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## Alpha Adjacency: A generalization of adjacency matrices

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## $\alpha$ -ADJACENCY: A GENERALIZATION OF ADJACENCY MATRICES\*

M. HUDELSON<sup>†</sup>, J. MCDONALD<sup>†</sup>, AND E. WENDLER<sup>†</sup>

**Abstract.** B. Shader and W. So introduced the idea of the skew adjacency matrix. Their idea was to give an orientation  $\delta$  to a simple undirected graph  $G$  from which a skew adjacency matrix  $S(G^\delta)$  is created. The  $\alpha$ -adjacency matrix extends this idea to an arbitrary field  $\mathbb{F}$ . To study the underlying undirected graph, the average  $\alpha$ -characteristic polynomial can be created by averaging the characteristic polynomials over all the possible orientations. In particular, a Harary-Sachs theorem for the average  $\alpha$ -characteristic polynomial is derived and used to determine a few features of the graph from the average  $\alpha$ -characteristic polynomial.

**Key words.** Graph spectra, Adjacency matrices.

**AMS subject classifications.** 05C31, 05C50.

**1. Introduction.** Let  $G$  be a simple graph with a vertex set  $V = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . The (standard) adjacency matrix  $A$  is defined by  $a_{ij} = 1$  if  $i$  is adjacent to  $j$ , (i.e., if  $ij$  is an edge) and  $a_{ij} = 0$  if  $i$  is not adjacent to  $j$ . The (standard) spectrum of a graph is the spectrum of its adjacency matrix. While the adjacency matrix does depend on the labeling of the vertices, the spectrum does not.

As the spectrum of a graph is uniquely determined by the characteristic polynomial of its adjacency matrix, we will often only focus on the characteristic polynomial. A useful result in calculating the characteristic polynomial is the Harary-Sachs Theorem.

We let  $\mathcal{U}_k$  denote the collection of edges and cycles no two on which share a vertex that cover exactly  $k$  vertices. We will say  $\vec{U}$  is a *routing* of  $U \in \mathcal{U}_k$  and denote this  $\vec{U} \sim U$  if  $\vec{U}$  can be obtained by directing the cycles in  $U$ .

**THEOREM 1.1** ([2], Theorem 1.3). *The characteristic polynomial for (the standard adjacency matrix) of a undirected graph  $G$  is given by*

$$(1.1) \quad p(x) = x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1}x + a_n$$

in which the coefficients are

$$(1.2) \quad a_k = \sum_{\vec{U} \in \vec{\mathcal{U}}_k} (-1)^{\#\vec{U}} = \sum_{U \in \mathcal{U}_k} (-1)^{\#U} 2^{c(U)},$$

where  $\#U$  denotes the number of connected components in  $U$  and  $c(U)$  denotes the number of cycles (not including edges) in  $U$ .

This can be generalized to a weighted directed graph, in which the  $ij$  entry in the adjacency matrix is the weight of the arc from  $i$  to  $j$  or 0 if there is no arc. The Harary-Sachs theorem can be extended in this case.

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THEOREM 1.2 ([2], Theorem 1.3 with equation (1.35)). *The characteristic polynomial of a weighted digraph  $D(A)$  is given by*

$$(1.3) \quad p(x) = x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_{n-1}x + a_n$$

in which the coefficients are given by

$$(1.4) \quad a_k = \sum_{\vec{U} \in \vec{\mathcal{U}}_k} (-1)^{\#\vec{U}} \Pi_{\vec{U}}(A),$$

where  $\vec{\mathcal{U}}_k$  is the collection of all sets of vertex disjoint dicycles on exactly  $k$  vertices,  $\#(\vec{U})$  is the number of cycles in  $\vec{U}$  and  $\Pi_{\vec{U}}(A)$  is the product of the weights of the edges in  $U$ .

**2.  $\alpha$ -Characteristic polynomials and spectra.** The notion of skew spectra was introduced by B. Shader and W. So in [5] and was used to distinguish co-spectral graphs in [1]. The idea is to introduce an orientation  $\delta : E \rightarrow \{-1, 1\}$  to a simple undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$ . We replace each edge with two directed arcs, one with weight 1 and the other with weight  $-1$ , and we denote the new digraph by  $G^\delta = (V, E^\delta)$ . The skew adjacency matrix  $S(G^\delta)$  is a  $\{-1, 0, 1\}$  matrix which is the weighted adjacency matrix of  $G^\delta$ .

The weight  $\Pi_{\vec{U}}$  of a routing  $\vec{U}$  in a skew symmetric graph could be either  $\pm 1$  depending on the orientation  $\delta$ . Thus, for a given graph  $G$ , there may be multiple skew spectra depending on the orientation. In [1] it is shown that the skew adjacency matrices  $S$  of a graph  $G$  are all cospectral if and only if  $G$  contains no even cycles.

Similar to skew adjacency, we will use an orientation  $\delta : E \rightarrow \{-1, 1\}$  to define the  $\alpha$ -adjacency matrix  $H_\alpha(G^\delta) = [h_{ij}]$ . Let  $\mathbb{F}$  represent an arbitrary field, let  $\alpha$  be an indeterminate or a non-zero field element, and define the  $\alpha$ -adjacency matrix by

$$h_{ij} = \begin{cases} \alpha^{\delta(ij)} & \text{if } (ij) \in E, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We will often use a directed graph to denote the orientation of an oriented graph by only showing the edges  $ij$  such that  $\delta(ij) = 1$ . Figure 1 shows the construction of an  $\alpha$ -oriented graph from a simple graph  $G$ . Figure 2 shows the simplified drawing of the oriented graph and the  $\alpha$ -adjacency matrix of the graph in Figure 1.

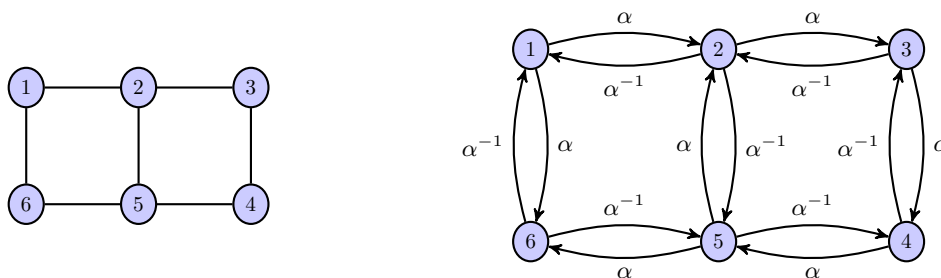


FIGURE 1. Example of an  $\alpha$ -orientation of  $G$ .

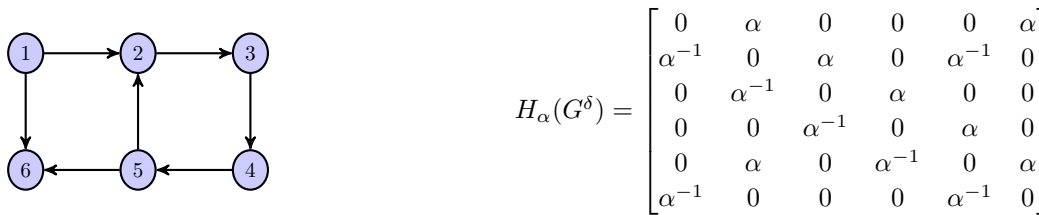


FIGURE 2. Simplified drawing of the orientation in Figure 1 and the  $\alpha$ - $\delta$ -adjacency matrix.

Often it is convenient to use the field of complex numbers and let  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$  be such that  $|\alpha| = 1$ . Notice that  $H_1(G^\delta) = A(G)$  and so when  $\alpha = 1$  we recover the standard adjacency matrix. Note that this is independent of the choice of the orientation  $\delta$ . We can also recover the skew-adjacency matrix  $S^\delta$  by setting  $\alpha = i$  and scaling the resulting matrix by  $-i$ , that is,  $-iH_i(G^\delta) = S(G^\delta)$ . Also notice that if  $|\alpha| = 1$ , then  $\alpha^{-1} = \bar{\alpha}$ , and thus, these  $\alpha$ -adjacency matrices are Hermitian matrices.

For a routing,  $\vec{U}$ , let  $\delta(\vec{U}) = \sum_{ij \in \vec{U}} \delta(ij)$ . Then we have that

$$(2.5) \quad \Pi_{\vec{U}}(H_\alpha^\delta) = \Pi_{(ij) \in \vec{U}} \alpha^{\delta(ij)} = \alpha^{\delta(\vec{U})}.$$

This is different than is typically used for skew spectra where a product is used instead of a sum.

Given a cycle  $C$  in  $G$ , there are two routings of  $C$ ,  $\vec{C}$  and  $\overleftarrow{C}$ . Note that  $\delta(\vec{C}) = -\delta(\overleftarrow{C})$ . We will use the notation  $\delta(C) = |\delta(\vec{C})|$ .

Our first result is to extend the Harary-Sachs theorem for  $\alpha$ -adjacency matrices.

**THEOREM 2.1.** *Given a graph  $G$  and an orientation  $\delta$  on  $G$ , the characteristic polynomial of  $H_\alpha^\delta(G)$  is given by*

$$(2.6) \quad p_H(x) = x^n + h_1 x^{n-1} + \cdots + h_{n-1} x + h_n$$

in which the coefficients are given by

$$(2.7) \quad h_k = \sum_{\vec{U} \in \vec{\mathcal{U}}_k} (-1)^{\#\vec{U}} \left( \frac{\alpha^{\delta(\vec{U})} + \alpha^{-\delta(\vec{U})}}{2} \right)$$

$$(2.8) \quad = \sum_{U \in \mathcal{U}_k} (-1)^{\#U} \prod_{\substack{C \in U \\ |C| \geq 3}} (\alpha^{\delta(C)} + \alpha^{-\delta(C)}),$$

where  $\#U$  is the number of components in  $U$ .

*Proof.* From (1.4) and (2.5) we obtain

$$h_k = \sum_{\vec{U} \in \vec{\mathcal{U}}_k} (-1)^{\#\vec{U}} \alpha^{\delta(\vec{U})}.$$

Further notice that  $\vec{U} \in \vec{\mathcal{U}}_k$  if and only if  $\overleftarrow{U} \in \vec{\mathcal{U}}_k$ , where  $\overleftarrow{U}$  is obtained by reversing the directions of all the cycles in  $\vec{U}$ . Also note that  $\#\vec{U} = \#\overleftarrow{U}$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\vec{U} \in \vec{\mathcal{U}}_k} (-1)^{\#\vec{U}} \alpha^{\delta(\vec{U})} &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\vec{U} \in \vec{\mathcal{U}}_k} \left( (-1)^{\#\vec{U}} \alpha^{\delta(\vec{U})} + (-1)^{\#\overleftarrow{U}} \alpha^{\delta(\overleftarrow{U})} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\vec{U} \in \vec{\mathcal{U}}_k} (-1)^{\#\vec{U}} \left( \alpha^{\delta(\vec{U})} + \alpha^{\delta(\overleftarrow{U})} \right) \\ &= \sum_{\vec{U} \in \vec{\mathcal{U}}_k} (-1)^{\#\vec{U}} \left( \frac{\alpha^{\delta(\vec{U})} + \alpha^{-\delta(\vec{U})}}{2} \right). \end{aligned}$$

This shows (2.7). Next, we note that to sum over all  $\vec{U} \in \vec{\mathcal{U}}_k$  we can first fix a  $U \in \mathcal{U}_k$  and sum over all routings of  $U$  and then sum over all  $U \in \mathcal{U}_k$ . Thus,

$$(2.9) \quad h_k = \sum_{\vec{U} \in \vec{\mathcal{U}}_k} (-1)^{\#\vec{U}} \alpha^{\delta(\vec{U})}$$

$$(2.10) \quad = \sum_{U \in \mathcal{U}_k} (-1)^{\#U} \sum_{\vec{U} \sim U} \alpha^{\delta(\vec{U})}.$$

Focusing on a fixed  $U \in \mathcal{U}_k$ , let  $U = C_1 \cup C_2 \cdots \cup C_p$ , where  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_p$  are the connected components of  $U$ . Note  $\vec{U} \sim U$  if and only if  $\vec{U} = \vec{C}_1 \cup \vec{C}_2 \cdots \cup \vec{C}_p$ , where  $\vec{C}_i \sim C_i$ . Further note that  $\delta(\vec{U}) = \sum_{i=1}^p \delta(\vec{C}_i)$ .

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\vec{U} \sim U} \alpha^{\delta(\vec{U})} &= \sum_{\vec{C}_1 \sim C_1} \sum_{\vec{C}_2 \sim C_2} \cdots \sum_{\vec{C}_p \sim C_p} \alpha^{\sum_{i=1}^p \delta(\vec{C}_i)} \\ &= \sum_{\vec{C}_1 \sim C_1} \sum_{\vec{C}_2 \sim C_2} \cdots \sum_{\vec{C}_p \sim C_p} \prod_{i=1}^p \alpha^{\delta(\vec{C}_i)} \\ &= \sum_{\vec{C}_1 \sim C_1} \alpha^{\delta(\vec{C}_1)} \sum_{\vec{C}_2 \sim C_2} \alpha^{\delta(\vec{C}_2)} \cdots \sum_{\vec{C}_p \sim C_p} \alpha^{\delta(\vec{C}_p)} \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^p \sum_{\vec{C}_i \sim C_i} \alpha^{\delta(\vec{C}_i)}. \end{aligned}$$

If  $C_i$  is an edge, then there is only one  $\vec{C}_i \sim C_i$  and  $\delta(C_i) = 0$ , hence  $\sum_{\vec{C}_i \sim C_i} \alpha^{\delta(\vec{C}_i)} = 1$ .

If  $C_i$  is a cycle of length 3 or more, then there exist two routings of  $C_i$ . We will denote these routings as  $\vec{C}_i$  and  $\overleftarrow{C}_i$ . Since  $\delta(\vec{C}_i) = -\delta(\overleftarrow{C}_i)$ , we get that  $\sum_{\vec{C}_i \sim C_i} \alpha^{\delta(\vec{C}_i)} = \alpha^{\delta(\vec{C}_i)} + \alpha^{\delta(\overleftarrow{C}_i)} = \alpha^{\delta(C_i)} + \alpha^{-\delta(C_i)}$ . It follows

that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\vec{U} \sim U} \alpha^{\delta(\vec{U})} &= \prod_{i=1}^p \sum_{\vec{C}_i \sim C_i} \alpha^{\delta(\vec{C}_i)} \\ &= \prod_{\substack{i=1 \\ |C_i| \geq 3}}^p (\alpha^{\delta(C_i)} + \alpha^{-\delta(C_i)}) \\ &= \prod_{\substack{C \in \mathcal{U} \\ |C| \geq 3}} (\alpha^{\delta(C)} + \alpha^{-\delta(C)}). \end{aligned}$$

Substituting this into (2.10), we have the desired result.  $\square$

REMARK 2.2. In the special case with  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$  and  $|\alpha| = 1$ , we have that  $\alpha^{\delta(C)} + \alpha^{-\delta(C)} = 2 \operatorname{Re}(\alpha^{\delta(C)})$ .

LEMMA 2.3. *The  $\alpha$ -spectrum of a tree is independent of both  $\alpha$  and of the orientation  $\delta$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $G$  be a tree. Note that each  $U \in \mathcal{U}_k$  must be a matching. That is,  $U$  only contains edges, and thus, there are no cycles  $C \in U$ . Hence,

$$h_k = \sum_{U \in \mathcal{U}_k} (-1)^{\#U},$$

which is independent of both  $\delta$  and  $\alpha$ .  $\square$

PROPOSITION 2.4. *Let  $\mathbb{F}$  be a field of characteristic 0 and  $G$  be a graph with at least one odd cycle. For any orientation  $\delta$  of  $G$ , the  $\alpha$ - $\delta$ -characteristic polynomial depends on  $\alpha$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $s$  be the length of the shortest odd cycle in  $G$ . Since the only routes in  $\mathcal{U}_s$  must be cycles of length  $s$ , the coefficient  $h_s$  in the  $\alpha$ -characteristic polynomial is given by

$$h_s = \sum_{U \in \mathcal{U}_s} -(\alpha^{\delta(U)} + \alpha^{-\delta(U)}).$$

Further,  $\delta(U)$  must be an odd number. Thus, if  $\alpha = 1$ , we have  $h_s = \sum_{U \in \mathcal{U}_s} -2 < 0$ , and if  $\alpha = -1$ , then  $h_s = \sum_{U \in \mathcal{U}_s} 2 > 0$ . Thus,  $h_s$  depends on  $\alpha$  for any orientation  $\delta$ .  $\square$

EXAMPLE 2.5. Notice that over characteristic  $p$ , if there are exactly  $p$  cycles all of the same length then there may be an orientation  $\delta$  such that the  $\alpha$ - $\delta$ -characteristic polynomial does not depend on  $\alpha$ . A concrete example of this is given in Figure 3.

Given a graph  $G$  and an orientation  $\delta$ , we say a route  $U \in \mathcal{U}_k$  is *contributing* if there exists a routing  $\vec{U} \sim U$  such that  $\delta(\vec{U}) = k$ .

LEMMA 2.6. *If  $U \in \mathcal{U}_k$  is contributing, then  $U$  does not have a component consisting of a single edge.*

*Proof.* Suppose  $U \in \mathcal{U}_k$  contains a component consisting of a single edge  $e$  and  $\vec{U} \sim U$ . Further let  $\vec{U} = e \cup \vec{U}_0$ . Then  $\delta(\vec{U}) = \delta(e) + \delta(\vec{U}_0) = \delta(\vec{U}_0) \leq k - 2$ .  $\square$

THEOREM 2.7. *Given a graph  $G$ , there exists an orientation  $\delta$  such that  $\alpha^k + \alpha^{-k}$  appears in the coefficient  $h_k$  in the  $\alpha$ -characteristic polynomial if and only if there exists a route  $U \in \mathcal{U}_k$  such that  $U$  does not contain a component consisting of a single edge.*

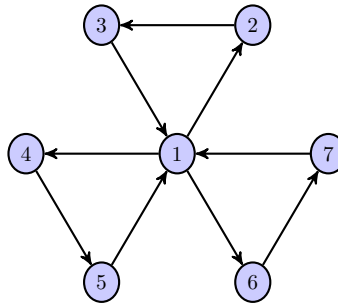


FIGURE 3. The characteristic polynomial in  $\mathbb{F}_3$  is  $x^7 + 2x$ .

*Proof.* Suppose that  $\alpha^k + \alpha^{-k}$  appears in the coefficient  $h_k$  in the  $\alpha$ -characteristic polynomial. Then there must be a contributing route  $U \in \mathcal{U}_k$ , hence  $U$  must not contain a component consisting of a single edge by Lemma 2.6.

To show that if there exists a route  $U \in \mathcal{U}_k$  such that  $U$  contains no edges then there exists an orientation  $\delta$  such that  $\alpha^k + \alpha^{-k}$  appears in  $h_k$ , we will construct an orientation  $\delta$  such that there is only one contributing cycle in  $\mathcal{U}_k$ . Choose  $U \in \mathcal{U}_k$  that contains no edges and label the cycles  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_p$ . Let  $\vec{U} = \vec{C}_1 \cup \vec{C}_2 \cup \dots \cup \vec{C}_p$  be a routing of  $U$ . Then label the vertices in  $\vec{C}_1$  as  $1, 2, \dots, |C_1|$ , the vertices in  $\vec{C}_2$  as  $|C_1| + 1, |C_1| + 2, \dots, |C_1| + |C_2|$ , and so on until we label the vertices in  $\vec{C}_p$  as  $\sum_{i=1}^{p-1} |C_i| + 1, \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} |C_i| + 2, \dots, \sum_{i=1}^p |C_i|$ . Let  $\delta$  be defined by

$$\delta(ij) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } i > j \text{ except if } j = \sum_{k=1}^s |C_k| + 1 \text{ and } i = \sum_{k=1}^{s+1} |C_k| \text{ for some } s \in \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}, \\ -1 & \text{if } i = \sum_{k=1}^s |C_k| + 1 \text{ and } j = \sum_{k=1}^{s+1} |C_k| \text{ for some } s \in \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}, \\ 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then  $\delta(\vec{U}) = k$  and  $\delta(\overleftarrow{U}) = -k$  but for any other routings  $\vec{U}_1 \in \mathcal{U}_k$ ,  $|\delta(\vec{U}_1)| < k$ , and thus, cancellation does not occur.  $\square$

LEMMA 2.8. Let  $\mathbb{F}$  be a field and  $\alpha$  be an indeterminate. If the  $\alpha$ -spectrum of a graph  $G$  is independent of  $\alpha$  for all orientations  $\delta$ , then  $G$  is acyclic.

*Proof.* Let  $s$  be the length of the shortest cycle. Then  $U_s$  contains a cycle, and hence, by Theorem 2.7, there exists an orientation such that  $\alpha^s + \alpha^{-s}$  appears in  $h_s$ .  $\square$

THEOREM 2.9. Let  $\mathbb{F}$  be a field and  $\alpha$  be an indeterminate. Given a graph  $G$ , the following statements are equivalent:

- (a)  $G$  is acyclic;
- (b)  $G$  has only one  $\alpha$ -spectrum, which is independent of both  $\alpha$  and the orientation  $\delta$ .

*Proof.* If  $G$  contains no cycles, then each connected component is a tree, and thus, by Lemma 2.3, the  $\alpha$ -spectrum of  $G$  is independent of  $\alpha$ . The converse is Lemma 2.8.  $\square$

EXAMPLE 2.10. If we require  $\alpha$  to be a non-zero element in  $\mathbb{F}$  then Theorem 2.9 no longer holds. For example, consider the finite field  $\mathbb{Z}_3$  and let  $G$  be a 4 cycle. In general, for a 4 cycle, there are 3 orientations that give rise to different  $\alpha$ - $\delta$ -characteristic polynomials. However, if we require  $\alpha$  to be a non-zero element in  $\mathbb{Z}_3$ , then  $\alpha$  must be 1 or 2. In either of these cases,  $\alpha^2 = 1$ , and hence,  $\alpha^4 = 1$ . Thus, all three characteristic polynomials reduce to  $P(x) = x^4 - 4x^2$ .

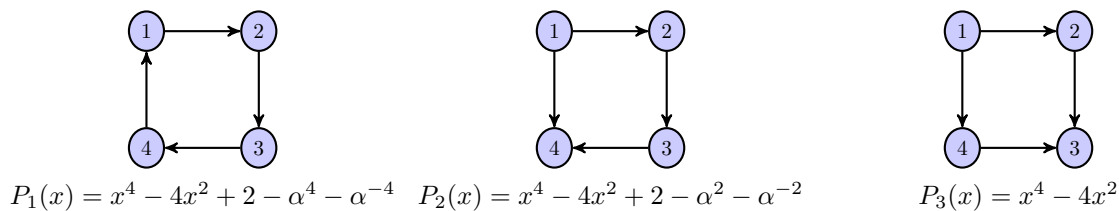


FIGURE 4. Characteristic polynomials for a 4 cycle.

PROPOSITION 2.11. *Given a graph  $G$ , there is an orientation  $\delta$  such that the  $\alpha$ - $\delta$ -spectrum is independent of  $\alpha$  if and only if  $G$  does not contain any odd cycles.*

*Proof.* If  $G$  contains an odd cycle, then by Lemma 2.4, the  $\alpha$ -spectrum of  $G$  depends on  $\alpha$  for all orientations  $\delta$ .

If  $G$  does not contain any odd cycles, then  $G$  is bipartite. Let  $U_1, U_2$  be the parts of  $G$ . Let  $\delta(ij) = 1$  if  $i \in U_1, j \in U_2$ . Note for any dicycle  $\vec{C}$  in  $\vec{G}$ , there must be the same number of edges from  $U_1$  to  $U_2$  as from  $U_2$  to  $U_1$ , and hence,  $\delta(C) = 0$ . Thus, by equation (2.8), the coefficients in the characteristic polynomial are independent of  $\alpha$ , and hence, the  $\alpha$ -spectrum is independent of  $\alpha$ .  $\square$

REMARK 2.12. There are  $\alpha$ -cospectral graphs. In fact, A. Schwenk shows that almost all trees have a cospectral mate which is also a tree (under the standard adjacency matrix) [4]. Further, by Theorem 2.9, trees that are cospectral under the standard adjacency matrix are also  $\alpha$ -cospectral.

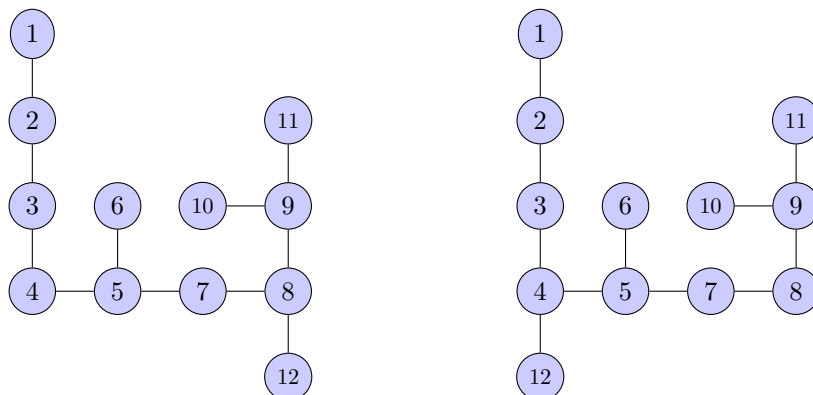


FIGURE 5. An example of cospectral trees.

Similar to [4], we can extend the cospectral tree in Figure 5 by attaching any graph  $G$  to vertex 12 to produce a pair of  $\alpha$ -cospectral graphs.



**3. The average  $\alpha$ -characteristic polynomial.** In this section, we will consider averaging the  $\alpha$ - $\delta$ -characteristic polynomials over all the possible orientations of a graph. It is often convenient to use  $\hat{\alpha} = \frac{1}{2}(\alpha + \alpha^{-1})$ . Again if  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$  and  $|\alpha| = 1$ , then  $\hat{\alpha} = \text{Re}(\alpha)$ . We will begin by looking at the average  $\alpha$ -characteristic for a cycle.

**THEOREM 3.1.** *The average  $\alpha$ -characteristic polynomial for a cycle of length  $n$  is given by*

$$C_n^\alpha(x) = C_n(x) + 2 - 2\hat{\alpha}^n,$$

where  $C_n(x)$  is the standard characteristic polynomial for a cycle of length  $n$  and  $\hat{\alpha} = \frac{1}{2}(\alpha + \alpha^{-1})$ .

*Proof.* Using Theorem 2.1, the only term that does not come from a collection of disjoint edges is the contribution from the entire cycle. The contribution in the  $\alpha$ -characteristic polynomial is the same as in the standard characteristic polynomial for edges. Thus, the only difference between the average  $\alpha$ -characteristic polynomial and the standard characteristic polynomial comes from the contribution of the entire cycle. That is

$$C_n^\alpha(x) = C_n(x) + d,$$

where  $d$  is the difference between the contribution of the entire cycle in the standard characteristic polynomial and in the  $\alpha$ -characteristic polynomial.

In the standard characteristic polynomial, the entire cycle contributes a  $-2$  to the characteristic polynomial.

For the contribution in the  $\alpha$ -characteristic polynomial, let us fix a forward direction (e.g. clockwise). Notice that for an orientation, it only matters the number of edges oriented in the forward direction. If the cycle has  $r$  edges oriented in the forward direction, then the contribution for that orientation will be  $-\alpha^{2r-n} - \alpha^{-(2r-n)}$ . For a given  $r$  there are  $\binom{n}{r}$  orientations with  $r$  edges oriented in the forward direction. Thus, the average contribution from the entire cycle will be

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} (\alpha^{2r-n} + \alpha^{-(2r-n)}) &= -\frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} \alpha^{2r-n} - \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} \alpha^{-(2r-n)} \\ &= -\frac{2}{2^n} \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} \alpha^{2r-n} \\ &= -\frac{2\alpha^{-n}}{2^n} \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} (\alpha^2)^r \\ &= -\frac{2\alpha^{-n}}{2^n} (1 + \alpha^2)^n \\ &= -2 \left( \frac{\alpha^{-1} + \alpha}{2} \right)^n \\ &= -2\hat{\alpha}^n. \end{aligned}$$

The second line follows from changing the dummy variable  $r$  to  $n - r$  in the second sum and using the fact that  $\binom{n}{n-r} = \binom{n}{r}$ . The fourth line follows from the binomial formula. All other lines are basic algebraic manipulation.  $\square$

Using this we can now get a Harary-Sachs result for the average  $\alpha$ -characteristic polynomial.

THEOREM 3.2. Let  $\hat{\alpha} = \frac{1}{2}(\alpha + \alpha^{-1})$  and  $G$  be a graph. The average  $\alpha$ -characteristic polynomial of  $G$  is given by

$$(3.11) \quad P(x) = x^n + h_1^{avg} x^{n-1} + \dots + h_{n-1}^{avg} x + h_n^{avg}$$

in which the coefficients are given by

$$(3.12) \quad h_k^{avg} = \sum_{U \in \mathcal{U}_k} (-1)^{\#(U)} \prod_{\substack{C_i \in U \\ |C_i| \geq 3}} 2\hat{\alpha}^{|C_i|},$$

where  $\#(U)$  is the number of components in  $U$ .

*Proof.* Averaging (2.8) over all orientations, we have that

$$h_k^{avg} = \frac{1}{2^{|E|}} \sum_{\delta} \sum_{U \in \mathcal{U}_k} (-1)^{\#U} \prod_{\substack{C \in U \\ |C| \geq 3}} (\alpha^{\delta(C)} + \alpha^{-\delta(C)}),$$

where  $|E|$  is the number of edges in  $G$ . As these sums are finite we can switch the order, thus

$$(3.13) \quad h_k^{avg} = \frac{1}{2^{|E|}} \sum_{U \in \mathcal{U}_k} (-1)^{\#U} \sum_{\delta} \prod_{\substack{C \in U \\ |C| \geq 3}} (\alpha^{\delta(C)} + \alpha^{-\delta(C)}).$$

For a fixed  $U \in \mathcal{U}_k$ , the orientation of edges not in  $U$  does not affect the inner sum. To simplify further, we fix a  $U = \{C_1, C_2, \dots, C_p, e_1, e_2, \dots, e_s\}$ , where each  $C_i$  is a cycle (of length at least 3) and each  $e_i$  is a pairing of two vertices. Such a  $U$  contains  $k - s$  edges, thus there are  $|E| - k + s$  edges which do not contribute. So for such a  $U$ ,

$$\sum_{\delta} \prod_{\substack{C \in U \\ |C| \geq 3}} (\alpha^{\delta(C)} + \alpha^{-\delta(C)}) = 2^{|E| - k + s} \sum_{\delta|_U} \prod_{i=1}^p (\alpha^{\delta|_U(C_i)} + \alpha^{-\delta|_U(C_i)}),$$

where  $\delta|_U$  represents  $\delta$  restricted to  $U$ . Then we can break up the sum over all orientations of  $U$  into sums over its components. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\delta|_U} \prod_{i=1}^p (\alpha^{\delta|_U(C_i)} + \alpha^{-\delta|_U(C_i)}) &= \sum_{\delta|_{e_1}} \sum_{\delta|_{e_2}} \dots \sum_{\delta|_{e_s}} \sum_{\delta|_{C_1}} \sum_{\delta|_{C_2}} \dots \sum_{\delta|_{C_p}} \prod_{C_i \in U} (\alpha^{\delta|_U(C_i)} + \alpha^{-\delta|_U(C_i)}) \\ &= 2^s \prod_{C_i \in U} \sum_{\delta|_{C_i}} (\alpha^{\delta|_{C_i}(C_i)} + \alpha^{-\delta|_{C_i}(C_i)}) \\ &= 2^{k-s} \prod_{C_i \in U} \sum_{\delta|_{C_i}} \frac{1}{2^{|C_i|}} (\alpha^{\delta|_{C_i}(C_i)} + \alpha^{-\delta|_{C_i}(C_i)}). \end{aligned}$$

The innermost sum is the exact contribution of the cycle  $c_i$  which is  $2\hat{\alpha}^{|C_i|}$ . Thus,

$$\sum_{\delta} \prod_{\substack{C \in U \\ |C| \geq 3}} (\alpha^{\delta(C)} + \alpha^{-\delta(C)}) = 2^{|E|} \prod_{C_i \in U} 2\hat{\alpha}^{|C_i|}.$$

Substituting into equation (3.13), we have

$$h_k^{avg} = \sum_{U \in \mathcal{U}_k} (-1)^{\#U} \prod_{\substack{C \in U \\ |C| \geq 3}} 2\hat{\alpha}^{|C|}.$$

□

Theorem 3.2 can be used to establish the following corollaries.

**COROLLARY 3.3.** *The average  $\alpha$ -characteristic polynomial uniquely determines the number of cycles of length 3, 4 and 5.*

*Proof.* By Theorem 3.2, the coefficients of the average  $\alpha$ -characteristic polynomials are polynomials in  $\hat{\alpha}$ . Let

$$(3.14) \quad h_k^{\text{avg}} = \sum_{i=0}^k h_i^{(k)} \hat{\alpha}^i.$$

The only cycles that contribute to  $h_3^{(3)}$  are cycles of length 3, each which contributes a factor of  $-2$ , thus the number of cycles of length 3 in  $G$  is given by  $-\frac{1}{2}h_3^{(3)}$ . Similarly, the number of cycles of length 4 is  $-\frac{1}{2}h_4^{(4)}$  and the number of cycles of length 5 is  $-\frac{1}{2}h_5^{(5)}$ .  $\square$

**EXAMPLE 3.4.** Notice that the coefficient  $h_k^{(k)}$  in equation (3.14) does not determine the number of cycles of length  $k \geq 6$ . For example, let  $G = C_3 \cup C_3 \cup C_6 \cup C_6$  be the collection of two disjoint 3 cycles with two disjoint 6 cycles. Notice that each of the the 6 cycles contribute a  $-2$  to  $h_6^{(6)}$  and the collection of the two 3 cycles contribute a  $+4$ . Thus,  $h_6^{(6)} = 0$  even though  $G$  contains two 6 cycles.

While there is no easy way to determine the number of cycles of length greater than 5, it is easy to determine the parity of that number.

**COROLLARY 3.5.** *Let  $c_k$  be the number of cycles of length  $k \geq 3$  in a graph  $G$  and the coefficients in the average  $\alpha$ -characteristic polynomial be given by  $h_k^{\text{avg}} = \sum_{i=0}^k h_i^{(k)} \hat{\alpha}^i$ . Then*

$$c_k \equiv \frac{h_k^{(k)}}{2} \pmod{2}.$$

*Proof.* Notice that for  $U \in \mathcal{U}_k$  to contribute to  $h_k^{(k)}$ , there are not any pairings of vertices in  $U$ . Further if  $U$  contains  $s$  cycles, the contribution of  $U$  to  $h_k^{(k)}$  is  $(-2)^s$ . Hence,  $\frac{h_k^{(k)}}{2} \pmod{2}$  will only have contributions from cycles of length exactly  $k$ .  $\square$

**COROLLARY 3.6.** *The average  $\alpha$ -characteristic polynomial uniquely determines the number of matchings on  $k$  vertices.*

*Proof.* Again, let

$$h_k^{\text{avg}} = \sum_{i=0}^k h_i^{(k)} \hat{\alpha}^i.$$

The matching polynomial

$$M_G(x) = \sum_{k \geq 0} (-1)^k m_k x^{n-2k}$$

is given by

$$M_G(x) = \sum_{k \geq 0} h_0^{(k)} x^{n-k},$$

where  $m_k$  is the number of matchings on  $k$  vertices. This can be obtained by setting  $\hat{\alpha} = 0$  in the average  $\alpha$  characteristic polynomial.  $\square$



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