COMBINATORIAL PROPERTIES OF THE ALTERNATING & DIHEDRAL GROUPS AND HOMOMORPHIC IMAGES OF FIBONACCI GROUPS

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## CERTIFICATION

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## DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this work is the product of my own research efforts, undertaken under the supervision of Professor M. S. Audu and has not been presented elsewhere for the award of a degree or certificate. All sources have been duly distinguished and appropriately acknowledge.

BASHIR ALI (PGNS/UJ/12261/00)

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## DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my family, Abu Hamza Hadejia and to all those who may find it beneficial to their scope of study.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

TITLE PAGE i

DECLARATION ii

CERTIFICATION iii

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT iv

DEDICATION v

TABLE OF CONTENTS vi

LIST OF TABLES xv

NOTATIONS xvi

ABSTRACT xx

CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

* 1. FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS 1
  2. BASIC SEMIGROUP THEORY 1
  3. MONOGENIC (CYCLIC) SEMIGROUP 3
  4. ORDERED SETS, SEMILATTICES AND LATTICES 4
  5. GREEN’S EQUIVALENCE 4
  6. BASIC GROUP THEORY 5
  7. PERMUTATION GROUP 7
  8. TRANSFORMATIONS 9
  9. GROUP HOMOMORPHISM 9
     1. First isomorphism theorem 10
     2. Second isomorphism theorem 10
     3. Third isomorphism theorem 10
  10. DIRECT PRODUCTS 10
  11. COSETS 11
  12. NORMAL SUBGROUP 12
  13. p-GROUPS 14
      1. First sylow theorem 14
      2. Second sylow theorem 16
      3. Third sylow theorem 16
  14. GROUP ACTIONS ON GROUPS 16
  15. BASIC COMBINATORICS 16
  16. BINOMIAL THEOREM 16
  17. PERMUTATIONS AND COMBINATIONS 16
  18. RECURRENCE RELATIONS AND FUNCTION GENERATING 17
      1. Recurrence relation 17
      2. Generating functions 17
  19. SOME SPECIAL NUMBERS 18
      1. Bell numbers 18
      2. Fibonacci numbers 18
      3. Catalan numbers 19
      4. Starling numbers 20
  20. DERANGEMENTS 20

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1.21 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY |  | 21 |
| 1.22 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM |  | 23 |
| 1.23 JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY |  | 24 |
| 1.24 OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY |  | 24 |
| CHAPTER | TWO |  |

LITERATURE REVIEW

* 1. TRANSITIVE PERMUTATION GROUP 26
     1. Orbits of  in G 26
     2. Properties of orbits of  in G 27
     3. Stabilizer of  in G 27
     4. Properties of stabilizer of  *in G* 27
     5. Transitive constituent 28
  2. [REGULAR AND SEMI-REGULAR GROUPS 28](#_TOC_250065)
  3. THE SUBGROUPS G and G . 29
     1. Properties of G and G 29
     2. Burnside lemma 29
  4. [PRIMITIVE GROUPS 30](#_TOC_250064)
     1. Properties of primitive groups 30
  5. [MULTIPLY TRANSITIVE GROUPS 31](#_TOC_250063)
  6. [CLASSIFICATION OF TRANSITIVE GROUPS 31](#_TOC_250062)
  7. [CLASSIFICATION OF PRIMITIVE GROUPS 32](#_TOC_250061)
  8. CONSTRUCTING TRANSITIVE PERMUTATION

GROUPS 33

* 1. [TRANSITIVE *p* -GROUPS OF DEGREE *pm* 33](#_TOC_250060)
     1. Lemma 33
     2. Theorem 34
  2. [CLOCKWISE (ANTI-CLOCKWISE) ORIENTATION 34](#_TOC_250059)
     1. [Remark 34](#_TOC_250058)
  3. [ORIENTATION PRESERVING (REVERSING) MAPPINGS 35](#_TOC_250057)
     1. Orientation preserving mappings 35
     2. Lemma 36
     3. Lemma 36
     4. Lemma 36
     5. Lemma 36
     6. [Remark 37](#_TOC_250056)
     7. Orientation preserving mappings 37
     8. [Remark 37](#_TOC_250055)
     9. Lemma 38
     10. Theorem 38
  4. [COMBINATORIAL PROPERTIES OF TRANSFORMATION SEMIGROUPS AND SYMMETRIC GROUPS 38](#_TOC_250054)

[CHAPTER THREE RESULTS](#_TOC_250053)

* 1. RESULT ONE: SOME COMBINATORIAL PROPERTIES OF THE ALTERNATING GROUP 41
     1. [Result 41](#_TOC_250052)
     2. [Result 42](#_TOC_250051)

[3.1.4 Result 42](#_TOC_250050)

* 1. [EVEN AND ODD PERMUTATIONS 42](#_TOC_250049)
     1. [Theorem 43](#_TOC_250048)
     2. [Proposition 44](#_TOC_250047)
     3. [Proposition 47](#_TOC_250046)
     4. [Proposition 47](#_TOC_250045)
     5. Remark 48
  2. [GENERATING FUNCTIONS 53](#_TOC_250044)
     1. [Proposition 53](#_TOC_250043)
     2. [Proposition 53](#_TOC_250042)
     3. [Proposition 54](#_TOC_250041)
  3. [NUMBER OF PERMUTATIONS WITH A GIVEN CYCLE STRUCTURE 55](#_TOC_250040)
     1. [Lemma 55](#_TOC_250039)
     2. [Lemma 55](#_TOC_250038)
     3. Theorem 55

[3.4.5 Theorem 56](#_TOC_250037)

* 1. RESULT TWO: SOME COMBINATORIAL PROPERTIES

OF THE DIHEDRAL GROUP 57

* + 1. Result 58
    2. [Result 58](#_TOC_250036)
    3. [Result 58](#_TOC_250035)
    4. [Result 58](#_TOC_250034)
    5. [Result 59](#_TOC_250033)
    6. [Result 59](#_TOC_250032)
    7. [Result 59](#_TOC_250031)
    8. [Result 60](#_TOC_250030)
    9. [Result 60](#_TOC_250029)
    10. [Result 60](#_TOC_250028)
  1. [NUMBER OF FIXED POINTS 60](#_TOC_250027)
     1. [Proposition 61](#_TOC_250026)
  2. [EVEN AND ODD PERMUTATIONS 62](#_TOC_250025)
     1. [Proposition 62](#_TOC_250024)
     2. [Proposition 63](#_TOC_250023)
  3. [THE SUBGROUP OF ORIENTATION PRESERVING (REVERSING) MAPPINGS 64](#_TOC_250022)
     1. [Result 65](#_TOC_250021)
     2. [Result 66](#_TOC_250020)
     3. [Result 66](#_TOC_250019)

[3.8.10 Result 67](#_TOC_250018)

* 1. THE SUBGROUP OF ORIENTATION PRESERVING MAPPINGS 67
     1. [Lemma 67](#_TOC_250017)
     2. [Lemma 67](#_TOC_250016)
     3. [Lemma 68](#_TOC_250015)
     4. [Theorem 68](#_TOC_250014)
  2. THE SUBGROUP OFORIENTATION REVERSING MAPPINGS 71
     1. [Lemma 72](#_TOC_250013)
     2. [Lemma 77](#_TOC_250012)
     3. [Lemma 82](#_TOC_250011)
     4. [Result 83](#_TOC_250010)
     5. [Result 84](#_TOC_250009)
     6. [Result 84](#_TOC_250008)
     7. [Result 85](#_TOC_250007)
     8. [Remark 85](#_TOC_250006)
  3. [EVEN AND ODD PERMUTATIONS 85](#_TOC_250005)
     1. [Proposition 85](#_TOC_250004)
     2. [Proposition 86](#_TOC_250003)
  4. [DIHEDRAL GROUPS AS HOMOMORPHIC IMAGES 89](#_TOC_250002)
     1. [Lemma 89](#_TOC_250001)
     2. [Lemma 89](#_TOC_250000)
  5. THE FIBONACCI GROUP

*F* 2*r*, 4*r*  2 90

* + 1. Lemma 90
    2. Proposition 90
    3. Lemma 91
    4. Lemma 91
  1. THE FIBONACCI GROUP

*F* 4*r*  3,

8*r*  8 92

* + 1. Lemma 92
    2. Proposition 93
    3. Lemma 94
    4. Lemma 94
    5. Lemma. 95
    6. Lemma 96
    7. Lemma 97
  1. THE FIBONACCI GROUP

*F* 4*r*  5,

8*r* 12 98

* + 1. Lemma 99
    2. Proposition 99
    3. Lemma 100
    4. Lemma 101
    5. Lemma 101
    6. Lemma 102
    7. Lemma 103

CHAPTER FOUR

SUMMARY OF RESULTS, CONTRIBUTIONS AND AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

* 1. SUMMARY OF RESULTS 105
  2. CONTRIBUTIONS TO KNOWLEDGE 106

4.2 AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH 106

REFERENCES 108

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | **LIST OF TABLES** |  |
| TABLE  1 *e**n*, *k*  |  | Page  50 |
| 2 *e*`*n*, *k*  |  | 51 |
| 3 *e* *n*+ *e* *n*- *dn* |  | 52 |
| 4 *e**n*, *k*  |  | 87 |
| 5 *e*`*n*, *k*  |  | 88 |

## NOTATIONS

*H* *G H* is a subgroup *G*

*H* *G*

*H* is normal in *G*

*Hg*, *gH* Left or right coset of *H* in *G* , *g*  *G* , *H*  *G*

 : *G*  *H*  is a mapping from *G* to *H*

G  H Group *G* and *H* are isomorphic

ker Kernel of 

*G N* Quotient group of *G* by N

*g* 1*Hg*

*NG* *H*  *CG* *H*  *Z* *G* *Aut**H*  Inn*G* Im 

Conjugate of *H* by g, *g*  *G* , *H*  *G*

Normalizer of *H* in *G* Centralizer of *H* in *G* Center of *G*

Group of automorphisms of *H*

Group of inner automorphisms of *G*

Image of homomorphism

HK Direct product of *H* and *K*

*Dn* Dihedral group of Degree *n*

An Alternating group on n elements

*k g* Action of g on *k*

G*n* 

The

*nth*

derived group of *G*

*V*1 *V*2

Direct sum of Vector spaces *V*1

*and V*2

*Fixm* *G* 

Fixed-point space of *G*

*on M*

*Ann**M* 

Annihilator of *M*

*rad R*

Jacobson radical of *R*

*G* : *H*

Index of *H in G*

 *G* Orbit of 

*under*

*G* ,  

*G* Stabilizer of  ,  

*G*

Pointwise stabilizer of a subset

 *of* 

*G*

Setwise stabilizer of a subset

 *of* 

*G*  Constituent of *G* on ∆

B *n* Bell number *Bn*

*C**n*, *r* 

*C**n*, *n*1 , *n*2 , …*nk* 

Binomial Coefficient Multinomial coefficients

*Cn*

*d* *n*, *k* 

*f* *N* , *r* 

*g**N* , *r* 

*p**n*, *r* 

*S* *n*, *r* 

*n* Catalan number

Number of permutation on *n* -set *X* having

*k* cycles

Number of partitions of *N* in which each part represented fewer than *r* times

Number of partitions of *N* having no part

divisible by *r*

Number of *r* permutations of collection of *n*

distinct objects

Sterling number of the first kind

*s* *n*, *r*  *S* *n*,0

Sterling number of the second kind Singles sterling number

*dn*

*f* *n*  2  *f* *n*  1  *f* *n*

Number of derangements

Recurrence of Fibonacci number

*f* 0  *f* 1  1

*Ln* , *L*1  1 *L*2  3

Recurrence of Lucas number

*Ln*2  *Ln*1  *Ln*

Let

*Xn*  1, 2,…, *n*

### Abstract

be a finite *n* -element set and let

*Sn* , *An*

*and Dn*

be the

Symmetric, Alternating and Dihedral groups of

*X n* , respectively. In this thesis we

obtained and discussed formulae for the number of even and odd permutations (of an *n*  element set) having exactly *k* fixed points in the alternating group and the generating functions for the fixed points. Further, we give two different proofs of the

number of even and odd permutations (of an *n*  element set) having exactly *k* fixed

points in the dihedral group, one geometric and the other algebraic. In the algebraic proof, we further obtain the formulae for determining the fixed points. We finally

proved the three families;

*F* 2*r*,4*r*  2,

*F* 4*r*  3,8*r*  8

and

*F* 4*r*  5,8*r*  12

of the

Fibonacci groups

*F* *m* , *n*

to be infinite by defining Morphism between Dihedral

groups and the Fibonacci groups.

## CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

* 1. **INTRODUCTION**

The main aim of this chapter is to highlight a few concepts which are fundamental for the understanding of semigroup, group and combinatorial theoretical concepts. The results therein form the background of the study, which spell out the statement of the problem, objective and justification of the

study.

Let *X*

 *x* , *x* , …, *x*  be a finite set, a permutation on *X* is a one-to-

*n* 1 2 *n n*

one mapping of *Xn* onto itself. The set of all permutations on *n* elements is

denoted by *Sn*

called symmetric group of degree

*n*, and of order

*n*!. The group

*Sn* consists of both even and odd permutations depending on the length the

permutation, even or odd. The set of all even permutations on *Xn* forms a

group called the alternating group ( *An* ). Another subgroup of *Sn*

comprising of

both even and odd permutations is called the Dihedral group such that for all

*x*, *y*  *Sn* , *x*, *y*  *D iff x*  *y*  1, *xy*  *y x* .

*n* 2 1

*n*

The arrangement of elements of the Alternating or Dihedral groups according to specified rule (the number of fixed points) is of particular interest. First, how many of such arrangements are possible and what is their recurrence and generating functions.

Another group which has similar structure to the dihedral group is the

Fibonacci

*F* (*r*, *n*)  *a*1*a*2 ⋯*an*1*an* :*a*1*a*2  *a*3 , *a*2 *a*3  *a*4 ,⋯ *an*1*an*  *a*1 

where *r* is the

number of relations and *n* is the number of generators, for what value of

*r* & *n* is the group finite or infinite.

## BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Let

*Xn*  1, 2, …, *n* be a finite *n* -element set and let

*Pn* ,

*On* ,

*Sn* , *Dn and An*

be the partial transformation semigroups, the submonoid of *Tn* consisting of all

order preserving mappings of *X n* , the symmetric, dihedral and alternating

groups respectively. The combinatorial properties of *Sn* have been studied

over long period and many interesting results have emerged. In particular, the

number of permutations of

*X n* having exactly *k* fixed points and their

generating functions are known.

The Dihedral group

*Dn* , geometrically consists of all symmetries of a

regular

*n*  *gon*

(*n*  3),

that is, *n* rotations through the angles

360∘

*x*

*n*

(*x*  0,1,2,…,*n*  1)

and *n* reflections through each of the *n* lines of

symmetry of the regular *n* -gon. Algebraically, each element of

*Dn* is either

cyclic (preserve orientation) or ant-cyclic (reverse orientation). Catarino and

Higgins (1999) introduced a new subsemigroup of

*X n* containing *On*

which is

denoted by

*OPn*

and its elements are called orientation preserving mappings.

Also, they introduced a Semigroup

*Pn*  *OPn*  *ORn*

where

*ORn*

denotes the

collection of all orientation reversing mappings. They showed that the

Dihedral Group is the maximal sub-Semigroup of

*Pn*  *OPn*  *ORn* .

Fernandes

(2000) studied the monoid of orientation preserving partial transformations of

a finite chain, concentrating in particular on partial transformations which are injective. However, the algebraic proof (along the lines of Catarino and Higgins (1999)) and the geometric proof, for the number (and properties) of even and odd permutations having exactly *k* fixed points in the Dihedral group

*Dn* seem not to have been studied.

The Fibonacci group

*F* 2 , *n* is the group defined by the Presentation

 *a*1*a*2 ,⋯, *an* : *a*1*a*2  *a*3 , *a*2 *a*3  *a*4 ⋯*an*1*an*  *a*1 , *an a*1  *a*2 

The study of these groups began in earnest after a question of Conway (1965)

as to whether or not

*F* 2 , 5 is cyclic of order 11, and it was quickly determined

in (Conway, et al, 1965) that this was indeed the case, and also that

*F* 2 , 1

and

*F* 2 , 2

are trivial,

*F* 2 , 3

is the quaternion group of order 8 ,

*F* 2 , 4 is

cyclic of order 5 , and

*F* 2 , 6 is infinite.

In a survey article Thomas (1989) gave a list of those parameters *r* and

*n* for which the finiteness or infiniteness of the Fibonacci group

*F* *r*, *n*

was

still unknown. Since then, some of the unknown examples were proved infinite by Prishchepov (1998) using geometric methods, and some isolated difficult

examples, such as

*F* 4, 7,

were proved infinite and automatic by computer

programs written by Holt (1998), Christopher (1998), proved all of the outstanding cases except for two families of examples which were proved to be infinite by using geometric methods. The two families that remain unsettled

are

*F* 7  5*i*, 5

and

*F* 8  5*i*, 5

for integers

*i*  0 . The methods also apply to

those examples that had previously been handled by computers. All these

methods were not able to give a generalized result of testing the order of a Fibonacci group.

## STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Let

*e* (*n*, *k*)    *An* : *f*    *k* *e**n*, *k*     *An* : *f*    *k*

*f*  *x*   *ei*

*xi*

*i*!

*i*0

be the number of even (odd) permutations in the alternating group and the generating functions for the fixed points. How many even (odd) permutations

( *e* (*n*, *k* )

*or e* *n*, *k* 

) of an

*n*  element set having exactly *k* fixed points are in

the alternating group and what is the generating functions for the fixed points. Geometrically and Algebraically, How many even and odd permutations

(of an *n*  element set) having exactly *k* fixed points are in the dihedral group

and what are the fixed points.

To study Alternating and Dihedral groups, let be a permutation of *Xn* ,

and

*f* *m* , *n* be the number of permutations of

*Xn* that can be expressed as a

product of

*ri* *m*  *i* 1, *i*  1, 2, ⋯, *m* 1

cycles. How many such permutations are

there in *Xn* .

The Fibonacci groups

*F* *m* , *n* defined as

*F* *m*,

*n*  *a*1 , *a*2 ,…, *an ai ai*1 ⋯*ai**m*1  *ai**m*

*i*  1,2,…, *m* 

for what value of *m and n* is the Fibonacci group infinite or finite.

## JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

Since the combinatorial properties of

*An and Dn*

have not been studied, it

is our desire to consider the number of even and odd permutations (of an

*n*  element set) having exactly *k* fixed points in the alternating & dihedral groups, the generating functions for the fixed points in the alternating group and the formulae for determining the fixed points in the dihedral group. Considering the combinatorial properties of the Dihedral group, we create morphism between the dihedral group and the Fibonacci group. The morphism will give us a new method of determining the finiteness or infiniteness of Fibonacci group.

It is our hope that the combinatorial properties of these groups will help in studying the nature (structure) of other permutation groups, and it is our hope that the new method of studying the finiteness or infiniteness of Fibonacci group will help in the study of unsettled problems.

## OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The objective of this research is to

1. Obtain the number of even (odd) permutations having exactly *k* fixed points in the alternating group, discuss the fixed points and the generating functions for the fixed points.
2. Give two different proofs one geometric and the other algebraic (in line with Catarino and Higgins 1999) of the number of even and odd permutations

(of an *n*  element set) having exactly *k* fixed points in the dihedral group. In

the algebraic proof, we further obtain the formulae for determining the fixed

points.

1. Prove the three families;

*F* 2*r*,4*r*  2,

*F* 4*r*  3, 8*r*  8

and

*F* 4*r*  5,8*r*  12

of the Fibonacci groups

*F* *m* , *n*

to be infinite by defining Morphism between

Dihedral groups and the Fibonacci groups.

1. Obtain the number of permutations of

*Xn* that can be expressed as a

product of

*ri* *m*  *i* 1, *i*  1, 2, ⋯, *m* 1

cycles.

## BASIC SEMIGROUP THEORY

Throughout unless otherwise explicitly indicated, the letter *S* denotes an

arbitrary semigroup.

We call an algebraic structure *S*,∘

that satisfies the closure property a

groupoid, that is to say, if,

 *x*,

*y*  *S*,

*x* ∘ *y*  *S* .

A semigroup *S* is a groupoid

with an associative binary operation, that is to say, if

 *x*, *y*, *z*  *S*,

*x* ∘ *y* ∘ *z*  *x* ∘

*y*∘ *z*.

If a semigroup *S* has the property that, for all

*x* , *y*  *S*,

*xy*  *yx* , we say

that *S* is a commutative semigroup. If a semigroup *S* contains an element 1

with the property that

 *x*  *S*,

1∘ *x*  *x*  *x* ∘1.

We say that 1 is an identity

element of *S*, and that *S* is a semigroup with identity or a monoid. A

semigroup *S* has at most one identity element. If *S* has no identity element, then an extra element 1 can be adjoined to *S* to form a monoid. We define

*S* ∘1  *S*  1∘ *S*

and

1∘1  1 

*s*  *S* , thus

*S*  1 is now a monoid. We refer to

*S*1  *S* 1

as a monoid obtained from *S* by adjoining an identity element if

necessary.

If a semigroup *S* with at least two elements contains a unique element 0

(zero) such that,

 *x* *S*, 0 ∘ *x*  *x* ∘ 0  0,

we say that 0 is a zero element (or just

a zero) of *S* and *S* is a semigroup with zero. If *S* has no zero element, then an

extra element 0 can be adjoined to

*S*, we define

*S* ∘ 0  0  0 ∘ *S*

and

0 ∘ 0  0

 *s*  *S*.

We refer to

*S* 0  *S*  0 as a semigroup obtained from *S* by adjoining

zero if necessary. A semigroup with zero, sometimes written as S0 such that

*xy*  0

 *x*, *y*  *S*

is called a null semigroup. A semigroup with zero is called a

0 group if and only if

 *a*  *S* \0

*aS*  *S*

and

*Sa* *S*.

A non-trivial example of semigroup are the so called left (right) zero

semigroups. A non-empty set L such that

 *a*,*b*  *L*,

*ab*  *a*,

is called a left

zero semigroup. Similarly, we define a right zero semigroup *R* such that

*a*, *b*  *R*,

*ab*  *b*.

Observe that for all *a* in L(R) we have

*a*2  *aa*  *a*

such

elements are called idempotent. A semigroup consisting entirely of idempotent elements is called a band (or Idempotent semigroup).

A non-empty subset

*A of*

*S* is called a subsemigroup if it is closed with

respect to multiplication, that is, if

*a*, *b*  *A*, *ab*  *A*

a condition that can be

expressed more compactly as

*A*2  *A*.

The associative condition that holds

throughout *S* certainly holds throughout *A* and so *A* is itself a semigroup. The

sets *S*,

0, 1 *and*

*e* are special subsemigroups of *S*.

A non empty subset *A* of *S* is called a left Ideal if

*SA*  *A*,

a right ideal,

if *AS*  *A*, and two sided if it is both a left and a right ideal. Every ideal is a

subsemigroup, but the converse is not true.

## MONOGENIC (CYCLIC) SEMIGROUP

The concept of a cyclic semigroup is similar to that of group theory. Let

*S* be a semigroup, and let *U* :*i*  *I* 

*i*

with

*I*  0

 *T*   *U*

*i**I*

*i*

is a subsemigroup

of *S*.

Let *A* be a non empty subset of

*S*, there is at least one subsemigroup of

*S* containing *A*, namely *S* itself. The intersection of all subsemigroups of *S*

containing *A*, is a subsemigroup of *S* we denote it by *A* , and is a

subsemigroup defined by two properties. (1)

*A*  *A*  *j*  *J* .

(2) If *U* is a

subsemigroup of *S* containing

*j*

*A*, then

 *A* *U j* for each *j* .

The subsemigroup *A* consists of all elements of *S* that can be

expressed as a finite product of elements of

*A*. If

*A*  *S*,

we say that *A* is a

set of generators or a generating set of *S* .

If *A* is finite, i.e.

*A*   *a* , *a* , *a* ,…, *a* .

Then we shall write *A*

1 2 3 *n*

as *a*1,

*a*2 ,…,*an*

. In the case where

*A*  *a*,

a singleton set, when

 *a* 

 { *a*

, *a* 2 , *a* 3 , ⋯ }.

If *S* is a monoid then we can equally talk of the

subsemigroup of *S* generated *a*, this will always contain 1,

 *a*  {1, *a* , *a*2 , *a* 3 ⋯}. we refer to *a* as a monogenic subsemigroup of *S*

,

generated by the element *a*. The order of *a* is the order of the subsemigroup

*a* .

If *S* is a semigroup in which there exist an element *a* such that

*S*  *a* , then *S* is said to be a monogenic semigroup. A semigroup with only

one generator is referred to as cyclic.

## ORDERED SETS, SEMILATTICES AND LATTICES

A binary relation  on a set *X* is called a partial order relation if the relation  is an equivalence relation on *X* .

A partial order having the extra-property that for all *x*, *y*  *X* ,

*x*  *y*

*or y*  *x*

will be called a total (or linear) order. A set with total order will

be called a totally ordered set (or chain). A set with a partial order is called a poset.

## GREEN’S EQUIVALENCE: REGULAR SEMIGROUP

In 1951, J.A. Green defined five equivalences

*H* , *K* , *R*, *D*, *and J* .

These equivalences play a fundamental role in the semigroup theory.

Green’s Equivalences: Let *a* be an element of a semigroup *S*. The smallest left

ideal of *S* containing an element *a* is

*Sa*  *a*,

denoted by

*S*1*a* and is called

the principal left ideal generated by *a*. An equivalence *L* on *S* is defined by

the rule that

*a L b*

if and only if

*S*1*a*  *S*1*b*

Similarly, we define the

equivalence *R* by the rule that

*a R b*

if and only if

*aS*1  *bS*1.

An alternative (internal) characterization is;

Let

*a*, *b*, *c*, *d*

 *S*. Then

(i)

*a L b iff*

 *x*, *y*  *S*1 :

*x a*  *b*,

*yb*  *a*

*a R b*

*iff*

 *u*, *v*  *S*1

: *au*  *b*,

*bv*  *a*

(ii)

*L and R*

are right and left congruence's respectively.

(iii)

*L*  *R*  *H*

*and*

*L*  *R*  *D*

The smallest equivalence containing both

*L and R*.

The equivalence *J* is defined by the rule that

*a J b*  *S* 1 *a S* 1  *S* 1 *b S* 1

  *x*, *y*, *u*, *v* *S* 1, *xay*  *b*, *ubv*  *a*.

An element

*a*  *S*

is called regular; if there exists

*x in S*

such that

*a x a*  *a*. Obviously, idempotents are regular. If every element of a semigroup

*S* is regular, we say that *S* is a regular semigroup.

Groups are of course regular semigroups and also every rectangular

band *B* is trivially regular, since

*ax a*  *a*

for all

*a*, *x*

in *B*

Every idempotent *e* in a semigroup *S* is right identity for Re (right

regular *D* -class) and a left identity for *Le* .(left regular *D* -class) An element

*a*' in *S* is called an inverse of *a* if

*aa*'*a*  *a*,

*a*'*a a*'  *a*'.

An element with an inverse is necessarily regular, if *a*' is an inverse of

*a* then *a* is an inverse of

*a*'.

Every regular element has an inverse, if there

exist *x* in *S* such that

*axa*  *a*

then, let

*x*'  *xax*,

*ax*'*a*  *a*,

*x*'*ax*'  *x*'.

An element *a* in *S* may have more than one inverse. Indeed, in a rectangular band every element is an inverse of every other element.

## BASIC GROUP THEORY

Throughout, unless otherwise explicitly indicated, the letter *G* denotes an arbitrary group.

Let *G* be a non empty set, the algebraic structure *G*,

is called a group

if;

1. *G* is a semigroup with respect to 
2. For all

*g*  *G*

 *e*  *G*

such that

*g*  *e*  *e*  *g*  *g* ,

the element *e* is the

identity element of *G* .

1. To every element

*g in G*, there exist a unique element

*g* 1  *G*

called the

inverse of

*g in G*

with the property that

*g*  *g* 1  *g* 1  *g*  *e*.

Henceforth, unless otherwise explicitly indicated, our groups are multiplicative. If *H* is a subset of a group *G* such that the group operation of

*G* is closed on *H* , then *H* is a subgroup of *G* and we write

*H*  *G*,

we state

that *H* is a subgroup of *G* if for all

*x*, *y*  *H* ,

*x y*1  *H* .

If the element *e* is the identity element of *G*,

the set *e*

is the smallest

subgroup of *G* of order one. This and *G* itself are called the trivial (improper)

subgroups of *G*. Any other subgroup *H* of *G* is said to be a proper subgroup

of *G* **.**

We say that *G* is commutative or abelian if every pair of its elements

commutes, i.e.

 *g*1 , *g*2

in *G* .

*g*1*g*2  *g*2 *g*1 ,

otherwise it is non-abelian. By the

cardinality of *G* we mean the number of elements of the set *G* which we

called the order of *G* and is denoted by *G* or

*o**G* .

The order of an element

*g*  *G*

is the least positive integer *n* , if one

exists, such that

*an*  *e*,

then *g* is said to be of order *n* , if no such *n* exist,

then *g* is said to be of infinite or zero order.

Let

*g*  *G* , if the group *G* can be generated by an element

*g*  *G*

such

that

*G*  *g n* : *n*   

then *G* is said to be a cyclic group generated by g, and

written as

*g*  *G*.

If *g* generates *G* then so is

*g* 1  *G*,

and the order of g is

equal to the order of

*G*. Thus, if the

0*G*  *n*

*and*

0*g*  *m*

Then *m* and *n* are

relatively prime.

If 0*G*  *p*, *p* a prime number, then *G* is cyclic and has no proper

subgroup.

## PERMUTATION GROUP

Let *X*

 *x* , *x* , …, *x* 

be a finite set of arbitrary elements, a permutation

*n* 1 2 *n*

on *X n*

is a one-to-one mapping of

*Xn* onto itself. The set of all permutations

on *Xn* forms a group with respect to permutation multiplication (composition

of mappings). The set of all permutations on *n* elements is denoted by

1. *or Sym**X* 

*n n*

and called the symmetric group of degree

*n* , the degree of *Sn* is

the number of elements in the finite set permuted. The number of elements in a

permutation on *n* elements is

*n*! and is the order of

*Sn* ( *i*.*e*. *Sn*  *n*!). A

Permutation group *G* is a subgroup of a symmetric group. Elements of permutation groups are denoted by lower case letters as well as elements of

abstract groups.

The inverse permutation

  *Sn*

is given by

 1  *S* ,

*n*

if  takes *y*

into *x* and then

 1

permutation inverse of  takes the point *x* to *y* ,

*x* 1  *y* . The identity permutation on *X* is the identity mapping which leaves

*n*

all points of *X n*

fixed,

*i* : *x*  *x*

*x**i*  *x* *x*  *G* .

Any element

*g* *Sym*  *X n* 

can be written in

*r*  *cycle*, *i*.*e*. *g*  *x x* … *x* ,

such that

1 2 *r*

*x*1 *is* mapped *to*

*x*2 ,

*x*2 *is* mapped *to x*3

… *xr* 1

*and*

*xr* is mapped *to x*1

and

any other element of *Xn* to itself. The length of a cycle is the number of

distinct elements (points) which occur in the cycle.

Each cycle can be decomposed uniquely into disjoint cycles. A cycle which interchanges only two points and fixes the rest is called a transposition.

Every permutation can be written as a product of transpositions,

*g*  *x*

1

1

*y* *x*

*y* ⋯ *x*

*y* .

An element

2

2

*n*

*n*

*g*  *Sym**X* 

is said to be even if it can be expressed as a

product of even number of transpositions and odd if it can be expressed as a

*n*

product of odd number of transpositions. A *t*  cycle can be expressed as a

product of

*t* 1

transpositions; a

*t*  cycle is an even permutation if it has odd

length and is odd if it has even length. A transposition is odd while the identity

element is even by convention.

The set of all even permutations on

*Xn* forms a group called the

alternating group and denoted by

*n n n*

*A* , *Ax*

*or A*

 *x* : *A*

: *g*  *Sym*  *X*  : *g is even*.

We state that

*Sym**X* : *An*  2

*or An*

 *n*! 2

and

*An* is a normal subgroup of

*Sym* *X*  . Two permutations

 *and* 

*in Sn*

are conjugate in *Sn*

if and only if

they have the same cycle. The cyclic form of the permutations *g* 1*xg* is

obtained by replacing each point in the cyclic form of *x* by  *g* . Thus if

*x*  578321

*g*  152743

*then*

*g* 1*xg*  5*g*, 7*g*, 8*g*, 3*g*, 2*g*, 1*g*  248715

## TRANSFORMATIONS

The analogue to the symmetric group *Sn*

of all permutations of a set

*X n* is the

full transformations semigroup *Tn*

consisting of all mappings from

*X n* into

*Xn* .

The operation in both cases is composition of mappings. Simple combinatorics

yields

*Sn*  *n*!

1.  *nn*

## GROUP HOMOMORPHISM (SEMIGROUP MORPHISM)

*n*

Let  be a mapping from a set *M* into a set *N* denoted as

 : *M*  *N or*

 : *M*  *M* 

*where m*

*or*  *m*

is the image of an element

in  **.** A homomorphism from a group *M* to a group *N* is a mapping

 : *M*  *N*

such that *m m*   *m*  *m*  for all *m* , *m*

 *M* .

In that case  is

1 2 1 2 1 2

said to preserve the respective operations in *M* and *N* . In the sense that if

operation in *M* and *N* are  and  respectively, then *m*  *m*   *m*  *m* . A

1 2 1 2

homomorphism of a group into itself is called an endomorphism.

Let

 :*M*  *N*

be a homomorphism of groups. We define the kernel of

 (*written*

ker)

as ker  :  *m*  *M* : *m*  1

and it is a normal subgroup of *M* .

The image of  is

*im* :*m*   : *m*  *M*  is a subgroup of

*N* . The

ker   1

if and only if the homomorphism  is a one to one mapping. Every

homomorphism  : *M*  *N*

gives rise to a natural factor group namely *G*

ker  .

It can easily be verified that if *N* is normal in *M* , then each factor group *M N*

gives rise to the natural homomorphism

 : *M*  *M N*

defined by

*im*  *Nm*

for

all

*m*  *M*

*with*

ker   *N*.

Let the mapping

 :*M*  *N*

be a bijective (one to one and onto)

homomorphism, then

1 : *N*  *M*

is also a homomorphism and  is said to

be an isomorphism denoted as

*M*  *N*

read as *M* is isomorphic to

*N* . If

*M*  *N* , then the order of

*M and N*

is the same, and the identity

*e* *N*

is the

image of identity *e*  *M* .

We state without proof the three main isomorphism theorems.

### The First Isomorphism Theorem

If  : *M*  *N*

is a homomorphism of groups then *M*

ker   *im* .

### The Second Isomorphism Theorem

Let *M* be a subgroup of *G* and *N* a normal subgroup of *G*. Then

*NM*  *G*,

*N*  *M* *M and*  *NM M*   *M * *M*  *N* .

### The Third Isomorphism Theorem

Let *G* be a group. If *N* is normal in *G* and *N*  *M* *G* , then

*M N* *G N*

*and*

*G N*  / *M N*   *G M*

An isomorphism of a group *G* into itself is said to be an automorphism

of the group *G* . The mapping  : *M*  *M*

given by

*m*  *m*

for all

*m*  *M* , is an

automorphism

*iff M*

is an Abelian group.

## DIRECT PRODUCTS

Let *M* and *N* be any two groups, the (external) direct product of *M* and

*N* denoted by

*M*  *N* , is the set of ordered pairs *m*, *n*,

*m* *M*

*and*

*n*  *N* ,

with

coordinate wise multiplication

*m* , *n*  *m* , *n*   *m m* , *n n* , *m* , *m*  *M* , *n* , *n*

 *N* .

1 1 2 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2

The unit element is 1, 1,

the inverse of *m*, *n*

is *m*1, *n*1 . The new

group is known as the direct product

*M*  *N*

and it is routine to verify the

axioms of a group.

A group *G* is said to be decomposable if its subgroups

*M and N*

are

such that every element of *G* is expressible as a product *mn* with

*m*  *M and n*  *N* ; every element of *M* commutes with every element of *N*

and *M*  *N* 1. If not, it is said to be indecomposable.

The correspondence *m*, *n*  *n*, *m*

shows that

*M*  *N and*

*N*  *M*

are

isomorphic. Let

*M and N*

be normal subgroups of *G* such that

*G*  *M*  *N* ,

the

mappings

 :*G*  *M*

and

 :*G*  *N*

defined by

 :*m*, *n*  *m*

*and*

 : *m*, *n*  *n*

*for all* *m*, *n* *G*

then

 *and* 

are surjective homomorphism

called projection of *G onto M*

*and*

*onto N*

respectively.

We say that

ker   1 *N and* ker   *M* 1

if it is a subgroup of *G* such

that

*H*   *M*

*and H*  *N*. In that case *G* , is said to be the sub-direct product of

*M and N* .

## COSET

Let *H* be a subgroup of a group *G* and

*a*  *G*.

The subset

*Ha*:  *ha* : *h*  *H* 

is called a right coset of *H* in *G* (or residue classes modulo

the subgroup) generated by *a*. Left cosets of *H* in *G* are defined in an

analogous way.

Any two left (right) cosets of *H* in *G* are either disjoint or identical. If

*a*,*b*  *G*,

*Ha*  *Hb*

*iff*

*ab*1  *H* ,

we say that a is congruent to

*b* mod *ulo H* ,

symbolically, we write

*a*  *b*mod *H*  *iff*

*ab*1  *H* .

The relation, congruency, is an equivalence relation. Therefore, it partitions *G* into disjoint equivalence classes. The equivalence classes

corresponding to

*a*  *G*

is defined as, *a*  *x*  *G*

*x*  *a* mod *H*

. The number of

distinct right (left) cosets of *H* in *G* is called the index of *H* in *G* , and will be

denoted by

*G* : *H*

or [*G* : *H* ] , if *G* is a finite group we have

*G* : *H*  *G* / *H* .

By Lagrange’s theorem, the order of a subgroup of a finite group *G*

divides the order of the group, for which we can show that *G* : *H* 

*G*

*H*

Equally, the order of an element of a finite group divides the order of the group.

### Normal Subgroup

Let *N* be a subgroup of a group *G*. The subgroup *N* is normal in G,

denoted as

*N* *G*,

if and only if

*gN*  *Ng*

for all *g*  *G* or

equivalently *g* 1*Ng*  *N*

*for*

*all g*  *G* . The normalizer of *H* in *G* is denoted

by *N* *H*  : *g*  *G*

*H g*  *H*  *g*  *G*

*Hg*  *gH*  *G* . We call *G* simple if its

only normal subgroups are the trivial subgroups *e* *and G* .

If *H* is normal in *G* then the set

*G H*  *gH*

*g*  *G* is called the factor or

quotient group of *G by H* . The product on the set is defined by the rule

*g*1*H*

*g*2 *H*  *g*1 *g* 2*H*

*for all g*1, *g*2  *G* .

The identity element of *G H*

is *H and*

*g* 1*H*

is the inverse of

*gH* .

Let

*g*, *a*  *G*

the element

*a*1*ga*  *ga*

is known as the conjugate

of *g by a if*

*a*1*ga*  *b* . Then *b* is said to be conjugate to

*g and b*

is also called

the transform of

*g by a*, written as

*a* ~ *b*.

The relation ~ partition *G* into

equivalence classes, and conjugate elements have the same order. We write

*C**a* *or* *a*

for the set of all elements conjugate to

*a*  *G*

called the conjugacy

classes of *a*.

We defined the conjugate subgroups of *G* as if

*M and N*

are two

subgroups of a group *G*. In that case, *N* is said to be conjugate to *M* if there

exist an element

*x*  *G*

such that

*N*  *x*1*Mx*.

If *N*  *x*1*Mx*,

then *N* is called the transform of

*M by x*.

We write

*N* ~ *M if*

*N* is conjugate to

*M* . The relation ~ on the sets of subgroups of *G* is

also an equivalence relation as in elements in *G*.

The centralizer of

*g in G*

is defined by

*C* *g* :  *g*  *G* : *y* 1 *gy*  *g*

If the conjugacy class of *g* consist of just *g*, then *g* is known as a self

*G*

conjugate element.

*G*

*C* *g*  *g*  *G*

*x*  *G*,

*x*1*gx*  *g*

There is a one-one correspondence between the conjugacy class of

*g in G*

and

the set of right cosets of the centralizer of G and

*C l* *g* 

*G* : *C* *g*

*C*  *H*  : *x*  *G*

*G*

*G*

*G*

*xh*  *hx*

*for all h*  *H* 

: *x*  *G*

*hx*  *h*

*for all*

*x*  *H*   *C*  *x*

*x*  *H* 

is a subgroup of *G* . Indeed, *C* *H*   *C* *x* *x*  *H*  *G*.

*G*

*G G*

If *H*  *G*

then

*CG* *H* 

is called the centre of *G* and it is denoted as

*Z* *G*.

*Z* *G* : *g*  *G*

*gx*  *xg*

 *x*  *G*

### *p* - GROUPS

Throughout this section, *p* -denotes a prime number.

Let *G* be a group, such that every element of *G* has prime power order

for some fixed prime *p*, then *G* is called a *p* -group.

Lagrange’s theorem assures that in a given group *G*, certain types of

subgroups do not exist; it however, provides a necessary condition for the existence of a subgroup. In 1875 Sylow provides a sufficient condition for the existence in a group of subgroups of certain orders. Suppose *H* is a proper

subgroup of *G* and

0 *H*   *n*, 1  *n*  *p* , then *n* cannot divide *p* . Thus a group

of prime order can have no proper subgroup, e.g. the alternating group of

degree 4,

*A*4 has no subgroup of order 6 although 6 divides

12.

Let *G* be a finite group, such that

*G*  *p r s*

and *r* a natural number

where *p* is a prime and *p*, *s*  1.

Each subgroup of order

*pr* in *G* is called a

Sylow *p* -subgroup of *G* and if *N* is any *p* -subgroup of *G* then *H*  *x*1*N x*

for some *x*  *G*.

We state without proof the three Sylow theorems.

### Sylow’s first theorem

Let *G* be a finite non-abelian group and

*G*  *p r m*

*and*

*p*, *m*  1.

Then

for each

*n*  

such that

0  *n*  *r* , *G* has a subgroup of order

*p n* .

Thus,

*G*  *pr*

for some *r* if and only if the order of every element of *G*

is a power of *p*.

### Sylow’s second theorem

In a finite group the Sylow *p* -subgroups (for a fixed prime *p* ) are all conjugate and are isomorphic.

### Sylow’s third theorem

In a finite group the number of Sylow *p* -subgroups (for a fixed prime

*p* ) is congruent to 1 modulo *p*.

## GROUP ACTIONS ON GROUPS

Let

*M and N*

be groups. We say that *M* acts on *N* as a group if to each

*m*  *M*

and each

*n*  *N* ,

there corresponds a unique element

*m*  *M*

such that

(*i*) *mn*1 *n*2

 *mn*1*n*2 (*ii*) *m*1  *m*

(*iii*)

*n n* *m*  *nmnm*  *m*, *m* , *m*  *M and n*, *n* ,*n*  *N*

1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2

Let *M act on N* as groups, then for each

*m*  *M* ,

there corresponds an

automorphism

 : *N*  *Nm of N*

and the mapping

 : *M*

 *m*

is a

homomorphism of

*M* int *o Auto**N*  . We call  the automorphism

representation of *M* or simply action.

## BASIC COMBINATORICS

Combinatorics could be described as the art of arranging objects according to specified rule. We want to know, first, whether a particular arrangement is possible at all. If so, in how many ways can it be done?

Combinatorics depends on two elementary rules. (i) *Disjunctive (or*

*Sum)* rule; if

*Ei* *i*  1, 2, …, *k*  are *k* events such that no two of them can occur at

the same time, and if

*Ei* can occur in *ni*

ways, then one of the *k* events can

occur in

*n*1  *n*2  …  *nk*

ways. (ii) Sequential or Product Rule; if an event can

occur in *m* ways and a second event in *n* ways, and if the number of ways the second event occurs does not depend upon how the first event occurs, then the two events can occur simultaneously in *mn* ways. More generally, if

*Ei* *i*  1, 2, …, *k*  are *k* events and if *Ei*

can occur in

*n*1 ways,

*E*2 can occur in *n*2

and *Ek*

can occur in *nk*

ways (no matter how the previous

*k*  1events occur),

then the *k* events can occur simultaneously in

*n*1 *n*2 *n*3 … *nk*

ways.

## THE BINOMIAL THEOREM

Let *n* and *k* be non-negative integers, with

0  *k*  *n*.

*T*he binomial

coefficient

 *n* 

 

*k*

is defined to be the number of *k*  element subsets of a set of *n*

 

elements. This numbers is often written as

*n*

*Ck* or

 *n* 

 

*k*

and read as *n* choose *k*.

 

It is called a binomial coefficient.

*n*

  

*k*

*n**n*  1⋯ *n*  *k*  1

*k* *k*  1⋯1

 *n*!

*k*! *n*  *k* !

 

 

*n* *n*

where,    1 is the empty set and    1.

0 *n*

## PERMUTATIONS AND COMBINATIONS

The number of selections of *k* objects from a set of *n* objects where

repetition is allowed and order is significant is given by

*nk* .

If the order is not

*n*  *k*  1

significant, it is given by  .

 *k* 

If the repetitions is not allowed and order is significant it is given by

*n* 

*n**n*  1… *n*  *k*  1. But if the order is not significant, it is given by  .

*k* 

## RECURRENCE RELATIONS AND GENERATING FUNCTIONS

### Recurrence Relation

If *a*0, *a*1, ⋯,

*ak* , ⋯

is a sequence of real numbers such that there is an

equation relating to the term

*an*  *for any n*  *n*0 

to one or more of its

predecessors in the sequence, then this equation is a recurrence relation obeyed

by the sequence. For example, the sequence

0!, 1!, 2! ,⋯

satisfies the

recurrence relation

*an*  *nan* 1 *n*  1.

Conversely, given this relation and the initial condition

*a*0  1,

one can

recover the entire sequence by iteration.

*an*  *n**n*  1*an* 1   *n**n*  1*n*  2*an* 3   ⋯  *n**n*  1⋯1  *n*!

The recurrence relation;

*an*  *c*1*an*1

 *c*1*an*1 ⋯  *c*1*an*  *r* 

*f* *n*

In which,

*Ci* *i* 1, 2, …, *r* 

are constants, with

*Ci*  0,

is called a linear

recurrence relation with constant coefficients of order *r*.

### Generating Function

The sequence of real numbers

*ao* , *a*1, *a*2 , …

and a dummy variable *x* ,

have ordinary generating functions as

*g* *x*  *a*  *a x*  *a x*2  …

and exponential

  *x*

0 1 2

*x*2

generating function as

*G x*  *a*0  *a*1 1!  *a*2

2! ….

## SOME SPECIAL NUMBERS

### Bell Numbers

The Bell numbers

*Bn* is the number of partitions of an *n* -set or the

number of equivalence relations on an *n* -set (if *R* is an equivalence relation on

*X* , then the equivalence classes of *R* form a partition of *X* and the converse is

also true).

The recurrence and generating functions for Bell numbers is given by

*n*  1

*x*1

 *Bn n*

*Bn*  

*Bn* *k* ,

*for*

*n*  1 , *e*  

*x* , *for n*  1

*k*1*k*  1

*n*0 *n*!

### Fibonacci numbers

In his book "Liberabaci" which appeared in 1202, the Italian mathematician Fibonacci gives this problem (the Rabbit Problem):

How many pairs of rabbit can be produced from a single pair in a year if every month each pair begets a new pair which from the second month on

becomes productive?

Let us denote by

*F* *n*

the number of pairs after *n* months starting from

the beginning of a year. We see that in

*n*  1

months there will be

*F* *n*

pairs

and as many more newly born pairs as there were at the end of the month *n*  1,

which is to say,

*F* *n* 1 pairs of rabbits. In other words, we have the recurrence

relation

*F* *n*  1  *F* *n*  *F* *n*  1 *or F*

*n*  1

 *Fn*

 *Fn*1

Since, by hypothesis,

*F* 0  1 and

*F* 1  2.

We find, in succession,

*F* 12  377.

*F* 2  3,

*F* 3  5,

*F* 4  8,

etc. In particular,

The numbers

*F* *n*

are called Fibonacci numbers.

Fibonacci sequence

1, 2, 3, 5, 8, … ,

is defined by the recurrence relation

*fn* 

Such that

*f* *n*  1  *f* *n*  2 *or f* 0  *f* 1  1

*fn* 

*fn* 1  *fn*  2

Thus, the ordinary generating function of Fibonacci sequence is

  

 *f* *n**xn*  *x* *f* *n*  1*xn*1  *x* 2  *f* *n*  2*xn*2

*n*2

*n*2

*n*2

The Catalan and Bell numbers are two important sequences of numbers.

They have several, apparently accidental, common properties.

### The Catalan Numbers

The Catalan Numbers are 1,

2, 5,

14,

42, …

and appear in many guises.

For example, in how many ways can sums of *n* terms be bracketed so that it can be calculated by adding two terms at a time? (Five possibilities)

The recurrence relations for the Catalan numbers is given by

*n* 1



*Cn*  *Ci*

*i* 1

*Cn* *i* ,

*n*  1.

Here *Cn* 1  *i*  *n* is the number of ways of bracketing a sum of *n* terms.

1  2*n*  1





The Catalan numbers *Cn*

is *Cn*  *n*  *n*  1  ,

The generating functions for Catalan numbers is given as

*C*(*x*)  *C*0  *C*1 *x*1  *C*2 *x*2 ⋯

### Sterling Numbers

Let

*n and k*

be positive integers with

*k*  *n*,

the sterling number of the

first kind,

*s**n*, *k* 

is defined by the rule that  1*n*  *k s**n*, *k* 

is the number of

permutations of 1, 2, …, *n* with *k* -cycle.

The sterling numbers of the second kind

partitions of 1, …, *n* with *k* (non-empty) parts.

*S* *n*, *k* 

is the number of

The recurrence relation is given by

*S* *n*  1, *k*   *S* *n*, *k*  1  *nS* (*n*, *k*)

such

that

*S* *n* , 0  *S* *n* ,1  0

*for*

*all n*.

### Proposition

*n n n*

(*a*)

 1*n* 1 *S* *n*, *k*   *S* *n*, *k*   *n*!; (*b*) *S* *n*, *k*   *B* ,

*n*

*nth* Bell numbers.

*k* 1

*k* 1

*k* 1

*S**n*,*n*  *S**n*, *k*  1, *S**n*  1, *k*  *nS**n*, *k*  *S**n*, *k*  1, *and S**n*  1, *k*  *kS**n*, *k*  *S**n*, *k*  1

## DERANGEMENTS

A derangement of 1, 2, …, *n* is a permutation of this set which leaves no

point fixed. Let

*d* *n*

be the number of derangements of 1 ,…, *n*. Any

derangement moves the point *n* to some point *i*  *n* (fixed no point of *n* ).

Thus,

*d* *n* is given as three terms recurrence relation.

*d* *n*  *n*  1*d* *n*  1  *d* *n*  2. *d* 0  1, *d* 1  0 .

 *n*  1*i* 

*d* *n*  *n*!

 *i* 0



*i*! 

This is the nearest integer to

*n*! *for n*  1, where *e* is the base of natural

*e*

logarithms.

## CHAPTER TWO LITERATURE REVIEW

* 1. **TRANSITIVE PERMUTATION GROUPS**

Let *G* be a permutation group on  and  a subset of  ,  is said to

be a fixed block of *G* if

*G*  *or*

 *G*   .

The union and intersection of any two fixed blocks is a fixed block.

Every group *G in* 

has two trivial fixed blocks 

*and* 

* + 1. **Orbit 0f**  *in G*

The fixed block

  

is called an orbit or set of transitivity of *G* on ,

denoted by  *G or*

*G*,

where *G*

is defined as

*G* :  *g*

*g*  *G*,

  

A group *G* acting on a set  is said to be a transitive permutation group

if it has only one orbit i.e. *G*   .Thus, for all

 ,  

there exists

*g* *G* such

that

 *g*   .

A group which is not transitive is called intransitive. A group *G*

acting transitively on a set  is said to act regularly if

 *G*  1

for each

 ,

that is only the identity fixes any point. The number of elements in  *G* is

called the length of the orbit.

A relation ~ *in* 

defined by the rule,

 ~    *g*  

 *g*  *G*,

 ,  

*with* *g*  

is an equivalence relation.

The orbits of *G* partition  , for let

1 ,

 2 ,

 3 , …,  *S*

be the orbits of

*G on* 

then *G* induces a permutation group *G* 

on  and  is a disjoint

union of orbits

*s*

  ∪*I i* 1

. Moreover,

*s*

*G*  *G* *I*

*i* 1

and we say that *G* is a direct

product of the groups

*G*1 , *G*2 , … , *G**S* . If also, each

*G* *I*

*i*  1, 2 ,…, *s*. is

isomorphic to a group *H* (possibly *H*  *G* ). We say that *G* is a sub-direct product of *H* .

A subset

 *of* 

is said to be

*G*  invariant if for all

*g*  *G*,

  

and

 *g*  *s*

implies

 *g*  

* + 1. **Some Properties of Orbits**  *G in G*
       1. Each point   

lies in exactly one orbit

 *of*

*G*,    *G* .

* + - 1. Two points   

lies in the same orbit  *G*

if and only if

   *g*

for

some *g*  *G* .

* + - 1. Let ,  . *If*

 *G* ,

*then* *G*  *G*. *Otherwise*

 *G* *G*  . .

* + - 1. A non-empty subset

 *of* 

is an orbit *iff* it is a minimal

*G*  invariant

subset.

* + - 1. Any *G* invariant subset of  is a disjoint union of orbits.
    1. **Stabilizer of**    *in G*

Let

*g*  *G*

and   ., the stabilizer of 

*in G*,

denoted as *G*

is defined as

*G*  *g*  *G g*   



The set of elements of *G* which fix a specified point  *in* ..

* + 1. **Some Properties of** *G* , *of*  *in G*
       1. The stabilizer *G* *of*

 *in G*

is a subgroup of *G*.

* + - 1. *G*

 *G* : *G*

where *G*

is the orbit containing  ,

*G* : *G*

is the index of

*G* *in G*, *and G*

is transitive, then

*G*    *n*  *G* : *G*

* + - 1. Let   

*and h*, *k*  *G*

*then*  *h*   *k*

*iff*

*hk* 1  *G* .

* + - 1. If  *h*   ,   ,

*h*  *G*

*then G*

 *G*

implies that

*h* 1*G* *h*  *G* ,

* + - 1.  *G*

*G*  *G* ,

*G*  *n* **.**

### The Transitive Constituents *G* 

Let *G* be a permutation group on ,

*G*  *Sym*.

We say that a set

  

is a

fixed block of *G* or is fixed by *G* if *G*   *or* *G*    .

Then each

*g*  *G*

induces a permutation on  which is denoted by

*g* .

We call the totality of

*g* `*s*

formed for all

*g*  *G*

the constituent

*G* *of G on*

 (*e*.*g*. *G*  *G* ). clearly, *G*

is a permutation group on .

## REGULAR AND SEMI-REGULAR GROUPS

A permutation group *G*

*on* 

is called semi-regular if for each

  

we have that *G*

 1.

Thus, a faithful

*G*  *set*

is regular if it is transitive and only the identity

of *G* has fixed points (that is *G*

 1 )

1. Every regular group is also semi-regular; subgroups and constituent of semi-regular groups are semi-regular. The identity element is semi- regular.
2. In semi-regular groups all orbits have the same length and the length is

the order of *G* ,

for  *G G*

 *G* . *If G*

1 *then*  *G*

 *G* (Wielandt, 1964).

1. If a Semi-regular group *G* of order *n* has *m* orbits then *m Ga*  *n*.
2. Caley Representation of a permutation Group *G* . Every transitive

Abelian group is regular and G is its own centralizer.

1. The centralizer of every semi-regular group is transitive.

## THE SUBGROUPS

*G*

and

*G* .

Let the group *G* acts on a set  *and*   , we define the point wise

stabilizer *G* *of*

 as

*G*   *g*  *G* :  *g*      

The set wise stabilizer of  is defined as

*G*   *g*  *G* :  *g*      

### Some Properties of *G*

*and*

*G*

* + - 1. *G*

*and*

*G* are subgroups of *G* .

* + - 1. *G* is normal in G.
      2. The factor group

*GG*

is the group of permutations induced by

*G on* 

### Burnside Lemma (wielandt, 1964)

Burnside found the number of orbits in the action of

*G on* ,

although

the work originated from Cauchy in 1845 and Frobenius in 1887.

Let the group *G* act on a finite set ,

the number of orbits say

*n of G* in

the action of *G* on a finite set  is given by

*n*  1  *f* *t* ,

*G*

where

*f* *t* , is the number of points of *G* fixed by , *f* *t*     : *g*    set

of fixed points of *G* .

Let *G* be a transitive permutation group on , the number of orbits

*n*  *of*

*G* *in* 

is given by

*n*  

1  *f* 2 *g* 

*g**G*

*G*

and it is called the rank of the transitive group

*G on*

.. If the permutation

group *G* is semi-regular then

*n*   1 *n*

## PRIMITIVE GROUPS

*G*

A subset

 *of* 

is said to be a set of imprimitivity (Blocks) if for each

*g*  *G*

either

*g*   *or* *g*

*and* 

are disjoint. The set 1

and the empty set 

are called the trivial sets of imprimitivity.

Let *G* be a transitive permutation group. If *G* has only non-trivial blocks then *G* is said to be an imprimitive group. Otherwise it is primitive on

 .

### Some Properties of Primitive Permutation Groups

1. If

  *G*

then *G* is a trivial group.

1. Every doubly transitive group *G* is primitive.
2. Let

  ,

  1.

A transitive group

*G on* 

is primitive if and only if

*G* is a maximal subgroup of *G*.

1. If *G* is primitive on  and

    ,

then either

*G*  *G*

*or G*

is a

group of prime degree or equivalently *G*  *G* , *G* .

1. Every transitive permutation group of prime degree is primitive.

## MULTIPLY TRANSITIVE GROUPS

Let *G* be a permutation group on  and *k* a natural number with

1  *k*  *n* 

 . We say that

*G is k*  *ply*

transitive or

*k*  *fold*

transitive *on*

 if

for every two *k* tuples

1 ,…,*k*

and

1 , …, *k*

of points of 

*with*    ,

*i j*

*i*   *j*

*for i* 

*j*, there exists

*g*  *G*

which takes

*i* int *o* *i*

*i*  *I* ,…, *k* . The transitive group introduced in 2.1 is the same as 1-fold transitivity. We call a group multiply transitive if it is at least 2-transitive.

Every *k*  1  *fold*

transitive group is also

*k*  *fold*

transitive. Every group

having a

*k*  *fold*

transitive subgroup is itself

*k*  *fold*

transitive.

Whereas there are numerous nontrivial doubly and triply transitive groups, only two nontrivial quadruply transitive and two nontrivial quintuply transitive groups are known (Mathew, 1861, 1873).Their degrees are 11, 23

and 12, 24 respectively. It is not known if there are nontrivial *k*  *fold*

transitive groups for *k*  7 (Dixon, 1996).

## CLASSIFICATION OF TRANSITIVE GROUPS

The problem of classifying subgroups of the symmetric group is one of the oldest problems of group theory; it is in fact the subject of the 1858 prize question of the Academic des sciences: Academic des sciences (1857):

By the beginning of the 20th century, a series of articles had appeared which classified the transitive groups up to degree 15. The classification for the higher degree culminates in the papers of Cole (1895), miller (1896, 1898)

and Kuhn (1904). A full history of these endeavors can be found in Short (1992, Appendix A, pp. 122-124).

With the advent of computers, starting in the early 1980’s the classifications up to degree 15 were redone by Butler and McKay (1983), Royle (1987), Butter (1993).

A complete list of these groups with names and properties can be found in Conwey et al. (1998).

## CLASSIFICATION OF PRIMITIVE GROUPS

The primitive groups up to degree 17 were already classified by Jordan (1872). Sims (1970) published a list up to degree 20 and later extended it up to degree 50. Solvable primitive groups of degree <256 were classified by Short (1992), Eick and Halfling (2003) classified all affine groups of degree up to 1000.

The O’Nan-Scoh theorem, Scoh (1980) gave the classification of finite simple groups (Gorenstein,1982) essentially reduced the problem of classifying primitive groups to the classification of maximal subgroups of simple groups and to the problem of classifying irreducible matrix groups.

Dixon and Martimer (1988) classified the non-affine primitive groups up to degree 999. This classification was made explicit by Thieben (1997), which also gives the non-soluble affine groups up to degree 255. The techniques used do not stop at this degree but should be able to classify primitive groups up to several thousands if such a classification was desired.

In particular, a classification of transitive groups only needs to classify the imprimitive groups.

## CONSTRUCTING TRANSITIVE PERMUTATION GROUPS

Alexander Hulpke (1999) presented a new algorithm to classify all transitive subgroups of the symmetric group up to conjugacy. It has been used to determine the transitive groups of degree up to 30.

In his article, Hulpke described a method to construct the transitive

groups of given degree *n* . That is to classify the transitive subgroups of *Sn* up

to conjugacy. The algorithm has been used successfully to verify the lists of groups of degrees up to 15 and to construct the hitherto unclassified groups of degree 16-30. These calculations were done in computer algebra system GAP 4(GAP, 2002).

### TRANSITIVE *p*  GROUPS OF DEGREE *pm*

Let *p* be a prime number. The classification of transitive *p*  groups of

degree

*pm* *m*  2

when the group is abelian is well-known.

We state, without proof, the result in the Lemma which follows:

### Lemma (Audu, 1988b)

If  *m*

is the number of partitions of the natural number *m* then there

are, up to equivalence,

 *m* different number of faithful transitive

*p*  groups

of degree

*pm* whose centre has order

*pm* .

For non-abelian transitive *p*  groups of degree *p*2 , we have the

following:

### Theorem (Audu, 1988c)

There are 2 *p*  1

different

*p*  groups of *G* of order

*p*2 . Two of these

are Abelian of the 2 *p*  3

non-Abelian Group, we have that *p*  2

of them

have exponent *p* while the remaining *p*  1

of them have exponent *p*2 . As

such the groups are distinguishable by their exponent and order.

Apine, (2000) classified transitive and faithful *p*  groups of degree *p*3

whose centre is elementary abelian of rank two.

## CLOCKWISE (ANTI-CLOCKWISE) ORIENTATION

Let

*X n*  1, 2

,…, *n*

be a set with standard ordering. A map

 : *Xn*  *Xn*

is order decreasing if

*x*  *x* ,

for all *x* in

*Xn* . If

*x*  *y*  *x*  *y* ,

then is said to be order preserving for all

*x* , *y* in

*Xn* . Let

*A*  *a*1, *a*2, …, *as*  be

a finite sequence from the chain

*X n* .

We say that *A* is cyclic or has clockwise

orientation if there exist not more than one subscript *i* such that

*ai*  *ai* 1

where

*as* 1 denotes

*a*1 . We say that

*A*  *a*1, *a*2 , …, *as*  is anti-cyclic or has anticlockwise

orientation if there exists no more than one subscript *i* such that *ai*  *ai* 1 .

Note that a sequence *A* is cyclic if and only if *A* is empty or there exist

*i*  0,1,…, *s*  1

such that

*ai* 1  *ai* 2  ⋯  *as*  *a*1  ⋯  *ai* ,

is unique unless the

sequence is a constant.

### Remark

1. Let *A* be any cyclic (anti-cyclic) sequence. Then *A* is anti-cyclic (cyclic) if and only if *A* has no more than two distinct values.

If *A*  *a*1 , *a*2 ,…, *at*  is any sequence then we denote by *A*



sequence

*a* , *a* ,…, *a*

, Called the reversed sequence of *A* .

*t t*  1 1

1. Let

*A*  *a*1 , *a*2 ,…, *at* 

be any sequence from

*Xn* . Then *A* is cyclic (anti-

cyclic) if and only if *A* is anti-cyclic (cyclic).

1. If *a*1 , *a*2 ,…, *at* 

is a cyclic (anti-cyclic) then, so is

* 1. The sequence. *ai* , *ai* ,…, *a*  *i*1  *i*2  ⋯  *ir* 

1 2 *ir*

* 1. *a* , *a* ,… *a* , *a* …, *a* 

*j j* 1 *t* 1, *j* 1

*for*

*all* 1  *j*  *t*.

1. For non-constant if 1  *n* .

  *OPn* , 

is an order-preserving mapping if and only

## ORIENTATION PRESERVING (REVERSING) MAPPINGS

Catarino and Higgins (1999) introduced a new subsemigroup of *X n*

containing *On*

which is denoted by

*OPn*

and its element are called orientation

preserving mappings. Also, they introduced a semigroup

*Pn*  *OPn*  *ORn*

where

*ORn* denotes the collection of all orientation reversing mappings. Fernandes

(2000) studied the monoid of orientation preserving partial transformations of a finite chain, concentrating in particular on partial transformations which are injective. He study several structural properties of the monoids of all injective

orientation preserving partial transformations on a chain

*POPIn* .

He establishes

descriptions for the ideals and for the congruencies of these monoids and show

that

*POPIn*

is a 2-generated semigroup, for all

*n*   . He finally gives a

presentation for these monoids.

### Orientation Preserving Mapping

Let

  *Tn* ,

we say that is orientation-preserving mapping on

*X n* if

the sequence

(1 , 2 , ⋯, *n* )

is cyclic. From 2.10 above, this sequence is then

cyclic with respect to *k*

for all

0  *k*  *n*  1. The collection of all orientation-

preserving mapping on *X n* will be denoted by *OPn* .

### Lemma (Fernandes, 2000)

Let   *OPn*

and

(*b*1, ⋯, *bt* )

be a cyclic sequence of members of

*X n* .

The

sequence *b* , ⋯, *b* 

is also cyclic.

1 *t*

### Remark

Catarino and Higgins (1999) regarded the members of

*X n* as being

placed clockwise around the circumference of a circle so that the integer *i* lies

between

*i*  1 *and*

*i*  1 (reduced modulo *n* ) any sequence of 3 distinct members

(*i*, *j*, *k* )

is cyclic or anti-cyclic. Let   *OPn and*

(*i*, *j*, *k*)

be any triple of 3 distinct

members of

*X n* . If the entries are distinct, then the triple

(*i* , *j* , *k* )

defines

the same orientation as *i*, *j*, *k* .

### Lemma (Catarino and Higgins, 4.6, 1999)

Every

  *On*

has fixed point.

### Proof

Let

  *On*

and

*A*  *x*  *X* : *x*  *x*.

Note that

1 *A and so A*

is not-

empty. Let

*a*  max *A*. Hence

*a*  *a*

as *a*  *A*,

and

*a*  *a**a*  as

 *On* .

Thus

*a*  *A*

and

*a*  *a*

by maximality of

*a* , therefore

*a*  *a*

as required.

### Lemma (Catarino and Higgins, 4.7, 1999)

Let   *ak f ak*

where

*f*  *On*

and

0  *k*  *n*  1.

Then

*x*  *f* ()

if and only

if *x*  *k*  *F* ( *f* ).

In particular, if

*x*  *H* , then F( )  .

### Remark

Catarino and Higgins (1999) gave some results on the fixed point of *OPn* ,

we list some of the results as in Lemma 4.7, 4.8 & theorem 4.9 of Catarino and Higgins (1999). Let   *OPn* . then;

1. The diagraph of cannot have a non-trivial cycle and a fixed point.
2. Let

  *OPn* ,

the diagraph of cannot have two cycles of different

length.

1. Let

  *OPn*

if *F*    

then the diagraph of is a forest and each

component *C* associated with is a fixed point of is an interval.

1. Let

  *OPn* ,

such that

*F*     .

Let *C* be any component of , then

*C*   *C*,

there exist

*i*, *j*  *X*

such that

*c*  *i*, *j*, *and* 

restricted to c is an

order preserving with respect to

*i* 1 .

### Orientation-Reversing Mapping

Let

  *Tn* , we say is an orientation-reversing mapping on

*X n* if the

sequence

(1 , 2 , ⋯, *n* )

is anti-cyclic, the collection of all orientation-

reversing mappings on

*X n* is denoted by

*ORn* .

Let

  *ORn* , 

is a reflection where by

*i*  *n*  *i* 1*i*  *X* .

and 1 , 2 , …,*n*  *n*,*n* 1,…,1

for

  *ORn*

is anti-cyclic.

### Remark

If  , 

are involutions in *Tn*

which map

*OPn onto*

*ORn*

and

*OR onto OP* , then *OR* 2  *OP* 2  *OP* , *P*  *OP*  *OR* is a submonoid of *T*

*n n n n n n n n n*

*OPn*

 *ORn*

   *OP* :

*X*  2.

### Lemma (Catarino and Higgins, 5.2, 1999)

*n*

Let   *OPn*

be such that

*X*  *t*

*for*

*some* 3  *t*  *n*

and *H* 

be the class *H*

class containing  . Then *H*  2*t*

### Theorem (Catarino & Higgins, 5.9, 1999)

For

*t*  3

the maximal subgroups of

*Don* are the dihedral groups of order

2*t* .

*t*

## COMBINATORIAL PROPERTIES OF TRANSFORMATION SEMIGROUPS AND SYMMETRIC GROUPS

Let the binomial coefficient

 *n* 

 

*r*

be denoted as

*C**n*, *r* . Higgins (1992a)

 

presented the following results

(*i*)

*n*

 *c* *n*, *k*  *c* *m*, *k*   *c* *m*  *n*, *k* 

*k* 0

*for n*  *m*

(*ii*)

*n*

 *c* 2*k*, *k*  *c* 2*n*  2*k*, *n*  *k*   4*n*

*k* 0

(*iii*)

*n*

*Ck* 1*Cn*  *k k* 1

 *Cn*

Gomes and Howie (1987) were the first to study

*POn*

(excluding the

identity map) and among other things they computed the order of *POn* as

*n*  *n*  *n*  *r*  1

*POn*

  *r*  *r* 

*r* 0   

However, from the computational point of view, this result is not

satisfactory if one were to compute higher orders of *POn* . In view of this,

Laradji and Umar (2007) computed the order of

*PCn as*  *n* ,

the double

Schroeder number, also obtain the recurrence.

*f* *n*, *r*, *k*     *PO*

*n*

*Dom*

 *r*  max(Im )  *k*

They defined

*f* *n*, *r*, *k*  in terms of *In* as

*or*    *I* :

*n*

*im*

 *r* *Dom*  

*f*    *k*

*f* *n*,*o*, *k*   1



0

*f* *n*, *r*,0  1



0

*k*  0

*k*  0

*r*  0

*r*  0

and

*f* *n*, *r*,1    1  *r*  *n*,

*r*

 *n* 

*f* *n*, *r*, *k*     *f* *n*  *k*,

*k*

 *n* 

*r*  *k*,0.

   

*n* *k*  *r*  2

We have

*f* *n*, *r*, *k*    

 *for n*  0, *k*  0

*r*   *k*  1 

For a given (partial) mapping or transformation

 : *y*  *X*

 *X* . , we

denote the set of fixed points by

*f*    *x*  *y* : *x*  *x*

its Domain

*Y by Dom*

and its image set by Im .

Let

*f* *n*, *n* be the number of derangements of an

*n*  element set, and it is

well known that

       

#    *n*

  1*k*

*f n*, *n*  *n*  1 *f n*  1, *n*  1  *f n*  2, *n*  2

 *nf*

*n*  1, *n*  1   1

 *n*!

*k* 0 *k*!

*n*

with

*f* *n*, *r*   1. However,

*f* *n*, *r*  may also be expressed as

*f* *n*, *r*    *C**n*, *r* 

 *n* 

*r*

 

where

*C**n*, *r*  is the number of partial one to one mapping without fixed points

and having a fixed domain, say

*x*1, *x*2 , …, *xr*   *Xn and c**n*,0  1

*and*

*c**n*, *n* 

*f* *n*, *n* generally we have:

### Proposition (Laradji and Umar, 2004b)

*C**n*, *r*   *rC**n*  1, *r*  1  *C**n*  1, *r*  1  *r*  *n*

*r*  *n*  *m*   1*m*

*C**n*, *r*   *r*! *r*  *m*  *m*!

0  *r*  *n*

*m* 0  

Laradji and Umar (2006) obtain the generating function *an* of symmetric

inverse semigroup, such that

*a*  *n*!

 1*m* 

*f* *x*  *a*

*x* 2

*x*  *e*1 *x* .

*n*

*n*

*n*

*m* 0

*n*  *m*

*n*0

,

*n n*!

1  *x*

### Proposition

*m*!

Let

*fk* *x* be the exponential generating function for

*an*,*k*

 *n* 

  *k* *an*  *k*

*then*

*x* 2

*xke*1 *x*

*f x k*!1  *x*

  

 

## CHAPTER THREE RESULTS

* 1. **RESULT ONE**

**SOME COMBINATORIAL PROPERTIES OF THE ALTERNATING**

**GROUP**

Let

*Xn*  1, 2, …, *n* be a finite *n* -element set and let

*Sn* , *In* ,

*and An*

be as

defined, the combinatorial properties of *Sn* have been studied over long period

and many interesting results have emerged. In particular, the number of

permutations of  *X n* 

having exactly *k* fixed points and their generating

functions are known.

In this section we obtain and discuss formulae for the number of even permutations (of an *n* -element set) having exactly *k* fixed points. Moreover, we obtain generating functions for these numbers. We also obtain similar results for the number of odd permutations.

We list some combinatorial results, (some may be found in chapter two and one), that we shall need later in our proofs.

### Result

Let *dn* be as defined. Then

  1*i*

*n*

#     *n*

*dn*  *n*!

*i*  0

 *n*  1

*i*!

*dn* 1  *dn*  2

 *ndn* 1   1

, *where d*0  1

### Result

The principle of inclusion-exclusion says that

Suppose that *X n* is some set of objects and *P* is a set of properties. For

*R*  *P* ,

let

*N*  *R*

be the number of objects in

*X n* that have exactly the

properties in *R* and non of the properties in *R*  *P* ,

N  *R* 

 1*Q* *R R* *Q*  *P*

*N*  *Q*,

### Result

Let *An* and *n* are as defined in chapter one, then,

*A*  *n*!*n*  2, *where A*

*n* 2 0

 1 

*A*1 .

### Result

Let

*d* *x*, *k*    *d* *n*, *k*  *xn*. Then

*d* *x*, *k* 

converges for

*x*  1

to the

*n*0 *n*!

functions

*x k e* *x*

*k*!1 *x* **.**

### Corollary

Let

*d* *x*   *d* *n* *xn*. Then

*d* *x*

converges for

*x*  1

to the function

*n*0 *n*!

* *x*

*e*

1 *x* **.**

## EVEN AND ODD PERMUTATIONS

We defined the number of *k* fixed points in an even permutation of *n* -

elements.

*e* (*n*, *k* )    *An* : *f*    *k*,

3.1

where

*f*    *x*  *Xn* : *x*  *x*. Then it is not difficult to see that

 *n*   *n* 

*e* *n*, *k*     *e* (*n*  *k*, 0)    *en*  *k* . 3.2

*k k*

   

Thus to compute

*e* *n*, *k* 

it is sufficient to compute

*e* (*n*,0)  *en* .

However, note

that *en* is the number of even permutations without fixed points; that is, the

number of even derangements. Now we have

### Theorem

Let *en*

be as defined in (3.2). Then

*eo*  1, *e*1  0,

and for all

*n*  2, we

have

*n*!*n*  2  1*i*

 *n* 1  

*en* 

2 *i* 0

  1

*i*!

*n*  1 .

### Proof

By the Inclusion-Exclusion Principle we see that

*n*  *n* 

*n*  2

*i*  *n* 

*n* 1 *n*

*en*   1*i* 

 *An* *i*

  1 

 *An* *i*

  1

*n*  (1)

*i* 0

*n*  2



 

*i*  *i* 0

*i n*! *n*  *i*!  

 *i* 

*n* 1   

*i* 0

1 *n*  *i*!*i*!. 2

1 *n* 1

*n*!*n*  2  1*i*

  *n* 1  



2 *i* 0

  1

*i*!

*n*  1 .

The number

*en* satisfies some recurrence similar to those of *dn*

in Result 3.1.1

### Proposition

Let *en* be as defined in (3.2) . Then

(*a*) *e*

 *n* 1*e*  *e*

 1*n*1 *n* 1,

*e*  1,

*e*  0;

(*b*) *e*  *ne*  1*n*1 *n*  2*n* 1 / 2, *e*  1.

*n n*1

*n*2 0 1

*n n*1 0

### Proof

1. Using theorem 3.2.1 and algebraic manipulations successively we

have

 *n*!*n*  2  1 *i*  

 *n* 1  

*en*

2 *i*0 *i*!

1. *n* 1

  

*n*  1  1*n*  2!*n*  2  1*i*   

 *n* 1   

*n* 1 

 2

*i* 0



*i*! 

1 *n* 1

  

*n*  1*n*  2! *n*  2  1 *i*  *n*  2! *n*  2  1 *i*   

 *n* 1   

*n* 1 

 2

*i* 0 *i*!

1. *i* 0



*i*! 

1 *n* 1

*n*  1! *n* 3  1 *i*  *n*  1!  1 *n*  2  *n*  2! *n*  4  1 *i* 



 2

 *n*  1

*i* 0 *i*!

2 (*n*  2)!

2 *i* 0



*i*! 

   1 *n* 1 *n*  1



 *n*  2!  1 *n*  3 *n*  2!  1 *n*  2 





 2 (*n*  3)! 2 (*n*  2)! 

*n*  1! *n* 3  1 *i*   1 *n*  2     *n*  2! *n*  4  1 *i* 



 2

 *n*  1

*i*  0 *i*!

*n* 1

2 2 10 *i*!



   1 *n* 1 *n*  1



  1 *n* 3





 2

*n*  2 

 1 *n*  2 

2 



  

*n*  1!*n* 3  1*i*  *n*  2!*n*  4  1 *i*  

*n*  2   

 *n* 1   

*n* 1 

 2

*i* 0 *i*!

2 *i*0 *i*!

1  1 *n* 1



  

*n*  1! *n*3  1 *i*

  1 *n*2 *n*  2  *n*  2! *n*4  1 !   1 *n*3 *n*  3

*n* 1 

 2

*i*0 *i*! 1

2 *i*0 *i*! 1 

  1 *n*1 *n*  1



 *n*  1*en* 1

* *en*  2

   1 *n* 1*n*  1,

as required.

1. As in (a) above, using Theorem 3.2.1 and algebraic manipulations

successively we have

 *n*!*n*  2  1 *i*  

 *n* 1  

*en*

2 *i*0 *i*!

1 *n* 1

 *n*  1! *n* 3  1 *i*

* *n*  1!  1 *n*  2   

 *n* 1   



*n*



 2 *i*0 *i*!

2 *n*  2! 

1 *n* 1

 *n*  1!*n* 3  1*i*  *n*  1

*n*  2   

 *n* 1   

*n*



2

 2 *i* 0 *i*!

1  1 *n* 1



 *n*  1!*n* 3  1*i*  

 *n*  2  

   1 *n*  2 

   

 *n* 1   

*n*



 2 *i* 0 *i*!

1 *n* 2

*n* 3 

2 

1 *n* 1

 *nen* 1

*  1 *n* 11 *n**n*  3   1 *n* 1*n*  1 2

 *nen* 1

* 1 *n* 1 1 *n*  2*n*  1, ,

2

as required.

We now turn our attention to finding the number of odd permutations

with *k* fixed points. Let

*e**n*, *k*     *An* : *f*    *k*,

3.3

Then it is not difficult to see that

*e**n*, *k*    *n*  *e**n*  *k*, 0   *n*  *e*

3.4

   

*k k*

*n*  *k*

   

As in the even case above, to compute

*e**n*, *k* 

it is sufficient to compute

*e**n*, 0  *en* .

Also, note that

*en* is the number of odd permutations without fixed

points. That is, the number of odd derangements. We can certainly deduce

results for

*en* in exactly the same manner as above; however, we shall take

advantage of Theorem 3.2.1 and result 3.1.1, since it is clear that

*en*  *dn*  *en*

=   1*i*   *n*!*n*  2  1*i*  

*n*

 *n* 1 

 

*n*!

2

*i* 0 *i*!



 *i* 0 *i*!

1 *n* 1 



*n*! *n*  2  1*i*



=

.

2 *i*0 *i*!

Thus we have proved the following result

### Theorem

Let

*en* be as defined by 3.4. Then

*e* =

*n*

*n*! *n*  2  1*i*

.



2 *i*0 *i*!

### Proposition

Let

*en* be as defined in 3.4, respectively. Then

(*a*)

*e*  *n*  1*e*  *e*    1*n* *n*  1, *e*  *e*  0;

*n n*1 *n*2 0 1

(*b*) *e*  *ne*  1*n n* *n* 1 / 2, *e*  0.

*n n*1 0

### Proof

It follows directly from result 3. 1.1 and proposition 3.2.2

### Proposition

Let

*en and en* be as defined in (3.1) and (3.3), respectively. Then

(*a*)

*e*  1 *d*

*n* 2 *n*



  1*n* *n*  1, *d*

 1;

0

(*b*)

*en*

 1 *d*

2 *n*



  1*n* *n*  1, *d*

 1.

0

### Proof

1. Using Theorem 3.2.1 and algebraic manipulations successively we

have

 *n*!*n*  2  1 *i*  

 *n* 1  

*en*

2 *i*0 *i*!

1. *n* 1

 *n*! *n*  1 *i*  *n*!  1 *n* 1   1 *n*   

 *n* 1   

2 *i*0 *i*!



2  (*n*  1)!



*n*! 

1 *n* 1

 1 *d* 

2 *n*

1 *n* 1 *n*

2

  1 *n* 1

2

 1 *n* 1 2(*n*  1)

2

 1 *d*

2 *n*

 1 *n* 1 (*n*  1)

 1 *d*

2 *n*

 1 *n* (*n*  1)

as required.

1. Using Theorem 3.2.1 and algebraic manipulations successively we

have

 *n*!*n*  2  1*i*

*en* 

2 *i*0 *i*!

 *n*! *n*  1*i*  *n*!  1 *n* 1   1 *n* 

2 *i*0 *i*! 2  (*n*  1)! *n*! 





 1 *d*

2 *n*

 1 *n* 1*n*  1 *n* 1 

 1 *d*

2 *n*

 1 *n* (*n*  1)

as required.

### Remarks

The sequence

*e* *n*, *k* 

and

*e**n*, *k*  with the exception of

*en*  *e* *n*, 0

are not

yet listed in Sloane’s encyclopedia of integer sequence (N.J.A Sloane, 2005).

For some selected values

*e* *n*, *k* 

and

*e* '*n*, *k* 

see Tables 1. *e* *n*, *k* 

and 2. *e* '*n*, *k*  ,

respectively.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **1.** *e* *n*, *k*  | |  | | | | | | | |
| k | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | *e* *n*, *k*  |
| n |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  | 1 |
| 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  | 1 |
| 3 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  |  |  |  | 3 |
| 4 | 3 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  |  |  | 12 |
| 5 | 24 | 15 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  |  | 60 |
| 6 | 130 | 144 | 45 | 40 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  | 360 |
| 7 | 930 | 910 | 504 | 105 | 70 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2520 |

**2.** *e**n*, *k* 

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| k | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |  | 7 |
| n |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | *e* *n*, *k*  |
| 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  | 0 |
| 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  | 1 |
| 3 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  | 3 |
| 4 | 6 | 0 | 6 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  | 12 |
| 5 | 20 | 30 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 0 |  |  | 60 |
| 6 | 135 | 120 | 90 | 0 | 15 | 0 | 0 |  | 360 |
| 7 | 924 | 945 | 420 | 210 | 0 | 21 | 0 | 0 | 2520 |

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **3.** | *e* *n*+ *e* *n*- *dn* |  | | |
| *n* | *e* *n* | *e* *n* | *dn e* *n*+ *e* *n*- | *dn* |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 3 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| 4 | 3 | 6 | 9 | 0 |
| 5 | 24 | 20 | 44 | 0 |
| 6 | 130 | 135 | 265 | 0 |
| 7 | 930 | 924 | 1854 | 0 |
| 8 | 7413 | 7420 | 14833 | 0 |
| 9 | 66752 | 66744 | 133496 | 0 |
| 10 | 667476 | 667485 | 1334961 | 0 |
| 11 | 7342290 | 7342289 | 14684570 | 0 |
| 12 | 88107415 | 88107426 | 176214841 | 0 |

## GENERATING FUNCTIONS

### Proposition

Let

*f* *x*

be the exponential generating function for

*en* .

then using

proposition 3.2.5, result 3.1.4 and algebraic manipulations successively we see

that

   

*xi*   1 

 

 *i*  

*xi*

*f x ei*

*i* 0 *i*!

*i* 0

1. *di*
   1. *i* 1

*i*!

 1 

*xi*  1 

*i*  

 *xi*

*di*

2 *i*0 *i*!

2 *i* 0

1. *i* 1

*i*!

 1 *e* *x*

 *x* 

*i* 1

*xi* 1

 1 

*i xi*

2 1  *x*

1

2 *i* 1

*i*  1!

1

2 *i*0 *i*!

 1 *e* *x*

 *x e*

 *x*  1

*e* *x*

2 1  *x* 2 2

 1  *x*2 / 2 1  *x*

*e* *x*

### Proposition

Let

*i* 

*fk* *x*

be the exponential generating function for

*xk* 1  *x*2 / 2*e**x*

*ei*, *k*

  *k*  *ei*  *k* .

*Then*

*fk* *x* 

*k*!1  *x* .

 

### Proof

*i* 

*i*

 *k*  *ei* *k*  *x*

Lhs = *f*

*x*    

*i**k*

*k i*!

*e* .*x i*

= 

*i**k i**k k*!*i*  *k* !

*xk e*

.*xi*  *k*

=   *i*  *k*

*k*! *i*  *k*

*i*  *k* !

= *xk*    *xk* 1  *x*2 / 2*e* *x* 

*k*! *f x k*!1  *x*

*rhs*,

as required.

### Proposition

Let

*i* *i* 

*gk* *x*



be the exponential generating function for

*xk* *x*2 / 2*e**x*

*e* *i*, *k*     *ei*  *k* .

*k*

*Then*

*gk* *x* 

*k*!1  *x* .

 

### Proof

From the obvious fact that

*d* *i*, *k*  *e* *i*, *k*   *e**i*, *k* , result 3.1.4 and

proposition 3.3.2 it follows that

*xke* *x*

    *xi*



  

  *xi*

*k*!1  *x*

*d*

*i*  *k*

*i*, *k*

*i*!

*i*  *r*

*e i*, *r*

*e i*, *r*

*i*!

    *xi*  

  *xi*

*i*  *k*

*e i*, *k*

*i*!

*e*

*i*  *k*

*i*, *k*

*i*!

*xk* 1  *x*2 / 2*e* *x*

 

*k*!1  *x* *gk*

*x*.

hence the result follows.

## NUMBER OF PERMUTATIONS WITH A GIVEN CYCLE STRUCTURE

Let

*Xmn*  *a*1, *a*2 ,…, *amn* ,

where *m*  2 *and*

*n*  1, then we immediately see that

### Lemma

*Let*

*Xn*  *a*1 , *a*2 , …, *an* . The number of ways in which a permutation of

*X* 4  *a*1 , *a*2 , *a*3 , *a*4  can be expressed as a product of two transpositions is 3.

### Proof

  *a*1 *a*2 *a*3 *a*4 ,

*a*1 *a*3 *a*2 *a*4  *and* *a*1 *a*4 *a*2 *a*3 

### Lemma

The number of ways in which a permutation of

*X* 6 can be expressed

as a product of three transpositions is 15 Let the first transposition be *a*1 *x*

then

*x*  *a*2 , *a*3 , *a*4 , *a*5 , *a*6 ,

and the other

4 elements can be written as two transpositions in 3 ways. Then we have 15 possible ways.

### Lemma

The number of ways in which permutations  *of*

*X* 2*n*

can be expressed

as a product of *n* transpositions is

*f* (*n*, 2)  2*n*! 

2*n*! .

2*n*  2 *n*  2⋯ 4  2 2*n*  *n*!

### Proof

*a*1 *x*,

The proof is by induction. If the first transposition is

*x*  *a*2 , *a*3 ,…, *a*2*n*  then there are 2*n*  1 possibilities for *x* . The remaining

2*n*  2 elements can be expressed as a product of transpositions in

2*n*  32*n*  5⋯3 1ways. Then we have 2*n*  1.2*n*  32*n*  5⋯3 1

possible

ways.

### Lemma

The number of permutation of

*Xmr* that can be expressed as a product

of *r m* -cycles is

*f* (*r*, *m*)  *mr* !.

*mr r* !

### Theorem

Let be a permutation of

*Xn* , *with*

*ri* *m*  *i*  1  *cylcles* *i*  1, 2, ⋯, *m*  1.

the number of such permutations is

*n*! *mr*1 *r* !*m*  1*r*2 *r*

! ⋯ 2*rm* 1 *r*

 *m*2

!

*n*!

 *r*  

 

1 2 *m*1

*m*

*i* 0

*i i* 1

*ri* 1 !

### Proof

First note that

*mr*1  *m*  1*r*2  ⋯  3*rm*  2  2*rm* 1  *n* . Now choose

*mr*1

 *n* 

elements from

*X n* to form *r*1

*m*  cycles. This can be done in  

*mr*

ways, and

 1 

these

*mr*1 elements can be expressed as a product of *r*1

*m*  cycles in

*f* *r*1, *m*.

Next choose *m*  1*r*2

elements from the remaining

*n*  *mr*1

elements to

 *n*  *mr*1 

form the

*r*2 *m*  1 *cycles* . This can be done in

*m*  1*r* 

ways and these

*m*  1*r*2



elements can be expressed as a product of

2 

*r*2 *m* 1 *cycles* , in

*f* *r*2, *m*  1

ways. We continue in this way until we reach the last

2 *rm* 1

elements which can be expressed as a product of

*rm* 1

1.  *cycles in*

*f* *rm* 1, 2

ways. Multiplying all the possibilities gives

 *n* 

 *n*  *mr*1 

 2*rm*1 

 *mr*  *f* *r*1, *m*. *m*  1*r*  *f* *r*2 , *m*  1 ⋯  2*r*

 *f* *rm* 1, 2.

 1 

 2 

 *m* 1 

This simplifies to the required result by using Lemma 3.4.4 and algebraic manipulations.

## RESULT 2

**SOME COMBINATORIAL PROPERTIES OF THE DIHEDRAL GROUP**

*Dn* ,

We investigate certain combinatorial properties of the Dihedral group we give two different proofs of the main result; one geometric and the

other algebraic. We now consider the geometric approach.

First, recall that the dihedral group *Dn*

consists of all symmetries of a

regular

*n*  *gon*

(*n*  3),

that is, *n* rotations through the angles

360∘

*x*

*n*

(*x*  0,1,2,…,*n*  1)

and *n* reflections through each of the *n* lines of

symmetry of the regular *n* -gon.

We shall denote the set of rotations and reflections by

*Rotn*

and Re *fn* ,

respectively.

Next we establish a sequence of results that will lead to the proof of the main result.

### Results

*Rotn* is a cyclic subgroup of

*Dn*, in fact

*Rotn* = < >, where

 12⋯n

is the first rotation through angle

3600

*n*

, in a clock-wise direction (same

direction as the labeling of the corners of the regular *n*  gon).

### Result

If *n* is odd,

*Rotn*  *An* . .

### Proof

If *n* is odd,

  12⋯*n*

is a cycle of odd length and and all its

powers are even permutations.

### Result

For all in

*Rotn* ,

*f* 

 0, except the identity *e* for which

*f* *e*

 *n*.

### Result

If *n* is even, there are exactly

*n* even permutations and exactly *n*

2 2

odd permutations in *Rotn* .

### Proof

If *n* is even, then

  12⋯*n*

is a cycle of even length and so

, 3 , 5 ,⋯,*n*1

are all odd permutations, while

 2 , 4 ,⋯,*n*

are all even

permutations.

To obtain the corresponding results for

Re *fn* ,

we observe that if *n* is

even then there are two types of lines of symmetry (of the regular *n* -gon): one through the midpoints of a pair of opposite sides and the other through a pair

of opposite vertices. The former gives rise to

*n* derangements while the latter

2

gives rise to

*n* permutations each having exactly two fixed points.

2

And if *n* is odd, all lines of symmetry are through a vertex and the midpoint of its opposite side. This gives rise to *n* permutation each having exactly one fixed point. Thus we have:

### Result

If *n* is even, there are exactly

*n* derangements and

2

*n* permutations

2

each having exactly two fixed points, in Re *fn*.

### Result

If *n* is odd,

*f*    1 for all in

Re *fn* .

### Result

If *n*  4*k*,

there are exactly

*n* even derangements and exactly

2

*n* odd

2

permutations each having exactly two fixed points in Re *fn* .

### Proof

For the even derangements we consider reflections through the midpoints

of a pair of opposite sides, which give rise to

4*k*  2*k* 2

transpositions (an even

number of transpositions).

For the odd permutation each with two fixed points, we consider reflections through the other type of line of symmetry, which give rise to

4*k*  2  2*k* 1 transpositions (an odd number of transpositions).

2

### Result

If *n*  4*k*  2,

there are exactly

*n* odd derangements and exactly *n*

2 2

even permutations each having two fixed points in Re *fn* .

### Proof

This is similar to that of Result 3.5.7, above. Two further results whose proofs are similar to that for Result 3.5.7 above are.

### Result

If *n*  4*k* 1, then there are *n* even permutations each having a unique

fixed point in Re *fn* .

### Result

If *n*  4*k*  3, then there are *n* odd permutations each having a unique

fixed point in Re *fn* .

## NUMBER OF FIXED POINTS

Now as in the Alternating group, we define equivalence on *Dn*

by the

equality of number of fixed points and consider:

*f* (*n*, *k*)    *Dn f* ( )  *k* . (3.5)

Then it is clear that

*f* (*n*, *n*)  1

since the identity permutation is the only one

with *n* fixed points.

### Proposition

Let

*f* (*n*, *k*)

be as defined in (3.5).

Then we have

*a*

*b*

*n* 1,

*f* (*n*, 0)  

 3*n*

1,

 2

*f* (*n*, 1)  *n*, *if*



0, *if*

*if n is odd* ,

*if n is even*.

*n is odd* ,

*n is even*.

*c*

0,

*f* (*n*, 2)  

 *n*

 2 ,

*if n is odd* ,

*if n is even*.

*d*  *f* (*n*,

3) 

*f* (*n*, 4)  ⋯ *f* (*n*, *n*  1)  0.

### Proof

(a) If *n* is odd, there are

*n*  1

derangements from

*Rotn* , by Result 3.5.3

and there are no derangements from Re *fn* , by Result 3.5.6.

If *n* is even, there are again

*n*  1

derangement from

*Rotn*

by Result 3.5.3

and there are

*n* derangements from

2

Re *fn*

, by Results 3.5.3. The proofs for (b)

and (c) are similar to that for (a) above.

(d) This result follows directly from (a), (b) and (c) together with the

fact that

*f* n, n  1

## EVEN AND ODD PERMUTATIONS

Let *e* (*n*, *k* )    *Dn*  *An* : *f* ( )  *k*

(3.6)

Then clearly we see that

*e* (*n*, *n*)  1.

Less obvious is the following result.

### Proposition

Let

*e* (*n*, *k*) be as defined in

(3.6).

Then we have

*n*  1,

*a* *e* (*n*, 0)   *n*  1,

 2



*n*  1,

*b* *e* (*n*, 1)  *n*,



0,

 *n* ,

*c* *e* (*n*, 2)   2



0,

*if n is odd* ,

*if n*  4*k*  2,

*othewise*.

*if n*  4*k*  1,

*othewise*.

*if n*  4*k*  2,

*othewise*.

*d*  *e* (*n*,2)  *e* (*n*,4)  ⋯  *e* (*n*, *n*  1)  0.

### Proof

*a*

If *n* is odd, then there are

*n*  1

even derangements, by Results

3.5.2 and 3.5.3, all from

*Rotn* .

Note that there are no derangements from

Re *fn*

by Result 3.5.6.

If *n*  4*k*  2,

then there are

*n*  1

2

even derangements from

*Rotn* , by

Result 3.5.3 and Result 3.5.4. There are no even derangements if *n*  4*k*  2

from

Re *fn*

by Result 3.5.8.

Finally, if

*n*  4*k* ,

then there are

*n*  1

2

even derangements from

*Rotn* , by

Results 3.5.3 and 3.5.4. Moreover there are

*n* even derangements from

2

Re *fn* ,

by Results 3.5.7.

The proof for (b) and (c) are similar to that for (a) above, while (d) follows directly from proposition 3.6.1 (d).

We now turn our attention to odd permutations.

First, let

*e*(*n*, *k*)    *D*

*n*

 *An*

*f*    *k* 3.7.

Then it is clear that

*f* (*n*, *k* )  *e* (*n*, *k* )  *e*(*n*, *k* ).

3.8.

and since

*e* (*n*, *n* )  1 

*f* (*n*, *n*)

It follows that *e*(*n*, *n*)  0. In general, we have

### Proposition

Let

*e*(*n*, *k*) be defined as in 3.7 .

Then we have



0,

*a*  *e*(*n* ,0)  *n*,



 *n*

*if n is odd* ,

*if n*  4*k*  2,

 , *otherwise*.

 2

*b* *e*(*n* ,1)  *n*,

*if n*  4*k*  3,



0,

*otherwise*.

 *n* ,

*c* *e*(*n* ,2)   2



*if n*  4*k*,

0,

*otherwise*.

*d*  *e*(*n*, 3)  *e*(*n*, 4)  ⋯ *e*(*n*, *n*  1)  0.

### Proof

All the results follow directly from proposition 3.6.1 and equations 3.7

and (3.8).

## THE SUBGROUP OF ORIENTATION PRESERVING (REVERSING) MAPPINGS

Let

*X n* denote the set 1, 2,⋯, *n*

considered with standard ordering and

let

*Tn* ,

*Pn* and *On*

be the full transformation semigroup, the partial

transformation semigroup and the submonoid of *Tn* consisting of all order

preserving mappings of *X n* , respectively. Another closely related algebraic

structure to *On*

and *Pn*

are *Sn*

and *Dn*

the symmetric and dihedral groups on the

set *X n* , respectively.

Catarino and Higgins (1999) introduced a new subsemigroup of *X n* containing

*On* which is denoted by

*OPn*

and its elements are called orientation preserving

mappings. Also, they introduced a semigroup

*Pn*  *OPn*  *ORn*

where

*ORn*

denotes the collection of all orientation reversing mappings. Fernandes (2000) studied the monoid of orientation preserving partial transformations of a finite chain, concentrating in particular on partial transformations which are injective. Here, we consider the subgroup of orientation preserving bijective

mappings. In particular, we pay attention to a subgroup the Dihedral group *Dn*

of the order 2*n*

defined as

*Dn*  *x*, *y*

*xn*  1, *y*2  1

*xy*  *x*1*y*.

We have in sections 3.5-3.7 give a geometric proof for the number of even and odd permutations having exactly *k* fixed points in the Dihedral group *Dn* . However, the algebraic proof of this result along the lines of Catarino and Higgins (1999) seem not to have been studied.

At the end of this introductory section we gather some known results

that we shall need in later sections.

The semigroup of all order-preserving self maps of

*Xn* consist of all

maps

 : *Xn*  *Xn*

with the property that

*x*  *y*  *x*  *y* . A map is order

decreasing if

*x*  *x*

for all *x* in

*Xn* . Let

*A*  *a*1, *a*2 , …, *as* 

be a finite sequence

from the chain *Xn* . We say that *A* is cyclic or has clockwise orientation if

there exist not more than one subscript *i* such that

*ai*  *ai* 1

where

*as* 1

denotes

*a*1 . We say that

*A*  *a*1, *a*2 , …, *as* 

is anti-cyclic or has anticlockwise orientation

if there exists no more than one subscript *i* such that *ai*  *ai* 1 . Note that a

sequence *A* is cyclic if and only if *A* is empty or there exist

*i*  0,1,…, *s*  1

such that

*ai* 1  *ai*  2  ⋯  *as*  *a*1  ⋯  *ai* .

*i* is unique unless the sequence is a

constant.

### Result

Let *A* be any cyclic (anti-cyclic) sequence. Then *A* is anti-cyclic (cyclic) if and only if *A* has no more than two distinct values.

If *A*  *a* , *a* ,…, *a* 

is any sequence then we denote by *A*

sequence

1 2 *t*

*a* , *a* ,…, *a*

, called the reversed sequence of *A* .

*t t*  1 1

### Result

Let

*A*  *a*1, *a*2 ,…, *at* 

be any sequence from

*Xn* . Then *A* is cyclic (anti-

cyclic) if and only if *A* is anti-cyclic (cyclic).

### Result

If *a*1, *a*2 …, *at* 

is cyclic (anti-cyclic) then so is

1. the sequence. *ai* , *ai* ,…, *a*  *i*1  *i*2  ⋯  *ir* 

1 2 *ir*

1. and the sequence *a* , *a* ,…*a* , *a*, …, *a*

, for all 1  *j*  *t*.

*j j* 1 *t* 1 *j* 1

### Result

For non-constant

  *OPn* , 

is an order-preserving mapping if and only

if 1  *n*.

### Result

Any restriction of a member of

*OPDn*

(*ORDn* )

is also a member of

*OPDn*

(*ORDn* )

### Result

Let

 *OPDn* and let *a*1 … *am* , *m*  1

be any cyclic sequence of members

of *Xn* , then the sequence *a*1 …*am* 

is also cyclic. Similarly

*a*1  … *m*  is cyclic.

### Result [11, lemma 4.8]

Let   *OPDn* .Then the digraph of cannot have a non-trivial cycle and a fixed point.

### Result [11, lemma 4.9]

Let

  *OPDn* . Then the digraph of cannot have two cycles of

different length.

### Result

The maximum subgroup of *Dn*

is *OPDn*

and is cyclic of order n;

*OPDn* is

a cyclic subgroup and every subgroup of

*OPDn*

is also cyclic of order less than

or equal to *n* .

### Result

If *n* is a natural number; then

*OPDn*

is a subgroup of *Dn*

and

*ORDn* is

an inverse of *OPDn* .

## SUBGROUP OF ORIENTATION PRESERVING MAPPINGS

We shall give the algebraic proof of the results established in section

3.5. We first consider the subgroup *OPDn* .

### Lemma

The set of all   *OPDn*

forms a cyclic subgroup of

*Dn* .

### Proof

Every subgroup of a cyclic group of order less than or equal to the order

of the group is a cyclic subgroup. Let

  *OPDn* ,

by Result 3.8.5 and Result

3.8.6 the sequence *a* 

1

*a*2

⋯ *a m* 

is cyclic and if

  *OPDn*

then

*a*1 *a*2 ⋯ *am*  is also cyclic.

### Lemma

Every   OPD n

is either a derangement or an identity.

### Proof

It is clear from Results 3.8.7 and 3.8.8 that every

  OPD n

cannot have

a non trivial cycle and a fixed point and the digraph of cannot have two cycles of different length and lemma 3.9.1 implies the result.

### Lemma

If *n* is odd, the set of all

  OPD n

forms a cyclic subgroup of

*An* of

order *n* .

### Proof

Since every,

  *e* *OPDn*

is a derangement, and is of odd length.

Then every permutation of odd length is even and a product of even or odd

number of even permutations is even. Hence

OPDn

is a set of even permutation

and Lemma 3.9.1 and

*n*

*A*   *S*

 *is*

*even* implies the result.

### Theorem

*n*

If *n* is even, there are exactly

*n* even permutations and exactly

2

*n* odd

2

permutations in

OPDn .

### Proof

Every  *m*  *OPD*

1  *m*  *n*

is defined as,

*n n*

*m i*  *n*  *m*

  *i*, *m*  *i*   *i i*  *m i*  2*m* ⋯

*n*

*n*

*i*1



Let

*Tk* be the length of one of the cycles of

*m* and

*am* be the number of

disjoint cycles in  *m* . If *n* is even we first consider even values of *m* ,

*n*

*n*

*m*  *n*  2*k* and then carry out the induction process of the proof.

First consider *m*  *n*  2*k* , we have,

Case I. *m*  *n*  2*k*

*n* 1 1 *n*

1 2*n*

1 3*n* ⋯ 1 *n*  *n*  1 ,

implies that  *n* has *n* fixed points.

Case II. *m*  *n*  2

*n*2  1

*n* 1

*n*  3

*n*  5 ⋯ *n*  *n*  3  32

*n n*  2

*n*  4⋯*n*  *n*  4  4

⋯ *k k*  (*n*  2)

*k*  2(*n*  2)

*k*  3(*n*  2) ⋯

*n*  *n*  *k*   2)  *k*  2

To determine the nature of the permutation  *n*2 , we only need to

determine the length of one of the cycles in the product of disjoint cycles of

 *n*  2 .

Now, let

*T*1  1

*n* 1

*n*  3

*n*  5 ⋯ *n*  *n*  3

be one of the cycles of  *n*2 .

*T*    

1

*n* 

*n*  3

 1

2

*n*

*n*

Since by Result 3.8.8, any

 *m*  *OPD*

cannot have two cycles of

different length in  *n*2 , we can only have

*n*

2

*n*

*n*

cycles each of length

*n* , which

2

is a product of even number of odd (even) length cycles. Hence

 *n*  2

is a

product of even number of even (odd) length cycles.

Case III. *m*  *n*  4

 *n*4  1 *n*  3 *n*  7

*n* 11⋯ *n*  *n*  5⋯ 4 *n*

*n*  4 ⋯ *n*  *n*  8

Then, the length of one of the cycles, says

*T*1  1

*n*  3 ⋯

*n*  *n*  5 of

the permutation

 *n*  4

is *n* .

4

By a similar argument as in case 1, we have

 *n*  4

 4,

Thus for any

value of *n* the permutation

 *n*  4

is a product of four (even) numbers of even

(odd) length cycles. Hence  *n*4

is an even permutation for

*n* even (odd).

4

Case IV. We now consider a general case for

*m*  *n*  *mk*

*mk*  2, 4, …, *n*  2

 *n*  *mk*

*mk*

 *i*

*i* 1

*n*  *mk*  *i*

*n*  2*mk*  *i*

*n*  3*mk*

 *i* ⋯ *mk*

 *i*

Lets denotes one of the cycles of  *n**mk* by *T* ,

*K*

*TK* 

1 *n*  *mk* 1

*n*  2*mk*  1

*n*  3*mk*

 1⋯ *mk*

 1

such that the length of *T* is *T*  *n* .

*k k*

*m*

*k*

By similar argument as in cases I-III, for

*n* even (odd), the

*mk*

permutation

*n**mk* is a product of *m*

(an even number) of even (odd) length

cycles.

*k*

It is clear that for *n*

 2*k* there are

*n* even numbers and

2

*n* odd numbers.

2

We conclude from case I-IV, that if

*n*  2*k* (even)and

*m*  2*k* , then there are *n*

2

even permutations.

We now pay attention to the remaining

*n* permutations. By a similar

2

argument as in the case of

*m*  2*k*

we consider,

*m*  *n*  *m* , *m*

is an odd number,

*m*  1,

3,…, *n*  1 such that for any cycle, say,

*T* of  *n**m*



we have *T*

 *n* .

*m*

Since *n* is even and *m*

is odd we consider two cases:

Case I. *m*

does not divides *n* .

Then *n**m*

is a cyclic permutation of length *n* ,

*n*  even.

Case II. *m*

divides *n*

Let

*n*  *m* *d* .Since *n* is even and *m*

is odd, then it is clear that *d* is an

even number. *n**m* is a product of m cycles each of length *d* , is a product of

odd number of even length cycle.

Finally, we conclude that if *n* is even, then for any value of *m* satisfying

case I & II  *m*

is an odd permutation, and there are *n*

2

*m* `*s*

in *n* .

## SUBGROUP OF ORIENTATION REVERSING MAPPINGS

We can now give the algebraic proof of the results established in section

3.5. We consider *ORDn* .

Throughout sections 3.10 and 3.11,

*m*, *n and k*  ,

(set off natural

numbers)

*n*  *m*  *k* ,

0  *k* 

*m* 1

2 ,

and 0  *m*  *n*  2. If

*m*  2*k*  1

then

0  *k*  *m*  1

2

and

0  *m*  *n*  2.

Let

  *ORDn*

, we say is an orientation-

reversing bijective mapping on

*X n* ,

if the sequence

(1, 2, ⋯,

*n*)

is anti-

cyclic, the collection of all orientation-reversing bijective mappings on *X n* is

denoted by *ORDn* .

We define a reflection

*m*  *ORDn*

by *i* 1 *i*  *m* 1 *i*  *Xn* 

with

   : *i*  *n* 1 *i*

0

such that 1 , 2, ⋯,

*n*   *n*,

*n*  1,

⋯, 1

and is anti-

cyclic. Thus, for every

 *m*  *OPD*

there exist an equivalence

*m* 

in *ORDn* , .

that is there exist an isomorphism between the subgroup *OPDn* and *ORDn*

*n*

### Lemma

If *n*  2*k* 1, we consider two cases of   *m*

*m*

1. If

*m*  2*k* ,

 has a fixed point at

*n*  1 *m*

*i*   

*m* 2 2

1. If

*m*  2*k* 1,

then

 0  *m*  *n*  1 has a fixed point at *i*  *n*  *m* 1

*m* 2

### Proof

We prove the assertions by induction on *m*, there are several cases to be

examine. First recall that for all

*m*  *ORDn* ,

  *m*

*m*

*n*1

= *i*, *n*  *m*  *i*  1

2

*i* 1

Case 1.

*m*  0

( *m*  0 mod *n* )

*n*1

2

  0  *i*, *n*  *i*  1

*i* 1

1 

2 

⁝ 

*n*  1 

2

*n*  1 

2

⁝ 

*n*  1 

*n* 

*n*

*n*  1

⁝

*n*  3

2

*n*  1

2

⁝

2

1

The fixed point is at

  *i*  1 *n*  0 1  *i*  1 *n*  *m* 1, *m*  0

0 2 2

  1

*n*2 *n* 1 ⋯  *n* 1

*n*  3  *n* 1

*n* 1

0  2 2

 2 2 

  

Similarly, we consider the next even natural number, *m*  2

  1

*n*  22

*n*  3 ⋯

 *n*  1

*n*  1 *n*  1

*n*  3  ⋯

*n*  1 *n*

2  2



 

* 1.  2 2 

2 has a fixed point at

*i*  1 *n*  2  1  *i*  1 *n*  *m*  1 , *m*  2

2 2

Case 11, We now assume that the result holds for all values of *m* up to 2*k* .

2*k*

 *i n*  *i*  2*k*  1.

  1 *n*  2*k* 2 *n*  2*k*  1 ⋯  *n*  2*k*  1

*n*  2*k*  3  *n*  2*k*  1 *n*  2*k*  1 

2 *k* 

 2

 

2  2 2 

 *n*  1

⋯



*n*  22*k*  1 1   *n*  1

 

*n*  22*k*  1 1 



⋯ *n*

*n*  2*k*  1

 2 2

  2 2 

 has a fixed point at

2 *k*

2*k*  *i*  1 *n*  2*k*  1  *i*  1 *n*  *m*  1,

*m*  2*k* .

2 2

Case 111, finally, we consider the next even natural number after

2*k* ,

*m*  2( *k* 1).

2  *k* 1



*i*

*n*  *i*  2*k*  1

  1

*n*  2*k* 12

 *n*  2 *k* 1 1

*n* 2 *k* 1 1 ⋯

     

*n*  2 *k* 1 1 

2*k* 1

 2 2 

 

 *n*  2 *k* 1 1 *n*  2 *k* 1  3 

 *n* 1 *n*  2 2 *k* 1  3  *n* 1

*n*  2 2 *k* 1 1 

 2 2

 ⋯  2 2

 2 2 

    

The fixed point is at

*i*  1 *n*  2 *k*  1  1  *i*  1 *n*  *m*  1, *m*  2 *k*  1

2 2

The result is true for *m*  2 *k*  1, hence it is true for all

*m*  even and

*n*  odd.

(ii).By a similar argument as in (i) above. Here, we consider *m* , *n*  2*k* 1.

  *m*

*m*

*n*1

2

= *i*, *n*  *m*  *i* 1.

*i*1

Case 1.

*m* 1.

*n*  *odd* **.**

*n*1

2

1  *i n*  *i* 

*i* 1

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 |  | *n*  1 |
| 2 |  | *n*  2 |
| ⁝ |  | ⁝ |
| *n*  1 |  | 1 |
| *n* |  | *n* |

The fixed point is at

*i*  1 *n*  1  1 2

 *i*  1 *n*  *m*  1, *m*  1 2

*for*

*n*  *m*

Since *n* and *m* are odd natural numbers and 0  *m*  *n* 1 *n* -odd (the operation is

orientation) we have

*i*  *n* ( *n*  *n*, *we have* 2*n*  *n*).

2

  

 *n*  1

*n*  1 *n*  3

*n*  3

  

1  1 *n*  1 2

*n*  2 ⋯

 2



2  2

 ⋯ *n* 1 1 *n n*

2 

Similarly, for

*n*  *odd* **,** we consider the next odd natural number,

*m*  3

  1 *n*  32

3

 *n*  3

*n*  4 ⋯



*n*  7



 ⋯ *n*  1



*n*  1*n*

*n*  2

 2 2 

The fixed point is at

*i*  1 *n*  3  1 , *m*  3 *and*

*n*  *odd*

2 2

by a similar argument as in the case of

*m* 1,

1. *n*  *n*

2

we have

*i*  *n*  3  1 

2

*i*  *n*  *m*  1 ,

2

*m*  3, *n*  *odd* **.**

Case 11, we assume that the result holds true for all values of

*m*  2*k* 1,

*n*  *odd* **.**

*m*(2*k* 1)

*n*1

2

  2*k* 1  *i*,

*i*1

*n*  *i*  2*k* 

  1

*n*  2*k*  12

*n*  2*k*  1  1 ⋯  *n*  2*k*  1  1

*n*  (2*k*  1)  3  ⋯

*m*(2*k* 1)  

2

2

 

 *n*  2*k*  1  1 *n*  2*k*  1  3  *n*  2*k*  1  1 *n*  2*k*  1  1 ⋯







 2 2  2 2 

*n*  1

*n*  2*k*  1  2*n*

*n*  2*k*  1  1

Similarly, for

*m*  2*k* 1

the fixed point is at

*i*  *n*  2*k*  1  1  *i*  *n*  *m*  1 , *m*  2*k*  1

*n*  *m*,

*n*  *odd* **.**

2 2

Case III.

*n*  *odd*

and

*m*  2*k*  3,

the next odd natural number after

2*k* 1.

*m*(2*k* 3)

*n*2

  2*k* 3   *i*,

2

*i*1

*n*  *i*  2*k*  2

2 *k* 3 

 

  

 *n*  2*k*  3  1

*n*  2*k*  3  3

*m*  

  1 *n* 

2*k*  3

1. *n* 

2*k*  3

 1 ⋯ 

 2 2 



*n* 

2*k*  3  1

2*k*  3  3

*n*  *n* 

2*k*  3  1

2*k*  3  1

*n*   ⋯

 2 2  2 2 

*n*  1

*n*  2*k*  3  2*n*

*n*  2*k*  3  1

by a similar argument as in cases I-II the fixed point is at

*i*  *n*  2*k*  3  1  *i*  *n*  *m*  1 ,

*m*  2*k*  3,

*n*  *m*, *n*  *odd* .

2 2

The induction process proves that the result holds true for any value of

*m*  2*k* 1.

### Lemma

If *n* is even, then we have two cases for *m*

1. If

*m*  2*k* , *m*

has no fixed point.

1. If

*m*  2*k* 1, *m* has two fixed points at

*i*  1 *n*  *m*  1 2

and

*i*  *n* 

*m*  1 .

2

### Proof

* 1. For *n* -even we prove the assertion in a similar way we prove Lemma
     1. , by considering

*m*  2*k*

and *n* - even.

Case I. Consider

*m*  0

and 2 .

*n*

   0  *i*,

*i* 1

*n*  *i*  1

1 

2 

⁝ 

*n*  2 

2

*n* 

2

*n*  2 

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 2  ⁝ |  | 2  ⁝ |
| *n*  1 |  | 2 |
| *n* |  | 1 |

*n*

*n*  1

⁝

*n*  4

2

*n*  2

2

*n*

If *i* is a fixed point, then

  *i*  *n* 1

0 2

If *i*  *n*  1

2

is a fixed point, then it is clear that

*n*  1

is odd, since *n* is even, it

implies that

*i*  *n* 1

2

does not exist in  (set of natural numbers) or . Hence

or otherwise, if

*i*  *n* 1

2

is a fixed point, then,

0  *i*  *n*  1

  

 *n*  2

*n*  4   *n* 

  0  1 *n* 2

*n*  1 ⋯

 2

 

2   2

*n*  1



If *m*  2 ,

2

   2  *i*,

*n*  *i*  1

If *i* is a fixed point, then

*i*  *n*  1 , does not exist in  (set of natural numbers)

2

or . since, by similar argument as in

*m*  0, *n*

is an even natural number;

*n* 1

is odd

*n* 1   . If we assume that

2

*n*  1  *n*  1 2

as in the other case, an odd

number, that is *i*  *n* 1 is a fixed point, it implies that

*i*  *n*  *n*  1  1  *n*  *n*  1

Hence

2 doesn't have a fixed point.

  

 *n*  4

*n*  2  *n*  2 *n*   

2  1

*n*  2 2

*n*  3 ⋯ 

 2



2  2

 ⋯ *n*

2 

*n*  1

Case II. Assume that the result is true for *m*  2*k* ,

2*k*

 *i*,

*n*  *i*  2*k*  1

If *i*  1 *n*  2*k*  1

2

is a fixed point, then it is clear that

*n*  2*k*  1

*n*  (2*k*  1)

is odd, since

*n* is even and

2*k*  1 is odd. It implies that

2

does not exist in  (set

of natural numbers) or . Hence or otherwise, if we assume that

*i*  *n*  2*k*  1  *n*  2*k*  1, 2

is a fixed point, then

2*k*  *i*  *n*  *n*  2*k*  1  2*k*  1  *n*  *n*  2*k*  1

  1,

*n*  2*k* 2

*n*  2*k* 1 ⋯  *n*  2*k n*  2*k*  2  ⋯

2*k*  2 2 

 

*n* 1 *n*  2*k*  2*n n*  2*k* 1

Case III.

*m*  2(*k* 1),

the next even natural number after

2*k* ,

2*k* 1

     *i*,

*m*(2*k* 1)

*n*  *i*  2*k* 1

*m*(2*k* 1)  1

*n*  2 *k* 12

*n*  2 *k* 1 1 ⋯

 *n*  2(*k* 1) *n*  2(*k* 1)  2 

⋯ *n* 1

*n*  2 *k* 1  2*n n*  2(*k* 1) 1

 2 2 

 

*n*  2(*k*  1)  1

*i*  2

 *i* 

*n*  *m*  1

2 ,

*m*  2(*k*  1)

does not exist as a fixed point in

*m* , by a similar argument as in the cases I&II

above

*n*  *m* 1

is odd, which implies that

*n*  *m*  1 2

does not exist in

 *or*   2(*k*  1) Hence or otherwise, if

*n*  *m*  1

*i*  2

 *n*  *m*  1

then

2*k* 1  *i*  *n*  *n*  *m* 1  2*k* 1  *n*  *n*  *m* 1

implies that *n*  2(*k* 1)  1 is not a fixed point.

The induction process proves that the result is true for any value of

*m*  2*k* , *n* -even.

* 1. If *n* even and

*m*  2*k*  1

then we consider various cases of *m* in a similar

way as in (i) above.

Case 1. *m* 1.

*n*

2

  1  *i*,

1

*i* 0

*n*  *i*

1 

2 

⁝ 

*n*  2 

2

*n* 

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 2  ⁝ |  | 2  ⁝ |
| *n*  1 |  | 1 |
| *n* |  | *n is the* sec *ond fixed po* int |

*n*  1

*n*  2

⁝

*n*  2

2

*n*

*is the first fixed po* int

  1

*n*  12

*n*  2 ⋯

 *n*  2

*n*  2  *n*

*n*  ⋯ *n n*

1  2



  

2  2 2 

*i*  *n*

2

is the first fixed point of

1 when *n* is even and

*m*  2*k* 1.

If one point is

fixed, then we have

*n* 1

elements left. Since

*m*  2*k* 1 ,

then by a similar

argument as in Lemma 3.10.1 for *n* and *m* - odd. We have second fixed point at

*n*  1  1 *i*  *n*  *m*  1,

*m*  1.

2 2

Similarly, if *m*  3,

*n*

3  *i*,

2

*i* 1

*n*  *i*  2

   3  1

*n*  32

*n*  4 ⋯  *n*  2

*n*  2  *n n*  4 

⋯ *n* 1

*n* 1*n n*  2

3  2 2

 2 2 

*i*  1 *n*  3  1 2

  

is a fixed point.

By a similar argument as in the case I above, the other fixed point is at

*i*  *n* 

3  1

2

 *n*  1  *i*  *n* 

*m*  1

2 ,

*m*  3.

Case II. *m*  2*k* 1.

Let’s assume that the result is true for all values of *m* up to *m*  2*k* 1.

*n*

2

2*k* 1  *i*,

*i* 1

*n*  *i*  2*k* 

  1

*n*  2*k*  12

*n*  2*k*  1  1 ⋯

 *n*  (2*k*  1)  1



*n*  (2*k*  1)  3 



2 *k*  1

 *n*  (2*k*  1)  1



*n*  (2*k*  1)  1





⋯  *n* 



2

2*k*  1  1

2 

(2*k*  1)  3 



*n* 

 2 2   2 2 

 (2*k*  1)  1

*n*





*n*  (2*k*  1)  1⋯*n*  1

*n*  2*k*  1  2*n*

*n*  2*k*  1  1

 2 2 



*n*  (2*k*  1)  1

*i*  2

 *i*  *n* 

2

*m*  1

2 ,

*m*  2*k*  1

is a fixed point.

By similar argument as in the cases I&II above

*i*  *n* 

*m*  1

2

is the second fixed point.

Case III.

*m*  2*k*  3, the next odd natural number after

2*k* 1

  

 *n*  (2*k*  3)  1

*n*  (2*k*  3) 

2 *k* 3  1

*n*  (2*k*  3) 2

*n*  (2*k*  3)  1 ⋯ 

 2 2 

 *n*  (2*k*  3)  1

*n*  (2*k*  3)  1 

(2*k*  3)  1

(2*k*  3)  3

  ⋯ *n*  *n*  

 2 2   2 2 

 (2*k*  3)  1

(2*k*  3)  1

  

*n* 

 2

*n*  2

 ⋯ *n* 1



*n*  2*k*  1 *n*

*n*  2*k*  2

The first point is at

*n*  (2*k*  3)  1

*i*  2

 *i*  *n* 

2

*m*  1

2 ,

*m*  2*k*  3.

By a similar argument as in the above cases 1 & 11, the second fixed point is at

*i*  *n* 

(2*k*  3)  1

2

 *i*  *n* 

*m*  1

2 ,

*m*  2*k*  3.

The induction process shows that if *n* is even and

*m*  2*k* 1 the permutation *m*

has two fixed points at

*i*  1 *n*  *m*  1 *and*

2

*m*  1

*n*  2

### Lemma

If *n* is even and

*m*  odd for every

  *ORDn*

there are exactly *n*

2

derangements and

*ORDn* .

*n* permutations each having exactly two fixed points in

2

### Proof

If *n* even is ( *n*  4*k or* 4*k*  2), it is clear that there are

*n* even numbers

2

of *m**s* ’ in

*n* , and

*n* odd numbers of

2

*m**s*

in *n* . If

*m*  2*k*  1 there are

*n* odd

2

*m**s* ’

in *n*.

It implies that there are

*n* permutations with two fixed points in *n* by

2

Lemma 3.10.2 Similarly, by the same argument

*m*  2*k*

and Lemma 3.10.2

there are

*n* derangements in *n* . 2

### Result

If *n* is odd,

*f* *m*   1

for all *m* ,

*m*  *ORDn* .

### Proof

This result follows from Lemma 3.10.1

### Result

Let

*n*  4*k*  2, if

*m*  2*k*

then there are exactly

*n* odd derangements and

2

if *m*  2*k* 1

then there are exactly

*n* even permutations each having exactly

2

two fixed points, for every

*m*  *ORDn* .

### Proof

If

*n*  4*k*  2 ,

there are exactly

*n* derangements and exactly *n*

2 2

permutation with two fixed points by Lemma 3.10.3 since

 *ORDn*

cannot

have two cycles of different length from Result 3.8.8.

Now, if

*m*  2*k*,

*m* is a derangement by Lemma 3.10.2 and can be

written as a product of

(4*k*  2)  0  2*k* 1 2

transpositions, a product of an odd

number of transpositions, odd permutations.

If *m*  2*k* 1 then each

*m* *ORDn*

has two fixed points as given by Lemma

* + 1. and can be written as a product of

4*k*  2  2  2*k*

2

transpositions, a

product of even number of transpositions, an even permutation.

### Result

Let

*n*  4*k* , if

*m*  2*k*

then, there are exactly

*n* even derangements, and if

2

*m*  2*k* 1

there are exactly

*n* odd permutations each having two fixed points,

2

for every *m* *ORDn* .

### Proof

By a similar argument as in the proof of Result 3.10.5 above, if *n*  4*k*

and

*m*  2*k* ,

for every

*m* *ORDn*

can be written as a product of 4*k*  0  2*k* , an

2

even number of transpositions, an even permutation. (Lemma 3.10.2)

If *n*  4*k* ,

and

*m*  2*k*  1 each *m*

has two fixed points, and can be written

as a product of (4*k*  2)  0  2*k* 1 transpositions, an odd permutation.

2

### Result

If *n*  4*k* 1,

then there are

*n*  even permutations each having a unique

fixed point in *ORDn* .

### Result

If *n*  4*k*  3,

then there are

*n*  odd permutations each having a unique

fixed point in *ORDn* .

The proof of the above two results is similar to that of Results 3.10.5 and 3.10 6 above.

### 9 Remark

Let *f* *n*, *k* 

and

*f*  *n*,*n* 

be as defined above. We give the algebraic proof

of proposition 3.6.1.

### Proof

If *n* is odd there are

*n* 1 derangements from *OPDn*

by Lemma 3.9.2 We

observe that in

*n*

*ORDn*

there are no derangement if *n* is odd, by Lemma 3.10.4

If *n* is even there are

*n* 1

derangements from

*OPDn* by Lemma 3.9.2 and 2

derangements from Lemma 3.10.3.

The proofs for (b) and (c) are similar to that for (a) above.

## EVEN AND ODD PERMUTATIONS

### Proposition

Let

*e*  *n*, *k* 

and

*e**n*, *n* 

be as defined in equation (3.7), we give the

algebraic proof of proposition 3.7.1.

### Proof

If *n* is odd, then all  *OPDn*

by Lemma 3.9.3 are even derangements

except the identity element. There is no derangement in

*ORDn*

for *n* -odd by

Lemmas 3.10.1 and 3.10.4.

If *n*  4*k*  2,

then there are

*n*  1

2

even derangements from

*OPDn* by

Lemmas 3.9.2 & 3.9.4. In *ORDn* , we consider two cases of

*m*, *m*  2*k*  1

and

*m*  2*k*. In both cases, there is no even derangement from Results 3.10.5.

If *n*  4*k*, there are *n*  1 even derangement from Theorem 3.9.4 in *OPD* .

2

Note that in *ORDn* we consider two cases of

*m* . If

*m*  2*k* ,

*n*

then there are *n*

2

even derangements from Result 3.10.6. There is no even derangement for

*m*  2*k*  1.

The proof for (b) and (c) are similar to that for (a) above, while (d) follows directly from proposition 3.6.1(d).

### Proposition

Let

*f* *n*, *n*,

*f* *n* , *k* ,

*e* *n* , *n*, *e* *n* , *k*  ,

*e* *n* , *n*

and

*e**n* , *k* 

be as defined in

section 3.7, the algebraic proof of proposition 3.7.2 follows directly from the algebraic proof of proposition 3.6.1 given above.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 4. | *e* *n*, *k* |  |  | | | | | | | | |
| k | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | *e* *n*, *k*  |
| n |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 1 |
| 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 1 |
| 3 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  | 3 |
| 4 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  | 4 |
| 5 | 4 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  |  |  |  | 10 |
| 6 | 2 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  |  |  | 6 |
| 7 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  |  | 7 |
| 8 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  | 8 |
| 9 | 8 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 18 |

5. *e**n*, *k* 

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| k | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |  | 7 | 8 | 9 |  |
| n |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | *e* *n*, *k*  |
| 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 0 |
| 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 0 |
| 3 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 3 |
| 4 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  | 4 |
| 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  | 0 |
| 6 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  | 6 |
| 7 | 0 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  | 7 |
| 8 | 4 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |  | 8 |
| 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 | 0 | 0 |

## DIHEDRAL GROUPS AS HOMOMORPHIC IMAGES

We proved the three families:

*F* 2*r*,4*r*  2,

*F* 4*r*  3,8*r*  8

and

*F* 4*r*  5,8*r*  12

of the Fibonacci groups

*F* *m* , *n*

to be infinite by defining

morphism between dihedral groups and the Fibonacci groups.

The dihedral group denoted by *Dn* is usually defined as

*Dn*  *x*, *y*

*xn*  *y*2  1, *yx*1  *xy*  .

It is easy to prove the following:

### Lemma

For all

*k*  0,1, 2,…, *n* 1

we have;

*a*

*x* *k*  *xn**k* ;

*d*  *xk y*2  1;

*b*

*c*

*y* 1  *y*;

*yxk*  *xn**k y*;

*e*

 *f* 

*xk yxk*  *y*;

*yxy*  *x* 1  *xn*1.

Thus we may write the elements of *Dn*

uniquely as *xk*

or *xk y* ,

for

*k*  0,1,2,…, *n* 1 .

*F* *m*,

*n*  *a*1 , *a*2 ,…, *an ai ai*1 ⋯*ai**m*1  *ai**m*

*i*  1,2,…, *m* 

where subscripts are taken modulo *n* if necessary. The following lemma seems to be useful:

### Lemma

For all

*k*  0

and

*m*  2

*a*  *a* 1 *a* 2

*m**k*

*k* 1

*m**k* 1

### Proof

*am**k*  *ak ak* 1 ⋯ *am**k* 1

 *a*1 *a a a* ⋯ *a* *a*

*k* 1

*k* 1

*k k* 1

*m**k* 2

*m**k* 1

 *a*1 *a*2

*k* 1 *m**k* 1

## THE FIBONACCI GROUP

*F* 2*r*, 4*r*  2

Consider the Fibonacci group

*F* 2*r*, 4*r*  2  *a*1, *a*2 ,…, *a*4*r*2 *aiai*1⋯*ai*2*r*  *ai*2*r*1

*i*  1, 2,…, 4*r*  2 

where subscripts are taken modulo

4*r*  2

if necessary. The following lemma

seems to be useful:

### Lemma

For all

*k*  0

and

*r*  2,

*a*  *a* 1 *a* 2

2*r* *k*

*k* 1

2*r* *k* 1

### Proof

*a*2*r* *k*  *ak ak* 1 ⋯*a*2*r* *k* 1

 *a* 1 *a*

*k* 1

*k* 1*ak*

*ak* 1

⋯*a*2*r* *k* 2

*a*2*r* *k* 1

 *a* 1 *a* 2

*k* 1 2*r* *k* 1

### Proposition

There exist a morphism from

*F* 2*r*,4*r*  2 is infinite.

*F* 2*r*,4*r*  2 *onto Dn* *n*  3. Hence

We shall prove this result by a sequence of lemmas and observations

which we record as equations. First, we define a mapping from the first 2*r*

generators of

*F* 2*r*,4*r*  2 onto the two generators of

*Dn* by

*a*1  *x*

and

*ai*  *y*

*i*  2,…,2*r* 

(3.9).

Then we immediately see that for *r*  1

*a*2*r* 1

 *a*1 *a*2

⋯*a*2*r*

 *xy* 2*r*1  *xy*

(3.10) .

and using lemma 3.13.1, we deduce that

*a*  *a* 1*a* 2

 *x*1 *xy*2  *x* 1  *xn*1

3.11.

2*r* 2 1 2*r* 1

*a*  *a* 1*a* 2

 *y* 1 *xn*1 2  *yxn*2  *x*2 *y*

3.12

2*r* 3 2 2*r* 2

More generally, we have

### Lemma

For

4  *i*  2*r* 1, *r*  2 .

*a*2 *r*  *i*  *y*

### Proof

The proof is by induction.

Basis step: By Lemma 3.13.1 and (3.12), we see that

*a*  *a* 1*a* 2

 *y* 1*x* 2 *y*2  *y* 1  *y*.

2*r* 4 3 2*r* 3

Induction step: suppose that

*a*2*r*  *k*  *y*

*k*  4,5,…,2*r* .

Then using Lemma 3.13.1 again, we see that

*a*  *a* 1*a* 2  *y* 1 *y* 2  *y* 1  *y*.

2*r*  *k* 1 *k* 2*r* *k*

as required.

### Lemma

For

*a* *a*4*r* 2 

*r*  1 we have;

*xy*;

*b* *a*4*r* 3  *x*;

*c* *a*4*r* *i*  *y*

( 4  *i*  2*r*  2).

### Proof

We shall henceforth use Lemma 3.13.1, equations (3.9) to (3.12) whenever necessary without mentioning.

*a* *a*

4*r* 2

1

2*r* 1

 *a*

2

4*r* 1

*a*

(*xy*)1 *y* 2  *xy*.

*b* *a*

 *a*1 *a*2

(*xn*1)1(*xy*)2  *x*

4*r* 3 2*r* 2 4*r* 2

(c) This is by induction.

Basis step:

*a*4*r* 4

1

2*r* 3

 *a*

2

4*r* 3

*a*

(*x* 2 *y*)1 *x* 2  *x*2 *yx*2  *y*.

*by* (*b*).

Induction step: suppose that

*a*4*r* *k*  *y*

*k*  *i*  4, 5,…, 2*r* 1.

Then

*a*4*r*  *k* 1

1

2*r* *k*

 *a*

2

4*r* *k*

*a*

 *y* 1 *y* 2  *y*,

as required.

It is now clear from Lemma 3.13.3, Lemma 3.13.4 and equations (3.10)

to (3.12) that the map:  defined from the first 2*r* generators of

*F* 2*r*,4*r*  2 onto the two generators of *Dn*

by *a*1  *x*

and

*ai*  *y*

*i*  2,…,2*r*  as

in (3.9) is indeed a morphism onto

## THE FIBONACCI GROUP

*Dn* .

*F* 4*r*  3,

8*r*  8

Consider the Fibonacci group

*F* 4*r*  3, 8*r*  8  *a*1 , *a*2 ,…, *a*8*r* 8 *ai ai*1 ⋯*ai*4*r* 2  *ai*4*r* 3

*i*  1,2,…,8*r*  8  ,

where subscripts are taken modulo 8*r*  8 if necessary.

As in the case of the Fibonacci group

*F* 2*r*, 4*r*  2

we state the

corresponding lemmas in

*F* 4*r*  3,

8*r*  8.

### Lemma

For all

*k*  5

and

*r*  0 .

*a*. *a*  *a*1 *a*2 ;

4*r* *k k* 4 4*r* *k* 1

*b*. *a*  *a*1 *a*2 ;

6*r* *k* 2*r* *k* 4 6*r* *k* 1

*c*. *a*  *a*1 *a*2 .

8*r* *k* 4*r* *k* 4 8*r* *k* 1

### Proof

*a* *a*4*r* *k*  *ak* 3 *ak* 2 ⋯ *a*4*r* *k* 2 *a*4*r* *k* 1

1

 *a*

*k* 4

(*ak* 4

*ak* 3

⋯ *a*4*r* *k* 2

)*a*4*r* *k* 1

 *a* 1 *a* 2 .

*k* 4 4*r* *k* 1

. *b* *a*6*r* *k*  *a*2*r* *k* 3 *a*2*r* *k* 2 ⋯ *a*6*r* *k* 1

1

 *a*

2*r* *k* 4

(*a*2*r* *k* 4

*a*2*r* *k* 3

⋯ *a*6*r* *k* 2

)*a*6*r* *k* 1

1

 *a*

2*r* *k* 4

2

6*r* *k* 1

*a*

.

*c*

*a*8*r* *k*  *a*4*r* *k* 3*a*4*r* *k* 2 ⋯ *a*8*r* *k* 2*a*8*r* *k* 1

1

 *a*

4*r* *k* 4

(*a*4*r* *k* 4

*a*4*r* *k* 3

⋯ *a*8*r* *k* 2

)*a*8*r* *k* 1

1

 *a*

4*r* *k* 4

2

8*r* *k* 1

*a*

.

### Proposition

There exist a morphism from

*F* 4*r*  3, 8*r*  8

onto *Dn*

 *for all n*  3. Hence

*F* 4*r*  3, 8*r*  8

is infinite.

We carry out the proof in a similar way to that for

*F* 2*r*, 4*r*  2. We

consider the case of

*r*  0

first, then

*r* 1.

We define a mapping from the first 3 generators of

*F* 3, 8

onto the two

generators of *Dn* by

*a*1 , *a*3  *x*

and

*a*2  *y*

3.13

Then we immediately see that

*a*4  *a*1 *a*2 *a*3  *xyx*  *y*

(3.14) .

We shall henceforth use lemma 3.14.1 and equations 3.13 and 3.14

whenever necessary without mentioning.

### Lemma

If

*a*. *a*5 , *a*7

*c*. *a*6 , *a*8

*k*  5 then

 *xn*1;

 *x*2 *y*.

### Proof

(*a*) *a*

 *a*1 *a*2

*k k* 4 *k* 1

*a*  *a* 1*a* 2  *xn*1 *y* 2  *xn*1.

5 1 4

The proof of *a*7 follows from the same argument

*b* *a*

 *a*1 *a*2

*k k* 4 *k* 1

*a*  *a* 1*a* 2  *y* 1 *xn*1 2  *x*2 *y* .

6 2 5

The proof of *a*8 follows from the same argument

### Lemma

If *k*  5 we have;

*a* *a*9 , *a*11  *x*;

*b* *a*12 , *a*10  *y*.

### Proof

*a* *a*

 *a*1 *a*2

*k k* 4 *k* 1

*a*  *a*1*a*2 (*xn*1)1 *x*2 *y* 2  *x*.

9 5 8

The proof of *a*11 follows from the same argument

*b* *a*

 *a*1 *a*2

*k k* 4 *k* 1

*a*  *a* 1*a* 2  *x* 2 *y*1 *x* 2  *y*

10 6 9

The proof of

*a*12 follows from the same argument.

It is now clear from lemmas 3.14.3 and 3.14.4 and equations 3.13

and

3.14

that the map:  defined from the first 3 generators of

*F* 3, 8

onto the

three generators of *Dn*

is indeed morphism onto

*Dn* .

We define a mapping from the first 4*r*  3

generators of

*F* 4*r*  3, 8*r*  8

onto the two generators of *Dn* by

*a*1 , *a*2*r* 3  *x*

and

*ai*  *y*

*i*  2, 3,…, 2*r*  2, 2*r*  4,…, 4*r*  3. (3.15)

Then we immediately see that

*a*  *a a* ⋯*a*

 *xy*2*r*1*xy*2*r*  *y*

(3.16) .

4*r* 4 1 2 4*r* 3

We shall henceforth use lemma 3.14.1 and equations 3.15

to 3.16

whenever necessary without mentioning. to prove Lemmas 3.14.5 and 3.14.6.

### Lemma

For *r*  1 ,

*a*

*b*

*n*1

4*r* 5

*a*  *x* ;

*a*  *x*2 *y*;

4*r* 6

*c*

*a*4*r* *i*  *y*

7  *i*  2*r*  6.

### Proof

*a*

1 2

 *a a*

*a*

4*r* *k k* 4 4*r* *k* 1

*a*  *a*1*a*2

 *x*1  *y* 2  *xn*1 .

4*r* 5 1 4*r* 9

*b*

1 2

 *a a*

*a*

.

4*r* *k k* 4 4*r* *k* 1

*a*  *a* 1*a* 2

4*r* 6

2

 *y*1 *xn*1 2  *x*2 *y*.

(c) We carry out the proof by induction.

4*r* 5

Basis step: By Lemma 3.14.1, 3.15 and *b*

above

*a*  *a*1*a*2  *y*1 *x*2 *y* 2  *y*.

4*r* 7 3 4*r* 6

Induction step: suppose that

*a*4*r* *k*  *y*

*i*  *k*  7,8,…, 2*r*  5.

Then using Lemma 3.14.1 again, we see that

*a*4*r* *k* 1

1 2

*k* 3 4*r* *k*

 *a a*

 *y*1 *y*2  *y*,

as required.

### Lemma

*a* *a*6*r* 7

*b* *a*6*r* 8

 *xn*1 ;

 *x*2 *y* ;

*c* *a*6*r* *i*  *y*

(9  *i*  2*r*  8) .

### Proof

*a*. *a*

 *a*1 *a*2

6*r* *k* 2*r* *k* 4 6*r* *k* 1

*a*

*b*.

6*r* 7

*a*

1

2*r* 3

 *a*

 *a*1

2

6*r* 6

*a*

*a*2

 *x*1  *y* 2  *xn*1.

6*r* *k* 2*r* *k* 4 6*r* *k* 1

*a*6*r* 8

1

2*r* 4

 *a*

2

6*r* 7

*a*

 *y*1 *xn*1 2  *x*2 *y*.

(c). The assertion may be proved by induction on *i*  *k* .

Basis step: for

*k*  *i*  9

we see that

*a*  *a*1 *a*2

6*r* *k* 2*r* *k* 4 6*r* *k* 1

*a*6*r* 9

1

2*r* 5

 *a*

2

6*r* 8

*a*

 *y* 1 *x* 2 *y*2  *y*.

Induction step: suppose that

*a*6*r* *k*  *y*

9  *k*  2*r*  7

Then using Lemma 3.14.1 again, we see that

*a*6*r* *k* 1

1

2*r* 3*k*

 *a*

2

6*r* *k*

*a*

since

*k*  9

it is clear that 2*r*  3 *k*  2*r*  3

and any number say

*am*  *a*2*r* 3  *y* from 3.15 also,

*a*6 *r* *k*  *y*

from the induction step, hence

*a*6*r* *k* 1

1

2*r* 3*k*

 *a*

2

6*r* *k*

*a*

 *y*1 *y*2  *y*

as required.

### Lemma

*a* *a*8*r* *i*  *x*

*i*  9, 0*r*

2*r* 11;

*b* *a*8*r*  *j*  *y*

*j* 10,11,…, 2*r* 10,2*r* 12,…, 4*r* 11;

### Proof

We shall apply lemma 3.14.1, 3.15 and 3.16 to prove *a* and *b* .

*a*  *If*

*k*  *i*  9

*a*  *a*1 *a*2

8*r* *k* 4*r* *k* 4 8*r* *k* 1

*a*8*r* 81

1

4*r* 5

 *a*

2

8*r* 8

*a*

 *xn*1 1 *x*2 *y* 2  *x*.

*If k*  *i*  2*r*  10

*a*8*r* 2*r* 10 

*a*8*r* 2*r* 10 

1

4*r* 2*r* 10 4

 *a*

1

 *a*

4*r* 2*r* 10 4

2

8*r* ( 2*r* 9)

*a*

2

*a*

8*r* ( 2*r* 9)

 *y*1 *y*2  *y*

*If k*  *i*  2*r* 11

*a*8*r* 2*r* 11

1

4*r* 2*r* 114

 *a*

2

8*r* ( 2*r* 10)

*a*

*a*8*r* 2*r* 11

1

4*r* 2*r* 114

 *a*

2

2*r* 2

*a*

 *xn* 1 1 *y*2  *x*

*b* *a*8*r*  *j*  *y*

*j* 10,11,…, 2*r* 10,2*r* 12,…, 4*r* 11

The proof is by induction.

*a*8*r* *k*

1

4*r* *k* 4

 *a*

2

8*r* *k* 1

*a*

.

Basis step: For *If*

*k*  *j*  10

we have,

*a*8*r* 82

1

4*r* 6

 *a*

2

8*r* 81

*a*

 *x* 2 *y*1 *x*2  *y*

Induction step: suppose that

*a*8*r* *k*  *y*

for

*k*  10,11,…2*r* 10,2*r* 12,…,4*r* 11

*a*8*r* *k* 1

.

1

4*r* *k* 3

 *a*

2

8*r* *k*

*a*

From Lemma 3.14.5,

*a*4*r* *i*  *y*

7  *i*  2*r*  6

thus,

*a*4*r* *i*3  *y*

10  *i*  2*r*  9

*a*8*r* *k* 1

1

4*r* *k* 3

 *a*

2

8*r* *k*

*a*

 *y*1 *y*2  *y*

as required.

It is now clear from lemmas 3.14.5 to 3.14.7 and equations 3.13 to

3.16

that the map:  defined from the first 2 generators of

*F* 4*r*  3, 8*r*  8

onto the two generators of *Dn*

is indeed morphism onto *Dn*

## THE FIBONACCI GROUP

*F* 4*r*  5,

8*r* 12

Consider the Fibonacci group

*F* 4*r*  5, 8*r* 12  *a*1 , *a*2 ,…, *a*8*r* 12 *ai ai*1 ⋯*ai*4*r* 4  *ai*4*r* 5

*i*  1,2,…,8*r*  12 

where subscripts are taken modulo 8*r* 12 if necessary.

### Lemma

For all

*k*  5

and

*r*  0 .

*a*. *a*  *a*1 *a*2 ;

4*r* *k k* 6 4*r* *k* 1

*b*. *a*  *a*1 *a*2 . ;

6*r* *k* 2*r* *k* 6 6*r* *k* 1

*c* *a*

8*r* *k*

1

4*r* *k* 6

 *a*

2

8*r* *k* 1

*a*

. .

### Proof

We proof this lemma in a similar way we prove lemma 3.14.3.

*a*.

*a*4*r* *k*  *ak* 5*ak* 4 ⋯ *a*4*r* *k* 2 *a*4*r* *k* 1

1

 *a*

*k* 6

(*ak* 6

*ak* 5

⋯ *a*4*r* *k* 2

)*a*4*r* *k* 1

 *a* 1 *a* 2 .

*k* 6 4*r* *k* 1

. *b* *a*6*r* *k*  *a*2*r* *k* 5 *a*2*r* *k* 4 ⋯ *a*6*r* *k* 1

*a*6*r* *k*

1

2*r* *k* 6

 *a*

(*a*2*r* *k* 6

*a*2*r* *k* 5

⋯ *a*6*r* *k* 2

)*a*6*r* *k* 1

1

 *a*

2*r* *k* 6

2

6*r* *k* 1

*a*

.

. *c*

*a*8*r* *k*  *a*4*r* *k* 5 ⋯ *a*8*r* *k* 2 *a*8*r* *k* 1

1

 *a*

4*r* *k* 6

(*a*4*r* *k* 6

*a*4*r* *k* 5

⋯ *a*8*r* *k* 2

)*a*8*r* *k* 1

1

 *a*

4*r* *k* 6

2

8*r* *k* 1

*a*

.

We now give the main result of this section.

### Proposition

There exist a morphism from

*F* 4*r*  5, 8*r* 12

onto

*Dn*  *for all*

*n*  3.

Hence

*F* 4*r*  5, 8*r* 12 . is infinite.

We carry out the proof in a similar way we prove

*F* 4*r*  3, 8*r*  8 We

consider the case of

*r*  0

first, then *r* 1.

We define a mapping from the first 5 generators of

*F* 5,12

onto the two

generators of *Dn* by

*a*1 , *a*3  *x*

and

*ai*  *y*

*i*  2,4,5

(3.17).

Then we immediately see that

*a*6  *a*1

*a*2 *a*3

*a*4 *a*5

 *xyxy*2  *y*3  *y*.

(3.18) .

### Lemma

If *r*  0

then, the following mappings hold in

*F* 5,12

*a*. *a*7 , *a*9

*b*. *a*8 , *a*10

 *xn*1;

 *x*2 *y*;

*c*. *a*11, *a*12  *y*.

### Proof

We shall apply Lemma 3.15.1 to prove *a* and *b*

*a* *a*

 *a* 1 *a* 2

*k k* 6 *k* 1

*a*  *a* 1*a* 2  *x* 1 *y*2  *xn*1.

7 1 6

The proof of *a*9 follows from the same argument

*b**a*

 *a* 1 *a* 2

*k k* 6 *k* 1

*a*  *a* 1*a* 2  *y* 1 *xn*1 2  *x* 2 *y*.

8 2 7

The proof of *a*10 follows from the same argument

*d* *a*

 *a* 1 *a* 2

*k k* 6 *k* 1

*a*  *a* 1*a* 2

 *y* 1 *x* 2 *y*2  *y*.

11 5 10

The proof of *a*12 follows from the same argument

### Lemma

If *r*  0

then the following mappings hold in

*F* 5,12

*a* *a*13 , *a*15  *x*

*b* *ak*  *y*

*k*  14,16 *and* 17

### Proof

*a* *a*

 *a* 1 *a* 2

*k k* 6 *k* 1

*a*  *a* 1*a* 2

*xn*1 1 *y*2  *x*.

13 7 12

The proof of

*a*15

follows from the same argument

*b**a*

 *a* 1 *a* 2

*k k* 6 *k* 1

*a*  *a* 1*a* 2  *x* 2 *y*1 *x*2  *y*.

14 8 13

The proof of

*ak* , *k*  16 *and* 17

follows from the same argument

We now consider the case of *r* 1.We define a mapping from the first

4*r*  5

generators of

*F* 4*r*  5, 8*r* 12

onto the two generators of *Dn*

*a*1 , *a*2*r* 3  *x*

and

*ai*  *y*

*i*  2,3,…,2*r*  2,2*r*  4,…,4*r*  5.

(3.19).

Then we immediately see that

*a*4*r* 6

 *a*1 *a*2

⋯*a*4*r* 5

 *xy* 2*r* 1 *xy* 2*r* 2 

*y* 4*r* 3  *y*.

(3.20) .

### Lemma

For *r*  1 .

*a* 

*n*1

*a*  *x*

4*r* 7

*b*

2

*a*  *x y*

4*r* 8

*c*

*a*4*r* *i*  *y*

9  *i*  2*r*  8

### Proof

We shall apply lemma 3.15.1 and equation 3.19 and 3.20 to prove *a*

*b*

and *c*

*a*  *a*

 *a* 1 *a* 2

4*r* *k*

*a*

*k* 6

 *a* 1*a* 2

4*r* *k* 1

 *x* 1 *y*2  *xn*1

4*r* 7 1 4*r* 6

*b**a*

 *a* 1 *a* 2

4*r* *k*

*a*

*k* 6

 *a* 1*a* 2

4*r* *k* 1

 *y* 1 *xn*1 2  *x* 2 *y*

4*r* 8 2 4*r* 7

(c)We use induction on *i*  *k* .

Basis step: By lemma 3.15.1 and equation 3.19

and 3.20, we see that for

*k*  9

*a*  *a* 1*a* 2

 *y* 1 *x*2 *y*2  *y*.

4*r* 9 3 4*r* 8

Induction step: suppose that

*a*4*r* *k*  *y*

9  *k*  2*rt*  7.

Then using Lemma 3.15.1 again, we see that

*a*  *a* 1 *a* 2  *y* 1 *y* 2  *y*,

4*r* *k* 1

*k* 5

4*r* *k*

as required.

### Lemma

For *r*  1

*a* *a*6*r* 9

*b* *a*6*r* 10

 *xn*1

 *x*2 *y*

*c* *a*6*r* *i*  *y*

11  *i*  2*r* 12

### Proof

We shall apply lemma 3.15.1 and equation 3.19 and 3.20 to prove *a*

*b* and *c*

(a)

*a*6*r* 9

1

2*r* 3

 *a*

2

6*r* 8

*a*

 *x* 1 *y*2  *xn*1

(b)

*a*6*r* 10

1

2*r* 4

 *a*

*a*6*r* 9

 *y* 1 *xn*1 2  *x* 2 *y*

(c) the assertion may be proved by induction on *i*  *k* .

Basis step: for *k*  11 we see that

*a*6*r* 11

1

2*r* 5

 *a*

2

6*r* 10

*a*

 *y* 1 *x* 2 *y*2  *y*.

Induction step: suppose that

*a*6 *r* *k*  *y*

11  *k*  2*r* 11

Then using Lemma 3.15.1 again, we see that

*a*6*r* *k* 1

1

2*r* 5*k*

 *a*

2

6*r* *k*

*a*

Since

*k*  10

it is clear that

(2r - 5) + k > 2r + 3

also

*a*  *xn*1 , hence

*a*6*r*  *k* 1

6*r* *k*

1

2*r* 5*k*

 *a*

2

6*r* *k*

*a*

 *y* 1 *y* 2  *y*.

as required.

### Lemma

*a*

*a*8*r* *i* 

*x i*  13, *and*

2*r* 15

*b*

*a*8*r*  *j*

 *y j* 14,15,…, 2*r* 14, 2*r* 16,…, 4*r* 17

### Proof

We shall apply lemma 3.15.1 and equation 3.19 and 3.20 to prove *a*

and *b* .

*a*

*If i*  *k*  13

*a*8*r* *k*

1

4*r* *k* 6

 *a*

2

8*r* *k* 1

*a*

.

*a*8*r* 13

1

4*r* 7

 *a*

2

8*r* 12

*a*

 *xn*1 1 *y*2  *x*

*If i*  2*r* 15

*a*  *a* 1 *a* 2

8*r* 2*r* 15 4*r* 2*r* 156 8*r* 2*r* 14

1

 *a*

6*r* 9

2

2*r* 2

*a*

 *xn*1 1 *y*2  *x*

(c) Here we use induction on *j*  *k* .

Basis step: For

*j*  14

we have,

*a*8*r* *k*

1

4*r* *k* 6

 *a*

2

8*r* *k* 1

*a*

.

*a*8*r* 14

1

4*r* 14

 *a*

2

8*r* 14 1

*a*

*a*(8*r* 12)2

1

4*r* 8

 *a*

2

8*r* 12 1

*a*

 *x*2 *y*1 *x*2  *y*.

Induction step: suppose that

*a*8*r*  *j*  *y*

*j* 14,15,…, 2*r* 14,2*r* 16,…, 4*r* 16

*a*8*r* *k* 1

1

4*r* *k* 6

 *a*

2

8*r* *k*

*a*

From Lemma 3.15.5,

*a*4*r*  *j*  *y*

9  *j*  2*r*  8

thus,

*a*4*r*  *j* 6  *y*

15 

*j*  2*r*  14

*a*8*r* *k* 1

1

4*r* *k* 6

 *a*

2

8*r* *k*

*a*

 *y* 1 *y* 2  *y*.

as required.

**CHAPTER FOUR**

**SUMMARY OF RESULTS, CONTRIBUTIONS AND AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEACH**

* 1. **SUMMARY OF RESULTS**

We have, in this thesis, accomplished the following:

1. We obtained and discussed formulae for the number of even permutations (of an *n* -element set) having exactly *k* fixed points in the alternating group.
2. We obtained generating functions for the number of even permutations having exactly *k* fixed points in alternating group.
3. We also obtained similar results (as in 1 and 2 above) for the number of odd permutations having exactly *k* fixed points and their generating functions in the alternating group.
4. We give a geometric proof for the number of even (odd) permutations (of an

*n* -element set) having exactly *k* fixed points in the dihedral group.

1. We give an algebraic proof in line of Catarino and Higgins (1999) for the number of even (odd) permutations having exactly *k* fixed points, in the

dihedral group.

1. We proved the three families:

*F* 2*r*,4*r*  2,

*F* 4*r*  3,8*r*  8

and

*F* 4*r*  5,8*r*  12

of the Fibonacci groups

*F* *m* , *n*

to be infinite by defining

morphism between Dihedral groups and the Fibonacci groups.

1. We give an alternative prove of the Cauchy’s formula

*f* *m* , *n* for be the

number of permutations of

*Xn* that can be express as a product of

*ri* *m*  *i* 1, *i*  1, 2, ⋯, *m* 1

cycles.

## CONTRIBUTIONS TO KNOWLEDGE

1. We obtained and discussed formulae for the number of even and odd

permutations (of an *n*  element set) having exactly *k* fixed points in the

alternating group and the generating functions for the fixed points.

1. We give two different proofs of the number of even and odd permutations

(of an *n*  element set) having exactly *k* fixed points in the dihedral group, one

geometric and the other algebraic. In the algebraic proof, however, we further obtain the formulae for determining the fixed points.

1. We proved the three families;

*F* 2*r*,4*r*  2,

*F* 4*r*  3,8*r*  8

and

*F* 4*r*  5,8*r*  12

of the Fibonacci groups

*F* *m* , *n*

to be infinite by defining

Morphism between Dihedral groups and the Fibonacci groups.

1. We give an alternative prove of the Cauchy’s formula for the number permutations with a given cycle structure.

## AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEACH

1. The new method we introduced may be tested for the two families

*F* 7  5*i*, 5

and

*F* 8  5*i*, 5

for integers

*i*  0

that remain unsettled by creating

morphism between the Fibonacci groups and a suitable permutation group

1. There is room for further research in the determination of more combinatorial properties of the permutation groups we discussed and other permutation groups.
2. The study of classification of transitive *p* groups of degree say *pm* in line

with Audu (1986a) can be considered, by obtaining the number of *k* fixed

points and the generating functions for the fixed points of transitive *p* groups

of degree say *pm* .

1. The study of permutations as even(odd) according to its length can be considered using number of fixed points.
2. The number of even (odd) permutations with a given cycle structure.
3. The number of cycle structures in a given permutation.

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