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Symmetric group s3 is cyclic

This group is \$\$\$-3=(id, (2,3), (1,2), (1,2,3), (1,3,2), (1,3))\$\$\$ of order \$6\$. Now consider tow elements of it, for example, \$x=(1,2)\$ and \$y=(2,3)\$. We have: \$xy=(1,2,3)=(1,3,2)=yx\$. So the group is not abelian and so it cannot be cyclic. Type of group in abstract algebra
Not to be confused with Symmetry group.
A Cayley graph of the symmetric group S4 Cayley table, with header omitted, of the symmetric group S3. The elements are represented as matrices. To the left of the matrices, are their two-line form. The black arrows indicate disjoint cycles and correspond to cycle notation. Green circle is an odd permutation, white is an even permutation and black is the identity. These are the positions of the six matricesSome matrices are not arranged symmetrically to the main diagonal – thus the symmetric group is not abelian. Algebraic structure – Group theoryGroup theory Basic notions Subgroup Normal subgroup Quotient group (Semi-)direct product Group homomorphisms kernel image direct sum wreath product simple finite infinite continuous multicative additive cyclic abelian dihedral nilpotent solvable action
Glossary of group theory
List of group theory topics
Finite groups
Classification of finite simple groups
cyclic alternating Lie type
sporadic Cauchy's theorem
Lagrange's theorem
Sylow theorems
Hall's theorem
p-group
Elementary abelian group
Frobenius group
Schrur multiplier
Symmetric group
Sn
Klein four-group
V
Dihedral group
Dn
Quaternion group
Q
Dicyclic group
Dicn
Discrete groups
Lattices
Integers
(Z)
Free group
Modular groups
PSL(2, Z)
(JSL(2, Z)
Integer group
Lattice
Hyperbolic group
Topological and Lie groups
Solenoid
Circle
General linear GL(n)
Special linear SL(n)
Orthogonal O(n)
Euclidean En)
Special orthogonal SO(n)
Unitary U(n)
Special unitary SU(n)
Symplectic Sp(n)
G2
F4
E6
E7
E8
Lorentz
Poincaré
Conformal
Diffeomorphism
Loop
Infinite dimensional Lie group
O(∞)
SU(∞)
Algebraic groups
Linear algebraic group
Reductive group
Abelian variety
Elliptic curve
vte
In abstract algebra, the symmetric group defined over any set is the group whose elements are all the bijections from the set to itself, and whose group operation is the composition of functions. In particular, the finite symmetric group S n is defined over a finite set of n symbols consists of the permutations that can be performed on the n symbols.[1] Since there are n! permutations of the set, the symmetric group S n is a finite group of order n!. Although symmetric groups can be defined on infinite sets, this article focuses on the finite symmetric groups; their applications, their elements, their conjugacy classes, a finite presentation, their subgroups, their automorphism groups, and their representation theory. For the remainder of this article, "symmetric group" will mean a symmetric group on a finite set. The symmetric group is important to diverse areas of mathematics such as Galois theory, invariant theory, the representation theory of Lie groups, and combinatorics. Cayley's theorem states that every group G is isomorphic to a subgroup of the symmetric group on (the underlying set of) G. Definition and first properties The symmetric group on a finite set X is the group whose elements are all bijective functions from X to X and whose group operation is that of function composition.[1] For finite sets, "permutations" and "bijective functions" refer to the same operation, namely rearrangement. The symmetric group of degree n is the symmetric group on the set X = { 1, 2, ..., n }. The symmetric group on a set X is denoted in various ways, including S X, S X, S X, S X, Σ X, Σ X, Σ X, Σ X, X!, X!, X!, and Sym (X). Symmetric groups on infinite sets behave quite differently from symmetric groups on finite sets, and are discussed in (Scott 1987, Ch. 11), (Dixon & Mortimer 1996, Ch. 8), and (Cameron 1999). The symmetric group on a set of n elements has order n! (the factorial of n) (the symmetric group on n elements has order n!) It is abelian if and only if n is less than or equal to 2.[3] For n = 0 (the empty set and the singleton set), the symmetric groups are trivial (they have order 1 = 1! = 1). The group Sn is solvable if and only if n ≤ 4. This is an essential part of the proof of the Abel–Ruffini theorem that shows that for every n > 4 there are polynomials of degree n which are not solvable by radicals, that is, the solutions cannot be expressed by performing a finite number of operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, division and root extraction on the polynomial's coefficients. Applications The symmetric group on a set of size n is the Galois group of the general polynomial of degree n and plays an important role in Galois theory. In invariant theory, the symmetric group acts on the variables of a multi-variate function, and the functions left invariant are the so-called symmetric functions. In the representation theory of Lie groups, the representation theory of the symmetric group plays a fundamental role through the ideas of Schur functors. In the theory of Coxeter groups, the symmetric group is the Coxeter group of type An and occurs as the Weyl group of the general linear group. In combinatorics, the symmetric groups, their elements (permutations), and their representations provide a rich source of problems involving Young tableaux, plactic monoids, and the Bruhat order. Subgroups of symmetric groups are called permutation groups and are widely studied because of their importance in understanding group actions, homogeneous spaces, and automorphism groups of graphs, such as the Higman–Sims groups and the Higman–Sims graph. Group properties and special elements The elements of the symmetric group on a set X are the permutations of X. Multiplication The group operation in a symmetric group is function composition, denoted by the symbol ∘ or simply by juxtaposition of the permutations. The composition f ∘ g of permutations f and g, pronounced "f of g", maps any element x of X to f(g(x)). Concretely, let (permutation for an explanation of notation): f = (1 3)(4 5) = (1 2 3 4 5 3 2 1 5 4) and g = (1 2 3 4 5 2 4 5 1 3) . Applying f after g maps 1 first to 2 and then to 2 and then to 4; 3 to 4 and then to 5, and so on. So composing f and g gives f ∘ g = (1 2 4)(3 5) = (1 2 3 4 5 2 4 5 1 3) . Verification of group axioms To check that the symmetric group on a set X is indeed a group, it is necessary to verify the group axioms of closure, associativity, identity, and inverses.[4] The operation of function composition is closed in the set of permutations of the given set X. Function composition is always associative. The trivial bijection that assigns each element of X to itself serves as identity for the group. Every bijection has an inverse function that undoes its action, and thus each element of a symmetric group does have an inverse which is a permutation too. Transpositions, sign, and the alternating group Main article: Transposition (mathematics) A transposition is a permutation that exchanges two elements and keeps all others fixed; for example (1 3) is a transposition. Every permutation can be written as a product of transpositions; for instance, the permutation g from above can be written as g = (1 2)(2 5)(3 4). Since g can be written as a product of an odd number of transpositions, it is then called an odd permutation, whereas f is an even permutation. The representation of a permutation as a product of transpositions is not unique; however, the number of transpositions needed to represent a given permutation is either always even or always odd. There are several short proofs of the invariance of this parity of a permutation. The product of two even permutations is even, the product of two odd permutations is even, and all other products are odd. Thus we can define the sign of a permutation: sgn f = { + 1, if f is even − 1, if f is odd . The kernel of this homomorphism, that is, the set of all even permutations, is called the alternating group An. It is a normal subgroup of Sn, and for n ≥ 2 it has n!/2 elements. The group Sn is the semidirect product of An and any subgroup generated by a single transposition. Furthermore, every permutation can be written as a product of adjacent transpositions, that is, transpositions of the form (i i+1). For instance, the permutation g from above can also be written as g = (4 5)(3 4)(4 5)(1 2)(2 3)(4 5). The sorting algorithm bubble sort is an application of this fact. The representation of a permutation as a product of adjacent transpositions is also not unique. Cycles A cycle of length k is a permutation for which there exists an element x in {1, ..., n} such that f, f2(x), ..., f(k−1)(x) = x are the only elements moved by f; it is required that k ≥ 2 since with k = 1 the element x itself would not be moved either. The permutation h defined by h = (1 2 3 4 5 2 1 3 5) is a cycle of length three, since h(1) = 4, h(4) = 3 and h(3) = 1, leaving 2 and 5 untouched. We denote such a cycle by (1 4 3), but it could equally well be written (4 3 1) or (3 1 4) by starting at a different point. The order of a cycle is equal to its length. Cycles of length two are transpositions. Two cycles are disjoint if they move disjoint subsets of elements. Disjoint cycles commute: for example, in S6 there is the equality (4 1 3)(2 5 6) = (2 5 6)(4 1 3). Every element of Sn can be written as a product of disjoint cycles; this representation is unique up to the order of the factors, and the freedom present in representing each individual cycle by choosing its starting point. Cycles admit the following conjugation property with any permutation σ: this property is often used to obtain its generators and relations. σ (a b c ...) σ − 1 = (σ (a) σ (b) σ (c) ...) Special elements Certain elements of the symmetric group of {1, 2, ..., n} are of particular interest (these can be generalized to the symmetric group of any finite totally ordered set, but not to that of an unordered set). The order reversing permutation is the one given by (1 2 ... n n − 1 ... 1). The unique maximal element with respect to the Bruhat order and the longest element in the symmetric group with respect to generating set consisting of the adjacent transpositions (i i+1), 1 ≤ i ≤ n − 1. This is an involution, and consists of n / 2 (non-adjacent) transpositions (1 n)(2 n − 1) ... (n/2 + 1 n/2 + 1) if n is even, and (1 n)(2 n − 1) ... (n/2 + 1 n/2 + 1)(n/2 + 1 n/2 + 2) if n is odd. Continuing the previous example: k = (1 2 3 4 5 1 4 3 2 5) . It is clear that taking a transposition of two elements. This Sn is the semidirect product An ⋊ S2, and has no other proper normal subgroups, as they would intersect An in either the identity (and thus themselves be the identity or a 2-element group, which is not normal), or in An (and thus themselves be An or Sn). Sn acts on its subgroup An by conjugation, and for n ≠ 6, Sn has no outer automorphisms, and for n = 2 it has no center, so for n ≠ 2, 6 it is a complete group, as discussed in automorphism group, below. For n ≥ 5, Sn is an almost simple group, as it lies between the simple group An and its group of automorphisms. Sn can be embedded into An+2 by appending the transposition (n + 1, n + 2) to all odd permutations, while embedding into An+1 is impossible for n > 1. Generators and relations The symmetric group on n letters is generated by the adjacent transpositions σ i = (i , i + 1). The collection σ 1 , … , σ n − 1 generates Sn subject to the following relations:[7] σ i 2 = 1 , and (σ i σ j) 2 = σ i σ j σ i σ j . Other possible generating sets include the set of transpositions that swap i and i + 1 for 2 ≤ i ≤ n (citation needed) and a set containing any n-cycle and a 2-cycle of adjacent elements in the n-cycle.[8] Subgroup structure A subgroup of a symmetric group is called a permutation group. Normal subgroups of the finite symmetric groups are well understood. If n ≤ 2, Sn has at most 2 elements, and so has no nontrivial proper subgroups. The alternating group of degree n is always a normal subgroup, a proper one for n ≥ 2 and nontrivial for n ≥ 3; it is in fact the only nontrivial proper normal subgroup of Sn, except when n = 4 where there is one additional such normal subgroup, which is isomorphic to the Klein four group. The symmetric group on an infinite set does not have a subgroup of index 2, as Vitali (1915)[9] proved that each permutation can be written as a product of three squares. However it contains the normal subgroup S of permutations that fix all but finitely many elements, which is generated by transpositions. Those elements of S that are products of an even number of transpositions form a subgroup of index 2 in S, called the alternating subgroup A. Since A is even a characteristic subgroup of S, it is also a normal subgroup of the full symmetric group of the infinite set. The groups A and S are the only nontrivial proper normal subgroups of the symmetric group on a countably infinite set. This was first proved by Onofri (1929)[10] and independently Schreier–Ulam (1934)[11]. For more details see (Scott 1987, Ch. 11.3) or (Dixon & Mortimer 1996, Ch. 8.1). Maximal subgroups This section needs expansion. You can help by adding to it. (September 2009) The maximal subgroups of Sn fall into three classes: the intransitive, the imprimitive, and the primitive. The intransitive maximal subgroups are exactly those of the form Sk × Sn-k for 1 ≤ k < n/2. The imprimitive maximal subgroups are exactly those of the form Sk wr Sn/k, where 2 ≤ k ≤ n/2 is a proper divisor of n and "wr" denotes the wreath product. The primitive maximal subgroups are more difficult to identify, but with the assistance of the O’Nan–Scott theorem and the classification of finite simple groups, (Liebeck, Praeger & Saxl 1988) gave a fairly satisfactory description of the maximal subgroups of this type, according to (Dixon & Mortimer 1996, p. 268). Sylow subgroups The Sylow subgroups of the symmetric groups are important examples of p-groups. They are more easily described in special cases first: The Sylow p-subgroups of the symmetric group of degree p are just the cyclic subgroups generated by p-cycles. There are (p − 1)!/(p − 1) = (p − 2)! such subgroups simply by counting generators. The normalizer therefore has order p(p − 1) and is known as a Frobenius group Fp(p−1) (especially for p = 5), and is the affine general linear group, AGL(1, p). The Sylow p-subgroups of the symmetric group of degree p2 are the wreath product of two cyclic groups of order p. For instance, when p = 3, a Sylow 3-subgroup of Sym(9) is generated by a = (1 4 7)(2 5 8)(3 6 9) and the elements x = (1 2 3), y = (4 5 6), z = (7 8 9), and every element of the Sylow 3-subgroup has the form xijklz for 0 ≤ i, j, k, l ≤ 2 (the Sylow p-subgroups of the symmetric group of degree pn are sometimes denoted Wp(n), and using this notation one has that Wp(n + 1) is the wreath product of Wp(n) and Wp(1). In general, the Sylow p-subgroups of the symmetric group of degree n are a direct product of ai copies of Wp(i), where 0 ≤ ai ≤ p − 1 and n = a0 + p a1 + ... + p k ak (the base p-expansion of n). For instance, W2(1) = C2 and W2(2) = D8, the dihedral group of order 8, and so a Sylow 2-subgroup of the symmetric group of degree 7 is generated by { (1,3)(2,4), (1,2), (3,4), (5,6) }. These calculations are attributed to (Kaluojinne 1948) and described in more detail in (Rotman 1995, p. 176). Note however that (Kerber 1971, p. 26) attributes the result to an 1844 work of Cauchy, and mentions that it is even covered in textbook form in (Netto 1882, §39–40). Transitive subgroups A transitive subgroup of Sn is a subgroup whose action on {1, 2, ..., n} is transitive. For example, the Galois group of a (finite) Galois extension is a transitive subgroup of Sn, for some n. Cayley's theorem Cayley's theorem states that every group G is isomorphic to a subgroup of some symmetric group. In particular, one may take a subgroup of the symmetric group on the elements of G, since every group acts on itself faithfully by (left or right) multiplication. Automorphism group Further information: Automorphisms of the symmetric and alternating groups n Aut(Sn) Out(Sn) Z(Sn) n ≠ 2, 6 Sn C1 C1 n = 2 C1 C1 S2 n = 6 S6 ⋊ C2 C2 C1 For n ≠ 2, 6, Sn is a complete group; its center and outer automorphism group are both trivial. For n = 2, the automorphism group is trivial, but S2 is not trivial: it is isomorphic to C2, which is abelian, and hence the center is the whole group. For n = 6, it has an outer automorphism of order 2: Out(S6) = C2, and the automorphism group is is a semidirect product Aut(S6) = S6 ⋊ C2. In fact, for any set X of cardinality other than 6, every automorphism of the symmetric group on X is inner, a result first due to (Schreier & Ulam 1936) according to (Dixon & Mortimer 1996, p. 259). Homology See also: Alternating group § Group homology The group homology of Sn is quite regular and stabilizes: the first homology (concretely, the abelianization) is: H 1 (S n , Z) = { 0 n < 2 Z / 2 n ≥ 2 . The homology H 1 (m a t h r m S _ { n }) , m a t h b f (Z)) = (b e g i n c a s e s) 0 & n

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