# Some applications of generalized action graphs and monodromy graphs 

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## Snub Cube - Chirality in the sense of Conway



Snube cube is vertex-transitive (uniform) chiral polyhedron. It comes in two oriented forms.

## Motivation

We would like to have a single combinatorial mechanism that would enable us to deal with such phenomena. Our goal is to unify several existing structures in such a way that the power of each individual structure is preserved.

## Example: The Cube

## Example

The cube may be considered as

- an oriented map: $R, r$,
- as a map: $r_{0}, r_{1}, r_{2}$
- as a polyhedron
- ....



## Question

What is the dual of a cube and how can we describe it?

## Question

How can we tell that the cube is a regular map and amphichiral oriented map?

We define generalized action graphs as semi-directed graphs in which the edge set is partitioned into directed 2-factors (forming an action digraph) and undirected 1-factors (forming a monodromy graph) and use them to describe several combinatorial structures, such as maps and oriented maps. The quotient of the action graph with respect to its automorphism group (or some of its subgroup) is called the symmetry type graph and is very useful in connection with map symmetries and orientation preserving symmetries. Several usual cases of regular, edge-transitive, vertex-transitive, chiral, etc. maps and oriented maps are revisited. Our symmetry type graphs are closely related to Delaney-Dress symbols and orbifolds. The theory is very general and applies to a variety of discrete structures such as hypermaps, abstract polytopes and maniplexes.

## Pregraphs and Graphs



A pre-graph $\Gamma$ is a quadruple ( $V, D, i, r$ ) where $V$ and $D$ are disjoint non-empty sets

- $V$ being the set of vertices,
- $D$ the set of darts,
- $i: D \rightarrow V$ is a mapping that assigns to each dart its initial vertex and
- $r: D \rightarrow D$ is an involution

|  | a | b | c | d | e | f | g | h | i |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| r | b | a | c | e | d | g | f | i | h |
| i | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | assigning each dart its reverse dart.

## Pregraphs and Graphs



Let $\Gamma=(V, D, i, r)$ be a pre-graph. The orbits of $r$ are called edges of $\Gamma$. The edges corresponding to fixed points of $r$ are called pending edges or semi-edges, while other edges are called proper edges.
A pre-graph $\Gamma=(V, D, i, r)$ is graph, if $r$ is fixed-point free.

|  | a | b | d | e | f | g | h | i |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| r | b | a | e | d | g | f | i | h |
| i | 3 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

## Digraphs



|  | a | d | g | h |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| j | 3 | 1 | 2 | 1 |
| t | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 |

A digraph $\Gamma$ is a quadruple ( $V, A, j, t$ ) where $V$ and $A$ are disjoint non-empty sets

- $V$ being the set of vertices,
- $A$ the set of arcs,
- $j: A \rightarrow V$ is a mapping that assigns to each dart its initial vertex and
- $t: A \rightarrow V$ is a mapping that assigns to each dart its terminal vertex.


## Partially Directed Graphs



A partially directed graph $\Gamma$ is a hextuple ( $V, D, A, i, r, j, t$ ) where ( $V, D, i, r$ ) is a pre-graph and ( $V, A, j, t$ ) is a digraph.

## Morphisms, Isomorphisms, Automorphisms

A morphism $\vartheta$ between two partially directed graphs ( $V, D, A, i, r, j, t$ ) and ( $V^{\prime}, D^{\prime}, A^{\prime}, i^{\prime}, r^{\prime}, j^{\prime}, t^{\prime}$ ) satisfies the following, for any $d \in D$ and $a \in A$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
i^{\prime}(\vartheta(d)) & =\vartheta(i(d)) \\
r^{\prime}(\vartheta(d)) & =\vartheta(r(d)) \\
j^{\prime}(\vartheta(a)) & =\vartheta(j(a)) \\
t^{\prime}(\vartheta(a)) & =\vartheta(t(a))
\end{aligned}
$$

## Action graphs

We generalize and adapt the notion of action graph, first introduced by A. Malnič in 2002 as follows.

- Let $\Phi$ be a finite non-empty set of flags or vertices.
- Let $\mathcal{R}=\left[R_{1}, R_{2}, \ldots, R_{m}\right]$, where $m \geq 0$ be a collection of permutations $\forall i \in I: R_{i} \in \operatorname{Sym}(V), I=\{1,2, \ldots, m\}$, called (the set of) rotations.
- Let $\varrho=\left[r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{n}\right]$ be a collection of involutions on $\Phi$, i.e. $\forall j \in J: r_{j} \in \operatorname{Sym}(V), r_{j}^{2}=\mathrm{Id}, J=\{1,2, \ldots, m\}$, called reflections.
The structure $\Gamma=(\Phi ; \mathcal{R} ; \varrho, I, J)$ is called an action graph on the vertex set $\Phi$ of type $(I, J)$ with signature $(m, n), m=|I|, n=|J|$.


## Action graphs

In practice we omit the type or replace it by signature when it is not needed.
The subgroup Mon $\Gamma=\langle\mathcal{R} ; \varrho\rangle \leq \operatorname{Sym}(\Phi)$ is called the monodromy group of $\Gamma$.
The elements of Mon $\Gamma$ act from right on the elements of $\Phi$, as it is defined by the convention.
The action graph $\Gamma$ is connected if Mon $\Gamma$ acts transitively on $\Phi$.

## Action graphs

The action graph $\Gamma=(\Phi ; \mathcal{R}, \rho)$ can be viewed as a partially directed regular graph on the vertex set $\Phi$ with edges coloured by the corresponding generators of Mon $\Gamma$. The incidence relation in $\Gamma$ reads as $u \sim v \Longleftrightarrow v=u . g$, where $g$ is a generator of $\operatorname{Mon} \Gamma$. The valence of $\Gamma$ with signature $(m, n)$ is $2 m+n$. A fixed point of $R_{i}$ is exhibited as a loop, while a fixed point of $r_{j}$ is considered as a semiedge.
We will always represent a pair of the opposite arcs arising from the action of reflections by the undirected edge; hence $\Gamma$ is partially directed.

## Example - Cayley graphs as action graphs

## Example

A (directed) Cayley graph with $m+n$ generators, out of which there are $n$ involutions, can be regarded as an action graph with signature $(m+k, n-k), 0 \leq k \leq n$. Note that an involution may play different roles. It may be counted as permutation or as involution. This explains different signatures.

## Example - Abstract polytopes as action graphs

## Example

An abstract polytope of rank $n$ is an action graph with signature $(0, n)$. The vertices are flags and the $n$ involutions represent exchange maps on the flags of the polytope:
$\Gamma=\left(\Phi ; \emptyset,\left\{r_{0}, r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n-1}\right\}\right), r_{i} r_{j}=r_{j} r_{i},|i-j|>2$. For $\Gamma$ to represent an abstract polytopes two further technical conditions have to be met: the diamond condition and strong connectivity.

Instead of abstract polytopes one could study more general maniplexes (without diamond condition and strong connectivity). Maniplexes were introduced by Steve Wilson in 2012. See also crystallizations by Ferri and Gagliardi, introduced in the 70s, not to forget Lins and his work in the 90s.

## Maniplex vs. Abstract Polytope



Dodecahedral Space

$$
v=5, e=10, f=6, F=1
$$

There are 120 flags! Triple (vertex-edge-face) gives rise to two flags!

## Proposition

Every abstract polytope is a maniplex.

## Proposition

There exist a maniplex that is not an abstract polytope, e.g. the Poincaré Homology Sphere,

## Dodecahedral Space is a Maniplex



Dodecahedral Space alias Poincaré Homology 3-Sphere.
The 120 flags are vertices of the dual of the barycentric subdivision of the ordinary dodecahedron on the sphere. The flag graph of the dodecahedron is a trivalent $0-, 1-, 2-$ edge-colored spanning subgraph of the flag graph of the dodecahedral space. 3-edges connect corresponding flags in antipodal pentagonal faces.

## Question about maniplexes.

## Question

Is there an easy way to tell from action graph whether a given maniplex is a polytope?
E.g. if an $i$-edge has both end vertices in the same $J$-face and $i \notin J$, the maniplex is not a polytope.

## Oriented maps as Action Graphs


$\longrightarrow R$

> Example
> An oriented map $M$ is an action graph with signature $(1,1)$. The usual expression $M=(D ; R, L)$ of an oriented map due to Edmonds, in terms of darts, rotation, and dart-reversing involution, is the same as $M=(D ; R ; r)$.

## Maps as Action Graphs



## Example

A map $M$ is an action graph with signature $(0,3)$, i.e. $M=\Gamma\left(\Phi, \emptyset ; r_{0}, r_{1}, r_{2}\right)$. The permutations $r_{0}, r_{1}, r_{2}$ and $r_{0} r_{2}$ are fixed-point free involutions.
$-\mathrm{r}_{2}$
$-\quad r_{1}$
$\square \mathrm{ro}_{0}$

## Hypermaps as Action Graphs

## Example

A three-involution representation of a hypermap is an action graph with signature $(0,3)$.

## Oriented maniplexes as action graphs

Recall that a maniples is an action graph with signature $(0, n)$. The vertices are flags and the $n$ involutions represent exchange maps on the flags of the polytope:
$\Gamma=\left(\Phi ; \emptyset,\left\{r_{0}, r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n-1}\right\}\right), r_{i} r_{j}=r_{j} r_{i},|i-j|>2$.
A maniples is orientable if the underlying graph of $\Gamma$ is bipartite. In this case the flags fall into two classes $\Phi_{-}$and $\Phi_{+}$. Define the following action graph:
$\Gamma_{+-}=\left(\Phi ; r_{n-2} r_{n-1},\left\{r_{0} r_{n-1}, r_{1} r_{n-1}, \ldots, r_{n-3} r_{n-1}\right\}\right), r_{i} r_{j}=$ $r_{j} r_{i},|i-j|>2 .$.
The action graph $\Gamma_{+-}$is disconnected. We may distinguish the two connected components: $\Gamma_{+}$and $\Gamma_{-}$. Hence we have:
$\Gamma_{+}=\left(\Phi_{+} ; r_{n-2} r_{n-1},\left\{r_{0} r_{n-1}, r_{1} r_{n-1}, \ldots, r_{n-3} r_{n-1}\right\}\right)$
$=\left(\Phi_{+} ; R,\left\{s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-3}\right\}\right), s_{i} s_{j}=s_{j} s_{i},|i-j|>2$

## Morphisms of Action Graphs

A morphism of action graphs $\vartheta: \Gamma_{1} \rightarrow \Gamma_{2}$ is defined for a pair $\Gamma_{1}$, $\Gamma_{2}$ provided that both action graphs have the same signature. The morphism $\vartheta$ is defined by a mapping $\vartheta: V_{1} \rightarrow V_{2}$ between the corresponding sets of vertices of action graphs $\Gamma_{1}\left(V_{1} ; \mathcal{R}_{1} ; \varrho_{1}\right)$ and $\Gamma_{2}\left(V_{2} ; \mathcal{R}_{2} ; \varrho_{2}\right)$ such that for all $i \in I$ and all $j \in J$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
(\vartheta v) R_{i} & =\vartheta\left(v R_{i}\right),  \tag{1}\\
(\vartheta v) r_{j} & =\vartheta\left(v r_{j}\right) .
\end{align*}
$$

According to widely used convention, morphisms have left action on the vertex set $V$.
A morphism for which $\vartheta: V_{1} \rightarrow V_{2}$ is a bijection is called an isomorphism.

## Automorphisms of Action Graphs

The morphism $\alpha: \Gamma(V ; \mathcal{R} ; \varrho) \rightarrow \Gamma(V ; \mathcal{R} ; \varrho)$ is an automorphism if the mapping $\vartheta: V \rightarrow V$ is a bijection.

The group of automorphisms Aut ${ }_{0} \Gamma$ of the action graph consists of all (edge-colour-preserving) automorphisms of $\Gamma$. In other words, Aut $\Gamma$ is the centraliser of the corresponding monodromy group Mon $\Gamma$ in the symmetry group $\operatorname{Sym}(V)$.

## Important properties of automorphisms.

## Theorem

The automorphism group of an action graph is the centraliser of the corresponding monodromy group in symmetry group over action graph vertices.

Let us note that in both cases the collections $\mathcal{R}$ and $\varrho$ are taken as ordered collections.

## Automorphisms of oriented maps

## Example

An oriented map $M$ is an action graph with signature $(1,1)$. The automorphism group $\mathrm{Aut}_{\mathrm{o}} M$ corresponds with the group of orientation-preserving automorphisms. A map $M$ (in three-involutory representation) is an action graph with signature $(0,3)$. The automorphism group $\mathrm{Aut}_{\mathrm{o}} M$ is the same as the automorphism group as defined in Jones and Thornton.

## Extended Morphisms.

Let $\vartheta: V_{1} \rightarrow V_{2}$ be a mapping. The morphism

$$
\varepsilon=\left(\vartheta, \hat{i}, \hat{j}, K_{1}\right): \Gamma\left(V_{1} ; \mathcal{R}_{1} ; \varrho_{1}, I_{1}, J_{1}\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(V_{2} ; \mathcal{R}_{2} ; \varrho_{2}, I_{2}, J_{2}\right)
$$

is an extended morphism, if there exist mappings on index sets î: $I_{1} \rightarrow I_{2}$ and $\hat{j}: J_{1} \rightarrow J_{2}$ and a subset $K_{1} \subseteq I_{1}$ and $K_{2}=\hat{i}\left(K_{1}\right)$ such that if $v \in V_{1}, i \in I_{1}$ and $j \in J_{1}$, then

$$
\begin{align*}
& (\vartheta v) R_{\hat{\mathrm{i}}(i)}=\vartheta\left(v R_{i}\right), \text { if } i \notin K_{1}, \\
& (\vartheta v) R_{\hat{\mathrm{\imath}}(i)}^{-1}=\vartheta\left(v R_{i}\right), \text { if } i \in K_{1} .  \tag{2}\\
& (\vartheta v) r_{\hat{j}(j)}=\vartheta\left(v r_{j}\right),
\end{align*}
$$

An extended automorphism is orientation preserving if $K_{1}=\emptyset$ and is orientation reversing if $K_{1}=I_{1}$.

## Extended Isomorphisms and automorphisms.

An extended morphism $\varepsilon=\left(\vartheta, \hat{i}, \hat{j}, K_{1}\right)$ is an extended isomorphism if and only if $\vartheta, \hat{i}, \hat{j}$ are bijections.
An extended isomorphism of an action graph to itself is an extended automorphism.

## Automorphism groups.

The group of extended automorphisms Aut ${ }_{e} \Gamma$ of the action graph consists of all automorphisms of $\Gamma$. Note that here we consider the collections $\mathcal{R}$ and $\varrho$ to be just multisets.

## Proposition

Let $\Gamma$ be an action graph. Then

$$
\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathrm{o}} \Gamma \leq \operatorname{Aut}_{\mathrm{e}} \Gamma \leq \operatorname{Aut} \Gamma
$$

where Aut $\Gamma$ is the group of automorphisms of the underlying graph of $\Gamma$.

Note: we have to modify definitions, if $\Gamma$ has multiple edges.

## Extended Morphisms - revisided.

|  | orientation preserving | orientation reversing |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| color preserving | automorphism $\mathrm{Aut}_{\mathrm{o}} \Gamma$ | $R$ maps to $R^{-1}$ |
|  | $r_{i}$ to $r_{j}$ or | Aute $\Gamma$ |
| color respecting | $R_{i}$ to $R_{j}, i \neq j$ | extended automorphism |

In general, there are four groups of automorphisms possible!

## Extended Automorphisms - The Case of Oriented Maps.

## Example

Let $\Gamma$ be an action graph of an oriented $\operatorname{map} \Gamma(V ; R ; r)$. The morphism $\Gamma(V ; R ; r) \mapsto \Gamma\left(V ; R^{-1} ; r\right)$ correspond to an orientation-reversing isomorphism; i.e. the operation of 'taking the mirror-image'.

## Extended Automorphisms - The Case of Maps.

## Example

The mappings $\Gamma\left(V ; \emptyset ; r_{0}, r_{1}, r_{2}\right) \mapsto \Gamma\left(V ; \emptyset ; r_{2}, r_{1}, r_{0}\right)$ which extends to automorphisms of action graphs corresponds to (self-)dualities of a map.

The Fundamental Lemma of Action Graphs.

## Lemma (Fundamental Lemma of Action Graphs) <br> The action of automorphism group $\mathrm{Aut}_{\mathrm{o}} \Gamma(V ; \mathcal{R} ; \varrho)$ is semi-regular on $V$.

## Some Consequences.

The Fundamental Lemma of Action Graphs has several interesting consequences:

Corollary
a) $\left|\mathrm{Aut}_{\mathrm{o}} \Gamma\right|$ is a divisor of $|V|$;
b) The projection $\Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma /$ Aut $_{o} \Gamma$ is a regular covering projection;

## Definition

The quotient $T(\Gamma)=\Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma /$ Aut $_{o} \Gamma$ is an action graph called the symmetry type graph.

## Regular Action Graphs.

The action graph $\Gamma$ is regular if $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathrm{o}} \Gamma(V ; \mathcal{R} ; \varrho)$ acts regularly on $V$.

## Proposition

$\mid$ Aut $_{\mathrm{o}} \Gamma(V ; \mathcal{R} ; \varrho)|\leq|V|$, more precisely: $|$ Aut $_{o} \Gamma(V ; \mathcal{R} ; \varrho) \mid$ divides $|V|$ and equality is reached if and only if $\Gamma$ is regular.

## Corollary

Let $M$ be a oriented map on e edges. Then $\left|\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathrm{o}}(M)\right|$ divides $2 e$ and $M$ is regular if and only if $\left|\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathrm{o}}(M)\right|=2 e$.

Corollary
Let $M$ be a map on e edges. Then $\left|\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathrm{o}}(M)\right|$ divides $4 e$ and $M$ is regular if and only if $\left|\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathrm{o}}(M)\right|=4 e$.

## Regular Action Graphs are Cayley Graphs

## Proposition

An action graph $\Gamma(V ; \mathcal{R} ; \varrho)$ is regular if and only if it is a (colored Cayley graph).


## Proposition

An action graph $\Gamma(V ; \mathcal{R} ; \varrho)$ is regular if and only if its symmetry type graph $T(\Gamma(V ; \mathcal{R} ; \varrho))$ is a 1-vertex graph.

## Example

See symmetry type graphs of a generic Cayley graph, of a regular oriented map and of a regular map.

## Symmetry type graphs with respect to subgroups.

## Remark

It is possible to develop theory of G-action graphs $\Gamma / \mathrm{G}$, with respect to a subgroup of the full automorphism group $G \leq A u t_{o} \Gamma$.

## Incidence Geometry.

An incidence geometry of rank $r$ is a properly vertex-colored graph $(\Gamma, c, T)$, where $\Gamma$ is a graph and $c: V(\Gamma) \rightarrow T$ is a proper vertex coloring with $|T|=r$. Note that each vertex, alias geometry element, $v \in V(\Gamma)$ is of precise type $c(v) \in T$ and that only elements of different type may be incident: $u \sim v$ implies $c(u) \neq c(v)$.
Sometimes such a structure is called pre-geometry and for a geometry some further conditions are required.

## Coset Geometry.

Let $G$ be a group and let $H_{1}, H_{2}, \ldots, H_{r}$ be $r$ of its subgroups. The structure $\left(G ; H_{1}, H_{2}, \ldots, H_{r}\right)$ is called a rank $r$ coset geometry.
Each coset geometry gives rise to an incidence geometry as follows. The vertices of $G$ represents the right cosets $H_{j} a_{i}$ with two cosets being adjacent if and only if their intersection is disjoint. Furthermore, the coloring function $c$ is given by $c\left(H_{j} a_{i}\right)=H_{j}$ (or, if we want to make it simple: $c\left(H_{j} a_{i}\right)=j$ ).

## Coset Geometry and Regular Maps

## Example

Any regular map gives rise to a coset geometry. The group $G$ is generated by the three involutions $\left\langle r_{0}, r_{1}, r_{2}\right\rangle$ and the subgroups corresponding to vertices, edges, and faces are generated by $\left\langle r_{1}, r_{2}\right\rangle,\left\langle r_{0}, r_{2}\right\rangle$, and $\left\langle r_{0}, r_{1}\right\rangle$, respectively.


## Action Geometry.

We may generalize the notion of coset geometries from groups to action graphs via Cayley graphs. Let $\Gamma(V ; \mathcal{R} ; \varrho)$ be an action graph and let us have $\mathcal{S}_{i} \subseteq \mathcal{R}$ and $\sigma_{i} \subseteq \varrho$ for $i=1,2, \ldots, r$. Then $\Delta_{i}=\left(V ; \mathcal{S}_{i} ; \sigma_{i}\right)$ is (possibly disconnected) action graph. By $F_{i}\left(\mathcal{S}_{i}, \sigma_{i}\right)$ we denote the partition of vertex set $V$ into connected components (of $\Delta_{i}$ ). The partition $F_{i}$ corresponds to orbits of $\left\langle\mathcal{S}_{i}, \sigma_{i}\right\rangle$ on $V$. The elements of $F_{i}$ will be called $i$-faces of $\left(\Gamma ; \Delta_{1}, \Delta_{2}, \ldots, \Delta_{r}\right)$. The structure $\left(\Gamma ; \Delta_{1}, \Delta_{2}, \ldots, \Delta_{r}\right)$ is called a rank $r$ action geometry.
Using the same idea as with the coset geometries we my associate a rank $r$ incidence geometry to each rank $r$ action geometry.

## From Coset Geometry to Action Geometry.

## Example

Each non-trivial group $G$ gives rise to a unique action graph $\Gamma(G)=(G, G-\{\mathrm{Id}\}, \emptyset)$ via the right regular representation. Note that in this case the action graph can be regarded as a particular Cayley graph for $G$. In the same way the coset geometry $\left(G ; H_{1}, H_{2}, \ldots, H_{r}\right)$ gives rise to the action geometry

$$
\left(\Gamma(G) ; \Gamma\left(H_{1}\right), \Gamma\left(H_{2}\right), \ldots, \Gamma\left(H_{r}\right)\right)
$$

It is not hard to see that the underlying incidence geometries are isomorphic.

## Remark

Several action geometries may give rise to the same incidence geometry.

## Map as an Action Graph and an Incidence Geometry

## Example

Let us take an action graph $M=\left(V ; \emptyset ; r_{0}, r_{1}, r_{2}\right)$, corresponding to a three-involutory representation of map. Then $F\left(r_{1}, r_{2}\right)$ corresponds to vertices of $M, F\left(r_{0}, r_{2}\right)$ corresponds to edges of $M$, and $F\left(r_{0}, r_{1}\right)$ corresponds to faces of $M$. The set of vertices of action graph, $V$ is the set of flags of $M$. The corresponding incidence structure is displayed on Figure below.


Figure :

## Oriented Map as Action Graph.

## Example

Let us take an action graph $M=(V ; R ; r)$ corresponding to an oriented map. The vertex set $V$ then corresponds to set of darts of $M, F(R)$ corresponds to vertices of $M$ and $F(r)$ corresponds to edges of $M$. The incidence structure over $M$ correspond to a graph $G$, although we ( $V ; R ; r$ ) is well-defined embedding of $G$. We will show a standard technique used to define an action graph such that the corresponding geometry will employ faces of $M$ as well. Take the action graph $M^{*}=\left(V ; R, R^{*} ; r\right)$ such that $R^{*}=R^{-1} r$. Then $F(R)$ correspond to the vertices, $F(r)$ correspond to the edges, and $F\left(R^{*}\right)$ correspond to the faces of $M$, respectively. The corresponding incidence geometry is now well-defined.

## Trivalent graphs of Class 1 - Hypermaps



## Example

Heawood graph is a bipartite trivalent graph. Any of its 3-edge-colorings gives rise to a hyper map.

## Linegraphs of bipartite trivalent graphs as Action graphs

## Example

The line graph of the Heawood graph is a quartic graph on 21 vertices. It inherits a 2-factorization composed of a blue and red triangular 2-factor. Any cyclic orientation of triangles gives rise to an action graph of signature $(2,0)$. They all, in turn, give rise to the same incidence geometry - the Fano plane alias the Heawod graph with a given blue-red vertex coloring.

## Constellations.

## Example

Constellations of Lando and Zvonkin can be regarded as special action graphs. Namley an action graph $\Gamma=\left(\Phi ; R_{1}, R_{2}, \ldots, R_{n} ; \emptyset\right)$ is a constellation if $\prod_{i=1}^{n} R_{i}=\mathrm{Id}$.

## Need for Cryptomorphism - Constellations

Sometimes the most concise choice of signatures for action graphs is not the best. By adding redundant permutations we may get a cryptomorphic description of essentially the same structure which may have richer extended group of automorphisms.

## Example

If $\Gamma=\left(\Phi ; R_{1}, R_{2}, \ldots, R_{n} ; \emptyset\right)$ is not a constellation we may adjoin another permutation $R_{n+1}=\left(R_{1} R_{2} \ldots R_{n}\right)^{-1}$ and the action graph $\Gamma=\left(\Phi ; R_{1}, R_{2}, \ldots, R_{n}, R_{n+1} ; \emptyset\right)$ becomes a constellation.

## Need for Cryptomorphism - Maps

## Example

A general map may be described as $M=\left(V ; \emptyset ; r_{0}, r_{1}, r_{2}\right)$. It is easy to move from $M$ to its dual map $M^{d}$ using this model, but it is much more complicated to move from $M$ to its Petrie dual. It is therefore easier to add an extra involution $r_{P}$ and have $M^{\prime}=\left(V ; \emptyset ; r_{0}, r_{1}, r_{2}, r_{P}\right)$ with additional requirement that $r_{0} r_{1} r_{P}=\mathrm{Id}$. These two definitions are cryptomorphic. Given $M$ we may define $r_{P}=r_{0} r_{2}$. In the same way $M^{\prime}$ defines back $M$. However, using $M^{\prime}$ it is easy to apply any of the six permutations on $\{0,2, P\}$ to move from M to its dual, its Petrie dual, etc.

## Need for Cryptomorphism - Oriented Maps

## Example

(See Example 31.) In the model ( $V ; R, r$ ) of oriented map the faces are not easily visible. We may define them as $F=R^{-1} r$. Sometimes it would be more convenient to use the model ( $V ; R, F, r$ ) with additional requirement that $R F=r$. The dual map is simply obtained by swapping permutations $R$ and $F$.

Maybe we should talk about categories and functors here.

## From orientable maps to oriented maps

## Theorem

Map $M$ is orientable if and only if its flag-graph is bipartite.
Each orientable map $M=\left(\Phi ; r_{0}, r_{1}, r_{2}\right)$ give rise to a pair of oppositely oriented maps $M_{+}=\left(D_{+}, R, r\right)$ and $M_{-}=(D, R, r)$. where $D_{+}$contains all black flags of $M$ and $D_{-}$ contains all white flags of $M$. Furthermore $R=r_{2} r_{1}, r=r_{2} r_{0}$.

## From oriented maps to orientable maps

## Theorem

Each oriented map $M_{+}=(D, R, r)$ and its reverse $M_{-}=\left(D, R^{-1}, r\right)$ give rise to the same orientable map $M=\left(\Phi, r_{0}, r_{1}, r_{2}\right)$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Phi=D_{-} \cup D_{+}, r_{0}\left(d_{+}\right)=r(d)_{-}, r_{0}\left(d_{-}\right)=r\left(d_{+}\right), r_{1}\left(d_{+}\right)= \\
& R(d)_{-}, r_{1}\left(d_{-}\right)=R^{-1}(d)_{+}, r_{2}\left(d_{-}\right)=d_{+}, r\left(d_{+}\right)=d_{-}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Chiral maps in the sense of Conway

## Definition

An oriented map $(D, R, r)$ is chiral in the sense of Conway if it is not isomorphic (as oriented map) to its reverse ( $D, R^{-1}, r$ )

This definition carries over to an orientable map.

## Definition

An orientable map $M$ is chiral if the two oriented maps $D_{-}$and $D_{+}$are not isomorphic (as oriented maps). in the sense of Conway if it is not isomorphic (as oriented map) to its reverse ( $D, R^{-1}, r$ )

## Information Stored in Symmetry Type Graphs

## Theorem

Let $\left(\Gamma ; \Delta_{1}, \Delta_{2}, \ldots, \Delta_{r}\right)$ be an action geometry and let $T(\Gamma)$ be its symmetry type graph. The number of connected components of $T\left(\Delta_{i}\right)$ denotes the number of orbits of $i-f$ aces of $\Gamma$.
ctually, we have to define also $J$-flags, where $J$ is a subset of types. Then we can tell when a map is vertex-, edge-, or face-transitive. Using this notation we may describe examples of maps that are vertex- and edge-transitive but are not arc-transitive. Using indices, we get the reverse correspondence: vertex-transitive is 12 -transitive, edge-transitive is 02 -transitive, face-transitive is 01-transitive.

## Edge-Transitive Maps and Symmetry Type Graphs



Edge-transitive maps are very well understood. It is well-known they come in 14 types.. (Graver, Watkins; Širan, Tucker, Watkins; Orbanić. etc.). There are five possible quotients of an edge quadrangle.

## Edge-Transitive Maps and Symmetry Type Graphs



Edge-transitive maps are very well understood. It is well-known they come in 14 types. There are five possible quotients of an edge. By adding all possible 1 -edges to each quotient of the edge quadrangle we obtain the 14 types.

## Strong and weak Edge-Transitive Oriented Maps

The vertices of the action graphs and symmetry type graphs of maps are flags while the vertices of action graphs and symmetry type graphs of oriented maps are darts.
An oriented map may be edge-transitive in the strong sense if the group of orientation preserving automorphisms acts transitively on the edges. On the other hand, if the map is edge-transitive as a map but not as an oriented map, then we say that it is edge-transitive in the weak sense.

## Edge-transitive oriented maps.

## Proposition (Karabaš, Nedela)

There are 8 symmetry type graphs $(8=3\{$ strong $\}+5\{$ weak $\})$ admitting edge-transitive oriented maps.

## Edge-transitive oriented maps.

## Proposition

An oriented map $\Gamma$ is edge-transitive in the strong sense if and only if $T(\Gamma)$ is one of the following


## Edge-transitive oriented maps proof.

## Lemma

The action graph $\Gamma$ is edge-transitive in the strong sense if and only if the subgraph of $T(\Gamma)$ induced by involution $r$ is connected.

## Lemma

The action graph $\Gamma$ is edge-transitive in the weak sense if and only if the subgraph of $T(\Gamma)$ induced by involutions is connected, or if there exist an extended involution on $T(\Gamma)$ exchanging the two edges corresponding to $r$.

## Small oriented symmetry type graphs.



All oriented $k$-orbit symmetry type graphs (of oriented maps) for $k=1,2,3,4$. $\left(^{* *}\right)$
Edge-transitive in the strong sense: 3 cases E1, E3, E3*. () Edge-transitive in the weak sense: 5 cases: E2, E4, E4*, E5, E6.

## Exercise

Determine dual pairs of oriented symmetry types. Hint: among the edge-transitive ones there are two dual pairs.

## Smallest chiral symmetry type graph.



A chiral symmetry type graph is not isomorphic to its reverse. Hence any oriented map of this type is chiral (in the sense of Conway).

## Thanks for your attention.

