

Computational Understanding and Manipulation of Symmetries

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Abstract. For natural and artificial systems with some symmetry structure, computational understanding and manipulation can be achieved without learning by exploiting the algebraic structure. This algebraic coordinatization is based on a hierarchical (de)composition method. Here we describe this method and apply it to permutation puzzles. Coordinatization yields a structural understanding, not just solutions for the puzzles. In the case of the Rubik's Cubes, different solving strategies correspond to different decompositions.

Keywords: permutation puzzle · wreath product · coordinatization · cascade · decomposition · Rubik's Cube

1 Introduction

Symmetry structure in natural and artificial systems, such as crystallography, chemistry, physics, and permutation puzzles, etc., can facilitate understanding and manipulation of these systems. This is well-known in the mathematical sciences and from the algebraic theory of groups. However, until now, computational algebraic methods have not been fully exploited in Artificial Intelligence (AI).

We show how AI systems can make use of such mathematical symmetry structure to automatically generate and manipulate hierarchical coordinate systems for finite systems whose generating symmetries are given. Such hierarchical coordinate systems correspond to subgroup chains in the group structure determined by generating symmetries of the system. We demonstrate how, for any finite-state symmetry system, these coordinate systems

1. can be generated automatically, i.e. deriving formal models for understanding the finite-state symmetry system, and

2. can be deployed in manipulating the system automatically.

Thus, without learning, manipulation of such systems is reduced via algebra to sequential computation in a hierarchy of simple (or simpler) group coordinates. This general, implemented method is illustrated with examples from coordinate systems on permutation puzzles such as Rubik's cube.

1.1 Algebra, Cognitive Modeling, Coordinate Systems

Algebra and the theory of permutation groups is well-known from applications of groups in chemistry and crystallography [24], in physics [15], and more recently of semigroups and groups in systems biology, genetic regulatory networks, and biochemistry [4, 26]. Unlike machine learning or optimization techniques, *algebraic* machine intelligence can without any learning derive coordinate systems not only on states of a structure, but also on its transformations, i.e. on operations for manipulating the structure. These are unlike the methods, spatial structures, or cognitive and semantic maps presently exploited for theorem proving, path-planning, automated reasoning, etc., but they are similar to coordinate systems occurring tacitly elsewhere in science [26]. Coordinate systems, like the ones studied here on general symmetry structures from the viewpoint of AI applications using computer algebra, also arise in conservation laws in physics. As Emmy Noether showed in the first part of the 20th century, invariants preserved under conservation laws correspond exactly to group-theoretic symmetry structures in physics [23]; moreover, such invariants for physical systems give rise to coordinate systems of exactly the type described here [21, 26].

AI techniques for cognitive modeling, machine learning and optimization so far have made relatively little use of abstract algebra. Cognitive architectures such as SOAR, ACT-R and SAC have been applied to build AI systems that model human cognitive capacities more or less intending to emulate faithfully the structure of cognition in humans, with applications ranging from autonomous control of aircraft based on subsymbolic rule-extraction, to human-style learning of arithmetic or natural language, to predictive evaluation of user interfaces (e.g. [18, 19, 25]). But aspects of human and machine cognition can also involve understanding of hierarchical processes with dynamical structure as evidenced by the object-oriented methods [20] or the place-value representation in human number systems [29], which have close connections to algebra. Here we are interested in the study of AI models that can derive, represent, and manipulate this type of knowledge, but without necessarily seeking to model human capacities faithfully. Models for understanding of finite-state (and more general) dynamical systems phenomena in general exhibit such feedforward, coarse-to-fine, hierarchical structure related to algebraic coordinate systems [17, 20, 26]. Our work shows how such coordinate systems can be derived and exploited automatically.

By a *coordinate system* on a symmetry structure (or more general structure), we mean a notational system in the broadest possible sense, with which a human or artificial agent can address building blocks of the structure and their relations in a decomposition, thus gaining a convenient way for grasping the structure of

the original phenomenon and possibly getting tools for manipulating the components.

An obvious example is the Descartes coordinate system, where we can uniquely specify any point of the n -dimensional space by n coordinates. However, this is an example of a spatial and inherently non-hierarchical coordinate system for a totally homogeneous space. In general, different coordinates have different roles, addressing ‘parts’ of the system different in size, function, etc. The natural example of a hierarchical coordinate system is our decimal positional number notation system: different coordinates correspond to different magnitudes. The examples also show that a coordinate system is very much the same thing as a decomposition: the space is decomposed into dimensions, an integer is decomposed into ones, tens, hundreds, etc.

From this viewpoint coordinate systems become cognitive models, means of knowledge representation. The above examples show the usefulness of these coordinates, but how can we obtain these models? The good news, and the main promise of this research direction, is that we can get them automatically! In algebraic automata theory, the Prime Decomposition Theorem says that every finite state automata can be decomposed into a hierarchical coordinate system [8, 14, 17]. Therefore the way of representing knowledge becomes algebraic, semigroup- and group-theoretical, which is really very different from other, well-established AI methods mainly based on logic (e.g. [1, 22]).

Here we concentrate on coordinatizing symmetry structures (called ‘permutation groups’ in algebra) via the Frobenius-Lagrange embedding. Related work [4, 6, 7] has computationally implemented the automated generation of transformation semigroup decompositions along the lines of the Krohn-Rhodes theorem, but did not pursue the ‘simpler’ problem of obtaining coordinate systems on permutation groups as we do here, and hence our work is both complementary and necessary for providing a full decomposition in the more general setting where operations need not be invertible.

The use of algebra in cognitive modeling also occurs in other non-traditional applications. For example, the approach by Fauconnier-Turner-Goguen to conceptual blending and metaphor [9] uses category-theoretic pushout computations with computer algebraic implementations by Goguen to automatically generate conceptual blends and metaphors relating two (or more) conceptual domains (knowledge of which is modeled by small categories), as well as applications to the semiotics of user-interface design, and formal specification for imperative programs built up and verified in a hierarchical manner [11, 12].

As there are many different ways of understanding of the same thing, there are many different coordinate systems for the same structure. Some of them may be intuitive for humans, while others will suit computational manipulation better, so the range of intelligent ‘users’ of the coordinate system is not restricted.

Although much of the mathematical theory required here is very old, the proper computational tools were missing, therefore the idea of hierarchical coordinate systems giving understanding computationally has not been much studied nor applied. Now such tools are available open-source [5–7] for transformation

semigroups, complemented by our work reported here for groups giving fine detail on coordinatizing the groups involved. The mathematical significance of these coordinate systems is immediate, but as they capture one of the basic aspects of our cognitive capabilities, namely, *hierarchical representation*, they might also play significant role in AI.

2 Mathematical Preliminaries

Here we briefly review basic group theory and a hierarchical composition method of permutation groups.

2.1 Essentials of Group Theory

A function $p : X \rightarrow X$ on the set X is called a *permutation* if it is one-to-one and onto (invertible). A *permutation group* (X, G) is a set G of permutations closed under composition (multiplication, usually denoted by \cdot), together with the state set X on which the mappings act. It is called a *symmetry group* if certain structure on X is preserved by all $p \in G$. If it is clear from the context we omit the state set and write simply G . For $x \in X$ and $g \in G$, we write $x \cdot g$ for the result of applying permutation g to x . The action is *faithful* if whenever $x \cdot g = x \cdot g'$ holds for all $x \in X$ then $g = g'$. The group contains the *identity* 1 and *inverse* map p^{-1} for each element p , thus everything can be undone within a group. A group G acting on X by permutations need not necessarily be faithful, i.e. need not be a permutation group. The group consisting of all permutations acting on n points is called the *symmetric group* S_n , while C_n denotes the *cyclic group* on n objects permuted cyclically. A subset H of a group G called a *subgroup* if it is closed under inversion and the group's multiplication. We write $H \leq G$ if H is a subgroup of G . If (X, G) is faithful, then G is naturally a subgroup of the symmetric group on X . We say (X, G) is *transitive* there is an $x_0 \in X$ from which every $x \in X$ is reachable, i.e., there exists $g \in G$ with $x_0 \cdot g = x$. For more on elementary group theory see for instance [13, 27], and on permutation groups see [2, 3]. As is standard, we use cycle notation to denote permutation group elements, e.g. $(1\ 3)(2\ 4\ 5)$ denotes the permutation swapping 1 and 3, cyclically taking 2 to 4, 4 to 5, and 5 to 2, while leaving any other objects fixed.

As a special case, a group can act on itself, i.e. the group elements are the states and each $g_0 \in G$ maps $G \rightarrow G$ by right multiplication, $g \mapsto g \cdot g_0$. This is called the *right regular representation*, and it enables us to identify the group element with its effect, which will be really handy for permutation puzzles. However, this representation poses problems computationally due to the possibly large size of the state set.

2.2 Cascade Product of Permutation Groups

Given permutation groups (X, G) and (Y, H) , their *wreath product* is the permutation group

$$(X, G) \wr (Y, H) \cong (X \times Y, G \rtimes H)$$

where $D = H^X$ is the set of all possible functions from X to H . A state in the wreath product is expressed by two coordinates (x, y) , $x \in X, y \in Y$. The group elements are coordinatized similarly by (g, d) where $g \in G$ and $d : X \rightarrow H$ is the *dependency function*, a ‘recipe’ to find an element that should be applied on the second level based on the (previous) state of the first (top) level. The elements of the wreath product are all permutations of $X \times Y$ given by some such (g, d) :

$$(x, y) \cdot (g, d) = (x \cdot g, y \cdot d(x))$$

from which we can see that on the top level the action is independent from the bottom level, but not the other way around, hence the hierarchical nature of the wreath product. The wreath product is easy to generalize for more levels.

Wreath products are prone to combinatorial explosion, so in practice we deal with substructures with the dependency functions limited. These we call *cascade products* (see Fig. 1 for a simple example).

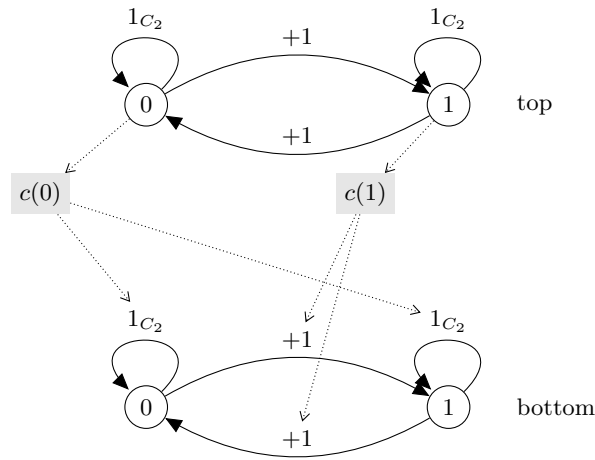


Fig. 1. Cascade with Carry. A modulo 4 counter (cyclic group C_4 acting on 4 objects) is built as a cascade product of two modulo 2 counters (C_2 on 2 objects). Their wreath product would yield the symmetry group of the square, but limiting dependencies as much as possible to allow just the carry bit (here function c) yields precisely the counter. The cascade product is generated by $(+1, c)$ and isomorphic to C_4 for which it is a hierarchical coordinatization. The carry c is a dependency function of the current top level state $x \in \{0, 1\}$, so the carry bit $c(x)$ is either ‘1’ (given by the generator $+1$ of the group C_2) or ‘0’ (given by the identity 1_{C_2} of the group C_2) and gives what to add to the bottom state $y \in \{0, 1\}$.

More generally, a modulo 2^k counter is coordinatized and isomorphic to a cascade of k C_2 ’s, generated by $(+1, c_1, \dots, c_{k-1})$ where for $1 \leq i \leq k-1$ the dependency

function $c_i(x_1, \dots, x_i)$ is ‘1’ only for (x_1, \dots, x_i) the all 1’s vector and is ‘0’ otherwise. This is the binary (base 2) representation of integers. Base n is similar.

3 Lagrange Coordinatizations of Groups

In fact, we can build a isomorphic cascade for any permutation group (X, G) . The basic idea of the Lagrange Decomposition is that given a subgroup H of G , we form the set of *cosets* $G/H = \{Hg : g \in G\}$, i.e. the subgroup H and its translates within G ; these partition G , and G acts on G/H by right translations: $Hg \xrightarrow{g_0} Hgg_0$. The action may not be faithful, so we denote G made faithful by \tilde{G} .³ We do not need to act on whole cosets but can replace them by arbitrary but fixed coset representatives $\bar{g} \in Hg = H\bar{g}$. So the action is $\bar{g} \cdot g_0 = \overline{\bar{g}g_0} = \overline{gg_0}$.

Theorem 1 (Lagrange Decomposition). *Let (X, G) be a transitive permutation group and (X, H) be a subgroup of it. Then (X, G) admits the following coordinatization*

$$(G/H, \tilde{G}) \wr (H, H)$$

corresponding to the subgroup chain $G \geq H \geq \langle 1 \rangle$.

Thus given a state $x \in X$ we will coordinatize it by $\tilde{x} = (x_1, x_2)$, where each x_i is a coset representative ($x_1 \in G/H, x_2 \in H/\langle 1 \rangle$).

By refining the underlying subgroup chain we can make the component groups much simpler or *simple* (i.e. having only trivial homomorphic images). This allows one to iterate the Lagrange coordinatization so the problem of understanding the permutation group (X, G) is reduced to understanding much simpler permutation groups linked up in a feedforward manner. Therefore getting a coordinatization corresponds to devising a subgroup chain.

For building subgroup chains certain subgroups are very useful. The *stabilizer* G_a is the subgroup of G , which fixes $a \in X$. Point-wise and set-wise stabilizers can be defined for sets of states as well. By iterating and refining the Lagrange construction, we have

Theorem 2 (Frobenius-Lagrange Coordinatization). *Let (X, G) be a transitive permutation group and let $G = G_1 \geq G_2 \geq \dots \geq G_{n+1} = G_a$ be a subgroup chain ending at the stabilizer G_a of some state $a \in X$. Then, in the notation above, (X, G) is coordinatized by embedding in the wreath product*

$$(G_1/G_2, \tilde{G}_1) \wr \dots \wr (G_n/G_{n+1}, \tilde{G}_n)$$

where \tilde{G}_i is G_i modulo the core of G_{i+1} in G_i . Moreover, since (X, G) corresponds isomorphically to $(G/G_a, G)$, the states have coordinates given by the bijection

$$G_a x_n \cdots x_1 \Leftrightarrow (x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

where each x_i is the fixed coset representative of $G_{i+1}x_i$ in G_i .

³ Here \tilde{G} is a quotient group G/K , where K is the *core* of H in G , that is, the largest normal subgroup of G contained in H . Thus $K = \bigcap_{g \in G} g^{-1}Hg$. See standard references [2, 27].

Remarks. (1) The number of coordinate tuples in Theorem 2 is exactly $|X|$. Each state has a unique coordinatization. (2) In Theorem 1 the number of possible coordinate tuples is $|G| = |X| \cdot |G_a|$, for any $a \in X$, as each point has exactly $|G_a|$ different possible coordinatizations.

4 Coordinate Manipulation

The Frobenius-Lagrange decomposition gives us, in terms of a coordinate system, a structured view of the group, i.e. we can address its parts conveniently and with arbitrary precision. However, we would like to use the coordinate system dynamically, not just as a static description. We would like to calculate with it, finding manipulative operations taking one state to another desired state, or, equivalently, from one tuple of coordinate values to another one using the elementary symmetry operations of the original structure.

4.1 Component Actions

For establishing the connection between the original group and the coordinatized one we need to have a way to express a permutation as coordinate actions. Given a group element $g \in G$ and a coordinatized state $\tilde{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$, we can calculate the coordinatewise component actions by the following recursive calculations:

$$g_1 := g$$

$$g_{i+1} := x_i \cdot g_i \cdot (\overline{x_i \cdot g_i})^{-1} \in G_{i+1}$$

Thus g on \tilde{x} is coordinatized as $\tilde{g}(\tilde{x}) = (g_1, \dots, g_n)$. Note that generally $x_i \cdot g_i$ does not equal to $\overline{x_i \cdot g_i}$, so g_i is not the identity. Note the hierarchical structure: g_i depends only on g and (x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}) . The action of g in coordinatized form is then

$$(x_1, \dots, x_n) \cdot \tilde{g} = (x_1 \cdot g_1, \dots, x_n \cdot g_n).$$

Killing and Building by Levels We call the coordinate tuple the *base state*, if it consists of only the identities (as coset representatives), which clearly represents the identity of the original group. Given an arbitrary coordinatized state $\tilde{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$, we call the coordinatewise changes of values from x_i to 1 (top-down) ‘*killing by levels*’. This is accomplished by simply applying the inverse of the coset representatives, in order. An example is shown in Fig. 6. Conversely, ‘*building by levels*’ is accomplished bottom-up by successively applying the coset representatives, i.e. elementary generating symmetries whose product is the given coset representative x_i for the i th component, in the order x_n then x_{n-1}, \dots , and finally x_1 to move from the ‘solved state’ $(1, \dots, 1)$ to create state \tilde{x} bottom-up. Moreover, one can compute elements that change only a single coordinate to a desired value.

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gap> pocket_cube_F := (9,10,11,12)(4,13,22,7)(3,16,21,6);;
gap> pocket_cube_R := (13,14,15,16)(2,20,22,10)(3,17,23,11);;
gap> pocket_cube_U := (1,2,3,4)(5,17,13,9)(6,18,14,10);;
gap> pocket_cube_L := (5,6,7,8)(1,9,21,19)(4,12,24,18);;
gap> pocket_cube_D := (21,22,23,24)(12,16,20,8)(11,15,19,7);;
gap> pocket_cube_B := (17,18,19,20)(1,8,23,14)(2,5,24,15);;
gap> pocket_cube_gens := [pocket_cube_U, pocket_cube_L, pocket_cube_F,
>                          pocket_cube_R, pocket_cube_B, pocket_cube_D];;
gap> pocket_cube_gen_names := ["U","L","F","R","B","D"];;
gap> pocket_cube := GroupByGenerators(pocket_cube_gens);
<permutation group with 6 generators>
gap> scrambled := Random(pocket_cube);
(1,19,20,3,18,24,15,10,5,8,23,13)(2,6,7,17,4,12,14,9,21)
gap> inverse := Inverse(scrambled);
(1,13,23,8,5,10,15,24,18,3,20,19)(2,21,9,14,12,4,17,7,6)
gap> epi := EpimorphismFromFreeGroup(pocket_cube:names:=
["U","L","F","R","B","D"]);;
gap> sequence := PreImagesRepresentative(epi,inverse);
U^-1*R*U^-1*F*L*D^-1*F*L^-1*U*F^-1*U^-1*F*U*L^-1*F^-1*L*F*L*
U^-1*F^-1*U^-1*L*F*L^-1*F^-1*U^-1*F*U*R^-1*U*F^-2*U^-2*L
gap> Length(sequence);
35

```

Fig. 2. Getting a solution for the Pocket Cube. This is an excerpt from a GAP interactive session. The basic possible moves as generators (basic symmetry operations F , R , U , L , D , B rotating a face 90°) for the Pocket Cube are defined together with names. Group elements are represented here in cycle notation, with $()$ denoting the identity element (or, according to the right regular representation, the solved state). For obtaining a solution we simply express the inverse of permutation representing the scrambled state as a sequence of generators.

Global Transformation via Coordinate Values Since we work with groups, whenever we make any action, it can be undone by an inverse, thus reversing the killing by levels we can go from the base state to any other coordinate value combination. Thus going from \tilde{x} to \tilde{y} coordinatewise can be achieved simply combining the level-killers of \tilde{x} with the level-builders of \tilde{y} . More efficient solutions are generally possible (and implemented), but this provides at least one way to do it using the hierarchical coordinate system.

5 An Application: Permutation Puzzles

Permutation puzzles are one person games where the moves are permutations, elements of a group [16]. Natural problems for such puzzles are:

1. How can one go, via elementary legal moves, from one configuration x of the puzzle to a standard “solved” configuration?

2. More generally, how can one go from configuration x to another arbitrarily selected configuration y ?

The main quest of permutation puzzles is often to find a shortest sequence of moves that leads to the solution (bounded by the diameter of the Cayley graph of the underlying group). Though the idea of nested coset space actions is also used in tackling the shortest solution problem (e.g. Thistlethwaite's Algorithm), it is not our aim here. We would like to facilitate understanding, but usually the quickest solutions are 'dirty tricks' that are very difficult to grasp and one often has to fall back on simple memorizing. In fact, non-optimal solutions are easy to get by using computer algebra systems (see Fig. 2 for solving a simpler version of the cube). One can follow the steps to solve the cube without gaining any understanding. *Can we learn to solve the cube from the above answer? Can we identify, talk about and solve subproblems? Can we devise and compare different solving strategies?* We aim to answer these questions.

5.1 Coordinatizing Rubik's Cubes

The $3 \times 3 \times 3$ Rubik's Cube is probably the most popular permutation puzzle.

What does it mean 'to know the Rubik's cube'? The question usually boils down to the ability to solve the cube. By asking a cube-fan he/she would give a few tricks, recipes to apply in certain situations. By learning these algorithms one can learn to solve the cube, but does it imply understanding the cube, i.e. grasping how certain sequences of moves work and seeing why they work? Not necessarily.

We claim that understanding comes with imposing a coordinate system on the underlying algebraic structure. Here we demonstrate this on the symmetry group of the Pocket Cube, which is the $2 \times 2 \times 2$ version of the Rubik's Cube. The moves are the 90 degree clockwise rotations of the 6 sides. By the Frobenius-Lagrange decomposition we know that each coordinate system corresponds to a subgroup chain, so devising new strategies for solving the cube is equivalent to constructing subgroup chains. Such a coordinate system encodes a 'global viewpoint' in which one solves by successive approximation, with manipulations going from coarse to fine resolution, and converging in terms of moving from natural, abstract states to fully specified states. The group of the cube acts on the set of configurations in such a way that any non-trivial permutation yields a different result on the 'solved state', thus the stabilizer of this state is the trivial group $\langle 1 \rangle$, so each group element corresponds to a unique configuration. Hence by the remark following Theorem 2, for any coordinate system arising from any subgroup chain down to $\langle 1 \rangle$, each configuration of the cube has a unique coordinatized form. Examples derived computationally follow (see also Fig. 6).

Pocket Cube: Cornerwise Decomposition One can solve the cube in a rather long, systematic step-by-step fashion: get the position and then the orientation of the first corner right, then proceed to the next corner until the cube is solved. In the subgroup chain we put the stabilizer of the position of a corner,

then continue with the stabilizer of the orientation of the corner within the position stabilizing subgroup. Then we repeat the whole process for another corner. The chain yields the following coordinatization:

$$S_8 \wr C_3 \wr S_7 \wr C_3 \wr S_6 \wr C_3 \wr S_5 \wr C_3 \wr S_4 \wr C_3 \wr S_3 \wr C_3 \wr C_2 \wr C_3$$

where the top level component S_8 acts on 8 states (coordinate values), representing the 8 possible positions of the first stabilized corner. Therefore killing the first level will put the corner in the right position. The coordinate values on the second level correspond the 3 possible rotational states of the corner. The 3rd and 4th level similarly encode the second corner, and so on (Figures 3-5).

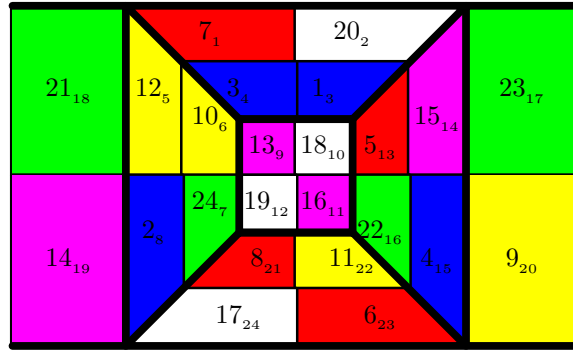


Fig. 3. A random, ‘scrambled’ configuration of the Pocket Cube, coordinatized by the cornerwise decomposition as (8, 2, 5, 3, 2, 2, 5, 1, 2, 3, 3, 3, 1, 2). Note: coset representatives have been integer-encoded in these examples. Faces are identified by numbers giving their position in the solved configuration. Subscripts if present shows what face should be at the location in the solved state.

Another Model for Understanding: Permute the Corners, then ‘Beat the Clock’ Contrasting to the previous, very machine-minded solution, here is another one which is short, and reveals the existence of a different puzzle within the Pocket Cube:

$$S_8 \wr \prod_{i=1}^7 C_3.$$

The top level component is the right regular representation of the now familiar symmetric group permuting the 8 corners. The second level is the direct product of 7 copies of modulo 3 counters (the orientation group of corners). It is to be noted that there are not 8 copies, otherwise every corner could be rotated independently from the other corners (and that would be rather easy to solve). Actually solving the bottom level is the same type of problem as the Rubik’s

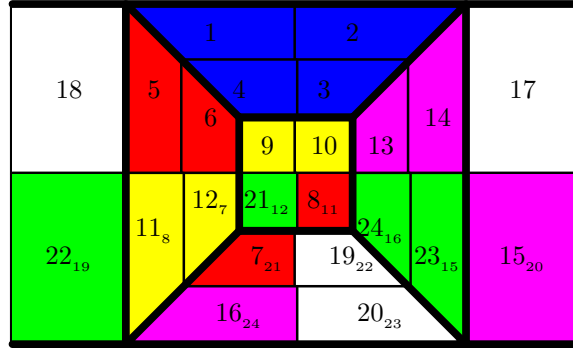


Fig.4. Pocket Cube configuration after killing the top 9 levels out of 14.
 (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 3, 3, 1, 2)

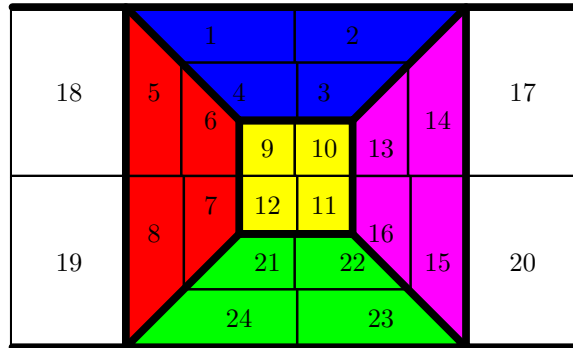


Fig.5. The solved state of the Pocket Cube with coordinates
 (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1)

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gap> #creating a subgroup chain from the chief series
gap> subgroupchain := ShallowCopy(ChiefSeries(pocket_cube));
gap> Remove(subgroupchain,2);
gap> #getting the hierarchical components
gap> cags := CosetActionGroups(subgroupchain);
gap> StructureDescription(cags.components[1]);
"S8"
gap> StructureDescription(cags.components[2]);
"C3 x C3 x C3 x C3 x C3 x C3 x C3"
gap> #solving the cube from a random state
gap> scrambled := Random(pocket_cube);
(1,10,12,6,23,14,16,24)(2,22,19,5,3,21,4,15)(7,9,20,17,11,8,18,13)
gap> coordinates := Perm2Coords(scrambled, cags.transversals);
[ 22578, 552 ]
gap> levelkillers := LevelKillers(coordinates,cags.transversals);
[ (1,19,22,2,15,9,7,3)(4,21,10,18,24,16,14,23)(5,8,11,17,20,6,12,13),
  (1,5,18)(3,13,10)(4,6,9)(8,19,24) ]
gap> halvesolved := scrambled * levelkillers[1];
(1,18,5)(3,10,13)(4,9,6)(8,24,19)
gap> halvesolvedcoords := Perm2Coords(halfsolved,cags.transversals);
[ 1, 552 ]
gap> halvesolved * levelkillers[2] = ();
true

```

Fig.6. Deriving a Coordinate System for Pocket Cube and Solving via Killing by Levels. The subgroup chain for the decomposition is the modified chief series of the group. Then the decomposition is calculated yielding the two level coordinatization. Then a scrambled (random element of the Pocket Cube permutation group) is shown in coordinate format. Finally, the scrambled cube is solved by levels of this hierarchical coordinate system, top-down, using level-killers (see text), which are also expressed as an [unoptimized] sequence of the original generators.

Clock [28], which is an array of connected modulo 12 counters. As the underlying group is commutative, it is easier to solve since the order of operations generating this subpuzzle does not matter in this lowest level. For an example computational session using our decomposition package SGPDEC [5, 7] in GAP [10] see Fig. 6.

3 × 3 × 3 Rubik’s Cube Going to the standard Cube we immediately meet some difficulty, as its group is not a transitive one. Therefore, using (G, G) we can get a decomposition which solves the corners as in the Pocket Cube and nearly separately and in parallel the remaining non-corner middle faces (those not at the corners, not in the middle of a side) on which the cube group is transitive. Then we can proceed by coordinatizing and solving the Pocket Cube and this middle cube puzzles independently.

Choosing a suitable algorithm For a given configuration of a permutation puzzle there can be several choices of applicable strategies. The algebraic coordinate systems can help in making this selection. Assuming a predefined number of algorithmic stages, a *suitable solving strategy* is a decomposition that maximizes the number of solved levels. This is essentially what human speedsolvers are doing. Similarly, one can build a robot for solving the Rubik’s Cube, that first analyzes the scrambled state and based on the configuration it chooses a suitable method. Moreover, by restricting to standard stabilizers the robot could teach how to solve the Cube by demonstration.

6 Conclusion and Future Work

We have shown how different subgroup chains in a permutation group correspond to different Frobenius-Lagrange coordinatizations of that permutation group, as well as to different solving strategies for manipulation. In particular, we showed that solving strategies for permutation puzzles can be represented by a subgroup chain, which determines a hierarchical decomposition. Coordinatewise manipulation of the permutation group via short or minimal length words over group’s basic generators is an easily achievable next step.

For exploitation of the idea of hierarchical coordinatization in more general settings, groups can be generalized to semigroups in order to allow the possibility of some irreversible manipulations [5, 7, 26].

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