ON THE ORIENTED INCIDENCE ENERGY AND DECOMPOSABLE GRAPHS

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Abstract

Let \( G \) be a simple graph with \( n \) vertices and \( m \) edges. Let edges of \( G \) be given an arbitrary orientation, and let \( Q \) be the vertex-edge incidence matrix of such oriented graph. The oriented incidence energy of \( G \) is then the sum of singular values of \( Q \). We show that for any \( n \in \mathbb{N} \), there exists a set of \( n \) graphs with \( O(n) \) vertices having equal oriented incidence energy.

1 Introduction

Let \( G = (V, E) \) be a finite, simple, undirected graph with vertices \( V = \{1, 2, \ldots, n\} \) and \( m = |E| \) edges. Let \( G \) have adjacency matrix \( A \) with eigenvalues \( \lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_n \). The energy of \( G \) was defined by Gutman in [1] as

\[
E = E(G) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\lambda_i|,
\]

and it has a long known chemical applications; for details see the surveys [2, 3, 4]. Recently, Nikiforov [5] generalized a concept of graph energy to arbitrary matrix \( M \) by defining the energy \( E(M) \) to be the sum of singular values of \( M \). The singular values of a real (not necessarily square) matrix \( M \) are the square roots of the eigenvalues of the (square) matrix \( MM^T \), where \( M^T \) denotes the transpose of \( M \).

Let edges of \( G \) be given an arbitrary orientation producing an oriented graph \( \vec{G} \), and let \( Q \) be the vertex-edge incidence matrix of \( \vec{G} \), whose \((v, e)\) entry is equal to \(+1\) if the vertex \( v \) is the head of the oriented edge \( e \), \(-1\) if \( v \) is the tail of \( e \), and \(0\) otherwise. Then \( QQ^T = L = D - A \) is the Laplacian matrix of \( G \), where

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$D$ is the diagonal matrix of vertex degrees [6, 7]. Suppose that $L$ has eigenvalues $\mu_1 \geq \mu_2 \geq \cdots \geq \mu_n = 0$. The oriented incidence energy of $G$ is then

$$OIE(G) = E(Q) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sqrt{\mu_i},$$

as observed in [8]. This invariant was introduced recently by Liu and Liu [9] under the name the Laplacian energy-like invariant and notation $LEL(G)$.

Due to its definition, it comes as no surprise that $OIE(G)$ has a number of properties analogous to $E(G)$ [9, 10]. $OIE(G)$ was suggested as a new molecular descriptor in [11]: a correlating study of OIE and topological indices provided by TOPOCLUJ software package [12], on thirteen properties of octanes, revealed that OIE describes well the properties which are well accounted by the Wiener-based molecular descriptors: octane number MON, entropy S, volume MV, or refraction MR, particularly the AF parameter, but also more difficult properties like boiling point BP, melting point MP and logP. In a second set of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, OIE was proved to be as good as the Randič index and better than the Wiener index in correlations to BP, MP and logP.

A graph is decomposable if it can be constructed from isolated vertices by the operations of union and complement. The Laplacian spectrum of $G_1 \cup \cdots \cup G_k$ is the union of Laplacian spectra of $G_1, \ldots, G_k$, while the Laplacian spectrum of the complement of $n$-vertex graph $G$ consists of values $n - \mu$, for each Laplacian eigenvalue $\mu$ of $G$, except for a single instance of eigenvalue 0 of $G$. Since the Laplacian spectrum of an isolated vertex consists of single eigenvalue 0, it is easy to conclude that the Laplacian spectrum of every decomposable graph consists of integers only [13, 14].

Much work on graph energy has appeared in literature, especially in the last decade, and a good deal of it studies graphs with equal energy [15]-[24]. Two graphs $G_1$ and $G_2$ of the same order, nonisomorphic with respect to $L$, are said to be OIE-equiequitergetic if $OIE(G_1) = OIE(G_2)$. Three pairs of connected OIE-equiequitergetic graphs were presented in [25] and, based on the computer search among small graphs, it was suggested that OIE-equiequitergetic graphs occur relatively rarely. However, note that the graphs $G_{802}$, $G_{804}$ and $G_{1202}$ from [25] are all decomposable graphs. Our goal here is to show that, for any given $n \in N$, there exists a set of $n$ mutually OIE-equiequitergetic decomposable graphs with $O(n)$ vertices.

Let $A = \{a_1, \ldots, a_k\}$ be a multiset of positive integers such that $a_i \geq 3$, $i = 1, \ldots, k$. The graph $S_A^*$, formed from the union of stars $S_{a_1-1}, S_{a_2-1}, \ldots, S_{a_k-1}$ by adding a vertex adjacent to all other vertices, has $n = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i\right) - k + 1$ vertices and $m = 2n - k - 2$ edges. It is decomposable since it can be represented as

$$S_A^* = K_1 \cup \bigcup_{i=1}^{k} K_1 \cup \left( \bigcup_{i=2}^{k} K_{a_i-2} \right).$$
and its Laplacian spectrum is given by

$$[n, a_1, \ldots, a_k, 2^{n-2k-1}, 1^{k-1}, 0],$$

where exponents denote multiplicities. Thus,

$$OIE(S^*_A) = \sqrt{n} + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sqrt{a_i} + (n - 2k - 1) \sqrt{2} + k - 1. \quad (2)$$

Let $S$ be the set of of finite multisets of positive integers each of which is at least three. Let $\rho$ be an equivalence relation on $S$ defined by

$$A \rho B \iff |A| = |B|, \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i = \sum_{i=1}^{k} b_i \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sqrt{a_i} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sqrt{b_i}.$$ 

From (2) we see that

$$A \rho B \quad \Rightarrow \quad OIE(S^*_A) = OIE(S^*_B).$$

Moreover, if $A$ and $B$ are distinct equivalent multisets, then the graphs $S^*_A$ and $S^*_B$ are noncospectral, while they have the same order and size.

Therefore, in order to construct sets of OIE-equienergetic decomposable graphs, we need to find nontrivial equivalence classes of $\rho$ in $S$. Construction of equivalence classes containing pairs of triplets is given in Section 2, while operations for constructing large equivalence classes in $S/\rho$ are discussed in Section 3. A few nontrivial equivalence classes found by initial computer search are given in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$\sum_{i} a_i = \sum_{i} b_i$</th>
<th>${a_1, \ldots, a_k}$</th>
<th>${b_1, \ldots, b_k}$</th>
<th>$\sum_{i} \sqrt{a_i} = \sum_{i} \sqrt{b_i}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>${25,6,6}$</td>
<td>${24,9,4}$</td>
<td>$5 + 2\sqrt{6}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>${27,9,4}$</td>
<td>${25,12,3}$</td>
<td>$5 + 3\sqrt{3}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>${12,4,4,4}$</td>
<td>${9,9,3,3}$</td>
<td>$6 + 2\sqrt{3}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>${20,9,9,4}$</td>
<td>${16,16,5,5}$</td>
<td>$8 + 2\sqrt{5}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>${27,4,4,4,4}$</td>
<td>${25,9,3,3,3}$</td>
<td>$8 + 3\sqrt{3}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: A few equivalence classes in $S$.

2 Equivalence classes containing triplets

**Proposition 1.** Let $a, b, c, d, e, f$ be positive integers such that $abc = def$. Then

$$\{a^2c, b^2c, (d + e)^2f\} \rho \{ (a + b)^2c, d^2f, e^2f \}.$$
Proposition 2. For a given yielding (can be written in distinct ways as $B$
Both
Proof. Belong to the same equivalence class of $a, b, c, d, e, f$
Then the multisets
so that these two triplets belong to the same equivalence class of $\rho$. \[\]
For example, the first pair of triplets in Table 1 is obtained by setting $(a, b, c, d, e, f) = (1, 1, 0, 2, 2, 3, 1)$, while the second pair of triplets is obtained for $(a, b, c, d, e, f) = (2, 3, 1, 2, 1, 3)$. We can construct infinitely many new pairs of triplets from Proposition 1 by taking distinct factorizations of positive integers into three factors $a, b, c$ and $d, e, f$. For example, 10 can be factorized in distinct ways as

\[10 = 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 10,\]

which gives a new pair of equivalent triplets

\[(4, 25, 40) \text{ and } (49, 10, 10).\]

Previous proposition can be easily generalized:

Proposition 2. For a given $k \in \mathbb{N}$, let $a_i, b_i, c_i, d_i, e_i, f_i$ be positive integers such that

\[\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i b_i c_i = \sum_{i=1}^{k} d_i e_i f_i.\]

Then the multisets

\[A = \{a_i^2 c_i, b_i^2 c_i, (d_i + e_i)^2 f_i : i = 1, \ldots, k\}\]

and

\[B = \{(a_i + b_i)^2 c_i, d_i^2 f_i, e_i^2 f_i : i = 1, \ldots, k\}\]

belong to the same equivalence class of $\rho$.

Proof. Both $A$ and $B$ have $3k$ elements and the sum of square roots of their elements is equal to $\sum_{i=1}^{k} (a_i + b_i) c_i + (d_i + e_i) f_i$. For the sum of elements of $A$ and $B$, we have

\[\sum_{x \in A} x = \sum_{i=1}^{k} (a_i^2 + b_i^2) c_i + (d_i^2 + e_i^2) f_i + 2d_i e_i f_i = \sum_{i=1}^{k} (a_i^2 + b_i^2) c_i + (d_i^2 + e_i^2) f_i + 2a_i b_i c_i = \sum_{y \in B} y. \]

This proposition has even more freedom than Proposition 1. For example, 10 can be written in distinct ways as

\[10 = 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 4 + 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 5 + 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 5,\]

yielding $(a_1, b_1, c_1, a_2, b_2, c_2) = (1, 1, 4, 2, 3, 1)$ and $(d_1, e_1, f_1, d_2, e_2, f_2) = (1, 1, 5, 1, 1, 5)$. Proposition 2 now gives equivalent multisets

\[\{4, 4, 20, 4, 9, 20\} \text{ and } \{16, 5, 5, 25, 5, 5\}.\]
3 Operations in $S/\rho$

We can introduce two operations to $S$ which agree with $\rho$ to construct equivalence classes with more than two multisets. First, declare scalar to be a positive integer. Then for scalar $\alpha$ and multiset $A \in S$, the product $\alpha A$ is defined as

$$\alpha A = \{\alpha a : a \in A\}.$$ 

The second operation is the union $A \uplus B$ of multisets $A$ and $B$, which preserves multiplicities of their elements: if $a$ appears $m$ times in $A$ and $n$ times in $B$, then $a$ appears $m + n$ times in $A \uplus B$.

**Proposition 3.** For any $\alpha \in N$ and $A, B, C, D \in S$,

$$A \rho B \implies \alpha A \rho \alpha B,$$

$$A \rho B, C \rho D \implies A \uplus C \rho B \uplus D.$$ 

**Proof.** The sum of elements in $\alpha A$ is $\alpha$ times the sum of elements in $A$. Similarly, the sum of square roots of elements in $\alpha A$ is $\sqrt{\alpha}$ times the sum of square roots of elements in $A$. Thus, from $A \rho B$ it follows that $\alpha A \rho \alpha B$.

Next, we have

$$\sum_{x \in A \uplus C} x = \sum_{x \in A} x + \sum_{x \in C} x = \sum_{x \in B} x + \sum_{x \in D} x = \sum_{x \in B \uplus D} x,$$

and, similarly,

$$\sum_{x \in A \uplus C} \sqrt{x} = \sum_{x \in A} \sqrt{x} + \sum_{x \in C} \sqrt{x} = \sum_{x \in B} \sqrt{x} + \sum_{x \in D} \sqrt{x} = \sum_{x \in B \uplus D} \sqrt{x}.$$ 

Thus, $A \uplus C \rho B \uplus D.$

These two operations now provide a simple way to create arbitrarily large equivalence classes. Namely, for any $A \rho B$, $n \in N$ and $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in N$, it follows from Proposition 3 that

$$\alpha_1 A \uplus \alpha_2 A \uplus \cdots \alpha_n A \uplus \alpha_n A$$

$$\rho \quad \alpha_1 B \uplus \alpha_2 A \uplus \cdots \alpha_{n-1} A \uplus \alpha_n A$$

$$\rho \quad \alpha_1 B \uplus \alpha_2 B \uplus \cdots \alpha_{n-1} A \uplus \alpha_n A$$

$$\rho \quad \cdots$$

$$\rho \quad \alpha_1 B \uplus \alpha_2 B \uplus \cdots \alpha_{n-1} B \uplus \alpha_n A$$

$$\rho \quad \alpha_1 B \uplus \alpha_2 B \uplus \cdots \alpha_{n-1} B \uplus \alpha_n B.$$ 

Thus, this equivalence class contains at least $n + 1$ multisets, each of them containing $n|A|$ elements.

In particular, take $A = \{25, 6, 6\}$, $B = \{24, 9, 4\}$ and $\alpha_1 = \cdots = \alpha_n = 1$. Then for any $n \in N$, we have a set of $n + 1$ OIE-equienenergetic noncospectral decomposable graphs

$$S_{A_1 A_1 \cdots A_1 A_1 A_1}, S_{B_1 B_1 \cdots B_1 B_1 B_1}, S_{B_1 B_1 \cdots B_1 B_1 B_1 A_1 A_1 A_1 A_1 A_1 A_1 A_1} \cdots S_{B_1 B_1 \cdots B_1 B_1 B_1},$$

each of which has $34n + 1$ vertices and $65n$ edges.
4 Concluding remarks

Our last example shows that for any \( n \in \mathbb{N} \), there exists a set of \( n \) OIE-equienergetic noncospectral graphs with \( O(n) \) vertices. Propositions 1, 2 and 3 provide means to construct an abundance of further examples of OIE-equienergetic noncospectral graphs. It should be noted, however, that all these graphs have more vertices than what can be reached by a computer search on modern day computers, so that our finding, in fact, should not be considered contradictory to the conclusion from [25] that OIE-equienergetic graphs occur relatively rarely.

References


On the oriented incidence energy and decomposable graphs


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