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# X<sup>k</sup>-Digraphs

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Let G be a directed graph on n vertices (single loops allowed) such that there are  $\lambda$  directed paths of length k from P to Q for any distinct pair of vertices (P, Q). We prove that if n > 2 and k > 2. G is regular. The regular case is also discussed.

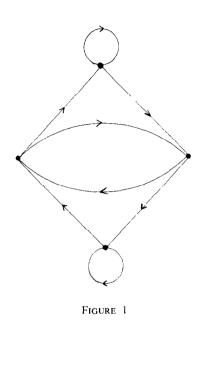
#### 1. INTRODUCTION

A polynomial digraph is a directed graph (loops allowed) whose (0, 1) adjacency matrix Z satisfies

$$f(Z) = D + \lambda J \tag{1.1}$$

for some real polynomial f(x), where D is diagonal,  $\lambda \neq 0$ , and J is the matrix all of whose entries are 1. This concept, definitively introduced in [2] based on Ryser's investigation [11] of the case  $f(x) = x^2$ , may be seen as a generalization of Hoffman's notion of the polynomial of a graph [4] and the subsequent extension to regular digraphs by Hoffman and MacAndrew [5]. We refer to the underlying digraph associated with (1.1) as an f(x)-graph and call Z the carrying matrix. We further agree to normalize by taking f(x) monic and f(0) = 0. If H is a digraph, then by the (looped) cone over H we mean the digraph obtained by adjoining a single new (looped) vertex joined both to and from all the vertices of H. We call a digraph regular if it is both in and out regular (ZJ = JZ). Ryser [11] exhibits all the non-regular  $x^2$ -graphs. They are all cones, namely, (1) the looped cone over a graph with no edges; (2) the unlooped cone over a disjoint set of double directed edges (this is an ordinary graph, the pinwheel) and the unlooped cone over the graph H of Fig. 1.1.

In [2] the first author exhibits all non-regular f(x)-graphs where f(x) is a quadratic polynomial. (While there are infinitely many such graphs only one is not a cone.) It is further proven in [3] that  $x^3$ -graphs on more than 2-vertices are regular and this extends to  $x^{2h+1}$ -graphs. We prove in Section 3



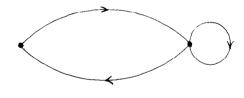


FIGURE 2

without restriction that  $x^k$ -graphs are regular for k > 2 excepting only the xgraph (Fig. 1.2) which is a non-regular  $x^k$ -graph for all k.

Regular  $x^k$ -graphs are themselves rather interesting and have received considerable attention [6–9, 10]. In Section 4 we discuss these and point out a brief proof of Lam's result [9] that there are no non-trivial regular  $x^2$ graphs with circulant adjacency matrix. The next section contains background information on polynomial digraphs needed for the proof of the main theorem.

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### 2. BACKGROUND ON POLYNOMIAL DIGRAPHS

Let  $A_1,...,A_t$  be (0, 1) matrices of orders  $n_i \times n_i$ , i = 1,...,t. By the complementary direct sum [2] of the  $A_i$  we mean the  $(0, 1) \sum n_i \times \sum n_i$  matrix

$$c \cdot d \cdot s \cdot (A_i)_1^t = J - \sum_{i=1}^t \bigoplus (J - A_i), \qquad (2.1)$$

where  $\Sigma \oplus$  is the usual direct sum. The following theorem appears in [2]:

THEOREM 2.1. Let Z carry an f(x)-graph. Then to within permutation similarity Z is a complementary direct sum of t regular f(x)-graph adjacency matrices where  $t \leq \text{degree}(f(x))$ .

In this theorem if  $Z = c \cdot d \cdot s \cdot (Z_i)$ , we have  $f(Z_i) = d_i I + \lambda_i J$ , say, but possibly  $\lambda_i = 0$ . We refer to the  $Z_i$ , or the associated subgraphs, as the regular constituents of Z. For  $f(x) = x^k$  the above theorem would say at most k constituents, but this is refined in |2| to:

THEOREM 2.2. A non-regular  $x^k$ -graph has two valences.

(Notice for f(x)-graphs the in degree of every vertex is the same as the out degree.) We then have the following structure to consider:

LEMMA 2.3. Let Z carry a non-regular  $x^k$ -graph. Then essentially

$$Z = \begin{pmatrix} Z_1 & J \\ J & Z_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (2.2)

where  $Z_i$  is  $n_i \times n_i$  (i = 1, 2) and

$$Z_i J = J Z_i = k_i J, \qquad Z_i^k = d_i I + \mu_i J.$$
 (2.3)

If  $Z^k = D + \lambda J$ , then

$$D = \text{diag}(\underbrace{d_1, ..., d_1}_{n_1}, \underbrace{d_2, ..., d_2}_{n_2})$$

and with

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} k_1 & n_2 \\ n_1 & k_2 \end{pmatrix}$$
(2.4)

we have

$$R^{k} = \begin{pmatrix} d_{1} + \lambda n_{1} & \lambda n_{2} \\ \lambda n_{1} & d_{2} + \lambda n_{2} \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (2.5)

The final remark may be obtained by restricting  $Z^k = D + \lambda J$  to the subspace  $\{(x_1, ..., x_n) | x_1 = \cdots = x_{n_1}; x_{n_1+1} = \cdots = x_n\}$ .

# 3. $x^k$ -Graphs Are Regular

In this section we prove

THEOREM 3.1. Let n and k be positive integers both at least 3. An  $x^{k}$ -graph on n-vertices is regular.

*Proof.* We continue in the notation of Lemma 2.3. We define  $\lambda_i$  and  $\beta_i$  by

$$R^{i} = \lambda_{i}R + \beta_{i}I, \qquad i = 0, 1, 2, ...,$$
 (3.1)

and set

$$\gamma_i = n_i - k_i \ge 0, \qquad i = 1, 2.$$
 (3.2)

We then have

$$(\lambda_0, \beta_0) = (0, 1), (\lambda_1, \beta_1) = (1, 0), (\lambda_2, \beta_2) = (k_1 + k_2, k_1 \gamma_2 + k_2 \gamma_1 + \gamma_1 \gamma_2),$$
(3.3)

$$\lambda_{i+1} = \lambda_i \lambda_2 + \beta_i, \qquad \beta_{i+1} = \lambda_i \beta_2, \qquad i \ge 1.$$
(3.4)

Now since  $Z_i^k = d_i I + \mu_i J$  and  $Z_i$  has line sums  $k_i$  easily by induction,

$$0 \leqslant d_i + \mu_i \leqslant k_i^{k-1}, \tag{3.5}$$

as no entry of  $Z_i^k$  exceeds this bound. Moreover if  $n_i \ge 2$  we must have

$$k_i^{k-1} \geqslant \mu_i \geqslant 0. \tag{3.6}$$

Now we have also from Lemma 2.3

$$k_i^k = d_i + \mu_i n_i, \qquad i = 1, 2.$$
 (3.7)

We define for  $i \ge 0$ 

$$e_{i} = \beta_{i} - \gamma_{1}\lambda_{i},$$

$$f_{i} = \beta_{i} - \gamma_{2}\lambda_{i},$$

$$\tau_{i} = \frac{1}{n_{1}}(k_{1}^{i} - e_{i}),$$

$$\phi_{i} = \frac{1}{n_{2}}(k_{2}^{i} - f_{i}).$$
(3.8)

And note:

$$d_{1} = e_{k}, \quad d_{2} = f_{k}, \quad \mu_{1} = \tau_{k}, \quad \mu_{2} = \phi_{k}.$$
  

$$e_{i+1} = k_{1}e_{i} - n_{1}f_{i}; \quad f_{i+1} = k_{2}f_{i} - n_{2}e_{i}.$$
(3.9)

Direct calculation gives

$$e_{4} = (k_{1}^{3} + 2k_{1}^{2}k_{2} + k_{1}k_{2}^{2} + k_{1}^{2}\gamma_{2} + 2k_{1}\gamma_{1}\gamma_{2} + k_{2}^{2}\gamma_{1} + 2k_{1}k_{2}\gamma_{1})(\gamma_{2} - \gamma_{1}) + \gamma_{1}^{2}\gamma_{2}^{2},$$

$$f_{4} = (k_{2}^{3} + 2k_{1}^{2}k_{2} + k_{1}k_{2}^{2} + k_{2}^{2}\gamma_{1} + 2k_{2}\gamma_{1}\gamma_{2} + k_{1}^{2}\gamma_{2} + 2k_{1}k_{2}\gamma_{2})(\gamma_{1} - \gamma_{2}) + \gamma_{1}^{2}\gamma_{2}^{2}.$$
(3.10)

The theorem for k = 3 is established in [3] but we note it is available here by the observation that  $e_3 + \tau_3 < 0$  and if k = 3,  $e_3 + \tau_3 = d_1 + \mu_1 \ge 0$  using (3.9) and (3.5). We assume now  $k \ne 3$ .

LEMMA 3.2. For  $i \ge 4$ 

$$e_i = p_i(\gamma_2 - \gamma_1) + (-1)^i s_i \tag{3.11}$$

and

$$f_i = q_i(\gamma_1 - \gamma_2) + (-1)^i t_i$$
(3.12)

for suitable  $p_i > k_1^{i-1}, q_i > k_2^{i-1}$ , and  $s_i = t_i = (\gamma_1 \gamma_2)^{i/2}$  if *i* is even and  $\gamma_2 s_i = \gamma_1 t_i = (\gamma_1 \gamma_2)^{1(i+1)/2}$  if *i* is odd.

*Proof.* We proceed by induction on *i* citing (3.10) for i = 4 and establish the claim for  $e_i$  as the case for  $f_i$  follows by the symmetric role of  $Z_1$  and  $Z_2$ . Now the recursion (3.9) gives

$$e_{i+1} = k_1 e_i - n_1 f_i = k_1 p_i (\gamma_2 - \gamma_1) + (-1)^i k_1 s_i - n_1 q_i (\gamma_1 - \gamma_2) - (-1)^i n_1 t_i$$

$$= (\gamma_2 - \gamma_1) (k_1 p_i + n_1 q_i) + (-1)^i (k_1 s_i - n_1 t_i)$$
(3.13)

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and

 $k_1 p_i + n_1 q_i > k_1^i$  by induction.

As to  $s_{i+1}$  suppose *i* is even so  $s_i = (\gamma_1 \gamma_2)^{i/2} = t_i$ . Then

$$(-1)^{i} (k_{1}s_{i} - n_{1}t_{i}) = (\gamma_{1}\gamma_{2})^{i/2} (k_{1} - n_{1})$$
$$= (-1)^{i+1} (\gamma_{1}\gamma_{2})^{i/2} \gamma_{1}$$

so  $s_{i+1} = (\gamma_1 \gamma_2)^{i/2} \gamma_1$  as required. If *i* is odd,  $s_i = (\gamma_1 \gamma_2)^{(i-1)/2} \gamma_1$  and  $t_i = (\gamma_1 \gamma_2)^{(i-1)/2} \gamma_2$  and then

$$(-1)^{i} (k_{1}s_{i} - n_{1}t_{i}) = (-1)^{i} (\gamma_{1}\gamma_{2})^{(i-1)/2} (k_{1}\gamma_{1} - n_{1}\gamma_{2})$$
  
=  $(-1)^{i} (\gamma_{1}\gamma_{2})^{(i-1)/2} (k_{1}\gamma_{1} - k_{1}\gamma_{2} - \gamma_{1}\gamma_{2})$   
=  $(\gamma_{2} - \gamma_{1})(k_{1}(\gamma_{1}\gamma_{2})^{(i-1)/2}) + (-1)^{i+1} (\gamma_{1}\gamma_{2})^{(i+1)/2}.$ 

So here  $p_{i+1} = k_1 p_i + n_1 q_i + k_1 (\gamma_1 \gamma_2)^{(i-1)/2}$  and  $s_{i+1} = (\gamma_1 \gamma_2)^{(i+1)/2}$  so the lemma is established.

LEMMA 3.3. If  $n_1 > 1$  and  $n_2 > 1$ ,  $k \leq 2$ .

*Proof.* We assume  $\gamma_2 > \gamma_1$  (note  $\gamma_1 = \gamma_2$  is regularity). Suppose  $k \ge 4$ . If k is odd by Lemma 3.2 and (3.9)  $d_2 = f_k < -k_2^{k-1}$  and from (3.6) and (3.9)  $\phi_k = \mu_2 \le k_2^{k-1}$  whence  $d_2 + \mu_2 < 0$  in conflict with (3.5). If k is even, we have  $e_k > k_1^{k-1}$  and since  $\mu_1 \ge 0$ ,  $d_1 + \mu_1 = e_k + \mu_1 > k_1^{k-1}$  in conflict with (3.5) completing the proof.

This leaves us with the case that  $n_1 = 1$  say, the graph is a cone. Suppose  $\gamma_2 > \gamma_1 \ge 0$ . If  $\gamma_1 = 1$ , then  $k_1 = 0$  and we have from (3.9) that  $e_{i+1} = -f_i$  and  $f_{i+1} = k_2 f_i + n_2 f_{i-1}$  for  $i \ge 1$ . Now from (3.8)

$$\phi_{i+1} = \frac{1}{n_2} (k_2^{i+1} - f_{i+1}) = k_2 \phi_i - f_{i-1}$$

so that

$$f_{i+1} + \phi_{i+1} = k_2(f_i + \phi_i) + (n_2 - 1)f_{i-1}.$$
(3.14)

Now one can check that  $f_2 \leq 0$  and  $f_3 < 0$  directly so that  $f_i < 0$  for  $i \geq 3$  and also one may compute

$$f_3 + \phi_3 = k_2^2(2 - \gamma_2) - 2k_2 - \gamma_2 - \gamma_2^2 - k_2\gamma_2(k_2 - 1) < 0$$

in this case. Then (3.14) gives  $f_i + \phi_i < 0$  for  $i \ge 3$  contrary to  $d_2 + \mu_2 = f_k + \phi_k \ge 0$ .

Now if  $\gamma_1 = 0$ ,  $k_1 = 1$  and, from Lemma 3.2,  $d_2 = f_k < -k_2^{k-1}$  and with

(3.6),  $d_2 + \mu_2 < 0$  and again (3.5) is violated. This leaves only the case  $\gamma_2 = 0$ , i.e.,  $Z_2 = J$  so that  $\gamma_1 = 1$  and  $k_1 = 0$ . Direct calculation reveals that the (1, 2) entry of  $Z^i$  is less than the (2, 3) entry for every *i* in this case so that unless n = 2 (the graph of Fig. 2)  $Z^i \neq D + \lambda J$ . This completes the proof of Theorem 3.1.

## 4. THE REGULAR CASE

We begin with the following easy observation.

THEOREM 4.1. Let  $\mathscr{A}$  be an algebra of  $n \times n$  real symmetric matrices containing I. If A is normal and  $A^m \in \mathscr{A}$ , then  $AA^t \in \mathscr{A}$ .

**Proof.** Since  $\mathscr{A}$  contains only symmetric matrices we have  $(A^m)^t = (A^t)^m = A^m \in \mathscr{A}$ . Since A is normal,  $A^m (A^t)^m = (AA^t)^m \in \mathscr{A}$ . Now  $(AA^t)^m = X \in \mathscr{A}$  say and X is positive semi-definite evidently. Thus X has a unique positive semi-definite mth root which, being a polynomial in X, lies in  $\mathscr{A}$  [12]. But this root is  $AA^t$ .

COROLLARY 4.2. Let A carry a regular  $x^m$ -graph. Suppose A is normal. Then A is the incidence matrix of a  $(v, k, \lambda)$ -configuration.

*Proof.* Apply the theorem to  $\mathscr{A} = \{aI + bJ | a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}.$ 

COROLLARY 4.3. The carrying matrix of a regular  $x^2$ -graph is normal if and only if it is symmetric.

**Proof.** If A is nonsingular, since A sends A,  $A^t$ , J into the twodimensional algebra  $\mathscr{A}$  above, these matrices must be linearly dependent. If A is singular, we have  $A^2 = \mu J$ ,  $AA^t = kJ$  easily, then  $\mu = k$  and in any event  $A = A^t$ .

COROLLARY 4.4 (Lam [9]). There are no non-trivial circulant (0, 1) matrices A satisfying  $A^2 = dI + \lambda J$ .

*Proof.* By Corollary 4.3, A would be symmetric and thus correspond to a cyclic difference set with -1 as a multiplier which is known to be impossible |1|.

COROLLARY 4.5. A symmetric matrix A carrying an  $x^{2m}$ -graph actually carries an  $x^2$ -graph.

We conclude by noting that a circulant  $n \times n$  matrix carrying an  $x^2$ -graph would correspond to a "addition set," Y, in the cyclic group  $Z_n$ , i.e., every non-zero residue appears  $\lambda$  times among the sums x + y,  $y \in Y$ . While

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these provide only trivial  $x^2$ -graphs we note that the set  $\{\alpha, \beta, \alpha\beta\}$  is an "addition set" in the dihedral group  $D_4 = \langle \alpha, \beta | \alpha^4 = \beta^2 = e; \beta\alpha\beta = \alpha^3 \rangle$  giving rise to

								~	
<i>A</i> =	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	
	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	
	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	
	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	
	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	
	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	
	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	
	lo	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	ļ

satisfying  $A^2 = I + J$ . This solution, of trace zero, is non-isomorphic to Ryser's solution [11] with these parameters.

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