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# Some properties of Square element graphs over semigroups 

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#### Abstract

The Square element graph over a semigroup $S$ is a simple undirected graph $\mathbb{S} q(S)$ whose vertex set consists precisely of all the non-zero elements of $S$, and two vertices $a, b$ are adjacent if and only if either $a b$ or $b a$ belongs to the set $\left\{t^{2}: t \in S\right\} \backslash\{1\}$, where 1 is the identity of the semigroup (if it exists). In this paper, we study the various properties of $\mathbb{S} q(S)$. In particular, we concentrate on square element graphs over three important classes of semigroups. First, we consider the semigroup $\Omega_{n}$ formed by the ideals of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$. Afterwards, we consider the symmetric groups $S_{n}$ and the dihedral groups $D_{n}$. For each type of semigroups mentioned, we look into the structural and other graph-theoretic properties of the corresponding square element graphs.


Keywords: Square element graph; Semigroup; Semigroup of ideals; Symmetric group; Dihedral group

## 1. Introduction

Graphs defined over algebraic structures reveal interesting interplay between graph-theoretic and algebraic properties. For example, zero-divisor graphs [1] have shown that the set of zero-divisors of a ring has many underlying properties which are significant from a graph-theoretic perspective.

Like the set of zero-divisors, we can consider another interesting set in an algebraic structure $R$, viz., the set of squares of $R$ (i.e., the set $T=\left\{x^{2} \mid x \in R\right\}$ ). It is interesting to observe that exactly like the set of zero-divisors, the set of squares of a commutative ring is not closed under addition (in general) but is closed under multiplication. Using the set of squares, Sen Gupta and Sen defined the square element graph over a finite commutative ring [2], where the set of all non-zero elements of a finite commutative ring $R$ is taken as the vertex set, and two vertices are adjacent if and only if their sum is a square of some non-zero element of $R$. Later, Sen Gupta and Sen generalized the square element graphs over arbitrary rings [3]. Now once the set of squares of a ring is determined, the square element graph essentially uses only one operation of a ring. Hence, like the zero-divisor graphs, the square element graphs can also be defined over a semigroup. We define the square element graph over a semigroup in the following way:

[^0]Definition 1.1. Let $S$ be a semigroup. We consider a simple undirected graph $G=(V, E)$, where $V=S-\{0\}$, and for any two elements $a, b \in V, a b \in E$ if and only if $\{a b, b a\} \cap\left\{t^{2} \mid t \in S, t^{2} \neq 1\right\} \neq \emptyset$. Here 1 and 0 are respectively the identity and the zero-element of $S$ (if they exist). This simple undirected graph is called the Square element graph over the semigroup $S$, and is denoted by $\mathbb{S} q(S)$.

Remark 1.2. From the definition of $\mathbb{S} q(S)$, it is easy to see that if $S$ has a zero-element 0 , then the zero-divisor graph $\Gamma(S)$ over $S$ (studied in [4,5]) is a subgraph of the graph $\mathbb{S} q(S)$ (since $0=0^{2}$ ). Consequently, there is a path between any two zero-divisor vertices in $\mathbb{S} q(S)$, since $\Gamma(S)$ is always connected.

Example 1.3. Let $S=\{(i, a, \lambda) \mid i, \lambda \in\{1,2\}$ and $a \in\{0,1\}\} \cup\{0\}$. We consider the matrix $\mathrm{M}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0\end{array}\right]$ whose entries are from the set $\{0,1\}$. Let $p_{\lambda j}$ denote the $(\lambda, j)$ th entry of $M$. We define an operation ' $\because$ ' on $S$ as follows:

$$
(i, a, \lambda) .(j, b, \mu)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\left(i, a p_{\lambda j} b, \mu\right) \text { if } p_{\lambda j} \neq 0 \\
0
\end{array} \quad \text { otherwise } . ~ \$\right.
$$

Then ( $S$, .) becomes a completely 0 -semisimple semigroup. Here, each non-zero element of ( $S$, .) is a zero-divisor. Now the zero-divisor graph $\Gamma(S)$ is connected. Since $\Gamma(S)$ is a subgraph of $\mathbb{S q}(S)$ with the same vertex set as that of $\mathbb{S} q(S)$, it follows that $\mathbb{S} q(S)$ is also connected. Now $\mathbb{S} q(S)$ and $\Gamma(S)$ are shown below (see Figs. 1 and 2):


Fig. 1. $\Gamma(S)$.


Fig. 2. $\mathbb{S} q(S)$.
We observe that $\Gamma(S)$ is not complete, as $(1,0,1)$ is not adjacent to $(2,1,2)$ in $\Gamma(S)$. Now we note that $(i, a, \lambda)^{2}=\left(i, a p_{\lambda j} a, \lambda\right)$. So if $a=0$, then $(i, 0, \lambda)^{2} \neq 0$ if and only if $(\lambda, i)=(1,2)$ or $(2,1)$. The same is true if $a=1$. Hence the square elements in $S$ are $0,(1,0,2),(2,0,1),(1,1,2),(2,1,1)$. So $(1,1,1) \leftrightarrow(2,1,2)$ in $\mathbb{S} q(S)$. From Fig. 3, $\mathbb{S} q(S)$ is seen to be isomorphic to the complete graph $K_{8}$.

We now give some results regarding the connectedness of $\mathbb{S} q(S)$.
Theorem 1.4. If $S$ is a union of groups of odd order, then $\mathbb{S} q(S)$ is connected with diam $(\mathbb{S} q(S)) \leq 2$. In particular, if $G$ is a group of odd order, then $\mathbb{S} q(G)$ is connected with diam $(\mathbb{S} q(S)) \leq 2$.

Proof. Let $S=G_{1} \cup G_{2} \cup \cdots \cup G_{n}$, where the $G_{i}$ 's are groups of odd order. Let $x \in S$. Then $x \in G_{i}$ for some $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. Let $\left|G_{i}\right|=r$, where $r$ is odd. Then $x^{r}=e_{1}$ where $e_{1}$ is the identity of $G_{i}$. So $x=\left(x^{\frac{r+1}{2}}\right)^{2}$. This shows that every element of $S$ is a square element. Let $a, b$ be any two vertices of $\operatorname{Sq}(S)$. If $a=b^{-1}$, then $a, b$ must belong to the same group and hence we have a path $a \leftrightarrow e \leftrightarrow b$, where $e$ is the identity of the group to which $a, b$ belong. If $a \neq b^{-1}$, then $a b$ is a non-identity square element belonging to $S$ (as every element of $S$ has been shown to
be a square). Thus $a \leftrightarrow b$. Hence $\mathbb{S} q(S)$ is connected with diameter at most 2 . In particular, it obviously follows that for a group $G$ of odd order, $\mathbb{S} q(G)$ is connected with diameter at most 2 .

The converse of the last part does not hold in general, but it holds true if the group is commutative, as shown in the next result.

## Theorem 1.5. Let $G$ be a finite commutative group. Then the following are equivalent:

(i) $\mathbb{S} q(G)$ is connected.
(ii) All elements of $G$ are squares.
(iii) $|G|$ is odd.

Proof. $(i) \Longrightarrow(i i)$ : Let $\mathbb{S} q(G)$ be connected. Suppose $S_{1}$ is the set of all square elements of $G$. If $\mathbb{S q} q(G)$ is a single vertex graph, then all elements of $G$ are squares. So we now assume that $G$ has at least two elements. If possible, let $G$ contain non-squares. Now as $\mathbb{S} q(G)$ is connected, there must be some square element $t^{2}$, and some non-square $m$ such that $t^{2} \leftrightarrow m$ in $\mathbb{S} q(G)$. Then, we have that $t^{2} m=s^{2}$ for some $s \in G$, which implies that $m=\left(s t^{-1}\right)^{2}$. This contradicts that $m$ is a non-square. So all elements of $G$ must be squares.
(ii) $\Longrightarrow$ (iii): Suppose all elements of $G$ are squares. If possible, let $|G|=n$, where $n$ is an even integer. If $n=2$, then $G \cong\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2},+\right)$. This is not possible, since $\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2},+\right)$ contains a non-square $\overline{1}$. So we assume that $n>2$. Clearly, $n=2^{k} m$, where $k \geq 1$ and $m$ is odd with $k m \neq 1$. Then $G$ has an element $a$ of order 2. Suppose $a=a_{1}^{2}$ for some $a_{1}$. Then $a_{1}^{4}=e$. So $o\left(a_{1}\right)$ is 1,2 , or 4 . Now $a, a_{1} \neq e$, and $a_{1}^{2}=a \neq e$. Hence, $o\left(a_{1}\right)=4$. Again, let $a_{1}=a_{2}^{2}$ for some $a_{2}$. Now since $a_{2}^{8}=e$, we have that $o\left(a_{2}\right)$ is $1,2,4$ or 8 . It is easy to see that $o\left(a_{2}\right)=8$. We continue this process and ultimately, we get an element $a_{k}$ such that $o\left(a_{k}\right)=2^{k+1}$. This is a contradiction, since order of any element in $G$ has to be a divisor of $2^{k} m$. So $a^{t}$ is non-square for some $1 \leq t \leq k-1$, which is again a contradiction as all elements of $G$ are squares. Thus, $|G|$ is odd.
$($ iii $) \Longrightarrow$ (i): This follows from Theorem 1.4.
In this paper, we concentrated on square element graphs defined over three special classes of semigroups. In [2], the ring $\left(\mathbb{Z}_{n},+, \cdot\right)$ was considered. It seemed worthwhile to consider the semigroup $\Omega_{n}$ formed by the ideals of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$. In Section 2, we studied the properties of $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$. Then we considered square element graphs over $S_{n}$. Finally, we looked at the dihedral groups $D_{n}$ (which are noncommutative groups of even order) and looked into the various graph-theoretic properties of $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$.

In this paper, $a \leftrightarrow b$ denotes that the vertices $a, b$ are adjacent. Again, the symbols $\operatorname{diam}(G), \operatorname{gr}(G) \chi(G), \omega(G)$, $\alpha(G), \gamma(G)$ respectively denote the diameter, the girth, the chromatic number, the clique number, the independence number and the domination number of the graph $G$. For other graph-theoretic terminologies, one may refer to [6]. For the algebraic terminologies, one may have a look at $[7,8]$.

## 2. The graph $\mathbb{S} \boldsymbol{q}\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$

In this section, we study the square element graphs over a special class of semigroups, viz. the semigroup formed by the ideals of a ring. Specifically, we here consider rings of the form $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$.

For a ring $R$ with identity, let $\Omega_{R}$ denote the set of all left ideals of $R$. For any two ideals $I, J$ of $R$, multiplication $\because$ is defined by $I \cdot J=\left\{a_{1} b_{1}+a_{2} b_{2}+\cdots+a_{n} b_{n} \mid a_{i} \in I, b_{i} \in J, i=1,2, \ldots, n, n \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$. Then $\left(\Omega_{R},.\right)$ forms a semigroup. We are interested to study the square element graph over the semigroup $\Omega_{R}$. In particular, we consider the ideals of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$. For convenience, we denote the corresponding semigroup by $\Omega_{n}$ instead of $\Omega_{\mathbb{Z}_{n}}$. It is known that the distinct ideals of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ are precisely the ideals generated by the distinct divisors of $n$. Therefore, the number of ideals in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ equals the number of divisors of $n$. Hence, if $n=p_{1}^{r_{1}} p_{2}^{r_{2}} \cdots p_{k}^{r_{k}}$ where $p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{k}$ are distinct prime numbers and $r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{k}$ are nonnegative integers, then there are $\left(r_{1}+1\right)\left(r_{2}+1\right) \cdots\left(r_{k}+1\right)$ ideals in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$. So $\Omega_{n}=\left\{\langle\overline{0}\rangle,\langle\overline{1}\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1} p_{2}}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle\overline{p_{1} p_{2}^{r_{k}}}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{r_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{r_{k}-1}}\right\rangle\right\}$ is the set of all ideals in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$. Note that in $\Omega_{n}$, no element is invertible except the identity element $\langle\overline{1}\rangle$.

For example, $\Omega_{6}=\{\langle\overline{0}\rangle,\langle\overline{1}\rangle,\langle\overline{2}\rangle,\langle\overline{3}\rangle\}$, and $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{6}\right)$ is the following complete graph:

In general we obtain the following.


Fig. 3. $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{6}\right)$.
Theorem 2.1. The graph $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is a complete graph if and only if $n=p_{1} p_{2} p_{3} \cdots p_{r}$ for some distinct primes $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{r}$.

Proof. Let $n=p_{1} p_{2} p_{3} \ldots p_{r}$ for some distinct primes $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{r}$. If $r=1$, then $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is a single-vertex graph and hence is complete. Next, let $r>1$. Then $\mathbb{Z}_{n} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p_{1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{2}} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{r-1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{r}}$ and hence there are $(1+1)(1+1) \cdots(1+1)=2^{r}$ distinct ideals of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$. If $I$ is an ideal of $\mathbb{Z}_{p_{1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{2}} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{r-1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{r}}$, then $I=I_{1} \times I_{2} \times \cdots \times I_{r-1} \times I_{r}$ where $I_{k}$ is some ideal of $\mathbb{Z}_{p_{k}}$ for $k=1,2, \ldots, r$. Clearly, $I_{k}$ is either $\{\overline{0}\}$ or $\mathbb{Z}_{p_{k}}$. Now $\mathbb{Z}_{p_{k}}^{2}=\mathbb{Z}_{p_{k}}$ and $\{\overline{0}\}^{2}=\{\overline{0}\}$. Since this implies that $I_{k}^{2}=I_{k}$ for all $k=1,2, \ldots, r$, we have that $I^{2}=I$. Thus any ideal of $\mathbb{Z}_{p_{1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{2}} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{r-1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{r}}$ is a square element. Let $I, J$ be two non-zero distinct ideals of $\mathbb{Z}_{p_{1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{2}} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{r-1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{r}}$, then $I \cdot J=(I \cdot J)^{2} \neq\langle\overline{1}\rangle$. Hence $I \leftrightarrow J$. So the square element graph over the set of all ideals of $\mathbb{Z}_{p_{1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{2}} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{r-1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{r}}$ is isomorphic to $K_{2^{r}-1}$. Thus $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is a complete graph.

Conversely, let $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ be a complete graph. If possible, let $n=p_{1}^{r_{1}} p_{2}^{r_{2}} \cdots p_{k}^{r_{k}}$ with at least one $r_{i}>1$. If $k=1$ (and hence $r_{1}>1$ ), we have that the vertex $\langle\overline{1}\rangle$ is not adjacent to the vertex $\left\langle\bar{p}_{1}\right\rangle$, and hence $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is not complete in that case. Let $k>1$. Now $\mathbb{Z}_{n} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p_{1} r_{1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{2}} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{r-1}{ }^{r_{k-1}}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{r}{ }^{r_{k}}}$ and hence the square element graph over the set of all ideals of $\mathbb{Z}_{p_{1}^{r_{1}}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{2}^{r_{2}}} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{r-1}^{r_{k-1}}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{r}^{r_{k}}}$ is a complete graph. Without loss of generality, let $r_{1}>1$, then $\left\langle\overline{p_{1}}\right\rangle$ is not a square element in $\mathbb{Z}_{p_{1}}$. This implies that $\left\langle\overline{p_{1}}\right\rangle \times\{\overline{0}\} \times \cdots \times\{\overline{0}\} \times\{\overline{0}\}$ is not adjacent to $\langle\overline{1}\rangle \times\langle\overline{1}\rangle \times \cdots \times\langle\overline{1}\rangle$, which is a contradiction as the square element graph over the set of all ideals of $\mathbb{Z}_{p_{1}^{r_{1}}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{2}^{r_{2}}} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{r-1}^{r_{k-1}}} \times Z_{p_{r}^{r_{k}}}$ is a complete graph. Thus each $r_{i} \leq 1$. Hence $n$ must be of the form $p_{1} p_{2} p_{3} \cdots p_{r}$ where $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{r}$ are distinct primes.

Next, we consider the connectedness of $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$. We observe that $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is not always connected. For example, the graph $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{9}\right)$ is not connected, as shown below (see Fig. 4):


Fig. 4. $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{9}\right)$.
The following theorem gives the complete set of values of $n$ for which $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is connected.
Theorem 2.2. The graph $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is connected if and only if $n \neq p^{2}$ for any prime $p$.
Proof. We consider the different values of $n$ and look at the structure of $\mathbb{S} q(n)$ accordingly.
Case 1: Let $n=p_{1} p_{2} p_{3} \cdots p_{r}$ for some distinct primes $p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{r}$. Then by Theorem 2.1, $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is connected.
Case 2: Let $n=p^{k}$ for some prime $p$ and $k>2$. Then $\Omega_{n}=\left\{\langle\overline{1}\rangle,\langle\bar{p}\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p^{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p^{3}}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle\overline{p^{k-1}}\right\rangle,\langle\overline{0}\rangle\right\}$. Now in $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$, $\left\langle\overline{p^{i}}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p^{k-1}}\right\rangle$ for $i=1,2,3, \ldots, k-2$; and $\langle\overline{1}\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p^{2}}\right\rangle$. This shows that we have a path between any two vertices in $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$. Thus the graph $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is connected.
Case 3: Let $n=p_{1}^{r_{1}} p_{2}^{r_{2}} \cdots p_{k}^{r_{k}}$ where $p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{k}$ are distinct primes, $k \geq 2$, and $r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{k} \in \mathbb{N}$ with at least one $r_{i}>1$. Then $\Omega_{n}=\left\{\langle\overline{0}\rangle,\langle\overline{1}\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1} p_{2}}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle\overline{p_{1} p_{2}^{r_{k}}}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{r_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{r_{k}-1}}\right\rangle\right\}$ is the set of all ideals of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$. Without loss of generality, let $r_{1}>1$. In this case $\left\langle p_{1}^{2}\right\rangle$ is a square element, which is adjacent to $\langle\overline{1}\rangle$. Consider a vertex of the form $\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{s_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{s_{k}}}\right\rangle$ with $s_{1} \geq 1$. Then we have a path $\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{s_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{s_{k}}}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{r_{1}-1}} \frac{p_{2}^{r_{2}} \cdots p_{k}^{r_{k}}}{}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{2}}\right\rangle$. Next, consider an element of the form $\left\langle\overline{p_{2}^{s_{2}} \cdots p_{i}^{s_{i}} \cdots p_{k}^{s_{k}}}\right\rangle$ with $s_{i} \geq 1$. Then we have a path $\left\langle\overline{p_{2}^{s_{2}} \cdots p_{i}^{s_{i}} \cdots p_{k}^{s_{k}}}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow$


Fig. 5. $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p q^{3}}\right)$.
$\left\langle\overline{\left.\left.\left.p_{1}^{r_{1}} p_{2}^{r_{2}} p_{3}^{r_{3}} \cdots p_{i}^{r_{i}-1} \cdots p_{k}^{r_{k}}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow \overline{\left\langle p_{1}^{r_{1}-1} p_{2}^{r_{2}} \cdots p_{k}^{r_{k}}\right.}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow \overline{\overline{p_{1}^{2}}}\right\rangle \text {. Thus every vertex is in the component to which the vertex }}\right.$ $\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{2}}\right\rangle$ belongs. Hence $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is a connected graph.
Case 4: Let $n=p^{2}$, where $p$ is any prime. Then $\Omega_{n}=\{\langle\overline{0}\rangle,\langle\overline{1}\rangle,\langle\bar{p}\rangle\}$. Now $\langle\overline{1}\rangle$ is not adjacent to $\langle\bar{p}\rangle$ and thus it is easy to see that $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is not connected.

Having considered all possible cases, we find that $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is connected if and only if $n \neq p^{2}$ for some prime $p$.
Corollary 2.3. When $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is connected, $\operatorname{diam}\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)\right) \leq 6$.
Proof. From the proof of Theorem 2.2, we see that for $n=p_{1} p_{2} \cdots p_{r}$, all the vertices of $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ are adjacent to each other. Also, for $n=p^{k}$ (where $k>2$ ), there is a path of length at most 3 between any two vertices. Finally, for the remaining values of $n$ (except for the form $p^{2}$ for some prime $p$ ), we have a path of length at most 6 between any two vertices (through the vertex $\left\langle\bar{p}_{j}^{2}\right\rangle$ if $r_{j}>2$ ). So $\operatorname{diam}\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)\right) \leq 6$ when $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is connected.

In the next result, we consider the planarity of $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$.
Proposition 2.4. $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is planar if and only if $n$ is in one of the following forms:

$$
n= \begin{cases}p q^{r} & , 0<r \leq 3 \\ p^{2} q^{2} & \\ p^{s} & , s \leq 8\end{cases}
$$

where $p, q$ are distinct primes.
Proof. First of all, we show that $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is indeed planar for these values of $n$ as mentioned. Let $p, q$ be distinct primes. The graphs $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p q^{2}}\right)$ and $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p q^{3}}\right)$ are shown in Figs. 6 and 5, respectively.

From the figures, it is clear that both the graphs $\mathbb{S q}\left(\Omega_{p q^{3}}\right)$ and $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p q^{2}}\right)$ are planar. Similarly, it can be easily shown that the graph $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p q}\right)$ is planar as the number of the vertices of $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p q}\right)$ is 3 .

Next, we consider the graphs $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p^{5}}\right), \mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p^{6}}\right), \mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p^{7}}\right), \mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p^{8}}\right)$, and $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p^{2} q^{2}}\right)$ where $p, q$ are distinct prime integers:

From Figs. $7,8,9$, and 10 , it is clear that the graphs $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p^{5}}\right), \mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p^{6}}\right), \mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p^{7}}\right)$ and $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p^{8}}\right)$ are all planar. Again, it is easy to see that the graph $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p^{r}}\right)$ for $r=1,2,3,4$ is planar as the number of the vertices of the graph $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p^{r}}\right)$ is $\leq 4$ for $r=1,2,3,4$. The graph $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p^{2} q^{2}}\right)$ is also planar, as shown in Fig. 11 .

Now we show that for the remaining values of $n, \mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is not planar.


Fig. 6. $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p q^{2}}\right)$.


Fig. 7. $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p^{6}}\right)$.


Fig. 8. $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p^{5}}\right)$.

Case I: If $n=p_{1}^{s_{1}}$ where $s_{1}>8$, then we have a subgraph induced by the subset $\left\{\langle\overline{1}\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{4}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{6}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{8}}\right\rangle\right\}$ which is isomorphic to $K_{5}$. Thus $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is not planar.
Case II: If $n=p_{1} p_{2}^{s_{2}}$ where $s_{2}>3$, then we have a subgraph induced by the subset $\left\{\langle\overline{1}\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{2}^{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{2}^{4}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1} p_{2}^{2}}\right\rangle\right\}$ which is isomorphic to $K_{5}$ and hence $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is not planar.
Case III: If $n=p_{1}^{2} p_{2}^{3}$, then the subgraph induced by the vertices $\left\{\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{2} p_{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{2} p_{2}^{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{2}^{3}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{2}^{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1} p_{2}^{3}}\right\rangle\right\}$ has a subgraph which is isomorphic to $K_{3,3}$. So $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is not planar.
Case IV: If $n=p_{1}^{3} p_{2}^{3}$, then the subgraph induced by the vertices $\left.\left\{\overline{\left\langle p_{1}^{2} p_{2}^{2}\right.}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{3} p_{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{3} p_{2}^{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1} p_{2}^{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1} p_{2}^{3}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{2} p_{2}^{3}}\right\rangle\right\}$ has a subgraph which is isomorphic to $K_{3,3}$. So $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is not planar.
Case V: If $n=p_{1}^{s_{1}} p_{2}^{s_{2}}$ where $s_{1}>1$ and $s_{2}>3$, then there is a subgraph induced by the subset $\left\{\langle\overline{1}\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{2}^{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{2}^{4}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{2} p_{2}^{2}}\right\rangle\right\}$ which is isomorphic to $K_{5}$. Thus $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is not planar.
Case VI: If $n=p_{1} p_{2} p_{3} p_{4}^{s_{4}} \cdots p_{r}^{s_{r}}$ where $p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3}, \ldots, p_{r}$ are distinct primes, $s_{i} \geq 0$ and $r \geq 3$, then we have a subgraph induced by the subset $\left\{\langle\overline{1}\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{3}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1} p_{2}}\right\rangle\right\}$ which is isomorphic to $K_{5}$. Hence $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is not planar. Case VII: If $n=p_{1} p_{2} p_{3}^{s_{3}} \cdots p_{r}^{s_{r}}$ where $p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3}, \ldots, p_{r}$ are distinct primes, $r \geq 3$ and $s_{3}>1$, then we have a subgraph induced by the subset $\left\{\langle\overline{1}\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1} p_{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{3}^{2}}\right\rangle\right\}$ which is isomorphic to $K_{5}$. Hence $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is not planar in this case as well.


Fig. 9. $\mathbb{S}_{q}\left(\Omega_{p^{7}}\right)$.


Fig. 10. $\mathbb{S}_{q}\left(\Omega_{p^{8}}\right)$.


Fig. 11. $\mathbb{S}_{q}\left(\Omega_{p^{2} q^{2}}\right)$.

Case VIII: If $n=p_{1} p_{2}^{s_{2}} \cdots p_{r}^{s_{r}}$ where $p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3}, \ldots, p_{r}$ are distinct primes, $r \geq 3$ and $s_{2}, s_{3}>1$, then we have a subgraph induced by the subset $\left\{\langle\overline{1}\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{2}^{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{3}^{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{2}^{2} p_{3}^{2}}\right\rangle\right\}$ which is isomorphic to $K_{5}$. Thus $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is not planar. Case IX: Finally, if $n=p_{1}^{s_{1}} p_{2}^{s_{2}} \cdots p_{r}^{s_{r}}$ where $\underline{p_{1}}, p_{2}, p_{3}, \ldots, p_{r}$ are distinct primes, $r \geq 3$ and $s_{1}, s_{2}, s_{3}>1$, then we have a subgraph induced by the subset $\left\{\langle\overline{1}\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{2}^{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{3}^{2}}\right\rangle,\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{2} p_{2}^{2}}\right\rangle\right\}$ which is isomorphic to $K_{5}$. Thus $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is not planar.

So having considered all possible cases, we infer that $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is planar if and only if $n$ is of the form $p q^{r}$ $(0<r \leq 3), p^{s}$ (for $s \leq 8$ ) or $p^{2} q^{2}$, where $p, q$ are distinct primes.

We next consider the existence of cycles in $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$.

Theorem 2.5. $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is acyclic if and only if $n=p^{k}$ for some prime $p$ and some $k \in\{1,2,3,4\}$. For all other values of $n, \operatorname{gr}\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)\right)=3$.

Proof. It is easy to see that for a prime $p, \mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p}\right) \cong K_{1}, \mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p^{2}}\right) \cong 2 K_{1}, \mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p^{3}}\right) \cong P_{3}$ and $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{p^{4}}\right) \cong P_{4}$. So $\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ is acyclic if $n=p^{k}$ for some prime $p$ and $k \in\{1,2,3,4\}$. We next show that for all other values of $n, \mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)$ contains a 3 -cycle, and hence, is not acyclic.

If $n=p_{1} p_{2}$, then $\langle\overline{\overline{1}}\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{\bar{p}_{1}}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p_{2}}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\langle\overline{1}\rangle$ is a 3 -cycle.
If $n=p_{1}^{2} p_{2}$, then $\langle\overline{1}\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{2}}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p_{2}}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\langle\overline{1}\rangle$ is a 3-cycle.
If $n=p^{r} q$ with $r>2$, then $\left\langle\overline{p^{r-1}}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\langle\overline{p \bar{q}}\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p^{r-1} q}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p^{r-1}}\right\rangle$ is a 3-cycle.
If $n=p^{r} q^{s}$ with $r, s \geqq 2$, then $\langle\overline{p q}\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p^{r} q^{s-1}}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p^{r-1} q^{s}}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\langle\overline{p q}\rangle$ is a 3-cycle.
If $n=p^{2} q r$, then $\left\langle\overline{p^{2} r}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\langle\overline{p q r}\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p^{2} q}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p^{2} r}\right\rangle$ is a 3-cycle.
If $n=p_{1}^{s_{1}} p_{2}^{s_{2}} \cdots p_{r}^{s_{r}}$ with $r>2$ and $s_{i}>1$ for some $i$, then $\left\langle\overline{\left.p_{i}^{s_{i}-1} p_{r}^{s_{r}}\right\rangle} \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{s_{1}} p_{2}^{s_{2}} \cdots p_{i} \cdots p_{r}^{s_{r}}}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\right.$ $\left\langle\overline{p_{1}^{s_{1}} p_{2}^{s_{2}} \cdots p_{i}^{s_{i}} \cdots p_{r-1}^{s_{r}-1}}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p_{i}^{s_{i}-1} p_{r}^{s_{r}}}\right\rangle$ is a 3-cycle.

If $n=p_{1} p_{2} \cdots p_{r}$ with $r \geq 3$, then $\left\langle\overline{p_{1} p_{3} p_{4} \cdots p_{r}}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p_{2} p_{3} p_{4} \cdots p_{r}}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p_{1} p_{2} p_{4} \cdots p_{r}}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p_{1} p_{3} \cdots p_{r}}\right\rangle$ is a 3-cycle.

If $n=p^{s}$ with $s>4$, then $\left\langle\overline{p^{s-1}}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p^{s-2}}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p^{s-3}}\right\rangle \leftrightarrow\left\langle\overline{p^{s-1}}\right\rangle$ is a 3-cycle.
Thus $\operatorname{gr}\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(\Omega_{n}\right)\right)=3$ for all the above cases. This completes the proof.

## 3. Some results on $\mathbb{S} \boldsymbol{q}\left(\boldsymbol{S}_{n}\right)$

In this section, we discuss the graph $\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{n}\right)$, where $S_{n}$ is the symmetric group on a finite set of $n$ symbols. First, we give an interesting result, which is helpful in determining the adjacencies in $\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{n}\right)$. The result was proved by M. Snowden and J.M. Howie [9].

Theorem 3.1 (Theorem 1, [9]). An element $\alpha$ of $S_{n}$ is a square if and only iffor each even number $k$ the decomposition of $\alpha$ into disjoint cycles involves an even number of cycles of length $k$.

Remark 3.2. Using the above theorem we can show that the set of all squares in $S_{n}$ is given by precisely the permutations belonging to the subgroup $A_{n}$. For example, a square in $S_{4}$ is either a 3-cycle, or a product of 2-cycles or the identity permutation $\rho_{0}$, i.e., the set of all squares of $S_{4}$ consists precisely of the elements belonging to the alternative group $A_{4}$.

Example 3.3. Let us consider the graph $\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{3}\right)$. The non-commutative group $S_{3}$ contains precisely three squares $\{e,(123),(132)\}$. From Fig. 12 it is seen that $\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{3}\right) \cong K_{3}+\overline{K_{1}+K_{2}}$.

We now give the general structure of $\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{n}\right)$.


Fig. 12. $\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{3}\right)$.
Theorem 3.4. For $n \geq 3, \mathbb{S} q\left(S_{n}\right)$ is a disjoint union of $\overline{m K_{1}+\frac{n!-2 m}{4} K_{2}}$ and $\overline{(p+1) K_{1}+\frac{n!-2 p-2}{4} K_{2}}$, where $p$ is the number of those permutations in $S_{n}$ which are the products of an even number of disjoint 2-cycles, and $m$ is the number of those permutations in $S_{n}$ which are the products of an odd number of disjoint 2-cycles.

Proof. In the group $S_{n}$, the square elements are precisely the even permutations (by Remark 3.2). Then any two distinct elements $\rho, \alpha \in S_{n}$ are adjacent if and only if either $\rho \alpha \in A_{n} \backslash\left\{\rho_{0}\right\}$ or $\alpha \rho \in A_{n} \backslash\left\{\rho_{0}\right\}$ where $\rho_{0}$ is the identity permutation. If $\rho \in A_{n}$ and $\alpha \in S_{n} \backslash A_{n}$, then $\rho$ and $\alpha$ are not adjacent to each other since neither of $\rho \alpha$ and $\alpha \rho$ belongs
to $A_{n} \backslash\{\rho\}$. Therefore no element of $A_{n}$ is adjacent to any element of $S_{n} \backslash A_{n}$. This implies that $\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{n}\right)$ is disconnected. Again, any element $\rho \in A_{n}$ is adjacent to the identity element $\rho_{0}$ as $\rho_{0} \rho=\rho$. Let $\rho_{1}, \rho_{2} \in A_{n}$. Then $\rho_{1} \rho_{2} \in A_{n}$. Let $\alpha \in A_{n}$ be a permutation of order greater than 2. Then $\alpha \neq \alpha^{-1}$. Thus $\alpha$ is adjacent to any other element of $A_{n}$ except its inverse $\alpha^{-1}$. Now let $\beta$ be a permutation which is a product of an even number of disjoint 2 -cycles. Then $\beta=\beta^{-1}$. Hence $\beta$ is adjacent to any other element of $A_{n}$. Let $p$ be the number of those permutations which are the products of an even number of disjoint 2 -cycles. So the subgraph induced by $A_{n}$ is isomorphic to $\overline{(p+1) K_{1}+\frac{n!-2 p-2}{4} K_{2}}$. Again, consider two elements $\alpha, \beta\left(\neq \alpha^{-1}\right) \in S_{n} \backslash A_{n}$. Clearly, $\alpha \beta\left(\neq \rho_{0}\right)$ is an even permutation. So $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are adjacent. Now let $\alpha, \alpha^{-1} \in S_{n} \backslash A_{n}$. Then there exists an element $x\left(\neq \alpha^{-1}\right) \in S_{n} \backslash A_{n}$ different from $\alpha, \alpha^{-1}$ such that we have a path $\alpha \leftrightarrow x \leftrightarrow \alpha^{-1}$. Thus the subgraph induced by $S_{n} \backslash A_{n}$ is a connected subgraph. Let $\alpha \in S_{n} \backslash A_{n}$ be a permutation of order greater than 2 . Then $\alpha \neq \alpha^{-1}$. So $\alpha$ is adjacent to any other element of $S_{n} \backslash A_{n}$ except $\alpha^{-1}$. Again, let $\beta$ be a permutation which is product of odd number of disjoint 2-cycles. Then $\beta=\beta^{-1}$ and hence $\beta$ is adjacent to any other element of $S_{n} \backslash A_{n}$. So if $m$ is the number of permutations which are product of odd number of disjoint 2-cycles, we have that the subgraph induced by $S_{n} \backslash A_{n}$ is isomorphic to $\overline{m K_{1}+\frac{n!-2 m}{4} K_{2}}$.

Next, we find out the values of $n$ for which $\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{n}\right)$ is planar.
Proposition 3.5. $\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{n}\right)$ is planar if and only if $n \in\{2,3\}$.
Proof. Let $p=\mid\left\{(a b)(c d) \in S_{n} \mid a, b, c, d\right.$ are distinct $\} \mid$. From the proof of Theorem 3.4, it follows that $\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{n}\right)$ has a subgraph isomorphic to $K_{p+1}$ induced by the vertices of the form $(a b)(c d)$ and the identity permutation. If $n \geq 5$, then $p \geq 4$. Hence we have a subgraph in $\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{n}\right)$ which is isomorphic to $K_{5}$. Thus $\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{n}\right)$ is not planar for $n \geq 5$. Now for $n=4$, consider the set $S=\left\{(12)(34),(13)(24),(14)(23),(123), \rho_{0}\right\}$. Then the subgraph induced by $S$ is isomorphic to $K_{5}$. So $\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{4}\right)$ is not planar. Again it is easy to see that $\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{n}\right)$ is planar for $n=2,3$. Thus the graph $S q\left(S_{n}\right)$ is planar if and only if $n=2$ or 3 .

We now consider the domination number of $\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{n}\right)$. It is interesting to note that the domination number of $\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{n}\right)$ is same for all $n>1$, as we show next.

Proposition 3.6. $\gamma\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{n}\right)\right)=2$ for $n \geq 2$.
Proof. Since the graph $\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{n}\right)$ is a disjoint union of two components (by Theorem 3.4), we have that $\gamma\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{n}\right)\right) \geq 2$. It is easy to see that $\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{2}\right) \cong 2 K_{1}$, so $\{\rho,(1,2)\}$ forms a minimal dominating set. For $n \geq 3$, consider a 2 -cycle $\rho \in S_{n} \backslash A_{n}$. Let $\alpha(\neq \rho) \in S_{n} \backslash A_{n}$. Then $\alpha \rho$ is an even permutation as both $\alpha$ and $\rho$ are odd permutations. Hence, $\alpha \rho\left(\neq \rho_{0}\right) \in A_{n}$ as $\alpha \neq \rho^{-1}(=\rho)$. So $\alpha \leftrightarrow \rho$. Since $\alpha$ is arbitrary, it follows that every element in $S_{n} \backslash A_{n}$ is adjacent to $\rho$. Now we consider the set $D=\left\{\rho, \rho_{0}\right\}$ where $\rho_{0}$ is the identity element. Any vertex from $S_{n} \backslash\left\{A_{n} \backslash D\right\}$ is adjacent to $\rho$ and any vertex from $A_{n} \backslash D$ is adjacent to $\rho_{0}$. Hence $D$ is a dominating set. Thus $\gamma\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{n}\right)\right) \leq 2$. Since we have already shown that $\gamma\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{n}\right)\right) \geq 2$, it follows that $\gamma\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(S_{n}\right)\right)=2$.

## 4. The structure and some properties of $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$

In this section, we study the square element graphs over the dihedral groups $D_{n}$. Before looking at the properties of $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$, we start the section by giving a structural result which holds for $\mathbb{S} q(G)$ defined over any group $G$ whenever the set of all squares of $G$ forms a (normal) subgroup of $G$.

Lemma 4.1. Let $H$ be the set of all squares of a group $G$. If $H$ is a (normal) subgroup of $G$, then the elements belonging to distinct cosets of $H$ are not adjacent to each other in $\mathbb{S} q(G)$.

Proof. Let $G=\left\{e, x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$. Since $H$ forms a subgroup of $G$ (which can be easily proved to be a normal subgroup), the product of two squares in $G$ is also a square in $G$. Clearly, $y H=y^{-1} H$ for any $y \in G$. If possible, let there exist vertices $p, q$ belonging to distinct cosets $a H$ and $b H$ (respectively), such that $p \leftrightarrow q$ in $\mathbb{S} q(G)$. Suppose $p=a x_{r}^{2}, q=b x_{s}^{2}$. So without loss of generality we have that $a x_{r}^{2} b x_{s}^{2}=x_{t}^{2}$ for some $t \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. This implies that $a x_{r}^{2} b=x_{t}^{2} x_{s}^{-2} \in H$, which gives that $x_{r}^{2} b \in a^{-1} H=a H=H a$. So $b \in x_{r}^{-2} H a=H a=a H$. However, this is a contradiction since $b \in b H$ and distinct cosets of $H$ are disjoint. So $p$ and $q$ can be adjacent to each other only if $a H=b H$. Thus two vertices belonging to distinct cosets of $H$ cannot be adjacent to each other in $\mathbb{S} q(G)$.

It is easily seen that the set of all squares of $D_{n}$ forms a subgroup of $D_{n}$. So the above lemma is applicable for $D_{n}$. Using the above lemma, we can find the structure of $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$ for an odd integer $n$.

Theorem 4.2. If $n$ is an odd integer, then $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right) \cong \overline{K_{1}+\frac{n-1}{2} K_{2}}+K_{n}$.
Proof. It is known that we can write $D_{n}=\left\{e, a, a^{2}, \ldots, a^{n-1}, b, b a, b a^{2}, \ldots, b a^{n-1}\right\}$, where $a^{n}=e=b^{2}$ and $a b=b a^{n-1}$. Clearly, the set of all squares of $D_{n}$ is given by $H=\left\{e, a, a^{2}, \ldots, a^{n-1}\right\}$, which is a cyclic subgroup of odd order. Also, $D_{n}=H \cup b H$. By Lemma 4.1, vertices from $H$ and vertices from $b H$ are in different components in $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$. Now $e \leftrightarrow a^{m}$ for all $m=1,2, \ldots, n-1$; and $a^{i} \leftrightarrow a^{j}$ if and only if $i+j \neq n$. Thus, the vertices belonging to $H$ induce a subgraph $G_{n}$ where $\overline{G_{n}}$ consists of $\frac{n-1}{2}$ disjoint copies of $K_{2}$ and one isolated vertex. Next, we consider the coset $b H$. Noting that every element in $b H$ is of order 2 and that $H$ is a normal subgroup, we see that the vertices from $b H$ induce a complete graph in $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$. Hence, $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right) \cong \overline{K_{1}+\frac{n-1}{2} K_{2}}+K_{n}$.

Next, we give the structure of $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$ when $n$ is even.
Theorem 4.3. If $n$ is an even integer, then

$$
\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right) \cong\left\{\begin{array}{l}
2 \overline{\left(K_{1}+\frac{n-2}{4} K_{2}\right)}+2 K_{\frac{n}{2}} \text { if } \frac{n}{2} \text { is odd } \\
\overline{\frac{n}{4} K_{2}}+\overline{2 K_{1}+\frac{n-4}{4} K_{2}}+2 K_{\frac{n}{2}} \text { if } \frac{n}{2} \text { is even. }
\end{array}\right.
$$

Proof. Let $D_{n}=\langle a, b\rangle$ where $a^{n}=b^{2}=e$ and $a b=b a^{n-1}$. So we can write $D_{n}=\left\{a, a^{2}, a^{3}, \ldots, a^{n-1}, a^{n}(=\right.$ $\left.e), b, b a, b a^{2}, \ldots, b a^{n-1}\right\}$. Since $n$ is even, the set of all squares of $D_{n}$ is given by $H=\left\{a^{2}, a^{4}, \ldots, a^{n-2}, e\right\}$. It can be shown that $H$ is a normal subgroup of $D_{n}$. It is easy to see that there are 4 distinct cosets $H, a H, b H, b a H$ of $H$ which partition the group $D_{n}$. Clearly, $a H=\left\{a, a^{3}, a^{5}, a^{7}, \ldots, a^{n-1}\right\}, b H=\left\{b a^{2}, b a^{4}, b a^{6}, \ldots, b a^{n-2}\right\}$ and $b a H=\left\{b a, b a^{3}, b a^{5}, b a^{7}, \ldots, b a^{n-1}\right\}$. Now the subgraphs induced by these 4 cosets $H, a H, b H, b a H$ are disjoint from each other by Lemma 4.1. In $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$, any two elements of the form $a^{i}$ and $a^{j}$ are adjacent if and only if $i+j(\neq n)$ is even; and two distinct elements of the form $b a^{i}, b a^{j}$ are adjacent if and only if $b a^{i} b a^{j}=b a^{i} b a^{i} a^{j-i}=$ $\left(b a^{i}\right)^{2} a^{j-i}=a^{j-i}$ is a non-identity square, i.e., if and only if $j-i$ is an even number. So in $b H$, we note that $\left(b a^{i}\right)^{2}=e$ and any two distinct vertices $b a^{i}, b a^{j}$ are adjacent to each other as $b a^{i} b a^{j}=a^{i-j} \in H \backslash\{e\}$ (as $i-j$ is even). Again in $b a H,\left(b a^{2 k+1}\right)^{2}=e$ and any two distinct vertices $b a^{2 k+1}, b a^{2 m+1}$ are adjacent to each other as $b a^{2 k+1} b a^{2 m+1}=a^{2(k-m)} \in H \backslash\{e\}$. This implies that the subgraphs induced by $b H$ and $b a H$ are both isomorphic to $K_{\frac{n}{2}}$.

First, let $\frac{n}{2}$ be an even integer. Then $H=\left\{a^{2}, a^{4}, \ldots, a^{\frac{n}{2}}, \ldots, a^{n-2}, e\right\}$ and $a H=\left\{a, a^{3}, \ldots, a^{\frac{n}{2}+1}, \ldots, a^{n-1}\right\}$. In $H, e$ and $a^{\frac{n}{2}}$ are the only self-invertible squares. Thus $e$ and $a^{\frac{n}{2}}$ are adjacent to all other vertices in the subgraph induced by $H$ except themselves. For any other element $v$ of $H, v$ is adjacent to all other vertices of the subgraph induced by $H$ except itself and its own inverse. Therefore the subgraph induced by $H$ is isomorphic to $\overline{2 K_{1}+\frac{n-4}{4} K_{2}}$. In the subgraph induced by $a H$, any vertex is adjacent with all other vertices of that subgraph except itself and its own inverse. Thus the subgraph induced by $a H$ is isomorphic to $\frac{\bar{n} K_{2}}{4}$.

Next, let $\frac{n}{2}$ be an odd integer. So $H=\left\{a^{2}, a^{4}, \ldots, a^{\frac{n}{2}-1}, a^{\frac{n}{2}+1}, \ldots, a^{n-2}, e\right\}$ and $a H=\left\{a, a^{3}, \ldots, a^{\frac{n}{2}}, \ldots, a^{n-1}\right\}$. In $H, e$ is the only element which is self-invertible. So $e$ is adjacent to any other vertex in $H$, and any $v(\neq e)$ is adjacent to all other vertices in that subgraph except its own inverse. Thus the subgraph induced by $H$ is isomorphic to $\overline{K_{1}+\frac{n-2}{4} K_{2}}$. In $a H$, $a^{\frac{n}{2}}=\left(a^{\frac{n}{2}}\right)^{-1}$ and so $a^{\frac{n}{2}}$ is adjacent to all other vertices in the subgraph induced by $a H$. Any other vertex $a^{2 k+1}\left(\neq a^{\frac{n}{2}}\right)$ is not self-invertible and hence is adjacent to all other vertices in that subgraph except its own inverse $a^{n-2 k-1}$. Hence the subgraph induced by $a H$ is isomorphic to $\overline{K_{1}+\frac{n-2}{4} K_{2}}$. So the subgraphs induced by $H$ and $a H$ are isomorphic to $\overline{2 K_{1}+\frac{n-4}{4} K_{2}}$ and $\overline{\frac{n}{4} K_{2}}$ (respectively) if $\frac{n}{2}$ is even, and are both isomorphic to $\overline{K_{1}+\frac{n-2}{4} K_{2}}$ if $\frac{n}{2}$ is odd. Therefore, $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right) \cong \frac{\bar{n} K_{2}}{4}+\left(\overline{2 K_{1}+\frac{n-4}{4} K_{2}}\right)+2 K_{n / 2}$ if $\frac{n}{2}$ is even and $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right) \cong 2\left(\overline{K_{1}+\frac{n-2}{4} K_{2}}\right)+2 K_{n / 2}$ if $\frac{n}{2}$ is odd.

Now we consider the planarity of $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$.


Fig. 13. $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{4}\right)$.


Fig. 14. $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{6}\right)$.


Fig. 15. $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{3}\right)$.

Theorem 4.4. $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$ is planar if and only if $n \in\{1,2,3,4,6,8\}$.
Proof. If $n$ is an odd integer and $n \geq 5$, then there is a subgraph of $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$ which is isomorphic to $K_{5}$ (by Theorem 4.2). Hence in this case $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$ is not planar. Now $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{1}\right)$ has only two vertices and hence is planar. Again, $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{3}\right)$ is also seen to be planar (cf. Fig. 15). Now let $n$ be even. Then there is a subgraph of $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$ which is isomorphic to $K_{\frac{n}{2}}$ (by Theorem 4.3). In this case, if $n \geq 10$, then there exists a subgraph of $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$ which is isomorphic to $K_{5}$. Hence $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$ is not planar for any even $n \geq 10$. Finally, we consider $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$ for $n=2,4,6,8$. The graphs $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{4}\right), \mathbb{S} q\left(D_{6}\right)$, and $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{8}\right)$, as shown in Figs. 13, 14, and 16, are planar. Having considered all the possible cases, we see that $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$ is planar if and only if $n \in\{1,2,3,4,6,8\}$.

Moving on, we find the chromatic number of $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$ for different values of $n$.

## Theorem 4.5.

$$
\chi\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{lc}
n & \text { if } n \text { is odd } \\
\frac{n}{2} & \text { if } n \text { is even }
\end{array}\right.
$$



Fig. 16. $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{8}\right)$.

Proof. Let $D_{n}=\langle a, b\rangle$ where $a^{n}=b^{2}=e$ and $a b=b a^{n-1}$. First, let $n$ be odd. Then it follows from the proof of Theorem 4.2 that in $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$ there are exactly two components (induced by $H$ and $b H$ ). In this case, the subgraph induced by $b H$ is isomorphic to $K_{n}$. Now we associate $n$ different colours $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{n}$ with the $n$ distinct vertices of $b H$, and we also correspond those $n$ colours $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{n}$ to the $n$ distinct vertices of $H$. In this way we are able to colour every vertex of $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$ such that no two adjacent vertices have the same colour. Therefore $\chi\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right) \leq n$. Again, $\omega\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right) \geq\left|V\left(K_{n}\right)\right|=n$. So $\chi\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right) \geq \omega\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right) \geq n$. Thus $\chi\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right)=n$.

Next, let us assume that $n$ is even. Then by the proof of Theorem 4.3, we have that $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$ is a disjoint union of 4 subgraphs (induced by the cosets $H, a H, b H$ and $b a H$ ). In this case we need to associate $\frac{n}{2}$ different colours $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{\frac{n}{2}}$ to the $\frac{n}{2}$ vertices of $b H$ as the subgraph induced by $b H$ is isomorphic to $K_{\frac{n}{2}}$. We note that the subgraphs induced by $H, a H, b a H$ and $b H$ are disjoint components having $\frac{n}{2}$ vertices each. So for each component, we can correspond those $\frac{n}{2}$ colours to the distinct vertices. Hence $\chi\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right) \leq \frac{n}{2}$. Again, $\omega\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right) \geq\left|V\left(K_{\frac{n}{2}}\right)\right|=\frac{n}{2}$. Hence $\chi\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right) \geq \omega\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right) \geq \frac{n}{2}$. So $\chi\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right)=\frac{n}{2}$.

In the next result, we consider the domination number of $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$.

## Proposition 4.6.

$$
\gamma\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right)= \begin{cases}2 & \text { if } n \text { is odd } \\ 5 & \text { if } n \text { is even and } \frac{n}{2} \text { is also even } \\ 4 & \text { if } n \text { is even and } \frac{n}{2} \text { is odd. }\end{cases}
$$

Proof. Let $D_{n}=\langle a, b\rangle$ where $a^{n}=b^{2}=e$ and $a b=b a^{n-1}$. If $n$ is odd, then we consider the set $D=\{e, b\}$. From the proof of Theorem 4.2, we can easily see that $D$ is a minimal dominating subset of the graph $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$. Thus $\gamma\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right)=2$. Again, if $n$ is even and $\frac{n}{2}$ is odd, then from Theorem 4.3, $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$ is disjoint union of 4 components. So $\gamma\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right) \geq 4$. From the proof of Theorem 4.3, it is easily seen that the set $A_{1}=\{e, a, b, b a\}$ is a dominating subset. So $\gamma\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right) \leq 4$. Therefore $\gamma\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right)=4$. Next, let both $n$ and $\frac{n}{2}$ be even. If $H$ is the set of all squares of $D_{n}$, then from the proof of Theorem 4.3 we have that $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$ is a disjoint union of 4 subgraphs induced by the 4 cosets $H, a H, b H$ and $b a H$. Let us consider the set $A_{2}=\left\{e, b, b a, a, a^{n-1}\right\}$. Now $e$ is adjacent to any element of $H \backslash\{e\}, b$ is adjacent to any element of $b H \backslash\{b\}, b a$ is adjacent to any element of $b a H \backslash\{b a\}$. Also, any element of $a H \backslash\left\{a, a^{n-1}\right\}$ is adjacent to either $a$ or $a^{n-1}$. Hence $A_{2}$ is a dominating set for $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$. It can be easily checked that none of $\left\{A_{2} \backslash\{a\}, A_{2} \backslash\left\{a^{n-1}\right\}, A_{2} \backslash\{e\}, A_{2} \backslash\{b\}, A_{2} \backslash\{b a\}\right\}$ is a dominating set (note that $a$ is not adjacent to $a^{n-1}$ ). Therefore $A_{2}$ is a minimal dominating set of the graph $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$. Thus $\gamma\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right)=5$ in this case. This completes the proof.

We conclude the paper by considering the independence number (i.e., the cardinality of a maximal set of independent vertices) $\alpha\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right)$ of $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$.

## Proposition 4.7.

$$
\alpha\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right)= \begin{cases}3 & \text { if } n \text { is odd } \\ 6 & \text { if } n \text { is even } .\end{cases}
$$

Proof. Let $D_{n}=\langle a, b\rangle$ where $a^{n}=b^{2}=e$ and $a b=b a^{n-1}$. If $n$ is odd, then we consider the set $I=\left\{b, a, a^{n-1}\right\}$. From the proof of Theorem 4.2, we see that $I$ is a maximal set of independent vertices of the graph $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$. Thus $\alpha\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right)=3$. Next, let $n$ be even. As seen in Theorem 4.3, $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$ is a disjoint union of 4 subgraphs induced by the vertices belonging to the 4 cosets $H, a H, b H$ and $b a H$, where $H$ is the set of all squares of $D_{n}$. Now any two vertices in the component induced by $b H$ are adjacent to each other. The same is true for the component induced by $b a H$. Thus in any independent set of vertices of $\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)$, there can be only one element each from these cosets. Considering the set $H$, any subset containing at least three elements is not independent, and the same is true for $a H$ as well. Hence the cardinality of any independent set is at most $1+1+2+2=6$. In other words $\alpha\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right) \leq 6$. Now we consider the set $I_{1}=\left\{a, a^{n-1}, a^{2}, a^{n-2}, b, b a\right\}$. It is easy to see that $I_{1}$ is an independent set of vertices and since $\left|I_{1}\right|=6$, it follows that $\alpha\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right) \geq 6$. Hence $\alpha\left(\mathbb{S} q\left(D_{n}\right)\right)=6$.

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