# Classification of the Finite Subgroups of the Rotation Group 

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## Preliminaries

The special orthogonal group is defined to be $S O_{3}=\left\{A \in G L_{3}(\mathbb{R}) \mid A^{t} A=I, \operatorname{det} A=1\right\}$.

A matrix $A$ represents a rotation in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ about the origin if and only if $A \in S O_{3}$.

Hence $\mathrm{SO}_{3}$ is also called the rotation group in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$.

## Main Theorem

Every finite subgroup $G$ of $\mathrm{SO}_{3}$ is one of the following:
$C_{k}$ : the cyclic group
$D_{k}$ : the dihedral group
$T$ : the tetrahedral group
$O$ : the octahedral group
$I$ : the icosahedral group

## Descriptions

$C_{k}$ : the cyclic group of rotations by multiples of $2 \pi / k$ about a line
$D_{k}$ : the dihedral group of symmetries of a regular $k$-gon
$T$ : the tetrahedral group of twelve rotations carrying a regular tetrahedron to itself

$O$ : the octahedral group of order 24 of rotations of a cube or regular octahedron

$I$ : the icosahedral group of order 60 of rotations of a regular dodecahedron or regular icosahedron


## Proof of the Main Theorem

## Useful Definitions:

Let $G$ be a finite subgroup of $S O_{3}$, and $g \in G \backslash\{1\}$.
Then $g$ is a rotation about a unique line, call it $\ell$.
$g$ fixes the two points in $l \cap S^{2}$.
Call these points the poles of $g$.

Define $P:=\left\{p \in S^{2}: g p=p\right.$ for some $\left.g \in G \backslash\{1\}\right\}$.

## Proof of the Main Theorem, con't

## Lemma:

$P$ is carried to itself by the action of $G$ on $S^{2}$.
Proof:
Let $p \in P$ be a pole of some $g \in G$.
Let $x \in G$ be arbitrary.
It suffices to show that $x p \in P$.
Consider $x g x^{-1} \in G: x g x^{-1}(x p)=x(g p)=x p$, so $x g x^{-1}$ fixes $x p$.

Thus $x p \in P$.

## Proof of the Main Theorem, con't

## Notation:

Let $G$ be a finite subgroup of $S O_{3}$, and $\mathrm{N}=|G|$.

Fix $p \in P$, and let $\ell$ be the line through $(0, p)$.

Let $G_{p}$ be the stabilizer of $p$ in $G$, which is the group of rotations about $\ell$. Let $r_{p}=\left|G_{p}\right|$.

Let $O_{p}$ be the orbit of $p$ in $G$, and $n_{p}=\left|O_{p}\right|$.

Then $\left|G_{p}\right|\left|O_{p}\right|=r_{p} n_{p}=\mathrm{N}=|G| \forall p \in P$.

## Proof of the Main Theorem, con't

Calculating the Number of Poles:
$\exists r_{p}-1$ elements of $G$ which have $p$ as a pole.
Each $g \in G \backslash\{1\}$ has two poles.

Thus $\sum_{p \in P}\left(r_{p}-1\right)=2(\mathrm{~N}-1)$.

If $p$ and $p^{\prime}$ are in the same orbit, then $r_{p}=r_{p^{\prime}}$.
There are $n_{p}$ terms in the sum corresponding to a given orbit $O_{p}$, which implies that there are $n_{p}\left(r_{p}-1\right)$ poles.

## Proof of the Main Theorem, con't

Calculating the Number of Orbits:
Number the orbits $O_{1}, O_{2}, .$. , with $n_{i}=\left|O_{i}\right|$ and $r_{i}=\left|G_{p}\right| \forall p \in O_{i}$.

Then $\sum_{i} n_{i}\left(r_{i}-1\right)=2 \mathrm{~N}-2$.
Since $n_{i} r_{i}=\mathrm{N}$, we have
$2-\frac{2}{\mathrm{~N}}=\sum_{i}\left(1-\frac{1}{r_{i}}\right)$.
Then $2-\frac{2}{\mathrm{~N}}<2$ and $1-\frac{1}{r_{i}} \geq \frac{1}{2}$
Hence $\exists$ at most 3 orbits.

## Proof of the Main Theorem, con't

## One Orbit:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 2-\frac{2}{\mathrm{~N}}=1-\frac{1}{r} \text { cannot be, since } \\
& 2-\frac{2}{\mathrm{~N}} \geq 1 \text { while } 1-\frac{1}{r}<1
\end{aligned}
$$

## Proof of the Main Theorem, con't

## Two Orbits:

$$
2-\frac{2}{\mathrm{~N}}=\left(1-\frac{1}{r_{1}}\right)+\left(1-\frac{1}{r_{2}}\right) \Rightarrow \frac{2}{\mathrm{~N}}=\frac{1}{r_{1}}+\frac{1}{r_{2}}
$$

So $r_{1}=r_{2}=\mathrm{N}$.
Then $\exists$ only two poles, $p$ and $p^{\prime}$, both on a line $\ell$ and both of which are fixed by all $g \in G$.

So $G=C_{\mathrm{N}}$ is the cyclic group of rotations about $\ell$.

## Proof of the Main Theorem, con't

Three Orbits:

$$
\frac{2}{\mathrm{~N}}=\frac{1}{r_{1}}+\frac{1}{r_{2}}+\frac{1}{r_{3}}-1
$$

Suppose $r_{1} \leq r_{2} \leq r_{3}$. Then $r_{1}=2$.
(1) $r_{1}=r_{2}=2$ : Then $2 r_{3}=\mathrm{N}$, and $n_{3}=2$.

So $\exists$ two poles, $p$ and $p^{\prime}$, in $O_{3}$.
$\forall g \in G, g$ either fixes both or interchanges them.
So $G$ is rotations about a line $\ell=\left(p, p^{\prime}\right)$ or rotations by $\pi$ about a line $\ell^{\prime} \perp \ell$.
$G$ will be the group of symmetries of a regular $r_{3}$-gon, that is, the dihedral group $D_{r_{3}}$.

## Proof of the Main Theorem, con't

Three Orbits con't:
(2) $r_{1}=2$ but $2<r_{2} \leq r_{3}$ :

Then there are three options for $\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, r_{3}\right)$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (a) }\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, r_{3}\right)=(2,3,3), \mathrm{N}=12 \text {, and } \\
& \left(n_{1}, n_{2}, n_{3}\right)=(6,4,4)
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) $\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, r_{3}\right)=(2,3,4), \mathrm{N}=24$, and $\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, n_{3}\right)=(12,8,6)$
(c) $\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, r_{3}\right)=(2,3,5), \mathrm{N}=60$, and $\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, n_{3}\right)=(30,20,12)$

## Proof of the Main Theorem, con't

Three Orbits con't:
(2) con't
(a) $\mathrm{N}=12$ :

For $p \in O_{3}$, let $q \in O_{2}$ be a pole nearest to $p$.
Then $G_{p}=G_{3}$ operates on $O_{2}$ and $r_{3}=3$, so $G_{p} \cdot q$ is a set of three closest neighbors of $p$.
i.e. the set obtained by the rotations about $p$.
$\exists 4$ equilateral triangles which form a regular tetrahedron.

Thus $G=T$.

## Proof of the Main Theorem, con't

Three Orbits con't:
(2) con't
(b) $\mathrm{N}=24$ :

For $p \in O_{3}$, let $q \in O_{2}$ be a pole nearest to $p$.
Then $G_{p}=G_{3}$ operates on $O_{2}$ and $r_{3}=4$,
so $G_{p} \cdot q$ is a set of four closest neighbors of $p$.
i.e. the set obtained by the rotations about $p$.
$\exists 6$ squares which form a cube.
Thus $G=O$.

## Proof of the Main Theorem, con't

Three Orbits con't:
(2) con't
(c) $\mathrm{N}=60$ :

For $p \in O_{3}$, let $q \in O_{2}$ be a pole nearest to $p$. Then $G_{p}=G_{3}$ operates on $O_{2}$ and $r_{3}=5$, so $G_{p} \cdot q$ is a set of five closest neighbors to $p$. i.e. the set obtained by the rotations about $p$. These poles are equally spaced, and so form a regular pentagon in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$.
$\exists 12$ pentagons, forming a reg. dodecahedron. Thus $G=I$.

## Final Note:

In each case, $\mathrm{N}=2 n_{1}$, so $n_{1}$ is the number of edges on the polyhedron in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$.

In each of the cases, one of $n_{2}$ and $n_{3}$ is the number of vertices and the other is the number of faces; it will not matter which each is.

