

## Generating the Subgroup Representations and Actions of Finite Groups on Signal Space

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**ABSTRACT:** This paper aimed at determining all subgroups representations of the Symmetric group  $S_5$  up to Isomorphism using Sylow's theorem and Lagrange's theorem. It was vividly described and derived 156 subgroups of  $S_5$  and their conjugacy class size and Isomorphism class. The generated representations are used as actions on signal space which produced output for every corresponding input signal. Hence, the subgroup representations act on the signal space by conjugation. The derived subgroups can be used to determine the number of Fuzzy subgroups of the symmetric group  $S_5$  for further research.

**Keywords:** Finite groups, subgroups, representations, group action, signal space.

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### I. INTRODUCTION

Given any set  $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ , the set  $\text{Sym}(X)$  of all permutations of  $X$  is a group under composition, and the subset  $\text{Alt}(X)$  of even permutations of  $X$  is a group under composition. Since the elements of  $X$  are in definite order, we think of  $\text{Sym}(X)$  as  $S_n$  and  $\text{Alt}(X)$  as  $A_n$ . The Dihedral group  $D_n$  is considered as a group of permutations of a regular  $n$ -gon, since the rigid motions of the vertices determine the new position of the  $n$ -gon. Hence, the Symmetric Groups  $S_n$ , Alternating Groups  $A_n$  and Dihedral Groups  $D_n$  for  $n \geq 3$ , all behave as permutations on certain sets. If the vertices of the  $n$ -gon is labeled in a definite manner by the numbers from 1 to  $n$ , then  $D_n$  can be viewed as a subgroup of  $S_n$ .

Let  $G$  be a group (finite or infinite) and let  $X$  be a set. Then an action of  $G$  on  $X$  can be defined as a function  $G \times X \rightarrow X$  denoted by  $(g, x) \rightarrow g \cdot x$  such that  $1 \cdot x = x$  and  $(gh) \cdot x = g \cdot (h \cdot x)$ . In fact, an action of  $G$  on  $X$  is equivalent to a group homomorphism (also a **representation**)  $\rho: G \rightarrow A(X)$ . Equivalently, given an action  $G \times X \rightarrow X$ , define a group homomorphism  $\rho: G \rightarrow A(X)$  by the rule  $\rho(g) = \sigma: X \rightarrow X$ , where  $\sigma(x) = g \cdot x$  and given a representation (called a group homomorphism)  $\rho: G \rightarrow A(X)$ , define an action  $G \times X \rightarrow X$  by the rule  $g \cdot x = \rho(g)(x)$ . The basic idea of group action is that the elements of the group are viewed as permutations of a set in such a way that composition of the corresponding permutations matches multiplication in the original group.

### II. PRELIMINARIES

**Definition 2.1:** Let  $G$  be a group and let  $N$  be a proper normal subgroup of  $G$ . Then  $N$  is called maximal subgroup of  $G$  if there does not exist any proper normal subgroup  $M$  of  $G$  such that  $N \leq M \leq G$  [1].

**Definition 2.2:** A subgroup  $N$  of  $G$  is said to be a normal subgroup of  $G$  if for every  $g \in G$  and  $n \in N$ ,  $gng^{-1} \in N$  [2].

**Definition 2.3:** A homomorphism  $\varphi: G \rightarrow K$  from a group  $G$  to a group  $K$  is a function with the property that  $\varphi(g_1 * g_2) = \varphi(g_1) * \varphi(g_2)$  for all  $g_1, g_2 \in G$ , where  $*$  denotes the group operation on  $G$  and on  $K$  [3].

**Definition 2.4:** An isomorphism  $\varphi: G \rightarrow K$  between two groups  $G$  and  $K$  is a homomorphism that is also a bijection mapping  $G$  onto  $K$ . Two groups  $G$  and  $K$  are isomorphic if there exists an isomorphism mapping  $G$  onto  $K$ , written as  $G \cong K$ . While an automorphism is an isomorphism mapping a group onto itself [4].

**Theorem 2.5:** (Lagrange's Theorem) If  $G$  is a finite group and  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , then order of  $H$  is a divisor of order of  $G$  [5].

**Theorem 2.6:** If  $G$  is a finite group and  $x \in G$ , then order of  $x$  is a divisor of order of  $G$  [2].

**Theorem 2.7:** (Cauchy's Theorem) Let  $G$  be a finite group and let  $p$  be a prime number that divides the order of  $G$ . Then  $G$  contains an element of order  $p$  [6].

**Theorem 2.8:** (Cayley): Every finite group  $G$  can be embedded in a symmetric group [6].

**Theorem 2.9:** (The First Sylow Theorem) Let  $G$  be a finite group and let  $|G| = p^n m$  where  $n \geq 1$ ,  $p$  is a prime number and  $(p, m) = 1$ . Then  $G$  contains a subgroup of order  $p^k$  for each  $k$  where  $1 \leq k \leq n$  [7].

**Definition 2.10:** Let  $G$  be a finite group and let  $|G| = p^n m$  where  $n \geq 1$ ,  $p$  is a prime number and  $(p, m) = 1$ . The subgroup of  $G$  of order  $p^n$  is called the Sylow  $p$ -subgroup of  $G$  [8].

**Theorem 2.11:** Let  $G$  be a group of order  $pq$ , where  $p$  and  $q$  are distinct primes and  $p < q$ . Then  $G$  has only one subgroup of order  $q$ . This subgroup of order  $q$  is normal in  $G$  [8].

**Definition 2.12:** A non-trivial group  $G$  is said to be simple if the only normal subgroups of  $G$  are the whole of  $G$  and the trivial subgroup  $\{e\}$  whose only element is the identity element  $e$  of  $G$  [6].

**Definition 2.13:** Let  $X$  be a non-empty set and  $G$  be a group. A left action of  $G$  on the set  $X$  is defined as a map  $G \times X \rightarrow X$  given by  $(g, x) \rightarrow gx$  such that

- i.  $i \cdot x = x$  for all  $x \in X$  and
- ii.  $(g_1 g_2)x = g_1(g_2 x)$  for all  $x \in X$  and  $g_1, g_2 \in G$ .

Under these considerations, the set  $X$  is called a  $G$ -set.

**Theorem 2.14:** The action of any group  $G$  on a set  $X$  is the same as group homomorphism from  $G$  to  $\text{Sym}(X)$ , the group of permutations of  $X$ .

**Definition 2.15:** (Signal Space): If signal can be represented by  $n$ -tuple, then it can be treated in much the same way as  $n$ -dimensional vector space. Hence, the  $n$ -dimensional Euclidean space is called Signal space.

### III. METHODOLOGY

In this section, the method used in generating the subgroup representations of a finite group  $S_n$ ,  $n = 5$  is presented. Let  $G = S_5$ . Then the one-headed group  $G$  is the group of permutations of the set  $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ , i.e., the set of all bijections  $\sigma : S \rightarrow S$  defined by  $\sigma(a_i) = a_j; i, j \leq 5$ . The collection of all such bijections give rise to a group of order 120 as follows:

$$G = \{i, \rho_1, \rho_2, \dots, \rho_{10}, \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_{20}, \tau_1, \tau_2, \dots, \tau_{30}, \gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_{15}, \beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_{24}, \delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_{20}\}.$$

The elements are listed as follows:

$i = (1) =$  the identity permutation;

$\rho_1 = (4\ 5), \rho_2 = (3\ 5), \rho_3 = (3\ 4), \rho_4 = (2\ 5), \rho_5 = (2\ 3), \rho_6 = (2\ 4), \rho_7 = (1\ 5), \rho_8 = (1\ 4), \rho_9 = (1\ 3), \rho_{10} = (1\ 2);$   
 $\sigma_1 = (1\ 2\ 3), \sigma_2 = (1\ 3\ 2), \sigma_3 = (1\ 2\ 4), \sigma_4 = (1\ 4\ 2), \sigma_5 = (1\ 2\ 5), \sigma_6 = (1\ 5\ 2), \sigma_7 = (1\ 3\ 4), \sigma_8 = (1\ 4\ 3), \sigma_9 = (1\ 4\ 5), \sigma_{10} = (1\ 5\ 4), \sigma_{11} = (1\ 3\ 5), \sigma_{12} = (1\ 5\ 3), \sigma_{13} = (2\ 3\ 4), \sigma_{14} = (2\ 4\ 3), \sigma_{15} = (2\ 3\ 5), \sigma_{16} = (2\ 5\ 3), \sigma_{17} = (2\ 4\ 5), \sigma_{18} = (2\ 5\ 4), \sigma_{19} = (3\ 4\ 5), \sigma_{20} = (3\ 5\ 4);$

$\tau_1 = (2\ 3\ 4\ 5), \tau_2 = (2\ 5\ 4\ 3), \tau_3 = (2\ 3\ 5\ 4), \tau_4 = (2\ 4\ 5\ 3), \tau_5 = (2\ 4\ 3\ 5), \tau_6 = (2\ 5\ 3\ 4), \tau_7 = (1\ 2\ 3\ 4), \tau_8 = (1\ 4\ 3\ 2), \tau_9 = (1\ 2\ 3\ 5), \tau_{10} = (1\ 5\ 3\ 2), \tau_{11} = (1\ 2\ 4\ 3), \tau_{12} = (1\ 3\ 4\ 2), \tau_{13} = (1\ 2\ 4\ 5), \tau_{14} = (1\ 5\ 4\ 2), \tau_{15} = (1\ 2\ 5\ 3), \tau_{16} = (1\ 3\ 5\ 2), \tau_{17} = (1\ 2\ 5\ 4), \tau_{18} = (1\ 4\ 5\ 2), \tau_{19} = (1\ 3\ 4\ 5), \tau_{20} = (1\ 5\ 4\ 3), \tau_{21} = (1\ 3\ 5\ 4), \tau_{22} = (1\ 4\ 5\ 3), \tau_{23} = (1\ 3\ 2\ 4), \tau_{24} = (1\ 4\ 2\ 3), \tau_{25} = (1\ 3\ 2\ 5), \tau_{26} = (1\ 5\ 2\ 3), \tau_{27} = (1\ 4\ 3\ 5), \tau_{28} = (1\ 5\ 3\ 4), \tau_{29} = (1\ 4\ 2\ 5), \tau_{30} = (1\ 5\ 2\ 4);$

$\gamma_1 = (2\ 4)(3\ 5), \gamma_2 = (2\ 5)(3\ 4), \gamma_3 = (2\ 3)(4\ 5), \gamma_4 = (1\ 3)(2\ 4), \gamma_5 = (1\ 3)(2\ 5), \gamma_6 = (1\ 4)(2\ 3), \gamma_7 = (1\ 4)(2\ 5), \gamma_8 = (1\ 5)(2\ 3), \gamma_9 = (1\ 5)(2\ 4), \gamma_{10} = (1\ 4)(3\ 5), \gamma_{11} = (1\ 5)(3\ 4), \gamma_{12} = (1\ 2)(3\ 4), \gamma_{13} = (1\ 2)(3\ 5), \gamma_{14} = (1\ 3)(4\ 5), \gamma_{15} = (1\ 2)(4\ 5);$

$\beta_1 = (1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5), \beta_2 = (1\ 3\ 5\ 2\ 4), \beta_3 = (1\ 4\ 2\ 5\ 3), \beta_4 = (1\ 5\ 4\ 3\ 2), \beta_5 = (1\ 2\ 3\ 5\ 4), \beta_6 = (1\ 3\ 4\ 2\ 5), \beta_7 = (1\ 5\ 2\ 4\ 3), \beta_8 = (1\ 4\ 5\ 3\ 2), \beta_9 = (1\ 2\ 4\ 5\ 3), \beta_{10} = (1\ 4\ 3\ 2\ 5), \beta_{11} = (1\ 5\ 2\ 3\ 4), \beta_{12} = (1\ 3\ 5\ 4\ 2), \beta_{13} = (1\ 2\ 4\ 3\ 5), \beta_{14} = (1\ 4\ 5\ 2\ 3), \beta_{15} = (1\ 3\ 2\ 5\ 4), \beta_{16} = (1\ 5\ 3\ 4\ 2), \beta_{17} = (1\ 2\ 5\ 4\ 3), \beta_{18} = (1\ 5\ 3\ 2\ 4), \beta_{19} = (1\ 4\ 2\ 3\ 5), \beta_{20} = (1\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 2), \beta_{21} = (1\ 2\ 5\ 3\ 4), \beta_{22} = (1\ 5\ 4\ 2\ 3), \beta_{23} = (1\ 3\ 2\ 4\ 5), \beta_{24} = (1\ 4\ 3\ 5\ 2);$

$\delta_1 = (1\ 2\ 3)(4\ 5), \delta_2 = (1\ 3\ 2)(4\ 5), \delta_3 = (1\ 2\ 4)(3\ 5), \delta_4 = (1\ 4\ 2)(3\ 5), \delta_5 = (1\ 2\ 5)(3\ 4), \delta_6 = (1\ 5\ 2)(4\ 5), \delta_7 = (1\ 3\ 4)(2\ 5), \delta_8 = (1\ 4\ 3)(2\ 5), \delta_9 = (1\ 4\ 5)(2\ 3), \delta_{10} = (1\ 5\ 4)(2\ 3), \delta_{11} = (1\ 3\ 5)(2\ 4), \delta_{12} = (1\ 5\ 3)(2\ 4), \delta_{13} = (1\ 5)(2\ 3\ 4), \delta_{14} = (1\ 5)(2\ 4\ 3), \delta_{15} = (1\ 4)(2\ 3\ 5), \delta_{16} = (1\ 4)(2\ 5\ 3), \delta_{17} = (1\ 3)(2\ 4\ 5), \delta_{18} = (1\ 3)(2\ 5\ 4), \delta_{19} = (1\ 2)(3\ 4\ 5), \delta_{20} = (1\ 2)(3\ 5\ 4);$

Now, the order of an element  $x$  of a group  $G$  is the least positive integer  $n$  for which  $x^n = i$ , the identity element of  $G$ . Here,  $x^n$  represents  $x \cdot x \cdot x \dots \cdot x$   $n$ -times. Then writing the elements of  $G$  in the form  $x^n$ , we classify them according to their order as follows: Note that the order of each  $x \in G$  divides the order of  $G$  (Theorem 2.6).

**Table 1: Order of elements of  $G$**

Order	Elements	Formula Calculating Element Order
1	$i$	$\text{LCM}\{1\}$
2	$\rho_1, \rho_2, \rho_3, \rho_4, \rho_5, \rho_6, \rho_7, \rho_8, \rho_9, \rho_{10}, \gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_3, \gamma_4, \gamma_5, \gamma_6, \gamma_7, \gamma_8, \gamma_9, \gamma_{10}, \gamma_{11}, \gamma_{12}, \gamma_{13}, \gamma_{14}, \gamma_{15}$	$\text{LCM}\{2,1\}$
3	$\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3, \sigma_4, \sigma_5, \sigma_6, \sigma_7, \sigma_8, \sigma_9, \sigma_{10}, \sigma_{11}, \sigma_{12}, \sigma_{13}, \sigma_{14}, \sigma_{15}, \sigma_{16}, \sigma_{17}, \sigma_{18}, \sigma_{19}, \sigma_{20}$	$\text{LCM}\{3,1\}$
4	$\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_3, \tau_4, \tau_5, \tau_6, \tau_7, \tau_8, \tau_9, \tau_{10}, \tau_{11}, \tau_{12}, \tau_{13}, \tau_{14}, \tau_{15}, \tau_{16}, \tau_{17}, \tau_{18}, \tau_{19}, \tau_{20}, \tau_{21}, \tau_{22}, \tau_{23}, \tau_{24}, \tau_{25}, \tau_{26}, \tau_{27}, \tau_{28}, \tau_{29}, \tau_{30}$	$\text{LCM}\{4,1\}$
5	$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5, \beta_6, \beta_7, \beta_8, \beta_9, \beta_{10}, \beta_{11}, \beta_{12}, \beta_{13}, \beta_{14}, \beta_{15}, \beta_{16}, \beta_{17}, \beta_{18}, \beta_{19}, \beta_{20}, \beta_{21}, \beta_{22}, \beta_{23}, \beta_{24}$	$\text{LCM}\{5,1\}$
6	$\delta_1, \delta_2, \delta_3, \delta_4, \delta_5, \delta_6, \delta_7, \delta_8, \delta_9, \delta_{10}, \delta_{11}, \delta_{12}, \delta_{13}, \delta_{14}, \delta_{15}, \delta_{16}, \delta_{17}, \delta_{18}, \delta_{19}, \delta_{20}$	$\text{LCM}\{2,3\}$

### 3.1 SUBGROUP PRESENTATIONS OF G

According to Lagrange's theorem (Theorem 2.5), the order of any non-trivial subgroup of G divides the order of G. Hence, all the subgroup representations of G are determined and their isomorphism class as analysed by Samaila, 2013 [9].

Obviously, the only subgroup of G of order 1 is the trivial subgroup  $G_1 = \{i\}$ , whose only element is the identity element.

#### 3.1.1 Subgroups of order 2

Let H be arbitrary subgroup of G of order 2. Since 2 is a prime number, H is cyclic. Hence, H is generated by an element of G of order 2. Thus all subgroups of G of order 2, isomorphic to the cyclic group  $Z_2$  are:

$$H_k = \{i, \rho_j : 1 \leq j \leq 10\} = \langle \rho_j \rangle; 2 \leq k \leq 11, \text{ (for each } j, H_k \cong S_2), \text{ and}$$

$H_k = \{i, \gamma_j : 1 \leq j \leq 15\} = \langle \gamma_j \rangle; 12 \leq k \leq 26,$  (subgroups generated by double transpositions in  $S_5$ ).

#### 3.1.2 Subgroups of order 3

Subgroups of G of order 3 are generated by the elements of G of order 3. Thus, these subgroups of order 3, isomorphic to the cyclic group  $Z_3$  are

$$L_k = \{i, \sigma_j, \sigma_{j+1} : \sigma_j^{-1} = \sigma_{j+1}; 1 \leq j \leq 19\} = \langle \sigma_j \rangle = \langle \sigma_{j+1} \rangle; 27 \leq k \leq 36.$$

Note that if  $\sigma_j^{-1} = \sigma_{j+1}$ , then  $j = j+2$  for the next k.  $L_k$  is cyclic since 3 is prime.

#### 3.1.3 Subgroups of order 4

Let M be arbitrary subgroup of G of order 4. Then by Theorem 2.5, elements of M must have order 1, 2 or 4. Hence if M consists of elements of order 4, then M is generated by an element of order 4. Thus, we obtained

$$M_k = \{i, \tau_j, \gamma_{(j+1)/2}, \tau_{j+1} : \tau_j^{-1} = \tau_{j+1}; j = 1, 3, \dots, 29\} = \langle \tau_j \rangle = \langle \tau_{j+1} \rangle; 37 \leq k \leq 51.$$

There are also subgroups of G of order 4 generated by pair of disjoint transpositions in G as follows:

$$M_{52} = \{i, \rho_2, \rho_6, \gamma_1\}, M_{53} = \{i, \rho_3, \rho_4, \gamma_2\}, M_{54} = \{i, \rho_1, \rho_5, \gamma_3\}, M_{55} = \{i, \rho_6, \rho_9, \gamma_4\}, M_{56} = \{i, \rho_4, \rho_9, \gamma_5\}, M_{57} = \{i, \rho_5, \rho_8, \gamma_6\}, M_{58} = \{i, \rho_4, \rho_8, \gamma_7\}, M_{59} = \{i, \rho_5, \rho_7, \gamma_8\}, M_{60} = \{i, \rho_6, \rho_7, \gamma_9\}, M_{61} = \{i, \rho_2, \rho_8, \gamma_{10}\}, M_{62} = \{i, \rho_3, \rho_7, \gamma_{11}\}, M_{63} = \{i, \rho_3, \rho_{10}, \gamma_{12}\}, M_{64} = \{i, \rho_2, \rho_{10}, \gamma_{13}\}, M_{65} = \{i, \rho_1, \rho_9, \gamma_{14}\}, M_{66} = \{i, \rho_1, \rho_{10}, \gamma_{15}\}.$$

Furthermore, 5 other subgroups of G of order 4 are generated by double transpositions on four elements, i.e.  $M_k$  for  $67 \leq k \leq 71$ .

#### 3.1.4 Subgroups of order 5

Let N be a subgroup of  $S_5$  of order 5. Since 5 is a prime number, the subgroup N is cyclic and is generated by an element of  $S_5$  of order 5. Hence, there are 6 such subgroups given by

$$N_k = \{i, \beta_j, \beta_{j+1}, \beta_{j+2}, \beta_{j+3}\} = \langle \beta_j \rangle = \langle \beta_{j+1} \rangle = \langle \beta_{j+2} \rangle = \langle \beta_{j+3} \rangle; 72 \leq k \leq 77.$$

#### 3.1.5 Subgroups of order 6

If P is an arbitrary subgroup of G of order 6, then we generate from the  $\delta^s$ , the following subgroups, isomorphic to the cyclic group  $Z_6$ ;

$$P_k = \{i, \delta_{2j-1}, \sigma_{2j}, \rho_j, \sigma_{2j-1}, \delta_{2j} : \delta_{2j}^{-1} = \delta_{2j-1}, \sigma_{2j}^{-1} = \sigma_{2j-1}; 1 \leq j \leq 10\} \\ = \langle \delta_{2j} \rangle = \langle \delta_{2j-1} \rangle; 78 \leq k \leq 87.$$

Again by Sylow's theorem (Theorem 2.9), since  $6 = 2 * 3$ , other subgroups of G of order 6 can be generated from the product of the elements of G of order 2 with those elements of order 3. i.e.  $\rho^s$  and  $\sigma^s$  given by

$$\{i, \sigma_1, \alpha_1, \sigma_2, \delta_1, \delta_2\}, \{i, \sigma_3, \alpha_2, \sigma_4, \delta_3, \delta_4\}, \dots, \{i, \sigma_{19}, \alpha_{10}, \sigma_{20}, \delta_{19}, \delta_{20}\}.$$

Hence,

$$P_k = \{i, \sigma_{2j-1}, \alpha_j, \sigma_{2j}, \delta_{2j-1}, \delta_{2j} : \sigma_{2j}^{-1} = \sigma_{2j-1}; \delta_{2j}^{-1} = \delta_{2j-1}; 1 \leq j \leq 10\}; 88 \leq k \leq 97.$$

Also,  $S_3$  is obviously a subset of  $S_5$ . Thus, there are subgroups generated by each of the following set of elements:

$$(1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 2\ 4), (1\ 2\ 5), (1\ 3\ 4), (1\ 3\ 5), (1\ 4\ 5), (2\ 3\ 4), (2\ 3\ 5), (2\ 4\ 5) \text{ and } (3\ 4\ 5).$$

Hence, we generate 10 such subgroups of  $S_5$  of order 6, isomorphic to  $S_3$  i.e.  $P_k$  such that  $98 \leq k \leq 107$ .

#### 3.1.6 Subgroups of order 8

Since 8 is a multiple of 2 and 4, elements of the subgroup of order 8 must have orders 2 or 4, except the identity. Consider the set of permutations

$$Q = \{i, (2\ 3\ 4\ 5), (2\ 5\ 4\ 3), (2\ 4)(3\ 5), (2\ 4), (3\ 5), (2\ 3)(4\ 5), (2\ 5)(3\ 4)\}, \text{ i.e.}$$

$$Q = \{i, \tau_1, \tau_2, \gamma_1, \rho_6, \rho_2, \gamma_3, \gamma_2\}$$

Obviously, this is a subgroup of  $S_5$  of order 8. To see this, let us construct a multiplication table of  $Q \times Q$  as follows.

**Table 2:** Multiplication table of  $Q \times Q$ .

*	i	$\tau_1$	$\tau_2$	$\gamma_1$	$\rho_6$	$\rho_2$	$\gamma_3$	$\gamma_2$
i	i	$\tau_1$	$\tau_2$	$\gamma_1$	$\rho_6$	$\rho_2$	$\gamma_3$	$\gamma_2$
$\tau_1$	$\tau_1$	$\gamma_1$	i	$\tau_2$	$\gamma_3$	$\gamma_2$	$\rho_2$	$\rho_6$
$\tau_2$	$\tau_2$	i	$\gamma_1$	$\tau_1$	$\gamma_2$	$\gamma_3$	$\rho_6$	$\rho_2$
$\gamma_1$	$\gamma_1$	$\tau_2$	$\tau_1$	i	$\rho_2$	$\rho_6$	$\gamma_2$	$\gamma_3$
$\rho_6$	$\rho_6$	$\gamma_2$	$\gamma_3$	$\rho_2$	i	$\gamma_1$	$\tau_2$	$\tau_1$
$\rho_2$	$\rho_2$	$\gamma_3$	$\gamma_2$	$\rho_6$	$\gamma_1$	i	$\tau_1$	$\tau_2$
$\gamma_3$	$\gamma_3$	$\rho_6$	$\rho_2$	$\gamma_2$	$\tau_1$	$\tau_2$	i	$\gamma_1$
$\gamma_2$	$\gamma_2$	$\rho_2$	$\rho_6$	$\gamma_3$	$\tau_2$	$\tau_1$	$\gamma_1$	i

Clearly, from Table 2 above, the set  $Q$  is a subgroup of  $S_5$  of order 8. By constructing such subgroups from the combinations of  $\tau_j^{s_5}$ ,  $\gamma_j^{s_5}$  and  $\rho_j^{s_5}$ , 15 subgroups of  $S_5$  of order 8, isomorphic to the Dihedral group  $D_8$  are obtained. i.e.  $Q_k$  such that  $108 \leq k \leq 122$ .

### 3.1.7 Subgroups of order 10

Let  $R$  be arbitrary subgroup of  $S_5$  of order 10. Now, consider the elements  $(1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5)$  of order 5 and the transposition  $(2\ 5)(3\ 4)$  of order 2 (since  $10 = 2 * 5$ ). Then

$$R_k = \langle (1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5), (2\ 5)(3\ 4) \rangle = \langle \beta_1, \gamma_2 \rangle$$

$$= \{i, (1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5), (2\ 5)(3\ 4), (1\ 3\ 5\ 2\ 4), (1\ 4\ 2\ 5\ 3), (1\ 5)(2\ 4), (1\ 4)(2\ 3), (1\ 5\ 4\ 3\ 2), (1\ 3)(4\ 5), (1\ 2)(3\ 5)\}. \text{ i.e.}$$

$$R_k = \{i, \beta_1, \gamma_2, \beta_2, \beta_3, \gamma_9, \gamma_6, \beta_4, \gamma_{14}, \gamma_{13}\}$$

is a subgroup of  $S_5$  of order 10. By constructing similar subgroups, 6 subgroups of  $S_5$  of order 10, isomorphic to the Dihedral group  $D_5$  are obtained. i.e.  $R_k$ ,  $123 \leq k \leq 128$ .

### 3.1.8 Subgroups of order 12

Since  $12 = 2^2 * 3$ , the direct product of  $S_2$  and  $S_3$  in  $S_5$  is a subgroup of  $S_5$ . Hence, if  $T$  is a subgroup of  $S_5$  of order 12, then

$$T = \{i, \rho_{10}, \alpha_1, \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \rho_5, \delta_1, \rho_9, \gamma_{15}, \gamma_3, \delta_2, \gamma_{14}\}$$

is a subgroup of  $S_5$  of order 12. Hence, 10 such subgroups of order 12. i.e.  $T_k$ ;  $129 \leq k \leq 138$ , isomorphic to the direct product of  $S_2$  and  $S_3$  are obtained.

Similarly,  $A_4$  is obviously a subgroup of  $S_5$ , and each of the elements  $(1\ 2\ 3\ 4)$ ,  $(1\ 2\ 3\ 5)$ ,  $(1\ 2\ 4\ 5)$ ,  $(1\ 3\ 4\ 5)$  and  $(2\ 3\ 4\ 5)$  generate  $A_4$ . Thus, there are 5 such subgroups i.e.  $T_k$ ;  $139 \leq k \leq 143$  isomorphic to  $A_4$ .

### 3.1.9 Subgroups of order 20

The composition of elements of  $S_5$  of order 5 with those elements of order 4 formed subgroups of  $S_5$  of order 20 ( $20 = 5 * 4$ ). Hence, if  $U$  is an arbitrary subgroup of  $S_5$  of order 20, then

$$U = \langle (1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5), (2\ 3\ 5\ 4) \rangle$$

is a subgroup generated by two elements  $\beta_1$  and  $\tau_3$ . By considering similar elements, 6 such subgroups of order 20 are obtained. i.e.  $U_k$ ;  $144 \leq k \leq 149$ , isomorphic to  $D_{10}$ .

### 3.1.10 Subgroups of order 24

Each of the following subset of  $S_5$  consisting of four elements generates subgroup of  $S_5$  of order 24. i.e.  $(1\ 2\ 3\ 4)$ ,  $(1\ 2\ 3\ 5)$ ,  $(1\ 2\ 4\ 5)$ ,  $(1\ 3\ 4\ 5)$  and  $(2\ 3\ 4\ 5)$ . Hence, if  $V$  is any arbitrary subgroup of  $S_5$  generated by any of the above elements, then  $V$  is a subgroup of order 24, i.e.  $V_k$ ;  $150 \leq k \leq 154$ , isomorphic to  $A_4$ .

### 3.1.11 Subgroup of order 60

The only subgroup of  $S_5$  of order 60 is the alternating group  $A_5$ , consisting of all the even permutations in  $S_5$ . Such subgroup is unique. Hence,

$$A_5 = \langle (1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5), (1\ 2\ 3) \rangle = \langle \beta_1, \sigma_1 \rangle, \text{ i.e.}$$

$$A_5 = \{i, \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3, \sigma_4, \sigma_5, \sigma_6, \sigma_7, \sigma_8, \sigma_9, \sigma_{10}, \sigma_{11}, \sigma_{12}, \sigma_{13}, \sigma_{14}, \sigma_{15}, \sigma_{16}, \sigma_{17}, \sigma_{18}, \sigma_{19}, \sigma_{20}, \gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_3, \gamma_4, \gamma_5, \gamma_6, \gamma_7, \gamma_8, \gamma_9, \gamma_{10}, \gamma_{11}, \gamma_{12}, \gamma_{13}, \gamma_{14}, \gamma_{15}, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5, \beta_6, \beta_7, \beta_8, \beta_9, \beta_{10}, \beta_{11}, \beta_{12}, \beta_{13}, \beta_{14}, \beta_{15}, \beta_{16}, \beta_{17}, \beta_{18}, \beta_{19}, \beta_{20}, \beta_{21}, \beta_{22}, \beta_{23}, \beta_{24}\}.$$

### 3.1.12 Subgroup of order 120

Every group is a subgroup of itself. Hence, the whole group  $S_5$  is a subgroup of  $S_5$  of order 120.

There are seven conjugacy classes corresponding to the unordered partitions of  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ . Now since cycle type determine conjugacy class and the length of a cycle is found to be the number of elements in

that cycle, we notice that any conjugate of a k-cycle is again a k-cycle [10]. This is also supported by the following theorem:

**Theorem 9:** The conjugacy classes of any  $S_n$  are determined by cycle type. That is, if  $\sigma$  has cycle type  $(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_i)$ , then any conjugate of  $\sigma$  has cycle type  $(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_i)$ , and if  $\gamma$  is any other element of  $S_n$  with cycle type  $(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_i)$ , then  $\sigma$  is conjugate to  $\gamma$ [10].

For the proof of Theorem 9, see [11]. We therefore use this information to derive the following table, classifying the size of conjugacy class of elements of  $S_5$ .

**Table 4:** Size of Conjugacy classes of elements of  $S_5$

Element	Partition	Verbal description of cycle type	Representative element with the cycle type	Size of conjugacy class	Formula Calculating Size of Con-jugacy Class
$i$	$1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$	five fixed points	(1) the identity element	1	$\frac{5!}{(1^5)(5!)}$
$\rho_j$	$2 + 1 + 1 + 1$	transposition: one 2-cycle, three fixed point	(1 2)	10	$\frac{5!}{[(2^1)(1!)][(1^3)(3!)]}$
$\gamma_j$	$2 + 2 + 1$	double transposition: two 2-cycles, one fixed point	(1 2)(3 4)	15	$\frac{5!}{[(2^2)(2!)][(1^1)(1!)]}$
$\sigma_j$	$3 + 1 + 1$	one 3-cycle, two fixed points	(1 2 3)	20	$\frac{5!}{[(3^1)(1!)][(1^2)(2!)]}$
$\delta_j$	$3 + 2$	one 3-cycle, one 2-cycle	(1 2 3)(4 5)	20	$\frac{5!}{[(3^1)(1!)][(2^1)(1!)]}$
$\tau_j$	$4 + 1$	one 4-cycle, one fixed point	(1 2 3 4)	30	$\frac{5!}{[(4^1)(1!)][(1^1)(1!)]}$
$\beta_j$	5	one 5-cycle	(1 2 3 4 5)	24	$\frac{5!}{(5^1)(1!)}$
<b>Total</b>				<b>120</b>	<b>5!</b>

The sum of the conjugacy classes is equal to the order of the group  $S_5$ . The center of a group  $G$  is defined to be the set of those elements that commute with every other element of  $G$ , given by  $Z(G) = \{x : xg = gx \text{ for all } g \in G\}$ . Observed that the center of  $S_5$  is the trivial subgroup  $\{i\}$ , consisting of the identity permutation. Hence,  $S_5$  is centreless.  $S_5$  is also almost simple group since it contains a centralizer-free simple normal subgroup, i.e.  $A_5$ . The Alternating group  $A_5$  is simple. Hence,  $A_5$  is the unique maximal normal subgroup of  $S_5$ .

#### IV. THE ACTIONS OF GROUP REPRESENTATIONS ON SIGNAL SPACE

Let  $(X, \pi) = \{\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n\}$  be a signal space where  $\pi$  is the representative of the functions over  $X$  and let  $\sigma \in S_n$  with  $n \geq 2$ . Then the group  $S_n$  acts on the space  $X$  by permuting its elements as follows:

$$(\sigma \cdot \pi)(\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n) = \pi(\phi_{\sigma(1)}, \phi_{\sigma(2)}, \dots, \phi_{\sigma(n)}) \tag{4.1}$$

Every element  $\sigma \in S_n$  satisfy  $\phi_i \mapsto \phi_{\sigma(i)}$  in  $\pi(\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n)$ .

**Lemma 4.1:** The function defined in Equation 4.1 is a group action of  $S_n$  on the signal space  $X$ .

**Proof:** Obviously,  $i \cdot \pi = \pi$ . Next, we show that  $\sigma \cdot (\delta \cdot \pi) = (\sigma\delta) \cdot \pi$  for all  $\sigma, \delta \in S_n$ . Now,

$$\begin{aligned} (\sigma \cdot (\delta \cdot \pi))(\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n) &= (\delta \cdot \pi)(\phi_{\sigma(1)}, \phi_{\sigma(2)}, \dots, \phi_{\sigma(n)}) \\ &= \pi(\phi_{\sigma(\delta(1))}, \phi_{\sigma(\delta(2))}, \dots, \phi_{\sigma(\delta(n))}) \\ &= \pi(\phi_{(\sigma\delta)(1)}, \phi_{(\sigma\delta)(2)}, \dots, \phi_{(\sigma\delta)(n)}) \\ &= ((\sigma\delta) \cdot \pi)(\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the result follows.

**Lemma 4.2:** Let  $\sigma, \delta \in S_n$  and  $(X, \pi) = \{\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n\} \in \mathfrak{R}^n$  be a signal space. Then  $\pi_\sigma \circ \pi_\delta = \pi_{\delta\sigma}$ .

**Proof:** Let  $\sigma, \delta \in S_n$  and  $w = (\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \dots, \varphi_n) \in \mathfrak{R}^n$  be arbitrary element of X.

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_\sigma \circ \pi_\delta(w) &= \pi_\sigma(\pi_\delta(w)) \\ &= \pi_\sigma(\pi_\delta(\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \dots, \varphi_n)) \\ &= \pi_\sigma(\varphi_{\delta(1)}, \varphi_{\delta(2)}, \dots, \varphi_{\delta(n)}) \\ &= \pi_\sigma(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n) \text{ where } \lambda = \varphi_{\delta(i)} \\ &= (\lambda_{\sigma(1)}, \lambda_{\sigma(2)}, \dots, \lambda_{\sigma(n)}) \\ &= (\varphi_{\delta(\sigma(1))}, \varphi_{\delta(\sigma(2))}, \dots, \varphi_{\delta(\sigma(n))}) \\ &= (\varphi_{(\delta\sigma)(1)}, \varphi_{(\delta\sigma)(2)}, \dots, \varphi_{(\delta\sigma)(n)}) \\ &= \pi_{\delta\sigma}(\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \dots, \varphi_n) \\ &= \pi_{\delta\sigma}(w). \end{aligned}$$

Since w is arbitrary, the result is true for all  $w \in X$ .

**Lemma 4.3:** With  $G = S_n$ , let X be defined as above and Y be a signal space not necessarily isomorphic to X. Let  $\xi(X, Y)$  be the collection of all maps from X to Y, i.e.  $\xi : X \rightarrow Y$ . Then the action of G on  $\xi(X, Y)$  is given by the rule

$$(\pi_g \xi)(w) = \xi(gw).$$

4.2

**Proof:** Obviously, gw is the action of  $g \in G$  on  $w \in X$  and  $\pi_g \xi$  is a function from X to Y. To find a group action of G on  $\xi(X, Y)$ , note that G acts on X from the left. Now, replace g with  $g^{-1}$  in Equation 4.2 and set  $(g \cdot \xi)(w) = \xi(g^{-1}w)$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} (g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot \xi))(w) &= (g_2 \cdot \xi)(g_1^{-1}w) \\ &= \xi(g_2^{-1}(g_1^{-1}w)) \\ &= \xi((g_2^{-1}g_1^{-1})w) \\ &= \xi((g_1g_2)^{-1}w) \\ &= ((g_1g_2) \cdot \xi)(w). \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot \xi) = (g_1g_2) \cdot \xi$  is a group action of G on  $\xi(X, Y)$ .

**Example 4.4:** Suppose  $G = S_n$  and choose  $n = 5$ . Then  $G = S_5$  and  $X = \{\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \phi_4, \phi_5\} \in \mathfrak{R}^5$ .

Now, from

$$(\sigma \cdot (\delta \cdot \pi))(\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \phi_4, \phi_5) = (\delta \cdot \pi)(\phi_{\sigma(1)}, \phi_{\sigma(2)}, \phi_{\sigma(3)}, \phi_{\sigma(4)}, \phi_{\sigma(5)})$$

and Section 3,

$$\begin{aligned} (\sigma_3 \cdot (\delta_1 \cdot \pi))(\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \phi_4, \phi_5) &= (\delta_1 \cdot \pi)(\phi_{(4)}, \phi_{(1)}, \phi_{(3)}, \phi_{(2)}, \phi_{(5)}) \\ &= (\phi_{(3)}, \phi_{(4)}, \phi_{(1)}, \phi_{(5)}, \phi_{(2)}). \end{aligned}$$

But  $\sigma_3 \cdot \delta_1 = \delta_{18}$  in G and

$$(\delta_{18} \cdot \pi)(\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \phi_4, \phi_5) = (\phi_{(3)}, \phi_{(4)}, \phi_{(1)}, \phi_{(5)}, \phi_{(2)}).$$

Hence,  $(\sigma_3 \cdot (\delta_1 \cdot \pi))(w) = ((\sigma_3 \delta_1) \cdot \pi)(w) = (\delta_{18} \cdot \pi)(w)$ .

**Example 4.5:** Again, let  $w = (\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \varphi_3, \varphi_4, \varphi_5) \in \mathfrak{R}^5$ . Then  $\pi_\sigma \circ \pi_\delta(w) = \pi_{\delta\sigma}(w)$ .

To see this, pick  $\tau_2, \gamma_{15} \in G$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_{\tau_2} \circ \pi_{\gamma_{15}}(\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \varphi_3, \varphi_4, \varphi_5) &= \pi_{\gamma_{15}}(\varphi_1, \varphi_3, \varphi_4, \varphi_5, \varphi_2) \\ &= (\varphi_3, \varphi_1, \varphi_4, \varphi_2, \varphi_5). \end{aligned}$$

Now,  $\tau_2 \cdot \gamma_{15} = \tau_{11}$  in  $G$

$$\pi_{\tau_{11}}(\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \varphi_3, \varphi_4, \varphi_5) = (\varphi_3, \varphi_1, \varphi_4, \varphi_2, \varphi_5).$$

Thus,  $\pi_{\tau_2} \circ \pi_{\gamma_{15}}(w) = \pi_{\tau_{11}}(w)$ .

Now, the elements of the group  $G$  act on the signal space  $X$  as functions. Hence in general, if  $X$  is any signal space and  $G$  is any subgroup of  $S_X$ , then  $X$  is a  $G$ -set under the group action

$$(\sigma, \phi(t)) \mapsto \sigma(\phi(t))$$

for all  $\sigma \in G$  and  $\phi(t) \in X$ .

**Lemma 4.6:** Let  $|G| = n$  such that  $G \cong X$ . Then  $G$  acts on  $X$  by the left regular representation given by

$$(\sigma, \phi(t)) \mapsto \pi_\sigma(\phi(t)) = \sigma\phi(t).$$

**Proof:** Since  $\pi_\sigma$  is a left multiplication,

$$i \cdot \phi(t) = \pi_i\phi(t) = i\phi(t) = \phi(t)$$

where  $i$  is the identity element of  $G$ . Also,

$$(\sigma\delta) \cdot \phi(t) = \pi_{\sigma\delta}\phi(t) = \pi_\sigma\pi_\delta\phi(t) = \pi_\sigma(\delta\phi(t)) = \sigma \cdot (\delta \cdot \phi(t)).$$

This established the result.

**Lemma 4.7:** Let  $|G| = n$  such that  $G \cong X$  and let  $K$  be a subgroup of  $G$ . Then  $X$  is a  $K$ -set under conjugation. i.e., an action  $K \times X \rightarrow X$  of  $K$  on  $X$  defined by

$$(\delta, \phi(t)) \mapsto \delta(\phi(t))\delta^{-1}$$

for all  $\delta \in K$  and  $\phi(t) \in X$ .

**Proof:** Clearly, the first axiom for group action is satisfied. Next, observed that

$$\begin{aligned} (\sigma\tau, \phi(t)) &= \sigma\tau(\phi(t))(\sigma\tau)^{-1} \\ &= \sigma\tau(\phi(t))(\tau^{-1}\sigma^{-1}) \\ &= \sigma(\tau(\phi(t))\tau^{-1})\sigma^{-1} \\ &= (\sigma, (\tau, \phi(t))) \end{aligned}$$

which shows that the second condition is also satisfied as required.

**Example 4.8:** Signals are regarded as functions on some discrete groups, usually identified with the group of integers  $Z$ , or its subgroups  $Z_p$  of integer's modulo  $p$ , i.e.  $\varphi : Z_p \rightarrow Z_p$ . Let  $p = 2$ . Then  $Z_p$  is isomorphic to  $S_2$ . Now, a binary symmetric channel is described as a model consisting of a transmitter which is capable of sending a binary signal together with a receiver.

Then one possible coding scheme is to send a signal several times so as to compare the received signals with one another. Suppose that the signal to be encoded is (1 1 0 1 0 0) into a binary  $4n$ -tuple, let  $\sigma \in S_n$ . Then  $\sigma : Z_2 \rightarrow Z_2$  encode (1 1 0 1 0 0) into a binary  $4n$ -tuple as

$$(110100) \mapsto (110100110100110100110100).$$

The decoded signal depends on the function  $\sigma \in S_n$ . The function  $\sigma$  is also required to be one-to-one in order that two signals will not be encoded into the same image.

## V. CONCLUSION

From abstract point of view, the symmetric group  $S_n$  is generally not a nilpotent group since it has no central series. Thus, the group  $S_5$  is centerless and one-headed since the Alternating group  $A_5$  is its unique maximal normal subgroup. The generated subgroup representations of  $S_5$  appear to be useful in signal processing and for studying its Fuzzy subgroups. It is therefore concluded that the subgroup representations of  $S_n$  play an important role in signal processing. Other properties such as isomorphism classes of Sylow subgroups and the

corresponding Sylow numbers and fusion systems, extended automorphism group and the lattice structure of  $S_5$  that are not treated in this article, are recommended for further studies.

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