# Some aspects of Unitary addition Cayley graph of Gaussian integers modulo $n$ 

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#### Abstract

In this paper, the Unitary addition Cayley graph defined by Sinha et al. is extended to the ring of Gaussian integers modulo $n$. Some graph theoretic properties of unitary addition Cayley graphs of gaussian integers modulo $n$ are discussed here. Moreover, the condition for which the above mentioned graphs are Eulerian and Hamiltonian are also discussed.


Keywords Gaussian Integers, Hamiltonian, Eulerian, Bipartite Graph, Unitary addition Cayley Graph.

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## 1 Introduction

Let $Z_{n}$ be the ring of integers modulo $n, n>1$ and $U_{n}$ be the set of all units of the ring $Z_{n}$. The unitary Cayley graph introduced by Dejter and Giudici [1] is an undirected graph, whose vertex set is the set $Z_{n}$ and any two vertices $a$ and $b$ of $Z_{n}$ are adjacent if and only if $a-b \in U_{n}$. The various structures and properties of unitary Cayley graphs have been studied extensively by Dejter and Gudici[1], Koltz and Sender[2], Akhtar et al.[3] and Boggers et al.[4].

The addition Cayley graph is defined by considering an abelian group $\Gamma$ and a subset $B$ of $\Gamma$. The addition Cayley graph $G^{\prime}=\operatorname{Cay}^{+}(\Gamma, B)$ is the graph having vertex set $V\left(G^{\prime}\right)=\Gamma$ and the edge set $E\left(G^{\prime}\right)=\{a b \mid a+b \in B, a, b \in \Gamma\}$. Several properties of addition Cayley graphs have been discussed by Grynkiewicz et al.[5] and Grynkiewicz et al.[6].

Sinha, Garg and Singh [7] defined the unitary addition Cayley graph by taking $\Gamma=Z_{n}$ and $B=U_{n}$. Several graph theoretic properties of unitary addition Cayley graph have been studied by them.

Our work is a generalisation of the set $Z_{n}$ to $Z_{n}[i]$. Every element in $Z_{n}[i]$ is of the form $a+i b$, where $a, b \in Z_{n}$. In $Z_{n}[i]$, a norm is defined as $N(a+i b)=a^{2}+b^{2}$ and an element $c+i d$ will be an unit if and only if $\operatorname{gcd}(N(c+i d), n)=1$ or simply we can say that $c+i d$ will be an unit element in $Z_{n}[i]$ if and only if $N(c+i d)$ is an unit element in $Z_{n}$. We denote the Unitary addition Cayley graph of Gaussian integers modulo $n$ by $G_{n}[i]$ with vertex set $Z_{n}[i]$ and edge set $U_{n}[i]$, where $U_{n}[i]$ is the set of all units in $Z_{n}[i]$. Any two vertices $a+i b$ and $c+i d$ will be adjacent in $G_{n}[i]$ if and only if $\operatorname{gcd}(N((a+c)+i(b+d)), n)=1$. In this paper we investigate some graph theoretic properties such as degree of a vertex, number of edges, diameter, girth and planarity of the graph $G_{n}[i]$. We also obtain the condition for which the graph $G_{n}[i]$ is Eulerian and Hamiltonian.

Before going to our main results we give some definitions and preliminary results which will be used in our main results.

## 2 Preliminaries and definitions

A graph $G$ is a pair $G(V, E)$, where $V$ is a non-empty finite set, and $E$ is a set of unordered pairs of elements of $V$. The elements of $V$ are called the vertices of $G$, and the elements of $E$ are the edges of $G$. The set of vertices and edges of a graph $G$ is denoted by $V(G)$ and $E(G)$ respectively. $|V(G)|$ and $|E(G)|$ denote the cardinality of $V(G)$ and $E(G)$ respectively. The degree of a vertex $v$, denoted by $\operatorname{deg}(v)$ in $G$ is the number of edges incident at $v$. If degree of each vertex is equal, say $r$ in $G$, then $G$ is called $r$-regular graph. A walk of a graph is an alternating sequence of vertices and edges $v_{0}, e_{1}, v_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{n}, v_{n}$ beginning and ending with vertices, in which each edge is incident with the two vertices immediately preceding and following it. A walk is called a trail if all the edges are distinct. If all the vertices and necessarily all the edges of a walk are distinct then it is called a path. A closed path(i.e., a path in which $\left.v_{0}=v_{n}\right)$ is called a cycle. An Eulerian trail is a closed trail containing all vertices and edges of a graph $G$. A graph $G$ is called an Eulerian graph if it contains an Eulerian trail. If a graph $G$ has a spanning cycle, then $G$ is called Hamiltonian graph and the spanning cycle is called a Hamiltonian cycle. A bigraph or bipartite graph $G$ is a graph whose vertex set $V$ can be partitioned in to two subsets $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ such that every edge of $V_{1}$ joins with $V_{2}$. If $G$ contains every edge joining $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$, then $G$ is called a complete bipartite graph. For distinct vertices $x$ and $y$ of a graph $G$, let $d(x, y)$ be the length of a shortest path from $x$ to $y$, the diameter of $G$, denoted by $\operatorname{diam}(G)=$ $\sup \{d(x, y): x, y$ are vertices of $G\}$. The $\operatorname{girth}$ of a graph $G$, denoted by $\operatorname{girth}(G)$ is the length of a shortest cycle in $G(\operatorname{girth}(G)=\infty$ if $G$ contains no cycles $)$. A graph that can be drawn in the plane so that edges intersect only at vertices is called planar.

Let $\Gamma$ be a group and $B$ be a subset of $\Gamma$ such that $B$ does not contain the identity of $\Gamma$. Assume $B^{-1}=\left\{b^{-1} \mid b \in B\right\}=B$. The Cayley graph $X^{\prime}=C a y(\Gamma, B)$ is an undirected graph having vertex set $V\left(X^{\prime}\right)=\Gamma$ and edge set $E\left(X^{\prime}\right)=\left\{a b \mid a b^{-1} \in B\right\}$, where $a, b \in \Gamma$. The Cayley graph $X^{\prime}=\operatorname{Cay}(\Gamma, B)$ is a regular graph of degree $|B|$.

Gaussian integers contains set of all complex numbers $a+i b$, where $a$ and $b$ are integers. It is denoted by $Z[i]$ and is a Euclidian domain under usual complex operations, with norm $N(a+i b)=a^{2}+b^{2}$. It is clear that $a+i b$ is a unit in $Z[i]$ if and only if $N(a+i b)=1$, which implies that $1,-1, i$ and $-i$ are the only units. Let $\langle n\rangle$ be the principal ideal generated by $n$ in $Z[i]$ where $n$ is a natural number and let $Z_{n}[i]$ denote the ring of integers modulo $n$. The result that the factor ring $Z[i] /<n>$ is isomorphic to $Z_{n}[i]=\left\{a+i b \mid a, b \in Z_{n}\right\}$ is obtained by Dresden and Dymacek[8] and this result will be used in our paper whenever necessary. Some examples of unitary addition Cayley graph of Gaussian integers modulo $n$ are displayed in Figure 1, Figure 2 and Figure 3.


Figure 1: $G_{2}[i]$


Figure 2: $G_{3}[i]$


Figure 3: $G_{4}[i]$

We are now going to investigate the degree of a vertex, number of edges, diameter and girth of the graph $G_{n}[i]$. But for this investigation we require the following theorem due to R.Boyer[9]. We shall also prove the two lemmas giving the number of elements and number of unit elements $U_{n}[i]$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}[i]$. First we state the theorem which will be used in proving the second lemma.

Theorem $2.1[9]$ (Chinese Remainder Theorem) Let $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots \ldots, A_{k}$ be ideals in $R$. Consider the mapping

$$
R \longrightarrow R / A_{1} \times R / A_{2} \times \ldots \times R / A_{k} \text { by } r \longrightarrow\left(r+A_{1}, r+A_{2}, \ldots, r+A_{k}\right)
$$

is a ring homomorphism with kernel $A_{1} \cap A_{2} \cap \ldots \cap A_{k}$. If for each $i, j \in\{1,2, \ldots, k\}$ with $i \neq j$ the ideals $A_{i}$ and $A_{j}$ are comaximal, then the map is surjective and $A_{1} \cap A_{2} \cap \ldots \cap A_{k}=$ $A_{1} A_{2} \ldots A_{k}$. Hence, we have the natural isomorphism $R / A_{1} A_{2} \ldots A_{k}=R / A_{1} \cap A_{2} \cap \ldots \cap A_{k} \cong$ $R / A_{1} \times R / A_{2} \times \ldots \times R / A_{k}$.

Lemma 2.1 Total number of elements in $Z_{n}[i]$ is $n^{2}$.

Proof As the elements of $Z_{n}[i]$ are written as $a+i b$ where, $a, b \in Z_{n}$. So, the real part can be filled up by ${ }^{n} C_{1}$ ways and the imaginary part can also be filled up by ${ }^{n} C_{1}$ ways. Hence the total number of elements will be ${ }^{n} C_{1} \times{ }^{n} C_{1}=n^{2}$.

Remark 2.1 As we are taking vertex set of the graph $G_{n}[i]$ as $Z_{n}[i]$. So, the number of vertex of the graph $G_{n}[i]$ is $n^{2}$.

Lemma 2.2 Total number of unit elements $\left|U_{n}[i]\right|$ in $Z_{n}[i]$ are given as the following:
(i) $\left|U_{n}[i]\right|=2^{2 r-1}$, when $n=2^{r}, r \in \mathbb{N}$.
(ii) $\left|U_{n}[i]\right|=n^{2}-1$, when $n \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$.
(iii) $\left|U_{n}[i]\right|=(n-1)^{2}$, when $n \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$.
(iv) $\left|U_{n}[i]\right|=n^{2}-n$, when $n=k^{2}$ and $k$ is an odd prime.
(v) $\left|U_{n}[i]\right|=\left|U_{n_{1}}[i]\right| \cdot\left|U_{n_{2}}[i]\right|$, for $n=n_{1} n_{2}$, where $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ are distinct primes.

## Proof

(i) Let $a+i b \in Z_{n}[i]$, where $n=2^{r}, r \in \mathbb{N}$. Then the norm of $a+i b$ i.e., $N(a+i b)=a^{2}+b^{2}$ is either an even number or an odd number. As there are $n^{2}$ elements in $G_{n}[i]$, so half of the elements in $G_{n}[i]$ will have the norm as an even number and the remaining half of the numbers will have the norm as an odd number. As $n$ is even therefore, the elements which have the norm as odd number are the unit elements of $G_{n}[i]$. So, $\left|U_{n}[i]\right|=2^{2 r} / 2=2^{2 r-1}$.
(ii) Let $n$ be an odd prime and $n \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, then by $[10], Z_{n}[i]$ forms a field. So, there will be only one zero divisor namely $0+0 i$. Therefore, $\left|U_{n}[i]\right|=n^{2}-1$.
(iii) Let $n$ be an odd prime and $n \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$, then an element $a+i b$ will be an unit element if and only if $a^{2}+b^{2} \not \equiv 0(\bmod n)$, where $a, b \in Z_{n}$ If $a$ is any number other than 0 then we can take the values of $a$ in ${ }^{n-1} C_{1}$ ways. Now for each $a$ there exists an element $b$ for which $a^{2}+b^{2} \equiv 0(\bmod n)$. If we discard the value of $b$ for which $a^{2}+b^{2} \equiv 0(\bmod n)$ then for each value of $a$ we can take the value of $b$ in ${ }^{n-1} C_{1}$ ways. Therefore, total number of elements in will be $(n-1)^{2}$. Hence $\left|U_{n}[i]\right|=(n-1)^{2}$.
(iv) Let $n=k^{2}$, where $k$ is an odd prime, $k \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ or $k \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ then there are $k$ elements which are not relatively prime to $n$. Let $a+i b \in Z_{n}[i]$, then $a^{2}+b^{2} \equiv 0(\bmod n)$ which is possible only when both $a$ and $b$ are multiples of $k$. So, $a$ can take values in ${ }^{k} C_{1}$ ways, also $b$ can take values in ${ }^{k} C_{1}$ ways. Therefore, the total number of ways such that $a^{2}+b^{2} \equiv 0(\bmod n)$ is ${ }^{k} C_{1} \times{ }^{k} C_{1}=k^{2}=n$. Hence total number of units in $Z_{n}[i]$ is $n^{2}-n$, that is $\left|U_{n}[i]\right|=n^{2}-n$.
(v) If $n=n_{1} n_{2}$, where $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ are distinct primes, then by Theorem 5 [8] and Chinese Remainder Theorem $[9], Z_{n}[i] \cong Z_{n_{1}}[i] \times Z_{n_{2}}[i]$. Suppose, $\left|U_{n_{1}}[i]\right|=l$ and $\left|U_{n_{2}}[i]\right|=m$. Therefore, number of units in $Z_{n_{1}}[i] \times Z_{n_{2}}[i]$ is l.m. Thus, l.m $=\left|U_{n_{1}}[i]\right| .\left|U_{n_{2}}[i]\right|=$ $\left|U_{n}[i]\right|$.

Remark 2.2 If $n=n_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdot n_{2}^{\alpha_{2}} \ldots . n_{r}^{\alpha_{r}}$, where $n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots,, n_{r}$ are all distinct primes and

$$
\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots, \alpha_{r} \in \mathbb{N}
$$

then $\left|U_{n}[i]\right|=\left|U_{n_{1} \alpha_{1}}[i]\right| .\left|U_{n_{2} \alpha_{2}}[i]\right| \ldots\left|U_{n_{r} \alpha_{r}}[i]\right|$.
Example 2.1 Consider $Z_{2}[i], Z_{3}[i], Z_{4}[i], Z_{5}[i], Z_{6}[i]$ and $Z_{9}[i]$ then $\left|U_{2}[i]\right|=2,\left|U_{3}[i]\right|=$ $8,\left|U_{4}[i]\right|=8,\left|U_{5}[i]\right|=16,\left|U_{6}[i]\right|=16$ and $\left|U_{9}[i]\right|=72$.

## 3 Basic invariants of $G_{n}[i]$

In this section we establish the nature of the degree of each vertex of $G_{n}[i]$ in theorem 3.1. In theorem 3.2 we find a necessary and sufficient condition for which the graph $G_{n}[i]$ is complete bipartite. Diameter and girth of $G_{n}[i]$ are obtained in theorem 3.3 and 3.4 respectively.

Theorem 3.1 Let $m=a+i b$ be any vertex in $G_{n}[i]$ then,

$$
\operatorname{deg}(m)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
2^{2 r-1}, \text { ifn } n=2^{r}, r \in \mathbb{N} . \\
2^{2 r-1}\left(n_{1}-1\right)^{2}, \text { if } n=2^{r} n_{1}, r \in \mathbb{N} \text { and } n_{1} \equiv 1(\bmod 4) \\
2^{2 r-1}\left(n_{1}{ }^{2}-1\right), \text { if } n=2^{r} n_{1}, r \in \mathbb{N} \text { and } n_{1} \equiv 3(\bmod 4) \\
(n-1)^{2}, \text { if } n \equiv 1(\bmod 4) \text { and } \operatorname{gcd}(N(m), n) \neq 1 \\
n^{2}-1, \text { if } n \equiv 3(\bmod 4) \text { and } \operatorname{gcd}(N(m), n) \neq 1 \\
n^{2}-2 n, \text { if } n \equiv 1(\bmod 4) \text { and } \operatorname{gcd}(N(m), n)=1 \\
n^{2}-2, \text { if } n \equiv 3(\bmod 4) \text { and } \operatorname{gcd}(N(m), n)=1
\end{array}\right.
$$

Proof Suppose $n$ is even, and let $a+i b$ be a vertex of the graph $G_{n}[i]$. Now $0+0 i$ will be adjacent to $a+i b$ if and only if $\operatorname{gcd}(N((0+a)+i(0+b)))=1$ that is if $a+i b \in U_{n}[i]$. It follows that $\operatorname{deg}(0+i 0)=\left|U_{n}[i]\right|$. Suppose, $c+i d \in U_{n}[i]$ since $n$ is even then $N(c+i d)$ is not even. The vertex $a+i b$ will be adjacent to all the vertices of the form $(c-a)+i(d-b)$. But $2(a+i b) \notin U_{n}[i]$,that means $2(a+i b) \not \equiv(c+i d)(\bmod n)$, and which implies that $a+i b \not \equiv(c-a)+i(d-b)(\bmod n)$. Hence $\operatorname{deg}(m)=\left|U_{n}[i]\right|$.
(i) When $n=2^{r}, r \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\operatorname{deg}(m)=\frac{2^{r}}{2}=2^{2 r-1}$.
(ii) When $n=2^{r} n_{1}, r \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n_{1} \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$, then

$$
\operatorname{deg}(m)=\frac{2^{2 r}\left(n_{1}-1\right)^{2}}{2}=2^{2 r-1}\left(n_{1}-1\right)^{2}
$$

(iii) When $n=2^{r} n_{1}, r \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n_{1} \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, then

$$
\operatorname{deg}(m)=\frac{2^{2 r}\left(n_{1}^{2}-1\right)}{2}=2^{2 r-1}\left(n_{1}^{2}-1\right)
$$

Suppose, $n$ is odd and $\operatorname{gcd}(N(a+i b), n)) \neq 1$. Then $a+i b \notin U_{n}[i]$, which implies $2(a+i b) \notin U_{n}[i]$. Thus, $a+i b \not \equiv(c-a)+i(d-b)(\bmod n)$. Therefore, $\operatorname{deg}(m)=\left|U_{n}[i]\right|$.

Case(i) When $n \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ then $\operatorname{deg}(m)=(n-1)^{2}$.
Case(ii) When $n \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ then $\operatorname{deg}(m)=\left(n^{2}-1\right)$.
Next we consider $n$ is odd and $\operatorname{gcd}(N(a+i b), n))=1$. Then $a+i b \in U_{n}[i]$, which implies $2(a+i b) \in U_{n}[i]$. Which implies $a+i b \equiv(c-a)+i(d-b)(\bmod n)$. But the vertex cannot be adjacent to itself. Hence $\operatorname{deg}(m)=\left|U_{n}[i]\right|-1$.

Case(i) When $n \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ then $\operatorname{deg}(m)=(n-1)^{2}-1=n^{2}-2 n$.
Case(ii) When $n \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ then $\operatorname{deg}(m)=\left(n^{2}-1\right)-1=n^{2}-2$.
Corollary 3.1 Number of edges $q$ in $G_{n}[i]$,
$q=\left\{\begin{array}{l}2^{2(2 r-1)}, \text { if } n=2^{r}, r \in \mathbb{N} . \\ 2^{2(2 r-1)} n_{1}^{2}\left(n_{1}-1\right)^{2}, \text { if } n=2^{r} n_{1}, r \in \mathbb{N} \text { and } n_{1} \equiv 1(\bmod 4) . \\ 2^{2(2 r-1)} n_{1}^{2}\left(n_{1}^{2}-1\right), \text { if } n=2^{r} n_{1}, r \in \mathbb{N} \text { and } n_{1} \equiv 3(\bmod 4) . \\ \frac{\left(n^{2}-1\right)(n-1)^{2}}{2}, \text { if } n \equiv 1(\bmod 4) . \\ \frac{\left(n^{2}-1\right)^{2}}{2}, \text { if } n \equiv 3(\bmod 4) .\end{array}\right.$
Proof First we consider that $n$ is even. We know that the sum of the degrees of the vertices of a graph is twice the number of lines. So, $2 q=\sum_{j=1}^{n^{2}} \operatorname{deg}\left(x_{j}\right)$
$\Rightarrow 2 q=n^{2}\left|U_{n}[i]\right|$
$\Rightarrow q=\frac{n^{2}\left|U_{n}[i]\right|}{2}$.
Case(i) When $n=2^{r}, r \in \mathbb{N}$, then $q=\frac{\left(2^{2 r}\right)\left(\frac{2^{2 r}}{2}\right)}{2}$
$\Rightarrow q=2^{2(2 r-1)}$.
Case(ii) When $n=2^{r} n_{1}, r \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n_{1} \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$, then $q=\frac{\left(2^{2 r} n_{1}^{2}\right)\left\{\frac{\left(2^{2 r}\right)\left(n_{1}-1\right)^{2}}{2}\right\}}{2}$
$\Rightarrow q=2^{2(2 r-1)} n_{1}{ }^{2}\left(n_{1}-1\right)^{2}$.
Case(iii) When $n=2^{r} n_{1}, r \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n_{1} \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, then $q=\frac{\left(2^{2 r}\right)\left(n_{1}^{2}\right)\left\{\frac{\left(2^{2 r}\right)\left(n_{1}^{2}-1\right)}{2}\right\}}{2}$
$\Rightarrow q=2^{2(2 r-1)} n_{1}^{2}\left(n_{1}^{2}-1\right)$.
Next we consider that $n$ is odd.
Therefore, $2 q=\left(n^{2}-\left|U_{n}[i]\right|\right)\left|U_{n}[i]\right|+\left|U_{n}[i]\right|\left(\left|U_{n}[i]\right|-1\right)$
$\Rightarrow q=\frac{\left(n^{2}-1\right)\left|U_{n}[i]\right|}{2}$.
Case(i) When $n \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$, then $q=\frac{\left(n^{2}-1\right)(n-1)^{2}}{2}$
$\Rightarrow q=\frac{\left(n^{2}-1\right)(n-1)^{2}}{2}$.
Case(ii) When $n \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, then $q=\frac{\left(n^{2}-1\right)\left(n^{2}-1\right)}{2}$
$\Rightarrow q=\frac{\left(n^{2}-1\right)^{2}}{2}$.
Lemma 3.1 If $n$ is an even number then we can partition the vertex set $V\left(G_{n}[i]\right)$ in to two subsets $V_{1}\left(G_{n}[i]\right)$ which contains the vertices with even norm and $V_{2}\left(G_{n}[i]\right)$ which contains the vertices with odd norm, also $\left|V_{1}\left(G_{n}[i]\right)\right|=\left|V_{2}\left(G_{n}[i]\right)\right|=n^{2} / 2$.

Proof A vertex $a+i b$ in $G_{n}[i]$ will have even norm if both the values $a$ and $b$ are even or odd. Since $n$ is even so, there will be $n / 2$ even numbers and $n / 2$ odd numbers. Suppose, both $a$ and $b$ are even then total number of these type of vertices will be ${ }^{n / 2} C_{1} \times{ }^{n / 2} C_{1}=$ $n^{2} / 4$. Similarly, if both $a$ and $b$ are odd then the total number of these type of vertices ${ }^{n / 2} C_{1} \times{ }^{n / 2} C_{1}=n^{2} / 4$. Hence, total number of vertices with even norm $n^{2} / 4+n^{2} / 4=n^{2} / 2$. Also the total number of vertices with odd norm will be $n^{2}-n^{2} / 2=n^{2} / 2$. Therefore, $\left|V_{1}\left(G_{n}[i]\right)\right|=\left|V_{2}\left(G_{n}[i]\right)\right|=n^{2} / 2$.

Theorem 3.2 $G_{n}[i]$ is a complete bipartite graph if and only if $n=2^{r}, r \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof Suppose, $n=2^{r}, r \in \mathbb{N}$. Then by Lemma 3.1 we can partition the vertex set into two sets $V_{1}=$ containing all the vertices of even norm, $V_{2}=$ containing all the vertices with odd norm. Then by Theorem 3.1, $G_{n}[i]$ is a complete bipartite graph.

Conversely, we suppose that $G_{n}[i]$ is a complete bipartite graph. We have to show that $n$ is even of the form $2^{r}, r \in \mathbb{N}$. By Lemma 3.1 it is clear that the vertex set can be partitioned into two sets if n is an even number. Suppose $n=2^{r} n_{1}$, where $n_{1} \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ then degree of each vertex will be $2^{2 r-1}\left(n_{1}^{2}-1\right)$ which is certainly less than $n^{2} / 2$. We can draw same conclusion when $n=2^{r} n_{1}$, where $n_{1} \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$. Hence in both cases $G_{n}[i]$ will be a bipartite graph but not complete bipartite graph. Therefore, $n$ is of the form $2^{r}, r \in \mathbb{N}$.

Example 3.1 Let $n=4$ then by Lemma $3.1 V_{1}\left(G_{4}[i]\right)=\{0+i 0,0+i 2,1+i, 1+i 3,2+$ $i 0,2+i 2,3+i, 3+i 3\}$ and $V_{2}\left(G_{4}[i]\right)=\{0+i, 0+i 3,1+i 0,1+i 2,2+i, 2+i 3,3+i 0,3+i 2\}$ and by Theorem 3.1 degree of each vertex will be 8 . Graphical representation of $G_{4}[i]$ is shown in Figure 4.

Corollary $3.2 G_{n}[i]$ is a bipartite graph if and only if $n=2^{r} n_{1}, r \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n_{1} \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ or $n_{1} \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$.

Proof follows from the theorem 3.2.


Figure 4: $G_{4}[i]$

Example 3.2 Let $n=6$ then by Lemma 3.1 $V_{1}\left(G_{6}[i]\right)=\{0+i 0,0+i 2,0+i 4,1+i, 1+$ $i 3,1+i 5,2+i 0,2+i 2,2+i 4,3+i, 3+i 3,3+i 5,4+i 0,4+i 2,4+i 4,5+i, 5+i 3,5+i 5\}$ and $V_{2}\left(G_{6}[i]\right)=\{0+i, 0+i 3,0+i 5,1+i 0,1+i 2,1+i 4,2+i, 2+i 3,2+i 5,3+i 0,3+i 2,3+$ $i 4,4+i, 4+i 3,4+i 5,5+i 0,5+i 2,5+i 4\}$ containing 18 vertices in each set. By Theorem 3.1 degree of each vertex will be 16. Graphical representation of $G_{6}[i]$ is shown in Figure 5.


Figure 5: $G_{6}[i]$

Theorem 3.3 For $n \geqslant 2$, $\operatorname{diam}\left(G_{n}[i]\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { 2, if } n \text { is even or odd. } \\ 3, \text { if } n=n_{1} n_{2} \text { if } n_{1} \text { is even } \\ \text { and } n_{2} \text { is an odd prime. }\end{array}\right.$
Proof Suppose $n$ is even then by Theorem 3.2, $G_{n}[i]$ is a complete bipartite graph and hence $\operatorname{diam}\left(G_{n}[i]\right) \doteq 2$.

Suppose $n$ is odd and consider the vertices $(n-1)+i n$ and $1+i n$, they are not adjacent but $0+i 0$ is adjacent to both of them. Thus there will be a path $(n-1)+i n-0+i 0-1+i n$. Hence, $\operatorname{diam}\left(G_{n}[i]\right) \leqslant 2$. Theorem 3.1 suggests that $G_{n}[i]$ will never be a complete graph. So, $\operatorname{diam}\left(G_{n}[i]\right) \geqslant 2$. So, $\operatorname{diam}\left(G_{n}[i]\right)=2$.

Suppose $n=n_{1} n_{2}$, where $n_{1}$ is an even number and $n_{2}$ is any odd prime. Let us consider the vertices $0+i 0$ and $n_{2}+i n$ then they will never have a common vertex adjacent to them. So, $\operatorname{diam}\left(G_{n}[i]\right)>2$. Next we consider the vertices $0+i 0,(n-1)+i n, 1+i(n-1)$ and $n_{2}+i n$, then there will be a path $0+i 0-(n-1)+i n-1+i(n-1)-n_{2}+i n$. Therefore, $\operatorname{diam}\left(G_{n}[i]\right) \leqslant 3$. Hence, $\operatorname{diam}\left(G_{n}[i]\right)=3$.

Theorem 3.4 For $n \geqslant 2, \operatorname{girth}\left(G_{n}[i]\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}3, \text { if } n \text { is odd. } \\ \text { 4, if } n \text { is even. }\end{array}\right.$
Proof Suppose, $n$ is even then by Corollary 3.1.1, $G_{n}[i]$ is a bipartite graph and hence $\operatorname{girth}\left(G_{n}[i]\right) \geqslant 4$. Now let us consider the vertices $a=0+i 0, b=1+i n, c=2+i n$ and $d=$ $3+i n$. We can easily see that $\operatorname{gcd}(N(a+b), n)=1, \operatorname{gcd}(N(b+c), n)=1, \operatorname{gcd}(N(c+d), n)=1$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(N(d+a), n)=1$. But $\operatorname{gcd}(N(a+c), n) \neq 1, \operatorname{gcd}(N(b+d), n) \neq 1$. Thus, we get a closed path $0+i 0-1+i n-2+i n-3+i n-0+i 0$ of length 4 . Hence $\operatorname{girth}\left(G_{n}[i]\right)=4$.

Next we consider that $n$ is odd. Let us take the vertices $a^{\prime}=0+i 0, b^{\prime}=1+i 0$ and $c^{\prime}=0+i$. We observe that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(N\left(a^{\prime}+b^{\prime}\right), n\right)=1, \operatorname{gcd}\left(N\left(b^{\prime}+c^{\prime}\right), n\right)=1$ and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(N\left(c^{\prime}+a^{\prime}\right), n\right)=1$. Thus, we get a closed path $0+i 0-1+i 0-0+i-0+i 0$ of length 3. Hence, $\operatorname{girth}\left(G_{n}[i]\right)=3$.

## 4 Traversability and planarity of $G_{n}[i]$

Theorem 4.1 The unitary addition Cayley graph of Gaussian integers modulo n, $G_{n}[i]$ is Hamiltonian.

Proof Suppose, $n$ is even. We can construct a cycle $C=0+i 0-1+i n-2+i n-\ldots-$ $(n-1)+i n-1+i(n-1)-2+i(n-1)-3+i(n-1)-\ldots-(n-1)+i(n-1)-\ldots-n+$ $i(n-1)-n+i(n-2)-\ldots-n+i 3-n+i 2-n+i-0+i 0$ Since the cycle contains all the vertices of $G_{n}[i]$ exactly once. Thus, $C$ is one of the Hamiltonian cycles of $G_{n}[i]$. Hence $G_{n}[i]$ is a Hamiltonian graph.

Next we consider that $n$ is odd. We can construct a cycle $C^{\prime}=1+i 0-3+i 0-5+$ $i 0-7+i 0-\ldots(n-4)+i 0-(n-2)+i 0-0+i 0-2+i n-4+i n-6+i n-8+i n-(n-$ 5) $+i n-(n-3)+i n-(n-1)+i n-1+i(n-1)-2+i(n-1)-(n-1)+i(n-1)-1+$ $i(n-2)-2+i(n-2)-3+i(n-2)-(n-2)+i-(n-1)+i-1+i 0$. In this case also $C^{\prime}$ contains all the vertices of $G_{n}[i]$ exactly once. Thus, $C^{\prime}$ is one of the Hamiltonian cycles of $G_{n}[i]$. Hence $G_{n}[i]$ is a Hamiltonian graph.

Remark 4.1 As we get a Hamiltonian cycle when $n$ is even as well as when $n$ is odd. We can say that in both cases the graph $G_{n}[i]$ is a connected graph.

Theorem 4.2 If $n$ is an even number then unitary addition Cayley graph of Gaussian integers modulo $n, G_{n}[i]$ is Eulerian.

Proof Suppose $n=2^{r}, r \in \mathbb{N}$, then by the Theorem 3.1, the degree of each vertex will be $\left|U_{n}[i]\right|=2^{2(2 r-1)}$. Again when $n=2^{r} n_{1}, r \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n_{1} \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ or $n_{1} \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, then the degree of each vertex will be $2^{2(2 r-1)}\left(n_{1}\right)^{2}\left(n_{1}-1\right)^{2}$ or $2^{2(2 r-1)}\left(n_{1}\right)^{2}\left(n_{1}{ }^{2}-1\right)$, which are even numbers. Again a graph $G$ is Eulerian if and only if $G$ is connected and all its vertices have even degrees. By the remark above, the graph $G_{n}[i]$ is connected and, the degree of all the vertices of the graph $G_{n}[i]$ is even. Therefore, the graph $G_{n}[i]$ is Eulerian.

Theorem 4.3 $G_{n}[i]$ is planer if and only if $n=1,2$.

Proof When $n=2$ then $G_{n}[i]$ is a cycle of length 4. Hence $G_{n}[i]$ is planar for $n=1,2$. Again we know that a simple planar connected graph has a vertex of degree less than six. But when $n=3$ then the degree of unit elements of $G_{3}[i]$ is seven and the degree of zero divisor is eight. Therefore, $G_{n}[i]$ is nonplaner for $n \geqslant 3$.

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