

# Applications of Some Graph Operations in Computing Some Invariants of Chemical Graphs

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(Received October 20, 2013; Accepted October 29, 2013)

## ABSTRACT

In this paper, we first collect the earlier results about some graph operations and then we present applications of these results in working with chemical graphs.

**Keywords:** Topological index; graph operation; distance–balanced graph; chemical graph.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Throughout this paper all graphs considered are finite, simple and connected. The distance  $d_G(u, v)$  between the vertices  $u$  and  $v$  of a graph  $G$  is equal to the length of a shortest path that connects  $u$  and  $v$ . Suppose  $G$  is a graph with vertex and edge sets  $V = V(G)$  and  $E = E(G)$ , respectively. For an edge  $e = ab$  of  $G$ , let  $n_a(e)$  be the number of vertices closer to  $a$  than to  $b$ . In other words,  $n_a^G(e) = |\{u \in V(G) \mid d(u, a) < d(u, b)\}|$ . In addition, let  $n_0(e)$  be the number of vertices with equal distances to  $a$  and  $b$ , i.e.,  $n_0^G(e) = |\{u \in V(G) \mid d(u, a) = d(u, b)\}|$ . We also denote the number of edges of  $G$  whose distance to the vertex  $a$  is smaller than the distance to the vertex  $b$  by  $m_a(e)$ . The Szeged, edge Szeged, revised Szeged, vertex–edge Szeged, vertex Padmakar–Ivan and edge Padmakar–Ivan indices of the graph  $G$  are defined as:

$$Sz_v(G) = \sum_{e=uv \in E(G)} n_u(e)n_v(e) \quad (\text{see}[1]),$$

$$Sz_e(G) = \sum_{e=uv \in E(G)} m_u(e)m_v(e) \quad (\text{see}[2]),$$

$$Sz_v^*(G) = \sum_{e=uv \in E(G)} (n_u(e) + \frac{n_0(e)}{2})(n_v(e) + \frac{n_0(e)}{2}) \quad (\text{see}[3]),$$

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$$Sz_{ev}(G) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{e=uv \in E(G)} (m_u(e)n_v(e) + m_v(e)n_u(e)) \quad (\text{see}[4]),$$

$$PI_v(G) = \sum_{e=uv \in E(G)} (n_u(e) + n_v(e)) \quad (\text{see}[5]),$$

$$PI_e(G) = \sum_{e=uv \in E(G)} (m_u(e) + m_v(e)) \quad (\text{see}[6]).$$

A graph  $G$  with a specified vertex subset  $U \subseteq V(G)$  is denoted by  $G(U)$ . Suppose  $G$  and  $H$  are graphs and  $U \subseteq V(G)$ . The generalized hierarchical product, denoted by  $G(U) \square H$ , is the graph with vertex set  $V(G) \times V(H)$  and two vertices  $(g, h)$  and  $(g', h')$  are adjacent if and only if  $g = g' \in U$  and  $hh' \in E(H)$  or,  $gg' \in E(G)$  and  $h = h'$ . This graph operation has been introduced by Barri re et al. [7,8] and it has some applications in computer science. To generalize this graph operation to  $n$  graphs, assume that  $G_i = (V_i, E_i)$  is a graph with vertex set  $V_i, 1 \leq i \leq N$ , having a distinguished or root vertex  $0$ . The hierarchical product  $H = G_N \square \dots \square G_2 \square G_1$  is the graph with vertices the  $N$ -tuples  $x_N \dots x_3 x_2 x_1, x_i \in V_i$ , and edges defined by the following adjacencies:

$$x_N \dots x_3 x_2 x_1 \sim \begin{cases} x_N \dots x_3 x_2 y_1 & \text{if } x_1 y_1 \in E(G_1), \\ x_N \dots x_3 y_2 x_1 & \text{if } x_2 y_2 \in E(G_2) \text{ and } x_1 = 0, \\ x_N \dots y_3 x_2 x_1 & \text{if } x_3 y_3 \in E(G_3) \text{ and } x_1 = x_2 = 0, \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ y_N \dots x_3 x_2 x_1 & \text{if } x_N y_N \in E(G_N) \text{ and } x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_{N-1} = 0. \end{cases}$$

We encourage the reader to consult [9] for the mathematical properties of the hierarchical product of graphs.

The Cartesian product  $G \times H$  of the graphs  $G$  and  $H$  has the vertex set  $V(G \times H) = V(G) \times V(H)$  and  $(a, x)(b, y)$  is an edge of  $G \times H$  if  $a = b$  and  $xy \in E(H)$ , or  $ab \in E(G)$  and  $x = y$ , see[10].

The disjunction  $G \vee H$  of graphs  $G$  and  $H$  is the graph with vertex set  $V(G) \times V(H)$  such that  $(u_1, v_1)$  is adjacent to  $(u_2, v_2)$  whenever  $u_1 u_2 \in E(G)$  or  $v_1 v_2 \in E(H)$  [10].

Let  $G=(V, E)$  be a simple graph of order  $n=|V|$ . Given  $u, v \in V, u \sim v$  means that  $u$  and  $v$  are adjacent vertices. Given a set of vertices  $S=\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$  of a connected graph  $G$ , the metric representation of a vertex  $v \in V$  with respect to  $S$  is the vector  $r(v/S)=(d_G(v, v_1), d_G(v, v_2), \dots, d_G(v, v_k))$ . We say that  $S$  is a resolving set for  $G$  if for every pair of distinct vertices  $u, v \in V, r(u/S) \neq r(v/S)$ . The metric dimension of  $G$  is the minimum cardinality of any resolving set for  $G$ , and it is denoted by  $dim(G)$ .

Now, we present some certain types of graphs that play prominent roles in this work. A graph  $G$  is called nontrivial if  $|V(G)| > 1$ . The  $n$ -cube  $Q_n$  ( $n \geq 1$ ) is the graph whose vertex set is the set of all  $n$ -tuples of 0s and 1s, where two  $n$ -tuples are adjacent if they differ in precisely one coordinate. A tree is an undirected graph in which any two vertices are connected by exactly one simple path. In other words, any connected graph without cycles is a tree. A regular graph is a graph where each vertex has the same number of neighbors. A regular graph with vertices of degree  $k$  is called a  $k$ -regular graph or regular graph of degree  $k$ . Note that the path graph, the complete and the cycle of order  $n$  are denoted by  $P_n$ ,  $K_n$  and  $C_n$ , respectively.

## 2. MAIN RESULTS

In what follows, we assume that  $\prod_i^j f_i = 1$  and  $\sum_i^j f_i = 0$  for each  $i, j \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ , that  $i - j = 1$ . Furthermore, let  $\prod_i^j f_i = \sum_i^j f_i = 0$ , for every  $i, j \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ , such that  $i - j > 1$ . For a rooted graph  $G$  with root vertex  $r$ , we will use  $\Gamma_v(G)$  to denote the sum of  $n_v^G(e)$  over all edges  $e = uv$  of  $G$  that  $d_G(u, r) < d_G(v, r)$  and  $\Gamma_v^c(G)$  to denote the sum of  $n_u^G(e)$  over all edges  $e = uv$  of  $G$  that  $d_G(u, r) < d_G(v, r)$ . Moreover,  $\Gamma_e(G)$  denotes the sum of  $m_v^G(e)$  over all edges  $e = uv$  of  $G$  that  $d_G(u, r) < d_G(v, r)$  and  $\Gamma_e^c(G)$  denotes the sum of  $m_u^G(e)$  over all edges  $e = uv$  of  $G$  that  $d_G(u, r) < d_G(v, r)$ . In other words,

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma_v(G) &= \sum_{uv \in E(G), d_G(u,r) < d_G(v,r)} n_v^G(uv), \\ \Gamma_v^c(G) &= \sum_{uv \in E(G), d_G(u,r) < d_G(v,r)} n_u^G(uv), \\ \Gamma_e(G) &= \sum_{uv \in E(G), d_G(u,r) < d_G(v,r)} m_v^G(uv), \\ \Gamma_e^c(G) &= \sum_{uv \in E(G), d_G(u,r) < d_G(v,r)} m_u^G(uv). \end{aligned}$$

If the vertex  $r$  lies on no odd cycle of  $G$ , then one can easily seen that

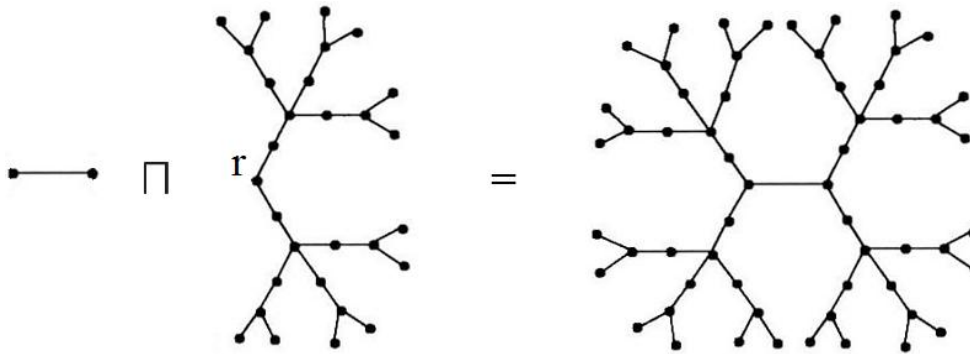
$$PI_v(G) = \Gamma_v(G) + \Gamma_v^c(G) \quad \text{and} \quad PI_e(G) = \Gamma_e(G) + \Gamma_e^c(G).$$

Also, for a sequence of graphs,  $G_1, G_2, \dots, G_n$ , we set  $|V_{i,j}| = \prod_{k=i}^j |V(G_k)|$  and  $|V_{i,j}^l| = \prod_{k=i, k \neq l}^j |V(G_k)|$ . To say the next result, we have to present some notation. For a connected rooted graph  $G$  with root vertex  $r$ , let  $N^G(r)$  be the set of vertices of  $G$  with the property that  $u \in N^G(r)$  if there exists  $v \neq u$  in  $V(G)$  such that  $d_G(u, r) = d_G(v, r)$ . We say that

$S(N^G(r)) \subseteq V(G)$  is a resolving set for  $N_G(r)$  if for each pair of distinct vertices  $u, v \in N^G(r)$ ,  $r(u/S(N^G(r))) \neq r(v/S(N^G(r)))$ . Therefore, it is clear that  $dim(N^G(r)) \leq dim(G)$ . The metric dimension of  $N^G(r)$  is the minimum cardinality of any resolving set for  $N^G(r)$ , and it is denoted by  $dim(N^G(r))$ .

**Theorem 1.** [9]. Suppose  $G_1, G_2, \dots, G_n$  are nontrivial connected rooted graphs with root vertices  $r_1, \dots, r_n$ , respectively. Then

$$dim(G_n \sqcap \dots \sqcap G_2 \sqcap G_1) = \begin{cases} \prod_{j=2}^n |V(G_j)| dim(N^{G_j}(r_j)) & \text{if } G_1 \not\cong P_n \\ \prod_{j=3}^n |V(G_j)| dim(N^{G_2 \sqcap G_1}(r_2)) & \text{if } G_1 \cong P_n \end{cases}$$



**Figure 1:** Irregular Dicentric  $IDD_{5(2,1,3,1,2)}$  Dendrimer.

**Example 2.** Let  $IDD_{r,(p_1, \dots, p_r)}$  be the graph of the irregular dicentric dendrimer that  $p_i > 1$ ,  $i=1, \dots, r$ , see [11] for more information. Then  $IDD_{r,(p_1, \dots, p_r)} = P_2 \sqcap H$ , where  $H$  is a tree of progressive degrees  $p_i$ ,  $i=1, \dots, r$ , respectively, and generation  $r$  (see Figure 1). One can see

that  $dim(N^H(r)) = \prod_{i=1}^{r-1} p_i(p_r - 1)$ . Therefore, by Theorem 1, we have:

$$dim( IDD_{r,(p_1, \dots, p_r)} ) = |V(P_2)| dim(N^H(r)) = 2 \prod_{i=1}^{r-1} p_i(p_r - 1).$$

A graph  $G$  is said to be (vertex) distance-balanced, if  $n_a^G(e) = n_b^G(e)$ , for each edge  $e = ab \in E(G)$ , see [12, 13] for details. These graphs first studied by Handa [14] who considered distance-balanced partial cubes. In [15], Jerebic et al. studied distance-balanced

graphs in the framework of various kinds of graph products. After that, in [16], the present authors introduced the concept of edge distance-balanced graphs. Such a graph  $G$  has this property that  $m_a^G(e) = m_b^G(e)$  holds for each edge  $e = ab \in E(G)$ .

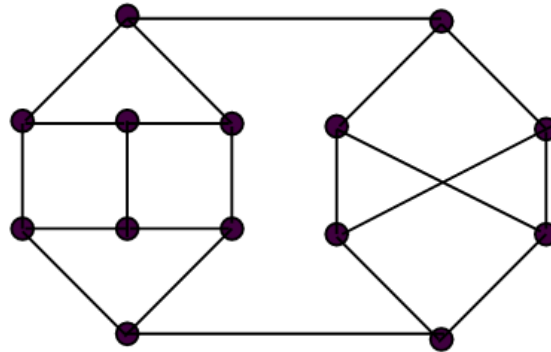


Figure 2: The Graph  $G'$ .

**Proposition 3.** [13]. Let  $G$  and  $H$  be arbitrary, nontrivial and connected graphs. Then  $G \vee H$  is distance-balanced if and only if  $G$  and  $H$  are regular graphs.

**Example 4.** Consider  $G'$ , see Figure 2, that was constructed in [17] as an example of a bipartite regular graph that is not distance-balanced. It would be interesting to know that we can produce a distance-balanced graph by two graphs which are not distance-balanced. Let  $G$  is arbitrary, nontrivial and connected regular graph then by the above proposition,  $G' \vee G$  is distance-balanced (note that  $G$  can be not distance-balanced).

**Theorem 5.** [16]. Let  $G$  and  $H$  be edge and vertex distance-balanced graphs. Then  $G \times H$  is edge distance-balanced graphs.

**Example 6.** Consider the  $N$ -cube  $Q_N$ . It is well-known fact that it can be written in the form  $Q_N = \times_{i=1}^N K_2$ . On the other hand,  $K_2$  is edge and vertex distance-balanced graph. So, by the above theorem,  $Q_N$  is edge distance-balanced graph.

**Theorem 7.** [18]. Suppose  $G_1, G_2, \dots, G_n$  are connected rooted graphs with root vertices  $r_1, \dots, r_n$ , respectively. Then

$$Sz_v(G_n \cap \dots \cap G_2 \cap G_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n |V_{i+1,n} \cap V_{1,i-1}|^2 Sz_v(G_i)$$

$$+ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \left( \sum_{j=i+1}^n (|V(G_j)|-1)/V_{1,j-1} \right) |V_{1,n}^i / \Gamma_v(G_i).$$

**Corollary 8.** [18]. Suppose  $G_1, G_2, \dots, G_n$  are connected, rooted and distance-balanced graphs with root vertices  $r_1, \dots, r_n$ , respectively, such that  $r_i$  lies on no odd cycle of  $G_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} Sz_v(G_n \frown \dots \frown G_2 \frown G_1) &= \sum_{i=1}^n |V_{i+1,n}| / |V_{1,i-1}|^2 Sz_v(G_i) \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \left( \sum_{j=i+1}^n (|V(G_j)|-1)/V_{1,j-1} \right) |V_{1,n}^i / PI_v(G_i). \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 9.** [18]. Suppose  $G_1, G_2, \dots, G_n$  are connected rooted graphs with root vertices  $r_1, \dots, r_n$ , respectively. Then

$$\begin{aligned} Sz_e(G_n \sqcap \dots \sqcap G_2 \sqcap G_1) &= \sum_{i=1}^n |V_{i+1,n}| / Sz_e(G_i) \\ &+ \sum_{i=1}^n |V_{i+1,n}| \left( \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} |E(G_j)| / |V_{j+1,i-1}| \right)^2 Sz_v(G_i) \\ &+ 2 \sum_{i=1}^n |V_{i+1,n}| \left( \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} |E(G_j)| / |V_{j+1,i-1}| \right) Sz_{ev}(G_i) \\ &+ \sum_{i=1}^n |V_{i+1,n}| \left( \Gamma_e(G_i) + \Gamma_v(G_i) \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} |E(G_j)| / |V_{j+1,i-1}| \right) \\ &+ \sum_{j=i+1}^n \left( (|V(G_j)|-1) \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} |E(G_k)| / |V_{k+1,j-1}| + |E(G_j)| \right). \end{aligned}$$

**Corollary 10.** [18]. Suppose  $G_1, G_2, \dots, G_n$  are connected, rooted, distance-balanced and edge distance-balanced graphs with root vertices  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n$ , respectively, such that  $r_i$  lies on no odd cycle of  $G_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . Then

$$Sz_e(G_n \sqcap \dots \sqcap G_2 \sqcap G_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n |V_{i+1,n}| / Sz_e(G_i)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & + \sum_{i=1}^n |V_{i+1,n}| \left( \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} |E(G_j)| / |V_{j+1,i-1}| \right)^2 Sz_v(G_i) \\
 & + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n |V_{i+1,n}| \left( \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} |E(G_j)| / |V_{j+1,i-1}| \right) Sz_{ev}(G_i) \\
 & + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n |V_{i+1,n}| \left( PI_e(G_i) + PI_v(G_i) \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} |E(G_j)| / |V_{j+1,i-1}| \right) \\
 & \times \sum_{j=i+1}^n \left( (|V(G_j)| - 1) \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} |E(G_k)| / |V_{k+1,j-1}| + |E(G_j)| \right).
 \end{aligned}$$

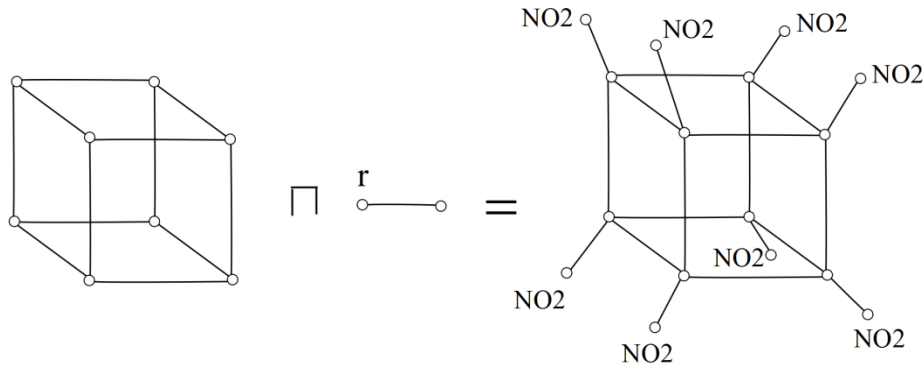
**Theorem 11.** [18]. Suppose  $G_1, G_2, \dots, G_n$  are connected rooted graphs with root vertices  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n$ , respectively. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 Sz_v^*(G_n \square \dots \square G_2 \square G_1) & = \sum_{i=1}^n |V_{1,i-1}|^2 / |V_{i+1,n}| Sz_v^*(G_i) \\
 & + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{|M_{1,n}^i|}{2} \left( \sum_{j=i+1}^n (|V(G_j)| - 1) / |V_{1,j-1}| \right) |V(G_i)| / |E(G_i)| \\
 & + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{|N_{i+1,n}|}{4} \left( \sum_{j=i+1}^n (|V(G_j)| - 1) / |V_{1,j-1}| \right)^2 N_{r_i} \\
 & + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{|M_{1,n}^i|}{2} \left( \sum_{j=i+1}^n (|V(G_j)| - 1) / |V_{1,j-1}| \right) (\Gamma_v(G_i) - \Gamma_v^c(G_i))
 \end{aligned}$$

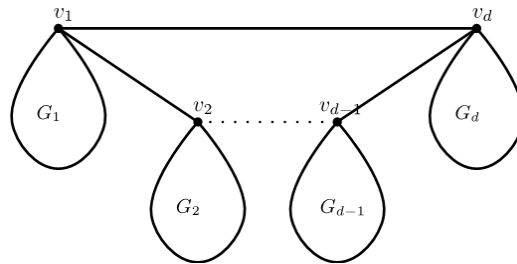
where  $N_{r_i} = |\{uv \in E(G_i) \mid d_{G_i}(u, r_i) = d_{G_i}(v, r_i)\}|$ .

**Corollary 12.** [18]. Suppose  $G_1, G_2, \dots, G_n$  are connected, rooted, bipartite and distance-balanced graphs with root vertices  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n$ , respectively. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 Sz_v^*(G_n \square \dots \square G_2 \square G_1) & = \sum_{i=1}^n |V_{1,i-1}|^2 / |V_{i+1,n}| Sz_v^*(G_i) \\
 & + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{|M_{1,n}^i|}{2} \left( \sum_{j=i+1}^n (|V(G_j)| - 1) / |V_{1,j-1}| \right) PI_v(G_i).
 \end{aligned}$$



**Figure 3:** The Molecular Graph of Octanitrocubane.



**Figure 4:** The Bridge-Cycle Graph.

**Example 13.** Octanitrocubane is the most powerful chemical explosive with formula  $C_8(NO_2)_8$ , Figure 3. Let  $H$  be the molecular graph of this molecule. Then obviously  $H = Q_3 \square P_2$ . On the other hand, one can easily see that  $S_{z_v}(Q_3) = S_{z_e}(Q_3) = S_{z_{ev}}(Q_3) = S_{z_v}^*(Q_3) = 192$ ,  $\Gamma_v(P_2) = 1$  and  $\Gamma_e(P_2) = 0$  and so, by the above results, we have:  
 $S_{z_v}(H) = S_{z_v}(Q_3 \square P_2) = 888$ ,  $S_{z_e}(H) = S_{z_e}(Q_3 \square P_2) = 768$ ,  $S_{z_{ev}}(H) = S_{z_v}(Q_3 \square P_2) = 888$ .

**Example 14.** Let  $\{G_i\}_{i=1}^d$  be a set of finite pairwise disjoint graphs with  $v_i \in V(G_i)$ . The bridge-cycle graph  $BC(G_1, G_2, \dots, G_d) = BC(G_1, G_2, \dots, G_d; v_1, v_2, \dots, v_d)$  of  $\{G_i\}_{i=1}^d$  with respect to the vertices  $\{v_i\}_{i=1}^d$  is the graph obtained from the graphs  $G_1, \dots, G_d$  by connecting the vertices  $v_i$  and  $v_{i+1}$  by an edge for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, d-1$  and connecting the vertices  $v_1$  and  $v_d$  by an edge, see Figure 4. Suppose that  $G_1 = \dots = G_d = G$ . Then we have  $BC(G_1, G_2, \dots, G_d) \cong C_d \square G$ . On the other hand, It is not so difficult to check that

$$S_{z_v}(C_n) = \begin{cases} \frac{n^3}{4} & 2 \mid n \\ \frac{n^2(n-1)}{4} & 2 \nmid n \end{cases} . \text{ Therefore, if } 2 \mid n, \text{ by Theorem 1, we have } S_{z_v}(C_n \square G) = n$$



$$S_{z_v}(G) + \frac{n^3}{4} |V(G)|^2 + n(n-1)|V(G)|/\Gamma_v(G) \text{ and if } 2 \nmid n, \text{ then } S_{z_v}(C_n \nabla G) = n S_{z_v}(G) + \frac{n(n-1)^2}{4} |V(G)|^2 + n(n-1)|V(G)|/\Gamma_v(G).$$

By replacing  $G$  with  $P_m$  (such that  $r$  is a pendant vertex of  $P_m$ ) in the above relations, we obtain  $S_{z_v}$  of  $Sun_{n,m-1}$ , see [19], as follow:

$$S_{z_v}(Sun_{n,m-1}) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{4} n^3 m^2 + \frac{1}{2} n^2 m^3 - \frac{1}{2} n^2 m^2 - \frac{1}{3} n m^3 + \frac{1}{2} n m^2 - \frac{1}{6} n m & 2 \mid n \\ \frac{1}{4} n^3 m^2 - n^2 m^2 + \frac{3}{4} n m^2 + \frac{1}{2} n^2 m^3 - \frac{1}{3} n m^3 - \frac{1}{6} n m & 2 \nmid n \end{cases}.$$

**ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.** This research was supported by a grant from Ferdowsi University of Mashhad; (No. MA91292RAH).

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