Normalizing Graphs of Regular Permutation Groups

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Timothy Kohl (Boston University) Normalizing Graphs of Regular Permutation C

For L/K a Galois extension with G = Gal(L/K), a Hopf-Galois structure on L/K corresponds to a regular subgroup $N \le B = Perm(G)$ where the Hopf algebra which acts is $H = (L[N])^G$, where G acts on L via the Galois action, and on N via the left regular representation $\lambda(G)$, under the condition that $\lambda(G) \le Norm_B(N)$, i.e. $\lambda(G)$ normalizes N.

Recall that $N \leq B$ is regular if any two of the following conditions hold:

- N acts transitively
- N acts without fixed points (i.e. η(x) = x for some x ∈ G only if η is the identity)
- |N| = |G|.

The regularity condition does not require that $N \cong G$, so one can subdivide those N which give rise to Hopf-Galois structures by isomorphism class, so we define:

where [M] is an isomorphism class of group of order |G|.

As such, each distinct Hopf-Galois structure corresponds to an element $N \in R(G, [M])$.

Definition

A skew left brace is a finite set G together with two operations \star and \circ such that (G, \star) and (G, \circ) are both groups, where the two group operations satisfy the 'brace relation'

$$a \circ (b \star c) = (a \circ b) \star a^{-1} \star (a \circ c)$$

where a^{-1} is the inverse of a in (G, \star) . And we denote this by (G, \circ, \star) . There is a known relationship between skew-left braces (G, \circ, \star) and Hopf-Galois structures.

The structure (G, \circ) may be embedded into B = Perm(G) by the left regular representation $\lambda_{\circ} : (G, \circ) \to B$.

One finds then that for $N = (G, \star)$, N is embedded in B as well, where N is normalized by $\lambda_{\circ}(G)$.

Conversely, for $N \in R(G, [M])$ the group N (being a regular subgroup of B = Perm(G)) gives rise to a skew left brace (G, \circ, \star) where (by slight abuse of notation) $G = (G, \circ)$ and $N = (G, \star)$.

A bi-skew brace is defined to be a set G together with two group operations (G, \circ) and (G, \star) where the skew-brace relations hold symmetrically, that is:

$$a \circ (b \star c) = (a \circ b) \star a^{-1} \star (a \circ c)$$
$$a \star (b \circ c) = (a \star b) \circ \overline{a} \circ (a \star c)$$

where ' \bar{a} ' is the inverse of a in (G, \circ) .

This means that (G, \circ, \star) and (G, \star, \circ) are skew braces.

In terms of regular subgroups embedded in Perm(G), we still have two groups (G, \circ) embedded as $\lambda_{\circ}(G)$ and $N = (G, \star)$.

The (G, \circ, \star) structure frames N as being normalized by $\lambda_{\circ}(G) = \lambda(G)$ while the complementary brace structure (G, \star, \circ) means that N normalizes $\lambda(G)$.

For G embedded in B = Perm(G) as $\lambda(G)$, recall that the holomorph of G is

 $Norm_B(\lambda(G))$

, so (G, \circ, \star) and (G, \star, \circ) being braces simultaneously means that N is actually to be found as a regular subgroup of Hol(G).

The cases we wish to explore are those bi-skew braces $(G, \circ, \star) / (G, \star, \circ)$ where $(G, \circ) \cong N \cong (G, \star)$.

As such, we are exploring regular subgroups of Hol(G) normalized by $\lambda(G)$.

We are also working into this discussion, particular certain subsets of these which generalize the notion of the multiple holomorph.

As such, some of the source material for this is [4], which we are extrapolating to the study of bi-skew braces.

For B = Perm(G) we define

$$\mathcal{R}(G) = \{N \leq B \mid N \text{ is regular}, N \cong G, \lambda(G) \leq Norm_B(N)\}$$

 $\mathcal{S}(G) = \{M \leq Hol(G) \mid M \text{ is regular and } M \cong G\}$

so the set

$$\mathcal{S}(G)\cap\mathcal{R}(G)$$

consists of those regular subgroups $N \leq Perm(G)$ (where $N \cong G$) with the property that they normalize, and are normalized by, $\lambda(G)$.

We observe an important symmetry between $\mathcal{S}(G)$ and $\mathcal{R}(G)$.

The fact that these N are regular, and isomorphic to $\lambda(G)$ implies that each such N is a conjugate of $\lambda(G)$ by some element of B.

As such, one can show that

$$\gamma\lambda(\mathcal{G})\gamma^{-1}\in\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{G})\leftrightarrow\gamma^{-1}\lambda(\mathcal{G})\gamma\in\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{G})$$

and given that $\lambda(G) \in \mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ obviously, we observe that id_B certainly conjugates $\lambda(G)$ to itself.

As such, one can show (by a theorem due to König) that there exists a set

$$\pi(\mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)) = \{\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_t\}$$

(which we can assume contains id_B) of distinct coset representatives of Hol(G) with the property that

$$\mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G) = \{\beta_i \lambda(G) \beta_i^{-1}\}$$

where if $\beta\lambda(\mathcal{G})\beta^{-1} \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{G}) \cap \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{G})$ then $\beta^{-1}\lambda(\mathcal{G})\beta \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{G}) \cap \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{G})$.

Note, this does not mean that $\pi(\mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G))$ is itself closed under inverses.

Any $\pi(\mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)) = \{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_t\}$ gives rise to a set of distinct cosets $\beta_i Hol(G)$.

A natural question to ask is whether these cosets (or even the coset representatives) form a group?

Before answering this, we first consider a subset of $S(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ for which the answer is more easily understood, and whose properties we are trying to generalize.

Definition

For G a group, embedded in B = Perm(G) as $\lambda(G)$, define

 $\mathcal{H}(G) = \{ N \le B \mid N \text{ regular }, N \cong G, Norm_B(N) = Hol(G) \}$ $= \{ N \triangleleft Hol(G) \mid N \text{ regular }, N \cong G \}$

It is clear therefore that $\mathcal{H}(G) \subseteq \mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$.

And since $\mathcal{H}(G)$ consists of regular subgroups isomorphic to $\lambda(G)$ then they are conjugate to $\lambda(G)$, and so $\mathcal{H}(G)$ determines a set of cosets $\{\gamma_i \operatorname{Hol}(G)\}$ of $\operatorname{Hol}(G)$.

But for any such γ we have that

$$\gamma \operatorname{Norm}_{\mathsf{B}}(\lambda(G))\gamma^{-1} = \operatorname{Norm}_{\mathsf{B}}(\gamma\lambda(G)\gamma^{-1}) = \operatorname{Norm}_{\mathsf{B}}(\lambda(G))$$

and so γ normalizes Hol(G), that is, it's an element of the so-called multiple holomorph NHol(G) = Norm_B(Hol(G)).

As such $\mathcal{H}(G)$ is the orbit of $\lambda(G)$ under the action of NHol(G).

And the cosets which correspond to the elements of $\mathcal{H}(G)$ give rise to a group, which contains Hol(G) as a normal subgroup.

Moreover, there is an obvious action of T(G) = NHol(G)/Hol(G) on $\mathcal{H}(G)$ and indeed, $\mathcal{H}(G)$ is the orbit of $\lambda(G)$ under the action of T(G), and this action is regular.

One of our goals was to come up with a similar group (containing Hol(G)) which acts transitively on $\mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$, with Hol(G) as the stabilizer of $\lambda(G)$.

NHol(G) is obviously the maximal subgroup of B which contains Hol(G) as a normal subgroup.

So in particular, NHol(G) is a group extension of Hol(G).

As such, if $S(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ is properly larger than $\mathcal{H}(G)$ then the cosets of Hol(G) formed from the coset representatives

$$\pi(\mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)) = \{\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_t\}$$

do not come from a group with Hol(G) as a normal subgroup.

However, we can give conditions for when $\cup \beta_i \operatorname{Hol}(G)$ forms a group which contains $\operatorname{Hol}(G)$, but *not* as a normal subgroup.

Another feature of $\mathcal{H}(G)$ to note is that any pair $N_1, N_2 \in \mathcal{H}(G)$ normalize each other.

The reason for this is that $Norm_B(N_1) = Norm_B(N_2) = Hol(G)$.

Looking at the totality of $S(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$, there is no reason to expect its members to mutually normalize each other, but we can give some criteria which imply when this occurs.

Definition

A set $P \subseteq B = Perm(G)$, of coset representatives of Hol(G) is 'conj-closed' if for each $\alpha, \beta \in P$, there exists a $\gamma \in P$ such that $\alpha\beta\lambda(G)\beta^{-1}\alpha^{-1} = \gamma\lambda(G)\gamma^{-1}$.

If so then we can define a binary operation * in P by $\alpha * \beta = \gamma$.

And we say *P* is 'inv-closed' if for each $\beta \in P$, there exists and $\alpha \in P$ such that $\beta^{-1}\lambda(G)\beta = \alpha\lambda(G)\alpha^{-1}$.

The resemblance of these two properties to group laws is deliberate, and indeed, if P conj-closed then (P, *) is a (left) quasigroup, and if we assume that P contains id_B , then (P, *) is what is known as a (left) loop.

The relevance to mutual normalization comes from this.

Proposition

If $\mathcal{X}(G) \subseteq \mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ where $\pi(\mathcal{X}(G)) = \{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_m\}$ are the elements of B which conjugate $\lambda(G)$ to each element of $\mathcal{X}(G)$, and $\pi(\mathcal{X}(G))$ is conj-closed, then all $N \in \mathcal{X}(G)$ normalize each other.

As such, if the elements of $\mathcal{X}(G)$ fail to normalize each other, then it would contradict the conj-closed property.

The converse of this is not generally true, but we can say this.

Proposition

Let $\pi(S(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G))$ parameterize $S(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$. If the elements of $S(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ are mutually normalizing, and if $\pi(S(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G))$ is inv-closed then $\pi(S(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G))$ is conj-closed.

And as mentioned above, there is always a $\pi(\mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G))$ which is inv-closed.

The one issue to confront is that it is not always the case that all the members of $S(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ are mutually normalizing.

Proposition

Let $\mathcal{X}(G) \subseteq \mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ (containing $\lambda(G)$) be parameterized by $\pi(\mathcal{X}(G)) = \{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_m\}$, where $\pi(\mathcal{X}(G))$ is conj-closed and let $\mathsf{XHol}(G) = \bigcup_{i=1}^m \beta_i \operatorname{Hol}(G)$.

XHol(G) is a group, and the following properties hold:

(a) All the members of $\mathcal{X}(G)$ normalize each other.

(b)
$$Orb_{XHol(G)}(\lambda(G)) = \mathcal{X}(G)$$

(c)
$$|\operatorname{XHol}(G)| = |\mathcal{X}(G)| \cdot |\operatorname{Hol}(G)|$$

For example, $\mathcal{X}(G) = \mathcal{H}(G)$ (whence XHol(G) = NHol(G)) certainly satisfies the conditions above, but again, we would like to find a larger subset of $\mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ for which this is true, and for which there is a group which acts transitively.

Changing notation slightly, and with the view of the set of coset representatives/parameters forming a 'Q'uasi-group, we define the following subset of $S(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$.

Definition
Let
$$\mathcal{Q}(G) = \bigcap_{N \in \mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)} \{ M \in \mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G) \mid N \text{ normalizes } M \}.$$

We first observe the most important property of this set.

Lemma

The members of $\mathcal{Q}(G)$ mutually normalize each other.

And as our goal is to generalize $\mathcal{H}(G)$, we observe.

Lemma

For $\mathcal{Q}(G)$ defined above, one has $\mathcal{H}(G) \subseteq \mathcal{Q}(G)$.

Proof.

If $M \in \mathcal{H}(G)$ then $\operatorname{Norm}_B(M) = \operatorname{Norm}_B(\lambda(G)) = \operatorname{Hol}(G)$, so for any $N \in \mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ one has $N \leq \operatorname{Hol}(G) = \operatorname{Norm}_B(M)$.

If $N \in Q(G)$ then one can define Q(N) in the same way as Q(G) is defined, and the mutually normalizing property gives rise to an important symmetry.

Proposition

If there exists a conj-closed $\pi(\mathcal{Q}(G))$ then for any $N \in \mathcal{Q}(G)$ one has that $\mathcal{Q}(N) = \mathcal{Q}(G)$.

And if we define $N_1 \sim N_2$ if they have the same normalizer, then this is an equivalence relation and as a result we have a LaGrange type result.

Proposition

For a given G where there exists a conj-closed $\pi(\mathcal{Q}(G))$, if $N \in \mathcal{Q}(G)$ then $\mathcal{H}(N) \subseteq \mathcal{Q}(G)$ and so $|\mathcal{H}(G)| ||\mathcal{Q}(G)|$.

Before going further, a bit of full disclosure must be made.

For any G, we have that

$$\mathcal{H}(G)\subseteq\mathcal{Q}(G)\subseteq\mathcal{S}(G)\cap\mathcal{R}(G)$$

and if $\mathcal{Q}(G) = \mathcal{H}(G)$ or $\mathcal{Q}(G) = \mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$, there does exist a $\pi(\mathcal{Q}(G))$ which is conj-closed, but it is not altogether obvious from the definition that it exists if these containments are proper.

However, there is a great deal of computational evidence that suggests that even when $\mathcal{H}(G) \subsetneq \mathcal{Q}(G) \subsetneq \mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$, there still exists a conj-closed $\pi(\mathcal{Q}(G))$.

The conj-closure property, being reminiscent of a group law is, again, not accidental, but is indeed the whole point, in that we wish to generalize the relationship between $\mathcal{H}(G)$ and NHol(G) to the class $\mathcal{Q}(G)$, and this motivates the following definition:

Definition

For $\pi(\mathcal{Q}(G)) = \{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_m\}$ which parameterizes $\mathcal{Q}(G)$, let the *quasiholomorph* of G be $\text{QHol}(G) = \bigcup_{i=1}^m \beta_i Hol(G)$.

And so, if there exists a conj-closed $\pi(\mathcal{Q}(G))$ then $\operatorname{QHol}(G)$ acts transitively on $\mathcal{Q}(G)$, paralleling how $\operatorname{NHol}(G)$ acts transitively on $\mathcal{H}(G)$.

For QHol(G), if there exists a $\pi(\mathcal{Q}(G))$ which is not only conj-closed, but is, in fact, a group in and of itself, then $\pi(\mathcal{Q}(G))$ would act regularly on $\mathcal{Q}(G)$.

In this case $QHol(G) = \pi(Q(G)) Hol(G)$ is a Zappa-Szép extension of Hol(G) in that, unless Q(G) = H(G), this is not a group extension of Hol(G) in the usual sense.

Let's point out another reason for our interest in developing this, namely that $\mathcal{H}(G)$ is typically a relatively 'small' class of groups.

T(G) and therefore $\mathcal{H}(G)$ has been computed for various classes of groups in [5], [6], [3], [1], [8].

There are instances when $\mathcal{H}(G)$ is exactly $\{\lambda(G), \rho(G)\}$ such as when G is a simple group as shown in [2, Theorem 4].

Also, for abelian groups, Miller [5] showed that if 8 /|G| then

 $\mathcal{H}(G) = \{\lambda(G)\}$

i.e. T(G) = 1.

However, we shall show that, for $G = C_{p^n}$ for example, |Q(G)| > 1.

For odd primes p, we have the following.

Proposition

For $G = C_{p^n}$ for p odd, we have that $\mathcal{Q}(G) = \mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ and $|\mathcal{Q}(G)| = p^{[\frac{n}{2}]}$.

As such, for any conj-closed $\pi(\mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)) = \pi(\mathcal{Q}(G))$ one has that QHol(G) is a group, the question is whether it's a Zappa Szép product.

Theorem

If $G = \langle \sigma \rangle$ where $\sigma = (1, 2, ..., p^n)$ for $p \ge 3$ and $n \ge 2$ then Q(G) is parameterized by powers of the following element

$$\beta = \prod_{i=1}^{p^{n-i}} \sigma_i^{t_{i-1}}$$

where
$$\sigma^{p^{n-r}} = \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \cdots \sigma_{p^{n-r}}$$
 for $r = [\frac{n}{2}]$ and $t_j = 1 + \frac{j(j+1)}{2}$

Corollary

For $G = C_{p^n}$, with p odd, the group QHol(G) is a Zappa-Szép extension of Hol(G), namely $\pi(Q(G))Hol(G)$ where $\pi(Q(G)) = \langle \beta \rangle$.

For $G = \langle \sigma \rangle \cong C_{2^n}$ the enumeration is nearly identical.

For n = 1, 2 the only cyclic subgroups of order 2^n of Hol(G) are G itself.

And in general, $|\mathcal{H}(G)| = 2$, and $\mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G) = \mathcal{Q}(G)$ so therefore any $\pi(\mathcal{Q}(G))$ is conj-closed and thus $\mathsf{QHol}(G)$ is a group.

As to whether QHol(G) is a Zappa-Szép extension of Hol(G), one may verify this for *n* odd, and computational evidence implies that it is true for *n* even as well.

For general cyclic groups C_n where $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \dots p_r^{e_r}$ for distinct primes p_i then $Hol(C_n) \cong Hol(C_{p_1^{e_1}}) \times \dots \times Hol(C_{p_r^{e_r}})$.

And of course, for groups A, B of relatively prime order in general, Hol $(A \times B) \cong$ Hol $(A) \times$ Hol(B), and similarly for the multiple holomorph.

For $\mathcal{Q}(G)$ we can prove something similar.

Proposition

If $gcd(|G_1|, |G_2|) = 1$ then $QHol(G_1 \times G_2) \cong QHol(G_1) \times QHol(G_2)$.

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For cyclic groups G we have that $\mathcal{Q}(G) = \mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ but for non-cyclic groups, there are cases where $\mathcal{Q}(G)$ is a proper subset of $\mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$, which means that not all of the groups in $\mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ have the mutually normalizing property.

For dihedral groups $D_n = \langle x, t \mid x^n = t^2 = 1, xt = tx^{-1} \rangle$ we have the following

• If *n* is odd, then
$$|\mathcal{Q}(D_n)| = |\mathcal{H}(D_n)| = |\Upsilon_n|$$

• If *n* is even $|\mathcal{Q}(D_n)| = \begin{cases} |\Upsilon_n| \text{ if } 8 \not| n \\ 2|\Upsilon_n| \text{ if } 8|n \end{cases}$
where $\Upsilon_n = \{u \in U_n \mid u^2 = 1\}.$

And so if 8 n, QHol (D_n) = NHol (D_n) which is a split extension of Hol (D_n) by the group $M_n = \{\tau_u \mid u \in \Upsilon_n\}$ where $\tau_u(x^i) = x^i$ and $\tau_u(tx^i) = tx^{u^i}$, which is an elementary abelian group.

If 8|*n* then there is an element μ of order 2 such that $M_n \langle \mu \rangle$ is a $\pi(\mathcal{Q}(D_n))$ where, μ commutes with those τ_u where $u \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

For reference, when *n* is odd, $\mathcal{H}(D_n) = \mathcal{Q}(D_n) = \mathcal{S}(D_n) \cap \mathcal{R}(D_n)$.

When n is even it turns out that

$$|\mathcal{S}(D_n) \cap \mathcal{R}(D_n)| = \begin{cases} n + |\Upsilon_n| \text{ if } 8 \not| n \\ n + 2|\Upsilon_n| \text{ if } 8|n \end{cases}$$

which means that when 8|n, we have proper containments

$$\mathcal{H}(D_n) \subsetneq \mathcal{Q}(D_n) \subsetneq \mathcal{S}(D_n) \cap \mathcal{R}(D_n)$$

The 'incidence matrix' indicates how members of $\mathcal{S}(D_8) \cap \mathcal{R}(D_8)$ normalize each other.

normalizes

	↓	_	Y														
	1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	*	*	*	*
	2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	3	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	*	*	*	*
$\lambda(D_8)$	4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	5	*	2	*	4	5	6	*	8	*	10	11	12	*	*	*	*
${\cal H}$	6	*	2	*	4	5	6	*	8	*	10	11	12	*	*	*	*
	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	*	*	*	*
\mathcal{H}	8	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	*	*	*	*
	10	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
$\rho(D_8)$	11	*	2	*	4	5	6	*	8	*	10	11	12	*	*	*	*
	12	*	2	*	4	5	6	*	8	*	10	11	12	*	*	*	*
	13	*	2	*	4	5	6	*	8	*	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	14	*	2	*	4	5	6	*	8	*	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	15	*	2	*	4	5	6	*	8	*	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	16	*	2	*	4	5	6	*	8	*	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	\mathcal{Q}		2		4	5	6		8		10	11	12				

So the members of Q are seen to be those N in $S \cap R$ which appear in each column.

One other thing to note about QHol(G) when $\pi(Q(G))$ is a group itself, is that one can find ones in different isomorphism classes.

For example, with $G = C_4 \times C_4$, one has that $\mathcal{H}(G) = \{\lambda(G)\}$ but that $|\mathcal{Q}(G)| = |\mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)| = 24$ and there are $\pi(\mathcal{Q}(G))$ in the following isomorphism classes:

 $\textit{C}_4 \times \textit{S}_3, (\textit{C}_6 \times \textit{C}_2) \rtimes \textit{C}_2, \textit{C}_3 \times \textit{D}_8, \textit{S}_4, \textit{C}_2 \times \textit{A}_4, \textit{C}_2 \times \textit{C}_2 \times \textit{S}_3$

And in the opposite direction, there are cases where QHol(G) is known to be a group, but that there are **no** $\pi(Q(G))$ which are a group, so that QHol(G) is not a Zappa-Szép product, although QHol(G) acts transitively with Hol(G) being the stabilizer of $\lambda(G)$.

The lowest order example of this is for $G = (C_4 \times C_2) \rtimes C_2$.

In this case $\mathcal{H}(G) = \{\lambda(G), \rho(G)\}$ but $|\mathcal{Q}(G)| = |\mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)| = 224$.

In fact, $S(G) = \mathcal{R}(G) = \mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G) = \mathcal{Q}(G)$ so all Hopf-Galois structures of type (G, [G]) correspond to subgroups of the holomorph, and each pair gives rise to a bi-skew brace.

For a given group G, the set $S(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$, and the ways in which members of $S(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ normalize (or fail to normalize) each other can be depicted by a 'normalizing graph'.

This is a graph where the nodes are the members of $\mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ and an edge $N_1 \to N_2$ exists if N_1 normalizes N_2 .

This graph is a directed graph generally, although if two members N_1 and N_2 normalize each other then one can view them as being connected by an edge, or a two headed arrow, $N_1 \leftrightarrow N_2$.

Within this graph, we can consider different subgraphs corresponding to subsets of $S(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ such as $\mathcal{H}(G)$ and $\mathcal{Q}(G)$.

In particular, collections such as $\mathcal{Q}(G)$ and $\mathcal{H}(G)$ form complete sub-graphs or 'cliques' within $\mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$.

We have containments $\mathcal{H}(G) \subseteq \mathcal{Q}(G) \subseteq \mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ where, for example, with *G* cyclic as we've seen, $\mathcal{Q}(G) = \mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ in that all members of $\mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ are mutually normalizing.

And for some groups we have the opposite possibility, namely that $Q(G) = H(G) = \{\lambda(G)\}$ such as for the group $G = C_2 \times C_2 \times C_2$



where $\lambda(G) = 1$.

In this case, $S(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ is a 'star graph' namely one with all nodes connected to a single center, namely $\lambda(G)$ itself.



But it's clear that one could form a bi-skew brace with $\lambda(G)$ and any other $N \in \mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$.

In general, it seems that $\mathcal{Q}(G) = \{\lambda(G)\}\$ for elementary abelian groups.

For example if $G = C_3 \times C_3 \times C_3$ then $\mathcal{S}(G) = \mathcal{R}(G)$ and $|\mathcal{R}(G)| = 339$ but $\mathcal{Q}(G) = \{\lambda(G)\}.$

For the case of D_8 we can visualize the fact that

$$\mathcal{H}(D_8)\subseteq\mathcal{Q}(D_8)\subseteq\mathcal{S}(D_8)\cap\mathcal{R}(D_8)$$

are all proper inclusions.





• $S(D_8) \cap \mathcal{R}(D_8) = \{1, \dots, 16\}$ • $Q(D_8) = \{2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 12\}$ • $\mathcal{H}(D_8) = \{4, 6, 8, 11\}$ • $\lambda(D_8) = 4, \ \rho(D_8) = 11$ As observed earlier, the elements of $\mathcal{Q}(G)$ form a clique, namely a complete sub-graph of the normalizing graph of $\mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$, a natural question to ask is whether it is a *maximal* clique?

For D_8 one can show that $\mathcal{Q}(D_8)$ is the maximal clique which contains $\mathcal{H}(D_8)$.

However, by 'brute force' calculation one can find other (maximal) cliques within $S(D_8) \cap \mathcal{R}(D_8)$ but none contain $\mathcal{H}(D_8)$.

Indeed the other maximal cliques within $\mathcal{S}(D_8)\cap\mathcal{R}(D_8)$ are



[1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10] [2, 4, 8, 10, 13, 14, 15, 16] For abelian groups G such that |T(G)| > 1 we encounter some cases where $S(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ contains maximal cliques $\mathcal{X}(G)$ which properly contain $\mathcal{Q}(G)$ where a given $\pi(\mathcal{X}(G))$ gives rise to a Zappa Szép product XHol(G) which contains QHol(G).



For example, let $G = C_4 \times C_2$ with graph.

Here $\mathcal{X}(G) = \{2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ is the maximal clique, and it contains $\mathcal{Q}(G)$, and XHol(G) is a group where the orbit of $\lambda(G)$ is $\mathcal{X}(G)$.

And even for cases like $G = C_3 \times C_3 \times C_3$, where $\mathcal{Q}(G) = \{\lambda(G)\}$ there are other cliques contained in $\mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$.

For example, there exists a clique in $\mathcal{X}(G) \subseteq \mathcal{S}(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$ (containing $\mathcal{Q}(G) = \{\lambda(G)\}$) with 27 members, so the mutual normalizing property behaves quite differently (with regard to $\mathcal{Q}(G)$) when G is abelian versus when it isn't.

And even though this is a clique, XHol(G) is not a group since many of the product of elements in $\pi(\mathcal{X}(G))$ conjugate $\lambda(G)$ to groups outside of $\mathcal{S}(G)$.

We conclude by looking at collections of non-isomorphic groups $\{G_i\}$ of the same order with the property that they have isomorphic holomorphs.

The classical example of this is the case of D_{2n} the dihedral group of order 4n, and Q_n the quaternionic or dicyclic group of order 4n for $n \ge 3$.

What this means operationally is that if we have $\lambda(G_1) \leq Hol(G_1) \leq B = Perm(G_1)$ then one can find a regular subgroup $G_2 \triangleleft Hol(G_1)$ whence $Norm_B(G_2) = Hol(G_1)$, where again $G_1 \ncong G_2$.

Note, Mills [7] demonstrated that this is impossible for abelian groups, so in particular for any such pair of non-isomorphic groups G_1 and G_2 with isomorphic holomorphs, it must be the case that $|\mathcal{H}(G_i)| > 1$.

Beyond dihedral and quaternionic groups, there are others, and it's not just pairs of groups which can have this property.

For example, these four groups of order 48 have isomorphic holomorphs

 $(C_3 \times D_4) \rtimes C_2$ $(C_3 \rtimes Q_2) \rtimes C_2$ $(C_3 \times Q_2) \rtimes C_2$ $C_3 \rtimes Q_4$

And as the order increases, there are even larger clusters of groups with this property.

If now we have a collection of non-isomorphic groups $\{G_i\}$ of the same order with isomorphic holomorphs and if we pick G_1 represented as $\lambda(G_1) \leq B = Perm(G_1)$ then one can find within $Hol(G_1)$ regular normal subgroups isomorphic to the other G_i with normalizer equal to $Hol(G_1)$.

(Conjectural) If we then compute $Q(G_1)$, and also $Q(G_i)$ for the other G_i it is likely that all $Q(G_i)$ have the same size and that the union of all these $Q(G_i)$ will have the mutually normalizing property (and therefore be a collection of bi-skew braces).

We have verified this computationally for the four groups of order 48 on the previous page.

Each $|Q(G_i)| = 16$ and so we have $\binom{64}{2} = 2016$ distinct bi-skew braces.

Thank You!

We have the following tables which indicate the relative sizes for $S(G) \cap \mathcal{R}(G)$, $\mathcal{Q}(G)$ and $\mathcal{H}(G)$ for different groups, as well as the isomorphism classes of $\pi(\mathcal{Q}(G))$ that may arise, when $\pi(\mathcal{Q}(G))$ is actually a group.

We include all groups of order at most 40, except for n = 32, excluding D_n for n odd, and most cyclic groups. But we do include the cyclic groups C_4 , C_{16} and also C_{64} so as to address the 'opening' regarding whether $\text{QHol}(C_{2^n})$ is a group for n even. We also include D_n for n even. We utilized GAP to compute these tables. As such, we adopt the notational conventions they use, in particular writing D_{2n} for the n-th dihedral group for example.

G	$ S \cap \mathcal{R} $	$ \mathcal{Q} $	$ \mathcal{H} $	$\pi(Q)$
C4	1	1	1	1
$C_2 \times C_2$	1	1	1	1
S_3	2	2	2	C ₂
$C_4 \times C_2$	8	2	2	C ₂
D ₈	6	6	2	S ₃ , C ₆
Q_8	2	2	2	C ₂
$C_2 \times C_2 \times C_2$	8	1	1	1
$C_3 \times C_3$	9	1	1	1
$C_3 \rtimes C_4$	2	2	2	C ₂
A4	6	2	2	C ₂
D ₁₂	8	2	2	C ₂
$C_6 \times C_2$	1	1	1	1
C ₁₆	4	4	2	$C_4, C_2 \times C_2$
$C_4 \times C_4$	24	24	1	$C_4 \times S_3$, $(C_6 \times C_2) \rtimes C_2$, $C_3 \times D_8$, S_4 , $C_2 \times A_4$, $C_2 \times C_2 \times S_3$
$(C_4 \times C_2) \rtimes C_2$	76	4	4	$C_2 \times C_2$
$C_4 \rtimes C_4$	72	72	8	$C_3 \times S_4$, $(C_3 \times A_4) \rtimes C_2$
$C_8 \times C_2$	10	4	4	$C_2 \times C_2$
$C_8 \rtimes C_2$	10	4	4	$C_2 \times C_2$
D ₁₆	16	8	4	$C_4 \times C_2$, D_8 , $C_2 \times C_2 \times C_2$
QD ₁₆	32	16	16	$C_2 \times D_8$
Q ₁₆	16	8	4	$C_4 \times C_2$, D_8 , $C_2 \times C_2 \times C_2$
$C_4 \times C_2 \times C_2$	146	1	1	1
$C_2 \times D_8$	198	6	2	S ₃ , C ₆
$C_2 \times Q_8$	66	2	2	C ₂
$(C_4 \times C_2) \rtimes C_2$	224	224	2	QHol(G) is not a Zappa-Szép Extension of Hol(G)
$C_2 \times C_2 \times C_2 \times C_2$	106	1	1	1
$C_3 \times S_3$	7	2	2	C ₂
$(C_3 \times C_3) \rtimes C_2$	38	2	2	C ₂
$C_6 \times C_3$	9	1	1	1
$C_5 \rtimes C_4$	2	2	2	C ₂
$C_5 \rtimes C_4$	7	2	2	C ₂
D ₂₀	12	2	2	C ₂
$C_{10} \times C_2$	1	1	1	1
$C_7 \rtimes C_3$	9	2	2	C ₂
$C_3 \rtimes C_8$	4	4	4	$C_2 \times C_2$
SL(2,3)	6	2	2	C ₂
$C_3 \rtimes Q_8$	16	4	4	$C_2 \times C_2$
$C_4 \times S_3$	32	8	8	$C_2 \times C_2 \times C_2$
D ₂₄	16	4	4	$C_2 \times C_2$
$C_2 \times (C_3 \rtimes C_4)$	20	4	4	$C_2 \times C_2$

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G	$ S \cap \mathcal{R} $	Q	$ \mathcal{H} $	$\pi(Q)$
$(C_6 \times C_2) \rtimes C_2$	32	8	8	$C_2 \times C_2 \times C_2$
$C_{12} \times C_2$	8	2	2	C2
$C_3 \times D_8$	6	6	2	S ₃ , C ₆
$C_3 \times Q_8$	2	2	2	C2
S4	5	2	2	C2
$C_2 \times A_4$	9	2	2	C2
$C_2 \times C_2 \times S_3$	44	2	2	C ₂
$C_6 \times C_2 \times C_2$	8	1	1	1
$C_5 \times C_5$	25	1	1	1
$C_9 \times C_3$	33	3	1	C3
$(C_3 \times C_3) \rtimes C_3$	78	2	2	C ₂
$C_9 \rtimes C_3$	63	6	2	S ₃ , C ₆
$C_3 \times C_3 \times C_3$	339	1	1	1
$C_7 \rtimes C_4$	2	2	2	C ₂
D ₂₈	16	2	2	C ₂
$C_{14} \times C_2$	1	1	1	1
$C_5 \times S_3$	2	2	2	C2
$C_3 \times D_{10}$	2	2	2	C2
$C_9 \rtimes C_4$	2	2	2	C ₂
$(C_2 \times C_2) \rtimes C_9$	18	6	2	S ₃ , C ₆
D ₃₆	20	2	2	C ₂
$C_{18} \times C_2$	3	3	1	C3
$C_3 \times (C_3 \rtimes C_4)$	7	2	2	C2
$(C_3 \times C_3) \rtimes C_4$	38	2	2	C2
$C_{12} \times C_3$	9	1	1	1
$(C_3 \times C_3) \rtimes C_4$	11	2	2	C2
$S_3 \times S_3$	55	4	2	$C_4, C_2 \times C_2$
$C_3 \times A_4$	42	6	2	S ₃ , C ₆
$C_6 \times S_3$	19	2	2	C2
$C_2 \times ((C_3 \times C_3) \rtimes C_2)$	56	2	2	C2
$C_6 \times C_6$	9	1	1	1
$C_{13} \rtimes C_3$	15	2	2	C ₂
$C_5 \rtimes C_8$	4	4	4	$C_2 \times C_2$
$C_5 \rtimes C_8$	14	4	4	QHol(G) is not a Zappa-Szép Extension of Hol(G)
$C_5 \rtimes Q_8$	24	4	4	$C_2 \times C_2$
$C_{4} \times D_{10}$	48	8	8	$C_2 \times C_2 \times C_2$
D ₄₀	24	4	4	$C_2 \times C_2$
$C_2 \times (C_5 \rtimes C_4)$	28	4	4	$C_2 \times C_2$
$(C_{10} \times \overline{C_2}) \rtimes C_2$	48	8	8	$C_2 \times C_2 \times C_2$
$C_{20} \times C_2$	8	2	2	C2

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G	$ S \cap \mathcal{R} \mathcal{Q} $		$ \mathcal{H} $	$\pi(Q)$
$C_5 \times D_8$	6	6	2	S ₃ , C ₆
$C_5 \times Q_8$	2	2	2	C2
$C_2 \times (C_5 \rtimes C_4)$	24	4	4	QHol(G) is not a Zappa-Szép Extension of $Hol(G)$
$C_2 \times C_2 \times D_{10}$	68	2	2	C2
$C_{10} \times C_2 \times C_2$	8	1	1	1
C ₆₄	8	8	2	C ₈ , Q ₈

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