

DERANGEMENTS IN PERMUTATION GROUPS WITH TWO ORBITS

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Abstract

A classical theorem of Jordan asserts that if a group G acts transitively on a finite set of size at least 2, then G contains a derangement (a fixed-point free element). Generalisations of Jordan's theorem have been studied extensively, due in part to their applications in graph theory, number theory and topology. We address a generalisation conjectured recently by Ellis and Harper [*'Orbits of permutation groups with no derangements'*, Preprint, 2024, arXiv:2408.16064], which says that if G has exactly two orbits and those orbits have equal length $n \geq 2$, then G contains a derangement. We prove this conjecture in the case where n is a product of two primes, and in the case where $n = bp$ with p a prime and $2b \leq p$. We also verify the conjecture computationally for $n \leq 30$.

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1. Introduction

We assume throughout that all groups and sets are finite. Let G be a group acting on a set Ω . A *derangement* is an element of G that fixes no point of Ω . A classical theorem of Jordan [7] asserts that if G acts transitively on Ω and $|\Omega| \geq 2$, then G contains a derangement. Equivalently, a group is never equal to the union of the conjugates of a proper subgroup. Generalisations of this result have been and continue to be studied intensively, due in part to numerous well-known applications [9]. This is intended to be a short note on one such generalisation, so we refer the reader to [3, Ch. 1] for further historical background.

The transitivity assumption in Jordan's theorem is necessary: it is easy to construct examples with G having exactly two orbits but no derangement. However, Ellis and Harper have conjectured that this cannot happen if the two orbits have equal length

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$n \geq 2$ (see [5, Conjecture 2]). They have proved this conjecture in various cases, including:

- (i) when G acts primitively on one of its two orbits;
- (ii) when G is simple, nilpotent or of order at most 1000;
- (iii) when n is a prime power.

Here, we prove Ellis and Harper's conjecture under the assumption that n is a product of two primes, and under the assumption that $n = bp$ with p a prime and $2b \leq p$ (see Corollaries 3.6 and 3.4 respectively). We also verify computationally that the conjecture holds when $n \leq 30$ (see Proposition 3.1).

2. Preliminaries

LEMMA 2.1 [1, Lemma 2.2]. *Let G be a group acting transitively on a set Ω , let p be a prime and let P be a Sylow p -subgroup of G . The minimum length of a P -orbit on Ω is the largest power of p dividing $|\Omega|$.*

LEMMA 2.2. *Let $V = \mathbb{F}_q^d$, where $d \geq 2$ and q is a prime power. Fix a basis for V , let $0 \neq a \in V$ and define $U = \{v \in V \mid a \cdot v = 0\}$. If k is the number of nonzero coefficients of a with respect to the fixed basis, then the number of $(u_1, \dots, u_d) \in U$ such that $u_1, \dots, u_d \neq 0$ is equal to*

$$\frac{(q-1)^{d-k+1}}{q}((q-1)^{k-1} - (-1)^{k-1}).$$

In particular, this number is at most $(q-1)^{d-1}$.

PROOF. Given $j \geq 1$, $m \in \mathbb{F}_q$ and $(a_1, \dots, a_j) \in \mathbb{F}_q^j$ with $a_1, \dots, a_j \neq 0$, consider the equation $\sum_{i=1}^j a_i x_i = m$. Call a solution $(x_1, \dots, x_j) \in \mathbb{F}_q^j$ to this equation 'good' if $x_1, \dots, x_j \neq 0$. First, notice that, because \mathbb{F}_q is a field, the number of good solutions does not depend on a_1, \dots, a_j . Similarly, the number of good solutions depends only on whether $m = 0$ or not. We may thus define $D_m(j)$ to be the number of good solutions to this and, hence, every equation of the given form. For $j \geq 2$,

$$D_0(j) = (q-1)D_{-a_j x_j}(j-1) = (q-1)D_1(j-1).$$

It follows that, for $j \geq 2$,

$$D_1(j) = (q-2)D_1(j-1) + D_0(j-1).$$

Combining these two equations yields, for $j \geq 3$,

$$D_1(j) = (q-2)D_1(j-1) + (q-1)D_1(j-2).$$

This is a second-order linear difference equation for $D_1(j)$; the initial conditions $D_1(1) = 1$ and $D_1(2) = q-2$ yield

$$D_1(j) = \frac{(q-1)^j - (-1)^j}{q} \quad \text{and hence} \quad D_0(j) = (q-1) \frac{(q-1)^{j-1} - (-1)^{j-1}}{q}$$

for all $j \geq 1$. The first assertion of the lemma follows upon observing that the number of $(u_1, \dots, u_d) \in U$ such that $u_1, \dots, u_d \neq 0$ is equal to $(q-1)^{d-k} D_0(k)$. Since $a \neq 0$, we have $k \geq 1$ and the second assertion is then easily verified. \square

LEMMA 2.3. *Let q be a prime power and let $V = \mathbb{F}_q^d$. If \mathcal{W} is a set of subspaces of V of codimension 1 such that*

- (1) $\bigcup_{W \in \mathcal{W}} W = V$ and
- (2) $\bigcap_{W \in \mathcal{W}} W = \{0\}$,

then $2 \leq d \leq |\mathcal{W}| - q + 1$.

PROOF. The assertion that $d \geq 2$ is immediate, because condition (1) is never satisfied if $d \leq 1$. Let $W_1 \in \mathcal{W}$. If $W_1 \neq \{0\}$, then, by condition (2), there exists $W_2 \in \mathcal{W}$ such that $W_1 \not\subseteq W_2$. It follows that $W_1 + W_2 = V$ and

$$\dim(W_1 \cap W_2) = \dim(W_1) + \dim(W_2) - \dim(V) = 2(d-1) - d = d-2,$$

so $W_1 \cap W_2$ has codimension 2 in V . If $W_1 \cap W_2 \neq \{0\}$, then, by condition (2), there exists $W_3 \in \mathcal{W}$ such that $W_1 \cap W_2 \not\subseteq W_3$. Since W_3 has codimension 1 in V , this implies that $W_3 + (W_1 \cap W_2) = V$ and, by a similar calculation as earlier, $W_1 \cap W_2 \cap W_3$ has codimension 3 in V . Repeating this procedure, we find that \mathcal{W} contains d subspaces W_1, \dots, W_d with $\bigcap_{i \in \{1, \dots, d\}} W_i = \{0\}$. By choosing an appropriate basis for V , we can assume that W_i is defined by the linear equation $x_i = 0$. Note that $\bigcup_{i \in \{1, \dots, d\}} W_i$ consists of the vectors in V with at least one coordinate equal to 0, so $|\bigcup_{i \in \{1, \dots, d\}} W_i| = q^d - (q-1)^d$. This leaves $(q-1)^d$ elements of V to ‘cover’ by adjoining further subspaces from \mathcal{W} , to satisfy condition (1). Lemma 2.2 implies that adjoining one further subspace from \mathcal{W} covers at most $(q-1)^{d-1}$ further elements. We must therefore adjoin at least another $q-1$ subspaces to satisfy condition (1), so $|\mathcal{W}| \geq d + (q-1)$. \square

REMARK 2.4. Note that the upper bound in Lemma 2.3 is tight. Indeed, for $i \in \{1, \dots, d\}$, let W_i be the subspace defined by $x_i = 0$. Note that $\bigcap_{i \in \{1, \dots, d\}} W_i = \{0\}$. Let \mathcal{U} be the set of subspaces that are strictly between V and $W_1 \cap W_2$. Since $W_1 \cap W_2$ has codimension 2 in V , we have $|\mathcal{U}| = q+1$. It is easy to check that $\bigcup_{U \in \mathcal{U}} U = V$ and that $\mathcal{U} \cap \{W_1, \dots, W_d\} = \{W_1, W_2\}$, and hence $\mathcal{U} \cup \{W_1, \dots, W_d\}$ has size $d + q - 1$ and satisfies both conditions of Lemma 2.3. Moreover, it is not hard to show using Lemma 2.2 that, up to conjugacy in $\text{GL}(V)$, this is the unique tight example, but we will not need this fact.

Given a group G acting (not necessarily faithfully) on a set Ω and $\omega \in \Omega$, we write G_ω for the point stabiliser of ω in G . Given $g \in G$ and a subset $\Delta \subseteq \Omega$ preserved by G , we write G_Δ for the setwise stabiliser of Δ in G and g^Δ for the permutation induced by g on Δ . We also let $G^\Delta := \{g^\Delta : g \in G\}$.

Let $n \geq 1$ and let T be a nonabelian finite simple group. Recall that the full wreath product $\text{Aut}(T) \wr S_n$ has socle $K := T_1 \times \dots \times T_n$, where each T_i is isomorphic to T .

Moreover, $\{T_1, \dots, T_n\}$ is the set of minimal normal subgroups of $T_1 \times \dots \times T_n$, and hence $\text{Aut}(T) \wr S_n$ acts on $\{T_1, \dots, T_n\}$ by conjugation. Given $G \leq \text{Aut}(T) \wr S_n$, the stabiliser G_{T_1} of T_1 acts on T_1 , and the induced permutation group $G_{T_1}^{T_1}$ is naturally identified with a subgroup of $\text{Aut}(T_1)$. In particular, we have $T_1^{T_1} = \text{Inn}(T_1)$ under this identification.

PROPOSITION 2.5. *With notation as above, if*

- (1) $\text{Inn}(T_1) \leq G_{T_1}^{T_1}$ and
- (2) G acts primitively on $\{T_1, \dots, T_n\}$,

then either $G \cap K = 1$, $G \cap K \cong T$ or $K \leq G$.

PROOF. Let φ_i be the natural projection from K to T_i and let

$$K_i := \ker \varphi_i = T_1 \times \dots \times T_{i-1} \times 1 \times T_{i+1} \times \dots \times T_n.$$

Note that $\text{Inn}(T_1)$ is the unique minimal normal subgroup of $G_{T_1}^{T_1}$, because $\text{Inn}(T_1) \leq G_{T_1}^{T_1} \leq \text{Aut}(T_1)$. Since $G \cap K$ is a normal subgroup of G_{T_1} , it follows that $(G \cap K)^{T_1}$ is normal in $G_{T_1}^{T_1}$ and so either $(G \cap K)^{T_1} = 1$ or $\text{Inn}(T_1) \leq (G \cap K)^{T_1}$. If $(G \cap K)^{T_1} = 1$, then $G \cap K \leq K_1$. Since G acts transitively on $\{T_1, \dots, T_n\}$, this implies that $G \cap K \leq K_i$ for every $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, and thus $G \cap K = 1$, as required. We may thus assume that $\text{Inn}(T_1) \leq (G \cap K)^{T_1}$, that is, the restriction $\varphi_1 : G \cap K \rightarrow T_1$ is surjective and thus $(G \cap K)/(G \cap K_1) \cong T$.

For $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, let $G_i = G \cap K_i$. Define an equivalence relation \sim on $\{T_1, \dots, T_n\}$ by $T_i \sim T_j$ if and only if $G_i = G_j$. This equivalence relation is G -invariant so, by condition (2), the induced partition is either the universal one or the partition into singletons. We now consider these two cases separately.

Case 1: $G_i = G_j$ for all $i, j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. Since $K_1 \cap \dots \cap K_n = 1$, we have $G_1 = 1$, so the restriction $\varphi_1 : G \cap K \rightarrow T_1$ is injective. We saw earlier that it is surjective, and hence it is an isomorphism and $G \cap K \cong T$, as required.

Case 2: $G_i \neq G_j$ for all i, j with $i \neq j$. We saw earlier that $(G \cap K)/G_1 \cong T$. Together with condition (2), this implies that $(G \cap K)/G_i \cong T$ for all $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. We now proceed by induction. Suppose that $1 \leq m < n$ is such that $(G \cap K)/(G_1 \cap \dots \cap G_m) \cong T^m$. Let $N = (G_1 \cap \dots \cap G_m)G_{m+1}$. Note that $G_1 \cap \dots \cap G_m$ and G_{m+1} are both normal subgroups of $G \cap K$, and hence so is N . Since $(G \cap K)/G_{m+1} \cong T$ is simple, we must have $N = G \cap K$ or $N = G_{m+1}$. If $N = G_{m+1}$, then $G_1 \cap \dots \cap G_m \leq G_{m+1}$. Since $(G \cap K)/(G_1 \cap \dots \cap G_m) \cong T^m$ has precisely m normal subgroups of index $|T|$, it follows that $G \cap K$ has precisely m normal subgroups of index $|T|$ containing $G_1 \cap \dots \cap G_m$. The latter are precisely G_1, \dots, G_m , so we must have $G_{m+1} = G_i$ for some $i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$, which is a contradiction. Therefore, $N = G \cap K$. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} & (G \cap K)/(G_1 \cap \dots \cap G_{m+1}) \\ & \cong (G \cap K)/(G_1 \cap \dots \cap G_m) \times (G \cap K)/G_{m+1} \cong T^m \times T \cong T^{m+1}. \end{aligned}$$

This completes the induction and yields $(G \cap K)/(G_1 \cap \cdots \cap G_n) \cong T^n$. Since $G \cap K \leq K \cong T^n$, it follows that $G \cap K = K$ and hence $K \leq G$, as required. \square

Given a group G acting on a set Ω , let

$$\nu(G) = \frac{|\bigcup_{\omega \in \Omega} G_\omega|}{|G|}.$$

Note that this is exactly the proportion of nonderangements in G .

LEMMA 2.6. *If G is a group acting on a set $\Omega = \Omega_1 \cup \cdots \cup \Omega_k$ where each of the subsets $\Omega_1, \dots, \Omega_k$ is preserved by G , then*

$$\nu(G) \leq \sum_{i \in \{1, \dots, k\}} \nu(G^{\Omega_i}).$$

PROOF. For each $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$, let K_i be the kernel of the action homomorphism from G to $\text{Sym}(\Omega_i)$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \nu(G) &= \frac{|\bigcup_{\omega \in \Omega} G_\omega|}{|G|} \leq \sum_{i \in \{1, \dots, k\}} \frac{|\bigcup_{\omega \in \Omega_i} G_\omega|}{|G|} = \sum_{i \in \{1, \dots, k\}} \frac{|\bigcup_{\omega \in \Omega_i} G_\omega^{\Omega_i}| \cdot |K_i|}{|G^{\Omega_i}| \cdot |K_i|} \\ &= \sum_{i \in \{1, \dots, k\}} \frac{|\bigcup_{\omega \in \Omega_i} G_\omega^{\Omega_i}|}{|G^{\Omega_i}|} = \sum_{i \in \{1, \dots, k\}} \nu(G^{\Omega_i}), \end{aligned}$$

as required. \square

3. Main results

Throughout this section, let G be a permutation group on a set Ω of size $2n$, and assume that G has exactly two orbits, Ω_1 and Ω_2 , each of length n .

PROPOSITION 3.1. *If $2 \leq n \leq 30$, then G has a derangement.*

PROOF. Note that the transitive groups of degree at most 30 are known [6] and readily accessible in Magma [2]. The proof is supported by the Magma code available on the first author's GitHub [8]; the process that we now describe is carried out for each degree $n \in \{2, \dots, 30\}$ using the function `HalfTransitiveDerangements`. If G has no derangements, then [5, Corollary 4] implies that there exist transitive but imprimitive permutation groups G_1 and G_2 of degree n such that $G^{\Omega_i} \cong G_1$ for $i \in \{1, 2\}$. We begin by constructing each transitive but imprimitive permutation group H of degree n and directly counting the number of nonderangements in H (by computing the support of a representative of each conjugacy class of H). By Lemma 2.6, the proportion of nonderangements in G is bounded above by the sum of the proportions of the nonderangements in G_1 and G_2 , which we compute for each pair (G_1, G_2) using the aforementioned data. If this proportion is less than 1, then G certainly has a derangement, so we discard the pair (G_1, G_2) . For each remaining pair (G_1, G_2) , we know that G must be a subdirect product of G_1 and G_2 . The property of

being a subdirect product is preserved when taking supergroups, so we simply traverse the upper layers of the subgroup lattice of $G_1 \times G_2$, stopping whenever we find a group that is not a subdirect product, until we have constructed all subdirect products of G_1 and G_2 (up to conjugacy in $G_1 \times G_2$). Finally, we exhibit a derangement in each subdirect product either by random search or by checking each conjugacy class. \square

LEMMA 3.2. *Let p be a prime, let P be a Sylow p -subgroup of G and let $n = bp^k$. If $b < p$, then P has $2b$ orbits of length p^k .*

PROOF. By Lemma 2.1, the minimum length of a P^{Ω_i} -orbit is p^k . Since $b < p$, we have $n < p^{k+1}$, and hence every P^{Ω_i} -orbit has length exactly p^k and the result follows. \square

LEMMA 3.3. *Let p be a prime, let P be a Sylow p -subgroup of G , let $|P| = p^d$ and let $n = bp$ with $b < p$. Then P has $2b$ orbits of length p , P is elementary abelian and we have $|\{P_\omega \mid \omega \in \Omega\}| \leq 2b$. Moreover, if P does not contain a derangement, then we have $2 \leq d \leq |\{P_\omega \mid \omega \in \Omega\}| - p + 1 \leq 2b - p + 1$.*

PROOF. Note that $\bigcap_{\omega \in \Omega} P_\omega = 1$ because G is a permutation group on Ω . By Lemma 3.2, P has $2b$ orbits of length p . It follows that for every $\omega \in \Omega$, we have $|P : P_\omega| = p$, so P_ω is a normal (and maximal) subgroup of P . This implies that P is elementary abelian (because P has trivial Frattini subgroup) and that $|\{P_\omega \mid \omega \in \Omega\}| \leq 2b$. If P does not contain a derangement, then $\bigcup_{\omega \in \Omega} P_\omega = P$ and Lemma 2.3 implies that $2 \leq d \leq |\{P_\omega \mid \omega \in \Omega\}| - p + 1$. \square

COROLLARY 3.4. *If $n = bp$ with p a prime and $2b \leq p$, then G has a derangement.*

PROPOSITION 3.5. *If $n = pq$ with $p > q$ primes and q does not divide $p - 1$, then G has a derangement.*

PROOF. Assume for a contradiction that G does not have a derangement. Let P be a Sylow p -subgroup of G and write $|P| = p^d$. By Lemma 3.3, P has $2q$ orbits of length p , P is elementary abelian, $|\{P_\omega \mid \omega \in \Omega\}| \leq 2q$ and

$$2 \leq d \leq |\{P_\omega \mid \omega \in \Omega\}| - p + 1 \leq 2q - p + 1.$$

Suppose first that $|P^{\Omega_i}| \leq p$ for some $i \in \{1, 2\}$. This implies that $P_\omega = P_{\omega'}$ for every $\omega, \omega' \in \Omega_i$, namely $|\{P_\omega \mid \omega \in \Omega_i\}| = 1$, and hence $|\{P_\omega \mid \omega \in \Omega\}| \leq q + 1$, which contradicts the facts that $2 \leq d \leq |\{P_\omega \mid \omega \in \Omega\}| - p + 1$ and $q < p$. Therefore, $|P^{\Omega_i}| \geq p^2$ for both $i \in \{1, 2\}$.

By [5, Corollary 4], each G^{Ω_i} is imprimitive and so preserves a block system consisting of either p blocks of size q or q blocks of size p . In the former case, $G^{\Omega_i} \leq S_q \wr S_p$, so $|P^{\Omega_i}| \leq p$, which contradicts $|P^{\Omega_i}| \geq p^2$. (Here, we abuse notation and write \leq to mean ‘is isomorphic to a subgroup of’.) Therefore, each G^{Ω_i} preserves a system \mathcal{B}_i of q blocks of size p , so $G^{\Omega_i} \leq S_p \wr S_q$. Choose $B \in \mathcal{B}_i$. Then we have $G^{\Omega_i} \leq (G^{\Omega_i})_B^B \wr (G^{\Omega_i})^{\mathcal{B}_i}$, with $(G^{\Omega_i})_B^B$ a transitive subgroup of $\text{Sym}(B) \cong S_p$ and $(G^{\Omega_i})^{\mathcal{B}_i}$ a transitive subgroup of $\text{Sym}(\mathcal{B}_i) \cong S_q$. Since p is prime, it follows from classical results of Burnside [4, Ch. IX, Theorem IX] that either $(G^{\Omega_i})_B^B \leq \text{AGL}(1, p)$ or $(G^{\Omega_i})_B^B$ is almost simple.

Suppose first that $(G^{\Omega_i})_B^B$ is almost simple, and note that the socle T of $(G^{\Omega_i})_B^B$ is transitive and, in particular, p divides $|T|$. Let $K = \text{soc}((G^{\Omega_i})_B^B \wr S_q) \cong T^q$. By Proposition 2.5, either $G^{\Omega_i} \cap K = 1$, $G^{\Omega_i} \cap K \cong T$ or $K \leq G^{\Omega_i}$. If $G^{\Omega_i} \cap K = 1$ or $G^{\Omega_i} \cap K \cong T$, then $|P^{\Omega_i}| \leq p$, which contradicts $|P^{\Omega_i}| \geq p^2$. If $K \leq G^{\Omega_i}$, then p^q divides $|G^{\Omega_i}|$ and $q \leq d$, contradicting $d \leq 2q - p + 1$, $q < p$ and $q \neq p - 1$.

We must therefore have $(G^{\Omega_i})_B^B \leq \text{AGL}(1, p)$, hence $G^{\Omega_i} \leq \text{AGL}(1, p) \wr S_q$ for both $i \in \{1, 2\}$. Let Q be a Sylow q -subgroup of G . Since q does not divide $p - 1$, it does not divide $|\text{AGL}(1, p)| = p(p - 1)$, hence $|Q^{\Omega_i}| = q$. It follows from Lemma 2.1 that all orbits of Q^{Ω_i} have length q and thus $|Q : Q_\omega| = q$ for every $\omega \in \Omega$. Let $\omega_i \in \Omega_i$ and $g \in Q_{\omega_i}$. Note that g stabilises the block of \mathcal{B}_i containing ω_i , and hence, since g is a q -element, g must also stabilise the remaining $q - 1$ blocks of \mathcal{B}_i . It follows that $g^{\Omega_i} \in \text{AGL}(1, p)^q$, but q does not divide $|\text{AGL}(1, p)|$, hence $g^{\Omega_i} = 1$. This implies that $g \in Q_\omega$ for every $\omega \in \Omega_i$, so $Q_{\omega_i} \leq Q_\omega$ for every $\omega \in \Omega_i$. Since $|Q_\omega| = |Q_{\omega_i}|$, we have $Q_\omega = Q_{\omega_i}$ for every $\omega \in \Omega_i$. This implies that Q has at most two distinct point stabilisers, so it must contain a derangement (because it cannot be equal to the union of two proper subgroups). \square

COROLLARY 3.6. *If $n = pq$ with p, q primes, then G has a derangement.*

PROOF. If $p = q$, then the result follows from [5, Corollary 5], so we assume that $p > q$. If q does not divide $p - 1$, then the result follows from Proposition 3.5, so we assume that q divides $p - 1$. If $q = p - 1$, then $p = 3$ and $q = 2$, and the result follows from Proposition 3.1. Otherwise, $q \leq (p - 1)/2$ and the result follows from Corollary 3.4. \square

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