

# SMALL LOCALLY $nK_2$ GRAPHS

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ABSTRACT. A locally  $nK_2$  graph  $G$  is a graph such that the set of neighbors of any vertex of  $G$  induces a subgraph isomorphic to  $nK_2$ . We show that a locally  $nK_2$  graph  $G$  must have at least  $6n - 3$  vertices, and that a locally  $nK_2$  graph with  $6n - 3$  vertices exists if only if  $n \in \{1, 2, 3, 5\}$ , and in these cases the graph is unique up to isomorphism. The case  $n = 5$  is surprisingly connected to a classic theorem of algebraic geometry: The adjacency relation among the vertices of the only locally  $5K_2$  graph on  $6n - 3 = 27$  vertices is the same as the incidence relation among the 27 straight lines on any nonsingular complex, projective cubic surface.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

All our graphs are finite, simple and connected. If  $x$  is a vertex of the graph  $G$ , we denote by  $N_G(x)$  the subgraph of  $G$  induced by the neighbors of  $x$  in  $G$ . A graph  $G$  is called *locally homogeneous* if there is a graph  $H$  such that  $N_G(x) \cong H$  for all  $x \in G$ . There is an ample literature on locally homogeneous graphs, see for example: [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7], where the problems of realization (given  $H$ , find a (finite) graph  $G$  which is locally  $H$ ) and characterization (given  $H$ , characterize all locally  $H$  graphs) are addressed.

The graph  $nK_2$  is the disjoint union of  $n$  copies of the complete graph  $K_2$  on two vertices. For  $n = 1$  it is immediate that the only locally  $nK_2$  is  $K_3$ . For each  $n \geq 2$  there is an infinite number of finite graphs which are locally  $nK_2$ , see the construction techniques of [3, 6, 7]. We will show in section 2 that the number of vertices for a locally  $nK_2$  graph is bounded below by  $6n - 3$ , and then our main result:

**Theorem.** *A locally  $nK_2$  graph  $G$  with  $6n - 3$  vertices exists if, and only if,  $n \in \{1, 2, 3, 5\}$ , and in those cases, it is unique up to isomorphism.*

We give a simple description of the three graphs, besides  $K_3$ , that have this extremal property.

In this paper, a maximal complete subgraph is called a *clique*. We identify each induced subgraph of  $G$  with its vertex set. The adjacency relation will be denoted as  $\sim$ .

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## 2. PROOF OF THE THEOREM

From now on, assume  $G$  to be a locally  $nK_2$  graph and  $n \geq 2$ . First thing we note is that the cliques of  $G$  are exactly its triangles, and no edge of  $G$  is in two cliques. We will use this property extensively.

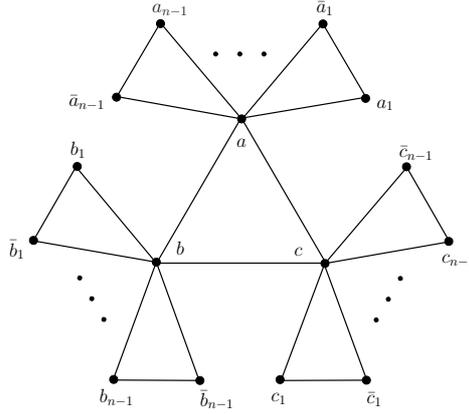


FIGURE 1. A triangle in  $G$  and its neighbours.

Let  $T = \{a, b, c\}$  be a triangle of  $G$  (cf. Figure 1). If there is some  $x \in N(a) \cap N(b)$  with  $x \neq c$ , vertex  $b$  would have a path on three vertices in its neighbourhood. Hence  $N(a) \cap N(b) = \{c\}$  and since our situation is symmetrical on  $a, b$  and  $c$ , it follows that  $|G| \geq |N(a) \cup N(b) \cup N(c)| = 6n - 3$ . Hence:

**Lemma 1.** [8] *A locally  $nK_2$  graph  $G$  has at least  $6n - 3$  vertices.*  $\square$

Assume from now on that  $G$  has  $6n - 3$  vertices. Fix a triangle  $T = \{a, b, c\}$  of  $G$ . By the previous argument,  $V(G) = N(a) \cup N(b) \cup N(c)$ . Let's label the vertices of  $G$  as in Figure 1, that is, we set  $N(a) = \{b, c\} \cup \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n-1}\} \cup \{\bar{a}_1, \bar{a}_2, \dots, \bar{a}_{n-1}\}$  with  $a_i \sim \bar{a}_i$ ; and we also label the neighbors of  $b$  and  $c$  in a similar way. We will use letters  $x, y, z$  to refer to (generic) elements in  $\{a, b, c\}$ . Likewise, (say)  $x_i$  and  $\bar{x}_i$  are generic elements in  $V(G) - T$ , but we must always have that  $\{x, x_i, \bar{x}_i\}$  is a triangle. Unless otherwise stated we assume that no two of  $x, y$  and  $z$  are equal.

Since  $N_G(x) \cong nK_2$ , it follows that the  $2n - 2$  vertices of  $N_G(x_i)$  besides  $x$  and  $\bar{x}_i$  are exactly half of the  $4n - 4$  vertices in  $G - N[x] = \{y_1, \bar{y}_1, \dots, y_{n-1}, \bar{y}_{n-1}\} \cup \{z_1, \bar{z}_1, \dots, z_{n-1}, \bar{z}_{n-1}\}$ . But we can not have both  $x_i \sim y_j$  and  $x_i \sim \bar{y}_j$ , for otherwise, the edge  $y_j \bar{y}_j$  would be in two triangles. Likewise, we could not have both  $x_i \sim y_j$  and  $\bar{x}_i \sim y_j$ . Hence, it follows that for all  $j$ , the vertex  $x_i$  is adjacent to exactly one of  $y_j, \bar{y}_j$  and exactly one of  $z_j, \bar{z}_j$  and that  $\bar{x}_i$  is adjacent to exactly the other two. So we just proved that:

**Lemma 2.** *The edges connecting  $\{x_i, \bar{x}_i\}$  to  $\{y_j, \bar{y}_j\}$  form a perfect matching.*  $\square$

Therefore, we know that the connections from  $\{x_i, \bar{x}_i\}$  to  $\{y_j, \bar{y}_j\}$  can only be either *straight* ( $x_i \sim y_j$  and  $\bar{x}_i \sim \bar{y}_j$ ) or *twisted* ( $x_i \sim \bar{y}_j$  and  $\bar{x}_i \sim y_j$ ). This allows us to use an auxiliary

representation for those connections of  $G$ : Set  $A_i = \{a_i, \bar{a}_i\}$ ,  $B_i = \{b_i, \bar{b}_i\}$  and  $C_i = \{c_i, \bar{c}_i\}$ . Let  $H_n$  be the complete tripartite graph on  $3n - 3$  vertices with  $n - 1$  vertices in each part. We assume without loss that the vertices of  $H_n$  are precisely the aforementioned  $A_i$ ,  $B_i$  and  $C_i$  for  $i \in I := \{1, \dots, n - 1\}$ . Moreover we set the parts of  $H_n$  to be precisely  $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$ ,  $\{B_i\}_{i \in I}$  and  $\{C_i\}_{i \in I}$ . Now, whenever the connections from  $X_i := \{x_i, \bar{x}_i\}$  to  $Y_j := \{y_i, \bar{y}_i\}$  are straight in  $G$ , we paint the edge  $X_i Y_j$  blue in  $H_n$ , otherwise (when the connections are twisted) we paint it red. It should be clear that the possible adjacencies of  $G$  (compatible with Lemma 2) are in bijection with the edge-colorings of  $H_n$ .

Now, for any triangle  $A_i B_j C_k$  of  $H_n$ , we observe that  $A_i \cup B_j \cup C_k$  induces a disjoint union of two triangles in  $G$  if and only if  $A_i B_j C_k$  has an even number of red edges. In such case, we say that  $A_i B_j C_k$  is a *good* triangle. We say that an edge-coloring of  $H_n$  with colors blue and red is *valid* if every edge of  $H_n$  is contained in exactly one good triangle. Since every edge of  $G$  is contained in exactly one triangle, we have:

**Lemma 3.** *Any locally  $nK_2$  graph  $G$  with  $6n - 3$  vertices determines a valid edge-coloring of  $H_n$  and conversely, a valid edge-coloring leads to a locally  $nK_2$  graph.*  $\square$

However, different colorings can lead to isomorphic locally  $nK_2$  graphs, and in this case, we say that the colorings are *equivalent*. For example, interchanging the names of the two vertices of a pair  $X_i = \{x_i, \bar{x}_i\}$  in  $G$  would mean that all edges of  $H_n$  incident to vertex  $X_i$  would switch colors. In this case, we say that we applied a *twist* to the vertex  $X_i$ . We can also reorder some vertices of one of the parts of  $H_n$  and obtain an equivalent coloring. Twists and reorderings (of the kind described) will be the only two operations that we will use to reduce any edge-coloring of  $H_n$  to one, specific, canonical one.

**Lemma 4.** *For each  $n \geq 2$  any two valid edge-colorings of  $H_n$  are equivalent. In particular, for each  $n \geq 2$  there is, up to isomorphism, at most one locally  $nK_2$  graph on  $6n - 3$  vertices.*

**Proof:** We start, then, with a valid coloring of  $H_n$ .

*Step 1.* The edges  $A_1 B_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n - 1$  can be assumed to be all blue, by applying a twist to some of the  $B_i$  if necessary. Similarly, all edges of the form  $A_1 C_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n - 1$  and  $A_i B_1$  for  $i = 2, \dots, n - 1$  can be assumed to be blue.

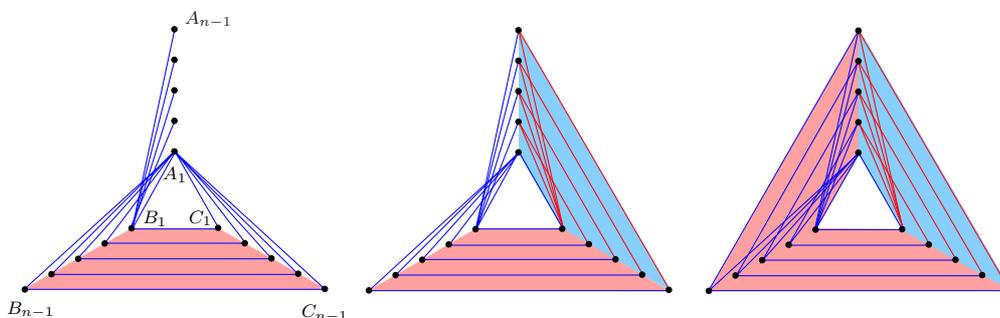


FIGURE 2. Edge colorings of the tripartite graph  $H_n$

*Step 2.* Since each edge of the form  $A_1B_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n-1$  is in exactly one good triangle, for each vertex in  $\{B_1, \dots, B_{n-1}\}$  there must be exactly a blue edge joining it to a vertex in  $\{C_1, \dots, C_{n-1}\}$ . Moreover, all such blue edges form a perfect matching, since otherwise there would be an edge in two good triangles. By reordering  $\{C_1, \dots, C_{n-1}\}$  if necessary, we can assume that the edges  $B_iC_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n-1$  are blue, and so all edges  $B_iC_j$  with  $i \neq j$  are red, see Fig. 2 (left).

Note that this settles the case  $n = 2$ , so we can assume  $n \geq 3$  in what follows.

*Step 3.* The edges  $C_1A_i$  for  $i = 2, \dots, n-1$  are now forced to be red, for otherwise the edge  $B_1C_1$  would be in two good triangles.

*Step 4.* Since each edge of the form  $A_iB_1$  for  $i = 2, \dots, n-1$  is in exactly one good triangle, for each vertex in  $\{C_2, \dots, C_{n-1}\}$  there must be exactly a red edge joining it to a vertex in  $\{A_2, \dots, A_{n-1}\}$ , and in fact, these red edges form a perfect matching between these two sets (if, for example, the edges  $C_2A_2$  and  $C_3A_2$  were red, the edge  $A_2B_1$  would be in two good triangles), so by reordering  $\{A_2, \dots, A_{n-1}\}$  we can assume without loss that the edges  $C_iA_i$  for  $i = 2, \dots, n-1$  are red, and so all edges  $C_iA_j$  with  $2 \leq i, j \leq n-1, i \neq j$  are blue.

*Step 5.* If  $n = 3$ , then the only edge we still have to consider is  $A_2B_2$ , and this has to be blue for  $C_1A_2$  to be in a good triangle. So assume  $n \geq 4$ . An edge  $A_iB_j$  for  $2 \leq i, j \leq n-1, i \neq j$  has to be red, since if it were blue it would be in the good triangles  $A_iB_jC_1$  and  $A_iB_jC_j$ . This forces, for each  $i = 2, \dots, n-1$ , that the edge  $A_iB_i$  is blue, since otherwise the edge  $C_1A_i$  is in no good triangle.

Hence, any valid edge-coloring of  $H_n$  is equivalent to the specific coloring obtained.  $\square$

However, we claim that if  $n = 4$  or  $n \geq 6$ , the coloring just described is not valid. Consider the edge  $A_3B_2$ , which is painted red. If  $n = 4$ , it is not contained in any good triangle (the triangles which contain such edge have the other two edges both red or both blue). If  $n \geq 6$ , it is contained in at least two good triangles ( $A_3B_2C_4$  and  $A_3B_2C_5$ ).

It only remains to be shown that in the remaining cases  $n = 2, 3, 5$ , the described coloring is valid, thus producing the required locally  $nK_2$  graphs. Of course, this can be done by carefully checking the coloring or the associated graph  $H_n$ , but it is also enough to show for each  $n$  any such locally  $nK_2$  graph  $G_n$  on  $6n - 3$  vertices. This latter approach happens to be more direct: Using Nešetřil's notation for products, we obtain  $G_2 := K_3 \square K_3 \cong K_3 \times K_3$ . Also,  $G_3 := \overline{L(K_6)}$  is the the complement of the line graph of  $K_6$ , also known as the Kneser graph  $KG_{6,2}$ , its vertices are  $\{A \subseteq \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} \mid |A| = 2\}$  and  $AA'$  is an edge whenever  $A \cap A' = \emptyset$ . The remaining graph  $G_5$  can be described combinatorially by its triangles:

$\{1, 2, 25\}, \{1, 9, 17\}, \{1, 11, 19\}, \{1, 13, 21\}, \{1, 15, 23\}, \{2, 10, 18\}, \{2, 12, 20\}, \{2, 14, 22\},$   
 $\{2, 16, 24\}, \{3, 4, 25\}, \{3, 9, 20\}, \{3, 11, 18\}, \{3, 14, 23\}, \{3, 16, 21\}, \{4, 10, 19\}, \{4, 12, 17\},$   
 $\{4, 13, 24\}, \{4, 15, 22\}, \{5, 6, 25\}, \{5, 9, 22\}, \{5, 12, 23\}, \{5, 13, 18\}, \{5, 16, 19\}, \{6, 10, 21\},$   
 $\{6, 11, 24\}, \{6, 14, 17\}, \{6, 15, 20\}, \{7, 8, 25\}, \{7, 9, 24\}, \{7, 12, 21\}, \{7, 14, 19\}, \{7, 15, 18\},$   
 $\{8, 10, 23\}, \{8, 11, 22\}, \{8, 13, 20\}, \{8, 16, 17\}, \{9, 10, 26\}, \{11, 12, 26\}, \{13, 14, 26\}, \{15, 16, 26\},$   
 $\{17, 18, 27\}, \{19, 20, 27\}, \{21, 22, 27\}, \{23, 24, 27\}, \{25, 26, 27\}.$

It can also be described as the complement of the Schläfli graph. But, perhaps the easiest way to verify the existence of such graph is just to recall the classical 27 straight line theorem from algebraic geometry, which says (see for instance Proposition 7.3 in [9]) that any nonsingular cubic surface  $S \subset \mathbb{C}P^3$  contains exactly 27 lines and that any of them intersects exactly 10 of the other lines, which in turn intersect each other in pairs. Hence our  $G_5$  is simply the incidence graph of these straight lines.

Quod erat demonstrandum.

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