

AUTOMORPHISMS OF GRAPHS  
MATH 381 — SPRING 2011

An *automorphism* of a graph is an isomorphism with itself. That means it is a bijection,  $\alpha : V(G) \rightarrow V(G)$ , such that

$$\alpha(u)\alpha(v) \text{ is an edge if and only if } uv \text{ is an edge.}$$

We say  $\alpha$  *preserves edges and non-edges*, or as the book says, it *preserves adjacency and nonadjacency*. (If you took combinatorics, you'll remember that a bijection from a set to itself is called a *permutation* of that set; so an automorphism is a permutation of the vertex set, but generally speaking not every permutation will be an automorphism.)

Every graph has the *trivial automorphism*  $\text{id} : V \rightarrow V$  defined by  $\text{id}(v) = v$ . (In other words, it does nothing.) Most graphs (whatever that means exactly, since there are infinitely many finite graphs!) have no other automorphisms, but many interesting graphs have many automorphisms. I discussed the Petersen graph  $P$  in class. It has, for its size, a huge number of automorphisms.

We write  $\text{Aut } G$  for the set of all automorphisms of  $G$ . Thus,  $\text{id} \in \text{Aut } G$  for every graph.

**Example Aut.1.** Here is a graph  $N$  that has no nontrivial automorphisms.

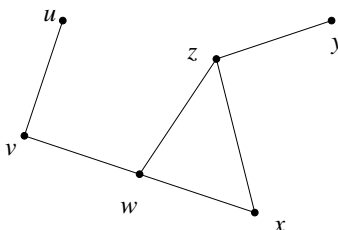


FIGURE AUT.1. A graph  $N$  for which  $|\text{Aut}(N)| = 1$ .

Let's prove that  $\text{Aut } N = \{\text{id}\}$ , that is,  $N$  has no nontrivial automorphisms. Suppose  $\alpha$  is an automorphism. Like any isomorphism,  $\alpha(v_0)$  must have the same degree as  $v_0$ , for any vertex  $v_0$ . So, in particular,  $\alpha(u) = u$  or  $y$ . The neighbor of  $u$  is  $v$ , so  $\alpha(v)$  must be a neighbor of  $\alpha(u)$ . That means  $\alpha(v) = z$  if  $\alpha(u) = y$ , but then  $v$  and  $\alpha(v)$  don't have the same degree, which is impossible for an automorphism. Therefore,  $\alpha(u) = u$ ; that implies  $\alpha(v) = v$  and also  $\alpha(y) = y$  since  $\alpha(y)$  cannot be the same as  $\alpha(u)$  (remember that an automorphism is a bijection). Now  $\alpha(w)$  has to be a neighbor of  $\alpha(v) = v$  and cannot be  $u$ , so  $\alpha(w) = w$ . The only remaining vertex is  $x$ , and  $\alpha(x)$  can't be anything already in the image of  $\alpha$ , which leaves only  $x$  as a possible value for  $\alpha(x)$ . We've proved that  $\alpha(v_0) = v_0$  for every vertex, so  $\alpha = \text{id}$ . Therefore, the only automorphism of  $N$  is  $\text{id}$ .

**Example Aut.2.**  $C_4$  is the opposite: it has quite a few automorphisms, in fact 8. Number the vertices  $v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4$  in order around  $C_4$ . (See any graph in Figure Aut.2.) It's convenient to define  $Z_4 := \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ .

Let's examine the possible automorphisms  $\alpha$  of  $C_4$ . First of all,  $\alpha(v_1) = v_i$  for some  $i \in Z_4$ . Then  $\alpha(v_2)$  has to be a neighbor of  $v_i$ , so it is either  $v_{i+1}$  or  $v_{i-1}$ . (We take the subscripts modulo 4, which means that if  $i + 1 > 4$ , we subtract 4 so it is in  $Z_4$ , and if  $i - 1 < 1$ , we add 4 to put it in  $Z_4$ .) Now  $\alpha(v_4)$  has to be the neighbor of  $v_i$  that isn't  $\alpha(v_2)$ , so it is  $v_{i-1}$

or  $v_{i+1}$ , whichever one is not  $\alpha(v_2)$ . Finally,  $v_{i+2}$  is the only remaining vertex not yet in the image of  $\alpha$ , so it must be equal to  $\alpha(v_2)$ . We can display  $\alpha$  in a table:

$v =$	$v_1$	$v_2$	$v_3$	$v_4$
$\alpha(v) =$	$v_i$	$v_{i\pm 1}$	$v_{i\mp 1}$	$v_{i+2}$

(In reading the table, note that  $i \mp 1$  is the opposite of  $i \pm 1$ , that is,  $\mp = -$  if  $\pm = +$  and  $= +$  if  $\pm = -$ . Also, since we take numbers modulo 4,  $i + 2$  and  $i - 2$  give the same result, and  $i \mp 1$  is the same as  $i \pm 3$ . This is called “modular arithmetic”.)

You’ll notice that we had 4 choices for  $i$ , and then we had to choose either  $i + 1$  or  $i - 1$ , which is 2 further choices. That gives us  $4 \times 2 = 8$  ways to choose an automorphism of  $C_4$ ; thus,  $|\text{Aut}(C_4)| = 8$ , as claimed.

An example is  $\alpha$  in Figure Aut.2, where  $i = 3$  and  $\pm = +$  (that is,  $i \pm 1 = i + 1$ ).  $\beta$  is another example; there  $i = 1$  and  $\pm = -$ .

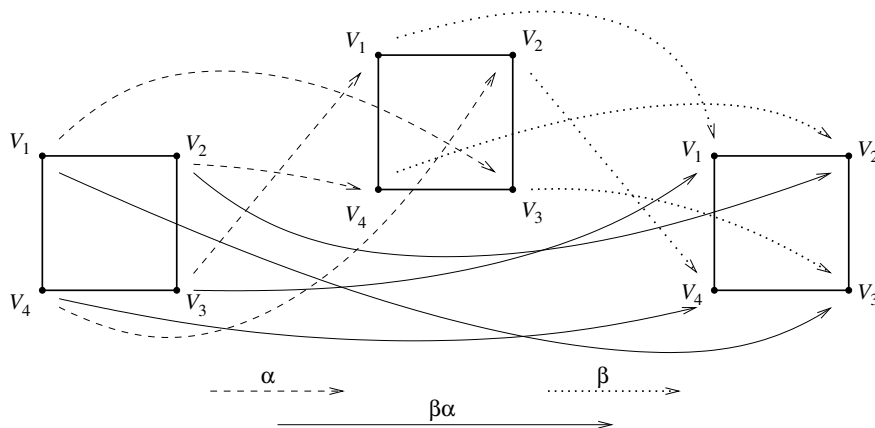


FIGURE AUT.2.  $C_4$  and automorphisms  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and their product  $\beta\alpha$ .

We’ll discuss the product  $\beta\alpha$  in Example Aut.3.

The simplest examples are  $K_n$  and  $\bar{K}_n$ . Every permutation of the vertex set is an automorphism.

**Exercise Aut.1.** Prove that  $\text{Aut } G$  consists of all permutations of  $V$  if and only if  $G$  is complete or has no edges.

**Exercise Aut.2.** Find  $\text{Aut } H$ ; that is, find all automorphisms of  $H$  in Figure Aut.3..

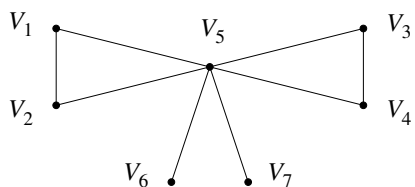


FIGURE AUT.3. A cute graph  $H$ .

As an automorphism is a function, two automorphisms can be composed. Suppose  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are automorphisms of  $G$ . Then they are both bijections  $V \rightarrow V$ . As you know, the composition of two bijections is a bijection. Therefore,  $\beta\alpha$  (the rule is: do  $\alpha$  first, then  $\beta$ ;

the technical definition is  $\beta\alpha(v) = \beta(\alpha(v))$ ) is a bijection  $V \rightarrow V$ . But that doesn't mean it is an automorphism. So, there's a question: Is it?

Similarly, a permutation of  $V$ ,  $\alpha$ , has an inverse function  $\alpha^{-1}$  (because it is a bijection). Is  $\alpha^{-1}$  an automorphism?

**Theorem Aut.1.** *The composition of two automorphisms of  $G$  is an automorphism of  $G$ . The inverse of an automorphism of  $G$  is also an automorphism.*

*Proof.* I will prove the first statement. The second is an exercise.

The definition of an automorphism of  $G$  is that it is a bijection  $f : V \rightarrow V$  such that  $f(u)f(v) \in E \iff uv \in E$ . We want to prove this for  $f = \beta\alpha$ . We know (from Math 330 or equivalent) that it's a bijection. We need to know it preserves edges and non-edges.

We know that's true for  $\alpha$  and for  $\beta$ . Now, let's write the proof using what we know.

We know  $\alpha$  is an automorphism; that means

$$uv \in E \iff \alpha(u)\alpha(v) \in E.$$

We also know  $\beta$  is an automorphism; that means

$$u'v' \in E \iff \beta(u')\beta(v') \in E.$$

In particular, that holds true if we set  $u' = \alpha(u)$  and  $v' = \alpha(v)$ ; so we can write

$$\alpha(u)\alpha(v) \in E \iff \beta(\alpha(u))\beta(\alpha(v)) \in E.$$

Now we combine both if-and-only-ifs:

$$uv \in E \iff \alpha(u)\alpha(v) \in E \iff \beta(\alpha(u))\beta(\alpha(v)) \in E.$$

The conclusion is that

$$uv \in E \iff \beta\alpha(u)\beta\alpha(v) \in E.$$

This is the definition of  $\beta\alpha$ 's being an automorphism. □

**Exercise Aut.3.** Prove the second statement of Theorem Aut.1.

This means we can “multiply” two automorphisms of  $G$ , and we can invert an automorphism. A system in which you can “multiply” any two elements (and they satisfy the associative law) and invert any element is called a *group*. (Students of modern algebra will know this.) Thus, Theorem Aut.1 is saying that  $\text{Aut } G$  is a group. It is called the *automorphism group* of  $G$ . There has been and still is a great deal of research done about it.

**Example Aut.3.** Figure Aut.2 shows two automorphisms,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , and the product  $\beta\alpha$ . Here is a table showing how to compute the product:

$v =$	$v_1$	$v_2$	$v_3$	$v_4$
$\alpha(v) =$	$v_3$	$v_4$	$v_1$	$v_2$
$\beta(v) =$	$v_1$	$v_4$	$v_3$	$v_2$
$\beta(\alpha(v)) =$	$v_3$	$v_2$	$v_1$	$v_4$

**Exercise Aut.4.** The octahedral graph  $O$  (Figure Aut.4) has an automorphism  $\alpha$  such that  $\alpha(v_i) = v_{i+1}$  in the numbering of the figure,<sup>1</sup> and another automorphism  $\beta$  such that

<sup>1</sup>If you get an index  $i+1 > 6$ , reduce modulo 6; that is, subtract 6 so your number is in the range  $1, \dots, 6$ .

$\beta(v_i) = v_{i+3}$  for  $i = 1, 2, 3$  and  $\beta(v_i) = v_{i-3}$  for  $i = 4, 5, 6$ .<sup>2</sup> Calculate the exact values of  $\alpha\beta(v_i)$  and  $\alpha^{-1}(v_i)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, 6$ .

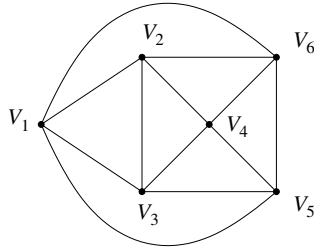


FIGURE AUT.4. Octahedron graph.

**Exercise Aut.5.** (a) Find  $\text{Aut } C_n$ . That is, find all automorphisms of  $C_n$ . Warning:  $\text{Aut } C_3$  is possibly misleading; it is not typical.

(b) Find  $\text{Aut } \bar{C}_n$ .

**Exercise Aut.6.** (a) Find  $\text{Aut } P_n$ ,  $n \geq 1$ .

(b) Find  $\text{Aut } \bar{P}_n$ .

**Exercise Aut.7.** (a) Find  $\text{Aut } O$ .

(b) Find  $\text{Aut } \bar{O}$ .

**Exercise Aut.8.** (a) Find  $\text{Aut } K_{m,n}$ .

(b) Find  $\text{Aut } \bar{K}_{mn}$ .

**Exercise Aut.9.** How are  $\text{Aut } G$  and  $\text{Aut } \bar{G}$  related?

**The Petersen Graph.** The Petersen graph  $P$  is a remarkable example because it has more automorphisms, relative to its size, than almost any other graph. We can see why by looking at a systematic construction of  $P$ . Let  $Z_5 := \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$  and let  $\mathcal{P}_2(Z_5)$  be the set of all unordered pairs of elements of  $Z_5$ . Then  $V(P) = \{v_{ij} : \{i, j\} \in \mathcal{P}_2(Z_5)\}$ ; in words, we label the vertices of  $P$  by the unordered pairs of numbers from 1 to 5. We think of  $v_{ji}$  and  $v_{ij}$  as identical; for instance,  $v_{12}$  and  $v_{21}$  are the same vertex. Two vertices in  $P$  are adjacent if and only if their labels are disjoint sets; formally,  $E(P) = \{v_{ij}v_{kl} : \{i, j\} \cap \{k, l\} = \emptyset\}$ .

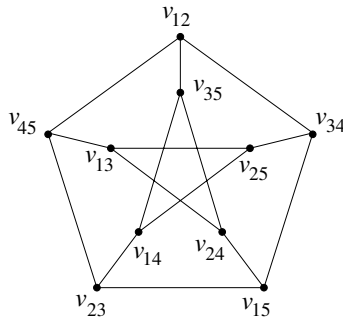


FIGURE AUT.5. The Petersen graph with the 2-index vertex labelling.

<sup>2</sup>If you work modulo 6, then  $\beta(v_i) = v_{i+3}$  for all  $i$ .

If we permute the elements of  $Z_5$  we get a bijection  $V(P) \rightarrow V(P)$ . For instance, suppose we have a permutation  $\zeta$  of  $Z_5$  such that  $\zeta(1) = 2$ ,  $\zeta(2) = 1$ ,  $\zeta(3) = 3$ ,  $\zeta(4) = 5$ , and  $\zeta(5) = 4$ . Then  $\zeta$  gives us the automorphism  $\alpha$  of the following table:

Vertex $v$	$v_{12}$	$v_{13}$	$v_{14}$	$v_{15}$	$v_{23}$	$v_{24}$	$v_{25}$	$v_{34}$	$v_{35}$	$v_{45}$
$\alpha(v)$	$v_{12}$	$v_{23}$	$v_{25}$	$v_{24}$	$v_{13}$	$v_{15}$	$v_{14}$	$v_{35}$	$v_{34}$	$v_{45}$

Any permutation of  $Z_5$  gives an automorphism of  $P$  in the same way, and different permutations give different automorphisms. (See Exercise Aut.11; it's fairly easy.) Since there are  $5! = 120$  permutations of  $Z_5$ , there are at least 120 automorphisms of  $P$ . It's possible to prove there are no more than 120, but I'll omit that. Summarizing:

$$|\text{Aut}(P)| = 120.$$

**Exercise Aut.10.** What does this description of  $P$  tell you about how it's related to line graphs?

**Exercise Aut.11.** This is about how the permutations of  $Z_5$  are related to the automorphisms of  $P$ .

- (a) Prove that any permutation of  $Z_5$  gives an automorphism of  $P$
- (b) Prove that different permutations of  $Z_5$  give different automorphisms of  $P$ .
- (c) (Optional.) Prove there are no other automorphisms of  $P$ . (Not easy, unless you know some theory of permutation groups.)

**Example Aut.4.** Let's try an example to illustrate the theorem of Exercise Aut.11(c). I'll produce an automorphism  $\alpha$  of  $P$  by a simple redrawing of the usual picture, and deduce the permutation of  $Z_5$  that gives that automorphism.

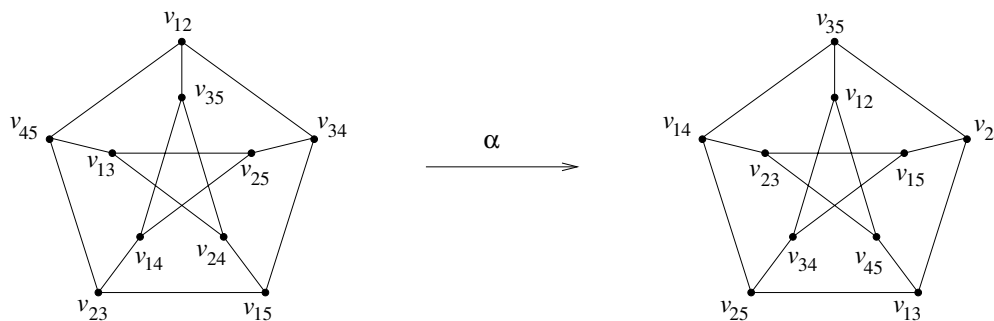


FIGURE AUT.6. An automorphism of  $P$  produced by reversing the outer and inner pentagons.

As you can see, just redrawing the inner (star) pentagon as an outer pentagon and the outer as the inner pentagon makes a new picture that looks exactly like the original; thus, it's clearly an automorphism. Here is the automorphism as a bijection  $V \rightarrow V$ :

Vertex $v$	$v_{12}$	$v_{13}$	$v_{14}$	$v_{15}$	$v_{23}$	$v_{24}$	$v_{25}$	$v_{34}$	$v_{35}$	$v_{45}$
$\alpha(v)$	$v_{35}$	$v_{23}$	$v_{34}$	$v_{13}$	$v_{25}$	$v_{45}$	$v_{15}$	$v_{24}$	$v_{12}$	$v_{14}$

What could be the permutation  $\zeta$  of  $Z_5$  that gives the automorphism  $\alpha$ ? (Its existence is guaranteed by Exercise Aut.11(c).) We track the subscripts.  $\alpha(v_{12}) = v_{35}$  means that 1, 2 become 3, 5; so either  $1 \rightarrow 3, 2 \rightarrow 5$  or  $1 \rightarrow 5, 2 \rightarrow 3$ . We can't tell which, yet, but we'll look at another subscript. Since  $\alpha(v_{15}) = v_{13}$ , either  $1 \rightarrow 1, 5 \rightarrow 3$  or  $1 \rightarrow 3, 5 \rightarrow 1$ . Consistency requires that  $\zeta$  take  $1 \rightarrow 3$ ; therefore,  $2 \rightarrow 5$  and  $5 \rightarrow 1$ . We don't know what  $\zeta$  does with 3 or 4 yet, so we need to look at another vertex. Let's try  $v_{23}$ ; as  $\alpha(v_{23}) = v_{25}$ , and as we already found that  $2 \rightarrow 5$ ,  $\zeta$  must carry  $3 \rightarrow 2$ . Then  $4 \rightarrow 4$ , since we can't carry 4 to anything that's already in the image of  $\zeta$ . Summarizing  $\zeta$ , it is

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ 3 & 5 & 2 & 4 & 1 \end{array}$$