## Research Paper

# Tetravalent one-regular graphs of order $p^{2} q^{2}$ <br> Modjtaba Ghorbani', Aziz SeyyedHadi , Farzaneh Nowroozi-Larki 

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#### Abstract

A graph is called one-regular if its full automorphism group acts regularly on the set of arcs. In this paper, we classify all connected one-regular graphs of valency 4 of order $p^{2} q^{2}$, where $p>q$ are prime numbers. We also prove that all such graphs are Cayley graphs.


Keywords: one-regular graph, symmetric graph, Cayley graph
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## 1 Introduction

Gardiner and Praeger in 1994 constructed 4-valent one-regular graphs of prime order, see [6]. Let $p$ and $q$ be two primes. Every tetravalent one-regular graph of order $p$ or $p q$ or $p^{2}$ is a circulant graph and all of them have been classified in [15]. Furthermore, in [5,17] the authors classified tetravalent one-regular graphs of order $2 p q$ and $4 p^{2}$. Here, we study the tetravalent one-regular graphs of order $p^{2} q^{2}$ and show all of them have Cayley structure. We prove that in such Cayley graphs either the $p$-Sylow subgroup of $G$ is cyclic and then the regarded group is abelian or $q$-Sylow subgroup of $G$ is cyclic. The presentation of a group of order $p^{2} q^{2}$ can be found in [12]. All graphs in this paper are undirected, finite, and connected without loops or multiple edges. For a graph $\Gamma$, we use $V(\Gamma), E(\Gamma)$ and $A u t(\Gamma)$ to denote its vertex set, edge set and its full automorphism group, respectively. A graph $\Gamma$ is said to be vertex-transitive if $\operatorname{Aut}(\Gamma)$ acts transitively on $V(\Gamma)$. For a positive integer $s$, an $s$-arc of

[^0]$\Gamma$ is an $(s+1)$-tuple $\left(v_{0}, v_{1}, \cdots, v_{s}\right)$ of vertices such that $\left\{v_{i-1}, v_{i}\right\} \in E(\Gamma)$ for $1 \leq i \leq s$ and $v_{i-1} \neq v_{i+1}$ for $1 \leq i \leq s-1$. In particular, a $1-\operatorname{arc}$ is called an arc for short and a $0-\operatorname{arc}$ is a vertex. If $X \leqslant A u t(\Gamma)$ and $X$ is transitive on $s$-arcs of $\Gamma$, then $\Gamma$ is called a $(X, s)$-arc transitive graph. In addition, if $X$ is not transitive on the set of $(s+1)$-arcs of $\Gamma$, then $\Gamma$ is called a ( $X, s$ )-transitive graph. If $X=A u t(\Gamma)$, then $(X, s)$-arc transitive and $(X, s)$-transitive graphs are called $s$-arc transitive graphs and $s$-transitive graphs, respectively. $\mathrm{A}(X, 1)$-arc transitive graph is called symmetric. A graph is said to be one-regular if its automorphism group acts regularly on the set of its arcs.

Let $G$ be a permutation group on $\Omega$ and $\alpha \in \Omega$. The stabilizer $G_{\alpha}$ is the subgroup of $G$ fixing the point $\alpha$. The group $G$ is called semi-regular on $\Omega$ if $G_{\alpha}=1$, for every $\alpha \in \Omega$ and regular if $G$ is transitive and semi-regular. Let $G$ be a finite group and $S$ be a symmeric subset of $G\left(1 \notin S=S^{-1}=\left\{g^{-1} \mid g \in S\right\}\right)$. The Cayley graph $\Gamma=\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ has vertex set $V(\Gamma)=G$ and edge set $E(\Gamma)=\{\{g, s g\} \mid g \in G, s \in S\}$. For every element $g \in G$, the map $\rho_{g}$ given by $x \mapsto x g, x \in G$, is a permutation on $G$ and the set of all such permutations is called the right regular representation of $G$ denoted by $\mathcal{R}(G)$. One can see that $\mathcal{R}(G)$ is a regular subgroup of $A u t(\Gamma)$ isomorphic with $G$. It is a well-known fact that $\Gamma$ is connected if and only if $G=\langle S\rangle$, that is, $S$ generates $G$. In general, it is a very difficult task to find the full automorphism group of a graph. Although, we know that a Cayley graph is vertex-transitive, in general it is difficult to determine whether it is edge-transitive or arc-transitive. Suppose that $\operatorname{Aut}(G, S)=$ $\{\alpha \in \operatorname{Aut}(G), \alpha(S)=S\}$. Obviously, $\mathcal{R}(G) \rtimes \operatorname{Aut}(G, S) \leq A u t(\Gamma)$. Let $A=A u t(\Gamma)$, according to [16], we have $N_{A}(\mathcal{R}(G))=\mathcal{R}(G) \rtimes \operatorname{Aut}(G, S)$. The Cayley graph $\Gamma=\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ is said to be normal if the right regular representation $\mathcal{R}(G)$ of $G$ is normal in $A u t(\Gamma)$ and in this case, $\mathcal{R}(G) \unlhd A u t(\Gamma)$ or equivalently $\operatorname{Aut}(\Gamma)=\mathcal{R}(G) \rtimes \operatorname{Aut}(G, S)$. The Cayley graph $\Gamma=\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ is said to be normal symmetric if $N_{A}(\mathcal{R}(G))$ acts transitively on the set of arcs.

## 2 Main results

In this section, we determine all tetravalent one-regular Cayley graphs of order $p^{2} q^{2}$. If $q=2$, then all tetravalent one-regular graphs of order $4 p^{2}$ have been determined in [5] and we can conclude the following result.

Theorem 2.1. Let $p \neq 2$ be a prime and $\Gamma=\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ be tetravalent symmetric Cayley graph on groups of order $4 p^{2}$. Then $\Gamma$ is 1-transitive. Moreover, if $\Gamma$ is also one-regular, then $\Gamma$ is a normal Cayley graph.

Lemma 2.2. [14] Every transitive abelian group is regular.
Lemma 2.3. [14] Suppose $G$ is a permutation group on $\Omega$ and $P$ is a $p$-Sylow subgroup of $G$, where $p$ is a prime. Let $w \in \Omega$, if $p^{m}$ divides the length of the $G$-orbit containing $\omega$. Then $p^{m}$ also divides the length of the $P$-orbit containing $w$.

For a finite group $G$, the product of all nilpotent normal subgroups of $G$ is called the Fitting subgroup of $G$ denoted by Fit( $G$ ).

Theorem 2.4. [13] If $G$ is solvable group, then $\operatorname{Fit}(G) \neq 1$ and $C_{G}(\operatorname{Fit}(G)) \leq \operatorname{Fit}(G)$.
We recall that $O_{p}(G)$ is the unique largest normal $p$-subgroup of the finite group $G$, where $p$ is a prime number and it can be found by taking the intersection of all of the $p$-Sylow subgroups of $G$. If a $p$-Sylow subgroup of a finite group $G$ has a normal $p$-complement, then $G$ is called $p$-nilpotent. The set of all $p$-Sylow subgroups of $G$ is denoted by $\operatorname{Syl}_{p}(G)$.

Theorem 2.5. [4] Let $G$ be a group acting transitively on a set $\Omega$ and $H \triangleleft G$. Then the group $H$ has at most $|G: H|$ orbits and if the index $|G: H|$ is finite, then the number of orbits of $H$ divides $|G: H|$.

Theorem 2.6. (i) [2] A graph $\Gamma$ is isomorphic to a Cayley graph on a group $G$ if and only if its automorphism group has a subgroup isomorphic to $G$ acting regularly on the vertex set of $\Gamma$.
(ii) [2] A circulant graph is vertex-transitive. A vertex-transitive graph with a prime number of vertices must be a circulant graph.
(iii) [15] Every tetravalent one-regular graph of order $p^{2}$ is a circulant graph.

Suppose $\Gamma$ is a symmetric graph and consider the transitive subgroup $X$ of $A u t(\Gamma)$. Let $N$ be a normal subgroup of $X$. Then the quotient graph $\Gamma_{N}$ is the graph with orbits of $N$ as its vertices and two vertices are adjacent if there is an edge between these two orbits in $\Gamma$. If further the valency of $\Gamma_{N}$ equals the valency of $\Gamma$, then $\Gamma$ is called a regular cover of $\Gamma_{N}$.

Theorem 2.7. [6] Let $\Gamma$ be symmetric graph of valency 4 and $X \leq A u t(\Gamma)$ be arc-transitive. If $N \unlhd X$, then one of the following cases holds,

1. $N$ is transitive on $V(\Gamma)$;
2. $\Gamma$ is bipartite and $N$ acts transitively on each part of the bipartition;
3. $N$ has $r \geq 3$ orbits on $V(\Gamma)$, the quotient graph $\Gamma_{N}$ is a cycle of length $r$, and $X$ induces the full automorphism group $D_{2 r}$ of $\Gamma_{N}$;
4. $N$ has $r \geq 5$ orbits on $V(\Gamma), N$ acts semi-regularly on $V(\Gamma)$, the quotient graph $\Gamma_{N}$ is a tetravalent connected $X / N$-symmetric graph and $\Gamma$ is a regular cover of $\Gamma_{N}$.

Theorem 2.8. Let $\Gamma$ be a one-regular tetravalent graph of an odd order m. Assume $A=A u t(\Gamma)$. Then the following cases holds,

1. If $A$ has a subgroup of order $m$, then $\Gamma$ is a Cayley graph;
2. If $A_{v} \cong C_{4}$, then $\Gamma$ is a normal Cayley graph;
3. If $A_{v} \cong C_{2} \times C_{2}$ and $3 \nmid m$, then $\Gamma$ is a normal Cayley graph.

Proof. (1) Let $A$ has a subgroup $G$ of order $m$. By the orbit-stabilizer theorem for the vertex $v$, we have $\left|o r b_{G}(v)\right|=\left|G: G_{v}\right|$. On the other hand, $A$ acts regularly on the arc set of $\Gamma$, hence $\left|A_{v}\right|=4$. But $G_{v}$ devides $m$ and so the fact that $m$ is odd implies $G_{v} \cong\langle 1\rangle$. Hence, $G$ acts regularly on the vertex set of $\Gamma$. Applying Theorem 2.6 yields $\Gamma$ is a Cayley graph.
(2) By [11, Theorem 7.51], $A$ has a normal subgroup of order $m$ and by the Case $1, \Gamma$ is a normal Cayley graph.
(3) Suppose $H \cong C_{2} \times C_{2} \cong A_{v}$ is a 2-Sylow subgroup of $A$. It is not difficult to see that $|A u t(H)|=\left(2^{2}-1\right)\left(2^{2}-2\right)=6$ and there is an embedding $N_{A}(H) / C_{A}(H) \hookrightarrow A u t(H)$. Obviously, $\left|N_{A}(H) / C_{A}(H)\right|$ divides $|A|$. Since $H$ is abelian, $H<C_{A}(H)$ and then $2 \nmid\left|N_{A}(H) / C_{A}(H)\right|$. On the other hand, $(3,|A|)=1$, and thus $N_{A}(H)=C_{A}(H)$. Hence, by Burnside's Theorem [10, Theorem 6.17] $H$ has a normal complement in $A$. This means that $A$ has a normal subgroup of order $m$ and by Case $1, \Gamma$ is a normal Cayley graph.

Theorem 2.9. Let $\Gamma$ be a one-regular tetravalent graph of order $p^{2} q^{2}$, where $p>q \neq 2$ are prime. Assume $A=\operatorname{Aut}(\Gamma)$, then the following cases hold,
(1) If $A$ has a subgroup of order $p^{2} q^{2}$, then $\Gamma$ is a Cayley graph;
(2) If $A_{v} \cong C_{4}$, then $\Gamma$ is a normal Cayley graph;
(3) If $A_{v} \cong C_{2} \times C_{2}$ and $q \neq 3$, then $\Gamma$ is a normal Cayley graph;
(4) If $A_{v} \cong C_{2} \times C_{2}, q=3$, then $\Gamma$ is a Cayley graph.

Proof. The Cases 1-3 have been discussed in Theorem 2.8. For the Case 4 , let $P$ be a $p$-Sylow subgroup of $A$. Then $n_{p}=1+k p \mid 36$, and if $p \neq 5,11,17$, we can conclude that $n_{p}=1$; therefore, $P \triangleleft A$. Now, let $Q$ be a $q$-Sylow subgroup of $A$. Hence, $P Q \leq A$ and $|P Q|=p^{2} q^{2}$ and the proof is similar to Case 1. For $p=11$ or $p=17$, by [9, Theorem 1.37] and [9, Corollaries 1.39, 1.40], we have $\left|O_{p}\right|=p$ or $p^{2}$. If $\left|O_{p}\right|=p^{2}$, then $\Gamma$ is a Cayley graph. If $\left|O_{p}\right|=p$, then the embedding $N_{A}\left(O_{p}\right) / C_{A}\left(O_{p}\right) \cong A / C_{A}\left(O_{p}\right) \hookrightarrow A u t\left(O_{p}\right) \cong C_{p-1}$ yields that $\left|C_{A}\left(O_{p}\right)\right| \geq p^{2} q^{2}$ and $C_{A}\left(O_{p}\right)$ has a subgroup of order $p^{2} q^{2}$. This means that $\Gamma$ is a Cayley graph. For $p=5$, let $P Q \not \leq A$. Then $P$ and $Q$ are not normal subgroups of $A$. By using a Gap program, there is only one group of the order $9 \times 25 \times 4=900$ with the above conditions which is isomorphic with $A \cong A_{5} \times C_{15}$, a contradiction. So, all one-regular graphs of order 225 have Cayley structures.

Theorem 2.10. Let $G$ be a finite group of order $p^{2} q^{2}$, where $p>q \neq 2$ are prime numbers and $\Gamma=$ $\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ be a Cayley graph of valency 4 . If $\Gamma$ is an $(X, 1)$-arc transitive, where $G \leq X \leq A u t(\Gamma)$, then one of the following cases holds:

1. $G$ is normal in $X, X_{1} \leq D_{8}$ and $\left|X_{1}\right| \geq 4$;
2. There is a subgroup $P<X$ such that $P \triangleleft G$ and $\Gamma$ is a cover of $\Gamma_{P}$;
3. $X$ has a unique minimal normal subgroup $N \cong C_{p}^{2}$ such that
(a) $G=N \rtimes R \cong C_{p}^{2} \rtimes C_{9}$;
(b) $X=N \rtimes\left((H \rtimes R) \cdot C_{2}\right) \cong C_{p}^{2} \rtimes\left(\left(C_{2}^{2} \rtimes C_{9}\right) \cdot C_{2}\right)$ and $X_{1}=H \cdot C_{2} \cong\left(C_{2} \times C_{2}\right) \cdot C_{2}$;
(c) $N H \cong D_{2 p} \times D_{2 p}$;
(d) $H \rtimes R=C_{2}^{2} \rtimes C_{9}=\left\langle a, b, c \mid a^{2}=b^{2}=c^{9}=1, a b=b a, c^{-1} a c=a b, c^{-1} b c=a\right\rangle$;
(e) $X /(N H) \cong D_{18}$.

Proof. By [8, Theorem 1.1] the proof is straightforward.
Theorem 2.11. Let $G$ be a finite group of order $p^{2} q^{2}$, where $p>q \neq 2$ are prime numbers and $\Gamma=\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ be a Cayley graph of valency 4.
(i) If $\Gamma$ is one-regular, $A=A u t(\Gamma)$ and $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}(G)$, then the following cases hold,
(a) $A \cong G A_{1}$ and $A_{1} \cong C_{4}$ or $C_{2} \times C_{2}$,
(b) $P \triangleleft A$ and $A$ is solvable,
(c) If $A_{1} \cong C_{4}$ then $G \triangleleft A$,
(d) If $A_{1} \cong C_{2} \times C_{2}$ and $q \neq 3$ then $G \triangleleft A$.
(ii) If $\Gamma$ is one-regular, $A=A u t(\Gamma)$ and $P \cong C_{p^{2}}$ is a $p$-Sylow subgroup of $G$. Then $G$ is an abelian group.

Proof. (i) Since $\Gamma$ is a Cayley graph, the proof of part (a) is clear. For the next one, we know that $P \triangleleft G$, hence $G \subseteq N_{A}(P)$ and $\left|A: N_{A}(G)\right|=1+k p \mid 4,(p>3)$ which implies that $N_{A}(P)=A$. It is clear $P$ and $A / P$ are solvable, hence $A$ is solvable and the proof of part (c) is a result of [11, Theorem 7.51]. There is a similar proof for the part (d), as we have done in the Case (3) of Theorem 2.8.
(ii) We know that $P \cong C_{p^{2}} \leq \operatorname{Fit}(A)$, hence $\operatorname{Fit}(A) \neq\langle 1\rangle$. We prove that $\operatorname{Fit}(A)=G$ which yields that $G$ is abelian. Suppose $\operatorname{Fit}(A) \neq G$, then only one of the following possibilities holds:
$\operatorname{Fit}(A)=C_{p^{2}}, \operatorname{Fit}(A)=C_{q p^{2}}, \operatorname{Fit}(A)=C_{2 q p^{2}}, \operatorname{Fit}(A)=C_{2 p^{2}},|\operatorname{Fit}(A)|=4 p^{2},|\operatorname{Fit}(A)|=4 q p^{2}$. We prove that all of them are impossible. By Theorem 2.4,

$$
N_{A}(\operatorname{Fit}(A)) / C_{A}(\operatorname{Fit}(A))=A / \operatorname{Fit}(A)
$$

Hence if $\operatorname{Fit}(A)=C_{p^{2}}$, then

$$
N_{A}(\operatorname{Fit}(A)) / C_{A}(\operatorname{Fit}(A)) \cong A / \operatorname{Fit}(A) \rightarrow A u t(\operatorname{Fit}(A)) \cong C_{p(p-1)}
$$

Therefore, $A / \operatorname{Fit}(G)$ is abelian. On the other hand, $\Gamma$ is a Cayley graph, hence two Cases 1,2 in Theorem 2.7 for $N=\operatorname{Fit}(G)$ are impossible. Let $\Gamma_{N}$ be the quotient graph of $\Gamma$ relative to the orbits of $N$ and $K$ be the kernel of $A$ acting on $V\left(\Gamma_{N}\right)$. By Lemma 2.3, the orbits of $N$ are of length $p^{2}$. Thus $\left|V\left(\Gamma_{N}\right)\right|=q^{2}, N \leq K$, and $A / K$ acts transitively on arcs of $\Gamma_{N}$. For the Case 3 in Theorem 2.7, we have $\Gamma_{N}$ is a cycle of length $q^{2}$ and hence $A / K \cong D_{2 q^{2}}$, which yields
$|K|=2 p^{2}$. Since $A / K$ is a subgroup of $A / P$, it follows that $A / P$ is a non-abelian group, a contradiction. For the Case 4 of Theorem 2.7, $\Gamma_{N}$ is $A / N$-symmetric graph, hence $A / N$ is transitive on the vertices of $\Gamma_{N}$ and also is abelian. Therefore, by Lemma 2.2, $A / N$ acts regularly on the vertices of $\Gamma_{N}$, a contradiction. Therefore, $\operatorname{Fit}(G) \neq C_{p^{2}}$. Similarly, the other cases are impossible. Suppose $|F i t(A)|=4 p^{2}$ or $4 q p^{2}$. Since $N \leq K$, where $K$ is the kernel of $A$ acting on $V\left(\Gamma_{N}\right) . \Gamma_{N}$ is a symmetric graph of valency 2 or 4 and by Theorem 2.7, $A / K$ acts transitively on arcs of $\Gamma_{N}$. Then $2||A / K|$, which is clearly impossible, because $| A \mid=4 p^{2} q^{2}$. Therefore, $|\operatorname{Fit}(A)|=p^{2} q^{2}$ and so $G$ is an abelian group.

Theorem 2.12. Let $G$ be a finite group of order $p^{2} q^{2}$, where $p>q \neq 2$ are prime numbers, and let $\Gamma=\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ be a connected Cayley graph of valency 4 . Assume $\Gamma$ is one-regular, $A=A u t(\Gamma)$ and $P \cong C_{p} \times C_{p} \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}(G)$. Then $G \cong\left(C_{p} \times C_{p}\right) \rtimes C_{q^{2}}$.

Proof. Since $\Gamma$ is a Cayley graph, two Cases 1,2 in Theorem 2.7 for $N \cong C_{p} \times C_{p} \cong$ $P$, are impossible. By Theorem 2.5, the number of orbits of $N$ on $G$ are $q^{2}$. Let $\Gamma_{N}$ be the quotient graph of $\Gamma$ relative to the orbits of $N$ and $K$ be the kernel of $A$ acting on $V\left(\Gamma_{N}\right)$. Thus $\left|V\left(\Gamma_{N}\right)\right|=q^{2}, N \leq K$ and $A / K$ acts transitively on the arcs of $\Gamma_{N}$. For the Case 3 in Theorem $2.7, \Gamma_{N}$ is a cycle of length $q^{2}$ and hence $A / K \cong D_{2 q^{2}}$, which yields that $|K|=2 p^{2}$. Since $C_{q^{2}} \leq A / K$, and $A / K$ is a subgroup of $A / P$, it follows that the $q$-Sylow subgroup of $A$ (and $G$ ) is cyclic. Now, for the Case 4 , let $\Gamma_{P}$ be the quotient graph of $\Gamma$ relative to the orbits of $P$. By Lemma 2.3, the orbits of $N$ are of length $p^{2}$. Thus $\left|V\left(\Gamma_{P}\right)\right|=q^{2}$ and $A / P$ acts transitively on the arcs of $\Gamma_{P}$. Now, by Theorems $2.6(i i)$ and $2.6(i i i), \Gamma_{P}$ is a circulant graph and so it is a Cayley graph on an abelian group. Hence the $q$-Sylow subgroup of $A$ (and $G$ ) is cyclic; therefore, $G \cong\left(C_{p} \times C_{p}\right) \rtimes C_{q^{2}}$.

## 3 Tetravalent normal symmetric Cayley graphs on group of order $p^{2} q^{2}$

Let $G$ be a group of order $p^{2} q^{2}(p>q)$ with generating set $S=\left\{a, b, a^{-1}, b^{-1}\right\}$. Suppose $\Gamma=\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ is a Cayley graph, then an automorphism of $\operatorname{Aut}(G, S)$ satisfies in one of the following rules:
$\alpha:\left\{\begin{array}{c}a \mapsto b^{-1} \\ b \mapsto a\end{array}, \alpha^{2}:\left\{\begin{array}{l}a \mapsto a^{-1} \\ b \mapsto b^{-1}\end{array}, \alpha^{3}:\left\{\begin{array}{c}a \mapsto b \\ b \mapsto a^{-1}\end{array}, \beta:\left\{\begin{array}{l}a \mapsto b \\ b \mapsto a^{\prime}\end{array}\right.\right.\right.\right.$
$\alpha \circ \beta:\left\{\begin{array}{c}a \mapsto a \\ b \mapsto b^{-1}\end{array}, \alpha^{2} \circ \beta:\left\{\begin{array}{l}a \mapsto b^{-1} \\ b \mapsto a^{-1}\end{array}, \alpha^{3} \circ \beta:\left\{\begin{array}{c}a \mapsto a^{-1} \\ b \mapsto b\end{array}, i:\left\{\begin{array}{l}a \mapsto a \\ b \mapsto b\end{array}\right.\right.\right.\right.$.
It is not difficult to see that $\alpha^{4}=\beta^{2}=i, \beta^{-1} \circ \alpha \circ \beta=\alpha^{3}$ and so $\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle \cong D_{8}$. In other words, we can conclude the following theorem.

Theorem 3.1. Let $G$ be a group of order $p^{2} q^{2}$ with the symmetric generating subset $S=\left\{a, b, a^{-1}, b^{-1}\right\}$. Then $\operatorname{Aut}(G, S) \leq\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle \cong D_{8}$.

Theorem 3.2. Let $\Gamma=\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ be a normal symmetric Cayley graph of order $p^{2} q^{2}$, where $p>q \neq 2$ are primes and $S=\left\{a, a^{-1}, b, b^{-1}\right\},(a \neq b)$. Then $o(a) \neq p, p^{2}, q^{2}$.

Proof. Suppose $\Gamma=\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ is a normal symmetric Cayley graph of order $p^{2} q^{2}(p>q)$ where $G=\langle a, b\rangle$ and $S=\left\{a, a^{-1}, b, b^{-1}\right\},(a \neq b)$. It is a well-known fact that $\operatorname{Aut}(G, S)$ is a 2-group. Since $|S|=4$, we conclude that $|A u t(G, S)|=2$ or 4 or 8 . On the other hand, $\Gamma$ is normal symmetric which yields $C_{4}$ or $C_{2} \times C_{2}$ is a subgroup of $A u t(G, S)$. First, suppose that $C_{4} \cong\langle\alpha\rangle \leq A u t(G, S)$ and necessarily $o(a)=o(b)$. Since $|G|=p^{2} q^{2}$, one of the following cases holds:
Case 1. $o(a)=o(b)=p$. Suppose $H=\langle a\rangle$ and $K=\langle b\rangle$, then $H \leq P$ and $K \leq P\left(P \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}(G)\right.$ is normal) which implies that $\langle H \cup K\rangle \subseteq P$. This yields $G=\langle a, b\rangle \subseteq P$, a contradiction.
Case 2. $o(a)=o(b)=p^{2}$ and suppose $H=\langle a\rangle$ and $K=\langle b\rangle$, then $H=P, K=P$ and thus $\langle H \cup K\rangle=P=G$, a contradiction.
Case 3. $o(a)=o(b)=q^{2}$, put $H=\langle a\rangle$ and $K=\langle b\rangle$, then $H, K \in S y l_{q}(G)$ and then there exists $x \in G$ such that $H=K^{x}$. Now, according to [12], we have the following subcases:
Subcase 1. $G \cong C_{q^{2}} \ltimes_{\varphi} C_{p^{2}} \cong\left\langle c, d \mid c^{q^{2}}=d^{p^{2}}=1, c^{-1} d c=d^{r}\right\rangle$, which yields (without loss of generality) $a=c, b=c^{d^{i}}=d^{-i} c d^{i}$. It implies that $\alpha(b)=\alpha\left(c^{d^{i}}\right)=\alpha(c)^{\alpha\left(d^{i}\right)}=a$. Hence $\left(c^{-1}\right)^{d^{i} \alpha\left(d^{i}\right)}=\left(c^{-1}\right)^{d^{j}}=c$, a contradiction.

## Subcase 2.

$$
\begin{aligned}
G & \cong C_{q^{2}} \ltimes_{\varphi}\left(C_{p} \times C_{p}\right) \\
& \cong\left\langle c, d, e \mid c^{q^{2}}=d^{p}=e^{p}=1, c^{-1} d c=d^{\lambda}, c^{-1} e c=e^{\lambda}, d e=e d\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

which yields $a=c, b=c^{d^{i} e^{j}}=d^{-i} e^{-j} c d^{i} e^{j}$. Hence $\alpha(b)=\alpha\left(c^{d^{i} e^{j}}\right)=\alpha(c)^{\alpha\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)}=a$ and so $\left(c^{-1}\right)^{d^{i} e^{j} \alpha\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)}=\left(c^{-1}\right)^{d^{n} e^{m}}=c$, a contradiction.

## Subcase 3.

$$
\begin{aligned}
G & \cong C_{q^{2}} \ltimes_{\varphi}\left(C_{p} \times C_{p}\right) \\
& \cong\left\langle c, d, e \mid c^{q^{2}}=d^{p}=e^{p}=1, c^{-1} d c=d, c^{-1} e c=e^{\lambda}, d e=e d\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

which implies that $a=c, b=c^{e^{j}}=e^{-j} c e^{j}$. In other words, $\alpha(b)=\alpha\left(c^{e^{j}}\right)=\alpha(c)^{\alpha\left(e^{j}\right)}=a$. Hence $\left(c^{-1}\right)^{e^{j} \alpha\left(e^{j}\right)}=\left(c^{-1}\right)^{e^{m}}=c$, a contradiction.

## Subcase 4.

$$
\begin{aligned}
G & \cong C_{q^{2}} \ltimes_{\varphi}\left(C_{p} \times C_{p}\right) \\
& \cong\left\langle c, d, e \mid c^{q^{2}}=d^{p}=e^{p}=1, c^{-1} d c=d^{\lambda}, c^{-1} e c=e^{\lambda^{l}}, d e=e d\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

and we can verify that $a=c, b=c^{d^{j} e^{j}}=d^{-i} e^{-j} c d^{i} e^{j}$. Similarly, we have $\alpha(b)=\alpha\left(c^{d^{i} e^{j}}\right)=$ $\alpha(c)^{\alpha\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)}=a$ and so $\left(c^{-1}\right)^{d^{i} e^{j} \alpha\left(d^{i} e^{i}\right)}=\left(c^{-1}\right)^{d^{n} e^{m}}=c$, a contradiction.
Subcase 5. $G \cong C_{q^{2}} \ltimes_{\varphi}\left(C_{p} \times C_{p}\right)$
$\cong\langle c, d, e| c^{q^{2}}=d^{p}=e^{p}=1, c^{-1} d c=d^{\lambda} e^{\gamma N}, c^{-1} e c=d^{\gamma} e^{\lambda}, d e=e d, \lambda^{2}-\gamma^{2} N \neq 0, N \neq n^{2}, \lambda+$ $\gamma \sqrt{N} \neq 1\rangle$. Again, we can verify that $a=c, b=c^{d^{i} e^{j}}=d^{-i} e^{-j} c d^{i} e^{j}$ and thus $\alpha(b)=\alpha\left(c^{d^{i} e^{j}}\right)=$ $\alpha(c)^{\alpha\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)}=a$. Consequently, $\left(c^{-1}\right)^{d^{i} e^{j} \alpha\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)}=\left(c^{-1}\right)^{d^{n} e^{m}}=c$, a contradiction.

Now, suppose $C_{2} \times C_{2} \cong\left\langle\alpha^{2}, \beta\right\rangle \subseteq \operatorname{Aut}(G, S)$, then $\operatorname{Aut}(G, S)$ acts transitivily on $S$. Hence, in this case, the Cayley graph $\Gamma$ is normal symmetric. Again, we can consider the following cases:
Case 1. $o(a)=o(b)=p$.
Case 2. $o(a)=o(b)=p^{2}$. For both of them the proof is similar to that of in Subcase 4.
Case 3. $o(a)=o(b)=q^{2}$, put $H=\langle a\rangle$ and $K=\langle b\rangle$ then $H, K \in \operatorname{Syl}_{q}(G)$ and hence $H=K^{x}$ for some $x \in G$. Now, according to [12], we have the following subcases:
Subcase 1. $G \cong C_{q^{2}} \ltimes_{\varphi} C_{p^{2}}=\left\langle c, d \mid c^{q^{2}}=d^{p^{2}}=1, c^{-1} d c=d^{r}\right\rangle$, where $a=c, b=c^{d^{i}}=d^{-i} c d^{i}$. It implies that $\beta(d)=d^{-1}, \alpha^{2} o \beta(d)=d^{-1}, \alpha^{2}(d)=d$. Hence $\alpha^{2}\left(c^{-1} d c\right)=\alpha^{2}\left(d^{r}\right)$, so $c^{2} d=d c^{2}$, a contradiction.
Subcase 2. $G \cong C_{q^{2}} \ltimes_{\varphi}\left(C_{p} \times C_{p}\right)$
$=\left\langle c, d, e \mid c^{q^{2}}=d^{p}=e^{p}=1, c^{-1} d c=d^{\lambda}, c^{-1} e c=e^{\lambda}, d e=e d, \lambda^{q}=1\right\rangle$. Hence $Z(G)=\left\langle c^{q}\right\rangle \cong$ $C_{q}$, where $a=c, b=c^{d^{i} e^{j}}=d^{-i} e^{-j} c d^{i} e^{j}$. This implies that $\beta\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)=\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)^{-1}, \alpha^{2} o \beta\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)=$ $\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)^{-1}, \alpha^{2}\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)=d^{i} e^{j}$. Hence $\alpha^{2}\left(c^{-1} d^{i} e^{j} c\right)=\alpha^{2}\left(\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)^{\lambda}\right)$, so $c^{2}\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)=\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right) c^{2}$ and $a^{2}=b^{2}$, a contradiction.
Subcase 3. $G \cong C_{q^{2}} \ltimes_{\varphi}\left(C_{p} \times C_{p}\right)$
$=\left\langle c, d, e \mid c^{q^{2}}=d^{p}=e^{p}=1, c^{-1} d c=d, c^{-1} e c=e^{\lambda}, d e=e d, \lambda^{q}=1\right\rangle$. Hence $Z(G)=\left\langle c^{q}, d\right\rangle \cong C_{p q}$, where $a=c, b=c^{e^{j}}=e^{-j} c e^{j}$. In other words, $\beta\left(e^{j}\right)=\left(e^{j}\right)^{-1}, \alpha^{2} o \beta\left(e^{j}\right)=\left(e^{j}\right)^{-1}, \alpha^{2}\left(e^{j}\right)=e^{j}$. Hence $\alpha^{2}\left(c^{-1} e^{j} c\right)=\alpha^{2}\left(\left(e^{j}\right)^{\lambda}\right)$, so $c^{2}\left(e^{j}\right)=\left(e^{j}\right) c^{2}$ and $a^{2}=b^{2}$, a contradiction.
Subcase 4. $G \cong C_{q^{2}} \ltimes_{\varphi}\left(C_{p} \times C_{p}\right)$
$=\left\langle c, d, e \mid c^{q^{2}}=d^{p}=e^{p}=1, c^{-1} d c=d^{\lambda}, c^{-1} e c=e^{\lambda^{t}}, d e=e d, \lambda^{q}=1\right\rangle$. Hence $Z(G)=\left\langle c^{q}\right\rangle \cong C_{q}$, where $a=c, b=c^{d^{i} e^{j}}=d^{-i} e^{-j} c d^{i} e^{j}$. Consequently, $\beta\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)=\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)^{-1},\left(\alpha^{2} \circ \beta\right)\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)=\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)^{-1}$, $\alpha^{2}\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)=d^{i} e^{j}$. Hence $\alpha^{2}\left(c^{-1} d^{i} e^{j} c\right)=\alpha^{2}\left(\left(d^{i}\right)^{\lambda}\left(e^{j}\right)^{\lambda^{t}}\right),\left(\alpha^{2} \circ \beta\right)\left(c^{-1} d^{i} e^{j} c\right)=\left(\alpha^{2} \circ \beta\right)\left(\left(d^{i}\right)^{\lambda}\left(e^{j}\right)^{\lambda^{t}}\right)$, $\beta\left(c^{-1} d^{i} e^{j} c\right)=\beta\left(\left(d^{i}\right)^{\lambda}\left(e^{j}\right)^{\lambda^{t}}\right)$, so $\beta(d)=\left(\alpha^{2} \circ \beta\right)(d)=d^{-1}, \alpha^{2}(d)=d, \beta(e)=\left(\alpha^{2} \circ \beta\right)(e)=$ $e^{-1}, \alpha^{2}(e)=e$, so $c^{2} d=d c^{2}$ and $c^{2} e=e c^{2}$, a contradiction.
Subcase 5. $G \cong C_{q^{2}} \ltimes_{\varphi}\left(C_{p} \times C_{p}\right)$
$=\langle c, d, e| c^{q^{2}}=d^{p}=e^{p}=1, c^{-1} d c=d^{\lambda} e^{\gamma N}, c^{-1} e c=d^{\gamma} e^{\lambda}, d e=e d, \lambda^{2}-\gamma^{2} N \neq 0, N \neq n^{2}, \lambda+$ $\gamma \sqrt{N} \neq 1\rangle$, where $a=c, b=c^{d^{i} e^{j}}=d^{-i} e^{-j} c d^{i} e^{j}$ and so $\beta\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)=\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)^{-1},\left(\alpha^{2} \circ \beta\right)\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)=$ $\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)^{-1}, \alpha^{2}\left(d^{i} e^{j}\right)=d^{i} e^{j}$. Thus $\alpha^{2}\left(c^{-1} d^{i} e^{j} c\right)=\alpha^{2}\left(d^{i \lambda+j \gamma} e^{j \lambda+i \gamma N}\right),\left(\alpha^{2} \circ \beta\right)\left(c^{-1} d^{i} e^{j} c\right)=\left(\alpha^{2} \circ\right.$ $\beta)\left(d^{i \lambda+j \gamma}{ }_{e}{ }^{j \lambda+i \gamma N}\right), \beta\left(c^{-1} d^{i} e^{j} c\right)=\beta\left(d^{i \lambda+j \gamma} e^{j \lambda+i \gamma N}\right)$, so $\beta(d)=\left(\alpha^{2} \circ \beta\right)(d)=d^{-1}, \alpha^{2}(d)=d, \beta(e)=$ $\left(\alpha^{2} \circ \beta\right)(e)=e^{-1}, \alpha^{2}(e)=e$, so $c^{2} d=d c^{2}$ and $c^{2} e=e c^{2}$, a contradiction.

## 3.1 symmetric Cayley graphs on abelian groups of order $p^{2} q^{2}$

Here, we determine the full automorphism group of symmetric tetravalent Cayley graphs $\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$, where $G$ is an abelian group of order a square product of two primes. To do this, first notice that there are only four abelian groups of order $p^{2} q^{2}$. In the case that $q=2$, in [7] all tetravalent symmetric graphs of order $4 p^{2}$ have been determined. In the following, we determine the automorphism group for each graph. Here, in this section, $\alpha, \beta$ are as given in Theorem 3.1. For solving all congruence equations, we applied [3, Theorem 9.13].
Theorem 3.3. Let $G$ be an abelian group of order $p^{2} q^{2}$, where $p>q \neq 2$ are primes with the symmetric
generating subset $S=\left\{a, b, a^{-1}, b^{-1}\right\}$ and $\Gamma=\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ be a symmetric Cayley graph. Then the following cases holds,

1. $o(a) \neq p, p^{2}, q, q^{2}$,
2. If o(a) $=p q$, then $G \cong C_{p q} \times C_{p q}$ and $\operatorname{Aut}(\Gamma) \cong\left(C_{p q} \times C_{p q}\right) \rtimes D_{8}$,
3. If $o(a)=p^{2} q$, then $G \cong C_{p^{2}} \times C_{q} \times C_{q}$ and $|A u t(G, S)|=4$,
4. If $o(a)=p q^{2}$, then $G \cong C_{q^{2}} \times C_{p} \times C_{p}$ and $|A u t(G, S)|=4$,
5. If o $(a)=p^{2} q^{2}$, then $G \cong C_{p^{2} q^{2}}$ and $|A u t(G, S)|=4$.

Proof. By [1, Theorem 1.2], we have $\operatorname{Aut}(\Gamma) \cong G \rtimes \operatorname{Aut}(G, S)$ and $G$ is an abelian group, so the proof of part 1 is clear. For the second one, we know that $G=\langle a, b\rangle=\langle a\rangle .\langle b\rangle=$ $\langle a\rangle \times\langle b\rangle \cong C_{p q} \times C_{p q}$, then it is not difficult to see that $\operatorname{Aut}(G, S)=\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle \cong D_{8}$. Hence $\Gamma$ is not an one-regular Cayley graph and $\operatorname{Aut}(\Gamma) \cong\left(C_{p q} \times C_{p q}\right) \rtimes D_{8}$.

For the part 3, let $o(a)=o(b)=p^{2} q, H=\langle a\rangle$, and $K=\langle b\rangle$. Then $G=\langle a, b\rangle=\langle a\rangle .\langle b\rangle=H K$ and $|G|=|H K|=\frac{|H||K|}{|H \cap K|}=p^{2} q^{2}$. Since $a \neq b$, we conclude that $|H \cap K|=p^{2}$. Suppose that $a=x z, b=y z^{i}$, where $\left(i, p^{2}\right)=1$. Hence $G \cong C_{q} \times C_{q} \times C_{p^{2}} \cong\langle x, y, z| x^{q}=y^{q}=z^{p^{2}}=1, x y=$ $y x, x z=z x, y z=z y\rangle=\left\langle a, b \mid a=x z, b=y z^{i},\left(i, p^{2}\right)=1\right\rangle$. Now, by a same discussion in the proof of Theorem 3.2, two following cases hold:

Case 1. Suppose $\langle\alpha\rangle \leq \operatorname{Aut}(G, S)$, since $\operatorname{Aut}(G) \cong C_{p(p-1)} \times G L(2, q)$, we have $\alpha(a)=b^{-1}$ and $\alpha(b)=a$. This means that $\alpha(x z)=y^{-1} z^{-i}, \alpha\left(y z^{i}\right)=x z, \alpha(z)=z^{-i}, \alpha\left(z^{i}\right)=z, \alpha(x)=y^{-1}$ and $\alpha(y)=x$. Consequently, $z^{i^{2}+1}=1$ and so $1+i^{2} \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$ or $p=4 k+1$. Finally, if $o(a)=o(b)=p^{2} q$, the Cayley graph $\Gamma$ is symmetric if and only if $a^{i q}=b^{q}, 1+i^{2} \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$ and $p=4 k+1$. Clearly, $\operatorname{Aut}(G, S) \cong C_{4}$. Since $\beta(a)=b$ and $\beta(b)=a$; it means that $\beta(x z)=y z^{i}$ and $\beta\left(y z^{i}\right)=x z$. We conclude that $z^{i^{2}}=z$ and so $i^{2}-1 \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{2}\right),\left(i^{2}+1 \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)\right)$. Consequently, $p^{2}$ divides 2 , a contradiction. This means that $\beta \notin A u t(G, S)$ and $\Gamma$ is oneregular Cayley graph. Hence $A u t(\Gamma) \cong\left(C_{q} \times C_{q} \times C_{p^{2}}\right) \rtimes C_{4}$.

Case 2. Suppose that $\left\langle\alpha^{2}, \beta\right\rangle \leq \operatorname{Aut}(G, S)$. In this case, $i^{2} \equiv 1\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$ and it is not difficult to see that $\operatorname{Aut}(G, S)=\left\langle\alpha^{2}, \beta\right\rangle \cong C_{2} \times C_{2}$. Hence $\operatorname{Aut}(\Gamma) \cong\left(C_{q} \times C_{q} \times C_{p^{2}}\right) \rtimes\left(C_{2} \times C_{2}\right)$ and $\Gamma$ is one-regular graph.

For the part 4, let $o(a)=o(b)=p q^{2}, H=\langle a\rangle$ and $K=\langle b\rangle$. Then $G=\langle a, b\rangle=\langle a\rangle .\langle b\rangle=H K$ and $|G|=|H K|=\frac{|H||K|}{|H \cap K|}=p^{2} q^{2}$. Since $a \neq b$, we conclude that $H \cap K=q^{2}$. Suppose that $a=x z, b=y z^{i}$, where $\left(i, q^{2}\right)=1$. Hence $G \cong C_{p} \times C_{p} \times C_{q^{2}} \cong\langle x, y, z| x^{p}=y^{p}=z^{q^{2}}=1, x y=$ $y x, x z=z x, y z=z y\rangle=\left\langle a, b \mid a=x z, b=y z^{i},\left(i, q^{2}\right)=1\right\rangle$. Again, we consider two cases:
Case 1. Suppose $\langle\alpha\rangle \leq \operatorname{Aut}(G, S)$. According to the structure of $\operatorname{Aut}(G) \cong C_{q(q-1)} \times G L(2, p)$, we have $\alpha(a)=b^{-1}$ and $\alpha(b)=a$. This means that $\alpha(x z)=y^{-1} z^{-i}$ and $\alpha\left(y z^{i}\right)=x z$. Consequently, $\alpha(z)=z^{-i}, \alpha\left(z^{i}\right)=z, \alpha(x)=y^{-1}$ and $\alpha(y)=x$. Hence $z^{i^{2}+1}=1$ and thus $1+i^{2} \equiv$ $0\left(\bmod q^{2}\right)$. Therefore, according to [12, Theorem 3] we have $q=4 k+1$. Finally, if $o(a)=$ $o(b)=p q^{2}$, the Cayley graph $\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ is tetravalent normal symmetric if and only if $a^{i p}=$
$b^{p}, 1+i^{2} \equiv 0\left(\bmod q^{2}\right)$, where $q=4 k+1$. It is not difficult to prove that $A u t(G, S) \cong C_{4}$, since $\beta(a)=b$ and $\beta(b)=a$. Consequently, $\beta(x z)=y z^{i}$ and $\beta\left(y z^{i}\right)=x z$. This means that $\beta(z)=z^{i}$, $\beta\left(z^{i}\right)=z, \beta(x)=y$, and $\beta(y)=x$. Thus $z^{i^{2}}=z$ and so $i^{2}-1 \equiv 0\left(\bmod q^{2}\right),\left(i^{2}+1 \equiv 0\left(\bmod q^{2}\right)\right)$, a contradiction. Hence $\beta \notin \operatorname{Aut}(G, S)$ and $\operatorname{Aut}(\Gamma) \cong\left(C_{p} \times C_{p} \times C_{q^{2}}\right) \rtimes C_{4}$ and $\Gamma$ is a one-regular graph.

Case 2. Suppose $\left\langle\alpha^{2}, \beta\right\rangle \leq \operatorname{Aut}(G, S)$. In this case, $i^{2} \equiv 1\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$ and it is not difficult to see that $\operatorname{Aut}(G, S)=\left\langle\alpha^{2}, \beta\right\rangle \cong C_{2} \times C_{2}$. Hence $\operatorname{Aut}(\Gamma) \cong\left(C_{p} \times C_{p} \times C_{q^{2}}\right) \rtimes\left(C_{2} \times C_{2}\right)$ or $\Gamma$ is one-regular graph.

For the last part, let $G=C_{p^{2} q^{2}} \cong\langle a\rangle$. Assume $a=b^{i}$, where $\left(i, p^{2} q^{2}\right)=1$. Two cases hold:
Case 1. Suppose $\langle\alpha\rangle \leq \operatorname{Aut}(G, S)$. So $\alpha(a)=\alpha\left(b^{i}\right)$ which means that $b^{-1}=a^{i}$. Consequently, $\alpha^{2}(a)=\alpha^{2}\left(b^{i}\right)$ and so $a^{-1}=b^{-i}$. This yields $b^{i^{2}+1}=1$, hence $1+i^{2} \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{2} q^{2}\right)$ and thus $p=4 k+1, q=4 k^{\prime}+1$. In other words, $\operatorname{Aut}(G, S)=C_{4}$, since $\beta \in A u t(G, S)$, then $a=b^{i}$ and $\beta(a)=\beta\left(b^{i}\right)$. Hence $b=a^{i}$ yields $a=a^{i^{2}}$ and so $a^{i^{2}-1}=1$. It means that $p^{2} q^{2}$ divides $i^{2}-1$ and $i^{2}+1$, which implies that $p^{2} q^{2} \mid 2$, a contradiction. Therefore, $\beta \notin A u t(G, S)$. Hence $A u t(\Gamma) \cong C_{p^{2} q^{2}} \rtimes C_{4}$ and $\Gamma$ is one-regular graph.

Case 2. Suppose $\left\langle\alpha^{2}, \beta\right\rangle \leq \operatorname{Aut}(G, S)$. In this case, $i^{2} \equiv 1\left(\bmod p^{2} q^{2}\right)$ and thus $p=4 k+1, q=$ $4 k^{\prime}+1$. We can verify that $\operatorname{Aut}(G, S)=\left\langle\alpha^{2}, \beta\right\rangle \cong C_{2} \times C_{2}$. Hence $\operatorname{Aut}(\Gamma) \cong C_{p^{2} q^{2}} \rtimes\left(C_{2} \times C_{2}\right)$ and $\Gamma$ is one-regular graph.

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