# THREE-STAR PERMUTATION GROUPS 

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To the memory of Reinhold and Marianne Baer


#### Abstract

A permutation group is a three-star group if it induces a non-trivial group on each 3 -element subset of points. Our main results are that a primitive three-star group is generously transitive and that a finite primitive three-star group has rank at most 3 , that is, a stabiliser has at most 3 orbits. We also describe the structure of an arbitrary (non-primitive) three-star group and give a collection of examples. In particular, we sketch a construction of infinite primitive three-star groups of arbitrarily high rank.


## 1. Introduction

A permutation group $G$ acting on a set $\Omega$ will be said to be a three-star group if it has the following property: for every 3 -subset $\Theta$ of $\Omega$ the permutation group $G^{\Theta}$ induced on $\Theta$ by its setwise stabiliser $G_{\{\Theta\}}$ is non-trivial. Praeger and Schneider [5] came across this condition in a study of overgroups of finite permutation groups that have a transitive minimal normal subgroup.

To exclude trivialities we assume throughout that $|\Omega| \geqslant 3$. In [4] a group $G$ was defined to be generously $k$-transitive if $G^{\Theta}=\operatorname{Sym}(\Theta)$ for all $(k+1)$-subsets $\Theta$ of $\Omega$ and almost generously $k$-transitive if $G^{\Theta} \geqslant \operatorname{Alt}(\Theta)$ for all $(k+1)$-subsets $\Theta$ of $\Omega$. In particular, an almost generously 2 -transitive group is a three-star group. It was shown in [4] that an almost generously 2 -transitive group is (as the terminology suggests) doubly transitive. So strong a conclusion cannot be expected with the weaker hypothesis treated here. Nevertheless, we find that the three-star condition is quite strong. Our main theorems are that a primitive three-star group is generously transitive and that a finite primitive three-star group has rank at most 3-that is to say, a stabiliser has at most 3 orbits in $\Omega$. The proofs of these facts are given in Section 2 below. In Section 3 we consider the structure of an arbitrary (non-primitive) three-star group and describe a range of examples. In particular, we sketch a construction of infinite primitive three-star groups of arbitrarily high rank.

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## 2. Primitive three-star groups

In this section we focus on primitive three-star groups. This is, of course, a significant restriction. However, there is quite a strong sense in which the study of arbitrary three-star groups may be reduced to the study of primitive ones. We will return to this point in Section 3 below.

Some general theory of permutation groups is needed for the statement and proof of our results. Recall (see, for example, [2, §3.2]) that for a group $G$ acting on a set $\Omega$ the orbitals are the orbits of $G$ in $\Omega \times \Omega$. When $G$ is transitive these are in one-one correspondence with the suborbits, that is to say, the orbits of a stabiliser $G_{\alpha}$ for $\alpha \in \Omega$. An orbital $\Gamma$ corresponds to the suborbit $\Gamma(\alpha)$, where $\Gamma(\alpha):=\{\omega \in \Omega \mid(\alpha, \omega) \in \Gamma\}$; the so-called trivial orbital $\{(\omega, \omega) \mid \omega \in \Omega\}$ corresponds to the trivial suborbit $\{\alpha\}$. The number of orbitals (or of suborbits) is known as the rank of $G$. Associated with an orbital $\Gamma$ is its paired orbital $\Gamma^{*}$ defined by $\Gamma^{*}:=\left\{\left(\omega_{1}, \omega_{2}\right) \mid\left(\omega_{2}, \omega_{1}\right) \in \Gamma\right\}$. The orbital $\Gamma$ is said to be self-paired if $\Gamma=\Gamma^{*}$. This is the case if and only if for any $\left(\omega_{1}, \omega_{2}\right) \in \Gamma$ there is a permutation in $G$ that transposes $\omega_{1}$ and $\omega_{2}$; therefore $G$ is generously transitive if and only if all orbitals are self-paired. For subsets $\Gamma, \Delta$ of $\Omega^{2}$ we define

$$
\Gamma \circ \Delta:=\left\{\left(\omega_{1}, \omega_{2}\right) \in \Omega^{2} \mid(\exists \omega \in \Omega):\left(\omega_{1}, \omega\right) \in \Gamma \text { and }\left(\omega, \omega_{2}\right) \in \Delta\right\}
$$

If $\Gamma, \Delta$ are orbitals then $\Gamma \circ \Delta$ will be a union of orbitals. Note that $(\Gamma \circ \Delta)^{*}=$ $\Delta^{*} \circ \Gamma^{*}$ and that $\Gamma \circ(\Delta \circ \Phi)=(\Gamma \circ \Delta) \circ \Phi$.

Theorem 2.1. With one exception a primitive three-star group is generously transitive. The exception is the alternating group Alt(3).

Proof. Let $G$ be a primitive three-star group acting on the set $\Omega$, and suppose that $G$ is not generously transitive. Let $\Gamma$ be a non-self-paired orbital. We claim that $\Gamma \circ \Gamma=\Gamma^{*}$. Choose $(\alpha, \gamma) \in \Gamma \circ \Gamma$. By definition there exists $\beta \in \Omega$ such that $(\alpha, \beta) \in \Gamma$ and $(\beta, \gamma) \in \Gamma$. Now $\alpha \neq \gamma(\Gamma$ is not self-paired), and so $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ are distinct. Let $\Theta:=\{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$ and $T:=G^{\Theta}$. Since $\Gamma$ is not self-paired, $T$ contains neither of the transpositions $(\alpha \beta),(\beta \gamma)$. Nor does it contain $(\alpha \gamma)$ since $\alpha, \gamma$ lie in different orbits of the stabiliser $G_{\beta}$. By assumption, however, $T \neq\{1\}$, and therefore $(\alpha \beta \gamma) \in T$. It follows that $(\gamma, \alpha) \in \Gamma$, whence $\Gamma \circ \Gamma=\Gamma^{*}$. Then also $\Gamma^{*} \circ \Gamma^{*}=\Gamma$.

Now define $\Delta:=\Gamma \circ \Gamma^{*}$. Then $\Delta=\Gamma \circ \Gamma \circ \Gamma=\Gamma^{*} \circ \Gamma$, and so $\Delta \circ \Gamma=\Gamma \circ \Delta=\Gamma$. As a binary relation $\Delta$ is reflexive and symmetric. It is also transitive because $\Delta \circ \Delta=\Delta \circ \Gamma \circ \Gamma^{*}=\Gamma \circ \Gamma^{*}=\Delta$. Thus $\Delta$ is a $G$-invariant equivalence relation on $\Omega$. Since $G$ is primitive $\Delta$ is either the universal relation $U$ or the trivial relation $E$ (equality). However, $U \circ \Gamma=U \neq \Gamma$, and so $\Delta \neq U$. Therefore $\Delta=E$. Let $\gamma, \gamma^{\prime} \in \Gamma^{*}(\alpha)$. Then $\gamma^{\prime} \in \Delta(\gamma)$, whence $\gamma=\gamma^{\prime}$. Thus $\Gamma^{*}$ has subdegree 1. Similarly of course $\Gamma$ has subdegree 1. It follows immediately that $G=\operatorname{Alt}(3)$.

## ThEOREM 2.2. A finite primitive three-star group has rank at most 3.

Proof. Suppose that $\Omega$ and $G$ are finite and that $G$ acts as a primitive three-star group on $\Omega$. Clearly we may assume that $|\Omega|>3$, so that, by what has just been proved, all orbitals are self-paired. An edge $(\alpha, \beta)$ of the complete graph with vertex-set $\Omega$ will be said to be of colour $\Gamma$ (where $\Gamma$ is an orbital) if $(\alpha, \beta) \in \Gamma$. Let $\Gamma, \Delta$ be distinct orbitals and let $\alpha \in \Omega$. The three-star condition implies that no triangle in $\Omega$ can have edges of three different colours, and so all edges between points in $\Gamma(\alpha)$ and points in $\Delta(\alpha)$ are coloured $\Gamma$ or $\Delta$. Suppose that all such edges had the same colour, say $\Gamma$. If $\beta \in \Gamma(\alpha)$ and $\gamma \in \Delta(\beta)$ then $\gamma \notin \Delta(\alpha)$ and so the third edge $(\alpha, \gamma)$ of the triangle $\{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$ must have colour $\Gamma$. Thus $\Gamma(\alpha)$ would be a union of components of the graph $(\Omega, \Delta)$, and this is impossible since $G$ is primitive. Therefore there are edges of both colours $\Gamma$ and $\Delta$ between $\Gamma(\alpha)$ and $\Delta(\alpha)$. Thus for any ordered pair $(\Gamma, \Delta)$ of colours there are triangles with edges coloured $\Gamma, \Gamma, \Delta$. In particular, every orbital graph has diameter 2 , and for every $\Gamma$ there are edges of every colour, except possibly $\Gamma$ itself, within $\Gamma(\alpha)$.

We continue to focus on a point $\alpha$ of $\Omega$ and distinct orbitals $\Gamma, \Delta$. Let $\Phi$ denote the merger of all the colours other than $\Gamma$ and $\Delta$ : that is, $(\Omega, \Phi)$ is the graph whose edge-set consists of all edges of the complete graph with colours different from $\Gamma$ and $\Delta$. Let $\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2} \in \Gamma(\alpha)$ and suppose that the edge $\left(\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}\right)$ is coloured $\Phi$. For any $\delta \in \Delta(\alpha)$ the edges $\left(\gamma_{1}, \delta\right)$ and $\left(\gamma_{2}, \delta\right)$ have colour $\Gamma$ or $\Delta$. Since the triangle $\left(\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}, \delta\right)$ cannot have three differently coloured edges, the colours of $\left(\gamma_{1}, \delta\right)$ and $\left(\gamma_{2}, \delta\right)$ must be the same. It follows that if $\Gamma_{1}, \ldots, \Gamma_{c}$ are the components of the $\Phi$-graph with vertex-set $\Gamma(\alpha)$, and if $\delta \in \Delta(\alpha)$, then all edges from vertices in $\Gamma_{i}$ to $\delta$ have the same colour. Interchanging the roles played by $\Gamma$ and $\Delta$, we see that if $\Delta_{1}, \ldots, \Delta_{d}$ are the components of the $\Phi$-graph with vertex-set $\Delta(\alpha)$ then all edges between a component $\Gamma_{i}$ and a component $\Delta_{j}$ have the same colour.

Suppose the $\Phi$-graph with vertex-set $\Gamma(\alpha)$ were connected. Then all edges between points of $\Gamma(\alpha)$ and a given point $\delta \in \Delta(\alpha)$ would be the same colour. Since $G_{\alpha}$ acts transitively on $\Delta(\alpha)$ it would follow that all edges between points of $\Gamma(\alpha)$ and points of $\Delta(\alpha)$ would be the same colour. This is not the case (see above) and therefore the $\Phi$-graph with vertex-set $\Gamma(\alpha)$ is not connected, that is, $c>1$. Similarly, the $\Phi$-graph with vertex-set $\Delta(\alpha)$ is not connected, that is, $d>1$.

If there is a $\Delta$-coloured edge $\left(\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}\right)$ with $\gamma_{1} \in \Gamma_{1}$ and $\gamma_{2} \in \Gamma_{2}$ then we shall say that $\Delta$ dominates $\Gamma$. Suppose for the moment that this is the case. If $\gamma_{1}^{\prime} \in \Gamma_{1}$ and $\left(\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{1}^{\prime}\right) \in \Phi$ then the edge $\left(\gamma_{1}^{\prime}, \gamma_{2}\right)$ must also be coloured $\Delta$. It follows that all edges from points of $\Gamma_{1}$ to $\gamma_{2}$ are coloured $\Delta$, and then that all edges between points of $\Gamma_{1}$ and points of $\Gamma_{2}$ are coloured $\Delta$. Thus if $\Delta$ dominates $\Gamma$ then the $\Delta$-components of $\Gamma(\alpha)$ are proper unions of $\Phi$ components $\Gamma_{i}$; if $\Delta$ does not dominate $\Gamma$ then of course the $\Phi$-components
$\Gamma_{i}$ are $(\Phi \cup \Delta)$-components in $\Gamma(\alpha)$. If $\Delta$ dominates $\Gamma$ then for every other orbital $\Delta^{\prime}$ the $\Delta$-components of $\Gamma(\alpha)$ are proper unions of $\Delta^{\prime}$-components, and therefore $\Delta^{\prime}$ cannot dominate $\Gamma$ since the $\Delta^{\prime}$-components of $\Gamma(\alpha)$ are then not unions of $\Delta$-components. Clearly therefore, for an orbital $\Gamma$, at most one orbital $\Delta$ can dominate $\Gamma$.

Since $G_{\alpha}$ acts transitively on $\Gamma(\alpha)$ all the $\Phi$-components $\Gamma_{i}$ of $\Gamma(\alpha)$ have the same size, say $a$. Similarly, all the $\Phi$-components $\Delta_{j}$ of $\Delta(\alpha)$ have the same size, say $b$. Suppose that $a \leqslant b$. Let $\gamma \in \Gamma_{1}$ and consider the set $\Delta(\gamma)$. We know that $\Delta(\gamma) \subseteq \Gamma(\alpha) \cup \Delta(\alpha)$, and $\Delta(\gamma) \cap \Delta(\alpha)$ is a union of some but not all of the $\Phi$-components $\Delta_{j}$ of $\Delta(\alpha)$. Let $n_{\Delta}:=|\Delta(\alpha)|$. Then $|\Delta(\gamma) \cap \Delta(\alpha)| \leqslant n_{\Delta}-b$ and so $|\Delta(\gamma) \cap \Gamma(\alpha)| \geqslant b$. It follows that $\Delta(\gamma) \cap \Gamma(\alpha)$ cannot be contained in the $\Phi$-component $\Gamma_{1}$, and so $\Delta$ dominates $\Gamma$. Of course if $b \leqslant a$ then we find that $\Gamma$ dominates $\Delta$. Thus, of any two orbitals, one dominates the other.

Now let $r$ be the rank of $G$ and let $k:=r-1$. By what has just been proved there are at least $\binom{k}{2}$ ordered pairs $(\Gamma, \Delta)$ of non-trivial orbitals in which $\Delta$ dominates $\Gamma$. On the other hand, for each $\Gamma$ there is at most one orbital $\Delta$ that dominates $\Gamma$ and therefore there are at most $k$ such pairs. Thus $\binom{k}{2} \leqslant k$ and so $k \leqslant 3$.

Suppose that $k=3$. Let $\Gamma, \Delta, \Phi$ be the non-trivial orbitals and let $a_{\Gamma}$ be the size of the $\Phi$-components in $\Gamma(\alpha), a_{\Delta}$ the size of the $\Gamma$-components in $\Delta(\alpha)$, and $a_{\Phi}$ the size of the $\Delta$-components in $\Phi(\alpha)$. Let $n_{\Phi}$ be the valency of the graph $(\Omega, \Phi)$, so that $n_{\Phi}=|\Phi(\alpha)|$. Consider $\Phi(\omega)$, where $\omega \in \Gamma(\alpha)$. If $\Gamma_{1}$ is the $\Phi$-component of $\Gamma(\alpha)$ containing $\omega$ then $\Phi(\omega)=\left(\Phi(\omega) \cap \Gamma_{1}\right) \cup$ $(\Phi(\omega) \cap \Phi(\alpha))$. Now $\Phi(\omega) \cap \Gamma_{1} \subseteq \Gamma_{1} \backslash\{\omega\}$ and so $\left|\Phi(\omega) \cap \Gamma_{1}\right| \leqslant a_{\Gamma}-1$. Also, $\Phi(\omega) \cap \Phi(\alpha)$ is a union of some but not all of the $\Delta$-components in $\Phi(\alpha)$, and so $|\Phi(\omega) \cap \Phi(\alpha)| \leqslant n_{\Phi}-a_{\Phi}$. Therefore $n_{\Phi} \leqslant\left(a_{\Gamma}-1\right)+\left(n_{\Phi}-a_{\Phi}\right)$ and so $a_{\Phi} \leqslant a_{\Gamma}-1$. Similarly, considering $\Gamma(\omega)$ for $\omega \in \Delta(\alpha)$ we find that $a_{\Gamma} \leqslant a_{\Delta}-1$ and considering $\Delta(\omega)$ for $\omega \in \Phi(\alpha)$ we find that $a_{\Delta} \leqslant a_{\Phi}-1$. These inequalities imply that $a_{\Phi} \leqslant a_{\Phi}-3$, which is absurd. It follows that $k \leqslant 2$ and so the rank of $G$ is at most 3 , as our theorem states.

## 3. Commentary

There is quite a strong sense in which the study of arbitrary three-star groups may be reduced to that of primitive three-star groups. First, we have the following:

ObSERVATION 3.1. If $G$ is an intransitive three-star group then it has exactly two orbits $\Omega_{1}$ and $\Omega_{2}$. Moreover, $G$ acts as a three-star group on each of $\Omega_{1}, \Omega_{2}$, and, as $G$-spaces, $\Omega_{1}, \Omega_{2}$ are strongly orthogonal in the sense that for $\omega_{1} \in \Omega_{1}$ the stabiliser $G_{\omega_{1}}$ is generously transitive on $\Omega_{2}$ and for $\omega_{2} \in \Omega_{2}$ the stabiliser $G_{\omega_{2}}$ is generously transitive on $\Omega_{1}$.

Proof. If there were three or more orbits then there would be a triple consisting of points from different orbits, and its stabiliser would act trivially on it, contrary to assumption. Thus, given that $G$ is intransitive, there are just two orbits $\Omega_{1}, \Omega_{2}$. The fact that $G$ acts as a three-star group on each of $\Omega_{1}, \Omega_{2}$ is clear. Consider any point $\omega_{1} \in \Omega_{1}$ and any pair $\{\alpha, \beta\}$ of points from $\Omega_{2}$. Since the stabiliser of the triple $\left\{\omega_{1}, \alpha, \beta\right\}$ is non-trivial $G$ contains a permutation fixing $\omega_{1}$ and interchanging $\alpha, \beta$. Therefore $G_{\omega_{1}}$ is generously transitive on $\Omega_{2}$. And of course, similarly, for $\omega_{2} \in \Omega_{2}, G_{\omega_{2}}$ is generously transitive on $\Omega_{1}$.

Observation 3.2. Suppose that $G$ is a three-star group which is transitive but imprimitive on $\Omega$. Let $\rho$ be a non-trivial proper $G$-congruence on $\Omega$, let $\Gamma$ be a $\rho$-class in $\Omega$, let $\Delta:=\Omega / \rho$, let $C:=G^{\Gamma}$, the group induced on $\Gamma$ by its setwise stabiliser in $G$, and let $D:=G^{\Delta}$. Then $C$ is a three-star group on $\Gamma$ and $D$ is a three-star group on $\Delta$. Moreover, $C$ is generously transitive on $\Gamma$.

Conversely, if $C$ is a generously transitive three-star group on the set $\Gamma$, and $D$ is a three-star group on the set $\Delta$, then the wreath product $C$ Wr $D$ is a three-star group in its natural imprimitive representation on $\Gamma \times \Delta$.

Since the proof is routine we leave it to the interested reader. Note that here we should permit the possibility that $|\Gamma|=2$ and $C=\operatorname{Sym}(\Gamma)$ or that $|\Delta|=2$ and $D=\operatorname{Sym}(\Delta)$.

We have not sought to compile a systematic catalogue of primitive threestar groups, but we do not think that would be a very difficult project. There are several interesting families of examples. As has already been observed, any almost generously 2 -transitive group is a three-star group. Many of the finite 2 -transitive groups are almost generously 2 -transitive; the only ones that are not are those contained in affine groups $\mathrm{A} \Gamma \mathrm{L}(d, q)$ for $q \geqslant 5$ and the almost simple groups whose socle is a Suzuki $\operatorname{group} \operatorname{Sz}(q)$, where $q=2^{2 m+1}$ and $m \geqslant 1$, or a Ree group $\operatorname{Ree}(q)$ where $q=3^{2 m+1}$ and $m \geqslant 1$. It is not hard to see that the Suzuki and Ree groups are not three-star groups. Some of the affine groups that are not almost generously 2 -transitive are three-star groups, however.

Example 3.3. The affine groups $\operatorname{AGL}(d, 5)$ are three-star groups.
Proof. Let $\Theta$ be a triple of points of the affine space $\mathrm{AG}(d, 5)$ and let $G:=\operatorname{AGL}(d, 5)$. If $\Theta$ consists of non-collinear points then $G^{\Theta}=\operatorname{Sym}(\Theta)$ and so certainly $G^{\Theta} \neq\{1\}$. If $\Theta$ is a collinear triple then, as is not hard to see, it is equivalent under affine transformations to the triple $\{0,1,4\}$ or to the triple $\{0,2,3\}$ in an affine line in $\operatorname{AG}(d, 5)$. Both of these triples admit involutions, so $G^{\Theta} \neq\{1\}$.

There are several families of primitive three-star groups of rank 3 .

Example 3.4. Let $G:=\operatorname{Sym}(m)$ where $m \geqslant 3$, and let $\Omega:=m^{\{2\}}$, the set of pairs from $\{1, \ldots, m\}$. In its natural action on $\Omega, G$ is a primitive three-star group of rank 3 .

Proof. That $G$ is primitive on $\Omega$ is well known and easy to prove. Define

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Theta_{1}:=\{\{1,2\},\{1,3\},\{2,3\}\}, \\
& \Theta_{2}:=\{\{1,2\},\{1,3\},\{1,4\}\}, \\
& \Theta_{3}:=\{\{1,2\},\{2,3\},\{3,4\}\}, \\
& \Theta_{4}:=\{\{1,2\},\{2,3\},\{4,5\}\}, \\
& \Theta_{5}:=\{\{1,2\},\{3,4\},\{5,6\}\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Any triple of unordered pairs is equivalent to one of these five, and for each of these five it is easy to see that $G^{\Theta} \neq\{1\}$.

Example 3.5. Let $H$ be a group acting generously 2 -transitively on a set $\Gamma$ of size $\geqslant 3$. If $G:=H \mathrm{Wr} \operatorname{Sym}(2)$ and $\Omega:=\Gamma^{2}$, then $G$ is a primitive three-star group of rank 3 .

Proof. As in the previous example, that $G$ is primitive on $\Omega$ is well known and easy to prove. Let $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}$ be distinct points of $\Gamma$ and define

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Theta_{1}:=\left\{\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{1}\right),\left(\alpha_{2}, \alpha_{2}\right),\left(\alpha_{3}, \alpha_{3}\right)\right\} \\
& \Theta_{2}:=\left\{\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{1}\right),\left(\alpha_{2}, \alpha_{2}\right),\left(\alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}\right)\right\}, \\
& \Theta_{3}:=\left\{\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{1}\right),\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}\right),\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{3}\right)\right\}, \\
& \Theta_{4}:=\left\{\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{1}\right),\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}\right),\left(\alpha_{2}, \alpha_{1}\right)\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Any triple of ordered pairs is equivalent to one of these four, and for each of these four it is easy to see that $G^{\Theta} \neq\{1\}$.

ExAmple 3.6. Let $Q$ be a non-degenerate quadratic form on the vector space $\Omega$ of dimension $2 m$ over the field $\mathbb{F}_{2}$ and let $G:=\mathrm{AO}(2 m, 2)$, the group generated by translations and orthogonal transformations of $\Omega$ with respect to $Q$. Then $G$ is a primitive three-star group of rank 3 .

Proof. Triples $\Theta$ are triangles in the affine space $\Omega$ with side-lengths $\{0,0,0\},\{0,0,1\},\{0,1,1\}$, or $\{1,1,1\}$. In each case $G^{\Theta} \neq\{1\}$.

Example 3.7. Let $Q$ be a non-degenerate quadratic form on the vector space $\Omega$ of dimension $d$ over the field $\mathbb{F}_{3}$ and let $G:=\mathrm{AGO}(d, 3)$, the group generated by translations and transformations of $\Omega$ that preserve $Q$ up to scalar multiplication. Then $G$ is a primitive three-star group of rank 3.

Proof. Triples $\Theta$ are of the following kinds. First, there are triples $\{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$ forming a line of the affine space $\Omega$. For these $G^{\Theta}=\operatorname{Sym}(\Theta)$. Secondly, there are triangles in the affine space $\Omega$. Triangles can have side-lengths $a, b, c$, each of which can be 0,1 or 2 (in $\mathbb{F}_{3}$ ). It is easy to see that if two side-lengths are the same then $G^{\Theta} \neq\{1\}$. If the side-lengths are all different then the triangle is equivalent to $\{0, u, w\}$, where $Q(u)=1, Q(w)=2$ and $Q(u-w)=0$. Now there is a linear transformation $T \in \mathrm{GO}(\Omega)$ for which $Q(T v)=2 Q(v)$ for all $v \in \Omega$ and which interchanges $u$ and $w$. Thus in all cases $G^{\Theta} \neq\{1\}$.

The situation is different for infinite permutation groups. Although Theorem 2.1 does not require finiteness of $G$ or $\Omega$, so that an infinite primitive three-star group is generously transitive, Theorem 2.2 fails without the finiteness assumption.

ObSERVATION 3.8. There are infinite primitive three-star groups of arbitrary rank.

Proof. We confine ourselves to a sketch of the construction. It is based on the theory of C-relations and C-sets propounded in [1]. Let $(\Omega, C)$ be the C-set whose chains are isomorphic to ( $\mathbb{Z}, \leqslant$ ) and whose branching number is $s$ (the value of $s$ is irrelevant, as it happens). The construction of such a C-set is described on page 43 of [1]-take $Q_{0}$ there to be $\mathbb{Z}$ with a least element adjoined. In slightly different terms, $\Omega$ may be taken to be the set of doubly infinite sequences $\left(q_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$, where $q_{i} \in\{0,1, \ldots, s-1\}$, and which are of finite support in the sense that there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $q_{i}=0$ when $|i|>n$. Let $W$ be the wreath power $\operatorname{Wr}(\operatorname{Sym}(s))^{\mathbb{Z}}$ defined by Philip Hall in [3] as a subgroup of $\operatorname{Sym}(\Omega)$. Let $m \geqslant 1$. The infinite cyclic group $Z$ acts by translation through $m$ on $\mathbb{Z}$, that is, with its generator acting as $i \mapsto i+m$. This extends in a natural way to an action of $Z$ on $\Omega$, and then $Z$, as subgroup of $\operatorname{Sym}(\Omega)$, normalises $W$. Let $G:=W . Z \leqslant \operatorname{Sym}(\Omega)$. It is not hard to see that the only $W$-invariant equivalence relations on $\Omega$ are the relations $\rho_{r}(r \in \mathbb{Z})$ defined by

$$
\left(q_{i}\right) \equiv\left(q_{i}^{\prime}\right): \Leftrightarrow q_{i}=q_{i}^{\prime} \text { for all } i \geqslant r
$$

Since these are not $Z$-invariant $G$ acts primitively on $\Omega$. Also, the stabiliser $G_{0}$ of the 0 -sequence is $U . Z$, where $U:=\mathrm{Wr}(\operatorname{Sym}(k-1))^{\mathbb{Z}}$. For any other sequence $\left(q_{i}\right)$ define $m\left(\left(q_{i}\right)\right):=\max \left\{i \mid q_{i} \neq 0\right\}$. It is not hard to calculate that non-zero sequences $\left(q_{i}\right),\left(q_{i}^{\prime}\right)$ are in the same $G_{0}$-orbit if and only if $m\left(\left(q_{i}\right)\right) \equiv m\left(\left(q_{i}^{\prime}\right)\right)(\bmod m)$. Thus $G$ has rank $m+1$. To see that $G$ is a threestar group consider three distinct elements $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ of $\Omega$ and let $\Theta:=\{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$. We may suppose that $\alpha$ is the 0 -sequence, $\beta=\left(q_{i}\right)$ and $\gamma=\left(q_{i}^{\prime}\right)$. It is not hard to calculate the following: if $m\left(\left(q_{i}\right)\right)<m\left(\left(q_{i}^{\prime}\right)\right)$ then the setwise stabiliser in $G$ of $\Theta$ contains (and in fact is generated by) the transposition $(\alpha \beta)$; if $m\left(\left(q_{i}\right)\right)>m\left(\left(q_{i}^{\prime}\right)\right)$ then the setwise stabiliser in $G$ of $\Theta$ contains the
transposition $(\alpha \gamma)$; if $m\left(\left(q_{i}\right)\right)=m\left(\left(q_{i}^{\prime}\right)\right)=j$ and $q_{j}=q_{j}^{\prime}$ then the setwise stabiliser in $G$ of $\Theta$ contains the transposition $(\beta \gamma)$; if $m\left(\left(q_{i}\right)\right)=m\left(\left(q_{i}^{\prime}\right)\right)=j$ and $q_{j} \neq q_{j}^{\prime}$ then $G^{\Theta}=\operatorname{Sym}(\Theta)$.

To produce a primitive three-star group with infinite rank $\kappa$ one replaces $(\mathbb{Z}, \leqslant)$ with a suitable linearly ordered set $(Q, \leqslant)$. All that is required is that $(Q, \leqslant)$ should admit an infinite cyclic group $Z$ of automorphisms whose orbits are co-initial and co-final in $Q$ (that is, bounded neither below nor above in $Q)$ and that $Z$ should have $\kappa$ orbits in $Q$.

Final Note. The notion of three-star group has an obvious generalisation to that of $k$-star group for any $k \geqslant 2$. It is not hard to see that the infinite groups described in the proof of Observation 3.8 are $k$-star groups for every finite $k$. For $k>3$ we know little about finite primitive $k$-star groups but we believe them to be rather rare. As it happens, however, Example 3.4 is a four-star group and a five-star group.

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[^0]:    Received August 20, 2002.
    2000 Mathematics Subject Classification. 20B05, 20B15.

