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RESEARCH ARTICLE

RANK OF MAXIMAL SUBGROUP OF A FULL TRANSFORMATION SEMIGROUP

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ABSTRACT

We shall show that the rank of maximal subgroup of a full transformation semigroup on a finite set equal to the lower bound for the rank  $r_n(T_n)$

Key words:

Transformation, Rank and stirling number.

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INTRODUCTION

In this section, we defined terms and gives some examples relating to this work. And in section two (2) we show that the rank of maximal subgroup of a full transformation semigroup on a finite set equal to the lower bound for the rank  $R_n(T_n)$

$$|G_X| = n!, |T_X| = n^n$$

Where  $n = |X|$

$G_X$  Consisting of all bijections from X onto X,  
 $G_X$  is a subsemigroup of  $T_X$

Definition (Full transformation semigroup)

Let X be a non-empty set, A full transformation semigroup ( $T_X, \circ$ ) consist of  $T_X$  (maps  $\alpha: X \rightarrow X$ ), and a composition  $\circ$

Definition (Maximal Subgroup)

Maximal subgroup of a semigroup S is a subgroup (that is, a subsemigroup which forms a group under the semigroup operation of S) which is not properly contained in another subgroup of S.

Remark

If  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are maps from X into X, then

Example

For any n, the alternating group  $A_n$  of degree n is maximal in the symmetric group  $S_n$  of degree n, ie

$$x(\alpha\beta) = x(\alpha\beta) = (x\alpha)\beta \quad (x \in X)$$

$$|A_n| = \frac{n!}{2}, n > 1 \quad \text{and} \quad |S_n| = n!$$

When X is a finite set, we shall write  $T_n$  in place of  $T_X$ , where  $n = |X|$ , the order of the set X. we shall usually consider the base set of  $T_n$  to be  $X_n = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , and a typical member  $\alpha \in T$  can then be specified by listing the images of the members of  $X_n$  in order  $(1\alpha, 2\alpha, \dots, n\alpha)$ . We shall denote the rank r of  $\alpha \in T_X$  as  $|rank \alpha|$ .

Definition

Let S be a semigroup. We say that an element c of S is a group element if and only if c falls in some maximal subgroup of S. Otherwise c is a non-group element. Let NG be a set which consist of all nongroup elements of S. if every element of S is expressible as a product of elements of NG, then the non-group rank of S is defined by

Note

The number of elements in symmetric semigroup ( $G_X, \circ$ ) of all permutations of a set X is given as

$$Ng \text{ rank } S = \min \{ |A| : A \subseteq NG, \langle A \rangle = S \}$$

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**Example**

The dihedral subgroup  $dih_4$ , the 5 – element layer form the non-group element since the element in that layer can be express as a product of element of NG.  
The non-group rank of the  $Dih_4$  is

$$NG \text{ rank } Dih_4 = \min \{ | e | : e \subseteq NG, \langle e \rangle = Dih_4 \} = 5$$

**Definition (Stirling Number)**

The stirling number of the second kind  $SC_{n,r}$  is the number of ways to partition a set of n objects into r non-empty subjects and can also be denoted by  $\left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ r \end{matrix} \right\}$ .

This occurs in the field of mathematics called combinatories and the study of partitions.

This can be calculated using the following explicit formular

$$\left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ r \end{matrix} \right\} = \frac{1}{r!} \sum_{i=0}^r (-1)^i \binom{r}{i} (r-i)^n \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

The symbol  $\left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ r \end{matrix} \right\}$  is read as “n subset r”, r is called the weight or the cardinality.

From Howie classification of rank  $(r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4, r_5)$ . We observe that  $r_2(S)$  is what is normally called rank, which has been extensively studied.

$$r_2(S) = \min \{ k : \text{there exists a subset } U \text{ of } S \text{ cardinality } K \text{ such that } U \text{ generates } S \}$$

We notice that our definition of maximum subgroup coincide with the way he defined  $r_4(S)$  (the upper rank). We now find the lower bound of  $r_4(S)$  simply by producing an independent set in S.

$$r_4(S) = \max \{ k : \exists \text{ a subset } U \text{ of } S \text{ cardinality } K \text{ which is independent} \}$$

**Definition**

Let  $\alpha \in T_n$  and let  $x_0 \in X_n$  be any element. If  $x\alpha = x_0$  for every element  $x \in X_n$ , then  $\alpha$  is called a constant transformation. The image, Defect set, defect and kernel of  $\alpha$  are define by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{im}(\alpha) &= \{ x\alpha : x \in X_n \} \\ \text{Def}(\alpha) &= X_n \setminus \text{im}(\alpha) \\ \text{def}(\alpha) &= | \text{Def}(\alpha) | \\ \text{Ker}(\alpha) &= \{ (x,y) \in X_n \times X_n : x\alpha = y\alpha \} \end{aligned}$$

respectively. Now we state the lemma which will be useful in this work.

**Lemma**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For any } x, \beta \in T_n \\ \text{Ker}(\alpha) \subseteq \text{Ker}(\alpha\beta) \\ \text{im}(\alpha\beta) \subseteq \text{im}(\beta) \end{aligned}$$

**Proof**

From Green’s relations,  $\alpha, \beta$  are  $\mathcal{R}$ -equivalent if and only if  $\text{ker } \alpha = \text{Ker } \beta$  – where for a given in  $\emptyset \text{ sing}_n$ , the equivalence relation  $\text{ker } \emptyset (= \emptyset \circ \emptyset^{-1})$  is defined as  $\{ (x,y) \in X \times X : x\emptyset = y\emptyset \}$ . Suppose now that  $\alpha, \beta$  in  $J_{n-1}$  are such the  $\alpha\beta$  also lies in  $J_{n-1}$ . Then  $\text{ker } \alpha\beta \supseteq \text{ker } \alpha$ ,

While

$$\begin{aligned} | X/\text{ker}\alpha\beta | &= | X/\text{ker}\alpha | = n-1 \\ \text{It follows that } \text{ker } \alpha\beta &= \text{ker } \alpha \text{ ie. That } \alpha\beta\mathcal{R}\alpha \\ \text{(ii)The same argument follows and we have that } \alpha\beta\mathcal{L}\beta &\text{ and that} \\ \text{im}(\alpha\beta) &\subseteq \text{im}(\beta) \end{aligned}$$

If  $\alpha, \beta$  are  $\mathcal{L}$ -equivalent.

**The idea behind Green’s equivalences is to sort out the elements of a semigroup**

Each D-class in a semigroup S is a union of  $\mathcal{L}$ -classes and  $\mathcal{R}$ -classes. The intersection of an  $\mathcal{L}$ -class and  $\mathcal{R}$ -class is either empty or is an H-class. Hence it is convenient to visualize a D-class as eggbox, in which each row represents an  $\mathcal{R}$ -class, each column represents an  $\mathcal{L}$ -class and each cell represents an H-class. (It is possible for the eggbox to contain a single row or a single column of cells, or even to contain only one cell.) One can then analysis a semigroup, by finding these uniform blocks and describing connections between them.

$$\begin{aligned} (\alpha, \beta) \in \mathcal{L} &\Leftrightarrow \text{im}(\alpha) = \text{im}(\beta) \\ (\alpha, \beta) \in \mathcal{R} &\Leftrightarrow \text{ker}(\alpha) = \text{ker}(\beta) \\ (\alpha, \beta) \in \mathcal{H} &\Leftrightarrow \text{im}(\alpha) = \text{im}(\beta) \text{ and } \text{ker}(\alpha) = \text{ker}(\beta) \\ (\alpha, \beta) \in \mathcal{D} &\Leftrightarrow | \text{im}(\alpha) | = | \text{im}(\beta) | \end{aligned}$$

$\alpha \in T_n$  is an idempotent element if and only if the restriction of  $\alpha$  to  $\text{im}(\alpha)$  is the identity map on  $\text{im}(\alpha)$ . If e is an idempotent in a semigroup S, then  $H_e$  is a subgroup of S. No H-class in S can contain more than one idempotent. We denote the D-Green class of all self maps of defect r by  $D_{n-r}$  ( $0 \leq r \leq n-1$ ).

Let  $D_k$  be a D-class then  
 $D_k$  has  $\binom{n}{k}$  distinct  $\mathcal{L}$ -classes  
 $D_k$  has  $S(n, k)$  distinct  $\mathcal{R}$ -Classes  
 $D_k$  has  $S(n, k) \binom{n}{k}$  distinct H-classes  
 Each H-class has  $k!$  elements  
 Each  $\mathcal{L}$ -Class has  $k^{n-k}$  group H-classes.  
 Here  $S(n, k)$ , for  $1 < k \leq n$  is as defined by (1)  
 Where  $k = r$  and  $i = r$  in (1)

Which satisfies recurrence relations below

$$S(1, 1) = S(n, n) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad S(n + 1, k) = S(n, k - 1) + kS(n, k).$$

**The Rank  $r_4$  of  $T_n$**

We compute here the lower bound of  $r_4(T_n)$  which is defined as our maximal rank subgroup of  $T_n$ .

**Theorem**

$$r_4(T_n) \geq |A| = [S(n, n-1) - (n-1)](n-1)! + n + 1.$$

**Proof**

We start with the construction of an independent subset of  $T_n$ . For  $X_n = \{1, \dots, n\}$  and  $Y = X_n \setminus \{i\}, i = 1, \dots, n$  we define a set denoted by  $A$ . consider the  $\mathcal{L}$ -class  $L_Y$  in  $D_{n-1}$ . The set  $A$  contains only idempotent of group  $H$ -classes in  $L_Y$  and all elements of non-group  $H$ -classes in  $L_Y$ , and also  $\alpha$ , is the constants transformation such as  $x\alpha = i$  for all  $x \in X_n$  and  $\beta$ , is the identity map of  $T_n$ .

The Cardinality of  $A$  is

$$[S(n, n-1) - (n-1)](n-1)! + n + 1$$

Here  $S(n, n-1)$  is the number of  $\mathcal{R}$ -classes in  $D_{n-1}$ ,  $(n-1)$  is the number of group  $H$ -classes and  $(n-1)!$  is the cardinality of each of the  $H$ -classes.

$A$  is an independent subset of  $T_n$ . Since

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \dots & n \\ i & i & \dots & i \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \beta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \dots & n \\ 1 & 2 & \dots & n \end{pmatrix}$$

Constant transformation and permutation respectively, From lemma 1.10  $\alpha \notin \langle A \setminus \{\alpha\} \rangle$ . And  $\beta \notin \langle A \setminus \{\beta\} \rangle$ . Without loss of generality we may assume that  $A = \langle A \setminus \{\alpha, \beta\} \rangle$ . For any  $\gamma \in A$ , this is enough to show that  $\gamma \notin \langle A \setminus \{\gamma\} \rangle$ . Now suppose that  $\gamma \in \langle A \setminus \{\gamma\} \rangle$ . Then there exist  $\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_k \in A \setminus \{\gamma\}$  such that  $\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_k = \gamma$ .

Since  $\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_k, \gamma \in D_{n-1}$ . We find from lemma 1.10.

$$\text{Ker}(\delta_1) = \text{ker}(\gamma) \text{ and } \text{im}(\gamma) = \text{im}(\delta_k). \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

Since  $\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_k, \gamma \in L_Y$  then

$$\text{Im}(\gamma) = \text{im}(\delta_j), j=1,2,\dots,k. \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

From equation (2) and (3),  $\text{ker}(\gamma) = \text{Ker}(\delta_1)$  and  $\text{im}(\gamma) = \text{im}(\delta_1)$ . That is,  $\gamma$  and  $\delta_1$  are in the same  $H$ -class.

If  $\gamma$  is an idempotent,  $\delta_1$  is not in the  $H_\gamma$ -class, Because this contradicts with the definition of  $A$ . So there is no element in  $A \setminus \{\gamma\}$  such that  $\text{ker}(\delta_1) = \text{ker}(\gamma)$ . Hence  $\gamma \notin \langle A \setminus \{\gamma\} \rangle$

If  $\gamma$  is not an idempotent, since each non-group  $H$ -class is not closure (indeed is an idempotent subset) and idempotents of group  $H$ -classes are right identity of the same  $\mathcal{L}$ -classes then  $|\text{im} \gamma| = |\text{im}(\delta_1 \delta_2 \dots \delta_k)| \leq n-2$ .

Since  $\gamma \in D_{n-1}$ , this is in contradiction with  $|\text{im} \gamma| = n-1$ . So  $\gamma \notin \langle A \setminus \{\gamma\} \rangle$ .

**Example**

For  $n=3, T_3$  has 3  $D$ -Green classes like below:

$$D_3 \begin{matrix} (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) \\ (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 3 & 2) & (2 & 1 & 3) & (2 & 3 & 1) & (3 & 1 & 2) \end{matrix}$$

$$D_2 \begin{matrix} (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) \\ (1 & 2 & 2) & (2 & 1 & 3) & (1 & 3 & 3) & (3 & 1 & 2) & (2 & 3 & 3) & (3 & 2 & 3) \\ (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) \\ (1 & 2 & 1) & (2 & 1 & 3) & (1 & 3 & 1) & (3 & 1 & 2) & (2 & 3 & 2) & (3 & 2 & 3) \\ (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) \\ (1 & 1 & 2) & (2 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 1 & 3) & (3 & 3 & 2) & (2 & 2 & 3) & (3 & 3 & 2) \end{matrix}$$

$$D_1 \begin{matrix} (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) & (1 & 2 & 3) \\ (1 & 1 & 1) & (2 & 2 & 2) & (3 & 3 & 3) \end{matrix}$$

$X_3 = \{1, 2, 3\}$  and let  $i=1$ . Since  $Y = \{2, 3\}$ , consider the  $L_Y = L_{\{2,3\}}$  class in top  $D$ -class  $D_2$ . For  $A$ , we take idempotents of the group  $H$ -classes and all elements of non-group  $H$ -classes in this  $\mathcal{L}$ -class. Also  $\alpha$  is constant transformation in  $D_1$  and  $\beta$  is identity map in  $D_3$ . Briefly the set  $A$  consist of bold elements on the table above.

$$A = \{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \}$$

$A$  is an independent set of  $T_3$ . The cardinality of  $A$  is

$$|A| = [S(3, 2) - (3-1)](3-1)! + 3 + 1 = 6. \text{ Hence } r_4(T_3) \geq 6$$

**Remark**

Howie and Riberio proved that the large rank of  $T_n$  is  $n^2 - (1/2)n! + 1$ . For  $T_3, r_5(T_3) = 3^3 - (1/2)3! + 1 = 25$ . Since  $r_1(S) \leq r_2(S) \leq r_3(S) \leq r_4(S) \leq r_5(S)$  and  $6 \leq r_4(T_3) \leq 25 = r_5(T_3)$ , our lower bound is true.

Thus all five ranks of  $T_n, r_1(T_n) = 1 \leq r_2(T_n) = 3 \leq r_3(T_n) = 3 \leq r_4(T_n) = 6 \leq r_5(T_n) = 25$  were calculated.

**Corollary**

The independent set of  $T_n$  is not unique. There are  $\binom{n}{n-1}$  independent sets. Here  $\binom{n}{n-1}$  is the number of distinct  $\mathcal{L}$ -classes in  $D_{n-1}$ .

From the above example, there are  $\binom{3}{3-1} = 3$  independent sets of  $T_3$ . These are below for  $L_{1,2}, L_{1,3}$  and  $L_{2,3}$  respectively.

$$A_1 = \{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \}$$

$$A_2 = \{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \}$$

$$A_3 = \{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \}$$

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