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# On connected tetravalent normal edge-transitive Cayley graphs of non-Abelian groups of order $5 p^{2}$ 

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#### Abstract

Our aim in this paper is to investigate graph automorphism and group automorphism determining all connected tetravalent normal edge transitive Cayley graphs on non-Abelian groups of order $5 p^{2}$ with respect to tetravalent sets and same-order elements, where $p$ is a prime number and its Sylow $p$-subgroup is cyclic.


Key words: Cayley graph, normal edge-transitive, arc-transitive, graph automorphism, group automorphism

## 1. Introduction

There is an old definition of a graph attributed to Arthur Cayley, which is related to a group $G$, and a subset $S$ of $G$, not including the identity element 1. The Cayley graph $\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ is the graph with the vertex set $V(C a y(G, S))=G$ and the edge set $E(C a y(G, S))=\left\{(u, v) \mid v u^{-1} \in S\right\}$. We notice that the edge set can be identified with set of ordered pairs $\{(g, s g) \mid g \in G, s \in S\}$. If $S$ is closed under taking inverse, $S=S^{-1}$, then $\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ is an undirected graph. Obviously, the degree of each vertex is $|S|$ and $\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ is connected if and only if $G=\langle S\rangle$.

A graph $\Gamma$ is called vertex-transitive or edge-transitive if the automorphism group $\mathbb{A} u t(\Gamma)$, acts transitively on vertex-set or edge-set of $\Gamma$, respectively. Now, let $\Gamma=\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$.

For $g \in G$, let $\rho_{g}: G \rightarrow G$ given by $\rho_{g}(x)=x g$. By definition of Cayley graph, clearly $\rho_{g} \in \mathbb{A} u t(\Gamma)$. The set $\rho(G)=\left\{\rho_{g} \mid g \in G\right\}$ forms a subgroup (isomorphic to $G$ ) of $\mathbb{A} u t(\Gamma)$. In this way, $\Gamma$ is vertex-transitive because $\rho(G) \leqslant \mathbb{A} u t(\Gamma)$, acting right regularly on the vertices of $\Gamma$, while $\Gamma$ is not edge-transitive in general.

We employ the following notation and terminology. The notation $G=K \rtimes H$ is used to indicate that $G$ is a semidirect product of $K$ by $H$. We denote by $\mathbb{A} u t(G, S)$, the subgroup of $\mathbb{A} u t(G)$ consisting of all $\sigma \in \mathbb{A} u t(G)$ such that $\sigma(S)=S$. It is easy to see that $\mathbb{A} u t(G, S)$ is a subgroup of the automorphisms group of $\operatorname{Cay}(G, S) . \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ denotes a cyclic group of order $n$, and $\mathbb{S}_{4}$ denotes the symmetric group on four letters. The distance of length $i$, between two vertices $u$ and $v$, in a graph $\Gamma$ is the number of $i$ edges in a shortest path connecting them, denoted by $d(u, v)=i$. Let us introduce the $D_{i}(u)=\{v \in V(\Gamma) \mid d(u, v)=i\}$.

As far as the authors know, the concepts normal and normal edge transitive introduced by M.Y. Xu and C.E. Praeger in [9] and [7], respectively for the first time. A Cayley graph $\Gamma=C a y(G, S)$ is called normal if $\rho(G)$ is a normal subgroup of $\mathbb{A} u t(\Gamma)$, i.e. $N_{\mathbb{A} u t(\Gamma)}(\rho(G))=\mathbb{A} u t(\Gamma)$; and $\Gamma$ is called normal edge-transitive if

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$N_{\mathbb{A} u t(\Gamma)}(\rho(G))$ is transitive on the edges of $\Gamma$. These concepts play an important role in the theory of Cayley graphs.

Normal edge-transitive Cayley graphs on non-Abelian groups of order $p^{2}, 3 p^{2}, 4 p^{2}$ and modular groups of order $8 n$, where $p$ is prime and $n$ is a natural number, were studied in $[2,5,6,8]$. In this paper, motivated by $[2,6]$, we determine the structure of Cayley graphs on non-Abelian groups of orders $5 p^{2}$ with cyclic Sylow $p$-subgroup with respect to tetravalent sets with same-order elements, where $p$ is a prime number. Some results of normal edge-transitive Cayley graphs of $P G L(2, p), p$ prime, and Frobenius groups are given in [4] and [1], respectively.

We collect the main results in this paper into one theorem.

Theorem 1.1 (Main Theorem) Let $G$ be a finite group of order $5 p^{2}$ with cyclic Sylow p-subgroup. There exists exactly three tetravalent subsets $S_{i}$ of $G, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant 3$, such that for each $i, G=\left\langle S_{i}\right\rangle$, all elements of $S_{i}$ are of order 5 and one of the following holds.
(1) $S_{1}=\left\{x, x y, x^{-1},(x y)^{-1}\right\}$, and each element of $S_{1}$ has order $5 ; \Gamma=C a y\left(G, S_{1}\right)$ is normal, normal edge-transitive and edge-transitive, but it is not arc-transitive. $\mathbb{A} u t\left(G, S_{1}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ and $\mathbb{A} u t(\Gamma) \cong \rho(G) \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_{2}$.
(2) $S_{2}=\left\{x^{2}, x y, x^{-2},(x y)^{-1}\right\}$, and each element of $S_{2}$ has order $5 ; \Gamma=C a y\left(G, S_{2}\right)$ is normal but it is not normal edge-transitive and arc-transitive. $\mathbb{A} u t\left(G, S_{2}\right)$ is trivial and $\mathbb{A} u t(\Gamma) \cong \rho(G)$.
(3) $S_{3}=\left\{x^{2}, x^{2} y, x^{-2},\left(x^{2} y\right)^{-1}\right\}$, and each element of $S_{3}$ has order $5 ; \Gamma=C a y\left(G, S_{3}\right)$ is normal, normal edge transitive and edge transitive, but it is not arc-transitive; $\mathbb{A} u t\left(G, S_{1}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ and $\mathbb{A} u t(\Gamma) \cong \rho(G) \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_{2}$. The tetravalent nonnormal Cayley graphs of order $5 p^{2}$ is studied in Khazaei and Sharifi*.

## 2. Preliminary and some results

We review some facts whose proofs can be found in the literature. Here we keep fixed terminologies used in the first section.

Lemma 2.1 ([3, Lemma 2.1] or [7]) For a Cayley graph $\Gamma=\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$, we have $N_{\mathbb{A} u t(\Gamma)}(\rho(G))=\rho(G) \rtimes$ $\mathbb{A} u t(G, S)$.

Therefore, $\Gamma$ is normal edge-transitive when $\rho(G) \rtimes \mathbb{A} u t(G, S)$ is transitive on the edge-set of $\Gamma$.
The following lemma is essential in this paper.

Lemma 2.2 ([7, Proposition 1(c)]) Consider the Cayley graph $\Gamma=C a y(G, S)$. Then the following are equivalent:
(i) $\Gamma$ is normal edge-transitive;
(ii) $S=T \cup T^{-1}$, where $T$ is an $\mathbb{A} u t(G, S)$-orbit in $G$;

Moreover, $\rho(G) \rtimes \mathbb{A} u t(G, S)$ is transitive on the arcs of $\Gamma$ if and only if $\mathbb{A} u t(G, S)$ is transitive on $S$.

[^1]Lemma 2.3 ([9, Proposition 1.5]) The following are equivalent
(i) $\rho(G) \unlhd A$;
(ii) $\mathbb{A} u t(\Gamma)=\rho(G) \rtimes \mathbb{A} u t(G, S)$;
(iii) $A_{1} \leqslant \mathbb{A} u t(G, S)$.

Let $G$ be a finite group of order $5 p^{2}$. By Sylow theorems we can see that if the Sylow $p$-subgroup of $G$ is cyclic then $G$ is isomorphic to

$$
\left\langle x, y \mid x^{5}=y^{p^{2}}=1, x^{-1} y x=y^{k}\right\rangle
$$

where $1<k<p^{2}, p \nmid k, x y x^{-1}=y^{k^{4}}$ and $k^{5} \equiv 1\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$.
By a simple computation we find $o\left(x^{i} y^{j}\right)=5$, for $1 \leq i \leq 4,0 \leq j<p^{2}$.

Lemma $2.4|\mathbb{A} u t(G)| \leqslant p^{3}(p-1)$.
Proof Suppose that $f$ is an automorphism of $G$. Therefore, for the generators $x$ and $y$ of $G, f(x)$ and $f(y)$ must be of order 5 and $p^{2}$, respectively. In fact, $f(x) \in\left\{x^{i} y^{j} \mid 1 \leqslant i<5,0 \leqslant j<p^{2}\right\}$ and $f(y) \in\left\{y^{j} \mid(j, p)=1\right\}$. We claim that $f(x)=x y^{j}, 0 \leqslant j<p^{2}$. We shall prove this claim by the following steps:

Step 1. $f(x) \neq x^{2} y^{j}, 0 \leqslant j<p^{2}$.
Suppose that $f(x)=x^{2} y^{j}$ and $f(y)=y^{j^{\prime}}$. On the other hand, $x^{-1} y x=y^{k}$. Thus, we have

$$
\begin{gathered}
f\left(y^{k}\right)=f\left(x^{-1} y x\right)=f(x)^{-1} f(y) f(x)=y^{-j} x^{-2} y^{j^{\prime}} x^{2} y^{j} \\
=y^{-j} x^{-1}\left(x^{-1} y^{j^{\prime}} x\right) x y^{j}=y^{-j} x^{-1}\left(y^{k j^{\prime}}\right) x y^{j}=y^{-j} y^{k^{2} j^{\prime}} y^{j}=y^{k^{2} j^{\prime}} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Moreover,

$$
f(y)=y^{j^{\prime}} \Rightarrow f\left(y^{k}\right)=y^{k j^{\prime}}
$$

Therefore,

$$
y^{k j^{\prime}}=y^{k^{2} j^{\prime}} \Rightarrow p^{2}\left|\left(k^{2}-k\right) j^{\prime} \Rightarrow p^{2}\right|\left(k^{2}-k\right)
$$

Since $p \nmid k$, we have $p^{2} \mid k-1$, contradicting $1<k<p^{2}$. Thus, $f(x) \neq x^{2} y^{j}$ with $0 \leqslant j \leqslant p^{2}$.
Step 2. $f(x) \neq x^{3} y^{j}, 0 \leqslant j<p^{2}$.
Suppose that $f(x)=x^{3} y^{j}$ for some $0 \leqslant j<p^{2}$. Similar to the first step, we conclude $p^{2} \mid k\left(k^{2}-1\right)$, since $1<k<p^{2}, p^{2} \mid k^{2}-1$. That is a contradiction because if $p^{2} \mid k^{2}-1$ is true then there are three cases. First, if $p \mid k+1$ and $p \mid k-1$, then this is invalid because $p$ is odd. Secondly, if $p^{2} \mid k+1$ then $p^{2}=k+1$, due to $1<k<p^{2}$. Besides, $k^{5} \equiv 1$ (mode $p^{2}$ ). Thus, we have: $\left(p^{2}-1\right)^{5} \equiv 1$ (mode $p^{2}$ ). However, this implies $-1 \equiv 1$ (mode $p^{2}$ ), which is impossible. Third case i.e. $p^{2} \mid k-1$ does not occur when $1<k<p^{2}$.

Step 3. $f(x) \neq x^{4} y^{j}, 0 \leqslant j<p^{2}$. Suppose that $f(x)=x^{4} y^{j}$ for some $0 \leqslant j<p^{2}$. Again, similar to the first case, we have $p^{2} \mid k\left(k^{3}-1\right)$. In this way, $p^{2} \mid k^{3}-1$, makes a contradiction because if $p^{2} \mid k^{3}-1$ then $p^{2} \mid k^{5}-k^{2}$. Moreover, $k^{5} \equiv 1$ (mode $p^{2}$ ). Thus, $p^{2}$ will divide $k^{2}-1$. However, in Step 2 we showed that this does not happen.

Therefore, there are $p^{2}$ cases for the image of $f$ on $x$ and the image of $f$ on $y$ has $\varphi\left(p^{2}\right)$ cases, where $\varphi$ is the Euler function. Hence, all states are totally $p^{3}(p-1)$. This completes the proof.

We are going to characterize the automorphism group of $G$. In the following lemma $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{2}}^{\times}$denotes the multiplication group of the field of order $p^{2}$ with $\varphi\left(p^{2}\right)$ elements.

Lemma $2.5 \mathbb{A} u t(G) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p^{2}} \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_{p^{2}}^{\times}$.
Proof Let $A=\left\{f \in \mathbb{A} u t(G) \mid f(y)=y, f(x)=x y^{j}, 0 \leqslant j<p^{2}\right\}$. It is easy to see that $A$ is a subgroup of order $p^{2}$ of $\mathbb{A} u t(G)$. If $f \in A$ and $g \in \mathbb{A} u t(G)$ with property $f(y)=y, f(x)=x y^{j}$ and $g(y)=y^{i}, g(x)=x y^{j^{\prime}}$, then

$$
g^{-1} f g(y)=g^{-1}\left(f\left(y^{i}\right)\right)=g^{-1}\left(y^{i}\right)=y
$$

Hence, $g^{-1} f g \in A$. Therefore $A$ is a normal subgroup of $\mathbb{A} u t(G)$. Suppose $f(x)=x y, f(y)=y$, then $f$ is an element of order $p^{2}$ belonging $A$. Thus $A=\langle f\rangle$. We conclude that $A \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p^{2}}$.

Now, Let $B=\left\{f \in \mathbb{A} u t(G) \mid f(x)=x, f(y)=y^{i}, 1 \leqslant i<p^{2},(i, p)=1\right\} . B$ is a subgroup of order $\varphi\left(p^{2}\right)$ such that intersection $A$ and $B$ is trivial. Obviously, $B$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{2}}^{\times}$, and the result is now immediate.

We are interested in the Cayley graph $\Gamma=\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ when $|S|=4, G=\langle S\rangle$, and all elements of $S$ are of order 5 .

The elements of $S$ are of the form $x^{i} y^{j}, 0 \leq i \leq 4,0 \leq j<p^{2}$. Since $G=\langle S\rangle$ and inverse $x^{3} y^{j}$ and $x^{4} y^{j}$ are $x^{2} y^{j^{\prime}}$ and $x y^{j^{\prime}}$, respectively. We conclude that $S=S_{i}$ with $i \in\{1,2,3\}$, where, if $x^{i} y^{j} \in S$ then $\left(x^{i} y^{j}\right)^{-1} \in S$, with the following description:

$$
\begin{gathered}
S_{1}=\left\{x y^{j}, x y^{j^{\prime}},\left(x y^{j}\right)^{-1},\left(x y^{j^{\prime}}\right)^{-1}\right\}, j \not \equiv j^{\prime}\left(\bmod p^{2}\right) \\
S_{2}=\left\{x y^{j}, x^{2} y^{j^{\prime}},\left(x y^{j}\right)^{-1},\left(x^{2} y^{j^{\prime}}\right)^{-1}\right\}, j^{\prime} \not \equiv j(k+1)\left(\bmod p^{2}\right) \\
S_{3}=\left\{x^{2} y^{j},\left(x^{2} y^{j}\right)^{-1}, x^{2} y^{j^{\prime}},\left(x^{2} y^{j^{\prime}}\right)^{-1}\right\}, \quad\left(j \not \equiv j^{\prime}\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

So our task is then to study all $\operatorname{Cay}\left(G, S_{i}\right), 1 \leqslant i \leqslant 3$.
3. $\Gamma_{1}=\operatorname{Cay}\left(G, S_{1}\right)$

We start with the following lemma.

Lemma 3.1 $S_{1}$ is equivalent to $\left\{x, x y, x^{-1},(x y)^{-1}\right\}$.

Proof We know $S_{1}=\left\{x y^{j}, x y^{j^{\prime}},\left(x y^{j}\right)^{-1},\left(x y^{j^{\prime}}\right)^{-1}\right\}$ where $0 \leq j, j^{\prime}<p^{2}, j \not \equiv j^{\prime}\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$. It is sufficient to let $f(x)=x y^{j}$ and $f(y)=y^{j^{\prime}-j}$. Hence, $f(x y)=x y^{j} y^{j^{\prime}-j}=x y^{j^{\prime}}$, as wanted.

From now on, we use this equivalent set for $S_{1}$. Clearly, $G=\left\langle S_{1}\right\rangle$.
Theorem 3.2 $\mathbb{A} u t\left(G, S_{1}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2}$.
Proof Obviously, $\mathbb{A} u t\left(G, S_{1}\right) \leqslant \mathbb{S}_{4}$. On the other hand, $\mathbb{A} u t\left(G, S_{1}\right)$ does not have any element of order 3. Because, if $\sigma \in \mathbb{A} u t\left(G, S_{1}\right)$ is of order 3, then $\sigma$ will fix an element of $S_{1}$. So, its inversion should also be kept fix by $\sigma$. Thus, two remaining elements of $S_{1}$ will be sent to each other by $\sigma$. Therefore, $\sigma$ has a transposition in its decomposition to disjoint cycles. Consequently, the order of $\sigma$ is even. Moreover, $\mathbb{A} u t\left(G, S_{1}\right)$ can not contain an element of order 4 . Because, if there is such an element, then one of the following two cases happens; $\sigma_{1}=\left(x, x y, x^{-1},(x y)^{-1}\right)$ or $\sigma_{2}=\left(x,(x y)^{-1}, x^{-1}, x y\right)$. Assume that $\sigma(y)=y^{i}$ with $0<i<p$. For the first case, $x^{-1}=\sigma_{1}(x y)=\sigma_{1}(x) \sigma_{1}(y)=x y y^{i}$, where $\left(i, p^{2}\right)=1$. Therefore $x^{-2}=y^{i+1}$ which is a contradiction. And, for the second case, $x^{-1}=\sigma_{2}\left((x y)^{-1}\right)=\sigma_{2}\left(y^{-1} x^{-1}\right)=\sigma_{2}\left(y^{-1}\right) \sigma_{2}\left(x^{-1}\right)$. Therefore $x^{-2}=x^{-1} y^{-i} x y=y^{1-k i}$ which is again a contradiction. Thus, $\mathbb{A} u t\left(G, S_{1}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ or $\mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}$. By the proof of Lemma 2.4, if $\sigma \in \mathbb{A} u t\left(G, S_{1}\right)$, then $\sigma(x)=x$ or $x y$ and $\sigma(x y)=x$ or $x y$. If $\sigma(x)=x$ then $\sigma(x y)=x y$. Thus, $\sigma(y)=y$ yields that $\sigma$ is trivial. If $\sigma(x)=x y$ then $\sigma(x y)=x$. Therefore $x=\sigma(x y)=\sigma(x) \sigma(y)=x y \sigma(y)$. So, $\sigma(y)=y^{-1}$. Obviously, $\sigma$ is an involution, and we are done.

Let $A=\mathbb{A} u t(\Gamma)$, and suppose that $A_{g}$ is a stabilizer of $g$, when $A$ acts on $G$. We have the following useful lemma.

Lemma 3.3 If $\varphi \in A_{g}$ and one of the elements of $D_{1}(g)$ is fixed by $\varphi$, then $\varphi$ fix all the elements of $D_{1}(g)$.
Proof Let $C_{1}=\left\{g, x g, x^{2} g, x^{3} g, x^{4} g\right\}$ and $C_{2}=\left\{g, x y g,(x y)^{2} g,(x y)^{3} g,(x y)^{4} g\right\}$. It is straightforward to check that $g$ is the only common vertex between these two cycles $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ of length 5 , see Figure 1.


Figure 1. g is the only common vertex between these two cycles $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ of length 5.

If $\varphi(x g)=x g$ then $\varphi\left(x^{i} g\right)=x^{i} g$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant 4$. Because $x^{4} g \in D_{1}(g)$ and $\varphi$ preserve distance, so we have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi\left(x^{4} g\right) \in \varphi\left(D_{1}(g)\right) & =D_{1}(\varphi(g))=D_{1}(g)=\left\{x g, x^{4} g, x y g,(x y)^{-1} g\right\} \\
& =\left\{\varphi(x g), x^{4} g, x y g,(x y)^{-1} g\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\varphi$ is one-to-one, so $\varphi\left(x^{4} g\right) \in\left\{x^{4} g, x y g,(x y)^{-1} g\right\}$. On the other hand, $\left(x^{2} g, x^{3} g\right)$ is an edge and $x^{2} g \in D_{1}(x g), x^{3} g \in D_{1}\left(x^{4} g\right)$, so there exists a member of $\varphi\left(D_{1}(x g)\right)$ that is adjacent with a member of

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$\varphi\left(D_{1}\left(x^{4} g\right)\right)$. Now, if $\varphi\left(x^{4} g\right)=x y g$ or $(x y)^{-1} g$, these members do not exist. Thus $\varphi\left(x^{4} g\right)=x^{4} g . x^{2} g$ and $x^{3} g$ are only vertices of $D_{1}(x g)$ and $D_{1}\left(x^{4} g\right)$ that are adjacent, so $\varphi$ will fix them. Similarly, If $\varphi(x y g)=x y g$, then $\varphi\left((x y)^{i} g\right)=(x y)^{i} g$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant 4$, also, if $\varphi(x g)=x^{4} g$, then $\varphi\left(x^{i} g\right)=x^{-i} g$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant 4$. Then we have two cases for $\varphi$ :

Case 1. If $\varphi(x g)=x g$ and $\varphi(x y g)=(x y)^{-1} g$, then since

$$
x y^{-k} g \in D_{1}\left(x^{2} g\right)=\varphi\left(D_{1}\left(x^{2} g\right)\right)
$$

we have

$$
\begin{gathered}
\varphi\left(x y^{-k} g\right) \in\left\{x g, x^{3} g, x y^{-k} g, x^{3} y^{k^{2}} g\right\}= \\
\left\{\varphi(x g), \varphi\left(x^{3} g\right), x y^{-k} g, x^{3} y^{k^{2}} g\right\}
\end{gathered}
$$

Furthermore, $\varphi$ is one-to-one, thus we have

$$
\varphi\left(x y^{-k} g\right) \in\left\{x y^{-k} g, x^{3} y^{k^{2}} g\right\}
$$

Now since $y^{-k} g$ is adjacent with $x y^{-k} g$ and $\varphi$ preserves distance, so we have:

$$
\varphi\left(y^{-k} g\right) \in D_{1}\left(x y^{-k} g\right) \cup D_{1}\left(x^{3} y^{k^{2}} g\right)=A
$$

where $A=\left\{y^{-k} g, x^{2} y^{-k} g, y^{-k-1} g, x^{4} y^{k^{2}} g, x^{2} y^{k^{2}} g, x^{4} y^{k^{3}+k^{2}} g\right\}$.
On the other hand $y^{-k} g \in D_{3}(x y g)$, so $\varphi\left(y^{-k} g\right) \in \varphi\left(D_{3}(x y g)\right)=D_{3}\left((x y)^{-1} g\right)$. Now since $A \cap$ $D_{3}\left((x y)^{-1} g\right)=\emptyset$. Consequently, this case is a contradiction.

Case 2. If $\varphi(x g)=x^{4} g$ and $\varphi(x y g)=x y g$, then let

$$
\sigma:=\rho_{g^{-1} x g} \circ \varphi \circ \rho_{g^{-1} x g}
$$

Clearly $\varphi \circ \sigma(g)=g, \varphi \circ \sigma(x g)=x g . x^{2} y^{k} g \in D_{1}(x g)$, so we have

$$
\varphi\left(x^{2} y^{k} g\right) \in D_{1}(\varphi(x g))=D_{1}\left(x^{4} g\right)=\left\{g, x^{3} g, y^{k^{4}} g, x^{3} y^{-k^{3}} g\right\}=\left\{\varphi(g), \varphi\left(x^{2} g\right), y^{k^{4}} g, x^{3} y^{-k^{3}} g\right\}
$$

Since $\varphi$ is one-to-one, so $\varphi\left(x^{2} y^{k} g\right) \in\left\{y^{k^{4}} g, x^{3} y^{-k^{3}} g\right\}$. Now if $\varphi\left(x^{2} y^{k} g\right)=x^{3} y^{-k^{3}} g$, then $\varphi \circ \sigma(x y g)=$ $(x y)^{-1} g$, which is a contradiction by Case 1 . Thus $\varphi\left(x^{2} y^{k} g\right)=y^{k^{4}} g$. Clearly,

$$
y^{k} g \in D_{2}\left(x^{2} y^{k} g\right) \cap D_{2}\left((x y)^{2} g\right)
$$

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So $\varphi\left(y^{k} g\right) \in D_{2}\left(y^{k^{4}} g\right) \cap D_{2}\left((x y)^{2} g\right)$, which is a contradiction.

Result 3.4 If $\varphi \in \mathbb{A} u t\left(\Gamma_{1}\right)_{g}$ and $\varphi$ fixes an element of $D_{1}(g)$, then $\varphi=i d$.
Proof Since graph is connected, it suffices to show that for every integer $i \geqslant 1$, the statement:

$$
g^{\prime} \in D_{i}(g) \Rightarrow \varphi\left(g^{\prime}\right)=g^{\prime}
$$

holds. By Lemma 3.3 the statement is true for $i=1$. Now assume that the statement is true for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant n$, and we will show that the statement holds for $n+1$. Let $g^{\prime} \in D_{n+1}(g)$. Hence, there is a sequence of adjacent vertices

$$
g=g_{0}^{\prime}, g_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, g^{\prime}{ }_{n-1}, g_{n}^{\prime}, g_{n+1}^{\prime}
$$

Clearly, $g_{n-1}^{\prime} \in D_{n-1}(g)$ and $g_{n}^{\prime} \in D_{n}(g)$. Therefore by hypothesis, $\varphi\left(g_{n-1}^{\prime}\right)=g_{n-1}^{\prime}$ and $\varphi\left(g_{n}^{\prime}\right)=g_{n}^{\prime}$. By applying Lemma 3.3 for $g:=g_{n}^{\prime}$ and the fact $\varphi\left(g_{n-1}^{\prime}\right)=g_{n-1}^{\prime}$. We conclude that $\varphi\left(g_{n+1}^{\prime}\right)=g_{n+1}^{\prime}$, or equivalently $\varphi\left(g^{\prime}\right)=g^{\prime}$.

Lemma 3.5 If $\varphi \in \operatorname{Aut}\left(\Gamma_{1}\right)_{1}$ and $\varphi(x)=x^{-1}$ and let $k \geqslant 1$. Then

$$
\varphi\left(s_{1}^{i_{1}} s_{2}^{j_{1}} \ldots s_{1}^{i_{k}} s_{2}^{j_{k}}\right)=s_{1}^{-i_{1}} s_{2}^{-j_{1}} \ldots s_{1}^{-i_{k}} s_{2}^{-j_{k}}
$$

where $s_{1}, s_{2} \in\{x, x y\}, s_{1} \neq s_{2}$ and $1 \leqslant i_{l}, j_{l} \leqslant 4$ for $1 \leqslant l \leqslant k$.
Proof Let $\sigma:=\rho_{x} \varphi \rho_{x}$. We have $\sigma \circ \varphi(1)=1$ and $\sigma \circ \varphi(x)=x$. So, by Lemma 3.3, $\sigma \circ \varphi=i d$ and $\varphi^{2}=i d$. Consequently, $\sigma=\varphi$ and $\varphi=\varphi^{-1}$. Therefore for every $g \in G$, we have $\varphi(g)=\varphi(g x) x$, so $\varphi(g x)=\varphi(g) x^{-1}$. On the other hand, similar to the above, $\rho_{x y} \varphi \rho_{x y}=\varphi$. Thus for every $g \in G$, we conclude that $\varphi(g x y)=\varphi(g)(x y)^{-1}$. Since $G=\langle x, x y\rangle$, the proof is completed.

Lemma 3.6 If $\varphi \in \mathbb{A} u t\left(\Gamma_{1}\right)_{1}$, then $\varphi(x) \neq x^{-1}$.
Proof Suppose that $\varphi(x)=x^{-1}$. By previous lemma we have

$$
\varphi\left(y^{k^{4}}\right)=\varphi\left((x y) x^{-1}\right)=(x y)^{-1} x=y^{-1}
$$

On the other hand:

$$
\varphi\left(y^{k^{4}}\right)=\varphi\left(x^{-1}(x y)\right)^{k^{4}}=\left(x^{-1}(x y)^{-1}\right)^{k^{4}}=\left(x y^{-1} x^{-1}\right)^{k^{4}}=y^{-k^{8}}=y^{-k^{3}}
$$

So $y^{-1}=y^{-k^{3}}$ and $p^{2} \mid k^{3}-1$, which is a contradiction.

Lemma 3.7 If $\varphi \in \mathbb{A} u t\left(\Gamma_{1}\right)_{1}$, then $\varphi(x) \neq(x y)^{-1}$.

Proof Suppose that $\varphi(x)=(x y)^{-1}$. If $\sigma$ is a non-trivial element of $\mathbb{A} u t\left(G, S_{1}\right)$, then $\sigma \circ \varphi \in \mathbb{A} u t\left(\Gamma_{1}\right)_{1}$ and $\sigma \circ \varphi(x)=x^{-1}$, which is in contradiction with Lemma 3.6.

Result 3.8 If $\varphi \in \mathbb{A} u t\left(\Gamma_{1}\right)_{1}$ and $\varphi(x)=x y$, then $\varphi=\sigma$.
Proof According to the Corollary 3.4 and $\varphi \circ \sigma(x y)=x y$, the corollary is established.

Theorem 3.9 $\mathbb{A} u t\left(\Gamma_{1}\right)_{1} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2}$.
Proof The theorem now follows via Corollaries 3.4, 3.8 and Lemmas 3.6 and 3.7.
Eventually, Theorems 3.2, 3.9 and Lemmas 2.2, 2.3, cover case(1) of the main theorem.
4. $\Gamma_{2}=\operatorname{Cay}\left(G, S_{2}\right)$

Lemma 4.1 $S_{2}$ is equivalent to $\left\{x^{2}, x y, x^{-2},(x y)^{-1}\right\}$.

Proof We know that $S_{2}=\left\{x y^{j}, x^{2} y^{j^{\prime}},\left(x y^{j}\right)^{-1},\left(x^{2} y^{j^{\prime}}\right)^{-1}\right\}$, where $j^{\prime} \not \equiv j(k+1)\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$ and $0 \leqslant j, j^{\prime}<p^{2}$. It is sufficient to set $f \in \mathbb{A} u t(G)$ as follows, $f(x)=x y^{\alpha}$ and $f(y)=y^{\beta}$, where $\alpha$ is one of the following states

$$
\begin{cases}\alpha=\frac{j^{\prime}}{2}\left(k^{4}-k^{3}+k^{2}-k+1\right), & \text { if } j^{\prime} \text { is even } ; \\ \alpha=\frac{p^{2}+j^{\prime}}{2}\left(k^{4}-k^{3}+k^{2}-k+1\right), & \text { if } j^{\prime} \text { is odd. }\end{cases}
$$

and $\beta=j-\alpha$.
From now on, we use this equivalent set for $S_{2}$. Clearly, $G=\left\langle S_{2}\right\rangle$.

Theorem 4.2 $\mathbb{A} u t\left(G, S_{2}\right)$ is trivial.
Proof If $f \in \mathbb{A} u t\left(G, S_{2}\right)$, then by proof of Lemma 2.4, we know $f\left(x^{2}\right)=x^{2}$ and $f(x y)=x y$. On the other hand, for some suitable $i, j$ that $1 \leqslant i, j<p^{2}$ and $(j, p)=1$ we have $f(x)=x y^{i}$ and $f(y)=y^{j}$. Therefore, $x^{2}=f\left(x^{2}\right)=f(x)^{2}=x y^{i} x y^{i}=x^{2} y^{i(k+1)}$, and hence $p^{2} \mid i(k+1)$. Moreover, $x y=f(x y)=x y^{i} y^{j}=x y^{i+j}$, so $p^{2} \mid i+j-1$. Clearly, $(p, k+1)=1$; otherwise, for some integer $r$, we have $k=r p-1$, and so, $p^{2} \mid k^{5}-1$, thus $1 \equiv k^{5}\left(\bmod p^{2}\right) \equiv 5 r p-1$. Hence, $p^{2} \mid 5 r p-2$, which is a contradiction. Therefore, $p^{2} \mid i$. So, $i=0$. Now since, $p^{2} \mid i+j-1$, thus $p^{2} \mid j-1$. Therefore, $j=1$, and thus $f$ is trivial.

Lemma 4.3 If $\varphi \in A_{g}$ and one of the elements of $D_{2}(g)$ is fixed by $\varphi$ then $\varphi$ will fix all the elements of $D_{2}(g)$.

Proof Since $\varphi(g)=g$, so $\varphi\left(D_{2}(g)\right)=D_{2}(g)$. On the other hand, $g$ is the only common vertex between these two cycles of length 5 , as in Figure 2.

If $\varphi(x y g)=x y g$, similar to Lemma 3.3, we conclude that $\varphi\left((x y)^{i} g\right)=(x y)^{i} g$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant 4$ and if $\varphi\left(x^{2} g\right)=x^{2} g$, then $\varphi\left(x^{i} g\right)=x^{i} g$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant 4$. With this information, we consider two cases:


Figure 2. g is the only common vertex between these two cycles of length 5 .

Case 1. If $\varphi\left(x^{2} g\right)=x^{2} g$ and contrary to the claim $\varphi(x y g)=(x y)^{4} g$, then we have $y^{k^{2}+k} g \in D_{3}(x g) \cap D_{2}\left((x y)^{3} g\right)$; since $\varphi$ preserves distance, $\varphi\left(y^{k^{2}+k} g\right) \in D_{3}(x g) \cap D_{2}\left((x y)^{2} g\right)$. So we have:

$$
\varphi\left(y^{k^{2}+k} g\right) \in\left\{(x y)^{4} g, x y^{k+1} g\right\}=\left\{\varphi(x y g), x y^{k+1} g\right\} .
$$

Since $\varphi$ is one-to-one, we have $\varphi\left(y^{k^{2}+k} g\right)=x y^{k+1} g$.
So $\varphi\left(y^{k^{2}+k} g\right)=x y^{k+1} g$.
As before, since $x y^{k+1} g \in D_{3}(x g) \cap D_{2}\left((x y)^{2} g\right)$, we have

$$
\varphi\left(x y^{k+1} g\right) \in D_{3}(x g) \cap D_{2}\left((x y)^{3} g\right)=\left\{x y g, y^{k^{2}+k} g\right\} .
$$

Clearly $\varphi\left(x y^{k+1} g\right) \neq x y g$. Therefore $\varphi\left(x y^{k+1} g\right)=y^{k^{2}+k} g$. On the other hand,

$$
x^{3} y^{k+1} g \in D_{1}\left(x y^{k+1} g\right) \cap D_{2}\left((x y)^{2} g\right) .
$$

But $D_{1}\left(y^{k^{2}+k} g\right) \cap D_{2}\left((x y)^{3} g\right)=\emptyset$. This contradiction shows that this case will not happen.
Case 2. If $\varphi\left(x^{2} g\right)=x^{3} g$ and contrary to the claim $\varphi(x y g)=x y g$, putting $\sigma:=\rho_{g^{-1} x g} \circ \varphi \circ \rho_{g^{-1} x g}$, then clearly $\varphi \circ \sigma(g)=g, \varphi \circ \sigma\left(x^{2} g\right)=x^{2} g$. So by previous case $\varphi \circ \sigma(x y g)=x y g$. On the other hand, similar to Lemma 3.3, $\varphi\left(x^{2} y^{k} g\right) \in\left\{x^{3} y^{-k^{3}} g, y^{k^{4}} g\right\}$. If $\varphi\left(x^{2} y^{k} g\right)=x^{3} y^{-k^{3}} g$, then $\varphi \circ \sigma(x y g)=(x y)^{-1} g$, which is impossible regarding to Case 1 . So $\varphi\left(x^{2} y^{k} g\right)=y^{k^{4}} g$. On the other hand,

$$
y^{k^{2}+k} g \in D_{2}\left(x^{2} y^{k} g\right) \cap D_{2}\left((x y)^{3} g\right) .
$$

Thus we have

$$
\varphi\left(y^{k^{2}+k} g\right) \in D_{2}\left(y^{k^{4}} g\right) \cap D_{2}\left((x y)^{3} g\right)
$$

which is a contradiction.

Result 4.4 If $\varphi \in \mathbb{A} u t\left(\Gamma_{2}\right)_{g}$ and $\varphi$ fixed an element of $D_{2}(g)$, then $\varphi=i d$.

Proof Similar to Corollary 3.4, it follows immediately from Lemma 4.3 and graph connectivity.

Lemma 4.5 If $\varphi \in \mathbb{A} u t\left(\Gamma_{2}\right)_{1}$, then $\varphi\left(x^{2}\right) \neq x^{3}$.
Proof On the contrary let $\varphi\left(x^{2}\right)=x^{3}$. By Corollary 4.4, $\varphi(x y)=(x y)^{4}$. It is easy to see that the conditions of Lemma 3.5 are established; so we have

$$
\varphi\left(y^{k^{4}}\right)=\varphi\left((x y) x^{2} x^{2}\right)=(x y)^{-1} x^{-2} x^{-2}=y^{-1} x^{-1} x=y^{-1}
$$

On the other hand,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\varphi\left(y^{k^{4}}\right)=\varphi\left(x^{2} x^{2}(x y)\right)^{k^{4}}=\left(x^{3} x^{3}(x y)^{-1}\right)^{k^{4}}= \\
\left(x y^{-1} x^{-1}\right)^{k^{4}}=\left(y^{-k^{4}}\right)^{k^{4}}=y^{-k^{3}}
\end{gathered}
$$

So $y^{-1}=y^{-k^{3}}$ and $p^{2} \mid k^{3}-1$ which is a contradiction.

Lemma 4.6 If $\varphi \in \mathbb{A} u t\left(\Gamma_{2}\right)_{1}$, then $\varphi\left(x^{2}\right) \neq x y$.
Proof Suppose that $\varphi\left(x^{2}\right)=x y$ and let $\sigma:=\rho_{(x y)}{ }^{-1} \varphi \rho_{x^{2}}$. One can see that $\sigma \circ \varphi^{-1}(1)=1, \sigma \circ \varphi^{-1}(x y)=x y$. So by Corollary 4.4, $\sigma=\varphi$. Thus for every $g \in G$, we have $\varphi\left(g x^{2}\right)=\varphi(g) x y$. Since $\varphi\left(S_{2}\right)=S_{2}$, we have $\varphi(x y) \in\left\{x^{2}, x^{3}\right\}$. If $\varphi(x y)=x^{3}$, then $\varphi^{2} \in A u t\left(\Gamma_{2}\right)_{1}$ and $\varphi^{2}\left(x^{2}\right)=x^{3}$, which is in contradiction with Lemma 4.5. If $\varphi(x y)=x^{2}$, since $\varphi^{2}=i d$, for every $g \in G, \varphi(\varphi(g) x y)=\varphi^{2}\left(g x^{2}\right)=g x^{2}$ and $\varphi(\varphi(g) x y)=g x^{2}$. Now by replacing $\varphi(g)$ by $g$, we have $\varphi(g x y)=\varphi(g) x^{2}$. Therefore,

$$
\varphi\left(y^{k^{4}}\right)=\varphi\left((x y) x^{-1}\right)=\varphi\left((x y) x^{2} x^{2}\right)=x^{2}(x y)(x y)=x^{4} y^{k+1}
$$

On the other hand, $y^{k^{4}}=(x y)^{-1} x^{2} x^{2} x^{2}(x y) x^{-2}(x y)$. Thus,

$$
\varphi\left(y^{k^{4}}\right)=x^{-2}(x y)^{3} x^{2}(x y)^{-1} x^{2}=x^{4} y^{k^{4}+k^{3}-k+1}
$$

So $x^{4} y^{k^{4}+k^{3}-k+1}=x^{4} y^{k+1}$ and $p^{2} \mid k^{4}+k^{3}-2 k$. In this way,

$$
p^{2}\left|k^{5}+k^{4}-2 k^{2} \rightarrow p^{2}\right|\left(k^{2}-1\right)^{2}
$$

Thus $p \mid k^{2}-1$ which is a contradiction. So, the assertion is true.

Lemma 4.7 If $\varphi \in \mathbb{A} u t\left(\Gamma_{2}\right)_{1}$, then $\varphi\left(x^{2}\right) \neq x^{4} y^{-k^{4}}$.
Proof If $\varphi\left(x^{2}\right)=(x y)^{4}$, then $\varphi\left((x y)^{4}\right)$ has two cases:
(I) $\varphi\left((x y)^{4}\right)=x^{3}$, which leads to a contradiction by Lemma 4.5 , due to $\varphi^{2}\left(x^{2}\right)=x^{3}$.
(II) $\varphi\left((x y)^{4}\right)=x^{2}$; let $\sigma:=\rho_{(x y)^{-1}} \varphi \rho_{x^{3}}$. One can show that $\sigma \circ \varphi(1)=1$ and $\sigma \circ \varphi\left((x y)^{-1}\right)=(x y)^{-1}$. Thus, by Corollary 4.4, we have $\sigma=\varphi$. Therefore, for every $g \in G, \varphi\left(g x^{2}\right)=\varphi(g)(x y)^{-1}$. Similarly we have $\rho_{x^{2}} \varphi \rho_{x y}=\varphi$. So for every $g \in G, \varphi(g x y)=\varphi(g) x^{3}$. Now we have

$$
\varphi\left(y^{k^{4}}\right)=\varphi\left((x y) x^{-1}\right)=\varphi\left((x y) x^{2} x^{2}\right)=x^{3}(x y)^{-2}=x y^{k^{2}+k+1}
$$

Furthermore, we have

$$
\begin{gathered}
\varphi\left(y^{k^{4}}\right)=\varphi\left((x y)^{-1} x^{2} x^{2} x^{2}(x y) x^{-2}(x y)\right)= \\
x^{2}(x y)^{-3} x^{3}(x y) x^{3}=x y^{2 k^{3}+k^{2}}
\end{gathered}
$$

We conclude

$$
p^{2}\left|2 k^{3}-k-1 \stackrel{\times k^{4}}{\Rightarrow} p^{2}\right|\left(k^{2}-1\right)^{2}
$$

which is a contradiction.

Theorem 4.8 $\mathbb{A} u t\left(\Gamma_{2}\right)_{1} \cong i d$.
Proof The theorem now follows via Corollary 4.4 and Lemmas 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7.
Therefore, proof of the second part of main theorem can be seen by applying Theorem 4.2, 4.8, and Lemmas 2.2 and 2.3.
5. $\Gamma_{3}=\operatorname{Cay}\left(G, S_{3}\right)$

Lemma 5.1 $S_{3}$ is equivalent to $\left\{x^{2}, x^{2} y, x^{-2},\left(x^{2} y\right)^{-1}\right\}$.
Proof We know $S_{3}=\left\{x^{2} y^{j}, x^{2} y^{j^{\prime}},\left(x^{2} y^{j}\right)^{-1},\left(x^{2} y^{j^{\prime}}\right)^{-1}\right\}$, where $j \not \equiv j^{\prime}\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$. Let $f \in \mathbb{A} u t(G)$, such that $f(x)=x y^{i}$ and $f(y)=y^{d}$, where $0 \leqslant i<p^{2}$ and $\left(d, p^{2}\right)=1$. We consider:

$$
\begin{cases}i=\frac{j}{2}\left(k^{4}-k^{3}+k^{2}-k+1\right), & \text { if } j \text { is even } \\ i=\frac{p^{2}+j}{2}\left(k^{4}-k^{3}+k^{2}-k+1\right), & \text { if } j \text { is odd }\end{cases}
$$

and $d=j^{\prime}-j$. Therefore, $(d, p)=1$ and this completes the proof.
From now on, we use this equivalent set for $S_{3}$. Clearly, $G=\left\langle S_{3}\right\rangle$.

Theorem 5.2 $\mathbb{A} u t\left(G, S_{3}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2}$.
Proof Suppose that $f \in \mathbb{A} u t\left(G, S_{3}\right)$. According to the proof of Lemma 2.4, we have two cases for $f\left(x^{2}\right)$ :
Case1. $f\left(x^{2}\right)=x^{2}$.
Assuming that $f(x)=x y^{i}$, where $0 \leqslant i<p^{2}$, we have $x^{2}=f\left(x^{2}\right)=f(x)^{2}=x y^{i} x y^{i}=x^{2} y^{i(k+1)}$ which implies $p^{2} \mid i(k+1)$. As we have already shown $p \nmid k+1$, so $p^{2} \mid i$. Thus, $f(x)=x$. On the other hand, $f\left(x^{2} y\right)=x^{2} y$. Therefore, $x^{2} y=f\left(x^{2} y\right)=f(x)^{2} f(y)=x^{2} f(y)$ which implies $f(y)=y$, so $f=i d$.

Case2. $f\left(x^{2}\right)=x^{2} y$.
By the first case, since $(p, k+1)=1$, there exist integers $r$ and $i$, such that $i(k+1)+r p^{2}=1$. Thus, $p^{2} \mid i(k+1)-1$. From this $f\left(x^{2} y\right)=x^{2}$, we have $x^{2} y^{i(k+1)+j}=x^{2}$, for some integer $j$. Therefore, $p^{2} \mid i(k+1)+j$ which implies $p^{2} \mid i(k+1)+j$ implies $p^{2} \mid j+1$, where $0 \leqslant j<p^{2}$. So, $j=p^{2}-1$. Thus $f(x)=x y^{k^{4}+k^{2}+1}=\left(x^{2} y\right)^{3}$ and $f(y)=y^{p^{2}-1}$. Hence, $o(f)=2$, and the result now follows.

Lemma 5.3 If $\varphi \in A_{g}$ and one of the elements of $D_{1}(g)$ is fixed by $\varphi$, then $\varphi$ fixes all the elements of $D_{1}(g)$.
Proof $g$ is the only common vertex between the two cycles of the length five, as in Figure 3.


Figure 3. g is the only common vertex between these two cycles of length 5.

If $\varphi\left(x^{2} g\right)=x^{2} g$, then $\varphi\left(x^{i} g\right)=x^{i} g$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant 4$. Since $x^{3} g \in D_{1}(g)$ and $\varphi$ preserves distance, we conclude that,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi\left(x^{3} g\right) \in \varphi\left(D_{1}(g)\right) & =D_{1}(\varphi(g))=D_{1}(g)=\left\{x^{2} g, x^{3} g, x^{2} y g,\left(x^{2} y\right)^{-1} g\right\} \\
& =\left\{\varphi\left(x^{2} g\right), x^{3} g, x^{2} y g, x^{3} y^{-k^{3}} g\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\varphi$ is one-to-one, so $\varphi\left(x^{3} g\right) \in\left\{x^{3} g, x^{2} y g, x^{3} y^{-k^{3}} g\right\}$. On the other hand, $\left(x^{4} g, x g\right)$ is an edge, $x^{4} g \in$ $D_{1}\left(x^{2} g\right)$ and $x g \in D_{1}\left(x^{3} g\right)$, so there exists a vertex in $\varphi\left(D_{1}\left(x^{2} g\right)\right)$ that is adjacent with a vertex in $\varphi\left(D_{1}\left(x^{3} g\right)\right)$. Now if $\varphi\left(x^{3} g\right)=x^{2} y g$ or $x^{3} y^{-k^{3}} g$, these members do not exist. Thus $\varphi\left(x^{3} g\right)=x^{3} g$. Now $x^{4} g$ and $x g$ are only vertices $D_{1}\left(x^{2} g\right)$ and $D_{1}\left(x^{3} g\right)$ that are adjacent, so $\varphi$ fixes them. Exactly similar to the above,
if $\varphi\left(x^{2} y g\right)=x^{2} y g$, then $\varphi\left(\left(x^{2} y\right)^{i} g\right)=\left(x^{2} y\right)^{i} g$, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant 4$, if $\varphi\left(x^{3} g\right)=x^{2} g$, then $\varphi\left(x^{i} g\right)=x^{-i} g$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant 4$ and if $\varphi\left(\left(x^{2} y\right)^{-1} g\right)=x^{2} y g$, then $\varphi\left(\left(x^{2} y\right)^{i} g\right)=\left(x^{2} y\right)^{-i} g$, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant 4$.

With this information, we consider two cases
Case 1. Suppose $\varphi\left(x^{2} g\right)=x^{2} g$. If $\varphi\left(x^{2} y g\right)=\left(x^{2} y\right)^{4} g$, then since $\varphi$ preserves distance:

$$
y^{k} g \in D_{2}(x g) \cap D_{3}\left(\left(x^{2} y\right)^{4} g\right) \Longrightarrow \varphi\left(y^{k} g\right) \in D_{2}(x g) \cap D_{3}\left(x^{2} y g\right)
$$

On the other hand, $D_{2}(x g) \cap D_{3}\left(x^{2} y g\right)=\left\{y^{k^{3}} g, x y^{-k} g\right\}$. If $\varphi\left(y^{k} g\right)=y^{k^{3}} g$, then $1=d\left(y^{k^{3}} g, x^{3} g\right)=$ $d\left(y^{k} g, x^{3} g\right)>1$ which is a contradiction. And if, $\varphi\left(y^{k} g\right)=x y^{-k} g$, then $1=d\left(x y^{-k} g, x^{3} g\right)=$ $d\left(y^{k} g, x^{3} g\right)>1$ which is impossible. So this case does not happen.

Case 2. Suppose $\varphi\left(x^{2} y g\right)=x^{2} y g$. If $\varphi\left(x^{2} g\right)=x^{3} g$, then

$$
y^{k} g \in D_{2}(x g) \cap D_{3}\left(\left(x^{2} y\right)^{4} g\right) \Longrightarrow \varphi\left(y^{k} g\right) \in D_{2}\left(x^{4} g\right) \cap D_{3}\left(\left(x^{2} y\right)^{4} g\right)
$$

Consequently, $\varphi\left(y^{k} g\right) \in\left\{x^{4} y^{k^{2}} g, y^{-1} g\right\}$. If $\varphi\left(y^{k} g\right)=x^{4} y^{k^{2}} g$, then $1=d\left(x^{4} y^{k^{2}} g, x^{2} g\right)=d\left(y^{k} g, x^{3} g\right)>1$, also, if $\varphi\left(y^{k} g\right)=y^{-1} g$, then $1=d\left(y^{-1} g, x^{2} g\right)=d\left(y^{k} g, x^{3} g\right)>1$. These contradictions show that this case also will not happen.

Result 5.4 If $\varphi \in \mathbb{A} u t\left(\Gamma_{3}\right)_{g}$ and $\varphi$ fixes an element of $D_{1}(g)$, then $\varphi=i d$.
Proof Similar to Corollary 3.4 ,it follows immediately from Lemma 5.3 and graph connectivity.

Lemma 5.5 If $\varphi \in \mathbb{A} u t\left(\Gamma_{3}\right)_{g}$, then $\varphi\left(x^{2} g\right) \neq x^{3} g$.
Proof Suppose that $\varphi\left(x^{2} g\right)=x^{3} g$ and let $\sigma:=\rho_{g^{-1} x g} \varphi \rho_{g^{-1} x g}$. Then $\sigma \circ \varphi(g)=g, \sigma \circ \varphi\left(x^{2} g\right)=x^{2} g$. So by Corollary 5.4 and the fact that $\varphi^{2}=i d$, we have:

$$
\sigma \circ \varphi=i d \Rightarrow \sigma=\varphi
$$

Thus for every $g^{\prime} \in G, \varphi\left(g^{\prime} x\right)=\varphi\left(g^{\prime}\right) x^{4}$. Now let $\psi:=\rho_{g^{-1} x^{2} y g} \varphi \rho_{g^{-1} x^{2} y g}$, then $\psi(g)=g, \psi\left(x^{2} y g\right)=$ $\left(x^{2} y g\right)^{4}, \psi \circ \varphi=i d$ and for every $g^{\prime} \in G$, we have

$$
\varphi\left(g^{\prime} x^{2} y\right)=\varphi\left(g^{\prime}\right)\left(x^{2} y\right)^{4}=\varphi\left(g^{\prime}\right) x^{3} y^{-k^{3}}
$$

Now we have

$$
\varphi(y)=\varphi\left(x^{3}\left(x^{2} y\right)\right)=x^{2} x^{3} y^{-k^{3}}=y^{-k^{3}}
$$

Since $\varphi^{2}=i d$, we have $\varphi\left(y^{-k^{3}}\right)=y$. On the other hand,

$$
\varphi\left(y^{-k^{3}}\right)=\varphi(y)^{-k^{3}}=\left(y^{-k^{3}}\right)^{-k^{3}}=y^{k}
$$

Hence $p^{2} \mid k-1$ which is impossible.

Lemma 5.6 If $\varphi \in \mathbb{A} u t\left(\Gamma_{3}\right)_{1}$ such that $\varphi\left(x^{2}\right)=x^{2} y$ and $f \in \mathbb{A} u t\left(G, S_{3}\right)$ is not trivial then $\varphi=f$.
Proof We know, $f(x)=x y^{k^{4}+k^{2}+1}, f(y)=y^{p^{2}-1}$ and $f \circ \varphi\left(x^{2}\right)=x^{2}$. Thus, by Corollary 5.4, $f \circ \varphi=i d$. On the other hand, since order of $f$ is $2, f=\varphi$.

Lemma 5.7 If $\varphi \in \mathbb{A} u t\left(\Gamma_{3}\right)_{1}$, then $\varphi\left(x^{2}\right) \neq\left(x^{2} y\right)^{4}$.
Proof Otherwise, if $\varphi\left(x^{2}\right)=\left(x^{2} y\right)^{4}$, then $f \circ \varphi\left(x^{2}\right)=x^{3}$. But this is against of Lemma 5.5. As an application of Theorem 5.2, we offer the following theorem.

Theorem 5.8 $\mathbb{A} u t\left(\Gamma_{3}\right)_{1} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2}$.
Proof The statement is true by Corollary 5.4 and Lemmas 5.5, 5.6, and 5.7
Therefore, by Theorems 5.2 and 5.8, and Lemmas 2.2, 2.3, the third part of main theorem is proved.

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