

# Algorithms for permutation groups Part I

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# Content

- Running times for algorithms for permutation groups
- Basic definitions
- The Sifting procedure
- Schreier's Lemma

## Basic notation

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

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  $\Omega$  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  $\Delta$  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.

## Basic definitions

### Definition

A sequence of elements  $\mathbf{B} = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_m)$  from  $\Omega$  is called a base for  $\mathbf{G}$  if the only element of  $\mathbf{G}$  to fix  $\mathbf{B}$  pointwise is the identity.

The sequence  $\mathbf{B}$  defines a subgroup chain

$$\mathbf{G} = \mathbf{G}^{[1]} \leq \mathbf{G}^{[2]} \leq \dots \leq \mathbf{G}^{[m]} \leq \mathbf{G}^{[m+1]} = 1,$$

where  $\mathbf{G}^{[i]} := \mathbf{G}_{(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_{i-1})}$  is the pointwise stabilizer of  $\{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_{i-1}\}$ .

### Definition

The base is called nonredundant if  $\mathbf{G}^{[i+1]}$  is a proper subgroup of  $\mathbf{G}^{[i]}$  for all  $i \in [1, m]$ .

Different nonredundant bases can have different size.

## 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  $\beta_i$  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  $g_2 := g r_1^{-1} \in \mathbf{G}^{[2]}$ ; 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  $\beta_i$  out of the orbit  $\beta_i^{\mathbf{G}[i]}$ ;
- $h_{m+1} := hr_1^{-1}r_2^{-1} \dots r_{m-1}^{-1}r_m^{-1} \neq 1$ .

### 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  $\beta_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq m$ .

$T_i$  is a directed labeled tree, with all edges directed toward the root  $\beta_i$  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  $\gamma$  to  $\delta$  with label  $h$ ,  $\gamma^h = \delta$ .

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

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:

$S_i$  is  $O(|S_i|n)$

$T_i$  is  $O(n)$ .

$T_i$  can be stored in an array  $V_i$  of length  $n$ .

$\gamma$ -th entry of  $V_i$  is defined 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  $\gamma$ .

## 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:

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

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

$$\text{and } (*, *, id, (3, 4)),$$

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

## 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  $\mathbf{H}$ .

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

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.