

Constraint Satisfaction Problems, Twisted Subgroups and Transversals

Barbara Baumeister
FU Berlin, Fachbereich Mathematik
Arnimallee 3, 14195 Berlin
Baumeist@math.fu-berlin.de

December 21, 2007

We cite from [9]: “Near subgroups of finite groups were introduced by Feder and Vardi [11] as a tool to study the computational complexity of constraint satisfaction problems.” Their main motivation was the question whether every problem in the class CSP is either polynomial or NP-complete. Feder and Vardi showed that the class of problems whose constraints are defined by subgroups and their cosets in a given abelian group is polynomially solvable [11]. There it is also proven that every additional constraint type that is not a coset of a subgroup makes the problem NP-complete.

The subgroup-and-their-cosets problem remains polynomial even if the group is not abelian. For non abelian groups additional constraints that are not cosets of subgroups resist attempts at showing NP-completeness with the exception: If for a constraint type the group has an abelian section where a coset of the constraint containing the identity 1 does not define a subgroup, then the problem is NP-complete by the result on abelian groups [10]. A *near subgroup* of a group is a set containing 1 whose every coset containing 1, when restricted to an abelian section, defines a subgroup. Thus sets that are not cosets of near subgroups make the problem for a given group NP-complete, see [10].

Bulatov [7,8] has shown that Mal'tsev constraints have a polynomial time algorithm. In between Aschbacher [2] addressed some questions raised in [11] and showed that near subgroups possess much structure. More recently,

Feder [10] showed that near subgroups do indeed characterize the polynomial time solvable cases of group theoretic constraint satisfaction problems, using new structural results for near subgroups obtained by Aschbacher [2,3]. More precisely Feder proved that subgroups, near subgroups, and their cosets are Mal'tsev constraints [10].

The aim of this paper is to exhibit some of the influence of computer science on group theory. In particular, I would like to present the development in group theory which was initiated by Feder and Vardi [11] and its surprising consequences (see also [10, p.3]).

Every near subgroup of a group is a twisted subgroup and for odd order groups the two concepts coincide. A subset K of a group G is a *twisted subgroup* of G if K contains the identity 1 of G and if for all $x, y \in K$ it follows that xyx is in K , see [2] or [9].

First of all notice that there is a one-to-one correspondence between twisted subgroups and *Bol loops*, see for instance [6,4]. Bol loops are groups satisfying only a weak axiom of associativity. They are also of importance in physics where they are called *gyrogroups* [17]. If in a twisted subgroup K all the elements different from the identity are involutions, i.e. applied twice are the identity, then the related *Bol loop* is even a *Bruck loop* (in physics called *gyrocommutative gyrogroup* [17]).

Recall that a *transversal* \mathcal{T} to a subgroup U in G is a set of representatives of the set of right cosets of U in G , that is \mathcal{T} has precisely one element from every right coset of U in G . If the twisted subgroup consists beside the identity of involutions, then G has a subgroup U such that $\mathcal{T} = K$ is a transversal to U in G , which satisfies the following two conditions.

- (1) $1 \in \mathcal{T}$
- (2) \mathcal{T} is closed under conjugation by G (that is $\mathcal{T}^G = \{g^{-1}tg \mid g \in G, t \in \mathcal{T}\} = \mathcal{T}$),

see [6] or [4].

Bruck loops have been studied by Glauberman [12, 14]. He generalized the Feit-Thompson Theorem stating that every finite group of odd order is soluble to finite Bruck loops of odd order. In order to do so he proved his famous Z^* Theorem [13] which became a basic tool in the classification of the finite simple groups.

It was a long standing open question whether, as for finite groups, Bruck loops where K consists beside the identity only of involutions are soluble. Aschbacher answered some questions of Feder and Vardi on near subgroups in [2]. This led him to work on this long standing open question on twisted subgroups just mentioned. He could reduce the problem to a problem on linear groups and their modules. Using these results of Aschbacher Stein and the author answered the question negatively by giving a counter example [6], see also [16]. This surprising answer - almost everybody expected that the Bruck loops would be soluble - revealed that Bruck loops as well as Bol loops of even order are not at all understood up to now.

If we replace (2) above by

(2') \mathcal{T} is closed under conjugation by U ,

then we obtain a gyrodecomposition of G , which were also studied by Feder [9].

In the following we show that the concept of a twisted subgroup can be used to produce a complement to a subgroup in a group. We study the groups satisfying (1) and (2'). If (G, U) satisfies the condition (2'), then we say that G admits a U -invariant transversal in G .

Notation In the following the reader is directed to [1] for notation and terminology. Nevertheless we like to recall some definitions.

Let G be a finite group and let $|G| = p_1^{a_1} \cdots p_n^{a_n}$ be the prime factorisation of the order of G . Then every subgroup of G of order $p_i^{a_i}$ is a *Sylow p -subgroup* of G . If the group G is the direct product of its Sylow p -subgroups, then G is called *nilpotent*. The group G is *soluble*, if there are normal subgroups $G_1 = G, G_2, \dots, G_n = 1$ of G (i.e. subgroups G_i such that $g^{-1}G_i g = G_i$ for every g in G) such that G_i/G_{i+1} is abelian for $1 \leq i \leq n - 1$.

As usual we denote by $\pi(G)$ the set of primes which divide the order of G . If $\pi = \pi(G)$, then we say that G is a π -group. For $\pi \subseteq \pi(G)$, we denote by $O^\pi(G)$ the smallest normal subgroup of G such that $G/O^\pi(G)$ is a π -group. If $\pi = \{p\}$ consists of a single prime then we omit the brackets.

Gil Kaplan could characterize the groups satisfying (1) and (2') under the further assumption that U is a Sylow p -subgroup of G . He showed the following.

Theorem 1 [15] *Let G be a group, p be a prime and U a Sylow p -subgroup of G . Assume that U has a transversal \mathcal{T} in G which is normalized by U . Then U has a normal p -complement (that is a normal subgroup N such that $G = NU$ and $N \cap U = 1$).*

Recall that U is a *Hall subgroup* of a group G if $\gcd(|U|, |G|/|U|) = 1$. In particular, every Sylow p -subgroup of G is a Hall subgroup of G . If $\pi = \pi(U)$, then we say that U is a π -Hall subgroup.

In [5] we generalized the result of Kaplan to:

Theorem 2 *Let U be a nilpotent Hall subgroup of G which admits a U -invariant transversal in G . Then U has a normal complement in G .*

It is a natural question to ask what is happening if U is not nilpotent, but soluble? The following example shows that a soluble Hall subgroup U which has a by U normalized transversal does not have a normal complement in general:

Example 1 Let $G = S_5$, the group of permutations of the set $\{1, \dots, 5\}$, and let U be the stabilizer of 5 in G . Set

$$\mathcal{T} = \{id, (15), (25), (35), (45)\},$$

where (ij) is the transposition interchanging i and j . Then $U \cong S_4$ is a soluble Hall subgroup of G and \mathcal{T} an U -invariant transversal to U in G . Clearly, U does not have a normal complement in G .

Assume that U is a π -Hall subgroup of G which admits a normal complement N . Then N is a U -invariant transversal to U in G . Moreover, $U \cong G/N$ is a π -group and N is not divisible by any prime in π . This shows that N is contained in $O^\pi(G)$.

We prove that this necessary condition is already sufficient.

Theorem 3 *Let U be a soluble Hall subgroup of G . Then G has a normal complement to U if and only if U admits a transversal $\mathcal{T} \subseteq O^\pi(G)$ with $\mathcal{T}^U = \mathcal{T}$.*

Example 1 is not a counterexample to this theorem, as in the example U is a $\{2, 3\}$ -Hall subgroup of G , $O^{\{2,3\}}(G) = A_5$, the subgroup of even

permutations of S_5 , and there is no U -invariant transversal to U in G which is contained in A_5 .

Clearly, the immediate question arises: what can be said if U is an arbitrary Hall subgroup which has a U -invariant transversal, but none of the normalized transversals is contained in $O^\pi(G)$? In a forthcoming paper we further investigate these groups.

The condition that $\gcd(|U|, |\mathcal{T}|) = 1$ is really needed - else we get counter examples, see [5].

In the next section we provide some general facts which are necessary to prove Theorem 3. The last section includes the proof of Theorem 3.

1 General properties

The first lemma is an easy exercise in group theory.

Lemma 1.1 *Let G be a group and $\pi \subseteq \pi(G)$. Then*

- (a) $O^\pi(G) \leq \bigcap_{p \in \pi} O^p(G)$
- (b) $O^\pi(O^p(G)) = O^\pi(G)$ for all $p \in \pi$.

Proof. The first part follows directly from the definition and the second from the facts that on the one hand if $O^p(G)/A$ is a π -group, then also G/A and on the other hand that $O^\pi(G)$ is a subgroup of $O^p(G)$ and $O^p(G)/O^\pi(G)$ a π -group. □

Now let us focus on groups which have a subgroup U admitting a U -invariant transversal.

Lemma 1.2 *Let U be a subgroup of G which has a transversal \mathcal{T} such that $\mathcal{T}^U = \mathcal{T}$. Then the following holds.*

- (a) *There is precisely one element u_0 in $U \cap \mathcal{T}$.*
- (b) *Let u_0 be as in (a). Then u_0 commutes with U , i.e. $u_0u = uu_0$ for all u_0 in U .*

(c) U controls fusion of its p -elements, i.e. if u is an element of U whose order is a power of p , then $u^G \cap U = u^U$.

Proof. As \mathcal{T} is a transversal for U in G , there is precisely one element u_0 in $U \cap \mathcal{T}$, which is (a). Now $\mathcal{T}^U = \mathcal{T}$ implies (b).

Let u be a p -element of U such that $u^t \in U$ for some $t \in \mathcal{T}$. Then $t^{-1}utu^{-1} \in U$. As utu^{-1} is in \mathcal{T} and as \mathcal{T} is a transversal for U in G , it follows that $utu^{-1} = t$ and therefore $ut = tu$. The fact that $G = UT$ implies now $u^G \cap U = u^U$, which is the assertion (c). \square

2 Proof of Theorem 3

In the following we need to distinguish between the prime divisors of $|G|$ which divide the order of U and which don't. Set

$$\pi := \pi(U).$$

Moreover, recall the definition of the *commutator subgroup*

$$G' := \langle g^{-1}h^{-1}gh \mid g, h \in G \rangle$$

of G .

Lemma 2.1 *Let U be a subgroup of G such that G admits a U -invariant transversal in G . If $O^p(U)U' < U$ for a prime p in π , then $O^p(G)G' < G$.*

Proof. As U controls fusion of its p -elements by Lemma 1.2(c), it follows that

$$(O^p(G)G') \cap U = O^p(U)U' \text{ for all } p \in \pi,$$

see [1, 37.5]. If $O^p(G)G' = G$, then we get the contradiction

$$U = G \cap U = (O^p(G)G') \cap U = O^p(U)U' < U.$$

\square

Proposition 2.2 *Let U be a subgroup of G such that G admits a U -invariant transversal in G . If $O^p(G)G' = G$ for all prime p in π , then U is a perfect group, i.e. $U = U'$.*

Proof. Assume that U is not perfect. Then $U' < U$. Let p be a prime which divides the order of U/U' . Then $O^p(U)U'$ is a proper subgroup of U . Thus, we get a contradiction to Lemma 2.1. \square

Corollary 2.3 *Let U be a Hall subgroup of a perfect group G such that G admits a U -invariant transversal in G . Then U is a perfect group.*

Proof. As G is perfect, we get $O^p(G)G' = G$ for all p in π , and therefore Proposition 2.2 yields the assertion. \square

Proof of Theorem 3.

Suppose that U has a normal complement N . Then N is a π' -group and therefore it is a transversal which is normalized by U and which is contained in $O^\pi(G)$.

Now assume that there is a transversal $\mathcal{T} \subseteq O^\pi(G)$ with $\mathcal{T}^U = \mathcal{T}$. Then in particular, \mathcal{T} is contained in $O^p(G)$ for all p in π , see Lemma 1.1(a). Let p be a prime dividing the order of U/U' . Then $O^p(G) < G$ by Lemma 2.1. Clearly, $O^p(G) = \mathcal{T}(U \cap O^p(G))$. As moreover $\mathcal{T} \subseteq O^\pi(G) = O^\pi(O^p(G))$ by Lemma 1.1(b) we can use induction and get that there is a normal π -complement N to $U \cap O^p(G)$ in $O^p(G)$. Thus, N is a characteristic subgroup of $O^p(G)$ and therefore it is normal in G . Further,

$$G = O^p(G)U = N(U \cap O^p(G))U = NU$$

and $N \cap U \leq N \cap O^p(G) \cap U = 1$. \square

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