Graphs on groups, rings, and maybe YBE solutions

Peter J. Cameron, University of St Andrews



Groups, Rings and YBE Blankenberge, June 2023

I have been involved recently in a large body of research on graphs defined on algebraic structures, primarily groups and rings but also vector spaces, partially ordered sets, and others. I have been involved recently in a large body of research on graphs defined on algebraic structures, primarily groups and rings but also vector spaces, partially ordered sets, and others. I want to describe some of this work. But the secret agenda is that it would be nice if similar techniques could be applied to, say, solutions of the set-theoretic Yang–Baxter equation. I have

not had any conspicuous success at this, but maybe somebody else can be inspired to point out a good direction to take.

I have been involved recently in a large body of research on graphs defined on algebraic structures, primarily groups and rings but also vector spaces, partially ordered sets, and others. I want to describe some of this work. But the secret agenda is that it would be pice if similar techniques could be applied to

that it would be nice if similar techniques could be applied to, say, solutions of the set-theoretic Yang–Baxter equation. I have not had any conspicuous success at this, but maybe somebody

else can be inspired to point out a good direction to take.

I will start with what I know ...

Introduction

The connection between graphs and algebraic structures goes back to Cayley in the 19th century.

Introduction

The connection between graphs and algebraic structures goes back to Cayley in the 19th century.

I will not be talking about Cayley graphs. My topic is graphs which more directly reflect the algebraic structure in question. The prototype is the commuting graph of a finite group *G*,

where the vertex set is G (or possibly some subset), and g and h are joined by an edge if they commute.

Introduction

The connection between graphs and algebraic structures goes back to Cayley in the 19th century.

I will not be talking about Cayley graphs. My topic is graphs which more directly reflect the algebraic structure in question.

The prototype is the commuting graph of a finite group G, where the vertex set is G (or possibly some subset), and g and h are joined by an edge if they commute.

This was used by Brauer and Fowler in 1955 to show that there are only finitely many finite simple groups with a given involution centraliser, one of the basic results in the Classification of Finite Simple Groups (leading to a large amount of work characterising particular simple groups by their involution centralisers, and yielding several new sporadic simple groups along the way.

Remarks

Brauer and Fowler had to assume that their simple group had even order, since Burnside's conjecture had not yet been proved at this point.

Remarks

Brauer and Fowler had to assume that their simple group had even order, since Burnside's conjecture had not yet been proved at this point.

In the commuting graph, the closed neighbourhood of a vertex g is the centraliser of g. Graph theory tells us that we can bound the number of vertices by bounding the diameter and valency. (The diameter is bounded after removing the identity, since it is joined to all other vertices.)

Remarks

Brauer and Fowler had to assume that their simple group had even order, since Burnside's conjecture had not yet been proved at this point.

In the commuting graph, the closed neighbourhood of a vertex g is the centraliser of g. Graph theory tells us that we can bound the number of vertices by bounding the diameter and valency. (The diameter is bounded after removing the identity, since it is joined to all other vertices.)

In fact, the word "graph" does not occur in the paper; but Brauer and Fowler carefully define the graph metric and use this instead.

Graphs on groups and rings

Since then, many different graphs on groups have been defined, including the generating graph (two vertices joined if they generate the group), the power graph (two vertices joined if one is a power of the other), and numerous variants.

Graphs on groups and rings

Since then, many different graphs on groups have been defined, including the generating graph (two vertices joined if they generate the group), the power graph (two vertices joined if one is a power of the other), and numerous variants. There are also graphs defined on rings, notably the zero-divisor graph, in which two non-zero elements are joined if their product is zero.

Graphs on groups and rings

Since then, many different graphs on groups have been defined, including the generating graph (two vertices joined if they generate the group), the power graph (two vertices joined if one is a power of the other), and numerous variants.

There are also graphs defined on rings, notably the zero-divisor graph, in which two non-zero elements are joined if their product is zero.

Much of the literature on these graphs consists of calculating various graph-theoretic parameters of these graphs. I will not cover most of this.

I will talk just about groups, but similar questions can be asked for other structures.

I will talk just about groups, but similar questions can be asked for other structures.

1. Can we obtain new results about groups by considering these graphs?

I will talk just about groups, but similar questions can be asked for other structures.

- 1. Can we obtain new results about groups by considering these graphs?
- 2. Can we recognise old and new classes of groups by means of graphs?

I will talk just about groups, but similar questions can be asked for other structures.

- 1. Can we obtain new results about groups by considering these graphs?
- 2. Can we recognise old and new classes of groups by means of graphs?
- 3. Can we construct beautiful graphs in this way (possibly after some post-processing)?

I will talk just about groups, but similar questions can be asked for other structures.

- 1. Can we obtain new results about groups by considering these graphs?
- 2. Can we recognise old and new classes of groups by means of graphs?
- 3. Can we construct beautiful graphs in this way (possibly after some post-processing)?

I will give examples of all three.

In 1904, Landau proved that there is a function F such that a finite group with k conjugacy classes has order at most F(k). In other words, there are only finitely many finite groups with a given number of conjugacy classes.

In 1904, Landau proved that there is a function F such that a finite group with k conjugacy classes has order at most F(k). In other words, there are only finitely many finite groups with a given number of conjugacy classes.

Many authors have worked on the problem of finding good bounds for F(k).

In 1904, Landau proved that there is a function F such that a finite group with k conjugacy classes has order at most F(k). In other words, there are only finitely many finite groups with a given number of conjugacy classes.

Many authors have worked on the problem of finding good bounds for F(k).

The solvable conjugacy class graph (for short, scc-graph) of a group has the conjugacy classes as vertices, with C and D adjacent if there exist $c \in C$ and $d \in D$ such that $\langle c, d \rangle$ is solvable.

In 1904, Landau proved that there is a function F such that a finite group with k conjugacy classes has order at most F(k). In other words, there are only finitely many finite groups with a given number of conjugacy classes.

Many authors have worked on the problem of finding good bounds for F(k).

The solvable conjugacy class graph (for short, scc-graph) of a group has the conjugacy classes as vertices, with C and D adjacent if there exist $c \in C$ and $d \in D$ such that $\langle c, d \rangle$ is solvable.

Recently, Parthajit Bhowal, Rajat Kanti Nath, Benjamin Sambale and I showed:

Theorem

There is a function f such that a finite group whose scc-graph has clique number k has order at most f(k).

The clique number of a graph is the size of the largest complete subgraph.

The clique number of a graph is the size of the largest complete subgraph.

We used the Classification of Finite Simple Groups (CFSG) (a tool not available to Landau!) but only in a rather low-key way.

The clique number of a graph is the size of the largest complete subgraph.

We used the Classification of Finite Simple Groups (CFSG) (a tool not available to Landau!) but only in a rather low-key way.

Problem

Can the theorem be proved without CFSG?

The <u>clique number</u> of a graph is the size of the largest complete subgraph.

We used the Classification of Finite Simple Groups (CFSG) (a tool not available to Landau!) but only in a rather low-key way.

Problem

Can the theorem be proved without CFSG?

Also in contrast to Landau's case, no explicit bounds are known for f(k).

The <u>clique number</u> of a graph is the size of the largest complete subgraph.

We used the Classification of Finite Simple Groups (CFSG) (a tool not available to Landau!) but only in a rather low-key way.

Problem

Can the theorem be proved without CFSG?

Also in contrast to Landau's case, no explicit bounds are known for f(k).

Problem

Find such bounds!

There are two natural ways to define classes of groups from graphs:

There are two natural ways to define classes of groups from graphs:

1. Choose a class of graphs (such as perfect graphs, cographs, chordal graphs, threshold graphs, split graphs, ...), and a type t of graph on groups, and ask: For which groups G does t(G) belong to the chosen graph class?

There are two natural ways to define classes of groups from graphs:

- 1. Choose a class of graphs (such as perfect graphs, cographs, chordal graphs, threshold graphs, split graphs, ...), and a type t of graph on groups, and ask: For which groups G does t(G) belong to the chosen graph class?
- 2. Choose two types of graph on groups, say t_1 and t_2 , so that $t_1(G)$ is an induced subgraph of $t_2(G)$, and ask: For which groups G is $t_1(G) = t_2(G)$?

There are two natural ways to define classes of groups from graphs:

- 1. Choose a class of graphs (such as perfect graphs, cographs, chordal graphs, threshold graphs, split graphs, ...), and a type t of graph on groups, and ask: For which groups G does t(G) belong to the chosen graph class?
- 2. Choose two types of graph on groups, say t_1 and t_2 , so that $t_1(G)$ is an induced subgraph of $t_2(G)$, and ask: For which groups G is $t_1(G) = t_2(G)$?

There are several examples of each in the literature. I will concentrate on the second.

Two examples

We have seen the commuting graph ($g \sim h$ if gh = hg) and the power graph ($g \sim h$ if one of g and h is a power of the other). Between them is the enhanced power graph, with $g \sim h$ if there exists k such that g and h are powers of k.

Two examples

We have seen the commuting graph ($g \sim h$ if gh = hg) and the power graph ($g \sim h$ if one of g and h is a power of the other). Between them is the enhanced power graph, with $g \sim h$ if there exists k such that g and h are powers of k.

Proposition

Let G be a finite group.

1. The power graph of G is equal to the enhanced power graph if and only if G contains no two commuting subgroups of distinct prime orders.

Two examples

We have seen the commuting graph ($g \sim h$ if gh = hg) and the power graph ($g \sim h$ if one of g and h is a power of the other). Between them is the enhanced power graph, with $g \sim h$ if there exists k such that g and h are powers of k.

Proposition

Let G be a finite group.

- 1. The power graph of G is equal to the enhanced power graph if and only if G contains no two commuting subgroups of distinct prime orders.
- 2. The enhanced power graph of G is equal to the commuting graph if and only if G contains no two commuting subgroups of the same prime order.

I will briefly discuss the two classes.

Two classes of groups

The first class consists of EPPO groups, those in which every element has prime power order. (In other terminology these are groups whose Gruenberg–Kegel graph is null.) After pioneering work by Higman on solvable groups in the 1950s and Suzuki on simple groups in the 1960s, they were all determined by Brandl in a somewhat obscure paper in 1981.

Two classes of groups

The first class consists of EPPO groups, those in which every element has prime power order. (In other terminology these are groups whose Gruenberg-Kegel graph is null.) After pioneering work by Higman on solvable groups in the 1950s and Suzuki on simple groups in the 1960s, they were all determined by Brandl in a somewhat obscure paper in 1981. The second class consists of groups containing no subgroup $C_p \times C_p$ for p prime; in other words, all Sylow subgroups are cyclic or (if p = 2) generalized quaternon. Those with all Sylow subgroups cyclic are metacyclic of known structure; the others are determined by theorems of Glauberman and Gorenstein-Walter.

Two classes of groups

The first class consists of EPPO groups, those in which every element has prime power order. (In other terminology these are groups whose Gruenberg-Kegel graph is null.) After pioneering work by Higman on solvable groups in the 1950s and Suzuki on simple groups in the 1960s, they were all determined by Brandl in a somewhat obscure paper in 1981. The second class consists of groups containing no subgroup $C_p \times C_p$ for p prime; in other words, all Sylow subgroups are cyclic or (if p = 2) generalized quaternon. Those with all Sylow subgroups cyclic are metacyclic of known structure; the others are determined by theorems of Glauberman and Gorenstein-Walter.

All these results are without using CFSG.

Other classes definable from graphs in similar ways include

mimimal non-abelian, non-nilpotent, or non-solvable groups;

Other classes definable from graphs in similar ways include

- mimimal non-abelian, non-nilpotent, or non-solvable groups;
- Dedekind groups (those with all subgroups normal);

Other classes definable from graphs in similar ways include

- mimimal non-abelian, non-nilpotent, or non-solvable groups;
- Dedekind groups (those with all subgroups normal);
- ▶ 2-Engel groups (those satsfying the commutator identity [g,h,h] = 1).

Other classes definable from graphs in similar ways include

- mimimal non-abelian, non-nilpotent, or non-solvable groups;
- Dedekind groups (those with all subgroups normal);
- ▶ 2-Engel groups (those satsfying the commutator identity [g,h,h]=1).

In many other cases, work is in progress. For example, the power graph of any finite group is perfect (that is, every induced subgraph has clique number equal to chromatic number): this condition is equivalent to forbidding odd cycles (or length greater than 3) and their complements as induced subgraphs, according to the Strong Perfect Graph Theorem.

More on perfect graphs

There is no analogue for the enhanced power graph or commuting graph: these are universal (every finite graph occurs as an induced subgraph). We do not know which groups have one or other of these graphs perfect (this has been studied for the commuting graph by Britnell and Gill, who found all *perfect* groups for which this graph is perfect).

More on perfect graphs

There is no analogue for the enhanced power graph or commuting graph: these are universal (every finite graph occurs as an induced subgraph). We do not know which groups have one or other of these graphs perfect (this has been studied for the commuting graph by Britnell and Gill, who found all *perfect* groups for which this graph is perfect). Veronica Phan and I proved that the enhanced power graph of any finite group is weakly perfect – this means that the graph itself has clique number equal to chromatic number, though this may fail for induced subgraphs.

3. Finding beautiful graphs

If you choose your favourite group and ask the computer to construct one of these graphs and tell you how many automorphisms it has, you are in for a shock. For example, the commuting group of the alternating group A_5 (a group of order 60) has 477090132393463570759680000 automorphisms. In fact, most of this is rubbish; in the case of A_5 it is all rubbish. But sometimes there is a jewel buried in the heart of the lotus flower.

3. Finding beautiful graphs

If you choose your favourite group and ask the computer to construct one of these graphs and tell you how many automorphisms it has, you are in for a shock. For example, the commuting group of the alternating group A_5 (a group of order 60) has 477090132393463570759680000 automorphisms. In fact, most of this is rubbish; in the case of A_5 it is all rubbish. But sometimes there is a jewel buried in the heart of the lotus flower.

Two vertices *x*, *y* of a graph are called **twins** if they have the same neighbours, except possibly one another. If two vertices are twins, then the map interchanging them and fixing everything else is a graph automorphism.

3. Finding beautiful graphs

If you choose your favourite group and ask the computer to construct one of these graphs and tell you how many automorphisms it has, you are in for a shock. For example, the commuting group of the alternating group A_5 (a group of order 60) has 477090132393463570759680000 automorphisms. In fact, most of this is rubbish; in the case of A_5 it is all rubbish. But sometimes there is a jewel buried in the heart of the lotus flower.

Two vertices *x*, *y* of a graph are called twins if they have the same neighbours, except possibly one another. If two vertices are twins, then the map interchanging them and fixing everything else is a graph automorphism.

Our graphs on groups tend to have many pairs of twins. If *x* and *y* generate the same cyclic subgroup of *G*, then they are twins in all the graphs mentioned so far, and essentially all others as well.

Twin reduction

Twin reduction is the process of choosing a pair of twins and identifying them, repeating the process until no twins remain. The resulting graph is (up to isomorphism) independent of the way the reduction is carried out. I will call it the cokernel of the original graph (no connection with homological algebra implied).

Twin reduction

Twin reduction is the process of choosing a pair of twins and identifying them, repeating the process until no twins remain. The resulting graph is (up to isomorphism) independent of the way the reduction is carried out. I will call it the cokernel of the original graph (no connection with homological algebra implied).

A graph is called a **cograph** if it has no induced subgraph isomorphic to the 4-vertex path. Cographs form the smallest class of graphs which can be built from 1-vertex graphs by the operations of disjoint union and complementation.

Twin reduction

Twin reduction is the process of choosing a pair of twins and identifying them, repeating the process until no twins remain. The resulting graph is (up to isomorphism) independent of the way the reduction is carried out. I will call it the cokernel of the original graph (no connection with homological algebra implied).

A graph is called a **cograph** if it has no induced subgraph isomorphic to the 4-vertex path. Cographs form the smallest class of graphs which can be built from 1-vertex graphs by the operations of disjoint union and complementation.

Proposition

A graph is a cograph if and only if its cokernel is the 1-vertex graph.

The search

The above result gives added significance to the question:

Problem

Given a type t of graph defined on groups, for which groups G is t(G) a cograph?

The search

The above result gives added significance to the question:

Problem

Given a type t of graph defined on groups, for which groups G is t(G) a cograph?

Partial answers are known in some cases. In particular, Pallabi Manna, Ranjit Mehatari and I have determined the finite simple groups whose power graph is a cograph; Xuanlong Ma, Natalia Maslova and I have done the same for the commuting graph.

The search

The above result gives added significance to the question:

Problem

Given a type t of graph defined on groups, for which groups G is t(G) a cograph?

Partial answers are known in some cases. In particular, Pallabi Manna, Ranjit Mehatari and I have determined the finite simple groups whose power graph is a cograph; Xuanlong Ma, Natalia Maslova and I have done the same for the commuting graph. The simplest results are for what I will call the difference graph, whose edges are those in the enhanced power graph but not in the power graph.

Empirically we find four cases for the difference graph of a simple group:

the difference graph has no edges (these are the EPPO groups defined earlier);

- the difference graph has no edges (these are the EPPO groups defined earlier);
- the difference graph is a cograph, so its cokernel has a single vertex;

- the difference graph has no edges (these are the EPPO groups defined earlier);
- the difference graph is a cograph, so its cokernel has a single vertex;
- the cokernel of the difference graph has many very small connected components, all isomorphic;

- the difference graph has no edges (these are the EPPO groups defined earlier);
- the difference graph is a cograph, so its cokernel has a single vertex;
- the cokernel of the difference graph has many very small connected components, all isomorphic;
- the cokernel is connected; its full automorphism group is the same as the automorphism group of the simple group with which we began; and the graph has nice properties (for example, large girth).





In the first three cases, the wind blows away all the lotus petals and nothing remains. But in the fourth case, we have discovered a jewel.



In the first three cases, the wind blows away all the lotus petals and nothing remains. But in the fourth case, we have discovered a jewel.

For example, if G is the Matheu group M_{11} , then the cokernel of the difference graph is bipartite, with blocks of size 165 and 220; the valencies of vertices in the two blocks are 4 and 3 respectively; the graph is connected, with diameter and girth 10; and its automorphism group is M_{11} .



In the first three cases, the wind blows away all the lotus petals and nothing remains. But in the fourth case, we have discovered a jewel.

For example, if G is the Matheu group M_{11} , then the cokernel of the difference graph is bipartite, with blocks of size 165 and 220; the valencies of vertices in the two blocks are 4 and 3 respectively; the graph is connected, with diameter and girth 10; and its automorphism group is M_{11} . More exploration remains to be done . . .

To someone with a hammer, everything is a nail.

To someone with a hammer, everything is a nail. Can any of these graph-theoretic approaches tell us anything about set-theoretic solutions of the YBE? I have only very recently begun to think about this, so I haven't got very far; I would appreciate suggestions!

To someone with a hammer, everything is a nail.

Can any of these graph-theoretic approaches tell us anything about set-theoretic solutions of the YBE? I have only very recently begun to think about this, so I haven't got very far; I would appreciate suggestions!

To begin at the beginning: the set-theoretic Yang–Baxter equation is an equation for a function $r: X \times X \to X \times X$ satisfying

$$r_{12}r_{23}r_{12}=r_{23}r_{12}r_{23},$$

where this equation refers to maps on $X \times X \times X$, and r_{ij} replaces the pair (x_i, x_j) by the pair of coordinates of $r(x_i, x_j)$.

To someone with a hammer, everything is a nail.

Can any of these graph-theoretic approaches tell us anything about set-theoretic solutions of the YBE? I have only very recently begun to think about this, so I haven't got very far; I would appreciate suggestions!

To begin at the beginning: the set-theoretic Yang–Baxter equation is an equation for a function $r: X \times X \to X \times X$ satisfying

$$r_{12}r_{23}r_{12}=r_{23}r_{12}r_{23},$$

To someone with a hammer, everything is a nail.

Can any of these graph-theoretic approaches tell us anything about set-theoretic solutions of the YBE? I have only very recently begun to think about this, so I haven't got very far; I would appreciate suggestions!

To begin at the beginning: the set-theoretic Yang–Baxter equation is an equation for a function $r: X \times X \to X \times X$ satisfying

$$r_{12}r_{23}r_{12}=r_{23}r_{12}r_{23},$$

$$ightharpoonup r(x,x) = (x,x) \text{ for all } x \in X;$$

To someone with a hammer, everything is a nail.

Can any of these graph-theoretic approaches tell us anything about set-theoretic solutions of the YBE? I have only very recently begun to think about this, so I haven't got very far; I would appreciate suggestions!

To begin at the beginning: the set-theoretic Yang–Baxter equation is an equation for a function $r: X \times X \to X \times X$ satisfying

$$r_{12}r_{23}r_{12}=r_{23}r_{12}r_{23},$$

- $ightharpoonup r(x,x) = (x,x) \text{ for all } x \in X;$
- r is an involution (this implies that it is a bijection);

To someone with a hammer, everything is a nail.

Can any of these graph-theoretic approaches tell us anything about set-theoretic solutions of the YBE? I have only very recently begun to think about this, so I haven't got very far; I would appreciate suggestions!

To begin at the beginning: the set-theoretic Yang–Baxter equation is an equation for a function $r: X \times X \to X \times X$ satisfying

$$r_{12}r_{23}r_{12} = r_{23}r_{12}r_{23}$$
,

- $ightharpoonup r(x,x) = (x,x) \text{ for all } x \in X;$
- ightharpoonup r is an involution (this implies that it is a bijection);
- ightharpoonup r is non-degenerate (see next slide).

We can write r(x,y) as $(f_x(y),g_y(x))$, where, for any $x,y \in X$, the functions f_x and g_y map X to X. We say that our solution is non-degenerate if these functions are bijections for all choices of x and y.

We can write r(x, y) as $(f_x(y), g_y(x))$, where, for any $x, y \in X$, the functions f_x and g_y map X to X. We say that our solution is non-degenerate if these functions are bijections for all choices of x and y.

Now we regard the permutations f_x and g_y as generators of a group G(r) acting on X. Warning: It is customary to regard the f_x as acting on the left and the g_y on the right: as a mnemonic, r(x,y) is often written as $({}^xy, x^y)$.

We can write r(x, y) as $(f_x(y), g_y(x))$, where, for any $x, y \in X$, the functions f_x and g_y map X to X. We say that our solution is non-degenerate if these functions are bijections for all choices of x and y.

Now we regard the permutations f_x and g_y as generators of a group G(r) acting on X. Warning: It is customary to regard the f_x as acting on the left and the g_y on the right: as a mnemonic, r(x,y) is often written as $({}^xy, x^y)$.

The YBE implies that the *g*s can be written in terms of the *f*s, and *vice versa*; so the groups generated by the *f*s and by the *g*s are equal. This is the Yang–Baxter permutation group associated with the solution.

We can write r(x, y) as $(f_x(y), g_y(x))$, where, for any $x, y \in X$, the functions f_x and g_y map X to X. We say that our solution is non-degenerate if these functions are bijections for all choices of x and y.

Now we regard the permutations f_x and g_y as generators of a group G(r) acting on X. Warning: It is customary to regard the f_x as acting on the left and the g_y on the right: as a mnemonic, r(x,y) is often written as $\binom{x}{y}, x^y$.

The YBE implies that the *g*s can be written in terms of the *f*s, and *vice versa*; so the groups generated by the *f*s and by the *g*s are equal. This is the Yang–Baxter permutation group associated with the solution.

Note: we should certainly be open to relaxing the non-degeneracy condition and working with monoids rather than groups; but their theory is less developed.

The function r is an involution on $X \times X$, and fixes all the points on the diagonal. Its remaining orbits have sizes 1 or 2, so they consist of edges or pairs of directed edges on X.

The function r is an involution on $X \times X$, and fixes all the points on the diagonal. Its remaining orbits have sizes 1 or 2, so they consist of edges or pairs of directed edges on X. The group fixing all the orbits will be too small to be interesting. What about the group permuting the orbits?

The function r is an involution on $X \times X$, and fixes all the points on the diagonal. Its remaining orbits have sizes 1 or 2, so they consist of edges or pairs of directed edges on X. The group fixing all the orbits will be too small to be interesting. What about the group permuting the orbits?

Problem

Does the Yang–Baxter permutation group permute the orbits among themselves? In other words, if r(x,y) = (u,v) and $f_z(x) = u$ for some z, is it the case that $f_z(y) = v$?

The function r is an involution on $X \times X$, and fixes all the points on the diagonal. Its remaining orbits have sizes 1 or 2, so they consist of edges or pairs of directed edges on X. The group fixing all the orbits will be too small to be interesting. What about the group permuting the orbits?

Problem

Does the Yang–Baxter permutation group permute the orbits among themselves? In other words, if r(x,y) = (u,v) and $f_z(x) = u$ for some z, is it the case that $f_z(y) = v$?

Variant: Since the trivial solution of YBE is the transposition r(x,y) = (y,x), it would be sensible to change this to replace r by its composition with transposition. This should not change the problem too much.

Second attempt

Problem

Is there a set of ordered pairs of elements of X, naturally defined in terms of r, and invariant under the Yang–Baxter permutation group?

Second attempt

Problem

Is there a set of ordered pairs of elements of X, naturally defined in terms of r, and invariant under the Yang–Baxter permutation group? If this is the case, then we have a graph to which we can hope to apply some of the ideas I have described earlier.

Third attempt

The function $x \mapsto f_x$ maps X into Sym(X), and its image is the set of generators for the Yang–Baxter group.

Third attempt

The function $x \mapsto f_x$ maps X into $\operatorname{Sym}(X)$, and its image is the set of generators for the Yang–Baxter group. So we are in the territory of Cayley graphs, and the structure on X is just what it gets as the generating set of a finite subgroup. In particular this is not a group structure on X.

Third attempt

The function $x \mapsto f_x$ maps X into $\operatorname{Sym}(X)$, and its image is the set of generators for the Yang–Baxter group. So we are in the territory of Cayley graphs, and the structure on X is just what it gets as the generating set of a finite subgroup. In particular this is not a group structure on X. What can be achieved from this approach?

What to do?

Another question: Is it possible to use beautiful combinatorial objects (perhaps graphs on groups) to define interesting solutions of the YBE.

What to do?

Another question: Is it possible to use beautiful combinatorial objects (perhaps graphs on groups) to define interesting solutions of the YBE.

Suggestions welcome!

What to do?

Another question: Is it possible to use beautiful combinatorial objects (perhaps graphs on groups) to define interesting solutions of the YBE.

Suggestions welcome!



... for your attention.