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Graphs where every k-subset of vertices is an identifying set

Sylvain Gravier¹ Svante Janson² Tero Laihonen³ Sanna Ranto⁴

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Let G=(V,E) be an undirected graph without loops and multiple edges. A subset $C\subseteq V$ is called *identifying* if for every vertex $x\in V$ the intersection of C and the closed neighbourhood of x is nonempty, and these intersections are different for different vertices x. Let k be a positive integer. We will consider graphs where *every* k-subset is identifying. We prove that for every k>1 the maximal order of such a graph is at most 2k-2. Constructions attaining the maximal order are given for infinitely many values of k. The corresponding problem of k-subsets identifying any at most ℓ vertices is considered as well.

Keywords: identifying code, extremal graph, strongly regular graph, Plotkin bound

1 Introduction

Karpovsky *et al.* introduced identifying sets in [9] for locating faulty processors in multiprocessor systems. Since then identifying sets have been considered in many different graphs (see numerous references in [14]) and they find their motivations, for example, in sensor networks and environmental monitoring [10]. For recent developments see for instance [1, 2].

Let G=(V,E) be a simple undirected graph where V is the set of vertices and E is the set of edges. The adjacency between vertices x and y is denoted by $x \sim y$, and an edge between x and y is denoted by $\{x,y\}$ or xy. Suppose $x,y \in V$. The (graphical) distance between x and y is the number of edges in any shortest path between these vertices and it is denoted by d(x,y). If there is no such path, then $d(x,y)=\infty$. We denote by N(x) the set of vertices adjacent to x (neighbourhood) and the closed neighbourhood of a vertex x is $N[x]=\{x\}\cup N(x)$. The closed neighbourhood within radius x centered at x is denoted by $N_x[x]=\{y\in V\mid d(x,y)\leq x\}$. We denote further $S_x(x)=\{y\in V\mid d(x,y)=x\}$. Moreover, for $X\subseteq V$, $N_x[X]=\bigcup_{x\in X}N_x[x]$. For $C\subseteq V$, $X\subseteq V$, and $x\in V$ we denote

$$I_r(C;x) = I_r(x) = N_r[x] \cap C$$

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and

$$I_r(C;X) = I_r(X) = N_r[X] \cap C = \bigcup_{x \in X} I_r(C;x).$$

If r=1, we drop it from the notations. When necessary, we add a subscript G. We also write, for example, N[x,y] and I(C;x,y) for $N[\{x,y\}]$ and $I(C;\{x,y\})$. The symmetric difference of two sets is

$$A \triangle B = (A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A).$$

The cardinality of a set X is denoted by |X|; we will also write |G| for the order |V| of a graph G = (V, E). The *degree* of a vertex x is $\deg(x) = |N(x)|$. Moreover, $\delta_G = \delta = \min_{x \in V} \deg(x)$ and $\Delta_G = \Delta = \max_{x \in V} \deg(x)$. The *diameter* of a graph G = (V, E) is $\operatorname{diam}(G) = \max\{d(x, y) \mid x, y \in V\}$.

We say that a vertex $x \in V$ dominates a vertex $y \in V$ if and only if $y \in N[x]$. As well we can say that a vertex y is dominated by x (or vice versa). A subset C of vertices V is called a dominating set (or dominating) if $\bigcup_{c \in C} N[c] = V$.

Definition 1 A subset C of vertices of a graph G=(V,E) is called $(r, \leq \ell)$ -identifying (or an $(r, \leq \ell)$ -identifying set) if for all $X,Y\subseteq V$ with $|X|\leq \ell, |Y|\leq \ell, X\neq Y$ we have

$$I_r(C;X) \neq I_r(C;Y).$$

If r = 1 and $\ell = 1$, then we speak about an identifying set.

The idea behind identification is that we can uniquely determine the subset X of vertices of a graph G=(V,E) by knowing only $I_r(C;X)$ — provided that $|X| \leq \ell$ and $C \subseteq V$ is an $(r,\leq \ell)$ -identifying set.

Definition 2 Let, for $n \ge k \ge 1$ and $\ell \ge 1$, $\mathfrak{Gr}(n,k,\ell)$ be the set of graphs on n vertices such that every k-element set of vertices is $(1,\le \ell)$ -identifying. Moreover, we denote $\mathfrak{Gr}(n,k,1) = \mathfrak{Gr}(n,k)$ and $\mathfrak{Gr}(k) = \bigcup_{n \ge k} \mathfrak{Gr}(n,k)$.

In other words, in a sensor network which is modeled by a graph in the class $\mathfrak{Gr}(n, k, \ell)$ we can choose freely k sensors [10] i.e. vertices to locate any ℓ objects in vertices.

Example 3 (i) For every $\ell \geq 1$, an empty graph $E_n = (\{1, \dots, n\}, \emptyset)$ belongs to $\mathfrak{Gr}(n, k, \ell)$ if and only if k = n.

- (ii) A cycle C_n $(n \ge 4)$ belongs to $\mathfrak{Gr}(n,k)$ if and only if $n-1 \le k \le n$. A cycle C_n with $n \ge 7$ is in $\mathfrak{Gr}(n,n,2)$.
- (iii) A path P_n of n vertices $(n \ge 3)$ belongs to $\mathfrak{Gr}(n,k)$ if and only if k = n.
- (iv) A complete bipartite graph $K_{n,m}$ $(n+m \ge 4)$ is in $\mathfrak{Gr}(n+m,k)$ if and only $n+m-1 \le k \le n+m$.
- (v) In particular, a star $S_n = K_{1,n-1}$ $(n \ge 4)$ is in $\mathfrak{Gr}(n,k)$ if and only if $n-1 \le k \le n$.
- (vi) The complete graph K_n $(n \ge 2)$ is not in $\mathfrak{Gr}(n,k)$ for any k.

We are interested in the maximum number n of vertices which can be reached by a given k. We study mainly the case $\ell = 1$ and define

$$\Xi(k) = \max\{n : \mathfrak{Gr}(n, k) \neq \emptyset\}. \tag{1}$$

Conversely, the question is for a given graph on n vertices what is the smallest number k such that every k-subset of vertices is an identifying set (or a $(1, \leq \ell)$ -identifying set). (Note that even if we take k = n, there are graphs on n vertices that do not belong to $\mathfrak{Gr}(n,n)$, for example the complete graph K_n , $n \geq 2$.) The ratio n/k is called the rate.

In particular, we are interested in the asymptotics as $k \to \infty$. Combining Theorem 17 and Corollary 26, we obtain the following, which in particular shows that the rate is always less than 2.

Theorem 4
$$\Xi(k) \leq 2k - 2$$
 for all $k \geq 2$, and $\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{\Xi(k)}{k} = 2$.

We will see in Section 4 that $\Xi(k) = 2k - 2$ for infinitely many k.

We give some basic results in Section 2 and study small k in Section 2.1 where we give a complete description of the sets $\mathfrak{Gr}(k)$ for $k \leq 4$. In Section 3 we give an upper bound, which bases on a relation with error-correcting codes. We consider strongly regular graphs and some modifications of them in Section 4; this provides us with examples (e.g., Paley graphs) that attain or almost attain the upper bound in Theorem 4. In Section 5 we give results for the case $\ell \geq 2$.

2 Basic results

We begin with some simple consequences of the definition. We omit the simple proofs.

Lemma 5 If $G = (V, E) \in \mathfrak{Gr}(n, k, \ell)$, then every induced subgraph G[A], where $A \subseteq V$, of order $|A| = m \ge k$ belongs to $\mathfrak{Gr}(m, k, \ell)$.

Lemma 6 If G has connected components G_i , $i=1,\ldots,m$, with |G|=n and $|G_i|=n_i$, then $G\in\mathfrak{Gr}(n,k,\ell)$ if and only if $G_i\in\mathfrak{Gr}(n_i,k+n_i-n,\ell)$ for every i. In other words, $G_i\in\mathfrak{Gr}(n_i,k_i,\ell)$ with $n_i-k_i=n-k$.

A graph G belongs to $\mathfrak{Gr}(n,k,\ell)$ if and only if every k-subset intersects every symmetric difference of the neighbourhoods of two sets that are of size at most ℓ . Equivalently, $G \in \mathfrak{Gr}(n,k,\ell)$ if and only if the complement of every such symmetric difference of two neighbourhoods contains less than k vertices. We state this as a theorem.

Theorem 7 Let G = (V, E) and |V| = n. A graph G belongs to $\mathfrak{Gr}(n, k, \ell)$ if and only if

$$n - \min_{\substack{X,Y \subseteq V \\ X \neq Y \\ |X|, |Y| \le \ell}} \left\{ |N[X] \triangle N[Y]| \right\} \le k - 1. \tag{2}$$

Now take $\ell = 1$, and consider $\mathfrak{Gr}(n, k)$. The characterization in Theorem 7 can be written as follows, since X and Y either are empty or singletons.

Corollary 8 Let G = (V, E) and |V| = n. A graph G belongs to $\mathfrak{Gr}(n, k)$ if and only if

(i)
$$\delta_G \geq n - k$$
, and

(ii) $\max_{x,y\in V,\; x\neq y}\{|N[x]\cap N[y]|+|V\setminus (N[x]\cup N[y])|\}\leq k-1.$

In particular, if $G \in \mathfrak{Gv}(n,k)$ then every vertex is dominated by every choice of a k-subset, and for all distinct $x, y \in V$ we have $|N[x] \cap N[y]| \le k - 1$.

Example 9 Let G be the 3-dimensional cube, with 8 vertices. Then |N[x]| = 4 for every vertex x, and $|N[x] \triangle N[y]|$ is 4 when d(x,y) = 1, 4 when d(x,y) = 2, and 8 when d(x,y) = 3. Hence, Theorem 7 shows that $G \in \mathfrak{Gr}(8,5)$.

Lemma 10 Let $G_0 = (V_0, E_0) \in \mathfrak{Gr}(n_0, k_0)$ and let $G = (V_0 \cup \{a\}, E_0 \cup \{\{a, x\} \mid x \in V_0\})$ for a new vertex $a \notin V_0$. In words, we add a vertex and connect it to all other vertices. Then $G \in \mathfrak{Gr}(n_0 + 1, k_0 + 1)$ if (and only if) $|N_{G_0}[x]| \leq k_0 - 1$ for every $x \in V_0$, or, equivalently, $\Delta_{G_0} \leq k_0 - 2$.

Proof: An immediate consequence of Theorem 7 (or Corollary 8).

Example 11 If G_0 is the 3-dimensional cube in Example 9, which belongs to $\mathfrak{Gr}(8,5)$ and is regular with degree 3 = 5 - 2, then Lemma 10 yields a graph $G \in \mathfrak{Gr}(9,6)$. G can be regarded as a cube with centre.

2.1 Small k

Example 12 For k = 1, it is easily seen that $\mathfrak{Gr}(n,1) = \emptyset$ for $n \geq 2$, and thus $\mathfrak{Gr}(1) = \{K_1\}$ and $\Xi(1) = 1$.

Example 13 Let k = 2. If $G \in \mathfrak{Gv}(2)$, then G cannot contain any edge xy, since then $N[x] \cap \{x,y\} = \{x,y\} = N[y] \cap \{x,y\}$, so $\{x,y\}$ does not separate $\{x\}$ and $\{y\}$. Consequently, G has to be an empty graph E_n , and then $\delta_G = 0$ and Corollary 8(i) (or Example 3(i)) shows that n = k = 2. Thus $\mathfrak{Gv}(2) = \{E_2\}$ and $\Xi(2) = 2$.

Example 14 Let k = 3. First, assume n = |G| = 3. There are only four graphs G with |G| = 3, and it is easily checked that $E_3, P_3 \in \mathfrak{Gr}(3,3)$ (Example 3(i)(iii)), while $C_3 = K_3 \notin \mathfrak{Gr}(3,3)$ (Example 3(vi)) and a disjoint union $K_1 \cup K_2 \notin \mathfrak{Gr}(3,3)$, for example by Lemma 6 since $K_2 \notin \mathfrak{Gr}(2,2)$. Hence $\mathfrak{Gr}(3,3) = \{E_3, P_3\}$.

Next, assume $n \ge 4$. Since there are no graphs in $\mathfrak{Gr}(n_1, k_1)$ if $n_1 > k_1$ and $k_1 \le 2$, it follows from Lemma 6 that there are no disconnected graphs in $\mathfrak{Gr}(n,3)$ for $n \ge 4$. Furthermore, if $G \in \mathfrak{Gr}(n,3)$, then every induced subgraph with 3 vertices is in $\mathfrak{Gr}(3,3)$ and is thus E_3 or P_3 ; in particular, G contains no triangle.

If $G \in \mathfrak{Gr}(4,3)$, it follows easily that G must be C_4 or S_4 , and indeed these belong to $\mathfrak{Gr}(4,3)$ by Example 3(ii)(v). Hence $\mathfrak{Gr}(4,3) = \{C_4, S_4\}$.

Next, assume $G \in \mathfrak{Gr}(5,3)$. Then every induced subgraph with 4 vertices is in $\mathfrak{Gr}(4,3)$ and is thus C_4 or S_4 . Moreover, by Corollary 8, $\delta_G \geq 5-3=2$. However, if we add a vertex to C_4 or S_4 such that the degree condition $\delta_G \geq 2$ is satisfied and we do not create a triangle we get $K_{2,3}$ – a complete bipartite graph, and we know already $K_{2,3} \notin \mathfrak{Gr}(5,3)$ (Example 3(iv)). Consequently $\mathfrak{Gr}(5,3) = \emptyset$, and thus $\mathfrak{Gr}(n,3) = \emptyset$ for all $n \geq 5$.

Consequently, $\mathfrak{Gr}(3) = \mathfrak{Gr}(3,3) \cup \mathfrak{Gr}(4,3) = \{E_3, P_3, S_4, C_4\}$ and $\Xi(3) = 4$.

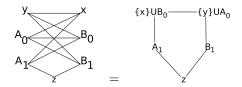
Example 15 Let k=4. First, it follows easily from Lemma 6 and the descriptions of $\mathfrak{Gr}(j)$ for $j\leq 3$ above that the only disconnected graphs in $\mathfrak{Gr}(4)$ are E_4 and the disjoint union $P_3 \cup K_1$; in particular, every graph in $\mathfrak{Gr}(n,4)$ with $n\geq 5$ is connected.

Next, if $G \in \mathfrak{Gr}(n,4)$, there cannot be a triangle in G because otherwise if a 4-subset includes the vertices of a triangle, one more vertex cannot separate the vertices of the triangle from each other. (Cf. Lemma 19.)

For n = 4, the only connected graphs of order 4 that do not contain a triangle are C_4 , P_4 and S_4 , and these belong to $\mathfrak{Gr}(4,4)$ by Example 3(ii)(iii)(v). Hence $\mathfrak{Gr}(4,4) = \{C_4, P_4, S_4, E_4, P_3 \cup K_1\}$.

Now assume that $G \in \mathfrak{Gr}(n,4)$ with $n \geq 5$.

(i) Suppose first that a graph $K_1 \cup K_2 = (\{x,y,z\}, \{\{x,y\}\})$ is an induced subgraph of G. Then all the other vertices of G are adjacent to either x or y but not both, since otherwise there would be an induced triangle or an induced $E_2 \cup K_2$ or $K_2 \cup K_2$, and these do not belong to $\mathfrak{Gr}(4,4)$. Let $A = N(x) \setminus \{y\}$ and $B = N(y) \setminus \{x\}$, so we have a partition of the vertex set as $\{x,y,z\} \cup A \cup B$. There can be further edges between A and B, z and A, z and B but not inside A and B. Let $A = A_0 \cup A_1$ and $B = B_0 \cup B_1$, where $A_1 = \{a \in A \mid a \sim z\}$, $A_0 = A \setminus A_1$ and $B_1 = \{b \in B \mid b \sim z\}$, $B_0 = B \setminus B_1$. If $a \in A_0$ and $b \in B$, then the 4-subset $\{a,b,x,z\}$ does not distinguish a and a unless $a \sim b$. Similarly, if $a \in A$ and $a \in B_0$, then $a \sim b$. On the other hand, if $a \in A_1$ and $a \in B_1$, then $a \not\sim b$, since otherwise $a \in A_1$ would be a triangle. Thus, we have, where one or more of the sets A_0 , A_1 , A_1 , A_2 , A_3 , A_4



is a complete bipartite graph on sets incident to it, and there are no edges inside these sets.

If $n \ge 6$, then there are at least two elements in one of the sets $\{x\} \cup B_0$, $\{y\} \cup A_0$, A_1 or B_1 . However, these two vertices have the same neighbourhood and hence they cannot be separated by the other $n-2 \ge 4$ vertices. Thus, n=5.

If n = 5, and both A_1 and B_1 are non-empty, we must have $A_0 = B_0 = \emptyset$ and $G = C_5$, which is in $\mathfrak{Gr}(5,4)$ by Example 3(ii).

Finally, assume n=5 and $A_1=\emptyset$ (the case $B_1=\emptyset$ is the same after relabelling). Then B_1 is non-empty, since G is connected. If B_0 is non-empty, let $b_0\in B_0$ and $b_1\in B_1$, and observe that $\{x,b_0,b_1,z\}$ does not separate z and b_1 . Hence $B_0=\emptyset$. We thus have either $|A_0|=1$ and $|B_1|=1$, or $|A_0|=0$ and $|B_1|=2$, and both cases yield the graph in Figure I(b) which easily is seen to be in $\mathfrak{Gr}(5,4)$.

(ii) Suppose that there is no induced subgraph $K_1 \cup K_2$. Since G is connected, we can find an edge $x \sim y$. Let, as above, $A = N(x) \setminus \{y\}$ and $B = N(y) \setminus \{x\}$. If $a \in A$ and $b \in B$ and $a \not\sim b$, then $(\{a,x,b\}, \{\{a,x\}\})$ is an induced subgraph and we are back in case (i). Hence, all edges between sets A and B exist and thus, recalling that G has no triangles, G is the complete bipartite graph with bipartition $(A \cup \{y\}, B \cup \{x\})$. By Example 3(iv), then $n \leq 5$. If n = 5, we get $G = K_{2,3}$ or $G = K_{1,4} = S_5$, which both belong to $\mathfrak{Gr}(5,4)$ by Example 3(iv).

We summarize the result in a theorem.

Theorem 16 We have $\Xi(4) = 5$. More precisely, $\mathfrak{Gr}(4) = \mathfrak{Gr}(4,4) \cup \mathfrak{Gr}(5,4)$, where $\mathfrak{Gr}(4,4) = \{C_4, P_4, S_4, E_4, P_3 \cup K_1\}$ and $\mathfrak{Gr}(5,4) = \{S_5, C_5, K_{2,3}, G_5\}$ where G_5 is the graph in Figure 1(b).

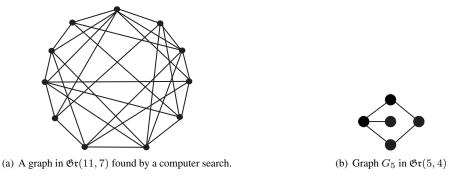


Fig. 1: Examples in $\mathfrak{Gr}(11,7)$ and $\mathfrak{Gr}(5,4)$.

Upper and lower bounds for $\Xi(k)$ for $1 \le k \le 20$ are given in Table 1. Note that we have determined $\Xi(k)$ exactly for $k \le 6$ and for 9, 19, but not for other values of k when $k \le 20$.

3 Upper estimates on the order

In the next theorem we give an upper on bound on $\Xi(k)$, which is obtained using knowledge on error-correcting codes.

Theorem 17 If $k \geq 2$, then $\Xi(k) \leq 2k - 2$.

Proof: We begin by giving a construction from a graph in $\mathfrak{Gr}(n,k)$ to error-correcting codes. A non-existence result of error-correcting codes then yields the non-existence of $\mathfrak{Gr}(n,k)$ graphs of certain parameters. Let $G=(V,E)\in\mathfrak{Gr}(n,k)$, where $V=\{x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_n\}$. We construct n+1 binary strings $\mathbf{y}_i=(y_{i1},\ldots,y_{in})$ of length n, for $i=0,\ldots,n$, from the sets $\emptyset=N[\emptyset]$ and $N[x_i]$ for $i=1,\ldots,n$ by defining $y_{0j}=0$ for all j and

$$y_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x_j \notin N[x_i] \\ 1 & \text{if } x_j \in N[x_i] \end{cases}, \qquad 1 \le i \le n.$$

Let C denote the code which consists of these binary strings as codewords. Because $G \in \mathfrak{Gr}(n,k)$, the symmetric difference of two closed neighbourhoods $N[x_i]$ and $N[x_j]$, or of one neigbourhood $N[x_i]$ and \emptyset , is at least n-k+1 by (2); in other words, the minimum Hamming distance d(C) of the code C is at least n-k+1.

We first give a simple proof that $\Xi(k) \leq 2k-1$. Thus, suppose that there is a $G \in \mathfrak{Gr}(n,k)$ such that n=2k. In the corresponding error-correcting code C, the minimum distance is at least d=n-k+1=k+1>n/2. Let the maximum cardinality of the error-correcting codes of length n and minimum distance at least d be denoted by A(n,d). We can apply the Plotkin bound (see for example [15, Chapter 2, §2]), which says $A(n,d) \leq 2|d/(2d-n)|$, when 2d > n. Thus, we have

$$A(n,d) \le 2\left\lfloor \frac{k+1}{2} \right\rfloor \le k+1.$$

Because k+1 < 2k = n < |C|, this contradicts the existence of C. Hence, there cannot exist a graph $G \in \mathfrak{Gr}(2k,k)$, and thus $\mathfrak{Gr}(n,k) = \emptyset$ when $n \ge 2k$.

The Plotkin bound is not strong enough to imply $\Xi(k) \le 2k-2$ in general, but we obtain this from the proof of the Plotkin bound as follows. (In fact, for odd k, $\Xi(k) \le 2k-2$ follows from the Plotkin bound for an odd minimum distance. We leave this to the reader since the argument below is more general.)

Suppose that $G = (V, E) \in \mathfrak{Gr}(n, k)$ with n = 2k - 1. We thus have a corresponding error-correcting code C with |C| = n + 1 = 2k and minimum Hamming distance at least n - k + 1 = k. Hence, letting d denote the Hamming distance,

$$\sum_{0 \le i \le j \le n} d(y_i, y_j) \ge \binom{n+1}{2} k = \frac{2k(2k-1)}{2} k = (2k-1)k^2.$$
(3)

On the other hand, if there are s_m strings y_i with $y_{im}=1$, and thus $|C|-s_m=2k-s_m$ strings with $y_{im}=0$, then the number of ordered pairs (i,j) such that $y_{im}\neq y_{jm}$ is $2s_m(2k-s_m)$ and this parabola gives $2s_m(2k-s_m)\leq 2k^2$. Hence each bit contributes at most k^2 to the sum in (3), and summing over m we find

$$\sum_{0 \le i \le j \le n} d(y_i, y_j) \le nk^2 = (2k - 1)k^2. \tag{4}$$

Consequently, we have equality in (3) and (4), and thus $d(y_i, y_j) = k$ for all pairs (i, j) with $i \neq j$.

In particular, $|N[x_i]| = d(y_i, y_0) = k$ for i = 1, ..., n, and thus every vertex in G has degree k - 1, i.e., G is (k - 1)-regular. Hence, 2|E| = n(k - 1) = (2k - 1)(k - 1), and k must be odd.

Further, if $i \neq j$, then $|N[x_i] \triangle N[x_j]| = d(y_i, y_j) = k$, and since $N[x_i] \setminus N[x_j]$ and $N[x_j] \setminus N[x_i]$ have the same size $k - |N[x_i] \cap N[x_j]|$, they have both the size k/2 and k must be even.

This contradiction shows that
$$\mathfrak{Gr}(2k-1,k)=\emptyset$$
, and thus $\Xi(k)\leq 2k-2$.

The next theorem (which does not use Theorem 17) will lead to another upper bound in Theorem 20. It can be seen as an improvement for the extreme case $\mathfrak{Gr}(2k-2,k)$ of Mantel's [16] theorem on existence of triangles in a graph. Note that this result fails for k=5 by Example 9.

Theorem 18 Suppose $G \in \mathfrak{Gr}(n,k)$ and $k \geq 6$. If $n \geq 2k-2$, then there is a triangle in G.

Proof: Let $G = (V, E) \in \mathfrak{Gv}(n, k)$. Suppose to the contrary that there are no triangles in G. If there is a vertex $x \in V$ such that $\deg(x) \ge k+1$, then we select in N(x) a k-set X and a vertex y outside it; since X has to dominate y, it is clear that there exists a triangle xyz. Hence $\deg(x) \le k$ for every x. On the other hand, we know by Corollary 8(i) that for all $x \in V \deg(x) \ge n-k \ge k-2$.

Let $x \in V$ be a vertex whose degree is minimum. We denote $V \setminus N[x] = B$ and we use the fact that $|B| \le k - 1$.

- 1) Suppose first $\deg(x)=k$. Because $\deg(x)$ is minimum we know that for all $a\in N(x)$, $\deg(a)=k$. This is possible if and only if |B|=k-1 and for all $a\in N(x)$ we have $B\cap N(a)=B$. But then in the k-subset $C=\{x\}\cup B$ we have I(C;a)=I(C;b) for all $a,b\in N(x)$. This is impossible.
- 2) Suppose then $\deg(x)=k-1$. If now $|B|\leq k-2$ the graph is impossible as in the first case (choose C=N[x]). Hence, |B|=k-1. For every $a\in N(x)$ there are at least k-2 adjacent vertices in B, and thus at most 1 non-adjacent. This implies that for all $a,b\in N(x)$, $a\neq b$, we have $|N(a)\cap N(b)\cap B|\geq k-3\geq 2$, when $k\geq 5$. Hence, by choosing $a,b\in N(x)$, $a\neq b$, we have

the k-subset $C = \{x\} \cup (N(x) \setminus \{a,b\}) \cup \{c_1,c_2\}$, where $c_1,c_2 \in N(a) \cap N(b) \cap B$. In this k-subset I(C;a) = I(C;b), which is impossible.

3) Suppose finally $\deg(x)=k-2$. Now |B|=k-1, otherwise we cannot have $n\geq 2k-2$. If there is $b\in B$ such that $|N(b)\cap N(x)|=k-2$, then because $\deg(b)\leq k$ we have $|N(b)\cap B|\geq 2$ and $|B\setminus N[b]|\geq k-4\geq 2$, when $k\geq 6$. Hence, there are $c_1,c_2\in B\setminus N[b]$, $c_1\neq c_2$, and in the k-subset $C=N(x)\cup\{c_1,c_2\}$ we have I(C;x)=I(C;b) which is impossible.

Thus, for all $b \in B$ we have $|N(b) \cap N(x)| \le k-3$. On the other hand, each of the k-2 vertices in N(x) has at least k-3 adjacent vertices in B, so the vertices in B have on the average at least (k-2)(k-3)/(k-1) > k-4 adjacent vertices in the set N(x). Hence, we can find $b \in B$ such that $|N(b) \cap N(x)| = k-3$. Because $\deg(b) \ge k-2$ we have at least one $b_0 \in B$ such that $d(b,b_0)=1$. Because there are no triangles, each of the k-3 neighbours of b in N(x) is not adjacent with b_0 , and therefore adjacent to at least k-3 of the k-2 vertices in $B \setminus \{b_0\}$. Hence, for all $a_1, a_2 \in N(x) \cap N(b)$, $a_1 \ne a_2$, we have $|N(a_1) \cap N(a_2) \cap B| \ge k-4 \ge 2$ when $k \ge 6$. In the k-subset $C = \{x, b, c_1, c_2\} \cup (N(x) \setminus \{a_1, a_2\})$, where $c_1, c_2 \in N(a_1) \cap N(a_2) \cap B$, we have $I(C; a_1) = I(C; a_2)$, which is impossible. \square

Lemma 19 If there is a graph $G \in \mathfrak{Gr}(n,k)$ that contains a triangle, then $n \leq 3k - 9$. (In particular, $k \geq 5$.)

Proof: Suppose that $G=(V,E)\in\mathfrak{Gr}(n,k)$ and that there is a triangle $\{x,y,z\}$ in G. Let, for $v,w\in V$, $J_w(v)$ denote the indicator function given by $J_w(v)=1$ if $v\in N[w]$ and $J_w(v)=0$ if $v\notin N[w]$. Define the set $M_{xy}=\{v\in V:J_x(v)=J_y(v)\}$, and $M'_{xy}=M_{xy}\setminus\{x,y,z\}$. Since M_{xy} does not distinguish x and y, we have $|M_{xy}|\leq k-1$. Further, $\{x,y,z\}\subseteq M_{xy}$, and thus $|M'_{xy}|\leq k-4$. Define similarly M_{xz},M_{yz},M'_{xz} , the same conclusion holds for these.

Since the indicator functions take only two values, M_{xy} , M_{xz} and M_{yz} cover V, and thus

$$n = |V| = |M'_{xy} \cup M'_{xz} \cup M'_{yz} \cup \{x, y, z\}| \le 3(k - 4) + 3 = 3k - 9.$$

Since $n \ge k$, this entails $3k - 9 \ge k$ and thus $k \ge 5$.

The following upper bound is generally weaker than Theorem 17, but it gives the optimal result for k=6

Theorem 20 Suppose $k \geq 6$. Then $\Xi(k) \leq 3k - 9$.

Proof: Suppose that $G \in \mathfrak{Gr}(n,k)$. If G does not contain any triangle, then Theorem 18 yields $n \le 2k-3 \le 3k-9$. If G does contain a triangle, then Lemma 19 yields $n \le 3k-9$.

4 Strongly regular graphs

A graph G=(V,E) is called *strongly regular* with parameters (n,t,λ,μ) if |V|=n, $\deg(x)=t$ for all $x\in V$, any two adjacent vertices have exactly λ common neighbours, and any two nonadjacent vertices have exactly μ common neighbours; we then say that G is an (n,t,λ,μ) -SRG. See [3] for more information. By [3, Proposition 1.4.1] we know that if G is an (n,t,λ,μ) -SRG, then $n=t+1+t(t-1-\lambda)/\mu$.

We give two examples of strongly regular graphs that will be used below.

Example 21 The well-known Paley graph P(q), where q is a prime power with $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, is a (q, (q-1)/2, (q-5)/4, (q-1)/4)-SRG, see for example [3]. The vertices of P(q) are the elements of the finite field F_q , with an edge ij if and only if i-j is a non-zero square in the field; when q is a prime, this means that the vertices are $\{1, \ldots, q\}$ with edges ij when i-j is a quadratic residue mod q.

Example 22 Another construction of strongly regular graphs uses a regular symmetric Hadamard matrix with constant diagonal (RSHCD) [6], [4], [5]. In particular, in the case (denoted RSHCD+) of a regular symmetric $n \times n$ Hadamard matrix $H = (h_{ij})$ with diagonal entries +1 and constant positive row sums 2m (necessarily even when n > 1), then $n = (2m)^2 = 4m^2$ and the graph G with vertex set $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ and an edge ij (for $i \neq j$) if and only if $h_{ij} = +1$ is a $(4m^2, 2m^2 + m - 1, m^2 + m - 2, m^2 + m)$ -SRG [4, §8D].

It is not known for which m such RSHCD+ exist (it has been conjectured that any $m \geq 1$ is possible) but constructions for many m are known, see [6], [17, V.3] and [5, IV.24.2]. For example, starting with the 4×4 RSHCD+

$$H_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

its tensor power $H_4^{\otimes r}$ is an RSHCD+ with $n=4^r$, and thus $m=2^{r-1}$, for any $r\geq 1$. This yields a $(2^{2r}, 2^{2r-1}+2^{r-1}-1, 2^{2r-2}+2^{r-1}-2, 2^{2r-2}+2^{r-1})$ -SRG with vertex set $\{1,2,3,4\}^r$, where two different vertices (i_1,\ldots,i_r) and (j_1,\ldots,j_r) are adjacent if and only if the number of coordinates ν such that $i_{\nu}+j_{\nu}=5$ is even.

Theorem 23 A strongly regular graph G = (V, E) with parameters (n, t, λ, μ) belongs to $\mathfrak{Gr}(n, k)$ if and only if

$$k \ge \max\{n-t, n-2t+2\lambda+3, n-2t+2\mu-1\},\$$

or, equivalently, t > n - k and $2 \max\{\lambda + 1, \mu - 1\} < k + 2t - n - 1$.

Proof: An immediate consequence of Theorem 7, since |N[x]| = t + 1 for every vertex x and $|N[x] \triangle N[y]|$ equals $2(t - \lambda - 1)$ when $x \sim y$ and $2(t + 1 - \mu)$ when $x \not\sim y$, $x \neq y$.

We can extend this construction to other values of n by modifying the strongly regular graph.

Theorem 24 If there exists a strongly regular graph with parameters (n_0, t, λ, μ) , then for every $i = 0, \ldots, n_0 + 1$ there exists a graph in $\mathfrak{Gr}(n_0 + i, k_0 + i)$, where

$$k_0 = \max\{n_0 - t, t, n_0 - 2t + 2\lambda + 3, n_0 - 2t + 2\mu - 1, 2t - 2\lambda - 1, 2t - 2\mu + 2\},\$$

provided $k_0 \leq n_0$.

Proof: For i=0, this is a weaker form of Theorem 23. For $i\geq 1$, we suppose that $G_0=(V_0,E_0)$ is (n_0,t,λ,μ) -SRG and build a graph G_i in $\mathfrak{Gr}(n_0+i,k_0+i)$ from G_0 by adding suitable new vertices and edges.

If $1 \le i \le n_0$, choose i different vertices x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_i in V_0 . Construct a new graph $G_i = (V_i, E_i)$ by taking G_0 and adding to it new vertices x'_1, x'_2, \ldots, x'_i and new edges $x'_i y$ for $i \le i$ and all $i \ne i$ and $i \ne i$

First, $\deg_{G_i}(x) \ge \deg_{G_0}(x) = t$ for $x \in V_0$ and $\deg_{G_i}(x') = n_0 - t$ for $x' \in V_i' = V_i \setminus V_0$. We proceed to investigate $N[x] \triangle N[y]$, and separate several cases.

(i) If $x, y \in V_0$, with $x \neq y$, then

$$|N[x] \triangle N[y]| \ge |(N[x] \triangle N[y]) \cap V_0| = |N_{G_0}[x] \triangle N_{G_0}[y]|,$$

which equals $2(t - \lambda - 1)$ if $x \sim y$ and $2(t - \mu + 1)$ if $x \not\sim y$.

(ii) If $x \in V_0, y' \in V'_i$, then, since \triangle is associative and commutative,

$$|(N[x] \triangle N[y']) \cap V_0| = |(N_{G_0}[x] \triangle (V_0 \triangle N_{G_0}(y)))| = n_0 - |N_{G_0}[x] \triangle N_{G_0}(y)|,$$

which equals n_0-1 if $x=y, n_0-(2t-2\lambda-1)$ if $x\sim y$, and $n_0-(2t-2\mu+1)$ if $x\not\sim y$ and $x\neq y$. If $x\sim y$, further, $|(N[x]\triangle N[y'])\cap V_i'|\geq 1$, since $y'\not\in N[x]$.

(iii) If $x', y' \in V'_i$, with $x' \neq y'$, then

$$|(N[x'] \triangle N[y']) \cap V_0| = |(V_0 \setminus N_{G_0}(x)) \triangle (V_0 \setminus N_{G_0}(y))| = |N_{G_0}(x) \triangle N_{G_0}(y)|,$$

which equals $2(t-\lambda)$ if $x \sim y$ and $2(t-\mu)$ if $x \not\sim y$. Further, $\left|\left(N[x'] \triangle N[y']\right) \cap V_i'\right| = \left|\left\{x',y'\right\}\right| = 2$. Collecting these estimates, we see that $G_i \in \mathfrak{Gr}(n_0+i,k_0+i)$ by Theorem 7 (or Corollary 8) with our choice of k_0 . Note that $2k_0 \ge (n_0-2t+2\lambda+3)+(2t-2\lambda-1)=n_0+2\ge 3$, so $k_0 \ge 2$.

Finally, for $i=n_0+1$, we construct G_{n_0+1} by adding a new vertex to G_{n_0} and connecting it to all other vertices. The graph G_{n_0} has by construction maximum degree $\Delta_{G_{n_0}}=n_0 \leq k_0+n_0-2$. Hence, Lemma 10 shows that $G_{n_0+1} \in \mathfrak{Gr}(2n_0+1,k_0+n_0+1)$.

We specialize to the Paley graphs, and obtain from Example 21 and Theorems 23–24 the following.

Theorem 25 Let q be an odd prime power such that $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

- (i) The Paley graph $P(q) \in \mathfrak{Gr}(q, (q+3)/2)$.
- (ii) There exists a graph in $\mathfrak{Gr}(q+i,(q+3)/2+i)$ for all $i=0,1,\ldots,q+1$.

Note that the rate 2q/(q+3) for the Paley graphs approaches 2 as $q \to \infty$; in fact, with n=q and k=(q+3)/2 we have n=2k-3, almost attaining the bound 2k-2 in Theorem 17. (The Paley graphs thus almost attain the bound in Theorem 17, but never attain it exactly.)

Corollary 26
$$\Xi(k) \geq 2k - o(k)$$
 as $k \to \infty$.

Proof: Let $q=p^2$ where (for $k\geq 6$) p is the largest prime such that $p\leq \sqrt{2k-3}$. It follows from the prime number theorem that $p/\sqrt{2k-3}\to 1$ as $k\to\infty$, and thus q=2k-o(k). Hence, if k is large enough, then $k\leq q\leq 2k-3$, and Theorem 25 shows that $P(q)\in\mathfrak{Gr}(q,(q+3)/2)\subseteq\mathfrak{Gr}(q,k)$, so $\Xi(k)\geq q=2k-o(k)$. (Alternatively, we may let q be the largest prime such that $q\leq 2k-3$ and $q\equiv 1\pmod 4$ and use the prime number theorem for arithmetic progressions [8, Chapter 17] to see that then q=2k-o(k).)

We turn to the strongly regular graphs constructed in Example 22 and find from Theorem 23 that they are in $\mathfrak{Gr}(4m^2, 2m^2 + 1)$, thus attaining the bound in Theorem 17. We state that as a theorem.

Theorem 27 The strongly regular graph constructed in Example 22 from an $n \times n$ RSHCD+ belongs to $\mathfrak{Gr}(n, n/2 + 1)$.

Corollary 28 There exist infinitely many integers k such that $\Xi(k) = 2k - 2$.

Proof: If k = n/2 + 1 for an even n such that there exists an $n \times n$ RSHCD+, then $\Xi(k) \ge n = 2k - 2$ by Theorem 27. The opposite inequality is given by Theorem 17. By Example 22, this holds at least for $k = 2^{2r-1} + 1$ for any r > 1.

5 On $\mathfrak{Gr}(n,k,\ell)$

In this section we consider $\mathfrak{Gr}(n,k,\ell)$ for $\ell \geq 2$. Let us denote

$$\Xi(k,\ell) = \max\{n : \mathfrak{Gr}(n,k,\ell) \neq \emptyset\}.$$

Trivially, the empty graph $E_k \in \mathfrak{Gr}(k, k, \ell)$ for any $\ell \geq 1$; thus $\Xi(k, \ell) \geq k$.

Note that a graph G=(V,E) with |V|=n admits a $(1, \leq \ell)$ -identifying set $\iff V$ is $(1, \leq \ell)$ -identifying $\iff G \in \mathfrak{Gr}(n,n,\ell)$.

Theorem 29 Suppose that $G = (V, E) \in \mathfrak{Gr}(n, k, \ell)$, where n > k and $\ell \geq 2$. Then the following conditions hold:

- (i) For all $x \in V$ we have $\ell + 1 < n k + \ell + 1 \le |N[x]| \le k \ell$. In other words, $\delta_G \ge n k + \ell$ and $\Delta_G \le k \ell 1$.
- (ii) For all $x, y \in V$, $x \neq y$, $|N[x] \cap N[y]| \le k 2\ell + 1$.
- (iii) $n \le 2k 2\ell 1$ and $k \ge 2\ell + 2$.

Proof: (i) Suppose first that there is a vertex $x \in V$ such that $|N[x]| \le n - k + \ell$. By removing n - k vertices from V, starting in N[x], we find a k-subset C with $I(C;x) = \{c_1, \ldots, c_m\}$ for some $m \le \ell$. If m = 0, then $I(C;x) = I(C;\emptyset)$, which is impossible. If $1 \le m < \ell$, we can arrange (by removing x first) so that $x \notin C$, and thus $x \notin Y = \{c_1, \ldots, c_m\}$. Then $I(C; \{x\} \cup Y) = I(C;Y)$, a contradiction. If $m = \ell \ge 2$, we can conversely arrange so that $x \in C$, and thus $x \in I(C;x)$, say $c_1 = x$. Then $I(C;c_2,\ldots,c_m) = I(C;c_1,\ldots,c_m)$, another contradiction. Consequently, $|N[x]| \ge n - k + \ell + 1$.

Suppose then $|N[x]| \ge k - \ell + 1$. If $|N[x]| \ge k$, we can choose a k-subset C of N[x]; then I(C;x) = C = I(C;x,y) for any y, which is impossible. If $k > |N[x]| \ge k - \ell + 1$, we can choose a k-subset $C = N[x] \cup \{c_1,\ldots,c_{k-|N[x]|}\}$. Choose also $a \in N(c_1)$ (which is possible because $\deg(c_1) \ge 1$ by (i)). Now $I(C;x,c_1,\ldots,c_{k-|N[x]|}) = C = I(C;x,a,c_2,\ldots,c_{k-|N[x]|})$, which is impossible.

- (ii) Suppose to the contrary that there are $x,y\in V, x\neq y$, such that $|N[x]\cap N[y]|\geq k-2\ell+2$. Let $A=N(y)\setminus N[x]$. Then, according to (i), $|A|\leq |N[y]\setminus N[x]|=|N[y]|-|N[x]\cap N[y]|\leq k-\ell-(k-2\ell+2)=\ell-2$. Since $k>\ell-2$ by (i), there is a k-subset $C\subseteq V\setminus\{y\}$ such that $A\subset C$. Then $I(C;A\cup\{x\})=I(C;A\cup\{x\})$, a contradiction.
 - (iii) An immediate consequence of (i), which implies $n k + \ell + 1 \le k \ell$ and $\ell + 1 < k \ell$. \Box

Theorem 30 For $\ell \ge 2$, $\Xi(k, \ell) \le \max\{\frac{\ell}{\ell - 1}(k - 2), k\}$.

Proof: If $\Xi(k,\ell)=k$, there is nothing to prove. Assume then that there exists a graph $G=(V,E)\in \mathfrak{Gr}(n,k,\ell)$, where n>k. By Theorem 29(iii), $\ell< k/2< n$. Let us consider any set of vertices $Z=\{z_1,z_2,\ldots,z_\ell\}$ of size ℓ . We will estimate |N[Z]| as follows. By Theorem 29(i) we know $|N[z_1]|\geq n-k+\ell+1$. Now $N[z_1,z_2]$ must contain at least n-k+1 vertices, which *do not* belong to $N[z_1]$ due to Theorem 7 which says that $|N[X] \triangle N[Y]| \geq n-k+1$, where we take $X=\{z_1\}$ and $Y=\{z_1,z_2\}$. Analogously, each set $N[z_1,\ldots,z_i]$ ($i=2,\ldots,\ell$) must contain at least n-k+1 vertices which are not in $N[z_1,\ldots,z_{i-1}]$. Hence, for the set Z we have $|N[Z]| \geq n-k+\ell+1+(\ell-1)(n-k+1)=\ell(n-k+2)$. Since trivially $|N[Z]| \leq n$, we have $(\ell-1)n \leq \ell(k-2)$, and the claim follows.

Corollary 31 For $\ell \geq 2$, we have $\frac{\Xi(k,\ell)}{k} \leq 1 + \frac{1}{\ell-1}$.

The next results improve the result of Theorem 30 for $\ell = 2$.

Lemma 32 Assume that n > k. Let G = (V, E) belong to $\mathfrak{Gr}(n, k, 2)$. Then

$$n + \frac{n-k+2}{n-1}(n-k+3) \le 2k-3$$

Proof: Suppose $x \in V$. Let

$$f(n,k) = \frac{n-k+2}{n-1}(n-k+3).$$

Our aim is first to show that there exists a vertex in N(x) or in $S_2(x)$ which dominates at least f(n,k) vertices of N[x]. Let

$$\lambda_x = \max\{|N[x] \cap N[a]| \mid a \in N(x)\}.$$

If $\lambda_x \geq f(n,k)$, we are already done. But if $\lambda_x < f(n,k)$, then we show that there is a vertex in $S_2(x)$ that dominates at least f(n,k) vertices of N[x]. Let us estimate the number of edges between the vertices in N(x) and in $S_2(x)$ — we denote this number by M. By Theorem 29(i), every vertex $y \in N(x)$ yields at least $|N[y]| - \lambda_x \geq n - k + 3 - \lambda_x$ such edges and there are at least n - k + 2 vertices in N(x). Consequently, $M \geq (n - k + 2)(n - k + 3 - \lambda_x)$. On the other hand, again by Theorem 29(i), $|S_2(x)| \leq n - |N[x]| \leq k - 3$. Hence, there must exist a vertex in $S_2(x)$ incident with at least M/(k-3) edges whose other endpoint is in N(x). Now, if $\lambda_x < f(n,k)$, then

$$\frac{M}{k-3} > \frac{(n-k+2)(n-k+3-f(n,k))}{k-3} = f(n,k).$$

Hence there exists in this case a vertex in $S_2(x)$ that is incident to at least f(n,k) such edges, i.e., it dominates at least f(n,k) vertices in N(x).

In any case there thus exists $z \neq x$ such that $|N[x] \cap N[z]| \geq f(n,k)$. Let $C = (N[x] \cap N[z]) \cup (V \setminus N[x])$. Then I(C;x,z) = I(C;z), so C is not $(1, \leq 2)$ -identifying and thus |C| < k. Hence, using Theorem 29(i),

$$|k-1| \ge |C| \ge f(n,k) + n - |N[x]| \ge f(n,k) + n - (k-2),$$

and thus $n + f(n, k) \le 2k - 3$ as asserted.

Theorem 33 If $k \le 5$, then $\Xi(k,2) = k$. If $k \ge 6$, then

$$\Xi(k,2) < \left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)(k-2) + \frac{1}{4}.$$

Proof: Let $n = \Xi(k, 2)$, and let m = k - 2. If n > k, then $k \ge 6$ by Theorem 29(iii); hence n = k when k < 5. Further, still assuming n > k, Lemma 32 yields

$$n + \frac{(n-m)(n-m+1)}{n-1} \le 2m+1$$

or

$$0 \ge n(n-1) + (n-m)^2 + n - m - (2m+1)(n-1) = 2\left(n - (m + \frac{1}{4})\right)^2 - m^2 + \frac{7}{8}.$$

Hence,
$$n - (m + \frac{1}{4}) < m/\sqrt{2}$$
.

Corollary 34 For $\ell=2$, we have $\Xi(k,2)/k\leq 1+\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$.

Problem 35 What is $\limsup_{k\to\infty} \Xi(k,\ell)/k$ for $\ell \geq 2$? In particular, is $\limsup_{k\to\infty} \Xi(k,\ell)/k > 1$?

The following theorem implies that for any $\ell \geq 2$ there exist graphs in $\mathfrak{Gr}(n,k,\ell)$ for $n \approx k + \log_2 k$. In particular, we have such graphs with n > k.

Theorem 36 Let $\ell \geq 2$ and $m \geq \max\{2\ell - 2, 4\}$. A binary hypercube of dimension m belongs to $\mathfrak{Gr}(2^m, 2^m - m + 2\ell - 2, \ell)$.

Proof: Suppose first $\ell \geq 3$. By [11, Theorem 2] we know that then a set in a binary hypercube is $(1, \leq \ell)$ -identifying if and only if every vertex is dominated by at least $2\ell-1$ different vertices belonging to the set. Hence, we can remove any $m+1-(2\ell-1)$ vertices from the set of vertices, and there will still be a big enough multiple domination to assure that the remaining set is $(1, \leq \ell)$ -identifying.

Suppose then that $\ell=2$ and G=(V,E) is the binary m-dimensional hypercube. Let us denote by $C\subseteq V$ a (2^m-m+2) -subset. Every vertex is dominated by at least m+1-(m-2)=3 vertices of C. For all $x,y\in V$, $x\neq y$ we have $|N[x]\cap N[y]|=2$ if and only if $1\leq d(x,y)\leq 2$ and otherwise $|N[x]\cap N[y]|=0$. Hence, for all $x,y,z\in V$ with $x\neq y$, $I(y)=N[y]\cap C$ contains at least 3 vertices, and these cannot all be dominated by x; thus, we have $I(x)\neq I(y)$ and $I(x)\neq I(y,z)$.

We still need to show that $I(x,y) \neq I(z,w)$ for all $x,y,z,w \in V, x \neq y, z \neq w, \{x,y\} \neq \{z,w\}$. By symmetry we may assume that $x \notin \{z,w\}$. Suppose I(x,y) = I(z,w).

If $|I(x)| \ge 5$, then any two vertices $z, w \ne x$ cannot dominate I(x), a contradiction.

If |I(x)|=4, then $|I(z)\cap I(x)|=|I(w)\cap I(x)|=2$ and $I(x)\cap I(z)\cap I(w)=\emptyset$. It follows that $3\leq d(z,w)\leq 4$ which implies $I(z)\cap I(w)=\emptyset$. Since $|N[x]\setminus C|=|N[x]|-|I(x)|=m-3$, all except one vertex, say v, of $V\setminus C$ belong to N[x], so $V\setminus N[x]\subseteq C\cup \{v\}$; the vertex v cannot belong to both N[z] and N[w] since these are disjoint, so we may (w.l.o.g.) assume that $v\notin N[z]$, and thus $N[z]\setminus N[x]\subseteq C$, whence $N[z]\setminus N[x]\subseteq I(z)\setminus I(x)$. Hence, $|I(z)\cap I(y)|\geq |I(z)\setminus I(x)|\geq |N[z]\setminus N[x]|=|N[z]|-|N[z]\cap N[x]|=m+1-2\geq 3$. Thus y=z; however, then $I(y)\cap I(w)=I(z)\cap I(w)=\emptyset$ and since $I(w)\not\subseteq I(x)$, we have $I(w)\not\subseteq I(x,y)$.

Suppose finally that |I(x)|=3; w.l.o.g. we may assume $|I(z)\cap I(x)|=2$. Now $|N[x]\setminus C|=|N[x]|-|I(x)|=m-2=|V\setminus C|$, and thus $V\setminus C=N[x]\setminus C\subseteq N[x]$; hence, $V\setminus N[x]\subseteq C$ and thus

 $N[z]\setminus N[x]\subseteq I(z)\setminus I(x)$. Consequently, $|I(z)\cap I(y)|\geq |I(z)\setminus I(x)|\geq |N[z]\setminus N[x]|\geq m+1-2\geq 3$, and thus z=y. But similarly $N[w]\setminus N[x]\subseteq I(w)\setminus I(x)$ and the same argument shows w=y, and thus w=z, a contradiction.

We finally consider graphs without isolated vertices (i.e., no vertices with degree zero), and in particular connected graphs.

By [13, Theorem 8] a graph with no isolated vertices admitting a $(1, \le \ell)$ -identifying set has minimum degree at least ℓ . Hence, always $n \ge \ell + 1$.

In [7] and [12] it has been proven that there exist connected graphs which admit $(1, \le \ell)$ -identifying sets. For example, the smallest known connected graph admitting a $(1, \le 3)$ -identifying set has 16 vertices [12]. It is unknown whether there are such graphs with smaller order. In the next theorem we solve the case of graphs admitting $(1, \le 2)$ -identifying sets.

Theorem 37 The smallest $n \geq 3$ such that there exists a connected graph (or a graph without isolated vertices) in $\mathfrak{Gr}(n, n, 2)$ is n = 7.

(If we allow isolated vertices, we can trivially take the empty graph E_n for any $n \ge 2$.)

Proof: The cycle $C_n \in \mathfrak{Gr}(n, n, 2)$ for $n \geq 7$ by Example 3(ii) (see also [12]).

Assume that $G=(V,E)\in \mathfrak{Gr}(n,n,2)$ is a graph of order $n\leq 6$ without isolated vertices; we will show that this leads to a contradiction. By [13], we know that $\deg(v)\geq 2$ for all $v\in V$. We will use this fact frequently in the sequel.

If G is disconnected, the only possibility is that n = 6 and that G consists of two disjoint triangles, but this graph is not even in $\mathfrak{Gr}(n, n, 1)$.

Hence, G is connected. Let $x, y \in V$ be such that d(x, y) = diam(G).

- (i) Suppose that diam(G) = 1, or more generally that there exists a dominating vertex x. Then N[x,y] = N[x] for any $y \in V$, which is a contradiction.
- (ii) Suppose next diam(G)=2. Moreover, by the previous case we can assume that for any $v\in V$ there is $w\in V$ such that d(v,w)=2.

Assume first |N(x)| = 4. Then $S_2(x) = \{y\}$. Since $\deg(y) \ge 2$, there exist two vertices $w_1, w_2 \in N(y) \cap N(x)$, but then $N[x, w_1] = N[x, w_2]$.

Assume next |N(x)|=3, say $N(x)=\{u_1,u_2,u_3\}$. Then $|S_2(x)|=n-|N[x]|\leq 2$. Since the four sets N[x] and $N[x,u_i]$, i=1,2,3, must be distinct, we can assume without loss of generality that $|S_2(x)|=2$, say $S_2(x)=\{y,w\}$, and that the only edges between the elements in $S_2(x)$ and N(x) are u_1y,u_2w,u_3y and u_3w . Then $N[x,u_3]=N[y,u_2]$.

Assume finally that |N(x)|=2. By the previous discussion we may assume that |N(v)|=2 for all $v \in V$. Then G must be a cycle C_n , but it can easily be seen that $C_n \notin \mathfrak{Gr}(n,n,2)$ for $3 \le n \le 6$.

- (iii) Suppose that $\operatorname{diam}(G)=3$. Clearly $|N(x)|\geq 2$ and $|S_2(x)|\geq 1$. If $|S_2(x)|=1$, say $S_2(x)=\{w\}$, then N[w,y]=N[w], which is not allowed. Since $n\leq 6$, we thus have |N(x)|=2 and $|S_2(x)|=2$, say $N(x)=\{u_1,u_2\}$ and $S_2(x)=\{w_1,w_2\}$. We can assume without loss of generality that $u_1w_1\in E$. If $w_2u_2\in E$, then $N[w_1,u_2]=N[x,y]$. If $w_2u_2\notin E$, then $N[w_1,w_2]=N[w_1]$.
- (iv) Suppose that $\operatorname{diam}(x,y) \geq 4$. Then G contains an induced path P_5 . There is at most one additional vertex, but it is impossible to add it to P_5 and obtain $\delta_G \geq 2$ and $\operatorname{diam}(G) \geq 4$.

This completes the proof.

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Tab. 1: Lower and upper bounds for $\Xi(k)$ for $1 \le k \le 20$. The lower bounds come from the examples given in the last column; for $n \ge 8$ using Theorem 23, 25 or 27 or Lemma 10. The strongly regular graphs used here can be found from [5]. The upper bounds for $k \ge 7$ come from Theorem 17.

k	lower bound	upper bound	example
1	1	1 (Ex. 12)	E_1
2	2	2 (Ex. 13)	E_2
3	4	4 (Ex. 14, Th.17)	C_4, S_4
4	5	5 (Th. 16)	Figure 1(b)
5	8	8 (Th. 17)	Example 9
6	9	9 (Th. 20)	Example 11, $P(9)$
7	11	12 (Th. 17, Th. 20)	Figure 1(a)
8	13	14	P(13)
9	16	16	RSHCD+
10	17	18	P(17)
11	18	20	Th. 25(ii)
12	21	22	(21,10,3,6)-SRG
13	22	24	Lemma 10
14	25	26	P(25)
15	26	28	(26,15,8,9)-SRG
16	29	30	P(29)
17	30	32	Th. 25(ii)
18	31	34	Th. 25(ii)
19	36	36	RSHCD+
20	37	38	P(37)

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