 294, 297, 300, 324, 340, 352, 360, 364, 384, 385, 400, 418, 432,...

Similarly the allowable values for O(G) are: 18, 24, 60, 72, 96, 126, 144, 162, 216, 240, 288, 300, 330, 336, 360, 384, 408, 432, 450, 456, 468, 480, 504, 540, 576, 600, 630, 648, 672,...

We mention that the function |G| - k(G) is examined in considerable detail in [1]. Also, one can show that I(G) = O(G) if and only if $G/Z(G) = S_3$, where Z(G) is the centre of G.

3. Subgroups and Factor Groups

Gallagher [4] gives elementary proofs of the following results for all finite groups G, where H is a subgroup of G and N is a normal subgroup of G.

- (i) k(H) < (G:H)k(G), for $H \neq G$;
- (ii) $k(G) \leq (G:H)k(H);$
- (iii) $k(G) \le k(G/N)k(N)$.

In our notation, these results immediately become

Theorem 3.1. (i) I(H) < I(G) if $H \neq G$; (ii) $I(G) \le (G : H)^2 I(H)$; (iii) $I(G/N) \ge I(G)/I(N)$.

Let $S = \{a, b\}$ be a set of cardinality 2. Define a binary operation * on S as follows

*	a	b
a	a	b
b	a	b

Easy calculations show that S is a non-commutative semigroup with I(S) = 2 = O(S), so the sequences of allowable value of I(S) and O(S) for semigroups are different from those of I(G) and O(G) for groups.

The reader is invited to determine the sequences of allowable values of I(S) and O(S) for non-commutative semigroups.

Moving on to rings, consider the following set of 2×2 matrices over \mathbb{Z}_2 under matrix addition and multiplication mod 2:

$$R = \{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \}$$

It is easy to see that $\{R, +, \cdot\}$ is a non-commutative ring of order 4. The commutativity chart for $\{R, \cdot\}$ looks as follows:

	$\left(\begin{array}{c} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{array}\right)$	$\left(\begin{smallmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{smallmatrix}\right)$	$\left(\begin{array}{c}1&0\\1&0\end{array}\right)$	$\left(\begin{array}{c}1&1\\1&1\end{array}\right)$
$\left(\begin{array}{c} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{array}\right)$	1	1	1	1
$\left(\begin{array}{c} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array}\right)$	1	1	0	0
$\left(\begin{array}{c}1&0\\1&0\end{array}\right)$	1	0	1	0
$\left(\begin{array}{c}1&1\\1&1\end{array}\right)$	1	0	0	1

Thus I(R) = 10 and O(R) = 6. This single example shows that the sequences of allowable values of I(R) and O(R) for finite rings are different from those for finite groups.

Again the reader is invited to investigate this problem for other algebraic systems such as near-rings, loops, quasigroups etc.

We remark that if S is a set with |S| = n we can always choose closed binary operations * and \circ on S such that I(S, *) = n (n > 1), and $O(S, \circ) = 2n$ (n arbitrary).

For example, if $S = \{a, b, c\}$ define * by

*	a	b	С	
a	a	a	c	
b	b	b	b	
c	a	С	c	

to achieve I(S, *) = 3 and similarly for the general case.

0	a	b	С
a	a	a	a
b	b	a	a
C	b	b	С

Also in the second example $O(S, \circ) = 6$ and similarly for the general case.

5. A Connection with Matrix Representations of Groups

There is a surprising connection between I(G) and matrix representations of G. For definitions we refer the interested reader to [5].

Let $d_i, 1 \leq i \leq k$, be the degrees of the irreducible complex matrix representations of a finite group G i.e. the sizes of the square matrices involved. There are k(G) of these where G has k(G) conjugacy classes.

Let
$$T(G) = \sum_{i=1}^{k(G)} d_i$$
.

[For example, for S_3 , $(d_1, d_2, d_3) = (1, 1, 2)$ so $T(S_3) = 4$.] Using the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality on $(1, 1, 1, \ldots, 1)$ and $(d_1, d_2, d_3, \ldots, d_k)$ as in [8], and remembering that $\sum_{i=1}^k d_i^2 = |G|$, we find that

$$(T(G))^2 < k(G)|G| = I(G).$$
(G non-abelian)

Let us see how this inequality looks for some specific groups of small order.

[We use the notation Q_n for the dicyclic group of order 4n for n > 1where $Q_n = \langle a, b | a^{2n} = 1; b^2 = a^n, b^{-1}ab = a^{-1} \rangle$].

Group	$(T(G))^2$	I(G)	
S_3	16	18	
D_4	36	40	
Q_2	36	40	(quaternion group)
D_5	36	40	
D_6	64	72	
Q_3	64	72	
A_4	36	48	
D_7	64	70	
S_4	100	120	

When we write $T(G) < \sqrt{I(G)}$ in a particular case such as D_4 , we get $T_4 < \sqrt{I(D_4)} = \sqrt{40} = 6.3245$. Now $T(D_4)$ is an integer so $T(D_4) \leq 6$ and 6 is actually the correct answer!

Similarly in the case of S_4 , we get $T(S_4) < \sqrt{120} = 10.95445$. Again $T(S_4)$ is an integer, so $T(S_4) \leq 10$ which gives the correct value of $T(S_4) = 10$.

It is remarkable that such a basic function as I(G), whose values can be read from the Cayley table, can be used to find information about T(G), which would appear to be a much more advanced group theoretic concept.

6. Analogues of I(G) and O(G)

There are so many analogies between k(G) and T(G) (as defined in section 5) that we make the following definitions: For a finite non-abelian group G, let N(G) = |G|T(G) and M(G) = |G|(|G| - T(G)).

It is not immediately clear what the interpretations of N(G) and M(G) are, but these functions have many properties analogous to I(G) and O(G). To save space we state results only, but methods of proof are very similar to those for results concerning I(G) and O(G). We remark that the properties of |G| - T(G) are examined in some detail in [2].

Theorem 6.1. I(G) < N(G) and O(G) > M(G).

Theorem 6.2. There are only finitely many groups G (maybe zero) with a given N(G) or a given M(G).

Theorem 6.3. N(G) is odd if and only if |G| is odd.

Theorem 6.4. If |G| is odd, M(G) is a multiple of 4|G|.

Theorem 6.5. If H is a proper subgroup of G, then N(H) < N(G).

Theorem 6.6. M(G) is always even.

Theorem 6.7. $N(G) < |G|^{\frac{3}{2}} (k(G))^{\frac{1}{2}}$.

Theorem 6.8. $N(G_1 \times G_2) = N(G_1) \cdot N(G_2).$

Theorem 6.9. For the non-abelian group G(pq), we have N(G) = pq(p+q-1) and M(G) = pq(p-1)(q-1), where p and q are distinct odd primes.

Theorem 6.10. $N(G) \leq \frac{3}{4}|G|^2$ and $M(G) \geq \frac{1}{4}|G|^2$.

Finally, we give a chart of values of N(G) and M(G) for nonabelian groups G of small order which leads to information about the sequences of allowable values of N(G) and M(G).

G	N(G)	M(G)	G	N(G)	M(G)
6	24	12	22	264	220
8	48	16	24	240	336
10	60	40	24	288	288
12	72	72	24	336	240
12	96	48	24	384	292
14	112	84	24	432	144
16	120	136	26	364	312
16	192	64	27	405	324
18	120	204	28	448	336
20	160	240	30	480	420
20	240	160	30	540	360
21	189	252	30	600	300

The sequence of allowable values of N(G) thus begins 24, 48, 60, 72, 96, 112, 120, 160, 189, 192, 240, 264, 288, ...

The sequence of allowable values of M(G) thus begins 12, 16, 40, 48, 64, 72, 84, 136, 144, ...

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Brian Dolan is a mathematical graduate of University College Cork. He works currently in Computer Science in the UK.

Des MacHale is Emeritus Professor of Mathematics at University College Cork where he taught for nearly forty years. His mathematical interests are in abstract algebra but he also works in number theory, geometry, combinatorics and the

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history of mathematics. His other interests include humour, geology and words. **Peter MacHale** is the Systems Manager in the Insight Centre for Data Analytics, Computer Science Department in University College Cork. His interests are constraint programming and graph theory. His other interests include music, science fiction and gaming.

(Brian Dolan and Des MacHale) SCHOOL OF MATHEMATICAL SCIENCES, UNIVERSITY COLLEGE CORK

(Peter MacHale) INSIGHT CENTRE FOR DATA ANALYTICS, UNIVERSITY COLLEGE CORK

E-mail address: curlyjim@gmail.com, d.machale@ucc.ie, p.machale@ucc.ie