# ON THE DOMINATION NUMBER OF PRISMS OF GRAPHS 

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#### Abstract

For a permutation $\pi$ of the vertex set of a graph $G$, the graph $\pi G$ is obtained from two disjoint copies $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ of $G$ by joining each $v$ in $G_{1}$ to $\pi(v)$ in $G_{2}$. Hence if $\pi=1$, then $\pi G=K_{2} \times G$, the prism of $G$. Clearly, $\gamma(G) \leq \gamma(\pi G) \leq 2 \gamma(G)$. We study graphs for which $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times G\right)=2 \gamma(G)$, those for which $\gamma(\pi G)=2 \gamma(G)$ for at least one permutation $\pi$ of $V(G)$ and those for which $\gamma(\pi G)=2 \gamma(G)$ for each permutation $\pi$ of $V(G)$.


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## 1. Introduction

We generally follow the notation and terminology of [4]. Specifically, in a graph $G=(V(G), E(G))$, if $S, T \subseteq V(G)$, then the set of all edges of $G$
with one endvertex in $S$ and the other endvertex in $T$ is denoted by $E(S, T)$. Further, $N(v)=\{u \in V(G): u v \in E(G)\}$ and $N[v]=N(v) \cup\{v\}$ denote the open and closed neighbourhoods, respectively, of a vertex $v$ of $G$. The closed neighbourhood of a set $S \subseteq V(G)$, denoted by $N[S]$, is the set $\cup_{s \in S} N[s]$ and the open neighbourhood $N(S)$ of $S$ is $\cup_{s \in S} N(s)$. We will also need the set $N\{S\}=N(S)-S$. If $s \in S$, then the private neighbourhood of $s$ relative to $S$, denoted by $\mathrm{pn}(s, S)$, is the set $N[s]-N[S-\{s\}]$. A vertex in $\mathrm{pn}(s, S)$ is called a private neighbour, abbreviated $p n$, of $s$ relative to $S$.

As usual $\gamma(G)$ denotes the domination number of $G$. The set $S \subseteq V(G)$ is called a $\gamma$-set if it is a dominating set with $|S|=\gamma(G)$. For $A, B \subseteq V(G)$, we abbreviate " $A$ dominates $B$ " to " $A \succ B$ "; if $B=V(G)$ we write $A \succ G$ and if $B=\{b\}$ we write $A \succ b$. The subgraph induced by $B$ is denoted by $\langle B\rangle$. A universal vertex is one that is adjacent to all other vertices of the graph. The double star $S(k, l)$ is the graph obtained by joining the central vertices of the stars $K_{1, k}$ and $K_{1, l}$.

For a permutation $\pi$ of the vertex set of a graph $G$, the graph $\pi G$ is obtained from two disjoint copies $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ of $G$ by joining each $v$ in $G_{1}$ to $\pi(v)$ in $G_{2}$, that is, $V(\pi G)=V\left(G_{1}\right) \cup V\left(G_{2}\right)$ and $E(G)=E\left(G_{1}\right) \cup E\left(G_{2}\right) \cup$ $\left\{\{v, \pi(v)\}: v \in V\left(G_{1}\right), \pi(v) \in V\left(G_{2}\right)\right\}$. Hence if $\pi=1$, then $\pi G=K_{2} \times G$; this graph is sometimes referred to as the prism of (or over) $G$. Thus we may also think of $\pi G$, where $\pi$ is an arbitrary permutation of $V(G)$, as a type of prism of $G$. If $C_{5}$ has vertex sequence $0,1,2,3,4$ and $\pi$ is the permutation $i \rightarrow 2 i(\bmod 5)$, then $\pi C_{5}$ is the Petersen graph; other Petersen-type graphs are obtained similarly. Clearly, $\gamma(G) \leq \gamma(\pi G) \leq 2 \gamma(G)$.

We are mostly interested in graphs where the domination number of (some of) the prisms is equal to twice the domination number of the graph. We investigate graphs for which $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times G\right)=2 \gamma(G)$, called prism doublers, those for which $\gamma(\pi G)=2 \gamma(G)$ for some but not all permutations $\pi$ of $V(G)$, called partial doublers, and those for which $\gamma(\pi G)=2 \gamma(G)$ for each permutation $\pi$ of $V(G)$, called universal doublers. As we shall see, the double star $S(2,2)$ is an example of a graph which satisfies $\gamma(\pi G)=2 \gamma(G)$ for $\pi=1$ but not for all permutations $\pi$ of $V(G)$, i.e., a prism doubler but not a universal doubler, $P_{5}$ is an example of a graph that satisfies $\gamma(\pi G)=2 \gamma(G)$ for at least one permutation $\pi$ of $V(G)$ but not for $\pi=1$, i.e., a partial doubler, and $C_{6}$ is an example of a universal doubler. In addition, the graph $G$ obtained from $C_{4}$ by joining one of its vertices to two new vertices is an example of a graph that satisfies $\gamma\left(\pi_{k} G\right)=\gamma(G)+k$ for some permutation $\pi_{k}$ of $V(G), 0 \leq k \leq \gamma(G)$.

For any vertex $v$ of $G$, we denote the corresponding vertex in the subgraph $G_{i}, i=1,2$, of $\pi G$ by $v_{i}$. Similarly, any set $X \subseteq V(G)$ will be denoted by $X_{i}$ when considered in the subgraph $G_{i}$ of $\pi G$. Conversely any set $X_{i} \subseteq V\left(G_{i}\right)$ (vertex $v_{i} \in V\left(G_{i}\right)$ respectively) will be denoted by $X$ ( $v$ respectively) in $G$.

## 2. Universal Doublers

The following lemma collects some useful facts about graphs with isolated vertices.

Lemma 1. (a) (Ore, see [6]) If $\gamma(G)>|V(G)| / 2$, then $G$ has an isolated vertex.
(b) If $G$ has an isolated vertex $v$ and $\pi$ is a permutation of $V(G)$ such that $\pi(v)=v$, then $\gamma(\pi G)<2 \gamma(G)$.

Proof. (b) Suppose $G$ has an isolated vertex $v$. Let $G^{\prime}$ be the (possibly empty) subgraph induced by the other vertices of $G$. Suppose $\pi$ is a permutation of $V(G)$ with $\pi(v)=v$, and let $\pi^{\prime}$ be the permutation of $V\left(G^{\prime}\right)$ induced by $\pi$. Then $\gamma(\pi G)=\gamma\left(\pi^{\prime} G^{\prime}\right)+1<2 \gamma\left(G^{\prime}\right)+2=2 \gamma(G)$.

Proposition 2. A graph $G$ is a universal doubler if and only if for each $X \subseteq V(G)$ with $0<|X|<\gamma(G),|V(G)-N[X]| \geq 2 \gamma(G)-|X|$.

Proof. Consider any $X \subseteq V(G)$ with $0<|X|<\gamma(G)$, and let $Y=$ $V(G)-N[X]$. Suppose $|Y|<2 \gamma(G)-|X|$. If $|Y|<\gamma(G)$, let $D$ be any $\gamma$-set of $G$, and if $|Y| \geq \gamma(G)$, let $D$ be any dominating set of $G$ with $|D|=|Y|$. Let $\pi$ be any permutation of $V(G)$ such that $\pi(Y) \subseteq D$. Then $W=X_{1} \cup D_{2} \succ \pi G$ (since $X_{1} \succ V\left(G_{1}\right)-Y_{1}$ and $D_{2} \succ V\left(G_{2}\right) \cup Y_{1}$ ), and $|W|=\left|X_{1}\right|+\left|D_{2}\right|<2 \gamma(G)$.

Conversely, let $\pi$ be a permutation of $V(G)$ such that $\gamma(\pi G)<2 \gamma(G)$ and let $W=X_{1} \cup D_{2}$ be a $\gamma$-set of $\pi G$, where $X_{1}=W \cap V\left(G_{1}\right)$ and $D_{2}=W \cap V\left(G_{2}\right)$. Without loss of generality let $\left|X_{1}\right|<\gamma(G)$.

If $X_{1} \neq \phi$, then $\left|D_{2}\right|=\gamma(\pi G)-|X|<2 \gamma(G)-|X|$. Since $D_{2} \succ Y_{1}$ and each vertex of $D_{2}$ covers at most one vertex of $Y_{1}$, we have $\left|Y_{1}\right| \leq\left|D_{2}\right|$, so $|Y|<2 \gamma(G)-|X|$ as desired.

If $X_{1}=\phi$, then $D_{2} \succ V(\pi G)$, which means $D_{2}=V\left(G_{2}\right)$, since each vertex of $G_{2}$ covers just one vertex of $G_{1}$. Then $|V(G)|=\left|D_{2}\right|<2 \gamma(G)$, so by Lemma $1(\mathrm{a}), G$ has an isolated vertex, say $v$. Let $u=\pi^{-1}(v)$. Then $N_{\pi G}\left[v_{2}\right]=\left\{v_{2}, u_{1}\right\}$, so if we define $X_{1}^{\prime}=\left\{u_{1}\right\}$ and $D_{2}^{\prime}=D_{2}-\left\{v_{2}\right\}$, then
$W^{\prime}=X_{1}^{\prime} \cup D_{2}^{\prime}$ is a $\gamma$-set of $\pi G$ with $X_{1}^{\prime} \neq \phi$, reducing to the previous case.

The following corollary gives some degree properties of universal doublers. First, recall that $S \subseteq V(G)$ is a packing if the vertices in $S$ have mutually disjoint closed neighbourhoods, and that a packing which dominates $G$ is called an efficient dominating set [4, p. 108].

Corollary 3. Let $G$ be a universal doubler. Then $G$ has no isolated vertices and every vertex of $G$ that is contained in a minimum dominating set has degree at least $\gamma(G)$.

If $G$ has an efficient dominating set, then $\gamma(G) \leq \sqrt{|V(G)|+0.25}-0.5$. Otherwise, for any nonempty packing $X$ contained in a minimum dominating set of $G$ we have $\gamma(G) \leq|V(G)| /(|X|+2)$.

Proof. Let $G$ satisfy the hypothesis. By Lemma 1(b), $G$ has no isolated vertex.

Let $w$ be a vertex of $G$ that is contained in some minimum dominating set $D$ of $G$. If $\gamma(G)=1$, then since $w$ is not isolated, we have $\operatorname{deg}(w) \geq \gamma(G)$. If $\gamma(G)>1$, let $X=D-\{w\}$. Then $0<|X|<\gamma(G)$, so by Proposition 2, $|V(G)-N[X]| \geq 2 \gamma(G)-|X|=\gamma(G)+1$. Since $D$ is a dominating set, we see $\{w\} \succ V(G)-N[X]$, which implies $\operatorname{deg}(w) \geq \gamma(G)$.

Finally, suppose that $X$ satisfies the hypotheses. If $X$ dominates $G$, then since $X$ is a packing, $|V(G)| \geq \gamma(G)(\gamma(G)+1)$, from which the desired bound follows. Otherwise Proposition 2 applies to $X$, giving $|V(G)|-$ $|X|(\gamma(G)+1) \geq 2 \gamma(G)-|X|$ as needed.

Any vertex of $P_{6}$ or $C_{6}$ dominates at most three vertices and thus leaves at least three vertices undominated; hence by Proposition 2, if $G \in\left\{P_{6}, C_{6}\right\}$, then $\gamma(\pi G)=4$ for each permutation $\pi$ of $V(G)$. The next corollary allows us to produce more universal doublers.

Corollary 4. Suppose $G$ is an $r$-regular graph that has an efficient dominating set and $r \geq \gamma(G)$. Then $\gamma(\pi G)=2 \gamma(G)$ for each permutation $\pi$ of $V(G)$.

Proof. Let $X \subseteq V(G)$, with $0<|X|<\gamma(G)$; then $|N[X]| \leq(r+1)|X|$. Since $G$ has an efficient dominating set, $|V(G)|=(r+1) \gamma(G)$. Thus $\mid V(G)-$ $N[X] \mid \geq(r+1)(\gamma(G)-|X|)$, which is at least $2 \gamma(G)-|X|$ since $r \geq \gamma(G)$, and the conclusion follows from Proposition 2.

We use circulant graphs to obtain examples of universal doublers. Let $r$, $k$ be positive integers, and let $n=k(r+1)$. Let $p$ be the largest odd divisor of $r+1$, and let $m=(r+1) / p$. Define a graph $G_{r, k}$ as follows. Let $V\left(G_{r, k}\right)=\{0,1, \ldots, n-1\}$. Two distinct vertices $v, w$ are adjacent if there is some $i$ with $|i| \leq(p-1) / 2$ and $v-w \equiv i(\bmod p k)$. (Less formally, for each vertex $v$, the closed neighbourhood $N[v]$ consists of $m$ runs of $p$ vertices, with equal spacing between the runs and one run centered on $v$.) Then $G_{r, k}$ is $r$-regular; since $G_{r, k}$ has the efficient dominating set $\{i p: 0 \leq i \leq k-1\}$, $\gamma\left(G_{r, k}\right)=k$. For $r \geq k$, Corollary 4 implies $\gamma\left(\pi G_{r, k}\right)=2 \gamma\left(G_{r, k}\right)$ for each permutation $\pi$ of $V\left(G_{r, k}\right)$.

The graph $G_{r, k}$ is connected except when $r=2^{j}-1$ for some positive integer $j$, when $p=1$ and $G_{r, k}$ consists of $k$ disjoint copies of the complete graph $K_{r+1}$. When $r>1$, and $r, k$ are odd, we can change the edge set to obtain a connected graph: say distinct $v, w$ are adjacent if either $|v-w|=n / 2$ or there is $i$ with $|i| \leq(r-1) / 2$ and $v-w \equiv i(\bmod n)$. The resulting graph $G_{r, k}^{*}$ is connected and $r$-regular with an efficient dominating set $\{i(r+1): 0 \leq i \leq k-1\}$; thus $\gamma\left(G_{r, k}^{*}\right)=k$. For $r \geq k$, Corollary 4 implies $\gamma\left(\pi G_{r, k}^{*}\right)=2 \gamma\left(G_{r, k}^{*}\right)$ for each permutation $\pi$ of $V\left(G_{r, k}\right)$.

Also, the 3 -cube $G=\left(K_{2}\right)^{3}$ satisfies the hypotheses of Corollary 4 with $r=3$ and $\gamma(G)=2$, hence $\gamma(\pi G)=4$ for each permutation $\pi$ of $V(G)$.

## 3. Prism Doublers

In this section we consider graphs $G$ where the domination number of the (usual) prism of $G$ is twice that of $G$. We begin with a lemma which will allow us to study dominating sets of $G$ instead of those of its prism.

Lemma 5. The set $X$ with $X \cap V\left(G_{1}\right)=A_{1}, X \cap V\left(G_{2}\right)=B_{2}$ dominates $K_{2} \times G$ if and only if in $G$, every vertex not in $A \cup B$ is adjacent to a vertex in $A$ and to a vertex in $B$.

Proof. Suppose $X \succ K_{2} \times G$ and consider $v \in V(G)-(A \cup B)$. Now, $v_{1} \notin B_{1}$, thus $B_{2} \nsucc v_{1}$ and therefore $A_{1} \succ v_{1}$, that is, $v$ is adjacent in $G$ to a vertex in $A$. Similarly, since $v_{2} \notin A_{2}, v$ is adjacent to a vertex in $B$. Conversely, consider any $x_{i} \in V\left(G_{i}\right)$. If $x_{i} \in A_{i} \cup B_{i}$, then obviously $X \succ x_{i}$. If $x_{i} \notin A_{i} \cup B_{i}$, then $x$ is adjacent to a vertex in $A$ and to a vertex in $B$ and hence $A_{1} \succ x_{1}, B_{2} \succ x_{2}$.

If $A$ and $B$ are sets such that $A \cup B$ satisfies the conditions of Lemma 5, we say that $(A, B)$ is a dominating pair of $G$. Clearly $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times G\right)=$ $\min \{|A|+|B|:(A, B)$ is a dominating pair of $G\}$. Say that a dominating pair $(A, B)$ is minimum if $|A|+|B|=\gamma\left(K_{2} \times G\right)$. Given a set $A$, we say we extend $A$ to a dominating pair of $G$ if we find a set $B$ such that $(A, B)$ is such a pair. Note that $(A, \phi)$ is a dominating pair if and only if $A=V(G)$, and $(A, A)$ is a dominating pair if and only if $A \succ G$. More generally we have the following result which we formulate as a corollary for easy reference.

Corollary 6. The pair $(A, B)$ is a dominating pair of $G$ if and only if $V(G)-N[A] \subseteq B$ and $V(G)-N[B] \subseteq A$.

If $\gamma(G)=1$ and $G$ has at least two vertices, then $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times G\right)=2$. Now consider the case $\gamma(G)=2$; we assume that $G$ has no isolated vertices, for otherwise it is easy to see that $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times G\right)<2 \gamma(G)$.

Construct the class $\mathcal{H}$ of graphs as follows. For any $H \in \mathcal{H}, V(H)=$ $S \cup T \cup\{u, v, w\}$ and $E(H)$ consists of edges such that

- $N(u)=S, N(v)=T, N(w)=S \cup T$,
- $E(\langle S\rangle)$ and $E(\langle T\rangle)$ consist of any edges such that at least one of $\langle S\rangle$ and $\langle T\rangle$ has a universal vertex,
- $E(S, T)$ is arbitrary.

Note that if (without loss of generality) $x \in S$ is a universal vertex of $\langle S\rangle$, then $\{x, v\}$ is a $\gamma$-set of $H$ for any $H \in \mathcal{H}$, while $(\{u, v\},\{w\})$ is a dominating pair of $H$. Hence $\gamma(H)=2$ and $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times H\right) \leq 3$.

Proposition 7. If $\gamma(G)=2$, then $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times G\right)=4$ if and only if $G \notin \mathcal{H}$ and for each $\gamma$-set $X=\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}\right\}$ of $G,\left|\operatorname{pn}\left(x_{i}, X\right)\right| \geq 2$ for each $i$, where $\left|\mathrm{pn}\left(x_{i}, X\right)\right|=2$ implies that $\mathrm{pn}\left(x_{i}, X\right)$ does not dominate $G-x_{j}, i \neq j$.

Proof. Suppose $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times G\right)=4$; clearly $G \notin \mathcal{H}$. Let $X=\left\{x, x^{\prime}\right\}$ be any $\gamma$-set of $G$. If $\mathrm{pn}(x, X)=\{y\}$, then $\left(\left\{x^{\prime}, y\right\},\left\{x^{\prime}\right\}\right)$ is a dominating pair of $G$ and $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times G\right) \leq 3$, a contradiction. Hence each vertex in $X$ has at least two $X$-pns. If $Y=\operatorname{pn}(x, X)$ dominates $G-x^{\prime}$ and $|Y|=2$, then $\left(Y,\left\{x^{\prime}\right\}\right)$ is a dominating pair, again a contradiction.

Conversely, suppose $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times G\right)<4$ and suppose that $(A, B)$ is a minimum dominating pair of $G$ such that $|A| \leq|B|$. If $A$ is empty then $B=V(G)$ so $|V(G)| \leq 3$. Then $\gamma(G)=2$ and Lemma 1(a) imply $G$ has an isolated
vertex, and the conclusion follows. So we may assume $|A|=1$ and $|B| \leq 2$, say $A=\{w\}, Y=V(G)-N[w]$. If $Y=\{y\}$, then $\{y, w\}$ is a $\gamma$-set of $G$ in which $y$ has itself as its only pn and we are done.

By Corollary $6, Y \subseteq B$ and so $|Y| \leq|B| \leq 2$. Hence we may assume that $|Y|=2$; say $Y=\{u, v\}$. Then $B=\{u, v\}$ and since $(A, B)$ is a dominating pair, $B \succ G-w$ and $w \succ G-\{u, v\}$. Therefore, if there is a vertex $y$ in $G$ that dominates $\{u, v\}$, then $\{y, w\}$ is a $\gamma$-set of $G$ such that $\operatorname{pn}(y,\{y, w\})=B \succ G-w$. If there is no such vertex $y$, then $d(u, v) \geq 3$. If $d(u, v) \geq 5$, then in any shortest $(u, v)$-path there are at least two vertices that are not dominated by $\{u, v\}$, contradicting the fact that $B \succ G-w$. Hence $3 \leq d(u, v) \leq 4$.

If $d(u, v)=4$, then $w$ is the unique vertex of $G$ not dominated by $\{u, v\}$, and $w$ lies on each $(u, v)$-path. Since $\gamma(G)=2$, it follows that to dominate $\{u, v, w\}$, there is at least one vertex that dominates (without loss of generality) both $u$ and $w$, as well as each central vertex on any ( $u, w)$-path of length two. Thus $G \in \mathcal{H}$ with $E(S, T)=\phi$. Similarly, if $d(u, v)=3$, then $G \in \mathcal{H}$ with $E(S, T) \neq \phi$.
This result can be generalized as follows. (Recall that $N\{X\}=N[X]-X$.)
Theorem 8. A graph $G$ is a prism doubler if and only if for each pair of sets $X, Y \subseteq V(G)$ with $0<|X|<\gamma(G)$ and $Y=V(G)-N[X]$, either
(a) $|Y| \geq 2 \gamma(G)-|X|$, or
(b) $|Y|=2 \gamma(G)-|X|-d$ for some $d, 1 \leq d \leq|X|$, and at least $d$ vertices (necessarily in $N[X]$ ) are required to dominate $N\{X\}-N[Y]$.

Proof. Suppose $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times G\right)=2 \gamma(G)$ and consider any $X \subseteq V(G)$ with $0<|X|<\gamma(G)$. Note that $(X, X \cup Y)$ is a dominating pair of $G$. If $|Y| \geq 2 \gamma(G)-|X|$, we are done. If $|Y|<2 \gamma(G)-2|X|$, then $|X|+|X \cup Y|<$ $2|X|+2 \gamma(G)-2|X|=2 \gamma(G)$. Hence we assume that $2 \gamma(G)-2|X| \leq|Y| \leq$ $2 \gamma(G)-|X|-1$; say $|Y|=2 \gamma(G)-|X|-d$, where $1 \leq d \leq|X|$. Suppose there is $Z \subseteq N[X]$ such that $|Z| \leq d-1$ and $Z \succ N\{X\}-N[Y]$. Then $N\{X\} \subseteq N[Y] \cup N[Z]$, hence $V(G)-N[Y \cup Z]=V(G)-(N[Y] \cup N[Z]) \subseteq X$ and so by Corollary $6,(X, Y \cup Z)$ is a dominating pair of $G$. But $|X|+|Y \cup Z| \leq|X|+(2 \gamma(G)-|X|-d)+(d-1)=2 \gamma(G)-1$, a contradiction. Hence (b) holds.

Conversely, suppose $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times G\right)<2 \gamma(G)$ and consider any minimum dominating pair ( $X, D$ ) of $G$. Since $|X|+|D|<2 \gamma(G)$, we may assume
$|X|<\gamma(G)$ and $|D|<2 \gamma(G)-|X|$. If $X$ is empty then $D=V(G)$ so $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times G\right)=|V(G)|$. Thus $|V(G)|<2 \gamma(G)$, so by Lemma $1(\mathrm{a}), G$ has an isolated vertex, say $v$. Then $(\{v\}, D-\{v\})$ is a minimum dominating pair, so we may assume $X$ is nonempty. Let $Y=V(G)-N[X]$. By Corollary $6, Y \subseteq$ $D$ and so $|Y|<2 \gamma(G)-|X|$; hence (a) does not hold. If $|Y|<2 \gamma(G)-2|X|$, then (b) does not hold either (because $d$ is not in the stated range) and we are done. Hence suppose $|Y|=2 \gamma(G)-|X|-d$ for some $d$ with $1 \leq d \leq|X|$. Let $Z=D-Y$; then $Y \cup Z=D \succ V(G)-X$ and so $Z \succ N\{X\}-N[Y]$. Further, $|Z|=|D|-|Y|<(2 \gamma(G)-|X|)-(2 \gamma(G)-|X|-d)=d$. Hence (b) does not hold.

We now apply Proposition 7 and Theorem 8 to paths and cycles to show that with the exception of $P_{3}, C_{3}$ (which have $\gamma=1$ ), $P_{6}$ and $C_{6}$ (see Section 2), no path or cycle is a prism doubler. Let $P_{n}, C_{n}$ have vertex sequence $1,2, \ldots, n$.

- Note that $P_{4}, C_{4}$ have $\gamma$-sets in which a vertex has only one pn; hence by Proposition 7, $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times P_{4}\right), \gamma\left(K_{2} \times C_{4}\right)<4$. Also, $P_{5} \in \mathcal{H}$, hence $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times P_{5}\right)<4$. For any two non-adjacent vertices $x$ and $y$ of $C_{5}$, $X=\{x, y\}$ is a $\gamma$-set of $C_{5}$, where $x$ has two pns (one of which is $x$ ) and $\operatorname{pn}(x, X)$ dominates $V(G)-\{y\}$. Thus $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times C_{5}\right)<4$.
- For $n \geq 7$, write $n=4 i+r$ with $0 \leq r \leq 3$. For $G \in\left\{P_{n}, C_{n}\right\}$, let $X=\{4 j-1: j=1, \ldots, i\}$, except for $P_{4 i}$ let $X=\{4 j-1: j=$ $1, \ldots, i-1\} \cup\{4 i\}$. Then $|X|=i$ in all cases. Let $Y=V(G)-N[X]$. Except for $G=P_{4 i}, Y=\{4 j-3: j=1, \ldots, i\} \cup\{4 i+j: 1 \leq j \leq r\}$. For $P_{4 i}, Y=\{4 j-3: j=1, \ldots, i\} \cup\{4 i-2\}$. Thus $|Y|=i+r$ except for $P_{4 i}$, when $|Y|=i+1$. Then using $\gamma(G)=\lceil n / 3\rceil$, it is straightforward to verify $|X|<\gamma(G)$ and $|Y|<2 \gamma(G)-|X|$.
In all cases, $X$ contains neither vertices at distance less than four nor, when $G=P_{n}$, any vertex adjacent to an end vertex. Therefore $Y \succ$ $V(G)-X$. In particular, $N\{X\}-N[Y]=\phi$, so $X$ does not satisfy the conditions of Theorem 8, and thus $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times G\right)<2 \gamma(G)$.

As an example of a prism doubler that is not a universal doubler, consider the double star $S(k, l)$ with $k, l \geq 2$. Proposition 7 shows that $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times S(k, l)\right)=4$. However, if $k=2$, then Figure 1 illustrates a permutation $\pi$ such that $\gamma(\pi S(k, l))=3$. A similar result holds for the graph $K_{n}\left(k_{1}, \ldots, k_{n}\right), k_{i} \geq n$, obtained by joining $k_{i}$ new vertices to vertex $v_{i}$ of $K_{n}$ with $V\left(K_{n}\right)=\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$.

We now consider prism doublers with the additional properties that they are regular and have efficient dominating sets; say that such a graph is a perfect doubler.


Figure 1. $\gamma(\pi G)=3$

Above we have shown that $C_{3 i}$ is a perfect doubler only when $i \leq 2$. Here is an infinite family of examples: for each positive integer $m$, set $G_{m}=$ $K_{2} \times C_{4 m}$. Then $G_{m}$ is a 3 -regular graph with $8 m$ vertices, and has an efficient dominating set $\{(0,4 j),(1,4 j+2): 0 \leq j \leq m-1\}$ of size $2 m$. It can be proved by induction that $G_{m}$ is a perfect doubler for each $m$. Also, as shown in the previous section, the graphs $G_{r, k}$ and $G_{r, k}^{*}$ are perfect doublers when $r \geq k$.

A more interesting family of examples is provided by the hypercubes. For a positive integer $p$, consider the $\left(2^{p}-1\right)$-dimensional binary hypercube $G_{p}=\left(K_{2}\right)^{2^{p}-1}$. This graph is $\left(2^{p}-1\right)$-regular and has efficient dominating sets (also known as perfect single-error-correcting codes), for example the Hamming code $\mathcal{H}_{p}$ (see for Example [7, p. 423]). Thus $\gamma\left(G_{p}\right)=2^{2^{p}-1-p}$. It has been shown (in [5] and independently in [8]) that $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times G_{p}\right)=$ $\gamma\left(\left(K_{2}\right)^{2^{p}}\right)=2^{2^{p}-p}=2 \gamma\left(G_{p}\right)$.

The ternary hypercubes with efficient dominating sets are also perfect doublers [1]. That is, for $p \geq 1$, let $T_{p}=\left(K_{3}\right)^{\left(3^{p}-1\right) / 2}$. Then $\gamma\left(T_{p}\right)=$ $3^{\left(\left(3^{p}-1\right) / 2\right)-p}$ and $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times T_{p}\right)=2 \gamma\left(T_{p}\right)$.

Here is a version of Theorem 8 useful for regular graphs with efficient dominating sets.

Corollary 9. Let $G$ be an $r$-regular graph with an efficient dominating set. Suppose that for each subset $X$ of $V(G)$ with $\frac{r-1}{r} \gamma(G)<|X|<\gamma(G)$ and $(r-1) \gamma(G)<|N\{X\}|$, there does not exist any set $W$ satisfying $V(G)-$ $N[X] \subseteq W \subseteq V(G)$ and $|W|<2 \gamma(G)-|X|$ and $W \succ V(G)-X$. Then $G$ is a perfect doubler.

Proof. Suppose that $G$ is an $r$-regular graph with an efficient dominating set, but not a perfect doubler. Then there is some $X \subseteq V(G)$ with $0<$ $|X|<\gamma(G)$ for which conditions (a) and (b) of Theorem 8 both fail. Set $Y=V(G)-N[X]$.

Since (a) does not hold, $|Y|<2 \gamma(G)-|X|$. As $|V(G)|=(r+1) \gamma(G)$, this implies $(r-1) \gamma(G)<|N[X]|-|X|=|N\{X\}|$. The $r$-regularity of $G$ gives $|N\{X\}| \leq r|X|$, so $\frac{r-1}{r} \gamma(G)<|X|$.

Since (b) does not hold, $|Y|=2 \gamma(G)-|X|-d$ for some $d, 1 \leq d \leq|X|$, and some vertex set $S$ satisfies $|S|<d$ and $S \succ N\{X\}-N[Y]$. Set $W=$ $Y \cup S$. Then $|W|<2 \gamma(G)-|X|$ and $W \succ V(G)-X$.
We need the following definition from [3] to give another example of a perfect doubler. Let $k$ be an integer, $k>1$, and let $S=\{1,2, \ldots, 2 k-1\}$. The vertices of the odd graph $O_{k}$ are the subsets of $S$ of cardinality $k-1$, and two vertices of $O_{k}$ are adjacent if they are disjoint sets.

Thus $O_{k}$ is a $k$-regular graph with $C(2 k-1, k-1)$ vertices. For example, $O_{2} \cong K_{3}$ and $O_{3}$ is isomorphic to the Petersen graph. Biggs has shown [2, Sections 3j, 21b, 21j] that if $O_{k}$ has an efficient dominating set, then $k$ is even. Such sets are known to exist for $k=2,4,6$ and it is conjectured [3] that there are no more.

We next show that $O_{2}$ and $O_{4}$ are perfect doublers. We will need the following result, equivalent to [3, Section 2.3]: the distance between vertices $v, w$ of $O_{k}$ is

$$
d(v, w)= \begin{cases}2|v \cap w|+1 & \text { if }|v \cap w|<(k-1) / 2  \tag{1}\\ 2(k-1-|v \cap w|) & \text { otherwise. }\end{cases}
$$

This implies that $O_{k}$ has diameter $k-1$.
Proposition 10. For $G \in\left\{O_{2}, O_{4}\right\}, \gamma\left(K_{2} \times G\right)=2 \gamma(G)$.
Proof. Since $O_{2} \cong K_{3}$, it suffices to consider $O_{4}$, which is a 4-regular graph with 35 vertices, diameter 3 , and domination number 7 ; an efficient
dominating set of $O_{4}$ is $\{123,145,167,246,257,347,356\}$. Here and later, we write vertices of $O_{4}$ as strings of length 3 .

By Corollary 9 , we need only examine vertex sets $X$ with $\frac{3}{4} \gamma\left(O_{4}\right)<$ $|X|<\gamma\left(O_{4}\right)$, which means $|X|=6$. We also may assume $3 \gamma\left(O_{4}\right)<|N\{X\}|$, and then $|X|=6$ implies $|N[X]| \geq 28$. Since $O_{4}$ is 4-regular and $|X|=6$, $|N[X]| \leq 30$.

For a vertex set $X$, choose a maximum size packing $X^{\prime}$ inside $X$. For distinct vertices $v, w$ of $X^{\prime}$, it follows from (1) that $|v \cap w|=1$.

With $X \subseteq V\left(O_{4}\right)$ of size 6 , consider the possibility $\left|X^{\prime}\right| \geq 5$. At least one of the indices $1, \ldots, 7$ must then occur at least $15 / 7$ times among the vertices of $X^{\prime}$; that is, some index occurs at least three times. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $123,145,167$ are in $X^{\prime}$. No other vertex of $X^{\prime}$ can then contain 1 (otherwise such a vertex will have at least two indices in common with one of 123,145 or 167). Since vertices of $X^{\prime}$ are not adjacent, some index occurs at least twice in the remaining members of $X^{\prime}$, so we may assume 246 and 257 are in $X^{\prime}$. If $\left|X^{\prime}\right|=6$, it is not difficult to see that the last member of $X^{\prime}$ is either 347 or 356 .

If $|N[X]|=30$ then $X=X^{\prime}$, and by the previous paragraph, $X$ consists of all but one vertex, say $z$, of an efficient dominating set of $O_{4}$. Then $V\left(O_{4}\right)-N[X]=N[z]$ has 5 elements. Note that $N[z]$ dominates a vertex $w \in V\left(O_{4}\right)-N[z]$ if and only if $d(z, w)=2$, that is, if and only if (by (1)) $|z \cap w|=2$. Thus $N[z]$ dominates 12 vertices in $V\left(O_{4}\right)-N[z]$ and 17 vertices in total. Two more vertices will cover at most 10 more vertices, so it is not possible to find a set $W$ of 7 vertices including those of $N[z]$ that covers the 29 vertices of $V\left(O_{4}\right)-X$.

For the remainder of the proof, it is helpful to consider the situation where there is a vertex not in $X$ that is covered by more than one vertex in $X$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that 135 and 357 are in $X$; these both cover 246 . The vertices that are at distance 3 from both 135 and 357 may be divided into three families: $\mathcal{F}_{1}=\{234,236,346\}, \mathcal{F}_{2}=$ $\{245,256,456\}$, and $\mathcal{F}_{3}=\{127,147,167\}$.

If $|N[X]|=29$ then $V\left(O_{4}\right)$ contains one vertex doubly covered by $X$ and 28 that are singly covered. Thus one internal distance of the set $X$ is 2 , and the other distances are 3 . We may assume 135,357 are the members of $X$ at distance 2 ; then the remaining four vertices of $X$ are in $\mathcal{F}_{1} \cup \mathcal{F}_{2} \cup \mathcal{F}_{3}$. Since the internal distances of each $\mathcal{F}_{i}$ are all 2 , this is not possible.

If $|N[X]|=28$, then from $V\left(O_{4}\right)-N[X] \subseteq W$ and $|W|<2 \gamma\left(O_{4}\right)-|X|$ we see that $W=V\left(O_{4}\right)-N[X]$.

If some vertex not in $X$ is multiply covered by $X$, we may again assume that $135,357 \in X$ and $246 \notin X$. It then follows from $|N[X]| \geq 28$ that three vertices of $X$, say $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}$, are at distance 3 from each other and from each of 135,357 . Since the internal distances of each $\mathcal{F}_{i}$ are all 2 , each $\mathcal{F}_{i}$ contains one $x_{j}$. However, the four neighbours of 246 are 135 and 357 (which are in X), 157 (which is adjacent to every member of $\mathcal{F}_{1}$ ), and 137 (adjacent to every member of $\mathcal{F}_{2}$. Thus $N(246) \subseteq N[X]$, so $W=V\left(O_{4}\right)-N[X]$ does not cover 246.

The only other conceivable way to have $|N[X]|=28$ is for $X$ to have one internal distance of 1 , with the other distances being 3 . Without loss of generality, we may assume 123 and 567 are the adjacent members of $X$. Then the other vertices $v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}, v_{4}$ of $X$ have the form $e_{i} 4 e_{j}$ with $e_{i} \in\{1,2,3\}$ and $e_{j} \in\{5,6,7\}$. But this implies that for some $h, k$ we have $\left|v_{h} \cap v_{k}\right|=2$, and then $d\left(v_{h}, v_{k}\right)=2$. So $|N[X]|=28$ cannot be achieved in this way.
Our work leads us to believe that something along the following lines is true.
Conjecture 11. Let $G$ be a regular graph with an efficient dominating set. If every sufficiently large packing in $G$ extends to an efficient dominating set, then $G$ is a perfect doubler.

## 4. Partial Doublers

Recall that if $\gamma(\pi G)=2 \gamma(G)$ for some but not all permutations $\pi$ of $V(G)$, then $G$ is called a partial doubler. As noted above, $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times P_{5}\right)<4$. However, if $\pi$ is the transposition which maps the central vertex of $P_{5}$ to one of its neighbours and vice versa, then $\gamma\left(\pi P_{5}\right)=4$, so $P_{5}$ is a partial doubler. A natural question which now arises is whether, for each integer $k \geq 2$, there exists a graph $G$ and permutations $\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}$ such that $\gamma\left(\pi_{1} G\right)=\gamma(G)=k$ and $\gamma\left(\pi_{2} G\right)=2 k$, or more generally, permutations $\pi_{i}, 0 \leq i \leq \gamma(G)$, such that $\gamma\left(\pi_{i} G\right)=\gamma(G)+i$. We answer this question by constructing a large class $\mathcal{G}$ of such graphs.

Construction. Let $G$ be any isolate-free bipartite graph of order $n$ with bipartition $(X, Y), s=|X|, t=|Y|, s \leq t$, and note that $X$ is a (not necessarily minimum) dominating set of $G$ such that each edge is incident with exactly one vertex in $X$. Construct $G^{*}$ with $V\left(G^{*}\right)=X \cup Y \cup A \cup B$ as follows. (The construction is illustrated in Figure 2 for $G=C_{4}$, where the black vertices are in $X$ and the grey vertices are in $Y$.) First replace
each edge $x y \in E(G)$ with $k \geq 2$ (not necessarily fixed) multiple edges, then subdivide each of these new edges once (the white vertices of degree two in Figure 2, where $k=2$ in each case). Denote the set of new degree two vertices incident with $x$ and $y$ by $A^{x y}$. Join each vertex $x \in X$ to a set $B^{x}$ of new vertices (the white vertices of degree one in Figure 2), where $\left|B^{x}\right| \geq 2$ and $\Sigma_{x \in X}\left(\left|B^{x}\right|-2\right) \geq t$. Let $A=\cup_{x y \in E(G)} A^{x y}$ and $B=\cup_{x \in X} B^{x}$. Any graph $G^{*}$ obtained in this way is in $\mathcal{G}$.


Figure 2. An example of a graph $C_{4}^{*} \in \mathcal{G}$

Note that $X \cup Y$ dominates $G^{*}$. Moreover, if $D$ is any $\gamma$-set of $G^{*}$, then $X \subseteq D$ to dominate the set $B$ of leaves. Since $V\left(G^{*}\right)-N[X]=Y$ and $N(y) \cap N\left(y^{\prime}\right)=\phi$ for distinct $y, y^{\prime} \in Y$, at least $t$ vertices are required to dominate $Y$. Thus $\gamma\left(G^{*}\right)=s+t=n$. For each $k$ with $0 \leq k \leq n$ we now define a permutation $\pi_{k}$ of $V\left(G^{*}\right)$; we shall prove that $\gamma\left(\pi_{k} G^{*}\right)=\gamma\left(G^{*}\right)+k$.

Let $\pi_{s}=1$, the identity. For each $i$ with $1 \leq i \leq s$ we define $\pi_{s-i}$ recursively by means of transpositions. Choose $x \in X, y \in Y$ such that $\pi_{s-i+1}(x)=x, \pi_{s-i+1}(y)=y$, let $\rho_{i}$ be the transposition $(x, y)$ and define $\pi_{s-i}=\rho_{i} \circ \pi_{s-i+1}$. (Since $|X|=s$ and $\pi_{s}=1$, this choice of $x$ and $y$ is always possible.) Similarly, for each $j$ with $1 \leq j \leq t$ we define $\pi_{s+j}$ as follows. Choose any $y \in Y$ such that $\pi_{s+j-1}(y)=y$. Further, choose $x \in X$ such that $\pi_{s+j-1}$ fixes three distinct vertices $u, v, w \in B^{x}$. Since $\Sigma_{x \in X}\left(\left|B^{x}\right|-2\right) \geq t$, this choice of $x$ is always possible. Let $\sigma_{j}$ be the
transposition $(y, u)$ and define $\pi_{s+j}=\sigma_{j} \circ \pi_{s+j-1}$. The graphs $\pi_{s} C_{4}^{*}, \pi_{s-1} C_{4}^{*}$ and $\pi_{s+1} C_{4}^{*}$ corresponding to $C_{4}^{*}$ of Figure 2 are illustrated in Figure 3.


Figure 3. Graphs $H_{s}=\pi_{s} C_{4}^{*}, H_{s-1}=\pi_{s-1} C_{4}^{*}$ and $H_{s+1}=\pi_{s+1} C_{4}^{*}$
Theorem 12. For each $k \in\{0, \ldots, n\}, \gamma\left(\pi_{k} G^{*}\right)=\gamma\left(G^{*}\right)+k$.
Proof. We begin by noting that the result holds for $\pi_{s}=1$, for if $D$ is any $\gamma$-set of $K_{2} \times G^{*}$, then $X_{1} \cup X_{2} \subseteq D$ to dominate the vertices in $B_{1} \cup B_{2}$. This leaves the vertices in $Y_{1} \cup Y_{2}$ undominated, and it it easy to see that at
least $t$ vertices are required to dominate $Y_{1} \cup Y_{2}$. But $Y_{2}$ dominates $Y_{1} \cup Y_{2}$; hence $\gamma\left(K_{2} \times G^{*}\right)=2 s+t=\gamma\left(G^{*}\right)+s$.

For arbitrary $i, 1 \leq i \leq s$, consider any $\gamma$-set $D$ of $\pi_{s-i} G^{*}$ and note that as above, $X_{1} \cup X_{2} \subseteq D$ to dominate $B_{1} \cup B_{2}$. Let $X^{\prime}=\left\{x \in X: \pi_{s-i}(x) \in Y\right\}$ and $Y^{\prime}=\pi_{s-i}\left(X^{\prime}\right)$; observe that $\left|X^{\prime}\right|=\left|Y^{\prime}\right|=i$. In $\pi_{s-i} G^{*}, X_{1} \cup X_{2}$ dominates all vertices except $\left(Y_{1}-Y_{1}^{\prime}\right) \cup\left(Y_{2}-Y_{2}^{\prime}\right)$; again it is easy to see that at least $\left|Y-Y^{\prime}\right|=t-i$ vertices are required to dominate these. Using (for example) $Y_{2}-Y_{2}^{\prime}$, we obtain $\gamma\left(\pi_{s-i} G^{*}\right)=2 s+t-i=\gamma\left(G^{*}\right)+s-i$.

Finally, for arbitrary $j, 1 \leq j \leq t$, let $D$ be a $\gamma$-set of $\pi_{s+j} G^{*}$ with $\left|D \cap\left(X_{1} \cup X_{2}\right)\right|$ maximum, consider any $x \in X$ and suppose $\left|\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}\right\} \cap D\right|<2$. By definition of $\pi_{s+j}$ there are at least two vertices $v, w \in B^{x}$ that are fixed by $\pi_{s+j}$. Hence if (say) $x_{1} \notin D$, then to dominate $v_{1}$ and $w_{1},\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}\right\} \cap D \neq \phi$ and $\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}\right\} \cap D \neq \phi$. But then $\left(D-\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, w_{1}, w_{2}\right\}\right) \cup\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}\right\}$ is a $\gamma$ set which contradicts the choice of $D$. Therefore $X_{1} \cup X_{2} \subseteq D$. As in the case of $\pi_{s} G^{*}$, this leaves the vertices in $Y_{1} \cup Y_{2}$ undominated. Let $Y^{\prime}=\left\{y \in Y: \pi_{s+j}(y) \in B\right\}$ and note that $\left|Y^{\prime}\right|=j$. Then for any $y^{\prime}, y^{\prime \prime} \in Y^{\prime}$, $N\left[y^{\prime}\right] \cap N\left[y^{\prime \prime}\right]=\phi$ and in $\pi_{s+j} G^{*}, N\left[Y_{1}^{\prime}\right] \cap N\left[Y_{2}^{\prime}\right]=\phi$. Therefore a set $Z$ of at least $j$ vertices are needed to dominate $Y_{1}^{\prime}$ in $\pi_{s+j} G^{*}$, and $j$ vertices distinct from those in $Z$ to dominate $Y_{2}^{\prime}$. Further, at least $\left|Y-Y^{\prime}\right|=t-j$ vertices are required to dominate $\left(Y_{1}-Y_{1}^{\prime}\right) \cup\left(Y_{2}-Y_{2}^{\prime}\right)$. Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\gamma\left(\pi_{s+j} G^{*}\right) & \geq\left|X_{1}\right|+\left|X_{2}\right|+2 j+t-j \\
& =2 s+j+t \\
& =\gamma\left(G^{*}\right)+s+j
\end{aligned}
$$

Obviously $X_{1} \cup X_{2} \cup Y_{1}^{\prime} \cup Y_{2}$ dominates $\pi_{s+j} G^{*}$ and so $\gamma\left(\pi_{s+j} G^{*}\right)=\gamma\left(G^{*}\right)+$ $s+j$, as required.

Theorem 12 also holds if we require $\Sigma_{x \in X}\left(\left|B^{x}\right|-1\right) \geq t$ in the construction of $G^{*}$, but the proof is technically more difficult. The simplest example is obtained by taking $G=K_{2}$ with $V(G)=\{x, y\}$, replacing $x y$ with $K_{2,2}$ and joining $x$ to two new vertices $u$ and $v$. Then $\pi_{0}=(x, y), \pi_{1}=1$ and $\pi_{2}=(y, u)$.

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