

# Algorithms for Permutation groups

Alice Niemeyer

UWA, RWTH Aachen

# Permutation Groups

## The Symmetric Group

Let  $\Omega$  be a finite set.

The **Symmetric group**,  $Sym(\Omega)$ , is the group of all bijections from  $\Omega$  to itself.

A **permutation group** is a subgroup of  $Sym(\Omega)$ .

# Permutation Groups

- 1960s: the Classification of finite simple groups required to work with large permutation groups.
- 1970s: C. Sims introduced algorithms for working with permutation groups.
- These were among the first algorithms in CAYLEY and GAP.
- 1990s: nearly linear algorithms for permutation groups emerged. These are now in GAP and MAGMA.
- Seress' book.
- A very brief summary.

# Notation

From now on:

Let  $\Omega$  be finite and  $G \leq \text{Sym}(\Omega)$ .

For  $\alpha \in \Omega$  let  $G_\alpha$  denote the **stabiliser** of  $\alpha$  in  $G$ , i.e.

$$G_\alpha = \{g \in G \mid \alpha^g = \alpha\}.$$

If  $\alpha, \beta \in \Omega$  let  $G_{(\alpha, \beta)}$  denote the stabiliser of  $\beta$  in  $G_\alpha$ , i.e.

$$G_{(\alpha, \beta)} = (G_\alpha)_\beta = \{g \in G \mid \alpha^g = \alpha \text{ and } \beta^g = \beta\}.$$

# Bases

## Base and Stabiliser Chain

$B = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k)$  with  $\alpha_i \in \Omega$  is a **base** for  $G$  if  $G_{(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k)} = \{1\}$ .

The chain of subgroups

$$G = G^{(1)} \geq G^{(2)} \geq \dots \geq G^{(k+1)} = \{1\}$$

defined by  $G^{(i+1)} = G_{\alpha_i}^{(i)}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq k$  is the **stabiliser chain** for  $B$ .

$B$  is **irredundant** if all the inclusions in the stabiliser chain for  $B$  are proper.

# Base Images

If  $G$  is a permutation group and  $B = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k)$  a base for  $G$ , then each element  $g \in G$  is uniquely determined by  $(\alpha_1^g, \alpha_2^g, \dots, \alpha_k^g)$ .  
(Since  $B^g = B^h$  implies  $B^{gh^{-1}} = B$  and thus  $gh^{-1} = 1$ ).

# Orbits

## Definition

Let  $G = \langle X \rangle \leq \text{Sym}(\Omega)$  and  $\alpha \in \Omega$ . The **orbit** of  $\alpha$  under  $G$ , denoted  $\alpha^G$  is the set

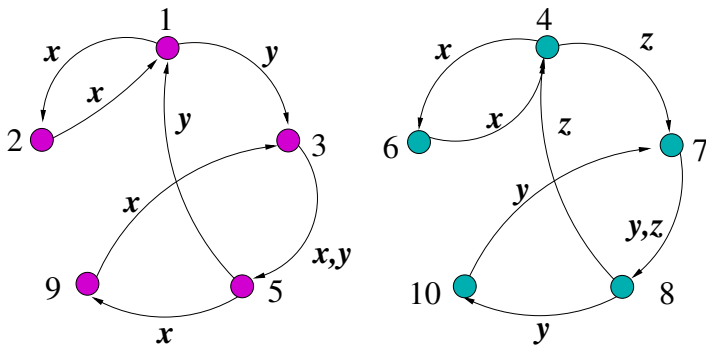
$$\alpha^G := \{\alpha^g \mid g \in G\}.$$

# Example

The orbits for  $G = \langle x, y, z \rangle$  with

$$x = (1, 2)(3, 5, 9)(4, 6), \quad y = (1, 3, 5)(7, 8, 10), \quad z = (4, 7, 8)$$

on  $\Omega = \{1, 2, \dots, 10\}$  are  $\Omega/G$  are  $\Delta_1 = \{1, 2, 3, 5, 9\}$  and  $\Delta_2 = \{4, 6, 7, 8, 10\}$ .





## Definition

Let  $G \leq \text{Sym}(\Omega)$  and  $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k)$  a basis for  $G$ . Let  $G = G^{(1)} \geq G^{(2)} \geq \dots \geq G^{(k+1)} = \{1\}$  (where  $G^{(i+1)} = G_{\alpha_i}^{(i)}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq k$ ) be the stabiliser chain for  $B$ .

Then  $S \subseteq G$  is a **strong generating set** for  $G$  if for every  $i$  with  $1 \leq i \leq k + 1$  holds  $G^{(i)} = \langle S \cap G^{(i)} \rangle$ .

# The Schreier-Sims Algorithm

**Input:**  $G \leq \text{Sym}(\Omega)$

**Output:**

- $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k)$  a basis for  $G$
- $S \subseteq G$  a **strong generating set** for  $G$
- the orbits  $\alpha_i^{G^{(i)}}$  stored in a particular way

# Example

- $G := \langle (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6), (2, 6)(3, 5) \rangle$ .
- base:  $\{1, 2\}$
- strong generating set:  
 $S = \{(2, 6)(3, 5), (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6), (1, 3, 5)(2, 4, 6)\}$
- stabiliser Chain:

$$G^{(1)} = G \geq G^{(2)} = \langle (2, 6)(3, 5) \rangle \geq G^{(3)} = \{1\}.$$

- orbits:

$$1^{G^{(1)}} = \Omega, \quad 2^{G^{(2)}} = \{2, 6\}.$$

# Questions

The data structure of a base and a strong generating set together with the associated stabiliser chain allows us to answer questions about  $G$  such as

- what is  $|G|$ ?
- does  $g \in \text{Sym}(\Omega)$  satisfy  $g \in G$ ?

# Example: Is $g = (1, 4)(2, 3)(5, 6) \in G$ ?

- $G := \langle (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6), (2, 6)(3, 5) \rangle$ .
- base:  $\{1, 2\}$
- strong generating set:  
 $S = \{(2, 6)(3, 5), (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6), (1, 3, 5)(2, 4, 6)\}$
- stabiliser Chain:

$$G^{(1)} = G \geq G^{(2)} = \langle (2, 6)(3, 5) \rangle \geq G^{(3)} = \{1\}.$$

- orbits:

$$1^{G^{(1)}} = \Omega, \quad 2^{G^{(2)}} = \{2, 6\}.$$

# Example: Is $g = (1, 4)(2, 3)(5, 6) \in G$ ?

$$G := \langle (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6), (2, 6)(3, 5) \rangle.$$

- $1^g = 4$
- Find  $h \in G$  with  $1^h = 4$ .
- $h = (1, 4)(2, 5)(3, 6) \in G$ .
- $g \in G$  if and only if  $gh^{-1} \in G$ .
- $1^{gh^{-1}} = 1$  so  $g \in G$  if and only if  $gh^{-1} \in G^{(2)}$ .
- $gh^{-1} = (2, 6)(3, 5)$ .
- $(2, 6)(3, 5) \in S$ , so  $gh^{-1} \in G^{(2)}$ .
- Thus  $g \in G$ .

# Schreier's Lemma

## SCHREIER'S LEMMA

Let  $G = \langle X \rangle$  be a finite group,  $H \leq G$  and  $T$  set of representatives of the right cosets of  $H$  in  $G$  such that  $T$  contains 1. Denote by  $\bar{g}$  the representative of  $Hg$  for  $g \in G$ . Then  $H$  is generated by

$$X_H = \{tx(\overline{tx})^{-1} \mid t \in T, x \in X\}.$$

# Essential steps

- Compute the orbits  $\alpha_i^{G^{(i)}}$  together with
- $T_i$  set of cosets representatives for cosets of  $G^{(i+1)}$  in  $G^{(i)}$
- for  $\beta \in \alpha_i^{G^{(i)}}$  find representative in  $T_i$
- find generators for  $G^{(i+1)}$ .



## Theorem

Let  $\Omega$  finite,  $n = |\Omega|$  and  $G = \langle X \rangle \leq \text{Sym}(\Omega)$  a permutation group. Then the *complexity* of the Schreier-Sims algorithm is

$$O(n^3 \log_2(|G|)^3 + |X|n^3 \log_2(|G|)).$$

Note that  $|\text{Sym}(\Omega)| = n! \sim n^n$ , so  $\log(|\text{Sym}(\Omega)|) \sim n \log(n)$ . Therefore, the complexity can be as bad as

$$O(n^6 + |X|n^4).$$

# A Remark about $|B|$

Given a basis  $B$  for  $G = \langle X \rangle \leq \text{Sym}(\Omega)$ , with  $\Omega$  finite. Then  $2^{|B|} \leq |G| \leq n^{|B|}$  or

$$\frac{\log(|G|)}{\log(n)} \leq |B| \leq \frac{\log(|G|)}{\log(2)}.$$

# Small Base

Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a family of permutation groups. We call  $\mathcal{G}$  **small-base** if for every  $G \in \mathcal{G}$  of degree  $n$  holds

$$\log |G| < \log^c(n)$$

for a constant  $c$ , fixed for  $\mathcal{G}$ .

# Theorem of Liebeck

## Theorem

Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a family of permutation groups. Every large-base primitive group in  $G$  of degree  $n$  involves the action of  $A_n$  or  $S_n$  on the set of  $k$ -element subsets of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ , for some  $n$  and  $k < n/2$ .

These groups are called the **giants**.

## Remark

Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a family of small-base permutation groups, i.e. for every  $G \in \mathcal{G}$  of degree  $n$  holds

$$\log |G| < \log^c(n)$$

for a constant  $c$ , fixed for  $\mathcal{G}$ .

Then complexity of the Schreier-Sims algorithm is

$$O(n^3 \log_2(|G|)^3 + |X|n^3 \log_2(|G|)).$$

## Remark

Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a family of small-base permutation groups, i.e. for every  $G \in \mathcal{G}$  of degree  $n$  holds

$$\log |G| < \log^c(n)$$

for a constant  $c$ , fixed for  $\mathcal{G}$ .

Then complexity of the Schreier-Sims algorithm is

$$O(n^3 \log^c(n)^3 + |X| n^3 \log^c(n)).$$

This is only slightly more expensive than  $O(n^3)$ .

If we can limit the length of the basis by  $n$ , the complexity is  $O(n^6)$ .

# “State of the Art”

Seress proves in his book (p. 75, Theorem 4.5.5):

## Theorem

*Let  $G \leq \langle X \rangle \leq \text{Sym}(\Omega)$  with  $|\Omega| = n$ . Then there exists a Monte-Carlo algorithm, which computes with probability  $\varepsilon$  for  $\varepsilon \leq \frac{1}{n^d}$  (for a positive whole number  $d$ , given by the user) a basis and a strong generating system for  $G$  in time*

$$O(n \log(n) \log(|G|)^4 + |X|n \log(|G|))$$

*and uses  $O(n \log(|G|) + |X|n)$  space.*

For **small-base groups** this algorithm is **nearly linear**.

# Schreier-Sims for Matrix Groups

One of the first approaches to deal with Matrix Groups (Butler, 1979).

Let  $G \leq GL(n, q)$ . Then  $G$  acts faithfully as a permutation group on  $V = \mathbb{F}_q^n$  via  $g : v \mapsto vg$ .

Thus we can apply the Schreier-Sims algorithm to this permutation group.



# Schreier-Sims for Matrix Groups

## Problem

How long can the orbit  $v^G$  be? It can be  $q^n - 1$ .

## Example

$$q = 3, n = 100$$

$$q^n - 1$$

$$= 515377520732011331036461129765621272702107522000.$$

Even

$$3^{20} - 1 = 348678440.$$

# Schreier-Sims for Matrix Groups

## Problem

- In a permutation group  $G \leq S_n$  the length of an orbit is at most  $n$ . Hence easy to compute an orbit for  $n$  quite large.
- In a matrix group  $G \leq \text{GL}(n, q)$  orbits can be  $O(q^n)$ .

## Complexity

- $S_n$  linear in  $n$ .
- $\text{GL}(n, q)$  exponential in  $n$ .

# Schreier-Sims for Matrix Groups

- works well for small  $n$  and  $q$ .
- Algorithms developed by Butler (1979)
- Murray & O'Brien (1995) consider the selection of base points
- Lübeck & Neunhöffer (2000) and Müller, Neunhöffer, Wilson (2007) consider large orbits

How can we rule out that our given group is a giant beforehand?  
Consider first  $A_n$  and  $S_n$  in their natural representation.

## Definition

An element  $g \in S_n$  is called *purple* if it contains in its disjoint cycle decomposition one cycle of prime length  $p$  with  $n/2 < p < n - 2$ .

Theorem (Modification of a theorem of Jordan, 1873)

$G \leq S_n$  acts transitively on  $\Omega = \{1, \dots, n\}$ . If  $G$  contains a *purple* element, then  $G$  contains  $A_n$ .

## Theorem

*Let  $p$  a prime with  $n/2 < p < n - 2$ . The proportion of purple elements in  $S_n$  and  $A_n$  is  $\frac{1}{p}$ .*

# Bertrand's postulate

The following Theorem was already conjectured by Bertrand (1822-1900) and proved by Chebyshev (1821-1894) in 1850.

## Theorem

*For a positive integer  $m$  with  $m > 3$  there exists at least one prime  $p$  with  $m < p < 2m - 2$ .*



## Proportions in $S_n$ and $A_n$

The proportion of purple elements in  $S_n$  or  $A_n$  is  $\frac{c}{\log(n)}$  for a small constant  $c$ .

# Monte-Carlo Test: is $A_n \leq G$ ?

---

## Algorithm 1: CONTAINS $A_n$

---

**Eingabe:**  $G = \langle X \rangle \leq S_n$

**Ausgabe:** true or false

**if** *not* ISTRANSITIVE( $G$ ) **then return** *false*;

**for**  $i = 1 \dots N$  **do**

$g := \text{Random}(G)$ ;

**if**  $g$  *purple* **then return** *true*;

**end**

**return** *false*;

---

# Complexity of CONTAINS $A_n$

The probability that among  $N$  independent, uniformly distributed random elements  $g \in G$ , with  $A_n \leq G$ , no purple elements were found is  $(1 - \frac{c}{\log(n)})^N$ . Thus choose  $N$  such that  $(1 - \frac{c}{\log(n)})^N < \varepsilon$ , or

$$N > \log(\varepsilon^{-1}) \log \left( \frac{\log(n)}{\log(n) - c} \right)^{-1}.$$

This is the case, if  $N > \log(\varepsilon^{-1}) \frac{\log(n)}{c}$ .

Thus the complexity is

$$O(\log(\varepsilon^{-1}) \log(n)(\rho + n)),$$

where  $\rho$  is the cost of a call to RANDOM.

# Problems with no known polynomial time Algorithms

Consider the following problems for permutation groups.

- set stabiliser
- centraliser of one group in another
- intersection of permutation groups
- decide whether two elements in a group are conjugate

# For Further Reading I



**Ákos Seress**

Permutation Group Algorithms,  
Cambridge Tracts in Mathematics 152,  
Cambridge University Press, 2003.