

(The Lemma that is Not Burnside's)
An Introduction to Burnside's Lemma

@nebu

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Outline

Motivation

Groups

Symmetry Groups

Actions of Symmetry Groups

Counting Orbits and Burnside's Lemma

Examples of Usage

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Section 1

Motivation

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Consider the following problem

The sides of a square are to be colored by either red or blue. How many different arrangements exist?

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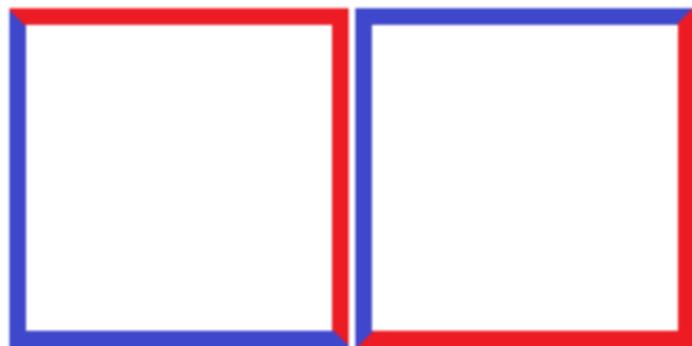
$$2^4 = 16$$

Since we have 4 objects to color, with two choices for each one.

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What does “different” mean?

Are the following squares the “same” square or are they different?



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Under rotation by $\pi/2$, these are the same square.

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Consider, then, this problem

The sides of a square are to be colored by either red or blue. How many different arrangements exist, if we treat colorings that can be obtained by rotation from another as identical?

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Case-by-case solution

Permutation	Rotations different	Rotations identical
All sides red	1	1
All sides blue	1	1
One side red	4	1
One side blue	4	1
Two adjacent sides blue	4	1
Two opposite sides blue	2	1
Total	16	6

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Extending the problem

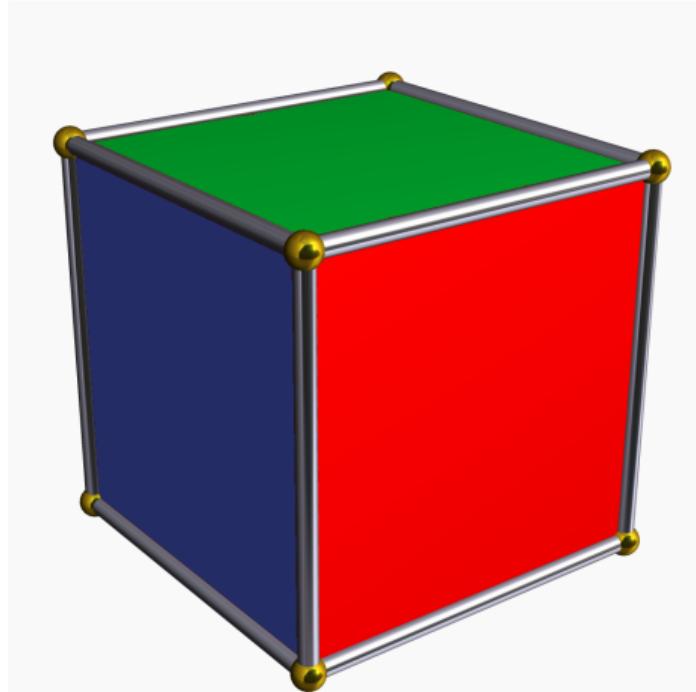
What if there are now 3 colors?

What if the shape is now a hexagon?

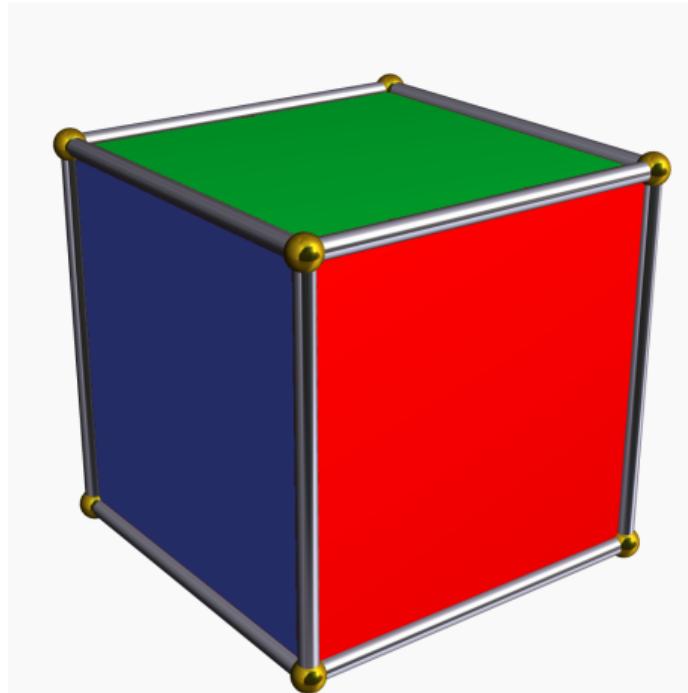
...etc.

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What if we want to color a cube w/3 colors?

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We need a generalization: Burnside's lemma!

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Burnside's Lemma

Formally, Burnside's lemma counts the number of orbits of a finite set acted upon by a finite group.

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Intuitively, it provides a way to count distinct objects *up to* some equivalence relation

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Burnside's Lemma

Formally, Burnside's lemma counts the number of orbits of a finite set acted upon by a finite group. (We'll get to this in a second.)

Intuitively, it provides a way to count distinct objects *up to* some equivalence relation, i.e., taking into account some symmetry.

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Section 2

Groups

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- **Existence of identity:** There is a unique $e \in G$ such that $e \cdot a = a \cdot e = a$ for all $a \in G$.
- **Existence of inverse:** For all $a \in G$, there exists $a' \in G$ such that $a \cdot a' = a' \cdot a = e$.

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Groups are familiar objects!

- $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$, the group of integers under addition. This group is also commutative, and is hence called an *abelian* group.

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- Similarly, $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$ is a group.
- $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$, the group of integers modulo n under addition, is an abelian group.

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Exercise

- Is $(\mathbb{C}, +)$ a group?

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- Is $(\mathbb{C}, +)$ a group?
- Is (\mathbb{Z}, \cdot) a group?
- Is (\mathbb{Q}, \cdot) a group?
- Is $(\mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$ a group?
- (Trickier) Is (\mathbb{Z}_n, \cdot) a group? What are its elements?

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Section 3

Symmetry Groups

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Symmetry Groups

Groups formed by the set of transformations that leave an object invariant with the group operation of composition.

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Some intuition first.

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Symmetry Groups

Consider two squares. They are part of the same equivalence class (i.e., we consider them the same square) if we can get one from the other by using:

- Rotation
- Reflection
- Translation
- Or a combination of the three.

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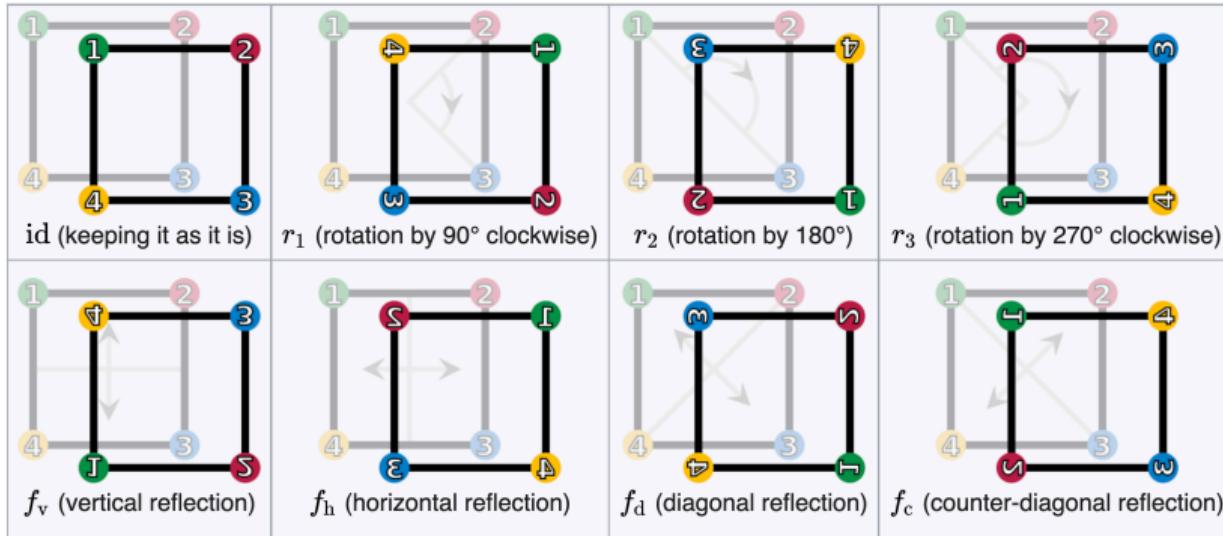
Symmetry Groups

Consider two squares. They are part of the same equivalence class (i.e., we consider them the same square) if we can get one from the other by using:

- Rotation
- Reflection
- Translation
- Or a combination of the **two**.

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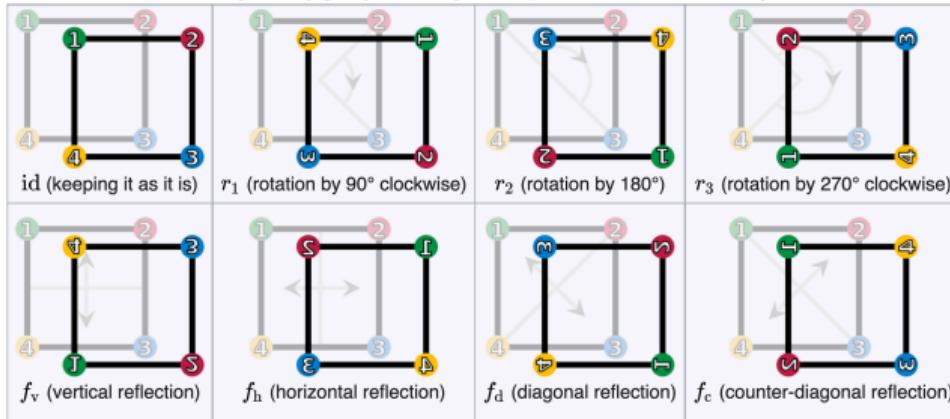
Visually



Set of symmetries: $(\text{id}, r_1, r_2, r_3, f_v, f_h, f_d, f_c)$.

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Visually



The set of symmetries are a set of functions. The functions are permutations of the vertices (1, 2, 3, 4).

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Symmetries are Permutations are Bijective Functions

id is:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \end{array}$$

f_d is:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 4 \end{array}$$

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What is the group operation?

Remember, we can *combine* reflections and rotations to still have the same object.

The group operation is thus **function composition**.

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Remember, we can *combine* reflections and rotations to still have the same object.

The group operation is thus **function composition**.

For instance, $f_h \circ r_3$ means:

- Rotate by $3\pi/2$.
- Reflect across the horizontal.

Turns out this is equivalent to f_d .

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Is this really a group?

Check for yourself! (Spoiler: it is.)

Is it abelian?

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Examples

- “Cyclic” groups C_n : consists of all rotations by multiples of $2\pi/n$ around a point. Order: n .

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- “Dihedral” groups D_n : consist of all rotations in C_n along with reflections across the n axes passing through the point. Order: $2n$.

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- “Dihedral” groups D_n : consist of all rotations in C_n along with reflections across the n axes passing through the point. Order: $2n$.
- The group we just looked at was D_4 .
- There are many, many more...

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Section 4

Actions of Symmetry Groups

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Group Actions

A group G with identity e can *act* on a set X .

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Satisfying

1. **Identity:** $\alpha(e, x) = x$ for all $x \in X$
2. **Compatibility:** $\alpha(g, \alpha(h, x)) = \alpha(g \cdot h, x)$ for all $g, h \in G$ and $x \in X$

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Group Actions

1. Identity: $\alpha(e, x) = x$ for all $x \in X$
2. Compatibility: $\alpha(g, \alpha(h, x)) = \alpha(g \cdot h, x)$ for all $g, h \in G$ and $x \in X$

We often write gx instead of $\alpha(g, x)$, to get:

1. Identity: $ex = x$
2. Compatibility: $g(hx) = (gh)x$

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What are G and X

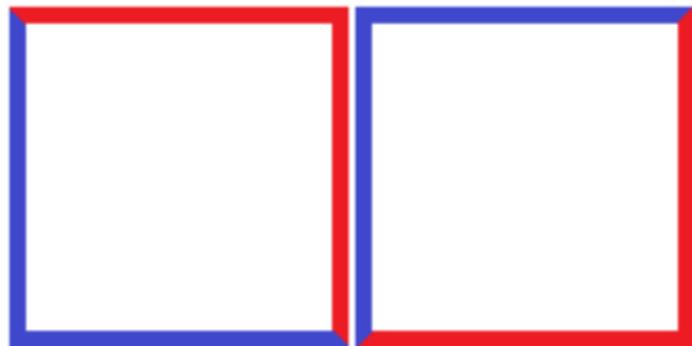
In the case of our square,

- G is the group of symmetries (C_4)
- X is the set of all possible colorings of the square.

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Going back to our square...

This is the result of applying r_1 on the square:



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Fixed Points

For $g \in G$, a **fixed point** is an $x \in X$ such that action by g leaves it unchanged, i.e., $gx = x$.

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For $g \in G$, a **fixed point** is an $x \in X$ such that action by g leaves it unchanged, i.e., $gx = x$.

The set of all fixed points of g is denoted $\text{fix}(g)$ or (I dislike this notation) X^g :

$$\text{fix}(g) = \{x \in X : gx = x\}$$

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Orbits

For $x \in X$, an **orbit** is the set of elements to which we can move x via action by G :

$$Gx = \text{orb}(x) = \{gx : g \in G\}$$

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Orbits Partition X

Gx is clearly a subset of X . Consider $x' \in Gx$.

- It must be true that $Gx = Gx'$.
- By contradiction,
 - ▶ Let there be an element $y \in Gx'$ and $y \notin Gx$.
 - ▶ $y = g_1 x'$, but
$$x' = g_2 x \implies y = g_1(g_2)x \implies y = (g_1 g_2)x \implies y \in Gx \text{, for some } g_1, g_2 \in G.$$

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- Thus, the concept of “number of orbits” of X makes sense.

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What we *really* want to do

Is count orbits!

- Consider X , the set of all possible colorings. This is acted on by group G , some sort of symmetry group.

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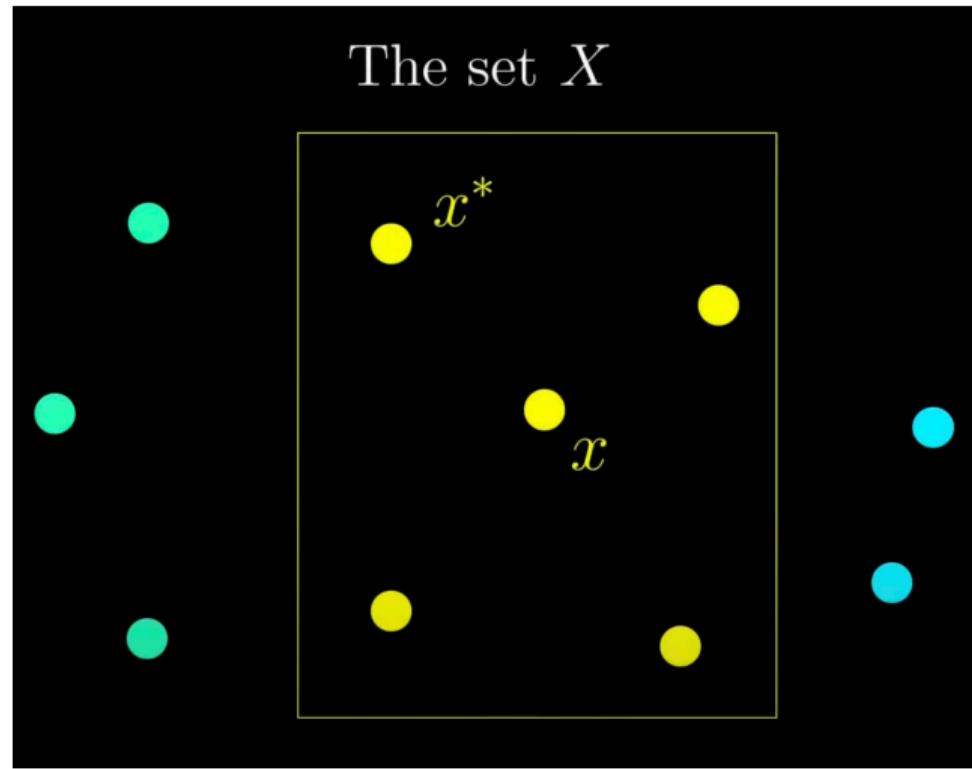
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- The total number of orbits is the total number of colorings with the symmetry constraint.

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Visually: Yellow Box is an Orbit (Identical Coloring)

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One Last Thing: Stabilizers

Closely related to fixed points: it is the set of all elements in g that leave $x \in X$ fixed:

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Contrast with fixed points of $g \in G$:

$$\text{fix}(g) = \{x \in X : gx = x\}$$

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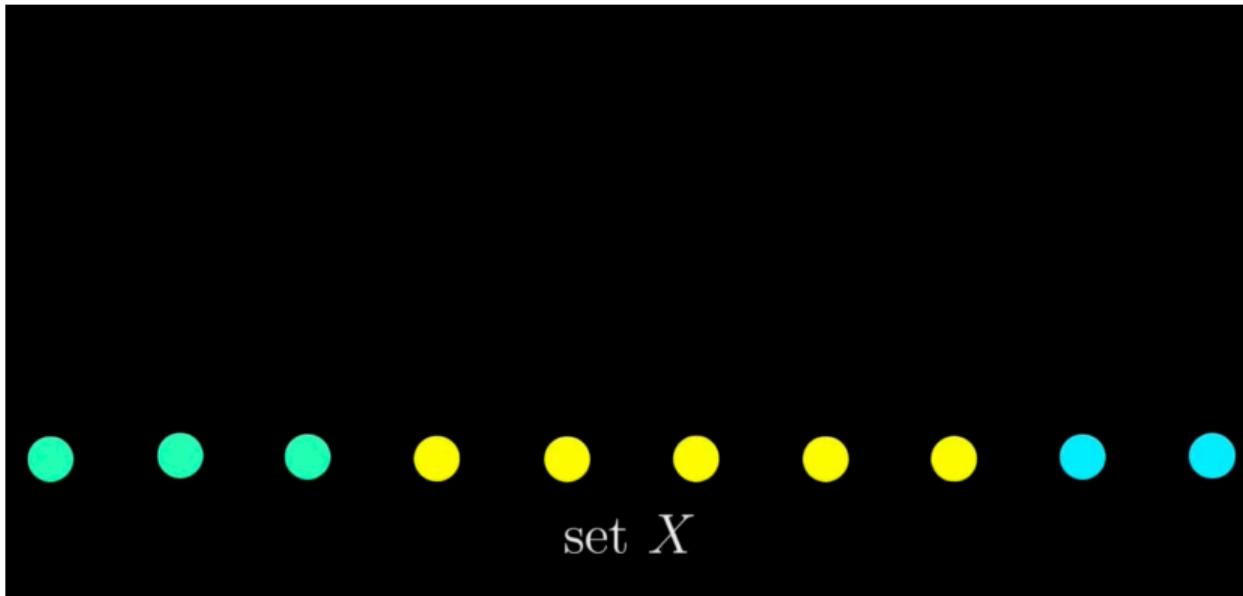
Section 5

Counting Orbits and Burnside's Lemma

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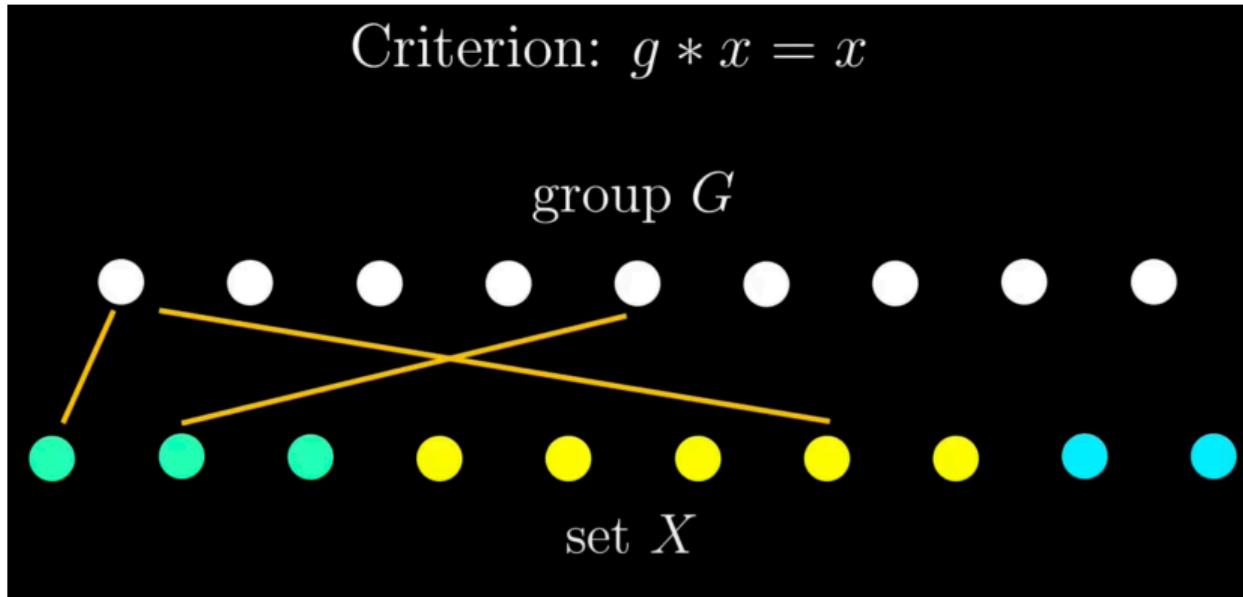
Line up the elements of X

Same color means same orbit.



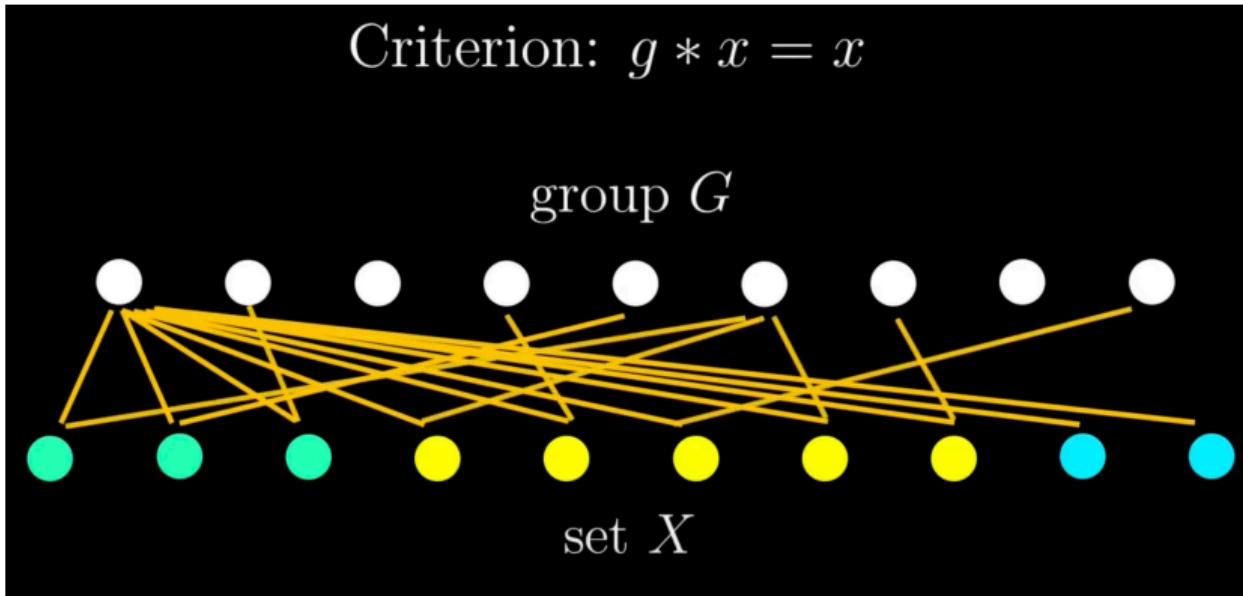
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Draw G . Draw a line between g and x if $gx = x$.

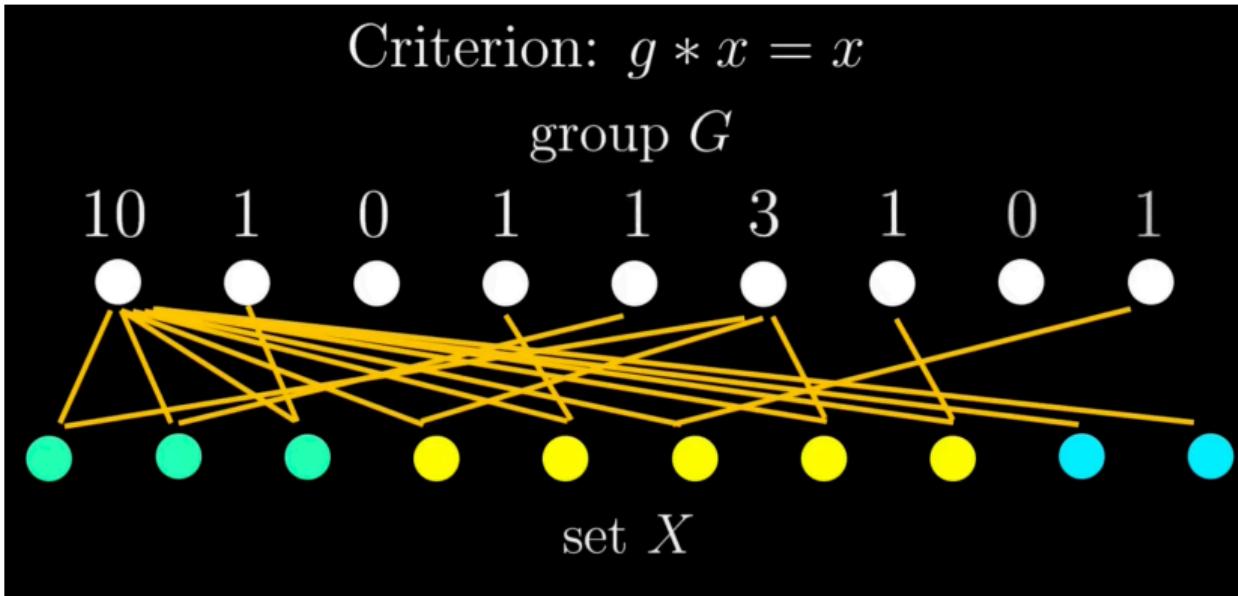


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Let's try to count the number of lines

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We can count number of lines exiting each g



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Formally

Recall,

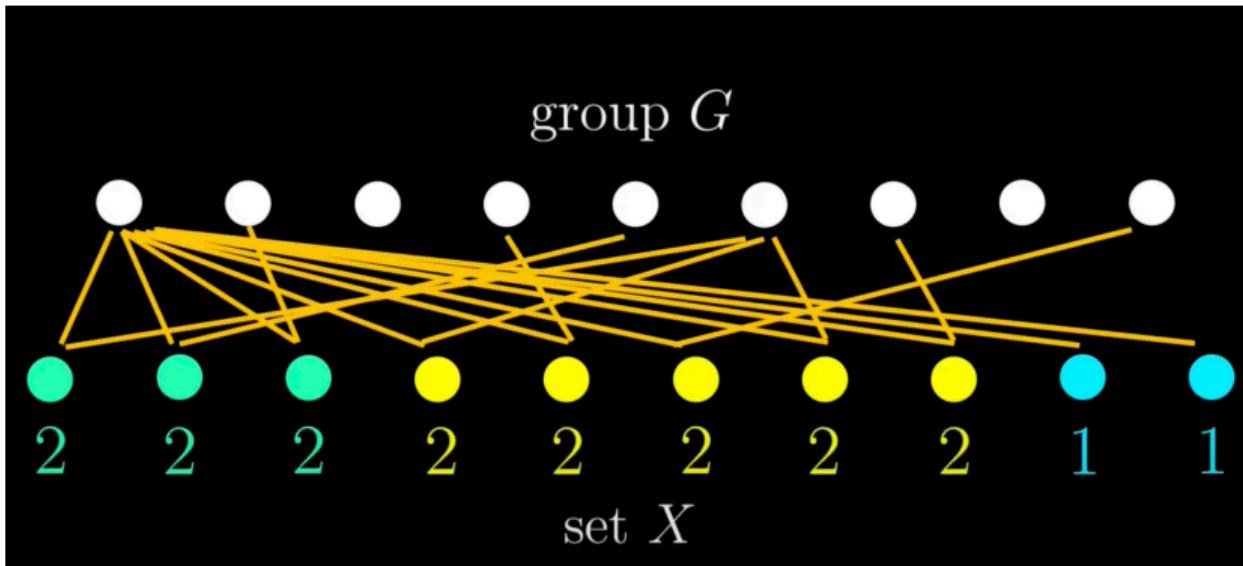
$$\text{fix}(g) = \{x \in X : gx = x\}$$

So our total number of spaghetti is

$$\sum_{g \in G} |\text{fix}(g)|$$

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But we can also count outgoing lines from each x

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Formally

Recall,

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Σ

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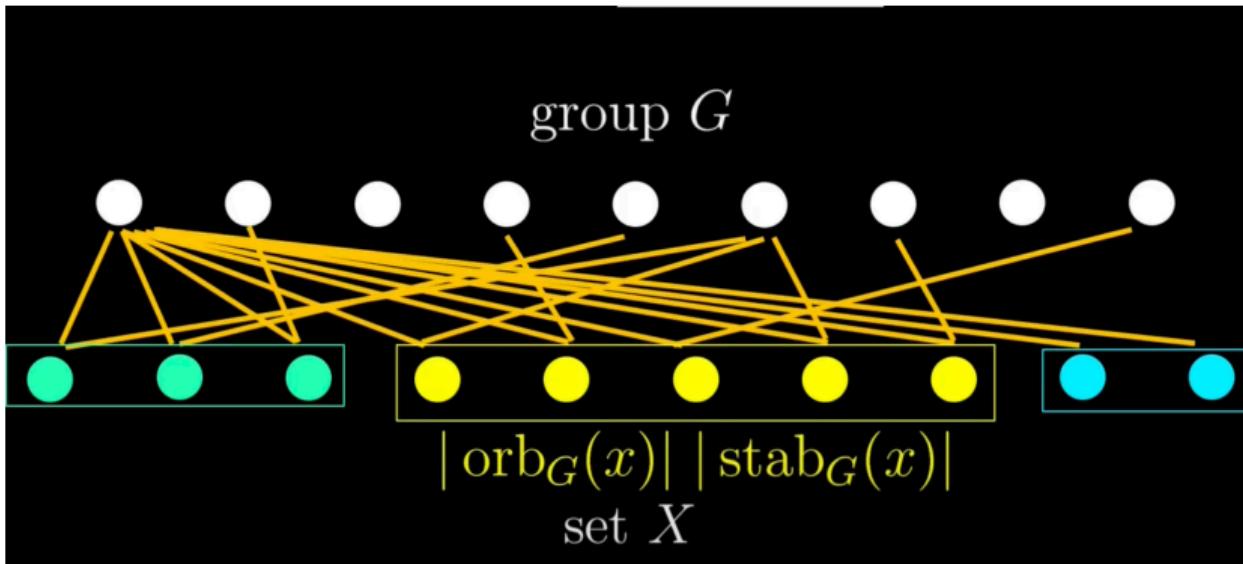
$$\text{stab}(x) = \{g \in G : gx = x\}$$

All x in the same orbit have the same number of stabilizers, so the total number of outgoing spaghetti from an orbit is:

$$|\text{stab}(x)| |\text{orb}(x)|$$

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We then have



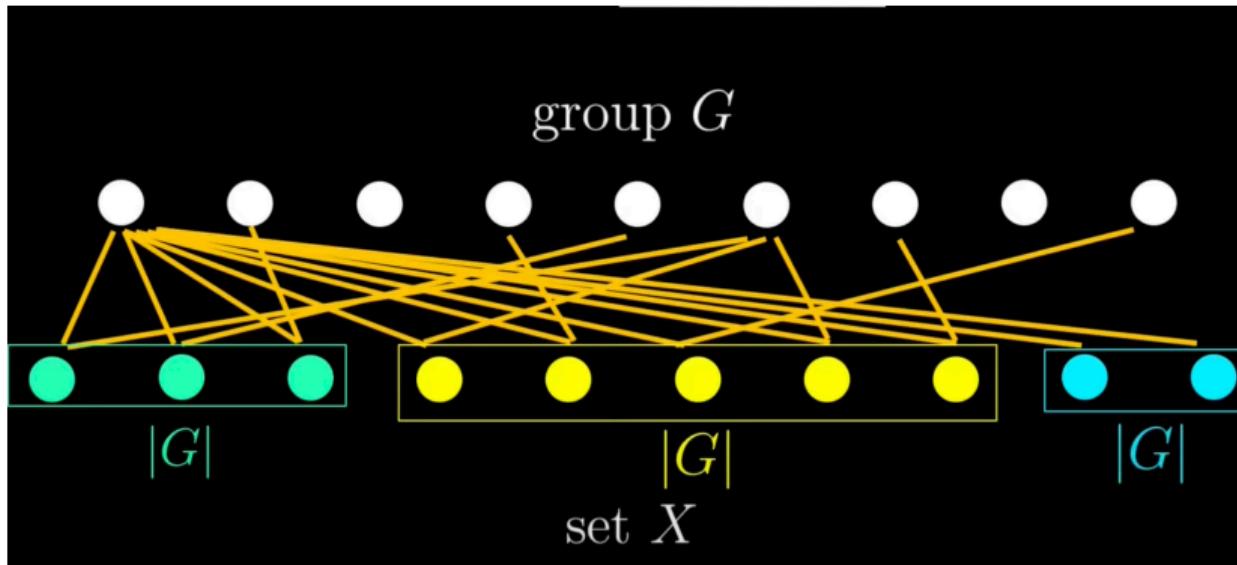
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Orbit-Stabilizer Theorem

$$|G| = |\text{stab}(x)| |\text{orb}(x)|$$

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Thus



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Putting it Together

$$\# \text{ of orbits}(|G|) = \sum_{g \in G} |\text{fix}(g)|$$

$$\implies \# \text{ of orbits} = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} |\text{fix}(g)|$$

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Burnside's Lemma

$$\# \text{ of orbits} = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} |\text{fix}(g)|$$

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Section 6

Examples of Usage

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Original Problem

The sides of a square are to be colored by either red or blue. How many different arrangements exist, if we treat colorings that can be obtained by rotation from another as identical?

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Using Burnside's Lemma

The group is C_4 . Thus, $|G| = 4$.

$$\# \text{ of orbits} = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{g \in G} |\text{fix}(g)|$$

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There are exactly two: all sides red and all sides blue.

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- r_2 : Rotation by π . The opposite sides must be the same color for a fixed point. We thus have $2^2 = 4$.

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Applying Burnside's

$$\# \text{ of orbits} = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{g \in G} |\text{fix}(g)|$$

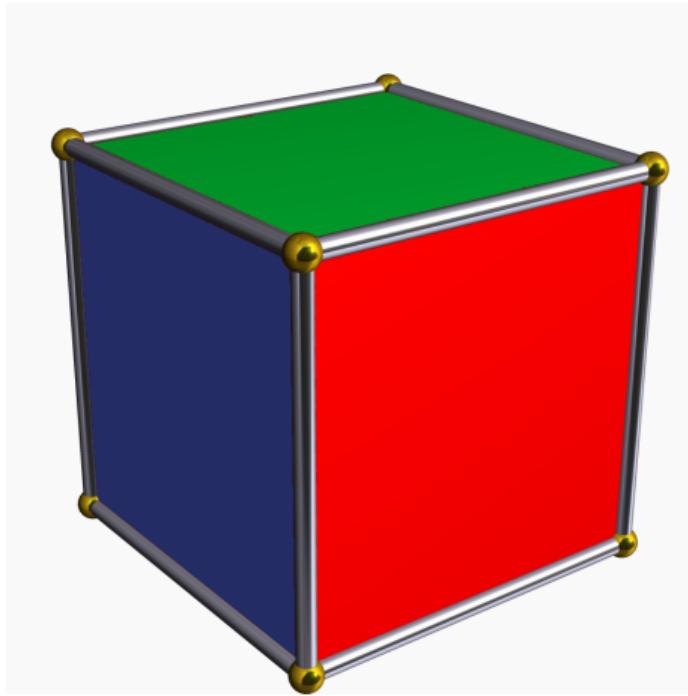
$$\# \text{ of orbits} = \frac{1}{4}(16 + 2 + 2 + 4) = \frac{24}{4} = 6$$

Matches our casework!

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Burnside's on the Cube

Want to color this cube with 3 colors. Rotations are the same cube.

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Burnside's on the Cube

$|G| = 24$. The fixed points are:

- Identity: 3^6 , all are fixed points.
- $\pi/2$ rotations: 4 lateral faces same color, can select axis faces.
 $2 \times 3 \times 3^3$ (accounting for $3\pi/2$ as well), along each axis.
- π : 2 uniquely colored lateral faces, top and bottom: 3×3^4 for each axis.
- $\pi/3$ Rotations about 8 diagonal axes: 8×3^2 : each corner fixes a color.
- π Rotations about 6 edge midpoint axes: 6×3^3 : each edge fixes a color for a pair of faces.

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Burnside's on the Cube

Plugging into Burnside's, we get:

$$\# \text{ of orbits} = \frac{1}{24} (3^6 + 6 \cdot 3^3 + 3 \cdot 3^4 + 8 \cdot 3^2 + 6 \cdot 3^3) = 57$$

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Credits

- Mathemaniac on YouTube for the graphics:
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6kfb0tHL0fs>. The channel also has an excellent proof of the orbit-stabilizer theorem.

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