# Prime labeling of families of trees with Gaussian integers 

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#### Abstract

A graph on $n$ vertices is said to admit a prime labeling if we can label its vertices with the first $n$ natural numbers such that any two adjacent vertices have relatively prime labels. Here we extend the idea of prime labeling to the Gaussian integers, which are the complex numbers whose real and imaginary parts are both integers. We begin by defining an order on the Gaussian integers that lie in the first quadrant. Using this ordering, we show that several families of trees admit a prime labeling with the Gaussian integers.


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Keywords: Prime labeling of trees; Gaussian integers; Entringer's conjecture

## 1. Introduction

A graph on $n$ vertices admits a prime labeling if its vertices can be labeled with the first $n$ natural numbers in such a way that any two adjacent vertices have relatively prime labels. Many families of graphs are known to admit prime labelings - such as paths, stars, caterpillars, complete binary trees, spiders, palm trees, fans, flowers, and many more [1,2]. Entringer conjectured that any tree admits a prime labeling, however this conjecture is still open in general. In this paper we extend the study of prime labelings to the Gaussian integers.

In order to extend the notion of a prime labeling to Gaussian integers, we must first define what we mean by "the first $n$ Gaussian integers". In Section 2, we define a spiral ordering on the Gaussian integers that allows us to linearly order the Gaussian integers. This spiral ordering preserves many familiar properties of the natural ordering on $\mathbb{N}$. For example, the spiral ordering alternates parity, and consecutive odd integers in the spiral ordering are relatively prime. We discuss further properties of the spiral ordering in Section 2. In Section 3, we apply the properties of the spiral ordering to prove that several families of trees admit a prime labeling with the Gaussian integers under the spiral ordering.

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## 2. Background and definitions

### 2.1. Background on the Gaussian integers

We begin with some relevant background on Gaussian integers to provide a foundation for our work.
The Gaussian integers, denoted $\mathbb{Z}[\mathbf{i}]$, are the complex numbers of the form $a+b \mathbf{i}$, where $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbf{i}^{2}=-1$. A unit in the Gaussian integers is one of $\pm 1, \pm \mathbf{i}$. An associate of a Gaussian integer $\alpha$ is $u \cdot \alpha$ where $u$ is a Gaussian unit. The norm of a Gaussian integer $a+b \mathbf{i}$, denoted by $N(a+b \mathbf{i})$, is given by $a^{2}+b^{2}$. A Gaussian integer is even if it is divisible by $1+\mathbf{i}$ and $\mathbf{o d d}$ otherwise. This is because Gaussian integers with even norms are divisible by $1+\mathbf{i}$.

Definition 2.1. A Gaussian integer $\rho$ is prime if its only divisors are $\pm 1, \pm \mathbf{i}, \pm \rho$, or $\pm \rho \mathbf{i}$.
Besides this definition of Gaussian primes, we have the following characterization theorem for Gaussian primes. Further information on the Gaussian integers can be found in Rosen's Elementary Number Theory [3].

Theorem 2.2. A Gaussian integer $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\mathbf{i}]$ is prime if and only if either

- $\alpha= \pm(1 \pm \mathbf{i})$,
- $N(\alpha)$ is a prime integer congruent to $1(\bmod 4)$, or
$\bullet \alpha=p+0 \mathbf{i}$ or $\alpha=0+p \mathbf{i}$ where $p$ is a prime in $\mathbb{Z}$ and $|p| \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$.
Definition 2.3. Let $\alpha$ and $\beta$ be Gaussian integers. We say $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are relatively prime or coprime if their only common divisors are the units in $\mathbb{Z}[\mathbf{i}]$.


### 2.2. Prime labelings of graphs with the Gaussian integers

Throughout this paper we consider finite graphs without loops or multiple edges, and in particular we will study trees. We write $u v$ to denote an edge in a graph connecting vertex $u$ to vertex $v$. For trees, we say that a vertex is a leaf or endvertex if it has degree 1 and that it is an internal node otherwise.

Our goal is to extend the study of the prime labeling of trees to the Gaussian integers. Because the Gaussian integers are not totally ordered, we must first give an appropriate definition of "the first $n$ Gaussian integers". We propose the following ordering:

Definition 2.4. The spiral ordering of the Gaussian integers is a recursively defined ordering of the Gaussian integers. We denote the $n$th Gaussian integer in the spiral ordering by $\gamma_{n}$. The ordering is defined beginning with $\gamma_{1}=1$ and continuing as:

$$
\gamma_{n+1}=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
\gamma_{n}+\mathbf{i}, & \text { if } \operatorname{Re}\left(\gamma_{n}\right) \equiv 1 & (\bmod 2), \operatorname{Re}\left(\gamma_{n}\right)>\operatorname{Im}\left(\gamma_{n}\right)+1 \\
\gamma_{n}-1, & \text { if } \operatorname{Im}\left(\gamma_{n}\right) \equiv 0 & (\bmod 2), \operatorname{Re}\left(\gamma_{n}\right) \leq \operatorname{Im}\left(\gamma_{n}\right)+1, \operatorname{Re}\left(\gamma_{n}\right)>1 \\
\gamma_{n}+1, & \text { if } \operatorname{Im}\left(\gamma_{n}\right) \equiv 1 & (\bmod 2), \operatorname{Re}\left(\gamma_{n}\right)<\operatorname{Im}\left(\gamma_{n}\right)+1 \\
\gamma_{n}+\mathbf{i}, & \text { if } \operatorname{Im}\left(\gamma_{n}\right) \equiv 0 & (\bmod 2), \operatorname{Re}\left(\gamma_{n}\right)=1 \\
\gamma_{n}-\mathbf{i}, & \text { if } \operatorname{Re}\left(\gamma_{n}\right) \equiv 0 & (\bmod 2), \operatorname{Re}\left(\gamma_{n}\right) \geq \operatorname{Im}\left(\gamma_{n}\right)+1, \operatorname{Im}\left(\gamma_{n}\right)>0 \\
\gamma_{n}+1, & \text { if } \operatorname{Re}\left(\gamma_{n}\right) \equiv 0 & (\bmod 2), \operatorname{Im}\left(\gamma_{n}\right)=0 .
\end{array}\right.
$$

This is illustrated in Fig. 1.
Under this ordering, the first 10 Gaussian integers are

$$
1,1+\mathbf{i}, 2+\mathbf{i}, 2,3,3+\mathbf{i}, 3+2 \mathbf{i}, 2+2 \mathbf{i}, 1+2 \mathbf{i}, 1+3 \mathbf{i}, \ldots
$$

and we write $\left[\gamma_{n}\right]$ to denote the set of the first $n$ Gaussian integers in the spiral ordering.
We exclude the imaginary axis to ensure that the spiral ordering excludes associates. Consecutive Gaussian integers in this ordering are separated by a unit and therefore alternate parity, as in the usual ordering of $\mathbb{N}$. However, several properties of the ordinary integers do not hold. In the set of the first $N(1+2 \mathbf{i}) \cdot k$ numbers, $(k \in \mathbb{N})$, it is not guaranteed that there are exactly $k$ multiples of $1+2 \mathbf{i}$ (or any other residue class mod $1+2 \mathbf{i}$ ). Furthermore, odd integers with indices separated by a power of two are not guaranteed to be relatively prime to each other.

This definition of the spiral ordering for the Gaussian integers leads to the following definition of prime labeling of trees with Gaussian integers.


Fig. 1. The spiral ordering of the Gaussian integers.

Definition 2.5. Let $G$ be a graph on $n$ vertices. A Gaussian prime labeling of $G$ is a bijection $\ell: V(G) \rightarrow\left[\gamma_{n}\right]$ such that if $u v \in E(G)$, then $\ell(u)$ and $\ell(v)$ are relatively prime; that is, neighboring vertices have relatively prime labels.

### 2.3. Properties of the spiral ordering

We define several pieces of the Gaussian spiral ordering. Corners of the spiral ordering occur when the spiral turns from north to east or east to north, from south to east or east to south, or from north to west or west to north. Branches of the spiral occur when the spiral travels along a straight path going north, south, east, or west. Steps along the real axis and the $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$ line are not counted as branches.

Our first goal is to determine the index of an arbitrary Gaussian integer, $a+b \mathbf{i}$, in the spiral order based on which type of branch or corner it lies on. We use $I(a+b \mathbf{i})$ to denote the index of $a+b \mathbf{i}$ in the spiral ordering. First note that there are three types of corners:

- real corners at Gaussian integers on the real axis,
- $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$ corners at Gaussian integers on the $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$ line, and
- interior corners at Gaussian integers on the line $\operatorname{Re}(z)-\operatorname{Im}(z)=1$.

Gaussian integers at real corners are even when $\operatorname{Re}(z)$ is even and is odd otherwise. Gaussian integers at $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$ corners are even when $\operatorname{Im}(z)$ is odd and are even otherwise.

Similarly the branches come in four types:

- up-oriented branches, which contain Gaussian integers between odd corners on the real axis and interior corners,
- down-oriented branches, which contain Gaussian integers between interior corners and even corners on the real axis,
- right-oriented branches, which contain Gaussian integers between even corners on the $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$ line and interior corners, and
- left-oriented branches, which contain Gaussian integers between interior corners and odd corners on the $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$ line.

Lemma 2.6. Corners in the spiral ordering lie on either the real axis, the $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$ line, or the line $\operatorname{Im}(z)=$ $\operatorname{Re}(z)-1$. Their indices are found as follows:

$$
I(a+b \mathbf{i})= \begin{cases}a^{2}, & \text { if } b=0, a \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod 2)-\text { Even corners on the real axis } \\ (a-1)^{2}+1, & \text { if } b=0, a \equiv 1 \quad(\bmod 2)-\text { Odd corners on the real axis } \\ (b+1)^{2}, & \text { if } a=1, b \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod 2)-\text { Odd corners on the } \operatorname{Re}(z)=1 \text { line } \\ b^{2}+1, & \text { if } a=1, b \equiv 1 \quad(\bmod 2)-\text { Even corners on the } \operatorname{Re}(z)=1 \text { line } \\ b^{2}+b+1, & \text { if } b=a-1-\text { Interior corners. }\end{cases}
$$

Proof. Observe that Gaussian integers of the form $a+0 \mathbf{i}$, with $a$ even, or $1+b \mathbf{i}$, with $b$ even, are the corner nodes in squares composed of $a^{2}$ or $(b+1)^{2}$ nodes respectively. The spiral-ordering path will pass through each of these nodes once and will end on an even corner on the real axis if the number of nodes is even, and an odd corner on the $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$ line if the number of nodes is odd. Therefore, the index of an even corner on the real or an odd corner on the $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$ line will be the number of nodes in that square.

Odd corners on the real axis and even corners on the $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$ line will always have the index following the corresponding even corners of the real axis and odd corners on the $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$ line.

The interior corners are of the form $(b+1)+b \mathbf{i}$. If $b$ is even, then the corner is $b$ nodes before an odd corner on the $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$ line. If $b$ is odd, the corner is $b$ nodes before an even corner on the $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$ line. In either case, since $a=b+1$, the index of the corner will be $a^{2}-b$.

Theorem 2.7. Let $a+b \mathbf{i}$ be $a$ Gaussian integer with $a>0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then its index in the spiral ordering, $I(a+b \mathbf{i})$, is given by the following formula:

$$
I(a+b \mathbf{i})= \begin{cases}(a-1)^{2}+1+b, & \text { if } a \equiv 1 \quad(\bmod 2), a \geq(b+1)-\text { Up-oriented branches } \\ (b+1)^{2}-a+1, & \text { if } b \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod 2), a \leq(b+1)-\text { Left-oriented branches } \\ b^{2}+a, & \text { if } b \equiv 1 \quad(\bmod 2), a \leq(b+1)-\text { Right-oriented branches } \\ a^{2}-b, & \text { if } a \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod 2), a \geq(b+1)-\text { Down-oriented branches. }\end{cases}
$$

Proof. Each branch references the corners of the spiral ordering. If $a+b \mathbf{i}$ lies on an up-oriented branch, then $a$ is odd. Consider the odd corner on the real axis at $a+0 \mathbf{i}$. By Lemma 2.6, the index of this corner is $(a-1)^{2}+1$. Therefore the index of $a+b \mathbf{i}$ is $(a-1)^{2}+1+b$.

If $a+b \mathbf{i}$ lies on a left-oriented branch, then $b$ is even. Consider the odd corner on the $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$ line at $1+b \mathbf{i}$. By Lemma 2.6, the index of this corner is $(b+1)^{2}$. Therefore the index of $a+b \mathbf{i}$ is $(b+1)^{2}-(a-1)=(b+1)^{2}-a+1$.

If $a+b \mathbf{i}$ lies on a right-oriented branch, then $b$ is odd. Consider the even corner on the $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$ line at $1+b \mathbf{i}$. By Lemma 2.6, the index of this corner is $b^{2}+1$. Therefore the index of $a+b \mathbf{i}$ is $b^{2}+1+(a-1)=b^{2}+a$.

If $a+b \mathbf{i}$ lies on a down-oriented branch, then $a$ is even. Consider the even corner on the real axis at $a+0 \mathbf{i}$. By Lemma 2.6, the index of this corner is $a^{2}$. Therefore the index of $a+b \mathbf{i}$ is $a^{2}-b$.

Now that we have a formula for the index of a Gaussian integer in the spiral ordering, we prove several lemmas about Gaussian integers that will be useful in proving that various families of trees have Gaussian prime labelings.

Lemma 2.8. Let $\alpha$ be a Gaussian integer and $u$ be a unit. Then $\alpha$ and $\alpha+u$ are relatively prime.
Proof. Suppose that there exists a Gaussian integer $\lambda$ such that $\lambda \mid \alpha$ and $\lambda \mid(\alpha+u)$. This means that $\lambda$ must also divide $u=(\alpha+u)-\alpha$. But the only Gaussian integers that divide $u$ are the units, so $\lambda$ must be a unit. Thus $\alpha$ and $\alpha+u$ are relatively prime.

The following corollary is immediate because consecutive Gaussian integers in the spiral ordering have a difference of one unit.

Corollary 2.9. Consecutive Gaussian integers in the spiral ordering are relatively prime.
Lemma 2.10. Let $\alpha$ be an odd Gaussian integer, let c be a positive integer, and let $u$ be a unit. Then $\alpha$ and $\alpha+u \cdot(1+\mathbf{i})^{c}$ are relatively prime.

Proof. Suppose that $\alpha$ and $\alpha+u \cdot(1+\mathbf{i})^{c}$ share a common divisor $\gamma$. It follows that $\gamma$ divides $u \cdot(1+\mathbf{i})^{c}=$ $\left(\alpha+u \cdot(1+\mathbf{i})^{c}\right)-\alpha$. However, the only divisors of $u \cdot(1+\mathbf{i})^{c}$ in $\mathbb{Z}[\mathbf{i}]$ are all powers of $(1+\mathbf{i})$ and its associates and the units in $\mathbb{Z}[\mathbf{i}]$. Since $\alpha$ is odd, it is not divisible $(1+\mathbf{i})$ or its associates because those numbers are all even. Therefore, $\gamma$ must be a unit. Hence $\alpha$ and $\alpha+u \cdot(1+\mathbf{i})^{c}$ are relatively prime.

Corollary 2.11. Consecutive odd Gaussian integers in the spiral ordering are relatively prime.
Proof. Consecutive odd Gaussian integers in the spiral ordering differ by two units. The only possible differences between them are therefore $1+\mathbf{i}, 2$, or one of their associates. Since $2=-\mathbf{i}(1+\mathbf{i})^{2}$, all of these differences are of the form $u \cdot(1+\mathbf{i})^{c}$ so the result follows from Lemma 2.10.

Lemma 2.12. Let $\alpha$ be a Gaussian integer and let $\rho$ be a prime Gaussian integer. Then $\alpha$ and $\alpha+\rho$ are relatively prime if and only if $\rho \backslash \alpha$.

Proof. Assume that there exists a Gaussian integer $\gamma$ such that $\gamma \mid \alpha$ and $\gamma \mid \alpha+\rho$. Then $\gamma$ must also divide $(\alpha+\rho)-\alpha=\rho$. But $\rho$ is prime, so either $\gamma=u$ or $\gamma=\rho \cdot u$ for some unit $u$. If $\gamma=\rho \cdot u$, then $\alpha$ and $\alpha+\rho$ have a common factor of $\rho$ and are not relatively prime. If $\gamma$ is a unit, then $\alpha$ and $\alpha+\rho$ have only a common factor of a unit and are relatively prime. Therefore $\alpha$ and $\alpha+\rho$ are relatively prime if and only if $\rho \nless \alpha$.

Lemma 2.13. Let $p \in \mathbb{N}$ be a prime integer congruent to $3(\bmod 4)$ and let $\alpha=a+b \mathbf{i}$ be a Gaussian integer such that $p \mid \alpha$. Then the index of $\alpha$ in the spiral ordering is congruent to 0 or $2(\bmod p)$.
Proof. By Theorem 2.2, $p$ is prime in $\mathbb{Z}[\mathbf{i}]$, so if $p \mid a+b \mathbf{i}$, then $p \mid a$ and $p \mid b$. So $a \equiv b \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. From Theorem 2.7, we can calculate the index $I(\alpha)$ of $\alpha$ and examine it modulo $p$. There are four cases to consider. In Case 1, $I(\alpha)=(a-1)^{2}+1+b \equiv(-1)^{2}+1+0(\bmod p) \equiv 2(\bmod p)$. In Case $2, I(\alpha)=(b+1)^{2}-a+1 \equiv$ $1^{2}-0+1(\bmod p) \equiv 2(\bmod p)$. In Case $3, I(\alpha)=b^{2}+a \equiv 0^{2}+0(\bmod ) p \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. In Case 4, $I(\alpha)=a^{2}-b \equiv 0^{2}-0(\bmod p) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. Therefore $I(\alpha) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ or $I(\alpha) \equiv 2(\bmod p)$ for any $\alpha$ such that $p \mid \alpha$.

## 3. Results for families of trees

We can now use the properties of the spiral ordering from the previous section to construct a Gaussian prime labeling for several classes of trees. For each class of tree considered, we will give a definition, an example figure, and then provide our proof of the existence of a Gaussian prime labeling. We consider stars, paths, spiders, $n$-centipedes, ( $n, k, m$ )-double stars, ( $n, 2$ )-centipedes, and ( $n, 3$ )-firecrackers.

### 3.1. Results on stars, paths, spiders, $n$-centipedes, and ( $n, k, m$ )-double stars

Definition 3.1. The star graph, $S_{n}$, on $n$ vertices is the graph with (see Fig. 2)

$$
V\left(S_{n}\right)=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}, \quad \text { and } \quad E\left(S_{n}\right)=\left\{v_{1} v_{k}: 2 \leq k \leq n\right\} .
$$

Theorem 3.2. Any star graph admits a Gaussian prime labeling.
Proof. Label vertex $v_{j}$ with $\gamma_{j}$. The center vertex $v_{1}$ is then labeled with $\gamma_{1}=1$, which is relatively prime to all Gaussian integers. Therefore this is a Gaussian prime labeling.

Definition 3.3. The path graph, $P_{n}$, on $n$ vertices is the graph with (see Fig. 3)

$$
V\left(P_{n}\right)=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\} \quad \text { and } \quad E\left(P_{n}\right)=\left\{v_{j} v_{j+1}: 1 \leq j \leq n-1\right\} .
$$

Theorem 3.4. Any path admits a Gaussian prime labeling.
Proof. Label vertex $v_{j}$ with $\gamma_{j}$. By Corollary 2.9 consecutive Gaussian integers in the spiral ordering are relatively prime, so this is a prime labeling of the path.


Fig. 2. The star graph on 11 vertices.


Fig. 3. The path on 9 vertices.


Fig. 4. Example of a spider graph.
Definition 3.5. A spider graph is a tree with one vertex of degree at least 3 and all other vertices having degree 1 or 2 (see Fig. 4).

Theorem 3.6. Any spider tree admits a Gaussian prime labeling.
Proof. Let $T$ be a spider tree and suppose the center vertex $v_{1}$ has degree $k$. Then if we remove $v_{1}$ from $T$ we are left with paths $L_{1}, L_{2}, \ldots, L_{k}$ with lengths $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{k}$ respectively. So label $v_{1}$ with 1 and label $L_{1}$ with the next $a_{1}$ consecutive Gaussian integers $\gamma_{2}, \gamma_{3}, \ldots, \gamma_{1+a_{1}}$, then label $L_{2}$ with the next $a_{2}$ consecutive Gaussian integers, and so on. By Corollary 2.9 this is a Gaussian prime labeling.

Definition 3.7. The $n$-centipede tree, $c_{n}$, is the graph with (see Fig. 5)

$$
V\left(c_{n}\right)=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{2 n}\right\},
$$

and

$$
E\left(c_{n}\right)=\left\{v_{2 k-1} v_{2 k}: 1 \leq k \leq n\right\} \cup\left\{v_{2 k-1} v_{2 k+1}: 1 \leq k \leq n-1\right\} .
$$

Theorem 3.8. Any n-centipede tree admits a Gaussian prime labeling.
Proof. Label vertex $v_{k}$ with $\gamma_{k}$. This is a Gaussian prime labeling because consecutive Gaussian integers in the spiral ordering are relatively prime by Corollary 2.9 and consecutive odd Gaussian integers in the spiral ordering are relatively prime by Corollary 2.11 .


Fig. 5. The 6-centipede tree.


Fig. 6. The $(6,6,11)$-double star tree.
Definition 3.9. Let $n, k, m$ be integers with $k \leq m$. The ( $n, k, m$ ) -double star tree, $D S_{n, k, m}$, is the graph with

$$
V\left(D S_{n, k, m}\right)=\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}, v_{n+1}, \ldots, v_{n+k-1}, v_{n+k}, \ldots, v_{n+k+m-2}\right\}
$$

and

$$
E\left(D S_{n, k, m}\right)=\left\{v_{j} v_{j+1}: 1 \leq j \leq n-1, v_{1} v_{n+j}: 1 \leq j \leq k-1, v_{n} v_{n+k+j}: 0 \leq j \leq m-2\right\} .
$$

In the $(n, k, m)$-double star tree we have a path of length $n$ whose endvertices $v_{1}$ and $v_{n}$ are the central vertices for stars on $k$ and $m$ vertices respectively (not including the other vertices on the path) (see Fig. 6).

Theorem 3.10. Any ( $n, k, m$ )-double star tree has a Gaussian prime labeling.
Proof. Label $v_{n}$ with $\gamma_{1}=1$, $v_{1}$ with $\gamma_{2}=1+\mathbf{i}$, and $v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n-1}$ with the consecutive Gaussian integers $\gamma_{3}, \ldots, \gamma_{n}$. We now label the $k-1$ remaining vertices adjacent to $v_{1}$ with odd Gaussian integers. If $n$ is odd, label $v_{n+1}, \ldots, v_{n+k-1}$ with $\gamma_{n+2}, \gamma_{n+4}, \ldots, \gamma_{n+2 k-2}$. If $n$ is even, label $v_{n+1}, \ldots, v_{n+k-1}$ with $\gamma_{n+1}, \gamma_{n+3}, \ldots, \gamma_{n+2 k-3}$. Label the remaining vertices adjacent to $v_{n}$ arbitrarily with the remaining Gaussian integers in [ $\gamma_{n+k+m-2}$ ]. This is a Gaussian prime labeling because $1+\mathbf{i}$ is relatively prime to all odd Gaussian integers, 1 is relatively prime to all Gaussian integers, and the path is labeled with consecutive Gaussian integers.

Note that when $n=1$, this is a star graph and when $k=m=0$ it is a path. When $k=m$ and $n=2$, it is a firecracker graph.

### 3.2. Results on ( $n, 2$ )-centipede trees

Definition 3.11. The ( $n, 2$ )-centipede tree, $c_{n, 2}$, is the graph with

$$
V\left(c_{n, 2}\right)=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{3 n}\right\}
$$

and

$$
E\left(c_{n, 2}\right)=\left\{v_{3 k-1} v_{3 k-2}, v_{3 k-1} v_{3 k}: 1 \leq k \leq n\right\} \cup\left\{v_{3 k-1} v_{3 k+2}: 1 \leq k \leq n-1\right\} .
$$

The ( $n, 2$ )-centipede tree has $n$ vertices on its spine with indices that are congruent to $2(\bmod 3)$. Each vertex on the spine has two leaf nodes adjacent to it. We call each spine vertex $v_{3 k-1}$ and its neighboring leaves $v_{3 k-2}$ and $v_{3 k}$ the $k t h$ segment of the tree (see Fig. 7).

Before we prove a result about ( $n, 2$ )-centipede trees, we will prove a lemma about Gaussian integers whose indices are three places apart in the spiral ordering.


Fig. 7. The (6,2)-centipede tree.
Lemma 3.12. Let $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $k \geq 2$, and consider the Gaussian integers $\gamma_{3 k-1}$ and $\gamma_{3 k+2}$. Then $\delta=\gamma_{3 k+2}-\gamma_{3 k-1} \in$ $\{ \pm 3, \pm 3 \mathbf{i}, 1, \mathbf{i}, 2-\mathbf{i},-2+\mathbf{i}, 1-2 \mathbf{i},-1+2 \mathbf{i}\}$, and each of these values of $\delta$ does arise for some $k$.
Proof. In the spiral ordering, Gaussian integers whose indices differ by 3 are three units apart. The possible combinations of three units are $3,1,1+2 \mathbf{i}, 2+\mathbf{i}$, and their associates. First, we know that the orientation of the spiral ordering will rule out $-2-\mathbf{i},-1-2 \mathbf{i},-1$, and $-\mathbf{i}$. If $\gamma_{3 k-1}$ and $\gamma_{3 k+2}$ lie on the same branch, then they differ by $\pm 3$ or $\pm 3 \mathbf{i}$. Otherwise there is a corner between them and we consider three possibilities: $\gamma_{3 k-1}$ and $\gamma_{3 k+2}$ are separated by a corner on the real axis, $\gamma_{3 k-1}$ and $\gamma_{3 k+2}$ are separated by a corner on the line $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$, or $\gamma_{3 k-1}$ and $\gamma_{3 k+2}$ are separated by an interior corner.

Around corners on the real axis, we know $\gamma_{3 k-1}$ is of the form $a+0 \mathbf{i}, a+\mathbf{i}$, or $a+2 \mathbf{i}$ for some even integer $a$. If $\gamma_{3 k-1}=a+0 \mathbf{i}$, by Theorem 2.7, we know its index is $a^{2}$ which is not congruent to $(3 k-1) \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$. Therefore $\gamma_{3 k-1} \neq a+0 \mathbf{i}$. If $\gamma_{3 k-1}=a+\mathbf{i}$, then by Theorem 2.7 we know that $3 k-1=a^{2}-1$ which is possible when $a \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$. In this case $\gamma_{3 k+2}=(a+1)+\mathbf{i}$, so $\delta=1$. If $\gamma_{3 k-1}=a+2 \mathbf{i}$, by Theorem 2.7, we know that $3 k-1=a^{2}-2$ which is possible when $a^{2} \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$. In this case $\gamma_{3 k+2}=(a+1)+0 \mathbf{i}$, so $\delta=1-2 \mathbf{i}$. The possible values of $\delta$ for corners on the real axis are thus 1 and $1-2 \mathbf{i}$.

Around corners on the line $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$, we know that $\gamma_{3 k-1}$ is of the form $1+b \mathbf{i}, 2+b \mathbf{i}$, or $3+b \mathbf{i}$ for some even integer $b$ or else $\gamma_{3 k-1}$ and $\gamma_{3 k+2}$ would lie on the same branch. If $\gamma_{3 k-1}=1+b \mathbf{i}$, by Theorem 2.7 its index would be $(b+1)^{2}$, which is not congruent to $(3 k-1) \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$. Therefore $\gamma_{3 k-1} \neq 1+b \mathbf{i}$. If $\gamma_{3 k-1}=2+b \mathbf{i}$, then Theorem 2.7 says that $3 k-1=(b+1)^{2}-1$, which is possible when $b \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$. In this case $\gamma_{3 k+2}=2+(b+1) \mathbf{i}$ and so $\delta=\mathbf{i}$. If $\gamma_{3 k-1}=3+b \mathbf{i}$, then Theorem 2.7 says that $3 k-1=(b+1)^{2}-2$, which is possible when $b \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$. In this case $\gamma_{3 k+2}=1+(b+\mathbf{i})$ and so $\delta=-2+\mathbf{i}$. The possible values of $\delta$ for corners on the line $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$ are thus $\mathbf{i}$ and $-2+\mathbf{i}$.

Around interior corners there are two possible orientations. Either the spiral is moving from an up-oriented branch to a left-oriented branch or the spiral is moving from a right-oriented branch to a down-oriented branch. First, consider the up-left interior corner. We know $\gamma_{3 k-1}$ has the form $a+(a-2) \mathbf{i}$ or $a+(a-3) \mathbf{i}$ as $\gamma_{3 k-1}$ and $\gamma_{3 k+2}$ would lie on the same branch otherwise.

If $\gamma_{3 k-1}=a+(a-2) \mathbf{i}$, Theorem 2.7 says that $3 k-1=(a-1)^{2}+1+a-2=(a-1)^{2}+(a-1)$ which is possible when $a \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$. In this case $\gamma_{3 k+2}=(a-2)+(a-1) \mathbf{i}$ and so $\delta=-2+\mathbf{i}$.

If $\gamma_{3 k-1}=a+(a-3) \mathbf{i}$, Theorem 2.7 says that $3 k-1=(a-1)^{2}+a-2=a^{2}-a-1$; or, equivalently, that $3 k=a^{2}-$ $a$. This is possible when $a \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$ or $a \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$. In this case $\gamma_{3 k+2}=(a-1)+(a-1) \mathbf{i}$ and so $\delta=-1+2 \mathbf{i}$.

By symmetry, the possible $\delta$ values for a right-down interior corner are $2-\mathbf{i}$ and $1-2 \mathbf{i}$.
Lemma 3.13. Let $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $k \geq 2$ and consider the Gaussian integers $\gamma_{3 k-1}$ and $\gamma_{3 k+2}$. Let $\delta=\gamma_{3 k+2}-\gamma_{3 k-1}$. If $\delta \in\{\mathbf{i}, 1-2 \mathbf{i}\}$, then $k$ must be odd.
Proof. First suppose $\delta=\mathbf{i}$. This happens only when $\gamma_{3 k-1}=2+b \mathbf{i}$ and $\gamma_{3 k+2}=2+(b+1) \mathbf{i}$; i.e., the spiral turns at the line $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$. By Theorem 2.7, $b$ is even and $3 k-1=(b+1)^{2}-2+1=b^{2}+2 b$ is even. Thus $k$ must be odd.

Next, suppose $\delta=1-2 \mathbf{i}$. There are two scenarios in which this can happen. First, as the spiral makes a right-todown turn around an interior corner; and second, as the spiral makes a down-to-right turn at the real axis. In the former case, $\gamma_{3 k-1}=b+b \mathbf{i}$. By Theorem 2.7, $3 k-1=b^{2}+b$ is even. Therefore $k$ is odd. In the latter case, $\gamma_{3 k-1}=a+2 \mathbf{i}$ for some even $a$. By Theorem 2.7, $3 k-1=a^{2}-2$ is even. Once again, $k$ must be odd.

Theorem 3.14. Any (n, 2)-centipede tree admits a Gaussian prime labeling.
Proof. Begin by labeling vertex $v_{j}$ with $\gamma_{j}$. We call the set of nodes $\left\{v_{3 k-1}\right\}_{k=1}^{n}$ which have degree greater than one the spine of the tree, and the other nodes the leaves. Each spine-leaf pair in the same segment will be relatively prime


Fig. 8. Initial labeling of the (6,2)-centipede.


Fig. 9. Labeling of the (6,2)-centipede after the swap.
because they are labeled by consecutive Gaussian integers, but there will be adjacent nodes down the spine that are not relatively prime.

Consider the possible separations of pairs of nodes on the spine. Let $\delta_{k}=\gamma_{3 k+2}-\gamma_{3 k-1}$. By Lemma 3.12, $\delta_{k} \in\{ \pm 3, \pm 3 \mathbf{i}, 1, \mathbf{i}, 2-\mathbf{i},-2+\mathbf{i}, 1-2 \mathbf{i},-1+2 \mathbf{i}\}$. This presents a problem whenever $\delta_{k}$ is not a unit, but it divides both $\gamma_{3 k+2}$ and $\gamma_{3 k-1}$. To solve this problem, we will swap the labels of some spine nodes with the labels of one of their leaf neighbors (see Fig. 8).

Specifically, we swap each even $\gamma_{3 k-1}$ on the spine with its neighboring leaf $\gamma_{3 k}$ and consider the new labeling. In each segment of the caterpillar where a swap occurred, the node on the spine is consecutive to one of its leaves and a consecutive odd to the other one. Thus, by Corollaries 2.9 and 2.11 , the node on the spine is relatively prime to its adjacent leaves (see Fig. 9).

Now we verify that the labels of the nodes along the spine are relatively prime. Along the spine, we will have a sequence of odd Gaussian integers with indices $3,5,9,11, \ldots, 6 k+3,6 k+5, \ldots$. Every pair of adjacent vertices along the spine are either consecutive odd Gaussian integers or odd Gaussian integers whose indices differ by four. In the former case, the labels are relatively prime by Corollary 2.11. We claim that the labels in the latter case are also relatively prime.

Let $\gamma_{3 k-1}$ and $\gamma_{3 k+3}$ be a pair of neighboring vertices on the spine whose indices differ by four. We assume $\gamma_{3 k-1}$ is the vertex that was originally unswapped, while $\gamma_{3 k+3}$ is the vertex that was swapped onto the spine. Therefore, the index $3 k-1$ is odd, which means $k$ is even.

As before, consider the difference $\delta_{k}:=\gamma_{3 k+2}-\gamma_{3 k-1}$ and $\delta_{k}^{\prime}:=\gamma_{3 k+3}-\gamma_{3 k-1}$. By Lemmas 3.12 and 3.13, $\delta_{k} \in\{ \pm 3, \pm 3 \mathbf{i}, 1,2-\mathbf{i},-2+\mathbf{i},-1+2 \mathbf{i}\}$. We examine each of these possibilities separately.

If $\delta_{k}= \pm 3, \pm 3 \mathbf{i}$, then it follows from Theorem 2.7 that $\delta_{k}^{\prime}= \pm 4, \pm 4 \mathbf{i}$. For example, when $\delta_{k}=3, \gamma_{3 k-1}$ and $\gamma_{3 k+2}$ are situated on a right-oriented branch. So $\gamma_{3 k+3}$ equals either 4 or $3-\mathbf{i}$. If $\gamma_{3 k+3}=3-\mathbf{i}$, then $\gamma_{3 k+2}=(b+1)+b \mathbf{i}$ for some odd $b$. Therefore, by Theorem 2.7, $3 k+2=b^{2}+b+1$. On the one hand, $k$ is even so $3 k+2$ is even. On the other hand, $b$ is odd, so $b^{2}+b+1$ is odd, a contradiction. Therefore, $\delta_{k}^{\prime}=4$. The proofs of the remaining cases follow similarly.

If $\delta_{k}=1$, then $\delta_{k}^{\prime}=1+\mathbf{i}$ because $\delta_{k}=1$ only when the spiral turns as it meets the real axis. If $\delta_{k}=2-\mathbf{i}$, then $\delta_{k}^{\prime}=2-2 \mathbf{i}$ because $\delta_{k}=2-\mathbf{i}$ when the spiral makes a right-to-down turn at an interior corner.

If $\delta_{k}=-2+\mathbf{i}$, then either $\delta_{k}^{\prime}=-1+\mathbf{i}$ (as the spiral turns at the $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$ line) or $\delta_{k}^{\prime}=-3+\mathbf{i}$ (as the spiral makes an up-to-left turn at an interior corner). However, the latter case is impossible. In that case $\gamma_{3 k-1}=a+(a-2) \mathbf{i}$, so by Theorem 2.7, $3 k-1=(a-1)^{2}+1+a-2=a^{2}-a$, which is even. But $k$ is even so $3 k-1$ is odd, a contradiction. Therefore, when $\delta_{k}=-2+\mathbf{i}$, we have $\delta_{k}^{\prime}=-1+\mathbf{i}$.

Finally, if $\delta_{k}=-1+2 \mathbf{i}$, the spiral makes an up-to-left turn at an interior corner and hence $\delta_{k}^{\prime}=-2+2 \mathbf{i}$.


Fig. 10. The (6, 3)-firecracker tree.

Table 1
Components of multiples of $1+2 \mathbf{i}$ and $2+\mathbf{i}$ reduced modulo 5 .

| $\operatorname{Re}(\alpha)$ | $\operatorname{Im}(\alpha)$ | $\operatorname{Re}(\alpha)$ | $\operatorname{Im}(\alpha)$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| 2 | 4 | 2 | 1 |
| 3 | 1 | 3 | 4 |
| 4 | 3 | 4 | 2 |
| (A) $1+2 \mathbf{i} \mid \alpha$ |  | (B) $2+\mathbf{i} \mid \alpha$ |  |

In summary, we have concluded that $\delta_{k}^{\prime} \in\{ \pm 4, \pm 4 \mathbf{i}, 2-2 \mathbf{i},-1+\mathbf{i},-2+2 \mathbf{i}\}$. Up to multiplication by a unit, each of these values $\delta_{k}^{\prime}$ is a power of $1+\mathbf{i}$. Thus by Lemma 2.10, the odd labels along the spine are all relatively prime. Therefore, we have achieved a prime labeling of the $(n, 2)$-centipede.

### 3.3. Results on (n, 3)-firecracker trees

The proof that $(n, 2)$-caterpillar trees admit a Gaussian prime labeling relied on an initial natural labeling that was slightly modified to give a prime labeling. In this section we use a similar technique to show that certain firecracker trees also admit prime labelings.

Definition 3.15. The ( $n, 3$ )-firecracker tree, $F_{n, 3}$ is the graph with (see Fig. 10)

$$
V\left(F_{n, 3}\right)=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{3 n}\right\}
$$

and

$$
E\left(F_{n, 3}\right)=\left\{v_{3 k-2} v_{3 k-1}, v_{3 k-1} v_{3 k}: 1 \leq k \leq n\right\} \cup\left\{v_{3 k-2} v_{3 k+1}: 1 \leq k \leq n-1\right\}
$$

We call the $n$ vertices $v_{1}, v_{4}, v_{7}, \ldots, v_{3 n-2}$ the spine of the tree. The set of vertices $v_{3 k-2}, v_{3 k-1}, v_{3 k}$ for some $k$ is called the $k$ th level of the tree.

Lemma 3.16. Let $\alpha=a+b \mathbf{i}$ be a Gaussian integer. Then $1+2 \mathbf{i} \mid \alpha$ if and only if $5 \mid a+2 b$ and $2+\mathbf{i} \mid \alpha$ if and only if $5 \mid 2 a+b$.

Proof. Suppose $1+2 \mathbf{i} \mid \alpha$. Then $\frac{a+b \mathbf{i}}{1+2 \mathbf{i}}=\frac{(a+2 b)+(b-2 a) \mathbf{i}}{5} \in \mathbb{Z}[\mathbf{i}]$. Hence $5 \mid a+2 b$. Conversely, suppose $5 \mid a+2 b$ such that $a+2 b=5 m$. It follows that $a=5 m-2 b$ so $b-2 a=b-2(5 m-2 b)=5 b-10 m$, and $5 \mid b-2 a$. Therefore $5 \mid(a+2 b)+(b-2 a) \mathbf{i}$, so $5 \mid(a+b \mathbf{i})(1-2 \mathbf{i})$, and $(1+2 \mathbf{i})(1-2 \mathbf{i}) \mid(a+b \mathbf{i})(1-2 \mathbf{i})$. Hence $1+2 \mathbf{i} \mid \alpha$.

The argument for $2+\mathbf{i}$ is similar.
This lemma is illustrated in Table 1, which shows the mod 5 residues of a multiple of $1+2 \mathbf{i}$ or $2+\mathbf{i}$.
Lemma 3.17. For $k \in \mathbb{N}$, let $\delta_{k}=\gamma_{3 k+1}-\gamma_{3 k-2}$ and assume that $\delta_{k}$ is not a unit. If $\delta_{k} \mid \gamma_{3 k-2}$ and $\delta_{k} \mid \gamma_{3 k+1}$ then one of the following six conditions holds:
(1) $\delta_{k}=-1+2 \mathbf{i}$ and $\gamma_{3 k-2}=a+(a-3) \mathbf{i}$ for $a \equiv 1(\bmod 5)$ and $a$ odd,
(2) $\delta_{k}=2-\mathbf{i}$ and $\gamma_{3 k-2}=(a-2)+(a-1) \mathbf{i}$ for $a \equiv 3(\bmod 5)$ and a even,
(3) $\delta_{k}=1-2 \mathbf{i}$ and $\gamma_{3 k-2}=(a-1)+2 \mathbf{i}$ for $a \equiv 0(\bmod 5)$ and $a$ odd,
(4) $\delta_{k}=1+2 \mathbf{i}$ and $\gamma_{3 k-2}=a+0 \mathbf{i}$ for $a \equiv 0(\bmod 5)$ and a even,
(5) $\delta_{k}=-2+\mathbf{i}$ and $\gamma_{3 k-2}=3+b \mathbf{i}$ for $b \equiv 1(\bmod 5)$ and $b$ even,
(6) $\delta_{k}=2+\mathbf{i}$ and $\gamma_{3 k-2}=1+b \mathbf{i}$ for $b \equiv 3(\bmod 5)$ and $b$ even.

Proof. First, by Lemma $2.13 \delta_{k}$ is not equal to 3 or one of its associates. Because $\gamma_{3 k-2}$ and $\gamma_{3 k+1}$ are three indices apart in the spiral ordering and $\delta_{k}$ is not 1,3 , or any of their associates, $\delta_{k}$ must be $1+2 \mathbf{i}, 2+\mathbf{i}$, or one of their associates. We also know that $\delta_{k} \neq-1-2 \mathbf{i},-2-\mathbf{i}$ by the orientation of the spiral ordering. Now we consider the remaining associates according to the location of $\gamma_{3 k-2}$ in the spiral ordering.

Case 1: Interior corners on up-left branches. This case corresponds to $\delta_{k}=-1+2 \mathbf{i}$ or $\delta_{k}=-2+\mathbf{i}$. If $\delta_{k}=-2+\mathbf{i}$, then $\gamma_{3 k-2}=a+(a-2) \mathbf{i}$ for some odd $a$ because it is one step below the interior corner $a+(a-1) \mathbf{i}$. Then Theorem 2.7 says that its index is $(a-1)^{2}+(a-2)+1$, which is always congruent to 0 or $2 \bmod 3$. This contradicts that the index is $3 k-2 \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$. Therefore this $\delta_{k}$ does not occur.

If $\delta_{k}=-1+2 \mathbf{i}=\mathbf{i}(2+\mathbf{i})$, then by Theorem $2.7 \gamma_{3 k-2}=a+(a-3) \mathbf{i}$ for some odd $a$ because it is two steps below the interior corner $a+(a-1)$ i. Using Table 1 we see that we must have $a \equiv 1(\bmod 5)$ for this to occur.

Case 2: Interior corners on right-down branches. This case corresponds to $\delta_{k}=2-\mathbf{i}$ or $\delta_{k}=1-2 \mathbf{i}$. If $\delta_{k}=1-2 \mathbf{i}$, then $\gamma_{3 k-2}=(a-1)+(a-1) \mathbf{i}$ for some $a$ because it is one step left of the interior corner $a+(a-1) \mathbf{i}$. Theorem 2.7 says that its index is $(a-1)^{2}+(a-1)$, which is always congruent to 0 or $2(\bmod 3)$. Again this contradicts that the index is $3 k-2 \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$. So this $\delta_{k}$ does not occur.

If $\delta_{k}=2-\mathbf{i}=-\mathbf{i}(1+2 \mathbf{i})$, then by Theorem $2.7 \gamma_{3 k-2}=(a-2)+(a-1) \mathbf{i}$ for some even $a$ because it is two steps left of the interior corner $a+(a-1)$ i. Using Table 1 we see that we must have $a \equiv 3(\bmod 5)$ for this to occur.

Case 3: Corners on the real axis. This case corresponds to $\delta_{k}=1-2 \mathbf{i}$ or $\delta_{k}=1+2 \mathbf{i}$. If $\delta_{k}=1-2 \mathbf{i}=-\mathbf{i}(2+\mathbf{i})$ then $\gamma_{3 k+1}=a+0 \mathbf{i}$ and $\gamma_{3 k-2}=(a-1)+2 \mathbf{i}$ for some odd $a($ by Theorem 2.7) with $a \equiv 0(\bmod 5)($ by Table 1$)$.

If $\delta=1+2 \mathbf{i}$, then $\gamma_{3 k-2}=a+0 \mathbf{i}$ and $\gamma_{3 k+1}=(a+1)+2 \mathbf{i}$ for some even $a($ by Theorem 2.7) with $a \equiv 0(\bmod 5)$ (by Table 1).

Case 4: Corners on the line $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$. This case corresponds to $\delta_{k}=2+\mathbf{i}$ or $\delta_{k}=-2+\mathbf{i}$. If $\delta_{k}=-2+\mathbf{i}=\mathbf{i}(1+2 \mathbf{i})$, then by Theorem $2.7 \gamma_{3 k-2}=3+b \mathbf{i}$ for some even $b$ because it is 2 away from the corner on the $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$ line at $1+b \mathbf{i}$. Using Table 1 we see that we must have $b \equiv 1(\bmod 5)$ for this to occur.

If $\delta_{k}=2+\mathbf{i}$, then by Theorem $2.7 \gamma_{3 k-2}=1+b \mathbf{i}$ for some even $b$ because it is a corner on the $\operatorname{Re}(z)=1$ line. Using Table 1 we see that we must have $b \equiv 3(\bmod 5)$ for this to occur.

## Theorem 3.18. Any (n, 3)-firecracker tree has a Gaussian prime labeling.

Proof. A natural first attempt at labeling the ( $n, 3$ )-firecracker is to label it consecutively by labeling $v_{j}$ with $\gamma_{j}$ for all $j$. This is a nearly prime labeling, so we make a handful of swaps of labels to resolve the issues that appear and give a fully prime labeling. The full labeling procedure is as follows.

We define an initial labeling $\ell_{1}$ of the $(n, 3)$-firecracker so that $\ell_{1}\left(v_{j}\right)=\gamma_{j}$. Now we define a new labeling $\ell$ in the following way. Let $\delta_{k}=\ell_{1}\left(v_{3 k+1}\right)-\ell_{1}\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)$. Consider each $k$ where $\delta_{k}$ is not a unit, $\delta_{k} \mid \ell_{1}\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)$, and $\delta_{k} \mid \ell_{1}\left(v_{3 k+1}\right)$. By Lemma 3.17 we know that $\delta_{k} \in\{-1+2 \mathbf{i}, 2-\mathbf{i}, 1-2 \mathbf{i}, 1+2 \mathbf{i},-2+\mathbf{i}, 2+\mathbf{i}\}$. If $\delta_{k}=-1+2 \mathbf{i}, 2-\mathbf{i}, 1+2 \mathbf{i}$, or $-2+\mathbf{i}$, then we set $\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)=\gamma_{3 k}$ and $\ell\left(v_{3 k}\right)=\gamma_{3 k-2}$. If $\delta_{k}=1-2 \mathbf{i}$, then we set $\ell\left(v_{3 k+1}\right)=\gamma_{3 k+3}$ and $\ell\left(v_{3 k+3}\right)=\gamma_{3 k+1}$. If $\delta_{k}=2+\mathbf{i}$, then we set $\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)=\gamma_{3 k}, \ell\left(v_{3 k}\right)=\gamma_{3 k-2}, \ell\left(v_{3 k-5}\right)=\gamma_{3 k-3}$, and $\ell\left(v_{3 k-3}\right)=\gamma_{3 k-5}$. For all other $v_{j}$, keep $\ell\left(v_{j}\right)=\ell_{1}\left(v_{j}\right)=\gamma_{j}$.

Because the effect of each above change is to swap the labels of vertices at the ends of a particular level, adjacent vertices on the same level are still labeled with consecutive Gaussian integers in the spiral ordering, which are relatively prime. Therefore, we only need to show that this new labeling has created a prime labeling on the spine. To show the vertices along the spine are now relatively prime, we examine each edge along the spine. If neither vertex incident to a given edge is affected by the relabeling, then the labels are relatively prime. Otherwise we must inspect each relabeled vertex to make sure its new label is relatively prime to its neighbors on the spine. To do this, we consider each $\delta_{k}$ in turn. Note that the conditions from Lemma 3.17 force $k$ to be large enough that if $\delta_{k} \mid \gamma_{3 k+1}$ and $\delta_{k} \mid \gamma_{3 k-2}$ then $\gamma_{3 k+1}$ and $\gamma_{3 k+3}$ are on the same branch and $\gamma_{3 k-2}$ and $\gamma_{3 k-5}$ are on the same branch and so neither $\gamma_{3 k+3}$ or $\gamma_{3 k-5}$ was relabeled.

If $\delta_{k}=-1+2 \mathbf{i}$, then $\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)=\gamma_{3 k}$. By Lemma $3.17 \gamma_{3 k}$ lies at an interior corner $a+(a-1) \mathbf{i}$ with $a \equiv 1(\bmod 5)$. Since $\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)=\gamma_{3 k}$ and $\ell\left(v_{3 k+1}\right)=\gamma_{3 k+1}$ are relatively prime, we need only check whether $\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)$ and $\ell\left(v_{3 k-5}\right)$
are relatively prime. Then $\delta^{\prime}:=\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)-\ell\left(v_{3 k-5}\right)=\gamma_{3 k}-\gamma_{3 k-5}=5 \mathbf{i}$, so their only possible common factors are unit multiples of $1+2 \mathbf{i}$ and $2+\mathbf{i}$. Consulting Table 1 , we see that because $\operatorname{Re}\left(\gamma_{3 k}\right) \equiv 1(\bmod 5)$ and $\operatorname{Im}\left(\gamma_{3 k}\right) \equiv 0(\bmod 5)$ neither $1+2 \mathbf{i}$ or $2+\mathbf{i}$ divides $\gamma_{3 k}$ and so $\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)$ and $\ell\left(v_{3 k-5}\right)$ are relatively prime.

If $\delta_{k}=2-\mathbf{i}$, then $\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)=\gamma_{3 k}$. Note that $\gamma_{3 k}$ lies at an interior corner $a+(a-1) \mathbf{i}$ for some $a \equiv 3(\bmod 5)$ by Lemma 3.17. Here $\delta^{\prime}:=\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)-\ell\left(v_{3 k-5}\right)=\gamma_{3 k}-\gamma_{3 k-5}=5$, so the only possible common factors are again unit multiples of $1+2 \mathbf{i}$ and $2+\mathbf{i}$. Consulting Table 1 , we see that because $\operatorname{Re}\left(\gamma_{3 k}\right) \equiv 3(\bmod 5)$ and $\operatorname{Im}\left(\gamma_{3 k}\right) \equiv 2(\bmod 5)$ neither $2+\mathbf{i}$ nor $1+2 \mathbf{i}$ divides $\gamma_{3 k}$ and thus $\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)$ and $\ell\left(v_{3 k-5}\right)$ are relatively prime.

If $\delta_{k}=1-2 \mathbf{i}$ then $\gamma_{3 k+1}=a+0 \mathbf{i}$ for some odd $a \equiv 0(\bmod 5)$ and $\ell\left(v_{3 k+1}\right)=\gamma_{3 k+3}$. Since $\ell\left(v_{3 k+1}\right)=\gamma_{3 k+3}$ and $\ell\left(v_{3 k+4}\right)=\gamma_{3 k+4}$ are consecutive, they are relatively prime and we need only consider the new $\delta^{\prime}:=$ $\ell\left(v_{3 k+1}\right)-\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)=\gamma_{3 k+3}-\gamma_{3 k-2}=(a+2 \mathbf{i})-((a-1)+2 \mathbf{i})=1$. So $\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)$ and $\ell\left(v_{3 k+1}\right)$ are also relatively prime.

If $\delta_{k}=1+2 \mathbf{i}$, then $\gamma_{3 k-2}=a+0 \mathbf{i}$ for some even $a \equiv 0(\bmod 5)$ and $\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)=\gamma_{3 k}$. Since $\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)=\gamma_{3 k}$ and $\ell\left(v_{3 k+1}\right)=\gamma_{3 k+1}$ are consecutive, they are relatively prime and we only consider the new $\delta^{\prime}:=\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)-\ell\left(v_{3 k-5}\right)=$ $\gamma_{3 k}-\gamma_{3 k-5}=1-2 \mathbf{i}$. Because $\gamma_{3 k-2}$ is a multiple of both $1+2 \mathbf{i}$ and $2+\mathbf{i}$, it follows that $\gamma_{3 k}$ is not divisible by $1+2 \mathbf{i}$ or $2+\mathbf{i}$. So $\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)$ and $\ell\left(v_{3 k-5}\right)$ are relatively prime.

If $\delta_{k}=-2+\mathbf{i}$, then $\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)=\gamma_{3 k}=1+b \mathbf{i}$ for some $b \equiv 1(\bmod 5)$. Since $\ell\left(v_{3 k+1}\right)=\gamma_{3 k+1}$ and $\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)=\gamma_{3 k}$ are consecutive, they are relatively prime and we need only look at $\delta^{\prime}:=\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)-\ell\left(v_{3 k-5}\right)=\gamma_{3 k}-\gamma_{3 k-5}$. Consulting Table 1 , we see that because $\operatorname{Re}\left(\gamma_{3 k}\right)=1$ and $\operatorname{Im}\left(\gamma_{3 k}\right) \equiv 1(\bmod 5)$ neither $1+2 \mathbf{i}$ or $2+\mathbf{i}$ divides $\gamma_{3 k}$. So $\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)$ and $\ell\left(v_{3 k-5}\right)$ are relatively prime.

If $\delta_{k}=2+\mathbf{i}$, then $\ell\left(v_{3 k-2}\right)=\gamma_{3 k}=2+(b+1) \mathbf{i}$ for some $b \equiv 3(\bmod 5)$. We also have $\ell\left(v_{3 k+1}\right)=\gamma_{3 k+1}=$ $3+(b+1) \mathbf{i}, \ell\left(v_{3 k-8}\right)=\gamma_{3 k-8}=7+b \mathbf{i}$, and $\ell\left(v_{3 k-5}\right)=\gamma_{3 k-3}=2+b \mathbf{i}$. We now have the sequence of labels on the spine of $\gamma_{3 k-8}, \gamma_{3 k-3}, \gamma_{3 k}, \gamma_{3 k+1}$. First, $\gamma_{3 k}$ and $\gamma_{3 k+1}$ are consecutive and thus relatively prime. Also, $\gamma_{3 k-3}$ and $\gamma_{3 k}$ have a difference of $\mathbf{i}$ and are thus relatively prime. Finally, $\delta^{\prime}:=\ell\left(v_{3 k-5}\right)-\ell\left(v_{3 k-8}\right)=\gamma_{3 k-3}-\gamma_{3 k-8}=-5$. Consulting Table 1 we see that because $\operatorname{Re}\left(\gamma_{3 k-3}\right)=2$ and $\operatorname{Im}\left(\gamma_{3 k-3}\right) \equiv 3(\bmod 5)$ neither $1+2 \mathbf{i}$ or $2+\mathbf{i}$ divides $\gamma_{3 k-3}$, so $\gamma_{3 k-3}$ and $\gamma_{3 k-8}$ are also relatively prime.

Thus $\ell$ is a prime labeling of the ( $n, 3$ )-firecracker tree.

## 4. Future work and open problems

We conclude with a few open problems and directions for future research.
(1) A binary tree is a rooted tree in which each node has at most two children. There are many special classes of binary trees, such as full binary trees, perfect binary trees, or complete binary trees. Investigate Gaussian prime labelings of these families of trees.
(2) Investigate Gaussian prime labelings of general $(n, k)$-firecracker trees.
(3) Investigate Gaussian prime labelings of families of non-tree graphs.
(4) In a recent paper [4], the second and third authors showed that trees on at most 73 vertices admit Gaussian prime labelings. The approach outlined in that paper pushed the limits of what one could possibly hope to do by hand. Is it possible to computationally verify the conjecture for trees on more vertices?
(5) Investigate other inherent properties of the spiral ordering on the Gaussian integers. In what ways is it similar to the properties of the order on the natural numbers and in what ways is it different?

## Acknowledgments

This research was performed as part of the 2015 SUMmER REU at Seattle University. We gratefully acknowledge support from NSF grant DMS-1460537. We are grateful for many helpful conversations with Erik Tou and A.J. Stewart.

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[^0]:    Peer review under responsibility of Kalasalingam University.

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