

The Simple 7-(33,8,10)-Designs with Automorphism Group $\text{P}\Gamma\text{L}(2,32)$

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Abstract

Lattice basis reduction in combination with an efficient backtracking algorithm is used to find all (4 996 426) simple 7-(33,8,10) designs with automorphism group $\text{P}\Gamma\text{L}(2,32)$. The paper contains a short description of the algorithm.

1 Introduction

Let X be a v -set (i.e. a set with v elements) whose elements are called *points*. A t -(v, k, λ) *design* is a collection of k -subsets (called *blocks*) of X with the property that any t -subset of X is contained in exactly λ blocks. A t -(v, k, λ) design is called *simple* if no blocks are repeated, and *trivial* if every k -subset of X is a block and occurs the same number of times in the design.

A straightforward approach to the construction of t -(v, k, λ) designs is to consider the matrix

$$M_{t,k}^v := (m_{i,j}), \quad i = 1, \dots, \binom{v}{t}, \quad j = 1, \dots, \binom{v}{k} :$$

The rows of $M_{t,k}^v$ are indexed by the t -subsets of X and the columns by the k -subsets of X . We set $m_{i,j} := 1$ if the i -th t -subset is contained in the j -th k -subset, otherwise $m_{i,j} := 0$. Simple t -(v, k, λ) designs therefore correspond to $\{0, 1\}$ -solutions x of the system of $\binom{v}{t}$ linear equations:

$$M_{t,k}^v \cdot x = \lambda(1, 1, \dots, 1)^\top.$$

Unfortunately, for most designs with interesting parameters v, t, k the size of the matrix $M_{t,k}^v$ is prohibitively large. For example in the case of $v = 33$, $t = 7$ and $k = 8$ the matrix $M_{7,8}^{33}$ has 4 272 048 rows and 13 884 156 columns.

But by assuming a group action on the set X the size of $M_{t,k}^v$ can be dramatically reduced. A group G acting on X induces also an action on the set of t -subsets and the set of k -subsets of X . With $A_{t,k} = (a_{i,j})$ we denote the matrix where $a_{i,j}$ counts the number of those elements in the j -th orbit of G on the k -subsets of X which contain a representative of the i -th orbit of t -subsets of X . This matrix was introduced by KRAMER and MESNER [7]. They observed:

Theorem 1 (see [7]) *A simple t - (v, k, λ) design with $G \leq \text{Sym}(X)$ as an automorphism group exists if and only if there is a $\{0, 1\}$ -solution x to the matrix equation*

$$A_{t,k} \cdot x = \lambda(1, 1, \dots, 1)^\top. \quad (1)$$

Taking the group $\text{PFL}(2, 2^5)$ the matrix $A_{7,8}$ in the above example has 32 rows and 97 columns. Nevertheless it is still a respectable task to find solutions of (1).

Finding solutions for this problem requires algorithms which do searching in high dimensional spaces. These algorithms can roughly be divided into two classes, depending on whether they search in a systematic manner for all possible solutions or if they just try to find one solution.

For finding just one solution the algorithms are mostly randomized, for example simulated annealing, combinatorial optimization, local search [13] and lattice basis reduction [8, 15, 1]. See [13] for a survey. Recently also algorithms which use Gröbner bases have been proposed [21, 22].

In [8] the authors used the original lattice basis reduction algorithm (LLL) as described in [11] and a lattice like the one proposed in [9]. Meanwhile lattice basis reduction algorithms have been greatly improved. New algorithms were invented by SCHNORR, [17, 18, 19]. Also new lattices have been proposed, see [2, 4].

On the contrary, in order to find all $\{0, 1\}$ -solutions of (1) until now only exhaustive search techniques based on backtracking have been

used, see for example [13, 14]. SCHMALZ [16] used a graph theoretical approach, he enumerates all solutions implicitly via graphs.

The new approach – using lattice basis reduction [11] – is to construct a basis of the kernel of the equation

$$\begin{pmatrix} & 1 \\ A_{t,k} & \vdots \\ & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad x_i \in \mathbf{Z}, y \in \mathbf{Z} \quad (2)$$

which consists of short integer vectors. But the shortest integer vectors (in the euclidean norm) in the kernel of (2) need not correspond to solutions of our $\{0, 1\}$ -problem (1). KAIB and RITTER proposed in [5] an algorithm which enumerates all solutions with $y = \pm\lambda$ as linear combination of this short integer basis vectors.

The first step of this algorithm – finding a basis of the kernel – can be done in polynomial time in the number of columns of the Kramer Mesner matrix A_{tk} with the help of lattice basis reduction [11]. But the explicit enumeration in the second step of [5] is still an exponential algorithm whilst in most cases much faster than the brute force enumeration as it was used in the above mentioned algorithms. Thus in some sense this algorithm combines the two classes of algorithms to solve (1).

This is the first announcement of the 4 996 246 7-(33,8,10)-designs with automorphism group $\text{PTL}(2,32)$ together with a short overview of the algorithm. A more detailed description will be submitted to the *Journal of Combinatorial Designs*.

2 From linear equations to lattices

As in [1] we transform the Kramer Mesner matrix A_{tk} with l rows and s columns into the matrix

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|cc} & & & c_0 1 & 0 \\ & & & \vdots & \vdots \\ & & & c_0 1 & 0 \\ \hline c_1 2 & & 0 & 0 & c_1 1 \\ & & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ & 0 & & 0 & c_1 1 \\ \hline 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & c_1 1 \end{array} \right) \quad (3)$$

containing $s+2$ column vectors with $l+s+2$ rows. The set of all integer linear combinations of these vectors is called a *lattice*. A minimal set of vectors which generates the lattice is called a *basis* of the lattice. Important in our context are bases which contain short vectors. These are called *reduced bases* if they fulfill certain criteria of shortness, see [11].

The lattice L spanned by the columns of the matrix (3) has the column vectors of the matrix itself as a basis. This basis is reduced with the algorithm proposed in [20] to a new basis.

Definition 1 Let $L \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ be a lattice. For $1 \leq p < \infty$ the norm defined by the mapping

$$\|\cdot\|_p : \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}, x \mapsto \|x\|_p := \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p}$$

is called p -norm. The norm defined by the mapping

$$\|\cdot\|_\infty : \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}, x \mapsto \|x\|_\infty := \max\{|x_i| \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$$

is called ∞ -norm.

For $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ we call a vector $\in L$ p -shortest if it is a shortest vector in L in p -norm.

If we set in (3) $c_1 = \lambda$ and $c_0 > \lambda$, the ∞ -shortest vectors of the lattice are solutions of the equation (1). ∞ -shortest vectors in L consist of zeros in the first l rows and have only the entries $-1 \cdot c_1$ or $1 \cdot c_1$ in the rows $l+1, \dots, l+s$. Further, in row $l+s+1$ and $l+s+2$ they contain $\pm\lambda$ and ± 1 , respectively.

Until now only reduction techniques for the norm $p = 2$ are working efficiently. To find a ∞ -shortest vector we have to employ backtracking methods. Since the 2-norm and the ∞ -norm are equivalent (for all $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$: $\|x\|_\infty \leq \|x\|_2 \leq \sqrt{n}\|x\|_\infty$) it's reasonable to use 2-short vectors to find the ∞ -shortest vectors.

Let $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ denote the ordinary inner product in \mathbf{R}^n , $n \in \mathbf{N}$. For a sequence of linear independent vectors $b_1, \dots, b_m \in \mathbf{R}^n$ we let b_1^*, \dots, b_m^* be the *Gram-Schmidt orthogonalized* sequence. We thus have

$$b_i^* := b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \mu_{i,j} b_j^* \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, m, \quad \text{where } \mu_{i,j} = \frac{\langle b_i, b_j^* \rangle}{\langle b_j^*, b_j^* \rangle}. \quad (4)$$

Definition 2 For an (ordered) basis b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m of a lattice $L \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ and $1 \leq i \leq m$, $\pi_i(v)$ is the orthogonal projection of $v \in \mathbf{R}^n$ into $\langle b_1, b_2, \dots, b_i \rangle^\perp$. $L_i := \pi_i(L)$ is the orthogonal projection of the lattice L into $\langle b_1, b_2, \dots, b_i \rangle^\perp$.

Since

$$v = \sum_{j=1}^m \langle v, b_j^* \rangle b_j^*$$

we see that

$$\pi_i(v) = \sum_{j=i}^m \langle v, b_j^* \rangle b_j^*. \quad (5)$$

3 Explicit enumeration

For every basis vector b_t and $j \leq t$ we have:

$$\pi_j(b_t) = \sum_{i=j}^t \mu_{t,i} b_i^*.$$

With $c_s := \|b_s^*\|_2^2$ for $1 \leq s \leq k$ it follows

$$\pi_j\left(\sum_{t=j}^m u_t b_t\right) = \left(\sum_{i=j}^m u_i \mu_{i,j}\right) b_j^* + \pi_{j+1}\left(\sum_{t=j+1}^m u_t b_t\right), \quad (6)$$

and

$$\|\pi_j\left(\sum_{t=j}^m u_t b_t\right)\|_2^2 = \left(\sum_{i=j}^m u_i \mu_{i,j}\right)^2 c_j + \|\pi_{j+1}\left(\sum_{t=j+1}^m u_t b_t\right)\|_2^2.$$

Definition 3 For $u_j, u_{j+1}, \dots, u_m \in \mathbf{Z}$ we write $w_j := \pi_j\left(\sum_{t=j}^m u_t b_t\right)$.

The backtracking algorithm tries all possible integer values for u_m, u_{m-1}, \dots, u_1 . Starting from $t = m$ it computes w_t for $m \geq t \geq 1$ and finally $w_1 = \sum_{i=1}^m u_i b_i$.

Remark 1 If $u_{j+1}, u_{j+2}, \dots, u_m \in \mathbf{Z}$ are fixed and $u_j \in \mathbf{Z}$ has to be chosen such that $\|w_j\|_2^2$ is minimal, then u_j has to be set to the nearest integer to $-\sum_{i=j+1}^m u_i \mu_{i,j}$, since

$$\|w_j\|_2^2 = \|\pi_j\left(\sum_{t=j}^m u_t b_t\right)\|_2^2 = \left(u_j + \sum_{i=j+1}^m u_i \mu_{i,j}\right)^2 c_j + \|\pi_{j+1}\left(\sum_{t=j+1}^m u_t b_t\right)\|_2^2.$$

The solutions of our system of linear equations (2) are the ∞ -shortest vectors in the lattice generated by the vectors in (3), but we describe the search for the p -shortest vector in L for arbitrary $1 \leq p \leq \infty$.

Let F be an upper bound of the p -shortest vector of L . Since all p -norms in \mathbf{R}^n are equivalent, there exist constants r_p, R_p such that $r_p \|x\|_p \leq \|x\|_2 \leq R_p \|x\|_p$ for all $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$. Therefore a p -shortest vector v has 2-norm $\|v\|_2 \leq R_p F$ and in order to find p -shortest vectors we enumerate all vectors with 2-norm not greater than $R_p F$.

Moreover, KAIB, RITTER [5] use Hölder's inequality to combine the search for p -shortest vectors with enumeration in 2-norm:

Theorem 2 If for fixed $u_j, u_{j+1}, \dots, u_m \in \mathbf{Z}$ there exist

$$u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{j-1} \in \mathbf{Z}$$

with $\|\sum_{i=1}^m w_i\|_p \leq F$, then for all $y_j, y_{j+1}, \dots, y_m \in \mathbf{R}$:

$$\left| \sum_{i=j}^m y_i \|w_i\|_2^2 \right| \leq F \cdot \left\| \sum_{i=j}^m y_i w_i \right\|_q \quad (7)$$

with $1 \leq q \leq \infty$ such that $1/p + 1/q = 1$.

It remains to select y_j, \dots, y_m appropriately to enable an early recognition of enumeration branches which cannot yield solutions. KAIB, RITTER [5] proposed two selections:

1. $(y_j, y_{j+1}, \dots, y_m) = (1, 0, \dots, 0)$: Test if $\|w_j\|_2^2 \leq F\|w_j\|_q$.
2. $(y_j, y_{j+1}, \dots, y_m) = (\eta, 1 - \eta, 0, \dots, 0)$ with $\eta \in]0, 1[$.

Let's say $w_j = xb_j^* + w_{j+1}$ for an $x \in \mathbf{R}$. Then for every successive w'_j in the same direction, that means every $w'_j = (x+r)b_j^* + w_{j+1}$ with $r \in \mathbf{Z}$ and having the same sign as x , we have for $\eta := \frac{x}{x+r}$:

$$w_j = \eta w'_j + (1 - \eta)w_{j+1} \quad \text{and} \quad 0 < \eta < 1. \quad (8)$$

If w'_j can lead to a solution, then from (7) it follows for every $\eta \in]0, 1[$:

$$\eta\|w'_j\|_2^2 + (1 - \eta)\|w_{j+1}\|_2^2 \leq F\|\eta w'_j + (1 - \eta)w_{j+1}\|_q. \quad (9)$$

With (8) the inequality reduces to

$$\|w_j\|_2^2 \leq F\|w_j\|_q.$$

Here $0 \leq \eta \leq 1$ is needed.

Therefore we can cut the enumeration in the direction of x if $\|w_j\|_2^2 > F\|w_j\|_q$.

This results in the following algorithm:

- Algorithm 1**
1. *Compute a LLL-reduced integer basis of the kernel of the linear system (1): Choose c_0 large enough such that the number of remaining columns will be equal to $s - l + 2$ and LLL-reduce the matrix (3).*
 2. *Remove the columns with nonzero entries in the first l rows. From the remaining columns remove the first l rows (the zero entries).*
 3. *Compute for the remaining columns b_1, \dots, b_m the Gram-Schmidt vectors $b_1^*, b_2^*, \dots, b_m^*$ with their Gram-Schmidt coefficients $\mu_{i,j}$, see (4).*

4. Set $j := 1$;
 $F :=$ upper limit to the p -shortest vector in L .
Set $\bar{F} := R_p^2 F^2$.
5. Do the search loop:

```

while  $j \leq m$ 
  Compute  $w_j$  from  $w_{j+1}$ .
  if  $\|w_j\|_2^2 > \bar{F}$  then
     $j := j + 1$ 
    NEXT( $u_j$ )
  else
    if  $j > 1$  then
      if PRUNE( $u_j$ ) then
        if onedirection then
           $j := j + 1$ 
          NEXT( $u_j$ )
        else
          onedirection := true
          NEXT( $u_j$ )
        end if
      else
         $j := j - 1$ 
         $y := \sum_{i=j+1}^m u_i \mu_{i,j}$ 
         $u_j := \text{round}(-y)$ 
        onedirection := false
      end if
    else /* ( $j = 1$ ) */
      PRINT  $u_1, \dots, u_m$ 
      NEXT( $u_j$ )
    end if
  end if
end while

```

The procedure NEXT determines the next value of the variable u_j . Initially u_j is set to the nearest value of $-y_j := -\sum_{i=j+1}^m u_i \mu_{i,j}$, say

u_j^1 . The next value (u_j^2) of u_j is the second nearest integer to $-y_j$ then follows u_j^3 and so forth. Therefore the values of u_j alternate around $-y_j$. If PRUNE is true for one value of u_j we do one more jump around $-y_j$, then the enumeration is only proceeded in this remaining direction until it is pruned again.

For arbitrary p with and q such that $1/p + 1/q = 1$ the procedure PRUNE looks like this:

Algorithm 2 Choose y_j, \dots, y_m

PRUNE(u_j)

if $\left| \sum_{i=j}^m y_i \|w_i\|_2^2 \right| \leq F \cdot \left\| \sum_{i=j}^m y_i w_i \right\|_q$

Return false

else

Return true

end if

4 Results

We used the algorithm to find all 7-(33,8,10) designs with automorphism group $\text{P}\Gamma\text{L}_2(32)$. The Kramer Mesner matrix was already published in [12]. The algorithm described in [1] produced the following 32×97 matrix which is a permutation of the rows and columns of the matrix in [12]:

could be either $PTL(2, 2^5)$ or S_{33} . The latter case is impossible, since it would require all 8-subsets to be included into the design because of the transitivity of S_{33} on X .

The computing time was about one week on a DEC ALPHA 3000. The newest results of the Bayreuth group on t -designs can be found at

<http://www.mathe2.uni-bayreuth.de/betten/DESIGN/d1.html>

and

<http://www.mathe2.uni-bayreuth.de/people/laue.html>.

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