

Algorithms for permutation groups Part I

Adéla Skoková

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Basic notation

A permutation group \mathbf{G} is a group whose elements are permutations of the given set Ω .

Group of all permutations is symmetric group $Sym(\Omega)$ and group of permutations is its subgroup.

Group operations are composition of permutations in \mathbf{G} .

Suppose that $|\Omega| = n$.

We can identify Ω with $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$.

Overview of permutation group algorithm

Input to the algorithm which works with permutation group: list of generators of the group.

We have given $\mathbf{G} = \langle \mathbf{S} \rangle \leq \mathbf{S}_n$, the input length can be $|\mathbf{S}|n$.
A polynomial-time algorithm – $O((|\mathbf{S}|n)^c)$ for some fixed c .
In practice $|\mathbf{S}|$ is usually small.

Experience shows that a lot of ideas, developed in the polynomial-time context, are later incorporated in practical algorithms; conversely, procedures performing well in practice often have versions with polynomial running time.

Some tasks - deterministic polynomial-time algorithm

- given $h \in \text{Sym}(\Omega)$, test whether $h \in \mathbf{G}$
- find the order of \mathbf{G}
- find orbits, center or blocks of imprimitivity of \mathbf{G}
- ...

Definition (Small-base group)

We call an (infinite) family Δ of permutation groups small-base groups if each $\mathbf{G} \in \Delta$ of degree n satisfies $\log |\mathbf{G}| < \log^c n$ for some fixed constant c .

Example: primitive groups not containing alternating composition.

Nearly-linear time algorithms

The nearly linear time, $O(n|\mathbf{S}| \log^{c'}(n|\mathbf{S}|))$, of the input length.

The time bound of nearly linear-time algorithms on small-base input groups is $O(n|\mathbf{S}|)$.

Non-polynomial-time methods

- Given $\Delta \subseteq \Omega$, compute the setwise stabilizer $G_\Delta = \{g \in \mathbf{G} \mid \Delta^g = \Delta\}$.
- Given $\mathbf{H}, \mathbf{G} \leq \text{Sym}(\Omega)$, compute $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{G}}(\mathbf{H})$ *centralizer*.
- Given $\mathbf{H}, \mathbf{G} \leq \text{Sym}(\Omega)$, compute $\mathbf{G} \cap \mathbf{H}$.
- Given $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbf{G}$, decide whether they are conjugate.

It is conceivable that there may be polynomial time algorithms (at least for the classes of groups occurring in practice) to solve them.

A small-base group

Repeating Lagrange's theorem:

$$|\mathbf{G}| = \prod_{i=1}^m |\mathbf{G}^{[i]} : \mathbf{G}^{[i+1]}|.$$

The cosets of $\mathbf{G}^{[i]}$ mod $\mathbf{G}^{[i+1]}$ correspond to the elements of the orbit $\beta_i^{\mathbf{G}^{[i]}}$, we obtain $|\mathbf{G}^{[i]} : \mathbf{G}^{[i+1]}| = |\beta_i^{\mathbf{G}^{[i]}}| \leq n$ for all $i \in [1, m]$.

If \mathbf{B} is nonredundant then $|\mathbf{G}^{[i]} : \mathbf{G}^{[i+1]}| \geq 2$.

$$2^{|\mathbf{B}|} \leq |\mathbf{G}| \leq n^{|\mathbf{B}|}$$

$$\frac{\log |\mathbf{G}|}{\log n} \leq |\mathbf{B}| \leq \log |\mathbf{G}|$$

The last inequality justifies the name 'small-base group'.

Strong generating set

Definition

A strong generating set (SGS) for \mathbf{G} relative to \mathbf{B} is a generating set \mathbf{S} for \mathbf{G} with the property that

$$\langle \mathbf{S} \cap \mathbf{G}^{[i]} \rangle = \mathbf{G}^{[i]}, \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq m + 1.$$

Example

A group $\mathbf{G} = \mathbf{S}_4$ in its natural action on the set $[1, 4] = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$.
 $\mathbf{B} = (1, 2, 3)$ is nonredundant base for \mathbf{G} .

$$\mathbf{G}^{[1]} = \text{Sym}([1, 4]) \not\leq \mathbf{G}^{[2]} = \text{Sym}([2, 4]) \not\leq \mathbf{G}^{[3]} = \text{Sym}([3, 4]) \not\leq \mathbf{G}^{[4]} = 1$$

$\mathbf{S} = \{(1, 2, 3, 4), (3, 4)\}$ is not strong generating set relative to \mathbf{B}
 since $\langle \mathbf{S} \cap \mathbf{G}^{[2]} \rangle = \text{Sym}([3, 4]) \neq \mathbf{G}^{[2]} = \text{Sym}([2, 4])$.

$\mathbf{T} = \{(1, 2, 3, 4), (2, 3, 4), (3, 4)\}$ is an SGS relative to \mathbf{B} .

Fundamental orbits

Definition

Orbits $\beta_i^{\mathbf{G}^{[i]}}$ of SGS are called fundamental orbits of \mathbf{G} .

By $|\mathbf{G}| = \prod_{i=1}^m |\mathbf{G}^{[i]} : \mathbf{G}^{[i+1]}|$ we can see that $|\mathbf{G}| = \prod_{i=1}^m |\beta_i^{\mathbf{G}^{[i]}}|$.

Given SGS, the orbits $\beta_i^{\mathbf{G}^{[i]}}$ can be computed easily.

Keeping track of elements of $\mathbf{G}^{[i]}$ in the orbit algorithm that carry β_i to points in $\beta_i^{\mathbf{G}^{[i]}}$, we obtain transversals R_i for $\mathbf{G}^{[i]} \bmod \mathbf{G}^{[i+1]}$

The Sifting Procedure

Every $g \in \mathbf{G}$ can be written uniquely in the form $g = r_m r_{m-1} \dots r_1$ with $r_i \in R_i$, (Lagrange's theorem).

This decomposition can be done algorithmically:

Given $g \in \mathbf{G}$, find the coset representative $r_1 \in R_1$ such that $\beta_1^g = \beta_1^{r_1}$.

Then compute $g_2 := gr_1^{-1} \in \mathbf{G}^{[2]}$; find $r_2 \in R_2$ such that $\beta_2^{g_2} = \beta_2^{r_2}$;
compute $g_3 := g_2 r_2^{-1} \in \mathbf{G}^{[3]}$;
etc.

Testing membership

Given $h \in \text{Sym}(\Omega)$,

We can try to factor h as a product of coset representatives.

Successful: $h \in \mathbf{G}$.

- for some $i \leq m$, the ratio $h_i := hr_1^{-1}r_2^{-1} \dots r_{i-1}^{-1}$ computed by the sifting procedure carries β_i out of the orbit $\beta_i^{G[i]}$;
- $h_{m+1} := hr_1^{-1}r_2^{-1} \dots r_{m-1}^{-1}r_m^{-1} \neq 1$.

Definition

The ratio h_i with the largest index i ($i \leq m+1$) computed by the sifting procedure is called the *siftee* of h .

Schreier tree

Definition

A Schreier tree data structure for \mathbf{G} is a sequence of pairs (S_i, T_i) called Schreier trees, one for each base point β_i , $1 \leq i \leq m$.

T_i is a directed labeled tree, with all edges directed toward the root β_i and edge labels from a set $S_i \subseteq \mathbf{G}^{[i]}$.

Vertices of T_i are points of the fundamental orbit $\beta_i^{\mathbf{G}^{[i]}}$.

Schreier tree II

Labels satisfy the condition that for each directed edge from γ to δ with label h , $\gamma^h = \delta$.

If γ is a vertex of T_i then the sequence of the edge labels along the unique path from γ to β_i in T_i is a word in the elements of S_i such that the product of these permutations moves γ to β_i .

Thus each Schreier tree (S_i, T_i) defines inverses of a set of coset representatives for $G^{[i+1]}$ in $G^{[i]}$.

We store inverses of coset representatives in the Schreier trees because sifting requires the inverses of these transversal elements.

Memory requirements

Memory requirement for storage:

\mathbf{S}_i is $O(|\mathbf{S}_i|n)$

\mathbf{T}_i is $O(n)$.

T_i can be stored in an array V_i of lenght n .

γ -th entry of V_i is deffined iff $\gamma \in \beta_i^{\mathbf{G}^{[i]}}$.

$V_i[\gamma]$ is a pointer to the element of S_i .

It is the label of the unique edge of T_i starting at γ .

Example *continue*

$\mathbf{G} = \mathbf{S}_4$ with base $\mathbf{B} = (1, 2, 3)$
 and SGS $\mathbf{T} = \{(1, 2, 3, 4), (2, 3, 4), (3, 4)\}$.

Construction of Schreier trees for \mathbf{G} using label set $S_i := \mathbf{T} \cap \mathbf{G}^{[i]}$.

The trees T_i can be constructed as the breadth-first-search trees, which compute the orbits $\beta_i^{\mathbf{G}^{[i]}}$.

The edges of the trees must be directed toward the roots, we have to use the inverses of the elements of S_i in the construction of the T_i .

The label set S_i determines uniquely only the levels of the tree T_i , because the vertices on level j may be the images of more vertices on level $j - 1$, under more permutations.

Example *continue*

Construction of Schreier trees for \mathbf{G} using label set $S_i := \mathbf{T} \cap \mathbf{G}^{[i]}$.
 In T_1 :

- level 0 contains the point 1
- level 1 contains only the point 4 - it is the only point that is the image of 1 under the inverse of some element of S_1 , and $(1, 2, 3, 4)$ is the only possible label for the edge $(4, 1)$.
- level 2 contains only the point 3 - we have three possibilities for defining the label of $(3, 4)$ because the inverses of $(1, 2, 3, 4)$, $(2, 3, 4)$, and $(3, 4)$ all map 4 to 3.

The labels of $(3, 4)$ depends on the order of the elements S_1 .

Example *continue*

One possibility for Schreier tree:

$$(id, (2, 3, 4), (2, 3, 4), (1, 2, 3, 4)),$$

$$(*, id, (2, 3, 4), (2, 3, 4)),$$

$$and(*, *, id, (3, 4)),$$

here $*$ denotes that the appropriate entry of the array is not defined because the corresponding point is not in the fundamental orbit of β_i .

Example *continue*

A transversal element carrying the first base point 1 to 3.
From the first array we obtain that:

$$(2, 3, 4).(1, 2, 3, 4) = (1, 2, 4, 3)$$

maps 3 to 1.

Its inverse is the desired transversal element.

Schreier's Lemma

Lemma (Schreier's Lemma)

Let $\mathbf{H} \leq \mathbf{G} = \langle \mathbf{S} \rangle$ and let \mathbf{R} be a right transversal for $\mathbf{G} \bmod \mathbf{H}$, with $1 \in \mathbf{R}$. Then the set

$$\mathbf{T} = \left\{ rs(\overline{rs})^{-1} \mid r \in \mathbf{R}, s \in \mathbf{S} \right\}$$

generates \mathbf{H} .

The elements of \mathbf{T} are called Schreier generators for \mathbf{H} .

\bar{r} is the chosen representative in the transversal \mathbf{R} of the coset $\mathbf{H}g$, that is $g \in \mathbf{H}\bar{g}$.

The lemma is used in the Schreier-Sims algorithm and also for finding a presentation of a subgroup.

Schreier's Lemma - proof

Proof.

By definition, the elements of \mathbf{T} are in \mathbf{H} ,
 it is enough to show that $\mathbf{T} \cup \mathbf{T}^{-1}$ generates \mathbf{H} .

$$\mathbf{T}^{-1} = \{rs(\overline{rs})^{-1} \mid r \in \mathbf{R}, s \in \mathbf{S}^{-1}\}$$

$$\mathbf{T} = \{rs(\overline{rs})^{-1} \mid r \in \mathbf{R}, s \in \mathbf{S}\}$$

Let $h \in \mathbf{H}$ be arbitrary.

Since $\mathbf{H} \leq \mathbf{G}$, $h = s_1 s_2 \dots s_k$ for $k \in \mathbb{N}$
 and $s_i \in \mathbf{S} \cup \mathbf{S}^{-1}$ for $i \leq k$.



Schreier's Lemma - proof

Proof.

We define a sequence h_0, h_1, \dots, h_k of group elements such that

$$h_j = t_1 t_2 \dots t_j r_{j+1} s_{j+1} s_{j+2} \dots s_k,$$

with $t_i \in \mathbf{T} \cup \mathbf{T}^{-1}$ for $i \leq j$, $r_{j+1} \in \mathbf{R}$, and $h_j = h$.

Let $h_0 := 1 s_1 s_2 \dots s_k$.

Recursively, if h_j is already defined then let

$$t_{j+1} := r_{j+1} s_{j+1} (\overline{r_{j+1} s_{j+1}})^{-1}$$

$$r_{j+2} := r_{j+1} s_{j+1}.$$

Clearly, $h_{j+1} = h_j = h$, and it has the required form.



Schreier's Lemma - proof

Proof.

We have $h = h_k = t_1 t_2 \dots t_k r_{k+1}$.

Since $h \in \mathbf{H}$ and $t_1 t_2 \dots t_k \in \langle \mathbf{T} \rangle \leq \mathbf{H}$,
we must have $r_{k+1} \in \mathbf{H} \cap \mathbf{R} = 1$.

Hence $h \in \langle \mathbf{T} \rangle$. □ □

Remarque

We deal only with finite groups, and so every element h of a given group $\mathbf{G} = \langle \mathbf{S} \rangle$ can be written as a product $h = s_1 s_2 \dots s_k$ of generators and we do not have to deal with the possibility that some s_i is the inverse of a generator. In the proof of Lemma, we included the possibility $s_i \in \mathbf{S}^{-1}$ since this lemma is valid for infinite groups as well, and in an infinite group we may need the inverses of generators to write every group element as a finite product.

Thank you for your attention.