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Henning, Michael A.; Vestergaard, Preben Dahl

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## Trees with paired-domination number twice their domination number

by
Michael A. Henning and Preben Dahl Vestergaard


# Trees with paired-domination number twice their domination number 

${ }^{1}$ Michael A. Henning*, and ${ }^{2}$ Preben Dahl Vestergaard<br>${ }^{1}$ School of Mathematical Sciences<br>University of KwaZulu-Natal<br>Pietermaritzburg, 3209 South Africa<br>E-mail: henning@ukzn.ac.za<br>${ }^{2}$ Department of Mathematics<br>Aalborg University<br>DK-9220 Aalborg East, Denmark<br>E-mail: pdv@math.aau.dk

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#### Abstract

In this paper, we continue the study of paired-domination in graphs introduced by Haynes and Slater (Networks 32 (1998) 199-206). A paired-dominating set of a graph $G$ with no isolated vertex is a dominating set of vertices whose induced subgraph has a perfect matching. The paired-domination number of $G$ is the minimum cardinality of a paired-dominating set of $G$. For $k \geq 2$, a $k$-packing in $G$ is a set $S$ of vertices of $G$ that are pairwise at distance greater than $k$ apart. The $k$-packing number of $G$ is the maximum cardinality of a $k$-packing in $G$. Haynes and Slater observed that the paired-domination number is bounded above by twice the domination number. We give a constructive characterization of the trees attaining this bound that uses labelings of the vertices. The key to our characterization is the observation that the trees with paired-domination number twice their domination number are precisely the trees with 2 -packing number equal to their 3 -packing number.


Keywords: domination, packing number, paired-domination
AMS subject classification: 05C69

[^0]
## 1 Introduction

In this paper, we continue the study of domination and paired-domination in graphs. For a graph $G=(V, E)$, a set $S$ is a dominating set, denoted DS, if every vertex in $V \backslash S$ has a neighbor in $S$. The domination number $\gamma(G)$ is the minimum cardinality of a dominating set of $G$. We call a dominating set of cardinality $\gamma(G)$ a $\gamma(G)$-set. Domination and its many variations have been surveyed and detailed in the two books by Haynes, Hedetniemi, and Slater $[8,9]$. We are interested in a variation of domination called paired-domination.

A matching in a graph $G$ is a set of independent edges in $G$. A perfect matching $M$ in $G$ is a matching in $G$ such that every vertex of $G$ is incident to a vertex of $M$. A paired-dominating set, denoted PDS, of a graph $G$ is a set $S$ of vertices of $G$ such that every vertex is adjacent to some vertex in $S$ and the subgraph $G[S]$ induced by $S$ contains a perfect matching $M$ (not necessarily induced). Two vertices joined by an edge of $M$ are said to be paired in $S$. Every graph without isolated vertices has a PDS since the endvertices of any maximal matching form such a set. The paired-domination number of $G$, denoted by $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(G)$, is the minimum cardinality of a PDS. A PDS of cardinality $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(G)$ we call a $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(G)$-set. Paired-domination was introduced by Haynes and Slater in $[10,11]$ as a model for assigning backups to guards for security purposes, and is studied, for example, in $[2,3,4,6,7,13,15,16]$ and elsewhere.

In general we follow the notation and graph theory terminology in [8]. Specifically, let $G=(V, E)$ be a graph with vertex set $V$ and edge set $E$. For any vertex $v \in V$, the open neighborhood of $v$ is the set $N(v)=\{u \in V \mid u v \in E\}$, and its closed neighborhood is the set $N[v]=N(v) \cup\{v\}$. If $v \in S$, then a vertex $w \in V \backslash S$ is an external private neighbor of $v$ (with respect to $S$ ) if $N(w) \cap S=\{v\}$; and the external private neighbor set of $v$ with respect to $S$, denoted $\operatorname{epn}(v, S)$, is the set of all external private neighbors of $v$. We denote the degree of $v$ in $G$ by $d_{G}(v)$. We denote a path on $n$ vertices by $P_{n}$.

For ease of presentation, we mostly consider rooted trees. For a vertex $v$ in a (rooted) tree $T$, we let $C(v)$ and $D(v)$ denote the set of children and descendants, respectively, of $v$, and we define $D[v]=D(v) \cup\{v\}$. The maximal subtree at $v$ is the subtree of $T$ induced by $D[v]$, and is denoted by $T_{v}$. A vertex of degree one is called a leaf and its neighbor is called a support vertex. A strong support vertex is adjacent to at least two leaves.

For $k \geq 2$, Meir and Moon [14] defined a $k$-packing in a graph $G$ as a set $S$ of vertices of $G$ that are pairwise at distance greater than $k$ apart, i.e., if $u, v \in S$, then $d_{G}(u, v)>k$. A 1 -packing is an independent set. The $k$-packing number of $G$, denote $\rho_{k}(G)$, is the maximum cardinality of a $k$-packing in $G$. We call a $k$-packing of cardinality $\rho_{k}(G)$ a $\rho_{k}(G)$-set. By definition, we have the following observation.

Observation 1 For $k \geq 1$ and for any graph $G, \rho_{k}(G) \geq \rho_{k+1}(G)$.

A 2-packing is also called a packing and the 2-packing number is also called the packing number denoted by $\rho(G)$. Thus a $\rho(G)$-set is a packing of maximum cardinality $\rho(G)$. By Observation 1, $\rho(G) \geq \rho_{3}(G)$.

Definition 1 We define a graph $G$ to be a $\left(\rho=\rho_{3}\right)$-graph if $\rho(G)=\rho_{3}(G)$.

The following bound was first observed by Haynes and Slater [10]. The proof follows from the fact that every graph without isolated vertices has a minimum DS in which each vertex has an external private neighbor.

Observation $2([10])$ For every graph $G$ without isolated vertices, $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(G) \leq 2 \gamma(G)$.

We call the graphs obtaining the upper bound in Observation 2, $\left(\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}=2 \gamma\right)$-graphs. It is our goal in this paper to characterize $\left(\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}=2 \gamma\right)$-trees. Recently, a characterization of $\left(\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}=2 \gamma\right)$-trees was given in [12]. The characterization we present here is a constructive characterization using labelings that is simpler than that presented in [12]. The key to our characterization is the observation that the family of $\left(\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}=2 \gamma\right)$-trees is precisely the family of ( $\rho=\rho_{3}$ )-trees.

Observation 3 Let $T$ be a tree of order at least 2. Then, $T$ is a $\left(\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}=2 \gamma\right)$-tree if and only if $T$ is a $\left(\rho=\rho_{3}\right)$-tree.

Observation 3 is an immediate consequence of the following two results. ${ }^{1}$

Theorem 1 (Moon and Meir [14]) For every tree $T, \gamma(T)=\rho(T)$.

Theorem 2 (Bresar et. al. [1]) For every tree $T$ of order at least 2, $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(T)=2 \rho_{3}(T)$.

Hence, by Observation 3, to characterize the $\left(\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}=2 \gamma\right)$-trees it suffices to characterize the ( $\rho=\rho_{3}$ )-trees.

## $2\left(\rho=\rho_{3}\right)$-Trees

Our aim in this section is to give a constructive characterization of ( $\rho=\rho_{3}$ )-trees (and hence, by Observation 3 , of $\left(\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}=2 \gamma\right)$-trees $)$. The main idea to our constructive characterization is to find a labeling of the vertices that indicates the roles each vertex plays in the sets associated with both parameters. This idea of labeling the vertices is introduced in [5], where trees with equal domination and independent domination numbers as well as trees with equal domination and total domination numbers are characterized.

[^1]
### 2.1 Main Result

By a weak partition of a set we mean a partition of the set in which some of the subsets may be empty. We define a labeling of a tree $T$ as a weak partition $S=\left(S_{A}, S_{B}, S_{C}, S_{D}\right)$ of $V(T)$. The label or status of a vertex $v$, denoted $\operatorname{sta}(v)$, is the letter $x \in\{A, B, C, D\}$ such that $v \in S_{x}$. Our aim it to describe a procedure to build ( $\rho=\rho_{3}$ )-trees in terms of labelings.

We begin by defining three labeled trees $T_{1}, T_{2}$ and $T_{3}$ as follows. Let $T_{1}$ be a $P_{2}$ with one vertex labeled $A$ and the other vertex $C$. Let $T_{2}$ be a $P_{2}$ with one vertex labeled $B$ and the other vertex $D$. Let $T_{3}$ be a $P_{3}$ with the central vertex labeled $B$ and with one leaf labeled $A$ and the other leaf $C$.

Definition 2 Let $\mathcal{T}$ be the family of labeled trees that: (i) contains the labeled trees $T_{1}$, $T_{2}$ and $T_{3}$; and (ii) is closed under the eleven operations $\mathcal{O}_{j}(j=1,2, \cdots, 11)$ listed below, which extend the tree $T$ by attaching a tree to the vertex $v \in V(T)$.

- Operation $\mathcal{O}_{1}$. Assume $v$ is a support vertex of $T$. Add a new vertex $u$ of status $B$ and the edge $u v$. (Note that $v$ can have any status.)
- Operation $\mathcal{O}_{2}$. Assume $v$ and all its neighbors have status $B$, except possibly for one neighbor of $v$ which has status $A$. Add a path $u_{1}, u_{2}$ and the edge $v u_{1}$. Let $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{1}\right)=B$ and $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{2}\right)=D$.
- Operation $\mathcal{O}_{3}$. Assume $v$ and all its neighbors have status $B$. Add a path $u_{1}, u_{2}$ and the edge $v u_{1}$. Let $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{1}\right)=A$ and $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{2}\right)=C$.
- Operation $\mathcal{O}_{4}$. Assume $v$ and all its neighbors have status $B$, except possibly for one neighbor of $v$ which has status $A$. Add a path $u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}$ and the edge $v u_{2}$. Let $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{1}\right)=A, \operatorname{sta}\left(u_{2}\right)=B$, and $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{3}\right)=C$.
- Operation $\mathcal{O}_{5}$. Assume $v$ has status $A$ or $B$. Add a path $u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}$ and the edge $v u_{1}$. Let $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{1}\right)=\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{2}\right)=B$ and $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{3}\right)=D$.
- Operation $\mathcal{O}_{6}$. Assume $v$ and all its neighbors have status $B$, except possibly for one neighbor of $v$ which has status $A$. Add a path $u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}$ and the edge $v u_{1}$. Let $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{1}\right)=B, \operatorname{sta}\left(u_{2}\right)=D$ and $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{3}\right)=B$.
- Operation $\mathcal{O}_{7}$. Assume $v$ has status $B$. Add a path $u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}$ and the edge $v u_{1}$. Let $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{1}\right)=B, \operatorname{sta}\left(u_{2}\right)=A$ and $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{3}\right)=C$.
- Operation $\mathcal{O}_{8}$. Assume $v$ has status $A$ and all its neighbors have status $B$ or assume $v$ and all its neighbors have status $B$, except possibly for one neighbor of $v$ which has status $A$. Add a path $u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}$ and the edge $v u_{1}$. Let $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{1}\right)=B, \operatorname{sta}\left(u_{2}\right)=C$ and $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{3}\right)=A$.
- Operation $\mathcal{O}_{9}$. Assume $v$ and all its neighbors have status $B$, except possibly for one neighbor of $v$ which has status $C$. Add a path $u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}$ and the edge $v u_{1}$. Let $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{1}\right)=A, \operatorname{sta}\left(u_{2}\right)=B$ and $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{3}\right)=C$.
- Operation $\mathcal{O}_{10}$. Assume $v$ and all its neighbors have status $B$. Add a path $u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}$ and the edge $v u_{1}$. Let $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{1}\right)=A, \operatorname{sta}\left(u_{2}\right)=C$ and $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{3}\right)=B$.
- Operation $\mathcal{O}_{11}$. Assume $v$ has status $A$ or $B$. Add a star $K_{1,3}$ with center $u$ and leaves $u_{1}, u_{2}$ and $u_{3}$, and add the edge $v u_{1}$. Let $\operatorname{sta}(u)=\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{1}\right)=B, \operatorname{sta}\left(u_{2}\right)=A$, $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{3}\right)=C$.

These eleven operations are illustrated in Figure 1 where by status $X$ we mean a support vertex of any status (namely, $A, B, C$ or $D$ ). For $Y \in\{A, B\}$, by status $Y_{B}$ we mean a vertex of status $Y$ all of whose neighbors have status $B$. For $Z \in\{A, C\}$, by status $B_{Z}$ we mean a vertex of status $B$ all of whose neighbors have status $B$, except possibly for one neighbor which has status $Z$.

$\mathcal{O}_{2}$ :

$\mathcal{O}_{3}:$

$\mathcal{O}_{4}$ :

$\mathcal{O}_{5}$ :

$\mathcal{O}_{6}:$

$\mathcal{O}_{7}$ :

$\mathcal{O}_{8}:$



Figure 1. The eleven operations.
Our main result is the following constructive characterization of ( $\rho=\rho_{3}$ )-trees that uses labelings.

Theorem 3 The $\left(\rho=\rho_{3}\right)$-trees are precisely those trees $T$ such that $(T, S) \in \mathcal{T}$ for some labeling $S$.

Theorem 3 is an immediate consequence of Theorem 4 presented in Section 2.2 and Theorem 5 in Section 2.3.

## $2.2\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelings

Definition 3 We define a $\left(\rho, \rho_{\mathbf{3}}\right)$-labeling of a tree $T=(V, E)$ as a weak partition $S=$ $\left(S_{A}, S_{B}, S_{C}, S_{D}\right)$ of $V$ such that

- $S_{A} \cup S_{D}$ is a $\rho(T)$-set,
- $S_{C} \cup S_{D}$ is a 3-packing, and
- $\left|S_{A}\right|=\left|S_{C}\right|$.

We are now in a position to characterize ( $\rho=\rho_{3}$ )-trees in terms of ( $\rho, \rho_{3}$ )-labelings.
Theorem $4 A$ tree is a $\left(\rho=\rho_{3}\right)$-tree if and only if has a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labeling.
Proof. Suppose $T$ is a tree that has a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labeling $\left(S_{A}, S_{B}, S_{C}, S_{D}\right)$. Then, $\rho_{3}(T) \leq$ $\rho(T)=\left|S_{A} \cup S_{D}\right|=\left|S_{C} \cup S_{D}\right| \leq \rho_{3}(T)$. Hence we must have equality throughout this inequality chain. In particular, $\rho_{3}(T)=\rho(T)$; that is, $T$ is a ( $\rho=\rho_{3}$ )-tree.

Conversely, suppose that $T$ is a $\left(\rho=\rho_{3}\right)$-tree. Let $P$ be a $\rho(T)$-set and let $L$ be a $\rho_{3}(T)$ set. Let $S_{A}=P \backslash L, S_{B}=V \backslash(P \cup L), S_{C}=L \backslash P$, and $S_{D}=L \cap P$. Then, $P=S_{A} \cup S_{D}$ is a $\rho(T)$-set and $L=S_{C} \cup S_{D}$ is a 3-packing. Further since $|P|=\rho(T)=\rho_{3}(T)=|L|$, we have $\left|S_{A}\right|=\left|S_{C}\right|$. Hence, $\left(S_{A}, S_{B}, S_{C}, S_{D}\right)$ is a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labeling of $T$.

## 2.3 ( $\rho, \rho_{3}$ )-labelled Trees

Given a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labeling $S=\left(S_{A}, S_{B}, S_{C}, S_{D}\right)$ of a tree $T$, we will refer to the pair $(T, S)$ as a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled tree. In this subsection, we characterize $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled trees.

Theorem 5 A labeled tree is a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled tree if and only if it is in $\mathcal{T}$.

Proof. It is clear that the eleven operations $\mathcal{O}_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq 11$, preserve a ( $\rho, \rho_{3}$ )-labeling, whence every element of $\mathcal{T}$ is a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled tree.

Conversely, the proof that every $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled tree $(T, S)$ belongs to $\mathcal{T}$ is by induction on the order of $T$. The smallest $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled trees are the labeled trees $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$ defined earlier, both of which are in $\mathcal{T}$. So fix a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled tree $(T, S)$ of order at least 3 , and assume that any smaller $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled tree is in $\mathcal{T}$. By Theorem $4, T$ is a $\left(\rho=\rho_{3}\right)$-tree.

To complete the proof, we need to identify a set $P$ of vertices that can be pruned to leave a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled tree (by induction, this pruned tree is in $\mathcal{T}$ ) and an operation $\mathcal{R}$ or a sequence of operations that restores the pruned vertices.

If $T=P_{3}$, then either $T=T_{3}$ or $T$ can be obtained from either $T_{1}$ or $T_{2}$ by operation $\mathcal{O}_{1}$, implying that $T \in \mathcal{T}$.

Suppose there is a leaf $u$ in $S_{B}$ adjacent to a strong support vertex. Let $T^{\prime}=T-u$ and let $S^{\prime}$ be the restriction of $S$ to $T^{\prime}$. Then, $\left(T^{\prime}, S^{\prime}\right)$ is a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled tree, and we can take $P=\{u\}$ and $\mathcal{R}=\mathcal{O}_{1}$. So we may assume that no leaf of status $B$ is adjacent to a strong support vertex. Hence we may assume that $\operatorname{diam}(T) \geq 3$.

Among all longest paths in $T$, let $v_{0}, v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{\operatorname{diam}(T)}$ be chosen so that $\operatorname{deg} v_{1}$ is as large as possible. Let $T$ be rooted at the vertex $v_{\operatorname{diam}(T)}$.

Case 1. $d_{T}\left(v_{1}\right) \geq 3$, i.e., $v_{1}$ is a strong support vertex. By assumption, no leaf of $v_{1}$ has status $B$. Since $S_{A} \cup S_{D}$ is a packing and $S_{C} \cup S_{D}$ is a 3 -packing, $v_{1}$ therefore has exactly two children, say $u_{0}$ and $v_{0}$, one of status $A$ and the other of status $C$. We may assume $\operatorname{sta}\left(u_{0}\right)=A$ and $\operatorname{sta}\left(v_{0}\right)=C$. Further, $\operatorname{sta}\left(v_{1}\right)=\operatorname{sta}\left(v_{2}\right)=B$ and $\operatorname{sta}(w)=B$ for each $w \in N\left(v_{2}\right)$, except possibly for one neighbor of $v_{2}$ which has status $A$.

Let $T^{\prime}=T-D\left[v_{1}\right]$. Then, $\left(S_{A} \cup S_{D}\right) \backslash\left\{u_{0}\right\}$ is a packing in $T^{\prime}$, and so $\rho\left(T^{\prime}\right) \geq \rho(T)-1$. If $\rho\left(T^{\prime}\right)=\rho(T)-1$, then $\left(T^{\prime}, S^{\prime}\right)$ is a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled tree where $S^{\prime}$ is the restriction of $S$ to $T^{\prime}$, and we can take $P=D\left[v_{1}\right]$ and $\mathcal{R}=\mathcal{O}_{4}$. Hence we may assume that $\rho\left(T^{\prime}\right)=\rho(T)$. Thus, by Theorem $1, \gamma\left(T^{\prime}\right)=\gamma(T)$. Let $D$ be a $\gamma(T)$-set. Then, $v_{1} \in D$. If $v_{2} \notin \operatorname{epn}(v, D)$, then $D \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}$ is a DS of $T^{\prime}$ of cardinality $\gamma(T)-1$, contrary to assumption. Hence, for every $\gamma(T)$-set $D$ of $T$ we must have that $v_{2} \in \operatorname{epn}(v, D)$. This implies that $d_{T}\left(v_{2}\right)=2$. We now consider the tree $T^{*}=T-D\left[v_{2}\right]$. As observed earlier, $v_{3} \in S_{A} \cup S_{B}$. Let $S^{*}$ be the restriction of $S$ to $T^{*}$. Then, $\left(T^{*}, S^{*}\right)$ is a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled tree, and we can take $P=D\left[v_{2}\right]$ and $\mathcal{R}=\mathcal{O}_{11}$.

Case 2. $d_{T}\left(v_{1}\right)=2$. We consider four possibilities.
Case 2.1. $v_{0} \in S_{D}$. Then, $\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}\right\} \subseteq S_{B}$ and every neighbor of $v_{2}$ is in $S_{B}$, except possibly for one neighbor which is in $S_{A}$. Let $T^{\prime}=T-\left\{v_{0}, v_{1}\right\}$. Then, $\left(S_{A} \cup S_{D}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}$ is a packing in $T^{\prime}$, and so $\rho\left(T^{\prime}\right) \geq \rho(T)-1$. If $\rho\left(T^{\prime}\right)=\rho(T)-1$, then $\left(T^{\prime}, S^{\prime}\right)$ is a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled tree where $S^{\prime}$ is the restriction of $S$ to $T^{\prime}$, and we can take $P=\left\{v_{0}, v_{1}\right\}$ and $\mathcal{R}=\mathcal{O}_{2}$. Hence we may assume that $\rho\left(T^{\prime}\right)=\rho(T)$. This implies, as argued in Case 1 , that $d_{T}\left(v_{2}\right)=2$. We now consider the tree $T^{*}=T-D\left[v_{2}\right]$. As observed earlier, $v_{3} \in S_{A} \cup S_{B}$. Let $S^{*}$ be the restriction of $S$ to $T^{*}$. Then, $\left(T^{*}, S^{*}\right)$ is a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled tree, and we can take $P=D\left[v_{2}\right]$ and $\mathcal{R}=\mathcal{O}_{5}$.

Case 2.2. $v_{0} \in S_{C}$. Then either $v_{1} \in S_{A}$ or $v_{1} \in S_{B}$.
Suppose first that $v_{1} \in S_{A}$. Then, $v_{2} \in S_{B}$ and every neighbor of $v_{2}$ except for $v_{1}$ is in $S_{B}$. Let $T^{\prime}=T-\left\{v_{0}, v_{1}\right\}$. Then, $\left(S_{A} \cup S_{D}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}$ is a packing in $T^{\prime}$, and so $\rho\left(T^{\prime}\right) \geq \rho(T)-1$. If $\rho\left(T^{\prime}\right)=\rho(T)-1$, then $\left(T^{\prime}, S^{\prime}\right)$ is a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled tree where $S^{\prime}$ is the restriction of $S$ to $T^{\prime}$, and we can take $P=\left\{v_{0}, v_{1}\right\}$ and $\mathcal{R}=\mathcal{O}_{3}$. Hence we may assume that $\rho\left(T^{\prime}\right)=\rho(T)$. This implies that $\gamma\left(T^{\prime}\right)=\gamma(T)$ and hence that $d_{T}\left(v_{2}\right)=2$. We now consider the tree $T^{*}=T-D\left[v_{2}\right]$. As observed earlier, $v_{3} \in S_{B}$. Let $S^{*}$ be the restriction of $S$ to $T^{*}$. Then, $\left(T^{*}, S^{*}\right)$ is a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled tree, and we can take $P=D\left[v_{2}\right]$ and $\mathcal{R}=\mathcal{O}_{7}$.

Suppose secondly that $v_{1} \in S_{B}$. If $v_{2} \in S_{B}$, then $S_{A} \cup S_{D} \cup\left\{v_{0}\right\}$ is a packing in $T$ of cardinality $\rho(T)+1$, which is impossible. Hence, $v_{2} \in S_{A}$. Thus, $N\left(v_{2}\right) \subseteq S_{B}$. Suppose $d_{T}\left(v_{2}\right) \geq 3$. Since $S_{A} \cup S_{D}$ is a packing, no descendant of $v_{2}$ is in $S_{A} \cup S_{D}$. Hence if $u_{1}$ is a child of $v_{2}$ different from $v_{1}$, then $\left(S_{A} \cup S_{D} \cup\left\{u_{1}, v_{0}\right\}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{2}\right\}$ is a packing in $T$ of cardinality $\rho(T)+1$, which is impossible. Therefore, $d_{T}\left(v_{2}\right)=2$. As observed earlier, $v_{3} \in S_{B}$. If $T=P_{4}$, then $\rho(T)=2$, contradicting the fact that $S_{A} \cup S_{D}=\left\{v_{2}\right\}$ is a $\rho(T)$-set. Hence, $n \geq 5$. Every neighbor of $v_{3}$ different from $v_{2}$ has status $B$, except possibly for one neighbor of $v_{3}$ which has status $C$. We now consider the tree $T^{\prime}=T-D\left[v_{2}\right]$. Let $S^{\prime}$ be the restriction of $S$ to $T^{\prime}$. Then, $\left(T^{\prime}, S^{\prime}\right)$ is a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled tree, and we can take $P=D\left[v_{2}\right]$ and $\mathcal{R}=\mathcal{O}_{9}$.

Case 2.3. $v_{0} \in S_{A}$. Then either $v_{1} \in S_{B}$ or $v_{1} \in S_{C}$.
Suppose that $v_{1} \in S_{B}$. If $v_{2} \in S_{B}$, then the set $\left(S_{C} \cup S_{D}\right) \cup\left\{v_{0}\right\}$ is a packing in $T$ of cardinality $\left|S_{C}\right|+\left|S_{D}\right|+1=\left|S_{A}\right|+\left|S_{D}\right|+1=\rho(T)+1$, which is impossible. Hence, $v_{2} \in S_{C}$. Since $S_{C} \cup S_{D}$ is a 3-packing, the vertex $v_{3}$ is therefore at distance at least 3 from every vertex in $\left(S_{C} \cup S_{D}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{2}\right\}$. But this implies that $\left(S_{C} \cup S_{D} \cup\left\{v_{0}, v_{3}\right\}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{2}\right\}$ is a packing in $T$ of cardinality $\left|S_{C}\right|+\left|S_{D}\right|+1=\rho(T)+1$, which is impossible. Hence, $v_{1} \notin S_{B}$, implying that $v_{1} \in S_{C}$ and $v_{2} \in S_{B}$.

Let $T^{\prime}=T-\left\{v_{0}, v_{1}\right\}$. Then, $\left(S_{C} \cup S_{D} \cup\left\{v_{2}\right\}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}$ is a packing in $T^{\prime}$, and so by Theorem 1, $\gamma\left(T^{\prime}\right)=\rho\left(T^{\prime}\right) \geq\left|S_{C} \cup S_{D}\right|=\left|S_{A} \cup S_{D}\right|=\rho(T)=\gamma(T)$. Consequently, $\gamma\left(T^{\prime}\right)=\gamma(T)$. This implies that $d_{T}\left(v_{2}\right)=2$. Since $S_{C} \cup S_{D}$ is a 3-packing, we observe that either $v_{3}$ has status $A$ and all its neighbors have status $B$ or $v_{3}$ and all its neighbors have status $B$, except possibly for one neighbor of $v$ which has status $A$. We now consider the tree $T^{*}=T-D\left[v_{2}\right]$. Let $S^{*}$ be the restriction of $S$ to $T^{*}$. Then, $\left(T^{*}, S^{*}\right)$ is a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled tree, and we can take $P=D\left[v_{2}\right]$ and $\mathcal{R}=\mathcal{O}_{8}$.

Case 2.4. $v_{0} \in S_{B}$.
Suppose that $v_{1} \in S_{A} \cup S_{B} \cup S_{C}$. Let $T^{\prime}=T-\left\{v_{0}, v_{1}\right\}$. If $v_{1} \in S_{A} \cup S_{B}$, then $S_{C} \cup S_{D}$ is a packing in $T^{\prime}$, while if $v_{1} \in S_{B} \cup S_{C}$, then $S_{A} \cup S_{D}$ is a packing in $T^{\prime}$. It follows that $\rho\left(T^{\prime}\right)=\rho(T)$ and therefore that $d_{T}\left(v_{2}\right)=2$. If $v_{2} \in S_{D}$, then every vertex at distance 1 and 2 from $v_{2}$ is in $S_{B}$, while every vertex at distance 3 from $v_{2}$ is in $S_{A} \cup S_{B}$. But then $\left(S_{C} \cup S_{D} \cup\left\{v_{0}, v_{3}\right\}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{2}\right\}$ is a packing in $T$ of cardinality $\rho(T)+1$, which is impossible. Hence, $\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}\right\} \cap S_{D}=\emptyset$. If $\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}\right\} \cap S_{A}=\emptyset$, then $S_{A} \cup S_{D} \cup\left\{v_{0}\right\}$ is a packing in $T$ of cardinality $\rho(T)+1$, which is impossible. If $\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}\right\} \cap S_{C}=\emptyset$, then $S_{C} \cup S_{D} \cup\left\{v_{0}\right\}$ is a packing in $T$ of cardinality $\rho(T)+1$, which is impossible. Hence, either $v_{1} \in S_{A}$ and $v_{2} \in S_{C}$ or $v_{1} \in S_{C}$ and $v_{2} \in S_{A}$. The former case cannot occur because $v_{1} \in S_{A}$ implies that $v_{3} \in S_{B}$ and that every neighbor of $v_{3}$ different from $v_{2}$ is in $S_{B}$ except possibly one $v_{3}$-neighbor which may belong to $S_{A}$. But now $\left(S_{C} \cup S_{D}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{2}\right\} \cup\left\{v_{0}, v_{3}\right\}$ is a packing in $T$ of cardinality $\rho(T)+1$, a contradiction. Thus the latter case $v_{1} \in S_{C}, v_{2} \in S_{A}$ occurs and every vertex at distance 1 and 2 from $v_{2}$ except for $v_{1}$ is labelled B. Recall $d_{T}\left(v_{2}\right)=2$. We now consider the tree $T^{*}=T-D\left[v_{2}\right]$. Let $S^{*}$ be the restriction of $S$ to $T^{*}$. Then, $\left(T^{*}, S^{*}\right)$ is a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled tree, and we can take $P=D\left[v_{2}\right]$ and $\mathcal{R}=\mathcal{O}_{10}$.

Hence we may assume that $v_{1} \in S_{D}$. With our earlier assumptions, we may therefore assume that every leaf of a path of length $\operatorname{diam}(T)$ has status $B$ and its neighbor (of degree2 ) has status $D$. Suppose that $d_{T}\left(v_{2}\right) \geq 3$. Let $u_{1}$ be a child of $v_{2}$ different from $v_{1}$. If $u_{1}$ is not a leaf, then, by our earlier assumptions, $u_{1}$ has status $D$, and so we have two vertices of status $D$ at distance 2 apart, contradicting the fact that $S_{D}$ is a packing. Hence, $u_{1}$ is a leaf and $u_{1} \in S_{B}$. But then $\left(S_{A} \cup S_{D} \cup\left\{u_{1}, v_{0}\right\}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}$ is a packing in $T$ of cardinality $\rho(T)+1$, a contradiction. Hence, $d_{T}\left(v_{2}\right)=2$. Since $v_{1} \in S_{D},\left\{v_{2}, v_{3}\right\} \subset S_{B}$ and every neighbor of $v_{3}$ have status $B$, except possibly for one neighbor of $v_{3}$ which has status $A$. We now consider the tree $T^{*}=T-D\left[v_{2}\right]$. Let $S^{*}$ be the restriction of $S$ to $T^{*}$. Then, $\left(T^{*}, S^{*}\right)$ is a $\left(\rho, \rho_{3}\right)$-labelled tree, and we can take $P=D\left[v_{2}\right]$ and $\mathcal{R}=\mathcal{O}_{6}$.

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## Appendix: For refereeing purposes only

In this appendix we present a proof of the result due to Bresar et. al. [1] that the paired domination number of a tree is equal to twice its 3 -packing number. We begin with two observations from [1]. Recall that the independence number $\beta(G)$ of a graph $G$ is the maximum cardinality of a set of independent vertices in $G$.

Observation 4 (Bresar et. al. [1]) If $D$ is a $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(G)$-set in a graph $G$ without isolated vertices, then $|D| \geq 2 \beta(G[D])$.

Proof. Let $D^{\prime} \subset D$ be a maximum independent set in $G[D]$. Since each vertex of $D^{\prime}$ has a partner, and these partners are distinct, $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(G)=|D| \geq 2\left|D^{\prime}\right|=2 \beta(G[D])$.

Observation 5 (Bresar et. al. [1]) For any graph $G$ without isolated vertices, $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(G) \geq$ $2 \rho_{3}(G)$.

Proof. Let $D$ be a $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(G)$-set and let $S$ be a $\rho_{3}(G)$-set. For each vertex $v \in S$, let $v^{\prime}$ be a vertex of $D$ that dominates $v$ and let $D^{\prime}=\cup_{v \in S}\left\{v^{\prime}\right\}$. Since the vertices in $S$ are pairwise at distance at least 4 apart, the vertices $v^{\prime}$, where $v \in S$, are distinct and the set $D^{\prime}$ is an independent set in $G[D]$. Hence, by Observation $4, \gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(G)=|D| \geq 2\left|D^{\prime}\right|=2 \rho_{3}(G)$.

Recall Theorem 2:
Theorem 2 (Bresar et. al. [1]) For every tree $T$ of order at least 2, $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(T)=2 \rho_{3}(T)$.
Proof. We proceed by induction on the order $n \geq 2$ of a tree $T$. If $n=2$, then $T=K_{2}$ and $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(T)=2=2 \rho_{3}(T)$. This establishes the base case. Assume then that $n \geq 3$ and that all nontrivial trees $T^{\prime}$ of order less than $n$ satisfy $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}\left(T^{\prime}\right)=2 \rho_{3}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$. Let $T$ be a tree of order $n$. If $T$ is star or a double star, then $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(T)=2=2 \rho_{3}(T)$. Hence we may assume that $\operatorname{diam}(T) \geq 4$.

In the proof we shall frequently prune the tree $T$ to a tree $T^{\prime}$ and then establish that $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(T) \leq \gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}\left(T^{\prime}\right)+2 k$ and $\rho_{3}(T) \geq \rho_{3}\left(T^{\prime}\right)+k$ for some integer $k \geq 0$. Since $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(T) \geq 2 \rho_{3}(T)$ and $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}\left(T^{\prime}\right)=2 \rho_{3}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$, it then follows that $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}\left(T^{\prime}\right)+2 k \geq \gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(T) \geq 2 \rho_{3}(T) \geq 2\left(\rho_{3}\left(T^{\prime}\right)+k\right)=$ $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}\left(T^{\prime}\right)+2 k$, whence $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(T)=2 \rho_{3}(T)$, as desired.

Suppose $T$ has a strong support vertex $v$. Let $u$ be a leaf neighbor of $v$, and let $T^{\prime}=$ $T-u$. Any $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$-set contains the support vertex $v$ and is therefore a PDS of $T$, and so $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(T) \leq \gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$. Any $\rho_{3}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$-set is also a 3-packing in $T$, and so $\rho_{3}(T) \geq \rho_{3}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$. Thus, $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(T)=2 \rho_{3}(T)$. Hence we may assume that $T$ has no strong support vertex.

Let $T$ be rooted at a leaf $r$ of a longest path $P$. Let $P$ be a $r-u$ path, and let $v$ be the neighbor of $u$. Then, $u$ is a leaf of $T$ and, since $T$ has no strong support vertex, $\operatorname{deg}_{T} v=2$. Let $w$ denote the parent of $v$ on this path and $x$ the parent of $w$.

Suppose $\operatorname{deg}_{T} w \geq 3$ and $w$ is a support vertex. Let $v^{\prime}$ be the leaf-neighbor of $w$, and let $T^{\prime}=T-v^{\prime}$. Then there exists a $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$-set that contains $w$ (if $w$ is not in some $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$-set,
then $u$ and $v$ are paired in such a $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$-set and we can simply replace $u$ with the vertex $w$ thereby pairing $v$ and $w$ in the new $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$-set). Such a PDS is also a PDS of $T$, and so $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(T) \leq \gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$. Clearly, $\rho_{3}(T) \geq \rho_{3}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$. Thus, $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(T)=2 \rho_{3}(T)$.

Suppose $\operatorname{deg}_{T} w \geq 3$ and $w$ is not a support vertex. Then, each child of $w$ is a support vertex of degree 2. Let $v^{\prime}$ be a child of $w$ different from $v$, and let $u^{\prime}$ be the leaf-neighbor of $v^{\prime}$. Let $T^{\prime}=T-u^{\prime}-v^{\prime}$. Any $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$-set can be extended to a PDS of $T$ by adding to it the vertices $u^{\prime}$ and $v^{\prime}$ (with $u^{\prime}$ and $v^{\prime}$ paired), and so $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(T) \leq \gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}\left(T^{\prime}\right)+2$. Let $S^{\prime}$ be a $\rho_{3}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$-set that contains as many leaves as possible. Then, $S^{\prime} \cap N[w]=\emptyset$ (for example, if $S^{\prime}$ contains a vertex from the set $\{v, w, x\}$, then we can simply replace such a vertex with the vertex $u$ ). Hence, $S^{\prime}$ can be extended to a 3 -packing of $T$ by adding to it the leaf $u^{\prime}$, and so $\rho_{3}(T) \geq\left|S^{\prime}\right|+1=\rho_{3}\left(T^{\prime}\right)+1$. Thus, $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(T)=2 \rho_{3}(T)$. Hence we may assume that $\operatorname{deg}_{T} w=2$ for otherwise $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(T)=2 \rho_{3}(T)$, as desired.

Suppose $\operatorname{deg}_{T} x=2$. Let $T^{\prime}=T-\{u, v, w, x\}$. Any $\operatorname{pr}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$-set can be extended to a PDS of $T$ by adding to it the vertices $v$ and $w$ (with $v$ and $w$ paired), and so $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(T) \leq \gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}\left(T^{\prime}\right)+2$. Any $\rho_{3}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$-set can be extended to a 3 -packing of $T$ by adding to it the vertex $u$, and so $\rho_{3}(T) \geq \rho_{3}\left(T^{\prime}\right)+1$. Thus, $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(T)=2 \rho_{3}(T)$. Hence we may assume $\operatorname{deg}_{T} x \geq 3$.

Let $T^{\prime}=T-\{u, v, w\}$. Every $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$-set can be extended to a PDS of $T$ by adding to it the vertices $v$ and $w$ (with $v$ and $w$ paired), and so $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(T) \leq \gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}\left(T^{\prime}\right)+2$. Every $\rho_{3}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$-set that does not contain $x$ (if $x$ belongs to a some $\rho_{3}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$-set, then we can simply replace $x$ with a child of $x$ in $T^{\prime}$ ) can be extended to a 3-packing of $T$ by adding to it the vertex $u$, and so $\rho_{3}(T) \geq \rho_{3}\left(T^{\prime}\right)+1$. Thus, $\gamma_{\mathrm{pr}}(T)=2 \rho_{3}(T)$.


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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ Since the result of Bresar et. al. [1] may not be readily available to the referees, we provide a proof-for refereeing purposes only-of Theorem 2 in the appendix.

