

Bounds and Exact Values of the Rainbow- k Domination Number for Selected Graph Families

Gdańsk Conference on Graph Theory 2026

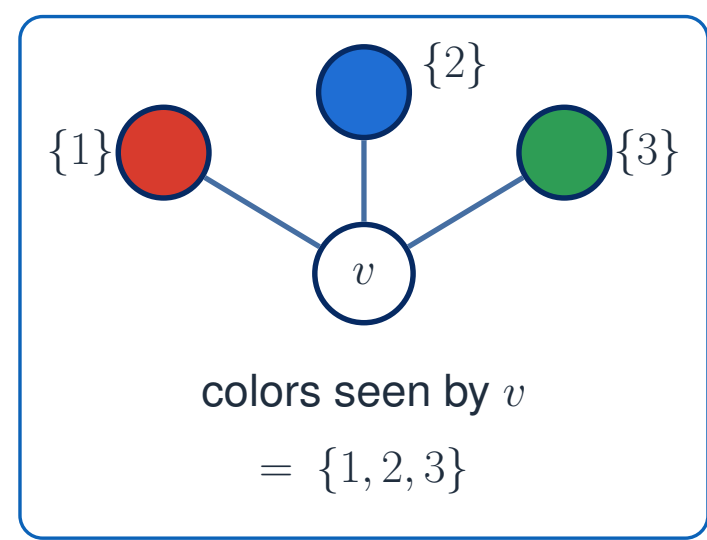
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A simple local rule – every uncolored vertex must see all k colors – produces rigid global behaviour on structured graph families.

1. Rainbow- k domination



Let G be a finite simple graph and let $k \geq 1$. We define a **rainbow- k dominating function** as

$$f : V(G) \longrightarrow \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \dots, \{k\}\}$$

such that every uncolored vertex sees all colors:

$$f(v) = \emptyset \implies \bigcup_{u \in N(v)} f(u) = \{1, 2, \dots, k\}.$$

Other names: Rainbow- k domination was called *singleton t -rainbow domination* in some works.

Relation to k -rainbow domination: In rainbow- k domination, each colored vertex carries *exactly one* color. This differs from classical k -rainbow domination [1], where one vertex may carry several colors.

The weight is the number of colored vertices,

$$w(f) = |\{v \in V(G) : f(v) \neq \emptyset\}|,$$

and the parameter studied here is

$$\gamma_k(G) = \min_f w(f).$$

• {1} • {2} • {3} • $\emptyset$

2. General bounds for regular graphs

For an r -regular graph G of order n and $1 \leq k \leq r$:

Degree lower bound

$$\gamma_k(G) \geq \left\lceil \frac{kn}{k+r} \right\rceil.$$

Sparse induced-subgraph bound

Let $\alpha_s(G)$ be the maximum order of an induced subgraph of maximum degree at most s . Then

$$\gamma_k(G) \geq n - \alpha_{r-k}(G).$$

Probabilistic upper bound

$$\gamma_k(G) \leq n \cdot \min \left\{ 1, \frac{k(\ln r + 1)}{r} \right\}.$$

The first bound is local and degree-based, in the spirit of regular rainbow-domination estimates [3]. The second also records how large the uncolored induced subgraph may be. The upper bound comes from a probabilistic alteration argument [4,5].

3. The $\frac{n}{2}$ extremal case

For an r -regular graph G of order n , the lower bound gives $\gamma_r(G) \geq \frac{n}{2}$.

Equality characterization

$$\gamma_r(G) = \frac{n}{2}$$

if and only if $V(G)$ has a bipartition (U, C) and

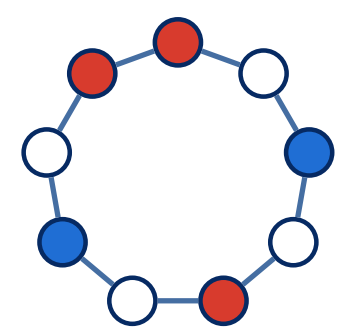
$$C = C_1 \dot{\cup} C_2 \dot{\cup} \dots \dot{\cup} C_r$$

such that every uncolored-side vertex sees exactly one neighbor of each color:

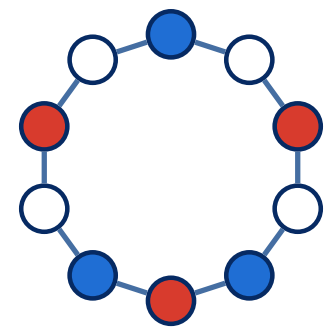
$$|N(u) \cap C_i| = 1 \quad (u \in U, i = 1, \dots, r).$$

For cubic graphs this forces $6 \mid n$ and three equally sized color classes. This rigidity is the structural reason why the presented formulas depend on congruence classes.

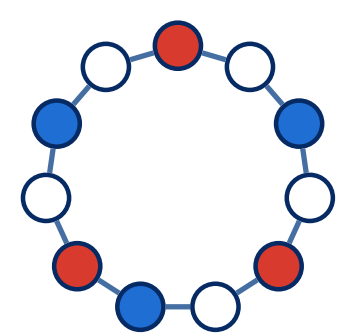
4. Warm-up: cycles



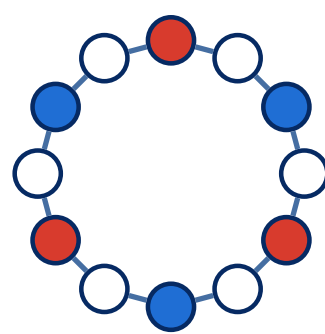
$$\gamma_2(C_9) = 5$$



$$\gamma_2(C_{10}) = 6$$



$$\gamma_2(C_{11}) = 6$$



$$\gamma_2(C_{12}) = 6$$

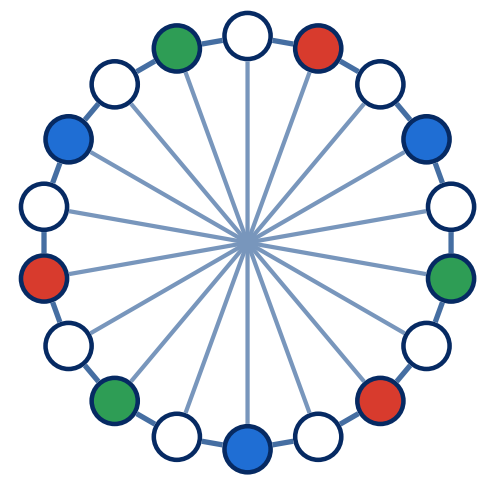
For every cycle C_n , $n \geq 3$, with the case $k = 1$ corresponding to ordinary domination [2],

$$\gamma_k(C_n) = \begin{cases} \left\lceil \frac{n}{3} \right\rceil, & k = 1, \\ \frac{n}{2}, & k = 2, n \equiv 0 \pmod{4}, \\ \left\lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rceil, & k = 2, n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{4}, \\ n, & k \geq 3. \end{cases}$$

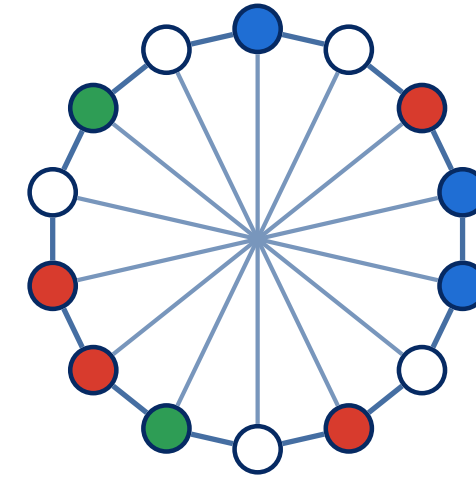
The four drawings show the $k = 2$ pattern around the transition from odd cycles to the half-colorable case C_{12} .

5. An exact family: Möbius ladders

The Möbius ladder M_n is obtained from a cycle by adding opposite chords $v_i v_{i+n/2}$.



$$n \equiv 6 \pmod{12}: \gamma_3(M_{18}) = 9 = n/2$$



$$n \equiv 2 \pmod{12}: \gamma_3(M_{14}) = 9 = n/2 + 2$$

Exact formula for $\gamma_3(M_n)$

For every even $n \geq 4$,

$$\gamma_3(M_n) = \begin{cases} \frac{n}{2}, & n \equiv 6 \pmod{12}, \\ \frac{n}{2} + 1, & n \equiv 0, 4, 8 \pmod{12}, \\ \frac{n}{2} + 2, & n \equiv 2, 10 \pmod{12}. \end{cases}$$

Why modulo 12 appears

In a cubic graph, $\gamma_3(G) \geq \lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil$. Equality is rigid: the graph must admit a bipartition (U, C) and a partition

$$C = C_1 \dot{\cup} C_2 \dot{\cup} C_3$$

such that every $u \in U$ has exactly one neighbor in each C_i .

For M_n , this occurs only when the ladder-chord parity and divisibility conditions fit together:

$$n \equiv 6 \pmod{12}.$$

Equality construction: If $n = 12d + 6$, color all odd vertices and leave all even vertices uncolored:

$$f(v_i) = \begin{cases} \emptyset, & i \equiv 0 \pmod{2}, \\ \{1\}, & i \equiv 1 \pmod{6}, \\ \{2\}, & i \equiv 3 \pmod{6}, \\ \{3\}, & i \equiv 5 \pmod{6}. \end{cases}$$

The case M_{14} shows the $n \equiv 2 \pmod{12}$ residue, where two extra colored vertices are needed.

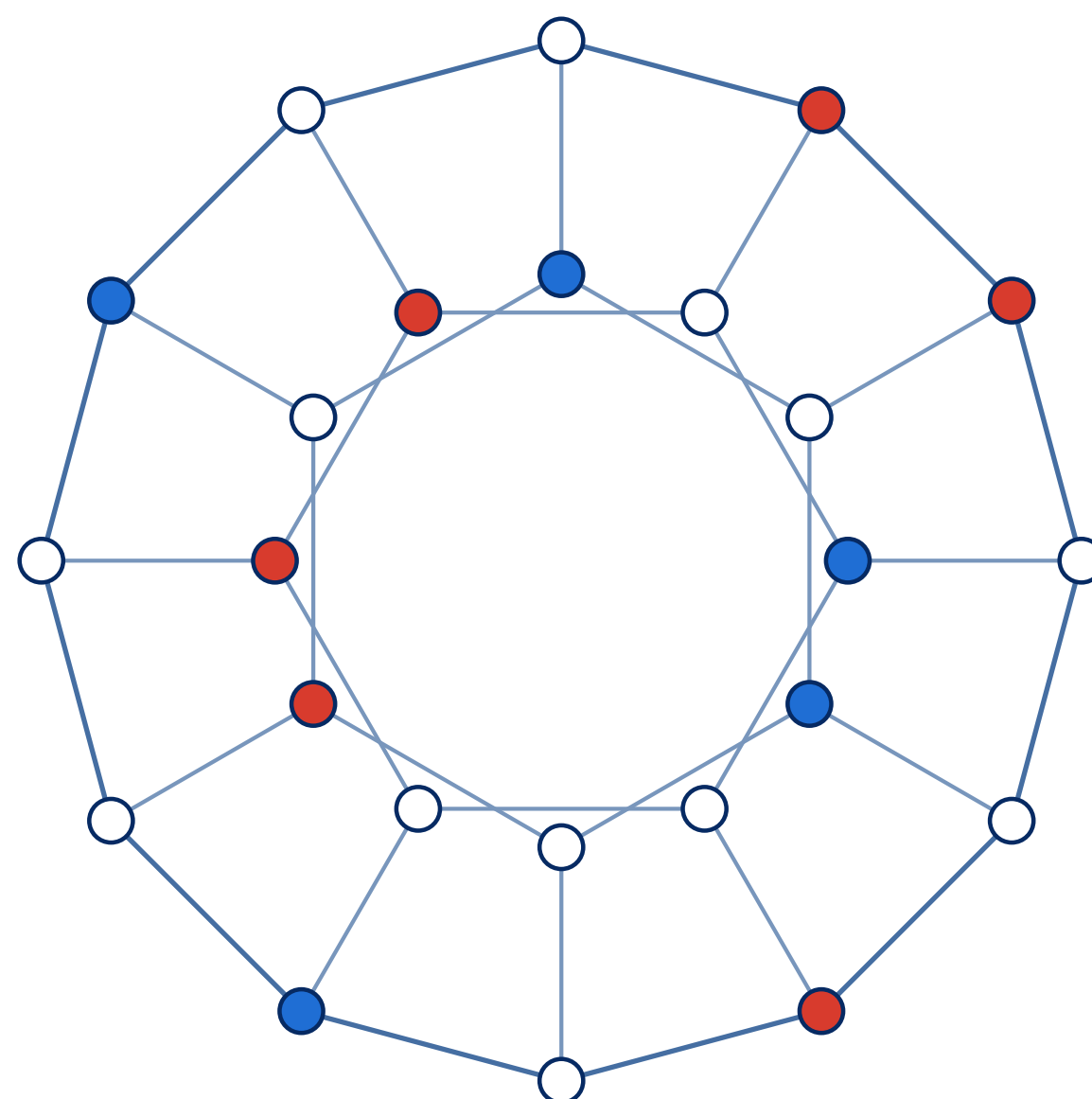
6. Generalized Petersen graphs $P(6t, t)$

Recall that a generalized Petersen graph $P(d, e)$ has

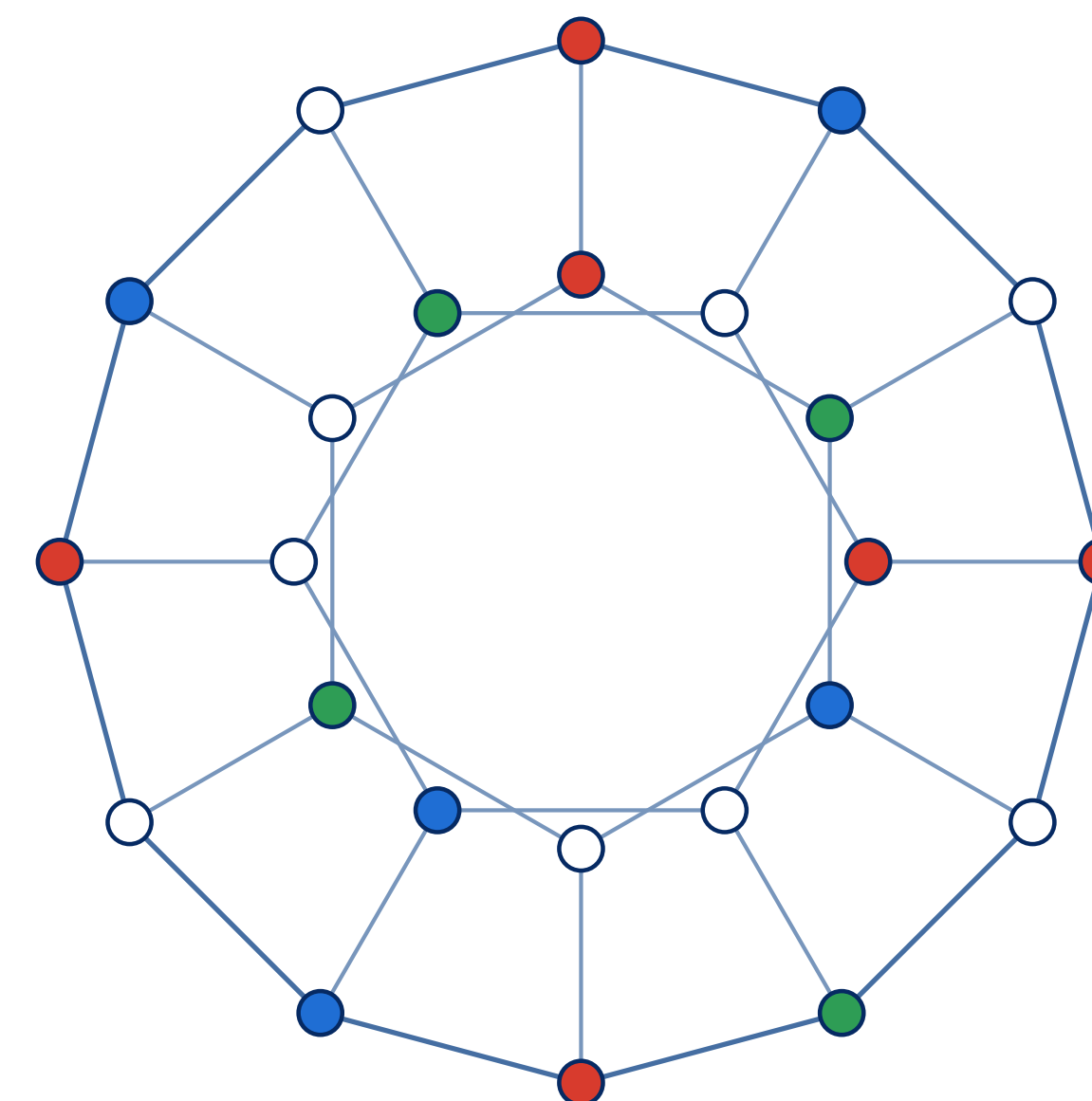
$$V = \{u_0, \dots, u_{d-1}, v_0, \dots, v_{d-1}\},$$

with outer edges $u_i u_{i+1}$, spokes $u_i v_i$, and inner edges $v_i v_{i+e}$.

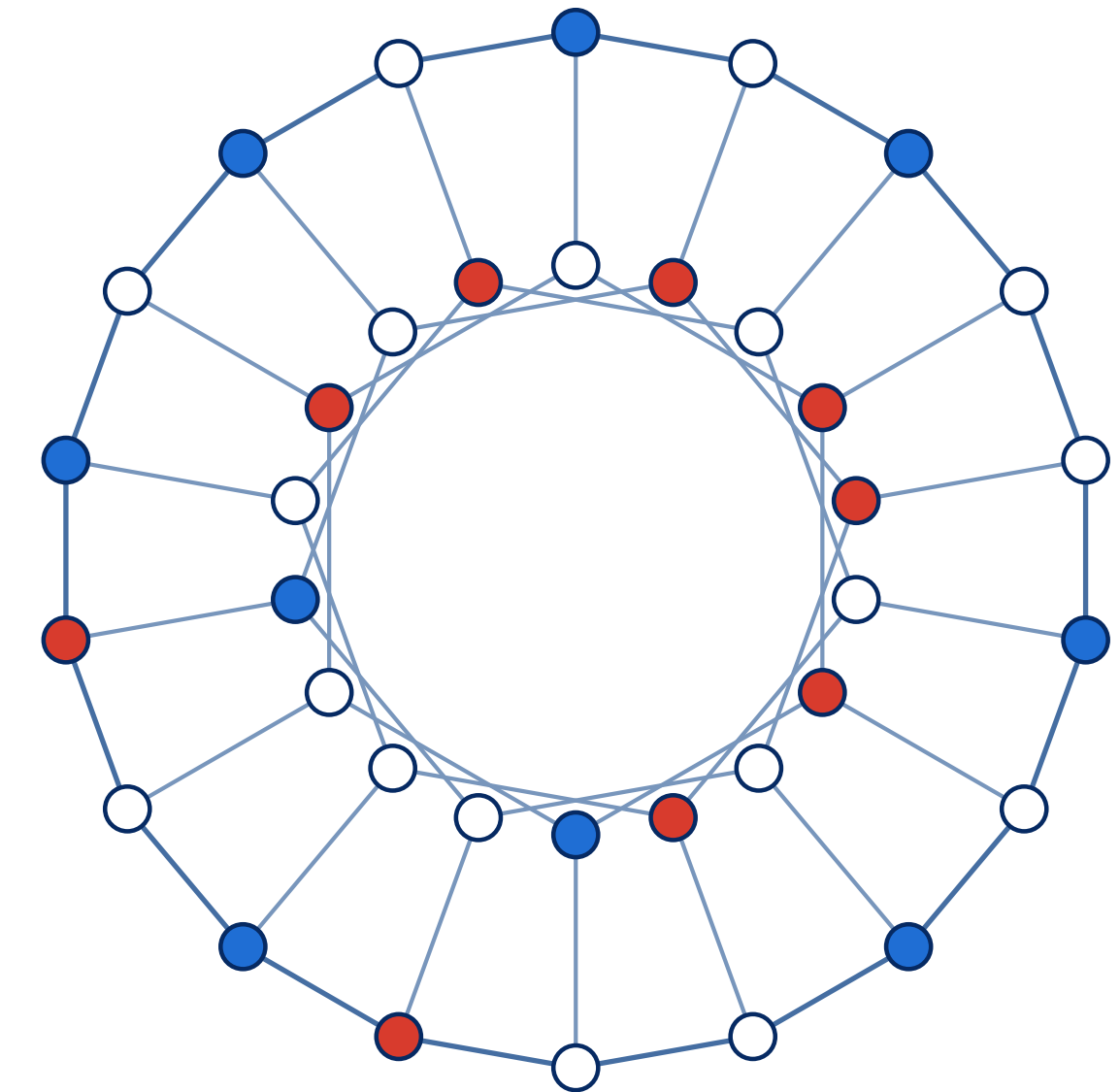
Previous results on rainbow domination in generalized Petersen graphs provide the baseline for our exact values and conjectures [6–8].



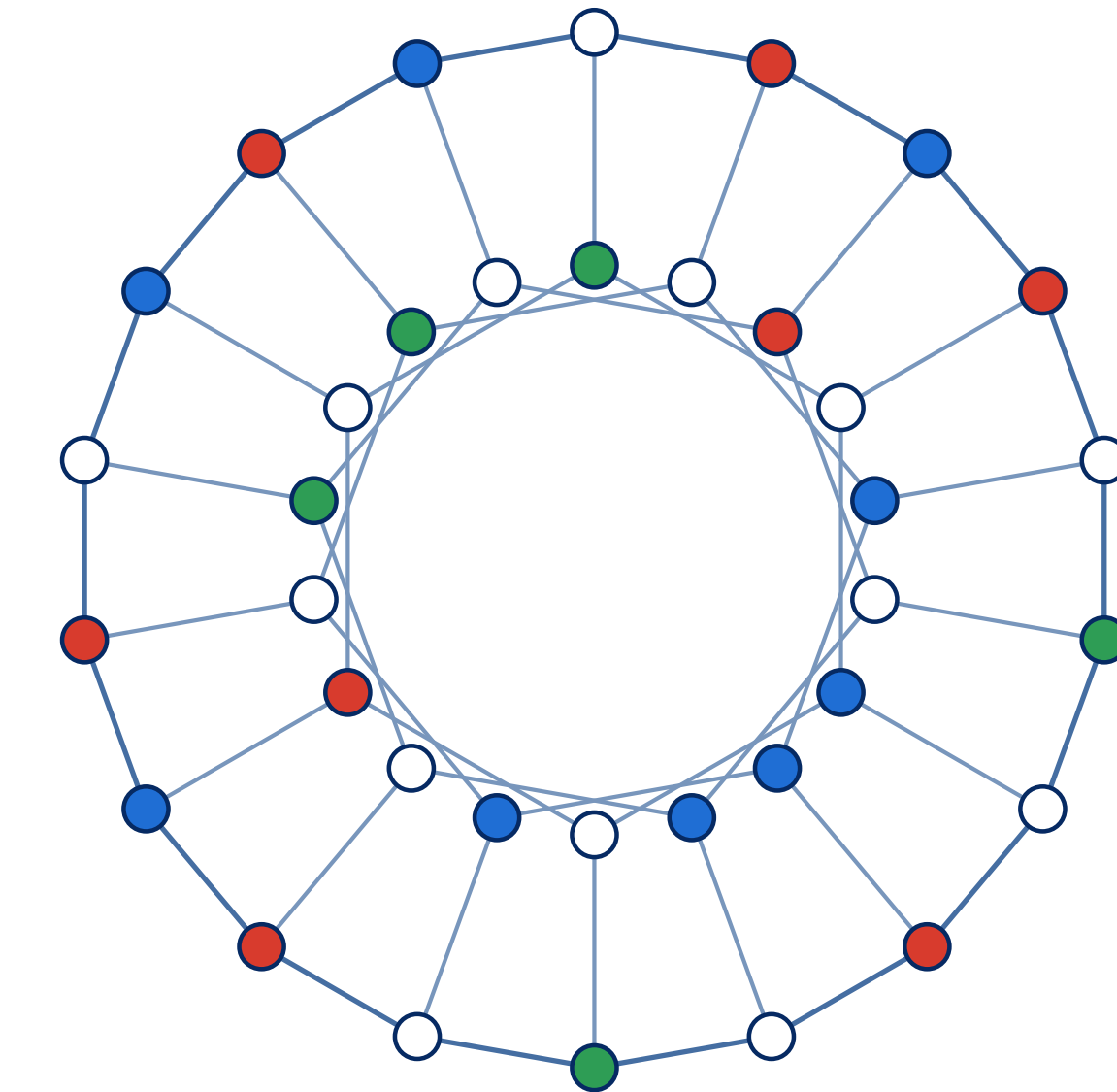
$$\gamma_2(P(12, 2)) = 11$$



$$\gamma_3(P(12, 2)) = 15$$

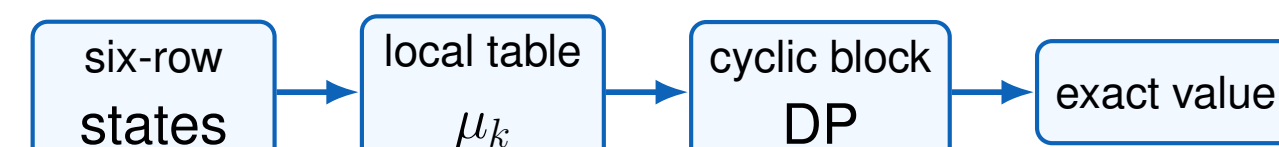


$$\gamma_2(P(18, 3)) = 18$$



$$\gamma_3(P(18, 3)) = 22$$

For $P(6t, t)$, the six-row block structure gives an exact finite-state dynamic program.



If k is the number of colors and $S = (k+1)^6$, the dynamic program runs in

$$O(n \cdot S^5),$$

so for every fixed k it is linear in the number of vertices.

7. Computations and conjectures

The exact dynamic program is practical for $k = 2$. For $k = 3$, evidence was obtained by integer linear programming. The conjectures below sharpen the known generalized Petersen results [6–8].

Conjecture for two colors

For every integer $t \geq 2$,

$$\gamma_2(P(6t, t)) = \begin{cases} 18, & t = 3, \\ 5t + 1 + \left\lfloor \frac{t}{8} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{t+5}{8} \right\rfloor, & t \neq 3. \end{cases}$$

Conjecture for three colors

For every integer $t \geq 2$,

$$\gamma_3(P(6t, t)) = \begin{cases} 22, & t = 3, \\ 6t, & t \equiv 1, 5 \pmod{6}, \\ 6t + 3, & t \equiv 0, 2, 4 \pmod{6}, \\ 6t + 6, & t \equiv 3 \pmod{6} \text{ and } t \geq 9. \end{cases}$$

8. Open problems

- Proving the conjectural formulas for $P(6t, t)$.
- Extending the block-DP approach to broader generalized Petersen families $P(ct, t)$.
- Studying other graph families, including 4- and 5-regular graphs.

9. Conclusion

Rainbow- k domination is locally simple but globally rigid.

The restriction that each vertex may host at most one color turns neighborhood coverage into a strong structural constraint. On cycles, Möbius ladders, and generalized Petersen graphs, this produces exact formulas, modular phenomena, and specialized dynamic programming algorithms.

Acknowledgement

This work has been supported by the European Commission's Horizon Europe Research and Innovation programme through the Marie Skłodowska-Curie Actions Staff Exchanges (MSCA-SE) under Grant Agreement no. 101182819, COVER: *Combinatorial Optimization for Versatile Applications to Emerging Urban Problems*.

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