

Rotagraphs and Their Generalizations

Tomaž Pisanski* and Arjana Žitnik

Institute of Mathematics, Physics and Mechanics, Jadranska 19, 61111 Ljubljana, Slovenia

Ante Graovac

The Rugjer Bošković Institute, HR-41001 Zagreb, POB 1016, Croatia

Anton Baumgartner

University of Ljubljana, Department of Mathematics, Jadranska 19, 61111 Ljubljana, Slovenia

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The chemical concept of polymers can be applied to graph theory in order to define polygraphs. The most useful polygraphs are rotagraphs. They present a concise description of large graphs. By allowing distant monographs to be mutually connected as well as linked to some particular vertices generalizations of rotagraphs are achieved. Generalized rotagraphs appear as a convenient means to describe a series of highly symmetrical polyhedra and fullerene graphs.

INTRODUCTION

Polymers are described graph-theoretically by polygraphs.¹ In a similar way as a polymer is built from monomers, a polygraph is obtained from smaller building blocks, called monographs.

Cycles are frequently used graphs, e.g., in chemistry they represent annulenes. Cycle C_m with m vertices is depicted in Figure 1.

Let us replace the vertex set $V(C_m)$ of C_m by a set G_1, G_2, \dots, G_m of arbitrary, mutually disjoint graphs. We call them *monographs* in analogy with the chemical notion of monomers. Let us further replace a single edge e_i of C_m by a set of edges, $X_i \subseteq V(G_i) \times V(G_{i+1})$, connecting the i th and $(i + 1)$ th monograph. In particular, when $i = m$, one defines $X_m \subseteq V(G_m) \times V(G_1)$. When all edges are replaced in a similar manner a *polygraph*, $\Omega_m = \Omega_m(G_1, G_2, \dots, G_m; X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m)$ is obtained with $V(\Omega_m) = V(G_1) \cup V(G_2) \cup \dots \cup V(G_m)$, $E(\Omega_m) = E(G_1) \cup X_1 \cup E(G_2) \cup X_2 \cup \dots \cup E(G_m) \cup X_m$ where $E(G)$ denotes the edge set of G . The name originates from the chemical analogy: in a similar way as a polymer is built from monomers, a polygraph is built from smaller building graphs, call monographs.

Note that Ω_m is closed on itself. A polygraph Γ_m which is open on its ends can be viewed as a special case of Ω_m with $X_m = \emptyset$ being an empty set. Γ_m represents a generalization of the path P_m (Figure 1).

ROTAGRAPHS

Further on we assume the uniformity of the monographs and edges connecting them: $G = G_1 = G_2 = \dots = G_m$, $X = X_1 = X_2 = \dots = X_m$. The appropriate polygraph with closed ends is called a *rotagraph* and denoted by $\omega_m = \omega_m(G; X)$; the polygraph with open ends is called *fasciagraph* and denoted by $\gamma_m = \gamma_m(G; X)$. Results on various graph theoretical invariants of interest in chemistry (the matching² and characteristic polynomials,^{2,3} perfect matchings,⁴ Hosoya index,⁵ algebraic structure count,⁶ domination number,⁷ and others⁸) in rota- and fasciagraphs have been presented in the literature.

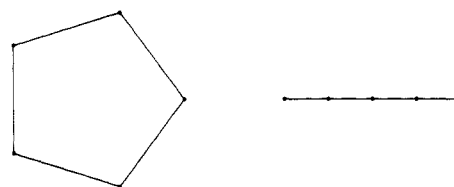


Figure 1. Cycle C_m and path P_m for $m = 5$.

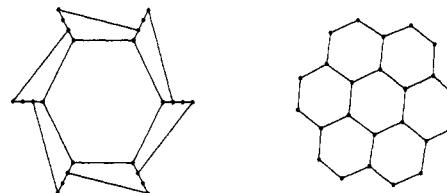


Figure 2. Rotagraph $\omega_6(4; \{1,1\}, \{4,2\})$ with monograph P_4 and its "Nice-Graph" geometrical representation.

Generally, different monographs and connecting edges could lead to the same rotagraph. A very convenient situation arises when the monograph G is a path. In such a case we use a shorthand notation: $\omega_m(P_n; X)$ is abbreviated to $\omega_m(n; X)$.

Example 1. Let $n = 4$ and $X = \{1,1\}, \{4,2\}$. Then the rotagraph $\omega_6 = \omega_6(4; X)$ is as in Figure 2.

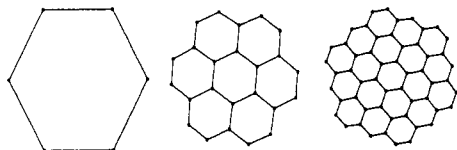
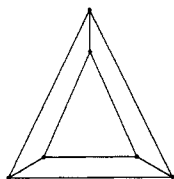
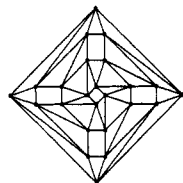
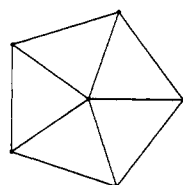
ω_6 is a generalization of the cycle C_6 which can be geometrically represented by a hexagon. By replacing each vertex of C_6 by a path P_4 drawn as a straight line coming radially out of hexagon and by representing X with the straight lines, one sets the geometrical representation of ω_6 as in Figure 2. Another representation, also shown in Figure 2, is obtained by using the spring embedding algorithm of Kamada and Kawai⁹ which is implemented in the system Vega 0.2 as a Mathematica package NiceGraph.¹⁰ It automatically determines the vertex coordinates of a graph. The result will be called the NiceGraph geometrical representation.

Example 2. Let r be a positive integer and let

$$X = \{1,1\}, \{4,2\}, \{7,3\}, \{9,5\}, \dots, \{r^2, (r-1)^2 + 1\} \\ = \{1,1\} \cup \bigcup_{k=1}^{r-1} \bigcup_{l=1}^k \{k^2 + 2l + 1, (k-1)^2 + 2l\}$$

Then the rotagraph $\omega_6(r^2; X)$ represents coronenoid molecule

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 Figure 3. Coronenoid graphs with $r = 1-3$.

 Figure 4. Rotagraph $\omega_3(2; \{1,1\}, \{2,2\})$ represents triangular prism.

 Figure 5. Rotagraph $\omega_4(C_6 + \{2,6\}, \{3,5\}; \{1,1\}, \{1,2\}, \{6,2\}, \{6,3\}, \{5,3\}, \{5,4\}, \{4,4\})$ represents the snub cube.

 Figure 6. Pyramid graph W_5 .

with $6r^2$ carbon atoms. Coronenoid graphs with $r = 1-3$ are shown in Figure 3.

We would like to point out that the example 2 is representative of the coronene one-isomer series first presented by Dias.^{17,18}

Example 3. Let $n = 2$ and let $X = \{1,1\}, \{2,2\}$. Then the rotagraph $\omega_m(n; X)$ represents the graph of m -sided prism. The case $m = 3$ is shown in Figure 4.

Example 4. Let

$$X = \{1,1\}, \{1,2\}, \{6,2\}, \{6,3\}, \{5,3\}, \{5,4\}, \{4,4\}$$

and let G be a graph, obtained from C_6 by adding the edges $\{2,6\}$ and $\{3,5\}$. Then the rotagraph $\omega_4(G; X)$ in Figure 5 represents the graph of the snub cube. For the definition of snub cube see ref 12.

PYRAMIGRAPHS

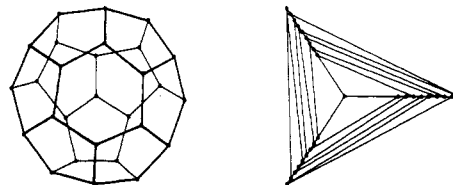
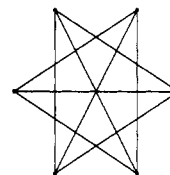
Let us connect all vertices of a cycle C_m to an additional vertex u . A graph W_m obtained in the following way

$$V(W_m) = V(C_m) \cup \{u\}$$

$$E(W_m) = E(C_m) \cup \bigcup_{k=1}^m \{k, u\}$$

is depicted in Figure 6. It is called a *wheel* or a *pyramid*; the latter name stems from its geometrical representation.

In a similar way as a cycle was generalized to yield a rotagraph, a pyramid graph can be generalized too: each vertex and edge of C_m is replaced by G and X , respectively, and the distinguished vertex u of W_m is connected by edges


 Figure 7. Fullerene C_{28} as a proper pyramigraph $\pi_3(9; \{1,3\}, \{2,6\}, \{4,7\}, \{5,9\}, \{8,9\})$.

 Figure 8. Circulant graph $C(6;2,3)$ is isomorphic to the prism $\omega_3(2; \{1,1\}, \{2,2\})$.

with some subset $Q \subset V(G)$ in each copy of G . A graph π_m obtained in such a way

$$V(\pi_m) = V(\omega_m) \cup \{u\}$$

$$E(\pi_m) = E(\omega_m) \cup \bigcup_{k=1}^m \bigcup_{q \in Q_k} \{q, u\}$$

where $G = G_1 = G_2 = \dots = G_m$, $Q = Q_1 = Q_2 = \dots = Q_m$ is called a *pyramigraph*.

A very convenient situation appears when Q contains a single vertex. Such a graph π_m is then called a *proper pyramigraph*. It is denoted by $\pi_m(G; X)$. Proper pyramigraphs with monograph G being a path are of special interest.

Example 5. Let $G = P_9$ with $X = \{1,3\}, \{2,6\}, \{4,7\}, \{5,9\}, \{8,9\}$ and $Q = \{1\}$. Then the proper pyramigraph π_3 is as in Figure 7. It represents the C_{28} cage (of T_d symmetry) which is the smallest fullerene up to now to form in substantial abundance.¹³

The concept of the pyramigraph can be further generalized by adding the second distinguished vertex and thus obtaining *bipyramigraphs* and in general *polypyramigraphs*.

POLYCIRCULANT GRAPHS

Let us consider a union $v_0 \cup v_1 \cup \dots \cup v_{m-1}$ of m disjoint vertices. Let us now connect the vertex v_0 with k distinct vertices $v_{s_1}, v_{s_2}, \dots, v_{s_k}$, the vertex v_1 with k distinct vertices $v_{s_1+1}, v_{s_2+1}, \dots, v_{s_k+1}$, etc., where s_j 's are integers, $1 \leq s_1 \leq s_2 \leq \dots \leq s_k \leq (m-1)$. A graph obtained in such a way is denoted by $C(m; s_1, s_2, \dots, s_k)$ and is called the *circulant graph*. For consistency we take $v_j = v_{j+m}$, $j = 0, 1, \dots, m-1$.

Example 6. Let $m = 6$, $k = 2$, $s_1 = 2$, and $s_2 = 3$. Then the circulant graph $C(6; 2, 3)$ is as in Figure 8.

The cycle graph C_n is a special case of the circulant graph $C_n = C(n; 1)$. In parallel with generalization of the cycle graphs to rotagraphs, the circulant graphs can be generalized as well by replacing the vertex set of a circulant graph with arbitrary graphs and by replacing every edge of the circulant graph by a set of edges. These generalized graphs are called *polycirculants*. In the special case, where each vertex of the circulant graph $C(m; s_1, \dots, s_k)$ is replaced by the same graph G and every edge $\{v_i, v_{s_j+i}\}$ corresponds to the same edge set X_{s_j} , the polycirculant graph is called the *generalized rotagraph*, and it is denoted by $\omega_m(G; X'_1 \cup \dots \cup X'_k)$. Here X'_i denotes a set of triples obtained from X_i by adding the index i to each element of X_i , and $X'_1 = X_1$.

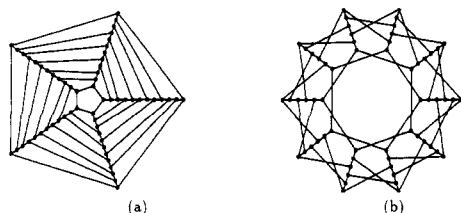


Figure 9. The representation of the $I_h:C_{60}$ fullerene graph (a) as a rotagraph and (b) as a polycirculant $\omega_{10}(6;\{\{1,1,2\},\{3,6\},\{5,4\},\{6,2\}\})$.

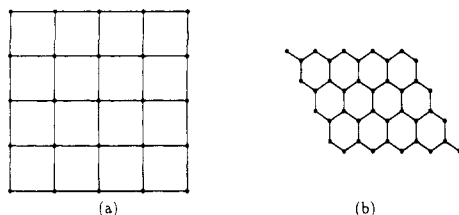


Figure 10. $\omega(1;\{\{1,1\},\{1,1\}\})$ and $\omega(2;\{\{1,2\},\{1,2\}\})$.

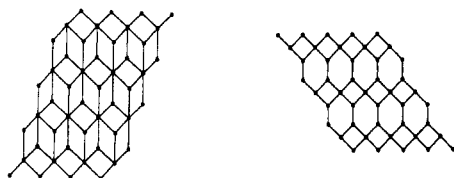


Figure 11. $\omega(3;\{\{2,1\},\{3,2\},\{2,1\},\{3,2\}\})$ and $\omega(3;\{\{1,2\},\{2,3\},\{3,1\}\})$.

The procedure is illustrated in Figure 9 where the well-known buckminsterfullerene graph, the $I_h:C_{60}$ fullerene graph, is depicted as a rotagraph (a) as well as a polycirculant (b). The advantage of representing rotagraphs as polycirculants is obvious. The monograph has a smaller number of vertices, and therefore the code is more compact. Moreover, the factorization of various graph-theoretical quantities in rotagraphs becomes simpler, thus enabling their easier computation. For instance, by using this approach, Hosoya was able to obtain the spectrum of $I_h:C_{60}$ graph analytically.¹¹

ROTA-ROTAGRAPHS

Allowing monographs to connect in two or more directions, we generalize rotagraphs to *rota-rotagraphs*. The n -dimensional rota-rotagraph can be defined recursively from rotagraphs

$$\omega_{m_1,m_2}(G;X_1,X_2) = \omega_{m_2}(\omega_{m_1}(G;X_1), m_1X_2)$$

where m_1X_2 means m_1 times the edge set X_2 , each copy going from a distant monograph G , and

$$\begin{aligned} &\omega_{m_1,m_2,\dots,m_n}(G;X_1,X_2,\dots,X_n) \\ &= \omega_{m_n}(\omega_{m_1,m_2,\dots,m_{n-1}}(G;X_1,X_2,\dots,X_{n-1}), m_nm_2\dots m_{n-1}X_n) \end{aligned}$$

Similarly as in one dimension, some ends may be open, and we obtain *fascia-rotagraphs* or, if all the end are open, *fascia-fasciagraphs*. In two dimensions, we can imagine a rota-rotagraph being a torus, fascia-rotagraph being a cylinder, and a fascia-fasciagraph being a part of the plane. Very important are also rota-rotagraphs which are infinite in one or more dimensions. If they are infinite in all dimensions, we omit the indices m_i .

Figures 10–14 show some infinite graphs which can be represented as rota-rotagraphs (graphs from Figures 10–13 are taken from ref 14).

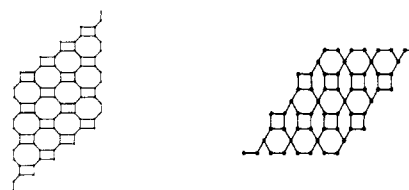


Figure 12. $\omega(4;\{\{3,1\},\{4,2\},\{4,1\}\})$ and $\omega(5;\{\{1,3\},\{3,5\},\{1,4\},\{2,5\}\})$.

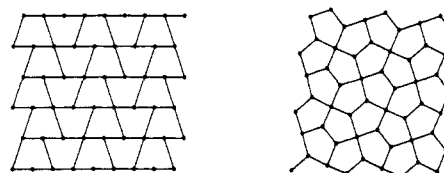


Figure 13. Two drawings of $\omega(P_6 + \{1,5\};\{\{1,3\},\{6,4\},\{4,2\},\{6,1\}\})$.

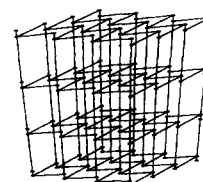


Figure 14. $\omega(2;\{\{1,2\},\{1,2\},\{1,2\}\})$.

Example 7. The most familiar example of a two-dimensional system of indefinite extent is a layer of graphite. It can be represented as $\omega(2;\{\{1,2\},\{1,2\}\})$, as in Figure 10b.

Example 8. Three-dimensional rota-rotagraphs can be applied to represent crystals. The topology of an infinite diamond crystal can be represented as $\omega(2;\{\{1,2\},\{1,2\},\{1,2\}\})$, see Figure 14.

CONCLUSION

Rotagraphs and rota-rotagraphs are not new. They are known mathematical objects. They are a special case of *covering graphs*. See for instance ref 15. Rotagraphs are exactly those covering graphs that can be described with voltage graphs whose voltage group is cyclic, and the voltages are either 0 or 1. The rota-rotagraphs have Abelian voltage group. Finally, the polycirculant graphs are exactly the covering graphs with cyclic voltage group. Some of these facts are mentioned and developed in the diploma thesis.¹⁶

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