

Constructing Permutation Arrays from Semilinear Groups

Avi Levy

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1 Introduction

This is a preliminary writeup of my work with the semilinear groups. These groups yield new permutation arrays with large pairwise Hamming distances. Their properties are well-understood, which allows the minimal pairwise Hamming distance to be obtained without resorting to direct computation.

2 Overview and Notation

2.1 Finite Fields

Given $q = p^n$, a power of a prime, call the unique field with q elements \mathbb{F}_q .

$$\mathbb{F}_q = \{0, 1, g, g^2, \dots, g^{q-2}\}$$

where g is any generator of F_q .

2.2 Permutation Polynomials

Let $f : \mathbb{F}_q \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q$ be a polynomial function with coefficients in \mathbb{F}_q . If f is one-to-one, then f permutes the elements of \mathbb{F}_q . In this case, f is called a *permutation polynomial*, and the permutation corresponding to f is:

$$\sigma_f : x \rightarrow f(x)$$

2.3 Classical Groups

There are four families of groups that we are concerned with in this paper.

- $AGL(n, \mathbb{F})$: affine general linear group of dimension n over the field \mathbb{F} .
- $A\Gamma L(n, \mathbb{F})$: affine general semilinear group of dimension n over \mathbb{F} .
- $PGL(n, \mathbb{F})$: projective general linear group of dim n over \mathbb{F} .
- $P\Gamma L(n, \mathbb{F})$: projective general semilinear group of dim n over \mathbb{F} .

Note 2.1. We will use shorthand like $Group(n, q)$ as a synonym for $Group(n, \mathbb{F}_q)$.

2.4 Hamming distance and Permutation Arrays

In this section, all permutations act on n elements.

The Hamming distance between two permutations is the number of places in which they differ. Let S and T be sets of permutations. Then $hd(S, T)$ denotes the minimal Hamming distance between distinct elements of S and T .

If $hd(S, S) = d$, then the set S is called a permutation array of Hamming distance d . We say that S is an $M(n, d)$ in this case.

3 Constructions

3.1 $AGL(1, \mathbb{F}_q)$

$AGL(1, \mathbb{F}_q) = AGL(1, q)$ is the group of linear polynomials:

$$AGL(1, q) = \{ax + b \mid a, b \in \mathbb{F}_q, a \neq 0\}$$

The group operation is function composition:

$$(ax + b) \circ (cx + d) = a(cx + d) + b = acx + (b + d)$$

In fact, all the groups in this paper are presented as sets of polynomials, and the group operation will always be function composition. This group is sharply 2-transitive and yields an optimal $M(q, q-1)$ with $q(q-1)$ elements.

3.2 $A\Gamma L(1, \mathbb{F}_q)$

Recall that $q = p^n$. Consider the permutation polynomial

$$\text{frob}(x) = x^p$$

called the Frobenius automorphism, which is semilinear in the following sense:

$$\text{frob}(x + y) = (x + y)^p \equiv x^p + y^p = \text{frob}(x) + \text{frob}(y)$$

Starting from $AGL(1, q)$, append $\text{frob}(x)$ and take the group closure, yielding:

$$A\Gamma L(1, q) = \{ax^{p^i} + b \mid a, b \in \mathbb{F}_q, a \neq 0, 0 \leq i < n\}$$

This group has $nq(q-1)$ elements.

3.3 $PGL(2, \mathbb{F}_q)$

Projective groups act on a “point at infinity”. To accommodate this case, form the set $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{F}_q) = \{\infty\} \cup \mathbb{F}_q$. Then $PGL(2, q)$ is constructed as:

$$PGL(2, q) = \left\{ \frac{ax + b}{cx + d} \mid a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{F}_q, ad \neq bc \right\}$$

These are called *fractional linear functions*. Note that cancelling common factors from the numerator and denominator leaves the function unchanged, so there are only 3 degrees of freedom among (a, b, c, d) .

Suppose $h(x) \in PGL(2, q)$. If $h(x)$ is written as $h(x) = \frac{ax+b}{cx+d}$, then h acts on $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{F}_q)$ as follows:

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{a}{c} & \text{if } x = \infty \\ \infty & \text{if } x = -\frac{d}{c} \\ \frac{ax+b}{cx+d} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The group $PGL(2, q)$ is 3-transitive and yields an optimal $M(q + 1, q - 1)$ with $(q + 1)q(q - 1)$ elements.

3.4 $P\Gamma L(1, \mathbb{F}_q)$

In analogy with $A\Gamma L$, start from $PGL(2, q)$ then append $\text{frob}(x)$ and take the group closure.

$$P\Gamma L(2, q) = \left\{ \frac{ax^{p^i} + b}{cx^{p^i} + d} \mid a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{F}_q, ad \neq bc, 0 \leq i < n \right\}$$

This group has $n(q + 1)q(q - 1)$ elements.

4 Hamming Distance Computations

4.1 Preliminaries

In this section, all permutations act on n elements.

Let G be a set of permutations that is also a permutation group. The goal in this section is to compute $hd(G, G)$, and thereby interpret G as a permutation array $M(n, d)$.

Lemma 4.1. $hd(\{\sigma\tau\}, \{\sigma\rho\}) = hd(\{\tau\}, \{\rho\})$

Proof. $\sigma\tau(x) = \sigma\rho(x) \iff \tau(x) = \rho(x)$ □

Lemma 4.2. $hd(G, G) = hd(\{e\}, G)$, where e is the identity permutation

Proof. Pick $a, b \in G$. Then $hd(a, b) = hd(e, a^{-1}b)$ so the result follows □

Lemma 4.3. Suppose N is a normal subgroup of a finite group, G . If $\{a_i\}_{i \in I}$ is a set of coset representatives of N , then

$$hd(G, G) = \min_{i \in I} hd(\{a_i\}, N)$$

Proof. Since N is normal, the set $\{a_i^{-1}\}$ is also a set of coset representatives. Therefore, $G = \bigcup_{i \in I} a_i^{-1}N$, so the Hamming distance is computed as follows:

$$hd(G, G) = hd(\{e\}, G) = \min_{i \in I} hd(\{e\}, a_i^{-1}N) = \min_{i \in I} hd(\{a_i\}, N)$$

where Lemma 4.1 and Lemma 4.2 have been applied. □

Using the following lemma, one can compute the Hamming distance simply by counting roots of polynomials.

Lemma 4.4. For any polynomial $f \in \mathbb{F}_q[x]$, let $r(f)$ denote the number of distinct roots of $f(x)$ in \mathbb{F}_q . Then for any distinct pair of polynomials $g, h \in \mathbb{F}_q[x]$ we have

$$hd(\{g\}, \{h\}) = n - r(g - h)$$

Proof. $g(x) \neq h(x)$ is equivalent to saying x is not a root of $g - h$ □

4.2 AGL

Theorem 4.5. $AGL(1, q)$ is an $M(q, q - p^{n^*})$, where n^* denotes the largest proper factor of n .

Proof. Let $G = AGL(1, q)$ and let $N = AGL(1, p)$. Note that N is normal in G by construction. To proceed, apply Lemma 4.3 with representatives $\{x^{p^i}\}_{i=0}^{n-1}$ to G , then use Lemma 4.4:

$$\begin{aligned} hd(G, G) &= \min_{0 \leq i < n} hd(\{x^{p^i}\}, N) \\ &= q - \max_{\substack{i < n \\ g \in N}} r(x^{p^i} - g(x)) \end{aligned}$$

By Theorem 5.1,

$$\max_{g \in N} r(x^{p^i} - g(x)) = r(x^{p^i} - x)$$

Now by Theorem 5.2,

$$r(x^{p^i} - x) = p^{\gcd(i, n)}$$

Putting all of our results together,

$$\begin{aligned} hd(G, G) &= q - \max_{\substack{i < n \\ g \in N}} r(x^{p^i} - g(x)) \\ &= q - \max_{i < n} p^{\gcd(i, n)} \\ &= q - p^{n^*} \end{aligned}$$

Thus $AGL(1, q)$ is an $M(q, q - p^{n^*})$. □

Corollary 4.6. *Suppose $q = 2^p$ where p is prime. Then there exists an $M(q, q - 2)$ of size $pq(q - 1)$.*

4.3 PGL

Theorem 4.7. *$PGL(2, q)$ is an $M(q + 1, q - p^{n^*})$, where n^* denotes the largest proper factor of n .*

Proof. Let $G = PGL(2, q)$ and $H = \{g \in G \mid g(\infty) = \infty\}$. H can be identified with $AGL(1, q)$ by means of the isomorphism $i : AGL(1, q) \rightarrow H$

$$i(g)(x) = \begin{cases} g(x) & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{F}_q \\ \infty & \text{if } x = \infty \end{cases}$$

Suppose $g(x), h(x)$ are distinct elements of G . If $g(x) \neq h(x)$ for all x , then $hd(\{g\}, \{h\}) = q + 1$. Otherwise, pick a point y such that

$$g(y) = h(y) = w$$

Choose the following elements of G :

$$\tau_1(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{x - w} & \text{if } w \in \mathbb{F}_q \\ x & \text{if } w = \infty \end{cases}$$

$$\tau_2(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{yx + 1}{x} & \text{if } y \in \mathbb{F}_q \\ x & \text{if } y = \infty \end{cases}$$

Let $g' = \tau_1 \circ g \circ \tau_2$, $h' = \tau_1 \circ h \circ \tau_2$. Then $\tau_1(g(\tau_2(\infty))) = \infty$ and likewise for h , so $g', h' \in H$.

By Lemma 4.1, $hd(g', h') = hd(g, h)$. Moreover, the isomorphism i preserves Hamming distance so

$$hd(g', h') = hd(i^{-1}(g'), i^{-1}(h'))$$

But $i^{-1}(g'), i^{-1}(h') \in AGL(1, q)$, so by Theorem 4.7

$$hd(i^{-1}(g'), i^{-1}(h')) \geq q - p^{n^*}$$

Therefore $hd(g, h) \geq q - p^{n^*}$, so $PGL(2, q)$ is an $M(q + 1, q - p^{n^*})$. \square

Corollary 4.8. *Let $q = 2^p$ where p is prime. Then there exists an $M(q + 1, q - 2)$ of size $p(q + 1)q(q - 1) = O(q^3 \log q)$.*

This improves upon the best current computational results.

5 Root-counting Results

Theorem 5.1. $r(x^{p^i} + ax + b) \leq r(x^{p^i} - x)$

Proof. Let $p_1(x) = x^{p^i} + ax + b$, $p_2(x) = x^{p^i} + ax$ and $p_3(x) = x^{p^i} - x$. We will show that $r(p_1) \leq r(p_2) \leq r(p_3)$.

First, suppose p_1 has at least one root (if not, the result holds trivially). Then pick a root of p_1 and call it y . Observe that for any root y_i of p_1 , we have

$$\begin{aligned} p_2(y_i - y) &= (y_i - y)^{p^i} + a(y_i - y) \\ &= y_i^{p^i} - y^{p^i} + a(y_i - y) \\ &= p_1(y_i) - p_1(y) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Thus $y_i - y$ is a root of p_2 . Since the mapping $y_i \rightarrow y_i - y$ is a bijection, this shows that $r(p_1) = r(p_2)$ whenever p_1 has at least one root. Thus in general, $r(p_1) \leq r(p_2)$.

To show that $r(p_2) \leq r(p_3)$, we will instead show that $r(p_2^\circ) \leq r(p_3^\circ)$, where

$$p_2^\circ = \frac{p_2}{x} = x^{p^i-1} + a \quad p_3^\circ = \frac{p_3}{x} = x^{p^i-1} - 1$$

If $p_2^\circ(0) = 0$, then $p_2^\circ = x^{p^i-1}$ so $r(p_2^\circ) = 1 \leq r(p_3^\circ)$, since p_3° has the trivial root 1.

Otherwise, zero is not a root of p_2° . Suppose p_2° has at least one root (otherwise the result follows trivially). Then pick a root of p_2° and call it z . As z_i ranges over all roots of p_2° , map $z_i \rightarrow \frac{z_i}{z}$.

$$\begin{aligned} p_3^\circ\left(\frac{z_1}{z}\right) &= \left(\frac{z_1}{z}\right)^{p^i-1} - 1 \\ &= \left(\frac{z_1^{p^i-1}}{z^{p^i-1}}\right) - 1 \\ &= \frac{-a}{-a} - 1 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

so $\frac{z_i}{z}$ is a root of p_3° . Since the map is a bijection, this establishes $r(p_2^\circ) = r(p_3^\circ)$ under the hypotheses on p_2 . It follows that in general, $r(p_2) \leq r(p_3)$. Thus, $r(p_1) \leq r(p_3)$ as we intended to show. \square

Theorem 5.2. $r(x^{p^i} - x) = p^{\gcd(i,n)}$

Proof. Let S be the set of roots of $x^{p^i} - x$. First, observe that the S forms a finite field. This follows by checking closure under addition, multiplication, and division - in a similar manner as in the previous proof.

Thus S is a subfield of \mathbb{F}_q . In particular, $S = \mathbb{F}_{p^j}$ where $j|n$.

Now consider the extension of $x^{p^i} - x$ into its splitting field. In this larger field, the expanded root set forms \mathbb{F}_{p^i} . But this root set contains S as a subset, so that S is also a subfield of \mathbb{F}_{p^i} . Thus $j|i$.

Since subfields are ordered by inclusion, S is the maximal subfield satisfying the above constraints. This implies that j is the maximal integer satisfying $j|n$ and $j|i$ simultaneously. So $j = \gcd(i,n)$ which shows $r(x^{p^i} - x) = |S| = p^j = p^{\gcd(i,n)}$ \square

Theorem 5.3 (Special case of Quan’s Conjecture). *The equation*

$$\frac{ax + b}{cx + d} = x^p$$

has at most $p + 1$ solutions in $\mathbb{F}_q \cup \{\infty\}$, where $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{F}_q$.

Proof. Let x_i be a solution of the equation. Then x_i is a root of the following polynomial:

$$cx^{p+1} + dx^p - ax - b$$

By the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra, this polynomial has at most $p + 1$ roots. \square

Corollary 5.4. *Let $G = PGL(2, q)$ and f be the Frobenius permutation. Then $hd(G, \{f\}) = q - p$.*

Proof. Choose $g(x) \in G$. Then by Lemma 4.4, $hd(\{g\}, \{f\}) = q + 1 - s$, where s is the number of solutions of the equation

$$\frac{ax + b}{cx + d} = x^p$$

By Theorem 5.3, $s \leq p + 1$.

Therefore, $hd(\{g\}, \{f\}) \geq (q + 1) - (p + 1) = q - p$. When $g(x) = x$, equality holds. It follows that $hd(G, \{f\}) = q - p$. \square

Corollary 5.5. *Quan’s Conjecture holds for $M(2^n + 1, 2^n - 1)$, with backoff distance 1. Quan’s Conjecture holds for $M(3^n + 1, 3^n - 1)$, with backoff distance 2.*

Proof. Quan’s Conjecture relates to the coset method. Start with $G = PGL(2, q) = M(q + 1, q - 1)$ and generate random permutations, σ , on $q + 1$ elements. If σ has minimal Hamming distance $q - 1 - d$ from all elements of G , then the coset σG is said to have “backed off by d ” from G .

Quan’s Conjecture states that when $d \geq 2$, this procedure generates at least one such permutation, σ . The previous results show that Quan’s Conjecture holds for $q = 2^n$ and $q = 3^n$, by choosing σ to be the Frobenius automorphism.

Note: An even simpler proof establishes Quan’s Conjecture for $M(2^n, 2^n - 1)$ and $M(3^n, 3^n - 1)$. \square

6 Conclusions

Need to write up properly. I want to emphasize that these are novel lower bounds, that this leads to a family with asymptotic growth $O(n^3 \log n)$, and that this can be used as a starting point for a refined coset method.

Also, it may be worth looking for other areas where my technical results about roots of polynomials can be applied.

7 Bibliography

Need to fix up. Useful references included:

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