4-Circulant Graphs

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Abstract

A 4-regular graph G is called a 4-circulant if its adjacency matrix A(G) is a circulant matrix. Because of the special structure of the eigenvalues of A(G), the rank of such graphs is completely determined. We show how all disconnected 4-circulants are made up of connected 4-circulants and classify all connected 4-circulants as isomorphic to one of two basic types.

1 Introduction.

In this paper, we consider the class of graphs called circulant graphs. Let S be any subset of $\{1, 2, \ldots, n-1\}$ such that $S = -S \mod n$. A graph G with vertex set $\{0, 1, 2, \ldots, n-1\}$ is called a *circulant graph* if two vertices i and j are adjacent if and only if $(i-j) \mod n \in S$. The adjacency matrix A(G) is a *circulant matrix*, i.e., $a_{i,j} = a_{i-1,j-1}$ with the subscript calculation done mod n. In other words, row (i+1) of the matrix is a cyclic right shift one position from row (i).

The study of circulant graphs is an interesting blend of ideas and techniques from linear algebra, number theory, abstract algebra and graph theory. Our study of circulants began with our interest in the rank of A(G) [1, 2, 3, 6, 9]. Much is known about the eigenvalues of the adjacency matrix of a graph in general [5] and circulants in particular [8] that this work is a natural extension.

In what follows, we consider circulant graphs where |S|=4, i.e. the 4-circulant graphs. Some elementary results reveal when such graphs are connected, and, if not, the number of isomorphic connected components. We provide these results in Section 2. The rank of A(G) for connected circulants turns out to be determined by a formula which we develop in Section 3. Having settled the rank question, we turn to the underlying structure of connected 4-circulant graphs.

In Section 4 we review the structure of connected 2- and 3-circulants and show how each connected 4-circulant is isomorphic to one of two basic types. In the final section we outline plans for the more general k-circulant case.

2 Connectivity Structure.

The first step in understanding circulant graphs is to understand their connectivity. A result of Broere [4] settles this issue.

Theorem 1 Let G be a circulant graph with n vertices formed by $S = \{s_1, \ldots, s_k\}$. If $d = \gcd(s_1, \ldots, s_k, n)$, then G has d connected components each isomorphic to a circulant graph on $\frac{n}{d}$ vertices formed by $S' = \{\frac{s_1}{d}, \ldots, \frac{s_k}{d}\}$.

Thus, in what follows, we need only consider connected circulants.

For S to be a four-element subset of $\{0, 1, 2, ..., n-1\}$ such that S = -S mod n, it is clear that S must have the form $S = \{a, b, n-b, n-a\}$, with $a \neq b$, $a < \frac{n}{2}$, $b < \frac{n}{2}$. We can then apply the above theorem to the specific 4-circulant case as follows.

Corollary 1 Let $S = \{a, b, n-b, n-a\}$. If gcd(a, b, n) = d, then the circulant graph with n vertices formed by S has d components each isomorphic to the circulant graph on $\frac{n}{d}$ vertices formed by $S' = \{\frac{a}{d}, \frac{b}{d}, \frac{n-b}{d}, \frac{n-a}{d}\}$.

It is clear from the above that although the set S has four elements, it is completely determined by the three values a, b and n. We therefore employ a compact notation for 4-circulant graphs. From now on, we denote the 4-circulant graph on n vertices formed by $S = \{a, b, n - b, n - a\}$ by $4C_n(a, b)$.

A simple example illustrates these ideas (see Figure 1). The figure represents $4C_{12}(2,4)$. As the gcd(2,4,12)=2, the graph is made up of two connected components, each isomorphic to $4C_6(1,2)$. These connected components are shown in Figure 2.

3 Rank of A(G).

The eigenvalue structure of circulant matrices is well known [8]. In fact, the p-th eigenvalue λ_p of $4C_n(a,b)$ is given by $\lambda_p = \omega^{ap} + \omega^{bp} + \omega^{(n-b)p} + \omega^{(n-a)p}$, where $\omega = e^{2\pi i/n}$. The number of distinct values of p for which $\lambda_p = 0$ is the dimension of the null space of A(G), i.e. its nullity. Since the sum of

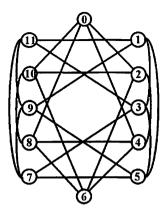


Figure 1: $4C_{12}(2,4)$.

the rank and nullity of a matrix is always equal to the number of columns in it, knowing the nullity uniquely determines the rank.

Exploring the equation of $\lambda_p = 0$, and the number of ways that it can be satisfied, carries us quickly into number theory. The following lemma on the solvability of equations will prove useful in this regard.

Lemma 1 Let n be a positive integer, $m, k \in \mathbf{Z}_n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$, and $d = \gcd(m, n)$. Then $mx \equiv k \pmod{n}$ has exactly d solutions in \mathbf{Z}_n if and only if d divides k. Furthermore if d does not divide k, then $mx \equiv k \pmod{n}$ has no solutions in \mathbf{Z}_n .

The next lemma gives the conditions under which an eigenvalue will be zero.

Lemma 2 Let $G = 4C_n(a,b)$. Then the eigenvalue $\lambda_p = \omega^{ap} + \omega^{bp} + \omega^{(n-b)p} + \omega^{(n-a)p} = 0$ if and only if either 2(b-a)p = (2k+1)n or 2(n-b-a)p = (2k+1)n for some integer k.

Proof: Suppose $G=4C_n(a,b)$. Then the eigenvalue $\lambda_p=\omega^{ap}+\omega^{bp}+\omega^{(n-b)p}+\omega^{(n-a)p}=0$ if and only if $\omega^{ap}(1+\omega^{(b-a)p}+\omega^{(n-b-a)p}+\omega^{(n-2a)p})=0$. Since $\omega^{ap}\neq 0$, then

$$1 + \omega^{(b-a)p} + \omega^{(n-b-a)p} + \omega^{(n-2a)p} = 0.$$
 (1)

Now, $\omega^k = \cos(\frac{2\pi k}{n}) + i\sin(\frac{2\pi k}{n})$. So, (1) holds if and only if

$$\cos(0) + \cos\frac{(b-a)p \cdot 2\pi}{n} + \cos\frac{(n-b-a)p \cdot 2\pi}{n} + \cos\frac{(n-2a)p \cdot 2\pi}{n} = 0$$
(2)

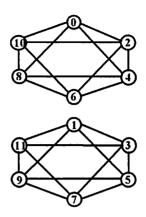


Figure 2: The two connected components of $4C_{12}(2,4)$.

and

$$\sin(0) + \sin\frac{(b-a)p \cdot 2\pi}{n} + \sin\frac{(n-b-a)p \cdot 2\pi}{n} + \sin\frac{(n-2a)p \cdot 2\pi}{n} = 0.$$
 (3)

Define $\alpha \equiv \frac{(b-a)p\cdot 2\pi}{n}$ and $\beta \equiv \frac{(n-b-a)p\cdot 2\pi}{n}$. Then, $\alpha + \beta = \frac{(n-2a)p\cdot 2\pi}{n}$. Hence, (2) and (3) become

$$\cos \alpha + \cos \beta + \cos(\alpha + \beta) = -1 \tag{4}$$

and

$$\sin \alpha + \sin \beta + \sin(\alpha + \beta) = 0. \tag{5}$$

 $\sin \alpha + \sin \beta = -\sin(\alpha + \beta)$

Now, from (5)

$$\sin^{2}\alpha + 2\sin\alpha\sin\beta + \sin^{2}\beta = \sin^{2}(\alpha + \beta)$$

$$(1 - \cos^{2}\alpha) + 2(\cos\alpha\cos\beta - \cos(\alpha + \beta)) + (1 - \cos^{2}\beta) = 1 - \cos^{2}(\alpha + \beta) \Rightarrow$$

$$\cos^{2}(\alpha + \beta) - 2\cos(\alpha + \beta) + 1 = \cos^{2}\alpha - 2\cos\alpha\cos\beta + \cos^{2}\beta \Rightarrow$$

$$(\cos(\alpha + \beta) - 1)^{2} = (\cos\alpha - \cos\beta)^{2}$$

This means either

$$\cos(\alpha + \beta) - 1 = \cos\alpha - \cos\beta \tag{6}$$

or

$$\cos(\alpha + \beta) - 1 = -\cos\alpha + \cos\beta \tag{7}$$

Combining (6) and (4) we get

$$2\cos\alpha + 2 = 0$$

 $\cos\alpha = -1$
 $\alpha = (2k+1)\pi$ where k is an integer

Hence,

$$\frac{(b-a)p \cdot 2\pi}{n} = (2k+1)\pi$$

or

$$2(b-a)p = (2k+1)n.$$

Similarly, combining (7) and (4) we get

$$2(n-b-a)p = (2k+1)n$$

and our result holds.

As a first application of these properties, we show that 4-circulants on an odd number of vertices always have full rank.

Theorem 2 Let n be odd and $G = 4C_n(a,b)$. Then rank(A(G)) = n.

Proof: By Lemma 2, if n is odd, then in the equations

$$2(b-a)p = (2k+1)n$$
 and $2(n-b-a)p = (2k+1)n$

the left hand sides are even while the right hand sides are odd. Since this can never happen, none of the eigenvalues can be 0. Therefore, rank(G) = n.

Combining these ideas with those of the connectivity of G, many "special case" type results can be generated. Typical of this kind of corollary is the following.

Corollary 2 Let $n \equiv 2 \mod 4$ and $G = 4C_n(a, b)$. If gcd(n, a, b) = 2, then rank(G) = n.

Proof: By Corollary 1, G is isomorphic to two circulants on $\frac{n}{2}$ vertices, where $\frac{n}{2}$ is odd. Then by Theorem 2, they are each full rank.

We now work toward a formula that will give the rank of any 4-circulant. The following is a necessary and sufficient condition for an eigenvalue to be zero.

Theorem 3 Let n be even and $G = 4C_n(a,b)$. Then G has an eigenvalue $\lambda_p = 0$ if and only if $d_1 = \gcd(b-a,n)$ divides $\frac{n}{2}$ or $d_2 = \gcd(n-b-a,n)$ divides $\frac{n}{2}$

Proof: If $G = 4C_n(a, b)$, then by Lemma 2, the eigenvalue, λ_p , of A(G) equals 0 if and only if

$$2(b-a)p = (2k+1)n$$
 or $2(n-b-a)p = (2k+1)n$.

This is equivalent to

$$(b-a)p = (2k+1)\frac{n}{2} = kn + \frac{n}{2} \equiv \frac{n}{2} \pmod{n}$$
 (8)

or

$$(n-b-a)p = (2k+1)\frac{n}{2} = kn + \frac{n}{2} \equiv \frac{n}{2} \pmod{n}.$$
 (9)

By Lemma 1, if $gcd(b-a,n)=d_1$, then $(b-a)p\equiv \frac{n}{2}\pmod{n}$ has d_1 solutions if and only if d_1 divides $\frac{n}{2}$. Similarly, if $gcd(n-b-a,n)=d_2$, then $(n-b-a)p\equiv \frac{n}{2}\pmod{n}$ has d_2 solutions if and only if d_2 divides $\frac{n}{2}$.

Knowing how many solutions exist for each congruence is only part of the story. To precisely determine the rank of A(G), we need to know the number of distinct solutions to the simultaneous system of congruencies. We will need the following generalization of the Chinese Remainder Theorem.

Theorem 4 (The Generalized Chinese Remainder Theorem) The system of congruencies

 $x \equiv c_1 \mod m_1$

 $x \equiv c_2 \mod m_2$

 $x \equiv c_r \mod m_r$

is solvable if and only if $gcd(m_i, m_j)$ divides $c_i - c_j$ for every i and j where $i \neq j$. If there is a solution, it is unique modulo $lcm(m_1, m_2, ..., m_r)$.

The following corollary is a special case of the Chinese Remainder Theorem.

Corollary 3 The system of congruencies

 $rx \equiv \frac{n}{2} \mod n$

 $sx \equiv \frac{\tilde{n}}{2} \mod n$

for n even, has a solution if and only if $gcd(\frac{n}{d_1}, \frac{n}{d_2})$ divides $\frac{n(d_2-d_1)}{2d_1d_2}$, where $d_1 = gcd(r, n)$ and $d_2 = gcd(s, n)$. If the system is solvable, there are exactly $gcd(d_1, d_2) = d$ solutions.

Proof: Let $d_1 = \gcd(r, n)$ and $d_2 = \gcd(s, n)$. Then by Lemma 1, $rx \equiv \frac{n}{2} \mod n$ is solvable if and only if d_1 divides $\frac{n}{2}$, and $sx \equiv \frac{n}{2} \mod n$ is solvable if and only if d_2 divides $\frac{n}{2}$. If one congruence is not solvable, the system is not solvable. So assume that d_1 divides $\frac{n}{2}$ and d_2 divides $\frac{n}{2}$. The goal is to reduce the system of congruencies so that there are no coefficients for x. This will allow the use of Theorem 4.

The claim is that $\frac{n}{2d_1}$ is a solution to $rx \equiv \frac{n}{2} \mod n$ and $\frac{n}{2d_2}$ is a solution to $sx \equiv \frac{n}{2} \mod n$. For $\frac{n}{2d_1}$ to be a solution to $rx \equiv \frac{n}{2} \mod n$, n must divide $\frac{rn}{2d_1} - \frac{n}{2} = n(\frac{r-d_1}{2d_1})$. This will happen if and only if $\frac{r-d_1}{2d_1}$ is an integer. Thus the investigation turns to the nature of $\frac{r-d_1}{2d_1}$.

By factoring out the highest powers of 2 in n and r it is seen that n = n

By factoring out the highest powers of 2 in n and r it is seen that $n=2^{\nu}j$ and $r=2^{\rho}k$, where j and k are odd. Then $d_1=2^{\min\{\nu,\rho\}}\gcd(j,k)$. Now since d_1 divides $\frac{n}{2}$, $2^{\min\{\nu,\rho\}}\gcd(j,k)$ divides $2^{\nu-1}j$. Clearly $\gcd(j,k)$ divides j, but since $2^{\min\{\nu,\rho\}}$ divides $2^{\nu-1}$ it must be that $\min\{\nu,\rho\} \leq \nu-1$, implying $\min\{\nu,\rho\} = \rho$. Thus $d_1=2^{\rho}\gcd(j,k)$. Also, since $d_1=\gcd(n.r)$, there exists $q \in \mathbf{Z}$ such that $d_1q=r$. Thus $2^{\rho}\gcd(j,k)q=2^{\rho}k$, which implies that $\gcd(j,k)q=k$. Therefore q must be odd since both k and $\gcd(j,k)$ are odd. Hence q=2m+1, for some $m \in \mathbf{Z}$, so that $r=d_1(2m+1)=2d_1m+d_1$, implying $2d_1m=r-d_1$. Therefore $\frac{r-d_1}{2d_1}$ is an integer. This establishes the claim that $\frac{n}{2d_1}$ is a solution to $rx\equiv\frac{n}{2}\bmod n$. Similarly, $\frac{n}{2d_2}$ is a solution to $sx\equiv\frac{n}{2}\bmod n$.

Similarly, $\frac{n}{2d_2}$ is a solution to $sx \equiv \frac{n}{2} \mod n$. Since the particular solutions $\frac{n}{2d_1}$ and $\frac{n}{2d_2}$ are unique solutions modulo $\frac{n}{d_1}$ and $\frac{n}{d_2}$ respectively, to the original system, these congruencies are equivalent to the following reduced system

$$x \equiv \frac{n}{2d_1} \mod \frac{n}{d_1}$$
$$x \equiv \frac{n}{2d_2} \mod \frac{n}{d_2}.$$

Each of these reduced congruencies have only one solution modulo $\frac{n}{d_1}$ and $\frac{n}{d_2}$, respectively. On applying Theorem 4, the reduced system has a solution if and only if $\gcd(\frac{n}{d_1}, \frac{n}{d_2})$ divides $\frac{n}{2d_1} - \frac{n}{2d_2} = \frac{n(d_2 - d_1)}{2d_1 d_2}$, which implies that the original system has a solution if and only if $\gcd(\frac{n}{d_1}, \frac{n}{d_2})$ divides $\frac{n(d_2 - d_1)}{2d_1 d_2}$.

The number of solutions to the original system of congruencies is shown presently. Assume there is a solution to the reduced system. Then by Theorem 4, the solution is unique modulo $\operatorname{lcm}(\frac{n}{d_1}, \frac{n}{d_2}) = N$. If x_0 is the unique solution modulo N, the general solutions modulo n for the original congruencies are given by $x_0 + jN$, $j = 0, 1, ..., \frac{n}{N} - 1$. Thus, there are exactly $\frac{n}{N} = \frac{n}{|\operatorname{cm}(\frac{n}{d_1}, \frac{n}{d_2})|} = \frac{n}{|\operatorname{gcd}(d_1, d_2)|} = \gcd(d_1, d_2) = d$ solutions.

Now the theory is in place for the statement and proof of a formula for the rank of 4-circulant graphs with an even number of vertices.

Theorem 5 Let n be even and $G = 4C_n(a, b)$. Then $rank(A(G)) = n - d_1 - d_2 + d_3$, where

$$d_1 = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \gcd(b-a,n) & \text{if } \gcd(b-a,n) \ divides \ \frac{n}{2} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$d_2 = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \gcd(b+a,n) & \text{if } \gcd(b+a,n) \ divides \ \frac{n}{2} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right\} and$$

$$d_3 = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \gcd(d_1,d_2) & \text{if } d_1,d_2 \ are \ nonzero \ and } \gcd(\frac{n}{d_1},\frac{n}{d_2}) \ divides \ \frac{n(d_2-d_1)}{2d_1d_2} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right\}$$

Proof. If $G = 4C_n(a, b)$, then by Theorem 3, the eigenvalue, λ_p , of A(G)is zero if and only if

$$(b-a)p \equiv \frac{n}{2} \mod n$$
 or $(b+a)p \equiv \frac{n}{2} \mod n$.

Recall that $(b-a)p \equiv \frac{n}{2} \mod n$ has gcd(b-a,n) solutions if and only if gcd(b-a,n) divides $\frac{n}{2}$. Similarly, $(b+a)p \equiv \frac{n}{2} \mod n$ has gcd(b+a,n)solutions if and only if gcd(b+a,n) divides $\frac{n}{2}$. However, the solutions to these congruencies could overlap. This will occur if and only if the system of congruencies

$$(b-a)p \equiv \frac{n}{2} \mod n$$

 $(b+a)p \equiv \frac{n}{2} \mod n$

has a solution. Define the following conditional values as follows:

$$d_1 = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} \gcd(b-a,n) & ext{if } \gcd(b-a,n) & ext{divides } rac{n}{2} \\ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{array}
ight\} ext{ and } \ d_2 = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} \gcd(b+a,n) & ext{if } \gcd(b+a,n) & ext{divides } rac{n}{2} \\ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{array}
ight\}.$$

Then by Corollary 3, the system is solvable if and only if

$$\gcd\left(\frac{n}{d_1}, \frac{n}{d_2}\right)$$
 divides $\frac{n(d_2 - d_1)}{2d_1d_2}$, where d_1 and d_2 are nonzero,

in which case there are $gcd(d_1, d_2)$ solutions to the system. Finally, the quantity

$$d_3 = \begin{cases} \gcd(d_1, d_2) & \text{if } d_1, d_2 \text{ are nonzero and } \gcd(\frac{n}{d_1}, \frac{n}{d_2}) \text{ divides } \frac{n(d_2 - d_1)}{2d_1 d_2} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

gives the number of overlapping solutions to the system of congruencies. Hence, the number of zero-valued eigenvalues is $d_1 + d_2 - d_3$. Therefore, $rank(A(G)) = n - d_1 - d_2 + d_3$.

We have determined the rank of the adjacency matrix for any 4-circulant. We now turn to the problem of classifying these graphs.

4 Classification.

Before classifying all connected 4-circulants, we briefly review the types of connected 2- and 3-circulant graphs. For 2-circulants, there is only one type.

Theorem 6. Let G be the connected 2-circulant on n vertices formed by $S = \{a, n-a\}$, i.e., $2C_n(a)$. Then G is isomorphic to the cycle on n vertices C_n .

Proof. Let $G = 2C_n(a)$. Since G is connected, gcd(a, n) = 1. Thus the cyclic group of \mathbb{Z}_n generated by a is \mathbb{Z}_n ; in other words, the elements of $\langle a \rangle = \{0, a, 2a, ..., (n-1)a\}$ are all distinct modulo n. Therefore, G is a cycle on n vertices.

Now 3-circulants are formed by a three-element set $S = \{a, \frac{n}{2}, n-a\}$. These are the only sets for which $S = -S \mod n$. We denote a general 3-circulant by $3C_n(a)$. It turns out that all connected 3-circulants are isomorphic to one of two basic types. The primary quantity that distinguishes the two types is $\frac{n}{d}$, where $d = \gcd(a, n)$.

Theorem 7. Let $G=3C_n(a)$, and $d=\gcd(a,n)$. If $\frac{n}{d}$ is even, then G has d components, each isomorphic to $3C_{\frac{n}{d}}(1)$. If $\frac{n}{d}$ is odd, then G has $\frac{d}{2}$ components, each isomorphic to $C_{\frac{n}{2}}\times P_2$.

Proof. [7].

When classifying 4-circulants, the fact that set S has four elements and three parameters makes the situation significantly more complicated. There are still two basic types, but the types are fundamentally different. Some $4C_n(a,b)$ are isomorphic to $4C_n(1,c)$ for some c. Others are isomorphic to graphs called twisted prismatic graphs or twisted towers[10]. These twisted towers are graphs that have the Cartesian product $C_r \times P_s$ as a subgraph, but they also have an additional r edges that connect the top and bottom cycles in a permutation.

Definition 1 A graph G is called a twisted tower with parameters r, s and t, denoted G = TT(r, s, t) if G has vertex set $V = \{(u, v) : 0 \le u \le s - 1, 0 \le v \le r - 1\}$ and the following adjacencies: (u, v) is adjacent to:

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 \begin{array}{lllll} & (u,(v+1) \bmod r) & \forall u & \forall v \\ & (u,(v-1) \bmod r) & \forall u & \forall v \\ & (u+1,v) & 0 \leq u \leq s-2 & \forall v \\ & (u-1,v) & 1 \leq u \leq s-1 & \forall v \\ & (0,v) \ is \ adjacent \ to: \\ & (s-1,(v+t) \bmod r) & \forall v \end{array} .
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Note that the first two lines of adjacencies specify cycles of length r, the second two lines specify paths of length s. Without any further edges this graph would be $C_r \times P_s$. The last line defines the adjacencies of the top cycle to the bottom cycle. If t = 0, then the graph is $C_r \times C_s$. Note that in general, such a graph G has rs vertices, and that TT(r, s, t) is isomorphic to TT(r, s, r - t).

For example, consider $G_1 = TT(6,2,3)$ (Figure 3), and $G_2 = TT(4,3,2)$ (Figure 4) which can both be shown to be isomorphic to $4C_{12}(2,3)$. Note in each drawing how vertices in the top cycle are connected to vertices in the bottom cycle. This is a good illustration of the notation, and leads us into our first classification theorem.

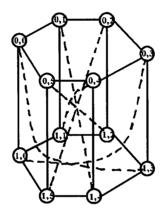


Figure 3: $G_1 = TT(6, 2, 3)$.

Theorem 8 Let $G = 4C_n(a,b)$. If gcd(n,a,b) = 1, so that G is connected, and $gcd(n,a) = d \neq 1$, then G is isomorphic to $G' = TT(\frac{n}{d},d,t)$, where t is a solution of the equation $ta \equiv (n-db) \mod n$.

Proof. Since $\gcd(n,a,b)=1$, the mapping $(bu+av) \bmod n \leftrightarrow (u,v)$ provides a correspondence between the vertices of G and the vertices of a twisted tower. Indeed this is a one-to-one mapping for if bu+av=0, then bu+av=qn, or bu=qn-av for some integer q. Now $1\neq d=\gcd(a,n)$, so $d\mid n$ and $d\mid a$. Now $\gcd(n,a,b)=1$, and $\gcd(d,b)=1$ with $d\mid (qn-av)$ implies that $d\mid bu$ and thus $d\mid u$. Since $0\leq u\leq d-1$, u must be 0. Similarly av=0 implies v=0 since $0\leq v\leq \frac{n}{d}-1$, and the mapping is one-to one. We now show that adjacencies are preserved by this mapping. We show that vertex (u,v) has the adjacencies indicated by the definition.

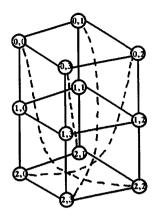


Figure 4: $G_2 = TT(4,3,2)$.

Vertex $v_1 = (u, (v+1) \bmod \frac{n}{d})$ in G' corresponds to $(bu+a((v+1) \bmod \frac{n}{d}))$ in G, which is adjacent to vertex (bu+av), since the difference in vertex numbers is a. Since (bu+av) maps to (u,v) in G', v_1 is adjacent to (u,v).

Similarly, vertex $v_2 = (u, (v-1) \mod \frac{n}{d})$ in G' corresponds to $(bu+a((v-1) \mod \frac{n}{d}))$ in G, which is adjacent to vertex (bu+av), since the difference in vertex numbers is again a. Since (bu+av) maps to (u,v) in G', v_2 is adjacent to (u,v).

Now vertex $v_3 = (u+1,v)$ for $0 \le u \le d-2$ in G' corresponds to (b(u+1)+av) in G and is adjacent to (bu+av) since the difference in vertex numbers is b. This shows that any such v_3 is adjacent to (u,v).

Similarly, any vertex $v_4 = (u - 1, v)$ for $1 \le u \le d - 1$ in G' corresponds to (b(u - 1) + av) in G and is adjacent to (bu + av) since the difference in vertex numbers is b. This shows that any such v_4 is adjacent to (u, v).

Finally, focus on vertex (0, v), which corresponds to vertex av in G. Note that vertex av is adjacent to vertex $(av + (n - b)) \bmod n$. We claim that vertex (0, v) is adjacent to $(d-1, (v+t) \bmod \frac{n}{d})$. Indeed $(d-1, (v+t) \bmod \frac{n}{d})$ in G' corresponds to $(b(d-1)+a((v+t) \bmod \frac{n}{d})) \equiv (b(d-1)+a(v+t\pm k\frac{n}{d}) \equiv (b(d-1)+a(v+t)) \bmod n$ since d divides a. Further, $(b(d-1)+a(v+t)) \equiv (bd-b+av+at) \equiv (bd-b+av+(n-db)) \equiv (av+n-b)$ by the definition of t. This establishes the final adjacency.

The roles of a and b above are interchangeable, and a similar statement is true using gcd(n, b) = d. That is how in the above example with n = 12, it is possible for G to be isomorphic to two very different looking graphs. In one case, gcd(12, 2) = 2, creating 6-cycles; in the other, gcd(12, 3) = 3, creating 4-cycles.

Sometimes the edges connecting the top and bottom cycles line up to create even more structure. In these cases, G is isomorphic to some $C_{a'} \times C_{b'}$.

Theorem 9 Let $G = 4C_n(a,b)$. If gcd(a,b) = 1, $gcd(n,a) = d_1 \neq 1$, $gcd(n,b) = d_2 \neq 1$ and $d_1d_2 = n$, then the circulant on n vertices formed by S is isomorphic to $C_{d_1} \times C_{d_2}$.

Proof: We need only show that t=0. Solving $ta \equiv n-d_1b \mod n$ gives $ta \equiv n-d_1b \equiv n-\frac{n}{d_2}b \equiv n-n(\frac{b}{d_2}) \equiv 0$, thus t=0.

In the above, we have focused on the cases where $gcd(n, a) \neq 1$ or $gcd(n, b) \neq 1$ or perhaps both. In these cases, G is always isomorphic to a twisted tower, and sometimes can be drawn in two different ways. We now consider the implications of gcd(n, a) = 1 or gcd(n, b) = 1. As usual, we assume that gcd(n, a, b) = 1 so that G is connected.

Theorem 10 Let $G = 4C_n(a, b)$. Then G is isomorphic to $4C_n(1, c)$ for some c if and only if gcd(a, n) = 1 or gcd(b, n) = 1.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Let G be isomorphic to $4C_n(1,c)$ for some c. Then there exists an automorphism ϕ from \mathbf{Z}_n to \mathbf{Z}_n such that $\phi(0) = 0$. Then, since ϕ preserves adjacencies, $\phi(0)$ must be adjacent to $\phi(1)$. Hence, $\phi(1) \in \{a,b,n-b,n-a\}$. Thus we have four cases.

- (i) If $\phi(1) \equiv a$, then since $\langle 1 \rangle = \mathbf{Z}_n$, $\langle a \rangle = \mathbf{Z}_n$. Therefore $\gcd(a, n) = 1$.
- (ii) If $\phi(1) \equiv b$,, then by a similar argument, gcd(b, n) = 1.
- (iii) If $\phi(1) \equiv n b$, then $\gcd(n b, n) = 1$ which implies $\gcd(b, n) = 1$.
- (iv) If $\phi(1) \equiv n a$, then $\gcd(n a, n) = 1$, which implies $\gcd(a, n) = 1$. In any of the four cases, either $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ or $\gcd(b, n) = 1$.
- (\Leftarrow) Let $G=4C_n(a,b)$ where $\gcd(n,a)=1$ and $V(G)=\{0,1,2,\ldots,n-1\}$. Also, let $G'=4C_n(1,c)$, where $c=\frac{b+nq}{a}$ for the smallest positive integer q which makes $\frac{b+nq}{a}$ an integer and $V(G')=\{0',1',2',\ldots,(n-1)'\}$. We claim that G and G' are isomorphic.

Define a function $\phi:V(G')\to V(G)$ by $\phi(k')\equiv ak$. Since $\gcd(n,a)=1$, it is easy to see that modulo n, $\{0,a,2a,\ldots,(n-1)a\}=\{0,1,2,\ldots,n-1\}$. Hence, ϕ is one-to-one and onto. We must now show that ϕ preserves adjacencies.

Let $k' \in V(G')$. Since $S' = \{1, c, n-c, n-1\}$, k' is adjacent to (k+1)', (k+c)', (k-c)', and (k-1)'. Now $\phi(k') \equiv ak \in V(G)$ is adjacent to ak+a, ak+b, ak-b, and ak-a since $S = \{a, b, n-b, n-a\}$.

Now, $\phi(k+1)' \equiv a(k+1) \equiv ak+a$, $\phi(k+c)' \equiv a(k+c) \equiv ak+ac \equiv ak+a(\frac{b+nq}{a}) \equiv ak+b+nq \equiv ak+b \mod n$, $\phi(k-c)' \equiv a(k-c) \equiv ak-(b+nq) \equiv ak-b \mod n$, and $\phi(k-1)' \equiv a(k-1) \equiv ak-a$. Hence, ϕ preserves adjacencies, and G and G' are isomorphic.

Finally we note when a 4-circulant with a jump of one can be isomorphic to another 4-circulant with a jump of one.

Theorem 11 Let $G = 4C_n(1, c)$. Then G is isomorphic to $4C_n(1, k)$ for some k if and only if $ck \equiv 1 \mod n$.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Let G be isomorphic to $4C_n(1,k)$ for some k. Then by Theorem 10, $k = \frac{1+nq}{c}$ for the smallest $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ that makes k an integer. Then ck = 1 + nq so that ck - 1 = nq, which implies $ck \equiv 1 \mod n$.

(\Leftarrow) Let $ck \equiv 1 \mod n$. Note that G is isomorphic to $4C_n(1,c')$ where $c' = \frac{1+nq_1}{c}$, and that $4C_n(1,k)$ is isomorphic to $4C_n(1,k')$ where $k' = \frac{1+nq_2}{c}$. Then $cc' \equiv 1+nq_1$ and $kk' \equiv 1+nq_2$, implying $cc' \equiv kk' \equiv 1 \mod n$. Thus, since $ck \equiv 1 \mod n$, $cc' \equiv ck \mod n$ and $kk' \equiv ck \mod n$. Examining the first congruence, we have $n \mid (cc' - ck)$, implying $n \mid c(c' - k)$. But note that since $ck \equiv 1 \mod n$, c is a unit in \mathbf{Z}_n ; therefore $\gcd(n,c) = 1$, which implies n must divide c' - k. Thus (c' - k) = 0, so that c' = k. Similarly k' = c. Therefore $4C_n(1,c)$ is isomorphic to $4C_n(1,k)$. ■

5 Future Directions.

This work, together with [7] establish the rank and the isomorphism structure of the 3- and 4- circulant graphs. Finding the rank is done through examining the eigenvalues of A(G) and determining how many of these are zero. As the eigenvalues of circulant matrices have a formula, determining the rank is mainly an algebraic task. Classifying these graphs and determining their isomorphism structure is a much more challenging problem. Results from the 3-circulant class do not immediately generalize to 4-circulants. Future work will focus on what can be learned of the general k-circulant.

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