

On Group-Magic Graphs

by

Sinmin Lee

San Jose State University

Ixin Wen

Fresno City College

and

Hugo Sun

California State University, Fresno

Abstract: For any abelian group A , we call a graph $G=(V,E)$ as A-magic if there exists a labeling $l:E(G) \rightarrow A-\{0\}$ such that the induced vertex set labeling $l^*:V(G) \rightarrow A$

$$l^*(v)=\Sigma \{l(u,v) : (u,v) \text{ in } E(G)\}$$

is a constant map. We denote the set of all A such that G is A -magic by $AM(G)$ and call it as group-magic index set of G .

Key words: Abelian group, group-magic graph, perfect matching, group-magic index sets.

1. Introduction. For any abelian group A , written additively we denote $A^* = A-\{0\}$. Any mapping $l: E(G) \rightarrow A^*$ is called a labeling. Given a labeling on edge set of G we can induced a vertex set labeling $l^*: V(G) \rightarrow A$ as follows:

$$l^*(v)=\Sigma \{l(u,v) : (u,v) \text{ in } E(G)\}$$

A graph G is known as A-magic if there is a labeling $l: E(G) \rightarrow A^*$ such that for each vertex v , the sum of the labels of the edges incident with v are all equal to the same constant; i.e., $l^*(v) = c$ for some fixed c in A . We will called $\langle G,l \rangle$ a A -magic graph with sum c . In general, a graph G may admits more than one labeling to become a A -magic graph. We denote the class of all graphs (either simple or multiple graphs) by Gph . For each abelian group A we denote the class of all A -magic graphs by ${}_A MGp$. We denote the class of all abelian groups by Ab .

When $A = Z$, the Z -magic graphs were considered in Stanley [22,23]; he pointed out that the theory of magic labelings can be put into the more general context of linear homogeneous diophantine equations.

When the group is Z_k , we shall refer to the Z_k -magic graph as k -magic. Graphs which are k -magic had been studied in [2,6,9,10,12,15]. For convenience, we will consider Z -magic as 1-magic. A Z -magic graph $\langle G,l \rangle$ is called supermagic if $l(E(G))=\{1,2,\dots,|E(G)|\}$. The following wheel is Z_8 -magic and Z -magic. (Figure 1)

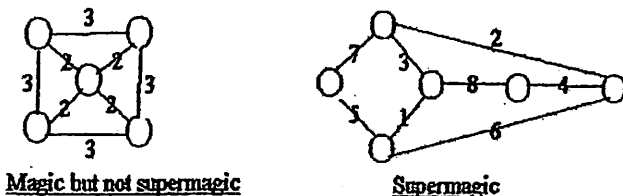


Figure 1.

Doob [2] also considered A-magic graphs where A is an abelian group. He determined which wheels are Z-magic.

Given the graph G, the problem of deciding whether G admits a magic labeling is equivalent to the problem of deciding whether a set of linear homogeneous Diophantine equation has a solution [23]. At present, given an abelian group, no general efficient algorithm is known for finding magic labelings for general graphs.

The original concept of A-magic graph is due to J. Sedlacek [19, 20], who defined it to be a graph with real-valued edge labeling such that (i) distinct edges have distinct nonnegative labels, and (ii) the sum of the labels of the edges incident to a particular vertex is the same for all vertices.

It is well-known that a graph G is Z-magic if and only if each edge of G is contained in a 1-factor (a perfect matching) or a {1,2}-factor. Some special classes of Z-magic graphs had been considered in the literature. (see [5],[10],[12],[24],[25],[26]). A study of magic strengths of graphs are carried out in [10, 12].

Stewart called a Z-magic graph $\langle G, \lambda \rangle$ as supermagic if $\lambda(E(G)) = \{1, 2, \dots, |E(G)|\}$. He showed that complete graphs K_5 is not supermagic and when $n \equiv 0 \pmod 4$, K_n is not supermagic. A (p, q) -graph $G = (V, E)$ with p vertices and q edges is called edge-magic if there is a bijection $f: E \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, q\}$ such that the induced mapping $f^t: V \rightarrow Z_p$, given by $f^t(u) = \sum \{f(u, v) : (u, v) \in E\} \pmod p$ is a constant mapping. The concept of edge-magic graphs was introduced by Lee, Seah and Tan in 1992 [13]. Clearly a supermagic graph

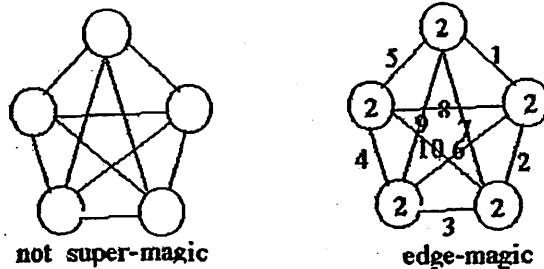


Figure 2

is edge-magic but not conversely (Figure 2).

Supermagic graphs had been considered in [5, 24, 25]. For other works on edge-magic graphs the readers are referred to [13, 14, 21]

2. k-magic Graphs. When the group is Z_k , we shall refer to the Z_k -magic graph as k -magic. There exists graphs G which is not k-magic for any k.

Definition 1. A graph G is called nonmagic if it is not A-magic for any group A in Ab.

Lemma 1. P_3 is nonmagic.

Proof. For, if one labels the two edges by x and y then

we have

$$x+y-x=y$$

and x and y must be 0.

We recall that a star $St(k)$ is a tree with $k+1$ vertices with k pairs of leaf vertices. A tree T is called a spider if there exists a vertex r such that $\deg(v) \leq 2$, for all v in $V(T) - \{r\}$.

Corollary 2. All spiders except stars are non-magic.

In fact, we can see that any graph G is an induced subgraph of a non-magic graph $G^\#$. We can extend G to $G^\#$ by glue the end vertex of P , to any vertex u of G the resulting graph $(G,u) \circ P_3 = G^\#$ is nonmagic. Thus we have

Theorem 3. Any graph G is an induced subgraph of a non-magic graph $G^\#$.

We have the following characterization of 2-magic graphs.

Theorem 4. A graph is 2-magic if and only if all the degrees of its nodes have the same parity; i.e., either all odd or all even.

Proof. It is obvious since we may label all edges by 1.

Corollary 5. All Eulerian graphs are 2-magic.

Theorem 6. A tree is 2-magic if and only if all its vertices have odd degree.

Proof. This is a special case of Theorem 4. Since the branches have degree 1, so all its nodes must have odd degrees.

For any $k \geq 2$, to classify k -magic graphs, we have the following useful sufficient condition:

Theorem 7. For any integer $k \geq 2$, if G is a graph with degree set $\{d_1, d_2, \dots, d_m\}$ such that $d_i \equiv d_j \pmod{k}$ for all i, j , then G is k -magic.

Proof. We merely label each edge by 1.

Corollary 8. A tree is k -magic if and only each vertex has degree congruent to 1 modulo k .

Corollary 9. K -magic trees exist for all $k \geq 2$.

In general, it is difficult for trees to be k -magic. Since any graph with P_3 standing out is nonmagic, for any tree T , $T \circ P_3$ is a nonmagic tree

Corollary 10. For any $k, l \geq 2$, there exist trees that are k -magic and not l -magic.

3. All pseudo-omino graphs are k -magic for $k > 2$. In 1953 S.W. Golomb introduced the concept of polyominoes. They are shapes made by connecting certain numbers of equal-sized squares, each joined together with at least one other square along an edge and each square can travel either horizontally or vertically in one move successively to another square [4]. If the connected set squares has the property that each square besides travel horizontally or vertically, it can move diagonally to reach any other square in finite number of moves then it is called a pseudo-omino. A pseudo-omino with n squares is called pseudo- n -omino. We consider a class of connected planar graphs which are subgraphs of a grid-graph $P_m \times P_n$ for some $m \geq 1, n \geq 1$ and named them as pseudo-omino graphs if they are planar representation of some pseudo-ominoes.

Examples of pseudo- n -omino graphs:

- (1) Grid-graphs $P_m \times P_n$

- (2) Young tableau graphs, $Y(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k)$

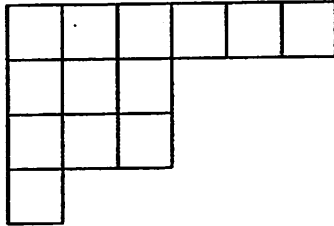


Figure 3. $Y(6,3,3,1)$

- (3) Some pseudo- n -omino graphs.(Figure 4.)

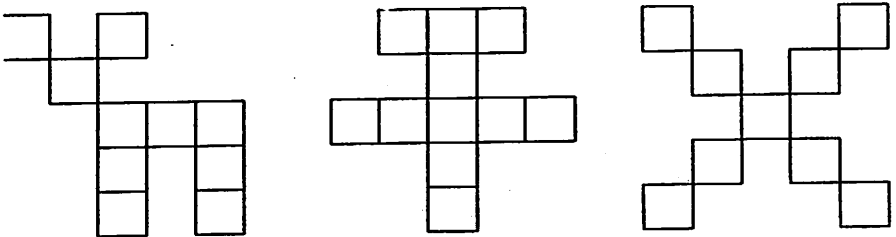


Figure 4.

Theorem 11 For any $n > 1$ and $k > 2$. All pseudo- n -omino graphs are k -magic.

Proof. For $k > 2$ and a given pseudo- n -omino graph G , we define the labeling scheme as follows:

First we label all the horizontal edges which are boundary of G by 1, and for each interior horizontal edges we label them by 2.

Then we label all the vertical edges which are boundary of G by $k-1$, and for each interior vertical edges we label them by $k-2$.

We see that the vertex set of G can be decompose into sets of three types:

- (A) Those of degree 2 — a vertex has a vertical boundary edge and a horizontal boundary edge, its vertex label is $1+(k-1) \equiv 0 \pmod{k}$.
- (B) Those of degree 3 — a vertex is either has two vertical boundary edges and a horizontal interior edge or has two horizontal boundary edges and a vertical interior edge. For the previous case the vertex has the label $(k-1) + (k-1) + 2 \equiv 0 \pmod{k}$. and for the later case it has $1 + 1 + k-2 \equiv 0 \pmod{k}$.
- (C) Those of degree 4 — a vertex is an interior point of G . It has two vertical interior edges and two horizontal interior edges. The vertex has the label $2 + 2 + k-2+k-2 \equiv 0 \pmod{k}$.

Thus G is k -magic.

We illustrate the above result by the following example.

Example 1. A pseudo-omino graph with Z_3 -magic labeling. (Figure 5.)

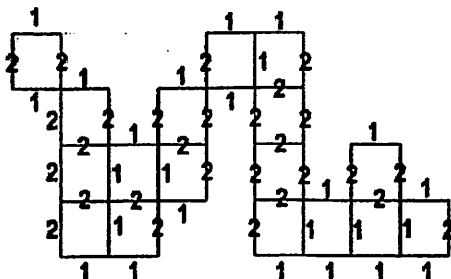


Figure 5.

Note: For $k=2$, the condition in Theorem 4 is also a sufficient condition for a graph G to be 2-magic. However, when $k > 2$ we see from Theorem 11 that there exists k -magic graphs which are not satisfy the above condition

4. General Embedding Theorem.

Given any abelian group A , we want to show that any graph G in G_{ph} can be embedded in a A -magic graph G^* as an induced subgraph.

Theorem 12. For any abelian group A , and any G in G_{ph} with a labeling $f: E(G) \rightarrow A^*$, we can embed G into a A -magic graph (G^*, f^*) such that $f^*|_G = f$.

Proof. Suppose $V(G)=\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$. Let $G \times K_2$ where $V(K_2)=\{u, v\}$ is the complete graph. For the two subgraphs $G \times \{u\}$ and $G \times \{v\}$ we let them inherit the same labels of G . Let c be any element in A . If for any x_i in $V(G)$, $f^*(x_i) = d \neq 0$. We define

$$f^*((x_i, u), (x_i, v))) = c - d$$

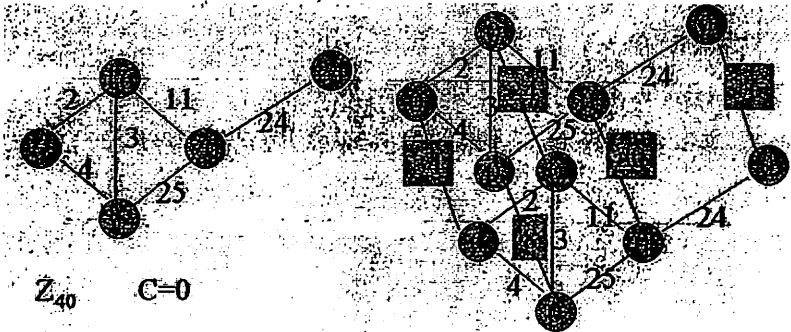
Let $G^* = G \times K_2$. We see that (G^*, f^*) is a A -magic graph. (see Figure 6 (a))

Now assume some of $f^*(x_i) = 0$. If the numbers of such i are even, we will connect all this vertices by a cycle. Then we label the edges by $c, -c, c, -c, \dots$ successively. For the edges $((x_i, u), (x_i, v))$ we label it by c . We see that the graph $G^* = G \times K_2 \cup$ the cycle is A -magic. (see Figure 6 (b)).

If the numbers of such i are odd, we will pick a vertex x_m with $f^*(x_m) = d \neq 0$ with all the other vertices x_i with $f^*(x_i) = 0$ and form an even cycle. Then we label the edges of this cycle by $c, -c, c, -c, \dots$ successively. For the edges $((x_i, u), (x_i, v))$ where $f^*(x_i) = 0$ we label it by c . We see that the graph $G^* = (G \times K_2) \cup$ the cycle is A -magic.

Example 2.

a)



b)

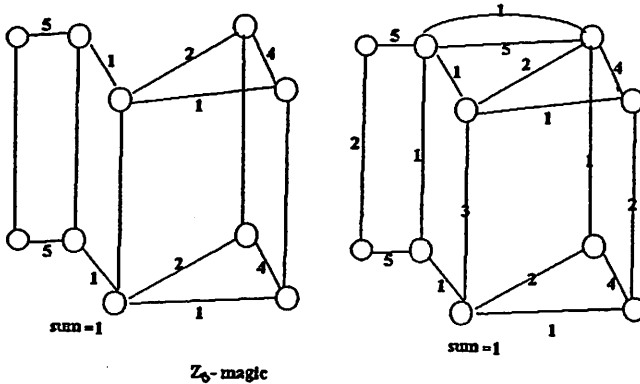


Figure 6. (a) G and its G^* . The graph G^* is Z_{40} -magic. (b) H and its H^* .

Corollary 13. For any graph G with $|V(G)| > 1$, the graph $G \times K_2$ is A -magic for all group A .

We recall that a category of graphs Ω is said to be universal in \mathbf{Gph} if for any graph G in \mathbf{Gph} there exists an object $C(G)$ in Ω such that the association $G \rightarrow C(G)$ is a faithful functor.

What we have shown in the above result is that the category ${}_{\Lambda} \mathbf{MGp}$ of all A -magic graphs is a universal category for any abelian group A .

5. Special Construction.

Theorem 14. The graph $P_4 + K_1$ is Klein 4 group-magic and $2k$ -magic for any $k > 1$ but not Z -magic and $2k+1$ -magic for all $k > 1$.

Proof. The Klein 4 group-magic labeling is shown by Figure 7.

\oplus		<u>(0,0)</u>	<u>(0,1)</u>	<u>(1,0)</u>	<u>(1,1)</u>
(0,0)		(0,0)	(0,1)	(1,0)	(1,1)
(0,1)		(0,1)	(0,0)	(1,1)	(1,0)
(1,0)		(1,0)	(1,1)	(0,0)	(0,1)
(1,1)		(1,1)	(1,0)	(0,1)	(0,0)

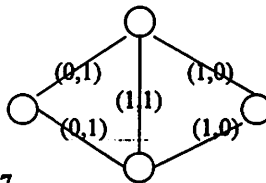


Figure 7

Note that the graph is not 2-magic. The Z_n -magic labeling ($k > 1$) is shown by

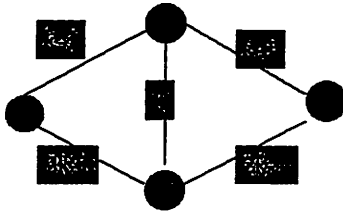


Figure 8

Figure 8.

To see that $P_4 + K_1$ is not $2k+1$ -magic for all $k > 1$, assume it has a labeling which is $2k+1$ -magic for some k (see Figure 9)

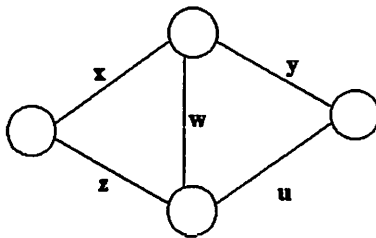


Figure 9.

Since $x+z = x+w+y$ and $y+u = z+w+u$, then we have $z = w+y$ and $y = z+w$. From which we derive $z = w+y = w+z+w = 2w + z$. Hence we have $2w = 0$. But there exists no such element in Z_{2k+1} with order 2. This is a contradiction.

If (G_1, L_1) and $(G_2, L_2) \in {}_A \text{MGp}$ with sum 0. We can construct a new A-magic graph as follows: fixed a u in $V(G_1)$ and v in $V(G_2)$, we union G_1 and G_2 by identifying u and v , the resulting graph which is denoted by $(G_1, u) \# (G_2, v)$ is called the one-point union of (G_1, u) and (G_2, v) . It is obvious that

Theorem 15. If (G_1, L_1) and $(G_2, L_2) \in {}_A \text{MGp}$ with sum 0 and for any u in $V(G_1)$ and v in $V(G_2)$ the one-point union $(G_1, u) \# (G_2, v)$ is A-magic.

The above construction provides infinitely many A-magic graphs.

Example 3. Consider the graph $P_4 + K_1$, we can construct the following Klein-4 group-magic graphs.

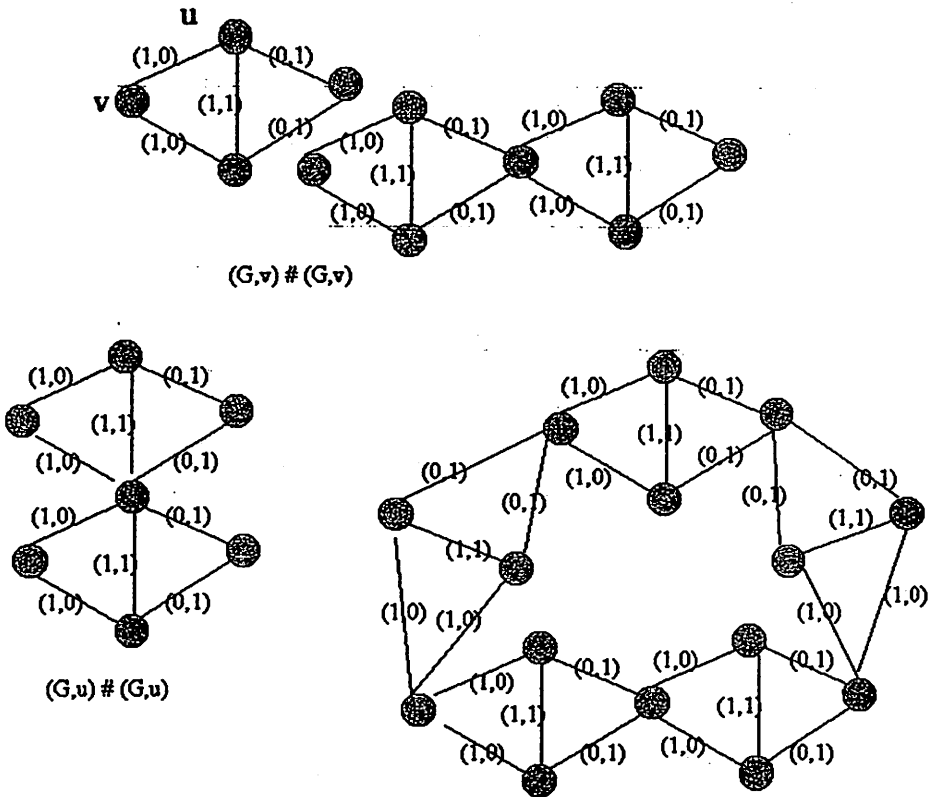


Figure 10

6. Some conjectures and unsolved problems.

We propose here some conjectures and unsolved problems for further research.

Conjecture. For any abelian group A, almost all graphs are non-A-magic.

If we denote the set of all A-magic graphs of order n by ${}_A\text{MGph}(n)$, the above conjecture means that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|{}_A\text{MGph}(n)|}{|\text{Gph}(n)|} = 0$$

Problem 1. For any $A \neq Z_2$, give the characterization of A-magic graphs.

Theorem 12 shows that it is impossible to have a characterization of A-magic graphs just as the Kuratowski type for planar graphs.

Given a graph G, we denote the set of all $k > 0$ such that G is k-magic by $\text{IM}(G)$. We call this set as **integer-magic spectrum** of G. Likewise, we denote $\text{AM}(G) = \{ A \in \text{Ab} : G \text{ is } A\text{-magic} \}$ the **group-magic spectrum** of G.

Problem 2. Determine $\text{AM}(G)$, in particular $\text{IM}(G)$ for non-regular graph G.

AM sets and IM sets of some special graphs had been considered in [15,16].

Problem 3. Decide what subsets of \mathbb{N} can be $\text{IM}(G)$ for some graph G.

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