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# Fibonacci number of the tadpole graph 

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#### Abstract

In 1982, Prodinger and Tichy defined the Fibonacci number of a graph $G$ to be the number of independent sets of the graph $G$. They did so since the Fibonacci number of the path graph $P_{n}$ is the Fibonacci number $F_{n+2}$ and the Fibonacci number of the cycle graph $C_{n}$ is the Lucas number $L_{n}$. The tadpole graph $T_{n, k}$ is the graph created by concatenating $C_{n}$ and $P_{k}$ with an edge from any vertex of $C_{n}$ to a pendant of $P_{k}$ for integers $n=3$ and $k=0$. This paper establishes formulae and identities for the Fibonacci number of the tadpole graph via algebraic and combinatorial methods.


Keywords: independent sets; Fibonacci sequence; cycles; paths Mathematics Subject Classification : 05C69

## 1. Introduction

Given a graph $G=(V, E)$, a set $S \subseteq V$ is an independent set of vertices if no two vertices in $S$ are adjacent. In our illustrations, we indicate membership in an independent set $S$ by shading the vertices in $S$. Let the set of all independent sets of a graph $G$ be denoted by $I(G)$ and let $i(G)=$ $|I(G)|$. Note that $\emptyset \in I(G)$. The path graph, $P_{n}$, consists of the vertex set $V=\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ and the edge set $E=\{\{1,2\},\{2,3\}, \ldots,\{n-1, n\}\}$. The cycle graph, $C_{n}$, is the path graph, $P_{n}$, with the additional edge $\{1, n\}$.

Table 1 shows initial Fibonacci and Lucas numbers. In 1982, Prodinger and Tichy defined the Fibonacci number of a graph $G, i(G)$, to be the number of independent sets (including the empty

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Figure 1. Independent sets of $P_{1} ; P_{2} ; P_{3}$; and $P_{4}$.


Figure 2. Independent sets of $C_{3}$ and $C_{4}$.
set) of the graph $G$ [5]. They did so because the Fibonacci number of the path graph $P_{n}$ is the Fibonacci number $F_{n+2}$, and the Fibonacci number of the cycle graph $C_{n}$ is the Lucas number $L_{n}$.

| $n$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $F_{n}$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 5 | 8 | 13 | 21 | 34 |
| $L_{n}$ | 2 | 1 | 3 | 4 | 7 | 11 | 18 | 29 | 47 | 76 |

Table 1: Initial values of the Fibonacci and Lucas sequences
In [1], the authors of this paper use these graphs to combinatorially derive identities relating Fibonacci and Lucas numbers.

Example 1. $L_{n}=F_{n-1}+F_{n+1}$ for positive integers $n \geq 3$.
Proof. On the one hand we know that $i\left(C_{n}\right)=L_{n}$. On the other hand, vertex 1 is either a member of the independent set or it is not. If not, then any independent set from $P_{n-1}$, formed by vertices 2 through $n$, can be selected in $i\left(P_{n-1}\right)$ ways. If in the set, then the remaining members can be selected in $i\left(P_{n-3}\right)$ ways from the path formed by vertices 3 through $n-1$, since vertices 2 and $n$ can not be selected. Hence, $L_{n}=i\left(C_{n}\right)=i\left(P_{n-3}\right)+i\left(P_{n-1}\right)=F_{n-1}+F_{n+1}$.

The Fibonacci sequence and the Lucas sequence are famous examples of the more general form called the Gibonacci sequence [3]. For integers $G_{0}=a$ and $G_{1}=b$, the Gibonacci sequence is defined recursively as $G_{n}=G_{n-1}+G_{n-2}$ for positive integers $n \geq 2$. Do other graphs exist whose Fibonacci numbers form a Gibonacci sequence?

The tadpole graph, $T_{n, k}$, is the graph created by concatenating $C_{n}$ and $P_{k}$ with an edge from any vertex of $C_{n}$ to a pendent of $P_{k}$ for integers $n \geq 3$ and $k \geq 0$. For ease of reference we label the vertices of the cycle $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n}$, the vertices of the path $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{k}$ where $c_{1}$ is adjacent to $p_{1}$.


Figure 3. The Tadpole Graph $T_{n, k}$.

Example 2. Independent sets on $T_{3,2}$


Figure 4. $T_{3,2}$.

$$
I\left(T_{3,2}\right)=\left\{\emptyset,\left\{c_{1}\right\},\left\{c_{2}\right\},\left\{c_{3}\right\},\left\{p_{1}\right\},\left\{p_{2}\right\},\left\{c_{1}, p_{2}\right\},\left\{c_{2}, p_{1}\right\},\left\{c_{2}, p_{2}\right\},\left\{c_{3}, p_{1}\right\},\left\{c_{3}, p_{2}\right\}\right\}
$$

Theorem 1.1. $i\left(T_{n, k}\right)=i\left(T_{n, k-1}\right)+i\left(T_{n, k-2}\right)$.
Proof. We show that $I\left(T_{n, k}\right)=I\left(T_{n, k-1}\right) \cup I\left(T_{n, k-2}\right)$ where $I\left(T_{n, k-1}\right) \cap I\left(T_{n, k-2}\right)=\emptyset$. Partition $I\left(T_{n, k}\right)$ into two disjoint subsets: sets where $p_{k}$ is shaded and sets where $p_{k}$ is not shaded. For every independent set in $I\left(T_{n, k-2}\right)$, add an unshaded vertex $p_{k-1}$ followed by a shaded vertex $p_{k}$ to the end of the path graph. For every independent set in $I\left(T_{n, k-1}\right)$, add an unshaded vertex $p_{k}$ to the end of the path graph. Therefore, $i\left(T_{n, k}\right)=i\left(T_{n, k-1}\right)+i\left(T_{n, k-2}\right)$.
Theorem 1.2. $i\left(T_{n, k}\right)=i\left(T_{n-1, k}\right)+i\left(T_{n-2, k}\right)$.
Proof. Again, we show that $I\left(T_{n, k}\right)=I\left(T_{n-1, k}\right) \cup I\left(T_{n-2, k}\right)$ where $I\left(T_{n-1, k}\right) \cap I\left(T_{n-2, k}\right)=\emptyset$. Label any three consecutive vertices of $T_{n, k}$ of degree two from the cycle as $n-1, n$ and 1 . For every independent set in $I\left(T_{n-2, k}\right)$, if vertex 1 is shaded (then vertex $n-2$ is not shaded), insert a shaded vertex $n-1$ and an unshaded vertex $n$, thus creating all independent sets of $T_{n, k}$ that include both 1 and $n-1$. If vertex 1 is not shaded, then insert a shaded vertex $n$ and unshaded vertex $n-1$ creating all independent sets where vertex $n$ is shaded. For every independent set in $I\left(T_{n-1, k}\right)$, insert an unshaded vertex $n$ which finally creates all independent sets where either 1 or $n-1$ is shaded or none of $n-1, n$ and 1 are shaded. Therefore, $i\left(T_{n, k}\right)=i\left(T_{n-1, k}\right)+i\left(T_{n-2, k}\right)$.

It is immediate that $i\left(T_{n, 0}\right)=L_{n}$ since $T_{n, 0} \cong C_{n}$. Computing $i\left(T_{3,2}\right)=11$ and $i\left(T_{4,1}\right)=12$ allows us to effortlessly fill in the following table since by Theorems 1.1 and 1.2, every row and column forms a Gibonacci sequence.

|  | $k$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $n$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 |  | 4 | 7 | 11 | 18 | 29 | 47 | 76 | 123 | 199 | 322 | 521 |
| 4 |  | 7 | 12 | 19 | 31 | 50 | 81 | 131 | 212 | 343 | 555 | 898 |
| 5 |  | 11 | 19 | 30 | 49 | 79 | 128 | 207 | 335 | 542 | 877 | 1419 |
| 6 |  | 18 | 31 | 49 | 80 | 129 | 209 | 338 | 547 | 885 | 1432 | 2317 |
| 7 |  | 29 | 50 | 79 | 129 | 208 | 337 | 545 | 882 | 1427 | 2309 | 3736 |
| 8 |  | 47 | 81 | 128 | 209 | 337 | 546 | 883 | 1429 | 2312 | 3741 | 6053 |
| 9 |  | 76 | 131 | 207 | 338 | 545 | 883 | 1428 | 2311 | 3739 | 6050 | 9789 |
| 10 | 123 | 212 | 335 | 547 | 882 | 1429 | 2311 | 3740 | 6051 | 9791 | 15842 |  |

Table 2: Fibonacci Numbers for the Tadpole Graph, $T_{n, k}$
It is easy to directly compute the Fibonacci number of any Tadpole graph.
Theorem 1.3. $i\left(T_{n, k}\right)=L_{n+k}+F_{n-3} F_{k}$.
Proof. We proceed with two base cases and strong induction on $k$. Suppose $k=0$. Then $i\left(T_{n, 0}\right)=$ $i\left(C_{n}\right)=L_{n}+F_{n-3} F_{0}=L_{n}$. For $k=1$, combinatorially, $i\left(T_{n, 1}\right)=i\left(C_{n}\right)+i\left(P_{n-1}\right)=L_{n}+F_{n+1}$. Now algebraically,

$$
\begin{aligned}
L_{n}+F_{n+1} & =L_{n+1}-L_{n-1}+F_{n}+F_{n-1} \\
& =L_{n+1}-F_{n-2}+F_{n-1} \\
& =L_{n+1}+F_{n-3} F_{1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally, for general $k \geq 2$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
i\left(T_{n, k+1}\right) & =i\left(T_{n, k}\right)+i\left(T_{n, k-1}\right) \\
& =L_{n+k}+F_{n-3} F_{k}+L_{n+k-1}+F_{n-3} F_{k-1} \\
& =L_{n+k+1}+F_{n-3} F_{k+1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 1.4. For $n \geq 3$ and $k \geq 0$,

1. $L_{n+k}=F_{n-1} F_{k+1}+F_{n+1} F_{k+2}-F_{n-3} F_{k}$;
2. $L_{n+k}=F_{n+1} F_{k}+L_{n} F_{k+1}-F_{n-3} F_{k}$;
3. $L_{n+k}=F_{n-1} F_{k+2}+F_{n+k+1}-F_{n-3} F_{k}$.

Proof. For 1, we know that there are $L_{n+k}+F_{n-3} F_{k}$ independent sets on the tadpole graph $T_{n, k}$. Now we partition $I\left(T_{n, k}\right)$ into two disjoint sets: sets that contain $c_{1}$ and sets that do not. If $c_{1}$ is included in the independent set then $c_{2}, c_{n}$ and $p_{1}$ are not. Hence, there are $i\left(P_{n-3}\right) i\left(P_{k-1}\right)=$ $F_{n-1} F_{k+1}$ such sets. If $c_{1}$ is not included in the independent set then there are $i\left(P_{n-1}\right) i\left(P_{k}\right)=$ $F_{n+1} F_{k+2}$ such sets. So, $L_{n+k}+F_{n-3} F_{k}=F_{n-1} F_{k+1}+F_{n+1} F_{k+2}$ and the result follows.

For 2, we partition $I\left(T_{n, k}\right)$ into two disjoint sets: sets that contain $p_{1}$ and sets that do not. If $p_{1}$ is included in the independent set then $c_{1}$, and $p_{2}$ are not. Hence, there are $i\left(P_{n-1}\right) i\left(P_{k-2}\right)=F_{n+1} F_{k}$ such sets. If $p_{1}$ is not included in the independent set then there are $i\left(C_{n}\right) i\left(P_{k-1}\right)=L_{n} F_{k+1}$ such sets. So $L_{n+k}+F_{n-3} F_{k}=F_{n+1} F_{k}+L_{n} F_{k+1}$ and the result follows.

For 3, we partition $I\left(T_{n, k}\right)$ into two disjoint sets: sets that contain $c_{n}$ and sets that do not. If $c_{n}$ is included in the independent set then $c_{1}$ and $c_{n-1}$ are not. Hence, there are $i\left(P_{n-3}\right) i\left(P_{k}\right)=$ $F_{n-1} F_{k+2}$ such sets. If $c_{n}$ is not included in the independent set then there are $i\left(P_{n-1+k}\right)=F_{n+k+1}$ such sets. So, $L_{n+k}+F_{n-3} F_{k}=F_{n-1} F_{k+2}+F_{n+k+1}$ and the result follows.

## 2. Tadpole Triangle

We turn Table 2 into a triangular array where the $(n, k)$ entry for $n \geq 3$ and $k \geq 0$ will be denoted $t_{n, k}$. Row $n$ will represent the class of tadpole graphs with a total of $n$ vertices. As the value of $k$ increases by 1 through each row of the triangle, the cycle subgraph shrinks by one vertex and the length of the path subgraph increases by one. Thus, $t_{n, k}$ represents the number of independent sets on the Tadpole graph with $n$ vertices with a path of length $k$ (and thus, a cycle of length $n-k)$. Hence, $t_{n, k}=i\left(T_{n-k, k}\right)$. By Theorem 1.3, $t_{n, k}=L_{n}+F_{n-k-3} F_{k}$.


Table 3: The Triangular Array of Fibonacci Numbers of the Tadpole Graph
As noted before, $t_{n, 0}=i\left(T_{n, 0}\right)=L_{n}$. Casual observation seems to indicate the rows the tadpole triangle are symmetric.

Theorem 2.1. $t_{n, k}=t_{n, n-k-3}$
Proof. Theorem 1.3 provides a quick, algebraic proof of the symmetry of rows since $t_{n, n-k-3}=$ $i\left(T_{k+3, n-k-3}\right)=L_{n}+F_{k} F_{n-k-3}=i\left(T_{n-k, k}\right)=t_{n, k}$.

Proof. For a combinatorial proof of the symmetry in rows, consider $c_{2}$ in both $T_{k+3, n-k-3}$ and $T_{n-k, k}$. As before, we partition the tadpole graphs into two disjoint sets: those that contain $c_{2}$ and those that do not. Both tadpole graphs contain $n$ vertices. Thus, the number of independent sets that do not contain $c_{2}$ in each tadpole graph is the number of independent sets on the path with
$n-1$ vertices. Independent sets that contain $c_{2}$, do not contain $c_{1}$. This decomposes the tadpole graph into two disjoint paths. For both tadpole graphs, disjoint paths of length $k$ and $n-k-3$ are created. Both tadpole graphs lead to the same decomposition and $t_{n, k}=t_{n, n-k-3}$.
Theorem 2.2. $t_{n, k+1}-t_{n, k}=(-1)^{k} F_{n-2 k-4}$ for $0 \leq k \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n-3}{2}\right\rfloor$.
Proof. Algebraically,

$$
\begin{aligned}
t_{n, k+1}-t_{n, k} & =L_{n}+F_{n-k-4} F_{k+1}-\left(L_{n}+F_{n-k-3} F_{k}\right) \\
& =F_{n-k-4} F_{k+1}-F_{n-k-3} F_{k} \\
& =(-1)^{k} F_{n-2 k-4} \text { by d'Ocagne's Identity. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. Combinatorially we proceed by initially considering the mapping

$$
\Psi(S)=\left\{\begin{array}{c}
S \text { for }\left\{c_{2}, c_{n-k}\right\} \nsubseteq S \\
\left(S \backslash\left\{c_{2}\right\}\right) \cup\left\{c_{1}\right\} \text { for }\left\{c_{2}, c_{n-k}\right\} \subseteq S
\end{array}\right.
$$

from $I\left(T_{n-k, k}\right)$ to $I\left(T_{n-k-1, k+1}\right)$ as illustrated in Figure 5. The identity mapping pairs together most independent sets but encounters obvious problems since independent sets in $I\left(T_{n-k, k}\right)$ that contain both $c_{2}$ and $c_{n-k}$ do not map to $I\left(T_{n-k-1, k+1}\right)$, and independent sets in $I\left(T_{n-k-1, k+1}\right)$ that contain both $c_{1}$ and $c_{n-k}$ have no pre-image in $I\left(T_{n-k, k}\right)$. If $c_{2}$ and $c_{n-k}$ are both in the independent set, then remove $c_{2}$ from the independent set while including $c_{1}$ to create an independent set in $I\left(T_{n-k-1, k+1}\right)$ to upgrade the identity mapping to $\Psi(S)$. We now have two subtle issues which provide the value of $t_{n, k+1}-t_{n, k}$. Independent sets in $I\left(T_{n-k, k}\right)$ that contain the subset $\left\{p_{1}, c_{2}, c_{n-k}\right\}$ have no image. There are $i\left(P_{n-k-5}\right) i\left(P_{k-2}\right)=F_{n-k-3} F_{k}$ such sets. Independent sets in $I\left(T_{n-k-1, k+1}\right)$ that contain the subset $\left\{c_{1}, c_{2}, c_{n-k}\right\}$ have no pre-image. There are $i\left(P_{n-k-6}\right) i\left(P_{k-1}\right)=F_{n-k-4} F_{k+1}$ such sets. Once again, $t_{n, k+1}-t_{n, k}=F_{n-k-4} F_{k+1}-F_{n-k-3} F_{k}=$ $(-1)^{k} F_{n-2 k-4}$.


Figure 5. Mapping $I\left(T_{n-k, k}\right)$ to $I\left(T_{n-k-1, k+1}\right)$.

Theorem 2.3. $\sum_{k=0}^{n-3}(-1)^{k} t_{n, k}=\left\{\begin{array}{c}0 \text { for even } n \\ 2 F_{n} \text { for odd } n .\end{array}\right.$
Proof. For even $n$ the result is trivial due to the symmetry of row values. For odd $n$, we proceed by induction. Base cases abound from Table 3. Assume $n$ is odd and $\sum_{k=0}^{n-3}(-1)^{k} t_{n, k}=2 F_{n}$. Moving on to the next odd value we consider

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{k=0}^{n-1}(-1)^{k} t_{n+2, k} & =\left(\sum_{k=0}^{n-3}(-1)^{k} t_{n+2, k}\right)+(-1)^{n-2} t_{n+2, n-2}+(-1)^{n-1} t_{n+2, n-1} \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{n-3}(-1)^{k} t_{n+2, k}-t_{n+2, n-2}+L_{n+2} \\
& =\left(\sum_{k=0}^{n-3}(-1)^{k}\left[t_{n, k}+t_{n+1, k}\right]\right)-L_{n+2}+F_{n+2-4}+L_{n+2} \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{n-3}(-1)^{k} t_{n, k}+(-1)^{k} t_{n+1, k}-L_{n+2}-F_{n-2}+L_{n+2} \\
& =\left(\sum_{k=0}^{n-3}(-1)^{k} t_{n, k}\right)+\left(\sum_{k=0}^{n-2}(-1)^{k} t_{n+1, k}\right)+t_{n+1, n-2}-L_{n+2}-F_{n-2}+L_{n+2} \\
& =2 F_{n}+0+t_{n+1, n-2}-F_{n-2}=2 F_{n}+L_{n+1}-F_{n-2} \\
& =3 F_{n}+F_{n+2}-F_{n-2}=2 F_{n}+F_{n-1}+F_{n+2} \\
& =F_{n}+F_{n+1}+F_{n+2}=2 F_{n+2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 2.4. The ratio of consecutive row sums converges to the golden ratio $\phi$.
Proof. The sum of row $n$ can be written as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{k=0}^{n-3} t_{n, k} & =\sum_{k=0}^{n-3}\left(L_{n}+F_{n-k-3} F_{k}\right) \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{n-3} L_{n}+\sum_{k=0}^{n-3} F_{n-k-3} F_{k} \\
& =(n-2) L_{n}+\frac{(n-3) L_{n-3}-F_{n-3}}{5}
\end{aligned}
$$

Now,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n+1-2) L_{n+1}+\frac{(n+1-3) L_{n+1-3}-F_{n+1-3}}{5}}{(n-2) L_{n}+\frac{(n-3) L_{n-3}-F_{n-3}}{5}} \\
& =\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n-1) L_{n+1}+\frac{(n-2) L_{n-2}-F_{n-2}}{5}}{(n-2) L_{n}+\frac{(n-3) L_{n-3}-F_{n-3}}{5}} \\
& =\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n L_{n+1}+n L_{n-2}-F_{n-2}}{n L_{n}+n L_{n-3}-F_{n-3}} \\
& =\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{L_{n+1}+L_{n-2}}{L_{n}+L_{n-3}} \\
& =\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{L_{n}}{L_{n-1}}=\phi .
\end{aligned}
$$

A perfect matching (or 1-factor) in a graph $G=(V, E)$ is a subset $S$ of edges of $E$ such that every vertex in $V$ is incident to exactly one edge in $S$. In [2], Gutman and Cyvin define the L-shaped graph, $L_{p, q}$, to be the graph with $p+q+1$ copies of $C_{4}$ as illustrated in Figure 6 by $L_{2,1}$.


Figure 6. $L_{2,1}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \{\{1,2\},\{3,4\},\{5,6\},\{7,10\},\{8,9\}\} \\
& \{\{1,2\},\{3,4\},\{5,8\},\{6,9\},\{7,10\}\} \\
& \{\{1,2\},\{3,5\},\{4,6\},\{7,10\},\{8,9\}\} \\
& \{\{1,2\},\{3,4\},\{5,8\},\{6,7\},\{9,10\}\} \\
& \{\{1,3\},\{2,4\},\{5,6\},\{8,9\},\{7,10\}\} \\
& \{\{1,3\},\{2,4\},\{5,8\},\{6,7\},\{9,10\}\} \\
& \{\{1,3\},\{2,4\},\{5,8\},\{6,9\},\{7,10\}\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Table 4: The seven perfect matchings of $L_{2,1}$

They show that the number of perfect matchings in $L_{p, q}$ is $F_{p+q+2}+F_{p+1} F_{q+1}$. These values correspond to the columns of the tadpole triangle. This correspondence provides a quick proof of the symmetry of rows of the tadpole triangle since $L_{p, q} \approx L_{q, p}$. We number columns starting with the center at $i=0$.

Theorem 2.5. The number of perfect matchings in $L_{p, q}$ is given by $t_{p+q+1, q-1}$, the $p^{\text {th }}$ entry in columns $\pm(p-q)$.

Proof. Since the tadpole triangle is symmetric we can assume that $p \geq q$. By Theorem 1.3,

$$
\begin{aligned}
t_{p+q+1, q-1} & =L_{p+q+1}+F_{p-1} F_{q-1} \\
& =F_{p+q+2}+F_{p+q}+F_{p-1} F_{q-1} \\
& =F_{p+q+2}+\left(F_{p+1} F_{q+1}-F_{p-1} F_{q-1}\right)+F_{p-1} F_{q-1} \\
& =F_{p+q+2}+F_{p+1} F_{q+1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

## 3. Future Work

In [4], Pederson and Vestergaard show that for every unicyclic graph $G$ of order $n, L_{n} \leq$ $i(G) \leq 3 \times 2^{n-3}+1$. Furthermore they show that the minimum bound is realized only for $T_{n, 0} \approx C_{n}$ and $T_{3, n-3}$. The maximum bound occurs only for $C_{4}$ and the graph with $n-3$ pendants adjacent to the same vertex of $C_{3}$. The technique of this paper can be used to precisely determine the Fibonacci number of many classes of unicyclic graphs.

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