

ABELIAN MAPS, BI-SKEW BRACES, AND OPPOSITE PAIRS OF HOPF-GALOIS STRUCTURES

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ABSTRACT. Let G be a finite nonabelian group, and let $\psi : G \rightarrow G$ be a homomorphism with abelian image. We show how ψ gives rise to two Hopf-Galois structures on a Galois extension L/K with Galois group (isomorphic to) G ; one of these structures generalizes the construction given by a “fixed point free abelian endomorphism” introduced by Childs in 2013. We construct the skew left brace corresponding to each of the two Hopf-Galois structures above. We will show that one of the skew left braces is in fact a bi-skew brace, allowing us to obtain four set-theoretic solutions to the Yang-Baxter equation as well as a pair of Hopf-Galois structures on a (potentially) different finite Galois extension.

1. INTRODUCTION

Let G be a finite nonabelian group, and let L/K be a Galois extension with Galois group G . In [7] Childs introduces the notion of a *fixed point free abelian endomorphism* of G . Given such a map $\psi : G \rightarrow G$ one can endow L/K with a Hopf-Galois structure. Childs furthermore provides a criterion to determine when two different choices of fixed point free abelian endomorphism yield the same Hopf-Galois structure.

In this work, we introduce a generalization to the above theory. By adjusting how an endomorphism gives rise to a Hopf-Galois structure we are able to improve upon the results in [7] in several meaningful ways. First, we are able to drop the fairly restrictive “fixed point free” condition, thereby obtaining a larger family of Hopf-Galois structures. Indeed, under Childs’s classification, each Hopf-Galois structure emanates from the same Hopf algebra; our generalization allows for more Hopf algebras to act on L/K . Second, we simplify the criterion to determine whether endomorphisms give the same Hopf-Galois structure. Finally, in most circumstances (including every case which arises from a fixed point free abelian endomorphism) we are able to find a second Hopf-Galois structure on L/K which is related to the first. While this second structure has been well-known since 1987 (see [10]), Childs’s theory lacks an explicit way to describe it; using our modified correspondence this structure becomes transparent.

The past five years have seen a resurgence in Hopf-Galois theory on Galois extensions due to their relationship with set-theoretic solutions to the Yang-Baxter equation. Guarnieri and Vendramin [11] introduced the notion of skew left braces

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to provide non-degenerate set-theoretic solutions to this equation, building on the work of Rump, who in [17] developed braces to find solutions that are also involutive. In [1] a connection is given between regular, G -stable subgroups of $\text{Perm}(G)$ and left braces for G abelian; this was generalized to the nonabelian case in [19], making the bridge from Hopf-Galois structures and solutions to the Yang-Baxter equation complete: any Hopf-Galois structure on a Galois extension gives rise to such a solution.

Here, given an abelian map ψ we construct what Childs in [5] calls a *bi-skew brace*. A bi-skew brace is a skew left brace which remains a skew left brace upon interchanging the two binary operations. That the skew left brace is bi-skew has several consequences. First, in the theory of Hopf-Galois extensions a bi-skew brace gives rise to two more Hopf-Galois structures, generally on a Galois extension with a different Galois group (that is, one not isomorphic to G). Second, a bi-skew brace gives more solutions to the Yang-Baxter equation; using the theory of skew brace opposites as developed independently by Rump in [18] and the author with Truman in [15], a single abelian endomorphism can give up to four different set-theoretic solutions to the Yang-Baxter equation. Two of these solutions appear in [14] in the fixed point free case.

After a quick survey of the basic background material, we introduce abelian maps. Theorem 3.1 establishes the regular, G -stable subgroup associated to an abelian map, while corollary 3.2 gives the opposite structure. The connection to [7] is given, along with a secondary link to cases where G decomposes as an internal semidirect product as in [8]. The bi-skew brace corresponding to an abelian map is also given, along with (up to) four solutions to the Yang-Baxter equation. We will also find all abelian maps on the symmetric groups S_n , $n \geq 5$, the metacyclic groups $M_{p,q}$ of order pq with p, q prime, and all dihedral groups D_n .

Throughout, G is a finite, nonabelian group with center $Z(G)$, and L/K is a Galois extension with Galois group G . We denote by C_n the cyclic group of order n , written multiplicatively.

2. BACKGROUND

Here, we will provide much of the background needed for the subsequent sections.

2.1. Hopf Galois extensions and Greither-Pareigis theory. In [10], Greither and Pareigis develop a powerful theory to find Hopf-Galois structures which we shall briefly outline here—see, e.g., [6] for a detailed treatment.

Let $\text{Perm}(G)$ denote the group of permutations of G . For $\eta \in \text{Perm}(G)$ we will denote the image of $g \in G$ under η by $\eta[g]$. We say a subgroup $N \leq \text{Perm}(G)$ is *regular* if for all $g, h \in G$ there is a unique $\eta \in N$ such that $\eta[g] = h$. The simplest examples of such subgroups are the image of G under left regular representation $\lambda : G \rightarrow \text{Perm}(G)$ and right regular representation $\rho : G \rightarrow \text{Perm}(G)$. Notice that these two regular subgroups commute with each other: $\lambda(g)\rho(h) = \rho(h)\lambda(g)$ for all $g, h \in G$.

Clearly, $\lambda(G)$ acts on $\text{Perm}(G)$ via conjugation, i.e. $(\lambda(g), \eta) \mapsto {}^g\eta := \lambda(g)\eta\lambda(g^{-1}) \in \text{Perm}(G)$ for $g \in G$, $\eta \in \text{Perm}(G)$. A subgroup $N \leq \text{Perm}(G)$ is said to be *G -stable* if ${}^g\eta \in N$ for all $g \in G$, $\eta \in N$. Note that since ${}^g\lambda(h) = \lambda(ghg^{-1}) \in \lambda(G)$ and ${}^g\rho(h) = \rho(g) \in \rho(G)$ both $\lambda(G)$ and $\rho(G)$ are G -stable.

Suppose $N \leq \text{Perm}(G)$ is regular and G -stable. By [10, Lemma 2.4.2] the subgroup $N' = \text{Cent}_{\text{Perm}(G)}(N) = \{\eta' \in N' : \eta\eta' = \eta'\eta \text{ for all } \eta \in N\}$ is regular,

G -stable, and is isomorphic to N . We will call this the *opposite subgroup* to N , terminology which is justified by the fact that there is a canonical isomorphism $N' \rightarrow N^{\text{opp}}$ [10, Lemma 2.4.2]. As a simple example, $\lambda(G)' = \rho(G)$.

In [10] a one-to-one correspondence between Hopf-Galois structures on L/K and regular, G -stable subgroups is given. For $N \leq \text{Perm}(G)$ the corresponding K -Hopf algebra is the fixed ring $L[N]^G$, where $g \in G$ acts on N via conjugation via $\lambda(g)$ and on L through the Galois action. Furthermore, we will call the Hopf-Galois structure obtained from N' the *opposite Hopf-Galois structure* to $L[N]^G$.

Taking $N = \rho(G)$ gives the usual Galois action. Taking $N = \lambda(G)$ produces what is called the *canonical nonclassical* Hopf Galois structure in [20]. This structure will be of particular importance here and we shall denote its Hopf algebra by H_λ .

Generally, for $N \leq \text{Perm}(G)$ regular, G -stable, the corresponding Hopf-Galois structure with Hopf algebra $H = L[N]^G$ is said to be of *type* N . Note that $\lambda(G)$ and $\rho(G)$ are evidently of type G .

2.2. Fixed point free abelian endomorphisms. Childs’s use of fixed point free abelian endomorphism in [7] provides a useful construction of regular, G -stable subgroups. Here, an endomorphism $\psi : G \rightarrow G$ is said to be *fixed point free* if for every nontrivial $g \in G$ we have $\psi(g) \neq g$; and *abelian* if $\psi(G) \leq G$ is abelian. For brevity, we will often refer to our endomorphisms as “maps”. Note that an abelian map is constant on conjugacy classes. A classification of fixed point free abelian maps on certain classes of finite groups is well understood: see [3, 7, 14].

Given a fixed point free abelian endomorphism $\psi : G \rightarrow G$, we let

$$N = N_\psi = \{\lambda(g)\rho(\psi(g)) : g \in G\}.$$

It is easy to verify that N is a regular, G -stable subgroup of $\text{Perm}(G)$. Furthermore, $N \cong G$ via the map $\lambda(g)\rho(\psi(g)) \mapsto g$.

By [7, Th. 2] we know that $N_{\psi_1} = N_{\psi_2}$ if and only if there is a fixed point free homomorphism $\zeta : G \rightarrow Z(G)$ (necessarily abelian, of course) such that $\psi_2(g) = \psi_1(g\zeta(g^{-1}))\zeta(g)$ for all $g \in G$.

As the N constructed above is regular and G -stable, $\psi : G \rightarrow G$ gives a Hopf-Galois structure on L/K . As mentioned in [7] and explored in greater detail in [12], we have $(L[N])^G \cong H_\lambda$ as K -Hopf algebras, however the precise action on L will be different from the canonical nonclassical action unless $\psi(G) \leq Z(G)$.

2.3. Braces and the Yang-Baxter equation. Regular, G -stable subgroups allow us to construct set-theoretic solutions to the Yang-Baxter equations via skew left braces.

At present time, there is not a standard notation for skew left braces. We will mostly follow the notation in [11], writing $\mathfrak{B} = (B, \cdot, \circ)$ for the skew left brace, where (B, \cdot) and (B, \circ) are groups and, for all $x, y, z \in B$, $x \circ (y \cdot z) = (x \circ y) \cdot x^{-1} \cdot (x \circ z)$. We will write xy for $x \cdot y$ and \bar{x} for the inverse to x under \circ . We will refer to the operations as the dot and circle operations; some works call these the additive and multiplicative operations for historical reasons. We will denote the identity, common to both group structures, by 1_B .

Skew left braces were introduced by Guarnieri and Vendramin [11], generalizing the notion of *left brace* formulated by Rump [17] who required that (B, \cdot) be abelian. For simplicity, we will use “brace” to mean “skew left brace”. We will only consider braces with B finite.

Two simple examples can be found using the group G as the underlying set. We can let $\mathfrak{B} = (G, \cdot, \circ)$ where both (G, \cdot) and (G, \circ) are the usual group operation on G (i.e., $g \cdot h = g \circ h = gh$ for all $g, h \in G$): we call this the *trivial brace* on G . Alternatively, we can let $\mathfrak{B} = (G, \cdot, \circ)$ with (G, \cdot) the usual group operation and $g \circ h = hg$: we call this the *almost trivial brace* on G .

Generalizing the work of [1], Byott and Vendramin [19, Prop. A.5] provide a connection between braces (G, \cdot, \circ) and regular subgroups of the holomorph of (G, \cdot) ; such subgroups gives rise to regular, (G, \circ) -stable subgroups, hence to Hopf-Galois structures on extensions with Galois group (G, \circ) , as follows. Suppose $(N, \cdot) \leq \text{Perm}(G)$ is regular and G -stable. Let $\varkappa : N \rightarrow G$ be the map $\varkappa(\eta) = \eta[1_G]$: as N is regular, \varkappa is a bijection. Then (N, \cdot, \circ) is a brace with $\eta \circ \pi = \varkappa^{-1}(\varkappa(\eta) *_G \varkappa(\pi))$, $\eta, \pi \in N$ where $*_G$ is the usual operation on G . The brace constructed not only incorporates N (as (N, \cdot)) but also G since $\varkappa : (N, \circ) \rightarrow G$ is an isomorphism. It is easy to see that $\lambda(G) \leq \text{Perm}(G)$ gives the trivial brace on G , and $\rho(G) \leq \text{Perm}(G)$ gives the almost trivial brace on G .

If $\mathfrak{B} = (B, \cdot, \circ)$ is a brace and (B, \cdot) is a nonabelian group, the notion of an opposite brace was developed independently in [18] and [15]. The opposite brace is defined as $\mathfrak{B}' = (B, \cdot', \circ)$ where $x \cdot' y = yx$. While the underlying groups of \mathfrak{B} and \mathfrak{B}' are isomorphic (i.e., $(B, \cdot) \cong (B, \cdot')$ and, of course, $(B, \circ) \cong (B, \circ)$), in general $\mathfrak{B} \not\cong \mathfrak{B}'$. Certainly, $\mathfrak{B} = \mathfrak{B}'$ if and only if (B, \cdot) is abelian, however there exist examples of braces isomorphic to their opposite with (B, \cdot) nonabelian: see [15, Ex. 6.1]. Evidently, the trivial brace and almost trivial brace are opposites.

Braces were developed to find certain set-theoretic solutions to the Yang-Baxter equation. A *set-theoretic solution to the Yang-Baxter equation* is a set B together with a function $R : B \times B \rightarrow B \times B$ such that

$$(R \times \text{id})(\text{id} \times R)(R \times \text{id}) = (\text{id} \times R)(R \times \text{id})(\text{id} \times R) : B \times B \times B \rightarrow B \times B \times B.$$

Writing $R(x, y) = (R_x(y), R_y(x))$, then R is *non-degenerate* if both R_x and R_y are bijections. Also, if $R(R(x, y)) = (x, y)$ then R is *involutive*.

For any brace $\mathfrak{B} = (B, \cdot, \circ)$ we let

$$R_{\mathfrak{B}}(x, y) = (x^{-1}(x \circ y), \overline{x^{-1}(x \circ y)} \circ x \circ y)$$

for $x, y \in B$. Then $R_{\mathfrak{B}}$ is a non-degenerate solution to the Yang-Baxter equation. Furthermore, $R_{\mathfrak{B}}$ is involutive if and only if (B, \cdot) is abelian.

If (B, \cdot) is nonabelian, then the opposite brace gives an additional solution

$$R_{\mathfrak{B}'}(x, y) = ((x \circ y)x^{-1}, \overline{(x \circ y)x^{-1}} \circ x \circ y), x, y \in B;$$

furthermore $R_{\mathfrak{B}'}$ is the inverse to $R_{\mathfrak{B}}$ (c.f. e.g., [15, Th. 4.1]).

For example, applying these constructions to the trivial brace gives

$$R_{\mathfrak{B}}(x, y) = (y, y^{-1}xy), R_{\mathfrak{B}'}(x, y) = (xyx^{-1}, x), x, y \in B.$$

3. ABELIAN MAPS AND REGULAR SUBGROUPS

We now show how to construct a regular, G -stable subgroup from an abelian map. Notice that we cannot simply drop the “fixed point free” condition and use Childs’s construction. This is easy to see: if $\psi : G \rightarrow G$ is an abelian map and $\psi(g) = g$, $g \neq 1_G$ then $\lambda(g)\rho(\psi(g))[1_G] = \lambda(1_G)\rho(\psi(1_G))[1_G]$ and so $\{\lambda(g)\rho(\psi(g)) : g \in G\}$ is not regular.

Our main result is as follows.

Theorem 3.1. *Let $\psi : G \rightarrow G$ be an abelian endomorphism. For $g \in G$, define $\eta_g \in \text{Perm}(G)$ by $\eta_g[h] = g\psi(g^{-1})h\psi(g)$, $h \in G$, and let $N = N_\psi = \{\eta_g : g \in G\}$. Then N is a regular, G -stable subgroup of $\text{Perm}(G)$.*

In section 4 we will show how to obtain Childs’s construction from ours.

Proof. We will first show N is in fact a subgroup of $\text{Perm}(G)$. Note that, for $g, h, k \in G$,

$$\begin{aligned} \eta_g\eta_k[h] &= \eta_g[k\psi(k^{-1})h\psi(k)] \\ &= g\psi(g^{-1})k\psi(k^{-1})h\psi(k)\psi(g) \\ &= (g\psi(g^{-1})k\psi(g))\psi(kg)^{-1}h\psi(kg). \end{aligned}$$

Now since ψ is abelian we have $\psi(kg) = \psi(gk) = \psi(g\psi(g^{-1})k\psi(g))$, hence

$$\eta_g\eta_k[h] = (g\psi(g^{-1})k\psi(g))\psi(g\psi(g^{-1})k\psi(g))^{-1}h\psi(g\psi(g^{-1})k\psi(g)) = \eta_{g\psi(g^{-1})k\psi(g)}[h].$$

Thus, $\eta_g\eta_k = \eta_{g\psi(g^{-1})k\psi(g)} \in N$. The identity in N is clearly η_{1_G} , and $\eta_g\eta_k = \eta_{g\psi(g^{-1})k\psi(g)} = \eta_{1_G}$ if $k = \psi(g)g^{-1}\psi(g^{-1})$, hence $\eta_g^{-1} = \eta_{\psi(g)g^{-1}\psi(g^{-1})} \in N$ and $N \leq \text{Perm}(G)$. Since $\eta_g[1_G] = g$ for all $g \in G$, given any $h, k \in G$ we have $\eta_k\eta_h^{-1}[h] = k$ and so N is transitive; as the stabilizer of 1_G is trivial it follows that $N \leq \text{Perm}(G)$ is regular.

Finally, we show N is G -stable. For $g, h, k \in G$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} {}^k\eta_g[h] &= \lambda(k)\eta_g\lambda(k^{-1})[h] \\ &= \lambda(k)\eta_g[k^{-1}h] \\ &= kg\psi(g^{-1})k^{-1}h\psi(g) \\ &= (kg\psi(g^{-1})k^{-1}\psi(g))\psi(g^{-1})h\psi(g), \end{aligned}$$

and since $\psi(kg\psi(g^{-1})k^{-1}\psi(g)) = \psi(g)$ we get ${}^k\eta_g[h] = \eta_{kg\psi(g^{-1})k^{-1}\psi(g)}[h]$ and N is G -stable. □

The opposite subgroup to N is also easy to describe.

Corollary 3.2. *Let ψ be as above. For $g \in G$, define $\eta'_g \in \text{Perm}(G)$ by $\eta'_g[h] = h\psi(h^{-1})g\psi(h)$, and let $N' = N'_\psi = \{\eta'_g : g \in G\}$. Then N' is regular, G -stable, and $N' = \text{Cent}_{\text{Perm}(G)}(N_\psi)$.*

Proof. This can be established in a manner similar to theorem 3.1; alternatively, since $|N| = |N'|$ it suffices to show N and N' commute. Either approach is routine. □

Recall that in the theory of fixed point free abelian endomorphisms it was possible to obtain the same regular, G -stable subgroup for two different choices of ψ . That remains the case here, but with a simpler criterion.

Proposition 3.3. *Let $\psi_1, \psi_2 : G \rightarrow G$ be abelian. Then $N_{\psi_1} = N_{\psi_2}$ if and only if there exists a homomorphism $\zeta : G \rightarrow Z(G)$ such that $\psi_1(g) = \zeta(g)\psi_2(g)$.*

Remark 3.4. This is a clearer notion of equivalence than found in [7], where ζ interacts with the ψ ’s in a more subtle way. The condition is exactly the same: what is different is the presentation of our regular subgroup.

Proof. For $i = 1, 2$ write $N_i = N_{\psi_i} = \{\eta_{i,g} : g \in G\}$. Suppose that $N_1 = N_2$. Since $\eta_{1,g}[1_G] = \eta_{2,g}[1_G] = g$ we see that $\eta_{1,g} = \eta_{2,g'}$ if and only if $g = g'$. Thus, for all $h \in G$ we have

$$\eta_{1,g}[h] = g\psi_1(g^{-1})h\psi_1(g) = g\psi_2(g^{-1})h\psi_2(g) = \eta_{2,g}[h],$$

from which it follows that

$$\psi_2(g)\psi_1(g^{-1})h(\psi_2(g)\psi_1(g^{-1}))^{-1} = h$$

so $\psi_2(g)\psi_1(g^{-1}) \in Z(G)$. Let $\zeta(g) = \psi_2(g)\psi_1(g^{-1})$. Then $\psi_2(g) = \zeta(g)\psi_1(g)$, and since

$$\begin{aligned} \zeta(gh) &= \psi_2(gh)\psi_1((gh)^{-1}) \\ &= \psi_2(g)(\psi_2(h)\psi_1(h^{-1}))\psi_1(g^{-1}) \\ &= \psi_2(g)\zeta(h)\psi_1(g^{-1}) \\ &= \psi_2(g)\psi_1(g^{-1})\zeta(h) && (\zeta(h) \in Z(G)) \\ &= \zeta(g)\zeta(h) \end{aligned}$$

we see that $\zeta : G \rightarrow Z(G)$ is the desired homomorphism. The converse—that having such a ζ shows $N_1 = N_2$ —is trivial. \square

Remark 3.5. As is evident in the above proof, one does not need to show that ζ is a homomorphism: $N_{\psi_1} = N_{\psi_2}$ if and only if $\psi_2(g)\psi_1(g^{-1}) \in Z(G)$ for all $g \in G$.

In [16, Prop. 5.1] we show that if $\varphi \in \text{Aut}(G)$ and $\psi : G \rightarrow G$ is a fixed point free abelian endomorphism, then $\varphi^{-1}\psi\varphi$ is also a fixed point free abelian endomorphism. Here, we extend this result to abelian maps, and give a condition for when conjugating by φ^{-1} fails to give a new regular subgroup.

Proposition 3.6. *If $\psi : G \rightarrow G$ is abelian, and $\varphi \in \text{Aut}(G)$, then $\varphi^{-1}\psi\varphi$ is abelian. Furthermore, $N_\psi = N_{\varphi^{-1}\psi\varphi}$ if and only if $\psi(g\varphi(g^{-1})) \in Z(G)$ for all $g \in G$.*

Proof. Let $\psi_\varphi = \varphi^{-1}\psi\varphi$. That ψ_φ is an abelian map is easy to show, and mimics the proof in [16, Prop. 5.1]. For the second statement, by proposition 3.3 we know $N_\psi = N_{\psi_\varphi}$ if and only if $\psi_\varphi(g)\psi(g^{-1}) \in Z(G)$ for all $g \in G$. We have

$$\psi_\varphi(g)\psi(g^{-1}) = (\varphi^{-1}\psi\varphi(g))(\psi(g^{-1})) = \varphi^{-1}\psi(\varphi(g)g^{-1}),$$

which is in $Z(G)$ if and only if $\psi(\varphi(g)g^{-1}) \in Z(G)$, which is true if and only if its inverse, $\psi(g\varphi(g^{-1}))$, is in $Z(G)$. \square

Let us consider some examples. These are generalizations of examples presented in [14].

Example 3.7. Let $n \geq 5$, and suppose $\psi : S_n \rightarrow S_n$ is abelian. Since $\ker \psi \triangleleft S_n$ we must have $\ker \psi = \{1_{S_n}\}, A_n$, or S_n . As ψ is abelian we know that $\ker \psi \neq \{1_{S_n}\}$, and $\ker \psi = S_n$ if and only if ψ is the trivial map. We shall assume $\ker \psi = A_n$.

Since S_n is generated by transpositions it suffices to describe $\psi(\tau)$ for all transpositions τ . Furthermore, since ψ is abelian and all transpositions are conjugate, $\psi(\tau_1) = \psi(\tau_2)$ for all transpositions $\tau_1, \tau_2 \in S_n$. Since $\tau^2 \in A_n$ we know $\psi(\tau)$ has order 2. So let $\xi \in S_n$ have order 2, and define

$$\psi(\sigma) := \psi_\xi(\sigma) = \begin{cases} 1_G & \sigma \in A_n \\ \xi & \sigma \notin A_n \end{cases}.$$

This is clearly an endomorphism, and since $\psi(S_n) = \langle \xi \rangle \cong C_2$ it is abelian. We can see that ψ is fixed point free if and only if $\xi \in A_n$. The corresponding regular subgroup is $N = \{\eta_\sigma : \sigma \in S_n\}$ with

$$\eta_\sigma[\pi] = \begin{cases} \sigma\pi & \sigma \in A_n \\ \sigma\xi\pi\xi & \sigma \notin A_n \end{cases}.$$

Since $Z(S_n)$ is trivial, each choice of ξ produces a different regular, G -stable subgroup. Note that if we extend the choices of ξ to include $\xi = 1_G$ we also have the trivial map in this classification.

We can also compute the elements of the opposite subgroup: $N' = \{\eta'_\sigma : \sigma \in G\}$ with

$$\eta'_\sigma[\pi] = \begin{cases} \pi\sigma & \pi \in A_n \\ \pi\xi\sigma\xi & \pi \notin A_n \end{cases}.$$

We will see later that the subgroups above capture all of the regular, S_n -stable subgroups of S_n in the case $n = 5$.

Example 3.8. Let $p > q$ be primes, $p \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$, and let $M_{p,q}$ denote the nonabelian group of order pq , namely

$$M_{p,q} = \langle s, t : s^p = t^q = 1_G, tst^{-1} = s^d \rangle$$

where d is an integer whose (multiplicative) order is $q \pmod{p}$. If $\psi : M_{p,q} \rightarrow M_{p,q}$ is a nontrivial abelian endomorphism then $\ker \psi = \langle s \rangle$ since the Sylow p -subgroup is normal in $M_{p,q}$ and the Sylow q -subgroup is not. Thus $\psi(s) = 1_{M_{p,q}}$. Write

$$\psi(t) = s^i t^j, \quad 0 \leq i \leq p-1, \quad 1 \leq j \leq q-1.$$

Then $\psi_{i,j} := \psi$ is an endomorphism with cyclic image, hence abelian. As observed in [14, 6.6], ψ is fixed point free if and only if $j \neq 1$. We will see later that all regular, $M_{p,q}$ -stable subgroups of $M_{p,q}$ come from abelian maps, either directly or through the opposite construction.

4. FIXED POINT FREE ABELIAN ENDOMORPHISMS AND BEYOND

Here, we will show how our work includes all of the constructions in [7], where the abelian maps are all fixed point free. We will also provide a class of examples which suggests that our construction encompasses significantly more Hopf-Galois structures. Recall that an abelian map $\Psi : G \rightarrow G$ is fixed point free if $\Psi(g) = g$ implies $g = 1_G$. (Note the slight change in notation, reserving ψ for our abelian maps.)

Recall that a fixed point free abelian map $\Psi : G \rightarrow G$ gives rise to a regular, G -stable subgroup $N = \{\lambda(g)\rho(\Psi(g)) : g \in G\}$ which is isomorphic to G . As a consequence,

$$N[1_G] = \{g\Psi(g^{-1}) : g \in G\} = G,$$

so every $k \in G$ can be represented uniquely as $k = g\psi(g^{-1})$ for some $g \in G$. Define $\psi : G \rightarrow G$ by $\psi(g\Psi(g^{-1})) = \Psi(g^{-1})$. We first claim that ψ is a fixed point free abelian endomorphism. (Indeed, it is the quasi-inverse of Ψ as described

in [7] and [3].) Note that

$$\begin{aligned} &(g\Psi(g^{-1})h\Psi(g))\Psi(g\Psi(g^{-1})h\Psi(g))^{-1} \\ &= (g\Psi(g^{-1})h\Psi(g))\Psi(h^{-1}g^{-1}) = g\Psi(g^{-1})h\Psi(h^{-1}), \end{aligned}$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(g\Psi(g^{-1})h\Psi(h^{-1})) &= \psi\left((g\Psi(g^{-1})h\Psi(g))\Psi(g\Psi(g^{-1})h\Psi(g))^{-1}\right) \\ &= \Psi(g\Psi(g^{-1})h\Psi(g))^{-1} \\ &= \Psi(g^{-1}h^{-1}) \\ &= \Psi(g^{-1})\Psi(h^{-1}) \\ &= \psi(g\Psi(g^{-1}))\psi(h\Psi(h^{-1})) \end{aligned}$$

and $\psi : G \rightarrow G$ is a homomorphism.

Next, if $\psi(g\Psi(g^{-1})) = g\Psi(g^{-1})$ then $g = 1_G$ by the definition of ψ , hence ψ is fixed point free. Additionally, $\psi(G) = \Psi(G)$ so ψ is abelian.

Next we claim that, for all $g \in G$, $\eta_{g\Psi(g^{-1})} = \lambda(g)\rho(\Psi(g))$. Indeed, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \eta_{g\Psi(g^{-1})}[h] &= (g\Psi(g^{-1}))\psi((g\Psi(g^{-1}))^{-1})h\psi(g\Psi(g^{-1})) \\ &= g\Psi(g^{-1})\Psi(g)h\Psi(g^{-1}) \\ &= \lambda(g)\rho(\Psi(g))[h]. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the construction presented in this work includes all of the structures found in [7].

Conversely, if $\psi : G \rightarrow G$ is fixed point free abelian, giving the regular, G -stable subgroup $N = \{\eta_g\}$ as above, defining $\Psi : G \rightarrow G$ by $\Psi(g\psi(g^{-1})) = \psi(g^{-1})$ gives a fixed point free abelian map, and

$$\lambda(g\psi(g^{-1}))\rho(\Psi(g\psi(g^{-1}))) [h] = g\psi(g^{-1})h\Psi(\psi(g)g^{-1}) = g\psi(g^{-1})h\psi(g) = \eta_g[h].$$

Thus, there is a one-to-one correspondence between the fixed point free constructions presented here and the constructions in [7].

The following “normal complement” example gives a completely different family of Hopf-Galois structures obtained through abelian maps.

Example 4.1. Let $G', G'' \leq G$ with $G' \triangleleft G$, G'' abelian, $G' \cap G'' = \{1_G\}$, and $|G'| |G''| = |G|$. Define $\psi : G \rightarrow G$ by $\psi(hk) = k$, $h \in G'$, $k \in G''$. As G' is normal in G , ψ is a homomorphism, evidently abelian. The corresponding regular, G -stable subgroup of $\text{Perm}(G)$ can be made quite explicit: $N = \{\eta_{hk} : h \in G', k \in G''\}$ with $\eta_{hk} = \lambda(h)\rho(k)$. Thus, $N \cong G' \times G''$.

One obtains from this a proof of [8, Cor. 6] (see also [5, Cor. 7.2]) in the case where the (potentially) non-normal group (here, G'') is abelian.

Note that if G' is nonabelian then we have the opposite subgroup $N' = \{\eta'_{hk} : h \in G', k \in G''\}$ with $\eta'_{hk}[xy] = xy\psi((xy)^{-1})hk\psi(xy) = xhky^{-1}$, $x \in G'$, $y \in G''$ as can be readily computed.

Returning to example 3.7, where an abelian map $\psi : S_n \rightarrow S_n$, $n \geq 5$ depends on the choice of a $\xi \in S_n$ with $\xi^2 = 1_{S_n}$, we observed that ψ was fixed point free if and only if $\xi \in A_n$. Now, observe that if $\xi \notin A_n$ then $S_n = A_n \langle \xi \rangle$ and the above applies, producing a Hopf-Galois structure of type $A_n \times C_2$. In [4, Th. 5, Th. 9]

there is a complete description of regular, G -stable subgroups of $\text{Perm}(S_n)$, $n \geq 5$ of type S_n as well as of type $A_n \times C_2$. The classification given here, together with the opposite groups, account for all such subgroups. Furthermore, [9, Prop. 5] states that the only regular, S_5 -stable subgroups of $\text{Perm}(S_5)$ are of type S_5 or $A_5 \times C_2$. Thus abelian maps give us all desired subgroups when $n = 5$.

Similarly, in example 3.8 an abelian map $\psi : M_{p,q} \rightarrow M_{p,q}$ depends on integers $0 \leq i \leq p - 1$, $1 \leq j \leq q - 1$; furthermore ψ is fixed point free if and only if $j \neq 1$. The case $j = 1$ can be interpreted using example 4.1 by writing $M_{p,q} = \langle s \rangle \langle s^i t \rangle$, giving a Hopf-Galois structure of type $C_p \times C_q$. The Hopf-Galois structures on a metacyclic extension are fully described in [2]. They are all of type $M_{p,q}$ or $C_p \times C_q$. Using the characterization found in [16, §8] it is clear that we have found all such structures here (once opposites are considered in the type $M_{p,q}$ case).

5. ABELIAN MAPS AND BRACES

In [14, Prop. 4.4] the brace corresponding to a fixed point free abelian endomorphism is found. Here we will duplicate this result while allowing our abelian map to have fixed points.

In fact, our description of the regular, G -stable subgroup $N := N_\psi$ (for $\psi : G \rightarrow G$ abelian) allows for a simpler proof than the one given in [14]. The primary reason for this is that the map $\varkappa : N \rightarrow G$ is particularly nice using our construction: $\varkappa(\eta_g) = \eta_g[1_G] = g$. Recall that $\eta_g \eta_h = \eta_{g\psi(g^{-1})h\psi(g)}$ and $\eta_g^{-1} = \eta_{\psi(g)g^{-1}\psi(g^{-1})}$. If we define $\eta_g \circ \eta_h = \varkappa^{-1}(\varkappa(g)\varkappa(h)) = \varkappa^{-1}(gh) = \eta_{gh}$ then (N, \cdot, \circ) is a brace.

It would seem desirable to think of our underlying set as G instead of N . If we identify, through \varkappa , the elements of N with the elements of G , then the dot operation becomes $g \cdot h = \varkappa(\eta_g \eta_h) = \varkappa(\eta_{g\psi(g^{-1})h\psi(g)}) = g\psi(g^{-1})h\psi(g)$ and the circle operation becomes $g \circ h = \varkappa(\eta_g \circ \eta_h) = \varkappa(\eta_{gh}) = gh$. This creates an inconvenient issue with notation, as we can no longer suppress the dot expressions without creating confusion. However, this can be remedied: we claim that (G, \circ, \cdot) is also a brace, which we can prove by showing the brace relation holds on (G, \circ, \cdot) . Swapping our operations this way, for $g, h, k \in G$ we need to show $g \cdot (h \circ k) = (g \cdot h) \circ \bar{g} \circ (g \cdot k)$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} (g \cdot h) \circ \bar{g} \circ (g \cdot k) &= (g\psi(g^{-1})h\psi(g)) \circ \bar{g} \circ (g\psi(g^{-1})k\psi(g)) \\ &= (g\psi(g^{-1})h\psi(g))g^{-1}(g\psi(g^{-1})k\psi(g)) \\ &= g\psi(g^{-1})hk\psi(g) = g \circ (hk). \end{aligned}$$

The brace constructed above is what Childs, in [5] calls a *bi-skew brace*. In short, a bi-skew brace is any (skew left) brace where interchanging the operations results in another (skew left) brace. Noticing that our brace is bi-skew allows us to choose which is the dot operation. For reasons mentioned above, it seems reasonable to exchange the operations, giving the following.

Proposition 5.1. *Let ψ be an abelian map on (G, \cdot) . Then $\mathfrak{B}_\psi = (G, \cdot, \circ)$ is a bi-skew brace, with $g \cdot h = gh$ and $g \circ h = g\psi(g^{-1})h\psi(g)$. Furthermore, $(G, \circ) \cong N_\psi$.*

Of course, this can also be verified by simply checking (G, \circ) is a group and the brace relation holds. The brace constructed is identical to the brace in [14] in the fixed point free case.

The observation that \mathfrak{B}_ψ is bi-skew allows us to construct another Hopf-Galois structure on a Galois extension with, potentially, a different Galois group. In order

to minimize confusion below we will adopt very explicit notation for all of our binary operations.

Theorem 5.2. *Let $\psi : (G, \cdot) \rightarrow (G, \cdot)$ be an abelian endomorphism, and define (G, \circ) as above. Suppose $(N, *_N)$ is an abstract group which is isomorphic to (G, \circ) . Then ψ gives rise to a regular, N -stable subgroup $P \leq \text{Perm}(N)$ with $P \cong G$.*

Proof. Let $\alpha : (G, \circ) \rightarrow (N, *_N)$ be an isomorphism. For $g \in G$, define $\pi_g : N \rightarrow N$ by $\pi_g[n] = \alpha(g \cdot \alpha^{-1}(n))$, and let $P = \{\pi_g : g \in G\}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_g \pi_h[n] &= \pi_g[\alpha(h \cdot \alpha^{-1}(n))] \\ (\alpha^{-1} : N \rightarrow G \text{ is a homomorphism}) \quad &= \alpha(g \cdot \alpha^{-1}(\alpha(h) *_N n)) \\ &= \alpha(g \cdot h \cdot \alpha^{-1}(n)) = \pi_{g \cdot h}[n], \end{aligned}$$

so $P \leq \text{Perm}(N)$ and $P \cong G$. One can easily show P is regular.

Furthermore, we have

$$\begin{aligned} {}^m \pi_g[n] &= \lambda(m) \pi_g \lambda(m^{-1})[n] \\ &= m *_N \alpha(g \cdot \alpha^{-1}(m^{-1} *_N n)) \\ &= m *_N \alpha(\alpha^{-1}(\alpha(g)) \cdot \alpha^{-1}(m^{-1} *_N n)) \\ &= m \alpha(\alpha^{-1}(\alpha(g) *_N m^{-1} *_N n)) \\ &= m *_N \alpha(g) *_N m^{-1} *_N n, \end{aligned}$$

whereas

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_{\alpha^{-1}(m) \cdot g \cdot \alpha^{-1}(m^{-1})}[n] &= \alpha(\alpha^{-1}(m) \cdot g \cdot \alpha^{-1}(m^{-1}) \cdot \alpha^{-1}(n)) \\ &= \alpha(\alpha^{-1}(m) \cdot \alpha^{-1}(\alpha(g)) \cdot \alpha^{-1}(m^{-1}) \cdot \alpha^{-1}(n)) \\ &= m *_N \alpha(g) *_N m^{-1} *_N n, \end{aligned}$$

hence ${}^m \pi_g = \pi_{\alpha^{-1}(m) \cdot g \cdot \alpha^{-1}(m^{-1})}$ and P is N -stable. \square

Example 5.3. Let $G = S_n$, $\xi \in S_n$ an odd permutation of order 2, and suppose $n \geq 5$. Let $\psi = \psi_\xi$ as in example 3.7. Then we have seen that $N_\psi \cong A_n \times C_2$, hence there is a Hopf-Galois structure on an $A_n \times C_2$ extension of type S_n . An isomorphism $\alpha : (G, \circ) \rightarrow A_n \times C_2$ corresponding to our choice of ξ is given by $\alpha(\sigma) = (\sigma, 1_{C_2})$, $\alpha(\tau) = (\tau\xi, \xi)$, $\sigma \in A_n$, $\tau \notin A_n$, $C_2 = \langle \xi \rangle$. Then

$$\pi_\tau[(\sigma, 1_{C_2})] = \begin{cases} (\tau\sigma, 1_{C_2}) & \tau \in A_n \\ (\tau\sigma\xi, \xi) & \tau \notin A_n \end{cases}, \quad \pi_\tau[(\sigma, \xi)] = \begin{cases} (\tau\sigma, 1_{C_2}) & \tau \in A_n \\ (\tau\sigma, \xi) & \tau \notin A_n \end{cases}.$$

Of course, the construction above depends on a choice of isomorphism $\alpha : (G, \circ) \rightarrow N$. If $\beta : (G, \circ) \rightarrow N$ is another isomorphism, then $\alpha\beta^{-1} \in \text{Aut}(N)$ and the resulting regular subgroups differ by conjugation by $\alpha\beta^{-1}$.

We have described how one can use a brace (B, \cdot, \circ) to construct two set-theoretic solutions to the Yang-Baxter equation. When a brace is in fact bi-skew, we get (up

to) four solutions, namely

$$\begin{aligned} R_{\mathfrak{B}}(x, y) &= (x^{-1}(x \circ y), \overline{x^{-1}(x \circ y)} \circ x \circ y) \\ R_{\mathfrak{B}'}(x, y) &= ((x \circ y)x^{-1}, \overline{(x \circ y)x^{-1}} \circ x \circ y) \\ S_{\mathfrak{B}}(x, y) &= (\bar{x} \circ (xy), (\bar{x} \circ (xy))^{-1}xy) \\ S_{\mathfrak{B}'}(x, y) &= ((xy) \circ \bar{x}, ((xy) \circ \bar{x})^{-1}xy). \end{aligned}$$

Applying these formulas to our bi-skew brace gives the following.

Corollary 5.4. *Let $\psi : G \rightarrow G$ be an abelian endomorphism. Then each of the following is a set-theoretic solution to the Yang-Baxter equation:*

$$\begin{aligned} R_{1,\psi}(g, h) &= (\psi(g^{-1})h\psi(g), \psi(hg^{-1})h^{-1}\psi(g)g\psi(g^{-1})h\psi(gh^{-1})) \\ R_{2,\psi}(g, h) &= (g\psi(g^{-1})h\psi(g)g^{-1}, \psi(h)g\psi(h^{-1})) \\ R_{3,\psi}(g, h) &= (\psi(g)h\psi(g^{-1}), \psi(g)h^{-1}\psi(g^{-1})gh) \\ R_{4,\psi}(g, h) &= (gh\psi(h^{-1})g^{-1}\psi(h), \psi(h^{-1})g\psi(h)), \quad g, h \in G. \end{aligned}$$

Furthermore:

- (1) $R_{1,\psi} = R_{2,\psi}$ if and only if G is an abelian group (in which case $R_{1,\psi}(g, h) = R_{2,\psi}(g, h) = (h, g)$).
- (2) $R_{3,\psi} = R_{4,\psi}$ if and only if $g\psi(g^{-1})h\psi(g) = h\psi(h^{-1})g\psi(h)$ for all $g, h \in G$.
- (3) $R_{1,\psi}R_{2,\psi} = R_{3,\psi}R_{4,\psi} = \text{id}$.

Proof. The solutions are straightforward computations, and (1)–(3) follow from properties of opposite braces. □

6. FIVE SUBGROUPS OF G AND N , AND FIVE SUB-HOPF-ALGEBRAS OF $K[N]^G$

Recall that if $\psi : G \rightarrow G$ is a fixed point free abelian map, then we obtain a Hopf Galois structure of type G whose Hopf algebra $L[N]^G$ is isomorphic to H_λ as K -Hopf algebras. Once we allow ψ to have fixed points our structure may no longer be of type G , nor need the Hopf algebra be isomorphic to H_λ . We ask: can we determine the type of the Hopf-Galois structure arising from an abelian map ψ ? In general, there appears to be no easy way to determine the isomorphism type of N_ψ , however we are able to obtain some results about this group's structure.

We will investigate questions on Hopf-Galois structure through the use of five subgroups of G that depend on ψ . Each of these subgroups give rise to a (non-regular) G -stable subgroup of $\text{Perm}(G)$, which in turn will give a sub-Hopf algebra of $H = L[N]^G$.

In [16], the concepts of λ -points and ρ -points were introduced to investigate questions involving brace equivalence. Given a regular, G -stable subgroup $N \leq \text{Perm}(G)$ the sets of λ -points and ρ -points, denoted Λ_N and P_N respectively, are defined as

$$\Lambda_N = N \cap \lambda(G), \quad P_N = N \cap \rho(G).$$

Both Λ_N and P_N are subgroups of N . Note that if N_1 and N_2 are brace equivalent then $\Lambda_{N_1} \cong \Lambda_{N_2}$ and $P_{N_1} \cong P_{N_2}$ [16, Prop. 6.3].

First, we let $G_0 = \ker \psi$, $N_0 = \{\eta_{g_0} : g_0 \in G_0\}$. Since $\eta_{g_0}[h] = g_0\psi(g_0^{-1})h\psi(g_0) = g_0h$, $g_0 \in G_0$, $h \in G$ we have $N_0 = \lambda(G_0) \leq N$. In particular, note that $N_0 \cong G_0$,

providing us some information as to the structure of N . Clearly, $G_0 \triangleleft G$, and

$$\begin{aligned} \eta_g \eta_{g_0} \eta_g^{-1} &= \eta_g \eta_{g_0 \psi(g_0^{-1})(\psi(g)g^{-1}\psi(g^{-1}))\psi(g_0)} \\ &= \eta_g \eta_{g_0 \psi(g)g^{-1}\psi(g^{-1})} \\ &= \eta_{g\psi(g^{-1})(g_0\psi(g)g^{-1}\psi(g^{-1}))\psi(g)} \\ &= \eta_{(g\psi(g^{-1}))g_0(g\psi(g^{-1}))^{-1}} \in N_0 \end{aligned}$$

by the normality of G_0 .

Since $N_0 = \lambda(G_0)$ is G -stable, by [10, Th. 5.2] (see also [13, Prop. 2.2] for a more explicit formulation), $H_0 := (L[N_0])^G = L[\lambda(G_0)]^G$ is a sub-Hopf algebra of H which is also contained in H_λ .

Generalizing slightly, let $\widehat{G}_0 = \psi^{-1}(Z(G))$. This is evidently a subgroup of G containing G_0 , and let $\widehat{N}_0 := \{\eta_{\hat{g}_0} : \hat{g}_0 \in \widehat{G}_0\}$.

Lemma 6.1. *With notation as above, $\widehat{N}_0 = \Lambda_N$.*

Proof. For $\hat{g}_0 \in \widehat{G}_0$, $h \in G$ we have $\eta_{\hat{g}_0}[h] = \hat{g}_0 \psi(\hat{g}_0^{-1})h\psi(\hat{g}_0) = \hat{g}_0 h$ so clearly $\widehat{N}_0 \subset \Lambda_N$. Conversely, if $\eta_g \in \Lambda_N$ then $\eta_g = \lambda(k)$ for some $k \in G$: evaluating this expression at 1_G shows $g = k$. Thus, $\eta_g[h] = g\psi(g^{-1})h\psi(g) = gh$, so $\psi(g^{-1})h\psi(g) = h$ for all $h \in G$. This can only occur if $\psi(g) \in Z(G)$. \square

As both N and $\lambda(G)$ are G -stable, so is \widehat{N}_0 . Thus, $\widehat{H}_0 := (L[\widehat{N}_0])^G$ is a sub-Hopf algebra of H . It is precisely the sub-Hopf algebra of H_λ obtained by restricting to \widehat{G}_0 , i.e., $\widehat{H}_0 = L[\lambda(\widehat{G}_0)]^G$.

Next, let $G_1 = \{g_1 \in G : \psi(g_1) = g_1\}$ be the subgroup of fixed points. Clearly G_1 is abelian, although typically G_1 is not normal in G . If we let $N_1 = \{\eta_{g_1} : g_1 \in G_1\}$ then $\eta_{g_1}[h] = g_1 g_1^{-1} h g_1 = h g_1$ for all $h \in G$, hence $\eta_{g_1} = \rho(g_1^{-1})$. Thus $N_1 = \rho(G_1)$ is a subgroup of N isomorphic to G_1 .

We also have ${}^k \eta_{g_1} = \eta_{k g_1 \psi(g_1^{-1})k^{-1} \psi(g_1)} = \eta_{\psi(g_1)}$, so G acts trivially on N_1 . Thus, $H_1 = (L[N_1])^G = K[G_1]$ is a sub-Hopf algebra of H .

Generalizing again, let $\phi : G \rightarrow G$ be given by $\phi(g) = g\psi(g^{-1})$ for all $g \in G$. Define $\widehat{G}_1 = \{\hat{g} \in G : \phi(\hat{g}) \in Z(G)\}$. As ϕ is trivial on fixed points we clearly have $G_1 \leq \widehat{G}_1$. Since $\phi(\hat{g}\hat{h}) = \hat{g}\hat{h}\psi(\hat{h}^{-1}\hat{g}^{-1}) = \hat{g}\phi(\hat{h})\psi(\hat{g}^{-1}) = \phi(\hat{g})\phi(\hat{h})$ for $\hat{h} \in \widehat{G}_1$ we see this is in fact a subgroup of G . If we define $\widehat{N}_1 = \{\eta_{\hat{g}_1} : \hat{g}_1 \in \widehat{G}_1\}$ we get

Lemma 6.2. *With notation as above, $\widehat{N}_1 = P_N$.*

Proof. For $\hat{g}_1 \in \widehat{G}_1$ we have $\eta_{\hat{g}_1}[h] = \hat{g}_1 \psi(\hat{g}_1^{-1})h\psi(\hat{g}_1) = \phi(\hat{g}_1)h\psi(\hat{g}_1) = h\phi(\hat{g}_1)\psi(\hat{g}_1) = h\hat{g}_1$ hence $\eta_{\hat{g}_1} = \rho(\hat{g}_1^{-1}) \in P_N$. Conversely, suppose $\eta_g = \rho(k)$. By evaluating at 1_G we see $k = g^{-1}$, hence for all $h \in G$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \eta_g[h] &= g\psi(g^{-1})h\psi(g) = hg \\ &g\psi(g^{-1})h = hg\psi(g^{-1}) \\ &\phi(g)h = h\phi(g), \end{aligned}$$

thus $\phi(g) \in Z(G)$, i.e., $g \in \widehat{G}_1$. Therefore, $\eta_g \in \widehat{N}_1$. \square

Since ${}^k \eta_{\hat{g}_1} = \eta_{k\phi(\hat{g}_1)k^{-1}\psi(\hat{g}_1)} = \eta_{\hat{g}_1}$ we see that G acts trivially on \widehat{N}_1 . Then $\widehat{H}_1 := (L[\widehat{N}_1])^G = K[\widehat{G}_1]$ is a sub-Hopf algebra of H . In fact, \widehat{H}_1 is the largest group ring contained in H .

Finally, note that $G_0 \cap G_1$ is trivial, hence $N_0 \cap N_1 = \{1_N\}$. Since $G_0 \triangleleft G$ and $N_0 \triangleleft N$ we get

$$G_{01} := G_0G_1 = \{g_0g_1 : g_0 \in G_0, g_1 \in G_1\} \leq G,$$

$$N_{01} := N_0N_1 = \{\eta_{g_0g_1} : g_0 \in G_0, g_1 \in G_1\} \leq N.$$

We have $\eta_{g_0g_1}[h] = g_0g_1\psi(g_1^{-1}g_0^{-1})h\psi(g_0g_1) = g_0hg_1$ hence $\eta_{g_0g_1} = \lambda(g_0)\rho(g_1^{-1})$. The group N_{01} is evidently G -stable, giving rise to another sub-Hopf algebra $H_{01} := (L[N_{01}])^G \cong (L[N_0])^G \otimes K[G_1]$.

The construction of the subgroups above allow us to obtain the following. Note the relationship between the following result and example 4.1.

Proposition 6.3. *Let $\psi : G \rightarrow G$ be abelian, and let G_0, G_1, N_0, N_1 be as above. Then N_ψ has a subgroup isomorphic to $G_0 \times G_1$. In particular, if $|G_0||G_1| = |G|$ then $N_\psi \cong G_0 \times G_1$.*

Proof. The work above creates the subgroup $N_{0,1} = N_0N_1$. That $N_{0,1} \cong N_0 \times N_1$ follows from $\eta_{g_0g_1}\eta_{h_0h_1} = \lambda(g_0)\rho(g_1^{-1})\lambda(h_0)\rho(h_1^{-1}) = \lambda(g_0h_0)\rho(g_1h_1) = \eta_{g_0h_0g_1h_1}$. □

We conclude with an investigation of dihedral groups. Let $G = D_n = \langle r, s : r^n = s^2 = rsrs = 1_G \rangle$. We will find all abelian maps on G and determine the type of each Hopf-Galois structure. Suppose $\psi : G \rightarrow G$ is an abelian map. Since $\psi(r)\psi(s) = \psi(rs) = \psi(sr) = \psi(r^{-1}s) = \psi(r^{-1})\psi(s)$ we know that $\psi(r)$ must be an element whose order divides both 2 and n . We will examine two cases, based on the parity of n .

Suppose first that n is odd. Then $\psi(r) = 1_G$. Letting $\psi(s) = r^i s$ for some $0 \leq i \leq n - 1$ gives an abelian map, and it is clear that every nontrivial abelian map is of this form. Since $Z(D_n) = \{1_G\}$ each choice of i gives a different regular, G -stable subgroup. For each, $G_0 = \langle r \rangle$ and $G_1 = \langle r^i s \rangle$, so the resulting Hopf-Galois structure is of type $C_n \times C_2$. Thus we have $n + 1$ Hopf-Galois structures, one of type D_n and n of type $C_n \times C_2$.

Now suppose n is even. Then $\psi(r) = 1_G, r^{n/2}$, or $r^i s$ for some $0 \leq i \leq n - 1$; and $\psi(s) = 1_G, r^{n/2}$, or $r^j s$ for some $0 \leq j \leq n - 1$. However, since $r^{n/2} \in Z(D_n)$ we need only study the following cases:

Case 1 ($\psi(r) = \psi(s) = 1_G$). Then $\psi = \text{id}$, and the Hopf-Galois structure is of type D_n .

Case 2 ($\psi(r) = 1_G, \psi(s) = r^j s, 0 \leq j \leq (n/2) - 1$). As in the case n is odd we get $G_0 = \langle r \rangle$ and $G_1 = \langle r^j s \rangle$, hence we get $n/2$ Hopf-Galois structures of type $C_n \times C_2$.

Case 3 ($\psi(r) = r^i s, \psi(s) = 1_G, 0 \leq i \leq (n/2) - 1$). Since $\psi(r^i s) = (r^i s)^i$ we see that $r^i s$ is a fixed point if and only if i is odd. If i is even then ψ is fixed point free, hence the corresponding Hopf-Galois structure is of type D_n . On the other hand, if i is odd, then $G_0 = \langle r^2, s \rangle \cong D_{n/2}$ (note $D_2 \cong C_2 \times C_2$) and $G_1 = \langle r^i s \rangle$, hence the Hopf-Galois structure is of type $D_{n/2} \times C_2$. Overall, this case gives $n/4$ Hopf-Galois structures of type D_n and $n/4$ Hopf-Galois structures of type $D_{n/2} \times C_2$ if $n \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$; and $n/2$ Hopf-Galois structures of type D_n if $n \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ (since $D_{n/2} \times C_2 \cong D_n$).

Case 4 ($\psi(r) = \psi(s) = r^i s, 0 \leq i \leq (n/2) - 1$). (Note that $\psi(r) = r^i s, \psi(s) = r^j s, 0 \leq i, j \leq (n/2) - 1$ is abelian if and only if $i = j$.) In this case, $r^i s$ is a fixed

point if and only if i is even. Thus, for i odd we get a Hopf-Galois structure of type D_n . On the other hand, if i is even then $G_0 = \langle r^2, rs \rangle \cong D_{n/2}$, $G_1 = \langle r^i s \rangle$, and the Hopf-Galois structure is of type $D_{n/2} \times C_2$.

The Hopf-Galois structure types are summarized in the following table.

n	# type D_n	# type $D_{n/2} \times C_2$	# type $C_n \times C_2$	# abelian maps	# HGS
$n=4$	3	2	2	7	10
$2 n, n>4$	$1+n/2$	$n/2$	$n/2$	$1+3n/2$	$2+5n/2$
$2 \nmid n$	1	N/A	n	$1+n$	$2+n$

The rightmost column counts the total number of regular, G -stable subgroups found using abelian maps directly or through their opposite structures. The figures in this column are obtained by doubling the total number of abelian maps giving structures of nonabelian type and adding this sum to the total number of abelian maps giving structures of abelian type. We justify this below. The fact that $D_{n/2} \times C_2$ is abelian if and only if $n = 4$ accounts for the exceptional behavior for $n = 4$: note that the number of abelian maps for $n = 4$ follows the more general formulas for the $2 | n, n > 4$ case.

Our method of choosing ψ , where we avoid selecting nontrivial central elements for $\psi(r)$ and $\psi(s)$, ensures that the resulting regular, G -stable subgroups (and hence Hopf Galois structures) will all be distinct. It follows that the regular, G -stable subgroups arising from the opposite structures are necessarily distinct as well.

Finally, a nonabelian regular, G -stable subgroup arising from the opposite structure corresponding to an abelian map will never be realizable as a structure coming directly from an abelian map, i.e., there is no pair ψ, ψ' of abelian maps on G with $g\psi'(g^{-1})h\psi'(g) = h\psi(h^{-1})g\psi(h)$ for all $g, h \in G$. To see this, let $h \in \ker \psi$ with $h \notin Z(G)$: one can pick either $h = s$ or $h = rs$ in each of the cases above. Then $g\psi'(g^{-1})h\psi'(g) = hg$ for all $g \in G$, i.e., $h = (g\psi'(g^{-1}))h(g\psi'(g^{-1}))^{-1}$. If we let $g = r^2$ then $g\psi(g^{-1}) = r^2\psi(r^2) = r^2$. Since $r^2sr^2 = r^4s$ and $r^2(rs)r^2 = r^4(rs)$ we see that $g\psi'(g^{-1})h\psi'(g) \neq hg$ for $n \neq 4$. In the case $n = 4$ all nonabelian regular, G -stable subgroups arise from abelian maps which are fixed point free; as $\{g\psi(g^{-1}) : g \in G\} = G$ if and only if ψ is fixed point free it would follow that $h \in Z(G)$, a contradiction. Thus the Hopf Galois structures constructed above are all distinct.

The number of structures of type D_n (or $D_{n/2} \times C_2$ if $n \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$) arising from fixed point free abelian maps agrees with the results found in [7, §5] before opposites are considered.

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