# Orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic labeling of the Cartesian product of two cycles 

Bryan Freyberg<br>Department of Mathematics and Computer Science<br>Southwest Minnesota State University<br>Marshall, MN 56258<br>U.S.A.<br>bryan.freyberg@smsu.edu

Melissa Keranen
Department of Mathematical Sciences
Michigan Technological University
Houghton, MI 49931
U.S.A.
msjukuri@mtu.edu


#### Abstract

A directed $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic labeling of an oriented graph $\vec{G}=(V, A)$ of order $n$ is a bijection $\vec{\ell}: V \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ with the property that there exists $\mu \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ (called the magic constant) such that $$
w(x)=\sum_{y \in N_{G}^{+}(x)} \vec{\ell}(y)-\sum_{y \in N_{G}^{-}(x)} \vec{\ell}(y)=\mu \text { for every } x \in V(G) .
$$

If for a graph $G$ there exists an orientation $\vec{G}$ such that there is a directed $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic labeling $\vec{\ell}$ for $\vec{G}$, we say that $G$ is orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{n^{-}}$ distance magic. In this paper, we prove that the Cartesian product of any two cycles is orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic.


## 1 Definitions and known results

A distance magic labeling of a graph $G=(V, E)$ of order $n$ is a bijection $f: V \rightarrow$ $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ with the property that there is a positive integer $k$ (called the magic constant) such that

$$
w(x)=\sum_{y \in N(x)} f(y)=k \text { for every } x \in V(G),
$$

where $N(x)=\{y \mid x y \in E\}$ is the open neighborhood of vertex $x$. We call $w(x)$ the weight of vertex $x$. See [1] for a survey of results regarding distance magic graphs. Froncek adapted distance magic labeling by using the elements from an abelian group as labels rather than integers in [5]. Let $G=(V, E)$ be a graph of order $n$ and let $\Gamma$ be an abelian group of order $n$. If there exists a bijection $\ell: V \rightarrow \Gamma$ with the property that there is an element $\mu \in \Gamma$ such that

$$
w(x)=\sum_{y \in N(x)} \ell(y)=\mu \text { for every } x \in V(G),
$$

we say the labeling $\ell$ is a $\Gamma$-distance magic labeling and we say the graph $G$ is $\Gamma$ distance magic. If such a labeling exists for every abelian group of order $n$, then we say $G$ is group distance magic.

For a given natural number $p$, let $[p]$ denote the set $\{0,1, \ldots, p-1\}$. For a set of integers $S$ and a number $c$, let $S+c=\{x+c: x \in S\}$. For an element $g$ of a group $G$, we use the notation $\operatorname{ord}_{G}(g)$ to denote the order of $g$.

The Cartesian product $G \square H$ of two graphs $G$ and $H$ is a graph with vertex set $V(G) \times V(H)$ and two vertices $(g, h)$ and $\left(g^{\prime}, h^{\prime}\right)$ are adjacent in $G \square H$ if and only if $g=g^{\prime}$ and $h$ is adjacent to $h^{\prime}$ in $H$, or $h=h^{\prime}$ and $g$ is adjacent to $g^{\prime}$ in $G$. Let $C_{n}=\left\{x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}, x_{0}\right\}$ denote a cycle of length $n$.


Figure 1: Cartesian product $C_{3} \square C_{4}$
Froncek proved the following result in [5].
Theorem 1. [5] The Cartesian product $C_{m} \square C_{n}$ is $\mathbb{Z}_{m n}$-distance magic if and only if $m n$ is even.

Cichacz made progress towards settling when $C_{m} \square C_{n}$ is group distance magic by proving the following in [2].

Theorem 2. [2] Let $l=1 \mathrm{~cm}(m, n)$. If $m$ or $n$ is even, then $C_{m} \square C_{n}$ is $Z_{\alpha} \times \Gamma$-distance magic for any $\alpha \equiv 0(\bmod l)$ and any abelian group $\Gamma$ of order $\frac{m n}{\alpha}$.

Cichacz and Froncek proved the following non-existence result in [4].
Theorem 3. If $G$ is an r-regular graph of order $n$ and $r$ is odd, then $G$ is not $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic.

The following analog of group distance magic labeling for directed graphs was introduced in [3]. Let $G=(V, E)$ be an undirected graph on $n$ vertices. Assigning a direction to the edges of $G$ gives an oriented graph $\vec{G}(V, A)$. We will use the notation $\overrightarrow{x y}$ to denote an edge directed from vertex $x$ to vertex $y$. Let $N^{+}(x)=\{y \mid \overrightarrow{y x} \in A\}$ and $N^{-}(x)=\{z \mid \overrightarrow{x z} \in A\}$. Let $\Gamma$ be an abelian group of order $n$. A directed $\Gamma$ distance magic labeling of an oriented graph $\vec{G}=(V, A)$ of order $n$ is a bijection $\vec{\ell}: V \rightarrow \Gamma$ with the property that there is a $\mu \in \Gamma$ (called the magic constant) such that

$$
w(x)=\sum_{y \in N^{+}(x)} \vec{\ell}(y)-\sum_{y \in N^{-}(x)} \vec{\ell}(y)=\mu \text { for every } x \in V(G) .
$$

If for a graph $G$ there exists an orientation $\vec{G}$ such that there is a directed $\Gamma$-distance magic labeling $\vec{\ell}$ for $\vec{G}$, we say that $G$ is orientable $\Gamma$-distance magic.

In this paper, we focus on orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic labeling, where $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ is the cyclic group of order $n$. For the sake of orienting a cycle $C_{n}$, if the edges are oriented such that every arc has the form $\overrightarrow{x_{i} x_{i+1}}$ for all $i \in\{0,1, \ldots, n-1\}$ (where the addition in the subscript is taken modulo $n$ ), then we say the cycle is oriented clockwise. On the other hand, if all the edges of the cycle are oriented such that every arc has the form $\overrightarrow{x_{i} x_{i-1}}$ for all $i \in\{0,1, \ldots, n-1\}$, then we say the cycle is oriented counter-clockwise.


Figure 2: Orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{4}$-distance magic labeling of $C_{4}$ with clockwise orientation
It is an easy observation that $C_{n}$ is orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic for all $n \geq 3$ (orient all the edges in the same direction around the cycle and label the vertices consecutively $0,1, \ldots, n-1$ ).

The following theorem was proved by Cichacz et al. in [3].
Theorem 4. [3] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ in which every vertex has odd degree. If $n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$, then $G$ is not orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic.

Regarding the Cartesian product of two cycles, they obtained the following partial result.

Theorem 5. [3] If $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=1$, then the Cartesian product $C_{m} \square C_{n}$ is orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{m n}$-distance magic.

In Section 3 we prove the Cartesian product $C_{m} \square C_{n}$ is orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{m n}$-distance magic for all $m, n \geq 3$.

## 2 Lemmas

In this section, we prove a series of lemmas regarding the labelings used in the main theorem of Section 3. Let $m, n \geq 3$ be given and let $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=d$. Define $\lambda=\frac{m+n}{d}$ and let $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, d\right)=\alpha$. For a given integer $a$, let $0 \leq \mathcal{R}(a)<d$ represent the remainder when $a$ is divided by $d$. That is, $a=q d+\mathcal{R}(a)$ for some positive integer $q$. We begin by establishing some relationships between $m, n, d$, and $\alpha$.

Observation 6. If $\alpha^{2} \nmid d$, then $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\alpha \frac{m}{d}, d\right)=\alpha$ and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, \frac{n}{\alpha}\right)=1$.
Proof. By elementary properties of the greatest common divisor, $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, \frac{n}{d}\right)=1$ implies $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d} \cdot \frac{n}{d}, \frac{n}{\alpha}\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, \frac{n}{\alpha}\right) \operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{n}{d}, \frac{n}{\alpha}\right)$. But $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d} \cdot \frac{n}{d}, \frac{n}{\alpha}\right)=\frac{n}{d} \operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, \frac{d}{\alpha}\right)$, and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{n}{d}, \frac{n}{\alpha}\right)=\frac{n}{d} \operatorname{gcd}\left(1, \frac{d}{\alpha}\right)=\frac{n}{d}$. Therefore, $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, \frac{d}{\alpha}\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, \frac{n}{\alpha}\right)$. Multiplying both sides by $\alpha$ gives $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\alpha \frac{m}{d}, d\right)=\alpha \operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, \frac{n}{\alpha}\right)$. But since $\alpha^{2} \nmid d$, we have $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\alpha \frac{m}{d}, d\right)=\alpha$ and hence, $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, \frac{n}{\alpha}\right)=1$.

Observation 7. If $\alpha^{2} \mid d$, then $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\alpha^{2} \frac{m}{d}, d\right)=\alpha^{2}$ and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, \frac{n}{\alpha^{2}}\right)=1$.
Proof. Essentially the same argument as in the proof of Observation 6 gives $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\alpha \frac{m}{d}, \frac{d}{\alpha}\right)=\alpha \operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, \frac{n}{\alpha^{2}}\right)$. Since $\alpha^{2} \mid d$, we have $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\alpha \frac{m}{d}, d\right)=\alpha^{2}$ and thus $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\alpha \frac{m}{d}, \frac{d}{\alpha}\right)=\alpha$. Hence, $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, \frac{n}{\alpha^{2}}\right)=1$. The fact that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\alpha^{2} \frac{m}{d}, d\right)=\alpha^{2}$ follows from $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\alpha \frac{m}{d}, \frac{d}{\alpha}\right)=\alpha$.

For the following lemmas, let $\mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ be the cyclic group of order $m n$, let $V=$ $\{(i, j): i \in[m], j \in[n]\}$, and for a given function $g: V \longmapsto \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$, define $g^{\prime}(i, j)=$ $g(i, j)-\mathcal{R}(j-i)$. For an element $g \in \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$, we denote by $\langle g\rangle$, the subgroup generated by $g$. Assume $1<d<\min \{m, n\}$ for all of the lemmas.

Lemma 8. If $\operatorname{gcd}(\lambda, d)=1$, then the mapping $g: V \longmapsto \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ given by $g(i, j)=$ $j m+i n+\mathcal{R}(j-i)$, is a bijection.

Proof. To show that $g$ is injective suppose that $g^{\prime}(i, j)=g^{\prime}(a, b)$ for some $(a, b),(i, j) \in V$. Therefore, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
j m+i n \equiv b m+a n(\bmod m n) . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Rearranging this equation gives $(j-b) m+(i-a) n \equiv 0(\bmod m n)$. For ease of notation, let $x=j-b$ and $y=i-a$. Then since $|x| \leq n-1,|y| \leq m-1$, and $x m+y n \equiv 0(\bmod m n)$, we have that $x m+y n=k m n$ for some $k \in\{-1,0,1\}$. Suppose $k= \pm 1$. Then $|y|=|i-a|=\frac{m(n-x)}{n} \in \mathbb{Z}$ if and only if $x=0$ since $n \nmid m$ by assumption (recall $d<\min \{m, n\}$ ). But if $x=0$, then $y n= \pm m n$, but this is impossible since $|y|<m$. Hence, $x m+y n=0$. Then dividing by $d$, we have $x \frac{m}{d}+y \frac{n}{d}=0$. Since $\frac{m}{d}$ and $\frac{n}{d}$ are relatively prime, the solutions have the form $(x, y)=\left(\frac{n}{d} r,-\frac{m}{d} r\right), \forall r \in[d]$. We have now established that there are exactly $d$ ordered pairs in $V$ which have the same value under $g^{\prime}$. This means that in order for $g$ to be a bijection, we must show that $\left\{\mathcal{R}\left(y_{r}-x_{r}\right): r \in[d]\right\}=[d]$. To this end, observe that $\mathcal{R}\left(y_{r}-x_{r}\right) \equiv\left(y_{r}-x_{r}\right) \equiv-\frac{m}{d} r-\frac{n}{d} r \equiv-r \lambda(\bmod d)$ for each
$r \in[d]$. Since $\operatorname{gcd}(\lambda, d)=1$, we have $\langle\lambda\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_{d}$, hence $\langle-\lambda\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_{d}$. Therefore, $\left\{\mathcal{R}\left(y_{r}-x_{r}\right): r \in[d]\right\}=[d]$, so $g$ is an injection, hence bijection.

Lemma 9. If $\operatorname{gcd}(\lambda, d)>1$, let $k=1$ if $\alpha^{2} \nmid d$ and let $k=2$ if $\alpha^{2} \mid d$. Then the mapping $g_{\alpha^{k}}: V \longmapsto \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ given by $g_{\alpha^{k}}(i, j)=j m+i n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}+\mathcal{R}(j-i)$, is a bijection.

Proof. Suppose that $g_{\alpha^{k}}^{\prime}(i, j)=g_{\alpha^{k}}^{\prime}(a, b)$ for some $(i, j),(a, b) \in V$. Then we have $j m+i n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}} \equiv b m+a n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}(\bmod m n)$. Letting $t=j-b$, and $u=i-a$, dividing by $d$, and observing that $\alpha^{k} \mid n$ gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
t \frac{m}{d}+u \frac{n}{\alpha^{k}} \equiv 0\left(\bmod \frac{m}{d} n\right) . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now observe that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, d\right)=\alpha$ implies $\alpha^{2} \mid m$. Therefore, $\alpha \nmid \frac{n}{\alpha^{k}}$ since otherwise, $\alpha \left\lvert\, \frac{n}{\alpha^{k}}\right.$ implies $\alpha^{k+1} \mid n$. Then if $k=1$, we have $\alpha^{2} \mid n$ and $\alpha^{2} \nmid d$ implies that $\alpha \left\lvert\, \frac{n}{d}\right.$ which in turn implies $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, \frac{n}{d}\right)>1$, contradicting the assumption, $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=d$. While if $k=2$, we have $\alpha^{3} \mid n$ implies $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, \frac{n}{\alpha^{2}}\right)>1$, a contradiction of Observation 7. Then since $\alpha \left\lvert\, \frac{m}{d}\right.$ but $\alpha \nmid \frac{n}{\alpha^{k}}$, we have that $\alpha \mid u$ from (2). But also, $\frac{m}{d} \left\lvert\, u \frac{n}{\alpha^{k}}\right.$. By (2) and Observations 6 and $7, \operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, \frac{n}{\alpha^{k}}\right)=1$ which implies $\left.\frac{m}{d} \right\rvert\, u$. Therefore, both $\alpha$ and $\frac{m}{d}$ must divide $u$. Similarly, $\frac{n}{\alpha^{k}}$ must divide $t \frac{m}{d}$, which implies that $\left.\frac{n}{\alpha^{k}} \right\rvert\, t$. This allows us to provide a full description of the pairs ( $u, t$ ) satisfying (2). Let $S$ be the set of all such pairs. Then for all $p \in\left[\frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}\right]$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
S= & \left\{\left(\frac{m}{d} \alpha^{k} p, 0\right),\left(\frac{m}{d} \alpha^{k} p-\frac{m}{d}, \frac{n}{\alpha^{k}}\right),\left(\frac{m}{d} \alpha^{k} p-2 \frac{m}{d}, \frac{2 n}{\alpha^{k}}\right),\right. \\
& \left.\ldots,\left(\frac{m}{d} \alpha^{k} p-\left(\alpha^{k}-1\right) \frac{m}{d}, \frac{\left(\alpha^{k}-1\right) n}{\alpha^{k}}\right)\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that there are exactly $\alpha^{k} \cdot \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}=d$ pairs in $S$. Therefore, we have established that exactly $d$ ordered pairs in $V$ share the same value under $g_{\alpha^{k}}^{\prime}$. Now it remains to show that these ordered pairs have distinct values under $\mathcal{R}$. For ease of notation, let $x=\mathcal{R}\left(-\frac{m}{d} \alpha^{k}\right), y=\mathcal{R}\left(\frac{n}{\alpha^{k}}\right)$, and $z=\mathcal{R}\left(\frac{m}{d}\right)$. Furthermore, let $H=\langle x\rangle \leqslant \mathbb{Z}_{d}$. Then, $|H|=\operatorname{or}_{\mathbb{Z}_{d}}(x)=\frac{d^{\alpha^{\alpha}}}{\operatorname{gcd}(x, d)}=\frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}$, by Observations 6 and 7. Applying $\mathcal{R}$ to each member of $S$ defines the multiset,

$$
\mathcal{R}(S)=\left\{H+0, H+(y+z), H+2(y+z), \ldots, H+\left(\alpha^{k}-1\right)(y+z)\right\}
$$

It remains to show that the cosets of $H$ in $\mathcal{R}(S)$ partition [d]. First observe that $y+z \not \equiv 0(\bmod d)$ since otherwise we have $\alpha \left\lvert\, \frac{n}{\alpha^{k}}\right.$ which we have already established is a contradiction. Secondly, suppose $(y+z) \in H$. Then $\frac{n}{\alpha^{k}}+\frac{m}{d} \equiv-\frac{m}{d} \alpha^{k} q(\bmod d)$ for some $q \in\left[\frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}\right]$. But since $\alpha \left\lvert\, \frac{m}{d}\right.$, it must be the case that $\alpha \left\lvert\, \frac{n}{\alpha^{k}}\right.$, which leads to the same contradiction as before. Therefore, $(y+z) \notin H$. Hence $\mathcal{R}(S)=[d]$, and so $g_{\alpha^{k}}$ is an injection, hence bijection.

Lemma 10. Let $m$ be even and $n$ be odd. If $\operatorname{gcd}(\lambda, d)=1$, then the mapping $g: V \longmapsto \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ given by $g(i, j)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}j m+i n+\mathcal{R}(j-i), i \text { even } \\ (j-1) m+(i-1) n+d+\mathcal{R}(j-i), i \text { odd }\end{array}\right.$ is a bijection.

Proof. Suppose that $g^{\prime}(i, j)=g^{\prime}(a, b)$ for some $(i, j),(a, b) \in V$. It cannot be the case that $i$ and $a$ have different parities. For the sake of contradiction, suppose $i$ is even and $a$ is odd. Then we have $j m+i n \equiv d+(b-1) m+(a-1) n(\bmod m n)$. Therefore, $(j-b+1) m+(i-a+1) n \equiv d(\bmod m n)$. But this is a contradiction since $(j-b+1) m$ and $(i-a+1) n$ are both even and $d$ is necessarily odd. So it cannot be the case that $i$ is even and $a$ is odd. Essentially the same argument shows it cannot be the case that $i$ is odd and $a$ is even. Therefore, $i$ and $a$ must be of the same parity. If $i$ and $a$ are both even, then $g^{\prime}(i, j)=g^{\prime}(a, b)$ implies equation (1) from Lemma 8, while if $i$ and $a$ are both odd, then we have $d+(j-1) m+(i-1) n \equiv$ $d+(b-1) m+(a-1) n(\bmod m n)$, which also is equivalent with (1). Thus $g$ is a bijection by the same argument as in Lemma 8.

Lemma 11. Let $m$ be even and $n$ be odd. If $\operatorname{gcd}(\lambda, d)>1$, let $k=1$ when $\alpha^{2} \nmid d$, and let $k=2$ when $\alpha^{2} \mid d$. Then the mapping $g_{\alpha^{k}}: V \longmapsto \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ given by $g_{\alpha^{k}}(i, j)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}j m+i n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}+\mathcal{R}(j-i), i \text { even } \\ (j-1) m+(i-1) n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}+d+\mathcal{R}(j-i), i \text { odd }\end{array}\right.$ is a bijection.

Proof. Suppose that $g_{\alpha^{k}}^{\prime}(i, j)=g_{\alpha^{k}}^{\prime}(a, b)$ for some $(i, j),(a, b) \in V$. As in Lemma $10, i$ and $a$ must be of the same parity. If $i$ and $a$ are both even, then necessarily $j m+i n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}} \equiv b m+a n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}(\bmod m n)$. Whereas, if $i$ and $a$ are both odd, then we have that $d+(j-1) m+(i-1) n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}} \equiv d+(b-1) m+(a-1) n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}(\bmod m n)$. However, letting $t=j-b, u=i-a$, dividing by $d$, and observing that $\alpha^{k} \mid n$, we see that both equations are equivalent to (2) from Lemma 9. Hence in either case, $g_{\alpha^{k}}$ is a bijection by the same argument used in Lemma 9.

In the next three lemmas, assume $m$ and $n$ are even. Then let $V_{2}=\{(i, j) \in V$ : $i \equiv j(\bmod 2)\} \subseteq V$. Let $2 \mathbb{Z}_{m n}=\left\{2 h: h \in \mathbb{Z}_{m n}\right\}$ denote the subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ consisting of the even integers contained in $\mathbb{Z}_{m n}$. Similarly, let $2[d]=\left\{2 h: h \in \mathbb{Z}_{d}\right\}$. Also note that since $m$ and $n$ are both even, then at most one of $\frac{m}{d}$ and $\frac{n}{d}$ may be even. So assume without loss of generality that $\frac{n}{d}$ is always odd.

Lemma 12. Let $m$ and $n$ be even. If $\operatorname{gcd}(\lambda, d)=1$, then the mapping $g: V_{2} \longmapsto$ $2 \mathbb{Z}_{\text {mn }}$ given by
$g(i, j)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}j m+i n+\mathcal{R}(j-i), \text { for } i \equiv j \equiv 0(\bmod 2) \\ (j-1) m+(i-1) n+d+\mathcal{R}(j-i), \text { for } i \equiv j \equiv 1(\bmod 2)\end{array}\right.$
is a bijection.
Proof. Suppose $g^{\prime}(i, j)=g^{\prime}(a, b)$ for some $(i, j),(a, b) \in V$. Observe that it cannot be the case that $i, j$ are both even and $a, b$ are both odd, since otherwise ( $j-$ $b+1) m+(i-a+1) n=k m n+d$ for some integer $k$ would imply $(j-b+1) \frac{m}{d}+$ $(i-a+1) \frac{n}{d}=\frac{k m n}{d}+1$, a contradiction since the left hand side of the equation is even and the right hand side is odd (recall that $\frac{n}{d}$ is odd). For the same reason, it cannot be the case that $i, j$ are both odd while $a, b$ are both even. Therefore, $i, j, a$, and $b$ are all of the same parity. Consequently, $g^{\prime}(i, j)=g^{\prime}(a, b)$ implies equation (1) from Lemma 8. With no restriction on the parities of $x=j-b$ and $y=i-a$, this equation was found to have the $d$ solutions $\left(x_{r}, y_{r}\right)=\left(\frac{n}{d} r,-\frac{m}{d} r\right)$ for
each $r \in[d]$ in the proof of Lemma 8. However, in the present case we require that $x$ and $y$ both be even. Recall that $\frac{n}{d}$ is odd. Therefore, the $\frac{d}{2}$ solutions to (1) are $\left(x_{r}, y_{r}\right)=\left(\frac{n}{d} 2 r,-\frac{m}{d} 2 r\right)$ for each $r \in\left[\frac{d}{2}\right]$. We have now established that there are exactly $\frac{d}{2}$ ordered pairs in $V_{2}$ having the same value under $g^{\prime}$. This means that in order for $g$ to be a bijection, we must show that the set $\left\{\mathcal{R}\left(y_{r}-x_{r}\right): r \in\left[\frac{d}{2}\right]\right\}=2[d]$. To this end, observe $\mathcal{R}\left(y_{r}-x_{r}\right) \equiv\left(y_{r}-x_{r}\right) \equiv-\frac{m}{d} 2 r-\frac{n}{d} 2 r \equiv-2 r \lambda(\bmod d)$ for each $r \in\left[\frac{d}{2}\right]$. Since $\operatorname{gcd}(\lambda, d)=1$, we have $\langle\lambda\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_{d}$, hence $\langle-\lambda\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_{d}$. Therefore, $\left\{\mathcal{R}\left(x_{r}, y_{r}\right): r \in\left[\frac{d}{2}\right]\right\}=2[d]$. Therefore, the $\frac{d}{2}$ ordered pairs of $V_{2}$ having the same value under $g^{\prime}$ have distinct and even values under $\mathcal{R}$. Hence, $g: V_{2} \longmapsto 2 \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ is an injection, hence bijection.

Lemma 13. Let $m$ and $n$ both be even. If $\operatorname{gcd}(\lambda, d)>1$, let $k=1$ when $\alpha^{2} \nmid d$, and let $k=2$ when $\alpha^{2} \mid d$. Then the mapping $g_{\alpha^{k}}: V_{2} \longmapsto 2 \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ given by $g_{\alpha^{k}}(i, j)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}j m+i n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}+\mathcal{R}(j-i), \text { for } i \equiv j \equiv 0(\bmod 2) \\ (j-1) m+(i-1) n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}+d+\mathcal{R}(j-i), \text { for } i \equiv j \equiv 1(\bmod \end{array}\right.$ jection.

Proof. Suppose $g_{\alpha^{k}}^{\prime}(i, j)=g_{\alpha^{k}}^{\prime}(a, b)$ for some $(i, j),(a, b) \in V$. As in Lemma 12, it must be the case that $i, j, a$, and $b$ are all of the same parity. Then letting $u=i-a$, $t=j-b$, dividing by $d$, and observing that $\alpha^{k} \mid n$ we have that $g_{\alpha^{k}}^{\prime}(i, j)=g_{\alpha^{k}}^{\prime}(a, b)$ implies equation (2) from Lemma 9. With no restriction on the parities of $u$ and $t$, we observed in the proof of Lemma 9 that a full description of the $d$ pairs $(u, t)$ satisfying (2) is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
S= & \left\{\left(\frac{m}{d} \alpha^{k} p, 0\right),\left(\frac{m}{d} \alpha^{k} p-\frac{m}{d}, \frac{n}{\alpha^{k}}\right),\left(\frac{m}{d} \alpha^{k} p-2 \frac{m}{d}, \frac{2 n}{\alpha^{k}}\right),\right. \\
& \left.\ldots,\left(\frac{m}{d} \alpha^{k} p-\left(\alpha^{k}-1\right) \frac{m}{d}, \frac{\left(\alpha^{k}-1\right) n}{\alpha^{k}}\right)\right\},
\end{aligned}
$$

for all $p \in\left[\frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}\right]$. However, in this case we are restricted to the pairs in $S$ such that $u$ and $t$ are both even.

If $\frac{m}{d}$ is odd, then $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, d\right)=\alpha$ is odd, since $d$ is even. So $\alpha^{k}$ is also odd, and hence $\frac{n}{\alpha^{k}}$ is even, since $n$ is even. Then for all $p \in\left\{0,2, \ldots, \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}\right\}$ and all $l \in\left\{1,3, \ldots, \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}-1\right\}$, $S_{1} \subset S$ where

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{1}= & \left\{\left(\frac{m}{d} \alpha^{k} p, 0\right),\left(\frac{m}{d} \alpha^{k} l-\frac{m}{d}, \frac{n}{\alpha^{k}}\right),\left(\frac{m}{d} \alpha^{k} p-2 \frac{m}{d}, \frac{2 n}{\alpha^{k}}\right),\right. \\
& \left.\ldots,\left(\frac{m}{d} \alpha^{k} l-\left(\alpha^{k}-2\right) \frac{m}{d}, \frac{\left(\alpha^{k}-2\right) n}{\alpha^{k}}\right),\left(\frac{m}{d} \alpha^{k} p-\left(\alpha^{k}-1\right) \frac{m}{d}, \frac{\left(\alpha^{k}-1\right) n}{\alpha^{k}}\right)\right\},
\end{aligned}
$$

is the full set of $\frac{d}{2}$ solutions to (2) in this case.
On the other hand, if $\frac{m}{d}$ is even we have $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, d\right)=\alpha$ is even, so $\alpha^{k}$ is also even. Then since $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}\right)=1$ by Observations 6 and 7 , we have that $\frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}$ is odd and hence $\frac{n}{\alpha^{k}}=\frac{d}{\alpha^{k}} \cdot \frac{n}{d}$ is odd, since $\frac{n}{d}$ is odd. Then for all $p \in\left[\frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}\right], S_{2} \subset S$ where

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{2}= & \left\{\left(\frac{m}{d} \alpha^{k} p, 0\right),\left(\frac{m}{d} \alpha^{k} p-2 \frac{m}{d}, \frac{2 n}{\alpha^{k}}\right),\left(\frac{m}{d} \alpha^{k} p-4 \frac{m}{d}, \frac{4 n}{\alpha^{k}}\right),\right. \\
& \left.\ldots,\left(\frac{m}{d} \alpha^{k} p-\left(\alpha^{k}-2\right) \frac{m}{d}, \frac{\left.\alpha^{k}-2\right) n}{\alpha^{k}}\right)\right\},
\end{aligned}
$$

is the full set of $\frac{d}{2}$ solutions to (2) in this case. Therefore, in either case we have established that exactly $\frac{d}{2}$ ordered pairs in $V_{2}$ share the same value under $g_{\alpha^{k}}^{\prime}$. Now
we will show that these ordered pairs have distinct values under $\mathcal{R}$. We have already observed that $\mathcal{R}(S)=[d]$ in the proof of Lemma 9. Then since $S_{1}, S_{2} \subseteq S$ and $\frac{\left|S_{1}\right|}{|S|}=\frac{\left|S_{2}\right|}{|S|}=\frac{1}{2}$ and both $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ contain ordered pairs of the form $(u, t)$ where $u$ and $t$ are both even, we conclude that $\mathcal{R}\left(S_{1}\right)=\mathcal{R}\left(S_{2}\right)=2[d]$. Hence, the mapping $g_{\alpha^{k}}: V_{2} \longmapsto 2 \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ is an injection, hence bijection.

## 3 Cartesian product of two cycles

We begin with a construction for the case when one cycle length is a multiple of the other.
Theorem 14. The Cartesian product $C_{m} \square C_{k m}$ is orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{k m^{2}}$-distance magic for all $m \geq 3$ and $k \geq 1$.

Proof. Let $G=C_{m}=\left\{g_{0}, g_{1}, \ldots, g_{m-1}, g_{0}\right\}$ and $H=C_{k m}=\left\{h_{0}, h_{1}, \ldots, h_{k m-1}, h_{0}\right\}$. Then orient each copy of $G \square H$ as follows. Fix $j \in[k m]$. Then for all $i \in[m]$, orient counter-clockwise each cycle of the form $\left\{\left(g_{i}, h_{j}\right),\left(g_{i+1}, h_{j}\right), \ldots,\left(g_{i-1}, h_{j}\right),\left(g_{i}, h_{j}\right)\right\}$, where the arithmetic in the subscript is performed modulo $m$. Similarly, fix $i \in[m]$. Then for all $j \in[k m]$, orient counter-clockwise each cycle of the form

$$
\left\{\left(g_{i}, h_{j}\right),\left(g_{i}, h_{j+1}\right), \ldots,\left(g_{i}, h_{j-1}\right),\left(g_{i}, h_{j}\right)\right\},
$$

where the arithmetic in the subscript is performed modulo km . Since the graph $G \square H$ can be edge-decomposed into cycles of those two forms, we have oriented every edge in $G \square H$. Let $x_{i}^{j}$ denote the vertex $\left(g_{i}, h_{j}\right) \in V(G \square H)$ for $i \in[m], j \in[k m]$. Define $\vec{l}: V \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{k m^{2}}$ by

$$
\vec{l}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)=m j+\mathcal{R}(i-j) .
$$

Expressing $\vec{l}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)$ in the following alternative way,

$$
\vec{l}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)= \begin{cases}m j, & \text { for } i \equiv j(\bmod m) \\ m j+1, & \text { for } i \equiv j+1(\bmod m) \\ m j+2, & \text { for } i \equiv j+2(\bmod m) \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ m j+(m-1), & \text { for } i \equiv j-1(\bmod m)\end{cases}
$$

we see that $\vec{l}$ is clearly bijective.
Then for all $x_{i}^{j}$ we have $N^{+}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)=\left\{x_{i}^{j+1}, x_{i+1}^{j}\right\}$ and $N^{-}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)=\left\{x_{i}^{j-1}, x_{i-1}^{j}\right\}$ where the arithmetic is performed modulo km in the superscript and modulo $m$ in the subscript. Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& w\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)= \vec{l}\left(x_{i}^{j+1}\right)+\vec{l}\left(x_{i+1}^{j}\right)-\left[\vec{l}\left(x_{i-1}^{j}\right)+\vec{l}\left(x_{i}^{j-1}\right)\right] \\
&= m(j+1)+m j-m j-m(j-1) \\
&+[\mathcal{R}(i-j-1)+\mathcal{R}(i-j+1)-\mathcal{R}(i-j-1)-\mathcal{R}(i-j+1)] \\
&=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
m(2-k m), j \in\{0, k m-1\} \\
m \cdot 2, j \in\{1, \ldots, k m-2\} \\
=
\end{array}\right. \\
& 2 m,
\end{aligned}
$$

since $m(2-k m) \equiv 2 m\left(\bmod k m^{2}\right)$.
Thus, $\vec{l}$ is an orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{k m^{2}}$-distance magic labeling.
Each case in the proof of the next theorem uses a directed labeling which was shown to be a bijection from the vertex set of the graph to the appropriate group in Section 2.

Theorem 15. The Cartesian product $C_{m} \square C_{n}$ is orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{m n}$-distance magic for all $m, n \geq 3$.

Proof. Let $m, n \geq 3$ be given and let $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=d$. Then define $\lambda=\frac{m+n}{d}$ and let $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{m}{d}, d\right)=\alpha$. If $d=1$, we are done by Theorem 5. If $d=\min \{m, n\}$ (i.e. one cycle length is a multiple of the other), we are done by Theorem 14. So assume $1<d<\min \{m, n\}$. Notice this is the same assumption used to prove the lemmas in Section 2. Let $G=C_{m}=\left\{g_{0}, g_{1}, \ldots, g_{m-1}, g_{0}\right\}$ and $H=C_{n}=\left\{h_{0}, h_{1}, \ldots, h_{n-1}, h_{0}\right\}$. Then orient each copy of $G \square H$ as in Theorem 14. Now let $x_{i}^{j}$ denote the vertex $\left(g_{i}, h_{j}\right) \in V(G \square H)$ for all $i \in[m]$ and $j \in[n]$. We proceed in three cases based on the parity of $m$ and $n$. Since we will define a different directed labeling for each case, we first pause to make the following observation. For any directed labeling $\vec{l}: V(G \square H) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ of $\overrightarrow{G \square H}$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
w\left(x_{i}^{j}\right) & =\sum_{y \in N^{+}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)} \vec{l}(y)-\sum_{y \in N^{-}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)} \vec{l}(y) \\
& =\vec{l}\left(x_{i}^{j+1}\right)+\vec{l}\left(x_{i+1}^{j}\right)-\left[\vec{l}\left(x_{i-1}^{j}\right)+\vec{l}\left(x_{i}^{j-1}\right)\right],
\end{aligned}
$$

for every vertex $x_{i}^{j} \in V(G \square H)$, where the arithmetic is performed modulo $n$ in the superscript and modulo $m$ in the subscript. However, it should be emphasized that the weight calculation is performed in the group $\mathbb{Z}_{m n}$.

Case 1.1. $m$ and $n$ both odd and $\operatorname{gcd}(\lambda, d)=1$.
For all $x_{i}^{j} \in V(G \square H)$, define $\vec{l}: V(G \square H) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ where

$$
\vec{l}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)=j m+i n+\mathcal{R}(j-i) .
$$

Then $\vec{l}$ is a bijection by Lemma 8 and

$$
\begin{aligned}
w\left(x_{i}^{j}\right) & =(j+1) m+i n+j m+(i+1) n \\
& -[j m+(i-1) n+(j-1) m+i n] \\
& +\mathcal{R}(j-i+1)-\mathcal{R}(j-i+1)+\mathcal{R}(j-i-1)-\mathcal{R}(j-i-1) \\
& =s m+r n,
\end{aligned}
$$

where $s \in\{2,2-n\}$ and $r \in\{2,2-m\}$. But, $s m+r n \equiv 2 m+2 n(\bmod m n)$, so

$$
w\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)=2 m+2 n .
$$

In the remaining cases we will omit the equality involving $s$ and $r$ above and only show the final congruence modulo mn .

Case 1.2. $m$ and $n$ both odd and $\operatorname{gcd}(\lambda, d)>1$.
Let $k=1$ when $\alpha^{2} \nmid d$ and let $k=2$ when $\alpha^{2} \mid d$. Then for all $x_{i}^{j} \in V(G \square H)$, define $\overrightarrow{l_{\alpha^{k}}}: V(G \square H) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ where

$$
\overrightarrow{l_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)=j m+i n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}+\mathcal{R}(j-i) .
$$

Then $\overrightarrow{l_{\alpha^{k}}}$ is a bijection by Lemma 9 and

$$
\begin{aligned}
w\left(x_{i}^{j}\right) & =(j+1) m+i n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}+j m+(i+1) n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}} \\
& -\left[j m+(i-1) \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}+(j-1) m+i n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}\right] \\
& +\mathcal{R}(j-i+1)-\mathcal{R}(j-i+1)+\mathcal{R}(j-i-1)-\mathcal{R}(j-i-1) \\
& =2 m+2 n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Suppose exactly one of $m$ and $n$ is odd. Since the Cartesian product is commutative, we may assume without loss of generality that $m$ is even and $n$ is odd. Then as in the previous case, $\operatorname{gcd}(\lambda, d)$ establishes two subcases.

Case 2.1. $m$ even, $n$ odd, and $\operatorname{gcd}(\lambda, d)=1$.
For all $x_{i}^{j} \in V(G \square H)$, define $\vec{l}: V(G \square H) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ where

$$
\vec{l}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
j m+i n+\mathcal{R}(j-i), i \text { even } \\
(j-1) m+(i-1) n+d+\mathcal{R}(j-i), i \text { odd }
\end{array} .\right.
$$

Then $\vec{l}$ is a bijection by Lemma 10 , and if $i$ is even we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
w\left(x_{i}^{j}\right) & =(j+1) m+i n+(j-1) m+i n+d \\
& -[(j-1) m+(i-2) n+d+(j-1) m+i n] \\
& +\mathcal{R}(j-i+1)-\mathcal{R}(j-i+1)+\mathcal{R}(j-i-1)-\mathcal{R}(j-i-1) \\
& =2 m+2 n .
\end{aligned}
$$

While if $i$ is odd we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
w\left(x_{i}^{j}\right) & =j m+(i-1) n+d+j m+(i+1) n \\
& -[j m+(i-1) n+(j-2) m+(i-1) n+d] \\
& +\mathcal{R}(j-i+1)-\mathcal{R}(j-i+1)+\mathcal{R}(j-i-1)-\mathcal{R}(j-i-1) \\
& =2 m+2 n .
\end{aligned}
$$

Case 2.2. $m$ even, $n$ odd, and $\operatorname{gcd}(\lambda, d)>1$.
As in Case 1.2, let $k=1$ when $\alpha^{2} \nmid d$ and let $k=2$ when $\alpha^{2} \mid d$. For all $x_{i}^{j} \in V(G \square H)$, define $\overrightarrow{l_{\alpha^{k}}}: V(G \square H) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ where

$$
\overrightarrow{l_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
j m+i n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}+\mathcal{R}(j-i), i \text { even } \\
(j-1) m+(i-1) n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}+d+\mathcal{R}(j-i), i \text { odd }
\end{array} .\right.
$$

Then $\overrightarrow{l_{\alpha^{k}}}$ is a bijection by Lemma 11, and if $i$ is even we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
w\left(x_{i}^{j}\right) & =(j+1) m+i n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}+(j-1) m+i n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}} \\
& \left.-[(j-1) m+i-2) n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}+d+(j-1) m+i n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}\right] \\
& +\mathcal{R}(j-i+1)-\mathcal{R}(j-i+1)+\mathcal{R}(j-i-1)-\mathcal{R}(j-i-1) \\
& =2 m+2 n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

While if $i$ is odd we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
w\left(x_{i}^{j}\right) & =j m+(i-1) n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}+d+j m+(i+1) n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}} \\
& -\left[j m+\left(i-1 n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}+(j-2) m+(i-1) n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}+d\right]\right. \\
& +\mathcal{R}(j-i+1)-\mathcal{R}(j-i+1)+\mathcal{R}(j-i-1)-\mathcal{R}(j-i-1) \\
& =2 m+2 n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now suppose that both $m$ and $n$ are even. Since $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=d$, at most one of $\frac{m}{d}$ and $\frac{n}{d}$ is even. Since the Cartesian product is commutative, if one of $\frac{m}{d}$ and $\frac{n}{d}$ is even, we may assume without loss of generality that $\frac{n}{d}$ is odd. Then as in the previous cases, $\operatorname{gcd}(\lambda, d)$ establishes two subcases.

Case 3.1. $\frac{m}{d}$ even, $\frac{n}{d}$ odd, and $\operatorname{gcd}(\lambda, d)=1$.
For all $x_{i}^{j} \in V(G \square H)$, define $\vec{f}: V(G \square H) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ and $\vec{l}: V(G \square H) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ where

$$
\vec{f}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
j m+i n+\mathcal{R}(j-i), \text { for } i \equiv j \equiv 0(\bmod 2) \\
(j-1) m+(i-1) n+d+\mathcal{R}(j-i), \text { for } i \equiv j \equiv 1(\bmod 2)
\end{array}\right.
$$

and

$$
\vec{l}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\vec{f}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right), \text { for } i \equiv j(\bmod 2) \\
\vec{f}\left(x_{i}^{j-1}\right)+1, \text { for } i \not \equiv j(\bmod 2)
\end{array} .\right.
$$

By Lemma $12, \vec{f}$ maps the vertices $\left\{x_{i}^{j}: i \equiv j(\bmod 2)\right\}$ bijectively to $2 \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$. Then clearly $\vec{f}+1$ maps the vertices $\left\{x_{i}^{j-1}: i \not \equiv j(\bmod 2)\right\}$ bijectively to $2 \mathbb{Z}_{m n}+1$. Therefore, $\vec{l}: V(G \square H) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ is a bijection since $\mathbb{Z}_{m n} \cong 2 \mathbb{Z}_{m n} \cup 2 \mathbb{Z}_{m n}+1$. If $i \equiv j(\bmod 2)$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
w\left(x_{i}^{j}\right) & =\vec{l}\left(x_{i}^{j+1}\right)+\vec{l}\left(x_{i+1}^{j}\right)-\left[\vec{l}\left(x_{i-1}^{j}\right)+\vec{l}\left(x_{i}^{j-1}\right)\right] \\
& =\vec{f}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)+1+\vec{f}\left(x_{i+1}^{j-1}\right)+1-\left[\vec{f}\left(x_{i-1}^{j-1}\right)+1+\vec{f}\left(x_{i}^{j-2}\right)+1\right] \\
& =\vec{f}^{\prime}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)+\overrightarrow{f^{\prime}}\left(x_{i+1}^{j-1}\right)-\left[\overrightarrow{f^{\prime}}\left(x_{i-1}^{j-1}\right)+\vec{f}^{\prime}\left(x_{i}^{j-2}\right)\right] \\
& +\mathcal{R}(j-i)+\mathcal{R}(j-i-2)-\mathcal{R}(j-i)-\mathcal{R}(j-i-2) \\
& =2 m+2 n .
\end{aligned}
$$

While if $i \not \equiv j(\bmod 2)$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
w\left(x_{i}^{j}\right) & =\vec{l}\left(x_{i}^{j+1}\right)+\vec{l}\left(x_{i+1}^{j}\right)-\left[\vec{l}\left(x_{i-1}^{j}\right)+\vec{l}\left(x_{i}^{j-1}\right)\right] \\
& =\vec{f}\left(x_{i}^{j+1}\right)+\vec{f}\left(x_{i+1}^{j}\right)-\left[\vec{f}\left(x_{i-1}^{j}\right)+\vec{f}\left(x_{i}^{j-1}\right)\right] \\
& =\vec{f}^{\prime}\left(x_{i}^{j+1}\right)+\vec{f}^{\prime}\left(x_{i+1}^{j}\right)-\left[\vec{f}^{\prime}\left(x_{i-1}^{j}\right)+\vec{f}^{\prime}\left(x_{i}^{j-1}\right)\right] \\
& +\mathcal{R}(j-i+1)+\mathcal{R}(j-i-1)-\mathcal{R}(j-i+1)-\mathcal{R}(j-i-1) \\
& =2 m+2 n .
\end{aligned}
$$

Figure 3 provides an example of this case.

Case 3.2. $\frac{m}{d}$ even, $\frac{n}{d}$ odd, and $\operatorname{gcd}(\lambda, d)>1$.
As in the previous cases, let $k=1$ when $\alpha^{2} \nmid d$, let $k=2$ when $\alpha^{2} \mid d$, and for all $x_{i}^{j} \in V(G \square H)$, define $\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}}: V(G \square H) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ and $\overrightarrow{l_{\alpha^{k}}}: V(G \square H) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ where

$$
\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
j m+i n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}+\mathcal{R}(j-i), \text { for } i \equiv j \equiv 0(\bmod 2) \\
(j-1) m+(i-1) n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}}+d+\mathcal{R}(j-i), \text { for } i \equiv j \equiv 1(\bmod 2)
\end{array},\right.
$$

and

$$
\overrightarrow{l_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right), \text { for } i \equiv j(\bmod 2) \\
\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i}^{j-1}\right)+1, \text { for } i \not \equiv j(\bmod 2)
\end{array} .\right.
$$

By Lemma 13 and essentially the same argument used in Case 3.1, we conclude that $\overrightarrow{l_{\alpha^{k}}}: V(G \square H) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ is a bijection. Finally, if $i \equiv j(\bmod 2)$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
w\left(x_{i}^{j}\right) & =\overrightarrow{l_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i}^{j+1}\right)+\overrightarrow{l_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i+1}^{j}\right)-\left[\overrightarrow{l_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i-1}^{j}\right)+\overrightarrow{l_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i}^{j-1}\right)\right] \\
& =\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)+1+\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i+1}^{j-1}\right)+1-\left[\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i-1}^{j-1}\right)+1+\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i}^{j-2}\right)+1\right] \\
& =\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)+\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}^{\prime}}\left(x_{i+1}^{j-1}\right)-\left[\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i-1}^{j-1}\right)+\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}^{\prime}}\left(x_{i}^{j-2}\right)\right] \\
& +\mathcal{R}(j-i)+\mathcal{R}(j-i-2)-\mathcal{R}(j-i)-\mathcal{R}(j-i-2) \\
& =2 m+2 n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

While if $i \not \equiv j(\bmod 2)$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
w\left(x_{i}^{j}\right) & =\overrightarrow{l_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i}^{j+1}\right)+\overrightarrow{l_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i+1}^{j}\right)-\left[\overrightarrow{l_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i-1}^{j}\right)+\overrightarrow{l_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i}^{j-1}\right)\right] \\
& =\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i}^{j+1}\right)+\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i+1}^{j}\right)-\left[\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i-1}^{j}\right)+\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i}^{j-1}\right)\right. \\
& =\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i}^{j+1}\right)+\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i+1}^{j}\right)-\left[\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i-1}^{j}\right)+\overrightarrow{f_{\alpha^{k}}}\left(x_{i}^{j-1}\right)\right] \\
& +\mathcal{R}(j-i+1)+\mathcal{R}(j-i-1)-\mathcal{R}(j-i+1)-\mathcal{R}(j-i-1) \\
& =2 m+2 n \frac{d}{\alpha^{k}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

In every case, $w\left(x_{i}^{j}\right)$ is constant for all $x_{i}^{j} \in V(G \square H)$. Hence, $C_{m} \square C_{n}$ is orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{m n}$-distance magic.


Figure 3: Orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{24}$-distance magic labeling of $C_{4} \square C_{6}$

## 4 Future work

We have shown that the Cartesian product of any two cycles is orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic. In this paper, we fix the orientation of our cycles. However, because any cycle can be oriented in a non-unique way, it would be interesting to see if there are other orientations for which an accompanying orientable $Z_{n}$-distance magic labeling could be found.

Hypercubes are an important class of graphs which can be constructed using the Cartesian product of cycles. In [6] we showed the repeated Cartesian product of a cycle is orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic, proving that even-ordered hypercubes are orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic. A natural direction forward is to generalize to the Cartesian product of many cycles of various lengths. We pose the following problem.

Problem 16. For what numbers $n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{k}$ is the Cartesian product $C_{n_{1}} \square C_{n_{2}} \square$ $\ldots \square C_{n_{k}}$ orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{k}}$-distance magic?

Another possibility for future work is to consider abelian groups other than the cyclic group.

Problem 17. Determine all abelian groups $\Gamma$ such that $C_{m} \square C_{n}$ is orientable $\Gamma$ distance magic.

One may wonder whether an orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic graph $G$ of order $n$ is also $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic, or vice versa. Since $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic labeling is more restrictive than orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic labeling, intuitively it should not be the case that orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic implies $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic. Indeed, Theorems 1 and 15 show that this is not the case.

But perhaps $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic implies orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic. Theorems 3 and 4 indicate that the contrapositive checks for the case of odd regular graphs on $n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$ vertices. We pose the following conjecture.

Conjecture 18. If a graph $G$ of order $n$ is $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic, then it is orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic.

## References

[1] S. Arumugam, D. Froncek and N. Kamatchi, Distance magic graphs-a survey, J. Indones. Math. Soc. (2011), Special edition, 1-9.
[2] S. Cichacz, Group distance magic labeling of some cycle-related graphs, Australas. J. Combin. 57 (2013), 235-243.
[3] S. Cichacz, B. Freyberg and D. Froncek, Orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic graphs, Discuss. Math. (2017) (to appear).
[4] S. Cichacz and D. Froncek, Distance magic circulant graphs, Discrete Math. 339(1), (2016), 84-94.
[5] D. Froncek, Group distance magic labeling of Cartesian product of cycles, Australas. J. Combin. 55 (2013), 167-174.
[6] B. Freyberg and M. Keranen, Orientable $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$-distance magic labeling of Cartesian product of many cycles, Electron. J. Graph Theory Appl. (to appear).

