Fall 2018 Research

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1 Theorems

Lemma 1.1. Suppose G or H is even palindromic, then $G \times H$ is even palindromic.

Proof. Suppose, without loss of generality, that G is even palindromic. Let $\alpha: G \to G$ defined by $x \mapsto \alpha(x)$ be even palindromic. Then $\varphi: G \times H \to G \times H$ defined by $(x,y) \mapsto (\alpha(x),y)$ is an even palindromic involution. Since α has no fixed points, $G \times H$ is even palindromic.

Lemma 1.2. Suppose G and H are odd palindromic, then $G \times H$ is odd palindromic.

Proof. Suppose G and H are odd palindromic. Then G has an involution α with exactly one fixed vertex x_0 , so $\alpha(x_0) = x_0$. Likewise, H has an involution β with exactly one fixed vertex y_0 , so $\beta(y_0) = y_0$. Then $\varphi : G \times H \to G \times H$ defined by $(x, y) \mapsto (\alpha(x), \beta(y))$ is an involution of $G \times H$ with exactly one fixed vertex (x_0, y_0) , so $G \times H$ is odd palindromic. \square

Theorem 1.3. (Handbook of Product Graphs Theorem 8.18)

Suppose φ is an automorphism of a connected nonbipartite R-thin graph G that has a prime factorization $G = G_1 \times G_2 \times ... \times G_k$. Then there exists a permutation of π of $\{1, 2, ..., k\}$, together with isomorphisms $\varphi_i : G_{\pi(i)} \to G_i$ such that $\varphi(x_1, x_2, ..., x_k) = (\varphi_1(x_{\pi(1)}), \varphi_2(x_{\pi(2)}), ..., \varphi_k(x_{\pi(k)}))$. Thus Aut(G) is generated by the automorphisms of the prime factors and transpositions of isomorphic factors. Consequently, Aut(G) is isomorphic to the automorphism group of the disjoint union of the prime factors of G.

Lemma 1.4. Suppose G and H are both connected, nonbipartite, R-thin, and prime. Then:

- 1. $G \times H$ is even palindromic if and only if G or H is even palindromic
- 2. $G \times H$ is odd palindromic if and only if G and H are odd palindromic

Proof. Suppose $G \times H$ is palindromic. Then there exists an involution $\varphi : G \times H \to G \times H$ with at most one fixed point. Suppose G and H are both connected, nonbipartite, R-thin, and prime.

Case 1: φ operates such that $\varphi(x,y)=(\alpha(x),\beta(y))$ where $\alpha:G\to G$ and $\beta:H\to H$. Observe that $\varphi(x,y)=(\alpha(x),\beta(y))$ and $\varphi^2(x,y)=(\alpha^2(x),\beta^2(y))=(x,y)$, since $G\times H$ is palindromic. Thus, $\alpha^2(x)=x$ and $\beta^2(y)=y$ which means α and β are involutions.

Now, suppose φ has no fixed points. Then $\varphi(x,y) \neq (x,y)$ for all $(x,y) \in V(G \times H)$. Thus, $\alpha(x) \neq x$ for all $x \in G$ or $\beta(y) \neq y$ for all $y \in H$. So α or β has no fixed points. Therefore, one of G or H is even palindromic.

Now, suppose φ has one fixed point, so $\varphi(x,y)=(x,y)$. Then $\alpha(x)=x$ and $\beta(y)=y$. Since φ may have at most one fixed point, both α and β have exactly one fixed point. If one of α or β has more than one fixed point, say α , then $\alpha(x)=x$ and $\alpha(x')=x'$ for some $x \neq x'$. Thus, $\varphi(x,y)=(x,y)$ and $\varphi(x',y)=(x',y)$. Therefore, φ would have more than one fixed point. Since that cannot be the case, both G and H are odd palindromic.

Case 2: φ operates such that $\varphi(x,y) = (\alpha(y), \beta(x))$ where $\alpha: H \to G$ and $\beta: G \to H$ such that $G \cong H$. We will show Case 2 cannot happen.

Since φ is an involution, $\varphi^2(x,y) = (x,y)$. Thus, if $\varphi(x,y) = (\alpha(y),\beta(x))$, then $\varphi^2(x,y) = \varphi(\alpha(y),\beta(x)) = (\alpha(\beta(x)),\beta(\alpha(y)) = (x,y)$. So $\alpha(\beta(x)) = x$ and $\beta(\alpha(y)) = y$. Therefore, $\beta(x) = \alpha^{-1}(x)$ and $\alpha(y) = \beta^{-1}(y)$. We can rewrite φ as $\varphi(x,y) = (\alpha(y),\alpha^{-1}(x))$.

Suppose φ is an involution, and φ has no fixed points. Then $\varphi(x,y) \neq (x,y)$, so fix an (x,y) such that $\varphi(x,y) = (x',y')$ for some $(x',y') \in G \times H$ where $(x',y') \neq (x,y)$. Note that we will never have a situation such as $\varphi(x,y) = (\alpha(y), \alpha^{-1}(x)) = (x',y)$ where one coordinate element is fixed, since this implies that $\alpha(y) = x'$ and $\alpha^{-1}(x) = y$ which

means α^{-1} cannot be the inverse of α . Now, when $\varphi(x,y)=(x',y')$, this means $\alpha(y)=x'$ and $\alpha^{-1}(x)=y'$. Since φ is an involution, we have $\varphi(x',y')=(x,y)$. So $\alpha(y')=x$ and $\alpha^{-1}(x')=y$. Now, note that $\varphi(x,y')=(\alpha(y'),\alpha^{-1}(x))=(x,y')$. So (x,y') is a fixed point of φ . This contradicts our original assumption that φ has no fixed points.

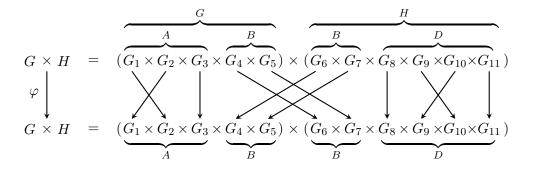
Thus, φ must have a fixed point. So, suppose φ is an involution and has exactly one fixed point. Observe from our previous construction that our fixed point was at (x, y'). However, observe that $\varphi(x', y) = (\alpha(y), \alpha^{-1}(x')) = (x', y)$. Thus, (x', y) is also a fixed point of φ . Therefore, φ has more than one fixed point.

Thus, case 2 cannot happen. Therefore, G or H is even palindromic, or G and H are both odd palindromic.

Lemma 1.5. Suppose $G \times H$ is palindromic, and G and H are both connected, non-bipartite, and R-thin. Then G or H is even palindromic, or G and H are both odd palindromic.

Proof. Suppose $G \times H$ is palindromic with palindromic involution φ . Consider the connected, nonbipartite, R-thin, prime factorings $G = G_1 \times \cdots \times G_j$ and $H = G_{j+1} \times \cdots \times G_k$, so we have an involution φ of $G \times H = (G_1 \times \cdots \times G_j) \times (G_{j+1} \times \cdots \times G_k)$.

Utilizing Theorem 1.3, the involution φ permutes the prime factors of this product such that the permutation π satisfies $\pi^2 = \mathrm{id}$. Using commutativity of \times , we can group together the prime factors G_i of G for which $1 < \pi(i) \leq j$, and call their product A. Note that $A = K_1^*$, where K_1^* is a single vertex with a loop, if no such factors G_i exist. The same applies for the graphs B and D defined below. Let B be the product of the remaining factors G_i of G. Also group together the prime factors G_i of H for which $j+1 < \pi(i) \leq k$, and call their product D. The direct product of the remaining factors of H is then a graph isomorphic to H. The structure of H under this scheme is as indicated below, where the arrows represent isomorphisms $G_i : G_{\pi(i)} \to G_i$ between factors.



We have now coordinatized G and H as $G = A \times B$ and $H = B \times D$, and φ is an involution of $G \times H = (A \times B) \times (B \times D)$ for which $\varphi((a,b),(b',d)) = ((\alpha(a),\beta(b')),(\gamma(b),\delta(d)))$, for automorphisms $\alpha: A \to A$, $\beta,\gamma: B \to B$ and $\delta: D \to D$. But because φ^2 is the identity, it must be that $\alpha^2 = \mathrm{id}$, $\gamma = \beta^{-1}$ and $\delta^2 = \mathrm{id}$. Thus we have involutions α and δ of A and D, respectively, and

$$\varphi((a,b),(b',d)) = ((\alpha(a),\beta(b')),(\beta^{-1}(b),\delta(d))), \tag{1}$$

From (1) it is evident that the fixed points of φ (if any) are precisely

$$((a_0, \beta(b)), (b, d_0))$$
 with $\alpha(a_0) = a_0, \, \delta(d_0) = d_0, \, \text{and } b \in V(B).$ (2)

Thus φ has a fixed point if and only if both α and δ have fixed points. Further, if φ has a fixed point, then it has exactly |V(B)| of them.

Now suppose $G \times H$ is even palindromic. Let φ be an even palindromic involution of $G \times H$ (having no fixed point). From (2), at least one of α or δ has no fixed point, so suppose it is α . Then α is an even palindromic involution of A, so A is even palindromic. By the first part of the theorem, $G = A \times B$ is even palindromic. Similarly H is even palindromic if δ has no fixed points.

Suppose $G \times H$ is odd palindromic. Let φ be an odd palindromic involution whose sole fixed point is $((a_0, \beta(b_0)), (b_0, d_0))$. The remark following (2) implies φ has at least |V(B)| fixed points, so $B = K_1$. Thus we can drop B from our discussion, so G = A, H = D and $\varphi(a, d) = (\alpha(a), \delta(d))$. We now have involutions $\alpha : G \to G$ and $\delta : H \to H$ with fixed points a_0 and d_0 , respectively. Also (a_0, d_0) is a fixed point of φ . If the involution

 α of G had a second fixed point a_1 , then (a_0, d_0) and (a_1, d_0) would be two distinct fixed points of φ . Thus a_0 is the only fixed point of α , so α (hence also G) is odd palindromic. By the same reasoning H is odd palindromic.

We say that vertices x and y of a graph are in relation R, written xRy, provided that each has the same open neighborhood, that is, $N_G(x) = N_G(y)$. It is straightforward to check that R is an equivalence relation on G.

Proposition 1.6. R is an equivalence relation on G.

Proof. To see that R is reflexive, let $x \in V(G)$. Then N(x) = N(x), so $xRx \ \forall x \in V(G)$. To see that R is symmetric, let $x, y \in V(G)$. Suppose xRy, that is, N(x) = N(y), so N(y) = N(x), hence yRx. Thus, xRy implies that $yRx \ \forall x, y \in V(G)$.

To see that
$$R$$
 is transitive, suppose xRy and yRz . Then $N(x) = N(y)$ and $N(y) = N(z)$. Thus, $N(x) = N(z)$, so xRz .

We will refer to an R-equivalence class of V(G) as an R-class.

Proposition 1.7. The subgraph induced on an R-class is either completely disconnected or is the complete graph with loops at each vertex.

Proof. Let $x_1, ..., x_n$ be vertices in the R-class [x]. Thus, $N(x_1) = N(x_2) = ... = N(x_n)$. Case 1: $x_1 \notin N(x_1)$

If x_1 is not in its own neighborhood (i.e. there is no loop at x_1), then $x_1 \notin N(x_2) = \dots = N(x_n)$. So $x_1x_i \notin E(G)$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$. Then $N(x_1) \cap \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\} = \emptyset$. Therefore, $N(x_j) \cap \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} = \emptyset$. Thus, $x_ix_j \notin E(G)$, so the subgraph induced on [x] has no edges in it, thus it is completely disconnected.

Case 2:
$$x_1 \in N(x_1)$$

If $x_1 \in N(x_1)$, then $x_1 \in N(x_2) = N(x_3) = \dots = N(x_n)$. So, x_1 has a loop, and since $x_1 \in N(x_1)$, we have that $x_1 \in N(x_2)$ and $x_2 \in N(x_1)$, thus $x_2 \in N(x_2)$. So, x_2 also has a loop, and it must be that $x_1x_2 \in E(G)$. Thus, if $i \neq 1$, then $x_i \in N(x_i)$, so $x_1x_i \in E(G)$. Hence $N(x_1) = [x] = N(x_2) = N(x_3) = \dots = N(x_n)$. Thus any vertex of [x] is adjacent to all other vertices of [x].

Let G/R be the graph whose vertices are the R-classes of a graph G in Γ_0 (where Γ_0 is the set of finite graphs in which loops are admitted), and there is an edge joining R-classes X and Y if G has an edge from X to Y.

Proposition 1.8. If $X, Y \in G/R$, then either every vertex of X is adjacent in G to every vertex of Y or no vertex of X is adjacent to any vertex of Y.

Proof. Let $X, Y \in G/R$. Let $x_1, ..., x_n \in X$ and $y_1, ..., y_n \in Y$. Then $N(x_1) = N(x_2) = ... = N(x_n)$ and $N(y_1) = N(y_2) = ... = N(y_n)$.

Case 1: X and Y are adjacent.

Without loss of generality, select an arbitrary $x_n \in X$. Since X and Y are adjacent in G/R, we have that x_n is adjacent to some y_n since G has an edge from X to Y. So, $x_n \in N(y_n)$, so $x_n \in N(y_1) = N(y_2) = ... = N(y_n)$. Hence, x_n is adjacent to $y_1, ..., y_n$, and since $N(x_1) = ... = N(x_n)$, we have that all $x_1, ..., x_n$ are adjacent to all $y_1, ..., y_n$.

Case 2: X and Y are not adjacent.

Without loss of generality, select an arbitrary $x_n \in X$. Since X and Y are not adjacent in G/R, we have that $y_1, ..., y_n \notin N(x_n)$. So, x_n is not adjacent to any $y_1, ..., y_n$, and since $N(x_1) = ... = N(x_n)$, we have that none of $x_1, ..., x_n$ are adjacent to any $y_1, ..., y_n$.

Let
$$[x] = \{ y \in V(G) \mid N_G(x) = N_G(y) \}.$$

Proposition 1.9. For $G \in \Gamma_0$, $xy \in E(G) \iff [x][y] \in E(G/R)$.

Proof. This follows from the proof of Proposition 1.8.

A graph is called **R-thin** if all of its *R*-classes contain just one vertex.

Proposition 1.10. G/R is always R-thin.

Proof. Suppose not. Then for two distinct $[x], [y] \in V(G/R)$, we must have that N([x]) = N([y]). Let $[g] \in N([x])$, meaning that $[x][g] \in E(G/R)$. By Proposition 1.8, since [x] and [g] are adjacent, we have that all $x_1, ..., x_n \in [x]$ are adjacent to all $g_1, ..., g_n \in [g]$ in G. Since N([x]) = N([y]), we have that if $[g] \in N([x])$, then $[g] \in N([y])$. Again, by Proposition 1.8, we have that all $g_1, ..., g_n \in [g]$ are adjacent to all $y_1, ..., y_n \in [y]$ in G. So,

for all $[g] \in [x]$ (and therefore, for all $[g] \in [y]$), we have that $g_i \in N(x_1) = \dots = N(x_n)$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$ and $g_i \in N(y_1) = \dots = N(y_n)$. Thus, $N(x_1) = N(x_2) = \dots = N(x_n) = N(y_1) = \dots = N(y_n)$, meaning that [x] = [y] which contradicts our assumption. Therefore, G/R is always R-thin.

Because R is defined in terms of the adjacency structure of a graph, given an isomorphism $\varphi: G \to H$, we have xR_Gy if and only if $\varphi(x)R_H\varphi(y)$. So φ maps equivalence classes of R_G to equivalence classes of R_H , and, in particular, $\varphi([x]) = [\varphi(x)]$.

Proposition 1.11. For any isomorphism $\varphi: G \to H$, there is a corresponding isomorphism $\tilde{\varphi}: G/R \to H/R$ such that $\tilde{\varphi}([x]) = [\varphi(x)]$.

Proof. Observe that $\tilde{\varphi}$ is well-defined and bijective because φ is an isomorphism that maps R-classes onto R-classes. By Proposition 1.9, we have that

$$[x][y] \in E(G/R) \iff xy \in E(G)$$

$$\iff \varphi(x)\varphi(y) \in E(H)$$

$$\iff [\varphi(x)][\varphi(y)] \in E(H/R)$$

$$\iff \tilde{\varphi}([x])\tilde{\varphi}([y]) \in E(H/R).$$

So, $\tilde{\varphi}$ is a corresponding isomorphism.

However, the existence of the isomorphism $\tilde{\varphi}: G/R \to H/R$ does not necessarily mean there is an isomorphism $\varphi: G \to H$. But if $|X| = |\tilde{\varphi}(X)|$ for each $X \in V(G/R)$, then we can lift $\tilde{\varphi}$ to an isomorphism $\varphi: G \to H$ by declaring φ to restrict to a bijection $X \to \tilde{\varphi}(X)$ for each X.

Proposition 1.12. If $|X| = |\tilde{\varphi}(X)|$ for each $X \in V(G/R)$, then we can lift $\tilde{\varphi}$ to an isomorphism $\varphi : G \to H$ by declaring φ to restrict to a bijection $X \to \tilde{\varphi}(X)$ for each X.

Proof. Let $\tilde{\varphi}(X): G/R \to H/R$ such that $|X| = |\tilde{\varphi}(X)|$ for all $X \in V(G/R)$, and let $\varphi: G \to H$ be any map such that $\varphi: X \to \tilde{\varphi}(X)$. Since φ maps R-classes to R-classes,

and by Proposition 1.11, we have that $\varphi([x]) = \tilde{\varphi}([x])$, making φ a bijection. To see that φ is an isomorphism, we have that

$$xy \in E(G) \iff [x][y] \in E(G/R)$$

$$\iff \tilde{\varphi}([x])\tilde{\varphi}([y]) \in E(H/R)$$

$$\iff \varphi([x])\varphi([y]) \in E(H/R)$$

$$\iff \varphi(x)\varphi(y) \in E(H)$$

. Thus we can lift $\tilde{\varphi}$ to an isomorphism φ provided we restrict φ to a bijection.

We will make use of the following propositions:

Proposition 1.13.
$$N_{G\times H}((x,y)) = N_G(x) \times N_H(y)$$

Proof. For $x \in V(G)$, consider $N_G(x) = \{u \mid ux \in E(G)\}$, and for $y \in V(H)$, consider $N_H(y) = \{v \mid vy \in E(H)\}$. Then:

$$(u,v) \in N_G(x) \times N_H(y) \iff u \in N_G(x), v \in N_H(y)$$

$$\iff xu \in E(G), yv \in E(H)$$

$$\iff (x,y)(u,v) \in E(G \times H)$$

$$\iff (u,v) \in N_{G \times H}((x,y))$$

Thus,
$$N_{G\times H}((x,y)) = N_G(x) \times N_N(y)$$
.

Proposition 1.14. If G and H in Γ_0 has no isolated vertices, then $V((G \times H)/R) = \{X \times Y \mid X \in V(G/R), Y \in V(H/R)\}$. In particular, $[(x,y)] = [x] \times [y]$.

Proof. For some arbitrary $[(x,y)] \in (G \times H)/R$, observe that $(x',y') \in [(x,y)] \iff N_{G \times H}((x',y') = N_{G \times H}((x,y)))$. Then, by Proposition 1.13,

$$(x', y') \in [(x, y)] \iff N_G(x') \times N_H(y') = N_G(x) \times N_H(y)$$

$$\iff N_G(x') = N_G(x), N_H(y') = N_H(y),$$

since there are no isolated vertices (this is due to notions in set theory: if $X \times Y = Z \times W$, then X = Z and Y = W provided that $X = Y = W = Z \neq \emptyset$). Then, $(x', y') \in [(x, y)] \iff x' \in [x]$ and $y' \in [y]$, so $(x', y') \in [x] \times [y]$. Therefore, $[(x, y)] = [x] \times [y]$. \square

Proposition 1.15. $(G \times H)/R \cong G/R \times H/R$ with isomorphism $[(x,y)] \mapsto ([x],[y])$.

Proof. To see that $[(x,y)] \mapsto ([x],[y])$ is bijective, first let ([x],[y]) = ([z],[w]), so [x] = [z] and [y] = [w] meaning that $[x] \times [y] = [z] \times [w]$, and by Proposition 1.14, [(x,y)] = [(z,w)]. Hence, this map is injective. The map is surjective since given some ([x],[y]) in the codomain, there certainly exists an [(x,y)] in the domain provided we have $x \in G$ and $y \in H$.

Consider $[(x,y)][(x',y')] \in E(G \times H)/R$. By Proposition 1.8, $[(x,y)][x',y'] \in E(G \times H)/R$) $\iff (x,y)(x',y') \in E(G \times H) \iff xx' \in E(G), yy' \in E(H) \iff [x][x'] \in E(G/R), [y][y'] \in E(H/R) \iff ([x], [y])([x'], [y']) \in E(G/R \times H/R)$. Thus the map $[(x,y)] \mapsto ([x], [y])$ is an isomorphism. So $(G \times H)/R \cong G/R \times H/R$.

Theorem 1.16. Suppose G and H are connected and non-bipartite. Then:

- 1. G or H is even palindromic if and only if $G \times H$ is even palindromic
- 2. G and H are odd palindromic if and only if $G \times H$ is odd palindromic

Proof. If G or H (say G) is even palindromic, then there exists an even palindromic involution α of G, so $(x,y) \mapsto (\alpha(x),y)$ is an even palindromic involution of $G \times H$. Now, suppose G and H are odd palindromic. Then G has an odd palindromic involution α with fixed point x_0 , and H has an odd palindromic involution β with fixed point y_0 . Then $(x,y) \mapsto (\alpha(x),\beta(y))$ is an odd palindromic involution of $G \times H$ who sole fixed point is (x_0,y_0) .

Part I (Involution Structure) Let $\varphi: G \times H \to G \times H$ be an involution. By the remarks preceding this theorem, φ induces an automorphism $\tilde{\varphi}$ of the R-thin graph $(G \times H)/R \cong G/R \times H/R$. Because φ is an involution, we have $\tilde{\varphi}^2 = id$.

Take prime factorings $G/R = G_1 \times ... \times G_j$ and $H/R = G_{j+1} \times ... \times G_k$. Then $\tilde{\varphi}$ is an automorphism (of order 2, or possibly of order 1, if φ fixes each R-class) of the graph

 $G/R \times H/R = (G_1 \times ... \times G_j) \times (G_{j+1} \times G_k)$. Now, $\tilde{\varphi}$ permutes the prime factors of this product in the sense of Theorem 1.3, where the permutation π satisfies $\pi^2 = id$. As in the proof of Lemma 1.5