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On Regular Graphs, VI*

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Let G be a connected regular graph of valence p + 1 where p is an odd prime. Let A be a subgroup of Aut(G) which is s-regular ($s \ge 0$). We prove that s < 3 and the cases s = 0, 1, 2, 3 do occur.

1. MAIN RESULT

In the whole paper G denotes a connected regular graph (finite or infinite) of valence p + 1 where p is an odd prime. We assume that there is a subgroup A of Aut (G) which is s-regular for some $s \ge 0$.

We have proved in [3] that $s \leq 7$ and $s \neq 6$. A short beautiful proof of a more general result (the valence being replaced by $p^k n + 1$ where n < p, $k \ge 1$) was given later by R. M. Weiss [5]. We also proved [4] that if $s \ge 2$ then the prime p must be a Mersenne prime, i.e., $p + 1 = 2^n$ for some positive integer n.

In this paper we finish off this problem by proving the following:

THEOREM. Under the above hypotheses we have $s \leq 3$.

2. Proof of
$$s \neq 7$$

Assume that s = 7. Let a, b, c, d, e, f, g be consecutive vertices of a 6-arc S in G. If $v_1, ..., v_k$ are vertices of G we denote by $A(v_1, ..., v_k)$ the subgroup of A consisting of all $\alpha \in A$ such that $\alpha(v_i) = v_i$, $1 \le i \le k$ and we say that this subgroup is the fixer in A of the set $\{v_1, ..., v_k\}$. On the other hand, the stabilizer of $\{v_1, ..., v_k\}$ in A is the subgroup of A consisting of all $\alpha \in A$ such that $\{\alpha(v_1), ..., \alpha(v_k)\} = \{v_1, ..., v_k\}$. It is clear that a fixer in A of a set of vertices is a normal subgroup of the stabilizer in A of the same set of vertices.

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We have the following diagram of various fixers:



Note that the girth of G is $\ge 2s - 2 = 12$ and consequently A(b, d) = A(b, c, d), A(a, d) = A(a, b, c, d), etc. (See [1] Prop. 17.2, p. 113).

Since A is 7-regular the orders of all subgroups in this diagram are known:

$$|A(d) = (p + 1) p^{6},$$

 $|A(c, d)| = p^{6}, |A(c, e)| = p^{5},$
 $|A(b, e)| = p^{4}, |A(b, f)| = p^{3},$
 $|A(a, f)| = p^{2}, |A(a, d, g)| = p$

The subgroups in the same row of this diagram (say A(c, d) and A(d, e)) are conjugate in A to each other.

It follows from [3, section 4] that the groups A(a, d), A(b, e), A(c, f), A(d, g) are elementary abelian but the groups A(b, d), A(c, e), A(d, f) are non-abelian. In fact when s = 7 the inequality

$$\frac{2}{3}(s-1) \leq k < \frac{1}{2}(s+2)$$

from [3, p. 259] gives k = 4. This means that the fixer in A of a 3-arc (3 = s - k) is abelian (necessarily elementary abelian) but the fixer in A of a 2-arc is not abelian.

Since A(c, e) is generated by A(b, e) and A(c, f) the above facts imply that A(b, f) is the center of A(c, e). This follows also from Lemma 2 of [3]. Moreover, that Lemma gives that the center of A(c, d) is A(a, f) and the center of A(d) is A(a, d, g).

For each vertex v of G let Z(v) be the center of A(v). We have just seen that Z(v) coincides with the fixer in A of any 6-arc S such that S(3) = v. Hence we have

LEMMA 1. Z(v) consists of all $\alpha \in A(v)$ which fix every vertex at distance ≤ 3 from v. If $\alpha \in Z(v)$, $\alpha \neq 1$ then α moves every vertex at distance 4 from v.

Proof. The first statement had been proved above. The second follows from 7-regularity of A.

Given a vertex v of G we shall denote by \tilde{v} a fixed nontrivial element of Z(v).

LEMMA 2. We have

$$egin{aligned} A(a,\,d,\,g) &= Z(d) = \langle ilde{d}
angle, \ A(a,\,f) &= \langle ilde{c},\, ilde{d}
angle, \ A(b,\,f) &= \langle ilde{c},\, ilde{d},\, ilde{e}
angle, \ A(b,\,e) &= \langle ilde{b},\, ilde{c},\, ilde{d},\, ilde{e}
angle, \ A(c,\,e) &= \langle ilde{b},\, ilde{c},\, ilde{d},\, ilde{e},\, ilde{d},\, ilde{c},\, ilde{d},\, ilde{c},\, ilde{d},\, ilde{e},\, ilde{c},\, ilde{c},\, ilde{c},\, ilde{c},\, ilde{d},\, ilde{e},\, ilde{c},\, ilde{c}$$

Proof. Since Z(d), has order p and $\tilde{d} \neq 1$ is in Z(d) we have $Z(d) = \langle \tilde{d} \rangle$. Clearly, \tilde{c} , $\tilde{d} \in A(a, f)$ by Lemma 1 and hence $\langle \tilde{c}, \tilde{d} \rangle \subset A(a, f)$. Since both $\langle \tilde{c}, \tilde{d} \rangle$ and A(a, f) have order p^2 they are equal. All other equalities can be proved similarly.

We denote by $(x, y) = xyx^{-1}y^{-1}$ the commutator of two elements x, y of a group.

LEMMA 3. We have $(\tilde{b}, \tilde{f}) = \tilde{d}^r$ for some $r \neq 0 \pmod{p}$.

Proof. $(\tilde{b}, \tilde{f}) \neq 1$ because A(c, e) is non-abelian. An easy inspection shows that (\tilde{b}, \tilde{f}) fixes a and g and hence belongs to the fixer of S, i.e., to Z(d).

LEMMA 4. We have

$$(\tilde{a},\tilde{f})\in\langle \tilde{b},\,\tilde{c},\,\tilde{d},\,\tilde{e}
angle=A(b,\,e)$$

but

$$(\tilde{a},\tilde{f}) \notin \langle \tilde{c},\tilde{d},\tilde{e} \rangle = A(b,f).$$

Proof. By Lemma 1 the distance between $\tilde{f}^{-1}(b)$ and a is 3. Therefore $\tilde{a}^{-1}\tilde{f}^{-1}(b) = \tilde{f}^{-1}(b)$, $\tilde{f}\tilde{a}^{-1}\tilde{f}^{-1}(b) = b$ and $(\tilde{a}, \tilde{f})(b) = \tilde{a}(b) = b$. Thus (\tilde{a}, \tilde{f}) fixes b and similarly, it fixes e.

On the other hand the distance between $\tilde{a}^{-1}(f)$ and f is 4. By Lemma 1 we have $\tilde{f}\tilde{a}^{-1}(f) \neq \tilde{a}^{-1}(f)$ and consequently

$$(\tilde{a},\tilde{f})(f) = \tilde{a}\tilde{f}\tilde{a}^{-1}(f) \neq f.$$

Therefore $(\tilde{a}, \tilde{f}) \notin A(f)$ and $(\tilde{a}, \tilde{f}) \notin A(b, f)$.

Now, $A(c, e) \triangleleft A(d)$, see [4, section 5]. Since A(b, f) is the center of A(c, e) we have $A(b, f) \triangleleft A(d)$. Thus we have an action of A(d) on V = A(c, e)/A(b, f) induced by conjugation. For $\tau \in A(c, e)$ let $\hat{\tau}$ be its canonical image in V. Similarly, the canonical images of \tilde{b} and \tilde{f} in V will be denoted by \hat{b} and \hat{f} , respectively. The above action of A(d) on V is given explicitly as follows

$$\sigma * \hat{\tau} = (\sigma \tau \sigma^{-1})^{\hat{}}$$

where $\sigma \in A(d)$ and $\tau \in A(c, e)$. Thus we use the star to denote this action. Note that the elements $\sigma \in A(c, e)$ act trivially on V, i.e., $\sigma * \hat{\tau} = \hat{\tau}$ for such σ and all $\tau \in A(c, e)$.

The fixer of $\{a, d, g\}$ is $Z(d) = \langle \tilde{d} \rangle$. The stabilizer of $\{a, d, g\}$ has order 2p because there exist automorphisms in A which map S to its opposite 6-arc. Let α be any element of order 2 in this stabilizer. Then we have

$$\alpha(a) = g, \, \alpha(b) = f, \, \alpha(c) = e.$$

From now on we shall assume that \tilde{a} , \tilde{b} , \tilde{c} , \tilde{e} , \tilde{f} , \tilde{g} have been chosen so that $\alpha \tilde{a} \alpha = \tilde{g}$, $\alpha \tilde{b} \alpha = \tilde{f}$, $\alpha \tilde{c} \alpha = \tilde{e}$. This can be done because we can use these equations to define \tilde{g} , \tilde{f} , \tilde{e} in terms of \tilde{a} , \tilde{b} , \tilde{c} which are still arbitrary.

Thus $\alpha * \hat{b} = \hat{f}$ and $\alpha * \hat{f} = \hat{b}$.

Let B be a Sylow 2-subgroup of A(d) containing α . We know by [4, Theorem 4] that B is elementary abelian of order $2^n = p + 1$ and that $A(c, b)B \triangleleft A(d)$.

By Lemma 4 we have

$$\tilde{a}\tilde{f}\tilde{a}^{-1}\equiv \tilde{b}^k\tilde{f} \mod A(b,f)$$

where $k \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Thus

$$\tilde{a} * \hat{f} = (\tilde{a}\tilde{f}\tilde{a}^{-1})^{\wedge} = \hat{b}^k \hat{f}, \\ \tilde{a} * \hat{b} = (\tilde{a}\tilde{b}\tilde{a}^{-1})^{\wedge} = \hat{b}.$$

Since

 $\widetilde{a}^{-1} = \widetilde{a}^{p-1}$

we have

$$\tilde{a}^{-1} * f = (\hat{b}^k)^{p-1} f = \hat{b}^{-k} f.$$

Let $\beta = \tilde{a} \propto \tilde{a}^{-1}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha\beta * \hat{f} &= \alpha \tilde{a} \alpha \tilde{a}^{-1} * \hat{f} &= \alpha \tilde{a} \alpha * (\hat{b}^{-k} \hat{f}) \\ &= \alpha \tilde{a} * (\hat{b} \hat{f}^{-k}) \\ &= \alpha * (\hat{b} (\hat{b}^{k} \hat{f})^{-k}) = \alpha * (\hat{b}^{1-k^{2}} \hat{f}^{-k}) \\ &= \hat{b}^{-k} (\hat{f})^{1-k^{2}} \end{aligned}$$
(1)

and

$$\beta \alpha * \hat{f} = \beta * \hat{b} = \tilde{a} \alpha \tilde{a}^{-1} * \hat{b} = \tilde{a} \alpha * \hat{b}$$

= $\tilde{a} * \hat{f} = \hat{b}^k \hat{f}.$ (2)

But $\beta \in A(c, e)B$ because $\alpha \in B$ and $A(c, e)B \triangleleft A(d)$. We can write $\beta = \gamma \sigma$ with $\gamma \in A(c, e)$ and $\sigma \in B$. Since B is abelian, α and σ commute and hence

$$\alpha\beta * \hat{f} = \alpha\gamma * (\sigma * \hat{f}) = \alpha * (\sigma * \hat{f})$$

= $\alpha\sigma * \hat{f} = \sigma\alpha * \hat{f} = \gamma * (\sigma\alpha * \hat{f})$
= $\gamma\sigma\alpha * \hat{f} = \beta\alpha * \hat{f}$ (3)

because $\gamma \in A(c, e)$ acts trivially on v.

From (1), (2) and (3) we obtain that $\hat{b}^{2k} = 1$, i.e., that p divides 2k. This is a contradiction because p is an odd prime and we know that $k \neq 0 \pmod{p}$. Thus s = 7 is impossible.

3. Proof of $s \neq 5$

Assume that s = 5. Let a, b, c, d, e be consecutive vertices of a 4-arc S in G. Now we have the diagram



where $|A(c)| = (p + 1) p^4$, $|A(b, c)| = p^4$, $|A(b, d)| = p^3$, $|A(a, d)| = p^2$, |A(a, c, e)| = p.

As in the previous case, one knows that A(b, d) is elementary abelian, A(b, c) is non-abelian, A(a, d) is the center of A(b, c) and A(a, c, e) is the center of A(c). Again we shall write Z(c) = A(a, c, e). For each vertex v of G let \tilde{v} be a non-trivial element of Z(v), thus $Z(v) = \langle \tilde{v} \rangle$. The elements of Z(v) fix every vertex of G at distance ≤ 2 from v and this property characterizes Z(v). Moreover, \tilde{v} moves every vertex at distance 3 from v.

Again we have an element $\alpha \in A(c)$ such that $\alpha^2 = 1$, $\alpha(a) = e$ and $\alpha(b) = d$. We shall assume that \tilde{a} , \tilde{b} , \tilde{d} , \tilde{e} have been chosen so that $\alpha \tilde{a} \alpha = \tilde{e}$ and $\alpha \tilde{b} \alpha = \tilde{d}$. Note that we have

$$egin{aligned} A(a,\,c,\,e) &= \langle ilde{c}
angle, \ A(a,\,d) &= \langle ilde{b},\, ilde{c}
angle, \ A(b,\,d) &= \langle ilde{b},\, ilde{c},\, ilde{d}
angle, \ A(b,\,c) &= \langle ilde{a},\, ilde{b},\, ilde{c},\, ilde{d}
angle, \ A(c) &= \langle ilde{a},\, ilde{b},\, ilde{c},\, ilde{d}
angle, \end{aligned}$$

Since $(\tilde{a}, \tilde{d}) \in A(a, d) = \langle \tilde{b}, \tilde{c} \rangle$ and since (\tilde{a}, \tilde{d}) moves e it follows that

$$ilde{a} ilde{d} ilde{a}^{-1} ilde{d}^{-1}\equiv ilde{b}^k \mod \langle ilde{c}
angle.$$

Now let V = A(b, d)/A(a, c, e) and let A(c) act on V by conjugation. Using the notation analogous to that which we used in the previous section, we have

$$egin{array}{lll} ilde{a} st \hat{b} &= \hat{b}, \, ilde{a} st \hat{d} &= \hat{b}^k \hat{d}, \ lpha st \hat{b} &= \hat{d}, \, lpha st \hat{d} &= \hat{b}. \end{array}$$

The elements of A(b, d) act trivially in V.

Let $\beta = \tilde{a} \alpha \tilde{a}^{-1}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha\beta * \hat{d} &= \alpha \tilde{a} \alpha \tilde{a}^{-1} * \hat{d} &= \alpha \tilde{a} \alpha * (\hat{b}^{-k} \hat{d}) \\ &= \alpha \tilde{a} * (\hat{b} \hat{d}^{-k}) = \alpha * (\hat{b} (\hat{b}^{k} \hat{d})^{-k}) \\ &= \alpha * ((\hat{b})^{1-k^{2}} \hat{d}^{-k}) \\ &= \hat{b}^{-k} (\hat{d})^{1-k^{3}}, \\ \beta\alpha * \hat{d} &= \beta * \hat{b} = \tilde{a} \alpha \tilde{a}^{-1} * \hat{b} = \tilde{a} \alpha * \hat{b} \\ &= \tilde{a} * \hat{d} = \hat{b}^{k} \hat{d}. \end{aligned}$$

We get now a contradiction in the same way as in section 2.

4. Proof of $s \neq 4$

Assume that s = 4. Let 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 be consecutive vertices of a 4-arc in G. Denote the edges $\{0, 1\}, \{1, 2\}, \{2, 3\}, \{3, 4\}$ by a, b, c, d, respectively. The girth of G is ≥ 6 . We now have the diagram



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where A(0, 2, 4) is the trivial group. The orders are given by

$$|A(2)| = (p + 1)p^3, |A(1, 2)| = p^3,$$

 $|A(1, 3)| = p^2, |A(0, 2, 3)| = p.$

It follows from [3, Lemma 2] that A(0, 2, 3) is the center of A(1, 2) and A(0, 2, 4) is the center of A(2).

LEMMA 5. The elements of A(0, 2, 3) are characterized by the property that they fix every vertex at distance ≤ 1 from the edge b. Moreover, if \tilde{b} is any non-trivial element of A(0, 2, 3) then \tilde{b} moves every vertex at distance 2 from the edge b.

Proof. Let $\alpha \in A(0, 2, 3)$ and let 5 be a vertex at distance 1 from b, say 5 is adjacent to 1. By 4-regularity of A there exists $\beta \in A(1, 2)$ such that $\beta(0) =$ 5. Then since α belongs to the center of A(1, 2) we have $\alpha\beta = \beta\alpha$ and $\alpha(5) = \alpha\beta(0) = \beta\alpha(0) = \beta(0) = 5$. This proves the first assertion. The second follows from the 4-regularity of A.

Now, it is easy to check that

$$egin{aligned} A(0,\,2,\,3) &= \langle ilde{b}
angle, \ A(1,\,3) &= \langle ilde{b},\, ilde{c}
angle, \ A(1,\,2) &= \langle ilde{a},\, ilde{b},\, ilde{c}
angle, \ A(2) &= \langle ilde{a},\, ilde{b},\, ilde{c},\, ilde{d}
angle. \end{aligned}$$

From now on let $\alpha \in A(2)$ be defined by $\alpha(0) = 4$, $\alpha(4) = 0$. Then $\alpha^2 = 1$, $\alpha \neq 1$. We assume that $\tilde{a}, \tilde{b}, \tilde{c}, \tilde{d}$ have been chosen so that $\alpha \tilde{a} \alpha = \tilde{d}, \alpha \tilde{b} \alpha = \tilde{c}$. The group A(2) acts on A(1, 3) by conjugation

$$\sigma * \tau = \sigma \tau \sigma^{-1}$$

for $\sigma \in A(2)$ and $\tau \in A(1, 3)$.

The commutator (\tilde{a}, \tilde{c}) is not the identity because A(1, 2) is non-abelian. Hence $(\tilde{a}, \tilde{c}) = \tilde{b}^k$ for some $k \neq 0 \pmod{p}$.

Thus we have

$$\tilde{a} * \tilde{b} = \tilde{b}, \, \tilde{a} * \tilde{c} = \tilde{b}^k \tilde{c},$$

 $\alpha * \tilde{b} = \tilde{c}, \, \alpha * \tilde{c} = \tilde{b}.$

Let $\beta = \tilde{a} \alpha \tilde{a}^{-1}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha\beta * \tilde{c} &= \alpha \tilde{a} \alpha \tilde{a}^{-1} * \tilde{c} &= \alpha \tilde{a} \alpha * (\tilde{b}^{-k} \tilde{c}) \\ &= \alpha \tilde{a} * (\tilde{b} \tilde{c}^{-k}) = \alpha * (\tilde{b} (\tilde{b}^k \tilde{c})^{-k}) \\ &= \alpha * ((\tilde{b})^{1-k^2} \tilde{c}^{-k}) = \tilde{b}^{-k} (\tilde{c})^{1-k^2}, \\ \beta\alpha * \tilde{c} &= \beta * \tilde{b} = \tilde{a} \alpha \tilde{a}^{-1} * \tilde{b} = \tilde{a} \alpha * \tilde{b} \\ &= \tilde{a} * \tilde{c} = \tilde{b}^k \tilde{c}. \end{aligned}$$

Now, we get a contradiction in the same way as in section 2. This completes the proof of our Theorem.

5. Some Examples

Now we shall show that the cases s = 1, 2, 3 can occur by constructing few simple examples. The case s = 0 is well-known to occur since we can use Cayley graphs as examples.

EXAMPLE 1. Let P be a sharply doubly transitive subgroup of the symmetric group S_n . It is well-known [2, section 20.7] that n must be a power of a prime, say, $n = q^k$, q prime, $k \ge 1$. Let $V = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ be the set on which P acts. Let P' be another copy of P and V' = $\{1', 2', ..., n'\}$ another copy of V and we assume that P' acts on V'. Let $G = K_{n,n}$ be the complete bipartite graph whose vertex set is the disjoint union $V \cup V'$; two vertices being adjacent only if one of them is in V and the other in V'. Let A be the subgroup of Aut(G) which is generated by P, P' and the involution $y = (11')(22') \cdots (nn')$. It is clear that A is 3-regular.

The valence of G is $n = q^k$. This will be of the form p + 1, p prime, if and only if q = 2 and $p = 2^k - 1$ is a Mersenne prime.

EXAMPLE 2. Let P be a sharply transitive subgroup of S_n . Define G and A as in Example 1. Then A is 1-regular.

EXAMPLE 3. Let $G = K_5$. Then $Aut(G) = S_5$ has a subgroup $A = A_5$ of index 2. This A is 2-regular

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