# GROUPS WHOSE ALL（MINIMAL）CAYLEY GRAPHS HAVE A GIVEN FORBIDDEN STRUCTURE 

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#### Abstract

We give the classification of all（minimal）Cayley bipartite or per－ fect finite groups as well as finite graphs $\Gamma$ for which there are only finitely many（minimal）Cayley $\Gamma$－free groups．


## 1．Introduction

Let $G$ be a non－trivial group and $S$ be an inversed－closed subset of $G$ ，that is， $S \subseteq G \backslash\{1\}$ and $S^{-1}=\left\{s^{-1}: s \in S\right\} \subseteq S$ ．The Cayley graph of $G$ corresponding to $S$ ，denoted by Cay $(G, S)$ ，is a graph with $G$ as the vertex set such that two vertices $x$ and $y$ are adjacent if $y x^{-1} \in S$ ．The Cayley graph Cay $(G, S)$ is called minimal if $S=X \cup X^{-1}$ for some minimal generating subset $X$ of $G$ ．Cayley graphs was introduced by Arthur Cayley in 1978 as a geometric description of groups and play a central role in geometric group theory．Being a source and a simple way of constructing symmetric graphs，Cayley graphs has became the subject of extensive research in algebraic graph theory as well as computer science from various points of views．

A group in which all its associated（minimal）Cayley graphs admit a given prop－ erty $\mathcal{P}$ is called a（minimal）Cayley $\mathcal{P}$－group．Accordingly，a Cayley integral group is that whose all Cayley graphs are integral，that is，they all have integral spectrum． Studying integral graphs was initiated by Harary and Schwenk［8］．As an attempt to describe integral Cayley graphs，among other works，Abdollahi and Jazaeri［1］ and simultaneously Ahmady，Bell and Mohar［2］in 2014，complete the classification of all Cayley integral finite groups．Motivated by these works，we are interested in studying the existence of particular subgraphs（mainly odd cycles）in Cayley graphs associated with a finite group．More precisely，we shall give a classification of those finite groups whose all（minimal）Cayley graphs are bipartite or perfect． Since our main results relies on particular forbidden structures in（minimal）Cayley graphs，we review the results on the problem that which graphs are isomorphic to an induced subgraph of a（minimal）Cayley graphs and determine which graphs can be embedded as induced subgraph into infinitely many（minimal）Cayley graphs．

The paper is organized as follows：In section 2，we show that there are only finitely many finite Cayley $\Gamma$－free groups for any finite graph $\Gamma$ while the same result for minimal Cayley $\Gamma$－free groups holds if and only if $\Gamma$ is a union of some paths．We note that a $\Gamma$－free graph is one having no induced subgraph isomorphic to $\Gamma$ ．Section 3 gives a description of all（minimal）Cayley bipartite groups，that is， finite groups whose all（minimal）Cayley graphs have no odd cycles as subgraphs．

[^0]Finally, in section 3, we shall restrict our attention to induced odd cycles and determine all (minimal) Cayley perfect finite groups by using the knowledge of their forbidden induced odd cycles. Recall that a graph is perfect if the chromatic and clique number of its induced subgraphs coincides. A celebrated theorem of Chudnovsky, Robertson, Seymour and Thomas [5], known as the strong perfect graph theorem, states that a graph $\Gamma$ is perfect if and only if neither $\Gamma$ nor its complement has induced odd cycles other that triangles.

Throughout this paper, we adopt the following notations: Given a group $G$, the minimum size of generating set of $G$ is denoted by $d(G)$. An arbitrary Sylow $p$-subgroup of $G$ will be denoted by $S_{p}(G)$. Also, $E_{p}$ stands for the extra-special $p$-group of order $p^{3}$ and exponent $p$. The unexplained notions are standard and can be found in any standard book. Recall that the Frattini subgroup $\Phi(G)$ of $G$ is the intersection of all maximal subgroups of $G$. It is known that $\Phi(G)$ is the set of all non-generators of $G$, the fact that will be used without further references.

## 2. (Minimal) Cayley $\Gamma$-free groups

Every graph can be simply embedded as induced subgraph into some Cayley graph of sufficiently large order, namely using an elementary abelian 2 -group generated freely by the vertices of the graph. As an attempt to decrease the exponential order of the corresponding Cayley graphs, Babai and Sós in [4], using the analysis of Sidon sets, gave a cubic lower bound $9.5|\Gamma|^{3}$ for the order of a group $G$, which assures the existence of a Cayley graph on $G$ having $\Gamma$ as an induced subgraph. This lower bound is further improved to $(2+\sqrt{3})|\Gamma|^{3}$ by Godsil and Imrich in [7]. Hence, we have the following.

Theorem 2.1. For every finite graph $\Gamma$, the order of a Cayley $\Gamma$-free group is bounded above by $(2+\sqrt{3})|\Gamma|^{3}$.

While every graph is an induced subgraph of a Cayley graph, it is still unknown which graphs can be embedded as (induced) subgraph into some minimal Cayley graphs. The only known results are due to Babai and Spencer. Indeed, Babai [3] shows that there is no minimal Cayley graphs having $K_{4} \backslash e$ or $K_{3,5}$ as subgraph, in which $K_{4} \backslash e$ is the diamond graph. Spencer [11], using the ideas of Babai and utilizing probabilistic arguments, proves the existence of graphs of bounded degree and arbitrary girth which cannot be embedded into minimal Cayley graphs as induced subgraphs. In contrast to the above theorem, the situation for minimal Cayley $\Gamma$-free groups is completely different as follows.

Theorem 2.2. Let $\Gamma$ be a finite graph. Then there are only finitely many minimal Cayley $\Gamma$-free groups if and only if $\Gamma$ is a union of paths. Moreover, $|G|<|\Gamma|^{|\Gamma|}$ for any minimal Cayley $\Gamma$-free group $G$ when $\Gamma$ is a union of paths.

Proof. Suppose $\Gamma$ is a graph for which there are just finitely many minimal Cayley $\Gamma$-free groups. Since all minimal Cayley graphs of $C_{2^{n}}$ are isomorphic to the $2^{n_{-}}$ cyclic graph, it follows that $\Gamma$ is an induced subgraph of $2^{n}$-cycles for sufficiently large $n$. Hence, $\Gamma$ is a union of paths. Conversely, suppose $\Gamma$ is a union of paths. Let $G$ be a minimal Cayley $\Gamma$-free group and $\Gamma^{\prime}=\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ be a minimal Cayley graph of $G$ in which $S=X \cup X^{-1}$ and $X=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ is a minimal generating set of $G$. Also, let $N_{i}$ denote the $i$ th neighbor of the identity element in $\Gamma^{\prime}$, that is, $N_{i}=\left\{g \in G: d_{\Gamma^{\prime}}(1, g)=i\right\}$ for all $i \geq 0$. Clearly, $\left|N_{0}\right|=1$ and $\left|N_{i}\right| \leq r(r-1)^{i-1}$
for all $i \geq 1$ in which $r=|S|$ is the degree of $\Gamma^{\prime}$. If $d=\operatorname{diam}\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right)$, then $N_{d} \neq \emptyset$ and $N_{d+1}=\emptyset$, which imply that

$$
\begin{aligned}
|G| & =\left|N_{0}\right|+\left|N_{1}\right|+\cdots+\left|N_{d}\right| \\
& \leq 1+r+r(r-1)+\cdots+r(r-1)^{d-1}=1+r \cdot \frac{(r-1)^{d}-1}{r-2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since, every path connecting 1 to any element of $N_{d}$ is an induced path of length $d$ in $\Gamma^{\prime}$, it follows that $d<|\Gamma|-1$. On the other hand,

$$
x_{1} \sim x_{2} x_{1} \sim \cdots \sim x_{n} \cdots x_{1} \sim x_{1} x_{n} \cdots x_{1} \sim \cdots \sim x_{n-1} \cdots x_{1} x_{n} \cdots x_{1}
$$

is an induced path in $\Gamma^{\prime}$, which implies that $2 n-1 \leq d$. Since $r \leq 2 n$, we observe that $|G|$ is bounded above by $|\Gamma|^{|\Gamma|}$, as required.

## 3. (Minimal) Cayley bipartite groups

It is well-known that bipartite graphs are perfect. Hence, in order to classify (minimal) Cayley perfect groups, we need to know the structure of (minimal) Cayley bipartite groups. As we shall see in the next section, almost all (minimal) Cayley perfect groups are (minimal) Cayley bipartite groups.

Since the only bipartite complete graphs are those with at most 2 vertices, the only Cayley bipartite groups are simply groups with at most 2 elements. Hence, in what follows, we just consider minimal Cayley bipartite groups. To end this, we use the following characterization of finite bipartite Cayley graphs.
Lemma 3.1. Let $G$ be a finite group. A Cayley graph $\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ is bipartite if and only if $\left[G:\left\langle S^{2}\right\rangle\right]=2$ and $S \subseteq G \backslash\left\langle S^{2}\right\rangle$.
Proof. Suppose Cay $(G, S)$ is bipartite with a bipartition $(X, Y)$. Let $H=\left\langle S^{2}\right\rangle$. Since, $s X \subseteq Y$ and $s Y \subseteq X$ for all $s \in S$, it follows that $|X|=|Y|=|G| / 2$. In addition, $s_{1} s_{2} X=X$ and $s_{1} s_{2} Y=Y$ for all $s_{1}, s_{2} \in S$, which imply that $H X=X$ and $H Y=Y$. Since $H$ contains all products of even number of elements of $S$, we must have $s_{1} H=s_{2} H$ for all $s_{1}, s_{2} \in S$ whence $[G: H]=2$ and $S \subseteq G \backslash H$. Moreover, $X$ and $Y$ are right cosets of $H$. The converse is obvious.

Theorem 3.2. A finite group $G$ is a minimal Cayley bipartite group if and only if it is a 2-group.
Proof. First assume that $G$ is a minimal Cayley bipartite group. Let $K$ be the intersection of all subgroups of $G$ of index 2. If $\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ is a minimal Cayley graph of $G$, then $S \subseteq G \backslash H$ for some subgroup $H$ of $G$ of index 2 by Lemma 3.1. Since $K \subseteq H$, we have $K \cap S=\emptyset$, from which it follows that $K \subseteq \Phi(G)$, the Frattini subgroup of $G$. Thus, $G / \Phi(G)$ is a 2 -group so that $G$ is a 2 -group too. Conversely, assume $G$ is a 2 -group. If Cay $(G, S)$ is a minimal Cayley graph of $G$, then $S=X \cup X^{-1}$, where $X=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ is a minimal generating set of $G$. Let $H=\left\langle\Phi(G), x_{1} x_{2}, \ldots, x_{1} x_{n}\right\rangle$. Then $H$ is a maximal subgroup of $G$ and $S \subseteq G \backslash H$. Hence, by Lemma 3.1, Cay $(G, S)$ is bipartite. Therefore, $G$ is a minimal Cayley bipartite group.

## 4. (Minimal) Cayley perfect groups

In this section, we shall give a classification of those finite groups all of whose minimal Cayley graphs are perfect. As a result we show that there are only few Cayley perfect groups. The following simple lemma will be used frequently.

Lemma 4.1. Let $G=\langle g\rangle$ be a cyclic group. Then
(1) $\operatorname{Cay}\left(G,\left\{g^{ \pm 2}, g^{ \pm 3}\right\}\right)$ has an induced 5-cycle $1 \sim g^{2} \sim g^{4} \sim g^{6} \sim g^{3} \sim 1$ for $|g| \geq 10 ;$ and
(2) $\operatorname{Cay}\left(G,\left\{g^{ \pm 1}, g^{ \pm 4}\right\}\right)$ has an induced 5-cycle $1 \sim g \sim g^{2} \sim g^{3} \sim g^{4} \sim 1$ for $|\dot{g}| \geq 8$.

The proof of our theorems rely also on the following result of the first author. In what follows, ${ }^{-}: G \longrightarrow G / \Phi(G)$ denotes the natural epimorphism, in which $G$ is a given fixed group.
Theorem $4.2([6])$. Let $\underline{G}$ be a finite solvable group and $P$ be a Sylow $p$-subgroup of $G$. If either $\bar{P} \unlhd G$ or $\bar{P}$ is cyclic, then $d(P)=d(\bar{P})$.

Now, we can state and prove our main results.
Theorem 4.3. A finite group $G$ is a minimal Cayley perfect group if and only if either $G$ is a 2-group, or it is isomorphic to one of the groups $C_{3}, C_{6}, S_{3}, C_{3} \times C_{3}$, $A_{4}$ or $E_{3}$.

Proof. From Theorem 3.2, we know that every 2-group is a minimal Cayley perfect group. Also, a simple verification shows that the other six groups are also minimal Cayley perfect groups.

To prove the converse assume that $G$ is a minimal Cayley perfect group and that $G$ is not a 2 -group. Hence $G \backslash \Phi(G)$ contains an element $g$ of odd order. Let $X$ be a minimal generating set of $G$ containing $g$ and $S=X \cup X^{-1}$. Then the subgraph induced by $\langle g\rangle$ in $\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ is an odd cycle, which implies that $|g|=3$. Hence, $G$ is a $\{2,3\}$-group. Let $Q$ be a Sylow 3 -subgroup of $G$. If $\exp (Q) \neq 3$, then $S_{3}(\Phi(G))=H_{3}(Q)$ is a maximal subgroup of $Q$ by [12], in which $H_{3}(Q)=\left\langle x \in Q: x^{3} \neq 1\right\rangle$. From the solvability of $G$ in conjunction with Theorem 4.2, we observe that $Q$ is cyclic and hence $Q \cong C_{3}$, a contradiction. Thus $\exp (Q)=3$. First assume that $G=Q$ is a 3 -group. If $d(G) \geq 3$ and $a, b, c$ are elements of a minimal generating set $X$ of $G$, then we observe that

$$
1 \sim c \sim b c \sim a b c \sim c a b c \sim b c a b c \sim a b c a b c \sim c a b c a b c \sim b c a b c a b c \sim 1
$$

is an induced 9-cycle in $\operatorname{Cay}\left(G, X \cup X^{-1}\right)$ arose from the relation $(a b c)^{3}=1$, which is a contradiction. Thus $d(G) \leq 2$. By [10, 12.3.5], $G$ is a group of nilpotent class 2 so that $|G| \leq 27$. As a group of exponent $3, G \cong C_{3}, C_{3} \times C_{3}$ or $E_{3}$.

Finally, assume that $G$ is neither a 2 -group nor a 3 -group. Let $\mathcal{C}$ be the class of all groups isomorphic to $C_{6}, S_{3}$ or $A_{4}$. A simple computation shows that, in a group of order 6 or 12, a minimal generating set involving an element of order 3 gives rise to a perfect Cayley graph only if the group belongs to $\mathcal{C}$. We show that $G \in \mathcal{C}$ too. Assume $G$ is a minimal counter example. Let $l_{f}$ be the number of non-Frattini factors in a chief series of $G$. First assume that $l_{f}=2$. One can easily see that $\bar{G} \cong C_{6}, S_{3}$ or $A_{4}$. We have three cases:

Case 1. $\bar{G} \cong C_{6}$. Then $G$ is cyclic. If $|G|>6$, then $G$ has a minimal Cayley graph with an induced 5 -cycle as illustrated in Lemma 4.1(1), a contradiction. Thus $G \cong C_{6}$, a contradiction.

Case 2. $\bar{G} \cong S_{3}$. From [6] we know that $G=\left\langle x, y: x^{3}=y^{2^{k}}=1, x^{y}=x^{-1}\right\rangle$ for some $k \geq 1$. For $k \geq 2$, the relation $y^{2^{k}-2} x y x^{-1} y x=1$ defines an induced odd cycle of length $2^{k}+3$ in $\operatorname{Cay}\left(G,\left\{x^{ \pm 1}, y^{ \pm 1}\right\}\right)$. Hence, we must have $k=1$ so that $G \cong S_{3}$, a contradiction.

Case 3. $\bar{G} \cong A_{4}$. Then $\bar{G}=\left\langle\bar{x}, \bar{y}: \bar{x}^{2}=\bar{y}^{3}=(\overline{x y})^{3}=\overline{1}\right\rangle$. Let $P$ and $Q$ be the Sylow 2 -subgroup and a Sylow 3 -subgroup of $G$, respectively. By Theorem 4.2, $P=\left\langle x, x^{y}\right\rangle$ is a maximal subgroup of $G$ and $Q \cong C_{3}$. We may assume $Q=\langle y\rangle$. If $Q^{x} \subseteq \Phi(P) Q$, then $x^{-y} x=[y, x] \in \Phi(P)$, which is impossible as $x^{-y} x$ is a generator of $P$. Thus $y^{x}=x^{\prime} y$ for some $x^{\prime} \in P \backslash \Phi(P)$. Hence, replacing $x$ by $x^{\prime}$ if necessary, we may assume that $(x y)^{3}=1$, from which it follows that $x^{y^{-1}} x^{y} x=1$. Clearly, $|x|=2^{m}>2$ for $G \nsubseteq A_{4}$. Since the group $\left\langle a, b: a^{2^{m}}=b^{2^{m}}=(a b)^{2^{m}}=1\right\rangle$ is infinite, there must exists a relation $w=1$ in $x, x^{y}$ independent of the relations $x^{2^{m}}=1,\left(x^{y}\right)^{2^{m}}=1$ and $\left(x^{y} x\right)^{2^{m}}=1$. Assume $w$ has minimum length among all such relations. Clearly, $|w| \geq 7$ in which $|w|$ denotes the length of $|w|$ as a word in $x, y$. After a suitable cyclic shift and inverse if required, we may assume that $w=x^{a_{1} y} x^{b_{1}} \cdots x^{a_{k} y} x^{b_{k}}$ in which $a_{i}, b_{i} \neq 0$ for $i=1, \ldots, k, a_{1}>0$ and $\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right) \neq(1,1)$. Let us call a word in $x, x^{y}$ is good if it has even length as a word in $x, x^{y}$. Since $\operatorname{Cay}\left(P,\left\{x^{ \pm 1}, x^{ \pm y}\right\}\right)$ is bipartite by Theorem 3.2 and $y \notin P$, one can easily see that a subword $u$ of a good word $u^{*}$ equals an element $g \in\left\{1, x^{ \pm 1}, y^{ \pm 1}\right\}$ only if either $g^{-1} u$ or $u g^{-1}$ is a good subword of $u^{*}$. Having this in mind, $w=1$ gives rise to an induced odd cycle in $\operatorname{Cay}\left(G,\left\{x^{ \pm 1}, y^{ \pm 1}\right\}\right)$ when $|w|$ is odd, which is a contradiction. Thus $|w|$ is even. From $w=1$ we may construct a new relation $w^{\prime}=1$, where $w^{\prime}$ is defined as

$$
w^{\prime}=x^{-y^{-1}} x^{-1} x^{\left(a_{1}-1\right) y} x^{b_{1}} x^{a_{2} y} x^{b_{2}} \cdots x^{a_{k} y} x^{b_{k}}
$$

Suppose $w^{\prime}$ has a proper subword $w^{\prime \prime}$ which is equal to an element $g \in\left\{1, x^{ \pm 1}, y^{ \pm 1}\right\}$ and that neither $g^{-1} w^{\prime \prime}$ nor $w^{\prime \prime} g^{-1}$ is a subword of $w^{\prime}$ otherwise we may replace $w^{\prime \prime}$ by $g^{-1} w^{\prime \prime}$ or $w^{\prime \prime} g^{-1}$ and $g$ by 1 . If $w^{\prime \prime}$ is a subword of $x^{y^{-1}} w^{\prime}$ then, by the argument above, either $g^{-1} w^{\prime \prime}$ or $w^{\prime \prime} g^{-1}$ is a good subword of $x^{y^{-1}} w^{\prime}$ and we may assume $w^{\prime \prime}=1$. Moreover, $w^{\prime \prime}=x^{-1} x^{-y} w^{\prime \prime \prime}$ should be an initial subword of $x^{y^{-1}} w^{\prime}$ in which $w^{\prime \prime \prime}$ is a good initial subword of $w$. But then, it follows that $w^{\prime \prime \prime}=x^{y} x$ contradicting the assumption on $a_{1}, b_{1}$ and the length of $w$. Hence $w^{\prime \prime}$ should contain some letters of the initial term $x^{-y^{-1}}$ of $w^{\prime}$. If $w^{\prime \prime}$ is not an initial subword of $w^{\prime}$, then since $g^{-1} w^{\prime \prime} \equiv w^{\prime \prime} g^{-1} \equiv 1(\bmod P)$, we must have a relation of the form $y w^{\prime \prime} y=1$ in which either $y w^{\prime \prime} y$ is an initial subword of $x^{y^{-1}} w^{\prime}$ or $w^{\prime}$ ends at $x^{a_{i}^{\prime} y}$ with $\left|a_{i}^{\prime}\right|<\left|a_{i}\right|$ as a subword of $x^{a_{i} y}=x^{a_{i}^{\prime} y} x^{\left(a_{i}-a_{i}^{\prime}\right) y}$. Since the former case was ruled out by the above discussions, $\left(y w^{\prime \prime} y\right)^{-1} w^{\prime}=1$ is a relation in which $\left(y w^{\prime \prime} y\right)^{-1} w^{\prime}$ is a proper subword of $w$ contradicting the assumption on $w$. Thus $w^{\prime \prime}=x^{-y^{-1}} x^{-1} w^{\prime \prime \prime}$ is an initial subword of $w^{\prime}$ possessing the initial term $x^{-y^{-1}} x^{-1}$. But then $x^{y} w^{\prime \prime \prime}=g$ where $x^{y} w^{\prime \prime \prime} g^{-1}$ or $g^{-1} x^{y} w^{\prime \prime \prime}$ is a proper subword of $w$ after possibly a cyclic shift contradicting the assumption on $w$. Now, the relation $w^{\prime}=1$ determines an induced odd cycle of length $\left|w^{\prime}\right|=|w|+1$ in $\operatorname{Cay}\left(G,\left\{x^{ \pm 1}, y^{ \pm 1}\right\}\right)$, the final contradiction.

In the sequel, we assume that $l_{f} \geq 3$. Let

$$
\Phi(G)=G_{0} \unlhd G_{1} \unlhd \cdots \unlhd G_{l-1} \unlhd G_{l}=G
$$

be the inverse image of a chief series of $G / \Phi(G)$ and assume $M=G_{l-1}$. From [9, Theorem 2], we know that $G$ has a minimal generating set $X=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{l_{f}}\right\}$ in which $x_{i} \in G_{n_{i}} \backslash G_{n_{i}-1}\left(i=1, \ldots, l_{f}\right)$ is an element of prime power order, $n_{1}=1, n_{f}=l$ and $G_{n_{i}} / G_{n_{i}-1}$ are the non-Frattini factors of the chief series, for $i=1, \ldots, l_{f}$. Replacing the elements of $X$ by suitable conjugates, we can also assume that $x_{i}, x_{j}$ belong to the same Sylow $p$-subgroup whenever $x_{i}, x_{j}$ are both
$p$-elements for some $p=2,3$. Let $Y_{i}=X \backslash\left\{x_{i}\right\}$ for $i=1, \ldots, l_{f}$. First observe the every $x_{i}$ belongs to some $Y_{j}$ having elements of odd and even orders. Hence, by assumption on $G$ and perfectness of $\operatorname{Cay}\left(\left\langle Y_{j}\right\rangle, Y_{j} \cup Y_{j}^{-1}\right)$, it follows that $\left\langle Y_{i}\right\rangle \in \mathcal{C}$ so that $x_{i}$ has prime order. Furthermore, $l_{f}=3$.

We claim that $l=l_{f}$, that is, there are no Frattini factors. Clearly, $Y_{i}$ contains elements of order 2 and 3 for some $i \in\{1,2\}$. Then $G=G_{n_{2}}\left\langle Y_{i}\right\rangle$ implies $G / G_{n_{2}} \cong$ $\left\langle Y_{i}\right\rangle /\left(G_{n_{2}} \cap\left\langle Y_{i}\right\rangle\right) \cong C_{2}$ or $C_{3}$. Hence, $n_{2}=n_{3}-1=l-1$. Therefore, $\Phi\left(G / G_{1}\right)=$ $G_{l-2} / G_{1}$. On the other hand, we have $G / G_{1}=\left\langle G_{1} x_{2}, G_{1} x_{3}\right\rangle$. In case $\left\{\left|x_{2}\right|,\left|x_{3}\right|\right\}=$ $\{2,3\}$, we have $\left\langle x_{2}, x_{3}\right\rangle \in \mathcal{C}$ showing that $l=3$. If $\left|x_{2}\right|=\left|x_{3}\right|=2$, then $G / G_{1}$ is a dihedral 2-group. Clearly, $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2} x_{3}, x_{3}\right\}$ is a minimal generating set of $G$ forcing $\left(x_{2} x_{3}\right)^{2}=1$. Hence, $G_{l-2}=\left\langle G_{1},\left(x_{2} x_{3}\right)^{2}\right\rangle=G_{1}$ and again $l=3$. Finally, assume that $\left|x_{2}\right|=\left|x_{3}\right|=3$. Being a 2-generated 3-group of exponent $3, G / G_{1}$ is isomorphic to $C_{3} \times C_{3}$ or $E_{3}$. Assume $G / G_{1}$ is non-abelian. If $x_{2}, x_{3}$ commute with $x_{1}$, then $G=\left\langle x_{1}\right\rangle \times\left\langle x_{2}, x_{3}\right\rangle$ so that $\left[x_{2}, x_{3}\right] \in \Phi(G)$, a contradiction. Henice, we may assume that $\left[x_{1}, x_{3}\right] \neq 1$. If $\left[x_{1}, x_{2} x_{3}\right] \neq 1$, then since $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2} x_{3}, x_{3}\right\}$ is a minimal generating subset of $G,\left\langle x_{1}, x_{2} x_{3}\right\rangle \cong A_{4}$ by assumption on $G$. Accordingly, $\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right)^{3}=1$ giving rise to an induced 9 -cycle in $\operatorname{Cay}\left(G, X \cup X^{-1}\right)$, a contradiction. Thus, by replacing $x_{2}$ by $x_{2} x_{3}$ if required, we may assume that $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ commute. Since $\left[x_{1}, x_{2} x_{3}^{-1}\right] \neq 1$ and $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{2} x_{3}^{-1}\right\}$ is a minimal generating subset of $G$, we observe that

$$
x_{1} x_{1}^{x_{3}^{-1} x_{2}^{-1}}=\left(x_{1} x_{1}^{x_{3}^{-1}}\right)^{x_{2}^{-1}}=x_{1}^{x_{3} x_{2}^{-1}}=x_{1}^{\left(x_{2} x_{3}^{-1}\right)^{-1}}=x_{1} x_{1}^{x_{2} x_{3}^{-1}}=x_{1} x_{1}^{x_{2}^{-1} x_{3}^{-1}},
$$

which implies that $\left[x_{2}, x_{3}\right]$ commutes with $x_{1}$. Hence, $G=\left\langle x_{1}, x_{1}^{x_{3}}\right\rangle \rtimes\left\langle x_{2}, x_{3}\right\rangle$ and one can verify that $\left[x_{2}, x_{3}\right] \in \Phi(G)$, which is a contradiction. Thus $G / G_{1}$ is abelian and consequently $l=3$, as required. In addition, we have shown that when $\left|x_{2}\right|=\left|x_{3}\right|=p$, either $\left\langle x_{2}, x_{3}\right\rangle \cong C_{p} \times C_{p}$ or $G \cong E_{3}$ with $\left[x_{2}, x_{3}\right] \in \Phi(G)$.

Further we show that every involution $x_{u} \in X$ acts by inversion on $\Phi(G)$ and that $\Phi(G)$ is elementary abelian when $\left\langle x_{u}, x_{v}\right\rangle \cong A_{4}$ for some $x_{v} \in X$. To end this, let $g \in \Phi(G)$. Since $x_{u}$ can be replaced with $g x_{u}$ in $X$, we deduce that $\left(g x_{u}\right)^{2}=1$, that is, $g^{x_{u}}=g^{-1}$. Replacing $x_{u}$ by $x_{u}^{x_{v}^{ \pm 1}}$ in $X$ results in a new minimal generating subset, from which it follows that $g^{x_{u}^{x_{u}^{ \pm 1}}}=g^{-1}$. Hence, $g^{-1}=g^{x_{u}^{x_{u}^{-1}}}=g^{x_{u} x_{u}^{x_{v}}}=g$, as claimed.

Now, put $H=\left\langle Y_{3}\right\rangle$. Since Cay $\left(H, Y_{3} \cup Y_{3}^{-1}\right)$ is an induced subgraph of Cay $(G, X \cup$ $X^{-1}$ ), it is perfect. We distinguish three cases:

Case $1^{\prime} . H$ is a 2 -group. Then $[G: M]=3$ and $M$ is the Sylow 2-subgroup of $G$ by Theorem 4.2 and the fact that the Sylow 3 -subgroups of $G$ have exponent three. Moreover, since $\Phi(G)=\Phi(M)$, it follows that $\bar{M}$ is elementary abelian. As $\operatorname{Cay}\left(\left\langle Y_{i}\right\rangle, Y_{i} \cup Y_{i}^{-1}\right)$ is perfect for $i=1,2$, the minimality of $G$ shows that $\left\langle Y_{i}\right\rangle \in \mathcal{C}$ and subsequently $\left\langle Y_{i}\right\rangle \cong C_{6}$ or $A_{4}$. Hence, $|\bar{M}| \leq 16$. First suppose that $\left\langle x_{1}, x_{3}\right\rangle \cong\left\langle x_{2}, x_{3}\right\rangle \cong C_{6}$. Then $M=H, G / \Phi(G) \cong C_{6} \times C_{2}$ and $G$ is nilpotent. If $M \backslash \Phi(M)$ contains an element $x$ of order $\geq 4$, then Lemma 4.1(1) shows that the Cayley graph corresponding to every minimal generating subset of $G$ containing $x$ and $x_{3}$ contains an induced 5 -cycle, a contradiction. Thus $M \backslash \Phi(M)$ contains only involutions, which yields $M \cong C_{2} \times C_{2}$. Hence, $G \cong C_{6} \times C_{2}$ contradicting the choice of $G$. Thus, $\left\langle x_{i}, x_{3}\right\rangle \cong A_{4}$ for some $i=1,2$. We show that $\left\langle x_{j}, x_{3}\right\rangle \cong C_{6}$ for $j \in\{1,2\} \backslash\{i\}$. Indeed, if $\left\langle x_{2}, x_{3}\right\rangle \cong A_{4}$, then $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{2} x_{3}\right\}$ is a minimal generating subset of $G$ and $\left|x_{2} x_{3}\right|=3$, from which it follows that $\left\langle x_{1}, x_{2} x_{3}\right\rangle \cong C_{6}$. Otherwise $\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right)^{3}=1$ and hence we obtain an induced 9 -cycle in $\operatorname{Cay}\left(G, X \cup X^{-1}\right)$. Thus,
by replacing $x_{3}$ by $x_{2} x_{3}$ if necessary, we may assume that $x_{1}$ and $x_{3}$ commute, as required. Hence, $\Phi(G)$ is elementary abelian as shown before. For $g \in \Phi(G)$, we observe that $\left(g x_{i}\right)^{x_{3}^{-1}}=\left(g x_{i}\right)\left(g x_{i}\right)^{x_{3}}$ and $\left(g x_{j}\right)^{x_{3}}=\left(g x_{j}\right)$ for $x_{i}$ can be replaced by $g x_{i}$ in $X$. Thus $g^{x_{3}^{-1}}=g g^{x_{3}}=1$, which yields $g=1$. Therefore, $\Phi(G)=1$. Now, it is obvious that $G \cong A_{4} \times C_{2}$. Putting $a:=x_{3}^{x_{i}}$ and $b:=x_{j} x_{3}$, we observe that $G=\langle a, b\rangle$ and $\operatorname{Cay}\left(G,\left\{a^{ \pm 1}, b^{ \pm 1}\right\}\right)$ has an induced 7 -cycle determined by $b^{-1} a b a b^{2} a^{-1}=1$, which is impossible.

Case $2^{\prime} . H$ is a 3 -group. Then $[G: M]=2$ and $M$ is the Sylow 3 -subgroup of $G$ by Theorem 4.2. As in case $1^{\prime}$, for $i=1,2$, we have $\left\langle Y_{i}\right\rangle \in \mathcal{C}$ showing that $\left\langle Y_{i}\right\rangle \cong C_{6}$ or $S_{3}$. Hence, $x_{i}^{x_{3}}=x_{i}^{\epsilon_{i}}$ with $\epsilon_{i}= \pm 1$ for $i=1,2$. Moreover, $M=H$ is a group of order 9 or 27 . Let $w=x_{2} x_{1}^{-1} x_{2}^{-1} x_{1}$. Then $\operatorname{Cay}\left(G, X \cup X^{-1}\right)$ has an induced 7 -cycle or 11-cycle determined by the relation $x_{3} x_{2}^{\epsilon_{2}} x_{1}^{-\epsilon_{1}} x_{3} x_{2} x_{1} w x_{2}=1$ according as $w=1$ or not, respectively, which is a contradiction.

Case $3^{\prime} . H$ is neither a 2 -group nor a 3 -group. By assumption, $H \in \mathcal{C}$ so that $H \cong C_{6}, S_{3}$ or $A_{4}$. Assume $\left|x_{i}\right|=2$ and $\left|x_{j}\right|=3$ for $\{i, j\}=\{1,2\}$. Let $k \in\{1,2\}$ be such that $\left|x_{k}\right| \neq\left|x_{3}\right|$. As $\left\langle x_{k}, x_{3}\right\rangle \in \mathcal{C}$, we also have $\left\langle x_{k}, x_{3}\right\rangle \cong C_{6}, S_{3}$ or $A_{4}$.

First assume that $\left|x_{2}\right|=\left|x_{3}\right|=p$. If $p=2$ then $\left[x_{2}, x_{3}\right]=1$ and $x_{1}^{x_{2}}, x_{1}^{x_{3}} \in\left\langle x_{1}\right\rangle$, from which it follows that $G \cong C_{6} \times C_{2}$ or $S_{3} \times C_{2}$ contradicting the assumption on $G$. Thus $p=3$. As in case $1^{\prime}$, we may assume that $x_{1}$ commutes with $x_{3}$ and consequently $x_{1}$ commutes with $\left[x_{2}, x_{3}\right]$ as shown before. Hence, $G=\left\langle x_{1}\right\rangle \times\left\langle x_{2}, x_{3}\right\rangle$ if $\left[x_{1}, x_{2}\right]=1$ and $G=\left\langle x_{1}, x_{1}^{x_{2}}\right\rangle \rtimes\left\langle x_{2}, x_{3}\right\rangle$ if $\left[x_{1}, x_{2}\right] \neq 1$. In the former case, $x_{1} x_{2} x_{3} x_{2}^{-1} x_{1} x_{2}^{-1} x_{3} x_{2} x_{3}=1$ determines an induced 9 -cycle in Cay $\left(G, X \cup X^{-1}\right.$ ), a contradiction. Also, in the latter case, the relation $\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right)^{2} w x_{1} x_{3} x_{2}=1$ in which $w=1$ or $x_{2}^{-1} x_{3}^{-1} x_{2} x_{3}$ according as $\left[x_{2}, x_{3}\right]=1$ or not, determines an induced 9 -cycle or 13 -cycle in $\operatorname{Cay}\left(G, X \cup X^{-1}\right)$, respectively, which is a contradiction.

Thus, we have left with the case $\left|x_{2}\right| \neq\left|x_{3}\right|$. If $x_{2}$ and $x_{3}$ commute, then we can interchanging $x_{2}$ and $x_{3}$ after which $H$ will be a 2 -group or a 3 -group. Hence, without loss of generality, we assume that $\left[x_{2}, x_{3}\right] \neq 1$. In the case $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ commute, $\left\langle x_{2}, x_{2}^{x_{3}}, x_{2}^{x_{3}^{-1}}\right\rangle$ is an elementary abelian normal subgroup of $G$ otherwise $\left[x_{1}, x_{3}\right]$ does not commutes with $x_{2}$ so that $\left\langle x_{2}, x_{3}\right\rangle \cong A_{4}$ and $\left(x_{1}^{x_{3}}\right)^{x_{2}}=$ $\left(x_{1}^{x_{3}}\right)^{-1}$. Then $\left[x_{1}, x_{3}\right]^{x_{2}}=x_{1}\left[x_{3}, x_{1}\right]$, which implies that $\left\{\left[x_{1}, x_{3}\right], x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$ is a minimal generating subset of $G$. But then, we must have $\left\langle\left[x_{1}, x_{3}\right], x_{2}\right\rangle \cong C_{6}$ or $S_{3}$, which is impossible. It means we can also interchange $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ after which we are in the situation that $\left|x_{2}\right|=\left|x_{3}\right|$ as discussed above. Thus, we may further assume that $\left[x_{1}, x_{2}\right] \neq 1$. As a result, $\left\langle x_{1}, x_{2}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle x_{k}, x_{3}\right\rangle$ are isomorphic to $S_{3}$ and $A_{4}$ in some order, which implies that $\Phi(G)$ is an elementary abelian subgroup of $G$. Now, we have only two possibilities. If $\left(\left|x_{1}\right|,\left|x_{2}\right|,\left|x_{3}\right|\right)=(2,3,2)$, then $\left\langle x_{1}, x_{2}\right\rangle \cong A_{4}$ and $\left\langle x_{2}, x_{3}\right\rangle \cong S_{3}$. Clearly, $\left\langle x_{1}, x_{3}\right\rangle$ is a dihedral 2-group. If $\left|x_{1} x_{3}\right|=2^{m}$, then we observe that $\operatorname{Cay}\left(G, X \cup X^{-1}\right)$ contains an induced ( $2^{m+1}+5$ )-cycle determined by $\left(x_{1} x_{2}\right)^{2}\left(x_{3} x_{1}\right)^{2^{m}-1} x_{2} x_{3} x_{2}^{-1}=1$, which is a contradiction. Thus, we should have $\left(\left|x_{1}\right|,\left|x_{2}\right|,\left|x_{3}\right|\right)=(3,2,3)$. Then $\left\langle x_{1}, x_{2}\right\rangle \cong S_{3}$ and $\left\langle x_{2}, x_{3}\right\rangle \cong A_{4}$, hence $\left|x_{2} x_{3}\right|=3$. Let $Q$ be a Sylow 3-subgroup of $G$ containing $x_{2} x_{3}$. Let $y \in \Phi(G)\left\langle x_{2}, x_{2}^{x_{3}}\right\rangle$, a Sylow 2-subgroup of $G$, be such that $x_{1}^{y} \in Q$. Replacing $x_{1}$ by $x_{1}^{y}$ in $X$, one can assume that $x_{1} \in Q$. Being elements of $Q$, it follows that $\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right)^{3}=1$ giving rise to an induced 9 -cycle in $\operatorname{Cay}\left(G, X \cup X^{-1}\right)$, the final contradiction. The proof is complete.

Utilizing the above theorem, it is now easy to obtain the classification of all Cayley perfect finite groups.

Theorem 4.4. Let $G$ be a nontrivial finite group. Then $G$ is a Cayley perfect group if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to one of the groups $C_{2}, C_{3}, C_{4}, C_{2} \times C_{2}, S_{3}, C_{6}$, $C_{2} \times C_{2} \times C_{2}, C_{2} \times C_{4}, D_{8} ; Q_{8} ; C_{3} \times C_{3}$.

Proof. Assume $G$ is a Cayley perfect group. By Theorem 4.3, either $G$ is a 2 -group or $G$ is isomorphic to one of the groups $C_{3}, C_{6}, S_{3}, C_{3} \times C_{3}, A_{4}$ or $E_{3}$. From rows (9) and (10) of Table I, it follows that $G \nsupseteq A_{4}$ and $E_{3}$. Furthermore, if $G$ is a 2-group, by Lemma 4.1(2) and rows (1)-(8) of Table I, we observe that $|G| \leq 8$. Hence, $G \cong C_{2}, C_{4}, C_{2} \times C_{2}, C_{4} \times C_{2}, C_{2} \times C_{2} \times C_{2}, D_{8}$ or $Q_{8}$ and the result follows. The converse is straightforward.

Table I

|  | $G$ : | $S$ | 5-cycle |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | $\langle a\rangle \times\langle b\rangle,\|a\|=\|b\|=4$ | $\left\{a^{ \pm 1}, b^{ \pm 1}, a^{2} b^{2}\right\}$ | $1, a^{-1},(a b)^{-1}, a b, a, 1$ |
| 2 | $\left\langle a, b: a^{4}=b^{4}=1,[a, b]=a^{2}\right\rangle$ | $\left\{a^{ \pm 1}, b^{ \pm 1}, a^{2} b^{2}\right\}$ | $1, a^{-1},(b a)^{-1}, a b, a, 1$ |
| 3 | $\langle a\rangle \times\langle b\rangle \times\langle c\rangle,\|a\|=4,\|b\|=\|c\|=2$ | $\left\{a^{ \pm 1}, b, c, a^{2} b c\right\}$ | $1, c, c a^{-1}, b a, b, 1$ |
| 4 | $\left\langle a, b, c: a^{4}=b^{2}=c^{2}=1, a^{c}=a^{-1} b\right\rangle$ | $\left\{a^{ \pm 1}, b, c\right\}$ | $1, c, c a^{-1}, b a, b, 1$ |
| 5 | $\begin{gathered} \left\langle a, b, c: b^{2}=c^{2}=[a, b]=[a, c]=1,\right. \\ \left.[b, c]=a^{2}\right\rangle \end{gathered}$ | $\left\{a^{ \pm 1}, b ; c, a^{2} b c\right\}$ | $1, a^{-1}, a^{-1} c, a b, a, 1$ |
| 6 | $\begin{gathered} \left\langle a, b: a^{4}=b^{2}=1, a^{b}=a^{-1}\right\rangle \times\langle c\rangle \\ \|c\|=2 \end{gathered}$ | $\left\{a^{ \pm 1}, b, c, a^{2} b c\right\}$ | $1, a^{-1}, a^{-1} c, a b, a, 1$ |
| 7 | $\begin{gathered} \left\langle a, b: a^{4}=1, a^{2}=b^{2}, a^{b}=a^{-1}\right\rangle \times\langle c\rangle \\ \|c\|=2 \end{gathered}$ | $\left\{a^{ \pm 1}, b^{ \pm 1}, c,\left(a^{2} b^{-1} c\right)^{ \pm 1}\right\}$ | $1, a^{-1}, a^{-1} c, a b, a, 1$ |
| 8 | $\begin{gathered} \langle a\rangle \times\langle b\rangle \times\langle c\rangle \times\langle d\rangle \\ \|a\|=\|b\|=\|c\|=\|d\|=2 \end{gathered}$ | $\{a, b, c, d, a b c d\}$ | $1, a, a b, a b c, a b c d, 1$ |
| 9 | $\begin{gathered} \left\langle a, b, c: a^{3}=b^{3}=[a, c]=[b, c]=1,\right. \\ c=[a, b]\rangle \end{gathered}$ | $\left\{a^{ \pm 1}, b^{ \pm 1}, c^{ \pm 1},\left(a^{-1} b c\right)^{ \pm 1}\right\}$ | $1, a, a c, b c^{-1}, b, 1$ |
| 10 | $\left\langle a, b: a^{2}=b^{3}=(a b)^{3}=1\right\rangle$ | $\left\{a, b^{ \pm 1}, a^{b}\right\}$ | $1, a^{b}, b^{a}, a b, a, 1$ |

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## (MINIMAL) CAYLEY $\mathcal{P}$-GROUPS

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