

Unitary Cayley Graphs over Ring of Dual Numbers

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November 18, 2015

Abstract

This paper studies the unitary Cayley graph associated with ring of dual numbers, $Z_n[\alpha]$. It determines the exact diameter, vertex chromatic number and edge chromatic number. In addition, it classifies all perfect graphs within this class.

Keywords: Ring of Dual Numbers, Unitary Cayley Graph, Chromatic, Clique, Perfect Graph.

AMS Subject Classification: 05C25, 05C12, 05C17.

1 Introduction

Given an integer $n > 1$, the unitary Cayley graph, denoted by $X_n = \text{Cay}(Z_n, Z_n^*)$, is defined as the graph whose vertex set is Z_n , the set of integers modulo n , and two distinct vertices x, y are adjacent, if $x - y$ is a unit in the ring Z_n , that is, $x - y \in Z_n^*$.

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This graph was extensively studied in the literature, see [1] and [5]. The elegant relationship between the graph theoretic properties and Number theory was studied by Klotz and Sander in [3] and Akhtar et al in [2]. They generalized this graph to study the properties of the Cayley graph, $Cay(R, U(R))$, for any commutative ring R with unity 1 and its group of units, $U(R)$.

Recall that, for any commutative ring R with unity, an important ring extension of R , called the ring of dual numbers over R , denoted by $R[\alpha]$, is defined as the quotient ring of the polynomial ring $R[X]/(X^2)$. Equivalently, this can be represented as $a + b\alpha$ where $a, b \in R$ and $\alpha^2 = 0$ with addition and multiplication defined as:

$$\begin{aligned}(a + b\alpha) + (c + d\alpha) &= (a + c) + (b + d)\alpha, \\ (a + b\alpha)(c + d\alpha) &= (ac) + (ad + bc)\alpha.\end{aligned}$$

Clearly this is a commutative ring extension of R with unity 1. This ring was extensively studied in the literature, see [9] and [10].

Motivated by Klotz's work, we want to make a good attempt to study the graph $X_n(\alpha)$, with vertices as the elements of the ring $Z_n(\alpha)$, and two distinct vertices are adjacent, if their difference is a unit in the ring $Z_n(\alpha)$. The precise relationship between this graph theoretic properties and Number theory will be emphasized.

The relationship between the graph $X_n(\alpha)$ and X_n will be studied. Also, it should be noticed that X_n is an induced subgraph of the graph $X_n(\alpha)$.

A graph is said to be representable modulo n , if it is isomorphic to an induced subgraph of $Cay(Z_n, Z_n^*)$. In this paper we study the other direction, that is, we construct an extension of X_n .

One can easily show that the units of the ring $Z_n(\alpha)$ is the set

$$U_n = \{a + b\alpha : \gcd(a, n) = 1\}.$$

$X_n(\alpha)$ has a vertex set $V(X_n(\alpha)) = Z_n(\alpha)$, and an edge set

$$E(X_n(\alpha)) = \{\{a + b\alpha, c + d\alpha\} : \gcd(c - d, n) = 1\}.$$

It is obvious that X_n is an induced subgraph of $X_n(\alpha)$. We will show that $X_n(\alpha)$ is not only an extension of X_n , but it also has many properties

of X_n .

The graph $X_n(\alpha)$ is regular of degree $|U_n| = n\varphi(n)$, where $\varphi(n)$ denotes the Euler ϕ -function. Walter [3] has shown that if $n = p$, p is a prime number, then, $X_n = K_p$, the complete graph on n vertex. However, $X_n(\alpha)$ can not be the complete graph even if $n = p$.

In section two, we investigate some basic graph theoretic invariants of $X_n(\alpha)$. We show that Chromatic and Clique numbers of $X_n(\alpha)$ are equal. Moreover, we characterize the Chromatic and Clique numbers for complementary graphs.

We conclude section 2 with an interesting result, that is, the graph $X_n(\alpha)$ is never self complementary. In section 3, we discuss the perfectness of $X_n(\alpha)$.

2 Basic Invariant

In this section, we start with the Chromatic, $\chi(X_n(\alpha))$, and Clique, $\omega(X_n(\alpha))$, numbers. For the remaining of this paper, n will be an integer greater than 2, and $[i]_p = \{a + k\alpha : a \equiv i \pmod{p}\}$.

Theorem 1 *If p is the smallest prime divisor of n then,*

- a. $\chi(X_n(\alpha)) = \omega(X_n(\alpha))$, and
- b. $\chi(\overline{X}_n(\alpha)) = \omega(\overline{X}_n(\alpha))$, where $\overline{X}_n(\alpha)$ is the complementary graph of the graph $X_n(\alpha)$.

Proof. Consider the vertices $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$.

If $i, j \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$, then, since p is the smallest prime divisor of n , we have, $\gcd(i-j, n) = 1$, which means that i and j are adjacent. Hence, the vertices $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$ induce a clique in $X_n(\alpha)$. Therefore,

$$\chi(X_n(\alpha)) \geq \omega(X_n(\alpha)) \geq p.$$

On the other hand, consider the sets $[0]_p, [1]_p, [2]_p, \dots, [p-1]_p$. These sets form a partition of $Z_n(\alpha)$. Moreover, there are no two adjacent vertices in the same set. Therefore, these sets constitute a proper colouring. Thus,

$$\chi(X_n(\alpha)) \leq p, \text{ and hence} \\ \chi(X_n(\alpha)) = \omega(X_n(\alpha)) = p.$$

For the complementary graph $\overline{X}_n(\alpha)$, each set of $[0]_p, [1]_p, [2]_p, \dots, [p-1]_p$ induces a clique. Since the order of $X_n(\alpha)$ is n^2 , and the sets $[0]_p, [1]_p, [2]_p, \dots, [p-1]_p$ form a partition of $X_n(\alpha)$, then, the number of vertices in each set is $\frac{n^2}{p}$. Therefore,

$$\chi(\overline{X}_n(\alpha)) \geq \omega(\overline{X}_n(\alpha)) \geq \frac{n^2}{p}.$$

On the other hand, for $0 \leq k \leq \frac{n}{p} - 1$, consider the sets

$$M_i = \{kp + j + i\alpha : 0 \leq j \leq p - 1\}.$$

Since $kp + j + i\alpha - (kp + m + i\alpha) = j - m < p$, we have, $\gcd(j - m, n) = 1$. Therefore, the vertices of M_i are independent in $\overline{X}_n(\alpha)$. These vertices constitute a proper colouring of $\overline{X}_n(\alpha)$. Hence, $\chi(\overline{X}_n(\alpha)) \leq \frac{n^2}{p}$. This completes the proof. □

Corollary 1 *The graph $X_n(\alpha)$ is bipartite if and only if n is even.*

Corollary 2 *There is no self complementary unitary Cayley graph over $Z_n[\alpha]$.*

Proof. Suppose that $X_n(\alpha)$ is self complementary graph. Then,

$$\chi(X_n(\alpha)) = \chi(\overline{X}_n(\alpha)),$$

and hence $n = p$. Since $\chi(X_n(\alpha)) \cup \chi(\overline{X}_n(\alpha))$ is the complete graph, we have

$$2p\varphi(p) = p^2 - 1.$$

This is a contradiction. □

Since X_n is an induced subgraph of $X_n(\alpha)$, $X_n(\alpha)$ can not be a complete multipartite graph if $n \neq p^k$, see [3]. For the converse, consider the following theorem:

Theorem 2 *If $n = p^k$, then, $X_n(\alpha)$ is a complete multipartite graph with partite sets $\{[i]\}_{i=0}^{p-1}$.*

Proof. Assume that $n = p^k$, for $x + y\alpha \in [i]$ and $a + b\alpha \in [j]$, with $i \neq j$, then,

$$x - a \equiv i - j \pmod{p}, \text{ and } \gcd(x - a, p^k) = 1,$$

So, $x + y\alpha$ and $a + b\alpha$ are adjacent, and therefore, $X_n(\alpha)$ is a complete multipartite graph. □

If $X_n(\alpha)$ is a complete multipartite graph, then, for any two vertices $x + y\alpha$ and $a + b\alpha$, there are two cases:

Case 1 *If $x + y\alpha$ and $a + b\alpha$ are in the same partite set, then, the number of common neighbors is $\frac{n^2}{p}(p - 1)$.*

Case 2 *If $x + y\alpha$ and $a + b\alpha$ are in different partite sets, then, the number of common neighbors is $\frac{n^2}{p}(p - 2)$.*

The following theorem gives a general result for common neighbors of two elements:

Theorem 3 *Suppose that $n = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{\alpha_i}$, for $a + b\alpha$ and $c + d\alpha$, the number of common neighbors is given by:*

$$n^2 \prod_{a \equiv c \pmod{p_i}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right) \prod_{a \not\equiv c \pmod{p_i}} \left(1 - \frac{2}{p_i}\right).$$

Proof. Since $Z_n(\alpha)$ is a finite ring, we have

$$Z_n(\alpha) = \prod_{i=1}^k Z_{p_i^{2\alpha_i}}.$$

For the vertices $a + b\alpha$ and $c + d\alpha$ in $X_n(\alpha)$, assume that $a = (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_k)$ and $c = (c_1, c_2, c_3, \dots, c_k)$. For $x = (x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_k)$ common neighbor of $a + b\alpha$ and $c + d\alpha$, we have two choices:

1. if $a \equiv c \pmod{p_i}$, then, $a_i \equiv c_i \pmod{p_i}$. Therefore, there are $\frac{p_i^{2\alpha_i}}{p_i}(p_i - 1)$ choices for x_i .

2. if $a \not\equiv c \pmod{p_i}$, then, $a_i \not\equiv c_i \pmod{p_i}$. Therefore, there are $\frac{p_i^{2\alpha_i}}{p_i}(p_i-2)$ choices for x_i . Hence, there are

$$\prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{2\alpha_i} \prod_{a \equiv c \pmod{p_i}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right) \prod_{a \not\equiv c \pmod{p_i}} \left(1 - \frac{2}{p_i}\right)$$

common neighbors for $a + b\alpha$ and $c + d\alpha$.

□

The distance between two vertices u, v in a graph is the length of the shortest path between the vertices u and v . This distance is denoted by $d(u, v)$. The diameter of the graph G , denoted by $diam(G)$, is the maximum distance between any two vertices in the graph G . Since $X_n(\alpha)$ can not be a complete graph, then, $diam(X_n(\alpha)) > 1$. The following theorem gives the exact diameter of $X_n(\alpha)$:

Theorem 4

$$diam(X_n(\alpha)) = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{if } n = 2^k \text{ or } n \text{ is odd,} \\ 3 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Proof.

1. If $n = 2^k$, then, $X_n(\alpha)$ is a complete bipartite graph and $diam(X_n(\alpha)) = 2$.
2. If n is odd, then, the number of neighbors can not be zero. Therefore, $diam(X_n(\alpha)) \leq 2$. On the other hand, $X_n(\alpha)$ can not be a complete graph, so, $diam(X_n(\alpha)) > 1$, and therefore, $diam(X_n(\alpha)) = 2$.
2. Suppose that n is not an odd number and n has an odd divisor p , then, the number of neighbors is given by:

$$\prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{2\alpha_i} \prod_{a \equiv c \pmod{p_i}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right) \prod_{a \not\equiv c \pmod{p_i}} \left(1 - \frac{2}{p_i}\right).$$

Since $p \not\equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, then, the number of neighbors is 0. Therefore, $diam(X_n(\alpha)) \geq 3$.

On the other hand, assume that $a + b\alpha$ and $c + d\alpha$ are two arbitrary non adjacent vertices of $X_n(\alpha)$ with no common neighbor, then, $a \not\equiv c \pmod{2}$. Assume that a is even, then, since n is even, all neighbors of a are odd. Let x be any one of them, since x and c are odd, then, there is a common

neighbor to them, say y , then, $d(a + b\alpha, c + d\alpha) \leq 3$. This completes the proof. □

3 Perfectness

According to Walter Klotz [3], for n even or odd, X_n is perfect if it has at most two different prime divisors. Since X_n is an induced subgraph of $X_n(\alpha)$, then, $X_n(\alpha)$ can not be perfect whenever n is odd and has more than two prime divisors. It remains to study the case when n is even or n is odd with at most two prime divisors. If n is even, then $X_n(\alpha)$ is perfect since $X_n(\alpha)$ is a bipartite as mentioned earlier. To complete our discussion, it remains to study the case when $n = p_1^{k_1} p_2^{k_2}$, $p_2 > p_1 \geq 3$.

Theorem 5 *If n is odd and has exactly two odd prime divisors, then $X_n(\alpha)$ has no odd hole, C_{2k+1} , $k \geq 2$.*

Proof. Suppose that $X_n(\alpha)$ has an odd hole, C_{2k+1} , say,

$$\{a_i + b_i\alpha\}_{i=0}^{i=2k}.$$

Claim: $a_i \neq a_j$, for all $i \neq j$.

Indeed, assume that there is i and j with $i \neq j$ and $a_i = a_j$, then, $a_{i+1} + b_{i+1}\alpha$ is adjacent vertex to both $a_i + b_i\alpha$ and $a_j + b_j\alpha$. Similarly for $a_{i-1} + b_{i-1}\alpha$. So, $C_{2k+1} = C_4$, which is a contradiction. □

Now assume that $X_n(\alpha)$ contains an induced odd hole $C_{2k+1} = \{a_i + b_i\alpha\}_{i=0}^{i=2k}$, since $a_i \neq a_j$ for all $i \neq j$, then, $\{a_i\}_{i=0}^{i=2k}$ is an induced odd hole in X_n . This contradicts the perfectness of X_n .

Theorem 6 *If n is odd and has exactly two odd prime divisors, then $\overline{X}_n(\alpha)$ has no odd hole, C_{2k+1} , $k \geq 2$.*

Proof. Assume that $\overline{X}_n(\alpha)$ contains the induced odd hole $C_{2k+1} = \{a_i + b_i\alpha\}_{i=0}^{i=2k}$, then, the prime divisors of n , say p_1 and p_2 , will alternate in dividing $a_i - a_{i+1}$. Since it is impossible for two primes to alternate in

dividing odd numbers. Therefore, $\overline{X}_n(\alpha)$ has no odd hole, C_{2k+1} , $k \geq 2$.
□

Now we are ready to give the following final theorem:

Theorem 7 *The unitary Cayley graph $X_n(\alpha)$ is perfect if and only if n is even or n is odd of at most two different prime divisors.*

4 Acknowledgment

The authors would like to thank the referee for the valuable and constructive comments which helped to improve the quality of the manuscript.

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