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

Sylvain Gravier ${ }^{1}$ Svante Janson ${ }^{2}$ Tero Laihonen ${ }^{3}$ Sanna Ranto ${ }^{4}$<br>${ }^{1}$ CNRS - Institut Fourier, ERT Maths à Modeler, Saint Martin d'Hères, France<br>${ }^{2}$ Uppsala University, Department of Mathematics, Sweden<br>${ }^{3}$ Department of Mathematics and Statistics, University of Turku, Finland<br>${ }^{4}$ Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Turku, Finland

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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 $2 k-2$. Constructions attaining the maximal order are given for infinitely many values of $k$. The corresponding problem of $k$-subsets identifying any at most $\ell$ 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 $x y$. 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 $r$ centered at $x$ is denoted by $N_{r}[x]=\{y \in V \mid d(x, y) \leq r\}$. We denote further $S_{r}(x)=\{y \in V \mid d(x, y)=r\}$. Moreover, for $X \subseteq V, N_{r}[X]=\cup_{x \in X} N_{r}[x]$. For $C \subseteq V, X \subseteq V$, and $x \in V$ we denote

$$
I_{r}(C ; x)=I_{r}(x)=N_{r}[x] \cap C
$$

[^0]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

$$
A \triangle B=(A \backslash B) \cup(B \backslash A)
$$

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 $\operatorname{deg}(x)=|N(x)|$. Moreover, $\delta_{G}=\delta=\min _{x \in V} \operatorname{deg}(x)$ and $\Delta_{G}=$ $\Delta=\max _{x \in V} \operatorname{deg}(x)$. 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 $\cup_{c \in C} N[c]=V$.

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 $n \geq k \geq 1$ and $\ell \geq 1, \mathfrak{G r}(n, k, \ell)$ be the set of graphs on $n$ vertices such that every $k$-element set of vertices is $(1, \leq \ell)$-identifying. Moreover, we denote $\mathfrak{G r}(n, k, 1)=\mathfrak{G r}(n, k)$ and $\mathfrak{G r}(k)=\bigcup_{n \geq k} \mathfrak{G r}(n, k)$.

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

Example 3 (i) For every $\ell \geq 1$, an empty graph $E_{n}=(\{1, \ldots, n\}, \emptyset)$ belongs to $\mathfrak{G r}(n, k, \ell)$ if and only if $k=n$.
(ii) A cycle $C_{n}(n \geq 4)$ belongs to $\mathfrak{G r}(n, k)$ if and only if $n-1 \leq k \leq n$. A cycle $C_{n}$ with $n \geq 7$ is in $\mathfrak{G r}(n, n, 2)$.
(iii) A path $P_{n}$ of $n$ vertices $(n \geq 3)$ belongs to $\mathfrak{G r}(n, k)$ if and only if $k=n$.
(iv) A complete bipartite graph $K_{n, m}(n+m \geq 4)$ is in $\mathfrak{G r}(n+m, k)$ if and only $n+m-1 \leq k \leq n+m$.
(v) In particular, a star $S_{n}=K_{1, n-1}(n \geq 4)$ is in $\mathfrak{G r}(n, k)$ if and only if $n-1 \leq k \leq n$.
(vi) The complete graph $K_{n}(n \geq 2)$ is not in $\mathfrak{G r}(n, k)$ 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

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Xi(k)=\max \{n: \mathfrak{G r}(n, k) \neq \emptyset\} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

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 $\mathfrak{G r}(n, n)$, 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 $k \rightarrow \infty$. Combining Theorem 17 and Corollary 26 , we obtain the following, which in particular shows that the rate is always less than 2 .
Theorem $4 \Xi(k) \leq 2 k-2$ for all $k \geq 2$, and $\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\Xi(k)}{k}=2$.
We will see in Section 4 that $\Xi(k)=2 k-2$ 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 $\mathfrak{G r}(k)$ 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 $G=(V, E) \in \mathfrak{G r}(n, k, \ell)$, then every induced subgraph $G[A]$, where $A \subseteq V$, of order $|A|=m \geq k$ belongs to $\mathfrak{G r}(m, k, \ell)$.

Lemma 6 If $G$ has connected components $G_{i}, i=1, \ldots, m$, with $|G|=n$ and $\left|G_{i}\right|=n_{i}$, then $G \in$ $\mathfrak{G r}(n, k, \ell)$ if and only if $G_{i} \in \mathfrak{G r}\left(n_{i}, k+n_{i}-n, \ell\right)$ for every $i$. In other words, $G_{i} \in \mathfrak{G r v}\left(n_{i}, k_{i}, \ell\right)$ with $n_{i}-k_{i}=n-k$.

A graph $G$ belongs to $\mathfrak{G r}(n, k, \ell)$ if and only if every $k$-subset intersects every symmetric difference of the neighbourhoods of two sets that are of size at most $\ell$. Equivalently, $G \in \mathfrak{G r}(n, k, \ell)$ 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 $\mathfrak{G r}(n, k, \ell)$ if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
n-\min _{\substack{X, Y \subseteq V \\ X \neq Y \\|X|,|Y| \leq \ell}}\{|N[X] \triangle N[Y]|\} \leq k-1 . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now take $\ell=1$, and consider $\mathfrak{G r}(n, k)$. 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 $\mathfrak{G r}(n, k)$ if and only if
(i) $\delta_{G} \geq n-k$, and
(ii) $\max _{x, y \in V, x \neq y}\{|N[x] \cap N[y]|+|V \backslash(N[x] \cup N[y])|\} \leq k-1$.

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

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 $G \in \mathfrak{G r}(8,5)$.
Lemma 10 Let $G_{0}=\left(V_{0}, E_{0}\right) \in \mathfrak{G r}\left(n_{0}, k_{0}\right)$ and let $G=\left(V_{0} \cup\{a\}, E_{0} \cup\left\{\{a, x\} \mid x \in V_{0}\right\}\right)$ for a new vertex $a \notin V_{0}$. In words, we add a vertex and connect it to all other vertices. Then $G \in \mathfrak{G r}\left(n_{0}+1, k_{0}+1\right)$ if (and only if) $\left|N_{G_{0}}[x]\right| \leq k_{0}-1$ 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 $\mathfrak{G r} \mathfrak{r}(8,5)$ and is regular with degree $3=5-2$, then Lemma 10 yields a graph $G \in \mathfrak{G r} \mathfrak{r}(9,6) . G$ can be regarded as a cube with centre.

### 2.1 Small $k$

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

Example 13 Let $k=2$. If $G \in \mathfrak{G r}(2)$, then $G$ cannot contain any edge $x y$, 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 $\|(\mathbb{i})$ (or Example $\left.3(\mathrm{i})\right)$ shows that $n=k=2$. Thus $\mathfrak{G r}(2)=$ $\left\{E_{2}\right\}$ 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 $E_{3}, P_{3} \in \mathfrak{G r}(3,3)$ (Example 3 (i) (iii)), while $C_{3}=K_{3} \notin \mathfrak{G r}(3,3)$ (Example 3)(vi)) and a disjoint union $K_{1} \cup K_{2} \notin \mathfrak{G r} \mathfrak{r}(3,3)$, for example by Lemma 6 since $K_{2} \notin \mathfrak{G r}(2,2)$. Hence $\mathfrak{G r}(3,3)=\left\{E_{3}, P_{3}\right\}$.
Next, assume $n \geq 4$. Since there are no graphs in $\mathfrak{G r}\left(n_{1}, k_{1}\right)$ if $n_{1}>k_{1}$ and $k_{1} \leq 2$, it follows from Lemma 6 that there are no disconnected graphs in $\mathfrak{G r}(n, 3)$ for $n \geq 4$. Furthermore, if $G \in \mathfrak{G r}(n, 3)$, then every induced subgraph with 3 vertices is in $\mathfrak{G r}(3,3)$ and is thus $E_{3}$ or $P_{3}$; in particular, $G$ contains no triangle.

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

Next, assume $G \in \mathfrak{G r} \mathfrak{r}(5,3)$. Then every induced subgraph with 4 vertices is in $\mathfrak{G r}(4,3)$ 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 $K_{2,3} \notin \mathfrak{G r}(5,3)$ (Example 3 (iv)). Consequently $\mathfrak{G r}(5,3)=\emptyset$, and thus $\mathfrak{G r}(n, 3)=\emptyset$ for all $n \geq 5$.

Consequently, $\mathfrak{G r}(3)=\mathfrak{G r}(3,3) \cup \mathfrak{G r}(4,3)=\left\{E_{3}, P_{3}, S_{4}, C_{4}\right\}$ and $\Xi(3)=4$.
Example 15 Let $k=4$. First, it follows easily from Lemma 6 and the descriptions of $\mathfrak{G r}(j)$ for $j \leq 3$ above that the only disconnected graphs in $\mathfrak{G r}(4)$ are $E_{4}$ and the disjoint union $P_{3} \cup K_{1}$; in particular, every graph in $\mathfrak{G r}(n, 4)$ with $n \geq 5$ is connected.

Next, if $G \in \mathfrak{G r}(n, 4)$, 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 $\mathfrak{G r}(4,4)$ by Example 3 (ii)|(iii)|(v) Hence $\mathfrak{G r}(4,4)=\left\{C_{4}, P_{4}, S_{4}, E_{4}, P_{3} \cup K_{1}\right\}$.

Now assume that $G \in \mathfrak{G r}(n, 4)$ 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 $\mathfrak{G r}(4,4)$. Let $A=N(x) \backslash\{y\}$ and $B=N(y) \backslash\{x\}$, 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 $A_{1}=\{a \in A \mid a \sim z\}, A_{0}=A \backslash A_{1}$ and $B_{1}=\{b \in B \mid b \sim z\}, B_{0}=B \backslash B_{1}$. If $a \in A_{0}$ and $b \in B$, then the 4-subset $\{a, b, x, z\}$ does not distinguish $a$ and $x$ unless $a \sim b$. Similarly, if $a \in A$ and $b \in B_{0}$, then $a \sim b$. On the other hand, if $a \in A_{1}$ and $b \in B_{1}$, then $a \nsim b$, since otherwise abz would be a triangle. Thus, we have, where one or more of the sets $A_{0}, A_{1}, B_{0}, B_{1}$ might be empty, where an edge

is a complete bipartite graph on sets incident to it, and there are no edges inside these sets.
If $n \geq 6$, 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 $n-2 \geq 4$ 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 $\mathfrak{G r}(5,4)$ 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 nonempty, 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 $\left\{x, b_{0}, b_{1}, z\right\}$ does not separate $z$ and $b_{1}$. Hence $B_{0}=\emptyset$. We thus have either $\left|A_{0}\right|=1$ and $\left|B_{1}\right|=1$, or $\left|A_{0}\right|=0$ and $\left|B_{1}\right|=2$, and both cases yield the graph in Figure $1(b)$ which easily is seen to be in $\mathfrak{G r}(5,4)$.
(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, $A=N(x) \backslash\{y\}$ and $B=N(y) \backslash\{x\}$. If $a \in A$ and $b \in B$ and $a \nsim b$, 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 $\zeta$ (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 $\mathfrak{G r}(5,4)$ by Example $\exists(\mathrm{iv})$

We summarize the result in a theorem.
Theorem 16 We have $\Xi(4)=5$. More precisely, $\mathfrak{G r}(4)=\mathfrak{G r}(4,4) \cup \mathfrak{G r}(5,4)$, where $\mathfrak{G r}(4,4)=$ $\left\{C_{4}, P_{4}, S_{4}, E_{4}, P_{3} \cup K_{1}\right\}$ and $\mathfrak{G r}(5,4)=\left\{S_{5}, C_{5}, K_{2,3}, G_{5}\right\}$ where $G_{5}$ is the graph in Figure $1(b)$.


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

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

## 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 errorcorrecting codes.

Theorem 17 If $k \geq 2$, then $\Xi(k) \leq 2 k-2$.
Proof: We begin by giving a construction from a graph in $\mathfrak{G r}(n, k)$ to error-correcting codes. A nonexistence result of error-correcting codes then yields the non-existence of $\mathfrak{G r}(n, k)$ graphs of certain parameters. Let $G=(V, E) \in \mathfrak{G} \mathfrak{r}(n, k)$, where $V=\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$. We construct $n+1$ binary strings $\mathbf{y}_{i}=\left(y_{i 1}, \ldots, y_{i n}\right)$ of length $n$, for $i=0, \ldots, n$, from the sets $\emptyset=N[\emptyset]$ and $N\left[x_{i}\right]$ for $i=1, \ldots, n$ by defining $y_{0 j}=0$ for all $j$ and

$$
y_{i j}=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
0 & \text { if } x_{j} \notin N\left[x_{i}\right] \\
1 & \text { if } x_{j} \in N\left[x_{i}\right]
\end{array}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n\right.
$$

Let $C$ denote the code which consists of these binary strings as codewords. Because $G \in \mathfrak{G r}(n, k)$, the symmetric difference of two closed neighbourhoods $N\left[x_{i}\right]$ and $N\left[x_{j}\right]$, or of one neigbourhood $N\left[x_{i}\right]$ and $\emptyset$, is at least $n-k+1$ by $\sqrt{2}$; 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 $\Xi(k) \leq 2 k-1$. Thus, suppose that there is a $G \in \mathfrak{G r}(n, k)$ such that $n=2 k$. 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 $2, \S 2]$, which says $A(n, d) \leq 2\lfloor d /(2 d-n)\rfloor$, when $2 d>n$. Thus, we have

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

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

The Plotkin bound is not strong enough to imply $\Xi(k) \leq 2 k-2$ in general, but we obtain this from the proof of the Plotkin bound as follows. (In fact, for odd $k, \Xi(k) \leq 2 k-2$ 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 $G=(V, E) \in \mathfrak{G r}(n, k)$ with $n=2 k-1$. We thus have a corresponding error-correcting code $C$ with $|C|=n+1=2 k$ and minimum Hamming distance at least $n-k+1=k$. Hence, letting $d$ denote the Hamming distance,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{0 \leq i<j \leq n} d\left(y_{i}, y_{j}\right) \geq\binom{ n+1}{2} k=\frac{2 k(2 k-1)}{2} k=(2 k-1) k^{2} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{0 \leq i<j \leq n} d\left(y_{i}, y_{j}\right) \leq n k^{2}=(2 k-1) k^{2} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Consequently, we have equality in (3) and (4), and thus $d\left(y_{i}, y_{j}\right)=k$ for all pairs $(i, j)$ with $i \neq j$.
In particular, $\left|N\left[x_{i}\right]\right|=d\left(y_{i}, y_{0}\right)=k$ for $i=1, \ldots, n$, and thus every vertex in $G$ has degree $k-1$, i.e., $G$ is $(k-1)$-regular. Hence, $2|E|=n(k-1)=(2 k-1)(k-1)$, and $k$ must be odd.

Further, if $i \neq j$, then $\left|N\left[x_{i}\right] \triangle N\left[x_{j}\right]\right|=d\left(y_{i}, y_{j}\right)=k$, and since $N\left[x_{i}\right] \backslash N\left[x_{j}\right]$ and $N\left[x_{j}\right] \backslash N\left[x_{i}\right]$ have the same size $k-\left|N\left[x_{i}\right] \cap N\left[x_{j}\right]\right|$, they have both the size $k / 2$ and $k$ must be even.

This contradiction shows that $\mathfrak{G r}(2 k-1, k)=\emptyset$, and thus $\Xi(k) \leq 2 k-2$.
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 $\mathfrak{G r}(2 k-2, k)$ 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 $G \in \mathfrak{G r}(n, k)$ and $k \geq 6$. If $n \geq 2 k-2$, then there is a triangle in $G$.
Proof: Let $G=(V, E) \in \mathfrak{G r}(n, k)$. Suppose to the contrary that there are no triangles in $G$. If there is a vertex $x \in V$ such that $\operatorname{deg}(x) \geq k+1$, 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 $x y z$. Hence $\operatorname{deg}(x) \leq k$ for every $x$. On the other hand, we know by Corollary 8 (i) that for all $x \in V \operatorname{deg}(x) \geq n-k \geq k-2$.

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

1) Suppose first $\operatorname{deg}(x)=k$. Because $\operatorname{deg}(x)$ is minimum we know that for all $a \in N(x), \operatorname{deg}(a)=k$. 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 $\operatorname{deg}(x)=k-1$. 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 $C=\{x\} \cup(N(x) \backslash\{a, b\}) \cup\left\{c_{1}, c_{2}\right\}$, 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 $\operatorname{deg}(x)=k-2$. Now $|B|=k-1$, otherwise we cannot have $n \geq 2 k-2$. If there is $b \in B$ such that $|N(b) \cap N(x)|=k-2$, then because $\operatorname{deg}(b) \leq k$ we have $|N(b) \cap B| \geq 2$ and $|B \backslash N[b]| \geq k-4 \geq 2$, when $k \geq 6$. Hence, there are $c_{1}, c_{2} \in B \backslash N[b], c_{1} \neq c_{2}$, and in the $k$-subset $C=N(x) \cup\left\{c_{1}, c_{2}\right\}$ we have $I(C ; x)=I(C ; b)$ which is impossible.

Thus, for all $b \in B$ we have $|N(b) \cap N(x)| \leq k-3$. 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 $\operatorname{deg}(b) \geq k-2$ we have at least one $b_{0} \in B$ such that $d\left(b, b_{0}\right)=1$. 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 $B \backslash\left\{b_{0}\right\}$. Hence, for all $a_{1}, a_{2} \in N(x) \cap N(b)$, $a_{1} \neq a_{2}$, we have $\left|N\left(a_{1}\right) \cap N\left(a_{2}\right) \cap B\right| \geq k-4 \geq 2$ when $k \geq 6$. In the $k$-subset $C=\left\{x, b, c_{1}, c_{2}\right\} \cup$ $\left(N(x) \backslash\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}\right\}\right)$, where $c_{1}, c_{2} \in N\left(a_{1}\right) \cap N\left(a_{2}\right) \cap B$, we have $I\left(C ; a_{1}\right)=I\left(C ; a_{2}\right)$, which is impossible.

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

Proof: Suppose that $G=(V, E) \in \mathfrak{G r}(n, k)$ 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 $M_{x y}=\left\{v \in V: J_{x}(v)=J_{y}(v)\right\}$, and $M_{x y}^{\prime}=M_{x y} \backslash\{x, y, z\}$. Since $M_{x y}$ does not distinguish $x$ and $y$, we have $\left|M_{x y}\right| \leq k-1$. Further, $\{x, y, z\} \subseteq M_{x y}$, and thus $\left|M_{x y}^{\prime}\right| \leq k-4$. Define similarly $M_{x z}, M_{y z}, M_{x z}^{\prime}, M_{y z}^{\prime}$; the same conclusion holds for these.

Since the indicator functions take only two values, $M_{x y}, M_{x z}$ and $M_{y z}$ cover $V$, and thus

$$
n=|V|=\left|M_{x y}^{\prime} \cup M_{x z}^{\prime} \cup M_{y z}^{\prime} \cup\{x, y, z\}\right| \leq 3(k-4)+3=3 k-9
$$

Since $n \geq k$, this entails $3 k-9 \geq k$ and thus $k \geq 5$.
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 $\Xi(k) \leq 3 k-9$.
Proof: Suppose that $G \in \mathfrak{G r}(n, k)$. If $G$ does not contain any triangle, then Theorem 18 yields $n \leq$ $2 k-3 \leq 3 k-9$. If $G$ does contain a triangle, then Lemma 19 yields $n \leq 3 k-9$.

## 4 Strongly regular graphs

A graph $G=(V, E)$ is called strongly regular with parameters $(n, t, \lambda, \mu)$ if $|V|=n, \operatorname{deg}(x)=t$ for all $x \in V$, any two adjacent vertices have exactly $\lambda$ common neighbours, and any two nonadjacent vertices have exactly $\mu$ common neighbours; we then say that $G$ is an $(n, t, \lambda, \mu)$-SRG. See [3] for more information. By [3, Proposition 1.4.1] we know that if $G$ is an $(n, t, \lambda, \mu)$-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 $q \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$, is a $(q,(q-1) / 2,(q-5) / 4,(q-1) / 4)-S R G$, 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 $i j$ 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 $H=\left(h_{i j}\right)$ with diagonal entries +1 and constant positive row sums $2 m$ (necessarily even when $n>1$ ), then $n=(2 m)^{2}=4 m^{2}$ and the graph $G$ with vertex set $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ and an edge ij (for $i \neq j)$ if and only if $h_{i j}=+1$ is a $\left(4 m^{2}, 2 m^{2}+m-1, m^{2}+m-2, m^{2}+m\right)-S R G$ [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 $4 \times 4$ RSHCD +

$$
H_{4}=\left(\begin{array}{rrrr}
1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \\
1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\
1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\
-1 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

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 $a$ $\left(2^{2 r}, 2^{2 r-1}+2^{r-1}-1,2^{2 r-2}+2^{r-1}-2,2^{2 r-2}+2^{r-1}\right)-S R G$ with vertex set $\{1,2,3,4\}^{r}$, where two different vertices $\left(i_{1}, \ldots, i_{r}\right)$ and $\left(j_{1}, \ldots, j_{r}\right)$ are adjacent if and only if the number of coordinates $\nu$ such that $i_{\nu}+j_{\nu}=5$ is even.

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

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

or, equivalently, $t \geq n-k$ and $2 \max \{\lambda+1, \mu-1\} \leq k+2 t-n-1$.
Proof: An immediate consequence of Theorem 7 , since $|N[x]|=t+1$ for every vertex $x$ and $\mid N[x] \triangle$ $N[y] \mid$ equals $2(t-\lambda-1)$ when $x \sim y$ and $2(t+1-\mu)$ when $x \nsim y, x \neq y$.

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 $\left(n_{0}, t, \lambda, \mu\right)$, then for every $i=$ $0, \ldots, n_{0}+1$ there exists a graph in $\mathfrak{G r}\left(n_{0}+i, k_{0}+i\right)$, where

$$
k_{0}=\max \left\{n_{0}-t, t, n_{0}-2 t+2 \lambda+3, n_{0}-2 t+2 \mu-1,2 t-2 \lambda-1,2 t-2 \mu+2\right\}
$$

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 $G_{0}=\left(V_{0}, E_{0}\right)$ is $\left(n_{0}, t, \lambda, \mu\right)$-SRG and build a graph $G_{i}$ in $\mathfrak{G r} \mathfrak{r}\left(n_{0}+i, k_{0}+i\right)$ from $G_{0}$ by adding suitable new vertices and edges.

If $1 \leq i \leq n_{0}$, choose $i$ different vertices $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{i}$ in $V_{0}$. Construct a new graph $G_{i}=\left(V_{i}, E_{i}\right)$ by taking $G_{0}$ and adding to it new vertices $x_{1}^{\prime}, x_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots, x_{i}^{\prime}$ and new edges $x_{j}^{\prime} y$ for $j \leq i$ and all $y \notin N_{G_{0}}\left(x_{j}\right)$.

First, $\operatorname{deg}_{G_{i}}(x) \geq \operatorname{deg}_{G_{0}}(x)=t$ for $x \in V_{0}$ and $\operatorname{deg}_{G_{i}}\left(x^{\prime}\right)=n_{0}-t$ for $x^{\prime} \in V_{i}^{\prime}=V_{i} \backslash V_{0}$. 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

$$
|N[x] \triangle N[y]| \geq\left|(N[x] \triangle N[y]) \cap V_{0}\right|=\left|N_{G_{0}}[x] \triangle N_{G_{0}}[y]\right|,
$$

which equals $2(t-\lambda-1)$ if $x \sim y$ and $2(t-\mu+1)$ if $x \nsim y$.
(ii) If $x \in V_{0}, y^{\prime} \in V_{i}^{\prime}$, then, since $\triangle$ is associative and commutative,

$$
\left|\left(N[x] \triangle N\left[y^{\prime}\right]\right) \cap V_{0}\right|=\mid\left(N _ { G _ { 0 } } [ x ] \triangle ( V _ { 0 } \triangle N _ { G _ { 0 } } ( y ) ) \left|=n_{0}-\left|N_{G_{0}}[x] \triangle N_{G_{0}}(y)\right|,\right.\right.
$$

which equals $n_{0}-1$ if $x=y, n_{0}-(2 t-2 \lambda-1)$ if $x \sim y$, and $n_{0}-(2 t-2 \mu+1)$ if $x \nsim y$ and $x \neq y$. If $x \sim y$, further, $\left|\left(N[x] \triangle N\left[y^{\prime}\right]\right) \cap V_{i}^{\prime}\right| \geq 1$, since $y^{\prime} \notin N[x]$.
(iii) If $x^{\prime}, y^{\prime} \in V_{i}^{\prime}$, with $x^{\prime} \neq y^{\prime}$, then

$$
\left|\left(N\left[x^{\prime}\right] \triangle N\left[y^{\prime}\right]\right) \cap V_{0}\right|=\left|\left(V_{0} \backslash N_{G_{0}}(x)\right) \triangle\left(V_{0} \backslash N_{G_{0}}(y)\right)\right|=\left|N_{G_{0}}(x) \triangle N_{G_{0}}(y)\right|,
$$

which equals $2(t-\lambda)$ if $x \sim y$ and $2(t-\mu)$ if $x \nsim y$. Further, $\left|\left(N\left[x^{\prime}\right] \triangle N\left[y^{\prime}\right]\right) \cap V_{i}^{\prime}\right|=\left|\left\{x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right\}\right|=2$.
Collecting these estimates, we see that $G_{i} \in \mathfrak{G r}\left(n_{0}+i, k_{0}+i\right)$ by Theorem 7 (or Corollary 8 with our choice of $k_{0}$. Note that $2 k_{0} \geq\left(n_{0}-2 t+2 \lambda+3\right)+(2 t-2 \lambda-1)=n_{0}+2 \geq 3$, so $k_{0} \geq 2$.
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 $G_{n_{0}+1} \in \mathfrak{G r}\left(2 n_{0}+1, k_{0}+n_{0}+1\right)$.

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 $q \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$.
(i) The Paley graph $P(q) \in \mathfrak{G r} \mathfrak{r}(q,(q+3) / 2)$.
(ii) There exists a graph in $\mathfrak{G r} \mathfrak{r}(q+i,(q+3) / 2+i)$ for all $i=0,1, \ldots, q+1$.

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

Corollary $26 \Xi(k) \geq 2 k-o(k)$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$.
Proof: Let $q=p^{2}$ where (for $k \geq 6$ ) $p$ is the largest prime such that $p \leq \sqrt{2 k-3}$. It follows from the prime number theorem that $p / \sqrt{2 k-3} \rightarrow 1$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$, and thus $q=2 k-o(k)$. Hence, if $k$ is large enough, then $k \leq q \leq 2 k-3$, and Theorem 25 shows that $P(q) \in \mathfrak{G r}(q,(q+3) / 2) \subseteq \mathfrak{G r}(q, k)$, so $\Xi(k) \geq q=2 k-o(k)$. (Alternatively, we may let $q$ be the largest prime such that $q \leq 2 k-3$ and $q \equiv 1$ $(\bmod 4)$ and use the prime number theorem for arithmetic progressions [8, Chapter 17] to see that then $q=2 k-o(k)$.

We turn to the strongly regular graphs constructed in Example 22 and find from Theorem 23 that they are in $\mathfrak{G r}\left(4 m^{2}, 2 m^{2}+1\right)$, 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 $\mathfrak{G r}(n, n / 2+1)$.

Corollary 28 There exist infinitely many integers $k$ such that $\Xi(k)=2 k-2$.
Proof: If $k=n / 2+1$ for an even $n$ such that there exists an $n \times n \operatorname{RSHCD}+$, then $\Xi(k) \geq n=2 k-2$ by Theorem 27 The opposite inequality is given by Theorem 17 By Example 22 this holds at least for $k=2^{2 r-1}+1$ for any $r \geq 1$.

## 5 On $\mathfrak{G r}(n, k, \ell)$

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

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

Trivially, the empty graph $E_{k} \in \mathfrak{G r}(k, k, \ell)$ for any $\ell \geq 1$; thus $\Xi(k, \ell) \geq \mathrm{k}$.
Note that a graph $G=(V, E)$ with $|V|=n$ admits a $(1, \leq \ell)$-identifying set $\Longleftrightarrow V$ is $(1, \leq \ell)$ identifying $\Longleftrightarrow G \in \mathfrak{G r} \mathfrak{r}(n, n, \ell)$.
Theorem 29 Suppose that $G=(V, E) \in \mathfrak{G r}(n, k, \ell)$, where $n>k$ and $\ell \geq 2$. Then the following conditions hold:
(i) For all $x \in V$ we have $\ell+1<n-k+\ell+1 \leq|N[x]| \leq k-\ell$. In other words, $\delta_{G} \geq n-k+\ell$ and $\Delta_{G} \leq k-\ell-1$.
(ii) For all $x, y \in V, x \neq y,|N[x] \cap N[y]| \leq k-2 \ell+1$.
(iii) $n \leq 2 k-2 \ell-1$ and $k \geq 2 \ell+2$.

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

Suppose then $|N[x]| \geq k-\ell+1$. If $|N[x]| \geq k$, 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 $k>|N[x]| \geq k-\ell+1$, we can choose a $k$-subset $C=N[x] \cup\left\{c_{1}, \ldots, c_{k-|N[x]|}\right\}$. Choose also $a \in N\left(c_{1}\right)$ (which is possible because $\operatorname{deg}\left(c_{1}\right) \geq 1$ by (i)). Now $I\left(C ; x, c_{1}, \ldots, c_{k-|N[x]|}\right)=C=I\left(C ; x, a, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{k-|N[x]|}\right)$, 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 $A=N(y) \backslash N[x]$. Then, according to (i), $|A| \leq|N[y] \backslash N[x]|=|N[y]|-|N[x] \cap N[y]| \leq$ $k-\ell-(k-2 \ell+2)=\ell-2$. Since $k>\ell-2$ by (i), there is a $k$-subset $C \subseteq V \backslash\{y\}$ such that $A \subset C$. Then $I(C ; A \cup\{x, y\})=I(C ; A \cup\{x\})$, a contradiction.
(iii) An immediate consequence of (i), which implies $n-k+\ell+1 \leq k-\ell$ and $\ell+1<k-\ell$.

Theorem 30 For $\ell \geq 2$, $\Xi(k, \ell) \leq \max \left\{\frac{\ell}{\ell-1}(k-2), k\right\}$.

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

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

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, $M \geq(n-k+2)\left(n-k+3-\lambda_{x}\right)$. On the other hand, again by Theorem 29 (i), $\left|S_{2}(x)\right| \leq n-|N[x]| \leq k-3$. 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 $C=(N[x] \cap N[z]) \cup$ $(V \backslash N[x])$. 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),

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

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

Theorem 33 If $k \leq 5$, then $\Xi(k, 2)=k$. If $k \geq 6$, 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 $k \geq 6$ by Theorem 29 (iii); hence $n=k$ when $k \leq 5$. Further, still assuming $n>k$, Lemma 32 yields

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

or

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

Hence, $n-\left(m+\frac{1}{4}\right)<m / \sqrt{2}$.
Corollary 34 For $\ell=2$, we have $\Xi(k, 2) / k \leq 1+\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$.
Problem 35 What is $\lim \sup _{k \rightarrow \infty} \Xi(k, \ell) / k$ for $\ell \geq 2$ ? In particular, is $\lim \sup _{k \rightarrow \infty} \Xi(k, \ell) / k>1$ ?
The following theorem implies that for any $\ell \geq 2$ there exist graphs in $\mathfrak{G r}(n, k, \ell)$ 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 $\mathfrak{G r}\left(2^{m}, 2^{m}-m+2 \ell-2, \ell\right)$.

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 $\left(2^{m}-m+2\right)-$ 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 $|I(x)| \geq 5$, then any two vertices $z, w \neq x$ 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 $|N[x] \backslash C|=|N[x]|-|I(x)|=m-3$, all except one vertex, say $v$, of $V \backslash C$ belong to $N[x]$, so $V \backslash N[x] \subseteq C \cup\{v\}$; 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 $N[z] \backslash N[x] \subseteq C$, whence $N[z] \backslash N[x] \subseteq I(z) \backslash I(x)$. Hence, $|I(z) \cap I(y)| \geq|I(z) \backslash I(x)| \geq|N[z] \backslash N[x]|=|N[z]|-$ $|N[z] \cap N[x]|=m+1-2 \geq 3$. Thus $y=z$; however, then $I(y) \cap I(w)=I(z) \cap I(w)=\emptyset$ and since $I(w) \nsubseteq I(x)$, we have $I(w) \nsubseteq I(x, y)$.

Suppose finally that $|I(x)|=3$; w.l.o.g. we may assume $|I(z) \cap I(x)|=2$. Now $|N[x] \backslash C|=$ $|N[x]|-|I(x)|=m-2=|V \backslash C|$, and thus $V \backslash C=N[x] \backslash C \subseteq N[x]$; hence, $V \backslash N[x] \subseteq C$ and thus
$N[z] \backslash N[x] \subseteq I(z) \backslash I(x)$. Consequently, $|I(z) \cap I(y)| \geq|I(z) \backslash I(x)| \geq|N[z] \backslash N[x]| \geq m+1-2 \geq 3$, and thus $z=y$. But similarly $N[w] \backslash N[x] \subseteq I(w) \backslash I(x)$ 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 $(1, \leq \ell)$-identifying set has minimum degree at least $\ell$. Hence, always $n \geq \ell+1$.

In [7] and [12] it has been proven that there exist connected graphs which admit $(1, \leq \ell)$-identifying sets. For example, the smallest known connected graph admitting a $(1, \leq 3)$-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 $(1, \leq 2)$-identifying sets.

Theorem 37 The smallest $n \geq 3$ such that there exists a connected graph (or a graph without isolated vertices) in $\mathfrak{G r}(n, n, 2)$ is $n=7$.
(If we allow isolated vertices, we can trivially take the empty graph $E_{n}$ for any $n \geq 2$.)
Proof: The cycle $C_{n} \in \mathfrak{G r}(n, n, 2)$ for $n \geq 7$ by Example 3 (ii) (see also [12]).
Assume that $G=(V, E) \in \mathfrak{G r}(n, n, 2)$ 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 $\operatorname{deg}(v) \geq 2$ 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 $\mathfrak{G r}(n, n, 1)$.

Hence, $G$ is connected. Let $x, y \in V$ be such that $d(x, y)=\operatorname{diam}(G)$.
(i) Suppose that $\operatorname{diam}(G)=1$, 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 $\operatorname{diam}(G)=2$. 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 $\operatorname{deg}(y) \geq 2$, there exist two vertices $w_{1}, w_{2} \in$ $N(y) \cap N(x)$, but then $N\left[x, w_{1}\right]=N\left[x, w_{2}\right]$.

Assume next $|N(x)|=3$, say $N(x)=\left\{u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}\right\}$. Then $\left|S_{2}(x)\right|=n-|N[x]| \leq 2$. Since the four sets $N[x]$ and $N\left[x, u_{i}\right], i=1,2,3$, must be distinct, we can assume without loss of generality that $\left|S_{2}(x)\right|=2$, say $S_{2}(x)=\{y, w\}$, and that the only edges between the elements in $S_{2}(x)$ and $N(x)$ are $u_{1} y, u_{2} w, u_{3} y$ and $u_{3} w$. Then $N\left[x, u_{3}\right]=N\left[y, u_{2}\right]$.

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 $C_{n} \notin \mathfrak{G r}(n, n, 2)$ for $3 \leq n \leq 6$.
(iii) Suppose that $\operatorname{diam}(G)=3$. Clearly $|N(x)| \geq 2$ and $\left|S_{2}(x)\right| \geq 1$. If $\left|S_{2}(x)\right|=1$, 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 $\left|S_{2}(x)\right|=$ 2, say $N(x)=\left\{u_{1}, u_{2}\right\}$ and $S_{2}(x)=\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}\right\}$. We can assume without loss of generality that $u_{1} w_{1} \in E$. If $w_{2} u_{2} \in E$, then $N\left[w_{1}, u_{2}\right]=N[x, y]$. If $w_{2} u_{2} \notin E$, then $N\left[w_{1}, w_{2}\right]=N\left[w_{1}\right]$.
(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 $1 \leq k \leq 20$. The lower bounds come from the examples given in the last column; for $n \geq 8$ using Theorem 23, 25 or 27 or Lemma 10 The strongly regular graphs used here can be found from [5]. The upper bounds for $k \geq 7$ 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. $14 . \mathrm{Th} 17$, | $C_{4}, S_{4}$ |
| 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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[^0]:    ${ }^{(i)}$ Emails: Sylvain.Gravier@ujf-grenoble.fr, svante.janson@math.uu.se, terolai@utu.fi, samano@utu.fi

